

Ordinary differential equations 2

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- 1. Dynamical systems

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- 3. Bifurcations

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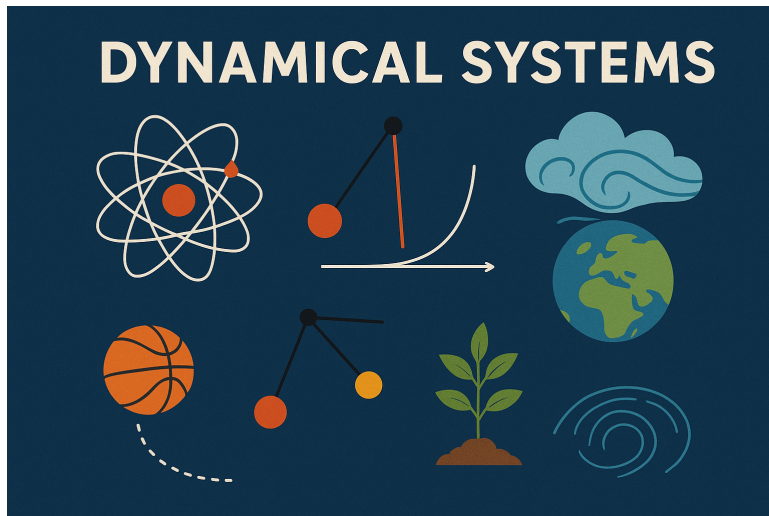
- 1. Dynamical systems
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- 4. Center manifold

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- 3. Bifurcations
- 4. Center manifold
- 5. Control theory

1. Dynamical Systems

Motivation



Definition

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

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While Ω 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 $f = f(x) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ of class C^1 , then $\varphi(t, x_0) := x(t)$, where $x = x(t)$ is the (unique) maximal solution to

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

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).

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- **(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 (φ, Ω) be a dynamical system. We define the ω -limit set of a point $x_0 \in \Omega$ as

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

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Lemma 1

Let (φ, Ω) 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 (φ, Ω) be a dynamical system. Then

1. $\omega(x_0)$ is closed, fully invariant
2. If $\gamma^+(x_0)$ relatively compact in Ω , then $\omega(x_0)$ is non-empty, compact, and connected.

Theorem 3

Let (φ, Ω) be a dynamical system, let $K \subset \Omega$ be compact. Then

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

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

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

Definition

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

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Equivalently, for all t

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

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Remark

Topological conjugacy preserves the key properties of dynamical systems: stationary points and their stability, periodic orbits, ω -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 \mathcal{V} of x_0 ,
- a neighborhood \mathcal{W} of $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and
- a diffeomorphism $g : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$

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

$$y' = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)^T \quad (2)$$

in \mathcal{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.

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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 $\operatorname{Re} \lambda \neq 0$ for any λ 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 $V : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 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 Ω 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 (φ, Ω) be the d.s. given by (1). Let $V : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 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 Ω_ℓ .

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 Ω_ℓ).

Poincaré-Bendixson theory

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Standing assumptions. Throughout this chapter,

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

Theorem 7 (Poincaré-Bendixson.)

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

Reminder

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

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Remark

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

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Geometrically: solutions of (1) traverse Σ 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 $\varphi(t_0, x_0) \in \Sigma \cap \tilde{\mathcal{U}}$*

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Lemma 10

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

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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 $B(x) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\operatorname{div}(Bf)(x) > 0$ a.e. in Ω . Then (1) has no (non-trivial) periodic orbit in Ω .

2. Carathéodory theory

In this chapter I, J denote arbitrary intervals.

Definition

Function $x : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ 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

$$\sum_i |a_i - b_i| < \delta \quad \implies \quad \sum_i |x(a_i) - x(b_i)| < \varepsilon$$

Function x is called **locally absolutely continuous**, denoted $x \in AC_{\text{loc}}(I)$, 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 $t_1, t_2 \in I$.

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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 .

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- for $x : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ we denote graph $x = \{(t, x(t)); t \in I\}$.

Definition

We say that the function $f(t, x) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies **Carathéodory conditions**, writing $f \in \mathcal{C}ar(\Omega)$, 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

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- (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 $f \in \mathcal{C}ar(\Omega)$. Function $x : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a **Carathéodory solution** to

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

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

Lemma 14

Let $f \in \mathcal{C}ar(\Omega)$, $x : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be continuous and $\text{graph } x \subset \Omega$. Then the function $t \mapsto f(t, x(t))$ belongs to $L^1_{\text{loc}}(I)$.

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Lemma 15

Let $f \in \mathcal{C}ar(\Omega)$, $x : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be a continuous function, and $\text{graph } x \subset \Omega$. Then x is a Carathéodory solution to (1) if and only if

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

for all $t_1, t_2 \in I$.

Remark

Based on the above integral formulation, one can develop 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 Λ, X be metric spaces, with X being complete and non-empty. Let $\Phi : \Lambda \times X \rightarrow X$ 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 $\Phi(\lambda, x(\lambda)) = x(\lambda)$,*

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- (ii) the map $\lambda \mapsto x(\lambda)$ is continuous, and*
- (iii) $\|y - x(\lambda)\|_X \leq (1 - \kappa)^{-1} \|y - \Phi(\lambda, y)\|_X$ for $\forall \lambda \in \Lambda$, $y \in X$.*

Theorem 17 (Generalized Picard theorem)

Let $I = [0, T]$ be an interval, Π a metric space and $f : I \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \Pi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfy the following:

1. $f(\cdot, \cdot, p) \in \mathcal{C}ar(I \times \mathbb{R}^n)$ for all $p \in \Pi$ fixed

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2. there exists $\ell \in L^1(I)$ such that
 $|f(t, x, p) - f(t, y, p)| \leq \ell(t)|x - y|$ for a.e. $t \in I$ for all
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- (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

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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 $x_{0n} \rightarrow x_0$ and $p_{0n} \rightarrow p_0$ then $x_n \Rightarrow x$ in I , where x_n resp. x are the solutions corresponding to x_{0n}, p_{0n} and x_0, p_0 , respectively.

