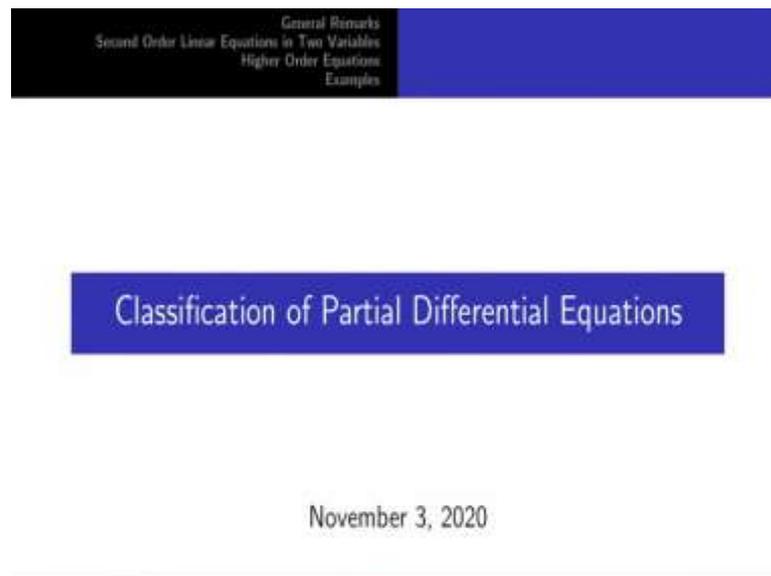


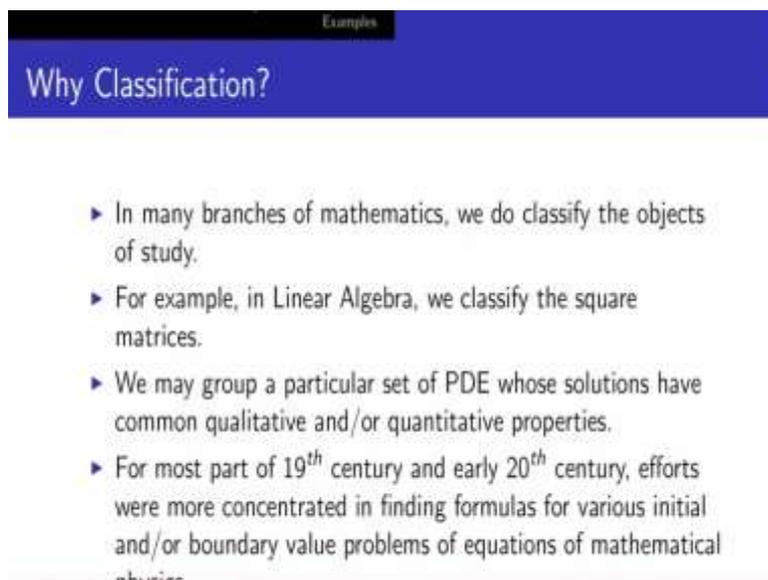
**First Course on Partial Differential Equations – 1**  
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**Mathematics**  
**Lecture 15**  
**Partial Differential Equations – 1**

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Today, we will start the topic of classification of partial differential equations. There will be a few lectures on this topic, and we concentrate essentially on second order linear partial differential equations for the classification and you will see why this restriction as we go on.

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Examples

### Why Classification?

- ▶ In many branches of mathematics, we do classify the objects of study.
- ▶ For example, in Linear Algebra, we classify the square matrices.
- ▶ We may group a particular set of PDE whose solutions have common qualitative and/or quantitative properties.
- ▶ For most part of 19<sup>th</sup> century and early 20<sup>th</sup> century, efforts were more concentrated in finding formulas for various initial and/or boundary value problems of equations of mathematical physics.

So, first of all, we start with the basic question, why classification? So, in many branches of mathematics, we do classify objects of study. For example, in linear algebra, we classify square matrices into class of symmetric matrices, orthogonal matrices, and positive definite matrices. Why do we do that? So, in order to -- so, this we may group a particular setup PDE, whose solutions have common qualitative or quantitative properties.

