

Statistics

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1 Lecture 1: 2022-09-08

1.1 Introduction to Dispersive PDEs

Definition 1 (Dispersive PDE). *Informally, a PDE is characterized as **dispersive** if, when the boundary conditions are dropped, its wave solutions are going to spread out in space as time evolves. Like a rock thrown into water.*

For now we will focus on *linear* dispersive PDEs. Associated with a dispersive PDE:

1. Dispersive Estimates

2. On the Fourier side, different frequencies at different speeds in different directions.

We first consider the simplest example.

Example 1 (Linear dispersive PDE with constant coefficients). *Suppose $u(t, x) : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow V \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that*

$$\begin{cases} i\partial_t u(t, x) = Lu(t, x) \\ u(0, x) = u_0(x) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where L is a skew-adjoint constant coefficient differential operator of order k . In symbols, there exists constants $\{c_\alpha : \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^d\}$ such that

$$Lu(t, \cdot) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} c_\alpha \partial_x^\alpha u(t, \cdot)$$

where $|\alpha| := \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_d$ and for $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the symbol ∂_x^α denotes the operator defined by

$$\partial_x^\alpha u := \prod_{i=1}^d \partial_{x_i}^{\alpha_i} u \quad (2)$$

So, for example, if $d = 2$, $c_{(0,1)} = 2$, $c_{(2,5)} = -3$, and $c_\alpha = 0$ for all other choices of α , then L would be an order 7 differential operator taking the following form:

$$\begin{aligned} Lu(t, \cdot) &= 2\partial_x^{(0,1)} u(t, \cdot) - 3\partial_x^{(2,5)} u(t, \cdot) \\ &= 2\partial_{x_1}^0 u(t, \cdot) \partial_{x_2}^1 u(t, \cdot) - 3\partial_{x_1}^2 u(t, \cdot) \partial_{x_2}^5 u(t, \cdot) \end{aligned}$$

or equivalently,

$$Lu(t, x_1, x_2) = 2u(t, x_1, x_2)u_{x_2}(t, x_1, x_2) - 3u_{x_1 x_1}(t, x_1, x_2)u_{x_2 x_2 x_2 x_2 x_2}(t, x_1, x_2)$$

Writing x, y in place of x_1, x_2 , we get the nicer-looking formulation:

$$Lu(t, x) = 2u(t, x, y)u_y(t, x, y) - 3u_{xx}(t, x, y)u_{yyyy}(t, x, y).$$

Since the operator defined in Eq. (2) does not compose different partial differentiation operators together, Lu does not involve any mixed partial derivatives of u (e.g. you'll never see terms like u_{xy} or u_{xxy}).

Remark 1. *The operator L from Example 1 is defined classically (i.e. pointwise) only if $u \in C^k(\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^d)$, that is only if u is k -times continuously differentiable. But of course we may extend L in the usual manner so that it is defined in a distributional sense.)*

1.2 Dispersion Relation

Definition 2 (Dispersion Relation and Frequency Operator). *We can write L in the form*

$$L = ia(D)$$

*where a is some function, called the **dispersion relation**, and D is the **frequency operator** defined as*

$$D = \frac{1}{i} \nabla := \left(\frac{1}{i} \partial_{x_1}, \dots, \frac{1}{i} \partial_{x_d} \right)$$

Remark 2 (Polynomial Dispersion Relations). *It turns out that the form of the dispersion relation is important. When the operator L is of the form*

$$Lu = \partial_t u$$

(or something), then the dispersion relation takes the form

$$a(\xi_1, \dots, \xi_d) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} i^{|\alpha|-1} c_\alpha \xi_1^{\alpha_1} \dots \xi_d^{\alpha_d} \quad (3)$$

A large number of PDEs are governed by dispersion relations of the form given in Eq. (3), as we show in the next example.

Example 2 (Examples for Remark 2). *Here we list some examples of PDEs whose dispersion relations take the form shown in Eq. (3).*

- **A degenerate (i.e. nondispersive) example.** *Suppose Eq. (1) takes the form*

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t u(t, x) = i w u(t, x) \\ u(0, x) = u_0(x) \end{cases}$$

where $u : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $w \in \mathbb{R}$. In this case the dispersion relation is

$$a(\xi) = w.$$

The solution to this system is $u(t, x) = u_0 e^{i t w}$.

- **Another degenerate equation.** *Fix $\nu \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and consider the*

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t u(t, x) = -\nu \cdot \nabla_x u(t, x) \\ u_0(0, x) = u_0(x) \end{cases}$$

An example solution to this is

$$u(t, x) = u_0(x - \nu t)$$

something something transport equation.

- **The Airy Equation.** *Suppose $d = 1$, $u = u(t, x) : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that*

$$\partial_t u + \partial_{xxx} u = 0.$$

In this case, the dispersion relation is

$$a(\xi) = \xi^3, \quad (\xi \in \mathbb{R}).$$

- **Schrodinger (?) equation.** *Suppose*

$$i \partial_t u + \Delta u = 0.$$

In this case, $L = -\Delta$ and $a(\xi) = |\xi|^2$.

- **Wave Equation.** *Suppose*

$$-u_{tt} + \Delta u = 0. \quad (4)$$

in any dimensions. This is dispersive.

- **Klein-Gordon Equation.** *Suppose*

$$-u_{tt} + \Delta u - u = 0.$$

This is dispersive.

It is not always the case that dispersion relations are polynomials of the form given in Eq. (3). Indedd, for deep water gravity waves, $a(\xi) = |\xi|^{1/2}$. Also for capillary waves, something something. Also the BO equation

$$u_t + H \partial_x^2 u = 0$$

has dispersion relation $a(\xi) = \xi |\xi|$.

1.3 Group Velocity

Definition 3 (Wave-Plane Solution). A **wave-plane solution** is the name for functions of the form

$$u(t, v) = e^{i(kx - wt)}. \quad (5)$$

Definition 4 (Wave Number and Angular Frequency). The parameter k in Eq. (5) is called the **wave number**. The parameter w is called the **angular frequency**.

Example 3 (Wave-plane solutions for the wave equation). If we plug the function u from Eq. (5) into the wave equation shown in Eq. (4), we obtain

$$-(-iw)^2 e^{i(kx - wt)} + (ik)^2 e^{i(kx - wt)} = 0$$

which implies that $w^2 = k^2$, and hence that $w(k) = \pm|k|$.

Definition 5 (Group Velocity). The derivative of the dispersion relation with respect to the wave number is called the **group velocity**.

Definition 6 (Dispersive Equation). A PDE is said to be dispersive if $a''(\xi) \neq 0$.

1.4 Symmetries for Linear Dispersive PDEs

1. All are invariant under time and space translations. That is, suppose τ is the translation operator defined by

$$\tau u(t, x) = u(t - t_0, x - x_0)$$

for some fixed t_0 and x_0 . Then τu is a solution provided that u is a solution.

2. Scaling symmetries. For any $\lambda > 0$, the function

$$u(t/\lambda^k, x/\lambda)$$

is a solution whenever $u(t, x)$ is a solution.

3. I think there were more, but my hand got tired and I stopped taking notes.

2 Lecture 2: 2022-09-13

2.1 Full Dispersion

Recall the dispersion relation $a(\xi)$. If $a''(\xi) \neq 0$ then the PDE is said to be **fully dispersive**. If $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^d$ then $\nabla^2 a(\xi)$ is the hessian. The appropriate thing to do in that case is to diagonalize... we'll get to that.

Example 4 (Wave Equation). Suppose we have $\square u = 0$ with $d = 1$. Then $a(\xi) = |\xi|$ so that $a''(\xi) = 0$ which is not dispersive. But if $d > 1$ then since $a(\xi) = |\xi|$. So that $a'(\xi) = -\nabla a(\xi) = \frac{\xi}{|\xi|}$. Then the hessian is

$$\nabla_{\xi}^2 a(\xi) = \frac{1}{|\xi|} \left[I_n - \frac{\xi}{|\xi|} \otimes \frac{\xi}{|\xi|} \right]$$

where I_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix. The thing in brackets is the orthogonal projection onto the plane perpendicular to $\xi/|\xi|$ (i.e. tangent to the sphere).

For example, consider $d = 2$. Then we can diagonalize the Hessian matrix $\nabla_{\xi}^2 a$. You get $\lambda = 0$ and $\lambda = \frac{1}{|\xi|}$ as eigenvalues and the diagonalized matrix is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{|\xi|} \end{pmatrix}$$

The interpretation is that since one of the eigenvalues is zero, so you don't have full dispersion. It's like degenerate dispersion. In particular, we don't have dispersion in the radial direction. Try playing with this in the 2D.

Remark 3. The wave equation in $d > 1$ has dispersion (degenerate). Also, last lecture had something false in it. The false claim was that finite speed of propagation is implied by bounded group velocity. (Recall that the **group velocity** is the negative of the derivative of the dispersion relation: $-\nabla a(\xi)$.)

Example 5. Suppose $u : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

$$\begin{cases} i\partial_t u + A(D)u = 0 \\ u_0 = u(0, \lambda) \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

We claim that this equation with $A(D) = |D|$ does not have finite speed of propagation.

Finite speed propagation is if u_0 is supported on $B(a, R)$ then $t > 0$, $u(x, t)$ is going to be supported by $B(a, R + ct)$. The infimum of all such c 's satisfying the above condition is called **the finite speed of propagation**.

Recall that we can take the Fourier transform of Eq. (6) and solve for the fundamental solution:

$$e^{it|D|} = \cos(t|D|) + i \sin(t|D|)$$

here D is the derivative with radial.

$$|D| \frac{\sin(t|D|)}{|D|}$$

Recall the fundamental solution to the wave equation is $K_\square = c \frac{1}{t} \delta$. Give this a little bit of thought. Do this example to bush up. This example shows why the finite group velocity does not imply finite speed of propagation. This example looks like the example from last time that had a star with it. The operator $|D|$ is the operator with symbol $|\xi|$. In one dimension, this is the Hilbert transform.

2.2 Long-Time Dynamics for Linear Dispersive Waves

Question: What are the long time dynamics for linear dispersive waves?

Scalar case. Suppose we have

$$\begin{cases} i\partial_t u + A(D)u = 0 \\ u_0(x) = u(0, x) \in \mathcal{S} \end{cases}$$

where \mathcal{S} denotes the Schwarz space. What happens with this wave as $t \rightarrow \infty$?

Then the solution is

$$\hat{u}(t, \xi) = \hat{u}_0 e^{ita(\xi)}$$

where $a(\xi)$ is the symbol of the operator A . Remember, dispersivity is that every frequency moves in its own direction and with its own velocity. We want to quantify this. My solution:

$$\hat{u}(t, \xi) = \hat{u}_0(\xi) e^{ita(\xi)} \quad (7)$$

now let's go back and write it on the spatial side:

$$u(t, x) = \int e^{ix \cdot \xi} e^{ita(\xi)} \hat{u}_0(\xi) d\xi$$

where $\hat{u}_0(\xi)$ is a Schwarz function (since $u_0 \in \mathcal{S}$ and the Fourier Transform maps Schwarz functions to Schwarz functions). Therefore

$$u(t, x) = \int e^{i(x \cdot \xi + ta(\xi))} \hat{u}_0(\xi) d\xi$$

Heuristically, we make the assumption that the waves (each localized a different frequency) travel and go out in a linear fashion (at least when time is big). When t is very large, we write

$$u(t, x) = \int e^{it[\frac{x}{t} \cdot \xi + a(\xi)]} \hat{u}_0(\xi) d\xi$$

and we think of $v := x/t$ as velocity. Thus

$$u = u(t, v) = \int e^{it[v\xi + a(\xi)]} \hat{u}_0(\xi) d\xi$$

and this is an oscillatory integral. This oscillates rapidly when t is large. One nice thing about it is that it has a complex phase, which is what makes it oscillate. We are interested in the long-time dynamics. That will result in cancellations, which can be seen when integrating by parts. There is a complication when doing integration by parts however because we don't know that the quantity

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} [itv\xi + a(\xi)]$$

is nonzero and integration by parts would require it to be on the denominator. So we need to introduce something called stationary/nonstationary phase. In $d = 1$, this is from Stein. The main understanding is the following:

Let

$$I = \int e^{i\lambda\phi(\xi)} a(\xi) d\xi$$

First, suppose that $\phi(\xi) \neq 0$. This is called the nonstationary phase argument. Take

$$I = \int \partial_\xi (e^{i\lambda\phi}) \frac{1}{i\lambda\phi'(\xi)} a(\xi) d\xi$$

Integrating by parts N times will give a λ^{-N} in front (e.g. if a is a polynomial then N would be the degree of a). Therefore as $t \rightarrow \infty$,

$$I = O(\lambda^{-N})$$

which decays very quickly. Therefore the solution of Eq. (7), understood as a function $u = u(t, v)$ disperses very fast—it decays rapidly.

