

Dispersive equations with random initial data

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Nonlinear Schrödinger Equation

Semilinear initial value problem:

$$\begin{aligned}i\partial_t u(t, x) - \partial_x^2 u(t, x) &= \pm(|u|^2 u)(t, x), \\ u(0, x) &= u_0(x).\end{aligned}$$

Here $x \in \mathbb{T} = [0, 2\pi)$.

Can also consider the equation on $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{T}^n, \mathbb{R}^n$.

NLS appears in the study of several wave propagation phenomena, for example (in the asymptotic limit) in the description of small amplitude water waves.

Zakharov 1968: Hamiltonian formulation of irrotational water wave problem.

Totz-Wu 2012: rigorous derivation of modulation approximation by NLS.

Smooth initial data

Reformulate as integral equation

$$u(t, x) = (e^{it\partial_x^2} u_0)(x) + \int_0^t e^{i(t-s)\partial_x^2} (|u|^2 u)(s, x) ds. \quad (1)$$

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If initial data has $s > 1/2$ ($s > n/2$ in dimension n) derivatives in L^2 :

$$\|u_0\|_{H^s}^2 = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |n|^{2s} |\widehat{u_0}(n)|^2.$$

Smooth initial data

The right side of (1)

$$\int_0^t e^{i(t-s)\partial_x^2} (|u|^2 u)(s, x) ds$$

is less than

$$\|e^{it\partial_x^2} u_0\|_{L^2} + Ct \sup_{s \leq t} \|u(s, \cdot)\|_{H^s}^3.$$

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Can apply contraction mapping principle.

Less regular initial data

Long series of work on less regular initial data: Ginibre-Velo, Cazenave-Weissler, Kenig-Ponce-Vega, Bourgain,... Using delicate techniques from harmonic analysis. (Strichartz estimates, multilinear estimates, restriction spaces.)

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Reason to consider initial data with few derivatives: corresponds to the regularity of quantities such as the *Hamiltonian* (“energy”):

$$H(u) = \frac{1}{2} \int |\partial_x u|^2 dx \mp \frac{1}{4} \int |u|^4 dx.$$

Hamiltonian formulation

The equation can be formally written as

$$i\partial_t u = DH(u).$$

The quantity is on the right is the functional gradient:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\delta} H(u + \delta v)|_{\delta=0} &= - \int \overline{\partial_{xx} u} v \, dx \mp \int \overline{|u|^2 u} v \, dx \\ &= \int \overline{DH(u)} v \, dx. \end{aligned}$$

Hamiltonian formulation

Gradient is

$$DH(u) = -\partial_x^2 u \mp |u|^2 u.$$

We can think of NLS as the differential equation:

$$\dot{\Phi}_t(u) = -iDH(\Phi_t(u)), \quad (2)$$

where the right side is a *Hamiltonian vector field*.

Conservation of energy

The nonlinear flow $\Phi(u_0)(t) = u(t)$ preserves the Hamiltonian (“energy”):

$$H(u) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |\partial_x u|^2 dx \mp \frac{1}{4} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^4 dx.$$

Conservation of energy

Formally,

$$\frac{d}{dt}H(u) = i \int \overline{DH(u)} DH(u) dx.$$

Right side is imaginary, $H(u)$ is real-valued, so $\frac{d}{dt}H(u) = 0$.

$$H(u(0)) = H(u(t)),$$

“Energy is conserved”.

Another consequence: Conservation of “mass”

Take $F(u) = \|u\|_{L^2}^2$, and compute

$$\frac{d}{dt}F(u(t)) = i \int \overline{DH(u)}u \, dx.$$

The right side is imaginary, but $F(u)$ is real-valued, so $\frac{d}{dt}F(u) = 0$: the L^2 norm is conserved.

Long time behavior

If the initial data is sufficiently regular for $H(u)$ to make sense, conservation of energy extends the solution to all times.

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If we can construct local solutions with initial data in H^1 with time of existence $= T(\|u_0\|_{H^1})$, then we get global solutions.

(Ginibre-Velo, 1980s.)