So, that will recognize given a PDE into which group it falls. For most of the 19th century and early 20th century, efforts were more concentrated in finding formulas for various initial and our boundary value problems of equations of mathematical physics. And that is the reason in that period people essentially concentrated on three types of equation. The first one is wave equation.

So, describing vibrations in -- small transversal vibrations of a string, the longitudinal vibrations of rod, electrical oscillations in a wire, etcetera. And this equation is a prototype of hyperbolic equations. So, we will define what is an hyperbolic equation as we go on.

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Higher Order Equations  
Examples

## Why Classification?

- ▶ **Wave Equation:** A prototype of **hyperbolic equations**. In one dimension, this equation models many real world problems: small transversal vibrations of a string, the longitudinal vibrations of a rod, electrical oscillations in a wire, the torsional oscillations of shafts, oscillations in gases and so on.
- ▶ In three dimensions, it models vibrations of a membrane, propagation of sound waves, light waves and electromagnetic waves in a medium.

So, this typically the hyperbolic equations, they have qualitative properties connected with the solutions of the wave equation. So, this is in one dimension and it also has in three dimension, it models vibrations of membrane, propagation of sound waves, light waves, and electromagnetic waves in a medium.

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Second Order Linear Equations in Two Variables  
Higher Order Equations  
Examples

## Why Classification?

- ▶ **Equation of heat conduction.** This is a prototype of **parabolic equations**. It also describes the diffusion of a chemical substance in a medium. As such it is also called **diffusion equation**.
- ▶ A steady state process, that is, a physical process that does not change with time, is generally modelled by a Laplace or Poisson equation and is classified as an **elliptic equation**.

And then comes the equation of heat conduction and this is a prototype of parabolic equations. So, this is another classification in those. So, one of the again physical phenomena of heat conduction, so they were interested in that. So, this was studied in great detail.

So, it also describes diffusion of a chemical substance in a medium as such it is also called diffusion equation. So, heat equation or diffusion equation. And the last one a steady state process, physical process, there is a physical process that does not change with time is generally modelled by a Laplace or Python equation and this is classified as elliptic equation.

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▶ Cauchy problem for second order ODE:

$$u'' + bu' + cu = g, u(x_0) = u_0, u'(x_0) = u_1.$$

▶ Arbitrary  $u_0, u_1$ .

▶

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij}(x) \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} = f(x), x \in \Omega. \quad (1.1)$$

▶ Consider an  $n - 1$  dimensional surface  $\Gamma$  of class  $C^k, k \geq 2$ , lying in  $\Omega$  and represented by the equation  $F(x) = 0$  with  $|\nabla F(x)| \neq 0$  for all  $x \in \Gamma$ .

▶ Prescribe the Cauchy data on  $\Gamma$ :

$$u(x) = u_0(x), \frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}(x) = u_1(x), x \in \Gamma.$$

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We have one more mathematical reason for doing the classification. Given a differential equation, whether ordinary differential equation or a partial differential equation. A basic problem associated with an ODE or PDE is the Cauchy problem or an initial value problem.

So, for a second order ODE,  $u'' + bu' + cu = g$ , in an interval on the real line. So, we prescribe two initial conditions  $u(x_0) = u_0, u'(x_0) = u_1$ .

