# SPIKED TRAVELING WAVES AND ILL-POSEDNESS FOR THE CAMASSA-HOLM EQUATION ON THE CIRCLE 

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#### Abstract

We will show that the Camassa-Holm equation possesses periodic traveling wave solutions with spikes, i.e., peaks where the first derivative is unbounded. Moreover, we will show that such a solution can be chosen to be $\rho$-periodic for arbitrarily small $\rho>0$.

This family of solutions (parametrized by $\rho$ ) has the important property that, for $q \in[1,3),\left\|u_{0}^{\prime}\right\|_{L^{q}(\mathbb{T})}$ is uniformly bounded above and below, where $u_{0}$ is the initial data. Using this property with $q=2$ we are able to prove that the corresponding Cauchy problem is not locally wellposed in the Sobolev space $H^{1}(\mathbb{T})$. Similarly, we will show ill-posedness in the corresponding $L^{q}$ Sobolev space, $W^{1, q}(\mathbb{T})$, for any $q \in[1,3)$.


## 1. Introduction

In this paper, we consider the following partial differential equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial_{t} u-\partial_{t} \partial_{x}^{2} u+\frac{3}{2} \partial_{x}\left(u^{2}\right)-\frac{1}{2} \partial_{x}^{3}\left(u^{2}\right)+\frac{1}{2} \partial_{x}\left(\left(\partial_{x} u\right)^{2}\right)=0, \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is formally equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial_{t} u-\partial_{x}^{2} \partial_{t} u+3 u \partial_{x} u-2 \partial_{x} u \partial_{x}^{2} u-u \partial_{x}^{3} u=0 . \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This equation, which now is generally called the Camassa-Holm equation $(\mathrm{CH})$, was derived in different ways by and Fokas and Fuchssteiner [4] and by Camassa and Holm [1].

We will also study the corresponding periodic initial value problem, namely

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\partial_{t} u-\partial_{t} \partial_{x}^{2} u+\frac{3}{2} \partial_{x}\left(u^{2}\right)-\frac{1}{2} \partial_{x}^{3}\left(u^{2}\right)+\frac{1}{2} \partial_{x}\left(\left(\partial_{x} u\right)^{2}\right)=0,  \tag{1.3}\\
u(x, 0)=u_{0}(x),
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in \mathbb{T}$.
We will say that an initial value problem is locally well-posed in a Banach space $E$ if for every $r>0$ there exists $T>0$ such that

[^0](i) for each $u_{0}=u_{0}(x) \in B(0, r) \doteq\left\{\varphi \in E \mid\|\varphi\|_{E} \leq r\right\}$ there exists a unique solution $u=u(x, t) \in C([-T, T]: E)$ of the initial value problem;
(ii) the map from $B(0, r)$ into $C([-T, T]: E)$ given by $u_{0} \mapsto u$ is uniformly continuous.
The definition implies, in particular, that for each $t \in[-T, T], u_{0} \mapsto u(t)$ is a uniformly continuous map from $B(0, r)$ into $E$, where $u(t)$ is understood to mean $u(-, t)$.

Remarks. (1) One can also think of $u_{0} \mapsto u$ as a map from $E$ into $\bigcup_{T>0} C([-T, T]: E)$.
(2) Another common definition of well-posedness requires only continuous dependence on the initial data, not uniformly continuous dependence.

Constantin and Escher proved in [2] that (1.3) is locally well-posed in the Sobolev space $H^{3}$. More recently, it has been shown (see [7] and [13]) that (1.3) is locally well-posed in the Sobolev space $H^{s}$ for every $s>3 / 2$. (Throughout this paper $H^{s}$ will be understood to mean $H^{s}(\mathbb{T})$.)

It is not known whether (1.3) is well-posed in $H^{s}$ for any $s \leq 3 / 2$, but some existence and uniqueness results have been proven for the space $H^{1}$. Constantin and Escher showed in [2] that a unique global weak solution exists for initial data $u_{0} \in H^{1}$ under the additional assumption that $u_{0}-\partial_{x}^{2} u_{0}$ is a positive Radon measure. Their method involved approximating $u_{0}$ by a sequence $u_{0}^{n} \in C^{\infty}$ and taking a limit of the corresponding solutions $u^{n}$ of (1.3).

