

1/9/23:

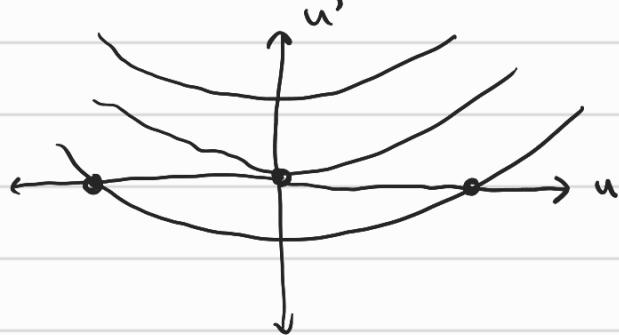
A bifurcation is a transition from one state to another.

Bifurcation theory is the study of equations of form

$$f(u, \lambda) = 0.$$

Continuation methods:

Consider $\frac{du}{dt} = u^2 + au + b$

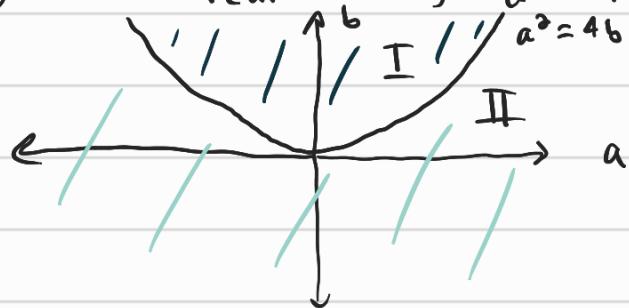


$$\frac{du}{dt} = u^2 + au + b$$

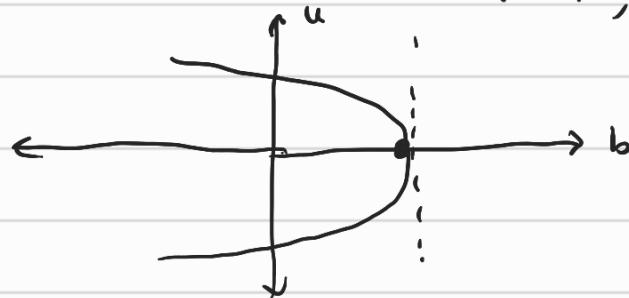
Could have 0, 1, 2 solutions.

Depends on discriminant
 $a^2 - 4b$.

$$a^2 - 4b < 0 \Rightarrow \text{no real roots}, \quad a^2 - 4b > 0 \Rightarrow 2 \text{ real roots}$$



Or we can make bifurcation plots, fix a ,



We will use XPP for simulating dynamical systems.

1/11/23:

Suppose you have polynomials $f(x)$, $g(x)$ of orders n and m respectively, then we can write

$$f(x) = \alpha \prod_{i=1}^n (x - \lambda_i), \quad g(x) = \beta \prod_{j=1}^m (x - \mu_j)$$

where λ_i 's are roots of f , μ_j 's are roots of g . Then the resultant of f & g is given by

$$R(f, g) = \alpha^n \beta^m \prod_{1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m} (\lambda_i - \mu_j).$$

Note that if f, g share a root, then $R(f, g) = 0$. To test if f has a repeated root, we check if $R(f, f') = 0$. Can be done in Maple.

1/13/23:

Continuation Theory: Consider a problem $F(u, \lambda) = 0$ where $u \in H$, a Hilbert space, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, $F: H \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow H$ ($\in C^2$ or C^∞).

$$\text{Ex: } F(u, \lambda) = u'' + \lambda u' = 0 \text{ given } u(0) = u(1) = 0.$$

Suppose we know a solution $F(u_0, 0) = 0$. Can we extend this solution?

First guess: Try perturbation, a power series.

$$F(u(\varepsilon), \varepsilon) = 0.$$

$$u = u_0 + \varepsilon u_1 + \varepsilon^2 u_2 + \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= F(u_0 + \varepsilon u_1 + \varepsilon^2 u_2 + \dots, \varepsilon) \\ &= F(u_0 + \varepsilon \Delta u, \varepsilon) \\ &= F(u_0, 0) + F_u(u_0, 0) \varepsilon \Delta u + F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0) \varepsilon \\ &\quad + F_{uu}(u_0, 0) \frac{(\varepsilon \Delta u)^2}{2} + F_{u\varepsilon}(u_0, 0) (\varepsilon \Delta u)^2 + F_{\varepsilon\varepsilon}(u_0, 0) \varepsilon^2 \\ &\quad + \dots \\ &= F(u_0, 0) + F_u(u_0, 0) \varepsilon u_1 + \varepsilon F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0) + O(\varepsilon^2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So require } F_u(u_0, 0) u_1 + F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow u_1 = -F_u^{-1}(u_0, 0) F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0)$$

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Implicit Function Theorem: Given F, u_0 s.t. $F(u_0, 0) = 0$ and $F_u^{-1}(u_0, 0)$ exists, then there exists a smooth function $u = u(\varepsilon)$ with $u(0) = u_0$ s.t. $F(u(\varepsilon), \varepsilon) = 0$.

Proof: Let $u = u_0 + \varepsilon v$, and then we have that

$$F(u, \varepsilon) = F(u_0 + \varepsilon v, \varepsilon) = F(u_0, 0) + F_u(u_0, 0) \varepsilon v + F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0) \varepsilon + G(\varepsilon v, \varepsilon)$$

where $G(\varepsilon v, \varepsilon)$ is a remainder term of order ε^2 by definition.

We know $F(u_0, 0) = 0$, and we want $F(u, \varepsilon) = 0$, so rewrite $F_u(u_0, 0) \varepsilon v = -F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0) \varepsilon - G(\varepsilon v, \varepsilon)$

$$\Rightarrow \varepsilon v = -F_u^{-1}(u_0, 0) [-F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0) \varepsilon - G(\varepsilon v, \varepsilon)]$$

$$\Rightarrow v = -F_u^{-1}(u_0, 0) [-F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0) - \frac{1}{\varepsilon} G(\varepsilon v, \varepsilon)]$$

$$= M(v).$$

We prove $v = M(v)$ has a solution through the contraction mapping thm.

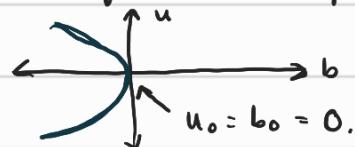
Well, $\|M(v) - M(w)\| = \left\| \frac{1}{\varepsilon} G(\varepsilon v, \varepsilon) - \frac{1}{\varepsilon} G(\varepsilon w, \varepsilon) \right\|$, we then use the identity: $H(v) - H(w) = (v-w) \int_0^1 H_u(sv - (1-s)w) ds$. So $\|M(v) - M(w)\| = \|v-w\| \left\| \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\varepsilon} G_u(\varepsilon sv - (1-s)\varepsilon w, \varepsilon) ds \right\| \leq \varepsilon K \|v-w\|$ since G is order ε^2 , so making ε sufficiently small, we have $\|M(v) - M(w)\| \leq \delta \|v-w\|$ for $0 < \delta < 1$.

What if $F_u^{-1}(u_0, \varepsilon)$ does not exist? Example: Limit points.

$$u^2 + b = 0 \Rightarrow u = \pm \sqrt{b},$$

Doing power series, $f_u = 2u$,

$$f_u(u_0, 0) = 2(0) = 0, \text{ not invertible}$$



Introduce a new parameter s , wish to solve

$$u = u_0 + u_1 s + u_2 s^2 + \dots, \quad \varepsilon = 0 + \varepsilon_1 s + \varepsilon_2 s^2 + \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned} F(u, \varepsilon) &= F(u_0 + u_1 s + u_2 s^2 + \dots, 0 + \varepsilon_1 s + \varepsilon_2 s^2 + \dots) \\ &= F(u_0, 0) + F_u(u_0, 0)(u_1 s + u_2 s^2 + \dots) \\ &\quad + F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0)(\varepsilon_1 s + \varepsilon_2 s^2 + \dots) \\ &\quad + F_{uu}(u_0, 0)(u_1 s + u_2 s^2 + \dots)^2 / 2 \\ &\quad + F_{u\varepsilon}(u_0, 0)(u_1 s + u_2 s^2 + \dots)(\varepsilon_1 s + \varepsilon_2 s^2 + \dots) \\ &\quad + F_{\varepsilon\varepsilon}(u_0, 0)(\varepsilon_1 s + \varepsilon_2 s^2 + \dots)^2 / 2 \\ &\quad + O(s^3). \end{aligned}$$

$$O(1) = F(u_0, 0) = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$$O(s) = F_u(u_0, 0)u_1 + F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0)\varepsilon_1$$

$$\begin{aligned} O(s^2) &= F_u(u_0, 0)u_2 + F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0)\varepsilon_2 + F_{uu}(u_0, 0)\frac{u_1^2}{2} \\ &\quad + F_{u\varepsilon}(u_0, 0)u_1\varepsilon_1 + F_{\varepsilon\varepsilon}(u_0, 0)\frac{\varepsilon_1^2}{2} = 0 \\ &\quad \vdots \quad \vdots \end{aligned}$$

If $u_1 = \phi$ is in the nullspace of $F_u(u_0, \varepsilon)$, then $\varepsilon_1 = 0$, and then $O(s^2) = F_u(u_0, 0)u_2 + F_\varepsilon(u_0, 0)\varepsilon_2 + F_{uu}(u_0, 0)\frac{u_1^2}{2} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow F_u(u_0, 0) u_2 = -[F_\epsilon(u_0, 0) \epsilon_2 + F_{uu}(u_0, 0) \frac{u_2 \epsilon^2}{2}],$$

Apply the Fredholm Alternative Theorem: $Lu = f$ has a solution iff $\langle f, \psi \rangle = 0 \quad \forall \psi \in N(L^*)$. So our condition of solvability is $\langle F_\epsilon(u_0, 0) \epsilon_2 + F_{uu}(u_0, 0) \frac{\epsilon^2}{2}, \psi \rangle = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon_2 = \frac{-\langle F_{uu}(u_0, 0) \frac{\epsilon^2}{2}, \psi \rangle}{\langle F_\epsilon(u_0, 0), \psi \rangle}.$$

Then we have $u = s\phi + O(\epsilon^2)$, $\epsilon = \epsilon^2 \epsilon_2 + \dots$.

We've parameterized our continuation.

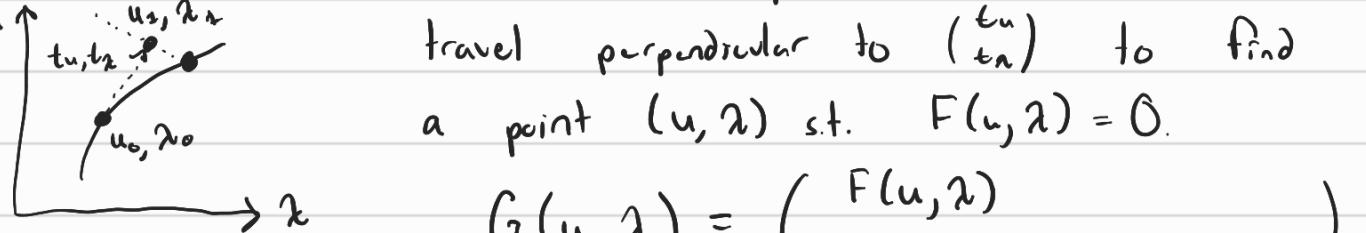
1/20/23:

Again, suppose $F(u_0, \lambda_0) = 0$, and we wish to find u_2 s.t. $F(u_2, \lambda_2) = 0$ where λ_2 is near λ_0 . If $F_u(u(\lambda), \lambda) = 0$, then differentiating, $F_u(u_0, \lambda_0) u' + F_\lambda(u_0, \lambda_0) = 0 \Rightarrow u' = -F_u^{-1}(F_\lambda(u_0, \lambda_0))$. So we can guess $u_2 = u_0 + u'(\lambda_2 - \lambda_0)$.

Iterative method: $x_{j+1} = x_j + s_x$ where $F_u(x_j, \lambda) s_x = -F_\lambda(x_j, \lambda)$.

