Methods

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1 Fourier Series

1.1 Motivation

In 1807 J. Fourier was studying head conduction along a metal rod. This lead him to study 2π-periodic functions i.e. functions $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ was such that $f(\theta + 2\pi) = f(\theta)$ for all $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ then he found that if

$$f(\theta) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}_n e^{in\theta}$$

then you can write down the coefficients $\{\hat{f}_n\}$ via the formula

$$\hat{f}_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\theta) e^{-in\theta} \mathrm{d}\theta, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

And Fourier believed that this worked for any 2π-periodic function f. So computing each $\{\hat{f}_n\}$ and construcuted the sum as above, then it would return the original function. He was wrong.

1.2 Modern Treatment

Introduce a vector space V of L-periodic functions. Hence

$$V = \{f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C} : \text{ with } f \text{ a "nice" function, } f(\theta + L) = f(\theta), \forall \theta \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Note for $f \in V$ need only to consider values of f taken in an interval of length L, i.e. $[0, L)$ or $(-\frac{L}{2}, \frac{L}{2}]$ since periodicity covers elsewhere.

We can introduce an inner product on V with

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(\theta) \overline{g(\theta)} \mathrm{d}\theta.$$

This gives the associated norm,

$$||f|| = \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle}.$$

For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ consider $e_n \in V$ defined by $e_n(\theta) = e^{2\pi i n\theta/L}$.

$$\langle e_n, e_m \rangle = \int_0^L e^{2\pi i(n-m)\theta/L} \, \mathrm{d}\theta = L \, \delta_{nm}.$$

So $\{e_n\}$ are orthogonal and $||e_n||^2 = L$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. This looks like IA Vectors and Matrices.

Recall that if v_N is N-dim vector space equipped with usual inner product and $\{e_n\}_{n=1}^N$ are orthogonal with $|e_n| = L$, then for each $x \in V$ we can write $x = \sum_{n=1}^N \hat{x}_n e_n$ for some $\{\hat{x}_n\}$. To find $\{\hat{x}_n\}$ take the inner product of both sides with e_m. So

$$(x, e_m) = \sum_{n=1}^N \hat{x}_n (e_n \cdot e_m) = L\hat{x}_m$$

i.e

$$\hat{x}_n = \frac{1}{L}(x \cdot e_n).$$

Now could this work on V? V is not finite dimensional so it's not obvious. Every subset of $\{e_n\}$ is linearly indepedent. Ignoring this for now we assume that for all $f \in V$ we can write f in our basis $\{e_n\}$. Then

$$f(\theta) = \sum_n \hat{f}_n e_n(\theta),$$

So taking the inner product as before

$$\langle f, e_m \rangle = \sum_n \hat{f}_n \langle e_n, e_m \rangle$$

so using the delta as before

$$= L \hat{f}_m$$

i.e.

$$\hat{f}_n = \frac{1}{L} \langle f, e_n \rangle = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^1 f(\theta) e^{-2\pi i n\theta/L} \mathrm{d}\theta$$

Definition. (Complex Fourier series) For an L-periodic $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ define its *complex Fourier series* by

$$\sum_n \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i n\theta/L}$$

where

$$\hat{f}_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^1 f(\theta) e^{-2\pi i n\theta/L} \mathrm{d}\theta$$

are called the complex Fourier coefficients. We will write for $f \in V$

$$f(\theta) \sim \sum_n \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i n\theta/L}$$

to mean the series on the right corresponds to complex Fourier series for the function on the left.

We'd like to replace the $\sim$ symbol with equality, but we require a bit more than that.

If we split the complex Fourier series into the parts $\{n = 0\} \cup \{n > 0\} \cup \{n < 0\}$ we get

$$\sum_n \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i n\theta/L} = \hat{f}_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \hat{f}_n \left[\cos\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right) + i\sin\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right) \right] + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \hat{f}_{-n} \left[\cos\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right) - i\sin\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right) \right].$$

Definition. (Fourier series) For $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ an L-periodic function define its *Fourier series* by

$$\frac{1}{L} a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[a_n \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right) + b_n \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right) \right]$$

where

$$a_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(\theta) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right) \mathrm{d}\theta$$

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and

$$b_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(\theta) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right) d\theta$$

are called the Fourier cofficients for f.

If we set

$$c_n(\theta) = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right),$$

$$s_n(\theta) = \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right),$$

then we can show, for $m, n \geq 1$ that $\langle c_n, c_m \rangle = \langle s_n, s_m \rangle = \frac{L}{2}\delta_{mn}$ and

$$\langle c_n, 1 \rangle = \langle s_m, 1 \rangle = \langle c_n, s_m \rangle = 0.$$

So we have that $\{1, c_n, c_n\}$ is orthogonal set in V.

For an example take $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, 1-periodic, such that $f(\theta) = \theta(1 - \theta)$ on $[0, 1)$. For $n \neq 0$ we have

$$\hat{f}_n = \int_0^1 \theta(1 - \theta)e^{-2\pi i n\theta} d\theta.$$

Integrating by parts (or using a standard Fourier integral computation) yields

$$\hat{f}_n = -\frac{1}{2(\pi n)^2}, \qquad n \neq 0,$$

and

$$\hat{f}_0 = \int_0^1 (\theta - \theta^2) d\theta = \frac{1}{6}.$$

Hence

$$f(\theta) \sim \frac{1}{6} - \sum_{n \neq 0} \frac{e^{2\pi i n\theta}}{2(\pi n)^2}.$$

so the sine terms cancel in the sum giving just cosine terms as we expect since our f function is even.

1.3 Convergence of Fourier series

This subject is extremely subtle.

Definition. For $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ an L-periodic function we defined the *partial Fourier series* as

$$(S_N f)(\theta) = \sum_{|n| < N} \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i n\theta/L}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[a_n \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right) + b_n \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n\theta}{L}\right)\right]$$

Natural to ask if $(S_N f) \to f$. For this we need to specify what type of functional convergence we're looking at. Pointwise? Uniform? Maybe they converge in the idea of our new norm?

$$\|S_N f - f\| = \sqrt{\int_0^L |(S_N f)(\theta) - f(\theta)|^2 \mathrm{d}\theta} \to 0$$

. For simplicity, we will only consider pointwise convergence.

Proposition. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ be an L-periodic function for which on $[0, L)$ we have the following,
  (i) f has finitely many discontinuities.
  (ii) f has finitely many local maxima and minima.
Then for each $\theta \in [0, 1)$ we have

$$\frac{\theta_+ + \theta_-}{2} = \lim_{n \to \infty} (S_N f)(\theta)$$
$$= \sum_n \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i n \theta / L}$$

where $f(\theta_\pm) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+} f(\theta \pm \varepsilon)$. So at the points of continuity the Fourier series gives back the original function, and at points of discontunity the Fourier series gives back the average of the function at the disconunity neighbourhood.

We call functions which properties (i) and (ii) Dirichlet functions. For now on assume all functions are Dirichlet functions so that $\sim$ means that the series on the RHS coincides with the function on the LHS at points of continuity and to the average at points of discontinuity.

Proof. We'll prove the proposition only for functions in $C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ (actually $C^1(\mathbb{R})$ will do.
Assume *wlog* that $L = 2\pi$. Examine $\lim S_N f(\theta_0)$ for some $\theta_0 \in [0, 2\pi)$. By replacing $f(\theta)$ with $f(\theta + \theta_0)$ can assume that $\theta_0 = 0$ *wlog*.

$$(S_N f)(\theta) = \sum_{|n| \le N} \hat{f}_n e^{in \cdot \theta}$$
$$= \sum_{|n| \le N} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) e^{-in\theta} \mathrm{d}\theta \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) \left[\sum_{|n| \le N} e^{-in\theta} \right] \mathrm{d}\theta$$

We can sum the series as a geometric series, so

$$e^{-iN\theta} \sum_{n=0}^{2N} e^{-in\theta} = \frac{\sin[(N + \frac{1}{2})\theta]}{\sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$$

when $\theta \in \mathbb{R} \setminus 2\pi\mathbb{Z}$ and the sum is $2N + 1$ when $\theta \in 2\pi\mathbb{Z}$.
Define the *Dirichlet Kernal* as

$$D_N(\theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin[(N+\frac{1}{2})\theta]}{\sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)} & \theta \in \mathbb{R} \setminus 2\pi\mathbb{Z} \\ 2N + 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

