

Lecture 2 Well-posed problems and classification of PDEs

Mathématiques appliquées (MATH0504-1)
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Map of the course

	Transport equation	Wave equation	Diffusion equation	Laplace equation
General introduction	Class 1			
Modelling from physics	Class 1			
Well-posed problems	Class 2			
Classification	Class 2			
Main properties	Class 1	Class 3	Class 4	Class 8
Analytical solution			Class 6	
Von Neumann	Class 5			
Numerical approximation		Class 5	Class 4	Class 10
Boundary problems		Class 7		Class 8
Non-linear	Class 9			

+ Linear algebra (Classes 11, 12, 13)



Learning objectives of this lecture

- ① Understand the notion of “well-posed” problem, together with the concepts of boundary and/or initial conditions
- ② Recognize the main families of
 - 2nd-order PDEs
 - **systems of 1st-order PDEs**



Outline

Initial and boundary conditions

Well-posed problems

Types of second-order PDEs

Types of systems of first-order PDEs





Reminder

What is a PDE? What is the order of a PDE?

A PDE is an identity that relates

- independent variables (e.g. $x, y, t \dots$)
- to a dependent variable u , and its partial derivatives.

We will often denote the derivatives by subscripts, thus e.g. $u_x = \partial u / \partial x$.

The *order* of a PDE is the order of the highest derivative which appears in the equation:

- E.g. 1st order: $F(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = 0$
- E.g. 2nd order: $F(x, y, u, u_x, u_y, u_{xx}, u_{xy}, u_{yy}) = 0$.



What is a linear PDE? When is it homogeneous?

Let us write the PDE in the form $\mathcal{L}(u) = g$,
where

- \mathcal{L} is an operator
- and g is a function of the independent variables (or zero).

We will somehow generalize
this later in this class

A PDE is **linear** if

$$\mathcal{L}(u + v) = \mathcal{L}(u) + \mathcal{L}(v) \text{ and } \mathcal{L}(c u) = c \mathcal{L}(u)$$

for any functions u and v , and any constant c .

Besides, it is **homogeneous** if $g = 0$, i.e. $\mathcal{L}(u) = 0$.



1st order linear PDEs can be reformulated as ODEs;
their solution is constant along characteristic curves

Consider the 1st order PDE

$$a(x, y) u_x + b(x, y) u_y = 0$$

where $a(x, y)$ and $b(x, y)$ are not both equal to zero.

It expresses actually a **directional derivative** of u .

Hence, solving the PDE reduces to solving the ODE:

$$dy / dx = b(x, y) / a(x, y)$$

and the solution of the PDE is constant along the solution curves of this ODE, referred to as **characteristic curves**.



For a 1st order linear PDE with constant coefficients, the characteristic curves are straight lines

Consider the 1st order PDE

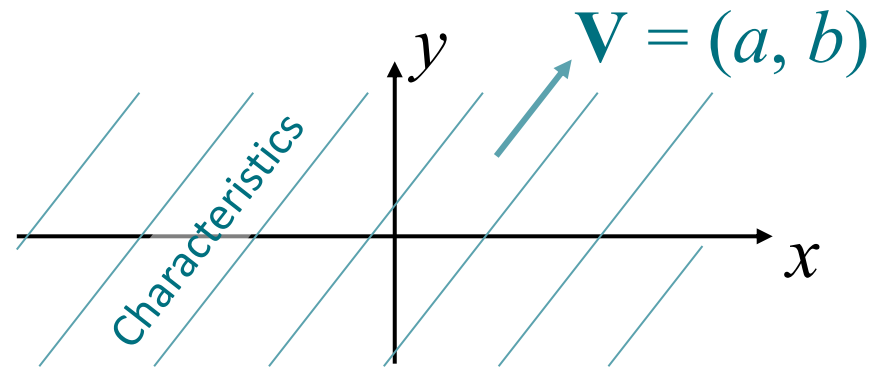
$$a u_x + b u_y = 0$$

where a and b are not both equal to zero.

The general solution of this PDE writes:

$$u(x, y) = f(bx - ay)$$

with any function of one variable.