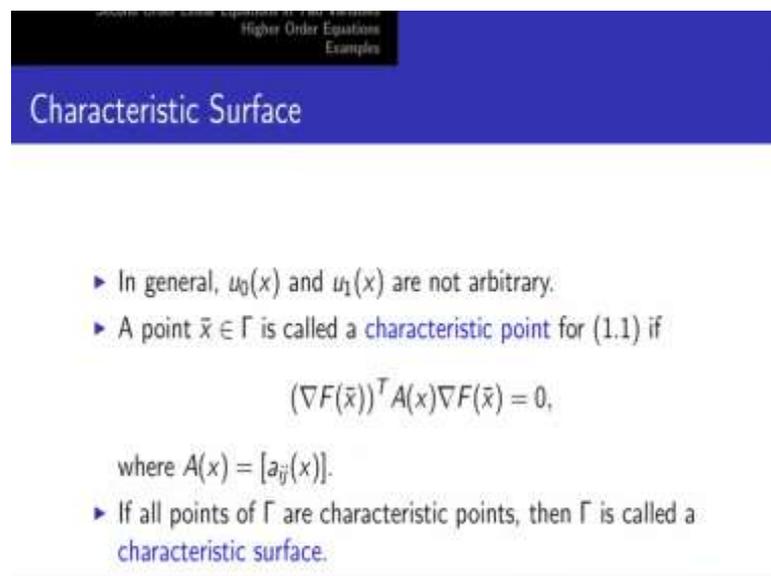
So, initial position and initial velocity, if you interpret in Newtonian mechanics, so this describes the dynamics of a particle. So, if you give initial position and initial velocity, we should be able to tell the dynamics of that particle. And in case of ODE, there is no restriction on  $u_0$  and  $u_1$ , they are arbitrary.

So, such a scenario changes when we come to a PDE. For example, here consider a linear second order equation in some domain in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . So, you can just take  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , for example. And what is the Cauchy problem associated with this equation? Cauchy problem, you can give it on a hypersurface.

For example, in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , this is nothing but a smooth curve. So, in higher dimensions it is an  $n - 1$  dimensional surface and that is called a hyper surface. And so, suppose it is represented by an equation of the form  $f(x) = 0$  with  $\text{grad } f \neq 0$  for all  $x$  on their surface  $\Gamma$ . And this condition just indicates that there is a well-defined normal to the surface  $\Gamma$  at every point and it is smooth. That is why you assume this  $\Gamma$  to be of class  $C^k$ .

And on this surface, we prescribe the initial data or Cauchy data it is called for the equation 1.1. And so, this is the prescribed the Cauchy data on  $\Gamma$ , so you give essential position and then you give the normal derivative. So,  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial \nu}$  denotes the normal derivative of  $u$  on  $\Gamma$ , and these two are prescribed. So, similar to the ODE problem.

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Higher Order Equations  
Examples

### Characteristic Surface

- ▶ In general,  $u_0(x)$  and  $u_1(x)$  are not arbitrary.
- ▶ A point  $\bar{x} \in \Gamma$  is called a **characteristic point** for (1.1) if
 
$$(\nabla F(\bar{x}))^T A(x) \nabla F(\bar{x}) = 0,$$
 where  $A(x) = [a_{ij}(x)]$ .
- ▶ If all points of  $\Gamma$  are characteristic points, then  $\Gamma$  is called a **characteristic surface**.

So, two initial conditions for the ODE are given. So similarly here it is a second order PDE, so we are giving two conditions. And unlike ODE, what we observe is that, in general this  $u_0$  and  $u_1$ ,  $x$  are not arbitrary. So, this requires a great deal of computation, which I am avoiding here. So, that is the difference. What makes this difference is the fact that -- so this we did not face in the case of ODE, but in case of PDE, we do face this.

And so, the main reason for that is whether  $\Gamma$  is a characteristic surface or not, characteristic surface with respect to the given PDE. So, here is the definition a point  $\bar{x}$  and the  $\Gamma$  is called a characteristic point for the equation 1.1, so important. So, that you are connecting now, the initial surface  $\Gamma$  and the PDE, that is important.

If this grad  $f_x$ ,  $t$ , superscript  $t$  denotes transpose of a matrix, and  $A$  is coming from the PDE, that matrix is -- so, it is coming from the coefficient  $C_{ij}$ . So, which I denote by the so it is a variable matrix. So, it is -- if  $A$  is our constant, then it is a constant matrix, otherwise it is a variable content. So, there should be  $x$  bar here, sorry for that.

