## Reduction on characteristics for continuous solutions

## of a scalar balance law

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AbSTRACT. We consider continuous solutions $u$ to the balance equatio

$$
\partial_{t} u(t, x)+\partial_{x}[f(u(t, x))]=g(t, x),
$$

where $f$ is of class $C^{2}$ and the source term $g$ is bounded. Continuity improves to Hölder continuity when $f$ is uniformly convex, but it is not more regular in general. We discuss he reduction to ODEs on characteristics, mainly based on the joint works [5, 1]. We provide here local Lipschitz regularity results holding in the region where $f^{\prime}(u) f^{\prime \prime}(u) \neq 0$ and only in the simpler case of autonomous sources $g=g(x)$, but for solutions $(), x$, that region, for the system of ODES

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{\gamma}(t)=f^{\prime}(u(t, \gamma(t))), \\
\frac{d}{d t} u(t, \gamma(t))=g(\gamma(t)) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

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## 1. Introduction

In the context of classical solutions, the balance law

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial_{t} u(t, x)+\partial_{x}[f(u(t, x))]=g(t, x) \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $f \in C^{2}(\mathbb{R})$ can be reduced to ordinary differential equations along characteristic curves, defined as those curves $t \mapsto(t, \gamma(t))$ satisfying $\dot{\gamma}(t)=f^{\prime}(u(t, \gamma(t)))$. Indeed,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(t, \gamma(t)) & =\partial_{t} u(t, \gamma(t))+\partial_{x}[f(u(t, \gamma(t)))] \\
& =\partial_{t} u(t, \gamma(t))+f^{\prime}(u(t, \gamma(t))) \partial_{x} u(t, \gamma(t)) \\
& =\partial_{t} u(t, \gamma(t))+\dot{\gamma}(t) \partial_{x} u(t, \gamma(t)) \\
& =\frac{d}{d t} u(t, \gamma(t))
\end{aligned}
$$

This more generally allows a parallel between the Cauchy problem for a scalar quasi linear first order PDE and for a system of ODEs, which is known as the method of characteristics (see for instance [10], where it is also provided an application to determine local existence)

If one interprets $f^{\prime}(u)$ as a velocity, this is just the change of variable from the Eulerian (PDE) to the Lagrangian (ODEs) formulation.

We discuss here what remains of this equivalence when $u$ is just continuous and $g$ is bounded. We prove then in Section 2 that when $g$ depends only on $x$, but not on the time $t$, then $u(t, x)$ is locally Lipschitz continuous on the open set where $f^{\prime}(u) f^{\prime \prime}(u)$ is nonvanishing. This is sensibly better than the general case, where $u$ is only Hölder continuous. It is based on proving the corresponding result for the system of ODEs. As we are discussing local issues, we will fix for simplicity the domain $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ and we will assume $u$ bounded.

## A motivation for a different setting

The development of Geometric Measure Theory in the context of the sub-Riemannian Heisenberg group $\mathbb{H}^{n}$ brought the attention to continuous solutions to the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial_{t} u(t, x)+\partial_{x}\left[\frac{\left.u^{2}(t, x)\right)}{2}\right]=g(t, x) . \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Continuity is natural from the fact that $u$ parametrizes a surface. As one studies surfaces that have differentiability properties in the intrinsic structure of the Heisenberg group, but not in the Euclidean structure, then it is not natural assuming more regularity of $u$ than continuity [13], which for bounded sources improves to $1 / 2$-Hölder continuity $[4,5]$. Notice that with $u$ continuous the second term of the equation cannot even be rewritten as $u \partial_{x} u$, because $\partial_{x} u$ is only a distribution and $u$ is not a suitable test function.

