# QRIDC301: Engineering Nathematics <br> Lecture Notes: Fourier Analysis: Part C 

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## 1. Orthogonal Functions <br> 2. Fourier Series <br> 3. Fourier Cosine and Sine Series <br> 4. Complex Fourier Series

5. Fourier transform

## 6. Boundary-Value Problems in Rectangular Coordinates

## 5. Fourier transform

- Fourier series enable functions and solutions of linear systems defined over a finite interval to be represented as an infinite series of sines and cosines. This suffices for many physical problems.
- When working with partial differential equations that describe heat conduction and diffusion in a half-space, Fourier series cannot be used.
- If a nonperiodic function is to be represented over an arbitrarily large interval, some generalization of a Fourier series is required.
- Letting $L \rightarrow \infty$ in a Fourier series leads to the introduction of a different type of representation called a Fourier integral representation, where the function $f(x)$ is defined for all $x$ and need not be periodic. This representation forms the basis of an integral transform called the Fourier transform.

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(x)=\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_{n} e^{i n \pi x / L}, \quad c_{n}=\frac{1}{2 L} \int_{-L}^{L} f(x) e^{-i n \pi x / L} d x \\
f(x)=\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i n \pi x / L} \frac{1}{2 L} \int_{-L}^{L} f(u) e^{-i n \pi u / L} d u
\end{gathered}
$$

Let $\omega_{n}=n \pi / L$ and $\Delta \omega_{n}=\omega_{n+1}-\omega_{n}=\pi / L$

$$
f(x)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} F\left(\omega_{n}\right) e^{i \omega_{n} x} \Delta \omega_{n}, \quad F\left(\omega_{n}\right)=\int_{-L}^{L} f(u) e^{-i n \pi u / L} d u
$$

As $L \rightarrow \infty \omega_{n} \rightarrow \omega$ and $\Delta \omega_{n} \rightarrow d \omega$

$$
f(x)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) e^{i \omega x} d \omega, \quad F(\omega)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i \omega x} d x
$$

Fourier Transform and Its Inverse

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F(\omega)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i \omega x} d x \quad \text { Fourier transform } \\
& f(x)=\mathcal{F}^{-1}\{F(\omega)\}=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) e^{i \omega x} d \omega \quad \text { Inverse Fourier transform }
\end{aligned}
$$

- Theorem 5 (Existence of the Fourier Transform): If $f(x)$ is absolutely integrable on the $x$-axis and piecewise continuous on every finite interval, then the Fourier transform $F(\omega)$ exists.
- Example 17: Fourier Transform

Find the Fourier transform of $f(x)=1$ if $|x|<1$ and $f(x)=0$ otherwise.

$$
F(\omega)=\int_{-1}^{1} 1 \cdot e^{-i \omega x} d x=\left.\frac{e^{-i \omega x}}{-i \omega}\right|_{-1} ^{1}=\frac{1}{-i \omega}\left(e^{-i \omega}-e^{i \omega}\right)=2 \frac{\sin \omega}{\omega}=2 \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega}{\pi}\right)
$$

- Example 18: Fourier Transform Find the Fourier transform of $f(x)=e^{-a x}$ if $x>0$ and $f(x)=0$ if $x<0, a>0$

$$
F(\omega)=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-a x} \cdot e^{-i \omega x} d x=\left.\frac{e^{-(a+i \omega) x}}{-(a+i \omega)}\right|_{0} ^{\infty}=\frac{1}{a+i \omega}
$$

- Example 19: Fourier Transform for the Delta Dirac Function

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \delta(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
0 & \text { if } x \neq 0 \\
\text { undefined } & \text { if } x=0
\end{array} \quad \text { and } \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) d x=1\right. \\
& f(x) \delta(x-a)=f(a) \delta(x-a) \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \delta(x-a) d x=f(a)
\end{aligned}
$$

