Applied Differential Equations Notes

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Abstract

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1 The Laplace transform

Definition 1.1. The **Laplace transform** of a function

$$y(t):[0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$$

is the function

$$\mathcal{L}[y(t)](s) = Y(s) = \int_0^\infty y(t)e^{-st} dt$$

for all numbers s for which this integral converges.

Note 1.1. The Laplace transform takes a function of t as an input and outputs a function of s.

Remark 1.1. Not all functions have a Laplace transform.

Example 1.1. Functions which do not have Laplace transform:

• $y(t) = \frac{1}{t}$ grows to fast near zero independently of s:

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{t} e^{-st} \, dt = \infty.$$

• $y(t) = e^{(t^2)}$ grows too fast as $t \to \infty$ independently of s:

$$\int_0^\infty e^{(t^2)} e^{-st} \, dt = \infty.$$

Example 1.1

Find the Laplace transform of

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t \in [0, 1) \\ k & \text{if } t = 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } t \in (1, \infty). \end{cases}$$

Solution.

$$\mathcal{L}[f(t)](s) = \int_0^\infty f(t)e^{-st} dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 e^{-st} dt + \int_1^1 k dt + \int_1^\infty 0 dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 e^{-st} dt$$

$$= \frac{1 - e^{-s}}{s}.$$

Example 1.2

Compute the Laplace transform of $y(t) = e^{at}$.

Solution. Applying the definition of Laplace transform we have

$$\mathcal{L}[e^{at}](s) = \int_0^\infty e^{at} e^{-st} dt$$

$$= \int_0^\infty e^{(a-s)t} dt$$

$$= \lim_{N \to \infty} \int_0^N e^{(a-s)t} dt$$

$$= \lim_{N \to \infty} \left[\frac{e^{(a-s)t}}{a-s} \right]_0^N$$

$$= \frac{1}{a-s} \lim_{N \to \infty} \left(e^{(a-s)N} - e^0 \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{a-s} \lim_{N \to \infty} \left(e^{(a-s)N} - 1 \right).$$

We now consider when the integral converges and diverges thus, we look at the size of s relative to a.

- If s = a then the integral diverges.
- If s < a then the integral diverges.
- If s > a then the integral converges to

$$-\frac{1}{a-s} = \frac{1}{s-a}.$$

Therefore, the Laplace transform of $y(t) = e^{at}$ is

$$\mathcal{L}[e^{at}](s) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{s-a} & \text{if } s > a\\ \text{undefined} & \text{if } s \leq a. \end{cases}$$

Example 1.2. Compute the Laplace transform of y(t) = 1.

Solution. By the previous example we have,

$$\mathcal{L}[e^{at}](s) = \frac{1}{s-a}$$
 if $s > a$.

If a = 0 then, $e^{at} = e^0 = 1$ for all t. Therefore,

$$\mathcal{L}[1](s) = \frac{1}{s} \quad \text{if } s > 0.$$

Theorem 1.1

We have the following property

$$\mathcal{L}[e^{at}f(t)](s) = \mathcal{L}[f(t)](s-a).$$

Proof. Consider

$$\mathcal{L}[e^{at}f(t)(s)] = \int_0^\infty f(t)e^{at}e^{-st} dt$$

$$= \int_0^\infty f(t)e^{(a-s)t} dt$$

$$= \int_0^\infty f(t)e^{-(s-a)t} dt$$

$$= \mathcal{L}[f(t)](s-a).$$

Definition 1.2. A function, y(t), is said to be **piecewise continuous** on a finite interval [a, b] if it is continuous at every point in [a, b], except possibly for a finite number of points at which y(t) has a jump discontinuity.

Example 1.3. Consider the function

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} t & \text{if } t \in [0, 1) \\ 0 & \text{if } t \in [1, 2]. \end{cases}$$

Then g(t) is continuous on [0,2] with a jump discontinuity at t=1. Whereas, the function

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-t} & \text{if } t \in [0,1) \\ 0 & \text{if } t \in [1,2] \end{cases}$$

has an infinite discontinuity at t = 1 so, it does not have a jump discontinuity on [0, 2]. Therefore, it is not piecewise continuous.

Definition 1.3. A function, y(t), is said to be **piecewise continuous** on $[0, \infty)$ if it is piecewise continuous on [0, N] for any N > 0.

Definition 1.4. A function, y(t), is said to be of **exponential order** (or of exponential order α) if there exist positive constants, $T, M, \alpha > 0$ such that

$$\forall t \in [T, \infty)$$
 we have $|y(t)| \le Me^{\alpha t}$.

Theorem 1.2

Let y(t) be a piecewise continuous function on $[0, \infty)$ and of exponential order $(\alpha > 0)$. Then, $Y(s) = \mathcal{L}[y](s)$ exists for all $s > \alpha$.

Proof. Fix $s > \alpha$ then we need to show that

$$Y(s) = \int_0^\infty y(t)e^{-st} dt$$

is finite i.e.

$$Y(s) = \int_0^\infty y(t)e^{-st} dt < \infty.$$

By the triangle inequality we have

$$\left| \int_0^\infty y(t)e^{-st} dt \right| \le \left| \int_0^T y(t)e^{-st} dt \right| + \left| \int_T^\infty y(t)e^{-st} dt \right|.$$

We consider the two integrals separately and prove they are both finite. Note that y(t) is a function of exponential therefore,

$$\forall t \in [T, \infty]$$
 we have $|y(t)| \le Me^{\alpha t}$.

• We prove $\left| \int_0^T y(t)e^{-st} dt \right| < \infty$. First, we note that since y(t) is a piecewise continuous function on [0,T], there exists a constant K such that

$$\max_{t \in [0,T]} |y(t)| \le K.$$

This implies that

$$\begin{split} \left| \int_0^T y(t)e^{-st} \, dt \right| &\leq \int_0^T \left| y(t)e^{-st} \right| \, dt \\ &\leq \max_{t \in [0,T]} \left| y(t)e^{-st} \right| \, dt \\ &\leq \int_0^T \max_{t \in [0,T]} \left| y(t) \right| \max_{t \in [0,T]} \left| e^{-st} \right| \, dt \\ &\leq \int_0^T \max_{t \in [0,T]} \left| y(t) \right| \, dt \\ &\leq \int_0^T K \, dt \\ &= TK \\ &< \infty. \end{split}$$

• We prove $\left| \int_0^\infty y(t) e^{-st} dt \right| < \infty$.

$$\left| \int_{T}^{\infty} y(t)e^{-st} dt \right| \leq \int_{T}^{\infty} \left| y(t)e^{-st} \right| dt$$

$$\leq \int_{T}^{\infty} Me^{\alpha t}e^{-st} dt$$

$$\leq M \lim_{N \to \infty} \int_{T}^{N} e^{(\alpha - s)t} dt$$

$$= M \lim_{N \to \infty} \left[\frac{e^{(\alpha - s)t}}{\alpha - s} \right]_{T}^{N}$$

$$= -\frac{M}{\alpha - s} e^{(\alpha - s)T}$$

$$< \infty.$$

1.1 The step function

From now (unless stated otherwise), assume y(t) will be a piecewise continuous function on $[0, \infty)$, and it is of exponential order.

Definition 1.5. Given $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a \geq 0$ let

$$u_a(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t < a \\ 1 & \text{if } t \ge a. \end{cases}$$

We call this the **step function**.

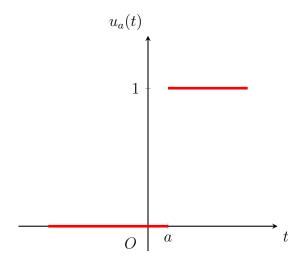


Figure 1: Graph of the step function

Proposition 1.1

Let f(t) be a piecewise continuous function of exponential order. Then

$$\mathcal{L}\left[f(t-a)\,u_a(t)\right](s) = e^{-as}\mathcal{L}[f(t)](s).$$

In particular,

$$\mathcal{L}\left[u_a(t)\right](s) = \frac{e^{-as}}{s}.$$

Proof. Applying the definition of the Laplace transform:

$$\mathcal{L}\left[f(t-a)\,u_a(t)\right](s) = \int_0^\infty f(t-a)\,u_a(t)e^{-st}\,dt$$

$$= \int_0^a f(t-a)e^{-st}\,dt + \int_a^\infty f(t-a)e^{-st}\,dt$$

$$= \int_a^\infty f(t-a)e^{-st}\,dt.$$

When t < a, the first integral vanishes by the definition of the step function. Now, we change variable to z = t - a which gives

$$\int_{a}^{\infty} f(t-a)e^{-st} dt = \int_{0}^{\infty} f(z)e^{-as-sz} dz$$
$$= e^{-as} \int_{0}^{\infty} f(z)e^{-sz} dz$$
$$= e^{-as} \mathcal{L}[f(t)](s).$$

To prove that

$$\mathcal{L}\left[u_a(t)\right](s) = \frac{e^{-as}}{s}$$

we apply the previous formula with f(t) = 1.

Corollary 1.1. The proposition above is equivalent to the statement

$$\mathcal{L}[u_a(t)f(t)](s) = e^{-as}\mathcal{L}[f(t+a)](s).$$

Proof. Let g(t) = f(t+a) and f(t) = g(t-a) therefore,

$$\mathcal{L}[g(t)](s) = \mathcal{L}[f(t+a)](s).$$

We can write

$$\mathcal{L}[u_a(t)f(t)](s) = \mathcal{L}[u_a(t)g(t-a)](s)$$

$$= e^{-as}\mathcal{L}[g(t)](s)$$

$$= e^{-as}\mathcal{L}[f(t+a)](s).$$

Example 1.3

Compute the Laplace transform of $u_{2\pi}(t)\cos(t)$.

