

Revised on 2022-6-3

Remark 0.1 *This part consists of parabolic equations only.*

Remark 0.2 *This note is based on "Lecture-notes-on-PDE-2019-third-part.tex".*

1 The heat equation.

Recall that if we study the second order equation

$$au_{xx} + 2bu_{xy} + cu_{yy} + 2du_x + 2eu_y + ku = f(x, y), \quad u = u(x, y) \quad (1)$$

where a, \dots, k are all **constants** and $f(x, y)$ is a given function defined on some open set $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$, then we have the following classification result:

Theorem 1.1 (Refined canonical form.) *If the linear equation (1) is **elliptic**, then one can find a suitable linear change of variables (using eigenvalues, eigenvectors and scalings) and multiply the solution by some **exponential function** so that, eventually, the equation has the form*

$$v_{\xi\xi} + v_{\eta\eta} + cv = \phi(\xi, \eta), \quad v = v(\xi, \eta), \quad (2)$$

for some constant $c \in (-\infty, \infty)$ and some function $\phi(\xi, \eta)$. If the equation (1) is **hyperbolic**, the equation has the form

$$v_{\xi\xi} - v_{\eta\eta} + cv = \phi(\xi, \eta), \quad v = v(\xi, \eta), \quad (3)$$

for some constant $c \in (-\infty, \infty)$ and some function $\phi(\xi, \eta)$. If the equation (1) is **parabolic and nondegenerate**, the equation has the form

$$v_{\xi\xi} + cv_{\eta} = \phi(\xi, \eta), \quad v = v(\xi, \eta), \quad (4)$$

for some constant $c \neq 0$ and some function $\phi(\xi, \eta)$.

Remark 1.2 (Important.) *The constant c in the **elliptic case** can be $c > 0$, or $c = 0$, or $c < 0$. For $c > 0$, we can make it equal to 1 by doing the change of variables*

$$\tilde{\xi} = \sqrt{c}\xi, \quad \tilde{\eta} = \sqrt{c}\eta, \quad \tilde{v}(\tilde{\xi}, \tilde{\eta}) = v\left(\frac{\xi}{\sqrt{c}}, \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{c}}\right),$$

and for $c < 0$, we can make it equal to -1 by doing the change of variables

$$\tilde{\xi} = \sqrt{-c}\xi, \quad \tilde{\eta} = \sqrt{-c}\eta, \quad \tilde{v}(\tilde{\xi}, \tilde{\eta}) = v\left(\frac{\xi}{\sqrt{-c}}, \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{-c}}\right).$$

Thus in the **elliptic case**, we may simply assume $c = 1$, or 0 , or -1 . The constant c in the **hyperbolic case** can be $c > 0$, or $c = 0$, or $c < 0$. For $c < 0$, by switching the role of ξ and η , we may assume $c > 0$, or $c = 0$. Hence for the **hyperbolic case**, eventually, we can simply assume $c = 1$, or 0 . Finally, for the **parabolic case**, the constant $c \neq 0$ can be $c > 0$, or $c < 0$. So eventually we can simply assume $c = 1$, or -1 . However, since most parabolic equations come from physical phenomenon involving the behavior of some quantity $v(\xi, \eta)$ depending on space and time. So ξ will represent **space variable** and η will represent **time variable**. In that case a **model parabolic equation** looks like (assume $\phi(\xi, \eta) = 0$ for simplicity)

$$(1). v_t = v_{xx} \quad \text{or} \quad (2). v_t = -v_{xx}. \quad (5)$$

We call (1) the "**forward heat equation**" (or just **heat equation**) and (2) the "**backward heat equation**". Since in reality, time cannot go backwards, so in a parabolic equation, we always focus on the behavior of a solution $v(x, t)$ **as time goes forwards**, i.e., as t is **increasing**. One can use simple examples to see that, **as time goes forwards**, the heat equation (1) will make solution better, while the backward heat equation (2) will make solution worse (look at $e^{-t} \sin x$ and $e^t \sin x$ respectively). Thus, as time goes forwards, equation (1) is well-posed, while (2) is ill-posed. In this course, we will focus only on (1) (on the other hand, **as time goes backwards**, (1) will make solution worse and (2) will make solution better...).

Definition 1.3 Let $v = v(\xi, \eta)$. The equations $v_{\xi\xi} + v_{\eta\eta} = 0$, $v_{\xi\xi} - v_{\eta\eta} = 0$, $v_{\xi\xi} - v_{\eta} = 0$, are called **Laplace equation (elliptic equation)**, **wave equation (hyperbolic equation)**, and **heat equation (nondegenerate parabolic equation)**, respectively.

By Theorem 1.1 and Remark 1.2, we study the following **one-dimensional heat equation (nondegenerate parabolic equation)** (we focus on equation (1) in (5)):

$$u_t = u_{xx}, \quad u = u(x, t), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (6)$$

For higher dimensional heat equation, it has the form

$$u_t = \Delta u, \quad u = u(x_1, \dots, x_n, t), \quad (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

where

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} + \dots + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_n^2} \text{ is the Laplace operator in } \mathbb{R}^n.$$

We will focus only on the one-dimensional case, i.e. $n = 1$, in this course.

2 Physical motivation for the heat equation.

We will give a brief explanation why the equation $u_t = \Delta u$ is called the **heat equation**. The reason is that it describes the behavior of the **temperature function** in the **heat flow phenomenon**. We look at the case $n = 3$ and let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ be a bounded "**heated domain**". At any time $t \in (0, \infty)$, let $u(x, y, z, t)$ be the temperature at the point $\mathbf{x} = (x, y, z) \in \Omega$. The **total heat** inside the domain Ω at time $t \in (0, \infty)$ is given by

$$H(t) = \int_{\Omega} u(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x}, \quad t \in (0, \infty). \quad (7)$$

The change of total heat inside Ω is given by (here we assume we can differentiate under the integral sign, which is actually so in most situations)

$$\frac{dH}{dt}(t) = \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x}, \quad t \in (0, \infty). \quad (8)$$

On the other hand, by physical experiment, the French mathematician J. Fourier discovered that the heat will flow from hot to cold regions in a way that is **proportional to the gradient of the temperature everywhere**, i.e., proportional to the quantity

$$\nabla u = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right), \quad (9)$$

with certain proportion constant κ (heat conductivity).

Moreover, due to the **conservation law of energy**, if there is a change in the total heat inside Ω , it must be due to the heat flowing out or flowing into Ω through **the boundary** $\partial\Omega$ (which is a surface in \mathbb{R}^3). By **conservation law** and **Fourier's law**, we also have the identity

$$\frac{dH}{dt}(t) = \int_{\partial\Omega} \kappa (\nabla u(\mathbf{x}, t) \cdot \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{x})) dS \quad (\text{surface integral in } \mathbb{R}^3), \quad t \in (0, \infty), \quad (10)$$

where $\mathbf{N}(\mathbf{x})$ is the **unit outward normal** of $\partial\Omega$ at $\mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega$ and $\nabla u(\mathbf{x}, t) \cdot \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{x})$ is the inner product in \mathbb{R}^3 between the two vectors $\nabla u(\mathbf{x}, t)$ and $\mathbf{N}(\mathbf{x})$. By (8) and (10) and the classical **divergence theorem**, we have the identity

$$\int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\partial\Omega} \kappa (\nabla u(\mathbf{x}, t) \cdot \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{x})) dS = \int_{\Omega} \kappa \operatorname{div}(\nabla u(\mathbf{x}, t)) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\Omega} \kappa \Delta u(\mathbf{x}, t) d\mathbf{x}$$

and so we conclude the **integral identity** on Ω :

$$\int_{\Omega} \left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \kappa \Delta u(\mathbf{x}, t) \right] d\mathbf{x} = 0, \quad \forall t \in (0, \infty). \quad (11)$$

Finally, we note that the analysis leading to the identity (11) is independent of the domain Ω , i.e. on any subdomain $\tilde{\Omega} \subset \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$, as long as the heat flow phenomenon obeys the **conservation law** and **Fourier's law** in $\tilde{\Omega}$, we always have the identity

$$\int_{\tilde{\Omega}} \left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \kappa \Delta u(\mathbf{x}, t) \right] d\mathbf{x} = 0, \quad \forall t \in (0, \infty). \quad (12)$$

Since the domain $\tilde{\Omega} \subset \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ in (12) is arbitrary, we must have

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \kappa \Delta u(\mathbf{x}, t), \quad \forall (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \Omega \times (0, \infty), \quad (13)$$

which is the heat equation if we do suitable scaling to make $\kappa = 1$.

