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Evolution of regular bent rectangles by the driven crystalline curvature flow in the plane with a non-uniform forcing term

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Abstract

We study the motion of regular bent rectangles driven by singular curvature flow with a driving term. The curvature is being interpreted as a solution to a minimization problem. The evolution equation becomes in a local coordinate a system of Hamilton-Jacobi equations with free boundaries, coupled to a system of ODE’s with nonlocal nonlinearities. We establish local-in-time existence of variational solutions to the flow and uniqueness is proved under additional regularity assumptions on the data.

Key words: singular energies, bending of facets, driven curvature flow, variational principle, Hamilton-Jacobi equation

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1
1 Introduction

Our goal is to establish the existence of a properly defined solution to the driven weighted mean curvature (wmc) flow

$$\beta V = \kappa_\gamma + \sigma \text{ on } \Gamma(t),$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.1)

when $\kappa_\gamma$ is a singular curvature, $\Gamma(t)$ is from a suitable class of closed curves, corresponding to the anisotropy function $\gamma$ and $\beta$ is quite general. We shall succeed, but only for special closed curves, which we call bent rectangles, as initial data. Our motivation is to study facets at the onset of their bending and after that. If the initial curve is a rectangle close to the energy equilibrium shape i.e., the Wulff shape of $\gamma$, which is given by (1.2), then the presence of the forcing term $\sigma$ in (1.1) leads to a ‘bent rectangle’ with exactly three facets, see Fig. 1.

The first problem here is to give meaning to the curvature term, which is formally defined as

$$\kappa_\gamma = -\text{div}_S (\nabla_\zeta \gamma(\zeta)|_{\zeta=n}),$$

where $n$ is the outer normal to $\Gamma$ and $\gamma$ is a surface energy function. This definition makes sense for smooth $\gamma$ on smooth surfaces. But our goal is to study (1.1), when

$$\gamma(p) = \gamma_L|_{p_1} + \gamma_R|_{p_2},$$ \hspace{1cm} (1.2)

i.e., we deal with crystalline curvature. In Section 2, we recall the definition of $\kappa_\gamma$, which used earlier, see [22].

Our main objective is to study behavior of facets, flat parts of $\Gamma(t)$ with normal vectors defined by the singular directions of $\gamma$, i.e., the normal vectors to Wulff shape of $\gamma$. The presence of the forcing term will make facets bend, provided that they are long enough. A study of facet stability in a different problem, where (1.1) is coupled to a diffusion equation was performed in [21]. Here, we assume that $\sigma$ forces bending of an initially flat facet.

Here, we permit a generic driving $\sigma$, conforming to the Berg’s effect (see [8], [28], [20] and references therein), i.e.

$$x_i \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x_i}(t,x_1,x_2) > 0 \text{ for all } x_i \neq 0, \hspace{0.5cm} i = 1, 2, \hspace{0.5cm} t \geq 0,$$ \hspace{1cm} (1.3)

and the symmetry conditions, for all $t \geq 0$,

$$\sigma(t,x_1,x_2) = \sigma(t,-x_1,x_2), \hspace{0.5cm} \sigma(t,x_1,x_2) = \sigma(t,x_1,-x_2) \text{ for all } x_i \in \mathbb{R}, \hspace{0.5cm} i = 1, 2.$$ \hspace{1cm} (1.4)

We studied evolution by (1.1) of graphs with a single facet for rather general kinetic coefficient $\beta$, see [16]. In [22], we investigated evolution of bent rectangles by (1.1) for a special choice of $\beta$. Here, we are interested in their motion with the same restrictions on $\beta$ as in [16]. Once we write (1.1) in a local coordinate system, which will be done in Section 2, we will see that the resulting system may be interpreted as a coupled system of two Hamilton-Jacobi equations with free boundaries. We may indicate the main difficulties here using the language suitable for Hamilton-Jacobi equations. These are the rarefaction regions associated to the corners of $\Gamma(t)$ and the free boundaries, the endpoint of the facets, see Fig. 1. This will be explained in Section 3. We do not have tools to study them in the full generality, yet. This is why we do not treat here the corner evolution problem explicitly, but we define them as intersection of facets.
Let us stress that our purpose is to construct solutions to \( (1.1) \) in relatively simple cases. We mean by this regular bent rectangles, (see Definition 2.1 at the end of Subsection 2.1), that is we impose some smoothness assumptions on the curved parts of \( \Gamma(t) \) as well as on \( \sigma \) so that we may use the method of characteristics to solve the Hamilton-Jacobi equations. Our main result is Theorem 3.5 in subsection 3.3 stating existence of variational solutions to \( (1.1) \) for a number of possible types of behavior of the facet endpoints. The basic, generic case corresponds to such data that \( \Gamma(0) \) has kinks at the facet endpoints. Such a facet may shrink or expand. On the other hand, if \( \Gamma(0) \) is smooth in a neighborhood of the endpoints of a facet, and this facet shrinks, then smoothness is preserved. Separately we consider the case when the interfaces coalesce. This is treated in Theorem 3.6.

A side effect of our work is to create supply of super- and subsolutions necessary for the development of viscosity theory for equations like \( (1.1) \), see [15].

In [16], we discussed in detail the construction of the inner interfaces, called \( l_0, r_0 \), also when there is no corner at the junctions of facets with the curved parts. The curve was constructed as a shock wave, i.e., the result of crashing of the characteristics of a Hamilton-Jacobi equation on the central facet. This approach does not work for the outer interfaces, called \( l_1, r_1 \), because, loosely speaking, they are trying to escape from the characteristics of a Hamilton-Jacobi equation governing the curved part. Thus, geometrically the behavior of the interfaces is different.

We must stress that we assume that the corners of the bent rectangles evolve as intersections of outer facets. This may not be suitable for general kinetic coefficients. A corner may round off. Even if \( \sigma \) is constant we need a condition for \( \beta \) such that the corner never rounds off as pointed out in [13] if the flow is to enjoy the comparison principle. In our current setting it seems that a sufficient condition for the corner never to round off is that the Wulff shape \( \mathcal{W}_{1/\beta} \) is a rectangle, although we will not discuss this problem in this paper. The construction of solutions is conducted here in a such way, that accommodating such a rounding off will be easy.

We are able to prove uniqueness of our solutions only in special cases. They are related to the behavior of the interfaces. If all the facets shrink and \( \Gamma(t) \) is smooth at the interfaces, then we can guarantee uniqueness. If at least one facets expands, so that \( \Gamma(t) \) is no longer smooth at the interfaces, then our proof fails. The problem is, compared to [23, Theorem 4.1], that in the present case the general \( \beta \) destroys the gradient flow structure exploited there. Here, we use tools typical for transport problems, see [1], [9].

We use methods based on the method of characteristics, because the viscosity theory,
does not seem developed sufficiently to handle the case of closed curves for general $\beta$. This approach was quite successful for graphs, see [16], [12], [15]. We expect that we could approximate the left out cases by regular bent rectangles, but we postpone it for further studies, as this seems to require the viscosity methods which are being developed, see [15]. Another difficulty associated to the application of the general viscosity theory for the first order Hamilton-Jacobi equations is that the notion of the variational solution no longer makes sense, a new notion has to be invented.

2 Setting up the problem

2.1 Definitions

Here, we recall the notions we used in [22]–[23]. We restrict our attention to evolution of a subclass of bent rectangles. We shall call a Lipschitz closed curve $\Gamma$ a bent rectangle (see [23, §2]) if the following conditions are satisfied:

There exist even, Lipschitz continuous functions $d^R, d^A : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$, which are non-decreasing for positive arguments and there are positive numbers $L_1, R_1$ such that

$$d^A(L_1) = R_1, \quad d^R(R_1) = L_1.$$ 

In addition $d^A$ is constant in a neighborhood of zero and $L_1$ (respectively, $d^R$ is constant in a neighborhood of zero and $R_1$), furthermore

$$\Gamma = \partial \{(x_1, x_2) : x_1 \leq d^A(x_2), |x_2| \leq d^R(x_1)\}.$$ 

We shall call $d^R, d^A$ a pair of admissible functions.

We shall call the points $(\pm R_1, \pm L_1)$ vertexes of $\Gamma$. Thus, after we set

$$S^\pm_R = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \Gamma : x_2 = \pm d^R(x_1), x_1 \in [-R_1, R_1]\},$$

we notice that the graphs of $d^A$ makes up the whole $\Gamma(t)$, i.e.

$$\Gamma = S^+_{-R} \cup S^-_{R} \cup S^+_{-A} \cup S^-_{A}.$$ 

We will collectively write $S_R$ for $S^+_R \cup S^-_R$ and $S_A$ for $S^+_A \cup S^-_A$. We will call them sides of $\Gamma(t)$. Vertexes of $\Gamma$ are the intersections $S^+_R \cap S^-_A$. Moreover, the sides meet at vertexes at the right angle. However, a general kinetic coefficient may lead to rounding off the corner. This happens when the Wulff shape $W_{1/\beta}$ has a round corner or not. Such phenomenon is indicated by physics literature, see e.g., [10], [18] and studied in [13] when $\sigma$ is spatially constant. We do not consider this here, but state the major theorems in such a way, that they can be easily adapted if the corresponding dynamics will become known.

We will denote by $n$ the outer normal to $\Gamma$ and in particular,

$$n_A = (1, 0), \quad \text{ (resp. } n_R = (0, 1))$$

are normals to the faceted regions of $S_A$, (resp. $S_R$). A rigorous definition of the notion of faceted regions is given later just before formula (2.7) in this section.
The curvature, $\kappa_\gamma$, appearing in (1.1) is defined by

$$\kappa_\gamma = -\text{div}_S(\nabla \gamma(\xi)|_{\xi=n}),$$

where $n$ is the outer normal to $\Gamma$ and $\gamma$ is a surface energy function. In our case vector $n$ is defined only $\mathcal{H}^1$-a.e. The physical examples, we have in mind, see [24], [19], give us the motivation to consider

$$\gamma(p_1, p_2) = \gamma_\Lambda|p_1| + \gamma_{R}|p_2|. \quad (2.1)$$

We notice that the flat parts with normals belonging to the set of normals of the Wulff shape $W_\gamma$ are energetically preferred. We refer the reader to [24, §7.5] (see also [23, §2]) for the definition of the Wulff shape. In our case it is a rectangle.

Now, the fundamental problem is apparent: $\nabla \gamma(n)$ is not defined on bent rectangles on sets of positive $\mathcal{H}^1$-measure. We resolved this issue by replacing $\nabla \gamma$ by $\partial \gamma$, which is always well-defined, because of convexity of $\gamma$. The subdifferential coincides with $\{\nabla \gamma(x_0)\}$ when $\gamma$ is differentiable at $x_0$.

Since in general $\partial \gamma$ is not a singleton, this leaves us with a necessity to select the proper Cahn-Hoffman vector field $\xi(x) \in \partial \gamma(n(x))$. We note that this task is obvious on curved parts of $S^A$, $S^R$, because $\partial \gamma$ is a singleton there, while it is not trivial on flat facets. Thus, we have to find a proper selection of $\nabla \gamma$. For this purpose, we use a variational principle as in [22], [23]. A similar approach was first introduced by [11] for graph-like solutions and was developed in several ways by the authors of [2] – [7].

We impose quite natural constraints on $\xi$, see [22],

$$\text{div}_S \xi \in L^2(S_i), \quad i = R, \Lambda.$$

This implies that $\xi \cdot \nu$ has a trace, where $\nu \in T_xS_i$ is a normal vector to $S_i$, $i = R, \Lambda$. If we combine it with

$$\partial \gamma(n_R) \cap \partial \gamma(n_\Lambda) = \{p\},$$

then we see that $\xi$ satisfies a boundary condition

$$\xi|_{\text{vertex}} = p.$$

The necessity of selecting $\xi$ implies that in order to define a solution to (1.1), we need to specify not only a curve $\Gamma(t)$ but also $\xi(t, \cdot)$. After [22], we recall the notion of solution. Namely, by a solution to (1.1) we call a family of couples $(\Gamma(t), \xi(t)), t \in [0, T)$, such that for some $T > 0$, the following conditions are satisfied:

(a) For each $t \in [0, T)$ the curve $\Gamma(t)$ is a bent rectangle and $d^A$, $d^R$ are continuous functions of its arguments, for each $x$, $d^j(\cdot, x), j = \Lambda, R$ are Lipschitz continuous and for each $t \in [0, T)$, the functions $d^j(t, \cdot), j = \Lambda, R$ are admissible;

(b) $\xi : \bigcup_{t \in [0, T]} \{t\} \times \Gamma(t) \to \mathbb{R}^2$ is at each time instant a Cahn-Hoffman vector. If $M := \sup_{t \in [0, T]} \max\{L_1(t), R_1(t)\} + 1$, and if for $j = \Lambda, R$, we set

$$\tilde{\xi}^R(t, x) \in \begin{cases} \{(-\gamma(\mathbf{n}_\Lambda), \gamma(\mathbf{n}_R))\} & x \in [-M, -R_1(t)], \\ \{\xi(t, (x, d^R(t, x)))\} & x \in [-R_1(t), R_1(t)], \\ \{\gamma(\mathbf{n}_\Lambda), \gamma(\mathbf{n}_R)\} & x \in [R_1(t), M]; \end{cases} \quad (2.2)$$

$$\tilde{\xi}^A(t, x) \in \begin{cases} \{(-\gamma(\mathbf{n}_\Lambda), -\gamma(\mathbf{n}_R))\} & x \in [-M, -L_1(t)], \\ \{\xi(t, (d^A(t, x), x))\} & x \in [-L_1(t), L_1(t)], \\ \{(-\gamma(\mathbf{n}_\Lambda), \gamma(\mathbf{n}_R))\} & x \in [L_1(t), M]; \end{cases} \quad (2.2)$$
then we assume that \( t \mapsto \tilde{\xi}^j(t, \cdot) \in L^\infty(0, T; L^2(-M, M)), \ j = \Lambda, R \).

This extension is made for the sake of simplification, so that our problem becomes independent of the parametrization of \( \Gamma \). It works because the corners evolve as the intersection of facets.

(c) Equation (1.1) is satisfied in the \( L^2 \) sense for \( a.e. \ t \geq 0 \) after interpreting \( \kappa \), as \( -\text{div}_S \xi \).

We note that on one hand condition (c) is quite broad, on the other hand it seems improper for the viscosity solution outside of facets. However, if the data of the Hamilton-Jacobi equations are sufficiently regular, \( i.e. \), Lipschitz continuous, then the viscosity solution is Lipschitz continuous, hence \( a.e. \) differentiable. In fact, we will assume enough regularity of the data, making this definition meaningful.