Solution. First note that by adding 0 we can write

$$u_{2\pi}(t)\cos(t) = u_{2\pi}(t)\cos(t+2\pi-2\pi).$$

Therefore, by using the formula in Proposition 1.1 the Laplace transform is as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}[u_{2\pi}(t)\cos(t+2\pi-2\pi)](s) = e^{-2\pi s}\mathcal{L}[\cos(t+2\pi)](s)$$
$$= e^{-2\pi s}\mathcal{L}[\cos(t)](s)$$
$$= e^{-2\pi s}\frac{s}{s^2+1}.$$

1.2 Properties of the Laplace transform

Theorem 1.1. Given functions f and g and a constant $c \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\mathcal{L}[f+g] = \mathcal{L}[f] + \mathcal{L}[g]$$
$$\mathcal{L}[cf] = c \mathcal{L}[f].$$

In other words, the Laplace transform is a **linear operator**.

Theorem 1.2. The inverse Laplace transform is a linear operator.

Proof. We prove the first property of linearity,

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}[f+g] = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left(\mathcal{L} \left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}[f] \right) + \mathcal{L} \left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}[g] \right) \right)$$
$$= \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left(\mathcal{L} \left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}[f] + \mathcal{L}^{-1}[g] \right) \right)$$
$$= \mathcal{L}^{-1}[f] + \mathcal{L}^{-1}[g].$$

We prove the second property of linearity,

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}[\alpha f] = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left(\alpha \mathcal{L} \left(\mathcal{L}^{-1}[f] \right) \right)$$
$$= \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left(\mathcal{L} \left(\alpha \mathcal{L}^{-1}[f] \right) \right)$$
$$= \alpha \mathcal{L}^{-1}[f].$$

Example 1.4. Compute the Laplace transform of $y(t) = c \in \mathbb{R}$ for s > 0.

Solution. We previously computed the Laplace transform of 1 which is $\mathcal{L}[1](s) = \frac{1}{s}$ for s > 0. Using the linearity of the Laplace transform we have that

$$\mathcal{L}[c](s) = c \,\mathcal{L}[1](s) = \frac{c}{s}$$

for s > 0.

Theorem 1.3

Given a function y(t) with Laplace transform, $Y(s) = \mathcal{L}[y(t)](s)$, the Laplace transform of $\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t}(t)$ is

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{\mathrm{d}^n y}{\mathrm{d}t^n}(t)\right](s) = s^n \mathcal{L}[y(t)](s) - \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} s^{n-i-1} \frac{\mathrm{d}^i y}{\mathrm{d}t^i}(0),$$

for $n \geq 1$.

Corollary 1.1

In particular,

• the Laplace transform of $\frac{dy}{dt}(t)$ is

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t}(t)\right](s) = s\mathcal{L}[y(t)](s) - y(0).$$

• the Laplace transform of $\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 y}{\mathrm{d}t^2}(t)$ is

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 y}{\mathrm{d}t^2}(t)\right](s) = s^2 \mathcal{L}[y(t)](s) - s y(0) - \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t}(0).$$

Example 1.4

Let y(t) be a solution to the initial value problem

$$y' = y - 4e^{-t}$$
 for $y(0) = 1$.

Compute the Laplace transform of y(t).

Solution. We apply the Laplace transform to both sides of the equation i.e.

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t}\right](s) = \mathcal{L}\left[y - 4e^{-t}\right](s).$$

Using the properties of the Laplace transform we get

$$sY(s) - y(0) = Y(s) - 4\mathcal{L}[e^{-t}](s).$$

Substituting the initial condition, y(0) = 1, the equation above becomes

$$sY(s) - 1 = Y(s) - 4\mathcal{L}\left[e^{-t}\right](s).$$

Recall that $\mathcal{L}\left[e^{at}\right](s) = \frac{1}{s-a}$. Applying this result with a = -1 we obtain that

$$sY(s) - 1 = Y(s) - \frac{4}{s+1}$$
.

Rearranging for Y(s), we obtain

$$Y(s) = \frac{1}{s-1} - \frac{4}{(s-1)(s+1)}.$$

1.3 Solving $y''(t) + \lambda y(t) = 0$ for $\lambda > 0$

Proposition 1.2

Let $\omega \neq 0$ then

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\cos(\omega t)\right](s) = \frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}$$

and

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\sin(\omega t)\right](s) = \frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}.$$

Proposition 1.3

Consider the ODE

$$y''(t) + \lambda y(t) = 0$$
 for $\lambda > 0$.

Then the general solution of this ODE is given by

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

for $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$.

Remark 1.2. By general solution we mean "every solution can be written as".

Proof. Assume y(t) is a solution to the ODE above. Applying Laplace transform to the differential equation we have that

$$0 = \mathcal{L}[y''(t) + \lambda y(t)](s)$$

= $\mathcal{L}[y''(t)](s) + \lambda \mathcal{L}[y(t)](s)$
= $s^2 Y(s) - sy(0) - y'(0) + \lambda Y(s)$.

Rearranging for $\mathcal{L}[y(t)](s) = Y(s)$, we have that

$$Y(s) = \frac{sy(0)}{s^2 + \lambda} + \frac{y'(0)}{s^2 + \lambda}$$
$$= y(0) \frac{s}{s^2 + \left(\sqrt{\lambda}\right)^2} + \frac{y'(0)}{\sqrt{\lambda}} \frac{\sqrt{\lambda}}{s^2 + \left(\sqrt{\lambda}\right)^2},$$

this holds as $\lambda > 0$. Notice that

$$\mathcal{L}\left[y(0)\cos\left(t\sqrt{\lambda}\right)\right](s) = y(0)\frac{s}{s^2 + \left(\sqrt{\lambda}^2\right)}$$

and that

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{y'(0)}{\sqrt{\lambda}}\sin\left(t\sqrt{\lambda}\right)\right](s) = \frac{y'(0)}{\sqrt{\lambda}}\frac{\sqrt{\lambda}}{s^2 + \left(\sqrt{\lambda}\right)^2}.$$

Therefore, we can write

$$y(t) = y(0)\cos\left(t\sqrt{\lambda}\right) + \frac{y'(0)}{\sqrt{\lambda}}\sin\left(t\sqrt{\lambda}\right).$$

1.4 Solving $y''(t) + \lambda y(t) = 0$ for $\lambda < 0$

Proposition 1.4

Consider the ODE

$$y''(t) + \lambda y(t) = 0$$
 for $\lambda < 0$.

Then the general solution of this ODE is given by

$$y(t) = Ae^{t\sqrt{-\lambda}} + Be^{-t\sqrt{-\lambda}}$$

for $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Apply Laplace transform.

1.5 Convolution

Note 1.2. The Laplace transform of the product of two functions is **not** the product of the related Laplace transforms.

Definition 1.6. Let $f, g : [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ be two integrable functions. Then the **convolution** of f and g, denoted by f * g, is the function

$$(f * g)(t) := \int_0^t f(k)g(t-k) dk.$$

Theorem 1.3. Properties of the convolution: let c be a constant and f, g and h be functions then

- f * g = g * f;
- (cf) * g = f * (cg) = c(f * g);
- (f*q)*h = f*(q*h).

Theorem 1.4

Let f and g be piecewise continuous functions of exponential order, then

$$\mathcal{L}[(f * g)(t)](s) = \mathcal{L}[f(t)](s) \cdot \mathcal{L}[g(t)](s).$$

Remark 1.3. This statement is equivalent to

$$(f * g)(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \{ \mathcal{L}[f(t)](s) \cdot \mathcal{L}[g(t)](s) \}(t).$$

Note 1.3. The \cdot is to emphasise the multiplication.

Proof. Let $F(s) = \mathcal{L}[f(t)](s)$ and $G(s) = \mathcal{L}[g(t)](s)$. From the definition of the Laplace transform we have:

$$F(s) = \int_0^\infty f(k)e^{-sk} dk$$
 and $G(s) = \int_0^\infty g(u)e^{-su} du$.

The product of F(s) and G(s) is given by

$$\left(\int_0^\infty f(k)e^{sk}\,dk\right)\left(\int_0^\infty f(u)e^{-su}\,du\right).$$

Since first integral does not depend on u, we can write the product as a double integral:

$$F(s)G(s) = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty f(k)g(u)e^{-s(k+u)} dkdu.$$

Changing variable to t = k + u for each fixed u. So, dt = dk and that k = t - u. We obtain

$$F(s)G(s) = \int_0^\infty \int_u^\infty f(t-u)g(u)e^{-st} dt du$$
$$= \int_0^\infty \int_0^t f(t-u)g(u)e^{-st} du dt.$$

(Note that the domain of integration changes when switching the order of the integrals). Finally, isolating the terms that contain u, we get

$$F(s)G(s) = \int_0^\infty \int_0^t f(t - u)g(u) du e^{-st} dt$$
$$= \int_0^\infty (f * g)(t)e^{-st} dt$$
$$= \mathcal{L}[(f * g)(t)](s).$$

Example 1.5

Suppose we have the function defined by

$$\frac{1}{(s+1)s^2} = \frac{1}{s+1} \cdot \frac{1}{s^2}.$$

We recognise the entries as

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s+1}\right] = e^{-t}$$
 and $\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s^2}\right] = t$.