The PDE arises if one wants to show the equivalence between a pointwise, metric notion of differentiability and a distributional one: for $n=1$ the distributional definition is precisely (1.2), while for $n>1$ it is a related multi- $D$ system of PDEs. The corre spondence was introduced first in $[3,4]$ for intrinsic regular hypersurfaces, which are the analogue of what are $C^{1}$-hypersurfaces in the Euclidean setting. It was extended in $[5,7]$ when considering intrinsic Lipschitz hypersurfaces, analogue of Lipschitz hypersurfaces in the Euclidean setting. The source term $g$, in $\mathbb{H}^{1}$, turns out to be what is called the intrinsic gradient of $u$, which is the counterpart of the gradient in Euclidean geometry; in $\mathbb{H}^{n}$ it is one if its components: $u$ locally parametrizes an intrinsic regular hypersurface if and only if (1.2) holds locally with $g$ continuous; it parametrizes an intrinsic regular hypersurface if and only if (1.2) holds locally with $g$ bounded. As the notion of differentiability they provide in the intrinsic structure of $\mathbb{H}^{n}$ is closer to the Lagrangian formulation, the equivalence between Lagrangian and Eulerian formulation arises as intermediate step of this characterization.
When considering intrinsic Lipschitz hypersurfaces the fact that $g$ is only bounded gives rise to new subtleties. In particular, one already knows by an intrinsic Rademache theorem [11] that the intrinsic differential exists and it is unique $\mathscr{L}^{2}$-a.e. However, for the ODE formulation this is not enough: as one needs to restrict this $L^{\infty}$ function on curves, a precise representative is needed also at points where $u$ is not intrinsically differentiable. Viceversa, if one chooses badly the representative of the source of the ODE formulation a priori it differs on a positive measure set from the source of the ODE. There is however a canonical choice for defining the two sources, which makes the formulations equivalent when the inflection points of $f$ are negligible

## Summary of the equivalence

When $u$ is Lipschitz, the ODE

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{\chi}(t, x)=f^{\prime}(u(t, \chi(t, x))) \\
\chi(0, x)=x
\end{array}\right.
$$

with $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f$ of class $C^{2}$, provides a local diffeomorphism by the classical theory on ODE. If $u$ is instead continuous, Peano's theorem ensures local existence of solutions, but more characteristics may start at one point and characteristics from different points may collapse (see in [5] the classical example of the square-root). This makes clearly impossible to have a local diffeomorphism, or even having a Lagrangian flow in the sense of Ambrosio-DiPerna-Lions [9, 2]. A recent result about this can be obtained for $u$ not depending on time [6], but it is clearly not our assumption. Dropping out injectivity, it is however possible to construct a continuous change of variables with bounded variation.

Let $u$ be a continuous, bounded function.
Lemma 1.1. There exists a continuous function $\chi: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

- $\tau \mapsto \chi(t, \tau)$ is nondecreasing for every $t$ and surjective,
- $\partial_{t} \chi(t, \tau)=f^{\prime}(u(t, \tau))$.

We call it Lagrangian parameterization. This function is not unique.
See $[1,5]$ for the proof. See also $[12]$ for a similar change of variable, for a $1 D$-system. In general one cannot have that $\chi$ is $S B V$ [1].

Consider now $u$ continuous distributional solution to (1.1) with $g$ bounded.
Lemma 1.2. Assume that $\mathscr{L}^{1}(\operatorname{clos}(\{$ inflection points of $f\}))=0$. Then $u$ is Lipschitz continuous along every characteristic curve

The proof follows a computation by Dafermos [8]. For general fluxes, there are cases when $u$ is not Lipschitz along some Lagrangian parameterization [1]. The counterexample holds also for continuous autonomous sources $g(t, x)=g_{0}(x)$. What we find more striking is the following.