In principle, the Cahn-Hoffman vector depends upon time \( t \) and \( x = (x_1, x_2) \in \Gamma(t) \). However, we shall frequently suppress \( t \) and write \( \xi(x) \), when the meaning of the spatial argument is clear from the context, \( e.g. \) on the sides.

We also distinguished variational solutions based on a specific way to select \( \xi \). In order to define them, we introduce two convenient energy functionals,

\[
\mathcal{E}_j(\xi) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{S_j} |\sigma - \text{div}_S \xi|^2 \, dH^1, \quad j = R, \Lambda. \tag{2.3}
\]

Their natural domains of definition are the sets of Cahn-Hoffman vectors, satisfying all the above constraints,

\[
\mathcal{D}_\Lambda = \{ \xi \in L^\infty(S_\Lambda) : \xi(x) \in \partial\gamma(n(x)), \ \text{div}_S \xi \in L^2(S_\Lambda), (2.5) \text{ holds} \},
\]

\[
\mathcal{D}_R = \{ \xi \in L^\infty(S_R) : \xi(x) \in \partial\gamma(n(x)), \ \text{div}_S \xi \in L^2(S_R), (2.5) \text{ holds} \}. \tag{2.4}
\]

where

\[
\xi(\pm R_1, \pm L_1) \in \partial\gamma(\pm n_\Lambda) \cap \partial\gamma(\pm n_R). \tag{2.5}
\]

Strictly speaking \( n \) is defined only \( H^1 \)-\( a.e. \) but this has no influence on the above definition, partly because \( \partial\gamma(\xi) \) is a constant singleton on each connected component of the curved part of \( \Gamma \).

We recall (see also [23] for a discussion of this notion) that \( \{(\Gamma(t), \xi(t))\}, t \in [0, T) \), a solution to (1.1), was called a variational solution if in addition for each \( t \in [0, T) \) \( \xi|_{S_j}(t) \in L^2(S_j) \) is a solution to

\[
\mathcal{E}_j(\xi) = \min\{\mathcal{E}_j(\zeta) : \zeta \in \mathcal{D}_j\}, \quad j = R, \Lambda. \tag{2.6}
\]

We also recall from [22] a number of auxiliary notions. Let us consider an open line segment \( I \) in the plane, \( i.e. \), \( I = (a, b) \equiv \{x = at + b(1 - t), t \in (0, 1)\} \), where \( a, b \in \mathbb{R}^2 \). We shall say that \( I \subset \Gamma \), having a normal equal to \( n_\Lambda \) or \( n_R \), is a faceted region of \( \Gamma \) if it is maximal (with respect to inclusion) and it satisfies

\[
(\sigma - \text{div}_S \xi)|_I = \text{const.}, \tag{2.7}
\]

where \( \xi \) is a solution to (2.6).

We keep in mind that, \( S^\pm_\Lambda(t) \) and \( S^\pm_R(t) \) are graphs, \( e.g. \), \( S^+_R \) is the image of segment \([-R(t), R(t)] \) under the function

\[
x \mapsto (x, d^R(t, x)) =: d^R(t, x). \tag{2.8}
\]
Frequently, it is more convenient to work with the inverse image of a faceted region \( I \), \((\alpha, \beta) = \tilde{d}^{-1}(I)\). We stress that this definition permits \( S_j^\pm(t) \), \( j = R, \Lambda \) being a line segment which has more than one faceted region.

Let us now introduce formally the class of bent rectangles we want to deal with.

**Definition 2.1** We shall say that a bent \( \Gamma \) is **regular**, provided that the admissible functions \( d^R, d^\Lambda \), restricted to the closure of the complement of the preimages of facets are of class \( C^2 \).

In order to make the presentation more clear, we propose to use the notion of a **curved part** of side to denote the (relative) interior of the subset of \( \Gamma \), where normal \( n \) is such that \( \partial \gamma(n) \) is a singleton. However, this definition is not quite precise in case of Lipschitz curves, for the normal vector may not be everywhere defined, but nonetheless \( \partial \gamma(n) \) is a singleton. In particular, it may happen that a line segment of \( \Gamma \) will be called a curved part if its normal is different from \( n_R, n_\Lambda \).

At this point, we mention that there are other approaches to deal with the ill-defined operator \( \text{div}_S \nabla \zeta_{\gamma}(n) \). The first is the viscosity method developed by the M.-H. Giga and Y. Giga, [12]; see also [15] for graph-like functions when \( \sigma \) is non-uniform. This approach is applied for the evolution of closed curves [14] when \( \sigma \) is spatially constant. However, so far it is not yet adjusted to handle spatially inhomogeneous \( \sigma \) for curves. The second approach is by anisotropic distance function with variational principles e.g. [3]. It applies to higher dimensional problems but it does not allow \( \sigma \). Another approach is the ‘operator approach’, which is based on a proper interpretation of the composition of multivalued operators, [25], [27]. However, we do not know whether this approach is applicable for closed curves.

### 2.2 The reduction to the local coordinate system

We want to write (1.1) in the local coordinate system for variational solutions. We proceed as in [22] without major changes while keeping in mind that we work with bent rectangles. A very important part of this process is solving a double obstacle problem. An inherent part of the solution is a free boundary, *i.e.*, the coincidence set. Its boundary defines the endpoints of the facets, and we pay special attention to the facets of our bent rectangles. It is however, more convenient to work with the pre-images of faceted regions. We restrict our attention to such variational solutions \((\Gamma, \xi)\) of (1.1) that each facet \( S_j \) has exactly three faceted regions, whose pre-images are:

\[
(-L_1, -l_1), \quad (-l_0, l_0), \quad (l_1, L_1), \quad (-R_1, -r_1), \quad (-r_0, r_0), \quad (r_1, R_1).
\]

Moreover, the functions \( d^\Lambda|_{[0, L_1]}, d^R|_{[0, R_1]} \) are increasing.

We noticed in [22, Proposition 3.1]) that under our typical assumptions for \( \sigma \), if \( d^\Lambda, d^R \) are Lipschitz continuous with a finite number of non-differentiability points, then \( \xi \) is constant over each component of the curved parts. As a result, equation (1.1) takes the form of

\[
\beta V = \sigma.
\]

The curvature obviously vanishes.
In the present context (1.1) becomes
\[
\sigma(t, d^\Lambda(t, x_2), x_2) = \beta(n) \frac{d^\Lambda(t, x_2)}{\sqrt{1 + (d^\Lambda(t, x_2))^2}} \quad \text{on } [l_0(t), l_1(t)],
\]
\[
\sigma(t, x_1, d^R(t, x_1)) = \beta(n) \frac{d^R(t, x_1)}{\sqrt{1 + (d^R(t, x_1))^2}} \quad \text{on } [r_0(t), r_1(t)],
\]
(2.9)
where \( n \) is the outer normal to \( \Gamma(t) \). Let us notice that
\[
\beta(n) = \beta \left( -\frac{d^R_{x_1}}{\sqrt{1 + (d^R_{x_1})^2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (d^R_{x_1})^2}} \right) =: \tilde{\beta}^R(d^R_{x_1}) \quad \text{on } S^+_R \cap \{ x_1 > 0 \},
\]
\[
\beta(n) = \beta \left( -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (d^\Lambda_{x_2})^2}}, -\frac{d^\Lambda_{x_2}}{\sqrt{1 + (d^\Lambda_{x_2})^2}} \right) =: \tilde{\beta}^\Lambda(d^\Lambda_{x_2}) \quad \text{on } S^+_\Lambda \cap \{ x_2 > 0 \}.
\]
This is why (2.9) can be written as
\[
d^R_t - \sigma(t, d^R, x)m^R(d^R_x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad d^\Lambda_t - \sigma(t, x, d^\Lambda)m^\Lambda(d^\Lambda_x) = 0
\]
on respective intervals. Here,
\[
m^i(p) = \frac{\sqrt{1 + p^2}}{\beta(p)},
\]
(2.11)
We want to set minimal assumptions on \( m^\Lambda, m^R \). They are:
\[
\frac{1}{\beta^\Lambda} = m^\Lambda(0) \leq m^\Lambda(p), \quad \frac{1}{\beta^R} = m^R(0) \leq m^R(p),
\]
(2.12)
\[
m^i(p) = m^i(-p), \quad i = \Lambda, R,
\]
(2.13)
\[
m^i \text{ is Lipschitz continuous and } m^i \in C^2(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{ 0 \}), \quad i = \Lambda, R,
\]
(2.14)
\[
m^i \text{ is convex for } |p| \leq 1, \quad i = \Lambda, R,
\]
(2.15)
\[
m^i(p) \leq C(1 + |p|) \quad i = \Lambda, R.
\]
(2.16)
Here, we use the shorthands \( \beta_R = \beta(n_R), \beta_\Lambda = \beta(n_\Lambda) \).

In [3], the author considers the flow of (1.1) with \( \beta = \frac{1}{\gamma} \). Our assumptions on \( \beta \) reflect our desire to consider a broad set of examples while giving us additional freedom. At the same time we want that the Wulff shapes of \( \gamma \) and \( \frac{1}{\beta} \) be somehow close, but they need not coincide.

We may now write equation (1.1) in the local coordinates. It is a good idea to recall the conclusions of [23, Proposition 3.1]. Namely, what we showed in [23, (3.11)] amounts to saying that for a variational solution, (1.1) takes the following form,
\[
\beta_R L_0 = \int_0^{r_0} \sigma(t, s, L_0) \, ds + \frac{\gamma(n_\Lambda)}{r_0} \quad \text{on } [0, r_0],
\]
\[
d^R_t = \sigma(t, x_1, d^R)m^R(d^R_x) \quad \text{on } [r_0, r_1],
\]
\[
\beta_R L_1 = \int_{r_1}^{R_1} \sigma(t, s, L_1) \, ds - \frac{2\gamma(n_\Lambda)}{R_1 - r_1} \quad \text{on } [r_1, R_1],
\]
(2.17)
\[
\beta_\Lambda R_0 = \int_0^{l_0} \sigma(t, R_0, s) \, ds + \frac{\gamma(n_R)}{l_0} \quad \text{on } [0, l_0],
\]
\[
d^\Lambda_t = \sigma(t, d^\Lambda, x_2)m^\Lambda(d^\Lambda_x) \quad \text{on } [l_0, l_1],
\]
\[
\beta_\Lambda R_1 = \int_{l_1}^{L_1} \sigma(t, R_1, s) \, ds - \frac{2\gamma(n_R)}{L_1 - l_1} \quad \text{on } [l_1, L_1],
\]
augmented with the following initial conditions,

\[
\begin{align*}
  l_0(0) &= l_{00}, & l_1(0) &= l_{10}, & r_0(0) &= r_{00}, & r_1(0) &= r_{10}, \\
  R_0(0) &= R_{00}, & R_1(0) &= R_{10}, & L_0(0) &= L_{00}, & L_1(0) &= L_{10}, \\
  d^R(0, x_1) &= d^R(0, x_1), & d^A(0, x_2) &= d^A(0, x_2).
\end{align*}
\]  

(2.18)

We keep in force the simplifying symmetry assumptions. The notation is illustrated in Figure 1.

An important observation is that in order to close this system we need information about the evolution of \(l_i(\cdot), r_i(\cdot), i = 0, 1\). These points are zero-dimensional free boundaries, whose evolution is not determined by (2.17). As a result, we have a system of Hamilton-Jacobi equations with free boundaries.

The definition of a variational solution requires that a Cahn-Hoffman vector field \(\xi\) is a solution to (2.6). An obvious modification is required for curves \(l_i\) which satisfies \(\sigma(t, r_0(t), L_0(t)) = \int_0^{r_0(t)} \sigma(t, s, L_0(t)) ds + \frac{\gamma(n_A)}{r_0(t)}\), \(\xi_1(r_1(t)) = -\gamma(n_A), i = 0, 1\), 

\[
\begin{align*}
  \sigma(t, r_0(t), L_0(t)) &= \int_0^{r_0(t)} \sigma(t, s, L_0(t)) ds + \frac{\gamma(n_A)}{r_0(t)}, & \xi_1(r_1(t)) &= -\gamma(n_A), i = 0, 1, \\
  \sigma(t, r_1(t), L_1(t)) &= \int_{r_1(t)}^{R_1(t)} \sigma(t, s, L_1(t)) ds - \frac{2\gamma(n_A)}{R_1(t) - r_1(t)}. 
\end{align*}
\]  

(2.19)

We note that here \(\xi\) is a solution to (2.6). An obvious modification is required for curves \(l_0, l_1\).

Let us notice that the definitions we adopted mean that the coordinate system \((r, d^R)\), \(i.e., (x_1, x_2)\) is positively oriented, while the orientation of \((l, d^A)\) \(i.e., (x_2, x_1)\) is negative, see Fig. 1. Thus, some care has to be exercised while replacing \(r_1\) \(resp. r_0\) with \(l_1\) \(resp. l_0\) in the statements of theorems here.

The coincidence set may be empty. However, we always demand that \(\Gamma(t)\) is a Lipschitz curve, thus the solutions to (2.17) must satisfy

\[
\begin{align*}
  d^R(t, r_1(t)) &= L_i(t), & d^A(t, l_i(t)) &= R_i(t), & i = 0, 1.
\end{align*}
\]  

(2.20)

We call (2.20) the matching condition, because \(R_i\) \(resp. L_i\) must match \(d^A\) \(resp. d^R\).

The tangency condition is not open. Thus, we expect in a typical case the interfacial curve will not satisfy it. On the other hand, (2.20) is more basic. Let us note

2.3 The interfacial curves

We showed in [23] that the obstacle problem leads to two types of the interfacial curves \(l_i, r_j, i, j = 0, 1\). Each of them may be: either tangency curve or matching curve. For the sake of definiteness, we shall concentrate on \(r_0\). The variational problem (2.6) is of a double obstacle type. It may happen that for any \(t \geq 0\) the point \(r_0(t)\) is on the boundary of the coincidence set. In this case the solution \(\xi\) satisfies \(\frac{\partial \xi}{\partial n_1}(r_0(t)) = 0\), see [26], and we say that the tangency condition is satisfied at \(r_0(t)\). If the tangency condition is satisfied at \(r_0(t)\) for all \(t \in [0, T]\), then we call the curve \(r_0(\cdot)\) a tangency curve. Equivalent and more convenient versions of the tangency condition for \(r_0\) and \(r_1\) are (see [22, Proposition 2.1] and [22, (3.10)]),

\[
\begin{align*}
  \sigma(t, r_0(t), L_0(t)) &= \int_0^{r_0(t)} \sigma(t, s, L_0(t)) ds + \frac{\gamma(n_A)}{r_0(t)}, & \xi_1(r_1(t)) &= -\gamma(n_A), i = 0, 1, \\
  \sigma(t, r_1(t), L_1(t)) &= \int_{r_1(t)}^{R_1(t)} \sigma(t, s, L_1(t)) ds - \frac{2\gamma(n_A)}{R_1(t) - r_1(t)}. 
\end{align*}
\]  

(2.19)

We note that here \(\xi\) is a solution to (2.6). An obvious modification is required for curves \(l_0, l_1\).

