

(b) Suppose
$$f(x) = f(x)$$
. Define $g(x) = \int_{0}^{x} f(s) ds$. Then:
 $g(-x) = \int_{0}^{-x} f(s) ds = -\int_{-x}^{\infty} f(s) ds = \int_{x}^{\infty} f(-t) dt$
 $= -\int_{0}^{x} f(-t) dt = -\int_{0}^{x} f(t) dt = -g(x)$

Section 5.2 Q10: (a) Let \$\$ (b) be cont. on (0,l). Under what conditions is its odd extension also a cort. function? (b) Let \$\$ (b) be a differentiable function on (0,l). Under what conditions is its odd extension also a differentiable function? (c) Same as (b) for even.

First let's see graphically how an odd/aren extension books like:



(a) We have to require continuity at x=0. So we need the limits from the left and the right to agree: $\lim_{E \to 0} \phi(0+E) = \lim_{E \to 0} \phi(0-E) = \lim_{E \to 0} -\phi(0+E)$ The we require from deness So we require that $\phi(0+) = -\phi(0-)$ $\lim_{E \to 0} \lim_{E \to$

(b) We need for
$$\phi$$
 to be continuous (i.e. $\phi(0)=0$ from (a))
but we also need the derivatives from the right and left
at 0 to equal one another.

$$\lim_{E \to 0} \frac{\phi(0+2) - \overline{\phi(0)}}{E} = \lim_{E \to 0} \frac{\overline{\phi(0)} - \overline{\phi(0-E)}}{E} = \lim_{E \to 0} \frac{\overline{\phi(0)}}{E}$$

which is a tautology. So there's

no condition to impose.

(c) We require:
$$\phi(0+) = \phi(0-)$$

This will always hold, since ϕ is assured to
be continuous, be that $\phi(0+) = \phi(0-) = \phi(0)$.
So there's no condition ϕ impose.
(d) We require: $\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{\phi(0+\varepsilon) - \phi(0)}{\varepsilon} = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{\phi(0) - \phi(0-\varepsilon)}{\varepsilon}$
 $\Rightarrow 2\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{\phi(\varepsilon) - \phi(0)}{\varepsilon} = 0$

=> The right derivative of \$(x) at x=0 is 0.

Section 5.2 Q17: Show that a complex-valued function f(x) is real-valued if and only if its complex Fourier coefficients satisfy $c_n = c_{-n}^{*}$.

Write
$$f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{inx}$$
 (for simplicity take $l = \pi$).

Assume that f(x) is real-valued. So $f(x) = \overline{f(x)}$. $\sum_{n=z} c_n e^{inx} = f(x) = \overline{f(x)} = \overline{\sum_{n=z} c_n e^{inx}} = \sum_{n=z} c_n^* e^{inx} = \sum_{n=z} c_n^* e^{inx} = \sum_{n=z} c_n^* e^{inx}$ So we find that $\sum_{n=z} c_n e^{inx} = \sum_{n=z} c_n^* e^{inx}$. Since $\{e^{inx}\}_{n=z}$ is an orthogonal basis, any expansion of a function in these basis functions is unique, i.e. the coefficients must be the dame: $c_n = c_n^*$.

Conversely, addition that
$$C_n = C_n^*$$
.

$$f(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} C_n e^{inx} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} C_n^* e^{inx} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} C_n^* e^{-inx} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} C_n^* e^{inx} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} C_n e^{inx} = \overline{f(x)},$$

Section 5.3 Q1: (a) Find the real vectors that are orthogonal to the given vectors (1,1,1) and (1,-1,0). (L) Chrossing an answer to (c), expand the vector (2,-3,5) as a linear combination of these three mutually orthogonal vectors.

(a) We bok for a vector
$$(X,Y,2)$$
 that is orthogonal to $(1,1,1)$ and $(1,-1,0)$.
1. $(X,Y,2) \cdot (1,1,1) = 0 \implies X+Y+Z=0 \implies Z=-(X+Y)$
2. $(X,Y,Z) \cdot (1,-1,0) = 0 \implies X-Z=0 \implies X=Y$
Choose $X=1 \implies Y=1 \implies Z=-2$: multiples of $(1,1,-2)$
are orthogonal to both given vectors.

(b) Denote
$$V_1 = ((1,1) \quad V_2 = (1,-1,0) \quad V_3 = (1,1,-2)$$

 $V = (2,-3,5)$. Writing $V = \sum_{i=1}^{3} a_i v_i$, we seek a_i . The
formule for a_i is: $a_i = \frac{1}{\|V_i\|^2} (V, V_i)$.

