

TANAKA THEOREM FOR INELASTIC MAXWELL MODELS

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ABSTRACT. We show that the Euclidean Wasserstein distance is contractive for inelastic homogeneous Boltzmann kinetic equations in the Maxwellian approximation and its associated Kac-like caricature. This property is as a generalization of the Tanaka theorem to inelastic interactions. Even in the elastic classical Boltzmann equation, we give a simpler proof of the Tanaka theorem than the ones in [29, 31]. Consequences are drawn on the asymptotic behavior of solutions in terms only of the Euclidean Wasserstein distance.

1. INTRODUCTION

This work is devoted to contraction and asymptotic properties of the homogeneous Boltzmann-type equations for inelastic interactions in the Maxwellian approximation introduced in [5] and further analyzed in [16, 6, 7, 10, 1, 11, 2, 8]. We are basically concerned with the Boltzmann equation

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = B\sqrt{\theta(f(t))}Q(f, f) \quad (1.1)$$

considered in [5] and its variants. Here, $f(t, v)$ is the density for the velocity $v \in \mathbb{R}^3$ distribution of the molecules at time t , and $Q(f, f)$ is the inelastic Boltzmann collision operator defined by

$$(\varphi, Q(f, f)) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{S^2} f(v)f(w) \left[\varphi(v') - \varphi(v) \right] d\sigma dv dw \quad (1.2)$$

for any test function φ , where

$$v' = \frac{1}{2}(v + w) + \frac{1 - e}{4}(v - w) + \frac{1 + e}{4}|v - w|\sigma$$

is the postcollisional velocity, $\sigma \in S^2$, $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $0 < e \leq 1$ is the constant restitution coefficient. Equation (1.1) preserves mass and momentum, but makes the kinetic energy (or temperature)

$$\theta(f(t)) = \frac{1}{3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \left| v - \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} v f(t, v) dv \right|^2 f(t, v) dv$$

decrease towards 0. In particular, solutions to (1.1) tend to the Dirac mass at the mean velocity of the particles [5]. We refer to [5, 7, 32] for the discussion about the relation of this model to the inelastic hard-sphere Boltzmann equation and different ways of writing the operator. Let us just point out that the factor $B\sqrt{\theta(f(t))}$ in front of the operator in (1.1) is chosen for having the same temperature decay law as its hard-sphere counterpart [5] known as the Haff's law.

The convergence towards the monokinetic distribution has been made more precise in [7, 10, 2] by means of homogeneous cooling states. They are self-similar solutions of the homogeneous Boltzmann equation (1.1) describing the long-time asymptotics and presenting power-like tail behavior whose relevance was previously discussed in the physics literature [19, 20].

To avoid the collapse of the solution to the Dirac mass, the authors in [16] suggested the introduction of a stochastic thermostat which, at the kinetic level, is modelled by a linear diffusion term in velocity. In this framework, the density f in the velocity space obeys

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = B\sqrt{\theta(f(t))}Q(f, f) + A\theta^p(f(t))\Delta_v f \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \leq p < \frac{3}{2}. \quad (1.3)$$

Existence and uniqueness for given mean velocity of a steady state to (1.3) have been shown in [18, 6, 1]. The convergence of solutions towards this steady state in all Sobolev norms has also been investigated and quantified by means of Fourier-based distances between probability measures [1].

Fourier techniques are a good toolbox and have been extremely fruitful for studying Maxwellian models in kinetic theory since Bobylev observed [3, 4] that such equations have closed forms in Fourier variables. Fourier distances are not only suitable technical tools to study the long-time asymptotics of models (1.1) and (1.3), but also they represent the first Liapunov functionals known for inelastic Boltzmann-type equations [1, 2]. In the case of the classical elastic Boltzmann equation for Maxwellian molecules, there is another known Liapunov functional, namely, the Tanaka functional [29], apart from the H -functional for which no counterpart is known in inelastic models. See also [12] for a discussion of Liapunov functionals for the classical Boltzmann equation and another proof of the Tanaka functional in the elastic case.

The Tanaka functional is the Euclidean (or quadratic) Wasserstein distance between measures in the modern jargon of optimal mass transport theory. It is defined on the set $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ of Borel probability measures on \mathbb{R}^3 with finite second moment or kinetic energy as

$$W_2(f, g) = \inf_{\pi} \left\{ \iint_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} |v - w|^2 d\pi(v, w) \right\}^{1/2} = \inf_{(V, W)} \left\{ \mathbb{E} [|V - W|^2] \right\}^{1/2}$$

where π runs over the set of joint probability measures on $\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3$ with marginals f and g and (V, W) are all possible couples of random variables with f and g as respective laws. This functional was proven by Tanaka [29] to be non-increasing for the flow of the homogeneous Boltzmann equation in the Maxwellian case, see also [12] for a simplified proof. In fact, the Tanaka functional and Fourier-based distances are related to each other [21, 15, 30], and were used to study the trend to equilibrium for Maxwellian gases. On the other hand, related simplified granular models [17] have been shown to be strict contractions for the Wasserstein distance W_2 . Other applications of Wasserstein distances to granular models have been shown in [14, 23].

With this situation, a natural question arose as an open problem in [2, Remark 3.3] and [32, Section 2.8]: is the Euclidean Wasserstein distance a contraction for the flow of inelastic Maxwell models? The main results of this work answer this question affirmatively.

Moreover, we shall not need to introduce Bobylev's Fourier representation of the inelastic Maxwell models working only in the physical space.

We shall show in Section 3 the key idea behind the proof of all results concerning contractions in W_2 distance for inelastic Maxwell models, namely, the gain part $Q^+(f, f)$ of the collision operator verifies

$$W_2(Q^+(f, f), Q^+(g, g)) \leq \sqrt{\frac{3+e^2}{4}} W_2(f, g)$$

for any f, g in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ with equal mean velocity and any restitution coefficient $0 < e \leq 1$. Based on this property, we shall derive contraction and asymptotic properties both for (1.1) and (1.3) in Subsections 4.1 and 4.3; for instance we shall prove that the flow for the diffusive equation (1.3) is a strict contraction for W_2 .

Moreover, Subsection 4.2 is devoted to the self-similar scaled equation associated to (1.1): in particular we shall show that solutions converge in W_2 to a corresponding homogeneous cooling state, without rate but only assuming that initial data have bounded second moment. More precisely, in original variables, let $f(t)$ be a solution to (1.1) with initial datum in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ with zero mean velocity. If g_∞ is the unique stationary solution of the scaled problem with zero mean velocity and unit temperature, and

$$f_{hc}(v, t) = \theta^{-\frac{3}{2}}(f(t)) g_\infty(v \theta^{-\frac{1}{2}}(f(t)))$$

is the corresponding homogeneous cooling state, then we prove that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \theta(f(t))^{-1/2} W_2(f(t), f_{hc}(t)) = 0.$$

This improves the Ernst-Brito conjecture [19, 20, 7, 10, 2] since it shows that the basin of attraction of the homogenous cooling state is larger - on f_0 we require bounded moments of order 2 only and not $2 + \varepsilon$ as in previous works - if we do not ask for a rate better than the one dictated by Haff's cooling law.

Moreover, a generalization for non constant cross sections, including Tanaka's theorem as a particular case, will be proven in Subsection 4.4.

Finally, we shall also show this generic property for the inelastic Kac model introduced in [27] as a dissipative version of Kac's caricature of Maxwellian gases [22, 24].

2. BASIC PROPERTIES OF THE DISTANCE W_2 AND INELASTIC MAXWELL MODELS

We start by summarizing the main properties of the Euclidean Wasserstein distance W_2 that we shall make use of in the rest, referring to [13, 31] for the proofs.

Proposition 1. *The space $(\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3), W_2)$ is a complete metric space. Moreover, the following properties of the distance W_2 hold:*

- i) **Convergence of measures:** *Given $\{f_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ and f in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$, the following three assertions are equivalent:*
 - a) $W_2(f_n, f)$ tends to 0 as n goes to infinity.

b) f_n tends to f weakly- $*$ as measures as n goes to infinity and

$$\sup_{n \geq 1} \int_{|v| > R} |v|^2 f_n(v) dv \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } R \rightarrow +\infty.$$

c) f_n tends to f weakly- $*$ as measures and

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^2 f_n(v) dv \rightarrow \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^2 f(v) dv \text{ as } n \rightarrow +\infty.$$

ii) **Relation to Temperature:** If f belongs to $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ and δ_a is the Dirac mass at a in \mathbb{R}^3 , then

$$W_2^2(f, \delta_a) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v - a|^2 df(v).$$

iii) **Scaling:** Given f in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ and $\theta > 0$, let us define

$$\mathcal{S}_\theta[f] = \theta^{3/2} f(\theta^{1/2} v)$$

for absolutely continuous measures with respect to Lebesgue measure or its corresponding definition by duality for general measures; then for any f and g in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$, we have

$$W_2(\mathcal{S}_\theta[f], \mathcal{S}_\theta[g]) = \theta^{-1/2} W_2(f, g).$$

iv) **Convexity:** Given f_1, f_2, g_1 and g_2 in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ and α in $[0, 1]$, then

$$W_2^2(\alpha f_1 + (1 - \alpha) f_2, \alpha g_1 + (1 - \alpha) g_2) \leq \alpha W_2^2(f_1, g_1) + (1 - \alpha) W_2^2(f_2, g_2).$$

As a simple consequence, given f, g and h in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$, then

$$W_2(h * f, h * g) \leq W_2(f, g)$$

where $*$ stands for the convolution in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Here the convolution of the two measures h and f is defined by duality by

$$(\varphi, h * f) = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} \varphi(x + y) dh(x) df(y)$$

for any test function φ on \mathbb{R}^3 . If f is a Borel probability measure on \mathbb{R}^3 we shall let

$$\langle f \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} v df(v) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} v f(v) dv$$

denote its mean velocity. We shall use the same notation for densities and measures expecting that the reader will not get confused.