Let us notice that the definitions we adopted mean that the coordinate system \((r, d^R)\), \(i.e., (x_1, x_2)\) is positively oriented, while the orientation of \((l, d^A)\) \(i.e., (x_2, x_1)\) is negative, see Fig. 1. Thus, some care has to be exercised while replacing \(r_1\) \(resp. r_0\) with \(l_1\) \(resp. l_0\) in the statements of theorems here.

The coincidence set may be empty. However, we always demand that \(\Gamma(t)\) is a Lipschitz curve, thus the solutions to (2.17) must satisfy

\[
\begin{align*}
  d^R(t, r_1(t)) &= L_i(t), & d^A(t, l_i(t)) &= R_i(t), & i = 0, 1.
\end{align*}
\]  

(2.20)

We call (2.20) the matching condition, because \(R_i\) \(resp. L_i\) must match \(d^A\) \(resp. d^R\).

The tangency condition is not open. Thus, we expect in a typical case the interfacial curve will not satisfy it. On the other hand, (2.20) is more basic. Let us note
Proposition 2.1 (cf. [23, Proposition 3.3]) Let us suppose that \( \sigma \in C^1([0, T_x] \times \mathbb{R}^2) \) is given, it satisfies the Berg’s effect (1.3) and (1.4), \((\Gamma(t), \xi(t))_{t \in [0,T]}\) is a variational solution. We assume that \( d^R \) is such that \( r_0(t) < r_1(t) \). Moreover \( r_0(\cdot) \) and \( r_1(\cdot) \) are \( C^1 \) curves. In addition \( d^R(t, x) \) is a continuous piecewise \( C^1 \) function.

(a) If the tangency as well as matching conditions are satisfied at \( r_0(t) \) for all \( t \in [0, \varepsilon) \), then \( r_0(\cdot) \) is decreasing.

(b) If the tangency as well as matching conditions are satisfied at \( r_1(t) \) for all \( t \in [0, \varepsilon) \), then \( r_1(\cdot) \) is increasing.

We proved this in [23] for a special \( \beta \) rendering \( m \) identical to 1. However, the original proof is valid, after modifications, also for a general \( \beta \) as long as \( d(\cdot, x) \) (we suppress the superscript \( R \) or \( \Lambda \)) is a continuous piecewise \( C^1 \) function. We leave the details to the interested reader.

We would like to gather more information on the interfacial curves.

Proposition 2.2 Let us suppose that \((\Gamma(t), \xi(t))_{t \in [0,T]}\) is a variational solution to (1.1), \( \sigma \in C^1([0, T) \times \mathbb{R}^2) \). We also assume that for each \( t, \Gamma(t) \) is a regular bent rectangle and \( r_0 \) is the interfacial curve emanating from \( r_{00} \). Since \( \tilde{\Sigma}(0) - \sigma(0, r_{00}, L_0(0))m(d^+_0,\sigma, r_{00}) \neq 0 \), the tangency condition (2.19) does not hold at \( t = 0 \) and \( d^+_0,\sigma, r_{00} > 0 \), then \( r_0 \) is a matching curve and

\[
\dot{r}_0(t) = \frac{1}{d^+_x(t, r_0(t))}(\dot{L}_0(t) - \sigma(t, r_0(t), L_0(t))m(d^+_x(t, r_0(t)))).
\]

(2.21)

In particular, \( \sigma \dot{r}_0 = \text{sgn} \dot{L}_0(t) - \sigma(t, r_0(t)), L_0(t))m(d^+_x(t, r_0(t))). \) Moreover, the tangency condition (2.19) does not hold for \( t > 0 \).

(b) If the tangency condition (2.19) holds at \( t = 0 \), \( d_x(t, r_0(t)) = 0 \) and \( 0 > \Sigma^R_0 := \int_0^{r_{00}} \sigma_t(0, y, L_{00}) \, dy - \sigma_t(0, R_{00}, l_{00}) + \sigma(0, r_{00}, L_0) \left( \int_0^{r_{00}} \sigma_{x_2}(0, y, L_{00}) \, dy - \sigma_{x_2}(0, r_{00}, L_{00}) \right) \).

Then, the tangency condition holds for all \( t > 0 \) and

\[
\dot{r}_0(0) = \frac{\Sigma^R_0}{\sigma_{x_1}(0, r_{00}, L_{00})} < 0.
\]

(2.23)

Remark. In fact, \( \Sigma^R_0 \) is a function of \((t, r_0, L_0)\), here we are interested in the value of \( \Sigma^R_0 \) at \((0, r_{00}, L_{00})\). The notation \( \Sigma^R_0 \) was introduced in [22] and [23].

Proof. Our regularity assumptions permit us to take the time derivative of (2.20). Since \( d_t = \sigma m(d_x) \), we conclude

\[
d_x(t, r_0(t))\dot{r}_0(t) = (\dot{L}_0(t) - \sigma(t, r_0(t), L_0(t))m(d_x(t, r_0(t)))).
\]

(2.24)

If \( d^+_x(t, r_0(t)) > 0 \), then we obtain (2.21) as we claimed in (a).

Since \((\Gamma(t), \xi(t))_{t \in [0,T]}\) is a variational solution, then \( \xi(t, x) \in \partial \gamma(n) \). Let us suppose that for given \( t, L_0 \) the tangency condition holds at \( r_{TC}(t, L_0) \). If \( r_{00} < r_{TC}(0, L_{00}) \), then the central facet expands as much as possible, on \([0, T]\).
If \( r_{00} > r_{TC} \), then \([r_{TC}, r_{00}]\) is a subset of the coincidence set and the Hamilton-Jacobi equation (2.17) is considered not on \([r_0, r_1]\) but on its essential superset \([r_{TC}, r_1]\). If this is so, we have just Lipschitz continuous data, contrary to the regularity assumption.

Let us suppose now that the tangency condition holds for \( t = 0, r_0(t) \) exists and for all \( t \), we have \( d_x(t, r_0(t)) = 0 \). Then, the LHS of (2.24) vanishes. Hence, \( L_0 = \sigma m(0) \), i.e., the tangency condition holds for all \( t \geq 0 \). Then, after differentiating the tangency condition (2.19), we conclude that

\[
\dot{r}_0 = \frac{\Sigma_0^R}{\sigma_{x_1}} < 0,
\]

because Berg’s effect implies \( \sigma_{x_1} > 0 \) and we know that \( \Sigma_0^R < 0 \).

**Remark.** If \( r_{00} = r_{TC} \), then the tangency condition is satisfied. This situation is not generic and we do not consider it. However, if \( d_x(t, r_{00}) > 0 \), then (2.21) implies \( \dot{r}_0(0) < 0 \).

We note that \( \Sigma_0^R \) was introduced in (see [23, eq. (3.14)]) for the purpose of studying the sign of \( \dot{r}_0 \), when \( d_x^+(0, r_0(0)) = 0 \) and the character of the interfacial curve had to be determined. Here, we consider \( d_x^+(0, r_0(0)) = 0 \) only along the tangency condition.

The statement of the above proposition for \( l_0 \) requires trivial change of notation. The same type of analysis leads to a corresponding statement for \( r_1 \) (hence, respectively for \( l_1 \)). The proof is left to the interested reader.

**Proposition 2.3** Let us suppose that \((\Gamma(t), \xi(t))_{t \in [0, T]}\) is a variational solution to (1.1), \( \sigma \in C^1([0, T) \times \mathbb{R}^2) \). We also assume that for each \( t \), \( \Gamma(t) \) is a regular bent rectangle and \( r_1 \) is the interfacial curve emanating from \( r_{10} \).

(a) If \( \dot{L}_1(0) - \sigma(0, r_1(0), L_{10}) m(d_0^+(r_{10})) \neq 0 \), the tangency condition does not hold at \( r_{10} \) and \( d_0^+(r_{10}) > 0 \), then \( r_1 \) is a matching curve and

\[
\dot{r}_1(t) = \frac{1}{d_x(t, r_1(t))} (\dot{L}_1(t) - \sigma(t, r_1(t), L_1(t)) m(d_x^-(t, r_1(t)))) \quad (2.25)
\]

In particular \( sgn \dot{r}_1 = sgn (\dot{L}_1(t) - \sigma(t, L_1(t), r_1(t))) m(d_x^-(t, r_1(t))) \). The tangency condition does not hold \( r_1(t) \) for \( t > 0 \).

(b) If the tangency condition holds for \( t = 0 \) at \( r_{10} \), for all \( t \geq 0 \), then we have \( d_x(t, r_1(t)) = 0 \) and

\[
0 < \Sigma_1^R := \int_{r_{10}}^{R_1(0)} \sigma_l(0, y, L_{10}) \ dy - \sigma_l(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) + \sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) \left( \int_{r_{10}}^{R_1(0)} \sigma_{x_2}(0, y, L_{10}) \ dy - \sigma_{x_2}(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) \right) + \frac{\dot{R}_1(0)}{(R_1(0) - r_{10})} (\sigma(t, R_{10}, L_1(0)) - \dot{L}_1(0)),
\]

where

\[
\dot{L}_1(0) = \int_{r_{10}}^{R_{10}} \sigma(0, y, L_{10}) \ dy - \frac{2\gamma(n_m)}{R_{10} - r_{10}}, \quad \dot{R}_1(0) = \int_{r_{10}}^{R_{10}} \sigma(0, R_{10}, y) \ dy - \frac{2\gamma(n_m)}{L_{10} - l_{10}}.
\]

Then the tangency condition holds for all \( t > 0 \). 

\(\square\)
2.4 Hamilton-Jacobi equations

The localized problem (2.17) for each of the sides is a coupled system of an ODE with a nonlocal nonlinearity and a Hamilton-Jacobi equation in a non-cylindrical domain. Since there are no tailor made existence results of viscosity solutions for such problems, we will construct them with the help of the method of characteristics.

In order to streamline the statements of the theorems in this section, we will gather in one place below the common hypotheses and we will call them the standard set of assumptions:

(S1) (conditions on $\sigma$) We assume that $\sigma$ is of class $C^2$ and it satisfies the symmetry relation $(1.4)$ and Berg’s effect $(1.3)$;

(S2) (conditions on $m$ i.e., $\beta$) the mobility coefficient $m$ satisfies the assumptions $(2.12–2.16)$;

(S3) (conditions on the initial curve) $d_0^\Lambda, d_0^R$ is an admissible pair of functions, which are of class $C^2$ on the closure of complement of the preimages of the facets.

We will collectively call (S1), (S2) and (S3) by (S). We also note that (S3) is a repetition of Definition 2.1 of a regular bent rectangle from subsection 2.1.

Proposition 2.4 Let us suppose that the standard assumptions (S) hold and $r_{00} \leq \rho_0 < \rho_1 \leq r_{10}$. Then, there is $T > 0$ and a unique $C^2$ solution $d$ to

$$
\begin{align*}
    d_t - \sigma(t, x, d) m(d_x) &= 0 \quad \text{in } G(\rho_0, \rho_1), \\
    d(0, x) &= d_0(x) \quad \text{for } x \in [\rho_0, \rho_1],
\end{align*}
$$

(2.26)

where

$$
G(\rho_0, \rho_1) = \{(t, x) \in (0, T) \times \mathbb{R} : x(t, \rho_0) \leq x \leq x(t, \rho_1)\}
$$

and $x(t, \rho_i)$ is the projected characteristic curve starting at $(0, \rho_i), i = 0, 1$, (see (2.27) below).

Moreover, if $\text{Lip}(d_0) =: \rho_0 < 1$, then:

(a) there is a positive $T_0$, such that for all $t \in (0, T_0)$, we have $\text{Lip}(d(t, \cdot)) \leq 1$ and $\text{Lip}(d(\cdot, x)) \leq M := m(1) \text{sup } \sigma \text{ in } G(\rho_0, \rho_1)$;

(b) if $\inf_{x \in (\rho_0, \rho_1)} d_{0,x}^+(x) = \delta > 0$, then for all $(t, x), (t, y) \in G(\rho_0, \rho_1)$, we have $d(t, y) - d(t, x) \geq \delta(y - x)$;

(c) Let us suppose that $d_{01}, d_{02}$ are two pieces of initial data as above, satisfying $(d_{01} - d_{02})|_{\rho_0, \rho_1} \equiv 0$ and $d_1, d_2$ are the corresponding solutions to the characteristic system (2.27), associated to (2.26). Then, for any $t < T_0$, such that $\rho_1 - \mu t > \rho_0$ we have

$$(d_1 - d_2)|_{[0,t] \times [\lambda_0, \lambda_1 - \mu t]} \equiv 0,$$

where $\mu = \sup_{\sigma} \sigma \cdot \sup m_{\rho}.$

Remark 2.1 The projected characteristic $x$ depends not only on the initial position $\zeta$, but also on $\rho_0$. It is understood that $x(\cdot, \zeta)$ means $x(\cdot, \zeta, d_{0,x}(\zeta))$. If this is not the case we will explicitly write $x(\cdot, \zeta, \rho_0)$.
Proof. The existence of $C^2$ solution $d$ follows immediately from solving the characteristics system,

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{x} &= -\sigma(t, x, d)m_p(p), \\
\dot{p} &= (\sigma_{x_1}(t, x, d) + \sigma_{x_2}(t, x, d)p)m(p), \\
d &= \sigma(t, x, d)\left(m(p) - m_p(p)p\right),
\end{align*}
\]

(2.27)

The uniqueness is implied by the local Lipschitz continuity of the RHS of (2.27). For the method of characteristics to work, the assumed high regularity is indispensable.

Parts (a) – (c) were proved for (2.26) in $(0, T) \times \mathbb{R}$ instead of $G(\rho_0, \rho_1)$ in [16, Theorem 3.1], however the argument needs no changes.