Long time behavior

With $(-)$ sign (“focusing equation”), there is a competition between the two terms in H :

$$H(u) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |\partial_x u|^2 dx - \frac{1}{4} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^4 dx.$$

Long time behavior: Sobolev inequality

On \mathbb{R}^n (or \mathbb{T}^n):

$$\|u\|_{L^{p+1}} \lesssim \|u\|_{\dot{H}^s} \lesssim \|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^s \|u\|_{L^2}^{1-s}, \quad (3)$$

with $s = \frac{n(p-1)}{2(p+1)}$ so the gradient squared dominates provided $s(p+1) < 2 \Rightarrow 3 = p < 1 + \frac{4}{n}$.

Long time behavior

- ▶ For high (“critical”, “supercritical”) nonlinearities, the question of long term behavior is very delicate. It has been known for a long time that solutions can die in finite time, but descriptions of the blowup are difficult to obtain.
- ▶ Long line of research on blowup solutions: Strauss, Weinstein, Kohn, Martel, Merle, Raphael, Lions...
- ▶ One starting point is to examine equation (3) more carefully. (Weinstein)

Invariance of measure by Hamiltonian flows

Recall the Hamiltonian formulation of NLS:

$$\dot{\Phi}_t = -iDH(\Phi_t).$$

In finite dimensions, a Hamiltonian equation has the form:

$$\dot{\Phi}_t(p, q) = X_H(\Phi_t(p, q)), \quad (p, q) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} X_H(p, q) &= \begin{pmatrix} & I \\ -I & \end{pmatrix} \nabla_{p,q} H \\ &= (\partial_{q_1} H, \dots, \partial_{q_n} H, -\partial_{p_1} H, \dots, -\partial_{p_n} H). \end{aligned}$$

Conservation of H

Also in finite dimensions, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt}H(p, q) &= \nabla H \cdot J\nabla H \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \left(-\frac{\partial H}{\partial p_j} \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_j} + \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_j} \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_j} \right) \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

“Energy is conserved.”

Liouville theorem

If $\dot{\Phi}_t = X_H(\Phi_t)$, then the Lebesgue measure $dpdq$ is invariant:

$$\int f(\Phi_t(p, q)) dpdq = \int f(p, q) dpdq.$$

This follows because X_H is divergence-free.

Liouville theorem

If $F(p, q)$ is invariant: $F(p(t), q(t)) = F(p_0, q_0)$, then $F(p, q) dpdq$ is also invariant.

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Example: $F(p, q) = e^{-\beta H(p, q)}$, is an invariant, “Gibbs”, measure.

Based on an analogy with finite-dimensional Hamiltonian dynamics, Lebowitz-Rose-Speer (1987) suggested that the “Gibbs-type” measure

$$“e^{-H(u)} \, d u” . \tag{4}$$

is *invariant* under flow of the NLS equation: $i \partial_t u = \partial_{xx} u \pm |u|^2 u$.

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If $F(u(x), x \in \mathbb{T})$ is a function of the path, then

$$\mathbb{E}F(u_0) = \mathbb{E}F(u(t)).$$

How to make sense of (4)?

Motivation

If we can make sense of the measure, we can use the invariant measure to control the solutions.

Lebowitz-Rose-Speer: choose u_0 at random according to the Gibbs measure, is $u(t) = \Phi_t(u_0)$ distributed according to Gibbs?

Dynamics is deterministic: different from stochastic differential equations.

Invariance implies global existence

Theorem (Bourgain, 1993)

If u_0 is distributed according to

$$\mu(\cdot) = \frac{1}{Z} \mathbb{E}_{\mu_1} [e^{\frac{1}{4} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^4 dx} (\cdot) \underbrace{\mathbf{1}[\|u\|_2 \leq K]}_{\text{cutoff}}],$$

there is almost surely a global solution of

$$iu_t + u_{xx} + u|u|^2 = 0,$$

with initial data u_0 in $C(\mathbb{R}_+, H^s)$, $s < 1/2$. Moreover, the distribution of $u(t, \cdot)$ is invariant under μ .

Invariance

1. Bourgain introduced $X^{s,b}(\mathbb{T})$ spaces to prove local-wellposedness in a space of measure 1 for $\mu_1 (H^s, s < 1/2)$.
2. Uses invariance to obtain global solutions.
3. Started a large field of study: Bourgain, Burq, Chatterjee, Thomann, Tzvetkov, Staffilani, Oh, etc.