Or, create new variable s , and we wish to find $u'(s)$, $\lambda'(s)$ s.t. $F_u(u(s_0), \lambda(s_0)) t_u = -F_\lambda(u(s_0), \lambda(s_0)) t_\lambda$ where

$\begin{pmatrix} t_u \\ t_\lambda \end{pmatrix}$ is the tangent vector in $u-\lambda$ space. We then wish to



travel perpendicular to $\begin{pmatrix} t_u \\ t_\lambda \end{pmatrix}$ to find a point (u, λ) s.t. $F(u, \lambda) = 0$.

$$G(u, \lambda) = \begin{pmatrix} F(u, \lambda) \\ t_u \cdot (u - u_0) + t_\lambda \cdot (\lambda - \lambda_0) \end{pmatrix}.$$

We wish to find u, λ s.t. $G(u, \lambda) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. So calculate t_u, t_λ , normalize, and use Newton's method on G to find continuation (can show Jacobian of G invertible).

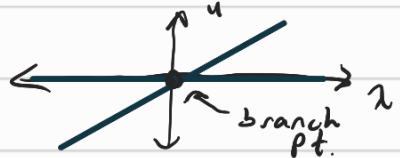
This method still succeeds even if F_u^{-1} DNE.

Both MATCONT (MATLAB) and XPP use this method, called arclength continuation.

Ex: $f(u, \lambda) = u^2 - \lambda u$. We see for all λ , $u=0$ (or λ). And $f_u = 2u - 1$ and $f_\lambda = -u$. f_u not invertible at $(0,0)$. $(0,0)$ a branch pt.

Similar Ex: Bratu's Eqn.

$$F(u, \lambda) = u'' + \lambda u e^u = 0, \quad u(0) = u(1) = 0$$



results in Branch points. $u_0 = 0, \lambda = 0$.

We expand about u_0 : $F(u_0 + \epsilon U, \lambda) = F(u_0, \lambda) + F_u(u_0, \lambda) \epsilon U$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \epsilon U [u_0'' + \lambda(e^{u_0} + u_0 e^{u_0})] \quad \text{Verify by} \\ &= \epsilon U'' + \epsilon \lambda (e^{u_0} + u_0 e^{u_0}) U \quad \text{Power series} \end{aligned}$$

Given $u_0 = 0, F(u_0 + \epsilon U, \lambda) = \epsilon(U'' + \lambda U)$, given bdry conditions, we see that $\lambda = n^2\pi^2, U(t) = \sin(n\pi t)$.

1/23/23:

Revisit Bratu: $u'' + \lambda u e^u = 0, u(0) = u(1) = 0$.

Define the Fréchet Derivative $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(u + \epsilon U) - f(u)}{\epsilon}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For our ex: } &\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{u'' + \epsilon U'' + \lambda(u + \epsilon U)e^{u+\epsilon U} - u'' - \lambda u e^u}{\epsilon} \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\epsilon U'' + \lambda[u(e^{u+\epsilon U} - e^u) + \epsilon U e^{u+\epsilon U}]}{\epsilon} \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\epsilon U'' + \lambda[u(e^u(1 + \epsilon U + \frac{\epsilon^2 U^2}{2} + \dots) - e^u) + \epsilon U e^u(1 + \epsilon U + \frac{\epsilon^2 U^2}{2} + \dots)]}{\epsilon} \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} U'' + \lambda[u e^u(U + \frac{\epsilon U^2}{2} + \dots) + U e^u(1 + \epsilon U + \frac{\epsilon^2 U^2}{2} + \dots)] \\ &= U'' + \lambda e^u(u+1)U \quad (\text{directional derivative in "direction" } U) \end{aligned}$$

which is a linear operator acting on another function U .

Now, for $u'' + \lambda u e^u = 0, u(0) = u(1) = 0$, wish to find $u(\lambda)$.

Recall $u = 0$ a soln for all λ .

Implicit Function Theorem: $u = 0, \lambda_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, look if linearization, in terms of u , is invertible. $L(u)U = U'' + \lambda e^u(u+1)U$, so $L(0)U = U'' + \lambda U$.

Is the nullspace trivial? $U'' + \lambda U = 0$ subject to $U(0) = U(1) = 0$.

Nontrivial if $\lambda = n^2\pi^2$ and $U(x) = \sin(\sqrt{\lambda}x) = \sin(n\pi x)$. We know

Branch points occur at $\lambda = n^2\pi^2$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, can we show it?

Power series: $u = \epsilon u_1 + \epsilon^2 u_2 + \dots, \lambda = \pi^2 + \epsilon \lambda_1 + \epsilon^2 \lambda_2 + \dots$

Try to find non-trivial soln in Maple.

$u_1 = \sin(\pi x)$, $\lambda_1 = -8\pi/3$, u_2 is a more complicated fn, λ_2 as well.

Key: Use FAT to determine λ_i 's, solve to determine $u_i(x)$'s.

$$1/25/23: \lambda = \pi^2 - \frac{8\pi}{3}\varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2)$$

$$u(x) = \varepsilon \sin(\pi x) + O(\varepsilon^2).$$

Since λ, u are linear in ε , this is a transverse bifurcation.

We can find new bifurcations at $\lambda = n^2\pi^2$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Taking $\lambda_0 = 4\pi^2$, we get solutions

$$\lambda = 4\pi^2 + \frac{11\pi^2}{6}\varepsilon^2 + O(\varepsilon^3).$$

$$u(x) = \sin(2\pi x)\varepsilon + \left(-\frac{1}{3} + \frac{2\cos(2\pi x)}{3} - \frac{\cos(4\pi x)}{6}\right)\varepsilon^2 + O(\varepsilon^3)$$

Parabolic nature of λ tells us we have a pitchfork bifurcation in direction of positive λ . Once more, take $\lambda_0 = 9\pi^2$.

$$\lambda = 9\pi^2 - 8\pi\varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2)$$

$$u(x) = \sin(3\pi x)\varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2) \quad \text{Transversal bifurcation again.}$$

Claim: Alternates transversal/pitchfork by even/odd.

Branching Theory: Wish to solve $F(u, \lambda) = 0$, and we know $f(0, \lambda) = 0 \vee \lambda$. We look for points where $F_u(0, \lambda)$ not invertible, i.e. $F_u(0, \lambda)\phi = 0$ for $\phi \neq 0$. We will assume $\dim N(F_u(0, \lambda_0)) = 1$.

Background: FAT. Let $L: H \rightarrow H$ be a bounded operator on a Hilbert space w/ closed range. $Lu = f$ has (at least 1) solution iff

$$\langle v, f \rangle = 0 \quad \forall v \in N(L^*) \quad (\text{nullspace of adjoint operator}, L^*v = 0)$$

$$\text{PF}) \Rightarrow Lu = f \in \Psi \cap N(L^*) \Rightarrow 0 = \langle L^*\Psi, u \rangle = \langle \Psi, Lu \rangle = \langle \Psi, f \rangle$$

\Leftarrow Suppose $\langle \Psi, f \rangle = 0 \quad \forall \Psi \in N(L^*)$. Write $f = f_r + f_\perp$ where $f_r \in R(L)$, $f_\perp \perp R(L)$. Then $\langle f_\perp, Lu \rangle = 0 \quad \forall u \Rightarrow \langle L^*f_\perp, u \rangle = 0 \quad \forall u$
 $\Rightarrow L^*f_\perp = 0 \Rightarrow f_\perp \in N(L^*)$. So by assumption, $\langle f_\perp, f \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow f_\perp = 0$
 $\Rightarrow f \in R(L) \Rightarrow \exists$ a solution.

$$\text{So } f(u, \lambda) = \cancel{f(0, \lambda_0)} + f_u(0, \lambda_0)u + \cancel{f_{\lambda}(0, \lambda_0)(\lambda - \lambda_0)} + f_{u\lambda}(0, \lambda_0)u(\lambda - \lambda_0) + R(u, \lambda)$$

where $R(u, \lambda) = O(u^2, u(\lambda - \lambda_0)^2)$. Denote $f_u^0 = f_u(0, \lambda_0)$.

Let $\phi \in N(F_u^0)$, $\Psi \in N(F_u^{0*})$ s.t. $\langle \phi, \Psi \rangle = 1$. Now define the projection operator $P(u) = \langle \Psi, u \rangle \phi$. Can prove $P^2 = P$.

1/27/23: Expanding $F(u, \lambda) = F_u^0 u + F_{u\lambda}^0 u\lambda + R(u, \lambda)$, Now, we set $P(F)$, $(1-P)(F)$ equal to zero, and let $u = \varepsilon(\phi + w)$ where $w \perp \Psi$. We then get a system of equations for w, λ . Let $m = (\lambda - \lambda_0)$.

$$G(w) = \begin{pmatrix} \langle \Psi, F_{u\lambda}(\phi + w)m \rangle + \langle \Psi, \frac{R}{\varepsilon} \rangle \\ F_u^0 w + F_{u\lambda}^0(\phi + w)m + \frac{R}{\varepsilon} - \langle \Psi, F_{u\lambda}^0(\phi + w)m + \frac{R}{\varepsilon} \rangle \phi \end{pmatrix} = \vec{0}$$

Note that $\frac{R}{\varepsilon} \rightarrow 0$ as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$. Assuming $\varepsilon, m, |w| \ll 1$, $G \approx \vec{0}$ satisfied.

We then linearize G , set $u, m = 0$, and obtain the Jacobian

$$J(G) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \langle \Psi, F_{u\lambda}^0 \phi \rangle \\ F_u^0 & F_u^0 \phi - \langle \Psi, F_u^0 \phi \rangle \phi \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial G_1}{\partial w} & \frac{\partial G_1}{\partial \lambda} \\ \frac{\partial G_2}{\partial w} & \frac{\partial G_2}{\partial \lambda} \end{pmatrix}$$

So, given $\langle \Psi, F_{u\lambda}^0 \phi \rangle \neq 0$, $J(G)$ is invertible.

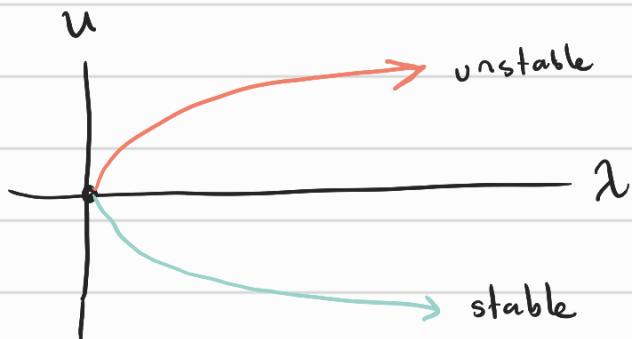
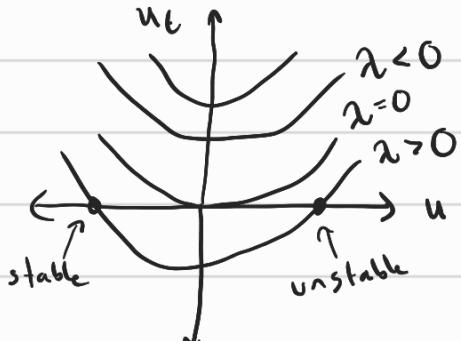
Theorem: If F_u^0 has a one-dimensional nullspace, $F_u^0 \phi = 0$ and $F_u^{0*} \Psi = 0$ with $\langle \phi, \Psi \rangle = 1$, and $\langle \Psi, F_{u\lambda}^0 \phi \rangle \neq 0$, then there exists a nontrivial branch of solutions.

Also, if $\dim(N(F_u^0))$ is odd, \exists at least 1 nontrivial branch of solns.

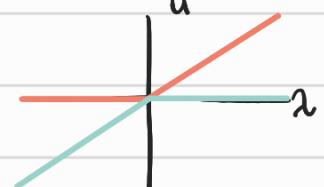
1/30/23:

Today, consider problems of form $u_t = F(u, \lambda)$. Steady states occur at $0 = u_t = F(u, \lambda)$. We'll study stability of steady sts.

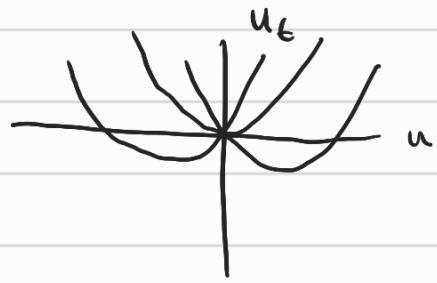
ex: $u_t = u^2 - \lambda$.



