Resonances of the cusp family

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Abstract

We study a family of chaotic maps with limit cases the tent map and the cusp map (the cusp family). We discuss the spectral properties of the corresponding Frobenius–Perron operator in different function spaces including spaces of analytic functions. A numerical study of the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions is performed.

1 Introduction

Resonances of dynamical systems play important role in the study of the decay of correlations and are manifestations of the statistical properties of chaotic systems. Hence it is not surprising that they are studied very intensively. We refer readers to recent reviews on this vast subject \cite{1,2}. Resonances appear also in the generalized spectra \cite{3,4,5} of the evolution operators \cite{6,7} of chaotic maps.

The theory of resonances has been recently developed in terms of locally convex topological vector spaces \cite{3,4,5}. This reflects the fact that dynamical systems are defined in terms of the space of observables and the evolution law. For different classes of observables the same evolution law may have different resonances i.e. different rates of approach to equilibrium. However once the class of observables is chosen the resonance structure is unique \cite{3,4}. Therefore we have proposed \cite{3,4,5} that physical equivalence should reflect identical physical properties i.e. rates of decay of correlations.

For many classes of maps, e.g. expanding maps, there exist some exact results about existence of resonances and their estimations \cite{2}. However, for more complicated maps each case needs a separate consideration and results are sparse. Their study has attracted a lot of interest.

For example, the so-called cusp map \cite{10}

\[ F : [-1, 1] \to [-1, 1], \quad \text{where} \quad F(x) = 1 - 2\sqrt{|x|} \]

is an approximation of the Poincaré section of the Lorenz attractor \cite{11,12}. The absolutely continuous invariant probability measure of the cusp map has density

\[ \rho(x) = \frac{1 - x}{2}. \]
The cusp map is a limit case of the cusp family \([13, 14, 15]\):

\[
F_\varepsilon : [-1, 1] \to [-1, 1], \quad \varepsilon \in [0, 1/2],
\]

where

\[
F_\varepsilon(x) = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4\varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon - 2|x|)}}{2\varepsilon} \quad \text{for } \varepsilon \in (0, 1/2],
\]

(1)

\[
F_0(x) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} F_\varepsilon(x) = 1 - 2|x|.
\]

The map with \(\varepsilon = 0\) is the well-known tent map \([16]\) while the map with \(\varepsilon = 1/2\) is the cusp map \([10]\).

Each map in the cusp family is an exact system. For \(\varepsilon \neq 1/2\) it follows directly from theorem 4 in § 8, chap. 10 of \([7]\), which gives sufficient conditions of exactness for piecewise monotonic maps. The exactness of the cusp map has been hinted by Hemmer \([10]\) referring to the work of Lasota and Yorke \([17]\). The proposed hint seems to be irrelevant as the cusp map has a parabolic fixed point.

For the cusp map one should consider the so-called induced map \([18, 19, 20]\) on the segment \([-\sqrt{8} - 3, 3 - \sqrt{8}]\). This map satisfies the conditions of the above mentioned theorem and therefore is exact. Since the exactness for a map and its induced map are equivalent \([18, 19, 20]\), we obtain the exactness of the cusp map.

The unique absolutely continuous Borel invariant probability measure \(\mu_\varepsilon\) for the cusp family \(F_\varepsilon\) has density \([13]\)

\[
\rho_\varepsilon(x) = \frac{1}{2} - \varepsilon x.
\]

(2)

The statistical analysis of dynamical systems is based on the Koopman and the Frobenius–Perron operators. The Koopman operator of a measurable map \(S : Y \to Y\), where \((Y, \mathcal{F})\) is a measurable space, acts on functions \(f : Y \to \mathbb{C}\):

\[
Vf(x) = f(Sx).
\]

The Frobenius–Perron operator \((\text{F.P.O.})\) \(U\) is defined with respect to a probability reference measure \(\nu\) on \((Y, \mathcal{F})\). For \(1 \leq p \leq \infty\) the F.P.O. \(U : L_p(Y, \mathcal{F}, \nu) \to L_p(Y, \mathcal{F}, \nu)\) is the dual of the operator \(V : L_q(Y, \mathcal{F}, \nu) \to L_q(Y, \mathcal{F}, \nu)\), where \(\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1\):

\[
(U\rho|f) = (\rho|Vf), \quad (\rho|f) = \int \nu(dy) \rho(y)f(y).
\]

In case of an exact endomorphism \(S\) on a segment \(Y = [a, b]\) one usually use either the normalized Lebesgue measure or the invariant absolutely continuous probability measure as the reference measure. In both cases 1 is an eigenvalue of the F.P.O. However, in the first case the corresponding eigenfunction is the density of the invariant measure; in the second case the corresponding eigenfunction is constant 1. In our paper we use the invariant measure as the reference one.

