# 1. Dynamical Systems

**Definition.** By dynamical system (d.s.) we mean a couple  $(\varphi, \Omega)$ , where  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is open and  $\varphi = \varphi(t, x)$ :  $\mathbb{R} \times \Omega \to \Omega$  is a map, satisfying

- (i)  $\varphi(0,x) = x$  for  $\forall x \in \Omega$
- (ii)  $\varphi(s,\varphi(t,x)) = \varphi(s+t,x)$  for  $\forall s, t \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \Omega$
- (iii)  $(t, x) \mapsto \varphi(t, x)$  is continuous.

While  $\Omega$  can be any topological space, we will consider mostly open domains in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and smooth  $\varphi(t,x)$ .

Example. If  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is open and  $f = f(x) : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^n$  of class  $C^1$ , then  $\varphi(t, x_0) := x(t)$ , where x = x(t) is the (unique) maximal solution to

$$x' = f(x), x(0) = x_0 (1)$$

is a 'local' dynamical system with  $\varphi \in C^1$ . This is a canonical example in the sense that any smooth d.s. arises as a solution operator to the equation (1).

**Definition.** Let  $(\varphi, \Omega)$  be a dynamical system. A set  $M \subset \Omega$  is called

- positively invariant, if  $\varphi(t,x) \in M$  for  $\forall t \geq 0, x \in M$
- negatively invariant, if  $\varphi(t,x) \in M$  for  $\forall t \leq 0, x \in M$
- (fully) invariant, if  $\varphi(t,x) \in M$  for  $\forall t \in \mathbb{R}, x \in M$

Given a point  $x_0 \in M$  we further define

- positive (semi-)orbit  $\gamma^+(x_0) = \{\varphi(t, x_0); t \ge 0\}$
- negative (semi-)orbit  $\gamma^-(x_0) = \{\varphi(t, x_0); t \leq 0\}$
- (full) orbit  $\gamma(x_0) = \{ \varphi(t, x_0); t \in \mathbb{R} \}$

Observe that positive (resp. negative resp. full) orbit is positively (resp. negatively resp. fully) invariant. The set M is positively (resp. negatively resp. fully) invariant, iff for any  $x_0 \in M$ , the orbit  $\gamma^+(x_0)$  (resp.  $\gamma^-(x_0)$  resp.  $\gamma(x_0)$ ) is a subset of M.

**Definition.** Let  $(\varphi, \Omega)$  be a dynamical system. We define the  $\omega$ -limit set of a point  $x_0 \in \Omega$  as

$$\omega(x_0) = \{ y \in \Omega; \exists t_n \to +\infty \text{ s.t. } \varphi(t_n, x_0) \to y \}$$

Analogously, we define the  $\alpha$ -limit set of  $x_0$  as

$$\alpha(x_0) = \{ y \in \Omega; \ \exists t_n \to -\infty \text{ s.t. } \varphi(t_n, x_0) \to y \}$$

**Lemma 1.** Let  $(\varphi, \Omega)$  be a dynamical system and  $x_0 \in \Omega$ . Then

$$\omega(x_0) = \bigcap_{\tau > 0} \overline{\gamma^+(\varphi(\tau, x_0))}.$$

Remark. Recall that the set M is called *connected*, provided there do not exist open, disjoint sets  $\mathcal{G}$ ,  $\mathcal{H}$  such that  $M \subset \mathcal{G} \cup \mathcal{H}$ , while  $M \cap \mathcal{G} \neq \emptyset$ ,  $M \cap \mathcal{H} \neq \emptyset$ .

Furthermore, any interval  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  is connected (in fact a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  is connected iff it is an interval), and a continuous image of a connected set is again connected.

**Theorem 2** (Properties of  $\omega(x_0)$ .). Let  $(\varphi, \Omega)$  be a dynamical system. Then

1.  $\omega(x_0)$  is closed, fully invariant

2. If  $\gamma^+(x_0)$  relatively compact in  $\Omega$ , then  $\omega(x_0)$  is non-empty, compact, and connected.

**Theorem 3.** Let  $(\varphi, \Omega)$  be a dynamical system, let  $K \subset \Omega$  be compact. Then

$$\operatorname{dist}(\varphi(t, x_0), K) \to 0 \quad \text{for } t \to +\infty,$$
 (\*)

if and only if  $\emptyset \neq \omega(x_0) \subset K$ .