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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

$$x' = A(t)x + b(t) \quad (3)$$

where $A(t) : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $b(t) : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ 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, μ_0) is called **regular point** of the equation

$$x' = f(x, \mu) \quad (4)$$

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} .

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A point (x_0, μ_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).

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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

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

Theorem 19 (Saddle-node in 1d)

Let f be C^2 in a neighborhood of $(0, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. Let

- $f(0, 0) = 0, \partial_x f(0, 0) = 0,$
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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 μ close to 0,
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Then $(0, 0)$ is a point of bifurcation.

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

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 μ close to 0,
- $\partial_{\mu x}^2 f(0, 0) \neq 0,$
- $\partial_{xx}^2 f(0, 0) = 0,$
- $\partial_{xxx}^3 f(0, 0) \neq 0.$

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- $\partial_{xxx}^3 f(0, 0) \neq 0.$

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 $(0, 0, 0)$

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

where

- μ is a bifurcation parameter
- A_μ is a 2×2 matrix dependent μ 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 $\alpha, \omega \in C^2$ on a neighborhood of 0 be such that

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

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

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

$$A_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\omega(0) \\ \omega(0) & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

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

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

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

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

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 $F(0) = 0$.

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Definition (Stable, unstable manifold)

Let ϕ 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

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

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

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 .

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Remark

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

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Remark

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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

$$\begin{aligned}x' &= Ax + f(x, y), \\y' &= By + g(x, y),\end{aligned}\tag{S}$$

such that

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $x^T Ax \geq -\varepsilon |x|^2$,

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- for some $\beta > \varepsilon > 0$, $c_0 > 0$ and all $t \geq 0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

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- for some $\beta > \varepsilon > 0$, $c_0 > 0$ and all $t \geq 0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$.
- $f(0, 0) = g(0, 0) = 0$, $\nabla f(0, 0) = \nabla g(0, 0) = 0$,
- $|f|, |g| < \rho$, $|\nabla f|, |\nabla g| < \sigma$ on \mathbb{R}^{n+m} for some $\sigma, \rho > 0$.

Define

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

Theorem 24

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

$$(x(t), y(t)) \text{ solves (S) \quad \& \quad } y(0) = \Phi(x(0))$$

$$\Downarrow$$

(INV)

$$y(t) = \Phi(x(t)) \quad \forall t \geq 0.$$

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

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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 Φ is the stable manifold for the system with \tilde{A} , \tilde{B} .

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Application 3.

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

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

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Lemma 25

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

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

Lemma 26

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

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Lemma 27

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

p solves (RE) with $p(0) = p_0$

\Downarrow

(FPP)

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

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.

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

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 σ be small enough and let $X_1, X_2 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$, $X_1 = (x_1, y_1)$, $X_2 = (x_2, y_2)$ 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 $t \geq 0$.*

Lemma 28

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- If $X_1(0) \in K(X_2(0))$, then $X_1(t) \in K(X_2(t))$ for all $t \geq 0$.
- There exist $c, \gamma > 0$ such that: If $X_1(t) \in V(X_2(t))$ for all $t \in I$, then

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

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

Theorem 29 (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

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

with γ 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 (asymptotically) stable for (S) if and only if $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is (asymptotically) stable for (RE).

Approximation of center manifold

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

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

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Remark

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

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
- $[M\Psi](x) = O(|x|^q)$ as $x \rightarrow 0$.

Theorem 31 (Approximation of center manifold)

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

Then

$$|\Psi(x) - \Phi(x)| = O(|x|^q) \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow 0$$

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 $x_0 \in \Omega$
- $0 < T \leq +\infty$ and
 $\mathcal{U} \subset \{u : [0, T] \rightarrow U : u \text{ measurable}\}$

A controlled ordinary differential equation is

$$x' = f(x, u), \quad x(0) = x_0. \quad (\text{CDE})$$

- Set \mathcal{U} is **set of admissible controls**,
- function $u \in \mathcal{U}$ is **(admissible) control**
- the solution $x : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ 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

$$x' = Ax + Bu, \quad (\text{CLE})$$

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

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

Notation: $x_0 \xrightarrow[u]{t} 0$ means “control u brings x_0 to 0 in time t ”, i.e. if we insert u into (CLE), then the solution x of (CLE) 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 .

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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

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

for all $t > 0$.

Theorem 32

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

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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) $\text{rank } \mathbb{K}(A|B) = n$.

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 $\text{rank } \mathbb{K}(A|B) = n$, then (CDE) is locally controllable for all $t > 0$.

Time-optimal control and Bang-bang principle

In this section we consider (CLE) with

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

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Proposition 35

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

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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 $R(t_1) \subset R(t_2)$.

In this section we consider (CLE) with

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

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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 $\text{rank } \mathbb{K}(A|B) = n$ 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 $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$.

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Theorem 38

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

Theorem 39

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 $x_0 \xrightarrow[\tilde{u}]{\tilde{t}} 0$.

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 $P^* : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ to the adjoint equation*

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

and the maximum principle

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

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