For each $N \geq 0$,

  (i) D_N is continiuous, even 2π perioidic

  (ii) $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} D_N(\theta)\mathrm{d}\theta = 2\pi$

Property (ii) follows by intergrating $\sum$ termwise, only 1 is non-zero. This means that

$$f(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} D_N(\theta)f(\theta)\mathrm{d}\theta$$

So

$$S_N(f)(0) = f(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} D_N(\theta)[f(\theta) - f(0)]\mathrm{d}\theta$$

now set $F(\theta) = \frac{\theta}{\sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)} \left[\frac{f(\theta)-f(0)}{\theta}\right]$ so we get

$$(S_N f)(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin[(N + \frac{1}{2})\theta]F(\theta)\mathrm{d}\theta$$

Note that $\theta \to F(\theta)$ is smooth since

$$\frac{f(\theta) - f(0)}{\theta} = \frac{1}{\theta} \int_{0}^{\theta} f'(t)\mathrm{d}t = \frac{1}{\theta} \int_{0}^{1} f'(\tau\theta)\theta\mathrm{d}\tau$$

Hence integrating by parts gives that

$$(S_N f)(0) - f(0) = \frac{1}{N + \frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos[(N + \frac{1}{2})\theta]F'(\theta)\mathrm{d}\theta$$
$$\to 0 \text{ as } N \to \infty$$

For an example consider the function

$$f(\theta) = \begin{cases} +1 & 0 \leq \theta < \pi \\ -1 & -\pi \leq \theta < 0 \end{cases}$$

Since f is odd, $a_n = 0$ for each n and

$$\begin{aligned} b_n &= \frac{2}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta)\sin(n\theta)\mathrm{d}\theta \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin(n\theta)\mathrm{d}\theta \\ &= \frac{2}{n\pi}[1 - (-1)^n] \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$f(\theta) \sim \frac{4}{\pi} \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{\sin(n\theta)}{n}$$

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1.4 Peridoic extensions: Cosine and sine series

Given a function $f : [0, L) \to \mathbb{C}$ we can define $2L$-periodic even/odd extensions called f_{even}, f_{odd}. Define,

$$f_{even}(\theta) = \begin{cases} f(\theta) & \theta \in [0, L) \\ f(-\theta) & \theta \in [-L, 0) \end{cases}$$

and

$$f_{odd}(\theta) = \begin{cases} f(\theta) & \theta \in [0, L) \\ -f(-\theta) & \theta \in [-L, 0) \end{cases}$$

. Note that $f(\theta) = f_{even}(\theta) = f_{odd}(\theta)$ if $\theta \in [0, L)$.

$$f_{even}(\theta) \sim \frac{1}{2} A_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n \theta}{2L}\right)$$

$$A_n = \frac{2}{2L} \int_{-L}^{L} f_{even}(\theta) cos\left(\frac{2\pi n \theta}{2L}\right) d\theta$$

$$= \frac{2}{L} \int_{0}^{L} f(\theta) cos\left(\frac{2\pi \theta}{L}\right) d\theta$$

simiarly we have that

$$f_{odd}(\theta) \sim \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n \theta}{2L}\right)$$

$$B_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_{0}^{L} f(\theta) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi\theta}{L}\right) d\theta$$

Definition. For $f : [0, L) \to \mathbb{C}$ define its *cosine* and *sine* series by

$$\frac{1}{2} A_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi\theta}{L}\right), \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi\theta}{L}\right)$$

where A_n and B_n defined as before.

For an example consider $f(\theta) = 1$ on $[0, \pi)$. For the sine series,

$$B_n = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin(n\theta) d\theta = \frac{2}{n\pi}(1 - (-1)^n)$$

On the interval $(0, \pi)$ we get that $1 = f(\theta) = f_{odd}(\theta) = 4 \sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \frac{\sin(n\theta)}{n\pi}$. Whereas for the cosine series we get that

$$A_0 = 2, \quad A_n = 0 \quad n \geq 1$$

So for $\theta \in [0, \pi)$ we get that $f_{even} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 = 1 = f(\theta)$.

1.5 Regularity and decay of Fourier coefficients

A true but non-examinable fact is that if $g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}$ is integrable on $[a, b]$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ then

$$\int_{a}^{b} e^{-i\lambda\theta} g(\theta) d\theta \to 0 \text{ as } |\lambda| \to \infty.$$

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IF $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$ is a L-periodic function and integrable on $[0, L)$ then

$$\hat{f} = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L e^{-2\pi i n\theta/L} f(\theta) d\theta$$

so taking $\lambda = \frac{2\pi n}{L}$ gives that $\hat{f}_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$ by the Riemann-Lebesgue lemma. Also

$$a_n = \hat{f}_n + \hat{f}_{-n} \quad b_n = i(\hat{f}_n - \hat{f}_{-n}),$$

both go to zero as $n \to \infty$.

Suppose that f is L-periodic and $f \in C^k(\mathbb{R})$.

$$\hat{f}_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L e^{-2\pi i n\theta/L} f(\theta) d\theta$$

$$= -\frac{1}{L} \left(\frac{L}{2\pi i n} \right) f(\theta) e^{-2\pi i n\theta/L} \Big|_{\theta=0}^L + \left(\frac{L}{2\pi i n} \right) \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L e^{-2\pi i n\theta/L} f'(\theta) d\theta$$

$$= -\frac{L}{2\pi i n} \left[\frac{f(L^-) - f(0^+)}{L} \right] + \frac{L}{2\pi i n} \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L e^{-2\pi i n\theta} f'(\theta) d\theta$$

Since f is periodic and continuously differentiable we have that

$$f(0^+) = f(L^+) = f(L^-)$$

hence the boundary term cancels so repeating we get that

$$\hat{f}_n = \left(\frac{L}{2\pi i n} \right)^k \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L e^{-2\pi i n\theta/L} f^{(k)}(\theta) d\theta$$

and the integral is $o(1)$ by the Rieman-Lebesgue lemma.

So we get that if f is $C^k(\mathbb{R})$ then $\hat{f}_n = o\left(\frac{1}{n^k} \right)$ as $|n| \to \infty$.

1.6   Termwise differentiation

Suppose f is L-periodic continuously differentiable on $[0, L)$ with $f' = g$ thne g is continuous on $[0, L)$ so

$$\hat{g}_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L e^{-2\pi i n\theta/L} f'(\theta) d\theta$$

$$= \frac{f(L^-) - f(0^+)}{L} + \left(\frac{2\pi i n}{L} \right) \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L e^{-2\pi i n\theta/L} f(\theta) d\theta$$

If f is continuous on $\mathbb{R}$ then by periodicity we have that

$$f(0^+) = f(L^+) = f(L^-)$$

so that

$$\hat{g}_n = \left(\frac{2\pi i n}{L} \right) \hat{f}_n$$

i.e.

$$f'(\theta) = g(\theta) \sim \sum_n \left(\frac{2\pi i n}{L} \right) \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i n\theta/L}$$

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1.7 Parseval's theorem

If we have that

$$f(\theta) \sim \sum_n \hat{f}_n e_n(\theta)$$

and

$$g(\theta) \sim \sum_n \hat{g}_n e_n(\theta)$$

then taking the inner product of both function we get that

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_{n,m} \hat{f}_n \overline{\hat{g}_n} \langle e_n, e_m \rangle$$
$$= L \sum_n \hat{f}_n \overline{\hat{g}_n}$$

finally that

$$\frac{1}{L} \int_0^L f(\theta) \overline{g(\theta)} \mathrm{d}\theta = \sum_n \hat{f}_n \overline{\hat{g}_n}$$

and when f and g are the same we get that

$$\frac{1}{L} \int_0^L |f(\theta)|^2 \mathrm{d}\theta = \sum_n |\hat{f}_n|^2$$

2 Sturm-Liouville Theory

2.1 Abstract eigenvalues problem

Recall from IA Vectors and Matrices that a linear map $A : V_N \to V_n$ was called *Hermitian* if $A^\dagger = A$ or equivalently we have that

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot (A\mathbf{y}) = (A\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{x}$$

for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V_N$.

They had properties where all eigenvalues are real, eigenvectors with distinct eigenvalues were orthogonal, and that we could pick an porthogonal set of eigenvectors $\{\mathbf{v}_i\}_{i=1}^N$ such that for each $\mathbf{x} \in V_n$ we have that

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i \mathbf{v}_i$$

where

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{v}_i|^2}.$$

But now we're in $N = \infty$, we can't assume everything we've learnt so far.

