

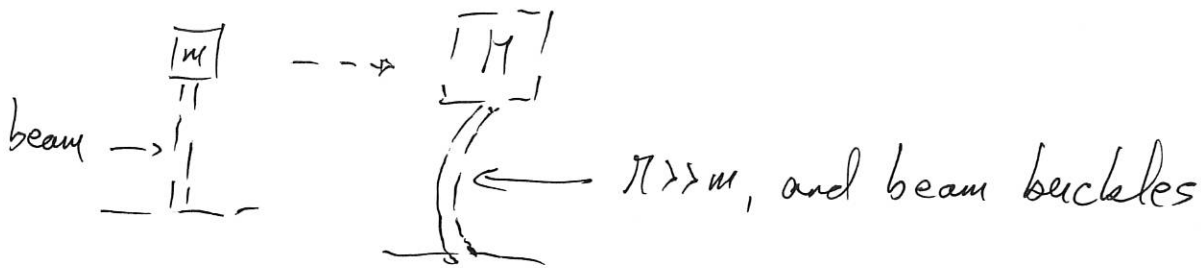
# Bifurcations :

(1)

Suppose  $\dot{x} = f(x, r)$ , where  $r$  is some parameter.

↳  $x = x(t; r)$

How do the properties of  $x(t; r)$   
change as we vary  $r$ ?



A prototypical example: Saddle-Node Bifurcations

$$\dot{x} = r + x^2$$

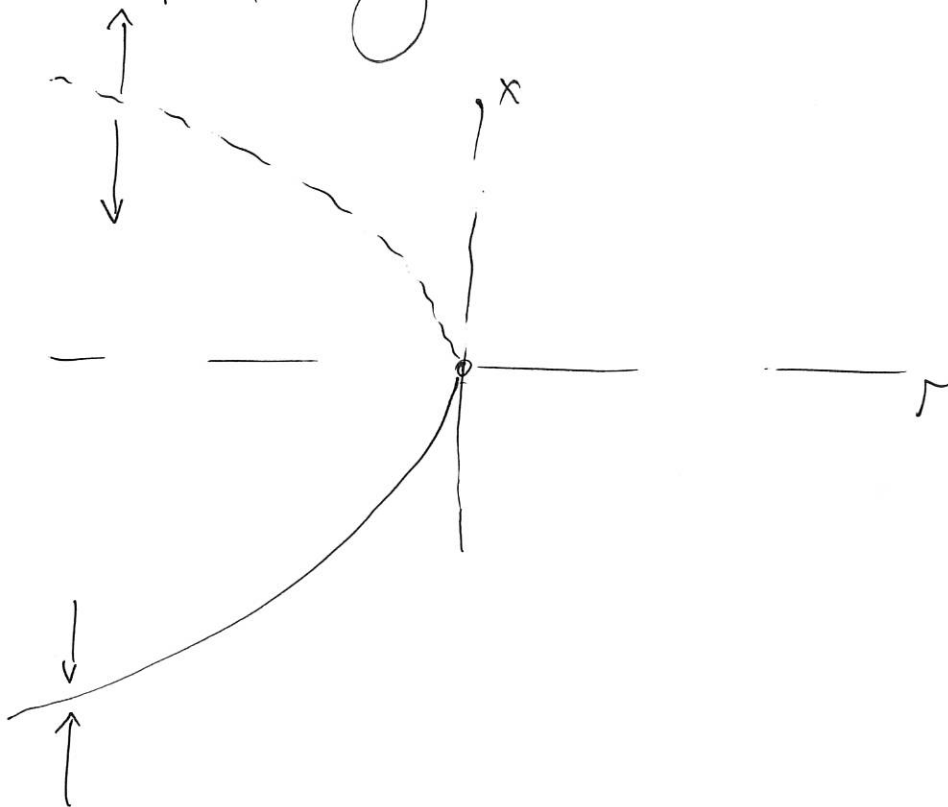
↳  $r + x_*^2 = 0 \rightarrow x_* = \pm \sqrt{-r}$