In principle, existence of classical solutions to Hamilton-Jacobi equation in noncylindrical domains is not immediate. The question is not only whether or not the curve $r_0$ is non-characteristic, but rather if the characteristics emanate from $r_0$. Otherwise we cannot specify data on it.

Both curves $r_0(\cdot)$ and $x(\cdot, r_0(t_0))$, the characteristic from $(t_0, r_0(t_0))$, are in the $(t, x)$ phase space. We notice that $x(\cdot, r_0(t_0))$ goes into $\{(t, x) \in [0, T) \times \mathbb{R} : r_0(t) \leq x\}$, for sufficiently small $t_0 > 0$, provided that

\[
\dot{r}_0(t) < \dot{x}(t, r_{00}, 0)
\]

(2.29)

at $t = 0$. After restricting $T > 0$, if necessary, by the continuity of both sides of (2.29), this inequality will hold for all $t \in [0, T]$. If $r_0$ is a tangency curve, then by (2.23), we have $\dot{r}_0 = \Sigma^R/\sigma_{x_1}$. The tangency condition implies that the vertical speeds of $L_0(\cdot)$ and of $d(\cdot, r_0(\cdot))$ are equal, provided that $d_x(t, r_0(t)) = 0$. This is why, (2.27) implies that $\dot{x}(t, r_0(t)) = -\sigma(t, r_0(t), L_0(t))m_p(0)$. Thus, (2.29) is equivalent to

\[
\Sigma_0^R(t, r_0(t), L_0(t)) + \frac{1}{2}\sigma_{x_1}(t, r_0(t))\sigma(t, r_0(t), L_0(t)) < 0 \quad \text{for } t \in (0, T).
\]

(2.30)

Corollary 2.1 The interfacial curve $r_0$ is non-characteristic, provided that (2.30) holds. □

Proposition 2.5 Let us suppose that (S) is satisfied, $r_0$ is a non-characteristic tangency curve, i.e., (2.30) holds and

\[
G(r_0, x(\rho_1)) = \{(t, x) : r_0(t) \leq x \leq x(\rho_1)\}.
\]

We consider (2.26) in $G(r_0, x(\rho_1))$ augmented with the initial condition $d(0, x) = d_0(x)$ and a boundary data $d(t, r_0(t)) = L_0(t)$, where $L_0$ is of class $C^2$. Then, there exists $d$, a unique $C^2$ solution to (2.26) in $G(r_0, x(\rho_1))$. In particular, $d^+_0(t, r_0(t)) = 0$.

Remark 2.2 In [16], we did not introduce (2.30), because after mollification of $m$ at all points of the tangency curve the characteristics shoot vertically upward. However, this does not hold in the limit. This aspect was overlooked in [16]. However, [16, Theorem 4.1 and Theorem 4.2] are valid if (2.30) holds.

Proof. We use the method of characteristics, i.e., we will solve (2.27, 2.28). We immediately obtain solution to the Hamilton-Jacobi equation in $G(x(r_{00}), x(\rho_1))$. In order
to solve the Hamilton-Jacobi equation in \( G(r_0, x(r_{00})) \), we have to specify \( d \) and \( p \) on \((t, r_0(t))\). We set \( d(t, r_0(t)) = L_0(t) \) and \( p(t, r_0(t)) = 0 \). We do so, because we want to have \( d_x(t, r_0(t)) = 0 \).

The continuous dependence of solutions on initial data implies that \( d \) is of class \( C^2 \) in \( G(r_0, x(\rho_1)) \).

\[ \square \]

3 Evolution of bent rectangles

Let us highlight the aspects of the problem. In principle, at each interfacial curve we have the following possibilities:
1) the sign of the interfacial velocity is either positive or negative;
2) the tangency condition either holds or is violated;
3) the one-sided derivative of \( d_R \) or \( d_\Lambda \) at the interfacial curve is zero or positive.

In principle, we would have to study eight possibilities of behavior of each of the interfaces. However, we consider here the regular cases of shrinking or expanding facets. These are:

a) The one-sided derivative of \( d \) at the end of the facet is positive, the facet shrinks or expands and the tangency condition is violated. This situation is typical, because it persists under small perturbations.
b) The facet shrinks, \( d_x \) and the tangency condition holds along the interfacial curve. In this case, we also have \( d \in C^2 \) in a neighborhood of the interface. This situation is not typical, but it is important because it appears at the onset of facet bending.

The central facet expands, when \( \dot{r}_0(t) > 0 \) for \( t \geq 0 \), then the tangency does not hold at \( t = 0 \), when \( d_x(0, r_{00}) > 0 \). On the other hand, when this facet shrinks, then the tangency condition must hold for all \( t \geq 0 \), provided that \( d_x(t, r_0(t)) = 0 \). This is backed by our uniqueness theorem. We studied these two situations in [16] for \( r_0 \) (resp. \( l_0 \)). It may also happen that \( d_x^+(t, r_0(t)) > 0 \), the facet shrinks or expands and the tangency condition does not hold.

It turns out that geometrically the case of \( r_1 \) (resp. \( l_1 \)) is much different, see 3.2.2 below. We do not any have tool to treat it in full generality, yet. This is why, we restrict our attention to regular cases.

\[ \begin{align*}
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Fig. 2} \\
\text{two types of matching curves} \\
\text{tangency curve}
\end{array}
\end{align*} \]

We notice that, formally, system (2.17) decouples into three subsystems: two ‘central facets’ (this is a shorthand for systems for (i) \( r_0, L_0 \) and \( d^R \), (2.17_{1,2}) (ii) a system for \( l_0, R_0 \) and \( d^\Lambda \), (2.17_{4,5})) and the ‘corner system’ i.e., a system for \( R_1, l_1, L_1, r_1 \) and \( d^\Lambda, d^R \). Formally, this is obvious, because equation (2.17_{2,3,5,6}) does not contain any unknown
from the remaining system, as long as \( r_0(t) < r_1(t) \) and \( l_0(t) < l_1(t) \). The last condition is valid at least for some time provided that the interfacial curves are continuous.

When the central facet shrinks, then we have to solve the Hamilton-Jacobi equation (2.17) in a non-cylindrical domain. In order to do so, we have to make sure that we can specify the boundary data on the tangency curve \( r_0 \), this is why \( \dot{r}_0 < \dot{x} \) or condition (2.30), see the right picture on Fig. 2, is necessary. There is no such problem on \( r_1 \) if \( \dot{r}_1 > 0 \) and it is a tangency curve. This is so, because we always have \( \dot{x} < 0 \), see the right picture on Fig. 3.

The matching curves behave differently. If the central facet expands, then the characteristics, which turn left impinge upon the facet, then we have a shock wave, see the left picture on Fig. 2. In [16], we succeeded in showing uniqueness of the matching curves not only if \( d_x^+(t, r_0(t)) > 0 \), but also a unique selection of interfacial curves in case \( d_x^+(t, r_0(t)) = 0 \). This is outside of the scope of this paper.

The case of the expanding outer facet, when \( \dot{r}_1 < 0 \) is more intriguing. The matching condition will specify the position of a curve provided \( d \) is known in the region bounded by \( r_1 \). This happens if \( \dot{r}_1 < \dot{x} \), see condition (3.5). Otherwise we there is a rarefaction wave between \( x(r_{10}) \), the characteristic emanating from \( r_{10} \), and \( r_1 \). We do not have right tools to study these phenomena.

We stress that in our considerations, the corner is defined as the point of intersection of the outer facets. In principle, we should evolve it by (1.1). We might say that this situation is similar to the rarefaction fan mentioned for the matching curve emanating from \( r_{10} \). Under certain conditions, we can however, show that the evolution taken here is correct, this will be reported elsewhere.

The systems for central facets are first studied provided that \( l_{00} < l_{10} \) and \( r_{00} < r_{10} \). Systems (i) and (ii) above are similar, it is sufficient to study just one on them. If \( l_{00} = l_{10} \) or \( r_{00} = r_{10} \), then we are forced to make further consideration, see subsection 3.4.

We have already learned what are the component of these systems: Propositions 2.2 and 2.3 give us tools to detect the type of curve emanating from an interfacial point.

![Fig. 3](image-url)

### 3.1 The central facet system

Since both central facet systems have the same structure, it is sufficient to consider just one of them. The point is to study possible behavior of the interfacial curves.

Let us now turn to the problem of existence of tangency curves. Their names come from the fact that the tangency condition (2.19) holds along them. More importantly, the structure of (2.19) suggests that the Implicit Function Theorem can be used to construct
them. Simultaneously, we will solve the equation for the evolution of the central facet. Only after that, we are in a position to construct $d$ with initial data on the tangency curves.

**Proposition 3.1** Let us assume that $\Sigma_0^R < 0$ and the tangency condition is satisfied at $t = 0$, $L_0 = L_{00}$ and $x = r_{00}$, i.e.,

$$
\frac{1}{r_{00}(t)} \int_0^{r_{00}(t)} \sigma(s, L_0(t)) \, ds + \frac{\gamma(n_A)}{r_{00}(t)} = \sigma(0, r_{00}, L_{00}),
$$

holds, see (2.19). If (S) holds, then there exists $(r_0, L_0) \in C^2([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^2)$ a unique local in time solution to the following problem,

$$
\frac{1}{r_0(t)} \int_0^{r_0(t)} \sigma(t, s, L_0(t)) \, ds + \frac{\gamma(n_A)}{r_0(t)} = \sigma(t, r_0(t), L_0(t)),
$$

$$
\beta_R \dot{L}_0(t) = \frac{1}{r_0(t)} \int_0^{r_0(t)} \sigma(t, s, L_0(t)) \, ds + \frac{\gamma(n_A)}{r_l(t)},
$$

where $L_0(0) = L_{00}$, $r_0(0) = r_{00}$.

In addition, $\dot{r}_0$ is given by (2.23), i.e.,

$$
\dot{r}_0(t) = \frac{1}{\sigma_x(t, r_0(t), L_0(t))} \int_0^{r_0(t)} (\sigma_x(t, y, L_0(t)) + \sigma_x(t, y, L_0(t)) \dot{L}_0(t)) \, dy
$$

$$
- \frac{1}{\sigma_x(t, r_0(t), L_0(t))} (\sigma(t, r_0(t), L_0(t)) + \sigma_x(t, r_0(t), L_0(t)) \dot{L}_0(t)),
$$

where

$$
\dot{L}_0 = \sigma(t, r_0(t), L_0(t))/\beta_R.
$$

**Proof.** We start with preparations for the Implicit Function Theorem. We define a map $F : \mathbb{R}_+^3 \to \mathbb{R}$ by the following formula

$$
F(t, r_0, L_0) = \int_0^{r_0} \sigma(t, s, L_0) \, ds + \gamma(n_A) - r_0 \sigma(t, r_0, L_0).
$$

We notice that $F(0, r_{00}, L_{00}) = 0$ and

$$
\frac{\partial F}{\partial r_0}(0, r_{00}, L_{00}) = -r_{00} \sigma_x(0, r_{00}, L_{00}) < 0,
$$

where the last inequality is implied by the Berg’s effect (1.3). Thus, we may apply the Implicit Function Theorem. As a result, there exists $U$, a neighborhood of $(0, L_{00})$, and a function $r_0 = r_0(t, L_0)$ such that

$$
F(t, r_0, L_0(t, L_0)) = 0 \quad \text{for } (t, L_0) \in U.
$$

Moreover, we can rewrite the equation for $L_0$ as an ODE

$$
\dot{L}_0 = \sigma(t, r_0(t, L_0), L_0), \quad L_0(0) = L_{00}.
$$

In order to prove existence and uniqueness of solutions, it is sufficient to check that the right hand side of the above formula is Lipschitz continuous with respect to $L_0$. Indeed, it is easy to check that

$$
\frac{\partial r_0}{\partial L_0} = \frac{\int_0^{r_0} \sigma_x(t, s, L_0) \, ds - r_0 \sigma_x(t, r_0, R_0)}{r_0 \sigma_x(t, R_0, L_0)}
$$

(3.2)
is bounded. Thus, by the standard ODE theory, we conclude the proof of the present Proposition.

This result yields the interfacial curve $r_0$ as well as the position of the central facet $L_0$. Time regularity of $r_0$ and $L_0$ correspond to the smoothness of the data.

We state the main results of this subsection.

**Theorem 3.1** Let us suppose that the standard set of assumptions (S) is satisfied. If $d_{0x}(r_{00}) = 0$, the tangency condition (2.19) holds and the tangency curve is non-characteristic, i.e., (2.30) is satisfied, then there exists a unique solution $L_0, d$ to problem (2.171)–(2.172).

**Theorem 3.2** Let us suppose that standard set of assumptions (S) is satisfied. If $\dot{L}_0(0) - \sigma(0, r_{00}, L_{00})m(d_{0x}(r_{00}^-)) \neq 0$, the tangency condition does not hold and $d_{0x}(r_{00}^+) > 0$, then there exists a unique matching curve $r_0$ and a unique solution $L_0, d$ to problem (2.171)–(2.172).

**Remarks.**

Of course, a similar condition holds, after replacing $r_0(\cdot)$ (resp. $L_0(\cdot)$) with $l_0(\cdot)$ (resp. $R_0(\cdot)$).

Condition (2.30) is stronger than $\Sigma_0^R < 0$. We will leave the gap between conditions (2.30) and $\Sigma_0^R < 0$ open.

**Proof of Theorem 3.1.** Since the tangency condition holds, then due to Proposition 3.1, we can construct a unique $C^2$ tangency curve $r_0(\cdot)$. Condition (2.30) is open and it will be satisfied for all $t \in [0, T)$, possibly after restricting $T > 0$. This guarantees that the characteristics will emanate from $r_0(\cdot)$. Hence, we may set initial conditions on this curve for the Hamilton-Jacobi equation (2.172). We apply Proposition 2.5, note that the $C^2$ regularity of $\sigma$ yields $r_0$ of class $C^2$. This is of course true, if we solve (2.27)–(2.28) with $p(0, \zeta) = 0$. By Proposition 2.5, we obtain a unique solution to (2.171,2) in $G(r_0, x(r_{10}))$.

