

18.311 ExPD (Exercises in Partial Differentiation and Linear PDE).

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1 Short notes on separation of variables.

Imagine that you are trying to solve a problem whose solution is a function of several variables, e.g.: $u = u(x, y, z)$. Finding this solution directly may be very hard, but you may be able to find other solutions with the simpler structure

$$u = f(x)g(y)h(z), \tag{1.1}$$

where f , g , and h are some functions. This is called a *separated variables* solution.

If the problem that you are trying to solve is linear, and you can find enough solutions of the form in (1.1), then you may be able to solve the problem using a linear combinations of separated variables solutions.

The technique described in the paragraph above is called *separation of variables*. Note that

1. When the problem is a pde and solutions of the form in (1.1) are allowed, the pde reduces to three ode — one for each of f , g , and h . Thus the solution process is enormously simplified.

2. In (1.1) all the three variables are separated. But it is also possible to seek for *partially separated* solutions. For example

$$u = f(x)v(y, z). \quad (1.2)$$

This is what happens when you look for *normal mode* solutions to time evolution equations of the form

$$u_t = \mathcal{L}u, \quad (1.3)$$

where \mathcal{L} is a linear operator acting on the space variables $\vec{r} = (x, y, \dots)$ only — for example: $\mathcal{L} = \partial_x^2 + \partial_y^2 + \dots$. The normal mode solutions have time separated

$$u = e^{\lambda t}\phi(\vec{r}), \quad \text{where } \lambda = \text{constant}, \quad (1.4)$$

and reduce the equation to an eigenvalue problem in space only

$$\lambda\phi = \mathcal{L}\phi. \quad (1.5)$$

3. *Separation of variables does not always work.* In fact, it rarely works if you just think of random problems. But it works for many problems of physical interest. For example: it works for the heat equation, but only for a few very symmetrical domains (rectangles, circles, cylinders, ellipses). But these are enough to build intuition as to how the equation works. Many properties valid for generic domains can be gleaned from the solutions in these domains.
4. Even if you cannot find enough separated solutions to write all the solutions as linear combinations of them, or if the problem is nonlinear and you can get just a few separated solutions, sometimes this is enough to discover interesting physical effects, or gain intuition as to the system behavior.

1.1 Example:

heat equation in a square, with zero boundary conditions.

Consider the problem

$$T_t = \Delta T = T_{xx} + T_{yy}, \quad (1.6)$$

in the square domain $0 < x, y < \pi$, with T vanishing along the boundary, and with some initial data $T(x, y, 0) = W(x, y)$. To solve this problem by separation of variables, we first look for solutions of the form

$$T = f(t) g(x) h(y), \quad (1.7)$$

which satisfy the boundary conditions, but **not** the initial data. Why this? This is **important!**:

- A.** We would like to solve the problem for generic initial data, while solutions of the form (1.7) can only achieve initial data for which $W = f(0) g(x) h(y)$. This is very restrictive, even more so because (as we will soon see) the functions g and h will be very special. To get generic initial data, we have no hope unless we use arbitrary linear combinations of solutions like (1.7).
- B.** Arbitrary linear combinations of solutions like (1.7) will satisfy the boundary conditions if and only if each of them satisfies them.

Substituting (1.7) into (1.6) yields

$$f' g h = f g' h + f g h'', \quad (1.8)$$

where the primes indicate derivatives with respect to the respective variables. Dividing this through by u now yields

$$\frac{f'}{f} = \frac{g'}{g} + \frac{h''}{h}. \quad (1.9)$$

Since each of the terms in this last equation is a function of a different independent variable, the equation can be satisfied only if each term is a constant. Thus

$$\frac{g''}{g} = c_1, \quad \frac{h''}{h} = c_2, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{f'}{f} = c_1 + c_2, \quad (1.10)$$

where c_1 and c_2 are constants. Now the problem has been reduced to a set of three simple ode. Furthermore, for (1.7) to satisfy the boundary conditions in (1.6), we need:

$$g(0) = g(\pi) = h(0) = h(\pi) = 0, \quad (1.11)$$

which restricts the possible choices for the constants c_1 and c_2 . The equations in (1.10 – 1.11) are easily solved, and yield¹

