

## 4. PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

Previously we studied methods of solving (in the main) linear first and second order ordinary differential equations (ODE) - that is equations with  $y(x)$  only dependent on a single variable  $x$ .

Partial differential equations (PDEs) are equations involving functions of several variables and their partial derivatives. As such, PDEs play a central role in mathematical physics.

$$\text{e.g.} \quad \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}(x, t) = \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}(x, t)$$

linear PDE,  
1st order

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

Laplace equation  
in 3-D; 2nd  
order PDE

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}(x, t) = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2}(x, t)$$

Wave equation  
in 1-D.  
(2nd order, linear  
PDE)

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi + V\psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$$

Schrodinger  
equation (2nd  
order PDE)

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{1}{\alpha} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$$

Diffusion equation  
(2nd order PDE)

There are several techniques one can use in an attempt to solve PDEs. We shall consider only 1st and 2nd order PDEs in this course.

# 4.1 FIRST ORDER PDES

Let's look at a simple example:

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}(x, t) - \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}(x, t) = 0$$

$\psi = \psi(x, t)$  depends on two independent variables  $x, t$  and  $a$  is a constant.

Consider a change of variables

$$x^- = x - at, \quad x^+ = x + at$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial x^-}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} + \frac{\partial x^+}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x^+} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^+}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial x^-}{\partial t} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} + \frac{\partial x^+}{\partial t} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x^+} = -a \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} + a \frac{\partial}{\partial x^+}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} = 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-}$$

Our equation can therefore be written as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} \psi(x^-, x^+) = 0$$

Now an equation like  $\frac{df(x)}{dx} = 0$  has a solution

$f(x) = \text{constant}$ . But when  $\psi(x^-, x^+)$  depends on 2 variables,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} \psi(x^-, x^+) = 0 \Rightarrow \psi(x^-, x^+) = f(x^+)$$

(since  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} f(x^+) = 0$  as  $x^-$  and  $x^+$  are independent)<sup>3</sup>.

But  $x^+ = x + at$

Hence the general solution of  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = 0$  is

$$\psi = \psi(x + at)$$

i.e. only depends on  $x$  and  $t$  through the combination  $x + at$ .

#### 4.2 GENERAL FIRST ORDER PDES

Consider the PDE of the form

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}(x, y) + P(x, y) \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}(x, y) = Q(x, y)$$

This is a linear PDE since  $\psi$  appears at most as linear.

Let us look at some simple cases:

$$Q = 0 ; P(x, y) = f(x)g(y) \quad (\text{factorizable})$$

We look for a factorized solution with separation of variables:

$$\psi(x, y) = u(x)v(y)$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} = \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) v(y) + u(x) \frac{\partial v(y)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \cdot v(y)$$

Similarly

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = u(x) \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$

Our differential equation is

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}(x, y) + f(x)g(y) \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}(x, y) = 0$$

If we substitute our expressions for  $\partial \psi / \partial x$  and  $\partial \psi / \partial y$  we have

$$\frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial x} \cdot v(y) + f(x)g(y)u(x) \frac{\partial v(y)}{\partial y} = 0$$

Dividing by  $f u v$  gives

$$\left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) \frac{1}{f u} + \frac{g(y)}{v(y)} \frac{\partial v(y)}{\partial y} = 0$$

Now, since  $u$  and  $f$  are only functions of  $x$  and  $g$  and  $v$  are only functions of  $y$ , the above equation can only be satisfied if

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{1}{f(x)u(x)} = \text{constant} = \kappa$$

$$\frac{g(y)}{v(y)} \cdot \frac{\partial v(y)}{\partial y} = -\kappa$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = \kappa f(x) u(x)$$

$$\frac{dv}{dy} = -\kappa \frac{v(y)}{g(y)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int \frac{du}{u} = c \int f(x) dx \Rightarrow u(x) = c_1 e^{c \int f(x) dx} \quad 5.$$

$$\int \frac{dv}{v} = -c \int \frac{1}{g(y)} dy \Rightarrow v(y) = c_2 e^{-c \int \frac{dy}{g(y)}}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(x, y) &= u(x) v(y) \\ &= c_3 e^{c \int f(x) dx} e^{-c \int \frac{dy}{g(y)}} \quad (c_3 = \text{const.}) \end{aligned}$$

e.g. Solve  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + xy \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = 0$