On the other hand, suppose that $\phi'(\xi) = 0$. For example, if $\phi(\xi)$ is a constant. But that doesn't make if ξ_0 is a critical point sense for our problem. So let's correct for that by requiring that

$$\phi''(\xi) \neq 0.$$

Thus any zeros are when we have critical points of ϕ . Around those points, we cannot integrate by parts. But what can we do? Another heuristic: if ξ_0 is a critical point, assume that when $\xi \approx \xi_0$, we can Taylor expand:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(\xi) &= \phi(\xi_0) + (\xi - \xi_0)\phi'(\xi_0) + \frac{1}{2}(\xi - \xi_0)^2\phi''(\xi_0) \\ &= \phi(\xi_0) + \frac{1}{2}(\xi - \xi_0)^2\phi''(\xi_0). \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} I &\approx \int e^{i\lambda[\phi(\xi_0) + \frac{1}{2}(\xi - \xi_0)^2\phi''(\xi_0)]} a(\xi_0) d\xi \\ &= e^{i\lambda\phi(\xi_0)} a(\xi_0) \int e^{\frac{1}{2}i\lambda(\xi - \xi_0)^2\phi''(\xi_0)} d\xi \end{aligned}$$

and the integral is a complex Gaussian which can be computed with the rule

$$\int_0^\infty e^{i\alpha x^2} dx = e^{i\pi \text{sign}(|\alpha|)/4} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4\alpha}}, \quad \alpha \neq 0.$$

with $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}\lambda\phi''(\xi_0)$. So we get

$$I \approx e^{i\lambda\phi(\xi_0)} a(\xi_0) \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{\phi''(\xi_0)}}$$

multiplied by some other thing that aren't important. Taking $\phi = v\xi + a(\xi)$ and $\lambda = t$ gives

$$u(t, vt) \approx e^{it[v\xi_0 + a(\xi_0)]} \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} \hat{u}_0(\xi_v)$$

with some other things.

3 2022-09-15: Lecture Notes

3.1 Littlewood-Paley Decomposition

Let ϕ be a smooth radial¹ function such that

$$\begin{cases} \text{supp}(\phi) \subseteq \{\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n : 0 \leq |\xi| \leq 2\} \\ \phi \equiv 1 \text{ in } B(0, 1/2) \end{cases}$$

where $B(0, 1) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ denotes the unit ball centered at the origin. In addition, for each $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$ define

$$\psi(\xi) := \phi(\xi) - \phi(2\xi).$$

It is easy to see that ψ is a radial function with

$$\text{supp}(\psi) \subseteq \left\{ \xi \in \mathbb{R}^n : \frac{1}{2} \leq |\xi| \leq 2 \right\}. \quad (8)$$

We then construct a sequence of functions in the following manner. For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, define ϕ_k by

$$\psi_k(\xi) := \psi\left(\frac{\xi}{2^k}\right), \quad \xi \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Then the sequence of functions $(\psi_k)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a **partition of unity**. To see this, observe that

$$\begin{aligned} J(\xi) &:= \{k \in \mathbb{Z} : \psi_k(\xi) \neq 0\} \\ &= \left\{ k \in \mathbb{Z} : \frac{1}{2} \leq |\xi/2^k| \leq 2 \right\} \\ &= \{k \in \mathbb{Z} : -1 \leq \log_2 |\xi| - k \leq 1\} \\ &= \{k : \log_2 |\xi| - 1 \leq k \leq \log_2 |\xi| + 1\} \end{aligned}$$

which is clearly a finite set, and, letting $j := \lceil \log_2 |\xi| \rceil - 1$, observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \psi_k(\xi) &= \sum_{k \in J} \psi_k(\xi) \\ &= \psi(\xi/2^j) + \psi(\xi/2^{j+1}) \\ &= \phi(\xi/2^j) - \phi(\xi/2^{j-1}) \\ &= 1 - 0 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Definition 7 (Littlewood-Paley Projection). *For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, let P_k be the Fourier multiplication operator defined on $L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ by the formula*

$$\widehat{P_k f}(\xi) := \psi(\xi/2^k) \hat{f}(\xi)$$

and define $P_{\leq k}$ by

$$\widehat{P_{\leq k} f}(\xi) := \sum_{\ell \leq k} \widehat{P_\ell f}(\xi) = \phi(\xi/2^k) \hat{f}(\xi)$$

for all $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Remark 4. The operators P_k and $P_{\leq k}$ are **almost** projections, since $\psi(\xi/2^k)$ is a smooth approximation of an indicator function (but the tail turns out not to be an issue).

Lemma 1 (Littlewood-Paley Projection Properties). *The following properties hold for all $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$:*

- (i) $P_k = P_{\leq k} - P_{\leq k-1}$
- (i) $\lim_{k \rightarrow -\infty} P_{\leq k} = 0$ and $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} P_{\leq k} f = f$ in L^2
- (i) $\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} P_k f = f$ in L^2

Remark 5. Property (iii) of Lemma 1 holds if $f \in L^p$ but not in general if $f \in L^1_{loc}$. Consider the case in which $f = 1$ and $\hat{f} = \delta_0$. Then $\text{supp}(\hat{f}) = \{0\}$.

¹A function ϕ is **radial** iff $\phi(x) = \phi(|x|)$ for all x .

3.2 Physical Space

How are we to interpret P_k in physical space?

Definition 8 (Dilation Operator). *For each $\lambda > 1$ and each $1 \leq p \leq \infty$, define an operator $\text{Di}|_\lambda^p$ on L^2 by*

$$\text{Di}|_\lambda^p(f)(x) := \lambda^{-n/p} f(x/\lambda)$$

for each $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and each $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Lemma 2 (Dilation Properties). *The following properties hold:*

- If \mathcal{F} is the Fourier transform operator, then

$$\mathcal{F} \text{Di}|_\lambda^p = \text{Di}|_{\lambda^{-1}}^q \mathcal{F}$$

where $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$.

- $\phi(\xi/2^k) = \text{Di}|_{2^k}^\infty \phi(\xi)$
- $P_{\leq k} f(x) = \text{Di}|_{2^{-k}}^1 \hat{\phi} * f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} f(x-y) 2^k \hat{\phi}(2^k y) dy$

Remark 6. *I didn't really understand this remark.*

Lemma 3. *Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let f be a function such that $\text{supp}(\hat{f}) \subseteq \{\xi : 2^{k-1} \leq |\xi| \leq 2^{k+1}\}$. Then*

$$\|\nabla f\|_{L^p} \sim 2^k \|f\|_{L^p}, \quad 1 \leq p \leq \infty$$

and in particular,

$$\|P_k f\|_{L^p} \sim 2^k \|f\|_{L^p}$$

in particular we have

$$\|\nabla P_k f\|_{L^p} \sim 2^k \|P_k f\|_{L^p} \tag{9}$$

4 2022-10-04: Lecture Notes

Proof of Lemma 3. From the notes of last time, we have

$$\|\nabla f(x)\|_p \leq 2^k \|f\|_p$$

It remains to prove an inequality in the other direction. Intuitively, we need to “invert” ∇ . Recall we have

$$\widehat{\partial_{x_j} f}(\xi) = 2\pi i \xi_j \widehat{f}(\xi)$$

Therefore if $|\xi| \leq 2^{k+2}$, we have

$$\phi\left(\frac{\xi}{2^{k+2}}\right) \widehat{\partial_{x_j} f}(\xi) = 2\pi i \xi_j \widehat{f}(\xi)$$

then we multiply both sides by ξ_i and sum over j :

$$\sum_{j=1}^m \xi_j \phi\left(\frac{\xi}{2^{k+2}}\right) \widehat{\partial_{x_j} f}(\xi) = \sum_{j=1}^m 2\pi i \widehat{f}(\xi) \xi_j^2 |\xi|^2 = 2\pi i \widehat{f}(\xi) |\xi|^2$$

here m is the dimension ($\xi \in \mathbb{R}^m$). Then (why)

$$\widehat{f}(\xi) = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\xi_j \phi\left(\frac{\xi}{2^{k+2}}\right) \widehat{\partial_{x_j} f}(\xi)}{2\pi i |\xi|^2}$$

Then taking the inverse Fourier transform and using that $\widehat{f \cdot g} = \widehat{f * g}$

$$f = 2^{-k} \sum_{j=1}^m K_{k,j} * \delta_{x_j} f \quad (10)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} K_{k,j} &= 2^k \int \phi \left(\frac{\xi}{2^{k+2}} \right) \frac{\xi_j}{2\pi i |\xi|^2} e^{2\pi i x \cdot \xi} d\xi \\ &= 2^{nk} \int \phi \left(\frac{\xi}{2^2} \right) \frac{\xi_j}{2\pi i |\xi|^2} e^{\pi i 2^k \cdot x \cdot \xi} d\xi \end{aligned}$$

where the second equality follows by a change of variable. In particular, we have

$$|K_{k,j}(x)| \lesssim 2^{nk}$$

where the squiggly inequality hides some constants. Note that we can write our formula as

$$K_{k,j}(x) = 2^{nk} \int \phi \left(\frac{\xi}{4} \right) \frac{\xi_j}{2\pi i |\xi|^2} \partial_\xi \left(\frac{e^{2\pi i 2^k x \cdot \xi}}{2\pi i 2^k x} \right) ds$$

which suggests an integration by parts. Integrating by parts s times, we obtain

$$|K_{k,j}(x)| \lesssim 2^{nk} |2^k x|^{-s}$$

for $s > 0$. Here $K_{k,j}$ is like an approximation of identity. Finally, applying the Minkowski inequality to Eq. (10), we get

$$\|\nabla f\|_{L^p} \geq 2^k \|f\|_{L^p},$$

as required. \square

Remark 7 (Singularity at zero). *There is some question about a singularity at zero. But this is not an issue since under the hypotheses of Lemma 3, the function \hat{f} is zero in a neighborhood of zero.*

Remark 8. *We will use the notation $f_k := P_k f$. Morally at the level of L^p , $\|\nabla f_k\|_p \sim \|f_k\|_{L^p}$ so heuristically, $\nabla \sim \sum_k 2^k P_k$. This might become clear later.*

Now we want to connect $P_k(f)$ on $P_{\leq k}f$ to f itself. We have

$$1. \quad \|P_{\leq k}f\|_{L^p} \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^m} \|f(x - 2^{-k}y)\|_{L^p} |\widehat{\phi}(y)| dy \lesssim \|f\|_{L^p} \text{ also [check this] } \widehat{P_{\leq k}f} = \phi(\xi/2^k) \hat{f}(\xi) \text{ implies}$$

$$\|P_{\leq k}f\|_{L^p} \leq \|f\|_{L^p} \quad (11)$$

2. (Cheap LP inequality): By Minkowski inequality, since

$$f = \sum_k P_k f$$

implies

$$\sup_k \|P_k f\|_p \lesssim \|f\|_p \leq \sum_k \|P_k f\|_p$$

There is a way to elegantly prove the Sobolev embeddings using Littlewood-Paley. The idea will be to prove it for a dyadic piece.

Lemma 4 (Non-endpoint Sobolev Embedding). *Let $1 \leq p < q \leq \infty$ such that $\frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{n} > \frac{1}{2}$. Then*

$$\|f\|_{L^q(\mathbb{R}^n)} \leq C_{p,q,n} \|f\|_{L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)} + \|\nabla f\|_{L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)} \quad (12)$$

for all $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ such that the right hand side is finite. Here, $C_{p,q,n}$ is a constant which depends only on p, q , and n .

Remark 9. *The endpoint version is when $\frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{2}$. The proof will be similar but with some added complications. See Evans.*

Proof of Lemma 4. Let f be a Schwarz function, and denote the right hand side of Eq. (12) by X . Then by Eq. (11),

$$\|P_k f\|_p \leq X \quad (13)$$

for all k , and also

$$\|\nabla P_k f\|_p \leq \|\nabla f\|_p \leq X.$$

Also, by Eq. (9) from Lemma 3, we have

$$\|P_k f\|_p \lesssim 2^{-k} X \quad (14)$$

By Eqs. (13) and (14), we havem

$$\|P_k f\|_{L^p} \lesssim \min \{1, 2^{-k}\} X$$

Note taht if $|\xi| \sim 2^k$ then $2^{k-1} \leq |\xi| \leq 2^{k+1}$. What is the L^q norm of f ? Since $q > p$, we use Bernstein's inequality, which states that

$$\|P_k f\|_q \leq 2^{(\frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{q})kn} \|P_k f\|_{L^p}.$$

We will prove this proof later. It follows that

$$\|P_k f\|_q \lesssim 2^{(\frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{q})kn} \min \{1, 2^{-k}\} X$$

then consideration of the cases where $k \rightarrow \pm\infty$, we find that the coefficient decays and the maximum value is when $k = 0$. Then summing over k 's gives the result. \square

5 Lecture: 2022-10-06

We start with the following inequality.

