Chapter 11

Partial Differential Equations

11.1 Basic Concepts

A **partial differential equation** (**PDE**) is an equation involving one or more partial derivatives of an (unknown) function, call it *u*, that depends on two or more variables, often time *t* and one or several variables in space. The order of the highest derivative is called the **order** of the PDE. As for ODEs, second-order PDEs will be the most important ones in applications.

Just as for ordinary differential equations (ODEs) we say that a PDE is **linear** if it is of the first degree in the unknown function u and its partial derivatives. Otherwise we call it **nonlinear.** Thus, all the equations in Example 1 on p. 536 are linear. We call a *linear* PDE **homogeneous** if each of its terms contains either u or one of its partial derivatives. Otherwise we call the equation **nonhomogeneous**. Thus, (4) in Example 1 (with f not identically zero) is nonhomogeneous, whereas the other equations are homogeneous.

Example 1

Important Second-Order PDEs

(1)
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$
 One-dimensional wave equation

(2)
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$
 One-dimensional heat equation

(3)
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$
 Two-dimensional Laplace equation

(4)
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = f(x, y)$$
 Two-dimensional Poisson equation

(5)
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right)$$
 Two-dimensional wave equation

(6)
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0$$
 Three-dimensional Laplace equation

Here c is a positive constant, t is time, x, y, z are Cartesian coordinates, and *dimension* is the number of these coordinates in the equation.

A **solution** of a PDE in some region R of the space of the independent variables is a function that has all the partial derivatives appearing in the PDE in some domain D (definition in Sec. 9.6) containing R, and satisfies the PDE everywhere in R.

Often one merely requires that the function is continuous on the boundary of R, has those derivatives in the interior of R, and satisfies the PDE in the interior of R. Letting R lie in D simplifies the situation regarding derivatives on the boundary of R, which is then the same on the boundary as it is in the interior of R.

In general, the totality of solutions of a PDE is very large. For example, the functions

(7)
$$u = x^2 - y^2$$
, $u = e^x \cos y$, $u = \sin x \cosh y$, $u = \ln(x^2 + y^2)$

which are entirely different from each other, are solutions of (3), as you may verify. We shall see later that the unique solution of a PDE corresponding to a given physical problem will be obtained by the use of **additional conditions** arising from the problem. For instance, this may be the condition that the solution u assume given values on the boundary of the region R ("boundary conditions"). Or, when time t is one of the variables, u (or $u_t = \partial u/\partial t$ or both) may be prescribed at t = 0 ("initial conditions").

THEOREM 1

Fundamental Theorem on Superposition

If u_1 and u_2 are solutions of a homogeneous linear PDE in some region R, then

$$u = c_1 u_1 + c_2 u_2$$

with any constants c_1 and c_2 is also a solution of that PDE in the region R.

11.2 Modeling: Vibrating String, Wave equation

As a first important PDE let us derive the equation modeling small transverse vibrations of an elastic string, such as a violin string. We place the string along the x-axis, stretch it to length L, and fasten it at the ends x = 0 and x = L. We then distort the string, and at some instant, call it t = 0, we release it and allow it to vibrate. The problem is to determine the vibrations of the string, that is, to find its deflection u(x, t) at any point x and at any time t > 0; see Fig. 283.

u(x, t) will be the solution of a PDE that is the model of our physical system to be derived. This PDE should not be too complicated, so that we can solve it. Reasonable simplifying assumptions (just as for ODEs modeling vibrations in Chap. 2) are as follows.

Physical Assumptions

- 1. The mass of the string per unit length is constant ("homogeneous string"). The string is perfectly elastic and does not offer any resistance to bending.
- **2.** The tension caused by stretching the string before fastening it at the ends is so large that the action of the gravitational force on the string (trying to pull the string down a little) can be neglected.

3. The string performs small transverse motions in a vertical plane; that is, every particle of the string moves strictly vertically and so that the deflection and the slope at every point of the string always remain small in absolute value.

Under these assumptions we may expect solutions u(x, t) that describe the physical reality sufficiently well.

