

Math 8590: Viscosity Solutions

Instructor: Jeff Calder

Office: 538 Vincent

Email: jcalder@umn.edu

Office Hours: TBD

<http://www-users.math.umn.edu/~jwcalder/8590F18>

Notation

Notation follows Evans PDE book:

- $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $|x| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$
- $u_{x_i}(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(x + he_i) - u(x)}{h}$
- $Du = (u_{x_1}, u_{x_2}, \dots, u_{x_n})$
- $D^2u = (u_{x_i x_j})_{i,j}$
- $C^k(U) = \{k\text{-times continuously differentiable } u : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$
- $C^k(\overline{U}) = \{u \in C^k(U) : D^\alpha u \text{ uniformly continuous, } |\alpha| \leq k\}^*$
 - * On bounded subsets of U if unbounded.
- $C^{k,\alpha}(\overline{U})$ are the Hölder spaces...

Introduction

We are concerned with fully nonlinear 1st and 2nd order partial differential equations (PDE)

$$(1) \qquad F(D^2u, Du, u, x) = 0.$$

The PDE will hold in some domain $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ with some appropriate boundary condition.

Definition 1. A *classical* solution is a function $u \in C^2(U)$ such that (1) is satisfied at each $x \in U$.

Need for a nonsmooth (weak) solution

For many important applications, classical solutions do not exist.

- Optimal control theory (including stochastic versions)
- Differential games
- Calculus of variations (also in L^∞)
- Geometric evolutions (e.g., curvature motion, level-set method)
- Computer vision and image processing
- More recently machine learning

Viscosity solution is a notion of weak solution for fully nonlinear PDEs that provides the physically correct nonsmooth solution to all the problems above (and, in general, most problems*).

Example 1 (Distance function). Let Γ be a closed subset of \mathbb{R}^n and let $u : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ be the *distance function to Γ* , defined by

$$(2) \qquad u(x) = \text{dist}(x, \Gamma) := \min_{y \in \Gamma} |x - y|.$$

Optimal control theory (Evans Chapter 10)

We have a state $\mathbf{x}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that evolves according to the dynamics

$$(3) \quad \begin{cases} \dot{\mathbf{x}}(s) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(s), \boldsymbol{\alpha}(s)), & (t < s < T) \\ \mathbf{x}(t) = x. \end{cases}$$

The goal is to select the control $\boldsymbol{\alpha}(t)$ so as to minimize the cost functional

$$(4) \quad C_{x,t}[\boldsymbol{\alpha}(\cdot)] := \int_t^T r(\mathbf{x}(s), \boldsymbol{\alpha}(s)) ds + g(\mathbf{x}(T)).$$

The *value function*

$$(5) \quad u(x, t) = \inf_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}(\cdot)} C_{x,t}[\boldsymbol{\alpha}(\cdot)]$$

satisfies (in the viscosity sense) the Hamilton-Jacobi-Bellman equation

$$(6) \quad \begin{cases} u_t + \min_a \{ \mathbf{f}(x, a) \cdot Du + r(x, a) \} = 0 & \text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \times (0, T) \\ u = g & \text{on } \mathbb{R}^n \times \{t = T\}. \end{cases}$$

Example 2 (Mean curvature motion)

For a smooth curve $\gamma(p)$, $p \in \mathbb{R}^2$, the curvature at p is defined as

$$(7) \quad \kappa(p) = \frac{d\theta}{ds}(p),$$

where s = arclength and θ = angle between tangent and reference axis.

Exercise 1. The curvature of a circle of radius R is $\kappa = 1/R$. Here, R is the *radius of curvature*.

Exercise 2. For a curve $\gamma(\tau) = (x(\tau), y(\tau))$, the curvature is

$$(8) \quad \kappa(t) = \frac{x'y'' - x''y'}{(x'^2 + y'^2)^{3/2}},$$

where $' = \frac{d}{d\tau}$.