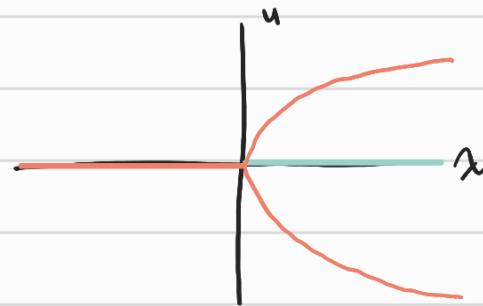
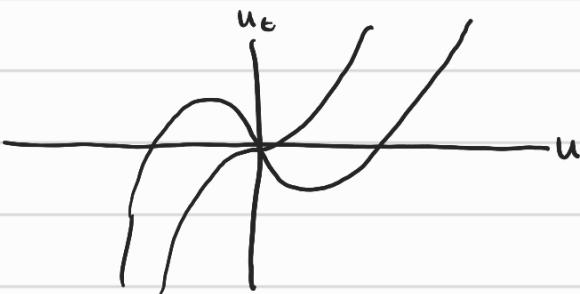
ex: $u_t = u(u - \lambda)$. ss: $u = 0, u = \lambda$.



We see an exchange of stability at $\lambda = 0$.



$$\text{Ex: } u_t = u(u^2 - \lambda). \quad u=0, \quad u^2 = \lambda$$



So back to $u_t = F(u, \lambda)$. Linearizing about a known solution, we get $MU = F_u(u, \lambda)U$. Now, parameterize the problem by ε .

Case 1: Limit Pts: $\exists u_0, \lambda_0$ s.t. $F(u_0, \lambda_0) = 0, F_u(u_0, \lambda_0)\phi = 0, F_{\lambda}(u_0, \lambda_0) \neq 0$.

$$F(u, \lambda) = F^0 + F_u^0(u - u_0) + F_{\lambda}^0(\lambda - \lambda_0) + F_{uu}^0 \frac{(u - u_0)^2}{2} + F_{u\lambda}^0(u - u_0)(\lambda - \lambda_0) + \dots$$

And let $u = u_0 + \varepsilon\phi + \varepsilon^2 u_2 + \dots, \lambda = \lambda_0 + \varepsilon^2 \lambda_2 + \dots$. Plug in, group:

$$O(\varepsilon): F_u^0\phi = 0$$

$$O(\varepsilon^2): F_u^0 u_2 + F_{\lambda}^0 \lambda_2 + F_{uu}^0 \phi^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_2 \langle \psi, F_{\lambda}^0 \rangle + \langle \psi, F_{uu}^0 \phi^2 \rangle = 0 \text{ gives } \lambda_2, u_2 = \phi.$$

Back to $MU = F_u(u, \lambda)U$, we expand F_u^0 to get

$$MU = (F_u^0 + F_{u\lambda}^0(\lambda - \lambda_0) + F_{uu}^0(u - u_0) + \dots)U. \quad \text{Gather terms}$$

$$O(1): F_u^0\phi = 0$$

2/1/23:

Hopf Bifurcation Theorem: Suppose $u_t = F(u, \lambda)$ and $F(0, \lambda) = 0 \forall \lambda$.

Then if $F_u(0, \lambda)$ is an operator with a complex eigenvalue with real part 0, i.e. $F_u^0\phi = i\omega_0\phi$, then there exists a periodic branch of solutions $u(\varepsilon) = \varepsilon(\phi e^{i\omega t} + \bar{\phi} e^{-i\omega t}) + O(\varepsilon^2)$, $\lambda(\varepsilon) = \lambda_0 + O(\varepsilon^2)$, $\omega(\varepsilon) = \omega_0 + \varepsilon\omega_1 + O(\varepsilon^2)$.

Proof uses FAT to split the problem, then use of IFT for existence & conclusion.

2/3/23

Given polynomials $f(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_0$, $g(x) = b_m x^m + \dots + b_0$, define

the Sylvester Matrix as
 $(n+m) \times (n+m)$

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} a_n & a_{n-1} & a_{n-2} & \dots \\ 0 & a_n & a_{n-1} & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & a_n & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ b_m & b_{m-1} & b_{m-2} & \dots & a_1 & a_0 \\ 0 & b_m & b_{m-1} & \dots & \ddots & \ddots \\ 0 & 0 & b_m & \dots & \ddots & \ddots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ b_1 & b_0 & & & & \end{pmatrix}$$

The resultant of f
 and g given by

$$R(f, g) = \det(S).$$

Theorem: Given $f(x) = a_n \prod_{i=1}^n (x - \xi_i)$, $g(x) = b_m \prod_{j=1}^m (x - \eta_j)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } R(f, g) &= a_n^m b_m^m \prod_i \prod_j |\xi_i - \eta_j| \\ &= a_n^m \prod_i g(\xi_i) \\ &= (-1)^{nm} b_m^m \prod_j f(\eta_j). \end{aligned}$$

Ex: $f(x) = x^2 + ax + b$, $g(x) = f'(x) = 2x + a$.

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 2 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & a \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } \det(S) = 4b - a^2 = 4f\left(-\frac{a}{2}\right).$$

2/6/23

Takeaway: if working w/ polynomials, the resultant is a useful tool to reduce # of variables in an equation.

Branching Examples:

Pattern formation

1) Taylor vortices:

known for 100+ yrs

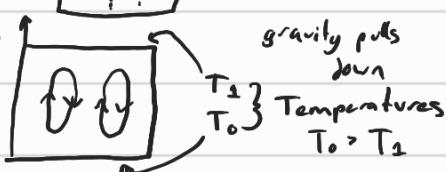


Formation of vortices

over time.

2) Benard cells:

Temperature dependent density



Study temperature

over time

3) Turing Patterns

2/15/23

For dynamics, define a flow $\phi^t: X \rightarrow X$, $t \in \mathbb{N}$ (discrete), or \mathbb{R} (continuous)

An orbit is periodic if $\phi^t x_0 = \phi^{t+T} x_0 \quad \forall t$ for some $T > 0$.

Invariant set $S \subseteq X$ if $x_0 \in S \Rightarrow \phi^t x_0 \in S \quad \forall t$

Stable invariant set $S_0 \subseteq U_0 \subseteq X$ if $x_0 \in U_0 \Rightarrow \phi^t x_0 \rightarrow S_0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

Topological Equivalence: $\phi^t: X \rightarrow X$, $\psi^t: X \rightarrow X$ are top. equiv. if

$\exists h: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. ($X = \mathbb{R}^n$)

i) h is a homeomorphism (1-1 and invertible)

ii) h maps orbits to orbits

iii) h preserves time direction

Suppose you have DEs $x_t = f(x)$, $y_t = g(y)$, and suppose we have

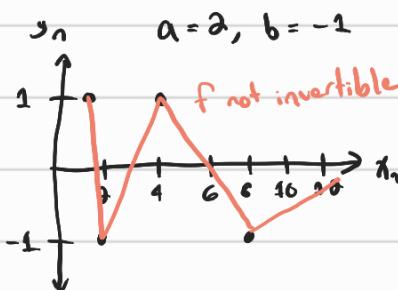
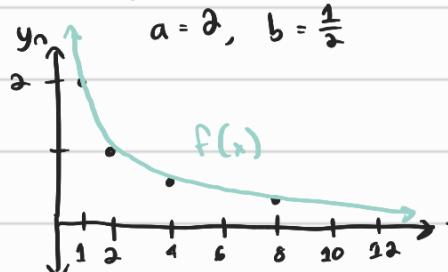
a map $y = h(x)$, a diffeomorphism (1-1, invertible, differentiable). Then we can get $y' = h'(x)x' = h'(x)f(x) = g(h(x))$. So we get the new DE $h'(x) = \frac{g(h(x))}{f(x)} = F(x, h) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and for h to be a diffeomorphism, a soln to the DE must exist by Picard-Lindelöf.

Ex: $x \mapsto ax$, $y \mapsto by$, a discrete system.

If a, b of same sign, \exists an invertible function $h(x)$

s.t. $h(x_n) = y_n$. But if $ab < 0$, then we cannot

do this



Try to solve, suppose $ab > 0$. $y_n = b^n y_0 = f(a^n x_0) = f(x_n)$. Try $f(x) = kx^c$, so $f(a^n x_0) = b^n y_0 \Rightarrow k a^{cn} x_0^c = b^n y_0 \Rightarrow k = \frac{b^n y_0}{a^{cn} x_0^c} = \frac{y_0}{a^c x_0^c} e^{c \log_a(b)}$.

So

$$y_n = f(x_n) = \frac{y_0}{x_0^{\log_a(b)}} X_n^{\log_a(b)}$$

We can do the same for continuous, 2D maps. For ex.

$$x \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & -\beta \\ \beta & \alpha \end{pmatrix} x, \quad y \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{pmatrix} y$$

Let $x' = \alpha x$, $y' = \beta y$, $\alpha \cdot \beta > 0$. $x(t) = x_0 e^{\alpha t}$, $y(t) = y_0 e^{\beta t}$.

Now, look for $y = h(x)$.

$$y' = h'(x)x' = h'(x)ax = b h(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow h'(x) = \frac{b}{ax} h(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow h(x) = C x^{b/a}$$

$$\text{Check, } y_0 e^{bt} = y = h(x) = (C x_0 e^{at})^{b/a} = C x_0^{b/a} e^{bt} = y_0 e^{bt} \quad \checkmark.$$

Note that if $a \cdot b \neq 0$, $h(x)$ is singular at $x=0$.

$$2/17/23 \quad \begin{cases} p_2' = \alpha p_2, \theta_2' = \beta & \text{rotational} \\ p_2' = \alpha p_2, \theta_2' = 0 & \text{line} \end{cases}$$

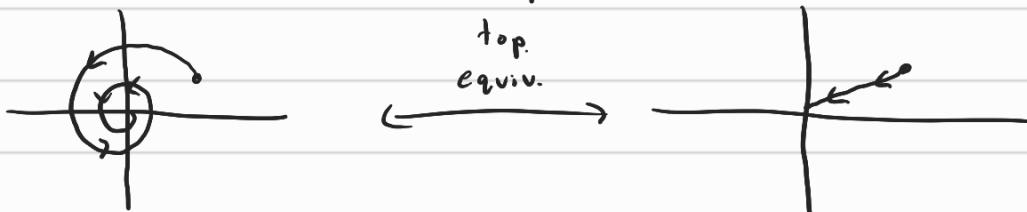
$$p_1' = p_0 e^{at}, p_2' = p_0 e^{at}, \theta_2 = \theta_0 + \beta t, \theta_0 = \theta_0.$$

$$\text{Let } t = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln(\frac{p_2}{p_0}), \text{ then } \theta_2 - \theta_0 + \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln(\frac{p_2}{p_0})$$

$$\text{So } \begin{pmatrix} p_2 \\ \theta_2 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ \theta_1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ by } h \begin{pmatrix} p_2 \\ \theta_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_0 \\ \theta_0 + \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln(\frac{p_2}{p_0}) \end{pmatrix}$$

which is a continuous but not smooth map.

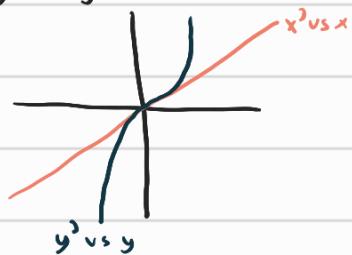
So



Ex: Show $y' = ay + y^2 f(y)$, $x' = ax$ are topologically equivalent where f a "nice" function.

We wish to show $y = x + xG(x)$, a near-identity transformation w/ $G(0) = 0$.

$$y = x + xG(x) \Rightarrow y' = (1 + G(x) + xG'(x))x' \\ = (1 + G(x) + xG'(x))ax$$



should equal $ay + y^2 f(y) = a(x + xG(x)) + (x + xG(x))^2 f(x + xG(x))$.

Can solve $aG' = (1+G)^2 f(x+xG)$, which is an ODE for G with IC $G(0) = 0$. Does G exist? If it does if $\frac{(1+G)^2 f(x+xG)}{a}$ is Lipschitz.

Well it's differentiable, so it is locally Lipschitz. And we can solve for a power series of G in terms of a power series of f using Maple.

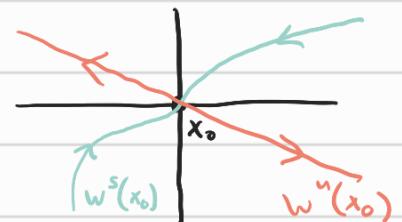
So these two systems are locally topologically equivalent.

