



Article submitted to journal

Subject Areas:

applied mathematics, computational mathematics, differential equations

Keywords:

Kuramoto–Sivashinsky equation, spatiotemporal chaos, active dissipative–dispersive nonlinear PDE

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Nonlinear dynamics of a dispersive anisotropic Kuramoto–Sivashinsky equation in two space dimensions

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A Kuramoto–Sivashinsky equation in two space dimensions arising in thin film flow is considered on doubly periodic domains. In the absence of dispersive effects, this anisotropic equation admits chaotic solutions for sufficiently large length scales with fully two-dimensional profiles; the one-dimensional dynamics observed for thin domains are structurally unstable as the transverse length increases. We find that, independent of the domain size, the characteristic length scale of the profiles in the streamwise direction is about 10 space units, with that in the transverse direction being approximately three times larger. Numerical computations in the chaotic regime provide an estimate for the radius of the absorbing ball in \mathcal{L}^2 in terms of the length scales, from which we conclude that the system possesses a finite energy density. We show the property of equipartition of energy among the low Fourier modes, and report the disappearance of the inertial range when solution profiles are two-dimensional. Consideration of the high frequency modes allows us to compute an estimate for the analytic extensibility of solutions in \mathbb{C}^2 . We examine the addition of a physically derived third-order dispersion to the problem; this has a destabilising effect, in the sense of reducing analyticity and increasing amplitude of solutions. However, sufficiently large dispersion may regularise the spatiotemporal chaos to travelling waves. We focus on dispersion where chaotic dynamics persist, and study its effect on the interfacial structures, absorbing ball, and properties of the power spectrum.

1. Introduction

The one-dimensional (1D) Kuramoto–Sivashinsky equation (KSE) is

$$u_t + uu_x + u_{xx} + u_{xxxx} = 0, \quad (1.1)$$

which we consider equipped with periodic boundary conditions on the interval $[0, L]$, and an L -periodic initial condition $u(x, 0) = u_0(x)$. Due to the conservative nature of (1.1) and the presence of a Galilean invariance, attention may be restricted to zero-mean solutions. This equation, and variants in higher space dimensions, arise in the study of spatiotemporal organisation in reaction–diffusion systems [34], the propagation of flame fronts [37,51,52], and thin film flows down a vertical plane [38]. Variants also arise in two-phase flows [24,44,55]. Moreover, it is found to emerge in numerous applications in physics, including plasma physics [11], ion sputtering [15], and chemical physics for the propagation of concentration waves [33,35]. A wide range of dynamical behaviours are observed depending on the length L of the periodic domain. Increasing L above 2π (below 2π all solutions converge uniformly to zero), steady-states, travelling waves, and time-periodic bursts are observed, with the onset of chaos for large enough L [53]. The scaling of the system energy with the length parameter can be quantified by considering the L -dependent radius of the absorbing ball in the space $\mathcal{L}_{\text{per}}^2([0, L])$ for solutions to (1.1); this is a bound on the \mathcal{L}^2 -norm of the solutions in the large time limit, i.e.

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left(\int_0^L u^2 dx \right)^{1/2} \leq CP(L), \quad (1.2)$$

for an appropriately chosen L -independent constant C , and some function $P(L)$. An estimate of this form was first constructed using a Lyapunov function approach for odd solutions of (1.1), giving $P(L) = L^{5/2}$ [42], a result which was later improved and generalized to non-parity solutions, implying the existence of a finite-dimensional global attractor [22]. After many intermediate developments [9,13,20,29], the most recent analytical improvement to this bound shows that (1.2) is satisfied for all solutions to (1.1) with $P(L) = L^q$ for any $q > 5/6$ [21,43]. Numerical work provides strong evidence that the optimal estimate for (1.2) is given by $P(L) = L^{1/2}$ [60]; this was shown to be sharp for steady solutions of (1.1) using a dynamical systems approach by proving the stronger property of uniform boundedness of solutions independent of L [36] (this \mathcal{L}^∞ bound is also seen numerically for the general time-dependent case). It was also noted that the energy of the lower Fourier modes was equipartitioned, or spread equally [47,56,60], and decays exponentially for the higher Fourier modes due to strong dissipation on small scales. These regimes are separated by a peak in energy corresponding to the most active Fourier mode (this is near the most linearly unstable mode). The distribution of energy among the Fourier modes appears to be invariant to the system size L in the chaotic regime, suggesting an invariant energy distribution in the thermodynamic limit as $L \rightarrow \infty$. Furthermore, the decay of the fast high frequency modes provides an optimal lower bound on the strip of analyticity of a solution about the real axis [12].

In this paper, we present numerical results for the spatially periodic initial value problem for a KSE in two space dimensions over rectangles $Q = [0, L_1] \times [0, L_2]$, given by

$$u_t + uu_x + u_{xx} + \delta \Delta u_x + \Delta^2 u = 0, \quad (1.3)$$

with initial condition $u(x, y, 0) = u_0(x, y)$ and dispersion parameter $\delta \geq 0$. This was derived by Nepomnyashchy [40,41] with $\delta = 0$, and in general by Frenkel and Indireskumar [18] and Topper and Kawahara [59] to describe the weakly nonlinear evolution of the interface of a thin film flow down a vertical plane (see [30] for a discussion of the derivations of this model for different fluid dynamical regimes). Without loss of generality, we can restrict our attention to zero-mean solutions since the spatial average of a solution to (1.3) is conserved and the equation is invariant under a Galilean transformation as in the 1D case. In the absence of dispersion, i.e. $\delta = 0$, equation (1.3) was studied analytically by Pinto [45,46] in the case of $L_1 = L_2 = L$. He proved global

45 existence of solutions, the existence of a compact global attractor, and analyticity of solutions.
 46 Using the Lyapunov function method, he obtained the estimate for the radius of the absorbing
 47 ball in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{per}}^2([0, L]^2)$,

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|u\|_2 \leq CL^{1/2} \ln L, \quad (1.4)$$

48 where, in terms of general domain lengths L_1 and L_2 , we define the \mathcal{L}^2 -norm by

$$\|u\|_2^2 = \int_0^{L_1} \int_0^{L_2} u^2 \, dx dy = L_1 L_2 \sum_{\underline{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^2} |u_{\underline{k}}|^2, \quad (1.5)$$

49 where $u_{\underline{k}}$ are the Fourier coefficients of u . The non-dispersive problem was also considered
 50 numerically by Akrivis et al. [2] on a square domain. They found that

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|u\|_2 \leq CL, \quad (1.6)$$

51 which is a significant improvement on the analytical result (1.4). In this paper, we generalise this
 52 result to periodic rectangular domains. Using numerical results from a large range of aspect ratios,
 53 we conjecture that the optimal bound for the radius of the absorbing ball of solutions to (1.3) for
 54 $\delta = 0$ in the space $\mathcal{L}_{\text{per}}^2(Q)$ is given by

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|u\|_2 \leq CL_1^{1/2} L_2^{1/2}. \quad (1.7)$$

55 In fact, we see the stronger result that the \mathcal{L}^∞ -norm of solutions is bounded independent of L_1
 56 and L_2 . The result (1.7) implies that the solutions in the chaotic regime possess a finite energy
 57 density. We obtain a similar picture for the energy distribution of the Fourier modes as is found
 58 for the 1D KSE (1.1); a plateau of the energy for the low modes, rising to a peak and then decaying
 59 exponentially for the higher Fourier modes. The addition of the extra dimension in the dissipative
 60 fourth-order term of (1.3) produces an asymmetric energy distribution. By considering the decay
 61 of the Fourier spectra for large wavenumbers, we observe an increased spatial analyticity due to
 62 two-dimensionality of the solutions on domains that are not thin.

