Waves 1

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1 Motivation: Uniform transport

The transport equation models the movement of an object by:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0$$

where c is a fixed constant. It turns out that we can reduce this equation by transforming the coordinate system: instead of viewing x as the position of a fixed object, we can use

$$\xi = x - ct$$

as the position of the object relative to an observer moving at speed c. (train leaving station, etc.)

Writing $u(t,x) = v(t,\xi)$, we have by the chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} - c \frac{\partial v}{\partial \xi} + c \frac{\partial v}{\partial \xi} = 0$$

leaving us with the equation $\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = 0$, which is easily solved by $v(\xi, t) = f(\xi)$, where $f \in C^1$.

Now the solution is given by:

$$u(t,x) = f(x-ct)$$

Note that at time zero, u(0,x) = f(x), so we can have a (unique) solution to the initial value problem when f is specified.

Also note that the solution u(t, x) = c is constant when x = ct + k, this is called a **characteristic curve**, which is considered in more detail in the next section.

1.1 Transport with decay

Now consider the slightly different equation:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + au = 0$$

where a is a constant.

Using the same techniques and solving a linear ODE, we find that the solution is given by:

$$u(t,x) = f(x - ct)e^{-at}$$

2 Non-uniform transport

When we replace c with a function c(x), we recall that in the uniform case the characteristic curve is identified with h(t) = u(t, x(t)) with x(t) = ct + k. (parametrised by t)

On this curve, we have

$$\frac{dh}{dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0$$

(h is constant on the curve)

Following the same idea, we can consider the curve x(t) such that h(t) = u(t, x(t)) is constant. Then we set:

$$\frac{dh}{dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} = 0$$

This is valid when:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = c(x(t))$$

Now we can define the **characteristic curve** as the curve (t, x(t)) which satisfies the ODE above.

In other words, the slope of the characteristic curve is given by the function c(x), if c is constant, then we are back to the uniform case.

To solve the equation, recall h(t) = u(t, x(t)) is constant on the characteristic curve, so it must be a function of the **characteristic variable**

$$\xi(t) = \beta(x) - t$$

where $\beta(x) = \int \frac{dx}{c(x)} = t + k$ is obtained by solving the ODE above. (the curve is thus $x(t) = \beta^{-1}(t+k)$) Thus,

$$u(t,x) = f(\beta(x) - t)$$

where $f \in C^1$ is arbitrary.

Example:

Consider the equation:

$$u_t + (x^2 - 1)u_x = 0$$

In this case, the characteristic curve is given by the solutions to the ODE:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = x^2 - 1$$

which gives $\beta(x) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left| \frac{x-1}{x+1} \right| = t+k$, more explicitly the curve is given by:

$$\left(t, \frac{1 + \exp(2(t+k))}{1 - \exp(2(t+k))}\right)$$

which can only touch the x-axis (we are working with x and t frame) when $k \ge 0$ and admits two horizontal asymptotes x = 1 and x = -1.

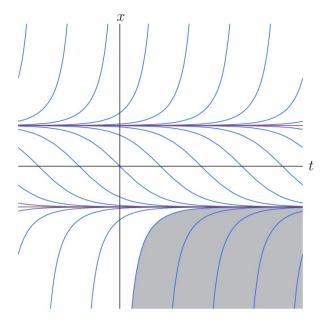


Figure 1: Example taken from Olver

3 Nonlinear Transport and Shocks

Consider the simple nonlinear transport equation, also known as the (inviscid) **Burgers' equation**: (used to model traffic flow, etc.)

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0$$

here the speed depends on the magnitude of the wave.

We follow the same method of characteristics, and obtain the ODE:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = u(t, x(t))$$

Thus, a **characteristic curve** is given by a *straight line*

$$x(t) = ut + k$$

where k is a constant.

Now the solution is *implicitly* given by:

$$u(t,x) = f(x - ut)$$

where f is arbitrary in C^1 .

While we can approach the initial value problem by setting u(0,x) = f(x), it is more intuitive to consider through each point (0,y),

$$x = tf(y) + y$$

with slope u(0, y) = f(y) (since the value along the characteristic curve is specified by the initial function) and we check

$$u(t, tf(y) + y) = f(y)$$

for all t, which ensures the solution will have the same value as the initial function along the characteristic curve.