We take  $f(x) = x$  and  $g(y) = y$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(x, y) &= (\text{const.}) e^{c \int x dx} e^{-c \int \frac{dy}{y}} \\ &= \text{const.} e^{cx^2/2} e^{-c \ln y} \\ &= \text{const.} \frac{e^{cx^2/2}}{y^c} \end{aligned}$$

## 4.3 EXAMPLES OF FIRST ORDER PDES IN PHYSICS

### 4.3.1 MAGNETIC FIELDS / MAGNETIC POTENTIAL

Since (apparently) there are no magnetic monopoles in nature, the physical magnetic field  $\vec{B}$  is divergence-free, i.e.

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{B} = \partial_x B_x + \partial_y B_y + \partial_z B_z = 0$$

This equation means that we can always write

$$\underline{B} = \nabla \times \underline{A} \quad \text{where } \underline{A} \text{ is the magnetic potential.}$$

### EXAMPLE 1

Let's take  $\underline{B}$  to be constant and pointing along the  $z$ -axis:

$$\underline{B} = B \hat{\underline{z}} ; \quad \text{where } B \text{ is a constant.}$$

So, recalling that in component form,

$$\nabla \times \underline{A} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\underline{x}} & \hat{\underline{y}} & \hat{\underline{z}} \\ \partial/\partial x & \partial/\partial y & \partial/\partial z \\ A_x & A_y & A_z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (\partial_y A_z - \partial_z A_y) \hat{\underline{x}} + (-\partial_x A_z + \partial_z A_x) \hat{\underline{y}} \\ + (\partial_x A_y - \partial_y A_x) \hat{\underline{z}}$$

This gives us three equations to solve:

$$\partial_y A_z - \partial_z A_y = 0$$

$$-\partial_x A_z + \partial_z A_x = 0$$

$$\partial_x A_y - \partial_y A_x = B$$

Let's assume that  $A_z = 0$ . Then:

$$\partial_z A_y = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\partial_z A_x = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\partial_x A_y - \partial_y A_x = B \quad (3)$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (1) \Rightarrow A_y = A_y(x, y) \\ (2) \Rightarrow A_x = A_x(x, y) \end{array} \right\} \text{ i.e. independent of } z.$$

Put these back into (3) :

$$\partial_x A_y(x, y) - \partial_y A_x(x, y) = B \quad (\text{a constant})$$

We note that

$$A_y = \alpha x B \quad (\partial_x A_y = \alpha B)$$

$$A_x = (\alpha - 1)y B \quad (\partial_y A_x = (\alpha - 1)B)$$

solves the differential equation.

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{A}} = (\alpha - 1)y B \underline{\underline{\hat{x}}} + \alpha x B \underline{\underline{\hat{y}}}$$

$$\text{solves} \quad \nabla \times \underline{\underline{A}} = B \underline{\underline{\hat{z}}}$$

$$\underline{\underline{\text{CHECK}}} : \nabla \times \underline{\underline{\hat{A}}} = \begin{vmatrix} \underline{\underline{\hat{x}}} & \underline{\underline{\hat{y}}} & \underline{\underline{\hat{z}}} \\ \partial/\partial x & \partial/\partial y & \partial/\partial z \\ (\alpha - 1)y B & \alpha x B & 0 \end{vmatrix} = (0, 0, B)$$

4.3.2 MECHANICS

In mechanics the force is minus the gradient of the potential:

$$\underline{F} = -\nabla V$$

EXAMPLE 2

Given the force

$$\underline{F} = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)(x \underline{\hat{x}} + y \underline{\hat{y}} + z \underline{\hat{z}})$$

calculate  $V(x, y, z)$ .

