## Lecturer: Vladimir Tkachev, KTH

Webb: <u>http://www.math.kth.se/~tkatchev/teaching/index.html</u>

Email: <u>tkatchev@kth.se</u>

## Some important examples

• Inviscid Burger's (Hopf) equation

$$u_t' + u u_x' = 0$$

• Scalar conservation law

$$u_t' + \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(u) = 0$$

• Laplace Equation

$$\Delta u \equiv u_{xx}^{\prime\prime} + u_{yy}^{\prime\prime} = 0$$

Poisson's equation

$$\Delta u \equiv u_{xx}^{\prime\prime} + u_{yy}^{\prime\prime} = f(x, y)$$

- Heat (or diffusion) equation
- Wave equation

$$u_{tt}^{\prime\prime} - \Delta u = 0$$

 $u_t' - \Delta u = 0$ 

• Minimal surface equation

$$\operatorname{div} \frac{\nabla u}{\sqrt{1 + |\nabla u|^2}} = 0$$

### Derivation of the heat equation



*Energy* of an arbitrary piece of rod from a to b is

$$E = \int_{a}^{b} A \cdot \rho \ c \cdot u(x,t) \ dx$$

- u = u(x, t) is temperature at time t at a given point x,
- A is the cross sectional area of the rod,
- *c* is the specific heat capacity of the rod

The wave heat flow:

$$R = A(q(a,t) - q(b,t)) = -A \int_{a}^{b} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} q(x,t) \, dx$$

Conservation of energy (in terms of power = time-derivative of energy):

$$R = \frac{\partial E}{\partial t}$$

implies the integral form of the heat equation:

$$\int_{a}^{b} \left( \rho \, c \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial t} u(x,t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} q(x,t) \right) dx = 0.$$

By virtue of arbitrariness of a and b we get

$$\rho c \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial t} u(x,t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} q(x,t) = 0.$$

Finally, by using the Fourier law  $q(x,t) = -\lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial x} q(x,t)$  we arrive at (the differential form of) the heat equation:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} - C \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 0.$$

# Classification of the 1<sup>st</sup> order PDE's

## **Standard notation:**

For u = u(x, y) one denotes the first derivatives by

$$p = u'_x$$

 $q = u'_y$ 

• The most general 1<sup>st</sup> order PDE

$$F(x, y, u, p, q) = 0$$

• A **linear** equation

$$a(x,y)u'_x + b(x,y)u'_y = c(x,y)$$

• A homogeneous (linear) equation

$$a(x,y)u'_x + b(x,y)u'_y = 0$$

Generalizations of the linear case:

• A semilinear equation

$$a(x, y)u'_x + b(x, y)u'_y = c(x, y, u)$$

• A quasilinear equation

$$a(x, y, u)u'_x + b(x, y, u)u'_y = c(x, y, u)$$

Fully non-linear equation:

$$F(x, y, u, p, q) = 0$$

with F chosen arbitrarily; then additionally required that

$${F_p'}^2 + {F_q'}^2 \neq 0$$

1. Characteristics for a homogeneous linear equation



Characteristic equations:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = a(x, y), \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = b(x, y)$$

this yields

$$\frac{du(x(t), y(t))}{dt} = 0$$

hence u(x, y) = const along each characteristic curve. In particular u(A) = u(B) on the picture above and one can determine solution (uniquely) if one knows the values of the solution at some points. For instance, if one knows the values along a curve  $\gamma$  which is transversal to characteristic curves:



2. The method of characteristics for general quasilinear equation

$$a(x, y, u)u'_{x} + b(x, y, u)u'_{y} = c(x, y, u)$$

If we introduce a vector field  $V = (V_1, V_2, V_3)$  with coordinates

$$V_1 = a(x, y, u), \quad V_2 = b(x, y, u), \quad V_3 = c(x, y, u)$$

then V is orthogonal to the normal vector

$$N_0 = (-u'_x(x_0, y_0), -u'_y(x_0, y_0), 1)$$

at the point  $(x_0, y_0, u(x_0, y_0))$  on the graph of a solution z = u(x, y):