So, at that point, so if this happens is called a characteristic point. And if each point of the surface  $\gamma$  is a characteristic point then  $\gamma$  is called a characteristic surface. So, if  $\gamma$  is a characteristic surface, then the Cauchy problem is called a characteristic Cauchy problem. And if  $\gamma$  is non-characteristic surface, then the Cauchy problem is called non-characteristic surface, non-characteristic Cauchy problem.

And generally, non-characteristic Cauchy problems, they have solution that can be shown. And in case of already first order PDE, we have seen this characteristic in some other form, namely transversality and other conditions. So, it is similar to that. So, in general -- so, this -- that is the difference. So, and this definition of the characteristics obviously depends on the PDE with the coefficients and that is why you want to classify the PDE into different groups. So, this is the mathematical reasoning for studying this classification of PDE.

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Equations that lie outside these classes

- ▶ Schrödinger equation of quantum mechanics:
 
$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_0} \Delta \psi + V\psi,$$
 where  $\hbar$  is the Planck's constant and  $V$  is a potential.
- ▶ Kortaweg-de Vries (KdV) equation:
 
$$u_t + 6uu_x + u_{xxx} = 0.$$
- ▶ Airy equation
 
$$u_t + u_{xxx} = 0.$$

Having said about that, about the classification, there are many, many equations of importance that lie outside these classes. What are these classes, namely hyperbolic, parabolic, and elliptic. So, I just list a few of them, there are plenty of equations. So, one is this Schrodinger equation from quantum mechanics it is written here.

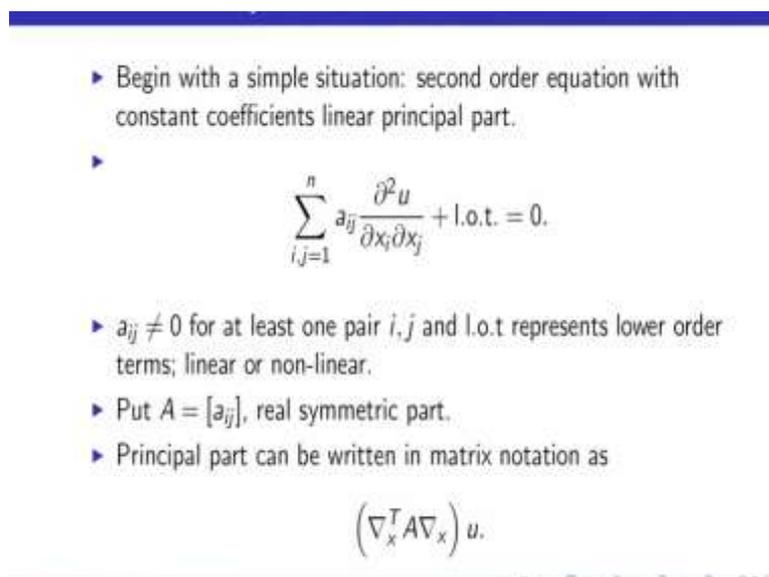
So, it looks closer to the heat equation, but qualitatively, if solutions are more like wave equation. And also you observe that, this  $i$ ,  $i$  is square root of minus one. So, we have to deal with as complex functions as solutions. So, in case of heat equation, wave equation, and the Laplace equation, they were all real valued functions. But in case of Schrodinger equation, we have to deal with complex functions as solutions.

So, the next one is again this is very much studied in the literature, commonly called KdV equation, this Korteweg–De Vries equation. It is also an – it is a non-linear equation of third order. So,  $u_{xxx}$ . So, here by looking at the nature of the solution, it is classified as this pursue equation as opposed to diffusion equation.

So, the linear equation of KdV, which existed much earlier is called Airy equation. So, just you remove the non-linear part in the KdV equation, you get the Airy equation. And then there are equations from fluid dynamics, Navier Stokes equations. So, that is a system of equations. So, that also does not easily fit into this classification and there are many more. So, you can just see the literature.

