

On uniqueness and properties of the flow map for weak solutions to the 2D Euler equations

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Outline

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- 2 Uniqueness of 2D Euler and of associated flow
- 3 Fundamental question
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Classical flow

- Let $v: I \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ be a time-varying velocity field, where $I = [0, T)$ is a time interval, and the domain, Ω , lies in \mathbb{R}^d , $d \geq 1$. An associated (classical) *flow* or *flow map* for v is a function ψ in $C(I \times \Omega; \mathbb{R}^d)$ such that

$$\psi(t, x) = x + \int_0^t v(s, \psi(s, x)) ds$$

for all (t, x) in $I \times \Omega$.

- Continuity of v is (more than) enough to ensure the existence of a classical flow (Peano's existence theorem). Uniqueness requires more knowledge of the velocity field.

Modulus of continuity (MOC)

Definition (Modulus of continuity)

We say that a continuous function $f: [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ with $f(0) = 0$ is a modulus of continuity (MOC). When we say that a MOC, f , is C^k , $k \geq 0$, we mean that it is continuous on $[0, \infty)$ and C^k on $(0, \infty)$.

- A real-valued function or vector field, f , on Ω admits μ as a MOC if

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq \mu(|x - y|) \text{ for all } x, y \text{ in } \Omega.$$

- MOC will often be strictly increasing and concave, but we do not make that part of the definition.
- A function having a MOC does not have a unique MOC. In particular, if μ is a MOC for f then any $\nu \geq \mu$ is a MOC for f .

Osgood

- A MOC, μ , is Osgood if

$$\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\mu(x)} = \infty.$$

- If f has an Osgood MOC then f is *Osgood continuous*.
- Lipschitz and log-Lipschitz functions are Osgood continuous.

Osgood gives uniqueness of flow

Lemma (Classical)

Suppose that the velocity field, $v(t, \cdot)$, admits an Osgood MOC, μ , independent of t . Then v has a unique associated flow, ψ , continuous from $I \times \Omega$ to \mathbb{R}^d ; that is, for all x in Ω ,

$$\psi(t, x) = x + \int_0^t v(\psi(s, x)) ds.$$

For t in I , define $\Gamma_t: [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ by $\Gamma_t(0) = 0$ and for $x > 0$ by

$$\int_x^{\Gamma_t(x)} \frac{dr}{\mu(r)} = t.$$

Then Γ_t is a modulus of continuity for the flow, $\psi(t, \cdot)$.

We will alternately write $\psi_t(x)$ and $\psi(t, x)$, $\Gamma_t(x)$ and $\Gamma(t, x)$.

Uniqueness of 2D Euler

- The largest known class of velocities for which uniqueness of solutions to the Euler equations is known (without adding a restriction on the sign of the vorticity) is due to Misha Vishik 1999. It uses borderline Besov spaces, which he introduced.
- For Γ in $C([1, \infty))$, define the space

$$B_\Gamma = \{f \in \mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^2) : \sum_{j=-1}^N \|\Delta_j f\|_{L^\infty} = O(\Gamma(N))\},$$

$$\|f\|_\Gamma = \sup_{N \geq 1} \frac{1}{\Gamma(N)} \sum_{j=-1}^N \|\Delta_j f\|_{L^\infty}.$$

- For a function in B_Γ , the $B_{\infty,1}^0$ -norm diverges, but in a controlled way.
- The precise definition of B_Γ does not concern us here, only the function Γ . The *faster* Γ increases the larger the space, B_Γ .

Stated a little roughly Vishik's result is:

Theorem (Vishik 1999)

Let Π in $C([1, \infty))$ be such that $\nu(x) = x^2\Pi(x^{-1})$ is an Osgood MOC. If ω_1, ω_2 are the vorticities for two solutions to the Euler equations with

$$\omega_{1,2} \text{ in } L^\infty([0, T]; L^{p_0} \cap B_\Pi)$$

for some $p_0 < 2$ then the two solutions are identical.

$\Pi(x) = x \log x$ is an example of a suitable Π .

