

Partial Differential Equations
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Winter Semester 2020/2021

Lecture notes \TeX ed by Thomas Eingartner

Wednesday 20th October, 2021, 13:05

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Chapter 1

Introduction

A differential equation is an equation of a function and its derivatives.

Example 1.1 (Linear ODE) Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$\begin{cases} f'(t) = af(t) \text{ for all } t \geq 0, a \in \mathbb{R} \\ f(0) = a_0 \end{cases}$$

is a linear ODE (Ordinary differential equation). The solution is: $f(t) = a_0 e^{at}$ for all $t \geq 0$.

Example 1.2 (Non-Linear ODE) $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{cases} f'(t) = 1 + f^2(t) \\ f(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

Lets consider $f(t) = \tan(t) = \frac{\sin(t)}{\cos(t)}$. Then we have

$$f'(t) = \frac{1}{\cos^2(t)} = 1 + \tan^2(t) = 1 + f^2(t),$$

but this solution only is *good* in $(-\pi, \pi)$. It's a problem to extend this to $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

A PDE (Partial Differential Equation) is an equation of a function of 2 or more variables and its derivatives.

Remark 1.3 Recall for $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ open and $f : \Omega \rightarrow \{\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}\}$ the notation of partial derivatives:

- $\partial_{x_i} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + he_i) - f(x)}{h}$, where $e_i = (0, 0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- $D^\alpha f(x) = \partial_{x_1}^{\alpha_1} \dots \partial_{x_d}^{\alpha_d} f(x)$, where $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^d$
- $Df = \nabla f = (\partial_{x_1}, \dots, \partial_{x_d})$
- $\Delta f = \partial_{x_1}^2 + \dots + \partial_{x_d}^2 f$
- $D^k f = (D^\alpha f)_{|\alpha|=k}$, where $|\alpha| = \sum_{i=1}^d |\alpha_i|$
- $D^2 f = (\partial_{x_i} \partial_{x_j} f)_{1 \leq i, j \leq d}$

Definition 1.4 Given a function F . Then the equation of the form

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

with the unknown function $u : \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a *PDE of order k* .

- Equations $\sum_d a_\alpha(x) D^\alpha u(x) = 0$, where a_α and u are unknown functions are called *Linear PDEs*.
- Equations $\sum_{|\alpha|=k} a_\alpha(x) D^\alpha u(x) + F(D^{k-1} u, D^{k-2} u, \dots, Du, u, x) = 0$ are called *semi-linear PDEs*.

Goals: For *solving a PDE* we want to

- Find an explicit solution! This is in many cases impossible.
- Prove a *well-posed theory* (existence of solutions, uniqueness of solutions, continuous dependence of solutions on the data)

We have two notations of solutions:

1. Classical solution: The solution is continuous differentiable (e.g. $\Delta u = f \rightsquigarrow u \in C^2$)
2. Weak Solutions: The solution is not smooth/continuous

Definition 1.5 (Spaces of continuous and differentiable functions) Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ be open

$$\begin{aligned} C(\Omega) &= \{f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ continuous}\} \\ C^k(\Omega) &= \{f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid D^\alpha f \text{ is continuous for all } |\alpha| \leq k\} \end{aligned}$$

Classical solution of a PDE of order $k \rightsquigarrow C^k$ solutions!

$$L^p(\Omega) = \left\{ f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ Lebesgue measurable} \mid \int_\Omega |f|^p d\lambda < \infty, 1 \leq p < \infty \right\}$$

Sobolev Space:

$$W^{k,p}(\Omega) = \{f \in L^p(\Omega) \mid \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{N}^n \text{ with } |\alpha| \leq k : D^\alpha f \in L^p(\Omega) \text{ exists}\}$$

In this course we will investigate

- Laplace / Poisson Equation: $-\Delta u = f$
- Heat Equation: $\partial_t u - \Delta u = f$
- Wave Equation: $\partial_t^2 u - \Delta u = f$
- Schrödinger Equation: $i\partial_t u - \Delta u = f$

Chapter 2

Laplace / Poisson Equation

2.1 Laplace Equation

$-\Delta u = 0$ (Laplace) or $-\Delta u = f(x)$ (Poisson).