Now, we will offer a proof of Theorem 3.2. Due to our smoothness assumption (S) Proposition 2.4 yields $d$ of class $C^2$ in $G(x(r_{00}), x(r_{10}))$, we may apply the method of characteristics to solve (2.171–2.172) for $d$. We note that by Proposition 2.4 (a) we have $|d_x| \leq 1$ and $d_x(t, x) > \delta$ on $[0, T_0]$. Once we constructed $d$ we can invoke [16, Theorem 4.2] to conclude existence of a unique matching curve $r_0$. This is true when the facet expands, i.e., $\dot{L}_0 - \sigma m(d_x) > 0$, however, we have also the case of shrinking facet to handle. In this situation, we have to check, if the interface is in the region filled with characteristics of the Hamilton-Jacobi equation (2.172). This happens provided that $\dot{r}_0 < \dot{x}(r_{00}) < 0$. This is equivalent to

$$\sigma(0, r_0, L_0)(m(d_x) - m_p(d_x)d_x) < \dot{L}_0. \tag{3.3}$$

Convexity of $m$ for $|p| \leq 1$ implies that

$$m(d_x) - m_p(d_x)d_x = d_x \int_0^1 (m_p(sd_x) - m_p(d_x))ds < 0,$$

as long as $m_p \neq 0$. On the other hand $\dot{L}_0 > 0$, hence (3.3) is trivially satisfied. The point is, [16, Theorem 4.2] keeps holding also if the matching curve $r_0$ shrinks.

Hence, system (2.171–2.173) closes and we can uniquely solve for $L_0$ on $[0, T_0]$. □
3.2 The corner system

We present a general existence result for regular data. We are left with just three basic cases:

(a) two tangency curves emanate from \( r_{10} \) and \( l_{10} \); (\( \beta \)) two matching curves emanate from \( r_{10} \) and \( l_{10} \); (\( \gamma \)) a tangency curve (resp. a matching curve) emanates from \( r_{10} \) and a matching curve (resp. a tangency curve) emanates from \( l_{10} \). Analysis of these cases is the content of the next theorem. Its proof is conducted so that it will be easy to use it when we study the evolution of the corner itself.

**Theorem 3.3** Let us suppose that \( (S) \) holds and the assumptions of Theorems 3.1 of 3.2 are fulfilled.

(a) If \( \Sigma^L_1 > 0, \Sigma^R_1 > 0 \) and the tangency conditions are satisfied at \( l_{10}, r_{10} \) as well as \( d_{0,x}(l_{10}) = d_{0,x}^R(r_{10}) \), then there are two tangency curves \( l_1(\cdot), r_1(\cdot) \), and a unique solution \((d^L, R_1, L_1, d^R)\) to the system (2.17,3,5,6).

(b) We assume that \( \Sigma^R_1 > 0 \), the tangency condition is satisfied at \( r_{10} \), as well as \( d_{0,x}^R(r_{10}) = 0 \). The tangency condition does not hold at \( l_{10} \), \( \hat{L}_1(0) - \sigma(0, R_{10}, l_{10})m(d_{0,x}^L(l_{10})) \neq 0 \) and \( p_0 := d_{0,x}^L(l_{10}) > 0 \). In addition, we need that the following relation be satisfied,

\[
m(p_0)\sigma(t, d_0, l_{10}) - \frac{m(0)}{L_{10} - l_{10}} \left( \int_{l_{10}}^{L_{10}} \sigma(t, R_{10}, s) \, ds - 2\gamma(n_R) \right) < -p_0 m_p(p_0)\sigma(t, R_{10}, l_{10})
\]

Then, there is a tangency \( r_1(\cdot) \), and a matching curve \( l_1(\cdot) \), and a solution \((d^L, R_1, L_1, d^R)\) to the system (2.17,3,5,6). A similar statements is valid if we change the roles of \( r_1 \) and \( l_1 \).

(c) Let us suppose that \( d_{0,x}^R(r_{10}), m(d_{0,x}^L(l_{10})) > 0 \),

\[
\hat{R}_1(0) - \sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10})m(d_{0,x}^R(r_{10})) \neq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{L}_1(0) - \sigma(0, R_{10}, l_{10})m(d_{0,x}^L(l_{10})) \neq 0,
\]

the tangency conditions do not hold neither at \( l_{10} \) nor at \( r_{10} \). If in addition (3.5) and

\[
m(p_0)\sigma(t, r_{10}, d_0) - \frac{m(0)}{R_{10} - r_{10}} \left( \int_{r_{10}}^{R_{10}} \sigma(t, s, L_{10}) \, ds - 2\gamma(n_L) \right) < -p_0 m_p(p_0)\sigma(t, r_{10}, L_{10})
\]

are satisfied, then there are two matching curves \( l_1(\cdot), r_1(\cdot) \) and a solution \((d^L, R_1, L_1, d^R)\) to the system (2.172,2.175).

The role of the strange looking conditions (3.5), (3.4) guaranteeing existence of the matching curves will be explained in subsection 3.2.2

Having this result at hand, we can show:

**Theorem 3.4** Let us suppose that, the standard set of assumptions \((S)\) holds, in particular the initial curve \( \Gamma_0 \) is a regular bent rectangle and \( l_{00} < l_{10}, r_{00} < r_{10} \). We assume that the initial data fulfill conditions (a) and (b) below:

(a) One of the following conditions holds at the interface \( r_{00} \):

(i) \( d_{0,x}(r_{00}) = 0, \Sigma^R_0 < 0 \), the tangency condition holds at \( r_{00} \) and (2.30) is satisfied or
(ii) \( \dot{L}_0 - \sigma(0, r_{00}, L_{00}) m(d_{0,x}^+(r_{00})) \neq 0 \), the tangency condition is violated at \( r_{00} \) and \( d_{0,x}^+(r_{00}) > 0 \).

Moreover, a respective version of (i) and (ii) holds for \( l_{00} \).

(b) One of the following conditions hold at the interface \( r_{10} \):

(iii) \( d_{0,x}(r_{10}) = 0 \), \( \Sigma_1^R > 0 \), the tangency condition holds at \( r_{10} \) and a condition corresponding to (2.30) for \( r_{10} \), i.e.,

or

(iv) \( \dot{L}_1 - \sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) m(d_{0,x}^-(r_{10})) \neq 0 \), the tangency condition is violated at \( r_{10} \) and \( d_{0,x}^-(r_{10}) > 0 \).

Moreover, a respective version of (iii) and (iv) holds for \( l_{10} \).

Then, there is a solution, i.e., \((d^A, d^R, L_0, L_1, R_0, R_1)\) to the system (2.17). In addition, if conditions (i) for \( l_{00} \) and \( r_{00} \), (iii) for \( l_{10} \) and \( r_{10} \) are satisfied, then \( d^A, d^R \in C^2 \).

For the sake of clarity of the presentation the proof will be relegated to separated paragraphs.

3.2.1 The case of two tangency curves

Proof of Theorem 3.3, part (a). We shall show more a general result. Namely, we allow the right hand end of the facet to be governed by a given unspecified law. This will be useful later, when we decide to study evolution of the corner itself, e.g., its rounding off.

Lemma 3.1 Let \( L_2, R_2 \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^4; \mathbb{R}) \) and we introduce a shorthand for their value at \((R_{10}, L_{10}, r_{10}, l_{10})\), i.e., \( L_{20} = L_2(R_{10}, L_{10}, r_{10}, l_{10}) \) and \( R_{20} = R_2(R_{10}, L_{10}, r_{10}, l_{10}) \). Let us assume that the tangency conditions are satisfied at \( R_{10}, r_{10}, L_{10} \) and \( l_{10} \), i.e.,

\[
\sigma(0, R_{10}, l_{10}) = \frac{1}{L_{20} - l_{10}} \int_{l_{10}}^{L_{20}} \sigma(0, R_{10}, s) \, ds - \frac{2\gamma(n_R)}{L_{20} - l_{10}},
\]

\[
\sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) = \frac{1}{R_{20} - r_{10}} \int_{r_{10}}^{R_{20}} \sigma(0, s, L_{10}) \, ds - \frac{2\gamma(n_A)}{R_{20} - r_{10}}.
\]

In addition, we have

\[
(\sigma(0, R_{10}, l_{10}) - \sigma(0, R_{10}, L_{20})) \frac{\partial L_2}{\partial y_3} \bigg|_{y_3=r_{10}} \left( (L_{20} - l_{10}) \sigma_x(0, R_{10}, L_{20}) + (\sigma(0, R_{10}, l_{10}) - \sigma(0, R_{10}, L_{20})) \frac{\partial L_2}{\partial y_4} \bigg|_{y_4=l_{10}} \right) \neq 0
\]

\[
\left( (L_{20} - l_{10}) \sigma_x(0, R_{10}, L_{20}) + (\sigma(0, R_{10}, l_{10}) - \sigma(0, R_{10}, L_{20})) \frac{\partial L_2}{\partial y_4} \bigg|_{y_4=l_{10}} \right) \cdot (3.6)
\]

\[
\left( (R_{20} - r_{10}) \sigma_x(0, r_{10}, l_{10}) + (\sigma(0, r_{10}, l_{10}) - \sigma(0, R_{20}, L_{10})) \frac{\partial R_2}{\partial y_3} \bigg|_{y_3=r_{10}} \right).
\]
Then, there exists a unique local in time solution to the problem:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{R}_1 &= \frac{1}{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - l_1} \left( \int_{l_1}^{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, R_1(t), s) \, ds - 2\gamma(n_R) \right), \\
\sigma(t, R_1(t), l_1(t)) &= \frac{1}{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - l_1} \left( \int_{l_1}^{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, R_1(t), s) \, ds - 2\gamma(n_R) \right), \\
\dot{L}_1 &= \frac{1}{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - r_1} \left( \int_{r_1}^{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, s, L_1(t)) \, ds - 2\gamma(n_A) \right), \\
\sigma(t, r_1(t), L_1(t)) &= \frac{1}{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - r_1} \left( \int_{r_1}^{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, s, L_1(t)) \, ds - 2\gamma(n_A) \right), \\
R_1(0) &= R_{10}, \quad L_1(0) = L_{10}, \quad r_1(0) = r_{10}, \quad l_1(0) = l_{10}.
\end{align*}
\]

**Remark 3.1** If the position of the corners is determined by the intersection of the outer facets, then \( L_2 = L_1 \) and \( R_2 = R_1 \). Hence, condition (3.6) takes the following form

\[
(L_{10} - l_{10})(R_{10} - r_{10})\sigma_{x_2}(0, R_{10}, L_{10})\sigma_{x_1}(0, r_{10}, l_{10}) \neq 0.
\]

It is always satisfied since \( L_{10} > l_{10} \) and \( R_{10} > r_{10} \).

**Proof.** We notice that (3.7) are functional, not differential equations. Thus, in order to determine \( r_1 \) and \( l_1 \), we will use the Implicit Function Theorem. For that purpose, we define the map \( \mathcal{J} : \mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2 \) as follows:

\[
\mathcal{J}(t, R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) = \\
\begin{align*}
\left( \sigma(t, R_1, l_1)(L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - l_1) - \int_{l_1}^{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, s, R_1(s)) \, ds + 2\gamma(n_R) \right), \\
\sigma(t, r_1, L_1)(R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - r_1) - \int_{r_1}^{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, s, L_1(s)) \, ds + 2\gamma(n_A) \right).
\end{align*}
\]

By straightforward calculation, we obtain

\[
D_{r_1, l_1} \mathcal{J}(0, R_{10}, L_{10}, r_{10}, l_{10}) = \begin{pmatrix} j_{11} & j_{12} \\ j_{21} & j_{22} \end{pmatrix},
\]

where

\[
\begin{align*}
j_{11} &= \sigma(0, R_{10}, l_{10}) - \sigma(0, R_{10}, L_{20})) \left. \frac{\partial L_2}{\partial y_3} \right|_{y_3 = r_{10}}, \\
j_{12} &= (L_{20} - l_{10})\sigma_{z}(0, R_{10}, L_{10}) + (\sigma(0, R_{10}, l_{10}) - \sigma(0, R_{10}, L_{20})) \left. \frac{\partial L_2}{\partial y_4} \right|_{y_4 = l_{10}}, \\
j_{21} &= (R_{20} - r_{10})\sigma_{y}(0, r_{10}, l_{10}) + (\sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) - \sigma(0, R_{20}, L_{10})) \left. \frac{\partial R_2}{\partial y_3} \right|_{y_3 = r_{10}}, \\
j_{22} &= (\sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) - \sigma(0, R_{20}, L_{10})) \left. \frac{\partial R_2}{\partial y_4} \right|_{y_4 = l_{10}}.
\end{align*}
\]

By (3.6) the map \( D_{r_1, l_1} \mathcal{J}(0, R_{10}, L_{10}, r_{10}, l_{10}) \) is an isomorphism and we can apply implicit function theorem. Therefore, there exists a neighborhood of \((0, R_{10}, L_{10})\) and functions

\[
r_1 = r_1(t, R_1, L_1), \quad l_1 = l_1(t, R_1, L_1)
\]
such that

\[ \mathcal{J}(t, R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) = 0. \]

Moreover, we can rewrite the equation for \( R_1 \) and \( L_1 \), as follows

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{R}_1 &= \sigma(t, R_1, l_1(t, R_1, L_1), \quad R_1(0) = R_{10}, \\
\dot{L}_1 &= \sigma(t, r_1(t, R_1, L_1), L_1(0) = L_{10}.
\end{align*}
\]

The right hand side of the above equation is Lipschitz continuous with respect to \( R_1 \) and \( L_1 \).

**Remark 3.2** Let us consider the flat initial data such that \( l_{00} = l_{10} \) or \( r_{00} = r_{10} \). A scrutiny of the proofs of Lemma 3.1 and Proposition 3.1 reveals that the two tangency curves \( r_0 \) and \( r_1 \) (respectively, \( l_0 \) and \( l_1 \)) may be constructed by the Implicit Function Theorem. The coalescence \( r_{00} = r_{10} \) does not interfere with its applicability.

We proceed with a proof of Theorem 3.3 (a). We use Lemma 3.1 when \( L_2 = L_1 \), \( R_2 = R_1 \). By Remark 3.1 condition (3.6) is satisfied, then we obtain two tangency curves \( l_1 \) and \( r_1 \). By Proposition 2.4 we can solve (2.17) in \( G(l_0, l_1) \) (resp. in \( G(r_0, r_1) \)) and the solution \( d^L \) (resp. \( d^R \)) is of class \( C^2 \).

Moreover, Theorem 3.1 or Theorem 3.2 yield interfacial curves \( l_0 \) and \( r_0 \). In addition, if necessary, we invoke Proposition 2.5 to construct \( d^L \) over the tangency curves \( r_0 \) or \( l_0 \).