3 The 1-dimensional heat equation.

Most of the time (but not always) we will focus only on the 1-dimensional heat equation in this course ("1-dimensional" means space dimension n is 1). Unlike the 1-dimensional wave equation $u_{tt} = u_{xx}$, the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ is much more difficult to solve. It is not difficult to guess some special solutions of $u_t = u_{xx}$, like

$$u(x, t) = x, \quad 2t + x^2, \quad x^3 + 6xt, \quad e^{t+x}, \quad e^{t-x}, \quad e^{-t} \cos x, \quad e^{-t} \sin x, \quad e^t \cosh x, \quad e^t \sinh x, \quad (14)$$

, etc. (note that $e^t \cosh x$ and $e^t \sinh x$ are linear combinations of e^{t+x} and e^{t-x}). All of the above solutions are defined on $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$. One can check that the only **space-time separable solutions** of the heat equation are **"essentially"** of the form

$$u(x, t) = 1, \quad x, \quad e^{t+x}, \quad e^{t-x}, \quad e^{-t} \cos x, \quad e^{-t} \sin x \quad (15)$$

and no others. Also note that the solutions $u(x, t) = x, 2t + x^2, x^3 + 6xt$ are **polynomial solutions** with $u(x, 0) = x, x^2, x^3$. There is a formula for a polynomial solution with $u(x, 0) = x^n$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We will discuss this later on.

There are several major differences between the wave equation and the heat equation:

1. There is smoothing effect for heat equation, but not so in wave equation. We will discuss this later on.

- For wave equation, if $u(x, t)$ is a solution, so is the function $u(x, -t)$, but for the heat equation, if $u(x, t)$ is a solution, the function $u(x, -t)$ is, in general, no longer a solution. Thus for the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$, one cannot reverse the direction of time.
- (Scaling property.)** If $u(x, t)$ is a solution of the heat equation, so is the function $\tilde{u}(x, t) = u(\lambda x, \lambda^2 t)$ for any constant $\lambda \neq 0$ (for the wave equation, if $u(x, t)$ is a solution, so is the function $\tilde{u}(x, t) = u(\lambda x, \lambda t)$ for any constant $\lambda \neq 0$).

Example 3.1 (Interesting solutions.) We have the following interesting solutions of $u_t = u_{xx}$. They are all defined on $\mathbb{R} \times (-\infty, \infty)$.

$$u(x, t) = e^{-t} \cos x, \quad e^{-t} \sin x \quad (\text{space-periodic solutions, } u(x + 2\pi, t) = u(x, t))$$

and

$$u(x, t) = e^{\pm \frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}} \cos\left(t \pm \frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}\right), \quad e^{\pm \frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}} \sin\left(t \pm \frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \quad (\text{time-periodic solutions, } u(x, t + 2\pi) = u(x, t))$$

and

$$u(x, t) = \begin{cases} x^2 + 2t, & x^3 + 6xt, \\ x^4 + 12x^2t + 12t^2, & x^5 + 20x^3t + 60xt^2, \dots \end{cases} \quad (\text{polynomial solutions}),$$

where we note the important property that t is like x^2 (see Remark 3.7 below), and

$$u(x, t) = e^{t+x}, \quad e^{t-x} \quad (\text{traveling wave solutions}).$$

Note that a function $u(x, t)$ of the form $u(x, t) = h(x - \lambda t)$ for some constant $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ is usually called a **traveling wave function**. To understand this terminology, you can plot the graphs of $u(x, 0)$, $u(x, 1)$, $u(x, 2)$, $u(x, 3)$, ..., and see that the graph of $u(x, 0)$ is moving along the x -direction as time goes on.

3.1 Polynomial solutions of the 1-dimensional heat equation.

If we do not impose any "side condition" on the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$, then on \mathbb{R}^2 it has infinitely many solutions. Recall that for the Laplace equation on \mathbb{R}^2 , we have a family of polynomial solutions known as "harmonic polynomials". They are $1, x, y, xy, x^2 - y^2, \dots$, and they are all defined on \mathbb{R}^2 . In terms of polar coordinates (r, θ) in the plane they have the forms $r^n \cos n\theta, r^n \sin n\theta$ for $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. These solutions are important because we can use them to construct the **Poisson Integral Formula** on the disc.

For the heat equation $u_t(x, t) = u_{xx}(x, t)$ on $(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, there are also "heat polynomials" defined on the whole space $(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. In below, we show you how to derive them.

Consider the 1-dimensional heat equation $u_t(x, t) - u_{xx}(x, t) = 0$ with **initial data** (data at $t = 0$)

$$u(x, 0) = p_0(x), \quad x \in (-\infty, \infty), \quad (16)$$

where $p_0(x)$ is a **polynomial** defined on $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$ with degree $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. We try to look for a **space-time polynomial solution** $u(x, t)$ of the heat equation of the form

$$u(x, t) = p_0(x) + p_1(x)t + p_2(x)t^2 + p_3(x)t^3 + \dots,$$

where each $p_i(x)$ is also a polynomial in $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$.

We compute

$$u_t(x, t) = p_1(x) + 2p_2(x)t + 3p_3(x)t^2 + \dots$$

and

$$u_{xx}(x, t) = p_0''(x) + p_1''(x)t + p_2''(x)t^2 + p_3''(x)t^3 + \dots,$$

and by comparing the coefficient functions (because we want $u_t(x, t) = u_{xx}(x, t)$), we require

$$\begin{cases} p_1(x) = p_0''(x), \\ p_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}p_1''(x) = \frac{1}{2}p_0''''(x), \\ p_3(x) = \frac{1}{3}p_2''(x) = \frac{1}{3!}p_0^{(6)}(x), \\ \dots \\ p_k(x) = \frac{1}{k}p_{k-1}''(x) = \frac{1}{k!}p_0^{(2k)}(x), \\ \dots \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

Since $p_0(x)$ is a polynomial with finite degree $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the above process will stop at some k (i.e. $p_0^{(2k)}(x)$ will become 0 for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$). Moreover, we see that all of the other polynomials $p_1(x)$, $p_2(x)$, $p_3(x)$, ..., can be **uniquely determined** by $p_0(x)$, which is the **initial condition** of the heat equation. Therefore, if the polynomial $p_0(x)$ is given in advance, we can find a **unique polynomial solution** of the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ defined on $(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ satisfying (16).

We look at some simple examples.

Example 3.2 Take $p_0(x) = x$. Then $p_1(x) = p_0''(x) = 0$ and so on. The function $u(x, t) = x$ is a polynomial solution of the heat equation.

Example 3.3 Take $p_0(x) = x^2$. Then $p_1(x) = p_0''(x) = 2$ and $p_2(x) = 0$ and so on. The function

$$u(x, t) = p_0(x) + p_1(x)t = x^2 + 2t \quad (18)$$

is a polynomial solution of the heat equation.

Example 3.4 Take $p_0(x) = x^3$. Then $p_1(x) = p_0''(x) = 6x$ and $p_2(x) = 0$ and so on. The function

$$u(x, t) = p_0(x) + p_1(x)t = x^3 + 6xt \quad (19)$$

is a polynomial solution of the heat equation.

Example 3.5 Take $p_0(x) = x^4$. Then $p_1(x) = p_0''(x) = 12x^2$ and $p_2(x) = 12$ and $p_3(x) = 0$ and so on. The function

$$u(x, t) = p_0(x) + p_1(x)t + p_2(x)t^2 = x^4 + 12x^2t + 12t^2 \quad (20)$$

is a polynomial solution of the heat equation.

Example 3.6 Take $p_0(x) = x^5$. Then $p_1(x) = p_0''(x) = 20x^3$ and $p_2(x) = 60x$ and $p_3(x) = 0$ and so on. The function

$$u(x, t) = p_0(x) + p_1(x)t + p_2(x)t^2 = x^5 + 20x^3t + 60xt^2 \quad (21)$$

is a polynomial solution of the heat equation.