In components:  $-\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = F_x = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)x \quad (1)$

$$-\frac{\partial V}{\partial y} = F_y = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)y \quad (2)$$

$$-\frac{\partial V}{\partial z} = F_z = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)z \quad (3)$$

Solve (1) keeping  $y, z$  fixed:

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = -(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)x \Big|_{y, z \text{ const.}}$$

$$\Rightarrow V(x, y, z) = -\frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{x^2}{2}(y^2 + z^2) + f(y, z) \quad (\text{indep. of } x)$$

Substitute into (2):

$$-\frac{\partial V}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( -\frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{x^2}{2}(y^2 + z^2) + f(y, z) \right) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)y$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 y - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x^2 y + y^3 + z^2 y$$



$$\Rightarrow -\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = y^3 + z^2 y$$

$$\Rightarrow f(y, z) = -\frac{y^4}{4} - \frac{z^2 y^2}{2} + g(z)$$

To determine  $g(z)$ , substitute back into (3):

$$-\frac{\partial V}{\partial z} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( -\frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{x^2}{2} (y^2 + z^2) - \frac{y^4}{4} - \frac{z^2 y^2}{2} + g(z) \right)$$

$$= (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) z$$

$$\Rightarrow +x^2 z + y^2 z - \frac{dg}{dz} = x^2 z + y^2 z + z^3$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dg}{dz} = -z^3; \quad g(z) = -\frac{z^4}{4}$$

So finally,

$$V(x, y, z) = -\frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{y^4}{4} - \frac{z^4}{4} - \frac{x^2}{2} (y^2 + z^2) - \frac{z^2 y^2}{2}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4} (x^4 + y^4 + z^4 + 2x^2 y^2 + 2x^2 z^2 + 2y^2 z^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow V(x, y, z) = -\frac{1}{4} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^2 = -\frac{1}{4} r^4$$

CHECK:  $V = -\frac{1}{4} r^4$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla V = \frac{\partial V}{\partial r} \hat{r} = -r^3 \hat{r} = -r^2 \hat{r} = -\vec{F}$$

and so  $\vec{F} = -\nabla V$

(Note that the calculation is easier in spherical polar coordinates.)

## 4.4 SOLVING SECOND ORDER PDES

We will examine several examples from physics.

### 4.4.1 WAVE EQUATION IN 1+1 DIMENSIONS

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial t^2}$$

This is a linear, 2nd order PDE (1-space dim., 1-time dim.)

We will try different methods.

First consider separation of variables, i.e. we will look for solutions of the form

$$\psi(x, t) = f(x) g(t)$$

Substituting in wave equation

$$\left( \frac{d^2 f(x)}{dx^2} \right) g(t) = \frac{1}{c^2} f(x) \left( \frac{d^2 g(t)}{dt^2} \right)$$

or

$$\frac{1}{f(x)} \left( \frac{d^2 f(x)}{dx^2} \right) = \frac{1}{c^2} \left( \frac{d^2 g(t)}{dt^2} \right) \frac{1}{g(t)}$$

(only depends on  $x$ )      (only depends on  $t$ )

Since  $x$  and  $t$  are independent variables, the only solution is

$$\frac{1}{f(x)} \left( \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \right) = K \text{ (constant)} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{1}{g(t)} \left( \frac{d^2 g}{dt^2} \right)$$

Thus we obtain two equations for  $f$  and  $g$ :

$$\frac{d^2 f(x)}{dx^2} = K f(x); \quad \frac{d^2 g(t)}{dt^2} = K c^2 g(t).$$

These equations determine  $f(x)$  and  $g(t)$ .

E.g. If  $K < 0$  (i.e.  $K = -k^2$ ) then the solutions are

$$f(x) = A \sin kx + B \cos kx$$

$$g(t) = C \sin \omega t + D \cos \omega t \quad (\omega = kc)$$

$$\text{Then } \psi(x, t) = f(x)g(t)$$

$$= (A \sin kx + B \cos kx)(C \sin \omega t + D \cos \omega t)$$

The constants  $A, B, C, D$  are determined from boundary conditions.

$$\text{E.g. If } \psi(x, 0) = \sin kx$$

$$\Rightarrow (A \sin kx + B \cos kx)(D) = \sin kx$$

$$\Rightarrow B = 0, \quad AD = 1$$

$$\text{If } \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}(x, 0) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (A \sin kx + B \cos kx)(C\omega \cos \omega t - D\omega \sin \omega t) \Big|_{t=0}$$

$$= (A \sin kx + B \cos kx)(C\omega) = 0$$

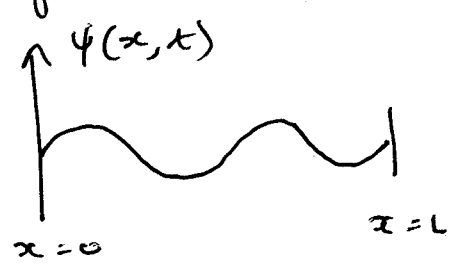
$$= C = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi(x, t) = \sin kx \cos \omega t$$