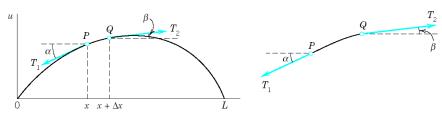


Fig. 283. Deflected string at fixed time t. Explanation on p. 539

Derivation of the PDE of the Model ("Wave Equation") from Forces

The model of the vibrating string will consist of a PDE ("wave equation") and additional conditions. To obtain the PDE, we consider the *forces acting on a small portion of the string* (Fig. 283). This method is typical of modeling in mechanics and elsewhere.

Since the string offers no resistance to bending, the tension is tangential to the curve of the string at each point. Let T_1 and T_2 be the tension at the endpoints P and Q of that portion. Since the points of the string move vertically, there is no motion in the horizontal direction. Hence the horizontal components of the tension must be constant. Using the notation shown in Fig. 283, we thus obtain

(1)
$$T_1 \cos \alpha = T_2 \cos \beta = T = const.$$

In the vertical direction we have two forces, namely, the vertical components $-T_1 \sin \alpha$ and $T_2 \sin \beta$ of T_1 and T_2 ; here the minus sign appears because the component at P is directed downward. By **Newton's second law** the resultant of these two forces is equal to the mass $\rho \Delta x$ of the portion times the acceleration $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$, evaluated at some point between x and $x + \Delta x$; here ρ is the mass of the undeflected string per unit length, and

 Δx is the length of the portion of the undeflected string. (Δ is generally used to denote small quantities; this has nothing to do with the Laplacian ∇^2 , which is sometimes also denoted by Δ .) Hence

$$T_2 \sin \beta - T_1 \sin \alpha = \rho \, \Delta x \, \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$$
.

Using (1), we can divide this by $T_2 \cos \beta = T_1 \cos \alpha = T$, obtaining

(2)
$$\frac{T_2 \sin \beta}{T_2 \cos \beta} - \frac{T_1 \sin \alpha}{T_1 \cos \alpha} = \tan \beta - \tan \alpha = \frac{\rho \Delta x}{T} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}.$$

Now tan α and tan β are the slopes of the string at x and $x + \Delta x$:

$$\tan \alpha = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)\Big|_{x}$$
 and $\tan \beta = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)\Big|_{x+\Delta x}$.

Here we have to write *partial* derivatives because u depends also on time t. Dividing (2) by Δx , we thus have

$$\frac{1}{\Delta x} \left[\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) \bigg|_{x + \Delta x} - \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) \bigg|_{x} \right] = \frac{\rho}{T} \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial t^{2}}.$$

If we let Δx approach zero, we obtain the linear PDE

(3)
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}, \qquad c^2 = \frac{T}{\rho}$$

This is called the **one-dimensional wave equation.** We see that it is homogeneous and of the second order. The physical constant T/ρ is denoted by c^2 (instead of c) to indicate that this constant is *positive*, a fact that will be essential to the form of the solutions. "One-dimensional" means that the equation involves only one space variable, x. In the next section we shall complete setting up the model and then show how to solve it by a general method that is probably the most important one for PDEs in engineering mathematics.

11.3 Separation of variables, Use of Fourier Series

The model of a vibrating elastic string (a violin string, for instance) consists of the **one-dimensional wave equation**

(1)
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \qquad c^2 = \frac{T}{\rho}$$

for the unknown deflection u(x, t) of the string, a PDE that we have just obtained, and some *additional conditions*, which we shall now derive.

Since the string is fastened at the ends x = 0 and x = L (see Sec. 12.2), we have the two **boundary conditions**

(2) (a)
$$u(0, t) = 0$$
, (b) $u(L, t) = 0$ for all t .

Furthermore, the form of the motion of the string will depend on its *initial deflection* (deflection at time t = 0), call it f(x), and on its *initial velocity* (velocity at t = 0), call it g(x). We thus have the two **initial conditions**

(3) (a)
$$u(x, 0) = f(x)$$
, (b) $u_t(x, 0) = g(x)$ $(0 \le x \le L)$

where $u_t = \partial u/\partial t$. We now have to find a solution of the PDE (1) satisfying the conditions (2) and (3). This will be the solution of our problem. We shall do this in three steps, as follows.

Step 1. By the "method of separating variables" or product method, setting u(x, t) = F(x)G(t), we obtain from (1) two ODEs, one for F(x) and the other one for G(t).

Step 2. We determine solutions of these ODEs that satisfy the boundary conditions (2).

Step 3. Finally, using **Fourier series**, we compose the solutions gained in Step 2 to obtain a solution of (1) satisfying both (2) and (3), that is, the solution of our model of the vibrating string.

