Ordinary differential equations 2

December 18, 2015

1 Dynamical systems

1.1 Basic properties

Definition (Dynamical system). Dynamical system is a couple (Ω, φ) , where $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \times \Omega \to \Omega$ is continuous and satisfies

- (i) $\varphi(0, x) = x$ for all $x \in \Omega$
- (ii) $\varphi(t, \varphi(s, x)) = \varphi(t + s, x)$ for all $t, s \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \Omega$.

Definition (Orbit, positive and negative semiorbit). Let (Ω, φ) be a dynamical system. The orbit of x is the set $\gamma(x) := \{ \varphi(t,x) : t \in \mathbb{R} \}$. The positive semiorbit, resp. negative semiorbit of x is the set $\gamma_+(x) := {\varphi(t,x) : t \geq 0}$, resp. $\gamma_-(x) := {\varphi(t,x) : t \leq 0}$.

Definition (Invariant set, positively and negatively invariant set). Let (Ω, φ) be a dynamical system. A set $A \subset \Omega$ is invariant if for each $x \in A$ we have $\gamma(x) \subset A$. A set $A \subset \Omega$ is positively, resp. negatively invariant if for each $x \in A$ we have $\gamma_+(x) \subset A$, resp. $\gamma_-(x) \subset A$.

Definition (ω -limit set, α -limit set). Let (Ω, φ) be a dynamical system and $x_0 \in \Omega$. The ω -limit set of x_0 is

$$
\omega(x_0) := \{ x \in \Omega : \exists t_n \nearrow +\infty \text{ s.t. } \lim_{n \to \infty} \varphi(t_n, x_0) = x \}.
$$

The α -limit set of x_0 is

$$
\alpha(x_0) := \{x \in \Omega: \exists t_n \searrow -\infty \ s.t. \ \lim_{n \to \infty} \varphi(t_n, x_0) = x\}.
$$

Theorem 1.1. Let (Ω, φ) be a dynamical system and $x_0 \in \Omega$.

- (i) Then $\omega(x_0)$ is closed and invariant.
- (ii) If $\gamma_+(x_0)$ is relatively compact, then $\omega(x_0)$ is nonempty, compact and connected.

Lemma 1.2. Let (Ω, φ) be a dynamical system and $x_0 \in \Omega$. Then

$$
\omega(x_0) = \bigcap_{\tau \ge 0} \overline{\gamma_+(\varphi(\tau, x_0))}.
$$

2nd Lecture

Definition (equilibrium). A point x_0 is an equilibrium (stationary point) of the equation $x' = f(x)$ if $f(x_0) = 0$. A point x_0 is an equilibrium (stationary point) of (Ω, φ) if $\varphi(t, x_0) = x_0$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Definition (Topologically conjugate systems). Dynamical systems (Ω, φ) , (Θ, ψ) are topologically conjugate if there exists a homeomorphism $h : \Omega \to \Theta$ such that $h(\varphi(t,x)) =$ $\psi(t, h(x))$ for all $x \in \Omega$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 1.3 (Rectification theorem). Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be open, $f \in C^r(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^n)$, $r \geq 1$ and $f(x_0) \neq 0$. Then there exist a neighborhood V of x_0 , a neighborhood W of 0 in \mathbb{R}^n and a homeomorphism $g: V \to W$ satisfying: $t \mapsto x(t)$ is a solution to $x' = f(x)$ if and only if $t \mapsto g(x(t))$ is a solution to $y' = (1, 0, 0, \ldots, 0)^T$.

Definition (hyperbolic equilibrium). An equilibrium x_0 of $x' = f(x)$ is called hyperbolic if $\sigma(\nabla f(x_0)) \cap i\mathbb{R} = \emptyset$, i.e. $\nabla f(x_0)$ has no eigenvalues on the imaginary axis ($\sigma(A)$ denotes the spectrum of a matrix A).