Theorem 1 (Bernstein's Inequality). *Let $f_k = P_k f$, and assume that $1 \leq p \leq q \leq \infty$. Then*

(a) *The following inequality holds:*

$$\|f\|_{L^q(\mathbb{R}^d)} \lesssim 2^{k(\frac{d}{p} - \frac{d}{2})} \|f_k\|_{L^p(\mathbb{R}^d)}.$$

(a) *A similar inequality holds for $f_{\leq k}$*

(a) *For all $s \in \mathbb{R}$ and all $1 \leq p \leq \infty$,*

$$\| |\nabla|^s f_k \|_{L^p} \sim 2^{ks} \|f_k\|_{L^p}.$$

Proof of part (a) of Theorem 1. Integrating by parts,

$$\|f_k\|_q = \|P_k f\|_q = \left\| f * 2^{kd} \tilde{\psi}(2^k \cdot) \right\|_q$$

We'll use Young's inequality, which says that if $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{r} = \frac{1}{q} + 1$, then

$$\|g * h\|_q \lesssim \|g\|_p \|h\|_r.$$

Thus we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\|f_k\|_q &\lesssim \|f\|_p \left\| 2^{kd} \tilde{\psi}(2^k \cdot) \right\|_r \\ &\lesssim \|f\|_p 2^{k(d-\frac{d}{r})} \left\| \tilde{\psi} \right\|_r\end{aligned}$$

where the second step is by a change of variables $y \mapsto 2^k y$. Then

$$\|f_k\|_q \lesssim \|f\|_p 2^{kd(\frac{1}{p}-\frac{1}{q})}$$

To fix this, we will take a fatter Littlewood-Paley projection:

$$\tilde{P}_k := P_{2^{k-2} \leq 2^j \leq 2^{k+2}}$$

(recall that P_k was a projection to frequency $[2^{k-1}, 2^{k+1}]$). In this case, $\tilde{P}_k P_k = P_k$ and we do the same computations as before to obtain

$$\|f_k\|_q = \left\| \tilde{P}_k f_k \right\|_q$$

Something:

$$\widehat{\tilde{P}_k f}(\xi) = \left(\sum_{2^{k-2} \leq 2^j \leq 2^{k+2}} \psi_{2^j} \right) (\xi) \hat{f}(\xi)$$

which implies that

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{P}_k f &= f * \left(\sum \psi_{2^j} \right) \\ &= f * \sum 2^{jd} \tilde{\psi}(2^j \cdot) \\ &\sim f * 2^j \sum \tilde{\psi}(2^j \cdot)\end{aligned}$$

this is simple but

□

I got distracted by latex not playing nice and missed something.

Recall we wanted to...

First the cheap LP inequality:

$$\sup_k \|P_k f\|_p \lesssim \|f\|_p \leq \sum_k \|P_k f\|_p$$

and for $p = 2$, using Plancherel we can get

$$\|f\|_2 \sim \left(\sum_k \|P_k f\|_2^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

which we rewrite as

$$\|f\|_2 \sim \left\| \left(\sum_k |P_k f|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\|_2.$$

We call this the “square function”. Define

$$Sf = \left(\sum_k |P_k f|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Then we have the following theorem

Theorem 2 (LP inequality). *Let $1 < p < \infty$. Then*

$$\|Sf\|_p \sim \|f\|_p$$

where the constant depends on p .

Sobolev Spaces. Suppose $f \in W^{s,p}$, and define

$$\|f\|_{W^{s,p}} := \sum_{j=1}^s \|\nabla^j f\|_p < \infty$$

where s is an integer. Our goal is to replace ∇ in terms of P_k . We have the following lemma.

Lemma 5. *Let $j \geq 0$ and $1 < p < \infty$. Then*

$$\|\nabla^j f\|_p \sim \left\| \left(\sum_k |2^{jk} P_k f|^q \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \right\|_p$$

Proof. Later. □

Then we can rewrite the norm.

$$\|f\|_{W^{s,p}} \sim \left\| \left(\sum_k |(1+2^k)^s P_k f|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\|_p$$

actually in this case, the thing is defined for any real number s , and not just when s is an integer.

Definition 9 (Japanese Bracket). *Define*

$$\langle x \rangle := \sqrt{1 + |x|^2}.$$

*This is called the **Japanese bracket**. We define an operator*

$$\langle \nabla \rangle^s := \sqrt{1 + \Delta}^s$$

which is defined in the Fourier side.

Remark 10. *The “plus 1” in Definition 9 will take on significance when we distinguish between homogeneous and inhomogeneous Sobolev spaces.*

Remark 11. *The operator $\langle \nabla \rangle \approx |\Delta|$ at frequencies $|\xi| > 1$, but treats differently low frequencies.*

We have $\widehat{\nabla f}(\xi) = 2\pi i \xi \hat{f}(\xi)$ and we define similarly, $|\widehat{\nabla}|f(\xi) = 2\pi i |\xi| \hat{f}(\xi)$ and the Japanese bracket notation is defined similarly.

6 2022-10-09: Make-Up Lecture

In this lecture, we will discuss Strichartz estimates. These will be particular to each dispersive equation. For example, nonlinear Schrödinger equation has its own Strichartz estimates which are different from, say, those for the Benjamin-Ono equations or the wave equations. For your own equations, you'll need to derive it.

Remark 12 (Notation). *For $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, denote*

$$\|u\|_{L_t^q L_x^r} := \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |u(t, x)|^r dx \right]^{\frac{1}{r} \cdot q} dt \right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

Let's consider the Schrodinger equation

$$\begin{cases} i\partial_t u(t, x) + \Delta u(t, x) = 0 \\ u(0, x) = u_0(x) \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

and for simplicity we will assume that $u_0(x)$ is a Schwartz function so that $u(t, x)$ is Schwartz for all x, t .

Apply the Fourier transform in space to Eq. (15).

$$\begin{cases} i\widehat{u}_t(t, \xi) = |\xi|^2 \widehat{u}(t, \xi) \\ \widehat{u}(0, \xi) = \widehat{u}_0(\xi) \end{cases}$$

This is a separable equation with respect to t . Separating gives:

$$\frac{d\widehat{u}}{\widehat{u}} = -i|\xi|^2 dt.$$

and integrating gives

$$\log \widehat{u} = -i|\xi|^2 t + C$$

which implies that

$$\widehat{u}(t, \xi) = e^{-i|\xi|^2 t} \widehat{u}_0(\xi)$$

and inverting the Fourier transform gives

$$\begin{aligned} u(t, x) &= \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left[e^{-i|\xi|^2 t} \widehat{u}_0(\xi) \right] \\ &= (2\pi)^{d/2} \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left[e^{-i|\xi|^2 t} \right] * u_0(x) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore it remains to compute $\mathcal{F}^{-1} \left[e^{-i|\xi|^2 t} \right]$. We did this in a previous class.

We have a solution operator $S(t) = e^{it\Delta}$ [is this correct?] which is

$$\begin{aligned} S(t)u_0(x) &= (2\pi)^{d/2} \mathcal{F} \left[e^{-t|\xi|^2 i} \right] * u_0(x) \\ &= (4\pi i t)^{-d/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{\frac{i|x-y|^2}{4t}} u_0(y) dy \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

The operator $e^{it\Delta}$ is the linear Schrodinger operator. Now we can derive the dispersive estimate. First, observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \|u\|_\infty &= \|e^{it\Delta} u_0\|_{L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)} \\ &\lesssim |t|^{-\frac{d}{2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |u_0(y)| dy \\ &= |t|^{-\frac{d}{2}} \|u_0\|_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)} \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

Second, observe that,

$$\|e^{it\Delta} u_0\|_{L^2} = \|u\|_{L^2_x}^2 = \|u_0\|_{L^2_x} \quad (18)$$

[somehow the second equality is obvious from Eq. (17)] so that

$$\|u\|_{H^s} = \|u_0\|_{H^s}$$

Interpolating Eqs. (17) and (18) gives, for all $2 \leq p \leq \infty$,

$$\|e^{it\Delta}\|_{L^p \mathbb{R}^d} \leq |t|^{-\left(\frac{d}{2} - \frac{d}{p}\right)} \|u_0\|_{L^{p'}}$$

where p' is the Holder conjugate of p .

Difference between \dot{H}^s and H^s .

7 2022-10-11: Lecture

Theorem 3 (Strichartz). Assume we have q, r a Strichartz admissible pair with $2 \leq q, r \leq \infty$. Then for (q, r) and (\tilde{q}, \tilde{r}) we have $(q, \infty, 2) \neq (q, r, d)$, $\frac{2}{q} + \frac{d}{r} = \frac{d}{2}$. Then

- From Str. Est

$$\|e^{i\Delta t} u_0\|_{L^q L^r(\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^d)} \lesssim C_{d,q,r} \|u_0\|_{L_x^2}$$

- From dual form of Str.: $\|\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{is\Delta} F(s) ds\|_{L_x^2} \lesssim_{d,\tilde{q},\tilde{r}} \|F\|_{L^{\tilde{q}} L^{\tilde{r}}}$

- Inform str est

$$\left\| \int_{t' < t} i(t-t') F(t') ds \right\|_{L^q L^r} \lesssim_{d,q,r,\tilde{q},\tilde{r}} \|F\|_{L^{\tilde{r}'} L^{\tilde{q}'}}$$

Proof. TT^* argument. Here $T : H \rightarrow B$, $TT^\infty : B' \rightarrow B$, $T^* : B' \rightarrow H'$ we have

$$\|T\| < \infty \iff \|TT^*\| < \infty \iff \|T^*\| < \infty$$

and here we have $T = e^{it\Delta}$. We want to show that (1) $T : L^2 \rightarrow L^q L^{r'}$. I will do the TT^* bound. Here

$$TT^* : L^{q'} L^{r'} \rightarrow L^q L^r$$

and we want to show this is truly the mapping domains and range. What is the adjoint of T^* ? What do we usually do to find the adjoint? We look at the inner product and we move things. Our inner product is

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, T^* G \rangle_{L_t^2 L_x^2} &= \langle T f, G \rangle_{L_x^2} \\ &= \int \int e^{it\Delta} f \overline{G(t, x)} dx dt \\ &= \int f \int \overline{e^{-it\Delta} G(t, x)} dx dt \end{aligned}$$

so that $T^* = \int e^{-it\Delta} G(t, x) dt$ □

Using the dispersive estimate for the Schrodinger equation from earlier

$$\begin{aligned} \|TT^* F\|_{L_t^q L_x^r} &= \|e^{it\Delta} e^{-is\Delta} F\| \\ &= \|e^{i(t-s)\Delta} F\|_{L^q L_x^r} \\ &\lesssim \left\| |t-s|^{-\left(\frac{d}{2} - \frac{d}{r}\right)} \|F(s)\|_{L^{r'}} ds \right\|_{L_t^q} \\ &= \left\| |t|^{-2/q} * \|F(t)\|_{L^{r'}} \right\|_{L_t^q} \end{aligned}$$

at the end of the day, using some Littlewood Hardy Sobolev inequality, we get an upper bound

$$\|F\|_{L^{q'} L^{r'}}$$

and we get

$$\|TT^*\|_{L^{q'} L^{r'} \rightarrow L^q L^r} < \infty$$

this proves the second part of Theorem 3. And first part follow from something.

We will apply the following lemma with K as the schrodinger operator.

Lemma 6 (Christ-Kiselev). Suppose X, Y are Banach spaces and $T : L^p(\mathbb{R}, X) \rightarrow L^q(\mathbb{R}, Y)$ where $1 \leq p < q < \infty$ which is given by the integral transform

$$Tf(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} K(t, s) f(s) ds$$

where $K : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}(X, Y)$

[Need to fix this part.]

7.0.1 Bilinear Strichartz estimates

We have linear Sch equation ($i\partial_t u = -\Delta u$). Two initial data v_0, u_0 both of which are schartz functions. [missed the last 15 minutes of this lecture]

8 Lecture: 2022-10-18

At this point we all should know Duhamel's principle, which is what we did last time. In general, for any PDE of the form

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t u - Lu = N(u) \\ u_0 = u(0) \end{cases}$$

where $N(u)$ is nonlinear (and with the right L , which can be used for energy estimates), Duhamel's principle states that your solution will be of the form

$$u(t, x) = \underbrace{e^{tL}\mu_0}_{\text{linear PDE}} + \underbrace{\int_0^t e^{(t-s)L} N(u(s)) ds}_{\text{The Duhamel term. Inhomogenous. Call it } DN(u)}. \quad (19)$$

When studying local wellposedness (LWP) for NLS (Nonlinear Schrodinger - semilinear). There is a huge difference when studying LWP for quasilinear versus semilinear PDEs, and even more so when the LPW theory is done in a low-regularity setting. In particular, in the low regularity setting we cannot use the same techniques as were used in the semilinear case. Thus the methods for proving LWP differ in these settings:

For the semilinear case, we use a **fixed point argument**. This may work even in a low regularity setting (depending on the PDE you are using). This technique may work for quasilinear equations, but only in the high-regularity setting. The form of Eq. (19) suggests a perturbative method. We can reformulate our problem as

$$u(t, x) = u_{\text{linear}} + DN(u) \quad (20)$$

Theorem 4 (Contraction mapping argument). *Start with two Banach spaces \mathcal{S} (not the Shwarz space) and \mathcal{N} . Suppose $D : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ is a linear operator such that there exists a positive constant $C_0 > 0$ such that*

$$\|DF\|_{\mathcal{S}} \leq C_0 \|F\|_{\mathcal{N}}$$

for all $F \in \mathcal{N}$, and further suppose we have a nonlinear operator

$$N : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$$

such that $N(0) = 0$ and such that N satisfies the Lipschitz bound

$$\|N(u) - N(v)\|_{\mathcal{N}} \leq \frac{1}{2C_0} \|u - v\|_{\mathcal{S}}$$

where $u, v \in B_\epsilon = \{u \in \mathcal{S} : \|u\|_{\mathcal{S}} \leq \epsilon\}$ for $\epsilon > 0$. Then for all $u_{\text{lin}} \in B_{\epsilon/2}$ there exists a unique solution

$$u \in B_\epsilon$$

which is a solution to Eq. (20), with the map

$$u_0 \mapsto u$$

is Lipschitz with constant at most 2. In particular, we have

$$\|u\|_{\mathcal{S}} \leq 2 \|u_{\text{lin}}\|_{\mathcal{S}}$$

Example 6 (Nonlinear Schrodinger). *Suppose we have the equation*

$$\left(i\partial_t + \frac{\Delta}{2}\right) u = |u|^{p-1} u$$

where $u : \mathbb{R}^{1+d} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, i.e. $u : [-T, T] \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Then LWP in $e_t^0 H^s \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ in L^2 [missed something here].

