

Gradient catastrophes for a generalized Burgers equation on a finite interval

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Intro

t -invariant solutions

Stability of invariant solutions

Catastrophes

Decay of decreasing profiles

Frozen oscillations

References

The problem

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The Burgers equation

The problem

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$$u_t(x, t) = \varepsilon^2 u_{xx}(x, t) - u(x, t)u_x(x, t). \quad (1)$$

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Boundary problem (BP)

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Below

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Boundary problem (BP) $u(\alpha, t) = l(t), \quad u(\beta, t) = r(t)$

Below $l(t) = A, \quad r(t) = B$ are constants

Time-invariant (smooth) solutions

For $n = 1$

$$u(x, t) \tag{3}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

$$\tag{5}$$

$$\tag{6}$$

$$\tag{7}$$

Time-invariant (smooth) solutions

For $n = 1$

$$u(x, t) = c, \tag{3}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

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$$\tag{7}$$

Time-invariant (smooth) solutions

For $n = 1$

$$u(x, t) = c, \tag{3}$$

$$= -\varepsilon^2 a \tanh(ax + c), \tag{4}$$

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$$= -\varepsilon^2 a \coth(ax + c), \quad (5)$$

$$= \varepsilon a \tan\left(\frac{ax + c}{\varepsilon}\right), \quad (6)$$

$$= \frac{a\varepsilon^2}{ax + c}. \quad (7)$$

For $n > 1$ stationary solutions are given by

$$\begin{aligned}x &= C_1 + \varepsilon^2(n+1) \int \frac{dy}{C_2 + \alpha y^{n+1}}, \\y &= C.\end{aligned}$$

\mathcal{L}^2 -estimate of decay rate

A solution of the (generalized) Burgers equation

$$u_t = u_{xx} - \alpha u^n u_x \quad (8)$$

with zero boundary conditions

$$u(t, a) = u(t, b) = 0, \quad u(0, x)|_{[a,b]} = f(x) \quad (9)$$

monotonically tends to zero as $t \rightarrow \infty$ in \mathcal{L}^2 norm since

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$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_a^b u^2 dx &= \int_a^b 2uu_t dx = 2 \int_a^b u(u_{xx} - \alpha u^n u_x) dx = \\ &= 2 \int_a^b u du_x + \frac{-\alpha}{n+1} u^{n+1} \Big|_a^b = 2uu_x \Big|_a^b - 2 \int_a^b u_x^2 dx = -2 \int_a^b u_x^2 dx \leq 0 \end{aligned}$$

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The greater u_x the faster the convergence.

Equation for the difference

Hypothesis:

When the boundary conditions are non-zero but constant

$$u(0, x)|_{[a,b]} = f(x) \quad u(t, a) = f(a) = A, \quad u(t, b) = f(b) = B, \quad (10)$$

one may expect the solution to converge to the respective stationary invariant solution, ie, to $\mu(x)$,

$$\mu_{xx} - \alpha\mu^n\mu_x = 0, \quad \mu(a) = A, \quad \mu(b) = B \quad (11)$$

Such a solution exists and is of one of the above listed forms depending on the combination of A and B .

The answer to this hypothesis is complex.

Equation, continued

Put $\nu(t, x) = u(t, x) - \mu(x)$, ie, $u(t, x) = \nu(t, x) + \mu(x)$.

Substituting into the generalized Burgers we get

$$\begin{aligned} u_t &= (\nu(t, x) + \mu(x))_t = \nu(t, x)_t = u_{xx} - \alpha u^n u_x \\ &= (\nu(t, x) + \mu(x))_{xx} - \alpha(\nu(t, x) + \mu(x))^n(\nu(t, x) + \mu(x))_x. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

In the case $n = 1$ and $\alpha = 2$,

$$\nu_{xx} - 2\nu\nu_x + [\mu_{xx} - 2\mu\mu_x] - 2\{\nu_x\mu + \nu\mu_x\}.$$

Since $\mu_{xx} - 2\mu\mu_x = 0$ by definition of μ ,

$$\nu_t = \nu_{xx} - 2\nu\nu_x - 2(\nu\mu)_x. \quad (13)$$

Boundary conditions for ν are zero by definition of ν .