The Frobenius–Perron operator \(U_\varepsilon\) of \(F_\varepsilon\) with respect to the invariant measure \(\mu_\varepsilon\) is

\[
U_\varepsilon\rho(x) = \left(\frac{1}{2} - \varepsilon a_\varepsilon(x)\right)\rho(a_\varepsilon(x)) + \left(\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon a_\varepsilon(x)\right)\rho(-a_\varepsilon(x)),
\]

(3)
where
\[ a_\varepsilon(x) = \frac{1 - x}{2} - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}(1 - x^2). \]

The objective of this paper is to study the resonances of the cusp family \( (1) \). In Section 2 we present some definitions and results for the spectral theory of operators necessary for the study of the F.P.O. of the cusp family. In Section 3 we present results about the spectral properties of the F.P.O. generated by this family in different function spaces. In Section 4 we analyze the spectral properties in spaces of analytic functions. In order to analyze the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of the cusp family, we perform in Section 5 a numerical study. We show that the cusp family does not have spectrum in the form \( r^n \), where \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), \( r \in \mathbb{R} \), in the space of analytic functions, at least in the vicinity of the tent map. We analyze the behavior of the eigenvalues in the vicinity of the cusp map. The behavior of the eigenfunctions is also discussed.

2 Normal points of linear operators

Let \( A \) be a linear continuous operator in a locally convex topological linear space \( E \). The point \( z \in \mathbb{C} \) is said to be regular if \( A - zI \) has continuous inverse (here and below \( I \) is the identity operator). The set of all nonregular points is the spectrum of \( A \), denoted as \( \sigma(A) \). The point \( z \in \mathbb{C} \) is said to be a normal point \([21]\) if \( E \) admits a decomposition into a topological direct sum \([22]\) of two closed linear subspaces
\[ E = E_0 \oplus E_1 \]  

such that \( E_0 \) is finite dimensional, \( A(E_j) \subseteq E_j \) for \( j \in \{0, 1\} \), \( (A - zI)|_{E_1} : E_1 \to E_1 \) has continuous inverse and there exists \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) such that \( (A - zI)^n(E_0) = \{0\} \).

Evidently the point \( z \) is regular if and only if it is normal and \( E_0 = \{0\} \). A normal point for which \( E_0 \neq \{0\} \) is called a normal eigenvalue.

It is well-known \([21, 23]\) that for any normal point \( z \) the decomposition \([4]\) is unique. Moreover, the monotonic sequences of spaces \( \ker(A - zI)^n \) and \( (A - zI)^n(E) \) stabilize and
\[ E_0 = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \ker(A - zI)^n, \quad E_1 = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} (A - zI)^n(E). \]  

For a normal point \( z \) we denote
\[ \mathcal{E}(z, A) = E_0. \]  

Note that if \( z \) is regular then \( \mathcal{E}(z, A) = \{0\} \). According to \([4]\) the finite dimensional space \( \mathcal{E}(z, A) \) is spanned by the eigenvectors and the principal vectors of \( A \) associated to the eigenvalue \( z \). In the case \( \mathcal{E}(z, A) \neq \{0\} \) the dimension of \( \mathcal{E}(z, A) \) is the multiplicity of the normal eigenvalue \( z \).

If the spectrum of \( A \) is either finite or is a sequence converging to 0 and any non-zero element of \( \sigma(A) \) is a normal eigenvalue of \( A \) (this happens e.g. for any compact operator
on a Banach space \( \mathbb{X} \), we can relabel the spectrum \( \sigma(A) \) as a sequence

\[
z_n(A), \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots
\]

so that the following conditions are fulfilled:

1) \(|z_{n+1}(A)| \leq |z_n(A)|\) for all \( n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \),
2) if \( z_n(A) \neq 0 \) then \( z_n(A) \in \sigma(A) \),
3) if \( z \in \sigma(A) \setminus \{0\} \) then \(|\{n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ : z_n(A) = z\}| = \dim \mathcal{E}(z, A)\)
4) if \( |z_n(A)| = |z_{n+1}(A)|\) then \( \arg z_n(A) < \arg z_{n+1}(A)\),

where \( \arg z \in (-\pi, \pi] \) is the argument of the complex number \( z \).

### 3 Spectral properties of the Frobenius–Perron operator in \( L_p \) and \( C^k \)

Let us introduce the following notation:

\[
\overline{D}(a, q) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - a| \leq q\}, \quad D(a, q) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - a| < q\},
\]

For any \( p \in [1, +\infty] \) we denote the Hardy space in the disk \( D(a,q) \) by \( \mathcal{H}^p(a,q) \), i.e. \( \mathcal{H}^p(a,q) \) is the space of holomorphic functions \( f : D(a,q) \to \mathbb{C} \), which belong to \( L^p(D(a,q)) \) with respect to the Lebesgue measure. We endow this space with the \( L^p \)-norm.

