

# Math 6307 Course Project: Modern methods of exploration of numerical ODE solutions using Python3

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<https://github.com/maxieds/GATechMath6307ODEsCourseProject>

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# Goals of the presentation

- ▶ Explore options of modern packages for Python3 that facilitate exploring ODE (systems of ODEs) solutions numerically
- ▶ Give a few examples of generic, **re-usable** numerical methods for a toy 1D ODE problem
- ▶ Define and motivate the study of *chaotic attractors* (corresponding to parameterized multidimensional systems of ODEs – typically 3D and 4D in a time variable, or 2D projections of such systems)
- ▶ Show some particular experiment types for the *Rössler attractor* that can be extended to other applications and use cases
- ▶ All source code, presentation materials and package install notes for this project are freely available under the GPL-V3 at <https://github.com/maxieds/GATechMath6307ODEsCourseProject>

# Basic examples

## Basic examples of solving ODEs in Python3

# Setup: Defining a common model problem

- Typically we look at an IVP of the following form:  
 $y' = f(t, y), y(t_0) = y_0$
- For the purposes of exploring our options in Python3, we will take a special case of this problem type
- The special case is defined for some parameter  $k$  as:  
 $y' = (t - y^k)(3 - ty - 2y^2)$  subject to  $y(0) = 1$
- That is:  $f(t, y) := (t - y^k)(3 - ty - 2y^2)$  with  $(t_0, y_0) := (0, 1)$
- The analysis of this “toy” model problem facilitates comparing the functionality and ease of use for numerically approximating its solutions (for various fixed  $k$ ) of common libraries and algorithms in Python3

# Explicit forward Euler method

- ▶ Given an IVP:  $y' = f(t, y), y(t_0) = y_0$
- ▶ The forward Euler method is an explicit method for iteratively generating numerical solutions to this ODE provided that we can evaluate  $f$  clearly
- ▶ Convergence to solution and other numerical analysis of the algorithm (e.g., LTE and GTE truncation errors at each step) and corresponding accuracy given fixed  $h$  is standard reading
- ▶  $y_{n+1} = y_n + f(t_n, y_n)(t_{n+1} - t_n) = y_n + h \cdot f(t_n, y_n)$

# Explicit forward Euler method – Motivation

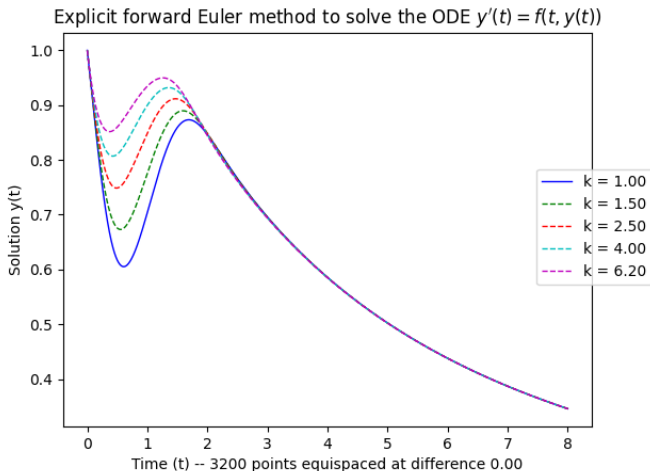
- ▶ **Key derivation:**  $y'(t_0) \approx \frac{y(t_0+h)-y(t_0)}{h}$  (\*), where  $y' = f(t, y) \implies y(t_0+h) - y(t_0) \approx \int_{t_0}^{t_0+h} f(t, y(t)) dt$
- ▶ Now we approximate the the RHS integral using a left-hand-endpoint Riemann sum ( $n = 1$  rectangle) to obtain that  $\int_{t_0}^{t_0+h} f(t, y(t)) dt \approx h \cdot f(t_0, y(t_0))$
- ▶ Forward Euler is the simplest method using this line of reasoning
- ▶ Modifications can be given, including taking  $y'(t + \frac{h}{2}) \approx \frac{y(t+h)-y(t)}{h}$  in place of (\*) above, leading to the *midpoint method*
- ▶ Implicit backwards Euler forms another variant

# Explicit forward Euler method (source code flavor)

```
1  def ExplicitForwardEuler(ftyFunc, icPoint, solInterval, h):
2      f = ftyFunc
3      (t0, y0) = icPoint
4      (solA, solB) = solInterval
5      numGridPoints = math.floor(float((solB - solA) / h))
6      tPoints = np.linspace(solA, solB, numGridPoints + 1)
7      yPoints = [ y0 ]
8      curYn = y0
9      for n in range(0, numGridPoints):
10         tn = tPoints[n]
11         nextYn = curYn + f(tn, curYn) * h
12         yPoints += [ nextYn ]
13         curYn = nextYn
14     # ... Matplotlib plotting code for the solution ...
```

# Explicit forward Euler method (results)

```
(ipython) cd Examples/BasicNumericalODESolutionMethods  
(ipython) run "ExplicitForwardEulerMethod.py"
```