Remark 3.7 In all of the above examples, note that t is like x^2 (so that each term has the same degree !!). Therefore, in the solution

$$u(x, t) = x^5 + 20x^3t + 60xt^2,$$

we see that each term has "degree 5".

Remark 3.8 (You will understand this remark later on.) If we use the **representation formula** (you will see it later on)

$$u(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} p_0(y) dy, \quad t > 0, \quad (22)$$

we will get the **same** answer on the domain $(x, t) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$. Note that the integral (22) converges for any polynomial $p_0(y)$. Moreover, differentiation can move into the integral sign.

3.2 Finding the fundamental solution of the heat equation with the help of polynomial solutions.

Until now, we have found lots of **polynomial solutions** of the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ on $(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, namely

$$x^2 + 2t, \quad x^3 + 6xt, \quad x^4 + 12x^2t + 12t^2, \quad x^5 + 20x^3t + 60xt^2, \quad \dots, \text{ etc.} \quad (23)$$

Restricted onto the domain $\mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty)$, each of the polynomial solution can be expressed as the form

$$u(x, t) = g(t) h\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right), \quad (x, t) \in \mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty)$$

for some functions $g(t)$, $h(\theta)$ defined on $t \in (0, \infty)$, $\theta \in [0, \infty)$. For example, we can express

$$x^2 + 2t = g(t) h\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right), \quad \text{where } g(t) = t, \quad h(\theta) = \theta + 2$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} x^3 + 6xt &= t^{3/2} \left(\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{t}} \right)^3 + 6 \left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{t}} \right) \right) \\ &= g(t) h\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right), \quad \text{where } g(t) = t^{3/2}, \quad h(\theta) = (\sqrt{\theta})^3 + 6\sqrt{\theta} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} x^4 + 12x^2t + 12t^2 &= t^2 \left(\left(\frac{x^2}{t} \right)^2 + 12 \left(\frac{x^2}{t} \right) + 12 \right) \\ &= g(t) h\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right), \quad \text{where } g(t) = t^2, \quad h(\theta) = \theta^2 + 12\theta + 12. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can plug the general form $u(x, t) = g(t) h\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right)$ into the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ and see if we can find new interesting solutions. Compute

$$u_t(x, t) = g'(t) h\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right) - g(t) h'\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right) \frac{x^2}{t^2}, \quad u_x(x, t) = g(t) h'\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right) \frac{2x}{t}$$

and

$$u_{xx}(x, t) = g(t) h''\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right) \frac{4x^2}{t^2} + g(t) h'\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right) \frac{2}{t}.$$

We hope to have the identity

$$\underbrace{g'(t) h\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right)} - \underbrace{g(t) h'\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right) \frac{x^2}{t^2}} = \underbrace{g(t) h''\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right) \frac{4x^2}{t^2}} + \underbrace{g(t) h'\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right) \frac{2}{t}}, \quad \forall (x, t) \in \mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty), \quad (24)$$

which is **possible** if we require

$$\begin{cases} -h'(\theta) = 4h''(\theta), & \theta \in [0, \infty) \\ g'(t) h(\theta) = \left(g(t) \frac{2}{t}\right) h'(\theta), & \theta \in [0, \infty), \quad t \in (0, \infty). \end{cases} \quad (25)$$

Solving the first equation, we get the general solution $h(\theta) = A + Be^{-\frac{\theta}{4}}$ for arbitrary constants A, B and we choose $A = 0, B = 1$ and plug $h(\theta) = e^{-\frac{\theta}{4}}$ into the second equation to get the equation for g :

$$g'(t) = -\frac{1}{2t}g(t), \quad (26)$$

which gives the general solution $g(t) = \frac{C}{\sqrt{t}}$ for arbitrary constant C . Therefore, we see that

$$u(x, t) = g(t) h\left(\frac{x^2}{t}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}}, \quad (x, t) \in \mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty) \quad (27)$$

is a **new solution** of the heat equation on $\mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty)$. Note that this solution is different from any solution you encountered before. \square

Remark 3.9 *If $g(t)$ and $h(\theta)$ are from a polynomial solution $u(x, t)$, then they will satisfy (24) too.*

Remark 3.10 (Important.) *If we use the fact: if $u_j(x, t)$ is a solution for the one-dimensional heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ on $\mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty)$, then the function*

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) = u_1(x_1, t) \cdots u_n(x_n, t), \quad \mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad (28)$$

is a solution of the heat equation $u_t = \Delta u$ on $\mathbb{R}^n \times (0, \infty)$. With this, by (27), we will obtain the solution

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} e^{-\frac{x_1^2}{4t}} \cdots \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} e^{-\frac{x_n^2}{4t}} = \frac{1}{t^{n/2}} e^{-\frac{|\mathbf{x}|^2}{4t}}, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad t > 0 \quad (29)$$

of the heat equation $u_t = \Delta u$ on $\mathbb{R}^n \times (0, \infty)$.

By (29), we now define the following (for **normalization** purpose, we divide the solution in (29) by the constant $(4\pi)^{n/2}$; see Lemma 3.17):

Definition 3.11 *The function*

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}, t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(4\pi t)^{n/2}} e^{-\frac{|\mathbf{x}|^2}{4t}}, & \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad t > 0 \\ 0, & \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad t \leq 0. \end{cases} \quad (30)$$

*is called the **fundamental solution** of the heat equation. For each fixed time t , it is **radial** in $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Moreover it satisfies the heat equation $\partial_t u = \Delta u$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ and is **invariant** under the **space-time scaling** $\Phi(\mathbf{x}, t) \rightarrow \lambda^n \Phi(\lambda \mathbf{x}, \lambda^2 t)$, i.e. we have*

$$\lambda^n \Phi(\lambda \mathbf{x}, \lambda^2 t) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}, t), \quad \forall \lambda > 0, \quad \forall (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}. \quad (31)$$

Remark 3.12 (1). The **only singularity** of Φ is at the point $(0, 0)$, i.e. $\Phi(\mathbf{x}, t) \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{(0, 0)\})$ and it is **not continuous** at $(0, 0)$. To understand the property $\Phi(\mathbf{x}, t) \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{(0, 0)\})$ you need to know the fact that for each fixed $\mathbf{x}_0 \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the function

$$\psi(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(4\pi t)^{n/2}} e^{-\frac{|\mathbf{x}_0|^2}{4t}}, & t > 0 \\ 0, & t \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad (32)$$

is a C^∞ function of $t \in (-\infty, \infty)$. On the other hand, for $\mathbf{x}_0 = 0$, $\psi(t)$ becomes

$$\psi(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(4\pi t)^{n/2}}, & t > 0 \\ 0, & t \leq 0, \end{cases}$$

with $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \psi(t) = +\infty$ and so it is not continuous at $t = 0$. (2). $\Phi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ satisfies the heat equation $\partial_t \Phi = \Delta \Phi$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$. There is an easy way to check this on $\mathbb{R}^n \times (0, \infty)$. Let $v = \ln \Phi$. Then Φ satisfies the heat equation $\partial_t \Phi = \Delta \Phi$ if and only if $v = \ln \Phi$ satisfies the equation $\partial_t v = \Delta v + |\nabla v|^2$ (this is an exercise for you to check). Therefore we check the later equation. We have

$$v = \ln \Phi = -\frac{n}{2} \ln(4\pi t) - \frac{|\mathbf{x}|^2}{4t}, \quad t > 0.$$

and then

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = -\frac{n}{2t} + \frac{|\mathbf{x}|^2}{4t^2}.$$

Also

$$\Delta v = -\frac{n}{2t}, \quad |\nabla v|^2 = \frac{|\mathbf{x}|^2}{4t^2}.$$

Hence we have $\partial_t v = \Delta v + |\nabla v|^2$. (3). Exercise: check that we have $\partial_t \Phi(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \Delta \Phi(\mathbf{x}, 0)$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$, $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$.

3.3 Basic properties of the fundamental solution.

In order to study the **initial value problem** for the heat equation (see (59) below) and to derive its solution formula, we need to discuss several important properties for the fundamental solution $\Phi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ given in (30). One can use this fundamental solution to give a **representation formula** (solution formula) for the solution of (59) (this is similar to the **Poisson Integral Formula** for Laplace equation on the disc).