\mathcal{L}^2 -estimate for decay rate of difference

The rate of ν by analogy with (10):

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \nu_t \rangle |_{\mathcal{L}^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_a^b \nu^2 dx = \\ \int_a^b 2\nu \nu_t dx &= 2 \int_a^b \nu (\nu_{xx} - 2\nu \nu_x - 2(\nu\mu)_x) dx = \\ &= 2 \int_a^b \nu d\nu_x - \frac{4}{3} \nu^3 \Big|_a^b - 4 \int_a^b \nu d(\nu\mu) = \\ &= 2\nu \nu_x \Big|_a^b - 2 \int_a^b \nu_x^2 dx - 4\nu(\nu\mu) \Big|_a^b + 4 \int_a^b \mu \nu \nu_x dx = \\ -2 \int_a^b \nu_x^2 dx + 2 \int_a^b \mu d\nu^2 &= -2 \int_a^b \nu_x^2 dx + 2 \int_a^b \mu_x \nu^2 dx - 2 \nu^2 \mu \Big|_a^b = \\ &= -2 \int_a^b (\nu_x^2 + \mu_x \nu^2) dx.\end{aligned}$$

\mathcal{L}^2 -estimate for decay rate of difference, continued

The monotony of \mathcal{L}^2 -convergence is not guaranteed; but it takes place, in the case $\mu_x \geq 0$ (increasing initial profile). In the case $n > 1$ the corresponding conditions are less transparent; for instance when $n = 2$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_a^b \nu^2 dx = -2 \int_a^b (\nu_x^2 - \mu_x \nu^2 (\mu_x - \nu_x)) dx.$$

So $\mu_x(\mu_x - \nu_x) > 0$ guarantees the deviation ν decay. When $\langle \nu_t \rangle |_{\mathcal{L}^2} \leq 0$ fails the difference ν doesn't necessarily tend to zero. Usually such evolution ends in a

- 1 catastrophe,

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- 1 catastrophe, resulting in a Heaviside-type break at the interval's end;
- 2 decay

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- 1 **catastrophe**, resulting in a Heaviside-type break at the interval's end;
- 2 **decay** to a smooth invariant solution;

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- 2 decay to a smooth invariant solution;
- 3 a frozen multi-oscillation,

\mathcal{L}^2 -estimate for decay rate of difference, continued

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- 1 catastrophe, resulting in a Heaviside-type break at the interval's end;
- 2 decay to a smooth invariant solution;
- 3 a frozen multi-oscillation, a piecewise-smooth invariant solution.

Time for tilting

For a general quasilinear transport equation ($x \in \mathbb{R}$)

$$w_t + f(w)w_x = 0 \quad (14)$$

the moment of gradient catastrophe t_c can be defined as follows. Let $w = \varphi(x)$ be an initial profile. The solution of this problem may be given in a parametric form $w = \varphi(\xi)$, $x = \xi + \mathcal{F}(\xi)t$ where $\mathcal{F} = f(\varphi(\xi))$.

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The characteristics of the form $x = \xi + \mathcal{F}(\xi)t$ intersect in the case $\varphi'(\xi) < 0$ thus resulting in many-valued w (the tilting of a wave or a gradient catastrophe). If the inequality holds on a finite interval there exist a minimal value of time, t_c , when this problem arises. One may determine t_c by the formula

$$t_c = -1/\mathcal{F}'(\xi_c)$$

where $|\mathcal{F}'(\xi_c)| = \max_{[\alpha, \beta]} |\mathcal{F}'(\xi)|$ while $\mathcal{F}'(\xi) < 0$.

Dispersive shock, example 1; n=1

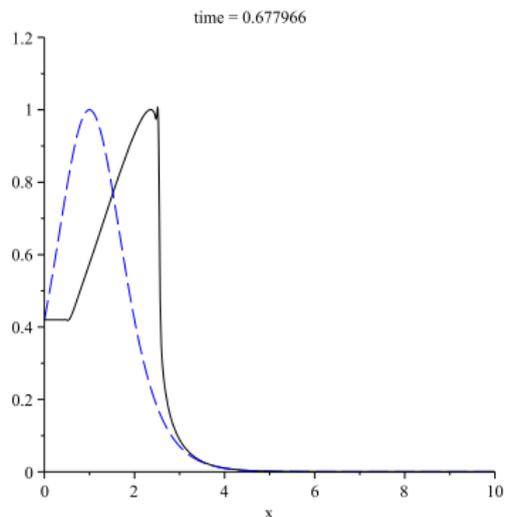


Figure : Shock strikes at $\approx t_c$: Burgers, n=1, IVBP

$$u(x, 0) = \operatorname{sech}^2(x - 1), u(0, t) = \operatorname{sech}^2(1), u(10, t) = \operatorname{sech}^2(9)$$

