

Models 14-10-25

$$I(\lambda) \simeq g(x_0) e^{\lambda f(x_0)} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{\lambda |f''(x_0)|}}$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{interior max} & I(\lambda) \sim \lambda^{-1/2} e^{\lambda f(x_0)} \\ \text{endpoint (not flat)} & I(\lambda) \sim \lambda^{-1} e^{\lambda f(x_0)} \end{array} \quad \Bigg|$$

L^p -norm in real analysis

The quantity

$$\|g\|_p := \left(\int_a^b |g(t)|^p dt \right)^{1/p} \quad p > 0$$

is called p -norm when the integral exists (in Lebesgue sense)

We want to study the behavior of $\|g\|_p$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$. We assume that g has a unique maximum in t_0 which is an interior point, and $g \in C^4(a, b)$.

We first study

$$I(p) \equiv \int_a^b |g(t)|^p dt \quad \|g\|_p = I^{1/p}$$

and

$$I = \int_a^b e^{p \ln |g(t)|} dt$$

When we applied the Laplace method we have always assumed that f is continuously differentiable. However, if g vanishes somewhere in $[a, b]$ then $\ln |g| \rightarrow -\infty$. However, every neighborhood of points where $g=0$ will yield a negligible contribution to the integral (i.e. to I for $p \gg 1$).

Thus such discontinuities can be neglected. Now we use eq. (22)

$$I(p) = e^{p \ln |g(t_0)|} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi |g(t_0)|}{p |g''(t_0)|}} \left(1 + O\left(\frac{1}{p}\right)\right)$$

$$= |g(t_0)|^p \sqrt{\frac{2\pi |g(t_0)|}{p |g''(t_0)|}} \left(1 + O\left(\frac{1}{p}\right)\right) \text{ as } p \rightarrow \infty$$

Obs: $a > 0$ $a^{1/p} p^{-\frac{1}{2p}} = e^{\frac{\ln a}{p}} e^{-\frac{\ln p}{2p}} =$

$$\left(1 + \frac{\ln a}{p} + \dots\right) \left(1 - \frac{\ln p}{2p} + \dots\right) \sim 1 - \frac{\ln p}{2p} + \dots \text{ as } p \rightarrow \infty$$

$$I^{1/p} = |g(t_0)| \left(\frac{2\pi |g|}{p |g''|}\right)^{\frac{1}{2p}} + \text{h.o.t.} \sim |g(t_0)| \left(1 - \frac{\ln p}{2p} + O\left(\frac{1}{p}\right)\right)$$

hence

$$\|g\|_p = \max_{t \in [a, b]} |g(t)| \left\{1 - \frac{\ln p}{2p} + \dots\right\} \text{ as } p \rightarrow \infty$$

which justifies the usual definition

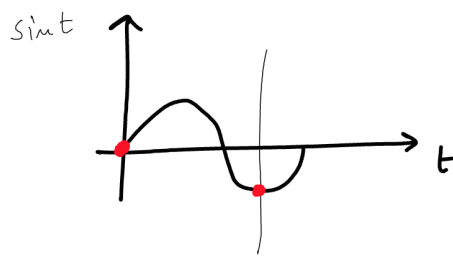
$$\|g\|_\infty = \max_{t \in [a, b]} |g|$$

Example:

Consider the integral

$$\int_0^{\frac{3\pi}{2}} e^{-\lambda \sin t} f(t) dt \quad \text{as } \lambda \rightarrow \infty$$

where f is cont. and diff. in $[0, \frac{3\pi}{2}]$.



We want to consider the contributions from the endpoint minima $t=0$, $t = \frac{3\pi}{2}$. For this we write

$$I(\lambda) = \underbrace{\int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-\lambda \sin t} f(t) dt}_{I_1} + \underbrace{e^1 \int_{\pi/2}^{3\pi/2} e^{-\lambda \sin t - 1} f(t) dt}_{I_2}$$

eq. (24) $I_1 = f(0) \frac{e^{1 \cdot 0}}{\lambda \cos(0)} = \frac{f(0)}{\lambda}$ as $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$
 left endpoint (leading order)

eq. (23) $I_2 = f\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right) e^{1 \cdot 0} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2\lambda \sin\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right)}} \approx f\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right) \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2\lambda}}$
 flat endpoint

Hence the leading contribution comes from I_2 and

$$I(\lambda) \approx f\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right) e^1 \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2\lambda}} + \text{h.o.t.} \quad \text{as } \lambda \rightarrow \infty$$

The min at $t=0$ is subleading and it should be taken into account only at higher order.

