Lecture 2: Equilibria and stability

- An equilibrium is where the function in the differential equation $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ has a zero solution, i.e. $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$.
- There may be many solutions to the equation $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$, but each is characterised by $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0 \Rightarrow \dot{\mathbf{x}} = 0$, i.e. \mathbf{x} does not change. Equilibrium points are sometimes be called 'fixed points'.
- For a **linear** system with non-zero eigenvalues there is only one solution to $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$, i.e. $\mathbf{x} = 0$. A nonlinear system can have many non-zero equilibria.

Maps and equilibria

• In a similar way to differential equations, the equilibria of **maps** are the fixed points of the update equations, i.e.

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}_k)$$
 such that $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}^*$

 In the case of differential equations, the equilibria are special points on a **flow** in phase space, whereas maps jump around without a flow – this property makes maps hard to understand and visualise.

Flows and equilibria

- The solution of the non-linear differential equation in phase space can be thought of as a flow in an n-dimensional phase space, like a liquid. f(x) can be thought of as a vector field describing the flow or 'fluid velocity'.
- Flows can end or start at equilibria, or can circulate around equilibria
- The stability of the flow near an equilibrium is an important property and something we will study today

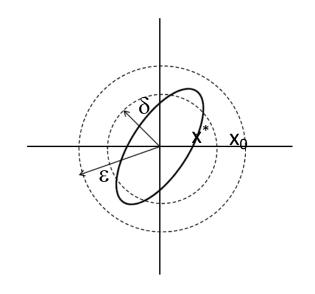
Stability of flow equilibria

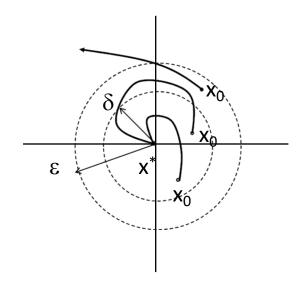
• **Definition**: An equilibrium point \mathbf{x}^* is said to be **stable** if, given any real number $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a real number $\delta > 0$ such that all solutions $\mathbf{y}(t)$ satisfy

$$|\mathbf{y}(t) - \mathbf{x}^*| < \epsilon$$
 for all $t \ge 0$ whenever $|\mathbf{y}(0) - \mathbf{x}^*| < \delta$

- Otherwise it is unstable
- **Definition**: An equilibrium point \mathbf{x}^* is said to be **asymptotically stable** if it is stable and there is a real number b > 0 such that

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} |\mathbf{y}(t) - \mathbf{x}^*| = 0 \text{ whenever } |\mathbf{y}(0) - \mathbf{x}^*| < b$$





A stable equilibrium

An asymptotically stable equilibrium

- The solution cannot escape from a stable equilibrium
- The solution ends up 'going down the hole' if it starts close enough to an asymptotically stable equilibrium

Epsilon-delta arguments

- The arguments in the definitions are in the form of a game
 - I give you a positive number ε that I am free to choose
 - You respond with another number δ that satisfies some condition
 - If you can always find a number δ then you 'win'
- Many proofs in mathematics are based on this terminology

Exponential stability

• **Definition**: An equilibrium point \mathbf{x}^* is said to be exponentially stable if \mathbf{x}^* is asymptotically stable and there exist finite α , β , δ > 0 such that if $|\mathbf{y}(0) - \mathbf{x}^*| < \delta$ then

$$|\mathbf{y}(t) - \mathbf{x}^*| \le \alpha e^{-\beta t} |\mathbf{y}(0) - \mathbf{x}^*|$$
 for all $t \ge 0$

• The above is a statement about the **rate** of convergence of the solution to the equilibrium point – how 'fast' it 'goes down the hole'.