Need for initial / boundary conditions!



Paradigmatic PDEs

Simple transport

$$u_t + c u_x = 0$$

Wave equation

$$u_{tt} = c^2 (u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz}) = c^2 \Delta u$$

Diffusion equation

$$u_t = k (u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz}) = k \Delta u$$

Laplace equation

$$u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz} = \Delta u = 0$$



1 – Initial and boundary conditions, and the concept of well-posed problems

Initial and boundary conditions

General PDE solutions involve arbitrary functions: to single out one solution we need auxiliary conditions.

For PDEs describing physical phenomena these conditions are motivated by physics and take the form of initial or boundary conditions:

- an *initial condition* specifies the physical state at a particular time t_0 .
- a *boundary condition* specifies the physical state on the boundary of the domain D in which the PDE is valid.



Initial conditions

For the **diffusion equation** $u_t = k \Delta u$,
the initial condition is

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = \phi(\mathbf{x}),$$

E.g. initial temperature,
initial concentration ...

where $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(x, y, z)$ is a given function.

For the **wave equation** $u_{tt} = c^2 \Delta u$,
a pair of initial conditions is needed:

This will be proven
later in the course.

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = \phi(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = \psi(\mathbf{x}),$$

where $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ is the initial position and $\psi(\mathbf{x})$ is the
initial velocity.



Boundary conditions

The three most common types of boundary conditions are:

- (D) u is specified (“*Dirichlet* condition”)
- (N) the normal derivative $\partial u / \partial n$ is specified (“*Neumann* condition”)
- (R) $\partial u / \partial n + a u$ is specified (“*Robin* condition”)

E.g.
violin string

E.g. string
free to move
transversally

E.g. string
attached to
a spring

where a is a given function of x, y, z , and t .

Each is to hold for all t
and for some $\mathbf{x} = (x, y, z)$ belonging to bdy D .



Boundary conditions (cont'd)

Usually we write (D), (N), and (R) as equations.

For instance, (N) is written as the equation

$$\partial u / \partial n = g(x, t)$$

where g is a given function that could be called the boundary data.

Any of these boundary conditions is called *homogeneous* if the specified function equals zero. Otherwise it is called *inhomogeneous*.



Initial and boundary conditions

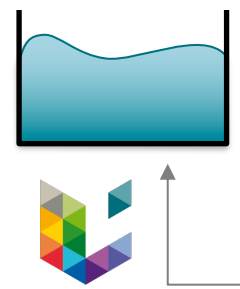
We will come back later on which initial and/or boundary conditions must be specified to set up a problem that has a unique solution.

This depends on the PDE being considered, and can be analyzed mathematically.

Some PDEs are posed in an *unbounded* domain D . In that case conditions “at infinity” are needed.

“Jump” conditions apply when the domain is made of two parts, such as two media for instance.