63 Next, we introduce dispersion to the problem, and consider how a small positive value of δ
 64 affects the dispersionless solution dynamics, energy distribution and the absorbing ball estimate
 65 (1.7). Dispersive effects are often included in the 1D KSE (1.1); Akrivis et al. [3] considered the
 66 addition of both third- and fifth-order dispersion by studying the Benney–Lin equation

$$u_t + uu_x + u_{xx} + \delta u_{xxx} + u_{xxxx} + \mu u_{xxxxx} = 0. \quad (1.8)$$

67 They observed that increasing dispersion regularises chaotic dynamics and supports travelling
 68 wave attractors. In the case of third-order dispersion alone with $\mu = 0$ (which is of interest here),
 69 formal asymptotics show that for $\delta \gg 1$, solutions of (1.8) converge to scaled travelling wave
 70 solutions of the Korteweg–de Vries (KdV) equation – this convergence has also been proved
 71 rigorously in [7], and the stability of the resulting travelling waves was studied in [5,28]. For
 72 system lengths yielding chaotic attractors, a reverse period-doubling cascade was observed as
 73 δ is increased (see figure 4.2 in [3]). This laminarising effect of dispersion in the 1D problem
 74 was additionally investigated by Chang et al. [10], where the authors showed that increasing
 75 dispersion diminishes the family of steady and travelling wave solutions – only KdV pulses
 76 remain for large enough δ , with a large basin of attraction. Gotoda et al. [23] studied the route
 77 of the full dynamics as dispersion is strengthened; they additionally estimated the critical value
 78 of $\delta \approx 0.2$ (which appears to be independent of system length) where high-dimensional chaos
 79 crosses to low-dimensional chaos.

80 In this paper, we are interested in weak dispersive effects which do not regularise the chaotic
 81 dynamics; we study the effect of the fixed values of $\delta = 0.01, 0.1$, and 1 on the dynamics of the 2D
 82 KSE (1.3). We provide numerical evidence that given a fixed value of δ , the \mathcal{L}^2 -norm satisfies the

83 bound

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|u\|_2 \leq C(\delta) L_1^{1/2} L_2^{1/2}. \quad (1.9)$$

84 We also look at the equipartition and analyticity properties as for the non-dispersive case. We do
85 not study the large dispersion limit ($\delta \gg 1$) here, but briefly comment on known results. Travelling
86 wave attractors of 2D solitary pulses are found, as observed by Toh et al. [57] and Indireskumar
87 and Frenkel [26], in analogy with the results in [3] for the 1D equation. Saprykin et al. [48,49]
88 also studied this problem on infinite domains, and provided a detailed analysis of the interaction
89 between pulses. It can be shown with formal asymptotics (proved rigorously in [17]) that the
90 solutions of (1.3) in this large dispersion limit converge to solutions of the Zakharov–Kuznetsov
91 equation

$$U_\tau + UU_x + \Delta U_x = 0, \quad (1.10)$$

92 where U and τ are rescalings of u and t respectively. This is a higher-dimensional KdV equation
93 yielding 2D solitons whose stability has been studied analytically [14,16].

94 A related equation of interest is the multi-dimensional KSE,

$$v_t + \frac{1}{2} |\nabla v|^2 + \Delta v + \Delta^2 v = 0, \quad (1.11)$$

95 also considered on Q -periodic domains (recall that $Q = [0, L_1] \times [0, L_2]$). In two spatial
96 dimensions, this equation has been derived to describe the propagation of a planar flame front
97 [52], and has been suggested (with the addition of stochastic noise) as an empirical model for
98 the evolution of surfaces eroded by ion bombardment [8,15,19]. A number of authors [4,6,39,50]
99 have considered (1.11) analytically, proving global existence of solutions on sufficiently thin
100 domains for restricted classes of initial conditions. Kalogirou et al. [31] provided a comprehensive
101 numerical study to complement this analytical work. They give an exhaustive picture of the
102 dynamics present for varying domain dimensions.

103 The structure of the paper is as follows. In §2, we briefly discuss the numerical schemes and
104 data analysis tools employed for our simulations. The computations of (1.3) with $\delta = 0$ follow in
105 §3, and the dispersive case follows in §4. In §5, we discuss our results and future work.

106 2. Numerical methods and data analysis tools

107 Equation (1.3) is solved numerically by utilising implicit–explicit backwards differentiation
108 formulas (BDFs) for the time discretisation, and spectral methods in space. The BDFs belong to
109 the family of linearly implicit methods constructed and analysed by Akrivis and Crouzeix [1] for
110 a class of nonlinear parabolic equations. It was shown by Akrivis et al. [2] that such numerical
111 schemes are convergent, and also that they are efficient and unconditionally stable under various
112 conditions on the linear and nonlinear terms of the problem. We do not go into further details of
113 these schemes here, since their applicability for our problem has been checked in [2]. Since we are
114 considering (1.3) on rectangular periodic domains, the solution may be written in the form of a
115 Fourier series

$$u = \sum_{\underline{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^2} u_{\underline{k}}(t) e^{i \underline{k} \cdot \underline{x}}, \quad (2.1)$$

116 where $u_{\underline{k}}$ are the Fourier coefficients of u , and $\tilde{\underline{k}} = (\tilde{k}_1, \tilde{k}_2)$ denotes the wavenumber vector with
117 components defined by

$$\tilde{k}_1 = \frac{2\pi k_1}{L_1}, \quad \tilde{k}_2 = \frac{2\pi k_2}{L_2}, \quad (2.2)$$

118 for $\underline{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^2$. Since u is real-valued, $u_{\underline{k}}$ is the complex conjugate of $u_{-\underline{k}}$. For numerical simulations,
119 we truncate this Fourier series to $|k_1| \leq M$ and $|k_2| \leq N$, corresponding to a discretisation of the
120 spatial domain Q into $(2M + 1) \times (2N + 1)$ equidistant points.

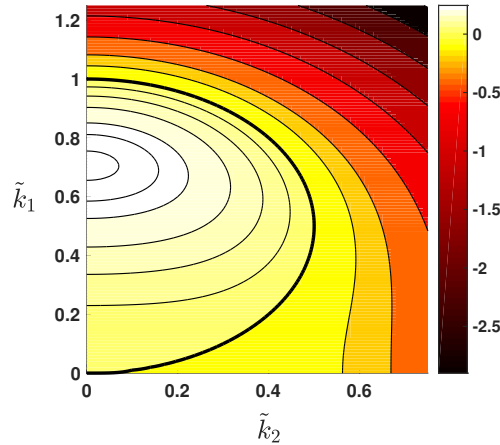


Figure 1: Contours of $\text{Re}[s(\tilde{k})]$ with the bold line corresponding to the zero contour, i.e. $\text{Re}[s(\tilde{k})] = 0$. The most linearly unstable mode is at $\tilde{k} = (1/\sqrt{2}, 0) \approx (0.7071, 0)$ where $\text{Re}[s(\tilde{k})] = 1/4$. For a given L_1 and L_2 , the (k_1, k_2) -mode is linearly unstable/stable if the corresponding point $(\tilde{k}_1, \tilde{k}_2)$ lies inside/outside the zero contour.

121 The linear dispersion relation for (1.3) is

$$s(\tilde{k}) = \tilde{k}_1^2 + i\delta\tilde{k}_1(\tilde{k}_1^2 + \tilde{k}_2^2) - (\tilde{k}_1^2 + \tilde{k}_2^2)^2 = \tilde{k}_1^2 + i\delta\tilde{k}_1|\tilde{k}|^2 - |\tilde{k}|^4, \quad (2.3)$$

122 where the real part of $s(\tilde{k})$ is the linear growth rate. The competition between the second-order
 123 destabilising term and the fourth-order damping is clear from (2.3), yielding a region of linearly
 124 unstable wavenumbers for certain domain choices. Contours of the real part of s , as a function of
 125 \tilde{k}_1 and \tilde{k}_2 , are shown in figure 1, where the zero contour is marked with a thicker line. For a fixed
 126 value of L_1 and L_2 , the stability of the (k_1, k_2) -mode (where $\tilde{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^2$) is determined by the sign
 127 of the real part of $s(\tilde{k})$, with linear instability for wavenumber vectors satisfying $\text{Re}[s(\tilde{k})] > 0$. It
 128 can be seen from figure 1 (and from the definition of s) that the purely transverse modes ($k_1 = 0$)
 129 are always linearly stable. If $L_1 \leq 2\pi$ (implying $\tilde{k}_1 \geq 1$) we also see that no modes are linearly
 130 unstable since the real part of $s(\tilde{k})$ is negative for all arguments; in this case, using an energy
 131 equation obtained by multiplying (1.3) by u and integrating over Q , it can be easily shown that
 132 the solution decays to zero exponentially. The purely imaginary component of $s(\tilde{k})$ corresponds
 133 to the third-order dispersion term providing rotation of the Fourier coefficients in the complex
 134 plane. We may rewrite (1.3) as an infinite system of ODEs for the Fourier coefficients as

$$\frac{d}{dt}u_{\tilde{k}} = -\frac{i\tilde{k}_1}{2} \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}^2} u_{\tilde{k}-m}u_m + s(\tilde{k})u_{\tilde{k}}. \quad (2.4)$$

135 From this it can be seen that the purely transverse modes ($\tilde{k}_1 = 0$) are unaffected by the nonlinear
 136 coupling and decay exponentially. However, the dynamics of the streamwise and mixed modes
 137 are slaved to the transverse modes through the nonlinear term, i.e. the transverse modes decouple
 138 partially.