Step 1. Two ODEs from the Wave Equation (1)

In the **method of separating variables,** or *product method*, we determine solutions of the wave equation (1) of the form

$$u(x, t) = F(x)G(t)$$

which are a product of two functions, each depending only on one of the variables x and t. This is a powerful general method that has various applications in engineering mathematics, as we shall see in this chapter. Differentiating (4), we obtain

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = F\ddot{G} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = F''G$$

where dots denote derivatives with respect to t and primes derivatives with respect to x. By inserting this into the wave equation (1) we have

$$F\ddot{G} = c^2 F'' G.$$

Dividing by c^2FG and simplifying gives

$$\frac{\ddot{G}}{c^2 G} = \frac{F''}{F} \ .$$

The variables are now separated, the left side depending only on t and the right side only on x. Hence both sides must be constant because if they were variable, then changing t or x would affect only one side, leaving the other unaltered. Thus, say,

$$\frac{\ddot{G}}{c^2 G} = \frac{F''}{F} = k.$$

Multiplying by the denominators gives immediately two ordinary DEs

$$(5) F'' - kF = 0$$

and

$$\ddot{G} - c^2 kG = 0.$$

Here, the **separation constant** k is still arbitrary.

Step 2. Satisfying the Boundary Conditions (2)

We now determine solutions F and G of (5) and (6) so that u = FG satisfies the boundary conditions (2), that is,

(7)
$$u(0, t) = F(0)G(t) = 0, u(L, t) = F(L)G(t) = 0$$
 for all t .

We first solve (5). If $G \equiv 0$, then $u = FG \equiv 0$, which is of no interest. Hence $G \not\equiv 0$ and then by (7),

(8) (a)
$$F(0) = 0$$
, (b) $F(L) = 0$.

We show that k must be negative. For k=0 the general solution of (5) is F=ax+b, and from (8) we obtain a=b=0, so that $F\equiv 0$ and $u=FG\equiv 0$, which is of no interest. For positive $k=\mu^2$ a general solution of (5) is

$$F = Ae^{\mu x} + Be^{-\mu x}$$

and from (8) we obtain $F \equiv 0$ as before (verify!). Hence we are left with the possibility of choosing k negative, say, $k = -p^2$. Then (5) becomes $F'' + p^2F = 0$ and has as a general solution

$$F(x) = A\cos px + B\sin px.$$

From this and (8) we have

$$F(0) = A = 0$$
 and then $F(L) = B \sin pL = 0$.

We must take $B \neq 0$ since otherwise $F \equiv 0$. Hence $\sin pL = 0$. Thus

(9)
$$pL = n\pi$$
, so that $p = \frac{n\pi}{L}$ (*n* integer).

Setting B = 1, we thus obtain infinitely many solutions $F(x) = F_n(x)$, where

(10)
$$F_n(x) = \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x \qquad (n = 1, 2, \cdots).$$

These solutions satisfy (8). [For negative integer n we obtain essentially the same solutions, except for a minus sign, because $\sin(-\alpha) = -\sin \alpha$.]

We now solve (6) with $k = -p^2 = -(n\pi/L)^2$ resulting from (9), that is,

(11*)
$$\ddot{G} + \lambda_n^2 G = 0 \quad \text{where} \quad \lambda_n = cp = \frac{cn\pi}{L} .$$

A general solution is

$$G_n(t) = B_n \cos \lambda_n t + B_n^* \sin \lambda_n t.$$

Hence solutions of (1) satisfying (2) are $u_n(x, t) = F_n(x)G_n(t) = G_n(t)F_n(x)$, written out

(11)
$$u_n(x,t) = (B_n \cos \lambda_n t + B_n^* \sin \lambda_n t) \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x \qquad (n = 1, 2, \cdots).$$

These functions are called the **eigenfunctions**, or *characteristic functions*, and the values $\lambda_n = cn\pi/L$ are called the **eigenvalues**, or *characteristic values*, of the vibrating string. The set $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \cdots\}$ is called the **spectrum**.

