## Computer Assisted Proofs for the FPU Model

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The Fermi-Pasta-Ulam model consists of  ${\cal P}$  particles whose dynamics is described by the equations

$$\ddot{q}_m = \phi'(q_{m+1} - q_m) - \phi'(q_m - q_{m-1}) \,, \qquad m = 1, 2, \dots, P \,,$$
 where  $\phi(x) = \frac{x^2}{2} + \alpha \frac{x^3}{3} + \beta \frac{x^4}{4} \,.$ 

We investigate time-periodic solutions with  $\alpha = 0$ .

By homogeneity, it suffices to consider the case  $\beta=1$ . Similarly, the fundamental period T of a non-constant solution can be normalized to  $2\pi$  by a rescaling of time. This leads us to consider the equation

$$\omega^2 \ddot{q} = -\nabla^* \left[ \nabla q + (\nabla q)^3 \right],$$

where  $\omega=2\pi/T$ , and where  $\nabla$  and  $\nabla^*$  are defined by

$$(\nabla q)_m(t) = q_{m+1}(t) - q_m(t), \qquad (\nabla^* q)_m(t) = q_{m-1}(t) - q_m(t).$$

The best known periodic solutions of the  $\beta$ -model are near q=0. In this regime, the cubic term is small compared to q, and we have  $L_{\omega}q\approx 0$ , where

$$L_{\omega}q = -\omega^2 \ddot{q} - \nabla^* \nabla q.$$

The values of  $\omega>0$  for which  $L_\omega$  has an eigenvalue zero, and the corresponding nonzero solutions of  $L_\omega q=0$ , will be referred to as resonant frequencies and normal modes, respectively.

**Proposition 1.** A frequency  $\omega_n>0$  is resonant, that is,  $L_\omega$  has an eigenvalue zero, if and only if

$$\omega_n k = \pm 2\sin(h\theta/2)\,,$$

for some nonzero  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $h \in \mathcal{P} := \mathbb{Z}/(P\mathbb{Z})$ .

For every  $h \in \mathcal{P}$ , let  $\mathbb{P}'_h$  be the orthogonal projection on the h-th normal mode.

As a measure for the size of the h-th spatial mode of  $q \in H^1_o$  , we consider its "harmonic energy"

$$E_h(q) = E(\mathbb{P}'_h q), \qquad E(q) = \frac{1}{2} \langle \dot{q}, \dot{q} \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \langle \nabla q, \nabla q \rangle.$$

These energies are not directly related to the FPU Hamiltonian (unless lpha=eta=0), but they have the advantage of being additive, that is, the sum of  $E_h(q)$  over all  $h\in\mathbb{Z}/(2P\mathbb{Z})$  is equal to E(q).

**Theorem 1.** For P=32 and  $\omega=0.1989$ , the equation has a set of 11 real analytic solutions,  $\{f_A,f_B,\ldots,f_K\}$ , with the properties listed in the following table, where  $\Phi_\omega$  denotes the value of the functional, E is the harmonic energy of the given solution, and  $\mathcal{E}_h=E_h/E$ . The symbol  $\epsilon$  stands for a real number of modulus less than 0.002, which may vary from one instance to the next.

solution	E	$\mathcal{E}_1$	$\mathcal{E}_2$	$\mathcal{E}_{11}$	$\mathcal{E}_{14}$
$f_A$	$5.71\ldots$	$0.248\dots$	0.109	$0.195\dots$	$0.442\dots$
$f_B$	$5.67\ldots$	$0.185\ldots$	$0.123\ldots$	$0.215\dots$	$0.470\dots$
$f_C$	$5.48\dots$	$\epsilon$	$0.243\ldots$	$\epsilon$	$0.755\dots$
$f_D$	$5.38\dots$	$\epsilon$	$\epsilon$	$0.375\ldots$	$0.622\dots$
$f_E$	$5.21\dots$	$0.537\dots$	$\epsilon$	$0.458\ldots$	$\epsilon$
$f_F$	$5.16\dots$	$\epsilon$	$\epsilon$	$\epsilon$	0.999
$f_G$	$5.02\dots$	0.814	$0.137\dots$	$\epsilon$	$\epsilon$
$f_H$	$4.97\ldots$	$0.974\dots$	$\epsilon$	$\epsilon$	$\epsilon$
$f_{I}$	$4.95\ldots$	$0.883\dots$	$\epsilon$	$\epsilon$	$0.075\dots$
$f_J$	4.81	$\epsilon$	$\epsilon$	0.999	$\epsilon$
$f_K$	$3.65\ldots$	$\epsilon$	0.996	$\epsilon$	$\epsilon$