E.g. waves at the air-water interface



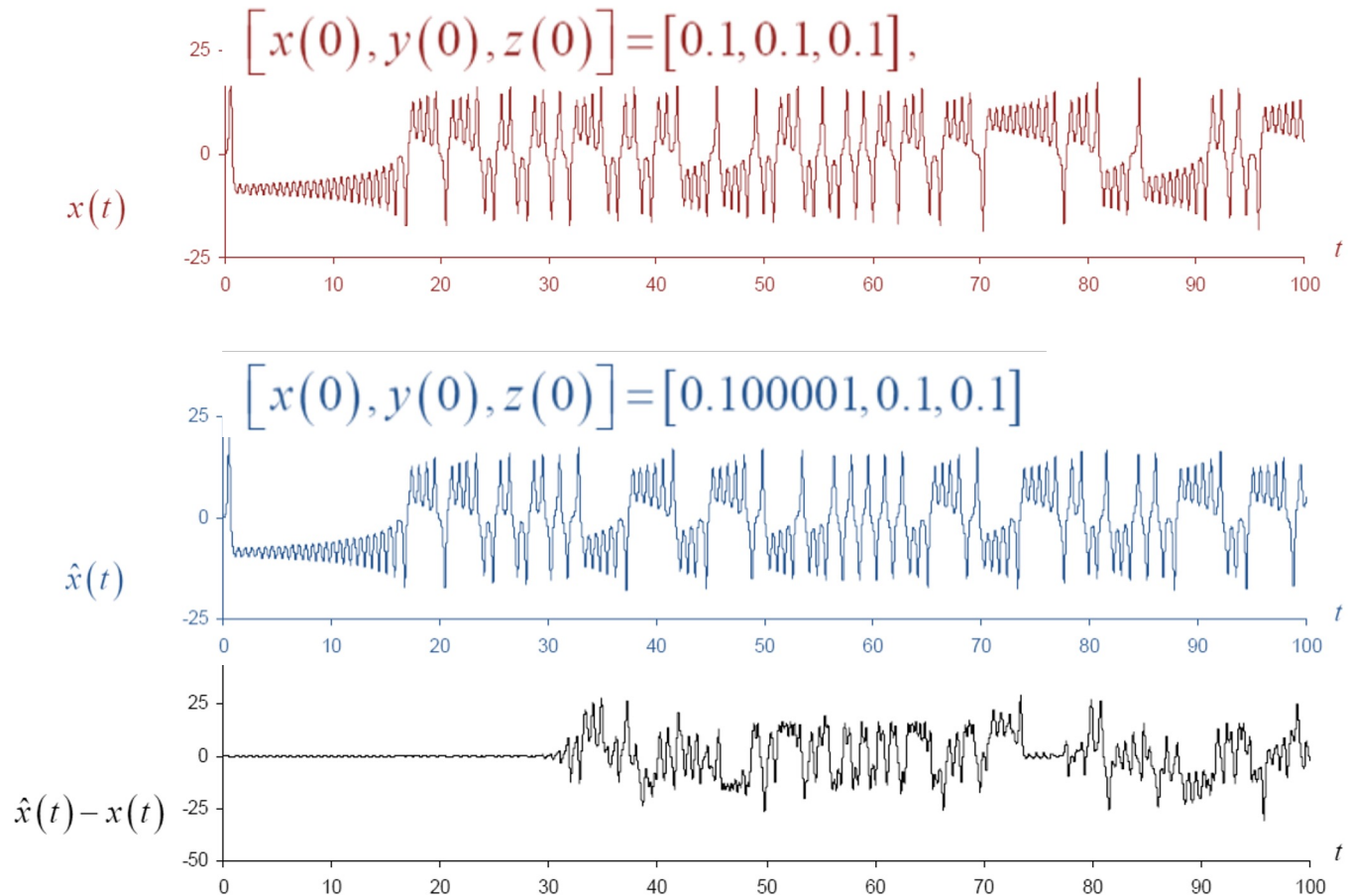
Well-posed problems

Well-posed **problems** consist of a PDE in a domain **with a set of initial and/or boundary conditions** (or other auxiliary conditions) that enjoy the following properties:

1. **existence**: there exists at least one solution $u(x, t)$ satisfying all these conditions.
2. **uniqueness**: there is at most one solution.
3. **stability**: the unique solution $u(x, t)$ depends in a stable manner on the data of the problem. This means that if the data are changed a little, the corresponding solution changes only a little.

This is crucial because you can never measure the input data with perfect precision; but only up to some level of accuracy

An example based on ODEs



(Pope 2000)

Time series from the resolution of the so-called Lorenz equations
for two slightly different initial conditions $[x(0), y(0), z(0)]$



Outline

Initial and boundary conditions

Well-posed problems

Types of second-order PDEs

Types of systems of first-order PDEs

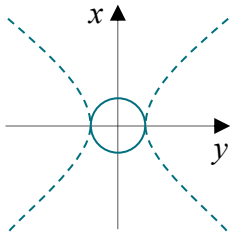


2 – Types of second-order equations

Types of second order equations

Laplace, wave, and diffusion equations are in some sense typical among all second-order PDEs.

However, these three equations are **radically different** from each other, in terms of represented physics, analytical features and numerical schemes.



