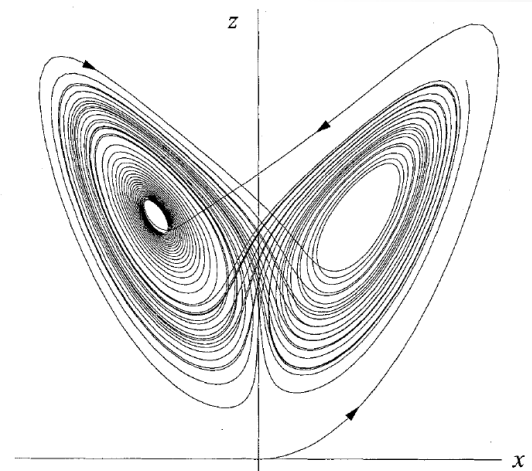


Nonlinear
dynamics &
chaos
One-Dimensional
Maps
Lecture IX

Recap

Last time: Lorenz' equations and the butterfly – a strange attractor.

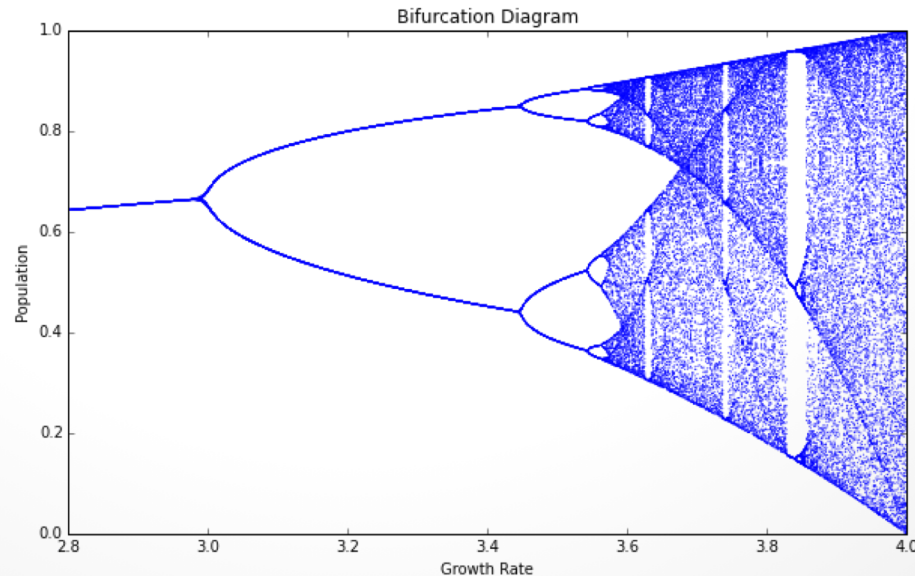
$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= \sigma(y - x) \\ \dot{y} &= rx - y - xz \\ \dot{z} &= xy - bz\end{aligned}$$



Continuous time.

This time: Discrete time and another iconic plot.

(Note! It says 'bifurcation diagram' in the header. Strictly, this is an orbit diagram, since unstable branches are not plotted.)



One-Dimensional Maps

New class of dynamical systems: time is **discrete**, not continuous.

Example of one-dimensional map:

$$x_{n+1} = \cos x_n$$

Sequence x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots is the **orbit** starting from x_0 .

Maps arise:

- 1) *As tools for analyzing differential equations.* Ex. Lorenz map shows that the Lorenz attractor is not just a long-period limit cycle.
- 2) *As models of natural phenomena:* digital electronics, economics and finance theory, impulsively driven mechanics, ...
- 3) *As simple examples of chaos:* points hop along their orbits \rightarrow non-smooth behavior, wilder dynamics.

Successful predictions of routes to chaos by using maps.

Fixed Points and Cobwebs

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

f is a smooth function from the real line to itself.

Fixed point x^*

$$f(x^*) = x^*$$

$$x_n = x^* \quad \rightarrow \quad x_{n+1} = f(x_n) = f(x^*) = x^*$$

Stability of x^* (consider an orbit sweeping past x^* : $x_n = x^* + \eta_n$)

$$x^* + \eta_{n+1} = x_{n+1} = f(x^* + \eta_n) = f(x^*) + f'(x^*)\eta_n + O(\eta_n^2)$$

$$\eta_{n+1} = f'(x^*)\eta_n + O(\eta_n^2)$$

$$\eta_{n+1} \sim f'(x^*)\eta_n$$

Fixed Points and Cobwebs

Linearized system

$$\eta_{n+1} \sim f'(x^*)\eta_n$$

$\lambda = f'(x^*)$ is the **eigenvalue** or **multiplier**.

$$\eta_1 \sim \lambda\eta_0, \eta_2 \sim \lambda\eta_1 \sim \lambda^2\eta_0, \dots \rightarrow \eta_n \sim \lambda^n\eta_0$$

If $|\lambda| = |f'(x^*)| < 1 \rightarrow \eta_n \rightarrow 0$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$

x^* is **linearly stable**.

If $|\lambda| = |f'(x^*)| > 1 \rightarrow x^*$ is **linearly unstable**.

Conclusions from linearization also hold for the nonlinear map, except in the **marginal case** $|\lambda| = |f'(x^*)| = 1$; here the neglected higher-order terms $O(\eta_n^2)$ determine the local stability.

Example

$$x_{n+1} = x_n^2$$

Fixed points

$$x^* = (x^*)^2 \quad \rightarrow \quad x^* = 0, x^* = 1$$

$$\lambda = f'(x^*) = 2x^*$$

$x^* = 0$ is **stable** ($|\lambda| = 0 < 1$), $x^* = 1$ is **unstable** ($|\lambda| = 2 > 1$).

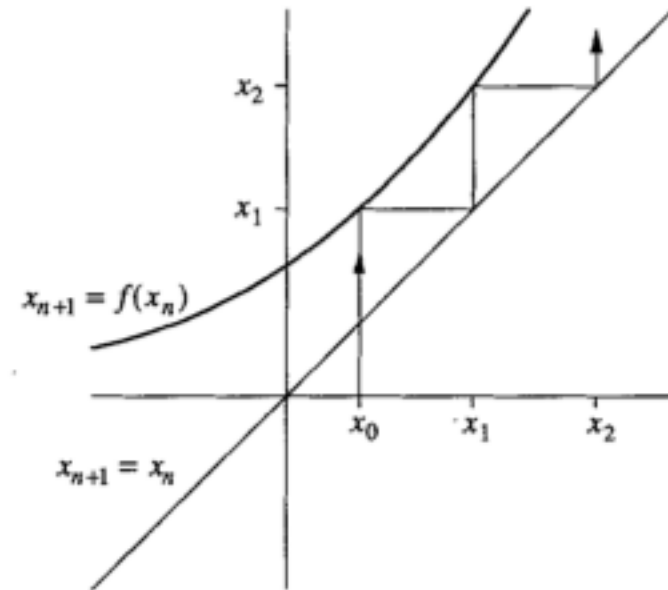
Fixed points with $\lambda = 0$ are **superstable**: convergence is extremely fast. $\eta_{n+1} = \lambda\eta_n + O(\eta_n^2) \rightarrow$ perturbations decay like

$$\eta_1 \sim \eta_0^2, \eta_2 \sim \eta_1^2 \sim \eta_0^4, \dots \rightarrow \eta_n \sim \eta_0^{2^n}$$

Cobwebs

$x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$, initial condition x_0 .

- 1) Draw a vertical line from x_0 until it intersects the graph of f : the height of the intersection point is x_1 .
- 2) Draw horizontal line from current point to the diagonal.
- 3) Move vertically to the curve again
- 4) Etc.



The process is repeated n times to generate the first n points in the orbit.

Cobwebs are particularly useful when **linear analysis fails**.

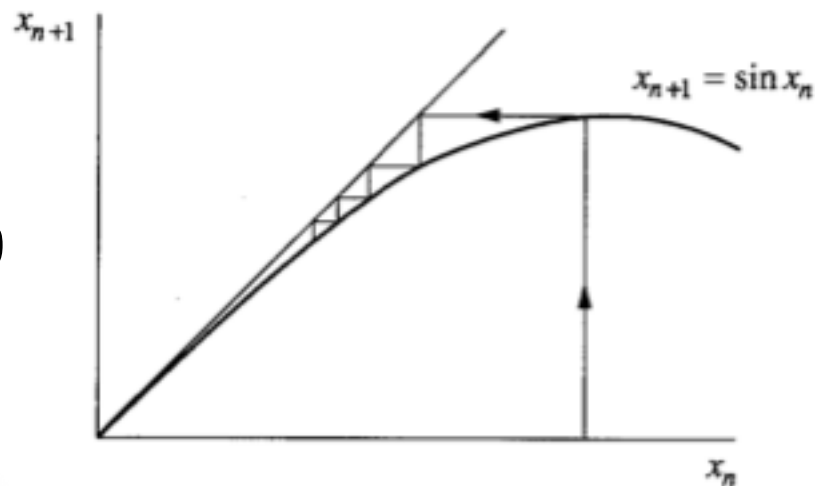
Example I

$$x_{n+1} = \sin x_n$$

Fixed points

$$x^* = 0 \rightarrow f'(x^*) = \cos x^* = 1$$

The cobweb shows that $x^* = 0$ is locally stable.



↖ Marginal case:
Linear analysis is
inconclusive.

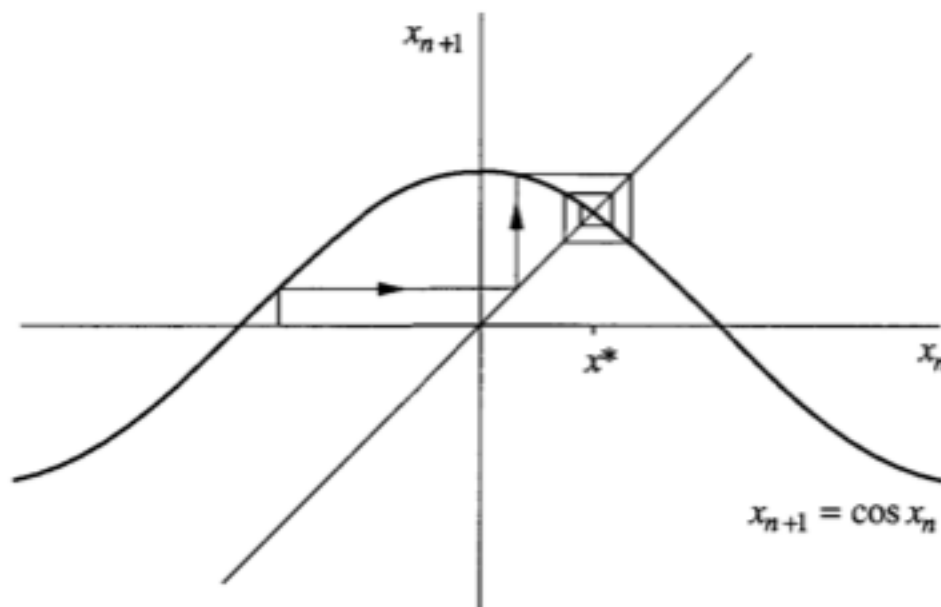
$x^* = 0$ is in fact **globally stable**, since any x is sent to the interval $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, from which it converges to the fixed point.

Example II

$$x_{n+1} = \cos x_n$$

Fixed points

$$x^* = \cos x^* \rightarrow x^* = 0.739\dots$$



$x^* = 0.739$ is **globally stable**. Since $\lambda = -\sin x^* = -0.6735\dots < 0$, convergence occurs via **damped oscillations**, as opposed to the **monotonic behavior** observed when $\lambda > 0$.

Logistic Map: Numerics

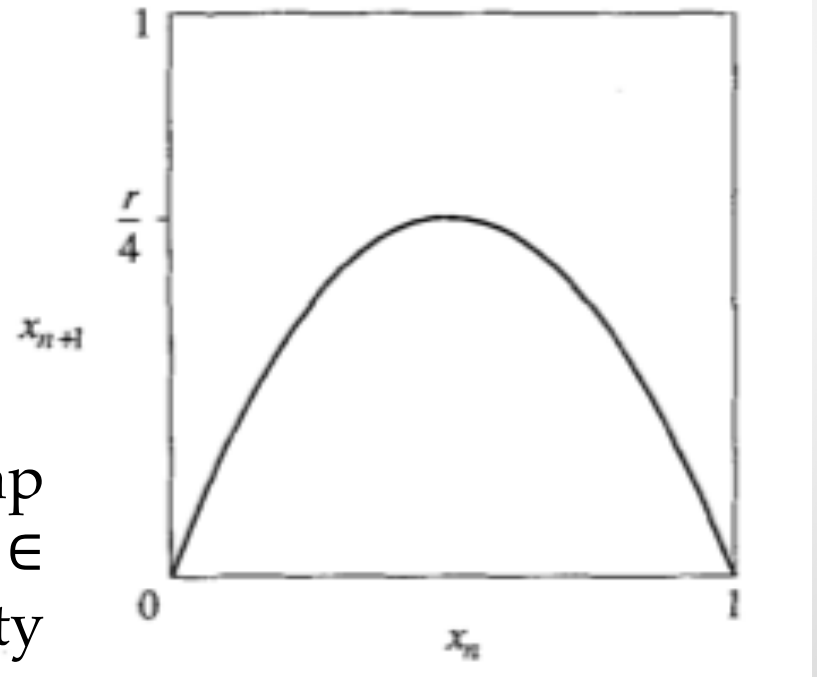
Logistic map (Robert May (1976))

$$x_{n+1} = rx_n(1 - x_n)$$

$$x_n \geq 0, r \geq 0.$$

Discrete-time analog of the **logistic equation** for population growth, $\dot{N} = rN \left(1 - \frac{N}{K}\right)$.

Focus: Choose $0 \leq r \leq 4 \rightarrow$ the map sends points $x \in [0, 1]$ to points $x \in [0, 1]$ (map of population density into population density).



Period-Doubling

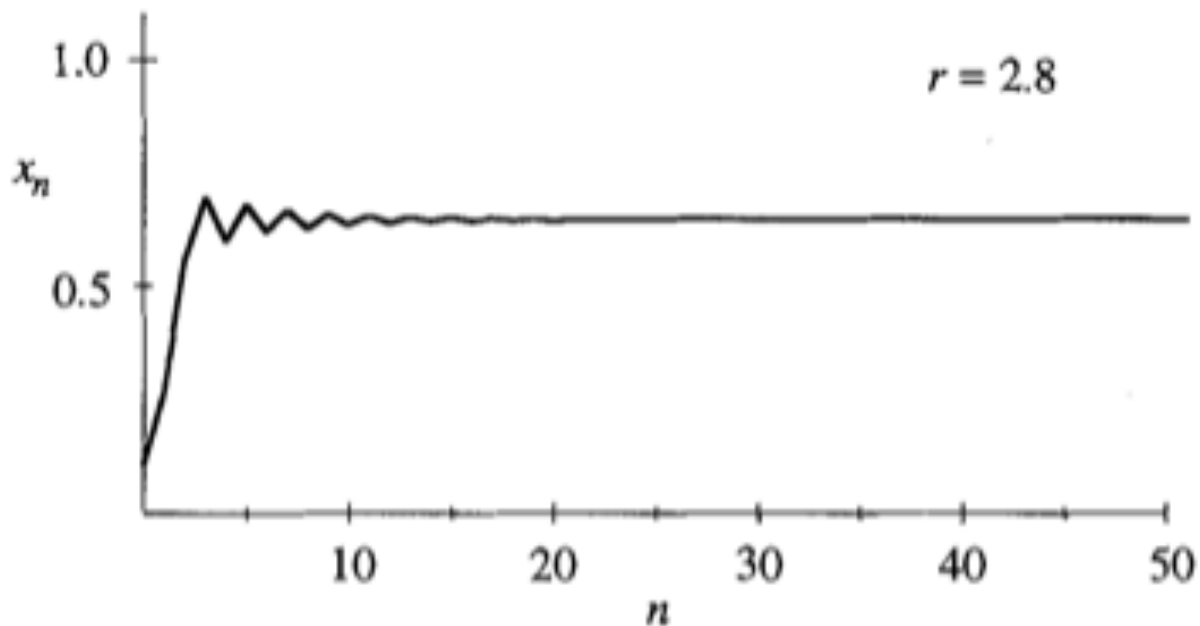
$$x_{n+1} = rx_n(1 - x_n)$$

Fix r and choose some initial population x_0 . What happens?

For $r \leq 1$, $x_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. (Extinction.)

For $1 < r \leq 3$, the population grows and reaches a non-zero steady state.

Time series.
(Discrete points
(n, x_n) connected
by segments for
clarity.)

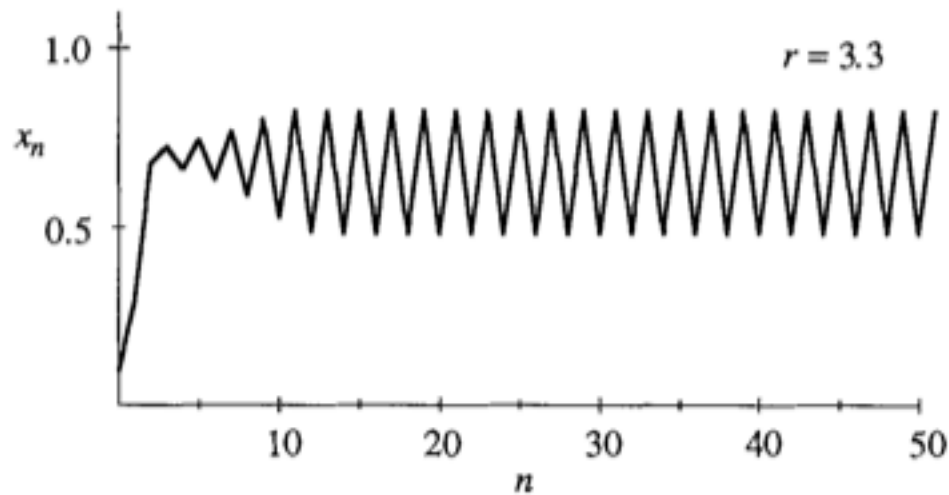


Period-Doubling

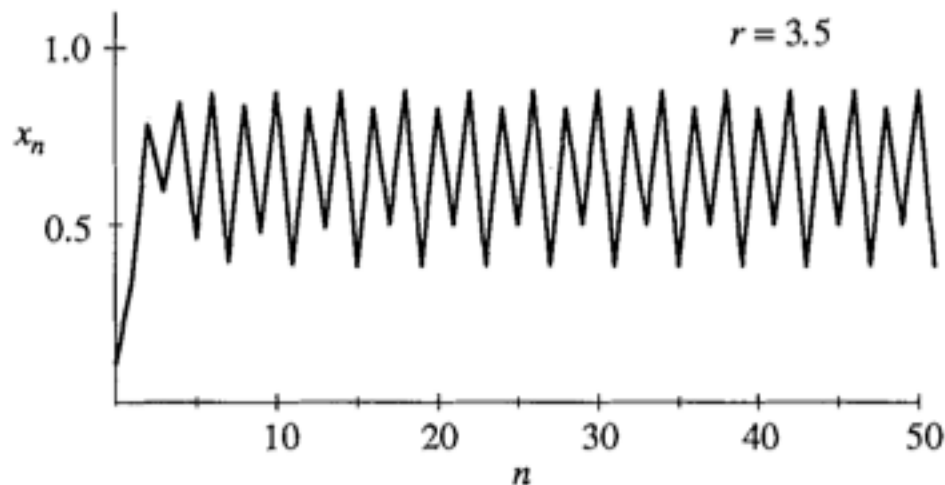
$$x_{n+1} = rx_n(1 - x_n)$$

$$r > 3 ?$$

For $r = 3.3$, the population oscillates between **two** values and x_n repeats every two iterations (**period-2 cycle**).



For $r = 3.5$, the population oscillates between **four** values (**period-4 cycle**) → the period has **doubled**!



Period-Doubling

Further **period-doublings** occur for larger r (computer experiments).

r_n denotes the r -value where a 2^n -cycle first appears

$r_1 = 3$	(period 2 is born)
$r_2 = 3.449\dots$	4
$r_3 = 3.54409\dots$	8
$r_4 = 3.5644\dots$	16
$r_5 = 3.568759\dots$	32
\vdots	\vdots
$r_\infty = 3.569946\dots$	∞

Successive bifurcations occur **after shorter and shorter intervals** in r .

The sequence $\{r_n\}$ **converges** to a limiting value $r_\infty = 3.569946$
Convergence is essentially **geometric**:

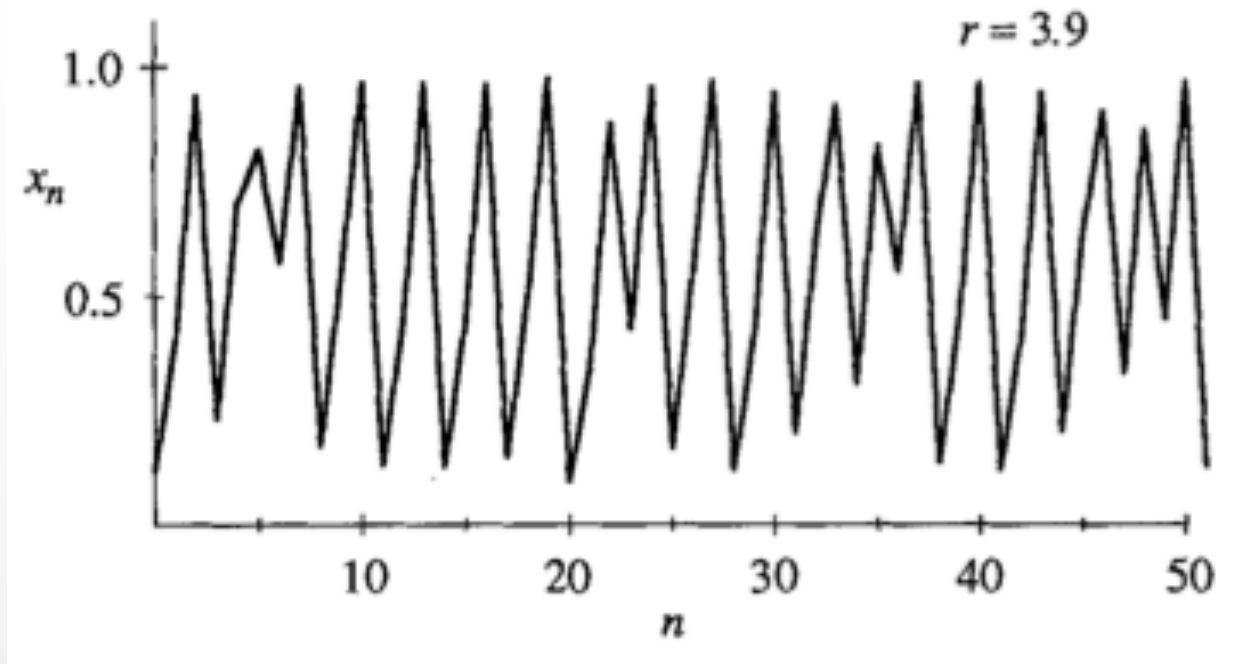
$$\delta = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_n - r_{n-1}}{r_{n+1} - r_n} = 4.669\dots$$

Chaos and Periodic Windows

What happens for $r > r_\infty$?

For many values of r the sequence $\{x_n\}$ **never** settles down to a fixed point or a periodic orbit: a discrete-time version of **chaos**.

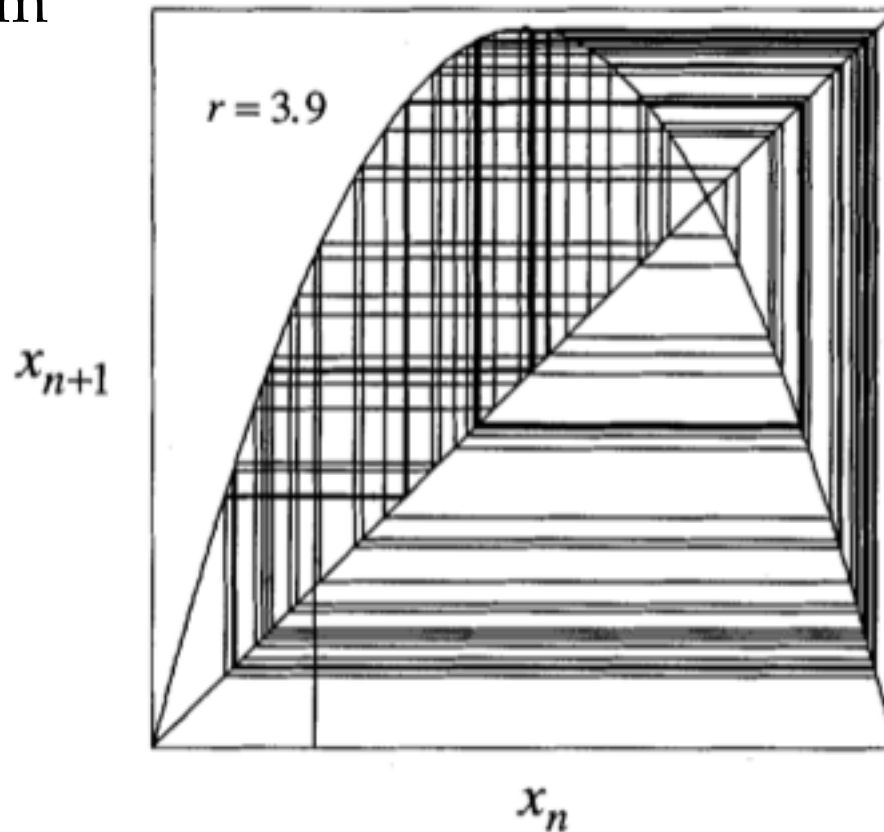
$$r = 3.9$$



Chaos and Periodic Windows

$$r = 3.9$$

The cobweb diagram



To see the the long-term behaviour for all r we plot the orbit diagram →

Chaos and Periodic Windows

Orbit diagram

Branches indicate **periodic solutions**.
Periodic doublings for $r < r_\infty \approx 3.57$.

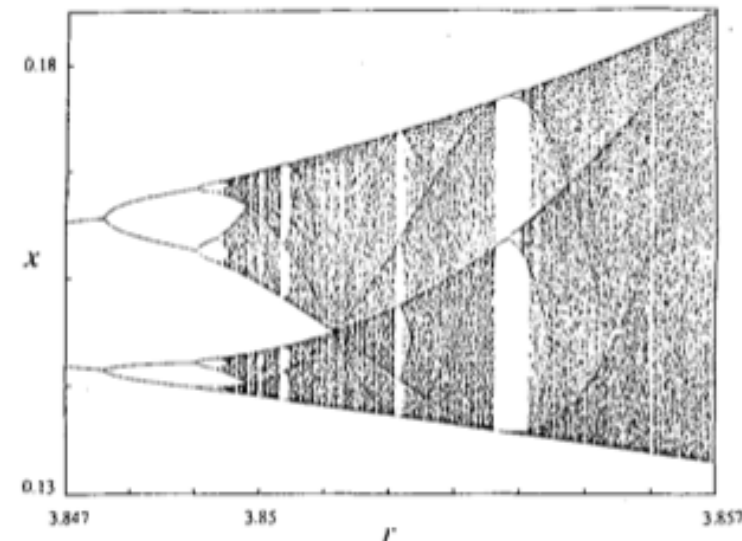
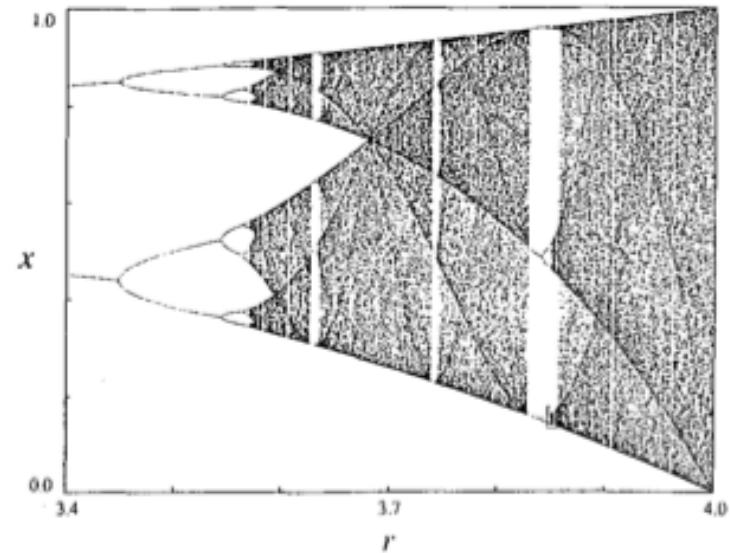
When $r > r_\infty$ the map becomes chaotic and the attractor changes from a finite to an **infinite set of points**.

Mixture of order and chaos: for $r > r_\infty$ one also finds **periodic windows!**

Large window starting at about $r \approx 3.83$ contains a **stable period-3 cycle**.

Zooming into the window one finds a **miniature copy** of the full orbit diagram!

See <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PtfPDfoF-iY>



Example

$$x_{n+1} = rx_n(1 - x_n)$$

$$0 \leq r \leq 4, \quad 0 \leq x_n \leq 1$$

Fixed points

$$x^* = f(x^*) = rx^*(1 - x^*) \quad \rightarrow \quad x^* = 0, 1 - 1/r$$

$$x^* = 0, \quad \forall r; \quad x^* = 1 - 1/r, \quad r \geq 1$$

$$f'(x^*) = r - 2rx^* \quad \rightarrow \quad f'(0) = r; \quad f'(1 - 1/r) = 2 - r$$

The origin is **stable** for $r < 1$ and **unstable** for $r > 1$.

$x^* = 1 - 1/r$ is **stable** for $1 < r < 3$ ($-1 < 2 - r < 1$) and **unstable** for $r > 3$.

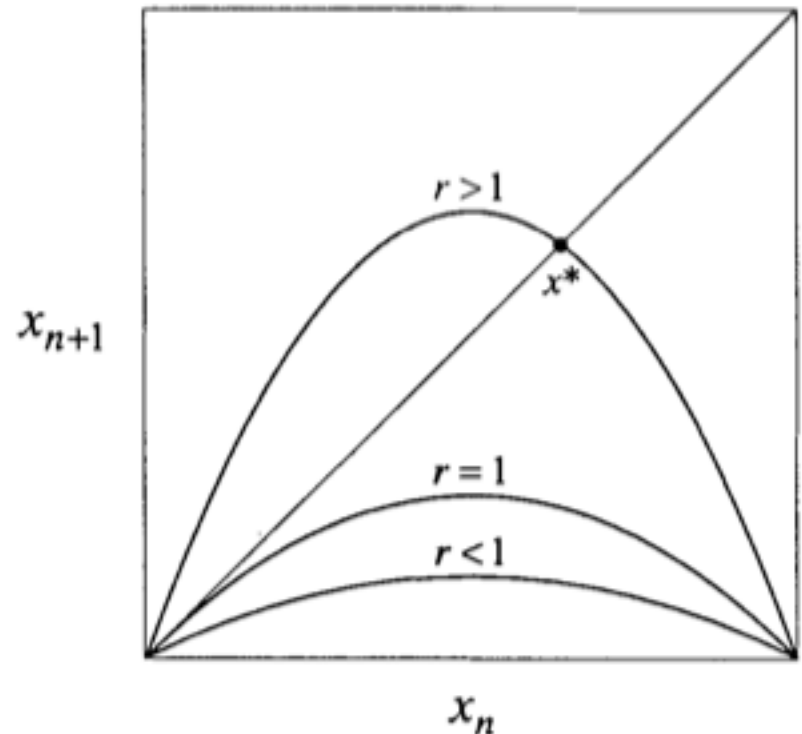
Example

$$x_{n+1} = rx_n(1 - x_n)$$

$$0 \leq r \leq 4, \quad 0 \leq x_n \leq 1$$

Graphical analysis

- 1) For $r < 1$ the parabola lies below the diagonal \rightarrow the origin is the only fixed point.
- 2) For $r > 1$ the parabola crosses the diagonal at another point $x^* = 1 - 1/r$, while the origin loses stability (**transcritical bifurcation**).
- 3) When $r > 3$ $x^* = 1 - 1/r$ loses stability (**flip bifurcation**).



Example

The logistic map has a 2-cycle for all $r > 3$.

2-cycle: there exist two points p and q such that $f(p) = q$ and $f(q) = p$.

Equivalently,

$f[f(p)] = f(q) = p \rightarrow f^2(p) = p \rightarrow p$ is a fixed point of the **second-iterated map** $f^2(x) = f[f(x)]$.

$f^2(x) = x$ is a **quartic** polynomial (since $f(x)$ is quadratic).

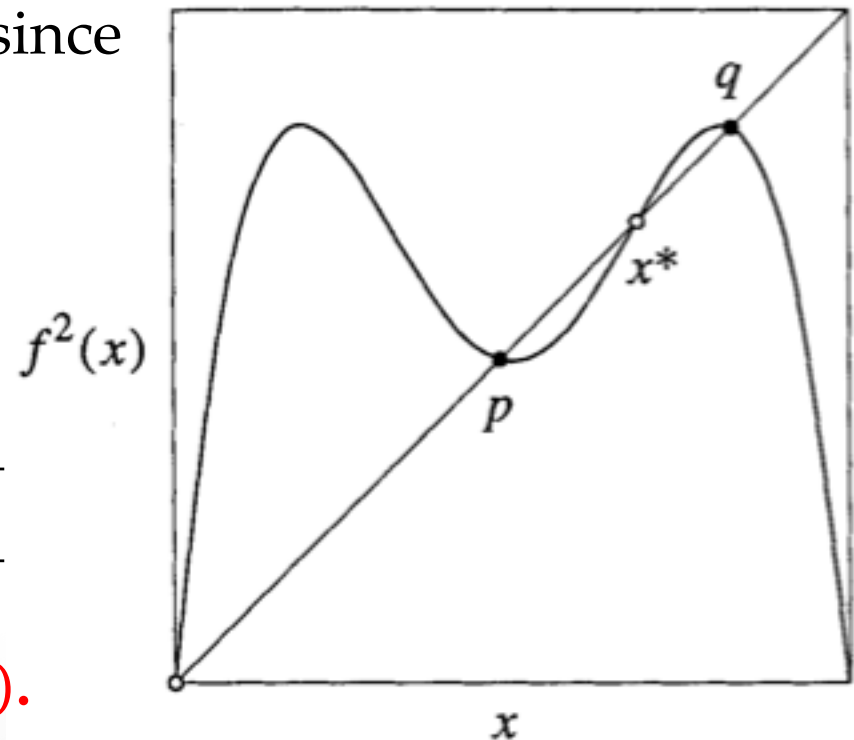
$x^* = 0$ and $x^* = 1 - 1/r$ are trivial solutions, as they solve

$$f(x) = x \rightarrow f^2(x) = x.$$

Other two solutions:

$$p, q = \frac{r + 1 \pm \sqrt{(r - 3)(r + 1)}}{2r}$$

2-cycle exists for all $r > 3$ ($p, q \in \mathbb{R}$).



Example

Details just to make sure...

$$\begin{aligned}f^2(x) - x &= f(f(x)) - x = f(rx(1-x)) - x \\ &= r[rx(1-x)][1 - rx(1-x)] - x \\ &= r^2x(1-x)[1 - rx(1-x)] - x\end{aligned}$$

We know that $f^2(x) - x = h(x)x[x - (1 - \frac{1}{r})]$, because $f^2(x^*) - x^* = 0$ and $x^* = 0$, and $x^* = 1 - \frac{1}{r}$. Do the long division of $f^2(x) - x$ by $x[x - (1 - \frac{1}{r})] \rightarrow$ quadratic $h(x)$. Solve $h(x^* = p, q) = 0. \rightarrow$

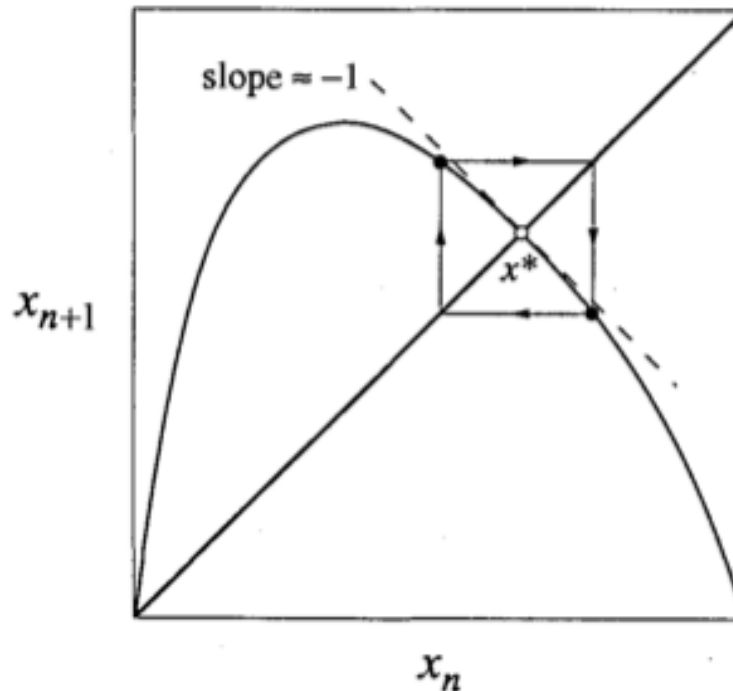
$$p, q = \frac{r + 1 \pm \sqrt{(r - 3)(r + 1)}}{2r}$$

Example

At $r = 3$ $x^* = p = q = 1 - \frac{1}{r} = 2/3$. The 2-cycle bifurcates continuously from x^* (flip bifurcation).

Near the fixed point $f'(x^*) \sim -1$.

If $f(x)$ is **concave down** at the fixed point, the cobweb tends to produce a small stable 2-cycle close to x^* .



Example

Show that the 2-cycle is **stable** for $3 < r < 1 + \sqrt{6} \approx 3.449$ (= the numerically obtained value for r_2 at the birth of a 4-cycle).

To analyze the stability of a cycle, reduce the problem to a question about the stability of the relevant fixed point:

Both p and q are solutions of $f^2(x) = x$, that is, fixed points for f^2 .

Accordingly, we compute the multiplier

$$\lambda = \frac{d}{dx} [f(f(x))]_{x=p} = f'[f(p)]f'(p) = f'(q)f'(p)$$

By symmetry of the final term the same λ is obtained at $x = q$.

Makes sense: The p and q branches must bifurcate simultaneously.

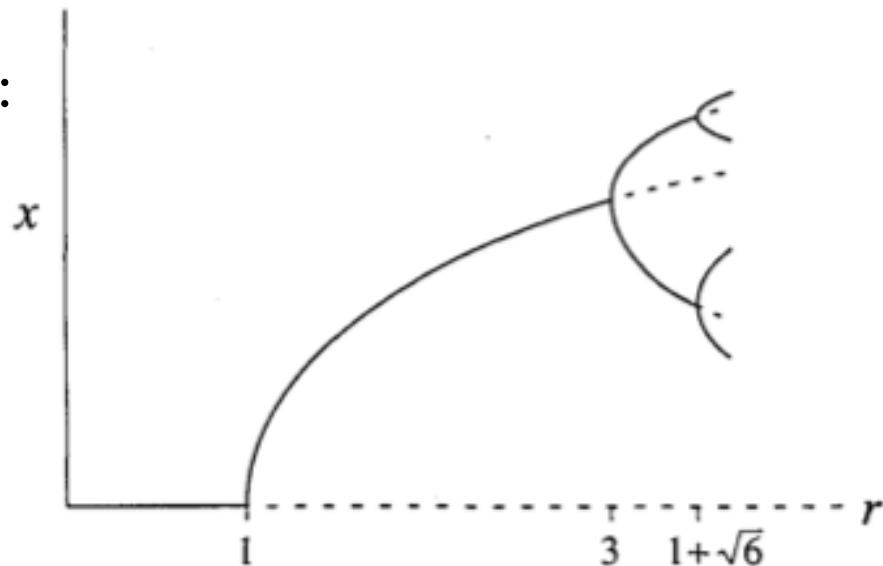
Example

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \lambda &= r(1 - 2q)r(1 - 2p) \\ &= r^2[1 - 2(p + q) + 4pq] \\ &= r^2[1 - 2(r + 1)/r + 4(r + 1)/r^2] \\ &= 4 + 2r - r^2\end{aligned}$$

The 2-cycle is linearly stable for

$$|4 + 2r - r^2| < 1 \quad \rightarrow \quad 3 < r < 1 + \sqrt{6}$$

Partial bifurcation diagram:

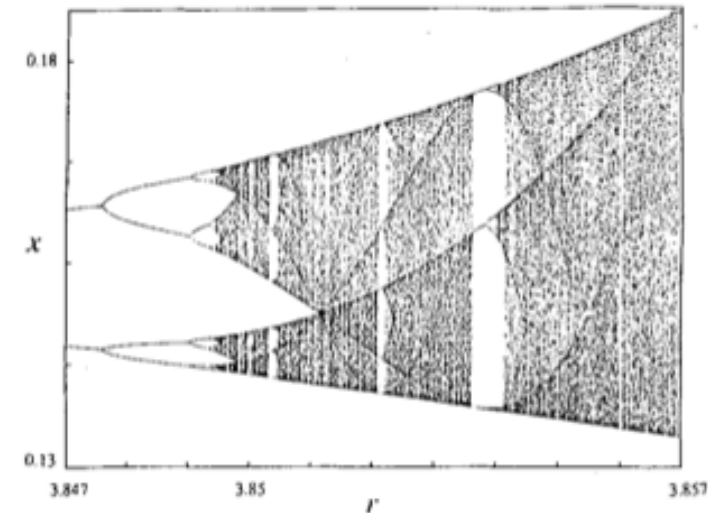
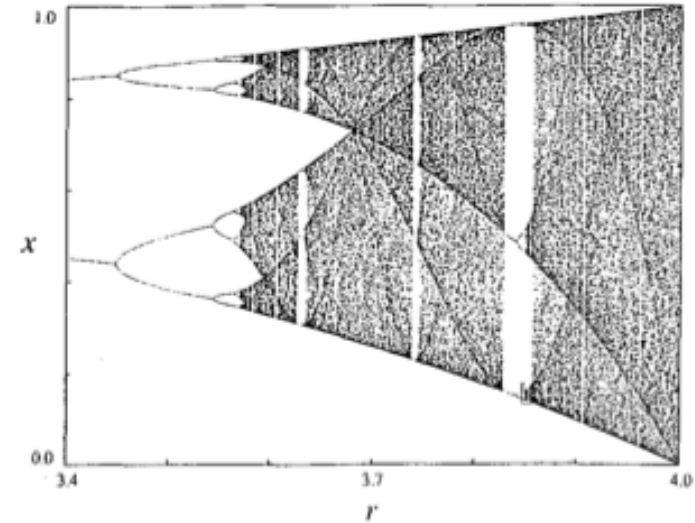


Periodic Windows

There are periodic windows after the onset of chaos, $r > r_\infty \approx 3.5699$.

For many values of r the sequence $\{x_n\}$ never settles down to a fixed or a periodic orbit. Instead the long-term behaviour is aperiodic: chaos. However, there are intervals in r where periodic motion prevails.

These **periodic windows** are interspersed between chaotic clouds of dots. For example: the large window starting near $r \approx 3.83$ (upper diagram) contains a stable 3-cycle. The blow-up (lower diagram) reveals self-similarity.



Periodic Windows

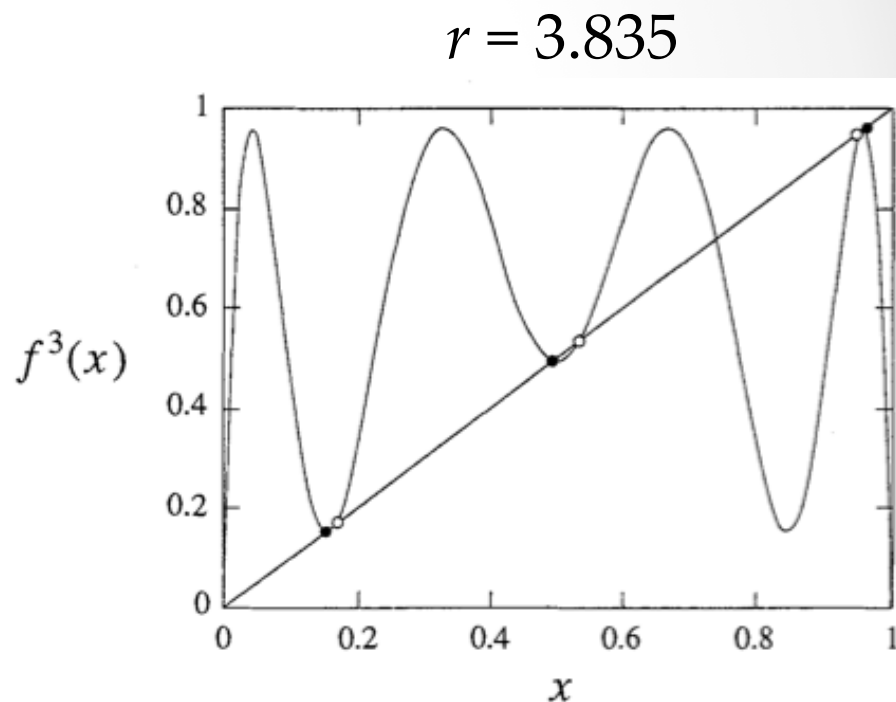
The **3-cycle** for $3.8284 \leq r \leq 3.8415$. $x_{n+3} = f^3(x_n)$.

Key: The third-iterated map $f^3(x)$.

Problem: this is an 8th degree polynomial, so analytical solution is impossible.

Graphically: ($r = 3.835$) The intersections are the solutions to $f^3(x) = x$. Two solutions are period-1 fixed points, $f(x) = x$, and not interesting.

The other six solutions (dots in the figure) are period-3 fixed points: three stable (the slope $|f^{3'}(x)| < 1$), three unstable ($|f^{3'}(x)| > 1$).

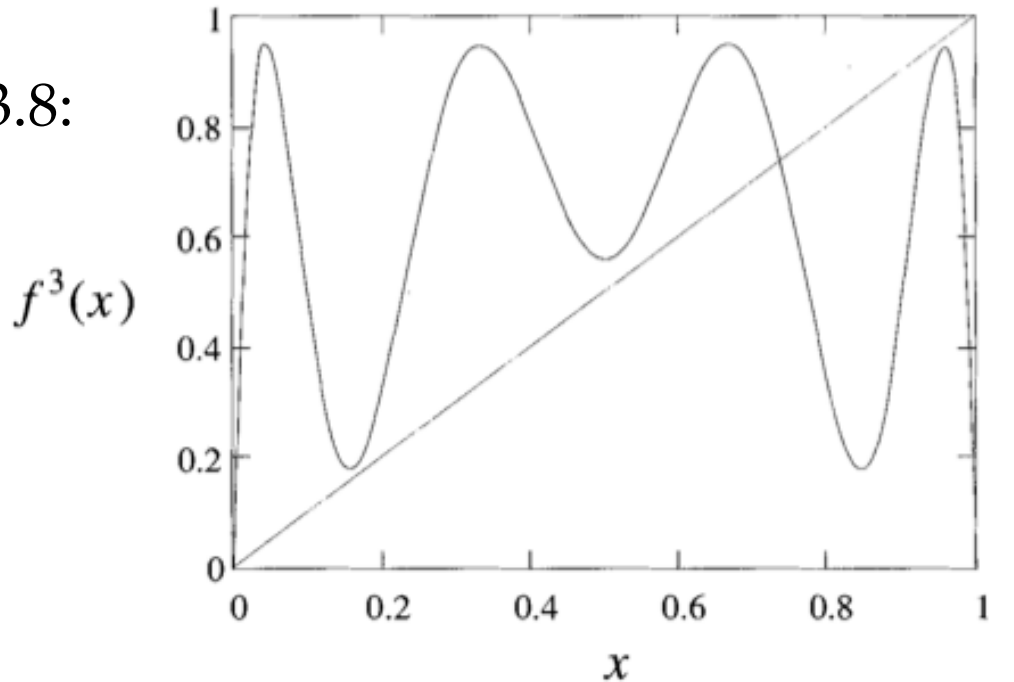


Periodic Windows

Decrease r towards the chaotic regime: The hills move down and the valleys rise. \rightarrow The intersections vanish. Hence, for some $r \in [3.8, 3.835]$ $f^3(x)$ must have become tangent to the diagonal: the stable and unstable 3-cycles coalesce and annihilate in a **tangent bifurcation**. So, this point ($r = 1 + \sqrt{8} = 3.8284\dots$) defines the minimum value of r in the periodic window.

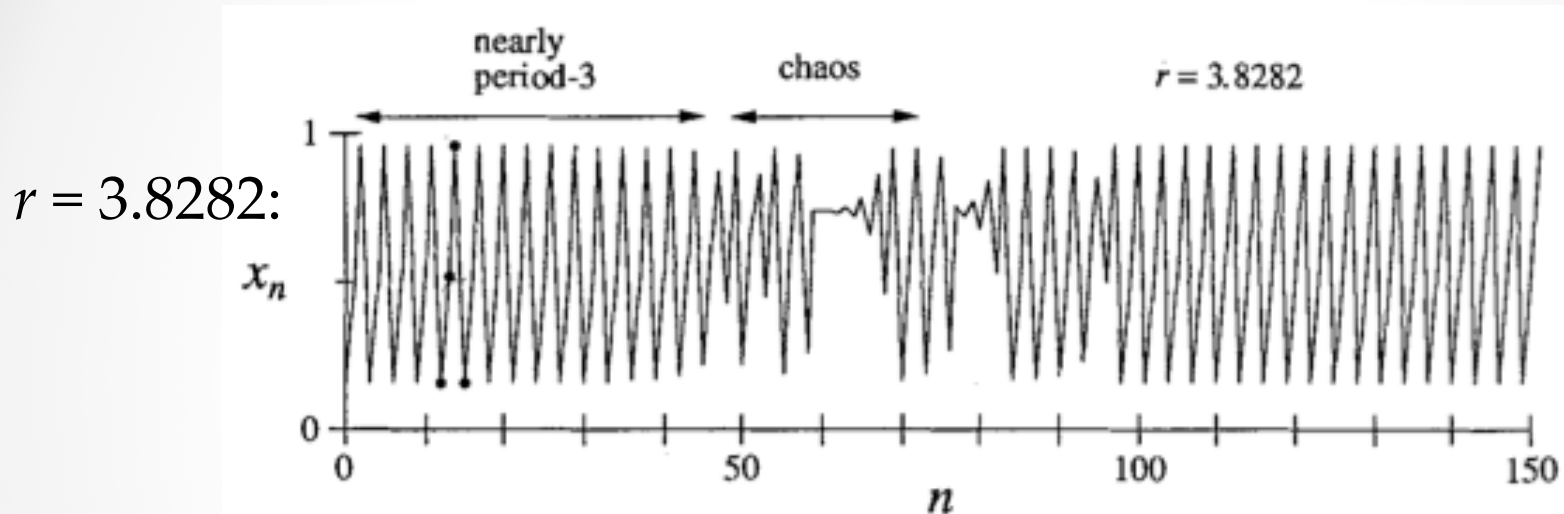
$r = 3.8:$

tangent bifurcation =
saddle-node bifurcation;
(as r increases 3-cycle
appears out of blue sky
and splits into a stable
and unstable 3-cycle)



Intermittency

Interesting behaviour for r **just below** the period-3 window.

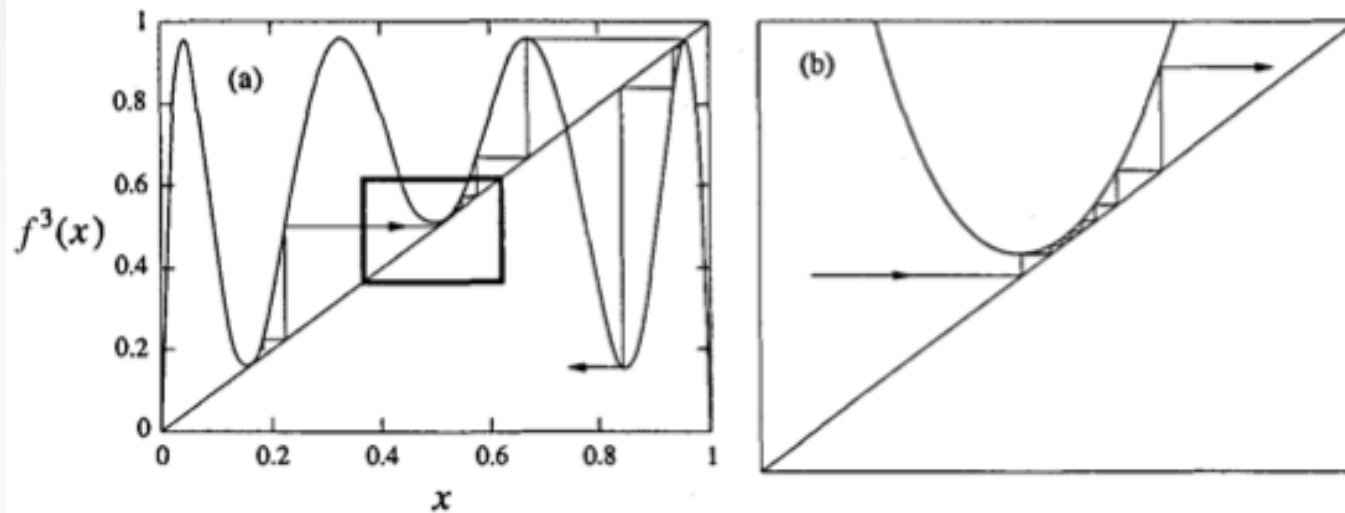


Part of the orbit looks like a stable 3-cycle, which **alternates** with chaotic behavior.

There cannot be a 3-cycle because we are below the tangent bifurcation: it is the **ghost** of the 3-cycle! No surprise, because the tangent bifurcation is a saddle-node bifurcation.

The orbit returns repeatedly onto the cycle with intermittent bouts of chaos between visits: **intermittency**.

Intermittency



Cobweb: The system takes a long time to pass through the **channels** between the diagonal and the curve; here $f^3(x) \sim x \rightarrow 3$ -cycle.

Eventually the system leaves the channel and it moves chaotically until it hits a channel again.

When r moves further away from the periodic window, chaotic behavior is more frequent, periodic behavior becomes increasingly rare and disappears (**intermittency route to chaos**).

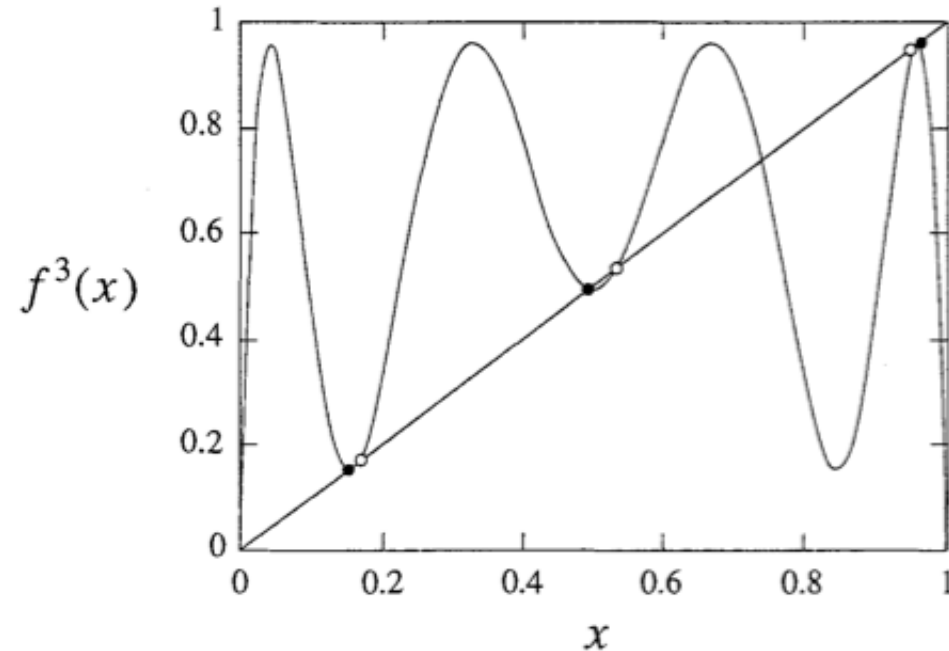
Period-doubling in the window

Just after the 3-cycle is created, the slope of $f^3(x)$ at the black dots (stable cycles) is close to +1.

As r increases, the slope at the black dots goes down and eventually reaches -1: after that **the cycle becomes unstable** and a flip bifurcation occurs.

At flip bifurcation the black dot “splits in two” (the dot splits in two in the 4th iterate $f^4(x)$): the 3-cycle **doubles its period** and becomes a 6-cycle.

The same mechanism generates a 12-cycle, a 24-cycle, ... $3 \cdot 2^n$ cycles.



All periodic windows have similar **period-doubling sequences**. This mechanism leads to the “miniature copies” in the orbit diagram.

Liapunov exponent

Aperiodic motion found in logistic map: are we sure it is chaos?

Sensitive dependence on initial conditions?

Initial condition x_0 , nearby point $x_0 + \delta_0$ with δ_0 very small.

δ_n = separation after n iterates

If $|\delta_n| \sim |\delta_0| e^{n\lambda}$, λ is called the **Liapunov exponent**.

A **positive** Liapunov exponent is a **signature of chaos**.

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda &\approx \frac{1}{n} \ln \left| \frac{\delta_n}{\delta_0} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \ln \left| \frac{f^n(x_0 + \delta_0) - f^n(x_0)}{\delta_0} \right| \quad \left(\lim_{\delta_0 \rightarrow 0} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \ln |(f^n)'(x_0)|\end{aligned}$$

Liapunov exponent

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda &\approx \frac{1}{n} \ln \left| \frac{\delta_n}{\delta_0} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \ln \left| \frac{f^n(x_0 + \delta_0) - f^n(x_0)}{\delta_0} \right| \quad \left(\lim_{\delta_0 \rightarrow 0} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \ln |(f^n)'(x_0)|\end{aligned}$$

Iterative linearisations (chain rule; see the first example in “Ruling out limit cycles”):

$$(f^n)'(x_0) = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} f'(x_i)$$

$$\lambda \approx \frac{1}{n} \ln \left| \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} f'(x_i) \right| = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \ln |f'(x_i)|$$

Liapunov exponent

Define $\lambda = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \ln |f'(x_i)| \right]$ as the Liapunov exponent.

λ depends on the initial condition x_0 , but it is the same for all x_0 in the basin of attraction of a given attractor.

For stable fixed points and cycles λ is negative, for chaotic attractors λ is positive.

Example I

$f(x)$ has a stable p -cycle containing the point x_0 . Determine λ .

x_0 is an element of the p -cycle $\rightarrow x_0$ is a fixed point of $f^p(x)$.

The p -cycle is **stable** $\rightarrow |(f^p)'(x)| < 1 \rightarrow \ln|(f^p)'(x)| < 0$.

$$\lambda = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \ln |f'(x_i)| \right] = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \ln |f'(x_i)|$$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \ln |f'(x_i)| = \frac{1}{p} \ln |(f^p)'(x_0)| < 0$$

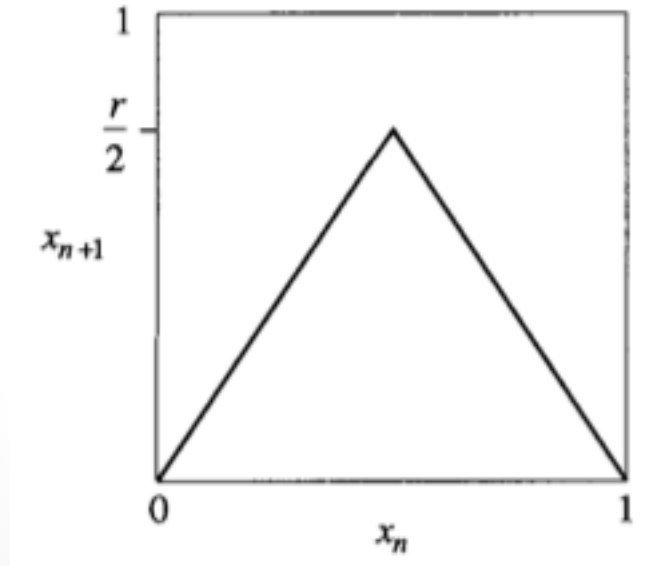
If the p -cycle is **superstable**, then $|(f^p)'(x_0)| = 0$ and $\lambda = \ln(0)/p = -\infty$.

Example II

The tent map

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} rx, & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ r - rx, & \text{for } \frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$0 \leq r \leq 2, 0 \leq x \leq 1.$$



Example II

The tent map

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} rx, & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ r - rx, & \text{for } \frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$0 \leq r \leq 2, 0 \leq x \leq 1.$$

$$f'(x) = \pm r, \quad \forall x \quad \rightarrow \quad \lambda = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \ln |f'(x_i)| \right] = \ln r$$

For $1 < r \leq 2$, $\lambda > 0 \rightarrow$ **chaotic regime.**

Example III

Compute numerically λ for the logistic map $f(x) = rx(1 - x)$ in the interval $3 \leq r \leq 4$.

Procedure:

- 1) Given a value of r , start from a random initial condition.
- 2) Iterate the map long enough to let transients decay (300 iterates are usually sufficient).
- 3) Compute a large number of iterations after that (say 10000).
- 4) Compute $\ln |f'(x_n)| = \ln |r - 2rx_n|$ for the sequence of values.
- 5) Divide the result by the number of terms (here 10000).
- 6) Repeat the procedure for another r value, until the desired range is covered.

Example III

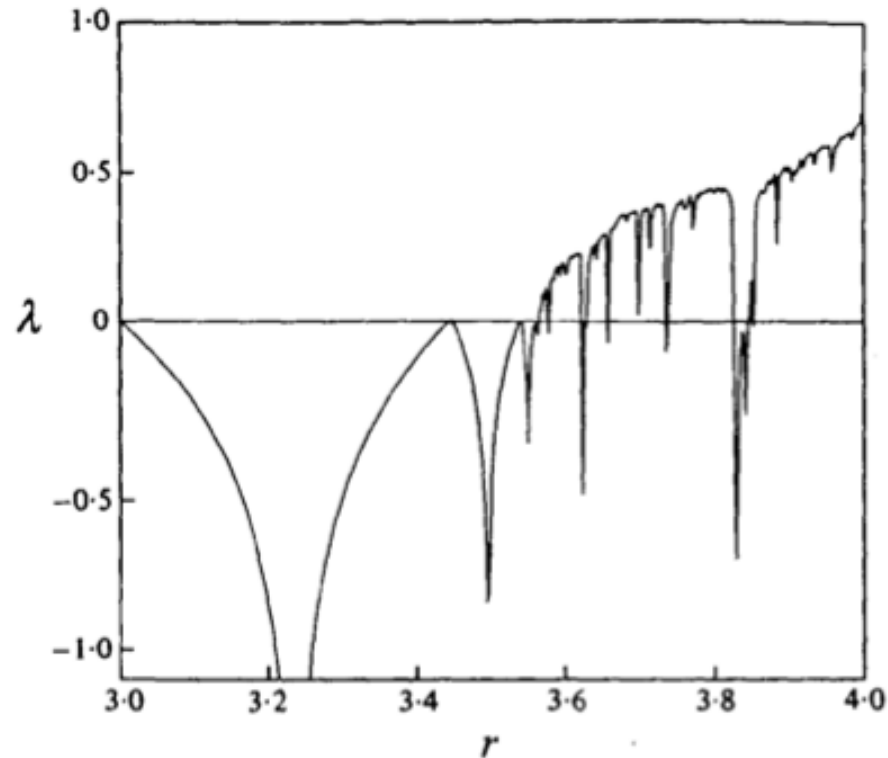
λ stays **negative** for all $r < r_\infty \approx 3.57$.

λ is zero at the **period-doubling bifurcations**.

λ returns negative also for $r > r_\infty$ in some windows (**periodic windows**).

The dips correspond to **superstable cycles** ($\lambda = -\infty$; not seen due to finite resolution).

Remark: since each cycle starts with multiplier $f'(x) = 1$ and progressively goes until $f'(x) < -1$, when it becomes **unstable**, it must cross the point $f'(x) = 0$ (**superstability**).

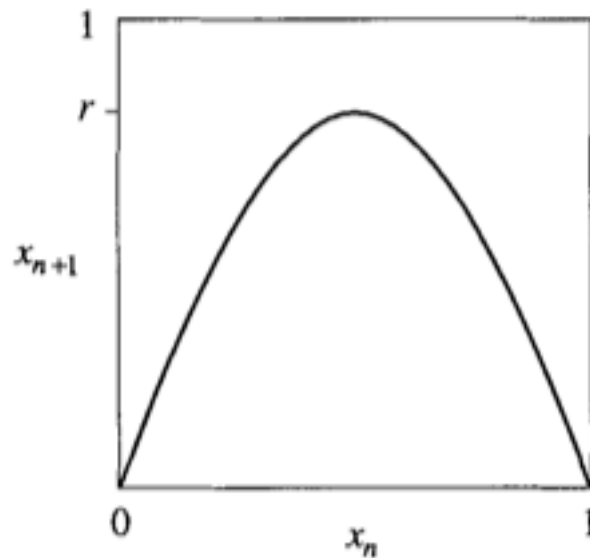


Universality and experiments

The sine map

$$x_{n+1} = r \sin \pi x_n$$

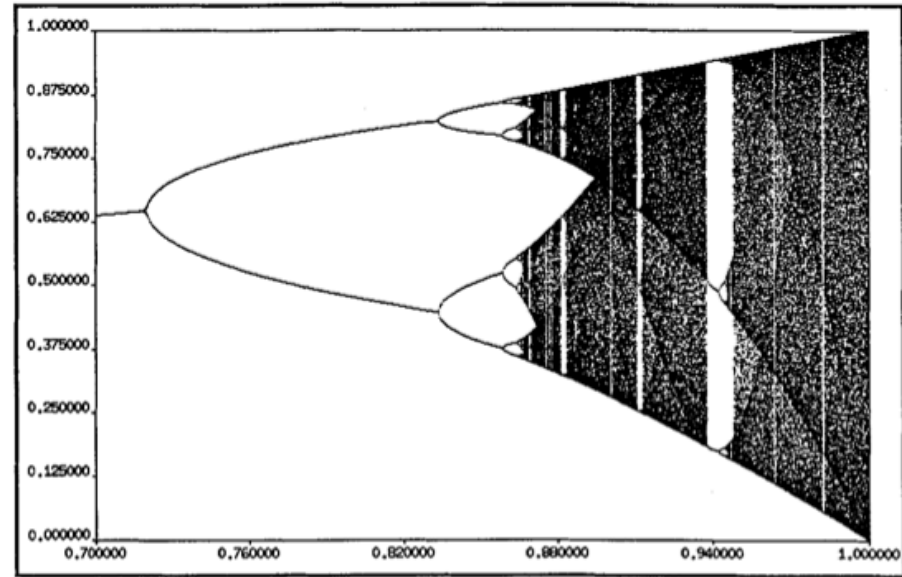
$$0 \leq r \leq 1, 0 \leq x \leq 1.$$



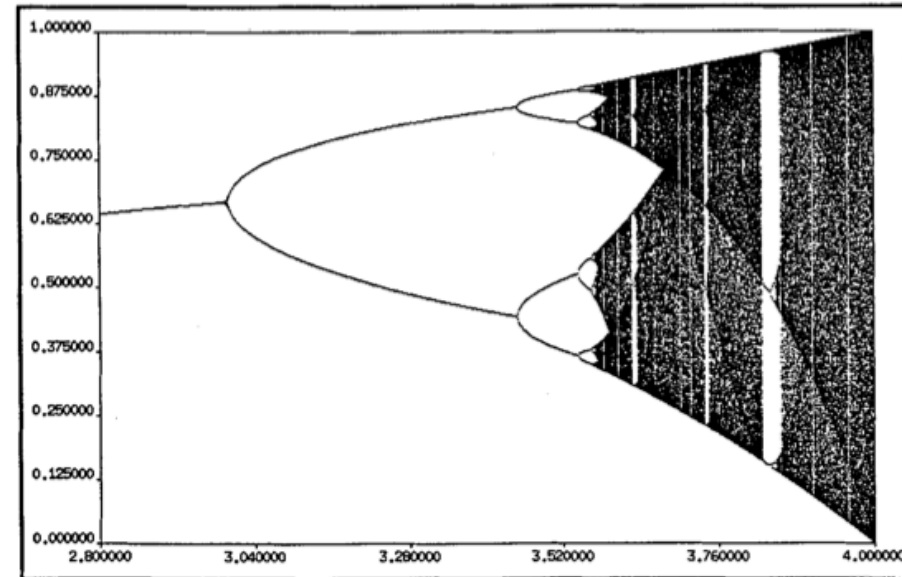
Unimodal map (concave down, single maximum), like the logistic map.

Universality and experiments

Sine map



Logistic map



Universality and experiments

Qualitative dynamics of the two maps are **identical**: period-doubling routes to chaos, followed by interspersed periodic windows.

Remarkable: periodic windows occur *in the same order* and *same relative sizes*.

Example: period-3 window is the largest and is preceded by two large windows (period-5 and period-6).

Quantitative differences: period doubling bifurcations occur later in the logistic map, and the periodic windows are narrower.

Qualitative universality: the U-sequence

Theorem (Metropolis et al. 1973): for all unimodal maps $x_{n+1} = rf(x_n)$, where $f(0) = f(1) = 0$, stable cycles occur in **the same order**.

The universal sequence in which periodic attractors occur is called the **U-sequence**. The algebraic form of $f(x)$ is irrelevant, only the overall shape matters.

U-sequence up to period 6: 1, 2, 2×2, 6, 5, 3, 2×3, 5, 6, 4, 6, 5, 6

The U-sequence has been found in experiments on the Belousov-Zhabotinsky chemical reaction.

The U-sequence is **qualitative**: it does not say anything about the size of the windows or where they start.

Quantitative universality

Feigenbaum's discovery in 1975

Attempt to find a formula for r_n , i.e. the r -value where a 2^n -cycle first appears.

Numerical checks were done with a handheld calculator.

First observation: the r_n converge geometrically to the onset of chaos r_∞ : the size of consecutive windows shrinks by a **constant factor 4.669...**

Quantitative universality

I spent part of a day trying to fit the convergence rate value, 4.669, to the mathematical constants I knew. The task was fruitless, save for the fact that it made the number memorable.

At this point I was reminded by Paul Stein that period-doubling isn't a unique property of the quadratic map but also occurs, for example, in $x_{n+1} = r \sin \pi x_n$. However my generating function theory rested heavily on the fact that the nonlinearity was simply quadratic and not transcendental. Accordingly, my interest in the problem waned.

Perhaps a month later I decided to compute the r_n 's in the transcendental case numerically. This problem was even slower to compute than the quadratic one. Again, it became apparent that the r_n 's converged geometrically, and altogether amazingly, the convergence rate was the same 4.669 that I remembered by virtue of my efforts to fit it.

The **same constant** appears for **any unimodal map!**

Quantitative universality

$\Delta_n = r_n - r_{n-1}$ = distance between consecutive bifurcation values.

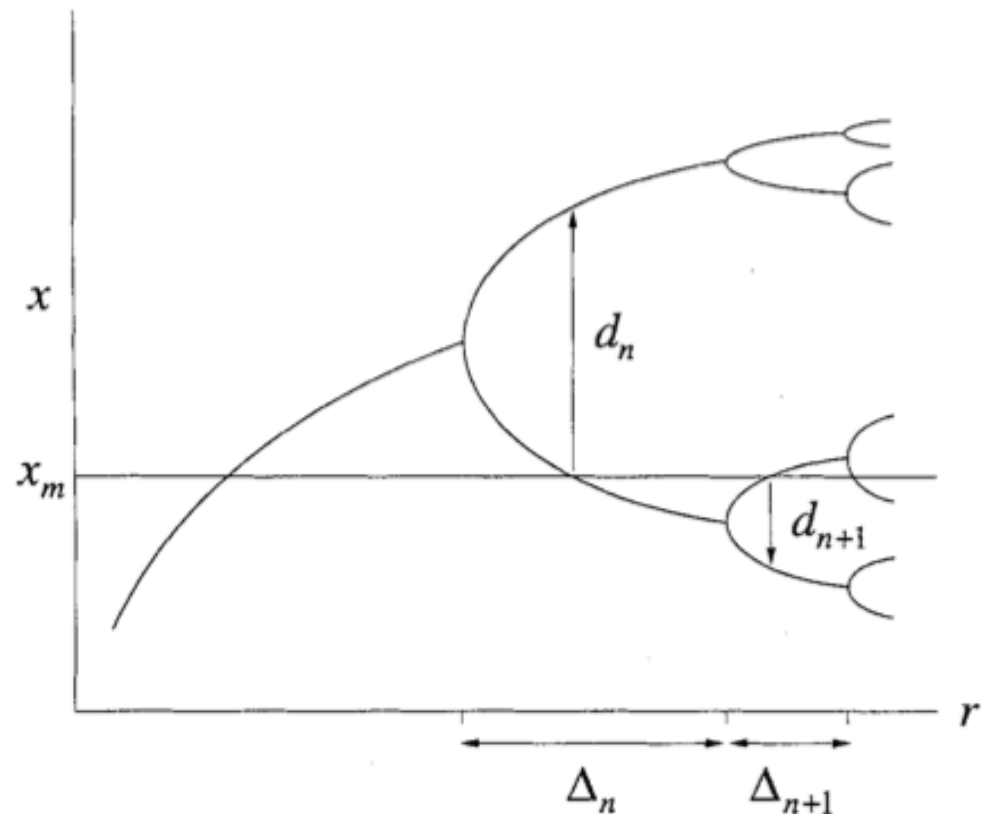
$$\frac{\Delta_n}{\Delta_{n+1}} \rightarrow \delta = 4.669\dots, \quad \text{for } n \rightarrow \infty$$

d_n is the smallest distance from the maximum of f , x_m , to the nearest point in a 2^n -cycle.

$$\frac{d_n}{d_{n+1}} \rightarrow \alpha \approx -2.5029$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

independent of the form of f .



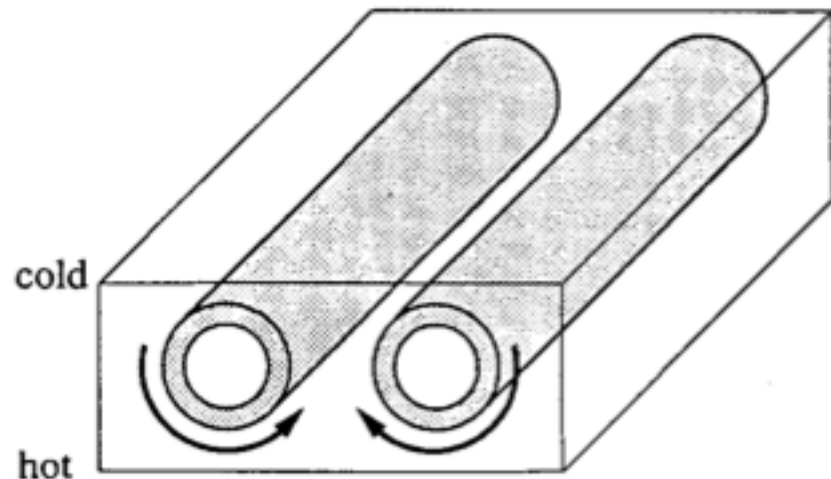
Experimental tests

Convection experiment by Libchaber et al. (1982)

A box of liquid mercury is heated from below.

Control parameter: Rayleigh number R , dimensionless measure of the externally imposed temperature gradient.

- 1) For $R < R_c$ heat is conducted upward and the **liquid remains motionless**.
- 2) For $R > R_c$ **convection** occurs: hot fluid rises on one side, loses heat and falls on the other side, in **cylindrical rolls**.



Experimental tests

Convection experiment by Libchaber et al. (1982)

- 1) If R is just above the threshold, the rolls are straight and the motion is steady, **temperature is constant in time at each position**.
- 2) If R is higher, a **new instability** sets in: a wave propagates back and forth along each roll, and the temperature at a given position **oscillates**.

Libchaber et al. wanted to **stabilize the roll structure** by applying a direct current (DC) magnetic field.

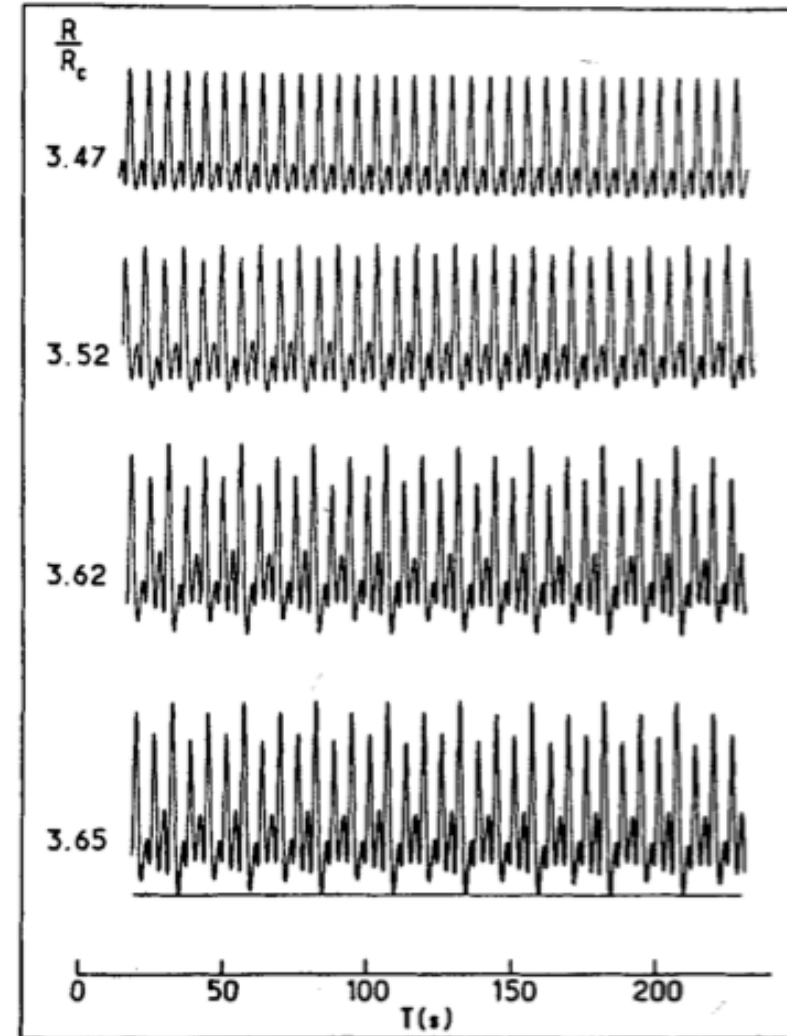
Mercury has a **high electrical conductivity** → strong tendency of the rolls to **align with the field** and to remain spatially organized.

Experimental tests

Convection experiment by Libchaber et al. (1982)

Result: the temperature at one point of the fluid undergoes a **sequence of period-doublings** as the Rayleigh number R increases.

By measuring the R -values at period-doubling bifurcations, Libchaber et al. estimated $\delta = 4.4 \pm 0.1$. (Theoretical $\delta \approx 4.699$.)



Experimental tests

Results from experiments in fluid convection and nonlinear electronic circuits

Experiment	Number of period doublings	δ	Authors
<i>Hydrodynamic</i>			
water	4	4.3 (8)	Giglio et al. (1981)
mercury	4	4.4 (1)	Libchaber et al. (1982)
<i>Electronic</i>			
diode	4	4.5 (6)	Linsay (1981)
diode	5	4.3 (1)	Testa et al. (1982)
transistor	4	4.7 (3)	Arecchi and Lisi (1982)
Josephson simul.	3	4.5 (3)	Yeh and Kao (1982)

Agreement between experiments and theory **impressive**, given the difficulty (and relative errors) of these measurements

What do 1-D maps have to do with science?

Questions:

- 1) How can the complexity of so many different systems, which involve many degrees of freedom, be captured by a one-dimensional map?
- 2) Howcome a discrete-time map works so well on continuous-time systems?

Example: the Rössler system (1976)

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= -y - z \\ \dot{y} &= x + ay \\ \dot{z} &= b + z(x - c)\end{aligned}$$

Simplest possible continuous-time system with a strange attractor.

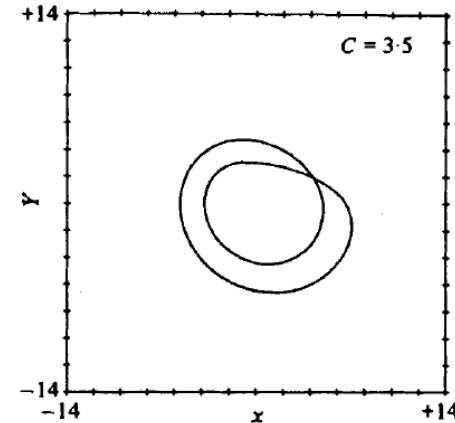
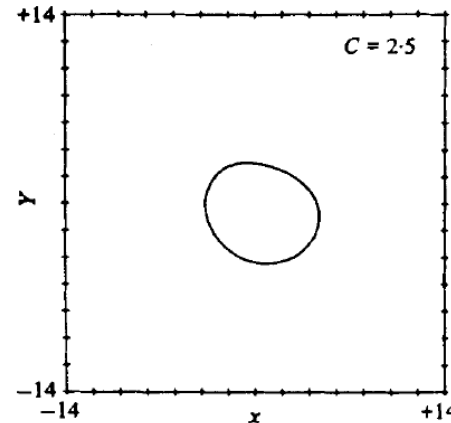
What do 1-D maps have to do with science?

The Rössler system

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= -y - z \\ \dot{y} &= x + ay \\ \dot{z} &= b + z(x - c)\end{aligned}$$

$a = b = 0.2$, variable c

- 1) For $c = 2.5$ the attractor is a **simple limit cycle**
- 2) As c is raised to 3.5, the limit cycle winds twice before closing, with an **approximately double period** than the original one
- 3) Somewhere in $2.5 < c < 3.5$ a **period-doubling bifurcation of cycles** occurs (as in 1D maps)



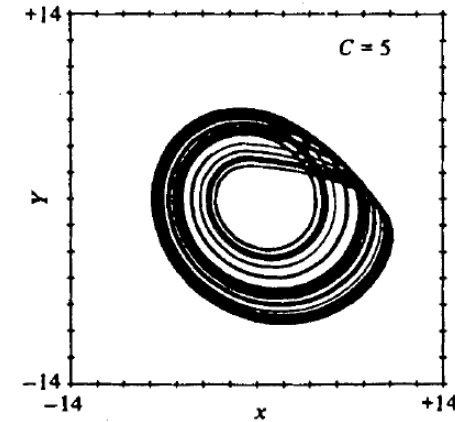
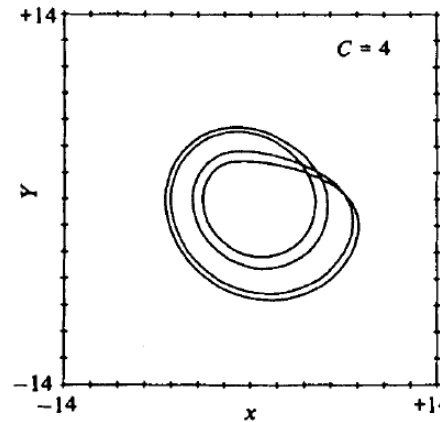
What do 1-D maps have to do with science?

The Rössler system

$a = b = 0.2$, variable c

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= -y - z \\ \dot{y} &= x + ay \\ \dot{z} &= b + z(x - c)\end{aligned}$$

- Another period-doubling bifurcation creates the **four-loop cycle** shown for $c = 4$
- After an **infinite sequence of period-doublings**, one reaches the **strange attractor** ($c = 5$)



What do 1-D maps have to do with science?

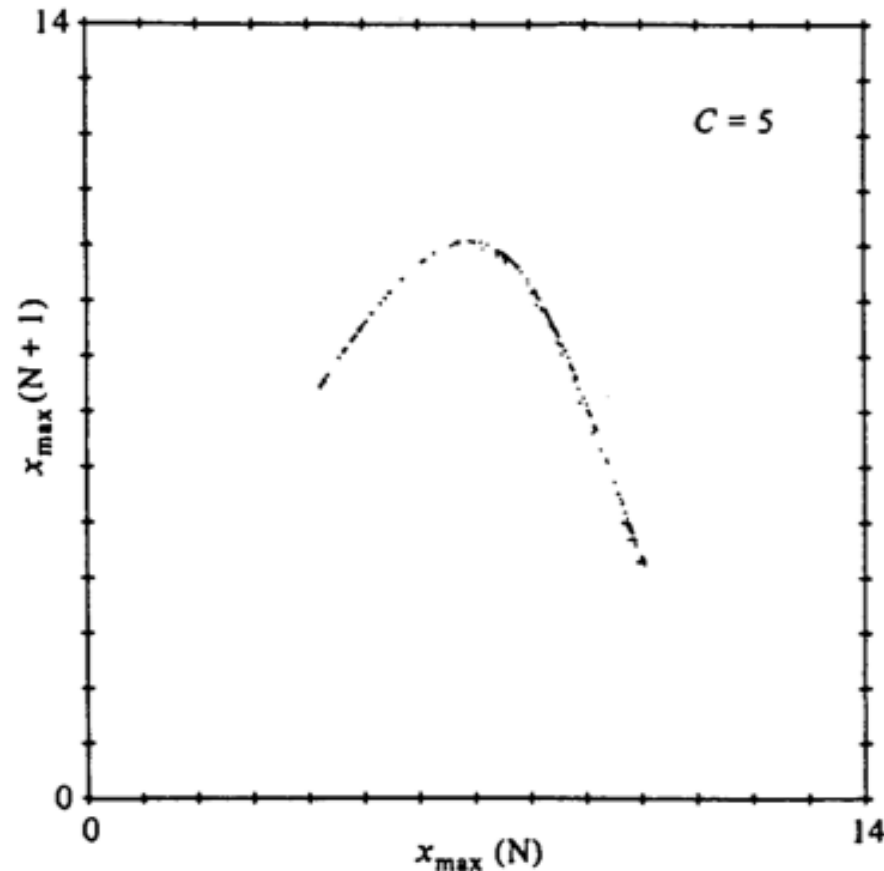
The Rössler system

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= -y - z \\ \dot{y} &= x + ay \\ \dot{z} &= b + z(x - c)\end{aligned}$$

Lorenz map: relation between consecutive maxima x_n and x_{n+1} of one coordinate along a trajectory on the strange attractor.

The points **fall on a 1D curve** \rightarrow there is a relation between x_n and x_{n+1} .

The curve **resembles** the logistic map!



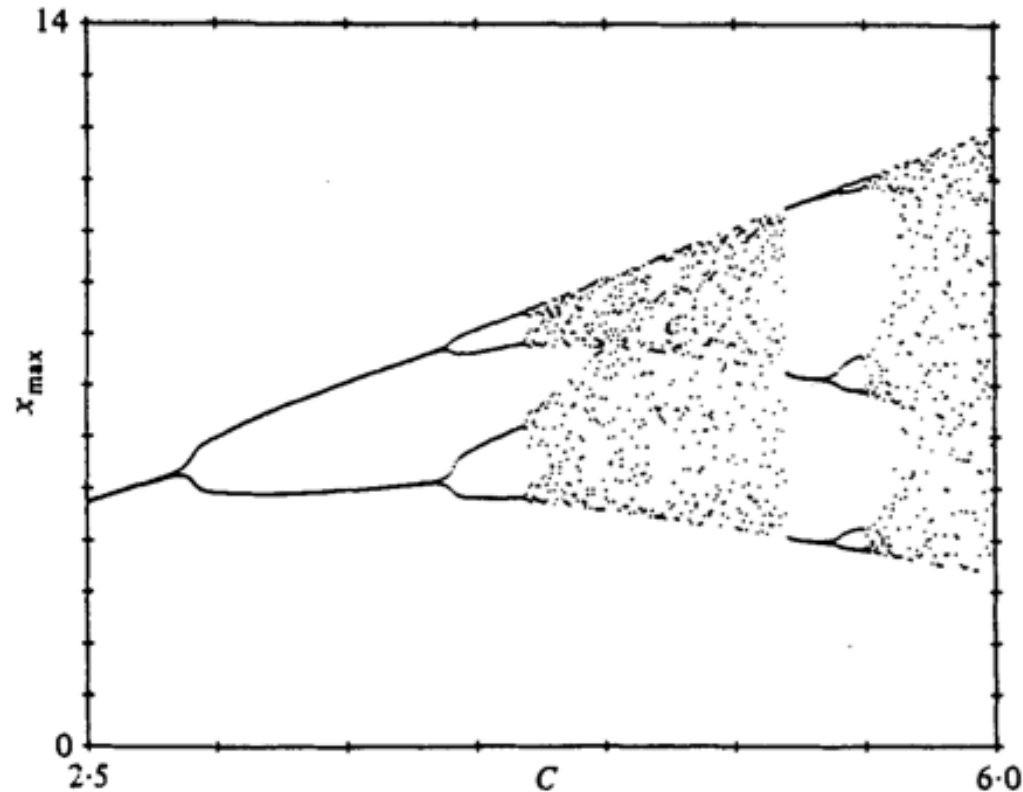
What do 1-D maps have to do with science?

The Rössler system

Orbit diagram for each c :
position of maximum of x (y
or z) on the attractor
corresponding to c .

Strong similarity with the
orbit diagram of the logistic
map.

So, in this case, as for the
Lorenz equations,
Feigenbaum's results hold.



What do 1-D maps have to do with science?

For Rössler and Lorenz systems the map works because the **strange attractors are essentially two-dimensional** (fractal dimension slightly above 2).

In general **Lorenz maps are not one-dimensional** and Feigenbaum's theory does not apply.

Examples: fully turbulent fluids, fibrillating hearts.

Renormalization

Let $f(x, r)$ denote a unimodal map (smooth, concave down, single maximum) that undergoes a period-doubling route to chaos as r increases and x_m be the maximum of f . Let r_n denote the value of r at which a 2^n -cycle is born and R_n denote the value of r at which a 2^n -cycle is superstable.

Example: $f(x, r) = r - x^2$

Superstable FP: $x^* = R_0 - (x^*)^2$

Superstability condition: $\lambda = (\partial f / \partial x)_{x=x^*} = 0$

$\partial f / \partial x = 2x \Rightarrow x^* = 0$ FP is the maximum of f . $R_0 = 0$

At R_1 there is a 2-cycle. Superstability: $\lambda = (-2p)(-2q) = 0$

→ point $x = 0$ is one of the points in the 2-cycle.

Renormalization

Point $x = 0$ is one of the points in the 2-cycle.

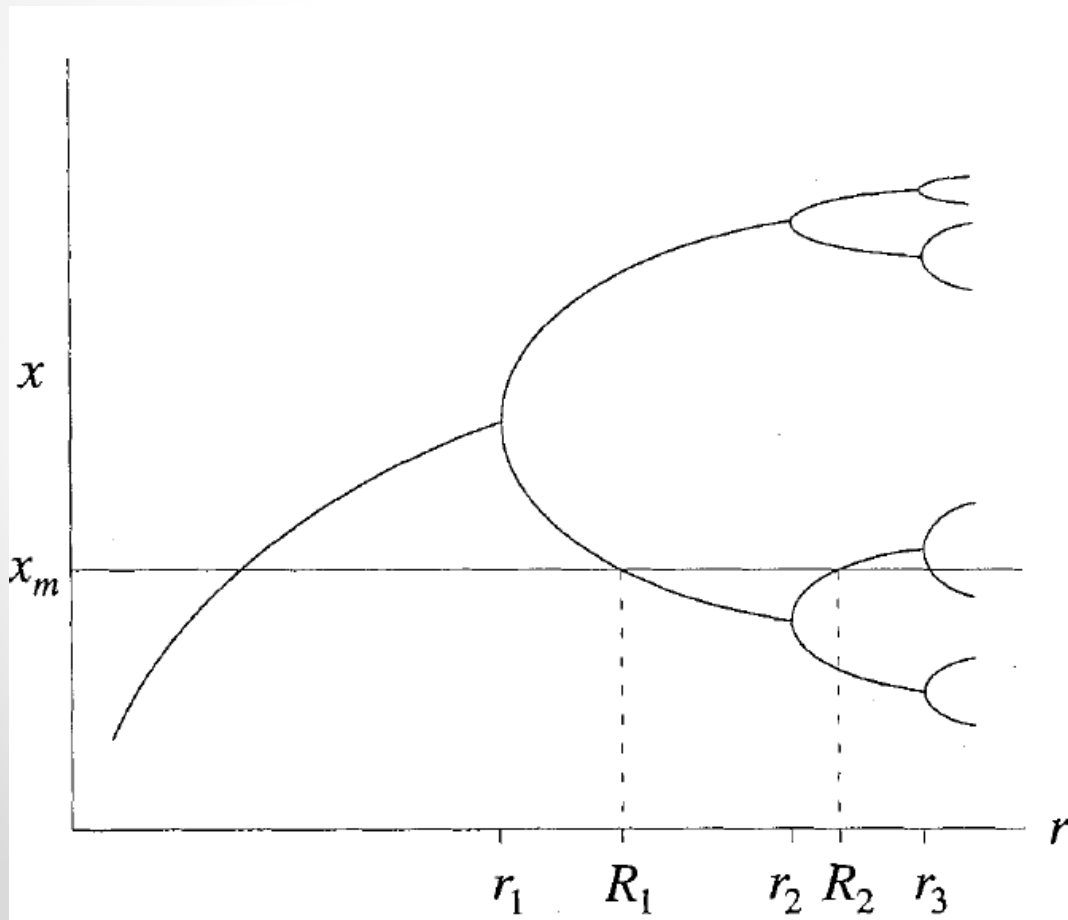
$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \text{period-2 condition } f^2(0, R_1) = 0 &\Rightarrow R_1 - (R_1)^2 = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow R_1 = 1 \quad (\text{2-cycle}) \end{aligned}$$

General rule: A superstable cycle of a unimodal map always contains x_m as one of its points.

→ **Graphical way to locate R_n :** Draw a horizontal line at height x_m . Then R_n occurs where this line intersects the *figtree* (= *Feigenbaum*) portion of the orbit diagram.

Renormalization

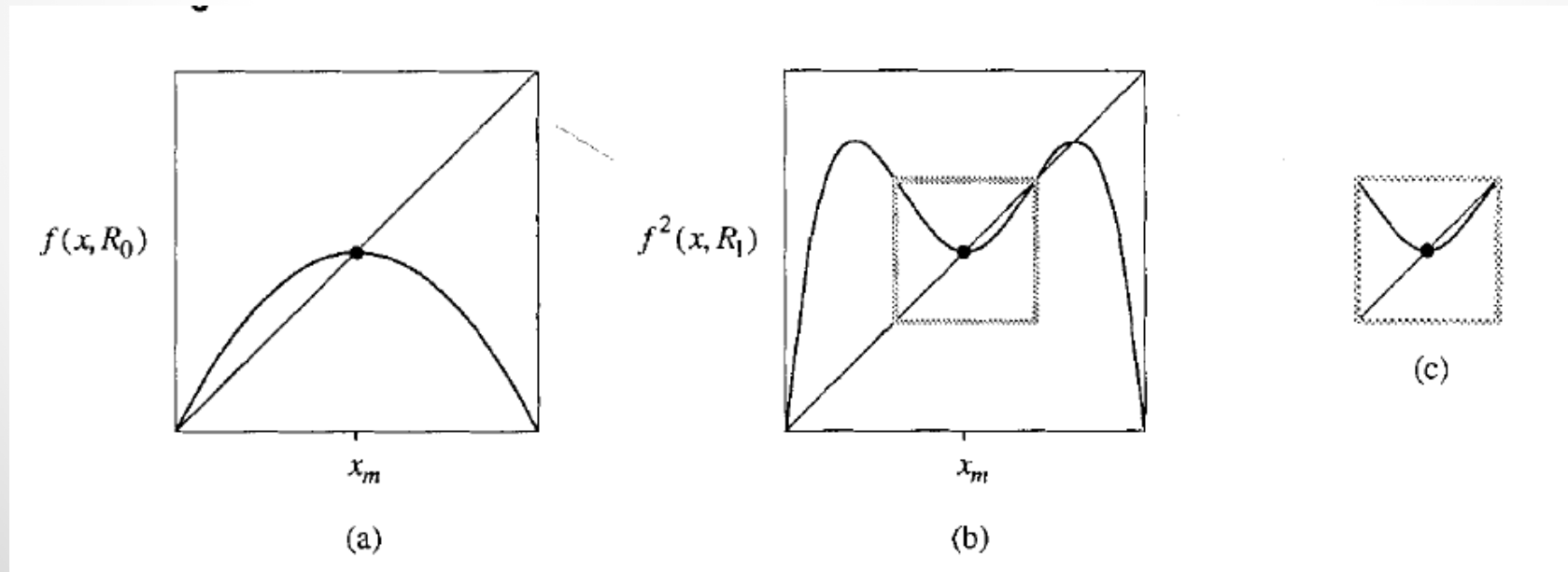
$$r_n < R_n < r_{n+1}$$



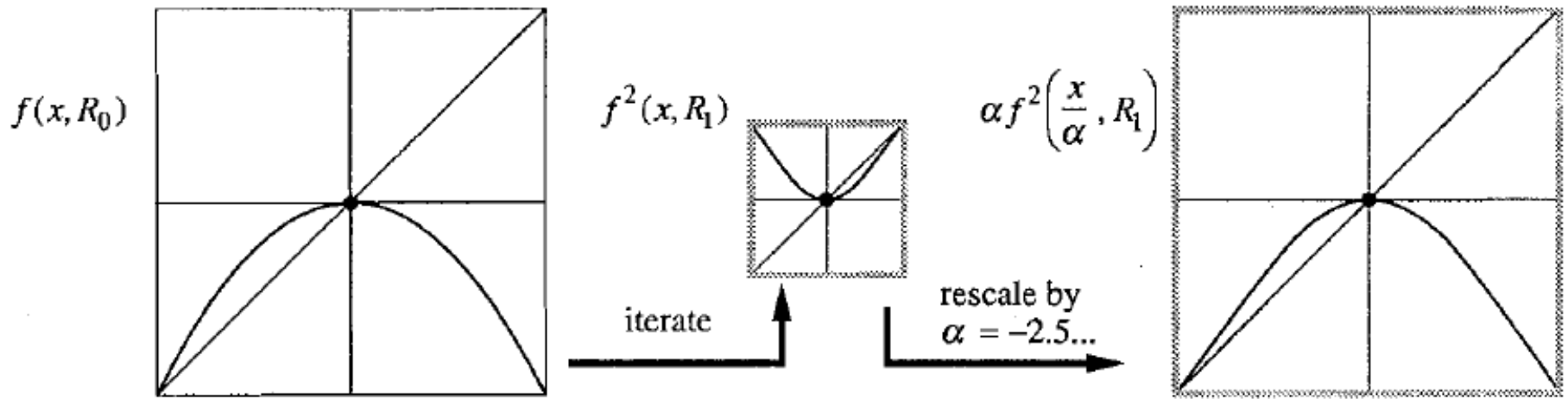
Numerical experiments:
The spacing between successive R_n shrinks by the universal factor $\delta \approx 4.669$.

Renormalization

The renormalization theory is based on the **self-similarity** of the figtree: twigs look like the earlier branches, they are only scaled down in both the x and r directions. Mathematically, compare f with its second iterate f^2 at corresponding values of r and then renormalize one map into the other.



Renormalization



Renormalization of f :
$$f(x, R_0) \approx \alpha f^2\left(\frac{x}{\alpha}, R_1\right)$$

Continue:
$$f^2\left(\frac{x}{\alpha}, R_1\right) \approx \alpha^2 f^2\left(\frac{x}{\alpha^2}, R_2\right)$$

$$f(x, R_0) \approx \alpha^n f^{2^n}\left(\frac{x}{\alpha^n}, R_n\right)$$

Renormalization

Feigenbaum found numerically that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha^n f^{(2^n)} \left(\frac{x}{\alpha^n}, R_n \right) = g_0(x),$$

where $g_0(x)$ is a *universal function* with a superstable fixed point. The limiting function exists only if α is chosen correctly,

$$\alpha = -2.5029 \dots$$

“Universal”: $g_0(x)$ is independent of f . Compare the qualitative similarity of orbit diagrams for different f in unimodal mapping.

Self-similarity \rightarrow fractals; next time.