It is also interesting to note the following control of averages implied by W_2 . As a consequence, the convergence with rate in W_2 implies the convergence with rate for all these averages.

Proposition 2. Given a Lipschitz map φ on \mathbb{R}^3 with Lipschitz constant L , then we have

$$\left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \varphi(v)(f(v) - g(v)) dv \right| \leq L W_2(f, g).$$

Proof.- Let π be a joint measure on $\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3$ with marginals f and g . Then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \varphi(v)(f(v) - g(v)) dv = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} (\varphi(v) - \varphi(w)) d\pi(v, w).$$

Using that φ is Lipschitz with constant L and estimating by Hölder's inequality, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \varphi(v)(f(v) - g(v)) dv \right| &\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} |\varphi(v) - \varphi(w)| d\pi(v, w) \\ &\leq L \int_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} |v - w| d\pi(v, w) \leq L \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} |v - w|^2 d\pi(v, w) \right)^{1/2}. \end{aligned}$$

Minimizing over π concludes the argument. \square

Now, let us start by revising the main asymptotic properties of the solutions of (1.1). First of all the mean velocity of the solution is preserved, i.e.,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} v f(t, v) dv = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} v f_0(v) dv = U$$

if f_0 in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ is the initial datum. By the translational invariance we may assume without loss of generality that $U = 0$. Then the evolution of the temperature for all solutions of (1.1) is given by Haff's law of cooling:

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt}(f(t)) = -\frac{1 - e^2}{4} B \theta(f(t))^{3/2}, \quad (2.1)$$

as proven in [5]. Solving explicitly the ODE (2.1) and using the second property in Proposition 1 ensure the following convergence result towards the Dirac mass at 0:

Corollary 3. *Given a solution $f(t, v)$ to (1.1) with zero mean velocity and initial kinetic energy θ_0 corresponding to an initial datum in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$, then*

$$W_2^2(f(t), \delta_0) = \frac{12 \theta_0}{\left(\frac{1 - e^2}{4} B \sqrt{\theta_0} t + 2\right)^2}. \quad (2.2)$$

By Proposition 2, this implies the convergence as t^{-1} for the averages with Lipschitz functions. More generally it shows the convergence towards total cooling in infinite time. Then, the question is how this cooling is done and what is the typical cooling profile for the equation (1.1). In [19, 20] it was conjectured the existence of a self-similar solution with power-like tails (first part of the Ernst-Brito conjecture) and which should be asymptotically stable for a large class of initial data (second part of the Ernst-Brito conjecture). The first part of the Ernst-Brito conjecture was answered in [7]: they proved the existence and uniqueness with given initial temperature of self-similar solutions, called homogeneous cooling states (HCS), of the form

$$f_{hc}(v, t) = \theta^{-\frac{3}{2}}(t) g_\infty(\theta^{-\frac{1}{2}}(t) v)$$

where g_∞ is solution to $\nabla \cdot (g v) = E Q(g, g)$ with $E = 8/(1 - e^2)$ and $\theta(t)$ is any solution to the evolution (2.1) of the temperature. The results were actually stated in Fourier

variables but they can be rewritten in this way. Later, the convergence towards these HCS was obtained in [10, 2]: solutions of the self-similar scaled equation

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial \tau} + \nabla \cdot (g v) = E Q(g, g)$$

converge exponentially fast towards the stationary solution g_∞ under the assumption that the initial datum has bounded moments of order $2 + \varepsilon$. Let us remark that in those results the speed of convergence goes to 0 as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$. Also, let us point out that the convergence towards HCS eventually gives the information we are looking for: at times goes on, the solutions to (1.1) cool down towards the Dirac mass at 0 with the corresponding profile $f_{hc}(v, t)$.

To conclude this introduction to the Inelastic Maxwell Models, we should mention that more general models allowing non-constant differential cross sections can be considered, as in [8]. Although these models can be written in any dimension, we will stick to the 3-dimensional setting for physical reasons. In any case, the results will generalize equally well to those cases. The operator Q_b with variable differential cross section b is defined by

$$(\varphi, Q_b(f, f)) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{S^2} f(v) f(w) [\varphi(v') - \varphi(v)] b\left(\frac{v-w}{|v-w|} \cdot \sigma\right) d\sigma dv dw \quad (2.3)$$

where again the post-collisional velocity v' is given by

$$v' = \frac{1}{2}(v+w) + \frac{1-e}{4}(v-w) + \frac{1+e}{4}|v-w|\sigma$$

and the cross section b satisfies the normalized cut-off assumption

$$\int_{S^2} b(k \cdot \sigma) d\sigma = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi b(\cos \theta) \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = 1 \quad (2.4)$$

for any k in S^2 .

3. CONTRACTION IN W_2 OF THE GAIN OPERATORS

The plan of this section is to obtain contraction properties in the Euclidean Wasserstein distance W_2 of the gain operators Q^+ and Q_b^+ respectively associated to Q and Q_b . Since it will be important for later discussions to clarify the cases of equality, and in order to divide difficulties in the proof, we start by deriving this contraction estimate in the case of constant differential cross section Q^+ ; then we rather quickly generalize the result to general differential cross sections b with the cut-off assumption (2.4).

3.1. Contraction for Q^+ . Let us write the collision operator Q given in (1.3) as

$$Q(f, f) = Q^+(f, f) - f \quad (3.1)$$

where $Q^+(f, f)$ is defined by

$$(\varphi, Q^+(f, f)) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{S^2} f(v) f(w) \varphi(v') d\sigma dv dw \quad (3.2)$$

for any test function φ , where we recall that

$$v' = \frac{1}{2}(v + w) + \frac{1 - e}{4}(v - w) + \frac{1 + e}{4}|v - w|\sigma.$$

In this section we derive a contraction property in W_2 distance of the gain operator Q^+ . For that purpose, let us note that the previous definition of the gain operator can be regarded as follows: given a probability measure f on \mathbb{R}^3 , the probability measure $Q^+(f, f)$ is defined by

$$(\varphi, Q^+(f, f)) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} f(v) f(w) (\varphi, \Pi_{v,w}) dv dw$$

where $\Pi_{v,w}$ is the uniform probability distribution on the sphere $S_{v,w}$ with center

$$c_{v,w} = \frac{1}{2}(v + w) + \frac{1 - e}{4}(v - w)$$

and radius

$$r_{v,w} = \frac{1 + e}{4}|v - w|.$$

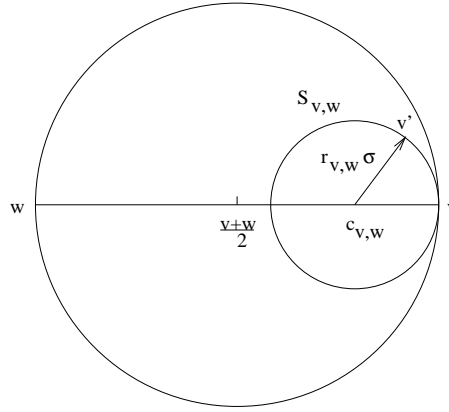


FIGURE 1. Geometry of inelastic collisions

In probabilistic terms, the gain operator is defined as an expectation:

$$Q^+(f, f) = \mathbb{E} [\Pi_{V,W}]$$

where V and W are independent random variables with law f .