Consider the equation

$$\begin{cases} u_t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta u = \mu|u|^{p-1}u \\ u(t_0, x) = u_0(x) \in H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d) \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

where we choose p to be prime (e.g. $p = 3$ is called the **cubic NLS**, $p = 5$ is the **quintic NLS**) as this often corresponds to something physically relevant. If $\mu = 0$ there is no nonlinearity. If $\mu = +1$ or $\mu = -1$, these are called the **focusing** and **defocusing** cases respectively. The focusing case will not play a role for the rest of this lecture, but will come into play when proving global well-posedness. If you want to prove global well-posedness you have to show that (1) your solution in the nonlinear case looks like the linear case, or (2) your solution splits into two bits: a soliton and a solution to your linear problem. However, for LWP (the topic of this lecture), the sign of μ doesn't make much a difference (because we'll be taking absolute values).

The nonlinearity in Eq. (21) doesn't look too bad because it's a polynomial, but it's still a nonlinearity. We will study this problem on the real line, i.e. we are looking for a solution

$$u : [-T, T] \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

and we want to show that such a solution exists. Then if we can make T large enough, we'll have a global solution.

We need to determine the regularity of the space we will be working on. Terry does a great job in Chapter 3 of discussing all the ways that you can treat this problem. You can treat it classically, or that you have solutions in a distributional sense, etc. There are multiple ways to think about this, so we need to be precise about what we mean by local well-posedness. This problem has many symmetries. To find scaling symmetry, we rescale our solutions

$$\begin{aligned} u(t, x) &\rightarrow \lambda^\alpha u(t\lambda^\beta, x\lambda^\gamma) \\ u_0(x) &\rightarrow \lambda^\alpha u_0(x\lambda^\gamma) \end{aligned}$$

where $\lambda > 0$. For our problem in particular, we will use

$$\begin{aligned} u(t, x) &\rightarrow \lambda^{-\frac{2}{p-1}} u\left(\frac{t}{\lambda^2}, \frac{x}{\lambda}\right) \\ u_0(x) &\rightarrow \lambda^{-\frac{2}{p-1}} u_0\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right) \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\|u_0(x)\|_{\dot{H}^{s_c}} = \left\| \lambda^{-\frac{2}{p-1}} u_0\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right) \right\|_{\dot{H}^{s_c}}$$

where $s_c = \frac{d}{2} - \frac{2}{p-1}$. The critical value s_c is the threshold for the lowest regularity for which we can achieve a LWP result.

In this context, the terminology is as follows. The case in which $s > s_c$ is called **subcritical**. Subcritical LWP theory is not that bad. The case when $s = s_c$ is called **critical**. The case when $s < s_c$ is called **supercritical**. Supercritical LWP theory is harder.

In general, showing LWP means showing

1. Existence of a solution (e.g. by a contraction mapping argument for semilinear problems; different story for quasilinear problem) in $C_t^0[-T, T]H_x^s$.
2. Uniqueness of solutions in the same regularity class (easy for both semi- and quasi-linear).
3. Continuous dependence on the initial data (we call this continuous dependence, but when dealing with semilinear PDEs what we really need is Lipschitz continuity). That is, we want the map

$$u_0 \rightarrow u$$

to be continuous.

Recall the Benjamin-Ono equation $u_t + H\partial_x^2 u = uu_x$, which is semilinear, but behaves more like a quasilinear problem in low regularity.

Definition 10 (Well-Posedness). We say the NLS is **locally well-posed (LWP)** in $H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d)$ if for any $u_0^* \in H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d)$, there exists a time $T > 0$ and an open ball $B \subset H_x^s$ containing u_0^* , and $X \subset C_t^0 H_x^s([-T, T] \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ such that for each $u_0 \in B$ there exists a strong unique solution $u \in X$ to the integral equation associated to the NLS via Duhamel formulation, and furthermore, the map $u_0 \rightarrow u$ is continuous from B to X .

- If, in addition $X = C_t^0 H_x^s([-T, T] \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ from this H_x^s -well posedness is **unconditional**. *[This isn't correct?]*
- If T can be arbitrarily large, then we have **global well-posedness**. If T only one H_x^s of the u_0 then we say we have WP in the **subcritical sense**. *[fix this]*
- If $u_0 \rightarrow u$ is uniformly continuous from B to X then we call it **uniform well-posedness**.

9 Lecture Notes: 2022-10-20

Recall

$$\begin{cases} iu_t + \frac{\Delta}{2}u = |u|^{p-1}u \\ u(0, x) = u_0(x) \end{cases} \quad (22)$$

has solution

$$u(t, x) = e^{i(t-t_0)\frac{\Delta}{2}}u(t_0) - i\mu \int_{t_0}^t e^{i(t-s)\frac{\Delta}{2}} F(s) ds$$

where $F(s) = |u(s, x)|^{p-1}u(s, x)$.

We will discuss classical solutions (LWP) on $[-T, T]$ or $[0, T]$. This means our solutions are going to be continuous in time and space. Our initial data is in $H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d)$, $s \in \mathbb{R}$ where $s > d/2$. Sobolev embedding will give continuity. The critical threshold is $s_c = \frac{d}{2} - \frac{2}{p-1}$.

Remark 13. Critical case means the time interval on which the solution is defined depends on the size of your initial data. If your data is small (i.e. is in a certain ball around 0, then you have a unique solution.)

The next theorem will use the fact that $H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d)$ is an algebra for certain values of s , depending on d . This follows from the inequality

$$\|fg\|_{H_x^s} \lesssim \|f\|_{H_x^s} \|g\|_{H_x^s} \quad (23)$$

In the subcritical case, the inequality Eq. (23) will not hold. We will use Strichartz estimates instead.

Theorem 5 (Classical NLS solutions). Let $p > 1$ be a prime number, $s \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $s > d/2$, and $\mu = \pm 1$. Then Eq. (22) is unconditionally well-posed in $H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d)$ in the subcritical sense: for all $R > 0$ there exists $T = T(s, d, p, R) > 0$ such that for all $u_0 \in B_R = \left\{ u_0 \in H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d), \|u_0\|_{H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d)} < R \right\}$ there exists a unique solution $u \in C_t^0 H_x^s([-T, T] \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ to Eq. (22). Furthermore, the map

$$B_R \rightarrow C_t^0 H_x^s \quad \text{given by} \quad u_0 \mapsto u$$

is Lipschitz continuous.

Proof. Fix $R > 0$. We will decide what $T > 0$ is later. Now we will apply the contraction mapping argument and will ultimately obtain unconditional well-posedness. Let

$$\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{N} = C_t^0 H_x^s$$

and consider the map $D : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ given by

$$DF(t, x) = i\mu \int_0^t e^{i(t-s)\frac{\Delta}{2}} F(s, x) ds$$

and let $N : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ be given by

$$N(u(t, x)) = |u|^{p-1}u.$$

We will need to show that there exists a constant C_0 such that

$$\|DF\|_{\mathcal{S}} \leq C_0 \|F\|_{\mathcal{N}} \quad (24)$$

and

$$\|Nu - Nv\|_{\mathcal{N}} \leq \frac{1}{2C_0} \|u - v\|_{\mathcal{S}} \quad (25)$$

(We are hiding the fact that we need $u_{\text{lin}} \in B_{R/2}$. This won't screw anything up). First we will prove Eq. (24):

$$\begin{aligned} \|DF\|_{\mathcal{S}} &= \left\| \int_0^t e^{i(t-s)\Delta/2} F(s) ds \right\|_{C_t^0 H_x^s([-T, T] \times \mathbb{R}^d)} \\ &\leq C_0(t, d) \|F\|_{H_x^s}. \end{aligned}$$

Next, to prove Eq. (25),

$$\begin{aligned} \|N(u) - N(v)\|_{C_t^0 H_x^s} &= \| |u|^{p-1}u - |v|^{p-1}v \|_{C_t^0 H_x^s} \\ &\leq \| (|u|^{p-1} + |v|^{p-1}) (u - v) \|_{C_t^0 H_x^s} \\ &\leq \tilde{C}_0(p, s, d, R) \|u - v\|_{C_t^0 H_x^s}. \end{aligned}$$

Now I want to apply the contraction mapping which means we have to have T sufficiently small (so that $\tilde{C}_0 < \frac{1}{2C_0}$). Then contraction mapping implies that if $u_{\text{lin}} \in C_t^0 H_x^s$, $\|u_{\text{lin}}\|_{C_t^0 H_x^s} \lesssim R$, there exists a unique solution $u \in C_t^\infty H_x^s$ with $\|u\|_{C_t^0 H_x^s} < R$. And it also implies that the map $H_x^s \rightarrow C_t^0 H_x^s$ given by $u \rightarrow u_0$ is Lipschitz on the ball in on radius of order $O(R)$. [This is proposition 1.38 in Terry Tao's notes]. This looks like **conditional** well-posedness. Next we explain why we also get unconditional well-posedness using a bootstrap argument.

We get uniqueness as long as $C_t^0 H_x^s$ of the solution is $O(R)$. But $\|u_0\|_{H_x^s}$ at most R at time $t = 0$. We prove unconditional uniqueness as follows. Let $u \in C_t^0 H_x^s$ be what constructed earlier. So $\|u\|_{\mathcal{S}} \leq C_1 R$. Let $u^* \in C_t^0 H_x^s$ is another solution. We'll show that u^* is also in the ball. Let $H(t)$ be the proposition

$$H(t) : \|u^*\|_{C_t^0 H_x^s([-t, t] \times \mathbb{R}^d)} \leq 2C_1 R.$$

This is our bootstrap assumption. We will show that this implies that u^* actually lives in a smaller ball:

$$C(t) : \|u^*\|_{C_t^0 H_x^s([-t, t] \times \mathbb{R}^d)} \leq C_1 R,$$

which means we are in a smaller ball! It's like we want to be in the bathroom, and we are assuming that we are in the house (a decent assumption) and then finding out that we are actually in bathroom. The above bootstrap argument works for every t up to some fixed maximal value, which is T . This implies unconditional LWP. \square

For the next theorem, we will need to introduce some new notation. If $s = 0$ then $H^s = L^2$.

$$s_c < 0$$

and since $s_c = \frac{d}{2} - \frac{2}{p-1}$. Therefore

$$1 < p < 1 + \frac{4}{d}$$

For the case with $s \leq d/2$ then sour solutions are in H_x^s but this does not give classical solutions because there is no algebra property for H^s when $s \leq d/2$.

Theorem 6 (Subcritical L^2 Solutions to NLS).

10 Lecture Notes: 2022-10-28

Last time we proved LWP theory for classical L^2 -subcritical solution for “our” algebraic NLS.

$$\begin{cases} iu_t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta = \mu|u|^{p-1}u & p = \text{odd integer} \\ u_0(x) = u(t_0, x) & u : I \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \end{cases} \quad (26)$$

and without loss of generality, one can assume that $t_0 = 0$.

Now, we want to show that we have less regular solutions, i.e. solutions in H_x^s for $s \leq \frac{d}{2}$. In this case, one does not have the solutions in $L_x^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$ (recall $H^s \not\subset L^\infty$).

Now maybe we can no longer say that for all time the solution is in L_x^∞ , but maybe there is a time-averaged L^∞ space such as $L_t^{p-1}L_x^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$ such that the solutions with regularity less than $\frac{d}{2}$ are contained by these spaces.

Heuristics suggest that the existence of such time-averaged spaces is possible because one does not expect “energy” of your solutions to be large on a large time (because it is a dispersive PDE and one has Strichartz (linear)).

To this end we define \mathcal{S}^s (Strichartz spaces) that capture all the Strichartz norms at a certain regularity H_x^s simultaneously.

Start with L^2 theory ($s = 0, H^0 = L^2$) which gives the Strichartz space $\mathcal{S}^0 = \mathcal{S}^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)$, $I \subset \mathbb{R}$, with norm defined as

$$\|u\|_{\mathcal{S}^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)} := \sup_{(q,r) \text{ admissible}} \|u\|_{L_t^q L_x^r(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)}.$$

[What is the definition of admissibility here? Is it $2/q + d/r = d/2$? -m] For $d = 2$ we must be careful because the sets of admissible exponents is not compact so the notion of a supremum needs to be adjusted.

Remark 14 (Strichartz Space Norms). *We make the following observations:*

1. The $\mathcal{S}^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^n)$ norm controls the $C_t^0 L_x^2$ norm.
2. \mathcal{S}^0 is a Banach space. Therefore we have a dual space,

$$\mathcal{N}^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^d) := [\mathcal{S}^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)]^* \quad (27)$$

which is equipped with the norm

$$\|F\|_{\mathcal{N}^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)} := \inf_{(q',r') \text{ admissible}} \|u\|_{L_t^{q'} L_x^{r'}(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)}$$

[Should this be Fu in the norm on the right-hand side? -m] or equivalently,

$$\|F\|_{\mathcal{N}^0} \leq \|F\|_{L_t^{q'} L_x^{r'}(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)}$$

provided that the right hand side is finite.

