Biscale Chaos in Propagating Fronts

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Abstract

The propagating chemical fronts found in cubic autocatalytic reaction-diffusion processes are studied. Simulations of the reaction-diffusion equation near to and far from the onset of the front instability are performed and the structure and dynamics of chemical fronts are studied. Qualitatively different front dynamics are observed in these two regimes. Close to onset the front dynamics can be characterized by a single length scale and described by the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation. Far from onset the front dynamics exhibits two characteristic lengths and cannot be modeled by this amplitude equation. An amplitude equation is proposed for this biscale chaos. The reduction of the cubic autocatalysis reaction-diffusion equation to the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation is explicitly carried out. The critical diffusion ratio $\delta_c$, where the planar front loses its stability to transverse perturbations, is determined and found to be $\delta_c = 2.300$. 

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I. INTRODUCTION

Propagating fronts separating regions with different characteristics occur in many physical contexts. Often such fronts have a complicated structure of their own as in the fractal forms that arise in some diffusion-limited aggregation processes or viscous fingering \[1\]. In this article we consider chemical fronts separating regions of distinctly different chemical concentrations and study the nature of the spatio-temporal dynamics that these fronts exhibit. In these systems, under appropriate conditions, a planar front may not be stable and complex, even chaotic, front dynamics can arise. For example, this is the situation often encountered in propagating flame fronts which have been studied extensively \[2\]. The complex dynamics of fronts can also underlie and determine the character of spatio-temporal chaos and dynamics in a variety of other chemical contexts \[3\].

We study a specific system here, the fronts in the cubic autocatalysis reaction \( A + 2B \rightarrow 3B \), but several parts of our analysis are general and should apply in other situations. These cubic autocatalysis fronts have many features in common with propagating flames \[4\]. An experimental realization of such chemical front instabilities occurs in the iodate-arsenous acid reaction carried out in a gelled medium to suppress fluid flow \[5\]. The experiments show patterned fronts, much like those in quadratic and cubic mixed-order models.

For the cubic autocatalysis model, when the diffusion coefficient of the fuel \( A \) is sufficiently larger than that of the autocatalyst \( B \), the planar front is unstable to transverse perturbations. We have investigated the nature of the resulting front dynamics as a function of the diffusion ratio \( D_A/D_B \) in large systems. Several results have emerged from our study of this system. For small enough diffusion ratios within the unstable regime the front exhibits complicated dynamics with statistically stationary properties and is characterized by a single length scale. Far
beyond the instability point a new chaotic regime is encountered, termed biscale chaos, in which there are two characteristic length scales.

We have carried out a detailed analysis of the front dynamics in terms of amplitude equations. Just beyond the instability threshold the front dynamics is described in terms of the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation [6,7]. We document this relation through a statistical characterization of the interface. The regime far from the instability point where biscale chaos is observed cannot be described in terms of the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation and we construct an amplitude equation in which the nonlinear mode coupling is generalized. This amplitude equation is able to capture the principal qualitative features of the biscale chaos. This part of the analysis may generalize to other situations.

We also give a detailed reduction of the cubic autocatalysis reaction-diffusion equation to the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation. The coefficients that enter in this equation are estimated analytically using solutions for the right and left eigenvectors of the eigenvalue problem that enters the analysis, and a numerical scheme is devised that allows the computation of these coefficients for any values of the diffusion coefficients. As a by-product of this analysis we may easily determine the critical diffusion ratio where the planar front becomes unstable.

II. CUBIC AUTOCATALYSIS FRONTS

Consider the autocatalytic reaction \( A + 2B \rightarrow 3B \) described by the reaction-diffusion equation,

\[
\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial t} = -\alpha \beta^2 + D_A \Delta \alpha , \\
\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial t} = \alpha \beta^2 + D_B \Delta \beta ,
\]

(1)
where $\alpha(t, r)$ and $\beta(t, r)$ are the (scaled) concentrations of the $A$ and $B$ species, respectively, with diffusion coefficients $D_A$ and $D_B$. In one dimension, with suitably defined initial conditions [8], this system supports isothermal chemical fronts [9].

In two space dimensions the planar front is unstable to transverse perturbations when $D_A$ is sufficiently larger than $D_B$. The origin of such instabilities and the nature of the resulting front dynamics have been the subject of earlier studies [4]. Horvath et al. [10] performed simulations of the cubic autocatalysis model (1) and investigated the bifurcation structure as a function of the system length. For small system sizes, when the front possesses a single minimum, the onset of chaotic behaviour was observed to occur through a period doubling cascade in the temporal dynamics of the minimum. For large system sizes the resulting front dynamics is best analysed in statistical terms. We now briefly describe and quantitatively characterize the nature of the front dynamics for large system lengths as a function of the diffusion coefficient ratio, $\delta = D_A/D_B$.

We consider a two-dimensional system which is infinite in the $x$ direction and has length $L$ along $y$, where periodic boundary conditions are applied. The initial conditions are taken to be $\{\alpha(0, x, y) = 1, \beta(0, x, y) = 0 \mid x \leq -w/2, \forall y\}$ and $\{\alpha(0, x, y) = 0, \beta(0, x, y) = 1 \mid x \geq w/2, \forall y\}$. The region $\{x, y \mid -w/2 < x < w/2, 0 \leq y \leq L\}$ was divided into segments of length $\ell$ along $y$ and each segment was assigned the values $(\alpha(0, x, y), \beta(0, x, y)) = (1, 0)$ or $(0, 1)$ with probability $p = 1/2$.

It is convenient to represent the front dynamics in terms of the isoconcentration profiles, $h_A(t, y)$ and $h_B(t, y)$ defined by $\alpha(t, h_A(t, y), y) = \alpha_r$ and $\beta(t, h_B(t, y), y) = \beta_r$, where $\alpha_r$ and $\beta_r$ are reference concentrations. Henceforth we focus on $h_B(t, y)$ measured relative to its average value at time $t$ and denote this quantity by $h(t, y)$. We note that for these initial conditions this average value moves with the minimum front speed, which is selected from the continuum of allowed front speed values.
Figure 1(a) shows a space-time plot of the minima of \( h(t, y) \) for \( \delta = 5 \). In the integration of (1) we have scaled the length variables so that \( D_A = 1 \) and \( D_B = \delta^{-1} \). After an initial transient period during which the interface develops, a moving front with statistically stationary properties is formed. In this stationary regime the spatio-temporal behaviour can be described in terms of the dynamics of the minima which play the role of “particles” in the system. The particles collide and coalesce and new particles are born so that the average density of particles per unit length remains constant. The front dynamics may be characterized quantitatively by the space-time correlation function

\[
C(t, y) = \langle L^{-1} \int_0^L dy' [h(t, y') - h(t, y + y')]^2 \rangle ,
\]

where the angle brackets signify an average over realizations of the front evolution starting from the random initial conditions given above. We also consider the time average of \( C(t, y) \) in the stationary regime,

\[
\bar{C}(y) = T^{-1} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T} dt' C(t', y) ,
\]

where \( t_0 \) is a time longer than the transient period. The correlation function (2) is sketched in Fig. 2 for several values of the time \( t \) and shows the development of correlations during the transient period and the approach to the stationary regime. The function \( C(t, y) \) exhibits short range correlations with a tendency to reach a nearly parabola form, seen in the \( \bar{C}(y) \) curve, which is characteristic of diffusive transverse front dynamics and will be discussed further below. The persistent short range correlations are due to the existence of a characteristic length \( \ell^* \) arising from the front instability.

