

## Chapter 4

# Sobolev Spaces and PDE (M)

### 4.1 Sobolev spaces

#### 4.1.1 The spaces $W^{k,p}(\Omega)$

Suppose  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is an open set. For  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  and  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ , we say that  $f \in L^p(\Omega)$  belongs to the Sobolev space  $W^{k,p}(\Omega)$  if for any  $|\alpha| \leq k$  there exists  $f^\alpha \in L^p(\Omega)$  with:

$$D^\alpha T_f = T_{f^\alpha}.$$

We call  $f^\alpha$  the weak, or distributional derivative of  $f$  and write  $D^\alpha f := f^\alpha$ . We can equip  $W^{k,p}(\Omega)$  with the norm:

$$\|f\|_{W^{k,p}(\Omega)} := \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} \|D^\alpha f\|_{L^p(\Omega)}.$$

With this norm,  $W^{k,p}(\Omega)$  is complete, and hence a Banach space. The Sobolev spaces are particularly well suited to the study of PDE, and form the starting point for many modern PDE investigations.

We can think of  $k$  as telling us how *differentiable* our function is, while  $p$  tells us how *integrable* our function is. Roughly speaking spaces with larger  $k$  contain smoother functions, while spaces with larger  $p$  contain less ‘spiky’ functions. We shall see that (roughly speaking) one can trade smoothness for integrability: a function that belongs to  $W^{k,p}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  belongs to certain  $W^{l,q}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  where  $l < k$  and  $p > q$ . If  $k$  and  $p$  are large enough we can even conclude that the function must be classically differentiable.

We will frame the result as concerning the embedding of  $W^{k,p}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  spaces. Recall that a Banach space  $(X, \|\cdot\|_X)$  is said to embed continuously into the Banach space  $(Y, \|\cdot\|_Y)$  if  $X \subset Y$  and there exists a constant  $C$  such that:

$$\|x\|_Y \leq C \|x\|_X, \quad \text{for all } x \in X.$$

**Theorem 4.1** (Sobolev embedding theorem). *Suppose  $k > l$  and  $1 \leq p < q < \infty$  satisfy  $(k - l)p < n$  and:*

$$\frac{1}{q} = \frac{1}{p} - \frac{k - l}{n}.$$

Then  $W^{k,p}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  embeds continuously into  $W^{l,q}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ .

If  $kp > n$ , then  $W^{k,p}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  embeds continuously into the Hölder space  $C^{k-\lceil \frac{n}{p} \rceil - 1, \gamma}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , where  $[x]$  is the largest integer less than or equal to  $x$ , and

$$\gamma = \begin{cases} \lceil \frac{n}{p} \rceil - 1 + \frac{n}{p} & \frac{n}{p} \notin \mathbb{Z}, \\ \text{any element of } (0, 1) & \frac{n}{p} \in \mathbb{Z}. \end{cases}$$

Here we have introduced the Hölder space  $C^{m,\kappa}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  which consists of  $f \in C^m(\mathbb{R}^n)$  such that:

$$\|f\|_{C^{m,\kappa}(\mathbb{R}^n)} := \sum_{\alpha \leq m} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} |D^\alpha f(x)| + \sum_{\alpha=m} \sup_{x,y \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{|D^\alpha f(x) - D^\alpha f(y)|}{|x-y|^\kappa} < \infty.$$

We shan't attempt to prove the general Sobolev embedding theorems, but will establish a special case later on.

#### 4.1.2 The space $H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$

We shall immediately specialise to the case  $p = 2$  and  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^n$ . This is an important special case for two reasons. Firstly,  $W^{k,2}(\Omega)$  is a Hilbert space (in addition to being a Banach space), and so carries additional structure. Secondly,  $W^{k,2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is very well adapted to the Fourier transform. To see this, we recall that if  $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , then:

$$\widehat{T_f} = T_{\hat{f}}$$

where  $\hat{f} \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is the Fourier-Plancherel transform of  $f$ . We immediately obtain an alternative characterisation of the space  $W^{k,2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . A function  $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$  belongs to  $W^{k,2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  if and only if:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (1 + |\xi|)^{2k} |\hat{f}(\xi)|^2 d\xi < \infty.$$

Notice that in this characterisation there is no need to restrict  $k$  to be an integer. This motivates the following definition. For  $s \geq 0$  we say that  $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$  belongs to the space  $H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$  provided:

$$\|f\|_{H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)} := \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (1 + |\xi|)^{2s} |\hat{f}(\xi)|^2 d\xi \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} < \infty.$$

$H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is complete, and moreover is a Hilbert space. We see that if  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  then  $H^k(\mathbb{R}^n) = W^{k,2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Also  $H^0(\mathbb{R}^n) = L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ .

**Exercise 5.8.** Suppose  $s \geq 0$ .

- a) Show that  $\mathcal{S} \subset H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$ .
- b) Suppose  $f \in H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Show that given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $f_\epsilon \in \mathcal{S}$  with:

$$\|f - f_\epsilon\|_{H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)} < \epsilon.$$

*Hint: First find  $g_\epsilon \in \mathcal{S}$  such that*

$$\left\| (\hat{f} - g_\epsilon)(1 + |\xi|)^s \right\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)} < \epsilon.$$

c) Show that

$$\|f\|_{H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)} \leq \|f\|_{H^t(\mathbb{R}^n)}$$

for  $t \geq s$ . Deduce that:

$$\|f\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)} \leq \frac{1}{(2\pi)^n} \|f\|_{H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)}$$

*Hint: Use Parseval's formula*

d) Show that the derivative  $D^\alpha$  is a bounded linear map from  $H^{s+k}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  into  $H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , where  $k = |\alpha|$ .

An important feature of the Sobolev spaces  $H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is that for  $s$  sufficiently large, they embed into  $C^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . More precisely:

**Theorem 4.2.** *Suppose that  $f \in H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$  for some  $s > k + \frac{n}{2}$ , then (possibly after redefinition on a set of measure zero)  $f \in C^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . That is, we have:*

$$H^s(\mathbb{R}^n) \subset C^k(\mathbb{R}^n).$$

*Proof.* First suppose  $f \in \mathcal{S}$ . Then by the Fourier inversion theorem we have for  $|\alpha| \leq k$ :

$$D^\alpha f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^n} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{ix \cdot \xi} \xi^\alpha \hat{f}(\xi) d\xi.$$

We estimate with the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:

$$\begin{aligned} |D^\alpha f(x)| &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^n} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{ix \cdot \xi} \xi^\alpha \hat{f}(\xi) d\xi \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{(2\pi)^n} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left| \xi^\alpha \hat{f}(\xi) \right| d\xi \\ &\leq \frac{1}{(2\pi)^n} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (1 + |\xi|)^{2s} \left| \hat{f}(\xi) \right|^2 d\xi \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{|\xi^\alpha|^2}{(1 + |\xi|)^{2s}} d\xi \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Now, since  $|\xi^\alpha|^2 \leq c_k (1 + |\xi|)^{2k}$  for some  $c_k > 0$ , we have that:

$$\frac{1}{(2\pi)^n} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{|\xi^\alpha|^2}{(1 + |\xi|)^{2s}} d\xi \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq \frac{c_k}{(2\pi)^n} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{(1 + |\xi|)^{2s-2k}} d\xi \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} =: C_{n,k,s} < \infty$$

where we have used  $s > k + \frac{n}{2}$  in order to ensure that the integral converges. We thus have that:

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} |D^\alpha f(x)| \leq C_{n,k,s} \|f\|_{H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)}. \quad (4.1)$$

The result follows by the density of  $\mathcal{S}$  in  $H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$ .  $\square$

[*Details of density argument. Unexamitable/*] Suppose that  $f \in H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . We can find  $f_j \in \mathcal{S}$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots$  such that:

$$\|f - f_j\|_{H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)} < \frac{1}{j}.$$

Since  $\{f_j\}_{j=1}^\infty$  converges in  $H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , it is necessarily Cauchy, so given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $J$  such that for all  $j, l > J$  we have:

$$\|f_j - f_l\|_{H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)} < \epsilon.$$

Applying the estimate (4.1), we deduce that:

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} |D^\alpha f_j(x) - D^\alpha f_l(x)| \leq C_{n,k,s} \epsilon$$

Thus  $\{D^\alpha f_j\}_{j=1}^\infty$  is a Cauchy sequence in the Banach space of bounded continuous functions with the sup norm. We deduce that there exist  $\tilde{f}^\alpha \in C^0(\mathbb{R}^n)$  such that  $D^\alpha f_j \rightarrow \tilde{f}^\alpha$  uniformly. By a result in analysis,  $\tilde{f}^\alpha = D^\alpha \tilde{f}$  for  $\tilde{f} = \tilde{f}^0$ . We've established that  $f \rightarrow \tilde{f}$  uniformly, for some  $\tilde{f} \in C^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . We also know that  $f_j \rightarrow f$  in  $L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . We claim that  $f = \tilde{f}$  almost everywhere. To see this, suppose  $\psi \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and consider:

$$I_j := \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (f - f_j)(x) \psi(x) dx.$$