In particular,  $\omega(x_0) = \{z\}$  iff  $\varphi(t, x_0) \to z$  for  $t \to +\infty$ .

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

Remark. Equivalently, for all t

$$\varphi(t,\cdot) = h_{-1} \circ \psi(t,\cdot) \circ h$$
 in  $\Omega$ .

*Remark.* Topological conjugacy preserves the key properties of dynamical systems: stationary points and their stability, periodic orbits,  $\omega$ -limit sets, . . .

**Theorem 4** (Rectification lemma). Let f(x) be  $C^1$  in a neighborhood of  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , let  $f(x_0) \neq 0$ . Then there exist

- a neighborhood V of  $x_0$ ,
- a neighborhood W of  $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and
- a diffeomorphism  $g: \mathcal{V} \to \mathcal{W}$

such that x(t) is a solution to (1) in  $\mathcal{V}$  iff y(t) = g(x(t)) is a solution to

$$y' = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)^T \tag{2}$$

in W.

Remark. In terms of the previous definition the Rectification lemma says: d.s. given by (1) and (2) are topologically conjugate (in fact  $C^1$ -conjugate) on respective neighborhoods.

*Remark.* Rectification lemma says that close to non-stationary points there is no interesting dynamics. The following (and considerably more difficult) theorem implies that close to stationary hyperbolic points, there is no nonlinear dynamics.

**Recall** that a stationary point  $x_0$  to equation (1) is called *hyperbolic*, if Re  $\lambda \neq 0$  for any  $\lambda$  from the spectrum of  $A = \nabla f(x_0)$ .

**Theorem 5** (Hartman-Grobman.). Let f(x) be  $C^1$  on some neighborhood of  $x_0$ , where  $x_0$  is a hyperbolic stationary point to (1). Let  $A = \nabla f(x_0)$ . Then there exist a neighborhood  $\mathcal{V}$  of  $x_0$  and a neighborhood  $\mathcal{W}$  of  $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that the d.s. given by (1) and y' = Ay are topologically conjugate on respective neighborhoods.

### La Salle's invariance principle

**Recall** that given a  $C^1$  function  $V:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$  we define the *orbital derivative* – w.r.t. solutions of (1) – as

$$\dot{V}_f(x) = \nabla V(x) \cdot f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_j}(x) f_j(x)$$

By chain rule for any x = x(t) a solution of (1) in  $\Omega$  one has

$$\frac{d}{dt}V(x(t)) = \dot{V}_f(x(t)).$$

Example. Consider the mathematical pendulum with friction  $x'' + q(x') + \sin x = 0$ . Here x = x(t) is the displacement angle, and q = q(y) friction, depending on the velocity y = x'. It is natural to assume q(0) = 0 and q(y)y > 0 for  $y \neq 0$ . In such a case the equilibrium (x, y) = (0, 0) is stable, using the Lyapunov function  $V = y^2/2 + 1 - \cos x$ .

But is it even asymptotically stable? If q'(0) > 0, this follows by the linearization argument. But the more delicate (in fact, non-hyperbolic) case when q'(0) = 0 requires a more subtle argument, which is contained in the following abstract theorem.

**Theorem 6** (La Salle). Let  $(\varphi, \Omega)$  be the d.s. given by (1). Let  $V : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  be a  $C^1$  function bounded from below, and let  $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$  be such that the set  $\Omega_{\ell} = \{x \in \Omega; \ V(x) < \ell\}$  is bounded. Assume finally that  $\dot{V}_f(x) \leq 0$  in  $\Omega_{\ell}$ .

Denote

$$R = \{x \in \Omega_{\ell}; \ \dot{V}_f = 0\}$$
  
$$M = \{y \in R; \ \gamma(y) \subset R\}$$

Then for any  $x_0 \in \Omega_\ell$  one has  $\emptyset \neq \omega(x_0) \subset M$ .