Discussion of Eigenfunctions. We see that each u_n represents a harmonic motion having the **frequency** $\lambda_n/2\pi = cn/2L$ cycles per unit time. This motion is called the *n*th **normal mode** of the string. The first normal mode is known as the *fundamental mode* (n = 1), and the others are known as *overtones*; musically they give the octave, octave plus fifth, etc. Since in (11)

$$\sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} = 0$$
 at $x = \frac{L}{n}, \frac{2L}{n}, \dots, \frac{n-1}{n}L$

the *n*th normal mode has n-1 **nodes**, that is, points of the string that do not move (in addition to the fixed endpoints); see Fig. 284.

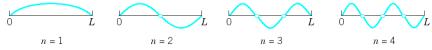


Fig. 284. Normal modes of the vibrating string

Figure 285 shows the second normal mode for various values of *t*. At any instant the string has the form of a sine wave. When the left part of the string is moving down, the other half is moving up, and conversely. For the other modes the situation is similar.

Tuning is done by changing the tension T. Our formula for the frequency $\lambda_n/2\pi = cn/2L$ of u_n with $c = \sqrt{T/\rho}$ [see (3), Sec. 12.2] confirms that effect because it shows that the frequency is proportional to the tension. T cannot be increased indefinitely, but can you see what to do to get a string with a high fundamental mode? (Think of both L and ρ .) Why is a violin smaller than a double-bass?

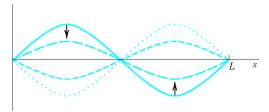


Fig. 285. Second normal mode for various values of t

Step 3. Solution of the Entire Problem. Fourier Series

The eigenfunctions (11) satisfy the wave equation (1) and the boundary conditions (2) (string fixed at the ends). A single u_n will generally not satisfy the initial conditions (3). But since the wave equation (1) is linear and homogeneous, it follows from Fundamental Theorem 1 in Sec. 12.1 that the sum of finitely many solutions u_n is a solution of (1). To obtain a solution that also satisfies the initial conditions (3), we consider the infinite series (with $\lambda_n = cn\pi/L$ as before)

(12)
$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (B_n \cos \lambda_n t + B_n^* \sin \lambda_n t) \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x.$$

Satisfying Initial Condition (3a) (Given Initial Displacement). From (12) and (3a) we obtain

(13)
$$u(x, 0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x = f(x).$$

Hence we must choose the B_n 's so that u(x, 0) becomes the **Fourier sine series** of f(x). Thus, by (4) in Sec. 11.3,

(14)
$$B_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \sin \frac{n \pi x}{L} dx, \qquad n = 1, 2, \dots.$$

Satisfying Initial Condition (3b) (Given Initial Velocity). Similarly, by differentiating (12) with respect to t and using (3b), we obtain

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \bigg|_{t=0} &= \left[\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(-B_n \lambda_n \sin \lambda_n t + B_n * \lambda_n \cos \lambda_n t \right) \sin \frac{n \pi x}{L} \right]_{t=0} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n * \lambda_n \sin \frac{n \pi x}{L} = g(x). \end{split}$$

Hence we must choose the B_n^* 's so that for t = 0 the derivative $\partial u/\partial t$ becomes the Fourier sine series of g(x). Thus, again by (4) in Sec. 11.3,

$$B_n * \lambda_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L g(x) \sin \frac{n \pi x}{L} dx.$$

Since $\lambda_n = cn\pi/L$, we obtain by division

(15)
$$B_n^* = \frac{2}{cn\pi} \int_0^L g(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx, \qquad n = 1, 2, \cdots.$$

Result. Our discussion shows that u(x, t) given by (12) with coefficients (14) and (15) is a solution of (1) that satisfies all the conditions in (2) and (3), provided the series (12) converges and so do the series obtained by differentiating (12) twice termwise with respect to x and t and have the sums $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$ and $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$, respectively, which are continuous.

Solution (12) established. According to our discussion, the solution (12) is at first a purely formal expression, but we shall now establish it. For the sake of simplicity we consider only the case when the initial velocity g(x) is identically zero. Then the B_n^* are zero, and (12) reduces to

(16)
$$u(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \cos \lambda_n t \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}, \qquad \lambda_n = \frac{cn\pi}{L}.$$



Fig. 261. Odd periodic extension of f(x)

It is possible to *sum this series*, that is, to write the result in a closed or finite form. For this purpose we use the formula [see (11), Appendix A3.1]

$$\cos\frac{cn\pi}{L}t\sin\frac{n\pi}{L}x = \frac{1}{2}\left[\sin\left\{\frac{n\pi}{L}(x-ct)\right\} + \sin\left\{\frac{n\pi}{L}(x+ct)\right\}\right].$$