Consequence of invariance

To prove his theorem on existence of invariant solutions, Bourgain showed how to use the existence of the invariant measure as a replacement for a global solution. His solutions satisfy:

$$\frac{\|u(t)\|_{H^s}}{\sqrt{\log(1+t)}} < \infty$$

with $0 < s < 1/2$. This was not known for deterministic solutions.

Estimating the growth of smooth, global solutions of dispersive equations is a major challenge.

Problem Lebowitz-Rose-Speer face: how to define

$$e^{-H(u)} du?$$

Construction: quadratic part

Very old idea: to make sense of $e^{-H(u)} du$, separate the Hamiltonian into two parts:

$$\underbrace{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int |\partial_x u|^2 dx}}_{\text{quadratic part}} e^{\pm \frac{1}{4} \int |u|^4 dx}.$$

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Fourier Transform:

$$\begin{aligned} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int |\partial_x u|^2 dx} &= e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}} |n|^2 |\hat{u}(n)|^2} \\ &= \prod_{n \neq 0} e^{-|n|^2 |\hat{u}(n)|^2}. \end{aligned}$$

The quadratic part is a measure μ : independent Gaussians along the different frequencies.

Construction: quadratic part

μ is the distribution of the random series:

$$u(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}} \frac{g_n}{|n|} e^{inx},$$

where

$$g_n = \Re g_n + i \Im g_n,$$

independent Gaussians with variance $1/2$.

Construction: quadratic part

The series for u converges in H^σ , $\sigma < 1/2$. If $u_N = \sum_{|n| \leq N} \frac{g_n}{|n|} e^{inx}$,

$$\sup_{N, N'} \mathbb{E} \|u_N - u_{N'}\|_{H^\sigma}^2 = \sum_{|n|=N'}^N \frac{1}{|n|^{2(1-\sigma)}} \rightarrow 0.$$

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On the other hand:

$$\mathbb{E} \|u_N\|_{H^s}^2 = \sum_{|n| \leq N} 1 \rightarrow \infty.$$

u has less than $1/2$ derivatives in L^2 (and any other L^p).

Hamiltonian does not actually make sense for u !

Construction: quadratic part

Random function

$$u(x) = \sum_{n \neq 0} \frac{g_n}{|n|} e^{inx}$$

is a periodic version of a Brownian motion. We call u the (zero mean) *Brownian loop*.

Analogy: random series for Brownian bridge on $[0, 2\pi]$:

$$B_t = \sum_{n \geq 1} g_n \frac{\cos(nt) - 1}{n} + g'_n \frac{\sin(nt)}{n}.$$

Nonlinear Gibbs measure

Back to Lebowitz-Rose-Speer. How to interpret “ $e^{-H(u)} du$ ”?

We understand the “quadratic part” of Hamiltonian:

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |\partial_x u|^2 dx = \|u\|_{H^1}^2.$$

So we guess:

$$\left\langle \int_A e^{-H(u)} du \right\rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \mathbb{E}_\mu [e^{\frac{1}{4} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^4} \mathbf{1}_A].$$

Nonlinear Gibbs measure

To build the measure μ_p , $p \geq 2$, we choose a function at random “with probability $\sim e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int |\partial_x u|^2 dx}$ ” (the Brownian loop), weighted by the factor

$$\frac{e^{\mp \frac{1}{p+1} \int |u(x)|^{p+1} dx}}{\text{Normalization}}.$$

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More formally, for a set of functions $A \subset L^2(\mathbb{T})$,

$$\mu_p(A) = \frac{1}{Z_{p,\pm}} \mathbf{E}[e^{\frac{\pm 1}{p+1} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^{p+1} dx} \mathbf{1}_A].$$

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Does this make sense? Is $Z_{p,\pm} < \infty$?

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With minus (−) sign:

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With plus (+) sign: $\int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^{p+1} dx \geq \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}} (\int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^2 dx)^{\frac{p+1}{2}}$, so

$$\mathbf{E}[e^{\frac{-1}{p+1} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^{p+1} dx}] = \infty.$$

Need to correct the definition.

