

ASYMPTOTICS

**1. Introduction.**

Asymptotics studies the behavior of a function at/near a given point. The simplest asymptotics is the Taylor expansion:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \dots \tag{1}$$

Of course, when  $f(x)$  can be easily evaluated, for example when  $f$  is explicitly given by a simple formula, there is no practical reason to do asymptotics. Therefore, in practice, asymptotics is often performed in the following situations:

1.  $f$  is given semi-explicitly by an integral;
2.  $f$  is given implicitly by a differential equation.

In many cases, the point  $x_0$  is either 0 or  $\infty$ .

**Example 1. (Viscous Burgers equation)** Consider the Burgers equation with viscosity

$$u_t^\varepsilon + u^\varepsilon u_x^\varepsilon - \varepsilon u_{xx}^\varepsilon = 0, \quad u^\varepsilon(x, 0) = g(x). \tag{2}$$

The solution can be semi-explicitly given as an integral

$$u^\varepsilon(x, t) = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x-y}{t} e^{-\frac{K(x,y,t)}{2\varepsilon}} dy}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{K(x,y,t)}{2\varepsilon}} dy} \tag{3}$$

where

$$K(x, y, t) := \frac{|x - y|^2}{2t} + h(y) \tag{4}$$

where  $h$  is the antiderivative of  $g$ .

The parameter  $\varepsilon$  is viscosity, and in realistic situations is very small. Thus one is tempted to neglect it and study the Burgers equation

$$u_t + u u_x = 0. \tag{5}$$

To justify this, we need to study the behavior of  $u^\varepsilon$  as  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$ .

**Example 2. (Oscillatory Integrals)** Such integrals usually appear in the process of solving wave-related equations using transform methods. For example, when we try to solve the wave equation in a cylinder, the solution can be represented by Bessel functions. Such functions are either given by infinite sums or by integrals. For example, we have

$$J_n(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi \cos(nt - x \sin t) dt \tag{6}$$

which can be written as

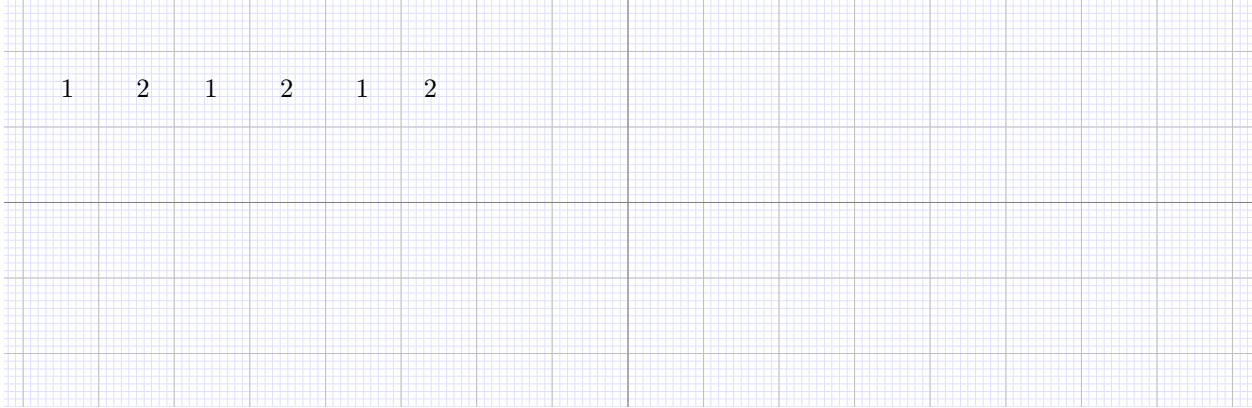
$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{\pm} \int_0^\pi e^{\pm int} e^{\mp i x \sin t} dt. \tag{7}$$

Suppose we want to understand the behavior of  $J_n(x)$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . Setting  $\varepsilon = 1/x$ , we are left with an integral of the form

$$\int_a^b f(y) e^{i \frac{\phi(y)}{\varepsilon}} dy. \tag{8}$$

And our task is to understand its behavior as  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$ .