Theorem 1.3. Assume that $\mathscr{L}^{1}(\operatorname{clos}(\{$ inflection points of $f\}))=0$. Then there exists a pointwise defined function $\hat{g}(t, x)$

$$
\frac{d}{d t} u(t, \gamma(t))=\hat{g}(t, \gamma(t)) \quad \text { in } \mathcal{D}^{\prime}(\mathbb{R}) \text { for every characteristic curve } \gamma .
$$

The proof is based on a selection theorem as a technical device, but $\hat{g}$ is essentially uniquely defined as the derivative of $u$ along some characteristic.
Remark 1.4. There is a substantial difference between the uniformly convex and the strictly convex cases: in the former at almost every $(t, x)$ there exists a unique value for $\frac{d}{d t} u(t, \gamma(t)), \gamma(t)=x$, and it does not depend on which characteristic $\gamma(s)$ one has chosen. That value is the most natural choice of $\hat{g}$ at those points, and this a.e. defined function $\hat{g}$ identifies the same distribution as the source term $g$. Without uniform convexity $\frac{d}{d t} u(t, \gamma(t))$ may not exist on a set of positive $\mathscr{L}^{2}$-measure, independently of which characteristic $\gamma$ one chooses through the point. The correspondence between distributional and Lagrangian sources gets more complicated with non-convexity.

The converse also holds. We give here a weaker statement without the negligibility condition on the inflection points. As mentioned identifying sources is delicate, we refer for it to the more extensive work [1].
Theorem 1.5. Assume that a continuous function u has a Lagrangian parameterization $\chi$ for which there exists a bounded function $\tilde{g}$ s.t. it satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d}{d t} u(t, \chi(t, \tau))=\tilde{g}(t, \chi(t, \tau)) \quad \text { in } \mathcal{D}^{\prime}(\mathbb{R}) \text { for every } \tau \in \mathbb{R} \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then there exists a function $g(t, x)$ s.t. (1.1) holds.
Viceversa, if (1.1) holds then there exists a Lagrangian parameterization $\chi$ and function $\tilde{g}$ s.t. (1.3) holds.
We finally mention that continuous distributional solutions to this simple equation do not dissipate entropy.
Theorem 1.6. Let $u$ be a continuous distributional solution to (1.1) with bounded source $g$. Then for every smooth function $\eta$ and $q$ satisfying $q^{\prime}=\eta^{\prime} f^{\prime}$

$$
\partial_{t}[\eta(u(t, x))]+\partial_{x}[q(u(t, x))]=\eta^{\prime}(u(t, x)) g(t, x)
$$

## 2. Some local regularity with autonomous sources

We mention a local regularity result holding in the case of autonomous sources: the continuous function $u(t, x)$ is locally Lipschitz continuous in the (open) complementary of the 0 -level set of the product $f^{\prime}(u) f^{\prime \prime}(u)$. For $f(u)=u^{2} / 2$, this means $u \neq 0$. When the source is not autonomous, then this fails to be true, indeed characteristics may bifurcate also at points where $u$ is not vanishing.

We remind [1] that when $f$ has inflection points of positive measure, then a priori $u$ may not be Lipschitz along some characteristics, even with $g=g(x)$.
Lemma 2.1. There may be locally multiple solutions to the ordinary differential equation

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{\gamma}(t)=u(t, \gamma(t)), \\
\ddot{\gamma}(t)=g(\gamma(t)), \\
\gamma(\bar{t})=\bar{x},
\end{array}\right.
$$

with $u(t, x)$ continuous, $g(x)$ bounded, only if $u(\bar{t}, \bar{x})=0$ but it does not identically vanish in a whole neighborhood.
Remark 2.2. We are not stating existence. The lemma is however still not obvious because we do not have differentiability properties of $u$, which follow a posteriori by the next corollary in the region where $u$ does not vanish. As a consequence, we do not have now the differentiability of the map $\gamma(t)$ w.r.t. the initial data of the ODE. The lemma asserts indeed the continuity in this variable in that region, provided it exists. We remind that when $g$ depends on $t$ bifurcations may easily occur also if $u \neq 0$.

