

Week 8 Lectures, Math 6451, Tanveer

1 Green's function as a distribution

1.1 Laplace Operator

For the Poisson-Problem with homogeneous boundary condition:

$$\Delta u = f \text{ for } \mathbf{x} \in \Omega, \quad u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega \quad (1)$$

we know that

$$u(\mathbf{x}_0) = \int_{\Omega} G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0) f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \quad (2)$$

On the otherhand, if u is a test function with support inside Ω , we have from using corollary 4 of week 7 notes that

$$u(\mathbf{x}_0) = \int_{\Omega} G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0) \Delta u(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = (u, \Delta G(\cdot, \mathbf{x}_0)) \quad (3)$$

Therefore, in the sense of distribution,

$$\Delta G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0) = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) \quad (4)$$

Therefore, we view solution (24) as a principle of linear superposition. In the physical context ($n = 3$), it means that the potential caused by charge density f in a domain Ω with boundary at zero potential is given by a linear superposition of point charge potentials satisfying the same boundary conditions, with a weighting proportional to the infinitesimal charge $f(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x}$ present in a volume element $d\mathbf{x}$ at \mathbf{x} .

Further, note that $G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0) = G_0(|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0|) + H(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0)$, where H is harmonic in \mathbf{x} . It follows that

$$\Delta G_0(|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0|) = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) \quad (5)$$

More generally if we have a linear constant coefficient PDE in the form

$$Lu = f, \text{ for } x \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n, \text{ with } u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega \quad (6)$$

then if we can find Greens function satisfying

$$LG = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0), \text{ with } G = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega \quad (7)$$

then, we can show that

$$u(\mathbf{x}_0) = \int_{\Omega} G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0) f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \quad (8)$$

1.2 Heat Equation

Recall from last class that the source function:

$$\mathcal{S} = \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\kappa t} \right)^{n/2} \exp \left[-\frac{|\mathbf{x}|^2}{4\kappa t} \right] \quad (9)$$

satisfies

$$S_t = \kappa \Delta S \text{ for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, t > 0, \text{ with } S(\mathbf{x}, 0^+) = \delta(\mathbf{x}) \quad (10)$$

It can be shown (exercise) that

$$R(\mathbf{x}, t) = S(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0, t - t_0) \text{ for } t > t_0 \text{ and } R(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0 \text{ for } t < t_0 \quad (11)$$

satisfies

$$R_t - \kappa \Delta R = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) \delta(t - t_0) \quad (12)$$

2 Eigen Function Expansion for Green's Function

2.1 Heat Equation

Consider Source solution to heat equation bounded domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ with homogeneous Dirichlet Boundary conditions:

$$S_t = \kappa \Delta S \text{ for } \mathbf{x} \in \Omega \text{ and } S = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega, \text{ with } S(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) \quad (13)$$

In terms of the $S(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0, t)$ the solution to the initial value problem

$$u_t = \kappa \Delta u \text{ for } \mathbf{x} \in \Omega \text{ and } u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega, \text{ with } u(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \phi(\mathbf{x}) \quad (14)$$

is given by

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) = \int_{\Omega} S(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, t) \phi(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} \quad (15)$$

On the otherhand, if we denote the orthonormalized eigenfunctions $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and corresponding eigenvalues $\{\lambda_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of the operator $-\Delta$ with homogenous boundary conditions on $\partial\Omega$, we know that solution to heat equation has the form

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \exp[-\lambda_n \kappa t] X_n(\mathbf{x}) \quad (16)$$

where

$$c_n = (\phi, X_n) = \int_{\Omega} \phi(\mathbf{x}) X_n(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \quad (17)$$

Then,

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\int_{\Omega} \phi(\mathbf{y}) X_n(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} \right) \exp[-\lambda_n \kappa t] X_n(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\int_{\Omega} \phi(\mathbf{y}) \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n(\mathbf{y}) X_n(\mathbf{x}) e^{-\lambda_n \kappa t} \right\} d\mathbf{y} \right) \quad (18)$$

Therefore, it follows that under the assumption that the summation converges absolutely and uniformly,

$$S(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n(\mathbf{y}) X_n(\mathbf{x}) e^{-\lambda_n \kappa t} \quad (19)$$

Note, that this implies that in the sense of distribution, we must have

$$\delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n(\mathbf{y}) X_n(\mathbf{x})$$

This is true for any complete ortho-normal basis.

