

Statistical criteria for the limits of application of Hooke's law

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Modern methods for studying the stress-strain state of solids use graphical methods based on a stress-strain curve to determine the transition from elastic deformation to plastic deformation. However, this approach is not formal and it is intended only for when stress is a function of strain in the one-dimensional case. Cases, when strain is a function of the stress, are also of practical importance. The purpose of the study is to develop formal rules for determining the limits of applicability of Hooke's law. The proposed analytical methods for determining the transition from elastic deformation to plastic deformation are based on consistent statistical sequential. In this article, quadratic forms are derived for calculating the point at which the type of an increasing monotonous numerical sequence changes from linear to non-linear type. With the help of these quadratic forms, statistical criteria (approximation-estimation tests) are constructed to determine the limits of applicability for Hooke's law. These boundaries are defined as Markov moments. The novelty of the results shows that it is possible to determine the yield point without visualizing the experimental data. The numerical example of the application of a parabolic approximation-estimation test is provided. From the results of this experiment, it can be concluded that the analytical determination of the limits of applicability of Hooke's law coincides with a visual assessment. Approximation-estimation tests provide an opportunity to determine the limits of applicability of Hooke's law analytically.

Keywords: Hooke's law, stress, strain, approximation-estimation test, least squares method, Markov moments.

1. Introduction. The primary purpose of studying the properties of materials when exposed to external forces is to establish a relationship between stresses and strains. Sometimes displacements and deformations are determined by stresses and forces, and sometimes vice versa, forces, and stresses are determined by displacements and deformations. The purest form of such a dependence arises during elastic deformations and is expressed by Hooke's law, which states that stress is proportional to deformation [1, 2].

For example, for uniaxial tension (compression) along the z -axis, this law can be expressed by the simple formula $\sigma_z = E\varepsilon_z$, where σ_z is the longitudinal stress, ε_z is the relative elongation, E is proportionality coefficient. This coefficient is called Young's modulus (for a fixed isotropic and homogeneous material, the coefficient E is a constant value). It is important to note that during axial compression of the cylinder, in addition to longitudinal shortening, transverse elongation occurs. However, in the transverse direction, there is no stress. Therefore, the one-dimensional form of Hooke's law generally cases insufficient. Experimental studies have shown that under uniaxial stress in solids, triaxial deformation occurs (except for individual cases of anisotropy) [3].

Transverse deformation under elastic tension (compression) is characterized by the

Poisson coefficient of ν , which is equal to the ratio of transverse and longitudinal deformation with the opposite sign. Another important quantity is the shear modulus G , which characterizes the material's ability to resist shear. The following relationship determines the shear modulus:

$$G = \frac{\tau}{\gamma},$$

where τ is the shear stress, γ is shear deformation. In a homogeneous isotropic material, the shear modulus is connected with the Young's modulus through the Poisson's ratio:

$$G = \frac{E}{2(1 + \nu)},$$

here ν is the value of the Poisson's ratio for a given material [1, 2].

The shear modulus, Young's modulus, and Poisson's ratio are quantities characterizing the elastic properties of a material. All of them are used in the generalized Hooke's law [2]. For an isotropic material, this law can be represented:

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon_x &= \frac{1}{E} [\sigma_x - \nu(\sigma_y + \sigma_z)], & \gamma_{xy} &= \frac{\tau_{xy}}{G}, \\ \varepsilon_y &= \frac{1}{E} [\sigma_y - \nu(\sigma_z + \sigma_x)], & \gamma_{yz} &= \frac{\tau_{yz}}{G}, \\ \varepsilon_z &= \frac{1}{E} [\sigma_z - \nu(\sigma_x + \sigma_y)], & \gamma_{xz} &= \frac{\tau_{xz}}{G}. \end{aligned}$$

Continuous medium and internal stresses are abstract scientific concepts. They differ from real crystalline lattices and laws of interatomic interaction. Therefore, Hooke's law is a model approximation of physical processes in solids. However, experimentally shown that this law is observed with sufficient accuracy for the vast majority of materials, but only within specified limits. The limits of applicability of Hooke's law are limited to the onset of significant deviations from the linear relationship between stresses and strains. That is, if the relationship between deformation and stress is linear, then the calculation of strength, stiffness, and stability is based on the paradigm of Hooke's law. If the relation between stresses and strains ceases to be linear, then Hooke's law becomes inapplicable [3]. Such situations arise both in experiments and in theoretical studies.

If we study the dependence of the stress on the strain, the transition from an elastic to a plastic state is characterized by a change in the type of increase in stress from linear to logarithmic, for example [4, 5]. If the strain is a function of stress, then the transition from an elastic to a plastic state is characterized by a change in the type of strain growth from linear to parabolic or exponential, for example [6, 7].

The test results for the strength of various materials or the numerical modeling of their properties are usually presented in the form of tabular functions. In most cases, their analytical form is unknown. Currently used graphical methods for determining the elastic-plastic zone boundaries using the stress-strain curve are relatively primitive. They are intended only when the stress is a function of strain [8, 9]. Cases when strain is a function of the stress are also it is crucial.

In this regard, it is of practical interest to obtain statistical criteria that make it possible to determine the moment when the nature of the monotonous increase in the tabulated value goes from linear to non-linear type.

2. Four classes of approximating functions. We will build these criteria in the form of statistics based on a comparison of the quadratic errors of approximation of a

numerical sequence in four classes of real functions: linear — $f(x) = ax + b$, incomplete parabolic (without linear term) — $f(x) = cx^2 + d$, logarithmic — $f(x) = g \ln(x + 1) + h$ and exponential — $f(x) = pe^x + q$. We consider mappings defined on a discrete subset of points $\{t_0, t_1, \dots, t_n, \dots\}$ of the number line \mathbb{R} . If all these points are equidistant, i. e. for $\forall n: t_n - t_{n-1} = T$, then such functions are called functions of discrete argument and are denoted as $f[nT]$, where T is the period of discreteness. The transition from linear to non-linear dependence does not depend on the scale. Therefore, due to the similarity transformation, the discreteness period T can be to the unit one and consider in the further the lattice functions as numeric sequences $y_n = \{y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n, \dots\}$.

We will accept the agreement that the sequence y_n is non-negative, monotonically increasing, and a priori y_n first changes “linearly” and then “nonlinearly”. For further constructions, it is necessary to agree on the precise understanding of the terms: “linear increase” and “nonlinear increase” of a numerical sequence. In this case, the evaluation of the nature of the change in y_n is implied by the local. Not overall values y_n but only by several elements y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{k-1} .

We use the concept of an approximating function [10, 11]. The approximation nodes for the y_n numerical sequence are ordered pairs (i, y_i) , where i is a natural argument, y_i is the corresponding sequence values of y_n . Since the subscript of the sequence y_n uniquely identifies natural argument, then the approximation node (i, y_i) will be identified with the element of the sequence y_i , we will call them “natural nodes”. The mapping $f(x)$ from the class of function X is an approximating function for the natural nodes y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{k-1} , if it is the most is close to these points (in a certain sense) among all the mappings from X . The segment of the real axis $[y_0, y_{k-1}]$ is called “a current interval of approximation”. It is clear that all natural nodes y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{k-1} , belong to $[y_0, y_{k-1}]$.

The sum of the squares of the differences y_n and $f(x)$ with the corresponding the values of the natural argument is called the quadratic error of the approximation of the number sequence y_n by the function $f(x)$ at the natural nodes y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{k-1} :

$$\delta^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (f(i) - y_i)^2.$$

A real function $f(x)$ of a certain class X approximates the numerical sequence y_n using the method of least squares, if the following for quadratic form δ_f^2 is true:

$$\delta_f^2 = \min_{f \in X} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (f(i) - y_i)^2.$$

Such a minimum can always be found as δ_f^2 is a positive definite quadratic form [12, 13].

The quadratic errors for the linear, incomplete parabolic, logarithmic and exponential approximations for the natural nodes y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{k-1} are respectively equal to:

$$\delta_l^2(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (a \cdot i + b - y_i)^2, \quad \delta_q^2(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (c \cdot i^2 + d - y_i)^2,$$

$$\delta_n^2(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (g \cdot \ln(i + 1) + h - y_i)^2, \quad \delta_e^2(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (p \cdot e^i + q - y_i)^2.$$

Let $m = \min(\delta_l^2(k), \delta_q^2(k), \delta_n^2(k), \delta_e^2(k))$.

We will assume by definition that increasing the number sequence y_n over the natural nodes y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{k-1} is linear if $m = \delta_l^2(k)$. Respectively: an increase in y_n is parabolic in nature, if $m = \delta_q^2(k)$, an increase in y_n is logarithmic, if $m = \delta_n^2(k)$, an increase in y_n is exponential, if $m = \delta_e^2(k)$.

3. Construction of “approximation-estimating tests”. When constructing quadratic forms of “approximation-estimating tests”, besides the similarity transformation, you can use one more trick, we will consider the values of the sequence y_n at the points y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{k-1} assuming that $y_0 = 0$ [14, 15]. It is easy to achieve this condition at any approximation step using a linear transformation:

$$y_0 = y_j - y_j, \quad y_1 = y_{j+1} - y_j, \quad y_2 = y_{j+2} - y_j, \quad \dots, \quad y_{k-1} = y_{j+k-1} - y_j.$$

We will calculate coefficients of the linear, parabolic, logarithmic, and exponential approximation of the numerical sequence y_n over the natural nodes y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{k-1} .

First, using the method of least squares, we calculate the coefficients a, b of the linear function $f(x) = ax + b$ approximating the natural nodes y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{k-1} . For this, we find the local minimum of the function of two variables

$$f_l(a, b) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (a \cdot i + b - y_i)^2.$$

Calculate the partial derivatives of the function $f_l(a, b)$

$$\frac{\partial f_l}{\partial a} = 2a \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i^2 + 2b \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i - 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i \cdot y_i,$$

$$\frac{\partial f_l}{\partial b} = 2a \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i + 2b \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 1 - 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} y_i.$$

By equating them to zero, we obtain a system of linear equations for the unknown a and b :

$$\begin{cases} \frac{k(k-1)(2k-1)}{6} \cdot a + \frac{k(k-1)}{2} \cdot b = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} i \cdot y_i, \\ \frac{k(k-1)}{2} \cdot a + k \cdot b = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} y_i, \end{cases}$$

which implies

$$a = \frac{6}{k(k^2-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (2i+1-k)y_i, \quad b = \frac{2}{k(k+1)} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (2k-1-3i)y_i.$$

Then we calculate the coefficients c, d of the incomplete quadratic function $cx^2 + d$ as the local minimum for

$$f_q(c, d) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (c \cdot i^2 + d - y_i)^2.$$

Differentiating $f_q(c, d)$ we find

$$\frac{\partial f_q}{\partial c} = 2c \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i^4 + 2d \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i^2 - 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i^2 \cdot y_i,$$

$$\frac{\partial f_q}{\partial d} = 2c \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i^2 + 2d \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 1 - 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} y_i,$$

$$\begin{cases} \frac{k(k-1)(2k-1)(3k^2-3k-1)}{30} \cdot c + \frac{k(k-1)(2k-1)}{6} \cdot d = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} i^2 \cdot y_i, \\ \frac{k(k-1)(2k-1)}{6} \cdot c + k \cdot d = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} y_i. \end{cases}$$

We find that

$$c = \frac{30}{k(k-1)(2k-1)(8k^2-3k-11)} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (6i^2 - (k-1)(2k-1))y_i,$$

$$d = \frac{6}{k(8k^2-3k-11)} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (3k(k-1) - 1 - 5i^2)y_i.$$

Using the method of least squares, we calculate the coefficients of the approximating function $g \ln(x+1) + h$. We find the local minimum of the function

$$f_n(g, h) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (g \ln(x+1) + h - y_i)^2.$$

We calculate the partial derivatives of the function $f_n(g, h)$

$$\frac{\partial f_n}{\partial g} = 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln(i+1)(g \ln(i+1) + h - y_i),$$

$$\frac{\partial f_n}{\partial h} = 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (g \ln(i+1) + h - y_i),$$

and equate them to zero, we find the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} g \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln^2(i+1) + h \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln(i+1) = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \ln(i+1)y_i, \\ g \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln(i+1) + kh = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} y_i. \end{cases}$$

We find that

$$g = \frac{k \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \ln(i+1)y_i - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln(i+1) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} y_i}{k \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln^2(i+1) - \left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln(i+1)\right)^2},$$

$$h = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} y_i \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln^2(i+1) - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln(i+1) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \ln(i+1)y_i}{k \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln^2(i+1) - \left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \ln(i+1)\right)^2}.$$

Similarly, we calculate the coefficients p and q for the function $pe^x + q$, through finding the local minimum of the function

$$f_e(p, q) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (pe^i + q - y_i)^2.$$

We calculate the partial derivatives of $f_e(p, q)$, equate them to zero, and solve the system of linear equations

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f_e}{\partial p} &= 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^i (pe^i + q - y_i), \\ \frac{\partial f_e}{\partial q} &= 2 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (pe^i + q - y_i), \\ \begin{cases} p \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^{2i} + q \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^i = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} e^i y_i, \\ p \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^i + kq = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} y_i. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

We find that

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \frac{k \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} e^i y_i - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^i \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} y_i}{k \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^{2i} - \left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^i\right)^2}, \\ q &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} y_i \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^{2i} - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^i \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} e^i y_i}{k \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^{2i} - \left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^i\right)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Now it is possible to construct three “approximation-estimating tests”, which are designed to determine the moment when the increase in the monotonous sequence y_n , the numerical parameters of the solid, changes from linear to parabolic, logarithmic or exponential.

“Parabolic approximation-estimating test” has the form

$$\delta_{lq}^2(k) = \delta_l^2(k) - \delta_q^2(k).$$

If for the natural nodes y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{k-1} the inequality $\delta_{lq}^2(k) \leq 0$ is satisfied, and for the nodes y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k , shifted right by one step of discreteness, the inequality sign changes to the inverse $\delta_{lq}^2(k) > 0$, then we can say that near the point y_k the character of increasing of the sequence y_n has changed from linear to parabolic.

Similarly, we define:

“logarithmic approximation-estimating test”:

$$\delta_{ln}^2(k) = \delta_l^2(k) - \delta_n^2(k),$$

“exponential approximation-estimating test”:

$$\delta_{le}^2(k) = \delta_l^2(k) - \delta_e^2(k).$$

4. Markov's moments for the boundaries of elastic deformation. Consider a physical or numerical experiment as a random process.

Let $T = \overline{1, m-1}$, a bounded subset of the natural series containing the first $m-1$ natural numbers (we note right away that m can be arbitrarily large). Then the indexed family $\xi = \{\xi_t, t \in T\}$ of random variables $\xi_t = \xi_t(\omega)$ given for $\forall t \in T$ on the same probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is called a discrete random process [16, 17].

Each random variable ξ_t generates an σ -algebra, which will be denoted as \mathcal{F}_{ξ_t} . Then the σ -algebra generated by the random process $\xi = \{\xi_t, t \in T\}$ is the smallest σ -algebra containing all \mathcal{F}_{ξ_t} that is

$$\sigma(\xi) = \sigma \left(\bigcup_{t=1}^{m-1} \mathcal{F}_{\xi_t} \right).$$

A discrete random process $\xi = \{\xi_t, t \in T\}$ can be considered as a function of two variables $\xi = \xi(t, \omega)$, where t is a natural the argument ω is a random event. If we fix t , then, as mentioned above, we get a random variable ξ_t , but if we fix a random event ω_0 , we get a function of the natural argument t , which is called the trajectory of the random process $\xi = \{\xi_t, t \in T\}$ and is a random sequence $\xi_t(\omega_0)$.

We will consider only those random processes whose trajectories monotonically increase. An arbitrary random $\omega \in \Omega$ event is to extract a sample X from the n -dimensional Euclidean space \mathbb{E}^n . Theoretically, any point $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{E}^n$ can belong to the sampling X , therefore, the σ -algebra from the probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) contains \mathbb{E}^n , any finite set X from the space \mathbb{E}^n , all possible countable unions of such sets, and additions to by him. Denote this system of sets as $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{E}^n)$ and call it "selective σ -algebra" $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{E}^n)$. The same reasoning is valid for any σ -algebra \mathcal{F}_{ξ_t} , therefore,

$$\sigma(\xi) = \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{E}^n).$$

Note that this σ -algebra is "poorer" than the Borel σ -algebra — $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{E}^n) \subset \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{E}^n)$. Indeed, a countable union of at most countable sets is countable, therefore, $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{E}^n)$ does not contain intervals.

We will consider the problem of testing statistical hypotheses H_0 and H_1 [18]. There are two hypotheses H_0 : "the random sequence $\xi_t(\omega_0)$ increases is linear", and H_1 : "the random sequence $\xi_t(\omega_0)$, increases is nonlinearly". H_0 is called the null hypothesis, H_1 is called the alternative hypothesis.

It is necessary to construct a criterion as a strict mathematical rule, to test the statistical hypothesis. That rule accepts or rejects the hypothesis. Any statistical criterion is based on a random sample X . Two cases are possible. The first one, a sample X , is extracted from \mathbb{E}^n simultaneously and has a fixed size. The second one, when a sample X form at the period. Then its size is a random variable. In this case, the sequential analysis and the construction of a stopping time are used [19–21].

Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space, then the indexed family of σ -algebras $\mathfrak{F} = \{\mathcal{F}_t, t \in T\}$ is called a filtration if for $\forall i, j \in T | i < j : \mathcal{F}_i \subset \mathcal{F}_j \subset \mathcal{F}$. Moreover, if for $\forall t \in T$ right $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(\xi_i, i < t)$, then the filtration is called natural. The random process $\xi = \{\xi_t, t \in T\}$ is said to be adapted to the filtration \mathfrak{F} if for $\forall t \in T : \sigma(\xi_t) = \mathcal{F}_{\xi_t} \subset \mathcal{F}_t$.

Any stochastic process $\xi = \{\xi_t, t \in T\}$ is an adapted process with respect to its natural filtration. The mapping $\tau : \Omega \rightarrow T$ is called Markov moment [22] or stopping time (with respect to the filtration \mathfrak{F}) if for $\forall t \in T$ the preimage of the set $\{\tau \leq t\} \in \mathcal{F}_t$. In other words, let τ be the moment of occurrence of some event in the random process $\xi = \{\xi_t, t \in T\}$. If for $\forall t_0 \in T$, you can definitely say if the event τ has come or not,

provided that the values of ξ_t are known only in the past (to the left of t_0), then τ is a Markov moment with respect to natural filtration of \mathfrak{F} , random process $\xi = \{\xi_t, t \in T\}$ [21, 23]. In this case for a random sequence $\xi_t(\omega_0)$ the natural filtration an adapted with process is it the selective σ -algebra $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{E}^n)$.

In the case of the sequential statistical analysis, one can define the Markov moment (or stopping time) of the experiment as the values of t in which the change occurred like an increase in the random sequence $\xi_t(\omega_0)$ from linear type to nonlinear type. As such, we reject the null hypothesis H_0 and accept the alternative hypothesis H_1 . We write out the values of τ explicitly.

The transition from linear increase to parabolic growth – the Markov moment:

$$\tau = \min\{t \mid \delta_{lq}^2(k) > 0\}.$$

The transition from linear increase to logarithmic growth – the Markov moment:

$$\tau = \min\{t \mid \delta_{ln}^2(k) > 0\}.$$

The transition from a linear increase to an exponential growth – the Markov moment:

$$\tau = \min\{t \mid \delta_{le}^2(k) > 0\}.$$

5. Numerical simulation example. Let us consider the experiment results on uniform bending by a concentrated force P of a cantilever beam of model material with a single step of discreteness. It is required to determine the point in time when elastic deformation turns into plastic deformation. We use the hypothesis that the beginning of the plasticity development coincides with the point in time when the strains begin to increase rapidly, and their dependence on the load ceases to be linear. We will write a “parabolic approximation-estimating test” previously constructed for four natural nodes [14, 15]:

$$\delta_{lq}^2(4) = \frac{1}{245}(19y_1^2 - 11y_2^2 + 41y_3^2 + 12y_1y_2 - 64y_1y_3 - 46y_2y_3).$$

The deformation values and values of the criterion $\delta^2(4)$ are given in the Table. Values y_p present in a dimensionless and normalized form. The stress is also normalized and increases in the unit step. The symbol δ_4^2 denotes the criterion value under natural nodes: y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4 , the symbol δ_5^2 under nodes: y_2, y_3, y_4, y_5 , etc.

The first members of y_n is increase almost linear, since $\delta_{lq}^2 = \delta_l^2 - \delta_q^2 < 0$. Sign becomes positive of the quadratic form δ_{lq}^2 for nodes: $y_{26} = 15.90, y_{27} = 16.47, y_{28} = 17.26, y_{29} = 18.62$. It means that the character of increasing y_n has changed and has become parabolic. The graph of the numerical sequence y_n , shown in Figure, confirms this.

6. Conclusion. “Approximation-estimation tests” allow, with some probability, to determine the Markov moment in a physical or numerical experiment when the limit of applicability of Hooke’s law is reached. A significant problem is related to the sensitivity of “approximation-estimating tests” toward the length of the current interval of approximation and step of discreteness. This problem is that by a tiny step of discreteness, the change in any monotonic sequence will be linear, and to detect the occurrence of nonlinearity, it is necessary to increase the length of the current interval of approximation. Indeed, an increment of any smooth function is an infinitesimal quantity. It has been known that, in a small neighborhood, this increment is accurately approximated by the differential. However, as the argument increments increase, the differential approximation ceases to be satisfactory. Therefore, there is no general answer to the problem posed. It

Table. Values of the strain y_p and values the criterion $\delta^2(4)$

Step number	Strain id	Strain value	Criterion id	Criterion value
1	y_1	1.00	—	—
2	y_2	1.51	—	—
3	y_3	2.03	—	—
4	y_4	2.54	δ_{14}^2	-0.11
5	y_5	3.05	δ_{15}^2	-0.11
6	y_6	3.57	δ_{16}^2	-0.11
7	y_7	4.08	δ_{17}^2	-0.11
8	y_8	4.59	δ_{18}^2	-0.11
9	y_9	5.10	δ_{19}^2	-0.11
10	y_{10}	5.74	δ_{20}^2	-0.08
11	y_{11}	6.25	δ_{21}^2	-0.13
12	y_{12}	6.76	δ_{22}^2	-0.16
13	y_{13}	7.27	δ_{23}^2	-0.11
14	y_{14}	8.08	δ_{24}^2	-0.04
15	y_{15}	8.60	δ_{25}^2	-0.16
16	y_{16}	9.11	δ_{26}^2	-0.26
17	y_{17}	9.79	δ_{27}^2	-0.07
18	y_{18}	10.30	δ_{28}^2	-0.14
19	y_{19}	11.03	δ_{29}^2	-0.14
20	y_{20}	11.61	δ_{30}^2	-0.13
21	y_{21}	12.26	δ_{31}^2	-0.20
22	y_{22}	13.29	δ_{32}^2	-0.02
23	y_{23}	13.86	δ_{33}^2	-0.28
24	y_{24}	14.63	δ_{34}^2	-0.36
25	y_{25}	15.00	δ_{35}^2	-0.21
26	y_{26}	15.90	δ_{36}^2	-0.12
27	y_{27}	16.47	δ_{37}^2	-0.09
28	y_{28}	17.26	δ_{38}^2	-0.27
29	y_{29}	18.62	δ_{39}^2	0.14
30	y_{30}	20.52	—	—
31	y_{31}	23.46	—	—
32	y_{32}	28.17	—	—

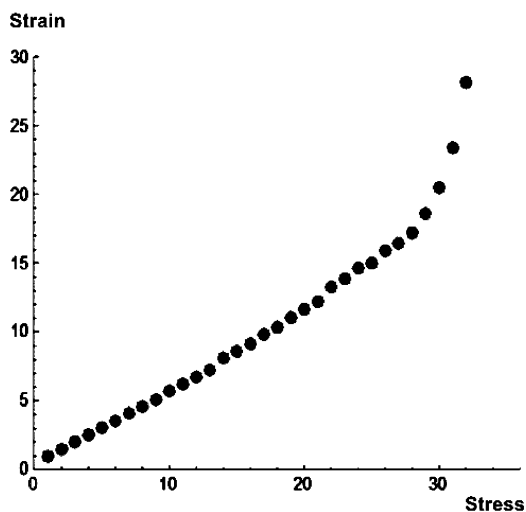


Figure. Strain-stress curve for uniform bending by a concentrated force P of a cantilever beam

should bear in mind that the increase in the number of natural nodes of approximation inevitably entails a geometric increase in the computational complexity of constructing a quadratic form for these tests.

The following thought gives some relief to the mind. If the discreteness step is so small that the approximation parameters of the stress-strain state of a solid still change linearly in the current interval, then the corresponding mathematical models can be built within the paradigm of generalized Hooke's law. On the other hand, proposed "approximation-estimating tests" allow us to determine the boundaries beyond which Hooke's law's use becomes incorrect. By the way, this law has usually used for small deformations. Therefore, admitting freedom of speech, it can be said that the "approximation-estimating tests" allow not only to determine the boundaries of the application of Hooke's law but also to formally approach the determination of the quantitative value of small deformation, for each fixed structural material.

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Статистические критерии для пределов применения закона Гука

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При современных способах исследования напряженно-деформированного состояния твердых тел и определения точки перехода от упругой к пластической деформации (точки предела упругости) используются графические методы, основанные на визуальной оценке кривых напряжения–деформации (диаграмм деформирования). Однако этот подход не является формальным и предназначен только для ситуаций, когда напряжение — это функция от деформации в одномерном случае. Случаи, когда деформация есть функция от нагрузки, также имеют большое практическое значение. Цель статьи — построение формальных правил для определения границ применимости закона Гука. Предлагаемые аналитические методы основаны на последовательном статистическом анализе. Выведены квадратичные формы для вычисления точки, в которой тип возрастающей монотонной числовой последовательности изменяется от линейного к нелинейному. С помощью таких квадратичных форм строятся статистические критерии для оценки границ применимости закона Гука, которые определяются как марковские моменты. Новизна результатов состоит в том, что предел упругости можно вычислить без визуализации экспериментальных данных. Приводится численный пример применения параболического аппроксимационно-оценочного критерия. По результатам этого эксперимента можно сделать вывод, что аналитическое определение границ применимости закона Гука совпадает с визуальной оценкой и аппроксимационно-оценочные критерии позволяют формально вычислять пределы применимости закона Гука.

Ключевые слова: закон Гука, напряжение, деформация, аппроксимационно-оценочный критерий, метод наименьших квадратов, марковский момент.

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Countable stability of a weak solution of a parabolic differential-difference system with distributed parameters on the graph

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The article proposes an analog of E. Rothe's method (semi-discretization with respect to the time variable) for construction convergent different schemes when analyzing the countable stability of a weak solution of an initial boundary value problem of the parabolic type with distributed parameters on a graph in the class of summable functions. The proposed method leads to the study of the input initial boundary value problem to analyze the boundary value problem in a weak setting for elliptical type equations with distributed parameters on the graph. By virtue of the specifics of this method, the stability of a weak solution is understood in terms of the spectral criterion of stability (Neumann's countable stability), which establishes the stability of the solution with respect to each harmonic of the generalized Fourier series of a weak solution or a segment of this series. Thus, there is another possibility indicated, in addition to the Faedo–Galerkin method, for constructing approaches to the desired solution of the initial boundary value problem, to analyze its stability and the way to prove the theorem of the existence of a weak solution to the input problem. The approach is applied to finding sufficient conditions for the countable stability of weak solutions to other initial boundary value problems with more general boundary conditions — in which elliptical equations are considered with the boundary conditions of the second or third type. Further analysis is possible to find the conditions under which Lyapunov stability is established. The approach can be used to analyze the optimal control problems, as well as the problems of stabilization and stability of differential systems with delay. Presented method of finite difference opens new ways for approximating the states of a parabolic system, analyzing their stability in the numerical implementation and algorithmization of optimal control problems.

Keywords: parabolic differential-difference system, distributed parameters on the graph, weak solution, countable stability.

1. Introduction. The paper provides a fairly sufficiently total approach of using ideas of the method of finite difference and some principles of construction converging different schemes when analyzing initial boundary value problems with distributed parameters on the graph in the class of summable up functions. The essence of the approach is not new — it is based on the method of E. Rote (1930), named in scientific literature by the method of semi-digitization (see, for example, [1]). This approach has been realized and proved in connection with the classic domains of spatial variable change [1, 2]. Further fundamental results of the study on the solvability of initial boundary value problems in network-like domains [3–5] allowed to transfer the ideas and results of [1, 2] without much difficulty in the case of parabolic equations with distributed parameters on the graph.

Below is an analogy of the Rote method [2, p. 189] which essentially reduces the analysis of the input initial boundary value problem to the study of the boundary value problem for elliptical type equations with distributed parameters on the graph. Thus, there is another possibility [1, 2, 6], besides the Faedo–Galerkin method, to construction approaches to the desired solution of the initial boundary value problem, to analyze its stability and the way to prove the theorem of the existence of a weak solution to the input problem. The approach is applied to finding sufficient conditions for the stability of weak solutions to other initial boundary value problems with more total boundary conditions – in which elliptical equations are considered with the boundary conditions of the second or third type. The solvability of such problems is proved similarly to the reasoning for the problem with the boundary conditions of the first type.

2. Notations, concepts and basic statements. In the represented work uses concepts and notations accepted in the works [6–10]: Γ is bounded oriented geometric graph with edges γ parameterized segment $[0, 1]$; $\partial\Gamma$ and $J(\Gamma)$ are many boundary ζ and interior ξ nodes of the graph, respectively; Γ_0 is join all the edges of the graph Γ that do not contain endpoints; $\Gamma_t = \Gamma_0 \times (0, t)$ ($\gamma_t = \gamma_0 \times (0, t)$), $\partial\Gamma_t = \partial\Gamma \times (0, t)$ ($t \in (0, T]$, $T < \infty$ is arbitrary fixed constant).

In the course of the work the Lebesgue integral is used by Γ or Γ_t : $\int_{\Gamma} f(x)dx = \sum_{\gamma} \int_{\gamma} f(x)_{\gamma} dx$ or $\int_{\Gamma_t} f(x, t) dx dt = \sum_{\gamma} \int_{\gamma_t} f(x, t)_{\gamma} dx dt$, $f(\cdot)_{\gamma}$ is narrowing the function $f(\cdot)$ to the edge γ .

Necessary spaces and sets: $C^1[\Gamma]$ is space of continuous and differentiable on Γ functions (derivative at the endpoints of the ribs is understood as one-sided), $L_p(\Gamma)$ ($p = 1, 2$) is the Banach space of measurable on Γ_0 functions summarized with a p degree (similar to space $L_p(\Gamma_T)$); $L_{2,1}(\Gamma_T)$ is the space of function from $L_1(\Gamma_T)$ with the norm, defined by the ratio $\|u\|_{L_{2,1}(\Gamma_T)} = \int_0^T (\int_{\Gamma} u^2(x, t) dx)^{1/2} dt$; $W_2^1(\Gamma)$ is the space of functions from $L_2(\Gamma)$ having a generalized first order derivative also from $L_2(\Gamma)$; $W_2^{1,0}(\Gamma_T)$ is the space functions from $L_2(\Gamma_T)$ having a generalized first order derivative by x belonging $L_2(\Gamma_T)$ (similarly entered the space $W_2^1(\Gamma_T)$).

Below is the difference-differential analogue of the parabolic equation

$$\frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(a(x) \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial x} \right) + b(x)y(x, t) = f(x, t), \quad x, t \in \Gamma_T, \quad (1)$$

with measurable bounded on Γ_0 functions $a(x)$, $b(x)$ summable with the square:

$$0 < a_* \leq a(x) \leq a^*, \quad |b(x)| \leq \beta, \quad x \in \Gamma_0. \quad (2)$$

Introduce space states of the parabolic system and auxiliary spaces (see [6, 8, 9]). To do this in space $W_2^1(\Gamma)$ consider the bilinear form

$$\ell(\mu, \nu) = \int_{\Gamma} \left(a(x) \frac{d\mu(x)}{dx} \frac{d\nu(x)}{dx} + b(x)\mu(x)\nu(x) \right) dx.$$

The following statement to take place [11].

Lemma 1. *Let fulfill conditions (2) and function $u(x) \in W_2^1(\Gamma)$ is such that $\ell(u, \nu) - \int_{\Gamma} f(x)\eta(x)dx = 0$ for any $\eta(x) \in W_2^1(\Gamma)$, $f(x) \in L_2(\Gamma)$ is fixed function. Then for any edge $\gamma \subset \Gamma$ narrowing $a(x)_{\gamma} \frac{du(x)_{\gamma}}{dx}$ continuously at the endpoints of the edge γ .*

Let's designate through $\Omega_a(\Gamma)$ a set of functions $u(x) \in C^1[\Gamma]$ that meet the conditions of Lemma 1 and ratios

$$\sum_{\gamma \in R(\xi)} a(1)_\gamma \frac{du(1)_\gamma}{dx} = \sum_{\gamma \in r(\xi)} a(0)_\gamma \frac{du(0)_\gamma}{dx}$$

in all the nodes $\xi \in J(\Gamma)$ (here $R(\xi)$ and $r(\xi)$ are sets of edges γ , respectively oriented "to node ξ " and "from node ξ "). The closing of the set $\Omega_a(\Gamma)$ in norm $W_{\frac{1}{2}}^1(\Gamma)$ relabel $W^1(a, \Gamma)$. In addition, if we assume that the functions $u(x) \in \Omega_a(\Gamma)$ satisfy the boundary condition $u(x)|_{\partial\Gamma} = 0$, then we will get space $W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$.

Next, let's designate through $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ the closure in the norm $W_2^{1,0}(\Gamma_T)$ the set of differentiable functions $\Omega(\Gamma_T)$, equal to zero near the boundary $\partial\Gamma_T$ and satisfying ratios

$$\sum_{\gamma \in R(\xi)} a(1)_\gamma \frac{\partial u(1,t)_\gamma}{\partial x} = \sum_{\gamma \in r(\xi)} a(0)_\gamma \frac{\partial u(0,t)_\gamma}{\partial x}$$

for all nodes $\xi \in J(\Gamma)$ and for any $t \in [0, T]$. Analogously let's introduce space $W_0^1(a, \Gamma_T)$ as the closure in the norm $W_2^1(\Gamma_T)$ set of functions $\Omega(\Gamma_T)$.

The space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ describes many states $y(x, t)$ of the parabolic system (1), $W_0^1(a, \Gamma_T)$ is auxiliary space.

For functions $y(x, t) \in W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ we consider equation (1) with initial and boundary conditions

$$y|_{t=0} = \varphi(x) \in L_2(\Gamma), \quad y|_{x \in \partial\Gamma_T} = 0; \quad (3)$$

the first equality in (3) have meaning sense and is understood almost everywhere.

Remark 1. In the paper in detail be considered the first initial boundary value problem (1), (3) (the boundary condition of Dirichlet in ratios (3)), for the rest types of boundary conditions given the necessary comment.

Below are the subsidiary statements in space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ and the main fragments of their evidence, the full evidence is given in the work [6].

Definition 1. A weak solution to the initial boundary value problem (1), (3) of class $W_2^{1,0}(\Gamma_T)$ is called a function $y(x, t) \in W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ that satisfies the integral identity

$$-\int_{\Gamma_T} y(x, t) \frac{\partial \eta(x, t)}{\partial t} dx dt + \ell_T(y, \eta) = \int_{\Gamma} \varphi(x) \eta(x, 0) dx + \int_{\Gamma_T} f(x, t) \eta(x, t) dx dt \quad (4)$$

for any $\eta(x, t) \in W_0^1(a, \Gamma_T)$ that is zero at $t = T$. Here $\ell_T(y, \eta)$ is bilinear form, defined by the ratio

$$\ell_T(y, \eta) = \int_{\Gamma_T} \left(a(x) \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial \eta(x, t)}{\partial x} + b(x) y(x, t) \eta(x, t) \right) dx dt.$$

In proving the solvability of the problem (1), (3) in space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ is used a special basis of space $W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$, that is a system of generalized eigenfunctions of the boundary value problem

$$-\frac{d}{dx} \left(a(x) \frac{du(x)}{dx} \right) + b(x) u(x) = \lambda u(x), \quad u(x)|_{\partial\Gamma} = 0 \quad (5)$$

in class $W^1(a, \Gamma)$ [11–13]. This problem is to find many such numbers (eigenvalues of the boundary value problem (5)), each of which corresponds to at least one nontrivial generalized solution $u(x) \in W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$ (generalized eigenfunction) that satisfies an integral

identity $\ell(u, \eta) = \lambda(u, \eta)$ for any function $\eta(x) \in W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$ (here and everywhere below through (\cdot, \cdot) designated the scalar product in $L_2(\Gamma)$ or $L_2(\Gamma_T)$). The following statement is true.

Lemma 2. *Let the assumptions (2) be fulfilled. Then the spectral problem (5) has an denumerable set of real eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}_{i \geq 1}$ (numbered in ascending order, with regard for their multiplicity) with a limit point on infinity (eigenvalues λ_i are positive, with the exception of maybe the final number of the first). The system of generalized eigenfunctions $\{u_i(x)\}_{i \geq 1}$ forms a basis in $W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$ and $L_2(\Gamma)$, orth-normalized in $W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$.*

Remark 2. If $b(x) \geq 0$ in (2), as is the case in applications, then all the eigenvalues of the spectral problem (5) are nonnegative.

Theorem 1. *For any $f(x) \in L_{2,1}(\Gamma_T)$, $\varphi(x) \in L_2(\Gamma)$ and for any $0 < T < \infty$ the initial boundary value problem (1), (3) is weak solvable in space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$.*

With proof of theorem we construct the Faedo–Galerkin’s approximations on the basis $\{u_i(x)\}_{i \geq 1}$: the approximate solutions $y^N(x, t)$ (natural N is fixed) of problem (1), (3) have form $y^N(x, t) = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i^N(t) u_i(x)$, where $c_i^N(t)$ are absolutely continuous on $[0, T]$ functions ($c_i^N(t) \in L_2(0, T)$), defined from the system

$$\left(\frac{\partial y^N}{\partial t}, u_i \right) + \int_{\Gamma} \left(a(x) \frac{\partial y^N(x, t)}{\partial x} \frac{du_i(x)}{dx} + b(x) y^N(x, t) u_i(x) \right) dx = (f, u_i),$$

$$c_i^N(0) = (\varphi, u_i), \quad i = \overline{1, N}.$$

Further reasoning based on a priori estimates of norm of weak solutions (1), (3) and construction the subsequence $\{y^{N_k}\}_{k \geq 1}$ of sequence $\{y^N\}_{N \geq 1}$, weakly converge to solution $y(x, t) \in W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ in a norm of $W_0^{1,0}(\Gamma_T)$ (weak compactness $\{y^{N_k}\}_{k \geq 1}$). Namely, it is shown that for a approximate solution $y^N(x, t)$ is inequality

$$\|y^N\|_{2, \Gamma_t} \leq C(t) (\|y^N(x, 0)\|_{L_2(\Gamma)} + 2\|f\|_{L_{2,1}(\Gamma_t)})$$

for any $t \in [0, T]$, where $\|\cdot\|_{2, \Gamma_t}$ is a norm of $W^{1,0}(\Gamma_t)$, the function $C(t)$ is limited to $t \in [0, T]$ ($C(t) \leq C^*, 0 < C^* < \infty$), not depend on N , is determined by the value T and permanent a^*, β . From this inequality, taking into account the ratio $c_i^N(0) = (\varphi, u_i)$ ($i = \overline{1, N}$) and by virtue of inequalities

$$\|y^N(x, 0)\|_{L_2(\Gamma)} = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^N (\varphi, u_i) u_i(x) \right\| \leq \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N |(\varphi, u_i)|} \leq \|\varphi\|_{L_2(\Gamma)}$$

($\|\cdot\|$ is Euclidean norm: $\|\omega\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N \omega_i^2}$) it should be

$$\|y^N\|_{2, \Gamma_t} \leq C(t) (\|\varphi\|_{L_2(\Gamma)} + 2\|f\|_{L_{2,1}(\Gamma_t)}), \quad (6)$$

that means independent of N estimate $\|y^N\|_{2, \Gamma_t} \leq C$ ($C > 0$).

The latter means: from the sequence $\{y^{N_k}\}_{k \geq 1}$ with limited totality elements y^N can be distinguish the subsequence $\{y^{N_k}\}_{k \geq 1}$, that converge weakly to certain element $y \in W^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ at a norm $W_0^{1,0}(\Gamma_T)$ ($\{y^{N_k}\}_{k \geq 1}$ converge weakly to y together with $\frac{\partial y^{N_k}}{\partial x}$ at a norm $L_2(\Gamma_T)$). As a result of the consequent reasoning become clear that

the all sequence $\{y^N\}_{N \geq 1}$ is weakly converges to an element $y \in W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ (so as $\|\cdot\|_{W^{1,0}(\Gamma_T)} \leq \|\cdot\|_{2, \Gamma_T}$). Element $y(x, t)$ is a weak solution problem (1), (4).

Theorem 2. *If the conditions of the theorem 1, then initial boundary value problem (1), (3) has only a weak solution in the space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ for any $0 < T < \infty$.*

Proof of uniqueness by virtue of linearity problem (1), (3) is the standard way: assumes the existence of two different solutions $y_1(x, t)$, $y_2(x, t)$ of class $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$. Where and from (6) it should be inequality $\|y\|_{2, \Gamma_T} \leq 0$ ($y(x, t) = y_1(x, t) - y_2(x, t)$) for any $T > 0$, and that means, coincidence solutions $y_1(x, t)$, $y_2(x, t)$ in space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ ($y_1(x, t) = y_2(x, t)$ almost everywhere).

Corollary. A weak solution of initial boundary value problem (1), (3) continuously depends on the source data $f(x, t)$ and $\varphi(x)$. Thus shows the correctness of Hadamard initial boundary value problem (1), (3) in the space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ for any $0 < T < \infty$.

Remark 3. Statements of Theorems 1 and 2 are preserved under substitution $[0, T]$ on $[t_0, T]$ ($t_0 > 0$), the initial condition in the ratio (3) is replaced by $y|_{t=t_0} = \varphi(x)$.

Remark 4. Boundary condition in (3) can be non-homogeneity:

$$y(x, t)|_{x \in \partial \Gamma} = \phi(x, t).$$

Proof of Theorems 1 and 2 in this case literally repeat the above reasonings. For this as a preliminary introduces a new unknown function $\tilde{y}(x, t) = y(x, t) - \Phi(x, t)$ (here $\Phi(x, t)$ is a arbitrary function of $L_2(\Gamma_T)$, having generalized derivative $\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \in L_2(\Gamma_T)$ and satisfying (almost everywhere) non-homogeneity boundary condition). The integral identities in definition 1 be changed respectively.

3. Differential-difference system. Below make use of analog of the Rote method [2, p. 189], which essentially reduce the analysis of initial boundary value problem (1), (3) to the study of the boundary value problem for elliptical type equations with distributed parameters on the graph Γ . In space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ consider the equation (1) and dissect the domain Γ_T planes $t = k\tau$, $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, M$, $\tau = \frac{T}{M}$, in addition denote by Γ_T^k section Γ_T the plane $t = k\tau$. Equation (1) will replace differential-difference

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\tau}(u(k) - u(k-1)) - \frac{d}{dx} \left(a(x) \frac{du(k)}{dx} \right) + b(x)u(k) &= f_\tau(k) \\ (k = 1, 2, \dots, M), \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

where

$$f_\tau(k) = f_\tau(x, k) = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{(k-1)\tau}^{k\tau} f(x, t) dt \in L_2(\Gamma).$$

Functions $u(k)$ ($k = 1, 2, \dots, M$) will define as a solution to the equation system (7) that meets the conditions

$$u(0) = \varphi(x), \quad u(k)|_{x \in \partial \Gamma} = 0 \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots, M). \tag{8}$$

Ratios (7), (8) is the boundary value problem for the system of elliptical equations (7).

Remark 5. Ratios (7), (8) are analogous to the implicitly difference scheme of the first order of approximation on the time variable t for the initial boundary value problem (1), (3), set in space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$, with an elliptical operator $-\frac{d}{dx} \left(a(x) \frac{du}{dx} \right) + b(x)u$, $u \in W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$.

Definition 2. *A weak solution to a boundary value problem (7), (8) is called functions $u(k) = W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$ ($k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, M$), $u(0) = \varphi(x)$ ($\varphi(x) \in L_2(\Gamma)$), satisfying an integral identity*

$$\int_{\Gamma} u(k)_t \eta(x) dx + \ell(u(k), \eta) = \int_{\Gamma} f_{\tau}(k) \eta(x) dx \quad (9)$$

$$(k = 1, 2, \dots, M)$$

for any $\eta(x) \in W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$; equality $u(0) = \varphi(x)$ is understood almost everywhere,

$$u(k)_t = u(x, k)_t = \frac{1}{\tau}(u(k) - u(k-1)).$$

We will establish the correctness of the statements, similar to presented in Theorems 1 and 2.

Theorem 3. *The following statements take place:*

1. For any $k_0 \geq 0$ and any $\varphi(x) \in L_2(\Gamma)$ weak solution $u(k)$ is uniquely defined at $k_0 \leq k \leq M$ ($k_0 < M < \infty$).
2. A weak solution of the initial boundary value problem (1), (3) is the limit of functions $u(k)$, calculated from ratios (7), (8).

P r o o f. Beforehand we will obtain an $u(k)$ a priori estimate that not dependent on τ . Out of the ratio $u(k-1)^2 = (u(k) - \tau u(k)_t)^2 = u(k)^2 + \tau^2 u(k)_t^2 - 2\tau u(k)u(k)_t$ follow relation

$$2\tau u(k)u(k)_t = u(k)^2 + \tau^2 (u(k)_t)^2 - u(k-1)^2. \quad (10)$$

Let as take in the ratio (9) $\eta(x) = 2\tau u(k)$ and granting (10), as well as the lower boundary a_* for $a(x)$ (see (2)) get inequality

$$\int_{\Gamma} u(k)^2 dx - \int_{\Gamma} u(k-1)^2 dx + \tau^2 \int_{\Gamma} (u(k)_t)^2 dx + 2a_* \tau \int_{\Gamma} \left(\frac{du(k)}{dx}\right)^2 dx \leq$$

$$\leq -2\tau \int_{\Gamma} b(x)u(k)^2 dx + 2\tau \int_{\Gamma} f_{\tau}(k)u(k) dx,$$

from here (everywhere below through $\|\cdot\|_{2,\Gamma}$ the marked norm in space $W_2^1(\Gamma)$)

$$\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 - \|u(k-1)\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 + \tau^2 \|u(k)_t\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 + 2a_* \tau \left\| \frac{du(k)}{dx} \right\|^2 \leq$$

$$\leq -2\tau \int_{\Gamma} b(x)u(k)^2 dx + 2\tau \int_{\Gamma} f_{\tau}(k)u(k) dx \leq$$

$$\leq 2\beta \tau \|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 + 2\tau \|f_{\tau}(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} \|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}.$$

As a result, with $k = 1, 2, \dots, M$,

$$\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 - \|u(k-1)\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 + \tau^2 \|u(k)_t\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 + 2a_* \tau \left\| \frac{du(k)}{dx} \right\|^2 \leq$$

$$\leq \varrho \tau \|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 + 2\tau \|f_{\tau}(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} \|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}, \quad (11)$$

where $\varrho = 2\beta$. The latest inequality ensue from

$$\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 - \|u(k-1)\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 \leq \varrho \tau \|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 + 2\tau \|f_{\tau}(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} \|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}. \quad (12)$$

1. Let $\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} + \|u(k-1)\|_{2,\Gamma} > 0$, then divide both parts of inequality (12) on $\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} + \|u(k-1)\|_{2,\Gamma}$ and taking into account

$$\frac{\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}}{\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} + \|u(k-1)\|_{2,\Gamma}} \leq 1,$$

come to an estimate

$$\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} \leq \frac{1}{1-\varrho\tau} \|u(k-1)\|_{2,\Gamma} + \frac{2\tau}{1-\varrho\tau} \|f_{\tau}(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}, \quad (13)$$

when $\tau < \frac{1}{2\varrho}$.

2. Let $\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} + \|u(k-1)\|_{2,\Gamma} = 0$, then from the ratio (12) follows $0 \leq \varrho\tau\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} + 2\tau\|f_\tau(k)\|_{2,\Gamma}$, that means

$$\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} \leq \varrho\tau\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} - \|u(k-1)\|_{2,\Gamma} + 2\tau\|f_\tau(k)\|_{2,\Gamma},$$

that again leads to an estimate (13).

Given the recursively of the estimate (13), we get

$$\begin{aligned} \|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} &\leq \frac{1}{(1-\varrho\tau)^k} \|u(0)\|_{2,\Gamma} + 2\tau \sum_{s=1}^k \frac{1}{(1-\varrho\tau)^{k-s+1}} \|f_\tau(s)\|_{2,\Gamma} \leq \\ &\leq \frac{1}{(1-\varrho\tau)^k} \left(\|u(0)\|_{2,\Gamma} + 2\tau \sum_{s=1}^k \|f_\tau(s)\|_{2,\Gamma} \right) \leq \\ &\leq e^{2\varrho T} (\|u(0)\|_{2,\Gamma} + 2\|f_\tau(k)\|_{2,1,\Gamma_T}). \end{aligned}$$

Here $\|f_\tau(k)\|_{2,1,\Gamma_T} = \tau \sum_{s=1}^k \|f_\tau(s)\|_{2,\Gamma}$, the latest inequality follows from the ratios $\frac{\varrho\tau}{1-\varrho\tau} k \leq \frac{\varrho T}{1-\varrho\tau} \leq 2\varrho T$ at $\tau < \frac{1}{2\varrho}$ and $\frac{1}{(1-\varrho\tau)^k} \leq e^{2\varrho T}$. Thus, a estimate has been obtained

$$\|u(k)\|_{2,\Gamma} \leq e^{2\varrho T} (\|u(0)\|_{2,\Gamma} + 2\|f_\tau(k)\|_{2,1,\Gamma_T}). \quad (14)$$

Further, summing up the inequality (11) by k from 1 to $m \leq M$ and using the estimate (14), we come to

$$\begin{aligned} \|u(m)\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 + 2a_*\tau \sum_{k=1}^m \left\| \frac{du(k)}{dx} \right\|^2 + \tau^2 \sum_{k=1}^m \|u(k)_t\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 &\leq \\ &\leq c_1 (\|\varphi\|_{2,\Gamma}^2 + \|f_\tau(m)\|_{2,1,\Gamma_T}^2), \quad m = \overline{1, M}, \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

where c_1 it depends only on a_* , β and T ; $\|f_\tau(m)\|_{2,1,\Gamma_T} \leq \|f\|_{L_{2,1}(\Gamma_T)}$. Going over in the resulting inequality to the limit, when $M \rightarrow \infty$ we get a limited totality sequence $\{u(m)\} \subset W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$ ($\|u(m)\|_{2,\Gamma} \leq \tilde{c}_1$, $m = 1, 2, \dots$), from which you can choose a subsequence $\{u(m_i)\}$, weakly convergent to a certain element $u(x) \in W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$. The first statement of the theorem is proven.

Let's show the correctness of the second statement. Introduce piecewise constant interpolations $\tilde{u}(x, t)$ by t for $u(k)$, namely: $\tilde{u}(x, t) = u(k)$, when $t \in ((k-1)\tau, k\tau]$, $k = \overline{1, M}$. It is clear that $\tilde{u}(x, t)$ will be elements of space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ and for them by virtue of (15) take place estimate

$$\|\tilde{u}\|_{2,\Gamma_T} + \left\| \frac{\partial \tilde{u}}{\partial x} \right\|_{2,\Gamma_T} \leq c_2, \quad (16)$$

constant c_2 not depend on τ . Going over in (16) to the limit when $M \rightarrow \infty$ we get a limited totality sequence $\{\tilde{u}\} \subset W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ from which you can choose a subsequence, weakly convergent to a certain element $u(x, t) \in W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$. Let's show that the function $u(x, t)$ satisfies the integral identity (4), i. e. is a weak solution from $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ of the initial boundary value problem (1), (3). Set this identity for fairly smooth functions $\eta(x, t)$, equal to zero on $\partial\Gamma_T$ and at $t = T$: let's $\eta(x, t) \in C^1(\Gamma_{T+\tau})$, it's zero on $\partial\Gamma_T$ and on $t = T$. We construct for $\eta(x, t)$ averaging $\eta(k) = \eta(x, k\tau)$, interpolations $\tilde{\eta}(x, t)$ and $\tilde{\eta}(x, t)_t$ ($\eta(k)_t = \frac{1}{\tau}(\eta(k+1) - \eta(k))$). It's easily to verify that interpolations $\tilde{\eta}$, $\frac{\partial \tilde{\eta}}{\partial x}$, $\tilde{\eta}_t$ on Γ_T uniformly converge to functions $\eta(x, t)$, $\frac{\partial \eta(x, t)}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial \eta(x, t)}{\partial t}$, respectively, in addition $\tilde{\eta}(x, t) = 0$, $t \in [T, T + \tau]$.

Under $\eta(k)_t = \frac{1}{\tau}(\eta(k+1) - \eta(k))$ correctly

$$\tau \sum_{k=1}^M u(k)_t \eta(k) = -\tau \sum_{k=1}^M u(k) \eta(k)_t - u(0) \eta(1). \quad (17)$$

Summing the identities (9) at $\eta(x) = \tau \eta(k)$ over k from 1 until M and taking into account (17), as well as $\eta(M) = \eta(M+1) = 0$, get

$$\begin{aligned} -\tau \sum_{k=1}^M \int_{\Gamma} u(k) \eta(k)_t dx - \int_{\Gamma} \varphi(x) \eta(1) dx + \tau \sum_{k=1}^M \ell(u(k), \eta(k)) = \\ = \tau \sum_{k=1}^M (f_{\tau}(k), \eta(k)) \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} - \int_{\Gamma_T} \tilde{u}(x, t) \tilde{\eta}(x, t)_t dx dt + \ell_T(\tilde{u}, \tilde{\eta}) - \int_{\Gamma} \varphi(x) \eta(1) dx = \\ = \int_{\Gamma_T} f(x, t), \tilde{\eta}(x, t) dx dt. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

In the ratio (18), going over to the limit on the chosen above weakly convergent in $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ the subsequence of the sequence $\{\tilde{u}(x, t)\}$ ($u(x, t) \in W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$ is limit function), we get an integral identity (4), at means the function $u(x, t)$ is a weak solution of the initial boundary value problem (1), (3) of the space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$. By virtue of the uniqueness of solution $u(x, t)$ (Theorem 1) and the estimate (16) the whole sequence $\{\tilde{u}(x, t)\}$ is weakly converged to $u(x, t)$. The theorem is fully proven.

Remark 6. The first statement of the theorem (essentially there is a method of finite difference) provides another possibility (except for the Faedo—Galerkin method, presented by the statement of the Theorem 1) of constructing approximations to the solution, along the way realizing (along with the second statement of the theorem) and proof of the theorem of the existence of the initial boundary value problem (1), (3). The approach used also applies to finding solutions to other initial boundary value problem. In them, the boundary conditions of the second or third type is added to the elliptical equations (7). The solvability of such problems is proved similar to reasoning for the problem (7), (8). Finally, both the Faedo—Galerkin method and the of finite difference method open the way to approximate the states of the system in numerical realization (construction algorithms) of the posed problems.

4. The countably stability of the differential-difference system of equations (7), (8). We do not seek to a possible generality of define the concept of countably stability of the differential-difference equations or systems of equations, as we are interested in approaches to the analysis of the quality of the differential-difference system of equations (7), (8), approximating the initial boundary value problem (1), (3).

In the assumptions of section 3, consider the differential-difference system of equations (7), (8) in a weak formulation (9). Let's introduce the following of Fourier series on the system $\{u_i(x)\}_{i \geq 1}$ (see Lemma 2):

$$u(k) = \sum_i u^i(k) u_i(x), \quad f_{\tau}(k) = \sum_i f_{\tau}^i(k) u_i(x), \quad \varphi = \sum_i \varphi^i u_i(x), \quad (19)$$

where $u^i(k) = (u(k), u_i)$, $f_{\tau}^i(k) = (f_{\tau}(k), u_i)$, $\varphi^i = (\varphi, u_i)$.

D. Neumann introduced the concept of countably stability of the difference schemes of evolutionary equations [14]. Below is an analogue of this concept, following the work of [15, p. 44].

Definition 3. *Differential-difference system (7), (8) is called countably stability, if for each coefficient $u_\tau(k)$ of the Fourier series (19) take place inequality*

$$|u(k)| \leq C_{1n}|\varphi^n| + C_{2n}|f^n|,$$

where constants C_{1i}, C_{2i} are uniformly bounded at $0 \leq k\tau \leq T$, $|f^n| = \max_{k=1, M} |f_\tau^n(k)|$.

For $\eta(x) = u_i(x)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots$, get

$$u^i(k) - u^i(k-1) + \tau\lambda_i u^i(k) = \tau f_\tau^i(k-1), \quad u^i(0) = \varphi^i \\ (k = 1, 2, \dots, M),$$

$f_\tau^i(k-1)$ it's chosen as $f^i(t_k)$: $f^i(t_k) = (f(x, t_k), u_i(x))$. The sequential exclusion of the unknown $u^i(j)$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$, reduce to a ratio

$$u^i(k) = r_i^k \varphi^i + \tau r_i \sum_j r_i^{k-j} f_\tau^i(j-1) \\ (k = 1, 2, \dots, M),$$

here $r_i = (1 + \tau\lambda_i)^{-1}$. From here take place estimate

$$|u^i(k)| \leq |r_i|^k |\varphi^i| + \tau |r_i| \sum_j |r_i^{k-j}| |f_\tau^i(j-1)| \leq \\ \leq |r_i|^k |\varphi^i| + \tau |r_i| \frac{1-|r_i|^k}{1-|r_i|} |f^i|, \quad |f^i| = \max_{k=1, M} |f_\tau^i(k)| \\ (k = 1, 2, \dots, M).$$

As $0 < r_i < 1$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots$) then $|r_i|^k < 1$ and $\tau |r_i| \frac{1-|r_i|^k}{1-|r_i|} < \tau |r_i| \frac{1}{1-|r_i|} < T + \frac{1}{\lambda_1}$, it means, the coefficients of $|\varphi^i|$ and $|f^i|$ are uniformly bounded at any value $\tau > 0$ and do not depend on τ , φ and f . This means that the spectral criterion of counting stability of definition 3 be fulfilled: differential-difference system (7), (8) is absolutely countably stability.

5. Example. We consider the example reduced in the work [10]. Let Γ is a graph-star with edges γ_ℓ , $\ell = 1, 2, 3$, and a interior node ξ (to simplify the formulas, let's assume that the edges γ_ℓ , $\ell = 1, 2$, are parameterized by a segment $[0, \pi/2]$, γ_3 is parameterized by a segment $[\pi/2, \pi]$). In space $W_0^{1,0}(a, \Gamma_T)$, consider the initial boundary value problem (1), (3) at $a(x) = 1$, $b(x) = 0$ and $f(x, t) = 0$:

$$\frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 y(x, t)}{\partial x^2}, \quad y|_{t=0} = \varphi(x), \quad x \in \Gamma, \quad y|_{x \in \partial \Gamma_T} = 0. \quad (20)$$

The weak solution $y(x, t) \in W_0^{1,0}(1, \Gamma_T)$ of problem (20) is determined by identity

$$-\int_{\Gamma_T} y(x, t) \frac{\partial \eta(x, t)}{\partial t} dx dt + \int_{\Gamma_T} \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \eta(x, t)}{\partial t} dx dt = \int_{\Gamma} \varphi(x) \eta(x, 0) dx$$

for any function $\eta(x, t) \in W_0^1(1, \Gamma_T)$ that is zero at $t = T$.

Let's define the differential-difference analog of the system (20) (see (7)) ratios

$$\frac{1}{\tau} (y(k) - y(k-1)) - \frac{d^2 y(k)}{dx^2} = 0, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots,$$

$$y(0) = \varphi, \quad y(k)|_{\partial \Gamma} = 0,$$

$y(k) \in W_0^1(a, \Gamma)$ ($k = 1, 2, \dots$), $\varphi(x) \in L_2(\Gamma)$.

Functions $y(k)$ ($k = 1, 2, \dots$) are defined by virtue of recurrence ratios for integral identities

$$(y(k) - y(k - 1), \eta(x)) + \tau \left(\frac{dy(k)}{dx}, \frac{d\eta}{dx} \right) = 0 \quad \forall \eta(x) \in W_0^1(a, \Gamma), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots,$$

here $y(0) = \varphi(x)$, $x \in \Gamma$.

Easily to show [11–13], that the spectral problem (5) (under $a(x) = 1$, $b(x) = 0$) in the weak formulation defines a set of eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}_{i \geq 1}$ ($\lambda_i = i^2$) and system of generalized eigenfunctions $\{u_i\}_{i \geq 1}$, where eigenvalues when $i = 2j - 1$ is prime numbers, when $i = 2j$ have multiplicity 2, the corresponding generalized eigenfunctions are determined by the relations ($j = 1, 2, \dots$)

$$u_{2j-1}(x) = \begin{cases} \cos(2j - 1)(x - \frac{\pi}{2}), & x \in \gamma_1, \\ \cos(2j - 1)(x - \frac{\pi}{2}), & x \in \gamma_2, \\ \cos(2j - 1)(x - \frac{\pi}{2}), & x \in \gamma_3, \end{cases}$$

$$u_{2j,1}(x) = \begin{cases} \sin 2j(x - \frac{\pi}{2}), & x \in \gamma_1, \\ 0, & x \in \gamma_2, \\ \sin 2j(x - \frac{\pi}{2}), & x \in \gamma_3, \end{cases} \quad u_{2j,2}(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \in \gamma_1, \\ \sin 2j(x - \frac{\pi}{2}), & x \in \gamma_2, \\ \sin 2j(x - \frac{\pi}{2}), & x \in \gamma_3. \end{cases}$$

Let $\eta(x) = u_i(x)$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots$) then the ratios connecting Fourier's coefficients $y^i(k)$, φ^i of the elements $y(k)$, φ for each $i = 1, 2, \dots$, take the form of

$$y^i(k) - y^i(k - 1) + \tau i^2 y^i(k) = 0, \quad y^i(0) = \varphi^i, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

From here $y^i(k) = (1 + \tau i^2)^{-k} \varphi^i$ and for any $\tau > 0$

$$|y^i(k)| \leq \frac{1}{(1 + \tau i^2)^k} |\varphi^i|, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

The absolute countably stability of the differential-difference system is obvious. The last inequality have as a consequence stability of the system to norm $L_2(\Gamma)$:

$$\|y(k)\|_{L_2(\Gamma)} \leq \|\varphi\|_{L_2(\Gamma)}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

6. Conclusion. The work outlines an approach to the analysis of the differential system with distributed parameters on the graph, which, not using the Faedo–Galerkin method, establishes the theorem of the existence of a solution to the initial boundary value problem (1), (3) and at the same time gives you the opportunity to obtain the conditions of stability (countably stability) of the investigated problem. The proposed method can be used for solve other initial boundary value problems. In this case, the boundary conditions of the second or third types is added to the elliptical equations (7). Note also, the used approach it is not difficult to extend to the case when Γ is a netlike domain of Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n ($n \geq 2$).

Further analysis is possible on the way to finding the conditions of the Lyapunov stability of problem (1), (3). The approach can be used to analyze the optimal control problems of [16–20], as well as the problems of stabilization and stability of differential systems with delay [21–27].

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Счетная устойчивость слабого решения параболической дифференциально-разностной системы с распределенными параметрами на графе

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В работе предлагается аналог метода Е. Роте (метод полудискретизации по временной переменной) для построения сходящихся разностных схем при анализе устойчивости слабого решения начально-краевой задачи параболического типа с распределенными параметрами на графе в классе суммируемых функций. Этот метод позволяет исходную начально-краевую задачу привести к изучению краевой задачи в слабой постановке для уравнений эллиптического типа с распределенными параметрами на графе. В силу специфики указанного метода устойчивость слабого решения понимается в терминах

спектрального критерия устойчивости (счетной устойчивости по Нейману), который устанавливает устойчивость решения по отношению к каждой гармонике обобщенного ряда Фурье слабого решения или отрезка этого ряда. Таким образом, выявлена еще одна возможность, кроме метода Фаэдо—Галеркина, построения приближений к искомому решению начально-краевой задачи, анализа его устойчивости и путь доказательства теоремы существования слабого решения исходной задачи. Используемый подход применим к отысканию достаточных условий устойчивости слабых решений других начально-краевых задач с более общими граничными условиями: в них эллиптические уравнения рассматриваются с краевыми условиями второго или третьего типа. Дальнейший анализ возможен при отыскании условий, при которых определяется устойчивость по Ляпунову. Изложенный подход можно использовать при анализе задач оптимального управления, а также задач стабилизации и устойчивости дифференциальных систем с запаздыванием. Представленный метод конечных разностей даст возможность проводить аппроксимацию состояний параболической системы, анализа их устойчивости, при численной реализации и алгоритмизации задач оптимального управления.

Ключевые слова: параболическая дифференциально-разностная система, распределенные параметры на графе, слабое решение, счетная устойчивость.

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Replacing the observed object in a dynamic measuring system

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In this article the problem of an object state vector estimation is considered. This estimation is obtained by the treatment of measured parameters from several observed objects. In our case, we have two measured parameters that change their values over a certain time interval, but only one of them can be measured at each moment. The problem is to find the moment for switching the measurement from one object to another one in order to minimize the dispersion of one component of the state estimation vector. Previously, the Elfing problem was solved to repeatedly measure fixed parameters using this data in proportion to weight coefficients for processing with the least square method. Then, to change the measured values, a transfer from the discrete model to the continuous one was proposed. This made it possible to obtain an analytical expression dispersion that was dependent of the time moment on the switching. In this article, the estimation of the continuous model error is conducted and the sufficient conditions of using no more than one switching are proven. An example of this method's application is shown to estimate the sea object coordinates using navigation satellites.

Keywords: estimate, observation, measure, dispersion, error.

1. Introduction. Consider several observed objects and the vectors $V_1(t), \dots, V_m(t)$ of their state. We have to estimate the vector q as a result of some measuring. The values of the functions $f_i(q, V_i(t))$ at the moments t_1, \dots, t_n are to measure.

Suppose q is a 2-dimensional vector. Then at each moment t is enough to observe two of the objects V_1, \dots, V_m and to measure the values of two functions from f_1, \dots, f_m . If we use the minimax approach, then we choose such two functions, which minimize the maximal possible error of some linear function $l = cq$ estimate. These two functions we call the optimal measuring basis.

We use the linear model and consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial q_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial q_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial q_1} \\ \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial q_2} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial q_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial q_2} \end{pmatrix}^T.$$

The vector q is to estimate near the point q_0 , the estimate $\hat{q} = q_0 + \Delta q$ we find by the equation $A\Delta q = \Delta d$, where $\Delta d = \tilde{d} - d_0$, $d_0 = F(q_0)$, $F = [f_1, \dots, f_m]^T$. The vector \tilde{d} is the result of measuring. Here two rows of the matrix A are to find, which are the optimal basis. It minimizes the error of $\hat{l} = c\hat{q}$.

The measured functions depend on time. In [1] is shown, that the optimal measuring basis keeps being optimal on some time interval, if

$$\prod_{k=1}^2 x_k(t) \prod_{i=3}^m \left(1 - \sum_{j=1}^2 h_{ij}(t)\right) \neq 0, \quad t \in [t_1, t_2], \quad (1)$$

where $x_k(t)$ is the k -th component of c in the basis of the chosen rows; $h_{ij}(t)$ is the j -th component of the i -th row in the basis of chosen rows, if the first two rows are chosen.

The statistic approach is considered in [2] for the estimation of a dynamic object state. In our case the vector q is constant. If we use the statistic approach, then have to minimize the dispersion of the estimate \hat{l} . If it's possible to replay the measuring n times, then, how it's shown in [3], we use the first chosen row n_1 times and the second chosen row n_2 times in such proportion:

$$n = n_1 + n_2, \quad n_1 = \frac{x_1}{x_1 + x_2}, \quad n_2 = \frac{x_2}{x_1 + x_2},$$

here x_i is the i -th component of c in the basis of chosen rows, $i = 1, 2$. This choice minimizes the dispersion of the estimate $\hat{l} = c\hat{q}$.

2. The discrete model. Consider a statistic model and a two-dimensional space of estimated parameters. Suppose two observed objects are chosen, which satisfy the condition (1) on the segment $t \in [0, 1]$. We can observe them during this time, but at each moment can observe only one of them. The measured values we can get at the moments $t_0 = 0, t_1 = 1/n, t_2 = 2/n, \dots, t_n = 1$.

In the linear model at the moment t_i the row $(\alpha_1(t_i) \alpha_2(t_i))$ is connected with the first object, and the row $(\beta_1(t_i) \beta_2(t_i))$ – with the second one.

At some moment t_N we switch our observing from one object to another. In this case the matrix of the linear system is

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1(1/n) & \alpha_1(2/n) & \dots & \alpha_1(N/n) & \beta_1((N+1)/n) & \dots & \beta_1(1) \\ \alpha_2(1/n) & \alpha_2(2/n) & \dots & \alpha_2(N/n) & \beta_2((N+1)/n) & \dots & \beta_2(1) \end{pmatrix}^T.$$

The moment t_N must be chosen in order to minimize the dispersion of the estimate $\hat{l} = c\hat{q}$, $\hat{q} = q + \eta$, where η is the estimation error.

Let for example $c = (0 \ 1)$. It means that the dispersion of the second component of the vector η is to minimize.

We solve the equation $S\Delta q = \tilde{d}$, where $\tilde{d} = d + \xi$ is the result of measuring and ξ is the measuring error. Suppose that the mathematical expectation of $E(\xi) = 0$ and the covariation matrix $D(\xi) = \sigma^2 I$. The vectors ξ and η are linear connected, it means that $E(\eta) = 0$, $E\hat{q} = q$, $D(\eta) = D(\hat{q})$.

We sign as S_1, S_2 the columns of the matrix S . If they are linear independent vectors, then we can find the estimated vector \hat{q} by the pseudoinverse matrix S^+ :

$$S^+ = (S^T S)^{-1} S^T, \quad \hat{q} = S^+ \tilde{d}.$$

The covariance matrix of the estimation error is

$$D(\hat{q}) = \sigma^2 (S^T S)^{-1} = \frac{\sigma^2}{S_1^T S_1 S_2^T S_2 - (S_1^T S_2)^2} \begin{pmatrix} S_2^T S_2 & -S_1^T S_2 \\ -S_1^T S_2 & S_1^T S_1 \end{pmatrix},$$

here S_1, S_2 are columns of the matrix S .

The dispersion of the second component of the vector \hat{q} is

$$D(\hat{q}_2) = \frac{\sigma^2 S_1^T S_1}{S_1^T S_1 S_2^T S_2 - (S_1^T S_2)^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \frac{\frac{1}{n} S_1^T S_1}{\left(\frac{1}{n} S_1^T S_1\right) \left(\frac{1}{n} S_2^T S_2\right) - \left(\frac{1}{n} S_1^T S_2\right)^2}.$$

Consider the functions $\alpha_1(t), \alpha_2(t), \beta_1(t), \beta_2(t)$. The following equations are satisfied:

$$\begin{aligned} S_1^T S_1 &= \sum_{k=1}^N \alpha_1^2(k/n) + \sum_{k=N+1}^n \beta_1^2(k/n), \\ S_2^T S_2 &= \sum_{k=1}^N \alpha_2^2(k/n) + \sum_{k=N+1}^n \beta_2^2(k/n), \\ S_1^T S_2 &= \sum_{k=1}^N \alpha_1(k/n) \alpha_2(k/n) + \sum_{k=N+1}^n \beta_1(k/n) \beta_2(k/n). \end{aligned}$$

3. The continuous model. This model is considered in [4]. Here we'll probably prove everything. Consider the integrals

$$\begin{aligned} J_1(N) &= \int_0^{N/n} \alpha_1^2(t) dt + \int_{N/n}^1 \beta_1^2(t) dt, \\ J_2(N) &= \int_0^{N/n} \alpha_2^2(t) dt + \int_{N/n}^1 \beta_2^2(t) dt, \\ J_3(N) &= \int_0^{N/n} \alpha_1(t) \alpha_2(t) dt + \int_{N/n}^1 \beta_1(t) \beta_2(t) dt. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 1. *If the functions $|\alpha_1(t)|, |\alpha_2(t)|$ are both growing or both decreasing, and so do $|\beta_1(t)|, |\beta_2(t)|$, then*

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{N} S_1^T S_1 - J_1(N) \right| &\leq \frac{|\alpha_1^2(1) - \alpha_1^2(0)| + |\beta_1^2(1) - \beta_1^2(0)|}{n} \quad \forall N, \\ \left| \frac{1}{N} S_2^T S_2 - J_2(N) \right| &\leq \frac{|\alpha_2^2(1) - \alpha_2^2(0)| + |\beta_2^2(1) - \beta_2^2(0)|}{n} \quad \forall N, \\ \left| \frac{1}{N} S_1^T S_2 - J_3(N) \right| &\leq \frac{|\alpha_1(1)\alpha_2(1) - \alpha_1(0)\alpha_2(0)| + |\beta_1(1)\beta_2(1) - \beta_1(0)\beta_2(0)|}{n} \quad \forall N. \end{aligned}$$

P r o o f. For each N the Darbu sums of J_1 are

$$\Sigma_1 = \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \alpha_1^2(k/n) + \sum_{k=N}^{n-1} \alpha_1^2(k/n) \right),$$

$$\Sigma_2 = \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{k=1}^N \alpha_1^2(k/n) + \sum_{k=N+1}^n \alpha_1^2(k/n) \right).$$

The difference between these sums is

$$\frac{1}{n} (\alpha_1^2(N/n) + \beta_1^2(1) - \alpha_1^2(0) - \beta_1^2(N/n)) < \frac{|\alpha_1^2(1) - \alpha_1^2(0)| + |\beta_1^2(1) - \beta_1^2(0)|}{n}.$$

Therefore, J_1 is between Σ_1 and Σ_2 .

Such inequalities can be construct for J_2 and J_3 . □

Let

$$J_1(p) = \int_0^p \alpha_1^2(t) dt + \int_p^1 \beta_1^2(t) dt,$$

$$J_2(p) = \int_0^p \alpha_2^2(t) dt + \int_p^1 \beta_2^2(t) dt,$$

$$J_3(p) = \int_0^p \alpha_1(t) \alpha_2(t) dt + \int_p^1 \beta_1(t) \beta_2(t) dt.$$

If n is large enough, we can consider the continuous model and minimize following function:

$$f(p) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \cdot \frac{J_1(p)}{J_1(p)J_2(p) - J_3^2(p)}. \quad (2)$$

Suppose $p^* = \arg \min_{p \in [0,1]} f(p)$. We find fraction N/n nearest to p^* . It is just the same N , which we have to find.

Theorem 2. *If the functions $\alpha_1(t) = a_1 f(t)$, $\alpha_2(t) = a_2 f(t)$, $\beta_1(t) = b_1 g(t)$, $\beta_2(t) = b_2 g(t)$ are given, where $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2 = \text{const}$, and $|f(t)|$ decreases monotonically, $|g(t)|$ increases monotonically, then for reaching the minimum value of dispersion $D(\hat{q}_i)$ is no more than one switching required.*

P r o o f. Suppose that we have some distribution of the time moments for measuring between functions $\alpha(t) = (\alpha_1(t), \alpha_2(t))$ and $\beta(t) = (\beta_1(t), \beta_2(t))$ on the time interval $[0, T]$.

Let's designate $I = \{1, \dots, n\}$, $I_1 = \{i_1, \dots, i_k\}$, $I_2 = I \setminus I_1 = \{j_1, \dots, j_l\}$, $k + l = n$ the sets of time moments indexes, which correspond to measurements of $\alpha(t)$ and $\beta(t)$.

Designate $\Sigma_1 = \sum_{i \in I_1} f^2(t_i)$, $\Sigma_2 = \sum_{i \in I_2} g^2(t_i)$. Clearly

$$S_1^T S_1 = a_1^2 \Sigma_1 + b_1^2 \Sigma_2,$$

$$S_2^T S_2 = a_2^2 \Sigma_1 + b_2^2 \Sigma_2,$$

$$S_1^T S_2 = a_1 a_2 \Sigma_1 + b_1 b_2 \Sigma_2.$$

Suppose, that $i \in I_1$, $j \in I_2$, $i > j$. Let's change the measured functions at the moments t_i and t_j . Then to the value $S_1^T S_1$ such term will add $\alpha_1^2(t_j) - \alpha_1^2(t_i) + \beta_1^2(t_i) - \beta_1^2(t_j) > 0$ because of monotonous character of the functions $|f(t)|$, $|g(t)|$. Similarly increase $S_2^T S_2$ and $S_1^T S_2$.

Thus these sums reach their maximum values, when all measurements of the function $\alpha(t)$ are made before the measurements of the function $\beta(t)$.

Now we have to prove, that the dispersions $D(\hat{q}_1)$, $D(\hat{q}_2)$ monotonically decrease, when Σ_1 and Σ_2 increase. We use the partial derivatives for it:

$$D(\hat{q}_2) = \frac{a_1^2 \Sigma_1 + b_1^2 \Sigma_2}{(a_1^2 \Sigma_1 + b_1^2 \Sigma_2)(a_2^2 \Sigma_1 + b_2^2 \Sigma_2) - (a_1 a_2 \Sigma_1 + b_1 b_2 \Sigma_2)^2},$$

$$\frac{\partial D(\hat{q}_2)}{\partial \Sigma_1} = -b_1^2 \Sigma_2^2 (a_1 b_2 - b_1 a_2)^2 < 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial D(\hat{q}_2)}{\partial \Sigma_2} = -a_1^2 \Sigma_1^2 (a_1 b_2 - b_1 a_2)^2 < 0.$$

Similarly for $D(\hat{q}_1)$.

So if for the attainment of the minimum dispersion the switching is necessary, then only one. The theorem is proved. \square

Remark. The only restriction on $f(t)$ and $g(t)$ in Theorem 2 is their monotonically character.

4. Example. Now we'll show, how this method can be applied for the estimation of some object on the geostationary orbit coordinates using the navigation sputniks. For the better demonstration some simplifications are done.

First we need some definitions [5]:

- The equatorial coordinates system $OXYZ$:
 - the point O is the center of the Earth;
 - OZ directs to the North pole;
 - OX in the equator plane directs to the point of vernal equinox;
 - OY is adding to the right coordinates system.
- The Greenwich coordinates system $Oxyz$:
 - the point O is the center of the Earth;
 - Oz directs to the North pole;
 - Ox in the equator plane directs to the Greenwich meridian;
 - Oy is adding to the right coordinates system.
- The sputnik orbits parameters are:
 - Ω is longitude of the ascending node;
 - i is orbit inclination;
 - R is the radius of the orbit (we suppose that the orbit is round);
 - ω is the angle velocity of the sputnik;
 - τ is the moment of the perigee time. Any point can be the perigee, because the orbit is round. Let it be the ascending node, the cross point of the equator plane and the orbit in the north direction;
 - u is the argument. The angle between the radius vector of the ascending node and the radius vector of the current place of the sputnik on the orbit;
 - w is the argument of the perigee $u = w + \omega(t - \tau)$, t is the current time.

The problem is to estimate the vector $q = \begin{pmatrix} \psi \\ \lambda \end{pmatrix}$, where ψ is the latitude and λ is the longitude of one see object near the point $q_0 = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_0 \\ \lambda_0 \end{pmatrix}$.

The functions ρ_k , the distances between the object and the sputniks are measured. Here $\rho_k = \sqrt{(x - x_k)^2 + (y - y_k)^2 + (z - z_k)^2}$, where x, y, z are the Greenwich coordinates of the object and x_k, y_k, z_k are the Greenwich coordinates of the k -th sputnik, $k = 1, 2$; $x = r \cos \psi \cos \lambda$, $y = r \cos \psi \sin \lambda$, $z = r \sin \psi$, r is the radius of the geostationary orbit.

The current equatorial coordinates of the sputniks are

$$\begin{aligned} X &= R(\cos \Omega \cos u \cos i), \\ Y &= R(\sin \Omega \cos u \cos i), \\ Z &= R \sin u \sin i. \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

The current Greenwich coordinates can be found by the matrix B :

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \gamma & -\sin \gamma & 0 \\ -\sin \gamma & \cos \gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = B^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\gamma = S_0 + \tilde{\omega}(t - t_0)$; S_0 is the star time; $\tilde{\omega}$ is the angle velocity of the Earth; t_0 is the sun time.

Suppose it's the Greenwich noon at vernal equinox and that's why the equatorial and the Greenwich coordinates are equal. We suppose besides that the whole measuring is about a minute long and the angle γ is too small, so at each time $B = I$.

Now come back to the continuous model

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_1(t) = \frac{\partial \rho_1}{\partial \psi} = \frac{r}{\rho_1}(x_1 \cos \lambda_0 \sin \psi_0 + y_1 \sin \lambda_0 \sin \psi_0 - z_1 \cos \psi_0), \\ \alpha_2(t) = \frac{\partial \rho_1}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{r}{\rho_1} \cos \psi_0 (x_1 \sin \lambda_0 - y_1 \cos \lambda_0), \\ \beta_1(t) = \frac{\partial \rho_2}{\partial \psi} = \frac{r}{\rho_2}(x_2 \cos \lambda_0 \sin \psi_0 + y_2 \sin \lambda_0 \sin \psi_0 - z_2 \cos \psi_0), \\ \beta_2(t) = \frac{\partial \rho_2}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{r}{\rho_2} \cos \psi_0 (x_2 \sin \lambda_0 - y_2 \cos \lambda_0). \end{cases} \tag{4}$$

In this example two sputniks are on the polar orbit:

$$\begin{aligned} i_1 = i_2 = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad \Omega_1 = \Omega_2 = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad R = R_1 = R_2, \quad \tau_1 \neq \tau_2, \\ \omega = \omega_1 = \omega_2, \quad w_1 = w_2 = 0, \quad \psi_0 = \lambda_0 = 0. \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

Using (3)–(5), we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_1^2(t) &= \frac{r^2 R^2}{r^2 + R^2} \cos^2(\omega(t - \tau_1)), \\ \alpha_2^2(t) &= \frac{r^2 R^2}{r^2 + R^2} \sin^2(\omega(t - \tau_1)), \\ \alpha_1(t)\alpha_2(t) &= \frac{r^2 R^2}{2(r^2 + R^2)} \sin(2\omega(t - \tau_1)), \\ \beta_1^2(t) &= \frac{r^2 R^2}{r^2 + R^2} \cos^2(\omega(t - \tau_2)), \end{aligned}$$

$$\beta_2^2(t) = \frac{r^2 R^2}{r^2 + R^2} \sin^2(\omega(t - \tau_2)),$$

$$\beta_1(t)\beta_1(t) = \frac{r^2 R^2}{2(r^2 + R^2)} \sin(2\omega(t - \tau_2)).$$

It's easy to calculate the integrals $J_1(p), J_2(p), J_3(p)$, because $\alpha_i(t)$ and $\beta_i(t)$ are simple trigonometric functions. The minimizing argument p^* of $f(p)$ from formula (2) can be found by some numerical methods. If $p^* \in [0, 1]$, then we have a switch point. If $p^* < 0$, then we use only the second sputnik, if $p^* > 1$ — only the first one.

5. Conclusion. In this paper more precise bounds are set on translation to continuous model, suggested in [4]. The sufficient condition is proved for no more than one switching in the optional model. An example is considered of the application this method to the sputnik navigation problem.

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Замена наблюдаемого объекта в динамической измерительной системе

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В статье рассматривается задача оценки вектора состояния объекта. Эта оценка получена путем обработки измеренных параметров нескольких наблюдаемых объектов. В описываемом случае есть два измеряемых параметра, меняющие свои значения на некотором временном интервале, но только один из них может быть измерен в каждый момент. Задача состоит в том, чтобы найти момент переключения измерения с одного объекта на другой, чтобы минимизировать разброс одной компоненты вектора оценки

состояния. Ранее такая задача решалась для многократного измерения фиксированных параметров с использованием этих данных пропорционально весовым коэффициентам для обработки методом наименьших квадратов. Затем для изменения измеренных значений был предложен перевод от дискретной модели к непрерывной, что позволило получить аналитическое выражение дисперсии в зависимости от момента времени переключения. В данной работе проводится оценка погрешности непрерывной модели и доказываются достаточные условия использования не более одного переключения. Приведен пример применения этого метода для оценки координат видимого объекта с помощью навигационных спутников.

Ключевые слова: оценка, наблюдение, измерение, дисперсия, ошибка.

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О качественных свойствах решения одной нелинейной граничной задачи в динамической теории p -адических струн*

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Рассматривается граничная задача для одного класса сингулярных интегральных уравнений с почти суммарно-разностным ядром и выпуклой нелинейностью на положительной полупрямой. Указанная задача возникает в динамической теории p -адических открыто-замкнутых струн. Доказывается, что всякое неотрицательное и ограниченное решение такой задачи является непрерывной функцией и разность между пределом и решением представляет из себя суммируемую функцию на положительной полупрямой. Для частного случая устанавливается, что решение есть монотонно неубывающая функция. Рассматривается теорема единственности в классе неотрицательных и ограниченных функций. Приводится конкретный прикладной пример данной граничной задачи.

Ключевые слова: граничная задача, выпуклость, непрерывность, суммируемость, монотонность, предел решения.

1. Введение и формулировка основных результатов. Постановка задачи и история вопроса. Пусть функция Q определена на множестве $\mathbb{R}^+ := [0, +\infty)$ и удовлетворяет следующим условиям:

I) $Q \in C(\mathbb{R}^+)$, $Q \uparrow$ на \mathbb{R}^+ ;

II) функция Q выпукла вниз на множестве \mathbb{R}^+ и $Q(0) = 0$;

III) уравнение $Q(u) = u$ обладает положительным решением η (рис. 1).

Рассмотрим граничную задачу для нелинейного сингулярного интегрального уравнения с почти суммарно-разностным ядром на положительной полупрямой

$$Q(f(x)) = \int_0^{\infty} (K(x-t) - K(x+t))\lambda(t)f(t)dt, \quad x \geq 0, \quad (1)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = \eta, \quad (2)$$

относительно искомой измеримой и ограниченной функции $f(x)$.

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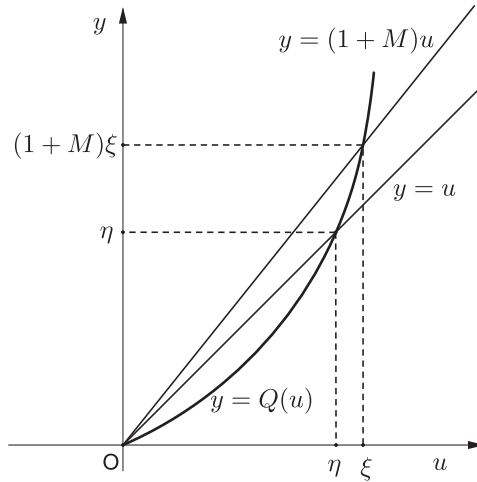


Рис. 1. Точки пересечения графика функции $y = Q(u)$ с прямыми $y = u$ и $y = (1 + M)u$

В уравнении (1) ядро K — определенная на \mathbb{R} непрерывная функция, удовлетворяющая таким условиям:

А) $K(x) > 0, x \in \mathbb{R}, K \in L_1(\mathbb{R}) \cap M(\mathbb{R}), \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K(x)dx = 1,$

В) $K(-x) = K(x), x \in \mathbb{R}^+, K \downarrow$ на $\mathbb{R}^+,$

С) $\int_0^{\infty} x^2 K(x)dx < +\infty,$ где $M(\mathbb{R})$ — пространство ограниченных на \mathbb{R} функций с нормой $\|f\| = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |f(x)|.$ Функция λ определена на множестве \mathbb{R}^+ и удовлетворяет условиям

1) $\lambda(t) \geq 1, t \in \mathbb{R}^+, \lambda - 1 \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+),$

2) $\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \lambda(t) = 1.$

Граничная задача (1), (2) возникает в динамической теории p -адических открыто-замкнутых струн [1–4]. Когда $Q(u) = u^p, p > 2,$ нечетное число вида $p = 4n + 1, n \in \mathbb{N}, K(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2}, \eta = 1,$ а функция λ удовлетворяет условиям 1, 2 и имеет конечное число особенностей в некоторых точках $\{t_k\}_{k=1}^n, 1 \leq n < +\infty$ (рис. 2), задача (1), (2) первоначально исследовалась в статье [2]. Настоящая работа

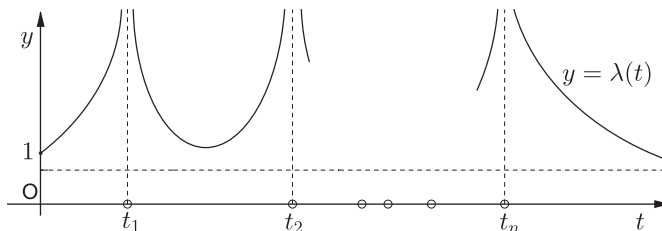


Рис. 2. График функции $y = \lambda(t)$

посвящена вопросам существования ограниченного решения и изучению некоторых качественных свойств построенного решения. Недавно Х. А. Хачатрян [4] была рассмотрена граничная задача (1), (2) в случае, когда $Q(u) = u^p, p = 4n + 1, n \in \mathbb{N}$

с общим ядром K и функцией λ , удовлетворяющей соответственно условиям А)–С) и 1, 2. В [4] обобщены результаты работы [2] и решена открытая проблема о единственности решения в определенном классе функций. Вопрос построения ограниченного неотрицательного решения граничной задачи (1), (2) в более общем случае, когда нелинейность Q обладает свойствами I)–III), ядро K — свойствами А)–С), а функция λ — свойствами 1, 2, достаточно подробно изучен в статье [5].

Настоящая работа посвящена исследованию некоторых качественных свойств решения рассматриваемой граничной задачи, а также доказательству единственности решения в достаточно широком классе функций.

Формулировка основных результатов. Основными результатами этой работы являются такие теоремы.

Теорема 1. Пусть $f(x)$ — неотрицательное и ограниченное решение граничной задачи (1), (2). Тогда при условиях I)–III), А)–С), 1), 2) данное решение обладает следующими свойствами:

- a) $f \in C(\mathbb{R}^+)$,
- b) $f(0) = 0$ и $f(x) > 0$ при $x > 0$,
- c) $f(x) \leq \xi$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$, где число ξ — положительное решение функционального уравнения $Q(u) = (1 + M)u$ (рис. 1), а

$$M := \int_0^{\infty} (\lambda(t) - 1) dt \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} K(x),$$

- d) $\eta - f \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+)$.

Теорема 2. При условиях теоремы 1 решение граничной задачи (1), (2) единственно в классе неотрицательных и ограниченных на \mathbb{R}^+ функций.

2. Доказательство основных результатов.

Доказательство теоремы 1. Сперва докажем непрерывность решения $f(x)$ на множестве \mathbb{R}^+ . С этой целью (1) перепишем в виде

$$Q(f(x)) = \int_0^{\infty} (K(x-t) - K(x+t))(\lambda(t) - 1)f(t) dt + \int_0^{\infty} (K(x-t) - K(x+t))f(t) dt, \quad x \geq 0. \quad (3)$$

Так как $K \in L_1(\mathbb{R}) \cap C_M(\mathbb{R})$, $\lambda - 1 \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+)$, а $f \in M(\mathbb{R}^+)$ ($C_M(\mathbb{R})$ — пространство непрерывных и ограниченных на \mathbb{R} функций), то, в силу непрерывности свертки ограниченных и суммируемых функций [6], заключаем, что правая часть (3) принадлежит пространству $C(\mathbb{R}^+)$. Так как $Q \in C(\mathbb{R}^+)$ и $Q \uparrow$ на \mathbb{R}^+ , то из (3) вытекает, что $f \in C(\mathbb{R}^+)$.

Теперь убедимся в справедливости утверждения b). С одной стороны, из (1), II), с учетом того, что $f \in C(\mathbb{R}^+)$, $K \in C(\mathbb{R})$ и $K(-x) = K(x)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$, следует, что $f(0) = 0$. Докажем теперь, что $f(x) > 0$ при $x > 0$. Так как $K \downarrow$ на \mathbb{R}^+ и $K(-x) = K(x)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$, то получим неравенство

$$K(x-t) > K(x+t), \quad x > 0, \quad t > 0. \quad (4)$$

С другой стороны, в силу (2), можно утверждать: существует число $r > 0$ такое, что при $x > r$ имеет место неравенство снизу:

$$f(x) > \frac{\eta}{2}. \quad (5)$$

Учитывая условие 1 и неравенства (4), (5), из (1) находим, что

$$\begin{aligned} Q(f(x)) &\geq \int_r^\infty (K(x-t) - K(x+t))f(t)dt > \\ &> \frac{\eta}{2} \int_r^\infty (K(x-t) - K(x+t))dt > 0 \text{ при } x > 0. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Из монотонности функции Q , в силу (6), приходим к неравенству $f(x) > 0$ при $x > 0$. Теперь займемся доказательством неравенства с). Обозначим

$$c := \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^+} f(x).$$

Из (3) из-за консервативности ядра K (см. условие А)) имеем выражение

$$\begin{aligned} Q(f(x)) &\leq c \int_0^\infty (K(x-t) - K(x+t))(\lambda(t) - 1)dt + \\ &+ c \int_0^\infty (K(x-t) - K(x+t))dt \leq cM + c = (1 + M)c. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Так как $Q \uparrow$ на \mathbb{R}^+ и $Q \in C(\mathbb{R}^+)$, то существует $y = Q^{-1}(u)$, причем $Q^{-1} \uparrow$ на \mathbb{R}^+ , $Q^{-1} \in C(\mathbb{R}^+)$. В силу сказанного, из (7) следует, что

$$f(x) \leq Q^{-1}((1 + M)c), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^+. \quad (8)$$

Согласно определению супремума, из (8) получаем, что

$$c \leq Q^{-1}((1 + M)c),$$

откуда вытекает, что

$$Q(c) \leq (1 + M)c. \quad (9)$$

Убедимся, что $c \leq \xi$. Предположим обратное: $c > \xi$. Тогда, в силу выпуклости вниз функции Q на \mathbb{R}^+ , будем иметь неравенство (рис. 3)

$$\frac{Q(c)}{c} > \frac{Q(\xi)}{\xi} = 1 + M,$$

из которого, с учетом (9), приходим к противоречию. Следовательно, $c \leq \xi$. Таким образом, $f(x) \leq c \leq \xi$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$.

Наконец, займемся доказательством включения d). С этой целью, учитывая утверждение с), условия 1 и А), оценим следующую разность:

$$|\eta - Q(f(x))| = \left| \eta \int_0^\infty (K(x-t) + K(x+t))dt - \int_0^\infty (K(x-t) - K(x+t))\lambda(t)f(t)dt \right| \leq$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\leq \int_0^{\infty} K(x-t)|\eta - \lambda(t)f(t)|dt + \eta \int_x^{\infty} K(t)dt + \int_0^{\infty} K(x+t)\lambda(t)f(t)dt \leq \\
&\leq \int_0^{\infty} K(x-t)|\eta - f(t)|\lambda(t)dt + \eta \int_0^{\infty} K(x-t)(\lambda(t) - 1)dt + \eta \int_x^{\infty} K(t)dt + \\
&+ \xi \int_0^{\infty} K(x+t)(\lambda(t) - 1)dt + \xi \int_x^{\infty} K(t)dt \leq (2\eta + \xi) \int_0^{\infty} K(x-t)(\lambda(t) - 1)dt + \\
&+ \int_0^{\infty} K(x-t)|\eta - f(t)|dt + (\eta + \xi) \int_x^{\infty} K(t)dt + \xi \int_0^{\infty} K(x+t)(\lambda(t) - 1)dt.
\end{aligned}$$

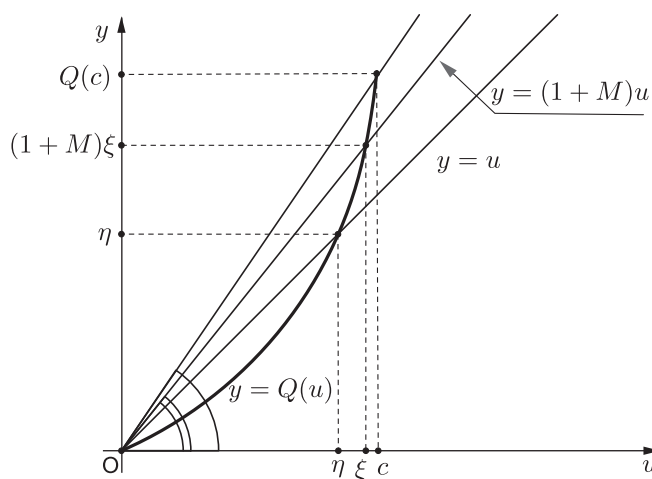


Рис. 3. Пересечение графика функции $y = Q(u)$ и прямой $y = (1 + M)u$

Итак, получаем такое неравенство:

$$\begin{aligned}
|\eta - Q(f(x))| &\leq (2\eta + \xi) \int_0^{\infty} K(x-t)(\lambda(t) - 1)dt + \xi \int_0^{\infty} K(x+t)(\lambda(t) - 1)dt + \\
&+ (\eta + \xi) \int_x^{\infty} K(t)dt + \int_0^{\infty} K(x-t)|\eta - f(t)|dt := I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4.
\end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Заметим, что, в силу конечности первого момента ядра K из теоремы Фубини [7], следует, что

$$I_3 \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+)$$

и

$$\int_0^{\infty} I_3(x)dx = (\eta + \xi) \int_0^{\infty} tK(t)dt < +\infty.$$

Так как $K \in L_1(\mathbb{R})$ и $\lambda - 1 \in L_1(\mathbb{R})$, то, опять используя теорему Фубини, заключаем, что $I_1, I_2 \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+)$. Оценим интеграл I_4 :

$$I_4 \leq (\xi + \eta) \int_0^r K(x-t)dt + \int_r^\infty K(x-t)|\eta - f(t)|dt, \quad (11)$$

где число $r > 0$ определяется в (5). Убедимся, что

$$\int_0^r K(x-t)dt \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+). \quad (12)$$

Пусть $A > 0$ — произвольное число. Оценим интеграл с учетом конечности первого момента ядра K :

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^A \int_0^r K(x-t)dt dx &= \int_0^A \int_{x-r}^x K(y)dy dx = \int_0^A \int_{x-r}^\infty K(y)dy dx - \int_0^A \int_x^\infty K(y)dy dx \leq \\ &\leq \int_0^\infty \int_{x-r}^\infty K(y)dy dx + \int_0^\infty yK(y)dy = \int_{-r}^\infty K(y) \int_0^{y+r} dx dy + \int_0^\infty yK(y)dy = \\ &= \int_{-r}^\infty yK(y)dy + r \int_{-r}^\infty K(y)dy + \int_0^\infty yK(y)dy < +\infty. \end{aligned}$$

Считая, что в полученном неравенстве число $A \rightarrow +\infty$, приходим к утверждению (12) и к такому неравенству:

$$\int_0^r \int_0^r K(x-t)dt dx \leq \int_{-r}^\infty (r+y)K(y)dy + \int_0^\infty yK(y)dy. \quad (13)$$

Пусть $R > r$ — произвольное число. Проинтегрируем обе части неравенства (10) в пределах от r до R . Учитывая условия В), 1 и соотношения (12), (13), а также интегрируемость функций I_1, I_2, I_3 , будем иметь выражение

$$\begin{aligned} \int_r^R |\eta - Q(f(x))|dx &\leq (2\eta + \xi) \int_0^\infty (\lambda(t) - 1)dt + \frac{\xi}{2} \int_0^\infty (\lambda(t) - 1)dt + (\eta + \xi) \int_0^\infty tK(t)dt + \\ &+ (\eta + \xi) \left(\int_{-r}^\infty (r+y)K(y)dy + \int_0^\infty yK(y)dy \right) + \int_r^R \int_r^\infty K(x-t)|\eta - f(t)|dt dx = \\ &= \left(2\eta + \frac{3\xi}{2} \right) \int_0^\infty (\lambda(t) - 1)dt + (2\eta + 2\xi) \int_0^\infty tK(t)dt + (\eta + \xi) \int_{-r}^\infty (r+y)K(y)dy + \\ &+ \int_r^R \int_r^R K(x-t)|\eta - f(t)|dt dx + \int_r^R \int_R^\infty K(x-t)|\eta - f(t)|dt dx \leq \left(2\eta + \frac{3\xi}{2} \right) \int_0^\infty (\lambda(t) - 1)dt + \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& + (2\eta + 2\xi) \int_0^\infty tK(t)dt + (\eta + \xi) \int_{-r}^\infty (r + y)K(y)dy + \\
& + (\eta + \xi) \int_r^R \int_R^\infty K(x - t)dt dx + \int_r^R \int_r^R K(x - t)|\eta - f(t)|dt dx = \\
& = \left(2\eta + \frac{3\xi}{2}\right) \int_0^\infty (\lambda(t) - 1)dt + (2\eta + 2\xi) \int_0^\infty tK(t)dt + \\
& + (\eta + \xi) \int_{-r}^\infty (r + y)K(y)dy + (\eta + \xi) \int_r^R \int_{R-x}^\infty K(\tau)d\tau dx + \\
& + \int_r^R \int_r^R K(x - t)|\eta - f(t)|dt dx \leq \left(2\eta + \frac{3\xi}{2}\right) \int_0^\infty (\lambda(t) - 1)dt + \\
& + (2\eta + 2\xi) \int_0^\infty tK(t)dt + (\eta + \xi) \int_{-r}^\infty (r + y)K(y)dy + (\eta + \xi) \int_0^R \int_{R-x}^\infty K(\tau)d\tau dx + \\
& + \int_r^R \int_r^R K(x - t)|\eta - f(t)|dt dx \leq C_r + \int_r^R \int_r^R K(x - t)|\eta - f(t)|dt dx,
\end{aligned}$$

в котором

$$\begin{aligned}
C_r & := \left(2\eta + \frac{3\xi}{2}\right) \int_0^\infty (\lambda(t) - 1)dt + (2\eta + 2\xi) \int_0^\infty tK(t)dt + \\
& + (\eta + \xi) \int_{-r}^\infty K(y)(y + r)dy + (\eta + \xi) \int_0^\infty \int_y^\infty K(\tau)d\tau dy = \\
& = \left(2\eta + \frac{3\xi}{2}\right) \int_0^\infty (\lambda(t) - 1)dt + (3\eta + 3\xi) \int_0^\infty tK(t)dt + (\eta + \xi) \int_{-r}^\infty K(y)(y + r)dy.
\end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

Итак,

$$\int_r^R |\eta - Q(f(x))|dx \leq C_r + \int_r^R \int_r^R K(x - t)|\eta - f(t)|dt dx, \tag{15}$$

где число C_r задается в соответствии с (14).

Из (15), в силу условия А), следует также, что

$$\int_r^R |\eta - Q(f(x))|dx \leq C_r + \int_r^R |\eta - f(t)|dt. \tag{16}$$

Введем следующие измеримые множества:

$$E_1^R := \{x \in [r, R] : f(x) \leq \eta\},$$

$$E_2^R := \{x \in [r, R] : f(x) > \eta\}.$$

Учитывая свойства I)–III) для функции Q , неравенство (16) можно переписать в виде

$$\int_{E_1^R} (\eta - Q(f(x))) dx + \int_{E_2^R} (Q(f(x)) - \eta) dx \leq C_r + \int_r^R |\eta - f(x)| dx. \quad (17)$$

Из выпуклости вниз функции Q с учетом неравенства (5) вытекает, что если $x \in E_2^R$, то $\alpha > \beta$ (рис. 4).

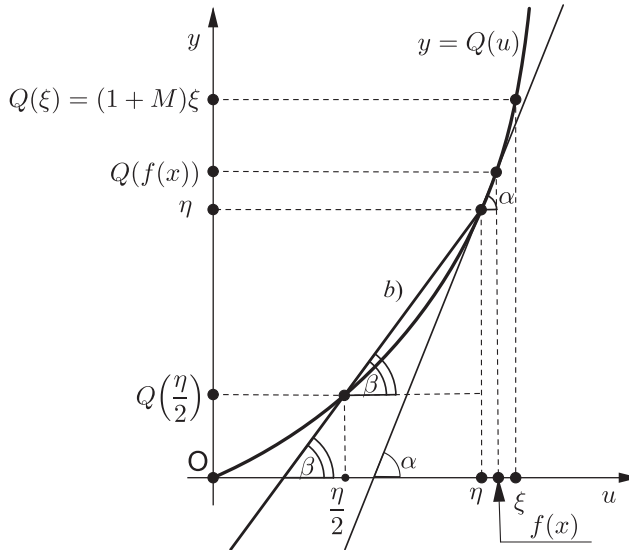


Рис. 4. Пересечение графика функции $y = Q(u)$ и прямой $y = \frac{2(\eta - Q(\frac{\eta}{2}))}{\eta} u + 2Q(\frac{\eta}{2}) - \eta$

Следовательно,

$$\frac{Q(f(x)) - \eta}{f(x) - \eta} = \operatorname{tg} \alpha > \operatorname{tg} \beta = \frac{\eta - Q(\frac{\eta}{2})}{\frac{\eta}{2}}.$$

Итак, при $x \in E_2^R$

$$Q(f(x)) - \eta \geq \left(2 - \frac{2Q(\frac{\eta}{2})}{\eta}\right) (f(x) - \eta). \quad (18)$$

Пусть теперь $x \in E_1^R$. Проведя прямую через точки (η, η) и $(\frac{\eta}{2}, Q(\frac{\eta}{2}))$ (рис. 5), приходим к уравнению

$$y = \frac{2(\eta - Q(\frac{\eta}{2}))}{\eta} u + 2Q\left(\frac{\eta}{2}\right) - \eta. \quad (19)$$

В силу монотонности и выпуклости функций Q , из (19) получим, что

$$Q(f(x)) \leq \frac{2\eta - 2Q(\frac{\eta}{2})}{\eta} f(x) + 2Q\left(\frac{\eta}{2}\right) - \eta$$

или

$$\eta - Q(f(x)) \geq \left(2 - \frac{2Q(\frac{\eta}{2})}{\eta}\right) (\eta - f(x)) \text{ при } x \in E_1^R. \quad (20)$$

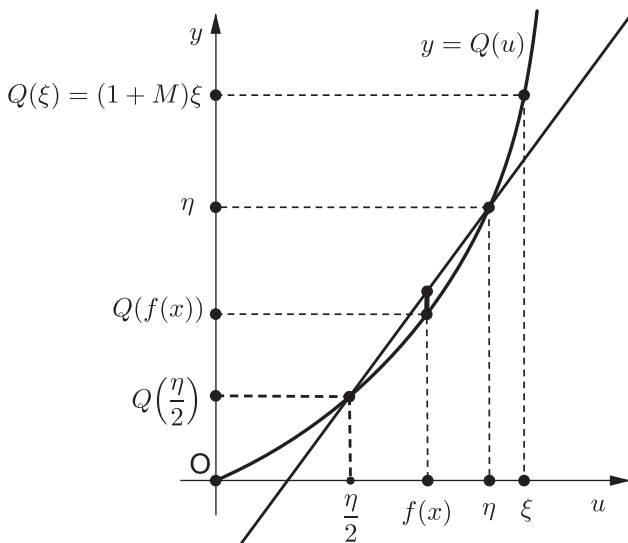


Рис. 5. Графики функций $y = Q(u)$ и $y = \frac{2(\eta - Q(\frac{\eta}{2}))}{\eta}u + 2Q(\frac{\eta}{2}) - \eta$

Учитывая (18) и (20), из (17) приходим к неравенству

$$\left(2 - \frac{2Q(\frac{\eta}{2})}{\eta}\right) \int_{E_1^R} (\eta - f(x))dx + \left(2 - \frac{2Q(\frac{\eta}{2})}{\eta}\right) \int_{E_2^R} (f(x) - \eta)dx \leq C_r + \int_r^R |\eta - f(x)|dx,$$

из которого вытекает, что

$$2 \left(1 - \frac{Q(\frac{\eta}{2})}{\eta}\right) \left(\int_{E_1^R} (\eta - f(x))dx + \int_{E_2^R} (f(x) - \eta)dx \right) \leq C_r + \int_r^R |\eta - f(x)|dx$$

или

$$2 \left(1 - \frac{Q(\frac{\eta}{2})}{\eta}\right) \int_r^R |\eta - f(x)|dx \leq C_r + \int_r^R |\eta - f(x)|dx.$$

Следовательно,

$$\int_r^R |\eta - f(x)|dx \leq C_r \left(1 - \frac{2Q(\frac{\eta}{2})}{\eta}\right)^{-1}. \quad (21)$$

Приняв, что $R \rightarrow +\infty$ в (21), получим, что $\eta - f \in L_1(r, +\infty)$. Так как $\eta - f \in L_1(0, r)$ (в силу непрерывности функции $f(x)$ на \mathbb{R}^+), то из вышеприведенного приходим к завершению доказательства.

Замечание. В частном случае, когда $\lambda(t) \equiv 1$, в работе [8] было доказано, что задача (1), (2) в классе функций

$$\mathfrak{M} := \{f(x) : f(x) > 0, x > 0, \eta - f \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+)\}$$

имеет единственное решение. Но вместе с тем в [8] (а в работе [9] для систем интегральных уравнений) также установлено, что для уравнения (1) при $\lambda(t) \equiv 1$ есть неотрицательное ограниченное монотонно неубывающее решение f , причем $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = \eta$ и $\eta - f \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+)$. Следовательно, заключаем, что если $f(x)$ — неотрицательное и ограниченное решение граничной задачи (1), (2) при $\lambda(t) \equiv 1$, то $f(x)$ является монотонно неубывающей функцией на \mathbb{R}^+ . Более того, при $\lambda(t) \equiv 1$ решение граничной задачи (1), (2) в классе неотрицательных и ограниченных функций на \mathbb{R}^+ единственное.

Доказательство теоремы 2. Предположим, что у задачи (1), (2) в классе неотрицательных и ограниченных на \mathbb{R}^+ функций два разных решения: f и \tilde{f} . В силу теоремы 1, функции f и \tilde{f} обладают свойствами а)–д). Из д) сразу следует, что $f - \tilde{f} \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+)$. Если предположим, что задача (1), (2) имеет два разных неотрицательных и ограниченных на \mathbb{R}^+ решения, то, в силу утверждения б) теоремы 1, существует $x_0 > 0$ такое, что $f(x_0) \neq \tilde{f}(x_0)$.

Из утверждения а) теоремы 1, с одной стороны, вытекает, что существует число $\delta \in (0, x_0)$ такое, что при $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ $f(x) \neq \tilde{f}(x)$. Но, с другой стороны, из (1) с учетом (4) имеем неравенство

$$|Q(f(x)) - Q(\tilde{f}(x))| \leq \int_0^\infty [K(x-t) - K(x+t)]\lambda(t)|f(t) - \tilde{f}(t)|dt. \quad (22)$$

Заметим, что

$$I(x) := \lambda(x)f(x) \int_0^\infty [K(x-t) - K(x+t)]\lambda(t)|f(t) - \tilde{f}(t)|dt \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+). \quad (23)$$

Действительно, так как $f - \tilde{f} \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+) \cap M(\mathbb{R}^+)$, $f \in M(\mathbb{R}^+)$, а $K \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+)$, то, представив функцию $I(x)$ в виде

$$\begin{aligned} I(x) &= (\lambda(x) - 1)f(x) \int_0^\infty [K(x-t) - K(x+t)](\lambda(t) - 1)|f(t) - \tilde{f}(t)|dt + \\ &+ (\lambda(x) - 1)f(x) \int_0^\infty [K(x-t) - K(x+t)]|f(t) - \tilde{f}(t)|dt + \\ &+ f(x) \int_0^\infty [K(x-t) - K(x+t)](\lambda(t) - 1)|f(t) - \tilde{f}(t)|dt + \\ &+ f(x) \int_0^\infty [K(x-t) - K(x+t)]|f(t) - \tilde{f}(t)|dt, \end{aligned}$$

закключаем, что $I \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+)$.

Умножим обе части неравенства (22) на функцию $\lambda(x)f(x)$ и, в силу (23), проинтегрируем обе части полученного неравенства в пределах от 0 до $+\infty$:

$$\int_0^{\infty} \lambda(x)f(x)|Q(f(x)) - Q(\tilde{f}(x))|dx \leq \int_0^{\infty} \lambda(x)f(x) \int_0^{\infty} [K(x-t) - K(x+t)]\lambda(t)|f(t) - \tilde{f}(t)|dt.$$

Используя (1), четность ядра K и теорему Фубини, из последнего неравенства приходим к следующей оценке:

$$\int_0^{\infty} \lambda(x)(f(x))|Q(f(x)) - Q(\tilde{f}(x))| - Q(f(x))|f(x) - \tilde{f}(x)|dx \leq 0.$$

Далее, совершая аналогичные рассуждения, как при доказательстве теоремы 2, согласно соответствующему результату работы [8], приходим к противоречию. Теорема доказана.

3. Приложение задачи (1), (2) в теории p -адических открыто-замкнутых струн. В динамической теории p -адических открыто-замкнутых струн возникает следующая система нелинейных псевдодифференциальных уравнений, описывающая взаимодействие этих струн [1–3, 10–12]:

$$\begin{cases} p^{-\frac{1}{4}\square}\psi = \psi^{p^2} + \alpha^2 \frac{p-1}{2p} \psi^{\frac{p(p-1)}{2}} (\varphi^{p+1} - 1), \\ p^{-\frac{1}{2}\square}\varphi = \varphi^p \psi^{\frac{p(p-1)}{2}}, \quad p > 2 - \text{ простое число,} \end{cases} \quad (24)$$

относительно искомых функций φ и ψ . Неизвестные функции φ и ψ описывают тахионные поля для открытых и замкнутых струн, число α — константа взаимодействия между открытыми и замкнутыми струнными секторами, а \square — оператор Даламбера. В (24), совершив предельный переход при $\alpha \rightarrow 0$, приходим к упрощенной системе уравнений динамики [2, 4]

$$\begin{cases} p^{-\frac{1}{4}\square}\psi = \psi^{p^2}, \\ p^{-\frac{1}{2}\square}\varphi = \varphi^p \psi^{\frac{p(p-1)}{2}}. \end{cases} \quad (25)$$

В одномерном случае, когда $\square = \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$, система (25) сводится к системе нелинейных интегральных уравнений [2]

$$\psi^{p^2}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2(x-t)^2} \psi(t) dt, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad (26)$$

$$\varphi^p(x) \psi^{\frac{p(p-1)}{2}}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x-t)^2} \varphi(t) dt, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (27)$$

В работе [2] были исследованы такие граничные задачи:

- уравнение (26) с граничным условием $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \psi(x) = 1$,
- уравнение (27) с граничным условием $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \varphi(x) = \pm 1$.

В частности, в [2] доказано, что если $p = 1 \pmod{4}$, то

$$\lambda(t) := \psi^{-\frac{p(p-1)}{2}}(t) > 1, \quad \lambda(-t) = \lambda(t), \quad t \in \mathbb{R},$$

$$\lambda - 1 \in L_1(\mathbb{R}^+), \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \pm\infty} \lambda(t) = 1.$$

Обозначим

$$\Phi(t) = \varphi(t)\psi^{\frac{p(p-1)}{2}}(t), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Тогда относительно функции $\Phi(t)$ приходим к следующему нелинейному интегральному уравнению:

$$\Phi^p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x-t)^2} \Phi(t)\lambda(t)dt, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad (28)$$

с граничным условием

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \Phi(x) = \pm 1. \quad (29)$$

Легко можно убедиться, что если $f(x)$ является непрерывным и ограниченным на \mathbb{R}^+ решением граничной задачи (1), (2) с ядром $K(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}}e^{-x^2}$ и нелинейностью $Q(u) = u^p$, $p > 2$, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, то нечетное продолжение данного решения на $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{R}^+$

$$\Phi(x) := \begin{cases} f(x), & \text{если } x \in \mathbb{R}^+, \\ -f(-x), & \text{если } x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{R}^+, \end{cases}$$

будет решением граничной задачи (28), (29).

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On the qualitative properties of the solution of a nonlinear boundary value problem in the dynamic theory of p -adic strings*

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The article considers a boundary value problem for a class of singular integral equations with an almost total-difference kernel and convex nonlinearity on the positive half-line. This problem arises in the dynamic theory of p -adic open-closed strings. It is proved that any non-negative and bounded solution of a given boundary value problem is a continuous function and the difference between the limit and the solution is itself an integrable function on the positive half-line. For a particular case, it is proved that the solution is a monotonically non-decreasing function. A uniqueness theorem is established in the class of nonnegative and bounded functions. At the conclusion of the article, a specific applied example of this boundary problem is given.

Keywords: boundary value problem, convexity, continuity, summability, monotonicity, solution limit.

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Математическое моделирование лечения онкологического заболевания*А. Б. Гончарова¹, Е. П. Колпак¹, М. М. Расулова¹, А. В. Абрамова²*¹ Санкт-Петербургский государственный университет, Российская Федерация,
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В работе предлагаются математические модели злокачественных новообразований яичников, которые основываются на математической модели интерференционной конкуренции. В конкуренции за функциональное пространство участвуют два типа клеток: нормальные и опухолевые. Математическая трактовка моделей — задача Коши для системы обыкновенных дифференциальных уравнений. На основе модели определяется динамика роста опухоли. Предлагаются модель распределения условных больных по четырем стадиям заболевания, модель оценки времен дожития по группам условных больных и модель химиотерапии.

Ключевые слова: дифференциальные уравнения, математическое моделирование, новообразования, рак яичников, заболеваемость, лечение, статистика.

1. Введение. Яичник — парный орган, который выполняет внешнесекреторную (образование яйцеклеток) и внутрисекреторную (выработка женских половых гормонов) функции. Он имеет овальную форму, покрыт эпителием. Одна из основных гипотез патогенеза рака яичника предполагает, что рак развивается из поверхностного эпителия, который состоит из единственного слоя модифицированных мезотелиальных клеток, покрывающих поверхность яичника. Малигнизации подвержен не сам яичник, не его строма, а лишь покрывающий его мезотелий. В большинстве наблюдений установить начало инвазивного роста не представляется возможным [1].

Рак яичников занимает третье место среди злокачественных новообразований репродуктивной системы и имеет самый низкий уровень выживаемости среди всех гинекологических заболеваний. Соотношение числа заболевших к числу умерших в 2018 г. составило 1.6 как для России, так и для большинства стран Европы. Рак яичников

является наиболее трудной для диагностики опухоли. Около 70 % женщин первично обращаются к специалистам на III и IV стадиях заболевания, когда появляются клинические проявления. Запущенность заболевания связана с тем, что на ранних стадиях оно протекает бессимптомно. Ультразвуковая диагностика используется при подозрении на злокачественное новообразование. Диагностику рака яичников проводят с помощью компьютерной томографии (КТ) органов грудной и брюшной полости и магнитно-резонансной томографии (МРТ) органов малого таза с внутривенным контрастированием с целью оценки возможности выполнения оптимальной циторедуктивной операции. Определяется уровень онкомаркеров (СА-125). Для исключения метастатического характера поражения яичников и наличия первичного очага выполняются маммография, ЭГДС, колоноскопия.

В математическом моделировании опухолей основное внимание уделяется оценке скорости роста опухоли [2–4]. Теоретические проработки статистики заболеваемости и методов лечения с применением математических методов анализа и моделирования, а также модели прогноза о времени развития рецидива заболевания и общей выживаемости отсутствуют в открытых источниках. В настоящее время в клинической практике широко используются лишь статистические методы обработки данных конкретных практик [5, 6]. В оценке различных программ лечения, методов лечения и спектра применяемых препаратов у специалистов нет единого подхода и единого мнения [7–9].

Рост всех злокачественных опухолей характеризуется большим количеством митозов, хромосомных нарушений, сопровождается чередованием зон доброкачественных и злокачественных образований и некрозов, возникновением камер и узлов, инвазией в окружающие ткани. Этот тип опухоли очень агрессивен, присущ стадиям заболевания III и IV. После первичного лечения рак яичников чаще всего рецидивирует в течение 3 лет [10–13]. Для роста опухоли необходимо питание, которое потребляют и нормальные клетки эпителия. Увеличение потребления питания в зоне роста опухоли обеспечивается неангиогенезом, что является обязательным условием для опухолевого роста и метастазирования. Для увеличения размеров опухоли ее клетки начинают активно вырабатывать различные вещества, которые запускают процессы роста числа кровеносных сосудов и способствуют насыщению опухоли питанием, т. е. клетки злокачественной опухоли начинают потреблять большее количество питания, уменьшая тем самым потребление питания нормальными клетками эпителия [8, 14].

2. Лечение. Лечение всех стадий рака яичников целесообразно начинать с выполнения оптимальной циторедуктивной операции, которая включает в себя экстирпацию матки с придатками, удаление большого сальника и видимых проявлений опухолевого процесса. При невозможности первичной оптимальной циторедуктивной операции выполняется диагностическая лапароскопия с целью оценки индекса перитонеального канцероматоза (Peritoneal Cancer Index — PCI), мультифокальной биопсии опухоли для верификации заболевания. Затем проводятся несколько курсов полихимиотерапии препаратами паклитаксел и карбоплатин, далее выполняется интервальная оптимальная циторедуктивная операция. Химиотерапия в качестве адьювантной терапии применяется в зависимости от стадии заболевания и гистологического типа опухоли. Лучевая терапия практически не используется ввиду нечувствительности опухоли к данному методу лечения. Основным методом лечения рецидивов является химиотерапевтическое лечение. Несмотря на успехи в лечении рака яичников, вопросы оптимального лечения остаются не решенными [15–18].

3. Математическая модель злокачественной опухоли. Возникшие на поверхности эпителия клетки опухоли (делящиеся клетки) получают питание из кровеносных сосудов так же, как нормальные клетки эпителия. На самых ранних стадиях опухолевой прогрессии клетки опухоли постепенно запускают процессы, способствующие большему потреблению питания, чем нормальные клетки. Тем самым заполнение функционального пространства опухолевыми клетками происходит быстрее, чем нормальными. Поэтому процесс совместного роста двух типов клеток можно рассматривать как интерференционную конкуренцию в функциональном пространстве. С учетом этих предположений модель роста нормальных и делящихся клеток можно представить как систему трех дифференциальных уравнений

$$\begin{cases} \frac{du}{dt} = \mu^u u \left(1 - \frac{u + vz}{K}\right), \\ \frac{dv}{dt} = \mu^v v \left(1 - \frac{v + u}{K}\right), \\ \frac{dz}{dt} = -\mu^z uz, \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

в которой u — количество делящихся клеток, а v — нормальных, μ^u и μ^v — удельные скорости размножения делящихся и нормальных клеток соответственно, K — объем «функционального пространства» (максимальное количество клеток, которое может разместиться на поверхности яичника). Функция $z(t)$ в (1) характеризует факторы роста опухолевых клеток, влияющих на их скорость «ухода» от конкуренции за счет «оттеснения» нормальных клеток от источников питания. Параметр μ^z характеризует влияние делящихся клеток на факторы роста. При $z = 1$ модель (1) представляет собой модель конкуренции, а при $z = 0$ на делящиеся клетки нормальные клетки не влияют, а делящиеся клетки часть функционального пространства у нормальных клеток «забирают».

Поскольку в момент возникновения делящихся клеток возникает и конкуренция, то в качестве начальных принимаются следующие условия:

$$u = \varepsilon, v = K - \varepsilon, z = 1,$$

где $\varepsilon = K$.

Такие условия подразумевают, что в начальный момент времени в функциональном пространстве нормальных клеток появляется небольшое количество делящихся клеток и сразу начинается стимулирование питания делящимися клетками.

Система уравнений (1) имеет единственную нетривиальную стационарную точку

$$u = K, v = 0, z = 0,$$

т. е. в этом стационарном состоянии нормальные клетки отсутствуют, и соответственно модель (1) рассматривается как модель злокачественной опухоли.

Параметры μ^u и μ^v выбираются исходя из данных по времени удвоения клеточных популяций. Например, из приведенных в [15, 19] данных оно зависит от конкретного организма и может изменяться от нескольких месяцев до нескольких лет. В данной работе принимается, что этот период составляет около 180 дней, т. е. $\mu^u = \mu^v = 0.0038$ 1/день. Стадии заболевания определяются исходя из доли функционального пространства, занимаемого делящимися клетками: стадия I — если $0 < u \leq 0.25K$, стадия II — если $0.25K < u \leq 0.5K$, стадия III — если $0.5K < u \leq 0.75K$, стадия IV — если $0.75K < u$.

На рис. 1 показана зависимость функций $u(t)$ и $v(t)$ от времени при $\mu^u = \mu^v = 0.0038$, $\mu^z = 0.05$ и $K = 1$. Горизонтальными пунктирными линиями отмечены границы между стадиями «заболеваний», символами «o» — «точки» начала стадий II, III и IV заболевания. При выбранной активности потребления питания (параметр μ^z) в границах модели (1) стадия заболевания II будет достигнута за два года роста опухоли, III — за три, IV стадия, практически неизлечимая, — за четыре [19], т. е. интервал между II и III, III и IV стадиями заболевания составляет немногим более года.

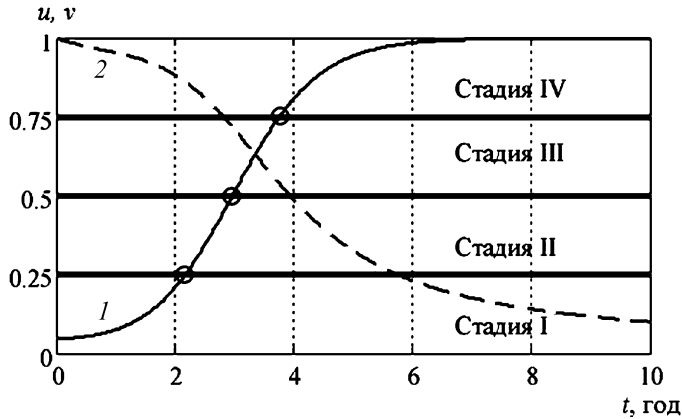


Рис. 1. Зависимость функций u (1) и v (2) от времени t

4. Модель лечения — химиотерапия. Лечение рака яичников осуществляется с применением различных химических препаратов (паклитаксел, карбоплатин, цисплатин, гемцитабин и др. [20]). Оно состоит в среднем из 6 курсов продолжительностью каждого в 21–28 дней [21, 22]. При такой периодичности курсов лечения с учетом длительности роста опухоли в модели можно принять, что препараты поступают в функциональное пространство непрерывно в течение всего курса. Цикл лечения заканчивается прекращением поступления препаратов, действующих на делящиеся клетки. Побочными эффектами влияния лекарственных препаратов на организм будем пренебрегать.

В математической модели лечения опухоли надо прекратить действие фактора z , сделать делящиеся и нормальные клетки по нему равноправными, ввести лекарство, которое уничтожит делящиеся клетки.

Пусть в момент времени $t = t_0$ был поставлен диагноз и начата процедура лечения. Количество делящихся клеток в этот момент равно $u = u_0$, а нормальных — $v = v_0$. До момента времени $t = t_0$ рост опухоли описывается системой уравнений (1), а после начала лечения и на весь его период — уравнениями

$$\begin{cases} \frac{du}{dt} = \mu^u u \left(1 - \frac{u + vz}{K}\right) - a \text{Drug}(t)u, \\ \frac{dv}{dt} = \mu^v v \left(1 - \frac{v + u}{K}\right), \\ \frac{dz}{dt} = \beta z(1 - z) \text{Drug}(t). \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Здесь $\text{Drug}(t)$ — количество лекарственного препарата в функциональном пространстве. Его зависимость от времени определяется программой лечения. Множитель $z(1 - z)$ в третьем уравнении характеризует скорость подавления активности делящихся клеток лекарственными препаратами. В этой модели предполагается, что все поступающие в функциональное пространство препараты расходуются на уничтожение делящихся клеток, не распадаются. Погибшие клетки из функционального пространства выносятся мгновенно.

Начальные условия (при $t = t_0$) для системы уравнений (2)

$$u = u_0, v = v_0, z = z_0, \text{Drug} = \text{Drug}(t_0).$$

Для случая постоянного действия препаратов ($\text{Drug}(t) = \text{Drug}_0 = \text{const}$), как следует из третьего уравнения в (2), функция $z(t)$ будет расти до значения $z = 1$. Тем самым будет подавлено стимулирующее влияние делящихся клеток на дополнительное питание. Стационарной точкой системы уравнений (2) в этом случае будет

$$u = 0, v = K, z = 1.$$

Эта точка будет устойчивой, поскольку в ней три собственных значения матрицы Якоби правой части уравнений (2) будут отрицательными: $\lambda_1 = -\alpha \text{Drug}$, $\lambda_2 = -\beta \text{Drug}$, $\lambda_3 = -\mu^v$. Если же начиная с некоторого момента времени $t = t_*$ «лечение» прекратится ($\text{Drug}(t) = 0$ при $t \geq t_*$), то рост популяции делящихся клеток возобновится согласно уравнениям (1).

По данным [23] за медицинской помощью впервые обращаются около 40 % лиц со стадией заболевания III и около 20 % — со стадией заболевания IV. С учетом этих статистических данных в моделях лечения принимается, что лечение начинается на стадии заболевания III. Химические препараты применяются до тех пор, пока делящиеся клетки диагностически определимы. После лечение прекращается. На рис. 2 представлен модельный вариант «лечения»: численность популяции делящихся клеток растет, на третьем году роста занимает половину функционального пространства (наступает стадия «заболевания» III). В этот момент начинается процедура их уничтожения, которая длится в течение года. На четвертом году опухоль перестает быть различимой — лечение прекращается. К сожалению, оставшаяся диагностически неразличимой часть опухоли начинает снова расти и в течение 3.5 лет происходит рецидив заболевания.

5. Модель стадий заболевания. Система уравнений (1) содержит четыре параметра: μ^u, μ^v, μ^z и K . При различных их значениях величины функции $u(t)$ как решения системы уравнений (1) будут различными. Наборы этих параметров можно отождествлять с физическими характеристиками условных «больных». Значения функций, которые они принимают в заданный момент времени, находятся в одном из диапазонов стадий заболевания. Они сопоставляются со стадиями заболевания конкретного больного. При выборе параметров случайным образом N раз при распределении величины функций $u(t)$ на N решениях уравнений (1) по стадиям будет получено распределение «больных» по стадиям заболевания. На рис. 3 для $N = 110\,000$ (число стоящих на учете в Популяционном раковом регистре в РФ на 2019 г.) приведено распределение значений функций по стадиям заболеваний. Параметры и начальные условия выбирались случайным образом, отличающимися от $u(t)$ не более чем в 3 раза. Полученный результат по стадиям заболеваний (рис. 3) согласуется со статистическими данными за 2019 г. — в РФ 40 % больных отнесены к стадиям заболевания I и II, 38 % — к III и 20 % — к IV [24, 25].

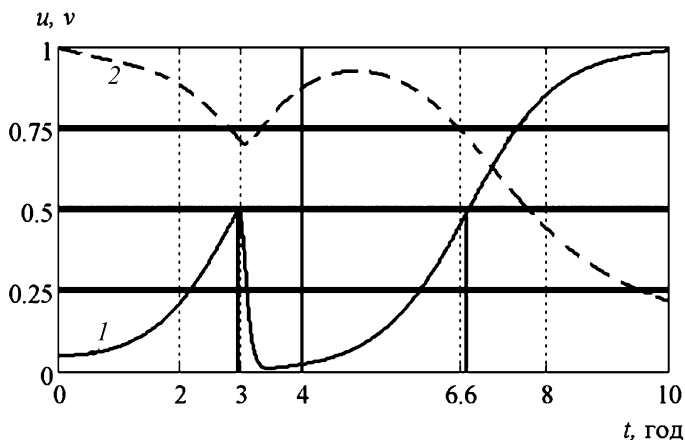


Рис. 2. Зависимость функций u (1) и v (2) от времени t для лечения заболевания, длившегося с третьего по четвертый год

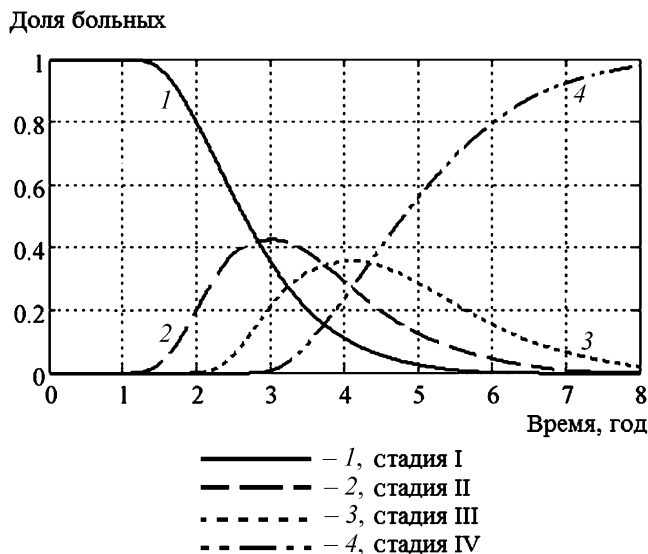


Рис. 3. Изменение количества «больных» в зависимости от времени

Как следует из анализа результатов (рис. 2 и 3), показатель общей выживаемости после прохождения годового курса лечения может изменяться в диапазоне от 1 года до 8 лет. Рецидивы заболевания практически не реагируют на повторную химиотерапию. Поэтому промежуток времени от окончания лечения до возникновения рецидива заболевания можно рассматривать как безрецидивную выживаемость. С принятыми значениями периода удвоения делящихся клеток (180 дней) и началом лечения заболевания на стадии III у 50 % пациентов рецидив должен происходить через 2–3 года после окончания лечения, а показатель общей выживаемости: 4 года — 80 % «больных», 5 лет — 40 %, 6 лет — 20 %. Эти результаты, полученные в рамках моделей (1), (2), согласуются с данными популяционных раковых регистров РФ и популяционных раковых регистров стран Европы [26]: однолетняя выживаемость составляет около 60 %, трехлетняя — 40 %, пятилетняя — 35 %.

6. Заключение. Математические модели онкологических заболеваний и математические модели их лечения можно успешно применять не только для описания динамики роста опухолей, но и для оценки распределения больных по стадиям заболеваемости, по времени наступления возможного рецидива после окончания лечения и общей выживаемости. При хорошем согласовании расчетных и реальных распределений можно на основе разработанных моделей определить и меры, которые позволили бы уменьшить заболеваемость различных групп граждан или увеличить продолжительность их жизни.

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Mathematical modeling of cancer treatment

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The paper proposes mathematical models of ovarian neoplasms. The models are based on a mathematical model of interference competition. Two types of cells are involved in the competition for functional space: normal and tumor cells. The mathematical interpretation of the models is the Cauchy problem for a system of ordinary differential equations. The dynamics of tumor growth is determined on the basis of the model. A model for the distribution of conditional patients according to four stages of the disease, a model for

assessing survival times for groups of conditional patients, and a chemotherapy model are also proposed.

Keywords: differential equations, mathematical modeling, neoplasms, ovarian cancer, morbidity, treatment, statistics.

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Spatial market equilibrium in the case of linear transportation costs*

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In this article, we study the spatial market equilibrium in the case of fixed demands and supply values, the requirement of equality in regard to overall supply and overall demand, and linear transportation costs. The problem is formulated as a nonlinear optimization program with dual variables reflecting supply and demand prices. It is shown that the unique equilibrium commodity assignment pattern is obtained explicitly via equilibrium prices. Moreover, it is proved that in order to obtain absolute values of equilibrium prices, it is necessary to establish a certain base market price. Therefore, once the base market price is given, then other prices are adjusted according to spatial market equilibrium.

Keywords: spatial market equilibrium, non-linear optimization, multipliers of Lagrange, Karush—Kuhn—Tucker conditions.

1. Introduction. The modern market was formed mainly due to the division of labor. Actually, the market already lost its national and territorial boundaries and turned into a global market for commodities from spatial perspectives. The sale and purchase of commodities can occur at completely different prices, bounded above by the price of demand, and below — by the price of supply. Actual prices depend primarily on the structure of market and transaction costs, which incorporate the transportation costs. There are several structures of the market.

- Perfect competition markets: many small firms with homogeneous products.
- Monopoly: there is only one company on the market that produces unique products.
- Monopolistic competition: there are many small firms on the market whose products are heterogeneous.
- Oligopoly: there are a small number of large firms with homogeneous or heterogeneous products on the market.

For each of the above structures, it is possible to determine such a situation (point) in the market, when neither the buyer nor the seller is interested in changing the current situation. The price at which the product offered on the market corresponds to the demand is called the equilibrium. The market mechanism begins to work, exerting pressure on prices from the lower and upper sides to achieve an equilibrium price. The study of the market, as well as the principles of its functioning and regulatory mechanisms, today seems to be relevant and necessary for understanding the essence of the socio-economic processes that are currently taking place throughout the world.

The first consideration of the spatial price equilibrium problem was made in [1]. The foundations for the study of spatial production, consumption, and trade of commodities

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was given in [2]. Up-to-date there exists a wide range of computational techniques for coping with such kind of problems [3–7]. Comprehensive mathematical models concerning spatial equilibrium are studied in [8–10]. Spatial equilibrium models are commonly exploited to solve the traffic assignment problem [11–14]. Moreover, its applications can be found in energy markets [15, 16] and telecommunication markets [17].

In this paper, we study the spatial market equilibrium in the case of linear transportation costs. The problem is formulated in a form of nonlinear optimization program in Section 2. The supply and demand price functions are assumed to be given as well as the unit transaction cost functions, which are assumed to incorporate the unit transportation costs. The unique equilibrium commodity assignment pattern is obtained explicitly via equilibrium prices in Section 3. Moreover, in Section 3 it is proved that in order to obtain absolute values of equilibrium prices, the market moderator has to establish the basic market price. Conclusions are given in Section 4.

2. Spatial market equilibrium. Consider the set of suppliers M and the set of consumers N , which are associated with commodity production, distribution, and consumption. We denote by s_i the supply of $i \in M$, and by λ_i – the price of a unit of the i th supply, $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m)^T$. By d_j we denote the demand of $j \in N$, and by μ_j – the price of a unit of the j th demand, $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n)^T$. Finally, let $x_{ij} \geq 0$ be the commodity volume between a pair (i, j) , while $c_{ij}(x_{ij})$ is the cost of the transaction of a unit of x_{ij} . Let us also introduce the indicator of market relations:

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } x_{ij} > 0, \\ 0 & \text{for } x_{ij} = 0, \end{cases} \quad \forall (i, j) \in M \times N.$$

Definition. Commodity assignment pattern x is the *spatial market equilibrium* if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_i + c_{ij}(x_{ij}) &= \mu_j & \text{for } x_{ij} > 0, \\ \lambda_i + c_{ij}(x_{ij}) &\geq \mu_j & \text{for } x_{ij} = 0, \end{aligned} \quad \forall (i, j) \in M \times N.$$

Thus, if the sum of the i -th supplier's price and the transaction costs between i and j exceeds the demand price of j -th consumer, then the pair (i, j) will not have any market relations. The commodity assignment pattern x^* such as

$$x^* = \arg \min_x \sum_{i \in M} \sum_{j \in N} \int_0^{x_{ij}} c_{ij}(u) du \tag{1}$$

subject to

$$\sum_{j \in N} x_{ij} = s_i \quad \forall i \in M, \tag{2}$$

$$\sum_{i \in M} x_{ij} = d_j \quad \forall j \in N, \tag{3}$$

$$x_{ij} \geq 0 \quad \forall i, j \in M \times N, \tag{4}$$

under

$$\sum_{i \in M} s_i = \sum_{j \in N} d_j, \tag{5}$$

is proved to be spatial market equilibrium [10, 18].