As a comparison, recall that for the Laplace equation $\Delta u(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ in \mathbb{R}^n there is a **radial solution** (with a **singularity** at the origin of \mathbb{R}^n , i.e. $\mathbf{x} = 0$) of the form

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} A|\mathbf{x}|^{2-n} + B, & n > 2, \text{ where } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \\ A \log |\mathbf{x}| + B, & n = 2, \text{ where } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}, \end{cases}$$

where A, B are arbitrary constants. It plays an important role in the theory of Laplace equation.

For the heat equation $u_t = \Delta u$, the fundamental solution $\Phi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ given in (30) is also a **radial solution** (radial in space \mathbb{R}^n , not in space-time \mathbb{R}^{n+1}), which, similar to the elliptic case, has a **singularity at the origin** of \mathbb{R}^{n+1} , i.e. at $(x, t) = (0, 0)$.

In the following, we will discuss several properties of the fundamental solution $\Phi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ for the case $n = 1$. These properties are all valid for general $n > 1$, but for simplicity of proof, here we focus only on the case $n = 1$.

Lemma 3.13 *Let*

$$\Phi(x, t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}}, & x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad t > 0 \\ 0, & x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad t \leq 0. \end{cases} \quad (33)$$

Then $\Phi(x, t) \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\})$ and it satisfies the heat equation $\partial_t u = \Delta u$ in $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$.

Proof. Since

$$\Phi(0, t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}}, & t > 0 \\ 0, & t \leq 0, \end{cases}$$

we see that $\Phi(x, t)$ is *not* continuous at $(0, 0)$. Moreover, we have

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \Phi(0, t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} = \infty.$$

To check that $\Phi(x, t) \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\})$, it suffices to look at the behavior of $\Phi(x, t)$ on the set $S = \{(x, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \neq 0\}$. By the limit

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{1}{t^\alpha} e^{-\frac{\beta}{t}} \right) = 0, \quad \forall \text{ const. } \alpha, \beta > 0,$$

one can check that $\Phi(x, t)$ is C^∞ at any point of S . Computing

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} \right) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} \left(-\frac{x}{2t} \right) e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}}, \quad t > 0 \\ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} \right) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} \left(-\frac{1}{2t} + \frac{x^2}{4t^2} \right) e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}}, \quad t > 0 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} \right) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}} \left(-\frac{1}{2} t^{-3/2} \right) e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} \frac{x^2}{4t^2}, \quad t > 0 \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

we see that $\Phi(x, t)$ satisfies the heat equation on $\mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty)$. Clearly it also satisfies the heat equation on $\mathbb{R} \times (-\infty, 0)$. At any point $(x_0, 0) \in S$, $x_0 \neq 0$, we have $\Phi_{xx}(x_0, 0) = 0$. Also note that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\Phi(x_0, t) - \Phi(x_0, 0)}{t} = 0 \quad (x_0 \neq 0)$$

and

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\Phi(x_0, t) - \Phi(x_0, 0)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{1}{t} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x_0^2}{4t}} \right) = 0 \quad (x_0 \neq 0, x_0^2 > 0),$$

and so we have $\Phi_t(x_0, 0) = 0$. The proof is done. \square

Lemma 3.14 *For any fixed $\varepsilon > 0$, we have*

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \Phi(x, t) = 0 \quad \textit{uniformly in the region } \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x| \geq \varepsilon\}. \quad (35)$$

Also

$$\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} \Phi(x, t) = 0 \quad \textit{uniformly in the region } t \in (-\infty, \infty). \quad (36)$$

Remark 3.15 *We also have*

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \Phi(x, t) = 0 \quad \textit{uniformly in } x \in (-\infty, \infty). \quad (37)$$

This is easy due to

$$|\Phi(x, t)| = \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} \right| \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} \quad \textit{for all } x \in (-\infty, \infty), \quad t > 0. \quad (38)$$

Remark 3.16 Draw a picture for $\Phi(x, t)$ with $t \rightarrow 0^+$.

Proof. For (35), we have for $t > 0$ the inequality

$$0 < \Phi(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{\varepsilon^2}{4t}}, \quad \forall |x| \geq \varepsilon$$

and the conclusion follows. For (36), it suffices to focus on $t \in (0, \infty)$ since $\Phi(x, t) \equiv 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $t \leq 0$. For fixed $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $x \neq 0$, the maximum value of the positive function

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}}, \quad t \in (0, \infty)$$

over $t \in (0, \infty)$, is attained at the point $t = x^2/2$ with maximum value equal to

$$\frac{1}{|x| \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (39)$$

This is due to the identity

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} \frac{1}{2t} \left(\frac{x^2}{2t} - 1 \right) e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad t \in (0, \infty).$$

The result follows. □

Lemma 3.17 For each fixed $t > 0$, we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(x, t) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} dx = 1, \quad t > 0. \quad (40)$$

Moreover, the convergence of the integral is **uniform** with respect to $t \in (0, T)$ for any fixed $T > 0$ (but not uniform with respect to $t \in (0, \infty)$).

Remark 3.18 Draw a picture for $\Phi(x, t)$ (for small $t > 0$ and for large $t > 0$) and show the property $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(x, t) dx = 1$ for all $t > 0$.

Remark 3.19 (Helpful interpretation ...) For fixed $t > 0$, if we let

$$F_N(t) = \int_{-N}^N \Phi(x, t) dx, \quad t \in (0, T), \quad N \in \mathbb{N},$$

then the convergence of the integral is **uniform** with respect to $t \in (0, T)$ can be interpreted as

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} F_N(t) = 1 \quad \text{uniformly in } t \in (0, T).$$

Remark 3.20 Similarly, we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} dx = 1, \quad \forall y \in \mathbb{R}, \quad t > 0 \quad (41)$$

and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} dy = 1, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad t > 0. \quad (42)$$

Proof. We first recall the following improper integral identity from calculus:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds = \sqrt{\pi}. \quad (43)$$

By a change of variables (let $s = \alpha y + \beta$), we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(\alpha y + \beta)^2} dy = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\alpha}, \quad \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \alpha > 0. \quad (44)$$

Letting $x = \sqrt{4t}s$, we obtain

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-s^2} \sqrt{4t} ds = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds = 1.$$

Next, let $T > 0$ be a fixed time. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, then there exists a large $M > 0$ (M depends only on ε and T) such that **for all** $t \in (0, T)$ we have the estimate (again, let $x = \sqrt{4t}s$)

$$0 < \int_M^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{\frac{M}{\sqrt{4t}}}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds < \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{\frac{M}{\sqrt{4T}}}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds < \varepsilon, \quad \forall t \in (0, T).$$

The same result holds for the integral $\int_{-\infty}^{-M} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4t}} dx$. Therefore, the convergence of the integral is uniform with respect to $t \in (0, T)$ for any fixed $T > 0$. \square

Remark 3.21 *By the integral identity*

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{-|\mathbf{x}|^2} d\mathbf{x} = (\sqrt{\pi})^n,$$

one can also obtain the identity

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{(4\pi t)^{n/2}} e^{-\frac{|\mathbf{x}|^2}{4t}} d\mathbf{x} = 1 \quad (45)$$

for each $t > 0$.

Lemma 3.22 *For fixed $\delta > 0$, we have*

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{|y-x| > \delta} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} dy = 0 \quad \text{uniformly in } x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad (46)$$

which means that the values of the fundamental solution $\Phi(x-y, t)$ (view it as a function of y with parameter x) concentrate around x as $t \rightarrow 0^+$.

Remark 3.23 *For fixed $\delta > 0$, the quantity*

$$\int_{|y-x| > \delta} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} dy$$

*is a function of $(x, t) \in \mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty)$ (denote it as $F(x, t)$). The above lemma says that $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} F(x, t) = 0$ **uniformly** in $x \in \mathbb{R}$.*

Proof. Let $y = x + \sqrt{4t}s$. Then

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{|y-x| > \delta} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} dy = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{|s| > \delta/\sqrt{4t}} e^{-s^2} ds = 0. \quad (47)$$

Note that the right hand side of (47) does not depend on $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Hence we have convergence to zero uniformly in $x \in \mathbb{R}$. The proof is done. \square

The following lemma is crucial in solving the initial value problem (59) below.