Dispersive shock, example 1; n=1

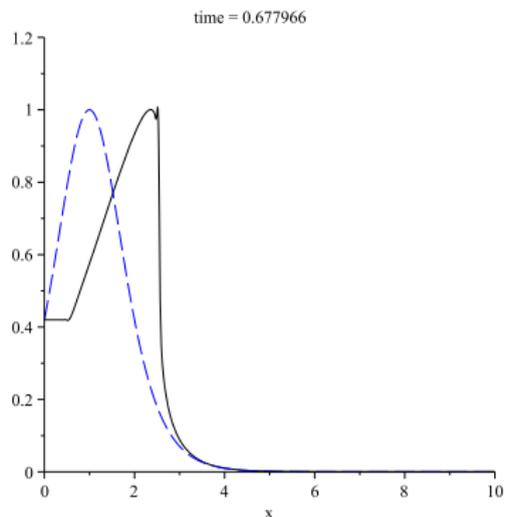


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Heaviside-type gap develops

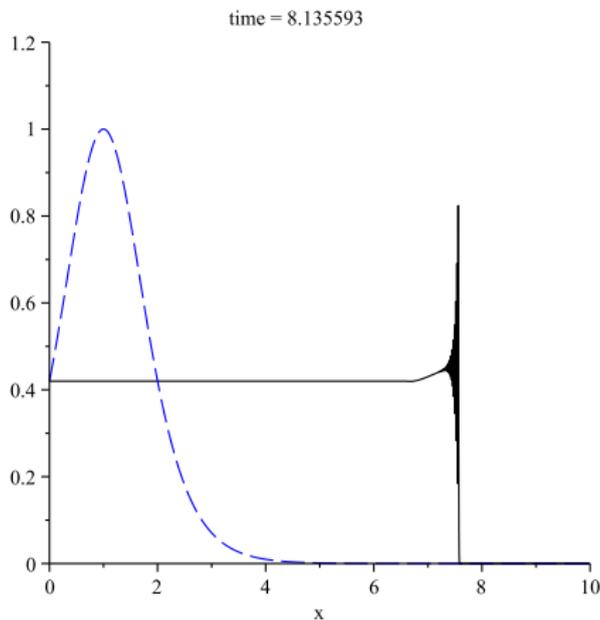


Figure : Multi-oscillations move to a Heaviside-type break $\tanh^2(1) - \tanh^2(9)$ at $x = 10$; $t \approx 8$.

Dispersive shock, example 2; n=1

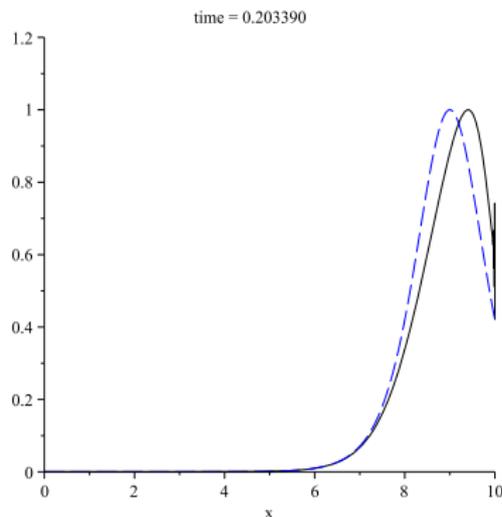


Figure : Shock strikes at $t \approx 0.2 \ll t_c$: Burgers, n=1, IVBP
 $u(x, 0) = \text{sech}^2(x - 9)$, $u(0, t) = \text{sech}^2(9)$, $u(10, t) = \text{sech}^2(1)$

