Traffic flow

Linear cascades Linear systems Delay differential equations Laplace transform

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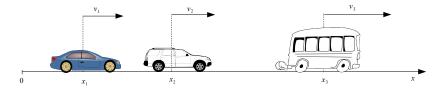
Problem formulation

Want to model

- ► N cars
- on a straight road
- no overtaking
- adjustment of speed on driver in front

Hypotheses

- N cars in total.
- Road is the x-axis.
- $x_n(t)$ position of the *n*th car at time *t*.
- $v_n(t) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} x'_n(t)$ velocity of the *n*th car at time *t*.



• All cars start with the same initial speed v_0 before time t = 0.

Moving frame coordinates

To make computations easier, express velocity of cars in a reference frame moving at speed u_0 .

Remark that here, speed=velocity, since movement is 1-dimensional.

Let

$$u_n(t)=v_n(t)-u_0.$$

Then $u_n(t) = 0$ for $t \le 0$, and u_n is the speed of the *n*th car in the moving frame coordinates.

Modeling driver behavior

Assume that

- Driver adjusts his/her speed according to relative speed between his/her car and the car in front.
- This adjustment is a linear term, equal to λ for all drivers.

▶ First car: evolution of speed remains to be determined.

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Second car:

$$u_2'=\lambda(u_1-u_2).$$

Third car:

$$u_3' = \lambda(u_2 - u_3)$$

• Thus, for
$$n = 1, \ldots, N - 1$$
,

$$u'_{n+1} = \lambda(u_n - u_{n+1}).$$
 (1)

This can be solved using *linear cascades*: if $u_1(t)$ is known, then

$$u_2' = \lambda(u_1(t) - u_2)$$

is a linear first-order nonhomogeneous equation. Solution (integrating factors, or variation of constants) is

$$u_2(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t} \int_0^t u_1(s) e^{\lambda s} ds$$

Then use this function $u_2(t)$ in u'_3 to get $u_3(t)$,

$$u_3(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t} \int_0^t u_2(s) e^{\lambda s} ds$$

Thus

$$u_{3}(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t} \int_{0}^{t} u_{2}(s) e^{\lambda s} ds$$

= $\lambda e^{-\lambda t} \int_{0}^{t} \left(\lambda e^{-\lambda s} \int_{0}^{s} u_{1}(q) e^{\lambda q} dq \right) ds$
= $\lambda^{3} e^{-\lambda t} \int_{0}^{t} e^{-\lambda s} \int_{0}^{s} u_{1}(q) e^{\lambda q} dq ds$

Continue the process to get the solution.

Example

Suppose driver of car 1 follows this function

$$u_1(t) = \alpha \sin(\omega t)$$

that is, ω -periodic, 0 at t = 0 (we want all cars to start with speed relative to the moving reference equal to 0), and with amplitude α .

Then

$$u_{2}(t) = \lambda \alpha e^{-\lambda t} \int_{0}^{t} \sin(\omega s) e^{\lambda s} ds$$

= $\lambda \alpha e^{-\lambda t} \left(\frac{\omega - \omega e^{\lambda t} \cos(\omega t) + \lambda e^{\lambda t} \sin(\omega t)}{\lambda^{2} + \omega^{2}} \right)$
= $\frac{\lambda \alpha}{\lambda^{2} + \omega^{2}} \left(\omega e^{-\lambda t} + \lambda \sin(\omega t) - \omega \cos(\omega t) \right).$

When $t \to \infty$, first term goes to 0, we are left with a ω -periodic term.