Theorem (Hartman–Grobman). Let x_0 be a hyperbolic equilibrium of $x' = f(x)$ and denote $A = \nabla f(x_0)$. Then there exist a neighborhood V of x_0 , a neighborhood W of 0 in \mathbb{R}^n and a homeomorphism $g: V \to W$ satisfying: $t \mapsto x(t)$ is a solution to $x' = f(x)$ if and only if $t \mapsto g(x(t))$ is a solution to $y' = Ay$.

1.2 LaSalle's invariance principle

Definition (orbital derivative). Consider the equation $x' = f(x)$ with $f : \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ and let $V \in C^1(\Omega)$. The orbital derivative of V in a point x is $V(x) := \nabla V(x) \cdot f(x)$.

3rd Lecture

Theorem 1.4. Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be open, $f : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be Lipschitz continuous and φ be the solving function of $x' = f(x)$. Let $V \in C^1(\Omega)$ be bounded from below and $l \in \mathbb{R}$ be such that $\Omega_l := \{x \in \Omega : V(x) \leq l\}$ is bounded and $V \leq 0$ on Ω_l . Denote $S := \{x \in \Omega : V(x) = 0\}$ and $M := \{x \in S : \gamma(x) \subset S\}$. Then $\omega(x_0) \subset M$ for all $x_0 \in \Omega_l$.

1.3 Poincaré–Bendixson Theory

Let Ω be a connected subset of \mathbb{R}^2 , $f \in C^1(\Omega)$ and φ be the solving function of

$$
x' = f(x). \tag{AE}
$$

Assume that φ is defined at least on $[0, +\infty)$ for every $x \in \Omega$.

Theorem 1.5 (Poincaré–Bendixson). Let $p \in \Omega$ and $\gamma_+(p)$ be relatively compact. If $\omega(p)$ does not contain any stationary points, then $\omega(p)$ is an orbit of a nontrivial periodic solution.

Definition (Jordan curve). A curve in \mathbb{R}^2 is Jordan if there exists its continuous parametrization $\psi : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}^2$ which is injective on $[0,1)$ and satisfies $\psi(0) = \psi(1)$.

Theorem (Jordan). Let $\gamma \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ be a Jordan curve. Then there exist unique $\Omega_1, \Omega_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ such that Ω_1 is bounded, Ω_2 is not bounded, Ω_1 , Ω_2 and γ are pairwise disjoint and \mathbb{R}^2 $\Omega_1 \cup \gamma \cup \Omega_2$. We denote $\Omega_1 =: \text{Int } \gamma$ and $\Omega_2 =: \text{Ext } \gamma$.

Definition (Transversal). A transversal to φ is an open line segment $\Sigma \subset \Omega$ which is not parallel to f in any point, i.e. $\Sigma = \{a + tb : t \in (0,1)\}\$ for some fixed a, $b \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and for every $x \in \Sigma$ the vectors $f(x)$ and b are linearly independent.

Definition (Flow-box). A set $U \subset \Omega$ is called a flow-box if the dynamical system (U, φ) is topologically conjugate to (V, ψ) , where $V = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x_1| < \varepsilon_1, |x_2| < \varepsilon_2\}$ for some ε_1 , $\varepsilon_2 > 0$ and $\psi(t,(x_1,x_2)) = (x_1 + t, x_2)$.

Lemma 1.6. Let Σ be a transversal to φ and $p \in \Sigma$. Then there exists a flow-box U containing p such that for every $y \in U$ the set $\Sigma \cap \gamma_U(y)$ contains exactly one point. By $\gamma_U(y)$ we denote the orbit of y in the (local) dynamical system (U, φ) .

Lemma 1.7. Let Σ be a transversal to $\varphi, p \in \Sigma$. Then intersections of $\gamma_+(p)$ and Σ form a monotone sequence. In particular, if $t_1 < t_2 < t_3$ be such that $\varphi(t_j, p) \in \Sigma$, $j = 1, 2, 3$, then either $\varphi(t_1, p) = \varphi(t_2, p) = \varphi(t_3, p)$ or $\varphi(t_2, p)$ lies strictly between $\varphi(t_1, p)$ and $\varphi(t_3, p)$.