By Cauchy-Schwarz we have:

$$|I_j| \leq \|f - f_j\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)} \|\psi\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)}$$

so  $I_j \rightarrow 0$  as  $j \rightarrow \infty$ . On the other hand, since  $f_j \rightarrow \tilde{f}$  uniformly, we have:

$$I_j \rightarrow \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (f(x) - \tilde{f}(x)) \psi(x) dx.$$

Thus:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (f(x) - \tilde{f}(x)) \psi(x) dx = 0$$

for any  $\psi \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , which implies  $f = \tilde{f}$  almost everywhere.

## 4.2 PDE Examples

### 4.2.1 Helmholtz equation

Recall that the inhomogeneous Helmholtz equation is:

$$\Delta u + k^2 u = f$$

where  $f$  is given and we wish to find  $u$ . Suppose that  $f \in H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$  for some  $s \geq 0$ . We claim that there is a unique solution  $u \in H^{s+2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . The assumptions permit us to take the Fourier transform of Helmholtz equation so we find:

$$\hat{u}(\xi) = \frac{\hat{f}(\xi)}{|\xi|^2 + k^2}.$$

Since  $|\xi|^2 + k^2 \geq C(1 + |\xi|^2)$  we deduce that:

$$\|u\|_{H^{s+2}(\mathbb{R}^n)} \leq C \|f\|_{H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)}.$$

Thus we indeed have that  $u \in H^{s+2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Uniqueness follows from the injectivity of the Fourier transform. Note that if  $s > \frac{n}{2}$  then  $f \in C^0(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $u \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , so that we in fact have a classical solution to the PDE.

### 4.2.2 Spaces involving time

For certain PDE problems it's useful to separate out the time direction from the spatial directions. To do this, it's useful to introduce some new function spaces:

**Definition 4.1.** *Given a Banach space  $(X, \|\cdot\|_X)$ , and an interval  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ , the space  $C^0(I; X)$  is the space of continuous functions  $\mathbf{u} : I \rightarrow X$ .*

*If  $I$  is open, we define  $C^k(I; X)$  for  $k \geq 0$  inductively as follows. We say  $\mathbf{u} \in C^{k-1}(I; X)$  belongs to  $C^k(I, X)$  if there exists  $\mathbf{u}' \in C^{k-1}(I; X)$  such that for each  $t \in I$ :*

$$\left\| \frac{\mathbf{u}(t + \epsilon) - \mathbf{u}(t)}{\epsilon} - \mathbf{u}'(t) \right\|_X \rightarrow 0, \quad \text{as } \epsilon \rightarrow 0.$$

A typical example of  $X$  will be one of the space  $H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$  for  $s > 0$ .

### 4.2.3 The heat equation

Let us now give another example to show how powerful the Fourier transform can be for solving PDE problems. Let us consider the heat equation on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The problem we shall consider is, given  $u_0 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , determine  $u : \mathbb{R}^n \times [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that

$$\begin{cases} u_t = \Delta u & \text{in } (0, T) \times \mathbb{R}^n, \\ u = u_0 & \text{on } \{0\} \times \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases} \quad (4.2)$$

We suppose that our solution is a continuous mapping from  $(0, T)$  into  $H^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , i.e. for each fixed  $t$  we wish  $u(t, \cdot) =: \mathbf{u}(t)$  to be an element of  $H^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . In terms of the function spaces above  $\mathbf{u} \in C^0((0, T); H^2(\mathbb{R}^n))$ . We will also suppose that  $u$  is continuously differentiable as a mapping from  $(0, T)$  into  $L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . In other words,  $\mathbf{u} \in C^1((0, T); L^2(\mathbb{R}^n))$ . Finally, we wish for the initial condition to make sense, so we also require  $\mathbf{u} \in C^0([0, T]; L^2(\mathbb{R}^n))$ .

**Exercise(\*)**. Show that if  $u \in C^0((0, T); H^2(\mathbb{R}^n)) \cap C^1((0, T); L^2(\mathbb{R}^n))$ , then denoting by  $\hat{u}$  the Fourier transform of  $u$  in the spatial variables:

$$\hat{u}(t, \xi) = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{B_R(0)} u(t, x) e^{-ix \cdot \xi} dx,$$

we have  $\hat{u} \in C^0((0, T); L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)) \cap C^1((0, T); L^2(\mathbb{R}^n))$ .