Then the convexity of W_2^2 in Proposition 1 implies

$$W_2^2(Q^+(f, f), Q^+(g, g)) = W_2^2(\mathbb{E} [\Pi_{V,W}], \mathbb{E} [\Pi_{X,Y}]) \quad (3.3)$$

$$\leq \mathbb{E} [W_2^2(\Pi_{V,W}, \Pi_{X,Y})] \quad (3.4)$$

where X and Y are independent random variables with law g . This observation leads us to consider the W_2 distance between uniform distributions on spheres. To this aim, we have the following general lemma:

Lemma 4. *The squared Wasserstein distance W_2^2 between the uniform distributions on the sphere with center O and radius r and the sphere with center O' and radius r' in \mathbb{R}^3 is bounded by $|O' - O|^2 + (r' - r)^2$.*

Proof.- We define a map $T : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ transporting the sphere of center O and radius $r > 0$ onto the sphere with center O' and radius $r' \geq r$ in the following way:

- If $r = r'$, then we just let T be the translation map with vector $O' - O$, i.e., $T(v) = v + O' - O$.
- If $O = O'$, then we just let T be the dilation with factor $\frac{r'}{r}$ centered at O , i.e., $T(v) = \frac{r'}{r}v$.
- If $r \neq r'$, then we consider the only point $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}^3$ verifying that

$$\frac{1}{r}(O - \Omega) = \frac{1}{r'}(O' - \Omega),$$

that is,

$$\Omega = O + \frac{r}{r' - r}(O' - O).$$

Then we let T be the dilation with factor $\frac{r'}{r}$ centered at Ω , that is, we let $T(v) = \Omega + \frac{r'}{r}(v - \Omega)$. Such a construction of the point Ω and the map T is sketched in Figure 2 in the case of non interior spheres.

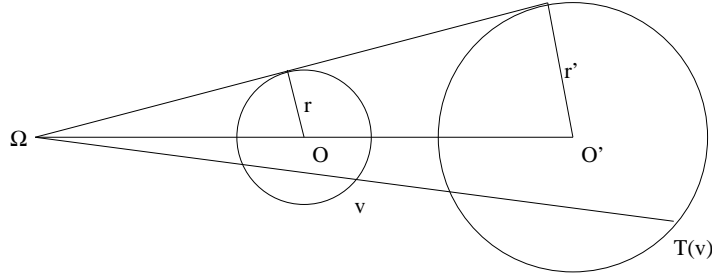


FIGURE 2. Sketch of the computation of the Euclidean cost of transporting spheres to spheres. Transport lines are just rays from the point Ω .

Let $\mathcal{U}_{O,r}$ and $\mathcal{U}_{O',r'}$ denote the uniform distributions on the corresponding spheres. Then the transport plan π given by

$$\iint_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} \eta(v, w) d\pi(v, w) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \eta(v, T(v)) d\mathcal{U}_{O,r}(v)$$

for all test functions $\eta(v, w)$ has $\mathcal{U}_{O,r}$ and $\mathcal{U}_{O',r'}$ as marginals by construction of T . Using this transference plan in the definition of the Euclidean Wasserstein distance, we finally conclude

$$W_2^2(\mathcal{U}_{O,r}, \mathcal{U}_{O',r'}) \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v - T(v)|^2 d\mathcal{U}_{O,r}(v) = \left(\frac{r' - r}{r}\right)^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v - \Omega|^2 d\mathcal{U}_{O,r}(v)$$

that can be computed explicitly, giving

$$W_2^2(\mathcal{U}_{O,r}, \mathcal{U}_{O',r'}) \leq |O' - O|^2 + (r' - r)^2$$

and finishing the proof. \square

Remark 5. The map T being the gradient of a convex function, Brenier's Theorem (see [31] for instance) ensures that the transport plan π defined above is optimal in the sense that the squared distance between the two distributions is *equal to* $|O' - O|^2 + (r' - r)^2$.

This lemma, using the notation $a = v - x$ and $b = w - y$, for fixed values v, w, x, y in \mathbb{R}^3 , implies that

$$\begin{aligned} W_2^2(\Pi_{v,w}, \Pi_{x,y}) &\leq |c_{v,w} - c_{x,y}|^2 + |r_{v,w} - r_{x,y}|^2 \\ &\leq \left| \frac{3-e}{4}a + \frac{1+e}{4}b \right|^2 + \left(\frac{1+e}{4} \right)^2 |a-b|^2 \\ &= \frac{5-2e+e^2}{8} |a|^2 + \frac{(1+e)^2}{8} |b|^2 + \frac{1-e^2}{4} a \cdot b; \end{aligned}$$

here $a \cdot b$ denotes the scalar product between a and b in \mathbb{R}^3 and the bound in

$$\begin{aligned} |r_{v,w} - r_{x,y}|^2 &= \left(\frac{1+e}{4} \right)^2 \left| |v-w| - |x-y| \right|^2 \\ &\leq \left(\frac{1+e}{4} \right)^2 |(v-w) - (x-y)|^2 = \left(\frac{1+e}{4} \right)^2 |a-b|^2 \end{aligned}$$

follows from the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$(v-w) \cdot (x-y) \leq |v-w| |x-y|. \quad (3.5)$$

Therefore, by (3.3),

$$\begin{aligned} W_2^2(Q^+(f, f), Q^+(g, g)) &\leq \frac{5-2e+e^2}{8} \mathbb{E} [|V-X|^2] + \frac{(1+e)^2}{8} \mathbb{E} [|W-Y|^2] \\ &\quad + \frac{1-e^2}{4} \mathbb{E} [(V-X) \cdot (W-Y)]. \end{aligned}$$

Let moreover (V, X) and (W, Y) be two independent optimal couples in the sense that

$$W_2^2(f, g) = \mathbb{E} [|V-X|^2] = \mathbb{E} [|W-Y|^2].$$

Then

$$\mathbb{E} [(V-X) \cdot (W-Y)] = \mathbb{E} [(V-X)] \cdot \mathbb{E} [(W-Y)] = |\langle f \rangle - \langle g \rangle|^2$$

by independence. Collecting all terms leads to the following key estimate and contraction property:

Proposition 6. *If f and g belong to $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$, then*

$$W_2^2(Q^+(f, f), Q^+(g, g)) \leq \frac{3+e^2}{4} W_2^2(f, g) + \frac{1-e^2}{4} |\langle f \rangle - \langle g \rangle|^2$$

for any restitution coefficient $0 < e \leq 1$. As a consequence, given f and g in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ with equal mean velocity, then

$$W_2(Q^+(f, f), Q^+(g, g)) \leq \sqrt{\frac{3+e^2}{4}} W_2(f, g).$$

The case of equality is addressed in the following statement:

Proposition 7. *Let f and g belong to $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ with equal mean velocity and temperature, where g is absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure with positive density. If*

$$W_2(Q^+(f, f), Q^+(g, g)) = \sqrt{\frac{3+e^2}{4}} W_2(f, g).$$

for some restitution coefficient $0 < e \leq 1$, then $f = g$.

Proof.- It is necessary that the equality holds at each step of the arguments in Proposition 6. In particular, (3.5) holds as an equality, that is,

$$\frac{V - W}{|V - W|} = \frac{X - Y}{|X - Y|}$$

almost surely in the above notation. Then, since g is absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure with positive density, one can proceed as in [29, Lemma 9.1] to show that $f = g$. We sketch the proof for the sake of the reader. Since g is absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure, there exists [31] a Borel map $u : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ such that f be the image measure of g by u , and in probabilistic terms $V = u(X)$ and $W = u(Y)$ almost surely. Hence

$$\frac{u(x) - u(y)}{|u(x) - u(y)|} = \frac{x - y}{|x - y|} \quad (3.6)$$

almost everywhere for Lebesgue measure since X and Y are independent and since their law g has positive density. We leave the reader to check [31, Exercise 7.25] that this implies the existence of constants ω_1 and ω_2 such that $u(x) = \omega_1 + \omega_2 x$. First of all $\omega_2^2 = 1$ since f and g have same temperature. Then identity (3.6) forces $\omega_2 = 1$, implying $\omega_1 = 0$ since $\langle f \rangle = \langle g \rangle$, and finally $f = g$. \square

3.2. Contraction for Q_b^+ . In this subsection, we consider the more general case of the operator Q_b defined in its weak form in (2.3). We define the gain term Q_b^+ by

$$(\varphi, Q_b^+(f, f)) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{S^2} f(v) f(w) \varphi(v') b\left(\frac{v-w}{|v-w|} \cdot \sigma\right) d\sigma dv dw \quad (3.7)$$

so that again $Q_b(f, f) = Q_b^+(f, f) - f$. We shall prove the following extension of Proposition 6 for non constant cross sections b .

Theorem 8. *If f and g in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ have equal mean velocity, then*

$$W_2^2(Q_b^+(f, f), Q_b^+(g, g)) \leq \left(\frac{3+e^2}{4} + \frac{1-e^2}{2} \pi \int_0^\pi b(\cos \theta) \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta \right) W_2^2(f, g).$$

In the elastic case when $e = 1$, one recovers Tanaka's non-strict contraction result [29] for the solutions to the homogeneous elastic Boltzmann equation for Maxwellian molecules, at least under the cut-off assumption, but with a somehow simpler argument than those given in [29, 31].