4th Lecture

Lemma 1.8. Let Σ be a transversal to φ and $p \in \Sigma$. Then $\omega(p) \cap \Sigma$ contains at most one point.

Theorem 1.9 (Bendixson–Dulac criterion). Let Ω be open and simply connected.

- (i) If div $f > 0$ a.e. in Ω , then (AE) has no nontrivial periodic solutions.
- (ii) If there exists $B \in C^1(\Omega)$ such that $\text{div}(B \cdot f) > 0$ a.e. in Ω , then (AE) has no nontrivial periodic solutions.

2 Carathéodory Theory

Throughout this chapter, we assume that I is an interval, $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ be an open set with points (t, x) , $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We denote $U(x_0, \Delta)$ the ball in \mathbb{R}^n centered in x_0 with radius Δ . By $Q(t_0, x_0)$ or $Q(t_0, x_0, \delta, \Delta)$ we denote a cylinder $U(t_0, \delta) \times U(x_0, \Delta) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. The graph of a function $x: I \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is graph $x := \{(t, x(t)) : t \in I\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. In this chapter, we consider a diferential equation

$$
x' = f(t, x) \tag{DE}
$$

Definition (AC function). A function $x: I \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is called absolutely continuous ($x \in$ $AC(I)$) if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ satisfying: for any finite sequence of pairwise disjoint intervals (a_i, b_i) , $i = 1, \ldots n$ it holds that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} |b_i - a_i| < \delta \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} |f(b_i) - f(a_i)| < \varepsilon.
$$

We say that x is locally absolutely continuous on I $(x \in AC_{loc}(I))$ if $x \in AC(J)$ for every compact interval $J \subset I$.

Proposition 2.1. Let $x \in AC(I)$, then $x'(t)$ exists for almost every $t \in I$, $x' \in L_{loc}^1(I)$ and $x(t) - x(s) = \int_s^t x'(r) dr$ for every $s, t \in I$.

Proposition 2.2. Let $h \in L^1(I)$, $c \in I$ and define $x(t) := \int_c^t h(r) dr$. Then $x \in AC(I)$ and $x' = h$ almost everywhere on I.

Definition (Carathéodory conditions). We say that $f : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies Carathéodory conditions $(f \in CAR(\Omega))$ if for every $(t_0, x_0) \in \Omega$ there exist a cylinder $Q(t_0, x_0, \delta, \Delta)$ and a function $m \in U(t_0, \delta)$ such that

(i) $f(\cdot, x)$ is measurable on $U(t_0, \delta)$ for every $x \in U(x_0, \Delta)$

- (ii) $f(t, \cdot)$ is continuous on $U(x_0, \Delta)$ for a.e. $t \in U(t_0, \delta)$
- (iii) $|f(t, x)| \leq m(t)$ for a.e. $t \in U(t_0, \delta)$ for every $x \in U(x_0, \Delta)$.

Definition (AC solution). Let $f \in CAR(\Omega)$. We say that $x : I \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is an absolutely continuous solution to $x' = f(t, x)$ if $x \in AC(I)$, graph $x \subset \Omega$ and $x'(t) = f(t, x(t))$ for a.e. $t \in I$.

Lemma 2.3. Let $f \in CAR(\Omega)$, $x: I \to \mathbb{R}^n$ continuous and graph $x \subset \Omega$. Then $f(\cdot, x(\cdot)) \in$ $L^1_{loc}(I)$.

