

6.1 Laplace's Equation

We have so far dealt primarily with the wave eq. $u_{tt} = c^2 u_{xx}$ and the diffusion eq. $u_t = k u_{xx}$. Now, we think of what happens for large times when (perhaps) the solution has settled to some steady-state. Then, if everything is steady we expect that

$$u_t = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad u_{tt} = 0.$$

In both cases, this leaves us with $u_{xx} = 0$. This is called Laplace's equation, which we shall consider in higher dimensions too:

$$1D: \quad u_{xx}(x) = 0$$

$$2D: \quad \Delta u(x, y) = u_{xx}(x, y) + u_{yy}(x, y) = 0$$

$$3D: \quad \Delta u(x, y, z) = u_{xx}(x, y, z) + u_{yy}(x, y, z) + u_{zz}(x, y, z) = 0.$$

The operator $\mathcal{L}u = \Delta u$ is called the Laplacian.

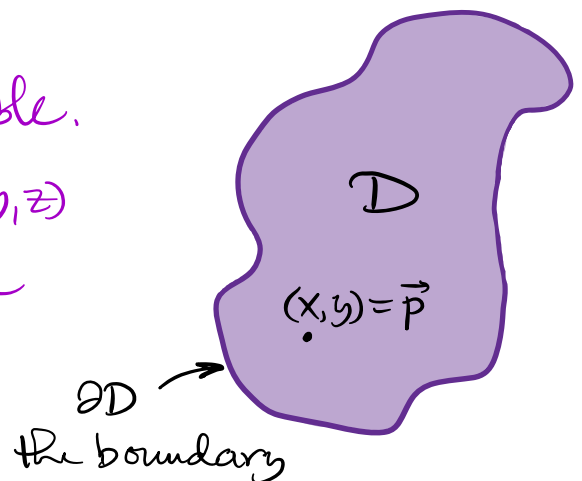
Any solution is called a harmonic function.

We consider higher dimensions since 1D is rather boring: solutions have the form $u(x) = Ax + B$.

If the right hand side is nonzero: $\Delta u = f$ the eq. is called Poisson's eq.

So, now we won't have a time variable. Just spatial variables (x, y) or (x, y, z) which will typically belong to some open set D in \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{R}^3 .

("open" means that D doesn't include its boundary)



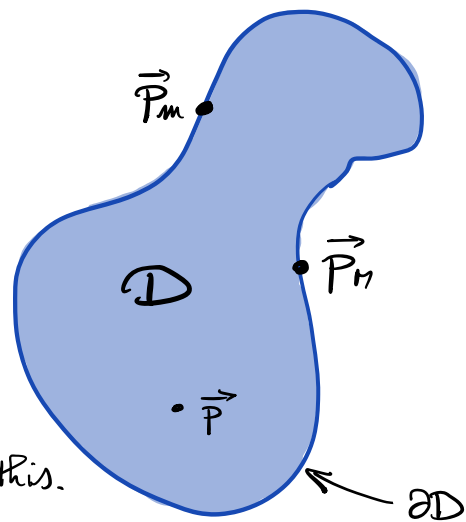
Laplace's eq. satisfies a max. principle, much like the diffusion eq. It holds in any dimension, we stick to 2D for simplicity.

Theorem: (Maximum Principle)

Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ be a connected open set. Let ∂D be its boundary, and $\bar{D} = D \cup \partial D$ its closure. Let $u(x,y)$ be a harmonic function in D that is continuous in \bar{D} . Then the maximum and minimum values of u in \bar{D} are attained in ∂D and nowhere in D (unless u is a constant function).

Proof: We need to prove that:

- (1) $\exists \vec{p}_m = (x_m, y_m)$ and $\vec{p}_M = (x_M, y_M)$ in ∂D
 s.t. $u(\vec{p}_m) \leq u(\vec{p}) \leq u(\vec{p}_M)$
 $\forall \vec{p} = (x, y) \in D$.



- (2) There are no points in D that satisfy this.

I.e. there are no $\vec{q}_m, \vec{q}_M \in D$ s.t.

$$u(\vec{q}_m) \leq u(\vec{p}) \leq u(\vec{q}_M) \quad \forall \vec{p} = (x, y) \in D.$$

We prove (1) now (similar to the proof we've seen before) and (2) will be proven later.

Let $\epsilon > 0$ and define $v(\vec{p}) = u(\vec{p}) + \epsilon |\vec{p}|^2$ (where we recall that $|\vec{p}|^2 = x^2 + y^2$). Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta v &= \Delta u + \epsilon \Delta(|\vec{p}|^2) = \Delta u + \epsilon (\partial_{xx} + \partial_{yy})(x^2 + y^2) \\ &= \Delta u + \epsilon (2 + 2) = \underbrace{\Delta u}_{=0} + 4\epsilon = 4\epsilon > 0 \end{aligned}$$

since u is harmonic

At a local max $\vec{p} \in D$, $\Delta v(\vec{p}) = \partial_{xx} v(\vec{p}) + \partial_{yy} v(\vec{p}) \leq 0$, so there's no local max

of v inside D . Since $v(x,y)$ is continuous in the closed set \bar{D} , it must attain its max (and min) there, and, in particular, these must be attained in ∂D (the boundary).