So, if  $r < 0$ , we have fixed points. If  $r > 0$ , we do not. (2)

Likewise:  $f_x(x, r) = 2x = \pm 2\sqrt{-r}$

So if  $r < 0$ , ~~the~~  $\sqrt{-r}$  is unstable,  $-\sqrt{-r}$  is stable

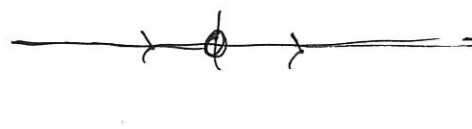
Thus, to capture this information, we make a bifurcation diagram:

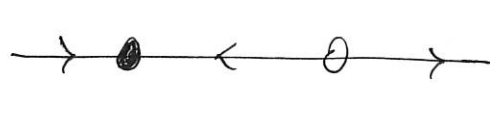


If we look at phase plots:

(7)

  $r > 0$

  $r = 0$ , "Node"

  $r < 0$ , "Saddle"

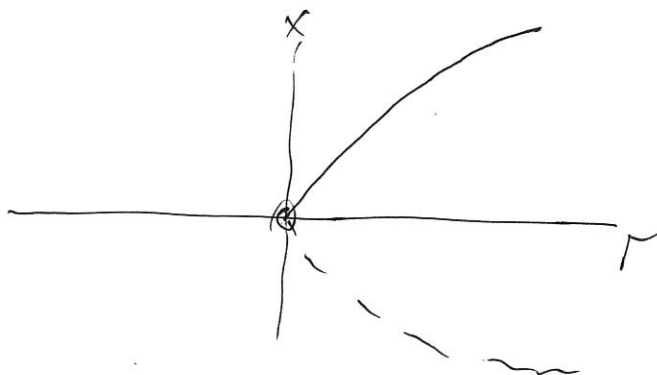
Thus "Saddle-Node" Bifurcation.

Examine a "Blue-Ray Bifurcation":

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

↳  $x_* = \pm\sqrt{r} \rightarrow r > 0$ , two fixed points  
 $r < 0$ , none

$f_x(x_*, r) = \mp 2\sqrt{r} \rightarrow +\sqrt{r}$  stable,  $-\sqrt{r}$  unstable



Strogatz then says:

(4)

Show  $\dot{x} = r - x - e^{-x}$  exhibits a saddle-node bifurcation.

Okay, he says something about a graph, blah, blah, blah...

$$\hookrightarrow r - x - e^{-x} = 0$$

$$e^{-x} = 1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

for  $x \sim 0$ :

$$r - x - \left(1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots\right) = 0$$

$$\hookrightarrow r - 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} - \dots = 0$$

$\hookrightarrow r = 1 \rightarrow x_* = 0$ . Further, if  $r \gtrless 1 \rightarrow$

$$x_*(r) = \pm (2(r-1))^{1/2} + (r-1)x_1 + (r-1)^{3/2}x_2 + \dots$$

Or if you like, let  $r-1 = \varepsilon$

(5)

$$\hookrightarrow \varepsilon - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} - \dots = 0$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{let } x = \pm \sqrt{2\varepsilon} + \varepsilon x_1 + \varepsilon^{3/2} x_2 + \dots$$

$$f_x(x_*(r), r) = -1 + e^{-x_*}$$

$$= -1 + \left( 1 - x_* + \frac{x_*^2}{2} - \dots \right)$$

$$= -x_* + \frac{x_*^2}{2} - \dots$$

↑      ↑  
Small    Smaller

$\hookrightarrow$  so  $-x_*$  determines stability for  $r \sim 1$

---

# Normal Forms:

(1)