The operator \( U^X_\varepsilon : X \to X \) is the restriction of \( U_\varepsilon \) to a locally convex function space \( X \) such that \( U_\varepsilon(X) \subseteq X \). The spectrum of the operator \( U^X_\varepsilon \) is denoted by \( \sigma(U^X_\varepsilon) \).

**Proposition 1.** Let \( \varepsilon \in [0, 1/2] \), \( X \) be either the Banach space \( C[-1,1] \) or \( L_p([-1,1], \mu_\varepsilon) \). Then the spectrum \( \sigma(U^X_\varepsilon) \) coincides with the closed unit disk \( \overline{D}(1) \). Moreover, any \( z \) from the open unit disk \( D(1) \) is an eigenvalue of \( U^X_\varepsilon \) of infinite multiplicity. The point \( z = 1 \) is an eigenvalue of multiplicity 1.

**Proof.** Since \( \|U^X_\varepsilon\| = 1 \) we have \( \sigma(U^X_\varepsilon) \subseteq \overline{D}(1) \). Let \( z \in D(1) \). Consider the Koopman operator of the cusp family \( V_\varepsilon : X \to X \)

\[
V_\varepsilon f(x) = f(F_\varepsilon(x)).
\]

One can directly verify that the functions \( \psi \),

\[
\psi(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^k V^k_\varepsilon h,
\]

where \( h(x) = g(x)(1 + 2\varepsilon x) \) and \( g(x) \) is an odd function, are eigenfunctions of \( U_\varepsilon : U_\varepsilon \psi = z\psi \). As \( g \) is an arbitrary odd function, this proves that all points of \( D(1) \) are eigenvalues of \( U^X_\varepsilon \) of infinite multiplicity. \( \square \)

**Remark 1.** Formula (9) provides all the eigenfunctions of \( U^X_\varepsilon \) with eigenvalue \( z \).
Remark 2. Proposition 1 and its proof remain valid for the Frobenius–Perron operator $U$ of any continuous exact endomorphism (instead of $h$ one should take any element of $\text{ker}(U)$).

**Proposition 2.** Let $\varepsilon \in [0, 1/2]$, $n = 1, 2, \ldots$, $X$ be the Banach space $C^n[-1, 1]$. Then the spectrum $\sigma(U^X)\varepsilon$ contains the closed disk $D(0, (1/2 + \varepsilon)^{n+1})$, and any point of the open disk $D(0, (1/2 + \varepsilon)^{n+1})$ is a (non-normal) eigenvalue of $U^X\varepsilon$ of infinite multiplicity. The set $S = \sigma(U^X)\varepsilon \setminus \overline{D}(0, (1/2 + \varepsilon)^n)$ is finite and any $z \in S$ is a normal eigenvalue of $U^X\varepsilon$.

**Remark 3.** Under the conditions of Proposition 2 for any $z \in S$ and any $f \in E(z, U^X)$ the function $f$ admits the analytic continuation to the disk $D(0, 1/\varepsilon - 1)$ if $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$ and to the whole complex plane if $\varepsilon = 0$. This can be proved by estimating the growth of the sequence $s_n = \sup_{t \in [-1, 1]} |f^{(n)}(t)|$.

**Corollary 1.** Let $\varepsilon \in [0, 1/2]$, $X = C^\infty[-1, 1]$ with the natural topology $[22]$. Then the spectrum $\sigma(U^X)\varepsilon$ is either finite or countable, $0 \in \sigma(U^X)\varepsilon$ and any point $z \in \sigma(U^X)\varepsilon \setminus \{0\}$ is a normal (and therefore isolated) eigenvalue of $U^X\varepsilon$. Moreover for any $z \in \sigma(U^X)\varepsilon \setminus \{0\}$ and any $f \in E(z, U^X)$ the function $f$ admits the analytic continuation to the disk $D(0, 1/\varepsilon - 1)$ if $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$ and to the whole complex plane if $\varepsilon = 0$.

**Corollary 2.** Let $n = 1, 2, \ldots, \infty$ and $X$ be the space $C^n[-1, 1]$. Then the spectrum $\sigma(U^X_{1/2})$ is the closed unit disk $D(0, 1)$, and any point of the open unit disk $D(0, 1)$ is an eigenvalue of $U^X_{1/2}$ of infinite multiplicity.

