# Nonlinear dynamics & chaos

**Lecture I**



**STUDIES CONDIN ONE IN EARLTY** 

#### **NONLINEAR DYNAMICS** AND CHAOS



With Applications to Physics, Biology, Chemistry, and Engineering



#### Outline

#### I One-Dimensional Flows

- 1) Flows on the line
- 2) Bifurcations
- 3) Flows on the Circle

#### II Two-Dimensional Flows

- 1) Linear systems
- 2) Phase plane
- 3) Limit cycles
- 4) Bifurcations in Two Dimensions

#### III Chaos

- 1) Lorentz Equations
- 2) One-Dimensional Maps

#### Fractals; self-similarity



#### Introduction: chaos



## Introduction: dynamics

Fractals and chaos are part of dynamics, i.e. the subject that deals with systems evolving in time

A dynamic system may:

- 1) Reach a steady state (equilibrium)
- 2) Reach a periodic orbit (limit cycle)
- 3) Do otherwise (e.g. follow chaotic orbits)

Dynamic systems occur in a wide variety of fields:

- 1) Classical mechanics
- 2) Chemical kinetics
- 3) Population biology
- 4) Etc.

Birth (mid-1600s): Newton invented differential calculus and discovered laws of motion.

He solved two-body problem: motion of the earth around the sun and the inverse-square law of gravitational attraction.

Subsequent generations failed in the attempt to extend Newton's analytical methods to three bodies. Three-body motion is analytically unsolvable, no explicit formulas can be found!



Breakthrough by Poincaré (late 1800s): development of geometric approach to analyze qualitative questions of e.g. stability. This approach has evolved into the modern science of dynamics. Poincaré was the first to conceive the idea of chaos, where a deterministic system exhibits aperiodic behaviour that sensitively depends on the initial conditions.



First half of the 20th century: nonlinear oscillators.

Applications in radio, radar, phase-locked loops, laser …





New mathematical techniques and extension of Poincare's geometric methods in classical mechanics (Kolmogorov).

"High-speed" computers in the 50's allowed for solving dynamic equations numerically  $\rightarrow$ 

Birth of chaos: Lorenz, 1963

Studies of a simplified model of convection rolls in the atmosphere for weather forecast  $\rightarrow$  Discovery of chaotic motion on a strange attractor (Lorenz attractor).



Dependence on initial conditions: the distance of two particles starting from slightly different points grows exponentially in time!

Lorenz attractor is "an infinite complex of surfaces": fractal.

1970s: the golden age of chaos

1971: new theory of turbulence by Ruelle and Takens using strange attractors

1976: May introduces the logistic map

1978: Feigenbaum discovers universality in onedimensional maps; different systems may go chaotic in the same way  $\rightarrow$  link between chaos and critical phenomena

1980s: experimental verification of chaotic behavior on fluids, chemical reactions, electronic circuits, mechanical oscillators, semiconductors (Gollub, Libchaber, Swinney, Linsay, Moon, Westervelt)

#### **Dynamics - A Capsule History**



Two types:

- 1) Differential equations: evolution in continuous time
- 2) Iterated maps (difference equations): evolution in discrete time; iterated maps are useful in chaotic dynamics

An example of a differential equation: damped harmonic oscillator

$$
m\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + b\frac{dx}{dt} + kx = 0
$$

**Ordinary** equation: one independent variable (time t)

Another example: heat equation

$$
\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \kappa \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2},
$$

where (in physics)  $u$  is the temparature and  $\kappa$  is the diffusivity. This is a **partial** differential equation: two independent variables (space *x*, time *t*).

Our concern is purely temporal behaviour: exclusively ordinary differential equations.

Dynamics

General framework for ordinary differential equations:

$$
\dot{x}_1 = f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \n\vdots \n\dot{x}_i = \frac{dx_i}{dt}
$$

$$
\dot{x}_n = f_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n)
$$

 $x_1$ ,  $\ldots$ ,  $x_n$  might represent concentrations of chemicals, populations of different species, or the positions and velocities of the planets.



High-order differential equations can be rewritten as a system of first-order equations.

Example: damped harmonic oscillator

$$
m\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + b\frac{dx}{dt} + kx = 0
$$

Trick:  $x_1 = x$ ;  $x_2 = \dot{x}_1$ 

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}\n\dot{x}_2 &=& \ddot{x} = -\frac{b}{m}\dot{x} - \frac{k}{m}x\\
&=& -\frac{b}{m}x_2 - \frac{k}{m}x_1\n\end{array}
$$



The system is linear, there are only first powers of the variables!



Example of nonlinear equation: swinging pendulum!

$$
\ddot{x} + \frac{g}{L}\sin x = 0
$$

- $x =$  angle of pendulum from vertical
- $\vec{r}$  = acceleration due to gravity
- $L =$  length of the pendulum

Equivalent nonlinear first-order system:

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}\n\dot{x}_1 &=& x_2\\ \n\dot{x}_2 &=& -\frac{g}{L} \sin x_1\n\end{array}
$$

**Dynamics**  
\n
$$
\dot{x}_1 = x_2
$$
\n
$$
\dot{x}_2 = -\frac{g}{L}\sin x_1
$$

Analytical solution is very difficult due to the nonlinear term

(Standard) trick: Linearisation for small-angle oscillations

 $\rightarrow$   $\sin x \sim x$  for  $x \ll 1$ 

Problem: no way to know what happens when the pendulum swirls over the top

Scope of the course: to understand the features of evolution using geometric methods, without explicitly solving the equation of motion



phase space is twodimensional

A system whose phase space is *n*-dimensional = an *n*th-order system.

Phase space is completely filled with trajectories as each point can be used as initial condition for the motion



Our goal: given the system, draw the trajectories without solving the equations! (geometric reasoning)

Can we handle equations with explicit time-dependence (nonautonomous equations)?

Example: forced harmonic oscillator

$$
m\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + kx = F\cos t
$$

In addition to  $x_1 = x$  and  $x_2 = \dot{x}$  , introduce  $x_3 = t$ 

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}\n\dot{x}_1 &=& x_2 \\
\dot{x}_2 &=& \frac{1}{m} \left( -kx_1 - bx_2 + F \cos x_3 \right) \\
\dot{x}_3 &=& 1\n\end{array}
$$

Three-dimensional system with the explicit time dependence removed. → View *frozen* trajectories in 3-D phase space.



Rule: a time-dependent *n*-th order equation can be turned into an (*n*+1)-dimensional system without explicit time dependence.

'Physical' reason: For the motion to fully unfold, that is, to predict a future state from the present, we need three numbers: position, velocity, and time. Hence the 3 dimensional phase space.

This leads to nontraditional terminology. The forced harmonic oscillator, normally regarded as a second-order linear equation, will be in our vocabulary a third-order nonlinear (because of the cosine term) system.



Question: why are nonlinear systems so hard to solve?

Answer: linear systems can be decomposed in parts, which can be solved separately and then recombined to get the answer. Nonlinear systems cannot be decomposed

Linear systems are the sum of their parts, nonlinear systems are not!

Nonlinearity is everywhere: weather, fluid dynamics, population and social dynamics, economics and finance, neurons and brain, lasers, Josephson junctions, etc.



 $\mathbf{I}$ 

#### One-Dimensional Flows

#### Flows on the line

One-dimensional (first-order) systems

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

- *x*(*t*) real-valued function of time
- *f*(*x*) smooth real-valued function of *x*, not explicitly depending on time. In case there were an explicit time dependence it would be regarded as a twodimensional system

**One-dimensional systems**  
\nExample:  
\n
$$
\dot{x} = \sin x
$$
\nExact solution:  
\n
$$
dt = \frac{dx}{\sin x}
$$
\n
$$
t - t_0 = \int_{x_0}^{x} \frac{1}{\sin x'} dx' \qquad [x(t_0) = x_0]
$$
\n
$$
t - t_0 = \ln \left| \frac{\csc x_0 + \cot x_0}{\csc x + \cot x} \right|
$$

Exact solution not transparent: what happens when  $t \rightarrow \infty$  ?

#### Geometric approach: vector fields

Interpret a differential equation as a vector field: how the velocity of the particle depends on its position

 $\dot{x} = \sin x$ 





At points  $\dot{x} = 0$  there is no flow: **fixed points.** 

#### Two types of FPs:

- Stable fixed points (attractors, sinks): flow converges towards them
- 2) Unstable fixed points (repellers, sources): flow goes away from them



Solution: particle starting at  $x = \pi/4$  moves to the right with increasing velocity, then slows down after  $x = \pi/2$  until it reaches asymptotically the stable fixed point  $x = \pi$ .

### Fixed points



#### Fixed points



### Fixed points & stability

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

Imaginary particle, **phase point**, is carried by the flow along the **trajectory** *x*(*t*). The diagram is called a **phase portrait**.

General procedure:

- 1) Draw the graph of  $f(x)$
- 2) Identify fixed points (intersections with *x*axis)
- 3) Classify fixed points

Fixed points *x\** are equilibrium solutions:

- 1) Stable equilibrium: the effect of small perturbations vanishes in time
- 2) Unstable equilibrium: the effect of small perturbations grow in time



#### Example I

$$
\dot{x} = x^2 - 1
$$

Fixed points:

$$
f(x^*) = 0 \to x^{*2} - 1 = 0 \to x^* = \pm 1
$$

**Note:** Stability of a FP is determined by *small*  $perturbations \rightarrow here$ FPs are stable or unstable *locally* – not globally.



## Example II: electric circuit

*Q*(*t*) = charge of capacitor at time t

*R* = resistance

*C* = capacity

*I* = current flowing through the resistor

Circuit equation: total voltage drop of system must be zero

$$
-V_0 + RI + \frac{Q}{C} = 0
$$



**Example II: electric circuit**  

$$
I = \dot{Q} \rightarrow -V_0 + R\dot{Q} + \frac{Q}{C} = 0
$$

$$
\dot{Q} = f(Q) = \frac{V_0}{R} - \frac{Q}{RC}
$$

Fixed points:  $\frac{V_0}{R}-\frac{Q^*}{RC}=0$  $f(Q)$  $f(Q^*)=0$   $\rightarrow$  $Q^* = CV_0$ 

The fixed point is globally stable, i.e. it is approached by all initial conditions; in other words, even large perturbations/disturbances decay.

## Example II: electric circuit

For the initial condition at the origin:



#### Example III

$$
\dot{x} = x - \cos x
$$

Fixed points:

$$
f(x^*) = 0 \rightarrow x^* = \cos x^*
$$

Solution: either plot *x –* cos *x* directly or separately plot

$$
\begin{cases}\n y = x \\
 y = \cos x\n\end{cases}
$$

Only one fixed point!



### Example III

 $\dot{x} = x - \cos x$ 

To the right of  $x^*$ ,  $x > \cos x$  $y = \cos x$  $\rightarrow$  *x* – cos *x* > 0 : velocity is positive. To the left of  $x^*$ ,  $x < \cos x$  $\rightarrow$  *x* – cos *x* < 0 : velocity is negative.  $x^*$ 

 $v = x$ 

The fixed point  $x^* = \cos x^*$  is unstable!

Simplest model:

$$
\dot{N}=rN
$$

Consequence: exponential growth

$$
N(t) = N_0 e^{rt}
$$

Exponential growth cannot last forever.



Logistic equation (Verhulst, 1838)

$$
\dot{N}=rN\left(1-\frac{N}{K}\right)
$$

Analytically solvable. Here we use geometric approach.

Fixed points:

$$
N^* \left( 1 - \frac{N^*}{K} \right) = 0 \quad \to \quad N_1^* = 0, N_2^* = K
$$

Logistic equation (Verhulst, 1838)

$$
\dot{N}=rN\left(1-\frac{N}{K}\right)
$$

 $N_1^* = 0$  is unstable

 $N_2^* = K$  is stable



For  $N_0 \sim 0$  there is a rapid  $\dot{N}$ growth until the growth rate peaks  $(N = K/2)$ , then the population grows less and less until it reaches the stationary value *K* (carrying capacity).

For  $N_0 > K$  the growth rate is negative and the population decreases until it reaches *K*.



#### Linear stability analysis

Let  $x^*$  be a fixed point and  $\eta(t) = x(t) - x^*$  a small perturbation away from the fixed point.

Question: How does the perturbation grow or decay with time?

$$
\dot{\eta} = \frac{d}{dt}(x - x^*) = \dot{x} = f(x) = f(x^* + \eta)
$$

Taylor's expansion:

$$
f(x^* + \eta) = f(x^*) + \eta f'(x^*) + O(\eta^2)
$$
  
 
$$
\bigcup_{0 \text{ (fixed point)}}
$$

$$
\dot{\eta} = f(x^* + \eta) = \eta f'(x^*) + O(\eta^2)
$$

### Linear stability analysis

If  $f'(x^*) \neq 0 \rightarrow \dot{\eta} \sim \eta f'$ 

 $(x^*)$  Linearisation about  $x^*$ 

if  $f'(x^*) > 0$  the perturbation grows exponentially in time if  $f'(x^*) < 0$  the perturbation decays exponentially in time if  $f'(x^*) = 0$   $O(\eta^2)$  terms are non-negligible: nonlinear analysis is needed

Key point: the slope of  $f(x)$  at a fixed point determines the stability of the fixed point:

- 1) If the slope is positive, the fixed point is unstable
- 2) If the slope is negative, the fixed point is stable

 $1/|f'(x^*)|$  is a characteristic time scale: it determines the time required for  $x(t)$  to vary significantly near  $x^*$ ;  $\eta = \eta_0 \exp(t/\tau)$ .

## Example I

 $\dot{x} = \sin x$ 

Fixed points:

$$
f(x^*) = 0 \rightarrow \sin x^* = 0 \rightarrow x^* = h\pi, \ h = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots
$$

$$
f'(x^*) = \cos h\pi = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } h \text{ even} \\ -1 & \text{for } h \text{ odd} \end{cases}
$$

x \* is unstable if h is even, stable if h is odd



#### Example II  $\dot{N}=rN(1-\frac{N}{K})$ For logistic equation  $N = rN(1 - \frac{N}{K})$ <br>Fixed points: Fixed points:

 $f(N^*)=0 \rightarrow rN^*(1-N^*/K)=0 \rightarrow N_1^*=0, N_2^*=K$  $(N^*) = r - \frac{2rN^*}{K}$ *f*0 *K*  $f'(N_1^*) = r > 0 \rightarrow$  unstable  $f'(N_2^*) = -r < 0 \rightarrow$  stable Characteristic time scale:  $1/|f'(x)| = 1/r$  $K/2$ 

## Example III

The stability of a fixed point  $f'(x^*) = 0$  changes with  $f(x)$ .

Examples:

(a) 
$$
\dot{x} = -x^3
$$
 (b)  $\dot{x} = x^3$  (c)  $\dot{x} = x^2$  (d)  $\dot{x} = 0$ 

Fixed points:  $x^*=0$  in (a), (b), (c); the whole  $x$ -axis for (d)

#### Example III





Are we sure that  $\dot{x} = f(x)$  always has a solution and, in that case, that it is unique?

Example:

$$
\dot{x} = x^{1/3}
$$
, for  $x_0 = 0$ 

Trivial solution:

 $x(t)=0 \quad \forall t$ 

Other solution: (imposing initial condition  $x(0) = 0$ )

$$
\int_{x_0=0}^x x'^{-1/3} dx' = \int_{t_0=0}^t t' \rightarrow \frac{3}{2} x^{2/3} = t \rightarrow x(t) = \left(\frac{2}{3}t\right)^{3/2}
$$

$$
\dot{x} = x^{1/3}
$$
, for  $x_0 = 0$ 

There are actually infinitely many solutions (shown later) !

Without uniqueness, geometric approach fails!

Where does non-uniqueness come from?

$$
\dot{x} = x^{1/3}
$$
, for  $x_0 = 0$ 

Fixed points

$$
x^* = 0 \quad \to \quad f'(x^*) = \frac{1}{3}x^{*-2/3} = \infty
$$

Fixed point has vertical slope, so it is *extremely* unstable!



In fact, there are infinitely many solutions to

$$
\dot{x} = x^{1/3}, \text{ for } x_0 = 0
$$
  

$$
\int_0^x \frac{dx'}{x'^{1/3}} = t \Leftrightarrow \frac{3}{2} x^{2/3} = t \Leftrightarrow x = \frac{2}{3} t^{3/2} \text{ is a solution.}
$$

We can construct solutions such as

$$
x = \frac{2}{3}(t - t_0)^{3/2}
$$

Now  $x(t) = 0$  is the only solution for  $t < t_0$ . For  $t > t_0$  *x* moves away from 0 following  $x=\frac{2}{3}$  $\frac{2}{3}(t-t_0)^{3/2}$ 

 $t_0$  is arbitrary, so there are infinitely many solutions.

Existence and Uniqueness Theorem

*Consider the initial value problem:*

$$
\dot{x} = f(x), \quad x(0) = x_0
$$

*Suppose that f(x) and f'(x) are continuous on an open interval R of the x*-*axis and that*  $x_0$  *is a point in R. Then the initial value problem has a solution x(t) on some time interval (-τ, τ) about t = 0, and the solution is unique.*

For the layman: *If f(x) is smooth enough, solutions exist and are unique.*

Solutions do not necessarily exist forever! The theorem guarantees a solution only in a time interval around *t* = 0. Example:

$$
\dot{x} = 1 + x^2, \quad x(0) = x_0
$$

 $f(x) = 1 + x^2$  is continuous and has continuous derivative for all  $x \rightarrow$  there is a unique solution for any initial condition *x*(0).

$$
x(0) = 0 \quad \to \quad \int_{x(0)=0}^{x} \frac{dx'}{1 + {x'}^2} = \int_{t=0}^{t} dt' \quad \to \quad \tan^{-1} x = t \quad \to \quad x(t) = \tan t
$$

However, the solution exists only for  $-\pi/2 < t < \pi/2$ , outside this interval there is no solution, since  $x(t) \to \pm \infty$  as  $t \to \pm \pi/2$ . **Blow-up**: solutions reach infinity in finite time.

## Impossibility of oscillations

In a vector field on the real line particles either approach a fixed point or diverge to  $\pm \infty$ . The trajectories are forced to increase or decrease monotonically: In a first-order system there can be no oscillations!



In other words, no periodic solutions for  $\dot{x} = f(x).$ (Flow on the line. Vector field on a circle is different.)

## Impossibility of oscillations

Mechanical analog: overdamped systems. If in Newton's equation damping dominates over inertia,

$$
m\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} = F(x) \Rightarrow b\dot{x} \approx F(x).
$$

![](_page_58_Figure_3.jpeg)

Strong viscous damping.

#### Potentials

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

If *f*(*x*) is well behaved (e.g. continuous), it is integrable, so one can introduce the potential  $V(x)$  of "the force"  $f(x)$ 

$$
f(x) = -\frac{dV}{dx}
$$

$$
\frac{dV}{dt} = \frac{dV}{dx}\frac{dx}{dt} = -\left(\frac{dV}{dx}\right)^2 \le 0
$$

Conclusion:  $V(t)$  decreases along trajectories  $\rightarrow$  the particle always moves towards lower potential.

#### Potentials

![](_page_60_Figure_1.jpeg)

The potential stays constant in time only at equilibrium (fixed) points, which correspond to extrema of V

Minimum of V  $\rightarrow$  $d^2V$  $\frac{d^2x}{dx^2} > 0 \rightarrow f'(x) < 0 \rightarrow$  stable fixed point Maximum of V  $\rightarrow$  $d^2V$  $\frac{d^2x}{dx^2} < 0 \rightarrow f'(x) > 0 \rightarrow$  unstable fixed point

### Potentials: Example I

 $\dot{x} = -x$ 

![](_page_61_Figure_2.jpeg)

 $C=0$ 

![](_page_61_Figure_4.jpeg)

Fixed point at  $x = 0$ , stable (minimum of *V*)

#### Potentials: Example II  $\dot{x} = x - x^3$

![](_page_62_Figure_1.jpeg)

 $C=0$ 

![](_page_62_Figure_3.jpeg)

Stable fixed points at  $x = \pm 1$ , (minima of *V*)

Unstable fixed point at  $x = 0$ , (maximum of *V*)

#### This system is **bistable**.

#### Solving equations on the computer Numerical integration

$$
\dot{x} = f(x), \qquad x(t_0) = x_0
$$

#### Euler's method

Idea: in a small time interval  $\Delta t$  after time t<sub>0</sub> the velocity of the particle/system is approximately the same as at  $t_0$ 

$$
x(t_0 + \Delta t) \sim x_1 = x_0 + f(x_0)\Delta t
$$

$$
x_{n+1} = x_n + f(x_n)\Delta t
$$

#### Solving equations on the computer Euler's method

Problem: the method gets bad quickly, unless Δ*t* is really small (but then it takes a long time to create the trajectory).

 $E = |x(t_n) - x_n|$ Error (for given stepsize):

For Euler's method:  $E \propto \Delta t$ 

![](_page_64_Figure_4.jpeg)

#### Solving equations on the computer Improved Euler's method

Weakness of Euler's method: velocity is taken at the beginning of the interval  $[t_n, t_n+\Delta t]$ 

$$
\tilde{x}_{n+1} = x_n + f(x_n)\Delta t \qquad \text{(trial step)}
$$
\n
$$
x_{n+1} = x_n + \frac{1}{2}[f(x_n) + f(\tilde{x}_{n+1})]\Delta t \qquad \text{(real step)}
$$

For Improved Euler's method:  $E \propto (\Delta t)^2$ 

#### Solving equations on the computer Runge-Kutta method

Tradeoff: high-order methods are more precise but require additional computations

$$
k_1 = f(x_n)\Delta t
$$
  
\n
$$
k_2 = f(x_n + \frac{1}{2}k_1)\Delta t
$$
  
\n
$$
k_3 = f(x_n + \frac{1}{2}k_2)\Delta t
$$
  
\n
$$
k_4 = f(x_n + k_3)\Delta t
$$
  
\n
$$
x_{n+1} = x_n + \frac{1}{6}(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4)
$$

For Runge-Kutta method:  $E \propto (\Delta t)^4$ 

#### Solving equations on the computer

There are several ways for numerically solving the relevant differential equations. It's all about numerical integration in time.

- 1. You can write your own algorithm. See numerical integration methods e.g. in Press, et al: Numerical Recipes, lecture notes in the Computational Science course (MyCourses).
- 2. Use numerical methods packages like Matlab, Mathematica, or Maple.
- 3. Use softwares specifically designed for solving and visualising systems of nonlinear dynamics: Pplane and XXP.

Visualisation: Mathematica, Matlab, Maple, …

**Next time**: Bifurcations.