Nonlinear Gibbs measure

Theorem (LRS, 1988)

1. For $p < 5$, $e^{\frac{1}{p+1} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^{p+1} ds} \mathbf{1}_{\{\|u\|_{L^2} \leq K\}}$ is integrable for any K .
2. For $p = 5$, integrable only if $K < \|Q\|_{L^2}$ where Q (“ground state soliton”) is an optimizer for Gagliardo-Nirenberg inequality

$$\|u\|_{L^6}^6 \leq C_{\text{GN}} \|u_x\|_{L^2}^2 \|u\|_{L^2}^4.$$

L-R-S also state “if” direction for no. 2, but the proof is not complete in the periodic case (noticed by Carlen-Lebowitz-Fröhlich, 2013).

Another question of LRS, what if $K = \|Q\|_{L^2}$?

Sharp integrability for Gibbs measure

We can prove the exact threshold:

Theorem (S. 2017)

$$\mathbf{E}\left[e^{\frac{1}{p+1} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^{p+1} dx} \mathbf{1}_{\|u\|_{L^2} \leq K}\right] < \infty$$

if $K < \|Q\|_{L^2}$.

So the nonlinear Gibbs measure exists whenever $p < 5$.

Dimension 2

Proof also applies to Gibbs measures on *radial functions* on the disc in higher dimensions.

For example, $d = 2$ (constructed by N. Tzvetkov):

$$v(r) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{J_0(z_n r)}{\sqrt{\pi} \|J_0(z_n \cdot)\|_{L^2[0,1]}} \frac{g_n}{z_n}$$

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2,$$

$J_0(r)$: Bessel function,

$z_n, n \geq 0$: eigenvalues of Dirichlet Laplacian.

Dimension 2

Consider

$$\tilde{Z}_{p,K} = \mathbf{E}\left[e^{\frac{1}{4} \int_{D_1} |v(r)|^4 dx} \mathbf{1}_{\|v\|_{L^2(D_1)} \leq K}\right].$$

Then:

1. $Z_{p,K} < \infty$ for any $K > 0$ when $p > 0$.
2. $Z_{p,K} < \infty$ if $K < \|\tilde{Q}\|_{L^2(D_1)}$, where \tilde{Q} is the ground state soliton in dimension 2.

What is Q ? Why does it appear?

Formally, $Z_p = \mathbf{E}[e^{\frac{1}{p+1} \int |u(x)|^{p+1} dx}]$ equals

$$Z_p = \int \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \int |\partial_x u(x)|^2 dx + \frac{1}{p+1} \int |u(x)|^{p+1} dx\right) du(x).$$

What is Q ? Why does it appear?

Gagliardo-Nirenberg inequality:

$$\frac{1}{p+1} \int |u(x)|^{p+1} dx \leq \frac{C_{\text{GNS}}}{2} \int |\partial_x u|^2 dx \cdot \left(\int |u(x)|^2 dx \right)^2.$$

Weinstein: on \mathbb{R}^n , this inequality is sharp if only if

$$u(x) = aQ(b(x - x_0))$$

for some $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $a \neq 0$, $b > 0$.

The ground state soliton

For $p < 1 + \frac{4}{n}$, can solve the problem

$$\inf_{u \in H^1, \|u\|_{L^2} = m} H(u) < 0.$$

For $p = 1 + \frac{4}{n}$, this problem no longer makes sense. Instead look at

$$\inf_{u \in H^1} \frac{\|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^{\frac{n(p-1)}{2}} \|u\|_{L^2}^{\frac{(2-n)p+3}{2}}}{\|u\|_{L^{p+1}}^{2(p+1)}}.$$

Weinstein showed in the 1980s that there is a positive, radial, decreasing Q such that this is attained.

The ground state soliton

Euler-Lagrange equation for the variational problem:

$$\Delta u(x) + u^p(x) = u(x).$$

Deep analysis of Kwong: solution is unique up to translations.