Suppose $v(\vec{p})$ attains its max at $\vec{p}_0 \in \partial D$. So $\forall \vec{p} \in \bar{D}$:

$$u(\vec{p}) \leq v(\vec{p}) \leq v(\vec{p}_0) = \underbrace{u(\vec{p}_0)} + \varepsilon \underbrace{|\vec{p}_0|^2}$$

This is smaller than $\max_{\vec{q} \in \partial D} u(\vec{q})$

This is smaller than the square of the distance of the point in ∂D which is farthest from the origin. Call this distance l .

$$\Rightarrow u(\vec{p}) \leq \max_{\vec{q} \in \partial D} u(\vec{q}) + \varepsilon l^2$$

This is true for any $\varepsilon > 0$ (as small as we wish) so it must still hold true for $\varepsilon = 0$, i.e. $u(\vec{p}) \leq \max_{\vec{q} \in \partial D} u(\vec{q})$, $\forall \vec{p} \in \bar{D}$.

Since ∂D is a closed set, $\max_{\vec{q} \in \partial D} u(\vec{q})$ is attained at some point on the boundary, call it $\vec{p}_M \in \partial D$. So:

$$\forall \vec{p} \in \bar{D}, \quad u(\vec{p}) \leq \max_{\vec{q} \in \partial D} u(\vec{q}) = u(\vec{p}_M)$$

Similarly, there exists $\vec{p}_m \in \partial D$ s.t. $u(\vec{p}_m) \leq u(\vec{p}) \quad \forall \vec{p} \in \bar{D}$.



(Proof of (2) will follow later).

Theorem: (Uniqueness of Solutions)

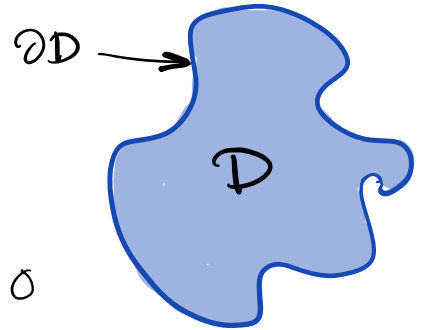
The Dirichlet problem for Poisson's eq. has a unique solution.

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u = f & \text{in } D \\ u = h & \text{on } \partial D \end{cases}$$

Proof: Suppose that there exist solutions u and v . Let $w = u - v$.

Then: $\Delta w = \Delta(u - v) = \Delta u - \Delta v = f - f = 0$
and $w = u - v = h - h = 0$ on ∂D .

So w solves the problem:
$$\begin{cases} \Delta w = 0 & \text{in } D \\ w = 0 & \text{on } \partial D \end{cases}$$



From the maximum principle we know that the max of w in \bar{D} is achieved on ∂D . But w is 0 there. Similarly for the min of w . So $w \equiv 0$ everywhere.
 $0 \equiv w = u - v \implies u = v$ everywhere.



Invariance under rigid transformations:

Proposition:

The Laplacian is unaffected by translations and rotations.

Proof is an exercise (it is in the book, 2D: p. 156, 3D: p. 158).

This means that moving D or rotating it won't change the result. It also suggests to look at radial/spherical symmetry.

The Laplacian in 2D in polar coordinates:

$$\text{Let } x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta.$$

$$\text{The Jacobian is: } J = \begin{pmatrix} \partial_x x & \partial_x y \\ \partial_y x & \partial_y y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

and the Jacobian for the inverse transformation is

$$J^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \partial_x r & \partial_x \theta \\ \partial_y r & \partial_y \theta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\frac{\sin \theta}{r} \\ \sin \theta & \frac{\cos \theta}{r} \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial x} &= \cos \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} &= \sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{\cos \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \end{aligned}$$

To compute $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$ and $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}$ we need to proceed with caution, because we can't just square these expressions.