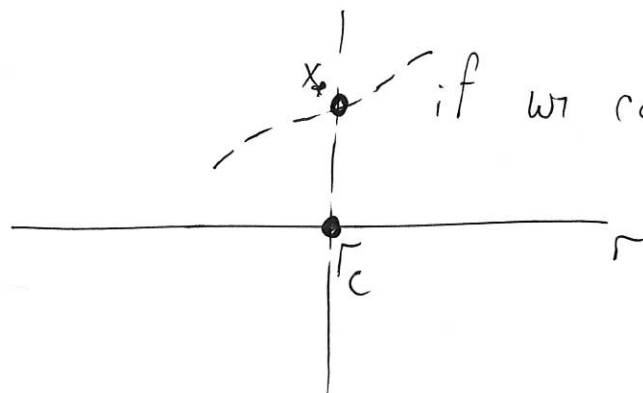
$$\dot{x} = f(x; r)$$

Suppose we can show

$$f(x_*, r_c) = 0$$

What makes this a bifurcation?

Well:



if we can write  $x_* = x_*(r)$

around  $r_c$ ,

it is not a bifurcation.

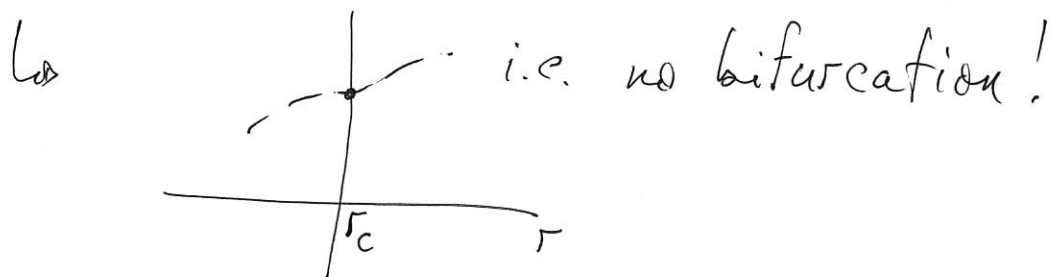
So:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x; r) &= f(x_*, r_c) + f_x(x_*, r_c)(x - x_*) \\ &\quad + f_r(x_*, r_c)(r - r_c) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} f_{xx}(x - x_*)^2 + f_{xr}(x - x_*)(r - r_c) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} f_{rr}(r - r_c)^2 + \dots = 0 \end{aligned}$$

So  $f(x_*; r_c) = 0$ , and if  $f_x(x_*; r_c) \neq 0$

(2)

$$\hookrightarrow x = x_* - \frac{f_r(x_*; r_c)}{f_x(x_*; r_c)} (r - r_c) + \dots$$



Requirement 1 for a Bifurcation at  $(x_*, r_c)$ :

$$\underline{\partial_x f(x_*, r_c) = 0}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \dot{x} = r + x^2 \rightarrow x_* = 0, r = 0, f_x(0, 0) = 0!$$

$\hookrightarrow$  if  $f_{xx}(x_*, r_c) \neq 0$ :

$$f_{xx}(x - x_*)^2 + 2f_{xr}(r - r_c)(x - x_*) + f_{rr}(r - r_c)^2 + 2f_r(r - r_c) = 0$$

~~if  $f_{xx}(x_*, r_c) = 0$ :~~

Now we have that:

(3)

$$(x - x_c) = \frac{1}{2f_{xx}} \left( -2f_{xr}(r - r_c) \pm \sqrt{(2f_{xr}(r - r_c))^2 - 4f_{xx}(2f_r(r - r_c) + f_{rr}(r - r_c)^2)} \right)^{1/2}$$

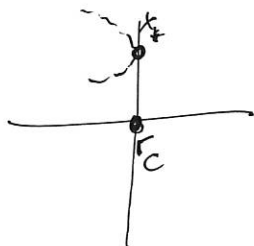
$$= \frac{-f_{xr}}{f_{xx}}(r - r_c) \pm \frac{1}{f_{xx}} \left( -2f_{xx}f_r(r - r_c) - H(r - r_c)^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\text{where } H = f_{xx}f_{rr} - f_{xr}^2 = \begin{vmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xr} \\ f_{xr} & f_{rr} \end{vmatrix}$$

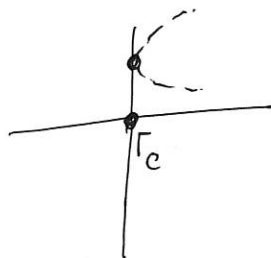
So, if we also have  $f_r \neq 0$

$$\text{we } (x - x_c) \sim \pm \frac{1}{f_{xx}} \sqrt{-2f_{xx}f_r(r - r_c)} + O(r - r_c)$$

$$\text{we } f_{xx}f_r > 0$$



$$f_{xx}f_r < 0$$





But this is hideous to look at.