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Continuing the process,

$$u_{3}(t) = \frac{\lambda^{2} \alpha}{\lambda^{2} + \omega^{2}} e^{-\lambda t} \times \int_{0}^{t} \left(\omega e^{-\lambda s} + \lambda \sin(\omega s) - \omega \cos(\omega s) \right) e^{\lambda s} ds$$

that is,

$$u_{3}(t) = \frac{\lambda^{2} \alpha}{\lambda^{2} + \omega^{2}} e^{-\lambda t} \left(\omega t + \int_{0}^{t} \left(\lambda \sin(\omega s) - \omega \cos(\omega s) \right) e^{\lambda s} ds \right)$$
$$= \frac{\lambda^{2} \alpha}{\lambda^{2} + \omega^{2}} \left(\omega t + \frac{2\lambda \omega}{\lambda^{2} + \omega^{2}} \right) e^{-\lambda t}$$
$$- \frac{\lambda^{2} \alpha}{(\lambda^{2} + \omega^{2})^{2}} \left(2\lambda \omega \cos(\omega t) - \lambda^{2} \sin(\omega t) + \omega^{2} \sin(\omega t) \right)$$

Once again, the terms in $e^{-\lambda t}$ vanishes for large t, and we are left with 3 ω -periodic terms.

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Linear ODEs

Definition (Linear ODE)

A linear ODE is a differential equation taking the form

$$\frac{d}{dt}x = A(t)x + B(t), \qquad (LNH)$$

where $A(t) \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ with continuous entries, $B(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with real valued, continuous coefficients, and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. The associated IVP takes the form

$$\frac{d}{dt}x = A(t)x + B(t)$$

$$x(t_0) = x_0.$$
(2)

Types of systems

- x' = A(t)x + B(t) is linear nonautonomous (A(t) depends on t) nonhomogeneous (also called *affine* system).
- x' = A(t)x is linear nonautonomous homogeneous.
- x' = Ax + B, that is, A(t) ≡ A and B(t) ≡ B, is linear autonomous nonhomogeneous (or affine autonomous).
- x' = Ax is linear autonomous homogeneous.

If A(t + T) = A(t) for some T > 0 and all t, then linear periodic.

Existence and uniqueness of solutions

Theorem (Existence and Uniqueness)

Solutions to (2) exist and are unique on the whole interval over which A and B are continuous.

In particular, if A, B are constant, then solutions exist on \mathbb{R} .

Autonomous linear systems

Consider the autonomous affine system

$$\frac{d}{dt}x = Ax + B,\tag{A}$$

and the associated homogeneous autonomous system

$$\frac{d}{dt}x = Ax.$$
 (L)

Exponential of a matrix

Definition (Matrix exponential)

Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{K})$ with $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} . The *exponential* of A, denoted e^{At} , is a matrix in $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{K})$, defined by

$$e^{At} = \mathbb{I} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} A^k,$$

where \mathbb{I} is the identity matrix in $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{K})$.

Properties of the matrix exponential

•
$$e^{At_1}e^{At_2} = e^{A(t_1+t_2)}$$
 for all $t_1, t_2 \in \mathbb{R}$. 1

•
$$Ae^{At} = e^{At}A$$
 for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

•
$$(e^{At})^{-1} = e^{-At}$$
 for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

• The unique solution ϕ of (L) with $\phi(t_0) = x_0$ is given by

$$\phi(t)=e^{A(t-t_0)}x_0.$$

Computing the matrix exponential

Let *P* be a nonsingular matrix in $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$. We transform the IVP

$$\frac{d}{dt}x = Ax$$

$$x(t_0) = x_0$$
(L_IVP)

using the transformation x = Py or $y = P^{-1}x$.

The dynamics of y is

$$y' = (P^{-1}x)'$$
$$= P^{-1}x'$$
$$= P^{-1}Ax$$
$$= P^{-1}APy$$

The initial condition is $y_0 = P^{-1}x_0$.

Linear systems of ODE - Brief theory

We have thus transformed IVP (L_IVP) into

$$\frac{d}{dt}y = P^{-1}APy$$

$$y(t_0) = P^{-1}x_0$$
(L_IVP_y)

From the earlier result, we then know that the solution of (L_IVP_y) is given by

$$\psi(t) = e^{P^{-1}AP(t-t_0)}P^{-1}x_0$$

and since x = Py, the solution to (L₋IVP) is given by

$$\phi(t) = P e^{P^{-1} A P(t-t_0)} P^{-1} x_0.$$

So everything depends on $P^{-1}AP$.

