

UNDER-GRADUATE PROJECT

PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

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PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATION

A partial differential equation is an equation involving an unknown function of two or more variables and certain of its derivatives.

K^{th} ORDER PDE

For a fixed integer $k \geq 1$, let U denote the open subset of R^n . An equation of the form

$$F(D^k u(x), D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x) = 0$$

where $x \in U$ is called k th order PDE where

$$F: R^{n^k} \times R^{n^{k-1}} \times R^{n^{k-2}} \times \dots \times R^{n^1} \times U \rightarrow R$$

is given and

$$u: U \rightarrow R$$

is unknown.

CLASSIFICATION OF PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

Linear PDE

A PDE $F(D^k u(x), D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x) = 0$ is called linear if it has the form

$$\sum_{r \leq k} a_r(x) D^r u = f(x)$$

for given functions $a_r(x)$ and f .

General Form: $a(x, y) u_x + b(x, y) u_y + c(x, y) u = d(x, y)$

Examples:

1- $2u_{xx} - 3u_{tt} + 4x + u = 0$

2- $5u_{xx} + 31u_{tt} - 9y + \cos 2t = 0$

Quasi-Linear PDE-

A PDE $F(D^k u(x), D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x) = 0$ is called quasi-linear if it has the form

$$\sum_{r=k} (a_r(D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x) D^r u + a_0(D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x)) = f(x)$$

for given functions $a_r(x)$ and f , i.e., all the terms with highest order derivatives occur linearly and their coefficients of such terms are only lower order derivatives of dependent variable.

General Form: $a(x, y, u) u_x + b(x, y, u) u_y + c(x, y, u) = 0$

Examples

1- $2u u_x u_{xx} - 3u u_{tt} + 4x + u = 0$

2- $5u_x u_{xx} + 31u_{tt} - 9y + \cos 2t = 0$

Semi-Linear PDE-

A PDE $F(D^k u(x), D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x) = 0$ is called semi-linear if it has the form

$$\sum_{r=k} (a_r(x) D^r u + a_0(D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x)) = f(x)$$

for given functions $a_r(x)$ and f , i.e., highest order terms have coefficient as functions of independent variable alone.

General Form: $a(x, y) u_x + b(x, y) u_y + c(x, y, u) = 0$

Examples

1- $2u_{xx} - 3u_{tt} + 4x + u^3 = 0$

2- $5u_{xx} + 31u_{tt} - 9y + u^2 = 0$

Non-linear PDE-

A PDE $F(D^k u(x), D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x) = 0$ is called non-linear if the highest order derivative of dependent variable appear non-linearly in the equation.

Examples

1- $u_x * u_x + u_y * u_y = 1$

2- $2 * u * u_x * u_x + u_{yy} * u_{yy} + xyu = 9$

CLASSIFICATION OF SECOND ORDER PDEs

A second order PDE looks like

$$Au_{xx} + Bu_{xy} + Cu_{yy} + I(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = 0.$$

The type of the above equation depends on the sign of the quantity given by

$$\Delta(x, y) = B^2(x, y) - 4A(x, y)C(x, y)$$

At the point (x_0, y_0) the second order linear PDE (1) is called

hyperbolic, if $\Delta(x_0, y_0) > 0$

parabolic, if $\Delta(x_0, y_0) = 0$

elliptic, if $\Delta(x_0, y_0) < 0$

Examples:

$1 - xyu_{xx} - (x^2 - y^2)u_{xy} - xyu_{yy} = 2(x^2 - y^2)$ is hyperbolic as $B^2 - 4AC$ value is greater than 0.

$2 - 2u_{xx} + 4u_{xy} + 3u_{yy} = 4$ is elliptic as $B^2 - 4AC$ value is lesser than 0.

$3 - y^2u_{xx} - 2xyu_{xy} + x^2u_{yy} = x^2p - y^2q$ is parabolic as $B^2 - 4AC$ value is equals 0.