It is natural that the Laplace equation $u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$ and the wave equation $u_{xx} - u_{yy} = 0$ should have very different properties: after all, the *algebraic* equation $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ represents a circle, whereas the equation $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ represents a hyperbola. The parabola is somehow in between.



Types of Second Order Equations

Let's consider the second order PDE in two variables

$$a_{11}u_{xx} + 2a_{12}u_{xy} + a_{22}u_{yy} + a_1u_x + a_2u_y + a_0u = 0.$$

Theorem 1. By a linear transformation of the independent variables, the equation can be reduced to one of three forms:

(i) *Elliptic case:* If $a_{12}^2 < a_{11}a_{22}$, it is reducible to

$$u_{\xi\xi} + u_{\eta\eta} + \cdots = 0$$

(where \cdots denotes terms of order 1 or 0)



Types of Second Order Equations

(ii) *Hyperbolic case*: If $a_{12}^2 > a_{11}a_{22}$, it is reducible to

$$u_{\xi\xi} - u_{\eta\eta} + \dots = 0$$

(iii) *Parabolic case*: if $a_{12}^2 = a_{11}a_{22}$, it is reducible to

$$u_{\xi\xi} + \dots = 0$$

(unless $a_{11} = a_{12} = a_{22} = 0 \rightarrow 1^{\text{st}}$ order PDE)

We will come back to this classification (and a generalization) later in the course.



Geometric analogy

The key quantity that determines the type of such a PDE is its discriminant:

$$\Delta = (2a_{12})^2 - 4a_{11}a_{22}.$$

This reminds the discriminant of a quadratic equation

$$a_{11}x^2 + 2a_{12}xy + a_{22}y^2 + a_1x + a_2y + a_0 = 0$$

whose solutions trace out a plane curve.

The discriminant fixes its geometric type:

- (i) an *ellipse*: If $\Delta < 0$
- (ii) a *hyperbola*: If $\Delta > 0$
- (iii) a *parabola*: If $\Delta = 0$



3 – Types of systems of first-order PDEs

- i. 1st order quasi-linear PDEs
- ii. Introductory example
- iii. General theory
- iv. Application to a simple example



Here, we focus on systems of 1st order quasi-linear PDEs, with two independent variables



The motivation for studying systems of quasi-linear 1st order PDEs is twofold:

- a broad range of processes in engineering may be described by a set of 1st order PDEs;
- some higher order PDEs may be transformed into a system of 1st order PDEs.

Definition A **quasi-linear PDE** is a PDE in which the derivatives of highest order with respect to each independent variable appear linearly.



Quasi-linear higher order PDEs may be transformed into a system of 1st order PDEs



Let us consider as an example this 2nd order PDE:

$$u_x u_{xx} + u_y^3 u_{xy} + (\tan u) u_{yy} = f(u, u_x, u_y)$$

Define $p = u_x$ and $q = u_y$, so that the original PDE is equivalent to this system of 1st order PDEs:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} p p_x + q^3 (p_y + q_x) / 2 + (\tan u) q_y = f(u, p, q) \\ q_x - p_y = 0 \\ u_x - p = 0 \end{array} \right.$$



Aim: combine the equations so that you end up with a set of ODEs, instead of PDEs



Let us consider now this simpler example:

$$u_{tt} - \varepsilon a^2 u_{xx} = b$$

where, in general, a and b can be functions of x , t , u_x and u_t (not u). Notation ε refers to $+1$ or -1 .

The wave and Laplace equations are particular cases.

Defining $p = u_x$ and $q = u_t$, the 2nd order PDE is equivalent to this system of 1st order PDEs:

$$\begin{cases} q_t - \varepsilon [a(x, t, p, q)]^2 p_x = b(x, t, p, q) \\ p_t - q_x = 0 \end{cases}$$



Aim: combine the equations so that you end up with a set of ODEs, instead of PDEs



$$\begin{cases} q_t - \varepsilon [a(x, t, p, q)]^2 p_x = b(x, t, p, q) & (1) \\ p_t - q_x = 0 & (2) \end{cases}$$