Now, consider $x' = f(x)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $f(x_0) = 0$. We'll say the Jacobian at x_0 has n_+ eigenvalues with $\text{Re}(\lambda) > 0$, n_- eigenvalues with $\text{Re}(\lambda) < 0$, and no eigenvalues with $\text{Re}(\lambda) = 0$.

x_0 is said to be a hyperbolic point if $n_0 = 0$, x_0 is said to be a saddle point if $n_+ \cdot n_- \neq 0$ and $n_0 = 0$.

We define the stable invariant manifold $W^s(x_0) := \{x \mid \phi^t x \rightarrow x_0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow +\infty\}$.

Similarly, the unstable invariant manifold $W^u(x_0) := \{x \mid \phi^t x \rightarrow x_0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow -\infty\}$.



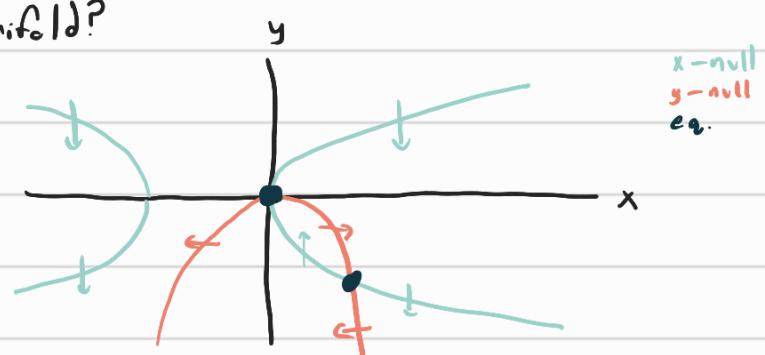
2/22/23:

Theorem: Suppose $n_0 = 0$. Then given two systems, $x' = f(x)$, $y' = g(y)$ are topologically equivalent around a fixed point if n_+, n_- are the same.

How do we calculate a stable/unstable manifold?

Ex: Consider $x' = x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 - y^2$
 $y' = -\frac{1}{2}y - x^2$

We wish to know $w^s(0)$, $w^u(0)$.



Let $x' = f(x, y)$, $y' = g(x, y)$.

For one manifold, suppose $m(x) = m_1 x + m_2 x^2 + \dots$.

Wish to have $y = m(x)$ as a solution to the system.

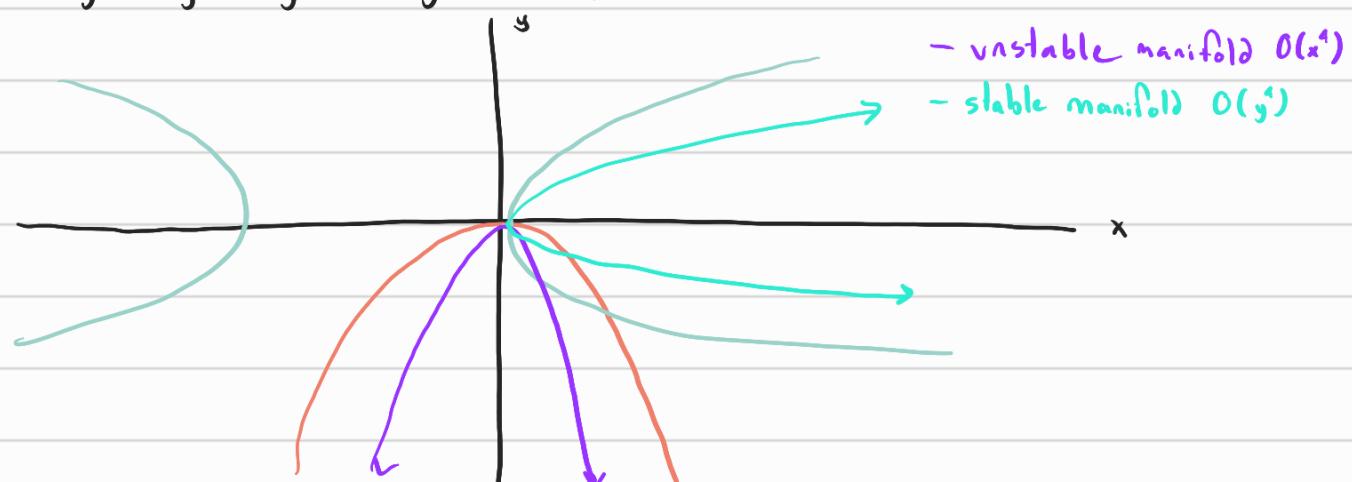
So, we want $g(x, m(x)) = y' = m'(x)x^2 = m'(x)f(x, m(x))$. This can give us a power series solution for $m(x)$.

$$\text{Maple: } m(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 - \frac{3}{32}x^4 + \dots$$

We can verify that this is the unstable manifold (locally).

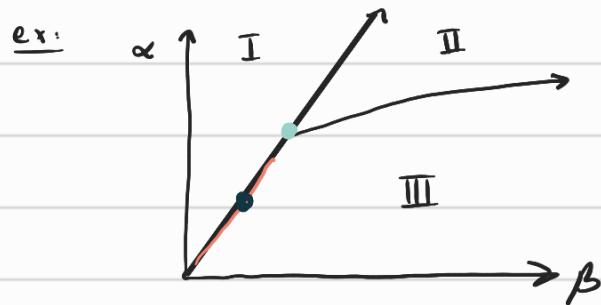
Similarly, let $k(y) = k_1 y + k_2 y^2 + \dots$. Can use maple, and solve $f(k(y), y) = k'(y)h(k(y), y)$ to get that

$$k(y) = y^2 - y^3 + y^4 - 3y^5 + \dots$$



2/24/23:

For a point on a boundary curve in the Bifurcation diagram, we define the codimension of that point to be the difference of the parameter space and the dimension of the boundary point.



Param-dim = 2
 -dim = 1 (line)
 -dim = 0 (point)

- has codimension $2-1=1$
- has codimension $2-0=2$

Now, given $x^* = f(x, \alpha)$, $y^* = g(y, \beta)$. Topological equivalence means there exists a parameter dependent map $h_\alpha: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\gamma: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ s.t. $y(t, \beta) = h(x(t, \gamma(\beta)))$. Or $(\begin{smallmatrix} x(t, \alpha) \\ \alpha \end{smallmatrix}) \mapsto (\begin{smallmatrix} y(t, \beta) \\ \beta \end{smallmatrix})$.

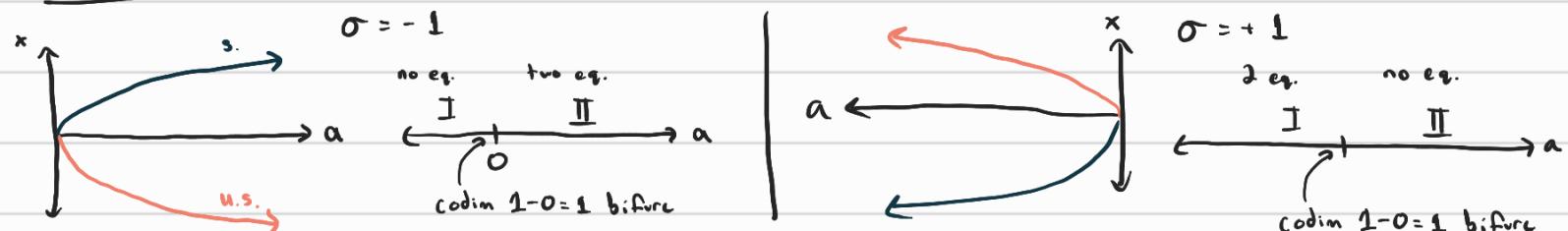
Ex: Fold bifurcation. Consider $x^* = \alpha + \sigma x^2$ where $\sigma = \pm 1$. There exist a multitude of systems equivalent to this one. We call it the normal form as it is the simplest such form.

Ex: Hopf bifurcation. $z^* = (\alpha + i\beta)z + \sigma z|z|^2$, $\sigma = \pm 1$, $z \in \mathbb{C}$. This is the normal form for Hopf bifurcations.

Note: Above 2 are all codimension 1 bifurcations.

Theorem: Consider $y^* = f(y, \alpha)$ where $f(0, 0) = 0$, $f_y(0, 0) = 0$, $f_{yy}(0, 0) \neq 0$, and $f_{\alpha}(0, 0) \neq 0$. Then $y^* = f(y, \alpha)$ is topologically equivalent to $x^* = \alpha + \sigma x^2$ as given above.

Aside: What is structure of fold bifurcation.



Proof of Theorem:

- Idea:
- 1) Map parameters: Shift to match maxima of y^* vs y .
 - 2) Scale variables: Turn into parabola
 - 3) Rescale time to normal form.

Wish to find $y = Y(a)$ so that $f_y(Y(a), a) = 0$. We know $Y(0) = 0$ as $f_y(0, 0) = 0$. Will use implicit function theorem. $f_y(Y(a), a) \xrightarrow{\partial/\partial a|_{a=0}}$ $f_{yy}(0, 0)Y'(0) + f_{ya}(0, 0) = 0$. Since $f_{yy}(0, 0) \neq 0$ by our supposition, by the implicit function theorem, $Y(a)$ exists locally around $a = 0$.

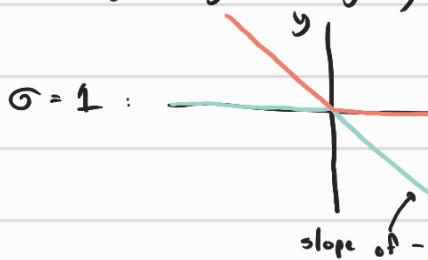
2/27/23: Proof continuation:

We know there exists $Y(a)$, solutions to $y' = f(y, a)$ around $a = 0$. Now, recall $x^2 - a + \sigma x^\sigma = F(x, a)$ ($\sigma = \pm 1$). By what we've shown, letting $z = Y(a)$, $z' = f(Y(a), a) = b + G_2(b)z^2 + G_3(b)z^3 + \dots =: G(z, b)$. And now, we wish to show that \exists a transformation $z = h(x) := \alpha(b) + \beta(b)x$ such that $G(z, b) = F(x, a) = a + \sigma x^\sigma$. We know that \exists a root $F(x=r, a=-\sigma r^\sigma) = (-\sigma r^\sigma) + \sigma(r)^\sigma = 0$. So letting $z=x$, $b = -\sigma x^\sigma$ is a point where $G(z, b) = F(x, a)$. Using implicit function theorem, we need $\frac{\partial}{\partial b} G(z(b), b) = 0$ at $b = -\sigma x^\sigma$, $z = x$. $\frac{\partial}{\partial b} G(z(b), b) = \frac{\partial G}{\partial b} + \frac{\partial G}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial b} = (1 + G'_2(b)z^2 + G'_3(b)z^3 + \dots) + (\partial G_2(b)z + 3G_3(b)z^2 + \dots)(\alpha'(b) + \beta'(b)x)$ which can be solved via power series. Alternatively, we write it as so: $z^2 = G(z, b)$, $z = \alpha(b) + \beta(b)x$, we want $\beta(b)x^2 = F(x, b)$. Since $F(r, -\sigma r^\sigma) = 0$, $F(x, b) = (b + \sigma x^\sigma)R(x, b)$, so letting $M(x, b) = R(x, b)/\beta(b)$, we have $x^2 = M(b, x)(b + \sigma x^\sigma)$, which is equal to the normal form with a scaled time (provided M positive).