This type of behaviour persists up to about \( \delta = 6 \) when a new type of chaotic front dynamics, distinguished by the appearance of a second length scale, is observed.
The second length scale is easily discerned in both the space-time plot of the minima of $h(t, y)$ shown in Fig. 1(b) for $\delta = 8$ and the power spectrum,

$$E(k) = T^{-1} \int_{0}^{t_{0}+T} dt \langle |h(t, k)|^2 \rangle .$$ (4)

The power spectrum is presented in Fig. 3 for both $\delta = 5$ and $\delta = 8$. For $\delta = 5$ one sees a single peak corresponding to the wavenumber of the most unstable mode. However, for $\delta = 8$ the minimum in the power spectrum has filled in, indicating the growth of modes with smaller wavenumbers and thus the appearance of structure on longer length scales. We now turn to an analysis of these results in terms of amplitude equations and provide a foundation for the phenomenological picture of the front dynamics.

III. ANALYSIS OF FRONT DYNAMICS

A description of the origin of the front dynamics is most conveniently given in terms of amplitude equations for the front profile derived from the reaction-diffusion equation (1). We analyse the dynamics close to the instability point in terms of the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation and show how this equation must be generalized in order to explain the regime far beyond the instability where a second characteristic length appears.

A. Dynamics of small perturbations

We present an adaptation of Kuramoto’s derivation [12] for the case of small amplitude perturbations which yields the amplitude equation that will be used in the subsequent analyses. We shall confine our attention to the question of how the presence of a second dimension affects the dynamics of the general reaction-diffusion system,
\[ \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = F(z) + D \Delta z . \]  

(5)

Here \( z \) is a vector of concentration fields and \( F(z) \) is a vector-valued function describing chemical reactions. We assume that in one dimension (5) possesses a stable solution with a propagating front profile \( z(t, x, y) = z_0(x - ct) \), where \( c \) is the velocity of the front. Following the treatment by Kuramoto [12] we seek the dynamics of a perturbed solution in the form,

\[ z(t, x, y) = z_0(\xi + \phi_0(t, y)) + \sum_{i > 0} \phi_i(t, y) u_i(\xi) , \]

(6)

where \( \xi = x - ct \). As is customary, we use an abstract notation \( \langle \xi | u_i \rangle = u_i(\xi) \). The vectors \( |u_i\rangle \) are the solutions of the eigenvalue problem,

\[ \left[ D \hat{F}(z_0) + D \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \right] |u_i\rangle \equiv \hat{L}|u_i\rangle = \lambda_i |u_i\rangle , \]

(7)

where \( D \hat{F} \) is the Jacobian of the vector-function \( F \) and \( \hat{L} \) is the operator in square brackets. Here a hat signifies an abstract operator while the corresponding quantity without a hat is its \( \xi \) representation. We expand \( F(z) \) in a Taylor series near \( z_0 \) and neglect terms of second order and higher. Since the main features of the front dynamics are embodied in \( D \hat{F} \), the truncation of the Taylor series does not discard any important information. Due to the translational symmetry of equation (5) we have a straightforward solution of (7), namely \( |u_0\rangle = \partial |z_0\rangle / \partial \xi \) corresponding to a zero eigenvalue. Taking this solution into account we write

\[ \frac{\partial \phi_i}{\partial t} |u_i\rangle = c |u_0\rangle + \hat{F}(z_0) + D \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} z_0 + (\nabla \phi_0)^2 D \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} |u_0\rangle + \]

\[ + \Delta \phi_i D |u_i\rangle + \sum_{i > 0} \phi_i \left[ D \hat{F}|u_i\rangle + D \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} |u_i\rangle + c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} |u_i\rangle \right] . \]

(8)

Using the identity \( -c |u_0\rangle = F(z_0) + D \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} |z_0\rangle \) and definition (7) we arrive at the expression

\[ \]
\[ \frac{\partial \phi_i}{\partial t} |_{u_i} = \lambda_i \phi_i |_{u_i} + \Delta \phi_i D |_{u_i} + (\nabla \phi_0)^2 D \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} |_{u_0} . \]  \tag{9} 

Here and below we use the Einstein summation convention. Alternatively, after multiplication by \( \langle u_i | \) meal (9) may be represented by a set of coupled equations

\[ \frac{\partial \phi_i}{\partial t} = \lambda_i \phi_i + \langle u_i | D | u_j \rangle \Delta_j + \langle u_i | D \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} | u_0 \rangle (\nabla \phi_0)^2 . \]  \tag{10} 

This set of equations can be formally solved for modes \( \phi_i \) \((i \neq 0)\) by treating \( \phi_0 \) as an independent function and applying Duhamel’s principle to the resulting system of inhomogeneous linear equations. We find

\[ \phi(t) = e^{\hat{W}t} \phi(0) + \int_0^t dse^{(t-s)} \left[ a \Delta \phi_0(s) + b (\nabla \phi_0(s))^2 \right] . \]  \tag{11} 

In (11) we use the following notation: the matrix operator \( \hat{W} \) has elements \( \hat{W}_{ij} = \delta_{ij} \lambda_i + \langle u_i | D | u_j \rangle \Delta \), the vectors \( a \) and \( b \) have elements \( a_i = \langle u_i | D | u_0 \rangle \), \( b_i = \langle u_i | D \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} | u_0 \rangle \), respectively, and \( \phi \) is a vector with elements \( \phi_i \) \((i > 0)\).