Proof. We just prove that if $u$ does not vanish at some point $(\bar{t}, \bar{x})$, at that point there is at most one solution of the ODE, as an effect of the autonomous source. The reason is that if $u(\bar{t}, \bar{x})$ does not vanish, then any Lipschitz characteristic $x=\gamma(t)$, with $\bar{x}=\gamma(\bar{t})$, is a diffeomorphism in some neighborhood of $(\bar{t}, \bar{x})$, and we can invert it. This allows to have the space variable as a parameter: the characteristic can be expressed
as $t=\theta(x)$. However, the second order relation $\ddot{\gamma}(t)=g(\gamma(t))$, once expressed in the $x$ variable, can be integrated determining the function $\theta$.

By elementary arguments, it suffices to show that there exists (locally) only one characteristic passing through $(\bar{t}, \bar{x})=(0,0)$ with slope $u(0,0)=1$. Focus the attention on a neighborhood $U$ of the origin where $u$ is bigger than some $\varepsilon>0$. Let $x=\gamma(t)$ be any Lipschitz continuous solution of the ODE. Since $\dot{\gamma}(0)=u(0,0)>0$, by the inverse function theorem there exists $\delta>0$ and a function

$$
\theta:(\gamma(-\delta), \gamma(\delta)) \rightarrow(-\delta, \delta) \quad \text { s.t. } \quad \theta(\gamma(t))=t, \quad \gamma(\theta(x))=x
$$

Moreover, it is continuously differentiable with derivative

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{\theta}(x)=\frac{1}{\dot{\gamma}(\theta(x))}=\frac{1}{u(\theta(x), x)} \in\left[\frac{1}{\max |u|}, \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right] . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the Lipschitz continuity of $u(t, \gamma(t))$ and the fact that $\gamma$ is a local diffeomorphism with inverse $\theta$ we deduce that the composite function $u(\theta(x), x)$ is Lipschitz continuous. At points $X \subset U$ of differentiability by the classical chain rule

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lim _{h \downarrow 0} \frac{\dot{\dot{\gamma}}(\theta(x+h))-\dot{\gamma}(\theta(x))}{h}= \\
& \quad=\frac{\dot{\gamma}(\theta(x+h))-\dot{\gamma}(\theta(x))}{\theta(x+h)-\theta(x)} \cdot \frac{\theta(x+h)-\theta(x)}{h}=\ddot{\gamma}(\theta(x)) \dot{\theta}(x),
\end{aligned}
$$

and by (2.1) we have that $\dot{\theta}$ is differentiable at $x \in X$ with derivative

$$
\ddot{\theta}(x)=-\frac{\ddot{\gamma}(\theta(x)) \dot{\theta}(x)}{[\dot{\gamma}(\theta(x))]^{2}}=-\frac{g(\theta(x))}{u^{3}(\theta(x), x)} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad-\frac{\ddot{\theta}(x)}{[\dot{\theta}(x)]^{3}}=g(x) .
$$

For those $x \in X$, the differential equation may be rewritten as

$$
\frac{d}{d x}\left[\frac{1}{2[\dot{\theta}(x)]^{2}}\right]=g(x) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{d}{d x} \frac{u^{2}(\theta(x), x)}{2}=g(x) .
$$

The explicit ODE for $\theta(x)$, with initial data $\theta(0)=0,[\dot{\theta}(0)]^{-1}=u(0,0)=1$, is easily solved locally by

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{2}(\theta(x), x)=\frac{1}{\dot{\theta}^{2}(x)}=1+2 \int_{0}^{x} g(z) d z \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This shows that the slope of every characteristic through the origin, which is a local diffeomorphism, is fixed at each $x$ independently of the characteristic we have chosen: therefore there can be only one characteristic, precisely (in the space parameterization)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta(x ; \bar{t}, \bar{x})=\bar{t}+\int_{\bar{x}}^{x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{u^{2}(\bar{t}, \bar{x})+2 \int_{\bar{x}}^{w} g(z) d z}} d w . \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice finally that if $u$ vanishes in a neighborhood, being $\dot{\gamma}(t) \equiv 0$ there characteristics must be vertical (in that region of the ( $x, t$ )-plane).

