Lecturer: Vladimir Tkachev, KTH

## Course homepage: http://www.math.kth.se/~tkatchev/teaching/index.html <br> Email: tkatchev@kth.se

## Course's contents:

- First-order equations (the method of characteristics, Cauchy problem for quasi-linear and fully non-linear equations, weak solutions).
- General techniques and principles for second-order equations
- The wave equation (d'Alembert formula, weak solutions, reflections, Duhamel's principle, two-dimensional and three-dimensional wave equation, conservation of energy).
- The Laplace equation (Mean Value Theorem and Maximum Principle, the fundamental solution, Green's function, Poisson kernel).
- The heat equation (Weak maximum principle, properties of the heat kernel, properties of the solution to the pure initial value problem).


## Textbooks:

- Robert C. McOwen, Partial Differential Equations, Methods and Applications, Prentice Hall/Pearson Education, Inc., 2003 (Second Edition)

Optionally:

-     * Lawrence C. Evans. Partial Differential Equations, AMS, Providence, RI. Series: Graduate Studies in Mathematics, Vol. 19, 1998.

Instruction: Lectures and problem solving sessions.

Examination: Written examination at the end of the course.

## Some important examples of general PDE

Depending on the highest order of derivative involved, one speaks about PDE of first, second, third order etc.

| Equation | Name | Order | Attributes |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $u_{x}^{\prime}=0$ | the simplest conservation law (transport equation) |  | the best equation |
| $u_{t}^{\prime}+u u_{x}^{\prime}=0$ | Inviscid Burger's equation | 1 | quasilinear |
| $u_{t}^{\prime}+\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(u)=0$ | Scalar conservation law | 1 | quasilinear |
| $\Delta u \equiv u_{x x}^{\prime \prime}+u_{y y}^{\prime \prime}=0$ | Laplace Equation | 2 | linear homogeneous, elliptic |
| $\Delta u \equiv u_{x x}^{\prime \prime}+u_{y y}^{\prime \prime}=f(x, y)$ | Poisson's equation | 2 | linear nonhomogeneous, elliptic |
| $u_{t}^{\prime}-\Delta u=0$ | Heat (or diffusion) equation | 2 | linear homogeneous, parabolic |
| $u_{t t}^{\prime \prime}-\Delta u=0$ | The wave equation | 2 | linear homogeneous <br> hyperparabolic, |
| $\operatorname{div} \frac{\nabla u}{\sqrt{1+\|\nabla u\|^{2}}}=0$ | Minimal surface equation | 2 | quasilinear, elliptic |
| $u_{t}^{\prime}+u_{x x x}^{\prime \prime \prime}+6 u u_{x}^{\prime}=0$ | Korteweg-de Vries equation <br> (KdV equation) | 3 | non-linear, integrable (solvable) |

## The $\mathbf{1}^{\text {st }}$ order PDE's in two variables:

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

$$
p:=u_{x}, \quad q:=u_{y}
$$

so that the most general $1^{\text {st }}$ order PDE is written as

$$
F(x, y, u, p, q) \equiv F\left(x, y, u, u_{x}, u_{y}\right)=0
$$

## Linear equations:

A linear equation (linear with respect to unknown function $u$ )

$$
a(x, y) \boldsymbol{u}_{x}^{\prime}+b(x, y) \boldsymbol{u}_{y}^{\prime}=c(x, y)
$$

A linear equation may be homogeneous ( $c \equiv 0$ ), e.g.

$$
\left(x^{2}-y^{2}\right) u_{x}^{\prime}+2 x y u_{y}^{\prime}=0
$$

or nonhomogeneous, e.g.

$$
2 u_{x}^{\prime}+3 x u_{y}^{\prime}=x+y
$$

## Quasilinear equations:

Generalizations of the linear case: an equation is called quasilinear if it is linear in first-partial derivatives of the unknown function $u$.

- a general quasilinear equation

$$
a(x, y, \boldsymbol{u}) u_{x}^{\prime}+b(x, y, \boldsymbol{u}) u_{y}^{\prime}=c(x, y, \boldsymbol{u})
$$

- a semilinear equation, if $a$ and $b$ independent of $u$ :

$$
a(x, y) u_{x}^{\prime}+b(x, y) u_{y}^{\prime}=c(x, y, \boldsymbol{u})
$$

## Fully non-linear equations:

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

with $F$ chosen arbitrarily; then additionally required that

$$
F_{p}^{\prime 2}+{F_{q}^{\prime}}^{2} \neq 0 .
$$

Example: $u_{x}^{2}+u_{y}^{2}=f(u)$ (that is the gradient of the unknown function is a function of the 'height').