Consequently, we may write (16) in the form

$$u(x, t) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \sin \left\{ \frac{n\pi}{L} (x - ct) \right\} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \sin \left\{ \frac{n\pi}{L} (x + ct) \right\}.$$

These two series are those obtained by substituting x - ct and x + ct, respectively, for the variable x in the Fourier sine series (13) for f(x). Thus

(17)
$$u(x, t) = \frac{1}{2} [f^*(x - ct) + f^*(x + ct)]$$

where f^* is the odd periodic extension of f with the period 2L (Fig. 261).

Physical Interpretation of the Solution (17). The graph of $f^*(x - ct)$ is obtained from the graph of $f^*(x)$ by shifting the latter ct units to the right (Fig. 262). This means that $f^*(x - ct)$ (c > 0) represents a wave that is traveling to the right as t increases. Similarly, $f^*(x + ct)$ represents a wave that is traveling to the left, and u(x, t) is the superposition of these two waves.

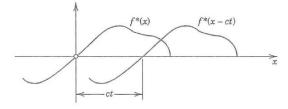


Fig. 262. Interpretation of (17)

Vibrating string if the initial deflection is triangular

Find the solution of the wave equation (1) corresponding to the triangular initial deflection

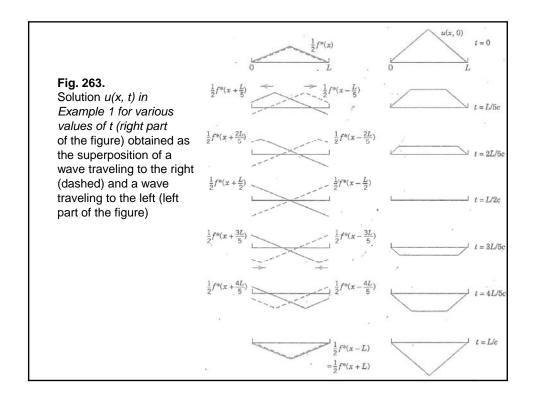
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2k}{L}x & \text{if } 0 < x < \frac{L}{2} \\ \frac{2k}{L}(L - x) & \text{if } \frac{L}{2} < x < L \end{cases}$$

and initial velocity zero. (Figure 263 shows f(x) = u(x, 0) at the top.)

Solution. Since $g(x) \equiv 0$, we have $B_n^* = 0$ in (12), and from Example 3 in Sec. 10.4 we see that the B_n are given by (7), Sec. 10.4. Thus (12) takes the form

$$u(x, t) = \frac{8k}{\pi^2} \left[\frac{1}{1^2} \sin \frac{\pi}{L} x \cos \frac{\pi c}{L} t - \frac{1}{3^2} \sin \frac{3\pi}{L} x \cos \frac{3\pi c}{L} t + \cdots \right].$$

For plotting the graph of the solution we may use u(x, 0) = f(x) and the above interpretation of the two functions in the representation (17). This leads to the graph shown in Fig. 263.



11.5 Heat Equation: Solution by Fourier Series

From the wave equation we now turn to the next "big" PDE, the heat equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = c^2 \nabla^2 u, \qquad c^2 = \frac{K}{\sigma \rho} \; , \label{eq:continuous}$$

which gives the temperature u(x, y, z, t) in a body of homogeneous material. Here c^2 is the thermal diffusivity, K the thermal conductivity, σ the specific heat, and ρ the density of the material of the body. $\nabla^2 u$ is the Laplacian of u, and with respect to Cartesian coordinates x, y, z,

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

The heat equation was derived in Sec. 9.8 . It is also called the diffusion equation.

As an important application, let us first consider the temperature in a long thin metal bar or wire of constant cross section and homogeneous material, which is oriented along the *x*-axis (Fig. 291) and is perfectly insulated laterally, so that heat flows in the *x*-direction



Fig. 291. Bar under consideration

only. Then u depends only on x and time t, and the heat equation becomes the **one-dimensional heat equation**

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} .$$

This seems to differ only very little from the wave equation, which has a term u_{tt} instead of u_t , but we shall see that this will make the solutions of (1) behave quite differently from those of the wave equation.

