Lecture 01: Existence and uniqueness theorems and flows

Introduction

The expounded material can be found in

- ch. 2 of N. Berglund's lecture notes [1]
- ch. 1 of [2]

1 Existence and uniqueness theorems

Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. For any $x \in D$ we consider the ordinary differential equation

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}}_t = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_t) \tag{1.1a}$$

$$\boldsymbol{x}_0 = \boldsymbol{x} \tag{1.1b}$$

driven by the vector field

$$\boldsymbol{f} \colon \boldsymbol{D} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n \tag{1.2}$$

We denote by $C^r(D; \mathbb{R}^n) \equiv C^r(D)$ the space of \mathbb{R}^n -valued vector fields with support over D which are r-times continuously differentiable. We then posit $\mathbf{f} \in C^r(D)$ for some $r \ge 0$.

A differential problem (1.1) specified by an *evolution law* (1.1a) and an initial data (1.1b) is also often called a *Cauchy problem*. Equation (1.1b) fixes the *initial data* or *initial condition* for t = 0.

1.1 Existence

Theorem 1.1 (Peano–Cauchy). Let $f \in C(D)$ i.e. let f be a continuous vector field over D. For every $x \in D$, there exists at least one local solution of (1.1) through x, that is, there is an open interval I such that $0 \in I$ and a function

 $\boldsymbol{x}_t \colon I \mapsto D \tag{1.3}$

such that (1.1a) and (1.1b) are satisfied for $t \in I$.

The support I of a solution x_t can be extended as long as x_t remains finite.

Proposition 1.1. Every solution

$$\boldsymbol{x}_t \colon I \mapsto D \tag{1.4}$$

starting from $\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{x}$ can be continued to a maximal interval of existence $I_{\max} = (t_{\min}, t_{\max})$ comprising the time t = 0 when the initial condition is assigned. If $t_{\max} < \infty$ or $t_{\min} > -\infty$, then for any compact $K \subset D$ exists a time $t \in I_{\max}$ such that $\mathbf{x}_t \notin K$.

In other words, the proposition states that either there is a time t for which

$$\boldsymbol{x}_t \in \partial D$$
 (1.5)

i.e. reaches the boundary of D or the solution diverges. Very simple vector fields (1.2) may bring about explosions. Example 1.1. For example

$$\dot{x}_t = \alpha \, x_t^2 \tag{1.6}$$

admits the solution

$$x_t = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{x} - \alpha t} \tag{1.7}$$

For any $x \in \mathbb{R}_+$ the solution diverges in finite time:

$$t_{\rm expl} = \frac{1}{\alpha \, x} \tag{1.8}$$

Note the physical dimension of the problem

The vector field (1.2) is ("time")-autonomous. This means that it does not depend explicitly upon the "time" variable with respect to which we differentiate x_t .

Proposition 1.2. Let

$$\boldsymbol{x}_t = \boldsymbol{\phi}(t, \boldsymbol{x}) \equiv \boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x}) \tag{1.10}$$

be the unique solution of (1.1). Then $\tilde{x}_t = x_{t-t_0}$ is the unique solution of the Cauchy problem evolving according to (1.1a) from the initial data

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_{t_{\mathrm{o}}} = \boldsymbol{x} \tag{1.11}$$

assigned at $t_o \neq 0$.

Proof. By (1.10)

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_t = \boldsymbol{\phi}(t - t_o, \boldsymbol{x}) \equiv \boldsymbol{\phi}_{t - t_o}(\boldsymbol{x}) \tag{1.12}$$

hence for any $t_{o} \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}}_{t-t_{o}} = \frac{d\boldsymbol{\phi}}{dt}(t-t_{o},\boldsymbol{x}) = \left.\frac{d\boldsymbol{\phi}}{du}(u,\boldsymbol{x})\right|_{u=t-t_{o}} = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_{u})|_{u=t-t_{o}} = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_{t-t_{o}})$$
(1.13)

which yields the claim.