**Example 3. (Homogenization)** Homogenization is a mathematical theory dealing with problems with multiple spatial scales. Consider a domain filled with two different materials. And let's say they form a "checker board" formation,



and now we would like to study the conductivity of the material. The equation is

$$\nabla \cdot (A(x) \nabla u) = 0 \tag{9}$$

where  $A(x) = a_1(x) I$  for material 1 and  $a_2(x) I$  for material 2. One way to do this is to solve the equation. However, when the grid size  $\varepsilon$  is very small, this approach is not efficient or even not practical. Therefore we need to find out what the equation the limit potential satisfies.

## 2. Evaluation of integrals.

### 2.1. Laplace's method.

Laplace's method deals with integrals of the form

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} l(y) e^{-\frac{k(y)}{\varepsilon}} dy \tag{10}$$

where  $k, l$  are continuous functions.

We try to understand the limiting behavior as  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$ . Now if we assume  $k(y)$  has a single minimizer, say at  $y_0$ , then clearly  $e^{-\frac{k(y)}{\varepsilon}}$  reaches its maximum at  $y_0$ . Furthermore, as  $\varepsilon$  gets smaller, the “peak” at  $y_0$  gets steeper. As a consequence, the integral in a neighborhood of  $y_0$  dominates. Thus we expect, when  $\varepsilon$  is small,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} l(y) e^{-\frac{k(y)}{\varepsilon}} dy \sim l(y_0) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{k(y)}{\varepsilon}} dy. \tag{11}$$

**Lemma 4.** *Suppose  $k, l: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  are continuous functions, satisfying certain growth conditions at infinity— which will be clear in the proof. Assume also there exists a unique point  $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that*

$$k(y_0) = \min_{y \in \mathbb{R}} k(y) \tag{12}$$

Then

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} l(y) e^{-\frac{k(y)}{\varepsilon}} dy}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{k(y)}{\varepsilon}} dy} = l(y_0). \tag{13}$$

**Remark 5.** Note that the above makes sense even if  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{k(y)}{\varepsilon}} \rightarrow \infty$ , for example when  $k(y_0) < 0$ .

**Proof.** First notice that, Wlog<sup>1</sup> we can assume  $y_0 = 0$ . Next by replacing  $k(y)$  by  $k(y) - k(y_0)$ , we can assume  $k(0) = 0$ .

Let

$$\mu_{\varepsilon}(x) := \frac{e^{-\frac{k(x)}{\varepsilon}}}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{k(z)}{\varepsilon}} dz} \tag{14}$$

---

1. Without loss of generality.

Then all we need to show is that

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mu_{\varepsilon}(y) l(y) dy = l(y_0). \quad (15)$$

Note that,

$$\mu_{\varepsilon} \geq 0, \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mu_{\varepsilon}(y) dy = 1. \quad (16)$$

Thus it suffices to show

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (l(y) - l(0)) \mu_{\varepsilon}(y) dy = 0. \quad (17)$$

For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we find  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|l(y) - l(0)| < \varepsilon \quad (18)$$

when  $|y - y_0| < \delta$ . Now write

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (l(y) - l(0)) \mu_{\varepsilon}(y) dy = \int_{|y| < \delta} + \int_{|y| > \delta} \quad (19)$$

The first term is clearly bounded by  $\varepsilon$ .

Now we study the second term. First we show that  $\mu_{\varepsilon}(y) \rightarrow 0$  uniformly as  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$  for all  $|y| > \delta$ . To see this, let

$$b := \min_{|y| > 0} k(y) > 0. \quad (20)$$

That  $b > 0$  is because 0 is the only minimizer and  $k(y) \nearrow \infty$  as  $|y| \rightarrow \infty$ . Now as  $k(0) = 0$ , there is  $\delta' > 0$  such that

$$k(y) < b/2 \quad (21)$$

for all  $|y| < \delta'$ . Note that  $\delta'$  is independent of  $\varepsilon$ .

It follows from the above that, for all  $|y| > \delta$ ,

$$\mu_{\varepsilon}(y) \leq \frac{e^{-b/\varepsilon}}{\int_{|z| < \delta'} e^{-b/2\varepsilon}} = \frac{e^{-b/2\varepsilon}}{2\delta'} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \varepsilon \searrow 0. \quad (22)$$

Therefore  $\mu_{\varepsilon}(y) \rightarrow 0$  uniformly for  $|y| > \delta$ .