3. $(\mathcal{S}^1)^* \neq \mathcal{N}^1$
4. Letting $F = iu_t + \frac{\Delta}{2}u$, we can compactly write the Strichartz estimates $[(i), (ii)]$ [Not sure where this is referencing -m] in the following way

$$\|u\|_{\mathcal{S}^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)} \lesssim d \|u(t_0)\|_{L_x^2(\mathbb{R}^d)} + \|F\|_{\mathcal{N}^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)} \quad (28)$$

Theorem 7 (Subcritical LWP in Strichartz Space). *Let p be any L^2 -subcritical exponent (i.e., $1 < p < 1 + \frac{4}{d}$), and let $\mu = \pm 1$. Then Eq. (26) is locally well-posed in $L_x^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ in the subcritical sense. More specifically, for any $R > 0$, there exists a constant $T = T(k, d, p, R) > 0$ such that for all u_0 in $B_R := \{u_0 \in L_x^2(\mathbb{R}^d) : \|u_0\|_{L_x^2(\mathbb{R}^d)} < R\}$, it follows that there exists a unique solution u to Eq. (26) such that*

$$u \in \mathcal{S}^0([-T, T] \times \mathbb{R}^d) \subset C_t^0 L_x^2([-T, T] \times \mathbb{R}^d),$$

and, furthermore, the map $B_R \rightarrow \mathcal{S}^0$ given by $u_0 \mapsto u$ is Lipschitz continuous.

Proof of Theorem 7. . The proof relies on the same **contraction mapping** argument that you find in Tao (prop 1.38), and have the same integral representation (i.e. see Eq. (19) of NLS via Duhamel's formula which leads to

1. $D : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ given by $DF(t) := -i \int_0^t e^{i(t-s)\frac{\Delta}{2}} F(s) ds$
2. $N(u(t)) = \mu |u|^{p-1} u$.

Here we use different choices of \mathcal{S} and \mathcal{N} than in the classical solutions to the NLS proof. There if you recall we used $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{N} = C_t^0 H_x^s$. Here we take

$$\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{S}^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^d) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{N} = \mathcal{N}^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^d).$$

In order to place $u_{\text{lin}} \in B_{\frac{\epsilon}{2}}$, we get from Eq. (28) that we need to take $\epsilon = C_1 R$, where $C_1 = C_1(d)$ is some large constant depending on d .

Now we need to return to proving the bound

$$\|DF\|_{\mathcal{S}^0} \leq C_0 \|F\|_{\mathcal{N}^0}.$$

This bound follow from Eq. (28) (for some large C_0). Now we return to the estimate for N :

$$\|N(u) - N(v)\|_{\mathcal{N}^p} \leq \frac{1}{2C_0} \|u - v\|_{\mathcal{S}^0}.$$

Here $N(u) = |u|^{p-1}u$, so we want to show

$$\||u|^{p-1}u - |v|^{p-1}v\|_{\mathcal{N}^0} \leq \frac{1}{2C_0} \|u - v\|_{\mathcal{S}^0} \quad (29)$$

whenever we have $\|u\|_{\mathcal{S}^0} \leq C, R$.

Taking (q, r) to be an admissible exponent pair, we have

$$\frac{2}{q} + \frac{d}{r} = \frac{d}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{p}{r} = \frac{1}{r'}$$

The second equality refers to the nonlinearity in which we multiply p functions in L^r and you land in $L^{r'}$. The hypotheses of the theorem are satisfied ($1 < p < 1 + \frac{4}{d}$), then $2 < r < q < \infty$ and (q, r) are admissible.

Now, we can estimate the \mathcal{N}^0 norm by $L_t^{q'} L_x^{r'}$. Since $q > r$, it follows that $\frac{p}{q} < \frac{1}{q'}$, we can replace $L_t^{q'}$ by $L_t^{\frac{q}{p}}$ [(since $L_t^{\frac{q}{p}} \subset L_t^{q'}$)?]. This is the key point because by suing Holder inequality in time [i.e. since $\frac{1}{p} = \frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{r}$, $r > 0$, we have $\|f\|_{L^p[-T, T]} \lesssim T^{1/r} \|f\|_{L^q}$] and get a factor of T^α for some $\alpha > 0$.

In addition, we have the following inequality

$$\||u|^{p-1}u - |v|^{p-1}v\| \lesssim_p \||u|^{p-1} + |v|^{p-1}\| \|u - v\|$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} \||u|^{p-1}u - |v|^{p-1}v\|_{\mathcal{N}^0} &= \||u|^{p-1}u - |v|^{p-1}v\|_{L_t^{q'} L_x^{\frac{r}{p}}} \\ &\leq_p T^\alpha \||u|^{p-1}u - |v|^{p-1}v\|_{L_t^{\frac{q}{p}} L_x^{\frac{r}{p}}} \\ &\leq_p T^\alpha \|u - v\|_{L_t^q L_x^r} (\|u\|_{L^q L^r} + \|v\|_{L^q L^r})^{p-1} \\ &\lesssim_p C_1 R T^\alpha \|u - v\|_{L_t^q L_x^r([-T, T] \times \mathbb{R}^d)} \\ &\lesssim T^\alpha \|u - v\|_{\mathcal{S}^0([-T, T] \times \mathbb{R}^d)} \end{aligned}$$

So in order to obtain the Lipschitz bound for \mathcal{N} given by Eq. (29), we need to choose T small enough (depending on p, C_1, R) such that the inequality holds, which means we have a solution to Eq. (26) with norm at most $C_1 R/2$ which is unique!

Now we can drop the requirement that the norm of the solutions be at most $C_1 R$ from the uniqueness result together with a bootstrap argument (C_t^0 !!) [what does this parenthetical note mean?]. \square

Remark 15 (Case $p = 1 + \frac{4}{d}$). If $p = 1 + \frac{4}{d}$ you still get well-posedness but in the critical (L^2 critical solutions). However, it becomes obvious that T will depend on more than the norm of the initial data, but also on the profile of your solutions!!

Theorem 8 (Critical L_x^2 NLS solution). Let $p = 1 + \frac{4}{d}$, critical L_x^2 exponent and $\mu = \pm 1$. Then Eq. (26) is LWP in $L_x^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ in the critical sense. More specifically, given any $R > 0$, there exists a positive constant $\epsilon_0(R, d) > 0$ such that $u_* \in L_x^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ such that $\|u_*\| \leq R$, $I = [-T, T]$ such that

$$\left\| e^{ti\Delta/2} u_* \right\|_{L_{t,x}^2} \leq \epsilon_0$$

Then for any $u_0 \in B := \left\{ u_0 \in L_x^2 : \|u_0 - u_*\|_{L_x^2} \leq \epsilon_0 \right\}$ there exists a unique L^2 solution $u \in \mathcal{S}^0$ of Eq. (26). And the solution map $B \rightarrow \mathcal{S}^0$ given by $u_0 \mapsto u$ is Lipschitz.

[Little confused about which statements are hypotheses and which are conclusions in the above theorem. -m]

Remark 16. Whether we were to take $\mu = \pm 1$ made no difference in the LWP theory above.

11 Lecture Notes: 2022-11-01

I missed class. Talked about the LWP theory for the critical case.

12 Lecture Notes: 2022-11-03

12.1 Conserved Functionals (Mass, Energy, etc) and some BIG Problems

We have done LWP for the following cases:

- L^2 subcritical NLS
- L^2 critical NLS

What about global well-posedness (GWP)?

- Small data (i.d.) \rightarrow careful when $\mu = \pm 1$
- Large data (not an easy problem, especially at the critical level)

NLS has many conserved functionals. These include **mass**, defined as

$$M(u(t, x)) := \int |u(t, x)|^2 dx$$

and **energy**, defined as

$$E(u(t, x)) := \int |\nabla u|^2 + \frac{2}{p+1} u|u|^{p+1} dx$$

as well as **momentum**, defined as

$$P(u(t, x)) := \text{Im} \int u \nabla \bar{u} dx$$

Energy and mass are more frequently-used; this is because the momentum does not have a sign (by contrast, the mass is always positive and the energy is either positive or negative). Furthermore, inspecting the equations above, we see that the mass equation suggests L^2 and the energy equation suggests H^1 .

There are two BIG problems

1. GWP for NLS for L^2 -critical NLS. This also goes by the name “mass-critical NLS”. This was proven by Dodson in 2011.

2. GWP for NLS for H^1 -critical NLS (large data)q. This goes by the name “energy-critical NLS.” This work was initially done by the I-Team (??) and then redone by Visan using tools from Dodson.

Both of these problems were done for the defocusing case. We will discuss some of the tools used for solving the energy-critical NLS.

We will now discuss GWP for subcritical NLS problems for large data, defocusing case. (If you are in the small data case, you can still use a fixed-point argument to prove GWP).

12.2 Easy Background

First, we will state two versions of Gronwall’s inequality without proof.

Theorem 9 (Gronwall’s Inequality (Integral Version)). *Let $u(t) : [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous and non-negative function, and suppose that there exists a nonnegative function $B : [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for any $t \in [t_0, t_1]$, the following inequality holds*

$$u(t) \leq A + \int_{t_0}^t B(s)u(s)ds.$$

Then

$$u(t) \leq Ae^{\int_{t_0}^t B(s)ds} \quad (30)$$

for all $t \in [t_0, t_1]$.

Theorem 10 (Gronwall’s Inequality (Differential Version)). *Let $u(t) : [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous and nonnegative function, and suppose that there exists a nonnegative function $B : [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for any $t \in [t_0, t_1]$, the following inequality holds*

$$\partial_t u(t) \leq B(t)u(t).$$

Then one has

$$u(t) \leq u(t_0)e^{\int_{t_0}^t B(s)ds}.$$

Third, we have persistence of regularity.

Theorem 11 (Persistence of Regularity). *Suppose $0 = t_0 \in I$, let $s \geq 0$, and let $u \in C_t^0 H_x^s(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ be an H_x^s solution to NLS. If the following quantity is finite:*

$$\|u\|_{L_t^{p-1} L_x^\infty(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)}$$

then u is uniformly bounded in H_x^s . In particular, the following inequality holds:

$$\|u\|_{L_t^\infty H_x^s(I \times \mathbb{R}^d)} \leq \|u(0)\|_{H_x^s} \exp \left\{ c(p, s, d) \|u\|_{L_t^{p-1} L_x^\infty}^{p-1} \right\}.$$

Proof of Theorem 11. I can reduce the problem to the case where $I = [0, T]$ where $T > 0$. (Symmetry gives $[-T, 0]$). By Duhamel’s Principle (see Eq. (19)), we have

$$u(t) = e^{it\nabla\mu_0} - i\mu \int_0^t e^{i(t-s)\Delta} |u|^{p-1} u ds.$$

Now we use the property that the linear Schrodinger propagation is a unitary operator on H_x^s . This implies that

$$\|u(t)\|_{H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d)} \leq \|u_0\|_{H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d)} + \int_0^t \| |u|^{p-1} u \|_{H_x^s(\mathbb{R}^d)} ds.$$

Now we make an assumption. Specifically, we will assume that our solution u is *bounded*—namely, that

$$u \in L_x^\infty \cap H_x^s.$$

This assumption allows for the following Moser-type inequality:

Lemma 7 (Moser-Type Inequality). *If $f, g \in H_x^s \cap L_x^\infty$, then*

$$\|fg\|_{H_x^s} \leq \|f\|_{H_x^s} \|g\|_{L_x^\infty} + \|g\|_{H_x^s} \|f\|_{L_x^\infty}$$

We will then be able to use Theorem 9 (Gronwall Integral Inequality), using

$$\| |u|^{p-1}u \|_{H_x^s(\mathbb{R})} < \|u\|_{H_x^s} \|u\|_{L_x^\infty}^{p-1}$$

□

Fourth, we will use conservation of energies.

Theorem 12 (Conservation of Mass). *It holds that $\frac{d}{dt}M(t) = 0$, or equivalently,*

$$\|u(t)\|_{L_x^2}^2 = \|u(t_0)\|_{L_x^2}^2.$$

Proof of Theorem 12. Direct computation, using equation

$$i\partial_t u + \Delta u = |u|^{p-1}u.$$

□

12.3 GWP for on L^2 -Supercritical NLS (large data)

Theorem 13. *Suppose $d = 1$, $p = 3$, $\mu = \pm 1$ and $t_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $u_0 \in L_x^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and let I be an interval such that $t_0 \in I$. Then there exists a unique solution $u \in S^0(I \times \mathbb{R}^d) \subset C_t^\infty L_x^2$ to NLS, from the LWP theory. Moreover, you have the Lipschitz dependence on the initial data. We claim that this hold globally in time.*

Proof. Involves using LWP result many times for a sequence of points in time, using the conservation of mass. See exercise in Tao's book about gluing strong solutions together. □

This proof does not work in the critical case; in the critical case, the intervals you add up keep getting smaller so there is no guarantee that you can get existence for all time.

Remark 17. *For the L^2 -critical case, you cannot get GWP in the same way. In the focusing case, ($\mu = +1$) you have some localized solutions called solitons. These might be Schwarz, but will blowup in finite time. Will give an example next time. In the defocusing case ($\mu = -1$), you do not get the whole time interval.*

Remark 18. *H^1 subcritical GWP you can play the same game with the two conserved quantities energy and mass.*

13 Lecture Notes: 2022-11-08

Today we will dig into the proofs of Visan and the methods. I will give you explanation why and how we do that. We will finish this topic by Thanksgiving. Then we will discuss mass-critical well-posedness.

