

## Discrete-time population growth models

## Discrete-time systems

In continuous-time models  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Another way to model natural phenomena is to consider equations of the form

$$x_{t+1} = f(x_t),$$

where  $t \in \mathbb{N}$  or  $\mathbb{Z}$ , that is,  $t$  takes values in a discrete valued (countable) set

Time could for example be days, years, etc.

Suppose we have a system in the form

$$x_{t+1} = f(x_t),$$

with initial condition given for  $t = 0$  by  $x_0$ . Then,

$$x_1 = f(x_0)$$

$$x_2 = f(x_1) = f(f(x_0)) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} f^2(x_0)$$

⋮

$$x_k = f^k(x_0).$$

The  $f^k = \underbrace{f \circ f \circ \cdots \circ f}_{k \text{ times}}$  are called the **iterates** of  $f$ .

## Fixed points

### Definition (Fixed point)

Let  $f$  be a function. A point  $p$  such that  $f(p) = p$  is called a **fixed point** of  $f$ .

Indeed, if  $f(p) = p$ , then

$$f(p) = p$$

$$f(f(p)) = f(p) = p$$

$$f(f(f(p))) = f(p) = p$$

⋮

$$f^k(p) = p \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$$

so the system is *fixed* (stuck) at  $p..$

### Theorem

*Consider the closed interval  $I = [a, b]$ . If  $f : I \rightarrow I$  is continuous, then  $f$  has a fixed point in  $I$ .*

### Theorem

*Let  $I$  be a closed interval and  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. If  $f(I) \supseteq I$ , then  $f$  has a fixed point in  $I$ .*

## Periodic points

### Definition (Periodic point)

Let  $f$  be a function. If there exists a point  $p$  and an integer  $n$  such that

$$f^n(p) = p, \quad \text{but} \quad f^k(p) \neq p \text{ for } k < n,$$

then  $p$  is a periodic point of  $f$  with (least) period  $n$  (or a  $n$ -periodic point of  $f$ ).

Thus,  $p$  is a  $n$ -periodic point of  $f$  iff  $p$  is a 1-periodic point of  $f^n$ .

# Stability of fixed points, of periodic points

## Theorem

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuously differentiable function (that is, differentiable with continuous derivative, or  $C^1$ ), and  $p$  be a fixed point of  $f$ .

1. If  $|f'(p)| < 1$ , then there is an open interval  $\mathcal{I} \ni p$  such that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^k(x) = p$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{I}$ .
2. If  $|f'(p)| > 1$ , then there is an open interval  $\mathcal{I} \ni p$  such that if  $x \in \mathcal{I}, x \neq p$ , then there exists  $k$  such that  $f^k(x) \notin \mathcal{I}$ .

## Definition

Suppose that  $p$  is a  $n$ -periodic point of  $f$ , with  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \in C^1$ .

- ▶ If  $|(f^n)'(p)| < 1$ , then  $p$  is an **attracting** periodic point of  $f$ .
- ▶ If  $|(f^n)'(p)| > 1$ , then  $p$  is an **repelling** periodic point of  $f$ .

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## Known for

*Simple mathematical models with very complicated dynamics*  
(Nature, 1976)

## The logistic map

The logistic **map** is, for  $t \geq 0$ ,

$$N_{t+1} = rN_t \left(1 - \frac{N_t}{K}\right). \quad (\text{DT1})$$

To transform this into an initial value problem, we need to provide an initial condition  $N_0 \geq 0$  for  $t = 0$ .

## Parametrized families of functions

Consider the equation (DT1), which for convenience we rewrite as

$$N_{t+1} = rN_t(1 - N_t), \quad (\text{DT2})$$

where  $r$  is a parameter in  $\mathbb{R}_+$ , and  $N$  will typically be taken in  $[0, 1]$ . Let

$$f_r(x) = rx(1 - x).$$

The function  $f_r$  is called a **parametrized family** of functions.

# Bifurcations

## Definition (Bifurcation)

Let  $f_\mu$  be a parametrized family of functions. Then there is a **bifurcation** at  $\mu = \mu_0$  (or  $\mu_0$  is a bifurcation point) if there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that, if  $\mu_0 - \varepsilon < a < \mu_0$  and  $\mu_0 < b < \mu_0 + \varepsilon$ , then the dynamics of  $f_a(x)$  are “different” from the dynamics of  $f_b(x)$ .