Therefore,

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s+1} \cdot \frac{1}{s^2}\right] = \mathcal{L}^{-1}[\mathcal{L}[e^{-t}] \cdot \mathcal{L}[t]]$$

$$= \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\mathcal{L}[(e^{-t} * t)(t)]\right]$$

$$= (e^{-t} * t)(t)$$

$$= \int_0^t e^{-v}(t-v) dv$$

$$= e^{-t} + t - 1.$$

1.6 The Dirac delta function

Definition 1.7. The **Dirac delta function** is defined by the following properties

$$\delta(t) = 0$$
 when $t \neq 0$,

and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) \, dt = 1.$$

Given b > 0, define

$$g_b(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2b} & \text{if } -b \le t \le b\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then, one can think of the δ -function as

$$\delta(t) = \lim_{b \to 0} g_b(t)$$

and

$$\delta(t-a) = \lim_{b \to 0} g_b(t-a).$$

This limit is zero for all values t except at t = a, where it is infinite.

Theorem 1.4.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t-a)f(t) dt := \lim_{b \to 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_b(t-a)f(t) = f(a).$$

Theorem 1.5

The Laplace transform of the Dirac delta function (for a > 0) is

$$\mathcal{L}[\delta(t-a)](s) := \lim_{b \to 0} \mathcal{L}[g_b(t-a)](s)$$
$$= e^{-as}.$$

Corollary 1.2

For a = 0 the Laplace transform of $\delta(t)$ is defined as

$$\mathcal{L}[\delta(t)](s) := \lim_{a \to 0} \mathcal{L}[\delta(t-a)](s)$$
$$= 1.$$

1.7 2nd order linear ODEs with constant coefficients

Definition 1.8. A second order linear differential equation with constant coefficients is one of the form

$$ay'' + by' + cy = g(t)$$

for $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $g: I \subset \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.

Definition 1.9. The associated equation

$$ay'' + by' + cy = 0$$

is called the **homogeneous equation**.

Definition 1.10. Let $\xi(t)$ be the solution of the initial value problem

$$ay'' + by' + cy = \delta(t)$$
 $y(0) = 0$
 $y'(0) = 0.$

The function $\xi(t)$ is called the **impulse response**.

Corollary 1.2. Let $\xi(t)$ be the impulse response. Then

$$\mathcal{L}[a\xi''(t) + b\xi'(t) + c\xi(t)](s) = \mathcal{L}[\delta(t)](s),$$

and applying the properties of the Laplace transform, and the initial condition gives that

$$\mathcal{L}[\xi(t)](s) = \frac{1}{as^2 + bs + c}.$$

Theorem 1.6

Consider the following initial value problem,

$$ay'' + by' + cy = g(t)$$
 $y(0) = 0$
 $y'(0) = 0.$

The unique solution is

$$y(t) = (\xi * g)(t)$$
$$= \int_0^t \xi(t - k)g(k) dk.$$

Proof. Applying the Laplace transform on both sides, we have:

$$\mathcal{L}[ay'' + by' + cy] = \mathcal{L}[g(t)]$$

$$s^{2}\mathcal{L}[y] - sy(0) - y'(0) + s\mathcal{L}[y] - y(0) + c\mathcal{L}[y] = \mathcal{L}[g(t)]$$

$$s^{2}\mathcal{L}[y] + s\mathcal{L}[y] + c\mathcal{L}[y] = \mathcal{L}[g(t)]$$

$$(s^{2} + s + c)\mathcal{L}[y] = \mathcal{L}[g(t)].$$

Therefore,

$$\mathcal{L}[y] = \mathcal{L}[g(t)] \cdot \frac{1}{s^2 + s + c}$$
$$= \mathcal{L}[g(t)](s) \cdot \mathcal{L}[\xi(t)](s).$$

Corollary 1.3

Consider the following the initial value problem

$$ay'' + by' + cy = g(t)$$
 $y(0) = y_0$
 $y'(0) = y_0$.

The solution is

$$y(t) = (\xi * g)(t) + \widehat{y}(t)$$
$$= \int_0^t \xi(t - k)g(k) dk + \widehat{y}(t),$$

where $\widehat{y}(t)$ is the solution of

$$ay'' + by' + cy = 0$$
 $y(0) = y_0$
 $y'(0) = y'_0$.

1.8 2nd order linear homogeneous ODEs with constant coefficients

Definition 1.11. Given a second order linear homogeneous equation with constant i.e.,

$$ay'' + by' + cy = 0$$

for $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, the equation

$$ar^2 + br + c = 0$$

is called the **characteristic equation**.

Theorem 1.7

Let r_1 and r_2 be the roots of the characteristic equation.

1. If r_1 and r_2 are distinct and real (when $b^2 - 4ac > 0$) then, the characteristic equation has general solution

$$y = C_1 e^{r_1 t} + C_2 e^{r_2 t}$$

where $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

2. If $r_1 = r_2$ (happens when $b^2 - 4ac = 0$), then the characteristic equation has the general solution

$$y = (C_1 + C_2 t)e^{r_1 t}$$

where $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

3. If r_1 and r_2 are complex roots of the form $\alpha \pm i\beta$ (when $b^2 - 4ac < 0$), then the general solution to the characteristic equation is

$$y = C_1 e^{\alpha x} \cos(\beta x) + C_2 e^{\alpha x} \sin(\beta x)$$

where $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

1.9 "Uniqueness" of the Laplace transform

Theorem 1.8

If f(t) is a **continuous** function with $\mathcal{L}[f(t)](s) = F(s)$, then f(t) is the **only** continuous function whose Laplace transform is F(s).

Theorem 1.5. If h and g are piecewise continuous functions with $\mathcal{L}[h] = \mathcal{L}[g]$, then h = g except possibly at he points of discontinuity.

Picard's theorem 2

Theorem 2.1 (Picard's theorem – existence and uniqueness)

Let $R \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ be a closed rectangle of the form

$$R := \{(t, y) : a \le t, c \le y \le d\},\$$

for $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ and let

$$f(t,y):R\to\mathbb{R}$$

$$f(t,y): R \to \mathbb{R}$$

 $\frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(t,y): R \to \mathbb{R}$

be continuous functions. Let $(t_0, y_0) \in (a, b) \times (c, d)$ be a point in the open rectangle. Then there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ and

$$y(t): (t_0 - \varepsilon, t_0 + \varepsilon) \to \mathbb{R}$$

such that y is the unique solution of the initial value problem

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t} = f(t, y), \quad \text{for } y(t_0) = y_0$$

in the interval $(t_0 - \varepsilon, t_0 + \varepsilon)$.

Note 2.1. In essence, if f(t,y) and $\frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(t,y)$ are continuous functions then the initial value problem

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t} = f(t, y), \quad \text{for } y(t_0) = y_0$$

has only one unique solution, y.

Proof of the existence 2.1

The proof of the existence part of Picard's theorem is also known as **Picard's Iteration method**, which provides us a method to find a solution.

2.2 PLACEHOLDER TITLES BELOW

2.3 Picard's iteration method

Theorem 2.2 (Picard's iteration)

Suppose we have an initial value problem

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t} = f(t, y) \quad \text{for } y(t_0) = y_0.$$

Then, the solutions are given by

$$y_0(t) := y_0$$

 $y_1(t) := y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t f(u, y_0(u)) du$
:

 $y_k(t) := y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t f(u, y_{k-1}(u)) du,$

for any $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 2.1. Let $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ and let

$$\phi_n: I \to \mathbb{R} \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N},$$

be a sequence of functions. We say that ϕ_n is **uniformly convergent** on I to $\phi: I \to \mathbb{R}$ if for any M there exists $n_M \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\sup_{I} |\phi - \phi_n| < M.$$

Lemma 2.1. Let $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded interval and let

$$\phi_n: I \to \mathbb{R} \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N},$$

be a sequence of integrable functions uniformly converging on I to $\phi: I \to \mathbb{R}$. Then,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \int_I \phi_n = \int_I \phi.$$

3 SOME NONSENSE TO CHANGE ABOVE

4 Power series methods

In this section we illustrate solution to the second order linear homogeneous ODE of the form

$$P(x)y'' + Q(x)y' + R(x)y = 0$$

where P(x), Q(x) and R(x) are analytic functions at $c \in \mathbb{R}$. From now on unless stated otherwise, we will consider ODEs of this form.

Note 4.1. By analytic, we mean there exists a power series expansion of each respective function at the point $x = c \in \mathbb{R}$.

4.1 Ordinary points

Definition 4.1. Consider the ODE from above, if $P(c) \neq 0$ then c is called an **ordinary** point.

Definition 4.2. If P(c) = 0 (and either Q(c) or R(c) is different from zero) then c is called a **singular point**.

Definition 4.3. Two solution of an ODE y_1 and y_2 are said to be **linearly independent** if there are $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\alpha y_1(t) + \beta y_2(t) = 0$$

if and only if $\alpha = \beta = 0$.

Theorem 4.1

Suppose x = c is an ordinary point of the ODE then, the ODE has two linearly independent analytic solution of the form:

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - c)^n.$$

Furthermore, the radius of convergence is at least as large as the distance from c to the nearest singular point (real or complex-valued) of the ODE.

Remark 4.1. If there are no singular points then the radius of convergence is infinite.

4.2 Regular singular points

Definition 4.4. Let x = c be a singular point of the ODE. If

$$\lim_{x \to c} (x - c) \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to c} (x - c)^2 \frac{R(x)}{P(x)}$$

are both finite then, x = c is called a **regular singular point**. Otherwise, is called an **irregular singular point**.

Remark 4.2. Since x = c is a singular point, at least one of the functions $\frac{Q(x)}{P(x)}$ or $\frac{R(x)}{P(x)}$ blows up at x = c and in particular they are not analytic.