TRANSPORT EQUATION

The *transport equation* models the concentration of a substance flowing in a fluid at a constant rate.

Homogeneous Solution:

$$\begin{cases} u_t + b \cdot Du = 0 & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \times (0, \infty) \\ u = g & \text{on } \mathbb{R}^n \times \{t = 0\}. \end{cases}$$

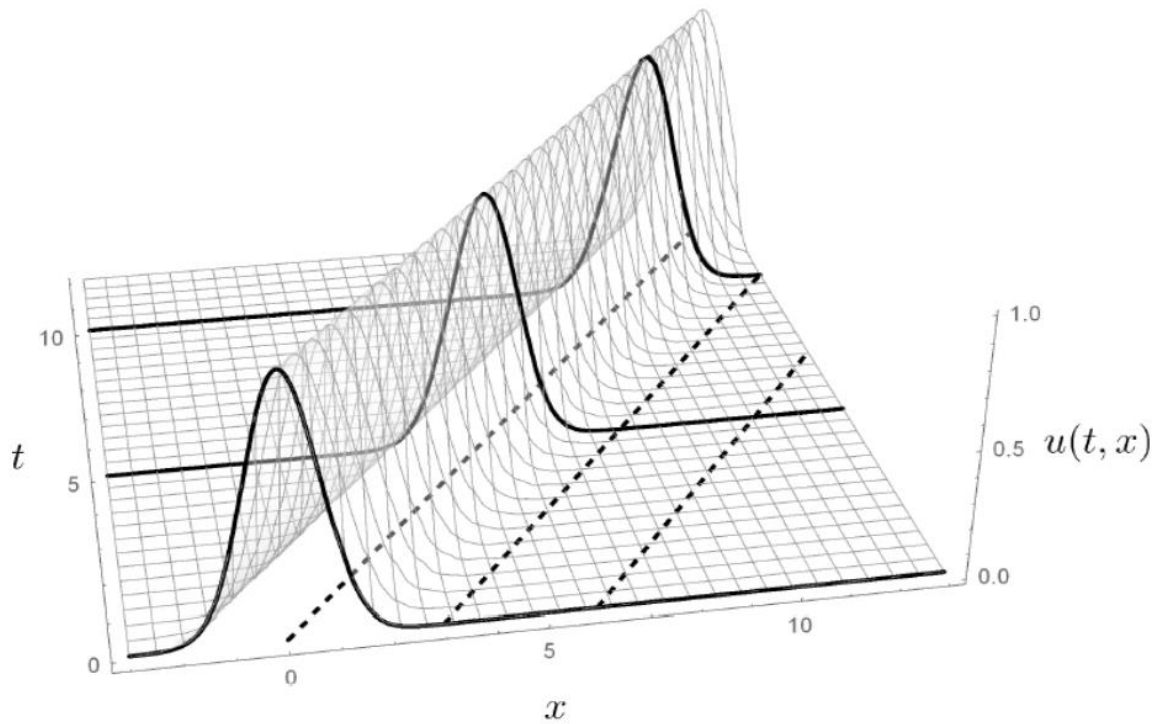
$$u(x, t) = g(x - tb) \quad (x \in \mathbb{R}^n, t \geq 0).$$

Example:

Non-Homogeneous Solution:

$$\begin{cases} u_t + b \cdot Du = f & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \times (0, \infty) \\ u = g & \text{on } \mathbb{R}^n \times \{t = 0\}. \end{cases}$$

$$u(x, t) = g(x - tb) + \int_0^t f(x + (s - t)b, s) ds \quad (x \in \mathbb{R}^n, t \geq 0)$$



The graph of u .

For each point (x, t) , $u(x, t)$ is constant on the line through (x, t) with the direction $(b, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$.