Last time, we discussed global well-posedness for L^2 subcritical NLS. Similar methods will be used for GWP for H^1 -subcritical NLS.

We are going to cover the following tools:

13.1 Profile Decomposition

Using the Sobolev embedding,

$$\|e^{it\Delta} f\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}} \leq \|e^{it\Delta} \nabla f\|_{L_t^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}} L_x^{\frac{2d(d+2)}{d^2+4}}} \leq \|f\|_{\dot{H}^1} \quad (31)$$

Strichartz estimates do not have compactness properties. That is to say, given a sequence $\{f_n\}_{n \geq 1} \subset H^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$,

I want to say something about the convergence of $\{e^{it\Delta} f_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ in $L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}$. But convergence will not happen—not even at the level of a subsequence. So we can't even get our hands on a convergent subsequence. The issues arise from the noncompact symmetries of Eq. (31), which include time translation, space translations, H^1 -scaling. In the next example, we describe an easy scenario which illustrates this issue.

Example 7 (Time Translation Symmetry). Let $f \in H^1$ and for each positive integer n , define

$$kf_n(x) := f(x + x_n)$$

where $\{x_n\}_{n \geq 1} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is a divergent sequence. Now what can we say about

$$\{e^{it\Delta} f_n\}_{n \geq 1} ?$$

These converge weakly to zero. But energy is conserved so this cannot converge strongly to zero, not even along a subsequence.

The fix to this is to understand the **concentration of your solution**, which will somehow allow us to pass a limit by taking out the bad portions of our initial data (?). For this we have two technical lemmas which will show (1) that linear solutions to the NLS with nontrivial $L_t^q L_x^p$ norms concentrate on at least one frequency annulus, and (2) that solutions will contain a bubble of concentration about every point in space and time. You will see what I mean by “bubble of concentration” in a moment.

Lemma 8 (Concentration on 1 Annulus). Assume $d \geq 3$ and $f \in \dot{H}(\mathbb{R}^d)$. Then

$$\|e^{it\Delta} f\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}} \leq \|f\|_{\dot{H}_x^{\frac{d-2}{d+2}}} \cdot \sup_{N \in 2^{\mathbb{Z}}} \|e^{it\Delta} f_N\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{4}{\frac{d+2}{d-2}}}}$$

where $2^{\mathbb{Z}} := \{2^i : i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

Proof of Lemma 8. The case where $d < 6$ is easier, so we will do the case with $d \geq 6$.

$$\begin{aligned} \|e^{it\Delta} f\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}} &\lesssim \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left(\sum_{N \in 2^{\mathbb{Z}}} |e^{it\Delta} f_N|^2 \right)^{\frac{d+2}{d-2}} dx dt \\ &\lesssim \sum_{M \leq N} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |e^{it\Delta} f_M|^{\frac{d+2}{d-2}} \cdot |e^{it\Delta} f_N|^{\frac{d+2}{d-2}} dx dt \\ &\lesssim \sum_{M \leq N} \|e^{it\Delta} f_M\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-4}}} \|e^{it\Delta} f_M\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{4}{\frac{d+2}{d-2}}}} \|e^{it\Delta} f_N\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{4}{\frac{d+2}{d-2}}}} \|e^{it\Delta} f_N\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d}}} \quad \text{by Holder's inequality} \end{aligned}$$

Call the terms in the product on the right-hand side as I, II, III, and IV respectively.

For IV, we will use Strichartz estimate. For I, we use Bernstein's inequality

$$\begin{aligned} \text{I} &= \|e^{it\Delta} f_M\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-4}}} \\ &\leq M^2 \|e^{it\Delta} f_M\|_{L_t^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}} L_x^{\frac{2d(d+2)}{d^2+8}}} \end{aligned}$$

For II and III, we take advantage of the fact that $M \leq N$ to give us that

$$\begin{aligned} \|e^{it\Delta} f\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}} &\lesssim \sup_{N \in 2^{\mathbb{Z}}} \|e^{it\Delta} f\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{8}{\frac{d+2}{d-2}}}} \cdot \sum_{M \leq N} M^2 \|f_M\|_{L^2} \|f_N\|_{L^2} \\ &\lesssim \sum_{M \leq N} \frac{M}{N} \|\Delta f_M\|_{L_x^2} \|\Delta f_N\|_{L_x^2} \\ &\leq \|f\|_{\dot{H}^1}^2 \end{aligned}$$

□

Think about how we would do the above proof for $d \leq 3$.

Next, we state the “bubble removal proposition” (3.2 in Visan):

Lemma 9 (Bubble of Concentration). *Let $d \geq 3$, $\{f_n\}_{n \geq 1} \subset H^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$. Suppose that*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n\|_{\dot{H}_x^1} = A < \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|e^{it\Delta} f_n\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}} = \epsilon > 0.$$

Then there exists a subsequence of indices $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ and a function $\phi \in \dot{H}_x^1$ such that there exists a sequence of scales $\{\lambda_n\}_{n \geq 1} \subset (0, \infty)$ and a sequence of points in time $\{(t_n, x_n) : n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}\} \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^d$ such that

$$\lambda_n^{\frac{d-2}{d}} \left[e^{it_n \lambda_n^2 \Delta} f_n \right] (\lambda_n x + x_n) \rightharpoonup \phi(x) \quad \text{weakly in } \dot{H}_x^1$$

and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \|f_n\|_{\dot{H}_x^1}^2 - \|f_n - \phi_n\|_{\dot{H}_x^1}^2 \right\} = \|\phi\|_{\dot{H}_x^1}^2 \geq A^2 \left(\frac{\epsilon}{A} \right)^{\frac{d(d+2)}{4}}$$

where

$$\phi_n(x) := \lambda_n^{-\frac{d-2}{2}} \left[e^{-i\lambda_n^{-2} t_n \Delta} \phi \right] \left(\frac{x - x_n}{\lambda_n} \right),$$

and finally

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|e^{it\Delta} f_n\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}} - \|e^{it\Delta} (f_n - \phi_n)\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}} \gtrsim \epsilon^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}} \left(\frac{\epsilon}{A} \right)^{(d+2)(d+4)/4}$$

The proof is not that bad and we will go over it. We will prove this next class.

14 Lecture Notes: 2022-11-10

We want to prove GWP for energy critical NLS. Energy means H^1 . We have a sequence $f_{n_n} \subset H^1$, and we have $\{e^{it\Delta} f_n\}_n$ and we want some convergence of this latter sequence in $L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}$, or at least convergence of some subsequence. But this doesn't work directly.

Recall Lemma 8 (Prop 3.1 in Visan) which says that the Strichartz norm of $e^{it\Delta} f$ is controlled by a dyadic piece. This suggests that maybe we can subtract out the parts where the norms are concentrated. Recall also Lemma 9 (Prop 3.2 in Visan), which we stated but did not prove. This is the “bubble removal proposition”. You should read the proof in Visan. ||||| HEAD

The nonlinear problem will be similar to the linear problem but with some errors but these will be perturbative. This is the stability argument in Chapter 5 of Visan.

[More discussion about the meaning of the statement of Lemma 9].

The next result is Theorem (4.1) in Visan.

Theorem 14 (\dot{H}_x^1 linear profile decomposition for linear Shrodinger). *Fix $d \geq 3$ and let f_n be a sequence of bounded functions in $\dot{H}_x^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$. Passing to a subsequence, there exists $J^* \in \{1, 2, \dots\} \cup \{\infty\}$, functions $\{\phi^j : j = 1, \dots, J^*\} \subset \dot{H}_x^1$, a sequence $\{\lambda_n^j\} \subset (0, \infty)$, and points $\{(t_n^j, x_n^j) \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n$ such that for each finite $J \in \{0, \dots, J^*\}$, we have the following decomposition:*

$$f_n = \sum_{j=1}^J (\lambda_n^j)^{-\frac{d-2}{2}} \left[e^{it_n^j \Delta} \phi^j \right] \left(\frac{x - x_n^j}{\lambda_n^j} \right) + w_m^J. \quad (32)$$

This decomposition has the following properties:

1. *The function w_m^J is small in the space-time norm:*

$$\lim_{J \rightarrow J^*} \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|e^{it\Delta} w_n^J\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}} = 0$$

2. *Subtracting out all the bubbles gives something which converges to zero:*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\|\nabla f_n\|_{L^2}^2 - \sum_{j=1}^J \|\nabla \phi^j\|_{L^2}^2 - \|\nabla w_n^J\|_{L^2}^2 \right] = 0.$$

3. Subtracting all the energy that all the profiles measured in the space-time (and measuring in the same space), then subtracting the remainder, converges to zero. (This is like applying Lemma 9 many times).

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\|f_n\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2d}{d-2}}}^{\frac{2d}{d-2}} - \sum_{j=1}^J \|e^{it_n^j \Delta} \phi^j\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2d}{d-2}}}^{\frac{2d}{d-2}} \right] = 0$$

4.

$$e^{-it_n^j} \left[(\lambda_n^j)^{\frac{d-2}{2}} w_n^j (\lambda_n^j + x_n^j) \right] \rightharpoonup 0 \text{ weakly in } \dot{H}^1$$

5. Moreover, if $j \neq k$, we have, as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\frac{\lambda_n^j}{\lambda_n^k} + \frac{\lambda_n^k}{\lambda_n^j} + \frac{|x_n^j - x_n^k|^2}{\lambda_n^j \lambda_n^k} + \frac{|t_n^j (\lambda_n^j)^2 - t_n^k (\lambda_n^k)^2|}{\lambda_n^j \lambda_n^k} \rightarrow \infty$$

This is saying that the bubbles don't interact: if they are close in space, then they must be far apart in time (and vis-versa), and they spread out even more as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof of Theorem 15. Let $(g_n^j f)(x) = (\lambda_n^j)^{-\frac{d-2}{2}} f\left(\frac{x - x_n^j}{\lambda_n^j}\right)$, let $(g_n^j f)^{-1}(x) = (\lambda_n^j)^{\frac{d-2}{2}} f(\lambda_n^j x + x_n^j)$. Therefore the \dot{H}_x^1 -norms of f , $g_n^j f$, and $(g_n^j)^{-1} f$ are all equal. Moreover,

$$\langle g_n^j, g \rangle_{\dot{H}^1} = \langle f, (g_n^j)^{-1} g \rangle_{\dot{H}^1}.$$

Also, define

$$\phi_n^j(x) := (\lambda_n^j) \left[e^{it_n^j \Delta} \phi^j \right] \left(\frac{x - x_n^j}{\lambda_n^j} \right) = [g_n^j e^{it_n \Delta} \phi^j](x)$$

We start by defininig $w_n^0 := f_n$ and assume that we have the decomposition Eq. (33) up to J that satisfies properties 2,3, and 4 in the statement of the theorem. Then I have w_n^J , and to this I apply the bubble removal proposition (3.2): define

$$A_J := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|w_n^J\|_{H_x^1}$$

and define

$$\mathcal{E}_J := \|e^{it \Delta} w_n^J\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}.$$

If $\mathcal{E}_J = 0$ we are done and $J = J^*$. If $\mathcal{E}_J \neq 0$ then continue with proposition 3.5 (in Visan). We will continue this. \square

Make-up class on Friday. We will use slides. ===== 374e2576e46d7c2ab1a6fe95bb418b98944855a4

The nonlinear problem will be similar to the linear problem but with some errors but these will be perturbative. This is the stability argument in Chapter 5 of Visan.

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15 2022-11-21: Lecture Notes

===== [More discussion about the meaning of the statement of Lemma 9]. 374e2576e46d7c2ab1a6fe95bb418b989

The next result is Theorem (4.1) in Visan.

Theorem 15 (\dot{H}_x^1 linear profile decomposition for linear Shrodinger). Fix $d \geq 3$ and let f_n be a sequence of bounded functions in $\dot{H}_x^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$. Passing to a subsequence, there exists $J^* \in \{1, 2, \dots\} \cup \{\infty\}$, functions $\{\phi^j : j = 1, \dots, J^*\} \subset \dot{H}_x^1$, a sequence $\{\lambda_n^j\} \subset (0, \infty)$, and points $\{(t_n^j, x_n^j)\} \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n$ such that for each finite $J \in \{0, \dots, J^*\}$, we have the following decomposition:

$$f_n = \sum_{j=1}^J (\lambda_n^j)^{-\frac{d-2}{2}} [e^{it_n^j \Delta} \phi^j] \left(\frac{x - x_n^j}{\lambda_n^j} \right) + w_n^J. \quad (33)$$

This decomposition has the following properties:

1. The function w_m^J is small in the space-time norm:

$$\lim_{J \rightarrow J^*} \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|e^{it\Delta} w_n^J\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}} = 0$$

2. Subtracting out all the bubbles gives something which converges to zero:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\|\nabla f_n\|_{L^2}^2 - \sum_{j=1}^J \|\nabla \phi^j\|_{L^2}^2 - \|\nabla w_n^J\|_{L^2}^2 \right] = 0.$$

3. Subtracting all the energy that all the profiles measured in the space-time (and measuring in the same space), then subtracting the remainder, converges to zero. (This is like applying Lemma 9 many times).