- z = u(x, y) are *integral surfaces* of the vector field V
- a characteristic curve (in red)
- a Cauchy data  $\Gamma$  (in green): a curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  transversal to the vector field V

Characteristic equations:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = a(x, y, u), \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = b(x, y, u), \qquad \frac{dz}{dt} = c(x, y, u)$$

**The Cauchy problem**: given a curve  $\Gamma$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , find a solution u of the 1<sup>st</sup> order equation whose graph contains  $\Gamma$ :

$$u|_{\gamma} = h(x, y)$$
.

Fully non-linear equation:

$$F(x, y, z, p, q) = 0$$

Where as usual z = u(x, y),  $p = u'_x$  and  $q = u'_y$ , and

$$F_p^{\prime 2} + F_q^{\prime 2} \neq 0$$

The latter implies that locally either p or q can be found as a function of the remaining variables.

We have seen in the case *F* is linear with respect to *p*, *q* that the normal vector field to the graph z = u(x, y) is orthogonal to the vector field  $V = (-F'_p, -F'_q, 1)$ . In that case the Cauchy problem  $u|_{\gamma} = u_0(x, y)$  is well-posed if the curve  $\gamma$  is transversal to all characteristics it meets.

In order to adjust the characteristics method one needs to "linearize" the initial non-linear equation. An idea is to show that the first derivatives  $p = u'_x$  and  $q = u'_y$  satisfy *quasilinear* equations.

Namely, differentiating w.r.t. x and y yields two quasilinear equations for p, q:

$$F'_{x} + F'_{z}u'_{x} + F'_{p}p'_{x} + F'_{q}q'_{x} = 0$$
(1)

and

$$F'_{y} + F'_{z}u'_{y} + F'_{p}p'_{y} + F'_{q}q'_{y} = 0$$
(2)

Indeed, we have for the mixed partial derivatives:  $p'_y = u''_{xy} = u''_{yx} = q'_x$ , hence eq. (1) and (2) take the quasilinear form

$$F'_p p'_x + F'_q p'_y = -F'_x - F'_z p$$
$$F'_p q'_x + F'_q q'_y = -F'_y - F'_z q$$

Applying the characteristic equations to this system we get

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = F'_p, \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = F'_q, \qquad \frac{dp}{dt} = -F'_x - F'_z p, \qquad \frac{dq}{dt} = -F'_y - F'_z q.$$

We need only one equation for z. One can get by differentiating z = u(x, y) w.r.t. t subject to the first previous equations:

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}u(x, y) = u'_x\frac{dx}{dt} + u'_y\frac{dy}{dt} = p \cdot F'_p + q \cdot F'_q$$

Thus we have arrived at the following system

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = F'_p,$$
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = F'_q,$$
$$\frac{dz}{dt} = p \cdot F'_p + q \cdot F'_q$$
$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -F'_x - F'_z p,$$
$$\frac{dq}{dt} = -F'_y - F'_z q.$$

This system determines a family of integral curves in  $\mathbb{R}^5 = \mathbb{R}^2_{xy} \times \mathbb{R}^2_{pq} \times \mathbb{R}^1_z$  and it is called the characteristic equations for the non-linear equation F = 0.

In **general**, in the *n*-dimensional case one has a system of similar equations in  $\mathbb{R}^{2n+1}$ . In fact, let we have a 1<sup>st</sup> order non-linear equation

$$F(x,u,Du)=0$$

where  $x = (x_1, ..., x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $n \ge 2$ , and  $Du = (u_{x_1}, ..., u_{x_n}) = (p_1, ..., p_n)$  is the gradient of  $u = u(x_1, ..., x_n)$ . Then the modified system for characteristics is

$$\frac{dx_k}{dt} = F'_{p_k},$$
$$\frac{dp_k}{dt} = -F'_{x_k} - F'_z p_k,$$

for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , and

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = DF \cdot p = \sum_{k=1}^{n} F'_{p_k} p_k.$$

**Return** to n = 2. We must complete our Cauchy conditions because we have now 5 ODE's but only 3 initial Cauchy conditions. Since now we are in

$$\mathbb{R}^5 = \mathbb{R}^2_{xy} \times \mathbb{R}^2_{pq} \times \mathbb{R}^1_z$$

it is clear that we need only the Cauchy data  $p_0$  and  $q_0$ .