## Proof of the theorem

We rewrite equation (main) in the form F(q) = q, where

$$F(q) = \omega^{-2} \partial^{-2} \nabla^* \left( \nabla q + (\nabla q)^3 \right) ,$$

where  $\partial^{-1}$  denotes the antiderivative operator on the space of continuous  $2\pi$ -periodic functions with average zero and we look for fixed points of F in the space of functions  $q:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}^P$  which extend analytically to a strip

$$\mathcal{D}_{\rho} = \{ t \in \mathbb{C} : |\mathrm{Im}(t)| < \rho \} .$$

To be more precise, given  $\rho>0$ , denote by  $\mathcal{F}_{\rho}$  the vector space of all  $2\pi$ -periodic analytic functions  $f:\mathcal{D}_{\rho}\to\mathbb{C}$ ,

$$f(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k \sin(kt) + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f'_k \cos(kt), \qquad t \in \mathcal{D}_{\rho},$$

which take real values for real arguments and for which the norm

$$||f||_{\rho} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{\rho k} |f_k| + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{\rho k} |f'_k|$$

is finite. When equipped with this norm,  $\mathcal{F}_{
ho}$  is a Banach space.

On the direct sum  $\mathcal{F}^P_{\rho}$ , we define the norm

$$||q||_{\rho} = \max_{1 \le i \le P} ||q_i||.$$

We note that  $\mathcal{F}_{\rho}$  is a Banach algebra, that is,  $\|fg\|_{\rho} \leq \|f\|_{\rho} \|g\|_{\rho}$ , for all f and g in  $\mathcal{F}_{\rho}$ . Furthermore,  $\partial^{-2}$  acts as a compact linear operator on  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}$ , as well as on  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}^{P}$ . This shows that the equation above defines a differentiable map F on  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}^{P}$  with compact derivatives DF(q). Thus, F can be well approximated locally by its restriction to a suitable finite dimensional subspace of  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}$ . This property makes it ideal for a computer-assisted analysis.

Our goal is to find fixed points for F by using a Newton like iteration, starting with a numerical approximation  $q_0$  for the desired fixed point. The Newton map  $\mathcal N$  associated with F is given by

$$\mathcal{N}(q) = F(q) - \mathcal{M}(q)[F(q) - q],$$

with

$$\mathcal{M}(q) = [DF(q) - \mathbb{I}]^{-1} + \mathbb{I}.$$

If the spectrum of DF(q) is bounded away from 1, and  $q_0$  is sufficiently close to a fixed point of F, then  $\mathcal N$  is a contraction in some neighborhood of  $q_0$ .

Due to the compactness of DF(q), this contraction property is preserved if we replace  $\mathcal{M}(q)$  by a fixed linear operator M close to  $\mathcal{M}(q_0)$ . This leads us to consider the new map  $\mathcal{C}$ , defined by

$$\mathcal{C}(q) = F(q) - M[F(q) - q], \quad q \in \mathcal{A}_{\rho}^{P}.$$

M will be chosen to be a "matrix", in the sense that  $M=\mathbb{P}_\ell M \mathbb{P}_\ell$  for some  $\ell>0$ , where  $\mathbb{P}_\ell$  denotes the canonical projection in  $\mathcal{A}_\rho^P$  onto Fourier polynomials of degree  $k\leq \ell$ . We also verify that  $M-\mathbb{I}$  is invertible, so that  $\mathcal{C}$  and F have the same set of fixed points. In order to prove that  $\mathcal{C}$  is a contraction on some ball  $B(q_0,r)$  in  $\mathcal{A}_\rho^P$  of radius r>0, centered at  $q_0$ , it suffices to verify the inequalities

$$\|\mathcal{C}(q_0) - q_0\|_{\rho} < \varepsilon, \quad \|D\mathcal{C}(q)\| < K, \quad \varepsilon + Kr < r,$$

for some real numbers  $r, \varepsilon, K > 0$ , and for arbitrary q in the ball  $B(q_0, r)$ . These bounds imply that C, and thus F, has a unique fixed point in  $B(q_0, r)$ .