Examples for homogeneous transport equation:

$$1- \quad u_t - 3u_x = 0, \quad u(x, 0) = 5^{-x^2},$$

therefore solution is $u(x, t) = 5^{-(x+3t)^2}$

$$2- \quad u_t + 5u_x = 0, \quad u(x, 0) = \sin x,$$

therefore solution is $u(x, t) = \sin(x - 5t)$

LAPLACE EQUATION

Among the most important of all partial differential equations are undoubtedly *Laplace's equation*

$$(1) \quad \Delta u = 0$$

Physical interpretation. Laplace's equation comes up in a wide variety of physical contexts. In a typical interpretation u denotes the density of some quantity (e.g. a chemical concentration) in equilibrium. Then if V is any smooth subregion within U , the net flux of u through ∂V is zero:

$$\int_{\partial V} \mathbf{F} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nu} dS = 0,$$

\mathbf{F} denoting the flux density and $\boldsymbol{\nu}$ the unit outer normal field. In view of the Gauss–Green Theorem (§C.2), we have

$$\int_V \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} dx = \int_{\partial V} \mathbf{F} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nu} dS = 0,$$

and so

$$(3) \quad \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = 0 \quad \text{in } U,$$

since V was arbitrary. In many instances it is physically reasonable to assume the flux \mathbf{F} is proportional to the gradient Du but points in the opposite direction (since the flow is from regions of higher to lower concentration). Thus

$$(4) \quad \mathbf{F} = -aDu \quad (a > 0).$$

Substituting into (3), we obtain Laplace's equation

$$\operatorname{div}(Du) = \Delta u = 0.$$

If u denotes the

$$\begin{cases} \text{chemical concentration} \\ \text{temperature} \\ \text{electrostatic potential,} \end{cases}$$

equation (4) is

$$\begin{cases} \text{Fick's law of diffusion} \\ \text{Fourier's law of heat conduction} \\ \text{Ohm's law of electrical conduction.} \end{cases}$$

Let us attempt to find the solution of Laplace equation in $U = R^n$ of the form

$$u(x) = v(r),$$

where $r = |x| = (x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2)^{1/2}$ and v is to be selected (if possible) so that $\Delta u = 0$ holds. First note for $i = 1, \dots, n$ that

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial x_i} = \frac{1}{2} (x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2)^{-1/2} 2x_i = \frac{x_i}{r} \quad (x \neq 0).$$

We thus have

$$u_{x_i} = v'(r) \frac{x_i}{r}, \quad u_{x_i x_i} = v''(r) \frac{x_i^2}{r^2} + v'(r) \left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{x_i^2}{r^3} \right)$$

for $i = 1, \dots, n$, and so

$$\Delta u = v''(r) + \frac{n-1}{r} v'(r).$$

Hence $\Delta u = 0$ if and only if

$$(5) \quad v'' + \frac{n-1}{r} v' = 0.$$

If $v' \neq 0$, we deduce

$$\log(|v'|)' = \frac{v''}{v'} = \frac{1-n}{r},$$

and hence $v'(r) = \frac{a}{r^{n-1}}$ for some constant a . Consequently if $r > 0$, we have

$$v(r) = \begin{cases} b \log r + c & (n = 2) \\ \frac{b}{r^{n-2}} + c & (n \geq 3), \end{cases}$$

where b and c are constants.

Examples: $x^2 - y^2, x^3 - 3xy^2$

HARMONIC FUNCTION-

A C^2 function u satisfying (1) is called a harmonic function.

Prove that $u = e^{-x}(x \sin y - y \cos y)$ is harmonic.