139 We write the domain lengths L_1, L_2 in a canonical form, taking $L_1 = L$ and $L_2 = L^\alpha$. We take
 140 $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ in a range of values and vary L to present a view of the chaotic dynamics in the global
 141 attractor for many aspect ratios. For aspect ratios with $\alpha \leq 0$, the domains are thin, as either
 142 $L_1 \leq 1$ or $L_2 \leq 1$. In the former case we have trivial behaviour with solutions decaying to zero
 143 as mentioned before, and in the latter case only the purely streamwise modes may be linearly
 144 unstable, thus the dynamics of solutions are expected to be 1D (this is confirmed by numerical
 145 simulations). We use small amplitude random initial conditions with unstable low wavenumber

146 modes for our numerical simulations. For $\underline{x} = (x, y) \in Q$, we take

$$u_0(\underline{x}) = \sum_{\substack{|\underline{k}|_\infty=1 \\ k_1 \neq 0}}^{20} a_{\underline{k}} \cos(\tilde{\underline{k}} \cdot \underline{x}) + b_{\underline{k}} \sin(\tilde{\underline{k}} \cdot \underline{x}), \quad (2.5)$$

147 where the coefficients $a_{\underline{k}}$ and $b_{\underline{k}}$ are random numbers in the range $[-0.05, 0.05)$, generated
 148 separately for each pair (L, α) . Due to the existence of a global attractor [45], the large time
 149 behaviour is independent of initial condition. Note that (2.5) does not contain contributions from
 150 the purely transverse modes (the summation excludes modes with $k_1 = 0$). For large values of
 151 L_2 , the lower transverse modes have very small exponential decay rates and would affect the
 152 streamwise and mixed mode dynamics at large times; taking transverse modes in the initial
 153 condition would only extend the transient phase of the dynamics.

154 We average desired quantities over one solution orbit in order to obtain an average of that
 155 quantity over the entire global attractor (orbits are assumed to be dense in the attractor). Instead
 156 of computing an estimate for

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|u\|_2^2, \quad (2.6)$$

157 we compute (as an equivalent) the time-average of the energy defined by

$$E_{L,\alpha} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \|u\|_2^2 dt, \quad (2.7)$$

158 and approximate it by

$$\bar{E}_{L,\alpha}(T_1, T_2) = \frac{1}{T_2 - T_1} \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \|u\|_2^2 dt, \quad (2.8)$$

159 where $0 \ll T_1 \ll T_2$ are two large times. We require T_1 to be large enough that the solution has
 160 reached the global attractor, and T_2 to be large enough that $\bar{E}_{L,\alpha}$ is a good enough approximation
 161 of the time-average. For all numerical results, we chose $T_1 = 1 \times 10^4$ and $T_2 = 2 \times 10^4$, which
 162 proved to be suitable. To study the equipartition and analyticity properties, we consider the time-
 163 averaged power spectrum of solutions, given by

$$S(\underline{k}) = L_1 L_2 \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T |u_{\underline{k}}|^2 dt, \quad (2.9)$$

164 for each $\underline{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^2$. Realistically, we approximate $S(\underline{k})$ by $\bar{S}(\underline{k}; T_1, T_2)$ where we take a time average
 165 over $[T_1, T_2]$ as done for $\bar{E}_{L,\alpha}$. We can visualise $\bar{S}(\underline{k})$ as a surface through discrete points, or we
 166 can condense the data by plotting the power spectrum against the magnitude of the wavenumber
 167 vector $|\tilde{\underline{k}}| = (\tilde{k}_1^2 + \tilde{k}_2^2)^{1/2}$. Note that the energy $E_{L,\alpha}$ is related to $S(\underline{k})$ through

$$E_{L,\alpha} = \sum_{\underline{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^2} S(\underline{k}), \quad (2.10)$$

168 and we have the same relation between the approximate quantities $\bar{E}_{L,\alpha}$ and $\bar{S}(\underline{k})$.

169 3. Computations in the absence of dispersion

170 We first proceed with a numerical study of (1.3) with $\delta = 0$ on large periodic domains. As noted
 171 earlier, for $\alpha \leq 0$, we either obtain trivial dynamics or 1D solutions corresponding to solutions of
 172 the 1D KSE (1.1), so we focus on domains with $\alpha > 0$ (not thin). Figure 2 shows instantaneous
 173 interfacial profiles of solutions in the chaotic regime at time $T_2 = 2 \times 10^4$. A variety of aspect
 174 ratios are used: in panel (a) the domain is longer in the streamwise direction and has $L_1 = 166.8$,
 175 $L_2 = 59.9$ (i.e. $\alpha = 0.8$); panel (b) shows a solution on a square domain with $L_1 = L_2 = 122.5$,
 176 and the domain in panel (c) is longer in the spanwise direction with $L_1 = 46.4$, $L_2 = 215.4$
 177 (here $\alpha = 1.4$). In all cases shown, activity in the mixed modes promotes fully 2D solutions.
 178 These profiles highlight distinct features of solutions to (1.3) on sufficiently large domains; the