# Runga-Kutta (RK4) method

- ▶ Given an IVP:  $y' = f(t, y)$ ,  $y(t_0) = y_0$
- ▶  $t_n = t_0 + h \cdot n$  (fixed / uniform step size)
- ▶  $k_1 = f(t_n, y_n)$ ,  $k_2 = f(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, y_n + \frac{k_1 h}{2})$ ,  $k_3 = f(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, y_n + \frac{k_2 h}{2})$ ,  
 $k_4 = f(t_n + h, y_n + k_3 h)$
- ▶  $y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{h}{6} (k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4)$  (recursion to evaluate)
- ▶ Taking the weighted average at four slopes leads to more weight given to slopes closer to the midpoint of each subinterval
- ▶  $\text{LTE} = O(h^5)$  and  $\text{AccumulatedTruncationError} = O(h^4)$
- ▶ If  $f$  does not depend on  $y$ , the RK4 is the same as *Simpson's rule*

# More general explicit Runga-Kutta methods

- The family of *explicit RK methods* ( $s$ -stage) is parameterized by:

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \sum_{i=1}^s h b_i k_i \text{ where}$$

$$k_1 = f(t_n, y_n)$$

$$k_2 = f(t_n + c_2 h, y_n + h \cdot (a_{21} k_1))$$

$$k_3 = f(t_n + c_3 h, y_n + h \cdot (a_{31} k_1 + a_{32} k_2))$$

...

$$k_s = f(t_n + c_s h, h \cdot (a_{s1} k_1 + a_{s2} k_2 + \cdots + a_{s,s-1} k_{s-1})).$$

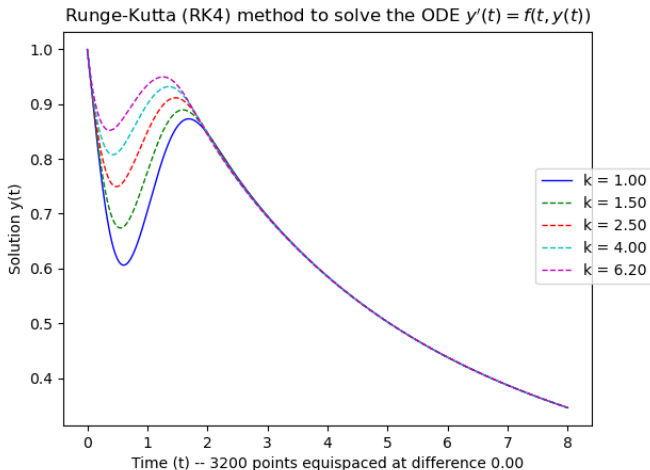
- That is, the explicit RK method is completely determined by the parameters  $(a_{ij})_{1 \leq j < i \leq s}$ ,  $(b_i)_{1 \leq i \leq s}$  and  $(c_j)_{2 \leq j \leq s}$
- We require *consistency* insomuch as  $\sum_{i=1}^s b_i = 1$
- A popular convention is to require that  $\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} = c_i$  for  $i \in \{2, 3, \dots, s\}$

# Runge-Kutta (RK4) method (source code flavor)

```
1  def RungeKuttaRK4(ftyFunc, icPoint, solInterval, h):
2      f = ftyFunc
3      (t0, y0) = icPoint
4      (solA, solB) = solInterval
5      numGridPoints = math.floor(float((solB - solA) / h))
6      tPoints = np.linspace(solA, solB, numGridPoints + 1)
7      yPoints = [ y0 ]
8      curYn = y0
9      for n in range(0, numGridPoints):
10         tn = tPoints[n]
11         k1 = f(tn, curYn)
12         k2 = f(tn + h / 2.0, curYn + k1 * h / 2.0)
13         k3 = f(tn + h / 2.0, curYn + k2 * h / 2.0)
14         k4 = f(tn + h, curYn + k3 * h)
15         nextYn = curYn + h / 6.0 * (k1 + 2 * k2 + 2 * k3 +
16                                     k4)
17         yPoints += [ nextYn ]
18         curYn = nextYn
```

# Runge-Kutta (RK4) method (results)

```
(ipython) cd Examples/BasicNumericalODESolutionMethods  
(ipython) run "ImplicitRungeKuttaMethod.py"
```



# Overview of general multistep methods

- General multistep method with  $s$  steps:

$$y_{n+s} + \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} a_j y_{n+j} = \sum_{m=0}^s h b_m f(t_{n+m}, y_{n+m})$$

- Polynomial interpolation:

$$p(t_{n+i}) := f(t_{n+i}, y_{n+i}), \text{ for } i \in \{0, 1, \dots, s-1\}$$

- Lagrange's exact polynomial interpolation formula under this requirement:

$$p(t) = \sum_{0 \leq j < s} \frac{(-1)^{s-j-1} f(t_{n+j}, y_{n+j})}{j!(s-j-1)!h^{s-1}} \times \prod_{\substack{0 \leq i < s \\ i \neq j}} (t - t_{n+i})$$