$\mathcal{F}\{\delta(x)\}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) e^{-i \omega x} d x=\left.e^{-i \omega x}\right|_{x=0}=1$
$\mathcal{F}\{\delta(x-a)\}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x-a) e^{-i \omega x} d x=\left.e^{-i \omega x}\right|_{x=a}=e^{-i \omega a}$

## properties of the Fourier transform

- Theorem 6 (Linearity of the Fourier Transform): The Fourier transform is a linear operation; that is, for any functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ whose Fourier transforms exist and any constants $a$ and $b$, the Fourier transform of $a f+b g$ exists, and

$$
\mathcal{F}\{a f(x)+b g(x)\}=a \mathcal{F}\{f(x)\}+b \mathcal{F}\{g(x)\}
$$

- Theorem 7 (Differentiation in the time domain): Let $f(x)$ be continuous on the $x$ axis and $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $|x| \rightarrow \infty$. Furthermore, let $f^{\prime}(x)$ be absolutely integrable on the $x$-axis. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{F}\left\{f^{\prime}(x)\right\} & =i \omega \mathcal{F}\{f(x)\} \\
\mathcal{F}\left\{f^{(n)}(x)\right\} & =(i \omega)^{n} \mathcal{F}\{f(x)\}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Theorem 8 (Differentiation in the frequency domain): Let $f(x)$ be a continuous and differentiable function with an $n$ times differentiable Fourier transform $F(\omega)$. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathcal{F}\{x f(x)\}=i \frac{d}{d \omega}[F(\omega)] \\
\mathcal{F}\left\{x^{n} f(x)\right\}=i^{n} \frac{d^{n}}{d \omega^{n}}[F(\omega)]
\end{gathered}
$$

for all $n$ such that $F^{(n)}(\omega) \rightarrow 0$ as $|\omega| \rightarrow \infty$

- Example 20: Fourier Transform

Find the Fourier transform of $f(x)=e^{-a^{2} x^{2}}, a>0$
The function $f(x)$ is continuous and differentiable for all $x$ and

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left|e^{-a^{2} x^{2}}\right| d x=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-a^{2} x^{2}} d x=\frac{1}{a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-u^{2}} d u=\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{a}
$$

absolutely integrable over the interval $(-\infty, \infty) . f(x)$ satisfies the differential equation: $f^{\prime}+2 a^{2} x f=0$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{F}\left\{f^{\prime}(x)\right\}+2 a^{2} \mathcal{F}\{x f(x)\}=0 \Rightarrow 2 a^{2} F^{\prime}(\omega)+\omega F(\omega)=0 \\
& \int \frac{F^{\prime}}{F} d \omega=-\frac{1}{2 a^{2}} \int \omega d \omega \Rightarrow \ln F(\omega)=-\frac{\omega^{2}}{4 a^{2}}+\ln A \Rightarrow F(\omega)=A e^{-\frac{\omega^{2}}{4 a^{2}}} \\
& F(\omega)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i \omega x} d x \Rightarrow F(0)=A=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) d x=\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{a} \\
& F(\omega)=F\{f(x)\}=\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{a} e^{-\frac{\omega^{2}}{4 a^{2}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Fourier transform of a Gaussian

$$
f(x)=e^{-\pi x^{2}} \text { Normalized Gaussian function } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^{2}} d x=1
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F(\omega)=F\{f(x)\}=e^{-\frac{\omega^{2}}{4 a^{2}}} \\
& \omega=2 \pi f \Rightarrow F(f)=e^{-\pi f^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

The Gaussian $f(x)=e^{-\pi x^{2}}$ is its own Fourier transform.
Convolution property

$$
(f * g)(x)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) g(x-t) d t=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x-t) g(t) d t
$$