Definition 2.1 (Harmonic Function) Let Ω be an open set in \mathbb{R}^d . If $u \in C^2(\Omega)$ and $\Delta u = 0$ in Ω , then u is a harmonic function in Ω .

Theorem 2.2 (Gauss-Green Theorem)

$$\int_{\partial V} F \vec{n} \, dS(x) = \int_V \operatorname{div}(F) \, dx$$

Thus

$$0 = \int_{\partial V} \nabla u \vec{n} \, dS(x) = \int_V \operatorname{div}(\nabla u) \, dx = \int_V \Delta u(x) \, dx$$

for any $V \subseteq \Omega$ open.

Exercise 2.3 Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ open, let $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Prove that if $\int_B f(x) \, dx = 0$, then $u \equiv 0$ in Ω .

Theorem 2.4 (Fundamental Lemma of Calculus of Variations) Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ open, let $f \in L^1(\Omega)$. If $\int_B f(x) \, dx = 0$ for all $x \in B_r(x) \subseteq \Omega$, then $f(x) = 0$ a.e. (almost everywhere) $x \in \Omega$.

Remark 2.5 (Solving Laplace Equation) $-\Delta u = 0$ in \mathbb{R}^d . Consider the case when u is radial, i.e. $u(x) = v(|x|)$, $v : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Denote $r = |x|$, then

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\sqrt{x_1^2 + \cdots + x_d^2} \right) = \frac{2x_i}{2\sqrt{x_1^2 + \cdots + x_d^2}} = \frac{x_i}{r}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_{x_i} u &= \partial_{x_i} v = (\partial_r v) \frac{\partial r}{\partial x_i} = v'(r) \frac{x_i}{r} \\ \partial_{x_i}^2 u &= \partial_{x_i} \left(v(r) \frac{x_i}{r} \right) = \partial_{x_i} (v(r)') \frac{x_i}{r} + v'(r) \partial_{x_i} \left(\frac{x_i}{r} \right) \\ &= \partial_r (v'(r)) \left(\frac{dr}{\partial x_i} \right) \frac{x_i}{r} + v'(r) \left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{x_i}{r^2} (\partial_{x_i} r) \right) = v'(r) \frac{x_i^2}{r^2} + v'(r) \left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{x_i^2}{r^3} \right) \end{aligned}$$

So we have $\Delta u = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d d_{x_i}^2 \right) u = v''(r) + v'(r) \left(\frac{d}{r} - \frac{1}{r} \right)$

Thus $\Delta u = v''(r) + v'(r) \frac{d-1}{r}$. We consider $d \geq 2$. Laplace operator $\Delta u = 0$ now becomes $v''(r) + v'(r) \frac{d-1}{r} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \log(v(r))' = \frac{v'(r)}{v(r)} = -\frac{d-1}{r} = -(d-1)(\log r)' \quad (\text{recall } \log(f)' = \frac{f'}{f})$$

$$\Rightarrow v'(r) = \frac{1}{v^{d-2} + \text{const.}}$$

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\text{const}}{r^{d-2}} + \text{const}x + \text{const} & , d \geq 3 \\ \text{const} \log(r) + \text{const}x + \text{const} & , d = 2 \end{cases}$$

Definition 2.6 (Fundamental Solution of Laplace Equation)

$$\Phi(x) = \begin{cases} -\frac{1}{2\pi} \log(|x|), & d = 2 \\ \frac{1}{(d-2)d|B_1|} \frac{1}{|x|^{d-2}}, & d \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

Where $|B_1|$ is the Volume of the ball $B_1(0) = B(0, 1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$.

Remark 2.7 $\Delta \Phi(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $x \neq 0$.