$$g = \sin(nx), \quad \text{with } c_1 = -n^2, \quad (1.12)$$

$$h = \sin(my), \quad \text{with } c_2 = -m^2, \quad (1.13)$$

$$f = e^{-(n^2+m^2)t}, \quad (1.14)$$

where $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and $m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ are natural numbers. The solution to the problem in (1.6) can then be written in the form

$$T = \sum_{n,m=1}^{\infty} w_{nm} \sin(nx) \sin(my) e^{-(n^2+m^2)t}, \quad (1.15)$$

where the coefficients w_{nm} follow from the double sine-Fourier series expansion (of the initial data)

$$W = \sum_{n,m=1}^{\infty} w_{nm} \sin(nx) \sin(my). \quad (1.16)$$

That is

$$w_{nm} = \frac{4}{\pi^2} \int_0^{\pi} dx \int_0^{\pi} dy W(x, y) \sin(nx) \sin(my). \quad (1.17)$$

1.2 Example:

Heat equation in a circle, with zero boundary conditions.

We now, again, consider the heat equation with zero boundary conditions, but on a circle instead of a square. That is, using polar coordinates, we want to solve the problem

$$T_t = \Delta T = \frac{1}{r^2} (r(r T_r)_r + T_{\theta\theta}), \quad (1.18)$$

for $0 \leq r < 1$, with $T(1, \theta, t) = 0$, and some initial data $T(r, \theta, 0) = W(r, \theta)$. To solve the problem using separation of variables, we look for solutions of the form

$$T = f(t) g(r) h(\theta), \quad (1.19)$$

which satisfy the boundary conditions, but **not** the initial data. The reasons for this are the same as in items **A** and **B** above — see § 1.1. In addition, note that

¹We set the arbitrary multiplicative constants in each of these solutions to one. Given (1.15 – 1.16), there is no loss of generality in this.

C. We must use polar coordinates, otherwise solutions of the form (1.19) cannot satisfy the boundary conditions. This exemplifies an *important feature of the separation of variables method*:

The separation must be done in a coordinate system where the boundaries are coordinate surfaces.

Substituting (1.19) into (1.18) yields

$$f' g h = \frac{1}{r^2} (f r (r g')' h + f g h''), \quad (1.20)$$

where, as before, the primes indicate derivatives. Dividing this through by u yields

$$\frac{f'}{f} = \frac{(r g)'}{r g} + \frac{h''}{r^2 h}. \quad (1.21)$$

Since the left side in this equation is a function of time only, while the right side is a function of space only, the two sides must be equal to the same constant. Thus

$$f' = -\lambda f \quad (1.22)$$

and

$$\frac{r (r g)'}{g} + \lambda r^2 + \frac{h''}{h} = 0, \quad (1.23)$$

where λ is a constant. Here, again, we have a situation involving two functions of different variables being equal. Hence

$$h'' = \mu h, \quad (1.24)$$

and

$$\frac{1}{r} (r g)'' + \left(\lambda + \frac{\mu}{r^2} \right) g = 0, \quad (1.25)$$

where μ is another constant. The problem has now been reduced to a set of three ode. Furthermore, from the boundary conditions and the fact that θ is the polar angle, we need:

$$g(1) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad h \text{ is periodic of period } 2\pi. \quad (1.26)$$

In addition, g must be non-singular at $r = 0$ — the singularity that appears for $r = 0$ in equation (1.25) is due to the coordinate system singularity, equation (1.18) is perfectly fine there.

It follows that it should be $\mu = -n^2$ and

$$h = e^{in\theta}, \quad \text{where } n \text{ is an integer.} \quad (1.27)$$

Notes:

- As in § 1.1, here and below, we set the arbitrary multiplicative constants in each of the ode solutions to one. As before, there is no loss of generality in this.
- Instead of complex exponentials, the solutions to (1.24) could be written in terms of sine and cosines. But complex exponentials provide a more compact notation.

Then (1.25) takes the form

$$\frac{1}{r} (r g')' + \left(\lambda - \frac{n^2}{r^2} \right) g = 0. \quad (1.28)$$

This is a Bessel equation of integer order. The non-singular (at $r = 0$) solutions of this equation are proportional to the Bessel function of the first kind $J_{|n|}$. Thus we can write

$$g = J_{|n|}(\kappa_{|n|m} r), \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda = \kappa_{|n|m}^2, \quad (1.29)$$

where $m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, and $\kappa_{|n|m} > 0$ is the m -th zero of $J_{|n|}$.

