### CHAPTER 2

## PRELIMINARIES

In this chapter, we give some notations and definitions that will be used in the later chapters.

## 2.1 Stability

#### 2.1.1 Definitions

Consider the system described by

$$\dot{x} = f(x, t)$$

(2.1)

where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\dot{x} = \left[\frac{dx_1}{dt}, \frac{dx_2}{dt}, \dots, \frac{dx_n}{dt}\right]$  and f is a vector having components  $f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n, t), i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . We shall assume that the  $f_i$  are continuous and satisfy standard conditions, such as having continuous first partial derivatives so that the solution of (2.1) exists and is unique for the given initial conditions. If  $f_i$  do not depend explicitly on t, (2.1) is called autonomous (otherwise, nonautonomous).

If f(c,t) = 0 for all t, where c is some constant vector, then it follows at once from (2.1) that if  $x(t_0) = c$  then x(t) = c for all  $t \ge t_0$ . Thus solutions starting at c remain there, and c is said to be an *equilibrium* or *critical point*. Clearly, by introducing new variables  $\dot{x}_i = x_i - c_i$  we can arrange for the equilibrium point to be transferred to the origin; we shall assume that this has been done for any equilibrium point under consideration (there may well be several for a given system (2.1) ) so that we then have  $f(0, t) = 0, t \ge t_0$ .

An equilibrium state x = 0 is said to be

1. Stable if for any positive scalar  $\varepsilon$  there exists a positive scalar  $\delta$  such that  $||x(t_0)||_e < \delta$  implies  $||x(t)||_e < \varepsilon$ ,  $t \ge t_0$ , where  $||.||_e$  is a standard Eucledian norm.

2. Asymptotically stable if it is stable and if in addition  $x(t) \to 0$  as  $t \to \infty$ .

3. Unstable if it is not stable; that is, there exists an  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that for every  $\delta > 0$  there exist an  $x(t_0)$  with  $||x(t_0)||_e < \delta$  so that  $||x(t_1)||_e \ge \varepsilon$  for some  $t_1 > t_0$ . If this holds for every  $x(t_0)$  in  $||x(t_0)||_e < \delta$  the equilibrium is completely unstable.

**Definition 2.1.1** Consider a scalar function  $f(t) : \Re_+ \longrightarrow \Re$ . Let the 2-norm (denoted by  $\|.\|_2$ ) of f(t) be defined as

 $||f(t)||_2 = \sqrt{\int_0^\infty f^2(\tau) d\tau}.$ 

If  $||f(t)||_2 < \infty$  then we say that the function f(t) belongs to the subspace  $L_2$  of the space of all possible functions (*i.e.*,  $f(t) \in L_2$ ). Let the  $\infty$ -norm (denoted by  $||.||_{\infty}$ ) of f(t) be defined as

$$|f(t)||_{\infty} = \sup_{t} |f(t)|.$$

If  $||f(t)||_{\infty} < \infty$  then we say that the function f(t) belongs to the subspace  $L_{\infty}$  of the space of all possible functions (*i.e.*,  $f(t) \in L_{\infty}$ ).

**Proposition 2.1.2** Consider a scalar function  $g(t) : \Re_+ \longrightarrow \Re$ . If  $g(t) \in L_{\infty}$ ,  $\dot{g}(t) \in L_{\infty}$ , and  $g(t) \in L_2$  then

 $\lim_{t \to \infty} g(t) = 0.$ 

Before studying nonlinear systems we return to the general continuous time linear system.

Algebraic Criteria for Linear Systems

$$\dot{x} = Ax, \tag{2.2}$$

where A is a constant  $n \times n$  matrix, and (2.2) may represent the closed or open loop system. Provided det  $A \neq 0$ , the only equilibrium point of (2.2) is the origin, so it is meaningful to refer to the stability of the system (2.2). The two basic results on which the development of linear system stability theory relies are now given.

**Theorem 2.1.3** The system (2.2) is asymptotically stable if and only if A is a stability matrix, i.e. all the characteristic roots  $\lambda_k$  of A have negative real parts; (2.2) is unstable if for some characteristic roots  $\lambda_k$ ,  $\Re e(\lambda_k) > 0$ ; and completely unstable if for all characteristic roots  $\lambda_k$ ,  $\Re e(\lambda_k) > 0$ .

See [2] for more details.