Lemma 2.3. Under the hypothesis of Lemma 2.1, if $g(x)$ is continuous it should also vanish at points where there are more characteristics, but it must not identically vanish in a neighborhood.

Proof. We show that not only $u$, but also $g$ must vanish. The argument shows that when two characteristics meet and have both second derivative with the same value, this value must be 0 . For simplifying notations, consider two characteristics $\gamma_{1}(t) \leq \gamma_{2}(t)$ for arbitrarily small $t>0$ with $\gamma_{1}(0)=\gamma_{2}(0)=0$. If $\gamma_{1}\left(t_{k}\right) \gamma_{2}\left(t_{k}\right) \leq 0$ for $t_{k} \downarrow 0$, then

$$
0 \leq \ddot{\gamma}_{2}(0)=g(0)=\ddot{\gamma}_{1}(0) \leq 0
$$

thus $g$ vanishes. If instead e.g. $g>0$ near the origin, having excluded the above case there exists $\delta>0$ such that $0<\gamma_{1}(t) \leq \gamma_{2}(t)$ for $t \in[0, \delta]$. Then (2.2) implies that the two curves coincide: having $\dot{\gamma}_{1}\left(t_{k}\right)=0$ or $\dot{\gamma}_{2}\left(t_{k}\right)=0$ for a sequence $\left|t_{k}\right| \downarrow 0$ would contradict the positivity of $g$, therefore for small $t>0$ necessarily $\dot{\gamma}_{1}(t)>0, \dot{\gamma}_{2}(t)>0$ and therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
u^{2}\left(\gamma_{1}^{-1}(x), x\right)+2 \int_{x}^{0} g(z) d z & =\dot{\gamma}_{1}^{2}(0) \\
& =0=\dot{\gamma}_{2}^{2}(0)=u^{2}\left(\gamma_{2}^{-1}(x), x\right)+2 \int_{x}^{0} g(z) d z
\end{aligned}
$$

Being $\dot{\gamma}_{i}(t)=u\left(t, \gamma_{i}(t)\right), i=1,2$, by the differential relation, this shows that $\dot{\gamma}_{1}(t) \equiv$ $\dot{\gamma}_{2}(t)$ for small times. This implies that the two curves coincide.

Finally, suppose $g$ vanishes in a neighborhood. Then, as $\ddot{\gamma}(t)=0$ in that neighborhood, characteristics are straight lines. As by the continuity of $u$ characteristics may only intersect with the same derivative, they must be parallel lines and therefore bifurcation of characteristics does not occur.

We now show that in case $u$ does not vanish, in the above lemma much more regularity holds.

Lemma 2.4. If for every $(\bar{t}, \bar{x}) \in \Omega$ open in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ there exists a curve $\gamma$ s.t.

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{\dot{\gamma}}(t)=u(t, \gamma(t)), \\
\ddot{\gamma}(t)=g(\gamma(t)), \\
\gamma(\bar{t})=\bar{x},
\end{array}\right.
$$

with $u(t, x)$ continuous, $g(x)$ bounded, then $u(t, x)$ is locally Lipschitz in the open set $\{(t, x): u(t, x) \neq 0\} \subset \Omega$.
Corollary 2.5. If $u$ is not locally Lipschitz where nonvanishing then the system in Lemma 2.1 cannot have solutions through each point of the plane. In particular, $u$ cannot be a continuous solution to

$$
\partial_{t} u(t, x)+\partial_{x}[f(u(t, x))]=g(x)
$$

Proof. By Lemma 2.1 there is a unique characteristic starting at each point $(\bar{t}, \bar{x}) \in$ $\Omega=\{(t, x): u(t, x) \neq 0\}$, which is given by (2.3). We start comparing the value of $u$ at two points $(0,0),(-t, 0), t>0$, in a ball $B$ compactly contained in $\Omega$. In particular, there exists $\delta(B)$ s.t. the two characteristics starting from the points we have chosen do not intersect if $0<x<\delta(B)$, as there $u$ does not vanish. For such small $x$ one has by (2.3)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{1}^{2}+2 \int_{0}^{w} g(z) d z}} d w>-t+\int_{0}^{x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{2}^{2}+2 \int_{0}^{w} g(z) d z}} d w \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we defined $\lambda_{1}=u(0,0)$ and $\lambda_{2}=u(-t, 0)$. Equivalently