2.2 Poisson-Equation

The Poisson-Equation is $-\Delta u(x) = f(x)$ in \mathbb{R}^d . The explicit solution is given by

$$\begin{aligned} u(x) &= (\Phi \star f)(x) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \Phi(x-y) f(y) dy = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \Phi(y) f(x-y) dy \end{aligned}$$

This can be heuristically justified with

$$-\Delta(\Phi \star f) = (-\Delta \Phi) \star f = \delta_0 \star f = f$$

Theorem 2.8 Assume $f \in C_c^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$, i.e. $f \in C^2 \mathbb{R}^d$ and compactly supported. Then $u = \Phi \star f$, where Φ is the fundamental solution if the Laplace equation satisfies that $u \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and $-\Delta u(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Proof. By definition we have

$$u(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \Phi(y) f(x-y) dy.$$

Firstly we check that u is continuous: Take $x_k \rightarrow x_0$ in \mathbb{R}^d . We prove that $u(x_k) \rightarrow u_0$, i.e.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \Phi(y) f(x_n - y) dy = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \Phi(y) f(x_0 - y) dy$$

This follows from the Dominated Convergence Theorem. More precisely:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Phi(y) f(x_n - y) = \Phi(y) f(x_0 - y) \quad \text{for all } y \in \mathbb{R}^d \setminus \{0\}$$

and

$$|\Phi(y) f(x-y)| \leq \|f\|_{L^\infty} \mathbb{K}(|y| \leq R) |\Phi(y)| \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d, dy)$$

where $R > 0$ depends on $\{x_n\}$ and $\text{supp}(f)$ but independent of y . Now we compute the derivatives:

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_{x_i} u(x) &= \partial_{x_i} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \Phi(y) f(x-y) dy \int \Phi(y) \partial_{x_i} f(x-y) dy \\ \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \Phi(y) \frac{f(x + he_i - y) - f(x - y)}{h} dy \\ D^\alpha u(x) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \Phi(y) D_x^\alpha f(x-y) dy \quad \text{for all } |\alpha| \leq 2\end{aligned}$$

$D^\alpha u(x)$ is continuous, thus $u \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ Now we check of this solves the Poisson-Equation: Now we come to the main part. We apply integration by parts: Recall the outward normal unit vector \vec{n} : $\frac{\partial}{\partial \vec{n}} = \nabla \vec{n}$.

$$\nabla_y \Phi(y) = \frac{1}{d|B_1|} \frac{y}{|y|^d} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{n} = \frac{y}{|y|} \text{ in } \partial B(0, \epsilon)$$

This leads to:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \vec{n}} = \frac{1}{d|B_1|} \frac{1}{|y|^{d-1}} = \frac{1}{d|B_1|\epsilon^{d-1}}$$

Hence:

Error terms:

1.

$$\begin{aligned}\left| \int_{B(0, \epsilon)} \Phi(y) (-\Delta_y) f(x-y) dy \right| &\leq \int_{B(0, \epsilon)} |\Phi(y)| \underbrace{|-\Delta_y f(x-y)|}_{\leq \|\Delta f\|_{L^\infty} \mathbb{K}(|y| \leq R)} dy \\ &\leq \|\Delta f\|_{L^\infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \underbrace{|\Phi(y)| \mathbb{K}(|y| \leq R)}_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)} \mathbb{K}(|y| \leq \epsilon) dy \xrightarrow{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} 0\end{aligned}$$

Where $R > 0$ depends on x and the support of f but is independent of y .

2.

$$\begin{aligned}\left| \int_{\partial B(0, \epsilon)} \Phi(y) \frac{\partial f}{\partial \vec{n}}(x-y) dS(y) \right| &\leq \|\nabla f\|_{L^\infty} \int_{\partial B(0, \epsilon)} |\Phi(y)| dy \\ &\leq \begin{cases} \text{const} \cdot \epsilon \rightarrow 0, & d \geq 3 \\ \text{const} \cdot \epsilon |\log \epsilon| \rightarrow 0, & d = 2 \end{cases}\end{aligned}$$

Conclusion: $-\Delta u(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ proved that $u = \Phi \star f$ and $f \in C_c^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$. ■