3 Fourier Transform

Notation: For multi-index $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$, with each $\alpha_j \in \mathbb{N}$, it is convenient to introduce operator

$$D^\alpha \equiv \partial_{x_1}^{\alpha_1} \partial_{x_2}^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_{x_n}^{\alpha_n}$$

The order of this operator is denoted by $|\alpha| \equiv \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_n$.

Definition 1 $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ be the space of all functions ϕ on \mathbb{R}^n which are of the class \mathbf{C}^∞ and such that for any integer $j \geq 0$, $|\mathbf{x}|^j |D^\alpha \phi| < \infty$, for $|\alpha| = j$. This is referred to usually as the Schwartz class of functions.

Definition 2 A tempered distribution in \mathbb{R}^n is a continuous linear functional on the class of $\phi \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Remark 1 Note that every tempered-distribution is a distribution, but the converse is not true.

The Fourier transform of a continuous absolutely integrable function f on \mathbb{R}^n is defined by

$$\hat{f}(\mathbf{k}) = \mathcal{F}[f](\mathbf{k}) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \exp[-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}] f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

In particular, this defines Fourier-Transform for every $f \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Theorem 3 If $f \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, then $\hat{f} \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Moreover, the mapping is continuous from $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ to itself.

PROOF. We leave the proof to the reader. \square

Theorem 4 Let $g \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Then there is a unique $f \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ such that $g = \mathcal{F}[f]$. Furthermore, the inverse Fourier transform of g is given by

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} g(\mathbf{k}) d\mathbf{k} \tag{20}$$

PROOF. Let $Q_M = [-M, M]^n$, and let f be given by the above formula. Then, we find

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{f}(\mathbf{k}) &= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{i\boldsymbol{\eta} \cdot \mathbf{x}} g(\boldsymbol{\eta}) d\boldsymbol{\eta} d\mathbf{x} \\ &= \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \int_{Q_M} e^{i(\boldsymbol{\eta} - \mathbf{k}) \cdot \mathbf{x}} g(\boldsymbol{\eta}) d\mathbf{x} d\boldsymbol{\eta} = \pi^{-n} \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\sin M(\eta_i - k_i)}{\eta_i - k_i} g(\boldsymbol{\eta}) d\boldsymbol{\eta} \end{aligned}$$

However, it is easily seen that as $M \rightarrow \infty$, $\frac{\sin M(\eta_i - k_i)}{\eta_i - k_i} \rightarrow \pi \delta(\eta_i - k_i)$ in the sense of distribution. Therefore, it follows that

$$\hat{f}(\mathbf{k}) = g(\mathbf{k})$$

An analogous calculation shows that if $g = \hat{h}$ for some $h \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, then $h = f$ as given by equation (20). \square

Theorem 5 Let $f, g \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, then $(\hat{f}, \hat{g}) = (f, g)$.

PROOF. We have

$$\begin{aligned} (f, g) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) \overline{g(\mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{x} = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \overline{g(\mathbf{x})} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \hat{f}(\mathbf{k}) e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} d\mathbf{k} d\mathbf{x} \\ &= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \hat{f}(\mathbf{k}) \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \overline{g(\mathbf{x})} e^{-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{k} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \overline{\hat{g}(\mathbf{k})} \hat{f}(\mathbf{k}) d\mathbf{k} = (\hat{f}, \hat{g}) \end{aligned}$$

□

We now seek to give meaning to Fourier-Transform of tempered distribution.

Definition 6 Let $f \in \mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Then the Fourier transform of f is defined by the functional

$$(\mathcal{F}[f], \phi) = (f, \mathcal{F}^{-1}[\phi]) \quad \text{for } \phi \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

Remark 2 It is not difficult to see that \mathcal{F} is a continuous mapping from $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^n)$ onto itself. The formulas for Fourier transform and its inverse still hold for tempered distribution.

Example We want Fourier-transform of δ distribution. From definition

$$(\mathcal{F}[\delta], \phi) = (\delta, \mathcal{F}^{-1}[\phi]) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}[\phi](\mathbf{0}) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \phi(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

Therefore $\mathcal{F}[\delta] = (2\pi)^{-n/2}$, a constant.