- Approximations to initial conditions and foundation for building the numerical solutions:

$$y_n = y_{n-1} + \int_{t_{n-1}}^{t_n} p(t) dt, \text{ for } n \in \{1, 2, \dots, s-1\}$$

# Step solver method – Adams-Bashforth (ABF-s)

- ▶ The multistep ABF-s ( $s$ -step) case:  $a_{s-1} = -1$ ;  $a_{s-2} = \dots = a_0 = 0$
- ▶ The multistep ABF-s ( $s$ -step) case: Substitute  $f(t_{n+j}, y_{n+j}) \mapsto p(t_{n+j})$  in the Lagrange interpolation formula from above
- ▶ The ABF-s method coefficient multipliers yield:

$$b_{s-j-1} = \frac{(-1)^j}{j!(s-j-1)!} \times \int_0^1 \prod_{\substack{0 \leq i < s \\ i \neq j}} (u+i) du, \text{ for } j \in \{0, 1, \dots, s-1\}$$

- ▶ Recursion in the ABF-3 method:

$$y_{n+3} = y_{n+2} + h \left( \frac{23}{12} f(t_{n+2}, y_{n+2}) - \frac{4}{3} f(t_{n+1}, y_{n+1}) + \frac{5}{12} f(t_n, y_n) \right)$$

- ▶ **Note:** Single step ABF-1 is the forward Euler method

# Step solver method – ABF3 (source code flavor)

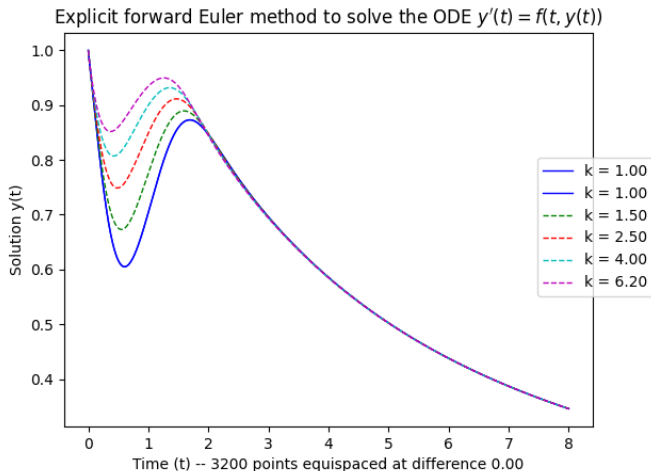
```

1  def LagrangePolynomialInterpolation(ftyFunc, numStepsS, prevYPoints, t0, h, n):
2      f          = ftyFunc
3      s          = numStepsS
4      yPoints    = prevYPoints
5      tDiffProdFunc = lambda t, j: reduce(operator.mul, [ t - (t0 + h * (n + i)) if i != j else 1 for i in
6          range(0, s) ])
7      ptFunc     = lambda t: sum([ (-1)**(s-j-1) * f(t0 + h * (n + j), yPoints[n+j]) / factorial(j) / \
8          factorial(s-j-1) / (h**(s-1)) * tDiffProdFunc(t, j) \
9          for j in range(0, n + len(yPoints)) ])
10     nextYPoints = []
11     lastYPoint  = prevYPoints[-1]
12     for sidx in range(0, s):
13         tnpim1 = t0 + h * (n + sidx - 1)
14         tnpi = t0 + h * (n + sidx)
15         ynpi = lastYPoint + sympy.integrate(ptFunc(tvar), (tvar, tnpim1, tnpi))
16         yPoints += [ ynpi ]
17         nextYPoints += [ ynpi ]
18         lastYPoint = ynpi
19     return nextYPoints
20
21 def AdamsBashforthABF3(ftyFunc, icPoint, solInterval, h):
22     f          = ftyFunc
23     s          = 3
24     (t0, y0)   = icPoint
25     (solA, solB) = solInterval
26     numGridPoints = math.floor(float((solB - solA) / h))
27     tPoints      = np.linspace(solA, solB, numGridPoints + 1)
28     yPoints      = [ y0 ] + LagrangePolynomialInterpolation(f, s-1, [ y0 ], t0, h, n=0)
29     curYn        = y0
30     for n in range(0, numGridPoints + 1 - s):
31         tn2, tn1, tn = tPoints[n+2], tPoints[n+1], tPoints[n]
32         yn2, yn1, yn = yPoints[n+2], yPoints[n+1], yPoints[n]
33         fn2, fn1, fn = f(tn2, yn2), f(tn1, yn1), f(tn, yn)
34         nextYn = yn2 + h * (23.0 / 12.0 * fn2 - 4.0 / 3.0 * fn1 + 5.0 / 12.0 * fn)
35         yPoints += [ nextYn ]

```

# Step solver method – ABF3 (results)

```
(ipython) cd Examples/BasicNumericalODESolutionMethods  
(ipython) run "ImplicitStepSolverMethod.py"
```