Ex: Calculate the leading contribution to

$$\int_0^\pi e^{-\lambda \sin t} f(t) dt \quad \text{as } \lambda \rightarrow \infty.$$

Review of Dynamical Systems

In many applications (physics, biology, chemistry ...) one has to study nonlinear systems of (autonomous) ODEs:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \begin{cases} \dot{\vec{x}}(t) = \vec{f}(\vec{x}(t)) \\ \vec{x}(0) = \vec{x}_0 \end{cases}$$

where $\vec{x}(t) = (x_1(t), \dots, x_N(t)) \in U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^N$, U is some open connected set of reals.

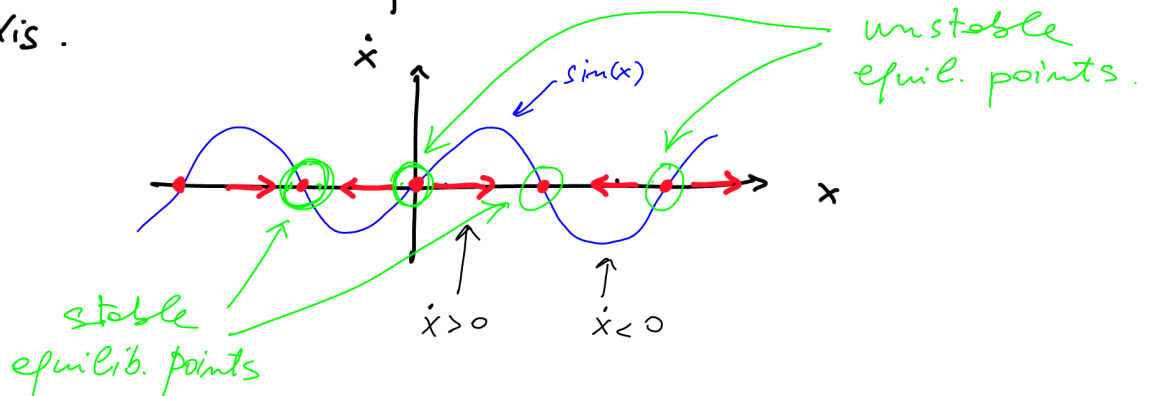
With any \vec{x} we associate a vector \vec{f} , the set of these vectors is called vector field. The domain U , where \vec{f} is supposed to be continuous and differentiable, is called the phase space.

The solutions $\vec{x}(t, x_0)$ of the system $\textcircled{1}$ describe smooth curves as t changes: they are called trajectories which are parametric curves in the phase space.

Example: let's consider ($N=1$)

$$\dot{x}(t) = \sin[x(t)]$$

In this case the vector field is 1-dim. and coincides with the x -axis.



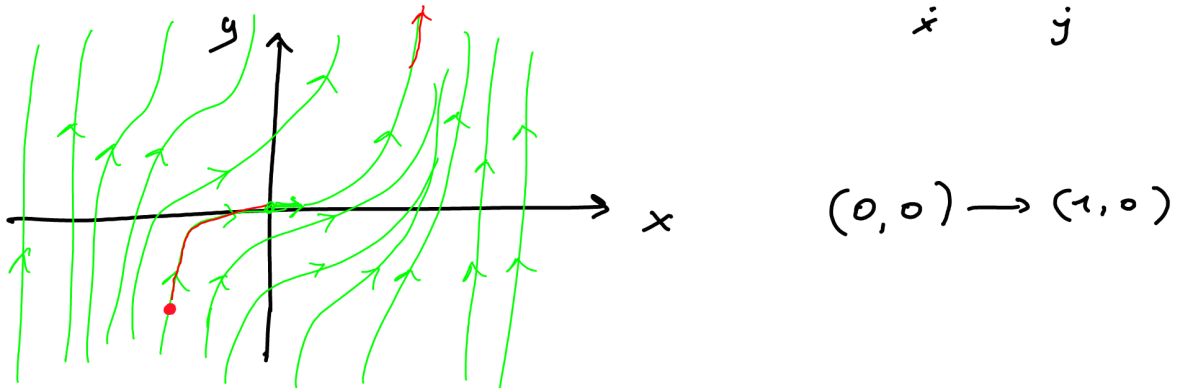
In the $N=2$ case

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = 1 \\ \dot{y} = x^2 + y^2 \end{cases}$$

The vector field is 2dim. and we have a map

$$\vec{x} = (x, y) \longrightarrow \vec{f}(\vec{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ x^2 + y^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

