

TRANSPORT EQUATIONS

We will consider the transport equation

$$\begin{cases} u_t + \mathbf{b} \cdot Du = f & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \times (0, \infty) \\ u = g & \text{on } \mathbb{R}^n \times \{t=0\} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

When $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}(x, t)$, $f = f(x, t)$ the system is linear; When $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}(x, t, u)$ and/or $f = f(x, t, u)$ the system is quasi-linear. Of course \mathbf{b} , f may depend on derivatives of u . We will not discuss those cases in this lecture.

1. Simplest case.

We start with the simplest case: \mathbf{b} is a constant, $f = 0$.

The idea is to find the formula of solutions by transforming the equation into an ODE. To do this, we consider the equation along a curve

$$x = x(s), \quad t = t(s). \quad (2)$$

Along this curve, we can define a function of one variable s :

$$\tilde{u}(s) := u(x(s), t(s)). \quad (3)$$

Differentiating, we have

$$\frac{d}{ds} \tilde{u}(s) = \dot{t}(s) u_t + \dot{x}(s) \cdot Du. \quad (4)$$

This would help us in transforming the PDE into ODE if

$$\dot{x}(s) = \mathbf{b} \dot{t}(s). \quad (5)$$

It is clear that we have the freedom here to choose $\dot{t}(s)$. We choose $\dot{t}(s) = 1$. Thus we have

$$t(s) = t_0 + s, \quad x(s) = x_0 + \mathbf{b} s. \quad (6)$$

The equation becomes

$$\frac{d}{ds} \tilde{u}(s) = 0. \quad (7)$$

As a consequence, we have

$$u(x_0, t_0) = \tilde{u}(0) = \tilde{u}(-t_0) = u(x_0 - \mathbf{b} t_0, 0) = g(x_0 - \mathbf{b} t_0). \quad (8)$$

Since the choice of (x_0, t_0) is arbitrary, we see that the solution formula is

$$u(x, t) = g(x - t \mathbf{b}). \quad (9)$$

Remark 1. The classical “algorithm” of solving 1st order PDEs starts with the “chain”

$$\frac{dt}{1} = \frac{dx_1}{b_1} = \dots = \frac{dx_n}{b_n}. \quad (10)$$

This gives n first-integrals

$$x_1 - b_1 t, \dots, x_n - b_n t. \quad (11)$$

As a consequence, the general solution of

$$u_t + \mathbf{b} \cdot Du = 0 \quad (12)$$

is

$$u = F(x_1 - b_1 t, \dots, x_n - b_n t). \quad (13)$$

Comparing with the initial value we see that $F = g$ and

$$u(x, t) = g(x - t \mathbf{b}). \quad (14)$$

Remark 2. The “transport” effect is clear by considering the case where the initial value g is a “bump” supported in a ball in \mathbb{R}^n . Then the equation “moves” this ball with speed \mathbf{b} .

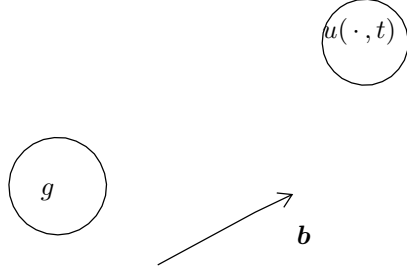


Figure 1. The $n = 2$ case.

2. $f \neq 0$.

We consider the problem

$$u_t + \mathbf{b} \cdot Du = f(x, t) \quad \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \times (0, \infty); \quad u = g \quad \text{on } \mathbb{R}^n \times \{0\}. \quad (15)$$

Let $x = x_0 + s\mathbf{b}$, $t = t_0 + s$, and

$$\tilde{u}(s) := u(x_0 + s\mathbf{b}, t_0 + s), \quad (16)$$

we have

$$\frac{d}{ds} \tilde{u} = f(x_0 + s\mathbf{b}, t_0 + s). \quad (17)$$

Setting $s = 0$ and $-t_0$ respectively, we have

$$\begin{aligned} u(x_0, t_0) &= \tilde{u}(0) \\ &= \tilde{u}(-t_0) + \int_{-t_0}^0 \frac{d}{ds} \tilde{u}(s) ds \\ &= g(x_0 - t_0\mathbf{b}) + \int_{-t_0}^0 f(x_0 + s\mathbf{b}, t_0 + s) ds \\ &= g(x_0 - t_0\mathbf{b}) + \int_0^{t_0} f(x_0 + (s - t_0)\mathbf{b}, s) ds. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