Proof.- By definition

$$\begin{aligned} (\varphi, Q_b^+(f, f)) &= 2\pi \int_0^\pi \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \left\{ \int_0^{2\pi} \varphi(v') \frac{d\phi}{2\pi} \right\} f(v) f(w) dv dw b(\cos \theta) \sin \theta d\theta \\ &= 2\pi \int_0^\pi \mathbb{E} [(\varphi, \mathcal{U}_{V,W,\theta})] b(\cos \theta) \sin \theta d\theta \end{aligned}$$

where V and W are independent random variables distributed according to f and, given v, w in \mathbb{R}^3 , $\mathcal{U}_{v,w,\theta}$ is the uniform probability measure on the circle $C_{v,w,\theta}$ with center

$$c_{v,w,\theta} = \frac{1}{2}(v+w) + \left(\frac{1-e}{4} + \frac{1+e}{4} \cos \theta \right) (v-w),$$

radius

$$r_{v,w,\theta} = \frac{1+e}{4} |v-w| \sin \theta$$

and axis

$$k = \frac{v-w}{|v-w|}.$$

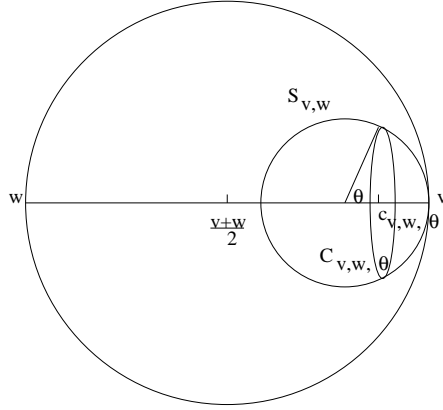


FIGURE 3. Definition of circles to be transported

Let also g be a Borel probability measure on \mathbb{R}^3 and X, Y be independent random variables with law g . Then, by the normalization assumption (2.4), the convexity of the squared Wasserstein distance with respect to both arguments ensures that

$$W_2^2(Q^+(f, f), Q^+(g, g)) \leq 2\pi \int_0^\pi \mathbb{E} [W_2^2(\mathcal{U}_{V,W,\theta}, \mathcal{U}_{X,Y,\theta})] b(\cos \theta) \sin \theta d\theta. \quad (3.8)$$

We now let v, w, x, y and θ be fixed in \mathbb{R}^3 and $[0, \pi]$ respectively, and give an upper bound to $W_2^2(\mathcal{U}_{v,w,\theta}, \mathcal{U}_{x,y,\theta})$. This consists in estimating the transport cost of a circle in \mathbb{R}^3 onto another one, for which we have the following general bound:

Lemma 9. [31] *The squared Wasserstein distance between the uniform distributions on the circles with centers c and c' , radii r and r' and axes k and k' is bounded by*

$$|c - c'|^2 + r^2 + r'^2 - rr'(1 + |k \cdot k'|).$$

Hence, using the notations $a = v - x$, $b = w - y$, $\tilde{a} = v - w$ and $\tilde{b} = x - y$ in our case we get

$$\begin{aligned} W_2^2(\mathcal{U}_{v,w,\theta}, \mathcal{U}_{x,y,\theta}) &\leq \left| \left(\frac{3-e}{4} + \frac{1+e}{4} \cos \theta \right) a + \frac{1+e}{4} (1 - \cos \theta) b \right|^2 \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{1+e}{4} \right)^2 \sin^2 \theta \left[|\tilde{a}|^2 + |\tilde{b}|^2 - |\tilde{a}||\tilde{b}| \left(1 + \frac{\tilde{a}}{|\tilde{a}|} \cdot \frac{\tilde{b}}{|\tilde{b}|} \right) \right] \\ &\leq \left[\left(\frac{3-e}{4} + \frac{1+e}{4} \cos \theta \right)^2 + \left(\frac{1+e}{4} \right)^2 \sin^2 \theta \right] |a|^2 \\ &\quad + 2 \left(\frac{1+e}{4} \right)^2 \left[\left(\frac{3-e}{1+e} + \cos \theta \right) (1 - \cos \theta) - \sin^2 \theta \right] a \cdot b \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{1+e}{4} \right)^2 [(1 - \cos \theta)^2 + \sin^2 \theta] |b|^2 \end{aligned} \tag{3.9}$$

where we have used the bound

$$|\tilde{a}|^2 + |\tilde{b}|^2 - |\tilde{a}||\tilde{b}| - \tilde{a} \cdot \tilde{b} \leq |\tilde{a}|^2 + |\tilde{b}|^2 - 2\tilde{a} \cdot \tilde{b} = |\tilde{a} - \tilde{b}|^2 = |a - b|^2.$$

Assume now that (V, X) and (W, Y) are two independent couples of random variables, optimal in the sense that

$$W_2^2(f, g) = \mathbb{E} [|V - X|^2] = \mathbb{E} [|W - Y|^2].$$

Note that

$$\mathbb{E} [(V - X) \cdot (W - Y)] = \mathbb{E} [V - X] \cdot \mathbb{E} [W - Y] = 0$$

since (V, X) and (W, Y) are independent and since f and g have same mean velocity. Then from (3.9):

$$\mathbb{E} [W_2^2(\mathcal{U}_{V,W,\theta}, \mathcal{U}_{X,Y,\theta})] \leq \gamma(\theta) W_2^2(f, g)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(\theta) &= \left(\frac{3-e}{4} + \frac{1+e}{4} \cos \theta \right)^2 + \left(\frac{1+e}{4} \right)^2 [(1 - \cos \theta)^2 + 2 \sin^2 \theta] \\ &= \frac{3+e^2}{4} + \frac{1-e^2}{4} \cos \theta. \end{aligned}$$

One concludes after averaging over θ as in (3.8). \square

4. CONTRACTIVE ESTIMATES FOR INELASTIC MAXWELL MODELS

In this section, we shall derive contractive estimates in the Euclidean Wasserstein distance for solutions to the inelastic Maxwell models both in the non-diffusive and the diffusive cases and with constant and variable differential cross sections.

4.1. The non-diffusive case I: Original Variables. We are first concerned with solutions $f(t)$ to the Boltzmann equation (1.1) with $0 < e < 1$. After time scaling defined by

$$\tau = \frac{B}{E} \int_0^t \sqrt{\theta(f(w))} dw$$

with $E = \frac{8}{1-e^2}$, as in [2], we get a function denoted again $f(\tau)$ for simplicity, solution to

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \tau} = E Q(f, f). \quad (4.1)$$

Theorem 10. *If f_1 and f_2 are two solutions to (4.1) with respective initial data f_1^0 and f_2^0 in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$, then*

$$W_2^2(f_1(\tau), f_2(\tau)) \leq e^{-2\tau} W_2^2(f_1^0, f_2^0) + (1 - e^{-2\tau}) \left| \langle f_1^0 \rangle - \langle f_2^0 \rangle \right|^2 \quad (4.2)$$

for all $\tau \geq 0$.

Proof.- Decomposition (3.1) of the collision operator Q as

$$Q(f, f) = Q^+(f, f) - f$$

allows us to represent the solutions to (4.1) by Duhamel's formula as

$$f_i(\tau) = e^{-E\tau} f_i^0 + E \int_0^\tau e^{-E(\tau-s)} Q^+(f_i(s), f_i(s)) ds, \quad i = 1, 2.$$

Then the convexity of the squared Wasserstein distance in Proposition 1 and Proposition 6 imply

$$\begin{aligned} & W_2^2(f_1(\tau), f_2(\tau)) \\ & \leq e^{-E\tau} W_2^2(f_1^0, f_2^0) + E \int_0^\tau e^{-E(\tau-s)} W_2^2(Q^+(f_1(s), f_1(s)), Q^+(f_2(s), f_2(s))) ds \\ & \leq e^{-E\tau} W_2^2(f_1^0, f_2^0) + E \int_0^\tau e^{-E(\tau-s)} \left(\frac{3+e^2}{4} W_2^2(f_1(s), f_2(s)) + X \right) ds; \end{aligned}$$

here

$$X = \frac{1-e^2}{4} \left| \langle f_1(s) \rangle - \langle f_2(s) \rangle \right|^2$$

does not depend on time since the mean velocity is preserved by equation (4.1). In other words, the function $y(\tau) = e^{E\tau} W_2^2(f_1(\tau), f_2(\tau))$ satisfies the inequality

$$y(\tau) \leq y(0) + E \int_0^\tau \left(\frac{3+e^2}{4} y(s) + X e^{Es} \right) ds$$

and then

$$y(\tau) \leq y(0) e^{\gamma E \tau} + \frac{X}{1-\gamma} (e^{E\tau} - e^{\gamma E \tau})$$

by Gronwall's lemma with $\gamma = (3+e^2)/4$. This concludes the argument since $(1-\gamma)E = 2$. \square

Remark 11.