**Proof of Proposition 2.**

Let us define the sequence $t_n$ by the formula

$$t_0 = 1, \quad t_{n+1} = -a_\varepsilon(t_n), \quad n = 1, 2, \ldots \quad (10)$$

It is easy to see that $t_1 = 0$, the sequence $t_n$ is strictly decreasing and

$$t_n = -1 + \frac{4}{n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right) \quad \text{for} \quad \varepsilon = 1/2,$$

$$t_n = -1 + c(\varepsilon)\left(\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon\right)^n + O\left((\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon)^{2n}\right), \quad \text{for} \quad \varepsilon \in [0, 1/2). \quad (11)$$

Let $z \in C$. Pick an arbitrary function $\phi : (0, 1] \to C$. Define recurrently the function $f_\phi : (-1, 1] \to C$ as follows

$$f_\phi(x) = \phi(x) \quad \text{for} \quad x \in (0, 1] = (t_1, t_0),$$

$$f_\phi(x) = \frac{2zf(a_\varepsilon^{-1}(x))}{1 - 2xf(x)} - \frac{1 + 2xz}{1 - 2xz} f(-x) \quad \text{for} \quad x \in (t_{n+1}, t_n], \quad n = 1, 2, \ldots \quad (12)$$

It is straightforward to see that $f_\phi$ is the unique function $f : (-1, 1] \to C$ for which $f|_{[0, 1]} = \phi$ and $U^X f(x) = zf(x)$ for all $x \in (-1, 1]$. Let now $\phi$ be an element of $C^\infty[0, 1]$ such that the support of $\phi$ (i.e. the closure in $[0, 1]$ of the set $\{t : \phi(t) \neq 0\}$) is contained in the interval $(0, -t_2)$. It is clear that $f_\phi \in C^\infty(-1, 1]$. Using formula (11) and the asymptotics (10), for any $z \in C$, $|z| < (1/2 + \varepsilon)^{n+1}$ one can verify that

$$\lim_{t \to -1} f_\phi^{(j)}(t) = 0, \quad j = 0, 1, \ldots, n. \quad (13)$$
Therefore putting $f_\phi(-1) = 0$, we see that $f_\phi \in X = C^\infty[-1,1]$ and $U^X_\varepsilon f_\phi = zf_\phi$. Hence $\sigma(U^X_\varepsilon)$ contains $\overline{D}(n+1,\varepsilon)$ and any point of $D(n+1,\varepsilon)$ is an eigenvalue of $U^X_\varepsilon$ of infinite multiplicity.

The second part of Proposition 2 follows from Ruelle’s results on spectra of positive transfer operators, see [2], Theorem 2.5 and Exercise 2.9.

4 Spectral properties of the operator $U_\varepsilon$ in spaces of analytic functions.

The spectral properties of the operator $U_\varepsilon$ in spaces of analytic functions differ considerably depending on the choice of the space and on the values $\varepsilon = 1/2$ or $\varepsilon \neq 1/2$. Furthermore, not all of these properties are known yet.

Proposition 3. Let $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$, $q \in (1, 1/\varepsilon - 1)$ and $X$ be the Hardy space $\mathcal{H}^2(0,q)$. Then the operator $U^X_\varepsilon$ is nuclear. Moreover,

(i) the eigenvalues $z_n = z_n(U^X_\varepsilon)$ and the eigenspaces $\mathcal{E}(z_n(U^X_\varepsilon), U^X_\varepsilon)$ do not depend on $q$;

(ii) the eigenvalues $z_n$ satisfy the inequality

$$|z_n| \leq 1.5c^n, \text{ where } c = c(\varepsilon) = \sqrt{1/2 + \varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon)} < 1.$$ (14)

Proof.

It is easy to show that for any $r > 1$

$$\alpha(r) = \sup_{|z|=r} |a_\varepsilon(z)| = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \varepsilon + r + \varepsilon r^2).$$

The function $\alpha$ is continuous and strictly increasing on the interval $(1, 1/\varepsilon - 1)$, and $\alpha(r) < r$ for any $r \in (1, 1/\varepsilon - 1)$. Put $q' = \alpha^{-1}(q) > q$. From the definition of the operator $U^X_\varepsilon$ (3), it follows that $U_\varepsilon$ is a linear continuous operator from $\mathcal{H}^2(0,q)$ to $\mathcal{H}^2(0,q')$ with norm less than or equal to $1+\varepsilon\alpha(q)$. Thus $U^X_\varepsilon$ is the composition of this operator and of the operator defining the embedding of $\mathcal{H}^2(0,q')$ into $\mathcal{H}^2(0,q)$, which is nuclear with $s$-numbers $(q/q')^n$. Therefore, the operator $U^X_\varepsilon$ is nuclear with $s$-numbers $s_n(U^X_\varepsilon) \leq (1 + \varepsilon\alpha(q))(q/q')^n$.

