

Three Lectures on:
Control of Coupled Fast and Slow Dynamics

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Control of Coupled Fast and Slow Dynamics

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Plan:

Modeling

Variational Limits

Classical Approach to slow-fast dynamics

What limits are appropriate? Young Measures

Modern Approach to slow-fast dynamics

Other chattering limits and averaging techniques

Control Invariant Measures

Stabilization

Optimal Control

Some special cases

Computations, error estimates

A Future Direction

Lecture 2

Plan:

- ✓ Modeling
- ✓ Variational Limits
- ✓ Classical Approach to slow-fast dynamics
- ✓ What limits are appropriate? Young Measures
- ✓ Modern Approach to slow-fast dynamics

Other chattering limits and averaging techniques

Control Invariant Measures

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A Future Direction

Recall: Singularly perturbed control systems:

minimize $\int_a^b c(x, y, u) dt$

subject to $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y, u)$
 $\epsilon \frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y, u)$

$$x(a) = x_0$$

$$y(a) = y_0$$

$$u \in U$$

Where: x in R^n the slow and y in R^m the fast, variables

Of interest: The behavior of the system as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$

The general variational limit solution is of the form:

$$(x(t), \mu(x(t)))$$

Where: $x(t)$ solves the averaging equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \int_{Y \times U} f(x, y, u) \mu(x)(dy \times du),$$

$\mu(x)(dy \times du)$ is a Young measure (parameterized by x)

and the limit cost is based on **averaging**:

$$\int_a^b \int_{Y \times U} c(x(t), y, u) \mu(x(t))(dy \times du) dt$$

Notice, the values of the Young measure are the **control variables**, (replacing the equilibrium points in the classical case)

A question:

Under what conditions is

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \int_{Y \times U} f(x, y, u) \mu(dy \times du)$$

$$\mu \in IM(x)$$

a variational limit of

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y, u)$$

$$\epsilon \frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y, u)$$

A Theorem:

The conditions are:

- Regularity (modest) of $f(x, y, u)$ and $g(x, y, u)$
- Uniform boundedness and controllability of solutions of

$$\epsilon \frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y, u)$$

- The set-valued map

$$F(x) = \left\{ \int_{Y \times U} f(x, y, u) \mu(dy \times du) : \mu \in IM(x) \right\}$$

is Lipschitz

Other chattering limits and averaging techniques

The classical averaging:

Consider a smooth ordinary differential equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f\left(x, \frac{t}{\epsilon}\right), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

where $f(x, t)$ periodic with period T .

The solutions converge as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ to the solution of

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f_0(x), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

where $f_0(x) = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(\tau, x) d\tau$

More general averaging:

Consider an ordinary differential equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f_\epsilon(x, t), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

If for every x the functions $f_\epsilon(x, t)$ converge weakly to $f_0(x, t)$ then the solution converge to the solution of

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f_0(x, t), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

A different averaging (known to the Greeks):

Consider a **scalar** ordinary differential equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f\left(\frac{x}{\epsilon}\right), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

Where $f(x)$ is periodic

say $f(x) = 1$ if $2k \leq x < 2k + 1$

$f(x) = 2$ if $2k + 1 \leq x < 2k + 2$



Consider a **scalar** ordinary differential equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f\left(\frac{x}{\epsilon}\right), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

Where $f(x)$ is periodic

say $f(x) = 1$ if $2k \leq x < 2k + 1$

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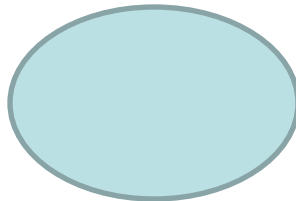
The correct average is the **harmonic average**

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{4}{3}, \quad \text{in the example}$$

Homogenization – An example:

Heat Equation with a constant conductivity:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \alpha \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z^2} \right)$$

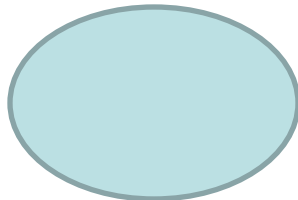


$$u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega$$

Heat Equation with a varying conductivity:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \operatorname{div}(\alpha(\omega) \operatorname{grad} u)$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\alpha(\omega) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\alpha(\omega) \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\alpha(\omega) \frac{\partial u}{\partial z})$$



$$u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega$$

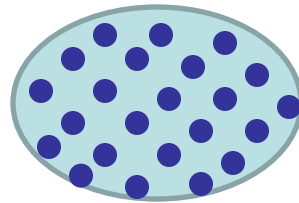
Heat Equation in one dimension with a varying conductivity:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\alpha(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)$$

$$u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega$$

Heat Equation with a varying conductivity:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \operatorname{div}(\alpha(\omega) \operatorname{grad} u)$$



$$u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega$$

u is continuous

Heat Equation in one dimension with periodic conductivity:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\alpha(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)$$

$u = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$

u is continuous



α periodic

Suppose α changes rapidly $\alpha = \alpha\left(\frac{x}{\epsilon}\right)$ with small ϵ
Can we average by taking the average of α ?

NO !!

The reason: Look at the equation with the small parameter

$$\frac{\partial u_\epsilon}{\partial t} = \operatorname{div}(\alpha_\epsilon(\omega) \operatorname{grad} u_\epsilon)$$

The functions u converges strongly

The functions α_ϵ and $\operatorname{grad} u_\epsilon$ converge weakly but their product does not converge to the product of the weak limits.