Exercise 3. For a curve $\gamma(x) = (x, f(x))$ with $f(0) = f'(0) = 0$, the curvature at $(0, 0)$ is

$$(9) \quad \kappa = f''(0).$$

Curvature motion of planar curves

Curvature motion moves a curve in the direction of its inward normal with a speed equal to curvature. That is, curvature motion generates a family of curves $C(t, \tau) = (x(t, \tau), y(t, \tau))$ satisfying the coupled PDE

$$(10) \quad \begin{cases} \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} = \left(\frac{x'y'' - x''y'}{(x'^2 + y'^2)^{3/2}} \right) \frac{-y'}{\sqrt{x'^2 + y'^2}}, \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = \left(\frac{x'y'' - x''y'}{(x'^2 + y'^2)^{3/2}} \right) \frac{x'}{\sqrt{x'^2 + y'^2}}. \end{cases}$$

In more compact notation

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \kappa \mathbf{N},$$

where $\mathbf{N} = (-y', x')/\sqrt{x'^2 + y'^2}$ is the unit inward normal vector to C .

Curvature motion is gradient descent on length

Define the length of $C = (x(\tau), y(\tau))$ by

$$(11) \quad L(C) = \int_a^b \sqrt{x'^2 + y'^2} d\tau.$$

Suppose $C(s) = (x(s), y(s))$ is parameterised by arclength s , and consider a perturbation in the normal direction $C(s) + \varepsilon v(s)\mathbf{N}(s)$.

We compute ($\cdot = \frac{d}{ds}$)

$$(12) \quad \left. \frac{d}{d\varepsilon} \right|_{\varepsilon=0} L(C + \varepsilon v\mathbf{N}) = \int_a^b (\ddot{x}\dot{y} - \dot{x}\ddot{y})v ds.$$

Gage-Hamilton-Grayson Theorem

A smooth simple closed curve in the **plane** that undergoes curvature motion remains smoothly embedded without self-intersections, will eventually become and remain convex, and shrink to a single point, becoming asymptotically *round*.

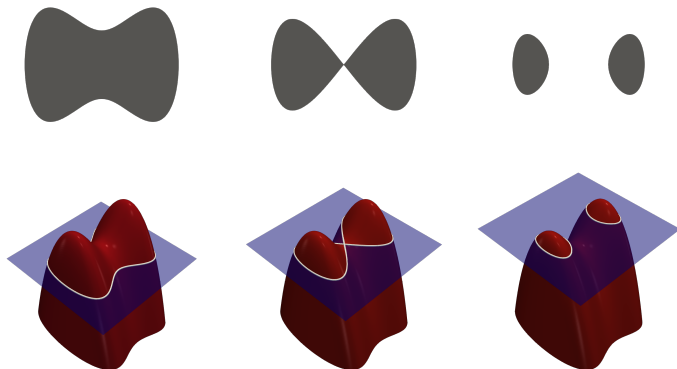
- Gage & Hamilton (1986) proved smooth convex curves contract to a point.
- Grayson (1987) proved that every non-convex curve eventually becomes convex.
- Simpler proofs have emerged since (Andrews & Bryan (2011)).

This is all in the **classical setting** (solutions are smooth, etc).

Level-set method

The level-set method represents the evolving curve $C(t)$ implicitly as the zero level-set of a function $u : \mathbb{R}^2 \times [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. That is,

$$(13) \quad C(t) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : u(x, t) = 0\}.$$



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Level-set_method

Level-set method

The level-set method represents the evolving curve $C(t)$ implicitly as the zero level-set of a function $u : \mathbb{R}^2 \times [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. That is,

$$(14) \quad C(t) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : u(x, t) = 0\}.$$

If $C(t)$ evolves according to curvature motion $\partial C / \partial t = \kappa \mathbf{N}$ then u satisfies (formally) the level-set equation

$$(15) \quad u_t - \frac{\nabla^\perp u \cdot D^2 u \nabla^\perp u}{|\nabla u|^2} = 0,$$