So the in what I am trying to say here is this classification is incomplete. So, there is – it is not that all PDEs will fit into one of these three groups; there are many important PDEs, which lay outside these three groups. And in the modern theory of the subject, especially after the 1950s, so there is quite a bit understanding of partial differential equations. And now we see the classification as hypo elliptic and non-hypo elliptic. So, even to make a definition of that, we have to develop many tools, so which is not possible in this first course on PDE.

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▶ Begin with a simple situation: second order equation with constant coefficients linear principal part.

▶

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \text{l.o.t.} = 0.$$

▶  $a_{ij} \neq 0$  for at least one pair  $i, j$  and l.o.t. represents lower order terms; linear or non-linear.

▶ Put  $A = [a_{ij}]$ , real symmetric part.

▶ Principal part can be written in matrix notation as

$$\left( \nabla_x^T A \nabla_x \right) u.$$

So, we will do some basic thing in this course. So, begin with a simple situation just to understand what did this classification and how we are going to do this classification. So, let us take the simplest example. So, a second order linear PDE. So, as far as the classification is concerned, only the second order derivatives matter.

So, that is why return only an second order the highlighted and then l.o.t. means is lower order terms, just concentrate on the highest order terms. To qualify it has a second order equation, so at least one coefficient  $a_{ij}$  should be not 0, that is what the written is. Otherwise, if your all  $a_{ij}$  are 0, then we are getting first order equations. So, the lower order terms whether linear or non-linear, it does not matter as far as the classification is concerned.

So, here -- so, I denote by  $A$ , capital  $A$ , the matrix of the coefficients and that is a real symmetric matrix. That  $A$  is the real symmetric matrix. And so, this part  $a_{ij} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$  is called principal part of the equation, and that is written in the matrix notation as  $\nabla_x^T A \nabla_x u$ ,  $\nabla_x$  denote the gradient vector, and  $x$  signifies we are differentiating with respect to  $x$  variable.

So, we are considering the equation in some open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , so that we denote the points in that open set  $x$ . Because then we are going to change the variable  $x$  to some other thing. So, then we write it as  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  of that variable. So, that  $x$  signifies the differentiation is with respect to  $x$ .

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General Remarks  
Second Order Linear Equations in Two Variables  
Higher Order Equations  
Examples

### How do we classify?

- ▶  $\nabla_x = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} \right)^T$  denotes the gradient vector and the superscript  $T$  denotes the transpose of a matrix or vector.
- ▶ There is an orthogonal matrix (also called a rotation matrix)  $R$  such that  $R^T A R = D$ , where  $D$  is the diagonal matrix  $D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_p \ -\lambda_{p+1} \cdots -\lambda_{p+q} \ 0 \cdots 0)$ .

So, this written it here, so it is the gradient vector and superscript denotes the transpose of a matrix are a vector. From linear algebra, we learned that , since  $A$  is a symmetric matrix, there is an orthogonal matrix it is also called a rotation matrix,  $R$  such that  $R$  transpose  $A$ ,  $R$  equal to  $D$ . So,  $R$  -- since  $R$  is an orthogonal matrix,  $R$  transport is also equal to  $R$  inverse. So, that is the knowledge we take from the linear algebra.

And indeed, so in a essence what it says is a symmetric matrix is diagonalizable and we can arrange the diagonal elements of this matrix  $D$  in the following way. So,  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_p, -\lambda_{p+1}, -\lambda_{p+q}$ , and rest are 0. So, here we are collecting the positive Eigen values of  $A$  negative Eigen values of  $A$  and zero Eigen values. Of course,  $A$  can have all the positive Eigen values, all the negative Eigen values.

So, it cannot have all the zero Eigen value in this case, because  $A$  is not a 0 metrics. So, that is what we are writing now.