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Diagonalizable case

Assume *P* nonsingular in $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$P^{-1}AP = egin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \ & \ddots & \ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

with all eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ different.

We have $e^{P^{-1}\mathcal{A}P} = \mathbb{I} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}^k$

For a (block) diagonal matrix M of the form

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} m_{11} & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & m_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

there holds

$$M^k = \begin{pmatrix} m_{11}^k & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & m_{nn}^k \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore,

$$e^{P^{-1}AP} = \mathbb{I} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^k & 0\\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & \lambda_n^k \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} \lambda_1^k & 0\\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} \lambda_n^k \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & 0\\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & e^{\lambda_n t} \end{pmatrix}$$

And so the solution to $(L_{-}IVP)$ is given by

$$\phi(t) = P egin{pmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & 0 \ & \ddots & \ 0 & e^{\lambda_n t} \end{pmatrix} P^{-1} x_0.$$

Nondiagonalizable case

The Jordan canonical form is

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{pmatrix} J_0 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & J_s \end{pmatrix}$$

so we use the same property as before (but with block matrices now), and

$$e^{P^{-1}APt}=egin{pmatrix} e^{J_0t}&0\&\ddots\&0\&e^{J_st}\end{pmatrix}$$

The first block in the Jordan canonical form takes the form

$$J_0 = egin{pmatrix} \lambda_0 & & 0 \ & \ddots & \ 0 & & \lambda_k \end{pmatrix}$$

and thus, as before,

$$e^{J_0t}=egin{pmatrix} e^{\lambda_0t}&0\&\ddots\&0\&e^{\lambda_kt} \end{pmatrix}$$

Other blocks J_i are written as

$$J_i = \lambda_{k+i} \mathbb{I} + N_i$$

with I the $n_i \times n_i$ identity and N_i the $n_i \times n_i$ nilpotent matrix

$$N_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & 1 \\ 0 & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\lambda_{k+i}\mathbb{I}$ and N_i commute, and thus

$$e^{J_it} = e^{\lambda_{k+i}t}e^{N_it}$$

Since N_i is nilpotent, $N_i^k = 0$ for all $k \ge n_i$, and the series $e^{N_i t}$ terminates, and

$$e^{J_it}=e^{\lambda_{k+i}t}egin{pmatrix} 1&t&\cdots&rac{t^{n_i-1}}{(n_i-1)!}\ 0&1&\cdots&rac{t^{n_i-2}}{(n_i-2)!}\ &&&\ 0&&&1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem

For all $(t_0, x_0) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n$, there is a unique solution x(t) to (L_IVP) defined for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Each coordinate function of x(t) is a linear combination of functions of the form

$$t^k e^{\alpha t} \cos(\beta t)$$
 and $t^k e^{\alpha t} \sin(\beta t)$

where $\alpha + i\beta$ is an eigenvalue of A and k is less than the algebraic multiplicity of the eigenvalue.

Generalized eigenvectors

Definition (Generalized eigenvectors)

Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_r(\mathbb{R})$. Suppose λ is an eigenvalue of A with multiplicity $m \leq n$. Then, for k = 1, ..., m, any nonzero solution v of

$$(A-\lambda\mathbb{I})^k v = 0$$

is called a generalized eigenvector of A.

Definition (Nilpotent matrix)

Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$. A is *nilpotent* (of order k) if $A^j \neq 0$ for j = 1, ..., k - 1, and $A^k = 0$.

Jordan normal form

Theorem (Jordan normal form)

Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ have eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$, repeated according to their multiplicities.

- Then there exists a basis of generalized eigenvectors for \mathbb{R}^n .
- And if {v₁,..., v_n} is any basis of generalized eigenvectors for ℝⁿ, then the matrix P = [v₁ ··· v_n] is invertible, and A can be written as

$$A=S+N,$$

where

$$P^{-1}SP = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_j),$$

the matrix N = A - S is nilpotent of order $k \le n$, and S and N commute, i.e., SN = NS.