- Theorem 9 (The convolution theorem for Fourier transforms): Let the functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be piecewise continuous, bounded, and absolutely integrable over $(-\infty, \infty)$ with the respective Fourier transforms $F(\omega)$ and $G(\omega)$. Then

$$
\mathcal{F}\{(f * g)(x)\}=\mathcal{F}\{f(x)\} \mathcal{F}\{g(x)\}=F(\omega) G(\omega)
$$

and, conversely,


- Example 21: Fourier Transform It was shown in Example 17 that the function $f(x)=1$ if $|x|<1$ and $f(x)=0$ otherwise, has the Fourier transform $F(\omega)=2 \operatorname{sinc}(\omega / \pi)$, so by the convolution theorem it follows that $\mathcal{F}\{(f * f)(x)\}=F(\omega) F(\omega)=4 \operatorname{sinc}^{2}(\omega / \pi)$.
Confirm this result by calculating $(f * f)(x)$ and finding its Fourier transform.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(t) f(x-t)= \begin{cases}1, & -1<t<x+1,(-2<x<0) \\
0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \\
& f(t) f(x-t)= \begin{cases}1, & x-1<t<1,(0<x<2) \\
0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
(f * f)(x) & =\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\int_{-1}^{x+1} d t & =2+x, \quad(-2<x<0) \\
\int_{x-1}^{1} d t & =2-x, \quad(0<x<2)
\end{array} \text { and }(f * f)(x)=0\right. \text { otherwise } \\
\mathcal{F}\{(f * f)(x)\} & =\int_{-2}^{0}(2+x) e^{-i \omega x} d x+\int_{0}^{2}(2-x) e^{-i \omega x} d x \\
& =2 \frac{1-\cos 2 \omega}{\omega^{2}}=4 \frac{\sin ^{2} \omega}{\omega^{2}}=4 \operatorname{sinc}^{2}\left(\frac{\pi}{\omega}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Parseval formula

- Theorem 10 (The Parseval relation for the Fourier transforms): If $f(x)$ has the Fourier transforms $F(\omega)$, Then

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}|f(x)|^{2} d x=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty}|F(\omega)|^{2} d \omega
$$

- Example 22: Using Parseval formula

Using the result of Example 17 and the Parseval relation, show that

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin ^{2} \omega}{\omega^{2}} d \omega=\pi
$$

The Fourier transform of $f(x)=1$ if $|x|<1$ and $f(x)=0$ otherwise is

$$
\begin{gathered}
F(\omega)=2 \frac{\sin \omega}{\omega} \\
\int_{-1}^{1} 1^{2} d x=2=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 4 \frac{\sin ^{2} \omega}{\omega^{2}} d \omega \Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin ^{2} \omega}{\omega^{2}} d \omega=\pi
\end{gathered}
$$

- Theorem 11 (Fourier transforms involving scaling $x$ by $a$, shifting $x$ by $a$, and shifting $\omega$ by $\omega_{0}$ ): If $f(x)$ has the Fourier transforms $F(\omega)$, Then:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{F}\{f(a x)\}=\frac{1}{a} F(\omega / a), a>0 \\
& \mathcal{F}\{f(x-a)\}=e^{-i \omega a} F(\omega) \\
& \mathcal{F}\left\{e^{i \omega_{0} x} f(x)\right\}=F\left(\omega-\omega_{0}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Duality property

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(x)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) e^{i \omega x} d \omega \Rightarrow 2 \pi f(x)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) e^{i \omega x} d \omega=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\lambda) e^{i \lambda x} d \lambda \\
2 \pi f(-\omega)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\lambda) e^{-i \omega \lambda} d \lambda=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(x) e^{-i \omega x} d x=\mathcal{F}\{F(x)\} \\
\mathcal{F}\{F(x)\}=2 \pi f(-\omega)
\end{gathered}
$$

- Example 23: Fourier transform of $f(x)=1$ Find the Fourier transform of $f(x)=1$
$F(\omega)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i \omega x} d x=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i \omega x} d x$ could not be evaluated
The signal $f(x)=1$ does not satisfy the existence conditions; it is neither absolute integrable nor square integrable. Its FT does not converge.

$$
\mathcal{F}\{\delta(t)\}=1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathcal{F}\{1\}=2 \pi \delta(-\omega)=2 \pi \delta(\omega)
$$