# GEKKO library (source code flavor)

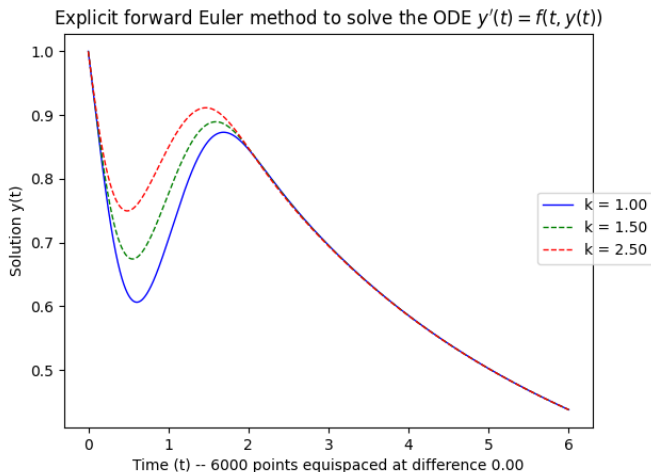
```

1  gk = GEKKO(remote=False)
2  def yPowerODEFunc(kpow):
3      return lambda t, y: (t - y**kpow) * (3 - y * t - 2 * (y**2))
4  if __name__ == "__main__":
5      kPowParams = [ 1.0, 1.5, 2.5 ]
6      drawStyles = [ GetDistinctDrawStyle(n) for n in range(0, len(kPowParams)) ]
7      gridSpacingH = 0.001
8      solInterval = (0, 6.0)
9      (solA, solB) = solInterval
10     icPoint = (0, 1)
11     (t0, y0) = icPoint
12     numGridPoints = math.floor(float((solB - solA) / gridSpacingH))
13     gk.options.IMODE = 4
14     gk.options.TIME_SHIFT = 0
15     gk.options.SOLVER = 1
16     axFig = plt.figure(1)
17     for (kidx, kpow) in enumerate(kPowParams):
18         k = gk.Param()
19         y = gk.Var(value=y0)
20         gk.time = np.linspace(solA, solB, numGridPoints + 1)
21         t = gk.Param(value=gk.time)
22         k.value = kpow
23         ftyFunc = yPowerODEFunc(k)(t, y)
24         gk.Equation(y.dt() == ftyFunc)
25         gk.options.MAX_ITER = 250 * math.floor(kpow)
26         gk.solve(dis=VERBOSE)
27         pltDrawStyle = drawStyles[kidx]
28         pltLegendLabel = "k=_%1.2f" % kpow
29         plt.plot(gk.time, y, pltDrawStyle, label=pltLegendLabel, linewidth=1)
30     plt.xlabel("Time_(t)---%d_points_equispaced_at_difference_%1.2f" % (numGridPoints, gridSpacingH))
31     plt.ylabel('Solution_y(t)')
32     plt.title(r'Explicit_forward_Euler_method_to_solve_the_ODE_$y^{\prime}(t)=f(t,y(t))$')
33     axFig.legend(loc='center_right')
34     plt.show()

```

# GEKKO library (results)

```
(ipython) cd Examples/BasicNumericalODESolutionMethods  
(ipython) run "PythonGEKKOSolver.py"
```



# Generating vector field plots for 2D systems

- ▶ **Problem 4 from the midterm:** Consider the non-linear ODE  $\dot{x} = F(x)$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  defined such that  $F(x, y) = (x(1 - x^2 - y^2) - y, y(1 - x^2 - y^2) + x)^T$
- ▶ The function  $F(x, y)$  defines a vector field in 2D
- ▶ Solutions  $(x(t), y(t))$  are witnessed along a hyperbola as can be seen by evaluating the system of equations in polar coordinate
- ▶ We can get to initial grips with the solutions to this problem and visualize the vector field at hand using standard plotting functions in `matplotlib.pyplot` (imported as `plt`)

# Generating vector field plots (source code flavor)

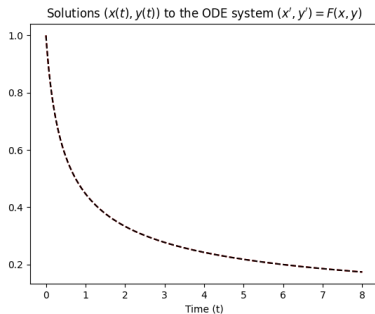
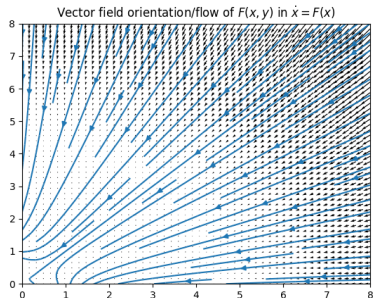
```

1  from scipy.integrate import odeint
2
3  def PlotVectorField(FxyFunc, xRange, yRange):
4      Fxy = lambda x, y: np.array(list(FxyFunc(x, y)))
5      xGridPoints, yGridPoints = np.meshgrid(xRange, yRange)
6      xv, yv = sympy.var('x_y')
7      (uQuiver, vQuiver) = Fxy(xGridPoints, yGridPoints)
8      xmin, xmax = min(xGridPoints.flatten()), max(xGridPoints.flatten())
9      ymin, ymax = min(yGridPoints.flatten()), max(yGridPoints.flatten())
10     plt.xlim(xmin, xmax)
11     plt.ylim(ymin, ymax)
12     plt.quiver(xGridPoints, yGridPoints, uQuiver, vQuiver)
13     plt.streamplot(xGridPoints, yGridPoints, uQuiver, vQuiver)
14
15  def SolveODE2DSystemWithVectorField(FxyFunc, icPoint, solInterval, h):
16      Fxy = lambda s, time: FxyFunc(s[0], s[1])
17      (t0, (x0, y0)) = icPoint
18      (solA, solB) = solInterval
19      numGridPoints = math.floor(float((solB - solA) / h))
20      timeSpecT = np.linspace(solA, solB, numGridPoints + 1)
21      odeIntSol = odeint(Fxy, [ x0, y0 ], timeSpecT)
22      xtSolPoints = odeIntSol[:, 0]
23      ytSolPoints = odeIntSol[:, 1]
24      axFig = plt.figure(1)
25      plt.xlabel(r'Time_{t}')
26      plt.plot(timeSpecT, xtSolPoints, GetDistinctDrawStyle(2), label=r'$x(t)$')
27      plt.plot(timeSpecT, ytSolPoints, GetDistinctDrawStyle(6), label=r'$y(t)$')