3/1/23:

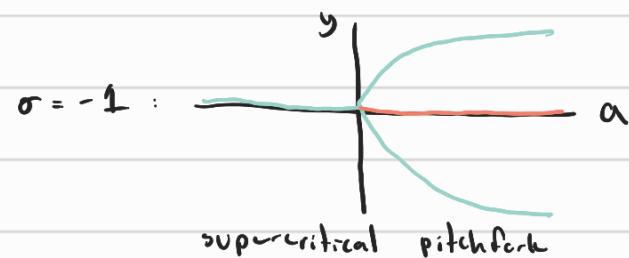
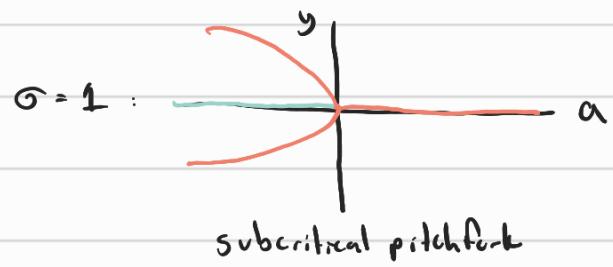
Other things we can show

1) $x' = ax + x^2g(x, a)$, $g(0, 0) \neq 0$ can be reduced to a normal form
 $\Rightarrow y' = ay + \sigma y^2$, $\sigma \in \pm 1$. Transcritical bifurcation



2) $x' = ax + x^3g(x, a)$, $g(0, 0) \neq 0$ has a normal form of
 $\Rightarrow y' = ay + \sigma y^3$, $\sigma \in \pm 1$

Pitchfork Bifurcation



What is the normal form for a Hopf Bifurcation?

$$\text{Begin w/ } \begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & -\omega \\ \omega & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} f(x,y) \\ g(x,y) \end{pmatrix} \text{ where } f(x,y), g(x,y) \text{ have trivial linearizations.}$$

Second, we wish to express this system w/ a complex variable. What are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors?

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} a-\lambda & -\omega \\ \omega & a-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = (a-\lambda)^2 + \omega^2 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = a \pm i\omega.$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -i\omega & -\omega \\ \omega & -i\omega \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \vec{0} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{v}_2 = \vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Make the transformation $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \vec{v}_1 z + \vec{v}_2 \bar{z}$,

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \vec{v}_1 z + \vec{v}_2 \bar{z} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x = iz - \bar{z} \\ y = z + \bar{z} \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow z = \frac{y}{2} + i \frac{x}{2}$$

giving us

$$z' = \frac{\omega x + ay + g(x,y)}{2} - i \frac{ax - \omega y + f(x,y)}{2} = (a + i\Omega)z + h(z, \bar{z}).$$

We now wish to have a change of variables

$$z = w + h_{20}w^2 + h_{11}w\bar{w} + h_{02}\bar{w}^2 \Rightarrow w' = (a + i\Omega)w + g(w, \bar{w})$$

where $g = O(v^3)$. How to invert this to $w = w(z)$. Do this in Maple.

Will find $w = z - h_{20}z^2 - h_{11}z\bar{z} - h_{02}\bar{z}^2 + O(z^3)$.

Well, $w' = z' - 2h_{20}zz' - h_{11}z'\bar{z} - h_{11}z\bar{z}' - 2h_{02}\bar{z}\bar{z}'$

which we plug in to the change of variables and solve s.t. all h coefficients are 0. Then $w' = (a + i\Omega)w + g(w, \bar{w})$ where g is cubic. Continue w/ another change of variables to remove cubic, and continue to remove all higher order terms.

End up w/ normal form for Hopf Bifurcation:

$$\omega' = \lambda w \pm \frac{1}{2} w^2 \bar{w}$$

3/3/23:

Hopf Bifurcation Theorem: Given a system of ODEs $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$, written as a Taylor's series $u' = Au + \mu Bu + O(u^2)$, where the eigenvalues of A are purely imaginary, then there exists a continuation of solutions for $\mu > 0$ or $\mu < 0$

3/13/23:

Van der Pol: $u'' - au' + u + u^2u'' + bu^3 = 0$

linearized: $u'' - au' + u = 0$

For $a < 0$, $u=0$ is stable, for $a > 0$, $u=0$ is unstable

Maple: 1) Set up full Van der Pol eqn

2) Let $a = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_j \varepsilon^j$

3) Let $\omega = 1 + \sum_{j \geq 1} \omega_j \varepsilon^j$, ω change of timescale

4) Let $u = \sum_{j \geq 1} u_j \varepsilon^j$, define u' , u'' accordingly

5) No order 1 terms

6) $O(\varepsilon)$: $u_1'' + u_2 = 0 \rightarrow u_2 = \alpha e^{it} + \beta e^{-it}$, note that $\alpha = \bar{\beta}$ for $u(t)$ to be real

7) $O(\varepsilon^2)$: $u_2'' + u_3 = a_1(i\alpha e^{it} - i\beta e^{-it}) + 2(\alpha e^{it} + \beta e^{-it})\omega_1$. To

eliminate secular terms, $a_1 = \omega_1 = 0$, and no need to include higher order periodicity, so take $u_0 = 0$

8) $O(\varepsilon^3)$ fairly complicated, subs ($t = \log(q)/I$, eq 3) changes $e^{it} \rightarrow q$ and $e^{-it} \rightarrow \frac{1}{q}$, $e^{2it} = q^2$. We then have to remove terms of the forms q^1, q^{-1} to avoid secular terms. Also eventually find $\alpha = c + O_i$,
so $\beta = c - O_i = c$.

9) $u = 2c \sin(t) + \varepsilon^2 c^2 + O(\varepsilon^3) \Rightarrow$ Hopf Bifurcation to right

We know what the stable and unstable manifolds are. What about the eigenspaces associated with $\text{Re}(\lambda) = 0$? If $n_0 > 0$.

The center manifold is an invariant manifold locally tangent to the eigenspace of $\text{Re}(\lambda) = 0$.

Ex: $x' = xy + x^3$
 $y' = -y - 2x^2$, $J(0,0) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{array}{l} n_+ = 0 \\ n_0 = 1 \\ n_- = -1 \end{array}$$

3/15/23: (continue above example)

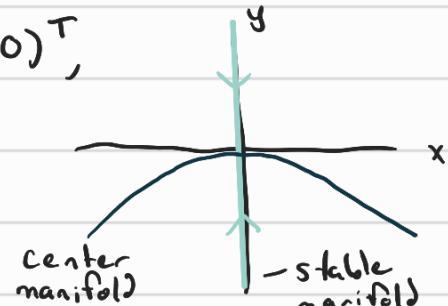
Note that if $y=0$, $x'=x^3$, suggesting the origin is unstable (incorrect).

So $y=0$ is not the center manifold. We know that the center manifold must be locally tangent to $(1,0)^T$,

so have $Y(x) = a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \dots$

To satisfy the ODE,

$$(-2-a_2)x^2 - a_3 x^3 - \dots = -Y(x) - 2x^2 = y' = Y'(x)x'$$



$$\begin{aligned} &= (\partial a_2 x + 3a_2 x^2 + \dots)(x(a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \dots) + x^3) \\ &= (\partial a_2 + a_2)x^3 + (\partial a_2 a_3 + 3a_2 a_3 + 3a_3)x^4 + O(x^5) \end{aligned}$$

$$-2 - a_2 = 0 \Rightarrow a_2 = -2,$$

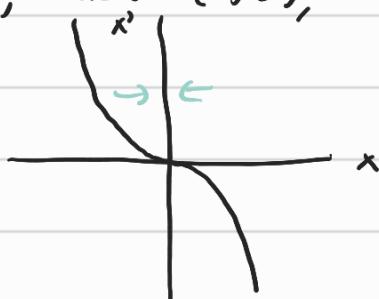
$$-a_3 = 2a_2^2 + a_2 = 8 - 2 = 6 \Rightarrow a_3 = -6$$

$$-a_4 = 2a_2 a_3 + 3a_2 a_3 + 3a_3 = 24 + 36 - 18 = 42 \Rightarrow a_4 = -42.$$

I.e., the center manifold has the form (locally)

$$Y(x) = -2x^2 - 6x^3 - 42x^4 + O(x^5)$$

And on this manifold, near $(0,0)$, $x' = -x^3 + O(x^4)$



So while the Jacobian approximated local instability, it is in fact locally stable.

$$\text{In general: } \begin{aligned} u' &= \frac{1}{2}\sigma u^2 + u \langle b, v \rangle + \frac{1}{6} \delta u^3, \quad u \in \mathbb{R}, v, b \in \mathbb{R}^k \\ v' &= Cv + \frac{1}{2}au^2 + \dots \end{aligned}, \quad C \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}, \text{ invertible.}$$

Center manifold like $V(u) = a_2 u^2 + a_3 u^3 + \dots$, $a_2, a_3, \dots \in \mathbb{R}^k$.

$$\begin{aligned} V'(u)u' &= V'(u)\left(\frac{1}{2}\sigma u^2 + u \langle b, V(u) \rangle + \frac{1}{6} \delta u^3 + \dots\right) \\ &= v' = CV(u) + \frac{1}{2}au^2 \end{aligned}$$

Can use ODE theory to see if soln exists, and power series methods to find a local solution.

Power series tells us

- > $Ca_2 + \frac{1}{2}a = 0 \Rightarrow a_2 = -\frac{1}{2}C^{-1}a$
- > this tells us nature of u' locally
- > can continue

What if there is a parameter?

Ex: $\begin{aligned} x' &= \alpha + xy + x^3 \\ y' &= -y - 2x^2 \\ \alpha' &= 0 \end{aligned}$ The secret to this problem is to include an additional parameter. Then search for manifold $\gamma = f(x, \alpha)$.

Gives us the Jacobian

$$J(0, 0, 0) = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ associated w/ $\lambda = 0$

$$\gamma(x, \alpha) = a_1 x \alpha + a_2 x^2 + a_3 \alpha^2 + \dots$$

$$\text{Then set up } y' = \gamma_x(x, \alpha)x' + \gamma_\alpha(x, \alpha)\alpha' = \gamma_x(x, \alpha)x'$$

$$a_1 x \alpha + a_2 x^2 + a_3 \alpha^2 + \dots = (a_1 \alpha + 2a_2 x + \dots)(\alpha + x\gamma_x(x) + x^3)$$

and solve in say Maple.

Consider $x' = Ax + F(x) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. And $Aq = 0$, $A^T p = 0$, $\langle q, p \rangle = 1$.

Let $u = \langle p, x \rangle$, and $y = x - \langle p, x \rangle q \Rightarrow x = uq + y$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } u' &= \langle p, x' \rangle = \langle p, Ax \rangle + \langle p, F(x) \rangle \\ &= \langle p, Ay \rangle + \langle p, F(uq + y) \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Then } y' = Ay - F(uq + y) - \langle p, F(uq + y) \rangle$$

3/17/23:

$$\text{Ex: } u''' + au'' + bu' + u - u^2 = 0.$$

There exist 2 steady states: $u \equiv 0$, and $u \equiv 1$.

Linearizing about $u=0$, $u''' + au'' + bu' + u = 0$.

So looking for c.v.s., $\lambda^3 + a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + 1 = 0$,

$$\text{let } \lambda = i\omega \quad : \quad -i\omega^3 - a\omega^2 + ib\omega + 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow b = \omega^2, \quad a = \frac{1}{\omega^2}, \quad \text{so } ab = 1.$$

We then change time, $c\omega t = \tau$, set $b = c = \omega^2$,

set $a = \frac{1}{\omega^2}(1+\delta) = \frac{1}{c}(1+\delta)$, to calculate perturbations

in a .

3/20/23: Homoclinic Bifurcations

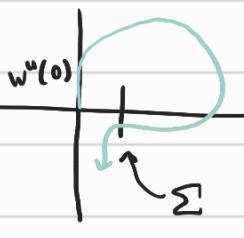
A homoclinic connection is one s.t. $\phi^t x \rightarrow x_0$ as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$. A heteroclinic connection is one s.t. $\phi^t x \rightarrow x_0$ as $t \rightarrow -\infty$, and $\phi^t x \rightarrow x_1$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

Heteroclinic

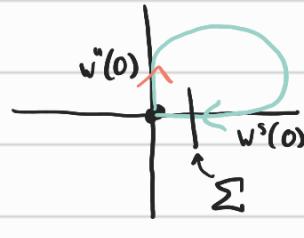
Homoclinic



In 2-dimensions, a homoclinic orbit is structurally unstable.

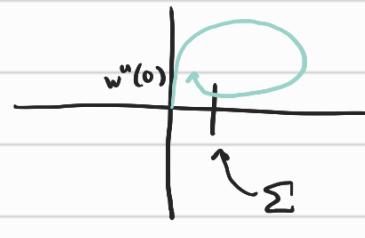


change
params



$a = 0$

change
params



$a > 0$

Define $\beta = \beta(a)$ to be the y coord where the flow intersects Σ . This is called a split function. We wish to turn this into a

Poincaré map.