Assuming that \( \exp(\hat{W}t) \) decays rapidly compared to \( \phi_0 \) we may perform the integration in (11) and substitute the result into the equation for \( \phi_0 \) to obtain

\[ \frac{\partial \phi_0}{\partial t} = \left( a_0 - \sum_{i,j>0} c_i \{ \hat{W}^{-1} \}_{ij} \Delta_j \right) \Delta \phi_0 + \left( b_0 - \sum_{i,j>0} c_i \{ \hat{W}^{-1} \}_{ij} b_j \Delta \right) (\nabla \phi_0)^2 \]  \tag{12} 

where \( c_i = \langle u_0 | D | u_i \rangle \). This is the generalized amplitude equation which will form the basis of the analysis of the biscale front chaos given below.

If the dynamics is described by small \( k \) modes one can take \( \hat{W}^{-1} \) to be a diagonal matrix \( \delta_{ij}/\lambda_i \) and by omitting second order terms in the coefficient of \( (\nabla \phi)^2 \) one obtains \[ 13 \]

\[ \frac{\partial \phi_0}{\partial t} = \langle u_0 | D | u_0 \rangle \Delta \phi_0 + \langle u_0 | D \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} | u_0 \rangle (\nabla \phi_0)^2 - \sum_{i>0} \frac{\langle u_0 | D | u_i \rangle \langle u_i | D | u_0 \rangle}{\lambda_i} \Delta^2 \phi_0 . \]  \tag{13} 

The coefficient of the \( (\nabla \phi)^2 \) term is obtained from the following identity:
The above formula vanishes for all $x$ so that after integrating over the entire domain we obtain 
\[ \langle u_0 | D \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} | u_0 \rangle = -\frac{c}{2} \] and observe that the expression has a universal character. This gives the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation, 
\[ \frac{\partial \phi_0}{\partial t} = \nu \Delta \phi_0 - \frac{c}{2} (\nabla \phi_0)^2 - \kappa \Delta^2 \phi_0 , \] with 
\[ \nu = \langle u_0 | D | u_0 \rangle , \] and 
\[ \kappa = \sum_{i>0} \frac{\langle u_0 | D | u_i \rangle \langle u_i | D | u_0 \rangle}{\lambda_i} . \] 
A stability analysis of (14) shows that the planar front is unstable with respect to long-scale, small-amplitude perturbations when $\nu < 0$. 

In the next subsection we analyse the cubic autocatalysis front dynamics in terms of both the generalized amplitude equation (12) as well as the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation (15).

B. Amplitude equation description of front dynamics

1. Dynamics near instability

The Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation provides insight into the nature of the cubic autocatalysis fronts close to the instability point, and we briefly comment on this connection. Simulations of the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation produce height correlation functions and space-time plots (cf. Fig. 4) of the front dynamics similar to
those of the cubic autocatalysis model. In terms of the Kuramoto-Sivahinsky equation, one sees that the front dynamics for $\delta > \delta_c$ is determined by the instability at long wavelengths, due to the fact that $\nu < 0$ in the $\Delta \phi_0$ term, and the dissipation at short wavelengths controlled by the $\Delta^2 \phi_0$ term with positive $\kappa$. The dispersion relation of the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation is $\omega(k) = -\nu k^2 - \kappa k^4$ with maximum at $k_m = (-\nu/2\kappa)^{1/2}$. The long wavelength structure drives the dynamics of the extrema ("particles") whose collision dynamics provides the dissipation of the energy. The characteristic distance between extrema can be related to the wavevector by $\ell^* = 2\pi/k_m$. Using a zeroth order approximation to the $\nu$ and $\kappa$ coefficients given in the next section, for $\delta = 5$ we obtain $\ell^* = 30$ which is is comparable to the value of $\ell^* = 39$ found in the numerical simulations. Using the methods given in Sec. IV it is possible to obtain $\nu$ and $\kappa$ accurately and improve this estimate. For the present purposes this rough estimate plus the appearance of the space-time plot [14] in Fig. 4 suffice to confirm the general character of the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky mechanism for the chaotic cubic autocatalysis front dynamics for large system lengths.

It has been argued [15] that the long-scale dynamics of the one-dimensional Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation can be described by the Kardar-Parisi-Zhang equation [16],

$$\frac{\partial \phi_0(t, y)}{\partial t} = \mathcal{D} \frac{\partial^2 \phi_0(t, y)}{\partial y^2} + \frac{c}{2} (\nabla \phi_0(t, y))^2 + \xi(t, y),$$

where $c$ is the front speed, $\mathcal{D}$ is a diffusion coefficient and $\xi(t)$ is a Gaussian white noise source with correlation function $\langle \xi(t, y) \xi(t', y') \rangle = 2\Gamma \delta(t - t')\delta(y - y')$. Although there is debate about some aspects of the reduction in higher dimensions [17], numerical simulations [18] of the scaling properties of the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation have confirmed this reduction in one dimension. The diffusive character of the cubic autocatalysis front dynamics discussed in Sec. II is consistent with such a description and provides additional confirmation of the applicability of the
Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation close to the onset of instability.

2. Biscale chaos far from instability

Far from instability, for $\delta \gg \delta_c$, we have seen that the cubic autocatalysis model presents new features. The space-time plot (Figure 1(b)) shows that besides the relatively short-lived trajectories, which are similar to those of the Kuramoto-Sivahinsky equation, there exist long-lived, stable patterns. We have verified that this type of biscale chaotic front dynamics, which involves a second characteristic length scale, cannot be described by the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation. One may seek a generalization of the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation in which the coefficients of the $\Delta \phi_0$ and $\Delta^2 \phi_0$ terms are modified; this in effect changes the dispersion relation and if it has the form sketched in Fig. 3(a) with two extrema then one might observe biscale spatio-temporal dynamics. We note, however, that direct numerical calculation of the fastest growth mode and the growth rate corresponding to it (cf. Appendix for the method used to carry out this calculation) shows that the dispersion relation remains similar to that of the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation even for $\delta \gg \delta_c$ (see Fig. 3 for a schematic representation of the situation). Thus one must seek a description of this new type of front dynamics outside the usual Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation or modifications of it that involve a generalized dispersion relation.