Theorem

Under conditions of the Jordan normal form Theorem, the linear system x' = Ax with initial condition $x(0) = x_0$, has solution

$$x(t) = P \operatorname{diag}\left(e^{\lambda_j t}\right) P^{-1}\left(\mathbb{I} + Nt + \cdots \frac{t^k}{k!}N^k\right) x_0.$$

The result is particularly easy to apply in the following case. Theorem (Case of an eigenvalue of multiplicity *n*) Suppose that λ is an eigenvalue of multiplicity *n* of $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$. Then $S = \text{diag}(\lambda)$, and the solution of x' = Ax with initial value x_0 is given by

$$x(t) = e^{\lambda t} \left(\mathbb{I} + Nt + \cdots \frac{t^k}{k!} N^k \right) x_0.$$

In the simplified case, we do not need the matrix P (the basis of generalized eigenvectors).

Linear systems of ODE - Brief theory

A variation of constants formula

Theorem (Variation of constants formula) Consider the IVP

$$x' = Ax + B(t) \tag{3a}$$

$$x(t_0) = x_0, \tag{3b}$$

where $B : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ a smooth function on \mathbb{R} , and let $e^{A(t-t_0)}$ be matrix exponential associated to the homogeneous system x' = Ax. Then the solution ϕ of (3) is given by

$$\phi(t) = e^{A(t-t_0)} x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A(t-s)} B(s) ds.$$
(4)

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Computation in our case

Consider the case of 3 cars. Let

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then the system can be written as

$$X' = egin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 0 \ \lambda & -\lambda \end{pmatrix} U + egin{pmatrix} \lambda u_1(t) \ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

which we write for short as X' = AX + B(t).

The matrix A has the eigenvalue $-\lambda$ with multiplicity 2. Its Jordan form is obtained by using the maple function JordanForm:

giving

$$J = egin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \ 0 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

To get the matrix of change of basis,

giving

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \lambda & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

which is such that $P^{-1}AP = J$.

Linear systems - Our case

Because $-\lambda$ is an eigenvalue with multiplicity 2 (same as the size of the matrix), we can use the simplified theorem, and only need N.

We have

$$N = A - S$$

= $\begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 0 \\ \lambda & -\lambda \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix}$
= $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \lambda & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Clearly, $N^2 = 0$, so, by the theorem in the simplified case,

$$x(t) = e^{-\lambda t} \left(\mathbb{I} + Nt \right) x_0$$

But we know that solutions are unique, and that the solution to the differential equation is given by $x(t) = e^{At}x_0$. This means that

$$e^{At} = e^{-\lambda t} (\mathbb{I} + Nt)$$

= $e^{-\lambda t} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \lambda t & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right)$
= $e^{-\lambda t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \lambda t & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
= $\begin{pmatrix} e^{-\lambda t} & 0 \\ \lambda t e^{-\lambda t} & e^{-\lambda t} \end{pmatrix}$

Now notice that the solution to

$$X' = AX$$

is trivially established here, since

$$X(0) = \begin{pmatrix} u_2(0) \\ u_3(0) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

and thus

$$X(t)=e^{At}0=0.$$

 e^{At} does however play a role in the solution (fortunately), since it is involved in the variation of constants formula:

$$X(t) = e^{At}X_0 + \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)}B(s)ds$$

Thus we need to compute $e^{A(t-s)}B(s)$, and then the integral.

$$e^{A(t-s)}B(s) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-\lambda(t-s)} & 0\\ \lambda(t-s)e^{-\lambda(t-s)} & e^{-\lambda(t-s)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda u_1(s)\\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} \lambda e^{-\lambda(t-s)}u_1(s)\\ \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda(t-s)}(t-s)u_1(s) \end{pmatrix}$$

and thus

$$\int_{0}^{t} e^{A(t-s)} B(s) ds = \int_{0}^{t} \left(\begin{array}{c} \lambda e^{-\lambda(t-s)} u_{1}(s) \\ \lambda^{2} e^{-\lambda(t-s)}(t-s) u_{1}(s) \end{array} \right) ds$$

