THE CORE IDEAS IN OUR TEACHING

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What will our students remember? One answer comes quickly but it is a counsel of despair: *nothing at all*. At the other extreme is an impossible hope that we all cherish: *everything we say*. Let me look for an intermediate answer, closer to reality, possibly by changing the question.

I have come to believe that each course has a central core. We may not see it ourselves, when we teach a new topic every day. For the calculus course, I won't even venture an answer: at least not here. My examples will be differential equations and linear algebra, because writing a textbook forced me to uncover (painfully slowly!) the underlying structure of the course.

May I begin with linear algebra. The ideas of a vector space and a basis for that space are central. We have a serious job to help students understand these words. The building blocks are "linear combinations" and "linear independence". We certainly need good examples, and good bases for them. I think it is here that the course becomes coherent—or it can scatter into unconnected examples of isolated ideas.

I will start with a matrix A. A more abstract person would start from a linear transformation. But we are aiming for a basis; we are choosing coordinates; they bring us to a matrix. There are four fundamental subspaces associated with that matrix:

1.	Its nullspace $\mathbf{N}(A)$ (the kernel)	dimension	n-r
2.	Its column space $\mathbf{C}(A)$ (the range)		r
3.	Its row space, which is $\mathbf{C}(A^T)$		r
4.	The nullspace $\mathbf{N}(A^T)$ of the transpose		m-r

These are the spaces that we want students to remember. I draw them as often as possible (two in \mathbb{R}^n and two in \mathbb{R}^m). I count their basis vectors to find their dimension: the first big theorems in linear algebra. The rank r determines all dimensions. I propose multiple choices of A—the beauty of this subject is in the wonderful variety of matrices. And I connect the four subspaces to factorizations of A, which are really choices of bases that lie at the absolute center of pure and applied linear algebra.

The bases in U and Q and S and V become increasingly perfect.

$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{U}$	Elimination gives an echelon basis for the row space
$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{R}$	Gram-Schmidt gives an orthonormal basis for $\mathbf{C}(A)$
$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{S} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{S}^{-1}$	Eigenvectors give a basis in which A is diagonal
$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{T}}$	Orthonormal bases in the columns of U and V .

We are constantly constructing bases for the fundamental subspaces. Elimination and Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization end after finitely many steps. Diagonalization by eigenvectors is deeper and better, but A must be square and nondefective. The Singular Value Decomposition produces perfect bases v_i and u_i for all four subspaces – orthonormal and also diagonalizing for every matrix A:

$$Av_i = \sigma_i u_i \ (i \le r)$$
 $Av_i = 0 \text{ and } A^T u_i = 0 \ (i > r)$

The success of the SVD comes from the spectral theorem for symmetric matrices: $A^T A$ has a full set of orthonormal eigenvectors v_i . Beautifully, the u_i turn out to be orthonormal eigenvectors of AA^T . This can be a highlight for the last day of a linear algebra course.

For an earlier day, one idea is to ask students to "read" a few matrices:

$\cos \theta$	$-\sin\theta$	1	0	-1	1	0	
$\sin \theta$	$\cos heta$	0	0	0	-1	1	

The rotation is familiar, the projection is almost too easy. The difference matrix is also the incidence matrix for a simple graph (three nodes in a line). Incidence matrices of a larger graph are terrific examples – all four subspaces have a meaning.

May I turn from subspaces to the basic course on differential equations. Part of this course is a collection of methods to solve separable equations, exact equations, logistic equations $y' = ay - by^2$, and more. We go forward to systems of equations, and test nonlinear equations for stability. But the coherent part (the central problem) is to solve **linear equations with constant coefficients**. How can we present their solutions?

I believe we have to answer this question. It is the ODE equivalent of solving Ax = 0 and Ax = b and $Ax = \lambda x$. It certainly rests on the most important functions in this course: *exponentials* e^{st} and $e^{\lambda t}$. By working with exponentials, we (almost) turn the differential equation into algebra.