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- ▶  $\lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_p$  are the positive eigenvalues;  $-\lambda_{p+1} \cdots -\lambda_{p+q}$  are the negative eigenvalues and the rest  $r$  eigenvalues of  $A$  are zero.
- ▶  $p + q + r = n$ ; either  $p \geq 1$  or  $q \geq 1$ .
- ▶ Thus, the quadratic form associated with  $A$ , namely,
 
$$\xi^T A \xi = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j,$$
 takes the form
 
$$\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i \xi_i^2 - \sum_{i=p+1}^{p+q} \lambda_i \xi_i^2$$
 after changing the variable  $\xi$  to  $\tilde{\xi} = R^T \xi$ .

**General Remarks**  
 Second Order Linear Equations in Two Variables  
 Higher Order Equations  
 Examples

### How do we classify?

- ▶ Begin with a simple situation: second order equation with constant coefficients linear principal part.
- ▶
 
$$\sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \text{l.o.t.} = 0.$$
- ▶  $a_{ij} \neq 0$  for at least one pair  $i, j$  and l.o.t represents lower order terms; linear or non-linear.
- ▶ Put  $A = [a_{ij}]$ , real symmetric part.

So,  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_p$  are the positive Eigenvalues of  $A$ ,  $-\lambda_{p+1}, \dots, -\lambda_{p+q}$  are negative Eigenvalues. So, there are  $p$  positive Eigenvalues, then  $q$  negative Eigenvalues and  $r$  zero Eigenvalues, for total numbers should be  $n$ , so  $p + q + r = n$ , and since  $A$  is non-zero, so it has at least one non-zero Eigenvalue.

So, that means, either  $p$  is bigger than equal to 1 or  $q$  is bigger than equal to 1. Thus the quadratic form associated with  $A$ , so this is also quadratic form associated with the given PDE. So, again let me just go back. So, in this summation  $\sum a_{ij} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$ , you replace that  $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$  by  $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$ .

And that is how you get the quadratic form associated with the matrix A. And matrix A comes from the PDE, so this is also a quadratic form associated with the PDE itself. And then you change the variable, you change from  $j$  to  $\tilde{j}$ ;  $\tilde{j}$  is equal to  $r^T j$ . So,  $r$  is coming –  $r$  is the matrix that diagonalizes edges  $a$ ,  $r$  is the rotation matrix.

So, that using the diagonal process. So, you just get that quadratic form takes the diagonal form. So, there are no  $\tilde{j}$ ,  $\tilde{j}$ . So, it is purely a diagonal form,  $\lambda_{ij}$ ,  $i$  square corresponding to positive Eigenvalues and then we have correspond a term, corresponding to negative Eigenvalues. So, of course, the rest are zero, so you just they will not appear.

And in essence, what we are going to do for the classification again going back to the PDE we want to somehow get rid of the mix derivatives,  $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$ ,  $i$  different from  $j$  by finding suitable change of variables, we want to make it just a diagonal term. So, fewer second order derivatives,  $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i^2}$ .

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▶ Now put  $\eta_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i} \tilde{\xi}_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p + q$  and  $\eta_i = \tilde{\xi}_i$  for  $i > p + q$ .

▶ The quadratic form associated with  $A$  thus reduces to canonical form:

$$\sum_{i=1}^p \eta_i^2 - \sum_{i=p+1}^{p+q} \eta_i^2.$$

▶ Consider the quadratic form  $q(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_1 x_2 + x_2^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

- ▶ •  $q = (x_1 + x_2/2)^2 + (\sqrt{3}x_2/2)^2$ .
- ▶ •  $q = (\sqrt{3}x_1/2)^2 + ((x_1/2) + x_2)^2$ .
- ▶ •  $q = (\sqrt{3}(x_1 + x_2)/2)^2 + ((x_1 - x_2)/2)^2$ .

▶ Sylvester's law of inertia.  $p, q$  are invariant.

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- ▶  $\lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_p$  are the positive eigenvalues;  $-\lambda_{p+1} \cdots -\lambda_{p+q}$  are the negative eigenvalues and the rest  $r$  eigenvalues of  $A$  are zero.

- ▶  $p + q + r = n$ ; either  $p \geq 1$  or  $q \geq 1$ .