An example of “different” would be that  $f_a$  has a fixed point (that is, a 1-periodic point) and  $f_b$  has a 2-periodic point.

## Back to the logistic map

Consider the simplified version (DT2),

$$N_{t+1} = rN_t(1 - N_t) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} f_r(N_t).$$

**Are solutions well defined?** Suppose  $N_0 \in [0, 1]$ , do we stay in  $[0, 1]$ ?  $f_r$  is continuous on  $[0, 1]$ , so it has extrema on  $[0, 1]$ . We have

$$f'_r(x) = r - 2rx = r(1 - 2x),$$

which implies that  $f_r$  increases for  $x < 1/2$  and decreases for  $x > 1/2$ , reaching a maximum at  $x = 1/2$ .

$f_r(0) = f_r(1) = 0$  are the minimum values, and  $f(1/2) = r/4$  is the maximum. Thus, if we want  $N_{t+1} \in [0, 1]$  for  $N_t \in [0, 1]$ , we need to consider  $r \leq 4$ .

- ▶ Note that if  $N_0 = 0$ , then  $N_t = 0$  for all  $t \geq 1$ .
- ▶ Similarly, if  $N_0 = 1$ , then  $N_1 = 0$ , and thus  $N_t = 0$  for all  $t \geq 1$ .
- ▶ This is true for all  $t$ : if there exists  $t_k$  such that  $N_{t_k} = 1$ , then  $N_t = 0$  for all  $t \geq t_k$ .
- ▶ This last case might occur if  $r = 4$ , as we have seen.
- ▶ Also, if  $r = 0$  then  $N_t = 0$  for all  $t$ .

For these reasons, we generally consider

$$N \in (0, 1)$$

and

$$r \in (0, 4).$$

## Fixed points: existence

**Fixed points** of (DT2) satisfy  $N = rN(1 - N)$ , giving:

- ▶  $N = 0$ ;
- ▶  $1 = r(1 - N)$ , that is,  $p \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{r - 1}{r}$ .

Note that  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} p = 1 - \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} 1/r = -\infty$ ,  $\frac{\partial}{\partial r} p = 1/r^2 > 0$  (so  $p$  is an increasing function of  $r$ ),  $p = 0 \Leftrightarrow r = 1$  and  $\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} p = 1$ . So we come to this first conclusion:

- ▶ 0 always is a fixed point of  $f_r$ .
- ▶ If  $0 < r < 1$ , then  $p$  takes negative values so is not relevant.
- ▶ If  $1 < r < 4$ , then  $p$  exists.