More recently, Xin and Zhang showed in [15] that a global weak solution (not necessarily unique) exists for any initial data $u_{0} \in H^{1}$ by using solutions of a certain viscous problem, which converge to a solution of (1.3).

Our main result in this paper is that the periodic CH equation is not wellposed in $H^{1}$. More specifically:

Theorem 1.1. There exists a ball $B(0, r) \subset H^{1}(\mathbb{T})$ such that for every $T>0$ the map from $B(0, r)$ to $C\left([-T, T]: H^{1}(\mathbb{T})\right)$ given by $u_{0} \mapsto u$, where $u$ solves (1.3), is not uniformly continuous.

The proof of Theorem 1.1 will rely heavily on traveling wave solutions of the Camassa-Holm equation, i.e., solutions of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(x, t)=f(x-\sigma t) \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\sigma$ is a constant. Substituting (1.4) into (1.1), we see that the profile $f$ must be a solution of

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\sigma f^{\prime}+\sigma f^{\prime \prime \prime}+\frac{3}{2} \frac{d}{d x}\left(f^{2}\right)-\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^{3}}{d x^{3}}\left(f^{2}\right)+\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d x}\left(\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right)=0 \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 \sigma f^{\prime \prime}-2 \sigma f+3 f^{2}-\frac{d^{2}}{d x^{2}}\left(f^{2}\right)+\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2}=M \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for a constant $M$.
In Section 2 we will construct solutions to (1.6) with certain special properties; these will then be used in Section 3 to prove Theorem 1.1.

## 2. Traveling waves with unbounded slope

We'll begin with a brief overview of known types of traveling wave solutions to the Camassa-Holm equation. The simplest is the non-periodic function $u=\sigma e^{-|x-\sigma t|}$ for any $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}$.

For the periodic case, a greater variety of traveling wave solutions exist. For example, [3] showed that the CH equation has $C^{\infty}$ periodic traveling waves. Another type of solution can be defined explicitly as follows: Pick any $r>0$ and let

$$
f_{r}(x)=\frac{e^{x}+e^{-x}}{e^{r}+e^{-r}}
$$

for all $x \in[-r, r]$, and $f_{r}(x+2 k r)=f_{r}(x)$ for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then for every $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}, u(x, t)=\sigma f_{r}(x-\sigma t)$ is a solution to (1.1) with period $2 r$. (In particular, if $r=1 /(2 n)$ for some positive integer $n$, then $f_{r}: \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.)

This function is similar to the non-periodic wave $u=\sigma e^{-|x-\sigma t|}$, in that both have peaks with a "corner", i.e., points where $\partial_{x} u$ is discontinuous but bounded (and in fact $\left(\partial_{x} u\right)^{2}$ is continuous, with removable singularities).

Our main focus in this section is to construct traveling wave solutions with "spikes"-that is to say peaks where the derivative goes to infinity. For simplicity, we will only consider traveling waves with unit speed, i.e., solutions of (1.6) with $\sigma=1$. Other traveling waves can then be obtained by the wellknown scaling property of the CH equation: if $u=u(x, t)$ is a solution of (1.1), then $u_{\lambda}(x, t) \doteq \lambda u(x, \lambda t)$ is a solution as well for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let us start by unpacking equation (1.6) a little (cf. [3]). For a given function $f$, let $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ be the largest open set on which $f$ is $C^{\infty}$ (i.e., the complement of the singular support of $f$ ). Then on $S,(1.6)$ is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 f^{\prime \prime}-2 f+3 f^{2}-2 f f^{\prime \prime}-\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2}=M \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we multiply by $f^{\prime},(2.1)$ is equivalent on the set $\tilde{S} \doteq\left\{x \in S \mid f^{\prime}(x) \neq 0\right\}$ to

$$
\begin{aligned}
M f^{\prime} & =2 f^{\prime} f^{\prime \prime}-2 f f^{\prime}+3 f^{2} f^{\prime}-2 f f^{\prime} f^{\prime \prime}-\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{3} \\
& =\frac{d}{d x}\left[\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2}-f^{2}+f^{3}-f\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

which is to say

$$
\begin{align*}
(f-1)\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2} & =f^{3}-f^{2}-M f+L  \tag{2.2}\\
& =(f-a)(f-b)(f-c) \tag{2.3}
\end{align*}
$$

for constants $L, a, b$, and $c$. Then the coefficient of $f^{2}$ in (2.2) implies that $a+b+c=1$. Conversely if $a+b+c=1$ then (2.3) holds for some $M$ and $L$.