We shall solve (1) for some important types of boundary and initial conditions. We begin with the case in which the ends x = 0 and x = L of the bar are kept at temperature zero, so that we have the **boundary conditions**

(2)
$$u(0, t) = 0, u(L, t) = 0$$
 for all t .

Furthermore, the initial temperature in the bar at time t = 0 is given, say, f(x), so that we have the **initial condition**

(3)
$$u(x, 0) = f(x)$$
 [f(x) given].

Here we must have f(0) = 0 and f(L) = 0 because of (2).

We shall determine a solution u(x, t) of (1) satisfying (2) and (3)—one initial condition will be enough, as opposed to two initial conditions for the wave equation. Technically, our method will parallel that for the wave equation in Sec. 12.3: a separation of variables, followed by the use of Fourier series. You may find a step-by-step comparison worthwhile.

Step 1. Two ODEs from the heat equation (1). Substitution of a product u(x, t) = F(x)G(t) into (1) gives $F\dot{G} = c^2F''G$ with $\dot{G} = dG/dt$ and $F'' = d^2F/dx^2$. To separate the variables, we divide by c^2FG , obtaining

$$\frac{\dot{G}}{c^2 G} = \frac{F''}{F} \ . \label{eq:Gaussian}$$

The left side depends only on t and the right side only on x, so that both sides must equal a constant k (as in Sec. 12.3). You may show that for k = 0 or k > 0 the only solution u = FG satisfying (2) is $u \equiv 0$. For negative $k = -p^2$ we have from (4)

$$\frac{\dot{G}}{c^2 G} = \frac{F''}{F} = -p^2.$$

Multiplication by the denominators gives immediately the two ODEs

(5)
$$F'' + p^2 F = 0$$
 and

$$\dot{G} + c^2 p^2 G = 0.$$

Step 2. Satisfying the boundary conditions (2). We first solve (5). A general solution is

(7)
$$F(x) = A \cos px + B \sin px.$$

From the boundary conditions (2) it follows that

$$u(0, t) = F(0)G(t) = 0$$
 and $u(L, t) = F(L)G(t) = 0$.

Since $G \equiv 0$ would give $u \equiv 0$, we require F(0) = 0, F(L) = 0 and get F(0) = A = 0 by (7) and then $F(L) = B \sin pL = 0$, with $B \neq 0$ (to avoid $F \equiv 0$); thus,

$$\sin pL = 0$$
, hence $p = \frac{n\pi}{L}$, $n = 1, 2, \cdots$.

Setting B = 1, we thus obtain the following solutions of (5) satisfying (2):

$$F_n(x) = \sin \frac{n \pi x}{L}$$
, $n = 1, 2, \cdots$.

(As in Sec. 11.3, we need not consider *negative* integral values of n.)

All this was literally the same as in Sec. 11.3 . From now on it differs since (6) differs from (6) in Sec. 11.3 . We now solve (6). For $p = n\pi/L$, as just obtained, (6) becomes

$$\dot{G} + \lambda_n^2 G = 0$$
 where $\lambda_n = \frac{cn\pi}{L}$.

It has the general solution

$$G_n(t) = B_n e^{-\lambda_n^2 t}, \qquad n = 1, 2, \cdots$$

where B_n is a constant. Hence the functions

(8)
$$u_n(x, t) = F_n(x)G_n(t) = B_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} e^{-\lambda_n^2 t} \qquad (n = 1, 2, \dots)$$

are solutions of the heat equation (1), satisfying (2). These are the **eigenfunctions** of the problem, corresponding to the **eigenvalues** $\lambda_n = cn\pi/L$.

Step 3. **Solution of the entire problem. Fourier series.** So far we have solutions (8) satisfying the boundary conditions (2). To obtain a solution that also satisfies the initial condition (3), we consider a series of these eigenfunctions,

(9)
$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} e^{-\lambda_n^2 t} \qquad \left(\lambda_n = \frac{cn\pi}{L}\right).$$

From this and (3) we have

$$u(x, 0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} = f(x).$$

Hence for (9) to satisfy (3), the B_n 's must be the coefficients of the **Fourier sine series**, as given by (4) in Sec. 11.3; thus

(10)
$$B_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \sin \frac{n \pi x}{L} dx \qquad (n = 1, 2, \cdots).$$

EXAMPLE 3

"Triangular" initial temperature in a bar

Find the temperature in a laterally insulated bar of length L whose ends are kept at temperature 0, assuming tha the initial temperature is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if} & 0 < x < L/2, \\ L - x & \text{if} & L/2 < x < L. \end{cases}$$

(The uppermost part of Fig. 267 on the next page shows this function for the special $L=\pi$.)