Let us, then, seek a solution of (4.2) such that

$$\mathbf{u} \in C^0([0, T]; L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)) \cap C^0((0, T); H^2(\mathbb{R}^n)) \cap C^1((0, T); L^2(\mathbb{R}^n))$$

Under this assumption we can take the Fourier transform of (4.2) for  $(t, x) \in (0, T) \times \mathbb{R}^n$  to get:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{u}_t(t, \xi) &= -|\xi|^2 \hat{u}(t, \xi) & (t, \xi) \in (0, T) \times \mathbb{R}^n, \\ \hat{u}(0, \xi) &= \hat{u}_0(\xi) & \xi \in \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases}$$

Now, the PDE has become an ODE for each fixed  $\xi$ ! This ODE has a unique solution given for almost every  $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$  by:

$$\hat{u}(t, \xi) = \hat{u}_0(\xi) e^{-t|\xi|^2}.$$

We note that if  $u_0 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , then  $\hat{u}_0 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and thus  $\hat{u} \in C^0([0, T]; L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)) \cap C^1((0, T); L^2(\mathbb{R}^n))$ . In fact, for  $t > 0$ , we have that  $\hat{u}(t, \xi)$  and  $\hat{u}_t(t, \xi)$  are rapidly decaying functions of  $\xi$ , in particular they belong to  $H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)$  for any  $s \geq 0$ , so we have that  $u(t, x)$  is smooth in  $x$ . Since  $u$  satisfies the equation  $(\partial_t)^n u = (\Delta)^n u$ , we have that  $u$  is smooth in both  $t$  and  $x$ . We can recover  $u(t, x)$  via the inverse Fourier transform formula:

$$u(t, x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^n} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \hat{u}_0(\xi) e^{-t|\xi|^2} e^{i\xi \cdot x} d\xi. \quad (4.3)$$

Summarising, we have the following result:

**Lemma 4.3.** *Suppose  $u_0 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Then (4.2) admits a unique solution  $u$  such that*

$$u \in C^0([0, T]; L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)) \cap C^1((0, T); H^2(\mathbb{R}^n)) \cap C^1((0, T); L^2(\mathbb{R}^n))$$

given by (4.3). In fact,

$$u \in C^\infty((0, T) \times \mathbb{R}^n).$$

Even with very rough initial data, the heat equation instantaneously gives a smooth solution. This is an example of what is known as *parabolic regularity*.

**Exercise 5.9.** Suppose that  $u_0 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and that  $u(t, x)$  is the solution of the heat equation with initial data  $u_0$ . Explicitly,  $u$  is given by:

$$u(t, x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^n} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \hat{u}_0(\xi) e^{-t|\xi|^2} e^{i\xi \cdot x} d\xi,$$

for  $t > 0$ .

a) Show that:

$$\|u(t, \cdot)\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)} \leq \|u_0\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)},$$

b) Show that:

$$u(t, x) = u_0 \star K_t(x)$$

where the *heat kernel* is given by:

$$K_t(x) = \frac{1}{(4\pi t)^{\frac{n}{2}}} e^{-\frac{|x|^2}{4t}}.$$

c) Suppose that  $u_0 \geq 0$ . Show that  $u \geq 0$ , and:

$$\|u(t, \cdot)\|_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)} = \|u_0\|_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)}.$$

[Hint: Lemma 1.9 may be useful]

**Exercise 5.10.** Consider the Schrödinger equation:

$$\begin{cases} u_t = i\Delta u & \text{in } (0, T) \times \mathbb{R}^n, \\ u = u_0 & \text{on } \{0\} \times \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases} \quad (4.4)$$

Suppose  $u_0 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ .

a) Show that (4.4) admits a unique solution  $u$  such that

$$\mathbf{u} \in C^0([0, T); H^2(\mathbb{R}^n)) \cap C^1((0, T); L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)),$$

whose spatial Fourier-Plancherel transform is given by:

$$\hat{u}(t, \xi) = \hat{u}_0(\xi) e^{-it|\xi|^2}.$$

b) Show that:

$$\|u(t, \cdot)\|_{H^2(\mathbb{R}^n)} = \|u_0\|_{H^2(\mathbb{R}^n)}$$

\*c) For  $t > 0$ , let  $K_t \in L^1_{loc.}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  be given by:

$$K_t(x) = \frac{1}{(4\pi i t)^{\frac{n}{2}}} e^{\frac{i|x|^2}{4t}},$$

where for  $n$  odd we take the usual branch cut so that  $i^{\frac{1}{2}} = e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}}$ . For  $\epsilon > 0$  set  $K_t^\epsilon(x) = e^{-\epsilon|x|^2} K_t(x)$ .