## Stability of the fixed points

**Stability** of the fixed points is determined by the (absolute) value  $f'_r$  at these fixed points. We have

$$|f'_r(0)| = r,$$

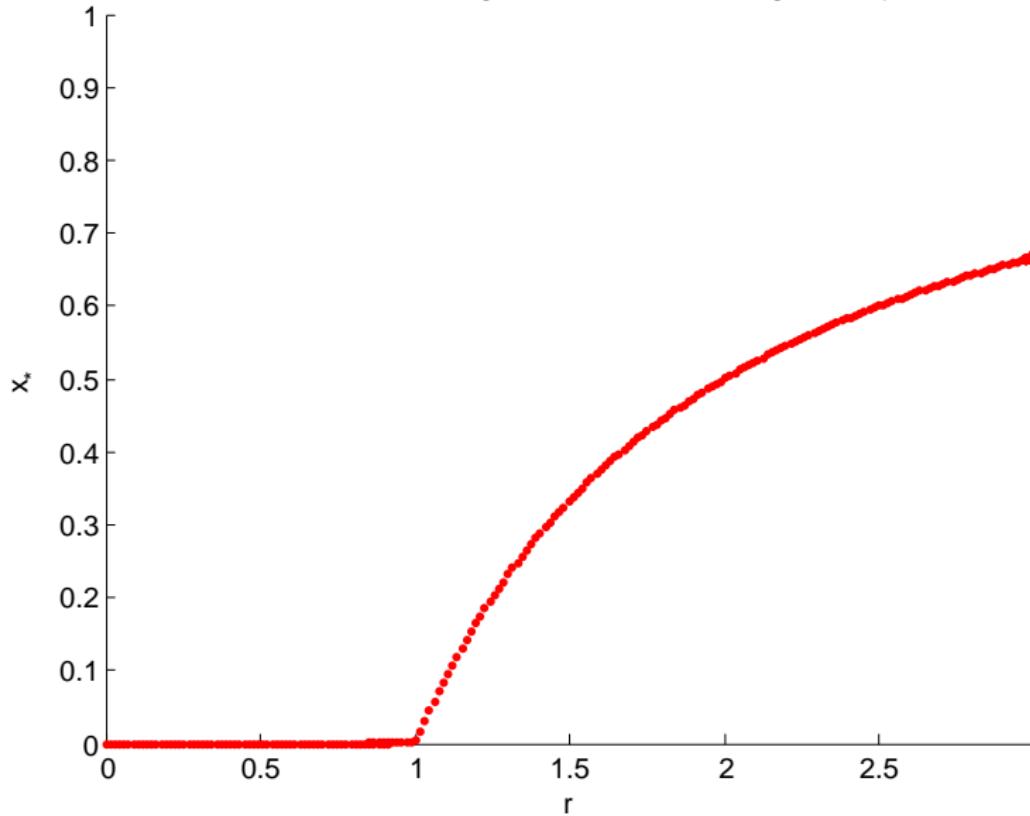
and

$$\begin{aligned}|f'_r(p)| &= \left| r - 2r \frac{r-1}{r} \right| \\&= |r - 2(r-1)| \\&= |2 - r|\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have

- ▶ if  $0 < r < 1$ , then the fixed point  $N = p$  does not exist and  $N = 0$  is attracting,
- ▶ if  $1 < r < 3$ , then  $N = 0$  is repelling, and  $N = p$  is attracting,
- ▶ if  $r > 3$ , then  $N = 0$  and  $N = p$  are repelling.

Bifurcation diagram for the discrete logistic map



## Another bifurcation

Thus the points  $r = 1$  and  $r = 3$  are bifurcation points. To see what happens when  $r > 3$ , we need to look for period 2 points.

$$\begin{aligned}f_r^2(x) &= f_r(f_r(x)) \\&= rf_r(x)(1 - f_r(x)) \\&= r^2x(1 - x)(1 - rx(1 - x)).\end{aligned}\tag{1}$$

0 and  $p$  are points of period 2, since a fixed point  $x^*$  of  $f$  satisfies  $f(x^*) = x^*$ , and so,  $f^2(x^*) = f(f(x^*)) = f(x^*) = x^*$ .

This helps localizing the other periodic points. Writing the fixed point equation as

$$Q(x) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} f_r^2(x) - x = 0,$$

we see that, since 0 and  $p$  are fixed points of  $f_\mu^2$ , they are roots of  $Q(x)$ . Therefore,  $Q$  can be factorized as

$$Q(x) = x(x - p)(-r^3x^2 + Bx + C),$$

Substitute the value  $(r - 1)/r$  for  $p$  in  $Q$ , develop  $Q$  and (1) and equate coefficients of like powers gives

$$Q(x) = x \left( x - \frac{r-1}{r} \right) (-r^3x^2 + r^2(r+1)x - r(r+1)). \quad (2)$$

We already know that  $x = 0$  and  $x = p$  are roots of (2). So we search for roots of

$$R(x) := -r^3x^2 + r^2(r+1)x - r(r+1).$$

Discriminant is

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta &= r^4(r+1)^2 - 4r^4(r+1) \\ &= r^4(r+1)(r+1-4) \\ &= r^4(r+1)(r-3).\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $R$  has distinct real roots if  $r > 3$ . Remark that for  $r = 3$ , the (double) root is  $p = 2/3$ . For  $r > 3$  but very close to 3, it follows from the continuity of  $R$  that the roots are close to  $2/3$ .

