# MAT 280: Laplacian Eigenfunctions: Theory, Applications, and Computations Lecture 1: Overture: Motivations, scope and structure of the course 

Lecturer: Naoki Saito<br>Scribe: Lawrence Austria/Allen Xue

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## 0 Scope and Structure of This Course

### 0.1 Scope

- Why Laplacian eigenvalues?
- Reflect geometric information of a domain $\Omega$
- Can be used for shape analysis, graph theory, etc.
- Why Laplacian eigenfunctions?
- Provide an orthonormal basis for $L^{2}(\Omega)$
- Can be used for 'spectral analysis' of data defined on $\Omega \Longrightarrow$ generalization of Fourier analysis
- Can be applied to data approximation, pattern analysis, and image analysis


### 0.2 Structure of this course

- Laplacian eigenvalue problems in the continuum, i.e., $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ with $|\Omega|<$ $\infty$
- 1D vibrations of a string
- 2D/3D vibrations of a membrane of various shape, e.g., rectangle, disk, sphere, etc.
- Necessary functional analysis basics
- Vibrations of a membrane and heat conduction in $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$
- Application to data analysis, spectral geometry, and shape recognition
- Laplacian eigenvalue problems in the discrete setting
- Basics of graph theory
- Laplacian of a graph
- Laplacian eigenvalues of a graph
- Random walks and heat propagation on a graph
- Diffusion maps
- Application to clustering, image segmentation, statistical learning theory, etc.
- Fast algorithms to compute Laplacian eigenvalues and eigenfunctions.


## 1 Introduction

Consider a domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ of finite volume. A Laplacian Eigenvalue Problem on $\Omega$ is an equation of the form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\Delta u=\lambda u \quad \text { in } \Omega \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Delta=\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{1}^{2}}+\cdots+\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{d}^{2}}=\nabla \cdot \nabla$, with one of the following boundary conditions (BCs):

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
u=0, & \text { on } \partial \Omega & \text { Dirichlet BC }  \tag{2}\\
\frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}=\nu \cdot \nabla u=0, & \text { on } \partial \Omega & \text { Neumann BC } \\
\frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}+a u=0, a \in \mathbb{R} & \text { on } \partial \Omega & \text { Robin (Mixed) BC }
\end{array}\right.
$$



Figure 1: $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ with $\nu$ being a normal vector.

If $u \neq 0$ in $\Omega$ satisfies the Laplacian eigenvalue problem with either of the above BCs, then we say $u$ is an eigenfunction and the corresponding $\lambda$ is called the eigenvalue.
Laplacian eigenvalues and eigenfunctions allow us to perform numerous analysis with a given domain $\Omega$. We will see that the eigenvalues of (1) reflect geometric information about $\Omega$. Also, the eigenfunctions can be used for spectral analysis of data defined (or living) on $\Omega$. Furthermore, Laplacian eigenfunctions allow us to generalize Fourier analysis.

## 2 History of and Introduction to Laplacian Eigenvalues/Eigenfunctions

### 2.1 Vibrations of a one dimensional string

Around the mid 18th century, d'Alembert, Euler and Daniel Bernoulli examined and created the theory behind vibrations of a one-dimensional string. Consider a perfectly elastic and flexible string resting over the interval $[0, \ell]$ of the $x$-axis. Let $\rho(x)$ be a mass density for $x \in[0, \ell]$. Assume that the magnitude of the tension $\mathcal{T}$ of the string is constant. If $u(x, t)$ is the vertical displacement of the string at location $x \in[0, \ell]$ and time $t \geq 0$, then the string vibrates according to the
one-dimensional wave equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(x) u_{t t}=\mathcal{T} u_{x x} \quad \text { or } \quad u_{t t}=c^{2} u_{x x}, \text { with } c^{2}=\frac{\mathcal{T}}{\rho} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