We can now prove the following result:
Proposition 2.1. For any $\rho>0$ sufficiently small, there is a periodic solution $f$ of (1.5) with period $\rho$, such that $f \leq 1$ and $\sup |f-1| \rightarrow 0$ as $\rho \rightarrow 0$. Furthermore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{1} \rho \leq\left\|f^{\prime}\right\|_{L^{q}([0, \rho])}^{q} \leq C_{2} \rho \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $q \in[1,3)$, where $C_{1}, C_{2}$ are positive constants independent of $\rho$; and

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime}<0 \text { on }(0, \rho / 2) \text { and } f^{\prime}>0 \text { on }(\rho / 2, \rho) . \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. For convenience let us first write $f=1-g, a=1+A, b=1-\epsilon$, and $c=\epsilon-1-A$, so (2.3) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
g\left(g^{\prime}\right)^{2}=(g+A)(\epsilon-g)(A+2-\epsilon-g) \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Fix any $A>0$ and $\epsilon_{0} \in(0,1+A / 2)$. Then for any $\epsilon \in\left(0, \epsilon_{0}\right)$ we have $\epsilon<A+2-\epsilon$, and hence the right hand side of (2.6) is positive for all $g \in(0, \epsilon)$.

Now if, for some $x_{0} \in \mathbb{R}$, we prescribe $g\left(x_{0}\right)=y_{0} \in(0, \epsilon)$ and take $g^{\prime}>0$, then (2.6) will have an increasing local solution, with

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\prime}=\sqrt{(g+A)(\epsilon-g)(A+2-\epsilon-g) / g} \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Clearly there exists $\tilde{x}_{0}<x_{0}$ such that $g\left(\tilde{x}_{0}\right)=0$ (since $g^{\prime}>0$ and $g^{\prime} \rightarrow \infty$ as $g \rightarrow 0)$ and without loss of generality we can take $\tilde{x}_{0}=0$, i.e., $g(0)=0$.

If we write

$$
\frac{d x}{d g}=\sqrt{\frac{g}{(g+A)(\epsilon-g)(A+2-\epsilon-g)}},
$$

we see that the inverse of $g$ is given explicitly by

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{-1}(y) & =\int_{0}^{y} \sqrt{\frac{t}{(t+A)(\epsilon-t)(A+2-\epsilon-t)}} d t \\
& =\int_{0}^{y} \frac{\beta(t) \sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{\epsilon-t}} d t
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
B(t) \doteq \frac{1}{\sqrt{(t+A)(A+2-\epsilon-t)}}
$$

Note that $0<c_{1} \leq \beta(t) \leq c_{2}$ for all $t \in[0, \epsilon]$, with $c_{1} \doteq 1 / \sqrt{\left(A+\epsilon_{0}\right)(A+2)}$ and $c_{2} \doteq 1 / \sqrt{A\left(A+2-2 \epsilon_{0}\right)}$. Now for every $y \in(0, \epsilon)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{-1}(y) & \leq c_{2} \sqrt{\epsilon} \int_{0}^{y}(\epsilon-t)^{-1 / 2} d t \\
& =2 c_{2} \epsilon-2 c_{2} \sqrt{\epsilon} \sqrt{\epsilon-y} \\
& \leq 2 c_{2} \epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

In other words, there is some positive real number, let us say $\rho / 2 \leq 2 c_{2} \epsilon$, such that $g(\rho / 2)=\epsilon$.