## Descartes' rule of signs

### Theorem (Descartes' rule of signs)

Let  $p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i$  be a polynomial with real coefficients such that  $a_m \neq 0$ . Define  $v$  to be the number of variations in sign of the sequence of coefficients  $a_m, \dots, a_0$ . By 'variations in sign' we mean the number of values of  $n$  such that the sign of  $a_n$  differs from the sign of  $a_{n-1}$ , as  $n$  ranges from  $m$  down to 1. Then

- ▶ the number of positive real roots of  $p(x)$  is  $v - 2N$  for some integer  $N$  satisfying  $0 \leq N \leq \frac{v}{2}$ ,
- ▶ the number of negative roots of  $p(x)$  may be obtained by the same method by applying the rule of signs to  $p(-x)$ .

## Example of use of Descartes' rule

### Example

Let

$$p(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 - x - 3.$$

Coefficients have signs  $++--$ , i.e., 1 sign change. Thus  $v = 1$ . Since  $0 \leq N \leq 1/2$ , we must have  $N = 0$ . Thus  $v - 2N = 1$  and there is exactly one positive real root of  $p(x)$ .

To find the negative roots, we examine

$p(-x) = -x^3 + 3x^2 + x - 3$ . Coefficients have signs  $-++-$ , i.e., 2 sign changes. Thus  $v = 2$  and  $0 \leq N \leq 2/2 = 1$ . Thus, there are two possible solutions,  $N = 0$  and  $N = 1$ , and two possible values of  $v - 2N$ . Therefore, there are either two or no negative real roots. Furthermore, note that

$p(-1) = (-1)^3 + 3 \cdot (-1)^2 - (-1) - 3 = 0$ , hence there is at least one negative root. Therefore there must be exactly two.

## Back to the logistic map and the polynomial $R$ ..

We use Descartes' rule of signs.

- ▶  $R$  has signed coefficients  $- + -$ , so 2 sign changes implying 0 or 2 positive real roots.
- ▶  $R(-x)$  has signed coefficients  $---$ , so no negative real roots.
- ▶ Since  $\Delta > 0$ , the roots are real, and thus it follows that both roots are positive.

To show that the roots are also smaller than 1, consider the change of variables  $z = x - 1$ . The polynomial  $R$  is transformed into

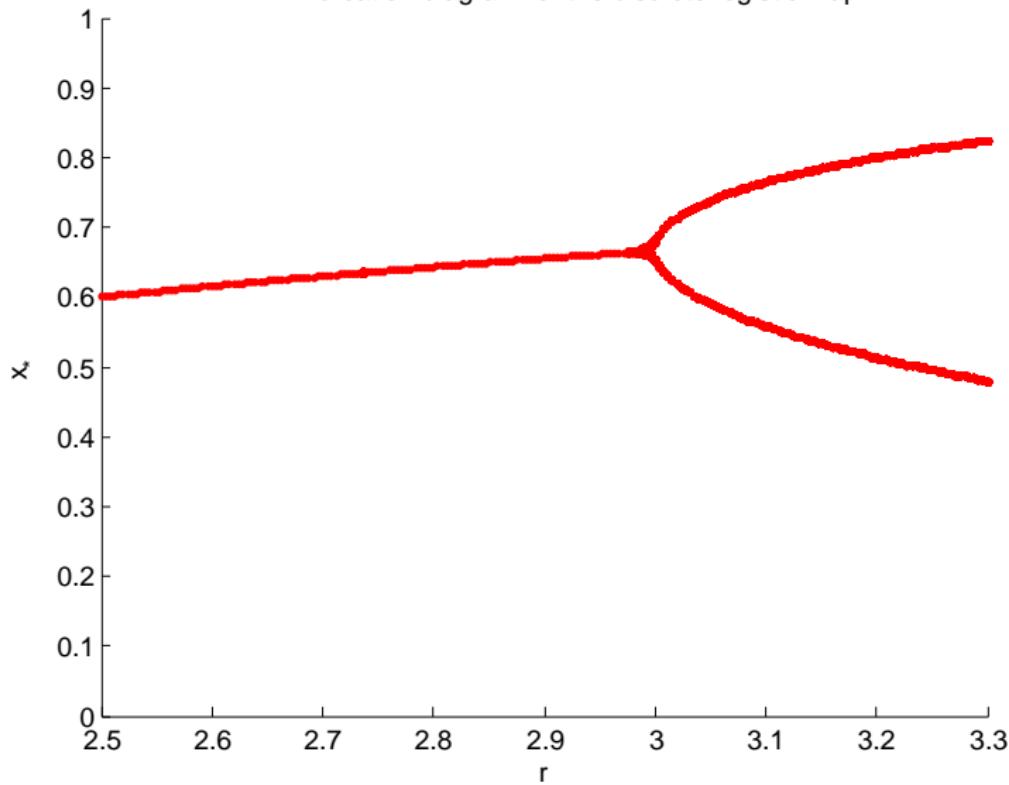
$$\begin{aligned}R_2(z) &= -r^3(z+1)^2 + r^2(r+1)(z+1) - r(r+1) \\&= -r^3z^2 + r^2(1-r)z - r.\end{aligned}$$