Example 4.1

Consider the equation

$$(x-2)^{2}(x-1)^{2}y'' + (x-1)y' + 5y = 0.$$

We can identify

$$P(x) = (x - 2)^{2}(x - 1)^{2}$$

$$Q(x) = x - 1$$

$$R(x) = 5.$$

Since P(1) = P(2) = 0 and R is never zero then x = 1, 2 are the only singular points of the ODE. We have that

$$\lim_{x \to 2} (x-2) \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} = \lim_{x \to 2} (x-2) \frac{(x-1)}{(x-1)^2 (x-2)^2}$$
$$= \infty$$

so, x=2 is an irregular singular point. Whereas, at x=1 we have

$$\lim_{x \to 1} \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} = \lim_{x \to 1} (x - 1) \frac{x - 1}{(x - 1)^2 (x - 2)^2}$$
$$= 1$$

and

$$\lim_{x \to 1} (x-1)^2 \frac{R(x)}{P(x)} = \lim_{x \to 1} (x-1)^2 \frac{5}{(x-1)^2 (x-2)^2}$$
$$= 5.$$

Since they are both finite we have that x = 1 is a regular singular point.

4.3 Euler equations

Definition 4.5. The **Euler equation** is an ODE of the form

$$x^2y'' + \alpha xy' + \beta y = 0.$$

Remark 4.3. The solutions presented in this section to the Euler equation are only valid for x > 0.

Definition 4.6. Given an Euler equation the following equation

$$r(r-1) + \alpha r + \beta = 0,$$

is called the **indicial equation**.

4.3.1 Real and distinct roots

Theorem 4.2

If the indicial equation has real and distinct roots, r_1 and r_2 , then the general solution to the Euler equation is given by

$$y(x) = C_1 x^{r_1} + C_2 x^{r_2}$$

where $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and x > 0.

Example 4.1. Solve the following ODE

$$2x^2y'' + 3xy' - y = 0$$
 for $x > 0$.

Clearly, this is an Euler equation since we can write the ODE as

$$x^2y'' + \frac{3}{2}xy' - \frac{1}{2}y - 0.$$

The corresponding indicial equation is $r(r-1) + \frac{3}{2}r - \frac{1}{2} = 0$. Equivalently,

$$0 = 2r(r-1) + 3r - 1 = 2r^2 + r - 1$$
$$= (2r - 1)(r + 1).$$

Therefore, the roots of the indicial equation are $r_1 = \frac{1}{2}$ and $r_2 = -1$, we conclude the general solution of the Euler equation is

$$y = C_1 x^{\frac{1}{2}} + C_2 x^{-1}$$
 for $x > 0$.

4.3.2 Complex roots

Theorem 4.3

If the indicial equation has complex roots, $r_1 = \alpha + i\beta$ and $r_2 = \alpha - i\beta$, where $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Then the general solution to the Euler equation is given by

$$y(x) = C_1 e^{\alpha \ln(x)} \cos(\beta \ln x) + C_2 e^{\alpha \ln(x)} \sin(\beta \ln x)$$

where $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and x > 0.

Example 4.2. Consider the Euler equation:

$$x^2y'' + xy + y = 0$$
 for $x > 0$.

The corresponding indicial equation is

$$r(r-1) + r + 1 = r^2 + 1 = 0.$$

Therefore, the roots are $r_1 = i$ and $r_2 = -i$ which implies the general solution of the Euler equation is given by

$$y(x) = C_1 \cos(\ln x) + C_2 \sin(\ln x) \quad \text{for } x > 0.$$

4.3.3 Equal roots

Theorem 4.4

If the indicial equation has a repeated root r_1 then the general solution to the Euler equation is given by

$$y(x) = C_1 x^{r_1} + C_2 x^{r_1} \ln(x)$$

where $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and x > 0.

Example 4.3. Consider the Euler equation

$$x^2y'' + 5xy' + 4y = 0.$$

The corresponding indicial equation is

$$0 = r(r-1) + 5r + 4 = r^{2} + 4r + 4$$
$$= (r+2)^{2}.$$

Therefore, $r_1 = r_2 = -2$ which implies the general solution is

$$y(x) = x^{-2}(C_1 + C_2 \ln x)$$
 for $x > 0$.

4.4 Frobenius method

Definition 4.7. Let x = c be a regular singular point and let

$$p_0 := \lim_{x \to c} (x - c) \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)}$$
 and $q_0 := \lim_{x \to c} (x - c)^2 \frac{R(x)}{P(x)}$.

The equation

$$r(r-1) + p_0 r + q_0 = 0$$

is called the **indicial equation** at x = c.

Example 4.4. Consider the equation

$$(x-2)^2(x-1)^2y'' + (x-1)y' + 5y = 0.$$

From a previous example we know that

$$\lim_{x \to 1} (x - 1) \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to 1} (x - 1)^2 \frac{R(x)}{P(x)} = 5.$$

Therefore, the indicial equation at x = 1 is

$$r(r-1) + r + 5 = 0.$$

Theorem 4.5

Let x=0 be a regular singular point of the ODE. Suppose that $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ with $r_1 \geq r_2$ are solutions of the indicial equation. Then there exists a solution of the form

$$y(x) = x^{r_1} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k \quad x > 0,$$

with $a_0 \neq 0$.

4.5 Power series

Definition 4.8. A power series is an expression of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x-c)^n,$$

where a_n and c are constants.

Remark 4.4. For x = c the series always converge to a_0 .

Definition 4.9. We say that a power series **converges absolutely** at x whenever the limit

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{N} |a_k| |x - c|^k$$

exists. That is the series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_k| |x-c|^k$ is convergent.

Definition 4.10. Given a power series there exists a number $R \in [0, \infty)$ called the **radius of convergence** if the power series converges absolutely for any $x \in (c-R, c+R)$. Otherwise, it does not converge absolutely.

Theorem 4.6 (Cauchy-Hadamard formula)

The radius of convergence is

$$\frac{1}{R} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$

Remark 4.5. A key property of power series is that they can be differentiated term by term, added and multiplied together, within the radius of convergence.

Definition 4.11. Let f(x) be a smooth function at x = c and let

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!} (x - c)^k$$

be its Taylor expansion at c. If its Taylor expansion has radius of converge R > 0 then, the function is said to be an **analytic function** at x = c.

Example 4.2

Let $y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ be the power series solution about x = 0 of the initial value problem

$$2y'' + xy' + y = 0 \quad y(0) = 1$$
$$y'(0) = 0.$$

Find the value of a_0, a_1, a_2 and a_3 .

Solution. Since the solution is a power series we know it must be a Taylor series. As such each

$$a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}.$$

Using this we determine that, $a_0 = y(0) = 1$ and $a_1 = y'(0) = 0$. From the ODE we can write

$$y'' = \frac{-xy' - y}{2},$$

which implies $y''(0) = -\frac{1}{2}$ hence, $a_2 = -\frac{1}{4}$. To find a_3 we take a derivative of the ODE and obtain

$$2y''' + y' + xy'' + y' = 0$$

and conclude $a_3 = 0$.

5 Heat equation

Definition 5.1. The heat equation for a wire of length L > 0 takes the form of

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u(x,t) = k\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}u(x,t)$$

where k > 0 and u(x, t) represents the temperature of the wire at the position $x \in (0, L)$.

Remark 5.1. In \mathbb{R}^3 the heat equation becomes of the form:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u(x,y,z,t) = k\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}\right)u(x,y,z,t)$$

Theorem 5.1. If u(x,t) and v(x,t) are solutions to the heat equation then

$$\alpha u(x,t) + \beta v(x,t)$$

for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ is also a solution.

Definition 5.2. Related to the heat equation there are also **boundary conditions** (BC). These take the form of:

• homogeneous BC, where

$$u(0,t) = u(L,t) = 0 \quad \forall t \ge 0;$$

• insulated ends or Neumann BC, where

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}u(0,t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}u(L,t) = 0 \quad \forall t \ge 0.$$

Remark 5.2. We can have other types of boundary conditions which take on a more complicated form, for example:

$$u(0,t) = e^t$$
 and $u(L,t) = \sin(t)$ $\forall t \ge 0$.

Definition 5.3. The **initial condition** of the heat equation is defined as

$$u(x,0) = f(x)$$
 for $x \in [0,L]$

for an $f:[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$.

5.1 Homogeneous boundary conditions

In this section we show methods to solve the heat equation with the following conditions:

$$\begin{cases} u_t = ku_{xx} & x \in (0, L), \quad t, k > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0 & (\text{Homogeneous BC}) \\ u(x, 0) = f(x) & (\text{initial condition}), \end{cases}$$

where $f:[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function such that f' is piecewise conditions and f(0)=f(L)=0.

Theorem 5.1 (Unique solution to HE with homogeneous BC)

The unique solution to the heat equations with the conditions specified above is

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sin\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}x\right) \exp\left(-k\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}\right)^2 t\right)$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sin\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}x\right) e^{-k\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}\right)^2 t}$$

where

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

Sketch proof. Need to check that we can differentiate the power series term by term in respect to both x and t i.e. the power series converges absolutely and uniformly on [0, L].

Corollary 5.1. We have that u(x,t) = 0 is a solution to the heat equation with homogeneous BC $\iff f(x) = 0$. We call this the **trivial solution**.