On the other hand,

$$
\begin{align*}
g^{-1}(y) & \geq \frac{c_{1}}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \int_{0}^{y} t^{1 / 2} d t  \tag{2.8}\\
& =\left.\frac{2 c_{1}}{3 \sqrt{\epsilon}} t^{3 / 2}\right|_{0} ^{y} \\
& =\frac{2 c_{1}}{3 \sqrt{\epsilon}} y^{3 / 2}
\end{align*}
$$

so that $\rho=2 g^{-1}(\epsilon) \geq \frac{4 c_{1}}{3} \epsilon$. Moreover, if we set

$$
x_{1} \doteq g^{-1}(\epsilon / 2) \geq \frac{2 c_{1}}{3 \sqrt{\epsilon}}(\epsilon / 2)^{3 / 2}=\left(\frac{c_{1}}{3 \sqrt{2}}\right) \epsilon
$$

then for all $x \in\left[0, x_{1}\right], g(x) \leq \epsilon / 2$ implies $\epsilon-g(x) \geq g(x)$, and hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{\prime}(x) & \geq \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon-g}}{c_{2} \sqrt{g}} \\
& \geq 1 / c_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, since $f^{\prime}(x)=-g^{\prime}(x)$,

$$
\begin{align*}
\left\|f^{\prime}\right\|_{L^{q}([0, \rho / 2])}^{q} & \geq\left\|g^{\prime}\right\|_{L^{q}\left(\left[0, x_{1}\right]\right)}^{q}  \tag{2.9}\\
& \geq c_{2}^{-q} x_{1} \\
& \geq c_{3} \rho,
\end{align*}
$$

where we used $x_{1} \geq\left(\frac{c_{1}}{3 \sqrt{2}}\right) \epsilon$ and $\epsilon \geq \frac{\rho}{4 c_{2}}$.
On the other hand, for $x \in\left[x_{1}, \rho / 2\right]$,

$$
g^{\prime}(x) \leq \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon-g}}{c_{1} \sqrt{g}} \leq \frac{1}{c_{1}}
$$

and for $y \in(0, \epsilon / 2)$ we can calculate

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{-1}(y) & \leq c_{2} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\epsilon}} \int_{0}^{y} t^{1 / 2} d t \\
& =\frac{2 c_{2} \sqrt{2}}{3 \sqrt{\epsilon}} y^{3 / 2}
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x) \geq\left(\frac{3}{2 c_{2} \sqrt{2}} \sqrt{\epsilon} x\right)^{2 / 3}=c_{4}\left(\epsilon x^{2}\right)^{1 / 3} \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x \in\left[0, x_{1}\right]$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{\prime}(x) & \leq \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon-g}}{c_{1} \sqrt{g}} \\
& \leq \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon}}{c_{1} \sqrt{c_{4}\left(\epsilon x^{2}\right)^{1 / 3}}} \\
& =c_{5}\left(\frac{\epsilon}{x}\right)^{1 / 3}
\end{aligned}
$$

So we have shown

$$
g^{\prime}(x) \leq \max \left(\frac{1}{c_{1}}, c_{5}\left(\frac{\epsilon}{x}\right)^{1 / 3}\right)
$$

for all $x \in(0, \rho / 2]$, and therefore

$$
\begin{align*}
\left\|f^{\prime}\right\|_{L^{q}([0, \rho / 2])}^{q} & =\left\|g^{\prime}\right\|_{L^{q}([0, \rho / 2])}^{q}  \tag{2.11}\\
& \leq c_{1}^{-q} \rho+c_{5}^{q} \int_{0}^{\rho / 2} \epsilon^{q / 3} x^{-q / 3} d x \\
& =c_{1}^{-q} \rho+\frac{c_{5}^{q}}{1-q / 3} \epsilon^{q / 3}(\rho / 2)^{1-q / 3} \\
& \leq c_{6} \rho
\end{align*}
$$

where we used the fact that $q<3$ and $\epsilon \leq \frac{3}{4 c_{1}} \rho$.
Until now we have only been dealing with the function $g:[0, \rho / 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Now let us extend this function to $g:[-\rho / 2, \rho / 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by defining $g(-x)=$ $g(x)$. Furthermore, we can then extend $g$ to a periodic function with period $\rho$, by assigning $g(x+n p)=g(x)$ for every integer $n \neq 0$ and for all $x \in$ $[-\rho / 2, \rho / 2]$. (Note that $g$ is $C^{1}$ at $x=\rho / 2$, with $g^{\prime}(\rho / 2)=0$.)