### 3.2.2 Analysis of a single interfacial curve starting at \( r_{10} \)

When we study the outer facet, we take into account positions and behavior of both of its endpoints. It is not quite appropriate to talk about shrinking nor expanding solely upon the position of the endpoints. What really matters is the vertical speed of \( d \) to the left and right of the interfacial point \( r_{10} \), i.e., \( L_1 \) and \( d_t \). We notice that if \( d_t > L_1 \), then the curved part collides with a slower outer facet, hence \( \dot{r}_1 < 0 \) and the facet slows down even more. On the other hand, if \( d_t < L_1 \), then the facet is rapidly advancing, it leaves the curved part behind, i.e., \( \dot{r}_1 > 0 \). The case \( d_t = L_1 \) corresponds to the tangency curve, provided that \( d_x(t, r_1(t)) = 0 \).

These considerations give an interpretation to the following calculations, which are rigorous, if we take into account the smoothness of solutions, we are interested in. Taking the time derivative of the matching condition (2.20) yields

\[
\dot{L}_1(t) = d_t(t, r_1(t)) + d_x^-(t, r_1(t))\dot{r}_1(t). \tag{3.8}
\]

Since the case of a tangency curve has already been studied, we subsequently assume that \( d_x^-(t, r_1(t)) > 0 \). We have two obvious situations to consider:

\[
\begin{align*}
&d_t = m(d_{0,x})\sigma > \dot{L}_1 \iff \dot{r}_1 < 0, \quad \tag{3.9} \\
&d_t = m(d_{0,x})\sigma < \dot{L}_1 \iff \dot{r}_1 > 0. \quad \tag{3.10}
\end{align*}
\]

Let us look more closely at (3.10). We know how to proceed if the interface \( r_1 \) is a tangency curve.

On the other hand, if \( r_1 \) is not a tangency curve, we notice that the characteristics, always turn left, \( \dot{x}(t, p) < 0 \) see (2.27). Thus, a rarefaction region forms. This situation is much similar to the problem of the corner evolution. It will be studied elsewhere.
When $\dot{r}_1 < 0$, then we can expect only a matching curve. However, each curve emanating from $r_{10}$ (or from $l_{10}$) are distinctively different from matching curve $r_0$ (or $l_0$), see the left pictures on Figures 2 and 3. The former one is the result of the collision of the central facet with the characteristics of the Hamilton-Jacobi equation (2.17_2). This is so, because the characteristics run against the facet. This is no longer true for curves at $r_{10}$, they turn away from the outer facet and in principle a rarefaction region may form again. Indeed, if $\dot{x}(0, d_x(0, r_{10})) < \dot{r}_1(0) < 0$, then a rarefaction region forms. We will not deal with it. If, \[
\dot{x}(t, d_x(t, r_{10})) > \dot{r}_1(t),
\] at $t = 0$, then the interface collides with the slower characteristics. We notice that, if we recall that $\dot{x}(0, d_x(0, r_{10})) = -m_p(d_x(0, r_{10}))\sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10})$, then (3.11) is nothing but (3.5).

Indeed, if (3.11) holds, then we can construct a matching curve.

**Proposition 3.2** Let us suppose that $R_1$ is a given Lipschitz continuous function and $d_{0,x}^{-}(r_{10}) > 0$. If (3.9) is satisfied, i.e., \[
\dot{r}_1(0) = \frac{1}{d_{0,x}^{-}(r_{10})}(m(d_{0,x}^{-}(r_{10}))\sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) - \dot{L}_1(0)) < 0
\] and (3.11) holds, then there is a unique solution to
\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{r}_1 &= \frac{1}{dx} \left( \sigma m - \frac{m(0)}{R_1 - r_1} \int_{r_1}^{R_1} \sigma ds - \frac{m(n_L)}{R_1 - r_1} \right) =: f(r_1, t),
\end{align*}
\]
(3.12)

Let us also observe that since $f$ depends in a Lipschitz continuous way upon $R_1$, we conclude that,

**Proposition 3.3** Let us suppose that Lipschitz continuous $R_1$ and $R_2$ are given, then there exists $\Lambda > 0$ such that
\[
\|r_1(R_1) - r_1(R_2)\|_{C^0} \leq \Lambda \|R_1 - R_2\|_{C^0}.
\]

**Proof.** This is an immediate consequence of the Lipschitz dependence of the fixed point upon the parameter, provided that $F$ is Lipschitz with respect to $R$, which is indeed the case.

Now, we will present a proof of Proposition 3.2. Having assumed regular data, we can invoke Proposition 2.4 to claim existence of solutions to (2.17_2) in $G(x(r_{00}), x(r_{10}))$. Due to Proposition 2.4 (b), we know that $d_x(t, x) > 0$ there.

Due to continuity of $f$ there is a neighborhood of $(r_{10}, L_1(0), d_{0,x}(r_{10}))$ of the form \[
(r_{10} - \eta, r_{10} + \eta) \times (L_1(0) - \eta, L_1(0) + \eta) \times (d_{0,x}(r_{10}) - \eta, d_{0,x}(r_{10}) + \eta) =: \mathcal{U},
\]
and such that $\dot{r}_1 < \dot{x}$ holds in $\mathcal{U}$.

We conclude that for any $K > 1$ there is $t_0 > 0$ such that the solutions to the characteristic system (2.27) satisfies
\[
|x(t)|, |d(t)|, |p(t)| \leq K \quad t \in [0, t_0].
\]
If this is so, then there is another $0 < t_1 \leq t_0$ and such that
\[
(x(t), d(t), p(t)) \in \mathcal{U} \quad t \in [0, t_1].
\]
In other words, the function $f - \dot{x}$ restricted to $\mathcal{U}$ is negative.

If we restrict the behavior of $R_1$ by requiring that $R_1 \geq r_{10} + \epsilon$, then $\sup_{\mathcal{U}} |f| = M < \infty$. Thus, there exists $t_2 \in (0, t_1)$ such that for any selection of arguments of $f$, then $r_1(t) \in \bar{B} \subset \mathcal{U}$ for $t \in (0, t_2)$, where $\bar{B}$ is a closed ball centered at $r_{10}$. At the same time $\dot{r}_1 < \dot{x}$ in $\bar{B}$.

Let us set for $0 < T \leq t_2$

$$X_T = \{ \bar{r} \in C^0[0, T] : \bar{r}(t) \in \bar{B} \}$$

This is a complete metric space with the $C^0$ norm. We set $F : X_T \to X_T$ by formula

$$F(\bar{r}) = r_{10} + \int_0^t f(\bar{r}(s), s) \, ds.$$  

Since $\bar{r} \in X_T$, then by the very definition of $\bar{B}$,

$$\frac{d}{dt} F(\bar{r})(t) = f(\bar{r}(t), t) < \dot{x}(t).$$

As a result

$$F(\bar{r})(t) < x(t) \quad \text{and} \quad x(t) \quad \text{for} \ t \in [0, t_2].$$

This shows that indeed we can show the Banach contraction principle to $F$, after possibly taking smaller $T$. However, we can further extend the solution to the interval $[0, t_2]$, this is due to the abstract argument, based on the fact that $r_1$ stays in the set where $\dot{r}_1 < \dot{x}$, here $f$ is well-defined.

### 3.2.3 The case of two matching curves

Also in this case, we admit that the dynamics of the corner is not defined as the intersection of the outer facets. Thus, positions of the endpoints $R_2$ and $L_2$ is given. Existence of the interfacial curve will be shown assuming continuity of $L_2$ and $R_2$. The uniqueness of the interfaces is guaranteed provided that $L_2$ and $R_2$ are locally Lipschitz continuous.

**Proof of Theorem 3.3, part (c).** Let $L_2, R_2 \in C(\mathbb{R}^4; \mathbb{R})$ and let us assume that $d^A$ and $d^R$ are solutions to the Hamilton-Jacobi equations (2.17a) and (2.17b).

If $(d^A_0, x_2)^{-1}(t_{10}) > 0$, $(d^R_0, x_2)^{-1}(t_{10}) > 0$ and $l_1(0) < x(0, t_{10}), \dot{r}_1(0) < \dot{x}(0, r_{10})$, where $x(0, t_{10})$ and $x(0, r_{10})$ are the characteristics starting from $l_{10}$ and $r_{10}$ respectively, then, there exists unique local in time solution to the problem:

$$\dot{R}_1 = \frac{1}{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \left( \int_{l_1}^{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, R_1(t), s) \, ds - 2\gamma(n_R) \right),$$

$$R_1 = d^A(t, l_1),$$

$$\dot{L}_1 = \frac{1}{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \left( \int_{r_1}^{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, L_1(t), s) \, ds - 2\gamma(n_A) \right),$$

$$L_1 = d^R(t, r_1),$$

$$R_1(0) = R_{10}, \quad L_1(0) = L_{10}, \quad r_{10}(0) = r_{10}, \quad l_{10}(0) = l_{10}.$$  

(3.13)

Since $L_2, R_2 : \mathbb{R}^4 \to \mathbb{R}$ are continuous then there exists $\delta_1$ such that if

$$\max(|R - R_{10}|, |L - L_{10}|, |r - r_{10}|, |l - l_{10}|) \leq \delta_1,$$
then
\[
\begin{align*}
\max(|R_2(R, L, r, l) - R_{20}|, |L_2(R, L, r, l) - L_{20}|) \leq \frac{1}{4} \min(L_{20} - l_{10}, R_{20} - r_{10}).
\end{align*}
\]

If we differentiate (3.13\textsubscript{2}) and (3.13\textsubscript{4}) with respect to \( t \), then we obtain the equivalent problem:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{l}_1 &= G_1(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1), & R_1 &= d^\Lambda(t, l_1), \\
\dot{r}_1 &= G_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1), & L_1 &= d^R(t, r_1), \\
R_1(0) &= R_{10}, & L_1(0) &= L_{10}, & r_1(0) &= r_{10}, & l_1(0) &= l_{10}.
\end{align*}
\]

Here:

\[
\begin{align*}
G_1(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1, t) &= \frac{1}{d^L_x(t, l_1)} \int_{l_1}^{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, R_1(s, t), s) ds - 2\gamma(n_0) - m(d^\Lambda_x(t, l_1)) \frac{\sigma(t, l_1, d^\Lambda(t, l_1))}{d^\Lambda_x(t, l_1)}, \\
G_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1, t) &= \frac{1}{d^R_x(t, r_1)} \int_{r_1}^{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, L_1(t), s) ds - 2\gamma(n_\lambda) - m(d^R_x(t, r_1)) \frac{\sigma(t, l_1, d^R(t, l_1))}{d^R_x(t, r_1)}.
\end{align*}
\]

Since \( G_2 \) and \( G_1 \) are continuous, there exist \( T_2 \) and \( \delta_2 \) such that \( G_1 < \dot{x}(t, l_{10}) \) and \( G_2 < \dot{x}(t, r_{10}) \) on the set \( B((R_{10}, L_{10}, r_{10}, l_{10}), \delta_2) \times [0, T_2] \). Moreover, since \( d^R_x \) and \( d^L_x \) are continuous and \( d^R_x(0, r_{10}) > 0 \), \( d^L_x(0, l_{10}) > 0 \), there exist \( T_3, \delta_3, \epsilon \) such that if \( t \in [0, T_3] \), \( \max\{|l_1 - l_{10}|, |r_1 - r_{10}|\} \leq \delta_3 \), then \( \min(d^\Lambda_x(t, l_1), d^R_x(t, r_1)) > \epsilon \).

Next, for \( T < \min(T_2, T_3) \), \( \bar{\delta} = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2) \) and \( \delta \leq \min\left(\frac{L_{20} - l_{10}}{4}, \frac{R_{20} - r_{10}}{4}, \bar{\delta}, \delta_3\right) \), we define the set

\[
\begin{align*}
\tilde{Y}_{T, \delta} &= B_{C[0, T]}(R_{10}, \bar{\delta}) \times B_{C[0, T]}(L_{10}, \bar{\delta}) \times B_{C[0, T]}(r_{10}, \delta) \times B_{C[0, T]}(l_{10}, \delta), \\
Y_{T, \delta} &= \tilde{Y}_{T, \delta} \cap \{(R, L, r, l) \in C([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^4) : (R, L, r, l)(0) = (R_{10}, L_{10}, r_{10}, l_{10})\}.
\end{align*}
\]

Subsequently, we define a map \( \mathcal{Z} : Y_{T, \delta} \to C([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^4) \),

\[
\mathcal{Z}(R, L, r, l) = (\bar{R}, \bar{L}, \bar{r}, \bar{l}),
\]

as follows

\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{l}(t) &= l_{10} + \int_0^t G_1(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1, z) dz, \\
\bar{R}(t) &= d^\Lambda(t, l(t)), \\
\bar{r}(t) &= r_{10} + \int_0^t G_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1, t) dz, \\
\bar{L}(t) &= d^R(t, r(t)).
\end{align*}
\]

Then for an appropriate choice of \( \delta \) and \( T \), we establish that \( \mathcal{Z} : Y_{T, \delta} \to Y_{T, \delta} \). After introducing the following shorthand

\[
A(z) = L_2(R(z), L(z), r(z), l(z)) - l(z),
\]

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we arrive at
\[
\begin{align*}
\tilde{l}(t) - l_{10} & = \left| \int_0^t \frac{1}{d_2^A(z, l(z))} \left( \int_{l(z)}^{L_2(R, L, r, l)(z)} \sigma(z, R, s) \, ds - 2\gamma(n_R) \right) \, dz \right| \\
& + \left| \int_0^t \frac{1}{d_2^A(z, l(z))} m(d_2^A(z, l_1)) \sigma(t, l_1, d_2^A(z, l_1)) \, dz \right| \\
& \leq \frac{T}{\epsilon} \left( \frac{2}{R_{20} - r_{10}} \left( \frac{3}{2} |L_{20} - l_{10}| \sup |\sigma| + 2\gamma(n_R) \right) + \sup |\sigma| \sup |m(d^A)| \right) + \sup |\sigma| \sup |m(d^A)|.
\end{align*}
\]
In the same manner one can show the inequality
\[
|\tilde{r}(t) - r_{10}| \leq \frac{T}{\epsilon} \left( \frac{2}{R_{20} - r_{10}} \left( \frac{3}{2} |L_{20} - l_{10}| \sup |\sigma| + 2\gamma(n_A) \right) + \sup |\sigma| \sup |m(d^R)| \right).
\]
Hence, after having taken \(T\) small enough, we obtain
\[
\max \left( ||\tilde{r} - r_{10}||_{C([0,T])}, ||\tilde{l} - l_{10}||_{C([0,T])} \right) \leq \delta.
\]
Next,
\[
|\tilde{R}(t) - R_{10}| = |d^A(t, \tilde{l}(t)) - R_{10}| \leq \sup_{t \in [0,T], |x - l_{10}| \leq \delta} |d^A(t, x) - l_{10}|.
\]
Since the map \((t, x) \to d^A(t, x) - R_{10}\) is continuous, we can choose \(T\) and \(\delta\) such that
\[
||\tilde{R} - R_{10}||_{C([0,T])} \leq \tilde{\delta}.
\]
Using a similar argument, we can show that
\[
||\tilde{L} - L_{10}||_{C([0,T])} \leq \tilde{\delta}.
\]
Now, we shall show that the map \(Z\) is compact. For this purpose, we take a sequence \((R_n, L_n, r_n, l_n) \in Y_{T, \delta}\). Thus, the sequences \(\tilde{r}_n\) and \(\tilde{l}_n\) are bounded in \(C^1\) topology (see [16] for similar considerations). Thanks to Arzela-Ascoli Theorem, we extract subsequences \(\tilde{r}_{n_j}\) of \(\tilde{r}_n\) and \(\tilde{l}_{n_k}\) of \(\tilde{l}_n\) converging uniformly to \(\tilde{r}\) and \(\tilde{l}\) respectively. Hence, we get \(\tilde{R}_{n_k} \to \tilde{R}\) and \(\tilde{L}_{n_k} \to \tilde{L}\) in \(C\). This finishes the proof of compactness. In the same way one can show that the map \(Z\) is continuous. Finally, by Schauder Theorem, we conclude that the map \(Z\) has a fixed point.