Example The above relation is symmetric. since the Fourier-transform of 1 equal to $(2\pi)^{n/2}\delta$ since

$$(\mathcal{F}[1], \phi) = (1, \mathcal{F}^{-1}[\phi]) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \mathcal{F}^{-1}[\phi](\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = (2\pi)^{n/2} \mathcal{F} \mathcal{F}^{-1}[\phi](\mathbf{0}) = (2\pi)^{n/2} \phi(\mathbf{0})$$

Therefore, $\mathcal{F}[1] = (2\pi)^{n/2}\delta$

Example: Let $\delta(|\mathbf{x}| - a)$ represent a uniform mass distribution on a sphere of radius a , i.e.

$$(\delta(|\mathbf{x}| - a), \phi) = \int_{|\mathbf{x}|=a} \phi(\mathbf{x}) dS$$

Then,

$$\mathcal{F}[\delta(|\mathbf{x}| - a)](\mathbf{k}) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_{|\mathbf{x}|=a} e^{-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} dS$$

For $n = 3$, using spherical polar coordinates, we get

$$\mathcal{F}[\delta(|\mathbf{x}| - a)](\mathbf{k}) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-ia\rho \cos \theta} \sin \theta d\phi d\theta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} a \frac{\sin a|\mathbf{k}|}{|\mathbf{k}|}$$

4 Examples of Fourier-Transform of Distributions

Example: Using the same argument, as for $\mathcal{F}[1]$, except with \mathbf{k} replaced by $\mathbf{k} - \boldsymbol{\eta}$, we find:

$$\mathcal{F}[\exp[i\boldsymbol{\eta} \cdot \mathbf{x}]](\mathbf{k}) = (2\pi)^{m/2} \delta(\mathbf{k} - \boldsymbol{\eta})$$

If f is a 2π -periodic distribution represented by a Fourier-series:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n e^{inx},$$

we find that

$$\mathcal{F}[f](k) = \sqrt{2\pi} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n \delta(k - n)$$

Definition 7 A distribution f is said to have a compact support, if there exists a compact \mathcal{K} so that for all test function ϕ with support in $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \mathcal{K}$, $(f, \phi) = 0$. An example of this is $\delta(\mathbf{x})$, whose support is only $\{\mathbf{0}\}$.

Example Let f be a distribution with compact support. Then for any $\phi \in \mathbf{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$, we set $(f, \phi) = (f, \phi_0)$, where $\phi_0 \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and ϕ_0 agrees with ϕ is a neighborhood of the support of f . If ϕ_1 also has similar property as ϕ_0 , it is clear from definition of f that $(f, \phi_0 - \phi_1) = 0$ since from construction, the support of $\phi_0 - \phi_1$ is outside the support of f . Thus, (f, ϕ) can be defined unambiguously (not depending on which ϕ_0 is used).

We claim that $\mathcal{F}[f]$ is the function

$$\mathcal{F}[f](\mathbf{k}) = (2\pi)^{-m/2} \left(\overline{f(\mathbf{x})}, e^{-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \right)$$

Here (\bar{f}, ϕ) is defined as the complex conjugate of $(f, \bar{\phi})$. This follows since for any $\phi \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, we have

$$(2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (f(\mathbf{x}), e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}}) \phi(\mathbf{k}) d\mathbf{k} = (f, \mathcal{F}^{-1}[\phi]) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \left(f, \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \phi(\mathbf{k}) d\mathbf{k} \right)$$

Example: Let $\delta(|\mathbf{x}| - a)$ represent a uniform mass distribution on a sphere of radius a , *i.e.*

$$(\delta(|\mathbf{x}| - a), \phi) = \int_{|\mathbf{x}|=a} \phi(\mathbf{x}) dS$$

Then,

$$\mathcal{F}[\delta(|\mathbf{x}| - a)](\mathbf{k}) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_{|\mathbf{x}|=a} e^{-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} dS$$

For $n = 3$, using spherical polar coordinates, we get

$$\mathcal{F}[\delta(|\mathbf{x}| - a)](\mathbf{k}) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-ia\rho \cos \theta} \sin \theta d\phi d\theta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} a \frac{\sin a|\mathbf{k}|}{|\mathbf{k}|}$$