Example 5.1

Find a solution to the following heat conduction problem:

$$\begin{cases} u_t = 7u_{xx} & x \in (0,\pi) \quad t > 0 \\ u(0,t) = u(\pi,t) = 0 & \text{(homogeneous BC)} \\ u(x,0) = 3\sin(2x) - 6\sin(5x) & \text{(initial condition)}. \end{cases}$$

Solution. By the theorem there exists a unique solution to the problem and is given by

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sin(nx) \exp(-7n^2 t)$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sin(nx) e^{-7n^2 t}.$$

To find the coefficients c_n we can evaluate the integral, but it is easier to impose the initial condition; we note that

$$u(x,0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sin(nx)$$

= $3\sin(2x) - 6\sin(5x)$,

by comparing the LHS and RHS we have that $c_2 = 3, c_5 = -6$ and the remaining $c_n = 0$. Therefore, the solution to the problem is given by

$$u(x,t) = 3e^{-28t}\sin(2x) - 6e^{-175t}\sin(5x).$$

5.2 Fourier series and the initial condition

In this section we address the problems related to the convergence of the series

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

to the initial condition.

Proposition 5.1. Let $h(x): [-L, L] \to \mathbb{R}$ and let

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

be a function series converging uniformly to h. Then,

$$a_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} h(x) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) dx$$
 for $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$

and

$$b_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} h(x) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) dx$$
 for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Lemma 5.1

We have the following results.

• For $n, m \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$

$$\frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) \cos\left(\frac{m\pi}{L}x\right) dx = 0.$$

• For $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi}{L}x\right) dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \neq m \\ 1 & \text{if } n = m. \end{cases}$$

• For $m, n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$,

$$\frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) \cos\left(\frac{m\pi}{L}x\right) dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \neq m, \\ 1 & \text{if } n = m \neq 0, \\ 2 & \text{if } n = m = 0. \end{cases}$$

Lemma 5.2

Some properties of the trigonometric functions:

- cos(-x) = cos(x) (cos(x) is an even function);
- $\sin(-x) = -\sin(x) (\sin(x) \text{ is an odd function});$
- $\cos(n\pi) = (-1)^n;$
- $\sin(n\pi) = 0$.

Remark 5.3. Even functions: f(x) = f(-x). Odd functions: -f(x) = f(-x).

Example 5.2

Finding Fourier series of a function.

Definition 5.4. Let $h(x): [-L, L] \to \mathbb{R}$, the infinite sum

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

with

$$a_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} h(x) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) dx$$
 for $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$

and

$$b_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} h(x) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$$
 for $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

is called the **Fourier series** of h(x).

Definition 5.5. Let $h(x):[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$, the infinite sum

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

with

$$a_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L h(x) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) dx$$
 for $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

is called the **Fourier sine series** of h(x).

Definition 5.6. Let $h(x):[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$, the infinite sum

$$\frac{1}{2}a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$$

with

$$a_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L h(x) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) dx$$
 for $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$,

is called the **Fourier cosine series** of h(x).

Theorem 5.2. Let $h, h' : [-L, L] \to \mathbb{R}$ be piecewise continuous functions and let

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

be the Fourier series of h. Then, for any $x \in (-L, L)$ we have

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

For $x = \pm L$, the series converges to

$$\frac{1}{2} \left[h((-L)^+) + h(L^-) \right].$$

Here,

$$h(x^+) = \lim_{\delta \to \infty} h\left(x + \frac{1}{\delta}\right)$$
 and $h(x^-) = \lim_{\delta \to \infty} h\left(x - \frac{1}{\delta}\right)$.

Furthermore, if h is continuous at x then, $h(x^+) = h(x^-)$.

Corollary 5.2. If h is continuous with h(0) = h(L) and $h'' : [-L, L] \to \mathbb{R}$ is piecewise continuous then, the Fourier series of h'(x) can be obtained by term wise differentiation. Namely, the Fourier series of f'(x) is

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

Definition 5.7. Given $h:[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$, let $\widehat{h}_{\mathrm{odd}}:[-L,L]\to\mathbb{R}$ be the **odd extension** of h. That is,

$$\widehat{h}_{\mathrm{odd}}(x) = \begin{cases} h(x) & \text{for } x \in [0, L] \\ -h(-x) & \text{for } x \in [-L, 0). \end{cases}$$

Proposition 5.2. The Fourier series of \widehat{h}_{odd} is equal to the Fourier Sine series of h. That is, the Fourier series of \widehat{h}_{odd} is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right).$$

where

$$b_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \widehat{h}_{\text{odd}}(x) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) dx$$
 for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Corollary 5.3. Let $h:[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function such that h(0)=h(L)=0 and such that h' is piecewise continuous. Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}a_n\sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$ be the Fourier sine series of h. Then,

$$h(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right).$$

Definition 5.8. Given $h:[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$, let $\widehat{h}_{\text{even}}:[-L,L]\to\mathbb{R}$ be the **even extension** of h. That is,

$$\widehat{h}_{\text{even}}(x) = \begin{cases} h(x) & \text{for } x \in [0, L] \\ h(-x) & \text{for } x \in [-L, 0). \end{cases}$$

Proposition 5.3. The Fourier series of \hat{h}_{even} is equal to the Fourier cosine series of h. That is, the Fourier series of \hat{h}_{even} is

$$\frac{1}{2}a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right),\,$$

where

$$a_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \widehat{h}_{\text{even}}(x) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}.$$

Corollary 5.4. Let $h:[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function such that h' is piecewise continuous. Let $\frac{1}{2}a_0+\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}a_n\cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$ be the Fourier cosine series of h. Then,

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{2}a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right).$$

5.3 Separation of variables

In this section we solve the following problem

$$\begin{cases} u_t = k u_{xx} & x \in (0, L) \quad t, k > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0, \end{cases}$$

with the method of **separation of variables** i.e. when

$$u(x,t) = X(x)T(t).$$

By plugging in the boundary conditions we obtain the trivial solution of the heat equation. We note that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u(x,t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}X(x)T(t)$$
$$= X(x)T'(t),$$

and

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u(x,t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}X(x)T(t)$$
$$= X''(x)T(t).$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u(x,t) = k\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}u(x,t)$$

$$\iff X(x)T'(t) = kX''(x)T(t)$$

$$\iff \frac{T'(t)}{kT(t)} = \frac{X''(x)}{X(x)}.$$

The only way this equation holds if both the RHS and LHS are equal to a constant. Let this constant be $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\frac{T'(t)}{kT(t)} = -\lambda = \frac{X''(x)}{X(x)}.$$

Note 5.1. We use $-\lambda$ as a convention.

This can be rephrased as the following: there exists $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$T'(t) = -\lambda k T(t)$$
 and $X''(x) = -\lambda X(x)$.

5.3.1 Solution of time ODE

Consider the time dependent ODE:

$$T'(t) = -\lambda k T(t).$$

With the standard methods of solving first order ODE we obtain the solution

$$T(t) = Ce^{-\lambda kt}$$

for $C \in \mathbb{R}$.

5.3.2 Solution of 'position' ODE

Consider the position dependent ODE:

$$\begin{cases} X''(x) = -\lambda X(x) & x \in [0, L] \\ X(0) = X(L) = 0, \end{cases}$$

clearly, the trivial solution X(x)=0 for all $t\geq 0$ is a valid solution, but we are interested in the non-trivial solutions.

Definition 5.9. The value λ for which a non-trivial solution of the ODE above is called an **eigenvalue** for the Dirichlet problem with homogeneous BC. A non-zero solution related to this value of λ is called an **eigenfunction**.

Theorem 5.2

The ODE above:

- does **NOT** have a non-zero solution when $\lambda < 0$;
- does **NOT** have a non-zero solution when $\lambda = 0$;

Proof. We prove each bullet point in turn.

• Proof when $\lambda < 0$. The general solution to the ODE is of the form

$$X(x) = C_1 e^{x\sqrt{-\lambda}} + C_2 e^{-x\sqrt{-\lambda}}$$

for $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$. Imposing the boundary condition X(0) = 0 gives $C_2 = -C_1$; imposing X(L) = 0 gives

$$C_1\left(e^{L\sqrt{-\lambda}} - e^{-L\sqrt{-\lambda}}\right) = 0,$$

if $C_1 = 0$ then X(x) = 0. Therefore, we can assume $C_1 \neq 0$. In this case we have a non-zero solution when $\lambda < 0$ satisfies

$$0 = e^{L\sqrt{-\lambda}} - e^{-L\sqrt{-\lambda}}$$
$$= \left(e^{2L\sqrt{-\lambda}} - 1\right)e^{-L\sqrt{-\lambda}}$$

This is 0 if and only if $e^{2L\sqrt{-\lambda}} - 1 = 0$ that is, if $2L\sqrt{-\lambda} = 0$. However, since both λ and L are assumed to be non-zero we have that $2L\sqrt{-\lambda} \neq 0$ always.

• Proof when $\lambda = 0$. The general solution to the ODE is of the form

$$X(x) = C_1 x + C_2$$

for $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$. By imposing the boundary conditions we have that $C_1 = C_2 = 0$ hence, X(x) = 0.

Proposition 5.1

The ODE above a non-zero solution when $\lambda = \left(\frac{\pi n}{L}\right)^2$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The solution is given by the function

$$X_n(x) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}\right).$$

Furthermore, any other solution can be obtained by multiplying $X_n(x)$ by a constant.

Proof. Suppose $\lambda > 0$ then

$$X(x) = C_1 \cos(x\sqrt{\lambda}) + C_2 \sin(x\sqrt{\lambda})$$

for $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$. Imposing the initial condition X(0) = 0 gives that $C_1 = 0$ and imposing X(L) = 0 we have

$$X(x) = C_2 \sin(L\sqrt{\lambda}).$$

This is true when

$$L\sqrt{\lambda} = n\pi$$
$$\lambda = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2$$

for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Furthermore, for $\lambda = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2$ the function

$$X_n(x) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$$

is the non-zero solution and, any other solution can be obtained by multiplying $X_n(x)$ by a constant.