Use a vector space of nice functions, $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}$ with an inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle_w = \int_a^b f(x) \overline{g(x)} w(x) \mathrm{d}x.$$

where w is real valued and $w > 0$ on (a, b). We call w the *weight function* associated with the inner product. This gives an associated norm

$$||f|| = \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle_w}$$

when $w(x) = 1$ we just write $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$.

Definition. (Self-adjoint) A linear differential operator, L, is said to be *self-adjoint* on $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_w)$ if

$$\langle Ly_1, y_2 \rangle_w = \langle y_1, Ly_2 \rangle_w \quad \forall y_1, y_2 \in V.$$

Definition. (Eigenfunction/value) For $(y, \lambda) \in (V \backslash \{0\}) \times \mathbb{C}$ is an *eigenfunction, eigenvalue* pair for L if $Ly = \lambda y$.

Proposition. If L is self-adjoint on $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot, \rangle_w)$ then:
  (i) Eigenvalues are real,
  (ii) eigenfunctions with distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal,
  (iii) there exists a complete orthogonal set of eigenfunctions $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ i.e. for each $f \in V$ we can write,
$$f = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \hat{f}_n y_n$$
  where
$$\hat{f}_n = \frac{\langle f, y_n \rangle_w}{||y_n||_w^2}$$

Proof. (For (i)) If $Ly = \lambda y$ with $y \neq 0$ then

$$\begin{aligned}
(\lambda - \bar{\lambda})||y||_w^2 &= \langle \lambda y, y \rangle_w - \langle y, \lambda y \rangle_w \\
&= \langle Ly, y \rangle_w - \langle y, Ly \rangle_w \\
&= 0 \implies \lambda = \bar{\lambda}
\end{aligned}$$

(For (ii)) If $Ly_1 = \lambda_1 y_1, Ly_2 = \lambda_2 y_2$ with $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$,

$$\begin{aligned}
(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)\langle y_1, y_2 \rangle_w &= \langle \lambda_1 y_1, y_2 \rangle_w - \langle y_1, \lambda_2 y_2 \rangle_w \\
&= \langle Ly_1, y_2 \rangle - \langle y_1, Ly_2 \rangle_w \\
&= 0 \implies \langle y_1, y_2 \rangle_w = 0
\end{aligned}$$

The third statement is too hard to prove for this course. $\qquad \square$

We will study problems of the form

$$\begin{cases} Ly = \lambda y a < x < b \\ y \text{ satisfies some boundary conditions at } x = a, b \end{cases} \tag{2.1}$$

Definition. (Sturm-Liouville operator) We say that L is a *Sturm-Liouville operator* on (a, b) if it has the form

$$L = \frac{1}{w}\left[-\frac{d}{dx}\left(p\frac{d\cdot}{dx}\right) + q\cdot\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{w}\left[-p\frac{d^2\cdot}{dx^2} - p^2\frac{d\cdot}{dx} + q\cdot\right]$$

where p, q, w are real valued and $p, w > 0$ on (a, b). We call w the *weight function*.

See that $Ly = \lambda y$ is equvialent to

$$-\frac{d}{dx}\left(p\frac{dy}{dx}\right) + qy = \lambda wy \quad a < x < b.$$

We will enforce boundary conditions by stipulating that y belongs to a suitable vector space of functions that appropriate behaviour at the boundaries.

Definition. (Singular) For a Sturm-Liiouville operator on (a, b) say an endpoint $c \in \{a, b\}$ is *singular* if $p(c) = 0$ and *non-singular* otherwise.

We will impose real homogeneous boundary conditions of the form

$$c \in \{a, b\} \quad \alpha_c y(c) + \beta_c y'(c) = 0$$

at each non-singular endpoint, :w for $\alpha_c, \beta_c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\alpha_c^2 + \beta_c^2 \neq 0$.

We will work on generic vector spaces of the form

$$V = \left\{y \in C^2[a, b] : y \text{ satisfies real homogeneous boundary conditions at each non-singular endpoint}\right\}$$

Let's look at the example

$$-\frac{d}{dx}\left[(1 - x^2)\frac{dy}{dx}\right] = \lambda y \quad -1 < x < 1.$$

So we have that $p = (1 - x^2), q = 0, w = 1$. Then $x = \pm 1$ both singular. Take $V = \{y \in C^2[a, b]\}$ then

$$\langle f, g\rangle_w = \int_{-1}^{1} f(x)\overline{g(x)}dx.$$

Proposition. If L is a Sturm-Lionville operator on (a, b) with weight function w then if $y_1, y_0 \in C^2[a, b]$ we have that

$$\langle Ly_1, y_2\rangle_w - \langle y_1, Ly_2\rangle_w = p(x)W(y_1, \overline{y_2})(x)\Big|_a^b$$

where W is the Wronskian.

So if $y_1, y_2 \in V$ then L is self-adjoint on $(V, \langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle_w)$.

Proof.

$$\int_a^b \frac{1}{w} \left[-(py')' + qy_1 \right] \bar{y}_2 w \mathrm{d}x - \int_a^b y_1 \frac{1}{w} \left[-(p\bar{y}_2)' + q\bar{y}_2 \right] w \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \int_a^b \left[y_1 (p\bar{y}_2)' - \bar{y}_2 (py_1')' \right] \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \int_a^b \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \left[p(x) W(y_1, \bar{y}_2)(x) \right] \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= p(x) W(y_1, \bar{y}_2)(x) \Big|_a^b.$$

Now assume that $y_1, y_2 \in V$. If $x = c \in \{a, b\}$ is singular then $p(c) = 0$ hence $p(c)W(y_1, \bar{y}_2)(c) = 0$. If $c \in \{a, b\}$ non-singular then y_1, y_2 satisfy boundary conditions of the form

$$\alpha_c y(c) + \beta_c y'(c) = 0, \quad \alpha_c, \beta_c \in \mathbb{R}, \alpha_c^2 + \beta_c^2 \neq 0.$$

Since $\alpha_c, \beta_c \in \mathbb{R}$ we know that $\bar{y}$ also satisfies the same boundary conditions hence

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1(c) & y_1'(c) \\ \bar{y}_2(c) & \bar{y}_2'(c) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_c \\ \beta_c \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

So the determinate of the matrix on the left is zero because α_c and β_c don't both equal zero hence $W(y_1, \bar{y}_2)(c) = \det(\cdots) = 0$ Hence we have that

$$\langle Ly_1, y_2 \rangle_w - \langle y_1, Ly_2 \rangle_w = 0$$

for all $y_1, y_2 \in V$. $\qquad\square$

2.2 Sturm-Lioville Eigenvalue problems

We'll be studying problems of the form

$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \left[p \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \right] + qy = \lambda y \quad y \in V$$

where

$$V = \left\{ y \in C^2[a, b] : y \text{ satisfies real homogeneous BCs at each non-ingular end point} \right\}$$

Equip V with an inner product with a weight function as before. Assume elements of V are real-valued *wlog* since if $y = u + iv$ and $Ly = \lambda y$ then we can split up into

$$Lu = \lambda u, \quad Lv = \lambda v$$

since $p, q, w, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. So

$$\langle y_1, y_2 \rangle_w = \int_a^b y_1(x) y_2(x) \mathrm{d}x.$$

Since L is self-adjoint, we know there exists $(y_n, \lambda_n) \in (V \setminus \{0\}) \times \mathbb{R}$ such that $Ly_n = \lambda_n y_n$ with $\langle y_n, y_m \rangle_w = 0$ if $\lambda_n \neq \lambda_m$ and for $f \in V$ we have

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \hat{f}_n y_n(x)$$

$$\hat{f}_n = \frac{\langle f, y_n \rangle_w}{||y_n||_w^2}$$

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are the generalised Fourier coefficients of f. It will also be the cases that $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \cdots$ with $\lambda_n \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$. Let's look at an example. Take

$$\begin{cases} -y'' = \lambda y & 0 < x < L \\ y(0) = y(L) = 0 \end{cases}$$

so $p = w = 1$ and $q = 0$ and $V = \{y \in C^2[0, L] : y(0) = y(L) = 0\}$.