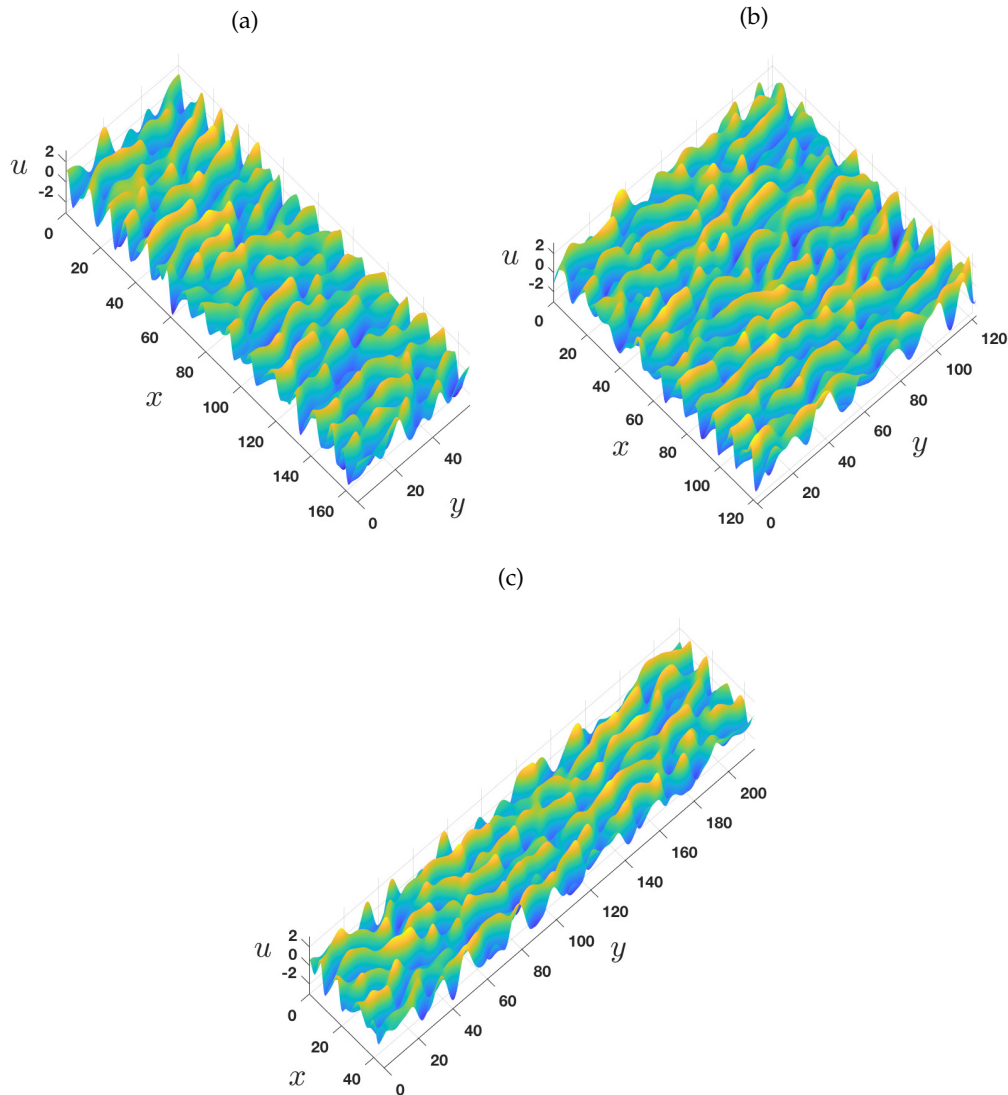


Figure 2: Profiles of numerical solutions to (1.3) with $\delta = 0$ in the chaotic regime at time $T_2 = 2 \times 10^4$ are shown for a range of aspect ratios. The choice of domain dimensions are: (a) $L = L_1 = 166.81, L_2 = 59.95, \alpha = 0.8, |Q| = 10^4$, (b) $L = L_1 = L_2 = 122.474, \alpha = 1, |Q| = 1.5 \times 10^4$ and (c) $L = L_1 = 46.415, L_2 = 215.44, \alpha = 1.4, |Q| = 10^4$. The structure of the profiles appears to be invariant of the length scales (as long as the domain is not thin), and the characteristic length of the cellular structures in the y -direction is comparatively larger than in the x -direction.

179 behaviour is dominated by the streamwise dynamics, with solutions varying weakly in y , but
 180 maintaining the characteristic cellular behaviour in the x -direction associated with solutions to
 181 the 1D equation (1.1) – a streamwise slice of the solution profile is very similar to the typical
 182 profiles observed in the chaotic regime for the 1D equation. Supplementary Movie 1 presents the
 183 time evolution of solutions to (1.3) for these aspect ratios; the solution profiles at the final time are
 184 those shown in figure 2. For all profiles shown in figure 2, the characteristic length of the nonlinear
 185 cellular structures in the streamwise direction is about 10 units; this corresponds to the most
 186 active streamwise Fourier mode which has a wavenumber slightly smaller than the most linearly

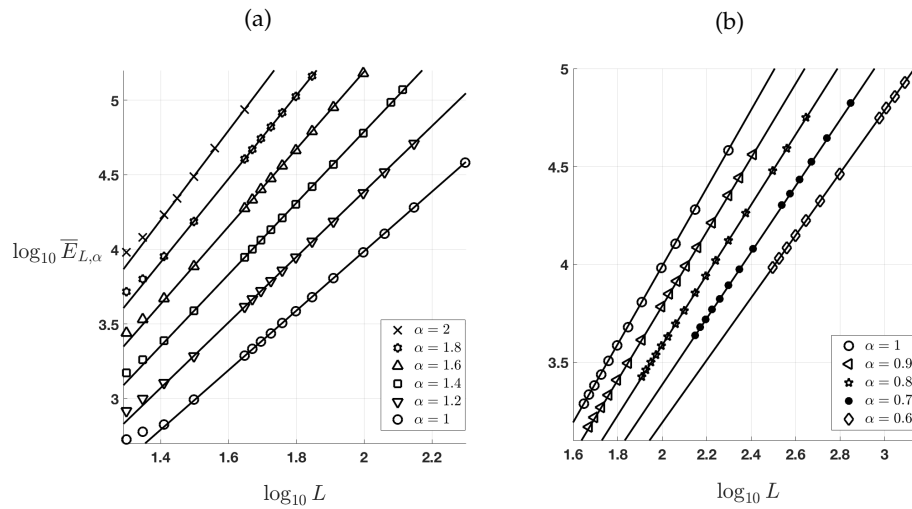


Figure 3: Plots of $\log_{10} \bar{E}_{L,\alpha}$ against $\log_{10} L$ for a range of α . Panel (a) shows the results for a range of aspect ratios with $1 \leq \alpha \leq 2$, and panel (b) considers $0.6 \leq \alpha \leq 1$. Best fit lines for each choice of α are also plotted – these are calculated using a least squares approximation with the last few data points in each case.

187 unstable streamwise mode, $\tilde{k}_1 = 1/\sqrt{2}$. This shift to larger scales induced by the nonlinearity was
 188 also noted for the 1D problem by Wittenberg and Holmes [60]. No transverse modes are active
 189 at large times since they are linearly damped and unaffected by the nonlinear term, however,
 190 structures form in the spanwise direction due to the mixed mode activity – these structures have
 191 length of approximately 30 space units. From a vast number of numerical experiments it appears
 192 that the characteristic cellular structures present in the profiles are independent of the aspect ratio
 193 and length parameters in the 2D chaotic regime. This is already evidence of extensive dynamics
 194 that are analogous to the 1D problem.

195 (a) Computational estimation of the radius of the absorbing ball

196 In what follows we present the results of extensive numerical experiments that were used to
 197 obtain an optimal numerical bound on the radius of the absorbing ball in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{per}}^2(Q)$; this generalizes
 198 the result (1.6) for square periodic domains ($\alpha = 1$) in [2]. To obtain the results that follow, α was
 199 fixed to take values in the interval $0.6 \leq \alpha \leq 2$, and L increased to cover a sufficiently large range
 200 of domains that support complex dynamics (recall that the rectangular domain has dimensions
 201 $L \times L^\alpha$). For a given α , computations were carried out and the time-averaged quantities $\bar{E}_{L,\alpha}$
 202 given by (2.8) were estimated for a range of values of L . We do not consider $\alpha \leq 0$ since the
 203 dynamics are 1D as noted earlier. The variation of $\log_{10} \bar{E}_{L,\alpha}$ against $\log_{10} L$ is shown in figure
 204 3. Panel (a) considers $\alpha \geq 1$, i.e. domains that are longer in the spanwise direction, and panel
 205 (b) corresponds to $\alpha \leq 1$, giving domains that are longer in the streamwise direction, with $\alpha = 1$
 206 providing a reference between the two panels. We observe that a regime of direct proportionality
 207 between $\log_{10} \bar{E}_{L,\alpha}$ and $\log_{10} L$ emerges for sufficiently large length scales. It is apparent from
 208 our computations that the regime of linear proportionality arises when the shortest side of the
 209 periodic domain is greater than approximately 30.

210 A quantification of the linear behaviour apparent in figure 3 was carried out using a least
 211 squares approximation to the slope of the different lines and their intercepts with the vertical
 212 axis. The slopes are found to be $\alpha + 1$ with an accuracy of 0.02 or less, and the vertical intercepts
 213 are all found to be zero, also with an accuracy of approximately 0.02. Hence, on sufficiently large

214 domains with $\alpha > 0$, we observe that

$$\log_{10} E_{L,\alpha} \approx (1 + \alpha) \log_{10} L, \quad (3.1)$$

215 which implies that $E_{L,\alpha} \approx L^{1+\alpha}$. Surprisingly, the unit constant of proportionality in this
 216 expression for $E_{L,\alpha}$ is not found in the case of the 1D problem (1.1) where it is approximately
 217 1.7. Recalling the definitions of L_1 and L_2 , and with the established proportionality of $E_{L,\alpha}$ with
 218 the quantity $\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|u\|_2^2$, we obtain our optimal bound,

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|u\|_2 \leq CL^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}} = CL_1^{1/2} L_2^{1/2}, \quad (3.2)$$

219 where C is a constant which is independent of the length parameters. This result is also valid for
 220 $\alpha \leq 0$ given the previous discussions on the dynamics in this regime. In fact, an even stronger
 221 result than (3.2) appears to hold; the numerical results provide evidence that the \mathcal{L}^∞ -norm (the
 222 supremum of $|u|$ over Q at a fixed time) of solutions in the chaotic regime is bounded above by a
 223 constant, in direct analogy with the numerical results for the 1D equation (1.1) – this can be seen
 224 in figure 2, where the solution amplitude appears to be independent of aspect ratio and length
 225 parameters. We find that the mean of the \mathcal{L}^∞ -norm across the time series between times T_1 and
 226 T_2 is approximately 2.4, with the maximum value often being as large as 3.5; this result appears
 227 to be independent of Q as long as the domain is sufficiently large. This computational evidence
 228 that u is bounded by an $O(1)$ constant (for example, 4 would suffice) over all choices of Q trivially
 229 implies (3.2).