Lemma 3.24 Let $\phi(x)$ be a **bounded** function defined on $(-\infty, \infty)$ and is **continuous** at $x = x_0$. Then we have

$$\lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (x_0, 0^+)} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy = \phi(x_0). \quad (48)$$

In particular, we also have

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x_0-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy = \phi(x_0). \quad (49)$$

Remark 3.25 The above two limits have different meaning. In the first limit, $(x, t) \rightarrow (x_0, 0^+)$ means that $(x, t) \in \mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty)$ approaches the point $(x_0, 0) \in \mathbb{R} \times \{0\}$ in the plane \mathbb{R}^2 , while maintaining $t > 0$. In the second limit, we take $x = x_0$ in the integrand and look at the limit $t \rightarrow 0$, still maintaining $t > 0$. Note that (48) is a 2-dimensional limit, but (49) is just a 1-dimensional limit.

Proof. Let

$$u(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy, \quad (x, t) \in \mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty). \quad (50)$$

For any $\varepsilon > 0$, we choose $\delta > 0$ such that $|\phi(y) - \phi(x_0)| < \varepsilon$ if $|y - x_0| < 2\delta$. Let $M = \sup_{\mathbb{R}} |\phi|$. If $|x - x_0| < \delta$, then

$$\begin{aligned} |u(x, t) - \phi(x_0)| &= \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} (\phi(y) - \phi(x_0)) dy \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} \left(\int_{|y-x| < \delta} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} |\phi(y) - \phi(x_0)| dy + \int_{|y-x| \geq \delta} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} |\phi(y) - \phi(x_0)| dy \right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} \left(\int_{|y-x_0| < 2\delta} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} |\phi(y) - \phi(x_0)| dy + 2M \int_{|y-x| \geq \delta} e^{-\frac{|x-y|^2}{4t}} dy \right) \\ &\leq \varepsilon \left(\int_{|y-x_0| < 2\delta} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} dy \right) + 2M \left(\int_{|y-x| \geq \delta} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} dy \right) \end{aligned} \quad (51)$$

Therefore, by (42) and (46), if $t > 0$ is small enough and $|x - x_0| < \delta$, (51) will imply

$$|u(x, t) - \phi(x_0)| \leq \varepsilon + 2M\varepsilon,$$

Hence we have

$$\lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (x_0, 0^+)} u(x, t) = \phi(x_0)$$

and (48) is proved. (49) is a consequence of (48). \square

Lemma 3.26 Let $\phi(y)$ be a **continuous bounded** function defined on $(-\infty, \infty)$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} &\left(\frac{\partial^{m+n}}{\partial t^m \partial x^n} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy \right) (x_0, t_0) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{\partial^{m+n}}{\partial t^m \partial x^n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) \right) (x_0, t_0, y) \right] dy \end{aligned} \quad (52)$$

for all $(x_0, t_0) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$ and all $m, n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. In particular, the function

$$u(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy, \quad (x, t) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty), \quad (53)$$

satisfies

$$\begin{cases} (1) . u(x, t) \in C^\infty((-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)) \\ (2) . u_t(x, t) = u_{xx}(x, t), \quad \forall (x, t) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty). \end{cases} \quad (54)$$

Remark 3.27 (Important.) To understand the proof of Lemma 3.26, you need to know when a differentiation (say $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$) and an improper integral (say of the form $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, y) dy$ or $\int_0^{\infty} g(x, y) dy$ for some differentiable function $g(x, y)$) can **commute**. For your convenience, here I provide two results in the following:

1. Let $f(x, y) \in C^0(I \times [0, \infty))$, where $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is an **arbitrary connected interval** and assume that the improper integral $\int_0^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$ **converges uniformly to a function $F(x)$ on I** . Then $F(x)$ is continuous on I . This means that we have the identity

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \int_0^{\infty} f(x, y) dy = \int_0^{\infty} f(x_0, y) dy, \quad \forall x_0 \in I. \quad (55)$$

The same conclusion holds if we replace $\int_0^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$ by $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$.

2. Let $f(x, y) \in C^0(I \times [0, \infty))$, where $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is an **arbitrary connected interval** and assume that the improper integral $\int_0^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$ converges to a function $F(x)$ on I (**does not have to be uniform**) and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \in C^0(I \times [0, \infty))$ and $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) dy$ **converges uniformly on I** , Then $F(x)$ is differentiable with respect to $x \in I$ and

$$F'(x) = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) dy, \quad \forall x \in I. \quad (56)$$

In particular, $F(x)$ is also continuous on I . Moreover, if I is a **finite interval**, then $\int_0^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$ also **converges uniformly** on I . The same conclusion holds if we replace $\int_0^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$ by $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$ and $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) dy$ by $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) dy$.

Note: Compare with Rudin's Advanced Calculus book (Principle of Mathematical Analysis, 3rd edition) Theorem 7.17 in p. 152. In terms of series of functions, Rudin's Theorem 7.17 can be stated as: Let $\{f_n\}$ be a sequence of differentiable functions on $[a, b]$ such that the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$ converges for some $x_0 \in [a, b]$ and assume that the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f'_n(x)$ converges uniformly on $[a, b]$ to a function $h(x)$, then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$ converges uniformly on $[a, b]$ to a function $f(x)$, which is differentiable, and we have

$$f'(x) = h(x), \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

Proof. For any fixed $m, n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ and fixed $(x_0, t_0) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$ the function

$$\left(\frac{\partial^{m+n}}{\partial t^m \partial x^n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) \right) (x, t, y), \quad y \in (-\infty, \infty)$$

decays exponentially in the variable y as $|y| \rightarrow \infty$. In fact, it also decays exponentially in the variable y as $|y| \rightarrow \infty$ for all (x, t) in some neighborhood R of (x_0, t_0) . For example, one can take R as

$$R = \left\{ (x, t) : x_0 - 1 < x < x_0 + 1, \frac{t_0}{2} < t < \frac{3t_0}{2} \right\}, \quad t_0 > 0. \quad (57)$$

By this decay property, one can check that the integral

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{\partial^{m+n}}{\partial t^m \partial x^n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) \right) (x, t, y) \right] dy, \quad (x, t) \text{ is near } (x_0, t_0)$$

converges uniformly for all (x, t) in R . By standard theory in advanced calculus, the function (as a function of $(x, t) \in R$)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy$$

is **differentiable** with respect to t up to m times and differentiable with respect to x up to n times, i.e. one can apply $\frac{\partial^{m+n}u}{\partial t^m \partial x^n}$ onto it and obtain the identity

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\frac{\partial^{m+n}u}{\partial t^m \partial x^n} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy \right) (x, t) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{\partial^{m+n}u}{\partial t^m \partial x^n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) \right) (x, t, y) \right] dy, \quad \forall (x, t) \in R. \end{aligned} \quad (58)$$

As the point $(x_0, t_0) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$ is arbitrary and the numbers $m, n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ are also arbitrary, the identity (52) is proved for all $(x_0, t_0) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$. Moreover, the function

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy$$

is a C^∞ function of $(x, t) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$, which implies $u(x, t) \in C^\infty((-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty))$. Finally, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \right) u(x, t) &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \right) \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy \right) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \right) \phi(y) dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 0 \cdot \phi(y) dy = 0, \end{aligned}$$

which means that $u(x, t)$ satisfies the heat equation on $(-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$. □

3.4 Heat equation on the whole line with initial condition.

Motivated by the heat polynomials, to get unique solution (we hope so) of a heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$, we focus on the following **initial value problem**:

$$\begin{cases} u_t(x, t) = u_{xx}(x, t), & (x, t) \in \mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty) \\ u(x, 0) = f(x), & x \in \mathbb{R}. \end{cases} \quad (59)$$

Here $f(x)$ is a given **continuous function** on \mathbb{R} and we want (hope) to find a "**unique**" solution $u(x, t)$ lying in the space $C^2(\mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty)) \cap C^0(\mathbb{R} \times [0, \infty))$.