- (1) Without further assumptions on the initial data f_1^0 and f_2^0 , this result is optimal in the following sense. If f_2^0 is chosen as the Dirac mass at the mean velocity of f_1^0 , then inequality (4.2) is actually an equality for all τ ; indeed

$$\begin{aligned} W_2^2(f_1(\tau), f_2(\tau)) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v - \langle f_1(\tau) \rangle|^2 f_1(\tau, v) dv = 3\theta(f_1(\tau)) \\ &= 3e^{-2\tau} \theta(f_1^0) = e^{-2\tau} W_2^2(f_1^0, f_2^0) \end{aligned}$$

since $\frac{d\theta}{d\tau} = -2\theta$ by equation (4.1).

- (2) In terms of the original time variable t in (1.1), if f_1^0 and f_2^0 are two initial data with the same initial temperature θ_0 , then the temperatures of the corresponding solutions f^1 and f^2 to (1.1) follow the law

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = -\frac{1-e^2}{4} B\theta^{\frac{3}{2}} \quad (4.3)$$

and hence are both equal to

$$\theta(t) = \left(\theta_0^{-1/2} + \frac{1-e^2}{8} Bt \right)^{-2}.$$

Then estimate (4.2) reads as

$$W_2^2(f_1(t), f_2(t)) \leq \frac{\theta(t)}{\theta_0} W_2^2(f_1^0, f_2^0) + \left(1 - \frac{\theta(t)}{\theta_0} \right) |\langle f_1^0 \rangle - \langle f_2^0 \rangle|^2$$

for all $t \geq 0$, and in the particular case of equal mean velocity we can write it as

$$W_2^2(f_1(t), f_2(t)) \leq \frac{\theta(t)}{\theta_0} W_2^2(f_1^0, f_2^0) \quad (4.4)$$

that gives the typical decay towards the delta distribution of all solutions.

4.2. The non-diffusive case II: Self-Similar Variables. The convergence of the solutions to (1.1) towards the Dirac measure at their mean velocity [5] has been made much more precise in [10, 2] by the introduction of self-similar variables and homogeneous cooling states. There the authors prove that the rescaled solutions g defined by

$$g(\tau, v) = \theta^{3/2}(f(\tau)) f(\tau, \theta^{1/2}(f(\tau)) v) \quad (4.5)$$

satisfy the strict contraction property

$$d_{2+\varepsilon}(g_1(\tau), g_2(\tau)) \leq e^{-C(\varepsilon)\tau} d_{2+\varepsilon}(g_1^0, g_2^0), \quad C(\varepsilon) > 0$$

for initial data g_1^0 and g_2^0 in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ with equal mean velocity and pressure tensor, where $\varepsilon > 0$ and $d_{2+\varepsilon}$ is a Fourier-based distance between probability measures. Moreover, for $\varepsilon = 0$ one has $C(\varepsilon) = 0$ giving a non-strict contraction in d_2 distance. In fact, by the scaling property in Proposition 1, (4.2) reads as

$$W_2(g_1(\tau), g_2(\tau)) \leq W_2(g_1^0, g_2^0) \quad (4.6)$$

in the scaled variables. This is consistent with the fact that the distances d_2 and W_2^2 are “of the same order” [21, 30, 2] up to moment bounds. In itself this non-strict contraction does not give any information about the convergence towards typical cooling profiles of the system.

A measure $g(\tau, v)$ defined by (4.5) from a solution $f(v, \tau)$ to (4.1) with initial zero mean velocity has zero mean velocity and unit kinetic energy for all τ , and is solution to

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial \tau} + \nabla \cdot (g v) = E Q(g, g). \quad (4.7)$$

Moreover, it is proven in [10, 2] that (4.7) has a unique stationary solution g_∞ with zero mean velocity and unit kinetic energy; all measure solutions $g(\tau, v)$ to (4.7) with zero mean velocity, unit kinetic energy and bounded moment of order $2 + \varepsilon$ converge to this stationary state g_∞ as τ goes to infinity in the d_2 sense, that is, in the W_2 sense since d_2 and W_2 metrize the same topology on probability measures [30] up to moment conditions. Moreover, the convergence has exponential rate in the d_2 sense, and in the W_2 sense if the initial datum has finite fourth order moment as proven in [2].

In turn, this ensures existence and uniqueness of homogeneous cooling states to (1.1) for zero mean velocity and given kinetic energy, by going back to original variables, i.e.,

$$f_{hc}(v, t) = \theta^{-\frac{3}{2}}(t) g_\infty(v \theta^{-\frac{1}{2}}(t))$$

with $\theta(t)$ any solution to the temperature equation (2.1). Moreover, an algebraic convergence of the solutions $f(t)$ with the same initial kinetic energy towards them in the original variables is obtained in [10, 2].

We conclude this section by proving this convergence result using only the W_2 distance, and moreover for initial data which have bounded moments of order 2 only and not $2 + \varepsilon$ as above. This in turn shows that the Euclidean Wasserstein distance W_2 between solutions of (4.7) converges to zero as t goes to infinity, improving over (4.6) that does not *a priori* yield any information on the long-time behavior of the solutions g . As a trade of not assuming more than moments of order two, this argument does not provide any rate of convergence as does the Fourier-based argument in [10, 2].

Theorem 12. *Let g_1^0 and g_2^0 be two Borel probability measures on \mathbb{R}^3 with zero mean velocity and unit kinetic energy, and let $g_1(\tau)$ and $g_2(\tau)$ be the solutions to (4.7) with respective initial data g_1^0 and g_2^0 . Then the map $\tau \mapsto W_2(g_1(\tau), g_2(\tau))$ is non-increasing and tends to 0 as τ goes to infinity.*

By taking as one solution, in this theorem, the homogeneous cooling state in scaled variables, i.e., the stationary solution g_∞ of (4.7), we improve over the stability part of the Ernst-Brito conjecture shown in [10] and re-addressed in [2].

In terms of the original variables, the scaling properties of W_2 given in Proposition 1 and the convergence result

$$\lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} W_2(g(\tau), g_\infty) = 0$$

have the following direct consequence, which improves over the decay towards the Dirac mass estimate given in (2.2) and (4.4).

Corollary 13. *Let $f^0 \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ with zero mean velocity and let $f(t)$ be the solution to (1.1) with initial datum f^0 , then*

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \theta(f(t))^{-1/2} W_2(f(t), f_{hc}(t)) = 0$$

where the homogeneous cooling state f_{hc} is given by

$$f_{hc}(t) = \theta^{-\frac{3}{2}}(f(t)) g_\infty(v \theta^{-\frac{1}{2}}(f(t))).$$

Proof of Theorem 12.- It is based on the argument in [31] to Tanaka's theorem. The first statement is a simple consequence of (4.6). Then we turn to the second part of the theorem which by triangular inequality for the W_2 distance is enough to prove when g_2^0 , and hence $g_2(\tau)$, is the unique stationary state g_∞ to (4.7) with zero mean velocity and unit kinetic energy.

Step 1.- Let us first assume that the fourth moment of the initial datum is bounded, i.e.,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 g_1^0(v) dv < \infty.$$

The second step will be devoted to avoid this assumption. Then Proposition 19 in the appendix ensures that

$$\sup_{\tau \geq 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 g_1(\tau, v) dv < \infty,$$

so that

$$\sup_{\tau \geq 0} \int_{|v| > R} |v|^2 g_1(\tau, v) dv$$

tends to 0 as R goes to infinity. Prohorov's compactness theorem and Proposition 1 imply the existence of a sequence $\tau_k \rightarrow \infty$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$ and a probability measure μ^0 on \mathbb{R}^3 with zero mean velocity and unit kinetic energy such that $W_2(g_1(\tau_k), \mu^0) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. We want to prove that $\mu^0 = g_\infty$.

Without loss of generality, we can assume that the diverging time sequence satisfies $\tau_k + 1 \leq \tau_{k+1}$ for all k . Now, since g_∞ is a stationary solution, it follows from the first part of the theorem that

$$W_2(g_1(\tau_{k+1}), g_\infty) \leq W_2(g_1(\tau_k + 1), g_\infty) \leq W_2(g_1(\tau_k), g_\infty). \quad (4.8)$$

On one hand, both $W_2(g_1(\tau_k), g_\infty)$ and $W_2(g_1(\tau_{k+1}), g_\infty)$ tend to $W_2(\mu^0, g_\infty)$ as k goes to infinity by triangular inequality. Then, if $\mu(\tau)$ denotes the solution to (4.7) with initial datum μ^0 , the first point again ensures that

$$W_2(g_1(\tau_k + 1), \mu(1)) \leq W_2(g_1(\tau_k), \mu^0)$$

which tends to 0. Hence $W_2(g_1(\tau_k + 1), g_\infty)$ tends to $W_2(\mu(1), g_\infty)$ by triangular inequality, and finally

$$W_2(\mu(1), g_\infty) = W_2(\mu^0, g_\infty)$$

by passing to the limit in k in (4.8). By the non-increasing character of W_2 along the flow, we deduce that

$$W_2(\mu(1), g_\infty) = W_2(\mu(\tau), g_\infty) = W_2(\mu^0, g_\infty)$$

for all $\tau \in [0, 1]$.