Remark. M is the largest fully invariant subset of R. In a typical application, M reduces to a single point which (in view of Theorem 13.2) is thus asymptotically stable (in fact it attracts all of  $\Omega_{\ell}$ ).

### Poincarè-Bendixson theory

- existence and non-existence of periodic solutions in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
- it is essential that we are in two dimensions only.

Standing assumptions. Throughout this chapter,

- $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  is a domain (i.e. open, connected set),
- $f(x): \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^2$  is  $C^1$  and
- $\varphi = \varphi(t, x)$  is the d.s. given by (1).

**Theorem 7** (Poincarè-Bendixson.). Let  $p \in \Omega$  be such that  $\gamma^+(p)$  is relatively compact in  $\Omega$ , let furthermore  $\omega(p)$  contains no stationary point. Then  $\omega(p) = \Gamma$ , where  $\Gamma$  is a (non-trivial) periodic orbit.

#### Reminder

We say that  $\gamma$  is a *curve*, if  $\gamma = \psi([a,b])$ , where  $\psi$  is injective, continuous. It is a *Jordan curve*, provided that  $\psi$  is continuous, injective on [a,b) and  $\psi(a) = \psi(b)$ . Finally,  $\gamma$  is a *(line) segment*, provided that  $\psi$  can be taken affine, i.e.  $\psi(t) = at + b$  for some vectors  $a \neq 0$  and b.

Remark. Orbit (periodic orbit) is a curve (Jordan curve).

**Jordan theorem.** If  $\gamma \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  is a Jordan curve, then  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \gamma$  consists precisely of two domains, of which one is bounded and simply connected ("the interior") and the other is unbounded ("the exterior").

**Definition.** An open segment  $\Sigma$  is called *transversal*, provided that  $f(p) \cdot n \neq 0$  for any  $p \in \Sigma$ , where n is the normal vector to  $\Sigma$ .

**Geometrically:** solutions of (1) traverse  $\Sigma$  with a non-zero speed (and in particular, in the same direction) at all points. Clearly every non-stationary point lies on some transversal.

**Lemma 8.** Let  $\Sigma \subset \Omega$  be transversal,  $y \in \Sigma$ . Then there exist two neighborhoods  $\mathcal{U} \supset \tilde{\mathcal{U}}$  of y and  $\Delta > 0$  such that for any  $x_0 \in \tilde{\mathcal{U}}$  we have

- (i)  $\varphi(t, x_0) \in \mathcal{U}$  for all  $|t| < \Delta$  and
- (ii) there is a unique  $|t_0| < \Delta/2$  such that  $\varphi(t_0, x_0) \in \Sigma \cap \tilde{\mathcal{U}}$

**Lemma 9.** Let  $\Sigma \subset \Omega$  be a transversal, let  $p \in \Omega$ . Then the intersections of  $\gamma^+(p)$  with  $\Sigma$  form a monotone sequence. More precisely: if  $t_1 < t_2 < t_3$  are such that  $\varphi(t_i, p) \in \Sigma$ , i = 1, 2, 3, then either (i)  $\varphi(t_1, p) = \varphi(t_2, p) = \varphi(t_3, p)$ , or (ii) the point  $\varphi(t_2, p)$  lies strictly between  $\varphi(t_1, p)$  and  $\varphi(t_3, p)$ .

**Lemma 10.** Let  $\Sigma \subset \Omega$  be a transversal, let  $p \in \Omega$ . Then  $\omega(p) \cap \Sigma$  consists of at most one point.

**Corollary.** Let  $\Sigma \subset \Omega$  be a transversal, let  $\Gamma \subset \Omega$  be a periodic orbit. Then  $\Gamma \cap \Sigma$  consists of at most one point.

**Theorem 11** (Bendixson-Dulac). Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  be simply connected and let there exist a  $C^1$  function  $B(x): \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\operatorname{div}(Bf)(x) > 0$  a.e. in  $\Omega$ . Then (1) has no (non-trivial) periodic orbit in  $\Omega$ .