- Example 24: Fourier transform of the signum function

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x)=\operatorname{sgn}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
-1, & x<0 \\
1, & x>0
\end{array}\right. \\
& F(\omega)=\int_{-\infty}^{0}(-1) e^{-i \omega x} d x+\int_{0}^{\infty}(1) e^{-i \omega x} d x
\end{aligned}
$$



The two integrals cannot be evaluated. Instead, we will define an intermediate signal $f_{a}(x)$ as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{a}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
-e^{a x}, & x<0 \\
e^{-a x}, & x>0
\end{array}, \text { where } a \geq 0\right. \\
& F_{a}(\omega)=\int_{-\infty}^{0}\left(-e^{a t}\right) e^{-i \omega t} d t+\int_{0}^{\infty}\left(e^{-a t}\right) e^{-i \omega t} d t=-\frac{i 2 \omega}{a^{2}+\omega^{2}} \\
& F(\omega)=\mathcal{F}\{\operatorname{sgn}(x)\}=\lim _{a \rightarrow 0}\left[-\frac{i 2 \omega}{a^{2}+\omega^{2}}\right]=\frac{2}{i \omega}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Example 25: Fourier transform of the unit step function

$$
f(x)=H(x)= \begin{cases}0, & x<0 \\ 1, & x>0\end{cases}
$$


$\mathcal{F}\{H(x)\}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(x) e^{-i \omega x} d x=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-i \omega x} d x \quad$ could not be evaluated

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H(x)=1 / 2+1 / 2 \operatorname{sgn}(x) \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}\{H(x)\}=\mathcal{F}\{1 / 2+1 / 2 \operatorname{sgn}(x)\} \\
& \mathcal{F}\{H(x)\}=\pi \delta(\omega)+\frac{1}{i \omega}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 6. Boundary-Value Problems in Rectangular Coordinates

## Separable Partial Differential Equations PDEs

- A PDE is an equation that contains one or more partial derivatives of an unknown function, call it $u$, that depends on at least two variables. Usually one of these deals with time $t$ and the remaining with space (spatial variable(s)).
- The most important PDEs are the wave equations that can model the vibrating string and the vibrating membrane, the heat equation for temperature in a bar or wire, and the Laplace equation for electrostatic potentials.
- PDEs are very important in dynamics, elasticity, heat transfer, electromagnetic theory, and quantum mechanics.
- PDEs, like ordinary differential equations (ODEs), are classified as either linear or nonlinear.
- The dependent variable $u$ and its partial derivatives in a linear PDE are only to the first power. We shall be interested in linear second-order PDEs.
- Example 26: Important Second-Order PDEs

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial t^{2}}=c^{2} \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}} & \text { One-dimensional wave equation } \\
\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}=c^{2} \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}} & \text { One-dimensional heat equation }
\end{array}
$$

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Two-dimensional Laplace equation

$$
\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial t^{2}}=c^{2}\left(\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}+\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial y^{2}}\right) \text { Two-dimensional wave equation }
$$

- the general form of a linear second-order PDE is given by:

$$
A \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}+B \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x \partial y}+C \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial y^{2}}+D \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+E \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}+F u=G
$$

where the coefficients $A, B, C, \ldots, G$ are functions of $x$ and $y$. When $G(x, y)=0$, the equation is said to be homogeneous; otherwise, it is nonhomogeneous.

- A solution of a linear PDE is a function $u(x, y)$ of two independent variables that possesses all partial derivatives occurring in the equation and that satisfies the equation in some region of the $x y$-plane.