2.1.3 Lyapunov Theory

Consider autonomous system of nonlinear equations,

$$\dot{x} = f(x), \quad f(0) = 0.$$

(2.3)

We define a Lyapunov function V(x) as follows:

1. V(x) and all its partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial V}{\partial x_i}$  are continuous.

2. V(x) is positive definite, i.e. V(0) = 0 and V(x) > 0 for  $x \neq 0$  in some neighbourhood  $||x|| \le k$  of the origin.

3. The derivative of V with respect to (2.3), namely

$$\vec{V} = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_1} \dot{x}_1 + \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_2} \dot{x}_2 + \dots + \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_n} \dot{x}_n \\
= \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_1} f_1 + \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_2} f_2 + \dots + \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_n} f_n$$
(2.4)

is negative semidefinite i.e.  $\dot{V}(0) = 0$ , and for all x satisfy  $||x|| \le k$ ,  $\dot{V(x)} \le 0$ .

Notice that in (2.4) the  $f_i$  are the components of f in (2.3), so  $\dot{V}$  can be determined directly from the system equations.

**Theorem 2.1.4** The origin of (2.3) is stable if there exists a Lyapunov function defined as above.

**Theorem 2.1.5** The origin of (2.3) is asymptotically stable if there exists a Lyapunov function whose derivative (2.4) is negative definite.

See [2] for more details.

#### 2.1.4 Application of Lyapunov Theory to Linear Systems

The usefulness of linear theory can be extended by using the idea of linearization. Suppose the components of f in (2.1) are such that we can apply Taylor's theorem to obtain

$$f(x) = Ax + g(x), \qquad (2.5)$$

(2.6)

by using f(0) = 0. In (2.5)  $\dot{A}$  denotes the  $n \times n$  constant matrix having elements  $(\partial f_i/\partial x_j)_{x=0}$ , g(0) = 0 and the components of g have power series expansions in  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$  beginning with terms of at least second degree. The system

is called the *first approximation* to (2.1). We then have the following theorem.

 $\dot{x} = \dot{A}x$ 

**Theorem 2.1.6** (Lyapunov's linearization theorem) If (2.6) is asymptotically stable, or unstable, then the origin for  $\dot{x} = f(x)$ , where f(x) is given by (2.5), has the same stability property.

See [2] for more details.

#### 2.2 Routh-Hurwitz Theorem

Consider the characteristic equation of matrix A

 $a(\lambda) \doteq det(\lambda I - A) = \lambda^n + a_1 \lambda^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} \lambda + a_n = 0 \qquad (2.7)$ 

which determine the *n* eigenvalues  $\lambda$  of a real  $n \times n$  square matrix *A*, where *I* is the identity matrix.

**Theorem 2.2.1** The  $n \times n$  Hurwitz matrix associated with  $a(\lambda)$  in (2.7) is

where  $a_r = 0, r > n$ . Let  $H_i$  denote the *i*th leading principle minor of H. Then all the roots of  $a(\lambda)$  have negative real parts  $(a(\lambda)$  is a Hurwitz polynomial) if and only if  $H_i > 0, i = 1, 2, ..., n - 1$ .

If n = 3 then

$$|\lambda I - A| = \lambda^3 + a_1 \lambda^2 + a_2 \lambda + a_3 = 0$$
(2.9)

In this case all of the eigenvalues  $\lambda$  have negative real parts if

$$H_1 > 0, H_2 > 0,$$
 (2.10)

or

(1)  $a_1 > 0$ , and (2)  $\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ 1 & a_2 \end{vmatrix} > 0$  or  $a_1a_2 - a_3 > 0$ . Since we have assumed that the  $a_i$  are real, it is easy to derive a simple *necessary* condition for asymptotic stability.

**Theorem 2.2.2** If the  $a_i$  in (2.7) are real and  $a(\lambda)$  corresponds to an asymptotically stable system, then

$$a_i > 0, i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

#### 2.3 Fourth-Order Runge-Kutta Method

In order to solve an initial-value problem

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(t,x), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$
 (2.11)

where  $x = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]^T$  and  $f = [f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n]^T$ , we will use Runge-Kutta method.

The well known Runge-Kutta method of the first stage and fourth order is given by

where  

$$\begin{aligned}
X_{i+1} &= X_i + \frac{1}{6}(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4) \\
k_1 &= hf(t_i, X_i) \\
k_2 &= hf(t_i, X_i) + \frac{k_1}{2} \\
k_3 &= hf(t_i + \frac{h}{2}, X_i + \frac{k_1}{2}) \\
k_3 &= hf(t_i + \frac{h}{2}, X_i + \frac{k_2}{2}) \\
k_4 &= hf(t_i + h, X_i + k_3)
\end{aligned}$$
(2.12)

 $X_i$  is an approximation of  $x(t_i)$  such that  $X_i = [X_{i1}, X_{i2}, \dots, X_{in}]^T$ ,  $t_i = t_0 + ih$ , h is step size and  $k_i = [k_{i1}, k_{i2}, \dots, k_{in}]^T$   $\forall i = 1, \dots, 4$ .