$$
t>\int_{0}^{x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{2}^{2}+2 \int_{0}^{w} g(z) d z}}-\frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{1}^{2}+2 \int_{0}^{w} g(z) d z}} d w
$$

Suppose $\lambda_{1}>\lambda_{2}$. By the convexity of $r \mapsto 1 / \sqrt{r}$, the right-hand side is larger than

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{x}\left[\frac{d}{d r}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}\right)\right. & \left.\left.\right|_{r=\lambda_{1}^{2}+2 \int_{0}^{w} g(z) d z}\left(\lambda_{2}^{2}-\lambda_{1}^{2}\right)\right] d w= \\
& =\left[\frac{\lambda_{2}+\lambda_{1}}{-2} \int_{0}^{x} \frac{1}{\left(\lambda_{1}^{2}+2 \int_{0}^{w} g(z) d z\right)^{3 / 2}} d w\right]\left(\lambda_{2}-\lambda_{1}\right) \\
& \geq\left[\frac{\lambda_{2}+\lambda_{1}}{2\left(\lambda_{1}^{2}+2 G x\right)^{3 / 2}} x\right]\left(\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The argument within square brackets in the last line is uniformly continuous and as $t \downarrow 0$ it is larger than $x / \lambda_{1}^{2}$. As the inequalities hold for every positive $t, x<\delta=\delta(B)$, the non-intersecting condition (2.4) gives

$$
t>\left(\frac{\lambda_{1}^{2}}{\delta}+\varepsilon\right)^{-1}\left(\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}\right) \quad \Rightarrow \quad u(0,0)-u(t, 0)=\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2} \leq\left(\frac{\lambda_{1}^{2}}{\delta}+\varepsilon\right) t
$$

which is half the Lipschitz inequality at the points $(0,0),(-t, 0)$. The other half, for $\lambda_{1}<\lambda_{2}$ is similarly obtained considering small negative $x$.

For comparing two generic close points $(t, x)$ and $(0,0)$, by the finite speed of propagation one can combine the Lipschitz regularity along characteristics and the Lipschitz regularity along vertical lines.

Corollary 2.6. Let $u(t, x)$ be a continuous solution to the balance equation

$$
\partial_{t} u(t, x)+\partial_{x}[f(u(t, x))]=g(x), \quad g \in L^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) .
$$

Then the function $u(t, x)$ is locally Lipschitz in the open set

$$
\left\{(t, x): f^{\prime}(u(t, x)) \cdot f^{\prime \prime}(u(t, x)) \neq 0\right\}
$$

Proof. We first consider the case of quadratic flux $f(u)=u^{2} / 2$. By Theorem 1.3, there exists a function $\hat{g}(t, x)$ such that we can apply Lemma 2.1, which gives the thesis. If $g \in L^{\infty}$ they may a priori differ on an $\mathscr{L}^{2}$-negligible set, but one can prove that $\hat{g}(t, x)=\hat{g}(x)$.

Being $u$ an entropy solution by Theorem 1.6, $f^{\prime}(u)$ solves the equation

$$
\left[f^{\prime}(u)\right]_{t}+\left[\frac{f^{\prime}(u)^{2}}{2}\right]_{x}=f^{\prime \prime}(u) g
$$

By the previous case then $f^{\prime}(u)$ is Lipschitz in the open set where it does not vanish. If moreover $f^{\prime \prime}(u)$ does not vanish, then the regularity of $u$ can be proved just by inverting $f^{\prime}$.

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