(4)

Let ~~xxxxx~~,  $\tilde{r} = r - r_c$ ,  $u = x - x_*$

$$\hookrightarrow \dot{u} \approx 2f_r \tilde{r} + f_{rr} \tilde{r}^2 + 2f_{xr} \tilde{r} u + f_{xx} u^2$$

$$\hookrightarrow \dot{u} \approx a + bu + cu^2,$$

$$a = 2f_r \tilde{r} + f_{rr} \tilde{r}^2$$

$$b = 2f_{xr} \tilde{r}$$

$$c = f_{xx} \text{ (suppose } c > 0 \text{ for sake of argument)}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \dot{u} = a - \frac{b^2}{4c} + \left( \sqrt{c} u + \frac{b}{2\sqrt{c}} \right)^2$$

$$\hookrightarrow \dot{\tilde{u}} = \tilde{a} + c\tilde{u}^2, \quad \tilde{u} = u + \frac{b}{2c}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \tilde{u} = \gamma \omega$$

$$\hookrightarrow \dot{\omega} = \frac{\tilde{a}}{\gamma} + c\gamma \omega^2 \rightarrow \boxed{\dot{\omega} = \bar{a} + \omega^2}$$

Normal  
Form

Now we see how to keep playing this game.

(4)

if  $f_{xx} \neq 0$  but  $f_r = 0$

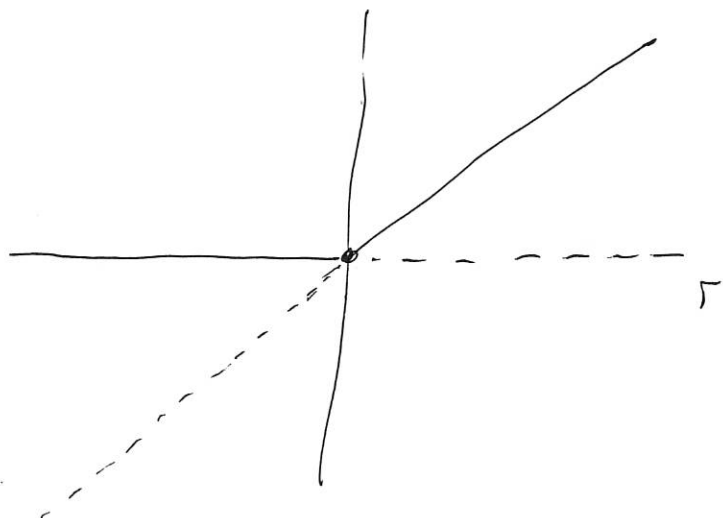
$$\hookrightarrow (x - x_*) = -\frac{f_{xr}}{f_{xx}} (r - r_c) \pm \frac{(-H)^{1/2}}{f_{xx}} |r - r_c|$$

$\hookrightarrow$  This gives rise to the "transcritical" bifurcation:

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

$$\hookrightarrow x_* = 0, r$$

$$f_x(x_*, r) = r - 2x_* = \begin{cases} r \\ -r \end{cases}$$



Example:

$$\dot{x} = r \ln x + x - 1$$

$$\text{So } f(1, r) = 0$$

$$f_x(x, r) = \frac{r}{x} + 1$$

$$\hookrightarrow f_x(1, r) = r + 1 = 0 \rightarrow r_c = -1 \text{ is bifurcation point}$$

$$f_r(x, r) = \ln x$$

$$\hookrightarrow f_r(1, r) = 0$$

$$f_{xx}(x, r) = -r/x^2 \rightarrow f_{xx}(1, -1) = 1 \neq 0$$

$\hookrightarrow$  transcritical bifurcation at  $(1, -1)$ .