From the above analysis we know that

$$\int_{\delta < |y| < R} (l(y) - l(0)) \mu_{\varepsilon}(y) dy \rightarrow 0 \quad (23)$$

for all  $R > \delta$ , and the proof ends as soon as we have some control at  $\infty$ .

We again study

$$\mu_{\varepsilon}(y) = \frac{e^{-k(y)/\varepsilon}}{\int e^{-k(z)/\varepsilon}}. \quad (24)$$

This time for  $|y| > R$  where  $R$  can be taken arbitrarily large on condition that it is independent of  $\varepsilon$ . First notice that the denominator satisfies

$$\int e^{-k(z)/\varepsilon} \geq A e^{-B/\varepsilon} \quad (25)$$

for some constants  $A, B > 0$ . To see this, just pick an interval  $[-A, A]$  and let  $B = \max k(z)$  in that interval. Note that by taking  $k$  to grow fast outside this interval, we see that this estimate is actually sharp (meaning: for general  $k$  we cannot get better lower bound – the best we can do is find different  $A, B$ ). Thus we need to study

$$A^{-1} \int_{|y| > R} (l(y) - l(0)) e^{-(k(y) - B)/\varepsilon} dy. \quad (26)$$

Now assume  $l$  and  $k$  grows as certain powers of  $y$  at infinity. Say  $|l(y) - l(0)| \leq C y^a$ ,  $k(y) - B \geq C' y^b$ . We find out conditions on  $a, b$  that guarantee

$$\int_{|y| > R} y^a e^{-y^b/\varepsilon} dy \longrightarrow 0. \quad (27)$$

Let  $z = y/\varepsilon^{1/b}$ . Then the above integral becomes

$$\int_{|z| > R/\varepsilon^{1/b}} \varepsilon^{a/b} z^a e^{-z^b} \varepsilon^{1/b} dz \quad (28)$$

we see that for any  $a \geq 0$ ,  $b > 0$  the integral goes to 0.

Thus as soon as  $k(y) \sim y^b$  at infinity for any  $b > 0$ , we have

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} l(y) e^{-\frac{k(y)}{\varepsilon}} dy}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{k(y)}{\varepsilon}} dy} = l(y_0). \quad (29)$$

for any continuous  $l$  with polynomial growth at infinity. □

## 2.2. The method of stationary phase.

Now we study the behavior of the integral

$$\int_a^b e^{i\frac{\phi(y)}{\varepsilon}} f(y) dy \quad (30)$$

as  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$ .

The idea is as follows. Fix at point  $y_0$ , we expand  $\phi(y)$  by Taylor expansion.

$$\phi(y) \sim \phi(y_0) + \phi'(y_0)(y - y_0) + \frac{\phi''(y_0)}{2}(y - y_0)^2 + \dots \quad (31)$$

Thus the contribution of the integral around  $y_0$  is

$$\int_{y_0-\delta}^{y_0+\delta} e^{i\frac{\phi_0}{\varepsilon}} e^{i\frac{\phi_0}{\varepsilon}} e^{i\frac{\phi''(y_0)}{2\varepsilon}(y-y_0)^2} \dots f(y) dy. \quad (32)$$

Recall the Riemann-Lebesgue lemma:

$$\int_a^b e^{iky} f(y) dy \longrightarrow 0 \quad (33)$$

as  $k \nearrow \infty$ , we see that those points with  $\phi'(y_0) \neq 0$  does not contribute as  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$ .

Now consider those points with  $\phi'(y_0) = 0$ . Then around such  $y_0$  we have, to the highest order,

$$e^{i\frac{\phi(y_0)}{\varepsilon}} \int_{y_0-\delta}^{y_0+\delta} e^{i\frac{\phi''(y_0)}{2\varepsilon}(y-y_0)^2} f(y) dy. \quad (34)$$

Now do a change of variable

$$z = \sqrt{|\phi''(y_0)/2\varepsilon|} (y - y_0) \quad (35)$$

we reach (using the fact that  $f(y) \sim f(y_0)$  in this neighborhood)

$$e^{i\frac{\phi(y_0)}{\varepsilon}} f(y_0) \sqrt{\frac{2\varepsilon}{|\phi''(y_0)|}} \int_{-\sqrt{|\phi''(y_0)|/\varepsilon}\delta}^{\sqrt{|\phi''(y_0)|/\varepsilon}\delta} e^{i\text{sgn}(\phi'')z^2} dz. \quad (36)$$