**Theorem 2.** In each of the 11 cases described in Theorem 1, there exists a Fourier polynomial  $q_0$ , and real numbers  $\rho, \varepsilon, r, K > 0$ , such that the inequalities above hold. Furthermore, the numerical bounds given in these theorems are satisfied for all function in the corresponding ball  $B(q_0, r)$ .

The proof of this theorem is based on a discretization of the problem, carried out and controlled with the aid of a computer.

At the trivial level of real numbers, the discretization is implemented by using interval arithmetics. In particular, a number  $s \in \mathbb{R}$  is "represented" by an interval  $S = [S^-, S^+]$  containing s, whose endpoints belong to some finite set of real numbers that are representable on the computer. Such an interval will be called a "standard sets" for  $\mathbb{R}$ .

The goal now is to combine these elementary bounds to obtain e.g. a bound  $G_1$  on the norm function on  $\mathcal{A}^P_\rho$ , and a bound  $G_2$  on the map  $\mathcal{C}$ . Then, in order to prove the first inequality, it suffices to verify that  $G_1(G_2(S))\subset U$ , where S is a set in  $\operatorname{std}(\mathcal{A}^P_\rho)$  containing  $g_0$ , and U is an interval in  $\operatorname{std}(\mathbb{R})$  with  $U^+<\varepsilon$ .

We define the standard sets for  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}$ . Let  $n \geq \ell$  be a fixed integer. Given  $U = (U_1, \ldots, U_n)$  in  $\operatorname{std}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , and  $V = (V_0, \ldots, V_{2n})$  in  $\operatorname{std}(\mathbb{R}^{2n+1}_+)$ , denote by S(U,V) the set of all functions f that can be represented as

$$f(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} u_k \sin(kt) + \sum_{m=0}^{2n} v_m(t), \qquad v_m(t) = \sum_{k=m}^{\infty} v_{m,k} \sin(kt),$$

with  $u_k\in U_k$ , and  $v_m\in\mathcal{A}_\rho$  with  $\|v_m\|_\rho\in V_m$ , for all k and m. We now define  $\mathrm{std}(\mathcal{A}_\rho)$  to be the collection of all such sets S(U,V), subject to the condition that  $V_m^-=0$  for all m.

It is now straightforward to implement a bound on the norm function on  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}^{P}$ , or the operator  $\partial^{-2}$ , or the sum of two functions in  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}^{P}$ . In order to obtain a bound on the product of two functions in  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}$ , we simply multiply the representations of the two factors term by term, and write the result again as an explicit Fourier polynomial of order n, plus a sum of "error terms" of orders greater than m, for  $m=0,1,\ldots,2n$ .

The guiding principle here is to keep as much information as possible about the order of each term in the product, since the operator  $\partial^{-2}$ , which is applied last in the definition of F, contracts higher order terms more than lower order ones. This principle also motivated our choice of standard sets for  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}$ .

For a bound on the linear operator M, we can compute explicitly its restriction to standard sets whose components  $S(U_i,V_i)$  have  $V_{i,m}=[0,0]$  whenever  $m\leq \ell$ . The remaining terms are estimated by using that  $\|Mq\|_{\rho}\leq \|M\|\|q\|_{\rho}$ . The operator norm  $\|L\|$  of a continuous linear operator L on  $\mathcal{A}_{\rho}^P$  is given by the following formula. Denote by  $h^{j,m}$  the function  $(i,k)\mapsto \delta_{ij}e^{-k\rho}\sin(kt)$ . Then

$$||L|| = \max_{1 \le i \le P} \sum_{j=1}^{P} \sup_{m \ge 1} ||(Lh^{j,m})_i||_{\rho}.$$

In the case where L is the "matrix" M, the right hand side of this equation is trivial to estimate. The bounds discussed so far can be combined to yield a bound on the the map  $\mathcal{C}$ , suitable for proving the first and the last inequality.

In order to prove the second inequality

$$||D\mathcal{C}(q)|| < K,$$

we also need a bound on the map  $q\mapsto \|D(q)\|$ . Its domain only needs to include balls  $B(\rho_0,r)$  with positive representable radii, and these balls are in fact standard sets of  $\mathcal{A}^P_\rho$ . The technique used for this estimate is similar, up to some technical details.