## An example of construction of a $1^{\text {st }}$ order PDE



Wien's displacement law states that there is an inverse relationship between the wavelength $\lambda$ of the peak of the emission of a black body and its temperature $T$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
T \lambda=b, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $b=2.897 \times 10^{6} \mathrm{~nm} \cdot \mathrm{~K}$ is Wien's displacement constant.

This formulation is a typical example of a conservation law:

- physically, a conservation law state that a certain physical property (energy, momentum etc) does not change in the course of time within an isolated physical system
- mathematically, this means that parameters of some system located on some level-set of the conserved quantity (function)

Most first-order partial differential equations are based on appropriate conservation laws and vice versa many $1^{\text {st }}$ order PDE can be solved by determining the corresponding conservation law (called also the first integrals, or general solution).

Let us denote the left hand side in (1) by $u(T, \lambda)$. Then differentiating this by $T$ and $\lambda$ respectively, we find that

$$
u_{T}=\lambda, \quad u_{\lambda}=T
$$

that is we can write the following relation on the first derivatives:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda u_{T}-T u_{\lambda}=0 . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that the last equation has many solutions of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(T, \lambda) \equiv T \lambda=C=\text { const } . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

## How to find some specific $C$ ?

- experimentally
- substitute some known data, say $T_{0}$ and $\lambda_{0}$, into the eq. (3)
- to use an additional conservation law, say $v(T, \lambda)=C_{2}$.

Remark. For an arbitrary function $f$, the function $u=f(T \lambda)$ is another solution to (2).

## Motivation of the method of characteristics (homogeneous linear equation)

$$
a(x, y) u_{x}^{\prime}+b(x, y) u_{y}^{\prime}=0
$$

A key idea is to interpret the equation as a conservation law for $u$ itself by introducing some additional variable (time). Write characteristic equations

$$
\frac{d x}{d t}=a(x, y), \quad \frac{d y}{d t}=b(x, y)
$$

If $a$ and $b$ 'good enough' (say, continuously differentiable in $x$ and $y$ ), we can solve the system for any given initial conditions. Let $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ be such a solution. Then

$$
\frac{d u(x(t), y(t))}{d t}=u_{x}^{\prime} \cdot \frac{d x}{d t}+u_{y}^{\prime} \cdot \frac{d y}{d t} \equiv 0
$$

Remark. If $\mathcal{A}:=(a(x, y), b(x, y))$ is interpreted as a vector field in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ then the above characteristic equations are integral curves for $\mathcal{A}$.

In particular, any solution $u$ is constant along an integral 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. If one knows the values along a curve $\gamma$ which is transversal to characteristic curves then one can find the solution by sweeping out an integral surface:


## The method of characteristics for general quasilinear equation

$$
a(x, y, u) u_{x}^{\prime}+b(x, y, u) u_{y}^{\prime}=c(x, y, u)
$$

The Cauchy problem: given a curve $\Gamma$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, find a solution $u$ of the first order equation whose graph contains $\Gamma$.

Cauchy data are usually given as a system of parametric equations, say

$$
\Gamma: \quad x=x_{0}(s), \quad y=y_{0}(s), \quad u=u_{0}(s),
$$

or explicitly, e.g.,

$$
u(x, 0)=h(x)
$$

The curve $\Gamma$ is always assumed regular, that is

$$
x_{0}^{\prime 2}+y_{0}^{\prime 2}+u_{0}^{\prime 2} \neq 0 .
$$

The method of characteristics amounts to solving the characteristic equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d x}{d t}=a(x, y, u), \quad \frac{d y}{d t}=b(x, y, u), \quad \frac{d u}{d t}=c(x, y, u) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Geometrically this is equivalent to finding integral surfaces. Consider a vector field

$$
\mathcal{A}=(a(x, y, u), b(x, y, u), c(x, y, u))
$$

If $z=u(x, y)$ is the graph of some solution in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ then geometrically equality

$$
a(x, y, u) u_{x}^{\prime}+b(x, y, u) u_{y}^{\prime}-c(x, y, u)=0
$$

is equivalent to that $\mathcal{A}$ is orthogonal at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}, u\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)\right)$ to the normal vector

$$
N_{0}=\left(-u_{x}^{\prime}\left(x_{0} \cdot y_{0}\right),-u_{y}^{\prime}\left(x_{0} \cdot y_{0}\right), 1\right)
$$



If the initial data $\Gamma$ is nowhere tangent (= transversal) to the vector field $\mathcal{A}$ such a (regular) curve $\Gamma$ is called noncharacteristic.