When  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$ , the above integral tends to

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\text{sgn}(\phi'')z^2} dz = \sqrt{\pi} e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}\text{sgn}(\phi'')}. \quad (37)$$

As a consequence, we have

$$\int_a^b e^{i\frac{\phi(y)}{\varepsilon}} f(y) dy \sim \sum_{\phi'(y_i)=0} f(y_i) e^{i\frac{\phi(y_i)}{\varepsilon}} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi\varepsilon}{|\phi''(y_0)|}} e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}\text{sgn}(\phi'')}. \quad (38)$$

Now we give a rigorous treatment based on the above understanding.

**Lemma 6.** *Let  $y_0$  be such that  $\phi'(y_0) \neq 0$ , then there is  $\delta > 0$  such that*

$$\int_{y_0 - \varepsilon^{1/2}}^{y_0 + \varepsilon^{1/2}} e^{i\phi(y)/\varepsilon} f(y) dy = O(\varepsilon) \text{ as } \varepsilon \searrow 0. \quad (39)$$

**Proof.** Do a change of variable  $z = \phi(y)$ . Then the integral becomes

$$\int_{z_1}^{z_2} e^{iz/\varepsilon} F(z) (\phi'(y))^{-1} dz. \quad (40)$$

Now notice that,

- $|z_2 - z_1| = O(\varepsilon^{1/2})$ ;
- $F(z) - F(z_1) = O(\varepsilon^{1/2})$ ;
- $\phi'(y)^{-1} - \phi'(y_0) = O(\varepsilon^{1/2})$ ;
- $\int e^{iz/\varepsilon} dz = O(\varepsilon)$ .

Thus we have

$$\int_{z_1}^{z_2} e^{iz/\varepsilon} F(z) (\phi'(y))^{-1} dz = \int_{z_1}^{z_1 + O(\varepsilon^{1/2})} e^{iz/\varepsilon} \left( F(z_1) \phi'(y_0)^{-1} + O(\varepsilon^{1/2}) \right) dz = O(\varepsilon) \quad (41)$$

and the proof ends.  $\square$

From this we see that, if  $\phi' \neq 0$  over  $[a, b]$ , then

$$\int_a^b e^{i\phi(y)/\varepsilon} f(y) dy = O(\varepsilon^{1/2}) \longrightarrow 0. \quad (42)$$

Similarly we can prove

**Lemma 7.** *Let  $y_0$  be such that  $\phi'(y_0) = 0$ ,  $\phi''(y_0) \neq 0$ . Then*

$$\int_{y_0 - \varepsilon^{1/2}}^{y_0 + \varepsilon^{1/2}} e^{i\phi(y)/\varepsilon} f(y) dy = f(y_0) e^{i\frac{\phi(y_0)}{\varepsilon}} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi\varepsilon}{|\phi''(y_0)|}} e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}\text{sgn}(\phi''(y_0))} + O(\varepsilon^{1/2}). \quad (43)$$

Now it is clear that we have

$$\int_a^b e^{i\frac{\phi(y)}{\varepsilon}} f(y) dy = \sum_{\phi'(y_i)=0} f(y_i) e^{i\frac{\phi(y_i)}{\varepsilon}} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi\varepsilon}{|\phi''(y_i)|}} e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}\text{sgn}(\phi''(y_i))} + O(\varepsilon^{1/2}). \quad (44)$$

For multi-dimensional generalization, see Evans pp.210–217.

### 3. Homogenization.

We discuss the following 1D model problem to get some idea of the homogenization procedure. Consider the 1D problem

$$\left( a\left(\frac{x}{\varepsilon}\right) u' \right)' = 0, \quad u(0) = 0, \quad u(1) = 1. \quad (45)$$

Here  $a(y)$  is assumed to be periodical. The basic approach is to treat  $y = \frac{x}{\varepsilon}$  as an independent variable, thus the original derivative becomes

$$\cdot' = \partial_x + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \partial_y. \quad (46)$$

assume

$$u = u_0\left(x, \frac{x}{\varepsilon}\right) + \varepsilon u_1\left(x, \frac{x}{\varepsilon}\right) + \varepsilon^2 u_2 + \dots \quad (47)$$

where each  $u_i(x, y)$  is periodic in the variable  $y$ .