Example:

If initially f(y) = y, then u(t, x) = u(t, ty + y) = y for all t, so $u(t, x) = \frac{x}{t+1}$ is the solution.

3.1 Types of Characteristic Lines

Recall that characteristic lines determine the solution to the PDE. In the ideal case, we have a unique solution along each characteristic line. However, this is not always true.

Parallel characteristic lines: in this case, the solution is constant along each characteristic line and we have uniqueness.

Diverging characteristic lines: This situation induces a wave called the rarefaction wave. We have the derivative of initial $f'(x) \ge 0$ for all x, so the characteristic lines are diverging. (do not intersect for t > 0)

Intersecting characteristic lines: This situation induces a wave called **compression wave** at first and then deviates away from the classical solution (shock is produced). We have the derivative of initial f'(x) < 0 for some x, so the characteristic lines are converging. (intersect for t > 0)

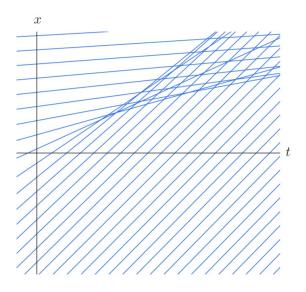


Figure 2: Also from Olver

An important observation is that the characteristic line intersects when the solution wave steepens to be vertical from a compression, which occurs when the derivative

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(t, x_{\star}) \to \infty$$
 as $t \to t_{\star}$

where x_{\star} is the point where the characteristic lines intersect and t_{\star} is the time when the characteristic lines intersect.

To derive this, we consider the intersection of characteristic lines, take an arbitrary y:

$$tf(y) + y = tf(y + \Delta y) + y + \Delta y$$

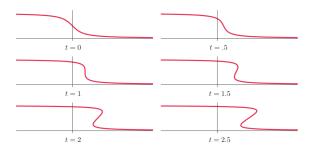


Figure 3: Still from Olver

which gives $t = -\frac{\Delta y}{f(y+\Delta y)-f(y)}$, taking the limit as $\Delta y \to 0$, we obtain the result $t_\star = -\frac{1}{f'(y)}$.

So as soon as we can have a negative derivative for some y, we will be in trouble, thus the critical time is

$$t_{\star} = \min\{-\frac{1}{f'(y)} \mid f'(y) < 0\}$$

Alternatively, we can derive the critical time by differentiating the solution

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x - ut) = f'(x - ut)(1 - t\frac{\partial u}{\partial x})$$

which gives $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{f'(x-ut)}{1+f'(x-ut)t}$, so the critical time is given by 1+f'(x-ut)t=0, which gives $t_{\star} = -\frac{1}{f'(x-ut)}$.

3.2 Shock Dynamics

When the solution produces a discontinuity, the solution graph on the u, x becomes vertical and evovles into something that is not a classical function.

Thus, we need to transform this into a solution according to $some\ law$ by specifying its behaviour after this transformation. We will modify the multi-valued solution by introducing a **shock**, which is a discontinuity in the solution.

Since we are modelling physical phenomena, it is natural to consider various conservation laws.

A **conservation law** in one space dimension is an equation:

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial X}{\partial x} = 0$$

where T is the conserved density and X is the flux. Note those are functions T(t, x, u) and X(t, x, u).

An integrated form of the conservation law is given by:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{a}^{b} T(t, x, u) dx = X(t, b, u) - X(t, a, u)$$

where we take $x \in [a, b]$. This says that the rate of change of the total mass is equal to the flux at the boundary.

To apply this, we can consider first a heuristic argument: the total area under curve remains unchanged when we modify the solution by introducing a shock.