230 (b) Equipartition of energy and analyticity of solutions

231 In the previous subsection we presented numerical evidence that predicts how the time-averaged
 232 energy of the system scales with the underlying lengths L_1 and L_2 for large domains supporting
 233 chaotic solutions. It is also particularly interesting to understand how this energy is spread
 234 among the Fourier modes. Recall that for the 1D KSE (1.1), it was observed that the energy
 235 was equipartitioned, i.e. spread equally, among the lower Fourier modes (see [60] for example).
 236 The energy distribution rises to a peak for the most active mode (this is slightly less than the
 237 most linearly unstable mode) and then decays exponentially after an inertial range where the
 238 power spectrum behaves like $|\tilde{k}|^{-4}$. Interestingly, the energy distribution for the symmetric 2D
 239 KSE (1.11) also exhibits an inertial range, where the power spectrum behaves like $|\tilde{k}|^{-6}$, and
 240 the exponent is also seen for the 1D form of (1.11) – this is natural given that (1.1) and the 1D
 241 form of (1.11) may be related through $u = v_x$. This power law behaviour has been attributed
 242 to the balance of the destabilising and dissipative linear terms for $O(1)$ wavenumbers [47]. By
 243 the Paley–Wiener–Schwartz theorem (see [25] for example), the exponential decay of the high
 244 frequency modes informs us of the spatial analyticity properties of solutions. For the 1D equation
 245 on an L -periodic domain, it is observed numerically that

$$|u_k| \sim e^{-\beta(L)|\tilde{k}|}, \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty, \quad (3.3)$$

246 where $\beta(L)$ converges to approximately 3.5 as $L \rightarrow \infty$ [12]. This implies that we may extend the
 247 solution u analytically about the real axis into the complex plane in a strip with $|\text{Im } x| < \beta(L)$. It
 248 is noted that $\beta(L)$ converges to 3.5 from above (meaning that solutions lose spatial analyticity as
 249 L increases), and the limit value can thus be surmised to be the optimal lower bound of the width
 250 of the analytic extension.

251 For completeness and to check the numerical work, we have recovered the above results
 252 for (1.3) in the special limit that our periodic domain is thin in the transverse dimension, and
 253 we again concentrate on numerical results for aspect ratios with $\alpha > 0$. The key quantity is the
 254 time-averaged power spectrum $S(\underline{k})$ of the solutions given by (2.9) which is approximated by
 255 $\bar{S}(\underline{k})$ with an average over a finite time interval $[T_1, T_2]$ as done for the energy in (2.8). Figure
 256 4 depicts the spectrum $\bar{S}(\underline{k})$ for domains of different aspect ratios but equal areas, $|Q| = 10^4$.
 257 The values of α used in figure 4 are 0.8, 1 and 1.4 for panels (a), (b) and (c), respectively, and

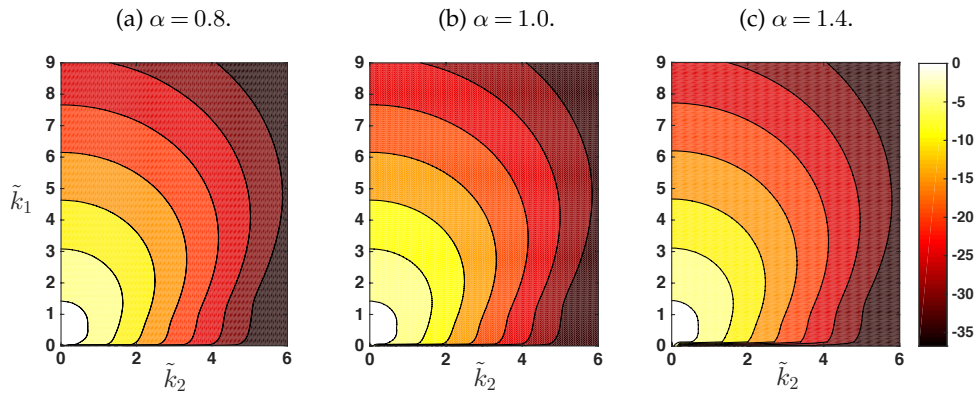


Figure 4: Contours of $\log_{10} \bar{S}(\tilde{k})$ for a selection of aspect ratios with $|Q| = 10^4$. The domain dimensions are: (a) $L = L_1 = 166.81$, $L_2 = 59.95$, (b) $L = L_1 = L_2 = 100$, and (c) $L = L_1 = 46.415$, $L_2 = 215.44$. Panels (a) and (c) take the same dimensions for Q as panels (a) and (c) of figure 2, respectively.

258 the corresponding values of L are $10^{20/9}$, 10^2 and $10^{5/3}$ (recall that $|Q| = L^{1+\alpha}$). The respective
 259 streamwise–spanwise aspect ratios are $10^{4/9} \approx 2.7826$, 1 and $10^{-2/3} \approx 0.2154$. The figure shows
 260 logarithmic (base 10) contour plots for the three cases in the positive wavenumber quadrant
 261 corresponding to $\tilde{k}_1, \tilde{k}_2 \geq 0$. There are a number of noteworthy features of the results for the three
 262 representative domains selected: firstly, the contours are essentially equally spaced along rays
 263 from $(0, 0)$ as the exponent decreases to negative values, indicating that there is exponential decay
 264 of the power spectrum as $|\tilde{k}_1|$ and $|\tilde{k}_2|$ increase. The smallest exponential decay rate is observed
 265 in the streamwise $(k_1, 0)$ -modes (the spacing between the contours is the largest in this direction).
 266 Secondly, the power spectrum remains $O(1)$ as \tilde{k}_1 and \tilde{k}_2 become small, in analogue with the
 267 1D equation (1.1). Lastly, and most noticeably from figure 4, the power spectra for all three cases
 268 appear to be almost identical, which suggests that in the chaotic regime the distribution of the
 269 energy amongst the Fourier modes is insensitive to the domain aspect ratio (assuming that the
 270 domain is not thin and mixed modes are active, as is the case for the choices of Q used to produce
 271 the figure). In figure 5, we zoom in on the low mode region of the power spectrum shown in
 272 figure 4(c); the other cases provide similar plots. The tongue of most active modes (depicted by
 273 the white region in the figure), is consistent with the characteristic length scales of the cellular
 274 structures of profiles shown in figure 2. The most active streamwise mode with wavenumber 0.6
 275 gives a length of approximately $2\pi/0.6 \approx 10$ space units. The longer length scale in the transverse
 276 direction is compatible with the observation that the tongue only extends to mixed modes with
 277 transverse wavenumbers around 0.3.

278 Figure 6 provides a better description of the behaviour of the low modes, plotting the power
 279 spectrum against the size of the scaled wavenumber vector, $|\tilde{k}|$. Panel (a) compares three different
 280 aspect ratios, with two sets of data for the square domain case – all simulations exhibit fully
 281 2D chaotic dynamics. The purely streamwise modes are interpolated with a cubic spline which
 282 appears to bound the data points; these modes carry the most energy, which is unsurprising
 283 given the anisotropy of figure 4, and the fact that they are the most linearly unstable modes
 284 for a given value of $|\tilde{k}|$. The equipartition of the energy is recovered for the streamwise modes
 285 – the interpolant plateaus for $|\tilde{k}_1| \lesssim 10^{-0.5}$. Furthermore, we see a peak in energy corresponding
 286 to the most active Fourier mode (as in the 1D case, this is slightly less than the most linearly
 287 unstable mode), and then the energy decays exponentially. Interestingly, the inertial range which
 288 is discernible for the 1D KSE is not seen in panel (a); we propose that the disappearance of the
 289 inertial range is due to the mixed mode activity when the transverse length is sufficiently large.

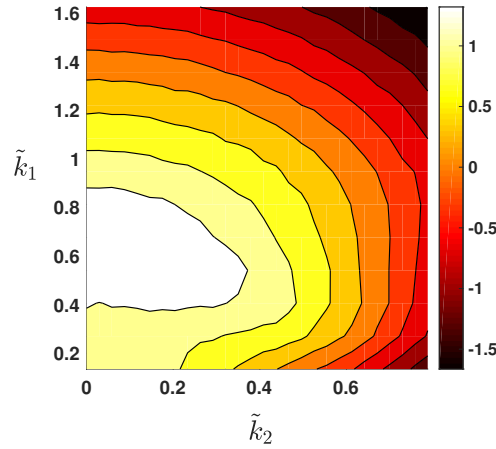


Figure 5: Contours of $\log_{10} \overline{S}(\underline{k})$ for $L = L_1 = 46.415$, $L_2 = 215.44$, $\alpha = 1.4$, $|Q| = 10^4$ (magnified view of figure 4(c)). For each k_1 , the maximum value of the surface (corresponding to the most active mode) is found for $k_2 = 0$, with the streamwise modes with wavenumbers around 0.6 being the most active of all. A large tongue of active mixed modes with transverse wavenumbers up to approximately 0.3 is visible.