Substituting this into the equation, we have

$$(a(y)(u_0 + \varepsilon u_1 + \dots)')' = 0 \quad (48)$$

Using the new variables  $x, y$  we reach

$$(\partial_x + \varepsilon^{-1}\partial_y)\{a(y)[\varepsilon^{-1}\partial_y u_0 + (\partial_x u_0 + \partial_y u_1) + \varepsilon(\partial_x u_1 + \partial_y u_2) + \dots]\} = 0. \quad (49)$$

Expanding, we have

$$\varepsilon^{-2}\partial_y(a\partial_y u_0) + \varepsilon^{-1}[\partial_x(a\partial_y u_0) + \partial_y(a(\partial_x u_0 + \partial_y u_1))] + \partial_x(a(\partial_x u_0 + \partial_y u_1)) + \partial_y(a(\partial_x u_1 + \partial_y u_2)) + \dots = 0. \quad (50)$$

Now if our expansion of  $u$  is correct, all of  $u_1, u_2, \dots$  should remain bounded as  $\varepsilon \searrow 0$ . Thus necessarily the quantities at each scale should be 0.

At  $O(\varepsilon^{-2})$ , we have

$$\partial_y(a(y)\partial_y u_0(x, y)) = 0 \quad (51)$$

with periodic boundary condition. This implies  $u_0(x, y)$ , for any fixed  $x$ , is a constant. In other words we have

$$u_0(x, y) = u_0(x). \quad (52)$$

Now move on to the next scale  $O(\varepsilon^{-1})$ . We have

$$\partial_x(a(y)\partial_y u_0) + \partial_y(a(y)(\partial_x u_0 + \partial_y u_1)) = 0. \quad (53)$$

As  $\partial_y u_0 = 0$  we have

$$\partial_y(a\partial_y u_1) = -(\partial_y a)(\partial_x u_0). \quad (54)$$

If we set  $\chi = \chi(y)$  be such that

$$\partial_y(a\partial_y \chi) = -\partial_y a, \quad (55)$$

then

$$u_1 = \chi(y)\partial_x u_0 + \tilde{u}_1(x). \quad (56)$$

Next consider scale  $O(1)$ . We have

$$\partial_x(a\partial_x u_0) + \partial_x(a\partial_y u_1) + \partial_y(a\partial_x u_1) + \partial_y(a\partial_y u_2) = 0. \quad (57)$$

Integrate from 0 to 1 in  $y$ , we obtain

$$\partial_x\left(\int_0^1 a\partial_x u_0\right) + \partial_x\left(\int_0^1 a\partial_y u_1 dy\right) = 0. \quad (58)$$

Recall

$$u_1 = \chi(y)\partial_x u_0 + \tilde{u}_1(x). \quad (59)$$

we have

$$\partial_x\left[\left(\int_0^1 a(y)(1 + \chi'(y)) dy\right)\partial_x u_0\right] = 0. \quad (60)$$

This is the equation  $u_0$  satisfies.

In our case (1D), the situation can be further simplified. As

$$(a\chi')' = -a', \quad (61)$$

we have

$$(a(1 + \chi')) = A. \quad (62)$$

To find out this constant, we divide both sides by  $a$ , and integrate over  $(0, 1)$ :

$$1 = \int_0^1 1 + \chi' = A \int_0^1 \frac{1}{a} dy. \quad (63)$$

Thus

$$A = \left( \int_0^1 \frac{1}{a(y)} dy \right)^{-1}. \quad (64)$$

As a consequence, the equation satisfied by  $u_0$  is

$$\left( \int_0^1 \frac{1}{a(y)} dy \right)^{-1} u_0'' = 0. \quad (65)$$

**References.**

- For evaluation of integrals, see e.g. Norman Bleistein, Richard A. Handelsman “Asymptotic Expansions of Integrals”, Dover, 1986.
- For asymptotics of differential equations as well as homogenization, see e.g. M. H. Holmes “Introduction to Perturbation Methods”, Springer-Verlag, 1994.