The period of $g$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho=2 \int_{0}^{\epsilon} \sqrt{\frac{t}{(t+A)(\epsilon-t)(A+2-\epsilon-t)}} d t \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

which depends continuously on $\epsilon$, and we know that $\frac{4 c_{1}}{3} \epsilon \leq \rho \leq 4 c_{2} \epsilon$. Hence for any $\rho$ sufficiently small, there will always be a corresponding value of $\epsilon \in\left(0, \epsilon_{0}\right)$.

The estimate (2.4) follows immediately from (2.9) and (2.11). Also, it is obvious from the construction that $f^{\prime}<0$ on $(0, \rho / 2), f^{\prime}>0$ on $(\rho / 2, \rho)$, and $\sup |f-1|=\sup |g|=\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ as $\rho \rightarrow 0$.

It still remains to show that $f=1-g$ satisfies (1.6). We will start by showing that

$$
2 f^{\prime \prime}-2 f+3 f^{2}-\frac{d^{2}}{d x^{2}}\left(f^{2}\right)+\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2}
$$

is a measurable function. This is equivalent to showing that the expression

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 f^{\prime \prime}-\frac{d^{2}}{d x^{2}}\left(f^{2}\right) & =\frac{d}{d x}\left(2 f^{\prime}-2 f f^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\frac{d}{d x}\left(2 g g^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

is a measurable function (since clearly $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are measurable functions, and hence $-2 f+3 f^{2}+\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2}$ is as well).

We know that on the interval $(0, \rho / 2), g g^{\prime}$ is continuous and satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
g g^{\prime}=\sqrt{g(g+A)(\epsilon-g)(A+2-\epsilon-g)} \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

So as $x \rightarrow 0^{+}, g(x) \rightarrow 0$, and hence $g(x) g^{\prime}(x) \rightarrow 0$ by (2.13). Similarly, $g(x) g^{\prime}(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow 0^{-}$. So $g(x) g^{\prime}(x)$ is continuous at $x=0$, and by periodicity it is continuous everywhere. But we also know that $g g^{\prime}$ is smooth except on a discrete set, so $\frac{d}{d x}\left(2 g g^{\prime}\right)$ is a measurable function, as desired.

Hence the left hand side of (1.6) is a measurable function. We already know that on the set $\tilde{S}=\mathbb{R}-\{n \rho / 2 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, $f$ is smooth, satisfies (2.3), and has $f^{\prime} \neq 0$. Therefore $f$ satisfies (1.6) on this set, and in fact everywhere, (in the distribution sense).

Remark 2.2. In this paper we are mainly interested in $\rho$ small; a word could be said, however, about $\rho$ large. It is fairly easy to show from (2.12) that $\rho$ becomes arbitrarily large if we take $\epsilon$ sufficiently close to $1+A / 2$. (Note that this necessarily means taking $\epsilon_{0}$ close to $1+A / 2$ as well, which affects the constants $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots$ )

Therefore, the stipulation "for any $\rho>0$ sufficiently small" in Proposition 2.1 could be changed to "for any $\rho \in\left(0, \rho_{0}\right)$ ", where $\rho_{0}$ is any positive constant we choose (and where it is understood that the constants $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ in (2.4) depend on $\rho_{0}$ ).

It is also worth noting that if we instead take $\epsilon=1+A / 2$, which is to say that if we take $b=c=-A / 2$ in (2.3), then the integral in (2.12) becomes infinite; that is, we get a non-periodic function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Note, however, that $\lim _{x \rightarrow \pm \infty} f(x)=-A / 2$. So if we want $\lim _{x \rightarrow \pm \infty} f(x)=0$, we must take
$A=0$ rather than $A>0$. In this case $f$ is none other than the function $f(x)=e^{-|x+c|}$ (which has corner-type peaks, rather than spikes).