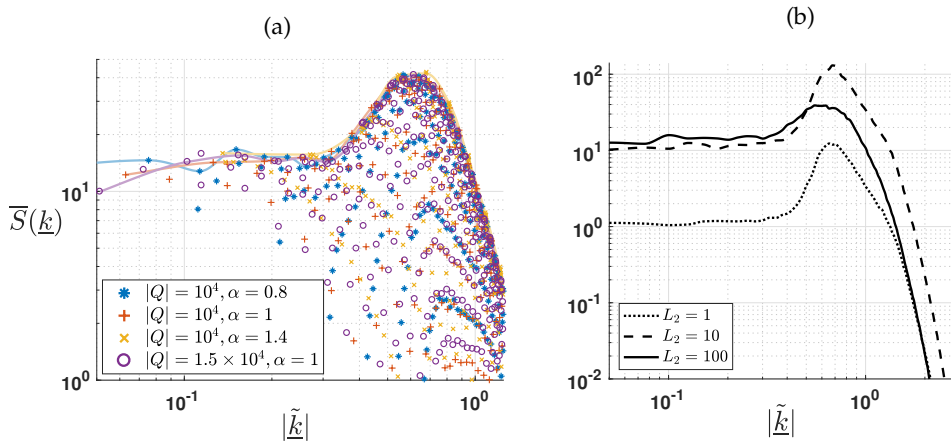


Figure 6: Equipartition of the energy. Panel (a) displays the time-averaged power spectra $\overline{S}(\underline{k})$ of four sets of solution data plotted against the size of the wavenumber vector $|\underline{k}|$ on log-log axes. For $|Q| = 10^4$ we have three sets of data for different aspect ratios: $\alpha = 0.8, 1$ and 1.4 . For $|Q| = 1.5 \times 10^4$ we have one set of data for $\alpha = 1$. The data points corresponding to the streamwise $(k_1, 0)$ -modes are interpolated with cubic splines. All data points are from the quadrant corresponding to $k_1, k_2 \geq 0$, the other quadrants give similar plots. Panel (b) compares the cubic spline interpolations of the streamwise mode spectrum for $L_1 = 250$ and for the three choices of $L_2 = 1, 10, 100$.

290 This is investigated in panel (b), where for a fixed value of $L_1 = 250$, we observe how increasing
 291 L_2 effects the interpolant through the streamwise mode data points. For $L_2 = 1, 10$, the mixed
 292 modes are not active in the solutions and the resulting dynamics are 1D – the solutions are just
 293 elongations of solutions to the 1D KSE (1.1) in the transverse direction. The dotted line in figure
 294 6(b) corresponding to $L_2 = 1$ matches the curve in [60] (for $L_2 = 1$, the definition of the power

Table 1: Estimates of decay rates of Fourier spectra.

L_1	L_2	α	$ Q $	β
250	1	0	250	3.54
250	10	0.417	2.5×10^3	3.55
46.415	215.44	1.4	10^4	3.79
100	100	1	10^4	3.80
166.81	59.95	0.8	10^4	3.80
122.474	122.474	1	1.5×10^4	3.81
250	100	0.834	2.5×10^4	3.81

spectrum (2.9) reduces to the definition for the 1D case), and the curve for $L_2 = 10$ is simply a factor of 10 greater. Increasing L_2 further, the spectrum begins to widen with increased activity in the mixed modes, and the streamwise component of the power spectrum tends towards the solid line shown in panel (b) for $L_2 = 100$. For this choice of L_2 , the mixed modes are fully active in solutions, although we omit the data points lying on and below the interpolant in figure 6(b) since they are shown in panel (a). Note also that no mixed modes are linearly unstable until approximately $L_2 = 40$, although activity is seen for much smaller L_2 due to the energy transfer from the nonlinear term; equivalently, the mixed modes are linearly unstable about 1D chaotic solutions for much smaller L_2 – this can be observed from a crude truncation of the set of ODEs for the Fourier modes (2.4). The inertial range (the linear behaviour for wavenumbers beyond the most active wavenumber) visible for $L_2 = 1, 10$, is no longer discernible for $L_2 = 100$, and the most active mode shifts even further towards the longer waves. This is consistent with the finding that the characteristic streamwise cell size of the profiles in figure 2 is larger than that found in simulations of the 1D equation, the respective values being 10 and 9 space units. Note that the equipartition observed in figure 6 is expected given its relation to the solution energy (2.10) which scales with $|Q|$ – there is a constant energy density of solutions in the large domain limit.

The effect of the mixed mode activity can be seen more drastically in the analyticity of solutions. In [27], the authors give the generalisation of the connection between the decay rate of the Fourier spectrum and the analyticity of solutions to the 2D case. Informally, the observation that

$$|u_{\vec{k}}| \sim e^{-\beta(L_1, L_2)|\vec{k}|}, \quad \text{as } |\vec{k}| \rightarrow \infty, \quad (3.4)$$

implies that the function u may be extended holomorphically into \mathbb{C}^2 in a ball of radius $\beta(L_1, L_2)$. They also provide the analytical estimate for the problem (1.3) with $\delta = 0$ and $\alpha = 1$ that

$$\beta(L, L) \geq \tilde{C}L^{-1/5}(\log L)^{-2/3}. \quad (3.5)$$

This estimate depends on the length scales, as does the analytical estimate for the 1D equation [12]. Since the streamwise modes yield the smallest exponential decay rate, an estimate for β may be computed numerically using a least squares approximation from the slope of $-\log |u_{(k_1, 0)}|$ when plotted against $|k_1|$. Table 1 shows the results obtained for a range of domain dimensions. The optimal numerical lower bound on the strip of analyticity for solutions of the 1D KSE (1.1) is independent of L as mentioned earlier, and we find the same result in the 2D case, contrasting the analytical result (3.5). We recover the convergence of $\beta(L_1, L_2)$ to approximately 3.5 for thin domains in the transverse dimension – the first two rows of table 1 take lengths L_1 and L_2 which result in no mixed mode activity, hence the dynamics are that of the 1D equation. We observe that increasing L_2 so that mixed modes are active in the chaotic solutions actually improves the radius of analyticity, as observed in rows 3 to 7 of the table. For large domains with solutions exhibiting fully 2D spatiotemporal chaos, we are able to estimate that solutions can be extended holomorphically into \mathbb{C}^2 in a ball of radius 3.8 approximately. Surprisingly, this decay rate appears for spectra just beyond the onset of fully 2D chaos and appears to remain

332 relatively constant for all of our simulations with mixed mode activity. The present computations
 333 are very well resolved and yield values of β different to those obtained in [2] for the case of $\alpha = 1$,
 334 where the analyticity of solutions is found to be less than that observed for the 1D equation.
 335 Indeed, we find an increase in β from the 1D value, something which would be expected given
 336 the additional dissipation. Obviously, this does not improve the optimal lower bound on the
 337 analytic extensibility of solutions in the attractor, but it tells us that increasing two-dimensionality
 338 improves analyticity of the solutions (we assume that this is due to the activity of the mixed modes
 339 promoting energy in the dissipative range to move away from the purely streamwise modes).

340 The 2D KSE (1.11) studied in [31] is symmetric, and the resulting power spectrum is thus
 341 a function of $|\tilde{k}|$. For this problem, the radius of the ball of analytic extension in \mathbb{C}^2 can be
 342 computed to be approximately 3.4. We note that the analyticity width for solutions to (1.3) is
 343 computed by considering the decay of the streamwise modes which are the most active, but due
 344 to the anisotropy of the spectrum, it is true that the solution may be extended further in different
 345 directions since the decay of the Fourier coefficients is asymmetric (for (1.3), the optimal analytic
 346 extension in \mathbb{C}^2 is not a ball). This is in contrast to the problem (1.11), but we do not investigate
 347 this further here.