Realizing the arbitrariness of (x_0, t_0) , we see that the formula for the solution is

$$u(x, t) = g(x - t\mathbf{b}) + \int_0^t f(x + (s - t)\mathbf{b}, s) ds. \quad (19)$$

Remark 3. If we set

$$u_1(x, t) := g(x - t\mathbf{b}), \quad u_2(x, t) := \int_0^t f(x + (s - t)\mathbf{b}, s) ds, \quad (20)$$

then u_1 solves

$$u_t + \mathbf{b} \cdot Du = 0, \quad u = g \quad (21)$$

while u_2 solves

$$u_t + \mathbf{b} \cdot Du = f, \quad u = 0. \quad (22)$$

This is an illustration of the superposition principle for linear PDEs.

Remark 4. We check u_2 more carefully. We have

$$u_2(x, t) = \int_0^t f(x + (s - t)\mathbf{b}, s) ds = \int_0^t f(x - (t - s)\mathbf{b}, s) ds. \quad (23)$$

We realize that $f(x - (t - s)\mathbf{b}, s)$ is the value of the solution of

$$w_t + \mathbf{b} \cdot Dw = 0 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \times (s, \infty); \quad w(x, s) = f(x, s) \quad (24)$$

at time t . We denote such w by $w(x, t; s)$ to emphasize its dependence on s . This is an illustration of the so-called Duhamel's principle, which says once we have a formula of the initial value problem of a homogeneous evolution equation, we can simply integrate in time to obtain the solution for the non-homogeneous equation.

For example, the solution to the non-homogeneous heat equation

$$u_t - \Delta u = f, \quad u|_{t=0} = 0 \quad (25)$$

can be written as

$$u(x, t) = \int_0^t w(x, t; s) \, ds \quad (26)$$

where $w(x, t; s)$ solves

$$w_t - \Delta_x w = 0, \quad w(x, s; s) = f(x, s). \quad (27)$$

3. Interlude: Well-posedness.

We pause to consider the well-posedness of the equation

$$u_t + \mathbf{b} \cdot Du = f, \quad u|_{t=0} = g \quad (28)$$

where \mathbf{b} is a constant.

- Existence: The formula

$$u(x, t) = g(x - t\mathbf{b}) + \int_0^t f(x + (s-t)\mathbf{b}, s) \, ds \quad (29)$$

gives a C^1 function as long as, for example, g, f are both C^1 . It is easy to verify that this function indeed satisfies the equation and the initial value. Thus existence is guaranteed.

- Uniqueness: It suffices to show that

$$u_t + \mathbf{b} \cdot Du = 0, \quad u|_{t=0} = 0 \quad (30)$$

has only 0 solution. To see this, we define \tilde{u} as above. Then it is clear that $\frac{d}{ds}\tilde{u} = 0$. Since $\tilde{u}(-t_0) = 0$, we conclude that $\tilde{u} \equiv 0$. Thus shows uniqueness.

- Continuous dependence on data: Consider

$$u(x, t) = g(x - t\mathbf{b}) + \int_0^t f(x + (s-t)\mathbf{b}, s) \, ds \quad (31)$$

and

$$\hat{u}(x, t) = \hat{g}(x - t\mathbf{b}) + \int_0^t \hat{f}(x + (s-t)\hat{\mathbf{b}}, s) \, ds. \quad (32)$$

Taking the difference we have

$$u - \hat{u} = g - \hat{g} + \int_0^t f(x + (s-t)\mathbf{b}, s) - \hat{f}(x + (s-t)\hat{\mathbf{b}}, s) \, ds. \quad (33)$$

It is easy to see that as long as $f(x, t)$ is Lipschitz in the x variable, then $u - \hat{u}$ is bounded by $C \left[|g - \hat{g}| + |f - \hat{f}| + |\mathbf{b} - \hat{\mathbf{b}}| \right]$ which leads to continuous dependence.