We now describe a model that captures the qualitative features of this phenomenon and is consistent with the amplitude equation (12) derived above. Since the origin of the new dynamics does not reside in terms that affect the dispersion relation, one is led to examine the nonlinear term in (12) which, for future reference, we rewrite in terms of its Fourier transform:

$$\frac{\partial \phi_0(t, k)}{\partial t} = \omega(k) \phi_0(t, k) + \frac{cg(k)}{4\pi} \sum_{k'} k'(k - k') \phi_0(t, k') \phi_0(t, k - k'), \quad (19)$$
where \( g(k) \) is given by
\[
-\frac{c}{2}g(k) = b_0 - \sum_{i,j>0} c_i \{ \hat{W}(k)^{-1} \}_{ij} b_j k^2 .
\]
(20)

Recall that \( b_0 = -c/2 \). The dynamical system governed by \( \partial \phi / \partial t = (\nabla \phi)^2 \) conserves the quantity \( \int (\nabla \phi)^2 d\xi \) as can be seen easily from the identity [19]:
\[
\frac{d}{d\tau} \int (\nabla \phi)^2 d\xi = -2 \int \nabla^2 \phi (\nabla \phi)^2 d\xi = -\frac{2}{3} \int \nabla (\nabla \phi)^3 d\xi ,
\]
(21)
so that below we shall refer to the linear and nonlinear terms in [19] as dissipation and mixing terms, respectively. Multiplying [19] by \( \phi_0(t, -k) \) and averaging the resulting equation over time we have for the stationary power spectrum
\[
0 = \omega(k) E(k) + \frac{c g(k)}{4\pi} \sum_{k'} k' (k - k') \langle \phi_0(t, k') \phi_0(t, k - k') \phi_0(t, -k) \rangle .
\]
(22)

From this equation it is clear that the stationary properties depend on the ratio \( \omega(k)/g(k) \) so that for \( g(k) \) as in Fig. 5(b) we see that the growth of the mode with wavenumber \( k_0 \) is strongly suppressed. While the above arguments do not constitute a rigorous “proof” they serve as a guide to the proper form of the mixing coefficient. Technically, the above scheme is accomplished in a natural way when a zero of \( \hat{W}(k) \) comes close to real axis in the vicinity of the maximum of the dispersion relation. In this case behaviour of \( g(k) \) is dominated by the pole of \( \hat{W}^{-1}(k) \) and the mixing coefficient may be approximated by
\[
g(k) = 1 + \frac{\epsilon k^2}{(k - k_0)^2 + \gamma^2} ,
\]
(23)
where the damping term can be rationalized in terms of the continuous spectrum of \( \lambda_i \).

In the simulation of this equation we scale space, time and \( \phi_0 \) so that \( \nu, \kappa \) and \( c/2 \) are unity and take the following values for the parameters that appear in \( g(k) \):
\( \epsilon = 0.2, k_0 = 0.6 \) and \( \gamma^2 = 0.005 \). The results are presented in Fig. 4(b). In
the figure one sees the existence of the structures with two different length scales, the main signature of biscale chaos. The generalized amplitude equation does not capture all of the details of cubic autocatalysis front dynamics far beyond the onset of instability. For example, the simulations of cubic autocatalysis show a broader distribution of longer length scales and, as is quite evident in Fig. 1, regions where there are no extrema. The full descriptions of these features may be specific to cubic autocatalysis and require a more detailed analysis. However, the main feature, the emergence of a second length scale, is described by the model.

We note the similarities in transitions to ordinary and biscale chaotic regimes. In the former case the transition takes place when \( \langle u_0 | D | u_0 \rangle \) passes through zero and in the latter we require a zero of \( \{ \delta_{ij} \lambda_i - \langle u_i | D | u_j \rangle k^2 \} \) to cross the real axis. The correspondence between the pole of \( \hat{\mathbf{W}}^{-1} \) and the existence of structures with different wavenumbers suggests that this phenomenon can arise in other contexts. The existence of more complicated structures, say with three or four different wavenumbers, is unlikely in view of the continuity of the spectrum and the fact that the dispersion relation is a smooth function of \( k \). Consequently, the amplitude equation (19) could serve as the basis for the analysis of such phenomena in systems other than the cubic autocatalysis reaction.

IV. PARAMETERS IN KURAMOTO-SIVASHINSKY EQUATION

Thus far we have not related the parameters in the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation to those in the cubic autocatalysis model (1) and in this section we determine \( \nu \) and \( \kappa \). We first present an approximate analytical calculation of these parameters based on the exact solutions of the right and left eigenvalue problems for \( |u_0\rangle \) and \( \langle u_0| \), respectively, for case of equal diffusion coefficients [20]. This provides insight into the structure of the eigenvalue spectrum and the corresponding eigenvalues.
We then describe a general numerical scheme which can be applied to other models as well. In this section we choose a different space scaling and set $D_A = 1 + \mu$ and $D_B = 1 - \mu$ since this simplifies the computations.

A. Case of equal diffusion coefficients

When the diffusion coefficients are equal ($\mu = 0$) the reaction-diffusion equation supports an additional relation involving the $\alpha$ and $\beta$ concentrations due to conservation of the total mass at each point of space, $\alpha + \beta = 1$, given that at the initial time this relation is satisfied at every space point. We can rewrite system (1) ($D_A = D_B = 1$) in the form

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial t} = -\alpha (1 - \alpha)^2 + \Delta \alpha . \tag{24}$$

Local initial input of the autocatalyst induces the creation of a front, propagating with the minimal velocity $[8]$, whose profile is

$$\alpha_0(\xi) = (1 + \exp(-c\xi))^{-1} , \tag{25}$$

where $c = 1/\sqrt{2}$ is the velocity of the front. The form of the $\beta$ profile follows from the mass conservation relation. Henceforth, when confusion is unlikely to arise, we drop the subscript 0 on $\alpha$ and $\beta$ to simplify the notation.

Next we discuss the spectrum of the eigenvalue problem (7) for the cubic autocatalysis problem when the diffusion coefficients are equal. Using the explicit form of $DF(z_0)$ derived from (1) we have

$$\begin{align*}
\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} - \beta^2 \right] X_1 - 2\alpha \beta X_2 &= \lambda X_1 , \\
\beta^2 X_1 + \left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} + 2\alpha \beta \right] X_2 &= \lambda X_2 , \tag{26}
\end{align*}$$

where we have written the components of a general right eigenvector $u$ as $u = (X_1, X_2)$. We shall show that the spectrum is obtained from two distinct equations.
First, by adding the two lines of (26), we obtain a linear differential equation with constant coefficients:

$$\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \right] X = \lambda X, \quad (27)$$

where \( X = X_1 + X_2 \). After a change of variables \( X = \exp(-c\xi/2)Y \) we obtain

$$\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} - \frac{c^2}{4} \right] Y = \lambda Y.$$  

The eigenvalue problem for \( Y \) has a continuous spectrum \((-\infty, -c^2/4]\). In these considerations we have omitted the case \( X_1 + X_2 = 0 \), which satisfies the eigenproblem for \( X \) automatically. Using this relation we obtain the following equation for the other part of the spectrum:

$$\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} + (2\alpha\beta - \beta^2) \right] X_1 = \lambda X_1. \quad (28)$$

After the same change of variables \( X_1 = \exp(-c\xi/2)Y_1 \) we get a “Schrödinger” equation with potential \( V = -2\alpha\beta + \beta^2 \) (cf. Fig. 6(a)) and energy levels \( E_i = -c^2/4 - \lambda_i \). We see that this equation has a continuous spectrum starting from zero as well as discrete spectrum. The WKB method may be used to obtain approximations for the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions. Applying the Bohr-Sommerfeld quantization rule we get \( E_0 = -0.1066 \) for the first energy level, which is in good agreement with the theoretical value \(-c^2/4 = -0.125\). This indicates that the WKB approximation is reliable and it predicts that the potential well is too shallow to have other discrete energy levels. So we conclude that the spectrum consists of a zero eigenvalue and doubly degenerate continuous spectrum lying in \((-\infty, -c^2/4]\).