Start with the simplest right hand sides f(t) = 0 and e^{st} .

$$Ay'' + By' + Cy = 0 \qquad Ay'' + By' + Cy = e^{st}$$

The key idea is to expect solutions $y = Ge^{st}$:

$$G(As^{2} + Bs + C)e^{st} = 0$$
 $G(As^{2} + Bs + C)e^{st} = e^{st}$.

On the left, two values of s are allowed: the roots s_1 and s_2 of $As^2 + Bs + C = 0$. On the right, any s is allowed (and the possibilities $s_1 = s_2$ and $s = s_1$ and $s = s_1 = s_2$ need special attention). Normally we have

$$y_n = y_{\text{nullspace}} = c_1 e^{s_1 t} + c_2 e^{s_2 t}$$
$$y_p = y_{\text{particular}} = G(s) e^{st} = \frac{1}{As^2 + Bs + C} e^{st}.$$

Those two parts of y(t) connect linear differential equations to linear algebra. The complete solution combines all y_n with one y_p . Linearity is in control and the consequence is $y = y_n + y_p$.

I apologize for asking you to read what you know so well. The simplicity of $y = Ge^{st}$ has to be recognized and remembered. This is where calculus meets algebra. G is the prime example of an undetermined coefficient (determined by the equation). An elementary course could continue as far as $f(t) = e^{i\omega t}$ and $\cos \omega t$ and $\sin \omega t$ and stop. The serious question is to solve the differential equation for all f(t).

I see two instructive ways to reach y(t). Both begin with special right hand sides, and combine the solutions. The combination has to be an integral and not just a finite sum: calculus is needed now. Here are the good options:

- 1. Combine exponentials e^{st} with weights F(s) to get f(t). By linearity, the solution y(t) will combine the exponentials $F(s)G(s)e^{st}$.
- 2. Combine impulses $\delta(t-s)$ with weights f(s) to get f(t). By linearity, the solution y(t) will combine the impulse responses f(s)g(t-s).

Where e^{st} is localized at frequency s, the delta function $\delta(t-s)$ is completely localized at time s.

Method **1** uses the Laplace transform. The transform of f(t) gives the right weights F(s):

F(s) = transform of f(t) y(t) = inverse transform of $F(s)G(s)e^{st}$.

For each s, that solution $F(s) G(s) e^{st}$ is easy. The hard part is the *inverse* Laplace transform, to combine those solutions into y(t).

Realistically, we know a very limited number of transform pairs. Method 1 almost limits us to the same short list as before: f can combine $e^{(a+i\omega)t}$, $\cos \omega t$, $\sin \omega t$, t, and their products. This is a space of functions whose derivatives stay in the space. You can guess that I am advocating Method 2. It begins with an impulse $\delta(t)$:

(1)
$$Ag'' + Bg' + Cg = \delta(t)$$
 with $g(0) = 0$ and $g'(0) = 0$.

Introducing that delta function is a good thing! We are finding the fundamental solution g(t)—the Green's function, the growth factor, the impulse response. This is a high point in the course. And it is easy to do, because this same g(t) also solves the homogeneous equation:

(2)
$$Ag'' + Bg' + Cg = 0$$
 with $g(0) = 0$ and $g'(0) = 1/A$.

The solution must have the form $g(t) = c_1 e^{s_1 t} + c_2 e^{s_2 t}$. The two initial conditions give c_1 and c_2 and a neat formula for g(t):

(3)
$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{t}) = \frac{\mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{s_1t}} - \mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{s_2t}}}{\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{s_1} - \mathbf{s_2})} \qquad \left(\text{or } g(t) = \frac{te^{s_1t}}{A} \text{ when } s_1 = s_2 \right)$$