There will be cross-terms. It's best to try it on a function:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} f &= \left[\cos \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right] \left[\cos \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right] f \\ &= \cos^2 \theta \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} f - \cos \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f \right) - \frac{\sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\cos \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} f \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{\sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\frac{\sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f \right) \\ &= \cos^2 \theta \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} f + \frac{\cos \theta \sin \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f - \frac{\cos \theta \sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r \partial \theta} f + \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} f \\ &\quad - \frac{\sin \theta \cos \theta}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta \partial r} f + \frac{\sin \theta \cos \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f + \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} f \\ &= \left[\cos^2 \theta \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} - 2 \frac{\cos \theta \sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r \partial \theta} + \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} + 2 \frac{\sin \theta \cos \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right] f \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Similarly: } \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} f =$$

$$= \left[\sin^2 \theta \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + 2 \frac{\cos \theta \sin \theta}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r \partial \theta} + \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} - 2 \frac{\sin \theta \cos \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right] f$$

Hence we get: $\Delta f = \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) f$

$$= \left[(\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right] f$$

Using the fact that $\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$ we conclude that

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2}$$

For functions that are radially symmetric (i.e. do not depend upon θ) all θ derivatives vanish, so the operator becomes:

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r}$$

(for functions that are radially symmetric)

We can easily solve the homogeneous problem coming from this:

$$u_{rr} + \frac{1}{r} u_r = 0.$$

$$\frac{1}{r} (r u_r)_r$$

check this: $(r u_r)_r = (r)_r u_r + r u_{rr} = u_r + r u_{rr}$

$$\frac{1}{r} (r u_r)_r = 0 \iff (r u_r)_r = 0 \iff r u_r = c_1$$

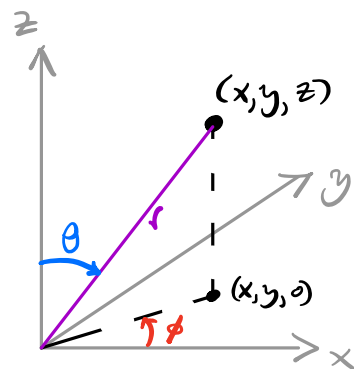
$$\iff u_r = \frac{c_1}{r}$$

$$\iff u(r) = c_1 \ln r + c_2$$

$\ln r = \ln(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2})$ is an extremely important harmonic function in 2D.

The Laplacian in 3D in spherical coordinates:

We use the convention that ϕ is the angle in the (x, y) plane (azimuthal angle) and θ is the angle from the z -axis (polar angle) to be consistent with the book.



We skip the details of the derivation of the formula for Δ in spherical coordinates (try it for yourselves!) and write the final expression:

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2}$$

In the case of a radial function (i.e. no θ or ϕ dependence) this reduces to

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r}$$

Solutions of this are as follows:
$$u_{rr} + \frac{2}{r} u_r = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{r^2} (r^2 u_r)_r = 0 \iff (r^2 u_r)_r = 0 \iff r^2 u_r = c_1$$

$$\iff u_r = \frac{c_1}{r^2}$$

$$\iff u(r) = -\frac{c_1}{r} + c_2$$

$\frac{1}{r} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$ is an extremely important harmonic function in 3D.

Example: (Section 6.1 Q5)

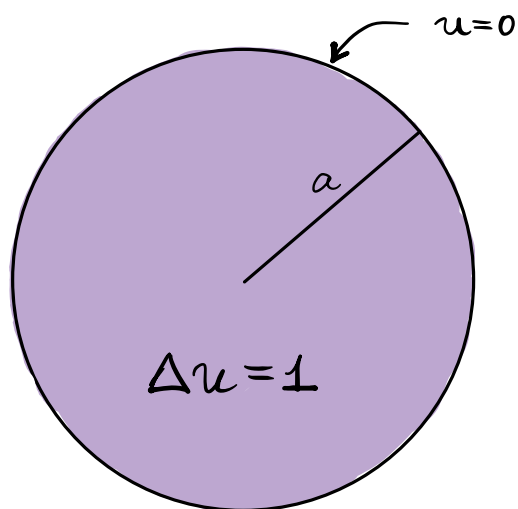
Solve $u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 1$ in $r < a$ with $u(x,y) = 0$ on $r = a$.

In 2D we know that the Laplacian takes the form

$$\Delta u = u_{rr} + \frac{1}{r} u_r$$

for radial functions. So our problem becomes:

$$\begin{cases} u_{rr}(r) + \frac{1}{r} u_r(r) = 1 & \text{in } (0, a) \\ u(a) = 0 \end{cases}$$



We've seen that $u_{rr} + \frac{1}{r} u_r = \frac{1}{r} (r u_r)_r$ so that our equation is reduced to $\frac{1}{r} (r u_r)_r = 1 \iff (r u_r)_r = r$

$$\iff r u_r = \frac{r^2}{2} + C_1 \iff u_r = \frac{r}{2} + \frac{C_1}{r}$$

$$\iff u(r) = \frac{r^2}{4} + C_1 \ln r + C_2.$$

Now we impose the boundary conditions. Notice that we only have the condition $u(a) = 0$. However notice another important aspect: our domain D includes $r = 0$ (the origin) where $\ln r$ is not defined. So we need that term to vanish,

\rightarrow we require $C_1 = 0$. Hence we're left with

$u(r) = \frac{r^2}{4} + C_2$. Imposing $u(a) = 0$ leads to

$$C_2 = -\frac{a^2}{4}$$

$$\rightarrow u(r) = \frac{1}{4}(r^2 - a^2).$$