Vishik's class in 2D

- Vishik's is a uniqueness class: existence in this class for ω^0 in $L^{p_0} \cap B_\Gamma$ is not known at all in 3D and is only known for a subclass in 2D.
- Suppose that Γ in $C([1, \infty))$ is such that $\Pi(x) = x\Gamma(x)$ satisfies the condition in Vishik's uniqueness theorem. Then in 2D, we *almost* have that for ω^0 in $L^{p_0} \cap L^{p_1} \cap B_\Gamma$ there exists a unique solution in $L^\infty([0, T]; L^{p_0} \cap L^{p_1} \cap B_\Gamma)$ when $p_0 < 2 < p_1$:
 - Vishik 1999 showed this for $\Gamma(x) = \log(x)^\kappa$, globally in time for $0 < \kappa \leq \frac{1}{2}$ and locally in time for $\frac{1}{2} < \kappa \leq 1$.
 - Cozzi and Kelliher 2007 showed this for $p_0 = p_1 = 2$, globally in time for $\kappa < 1$, locally in time for $\kappa = 1$.
- For $\kappa \leq \frac{1}{2}$, Vishik 1999 obtained an Osgood bound on the MOC of the velocity globally in time, and hence a unique classical flow.
- For $\frac{1}{2} < \kappa < 1$ and $p_0 = p_1 = 2$, even existence of a classical flow is not known, since continuity of the vector field is not known.

Yudovich's uniqueness class

There is a large and easier to work with subclass of Vishik's uniqueness class due to Yudovich 1995:

- Let ω lie in L^p for all p in $[p_0, \infty)$ for some p_0 in $[1, 2)$. Let

$$\begin{aligned}\theta(p) &= \|\omega\|_{L^p}, \quad \alpha(\epsilon) = \epsilon^{-1}\theta(\epsilon^{-1}), \\ \mu(x) &= \inf \{x^{1-2\epsilon}\alpha(\epsilon) : \epsilon \text{ in } (0, 1/2]\}.\end{aligned}$$

- We say that ω is a *Yudovich vorticity* if μ is Osgood. The set of all associated L^2 -velocities is called, \mathbb{Y} .
- Examples of Yudovich vorticities are

$$\theta_0(p) = 1, \theta_1(p) = \log p, \dots, \theta_m(p) = \log p \cdot \log^2 p \cdots \log^m p.$$

- A classical result of measure theory is that $p \log \theta(p)$ is convex; this fact will play an important role.

Uniqueness of velocity and flow for Yudovich solutions

- Yudovich 1995 showed that solutions to the Euler equations lying in $L^\infty([0, T]; \mathbb{Y})$ are unique. This applies to dimensions 2 and higher.
- In 2D, v^0 in \mathbb{Y} gives v in $L^\infty([0, T]; \mathbb{Y})$ so one has both existence and uniqueness in Yudovich's class.
- A surprising coincidence is that the function μ is both central to Yudovich's uniqueness argument for the Eulerian velocities (after a change of variables) and to establishing the uniqueness of the classical flow, μ being an Osgood MOC for the velocity field.
- Is this more than a coincidence?

MOC of the flow as a proxy for uniqueness

- The more rapidly a MOC increases near the origin the more irregular the function.
- Given a class, \mathcal{C} , of initial velocities we will use a measure of how rapidly a MOC of a corresponding flow can increase as a proxy for how near to the edge of uniqueness the class brings the Euler equations.
- This is a very imperfect proxy. It is lent some credence by Yudovich's coincidence. That a subclass of the initial velocities of Vishik can have unique solutions without any apparent control on the MOC of the velocity (and perhaps not even a continuous vector field) and hence of the flow argues against it. But Yudovich's subclass is more physically meaningful than Vishik's.
- In any case, it leads to the following question, which is of interest in its own right:

How bad can the MOC of the flow be for v^0 in \mathcal{C} , and specifically for v^0 in \mathbb{Y} ?

How bad can the MOC of the flow be?