An appropriate average is needed

Heat Equation in one dimension with periodic conductivity:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\alpha(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)$$

$u = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$

u is continuous



Suppose α changes rapidly $\alpha = \alpha\left(\frac{x}{\epsilon}\right)$ with small ϵ
The right average is the harmonic average of α

In more dimensions and more complicated structures and other equations – consult homogenization theory

Oscillatory solution of partial differential equations (Compensated compactness)



Luc Tartar

Main idea: Use the compactness to identify a limit then try to verify that the limit is a function
(Compensated compactness)

Oscillatory patterns in elasticity:



John M. Ball



Richard D. James

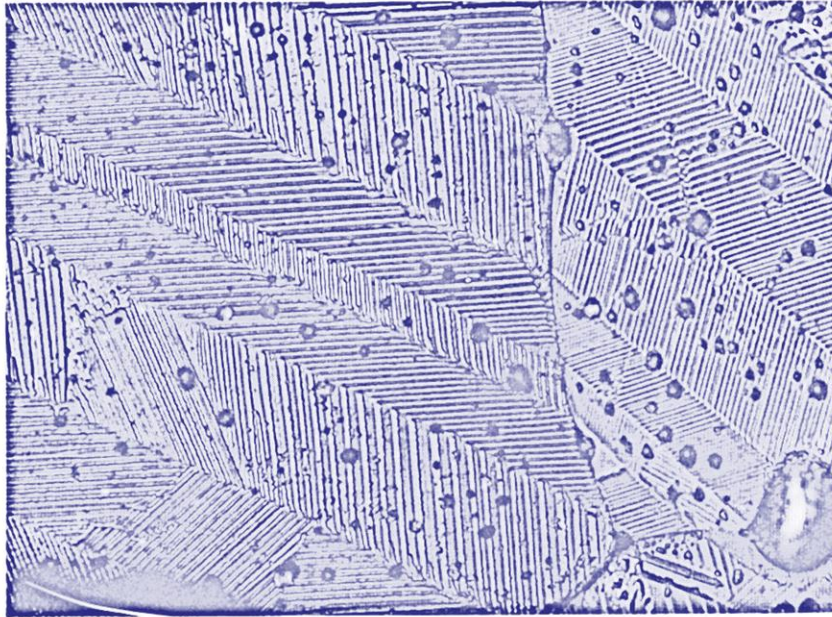
Wrote a variational problem for the arrangement of atoms in solids under stress. The optimal solution is a Young Measure, thus cannot be realized in reality?

What does Nature do then?

Applied Platonism:

Nature is a very good approximation
of Mathematics

An earthy approximation of the ideal mathematics



John M. Ball and Richard D. James
1992

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- ✓ What limits are appropriate? Young Measures
- ✓ Modern Approach to slow-fast dynamics
- ✓ Other chattering limits and averaging techniques

Control Invariant Measures

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A Future Direction

Recall: The variational limit for Singularly Perturbed ODE:

$$(x(t), \mu(x(t)))$$

where $\mu(x)(dy)$ is a Young measure
and $x(t)$ solves the averaging equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \int_Y f(x, y) \mu(t)(dy)$$

Recall: The variational limit for SP control systems:

$$(x(t), \mu(x(t)))$$

Where: $x(t)$ solves the averaging equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \int_{Y \times U} f(x, y, u) \mu(x)(dy \times du),$$

$\mu(x)(dy \times du)$ is a Young measure (parameterized by x)

and the limit cost is based on **averaging**:

$$\int_a^b \int_{Y \times U} c(x(t), y, u) \mu(x(t))(dy \times du) dt$$

Notice, the values of the Young measure are the **control variables**, (replacing the equilibrium points in the classical case)

Recall the question:

Could any probability measure be a value for the Young Measure of the variational limit?

If not, how can the possible values be classified and identified?

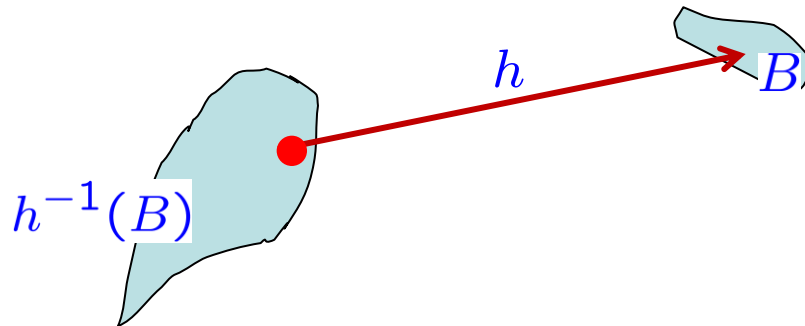
Definition: An invariant measure of a mapping:

$$h(z) : Z \rightarrow Z$$

The probability measure $\mu(dz)$ on Z is invariant with respect to H if

$$\mu(h^{-1}(B)) = \mu(B)$$

for every measurable set B .



An observation:

The invariant measures of a mapping form a convex set in the space of probability measures.