5.3.3 The general solution

We know solutions exists for $\lambda = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ so, a solution to

$$T'(t) = -k \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 T(t)$$

is

$$T_n(t) = e^{-k\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 t}$$

In conclusion, the method of separation of variables gives that the solution to

$$\begin{cases} u_t = k u_{xx} & x \in (0, L) \ t, k > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0, \end{cases}$$

is given by

$$u_n(x,t) = X_n(x)T_n(t)$$

$$= \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)e^{-k\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2t}$$

Remark 5.4. The set

$$S = \left\{ \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)e^{-k\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2t} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$$

is a countable set of solution of the heat equation which satisfies the homogeneous BC. Therefore, any finite linear combination of the elements in S is a solution to the ODE. That is, the function series

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) e^{-k\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 t}$$
 for $a \in \mathbb{R}$

is a solution. By the theory of Fourier series we have that the coefficients are given by

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

5.4 Uniqueness of the solution

Proposition 5.2

The function v(x,t) = 0 is the **unique** solution to the heat conduction problem:

$$\begin{cases} v_t = kv_{xx} & x \in [0, L] \text{ and } t, k > 0 \\ v(L, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} v(L, t) - v(0, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} v(0, t) = 0 \\ v(x, 0) = 0. \end{cases}$$
(BC)

Proof. Clearly, v(x,t)=0 is a solution the problem. It remains to prove that it is a unique solution. Let

$$I(t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^L v(x,t)^2 dx.$$

Note that $I(t) \geq 0$ for all $t \in [0, \infty)$ and that I(0) = 0. It follows that

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}I(t) = \int_0^L v(x,t)\frac{\partial}{\partial t}v(x,t)$$
$$= k \int_0^L v(x,t)\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}v(x,t),$$

where the last equality is achieved since the heat conduction problem tells us $v_t = kv_{xx}$. Using integration by parts we have that

$$k \int_0^L v(x,t) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} v(x,t) \, dx = k \left[v(x,t) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} v(x,t) \right]_0^L - k \int_0^L \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} v(x,t) \right)^2 \, dx$$
$$= -k \int_0^L \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} v(x,t) \right)^2 \, dx.$$

Notice that $\int_0^L \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} v(x,t) \right)^2 dx \ge 0$ and k > 0 so,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}I(t) = -k \int_0^L \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}v(x,t)\right)^2 dx$$

$$\leq 0.$$

That ism I(t) is a non-increasing function of t and since I(0) = 0 and $I(t) \ge 0$ we must have I(t) = 0 i.e.

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_0^L v(x,t)^2 \, dx = 0.$$

Clearly, this implies that v(x,t) = 0.

Theorem 5.3

The solution to the heat equation with homogeneous BC is **unique**.

Proof. For the sake of contradiction assume the solution is not unique and let $u_1(x,t)$ and $u_2(x,t)$ be two solutions of the heat equation with homogeneous BC. We have that

$$v(x,t) = u_1(x,t) - u_2(x,t)$$

is a solution to the heat equation above hence, by applying the proposition above we have that v(x,t) = 0 is the unique solution. We conclude,

$$u_1(x,t) = u_2(x,t).$$

5.5 Insulated ends

In this section we want to solve the following heat conduction problem:

$$\begin{cases} u_t = k u_{xx} & x \in (0, L), \quad t, k > 0 \\ u_x(0, t) = u_x(L, t) = 0 & \text{(Neumann BC)} \\ u(x, 0) = f(x) & \text{(initial condition)}, \end{cases}$$

where $f:[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function such that f' is piecewise continuous and f'(0)=f'(L)=0.

Theorem 5.4 (Unique solution to HE with insulated ends)

The unique solution to the heat equation with the conditions specified above is

$$u(x,t) = \frac{1}{2}c_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \cos\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}x\right) \exp\left(-k\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}\right)^2 t\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}c_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \cos\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}x\right) e^{-k\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}\right)^2 t},$$

where

$$c_n := \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \cos\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}x\right) dx.$$

Example 5.3

Consider the following heat conduction initial boundary value problem:

$$\begin{cases} u_t = 7u_{xx} & x \in (0,\pi), \quad t > 0, \\ u_x(0,t) = u_x(\pi,t) = 0 & \text{(Neumann BC)} \\ u(x,0) = 5 + \cos(2x) - 2\cos(3x) & \text{(initial condition)}. \end{cases}$$

By the theorem there exists a unique solution of the form

$$u(x,t) = \frac{1}{2}c_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \cos(nx)e^{-7n^2t}.$$

To find the coefficients c_n we can evaluate the integral, but it is easier to impose the initial condition; we note that

$$u(x,0) = \frac{1}{2}c_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \cos(nx)$$

= 5 + \cos(2x) - 2\cos(3x).

Therefore, $\frac{1}{2}c_0 = 5$, $c_1 = 1$, $c_3 = -2$ and the remaining $c_n = 0$. We conclude, the general solution to this problem is

$$u(x,t) = 5 + e^{-28t}\cos(2x) - 2e^{-63t}\cos(3x).$$

5.5.1 Solution for 'position' ODE

Assume u(x,t) = X(x)T(t) by our previous discussion of separation of variables we now consider the ODE

$$\begin{cases} X''(x) = -\lambda X(x) & x \in [0, L] \\ X'(0) = X'(L) = 0 \end{cases}$$

and when it has solution

Definition 5.10. The value λ for which a non-trivial solution of the ODE with the specified condition above exists is called an **eigenvalue** for the Dirichlet problem with **Neumann boundary conditions**. A non-zero solution related to this value of λ is called **eigenfunction**.

Theorem 5.5

The ODE with the specified conditions above does **NOT** have a non-zero solution when $\lambda < 0$.

Proof. In this case the solution is of the form

$$X(x) = C_1 e^{x\sqrt{-\lambda}} + C_2 e^{-x\sqrt{-\lambda}}$$

for $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ so,

$$X'(x) = \sqrt{-\lambda} \left(C_1 e^{x\sqrt{-\lambda}} - C_2 e^{-x\sqrt{-\lambda}} \right).$$

Imposing the condition X'(0) = 0 gives us $C_1 = C_2$; imposing X'(L) = 0 gives

$$\sqrt{-\lambda} \left(C_1 e^{L\sqrt{-\lambda}} - C_2 e^{-L\sqrt{-\lambda}} \right) = 0 \iff C_1 \left(e^{L\sqrt{-\lambda}} - e^{-L\sqrt{-\lambda}} \right) = 0.$$

Since we are not interested in the trivial solution we can assume $C_1 \neq 0$ therefore,

$$0 = e^{L\sqrt{-\lambda}} - e^{-L\sqrt{-\lambda}}$$
$$= \left(e^{2L\sqrt{-\lambda}} - 1\right)e^{-L\sqrt{-\lambda}}$$

This is 0 if and only if $e^{2L\sqrt{-\lambda}} - 1 = 0$ that is, if $2L\sqrt{-\lambda} = 0$. However, since both λ and L are assumed to be non-zero we have that $2L\sqrt{-\lambda} \neq 0$ always.

Theorem 5.6

The ODE with the specified conditions has a non-zero solution when $\lambda = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2$ for $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. The solution is given by

$$X_n(x) = \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right).$$

Furthermore, any other solution can be obtained by multiplying $X_n(x)$ by a constant.

Proof. There are two special cases.

• If $\lambda > 0$ then,

$$X(x) = C_1 \cos(x\sqrt{\lambda}) + C_2 \sin(x\sqrt{\lambda})$$

which implies

$$X'(x) = -C_1\sqrt{\lambda}\sin(x\sqrt{\lambda}) + C_2\sqrt{\lambda}\cos(x\sqrt{\lambda}).$$

Imposing the condition that X'(0) = 0 gives $C_2 = 0$ so, $X(x) = C_1 \cos(x\sqrt{x})$; imposing the condition X'(L) = 0 gives

$$-C_1\sqrt{\lambda}\sin(L\sqrt{\lambda})=0.$$

This is true when

$$L\sqrt{L} = n\pi \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N},$$

that is when,

$$\lambda = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2.$$

Hence, the solution is given by

$$X_n(x) = \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right),\,$$

and any other solution can be obtained by multiplying $X_n(x)$ by a constant.

• If $\lambda = 0$ then,

$$X_0(x) = \cos(0) = 1$$

which is a non-zero solution.

Remark 5.5. The set

$$S = \left\{ \cos \left(\frac{n\pi}{L} x \right) e^{-k\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 t} : n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \right\}$$

is a countable set of solution of the heat equation which satisfies the Neumann BC. Therefore, any finite linear combination of the elements in S is a solution to the ODE. That is, the function series

$$u(x,t) = \frac{1}{2}a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) e^{-k\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 t} \quad \text{for } a \in \mathbb{R}$$

is a solution. By the theory of Fourier series we have that the coefficients are given by

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

5.6 Constant boundary conditions

In this section we show methods to solve the heat equation with the following conditions:

$$\begin{cases} u_t = ku_{xx} & x \in (0, L), \quad t, k > 0 \\ u(0, t) = U_1 & \\ u(L, t) = U_2 & \\ u(x, 0) = f(x) & \text{(initial condition)}, \end{cases}$$

where $f:[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function such that f' is piecewise conditions and $f(0)=U_1$ and $f(L)=U_2$.