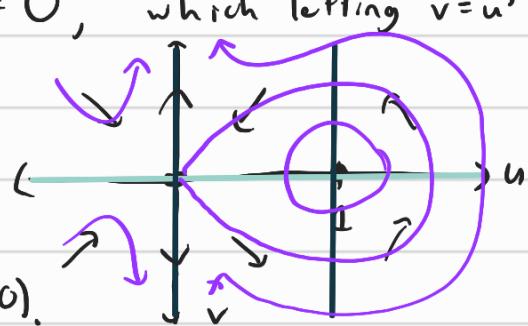
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Hopf Bifurcation: $\text{Re}(\lambda) = 0$, there must be a branch of periodic solns.

Global Hopf Thm: Hopf curves cannot simply end, they can either go to another Hopf point, or the solution becomes unbounded in its amplitude or period

Ex: $u'' + u(u-1) + au' + bu^3u' = 0$, a and b "small".

First, suppose $a=b=0$, then $u'' + u(u-1) = 0$, which letting $v=u'$ yields $u^2 = v$, $v^2 = -u(u-1)$. Thru linearizing, $u=0$ a saddle, $u=1$ a center.



Perturbing a changes the stability of $(1,0)$.

Introduce small scaling ϵ s.t. $a \mapsto \epsilon a$, $b \mapsto \epsilon b$, wish to perturb homoclinic orbit. Let $u = u_0 + \epsilon u_1 + \dots$, u_0 is the homoclinic orbit satisfying $u_0'' + u_0(u_0-1) = 0$. Now,

$$O(\epsilon): u_1'' + (2u_0 - 1)u_1 + au_0' + bu_0^3u_0'.$$

Where we have a linearized operator $Lu = u'' + (2u_0(x) - 1)u$. Need to solve $Lu = -au_0 - bu_0^3u_0'$, use Fredholm Alternative Theorem.

Working in $L^2(-\infty, \infty)$, L a Sturm-Liouville operator, what is the nullspace?

Can show u_0' is in L 's nullspace. (Let $u_0 = u_0(x+\phi)$ as solutions of $\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}: u'' + u^2 - u = 0 \Rightarrow u_\phi'' + 2uu_\phi - u_\phi = 0$ homoclinics can be shifted)

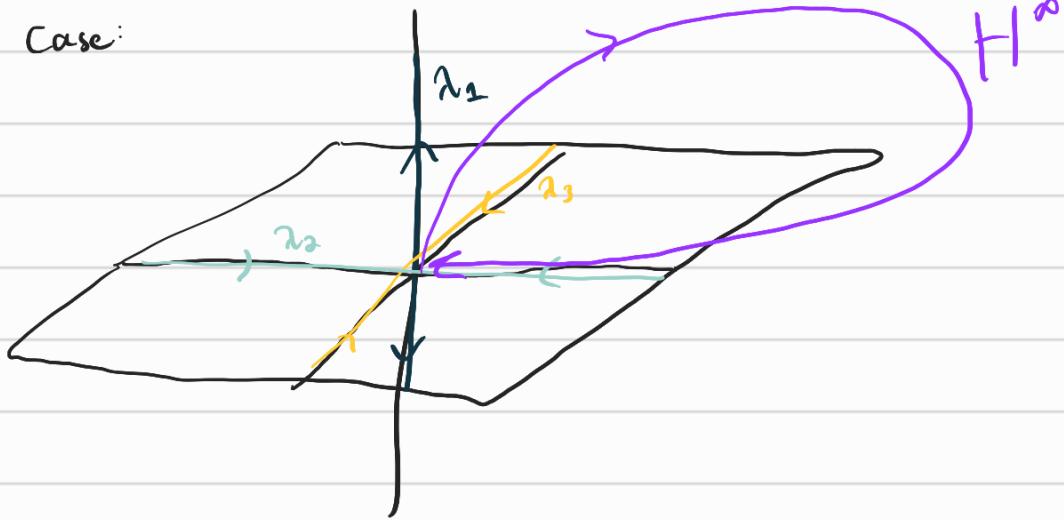
$$\begin{aligned} &\Rightarrow u_\phi'' + (2u - 1)u_\phi = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow Lu_\phi = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Kerner: Solution to $u_0(t) = \frac{3}{2} \operatorname{sech}^2(t/2)$. In Maple, set up right hand side as $R := -au_0 - bu_0^3u_0'$. Since u_0' is the nullspace, set v_p in maple as $\text{int}(R * u_0', t = -\infty.. \infty)$ which must be zero, yields $\frac{49ab}{385} + \frac{6a}{5}$, setting this equal to zero yields curve in (a,b) space where \exists homoclinics.

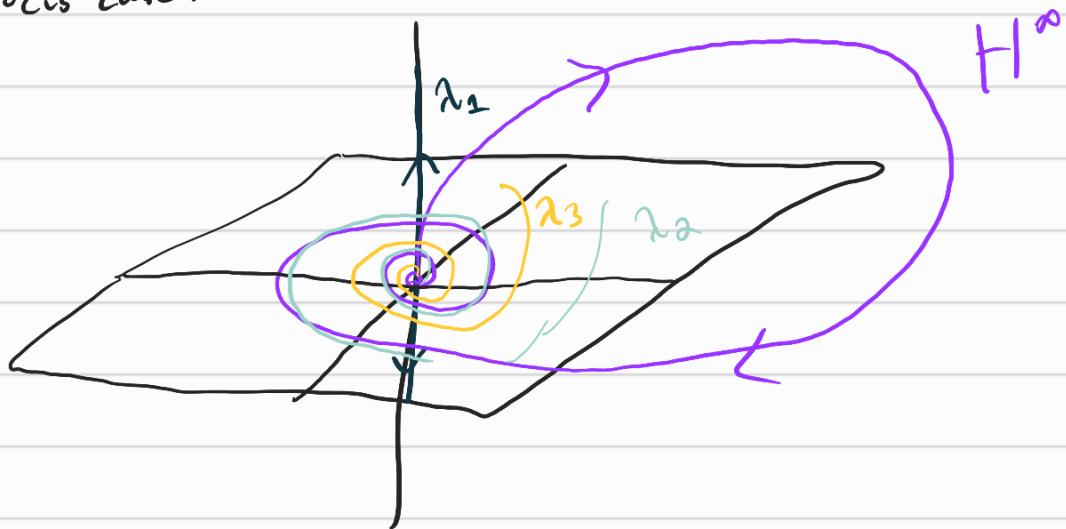
3/27/23:

Consider $x' = f(x, a)$, with $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$, $f(x_0, a) = 0 \forall a$, with x_0 hyperbolic, a saddle point. We assume $n_+ = 1$, $n_- = 2$. If not, we reverse time. VLOG, consider $\operatorname{Re}(\lambda_3) < \operatorname{Re}(\lambda_2) < 0 < \operatorname{Re}(\lambda_1)$. So in the stable manifold, λ_3 eigenspace is "faster", so λ_3 the principal eigenvalue as values get pushed quickly to λ_2 eigenspace. Now, assume/consider a homoclinic orbit, H^∞ , see below

Saddle case:

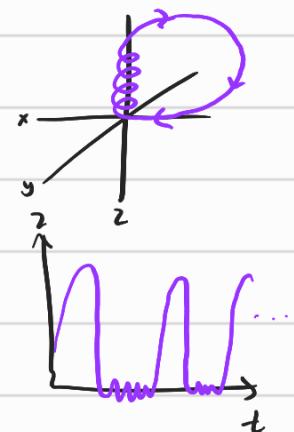


Saddle-focus case:



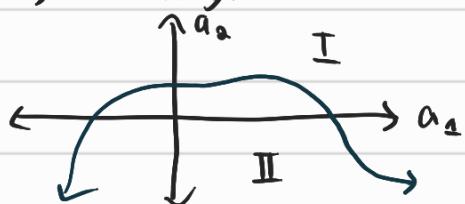
Define the saddle quantity $\sigma_0 = \operatorname{Re}(\lambda_1) + \operatorname{Re}(\lambda_2)$. Recall the splitting parameter β . Now, perturb param α .

	saddle ($\operatorname{Im}(\lambda_i) = 0$)	saddle-focus
$\sigma_0 > 0$	unique stable periodic orbit w/ $\beta > 0$	unique stable periodic orbit w/ $\beta > 0$
$\sigma_0 < 0$	unique saddle cycle (cycle is not "fully" attracting)	infinite number of saddle cycles



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We will now discuss codimension 2 bifurcations. First, recall codimension 1 means that in parameter space, a single line divides behavior



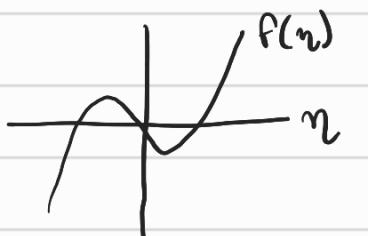
\Rightarrow Ex: Fold bifurcation $x^2 = a + \sigma x^2$. Only one equilibria for $a=0$, two for $\text{sign}(a) \neq \text{sign}(\sigma)$, zero for $\text{sign}(a) = \text{sign}(\sigma) \neq 0$.

Cusp Bifurcation: $x^2 = f(x, \alpha)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^1$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^a$, and normalize s.t. $f(0, 0) = 0$. And assume that $f_x(0, 0) = 0$, $f_{xx}(0, 0) = 0$, and $f_{xxx}(0, 0) \neq 0$. So about $x=0$,

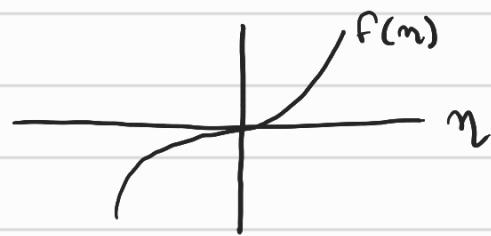
$$f(x, \alpha) = 0 + O_x + O_{x^2} + f_3(\alpha)x^3 + O(x^4).$$

You can show, \exists a smooth change of variables to arrive at the normal form for the cusp bifurcation.

$$\eta' = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \eta + \sigma \eta^3, \quad \sigma = \pm 1$$



$$\beta_1 = 0, \beta_2 < 0$$



$$\beta_1 = 0, \beta_2 \geq 0$$

and perturbing β_1 shifts the curve upwards and downwards.

Roots occur where $\beta_1 + \beta_2 \eta + \sigma \eta^3 = 0$,

double roots when $\beta_2 + 3\sigma \eta^2 = 0$

Using the resultant, simultaneous roots when $\sigma^2(4\beta_2^3 - 27\beta_1^2) = 0$

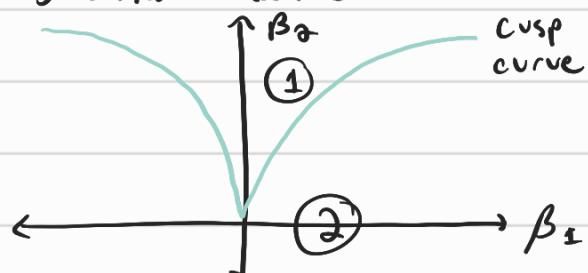
This curve has a cusp due to cube and squares.

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Now, consider \mathbb{R}^n . Consider origin is an equilibrium point with $n_0 = 1$, and $n_- + n_+ = n-1$. The normal form looks like:

$$\begin{cases} \eta' = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \eta \pm \eta^3 & \text{along center manifold} \\ \xi'_- = -\xi_- & \text{along stable manifold} \\ \xi'_+ = \xi_+ & \text{along unstable manifold} \end{cases}$$

Recall, cusp is $4\beta_2^3 - 27\beta_1^2 = 0$



At the origin, $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$, $\eta^2 = \pm \eta^3$, a degenerate repeated, single equilibrium point at $\eta = 0$. Not structurally stable. In region ①, 3 steady states, origin changes stability. In region 2, one equilibrium point, same stability as original origin.

Ex: $\sigma = +1$



Now, consider the Bautin bifurcation, a degenerate Hopf bifurcation. Consider $z' = (\lambda + i)z + l_1(a)z|z|^2$.