Flows in 2x2 linear systems

- We will be studying the flows around equilibrium points using their local linearisations
- Each flow has a topology (shape) that falls into one of a number of distinct categories
- These flows can often be continuously distorted into the flows that solve the non-linear differential equations – so the topologies of a number of exemplar linear systems can provide families to which the non-linear solutions belong

The uncoupled case

$$\dot{x}_1 = \alpha_1 x_1$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = \alpha_2 x_2$$

Solution:

$$x_1(t) = e^{\alpha_1 t} x_1(0)$$

$$x_2(t) = e^{\alpha_2 t} x_2(0)$$

These are parametric equations of curves in phase space

The equation of any such curve is of the form

$$x_1 = cx_2^{\alpha_1/\alpha_2}$$

The uncoupled case

$$x_1(t) = e^{\alpha_1 t} x_1(0) x_2(t) = e^{\alpha_2 t} x_2(0)$$

- The equilibrium point is the origin (it is a linear autonomous system)
- If $\alpha_1 < 0$ and $\alpha_2 < 0$, then the equilibrium is asymptotically (exponentially) stable
- If $\alpha_1 > 0$ or $\alpha_2 > 0$ the origin is unstable

Coupled 2x2 linear systems

The general form

$$\dot{x}_1 = ax_1 + bx_2$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = cx_1 + dx_2$$

Or

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{t\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{x}(0)$$

The eigenvalues

The eigenvalues of A satisfy

$$\lambda^2 - (a+d)\lambda + (ad-bc) = 0$$

or

$$\lambda^2 - \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A})\lambda + \det(\mathbf{A}) = 0$$

The trace $\tau = tr(\mathbf{A})$ of a matrix \mathbf{A} is the sum of its eigenvalues:

$$\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = \tau$$

the determinant $D = \det(\mathbf{A})$ of \mathbf{A} is the product of its eigenvalues:

$$\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = D$$

Solving using eigenvectors and values

 If the eigenvalues are real and distinct, then are two independent eigenvectors and we can re-write the initial condition as

$$\mathbf{x}(0) = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{v}_2$$

Now work through the solution:

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{t\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{x}(0)$$

$$= \left(\mathbf{I} + t\mathbf{A} + \frac{t^2}{2!}\mathbf{A}^2 + \cdots\right)(c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2)$$

$$= c_1e^{t\lambda_1}\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2e^{t\lambda_2}\mathbf{v}_2$$

(we have assumed neither eigenvalue is zero)

Some characteristics

- If $\text{Re}(\lambda) < 0$, then the component along the corresponding eigenvector decays to zero
- If $Re(\lambda) > 0$, then the component along the corresponding eigenvector grows without bound
- If $\lambda=0$, then the component along the corresponding eigenvector is constant
- If $Im(\lambda) \neq 0$, then the solution spirals around the origin
- If $Im(\lambda) = 0$, then the solution does not spiral around the origin
- If λ is real, the solution will tend towards the eigenvector with the dominant eigenvalue

Coordinate transformation

- We next discuss the characteristic shapes of trajectories in 2-D phase space using a coordinate transformation so that the matrix A is in a standard form:
 - Given $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$, define new coordinates $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{x}$
 - The new equations of motion are then $\dot{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}\mathbf{y}$
 - If the eigenvalues are real and distinct and ${\bf V}$ is the eigenvector matrix then $\dot{{\bf y}}=\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}{\bf y}$
 - Study the motion in the new coordinates. Motion in the original coordinates is obtained by multiplying $\mathbf{y}(t)$ by \mathbf{V}
- The transformed matrix $V^{-1}AV$ is called the 'normal form'

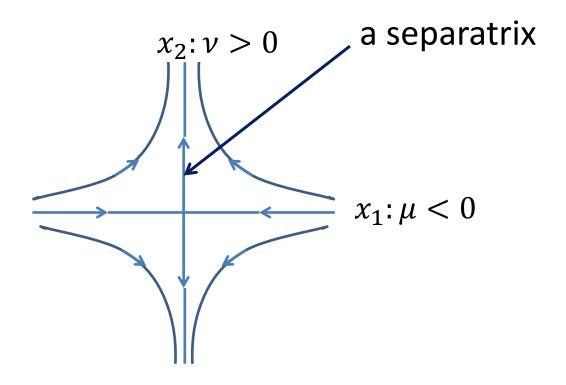
The Saddle normal form

• If the eigenvalues are real and non-zero and $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 < 0$, then the equilibrium is unstable. In the transformed coordinates:

$$\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu & 0 \\ 0 & \nu \end{bmatrix}$$