5 The Source Solution (fundamental solution) for the wave equation:

Consider solution to

$$S_{tt} = \Delta S \quad , \quad \text{for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, t \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \text{with } S(\mathbf{x}, 0) = 0, \quad S_t(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \delta(\mathbf{x}) \quad (21)$$

Fourier-transforming, we obtain

$$\hat{S}_{tt} = -\mathbf{k}^2 \hat{S} \quad \text{with } \hat{S}(\mathbf{k}, 0) = 0 \quad \hat{S}_t(\mathbf{k}, 0) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \quad (22)$$

Therefore,

$$\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{k}, t) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \frac{\sin |\mathbf{k}|t}{|\mathbf{k}|} \quad (23)$$

For $n = 3$, from one of the previous examples, it follows that

$$S(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{\delta(|\mathbf{x}| - t)}{4\pi t} \quad (24)$$

This method of finding Green's function is generally valid for any constant coefficient system in free-space. For example, if we have have a PDE of the form

$$\mathcal{P}(\partial_{\mathbf{x}})G = \delta(\mathbf{x})$$

where \mathcal{P} is a polynomial, then application of Fourier-Transform leads to an algebraic relation:

$$\hat{G}(\mathbf{k}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \mathcal{P}(i\mathbf{k})}$$

We can then recover G by Fourier-transform. Note that since the above is true for any dimension, it can accomodate PDEs involving both t and \mathbf{x} , but just considering a higher dimensional variable $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{x}, t)$.

6 Laplace Transform:

If $f \in \mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R})$ have support contained in $\{x \geq 0\}$. Then obviously $e^{-\mu x} f(x)$ is also in $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R})$ for every $\mu > 0$. Formally, we have

$$\mathcal{F}[e^{-\mu x} f](\mathbf{k}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^\infty f(x) e^{-ikx} e^{-\mu x} dx = \mathcal{F}[f](k - i\mu)$$

Hence, it is sensible to define $\mathcal{F}[f](k - i\mu) = \mathcal{F}[f e^{-\mu x}]$. This defines $\mathcal{F}[f]$ in the lower half of the complex k -plane—as a generalized function of $\Re k$, depending of $\Im k$ as a paraemeter. Actually, however, this function is analytic k in the lower-half plane ($\Im k < 0$). The Laplace-transform is defined as

$$\mathcal{L}[f](s) = \sqrt{2\pi} \mathcal{F}[f](-is);$$

for $f \in \mathcal{S}'$ with support in $\{x \geq 0\}$, it is defined in the right half-plane complex plane ($\Re s \geq 0$). Formally, we have

$$\mathcal{L}[f](s) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-sx} f(x) dx$$

If $f \notin \mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R})$, but $e^{-\mu x} f \in \mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R})$ for some $\mu > 0$, then we can define $\mathcal{L}[f]$ in the right-half plane $\Re s \geq \mu$. We note that by inverting the Fourier-transform we obtain

$$e^{-\mu x} f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \mathcal{F}^{-1}[f](\mu + ik),$$

or equivalently,

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mu-i\infty}^{\mu+i\infty} e^{sx} \mathcal{L}[f](s) ds$$

In using the above formula, we must ensure that the resulting expression vanishes for $x < 0$, since this was our basic assumption. Typically, one shows this by closing the contour of integration by a half-circle to the right; e^{sx} decays rapidly in the right half plane. For this argument to work, it is necessary to choose μ to the right of the singularities of f .

Example: Consider

$$u_t = u_{xx} \quad \text{for } x \in (0, 1), \quad t > 0 \quad \text{with } u(x, 0) = 0, \quad u(0, t) = 1 = u(1, t) \quad \text{for } t > 0$$

Laplace transform in time leads to

$$s\mathcal{L}[u](x, s) = \mathcal{L}[u]_{xx}(x, s) \quad ; \quad \mathcal{L}[u](0, s) = \frac{1}{s} = \mathcal{L}[u](1, s)$$

The equation for the solution is

$$\mathcal{L}[u](x, s) = \frac{\cosh(\sqrt{s}(x - \frac{1}{2}))}{s \cosh(\sqrt{s}/2)}$$

Using the inverse transform, we obtain

$$u(x, t) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mu-i\infty}^{\mu+i\infty} e^{st} \frac{\cosh(\sqrt{s}(x - \frac{1}{2}))}{s \cosh(\sqrt{s}/2)} ds$$

The integral cannot be evaluated in closed form, however, through contour deformation, and change of variables $\sqrt{s} = s_1$, it is possible to use calculus of residues (complex variable technique) and obtain a series form of solution.