From Remark 3 follows that the eigenvalues $z_n = z_n(U^X_\varepsilon)$ and the eigenspaces $\mathcal{E}(z_n(U^X_\varepsilon), U^X_\varepsilon)$ do not depend on $q$ and coincide with the eigenvalues and eigenspaces of $U^C^\infty[-1,1]$.

From Weyl’s inequality [24] we have

$$|z_n|^{n+1} \leq \prod_{k=0}^{n} |z_k| \leq \prod_{k=0}^{n} s_k(U^X_\varepsilon) \leq (1 + \varepsilon\alpha(q))^{n+1}(q/q')^{(n+1)n/2}$$

and therefore

$$z_n \leq (1 + \varepsilon\alpha(q))(q/q')^{n/2}. \quad (15)$$
The ratio \( q/q' \) is minimal for \( q' = \sqrt{1/\varepsilon - 1} \) and is equal to \( 1/2 + \sqrt{\varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon)} \). For this value of \( q' \) we have \( 1 + \varepsilon\alpha(q) \leq 1 + \sqrt{\varepsilon - \varepsilon^2} \leq 1.5 \). Therefore inequality (13) for \( q' = \sqrt{1/\varepsilon - 1} \) implies (14). \( \square \)

The case \( \varepsilon = 1/2 \) is much more difficult and so far there exist very few results on the spectral properties of the Frobenius–Perron operators of the maps with parabolic neutral fixed points. We would like to point out the result of H. Rugh \([25]\), who considered the Frobenius–Perron operators of piece-wise analytic maps, which are expanding everywhere except one parabolic fixed point. Namely, he constructed a specific map-dependent Banach space of analytic functions, where the spectrum of the F.P.O. consists of the segment \((0,1)\) except one parabolic fixed point. Namely, he constructed a specific map-dependent Banach space of analytic functions, where the spectrum of the F.P.O. consists of the segment \([0,1)\) and some isolated normal eigenvalues. This space is in fact the image of \( L_1[0, +\infty) \) with respect to some map-dependent integral transformation (similar to the Laplace transform). This idea applied to the cusp map allows to verify that the F.P.O. \( U_{1/2} \) has similar spectral properties in certain weighted Hardy spaces in disks \( D(\alpha, 1 + \alpha) \), \( 0 < \alpha < 1 \).

The result of H. Rugh is very interesting since it provides the first example of a Banach space of smooth functions, where the spectrum of the Frobenius–Perron operator of the cusp map is non-trivial. Note that the functions of Rugh’s space are analytic in all points of the segment except the parabolic fixed point \((-1\) in our case). However we should notice that the spectrum of the F.P.O. of a map \( S \) in spaces of analytic functions with singularity at a fixed point of \( S \) may differ considerably from the spectrum in spaces of everywhere analytic functions. We illustrate this statement for the simplest expanding map \( F_0 \), which is the tent map.

**Proposition 4.** Let \( p \in [1, +\infty) \), \( 0 < \alpha < 1 \) and \( X = \mathcal{H}^p(\alpha, 1 + \alpha) \). Then the spectrum \( \sigma(U_0^X) \) depends on \( p \). Namely, \( \sigma(U_0^X) \) is the union of the disk \( \overline{D}(0, 2^{2p-1}) \) and some set of (isolated) normal eigenvalues.

**Proof.** Evidently, \( U_0^X = A + B \), where \( Af(x) = \frac{1}{2} f \left( \frac{1-x}{2} \right) \), \( Bf(x) = \frac{1}{2} f \left( \frac{x-1}{2} \right) \). Since the image of the operator \( B \) is contained in the space \( \mathcal{H}^q(\alpha, \beta) \), where \( \beta = \min \{ 1 + 5\alpha, 3 - \alpha \} > 1 + \alpha \), the operator \( B \) is nuclear and therefore compact.

Let us estimate now the norm of the operator \( A \). Let \( f \in X \). Then

\[
\|Af\|^q = \int_{D(\alpha, 1+\alpha)} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left| f \left( \frac{x + iy - 1}{2} \right) \right| \right)^q dxdy = \int_{D(\alpha-1, (1+\alpha)/2)} \frac{4}{2^q} |f(x + iy)|^q dxdy \leq \frac{1}{2^{q-2}} \int_{D(\alpha, 1+\alpha)} |f|^q dxdy = \frac{1}{2^{q-2}} \|f\|^q.
\]

Therefore \( \|A\| \leq 2^{q-1} \). On the other hand one can verify that \( Af_\lambda = 2^{-1-\lambda} f_\lambda \), where \( f_\lambda(x) = (x + 1)^\lambda \) and \( f_\lambda \in X \) if and only if

\[ \text{Re} \lambda > -\frac{2}{q} \iff |2^{-1-\lambda}| \leq 2^{q-1}. \]

Hence, the open disk \( D(0, 2^{q-1}) \) is contained in the spectrum of \( A \). Since \( \|A\| \leq 2^{q-1} \), we find that \( \sigma(A) = \overline{D}(0, 2^{q-1}) \).
Since the operator $B$ is compact and $U_0^X = A + B$, the theorem on holomorphic operator-functions ([21], Chapter I) implies that the spectrum of $U_0^X$ is the union of $\mathcal{P}(0,2^{\frac{\nu}{2}-1})$ and some (isolated) normal eigenvalues.