Solving $y'' + \lambda y = 0$ then $y = A \sin\left(\sqrt{\lambda} x\right) + B \cos\left(\sqrt{\lambda} x\right)$. If $\lambda \leq 0$ we only get the trivial solution, so we must have that $\lambda > 0$. If we use $y(0) = 0 \implies B = 0$ and $y(L) = 0 \implies A \sin\left(\sqrt{\lambda} L\right) = 0$ so other than the trivial solution, we have that

$$\sqrt{\lambda} = \frac{n\pi}{L}, \quad n = 1, 2, \ldots$$

So

$$\lambda = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2, \quad y_n(x) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right).$$

We can see that $\lambda_n \to \infty$ and $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \cdots$ and

$$\langle y_n, y_m \rangle = \int_0^L \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi x}{L}\right) dx$$

$$= \frac{L}{2} \delta_{nm}$$

For $f \in V$,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \hat{f}_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

$$\hat{f}_n = \frac{\langle f, y_n \rangle}{||y_n||^2}$$

$$= \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) dx$$

We have re-derived the Fourier sine series from the previous section.

2.3   Reduction to Sturn-Lionville form

Consider a general eigenvalue problem of the form

$$\alpha(x)\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \beta(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + \gamma(x)y + \lambda y = 0$$

with $\alpha(x) > 0$. Divide the equation by $\alpha(x)$ and multiply by

$$I(x) = \exp\left[\int^x \frac{\beta(t)}{\alpha(t)} dt\right]$$

Proposition. The equation

$$\alpha(x)\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 y}{\mathrm{d}x^2} + \beta(x)\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} + \gamma(x)y + \lambda y = 0$$

is equivalent to

$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left[p\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}\right] + qy = \lambda wy$$

where
   (i) $p(x) = I(x)$,
   (ii) $q(x) = -\frac{I(x)\gamma(x)}{\alpha(x)}$,
   (iii) $w(x) = \frac{I(x)}{\alpha(x)}$.

Proof.

$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left[p\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}\right] + qy - \lambda wy = I\left[-\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 y}{\mathrm{d}x^2} - \frac{\beta(x)}{\alpha(x)}\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} - \frac{\gamma(x)}{\alpha(x)}y - \frac{\lambda y}{\alpha(x)}\right]$$

since $I > 0$ we get that the equation is zero if and only if $LHS = 0$. □

For an example consider

$$\begin{cases} y'' = 2y' + \lambda y = 0 & 0 < x < 1 \\ y(0) = y'(1) = 0 \end{cases}$$

So we have that

$$I(x) = \exp\left[\int^x -\frac{2}{1}\right] = e^{-2x}$$

So the ODE becomes

$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left[e^{-2x}\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}\right] = \lambda e^{-2x}y.$$

So we get e^{-2x} as our weight function.

To solve put $y \propto e^{-\alpha x} \implies \alpha = 1 \pm \sqrt{1-\lambda}$ So if $\lambda \neq 1$ we'll get solutions of the form

$$y = e^x\left[Ae^{x\sqrt{1-\lambda}} + Be^{-x\sqrt{1-\lambda}}\right]$$

We need $1 - \lambda < 0$ for non-trivial solutions.

We can see $y(0 = 0 \implies B = 0$ and $y'(1) = 0 \implies Ae\left[\sin\mu + \mu\cos\mu\right] = 0$ where $\mu^2 = \lambda - 1$ and $\mu > 0$ *wlog*. So $\tan\mu = -\mu$. By plotting the graph we can see we have infinitely many solutions for the equation. Call $\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots$ so we have $\lambda_n = 1 + \mu_n^2$. From the graph we have that $\mu_n \to \infty$ hence $\lambda_n \to \infty$. The corresponding eigenfunctions are

$$y_n(x) = e^x\sin(\mu_n x), \quad n = 1, 2, \ldots$$

Check that $\langle y_n, y_m \rangle \propto \delta_{nm}$. For $n \neq m$

$$\langle y_n, y_m \rangle_w = \int_0^1 e^x \sin(\mu_n x) e^x \sin(\mu_m x) e^{-2x} \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \int_0^1 \sin(\mu_n x) \sin(\mu_m x) \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \left[\cos((\mu_n - \mu_m)x) - \cos((\mu_n + \mu_m)x) \right] \mathrm{d}x$$

$$\vdots$$

$$= 0$$

(ommitting a large amount of the algebra.)

2.4   Legendre's Equation

Consider an eigenvalue problem defined as

$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left[(1-x^2)\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}\right] = \lambda y \quad -1 < x < 1$$

So $p = 1 - x^2$, $q = 0$, $w = 1$. Since both endpoints are singular, work on $V = C^2[-1,1]$. Since $x = 0$ is a regular point we can look for solutions in the form

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n.$$

By subbing in, we get that

$$a_{n+2} = \left[\frac{n(n+1) - \lambda}{(n+1)(n+2)}\right] a_n$$

Which gives two linearly independent solutions.

$$y_0 = a_0 \left[1 + \frac{(-\lambda)x^2}{2!} + \frac{(-\lambda)(6-\lambda)x^3}{4!} + \cdots\right]$$

$$y_1 = a_1 \left[x + \frac{(2-\lambda)x^3}{3!} + \frac{(2-\lambda)(12-\lambda)x^5}{5!} + \cdots\right].$$

Note that y_0 collapses if $\lambda = 0, 6$. In general if $\lambda = k(k+1)$ for $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ either y_0 or y_1 gives a polynomial. What if $\lambda \neq k(k+1)$? Since the ratio $\left|\frac{a_{n+2}}{a_n}\right| \to 1$ we know that both series will converge on $|x| < 1$. This doesn't tell us about $y(\pm 1)$. Let's look at y_0 only, y_1 is treated similiar. Let $A_n = a_{2n}$, so

$$\frac{A_n}{A_{n+1}} = \frac{(2n+1)(2n+2)}{2n(2n+1) - \lambda} = 1 + \frac{1}{n} + \varepsilon_n$$

where $|\varepsilon_n| \leq M/n^2$, $M = M(\lambda) > 0$. In particular the RHS true for n sufficiently large, say $n \geq N$. So $\{A_n\}$ have the same sign for $n \geq N$. Using $e^x > 1 + x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ we get that

$$\frac{|A_n|}{|A_{n+1}|} \leq e^{1/n} + |\varepsilon_n|$$

$$\implies |A_{n+1}| \geq \frac{e^{-1/n}|A_n|}{1 + e^{-1/n}|\varepsilon_n|}$$

$$\geq \frac{e^{-1/n}|A_n|}{1 + |\varepsilon_n|} \geq e^{-1/n}|A_n|e^{-|2n}$$

So for $n \geq N$ we can repeat to get that

$$|A_{n+1}| \geq |A_n| \exp\left[-\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n-1} + \cdots + \frac{1}{N}\right) - (|\varepsilon_n| + \cdots + |\varepsilon_N|)\right]$$

hence we have that

$$|A_{n+1}| \geq |A_N|e^{-H_n + H_{N-1}}e^{-M\pi^2/6}.$$

Since $H_n \leq \log n + 2\gamma$

$$|A_{n+1}| \geq |A_N|e^{H_{N-1} - M\pi^2/6}e^{-\log n - 2\gamma}$$

$$> \frac{c}{n+1}$$

Hence we have that

$$y_0 = \sum_{n \leq N} A_n x^{2n} + \sum_{n > N} A_n x^{2n}$$

and since $\{A_n\}$ have the same sign, assume all positive *wlog*. Note that

$$\sum_{n > N} A_n x^{2n} > c \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{n} - \sum_{n \leq N} \frac{x^{2n}}{n}.$$

$$= C\left[\log\left(\frac{1}{1 - x^2}\right) - \text{(some polynomial in x)}\right] \to \infty \quad \text{as } x \to \pm 1.$$

So $y_0 \notin V$ so we must have that $\lambda_k = k(k+1)$. This gives an even polynomial of degree k from y_0. Make normalisation so $y(1) = 1$ choosing a_0 and a_1 accordingly then the solutions are called Legendre polynomials.