```

# Results

```
(ipython) cd Examples/BasicNumericalODESolutionMethods
(ipython) run "ExploringVectorFieldsAndODESystems.py"
```



The `plt.quiver` function shows the magnitude of the vectors (as black arrows, above left) where the `plt.streamplot` shows the orientation/directions of the flow of the field without indicating magnitudes along the curves (in blue, above left)

# Key applications for numerical exploration

## Chaotic attractors

# Definitions and motivation

- ▶ A very precise definition of *chaotic attractor* is developed using criteria based on topological constructions in the references (see [4, 1])
- ▶ We will stick to a high-level qualitative description motivating study of the behavior of systems of this type
- ▶ When considering dynamical systems, an *attractor* is a set of states (orbits) towards which a system (of ODE solutions) tends to evolve
- ▶ System values within some small range of the *attractor* set stay close even if perturbed slightly (e.g., by slightly shifting an ODE initial condition)
- ▶ A *chaotic attractor* is correspondingly an attractor admitting system that exhibit apparently randomized behavior and disorderly irregularities in form
- ▶ Systems that form a *chaotic attractor* type are highly sensitive to initial conditions

# Famous examples of chaotic attractors

- ▶ We will focus on numerical exploration of the *Rössler attractor* system
- ▶ Other famous examples that extend applications of these numerical ideas in Python 3 include the following chaotic attractor system variants:  
The *Robin attractor*, the *Lorenz-63 model* (3D solutions), and the *Lorenz-96 model*
- ▶ There is much on these special cases in the literature (we do not have enough time to cover them all here)



# Our prototype attractor problem for numerical investigation

Key application: The Rössler attractor

# Definition of the Rössler attractor problem

- ▶ Non-linear 3D systems of ODEs determined by parameters  $(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$
- ▶ Precise system:  $(x', y', z') = (-y - z, x + ay, b + z(x - c))$
- ▶ Rössler famously studied the “classic” case with  $(a, b, c) := (0.2, 0.2, 5.7)$  (important characteristic properties of other parameter special cases are known)
- ▶ Often times to simplify considerations, we consider a projection of the system corresponding to setting one of the XYZ-components to zero, e.g., the projection in the XY-plane seen by setting  $z := 0$

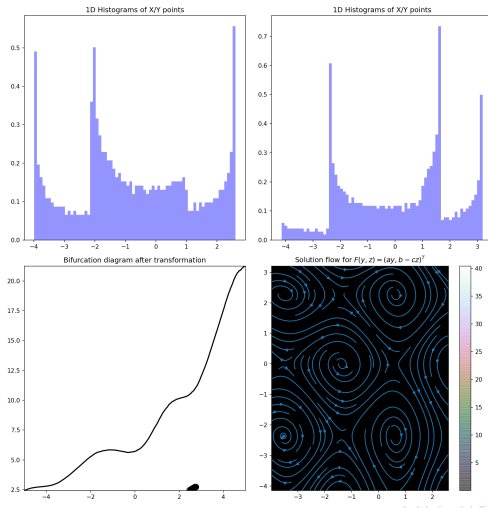
# Preliminary numerical exploration of solutions

- We can use the `scipy.integration.odeint` function to numerically solve the projected system for *explicit* numerical values of the parameters  $(a, b, c)$
- For the 3D plots, we transform the  $Z$ -component of the plot by taking the Euclidean norm of the projected point (see source code)

```
(sage) cd Examples/RösslerAttractor  
(sage) run "RosslerMiscPlots.py"
```

# Exploring the classical parameter solution (1D plots)

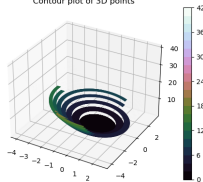
The solution projected into the  $XY$ -plane (by setting  $Z = 0$ ) with the “classic” parameters  $(a, b, c) = (0.2, 0.2, 5.7)$ .