Linearly combining Eqs (1) and (2):

$$\sigma(1) + \lambda(2),$$

with σ and λ coefficients to be determined, leads to:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma \partial_t q - \lambda \partial_x q - \sigma \varepsilon [a(x, t, p, q)]^2 \partial_x p \\ + \lambda \partial_t p = \sigma b(x, t, p, q) \end{aligned}$$



Aim: combine the equations so that you end up with a set of ODEs, instead of PDEs



$$\sigma \partial_t q - \lambda \partial_x q - \sigma \varepsilon \left[a(x, t, p, q) \right]^2 \partial_x p + \lambda \partial_t p = \sigma b(x, t, p, q)$$

or, by re-arranging the terms,

$$\underbrace{\left[\sigma \partial_t - \lambda \partial_x \right]}_{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \lambda^2} \partial_{s_1}} q + \underbrace{\left[\lambda \partial_t - \sigma \varepsilon a^2 \partial_x \right]}_{\sqrt{\lambda^2 + \sigma^2 a^4} \partial_{s_2}} p = \sigma b$$

$$\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \lambda^2} \partial_{s_1}$$

$$\sqrt{\lambda^2 + \sigma^2 a^4} \partial_{s_2}$$

curvilinear coordinates,
with slopes

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \ell_1 = -\frac{\lambda}{\sigma}$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \ell_2 = -\frac{\sigma \varepsilon a^2}{\lambda}$$



Aim: combine the equations so that you end up with a set of ODEs, instead of PDEs



To obtain ODEs (instead of PDEs), the derivation operators in the two terms should be the same (i.e. the slopes ℓ_1 and ℓ_2 of the curvilinear coordinates s_1 and s_2 should be equal):

$$\ell_1 = \ell_2 = \ell \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad -\frac{\lambda}{\sigma} = -\frac{\sigma \varepsilon a^2}{\lambda} = \ell$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \quad \begin{pmatrix} \ell & 1 \\ \varepsilon a^2 & \ell \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma \\ \lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

This leads to the compatibility condition $\ell^2 = \varepsilon a^2$.



Case 1: assume $\varepsilon = +1$ (and $a > 0$)



The compatibility equation $\ell^2 = a^2$ has two **real solutions**: $\ell = a$ and $\ell = -a$.

Hence, the considered system of two PDEs has two independent families of characteristic curves.

By definition, such a system is called **hyperbolic**.

Note that the slope of the characteristic curves depends only on a , the coefficient of the derivatives of highest order, not on b .

In other words, b does not influence the PDE type.



The slope of the characteristics are eigenvalues ...

The considered system of 1st order PDEs

$$\begin{cases} q_t - \varepsilon [a(x, t, p, q)]^2 p_x = b(x, t, p, q) \\ p_t - q_x = 0 \end{cases}$$

may be written in matrix form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} p \\ q \end{pmatrix}_t + \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -\varepsilon a^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{A}} \begin{pmatrix} p \\ q \end{pmatrix}_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that the eigenvalues of matrix \mathbf{A} are nothing but the slopes of the characteristics: $\ell = \pm a$.



Case 2: assume $\varepsilon = -1$ (and $a > 0$)



The compatibility equation $\ell^2 = -a^2$ has two **complex solutions**: $\ell = i a$ and $\ell = -i a$.

Hence, the considered system of two PDEs has **no real families** of characteristic curves.

By definition, such a system is called **elliptic**.

Again, note that the solutions of the compatibility equation depend only on a , the coefficient of the derivatives of highest order, not on b .

Here also, b does not influence the type of PDE.



More general theory of characteristics for a system of 1st order PDEs



Consider now the most general system of 1st order PDEs, with N dependent variables / unknowns:

$$\mathbf{u}_t + \mathbf{A}(x, t, \mathbf{u}) \mathbf{u}_x = \mathbf{h}(x, t, \mathbf{u})$$

with \mathbf{u} the vector of N unknown functions,
 \mathbf{A} a N by N matrix and \mathbf{h} a vector of dimension N .