For  $r > 1$ , the signed coefficients are  $---$ , so  $R_2$  has no root  $z > 0$ , implying in turn that  $R$  has no root  $x > 1$ .

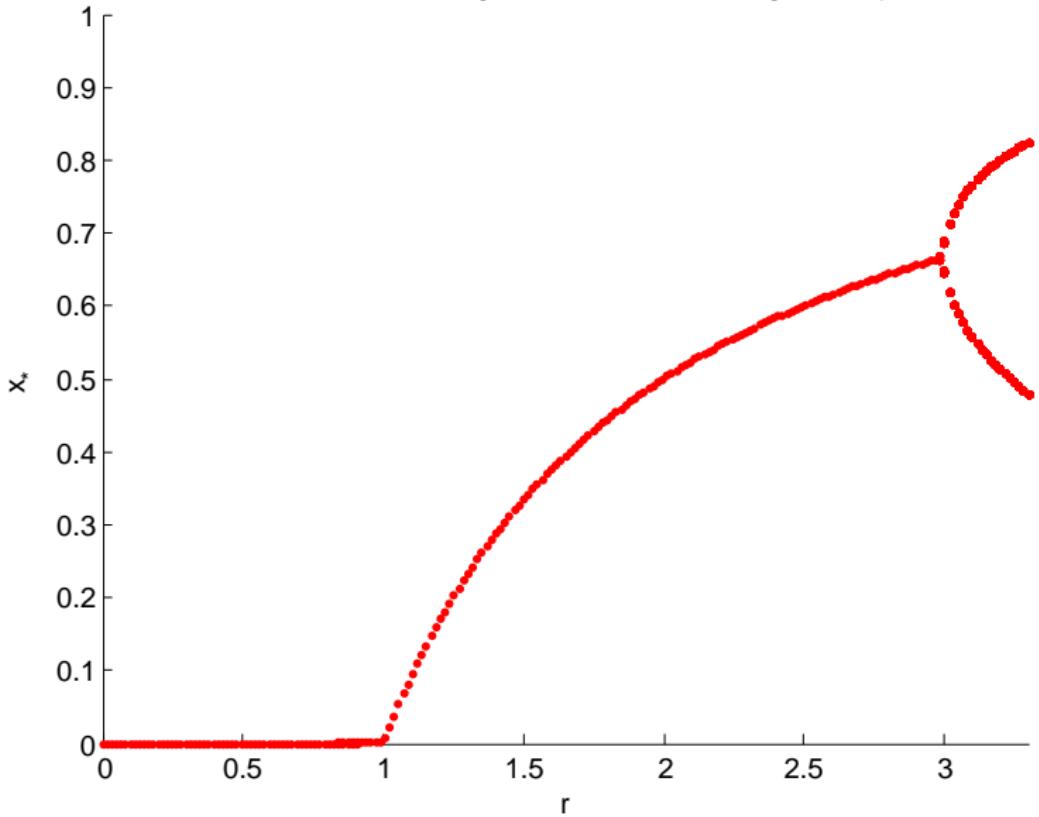
## Summing up

- ▶ If  $0 < r < 1$ , then  $N = 0$  is attracting,  $p$  does not exist and there are no period 2 points.
- ▶ At  $r = 1$ , there is a bifurcation (called a **transcritical** bifurcation).
- ▶ If  $1 < r < 3$ , then  $N = 0$  is repelling,  $N = p$  is attracting, and there are no period 2 points.
- ▶ At  $r = 3$ , there is another bifurcation (called a **period-doubling** bifurcation).
- ▶ For  $r > 3$ , both  $N = 0$  and  $N = p$  are repelling, and there is a period 2 point.