Specifically, working in \mathbb{Y} , we ask the question:

Fundamental question (FQ): *Given any strictly increasing concave MOC, f , and $t > 0$, does there exist an initial velocity in the class \mathbb{Y} for which any MOC of the flow map at time t is at least as large as f on some nonempty open interval, $(0, a)$?*

We require f to be strictly increasing and concave because the definition of μ gives that both μ and $\Gamma(t, \cdot)$ have these properties (as we show later). Also, we only care about MOC near the origin.

- Forward approach: For any strictly increasing concave MOC, f , show how to construct a v^0 whose flow has only MOC poorer than f . Answers FQ, “**Yes.**”
- Inverse approach: Show that there exists a MOC, f , that can be achieved by no v^0 . Answers FQ, “**No.**”

Forward approach

We will speak mostly of the inverse approach, but as regards the forward approach:

- Yudovich 1963 showed that for bounded initial vorticity the flow map lies in the Hölder space of exponent e^{-Ct} for all positive time, t . That is, $\Gamma_t(x) = Cx^{e^{-Ct}}$ is a MOC for the flow.
- Bahouri and Chemin 1995 showed that this regularity of the flow was optimal by constructing an example for which the flow lies in no Hölder space of exponent higher than e^{-t} . That is, $\Gamma_t(x) = Cx^{e^{-t}}$ cannot be a MOC for any C .
- In my thesis 2005, I extended the example of Bahouri and Chemin to specific initial vorticities in \mathbb{Y} having a point singularity like $\log|x|$, showing the flow lies in no Hölder space of positive exponent for any positive time. That is, $\Gamma_t(x) = Cx^\alpha$ cannot be a MOC for the flow at time $t > 0$ for any C and any $\alpha > 0$.

Inverse approach

- Since μ is the MOC of $v(t, \cdot)$, Γ defined by

$$\int_x^{\Gamma_t(x)} \frac{dr}{\mu(r)} = t$$

is a modulus of continuity for the flow, $\psi(t, \cdot)$.

- So we could try answering **FQ** by showing either that:
 - There is a strictly increasing concave MOC, f , for which no strictly increasing Osgood MOC, μ , gives $\Gamma_1 \geq f$. Answers **FQ**, “**No.**”
 - For any strictly increasing concave MOC, f , there is a strictly increasing Osgood MOC, μ , giving $\Gamma_1 \geq f$. Supports the answer, “**Yes,**” to **FQ**.

Mappings to invert in inverse approach

① $v^0 \mapsto v(t, x) \mapsto \psi(t, x) :$

the initial velocity gives the velocity at all time which gives the flow at all time.

② $v^0 \mapsto \omega^0 \mapsto \theta(p) \mapsto \mu(x) \mapsto \Gamma_t(x) :$

the initial velocity gives the initial vorticity, whose L^p -norms give the MOC of the the velocity field, which gives the MOC of the flow.

- The Osgood condition on μ insures that both mappings in (1) and the last mapping in (2) are well-defined.
- The mappings in (1) are trivial to invert: $v(t, x) = \partial_t \psi(t, \psi^{-1}(t, x))$ and $v^0 = v(0, \cdot)$. The first mapping in (2) is easily inverted as well using the Biot-Savart law. The remaining three mappings in (2) are another matter.
- We need to understand the forward maps better before we can invert them.

Range of $\theta(p) \mapsto \mu(x)$

Recall that

$$\begin{aligned}\theta(p) &= \|\omega\|_{L^p}, & \alpha(\epsilon) &= \epsilon^{-1}\theta(\epsilon^{-1}), \\ \mu(x) &= \inf \{x^{1-2\epsilon}\alpha(\epsilon) : \epsilon \text{ in } (0, 1/2)\}.\end{aligned}$$

Because $p \log \theta(p)$ is convex, $\log \alpha$ is strictly convex.

Define $\lambda: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $A: (0, \infty) \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ by

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda(r) &:= r + \log(\mu(e^{-r})), \\ A(x) &:= \frac{x\mu'(x)}{\mu(x)} = x(\log \mu(x))'.\end{aligned}$$

One can show that:

- μ is continuous on $[0, \infty)$, positive on $(0, \infty)$, and strictly increasing.
- $\mu(x)$ is concave, since $x \mapsto x^{1-2\epsilon}$ is concave for all ϵ in $[0, 1/2]$.
- λ is strictly increasing and, because $\log \alpha$ is strictly convex, λ is strictly concave.
- A is strictly decreasing with $A(0) := \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} A(x) = 1$.