2.5 Bessel's Equation

Fix an integer $n \geq 0$. Consider the eigenvalue problem

$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left[r\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}\right] + \frac{m^2}{r}y = \lambda r y$$

with $0 < r < 1$ and $y(1) = 0$. We have $p = r, q = \frac{m^2}{r}, w = r$. Expanding out derivatives gives that

$$r^2 y'' + r y' + (\lambda r^2 - m^2)y = 0.$$

Set $z = \sqrt{\lambda}r$ (we can show that $\lambda > 0$). Set $R(z) = y(r)$. This gives that

$$z^2 R'' + zR' + (z^2 - m^2)R = 0 \quad 0 < z < \sqrt{\lambda}, R(\sqrt{\lambda}) = 0$$

. This is *Bessel's equation of order m*. Since $x = 0$ is a regular singular point, get can get solutions in the form

$$z \to z^\sigma \sum_{n=0}^\infty a_n z^n$$

by Fuch's theorem. We get two linearly independent solutions only one of which is non-singular as $z \to 0$. Label the cooresponding solution $R = J_m(z)$. We can show that

$$J_m(z) = \left(\frac{z}{2}\right)^m \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{(-1)^n}{n!(n+m)!} \left(\frac{z}{2}\right)^{2n}.$$

These are *Bessel functions of the first kind* of order m. We can show that $J_n(z)$ has infinitely many zeros on the z axis, we label them j_{mk}. Since we require that $J_m(\sqrt{\lambda}) = 0$, solutions to the equation are

$$y_k(r) = J_m(j_{mk}r), \quad \lambda_k = j_{mk}^2$$

for $k = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$

2.6   Inhomogeneous Problems

Let L be a Sturm-Liouville operator. Consider problems of the form

$$\text{find } y \in V : Ly = f \in V.$$

wlog, $w = 1$. Let $\{y_k\}$ be normalised eigenfunctions of L. Be completeness we can write that

$$y = \sum A_k y_K, \quad f = \sum B_k y_k$$
$$\implies \sum_{k=1}^\infty (\lambda_k A_k - B_k)y_k = 0$$
$$\implies \lambda_k A_k = B_k \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$$

So if $\lambda_k \neq 0$, $A_k = B_k/\lambda_k$, we get have

$$y(x) = \sum_{k=1}^\infty \frac{B_k}{\lambda_k} y_k(x), \quad B_k = \int_a^b f(\xi)y_k(\xi)\mathrm{d}\xi$$

Putting the B_k into y and changing sums and integrals we get that

$$y(x) = \int_a^b G(x;\xi)f(\xi)\mathrm{d}\xi$$

where

$$G(x;\xi) = \sum_{k=1}^\infty \frac{y_k(\xi)y_k(x)}{\lambda_k}$$

is called the Green's function.

3   Linear PDEs and Seperation of Variables

3.1   Superposition

We will be interested in solving boundary value problems (BVP) and initial boundary value problems (IBVP)

$$(\dagger) \begin{cases} P\psi(\mathbf{x}) = 0 & \mathbf{x} \in \Omega \\ \text{some B.Cs} & \mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega \end{cases}$$

$$(\dagger\dagger) \begin{cases} Q\phi(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0 & (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \Omega \times (0, T) \\ \text{some I.Cs} & (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \Omega \times \{t = 0\} \\ \text{some B.Cs} & (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \partial\Omega \times (0, T) \end{cases}$$

where P, Q are *linear* partial differentiable operators and Ω will be bounded on an open subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$ for $n = 1, 2, 3$.

Remark. We can split $(\dagger\dagger)$ into

$$\begin{cases} Q\phi_1(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0 \quad Q\phi_2(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0 & (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \cdots \\ \text{I.Cs} = 0 \quad\quad \text{some I.Cs} & \vdots \\ \text{Some B.Cs} \quad \text{B.Cs} = & (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \cdots \end{cases}$$

In this course, Ω will always be (possibly after a change of variables) a line/rectangle/cuboid. So *wlog* we can always deal with B.Cs that are zero everywhere apart from on one endpoint/edge/face. For example

$$(\dagger\dagger\dagger) = \begin{cases} P\psi(\mathbf{x}) = 0 & \mathbf{x} \in (0, 1) \times (0, 1) \\ \psi = f_1 & \text{on side } i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, 3, 4 \end{cases}$$

We could look at 4 problems for $\{\psi_i\}_{i=1}^4$

$$\begin{cases} P\psi_i(\mathbf{x}) = 0 & \mathbf{x} \in (0, 1) \times (0, 1) \\ \psi_i = 0 & \text{on side } \neq i \\ \psi_i = f_i & \text{on side } = i \end{cases}$$

Then $\psi = \psi_1 + \cdots + \psi_4$ solves $(\dagger\dagger\dagger)$.

3.2   Laplace's Equation

Recall for $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, Laplace's equation is

$$\Delta\varphi = 0$$

where $\Delta = \nabla \cdot \nabla = \nabla^2$. So on the Cartesian coordinates,

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \cdots + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}.$$

We say that φ is *harmonic* if $\Delta\varphi = 0$. Harmonic functions are always infinitely differentiable. Let's look at an example.

If $\mathbf{u} : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ is the velocity of an incompressible fluid (so $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$) that is irrotational, i.e. $\nabla \times \mathbf{u} = 0$ then we can solve Laplace's equation. Since $\mathbf{u}$ is irrotational on the whole of $\mathbb{R}^3$ there exists a scalar potential such that $\mathbf{u} = \nabla \varphi$. Then $\Delta \varphi = \nabla \cdot (\nabla \varphi) = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$.

We will consider BVPs of the following

$$\begin{cases} \Delta \varphi(\mathbf{x}) = 0 & \mathbf{x} \in \Omega \\ B\varphi = f(\mathbf{x}) & \mathbf{x} \in \partial \Omega \end{cases}$$

where $B\varphi \equiv \varphi$ (Dirichlet) or $B\varphi = \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial \mathbf{n}}$ (Neumann), or even $B\varphi = \varphi + \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial \mathbf{n}}$ (Robin).

3.2.1 Serpation of variables on the square

Consider

$$\begin{cases} \varphi_{xx} + \varphi_{yy} = 0 & (x,y) \in (0,1) \times (0,1) \\ \varphi(x,y) = 0 & \text{on } x = 0, x = 1, y = 0 \\ \varphi(x,1) = f(x) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Try a separable solution of the form $\varphi = X(x)Y(y)$. Then we get that

$$X''(x)Y(y) + X(x)Y''(y) = 0.$$

Dividing through by XY gives that

$$\frac{X''(x)}{X(x)} + \frac{Y''(y)}{Y(y)} = 0,$$

hence there exists a $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\frac{X''}{X} = -\lambda, \quad \frac{Y''}{Y} = \lambda.$$

Since $\varphi = 0$ at $x = 0, 1$ looking just at the X-equation we get that

$$\begin{cases} X'' + \lambda X = 0 & 0 < x < 1 \\ X(0) = 0 \\ X(1) = 0 \end{cases}.$$

This is a Sturm-Liouville problem. So there exists $(X_n, \lambda_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ solutions with $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \cdots$ and $\langle X_n, X_m \rangle = \int_0^1 X_n(x) X_m(x) \mathrm{d}x \propto \delta_{nm}$.

We check that we require $\lambda > 0$ for non-trivial solutions. General solutions are

$$X(x) = A \sin\left(\sqrt{\lambda} x\right) + B \cos\left(\sqrt{\lambda} x\right)$$

with $X(0) = 0 \implies B = 0$ and $X(1) = 0 \implies A \sin\left(\sqrt{\lambda}\right) = 0 \implies \lambda = \lambda_n = (n\pi)^2$. So we get that $X_n(x) = \sin(n\pi x)$ with eigenvalues $\lambda_n = (n\pi)^2$ and that $\langle X_n, X_m \rangle = \frac{1}{2}\delta_{nm}$. The Y problem becomes $Y'' - (n\pi)^2 Y = 0$ with $Y(0) = 0$ which gives that

$$Y = A \sinh(n\pi y) + B \cosh(n\pi y).$$

Now $Y(0) = 0 \implies B = 0$, so $Y_n(y) = A_n \sinh(n\pi y)$. So we have functions $\{\varphi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ with

$$\varphi_n(x, y) = A_n \sin(n\pi x) \sinh(n\pi y)$$

and each satisfies $\Delta \varphi_n = 0$ in $(0,1) \times (0,1)$ and $\varphi_n = 0$ on $x = 0, x = 1, y = 0$. So same is true for their sum

$$\varphi(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \sin(n\pi x) \sinh(n\pi y).$$

We still want that $\varphi(x, 1) = f(x)$ so we set

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \sin(n\pi x) \sinh(n\pi)$$

we need to find the A_ns to use get equality.

