

Some relevant aspects of vector fields:-

Let M be an n -dimensional smooth manifold. $C^\infty(M)$ and $\mathcal{X}(M)$ denote the set of smooth real valued functions on M and the set of all smooth vector fields on M , respectively.

Now if we define the following operations-

i) $\mathcal{X}(M) \times \mathcal{X}(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(M)$

$$(X + Y)(p) \triangleq X_p + Y_p = X(p) + Y(p) \in T_p M$$

for any $X, Y \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ and $p \in M$

(and) ii) $\mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{X}(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(M)$

$$(\alpha X)(p) \triangleq \alpha X_p = \alpha X(p) \in T_p M \text{ for any } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$$

Thus, $\mathcal{X}(M)$ can be perceived as a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

Moreover, for any given $f \in C^\infty(M)$ we can define,

$$(fX)(p) \triangleq f(p)X_p \in T_p M \quad \forall X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$$

As this defines ~~a mapping~~ a mapping

$$C^\infty(M) \times \mathcal{X}(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(M),$$

$\mathcal{X}(M)$ can alternatively be viewed as a module over $C^\infty(M)$.

→ Another perspective towards vector fields.

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Any vector field $X \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$ can also be viewed as the mapping $C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$, if we define

$$(X(\Phi))(p) \triangleq (X(p))(\Phi) = X_p(\Phi) \quad \begin{array}{l} p \in M, \Phi \in C^\infty(M) \\ C^\infty(M) \end{array}$$

$\uparrow \quad \uparrow$
 $T_p M$

According to this definition, for any two smooth functions $\Phi, \Psi \in C^\infty(M)$, we have—

$$\begin{aligned} (X(\Phi\Psi))(p) &= X_p(\Phi\Psi) \quad X_p \in T_p M \\ &= \Phi(p)X_p(\Psi) + \Psi(p)X_p(\Phi) \\ &= \Phi(p)(X(\Psi))(p) + \Psi(p)(X(\Phi))(p) \\ &= (\Phi \cdot X(\Psi) + \Psi \cdot X(\Phi))(p) \end{aligned}$$

Thus the mapping also satisfies the Leibnitz's rule, and hence, the set of vector fields $\mathfrak{X}(M)$ can be perceived as the set of derivations over $C^\infty(M)$.

* In fact any linear map $Y: C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$ which satisfies the Leibnitz's rule, i.e. any derivation on the set of smooth real valued functions, can be induced by a vector field.

→ Theorem: If D is a derivation on $C^\infty(M)$, 10/17/2017
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then there exists a unique vector field $X \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$ such that

$$(D\Phi)(p) = (X(p))(\Phi) \text{ for all } p \in M, \Phi \in C^\infty$$

Proof: Our proof is carried out in three steps.

→ Lemma 1: If for all $X, Y \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$ and for all $\Phi \in C^\infty(M)$ we have $X(\Phi) = Y(\Phi)$, then $X = Y$.

Proof: As $X(\Phi) = Y(\Phi)$ implies $(X - Y)(\Phi) = 0$, it is sufficient if we can show that if $X(\Phi) = 0$ for all $\Phi \in C^\infty(M)$ then $X = 0$ (i.e., $X(p) = 0$ for all $p \in M$).

Let (U, f) be a chart covering $p \in M$, and let (x_1, \dots, x_n) denote the associated coordinate functions.

Then $X \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$ can be expressed as $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$ in the neighborhood U .

Also there exists a smooth function $\Phi \in C^\infty(M)$ such that Φ is 1 in a neighborhood of p in U and Φ is 0 outside U . Such a function is called a smooth bump function and its existence is ensured for a smooth manifold.

Then by setting $\Phi = \Phi \cdot x_i$ we have —

$$(X(\Phi))(p) = X(p)(\Phi x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (\Phi \cdot x_i)|_p = X_j(p)$$

As $X(\Phi) = 0$ for any $\Phi \in C^\infty(M)$ we have

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$X_j = 0$ for all $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.

Thus we have, $X = 0$.

→ Lemma 2: If D is a derivation and $\Phi = 0$ on an open set U , then $D\Phi = 0$ on U .

Proof: To show this it is sufficient to show

$$D\Phi(p) = 0 \text{ for all } p \in U.$$

Now we can always find neighborhoods $V_p \subset U_p \subset U$ around p in U , such that we can define a function $\Psi \in C^\infty(M)$ such that Ψ is 1 on V_p and 0 outside U_p (i.e. on $M \setminus U_p$). Then, by introducing $\Theta \triangleq 1 - \Psi$, we can notice that

— whenever $q \in M \setminus U$, $(D\Theta)(q) = \Phi(q) - \Phi(q)\Psi(q)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \Phi(q) \\ &\quad \uparrow = 0 \text{ as } M \setminus U \subset M \setminus U_p \end{aligned}$$

— whenever $q \in U$, $(D\Theta)(q) = \Phi(q) - \Phi(q)\Psi(q)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 0 \leftarrow \text{as } \Phi = 0 \text{ on } U \\ &= \Phi(q) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have $\boxed{\Phi = D\Theta}$ on M .

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} D\Phi(p) &= D(D\Theta)(p) = \boxed{\Phi(p)} D\Theta(p) + \boxed{\Theta(p)} D\Phi(p) \\ &= 0 \quad \uparrow \quad \uparrow \quad \text{Both functions are zero at } p. \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof for Lemma 2.

→ Final Step:

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Let, $f \in C^\infty(M)$ be defined and smooth around p

Then we define, $X_p(\varPhi) = Df(p)$ for any $\varPhi \in C^\infty(M)$ which agrees with \varPhi around p . As D is a derivation, we have $X_p \in T_p M$.

Now consider, $\theta \in C^\infty(M)$ such that θ agrees with \varPhi around p . Then we have $D\theta = 0$ (i.e. $\varPhi - \theta = 0$) on a neighborhood around p . Then from lemma 2, $D\varPhi = D\theta$ on this neighborhood around p . Thus X_p is well defined.

In this way we can define a vector field $X: p \mapsto X_p$. It is yet to show that this is smooth, i.e. its coefficients in any local chart are smooth.

Let, (x_1, \dots, x_n) be the coordinate functions corresponding to a chart (U, f) covering $p \in M$.

Then, $X = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$ in the neighborhood of p , where

~~$X_i(p) = X_p(x_i) = D x_i(p)$~~ . As $D x_i$ is smooth for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, X itself is smooth. □

→ $X: C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$, $\varPhi \mapsto X(\varPhi)$ such that $(X(\varPhi))_p = X_p(\varPhi)$. $X(\varPhi)$ is called the Lie-derivative of \varPhi with respect to X , and often denoted as $L_X \varPhi$.

Control Systems as Vector fields and Integral curves:

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Let $X \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$. Then, as $X_p \in T_p M$, we know that there are many smooth curves $\Gamma: (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M$ such that $p = \Gamma(0)$ and $X_p = \Gamma'(0)$. However, whether there is a single smooth curve $\Gamma: (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M$ such that $\Gamma'(t) = X_{\Gamma(t)} = X(\Gamma(t))$ for any $t \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$, is yet to be explored.

- A smooth curve $\Gamma: (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M$ is called an integral curve of $X \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$ passing through $p \in M$ if $\Gamma(0) = p$ and $\Gamma'(t) = X_{\Gamma(t)}$ for all $t \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$.
- Using basis theorem we can express $X \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$ as-

$$X(\Gamma(t)) = \sum_{i=1}^m X(x_i) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_{\Gamma(t)}$$

\uparrow

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (x_1, \dots, x_n) \text{ are the} \\ \text{coordinate functions} \\ \text{corresponding to a chart} \\ (U, f) \text{ covering } p \in M. \end{array} \right.$

On the other hand,

$$\Gamma'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\frac{d}{dt} (\alpha_i \circ \Gamma) \Big|_t \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_{\Gamma(t)}.$$

Thus we have —

$$\frac{d}{dt} (\alpha_i \circ \Gamma) = X(x_i)$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} t \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \\ i \in \{1, \dots, n\} \\ \text{initial value: } \alpha_i(\Gamma(0)) = 0 \\ \text{locality: } \Gamma(t) \in U \end{array} \right.$$

In local coordinates we can define $x \in f \circ \tau : (\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow f(U) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ as a smooth curve on \mathbb{R}^n , and then we can think about integral curves as solution of the ODE

$$\frac{d}{dt}(x) = X(x) = X_x$$

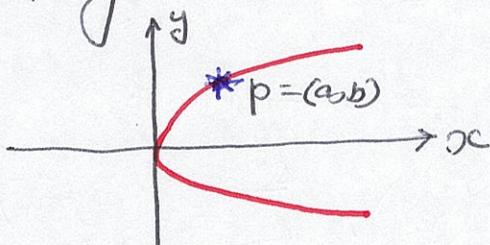
Solutions exist and they are unique because $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$

\rightarrow Example: $M = \mathbb{R}^2$, $X(x, y) = 2x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial}{\partial y}$, $p \in (a, b)$. Then the associated ODEs are —

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = 2x \quad \text{with } x(0) = a \Rightarrow x(t) = e^{2t} \cdot a$$

$$\text{and } \frac{dy}{dt} = y \quad \text{with } y(0) = b \Rightarrow y(t) = e^t b$$

The integral curve: $\tau(t) = (ae^{2t}, be^t)$



\rightarrow Let, $f, g_1, \dots, g_m \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ be $(m+1)$ smooth vector fields, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt}(x) &= f(x) + \sum_{i=1}^m u_i g_i(x), \quad x \in M \\ &= \left(f + \sum_{i=1}^m g_i u_i \right)(x) \end{aligned}$$

defines a control system on M . $\{u_i\}_{i=1}^m$ are called control inputs. This type of control systems are called input affine system, and $f(x)$, $x \in M$ is called the drift vector field.

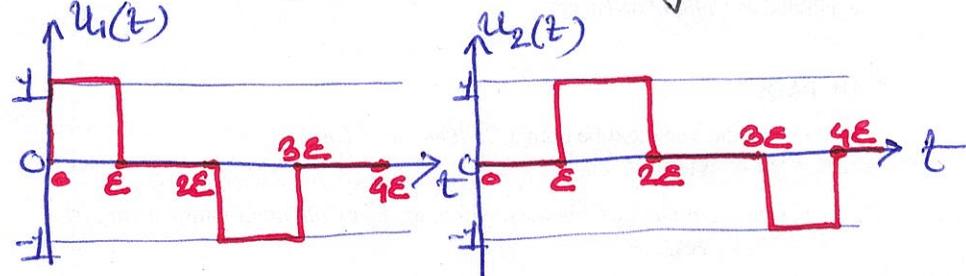
Lie Brackets in a Driftless Control System 10/17/2017
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Consider the following control system defined on $M = \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(x(t)) = u_1(t)g_1(x(t)) + u_2(t)g_2(x(t))$$

$$x: (-T, T) \rightarrow M = \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$g_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{R}^n)$$



Then, by letting $\epsilon \in (0, T/4)$ be sufficiently small, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 x(\epsilon) &= x_0 + \int_0^\epsilon g_1(x(\tau_1)) d\tau_1 \quad (\text{where } x(0) = x_0) \\
 &= x_0 + \int_0^\epsilon g_1\left(x_0 + \int_0^{\tau_1} g_1(x(\tau_2)) d\tau_2\right) d\tau_1 \\
 &= x_0 + \int_0^\epsilon \left(g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \cdot \left(\int_0^{\tau_1} g_1(x(\tau_2)) d\tau_2\right)\right) d\tau_1 \\
 &= x_0 + \epsilon \cdot g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \int_0^{\epsilon \tau_1} \int_0^{\tau_2} g_1(x(\tau_3)) d\tau_2 d\tau_1 \\
 &= x_0 + \epsilon g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \int_0^\epsilon \int_0^{\tau_1} \int_0^{\tau_2} g_1\left(x_0 + \int_0^{\tau_3} g_1(x(\tau_4)) d\tau_4\right) d\tau_2 d\tau_1 \\
 &= x_0 + \epsilon g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \int_0^\epsilon \int_0^{\tau_1} \left(g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \left(\int_0^{\tau_2} g_1(x(\tau_3)) d\tau_3\right)\right) d\tau_2 d\tau_1 \\
 &= x_0 + \epsilon g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) g_1(x_0) \left(\int_0^{\epsilon \tau_1} \int_0^{\tau_2} d\tau_2 d\tau_1\right) \\
 &\quad + \left(\frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0)\right)^2 \int_0^{\epsilon \tau_1} \int_0^{\tau_2} \int_0^{\tau_3} g_1(x(\tau_3)) d\tau_3 d\tau_2 d\tau_1
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$x(\epsilon)$$

$$= x_0 + \epsilon g_1(x_0) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) g_1(x_0) + O(\epsilon^3)$$

In a similar way —

$$x(2\epsilon)$$

$$= x(\epsilon) + \epsilon \cdot g_2(x(\epsilon)) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x}(x(\epsilon)) g_2(x(\epsilon)) + O(\epsilon^3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= x_0 + \epsilon g_1(x_0) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \left. \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) + \epsilon g_2(x_0) + \epsilon^2 \left. \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) \\ &\quad + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \left. \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) + O(\epsilon^3) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= x_0 + \epsilon \cdot (g_1(x_0) + g_2(x_0)) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \left(\left. \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) + \left. \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + 2 \left. \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) \right) + O(\epsilon^3) \end{aligned}$$

Then we have —

$$x(3\epsilon)$$

$$= x(2\epsilon) - \epsilon g_1(x(2\epsilon)) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \left. \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} \right|_{x(2\epsilon)} g_1(x(2\epsilon)) + O(\epsilon^3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= x_0 + \epsilon \cdot (g_1(x_0) + g_2(x_0)) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \left(\left. \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) + \left. \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) + 2 \left. \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \epsilon g_1(x_0) - \epsilon^2 \left. \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} (g_1(x_0) + g_2(x_0)) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \left. \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) + O(\epsilon^3) \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= x_0 + \epsilon \cdot g_2(x_0) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \left(\left. \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) + 2 \cdot \left. \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - 2 \left. \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} \right|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) \right) + O(\epsilon^3) \end{aligned}$$

Finally,

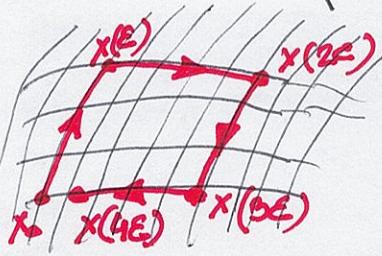
$$x(4\epsilon)$$

$$= x(3\epsilon) + \epsilon g_2(x(3\epsilon)) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x}(x(3\epsilon)) g_2(x(3\epsilon)) + O(\epsilon^3)$$

$$= x_0 + \epsilon g_2(x_0) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \left(\frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) + 2 \left(\frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) - \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) \right) \right)$$

$$- \epsilon \cdot g_2(x_0) - \epsilon^2 \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2!} \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) + O(\epsilon^3)$$

$$= x_0 + \epsilon^2 \left(\frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) - \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) \right) + O(\epsilon^3)$$



$$\triangleq [g_1, g_2](x_0)$$

\uparrow Lie-bracket

{ It can give rise to motion which were not possible with individual vector fields alone.

→ Now, $[\cdot, \cdot]: \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^n) \times \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ defines a second binary operation on $\mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, which we have shown earlier is a vector space over \mathbb{R} . In fact, with this Lie-bracket operation, we can show that $\mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is an algebra.

Moreover,

$$-[g_1, g_2] = -[g_2, g_1]$$

$$-[g_1, [g_2, g_3]] + [g_2, [g_3, g_1]] + [g_3, [g_1, g_2]] = 0$$

for any $g_1, g_2, g_3 \in \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^n)$

Thus, $\mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is a Lie-algebra.

An Example:- (Non-holonomic Integrator) 10/17/2017
BDI (9-11)

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= u_1 \\ \dot{y} &= u_2 \\ \dot{z} &= xu_2 - yu_1\end{aligned}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -y \end{pmatrix} u_1 + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ x \end{pmatrix} u_2$$

$\downarrow \quad \quad \quad \uparrow g_1 \quad \quad \quad \uparrow g_2$

$$\ddot{x}y - \dot{y}\dot{x} + \dot{z} = 0$$

$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} y \\ -x \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \\ \dot{z} \end{pmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow$ gives us a constraint on the possible velocities; or, in other words, only a subset of the tangent space can be achieved.

Now,

$$[g_1, g_2] = \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} g_1 - \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} g_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -y \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ x \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that g_1, g_2 and $[g_1, g_2]$ are all linearly independent. As a consequence, by switching between the control inputs we can move the system state in certain directions which were not initially possible.

Fun fact:

$$u_1 = -\alpha A \sin(\alpha t + \phi)$$

$$u_2 = \alpha A \cos(\alpha t + \phi)$$

Then, $\begin{cases} \dot{x} = \alpha A \cos(\alpha t + \phi) \\ \dot{y} = A \sin(\alpha t + \phi) \end{cases} \Rightarrow \dot{z} = \alpha A^2 t$