Then the original equation, with any right side f(t), is solved by

(4)
$$y_{\text{particular}}(t) = \int_0^t g(t-s) f(s) \, ds$$

Discussion In coming quickly to the formula for y(t), I have left multiple loose ends. Let me go backwards more slowly, as we would certainly do in a classroom. Methods **1** and **2** are closely connected. The Laplace transform of $\delta(t)$ is 1. Then equation (1) transforms to

(5)
$$(As^2 + Bs + C) G(s) = 1.$$

The transfer function $G(s) = 1/(As^2 + Bs + C)$ is the Laplace transform of the impulse response g(t). These functions can be written in terms of A, B, C or s_1 or s_2 . A lot of effort has gone into choosing good parameters! The damping ratio $B/\sqrt{4AC}$ and the natural frequency $\sqrt{C/A}$ are two of the best.

We must also explain why equations (1) and (2) have the same solution g(t). Mechanically, this comes from partial fractions:

$$\frac{1}{As^2 + Bs + C} = \frac{1}{A(s-s_1)(s-s_2)} = \frac{1}{A(s_1 - s_2)} \left(\frac{1}{s-s_1} - \frac{1}{s-s_2}\right)$$

The inverse Laplace transform confirms that $e^{s_1 t}$ and $e^{s_2 t}$ go into g(t).

Here is a truly "mechanical" explanation of (1) = (2). A bat hits a ball at t = 0. The velocity jumps instantly to g'(0) = 1/A. This comes from integrating $Ag'' + Bg' + Cg = \delta(t)$ from t = 0 to t = h. The left side produces the jump in Ag' and the integral of $\delta(t)$ is 1. The other terms disappear as $h \to 0$, leaving Ag'(0) = 1.

In working with $\delta(t)$, some faith is needed. It is worth developing and it is not misplaced. A delta function is an extremely useful model. So is its integral the step function, which turns on a switch at t = 0. By linearity, the step response is the integral of g(t).

Finally, let me connect Method 1 directly to Method 2. In the first method, the Laplace transform of y(t) is F(s) G(s). In the second method, y(t) is the *convolution* of f(t) with g(t). The connection is the Convolution Rule: The transform of a convolution f(t) * g(t) is a multiplication F(s) G(s).

In the language of signal processing, any constant coefficient linear equation can be solved in the "s-domain" or the "t-domain." The poles s_1, s_2 of the transfer function $G(s) = 1/(As^2 + Bs + C)$ control the behavior of y(t): oscillation, decay, or instability. The whole course develops out of the quadratic formula for those roots s_1 and s_2 .

Note The actual course would start with **first order equations**:

$$y' - ay = 0 \qquad y' - ay = e^{st}$$

The null solutions are $y_n = ce^{at}$. The particular solution is $y_p = e^{st}/(s-a)$. The transfer function is G(s) = 1/(s-a). The fundamental solution (impulse response, growth factor, Green's function) solves

$$g' - ag = \delta(t) \quad \text{with} \quad g(0) = 0$$

$$g' - ag = 0 \quad \text{with} \quad g(0) = 1$$

This function is simply $\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{at}}$. At this early point it doesn't need all those names! We recognize it as 1/(integrating factor). Its Laplace transform is G(s) = 1/(s-a). For systems y' = Ay we have the matrix

exponential $\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{At}}$. The solution $y_n + y_p$ for any right hand side f(t) and initial condition y(0) is

(6)
$$y(t) = y(0)e^{at} + \int_0^t e^{a(t-s)} f(s) \, ds.$$

The input f(s) at time s grows in the remaining time t-s by the factor $e^{a(t-s)}$. The solution y(t) (the integral) combines all of these outputs $e^{a(t-s)} f(s)$.

That single paragraph translates into weeks of teaching, even without $\delta(t)$. Perhaps first order equations with constant coefficients might be the one topic that is understood and remembered ? I don't like to think so, because a teacher has to remain an optimist.

I plan to prepare video lectures going at a normal pace, and linked to http://math.mit.edu/dela. That website has much more about differential equations and linear algebra and a new textbook for those courses.