Follows from $\mu(h^{-1}(B)) = \mu(B)$

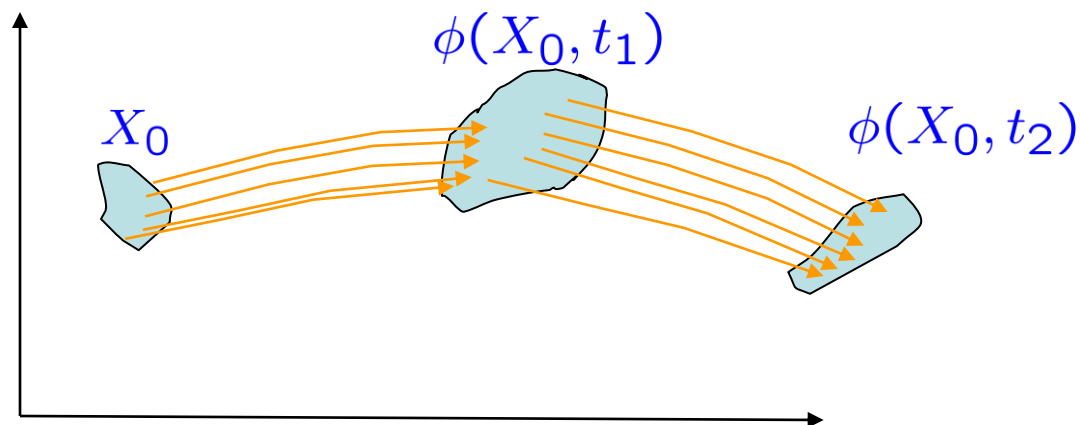
An invariant measure of an ordinary differential equation (with the uniqueness of solutions property):

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x)$$

Is an invariant measure of the solution map

$$\phi(x_0, t)$$

for every time t .



An important property: convergence of occupational measures to an invariant measure

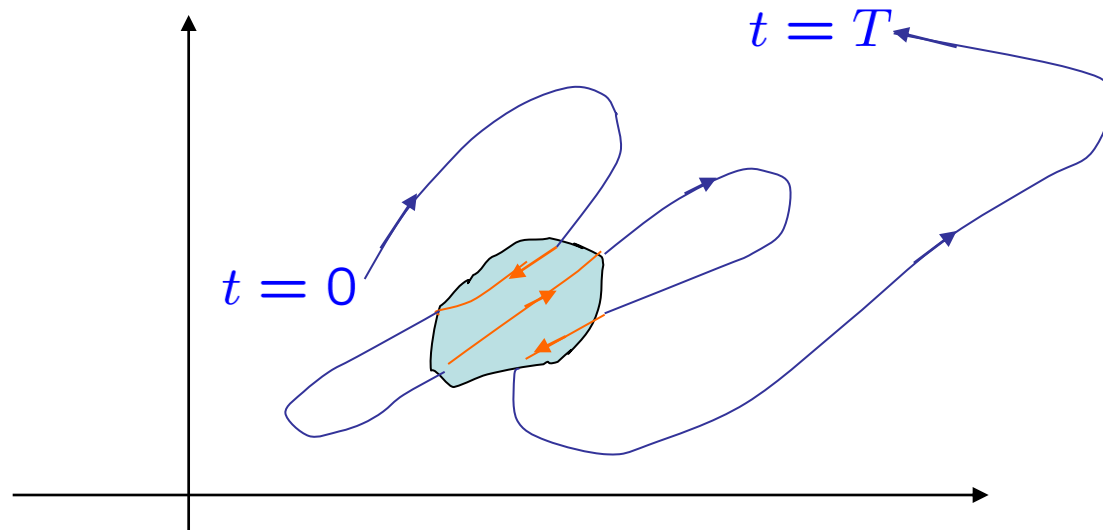


N.M. Kryloff
1879-1955



N. Bogoliuboff
1909-1992

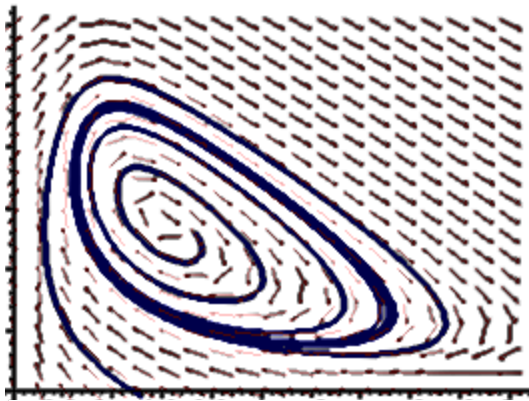
A probability measure determined by the relative time a trajectory spends in a given set, when the time is long, is almost an invariant measure of the differential equation. In the limit it converges to an invariant measure.



The Poincare-Bendixson Theorem:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x)$$

In two dimensions, every bounded trajectory that stays away from rest points converges to a periodic orbit.



A consequence:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x)$$

In two dimensions, every invariant measure is supported on periodic orbits and rest points

Back to the variational limit for Singularly perturbed ODE:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= f(x, y) \\ \epsilon \frac{dy}{dt} &= g(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

The limit is of the form $(x(t), \mu(x(t)))$ where $\mu(x)(dy)$ is a Young measure

Theorem: The values of this Young measure are invariant measures of

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y)$$

A consequence:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y)$$

$$\epsilon \frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y)$$

If y is two dimensional then the limit is composed of limit cycles and rest points of

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y)$$

Recall: A mathematical example capturing reality:
An elastic structure in a rapidly flowing nearly
inviscid fluid