i) Show that  $T_{K_t^\epsilon} \rightarrow T_{K_t}$  in  $\mathcal{S}'$  as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ .

ii) Show that if  $\Re(\sigma) > 0$ , then:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-\sigma x^2 - ix\xi} dx = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\sigma}} e^{-\frac{\xi^2}{4\sigma}}.$$

iii) Deduce that

$$\widehat{K_t^\epsilon}(\xi) = \left( \frac{1}{1 + 4it\epsilon} \right)^{\frac{n}{2}} e^{\frac{-it|\xi|^2}{1 + 4it\epsilon}}$$

iv) Conclude that:

$$\widehat{T_{K_t}} = T_{\tilde{K}_t},$$

where  $\tilde{K}_t = e^{-it|\xi|^2}$ .

\*d) Suppose that  $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . Show that for  $t > 0$ :

$$u(t, x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} u_0(y) K_t(x - y) dy,$$

and deduce:

$$\sup_{t>0, x \in \mathbb{R}^n} |u(t, x)| \leq \frac{1}{(4\pi t)^{\frac{n}{2}}} \|\hat{u}_0\|_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)}.$$

This type of estimate which shows us that (locally) solutions to the Schrödinger equation decay in time is known as a *dispersive estimate*.

#### 4.2.4 The wave equation

Now let us consider the wave equation on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The problem we shall consider is, given  $u_0, u_1 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , determine  $u : \mathbb{R}^n \times (-T, T) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that

$$\begin{cases} u_{tt} = \Delta u & \text{in } (-T, T) \times \mathbb{R}^n, \\ u = u_0 & \text{on } \{0\} \times \mathbb{R}^n \\ u_t = u_1 & \text{on } \{0\} \times \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases} \quad (4.5)$$

We will seek a solution in the space:

$$X_s := C^0((-T, T), H^{s+2}(\mathbb{R}^n)) \cap C^2((-T, T) \times H^s(\mathbb{R}^n)).$$

Fourier transforming in the spatial variable, we have:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{u}_{tt}(t, \xi) = -|\xi|^2 \hat{u}(t, \xi) & (t, \xi) \in (-T, T) \times \mathbb{R}^n, \\ \hat{u}(0, \xi) = \hat{u}_0(\xi) & \xi \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ \hat{u}_t(0, \xi) = \hat{u}_1(\xi) & \xi \in \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases}$$

Again, this is an ODE for each fixed  $\xi$ , and we deduce:

$$\hat{u}(t, \xi) = \hat{u}_0(\xi) \cos(|\xi|t) + \hat{u}_1(\xi) \frac{\sin(|\xi|t)}{|\xi|}$$

Notice that if  $u_0 \in H^{s+2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $u_1 \in H^{s+1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , then we conclude  $\hat{u} \in X_s$ . Thus (after taking the inverse Fourier transform) we have found the unique solution of the wave equation in  $X_s$ .

Let's specialise to  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . We'd like to write this solution as some sort of convolution, at least for initial data in the Schwarz class. For this we need to find the (inverse) Fourier transform of  $\cos(|\xi|t)$  and  $\frac{\sin(|\xi|t)}{|\xi|}$ , where we have to understand these functions as tempered distributions. Let us define, for  $t > 0$  the distribution:

$$U_t[\phi] = \frac{1}{4\pi t} \int_{\partial B_t(0)} \phi(y) d\sigma_y$$

for all  $\phi \in \mathcal{S}'$ , where  $d\sigma_y$  is the surface measure on the sphere  $\partial B_t(0)$ . This is a distribution of compact support, so we can invoke Theorem 3.13 to find the Fourier transform:

$$\widehat{U}_t = T_{\hat{v}_t}$$

where:

$$\hat{v}_t(\xi) = U_t[e_{-\xi}] = \frac{1}{4\pi t} \int_{\partial B_t(0)} e^{-i\xi \cdot y} d\sigma_y$$