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- It is often difficult to obtain a general solution of a linear second-order PDE. In general, the totality of solutions of a PDE is very large. For example, the functions: $u=x^{2}-y^{2}, \quad u=e^{x} \cos y, \quad u=\sin x \cosh y, \quad u=\ln \left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)$ which are entirely different from each other, are solutions of 2D Laplace equation.
- Thus our focus throughout will be on finding particular solutions of some of the more important linear PDEs.
- There are several methods that can be tried to find particular solutions of a linear PDE, the one we are interested is called the method of separation of variables. In this method we seek a particular solution of the form of a product of a function of $\mathbf{x}$ and a function of $\mathbf{y}: u(x, y)=X(x) Y(y)$

$$
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}=X^{\prime} Y, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}=X Y^{\prime}, \quad \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}=X^{\prime \prime} Y, \quad \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial y^{2}}=X Y^{\prime \prime}
$$

- Example 27: Separation of Variables

Find product solutions of $\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}=4 \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$
Substituting $u(x, y)=X(x) Y(y)$ into the partial differential equation

$$
X^{\prime \prime} Y=4 X Y^{\prime} \Rightarrow \frac{X^{\prime \prime}}{4 X}=\frac{Y^{\prime}}{Y}
$$

Since the left-hand side of the last equation is independent of $y$ and is equal to the right-hand side, which is independent of $x$, we conclude that both sides of the equation are independent of $x$ and $y$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{X^{\prime \prime}}{4 X}=\frac{Y^{\prime}}{Y}=-\lambda \\
X^{\prime \prime}+4 \lambda X=0 \quad \text { and } \quad Y^{\prime}+\lambda Y=0
\end{gathered}
$$

Case I If $\lambda=0$, then the two ODEs are: $X^{\prime \prime}=0$ and $Y^{\prime}=0$

$$
X=c_{1}+c_{2} x \text { and } Y=c_{1} \Rightarrow u=X Y=A_{1}+B_{1} x
$$

Case II If $\lambda=-\alpha^{2}<0$, then the two ODEs are:

$$
\begin{gathered}
X^{\prime \prime}-4 \alpha^{2} X=0 \text { and } Y^{\prime}-\alpha^{2} Y=0 \\
X=c_{4} \cosh 2 \alpha x+c_{5} \sinh 2 \alpha x \text { and } Y=c_{6} e^{\alpha^{2} y} \\
\Rightarrow u=X Y=A_{2} e^{\alpha^{2} y} \cosh 2 \alpha x+B_{2} e^{\alpha^{2} y} \sinh 2 \alpha x
\end{gathered}
$$

Case III If $\lambda=\alpha^{2}>0$, then the two ODEs are:

$$
\begin{gathered}
X^{\prime \prime}+4 \alpha^{2} X=0 \text { and } Y^{\prime}+\alpha^{2} Y=0 \\
X=c_{7} \cos 2 \alpha x+c_{8} \sin 2 \alpha x \text { and } Y=c_{9} e^{-\alpha^{2} y} \\
\Rightarrow u=X Y=A_{3} e^{-\alpha^{2} y} \cos 2 \alpha x+B_{2} e^{-\alpha^{2} y} \sin 2 \alpha x
\end{gathered}
$$

- Theorem 12 (Superposition principle): If $u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{k}$ are solutions of a homogeneous linear partial differential equation, then the linear combination $u=c_{1} u_{1}+c_{2} u_{2}+\ldots+c_{k} u_{k}$, where the $c_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, k$, are constants, is also a solution.
- Definition: classification of equations

The linear second-order partial differential equation

$$
A \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}+B \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x \partial y}+C \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial y^{2}}+D \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+E \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}+F u=G
$$

where the coefficients $A, B, C, \ldots, G$ are real constants, is said to be
hyperbolic if $B^{2}-4 A C>0$,
parabolic if $\quad B^{2}-4 A C=0$,
elliptic if $\quad B^{2}-4 A C<0$.