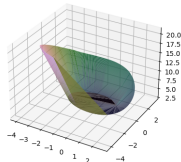
# Exploring the classical parameter solution (3D plots)

The solution projected into the  $XY$ -plane (by setting  $Z = 0$ ) with the “classic” parameters  $(a, b, c) = (0.2, 0.2, 5.7)$ .

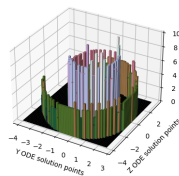
Contour plot of 3D points



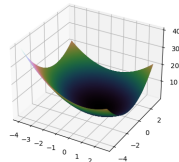
Surface plot of the 3D data



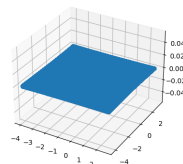
3D histogram (normalized density plot)



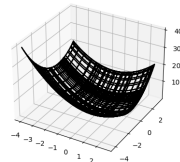
Surface plot of the 3D data



3D scatter plot with z-component transformed

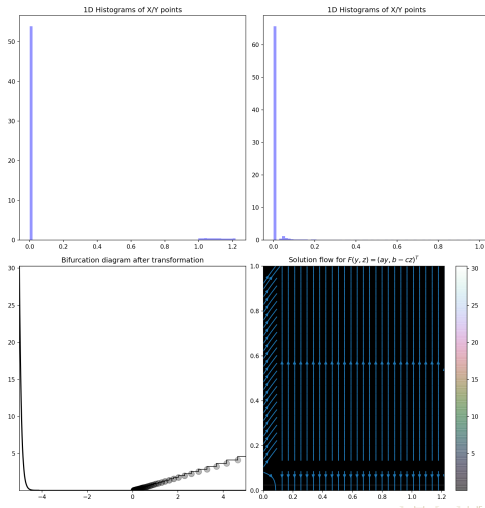


Wireframed outline of the 3D data



# Exploring the classical parameter solution (1D plots)

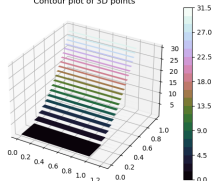
The solution projected into the  $YZ$ -plane (by setting  $X = 0$ ) with the “classic” parameters  $(a, b, c) = (0.2, 0.2, 5.7)$ .



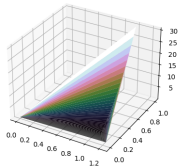
# Exploring the classical parameter solution (3D plots)

The solution projected into the  $YZ$ -plane (by setting  $X = 0$ ) with the “classic” parameters  $(a, b, c) = (0.2, 0.2, 5.7)$ .

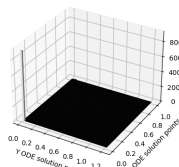
Contour plot of 3D points



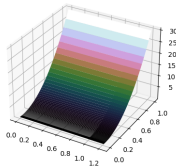
Surface plot of the 3D data



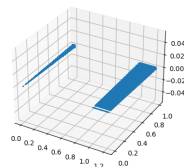
3D histogram (normalized density plot)



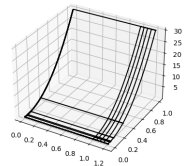
Surface plot of the 3D data



3D scatter plot with z-component transformed



Wireframed outline of the 3D data



# A modified experiment definition (Experiment V1)

- ▶ More so than a theoretically motivated example, we present Python3 source code for a numerical experiment that can be generalized and extended for use in other related applications
- ▶ Consider the following generalization of the 1D-parameter *Lyapunov coefficient* that results when  $v_0 \in \mathbb{R}^2$  is a fixed constant vector and  $R(x, y, z)$  is the 2D Rössler system formed by omitting the projection component:

$$\lambda(a, b, c) := \frac{1}{N} \times \sum_{0 \leq i, j, k < N} \log \left| \frac{\partial R}{\partial t}(x_i, y_j, z_k) \cdot v_0 \right|.$$

- ▶ Since  $\lambda(a, b, c)$  depends symbolically on the parameters  $(a, b, c)$ , we consider a relation on real values of these parameters that restricts a grid of these parameters upon which we can form a plot.
- ▶ Then for the  $(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$  that satisfy this relation, we plot a `matplotlib.pyplot.hexbin` graph of  $|\lambda(a, b, c)|$  on the Cartesian y-axis against the values of another function  $\mathcal{T}_x(a, b, c)$  on the x-axis



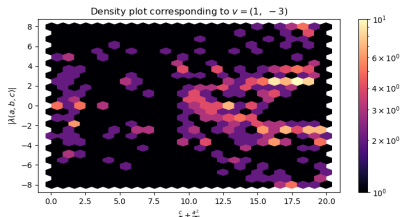
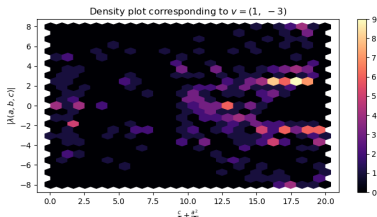
# A modified experiment definition (Experiment V1)