# 2. Carathéodory theory

In this chapter I, J denote arbitrary intervals.

**Definition.** Function  $x: I \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is called *absolutely continuous*, denoted  $x \in AC(I)$ , provided that for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is  $\delta > 0$  such that for arbitrary *disjoint* intervals  $(a_i, b_i) \subset I$  one has

$$\sum_{i} |a_i - b_i| < \delta \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \sum_{i} |x(a_i) - x(b_i)| < \varepsilon$$

Function x is called *locally absolutely continuous*, denoted  $x \in AC_{loc}(I)$ , provided that  $x \in AC(J)$  for any compact  $J \subset I$ .

**Proposition 12.** Let  $x \in AC(I)$ . Then a finite derivative x' exists a.e. in I,  $x' \in L^1(I)$  and  $x(t_2) - x(t_1) = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} x'(s) ds$  for all  $t_1, t_2 \in I$ .

**Proposition 13.** Let  $h \in L^1(I)$ , and  $t_0 \in I$  be fixed. Then the function  $x(t) := \int_{t_0}^t h(s) ds$  belongs to AC(I); furthermore x' = h a.e. in I.

#### Notation.

- $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  is an open set of points  $(t, x) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n$ ,
- $U(x_0, \delta)$  is an open ball in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- $Q(t_0, x_0; \delta, \Delta)$  is a cylinder  $U(t_0, \delta) \times U(x_0, \Delta)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ .
- for  $x: I \to \mathbb{R}^n$  we denote graph  $x = \{(t, x(t)); t \in I\}$ .

**Definition.** We say that the function  $f(t,x): \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfies Carathéodory conditions, writing  $f \in Car(\Omega)$ , if for all  $(t_0,x_0) \in \Omega$  there exists a cylinder  $Q(t_0,x_0;\delta,\Delta) \subset \Omega$  and a function  $m \in L^1(U(t_0,\delta))$  such that

- (i) for any  $x \in U(x_0, \Delta)$  the function  $f(\cdot, x)$  is measurable in  $U(t_0, \delta)$ ,
- (ii) for almost every  $t \in U(t_0, \delta)$  the function  $f(t, \cdot)$  is continuous in  $U(x_0, \Delta)$ , and
- (iii)  $|f(t,x)| \leq m(t)$  for a.e. t for all x in  $Q(t_0,x_0;\delta,\Delta)$ .

The phrase "for almost every t for all ..." means: there is a zero measure set N such that for all  $t \in N$  and all ...

**Definition.** Let  $f \in Car(\Omega)$ . Function  $x: I \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a Carathéodory solution to

$$x' = f(t, x) \tag{1}$$

in  $\Omega$ , provided that graph  $x \subset \Omega$ ,  $x \in AC_{loc}(I)$  and one has x'(t) = f(t, x(t)) for a.e.  $t \in I$ .

**Lemma 14.** Let  $f \in Car(\Omega)$ ,  $x : I \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be continuous and graph  $x \subset \Omega$ . Then the function  $t \mapsto f(t, x(t))$  belongs to  $L^1_{loc}(I)$ .

**Lemma 15.** Let  $f \in Car(\Omega)$ ,  $x : I \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a continuous function, and graph  $x \subset \Omega$ . Then x is a Carathéodory solution to (1) if and only if

$$x(t_2) - x(t_1) = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} f(s, x(s)) ds$$
 (2)

for all  $t_1, t_2 \in I$ .

Remark. Based on the above integral formulation, one can develope the theory of AC (Carathéodory) solutions, in an analogy to the  $C^1$  (classical) theory: local existence and uniqueness, maximal solutions, continuous dependence on the initial condition ... We will only prove a certain variant of (a generalized) Picard's theorem, which will include even global existence of solutions together with a continuous dependence on the (initial) data.

