

## First order quasilinear equations

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### More general quasilinear equations

Here we look at the general quasilinear equation in two dimensions:

$$au_x + bu_y = c, \quad (1)$$

in which  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are really  $a(x, y, u(x, y))$ ,  $b(x, y, u(x, y))$ , and  $c(x, y, u(x, y))$ . (It is the dependence of the coefficients on  $u$  that makes the equations *quasilinear*.)

Consider any smooth curve  $(x(\tau), y(\tau))$ . Then, assuming  $u$  is a classical solution of (1), we put  $z(\tau) = u(x(\tau), y(\tau))$ , and find

$$z'(\tau) = x'(\tau)u_x + y'(\tau)u_y$$

so that if  $x'(\tau) = a$  and  $y'(\tau) = b$ , then

$$z' = au_x + bu_y = c.$$

This all means that  $(x, y, z)$  satisfy the *characteristic equations*

$$x'(\tau) = a(x, y, z), \quad y'(\tau) = b(x, y, z), \quad z'(\tau) = c(x, y, z). \quad (2)$$

To summarize so far: Assume that  $u$  is a classical solution of (1). Through each point in the graph of  $u$ ,

$$\text{graph}(u) = \{(x, y, z) \mid z = u(x, y)\},$$

there passes a characteristic curve  $(x(\tau), y(\tau), z(\tau))$  solving (2). Moreover, each such characteristic curve will lie within the graph of  $u$ .

The solution strategy for (1) can now be explained: Since the graph of a classical solution is a union of characteristic curves, we try to construct solutions by putting together characteristic curves.

The graph of  $u$  will be two-dimensional, and a characteristic curve is one-dimensional; so it makes sense to use another variable to keep track of the characteristic curves.

In other words, to construct a solution, we look for three functions  $x(\sigma, \tau)$ ,  $y(\sigma, \tau)$ ,  $z(\sigma, \tau)$  which parametrize a characteristic curve as function of  $\tau$  for each  $\sigma$ . In other words, they should satisfy

$$x_\tau = a, \quad y_\tau = b, \quad z_\tau = c$$

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where, as always,  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are considered functions of  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ .<sup>1</sup> Additionally, we assume that these are  $C^1$  functions, and that  $(x(\sigma, \tau), y(\sigma, \tau))$  has a  $C^1$  inverse, mapping  $(x, y)$  to  $(\sigma, \tau)$ . Then we can define  $u$  by

$$u(x(\sigma, \tau), y(\sigma, \tau)) = z(\sigma, \tau).$$

Differentiating this equation with respect to  $\tau$  yields  $x_\tau u_x + y_\tau u_y = z_\tau$ , which is the same as (1).

To make this construction more concrete, putting  $\tau = 0$  yields a parametric curve  $\gamma$  in the  $(x, y)$ -plane:  $(x(\sigma, 0), y(\sigma, 0))$ , or, if we add a coordinate, a curve  $\Gamma$  in  $\text{graph}(u)$  parametrized as  $(x(\sigma, 0), y(\sigma, 0), z(\sigma, 0))$ . The requirement that  $(x(\sigma, \tau), y(\sigma, \tau))$  has a  $C^1$  inverse implies that the matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} x_\sigma & x_\tau \\ y_\sigma & y_\tau \end{pmatrix}$  is non-singular. At  $\tau = 0$  this simply means that  $\Gamma$  is not tangent to the characteristic curves. We refer to this as the *non-characteristic condition*.

We now see what is a natural condition to impose in order to obtain a unique solution to (1): Namely, given a curve  $\gamma$  in the  $(x, y)$ -plane, and a function  $g$  on  $\gamma$ , assume that the curve  $\Gamma$  given by points  $(\xi, \eta, \zeta)$  with  $(\xi, \eta)$  on  $\gamma$  and  $\zeta = g(\xi, \eta)$  satisfies the non-characteristic condition. Then (1) has a solution  $u$  satisfying the condition

$$u = g \text{ on } \gamma. \quad (3)$$

This solution will exist on a neighbourhood of  $\gamma$ , and be unique there. (Though we must be careful with any end points of  $\gamma$ : They should not be points on  $\gamma$  themselves, as we would then be obliged to extend the solution beyond the end of  $\gamma$ .)

A problem of the form (1) with “initial” data (3) is called a *Cauchy problem* for (1). More generally, a Cauchy problem for a PDE is the problem of solving the PDE along with certain conditions along a curve, or more generally a hypersurface. Often, as is the case here, the PDE more or less dictates the proper form of the Cauchy problem after some analysis.

<sup>1</sup>Well, they were functions of  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $u$ , right? But in this solution, we should think of  $u$  and  $z$  as being the same. We write  $u$  when we emphasize the solution  $u(\tau, x)$ , but  $z$  when we think of the characteristic curves, as in  $z(\tau)$  or  $z(\sigma, \tau)$ . After you have gained some experience, you may find it easier to forget about  $z$  and just write  $u$ . But this may be too confusing in the beginning.

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### The general quasilinear equation in higher dimensions

We can do the exact same procedure, with the same arguments, in  $n$  dimensions as in the 2-dimensional case. Here we summarize the construction *very* briefly.

A general quasilinear equation then takes the form

$$\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{x}, u(\mathbf{x})) \cdot \nabla u(\mathbf{x}) = c(\mathbf{x}, u(\mathbf{x})), \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (4)$$

with given functions  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $c$ .

The *characteristic equations* become

$$\mathbf{x}'(\tau) = \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{x}(\tau), z(\tau)), \quad z'(\tau) = c(\mathbf{x}(\tau), z(\tau)),$$

or written in a more compact form:

$$\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{x}, z), \quad z' = c(\mathbf{x}, z). \quad (5)$$

Assume now that we are given the PDE (4) with the extra condition

$$u(\xi) = g(\xi), \quad \xi \in \gamma, \quad (6)$$

where  $\gamma \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is a *hypersurface*, i.e., a surface of dimension  $n - 1$ . The non-characteristic condition now says that  $\mathbf{a}(\xi, g(\xi))$  is not tangent to  $\gamma$  for any  $\xi \in \gamma$ .

For any  $\xi \in \gamma$ , standard ODE theory guarantees the existence of a solution of (5) satisfying  $\mathbf{x}(0) = \xi$  and  $z(0) = g(\xi)$ . Write  $(\mathbf{x}(\tau, \xi), z(\tau, \xi))$  for this solution, and define

$$u(\mathbf{x}(\tau, \xi)) = z(\tau, \xi), \quad \xi \in \gamma,$$

where again, we can show that this is well defined (for  $\tau$  sufficiently close to 0) by using the inverse function theorem. Further, the  $n + 1$  variables  $t, \xi$  are essentially only  $n$  variables, because  $\gamma$  is  $(n - 1)$ -dimensional. The proof that this produces a classical solution is similar to the 2-dimensional case.