Definition 5.11. Given a heat conduction problem, the **equilibrium solution** or the **steady-state solution** is a solution u(x,t) of the problem (not including the initial condition) that does not depend on t. That is,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u(x,t) = 0 \quad \forall t \ge 0.$$

We denote such solution by $u_e(x)$.

Remark 5.6. Requiring that $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u_e(x) = 0$ and that it satisfies the heat equation gives that $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2}u_t(x) = 0$. Therefore, $u_e(x)$ must be of the form Ax + B. By imposing the initial condition we obtain the values of A and B.

Theorem 5.7 (Equilibrium solution)

The equilibrium solution of the heat conduction problem with the specified conditions above is

$$u_e(x) = U_1 + \frac{(U_2 - U_1)x}{L}.$$

Theorem 5.8 (Unique solution to HE with constant BC)

The unique solution to the heat equation with the conditions specified above is

$$u(x,t) := w(x,t) + u_e(x)$$

where $u_e(x)$ is the equilibrium solution and w(x,t) is the solution of the following problem:

$$\begin{cases} u_t = ku_{xx} & x \in (0, L) \quad t, k > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0 & \text{(homogeneous BC)} \\ u(x, 0) = f(x) - u_e(x). \end{cases}$$

5.7 Maximum principle

Note 5.2. Refer to this video Maximum principle at minute 8:00.

Note 5.3. Let u(x,t) be a solution to the heat equation $u_t - ku_{xx} \le 0$ for k > 0 then,

$$\max u(x,t) = u(0,0) \text{ or } u(L,0).$$

Theorem 5.9 (Maximum principle)

Suppose that u(x,t) satisfies

$$u_t - ku_{xx} \le 0$$
 for $k > 0$

in the spacetime rectangle $\Omega_T = (0, L) \times (0, T]$. Then,

$$\max_{\overline{\Omega}_T = [0,L] \times [0,T]} u = \max_{\overline{\Omega}_T \setminus \Omega_T}.$$

In particular,

$$\sup_{[0,L]\times[0,\infty]} u = \max_{\overline{\Omega}_{\infty}\setminus\Omega_{\infty}}.$$

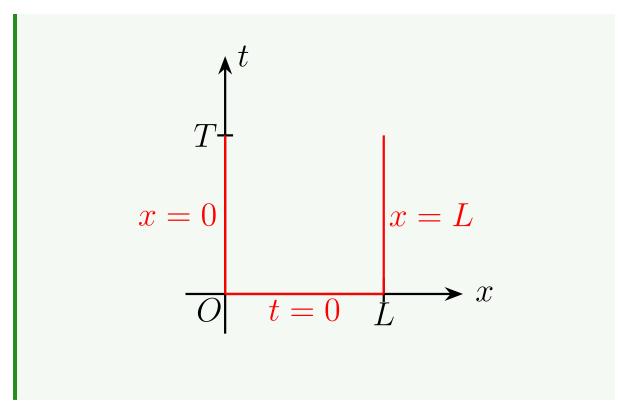
Note 5.4. We can interpret the Maximum principle as follows: Suppose that u(x,t) satisfies

$$u_t - ku_{xx} \le 0$$
 for $k > 0$

in the spacetime rectangle $0 \le x \le L$, $0 \le t \le T$. Then, the maximum value of u occurs at some point on the boundary lines

$$t = 0, x = 0 \text{ or } x = L$$

Below we have an illustration of the rectangle.



Lemma 5.1. If u attains its maximum over $\overline{\Omega}_T$ at a point $(x_0, t_0) \in \Omega_T$ then,

$$u_t(x_0, t_0) \ge 0$$
 and $u_{xx}(x_0, t_0) \le 0$.

In particular,

$$u_t(x_0, t_0) - ku_{xx}(x_0, t_0) > 0.$$

Proposition 5.3

Let $u_1(x,t)$ and $u_2(x,t)$ be two solutions of

$$\begin{cases} u_t = ku_{xx} & x \in (0, L), t, k > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0 \\ u_1(x, 0) = f_1(x) \\ u_2(x, 0) = f_2(x). \end{cases}$$

Then,

$$\max_{\overline{\Omega}_T} |u_1 - u_2| \le \max_{[0,L]} |f_1 - f_2|.$$

6 The wave equation

Given a length L > 0 of a 'perfectly flexible' elastic string stretched between two points at distance L, the **wave equation** says that the displacement u(t, x) for $x \in (0, L)$ and time t > 0 changes according to the following problem.

$$\begin{cases} u_{tt} = \alpha^2 u_{xx} & x \in (0, L), \ t > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0 & \text{(Homogeneous BC)} \\ u(x, 0) = f(x) & \text{(initial displacement condition)} \\ u_t(x, 0) = g(x) & \text{(Initial velocity condition)}, \end{cases}$$

where α^2 depends on the properties of the string and $f,g:[0,L]\to\mathbb{R}$ are smooth functions with f(0)=f(L)=0 and g(0)=g(L)=0.

Remark 6.1. This is a second order linear PDE.

Theorem 6.1

The **unique** solution to the ODE above with the specified conditions is

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[a_n \cos\left(\frac{\pi n\alpha}{L}t\right) + b_n \sin\left(\frac{\pi n\alpha}{L}t\right) \right] \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$$

where

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

and

$$\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}b_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L g(x) \sin\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}x\right) dx.$$

Example 6.1

Solve the following problem:

$$\begin{cases} u_{tt} = 9u_{xx} & x \in (0, \pi), t > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(\pi, t) = 0 \\ u(x, 0) = 4\sin(3x) \\ u_t(x, 0) = 14\sin(7x). \end{cases}$$

By the theorem above, there exists a unique solution of the form

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[a_n \cos(3nt) + b_n \sin(3nt) \right] \sin(nx).$$

To find the coefficients we impose the initial conditions:

$$u(x,0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin(nx)$$
$$= 4\sin(3x)$$

and

$$u_t(x,0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 3nb_n \sin(nx)$$
$$= 14 \sin(7x).$$

These conditions imply that $a_3=4$ and all other $a_n=0$, it also implies $b_7=\frac{14}{21}=\frac{2}{3}$ and all other $b_n=0$. Therefore, the solution is

$$u(x,t) = 4\cos(9t)\sin(3x) + \frac{2}{3}\sin(21t)\sin(7x).$$

6.1 Zero initial velocity

In this section we consider the problem

$$\begin{cases} u_{tt} = \alpha^2 u_{xx} & x \in (0, L), t > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0 \\ u(x, 0) = f(x) \\ u_t(x, 0) = 0 & \text{(Zero initial velocity)}. \end{cases}$$

Theorem 6.2

The **unique** solution to the problem above is

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$$

with

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

6.1.1 Separation of variables

In order to prove the theorem above we will consider a simpler problem. Consider the problem

$$\begin{cases} u_{tt} = \alpha^2 u_{xx} & x \in (0, L), t > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0 \\ u_t(x, 0) = 0. \end{cases}$$

Suppose, u(x,t) is separable i.e.

$$u(x,t) = X(x)T(t),$$

once again u(x,t) = 0 is a solution, but we are interested in non-trivial solutions. Imposing the boundary conditions, and we have

$$u(0,t) = X(0)T(t) = 0$$
 and $u(L,t) = X(L)T(t) = 0$

for all t > 0. In order to have X(0)T(t) = 0 for all t > 0 we either have X(0) = 0 or T(t) = 0 for all t > 0 however, the second option leads back to the trivial solution thus, we must have

$$X(0) = 0.$$

By a similar argument X(L) = 0. Now imposing the initial condition, $u_t(x, 0) = 0$, we have that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u(x,0) = X(x)T'(0) = 0$$

by a similar reasoning as above this gives that T'(0) = 0. Substituting, u(x,t) = X(x)T(t) into the problem implies, there exist $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$T''(t) = -\lambda \alpha^2 T(t)$$
 and $X''(x) = -\lambda X(x)$.

Consider the position dependent ODE,

$$\begin{cases} X''(x) = -\lambda X(x) \\ X(0) = X(L) = 0. \end{cases}$$

We have seen that this ODE has non-zero solutions only when

$$\lambda = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

and, when that is the case, the solution is given by

$$X_n(x) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right).$$

Any other solution can be obtained by multiplying $X_n(x)$ by a constant.

With this in mind, for a given $\lambda = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2$ the time dependent ODE becomes

$$T''(t) = -\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}\right)^2 T(t)$$

and, the general solution is

$$T_n(t) = a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right) + b_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right).$$

We have that

$$T'_n(t) = -a_n \left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right) + b_n \left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}\right) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right)$$

and imposing the initial condition gives

$$T'_n(0) = b_n\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}\right) = 0.$$

This implies that $b_n = 0$ and

$$T_n(t) = a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right).$$

We have that

$$u(x,t) = a_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right).$$

Consider the set

$$S = \left\{ \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)\cos\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right) : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\},\,$$

is a countable set of solutions and since the wave equation is linear, any finite linear combination of elements in S is a solution. Therefore, the function series

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right)$$
 for $a_n \in \mathbb{R}$,

is the solution to the problem.

6.2 Zero initial displacement

In this section we consider the problem

$$\begin{cases} u_{tt} = \alpha^2 u_{xx} & x \in (0, L), t > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0 \\ u(x, 0) = 0 & \text{(Zero initial displacement)} \\ u_t(x, 0) = q(x). \end{cases}$$

Theorem 6.3

The **unique** solution to the problem above is

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$$

with

$$\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}b_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L g(x) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) dx.$$

6.2.1 Separation of variables

In order to prove the theorem above we will consider a simpler problem. Consider the problem

$$\begin{cases} u_{tt} = \alpha^2 u_{xx} & x \in (0, L), t > 0 \\ u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0 \\ u(x, 0) = 0. \end{cases}$$

Suppose, the solution u(x,t) is separable i.e. it can be written as

$$u(x,t) = X(x)T(t).$$

Once again u(x,t) = 0 is a solution, but we are interested in non-trivial solutions.