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\|f_n\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2d}{d-2}}}^{\frac{2d}{d-2}} - \sum_{j=1}^J \|e^{it_n^j \Delta} \phi^j\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2d}{d-2}}}^{\frac{2d}{d-2}} \right] = 0$$

4.

$$e^{-it_n^J} \left[(\lambda_n^J)^{\frac{d-2}{2}} w_n^J(\lambda_n^J + x_n^J) \right] \rightharpoonup 0 \text{ weakly in } \dot{H}^1$$

5. Moreover, if $j \neq k$, we have, as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\frac{\lambda_n^j}{\lambda_n^k} + \frac{\lambda_n^k}{\lambda_n^j} + \frac{|x_n^j - x_n^k|^2}{\lambda_n^j \lambda_n^k} + \frac{|t_n^j(\lambda_n^j)^2 - t_n^k(\lambda_n^k)^2|}{\lambda_n^j \lambda_n^k} \rightarrow \infty$$

This is saying that the bubbles don't interact: if they are close in space, then they must be far apart in time (and vis-versa), and they spread out even more as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof of Theorem 15. Let $(g_n^j f)(x) = (\lambda_n^j)^{-\frac{d-2}{2}} f\left(\frac{x - x_n^j}{\lambda_n^j}\right)$, let $(g_n^j f)^{-1}(x) = (\lambda_n^j)^{\frac{d-2}{2}} f(\lambda_n^j x + x_n^j)$. Therefore the \dot{H}_x^1 -norms of f , $g_n^j f$, and $(g_n^j)^{-1} f$ are all equal. Moreover,

$$\langle g_n^j, g \rangle_{\dot{H}^1} = \langle f, (g_n^j)^{-1} g \rangle_{\dot{H}^1}.$$

Also, define

$$\phi_n^j(x) := (\lambda_n^j) \left[e^{it_n^j \Delta} \phi^j \right] \left(\frac{x_n^j}{\lambda_n^j} \right) = [g_n^j e^{it_n^j \Delta} \phi^j](x)$$

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If $\mathcal{E}_J = 0$ we are done and $J = J^*$. If $\mathcal{E}_J \neq 0$ then continue with proposition 3.5 (in Visan). We will continue this. \square

Make-up class on Friday. We will use slides.

Last time we covered chapter 7 from Monica's notes. We were proving GWP in the critical setting. As long as our energy was below the critical energy, then the Strichartz norms were bounded. And if above the critical energy, then they are unbounded. We were constructing a solution contradict our "contradiction assumption" (which was to negate the global existence theorem).

Recall we had the following proposition

Proposition 7.2 (Palais-Smale Condition). Let $u_n : I_n \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a sequence of solutions to the defocusing energy critical NLS, with $E(u_n) \rightarrow E_c$, and we can choose a sequence of times t_1, t_2, \dots , with $t_n \in I_n$ such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{\geq t_n}(u_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{\leq t_n}(u_n) = \infty$$

Then, the sequence $u_n(t_n)$ has a subsequence that converges to something ϕ in \dot{H}_x^1 modulo scaling and spatial translation.

Proof. There are two scenarios. Scenario I is easy. Scenario II is harder and involves some stability theory. I missed this part due to computer problems. Recall the definition of Strichartz norms:

$$S_I(u) = \int_I \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |u(t, x)|^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}} dx dt$$

Under Scenario II: let

$$u_n(0) = \sum g_n^j e^{it_n^j \Delta} \phi_j + w_n^j$$

where t_n^j converges to $0, -\infty, +\infty$ also $E(\phi_j) = E_c - \delta$ and

$$u_n(t) = \underbrace{\sum g_n^j v_j^{(t)}}_{(1)} + \underbrace{\sum g_n^j v_j(t_n^j + t)}_{(2)} + \underbrace{\sum \dots + e^{it\Delta} w_n^j}_{(3)} + \text{error}$$

The error goes to zero if we show that u_n is an approximate solution to the nonlinear problem. There are two steps. First, does the initial data converge to zero, i.e. $u_n(0) \rightarrow 0$. This comes from the assumption.

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|u_n(t) - e^{it\Delta} u_+\|_{\dot{H}_x^1} \rightarrow 0$$

[Missed some more things...]

□

Now we show that we have a minimal blow up solution. Recall we negated the global existence. But we have local existence of solution and finite strichartz norms.

Theorem 16 (Minimal Blow Up Solution). *Suppose our energy critical GWP result (for the defocusing case, $d = 4$ or greater), then there exists a critical energy $0 < E < \infty$ and a maximal lifespan solution $u : I \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ to our problem with*

$$E(u) = E_c$$

which blows up in all time directions (i.e. above a certain time and below a certain time). That is,

$$S_{\geq 0}(u) = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad S_{\leq 0}(u) = \infty$$

and $\{u(t) : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is precompact in \dot{H}_x^1 modulo scaling $u(t, x)$ and spatial symmetries.

Proof. Contradicting GWL result: there exists a critical energy $0 < E_c < \infty$ and solutions $u_n : I \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$\begin{cases} E(u_n) < E_c & : S_{I_n} < \infty \\ E(u_n) \geq E_c & : S_{I_n}(u_n) = \infty \end{cases}$$

and

$$E(u_n) \rightarrow E_c \quad \text{and} \quad S_{I_n}(u_n) \rightarrow \infty.$$

Let $t_n \in I_n$ be such that

$$S_{\geq t_n} = S_{\leq t_n} = \frac{1}{2} S_{I_n}(u_n)$$

Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{\geq t_n}(u_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{\leq t_n}(u_n) = \infty \tag{34}$$

Thus we are exactly in the situation where the hypotheses of the Palais-Smale Condition are satisfied. So we can apply the Palais-Smale Theorem. Therefore there exists a subsequence $\{t_n\}$ of times such that

$$u_n(t_n) \rightarrow \phi \quad \text{in } \dot{H}_x^1$$

modulo scaling and translations in space. So choose the right rescaling and translate in space so that we get convergence in the sense that

$$u_n(t_n) \rightarrow \phi \quad \text{in } \dot{H}_x^1.$$

Now what happens to the energy $E(u_n)$? Recall we are given that $E(u_n) \rightarrow E_c$ and we just got $u_n \rightarrow \phi$. And this implies that

$$E(\phi) = E_c.$$

Now, let's think at $u : I \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the maximal (in time) solution [Note: we know it's not a global assumpt because we assumed no global solution] for our NLS problem with initial data $u(0, x) = \phi$. This gives rise to a solution which doesn't last forever and this is our maximal in time solution. But then by Eq. (34), I claim that

$$S_{\geq 0}(u) = S_{\leq 0}(u) = \infty \tag{35}$$

but the issue is not straightforward because we need some stability theory, because the $u(t)$ in the above equation is the solution, not the initial data. (Theorem 5.3 Stability Theory).

Now we need to prove the precompactness portion of the theorem $\{t_n^1\}_n$ some sequence of times I . We have by Eq. (35) that

$$S_{\geq t_n^1}(u(t)) = S_{\leq t_n^1}(u(t)) = \infty$$

we can now apply Palais-Smale Theorem again to extract a convergence subsequence of $\{t_n^1\}$ that converges to something in \dot{H}_x^1 modulo scaling and space translations.

(The difference from the first time we applied Palais-Smale is that fixed the u and moved the times, rather than fixing t and moving the u_n 's.)

The conclusion is that we have shown that a solution $u(t, x)$ as above exists. This is the bad guy.

Next, in Chapters 9 and 10, we will preclude the existence of such a bad guy. We will need to know a bit more about the solution $u(t, x)$. So we'll need to learn a few more properties about it in order to later show that it actually doesn't exist.

Some properties of $u(t, x)$ that we just constructed:

- (A funny-sounding characterization.) We will call this solution (the one in the theorem) “almost periodic modulo symmetries”. What does this mean? It means if we cut our interval I into pieces then every subinterval of I will have the same sort of solution. This is because of compactness.

Claim: Suppose you have a family of functions which is precompact in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ (or H^1 in our application) if and only if it satisfies the following two conditions: (i)

We'll need only the forward direction of the above if and only if statement. This is because we have shown that

[missed the ending of the lecture :)]

□

16 Lecture Notes: 2022-11-22

16.1 Strategy: The enemy u and how we will defeat him

Recall we are doing the GWP for energy critical NLS. We are doing dimension $n = 4$ so the NLS will have nonlinear part $N(u) = |u|^2 u$.

Strategy: We use a proof by contradiction. First assume we don't have a global solution. But we might have a local solution but then we use Palais-Smale Theorem twice to construct a solution with certain properties (the “bad guy”) with a subsequence converging in \dot{H}_x^1 . This is the **minimal blow-up solution**,

and this is our enemy. Then our goal is to show that this solution $u(t, x) : I \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ satisfies certain properties, characterized using the following functions: first, the **frequency scale function**

$$N(t) : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+.$$

Second, the **spatial center function**

$$x : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$$

This is the x about which your solution constructed from Palais-Smale is situated. Third, the **compactness modulus function**

$$C : \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$$

Last time we proved **Theorem 8.1[V]** which showed the existence of a minimal blowup solution to NLS, but it also gave us another thing: the following set, called the **orbit**,

$$\{u(t) : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

is precompact in H_x^1 if and only if...

This led to the identity

$$\int_{|x-x(t)| \geq C(\eta)/N(t)} |\nabla u(t, x)|^2 dx + \int_{|\xi| \geq C(\eta)} |\xi \hat{u}(t, \xi)|^2 d\xi \leq \eta$$

This property is satisfied by our enemy u . But after proving this property, we will close the argument (i.e. to get a contradiction to the assumption of no global-in-time solution) we need to give some characterization of $u(t, x)$ via the functions $N(t)$, $x(t)$ and $C(\eta)$ and then show you that such a minimal solution cannot exist. The properties which are satisfied will lead to a contradiction.

Definition 11 (Normalized Solution). *Let $u : I \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the minimal blowup solution constructed above using Theorem 8.1., with associated $N(t)$, C and $x(t)$. Then we say that u is **normalized** if $0 \in I$ and*

$$N(0) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad x(0) = 0.$$

In general we can define the **normalization** of a solution u at any time $t_0 \in I$ by

$$u^{[t_0]}(s, x) = N(t_0)^{-\frac{d-2}{2}} u(t_0 + N(t_0)^{-2}s, x(t_0) + N(t_0)^{-1}x)$$

where

$$N^{[t_0]}(s) := \frac{N(t_0 + sN(t_0)^{-2})}{N(t_0)}$$

and

$$x^{[t_0]}(s) := N(t_0) [x(t_0 + sN(t_0)^{-2}) - x(t_0)]$$

(This is because the time scales like $N^{-2}(t)$ and space scales like $N^{-1}(t)$.)

16.2 Know Your Enemy: Properties of u

There will be 3 properties, which are Lemmas 8.3, 8.4, and 8.5 in Visan's notes.

- **Property 1 (Lemma 8.3[V])** says that your solution will be concentrated in a rectangle about (x_0, t_0) , with length on the order of $N^{-2}(t_0)$ in the time direction and width in the space direction on the order $N^{-1}(t_0)$.

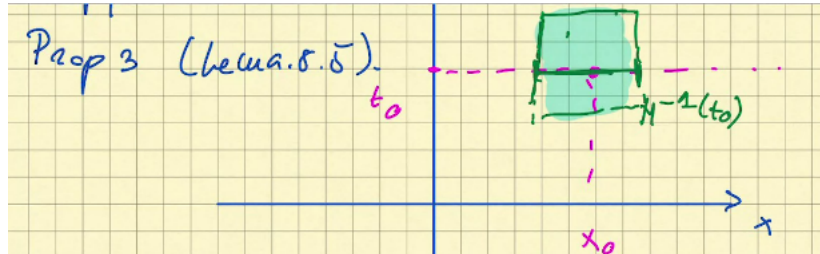


Figure 1: Property 1 (Lemma 8.3 in Visan)

And then says that space-time norm of the solution is concentrated in adjacent rectangles?

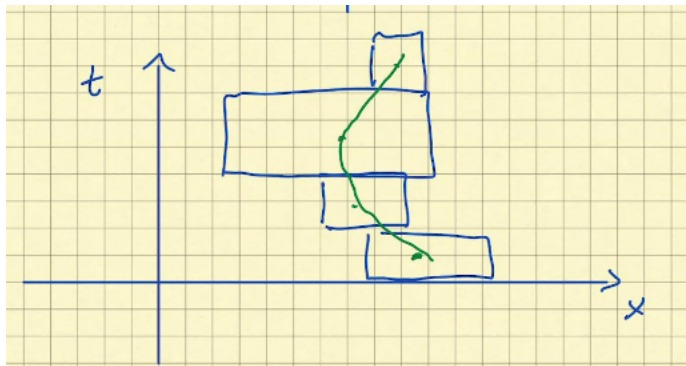


Figure 2: Property 1 (Corollary 8.4 in Visan ?)