• We recall that the Cauchy condition can be written as a parameterized curve:

Γ: 
$$x = x_0(s)$$
,  $y = y_0(s)$ ,  $z = z_0(s)$ 

Substituting this into F(x, y, z, p, q) = 0 yields

$$F(x_0, y_0, z_0, p_0, q_0) = 0$$
 (IC-1)

• Another relation is found by differentiating the original initial condition (IC) with respect to the inner parameter *s*:

$$\frac{d}{ds}z_0(s) = \frac{d}{ds}u(x_0(s), y_0(s)) = u'_x(x_0(s), y_0(s)) \cdot \frac{dx_0}{ds} + u'_y(x_0(s), y_0(s)) \cdot \frac{dy_0}{ds}$$

This yields the so-called *strip condition*:

$$\frac{d}{ds}z_0(s) = p_0(s) \cdot \frac{dx_0}{ds} + q_0(s) \cdot \frac{dy_0}{ds}$$
(IC-2)

These equations (IC-1) - (IC-2) provide two additional initial data, for  $p_0$  and  $q_0$ .

In fact  $p_0$  and  $q_0$  need not to be uniquely defined and need not even exist. However, once  $p_0$  and  $q_0$  do exist, one can determine an integral surface

$$x = x(s,t), y = y(s,t), z = z(s,t)$$

which gives a parametric form for the solution of the Cauchy problem for the non-linear equation F = 0.

**Remark:** Our notation  $p_0$  and  $q_0$  here correspond to  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  given in MacOwen, p. 34-35.

### Method of envelopes

In general, for the 1<sup>st</sup> order non-linear equation

$$F(x, u, Du) = 0 \tag{(*)}$$

where  $x = (x_1, ..., x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $n \ge 2$ , we set vector-notation

$$D_p F = (F_{p_1}, F_{p_2}, \dots, F_{p_n})$$
$$D_x F = (F_{x_1}, F_{x_2}, \dots, F_{x_n})$$

(We assume that *F* is smooth, at least of class  $C^2$  in some domain in  $\mathbb{R}^{2n+1}$ ).

We are concerned with finding solutions u of (\*) in some open set  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , subject to the Cauchy condition

$$u = h$$
 on  $\Gamma$ ,

where  $\Gamma$  is a subset of the boundary  $\partial U$ .

Suppose that we have found a parametric family of general solutions, say u = u(x, a). Then we write also

$$(D_a u, D_{xa}^2) \coloneqq \begin{pmatrix} u_{a_1} & u_{x_1 a_1} & \cdots & u_{x_n a_1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_{a_n} & u_{x_1 a_n} & \cdots & u_{x_n a_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

for the composed Jacobian of size  $n \times (n + 1)$ .

**Definition:** A function  $u = u(x_1, ..., x_n)$  of class  $C^2$  is called a *complete integral* in  $U \times A$  provided

(i) u(x, a) solves (\*) for each  $a \in A$ 

and

(ii) rank  $(D_a u, D_{xa}^2) = n$ ,  $(x, a) \in U \times A$ .

In other words, u(x, a) depends on all the *n* independent parameters  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ .

Example 1. Clairaut's equation (in honor of Alexis C. de Clairault, 1713-1765)

$$x \cdot Du + f(Du) = u$$

For instance, if n = 2 one has

$$xu'_x + yu'_y + f(u'_x, u'_y) = u$$

Then a complete integral is

$$u(x,a) = a \cdot x + f(a)$$

Example 2. The eikonal equation from geometric optic is

$$|Du|^2 = u_{x_1}^2 + u_{x_2}^2 + \dots + u_{x_n}^2 = 1$$

A complete integral is an affine function

$$u(x; a, b) = a \cdot x + f(b),$$

where |a| = 1,  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 1.** Let u(x; a) be a complete integral for F = 0. Consider the vector equation

$$D_a u(x;a) = 0 \tag{**}$$

Suppose we can solve it for a as a smooth function of x:  $a = \varphi(x)$ . Then the **envelope function**  $v(x) = u(x; \varphi(x))$  solves also the original equation F = 0.

**Remark:** The method also works if one replaces one parameter, say  $a_n$  by a function of the remaining parameters, and substitute it into u(x; a). This yields in general a wide choice of envelope solutions.

Idea of the proof: We have

$$v_{x_k}'(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} u(x; \varphi(x)) = u_{x_k}'(x; \varphi(x)) + \sum_{i=1}^n u_{a_i}'(x; \varphi(x)) \cdot \frac{\partial \varphi_i}{\partial x_k}$$

where  $u'_{a_i} = 0$  for  $a = \varphi(x)$  by virtue of our assumption (\*\*). Hence

$$v'_{x_k}(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} u(x; \varphi(x)), \qquad k = 1, ..., n$$

and it easily follows that the envelope function satisfies also F(x, v, Dv) = 0.

#### How to apply?

We return again to n = 2. Then a complete integral is denoted by u(x, y; a, b) and it depends on independent parameters a and b. The above rank-condition is equivalent to saying that mapping

$$(a,b) \rightarrow (u,u'_x,u'_y)$$

has rank 2 at each fixed x and y, that is the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} u'_a & u''_{ax} & u''_{ya} \\ u'_b & u''_{bx} & u''_{yb} \end{pmatrix}$$

has maximal rank.

In practice one usually uses a one parametric envelope solution which can be found by substituting some auxiliary function b = B(a) or a = A(b) in u(x, y; a, b). We demonstrate this below.

**Example 5.** Consider  $u'_x = {u'_y}^2$  subject to initial condition  $u(0, y) = \frac{y^2}{2}$ .

**Solution** by the envelope method. An idea is to find solutions in the class of the v = a + bx + cy + dxy. The straightforward computation yields d = 0,  $b = c^2$ , while a can be chosen arbitrarily. This gives after changing notation

$$v = a + b^2 x + by$$

We see that the our Jacobian matrix has rank 2 (the first two columns):

$$\begin{pmatrix} u'_a & u''_{ax} & u''_{ya} \\ u'_b & u''_{bx} & u''_{yb} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2bx + y & 2b & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence now we are in position of Theorem 1.

(i) Set  $a = kb^2$ , where the constant k will be chosen later. We have  $v = kb^2 + b^2x + by$ 

and the envelope equation is

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial b}v = 2kb + 2bx + y,$$

hence  $b = -\frac{y}{2x+2k}$ 

(ii) Substituting this into v we find

$$v(x, y; a, b) = -\frac{y^2}{4(x+k)}$$

(iii) Finally applying our Cauchy condition we find  $k = -\frac{1}{2}$ . Hence the desired solution is  $u(x, y) = \frac{y^2}{2 - 4x}$ 

**Question**: Why  $a = kb^2$ ? Check that the above argument breaks down for a = kb

Example 6. Consider

$$u'_x u'_y = u$$

Analys:

- u = xy + ax + by + ab is a complete integral
- $u'_a = x + b$ ,  $u'_b = y + a$ , hence we find a = -y and b = -x. This is the function  $\varphi$  in the Theorem.
- substituting  $\varphi$  into u yields: u = xy + ax + by + ab = 0which provides us another, trivial, solution.

Another choice is b = a. Then we get

$$u = xy + ax + ay + a^2$$

and  $0 = u'_a = x + y + 2a$ , hence  $a = -\frac{x+y}{2}$ .

Substituting this into *u* yields  $u = -\frac{(x-y)^2}{4}$ .