

① Some relevant aspects of vector fields:

→ Let M be an n -dimensional smooth manifold. $C^\infty(M)$ and $\mathfrak{X}(M)$ 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—

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

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

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

$$\text{and, } ii) \mathbb{R} \times \mathfrak{X}(M) \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}(M)$$

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

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

→ Moreover, for any given $\mathbb{F} \in C^\infty(M)$ we can define,

$$\mathbb{F} X(p) \triangleq \mathbb{F}(p) X_p \in T_p M \quad \mathbb{F} X \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$$

As this defines ~~a map~~ a mapping

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

$\mathfrak{X}(M)$ 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

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

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

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

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

Proof: Our proof is carried out in three steps.

→ Lemma 1: If for $X, Y \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$ 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 $\Psi \in C^\infty(M)$ such that Ψ is 1 in a neighborhood of p in U and Ψ 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 $\Phi = \Psi \cdot x_i$ we have —

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

As $X(\Phi) = 0$ for any $\Phi \in C^\infty(M)$ we have — 10/17/2017
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$$X_j = 0 \text{ for all } j \in \{1, \dots, n\}.$$

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 $\Theta \equiv 1 - \Psi$, we can notice that

$$\text{— whenever } q \in M \setminus U, (\Phi\Theta)(q) = \Phi(q) - \Phi(q)\Psi(q) \\ = \Phi(q) \quad \begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ = 0 \text{ as } \\ M \setminus U \subset M \setminus U_p \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{— whenever } q \in U, (\Phi\Theta)(q) = \Phi(q) - \Phi(q)\Psi(q) \\ = 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{as } \Phi = 0 \text{ on } U \\ = \Phi(q)$$

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

Then, ~~we~~

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

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, $X_p(\Psi) = D\Psi(p)$ for any $\Psi \in C^\infty(M)$ which agrees with Φ 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 Ψ around p . Then we have $\Phi = \Theta$ (i.e. $\Phi - \Theta = 0$) on a neighborhood around p . Then from Lemma 2, $D\Phi = D\Theta$ 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, $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)$ be the coordinate functions corresponding to a chart (U, f) covering $p \in M$.

Then, $X = \sum_{i=1}^m X_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_i}$ in ~~the~~ a neighborhood of p , where $X_i = X_p(\alpha_i) = D\alpha_i(p)$. As $D\alpha_i$ is smooth for all $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$, X itself is smooth. \square

→ $X: C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$, $\Phi \mapsto X(\Phi)$ such that $(X(\Phi))_p = X_p(\Phi)$. $X(\Phi)$ is called the Lie-derivative of Φ with respect to X , and often denoted as $\mathcal{L}_X \Phi$.

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—

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

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m) \text{ are the} \\ \text{coordinate functions} \\ \text{corresponding to a chart} \\ (U, f) \text{ covering } p \in M. \end{array} \right.$

On the other hand,

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

Thus we have —

$$\boxed{\frac{d}{dt} (\alpha_i \circ \gamma) = X(\alpha_i)}$$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} t \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \\ i \in \{1, \dots, m\} \\ \text{initial value: } \\ \alpha_i(\gamma(0)) = 0 \\ \text{Locality} \\ \{\gamma(t)\}_{t \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon)} \subset U \end{array} \right.$

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

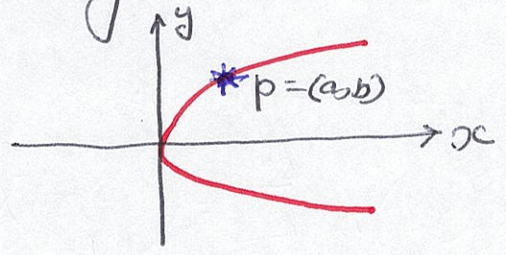
$$\frac{d}{dt}(\alpha) = X(\alpha) = X_x \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Solutions exist and} \\ \text{they are unique} \\ \text{because } X \in \mathfrak{X}(M) \end{array} \right.$$

→ 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 —

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

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

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



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

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

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 $f(\alpha)$, $\alpha \in M$ is called the drift vector field.

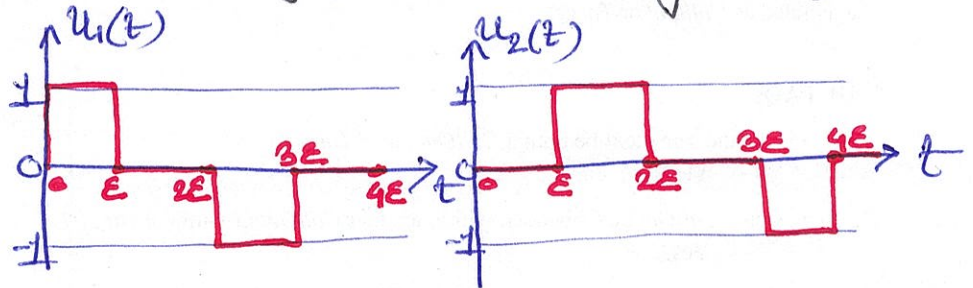
Lie Brackets in a Driftless Control System - 10/17/2017
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Consider the following control system defined on $M = \mathbb{R}^m$

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

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

$$g_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{R}^m)$$



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

$$x(\epsilon) = x_0 + \int_0^\epsilon g_1(x(\tau_1)) d\tau_1 \quad (\text{where } x(0) = x_0)$$

$$= x_0 + \int_0^\epsilon g_1\left(x_0 + \int_0^{\tau_1} g_1(x(\tau_2)) d\tau_2\right) d\tau_1$$

$$= x_0 + \int_0^\epsilon \left(g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \cdot \left(\int_0^{\tau_1} g_1(x(\tau_2)) d\tau_2 \right) \right) d\tau_1$$

$$= x_0 + \epsilon g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \int_0^\epsilon \int_0^{\tau_1} g_1(x(\tau_2)) d\tau_2 d\tau_1$$

$$= x_0 + \epsilon g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \int_0^\epsilon \int_0^{\tau_1} \left(g_1(x_0) + \int_0^{\tau_2} g_1(x(\tau_3)) d\tau_3 \right) d\tau_2 d\tau_1$$

$$= x_0 + \epsilon g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \int_0^\epsilon \int_0^{\tau_1} \left(g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \left(\int_0^{\tau_2} g_1(x(\tau_3)) d\tau_3 \right) \right) d\tau_2 d\tau_1$$

$$= x_0 + \epsilon g_1(x_0) + \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) g_1(x_0) \left(\int_0^\epsilon \int_0^{\tau_1} d\tau_2 d\tau_1 \right)$$

$$+ \left(\frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(x_0) \right) \int_0^{2\epsilon} \int_0^{\tau_1} \int_0^{\tau_2} g_1(x(\tau_3)) d\tau_3 d\tau_2 d\tau_1$$

Thus,

$$\alpha(\varepsilon)$$

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

In a similar way —

$$\alpha(2\varepsilon)$$

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

$$= \cancel{x_0} + \varepsilon g_1(x_0) + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2!} \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) + \varepsilon g_2(x_0) + \varepsilon^2 \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_0} g_1(x_0) + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2!} \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_0} g_2(x_0) + O(\varepsilon^3)$$

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

Then we have —

$$\alpha(3\varepsilon)$$

$$= \alpha(2\varepsilon) - \varepsilon g_1(\alpha(2\varepsilon)) + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2!} \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x}(\alpha(2\varepsilon)) g_1(\alpha(2\varepsilon)) + O(\varepsilon^3)$$

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

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

Finally,

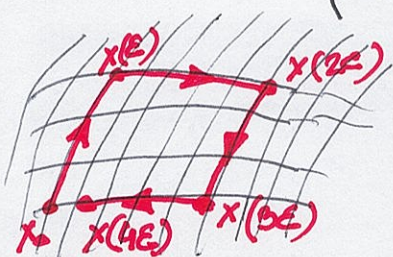
$$x(4\varepsilon)$$

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

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

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

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



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

↑ Lie-bracket

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

→ Now, $[\cdot, \cdot]: \mathfrak{X}(\mathbb{R}^m) \times \mathfrak{X}(\mathbb{R}^m) \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}(\mathbb{R}^m)$ defines a second binary operation on $\mathfrak{X}(\mathbb{R}^m)$, which we have shown earlier is a vector space over \mathbb{R} . In fact, with this Lie-bracket operation, we can show that $\mathfrak{X}(\mathbb{R}^m)$ 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 $g_1, g_2, g_3 \in \mathfrak{X}(\mathbb{R}^m)$
 Thus, $\mathfrak{X}(\mathbb{R}^m)$ is a Lie-algebra.

An Example: (Non-holonomic Integrator) 13/17/2017
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$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = u_1 \\ \dot{y} = u_2 \\ \dot{z} = xu_2 - yu_1 \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -y \end{pmatrix} u_1 + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ x \end{pmatrix} u_2$$

$\uparrow g_1$ $\uparrow g_2$

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

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

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

\uparrow
 $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$

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

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:

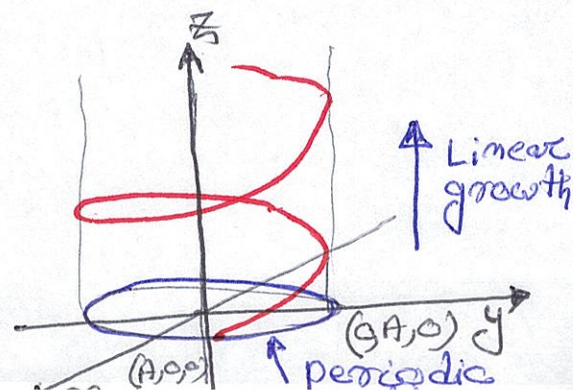
$$u_1 = -\alpha A \sin(\alpha t + \phi)$$

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

$$z = \alpha A^2 t$$



$$\dot{z} = \alpha A^2$$



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