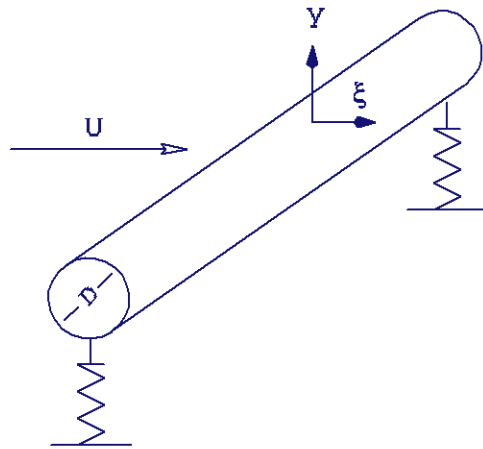


Figure 1

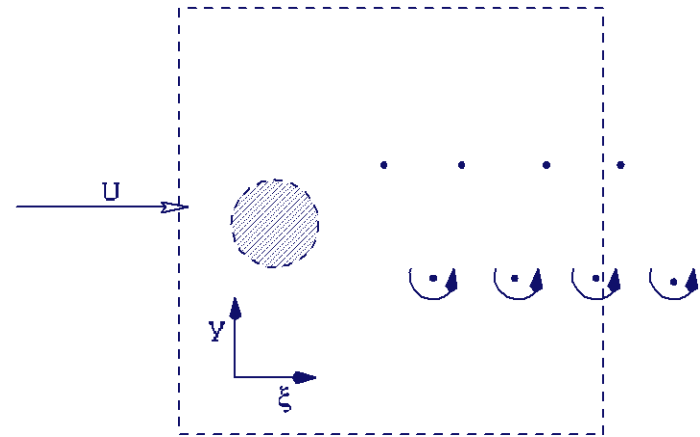


Figure 2

To make the long story short:

Based on a model of Iwan/Belvins and Dowel/Ilgamov, the limit (after normalization) equations:

$$\frac{dx_1}{dt} = x_2$$

$$\frac{dx_2}{dt} = -\alpha_1 x_1 - \alpha_2 x_2 \beta_3 \theta_1 + \beta_4 F(\gamma \theta_2)$$

$$\epsilon \frac{d\theta_1}{dt} = \theta_2$$

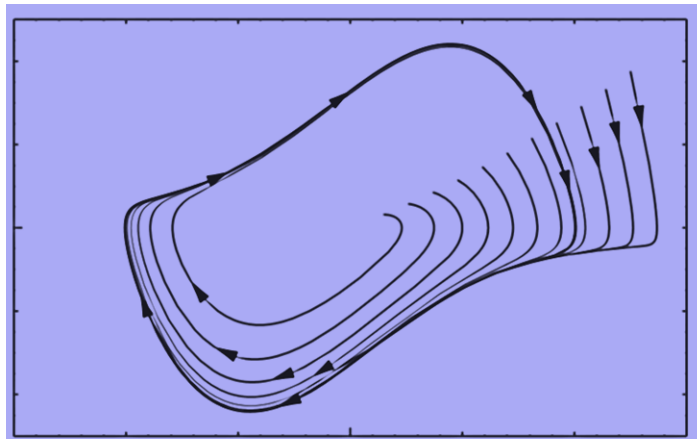
$$\epsilon \frac{d\theta_2}{dt} = -\beta_1 \theta_1 + \beta_3 F(\gamma \theta_2) - \alpha_3 x_1 - \alpha_4 x_2$$

With $F(\theta)$ a generator of a van der Pol oscillator

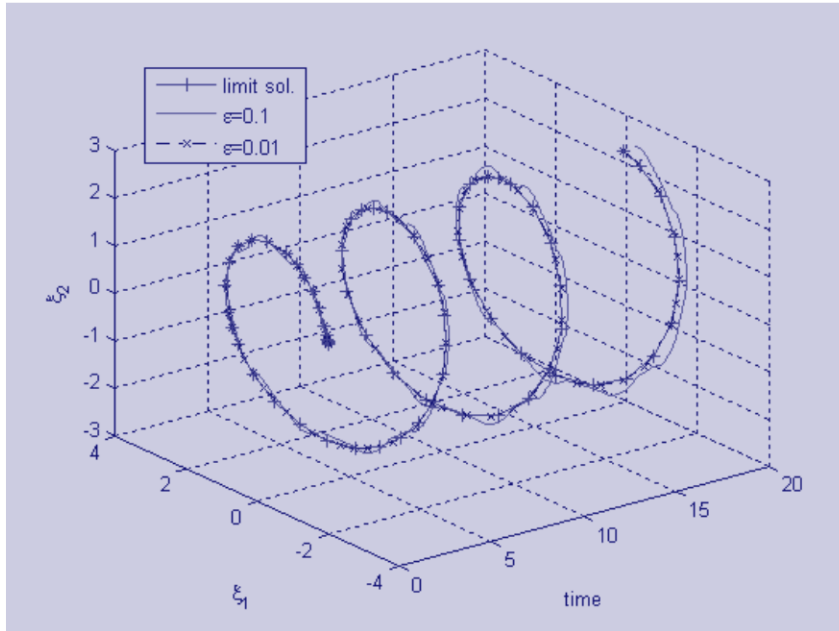
The phase portrait of the van der pol oscillator:

$$\frac{d\theta_1}{dt} = \theta_2$$

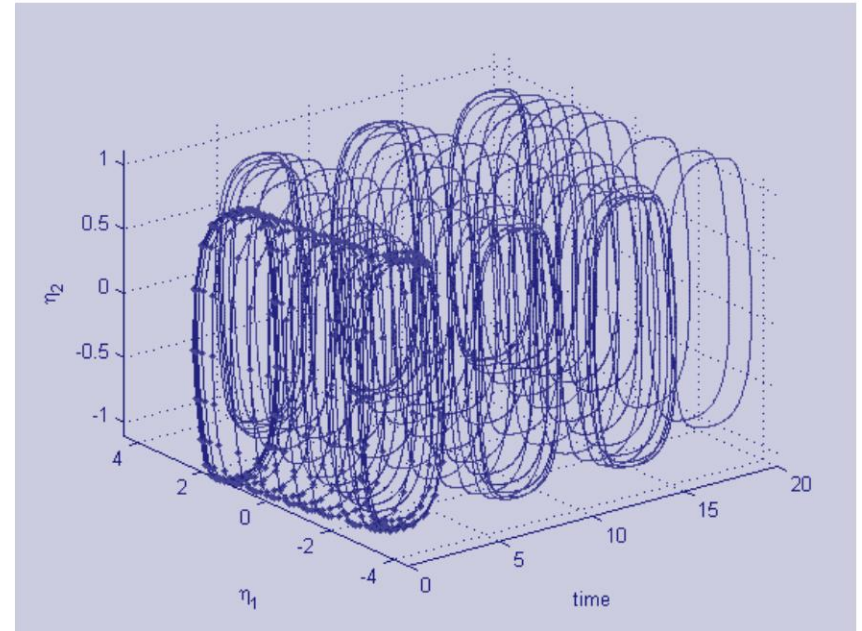
$$\frac{d\theta_2}{dt} = -\beta_1\theta_1 + \beta_3F(\gamma\theta_2) - \alpha_3x_1 - \alpha_4x_2$$



Numerical results:



The slow dynamics



The fast dynamics

Now: The variational limit for SP control systems:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= f(x, y, u) \\ \epsilon \frac{dy}{dt} &= g(x, y, u)\end{aligned}$$

The limit is of the form $(x(t), \mu(x(t)))$ where $\mu(x)(dy \times du)$ is a Young measure

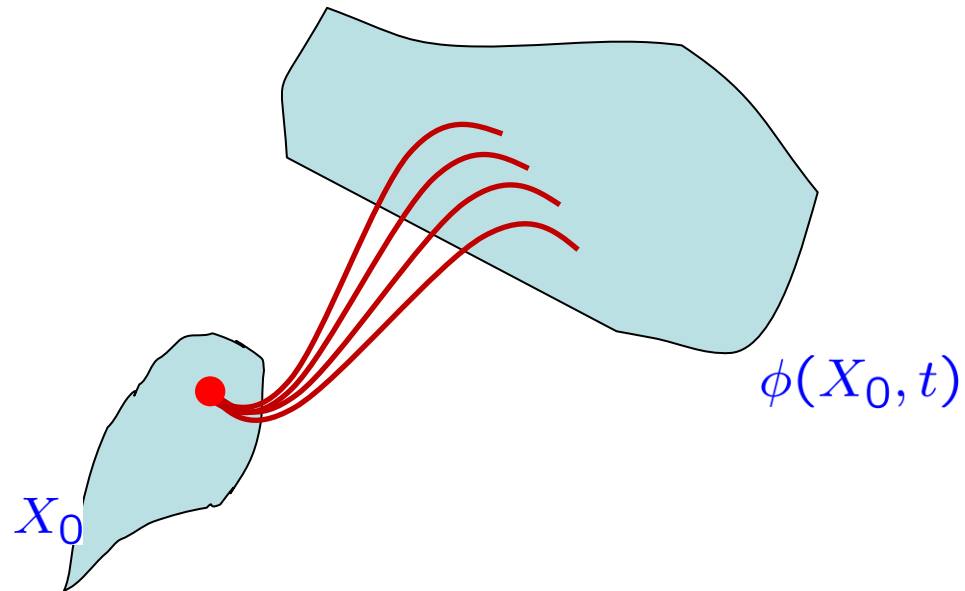
Question: Are the values of this Young measure invariant measures of

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y, u)$$

What is an invariant measures of a multi-valued map?

What is an invariant measures of a multi-valued map?

$$\frac{dx}{dt} \in F(x)$$



We give four alternatives:

1. **Sub-invariant measures**
2. **Markov-selectionable invariant measures**
3. **Projected invariant measures**
4. **Limit occupational measures**



J.P. Aubin

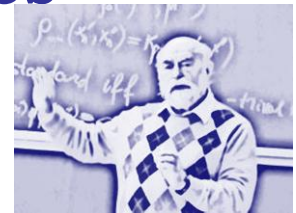


H. Frankowaska

A. Lasota



Fritz
Colonius



Anatoly
Vershik



Vladimir
Gaiatsgory



Arie
Leizarowirz
1953-2010



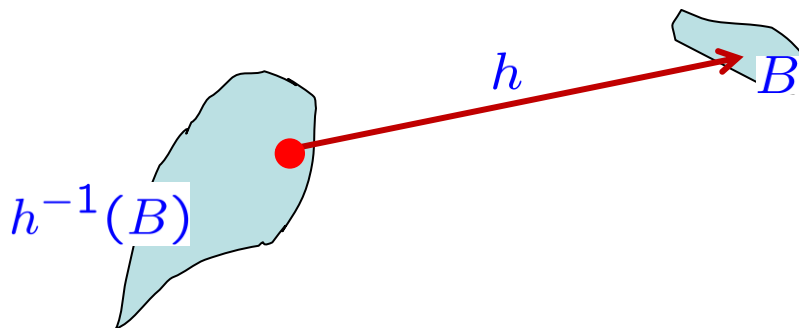
Wolfgang
Kliemann

Recall: An invariant measure of a mapping:

$$h(z) : Z \rightarrow Z$$

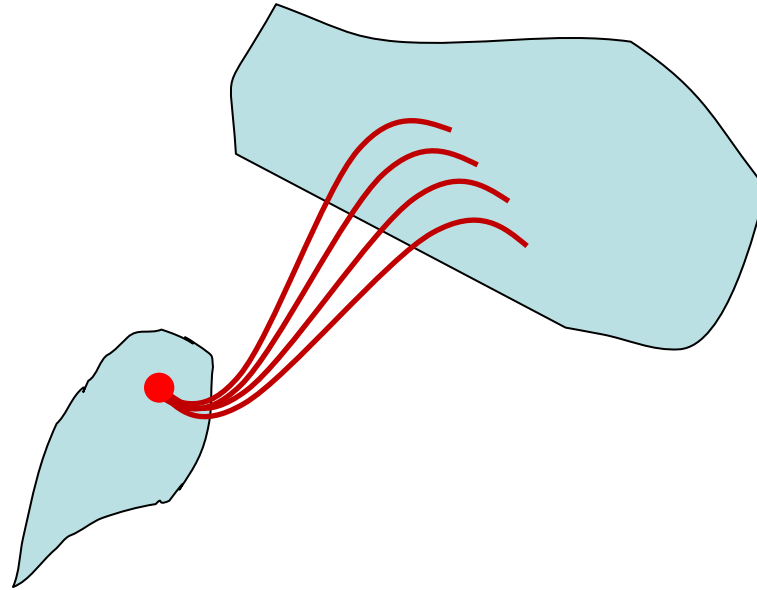
is determined by

$$\mu(h^{-1}(B)) = \mu(B)$$



1. Define: A measure $\mu(dz)$ is a **sub-invariant measure** of a multi-valued mapping:

$$H(z) : Z \rightrightarrows Z$$



if $\mu(h^{-1}(B)) \leq \mu(B)$ for every measurable set B

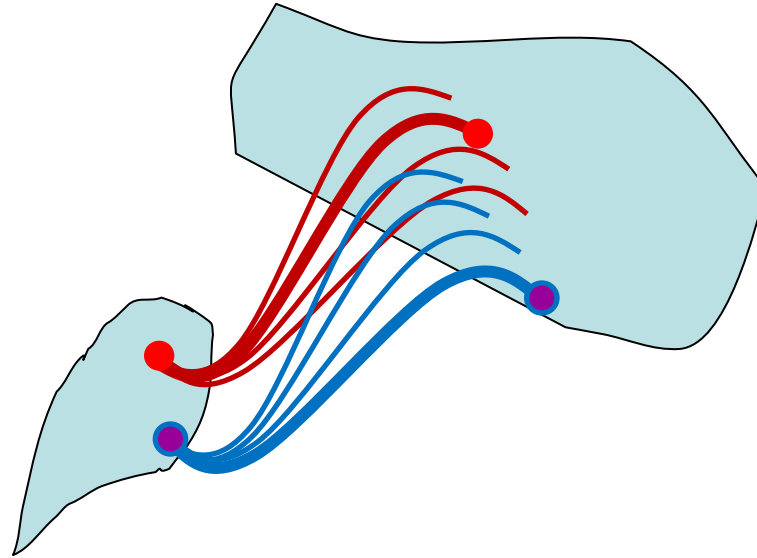
here $H^{-1}(B) = \{z : H(z) \cap B \neq \emptyset\}$

So far

- 1. A sub-invariant measure**
2. A Markov-selectionable invariant measure
3. A projected invariant measure
4. A limit occupational measure

Try: A measure $\mu(dz)$ is a selectable invariant measure of a multi-valued mapping:

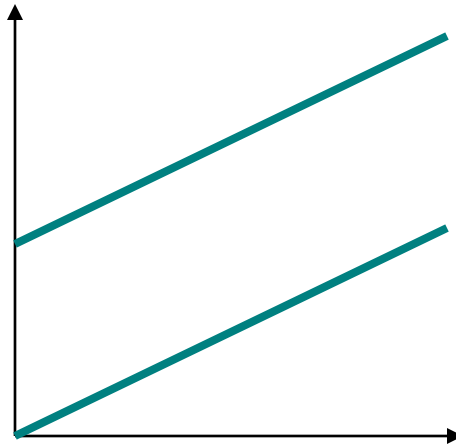
$$H(z) : Z \rightrightarrows Z$$



if there exists a point selection $h(z) \in H(z)$
Such that $\mu(dz)$ is invariant with respect to it

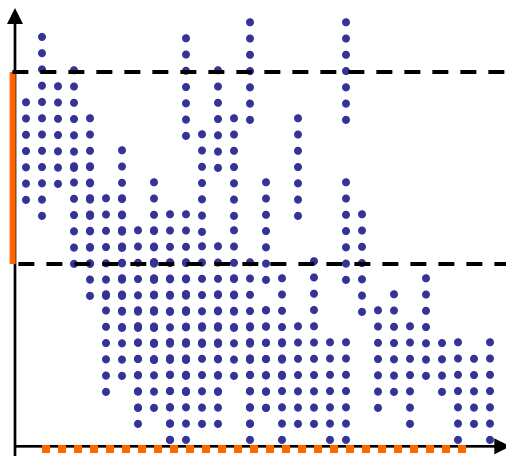
A definition via point selection does not work!