**Theorem 16** (Generalized Banach contraction theorem). Let  $\Lambda$ , X be metric spaces, with X being complete and non-empty. Let  $\Phi: \Lambda \times X \to X$  be continuous w.r.t.  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  for any fixed  $x \in X$ . Let (the key assumption of uniform contraction) there exist  $\kappa \in (0,1)$  such that

$$\|\Phi(\lambda,x)-\Phi(\lambda,y)\|_X \leq \kappa \, \|x-y\|_X \quad \, \forall \,\, \lambda \in \Lambda, \,\, x, \,\, y \in X.$$

Then

- (i) for any  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  there is a unique  $x(\lambda) \in X$  such that  $\Phi(\lambda, x(\lambda)) = x(\lambda)$ ,
- (ii) the map  $\lambda \mapsto x(\lambda)$  is continuous, and
- (iii)  $\|y x(\lambda)\|_X \le (1 \kappa)^{-1} \|y \Phi(\lambda, y)\|_X$  for  $\forall \lambda \in \Lambda$ ,  $y \in X$ .

**Theorem 17** (Generalized Picard theorem). Let I = [0, T] be an interval,  $\Pi$  a metric space and  $f: I \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \Pi \to \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfy the following:

- 1.  $f(\cdot, \cdot, p) \in Car(I \times \mathbb{R}^n)$  for all  $p \in \Pi$  fixed
- 2. there exists  $\ell \in L^1(I)$  such that  $|f(t,x,p) f(t,y,p)| \le \ell(t)|x-y|$  for a.e.  $t \in I$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $p \in \Pi$
- 3. the map  $p \mapsto \int_0^t f(s, x(s), p) ds$  is continuous from  $\Pi$  to C(I), for arbitrary fixed  $t \in I$  and  $x \in C(I)$

Then

- (i) for any  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $p_0 \in \Pi$  there exists a unique Caratheodory solution  $x \in AC(I)$  of  $x' = f(t, x, p_0), x(0) = x_0$  and
- (ii) this solution depends continuously on  $x_0$  and  $p_0$

Remark. By continuous dependence we mean: If  $x_{0n} \to x_0$  and  $p_{0n} \to p_0$  then  $x_n \rightrightarrows x$  in I, where  $x_n$  resp. x are the solutions corresponding to  $x_{0n}$ ,  $p_{0n}$  and  $x_0$ ,  $p_0$ , respectively.

Remark. Second assumption of the above theorem can be called a generalized Lipschitz continuity of f(t, x, p) w.r.t. x.

Example. Consider linear equation

$$x' = A(t)x + b(t) \tag{3}$$

where  $A(t):[0,T]\to\mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$ ,  $b(t):[0,T]\to\mathbb{R}^n$  are  $L^1$  functions. Clearly the assumptions of Theorem 17 hold (take  $\ell(t)=\|A(t)\|$ ). The right-hand side b(t) is considered as a parameter in  $\Pi=L^1(0,T)$ . We obtain existence of a global unique solution  $x\in AC(I)$  which depends continuously on  $x_0$  and  $b(\cdot)$ .

# Bifurcation theory

**Definition** (Bifurcation). A point  $(x_0, \mu_0)$  is called *regular point* of the equation

$$x' = f(x, \mu) \tag{4}$$

provided there exist  $\delta > 0$  and  $\mathcal{U}$  a neighborhood of  $x_0$  such that for all  $|\mu - \mu_0| < \delta$  are the dynamical systems of (4) topologically conjugate in  $\mathcal{U}$ .

A point  $(x_0, \mu_0)$  is called a *point of bifurcation* if it is not a regular point.

Remark. Here  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  is called a bifurcation parameter. Typically "bifurcation theorem" describes the behavior near the bifurcation point in a more precise way (e.g. the curve(s) of stationary points and their stability).

Remark. • A non-stationary point of (4) is always regular (by Theorem 4).

• A hyperbolic stationary point is also regular (Hale and Kocak: Dynamics and Bifurcations, Thm 8.15, in 2D; Arnold: Ordinary differential equations, §22, general case).

Hence, a necessary condition for bifurcation is presence of a non-hyperbolic stationary point, i.e.  $f(x_0) = 0$  and  $\nabla f(x_0)$  has an eigenvalue with zero real part.