Lemma 2.4. Let $f \in CAR(\Omega)$, $x: I \to \mathbb{R}^n$ continuous and graph $x \subset \Omega$. Then x is an AC solution to (DE) if and only if for all s, $t \in I$ it holds that

$$
x(t) - x(s) = \int_s^t f(r, x(r)) dr.
$$

Theorem 2.5 (Generalized Banach Contraction Theorem). Let Λ , X be metric spaces, X nonempty and complete. Let $\Phi : \Lambda \times X \to X$ is continuous w.r.t. λ for each fixed $x \in X$. Let there exists $\kappa \in (0,1)$ such that

$$
\|\Phi(\lambda, x) - \Phi(\lambda, y)\|_{X} \le \kappa \|x - y\|_{X} \quad \forall \ \lambda \in \Lambda, \ x, y \in X.
$$

Then

- (i) for every $\lambda \in \Lambda$ there exists a unique $x(\lambda)$ such that $\Phi(\lambda, x(\lambda)) = x(\lambda)$.
- (ii) the mapping $\lambda \mapsto x(\lambda)$ is continuous.

$$
(iii) \|y - x(\lambda)\| \le (1 - \kappa)^{-1} \|y - \Phi(\lambda, y)\| \text{ for all } \lambda \in \Lambda, y \in X.
$$

Theorem 2.6 (Generalized Picard Theorem). Let $I = [0, T]$ be a bounded interval and $f \in CAR(I \times \mathbb{R}^n)$. Let us assume that there exists $l \in L^1(I)$ such that

$$
|f(t, x, p) - f(t, y, p)| \le l(t)|x - y| \quad \text{ for a.e. } t \in I \text{ for all } x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n.
$$

Then for every $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ there exists a unique AC solution $x \in AC(I)$ of (DE) with $x(0) = x_0$ and the solution depends continuously on the initial value in the following sense. If $x_{0n} \to x_0$, then $x_n \rightrightarrows x$ uniformly on I (where x, resp. x_n are the solutions corresponding to x_0 , resp. x_{0n}).

6th Lecture

3 Bifurcations

3.1 Basic properties

In this chapter we study autonomous differential equations with a parameter $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$
\dot{x} = f(x, \mu) \tag{AR}_{\mu}
$$

We assume $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ to be an open set, $f \in C^1(\Omega \times \mathbb{R})$ or more smooth.

Definition (bifurcation). We say that $(x_0, \mu) \in \Omega \times \mathbb{R}$ is a point of bifurcation if in any neighborhood of μ there exist μ_1 , μ_2 such that the dynamical systems $\dot{x} = f(x, \mu_1)$ and $\dot{x} = f(x, \mu_2)$ are not topologically conjugate on any neighborhoods of x_0 . We say that $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ is a point of bifurcation if in any neighborhood of μ there exist μ_1 , μ_2 such that the dynamical systems $\dot{x} = f(x, \mu_1)$ and $\dot{x} = f(x, \mu_2)$ are not topologically conjugate.

Proposition 3.1. If $f(x_0, \mu_0) \neq 0$, then (x_0, μ_0) is not a point of bifurcation.

Theorem 3.2. If x_0 is a hyperbolic equilibrium for $\dot{x} = f(x, \mu_0)$, then (x_0, μ_0) is not a point of bifurcation. In particular, for every μ close enough to μ_0 the system $\dot{x} = f(x, \mu)$ has a unique hyperbolic equilibrium x_u near $x₀$ and the dimensions of stable and unstable manifolds do not depend on μ .

Corollary 3.3. If (x_0, μ_0) is a point of bifurcation, then x_0 is a nonhyperbolic equilibrium.

3.2 Bifurcations on R

Theorem 3.4. Let $f \in C^2(\Omega \times \mathbb{R})$, $0 \in \Omega$, $f(0,0) = 0$, $f_x(0,0) = 0$, $f_\mu(0,0) \neq 0$ and $f_{xx}(0,0) \neq 0$. Then $(0,0)$ is a point of bifurcation. In particular, it is a saddlenode bifurcation, i.e., there are no equilibria for $\mu < 0$ and two equilibria for $\mu > 0$ in a neighborhood of 0 or vice versa.

Lemma 3.5. Let $h \in C^k$, $k \geq 2$ on a neighborhood of $(0,0)$ and $h(0,\lambda) = 0$ on a neighborhood of 0. Then there exists $H \in C^{k-1}$ on a neighborhood of $(0,0)$ such that $h(x, \lambda) = xH(x, \lambda)$ and, moreover, it holds that $H(0, \lambda) = h_x(0, \lambda)$, $H_x(0, 0) = \frac{1}{2}h_{xx}(0, 0)$, $H_{\lambda}(0,0) = h_{x\lambda}(0,0)$, and (if $k \ge 3$) $H_{xx}(0,0) = \frac{1}{3}h_{xxx}(0,0)$.