**Proposition 5.** Let $0 < \nu < 0.3$ and $X$ be the space of the functions $f : (-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that the function $g_f(z) = f(-1 + 2^{-z})$, $g : [-1, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ admits the analytic continuation to some element of the conventional Hardy Hilbert space $Y$ in the half-plane $A_\nu = \{ \text{Re } z > -1 - \nu \}$ (We transfer the scalar product from this Hardy space to $X$ by the bijective linear transform $f \mapsto g_f$). Then $\sigma(U_0^X) = [0, 1] \cup S$, where $S$ consists of normal eigenvalues.

**Remark 4** The space $X$ of Proposition 5 is a Hilbert space of functions analytic on the set $D(-1, c) \setminus (-1 - c, -1]$ for some $c = c(\nu) > 2$.

**Proof of Proposition 5.**

From the definition of the scalar product in $X$, the operator $T : X \rightarrow Y$, $Tf(x) = f(-1 + 2^{-x})$ is a unitary transformation. Therefore the operator $W = TU_0T^{-1} : Y \rightarrow Y$ and $U_0$ are unitarily equivalent. From the definitions of $T$ and $U_0$ it follows that $W = A + B$, where

$$Af(x) = \frac{1}{2}f(x + 1), \quad Bf(x) = \frac{1}{2}f(\log_2(2 + 2^{-y-1})).$$

It is straightforward to verify that the closure of the set $\{-\log_2(2 + 2^{-y-1}) : y \in A_\nu\}$ is a compact subset of $A_\nu$. Hence, the operator $B$ is nuclear and therefore compact. On the other hand the conventional Laplace transform and a linear change of variables provide a unitary equivalence between the operator $A$ and the operator of multiplication with the function $e^{-t}$ acting on a certain weighted Sobolev space of functions on $[0, +\infty)$. Therefore the spectrum of $A$ is the segment $[0, 1]$.

Since the operator $B$ is compact, the theorem on holomorphic operator-functions [21] implies that the spectrum of $U_0^X$, which is identical with the spectrum of $W$ is the union of the segment $[0, 1]$ and some set of (isolated) normal eigenvalues. □

It is worth noticing that the space constructed in Proposition 6 is obtained by the construction of Rugh [25]. Thus, it is not a priori clear what is the origin of the “continuous spectrum” $[0, 1]$ obtained in [25]: the dynamical properties of the map or the choice of the space.

We conjecture that in the space of real-analytic on $[-1, 1]$ functions, the point spectrum of the Frobenius–Perron operator $U_{1/2}$ of the cusp map is $\{0, 1\}$, i.e., the eigenfunction equation $U_{1/2}f = zf$ has non-zero analytic solutions only for $z = 0$ and $z = 1$. To support this conjecture we show that $\{0, 1\}$ is the point spectrum of $U_{1/2}$ in the space of entire functions.

**Proposition 6.** Let $\varepsilon = 1/2$, $X$ be the space of entire functions. Then the spectrum of $U_\varepsilon^X$ is the whole complex plane $\mathbb{C}$ and the point spectrum of $U_\varepsilon^X$ is the two-point set $\{0, 1\}$. The eigenvalue 0 has infinite multiplicity, and the eigenvalue 1 has multiplicity 1.
Applying (17) to \( M | \leq 1 \). The null space of the operator \( z \) in the space of the analytic functions, we use Taylor’s expansion: explicitly. So we should compute them numerically. In order to perform this calculation, the eigenvalue problem

\[
U U \text{tor}
\]

In the previous section we presented the general description of the spectrum of the operator \( U_\varepsilon \). However, the eigenvalues and the eigenfunctions of the cusp family are not known explicitly. So we should compute them numerically. In order to perform this calculation in the space of the analytic functions, we use Taylor’s expansion:

\[
f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k x^k. \tag{18}
\]

The eigenvalue problem \( U_\varepsilon f(x) = zf(x) \) can be reformulated in terms of the coefficients \( c_k \):

\[
U_\varepsilon f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k U_\varepsilon x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k \sum_{p=0}^{N} a_{pk} x^p = z \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k x^k. \tag{19}
\]