### Bifurcations in 1D

**Lemma 18** (Division lemma). Let  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  be a neighborhood of (0,0) and  $h \in C^k(U)$ ,  $k \geq 1$ . Let  $h(0,\mu) = 0$  for  $(0,\mu) \in U$ . Then there exists  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  a neighborhood of (0,0) and  $H \in C^{k-1}(V)$  such that  $h(x,\mu) = xH(x,\mu)$  on V. Moreover, one has

- $H(0,0) = \partial_x h(0,0)$ ,
- $\partial_x H(0,0) = \frac{1}{2} \partial_{xx}^2 h(0,0),$
- $\bullet \ \partial_{\mu}H(0,0) = \partial_{x\mu}^2 h(0,0),$
- $\partial_{xx}^2 H(0,0) = \frac{1}{3} \partial_{xxx}^3 h(0,0)$ .

**Theorem 19** (Saddle-node in 1d). Let f be  $C^2$  in a neighborhood of  $(0,0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Let

- f(0,0) = 0,  $\partial_x f(0,0) = 0$ ,
- $\partial_{\mu} f(0,0) \neq 0$ ,
- $\partial_{xx}^2 f(0,0) \neq 0$ .

Then (0,0) is a point of bifurcation of the equation (4). In particular, there are no equilibria for  $\mu < 0$  and two equilibria, one asymptotically stable and one unstable, for  $\mu > 0$  in a neighborhood of 0, or vice versa.

**Theorem 20** (Transcritical in 1d). Let f be  $C^2$  in a neighborhood of  $(0,0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Let

- f(0,0) = 0,  $\partial_x f(0,0) = 0$ ,
- $f(0,\mu) = 0$  (hence also  $\partial_{\mu} f(0,0) = 0$ ) for  $\mu$  close to 0,
- $\partial_{\mu x}^2 f(0,0) \neq 0$ ,
- $\partial_{rr}^2 f(0,0) \neq 0$ .

Then (0,0) is a point of bifurcation. In particular, 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 21** (Pitchfork in 1d). Let f be  $C^2$  in a neighborhood of  $(0,0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Let

- f(0,0) = 0,  $\partial_x f(0,0) = 0$ ,
- $f(0,\mu) = 0$  (hence also  $\partial_{\mu} f(0,0) = 0$ ) for  $\mu$  close to 0,
- $\partial_{\mu x}^2 f(0,0) \neq 0$ ,
- $\partial_{xx}^2 f(0,0) = 0$ ,
- $\partial_{rrr}^3 f(0,0) \neq 0$ .

Then (0,0) is a point of bifurcation. In particular, 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.

### Hopf bifurcation in 2D

Consider the system in a neighborhood of (0,0,0)

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = A_{\mu} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} f(x, y, \mu) \\ g(x, y, \mu) \end{pmatrix}, \tag{5}$$

where

- $\mu$  is a bifurcation parameter
- $A_{\mu}$  is a 2 × 2 matrix dependent  $\mu$  and
- $f, g \in C^3$ , f = g = 0,  $\nabla_{xy} f = \nabla_{xy} g = 0$  in  $(0, 0, \mu)$ .

(f, g contain higher order terms)

Theorem 22 (Hopf). Let

$$\sigma(A_{\mu}) = \{\alpha(\mu) \pm i\omega(\mu)\},\$$

where  $\alpha, \omega \in \mathbb{C}^2$  on a neighborhood of 0 be such that

- $\alpha(0) = 0$ ,
- $\alpha'(0) \neq 0$ ,
- $\omega(0) > 0$ .

Then there exist  $\delta$ ,  $\Delta > 0$  and a function  $\phi \in C^1((0,\delta),(-\Delta,\Delta))$  such that for every  $a \in (0,\delta)$  there exists a nontrivial periodic solution to (5) with  $\mu = \phi(a)$  going through the point (x,y) = (a,0).

**Theorem 23** (Hopf — normal form). Let the assumptions of Theorem 22 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

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

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

$$f_{xxx} + f_{xyy} + g_{xxy} + g_{yyy} + \frac{1}{\omega(0)} [f_{xy}(f_{xx} + f_{yy}) - g_{xy}(g_{xx} + g_{yy}) - f_{xx}g_{xx} + f_{yy}g_{yy}]$$

evaluated in (0,0,0).