The important consequence of the above proposition is that solutions of autonomous differential equations depend only upon the time *elapsed* from the moment t_0 the initial condition is assigned but not upon t_0 itself. Non-autonomous systems such as

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}}_t = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_t, t) \tag{1.14}$$

can always be regarded as autonomous systems in a space with one dimension more. Upon defining

$$u = t \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \dot{f}(t) = \frac{df}{dt}(t) \equiv \frac{df}{du}(u)$$
 (1.15)

we can write

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}}_u = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_t, t) \tag{1.16a}$$

$$\dot{t}_u = 1 \tag{1.16b}$$

Hence if we define $E = D \times I \subset \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ with

$$\boldsymbol{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{x} \\ t \end{bmatrix} \in E \qquad \& \qquad \boldsymbol{g} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{f} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} : E \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$$
 (1.17)

we arrive to the autonomous dynamical system

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{y}}_u = \boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{y}_u) \tag{1.18a}$$

$$\boldsymbol{y}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{x} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{1.18b}$$

1.2 Uniqueness

Theorem 1.2 (Picard–Lindelöf). Suppose that $f \in C(D)$ and locally Lipschitzian that is, for every compact $K \subset D$ there exists a constant $L_K \in \mathbb{R}_+$ such that

$$\| \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) - \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{y}) \| \le L_K \| \boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y} \|$$
(1.19)

for all x and y belonging to K. Then there is a unique solution of (1.1) for each initial data in D

We notice that a differentiable function satisfies the Lipschitz condition.

Example 1.2. The ordinary differential equation

$$\dot{x}_t = \alpha \left| x_t \right|^{1/3} \tag{1.20}$$

 \dot{x}

is driven by a vector field non differentiable in zero. In general we can integrate (1.20) and obtain

$$x_t = \left(x^{2/3} + \frac{2}{3}\alpha t\right)^{3/2} \tag{1.21}$$

If, however, we assign the initial data to be x = 0 we can find the solutions (1.21), and also

$$x_t = 0 \tag{1.22}$$

We can combine these solutions together and generate a one parameter t_* family of solutions taking the form

$$x_t = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \le t \le t_* \\ \left(x^{2/3} + \frac{2}{3}\alpha t\right)^{3/2} & t_* < t \end{cases}$$
(1.23)

An important implication of the Picard–Lindelöf theorem is that *for any finite time* different solutions of (1.1) driven by a smooth vector field cannot intersect. Namely we have

Proposition 1.3. For any $x \in D$ there exists only one solution of (1.1) with $f \in C^r(D)$, $r \ge 1$ passing through this point.

Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{x}_t^{(i)}, i = 1, 2$ solutions of (1.1) satisfying

$$x_{t_1}^{(1)} = x$$

 $x_{t_2}^{(2)} = x$ (1.24)

Since (1.1) is autonomous

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_t = \boldsymbol{x}_{t-(t_1-t_2)} \tag{1.25}$$

is also a solution of (1.1) satisfying

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_{t_1} = \boldsymbol{x}_{t_2}^{(2)} = \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{x}_{t_1}^{(1)}$$
(1.26)

We thus see that our starting assumption leads to a contradiction with the Picard–Lindelöf theorem. \Box

1.3 Smooth dependence upon initial data

Let us now suppose that the vector field f in (1.1a) carries a *parametric* dependence upon a set of parameters. Specifically let us suppose that

$$\boldsymbol{f} \in \mathbf{C}^r(D_1 \times D_2; \mathbb{R}^n) \tag{1.27}$$

We will denote by x coordinates over $D_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and by y coordinates over $D_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ so that

$$\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \tag{1.28}$$

Note that we are not assuming any relation between the integers m and n.

Theorem 1.3 (Picard–Lindelöf). Suppose that $r \ge 1$ in (1.27). In words: f is at least once continuously differentiable with respect to all its arguments. Let I the maximal interval of existence of the unique solution of the ordinary differential equation

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}}_t = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_t; \boldsymbol{y}) \tag{1.29a}$$

$$\boldsymbol{x}_0 = \boldsymbol{x} \tag{1.29b}$$

Under these hypotheses we can write the unique solution of (1.29) as

$$\boldsymbol{x}_t = \boldsymbol{\phi}(t, \boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{y}) \equiv \boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{y}) \tag{1.30}$$

where

$$\phi_t \in C^r(I \times D_1 \times D_2, D_1) \tag{1.31}$$

Thus, under smoothness assumptions over the vector field f we are entitled to consider derivatives of solutions (1.29) with respect to *all* its parametric dependencies. Moreover, if we generically denote by x'_t the derivative of x_t with respect to any of its parameters the same notation may apply to three different cases:

1. $\boldsymbol{\xi}'_t \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ if