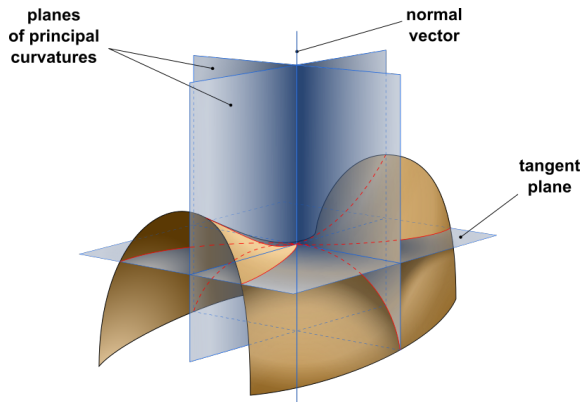
where $\nabla^\perp u = (u_{x_2}, -u_{x_1})$. The **viscosity solution** theory applies to the level-set equation for curvature motion (15). The PDE can be rewritten as

$$(16) \quad u_t - |\nabla u| \operatorname{div} \left(\frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|} \right) = 0.$$

Curvature of surfaces

For a smooth surface $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ we have curvatures in each direction $v \in T_p S$:

$\kappa(p; v) = \text{Curvature of intersection of } S \text{ and the plane } \text{span}(v, N)$



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Principal_curvature

Curvature of surfaces

The *principal curvatures* are

$$\kappa_1(p) = \min_{v \in T_p S} \kappa(p; v) \quad \text{and} \quad \kappa_2(p) = \max_{v \in T_p S} \kappa(p; v).$$

The principal curvatures occur in orthogonal directions if $\kappa_1 \neq \kappa_2$.

We define the *mean curvature*

$$(17) \qquad H(p) = \kappa_1(p) + \kappa_2(p),$$

and the *Gauss curvature*

$$(18) \qquad K(p) = \kappa_1(p)\kappa_2(p).$$

Gauss curvature is an *intrinsic* quantity (Gauss's Theorema Egregium).

Curvature of surfaces

Exercise 4. For a flat space (e.g., a plane), $\kappa_1 = \kappa_2 = H = K = 0$.

Exercise 5. For a sphere of radius $R > 0$, $\kappa_1 = \kappa_2 = 1/R$, $H = 2/R$ and $K = 1/R^2$.

Exercise 6. For a cylinder of radius $R > 0$, $\kappa_1 = 0$, $\kappa_2 = 1/R$, $H = 1/R$ and $K = 0$.

Curvature of surfaces

Exercise 7. For a surface $z = f(x, y)$ with $f(0, 0) = 0$ and $Df(0, 0) = 0$,

$$\kappa_1(0, 0), \kappa_2(0, 0) = \text{Eigenvalues of Hessian matrix } D^2f(0, 0),$$

$$(\text{Mean curvature}) \ H(0, 0) = \text{Trace}(D^2f(0, 0)) = f_{xx}(0, 0) + f_{yy}(0, 0),$$

$$(\text{Gauss curvature}) \ K(0, 0) = \det(D^2f(0, 0)) = f_{xx}(0, 0)f_{yy}(0, 0) - f_{xy}(0, 0)^2.$$

Mean curvature motion

Mean curvature motion evolves a surface with normal speed equal to mean curvature:

$$(19) \quad \frac{\partial S}{\partial t}(p) = H(p)\mathbf{N}(p).$$

Mean curvature motion is gradient descent on the surface area functional

$$(20) \quad A(S) = \int_S dS.$$

Demo: Gage-Hamilton-Grayson theorem does **not** hold in dimension $n \geq 3$. Surface can develop singularities in finite time, after which point **classical** solutions fail to exist.

Level-set method

The level-set method represents the evolving surface $S(t)$ implicitly as the zero level-set of a function $u : \mathbb{R}^3 \times [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. That is,

$$(21) \quad S(t) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^3 : u(x, t) = 0\}.$$

If $S(t)$ evolves according to mean curvature motion $\partial S / \partial t = H\mathbf{N}$ then u satisfies (formally) the level-set equation

$$(22) \quad u_t - |\nabla u| \operatorname{div} \left(\frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|} \right) = 0.$$

The viscosity solution of (22) exists and is unique for all time, allowing us to interpret mean curvature motion beyond singularities.

Level-set method

References:

- Level-set method was invented by Sethian and Osher (1988) as an efficient numerical scheme for tracking evolving fronts and surfaces.
- Evans and Spruck (1991) proved well-posedness of the level-set equation for mean curvature motion in the viscosity sense, and proposed it as a notion of generalized mean curvature motion.