Theorem 3.6. Let $f \in C^2(\Omega \times \mathbb{R})$, $0 \in \Omega$, $f(0,\mu) = 0$ for all $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$, $f_x(0,0) = 0$, $f_{\mu,x}(0,0) \neq 0$ and $f_{xx}(0,0) \neq 0$. Then $(0,0)$ is a point of bifurcation. In particular, it is a transcritical bifurcation, i.e., for every $\mu \in (-\delta, \delta) \setminus \{0\}$ there exist exactly two equilibria in $(-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$: $x_0 = 0$ and $x_1 \neq 0$. Moreover, x_0 is stable for $\mu < 0$ and unstable for $\mu > 0$ or vice versa.

Theorem 3.7. Let $f \in C^3(\Omega \times \mathbb{R})$, $0 \in \Omega$, $f(0,\mu) = 0$ for all $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$, $f_x(0,0) = 0$, $f_{\mu,x}(0,0) \neq 0$ and $f_{xx}(0,0) = 0$, $f_{xxx}(0,0) \neq 0$. Then $(0,0)$ is a point of bifurcation. In particular, it is a pitchfork bifurcation, i.e., for $\mu < 0$ there is a unique equilibrium $x_0 = 0$ in a neighborhood of zero and for $\mu > 0$ there are exactly three equilibria $x_1 < x_0 = 0 < x_2$ in a neighborhood of 0 or vice versa. Moreover, x_0 is stable for $\mu < 0$ and unstable for $\mu > 0$ or vice versa.

7th Lecture

3.3 Hopf bifurcation in \mathbb{R}^2

We consider the following system in a neighborhood of $(0, 0, 0)$

$$
\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = A_{\mu} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} f(x, y, \mu) \\ g(x, y, \mu) \end{pmatrix}, \tag{1}
$$

where A_μ is a 2 × 2 matrix dependent on a parameter μ and f, g contain higher order terms, i.e., $f = g = 0$, $\nabla_{xy} f = \nabla_{xy} g = 0$ in $(0, 0, \mu)$.

Theorem 3.8 (Hopf). Let $\sigma(A_\mu) = {\alpha(\mu) \pm i\omega(\mu)}$, where $\alpha, \omega \in C^2$ on a neighborhood of 0 and it holds that $\alpha(0) = 0$, $\alpha'(0) \neq 0$, $\omega(0) \neq 0$. Then there exist δ , $\Delta > 0$ and a function $\varphi \in C^1((0,\delta), (-\Delta, \Delta))$ such that for every $a \in (0,\delta)$ there exists a nontrivial periodic solution to (1) with $\mu = \varphi(a)$ going through the point $(x, y) = (a, 0)$.

Theorem 3.9 (Hopf 2). Let the assumptions of Theorem 3.8 hold and moreover

$$
A_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\omega_0 \\ \omega_0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.
$$

Then the system is near $(0,0,0)$ topologically conjugate to

$$
r' = d\mu r + ar^3, \qquad \varphi' = 1,
$$

where $d = \alpha'(0)$ and 16a is equal to

$$
\left(f_{xxx} + f_{xyy} + g_{xxy} + g_{yyy} + \frac{1}{\omega_0} [f_{xy}(f_{xx} + f_{yy}) - g_{xy}(g_{xx} + g_{yy}) - f_{xx}g_{xx} + f_{yy}g_{yy}] \right) (0,0,0).
$$

8th Lecture

4 Center manifold

For the linear equation

$$
X'=AX
$$

with a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ we have stable, unstable and center subspaces defined as

$$
V_s := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \exists C, \beta > 0 \ \forall t \ge 0 \ \| e^{tA} x \| \le C e^{-\beta t} \},
$$

\n
$$
V_u := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \exists C, \beta > 0 \ \forall t \le 0 \ \| e^{tA} x \| \le C e^{\beta t} \},
$$

\n
$$
V_c := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \exists C > 0, n \in \mathbb{N} \forall t \in \mathbb{R} \ \| e^{tA} x \| \le C (1 + |x|)^n \}.
$$

It holds that $\mathbb{R}^n = V_s \oplus V_u \oplus V_c$.