By orthogonality

$$\langle f, X_n \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \langle X_n, X_m \rangle \sinh(m\pi)$$

$$= \frac{A_n}{2} \sinh(n\pi)$$

So our final solution is

$$\varphi(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \sin(n\pi x) \sinh(n\pi y)$$

where

$$A_n = \frac{2}{\sinh(n\pi)} \langle f, X_n \rangle = \frac{2}{\sinh(n\pi)} \int_0^1 f(x) \sin(n\pi x) \mathrm{d}x$$

3.2.2 Seperation of variables in a disc/annulus

We want to solve Laplace's equation in the region $r_1 < |\mathbf{x}| < r_2$ in the (x, y) plane. Use plane polar coordinates (r, θ) so that Laplace's equation becomes

$$\Delta \varphi = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial \theta^2} = 0.$$

Look for seperable solutions in the form $\varphi = R(r)\Theta(\theta)$. So

$$\frac{r(rR')'}{R} + \frac{\Theta''}{\Theta} = 0$$

so there exists a $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$r(rR')' = \lambda R$$
$$\Theta'' + \lambda \Theta = 0.$$

The solution to the Θ-equation is going to be

$$\Theta(\theta) = \begin{cases} A\cos\left(\sqrt{\lambda}\theta\right) + B\sin\left(\sqrt{\lambda}\theta\right) & \lambda > 0 \\ A\theta + B & \lambda = 0 \\ A\cosh\left(\sqrt{\lambda}\theta\right) + B\sinh\left(\sqrt{\lambda}\theta\right) & \lambda < 0 \end{cases}.$$

We need $\Theta(\theta + 2\pi) = \Theta(\theta)$ for all θ. This forces Θ to be a constant or $\lambda > 0$ with $\lambda = n^2$ for $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. So

$$\Theta_0(\theta) = A$$
$$\Theta_n(\theta) = C_n \cos(n\theta) + D_n \sin(n\theta)$$

Plug $\lambda = n^2$ into the R-equation. So

$$r(rR')' = n^2 R$$

For $n = 0$ we have that rR' is constant, integrating gives that

$$R_0(r) = A + B \log r.$$

And for $n > 0$ we try a solution in the form $R(r) = r^\alpha$. Plugging this gives that $\alpha^2 = n^2$ so $\alpha = \pm n$,

$$R_n(r) = A_n r^n + B_n r^{-n}$$

so we have the general solution

$$\varphi(r, \theta) = A + B \log r + \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \left[A_n r^n + B_n r^{-n}\right] \left[C_n \cos(n\theta) + D_n \sin(n\theta)\right].$$

If the point $r = 0$ belongs to our domain we have to throw out the r^{-n} and $\log r$ terms since they're not defined. So we must take $B = B_n = 0$ for each n.

Let's see an example.
Solve

$$\Delta\varphi = 0 \quad r_1 < r < r_2$$

with $\varphi = 0$ on $r = r_1$ and $\varphi = f(\theta)$ on $r = r_2$. We can repeat analysis but require $R_n(r) = 0$ where $r = r_1$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$. Then $R_0(r) = \log\left(\frac{r}{r_1}\right)$ and $R(r) = \left(\frac{r}{r_1}\right)^n - \left(\frac{r_1}{r}\right)^n$ to get solutions of the form

$$\varphi(r, \theta) = C_0 \log\left(\frac{r}{r_1}\right) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{r}{r_1}\right)^n - \left(\frac{r_1}{r}\right)\right] \left[A_n \cos(n\theta) + B_n \sin(n\theta)\right].$$

The boundary condition $r = r_2$ gives that

$$f(\theta) = C_0 \log\left(\frac{r_2}{r_1}\right) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{r_2}{r_1}\right)^n - \left(\frac{r_1}{r_2}\right)\right] \left[A_n \cos(n\theta) + B_n \sin(n\theta)\right].$$

which can be written as

$$f(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} a_0 + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[a_n \cos(n\theta) + b_n \sin(n\theta)\right]$$

i.e. the right hand side should be a Fourier series for f. So a_n and b_n are given by

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\theta) \cos(n\theta) \mathrm{d}\theta$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\theta) \sin(n\theta) \mathrm{d}\theta.$$

For a more general problem, where φ takes the values of a function $g(\theta)$ on the interior $r = r_1$, we write that $\varphi = \varphi_1 + \varphi_2$ where $\varphi_i = 0$ on r_i and use superposition to split our task up for two Fourier series computations.

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3.2.3 Seperation of variables on a ball/shell (anti-symmetric case)

We want to solve $\Delta\varphi = 0$ in the region $a < |\mathbf{x}| < b$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$ but under the restriction that the problem is symmetric about the z-axis. We'll work in spherical polar coordinates, so

$$\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left[r^2\frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial r}\right] + \frac{1}{r^2\sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left[\sin\theta\frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial\theta}\right] + \frac{1}{r^2\sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2\varphi}{\partial\phi^2} = 0.$$

Here the last term vanishes using symmetry about the z-axis. Look for a solution in the form $\varphi = R(r)\Theta(\theta)$ so

$$\frac{[r^2R']'}{R} + \frac{1}{\Theta\sin\theta}[\sin\theta\cdot\theta']' = 0$$

so there exists a $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$[r^2R']' = \lambda R - [\sin\theta\cdot\Theta']' = \lambda\sin\theta\cdot\Theta$$

which then can be solved using the techniques discussed earlier.

3.3 Wave Equation

Consider a taut string, under constant tension τ clamped at ends $x = 0$ and $x = L$. Let $y = y(x, t)$ denote vertical displacement of the string. Assume that oscillations are transverse and that the slope $|y_x| \ll 1$. Note that

$$|y(x,t)| = \left|\int_0^x y_x(s,t)\mathrm{d}s\right|$$

$$\leq \int_0^L |y_x|\mathrm{d}s \ll 1.$$

Take a diagram of a string with tension τ arcing upwards. Let there be two points x_A and x_B with midpoint x. Let θ_A and θ_B be the subtended angles from the string to the horizontal respectively. Then resolving forces horizontally we get that (given no transverse motion) that

$$\tau\cos\theta_B - \tau\cos\theta_A = 0.$$

This is consistant since that $\tan\theta_A = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_A$ so we get that $\cos\theta_A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x})_A^2}} \approx 1$. Also the mass of the string is proportional to its length so

$$\int_{x_A}^{x_B} \mathrm{d}s = \int_{x_A}^{x_B}\sqrt{1+y_x^2}\mathrm{d}x \approx \delta x.$$

So reasonable to assume that mass is $\mu\delta x$ where $\mu > 0$ is density. Resolving vertically and using Newton's second law gives that

$$\frac{\mu\delta x}{\tau}\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\tau\sin\theta_B}{\tau\cos\theta_B} - \frac{\tau\sin\theta_A}{\tau\cos\theta_A} = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_B - \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_A.$$

Divide by τ to ge that $\tau = \tau\cos\theta_A = \tau\cos\theta_B$ to leading order. Hence by MVT we get that

$$\frac{\mu}{\tau}\delta x\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial^2 t} = \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2}\delta x.$$

where the first partial is evaluated at x and the second is evaluated at some $\xi \in (x_A, x_B)$. Divide by δx and take $\delta x \to 0$ and $\xi \to x$ giving that

$$\frac{1}{c^2}\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2}, \quad c^2 = \frac{\tau}{\mu}.$$

call c the wave speed. We have boundary conditions given by $y(0, t) = y(L, t) = 0$ and Newton's second law gives initial conditions that $y(x, 0) = f(x)$ and $y_t(x, 0) = g(x)$.