## 2.4 Matrix Types 2.4.1 Symmetric Matrix A real $n \times n$ matrix A is called symmetry if $A^T = A.$

#### 2.4.2 Positive Definite Matrix

Consider a real  $n \times n$  matrix A, A is called *positive definite* if

 $x^T A x > 0$ 

for all nonzero vectors  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $x^T$  denotes the transpose of x.

Equivalently, a symmetric matrix A is called *positive definite* if and only if  $D_i > 0, i = 1, 2, ..., n$ , where  $D_i$  denotes leading principal minors.

#### 2.4.3 Positive Semidefinite Matrix

A *Positive semidefinite* matrix is a symmetric matrix in which all of whose eigenvalues are nonnegative.

Equivalently, a symmetric matrix A is called *positive semidefinite* if and only if det(A) = 0 and  $P_i \ge 0, i = 1, 2, ..., n$ , where  $P_i$  denotes principal minors.

#### 2.4.4 Negative Definite Matrix

A *negative definite* matrix is a Hermitian matrix in which all of whose eigenvalues are negative.

Equivalent, a symmetric matrix A is called *negative definite* if and only if  $(-1)^i D_i > 0, i = 1, 2, ..., n$ , where  $D_i$  denotes leading principal minors.

#### 2.4.5 Negative Semidefinite Matrix

A *positive semidefinite* matrix is a symmetric matrix in which all of whose eigenvalues are nonpositive.

Equivalently, a symmetric matrix A is called *negative semidefinite* if and only if det(A) = 0 and  $(-1)^i P_i \ge 0$ , i = 1, 2, ..., n, where  $P_i$  denotes principal minors.

If A satisfies none of the above then it is indefinite.

#### 2.5 Synchronization

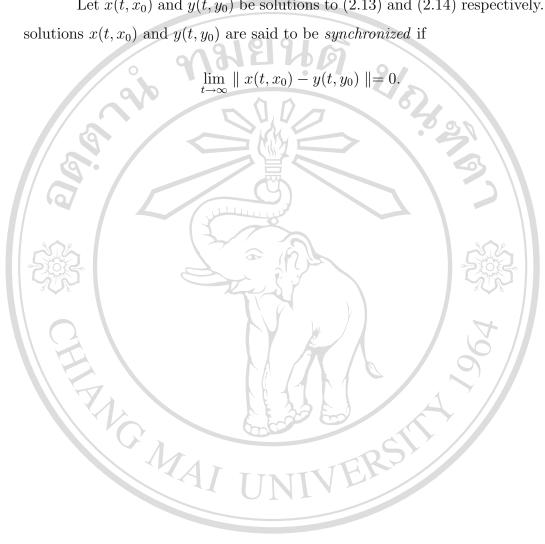
Consider the system of differential equations

$$\dot{x} = f(x) \tag{2.13}$$

$$\dot{y} = g(y, x) \tag{2.14}$$

where  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f, g : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  are assumed to be analytic functions.

Let  $x(t, x_0)$  and  $y(t, y_0)$  be solutions to (2.13) and (2.14) respectively. The solutions  $x(t, x_0)$  and  $y(t, y_0)$  are said to be synchronized if



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#### 2.6 Terminology

- *Chaos* is characterized by three simple ideas. Firstly, chaotic systems are deterministic, meaning they obey some simple rules. In general this means that we can predict their behavior of short times. Secondly, chaotic systems have sensitively dependence on initial conditions, which means we can't predict their behavior for long times. Finally, chaotic systems generally have underlying patterns, sometimes called attractors.

- *Chaotic behavior* is the behavior of a system whose final state depends so sensitively on the system's precise initial state the behavior is in effect unpredictable and can not be distinguished from a random process, even though it is strictly determinate in a mathematical sense. Also known as chaos.

- The sequence of solution value of differential equation or difference equation generated by this iteration procedure will be called the *trajectory*.

- *Attractor* is the set of points to which trajectories approach as the number of iterations goes to infinity.

- The notation of equilibrium points (also called fixed points, singular points, critical points).

- An equation u(t) = f[x(t)], this equation is called the *control rule* or *control law*.

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