$\theta(p) \mapsto \mu(x)$ and the Legendre transformation

Using $r = -\log x$, $\lambda(r) = r + \log(\mu(e^{-r}))$ becomes

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda(-\log x) &= -\log x + \log(\mu(e^{-(-\log x)})) = \log\left(\frac{\mu(x)}{x}\right) \\ &= \log\left(\frac{\inf_{\epsilon \in (0, 1/2]} \{x^{1-2\epsilon} \alpha(\epsilon)\}}{x}\right) = \inf_{\epsilon \in (0, 1/2]} \{-2\epsilon \log x + \log \alpha(\epsilon)\} \\ &= -\sup_{\epsilon \in (0, 1/2]} \{2\epsilon \log x - \log \alpha(\epsilon)\} = -(\log \alpha)^*(2 \log x).\end{aligned}$$

Definition (Legendre transformation)

Let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a **strictly convex function** on an interval, I . We define its *Legendre transformation*, f^* , by

$$f^*(x) = \sup_{\epsilon \in I} \{x\epsilon - f(\epsilon)\}.$$

The domain of f^* consists of all x in \mathbb{R} for which the supremum is finite.

Inverting $\theta(p) \mapsto \mu(x)$

Because we have restricted the Legendre transformation to strictly convex functions, f^* is also strictly convex, and the Legendre transformation is an involution $((f^*)^* = f)$. Hence, letting $u = 2 \log x$,

$$\lambda(-\log x) = -(\log \alpha)^*(2 \log x)$$

becomes $(\log \alpha)^*(u) = -\lambda(-u/2)$. Letting $\bar{\lambda}(s) = -\lambda(-s/2)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \log \alpha(x) &= (\bar{\lambda})^*(x) = \sup_{\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}} \{x\epsilon - \bar{\lambda}(\epsilon)\} = \sup_{\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}} \{(-x)(-\epsilon) - (-\lambda(-\epsilon/2))\} \\ &= \sup_{\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}} \{(-2x)\epsilon - (-\lambda(\epsilon))\} = (-\lambda)^*(-2x). \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\alpha(x) = e^{(-\lambda)^*(-2x)}.$$

Inverting $\theta(p) \mapsto \mu(x)$

- Because θ came from the L^p -norms of a function, λ was strictly concave, and this was needed to apply the (inverse) Legendre transform to $-\lambda$. Thus, this measure-theoretic origin of θ was needed to be able to invert the relationship between θ and μ .
- A more explicit form of the inversion can be given in terms of λ and λ' . This overcomes three limitations of simply using the Legendre transformation:
 - 1 We may only have λ strictly concave near the origin because our other inversions will not be perfect.
 - 2 It is not clear what the domain of α is. In particular, we need the domain to include 0. It turns out that μ satisfying the Osgood condition is required to insure this.
 - 3 $p \log \theta(p)$ convex does not easily follow from the Legendre transformation inversion, and, indeed, further restrictions on λ are required to insure this. This is easier to see in the explicit form of the inversion.

Inverting $\omega^0 \mapsto \theta(p)$

- This inversion amounts to asking the question of whether we can find a measurable function in the plane whose L^p -norms match a given function, θ . We only care that they match asymptotically with large p , because that is what determines the MOC near the origin.
- We should expect to invert this map neither uniquely nor exactly. Lack of uniqueness arises because any rearrangement or sign change of ω^0 yields the same θ . Thus, at best we should expect to obtain the distribution function, γ , for ω^0 ; that is,

$$\gamma(x) = \text{measure of } \{t: |\omega^0(t)| > x\}.$$

- The inability to invert exactly is a more complex issue.