Dispersive shock, example 2; n=1

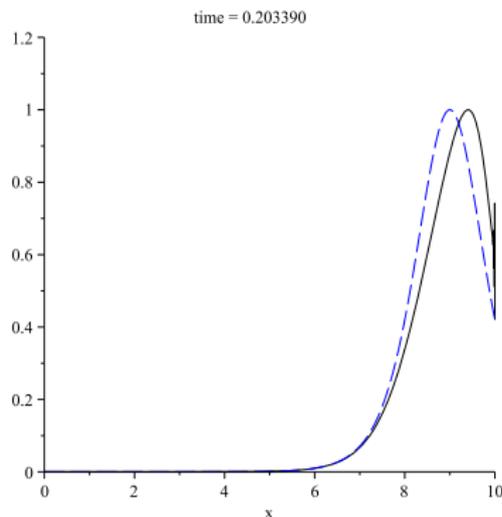


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 $u(x, 0) = \text{sech}^2(x - 9)$, $u(0, t) = \text{sech}^2(9)$, $u(10, t) = \text{sech}^2(1)$

Heaviside-type gap develops

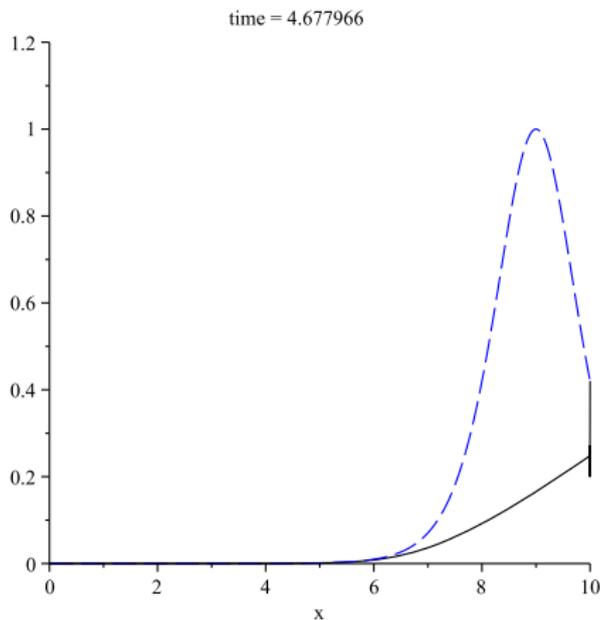


Figure : Multi-oscillations move to a Heaviside-type break
 $-\tanh^2(1) + \tanh^2(9)$ at $x = 10$; $t \approx 4$.

Dispersive shock, example 1; $n=2$

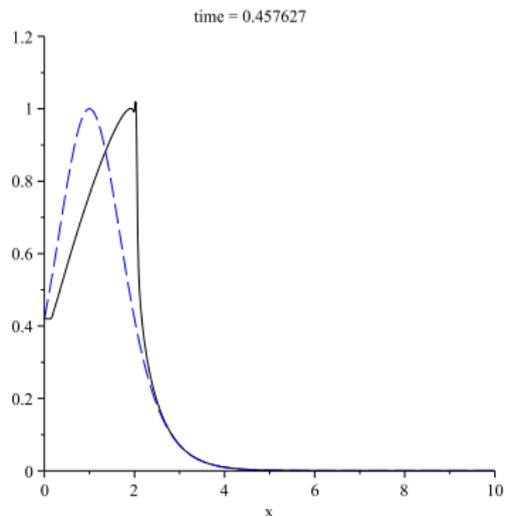


Figure : Start of gradient catastrophe at $t_c \approx 0.45$. Dash line is the initial profile $\text{sech}^2(x - 1)$. $n=2$; Burgers, $n=2$, $\varepsilon = 0.02$

Dispersive shock, example 1; $n=2$

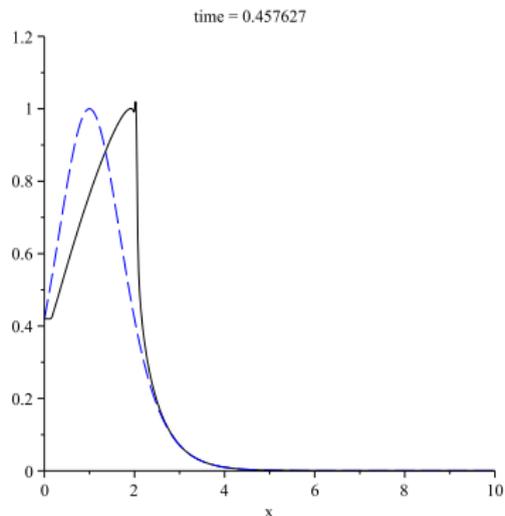


Figure : Start of gradient catastrophe at $t_c \approx 0.45$. Dash line is the initial profile $\text{sech}^2(x - 1)$. $n=2$; Burgers, $n=2$, $\varepsilon = 0.02$