\textbf{Proof.} The ergodicity of the map \( F_{1/2} \) implies the multiplicity 1 for the eigenvalue \( z = 1 \). The null space of the operator \( U_{1/2} \) is

\[
\{ f \in X : f(x) = (1 + x)g(x) : g \ \text{is an odd function} \}.
\]

Therefore 0 is an eigenvalue of \( U_{1/2} \) of infinite multiplicity. Let now \( z \in C \setminus \{0, 1\}, \psi \in X \) and \( U_{1/2} \psi = z \psi \). The eigenvalue equation for \( x = 1 \) implies that \( \psi(-1) = 0 \). Therefore \( \psi(x) = (1 + x)g(x) \) for some \( g \in X \). Let \( \xi(x) = g(x) + g(-x) \). The eigenvalue equation

\[
U_{1/2} \psi = z \psi \text{ in terms of the function } \xi \text{ can be rewritten as}
\]

\[
\xi \left( \frac{x + 1}{2} \right)^2 = \frac{32 z \xi(x)}{x^3 + 5x^2 + 11x + 15} + \frac{x^3 - 5x^2 + 11x - 15}{x^3 + 5x^2 + 11x + 15} \xi \left( \frac{x - 1}{2} \right)^2. \tag{16}
\]

Let \( M(R) = \max_{|x|=R} |\xi(x)|, \ c \in (0, \sqrt{2}) \). It is easy to see that if \( x \in C, \ \text{Re} \ (x + 1)^2 \geq 0, \ \text{Re} \ x \geq 0, \) and \( R \leq |(x + 1)^2/4| \leq R + c\sqrt{R} \) then, for sufficiently large \( R > 0, |x| \leq R \) and \( |(x - 1)^2/4| \leq R \). Since \( \xi \) is even this fact together with formula (16) imply that

\[
M(R + \sqrt{R} + 1/4) \leq M(R) \left( 1 + 5/\sqrt{R} + O(1/R) \right) \quad \text{when} \quad (R \to +\infty). \tag{17}
\]

Applying (17) to \( R_n = n^2/4 \) and using the equality \( R_{n+1} = R_n + \sqrt{R_n} + 1/4 \), we obtain

\[
M(n^2/4) \leq c_1 \prod_{k=1}^{n} (1 + 10/k + O(1/k^2))
\]

for some positive constant \( c_1 \). Therefore \( M(n^2/4) = O(n^{10}) \), and \( M(R) = O(R^5) \). This estimation implies (see [20]) that \( \xi \) is a polynomial of degree at most 5. On the other hand, using induction with respect to the degree of polynomial, one can show that there are no polynomial solutions of the equation (16). \( \Box \)

\textbf{Remark 5.} Similar technique allows verifying that for any \( z \in C, \ z \neq 0 \) the function \( f(x) = x \) does not belong to the space \( U_{1/2}(X) \), where \( X \) is the set of all entire functions. Therefore, the spectrum of \( U_{1/2} \) is the whole complex plane.

\section{Numerical results for the spectra}

In the previous section we presented the general description of the spectrum of the operator \( U_{\varepsilon} \). However, the eigenvalues and the eigenfunctions of the cusp family are not known explicitly. So we should compute them numerically. In order to perform this calculation in the space of the analytic functions, we use Taylor’s expansion:

\[
f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k x^k. \tag{18}
\]

The eigenvalue problem \( U_{\varepsilon} f(x) = z f(x) \) can be reformulated in terms of the coefficients \( c_k \):

\[
U_{\varepsilon} f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k U_{\varepsilon} x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k \sum_{p=0}^{N} a_{pk} x^p = z \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k x^k. \tag{19}
\]
As the operator $U_\varepsilon$ is nuclear, we can project the last expression onto the subspace $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^N$. Now the eigenvalue problem can be written as $A\vec{c} = z\vec{c}$, where $\{A\}_{kp} = a_{kp}$, see (19).

The coefficients $a_{pk}$ in (19) are equal to

$$a_{pk} = \begin{cases} (-1)^p f(\varepsilon, k, p), & k \text{ is even,} \\ (-1)^{p+1}2\varepsilon f(\varepsilon, k+1, p), & k \text{ is odd,} \end{cases}$$

where the function $f(\varepsilon, k, p)$ is defined as

$$f(\varepsilon, k, p) = \frac{1}{2^k} \sum_{l=0}^p C_k^l C_{p-l}^k \varepsilon^l (1 - \varepsilon)^{k-l}.$$

The most precise and convenient way for the calculation of the coefficients $a_{pk}$ is the use of the recurrence relation:

$$a_{p,k+2} = \frac{1}{4} \left\{(1 - \varepsilon)^2 a_{p,k} + (2\varepsilon - 2) a_{p-1,k} + (-2\varepsilon^2 + 2\varepsilon + 1) a_{p-2,k} - 2\varepsilon a_{p-3,k} + \varepsilon^2 a_{p-4,k}\right\}.$$

This representation is much more accurate than the numerical integration used in [14] hence it permits using longer expansion (18) without loss of accuracy.