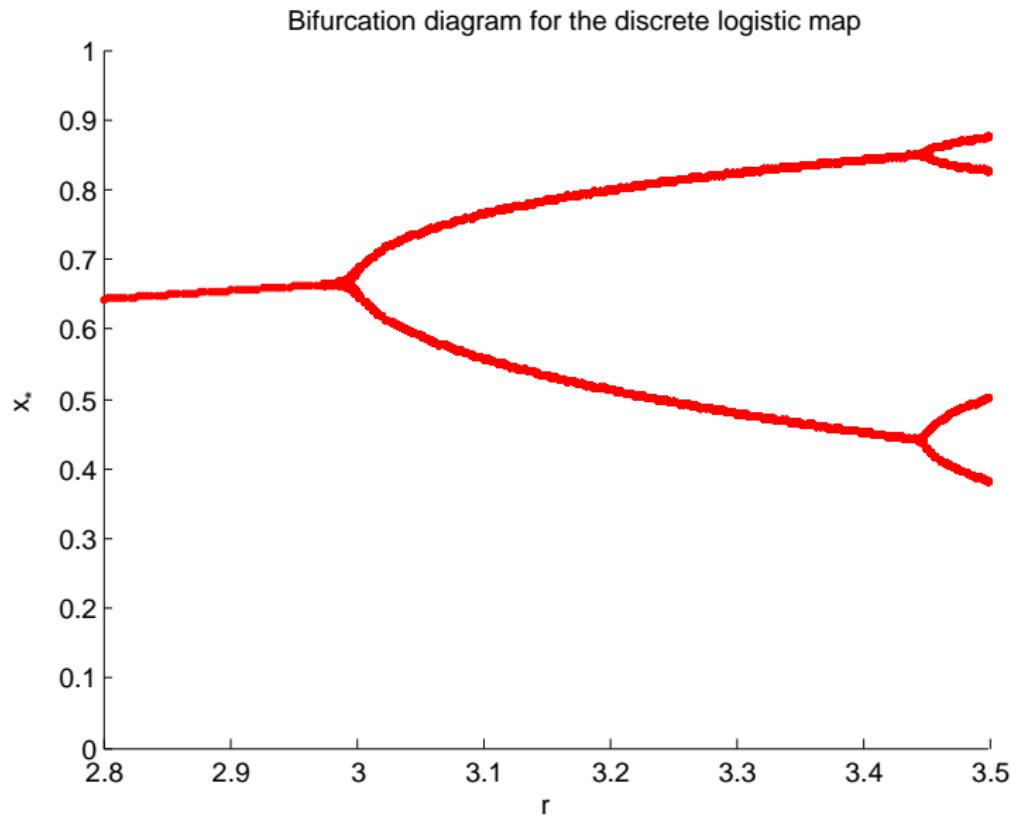
Bifurcation diagram for the discrete logistic map



Bifurcation diagram for the discrete logistic map



This process continues



## The period-doubling cascade to chaos

The logistic map undergoes a sequence of period doubling bifurcations, called the **period-doubling cascade**, as  $r$  increases from 3 to 4.

- ▶ Every successive bifurcation leads to a doubling of the period.
- ▶ The bifurcation points form a sequence,  $\{r_n\}$ , that has the property that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_n - r_{n-1}}{r_{n+1} - r_n}$$

exists and is a constant, called the Feigenbaum constant, equal to 4.669202...

- ▶ This constant has been shown to exist in many of the maps that undergo the same type of cascade of period doubling bifurcations.