Heaviside-type gap develops, example 3

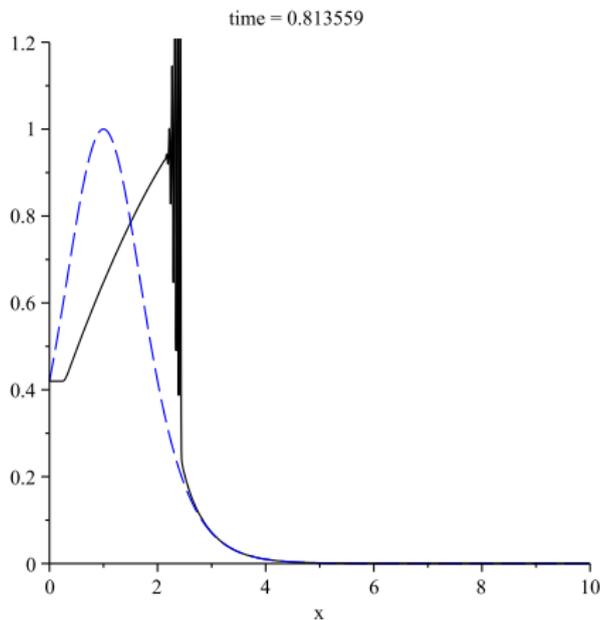


Figure : Multi-oscillations move to a Heaviside-type break
 $-\tanh^2(1) + \tanh^2(9)$ at $x = 10$; $t \approx 0.8$.

Heaviside-type gap develops, example 4

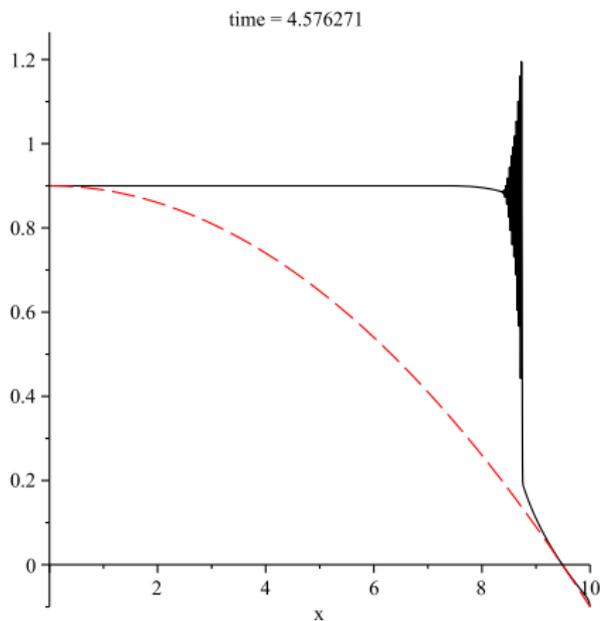


Figure : Multi-oscillations move to a Heaviside-type break at $x = 10$; $t \approx 4.6$. Dash line is the initial profile $-0.01x^2 + 0.9$. $n=2$

ANIMATION, [click here](#)

Examples of decay

Here are two examples of a decay towards a *decreasing* invariant solution. In both cases the initial profile is chosen in a vicinity of this solution and the right-hand side of (9) is negative.

Consider the equation $u_t = \varepsilon^2 u_{xx} - 2uu_x$.

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Consider the equation $u_t = \varepsilon^2 u_{xx} - 2uu_x$.

Ex. 1. Choose IVBP:

$$u(x, 0) = -\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x) + 1.6\varepsilon \sin(2\pi x), \quad u(0, t) = 0, \quad u(1, t) = -\varepsilon^2 \tanh(1); \quad \varepsilon = 0.05.$$

Here $\mu = -\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x)$ is a decreasing invariant solution, $\nu = 1.6\varepsilon \sin(2\pi x)$ — the perturbation.

Asymptotics at $t \rightarrow \infty$ coincides with μ , see the following graph. The dissipation reigns in and no catastrophe develops. The explanation can be seen in next graph, where the typical graph of integrand $\nu_x^2 + \mu_x \nu^2$ in (9) is given at $t = 2$; clearly $\langle \nu_t \rangle_{\mathcal{L}^2} < 0$.