Consider a nonlinear equation

$$
X' = F(X) \tag{2}
$$

with $F \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^N, \mathbb{R}^N)$ and $F(0) = 0$.

Definition (Stable, unstable manifold). Let φ be the solving function to (2). We define the stable manifold \tilde{V}_s and unstable manifold \tilde{V}_u in $0 \in \mathbb{R}^N$ by

$$
V_s := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^N : \exists C, \beta > 0 \ \forall t \ge 0 \ \|\varphi(t, x)\| \le C e^{-\beta t} \},
$$

$$
V_u := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^N : \exists C, \beta > 0 \ \forall t \le 0 \ \|\varphi(t, x)\| \le C e^{\beta t} \},
$$

Definition (Center manifold). Let V_c be the center subspace of $X' = \nabla F(0)X$. A center manifold \tilde{V}_c for (2) in $0 \in \mathbb{R}^N$ is any invariant manifold, that is tangent to V_c in 0 and has the same dimension as V_c .

4.1 Existence of center manifold

General assumptions. We consider a system of equations

$$
x' = Ax + f(x, y),
$$

\n
$$
y' = By + g(x, y),
$$
\n(S)

such that $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $x^T A x \geq -\varepsilon |x|^2$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, $y^t By \leq -\beta |y|^2$, $||e^{tB}|| \leq c_0 e^{-\beta t}$ for some $\beta > \varepsilon > 0$, $c_0 > 0$ and all $t \geq 0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Functions f, g are such that $f(0,0) = g(0,0) = 0, \nabla f(0,0) = \nabla g(0,0) = 0$, and $|f|, |g| < \rho, |\nabla f|, |\nabla g| < \sigma$ on \mathbb{R}^{n+m} for some $\sigma, \rho > 0$.

Define

$$
\mathcal{X}_{b,L} := \{ \Phi \in \text{Lip}(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m) : \|\Phi\| \le b, \ Lip_{\Phi} \le L, \ \Phi(0) = 0 \}.
$$

Theorem 4.1. Let ε , β , c_0 , L , $b > 0$ are given, $\varepsilon < \beta$. If σ , ρ are small enough, then there exists a unique $\Phi \in \mathcal{X}_{b,L}$ satisfying

$$
(x(t), y(t))
$$
 solves (S) & $y(0) = \Phi(x(0)) \Rightarrow y(t) = \Phi(x(t)) \forall t \ge 0.$ (INV)

Moreover, this Φ satisfies $\nabla \Phi(0) = 0$.

Application 1. If $\Re \sigma(A) > 0$, $\Re \sigma(B) < 0$, then graph Φ is the unstable manifold.

Application 2. If $\Re \sigma(\tilde{A}) < 0$, $\Re \sigma(\tilde{B}) > 0$ and we apply Theorem 4.1 with $A = -\tilde{B}$ and $B = -\tilde{A}$, then graph Φ is the stable manifold for the system with \tilde{A} , \tilde{B} .

Application 3. If $\Re \sigma(A) = 0$, $\Re \sigma(B) < 0$, then graph Φ is a center manifold.