 $\begin{aligned} \|V_1\|^2 &= i^2 + i^2 + i^2 = 3 \quad (V_1V_1) = 2 - 3 + 5 = 3 \implies a_1 = \frac{3}{3} = 1. \\ \|V_2\|^2 &= i^2 + (1)^2 + 6^2 = 2, \quad (V_1V_2) = 2 + 3 = 5 \implies a_2 = \frac{5}{2}, \\ \|V_3\|^2 &= i^2 + i^2 + (-2)^2 = 6, \quad (V_1V_3) = 2 - 3 - 16 = -11 \implies a_3 = -\frac{11}{6} \end{aligned}$

 \rightarrow $V = 1 \cdot V_1 + \frac{5}{2}V_2 - \frac{11}{6}V_3$.

Section 5.3 Q2: (a) On the interval E.J.I, show that the further
$$f(x) = x$$
 is orthogonal to the constant functions.
(b) Find a quadratic polynomial that is orthogonal to both 1 and x.
(c) Find a cubic polynomial that is orthogonal to all quadratics.

(a) Let
$$g(x) = c$$
 where c is a constant. Then;
 $(f,g) = \int_{-1}^{1} x \cdot c \, dx = c \left[\frac{x^2}{z} \right]_{x=-1}^{1} = c \left(\frac{1}{z} - \frac{1}{z} \right) = 0.$
 \Rightarrow by definition f and g are orthogonal.

(b) Let
$$h(x) = Ax^2 + Bx + C$$
. We first compute (h, f) and (h, g) .
 $(h, f) = \int_{1}^{1} (Ax^2 + Bx + C) \times dx = \int_{-1}^{1} (Ax^3 + Bx^2 + Cx) dx$
 $= \left[\frac{A}{4}x^4 + \frac{B}{3}x^3 + \frac{C}{2}x^2\right]_{x=-1}^{\prime} = \frac{A}{4} + \frac{B}{3} + \frac{C}{2} - \left[\frac{A}{4} - \frac{B}{3} + \frac{C}{2}\right] = \frac{2}{3}B$
 $(h, g) = \int_{-1}^{1} [Ax^2 + Bx + C] \int dx = \left[\frac{A}{3}x^3 + \frac{B}{2}x^2 + Cx\right]_{x=-1}^{\prime}$
 $= \frac{2}{3}A + 2C$ Whose we take $g(k) = 1$ rather than $g(k) = C$
Both of these will have to vanish, so we can choose
 $B = 0, A = -3C$. We have the freedom to choose
 C as we wish (jest not 0), so we take $C = -1$ which
gives us : $h(k) = 3x^2 - 1$. This polynomial is
orthogonal to both 1 and x .

(c) Let
$$k(x) = Ax^{3} + Bx^{2} + Cx + D$$
, We first compute:
 $(k, f) = \int_{-1}^{1} (Ax^{3} + Bx^{2} + Cx + D)x dx = \left[\frac{A}{5}x^{5} + \frac{B}{5}x^{4} + \frac{C}{3}x^{3} + \frac{D}{2}x^{2}\right]_{x=0}^{1}$
 $= \frac{2A}{5} + \frac{2C}{3}$
 $(k, g) = \int_{-1}^{1} (Ax^{3} + Bx^{2} + Cx + D) dx = \frac{2B}{3} + 2D$

$$\begin{pmatrix} k, h \end{pmatrix} = \int_{1}^{1} (Ax^{3} + Bx^{2} + Cx + D) (3x^{2} - 1) dx = \\ = \int_{1}^{1} (3Ax^{5} + 3Bx^{4} + (3C - A)x^{3} + (3D - B)x^{2} - Cx - D) dx \\ = \frac{c}{5}B + \frac{2(3D - B)}{3} - 2D = (\frac{6}{5} - \frac{2}{3})B + 2D - 2D$$
We need all these 'uner products to be 0. From $(k, h) = 0$ we find that $B = 0$. Combined with $(k, g) = 0$ this leads to $D = 0$.
So we are left with $\frac{24}{5} = -\frac{2C}{3} \implies A = -\frac{5C}{3}$. Choosing $C = -3$ we have: $A = 5$. We conclude:

 $k(x) = 5x^3 - 3x$

Section 5.3 Q4: Consider the problem
(a) Find the solution in series form.
(b) Show that the series converges for t>0.
(c) Given E>0, estimate how long a time is required for
$$n(l, t)$$
 to
be approximatel by U to within E error.