We can perform this integral by choosing spherical polar coordinates for  $y$  with the axis aligned with the vector  $\xi$ . Doing so, the integral becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{v}_t(\xi) &= \frac{1}{4\pi t} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} e^{-i|\xi|t \cos \theta} t^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \\ &= \frac{t}{2} \int_{-1}^1 e^{-i|\xi|t z} dz = \frac{t}{2} \left( \frac{e^{-i|\xi|t}}{-i|\xi|t} - \frac{e^{i|\xi|t}}{-i|\xi|t} \right) \\ &= \frac{\sin(|\xi|t)}{|\xi|}. \end{aligned}$$

Now, let us return to our expression for  $u$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{u}(\xi) &= \hat{u}_0(\xi) \cos(|\xi|t) + \hat{u}_1(\xi) \frac{\sin(|\xi|t)}{|\xi|} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \hat{u}_0(\xi) \frac{\sin(|\xi|t)}{|\xi|} \right) + \hat{u}_1(\xi) \frac{\sin(|\xi|t)}{|\xi|} \end{aligned}$$

Suppose  $u_0, u_1 \in \mathcal{S}$ . Then by Theorem 3.10, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} u(t, x) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} U_t \star u_0(x) + U_t \star u_1(x) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{1}{4\pi t} \int_{\partial B_t(0)} u_0(x - y) d\sigma_y \right) + \frac{1}{4\pi t} \int_{\partial B_t(0)} u_1(x - y) d\sigma_y \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{1}{4\pi t} \int_{\partial B_t(x)} u_0(y) d\sigma_y \right) + \frac{1}{4\pi t} \int_{\partial B_t(x)} u_1(y) d\sigma_y \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( t \int_{\partial B_t(x)} u_0(y) d\sigma_y \right) + t \int_{\partial B_t(x)} u_1(y) d\sigma_y \end{aligned} \tag{4.6}$$

Where for a surface  $\Sigma$  with surface measure  $\sigma$ :

$$\int_{\Sigma} d\sigma := \frac{1}{|\Sigma|} \oint_{\Sigma} d\sigma.$$

Expression (4.6) is known as Kirchoff's formula. While our derivation assumes  $u_0, u_1 \in \mathcal{S}$ , this assumption can be relaxed. This expression tells us some interesting facts about solutions to the wave equation. First note that the value of  $u(x, t)$  depends only on the initial data on the sphere  $\partial B_t(x)$ . This is known as the strong Huygens principle. In particular this shows us that information is propagated at a *finite speed* by the wave equation. Secondly, note that the value of  $u(x, t)$  depends on *derivatives* of  $u_0$ . This suggests that  $C^k$ -regularity is not propagated in wave evolution, although we have already seen that  $H^s$ -regularity is propagated.

**Exercise 5.11.** Let  $\mathbb{R}_*^3 := \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{0\}$ ,  $S_{*,T} := (-T, T) \times \mathbb{R}_*^3$  and  $|x| = r$ . You may assume the result that if  $u = u(r, t)$  is radial, we have

$$\Delta u(|x|, t) = \Delta u(r, t) = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial r^2}(r, t) + \frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r}(r, t)$$

a) Suppose  $u(x, t) = \frac{1}{r}v(r, t)$  for some function  $v$ . Show that  $u$  solves the wave equation on  $\mathbb{R}_*^3 \times (0, T)$  if and only if  $v$  satisfies the one-dimensional wave equation

$$-\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial r^2} = 0$$

on  $(0, \infty) \times (-T, T)$ .

b) Suppose  $f, g \in C_c^2(\mathbb{R})$ . Deduce that

$$u(x, t) = \frac{f(r+t)}{r} + \frac{g(r-t)}{r}$$

is a solution of the wave equation on  $S_{*,T}$  which vanishes for large  $|x|$ .

c) Show that if  $f \in C_c^3(\mathbb{R})$  is an odd function (i.e.  $f(s) = -f(-s)$  for all  $s$ ) then

$$u(x, t) = \frac{f(r+t) + f(r-t)}{2r}$$

extends as a  $C^2$  function which solves the wave equation on  $S_T := (-T, T) \times \mathbb{R}^3$ , with

$$u(0, t) = f'(t).$$

\*d) By considering a suitable sequence of functions  $f$ , or otherwise, deduce that there exists no constant  $C$  independent of  $u$  such that the estimate

$$\sup_{S_T} (|u| + |u_t|) \leq C \sup_{\Sigma_0} (|u| + |u_t|)$$

holds for all solutions  $u \in C^2(S_T)$  of the wave equation which vanish for large  $|x|$ .