348 It is important to consider the possibility of a regime of dynamics beyond the length scales
 349 studied in this paper as discussed for the 1D problem (1.1) in [60]. It has been observed
 350 through extensive numerics and analysis that the large wavelength fluctuations of the 1D form of
 351 (1.11) (v_x^2 nonlinearity), can be described effectively by the Kardar–Parisi–Zhang (KPZ) equation
 352 [54], and correspondingly, the derivative form (1.1) can be described by a stochastically forced
 353 Burgers equation [62]. The inclusion of the 1D KSE with the v_x^2 nonlinearity in the so-called
 354 KPZ universality class is known as Yakhot’s conjecture [61], which correctly predicts that the
 355 roughness exponent is $1/2$ – the roughness exponent characterises the scaling of the typical height
 356 fluctuations around the mean (of a saturated interface) with the length L , and is related to the \mathcal{L}^2 -
 357 norm of solutions. For the case of the v_x^2 nonlinearity, the interface width scales with $L^{1/2}$ and
 358 the \mathcal{L}^2 -norm behaves like L . This scaling is observed for relatively small system sizes, although
 359 the other two critical exponents¹ characterising the KPZ universality class are not observed until
 360 L is much larger when full crossover to the KPZ scaling occurs. It is also worth noting that this
 361 asymptotic description is consistent with the observed energy spectrum. With this knowledge of
 362 the dynamics for the 1D problem, we conjecture that the energy behaviour (3.2) will not exhibit a
 363 crossover to a different scaling for even larger periodic domains. We do not attempt to compute
 364 the growth and dynamic exponents in this study, nor do we believe that the domain lengths
 365 used here are large enough to estimate these successfully; a number of studies have attempted
 366 to calculate these exponents for similar KS-type problems, but do so by resorting to very crude
 367 numerical discretisations in order to compute at large system sizes for a large number of time
 368 units. We are not certain that the form of the spectra observed for solutions in which mixed modes
 369 are active (see figure 6) does not enter a different scaling regime which is computationally out of
 370 reach. In one of the less extreme cases used to compute the solution on a square domain with
 371 side $L = 100$, there are 386 linearly unstable modes in total. This requires a numerical truncation
 372 with at least $M = 400$, $N = 200$ (80000 Fourier modes) to obtain good accuracy (the spectrum is
 373 resolved to machine accuracy). Combining this with small time step requirements and large times
 374 of integration requires a large computing time.

375 4. Computations when dispersion is present

376 For the 1D KSE (1.1), it was observed in [3] that the strengthening of a physically derived
 377 third-order dispersion term can lead to a reverse period-doubling cascade. It is suggested
 378 that sufficiently large δ (i.e. a large amount of dispersion) can regularise chaotic dynamics

¹These are the growth and dynamic exponents which characterise the transient dynamics, i.e. before the solution orbit enters the chaotic attractor. These exponents are defined by how the surface roughness grows with time before saturation, and how the critical saturation time scales with the system length, respectively. Such exponents are not of current interest to us since we study large time properties of solutions.

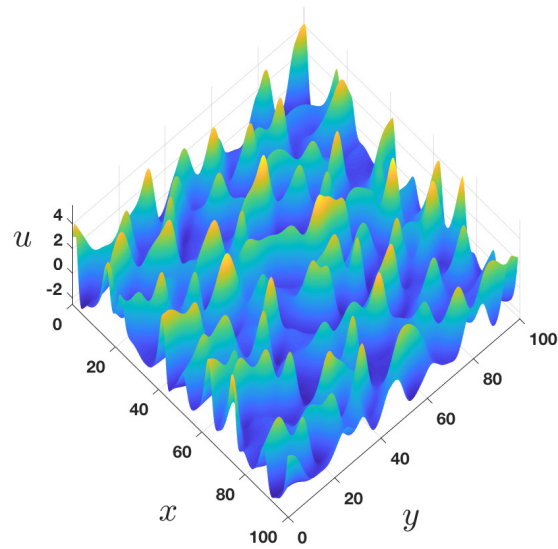


Figure 7: Profile of a numerical solutions to (1.3) with $\delta = 1$ in the chaotic regime at time $T_2 = 2 \times 10^4$. The dimensions of the periodic domain are $L = L_1 = L_2 = 100$, $\alpha = 1$, $|Q| = 10^4$. Different aspect ratios produce similar profile structures; this was observed in figure 2 for the dispersionless case, so we do not plot other choices of Q here.

379 for any system length L , as solutions are observed to be attracted to nonlinear travelling
 380 waves. Surprisingly, third-order dispersion acts as a destabilising mechanism for this equation,
 381 competing with the stabilising nonlinear term – it hinders the transfer of energy from low to high
 382 wavenumbers, and consequently analyticity of solutions reduces as δ is increased (see [32] for a
 383 discussion of this for the 1D case). Turning to the 2D problem, Toh et al. [57] and Indireskumar
 384 and Frenkel [26] observed pulse solutions of (1.3) for large values of dispersion on large periodic
 385 domains – the usual streamwise cellular structures are found to be unstable and give way to
 386 the 2D pulses. An example of such a multi-pulse solution is given in supplementary Movie 2
 387 where the $O(\delta)$ pulses are seen to form an arrow-head arrangement (the parameters taken are
 388 $L_1 = L_2 = 100$ and $\delta = 25$). The arrow-head of solitons is approximately time-periodic, with a
 389 period of about 10 time units; the pulses travel in the positive x -direction (streamwise) above
 390 a chaotic sea-state of waves travelling upstream. Chaotic fluctuations of $O(1)$ still exist in this
 391 case, but temporally periodic solutions are observed when δ is larger, where the $O(1)$ component
 392 of solutions are time-periodic interactions at the bases of the pulses (see figure 5 in [57]). We
 393 do not investigate the large δ limit here, nor questions concerning the regularisation of chaotic
 394 dynamics. We are concerned with weak dispersive effects which do not fully regularise the chaotic
 395 behaviour, and observe how this affects the absorbing ball estimate and equipartition in the
 396 previous section.

397 The addition of dispersion qualitatively changes the profiles of solutions observed in the
 398 chaotic regime when $\delta = 0$ (see figure 2), yet they remain dominated by the streamwise dynamics
 399 as long as δ is not too large. The profile of a numerical solution in the chaotic attractor for
 400 $\delta = 1$ is shown in figure 7 for a square periodic domain with $L = 100$. For $\delta = 1$, wave fronts
 401 are apparent, with higher peaks than the dispersionless case and flat trough regions in between.
 402 Streamwise slices of these profiles are similar to the solutions of 1D dispersive KS-type problems,
 403 for example the Benney–Lin equation (1.8) – the solutions observed are chaotic interactions of
 404 KdV pulses. These wave fronts cross and interact nonlinearly; this can be seen in supplementary
 405 Movie 3, where the evolution of a solution to (1.3) with $\delta = 1$ is shown, and the profile at the
 406 final time is the same as that in figure 7. Our numerical simulations agree with the conjecture that

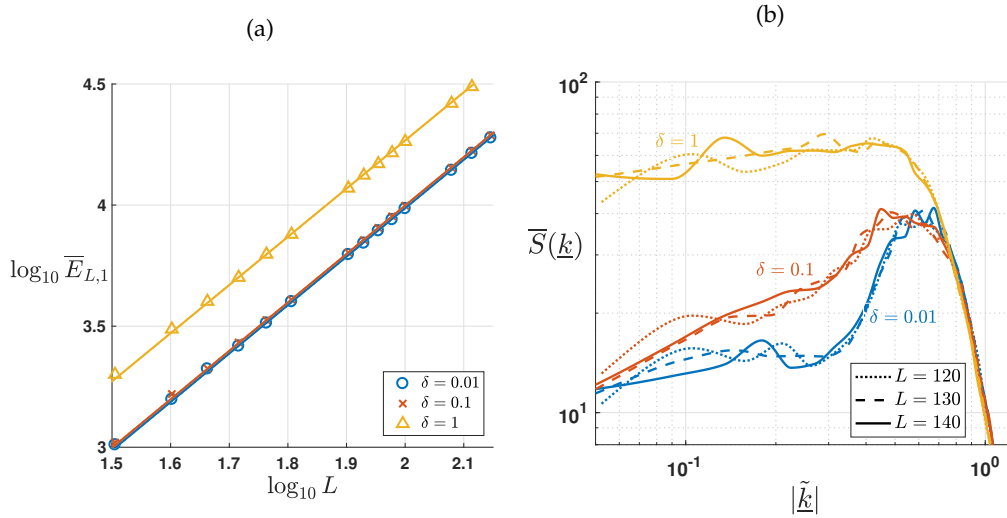


Figure 8: Energy behaviour for square domains ($\alpha = 1$) with $\delta = 0.01, 0.1, 1$. Panel (a) shows a plot of $\log_{10} \bar{E}_{L,1}$ against $\log_{10} L$ (with best fit lines included), and panel (b) compares the interpolants through the streamwise data points for the power spectra on a log–log axis – for each δ we show three sets of data with $L = 120, 130, 140$.