Remark 3.28 *In **physical reality**, most phenomena described by heat equation (and wave equation) has **initial-boundary** conditions (where the space domain for x is **bounded**). However, for $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$, the initial value problem (59) has a nice solution formula (this is similar to the wave equation $u_{tt}(x, t) = u_{xx}(x, t)$ with initial conditions $u(x, 0)$ and $u_t(x, 0)$) and it is easier to manipulate. Therefore, **for mathematical reason (not for physical reason)**, instead of looking at initial-boundary value problem for heat equation, we look at (59) first.*

Note that, unlike the wave equation, here we do not need the condition $u_t(x, 0) = g(x)$ for the heat equation. This is due to **physical phenomenon** (heat equation is not a mechanical equation coming from Newton's law) and also due to the fact that if $u(x, t)$ is C^2 up to $t = 0$ (with $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R})$), then we also have

$$u_t(x, 0) = u_{xx}(x, 0) = f''(x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R},$$

i.e. the condition $u_t(x, 0) = g(x)$ is automatically a consequence of the condition $u(x, 0) = f(x)$. On the other hand, for the case of wave equation, we can not determine $u_t(x, 0)$ from the condition $u(x, 0)$ (but we can determine $u_{tt}(x, 0)$ from the condition $u(x, 0)$ due to the identity $u_{tt}(x, 0) = u_{xx}(x, 0)$).

Unfortunately, the initial value problem (59) has infinitely many solutions (this is unlike the wave equation, which has a unique solution once we know $u(x, 0)$ and $u_t(x, 0)$) unless we impose condition on the behavior of solution $u(x, t)$ for large $|x|$. This is because the data is prescribed on the line $t = 0$, which is a **characteristic line** of the heat equation $u_{xx}(x, t) - u_t(x, t) = 0$.

In spite of this defect, when $f(x)$ is given and $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$, there is some "special solution" of (59), which is given by a **representation formula** (solution formula), which has **good properties** and **is close to the physical reality**.

Remark 3.29 Recall that for a second order linear **parabolic** equation with constant coefficients for $u(x, y)$ (here we view y as time), given by

$$au_{xx} + 2bu_{xy} + cu_{yy} + (\text{lower order terms}) = 0, \quad ac = b^2, \quad (60)$$

where a, b, c are constants with $ac = b^2$, the leading terms $au_{xx} + 2bu_{xy} + cu_{yy}$ can be factored as

$$au_{xx} + 2bu_{xy} + cu_{yy} = \left(A \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + B \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \left[\left(A \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + B \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) u \right] = 0 \quad (61)$$

for some constants A, B, C . The **1-parameter family of lines**

$$Bx - Ay = \lambda, \quad \lambda \in (-\infty, \infty) \quad (62)$$

are called the **characteristic lines** of the parabolic equation (60). By this, for the standard heat equation $u_{xx} + (-u_t) = 0$, the **1-parameter family** of characteristic lines are given by (we now have $B = 0, A = 1, y = t$ in (62))

$$-t = \lambda, \quad \lambda \in (-\infty, \infty). \quad (63)$$

From it, we know that the line $t = 0$ (i.e. x -axis) is a **characteristic line** of the heat equation. This may explain the **nonuniqueness** of the initial value problem (59).

We now consider the following initial value problem for heat equation defined on the whole line:

$$\begin{cases} u_t = u_{xx}, & x \in (-\infty, \infty), \quad t \in (0, \infty) \\ u(x, 0) = \phi(x), & x \in (-\infty, \infty). \end{cases} \quad (64)$$

Here $\phi(x)$ is a given **continuous** function on $(-\infty, \infty)$ and we want to find a solution lying in the function space:

$$u(x, t) \in C^2((-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)) \cap C^0((-\infty, \infty) \times [0, \infty)), \quad (65)$$

where satisfies (64).

As a consequence of Lemma 3.24 and Lemma 3.26, we can obtain the following **solution formula** for the initial value problem (64):

Theorem 3.30 Assume $\phi(x)$ is a **continuous bounded** function defined on $(-\infty, \infty)$. Then the function

$$u(x, t) = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy, & x \in (-\infty, \infty), \quad t \in (0, \infty) \\ \phi(x), & t = 0 \end{cases} \quad (66)$$

belongs to the space $C^\infty(\mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty)) \cap C^0(\mathbb{R} \times [0, \infty))$ (i.e. **continuous up to $t = 0$**) and satisfies the initial value problem

$$\begin{cases} u_t(x, t) = u_{xx}(x, t), & x \in (-\infty, \infty), \quad t \in (0, \infty) \\ u(x, 0) = \phi(x), & x \in (-\infty, \infty). \end{cases} \quad (67)$$

Proof. This is a direct consequence of Lemma 3.24 and Lemma 3.26. \square

Remark 3.31 (Important.) As long as $t > 0$, $u(x, t)$ becomes a **smooth** function even if the initial data $\phi(x)$ is only a continuous function. We call this a **smoothing effect** of the heat equation. This is unlike the wave equation, which has no smoothing effect.

Corollary 3.32 (The maximum principle.) The solution $u(x, t)$ given by (66), where $\phi(x)$ is a **continuous bounded** function defined on $(-\infty, \infty)$, satisfies the maximum principle:

$$\inf_{\mathbb{R}} \phi \leq u(x, t) \leq \sup_{\mathbb{R}} \phi \quad \text{for all } x \in (-\infty, \infty), \quad t \in (0, \infty). \quad (68)$$

Proof. We have

$$\begin{aligned} u(x, t) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \underbrace{\phi(y)}_{\sup_{\mathbb{R}} \phi} dy \leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \underbrace{\sup_{\mathbb{R}} \phi}_{\sup_{\mathbb{R}} \phi} dy \\ &= \sup_{\mathbb{R}} \phi \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} dy = \sup_{\mathbb{R}} \phi \end{aligned}$$

and similarly $u(x, t) \geq \inf_{\mathbb{R}} \phi$. \square

Corollary 3.33 (Infinite speed of propagation of the heat equation.) Let $\phi(x)$ be a **continuous bounded** function defined on $(-\infty, \infty)$. Assume $\phi(x) \geq 0$ everywhere, has **compact support**, and $\phi \not\equiv 0$. Then the solution $u(x, t)$ given by (66) satisfies

$$u(x, t) > 0, \quad \forall x \in (-\infty, \infty), \quad t \in (0, \infty), \quad (69)$$

i.e., as long as time is positive, $u(x, t)$ is positive everywhere no matter how large $|x|$ is (that is why we say the equation has **infinite speed of propagation**).

Remark 3.34 This is different from the wave equation. The function $u(x, t) = \phi(x - t)$ satisfies the wave equation $u_{tt} = u_{xx}$ with $u(x, 0) = \phi(x)$. However, for $t > 0$, $u(x, t) = 0$ if $|x| > 0$ is large enough.

Proof. Since ϕ is not a zero function, we have $\phi(x_0) > 0$ for some $x_0 \in (-\infty, \infty)$. By continuity, $\phi > 0$ on $(x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon)$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$. Now at any $(x, t) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$, we have

$$u(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy \geq \int_{x_0 - \varepsilon}^{x_0 + \varepsilon} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy > 0.$$

The proof is done. \square

To go on, we need the following special case of Fubini Theorem from **advanced calculus** textbook:

Lemma 3.35 (Tonelli's theorem.) Let $\phi(x, y)$ be a **continuous "nonnegative"** function defined on $\mathbb{R}^2 = (-\infty, \infty) \times (-\infty, \infty)$. Then the finiteness of any one of the following three integrals:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x, y) dx \right) dy, \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x, y) dy \right) dx, \quad \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} \phi(x, y) dx dy$$

implies that of the other two. Moreover, their values are all equal.

Remark 3.36 The condition $\phi(x, y) \geq 0$ on \mathbb{R}^2 is essential.

Proof. We omit it. □

Lemma 3.37 (Conservation of total energy.) Let $\phi(x)$ be a **continuous bounded** function defined on $(-\infty, \infty)$ ($\phi(x)$ may not be nonnegative). Assume $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(x)| dx$ converges. Then the solution $u(x, t)$ given by (66) satisfies

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(x, t) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) dx, \quad \forall t \in (0, \infty). \quad (70)$$

This means that **the total energy (heat) is conserved**.