If  $K > 0$  (i.e.  $K = +k^2$ ) then the solutions are

$$f(x) = Ae^{kx} + Be^{-kx}$$
$$g(t) = Ce^{\omega t} + De^{-\omega t}$$

Consider the boundary conditions for the vibrations of a stretched string:



The physical boundary conditions give

$$\psi(x=0, t) = \psi(x=L, t) = 0$$

These are only consistent with our previous solutions if we assume  $K < 0 = -k^2$ .

$$\psi(x=0, t) = 0 \Rightarrow f(x=0) = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow A \sin(0) + B \cos(0) = 0 \Rightarrow B = 0$$

$$\psi(x=L, t) = 0 \Rightarrow f(x=L) = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow A \sin(kL) = 0 \Rightarrow kL = n\pi$$

$n = 1, 2, \dots$

$$\Rightarrow B = 0 \text{ and } k = \frac{n\pi}{L}$$

i.e.  $f(x) = A \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$

If we also impose another boundary condition, e.g.

$$\partial\psi/\partial t|_{x=0} = 0, \text{ then } g(t) = \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\omega t\right)$$

and so

$$\psi(x, t) = A \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\omega t\right) \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

The most general solution of a wave equation is a linear combination of particular solutions:

$$\psi(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L} x\right) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L} ct\right)$$

We can also see the general structure of solutions to the 1+1 dimensional wave equation in another way:

Define  $x^+ = x + ct$  ( $c$  = velocity of wave)  
 $x^- = x - ct$

We have:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial x^-}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} + \frac{\partial x^+}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^+} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^+}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial x^-}{\partial t} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} + \frac{\partial x^+}{\partial t} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^+} = -c \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial x^+}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = 4 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^+} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} \psi(x^+, x^-)$$

So our new wave equation when written in terms of new variables  $x^+, x^-$  instead of  $x, t$  becomes

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^+} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} \psi(x^+, x^-) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{general solution } \psi(x^+, x^-) = F(x^+) + G(x^-)$$

where  $F$  only depends on  $x^+$ , so  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^-} F = 0$

and  $G$  only depends on  $x^-$ , so  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^+} G = 0$

The physical meaning of these functions is clear.

$$F(x^+) = F(x + ct) :$$


right moving waves

$$G(x^-) = G(x - ct) :$$


left moving waves

#### 4.4.2 HEAT CONDUCTION EQUATION

The heat conduction equation in 1 space + 1 time dimension is

$$\frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{k} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}$$

where  $k$  is a constant related to thermal conductivity and  $u$  is the temperature.

The method we shall use to solve this is the separation of variables.

Let's consider that

$$u(x, t) = f(x) g(t)$$

Substitute in our PDE :

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} (f(x) g(t)) = \frac{1}{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (f(x) g(t))$$

$$\text{i.e.} \quad \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right) g(t) = \frac{1}{k} \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial t} \right) f(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \underbrace{\frac{1}{f} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}}_{(x\text{-dep. only})} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{k} \frac{1}{g} \frac{\partial g}{\partial t}}_{(t\text{-dep. only})}$$

Since  $x$  and  $t$  are indep. variables, the only consistent solution is that

$$\frac{1}{f} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{f} \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} = \text{const.} = \kappa \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{1}{k} \frac{1}{g} \frac{dg}{dt} = \frac{1}{k} \frac{1}{g} \frac{dg}{dt} = \kappa \quad (2)$$

Solving (2):  $g(t) = g_0 e^{\kappa k t}$  assuming  $k > 0$

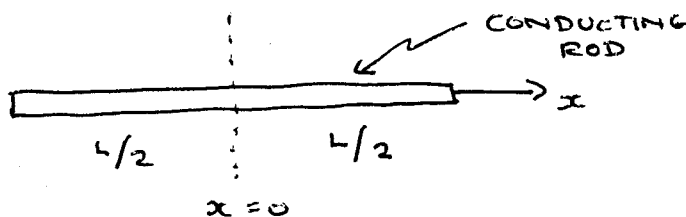
Physical solutions will have  $\kappa < 0$  (i.e. decaying) and so we write  $\kappa = -\omega^2$

$$\text{i.e. } g(t) = g_0 e^{-\omega^2 k t}$$

$$(1) \Rightarrow \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} = -\omega^2 f$$

The solutions will depend on the boundary conditions

e.g.