The right eigenvector \( |u_0\rangle = \partial|z_0\rangle/\partial \hat{\xi} \) was discussed in Sec. 11, but the left eigenvector \( \langle u_0| \) is more difficult to obtain. We now construct the explicit form for \( \langle u_0| \) for the case of equal diffusion. Letting \( \langle u_0|\xi \rangle = u_0^*(\xi) = (X_1^*, X_2^*) \) the eigenvalue problem for \( u_0^*(\xi) \) takes the form

$$\begin{align*}
\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} - c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \right] X_1^* - \beta^2(X_1^* - X_2^*) &= 0, \\
\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} - c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \right] X_2^* - 2\alpha\beta(X_1^* - X_2^*) &= 0,
\end{align*} \quad (29)$$
so that the difference $X^* = X_1^* - X_2^*$ obeys

$$\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} - c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} + (2 \alpha \beta - \beta^2) \right] X^* = 0.$$  

This can be cast into the form of (28) after the change of variable $X^* = A \exp(c \xi) Z$, where $A$ is some constant defined by the normalization condition $\langle u_0 | u_0 \rangle = 1$

$$\langle u_0 | u_0 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \xi} X^* d\xi = cA \int_0^1 \alpha^2 d\alpha = \frac{cA}{3}; \quad (30)$$

hence, we have

$$X^* = 3(1 + \exp(-c\xi))^{-2}. \quad (31)$$

Performing the change of variable $\Psi = \exp(-c\xi/2)X_1^*$ in (29) and using (31) we obtain

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} \Psi - \left(\frac{c}{2}\right)^2 \Psi = 3\beta^2 \exp(-c\xi/2)(1 + \exp(-c\xi))^{-2}. \quad (32)$$

The Green’s function for the operator $\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} - c^2/4 \right]$ is given by $G(\xi) = -c^{-1} \exp(-c|\xi|/2)$. Convolution of $G$ with the right-hand-side of (32) yields a solution for $X_1^*$,

$$X_1^*(\xi) = -\frac{1 + 2 \exp(-c\xi)}{(1 + \exp(-c\xi))^2}, \quad (33)$$

and the difference between $X_1^*$ and $X^*$ gives $X_2^*$,

$$X_2^*(\xi) = -\frac{4 + 2 \exp(-c\xi)}{(1 + \exp(-c\xi))^2}. \quad (34)$$

These functions are plotted in Fig. 6(b). The functions have limiting behaviour $X_1^*(+\infty) = -1$ and $X_2^*(+\infty) = -4$.

System (29), for any diffusion coefficient ratio, has another zero left eigenfunction $V^* = (1, 1)$, which appears due to conservation of the total mass of the reagents.

The right eigenfunction $V$ corresponding to $V^*$ is
While both the “bra” vector corresponding to spatial invariance and the “ket” vector obtained above do not decay to zero at $\xi = \infty$ their scalar product does and the product is given, after change of variable, by:

$$\langle V | u_0 \rangle = \sqrt{2} \int_0^1 \left[ 4\alpha^2 \ln \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} - 2(1+3\alpha)(1-\alpha) \right] d\alpha = 0 .$$

Since the above integral vanishes these considerations insure us that we have an orthogonal system of “bra” and “ket” vectors. Moreover, the fact that one product is finite and the other is not removes an ambiguity in the definition of the left eigenfunction. We believe the same situation holds for arbitrary $\mu$.

### 1. Estimate of $\nu$ for $\mu \neq 0$

For equal diffusion coefficients $D$ is the identity matrix and it follows that $\nu = \langle u_0 | D | u_0 \rangle = 1$. However, using $| u_0 \rangle$ and $\langle u_0 |$ computed for $\mu = 0$, we may obtain a first order approximation for $\nu$ for unequal diffusion coefficients. From (16) we write:

$$\nu = \langle u_0 | D | u_0 \rangle = 1 + \mu \langle u_0 | I | u_0 \rangle ,$$

where $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$. Using the explicit, equal-diffusion forms for $\langle u_0 |$ and $| u_0 \rangle$ we get

$$\langle u_0 | I | u_0 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \xi} (X_1^* + X_2^*) \, d\xi = -\int_0^1 \left( \alpha^2 + 4\alpha \right) \, d\alpha = -\frac{7}{3} ,$$

and $\nu = 1 - 7\mu/3$. 

2. Estimate of $\kappa$ for $\mu \neq 0$

When the diffusion coefficients are equal and $D$ is the identity matrix we have $\kappa = 0$ in view of the orthogonality of the eigenfunctions. However, as in the preceding subsection we can obtain an estimate for $\kappa$ for arbitrary $\mu$ using the solution of the eigenvalue problem for $\mu = 0$. To obtain this estimate we assert completeness of the set of eigenfunctions; i.e., $\sum_i |u_i\rangle \langle u_i| = 1$. Using this assumption we obtain

$$
\sum_i \frac{\langle u_0|A|u_i\rangle \langle u_i|B|u_0\rangle}{\lambda_i} = \langle u_0|B|x\rangle - \langle u_0|B|u_0\rangle \langle u_0|x\rangle ,
$$

(40)

where $|x\rangle$ is a solution of the equation

$$
[D\mathbf{F} + D \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi}] |x\rangle = A|u_0\rangle - \langle u_0|A|u_0\rangle |u_0\rangle .
$$

(41)

In this general expression we let $A = B = D$ and use $\langle u_0|D|u_i\rangle \langle u_i|D|u_0\rangle = \mu^2 \langle u_0|I|u_i\rangle \langle u_i|I|u_0\rangle$ in (11). Using $A = D$ and adding the two lines of (41) we have

$$
\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \right] (x_1 + x_2) = 2\alpha \xi ,
$$