Consequently $\mu(\tau)$ and g_∞ are two solutions to (4.7) with zero mean velocity and unit temperature, whose W_2 distance is constant on the time interval $[0, 1]$. This is possible only if equality holds at each step in the proof of Theorem 10 in the original space variables; in particular

$$W_2(Q^+(\mu(\tau), \mu(\tau)), Q^+(g_\infty, g_\infty)) = \sqrt{\frac{3 + e^2}{4}} W_2(\mu(\tau), g_\infty)$$

for all τ , and especially for $\tau = 0$. But μ^0 and g_∞ have same mean velocity and temperature, and, according to [7, Theorem 5.3], g_∞ is absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure, with positive density. Hence Proposition 7 ensures that $\mu^0 = g_\infty$.

In particular $W_2(g_1(\tau_k), g_\infty) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, and then $W_2(g_1(\tau), g_\infty) \rightarrow 0$ as $\tau \rightarrow \infty$ since it is a non increasing function.

Step 2.- Let us now remove the hypothesis on the boundedness of the initial fourth order moment. Let $(g^{0n})_n$ be a sequence in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ with zero mean velocity, unit kinetic energy, finite fourth order moment and converging to g_1^0 in the weak sense of probability measures; in particular it converges to g_1^0 in the W_2 distance sense by Proposition 1. Such a g^{0n} can be obtained by successive truncation of g_1^0 to a ball of radius n in \mathbb{R}^3 , translation to keep the mean property, and dilation centered at 0 to keep the kinetic energy equal to 1.

Then, if $g^n(\tau)$ is the solution to (4.7) with initial datum g^{0n} , the triangular inequality for W_2 and (4.6) ensure that

$$\begin{aligned} W_2(g_1(\tau), g_\infty) &\leq W_2(g_1(\tau), g^n(\tau)) + W_2(g^n(\tau), g_\infty) \\ &\leq W_2(g_1^0, g^{0n}) + W_2(g^n(\tau), g_\infty). \end{aligned}$$

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, the first term in the right hand side is bounded by ε for some n large enough, and for this now fixed n , the second term is bounded by ε for all τ larger than some constant by the first step. This ensures that $W_2(g_1(\tau), g_\infty)$ tends to 0 as τ goes to infinity. \square

Let us finally point out that a natural question related to the fact that equation (4.7) is a strict contraction with respect to $d_{2+\varepsilon}$ is whether a Wasserstein distance with larger index, for instance W_4 , could be strictly contractive for (4.7). Of course, a similar scheme as above can be performed to verify it, but there is one term we cannot control in the transport of spheres argument and we cannot conclude. It is an open problem to prove or disprove this claim, even for a non-strict contraction in the elastic case.

4.3. The diffusive case. We now turn to the diffusive version (1.3) of (1.1). Again by the change of time

$$\tau = \frac{B}{E} \int_0^t \sqrt{\theta(f(w))} dw$$

with $E = \frac{8}{1-e^2}$ we are brought to studying the equation

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \tau} = E Q(f, f) + \Theta^2(f(\tau)) \Delta_v f \quad (4.9)$$

where

$$\Theta^2(f(\tau)) = \frac{EA}{B} [\theta(f(\tau))]^{p-1/2}.$$

As in the nonviscous case of (4.1) we shall prove

Theorem 14. *If f_1 and f_2 are two solutions to (4.9) for the respective initial data f_1^0 and f_2^0 in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ with same kinetic energy, then*

$$W_2^2(f_1(\tau), f_2(\tau)) \leq e^{-2\tau} W_2^2(f_1^0, f_2^0) + (1 - e^{-2\tau}) |\langle f_1^0 \rangle - \langle f_2^0 \rangle|^2 \quad (4.10)$$

for all $\tau \geq 0$.

Proof.- We again start by giving a Duhamel's representation of the solutions. To this aim we write (4.9) as

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \tau} = E F - E f + \Theta^2(f(\tau)) \Delta_v f$$

where $F = Q^+(f, f)$, that is,

$$\frac{\partial \hat{f}}{\partial \tau} + (E + |k|^2 \Theta^2(f(\tau))) \hat{f} = E \hat{F}.$$

Here, we are using the convention

$$\hat{\mu}(k) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} e^{-ik \cdot x} d\mu(x)$$

for the Fourier transform of the measure μ on \mathbb{R}^3 . Hence the solutions satisfy

$$\hat{f}(\tau, k) = e^{-E\tau} \hat{f}^0(k) e^{-\Sigma(f, \tau) |k|^2} + E \int_0^\tau e^{-E(\tau-s)} \hat{F}(s, k) e^{-(\Sigma(f, \tau) - \Sigma(f, s)) |k|^2} ds$$

where $\Sigma(f, \tau) = \int_0^\tau \Theta^2(f(s)) ds$, and thus

$$\begin{aligned} f(\tau, v) &= e^{-E\tau} (f^0 * \Gamma_{2\Sigma(f, \tau)})(v) + E \int_0^\tau e^{-E(\tau-s)} (F(s) * \Gamma_{2(\Sigma(f, \tau) - \Sigma(f, s))})(v) ds \\ &:= e^{-E\tau} \tilde{f}(\tau, v) + E \int_0^\tau e^{-E(\tau-s)} \tilde{F}(\tau, s, v) ds. \end{aligned}$$

Here

$$\Gamma_\alpha(v) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\alpha)^{3/2}} e^{-|v|^2/2\alpha}$$

is the centered Maxwellian with temperature $\alpha/3 > 0$. Moreover f_1 and f_2 have same temperature at all times, so that $\Sigma(f_1, \tau) = \Sigma(f_2, \tau)$. Then the convexity of the squared Wasserstein distance and its non-increasing character by convolution with a given measure, see Proposition 1, imply that

$$\begin{aligned} W_2^2(f_1(\tau), f_2(\tau)) &\leq e^{-E\tau} W_2^2(\tilde{f}_1(\tau), \tilde{f}_2(\tau)) + E \int_0^\tau e^{-E(\tau-s)} W_2^2(\tilde{F}_1(\tau, s), \tilde{F}_2(\tau, s)) ds \\ &\leq e^{-E\tau} W_2^2(f_1^0, f_2^0) + E \int_0^\tau e^{-E(\tau-s)} W_2^2(F_1(s), F_2(s)) ds. \end{aligned}$$

In other words the squared distance $W_2^2(f_1(\tau), f_2(\tau))$ satisfies the same bound as in the nonviscous case of Theorem 10, and we can conclude analogously. \square

Remark 15.

- (1) As pointed out to us by C. Villani the result can also be obtained by a splitting argument between the collision term and the diffusion term.
- (2) As proven in [1], the temperature $\theta(f(t))$ of the solution f in the original time variable t converges towards

$$\theta_\infty = \left(\frac{8A}{B(1-e^2)} \right)^{\frac{2}{3-2p}}$$

as t goes to infinity, and satisfies $\theta(f(t)) \geq \min(\theta(f(0)), \theta_\infty)$. In particular

$$\tau = \frac{B}{E} \int_0^t \sqrt{\theta(f(s))} ds \geq \frac{C_1}{E} t$$

if $C_1 = B \min(\theta(f(0)), \theta_\infty)^{1/2}$. Writing (4.10) in the original variable t for initial data with equal mean velocity and temperature, we recover the contraction property

$$W_2(f_1(t), f_2(t)) \leq W_2(f_1^0, f_2^0) e^{-(1-\gamma)C_1 t},$$

that coincides with (3.1) in [1] for the Fourier-based d_2 distance exactly with the same rate. For $p = 1$ one can exactly compute τ and also recover (3.2) in [1] but for the distance W_2 .

- (3) The existence of unique diffusive equilibria for each given value of the initial mean velocity can be obtained from this contraction property of the W_2 distance analogously to the arguments done in [1] with the Fourier-based distance d_2 .

4.4. General cross section. Let $f_1 = f_1(\tau, v)$ and $f_2 = f_2(\tau, v)$ be two solutions to the Boltzmann equation

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \tau} = Q_b(f, f) = Q_b^+(f, f) - f$$

with respective initial data f_1^0 and f_2^0 in $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$, where Q_b^+ is defined in (3.7). Then, as in Subsection 4.1, Duhamel's representation formula

$$f(\tau) = e^{-\tau} f^0 + \int_0^\tau e^{-(\tau-s)} Q^+(f(s), f(s)) ds$$

of the solutions and the convexity of W_2^2 ensure the contraction property

$$W_2(f_1(\tau), f_2(\tau)) \leq e^{-(1-\gamma_b)\tau/2} W_2(f_1^0, f_2^0) \quad (4.11)$$

for all τ , where

$$\gamma_b = \frac{3+e^2}{4} + \frac{1-e^2}{2} \pi \int_0^\pi b(\cos \theta) \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta$$

is bounded by 1 by (2.4).