Any PDE i of the system may be written as:

$$\partial_t u_i + \sum_{j=1}^N A_{ij} \partial_x u_j - h_i = 0$$



More general theory of characteristics for a system of 1st order PDEs



Let us look for a linear combination of the PDEs of the system:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i \partial_t u_i + \sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i \sum_{j=1}^N A_{ij} \partial_x u_j - \sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i h_i = 0$$

where σ_i are coefficients to be determined.

Using Kroenecker delta δ_{ij} , the equations write:

$$\sum_{j=1}^N \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i \delta_{ij} \right) \partial_t + \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i A_{ij} \right) \partial_x \right] u_j = \sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i h_i$$



More general theory of characteristics for a system of 1st order PDEs



The terms in the square brackets are all directional derivatives, which could be written in characteristic form, as follows:

$$\sum_{j=1}^N \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i \delta_{ij} \right) \partial_t + \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i A_{ij} \right) \partial_x \right] u_j = \sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i h_i$$

$$\sigma_j \left(\partial_t + \ell \partial_x \right) = \sigma_j \sqrt{1 + \ell^2} \partial_s$$

where ℓ is the slope of the
characteristic curves

... provided that compatibility conditions are verified!



More general theory of characteristics for a system of 1st order PDEs



The following algebraic equations need to be satisfied, **for all j** :

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i A_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i \delta_{ij}} = \ell \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i A_{ij} - \ell \sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i \delta_{ij} = 0$$

Identity matrix
↓

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\left(A^T \right)_{ji} - \ell \delta_{ij} \right] \sigma_i = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \left(\mathbf{A}^T - \ell \mathbf{I} \right) \boldsymbol{\sigma} = 0$$

⇒ Compatibility condition: $\det(\mathbf{A}^T - \ell \mathbf{I}) = 0$.



More general theory of characteristics for a system of 1st order PDEs



From the compatibility condition $\det(\mathbf{A}^T - \ell \mathbf{I}) = 0$, the N possible characteristic slopes ℓ_k of a system of 1st order PDEs are the **eigenvalues of matrix \mathbf{A}** .

If all eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} are **real** (and corresponding eigenvectors are independent, i.e. \mathbf{A} is diagonalisable), then the system of PDEs is **hyperbolic**.

If all eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} are **complex** (and corresponding eigenvectors are independent, i.e. \mathbf{A} is diagonalisable), then the system of PDEs is **elliptic**.



More general theory of characteristics for a system of 1st order PDEs



The case where the eigenvectors are not independent, i.e. \mathbf{A} is not diagonalisable, often corresponds to **parabolic** systems of PDEs.

If some eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} are real and others are complex, then the system of PDEs is **hybrid**.



A simple example



We consider the case of the wave equation:

$$u_{tt} = c^2 u_{xx}$$

Let us define the following new unknowns:

$$q = u_t \quad \text{and} \quad p = u_x$$

Then, we have the *system* of 1st order PDEs:

$$q_t - c^2 p_x = 0$$

$$p_t - q_x = 0$$



A simple example



The system may be written in matrix form as

$$\begin{pmatrix} q \\ p \end{pmatrix}_t + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -c^2 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} q \\ p \end{pmatrix}_x = 0$$

The **eigenvalues** of the matrix are $\lambda = \pm c$, which correspond to the slopes of the characteristics.

The system of **two 1st order PDEs** has **two families** of characteristics, just like 2nd order wave equation.



Take-home messages

By definition, the solution of a “well-posed” problem *(i)* exists, *(ii)* is unique and *(iii)* is stable. This is achieved by prescribing suitable auxiliary conditions, such as initial and boundary conditions.

Depending on the sign of the coefficients of the highest derivatives, second-order PDEs are either *(i)* elliptic, *(ii)* hyperbolic, or *(iii)* parabolic.

For a system of 1st-order PDEs, the type of the system depends on the eigenvalues of the matrix.

The various types of PDEs have radically different properties → **next class**: the wave equation.



What's next?

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+ Linear algebra (Classes 11, 12, 13)

Répartition entre les salles TD / TP

B5b S24 : TD1

B5b S34 : TD2

B5b S26 : TP1

B5b S28 : TP2

B5b S30 : TP3