Now, we assume that \(L_2\) and \(R_2\) are locally Lipschitz continuous. We shall show that the solution is unique. For this purpose, we shall assume that we have two solutions \((R_a, L_a, r_a, l_a)\) and \((R_b, L_b, r_b, l_b)\). Since
\[
\min(d^A(t, y), d^R(t, y)) \geq \eta > 0,
\]
we can write:
\[
|R_a(t) - R_b(t)| = |d^A(t, l_a(t)) - d^A(t, l_b(t))| \geq \left| \int_{l_a(t)}^{l_b(t)} \eta dy \right| = \eta |l_a(t) - l_b(t)|.
\]
Hence
\[
\|t_a - t_b\|_{C([0,T])} \leq \frac{1}{\eta} \|R_a - R_b\|_{C([0,T])},
\]
\[
\|r_a - r_b\|_{C([0,T])} \leq \frac{1}{\eta} \|L_a - L_b\|_{C([0,T])}.
\]

Subsequently, we introduce the notation
\[
L_{2a}(z) = L_2(R_a(z), L_a(z), r_a(z), t_a(z)),
\]
\[
R_{2a}(z) = R_2(R_a(z), L_a(z), r_a(z), t_a(z)).
\]

Let \( T_a = \min \{ \sup \{ t \in (0,T) | L_{2a}(t) > l_a(t) \}, \sup \{ t \in (0,T) | R_{2a}(t) > r_a(t) \} \} \). In the same fashion, we define \( T_b \). Let us denote \( \tilde{T} = \min(T_a, T_b) \). Then, for each \( \delta > 0 \), there exists \( \epsilon(\delta) \) such that \( \min \{ L_{2a}(t) - l_a(t), L_{2b}(t) - l_b(t), R_{2a}(t) - r_a(t), R_{2b}(t) - r_b(t) \} > \epsilon(\delta) \) on the set \([0, T - \delta]\). Now, we estimate
\[
\left| |R_a(t) - R_b(t)|\right| \leq \left| \left( \frac{1}{L_{2a}(z) - l_a(z)} - \frac{1}{L_{2b}(z) - l_b(z)} \right) \left( -2\gamma + \int_{L_{2a}(z)}^{L_{2a}(z)} \sigma(z, R_a(z), s) ds \right) dz \right|
\]
\[
+ \left| \int_{0}^{t} \left( \frac{1}{L_{2b}(z) - l_b(z)} \int_{L_{2a}(z)}^{L_{2a}(z)} \left( \sigma(z, R_a(z), s) - \sigma(z, R_b(z), s) \right) ds \right) dz \right|
\]
\[
+ \left| \int_{0}^{t} \left( \frac{1}{L_{2b}(z) - l_b(z)} \left( \int_{L_{2a}(z)}^{L_{2a}(z)} \sigma(z, R_b(z), s) ds - \int_{L_{2b}(z)}^{L_{2b}(z)} \sigma(z, R_b(z), s) ds \right) \right) dz \right|
\]
\[
\leq \frac{C_1}{\epsilon(\delta)^2} \int_{0}^{t} \left( \|l_b - l_a\|_{C([0,z])} + \|L_{2a} - L_{2b}\|_{C([0,z])} \right) dz +
\]
\[
\frac{C_2}{\epsilon(\delta)} \int_{0}^{t} \|R_a - R_b\|_{C([0,z])} dz + \frac{C_3}{\epsilon(\delta)} \int_{0}^{t} \left( \|l_a - l_b\|_{C([0,z])} + \|L_{2a} - L_{2b}\|_{C([0,z])} \right) dz,
\]
where
\[
C_1 = 2\gamma + \sup \{L_{2a} - l_a\} \sup \{|\sigma|\}, \quad C_2 = \sup \{L_{2a} - l_a\} \sup \{|\sigma_y|\}, \quad C_3 = \sup \{|\sigma|\}.
\]
In the same manner we obtain the estimate for \( |L_a(t) - L_b(t)| \). Since \( L_2 \) and \( R_2 \) are locally Lipschitz continuous we obtain the estimate:
\[
\|R_a - R_b\|_{C([0,t])} + \|L_a - L_b\|_{C([0,t])} \leq
\]
\[
H(\epsilon(\delta)) \int_{0}^{t} \left( \|L_a - L_b\|_{C([0,z])} + \|R_a - R_b\|_{C([0,z])} \right) dz.
\]

Hence, by Gronwall inequality we obtain that \( \|R_a - R_b\|_{C([0,t])} + \|L_a - L_b\|_{C([0,t])} = 0 \) on \([0, \tilde{T} - \delta]\). Since, \( \delta \) is arbitrary, we obtain that \( \|R_a - R_b\|_{C([0,\tilde{T}])} + \|L_a - L_b\|_{C([0,\tilde{T}])} = 0 \).

This finishes the proof of the uniqueness. \( \square \)

We notice that this construction yields a unique solution if \((d^{\Lambda}_{0,x_2})^{-}(t) > 0 \) and \((d^{R}_{0,x_1})^{-}(r) > 0 \).

The point of using the Schauder theorem is to give existence for a given time interval, without necessity of shrinking it as it is in the case of Banach contraction principle.

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3.2.4 The case of a matching and a tangency curve

Proof of Theorem 3.3, part (b). We will proceed in several steps. Since the role of \( l_1 \) and \( r_1 \) is interchangeable in Theorem 3.3, part (c), for the sake of definiteness, we assume that a tangency curve emanates from \( r_{10} \) and matching curve from \( l_{10} \).

First, we notice that Proposition 2.4 yields existence of \( d^A \) in \( G(x(l_{10}), x(l_{10})) \). Once we have it, we will simultaneously construct the tangency curve emanating from \( r_{10} \), the matching curve and \( R_1(\cdot), L_1(\cdot) \). After that, we will find remaining \( d^A \).

Now, we can present the main result of this paragraph.

Lemma 3.2 Let \( L_2 \in C(\mathbb{R}^4; \mathbb{R}) \) and \( R_2 \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^4; \mathbb{R}) \) be given functions. We assume that \( \Sigma^R_1 > 0 \) initial conditions satisfy the tangency condition:

\[
\sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) = \frac{1}{R_{20} - r_{10}} \left( \int_{r_{10}}^{R_{20}} \sigma(0, s, L_{10})ds - 2\gamma(n_A) \right)
\]

and

\[
(r_{10} - R_{20})\sigma_x(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) \neq (\sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) - \sigma(0, R_{20}, L_{10})) \left. \frac{\partial R_2}{\partial y_3} \right|_{y_3 = r_{10}} \tag{3.14}
\]

If \((d^A_{x_2})^{-1}(l_{10}) > 0 \) and condition (3.5) hold, i.e.,

\[
\frac{1}{d^A_{0,x}(l_{10})} \left( \sigma(t, d^A_{0,x}(l_{10}), x)m(d^A_{0,x}(l_{10})) - \frac{m(0)}{L_1 - l_1} \int_{l_1}^{L_1} \sigma(t, s, d^A_{0,x}(l_{10}))ds - \frac{2\gamma(n_R)}{L_1 - l_1} \right)
\]

\[
< -m_p(d^A_{0,x}(l_{10}))\sigma(t, d^A_{0,x}(l_{10}), x),
\]

then, there exists a local in time solution to the problem

\[
\dot{R}_1 = \frac{1}{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - l_1} \int_{r_1}^{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, R_1(t), s)ds - \frac{2\gamma(n_R)}{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - l_1},
\]

\[
\dot{L}_1 = \frac{1}{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - r_1} \int_{r_1}^{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, L_1(t), s)ds - \frac{2\gamma(n_A)}{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - r_1},
\]

\[
\sigma(t, r_1(t), L_1(t)) = \frac{1}{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - r_1} \left( \int_{r_1}^{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, s, L_1(t))ds - 2\gamma(n_A) \right),
\]

Moreover, if \( L_2 \) is locally Lipschitz continuous, then the solution is unique.

Proof. Let us define the following mapping \( \mathcal{F} : \mathbb{R}^4 \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \),

\[
\mathcal{F}(t, R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) =

(R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) - r_1)\sigma(t, r_1, L_1) - \int_{r_1}^{R_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, s, L_1)ds - 2\gamma(n_A).
\]

Since by (3.14)

\[
\left. \frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial r_1}(0, R_{10}, L_{10}, r_{10}, l_{10}) =
\right)

\[
(\sigma(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) - \sigma(0, R_{20}, L_{10})) \left. \frac{\partial R_2}{\partial y_3} \right|_{y_3 = r_{10}} + (R_{20} - r_{10})\sigma_x(0, r_{10}, L_{10}) \neq 0,
\]

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we can apply the Implicit Function Theorem. Therefore, there exists a neighborhood of 
$$(0, R_{10}, L_{10}, l_{10})$$ and the map $r_1 = r_1(t, R_1, L_1, l_1)$ such that
$$F(t, R_1, r_1, L_1, l_1) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad r_1(0, R_{10}, L_{10}, l_{10}) = r_{10}.$$ 

Now, we can rewrite our system as follows:
\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{R}_1 &= \frac{1}{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} - l_1 \left( \int_{l_1}^{L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1)} \sigma(t, R_1(t), s) ds - 2\gamma(n_R) \right), \\
\dot{R}_1 &= d^A(t, l_1), \\
\dot{L}_1 &= \sigma(t, r_1, L_1(t)), \\
R_1(0) &= R_{10}, \quad L_1(0) = L_{10}, \quad l_1(0) = l_{10}.
\end{align*}
\]

Next, we differentiate equation (3.15) with respect to $t$ and we obtain the following system:
\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{i}_1 &= G_3, \quad R_1 = d^A(t, l_1), \quad \dot{L}_1 = \sigma(t, r_1, L_1(t)), \\
R_1(0) &= R_{10}, \quad L_1(0) = L_{10}, \quad l_1(0) = l_{10},
\end{align*}
\]

where
\[
G_3(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1, t) = \frac{1}{d_x^{A^{-}}(t, l_1)} L_2(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1) \sigma(t, R_1(t), s) ds - 2\gamma(n_R) - m(d_x^{A^{-}}(t, l_1)) \sigma(t, l_1, d^A(t, l_1)).
\]

Subsequently, for $T > 0$, we consider the Banach space $C([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^3)$ with the norm
\[
\|(u_1, u_2, u_3)\|_{C([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^3)} = \max_{i=1,2,3} \|u_i\|_{C([0, T])}.
\]

Since $L_2 : \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, there is $\delta_1$ such that if
\[
\max(|R - R_{10}|, |L - L_{10}|, |l - l_{10}|, t) \leq \delta_1,
\]

then
\[
|L_2(R, L, r_1(t, R, L, l), l) - L_{20}| \leq \frac{1}{4} \min(L_{20} - l_{10}).
\]

Continuity of $G_3$ implies existence $T_2$ and $\delta_2$ such that $G_3 > \dot{x}_n$ in the cylinder
\[
\mathcal{B}((R_{10}, L_{10}, l_{10}), \delta_2) \times [0, T_2].
\]

Moreover, by Proposition 2.4 there exist $T_3, \delta_3, \epsilon$ such that if $t \in [0, T_3]$, $|l_1 - l_{10}| \leq \delta_3$, then $d_x^{A^{-}}(t, l_1) > \epsilon$.

Next, for $T < \min(T_2, \delta_1)$, and $\delta \leq \min \left( \frac{L_{20} - l_{10}}{4}, \delta_1, \delta_2, \delta, \frac{\epsilon}{4} \right)$ we define the set
\[
\tilde{\mathcal{Y}}_{T, \delta} = B_{C([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^3)}(R_{10}, \delta) \times B_{C([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^3)}(L_{10}, \delta) \times B_{C([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^3)}(l_{10}, \tilde{\delta}),
\]

\[
Y_{T, \delta} = \tilde{\mathcal{Y}}_{T, \delta} \cap \{(R, L, l) \in C([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^3) : (R, L, l)(0) = (R_{10}, L_{10}, l_{10})\}.
\]

Subsequently, we define the mapping $Z : Y_{T, \delta} \rightarrow C([0, T]; \mathbb{R}^3)$,
\[
Z(R, L, l) = (\tilde{R}, \tilde{L}, \tilde{l}),
\]

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as follows

\[ \tilde{l}(t) = l_{10} + \int_0^t G_3(R_1, L_1, r_1, l_1, z) dz, \]

\[ \tilde{L}(t) = L_{10} + \int_0^t \sigma(z, r_1, L) dz, \]

\[ \tilde{R}(t) = d^\Lambda(t, \tilde{l}(t)), \]

where \( r_1 = r_1(t, R, L, l) \).

In the similar way as in the proof performed in subsection 3.2.2, one can show that for \( \delta \) and \( T \) small enough, we have \( Z : Y_{T, \delta} \to Y_{T, \delta} \). Moreover, map \( Z \) is compact and continuous. As a result, we apply Schauder fixed point theorem. Finally, if \( L_2 \) is locally Lipschitz continuous, then the Gronwall lemma yields uniqueness of a solution. \( \square \)

### 3.3 Existence of variational solutions to (1.1)

We combine the information about the solutions.