(42)

with $\alpha \xi = d\alpha / d\xi$. Solving the above equation with appropriate boundary conditions we get

$$
x_1 + x_2 = \frac{-2 \log(1 + e^{c\xi})}{c e^{c\xi}} .
$$

(43)

Equation (41) can be solved for $x_1$ to obtain (we use in the next equation the explicit form for $\langle u_0|I|u_0\rangle$)

$$
\left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} + 2\alpha \beta - \beta^2 \right] x_1 = 2\alpha \beta (x_1 + x_2) + \frac{10}{3} \alpha \xi .
$$

(44)

This equation takes an especially simple form after a change of variable $\xi \rightarrow \alpha$. The derivative possesses the form $\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} = c\alpha (1 - \alpha) \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha}$ and (44) after simplifications is tantamount to
\[
\alpha (1 - \alpha) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \alpha^2} x_1 + 2 (1 - \alpha) \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} x_1 + 2 \left(3 - \alpha^{-1}\right) x_1 = \frac{8}{c} \left(\frac{5}{12} + \frac{(1 - \alpha) \ln(1 - \alpha)}{\alpha}\right).
\]

(45)

We know that \(\alpha \beta\) is a solution of the homogeneous equation. By the substitution \(x_1 = \alpha \beta \chi\) we decrease the order of (44). Solving the resulting linear first order equation we obtain the solution

\[
x_1 = \frac{2}{9c} \left(2\alpha^2 \left(1 - \alpha^2\right) \left(\ln(1 - \alpha) + \alpha + \frac{\alpha^2}{2}\right) \alpha^2 + 7 \alpha (1 - \alpha) \ln\left(\frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha}\right)\right).
\]

(46)

From the form of the solution it is clear that the solution decays faster then \(e^{-\gamma |\xi|}\), \(0 < \gamma < 1\), and thus the scalar product is well defined. To integrate we use the identity

\[
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Q d\xi = \frac{1}{c} \int_0^1 \frac{Q}{\alpha(1 - \alpha)} d\alpha,
\]

(47)

and integration gives

\[
\kappa = \sum_{i>0} \frac{\langle u_0 | D | u_i \rangle \langle u_i | D | u_0 \rangle}{\lambda_i} = \frac{264 + 40\pi^2}{27}\mu^2.
\]

(48)

Finally, collecting the above information, we arrive at the following expression for the Kuramoto-Sivahinsky equation with approximate coefficients deduced from the cubic autocatalysis model (4):

\[
\frac{\partial \phi_0}{\partial t} = (1 - \frac{7}{3} \mu) \nabla^2 \phi_0 - \frac{264 + 40\pi^2}{27} \mu^2 \nabla^4 \phi_0 - \frac{c}{2} (\nabla \phi_0)^2.
\]

(49)

**B. Numerical computation of \(\nu\) for \(\mu \neq 0\)**

In order to determine \(\nu\) exactly, within the present approach, one must construct a scheme to determine the left eigenvector \(u_0^*\), the solution of \(L^* u^* = \lambda u^*\), for \(\lambda = 0\) and arbitrary \(\mu\). For the cubic autocatalysis problem the left eigenvectors are given by the solutions of
\[
\left[ (1 + \mu) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} - c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} - \beta^2 \right] \Psi_1 + \beta^2 \Psi_2 = \lambda \Psi_1 \\
-2\alpha\beta \Psi_1 + \left[ (1 - \mu) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} - c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} + 2\alpha\beta \right] \Psi_2 = \lambda \Psi_2 ,
\]

where we have written a general left eigenvector as \( u^* = (\Psi_1, \Psi_2) \). The solution of this eigenvalue problem in terms of a complete basis entails the solution of a difficult sparse, non-symmetric, non-tridiagonal matrix eigenvalue problem. In order to avoid solving the eigenvalue problem by matrix methods we use the following device. We consider an auxiliary problem that originates from the system of equations (50). In (50) we replace terms \( c \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \) by the time derivative and take \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) to be in a moving frame with velocity \( -c \) (i.e., \( \alpha(t, x) = \alpha_0(x + ct) \), \( \beta(t, x) = \beta_0(x + ct) \)):

\[
\frac{\partial \Psi_1}{\partial t} = (1 + \mu) \Delta \Psi_1 - \beta^2(\Psi_1 - \Psi_2) \\
\frac{\partial \Psi_2}{\partial t} = (1 - \mu) \Delta \Psi_1 - 2\alpha\beta(\Psi_1 - \Psi_2) .
\]

Eigenvalues of the adjoint eigenvalue problem \( \mathcal{L}^* u^* = \lambda u^* \) coincide with those of (7) and for nonzero eigenvalues their real parts are negative and separated from zero. Using this observation we deduce that all but one of the components exponentially decay so that the persistent solution of the system of partial differential equations (52) is proportional to \( \langle u_0 \rangle \). It is worth noting here that in order to obtain \( \langle u_0 \rangle \) one should take unequal initial distributions for \( \Psi_1 \) and \( \Psi_2 \) in (51).

Numerical computations of both (1) and (51) were carried out using the following hybrid of the Runge-Kutta and Crank-Nicholson methods:

\[
\frac{z' - z(t)}{\tau} = D\Delta \frac{z' + z(t)}{2} + F(z(t)) , \\
\frac{z(t + \tau) - z(t)}{\tau} = D\Delta \frac{z(t + \tau) + z(t)}{2} + F \left( \frac{z' + z(t)}{2} \right) .
\]

We use a non-uniform distribution of mesh points with density \( x/(1 - x^2)^{-1} \), where \( x \) is in the range \([-1, 1]\). The matrix coefficients and vectors were computed using
a finite element method with functions approximated by a sum of hat functions. During the simulations the profiles were monitored and constantly shifted to the origin. To do this the profiles were interpolated using a monotonicity-preserving, piecewise-cubic, Hermite interpolant to a set of data points \[23\]. For the velocity we use the following relation:

\[
c = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha \beta^2 d\xi .
\] (53)

Due to the fast decay of the rate of the reaction outside the reaction zone the infinite range of the integration can be replaced by the limit mesh points and the value of the definite integral of the interpolant is easily computed.

The results obtained in simulations for the case of equal diffusion coefficients were compared with the analytical results from the previous section. The absolute errors for the velocity and for \(\langle u_0 | I | u_0 \rangle\) are about \(10^{-6}\) and \(10^{-4}\), respectively. This confirms that the numerical procedure is accurate.