7 Wave equation

7.1 Solution in higher dimension through Spherical Means

Assume u is a classical solution to the initial value problem for n -dimensional wave equation for $n \geq 2$:

$$u_{tt} - \Delta u = 0 \quad \text{for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{for } t > 0 \quad \text{with } u(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \phi(\mathbf{x}), \quad u_t(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \psi(\mathbf{x}) \quad (25)$$

where $\phi \in \mathbf{C}^2$ and $\psi \in \mathbf{C}^1$. For $t > 0$, $r > 0$, we define $U(\mathbf{x}; r, t)$ to be the spherical average over the surface of an n -dimensional ball $B(\mathbf{x}, r)$ of radius r , centered at \mathbf{x} , and denoted by

$$U(\mathbf{x}; r, t) = \frac{1}{A_r} \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}; r)} u(\mathbf{y}, t) d\mathbf{y} \equiv \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}; r)} u(\mathbf{y}, t) d\mathbf{y} \quad (26)$$

where A_r is the surface area of an n dimensional ball of radius r . Note $A_r = n\alpha(n)r^{n-1}$, where volume of the n -dimensional sphere is $\alpha(n)r^n$. It is to be noted that

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} U(\mathbf{x}; r, t) = u(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

from continuity of \mathbf{u} . We can similarly define

$$G(\mathbf{x}; r) = \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}; r)} \phi(\mathbf{y}, t) d\mathbf{y} \quad (27)$$

$$H(\mathbf{x}; r) = \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}; r)} \psi(\mathbf{y}, t) d\mathbf{y} \quad (28)$$

For fixed \mathbf{x} , we regard U as a function of r and t . We claim

Lemma 8 *For fixed \mathbf{x} , $U(\mathbf{x}; r, t)$ is a solution of the initial value problem:*

$$U_{tt} - U_{rr} - \frac{n-1}{r} U_r = 0 \text{ for } r > 0, t > 0 \text{ and } U(\mathbf{x}; r, 0) = G(\mathbf{x}, r), U_t(\mathbf{x}; r, 0) = H(\mathbf{x}, r) \quad (29)$$

PROOF. For convenience, we depart from our usual convention and denote ‘surface area’ element on the n -dimensional ball as dS . Symbol $dS_{\mathbf{y}}$ will denote surface area element in the variable \mathbf{y} . We note that

$$U(\mathbf{x}; r, t) = \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}, r)} u(\mathbf{y}, t) dS_{\mathbf{y}} = \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{0}, 1)} u(\mathbf{x} + r\mathbf{z}, t) dS_{\mathbf{z}} \quad (30)$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} U_r(\mathbf{x}; r, t) &= \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{0}, 1)} \mathbf{z} \cdot \nabla u(\mathbf{x} + r\mathbf{z}, t) dS_{\mathbf{z}} = \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}, r)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} dS_{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{1}{A_r} \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}, r)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} dS_{\mathbf{y}} \\ &= \frac{1}{A_r} \int_{B(\mathbf{x}, r)} \Delta u(\mathbf{y}, t) d\mathbf{y} = \frac{1}{n\alpha(n)r^{n-1}} \int_{B(\mathbf{x}, r)} \Delta u(\mathbf{y}, t) d\mathbf{y}, \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

Thus, using (25), it follows that

$$U_r(\mathbf{x}; r, t) = \frac{1}{n\alpha(n)r^{n-1}} \int_{B(\mathbf{x}, r)} u_{tt} d\mathbf{y} \quad (32)$$

and therefore,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \{r^{n-1} U_r(\mathbf{x}; r, t)\} = \frac{1}{n\alpha(n)} \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}, r)} u_{tt}(\mathbf{y}, t) dS_{\mathbf{y}} = r^{n-1} U_{tt} \quad (33)$$

This gives the PDE for U given in the Lemma. Further, it is clear from definition of G and H that U satisfies the given initial conditions. \square

Theorem 9 (Kirchoff Formula for $n = 3$)

The solution to the initial value problem for the three-dimensional dimensional wave equation in free-space:

$$u_{tt} - \Delta u = 0 \text{ for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \text{ for } t > 0 \text{ with } u(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \phi(\mathbf{x}) \text{ , } u_t(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \psi(\mathbf{x}) \quad (34)$$

is given by

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) = \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}, t)} \{t\psi(\mathbf{y}) + \phi(\mathbf{y}) + (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) \cdot \nabla \phi(\mathbf{y})\} dS_{\mathbf{y}} \quad (35)$$

PROOF.