See [1, Appendix 1] for more about the derivation of the above wave equation. From now on, for simplicity, we assume the uniform string, i.e., $\rho(x)=\rho=$ constant.
We know (3) has infinitely many solutions. We would need to specify a boundary condition and an initial condition on (3) to obtain the desired solution. For instance, say both ends of the string are held fixed for all time $t$. This corresponds to the Dirichlet boundary condition $u(0, t)=u(\ell, t)=0$. If $f(x)$ is the initial vertical displacement at $x$ and $g(x)$ is its initial velocity, then we would have the initial condition (IC) $u(x, 0)=f(x)$ and $u_{t}(x, 0)=g(x)$ for all $x \in[0, \ell]$. What we have then is:

$$
\begin{cases}u_{t t}=c^{2} u_{x x} & \text { for } x \in(0, \ell) \text { and } t>0  \tag{4}\\ u(0, t)=u(\ell, t)=0 & \text { for } t \geq 0 \\ u(x, 0)=f(x), u_{t}(x, 0)=g(x) & \text { for } x \in[0, \ell]\end{cases}
$$

### 2.2 The behavior of the string $u(x, t)$

First we use the method of separation of variables to seek a nontrivial solution of the form $u(x, t)=X(x) T(t)$. Plugging $X(x) T(t)$ into the differential equation (4), we get:

$$
X T^{\prime \prime}=c^{2} X^{\prime \prime} T \Rightarrow \frac{X^{\prime \prime}}{X}=\frac{T}{c^{2} T}=k
$$

where $k$ must be constant. This relation yields the pair of ordinary differential equations:

$$
\begin{gather*}
X^{\prime \prime}-k X=0 \quad \text { with } X(0)=X(\ell)=0  \tag{5}\\
T^{\prime \prime}-c^{2} k T=0 \tag{6}
\end{gather*}
$$

Case I: $k>0$
By solving the characteristic equation $r^{2}-k=0$, we get $r= \pm \sqrt{k}$ and

$$
X(x)=A \mathrm{e}^{\sqrt{k} x}+B \mathrm{e}^{-\sqrt{k} x} \text { or } A \cosh (\sqrt{k} x)+B \sinh (\sqrt{k} x) .
$$

Applying the $\mathrm{BC} X(0)=X(\ell)=0$ yields $A=B=0$, thus the case of $k>0$ is not feasible.

Case II: $k=0$

$$
X^{\prime \prime}=0 \Longrightarrow X(x)=A x+B
$$

which again leads to $X(x) \equiv 0$.
Case III: $k<0$
Set $k=-\nu^{2}$ and $\nu>0$. We then have the characteristic equation $r^{2}+\nu^{2}=0$, i.e., $r= \pm \mathrm{i} \nu$. Therefore we get

$$
X(x)=A \cos (\nu x)+B \sin (\nu x)
$$

By the $\mathrm{BC} X(0)=X(\ell)=0$, we get:

$$
\begin{cases}X(0)=0 & \Longrightarrow A=0 \\ X(\ell)=B \sin (\nu \ell)=0 & \Longrightarrow \quad \nu=\frac{n \pi}{\ell}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}\end{cases}
$$

(Note $n=0$ leads to $X(x) \equiv 0$ in this case, so it should not be included.) Therefore we have $X(x)=B \sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{\ell} x\right)$ and for convenience, we let $B=\sqrt{2 / \ell}$ and define:

$$
X_{n}(x)=\phi_{n}(x) \triangleq \sqrt{\frac{2}{\ell}} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{\ell} x\right)
$$

so that $\left\|\phi_{n}\right\|_{L^{2}[0, \ell]}=1$. Note that $\left\{\phi_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ form an orthonormal basis for $L^{2}[0, \ell]$. Similarly, by $T^{\prime \prime}=-\nu^{2} c^{2} T$ we obtain the family of solutions

$$
T_{n}(t)=a_{n} \cos \left(\frac{n \pi c}{\ell} t\right)+b_{n} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi c}{\ell} t\right)
$$

Now, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the function

$$
u_{n}(x, t)=\left\{a_{n} \cos \left(\frac{n \pi c}{\ell} t\right)+b_{n} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi c}{\ell} t\right)\right\} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\ell}} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{\ell} x\right)
$$

satisfies the equation (4), and by the Superposition Principle,

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_{n}(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left\{a_{n} \cos \left(\frac{n \pi c}{\ell} t\right)+b_{n} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi c}{\ell} t\right)\right\} \phi_{n}(x) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a general solution with yet undetermined coefficients $a_{n}$ and $b_{n}$.