An example showing a problem:



Invariance with respect to a Markov transition

A Markov transition functions is a map



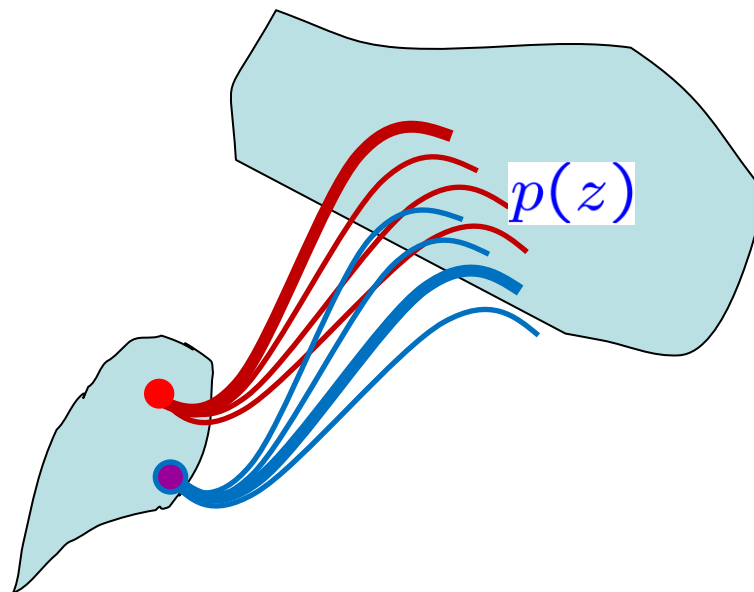
A probability measure $\mu(dz)$ is Markov-invariant with respect to $p(z)$ if

$$\mu(B) = \int p(z)(B)\mu(dz)$$

for every measurable set B .

2. Definition: A measure $\mu(dz)$ is a **Markov-selectionable invariant** of a multi-valued mapping:

$$H(z) : Z \rightrightarrows Z$$



if there exists a Markov transition $p(z)$ map
pointwise supported on $H(z)$

such that $\mu(dz)$ is Markov invariant with respect to it

So far

1. **A sub-invariant measure**
2. **A Markov-selectionable invariant measure**
3. A projected invariant measure
4. A limit occupational measure

The lifted flow of a multi-valued mapping:

We associate with $H(z) : Z \rightrightarrows Z$

the family of sequences

$$\zeta = \{ \cdot \cdot \cdot z_{-2}, z_{-1}, z_0, z_1, z_2, \cdot \cdot \cdot \}$$

where $z_{k+1} \in H(z_k)$

On this family the left shift determines a point-valued flow !

Thus, the notion of an invariant measure is well defined on the lifted space (but it will be a measure on sequences)

3. Definition: A measure $\mu(dz)$ is a **Projected invariant** measure of a multi-valued mapping:

$$H(z) : Z \rightrightarrows Z$$

if it is the projection on a coordinate of an invariant measure, say $p(d\zeta)$, of the lifted flow

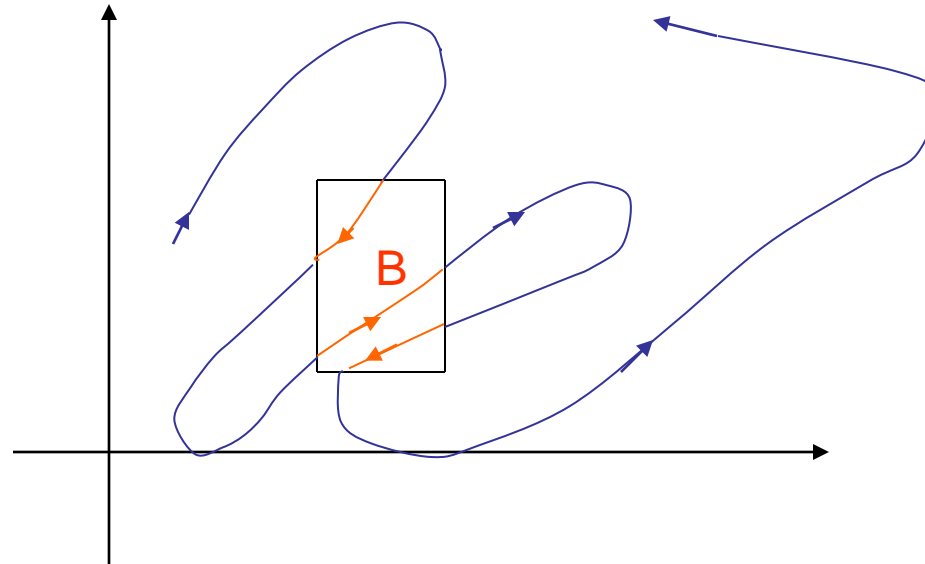
$$\mu(B) = p(\{\zeta : z_0 \in B\})$$

So far

- 1. A sub-invariant measure**
- 2. A Markov-selectionable invariant measure**
- 3. A projected invariant measure**
4. A limit occupational measure

Empirical distribution, occupational measure:

The **empirical distribution** (= **occupational measure**) of a finite sequence $(z_0, z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k)$ (or a finite line) is the probability $\mu_{0,k}$ measures (on Z)



$$\mu_{0,k}(B) = \#\{j : z_j \in B\}$$

Terminology: A measure $\mu(dz)$ is a **Limit weak Occupational measure** of a multi-valued mapping:

$$H(z) : Z \rightrightarrows Z$$

if it is the limit in the space of measures, of occupational measures of finite trajectories

$$(z_l, z_{l+1}, z_{l+2}, \cdot \cdot \cdot z_k) \quad z_{k+1} \in H(z_k)$$

with $k = l \rightarrow \infty$

If all the finite trajectories are of one infinite trajectory then we get an **Extreme Limit Occupational measure**

4. Definition: A measure $\mu(dz)$ is a **Limit Occupational measure** of a multi-valued mapping:

$$H(z) : Z \rightrightarrows Z$$

if it is in the convex hull of the weak limit occupational measures

Theorem: If the graph of H is closed and the space Z is compact then the extreme limit occupational measures form the extreme points of the limit occupational measures.