Choose  $f(x) = 0$  at  $x = \pm L/2$  (with  $u(x, t) = 0$  at these points, i.e. we are keeping the temperature zero at the rod ends).

The solutions of (1) are

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

since at  $x = \pm L/2$ ,  $\cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L} x\right) = 0$  ( $n = 1, 3, 5, \dots$ )

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \cos\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) = -\frac{n^2\pi^2}{L^2} \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L} x\right) = -\omega^2 \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L} x\right) \quad 16$$

$$\Rightarrow \omega_n = \frac{n\pi}{L}$$

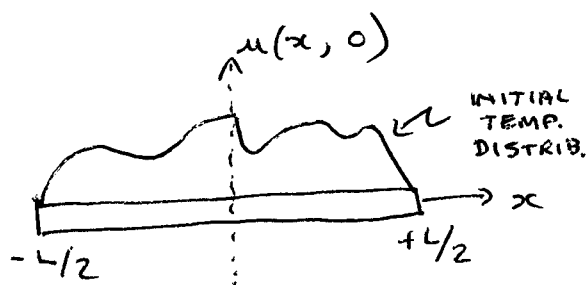
and hence

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

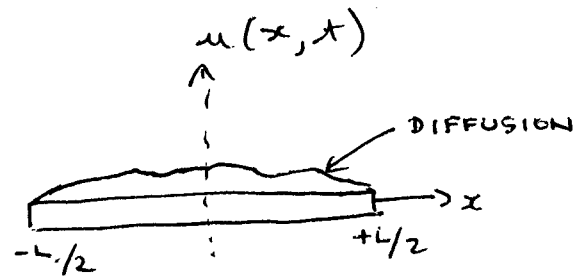
The most general solution is any linear combination of  $u_n(x, t)$  above with const. coefficients.

$$u(x, t) = \sum_{n \text{ odd}} a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L} x\right) e^{-\frac{n^2\pi^2}{L^2} k t}$$

with  $u(x, t=0) = \sum_{n \text{ odd}} a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{L} x\right)$



$t=0$



$t > 0$

It's clear from our solution that the higher frequency modes (i.e. large  $n$ ) decay faster in time than lower frequency modes. Physically, higher frequency modes correspond to inhomogeneities in the temperature distribution  $f(x)$  (regions where  $df/dx$  is much larger than zero) and these tend to diffuse faster.



### 4.4.3 SCHRODINGER EQUATION WITH $V=0$

Schrodinger's equation with  $V=0$  can be written

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$$

Looking for separable solutions gives

$$\psi = e^{-iEt/\hbar} \left[ A \sin\left(\sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}} x\right) + B \cos\left(\sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}} x\right) \right]$$

For the boundary conditions  $\psi(0, t) = \psi(L, t) = 0$ ,

we require

$$\psi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \sin\left(\sqrt{\frac{2mE_n}{\hbar^2}} x\right) e^{-iE_n t/\hbar}$$

where  $E_n = \frac{n^2 \hbar^2 \pi^2}{2mL^2}$  and  $A_n$  determined by

$\psi(x)$  at  $t=0$ .

### 4.5 GREEN'S FUNCTION IN TWO AND THREE DIMENSIONS

In order to solve inhomogeneous PDEs we must extend concept of green's function (used to solve ODEs) to functions of more than one variable.

### 4.5.1 DELTA FUNCTIONS IN 2D AND 3D

We can extend  $\delta(x)$  to two dimensions.

$$\delta^{(2)}(\underline{x}) \text{ with } \underline{x} = (x, y) \text{ is } \begin{cases} 0 & \text{at } \underline{x} \neq \underline{0} \\ \infty & \text{at } \underline{x} = \underline{0} \end{cases}$$

We can regard this as a product  $\delta(x)\delta(y)$ .