Next, we specify the coefficients $a_{n}$ and $b_{n}$ by matching (7) with the ICs in (4). Thus we get

$$
u(x, 0)=f(x)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\ell}} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{\ell} x\right)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} \phi_{n}(x)
$$

Then

$$
a_{n}=\left\langle f, \phi_{n}\right\rangle=\sqrt{\frac{2}{\ell}} \int_{0}^{\ell} f(x) \sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{\ell} x\right) \mathrm{d} x
$$

which is a Fourier sine series expansion of $f$.
Similarly,

$$
u_{t}(x, 0)=g(x)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n \pi c}{\ell} b_{n} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\ell}} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{\ell} x\right)
$$

We obtain

$$
\frac{n \pi c}{\ell} b_{n}=\left\langle g, \phi_{n}\right\rangle \Rightarrow b_{n}=\frac{\ell}{n \pi c}\left\langle g, \phi_{n}\right\rangle .
$$

By construction, the particular solution:

$$
u(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left\{\left\langle f, \phi_{n}\right\rangle \cos \left(\frac{n \pi c}{\ell} t\right)+\frac{\ell}{n \pi c}\left\langle g, \phi_{n}\right\rangle \sin \left(\frac{n \pi c}{\ell} t\right)\right\} \phi_{n}(x)
$$

We need to check if our solution makes sense physically. Notice that

$$
c^{2}=\frac{\mathcal{T}}{\rho} \Rightarrow \text { the sound frequency }=\frac{n \pi}{\ell} \sqrt{\frac{\mathcal{T}}{\rho}}
$$

For instance, if $\ell$ is short, $\mathcal{T}$ is high, and $\rho$ is small (thin), then such a string generates a high frequency tone. On the other hand, if $\ell$ is long, $\mathcal{T}$ is low, and $\rho$ is large (thick), then it generates a low frequency tone.

NOTE: The Neumann boundary condition imposes

$$
u_{x}(0, t)=u_{x}(\ell, t)=0 \quad \forall t>0 .
$$

This leads to the Fourier cosine series expansions of $f$ and $g$. Note that the Neumann problem allows the solution $u(x, t)=a_{0}=$ const and $\nu_{0}=0$.

## 3 Remarks

Through the process of finding a solution to the boundary value problem:

$$
\begin{cases}u_{t t}=c^{2} u_{x x} & \text { for } 0<x<\ell \text { and } t>0 \\ u(0, t)=u(\ell, t)=0 & \text { for } t \geq 0 \\ u(x, 0)=f(x) & u_{t}(x, 0)=g(x)\end{cases}
$$

we arrive at the system

$$
\begin{equation*}
-X^{\prime \prime}=\nu^{2} X \quad \text { with } X(0)=X(\ell)=0 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that (8) is a one-dimensional version of the Dirichlet-Laplacian eigenvalue problem with $\Omega=(0, \ell)$. More importantly, we were able to obtain two objects, namely:

- Eigenvalues: $\lambda_{n}=\nu_{n}^{2}=\left(\frac{n \pi}{\ell}\right)^{2}$
- Eigenfunctions: $\phi_{n}(x)=\sqrt{\frac{2}{\ell}} \sin \left(\sqrt{\lambda_{n}} x\right)$

We see that $\left\{\lambda_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ contains geometric information of $\Omega=(0, \ell)$. For instance, the size of the first (or the smallest) eigenvalue tells us the volume of $\Omega$ (i.e., the length of $\Omega$ in this case). If the first eigenvalue is small (under our assumption of constant tension and constant density), then length of the interval is long. Furthermore, the set $\left\{\phi_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ forms an orthonormal basis for $L^{2}(\Omega)$, so the eigenfunctions allows us to analyze functions living on $\Omega$.

## References

[1] G. B. Folland, Fourier Analysis and Its Applications, Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1992.