- Limitations and incompatibility: The implementation was tricky in Python3 for a few reasons:
  - There is considerable incompatibility in the types of the objects returned by large / mature Python3 libraries like sympy, scipy, numpy and even within sage (the *SageMath* CAS environment)
  - There is really no good way to solve a 3D system of ODEs when the solutions involve symbolic parameters like the unevaluated indeterminates  $(a, b, c)$
  - Numerically evaluating the entire ODE solution for each possibility of  $(a, b, c)$  is an inefficient, time-consuming approach

# Modified experiment V1 – Variant #1 (results)

```
(sage) cd Examples/RosslorAttractor
(sage) run "RosslorGenLyapunovExponentExperiments.py"
```

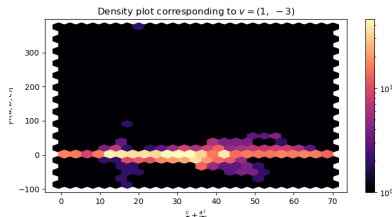
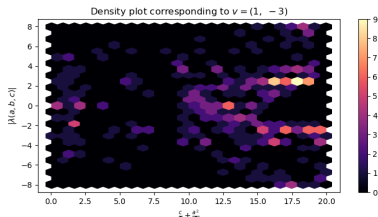
**Variant 1:** In the projected  $XY$ -plane with linear (left) and logarithmic (right) scaling on the  $X$ -axis defined by  $\mathcal{T}_x(a, b, c) := \frac{c}{a} + \frac{a^2}{c}$ , subject to the restriction that  $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 = 4$  (for real parameter values).



# Modified experiment V1 – Variant #2 (results)

```
(sage) cd Examples/RosslorAttractor
(sage) run "RosslorGenLyapunovExponentExperiments.py"
```

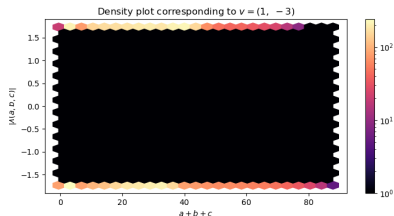
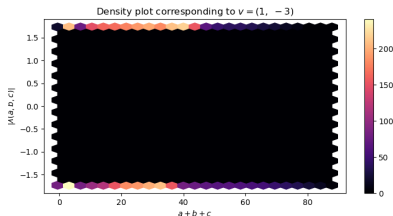
**Variant 2:** In the projected  $XY$ -plane with linear (left) and logarithmic (right) scaling on the  $X$ -axis defined by  $\mathcal{T}_x(a, b, c) := \frac{c}{a} + \frac{a^2}{c}$ , subject to the restriction that  $(a - 0.2)^4 - (b^2 - 0.2)^3 + 2(c - 5.7)^2 = 4$  (for real parameter values).



# Modified experiment V1 – Variant #3 (results)

```
(sage) cd Examples/RösslerAttractor
(sage) run "RösslerGenLyapunovExponentExperiments.py"
```

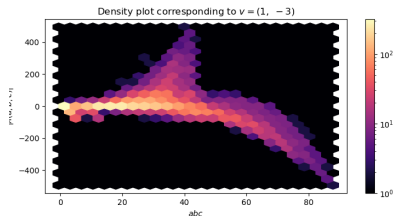
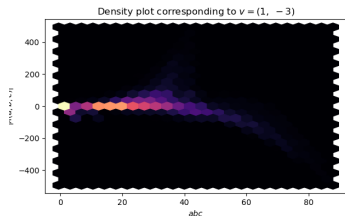
**Variant 3:** In the projected  $XY$ -plane with linear (right) and logarithmic (left) scaling on the  $X$ -axis defined by  $\mathcal{T}_x(a, b, c) := a + b + c$ , subject to the restriction that  $(a + b + c)^2 = 3$  (for real parameter values).



# Modified experiment V1 – Variant #4 (results)

```
(sage) cd Examples/RösslerAttractor
(sage) run "RösslerGenLyapunovExponentExperiments.py"
```

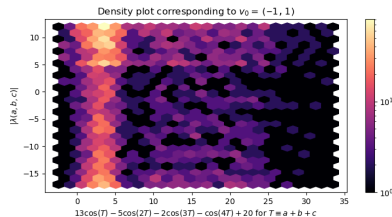
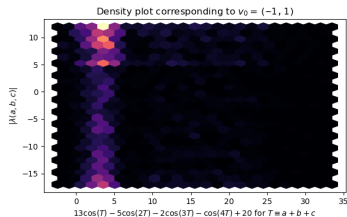
**Variant 4:** In the projected  $XY$ -plane with linear (right) and logarithmic (left) scaling on the  $X$ -axis defined by  $\mathcal{T}_x(a, b, c) := abc$ , subject to the restriction that  $(a + b + c)^2 = 3$  (for real parameter values).