5. INELASTIC KAC MODEL

In this last section we consider a simple one-dimensional model introduced in [27] which can be seen as a dissipative version of the Kac caricature of a Maxwellian gas [22, 24]. Let us remark that the definition and properties of the Euclidean Wasserstein distance W_2 discussed above generalize equally well to any dimension. Tanaka himself [28] showed that the Euclidean Wasserstein distance is a non strict contraction for the elastic classical Kac model. In the inelastic Kac model, the evolution of the density function f is governed by the equation

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = Q(f, f) \quad (5.1)$$

in which the collision term $Q(f, f)$ is defined by

$$(\varphi, Q(f, f)) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_0^{2\pi} f(v)f(w) \left[\varphi(v') - \varphi(v) \right] \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} dv dw$$

for any test function φ , where

$$v' = v \cos \theta |\cos \theta|^p - w \sin \theta |\sin \theta|^p$$

is the postcollisional velocity and $p > 0$ measures the inelasticity. Equation (5.1) preserves mass but makes the momentum and kinetic energy decrease to 0 at an exponential rate, $\theta(f(t)) = e^{-2\beta t} \theta(f^0) + (e^{-2\beta t} - e^{-2t}) \langle f^0 \rangle$ with $\beta > 0$ given below. In particular, solutions to (5.1) tend to the Dirac mass at 0. The asymptotic behavior of the inelastic Kac model was analyzed in [27] by means of Fourier-based distances in interesting cases where the initial data has infinite kinetic energy, i.e., for Fourier distances d_s with index $1 < s < 2$. The existence of self-similar solutions with only moments of order 1 is obtained, characterizing long time asymptotics of the scaled solutions for solutions with certain number of moments bounded. Here, we show that for finite kinetic energy solutions the

distance W_2 verifies a strict contraction property. This property may be used in particular cases of the Kac equation with self-similar solutions of finite kinetic energy to discuss its stability in the spirit of Theorem 12.

As in the inelastic Maxwell model discussed above, we start by deriving a contraction property for the gain operator Q^+ defined by

$$(\varphi, Q^+(f, f)) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_0^{2\pi} f(v)f(w) \varphi(v') \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} dv dw.$$

Proposition 16. *If f and g belong to $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R})$, then*

$$W_2^2(Q^+(f, f), Q^+(g, g)) \leq \left[\int_0^{2\pi} (|\cos \theta|^{2(p+1)} + |\sin \theta|^{2(p+1)}) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \right] W_2^2(f, g).$$

In terms of solutions $f(t)$ and $g(t)$ to the modified Kac equation (5.1) with finite initial energy only, the above proposition yields, as in previous sections, the bound

$$W_2(f(t), g(t)) \leq e^{-\beta t} W_2(f^0, g^0)$$

where

$$2\beta = 1 - \int_0^{2\pi} (|\cos \theta|^{2(p+1)} + |\sin \theta|^{2(p+1)}) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} > 0.$$

This bound is optimal without further assumptions on the initial data f^0 and g^0 since equality holds in the case when $\langle f^0 \rangle = 0$ and $g^0 = \delta_0$ analogously to previous cases.

Proof.- Given a vector (v, w) in \mathbb{R}^2 , let $\mathcal{C}_{v,w}$ denote the curve

$$\{(v'(\theta), w'(\theta)), \theta \in [0, 2\pi]\}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} v'(\theta) &= v \cos \theta |\cos \theta|^p - w \sin \theta |\sin \theta|^p \\ w'(\theta) &= v \sin \theta |\sin \theta|^p + w \cos \theta |\cos \theta|^p. \end{aligned} \tag{5.2}$$

Let also $\mathcal{U}_{v,w}$ be the uniform probability distribution on $\mathcal{C}_{v,w}$.

Given V and W two independent random variables distributed according to f , we note that $Q^+(f, f)$ is the first marginal on \mathbb{R} of $\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{U}_{V,W}]$, but also its second marginal by symmetry. Then, we have the following result, which is the analogous of Lemmas 4 and 9 for this model:

Lemma 17. *Given two vectors (v, w) and (x, y) in \mathbb{R}^2 , the squared Wasserstein distance between the distributions $\mathcal{U}_{v,w}$ and $\mathcal{U}_{x,y}$ is bounded by*

$$(1 - 2\beta) (|v - x|^2 + |w - y|^2).$$

Proof.- One can transport the curve $\mathcal{C}_{v,w}$ onto $\mathcal{C}_{x,y}$ by the linear map

$$(a, b) \mapsto T(a, b) = \frac{r'}{r} (a \cos \omega - b \sin \omega, a \sin \omega + b \cos \omega)$$

where $r = \sqrt{v^2 + w^2}$, $r' = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and ω is the angle between the vectors (v, w) and (x, y) in case they do not vanish. We leave the reader discuss the case when either (x, y)

or (v, w) are zero. Then, analogously to the proof of Lemma 4, one can define a transport plan associated to the transport map T to get

$$W_2^2(\mathcal{U}_{v,w}, \mathcal{U}_{x,y}) \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} |T(a, b) - (a, b)|^2 d\mathcal{U}_{v,w}(a, b).$$

Furthermore, for all (a, b) in \mathbb{R}^2 ,

$$\begin{aligned} |T(a, b) - (a, b)|^2 &= \left| \frac{r'}{r}(a \cos \omega - b \sin \omega) - a \right|^2 + \left| \frac{r'}{r}(a \sin \omega + b \cos \omega) - b \right|^2 \\ &= \left(\left(\frac{r'}{r} \right)^2 - 2 \frac{r'}{r} \cos \omega + 1 \right) (a^2 + b^2) \\ &= \frac{|v-x|^2 + |w-y|^2}{v^2 + w^2} (a^2 + b^2). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we deduce

$$\begin{aligned} W_2^2(\mathcal{U}_{v,w}, \mathcal{U}_{x,y}) &\leq \frac{|v-x|^2 + |w-y|^2}{v^2 + w^2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} (a^2 + b^2) d\mathcal{U}_{v,w}(a, b) \\ &= \frac{|v-x|^2 + |w-y|^2}{v^2 + w^2} \int_0^{2\pi} (v'(\theta)^2 + w'(\theta)^2) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi}. \end{aligned}$$

But

$$v'(\theta)^2 + w'(\theta)^2 = (|\cos \theta|^{2(p+1)} + |\sin \theta|^{2(p+1)})(v^2 + w^2)$$

by (5.2), so that

$$W_2^2(\mathcal{U}_{v,w}, \mathcal{U}_{x,y}) \leq \left[\int_0^{2\pi} (|\cos \theta|^{2(p+1)} + |\sin \theta|^{2(p+1)}) \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \right] (|v-x|^2 + |w-y|^2)$$

which is the bound given by the lemma. \square

We now continue the *proof of Proposition 16*. First of all, let (V, X) and (W, Y) be two independent couples of random variables, with V and X distributed according to f , W and Y according to g , optimal in the sense that

$$W_2^2(f, g) = \mathbb{E}[|V - W|^2] = \mathbb{E}[|X - Y|^2].$$

Then, by convexity of the squared Wasserstein distance again, it follows from Lemma 17 that

$$\begin{aligned} W_2^2(\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{U}_{V,W}], \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{U}_{X,Y}]) &\leq \mathbb{E}[W_2^2(\mathcal{U}_{V,W}, \mathcal{U}_{X,Y})] \\ &\leq (1 - 2\beta)(\mathbb{E}[|V - W|^2] + \mathbb{E}[|X - Y|^2]) \\ &= 2(1 - 2\beta) W_2^2(f, g). \end{aligned} \tag{5.3}$$

Next, we remark that the measure $\mathcal{U}_{V,W}$ on \mathbb{R}^2 has first **and** second marginals equal by symmetry of the curve $\mathcal{C}_{V,W}$ by a $\pi/2$ rotation. This implies that the first and second marginals of $\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{U}_{V,W}]$ on \mathbb{R}^2 are equal to $Q^+(f, f)$, and likewise for the measure $\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{U}_{X,Y}]$ with marginals $Q^+(g, g)$. We shall conclude the argument of Proposition 16 by using the following general result:

Lemma 18. *If the Borel probability measures μ_j^i on \mathbb{R} are the successive one-dimensional marginals of the measure μ^i on \mathbb{R}^N , for $i = 1, 2$ and $j = 1, \dots, N$, then*

$$\sum_{j=1}^N W_2^2(\mu_j^1, \mu_j^2) \leq W_2^2(\mu^1, \mu^2).$$

Proof.- Let π be any joint measure on $\mathbb{R}_v^N \times \mathbb{R}_w^N$ with marginals μ^1 and μ^2 . Then its marginal π_j on $\mathbb{R}_{v_j} \times \mathbb{R}_{w_j}$ has itself marginals μ_j^1 and μ_j^2 , so

$$W_2^2(\mu_j^1, \mu_j^2) \leq \iint_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} |v_j - w_j|^2 d\pi_j(v_j, w_j).$$

The identity $\sum_{j=1}^N |v_j - w_j|^2 = |v - w|^2$ implies the bound

$$\sum_{j=1}^N W_2^2(\mu_j^1, \mu_j^2) \leq \iint_{\mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^N} |v - w|^2 d\pi(v, w).$$

One concludes the argument by minimizing over π . \square

In our particular case, Lemma 18 ensures that

$$2 W_2^2(Q^+(f, f), Q^+(g, g)) \leq W_2^2(\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{U}_{v,w}], \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{U}_{x,y}])$$

which concludes the proof of Proposition 16 taking (5.3) into account. \square

APPENDIX: UNIFORM IN TIME PROPAGATION OF FOURTH ORDER MOMENTS

In this appendix we derive a uniform propagation of fourth order moments $\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 g(\tau, v) dv$ of solutions g to

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial \tau} + \nabla \cdot (g v) = E Q(g, g) \tag{5.4}$$

where the operator $Q(g, g)$ is defined as in (1.2) for $0 < e < 1$ and $E = \frac{8}{1 - e^2}$.