V. CRITICAL DIFFUSION RATIO

While it is clear that the planar front is unstable for sufficiently large values of the diffusion ratio \(\delta\), no estimate was provided the critical diffusion ratio, \(\delta_c\), where this instability takes place. There are a number of estimates of \(\delta_c\) in the literature. Horváth et al. \[10\] estimated \(\delta_c \approx 2.9\) from direct simulation of the reaction-diffusion equation and found \(\delta_c = 2\) from an application of Sivashinsky’s method, which assumes an infinitely thin reaction zone, to the cubic autocatalysis problem. Zhang and Falle \[24\] computed the dispersion relation directly and found \(\delta_c \approx 2.0\). Finally, Milton and Scott \[25\] obtained \(\delta_c \approx 2.366\) using the eikonal theory and \(\delta_c \approx 2.25\) from numerical simulation. This quantity is difficult to estimate by simulation of the reaction-diffusion equation and its direct calculation presents a
number of interesting features.

In the context of the amplitude equations discussed in Sec. III, $\delta_c$ can be determined from the condition $\nu = \langle u_0 | D | u_0 \rangle = 0$. This, in turn, requires the computation of the left and right eigenvectors of the eigenvalue problem $\mathbf{26}$. The analytical estimate of $\nu$ discussed above immediately gives an estimate of the critical diffusion coefficient ratio. The critical value of $\mu$, $\mu_c$, is given by the solution of $\nu = 0 = 1 - 7\mu_c/3$ or $\mu_c = 3/7$. Since $\delta = (1 + \mu)/(1 - \mu)$ we have $\delta_c = 2.5$.

To determine the critical diffusion ratio exactly we use the numerical scheme outlined above to determine the left and right eigenvectors for arbitrary $\mu$. In this way the critical diffusion ratio can be obtained iteratively. At each step the ratio from the previous run was taken and new profiles and the ratio $-\langle u_0 | \mathbf{I} | u_0 \rangle^{-1}$ corresponding to them were determined. Iterations rapidly converge to the value $\mu_c = 0.39397$, which corresponds to diffusion coefficient ratio $\delta_c = 2.300$.

We have also computed the dispersion relation to provide additional confirmation that $\delta_c > 2$. The details of the computation are given in the Appendix. The method we use allows us to put several thousand mesh points in the reaction zone (compared to about 40 in $\mathbf{24}$). In the small wavenumber range the dispersion relation should have a dependence on $k$ given by that of Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation. The maximum growth rate for the dispersion relation $\omega(k) = -\nu k^2 - \kappa k^4$ is $\nu^2/4\kappa$. We see that when $\delta$ approaches $\delta_c$, so that $\nu \sim (\delta_c - \delta)$, the maximal growth rate rapidly decreases and can easily fall out of range of the precision of the calculation. Moreover, direct simulation shows the presence of a very slowly decaying tail of the autocatalyst and its length increases (cf. Appendix) when $k$ approaches zero. So the calculations could also be affected by the limited system size. We also observe that least-square fittings of the data in Fig.2(a) of $\mathbf{24}$ gives $\nu = .34$ and $\kappa = 1.7$ indicating stability of the front. A further test of our computation...
of the dispersion relation comes from the first order approximation of $\nu$ in the Kuramoto-Sivahinsky equation when $\mu \approx \mu_c$: $\mu = \mu_c + \delta \mu$. In this case we have $\nu = 1 + \mu \langle u_0|I|u_0 \rangle = -\delta \mu / \mu_c$. The results of our computations of the dispersion relation for the case $\mu = 0.45$ ($\delta = 2.636$) are given in Fig. 4. We see that near the origin the dispersion relation is well approximated by the curve $\omega = 0.142 k^2$, where $0.142 = \delta \mu / \mu_c$.

VI. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The chaotic dynamics of cubic autocatalysis fronts shows two distinct kinds of behaviour depending on the diffusion ratio $D_A/D_B$. Close to the onset of the front instability the transverse structure can be described in terms of a single length scale. The characteristic length is associated with the wavelength of the most unstable mode and the dynamics can be viewed in terms of a particle picture. The front extrema can be associated with “particles” that collide and coalesce and new particles are created to maintain the average particle number. This dynamical regime was characterized statistically and shown to be described by the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation.

For large values of $D_A/D_B$ a new dynamical regime was found where the front is characterized by two length scales. We term this type of chaotic front dynamics biscale chaos. Biscale chaos cannot be described by the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation and we introduced an amplitude equation which is a generalization of this equation. This amplitude equation accounts for a modified nonlinear energy mixing among the modes. We identified this kind of behaviour with a pole near the real axis of a linear operator obtained in the course of the analysis of the dynamics of small perturbations. The observed phenomenon may prove to be quite general in light of the simple prerequisite for it, namely, the crossing of the real axis by a pole.
However, we believe that the coexistence of structures with three or more length scales is unlikely since it requires the operator to have more complicated properties. Questions about qualitative effects of this irregular dynamics on microscopic quantities (e.g., mean front velocity, diffusion coefficient of the interface, etc.) remain. Another point to be investigated is the possibility of describing the observed patterns in terms of the dynamics of interacting pulses, which correspond to small $k$ modes, driven by noise.

An explicit reduction of the cubic autocatalysis reaction-diffusion equation to the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation was carried out and the coefficients that enter in this equation were determined. Both approximate analytical values as well as a numerical scheme for their exact computation for arbitrary $D_A/D_B$ were given. The numerical method copes with two problems that arise in such calculations, namely, the nonlocal form of the zero eigenvector and the degeneracy of the eigenproblem with eigenvalue equal to zero, which comes from the conservation laws for the system. The algorithm is easy to implement and proved to be reliable. Using these results the critical diffusion ratio where the front instability occurs was computed and found to be $D_A/D_B = 2.300$.

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APPENDIX: NUMERICAL COMPUTATION OF THE DISPERSION RELATION

The dispersion relation for the cubic autocatalysis model was computed in the following way: The perturbation of the front solution of (5) may be written in the form

\[ z(t, x, y) = z_0(\xi) + \chi(t, x) \exp(iky). \]  

(A1)

We assume, when \( k \) is small, that the largest eigenvalue is separated from the others. Thus, after integration of the equation

\[ \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial t} = DF\chi + D \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - k^2 \right) \chi, \]  

(A2)

for a sufficiently long time, only the most unstable mode survives. The system (A2) is the same as system (4.7) of [24] after proper scaling and change of variables \( \chi_1 = a_1 - \frac{da_0}{dx}, \chi_2 = b_1 - \frac{db_0}{dx} \) in the notation of this paper [27]. After transients the solution of (A2) should propagate with the same velocity as the front and grow with a rate \( \omega(k) \) and thus we can replace \( \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial t} \) with \( \omega(k)\chi - c\chi \). In [24] the eigenvalue problem with \( \chi \) as a vector and \( \omega(k) \) as eigenvalue was solved. The two approaches lead to the same result but the latter necessitates solving an eigenvalue problem for a non-symmetric, sparse matrix that is in general a difficult task. The direct integration if the system (A2) is more accurate and easier to implement. The results of the integration for \( \mu = 0.45 \) are shown in Fig. 7.