Proof:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = e^{-x}(\sin y) + (-e^{-x})(x \sin y - y \cos y)$$

$$= e^{-x} \sin y - x e^{-x} \sin y + y e^{-x} \cos y$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (e^{-x} \sin y - x e^{-x} \sin y + y e^{-x} \cos y)$$

$$= -2e^{-x} \sin y + x e^{-x} \sin y - y e^{-x} \cos y \quad \text{----- (1)}$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = e^{-x} (x \cos y + y \sin y - \cos y)$$

$$= x e^{-x} \cos y + y e^{-x} \sin y - e^{-x} \cos y$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (x e^{-x} \cos y - y e^{-x} \sin y - e^{-x} \cos y)$$

$$= -x e^{-x} \sin y + 2e^{-x} \sin y + y e^{-x} \cos y \quad \text{----- (2).}$$

Adding (1) and (2) yield

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$

Hence u is harmonic.

MEAN VALUE FORMULAS-

It declares that $u(x)$ equals both the average of u over the sphere $\partial B(x, r)$ and the average of u over the entire ball $B(x, r)$, provided $B(x, r)$ is a subset of U .

THEOREM: If $U \in C^2$ is harmonic, then

$$u(x) = \oint_{\partial B(x, r)} u \, dS = \int_{B(x, r)} u \, dy$$

Proof. 1. Set

$$\phi(r) := \oint_{\partial B(x, r)} u(y) \, dS(y) = \oint_{\partial B(0, 1)} u(x + rz) \, dS(z).$$

Then

$$\phi'(r) = \oint_{\partial B(0, 1)} Du(x + rz) \cdot z \, dS(z),$$

and consequently, using Green's formulas, we compute

$$\begin{aligned} \phi'(r) &= \oint_{\partial B(x, r)} Du(y) \cdot \frac{y - x}{r} \, dS(y) \\ &= \oint_{\partial B(x, r)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu} \, dS(y) \\ &= \frac{r}{n} \int_{B(x, r)} \Delta u(y) \, dy = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence ϕ is constant, and so

$$\phi(r) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \phi(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \oint_{\partial B(x, t)} u(y) \, dS(y) = u(x).$$

And secondly,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{B(x, r)} u \, dy &= \int_0^r \left(\int_{\partial B(x, s)} u \, dS \right) ds \\ &= u(x) \int_0^r n \alpha(n) s^{n-1} ds = \alpha(n) r^n u(x). \end{aligned}$$

THEOREM (CONVERSE TO MEAN VALUE PROPERTY): If $U \in C^2$ satisfies

$$u(x) = \oint_{\partial B(x, r)} u \, dS$$

for each ball $B(x, r) \in U$, then u is harmonic.

Proof. If $\Delta u \not\equiv 0$, there exists some ball $B(x, r) \subset U$ such that, say, $\Delta u > 0$ within $B(x, r)$. But then for ϕ as above,

$$0 = \phi'(r) = \frac{r}{n} \int_{B(x, r)} \Delta u(y) dy > 0,$$

a contradiction. Similarly for negative case of Laplacian of u also, we can check.

STRONG MAXIMUM PRINCIPLE-

It states that a harmonic function must attain its maximum on the boundary and can't attain maximum in the interior of a connected region unless it is constant.

Proof. Suppose there exists a point $x_0 \in U$ with $u(x_0) = M := \max_{\bar{U}} u$. Then for $0 < r < \text{dist}(x_0, \partial U)$, the mean-value property asserts

$$M = u(x_0) = \int_{B(x_0, r)} u dy \leq M.$$

As equality holds only if $u \equiv M$ within $B(x_0, r)$, we see $u(y) = M$ for all $y \in B(x_0, r)$. Hence the set $\{x \in U \mid u(x) = M\}$ is both open and relatively closed in U and thus equals U if U is connected. This proves assertion (ii), from which (i) follows. \square

Positivity. The strong maximum principle asserts in particular that if U is connected and $u \in C^2(U) \cap C(\bar{U})$ satisfies

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u = 0 & \text{in } U \\ u = g & \text{on } \partial U, \end{cases}$$

where $g \geq 0$, then u is positive everywhere in U if g is positive somewhere on ∂U .

An important application of the maximum principle is establishing the uniqueness of solutions to certain boundary-value problems for Poisson's equation.

THANK YOU