- There are four asymptotes that approach the origin, two are for $t \to \infty$ and two are for $t \to -\infty$
- These four non-zero trajectories are called separatrices

The Saddle shape



The Stable Node

- If the eigenvalues are real and both negative $\lambda_1 < 0, \lambda_2 < 0$, then
 - the eigenvalues are distinct:

$$\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu & 0 \\ 0 & \nu \end{bmatrix}$$

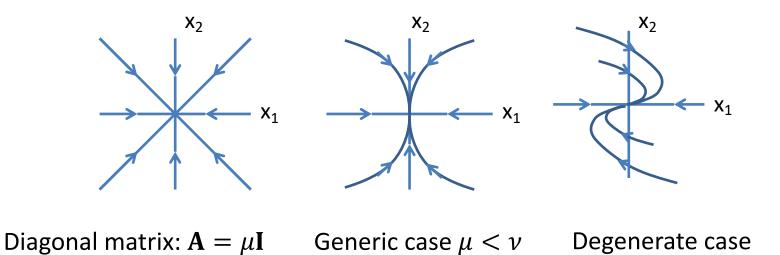
- or **A** is diagonal: $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu & 0 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix}$
- or the eigenvalues are equal, but there is only one eigenvector (the degenerate case):

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{V}}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{V}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu & 1 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix}$$

Here $\widetilde{\mathbf{V}}$ consists of 'generalized eigenvectors' (see Perko Section 1.3)

Stable and unstable node shapes

Stable:



• Unstable: Both eigenvalues are positive. The same shapes as above, but reverse the directions of the arrows.

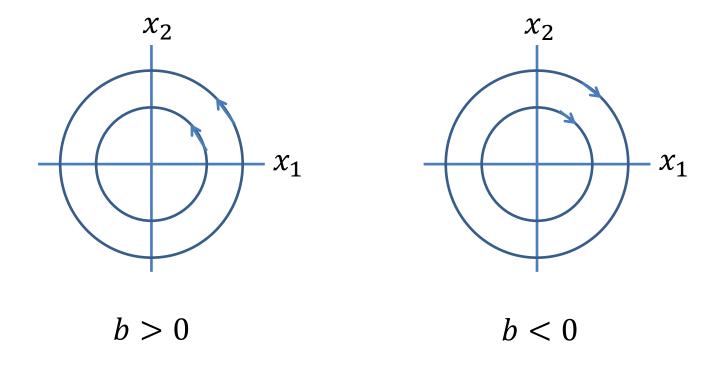
The Centre Normal Form

- If the eigenvalues are purely imaginary (the real part is zero and the imaginary part is not zero). The equilibrium is neutrally stable
- There are no real eigenvectors and so use the construction from Lecture 1 to find the coordinate transformation matrix

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{V}}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{V}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -b \\ b & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Matrix $\widetilde{\mathbf{V}}$ is constructed from the real and imaginary parts of the complex eigenvectors

Centre Normal form Phase Space Portrait



Stable and unstable spirals (foci)

The normal form of the matrix **A** is:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = a + jb, \qquad \lambda_2 = a - jb,$$

- a < 0: the spiral is stable
- a > 0: the spiral is unstable
- b > 0: the spiral is anti-clockwise
- b < 0: the spiral is clockwise

Spirals or foci









Stable focus





Unstable focus

The Phase Space equations so far

• We have drawn the diagrams of the solutions of $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ with $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_0$:

$$-\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu & 0 \\ 0 & \nu \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\mu t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\nu t} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_0$$

$$-\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu & 1 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}(t) = e^{\mu t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_0$$

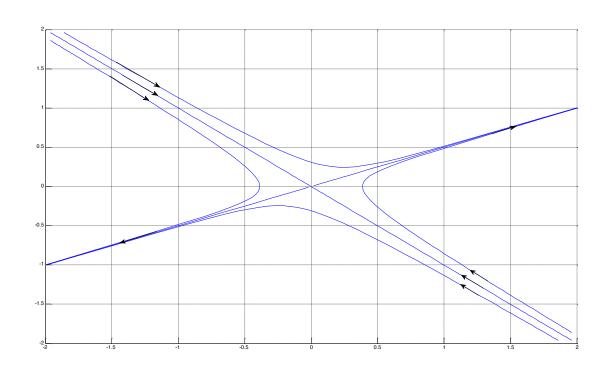
$$-\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}(t) = e^{at} \begin{bmatrix} \cos bt & -\sin bt \\ \sin bt & \cos bt \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_0$$