The boundary conditions for X(x) are X(0) = X(L) = 0 and imposing the condition u(x,0) = X(x)T(0) = 0 which implies T(0) = 0.

As in a previous section, we obtain that there must exist $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$T''(t) = -\lambda \alpha^2 T(t)$$
 and $X''(x) = -\lambda X(x)$.

Considering the position dependent ODE

$$\begin{cases} X''(x) = -\lambda X(x)x \in [0, L] \\ X(0) = X(L) = 0, \end{cases}$$

as shown previously this has a solution when

$$\lambda = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

and the solution is the function

$$X_n(x) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right).$$

Any other solution can be obtained by multiplying $X_n(x)$ by a constant.

With this in mind, for a given $\lambda = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2$ the time dependent ODE becomes

$$T''(t) = -\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}\right)^2 T(t),$$

where the general solution is then,

$$T_n(t) = a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right) + b_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right).$$

Imposing the initial condition gives

$$T_n(0) = a_n = 0,$$

which implies that $a_n = 0$ and

$$T_n(t) = b_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right).$$

We have that

$$u(x,t) = b_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right).$$

Consider the set

$$S = \left\{ \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right) : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\},\,$$

which is a countable set of solutions and since the wave equation is linear, any finite linear combinations of elements in S is a solution. Therefore, the function series

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi\alpha}{L}t\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$$

is the solution.

6.3 Uniqueness of the solution

In this section we prove that the solution to the wave equation and its variants is unique.

Theorem 6.4

Consider the following initial-boundary value problem for the wave equation:

$$\begin{cases} v_{tt} = \alpha^2 v_{xx} & x \in (0, L) \ t > 0 \\ v(L, t) = v(0, t) = 0 \\ v(x, 0) = 0 \\ v_t(x, 0) = 0. \end{cases}$$

The function v(x,t)=0 is the unique solution to this problem.

Proof. Clearly, v(x,t) = 0 is a solution to the problem. First note that the conditions v(L,t) = v(0,t) = 0 and v(x,0) = 0 imply that $v_t(L,t) = v_t(0,t) = 0$ and $v_x(x,0) = 0$. Let

$$E(t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^L \alpha^2 v_x^2 + v_t^2 dx \quad \text{(the energy)}.$$

We have that

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}E(t) = \int_0^L \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\alpha^2 v_x^2 + v_t^2\right) dx$$

$$= \int_0^L \alpha^2 v_x v_{xt} + v_t v_{tt} dx$$

$$= \int_0^L \alpha^2 v_x v_{xt} dx + \int_0^L v_t v_{tt} dx.$$

Theorem 6.5

FINISH PROOF

Theorem 6.6

Solution is unique

Proof. Let $u_1(x,t)$ and $u_2(x,t)$ be two solutions of the wave equation.

Theorem 6.7

TO FINISH.

6.4 Cracking the whip

In this section we consider the problem

$$\begin{cases} u_{tt} = \alpha^2 u_{xx}, & x \in (0, \infty), \ t > 0 \\ u(0, t) = h(t) & \lim_{x \to \infty} \sup_{t \ge 0} |u(x, t)| = 0 \\ u(x, 0) = 0 \\ u_t(x, 0) = 0. \end{cases}$$

Theorem 6.8

The **unique** solution to the problem above is given by

$$u(x,t) = g_{\frac{x}{\alpha}}(t) \cdot h\left(t - \frac{x}{\alpha}\right),$$

where the function

$$g_{\frac{x}{\alpha}}(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t \ge \frac{x}{\alpha} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

is a step function.

Example 6.2

Let

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} \sin(t) & t \in [0, \pi] \\ 0 & t \ge \pi. \end{cases}$$

Then the solution to the problem above is given by

$$u(x,t) = g_{\frac{x}{\alpha}}(t) \cdot h\left(t - \frac{x}{\alpha}\right).$$

Note that $h(t) = (1 - g_{\pi}(t)) \sin \left(t - \frac{x}{\alpha}\right)$, as such we can write

$$u(x,t) = g_{\frac{x}{\alpha}}(t) \left(1 - g_{\pi} \left(t - \frac{x}{\alpha}\right)\right) \sin\left(t - \frac{x}{\alpha}\right)$$
$$= \begin{cases} \sin\left(t - \frac{x}{\alpha}\right) & t \in \left[\frac{x}{\alpha}, \frac{x}{\alpha} + \pi\right] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

6.5 Can you hear the shape of a drum?

NO

6.6 The 2-dimensional wave equation

Let Ω be a bounded domain in \mathbb{R}^2 and given a function u(x, y, t), let $\Delta u = u_{xx} + u_{yy}$. Then the 2-dimensional wave equation

$$\begin{cases} u_{tt}(x,y,t) = \alpha^2 \Delta u(x,y,t) & (x,y) \in \Omega \, t > 0 \\ u(x,y,t) = 0 & (x,y) \in \partial \Omega \quad \text{(Homogeneous BC)} \\ u(x,y,0) = f(x,y) & \text{(Initial displacement)} \\ u_t(x,y,0) = g(x,y) & \text{(Initial velocity)}. \end{cases}$$

Remark 6.2. The notation $\partial\Omega$ means the boundary of the set Ω .

6.6.1 Separation of variables

However, in this section we are going to investigate this problem without the initial displacement and velocity conditions, namely the problem:

$$\begin{cases} u_{tt}(x,y,t) = \alpha^2 \Delta u(x,y,t) & (x,y) \in \Omega \, t > 0 \\ u(x,y,t) = 0 & (x,y) \in \partial \Omega \quad \text{(Homogeneous BC)}. \end{cases}$$

Assume the separation is separable, assume that u(x, y, t) = X(x, y)T(t). Now, checking the boundary condition

$$u(x, y, t) = X(x, y)T(t) = 0$$
 for $(x, y) \in \partial \Omega$.

In order to have this we must either have X(x,y) = 0 or T(t) = 0 for all t > 0. The second option leads us to the trivial solution so, if we are interested in the non-trivial solution we assume:

$$X(x,y) = 0$$
 for $(x,y) \in \partial \Omega$.

Calculating the second derivatives we have that

$$u_{tt} = XT'',$$

$$u_{xx} = X_{xx}T,$$

$$u_{yy} = X_{yy}T.$$

Therefore, wave equation

$$u_{tt} = \alpha^2 \Delta u$$

becomes

$$XT'' = \alpha^{2}(u_{xx} + u_{yy})$$
$$= \alpha^{2}(X_{xx} + X_{yy}) T$$
$$= \alpha^{2}T \cdot \Delta X.$$

This is equivalent to

$$\frac{T''}{\alpha^2 T} = \frac{\Delta X}{X},$$

for this to be true there must exist $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\frac{T''}{\alpha^2 T} = -\lambda = \frac{\Delta X}{X}.$$

6.7 The Dirichlet eigenvalues of a disk

Appendix

A Links

• Series

B Laplace transform table

Function	L-Transform
y(t)	$Y(s) = \mathcal{L}[y(t)](s)$
e^{at}	$\frac{1}{s-a}$ for $s > a$
$\sin(\omega t)$	$\frac{\omega}{s^2+\omega}$

C Techniques of integration

C.1 Integration by parts

Theorem C.1 (Integration by parts)

Let $f, g \in C[a, b]$ with $f', g' \in C[a, b]$; then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)g'(x) \, dx = [f(x)g(x)]_{a}^{b} - \int_{a}^{b} f'(x)g(x) \, dx$$

Note C.1. The acronym **LIATE** can be used to choose which function to differentiate. (The I stands inverse trigonometric/hyperbolic functions).

D Tricks

D.1 Step function

Example D.1. Let f satisfy f(T+t)=f(t) for all $t\geq 0$ and for some fixed T>0. Show that

$$\mathcal{L}[f(t)](s) = \frac{\int_0^T f(t)e^{-st} dt}{1 - e^{-sT}}.$$

Solution. Notice that

$$u_T(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t < T \\ 1 & \text{if } t \ge T. \end{cases}$$

Therefore,

$$1 - u_T(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t < T \\ 0 & \text{if } t \ge T. \end{cases}$$

Now, we can write

$$\int_0^T y(t)e^{-st} dt = \int_0^T 1 \cdot y(t)e^{-st} dt + \int_0^\infty 0 \cdot y(t)e^{-st} dt$$
$$= \int_0^\infty (1 - u_T(t))y(t)e^{-st} dt.$$

Example D.2. Compute $\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{e^{-4s}}{2s-1}\right](t)$.

Solution. Recall

- $\mathcal{L}[e^{at}] = \frac{1}{s-a}$ for s > a.
- $\mathcal{L}[u_a(t)y(t-a)](s) = e^{-as}\mathcal{L}[y(t)](s).$

We know

$$\mathcal{L}\left[e^{\frac{1}{2}t}\right](s) = \frac{1}{s - \frac{1}{2}}.$$

Therefore, we have

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[\frac{e^{-4s}}{2s - 1} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[\frac{e^{-4s}}{s - \frac{1}{2}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[e^{-4s} \mathcal{L} \left[e^{\frac{1}{2}t} \right] \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left[\mathcal{L} \left[u_4(t) e^{\frac{1}{2}(t - 4)} \right] \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} u_4(t) e^{\frac{1}{2}(t - 4)}.$$

E Hessian matrix

Hessian matrix