Proof. For each $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$, let $\phi^+(x) = \max\{\phi(x), 0\} \geq 0$ and $\phi^-(x) = -\min\{\phi(x), 0\} \geq 0$. Then we have

$$\phi(x) = \phi^+(x) - \phi^-(x), \quad |\phi(x)| = \phi^+(x) + \phi^-(x), \quad \forall x \in (-\infty, \infty).$$

The convergence of $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(x)| dx$ implies that of $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi^+(x) dx$ and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi^-(x) dx$. Also, since $\phi(x)$ is a bounded function, for each fixed $(x, t) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$, the three improper integrals

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy, \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi^+(y) dy, \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi^-(y) dy$$

all converge. Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(x, t) dx &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy \right] dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi^+(y) dy - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi^-(y) dy \right] dx \end{aligned} \quad (71)$$

and by Lemma 3.35, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi^+(y) dy \right] dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\phi^+(y) \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} dx}_{=1} \right] dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi^+(y) dy < \infty \end{aligned}$$

and similarly

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi^-(y) dy \right] dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi^-(y) dy < \infty.$$

Therefore, the two iterated integrals in (71) converge and we conclude

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(x, t) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi^+(y) dy - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi^-(y) dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x) dx, \quad \forall t \in (0, \infty).$$

The proof is done. □

3.5 The maximum principle.

Assume that $u(x, t)$ is a solution of the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ on $(-\infty, \infty) \times (-\infty, \infty)$. The maximum principle of the diffusion equation says that (roughly speaking), for fixed time t_0 , we have $u_t(x_0, t_0) \leq 0$ if $u(x_0, t_0)$ has a *local maximum* at $x = x_0$ (so the value of $u(x_0, t_0)$ will "decrease" at the moment $t = t_0$); and $u_t(x_0, t) \geq 0$ if $u(x_0, t)$ has a *local minimum* at $x = x_0$ (so the value of $u(x_0, t_0)$ will "increase" at the moment $t = t_0$) (draw a picture for this). This is called **the maximum principle** of the heat equation. It matches with the physical phenomenon that heat goes from hot points to cold points and vice versa.

The maximum principle on the unbounded domain $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$ is more difficult to describe. We will discuss the maximum principle on **bounded domains** only.

3.5.1 The maximum principle on bounded domains.

Let $U_T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ be the set given by

$$U_T = \{(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 < x < \ell, 0 < t \leq T\}, \quad \ell, T > 0 \quad (72)$$

and assume that $u = u(x, t) \in C^2(U_T) \cap C^0(\bar{U}_T)$ satisfies the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ on U_T (note that the segment (x, T) , $0 < x < \ell$, is included). Note that since u is continuous on the compact set \bar{U}_T , it has global maximum and minimum on \bar{U}_T .

Remark 3.38 Explain the meaning of $u \in C^2(U_T)$.

The maximum principle says the following:

Lemma 3.39 (*Weak maximum principle for heat equation.*) Assume $u \in C^2(U_T) \cap C^0(\bar{U}_T)$ satisfies the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ on U_T . Then we have

$$\max_{\bar{U}_T} u = \max_{\Gamma_T} u, \quad (73)$$

where $\Gamma_T := \bar{U}_T - U_T$, which is called the **parabolic boundary** of U_T .

Remark 3.40 The above result is still true if we have $u_t \leq u_{xx}$ on U_T .

Proof. Assume $v \in C^2(U_T) \cap C^0(\bar{U}_T)$ is a function such that

$$v_{xx}(x, t) - v_t(x, t) > 0 \quad \text{in } U_T. \quad (74)$$

Then since $v \in C^0(\bar{U}_T)$, there is a point $(x_0, t_0) \in \bar{U}_T$ such that $v(x_0, t_0) = \max_{\bar{U}_T} v$. If $(x_0, t_0) \in U_T$ with $t < T$, then from calculus we know that

$$v_x(x_0, t_0) = 0, \quad v_{xx}(x_0, t_0) \leq 0, \quad v_t(x_0, t_0) = 0. \quad (75)$$

This contradicts $v_{xx} - v_t > 0$ in U_T .

If $(x, t) \in U_T$ with $t = T$, then we replace $v_t(x_0, t_0) = 0$ by $v_t(x_0, t_0) \geq 0$ in (75) and get the same contradiction. Thus the point (x_0, t_0) **must lie on the parabolic boundary** of U_T and cannot lie on U_T (for $v(x, t)$ satisfying the differential inequality (74)). In such a case we have

$$\max_{\bar{U}_T} v = \max_{\Gamma_T} v \quad (\text{call this value } M), \quad \text{where } v_{xx}(x, t) - v_t(x, t) > 0 \text{ in } U_T, \quad (76)$$

and moreover, $v(x, t)$ cannot attain the value M on U_T .

Now let $v(x, t) = u(x, t) + \varepsilon x^2$ ($\varepsilon > 0$ is a small constant), where $u \in C^2(U_T) \cap C^0(\bar{U}_T)$ satisfies the heat equation on U_T . We now have

$$v_{xx}(x, t) - v_t(x, t) = u_{xx}(x, t) + 2\varepsilon - u_t(x, t) = 2\varepsilon > 0 \quad \text{in } U_T.$$

By the above discussion, we know that

$$\max_{\bar{U}_T} v = \max_{\Gamma_T} v = \max_{\Gamma_T} (u(x, t) + \varepsilon x^2) \leq \left(\max_{\Gamma_T} u(x, t) \right) + \varepsilon \ell^2$$

and by $u(x, t) = v(x, t) - \varepsilon x^2 \leq v(x, t)$, we get

$$\max_{\bar{U}_T} u \leq \max_{\bar{U}_T} v \leq \left(\max_{\Gamma_T} u(x, t) \right) + \varepsilon \ell^2. \quad (77)$$

As $\varepsilon > 0$ is arbitrary, letting $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+$ (note that here ℓ is finite), we obtain $\max_{\bar{U}_T} u \leq \max_{\Gamma_T} u(x, t)$. On the other hand, we also have $\max_{\bar{U}_T} u \geq \max_{\Gamma_T} u(x, t)$. Hence $\max_{\bar{U}_T} u = \max_{\Gamma_T} u(x, t)$. \square

Exercise 3.41 Instead of using $v(x, t) = u(x, t) + \varepsilon x^2$, now use the function $v(x, t) = u(x, t) - \varepsilon t$, $\varepsilon > 0$, and repeat the same argument of proof. Can you obtain the same result?

Remark 3.42 (*Be careful.*) In the above proof, we do not exclude the possibility that the maximum of $u(x, t)$ (note that $u_t = u_{xx}$) can also be attained at some point in U_T . For example, when the solution $u(x, t)$ is a **constant**, then this can happen. However, this is the only case that can happen (this is the **strong maximum principle**).

We also have the following **minimum principle**:

Corollary 3.43 (**Weak minimum principle for heat equation.**) Assume $u \in C^2(U_T) \cap C^0(\bar{U}_T)$ satisfies the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ on U_T . Then we have

$$\min_{\bar{U}_T} u = \min_{\Gamma_T} u. \quad (78)$$

Remark 3.44 The above result is still true if we have $u_t \geq u_{xx}$ on U_T .

Remark 3.45 Again, here we do not exclude the possibility that the minimum can be attained at some point in U_T .

Proof. The proof for the minimum case is similar by looking at $-u$ (it also satisfies the heat equation) and the identity $\max_{\bar{U}_T}(-u) = \max_{\Gamma_T}(-u)$ becomes $-\min_{\bar{U}_T} u = -\min_{\Gamma_T} u$. \square

Corollary 3.46 Assume $u \in C^2(U_T) \cap C^0(\bar{U}_T)$ satisfies the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ on U_T and $u \equiv 0$ on the parabolic boundary Γ_T , then $u \equiv 0$ on \bar{U}_T .

Proof. This is a consequence of the maximum-minimum principle. \square

Example 3.47 (*Give this as an homework problem*) Let $u(x, t)$ be one of the following functions:

$$t + \frac{x^2}{2}, \quad e^{t+x}, \quad e^{t-x}, \quad e^{-t} \cos x, \quad e^{-t} \sin x, \quad e^t \cosh x, \quad e^t \sinh x, \quad (x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

They all satisfy the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ (note that $e^t \cosh x$ and $e^t \sinh x$ are linear combinations of e^{t+x} and e^{t-x}). Let $U_T = (0, 1) \times (0, T]$. We have

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (1). \max_{\bar{U}_T} \left(t + \frac{x^2}{2} \right) = T + \frac{1}{2}, \quad \text{attained at } (1, T) \in \Gamma_T := \bar{U}_T - U_T \\ (2). \max_{\bar{U}_T} (e^{t+x}) = e^{T+1}, \quad \text{attained at } (1, T) \in \Gamma_T \\ (3). \max_{\bar{U}_T} (e^{t-x}) = e^{T-0}, \quad \text{attained at } (0, T) \in \Gamma_T \\ (4). \max_{\bar{U}_T} (e^{-t} \cos x) = e^{-0} \cos 0 = 1, \quad \text{attained at } (0, 0) \in \Gamma_T \\ (5). \max_{\bar{U}_T} (e^{-t} \sin x) = e^{-0} \sin 1 = \sin 1, \quad \text{attained at } (1, 0) \in \Gamma_T \\ (6). \max_{\bar{U}_T} (e^t \cosh x) = e^T \cosh 1, \quad \text{attained at } (1, T) \in \Gamma_T \\ (7). \max_{\bar{U}_T} (e^t \sinh x) = e^T \sinh 1, \quad \text{attained at } (1, T) \in \Gamma_T. \end{array} \right.$$

From the above, we see that each solution attains its maximum point on the parabolic boundary Γ_T . Also note that the maximum can be attained at **any** corner point (there are four of them) of Γ_T .