## Heat Equation: Solution by Fourier Series

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eat Equation: Solution by Fourier Series } \\
& \qquad \begin{array}{l}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}=c^{2} \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}, \quad 0<x<L, \quad t>0 \\
u(0, t)=0, \quad u(L, t)=0, \quad t>0 \\
u(x, 0)=f(x), \quad 0<x<L \quad
\end{array} \\
& u(x, t)=X(x) T(t) \Rightarrow \frac{X^{\prime \prime}}{X}=\frac{T^{\prime}}{c^{2} T}=-\lambda \\
& X^{\prime \prime}+\lambda X=0 \quad \text { boundary conditions } \\
& u(0, t)=X(0) T(t)=0 \quad T^{\prime}+c^{2} \lambda T=0 \\
& T(t) \neq 0 \text { for all } t \Rightarrow X(0)=0 \text { and } \quad u(L, t)=X(L) T(t)=0 \\
& X^{\prime \prime}+\lambda X=0, \quad X(0)=0, \quad X(L)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
X(x)=c_{1}+c_{2} x, & \lambda=0 \\
X(x)=c_{1} \cosh \alpha x+c_{2} \sinh \alpha x, & \lambda=-\alpha^{2}<0 \\
X(x)=c_{1} \cos \alpha x+c_{2} \sin \alpha x, & \lambda=\alpha^{2}>0
\end{array}
$$

- When the boundary conditions $X(0)=0$ and $X(L)=0$ are applied to the first and second equations, these solutions yield only $X(x)=0$, so $u=0$.
- But when $X(0)=0$ is applied to the third equation, we find that $c_{1}=0$ and $X(x)=$ $c_{2} \sin \alpha x$. The second boundary condition then implies that $X(L)=c_{2} \sin \alpha L=0$.
- To obtain a nontrivial solution, we must have $c_{2} \neq 0$ and $\sin \alpha L=0$. So $\alpha L=n \pi$ or $\alpha=n \pi / L$.
- Hence $X^{\prime \prime}+\lambda X=0$ possesses nontrivial solutions when:

$$
\lambda_{n}=\alpha_{n}^{2}=n^{2} \pi^{2} / L^{2}, \quad n=1,2,3, \ldots
$$

- These values of $\lambda$ are the eigenvalues of the problem; the eigenfunctions are:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\quad X_{n}(x)=c_{2} \sin \frac{n \pi}{L} x \\
T^{\prime}+c^{2} \lambda T=0 \Rightarrow T_{n}(t)=c_{3} e^{-c^{2}\left(n^{2} \pi^{2} / L^{2}\right) t} \\
u_{n}(x, t)=X_{n}(x) T_{n}(t)=c_{2} \sin \frac{n \pi}{L} x c_{3} e^{-c^{2}\left(n^{2} \pi^{2} / L^{2}\right) t}=A_{n} e^{-c^{2}\left(n^{2} \pi^{2} / L^{2}\right) t} \sin \frac{n \pi}{L} x
\end{gathered}
$$

- Each of the product functions $u_{n}(x, t)$ is a particular solution of the partial differential equation, and each $u_{n}(x, t)$ satisfies both boundary conditions as well.
- The solution of the entire problem: by the superposition principle

$$
u(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_{n}(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_{n} e^{-c^{2}\left(n^{2} \pi^{2} / L^{2}\right) t} \sin \frac{n \pi}{L} x
$$

- To satisfy the initial condition, we would have to choose the coefficient $A_{n}$ in such a manner that:

$$
u(x, 0)=f(x)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_{n} \sin \frac{n \pi}{L} x
$$

- Hence $A_{n}$ must be the coefficients of the Fourier sine series (half-range expansion of $f$ in a sine series), thus

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{n}=\frac{2}{L} \int_{0}^{L} f(x) \sin \frac{n \pi}{L} x d x \\
u(x, t)=\frac{2}{L} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\int_{0}^{L} f(x) \sin \frac{n \pi}{L} x d x\right) e^{-c^{2}\left(n^{2} \pi^{2} / L^{2}\right) t} \sin \frac{n \pi}{L} x
\end{gathered}
$$

In the special case when the initial temperature is $u(x, 0)=100, L=\pi$, and $c^{2}=1$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
A_{n}=\frac{200}{\pi}\left[\frac{1-(-1)^{n}}{n}\right] \\
u(x, t)=\frac{200}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left[\frac{1-(-1)^{n}}{n}\right] e^{-n^{2} t} \sin n x
\end{gathered}
$$


$u(x, t)$ graphed as a function of $x$

$u(x, t)$ graphed as a function of $t$