Remark 1 *That (1.28) turns out to be a well known equation should not be a surprise. Bessel functions, and many other special functions, were first introduced in the context of problems like the one here — i.e., solving pde (such as the heat or Laplace equations) using separation of variables.*

Putting it all together, we see that the solution to the problem in (1.18) can be written in the form

$$T = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} w_{nm} J_{|n|}(\kappa_{|n|m} r) \exp(i n \theta - \kappa_{|n|m}^2 t), \quad (1.30)$$

where the coefficients w_{nm} follow from the double (Complex Fourier) – (Fourier – Bessel) expansion

$$W = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} w_{nm} J_{|n|}(\kappa_{|n|m} r) e^{in\theta}. \quad (1.31)$$

That is:

$$w_{nm} = \frac{1}{\pi J_{|n|+1}^2(\kappa_{|n|m})} \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^1 r dr W(r, \theta) J_{|n|}(\kappa_{|n|m} r) e^{-in\theta}. \quad (1.32)$$

Remark 2 You may wonder how (1.32) arises. Here is a sketch:

(i) For θ we use a Complex-Fourier series expansion. For any 2π -periodic function

$$G(\theta) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n e^{in\theta}, \quad \text{where} \quad a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} G(\theta) e^{-in\theta} d\theta. \quad (1.33)$$

(ii) For r we use the Fourier-Bessel series expansion explained in item (iii).

(iii) Note that (1.28), **for any fixed n** , is an eigenvalue problem in $0 < r < 1$. Namely

$$\mathcal{L}g = \lambda g, \quad \text{where} \quad \mathcal{L}g = -\frac{1}{r}(rg')' + \frac{n^2}{r^2}g, \quad (1.34)$$

g is regular for $r = 0$, and $g(1) = 0$. Without loss of generality, assume that $n \geq 0$, and consider the set of all the (real valued) functions such that $\int_0^1 \tilde{g}^2(r) r dr < \infty$. Then define the scalar product

$$\langle \tilde{f}, \tilde{g} \rangle = \int_0^1 \tilde{f}(r) \tilde{g}(r) r dr. \quad (1.35)$$

With this scalar product \mathcal{L} is self-adjoint, and it yields a complete set of orthonormal eigenfunctions

$$\phi_m = J_n(\kappa_{nm} r) \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_m = \kappa_{nm}^2, \quad \text{where} \quad m = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (1.36)$$

Thus one can expand

$$F(r) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} b_m \phi_m(r), \quad \text{where} \quad b_m = \frac{1}{\int_0^1 r \phi_m^2(r) dr} \int_0^1 F(r) \phi_m(r) r dr. \quad (1.37)$$

Finally, note that

$$\int_0^1 r \phi_m^2(r) dr \quad \text{follows from} \quad \int_0^1 r J_n^2(\kappa_{nm} r) dr = \frac{1}{2} J_{n+1}^2(\kappa_{nm}). \quad (1.38)$$

We will not prove this identity here.

1.3 Example: Laplace equation in a circle sector, with Dirichlet boundary conditions, non-zero on one side.

Consider the problem

$$0 = \Delta u = \frac{1}{r^2} (r(r u_r)_r + u_{\theta\theta}), \quad 0 < r < 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 < \theta < \alpha, \quad (1.39)$$

where α is a constant, with $0 < \alpha < 2\pi$. The boundary conditions are

$$u(1, \theta) = 0, \quad u(r, 0) = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad u(r, \alpha) = w(r), \quad (1.40)$$

for some given function w . To solve the problem using separation of variables, we look for solutions of the form

$$u = g(r) h(\theta), \quad (1.41)$$

which satisfy the boundary conditions at $r = 1$ and $\theta = 0$, but **not** the boundary condition at $\theta = \alpha$. The reasons are as before: we aim to obtain the solution for general w using linear combinations of solutions of the form (1.41) — see items **A** and **B** in § 1.1, as well as item **C** in § 1.2.