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}_{t}^{\prime} = \partial_{\boldsymbol{y}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\xi}_{t} \equiv \partial_{\boldsymbol{y}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{t}(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{y})$$
(1.32)

2. $\boldsymbol{\xi}_t' \in \mathbb{R}^{n^2}$ if

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}_{t}^{\prime} = \partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\xi}_{t} \equiv \partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{t}(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{y})$$
(1.33)

3. $\boldsymbol{\xi}'_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}_t' = \dot{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_t \equiv \dot{\boldsymbol{\Phi}}_t(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{y}) \tag{1.34}$$

For the first case we have that

$$\dot{oldsymbol{\xi}}_t^{\prime} = oldsymbol{\xi}_t^{\prime} \cdot \partial_{oldsymbol{\xi}_t} oldsymbol{f}(oldsymbol{\xi}_t;oldsymbol{y}) + \partial_{oldsymbol{y}} \otimes oldsymbol{f}(oldsymbol{\xi}_t,oldsymbol{y})$$

as the dependence upon the parameters y is explicit. In the remaining two cases, the dependence upon the parameters is implicit through the trajectory. We find that

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_{t}^{\prime} = \boldsymbol{\xi}_{t}^{\prime} \cdot \partial_{\boldsymbol{\xi}_{t}} \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{t}) \tag{1.35}$$

For all the above cases it is expedient to define

$$\mathbf{A}_t^{ij} = (\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}_t^j} \otimes \boldsymbol{f}^i)(\boldsymbol{x}_t) \tag{1.36}$$

In other words, A defines an endomorphism of \mathbb{R}^n : with slight abuse of language $A \in End(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Proposition 1.4. Let t denote the transposition operation, then

$$\mathsf{A}_t := (\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}_t} \otimes \boldsymbol{f})(\boldsymbol{x}_t) \tag{1.37}$$

and

$$\mathsf{F}_t := (\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi}_t)(\boldsymbol{x}) \tag{1.38}$$

then

$$\dot{\mathsf{F}}_t = \mathsf{A}_t \,\mathsf{F}_t \tag{1.39}$$

Proof. By hypothesis

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{\phi}_t}{\mathrm{d}t}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \lim_{\mathrm{d}t\downarrow 0} \frac{\boldsymbol{\phi}_{t+\mathrm{d}t}(\boldsymbol{x}) - \boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x})}{\mathrm{d}t} = \lim_{\mathrm{d}t\downarrow 0} \frac{\boldsymbol{\phi}_{\mathrm{d}t} \circ \boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x}) - \boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x})}{\mathrm{d}t} = \boldsymbol{f} \circ \boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x})$$
(1.40)

hence it follows

$$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \dot{\boldsymbol{\phi}}_t(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x}) = (\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi}_t)(\boldsymbol{x}) \cdot \partial_{\boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x})} \boldsymbol{f} \circ \boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x}) = (\partial_{\boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x})} \otimes \boldsymbol{f})^{\mathsf{t}} \circ \boldsymbol{\phi}_t(\boldsymbol{x}) \cdot (\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi})_t(\boldsymbol{x}) = \mathsf{A}_t \mathsf{F}_t$$
(1.41)

Of particular interest is the variation with respect to initial data

Definition 1.1. We will refer to the quantity

$$\mathsf{F}_t = (\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi}_t)(\boldsymbol{x}) \tag{1.42}$$

as the fundamental solution of the linearized dynamics.

By construction (1.42) satisfies the initial condition

$$F_0 = 1$$
 (1.43)

Namely from

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}_0(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{x} \tag{1.44}$$

it follows that

$$\mathsf{F}_0 \equiv \partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi}_0(\boldsymbol{x}) = 1 \tag{1.45}$$

Example 1.3. Let us consider again

$$\dot{x}_t = \alpha x_t^2 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad x_t = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{x} - \alpha t}$$
 (1.46)

We have then

$$\partial_x x_t = \frac{1}{(\frac{1}{x} - \alpha t)^2 x^2} := x'_t \tag{1.47}$$

which satisfies

$$\dot{x}'_t = \frac{2\alpha}{(\frac{1}{x} - \alpha t)^3 x^2} = 2\alpha x_t x'_t$$
(1.48)

as expected form direct differentiation of the ordinary differential equation in (1.46).