Decay, example 1; $n=1$

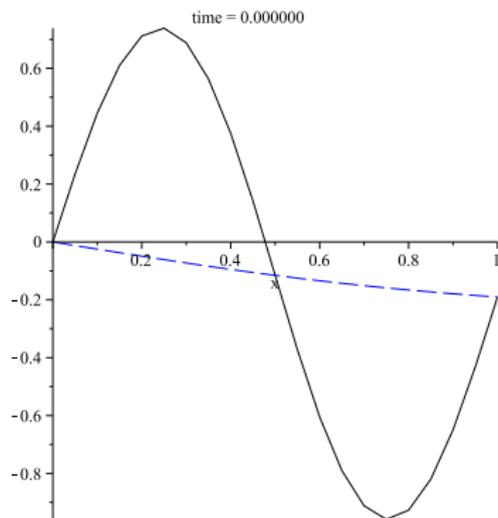


Figure : Initial profile $-\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x) + 1.6\varepsilon \sin(2\pi x)$. Asymptotic limit (dash line) is the invariant solution $-\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x)$

Decay, example 1; $n=1$

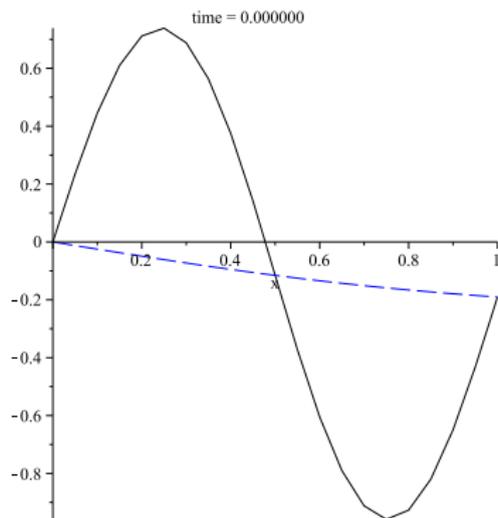


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\mathcal{L}^2 estimate for the decay rate

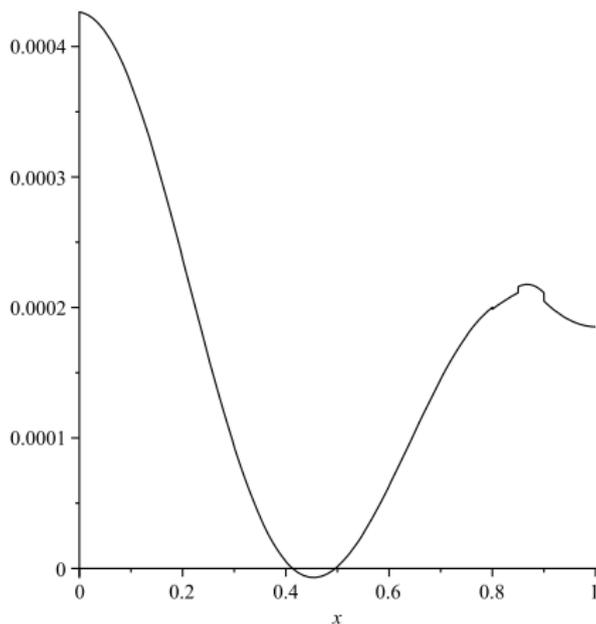


Figure : The graph of the integrand $\nu_x^2 + \mu_x \nu^2$ for previous evolution at $t = 2$.

No shocks

Equation $u_t = \varepsilon^2 u_{xx} - 2uu_x$.

Equation $u_t = \varepsilon^2 u_{xx} - 2uu_x$.

Ex. 2. IVBP:

$$u(1, t) = -\varepsilon^2 \tanh(1) + \varepsilon(\operatorname{sech}^2(1)),$$

$$u(0, t) = \varepsilon, u(x, 0) = -\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x) + \varepsilon(\operatorname{sech}^2(x)).$$

The initial profile $u(x, 0)$ gives an impression of being in vicinity of the invariant solution $-\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x)$ as it is modestly perturbed by $\varepsilon(\operatorname{sech}^2(x))$. In fact it tends to another (decreasing) invariant solution $2.06\varepsilon^2 \tanh(-2.06x + 2.1)$, see next graph.