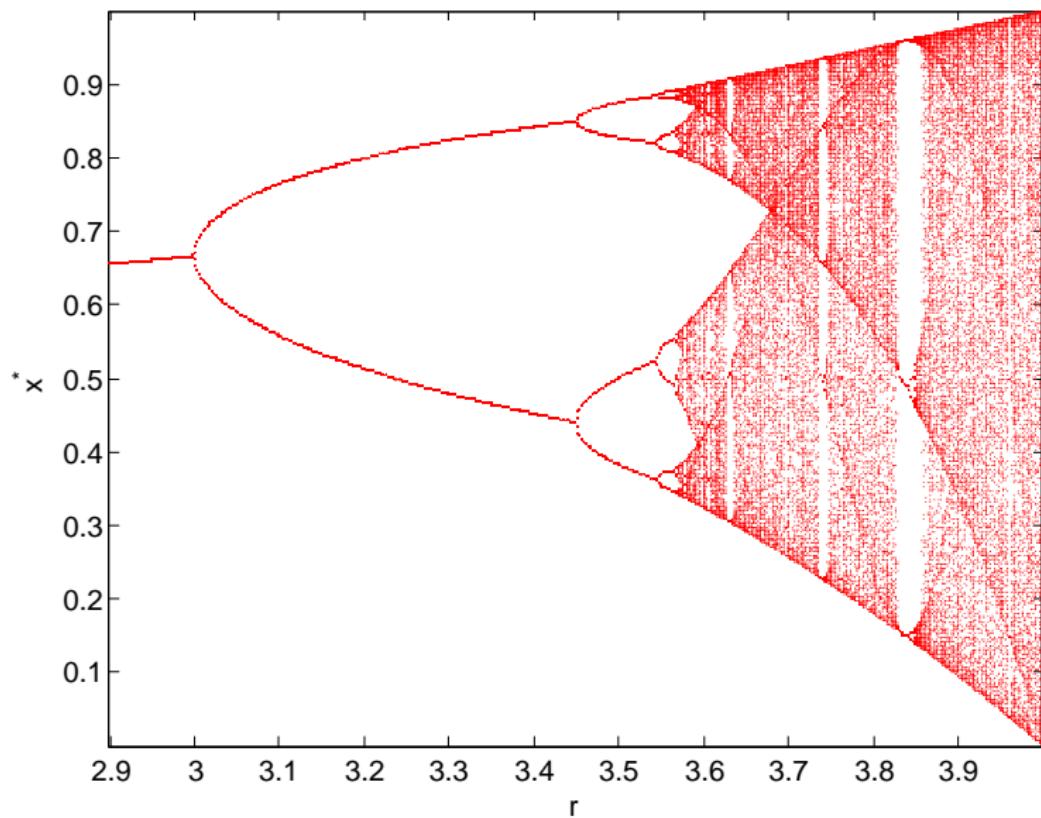
## Chaos

After a certain value of  $r$ , there are periodic points with all periods. In particular, there are periodic points of period 3.

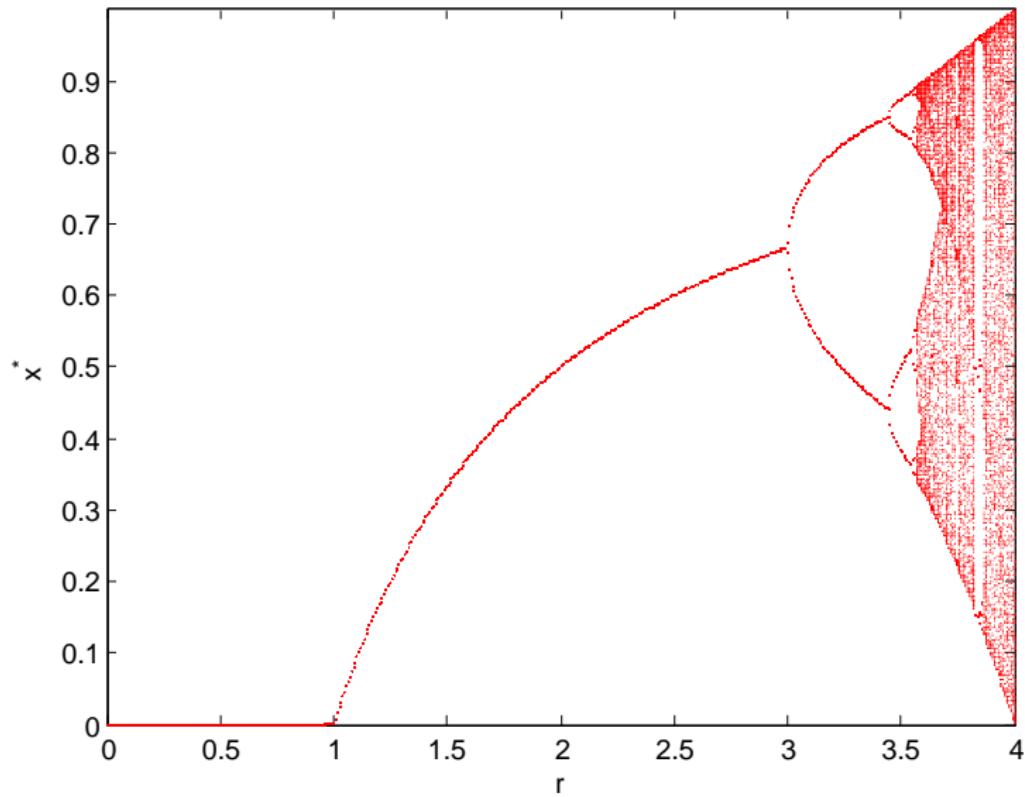
By a theorem (called **Sarkovskii's theorem**), the presence of period 3 points implies the presence of points of all periods.