### Invariant manifolds

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

$$V_{s} := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} : \exists C, \beta > 0 \ \forall t \geq 0 \ \|e^{tA}x\| \leq Ce^{-\beta t} \},$$

$$V_{u} := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} : \exists C, \beta > 0 \ \forall t \leq 0 \ \|e^{tA}x\| \leq Ce^{\beta t} \},$$

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

Moreover,

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

Consider a nonlinear equation

$$X' = F(X) \tag{6}$$

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

**Definition** (Stable, unstable manifold). Let  $\phi$  be the solving function to (6). We define the *stable manifold*  $\tilde{V}_s$  and *unstable manifold*  $\tilde{V}_u$  in  $0 \in \mathbb{R}^N$  by

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

**Definition** (Center manifold). Let  $V_c$  be the center subspace of  $X' = \nabla F(0)X$ . A center manifold  $\tilde{V}_c$  for (6) in  $0 \in \mathbb{R}^N$  is any invariant manifold, that is tangent to  $V_c$  in 0 and has the same dimension as  $V_c$ .

Remark. Stable and unstable manifolds do exist but it is not clear, whether they are manifolds.

The center manifold is a manifold by definition. But it is not clear whether it exists and is unique.

#### Existence of center manifold

General assumptions. Consider a system of equations

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

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

such that

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

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 24.** Let  $\varepsilon$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $c_0$ , L, b > 0 are given,  $\varepsilon < \beta$ . If  $\sigma$ ,  $\rho$  are small enough, then there exists a unique  $\Phi \in \mathcal{X}_{b,L}$  satisfying

$$(x(t), y(t)) \ solves \ (S) \quad \& \quad y(0) = \Phi(x(0))$$
 
$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad (INV)$$
 
$$y(t) = \Phi(x(t)) \ \forall \, t \geq 0.$$

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

#### Application 1.

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

#### Application 2.

If  $\Re \sigma(\tilde{A}) < 0$ ,  $\Re \sigma(\tilde{B}) > 0$  and we apply Theorem 24 with  $A = -\tilde{B}$  and  $B = -\tilde{A}$ , then graph  $\Phi$  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  $\Phi$  is a center manifold. Let us consider so called reduced equation

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

**Lemma 25.** Let  $\Phi \in \mathcal{X}_{b,L}$ . Then (INV) is equivalent to

$$p \ solves \ (RE) \Rightarrow (p, \Phi(p)) \ solves \ (S).$$
 (RED)

**Lemma 26.** 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 27.** Let  $\Phi \in \mathcal{X}_{b,L}$ . Then (INV) is equivalent to

$$p \ solves \ (\text{RE}) \ with \ p(0) = p_0$$
 
$$\Downarrow \tag{FPP}$$
 
$$\Phi(p_0) = \int\limits_{-\infty}^0 e^{-sB} g(p(s), \Phi(p(s))) ds.$$

### 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

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

and for  $X_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$ 

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

**Lemma 28.** Let  $\sigma$  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 exist  $c, \gamma > 0$  such that: If  $X_1(t) \in V(X_2(t))$  for all  $t \in I$ , then

$$|X_1(t) - X_2(t)| \le ce^{-\gamma(t-s)}|X_1(s) - X_2(s)|$$

for all  $s, t \in I, s < t$ .

**Theorem 29** (Tracking property). Let  $\sigma$  be small enough. For every solution X of (S) there exists a solution p of (RE) such that  $P = (p, \Phi(p))$  satisfies

$$|X(t) - P(t)| < Ce^{-\gamma t}|X(0) - P(0)|$$
 for all  $t > 0$ 

with  $\gamma$  from Lemma 28. Moreover, P(0) can be taken small if X(0) is small.

Corollary 30 (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).