Range of $\omega^0 \mapsto \theta(p)$

To see what is involved, start with the classical relation,

$$\theta(p)^p = \|\omega^0\|_{L^p}^p = p \int_0^\infty x^{p-1} \gamma(x) dx = p \mathcal{M}\gamma(p),$$

where \mathcal{M} is the Mellin transform. If ω^0 lies in $L^{p_0} \cap L^p$ for all $p \geq p_0$ then $\gamma(p)$ decays faster than any polynomial in p and it is easy to see that

$$\varphi(p) := p \log \theta(p)$$

is complex-analytic in the right-half plane, $\operatorname{Re} p > p_0$. Of necessity, then, φ must at least be real-analytic (and real-valued) on (p_0, ∞) to perform the inversion exactly, and we should not expect this to be the case.

But we only need an inversion that applies asymptotically in large p , as that is what determines the MOC, μ , of the velocity field near zero.

Inverting $\omega^0 \mapsto \theta(p)$ as in Stirling's approximation

To perform an approximate inversion, one can take an approach using the Mellin transform that is, in a sense, a generalization of one proof of Stirling's approximation. The result (which still needs some refinement to obtain a full proof) is:

Assume that

- 1 $\frac{1}{x} - \varphi''(x)$ is bounded away from zero for all sufficiently large x ;
- 2 $\frac{x\varphi'''(x)}{\varphi''(x)} e^{-\varphi'(x)}, \frac{\varphi'''(x)}{[\varphi''(x)]^2} e^{-\varphi'(x)} \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

Then letting $\beta(p) := e^{\varphi'(p)}$,

$$\gamma(\beta(p)) \approx \frac{C}{\beta(p)^p} e^{\varphi(p)}.$$

(1) is probably an essential assumption; (2) may just be an artifact of the proof.

The three critical inversions

- The need to invert $\theta(p) \mapsto \mu(x)$ is very specific to Yudovich velocities.
- The same is true of inverting $\omega^0 \mapsto \theta(p)$, though it has somewhat more general application.
- The remaining inversion, however, has, in principle, application to any system of ODEs.

Inverting $\mu(x) \mapsto \Gamma_t(x)$

The defining relation between μ and Γ is

$$I_t(x) := \int_x^{\Gamma_t(x)} \frac{dr}{\mu(r)} = t.$$

It follows that $\partial_t \Gamma_t(x) > 0$ and, because μ is strictly increasing, $\Gamma'_t(x) > 0$.

Taking derivatives gives

$$I'_t(x) = \frac{\Gamma'_t(x)}{\mu(\Gamma_t(x))} - \frac{1}{\mu(x)} = 0, \quad \partial_t I_t(x) = \frac{\partial_t \Gamma_t(x)}{\mu(\Gamma_t(x))} = 1$$

so

$$\mu(\Gamma_t(x)) = \Gamma'_t(x) \mu(x) = \partial_t \Gamma_t(x).$$

Evaluating the second equality at $t = 0$ and using $\Gamma_0(x) = x$ gives

$$\mu(x) = \frac{\partial_t \Gamma_t(x)}{\Gamma'_t(x)} \Big|_{t=0} = \partial_t \Gamma_t(x) \Big|_{t=0}.$$

Thus, it is easy to find μ given Γ . But that is not what we want.

Inverting $\mu(x) \mapsto \Gamma_1(x)$

Given a MOC, f , does there exist a MOC, μ , such that $\forall x > 0$,

$$\int_x^{f(x)} \frac{ds}{\mu(s)} = 1?$$

Defining Γ by

$$\int_x^{\Gamma_t(x)} \frac{ds}{\mu(s)} = t$$

would then give a Γ with $f = \Gamma_1$.

What if we require μ have other properties, such as being concave?

If μ is concave then f must be concave. Whether, given f concave one can invert this relation to obtain a concave μ is equivalent to an open problem in the theory of iteration semigroups.

The flow map as a group

Let $f^t = \Gamma_t$ for all t in \mathbb{R} . Then $f^0 = id$, $f^{-t} = (f^t)^{-1}$, and

$$f^{s+t} = f^s \circ f^t$$

so $G = (f^t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is a group under composition. Since,

$$\int_x^{f^t(x)} \frac{ds}{\mu(s)} = t,$$

if μ is *strictly increasing* then $f^t(x) - x$ is *strictly increasing*.