This result has been used in the proof of Theorem 12.

Proposition 19. *If g^0 is a Borel probability measure on \mathbb{R}^3 such that*

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 g^0(v) dv < \infty,$$

then the solution g to (5.4) with initial datum g^0 verifies

$$\sup_{\tau \geq 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 g(\tau, v) dv < \infty.$$

Proof.- Without loss of generality we can assume that g^0 , and hence $g(\tau)$ for all $\tau \geq 0$, has zero mean velocity. We let

$$m_4(\tau) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 g(\tau, v) dv$$

denote the fourth order moment of $g(\tau)$. Then, using the weak formulation of the inelastic Boltzmann equation, we have:

$$\frac{dm_4(\tau)}{d\tau} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \nabla(|v|^4) \cdot v g(\tau, v) dv + E \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 Q(g(\tau), g(\tau))(v) dv. \quad (5.5)$$

While the first term in the right hand side is simply $4 m_4(\tau)$, the second term is computed by

Lemma 20. *There exist some constants μ_1 and μ_2 , depending only on e , such that*

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 Q(g, g)(v) dv &= -\lambda \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 g(v) dv + \mu_1 \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^2 g(v) dv \right)^2 \\ &\quad + \mu_2 \iint_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} (v \cdot w)^2 g(v) g(w) dv dw \end{aligned}$$

for any probability measure g on \mathbb{R}^3 with finite moment of order 4 and zero mean velocity, where

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{3}(1 + 4\varepsilon - 7\varepsilon^2 + 4\varepsilon^3 - 2\varepsilon^4) \quad \text{and} \quad \varepsilon = \frac{1-e}{2}.$$

With this lemma in hand, (5.5) reads

$$\frac{dm_4(\tau)}{d\tau} = (4 - E\lambda)m_4(\tau) + m(\tau) \quad (5.6)$$

where $m(\tau)$ is a combination of second order moments, which are bounded in time since the kinetic energy is preserved by equation (5.4). Moreover one can check from the expression of E and λ in terms of $\varepsilon = (1-e)/2$ that

$$4 - E\lambda = \frac{2}{3\varepsilon(1-\varepsilon)} [-1 + 2\varepsilon + \varepsilon^2 - 4\varepsilon^3 + 2\varepsilon^4]$$

which is negative for any $0 < \varepsilon < 1/2$, that is, for any $0 < e < 1$. By Gronwall's lemma this ensures that $m_4(\tau)$ is bounded uniformly in time if initially finite, and concludes the argument to Proposition 19. \square

Let us remark that identity (5.6) is also useful to understand that moments are not created by this equation in contrast to the hard-spheres case [25, 26]. In fact, if initially moments are infinite, they will remain so. Thus, this is another reason why homogeneous cooling states have only certain number of moments bounded, see [7].

We now turn to the *proof of Lemma 20*, whose result is given in [5] and [6, Section 4] only in the radial isotropic case, i.e., whenever $g(v)$ depends only on $|v|$. By symmetry we

start by writing

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 Q(g, g)(v) dv = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{S^2} g(v)g(w) \frac{1}{2} [|v'|^4 + |w'|^4 - |v|^4 - |w|^4] d\sigma dv dw$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} v' &= \frac{1}{2}(v+w) + \frac{1-e}{4}(v-w) + \frac{1+e}{4}|v-w|\sigma \\ w' &= \frac{1}{2}(v+w) - \frac{1-e}{4}(v-w) - \frac{1+e}{4}|v-w|\sigma. \end{aligned}$$

Then we introduce the notation

$$u = \frac{v+w}{2}, \quad U = \frac{v-w}{2}, \quad \varepsilon = \frac{1-e}{2}, \quad \varepsilon' = 1-\varepsilon = \frac{1+e}{2}$$

in which

$$v' = u + \varepsilon U + \varepsilon' |U| \sigma, \quad w' = u - \varepsilon U - \varepsilon' |U| \sigma, \quad v = u + U, \quad w = u - U.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} |v'|^2 &= |u|^2 + (\varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon'^2)|U|^2 + 2\varepsilon\varepsilon'|U|(U \cdot \sigma) + 2\varepsilon(u \cdot U) + 2\varepsilon'|U|(u \cdot \sigma) \\ |w'|^2 &= |u|^2 + (\varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon'^2)|U|^2 + 2\varepsilon\varepsilon'|U|(U \cdot \sigma) - 2\varepsilon(u \cdot U) - 2\varepsilon'|U|(u \cdot \sigma) \\ |v|^2 &= |u|^2 + |U|^2 + 2(u \cdot U) \\ |w|^2 &= |u|^2 + |U|^2 - 2(u \cdot U) \end{aligned}$$

and eventually

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{1}{2} [|v'|^4 + |w'|^4 - |v|^4 - |w|^4] \\ &= [(\varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon'^2)^2 - 1] |U|^4 + 2(\varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon'^2 - 1) |u|^2 |U|^2 + 4(\varepsilon^2 - 1) (u \cdot U)^2 \\ &\quad + 4\varepsilon^2 \varepsilon'^2 |U|^2 (U \cdot \sigma)^2 + 4\varepsilon'^2 |U|^2 (u \cdot \sigma)^2 \\ &\quad + 4\varepsilon\varepsilon'|U| [|u|^2 + (\varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon'^2)|U|^2] (U \cdot \sigma) + 8\varepsilon\varepsilon'|U| (u \cdot U) (u \cdot \sigma). \end{aligned}$$

Integrating with respect to σ in S^2 and taking the identities

$$\int_{S^2} 1 \frac{d\sigma}{4\pi} = 1, \quad \int_{S^2} (k \cdot \sigma) \frac{d\sigma}{4\pi} = 0, \quad \int_{S^2} (k \cdot \sigma)^2 \frac{d\sigma}{4\pi} = \frac{|k|^2}{3}$$

into account, we obtain

$$\int_{S^2} \frac{1}{2} [|v'|^4 + |w'|^4 - |v|^4 - |w|^4] \frac{d\sigma}{4\pi} = \alpha |U|^4 + \beta |u|^2 |U|^2 + \gamma (u \cdot U)^2$$

where

$$\alpha = (\varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon'^2)^2 - 1 + \frac{4}{3}\varepsilon^2\varepsilon'^2, \quad \beta = 2[\varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon'^2 - 1 + \frac{2}{3}\varepsilon'^2], \quad \gamma = 4(\varepsilon^2 - 1).$$

Then, by definition of u and U in terms of v and w , the identities

$$\iint_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} |U|^4 g(v) g(w) dv dw = \frac{1}{8} [m_4 + m_2^2 + 2\overline{m_2^2}],$$

$$\iint_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} |u|^2 |U|^2 g(v) g(w) dv dw = \frac{1}{8}[m_4 + m_2^2 - 2\overline{m_2^2}]$$

and

$$\iint_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} (u \cdot U)^2 g(v) g(w) dv dw = \frac{1}{8}[m_4 - m_2^2]$$

hold with

$$m_4 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 g(v) dv, \quad m_2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^2 g(v) dv, \quad \overline{m_2^2} = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3} (v \cdot w)^2 g(v) g(w) dv dw$$

since g has zero mean velocity. Collecting all terms, we obtain

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |v|^4 Q(g, g)(v) dv = -\lambda m_4 + \mu_1 m_2^2 + \mu_2 \overline{m_2^2}$$

where

$$\lambda = -\frac{1}{8}(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) = \frac{1}{3}(1 + 4\varepsilon - 7\varepsilon^2 + 4\varepsilon^3 - 2\varepsilon^4),$$

$$\mu_1 = \frac{1}{8}(\alpha + \beta - \gamma) \quad \text{and} \quad \mu_2 = \frac{1}{4}(\alpha - \beta)$$

depend only on ε , that is, only on e . This concludes the proof of Lemma 20. \square

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