It is worth noticing that the matrix $A$ in non-symmetric. Up to $2 \times 10^3$ terms in the expansion (18) were used to get converged results. In order to check convergence, we use the trace formula for the operator $U_\varepsilon$. Namely, as for $\varepsilon \in [0, 1/2)$ the operator $U_\varepsilon$ is nuclear, we can calculate its trace by using the Grothendieck-Fredholm formula (see for example [2, 27]):

$$\text{tr} U_\varepsilon = \sum_{n=0}^\infty z_n = \frac{1}{1/2 - \varepsilon} - \frac{2}{\sqrt{9 - 4\varepsilon(1 - \varepsilon)}}$$

and compare this value with the numerical calculations.

In Fig. 1, ten maximal eigenvalues of the operator $U_\varepsilon$ are presented. Because of very good convergence of our numerical method for small $\varepsilon$, the asymptotics of the $z_n$ as $\varepsilon \to 0$ can be numerically calculated:

$$\frac{z_{n+1}}{z_n} = \frac{1}{4} + \left(2n - \frac{1}{2}\right) \varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2).$$

Hence the cusp family has neither spectrum in the form $r^n$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $r \in \mathbb{R}$, nor combination of few such spectra when $\varepsilon \neq 0$.

Using relation (22), we can find a general formula for the eigenvalues when $\varepsilon$ is small:

$$z_{n+1} = \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^n (1 + 2n(2n+1)\varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2)), \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots.$$

This result gives for the asymptotics of the trace

$$\text{tr} U_\varepsilon = \frac{4}{3} + \frac{104}{27}\varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2) \quad \text{when} \quad \varepsilon \to 0.$$
Formula (24) coincides with the asymptotics of Eq. (21). This coincidence supports strongly formulas (22, 23) which are obtained only numerically.

When \( \varepsilon \to 1/2 \) and \( n \) is fixed, one can see that \( z_n \to 1 \). This result agrees with the divergence of the trace. We have also checked that the eigenvalues have the asymptotics

\[
z_n = (1/2 + \varepsilon)^n \quad \text{when} \quad \varepsilon \to 1/2,
\]

that agrees with the asymptotics found in [14].

Let us now discuss the eigenfunction behavior. In Figs. 2a, 2b we present the second and fourth eigenfunctions, respectively, for few values of \( \varepsilon \). One can easily see a concentration effect in a vicinity of \(-1\) as \( \varepsilon \to 1/2 \). The eigenfunctions tend to have the support only at the point \( x = -1 \). This behavior is in a good agreement with the existence of a “formal eigenfunction” \( \delta(x+1) \) for \( \varepsilon = 0.5 \). Such behavior of eigenfunctions supports numerically the conjecture about the non-existence of non-trivial (except of \( \{0, 1\} \)) spectrum for the cusp map in the space of the real analytic functions as the limit functions have a singularity at the point \(-1\).

6 Conclusions

The spectral properties of the cusp family [1] that “interpolates” between the tent map and the cusp map have been investigated in different function spaces. This study has permitted us to formulate a conjecture about the spectrum of the cusp map. While some results about this spectrum can be proved, the general description in different spaces of analytic functions is still unknown.

There are few questions which are particularly interesting in this context. First, the question about the asymptotics of the autocorrelation function for the cusp map. As the resonance eigenvalues tend to unity, one can expect non-exponential decrease of the autocorrelation function. The estimations in paper [15] show that the autocorrelation function \( C(n) \) decreases as \( 1/n \) when \( n \to \infty \). However, this conjecture is not yet analytically proven. Another question addresses the choice of the space of analytic functions where the spectrum of the F.P.O. is naturally defined by the dynamics of the map. Moreover, our calculations and calculations of [14] show that the spectrum of the cusp family is real. While there are some analytical results about a reality of the spectrum [28], they are not applicable to the cusp family. Hence the question about the reality of the spectrum also remains open.

Acknowledgments. We would like to thank Profs. Ilya Prigogine and Victor Sadovnichy for helpful discussions. This work enjoyed the financial support of the European Commission, project IST-2000-26016 IMCOMP, and the Belgian Government through the Interuniversity Attraction Poles. S. A. Shkarin is supported by the Alexander von Humboldt foundation.
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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Ten maximal eigenvalues as the functions of $\varepsilon$.

Fig. 2a, 2b. The second (2a) and fourth (2b) eigenfunctions for $\varepsilon = 0$ (the solid line), $0.25$ (the long-dashed line), $0.4$ (the dashed line), and $0.48$ (the short-dashed line).