We managed:

1. A sub-invariant measure
2. A Markov-selectionable invariant measure
3. A projected invariant measure
4. A limit occupational measure

THEOREM

$$1 \Leftrightarrow 2 \Leftrightarrow 3 \Rightarrow 4$$

and

$$1 \Leftrightarrow 2 \Leftrightarrow 3 \Leftrightarrow 4$$

When the multi-dynamics has a closed graph and the space is locally compact

Recall: A question:

Under what conditions is

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \int_{Y \times U} f(x, y, u) \mu(t) (dy \times du)$$
$$\mu(t) \in IM(x(t))$$

a variational limit of

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y, u)$$
$$\epsilon \frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y, u)$$

A Theorem:

The conditions are:

- Regularity (modest) of $f(x, y, u)$ and $g(x, y, u)$
- Uniform boundedness and controllability of solutions of

$$\epsilon \frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y, u)$$

- The set-valued map

$$F(x) = \left\{ \int_{Y \times U} f(x, y, u) \mu(x)(dy \times du) : \mu(x) \in IM(x) \right\}$$

is Lipschitz

An important result

$$IM(x)$$

is the family of limit occupational measures of

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y, u)$$

A characterization of $IM(x)$



Vladimir
Gaitsgory

$$\int_{R^m \times U} (\nabla \Phi) g(x, y, u) \mu(dy \times du) = 0$$

For every bounded and continuously differentiable $\Phi(y) : R^m \rightarrow R$ with a bounded gradient



Another characterization of $IM(x)$

$$\int_{R^m \times U} b(y) \mu(dy \times du) = \int_{R^m \times U} b(g(x, y, u)) \mu(dy \times du)$$

For every bounded and continuous

$$b(y) : R^m \rightarrow R$$

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Stabilization

Optimal Control

Some special cases

Computations, error estimates

A Future Direction

Singularly perturbed stabilization:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= f(x, y, u) \\ \epsilon \frac{dy}{dt} &= g(x, y, u)\end{aligned}$$

$$u \in U$$

Where: x in R^n the slow and y in R^m the fast, variables

The goal: To stabilize the **slow dynamics** for small ϵ

The order reduction method

Stabilize:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= f(x, y, u) \\ 0 &= g(x, y, u)\end{aligned}$$

with a feedback $u = u(x)$ that solves the algebraic equation

It works in many systems (and in many practical applications) but **may not be enough** for many examples and applications

The remedy: Young measures

Stabilize:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \int_{R^n} f(x, y, u) \mu(x)(dy, du)$$

with a feedback $\mu = \mu(x)$ that is an invariant measure of

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y, u)$$

Example:

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$y = (\rho, \theta)$$

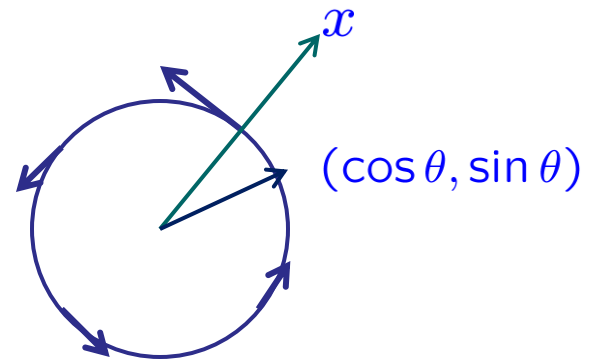
$$v \in [-1, 1]$$

$$u \in [1, 2]$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = (1 - \rho(x \cdot (\cos \theta, \sin \theta))) x$$

$$\epsilon \frac{d\rho}{dt} = v$$

$$\epsilon \frac{d\theta}{dt} = u$$



Characterization

Continuous stabilizing feedback around x_0 exists if and only if there exists a smooth Liapunov function $V(x)$ such that for $x \neq x_0$

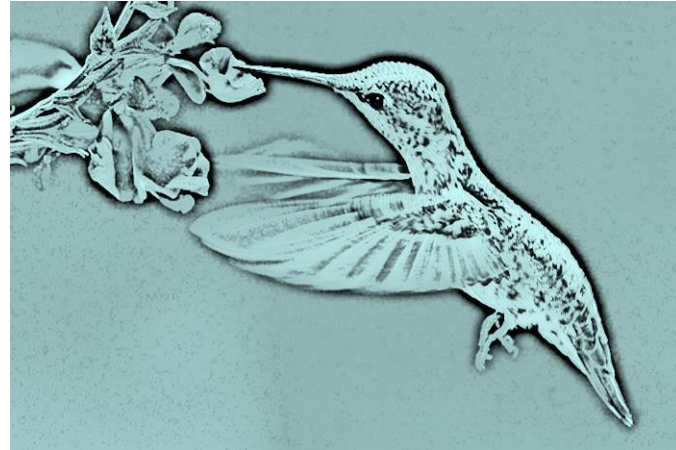
$$\nabla V(x) \int_{R^n} f(x, y, u) \mu(x)(dy, du) < 0$$

for some invariant measure $\mu = \mu(x)$

Approximations in Nature and in Engineering:

Nature and Engineering are very good approximation of Mathematics

Examples from real life:



The End
of Lecture 2
Thanks for the attention