3.3.1 Waves on a string

Solve IBVP

$$\begin{cases} y_t t - c^2 y_x x = 0 & (x, t) = (0, L) \times (0, \infty) \\ y(0, t) = 0 & t \in (0, \infty) \\ y(L, t) = 0 & t \in (0, \infty) \\ y(x, 0) = f(x) & x \in (0, L) \\ y_t(x, 0) = g(x) & x \in (0, L) \end{cases}$$

Try a solution in the form $y = X(x)T(t)$ with $X(0) = 0$ and $X(L) = 0$. We get that

$$\frac{\ddot{T}}{c^2 T} = \frac{X''}{X}$$

so there must exists some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that we have that

$$X'' + \lambda X = 0$$
$$X(0) = X(L) = 0$$

and

$$\ddot{T} + \lambda c^2 T = 0.$$

The solutions to the X equation is a S-L problem, which has known solutions with

$$X_n(x) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right), \quad \lambda_n = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

The T-equation becomes

$$\ddot{T} + \left(\frac{n\pi c}{L}\right)^2 T = 0$$

which we solve as

$$T_n(t) = A_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi ct}{L}\right) + B_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi ct}{L}\right)$$

so by superposition,

$$y(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)\left[A_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi ct}{L}\right) + B_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi ct}{L}\right)\right]$$

solves the wave equation with $y(0, t) = y(L, t) = 0$. The initial conditions gives that

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right), \quad g(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n\pi c}{L}\right) B_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right).$$

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which look like the sine series. By orthogonality $\langle X_n, X_m \rangle = \frac{L}{2}\delta_{nm}$, so

$$A_n = \frac{2}{L}\int_0^L f(x)\sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)\mathrm{d}x$$

$$B_n = \left(\frac{L}{n\pi c}\right)\frac{2}{L}\int_0^L g(x)\sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)\mathrm{d}x$$

3.3.2 Waves on a drum

The higher dimensional analogue of the wave equation is

$$\frac{1}{c^2}\frac{\partial^2\varphi}{\partial t^2} = \Delta\varphi$$

Solving the IBVP on a drum,

$$\Omega = \{(r,\theta) : 0 \le r < 1, 0 \le \theta < 2\pi\}$$

$$\varphi_{tt} - c^2\Delta\varphi = 0 \quad \Omega \times (0,\infty)$$
$$\varphi = 0 \quad \partial\Omega \times (0,\infty)$$
$$\varphi = f \quad \Omega \times t = 0$$
$$\varphi_t = g \quad \Omega \times t = 0$$

For simplicity assume that $f = f(r)$, $g = g(r)$. So that $\varphi = \varphi(r,t)$. Wave equation becomes

$$\frac{1}{c^2}\frac{\partial^2\varphi}{\partial t^2} = \frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r\frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial r}\right) + \frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial^2\varphi}{\partial\theta^2}.$$

Where the last term is zero since the solution is independent of θ. So we can try a solution in the form $\varphi = R(r)T(t)$. Hence

$$\frac{\ddot{T}}{c^2 T} = \frac{[rR']'}{rR}.$$

So there exists a $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left[r\frac{R}{r}\right] = \lambda r R \qquad 0 < r < 1, R(1) = 0$$
$$\ddot{T} + c^2\lambda T = 0.$$

So the R-equation is the Bessel problem with $m = 0$. This gives solutions

$$R_k(r) = J_0(j_{0k}r), \quad \lambda_k = j_{0k}^2.$$

The T-equation becomes

$$\ddot{T} + (cj_{0k})^2 T = 0$$

so we get a solution in the form

$$\varphi(r,t) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} J_0(j_{0k}r)\left[A_k\cos(j_{0k}ct) + B_k\sin(j_{0k}ct)\right]$$

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which solves the PDE and boundary conditions. The initial conditions are

$$f(r) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k J_0(j_{0k}r)$$

$$g(r) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k j_{0k} c J_0(j_{0k}r)$$

Recall that $\langle R_k, R_\ell \rangle_w = \int_0^1 J_0(j_{0k}r)J_0(j_{0\ell}r)r\mathrm{d}r = \frac{1}{2}J_0'(j_{0k})^2 \delta_{k\ell}$, so by orthogonality we get that

$$A_k = \frac{2}{J_0'(j_{0k})}^2 \int_0^1 f(r)J(j_{0k}r)r\mathrm{d}r$$

$$B_k = \frac{2}{J_0'(j_{0k})^2}\frac{1}{cj_{0k}}\int_0^1 g(r)J_0(j_{0k}r)r\mathrm{d}r$$

Missed Lecture - 03.11.25

3.4   The Heat Equation

The temperature of a conductive material, $\varphi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ satisfies the *heat equation* which is

$$\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} = \kappa \Delta \varphi$$

where $\kappa > 0$ is a constant. We are interested in the IBVP

$$(\dagger\dagger) \begin{cases} \varphi_t - \kappa \Delta \varphi = 0 & \Omega \times (0, \infty) \\ \varphi = 0 & \partial\Omega \times (0, \infty \\ \varphi = f & \Omega \times \{t = 0\} \end{cases}.$$

We'll try a solution in the form $\varphi = T(t)\psi(\mathbf{x})$. Plugging in, for some $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ we get that

$$\dot{T} + \kappa\mu = 0$$

and

$$-\Delta\psi = \mu\psi$$

. We get that $T(t) = e^{-\kappa\mu t}$. We can see that T does not vanish on the boundary (unless T is trivial), hence we can impose the vanishing boundary condition onto ψ. So we're now solving

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta\psi = \mu\psi & \mathbf{x} \in \Omega \\ \psi = 0 & \mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega \end{cases}.$$

Solutions to this depend on the geometry of Ω.

3.4.1   Heat conduction on a square sheet

Take $\Omega = \{(x, y) \in (0, L) \times (0, L)\}$. Try a solution seperable in x and y, $\psi = X(x)Y(y)$. So we get that

$$\frac{X''}{X} + \frac{Y''}{Y} + \mu = 0.$$

So there exists a $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $X'' + \lambda X = 0$ and $Y'' + (\mu - \lambda)Y = 0$. We also have the requirement that $X(0) = X(L) = Y(0) = Y(L) = 0$. The X-equation gives that

$$X_n(x) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right), \quad \lambda_n = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2$$

and the Y-equation gives that

$$Y = A\sin\left(y\sqrt{\mu - \lambda_n}\right) + B\cos\left(y\sqrt{\mu - \lambda_n}\right)$$

So $Y(0) = 0 \implies B = 0$ and $Y(L) = 0$ gives that

$$\mu_{mn} - \lambda_n = \left(\frac{m\pi}{L}\right)^2$$

so

$$Y_n(y) = \sin\left(\frac{m\pi y}{L}\right), \quad \mu_{mn} = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{m\pi}{L}\right)^2$$

so by superposition we get that

$$\varphi(x, y, t) = \sum_{m,n=1}^{\infty} A_{mn} e^{-\kappa\mu_{mn}t} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi y}{L}\right)$$

satisfies the heat equation and the boundary condition $\varphi = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$. Now to impose the initial condition,

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{n,m=1}^{\infty} A_{mn} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi y}{L}\right).$$

So using $\langle X_n, X_k \rangle = \frac{1}{2}\delta_{nk}$ we get that

$$A_{mn} = \frac{4}{L^2} \int_0^L dx \int_0^L dy f(x, y) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi y}{L}\right).$$

3.4.2 Heat flow down a pipe

In cylindrical polars,

$$\Omega = \{(\rho, \phi, z) : 0 \le \rho < 1, 0 \le \phi < 2\pi, 0 < z < L\}$$

Want to solve

$$(\dagger\dagger) \begin{cases} \varphi_t - \kappa\Delta\varphi = 0 & \Omega \times (0, \infty) \\ \varphi = 0 & \partial\Omega \times (0, \infty) \\ \varphi = f & \Omega \times \{t = 0\} \end{cases}.$$

For simplicity we'll assume that $f = f(\rho, z)$. We'll look for solutions $\varphi = T(t)\psi(\rho, z)$. So

$$-\Delta\psi = \mu\varphi$$

$$\implies \frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial}{\partial\rho}\left(\rho\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial\rho}\right) + \frac{\partial^2\psi}{\partial z^2} + \mu\psi = 0$$

We'll try $\psi(\rho, z) = P(\rho)Z(z)$. So there exists a $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$-\frac{1}{\rho P}[\rho P']' = \lambda, \quad Z'' + (\mu - \lambda)Z = 0.$$

i.e.
$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\rho}\left[\rho\frac{\mathrm{d}P}{\mathrm{d}\rho}\right] = \lambda\rho P \quad 0 < p < 1, \quad P(1) = 0$$

This is Bessel's problem with $m = 0$.

$$P_k(\rho) = J_0(j_{0k}\rho), \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots$$
$$\lambda_k = j_{0k}^2.$$