Solution. From (11) we get

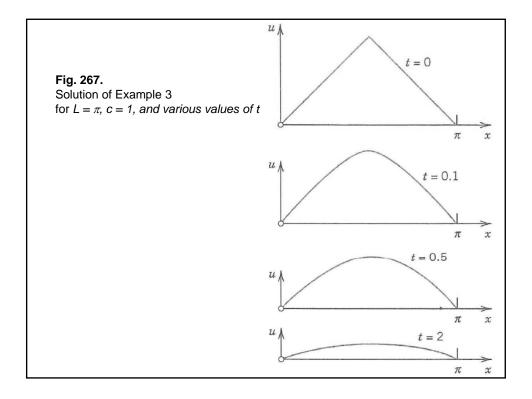
(11*)
$$B_n = \frac{2}{L} \left(\int_0^{L/2} x \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} \, dx + \int_{L/2}^L (L - x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} \, dx \right).$$

Integration gives $B_n = 0$ if n is even,

$$B_n = \frac{4L}{n^2 \pi^2}$$
 $(n = 1, 5, 9, \cdots)$ and $B_n = -\frac{4L}{n^2 \pi^2}$ $(n = 3, 7, 11, \cdots)$.

(see also Example 3 in Sec. 10.4 with k = L/2). Hence the solution is

$$u(x, t) = \frac{4L}{\pi^2} \left[\sin \frac{\pi x}{L} \exp \left[-\left(\frac{c\pi}{L}\right)^2 t \right] - \frac{1}{9} \sin \frac{3\pi x}{L} \exp \left[-\left(\frac{3c\pi}{L}\right)^2 t \right] + - \cdots \right].$$



EXAMPLE 4

Bar with Insulated Ends. Eigenvalue 0

Find a solution formula of (1), (3) with (2) replaced by the condition that both ends of the bar are insulated.

Solution. Physical experiments show that the rate of heat flow is proportional to the gradient of the temperature. Hence if the ends x=0 and x=L of the bar are insulated, so that no heat can flow through the ends, we have grad $u=u_x=\partial u/\partial x$ and the boundary conditions

$$u_r(0, t) = 0, u_r(L, t) = 0$$
 for all t .

Since u(x,t) = F(x)G(t), this gives $u_x(0,t) = F'(0)G(t) = 0$ and $u_x(L,t) = F'(L)G(t) = 0$. Differentiating (7), we have $F'(x) = -Ap\sin px + Bp\cos px$, so that

$$F'(0) = Bp = 0$$
 and then $F'(L) = -Ap \sin pL = 0$.

The second of these conditions gives $p=p_n=n\pi/L$, $(n=0,1,2,\cdots)$. From this and (7) with A=1 and B=0 we get $F_n(x)=\cos\left(n\pi x/L\right)$, $(n=0,1,2,\cdots)$. With G_n as before, this yields the eigenfunctions

(11)
$$u_n(x,t) = F_n(x)G_n(t) = A_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} e^{-\lambda_n^2 t} \qquad (n = 0, 1, \cdots)$$

corresponding to the eigenvalues $\lambda_n = cn\pi/L$. The latter are as before, but we now have the additional eigenvalue $\lambda_0 = 0$ and eigenfunction $u_0 = const$, which is the solution of the problem if the initial temperature f(x) is constant. This shows the remarkable fact that a separation constant can very well be zero, and zero can be an eigenvalue.

Furthermore, whereas (8) gave a Fourier sine series, we now get from (11) a Fourier cosine series

(12)
$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u_n(x,t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} e^{-\lambda_n^2 t} \qquad \left(\lambda_n = \frac{cn\pi}{L}\right)$$

Its coefficients result from the initial condition (3),

$$u(x, 0) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} = f(x),$$

in the form (2), Sec. 11.3, that is,

(13)
$$A_0 = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \, dx, \qquad A_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \cos \frac{n \pi x}{L} \, dx, \qquad n = 1, 2, \cdots.$$