Let us consider so called reduced equation

$$
p' = Ap + f(p, \Phi(p)).
$$
 (RE)

Lemma 4.2. Let $\Phi \in \mathcal{X}_{b,L}$. Then (INV) is equivalent to

$$
p \, \text{ solves (RE)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (p, \Phi(p)) \, \text{ solves (S).} \tag{RED}
$$

9th Lecture

Lemma 4.3. Let $\gamma : (-\infty, 0] \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be bounded and continuous. Then there exists a unique solution to $y' = By + \gamma$, which is bounded on $(-\infty, 0]$. Moreover, this solution satisfies $y(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{-sB}\gamma(s)ds.$

Lemma 4.4. Let $\Phi \in \mathcal{X}_{b,L}$. Then (INV) is equivalent to

$$
p
$$
 solves (RE) with $p(0) = p_0 \Rightarrow \Phi(p_0) = \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-sB} g(p(s), \Phi(p(s))) ds.$ (FPP)

4.2 Tracking property and reduction of stability

In this section, we assume that $\Phi \in \mathcal{X}_{b,L}$ satisfies (INV) and $\mu > L$ is fixed. We denote

$$
K = \{ X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m} : |y| \le \mu |x| \}
$$

$$
V = \{ X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m} : |y| \ge \mu |x| \}
$$

and

$$
K(X_0) = \{ X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m} : X - X_0 \in K \}
$$

$$
V(X_0) = \{ X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m} : X - X_0 \in V \}
$$

Lemma 4.5. Let σ be small enough and let $X_1, X_2 : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$, $X_1 = (x_1, y_1), X_2 =$ (x_2, y_2) be two solutions of (S) .

- If $X_1(0) \in K(X_2(0))$, then $X_1(t) \in K(X_2(t))$ for all $t \ge 0$
- There exists $\gamma > 0$ such that: If $X_1(t) = V(X_2(t))$ for all $t \in I$, then

$$
|X_1(t) - X_2(t)| \le e^{-\gamma(t-s)} |X_1(s) - X_2(s)| \quad \text{for all } s, \ t \in I, \ s < t.
$$

Theorem 4.6 (Tracking property). Let σ be small enough. For every solution X of (S) there exists a solution p of (RE) such that $P = (p, \Phi(p))$ satisfies

$$
|X(t) - P(t)| \le Ce^{-\gamma t} |X(0) - P(0)| \quad \text{for all } t \ge 0
$$

with γ from Lemma 4.5. Moreover, $P(0)$ can be taken small if $X(0)$ is small.

Corollary 4.7 (Reduction of stability). $(0,0) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$ is *(assymptotically) stable for* (S) if and only if $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is (assymptotically) stable for (RE).

11th Lecture

4.3 Approximation of center manifold

Let us denote for $\Psi \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$

$$
[M\Psi](x) = \nabla\Psi(x)[Ax + f(x, \Psi(x))] - B\Psi(x) - g(x, \Psi(x)).
$$

We know that $M\Psi \equiv 0$ if and only if Ψ satisfies (INV).

Theorem 4.8 (Approximation of center manifold). Let $q > 1$ and let $\Psi \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ satisfies $\Psi(0) = 0$, $\nabla \Psi(0) = 0$ and $[M\Psi](x) = O(|x|^q)$ as $x \to 0$. Then $|\Psi(x) - \Phi(x)| =$ $O(|x|^q)$ as $x \to 0$ for any $\Phi \in \mathcal{X}_{b,L}$ satisfying (INV).

5 Optimal control theory

5.1 Controllability

Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be open, $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$, $f \in C^1(\Omega \times U, \mathbb{R}^n)$ and $x_0 \in \Omega$. A controlled ordinary differential equation is

$$
x' = f(x, u),
$$
 $x(0) = x_0.$ (CDE)

Let $0 < T < +\infty$. A set $\mathcal{U} \subset \{u : [0,T] \to U : u$ measureable is called a set of admissible controls, any function $u \in \mathcal{U}$ is called a control and the solution $x : [0, T] \to \mathbb{R}^n$ of (CDE) with a given control u is called *response of the system*.

A controled linear equation is

$$
x' = Ax + Bu,
$$
 (CLE)

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

Notation: $x_0 \stackrel{t}{\rightarrow} 0$ means "control u brings x_0 to 0 in time t", i.e. if we insert u into (CDE), then the solution x of (CDE) satisfies $x(t) = 0$.