4. Non-constant \mathbf{b} .

Consider

$$u_t + \mathbf{b}(x, t) \cdot Du = 0, \quad u|_{t=0} = g. \quad (34)$$

Set $x = x(s), t = t(s)$, we see that the equation can be simplified if

$$\dot{x}(s) = \mathbf{b}(x(s), t(s)) \dot{t}(s). \quad (35)$$

This gives

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\dot{x}(s)}{\dot{t}(s)} = \mathbf{b}(x, t). \quad (36)$$

Such a curve $x = x(t)$ is called characteristic. Along such a curve (same as saying setting $\tilde{u}(s) = u(x(t), t)$), the equation becomes

$$\frac{d}{dt}\tilde{u} = 0 \quad (37)$$

which gives

$$u(x(t), t) = \tilde{u}(x(0), 0) = g(x(0)). \quad (38)$$

Or, written another way,

$$u(x, t) = g(x_0(x, t)) \quad (39)$$

where $x_0(x, t)$ is such that the solution of

$$\frac{d}{dt}X(t) = \mathbf{b}(X, t), \quad X(0) = x_0(x, t) \quad (40)$$

satisfies

$$X(t) = x. \quad (41)$$

Remark 5. The formula shows that the equation still “transports”, but with deformation.

Remark 6. Using Duhamel’s principle, we can write down that formula for the non-homogeneous problem

$$u_t + \mathbf{b}(x, t) \cdot Du = f(x, t), \quad u|_{t=0} = g(x) \quad (42)$$

as

$$u(x, t) = g(x_0(x, t)) + \int_0^t f(x_s(x, t), s) ds \quad (43)$$

where $x_s(x, t)$ is such that if

$$\frac{d}{dt}X(t) = \mathbf{b}(X, t), \quad X(s) = x_s(x, t) \quad (44)$$

then

$$X(t) = x. \quad (45)$$

Remark 7. One popular way to show uniqueness is the “energy method”, which proceeds as follows. We multiply the equation

$$u_t + \mathbf{b} \cdot Du = 0 \quad (46)$$

by u and then integrate over \mathbb{R}^n . We obtain

$$\int u u_t + \int (\mathbf{b} \cdot Du) u = 0 \quad (47)$$

Now some integration by parts gives

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{1}{2} \int u^2 \right] = - \int (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b}) \frac{u^2}{2} \leq \sup_{x,t} |\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b}| \left[\frac{1}{2} \int u^2 \right]. \quad (48)$$

Now if $\frac{1}{2} \int u^2 = 0$ at $t=0$, necessarily it has to be 0 at later times.

The energy method is easy to use and almost universally applicable, with one catch: $\int u^2$ must be finite. Thus this method cannot be used to show uniqueness when $u(x, 0)$ does not decay to 0 as $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$.

5. Well-posedness for the case $\mathbf{b} \neq \text{constant}$.

- Existence: Guaranteed by ODE theory, as long as \mathbf{b} is Lipschitz in x .
- Uniqueness: Guaranteed by ODE theory, as long as \mathbf{b} is Lipschitz in x .
- Continuous dependence: If u, \tilde{u} and solutions to the equation with data \mathbf{b}, g and $\tilde{\mathbf{b}}, \tilde{g}$ respectively, taking the difference $e := u - \tilde{u}$ we reach

$$e_t + \mathbf{b} \cdot De = (\tilde{\mathbf{b}} - \mathbf{b}) \cdot D\tilde{u}, \quad e|_{t=0} = g - \tilde{g} \quad (49)$$

which gives

$$e(x, t) = (g - \bar{g})(x_0(x, t)) + \int_0^t (\tilde{\mathbf{b}} - \mathbf{b}) \cdot D\tilde{u}(x_s(x, t), s) ds. \quad (50)$$

From this we see that

1. Non-homogeneous equations need to be understood when studying homogeneous equations;
 2. Estimates of $D\tilde{u}$ is needed. In other words, to study well-posedness, we need to study regularity.
- Regularity: From the formula it is clear that, if g, f are smooth, then u is as regular as $x_0(x, t)$. Standard ODE theory tells us that the regularity of x_0 is the same as that of \mathbf{b} .

6. An example of quasi-linear case.

In the quasi-linear case, regularity of data no longer leads to regularity of the solution. For example, consider the 1D Burgers equation

$$u_t + u u_x = 0, \quad u|_{t=0} = g. \quad (51)$$

The method of characteristics leads to

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = u(x(t), t), \quad x|_{t=0} = x_0, \quad u(x(t), t) = g(x_0). \quad (52)$$

Since $u(x(t), t)$ is a constant, the characteristics $x(t)$ are straight lines. As a consequence, two characteristics with different slope may intersect. However since the slope is simply $1/u$, “different slope” implies the values of u along the two characteristics are different. Thus the solution cannot be defined at the intersection. In other words, the solution cease to be a function in finite time, no matter how smooth g is.