Changing coordinates

- Consider $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$
- Characteristic equation: $\lambda^2 + \lambda 2 = 0$, eigenvalues: 1, -2 eigenvectors: $[2 \ 1]^T$ and $[-1 \ 1]^T$.
- Thus $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$ i.e. $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^{-1}$
- Define new coordinates $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{x}$ defining new axes along $[2 \ 1]^{\mathsf{T}}$ ($\lambda = 1$ and thus unstable) and $[-1 \ 1]^{\mathsf{T}}(\lambda = -2$ and thus stable).

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-2t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_{0}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2/3 e^{t} + 1/3 e^{-2t} & 2/3 e^{t} - 2/3 e^{-2t} \\ 1/3 e^{t} - 1/3 e^{-2t} & 1/3 e^{t} + 2/3 e^{-2t} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{0}$$



Nonlinear systems

Consider the solution of $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ near to where $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$.

Let $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^* + \mathbf{w}$, assume \mathbf{f} is differentiable and note that the equilibrium point does not change with time. Taylor expansion of f_i about \mathbf{x}^* :

$$f_j(\mathbf{x}^* + \mathbf{w}) = f_j(\mathbf{x}^*) + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_k} w_k + \mathcal{O}(|\mathbf{w}|^2)$$

For the entire vector of functions \mathbf{f} , also noting that $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \dot{\mathbf{w}} = D\{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*)\}\mathbf{w} + \mathcal{O}(|\mathbf{w}|^2)$$

 $D\mathbf{f}$ is the Jacobian whose (i,j)th element is $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$

Small perturbation model

Close to the equilibrium $\dot{\mathbf{w}} \cong D\{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*)\}\mathbf{w}$ and is approximated by the linear system

$$\dot{\mathbf{w}} = D\{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*)\}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{w}$$

We consider the stability of this linear system near to the origin $(\mathbf{w}=0)$. Note we then have

$$\mathbf{w}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{w}(\mathbf{0}) = e^{D\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*)t}\mathbf{w}(\mathbf{0})$$

The solution is asymptotically stable if all the eigenvalues of **A** have negative real parts.

Hyperbolic equilibria

- **Definition** (Hyperbolic equilibrium): Let \mathbf{x}^* be an equilibrium of $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$. Then \mathbf{x}^* is called a hyperbolic fixed point if none of the eigenvalues of $D\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ real part equal to 0.
- Theorem: Suppose \mathbf{x}^* is a hyperbolic fixed point and all the real parts of the eigenvalues are negative. Then the equilibrium solution $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^*$ is asymptotically stable.

The properties of hyperbolic equilibria

- If the eigenvalues of the local linearisation all have negative real parts, then we have asymptotic stability of the non-linear system at that equilibrium. Note we say nothing about how big the region of stability is this depends on your number δ that you responded with during the 'game'.
- The properties of the solution of the non-linear system near to a hyperbolic equilibrium point are similar in shape to the linearised system – they are topologically identical (covered in Lecture 3).
- If any of the eigenvalues have zero real part, further investigation is needed.

The Duffing Oscillator example

$$\dot{x} = y$$

$$\dot{y} = x - x^3 - \gamma y, \qquad \gamma \ge 0$$

Equilibria: $(x^*, y^*) = (0,0)$ and $(\pm 1,0)$

Jacobian:
$$D\mathbf{f} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 - 3x^2 & -\gamma \end{bmatrix}$$

At (0,0): $\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{-\gamma \pm \sqrt{\gamma^2 + 4}}{2}$ so the equilibrium point is unstable

At
$$(\pm 1,0)$$
: $\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{-\gamma \pm \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 8}}{2}$ so for $\gamma > 0$ we have asymptotic stability

but for $\gamma = 0$ we have a centre in this case the local behaviour of the linearization and the nonlinear system are different!