Decay, example 2

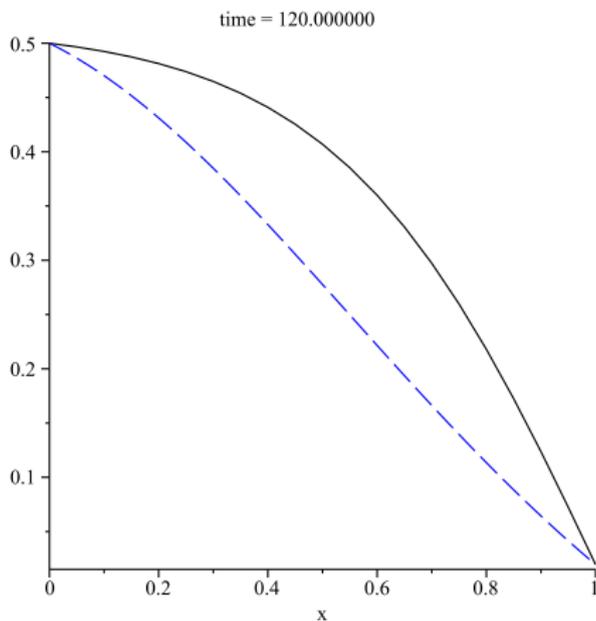


Figure : Initial profile $-\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x) + \varepsilon(\operatorname{sech}^2(x))$ (dashed) and asymptotic limit $2.06\varepsilon^2 \tanh(-2.06x + 2.1)$ (solid line).

More examples of decay: a frozen oscillation

In some cases the evolution of the initial profile results early and clearly *not* in an invariant solution from the list above; see next figure, obtained with IVBP $\{u(x, 0) = -\alpha\varepsilon^2 \tanh(\alpha)(2x^4 - x^2), u(0, t) = 0, u(1, t) = -\alpha\varepsilon^2 \tanh(\alpha)\}$, $\varepsilon = 0.05$; $\alpha = 50$.

Note that the invariant solution with the same boundary values is $\mu(x) = -\alpha\varepsilon^2 \tanh(\alpha x)$.

Compare initial, asymptotic and invariant profiles

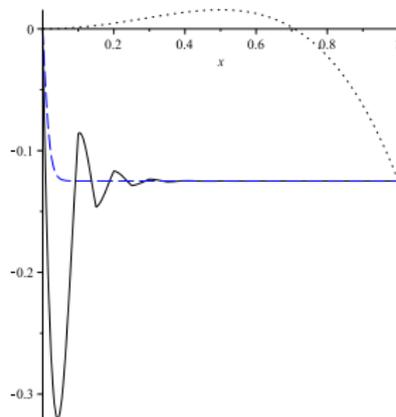


Figure : Initial profile $-\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x) + 1.6\varepsilon \sin(2\pi x)$, $u(0, t) = 0$, $u(1, t) = -\varepsilon^2 \tanh(1)$. Asymptotic limit (dash line) is the invariant solution $-\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x)$; $n=1$

Compare initial, asymptotic and invariant profiles

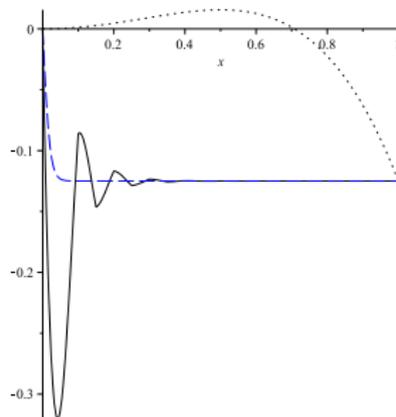


Figure : Initial profile $-\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x) + 1.6\varepsilon \sin(2\pi x)$, $u(0, t) = 0$, $u(1, t) = -\varepsilon^2 \tanh(1)$. Asymptotic limit (dash line) is the invariant solution $-\varepsilon^2 \tanh(x)$; $n=1$

\mathcal{L}^2 -convergence

The stabilization may be rather quick. The graph of \mathcal{L}^2 -estimate for the difference ν , $\int_0^1 (u(s, t) - \mu(s))^2 ds$ is presented in

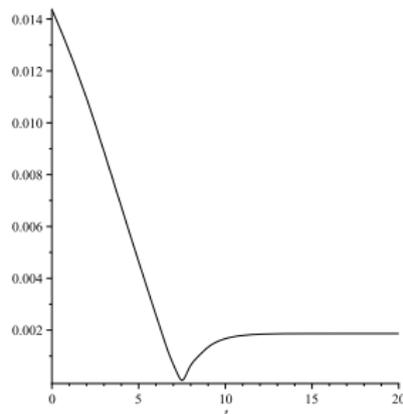


Figure : The graph of the $\langle \nu \rangle |_{\mathcal{L}^2}$, at $0 \leq t \leq 20$.