Definition

We say that a MOC, f , is *acceptable* if f is C^1 and $f(x) - x$ is *strictly increasing*.

If f is an acceptable MOC it is strictly increasing with $f' > 1$.

$$\mu(\Gamma_t(x)) = \Gamma'_t(x)\mu(x) \text{ becomes } \mu(f^t(x)) = (f^t)'(x)\mu(x).$$

Continuous iteration group

We specialize the definition of a continuous iteration group in Zdun 1979 to our acceptable MOC.

Definition

A *continuous iteration group of MOC* (CIG) is a family, $(f^t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$, such that:

- 1 Each f^t is an acceptable MOC for all $t > 0$.
- 2 For all s, t in \mathbb{R} , $f^s \circ f^t = f^{s+t}$.
- 3 f^0 is the identity.
- 4 For any fixed x in $[0, \infty)$ the map $t \mapsto f^t(x)$ is continuous.

We say that the CIG is *concave* or C^k if each f^t , $t > 0$, is concave or C^k . We say that the MOC, f , is *embedded* in the CIG if $f^1 = f$.

So, given a concave acceptable f , we want to find a CIG in which it is embedded.

Basic inversion theorem

Theorem (Basic inversion theorem, K 2010)

Given any f that is an acceptable MOC for a flow there exists a continuous MOC, μ , satisfying the Osgood condition with $\mu > 0$ on $(0, \infty)$, such that

$$\int_x^{f(x)} \frac{dr}{\mu(r)} = 1 \quad (1)$$

for all $x > 0$. If f is *concave* then for any $x_0 > 0$ we can make μ strictly increasing on $[0, x_0]$. If f is C^k , $k \geq 1$, then μ can be made C^{k-1} .

This can be proved by expressing the relation in (1) as the functional equation, $\mu(f(x)) = f'(x)\mu(x)$, and using a construction due to Kordylewski and Kuczma 1960, 1962. The regularity of μ follows from an argument of Choczewski 1963.

Some ideas in the proof of basic inversion theorem

- The construction involves choosing μ appropriately (in particular, making it *strictly increasing*) on the interval $[f^{-1}(x_0), x_0]$ then extending it to the left and right by insisting that $\mu(f(x)) = f'(x)\mu(x)$ for all x .
- The relation $\mu(x) = \mu(f(x))/f'(x)$ and the concavity of f then insure that μ is *strictly increasing* on $[0, x_0]$. This is not a limitation for our applications, since MOC are only important near the origin.

For simplicity of presentation, we suppress the complications that arise from μ being *strictly increasing* only in a neighborhood of the origin, stating our arguments and results as though they were for all x . An exception, however, is our main result which is *stated* in a way that accounts for this complication.

Concave inversion

Left open is the question of whether all concave acceptable MOCs are embeddable in a concave CIG; in fact, this is an open problem in the theory of functional equations. (With different assumptions on the function f , both existence and uniqueness of such a concave CIG is known.)

But for our purposes the weaker result below will suffice.

Theorem (Concave inversion theorem, K 2010)

Let f be any C^k concave acceptable MOC, $k \geq 3$. For any $a > 0$ there exists a C^{k+1} concave acceptable MOC, \bar{f} , embedded in a concave C^{k+1} CIG and such that $\bar{f} > f$ on $(0, a)$. The associated function μ is concave and C^k .

Zdun 1979

Once we have μ , defining $G = (f^t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ by

$$\int_x^{f^t(x)} \frac{dr}{\mu(r)} = t, \quad (2)$$

G is a CIG embedding $f = f^1$. We have the following combination of results from Zdun 1979 and our previous theorem.

Theorem (Primarily Zdun 1979)

Suppose that f is a C^k , $k \geq 1$, concave acceptable MOC. Then there exists a (in fact, an infinite number of) strictly increasing C^k CIG, $(f^t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$, embedding f . Let $(f^t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ be any such CIG embedding f . Then $\mu := \partial_t f^t|_{t=0}$ is C^{k-1} and Osgood, and satisfies (2). Moreover, the following are equivalent:

- 1 μ is (strictly) concave;
- 2 $(f^t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is (strictly) concave;
- 3 f^t is (strictly) concave for all t in $(0, \delta)$ for some $\delta > 0$.