(a) Define
$$V(x,t) = u(x,t) - U$$
.
Then V satisfies the problem:
We have seen this problem already
in Section 4.2 Q1. The solution was

$$V(x,t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n e^{-k \frac{\pi}{l^2} (n+\frac{t}{2})^2 t} sin\left(\frac{\pi}{l}(n+\frac{t}{2})x\right).$$
wotice that the substarts from $n=0$

We weld to use the initial condition $V(x, 0) = -\overline{U}$:

(b) The terms in this series are:

$$a_{n} = \frac{4U}{(2n+1)\pi} e^{-k\frac{\pi^{2}}{12}(n+\frac{1}{2})^{2}t} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}(n+\frac{1}{2})x\right)$$

$$= \frac{A}{2n+1} e^{-\lfloor Bn^{2}+Cn+D\rfloor} \sin\left(E(n+\frac{1}{2})x\right)$$

$$\widetilde{A} = -Bn^{2} - Cn$$

We bound $|a_n| \leq b_n \approx \frac{4}{2n+1} \in e$ $A = A \cdot e^{-D}$ We now show that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$ converges, thereby implying that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ converges absolutely. To show that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$ converges we use the ratio test:

$$\frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n} = \frac{2n+1}{2n+3} e^{-B[n+1)^2 - n^2]} - C((n+1) - n) = \frac{2+\frac{1}{n}}{2+\frac{3}{n}} e^{-2Bn} e^{-B-C}$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{lim}} \frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n} = 0, \quad \text{thence} \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n < +\infty, \quad \text{so}$$

$$= 0, \quad \text{thence} \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n < +\infty, \quad \text{thence} \quad \sum$$

(c) The expression for
$$h(l,t)$$
 is:

$$h(l,t) = U - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{4U}{(2n+1)\pi} e^{-k\frac{\pi^{2}}{l^{2}}(k+\frac{1}{2})^{2}t} \sin(\pi(n+\frac{1}{2}))$$
call the part d_{n}

$$\Rightarrow u(l, b) = U - d_0 + d_1 - d_2 + d_3 - + \cdots$$
where we already know that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |d_n| < +\infty$ from (b).

(c) The expression for
$$u(l,t)$$
 is:
 $u(l,t) = U - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{4U}{(2n+1)\pi} e^{-k\frac{\pi}{t^2}(k+\frac{1}{2})^{k}t}$ for $(\pi(n+\frac{1}{2}))$
where $U - d_0 + d_1 - d_2 + d_3 - t$
where we already know that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |d_n| < t \infty$ from (b).
Since this is an alternating series, $|u(l,t) - U| < |d_0| = \frac{4\pi u}{\pi} e^{-kt} \frac{\pi^{k}}{u^{k}}$
To get $|d_0| < \varepsilon$ we need $\frac{4\pi u}{\pi} e^{-kt} \frac{\pi^{k}}{u^{k}} < \varepsilon$
 $\Rightarrow e^{-kt \frac{\pi^{k}}{u^{k}}} < \frac{2\pi}{4|U|} \Rightarrow -kt \frac{\pi^{k}}{u^{k}} < \ell_{n} \left(\frac{2\pi}{4\pi U}\right)$

Section 5.3 QG: Find the complex eigenvalues of dx subject to the BCs X(0) = X(1). Are the eigenfunctions orthogonal on (0, 1)?

We need to solve
$$X'(x) = \lambda X(x)$$
, $X(0) = X(1)$.
The eq. has solution $X(x) = e^{\lambda x}$. Requiring $X(0) = X(1)$
leads to $1 = e^{\lambda} \longrightarrow \lambda_n = 2n\pi i$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
The eigenfunctions are $X_n(x) = e^{2n\pi i x}$, which sortiafly:
 $(X_n, X_m) = \int_0^1 e^{2n\pi i x} e^{-2m\pi i x} dx = \int_0^1 e^{2\pi i x (n-m)} dx =$
 $= \frac{1}{2\pi i (n-m)} \left[e^{2\pi i x (n-m)} \right]_{x=0}^1 = 0$ whenever $n \neq m$.
So for $n \neq m$, X_n and X_m are orthogonal.

Section 5.3 Q12: Prove Green's First Identity: $\int_{a}^{b} f''(x) g(x) dx = -\int_{a}^{b} f'(x) g'(x) dx + f'g|_{x=a}^{b}.$

This is just integration by parts with: u(x) = g(x), V'(x) = f''(x).