407 chaotic dynamics may be regularised with sufficiently strong dispersion. We also note the path
 408 along which the regularisation appears to occur as δ is increased: from the streamwise-dominated
 409 dynamics observed in the absence of dispersion, the cellular structures in the transverse direction
 410 begin to become more peaked in places forming wavefronts perpendicular to the streamwise
 411 direction. These fronts break up yielding pulse structures (for a square domain of side 100,
 412 this occurs around $\delta = 5$). Then, the arrangements of these 2D solitons are regularised fully to
 413 travelling waves for much larger δ .

414 In the dispersionless case, recall we observed that $E_{L,\alpha} \approx L^{1+\alpha}$. To extend this result to the
 415 case of non-zero dispersion, we performed numerical simulations for $\alpha = 0.8, 1$, and 1.4 , taking
 416 $\delta = 0.01, 0.1$ and 1 . We obtained the same result as shown in figure 3, with a modification in
 417 the intercept of the straight lines with the vertical axis; this corresponds to the introduction of
 418 a constant $\tilde{C}(\delta)$ such that $E_{L,\alpha} \approx \tilde{C}(\delta)L^{1+\alpha}$. The case of $\alpha = 1$ with $\delta = 0.01, 0.1, 1$ is shown in
 419 figure 8(a), and it is clear in this case, as in the other cases, that $\tilde{C}(\delta)$ increases monotonically in
 420 δ (the line for $\delta = 0$ is not included in figure 8(a) since it is unmistakable from the $\delta = 0.01$ line
 421 at this scale). From our computations, we find roughly that $\tilde{C}(\delta)$ increases from 1 for $\delta \sim o(1)$ to
 422 $\tilde{C}(1) \approx 2$. As before, this result yields the optimal numerical bound

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|u\|_2 \leq C(\delta)L_1^{1/2}L_2^{1/2}. \quad (4.1)$$

423 We also observe that the \mathcal{L}^∞ -norm appears to be uniformly bounded as in the dispersionless
 424 case, and this bound increases with δ ; the chaotic profiles for larger values of dispersion have
 425 larger amplitude solutions, and the dynamics appears to consist of the creation, interaction and
 426 annihilation of many 2D pulses. This scaling of the \mathcal{L}^∞ -norm with δ becomes linear in the large
 427 dispersion regime where the solution converges to travelling wave solutions of the ZKE (1.10),
 428 scaled by δ . Panel (b) of figure 8 shows how the increase of δ affects the energy distribution among
 429 the Fourier modes. The plot uses data from numerical simulations with $\delta = 0.01, 0.1$, and 1 , for
 430 square domains of sides $L = 120, 130, 140$, and shows the interpolants of the streamwise data
 431 points (these are found to be the most active modes as in the $\delta = 0$ case). Increasing δ results
 432 in a larger value of the small wavenumber asymptote and an increase in the energy in the low

433 modes – this is consistent with the fact that $C(\delta)$ is an increasing function of its argument. The
 434 interpolant of the data points for $\delta = 0.01$ is almost identical to the dispersionless case shown in
 435 figure 6(a), thus we do not plot the latter for comparison. For the moderate value of $\delta = 0.1$, the
 436 energy equipartition is skewed, as the active mode hump widens towards the low wavenumbers.
 437 The hump of active modes appears to cover the entire low wavenumber range for $\delta = 1$, and thus
 438 we recover the equipartition of energy among the low modes. For larger values of δ (for example
 439 $\delta = 25$ as in supplementary Movie 2), we recover the peaks in the spectrum as observed for the
 440 1D problem by Gotoda et al. [23], however the mixed modes are much more active – further
 441 investigation of the dynamics of moderate to large δ is warranted.

442 In analogue with the 1D case, we see that the addition of dispersion decreases the radius of
 443 analyticity of solutions; for example, in the case of $\delta = 1$ and a domain which yields fully 2D
 444 solutions, it is observed that the Fourier coefficients decay as (3.4) with $\beta \approx 3.5$. As before, we find
 445 that the optimal numerical lower bound on the strip of analyticity occurs for thin domains (the
 446 smoothening of solutions due to two-dimensionality is independent of δ), and the corresponding
 447 1D results are investigated in [3].

448 5. Conclusions

449 In this work, we have studied the dynamics of a physically derived dispersive KSE (1.3) in
 450 two spatial dimensions exhibiting extensive behaviour. Without dispersion, we observed that
 451 for sufficiently large domains, the system enters a regime of full spatiotemporal chaos, which is
 452 dominated by the streamwise dynamics (see supplementary Movie 1). Furthermore, the system
 453 possesses a constant energy density since the \mathcal{L}^2 -norm of solutions scales with $|Q|^{1/2} = L_1^{1/2} L_2^{1/2}$.
 454 In keeping with this, we find that the energy distribution of the low modes converges to a constant
 455 surface as L_1 and L_2 become large (see figure 4) and the \mathcal{L}^∞ -norm of solutions is bounded
 456 independently of Q . These features are seen for the 1D KSE (1.1); however, the anisotropic KSE
 457 (1.3) of interest in this paper does not present an inertial range in the simulations we have
 458 performed with mixed mode activity. In addition to this, we saw that the increase in two-
 459 dimensionality of solutions, through increasing the transverse length L_2 until mixed modes
 460 become active, results in increased spatial analyticity. The optimal lower bound on the strip of
 461 analyticity is found when the domain is thin in the transverse direction, where the dynamics are
 462 governed by the 1D equation (1.1).

463 The addition of strong dispersion results in regularisation of the spatiotemporal chaos, but
 464 moderate values of δ (dispersion parameter) change the nature of the chaotic dynamics, with
 465 interacting wavefronts that resemble KdV-type pulses emerging (see supplementary Movie 3).
 466 The energy density is an increasing function of δ , and the constant \mathcal{L}^∞ -norm bound on the
 467 solutions also increases with dispersion. As observed in 1D, dispersion has a destabilising effect
 468 on the dynamics, as can be seen in a loss of spatial analyticity of solutions. Preliminary numerical
 469 runs indicate that (4.1) is valid in the large dispersion regime where the chaotic dynamics are
 470 regularised – the value of δ fixes the pulse height, and the number of pulses scales with the size
 471 of the periodic rectangular domain. Much larger values of dispersion require smaller time steps
 472 for good accuracy, and a comprehensive study of the moderate to large δ regime for very large
 473 domains is numerically challenging.

474 It appears that finite energy density, corresponding to systems exhibiting equipartition, is a
 475 hallmark of the dynamics of KS-type systems with a uu_x nonlinearity. This property has been
 476 shown for multi-dimensional equations even with the addition of dispersion and variation in
 477 the linear and nonlinear terms. A non-local KSE in 2D was derived by Tomlin et al. [58] for
 478 the problem of a gravity-driven thin liquid film under the action of a normal electric field.
 479 Preliminary results appear to indicate a finite energy density for this problem also. Current work
 480 by the authors is the investigation of the extent of the class of PDE with quadratic nonlinearities
 481 exhibiting a finite energy density (corresponding to a roughness exponent of 0) by considering

482 non-local variants of (1.1). Correspondingly, there is the related problem of finding the extent of
 483 the KPZ universality class by considering equations with the v_x^2 nonlinearity.

484 **Data Accessibility.** An executable file, datafile and MATLAB script required to run and analyse numerical
 485 simulations of (1.3) are available at:

486 <https://github.com/RubenJTomlin/Anisotropic-dispersive-2D-Kuramoto-Sivashinsky-Equation>.

487 **Authors' Contributions.** All authors contributed equally to this work.

488 **Competing Interests.** There are no competing interests.

489 **Funding.** The work of D.T.P. was supported by EPSRC grants EP/L020564/1 and EP/K041134/1.

490 **Acknowledgements.** R.J.T. acknowledges the support of a PhD scholarship from EPSRC and A.K.
 491 acknowledges funding by the Leverhulme Trust through an Early Career Fellowship.

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