- ▶ Thus, the quadratic form associated with  $A$ , namely,

$$\xi^T A \xi = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j, \text{ takes the form}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i \xi_i^2 - \sum_{i=p+1}^{p+q} \lambda_i \xi_i^2$$

after changing the variable  $\xi$  to  $\tilde{\xi} = R^T \xi$ .

Similar to this diagonalization of the quadratic form associated with the matrix  $A$ . And we can do one more transformation the put  $\eta_i$  equal to square root of  $\lambda_i$   $\tilde{\xi}_i$  for  $i$  equal to  $1, 2, \dots, p+q$ . So, wherever you see that, so I want to observe this  $\lambda_i$  into  $\tilde{\xi}_i$  that is what I am doing and that gives me this only plus ones and minus ones, nothing more. And this is called the canonical form associated with  $A$  or it could be quadratic form associated with  $A$ .

So, we get only some diagonal terms and coefficients are also either plus 1 or minus 1. One difficulty, immediate difficulty we see is, this obtaining canonical form, we have used the diagonalization of  $A$  and arrived that this canonical form, but that is not the only way one can arrive at a canonical form. So, there are many different ways. So, here let me just give you one example in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

So, we consider this quadratic form  $q(x_1, x_2)$  equal to  $x_1^2 + x_1 x_2 + x_2^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . So, I can write this quadratic form. So, there is  $x_1, x_2$ , so I want to remove that. So, in three different ways, in fact, you can write in many more ways, but I have just written here three different ways how you can write  $q$ .

So, something square, something square, something square, something square. So, I can use all these three different chains of variables in order to write  $q$  in its canonical form, or so canonical form is not unique, but what is unique is and that is again from the linear algebra, the number of positive Eigenvalues  $p$ , the number of negative Eigenvalues  $q$ , they are invariant and this is called Sylvester's law of inertia.

So, whatever change of variables you use to reduce a given quadratic form to its canonical form, the number of p and q will not change and that is an important observation. And based on these invariants, p and q, we are going to classify the PDE. So, now, you immediately connect this observation from linear algebra to our PDE.

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General Remarks  
Second Order Linear Equations in Two Variables  
Higher Order Equations  
Examples

### How do we classify?

- ▶ Similarly, if we change the variables  $x$  to  $\tilde{x} = R^T x$ , then  $\nabla_x u = R \nabla_{\tilde{x}} u$ . Thus, the principal part of (1.1) becomes

$$\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \tilde{x}_i^2} - \sum_{i=p+1}^{p+q} \lambda_i \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \tilde{x}_i^2}.$$

So, now, just again use that rotation matrix and you change the variables  $x$  to  $\tilde{x}$  and then, so this gradient vector of  $u$  with respect to  $x$  variable changes to gradient of  $u$  with respect to  $\tilde{x}$  variable by that rotation matrix. And that you put in the equation back and you see immediately that we obtain the principal part in diagonal form. Still there are  $\lambda_i$ 's. So, we will also remove them by one more change of variable.

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How do we classify?

- ▶ Now change  $\tilde{x}$  to  $y$ , where  $y_i = \tilde{x}_i / \sqrt{\lambda_i}$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p + q$  and  $y_i = \tilde{x}_i$  for  $i > p + q$ . Then the principal part of (1.1) becomes

$$\sum_{i=1}^p \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y_i^2} - \sum_{i=p+1}^{p+q} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y_i^2}. \quad (1.2)$$

- ▶ This is referred to as the **canonical form** of the principal part of (1.1).
- ▶ In the case of variable coefficients in (1.1) also, we wish to reduce, if possible, the principal part to its canonical form, of the form in (1.2).

General Remarks  
Second Order Linear Equations in Two Variables  
Higher Order Equations  
Examples

How do we classify?