If note that if we introduce transformation

$$\tilde{U}(\mathbf{x}; r, t) = rU(\mathbf{x}; r, t), \quad \tilde{G} = rG, \quad \tilde{H} = rH$$

Then, simple calculation shows

$$\tilde{U}_{tt} - \tilde{U}_{rr} = 0 \text{ for } r > 0 \text{ , } t > 0, \text{ with } \tilde{U}(r, 0) = \tilde{G}(r), \quad \tilde{U}_t(r, 0) = \tilde{H}(r) \text{ , } \tilde{U}(0, t) = 0$$

This is the Wave equation on a half-line with a homogeneous *Dirichlet* condition. As discussed in Week 4 lectures (see equation (32) on page 4, with $c = 1$) for $0 \leq r \leq t$, we obtain

$$\tilde{U}(\mathbf{x}; r, t) = \frac{1}{2} [\tilde{G}(r+t) - \tilde{G}(t-r)] + \frac{1}{2} \int_{t-r}^{r+t} \tilde{H}(y) dy$$

Since $u(\mathbf{x}, t) = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\tilde{U}(\mathbf{x}; r, t)}{r}$,

$$\begin{aligned} u(\mathbf{x}, t) &= \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} \left\{ \frac{1}{2r} [\tilde{G}(r+t) - \tilde{G}(t-r)] + \frac{1}{2r} \int_{t-r}^{r+t} \tilde{H}(y) dy \right\} \\ &= \tilde{G}'(t) + \tilde{H}(t) = \partial_t \left(t \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}, t)} \phi dS \right) + t \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}, t)} \psi dS = \partial_t \left(t \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{0}, 1)} \phi(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{z}) dS_{\mathbf{z}} \right) + t \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{0}, 1)} \psi dS_{\mathbf{z}} \\ &= \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{0}, 1)} \{t\psi(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{z}) + \phi(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{z}) + t\mathbf{z} \cdot \nabla \phi(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{z})\} dS_{\mathbf{z}} = \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}, t)} \{t\psi(\mathbf{y}) + \phi(\mathbf{y}) + \nabla \phi(\mathbf{y}) \cdot (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})\} dS_{\mathbf{y}} \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 10 (Poisson Formula for $n = 2$)

The solution to the initial value problem for the two-dimensional dimensional wave equation in free-space:

$$u_{tt} - \Delta u = 0 \text{ for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ for } t > 0 \text{ with } u(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \phi(\mathbf{x}) \text{ , } u_t(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \psi(\mathbf{x}) \quad (36)$$

is given by

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{B(\mathbf{x}, t)} \frac{\{t\psi(\mathbf{y}) + t^2\psi(\mathbf{y} + t(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})) + \nabla \phi(\mathbf{y}) \cdot (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})\}}{(t^2 - |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|^2)^{1/2}} d\mathbf{y} \quad (37)$$

PROOF. We imbed the 2-D problem as part of 3-D problem. With $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$, $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$, $\bar{u}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, t) = u(\mathbf{x}, t)$. Then \bar{u} satisfies the 3-D wave equation with initial condition

$$\bar{\phi}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) = \phi(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\psi}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) = \psi(\mathbf{x})$$

Then, we have from the 3-D calculation,

$$\bar{u}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, t) = \partial_t \left(t \int_{\partial \bar{B}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, t)} \bar{\phi} d\bar{S} \right) + t \int_{\partial \bar{B}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, t)} \bar{\psi} d\bar{S}$$

where $\bar{B}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, t)$ denotes the ball in \mathbb{R}^3 with center $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ of radius $t > 0$, and $d\bar{S}$ denotes the two dimensional surface measure. Now we observe that