Definition. Let $t \in [0,T]$. The set $R(t) = \{x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n : \exists u \in \mathcal{U}, x_0 \stackrel{t}{\to} 0\}$ is called the reachable set for time t.

Definition. Kalman controllability matrix for (CLE) is $\mathcal{K}(A|B) = (B, AB, A^2B, \ldots, A^{n-1}B) \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{n \times mn}$.

Theorem 5.1. Consider (CLE) with $\mathcal{U} = L^{1}_{loc}([0, T], \mathbb{R}^{m})$. Then $R(t) = \text{Im } \mathcal{K}(A|B)$ for all $t > 0$.

Corollary 5.2. The following is equivalent for the system (CLE) with $\mathcal{U} = L^1_{loc}([0, T], \mathbb{R}^m)$.

- (i) (CLE) is globally controllable (i.e. $R(t) = \mathbb{R}^n$) for some/every $t > 0$,
- (ii) (CLE) is locally controllable (i.e. $0 \in R(t)$ ^o, where $R(t)$ ^o is the interior of $R(t)$) for some/every $t > 0$.

(*iii*) rank $\mathcal{K}(A|B) = n$.

12th Lecture

Theorem 5.3. Let U be any neighborhood of 0 and $\mathcal{U} = L^1_{loc}([0,T], U)$. Let $0 \in \Omega$, $f(0,0) = 0, A = \nabla_x f(0,0), \text{ and } B = \nabla_u f(0,0).$ If $\text{rank } \mathcal{K}(A|B) = n, \text{ then } (\text{CDE}) \text{ is }$ locally controllable for all $t > 0$.

5.2 Time-optimal control and Bang-bang principle

In this section we consider (CLE) with $U = [-1, 1]^m$, $\mathcal{U} = L^1_{loc}([0, T], U)$.

Proposition 5.4. The system (CLE) is locally controllable if and only if rank $\mathcal{K}(A|B) = n$.

Proposition 5.5. For every $t > 0$, $R(t)$ is closed, convex and symmetric $(x \in R(t) \Rightarrow$ $-x \in R(t)$). If $t_1 < t_2$ then $R(t_1) \subset R(t_2)$.

Theorem 5.6. Let $\text{rank } \mathcal{K}(A|B) = n$ and $\Re \lambda \leq 0$ for all $\lambda \in \sigma(A)$. Then (CLE) is globally controllable.

Definition. An admissible control u is called a bang-bang control if $u_i(t) = \pm 1$ for all $t \in [0, T]$ and all $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$.

Theorem 5.7. For each $x_0 \in R(t)$ there exists a bang-bang control \tilde{u} such that $x_0 \frac{t}{\tilde{u}}$ 0.

Theorem 5.8. For each $x_0 \in \bigcup_{t \geq 0} R(t)$ there exists $\tilde{t} = \min\{t \geq 0 : x_0 \in R(t)\}\$ and a bang-bang control \tilde{u} such that $x_0 \frac{\tilde{t}}{\tilde{u}} \geq 0$.

5.3 Pontryagin maximum principle

In this section, we are looking for an admissible control u which maximizes the functional

$$
P[u] = g(x(T)) + \int_0^T r(x(s), u(s))ds,
$$

where x is the solution to (CDE) (with the control u). Functions $g \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$, $f \in$ $C^1(\mathbb{R}^n \times U)$ and $r \in C(\mathbb{R}^n \times U)$ are given.

Theorem 5.9. Let $u^* \in \mathcal{U}$ is a point of a local maximum of P and x^* is the corresponding system response. Then there exists a solution $P^* : [0, T] \to \mathbb{R}^n$ to the adjoint equation

$$
P^{*'} = -\nabla_x H(x^*, P^*, u^*), \qquad P^*(T) = (\nabla_x g)(x^*(T))
$$
 (ADJ)

and the maximum principle

$$
H(x^*(t), P^*(t), u^*(t)) = \max_{\eta \in U} H(x^*(t), P^*(t), \eta), \tag{MP}
$$

holds, where $H(x, P, u) = P \cdot f(x, u) + r(x, u)$.