Back to Gagliardo-Nirenberg inequality:

$$\frac{1}{p+1} \int |u(x)|^{p+1} dx \leq \frac{C_{\text{GNS}}}{2} \int |\partial_x u|^2 dx \cdot \left(\int |u(x)|^2 dx \right)^2.$$

Unique optimizer up to translation and scaling is Q , and

$$C_{\text{GNS}} = \frac{p+1}{2} \|Q\|_{L^2}^{1-p}.$$

So if $K < \|Q\|_{L^2}$, expect quadratic part to dominate

$$\int \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \int |\partial_x u(x)|^2 dx + \frac{1}{p+1} \int |u(x)|^{p+1} dx \right) du(x).$$

To make this precise, need to reduce to some finite dimensional approximation and estimate the rate of approximation carefully.

Integrability at the ground state level

What if $K = \|Q\|_{L^2}$?

Theorem (Oh, S., Tolomeo)

$$Z_{+,p=5,K=\|Q\|_{L^2}} < \infty.$$

This corresponds to a “discontinuous phase transition”.

Some idea of the proof

1. Stability result in L^2 : if u is far from any rescaled or translated soliton $\|u - Q_{\delta, x_0}\|_{L^2} > \epsilon$, then Gagliardo-Nirenberg fails by some amount:

$$\|u\|_{L^6(\mathbb{T})} < (C_{\text{GNS}} - \delta(\epsilon)) \|\partial_x u\|_{L^2(\mathbb{T})}^2 \|u\|_{L^2(\mathbb{T})}^4. \quad (5)$$

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Enough estimate

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\exp \left(\frac{1}{6} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |u|^6 dx \right) \mathbf{1}_{\|u\|_{L^2}^2 \leq \|Q\|_{L^2}^2} \mathbf{1}_{N_\epsilon} \right].$$

N_ϵ is an ϵ -neighborhood of the manifold $\{Q_{\delta, x_0}, \delta > 0, x_0 \in \mathbb{T}\}$.

Some idea of the proof

2. If we were only computing the expectation over a neighborhood of a single soliton (say $x_0 = 0$, $\delta \ll 1$):

$$\int_{S_\epsilon} \exp \left(\frac{1}{6} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |Q + v|^6 dx - \frac{1}{2} \int |\partial_x Q|^2 dx + \langle Q'', v \rangle \right) dv,$$

$$S_\epsilon = \{ \|v\|_{L^2}^2 \leq \epsilon, \|u\|_{L^2}^2 \leq \|Q\|_{L^2}^2 \}.$$

Q is an optimizer of the quantity in the exponential, so we expect this can be estimated (formally) by

$$\int_{\substack{\|v\|_{L^2}^2 \leq \epsilon, \\ \|u\|_{L^2}^2 \leq \|Q\|_{L^2}^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\langle Av, v \rangle_{H^1}\right) dv,$$

where

$$I + A = I + P_{H^1}(1 - \partial_x^2)^{-1}(\partial_x^2 + 5Q^4 - 1)$$

corresponds to the second variation of $H(u)$ at Q .

Some idea of the proof

We expect (after suitable approximations) that

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\substack{\|v\|_{L^2}^2 \leq \epsilon, \\ \|u\|_{L^2}^2 \leq \|Q\|_{L^2}^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\langle Av, v \rangle\right) dv \\ & \lesssim \int_{|x_n|^2 \leq \epsilon^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(1 + \lambda)|x_n|^2\right) \prod_n \frac{dx}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \\ & \lesssim \prod_n \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \lambda_n}}, \end{aligned}$$

where λ_n are the eigenvalues of A . Now remains to estimate the eigenvalues.

Additional technicality: the above is not really true, because $I + A$ has zero eigenvalues (corresponding to the scaling and translation symmetries of Q).

Stochastic dynamics

Stochastic KdV with additive space-time white noise:

$$\begin{aligned} du + (\partial_x^3 u + u \partial_x u) dt &= dW, \\ u(x, 0) &= u_0(x). \end{aligned}$$

Local solutions exist (Oh, 2009). For KdV (no noise term dW), we have an invariant measure (white noise). For $du = dW$, the variance grows linearly in time.

Work in progress (with Oh, Quastel): combine invariance and exact distribution of the noise to obtain global almost sure solutions.

Thank you for listening!