$$\int_{\partial \bar{B}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, t)} \bar{g} d\bar{S} = \frac{1}{4\pi t^2} \int_{\partial \bar{B}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, t)} \bar{g} d\bar{S} = \frac{2}{4\pi t^2} \int_{B(\mathbf{x}, t)} g(\mathbf{y}) (1 + (\nabla \gamma)^2)^{1/2} d\mathbf{y}$$

where $\gamma(\mathbf{y}) = \sqrt{t^2 - |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|^2}$ for $\mathbf{y} \in B(\mathbf{x}, t)$. The factor 2 enters since $\partial \bar{B}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, t)$ consists of two hemispheres. Computation shows that $[1 + (\nabla \gamma)^2]^{1/2} = t[t^2 - |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|^2]^{-1/2}$. Therefore,

$$\int_{\partial \bar{B}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, t)} \bar{g} d\bar{S} = \frac{t}{2} \int_{B(\mathbf{x}, t)} \frac{g(\mathbf{y})}{\sqrt{t^2 - |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}|^2}} d\mathbf{y} = \int_{B(\mathbf{0}, 1)} \frac{g(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{z})}{\sqrt{1 - |\mathbf{z}|^2}} d\mathbf{z}$$

The rest of the theorem is straight-forward computation. \square

7.2 Source solution for Wave Equation

We consider source solution $S(\mathbf{x}, t)$ that satisfies:

$$S_{tt} = c^2 \Delta S \quad \text{for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad t \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{with} \quad S(\mathbf{x}, 0) = 0 \quad ; \quad S_t(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \delta(\mathbf{x}) \quad (38)$$

This is referred to as the *Riemann* problem. To find formula for S , let $\psi(\mathbf{x})$ be any test function and we define

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} S(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}, t) \psi(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} \quad (39)$$

Then, assuming integration with respect to \mathbf{x} and t commutes with the integration with respect to \mathbf{y} , it follows that u satisfies wave equation as well, and satisfies initial conditions

$$u(\mathbf{x}, 0) = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad u_t(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \psi(\mathbf{x}) \quad (40)$$

From D'Alembert formula, the solution to this for $n = 1$ is given by

$$u(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(x - y, t) \psi(y) dy = \frac{1}{2c} \int_{x-ct}^{x+ct} \psi(y) dy$$

Therefore, $S(x - y, t) = \frac{1}{2c}$ for $y - x \in (-ct, ct)$ and 0 otherwise. Therefore,

$$S(x, t) = \frac{1}{2c} \quad \text{for } |x| < ct \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \quad \text{for } |x| > ct \quad \text{for } t > 0 \quad (41)$$

Similar formula can be found for $t < 0$. Notice that if we replace t by $-t$ in the initial value problem, it only reverses the sign of ψ . Using Heaviside function H^1 , we obtain

$$S(x, t) = \frac{1}{2c} H(c^2 t^2 - x^2) \text{sgn}(t) \quad (42)$$

For 1-D, the *Riemann* function is actually a function in the usual sense. This is not the case in higher dimension, where it is a distribution.

Note from *Kirchoff*-formula that solution for $t > 0$ for $n = 3$ is given by

$$\frac{1}{4\pi c^2 t} \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}, t)} \psi(\mathbf{y}) dS_{\mathbf{y}} = u(\mathbf{x}, t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} S(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}, t) \psi(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} = \int_0^\infty dr \int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}, r)} S(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}, t) \psi(\mathbf{y}) dS_{\mathbf{y}} \quad (43)$$

Therefore for $t > 0$, $S(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi c^2 t} \delta(|\mathbf{x}| - ct)$. We can similarly analyze the solution for $t < 0$, noticing that that replacing t by $-t$ in the problem posed for S has the effect of switching its sign. Therefore, for $t < 0$, we must have $S(\mathbf{x}, t) = -\frac{1}{4\pi c^2 (-t)} \delta(|\mathbf{x}| + ct)$. A uniform expression is given by

$$S(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{1}{2\pi c} \delta(|\mathbf{x}|^2 - c^2 t^2) \text{sgn}(t)$$

In 2-D similar calculation using Poisson formula shows

$$S(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{1}{2\pi c} (c^2 t^2 - |\mathbf{x}|^2)^{-1/2} \text{ for } |\mathbf{x}| < ct \text{ and } = 0 \text{ otherwise}$$

¹Recall $H(x) = 1$ for $x > 0$ and $H(x) = 0$ for $x < 0$