What happens when $l_1(a) = 0$? Must go to higher order

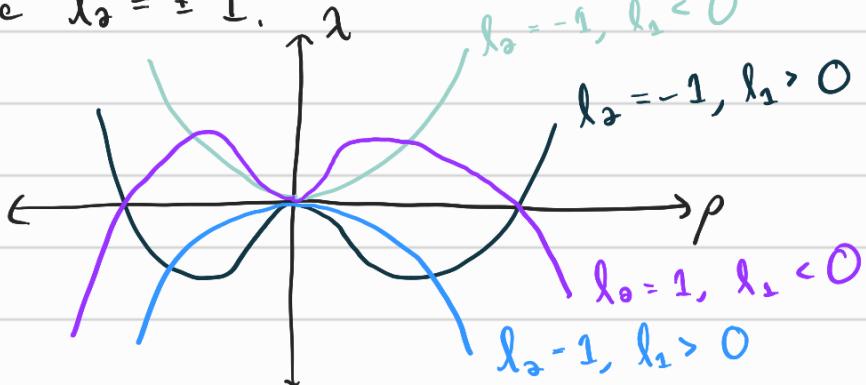
$$z' = (\lambda + i)z + l_1(a)z|z|^2 + l_2 z|z|^4.$$

We convert to polar coordinates, let $z = \rho e^{i\theta}$. Then $z' = \rho' e^{i\theta} + i\theta' \rho e^{i\theta}$. Solving for ρ' :

$$\rho' = \lambda\rho + l_1\rho^3 + l_2\rho^5.$$

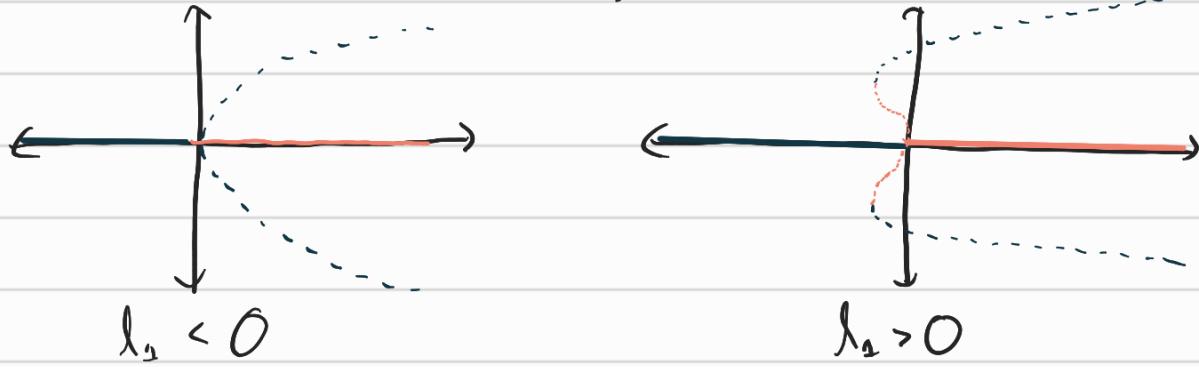
Solve for equilibria: $\rho = 0$, $\lambda = -l_1\rho^2 - l_2\rho^4$.

WLOG, can take $l_2 = \pm 1$.



We see there is either 0 or 2 equilibria (real). Flipping axes reveals periodic solutions, Hopf curves.

Fixing $\lambda_2 = -1$, $\lambda_1 < 0$ incurs a supercritical Hopf. Then $\lambda_1 > 0$ incurs a SNP, subcritical, turns to saddle node periodic, to stable periodic.



Now, we will talk about the Takens-Bogdanov Bifurcation.

Consider a linearization of a 2D system with linearization

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \text{Note: } 0 \text{ is a double eigenvalue.}$$

Consider a 2D center manifold (can have \mathbb{R}^n with stable & unstable)

Takens system:
$$\begin{cases} \eta_1' = \eta_2 + \beta_2 \eta_2 + \eta_2^2 \\ \eta_2' = \beta_1 + s\eta_2 \end{cases} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \eta_1' = \eta_2 \\ \eta_2' = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \eta_2 + \eta_2^2 + s\eta_1 \eta_2 \end{array} \right\} s \in \pm 1.$$

Bogdanov system:
$$\begin{cases} \eta_1' = \eta_2 \\ \eta_2' = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \eta_2 + \eta_2^2 + s\eta_1 \eta_2 \end{cases}$$

Takens system has steady states at $\eta_2 = \pm \sqrt{\frac{\beta_2}{s}}$, 2, 1, or 0 based on sign of s and value of β_2 .

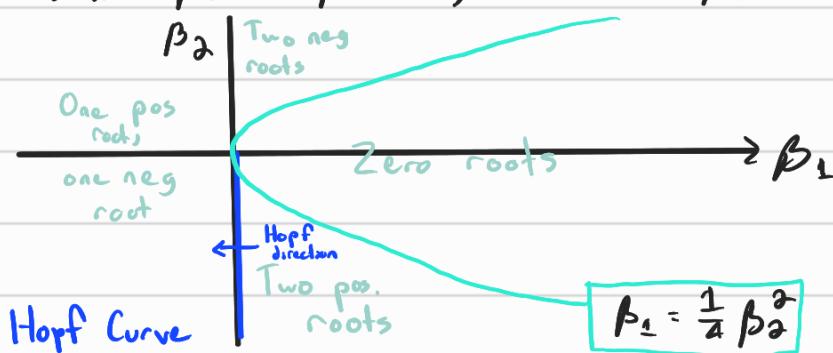
Bogdanov system has steady states at $\eta_2 = 0$, $\beta_1 + \beta_2 \eta_2 + \eta_2^2 = 0$, again, 2, 1, or 0. In both cases, fold bifurcations.

We will take s to be -1 wlog, as otherwise can reverse time, shift params.

Look at Bogdanov equation.

$$\beta_1 + \beta_2 \eta_2 + \eta_2^2 = 0 \Rightarrow \eta_2 = \frac{-\beta_1 \pm \sqrt{\beta_2^2 - 4\beta_1}}{2}$$

So 2 solns if $\beta_2^2 - 4\beta_1 > 0$, 1 if $\beta_2^2 - 4\beta_1 = 0$, 0 otherwise.



$$\beta_1 = \frac{1}{2} \beta_2^2$$

Can show analytically when $\beta_2 < 0$, crossing $\beta_2 = 0$ results in a Hopf Bifurcation.

4/5/23: Can compute (still taking $s = -1$)

$$J(\eta_1, \eta_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \beta_2 + 2\eta_1 + s\eta_2 & -\eta_1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

At $(0,0)$, characteristic eqn is $\lambda^2 - \beta_2 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = \pm \sqrt{\beta_2}$, purely imaginary when $\beta_2 < 0$, $\beta_1 = 0$. Steady state always at $\eta_2 = 0$, so, characteristic eqn otherwise

$$(-\lambda)(-\eta_1 - \lambda) - (\beta_2 + 2\eta_1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 + \eta_1 \lambda - (\beta_2 + 2\eta_1) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \lambda &= \frac{\eta_1 \pm \sqrt{\eta_1^2 + 4(\beta_2 + 2\eta_1)}}{2(\beta_2 + 2\eta_1)} \\ &= \frac{\eta_1 \pm \sqrt{\eta_1^2 + 8\eta_1 + 4\beta_2}}{2(\beta_2 + 2\eta_1)} \end{aligned}$$

which has real part if $\eta_1 \neq 0$. $\eta_2, \beta_2 > 0 \Rightarrow$ real opposite sign.

When $\eta_1 < 0$, real part $\rightarrow \pm \infty$ when $\beta_2 \rightarrow -2\eta_1 > 0$. Real part positive when $\beta_2 < -2\eta_1 = \beta_2 \pm \sqrt{\beta_2^2 - 4\beta_1} \Rightarrow 0 < \pm \sqrt{\beta_2^2 - 4\beta_1}$, so one stable, one unstable when 2 equilibria.

In Maple, set up eqn, set $a = \beta_1$, $\overbrace{b^2 = -\beta_2}$, and scale time $t \mapsto ct$. Then, fix b , vary a to find periodic solutions. Can solve that the Hopf opens to the left.

4/7/23:

We now wish to find the homoclinic bifurcation where the set of periodic solutions disappear. Recall

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\eta}_2 = \eta_2 \\ \dot{\eta}_1 = \beta_2 + \beta_2 \eta_1 + \eta_1^2 - \eta_1 \eta_2. \end{cases}$$

Takens-Bogdanov

Define $m^\pm = \frac{-\beta_2 \pm \sqrt{\beta_2^2 - 4\beta_1}}{2\beta_2}$, and perform the change of variables $\xi_1 = \eta_1 - m^-$, $\xi_2 = \eta_2$.

Then we get the system

$$\dot{\xi}_1' = \dot{\xi}_2,$$

$$\dot{\xi}_2' = \beta_1 + \beta_2(\xi_2 + \eta^-) + (\xi_1 + \eta^-)^2 - (\xi_1 + \eta^-)\xi_2.$$

The system is shifted so always has root at 0. The other root is $r = \sqrt{\beta_2^2 - 4\beta_1}$. Now, rescale so other root is at 1, let $\tilde{\xi}_1 = rx$, $\tilde{\xi}_2 = \gamma y$, $t = s\tau$,

$$\frac{dx}{d\tau} = s \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{s\gamma}{r} y, \quad \text{we'll choose } \frac{s\gamma}{r} = 1$$

$$\frac{dy}{d\tau} = s \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{s}{\gamma} \frac{d\xi_2}{dt} = \frac{s}{\gamma} \left(r^2(x-1)x + \gamma y(rx + \eta^-) \right)$$

So, choosing s, γ properly, we get

$$\frac{dx}{d\tau} = y, \quad \frac{dy}{d\tau} = (x-1)x - sy(rx + \eta^-).$$

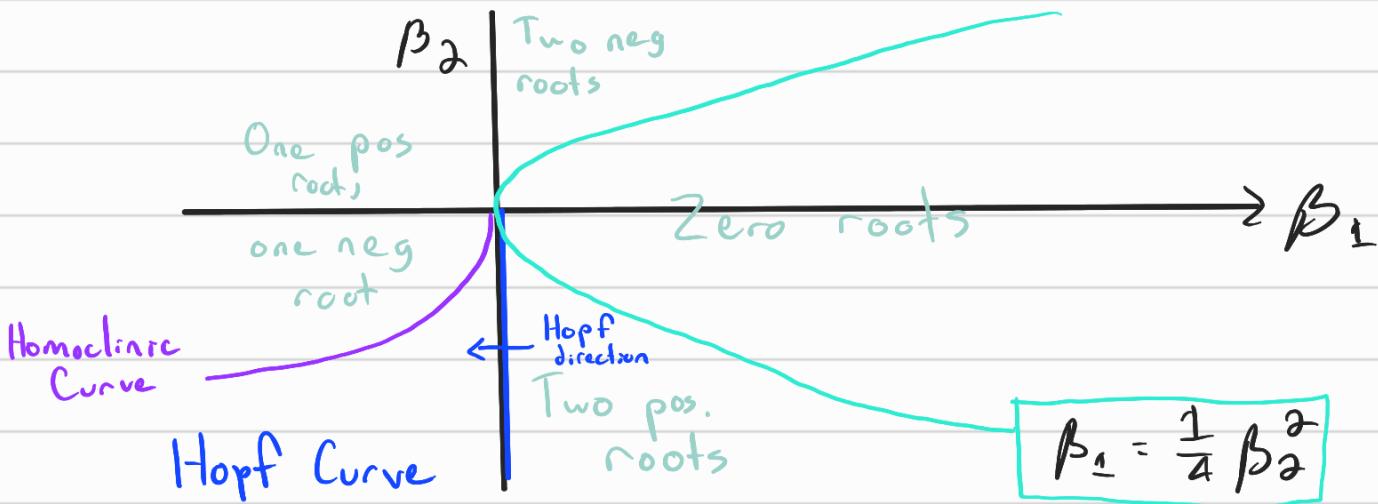
Now, how do we find the homoclinic orbit? Let $\varepsilon_1 = sr$, and $\varepsilon_2 = s\eta^-$. Can rewrite as:

$$x'' + (1-x)x + x'(\varepsilon_1 x + \varepsilon_2) = 0.$$

Let $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_{12}$, $\varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_{22}$, invoke FAT and find that solutions exist if $a_1 + 7a_2 = 0$. Converting back,

$$r + 7\eta^- = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{5}{2}r + \frac{7}{2}\beta_2 = 0 \Rightarrow 5\sqrt{\beta_2^2 - 4\beta_1} + 7\beta_2 = 0$$

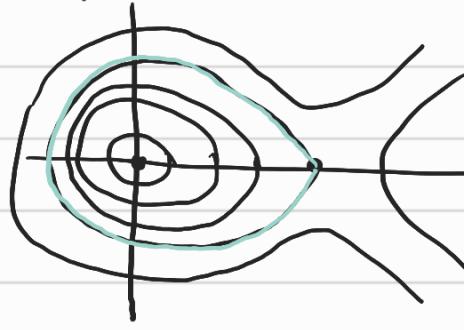
$\Rightarrow \beta_1 = \frac{-6}{25}\beta_2^2$, the homoclinic curve in β_1, β_2 space.