$$= \left(\begin{array}{c} \int_{0}^{t} \lambda e^{-\lambda(t-s)} u_{1}(s) ds \\ \int_{0}^{t} \lambda^{2} e^{-\lambda(t-s)}(t-s) u_{1}(s) ds \end{array} \right)$$

$$= \left(\begin{array}{c} \lambda e^{-\lambda t} \int_{0}^{t} e^{\lambda s} u_{1}(s) ds \\ \lambda^{2} e^{-\lambda t} \int_{0}^{t} e^{\lambda s} (t-s) u_{1}(s) ds \end{array} \right)$$

$$= \left(\begin{array}{c} \lambda e^{-\lambda t} \int_{0}^{t} e^{\lambda s} u_{1}(s) ds \\ \lambda^{2} e^{-\lambda t} \left(t \int_{0}^{t} e^{\lambda s} u_{1}(s) ds - \int_{0}^{t} s e^{\lambda s} u_{1}(s) ds \end{array} \right)$$

Let

$$\Psi(t)=\int_0^t e^{\lambda s}u_1(s)ds$$

and

$$\Phi(t) = \int_0^t s e^{\lambda s} u_1(s) ds$$

These can be computed when we choose a function $u_1(t)$. Then, finally, we have

$$X(t) = \int_0^t e^{A(t-s)} B(s) ds$$
$$= \left(\begin{array}{c} \lambda e^{-\lambda t} \Psi(t) \\ \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda t} \left(t \Psi(t) - \Phi(t) \right) \end{array} \right)$$

Case of the $\alpha \sin(\omega t)$ driver

We set

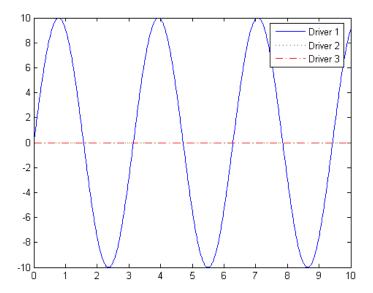
$$u_1(t) = \alpha \sin(\omega t).$$

Then

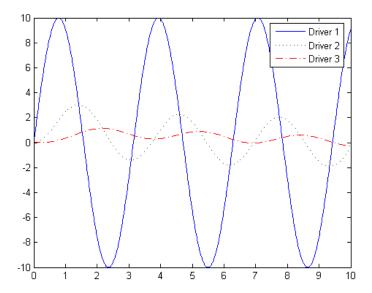
$$\Psi(t) = \frac{\alpha(\omega - \omega e^{\lambda t} \cos(\omega t) + \lambda e^{\lambda t} \sin(\omega t))}{\lambda^2 + \omega^2}$$

and

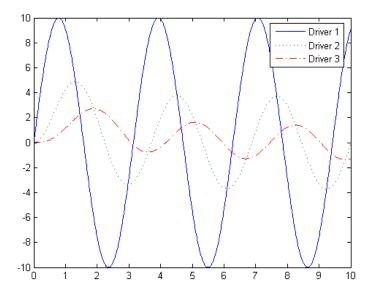
$$\Phi(t) = \frac{\alpha(\lambda^3 t + \lambda t\omega^2 - \lambda^2 + \omega^2)\sin(\omega t)e^{\lambda t}}{(\lambda^2 + \omega^2)^2} - \frac{\alpha\omega\cos(\omega t)(t\lambda^2 + t\omega^2 - 2\lambda)e^{\lambda t} + 2\alpha\lambda\omega}{(\lambda^2 + \omega^2)^2}$$



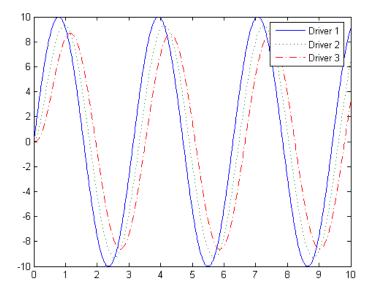
 $\lambda = \mathbf{0}$ Linear systems – Our case



 $\lambda = 0.4$ Linear systems – Our case



 $\lambda = 0.8$ Linear systems – Our case



 $\lambda=5$ Linear systems – Our case

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A delay differential equations model

- In the previous model, reaction time is instantaneous.
- In practice, this is known to be incorrect: reflexes and psychology play a role.
- It takes at least a few instants to acknowledge a change of speed in the car in front.
- If the change of speed is not threatening, then you may not want to react right away.
- When you press the accelerator or the brake, there is a delay between the action and the reaction..