Example: Consider the inviscid Burgers' equation with initial condition:

$$u(0,x) = \begin{cases} a & x < 0 \\ b & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

where a > b, then we can take the mid-point between a and b as the shock value $s = \frac{a+b}{2}$, and we have the solution:

$$u(t,x) = \begin{cases} a & x < \frac{a+b}{2}t\\ b & x > \frac{a+b}{2}t \end{cases}$$

which is a shock wave moving at speed $\frac{a+b}{2}$. In the case where a < b, we can connect the two values at the endpoints to get

$$u(t,x) = \begin{cases} a & x < at \\ b & x > bt \\ x/t & at < x < bt \end{cases}$$

Moving to a more mathematical argument, we have the **Rankine-Hugoniot condition** which governs the shock dynamics uniquely.

Rankine-Hugoniot condition: Let u(t, x) be a solution to the nonlinear transport equation (Burger's equation) with discontinuity at $x = \sigma(t)$ with finite, unequal left and right limits

$$u^{-}(t) = \lim_{x \to \sigma(t)^{-}} u(t, x)$$
 $u^{+}(t) = \lim_{x \to \sigma(t)^{+}} u(t, x)$

Then the conversation of mass deterimes the speed of the shock:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dt} = \frac{u^-(t) + u^+(t)}{2}$$

The proof simply follows from the conservation law. We approximate the mass $M(t) = \int_a^b u(t,x)dx$ by $u^+(t)(b-a)$ with $\sigma(t) = a$, $\sigma(t+\Delta t) = b$. Then we have:

$$\frac{dM}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \left[u^-(t + \Delta t) - u^+(t) \right] \frac{\sigma(t + \Delta t) - \sigma(t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\sigma}{dt} (u^-(t) - u^+(t))$$

Now the flux is given by $\frac{1}{2}[u(\tau,a)^2-u(\tau,b)^2] \to \frac{1}{2}[u^-(t)^2-u^+(t)^2]$ as $\tau \to t$, so setting $\frac{dM}{dt}=\frac{1}{2}[u^-(t)^2-u^+(t)^2]$, we obtain the result.

Another governing condition is the **Entropy condition**:

$$u^{-}(t) > \frac{d\sigma}{dt} = \frac{u^{-}(t) + u^{+}(t)}{2} > u^{+}(t)$$

which gives the bound for shock speed (note this can be applied to our example above).

Example: Now consider the triangular wave initial condition

$$u(0,x) = \begin{cases} x & x \in [0,1] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then we have u(t,tf(y)+y)=y for $y\in[0,1]$ and u(t,tf(y)+y)=u(t,y)=0 otherwise. This translates to $u(t,x)=\frac{x}{t+1}$ for $x\in[0,t+1]$ and u(t,x)=0 for $\{x\leq 0\}\cup\{x\geq 1\}$, hence a multivalued function appears.

Using the Rankine-Hugoniot condition, we have $u^-(t) = u(t, \sigma(t)^-) = \frac{\sigma(t)}{t+1}$ and $u^+(t) = u(t, \sigma(t)^+) = 0$, so the speed of the shock is given by $\frac{d\sigma}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma(t)}{t+1}$, which gives $\sigma(t) = \sqrt{t+1}$, so the solution is given by:

$$u(t,x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{t+1} & x \in [0,\sqrt{t+1}] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In fact, the existence and uniqueness of a solution is guaranteed by the Rankine-Hugoniot condition and the entropy condition.

Theorem: The existence and uniqueness of a (weak) solution to the nonlinear transport equation is guaranteed by the Rankine-Hugoniot condition and the entropy condition if the initial data is: -u(0,x) = f(x), $f \in C^1$

• f has finitely many jump discontinuities

3.3 Extensions to general wave speeds

We can extend the discussions above to the more general version of nonlinear transport equation:

$$u_t + c(u)u_x = 0$$

where c(u) is a function of u.

Now to obtain the characteristic curves, we solve:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = c(u(t, x))$$

So the characteristic curves are given by the solutions to the ODE above as: tc(u) + k = x, which gives u(t,x) = f(x - tc(u)) for some $f \in C^1$.

Now combining with initial condition u(0,x) = f(x), we have u(t,tc(f(y)) + y) = f(y).

The Rankine-Hugoniot condition becomes:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dt} = \frac{C(u^{-}(t)) + C(u^{+}(t))}{u^{-}(t) - u^{+}(t)}$$

where $C(u) = \int c(u)du$ an antiderivative of c(u).