One can also use **Energy Method** (integral method) to prove the following (without using the maximum principle):

Lemma 3.48 Assume $u \in C^2(\bar{U}_T)$ satisfies the heat equation $u_t = u_{xx}$ on U_T and $u \equiv 0$ on the parabolic boundary Γ_T , then $u \equiv 0$ on \bar{U}_T .

Proof. Let $E(t)$, $0 \leq t \leq T$, be the quantity

$$E(t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\ell u^2(x, t) dx \geq 0, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T.$$

Then $E(t)$ is a differentiable function on $[0, T]$, $E(0) = 0$, and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dE}{dt}(t) &= \int_0^\ell u(x, t) u_t(x, t) dx = \int_0^\ell u(x, t) u_{xx}(x, t) dx \\ &= \int_0^\ell \left[\left(\frac{d}{dx} [u(x, t) u_x(x, t)] \right) - (u_x(x, t))^2 \right] dx \\ &= [u(x, t) u_x(x, t)] \Big|_{x=0}^{x=\ell} - \int_0^\ell (u_x(x, t))^2 dx = - \int_0^\ell (u_x(x, t))^2 dx \leq 0. \end{aligned} \quad (79)$$

Hence we have

$$0 \leq E(t) \leq E(0) = 0, \quad \forall t \in [0, T]. \quad (80)$$

Thus $E(t) = 0$ for all time $t \in [0, T]$ and so $u \equiv 0$ on \bar{U}_T . \square

3.6 Discontinuous bounded initial data.

What happens if the initial condition $\phi(x)$ is a bounded function defined on $(-\infty, \infty)$ but discontinuous somewhere? (here we assume that $\phi(x)$ is discontinuous only at a **finite number** of points and at each discontinuous point x_0 both $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} \phi(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} \phi(x)$ exist).

We have the following interesting result:

Lemma 3.49 Let $\phi(x)$ be a **bounded** function defined on $(-\infty, \infty)$ and at $x = x_0$ it is **discontinuous** and satisfies

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} \phi(x) = A, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} \phi(x) = B, \quad \text{where } A \neq B \quad (81)$$

Then the function

$$u(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy, \quad x \in (-\infty, \infty), \quad t \in (0, \infty)$$

lies in the space $u \in C^\infty((-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty))$ and satisfies the heat equation

$$u_t(x, t) = u_{xx}(x, t), \quad \forall (x, t) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty) \quad (82)$$

with

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} u(x_0, t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x_0-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy = \frac{A+B}{2}. \quad (83)$$

Remark 3.50 (*Be careful.*) In general, the limit

$$\lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (x_0, 0^+)} u(x, t) \quad (\text{note that this is not the same as } \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} u(x_0, t)) \quad (84)$$

does not exist (see Example 3.51 below). On the other hand, if $\phi(x)$ is **continuous** at $x = x_1$, then we have

$$\lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (x_1, 0^+)} u(x, t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} u(x_1, t) = \phi(x_1). \quad (85)$$

Proof. It suffices to verify (83). Let $M = \sup_{\mathbb{R}} |\phi|$ and let

$$u(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy, \quad (x, t) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty). \quad (86)$$

Then (let $y = x_0 + \sqrt{4ts}$)

$$u(x_0, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-s^2} \phi(x_0 + \sqrt{4ts}) ds + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-s^2} \phi(x_0 + \sqrt{4ts}) ds. \quad (87)$$

For any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if $x \in (x_0, x_0 + \delta)$, then $|\phi(x) - A| < \varepsilon$. Hence the first integral in (87) satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-s^2} \phi(x_0 + \sqrt{4ts}) ds - \frac{A}{2} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-s^2} [\phi(x_0 + \sqrt{4ts}) - A] ds \right| \\ & \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\delta/\sqrt{4t}} e^{-s^2} |\phi(x_0 + \sqrt{4ts}) - A| ds + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{\delta/\sqrt{4t}}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} |\phi(x_0 + \sqrt{4ts}) - A| ds \\ & \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + 2M \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{\delta/\sqrt{4t}}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-s^2} \phi(x_0 + \sqrt{4ts}) ds = \frac{A}{2}.$$

Similarly, we have

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-s^2} \phi(x_0 + \sqrt{4ts}) ds = \frac{B}{2}.$$

The proof is done. □

Example 3.51 Let

$$\phi(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x > 0 \\ 0, & x < 0, \end{cases}, \quad \phi(x) \text{ is not continuous at } x = 0.$$

It is a bounded function. Define the function

$$u(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} dy$$

and let $y = x - \sqrt{4ts}$ to get (we will get the same result if we let $y = x + \sqrt{4ts}$)

$$\begin{aligned} u(x, t) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{x/\sqrt{4t}} e^{-s^2} ds = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\int_{-\infty}^0 + \int_0^{x/\sqrt{4t}} \right) e^{-s^2} ds \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{x/\sqrt{4t}} e^{-s^2} ds, \quad (x, t) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty). \end{aligned}$$

We note that

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} u(x, t) \in C^{\infty}((-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)) \text{ and } u_t = u_{xx} \text{ on } (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty) \\ \lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (x_0, 0^+)} u(x, t) = 1, \quad \text{if } x_0 > 0 \\ \lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (x_0, 0^+)} u(x, t) = 0, \quad \text{if } x_0 < 0 \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} u(0, t) = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1+0}{2}, \\ \lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (0, 0^+)} u(x, t) = \lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (0, 0^+)} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{x/\sqrt{4t}} e^{-s^2} ds \right) \text{ does not exist.} \end{array} \right. \quad (88)$$

The last limit in (88) does not exist is due to the fact that as $(x, t) \rightarrow (0, 0^+)$, the quantity $x/\sqrt{4t}$ can approach any possible number in $(-\infty, \infty)$. Hence the limit

$$\lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (0,0^+)} \int_0^{x/\sqrt{4t}} e^{-s^2} ds$$

does not exist.

Example 3.52 Let the initial data $\phi(x)$ be

$$\phi(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-x}, & x \in (0, \infty) \\ 0, & x \in (-\infty, 0). \end{cases}$$

ϕ is bounded but not continuous at $x = 0$. Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} u(x, t) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{(x-y)^2}{4t}} \phi(y) dy \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{x^2 - 2xy + y^2 + 4ty}{4t}} dy = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi t}} e^{-\frac{[y+(2t-x)]^2}{4t}} e^{t-x} dy \quad (\text{let } y = x - 2t + \sqrt{4ts}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{t-x} \int_{\frac{2t-x}{\sqrt{4t}}}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds, \quad (x, t) \in (-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty). \end{aligned}$$

It satisfies $u_t(x, t) = u_{xx}(x, t)$ on $(-\infty, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$ and

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (x_0, 0^+)} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{t-x} \int_{\frac{2t-x}{\sqrt{4t}}}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x_0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds = e^{-x_0}, \quad \text{if } x_0 > 0 \\ \lim_{(x,t) \rightarrow (x_0, 0^+)} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{t-x} \int_{\frac{2t-x}{\sqrt{4t}}}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x_0} \int_{\infty}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds = 0, \quad \text{if } x_0 < 0 \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} u(0, t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^t \int_{\frac{2t}{\sqrt{4t}}}^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-s^2} ds = \frac{1}{2}. \end{array} \right.$$

This is the end of parabolic equations.