## 3. Proof of Theorem 1.1

Proposition 2.1 and Remark 2.2 tell us, in particular, that for every positive integer $k$ there is a periodic solution $f_{k}: \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of (1.5) with period $\rho_{k}=1 / k$. Then $0<f_{k} \leq 1$, so $\left\|f_{k}\right\|_{L^{q}(\mathbb{T})}^{q} \leq 1$, and (2.4) implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{1} \leq\left\|f_{k}^{\prime}\right\|_{L^{q}(\mathbb{T})}^{q} \leq C_{2} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $q \in[1,3)$.
Now let us recall the definition of the $L^{p}$-Sobolev spaces on the torus:

$$
W^{m, p}(\mathbb{T})=\left\{h \in L^{p}(\mathbb{T}): h^{(k)} \in L^{p}(\mathbb{T}), k \leq m\right\}
$$

for any nonnegative integer $m$ and any $p \in[0, \infty)$, which is a Banach space with respect to the norm

$$
\|h\|_{W^{m, p}}^{p} \doteq \sum_{k=1}^{m}\left\|h^{(k)}\right\|_{L^{p}}^{p} .
$$

In particular, $W^{m, 2}=H^{m}$, with equivalent norms. (Of course, $W^{m, p}$ can be defined for arbitrary $m \geq 0$ and $p \in[0, \infty]$, but we will not use the general definition since it will not be needed in this paper.)

So (3.1) implies that $f_{k} \in W^{1, q}(\mathbb{T})$ and

$$
\left\|f_{k}\right\|_{W^{1, q}(\mathbb{T})}=\left(\left\|f_{k}\right\|_{L^{q}(\mathbb{T})}^{q}+\left\|f_{k}^{\prime}\right\|_{L^{q}(\mathbb{T})}^{q}\right)^{1 / q} \leq\left(1+C_{2}\right)^{1 / q} \doteq C_{3} .
$$

Using these functions $f_{k}$ we will now prove Theorem 1.1. In fact, we will show that (1.3) is not well-posed in the space $W^{1, q}(\mathbb{T})$ for any $q \in[1,3)$ :

Theorem 3.1. Let $q \in[1,3)$ and $T>0$. Then there exist sequences $u^{k}, v^{k} \in C\left[\mathbb{R}: W^{1, q}(\mathbb{T})\right]$ which solve $(1.1)$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|u_{0}^{k}\right\|_{W^{1, q}} \leq C \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $k$, where $C>0$ is a constant independent of $T$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|u_{0}^{k}-v_{0}^{k}\right\|_{W^{1, q}} \rightarrow 0 \text { as } k \rightarrow \infty \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

but

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|u^{k}(T)-v^{k}(T)\right\|_{W^{1, q}} \nrightarrow 0 \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. By the preceding discussion, we can take

$$
u^{k}(x, t)=f_{k}(x-t)
$$

for all positive integers $k$. Also set $\sigma_{k}=1+\frac{1}{2 k T}$ and

$$
v^{k}(x, t)=\sigma_{k} f_{k}\left(x-\sigma_{k} t\right) .
$$

Then we have

$$
\left\|u_{0}^{k}\right\|_{W^{1, q}}=\left\|f_{k}\right\|_{W^{1, q}} \leq C_{3} .
$$

We also have

$$
\left\|u_{0}^{k}-v_{0}^{k}\right\|_{W^{1, q}}=\left(\sigma_{k}-1\right)\left\|f_{k}\right\|_{W^{1, q}} \leq \frac{C_{3}}{2 k T}
$$

which goes to zero as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Now at time $t=T$, we see from (2.5) that the derivatives $\partial_{x} u^{k}(x, T)=f_{k}^{\prime}(x-T)$ and $\partial_{x} v^{k}(x, T)=\sigma_{k} f_{k}^{\prime}(x-T-1 /(2 k))$ will never have the same sign. Therefore

$$
\left|\partial_{x} u^{k}(x, T)-\partial_{x} v^{k}(x, T)\right| \geq\left|\partial_{x} u^{k}(x, T)\right|
$$

and hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|u^{k}(T)-v^{k}(T)\right\|_{W^{1, q}} & \geq\left\|\partial_{x} u^{k}(T)-\partial_{x} v^{k}(T)\right\|_{L^{q}} \\
& \geq\left\|\partial_{x} u^{k}(T)\right\|_{L^{q}} \\
& =\left\|f_{k}^{\prime}\right\|_{L^{q}} \\
& \geq C_{1}^{1 / q}
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark. In the definition of local well-posedness, the existence time $T$ is allowed to depend on the size of the initial data. It is important, therefore, that the uniform bound (3.2) was independent of $T$.

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