Reminder, we had the base problem $x'' + x(1-x) = 0$

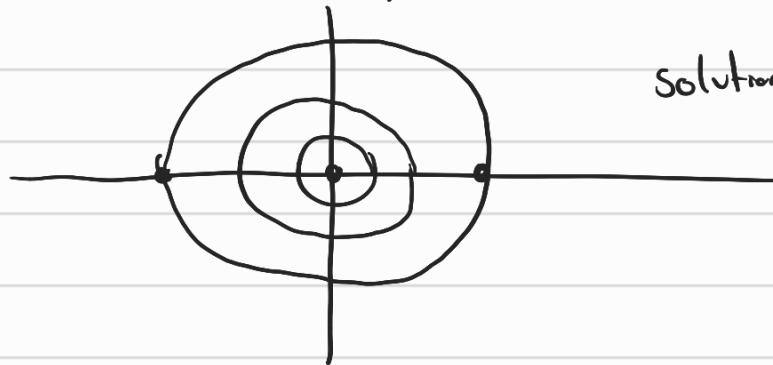
which has phase plane.

We then perturbed it in a special way to preserve the homoclinic orbit.



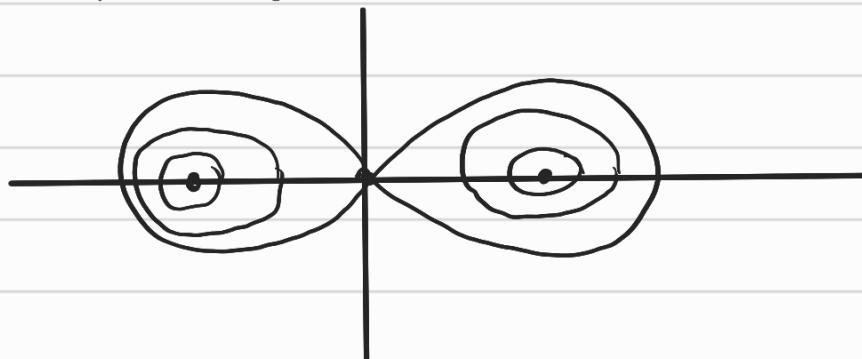
solutions like
 $x(t) = \tanh^{\alpha}(t)$.

Heteroclinic orbits can show up w/ $x'' + x(1-x^2) = 0$



solutions like
 $x(t) = \tanh(t)$

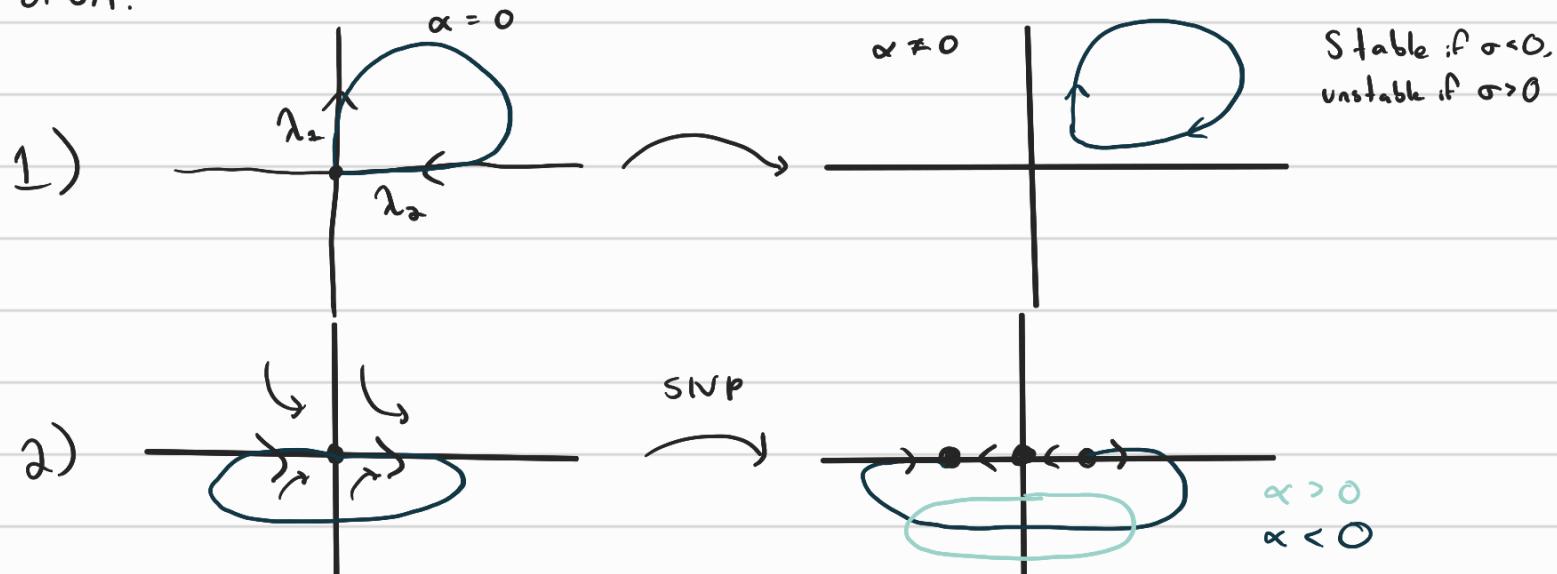
Similarly for $x'' - x(1-x^2)$



4/10/23:

Digression into homoclinic bifurcation:

Recall saddle quantity $\sigma = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$ for a saddle point with a homoclinic orbit.



4/12/23:

E_x: Bazykin Equations: Predator-prey model

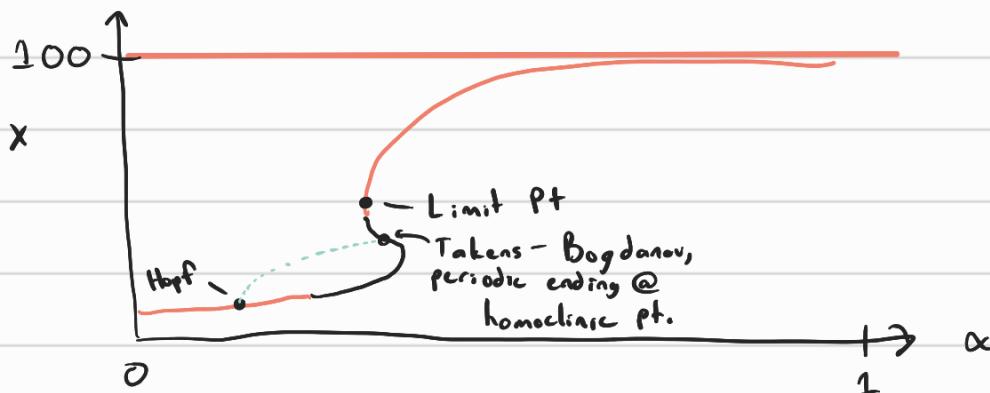
$$\dot{x} = x - \frac{xy}{1+\alpha x} - \varepsilon x^2 \quad \text{— Prey}$$

$$\dot{y} = -\gamma y + \frac{xy}{1+\alpha x} - \delta y^2 \quad \text{— Predator}$$

Note: $x - \varepsilon x^2$ yields logistic growth in x , $\frac{xy}{1+\alpha x}$ yields predation, denominator says predation saturates for large x .
 $-\gamma y - \delta y^2 = -\gamma(1+\delta y)$ yields

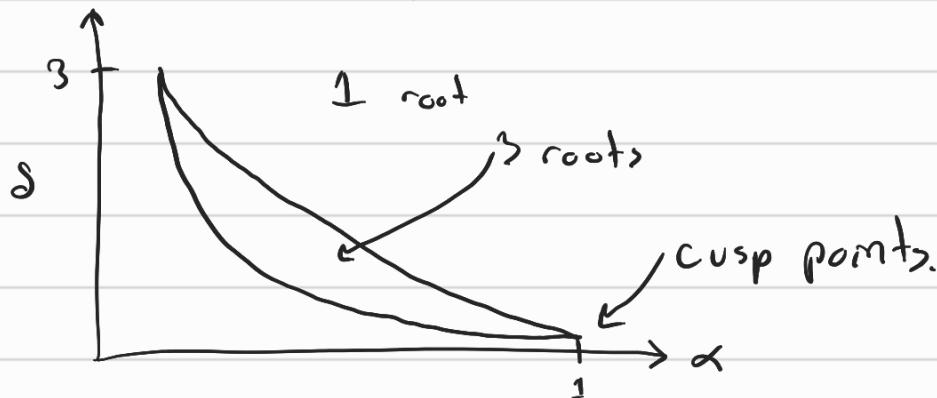
Steady states @ $(0,0)$, $(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}, 0)$, and (x^*, y^*) w/ both positive (\exists a negative y steady state too, ignore). Now, we'll look for bifurcations.

XPP: Initialize $\alpha = 0.05$, $\delta = 0.17$, $\gamma = 1.0$, $\varepsilon = 0.01$, $x(0) = y(0) = 1$.

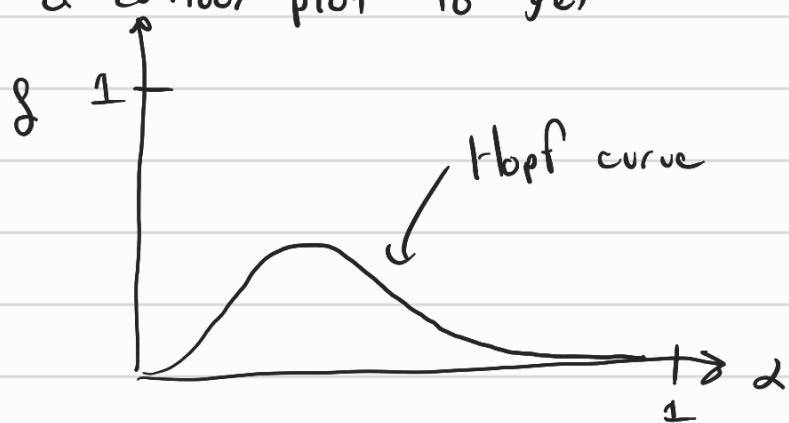


Maple: Find Jacobian, set trace=0, need determinant > 0 along steady states by $y = \text{solve}(\partial_x, y)$, and factor (∂_x) which reveals a cubic in x and $x = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$. Find repeated roots of the cubic thru the resultant. We substitute $\gamma = 1$, and let $\varepsilon = 0.01$, then you get an expression in terms of α, δ .

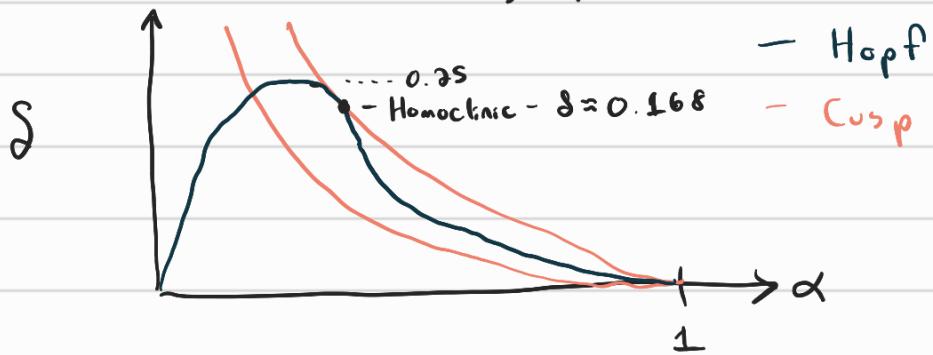
Use a contourplot



Set $nTr = \text{numer}(\text{Trace})$, then we take the resultant of nTr , and cubic polynomial. Again, substitute $\gamma=1$, $\epsilon=0.01$, and take a contour plot to get



Kerner copied both into Matlab, put both on same plot



In XPP, increasing $\delta = 0.22$ results in two Hopf points, curves go from one to another.