A delayed model of traffic flow

We consider the same setting as previously, except that now, for t > 0,

$$u'_{n+1}(t) = \lambda(u_n(t-\tau) - u_{n+1}(t-\tau)), \qquad (5)$$

for n = 1, ..., N - 1. Here, $\tau \ge 0$ is called the *time delay* (or *time lag*), or for short, *delay* (or *lag*).

If $\tau = 0$, we are back to the previous model.

Initial data

For a delay equation such as (5), the initial conditions become *initial data*. This initial data must be specified on an interval of length τ , left of zero.

This is easy to see by looking at the terms: $u(t - \tau)$ involves, at time t, the state of u at time $t - \tau$. So if $t < \tau$, we need to know what happened for $t \in [-\tau, 0]$.

So, normally, we specify initial data as

$$u_n(t) = \phi(t)$$
 for $t \in [-\tau, 0]$,

where ϕ is some function, that we assume to be continuous. We assume $u_1(t)$ is known.

Here, we assume, for $n = 1, \ldots, N$,

$$u_n(t)=0, \qquad t\leq (n-1)\tau$$

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Important remark

Although (5) looks very similar to (1), you must keep in mind that it is in fact much more complicated.

- A solution to (1) is a continuous function from ℝ to ℝ (or to ℝⁿ if we consider the system).
- A solution to (5) is a continuous function in the space of continuous functions.
- ► The space ℝⁿ has dimension n. The space of continuous functions has dimension ∞.

We can use the Laplace transform to get some understanding of the nature of the solutions.

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The Laplace transform

Definition (Laplace transform)

Let f(t) be a function defined for $t \ge 0$. The Laplace transform of f is the function F(s) defined by

$$F(s) = \mathcal{L}{f(t)} = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt.$$

The Laplace transform is a linear operator:

$$\mathcal{L}\{af(t) + bg(t)\} = a\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} + b\mathcal{L}\{g(t)\}.$$

Rules of transformation

<i>t</i> -domain	<i>s</i> -domain
af(t) + bg(t)	aF(s) + bG(s)
tf(t)	-F'(s)
$t^n f(t)$	$(-1)^n F^{(n)}(s)$
f'	sF(s)-f(0)
f″	$s^{2}F(s) - sf(0) - f'(0)$
$f^{(n)}$	$s^n F(s) - s^{n-1} f(0) - \cdots - f^{(n-1)}(0)$
$\frac{f(t)}{\int_0^t f(u)du} = u(t) * f(t)$	$\int_{s}^{\infty} F(u) du$
$\int_0^t f(u) du = u(t) * f(t)$	$\frac{1}{s}F(s)$
f(at)	$\frac{1}{ a }F\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)$
$e^{at}f(t)$	F(s-a)
f(t-a)u(t-a)	$e^{-as}F(s)$
f(t) * g(t)	F(s)G(s)

Here $f^{(n)}$ represents the *n*th derivative, not the *n*th iterate. * is the convolution product.

The Laplace transform

Dirac delta – Heaviside function

In the table on the following slide,

• $\delta(t)$ is the Dirac delta,

$$\delta(t) = egin{cases} \infty & ext{if } t = 0 \ 0 & ext{if } t
eq 0. \end{cases}$$

• H(t) is the Heaviside function,

$$H(t) = egin{cases} 0 & ext{if } t < 0 \ 1 & ext{if } t > 0 \end{cases}$$

Note that $H(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} \delta(s) ds$.