## Approximation of center manifold

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

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

Remark.

$$M\Psi \equiv 0 \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad \Psi \text{ satisfies (INV)}$$

**Theorem 31** (Approximation of center manifold). Let the assumptions of Theorem 24 hold. Assume q > 1 and let  $\Psi \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$  satisfies

- $\Psi(0) = 0$ ,
- $\nabla \Psi(0) = 0$  and
- $[M\Psi](x) = O(|x|^q) \text{ as } x \to 0.$

Then

$$|\Psi(x) - \Phi(x)| = O(|x|^q)$$
 as  $x \to 0$ 

for every  $\Phi \in \mathcal{X}_{b,L}$  satisfying (INV).

# Optimal control

Given

- $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open,
- $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ , usually m < n.
- $f \in C^1(\Omega \times U, \mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $x_0 \in \Omega$
- $0 < T \le +\infty$  and  $\mathcal{U} \subset \{u : [0, T] \to U : u \text{ measurable}\}$

A controlled ordinary differential equation is

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

- Set *U* is set of admissible controls,
- function  $u \in \mathcal{U}$  is (admissible) control
- the solution  $x:[0,T]\to\mathbb{R}^n$  of (CDE) with a given control u is response of the system.

Typical tasks to be addressed:

- 1. for which  $x_0, t > 0$  is there  $u(\cdot) \in \mathcal{U}$  such that x(t) = 0 (controllability)
- 2. analogous question, but with a minimal time t > 0 (time optimal control)
- 3. more generally: find  $u(\cdot) \in \mathcal{U}$  such that the functional

$$P[u(\cdot)] = g(x(T)) + \int_{0}^{T} r(x(s), u(s)) ds$$

has a maximal value.

### Controllability

A controlled linear equation is

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

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

Notation:  $x_0 \xrightarrow{t} 0$  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

$$R(t) = \{x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n : \exists u \in \mathcal{U}, \ x_0 \xrightarrow{t}_u 0\}$$

is called the reachable set for time t.

**Definition.** Kalman controllability matrix for (CLE) is

$$\mathbb{K}(A|B) = (B, AB, A^2B, \dots, A^{n-1}B) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times mn}.$$

**Theorem 32.** Consider (CLE) with  $\mathcal{U} = L^1_{loc}([0,T],\mathbb{R}^m)$ . Then

$$R(t) = \operatorname{Range} \mathbb{K}(A|B)$$

for all t > 0.

Corollary 33. 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.  $0 \in \text{Int } R(t)$ ) for some/every t > 0,
- (iii) rank  $\mathbb{K}(A|B) = n$ .

**Theorem 34.** Let U be any neighborhood of 0 and  $\mathcal{U} = L^1_{loc}([0,T],U)$ . Let  $0 \in \Omega$ , f(0,0) = 0,  $A = \nabla_x f(0,0)$ , and  $B = \nabla_u f(0,0)$ . If rank  $\mathbb{K}(A|B) = n$ , then (CDE) is locally controllable for all t > 0.

### Time-optimal control and Bang-bang principle

In this section we consider (CLE) with

$$U = [-1, 1]^m, \qquad \mathcal{U} = L^1_{loc}([0, T], U).$$

**Proposition 35.** The system (CLE) is locally controllable if and only if rank  $\mathbb{K}(A|B) = n$ .

**Proposition 36.** 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 37.** Let rank  $\mathbb{K}(A|B) = n$  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, ..., m.

**Theorem 38.** For each  $x_0 \in R(t)$  there exists a bang-bang control  $\tilde{u}$  such that  $x_0 \stackrel{t}{\underset{\tilde{u}}{\longrightarrow}} 0$ .

**Theorem 39.** For each  $x_0 \in \bigcup_{t>0} R(t)$  there exists

$$\tilde{t} = \min\{t \ge 0 : x_0 \in R(t)\}$$

and a bang-bang control  $\tilde{u}$  such that  $x_0 \stackrel{\tilde{t}}{\xrightarrow{\tilde{u}}} 0$ .

## 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 40.** Let  $u^* \in \mathcal{U}$  be 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

$$P^{*'} = -\nabla_x H(x^*, P^*, u^*), \quad P^*(T) = (\nabla_x g)(x^*(T))$$
 (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  $H(x, P, u) = P \cdot f(x, u) + r(x, u)$ .