Substituting (1.41) into (1.39) yields, after a bit of manipulation

$$\frac{r(rg)'}{g} + \frac{h''}{h} = 0. \quad (1.42)$$

Using the same argument as in the prior examples, we conclude that

$$r(rg)' - \mu g = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad h'' + \mu h = 0, \quad (1.43)$$

where μ is some constant, $g(1) = 0$, and $h(0) = 0$. Again: the problem is reduced to solving ode. In fact, it is easy to see that it should be²

$$h = \frac{1}{s} \sinh(s\theta) \quad \text{and} \quad g = \frac{r^{is} - r^{-is}}{s}, \quad \text{where} \quad \mu = -s^2, \quad (1.44)$$

and as yet we know nothing about s , other than it is some (possibly complex) constant.

In § 1.2, we argued that g should be non-singular at $r = 0$, since the origin was no different from any other point inside the circle for the problem in (1.18) — the singularity in the equation for g in (1.25) is merely a consequence of the coordinate system singularity at $r = 0$. **We cannot make this argument here**, since the origin is on the boundary for the problem in (1.39 – 1.40) — *there is no reason why the solutions should be differentiable across the boundary!* We can only state that

$$\mathbf{g \text{ should be bounded}} \iff \mathbf{s \neq 0 \text{ is real.}} \quad (1.45)$$

²The multiplicative constant in these solutions is selected so that the correct solution is obtained for $s = 0$.

Furthermore, exchanging s by $-s$ does not change the answer in (1.44). Thus

$$0 < s < \infty. \quad (1.46)$$

In this example we end up with a continuum of separated solutions, as opposed to the two prior examples, where discrete sets occurred.

Putting it all together, we now write the solution to the problem in (1.39 – 1.40) as follows

$$u = \int_0^\infty \frac{\sinh(s\theta)}{\sinh(s\alpha)} (r^{is} - r^{-is}) W(s) ds, \quad (1.47)$$

where W is computed in (1.50) below.

Remark 3 *Start with the complex Fourier Transform*

$$f(\zeta) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty \hat{f}(s) e^{is\zeta} ds, \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{f}(s) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(\zeta) e^{-is\zeta} d\zeta. \quad (1.48)$$

Apply it to an odd function. The answer can then be manipulated into the sine Fourier Transform

$$f(\zeta) = \int_0^\infty F(s) \sin(s\zeta) ds, \quad \text{where} \quad F(s) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty f(\zeta) \sin(s\zeta) d\zeta, \quad (1.49)$$

and $0 < \zeta, s < \infty$. Change variables, so that $0 < r = e^{-\zeta} < 1$. Then, with $w(r) = f(\zeta)$ and $W(s) = -\frac{1}{2i} F(s)$, this yields

$$\begin{aligned} w(r) &= \int_0^\infty W(s) (r^{is} - r^{-is}) ds, \quad \text{where} \\ W(s) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^1 \left(\frac{r^{-is} - r^{is}}{r} \right) w(r) dr, \end{aligned} \quad (1.50)$$

which is another example of a transform pair associated with the spectrum of an operator (see below).

Finally: What is behind (1.50)? Why should we expect something like this? Note that the problem for g can be written in the form

$$\mathcal{L}g = \mu g, \quad \text{where} \quad \mathcal{L}g = r(rg')', \quad (1.51)$$

$g(1) = 0$ and g is bounded (more accurately: the inequality in (1.52) applies). This is an eigenvalue problem in $0 < r < 1$. Further, consider the set of all the functions such that

$$\int_0^1 |\tilde{g}|^2(r) \frac{dr}{r} < \infty, \quad (1.52)$$

and define the scalar product

$$\langle \tilde{f}, \tilde{g} \rangle = \int_0^1 \tilde{f}^*(r) \tilde{g}(r) \frac{dr}{r}. \quad (1.53)$$

With this scalar product \mathcal{L} is self-adjoint. However, it does not have any discrete spectrum,³ only continuum spectrum — with the pseudo-eigenfunctions given in (1.44), for $0 < s < \infty$. This continuum spectrum is what is associated with the formulas in (1.50). In particular, note the presence of the scalar product (1.53) in the formula for W .

The End.

³No solutions that satisfy $g(1) = 0$ and (1.52).