To decrease the integration time we used as initial conditions for \( \chi \) the eigenvector obtained from the run for \( k - \delta k \) and by employing numerical differentiation we computed \( |u_0 \rangle \), which is solution of the eigenvalue problem for \( k = 0 \).

We also note that the autocatalyst exhibits a slowly decaying tail whose length increases as \( k \) approaches zero. The length of the tail can be estimated from the equation, \( \chi_2'' = k^2\chi_2 - c(1 - \mu)^{-1}\chi_2' \), which is obtained from the equation governing the
dynamics of the autocatalyst (second member of (A2)) by setting the reaction terms
to zero. When $k$ is small the solution exponentially decays as $\exp\left(-(1 - \mu)k^2 x/c\right)$
and the length of the tail is of order $L_{ta} \sim c[(1 - \mu)k^2]^{-1}$. 
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equation possesses an additional zero left eigenvector due to the conservation of the reagents and no recipe is given for how to choose the correct one.

[21] Integration of the Bohr momentum over the allowable domain yields 3.1 when the next value in quantization rule is $3\pi/2 \approx 4.5$.

[22] We write $|x\rangle$ as $|x\rangle = \sum_{i>0} \eta_i |u_i\rangle$ so that $[\{A|u_0\rangle - \langle u_0|A|u_0\rangle |u_0\rangle] = \sum_{i>0} \lambda_i \eta_i \cdot |u_i\rangle$.

\[ \langle u_0|B|x\rangle \] is replaced by $\sum_{i>0} \eta_i \langle u_0|B|u_i\rangle$ but $\lambda_i \eta_i = \langle u_i|A|u_0\rangle$, thus proving the statement.

[23] In the simulations we used the NAG library for numerical analyses. Linear equations were solved using the NAG library routine F04FAF. For interpolation we employed subroutine E01BEF which computes a monotonicity-preserving, piecewise-cubic, Hermite interpolant to a set of data points. The value of the definite integral of the interpolant was determined using E01BHF.

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\[ \frac{\partial \eta_1}{\partial t} = A(\eta_1 - \eta_2) + D_A \Delta \eta_1 \]
\[ \frac{\partial \eta_2}{\partial t} = A(\eta_1 - \eta_2) + D_B \Delta \eta_2 , \]

where $A$ is some positive constant and we have used $\int 2\alpha\beta\xi d\xi = - \int \beta^2 \alpha\xi d\xi$. 

29
The above system loses stability whenever $D_A > D_B$ and it is obvious that this value does not coincide with the critical diffusion coefficient ratio.

[27] We use the set of identities:

\[-c\alpha_\xi = (1 + \mu)\alpha_\xi - \beta^2 \alpha_\xi - 2\alpha\beta\xi\]
\[-c\beta_\xi = (1 - \mu)\beta_\xi + \beta^2 \alpha_\xi + 2\alpha\beta\xi\]

obtained by differentiation of the front solution. We find the system (A2) to be more compact when we use this particular form of the perturbation.
FIGURES

FIG. 1. Panels (a) and (b) are space-time plots of the minima of the autocatalyst ($B$) profiles for the diffusion coefficient ratios $\delta = 5$ and $\delta = 8$, respectively. The isoconcentration level for these plots is $\beta_r = 0.5$. The ordinates range from 0 to $L$, where the system size is $L = 2048$. In the abscissas the initial time is $t = 0$ and the final time is $t = 100 000$ for (a) and $t = 200 000$ for (b).

FIG. 2. The figure shows $C(t, y)$ for $\delta = 5$ for several values of $t$ indicated on the plot, as well as $\bar{C}(y)$ and the theoretical value of $\bar{C}(y) = \Gamma y (L - y)/DL$ for a diffusive interface where nonlinear terms in the Kardar-Parisi-Zhang equation can be neglected. The parameter $\bar{D} = \Gamma / D$, determined from a fit to the $\bar{C}(y)$ data, has the value $\bar{D} \approx 0.2$. The parameter $\Gamma$ may be estimated independently from the linear growth of the $k = 0$ Fourier mode. Its value was found to be $\Gamma \approx 0.018$. Fronts corresponding to the isoconcentration lines $\beta_r = 0.5$ were used to construct these correlation functions. The system length was $L = 256$ and $C(t, y)$ was determined from an averages over 25 realizations of the front evolution. In the computation of $\bar{C}(y)$, we used $t_0 = 25 000$ and $t_0 + T = 50 000$.

FIG. 3. Power spectra for $\delta = 5$ and $\delta = 8$. The isoconcentration lines for $\beta_r = 0.5$ were used to construct these power spectra. The system length was $L = 2048$ and $E(k)$ was determined from a single run of the front evolution. For $\delta = 5$ we used $t_0 = 25 000$ and $t_0 + T = 100 000$, while for $\delta = 8$ we used $t_0 = 50 000$ and $t_0 + T = 200 000$.

FIG. 4. Space-time plot of the minima of the profiles for (a) the Kuramoto-Sivashinsky equation and (b) the amplitude equation (\ref{eq:amplitude}.

FIG. 5. (a) The solid line is a schematic representation of the dispersion relation for $\delta > \delta_c$. The dotted line shows the hypothetical form of the dispersion relation with two energy sources. (b) Proposed rate of energy mixing $g(k)$ that produces biscale patterns.
FIG. 6. (a) Plot of the potential in the WKB approximation. (b) Plots of the components of the left eigenvector for the case of equal diffusion coefficients.

FIG. 7. Dispersion relation of the cubic autocatalysis model for the case $\mu = 0.45$ (or $\delta = 2.636$). The symbols ‘+’ denote the dispersion relation constructed from the numerically obtained growth rate. It is compared with the first order approximation $\omega(k) \approx 0.142k^2$ for small values of $k$. 
\[ \ln(E(k)) \]

\[ 0.0001 \quad 0.001 \quad 0.01 \quad 0.1 \quad 1 \]

\[ 0.1 \quad 0.2 \quad 0.3 \quad 0.4 \quad 0.5 \quad 0.6 \]

\[ \delta = 5 \]

\[ \delta = 8 \]
\[ v = -2\alpha\beta + \beta^2 \]