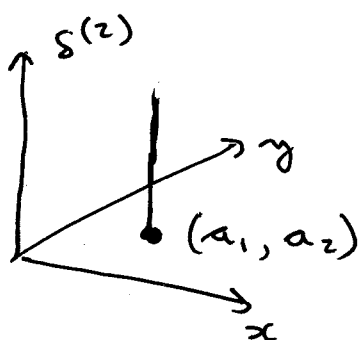
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta^{(2)}(\underline{x}) dx dy \\ = \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx \right) \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(y) dy \right) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \iint \delta(\underline{x} - \underline{a}) dx dy = 1$$

provided the region of integration contains  $\underline{a}$ .

$$\text{Also } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\underline{x}) \delta^{(2)}(\underline{x} - \underline{a}) dx dy = f(\underline{a})$$

$(\underline{a} = (a_1, a_2))$



Similarly for 3D :

$$\delta^{(3)}(\underline{x}) = \delta(x)\delta(y)\delta(z)$$

$$\text{and } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\underline{x}) \delta^{(3)}(\underline{x} - \underline{a}) dx dy dz = f(\underline{a})$$

where  $\underline{x} = (x, y, z)$   
 $\underline{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$

### 4.5.2 GREEN'S FUNCTION FOR POISSON'S EQUATION

Consider Poisson's equation in 3D:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} = \eta(x, y, z)$$

where  $\eta(x, y, z)$  is arbitrary

First solve for  $\eta = \delta^{(3)}(\underline{x})$ .

In electrostatics,

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{E} = -\nabla V$$

giving 
$$\nabla^2 V = \nabla \cdot (\nabla V) = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

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

Here  $\underline{E}$  is the electric field

$V$  is the electric potential

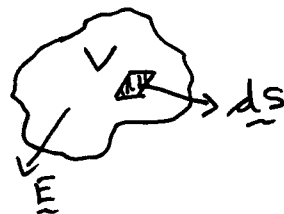
$\rho$  is the charge density

$\epsilon_0$  is the vacuum permittivity (or electric const.)

Gauss's Law gives

$$\oint_S \underline{E} \cdot d\underline{S} = \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \underline{E}) dV = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \iiint_V \rho dV = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

for the surface  $S$  enclosing the volume  $V$  and charge  $Q$ .



For a point charge at

the origin,  $\rho(\underline{x}) = Q \delta^{(3)}(\underline{x})$

$$\Rightarrow \iiint_V \rho(\underline{x}) dx dy dz = Q$$

Also,  $\underline{E} = E(r) \hat{r}$  is radial, so taking  $S$  as a sphere of radius  $r$  gives

$$E = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad V = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

Since  $V = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$  solves  $\nabla^2 V = -\frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \delta^{(3)}(\underline{x})$ ,

a solution of

$$\frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial z^2} = \delta(x)\delta(y)\delta(z) \text{ is } G(r) = -\frac{1}{4\pi r}$$

This is Green's function for the Laplacian operator  $\hat{L} = \nabla^2$ .

Explicitly, applying Gauss's theorem to a sphere (where  $d\underline{S} = |dS| \hat{r}$ ) gives

$$\iint_S (\nabla G) \cdot \underline{dS} = \iint_S \frac{dG}{dr} r^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi = 4\pi r^2 \frac{dG}{dr}$$

and

$$\iiint_V (\nabla^2 G) dV = \iiint_V \delta^{(3)}(\underline{x}) dV = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dG}{dr} = \frac{1}{4\pi r^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad G(r) = -\frac{1}{4\pi r}$$

Equivalently

$$\nabla^2 \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) = -4\pi \delta(r) \quad (\text{see HOMEWORK 9.1})$$

More generally, for sources at  $\underline{x}'$  rather than the origin,

$$\nabla^2 G(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = \delta^{(3)}(\underline{x} - \underline{x}')$$

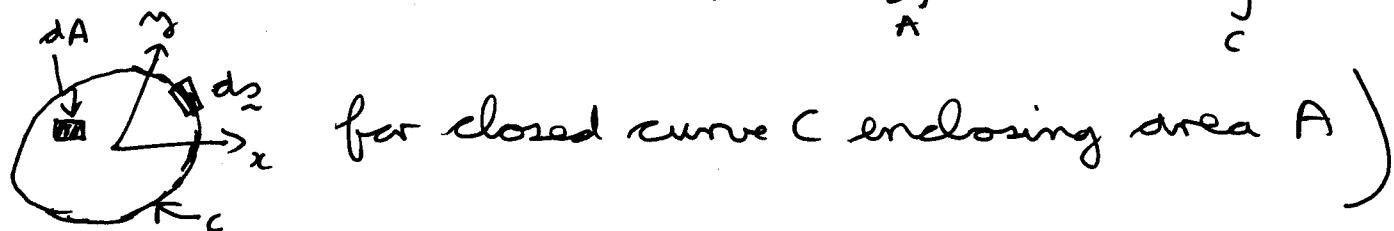
$$\Rightarrow G(\underline{x}, \underline{x}') = G(\underline{x} - \underline{x}') = -\frac{1}{4\pi |\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|}$$