This Z-equation becomes

$$Z'' + (\mu - \lambda_k)Z = 0, \quad Z(0) = Z(L) = 0$$

Hence we get that

$$Z_n(t) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi z}{L}\right)$$

with $\mu_{kn} - \lambda_k = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2$ for $n = 1, 2, \ldots$. By superposition we get that

$$\varphi(\rho, z, t) = \sum_{n,k=1}^{\infty} B_{nk} e^{-\kappa\mu_{kn}t} J_0(j_{0k}\rho)\sin\left(\frac{n\pi z}{L}\right)$$

is a solution to the heat equation, and the boundary condition $\varphi = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$. For the initial conditions we need,

$$f(\rho, t) = \sum_{n,k=1}^{\infty} B_{nk} J_0(j_{0k}\rho)\sin\left(\frac{n\pi z}{L}\right).$$

Recall that

$$\int_0^1 J_0(j_{0k}\rho)J_0(j_{0\ell}\rho)\rho\,\mathrm{d}\rho = \frac{1}{2}J_0'(j_{0k})^2\delta_{k\ell}$$

We get that

$$B_{nk} = \frac{4}{LJ_0'(j_{0k})^2}\int_0^L \mathrm{d}\rho\int_0^L \mathrm{d}z\rho f(\rho z)J_0(j_{0k}\rho)\sin\left(\frac{n\pi z}{L}\right)$$

3.4.3 Heat loss and uniqueness

Recall again our problem

$$(\dagger\dagger)\begin{cases} \varphi_t - \kappa\Delta\varphi = 0 & \Omega\times(0,\infty) \\ \varphi = 0 & \partial\Omega\times(0,\infty) \\ \varphi = f & \Omega\times\{t=0\} \end{cases}.$$

is the solution to $(\dagger\dagger)$ unique? Define the energy Q of the system as

$$Q(t) = \frac{1}{2}\int_\Omega \varphi(\mathbf{x}, t)^2\mathrm{d}V.$$

Then

$$Q'(t) = \int_\Omega \varphi_t \varphi \mathrm{d}V$$

$$= \int_\Omega \kappa \varphi \Delta \varphi \mathrm{d}V$$

$$= \kappa \int_\Omega \left[\nabla \cdot (\varphi \nabla \varphi) - |\nabla \varphi|^2 \right] \mathrm{d}V$$

$$= \kappa \int_{\partial\Omega} \varphi \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial \mathbf{n}} \mathrm{d}S - \kappa \int_\Omega |\nabla \varphi|^2 \mathrm{d}V$$

The first integral is zero by the boundary condition, and the second integral is clearly non-negative, so $Q'(t) \leq 0$. So $Q(t) \leq Q(0) = \frac{1}{2} \int_\Omega f(\mathbf{x})^2 \mathrm{d}V$.

Proposition. The solution to the problem in (††) is unique.

Proof. Suppose φ_1, φ_2 satisfy (††) and set $\varphi = \varphi_1 - \varphi_2$. Then φ satisfies (††) with $f = 0$. So

$$\int_\Omega \varphi(\mathbf{x}, t)^2 \mathrm{d}V \leq Q(0) = 0$$

hence $\varphi(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0$ on $\Omega \times (0, \infty)$ hence $\varphi_1 = \varphi_2$. $\qquad\square$

4 Inhomogeneous Problems and Green's Functions

4.1 The Dirac Delta Function

We say this mysterious function $\delta(x)$ in IA Differential Equations. It has the properties that

$$\delta(x) = 0 \quad \text{for } x \neq 0$$

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} \delta(x) \mathrm{d}x = 1$$

We can make this (slightly) rigorous by definiting a sequence of functions

$$\delta_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{\alpha} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{1 - n^2 x^2}\right] & |x| < \frac{1}{n} \\ 0 & |x| \geq \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}$$

where

$$\alpha = \int_{-1}^{1} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{1 - y^2}\right] \mathrm{d}y.$$

Then we have that

(i) $x \to \delta_n(x)$ is a smooth function for each n.

(ii) $\delta_n(x) = 0$ on $|x| \geq \frac{1}{n}$.

(iii) $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists N > 0, \ \forall n > N$ we have that

$$\int_{-\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} \delta_n(x) \mathrm{d}x = 1$$

We'll prove (iii) since (i) and (ii) are obvious. Given some $\varepsilon > 0$ take $N = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$, so if $n > N$ we have that $\frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon$, hence

$$\int_{-\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} \delta_n(x)\mathrm{d}x = \int_{-\frac{1}{n}}^{\frac{1}{n}} \delta_n(x)\mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{-1}^{1} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{1-y^2}\right] \mathrm{d}y = 1$$

We can see that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \delta_n(x) = 0 \quad \text{if } x \neq 0.$$

And for all $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} \delta_n(x)\mathrm{d}x = 1$$

So it almost looks like $\delta(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \delta_n(x)$. But the problem is that the pointwise limit doesn't converge at 0. But the limit does exist in a weaker sense. Note that $\delta(x)$ rarely appears in isolation (we usually see it inside an integral or as part of a forcing term in a differential equation). We can interpret these as a sequence of statements that we will eventually take the limit of once the limiting behaviour becomes well-defined using the surrounding terms which makes the limit behave nicely. For example if we have the differential equation

$$\ddot{y} + \omega^2 y = \delta(t)$$

we can solve for y_n, the solution to $\ddot{y} + \omega^2 y = \delta_n(t)$, and then assert that $y = \lim_{n\to\infty} y_n(t)$. We could even look at the derivative of $\delta(x)$, via

$=\text{-}\lim_{n\to\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta_n(x) f'(x)\mathrm{d}x$
$= -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) f'(x)\mathrm{d}x = -f'(0)$

4.1.1 Periodic delta functions

Let $\delta^L(x)$ denote the L-periodic extension of $\delta(x)$ outside $[-\frac{L}{2}, \frac{L}{2}]$. It has Fourier coefficients given by

$$\frac{1}{L} \int_{-\frac{L}{2}}^{\frac{L}{2}} \delta(x) e^{-2\pi i n x/L} \mathrm{d}x = \frac{1}{L}$$

So we have that

$$\delta^L(x) \sim \frac{1}{L} \sum_n e^{2\pi i n x/L}$$

which also doesn't converge, which is good since now neither side makes sense. Let's try and chuck our Fourier series into where we would usually use a delta function.

$$f(0) = \int_{-\frac{L}{2}}^{\frac{L}{2}} \delta^L(x) f(x) \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \sum_n \left[\frac{1}{L} \int_{-\frac{L}{2}}^{\frac{L}{2}} e^{2\pi i n x / L} f(x) \mathrm{d}x \right]$$

$$= \sum_n \hat{f}_{-n} = \sum_n \hat{f}_n = \sum_n \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i n (0)/L}$$

$$= f(0)$$

Note that the Fourier series for each $\delta_n^L(x)$ each converge (rapidly) since $\delta_n^L \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$.

4.1.2 Eigenfucntion expansion of $\delta(x)$

Let L be a Sturm-Liouville operator on

$$V = \left\{ y \in C^2[a,b] : \text{ y satisfies real homogeneous B.Cs at each non-singular endpoint} \right\}$$

Let $\{Y_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$ be normalised eigenfunctions and fix $\xi \in (a,b)$ and consider functions $x \to \delta_n(x-\xi)$. For n sufficiently large $\delta_n(x-\xi) \in V$. By completeness of the space V we should have

$$\delta_n(x-\xi) = \sum_{k=1}^\infty \langle \delta_n(\cdot - \xi), Y_k \rangle_w Y_k(x)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^\infty \left[\int_a^b \delta_n(t-\xi) Y_k(t) w(t) \mathrm{d}t \right] Y_k(x).$$

Formally, letting $n \to \infty$,

$$\delta(x-\xi) = \sum_{k=1}^\infty w(\xi) Y_k(\xi) Y_k(x).$$

Let's do a sanity check for this result. For $f \in V$ we should have

$$f(x) = \int_a^b \delta(x-\xi) f(\xi) \mathrm{d}\xi$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^\infty \left[\int_a^b f(\xi) Y_k(\xi) w(\xi) \mathrm{d}\xi \right] Y_k(x)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^\infty \hat{f}_k Y_k(x), \quad \hat{f}_k = \langle f, Y_k \rangle_w$$