- ▶ Similarly, if we change the variables  $x$  to  $\tilde{x} = R^T x$ , then  $\nabla_x u = R \nabla_{\tilde{x}} u$ . Thus, the principal part of (1.1) becomes

$$\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \tilde{x}_i^2} - \sum_{i=p+1}^{p+q} \lambda_i \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \tilde{x}_i^2}.$$

And now, you change  $\tilde{x}$  to  $y$ . So, again just you want to absorb this  $\lambda_i$  in  $\tilde{x}_i$  and that is very easy. So, you put  $y_i$  equal to  $\tilde{x}_i$  by root  $\lambda_i$ , and that converts the principal part into a diagonal part  $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y_i^2}$  and with coefficients only plus and minus 1.

So, you just look at equation 1.2, you see that the coefficients are only -- there are  $p$  plus ones and  $q$  minus ones. And this is referred to as canonical form of the principle part. So, we are not bothered at this stage about the lower order terms, the first order terms. So, we are just concentrated on the second order terms.

So, before defining the classification terms, so in case of variable coefficients, so when  $a_{ij}$  are also functions of  $x$ , we wish to reduce the principal part into canonical form of the form 1.2, if possible, that is the big question whether we can do it or not. So, just that will come a little later.

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### Nomenclature

- ▶ Consider only the following three cases:
  - $p = n, q = r = 0.$
  - $p = n - 1, q = 1, r = 0.$
  - $p = n - 1, q = 0, r = 1.$
- ▶ In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , the level sets of the quadratic  $\lambda_1 x_1^2 + \lambda_2 x_2^2 + \lambda_3 x_3^2$ , with  $\lambda_i = \pm 1$  or  $0$ , is called an **ellipsoid** if all  $\lambda_i = 1$ ; a **hyperboloid** if one  $\lambda_i = 1$  and the other two  $= -1$ .
- ▶ Using this terminology, (1.1) is called **elliptic** equation if  $p = n$  (or  $q = n$ ); **hyperbolic** equation if  $p = n - 1, q = 1$  (or  $p = 1, q = n - 1$ ).

So, let us now -- so here only three cases are considered, namely  $p$  equal to  $n$ , in that case  $q$  equal to  $r$  equal to zero. And  $p$  equal to  $n$  minus 1,  $q$  equal to 1 and  $r$  equal to 0.  $p$  equal to  $n$  minus 1,  $q$  equal to 0 and  $r$  equal to 1.

So, in the first case, all the Eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive, and in the second case,  $n$  minus 1 Eigenvalues are positive and 1 negative Eigenvalue. And in the last one, there are  $n$  minus 1 positive Eigenvalues and 1, 0 Eigenvalues. So, depending on this cases, we call the equation by a suitable name.

Again, the name nomenclature comes from geometry. So, let me just tell you that. So in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , the level sets of the quadratic  $\lambda_1 x_1^2 + \lambda_2 x_2^2 + \lambda_3 x_3^2$ , with  $\lambda_i = \pm 1$  or  $0$ , is called an **ellipsoid** if all  $\lambda_i = 1$ ; a **hyperboloid** if one  $\lambda_i = 1$  and the other two  $= -1$ . So, if all the  $\lambda$ s are positive, the level sets up that quadratic are ellipsoids. And if two of them are positive and one is negative, it is hyperbolic.

So, the same terminology we use for the classification of PDE. So, PDE 1 is called elliptic equation, if  $p$  equal to one or by changing the sign we can also assume  $q$  equal  $n$ . So, either of that,  $p$  equal to  $n$  or all our positive Eigenvalues or negative Eigenvalues. So, hyperbolic if  $p$

is equal to  $n - 1$  and  $q$  equal to 1 or again by changing the sign you can assume  $p$  equal to 1 and  $q$  equal to 1.

So, in these two classification, there are no zero Eigenvalues. So, in the first case, when  $p$  equal  $n$  or  $q$  equal 1, the quadratic form is called definite, and in the other case, it is called indefinite. So, in the definite case, either it will have all the time positive sign or negative sign. And in the second case, that hyperbolic case, it will have -- it takes both positive and negative. So, we will come back to the other case in the next class. Thank you.