From linear algebra we find that $\Gamma$ is noncharacteristic if and only if rank of the matrix

$$
\operatorname{rank}\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
x_{0}^{\prime} & y_{0}^{\prime} & z_{0}^{\prime} \\
\left.a\right|_{\Gamma} & \left.b\right|_{\Gamma} & \left.c\right|_{\Gamma}
\end{array}\right)=2,
$$

where $\left.a\right|_{\Gamma}=a\left(x_{0}(s), y_{0}(s), u_{0}(s)\right)$ and so on.

Theorem. If $\Gamma$ is noncharacteristic, then the vector field $\mathcal{A}$ admits a unique integral (parametric) surface containing $\Gamma$. In particular, this yields the existence of a parametric solution for small values of parameter $t$.

If, additionally, the determinant

$$
\left|\begin{array}{cc}
x_{0}^{\prime} & y_{0}^{\prime} \\
\left.a\right|_{\Gamma} & \left.b\right|_{\Gamma}
\end{array}\right| \neq 0
$$

there is an explicit solution $z=u(x, y)$ in a small neighborhood of the projection of $\Gamma$ onto ( $x, y$ )-plane.

## Sketch of the proof = Algorithm 1 (parametric method).

- Solve the characteristic system (3) as a system of ODEs with Cauchy data

$$
x(0)=x_{0}(s), \quad y(0)=y_{0}(s), \quad u(0)=u_{0}(s),
$$

where $s$ is the parameter of parameterization of $\Gamma$.

- Thus we get a parametric parameterization of the solution for small enough $t$ :

$$
x=x(t, s), \quad y=y(t, s), \quad u=u(t, s) .
$$

- By the inverse function theorem this parametric function can be reduced locally to an explicitly given function $u=u(x, y)$ if the Jacobian

$$
\left|\begin{array}{cc}
x_{s}^{\prime} & y_{s}^{\prime} \\
x_{t}^{\prime} & y_{t}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right| \neq 0
$$

But for $t=0$ the later determinant, by virtue of characteristic equations, coincides with

$$
\left|\begin{array}{cc}
x_{S}^{\prime} & y_{s}^{\prime} \\
\left.a\right|_{\Gamma} & \left.b\right|_{\Gamma}
\end{array}\right|
$$

which is non-zero. By continuity it is non-zero for small $t$.

- Elimination of $s, t$ variables yields the required form $u=u(x, y)$.

Remark. The mean and principal technical difficulty is to solve the characteristic system.

Example 1. Solve by method of characteristics $u_{x}^{\prime}+2 u_{y}^{\prime}=0$ which graph passes through the curve $\Gamma$ with parameterization $x=s+s^{2}, y=2 s^{2}, u=s^{2}$

Solution. The characteristic equations are

$$
\dot{x}=1, \quad \dot{y}=2, \quad \dot{u}=0,
$$

(the dot denotes the $t$-derivative). Hence we find

$$
x=C_{1}+t, \quad y=C_{2}+2 t, \quad u=C_{3} .
$$

We have

$$
x(0) \equiv C_{1}=s+s^{2}, \quad y(0) \equiv C_{2}=2 s^{2}
$$

and

$$
\left.u\right|_{\Gamma}=C_{3}=s^{2} .
$$

Thus we obtain the following parameterization of our solution:

$$
x=t+s+s^{2}, \quad y=2 t+2 s^{2}, \quad u=s^{2} .
$$

This gives the parametric representation.
In order to find explicit formulas, we eliminate the $s, t$ variables as follows:

$$
y=2 t+2 s^{2}=2 t+2 u \quad \Rightarrow \quad t=\frac{y}{2}-u
$$

and

$$
x=t+s+s^{2}=\left(\frac{y}{2}-u\right)+\sqrt{u}+u
$$

This finally yields

$$
u=\left(x-\frac{y}{2}\right)^{2} .
$$