Since $\mu(f^t(x)) = (f^t)'(x)\mu(x)$, we have

$$\mu'(f^t(x)) = \mu'(x) + \mu(x) \frac{(f^t)''(x)}{(f^t)'(x)},$$

or,

$$(f^t)''(x) = (\mu'(f^t(x)) - \mu'(x)) \frac{(f^t)'(x)}{\mu(x)}.$$

Since f^t is acceptable for all $t > 0$, $f^t(x) > x$ and $(f^t)'(x) > 1$. Hence, $(f^t)''(x)$ and $\mu'(f^t(x)) - \mu'(x)$ have the same sign for all $t, x > 0$.

Proof for *strictly* concave:

- (1) \implies (2): μ' is strictly increasing so $\mu'(f^t(x)) > \mu'(x)$; hence, $(f^t)''(x) > 0$.
- (2) \implies (3): immediate.
- (3) \implies (1): For all x and all $0 < h < f^\delta(x) - x$, $\mu'(x+h) - \mu'(x) > 0$. Hence, μ is strictly concave.

The generating function

To give an idea of the proof of the concave inversion theorem, we need to introduce the concept of a *generating function* for the CIG, $G = (f^t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$. This is a function, $h: (-\infty, \infty) \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ such that

$$f^t(x) = h(t + h^{-1}(x))$$

for all t and x . It turns out that such a generating function always exists, is unique (to within a translation), and is always *strictly increasing*. We have,

$$\mu(x) = h'(h^{-1}(x)) = 1/(h^{-1}(x))'.$$

Since $\mu(h(x)) = h'(x)$,

$$h''(x) = \mu'(h(x))h'(x).$$

Hence, μ is *strictly increasing* if and only if h is strictly convex.

Since $h' > 0$, $h' = e^g$ for some $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$h'' = e^g g'.$$

Combining the above, if $G = (F^t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is a CIG with generating function, h , and corresponding function, μ , then TFAE:

- μ is strictly increasing,
- h is strictly convex,
- $g = \log h'$ is strictly increasing.

Moreover, a simple calculation gives

$$\mu''(h(x))h'(x) = \frac{h'''(x)h'(x) - (h''(x))^2}{h'(x)^2} = \left(\frac{h''(x)}{h'(x)} \right)' = (\log h')''(x).$$

Thus, $(f^t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ (and hence μ) is concave if and only if g is concave.

Key idea in proof of concave inversion theorem

A long calculation shows that if $f = f^1$ is concave then

$$g(x) > g(x-1), \quad g'(x) \leq g'(x-1)$$

for all $x > 0$. Define \bar{g} by

$$\bar{g}(x) = \int_x^{x+1} g(s) ds.$$

g strictly increasing gives $\bar{g}'(x) = g(x+1) - g(x) > 0$, so \bar{g} is strictly increasing. And $\bar{g}''(x) = g'(x+1) - g'(x) \leq 0$, so \bar{g} is concave. Hence, the resulting $G = (\bar{f}^t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is concave.

Since \bar{g} is the mean value of g on $(x, x+1)$ and g is strictly increasing,

$$\bar{g}(x) > g(x) > \bar{g}(x-1)$$

We can use this to bound \bar{f}^1 in terms of \bar{f} .

Two questions and one remark

- 1 $p \log \|\omega^0\|_{L^p}$ convex adds the constraint that λ be concave, or, equivalently, that $\mu''(x) \geq (\mu(x)/x)'$. Can we invert the map $\mu \mapsto f = \Gamma_1$ and satisfy this constraint? Or does this require additional constraints on f and if so what are they?
- 2 What other reasonable constraints other than μ being *strictly increasing* and concave can we accommodate and still invert the map?
- 3 A Yudovich velocity field is not only Osgood continuous, but Dini continuous, meaning that

$$\int_0^x \frac{\mu(s)}{s} ds < \infty$$

for all $x > 0$.

Obrigado!