The Laplace transform

Transforms of common functions

<i>t</i> -domain	<i>s</i> -domain
$\delta(t)$	1
$\delta(t- au)$	$e^{- au s}$
H(t)	<u>1</u> s
H(t- au)	$\frac{e^{-\tau s}}{c}$
$\frac{t^n}{n!}H(t)$	$\frac{1}{s^{n+1}}$
$e^{-\alpha t}H(t)$	$\frac{1}{s+\alpha}$
$sin(\omega t)H(t)$	$\frac{\omega}{s^2 \pm \omega^2}$
$\cos(\omega t)H(t)$	$\frac{s}{s^2+\omega^2}$

Inverse Laplace transform

Definition

Given a function F(s), if there exists f(t), continuous on $[0,\infty)$ and such that

$$\mathcal{L}\{f\}=F,$$

then f(t) is the *inverse Laplace transform* of F(s), and is denoted $f = \mathcal{L}^{-1}{F}$.

Theorem

The inverse Laplace transform is a linear operator. Assume that $\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{F_1\}$ and $\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{F_2\}$ exist, then

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{aF_1 + bF_2\} = a\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{F_1\} + b\mathcal{L}^{-1}\{F_2\}.$$

Solving differential equations using the Laplace transform

- 1. Take the Laplace transform of both sides of the equation.
- 2. Using the initial conditions, deduce an algebraic system of equations in *s*-space.
- 3. Solve the algebraic system in *s*-space.
- 4. Take the inverse Laplace transform of the solution in *s*-space, to obtain the solution of the differential equation in *t*-space.

Traffic flow – ODE model

Linear systems of ODE – Brief theory

Linear systems – Our case

Traffic flow – DDE model

The Laplace transform

Laplace transform of our DDE traffic flow model

Let

$$U_{k+1}(s) = \mathcal{L}\{u_{k+1}(t)\} = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} u_{k+1}(t) dt.$$

Since we have assumed initial data of the form

$$u_n(t) = 0$$
 for $t \leq (n-1)\tau$,

we have

$$U_{k+1}(s) = \int_{k\tau}^{\infty} e^{-st} u_{k+1}(t) ds.$$

Since $u_{n+1}(t) = 0$ for $t \leq n\tau$,

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-st} u'_{n+1}(t) dt = \left[u_{k+1}(t) e^{-st} \right]_{k\tau}^\infty + s \int_{k\tau}^\infty e^{-st} u_{k+1}(t) dt$$
$$= s U_{k+1}(s)$$

and

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-st} u_{k+1}(t-\tau) dt = \int_{(k-1)\tau}^\infty e^{-st} u_{k+1}(t-\tau) dt$$
$$= \int_{(k-2)\tau}^\infty e^{-s(t+\tau)} u_k(\tau) d\tau$$
$$= e^{-s\tau} U_k(s),$$

since $e^{-st}u_{k+1}(t) \to 0$ for the improper integral to exist. Note that we could have obtained this directly using the properties of the Laplace transform.

Multiply

$$u'_{n+1}(t) = \lambda(u_n(t-\tau) - u_{n+1}(t-\tau))$$

by e^{-st} ,

$$e^{-st}u'_{n+1}(t) = \lambda e^{-st}(u_n(t-\tau) - u_{n+1}(t-\tau))$$

integrate over $(0,\infty)$ (using the expressions found above),

$$sU_{n+1}(s) = \lambda(e^{-s\tau}U_n(s) - e^{-s\tau}U_{n+1}(s))$$

which is equivalent to

$$U_{n+1}(s) = rac{\lambda U_n(s)}{\lambda + se^{s\tau}}$$

Thus, when $U_1(s)$ is known, we can deduce the values for all U_n .

Suppose

$$u_1(t) = \alpha \sin(\omega t)$$

From the table of Laplace transforms, it follows that

$$U_1(s) = lpha rac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$$

Therefore,

$$U_2 = \frac{\lambda U_1(s)}{\lambda + se^{st}} = \alpha \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + se^{st}} \frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$$

and we can continue ..

However, even though we know the solution in s-space, it is difficult to get the behavior in t-space, by hand, and maple does not help us either.