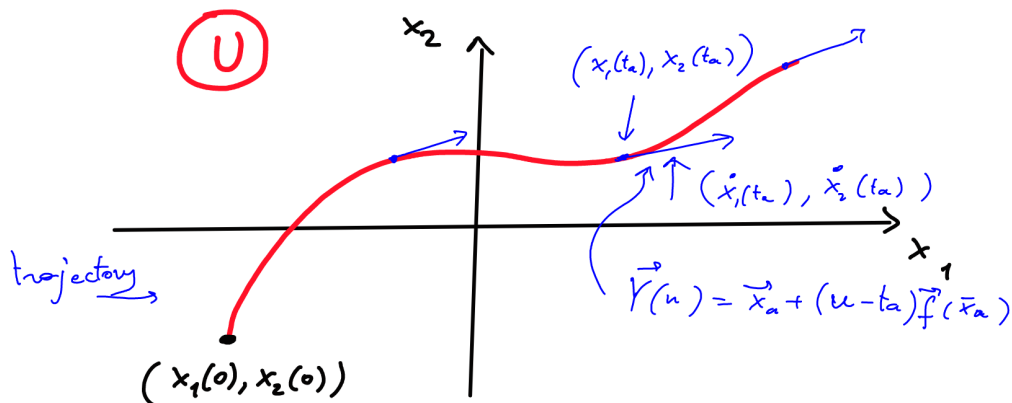
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In general the vector field \vec{f} is tangent to a trajectory in every point. In fact, let $\vec{x}(t)$ be a trajectory, then the eq. of a tangent line to the trajectory at a point $\vec{x}_a \equiv \vec{x}(t_a)$ is

$$\vec{\gamma}(u) = \vec{x}_a + (u - t_a) \dot{\vec{x}}(t_a) = \vec{x}_a + (u - t_a) \vec{f}(\vec{x}_a)$$

thus \vec{f} is the directional vector of the straight line $\vec{\gamma}(u)$.



$N=2$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = f_1(x_1, x_2) \\ \dot{x}_2 = f_2(x_1, x_2) \end{cases}$$

②

By flowing along the vector field, a point traces out the trajectory $\vec{x}(t)$, a curve in the phase space U or a sol. of ②.

A phase portrait is a set of trajectories with the indication of the directions of the vector field.

As we cannot solve the system ① in general, we would like to know at least some properties.

Sometimes it is useful to study nullclines, defined as subspaces (or manifolds) where $\dot{x}_i = 0$ for a given i . If $N=2$ we may get simple curves

$$\dot{x}_1 = 0 \Rightarrow f_1(x_1, x_2) = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} x_2^{(1)} = g^{(1)}(x_1) \\ \text{possibly } x_2^{(2)} = g^{(2)}(x_1) \end{matrix}$$

Two interesting examples

- 1) Find a solution of $\dot{y} = y^2$ with i.c. $y(0) = 1$.
Can we then find $y(2)$?

From $\int \frac{dy}{y^2} = t - c$, $y = \frac{1}{c-t}$, $y(0) = 1 \Rightarrow c = 1$

$$y(t) = \frac{1}{1-t} \quad \rightarrow \quad y(2) = -1$$

As $y(t) \geq 0$, y is an increasing function of time but $y(2) = -1$! Actually, the solution exists only in the interval $(0, 1)$ as it blows up at $t = 1$.

Solutions may exist only within finite intervals of time or they may not exist for some initial conditions or may not exist at all.

- 2) Find a solution of $\dot{y} = \sqrt{y}$ for which $y(0) = 0$. Find $y(2)$.

$$\int \frac{dy}{\sqrt{y}} = 2\sqrt{y} = t - c, \quad y = \left(\frac{t-c}{2}\right)^2 \quad \text{but } y(0) = 0, \quad y(t) = \frac{t^2}{4}$$

hence $y(2) = 1$. But!

However $y(t)=0$ satisfies the eq. and the init. cond.
Even worse:

$$y(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \leq t \leq T \\ \frac{(t-T)^2}{4} & t > T \end{cases} \quad \begin{array}{l} T \text{ is arbitrary} \\ T > 0. \end{array}$$

is a solution with the same initial condition!
So there are infinitely many solutions, so asking $y(2)$ is meaningless.
Sol. to init. val. problems may not be unique.

Picard's theorem

If \vec{f} is continuous and $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$ are also continuous for all indexes i, j in U , then for any $\vec{x}_0 \in U$ the initial value problem defined in ① admits a solution on some interval $t \in [-\delta, \delta]$, $\delta > 0$, and this solution is unique.

Obs: in this case trajectories do not intersect.

Fixed points

The fixed points of eq. ① are the simplest to study as time is not relevant. Indeed, fixed points are the zeros of \vec{f} : namely, \vec{x}^* is a fixed point if

$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}^*) = \vec{0} \quad (3)$$

Warning: even though an ODE has some fixed points, that does not imply that the dynamics (the init. val. solut.) reach them!