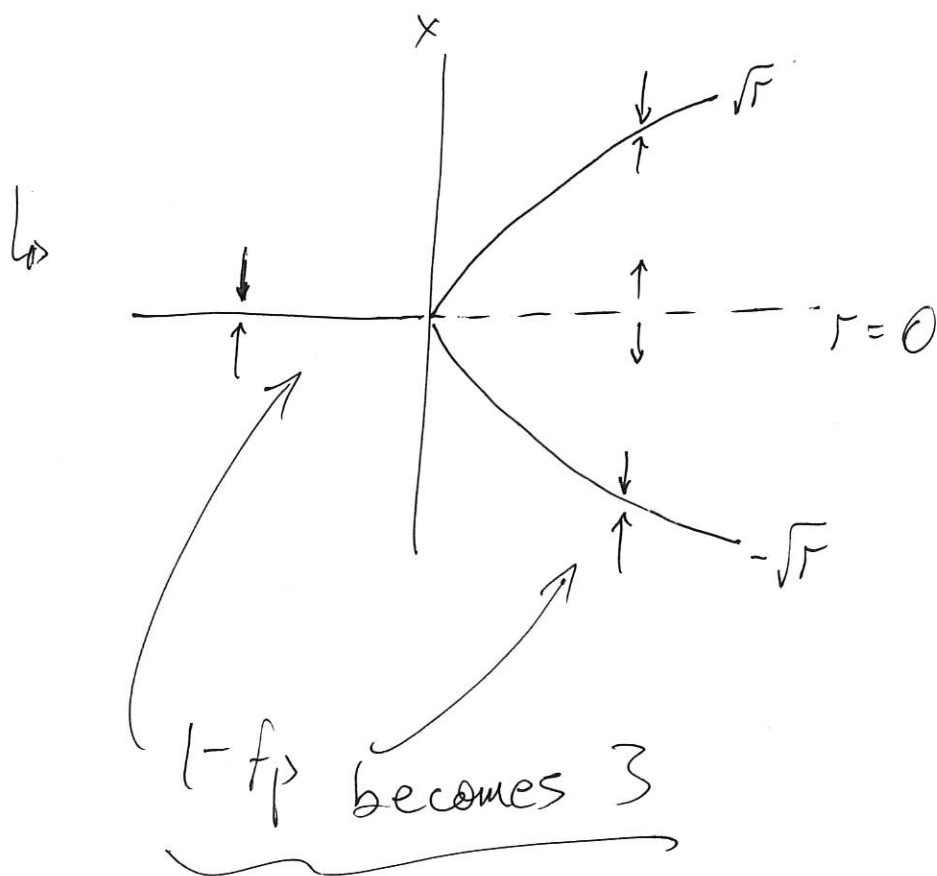
# Supercritical Pitchfork Bifurcation:

$$\dot{x} = rx - x^3 \quad (\text{i.e. } f_{xx} = 0 \text{ so we must go to higher terms})$$

$$f(x, r) = 0$$

$$\hookrightarrow x_* = 0, x_* = \pm\sqrt{r}$$

$$f_x(x_*, r) = r - 3x_*^2 = \begin{vmatrix} r \\ -2r \\ -2r \end{vmatrix}$$



Note:

$$\dot{x} = rx - x^3 = f(x, r)$$

$$\hookrightarrow f(-x, r) = -f(x, r)$$

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{d}{dt}(-x) = -\dot{x} = -f(x, r) = f(-x, r)$$

$\hookrightarrow x(t)$  is a solution  $\Rightarrow -x(t)$  is also a soln.

$\hookrightarrow f(-x, r) = -f(x, r) \rightarrow$  generally implies a pitchfork bifurcation.

Ex:  $\dot{x} = -x + \beta \tanh(x)$

$$\hookrightarrow f(x, \beta) = x + \beta \tanh(-x) = x - \beta \tanh(x) = -f(x, \beta)$$