**Theorem 3.5** Let us suppose that all the assumptions of Theorem 3.4 hold, in particular \( l_{00} < l_{10} \) and \( r_{00} < r_{10} \). Then, there exist corresponding variational solutions. In addition, they are unique provided that all the interfacial curves are tangency curves.

**Proof.** In the previous section, we constructed the bent rectangles \( \{ \Gamma(t) \}_{t \in [0, T_1)} \). Now, we construct the corresponding Cahn-Hoffman vector fields \( \xi \) on \( S^\Lambda_+ \). Actually, on \( S^\Lambda_+ \) we use formula [22, eq. (2.28)] and [23, eq. 3.2] and [23, Proposition 3.2], \( \xi = (\xi_1, \gamma(n_R)) \), where

\[
\xi_1(t, x) = \begin{cases} 
  x \left( \int_0^x \sigma(t, s, L_0) \, ds - \int_0^{r_0} \sigma(t, s, L_0) \, ds \right) - \frac{x}{r_0} \gamma(n\Lambda) & x \in [0, r_0] \\
  \gamma(n\Lambda) & x \in (r_0, r_1) \\
  (R_1 - x) \left( \int_x^{R_1} \sigma(t, s, L_1) \, ds - \int_x^{R_1} \sigma(t, s, L_1) \, ds \right) + \gamma(n\Lambda) & x \in [r_1, R_1] \\
  -2 \frac{R_1 - x}{R_1 - r_1} \gamma(n\Lambda) & x \in [r_1, R_1].
\end{cases}
\]

(3.16)

We extend it by symmetry to the whole \( S^\Lambda_+ \),

\[ \xi_1(t, x) = -\xi_1(t, -x) \quad x \in [-R_1, 0] \]

and to \( S^\Lambda_- \). Namely, on \( S^\Lambda_- \) we set \( \xi(t, x) = (\xi_1(t, x), -\gamma(n_R)) \).

In an analogous manner we have \( \xi = (\gamma(n\Lambda), \xi_2) \) on \( S^\Lambda_+ \). The above formula may be reused for \( \xi_2 \), if we keep in mind that we have to replace the \( L \)’s by the \( R \)’s (and vice versa) and to change \( \gamma(n\Lambda) \) to \( \gamma(n_R) \).

The proof that this \( \xi \) is a minimizer of \( \mathcal{E} \) follows the lines of [23, Theorem 3.5 and Theorem 3.6], since some changes are required we will present its sketch.

We notice that it is sufficient to restrict our attention to \( S^\Lambda_+ \). We have to show that if \( \xi + h \in D\Lambda \), then

\[ \mathcal{E}_\Lambda(\xi + h) \geq \mathcal{E}_\Lambda(\xi). \]
It is easy to see that \( \xi + h \in \mathcal{D}_A \) implies continuity of \( h \) and \( h(\pm R_i) = 0 \). Since \( \pm r_0, \pm r_1 \) form the boundary of the coincidence set of the variational obstacle problem, then \( h(\pm r_i) = 0, i = 0, 1, \) too.

We notice that for all \( t > 0 \) Proposition 2.4 (b) implies that
\[
d_x(t, x) > 0 \quad \text{for all } r_0(t) < |x| < r_1(t).
\]
Hence, \( \partial \gamma(n(x)) \) is a singleton and then \( h \equiv 0 \) on \([-r_1, -r_0] \cup [r_0, r_1]\).

Once we checked that \( h_1 \) is continuous and vanishes on \([-r_1(t), -r_0(t)] \cup [r_0(t), r_1(t)]\) it is easy to deduce, by the method of [23, Theorem 3.5 and Theorem 3.6] that
\[
\mathcal{E}_R(\xi + h) - \mathcal{E}_L(\xi) = \\
\int_{-r_0}^{r_0} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} \right)^2 - \beta_R \int_{-R_1}^{R_1} \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} \right)^2 - \beta_R \int_{R_1}^{R_1} \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} \right)^2 \, dx + \\
\int_{-r_1}^{r_1} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} \right)^2 - \beta_R \int_{-R_1}^{R_1} \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} \right)^2 - \beta_R \int_{R_1}^{R_1} \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} \right)^2 \, dx \\
\geq 0.
\]

The method used in the above mentioned theorems yields \( r_1 \) depending in a Lipschitz continuous manner on \( R_1 \) depending precisely on the endpoints of the outer facets. The same conclusion holds, as in Lemma 3.2 above, when the position of one of the endpoints is not determined by the corner, but differently.

### 3.4 Evolution of rectangles

We know (see [23, Section 3.2]) that not all configurations are possible if \( d_0 \equiv L_00 \). In fact, the only viable option is that the tangency condition is satisfied at \( r_{00} = r_{10} \). In this case, we have two tangency curves emanating from \( r_{00} \). The problem is to construct the solution to the Hamilton-Jacobi equations in the region above them.

**Theorem 3.6** Let us suppose that (S) holds. The initial data are such that \( r_{00} = r_{10} \) and (2.30) are satisfied. In addition, one of the hypotheses of Theorem 3.4 yielding unique \( l_0, l_1 \) holds. Then, there is \( T > 0 \) such a variational solution to (1.1) exists for \( t \in [0, T] \). Moreover, the interfacial curves \( r_i(\cdot), i = 0, 1, \) are the tangency curves and \( r_0(t) < r_1(t) \) for \( t > 0 \).

**Proof.** We assume, that we have already decided what is the nature of the interface \( l_1 \) and we have determined its evolution as well as that of \( R_1 \). By Remark 3.1 Lemma 3.1 keeps holding even if \( r_{00} = r_{10} \), then we may use the results of Lemma 3.1 to conclude existence of \( r_0 \) and \( r_1 \). As a result, theory developed for bent rectangles is applicable. In particular we deduce that \( r_0 < 0 \) and \( r_1 > 0 \) for \( t > 0 \). This permits us to construct the corresponding Cahn-Hoffman vector \( \xi \) uniquely, see Theorem 3.5.

Of course we know, that the only possibility is that two tangency curves begin at \( r_{00} = r_{10} \). The conditions (2.30) are to make sure the data are correct and we can set up boundary data for the Hamilton-Jacobi equation. We notice that the above Theorem is valid also in \( l_{00} = l_{10} \), provided that the version of (2.30) holds for them.

### 3.5 Uniqueness of variational solutions

We will show uniqueness using the approach of the proof of [23, Theorem 4.1]. We will do this only for special cases, when we can show that \( d \) has bounded second derivative,
otherwise the method breaks down. We note that we guarantee higher smoothness away from the interfacial curves. By the very nature of the problem $d_x(t, \cdot)$ is discontinuous across all matching curves, which are not tangency curves. This problem was absent in [23], because there we could additionally use the gradient flow structure of our equations. This is no longer true here.

**Theorem 3.7** Let us assume (S) and consider a regular bent rectangle $\Gamma_0$ as an initial condition. If $(\Gamma^i(t), \xi^i(t))$, $i = 1, 2$, are two regular variational solutions to (1.1) with the initial condition $\Gamma_0$, i.e., all interfacial curves are tangency curves, then $(\Gamma^1(t), \xi^1(t)) = (\Gamma^2(t), \xi^2(t))$ for all $t \geq 0$.

**Proof.** We will consider both solution in a common local coordinate system. Thus we have two systems like (2.17) for $d^{i,2}$, $j = \Lambda, R$. One of the difficulties is that $d^{\Lambda,1}$ and $d^{\Lambda,2}$ (resp. $d^{R,1}$ and $d^{R,2}$) are defined on different domains. We will consider in detail $d^{R,1}$ and $d^{R,2}$. The analysis of $d^{\Lambda,1}$ and $d^{\Lambda,2}$ goes along the same lines.

Let us set

$$
p^R(t) = \min\{R^1(t), R^2(t)\} \quad p^\Lambda(t) = \min\{L^1(t), L^2(t)\}.
$$

We take the difference of systems (2.17) for $d^{R,1}$ and $d^{R,2}$ over $[-p^R(t), p^R(t)]$.

We note, that contrary to [23], we consider the difference of solutions in a time varying domain.

Thus, we obtained the following equation for $p^R := d^2 - d^1$ on $[-\rho, \rho]$,

$$
p^R_t = Ap^R_x + Bp^R - \left(m^2 \frac{\partial \xi^2}{\partial x} - m^1 \frac{\partial \xi^1}{\partial x}\right),
$$

where

$$A(t, x) = \sigma^2 m(d^{R,2}) - m(d^{R,1}), \quad B = m(d^{R,1}) \frac{\sigma^2 - \sigma^1}{d^{R,2} - d^{R,1}}.
$$

We notice that

$$A, B \in L^\infty(0, T; L^\infty(-\rho, \rho)).$$

Multiplication of (3.17) by $p$ an integration over $[-\rho, \rho]$ yields

$$
\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\rho}^\rho (p^R)^2_t = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\rho}^\rho (A(p^R)x + B(p^R)^2 - \int_{-\rho}^\rho \left(m^2 \frac{\partial \xi^2}{\partial x} - m^1 \frac{\partial \xi^1}{\partial x}\right)p.
$$

We will estimate the second term using monotonicity of $\partial \gamma$,

$$
\int_{-\rho}^\rho \left(m^2 \frac{\partial \xi^2}{\partial x} - m^1 \frac{\partial \xi^1}{\partial x}\right)p \leq -\int_{-\rho}^\rho m^2 \left(\frac{\partial \xi^2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial \xi^1}{\partial x}\right)p - \int_{-\rho}^\rho (m^2 - m^1) \frac{\partial \xi^1}{\partial x}.
$$

Monotonicity of $\partial \gamma$ implies the pointwise estimate

$$
\left(\frac{\partial \xi^2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial \xi^1}{\partial x}\right) \cdot (d^2_x - d^1_x) \geq 0,
$$

thus

$$-\int_{-\rho}^\rho m^2 \left(\frac{\partial \xi^2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial \xi^1}{\partial x}\right)p \leq 0.
$$
On the other hand, Lipschitz continuity of \( m \) yields
\[
\int_{-\rho}^\rho - \left( m^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - m \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) p \leq M \int_{-\rho}^\rho p^2.
\]

Let us write \( A \) as follows,
\[
A(t, x) = \int_0^1 m_p'(d_{xx} R^2 - d_{xx} R^1 + 2d_x R^1) ds.
\]

Our assumption that all the interfaces are tangency curves implies that \( d_x^R, d_x^\Lambda \) are continuous and differentiable. Regularity of \( \Gamma(t) \) yields boundedness of \( d_{xx}^R \) and \( d_{xx}^\Lambda \) then we immediately see that \( A_x \in L^\infty(\rho, \rho) \). Thus, integration by part yields
\[
\int_{-\rho}^\rho A(p^R)^2 = -\int_{-\rho}^\rho A_x(p^R)^2 + A(p^R)|_{x=-\rho} - A(p^R)|_{x=\rho}.
\]

We notice, that the boundary term is easy to estimate,
\[
(p^R)^2(p^R) = (L_2^2 - L_1^2)^2 = \min\left\{ R_2^2, R_1^1 \right\} - \max\left\{ r_1^2, r_1^1 \right\} \left( L_2^2 - L_1^1 \right)^2 \leq M \int_{-\rho}^\rho A(p^R)^2
\]

Finally,
\[
\int_{-\rho}^{\rho^R(t)} (p^R)^2 \leq \int_{-\rho}^{\rho^R(t)} K(p^R)^2 + \int_{-\rho}^{\rho^\Lambda(t)} K(p^\Lambda)^2.
\]

So far, we have succeeded in showing the following inequality
\[
\int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} \frac{d}{dt} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R)^2 + \int_{-\rho^\Lambda(t)}^{\rho^\Lambda(t)} \frac{d}{dt} (d_{xx}^\Lambda - d_{xx}^\Lambda)^2
\]
\[
\leq M \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R)^2 + M \int_{-\rho^\Lambda(t)}^{\rho^\Lambda(t)} (d_{xx}^\Lambda - d_{xx}^\Lambda)^2.
\]

We notice that
\[
\frac{d}{dt} \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R)^2 = \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} \frac{d}{dt} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R)^2
\]
\[
+(d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R) \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} \frac{d}{dt} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R) + (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R) \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} \frac{d}{dt} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R)
\]
\[
= \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} \frac{d}{dt} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R)^2
\]
\[
+ (L_2^2 - L_1^1) \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} \frac{d}{dt} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R) + (L_2^2 - L_1^1) (\rho^R(t)) \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} \frac{d}{dt} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R)
\]
\[
\leq \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} \frac{d}{dt} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R)^2
\]
\[
+ M \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} (d_{xx}^R - d_{xx}^R)^2 + M \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} (d_{xx}^\Lambda - d_{xx}^\Lambda)^2.
\]
The same inequality is valid for \( \frac{d}{dt} \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} (d^{R,2} - d^{R,1})^2 \). Hence, after summing them up and introducing,

\[
 u(t) = \int_{-\rho^R(t)}^{\rho^R(t)} (d^{R,2} - d^{R,1})^2 + M \int_{-\rho^A(t)}^{\rho^A(t)} (d^{A,2} - d^{A,1})^2,
\]

we will obtain the following estimate

\[
 \frac{d}{dt} u \leq K u.
\]

This inequality takes into account the fact that \( \frac{d}{dt} \rho^R(t) \in L^\infty(0,T) \).

Since \( u(0) = 0 \), then Gronwall inequality implies that \( u(t) \equiv 0 \), i.e. \( d^{R,2}(t) = d^{R,1}(t) \) on interval \([ -\rho^R(t), \rho^R(t) ]\) and \( d^{A,2} = d^{A,1} \) on interval \([ -\rho^A(t), \rho^A(t) ]\). □

**Remarks.**

We see that this argument can be adapted to solutions which possibly break the symmetry.

The problem of uniqueness of solutions to a system like

\[
 u_t - b \nabla u + cu = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad (0,T) \times \mathbb{R}^n
\]

has been studied extensively, let us just mention [9] or [1]. Commonly, the authors need there \( \text{div} b \in L^1(0,T; L^p_{\text{loc}}(\mathbb{R}^n)) \), where \( p \leq \infty \). We could hope for this only, when the interfaces are tangency curves. If at least one of the interfacial curves is just a matching curve, then \( d_x \) is discontinuous at the endpoint of the facet set of arguments. Hence, if the coefficient \( A \) in (3.18) will have jumps, so \( A_x \) will be a measure. As a result, the assumptions of [9] and [1] are violated.

In fact, the problem we study (3.17) is not exactly in the form indicated above, thus we use here a simpler, direct method.

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