At this point, the system is said to be in a **chaotic regime**, or **chaotic**.

## Bifurcation cascade for $2.9 \leq r \leq 4$



# The complete bifurcation cascade



## The tent map

[May's 1976 paper]

$$X_{t+1} = \begin{cases} aX_t & \text{if } X_t < 1/2 \\ a(1 - X_t) & \text{if } X_t > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

defined for  $0 < X < 1$ .

For  $0 < a < 1$ , all trajectories are attracted to  $X = 0$ ; for  $1 < a < 2$ , there are infinitely many periodic orbits, along with an uncountable number of aperiodic trajectories, none of which are locally stable. The first odd period cycle appears at  $a = \sqrt{2}$  and all integer periods are represented beyond  $a = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2$ .

## Yet another chaotic map

[May's 1976 paper]

$$X_{t+1} = \begin{cases} \lambda X_t & \text{if } X_t < 1 \\ \lambda X_t^{1-b} & \text{if } X_t > 1 \end{cases}$$

If  $\lambda > 1$ , GAS point for  $b < 2$ . For  $b > 2$ , chaotic regime with all integer periods present after  $b = 3$ .

## The Ricker model

$$N(t+1) = N(t) \exp \left\{ r \left( 1 - \frac{N(t)}{K} \right) \right\} = f(N(t)),$$

$r$  intrinsic growth rate,  $K$  carrying capacity. Growth rate  $f(N(t))$  increasing in  $N(t)$  and per capita growth  $\frac{f(N)}{N}$  decreasing in  $N(t)$ . Increase in population not sufficient to compensate for decrease in per capita growth, so  $\lim_{N(t) \rightarrow +\infty} f(N(t)) = 0$  (Ricker model is overcompensatory).

- ▶  $r < 2$  Globally asymptotically stable equilibrium  $\bar{x} = K$
- ▶  $r = 2$  Bifurcation into a stable 2-cycle
- ▶  $r = 2.5$  Bifurcation into a stable 4-cycle
- ▶ Series of cycle duplication: 8-cycle, 16-cycle, etc.
- ▶  $r = 2.692$  chaos
- ▶ For  $r > 2.7$  there are some regions where dynamics returns to a cycle, e.g.,  $r=3.15$ .

# Perron-Frobenius theorem

## Theorem

If  $M$  is a nonnegative primitive matrix, then:

- ▶  $M$  has a positive eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$  of maximum modulus.
- ▶  $\lambda_1$  is a simple root of the characteristic polynomial.
- ▶ for every other eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ ,  $\lambda_1 > \lambda_i$  (it is strictly dominant)
- ▶

$$\min_i \sum_j m_{ij} \leq \lambda_1 \leq \max_i \sum_j m_{ij}$$

$$\min_j \sum_i m_{ij} \leq \lambda_1 \leq \max_j \sum_i m_{ij}$$

- ▶ row and column eigenvectors associated with  $\lambda_1$  are  $\gg 0$ .
- ▶ the sequence  $M^t$  is asymptotically one-dimensional, its columns converge to the column eigenvector associated with  $\lambda_1$ ; and its rows converges to the row eigenvector associated with  $\lambda_1$ .