Stability

The effect is stable, as the asymptotic profile in this example do not to depend on perturbations of the initial one, provided boundary data is the same: identical asymptotics are obtained for

$$u(x, 0) = -\alpha\varepsilon^2 \tanh(\alpha)x$$

or $-\alpha\varepsilon^2 \tanh(\alpha)x^2$, etc,:

see

ANIMATION, [Click here.](#)

A stationary point may be an extremal of the \mathcal{L}^2 -estimate functional,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \varepsilon} \bigg|_{\varepsilon=0} \int_a^b ((\nu + \varepsilon h)_x^2 - \mu_x (\nu + \varepsilon h)^2) dx = 0. \quad (15)$$

It follows

$$\nu_{xx} + \mu_x \nu = 0. \quad (16)$$

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Decreasing solutions of the Burgers ($n = 1$)-equation are of the form $\mu(x) = -a \tanh(ax + b)$ and the potential μ_x is "numerically finite". Some of solutions of (16) are discontinuous (eg, the real part of its complex solution is both discontinuous and multi-oscillating in some cases).

This discontinuity can generate a chaos on the numeric graph and be a possible reason of a failed smoothness of $\nu(x)$. Details will be published elsewhere.

Piecewise-smoothness?

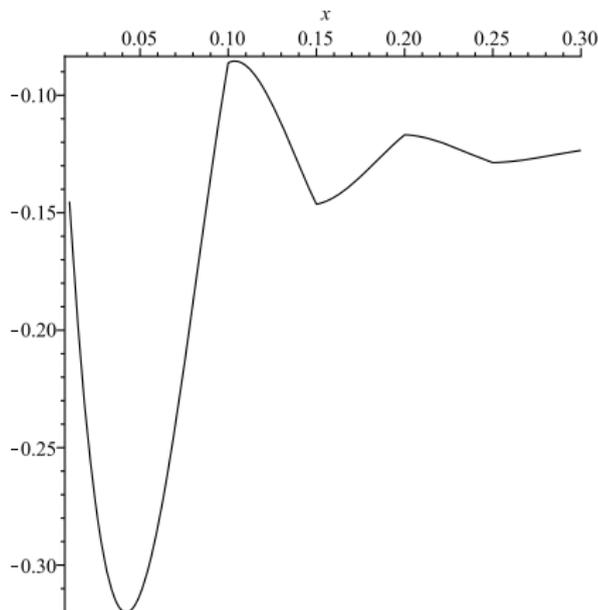


Figure : A part of the general view: piecewise-smooth difference; $t = 20$.
The graph is composed with parts of different invariant solutions.

Breaks of the derivative

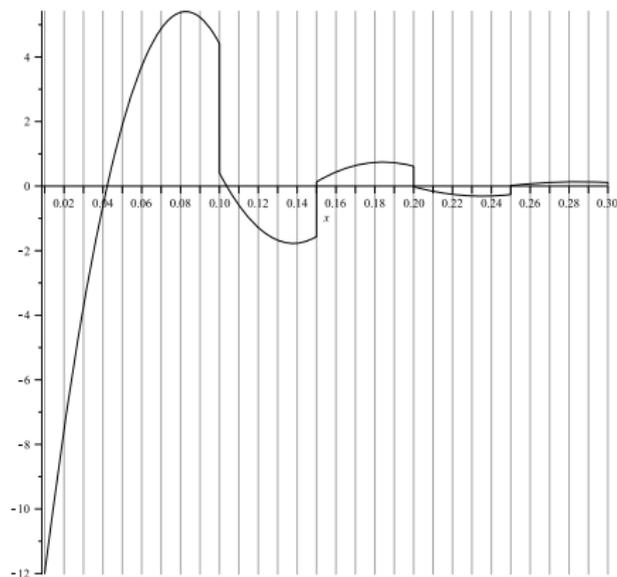


Figure : The graph of the derivative, $t = 20$.

The equation for the derivative $v = u'$ is

$v_t = \varepsilon^2 v'' - 2v^2 - 2v'D^{-1}(v)$. Breaks form in early stage of evolution.

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THANK YOU FOR YOUR ATTENTION