### 4.5.3 2D POISSON'S EQUATION

We must solve

$$\frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial y^2} = \delta(x) \delta(y)$$

Integrating over a disc of radius  $r$  and using 2D divergence theorem (i.e.  $\iint_A (\nabla \cdot \underline{v}) dA = \int_C \underline{v} \cdot d\underline{s}$



we have

$$\int_C \nabla G \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_C \frac{dG}{dr} r d\theta = 2\pi r \frac{dG}{dr} = \iint_A \nabla^2 G dA = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dG}{dr} = \frac{1}{2\pi r} \Rightarrow G(r) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \ln r$$

For the electrostatic problem:

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial y^2} = - \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \delta(x) \delta(y) \quad \leftarrow \text{charge at origin}$$

which gives

$$V(r) = - \frac{Q}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \ln r$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = \frac{Q}{2\pi \epsilon_0 r} \hat{r}$$

#### 4.5.4 MORE GENERAL INHOMOGENEOUS PDE

generally  $\hat{L} \psi(x, y, z, t) = J(x, y, z, t)$  where

$\hat{L}$  is a linear, 2nd order, differential operator.

If  $J = 0$  then we have a homogeneous 2nd order

PDE.

$$\text{e.g. } \hat{L} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2}$$

for the wave equation in 3D

e.g.  $\hat{L} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} - \frac{1}{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$

for the heat conduction equation in 3D.

For a source at the origin, Green's function for the operator  $\hat{L}$  satisfies

$$\hat{L} G(x, y, z, t) = \delta(x) \delta(y) \delta(z) \delta(t).$$

More generally

$$\hat{L} G(\underline{x}, t, \underline{x}', t') = \delta^{(3)}(\underline{x} - \underline{x}') \delta(t - t')$$

and so the solution of  $\hat{L} \psi = J$  becomes

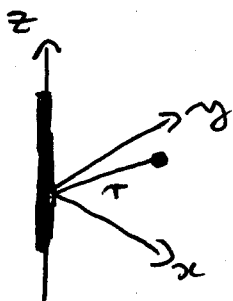
$$\psi(\underline{x}, t) = \iiint G(\underline{x}, t, \underline{x}', t') J(\underline{x}', t') d\underline{x}' dt'$$

since

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{L} \psi &= \iiint \hat{L} G(\underline{x}, t, \underline{x}', t') J(\underline{x}', t') d\underline{x}' dt' \\ &= \iiint \delta(\underline{x} - \underline{x}') \delta(t - t') J(\underline{x}', t') d\underline{x}' dt' \\ &= J(\underline{x}, t) \end{aligned}$$

Hence we can solve the inhomogeneous problem.

For example, solve Poisson's equation for an electric potential  $V(x, y)$  due to an infinite line charge along the  $z$ -axis (HOMEWORK 9.2)



Then

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2} = -\frac{\lambda}{\epsilon_0} \delta(x) \delta(y)$$

where  $\lambda$  is the charge per unit length.

This is a 3D problem but  $V$  depends only on  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  by symmetry.

$$\begin{aligned} V(x, y, z) &= -\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \iiint G(x, y, z, x', y', z') \rho(x', y', z') dx' dy' dz' \\ &= \iiint \left( \frac{-1}{4\pi \sqrt{(x-x')^2 + (y-y')^2 + (z-z')^2}} \right) \left( -\frac{\lambda}{\epsilon_0} \delta(x') \delta(y') \right) dx' dy' dz' \\ &= \frac{\lambda}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dz'}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + (z-z')^2}} = -\frac{\lambda}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \ln \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + \text{const.} \end{aligned}$$

The constant is infinite for infinite line but the field  $\underline{E} = -\nabla V$  is finite!

The above analysis is good approximation for finite string  $(-L < x < L)$  providing  $L \gg \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ .