MA 771: Introduction to Dynamical Systems Lecture Notes

Malavika Mukundan

Spring 2025

Contents

	c concepts
1.1	Orbits and periodic points
	Examples
	1.2.1 Linear maps of \mathbb{R}
	1.2.2 Circle maps
	1.2.3 Torus endomorphisms
3.1	Contraction Principle
	3.1.1 Global contraction
	3.1.2 Local contraction

1 Basic concepts

Dynamical systems refer to systems that evolve over time. A simple example is an ordinary differential equation (ODE), such as

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = g(x)$$

where $g: \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Some of the questions we can ask about ODE's include:

- Which points are stable/fixed?
- When do orbits tend to an attracting periodic cycle?
- When are orbits chaotic?

However, the class of dynamical systems is much bigger than ODE's. In particular, in the above example, the variable t, representing time, changes continuously. In this course we will focus mainly on discrete dynamical systems.

Definition 1.1. Let X be a topological space. A *discrete* dynamical system is a pair (X, f) where $f: X \longrightarrow X$ is a self-map.

We are interested in the function f and its iterates $f^{\circ n} = f \circ f^{\circ (n-1)}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. In other words, the quantity that is varying in a *discrete* fashion is the number of iterations of f.

Example 1.2. Linear maps Let $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $f: x \mapsto Ax$ be a linear map.

Example 1.3. Rotations of the circle $X = \mathbb{S}^1$ and $f(x) = e^{2\pi i \theta}x$ for some $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$.

Example 1.4. Logistic family Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ and fix $k \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. Then the family of maps $f_k : X \to X$ given by $x \mapsto kx(1-x)$ is called the *logististic family*.

Notice that we are not assuming any conditions on f such as continuity.

1.1 Orbits and periodic points

Definition 1.5. Given a dynamical system $(X, f), x_0 \in X$, the sequence

$$x_0, f(x_0), f^{\circ 2}(x_0), \cdots, f^{\circ n}(x_0), \cdots$$

is called the forward orbit of x_0 .

The reverse orbit of x_0 is the set $\{x \in X : f^{\circ n}(x) = x_0 \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$

A fixed point $x \in X$ is a point such that f(x) = x. The set of fixed points of f is denoted Fix(f). A periodic point is a point x such that $f^{\circ n}(x) = x$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, in other words, a point in $Fix(f^{\circ n})$ for some n.

Any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $f^{\circ n}(x) = x$ is said to be a *period* of x. The smallest period n is called the *exact* period of x.

1.2 Examples

1.2.1 Linear maps of \mathbb{R}

Let $f: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be linear. We know that f is of the form f(x) = mx + b where $m \in \mathbb{R}_{\neq 0}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$. Note that

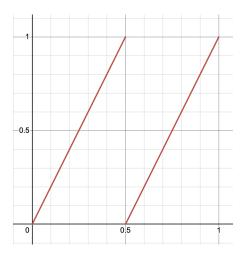
$$f^{\circ n}(x) = m^n x + b(m^{n-1} + m^{n-2} + \dots + m + 1) = m^n x + b\frac{m^n - 1}{m - 1}$$

• If $m \neq \pm 1$, then

$$|m| < 1 \implies \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, f^{\circ n}(x) \to \frac{b}{1-m} \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

 $|m| > 1 \implies \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, f^{\circ n}(x) \to \infty \text{ as } n \to \infty$

- If m=1, then f(x)=x+b is a translation and all orbits tend to ∞
- If m = -1, then note that $f^{\circ 2}(x) = -(-x+b) + b = x$, and thus all the odd iterates are equal to f, and all the even iterates are equal to the identity.



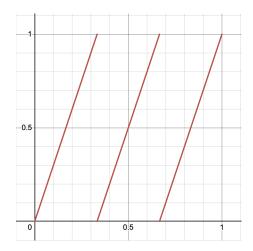


Figure 1: The graphs of the expanding maps E_2 (left) and E_3 (right) on the interior of \mathbb{S}^1 , represented by the interval (0,1).

1.2.2 Circle maps

Example 1.6. For any rotation $f(x) = e^{2\pi i \theta} x$ of the circle \mathbb{S}^1 , we have $\text{Fix}(f) = \emptyset$ if $\theta \notin \mathbb{N}$, and $\text{Fix}(f) = \mathbb{S}^1$ otherwise.

Definition 1.7. Fix an integer m > 1, and identify \mathbb{S}^1 with \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} . The expanding map $E_m : \mathbb{S}^1 \longrightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ is defined as

$$E_m(x) = mx \pmod{1}$$

Remark 1.8. E_m is expanding in the following sense: if $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{S}^1$ and $d_{\mathbb{S}^1}(\alpha, \beta) < \frac{1}{m}$, then

$$d_{\mathbb{S}_1}(\alpha,\beta) = m \cdot d_{\mathbb{S}^1}\Big(E_m(\alpha), E_m(\beta)\Big).$$

See Figure 1 for the graphs of E_m for m=2,3.

Note that ϕ is a fixed point of E_m if and only if $m\phi - \phi \in \mathbb{Z}$. In other words, there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$m\phi - \phi = n$$

$$\iff \phi = \frac{n}{m-1}$$

Similarly, ϕ is a periodic point of E_m of period dividing k if and only if there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$m^{k}\phi - \phi = n$$

$$\iff \phi = \frac{n}{m^{k} - 1}$$

In other words,

$$\operatorname{Fix}(E_m) = \left\{ \frac{1}{m-1}, \frac{2}{m-1} \cdots, \frac{m-2}{m-1} \right\}$$
$$\operatorname{Fix}\left(E_m^{\circ k}\right) = \left\{ \frac{1}{m^k - 1}, \frac{2}{m^k - 1} \cdots, \frac{m^k - 2}{m^k - 1} \right\}$$

1.2.3 Torus endomorphisms

Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the *n*-torus is the space $\mathbb{T}^n = \mathbb{R}^n/\mathbb{Z}^n = \mathbb{R}^n/\sim$ where $x \sim y$ if $x - y \in \mathbb{Z}^n$. For $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we let [x] denote the equivalence class of x in \mathbb{T}^n .

Definition 1.9. Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix whose entries are in \mathbb{Z} . Then A induces the torus endomorphism $T_A : \mathbb{T}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$ given by

$$T_A([x]) = [Ax] \text{ for } [x] \in \mathbb{T}^n$$

Exercise 2. Show that T_A as given above is well-defined: that is, for any two vectors $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$, if $v - w \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, then $Av - Aw \in \mathbb{Z}^n$

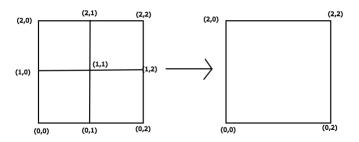


Figure 2: An illustration of the torus endomorphism $T_A: \mathbb{T}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{T}^2$ for $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Example 2.1. Let $m, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and consider the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} m & 0 \\ 0 & k \end{bmatrix}$. Consider the map T_A on \mathbb{T}^2 : this acts as two independent expanding maps: expansion by a factor of m in the x-direction, and expansion by a factor of k in the y-direction (see Figure 2 which illustrates the case m = k = 2). Can you show in general that the degree of such a map is d = mk? In other words, T_A is a d: 1 map of \mathbb{T}^2 .

Definition 2.2. A torus endomorphism T_A is said to be an *automorphism* if it is invertible.

Exercise 3. (This is also on HW 1) Show that T_A is invertible if and only if A^{-1} has integer entries, which in turn is equivalent to det $A = \pm 1$.

Proposition 3.1. Let $T_A: \mathbb{T}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$ be a torus automorphism with no eigenvalues of modulus 1. Then the periodic points of T_A are all the points with rational coordinates.

Proof. (periodic \Longrightarrow rational):

Let $[x] = [(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)] \in \mathbb{T}^n$ be a periodic point of period q for some $q \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $T_A^{\circ q}([x]) = [A^q x] = [x]$. That is, there exists a vector $y \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ such that

$$A^{q}x = x + y$$

$$\implies A^{q}x - x = y$$

$$\implies (A^{q} - \operatorname{Id})x = y$$

Since A has no eigenvalues of modulus 1, the matrix A^q has no eigenvalues of modulus 1. This means that the matrix A^q – Id is invertible. So

$$x = (A^q - \mathrm{Id})^{-1}y$$

Since y has integer coordinates and the matrix $(A^q - \operatorname{Id})^{-1}$ has rational entries, x has rational coordinates.

 $(rational \implies periodic)$:

Suppose x has rational coordinates, we can assume that all the coordinates have a common denominator. In other words, $x = \left(\frac{p_1}{r}, \frac{p_2}{r}, \cdots, \frac{p_n}{r}\right)$ for some integers p_i, r with $r \neq 0$. Given a $q \in \mathbb{N}$, since A has integer entries, $A^q x = \left(\frac{p'_1}{r}, \frac{p'_2}{r}, \cdots, \frac{p'_n}{r}\right)$ for some integers p'_1, \cdots, p'_n .

Note that there are only finitely many points in \mathbb{T}^n with rational coordinates with a common denominator r. In other words, the set $\{T_A^{\circ q}([x]): q \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is finite.

Thus, there exist $q_1 < q_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $T_A^{\circ q_1}([x]) = T_A^{\circ q_2}([x])$. Since T_A is an automorphism, this means that $T_A^{\circ (q_2-q_1)}([x]) = [x]$.

3.1 The Contraction Principle

In this section we will look at maps on subsets of \mathbb{R}^n which satisfy a criterion for all orbits converging to a fixed point.

3.1.1 Global contraction

Definition 3.2. A map f of a subse tX of \mathbb{R}^n is said to be *Lipschitz-continuous* with Lipschitz constant λ , or λ -*Lipschitz* if

$$d(f(x),f(y)) \le \lambda d(x,y)$$

for any $x, y \in X$.

The map f is said to be a contraction or a λ -contraction if λ < 1.

Remark 3.3. If a map f is Lipschitz-continuous, then we define

$$Lip(f) := \sup_{x \neq y} \frac{d(f(x), f(y))}{d(x, y)}$$

Example 3.4. $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ defines a contraction on $I = [1, \infty)$. What is Lip(f)?

Proposition 3.5. (Contraction Principle) Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be closed and $f: X \longrightarrow Xa$ λ -contraction. Then f has a unique fixed point x_0 and $d(f^{\circ n}(x), x_0) = \lambda^n d(x, x_0)$ for every x.

Proof. We have

$$d(f^{\circ n}(x), f^{\circ n}(y)) \le \lambda^n d(x, y)$$

for all $x, y \in X$. But this also means that for any $x \in X$, we have

$$d(f^{\circ(n+1)}(x), f^{\circ n}(x)) \le \lambda^n d(f(x), x)$$

$$\begin{split} d(f^{\circ m}(x),f^{\circ n}(x)) &\leq d(f^{\circ m}(x),f^{\circ (m-1)}(x)) + d(f^{\circ (m-1)}(x),f^{\circ (m-2)}(x)) + \cdots d(f^{\circ (n+1)}(x),f^{\circ n}(x)) \\ &\leq \left(\lambda^{m-1} + \lambda^{m-2} + \cdots \lambda^n\right) d(f(x),x) \\ &\leq \frac{\lambda^n (1-\lambda^{m-n})}{1-\lambda} d(f(x),x) \\ &\leq \frac{\lambda^n}{1-\lambda} d(f(x),x) \end{split}$$

In other words, the orbit of x is a Cauchy sequence. Since X is closed, $\lim_{n\to\infty} f^{\circ n}(x) = x_0$ is a point of X, and

$$f(x_0) = f(\lim_{n \to \infty} f^{\circ n}(x)) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f^{\circ (n+1)}(x_0) = x_0$$

3.1.2 Local contraction

Proposition 3.6. Let f be a continuously differentiable map of \mathbb{R}^n with a fixed point x_0 where $||Df_{x_0}|| < 1$. Then there is a closed neighborhood U of x_0 such that $f(U) \subset U$ and f is a contraction on U.

Since Df is continuous, there exists a small closed ball $U = B(x_0, \eta)$ around x_0 on which $||Df_x|| \leq \lambda < 1$. If $x, y \in U$, then $d(f(x), f(y)) \leq \lambda d(x, y)$. So f is a contraction on U. Furthermore, taking $y = x_0$ shows that if $x \in U$, then $d(f(x), x_0) = d(f(x), f(x_0)) \leq \lambda d(x, x_0) \leq \lambda \eta < \eta$, and hence $f(x) \in U$.