- **Property 2 (Corollary 8.4[V])** This property is about the behavior of the frequency-scale function N . As $t \rightarrow \infty$, $N(t) \rightarrow \infty$. *[[Is this it?]]*

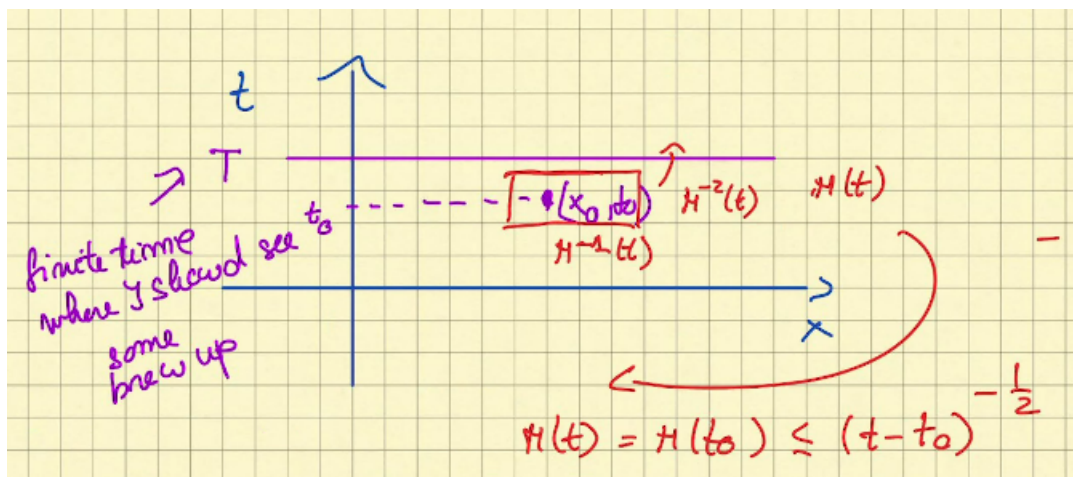


Figure 3: Property 2 (Lemma 8.4 in Visan)

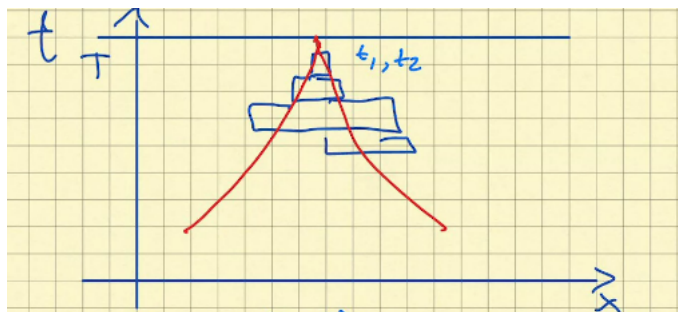


Figure 4: Lemma 8.4[V]

Property 3 (Lemma 8.5[V]) which says that the Strichartz norms of the solution u satisfies

$$\int_I N(t)^2 dt \lesssim \|u\|_{L_{t,x}^{\frac{2(d+2)}{d-2}}} \leq 1 + \int_I N(t)^2 dt$$

Then **Lemma 8.6[V]** will give a similar bound

$$\|\nabla u\|_{L_t^2 L_x^{\frac{2d}{d-2}}} \lesssim 1 + \int_I N(t)^2 dt$$

and then **Proposition 8.7[V] (Duhamel Reduced)** says that that for the minimal blowup solution, the portion of the u which is not the Duhamel term converges weakly to zero in \dot{H}_x^1 . That is, as $t_2 \rightarrow 0$,

$$u(t_1) = \underbrace{e^{(t_1-t_2)} u(t_2)}_{\rightarrow 0 \text{ weakly}} + \underbrace{\int_{t_1}^{t_2} e^{i(t_1-t_2)\Delta} |u|^2 u dt_1}_{\text{Duhamel Term}}$$

[Is this right?] This is essential for proving long-time Strichartz, but not used elsewhere.

16.3 Closing the Argument

Now, let's eliminate the existence of such a minimal blow-up solution. First, we get either (A) that

$$\int_0^{T_{\max}} N(t)^{-1} dt < 8$$

(by putting all the lemmas together), or you get (B) that

$$\int_0^{T_{\max}} N(t)^{-1} dt = \infty. \quad (36)$$

To preclude case (A), we use a long-time Strichartz estimate from Dodson. To preclude case (B), we use something called the “Interaction Morawetz estimate”.

16.4 Case (A): Discussion of the Long-Time Strichartz Estimate

The Long-Strichartz Estimate is **Theorem 9.1[V]**.

Let $u : [0, T_{\max}] \times \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, with $N(t) \equiv N_k \geq 1$ on each subinterval J_k of $[0, T_{\max}]$. Then for each compact time interval $I \subset [0, T_{\max}]$ (think: $I = J_1 \sqcup J_2 \sqcup \dots \sqcup J_k$), we have

$$\|\nabla u_{\leq m}\|_{L_t^2 L_x^4(I \times \mathbb{R}^4)} \lesssim 1 + m^{3/2} k^{1/2}$$

for energy $m > 0$, where $k = \int_I N(t)^{-1} dt < \infty$.

We won't go through the proof in class, but it's not bad – it uses standard inequalities, Bernstein, etc. And then this long Strichartz estimate will be used in the “no rapid frequency cascade” theorem which will show that the mass $M(t) \equiv 0$ but this is a contradiction because u is not identically zero. These are the main ideas of the proof.

16.5 Case (B): Discussion of the Interaction Morawetz Estimate

Here we will discuss why Eq. (36) can't happen. Why? First, consider the following easy case where we assume the solution is radially symmetric (this assumption is not made for the general proof, but we are using it to illustrate the main idea). Introduce a functional called the **Morawetz action**:

$$M(t) := 2\text{Im} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \overline{u(t, x)} \nabla u(t, x) \cdot \frac{x}{|x|} dx$$

imagine u is a solution to energy critical NLS (defocusing) made of many particles and centered around x . We have

$$\partial_t M(t) \geq 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \frac{|u(t, x)|^2}{|x|^3} dx + \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \frac{|u(t, x)|^4}{|x|} dx$$

Then integrating with respect to time and using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,

$$\int_I \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \frac{|u(t, x)|^4}{|x|} dx dt \leq \|u\|_{L_t^\infty L_x^2(I \times \mathbb{R}^4)} \|u\|_{L_t^\infty \dot{H}_x^1}$$

So we have $u \in H_x^1$ (because $u \in L^2$ and its gradient is in \dot{H}^1). But this raises an issue: (1) it favors the origin and (2) it says that $u \in H_x^1$, but our solution u was constructed as a limit of \dot{H}_x^1 functions.

A modification can be shown:

$$\int_I \int_{|x| \leq A|I|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \frac{|u(t, x)|^4}{|x|} dx dt \lesssim A|I|^{\frac{1}{2}} \|u\|_{L_t^\infty \dot{H}_x^1(I \times \mathbb{R}^4)}^2$$

and we can use this now Morawetz estimate to preclude case (B).

Step 1. We claim that the $u(t)$ that we got from Theorem 8.1[V], plus the additional assumption of radial symmetry, is concentrated near the origin. To prove this, consider if there is concentration of energy at a point away from the origin (i.e. at some point with $|x| \geq N(t)^{-1}$), then by radial symmetry the energy is concentrated at other points too, as shown in Fig. 5. So only concentration at the origin is possible.

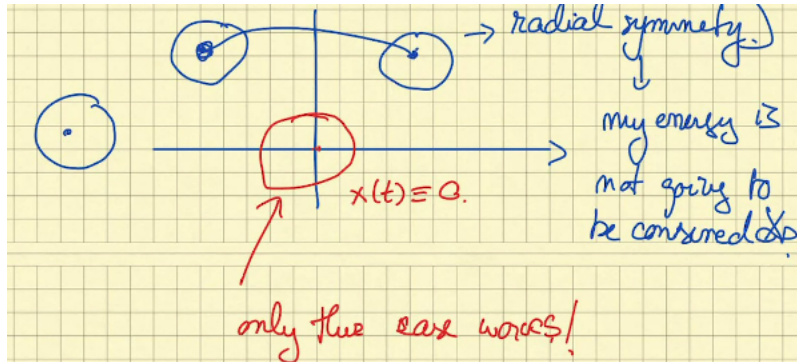


Figure 5: Step 1.

Step 2. Skipping some steps we get the following inequality which precludes case (B):

$$|I|^{\frac{1}{2}} \geq \int_I N(t) dt.$$

So far we have assumed radial symmetry to preclude case (B). But we can do a similar argument without that assumption. For the general case, we substitute the Morawetz inequality by the **interaction Morawetz inequality**:

$$M_{\text{interaction}}(t) = 2\text{Im} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \overline{u(t, x)} \nabla u(t, x) \frac{x - y}{|x - y|} |u(t, y)|^2 dx dy$$

which is the version that is frequency-localized. We have outlined the main ideas. Next time we will go through how to do global existence for things that look like NLS: i.e. which linearly look like NLS and are defocusing. We will be able to eliminate some assumptions (e.g. localization and some conservation quantities). We will get some global-in-time Strichartz.

17 Lecture: 2022-12-06

Topic: Local well-posedness for the defocusing Model NLS (MNLS), which is

$$\begin{cases} iu_t + u_{xx} = C(u, \bar{u}, u) \\ u(0, x) = u_0 \end{cases}$$

Here, $X \subset C([0, 1], L^2)$. First use a fixed point argument to get LWP (using X , Duhamel formula). Then you can go further for global.

This is **Prop 1.38[Tao]** which splits the fixed point argument into two bits: a linear and nonlinear part, which are treated differently. Two estimates:

- (Linear Part). The space X has norm

$$\|u\|_X^2 = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \|u_k\|_{X_k}^2$$

where

$$\|u_k\|_{X_k} = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} \|\chi_j(t, x - 2tk)u_k\|_{L_t^\infty L_x^2}^2$$

where $\{\chi_k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a partition of unity in *space* (i.e. the x variable). So now we also need the Y and we choose it so that its dual is X , i.e. $Y^* = X$. Then

$$\|f\|_Y^2 = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \|f_k\|_{Y_k}^2$$

where

$$\|f_k\|_{Y_k}^2 = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} \|\lambda_j(t, x - 2kt)f_k\|_{L_t^1 L_x^2}^2$$

Lemma 3.3 gives the solution to the linear Schroedinger equation

$$\begin{cases} (iu_t + \partial_x^2)u = f \\ u(0, x) = u_0 \end{cases}$$

in the time interval $[0, 1]$ satisfies

$$\|u\|_X \lesssim \|u_0\|_{L^2} + \|f\|_Y \quad (37)$$

- (Nonlinear Part). By **Lemma 3.4** for the cubic nonlinearity C , we have the bound

$$\|C(u, \bar{u}, u)\|_Y \lesssim \|u\|_X^3 \quad (38)$$

Then using the estimates for these two cases, we obtain a contraction and apply the fixed point theorem. First we will prove **Lemma 3.3**:

Proof of Eq. (37). It suffices to prove

$$\|u_k\|_{X_k} \lesssim \|u_{0,k}\|_{L^2} + \|f_k\|_{X_k} \quad (39)$$

because we can then sum over k which then gives Eq. (37). Using Galileian invariance to move from frequency k to frequency 0. Define

$$v(t, x) = e^{-i(kx+k^2t)}u_k(t, x - 2kt)$$

and

$$v_0(0, x) = e^{-ikx}u_{0,k}$$

and

$$g(t, x) = e^{-i(kx+k^2t)}f_k(t, x - 2kt).$$

Observe that v, v_0 , and g satisfy

$$(i\partial_t + \partial_x)v = g \quad \text{with} \quad v(0) = v_0$$

Then we claim that Eq. (39) transforms to

$$\|v\|_{X_0} \lesssim \|v_0\|_{L^2} + \|g\|_{Y_0} \quad (40)$$

How do we prove Eq. (40)? By Duhamel,

$$v(t) = e^{it\partial_x^2} P_0 v_0 + \int_0^t e^{i(t-s)\partial_x^2} P_0 g ds$$

where P_0 is a projection. Now we need to localize $v(t)$ spatially:

$$\chi_j v(t) = \sum_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}} \left(\chi_j e^{it\partial_x^2} P_0 \chi_\ell v_0 + \int_0^t \chi_j e^{i(t-s)\partial_x^2} P_0 \chi_\ell g ds \right) \quad (41)$$

The χ_ℓ is necessary to measure the initial data and source term in X_0 . Observe that the kernels $e^{it\partial_x^2} P_0$ are uniformly Schwarz on $[0, 1]$. So one has L^2 bound with off-diagonal decay:

$$\left\| \chi_j e^{it\partial_x^2} P_0 \chi_\ell \right\|_{L^2 \rightarrow L^2} \lesssim \langle j - \ell \rangle^{-N}$$

where the right-hand side uses the Japanese bracket. This estimate is why we needed the P_0 , because otherwise we wouldn't have this. Now we take Eq. (41) and

$$\|\chi_j v\|_{L_t^\infty L_x^2} \lesssim \sum_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle j - \ell \rangle^{-N} \left(\|\chi_\ell v_0\|_{L_x^2} + \|\chi_\ell g\|_{L_t^1 L_x^2} \right).$$

□

Next we will discuss **Lemma 3.4**. We will actually need a stronger estimate which is specific to the frequency. We first need to define **frequency envelopes**.

Definition 12 (Frequency Envelope). *Let $\{c_k\}_k \subset \ell^2$. We say that $\{c_k\}$ is a **frequency envelope** for u_0 in L^2 if*

1. $\|P_k u_0\|_{L^2} \leq c_k$
2. c_k is slowly varying in that $\frac{c_j}{c_k} \leq 2^{\delta|j-k|}$. (This is a picture).

We will modify this definition for our setting using a maximal function. A rigorous modification of this definition will be provided in the next class.