Flows: terminology 2

Definition 2.1 (Homeomorphism). Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be an open domain. A map $\phi: D \mapsto D$ is called an homeomorphism if it is continuous and admits a continuous inverse.

Definition 2.2 (Diffeomorphism). Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be an open domain. A map $\phi: D \mapsto D$ is called a diffeomorphism if it is continuously differentiable and admits a continuously differentiable inverse.

Definition 2.3. Similarly, for all $r \ge 1$, a C^r -diffeomorphism is an invertible map $\phi: D \mapsto D$ such that both ϕ and ϕ^{-1} admit continuous derivatives up to order r.

Definition 2.4 (flow). A one parameter family of diffeomorphisms Φ_t

$$\Phi: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n \tag{2.1}$$

such that

$$\Phi_0 = 1$$

$$\Phi_t \Phi_s = \Phi_{t+s}$$
(2.2)

is called flow.

The definition of flow implies $\Phi_{-t} = \Phi_t^{-1}$ and therefore that Φ forms a one parameter t group of transformations. The combined use of the existence and uniqueness theorems for (1.1) allows us to conclude that

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Proposition 2.1. The solution of (1.1) regarded as the map $\phi \colon \mathbb{R} \times D \mapsto D$ is a flow to which we will also refer as the fundamental solution of (1.1).

3 Evolution of volumes

Proposition 3.1. Let $f \in C^r(D)$ with $r \ge 1$ and let $M \subset D$. Let us denote by M_t the image of M through the flow ϕ of (1.1) with f sufficiently regular. Let us define

$$V_t^{[M]} = \operatorname{Vol}(M_t) \tag{3.1}$$

then we have

$$\dot{V}_{t}^{[M]} = \int_{M_{t}} \mathrm{d}^{n} x \left(\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \cdot \boldsymbol{f} \right)(\boldsymbol{x})$$
(3.2)

Proof. The flow being a diffeomorphism means that

1. ϕ is differentiable with the initial data

$$V_t^{[M]} = \int_{M_t} \mathrm{d}^n x = \int_M \mathrm{d}^n x \, \left| \det(\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi}_t)(\boldsymbol{x}) \right| \tag{3.3}$$

2. ϕ is invertible thus

$$\phi_0(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{x} \tag{3.4}$$

implies

$$\det(\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi}_0)(\boldsymbol{x}) = \det \mathbf{1} = 1 \tag{3.5}$$

and

$$\det(\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi}_t)(\boldsymbol{x}) > 0 \tag{3.6}$$

The strict inequality holds because otherwise

$$\mathsf{F}_t = (\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi}_t)(\boldsymbol{x}) \tag{3.7}$$

solving the associated linearized dynamics

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}}' = \boldsymbol{x}' \cdot \partial_{\boldsymbol{x}_t} \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_t) \equiv (\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}_t} \otimes \boldsymbol{f})(\boldsymbol{x}_t) \cdot \boldsymbol{x}'$$
(3.8)

would not be invertible. This is a contradiction because F_t is the unique fundamental solution of the linearized dynamics.

We arrived at

$$V_t^{[M]} = \int_{M_t} \mathrm{d}^n x = \int_M \mathrm{d}^n x \, \det(\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \otimes \boldsymbol{\phi}_t)(\boldsymbol{x}) \tag{3.9}$$

We observe that for any strictly positive matrix A the equality

$$\ln \det \mathsf{A} = \operatorname{tr} \ln \mathsf{A} \tag{3.10}$$

holds true. Then

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\operatorname{tr}\ln\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}\otimes\boldsymbol{\phi}_{t} = \operatorname{tr}(\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}\otimes\boldsymbol{\phi}_{t})^{-1}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}(\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}\otimes\boldsymbol{\phi}_{t})
= \operatorname{tr}(\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}\otimes\boldsymbol{\phi}_{t})^{-1}(\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}\otimes\boldsymbol{\phi}_{t})\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}_{t}}\otimes\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_{t}) = \operatorname{tr}\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}_{t}}\otimes\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_{t}) = (\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}_{t}}\cdot\boldsymbol{f})(\boldsymbol{x}_{t})$$
(3.11)

References

- [1] N. Berglund. Geometrical theory of dynamical systems. ETH lecture notes, 2001, arXiv:math/0111177.
- [2] S. Wiggins. *Introduction to applied nonlinear dynamical systems and chaos*, volume 2 of *Texts in applied mathematics*. Springer, 2 edition, 2003.