# Modified experiment V1 – Variant #5 (results)

```
(sage) cd Examples/RossslerAttractor
(sage) run "RossslerGenLyapunovExponentExperiments.py"
```

**Variant 5 (Parameterizations of a heart shape in the plane):** In the projected  $XY$ -plane with linear (right) and logarithmic (left) scaling on the  $X$ -axis defined by  $\mathcal{T}_x(a, b, c) := 13 \cos(T) - 5 \cos(2T) - 2 \cos(3T) - \cos(4T)$  with  $T \equiv a + b + c$ , subject to the restriction that  $(a^2 + b^2 + ac)^2 = c^2(a^2 + b^2)$ .



# Experiment V2: Problem setup

- ▶ The hexagon density plots that resulted in seemingly random choices of the  $X$ -axis functions and relations between the parameters suggest that there is more hidden underneath (e.g., some semblance of regularity to be quantified in) the definition of  $\lambda(a, b, c)$
- ▶ For this experiment, we consider the projected system to  $XY$  components (setting  $Z = 0$ )
- ▶ The resulting 2D ODE system only depends on one parameter:  $a$
- ▶ So we consider the following function:

$$\lambda(a, u) := \frac{1}{N^2} \times \sum_{0 \leq i, j, k < N} \log |(-y_{N,j}, x_{N,i} + ay_{N,j}) \cdot (u, -1)|.$$

- ▶ Note that we consider a uniform grid for  $t$  such that the difference between the  $N$  distinct time points goes to zero as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . Then  $(x_{N,i}, y_{N,j}) = (x(t_{N,i}), y(t_{N,j}))$  where the LHS functions are also implicitly functions of the (indeterminate) parameter:  $a$

# Experiment V2: Problem setup (cont'd)

- Some arithmetic yields that

$$\lambda(a, u) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \times \log \left[ \prod_{0 \leq i < N} |x_{N,i}| \right]}_{:= \lambda_{0,N}(a)} + \frac{1}{N^2} \times \log \left[ \prod_{0 \leq i, j < N} \left| 1 + \frac{(u + a)y_{N,j}}{x_{N,i}} \right| \right].$$

- Want to verify numerically that the following limit exists for each  $a, u \in (-\infty, \infty)$ :

$$\lambda_0(a) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\lambda_{0,N}(a)}{N}.$$

- We also pose an ansatz that (for at least some  $a, u$ ) we should get a limiting probability measure when any  $(i, j) \in [0, N)^2 \cap \mathbb{Z}^2$  is selected uniformly at random

$$\nu(a, u; t) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P} \left[ \frac{y_{N,j}}{x_{N,i}} = t \right], t \in \mathbb{R}$$



# Experiment V2: Problem setup (cont'd)

- When this happens, we have that

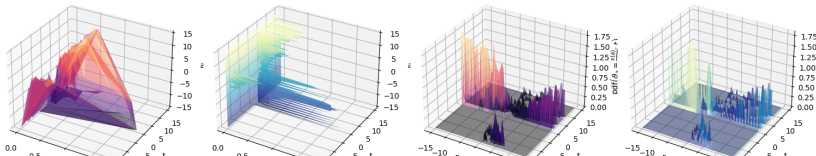
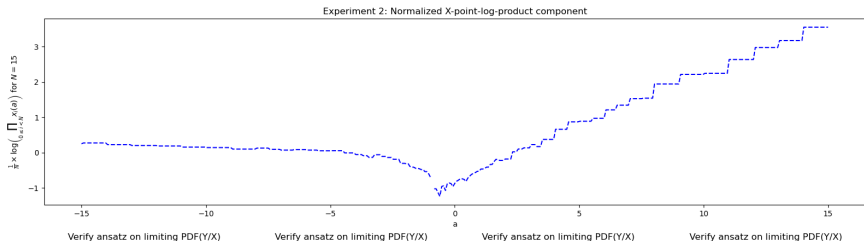
$$\begin{aligned}
 \lambda(a, u) &= \lambda_0(a) + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \log |1 + (u + a)t| \nu(a, u; t) dt \\
 &= \lambda_0(a) + \int_{\tau_\ell(a, u)}^{\tau_u(a, u)} \log |1 + (u + a)t| \nu(a, u; t) dt \\
 &= \lambda_0(a) + \log |1 + (u + a)t| (\mathbb{P}[\Theta \leq t] - 1) \Bigg|_{\tau_\ell(a, u)}^{\tau_u(a, u)} \\
 &\quad + \int_{\tau_\ell(a, u)}^{\tau_u(a, u)} \frac{(u + a)\mathbb{P}[\Theta \geq t]}{1 + (u + a)t} dt,
 \end{aligned}$$

where we have  $-\infty < \tau_\ell(a, u), \tau_u(a, u) < \infty$  (the measure has finite support; justified by examining other special cases of this system) and  $\Theta$  is a random variable distributed such that  $\nu(a, u; t)$  is its PDF

# Experiment V2: Numerical methods towards the ansatz

```
(sage) cd Examples/RösslerAttractor
(sage) run "RosslerGenLyapunovExponentExperiments2.py"
```

**Note:** It is very time consuming to run the above script for a fine-grained mesh that gives the  $N \rightarrow \infty$  behavior. These plots show the numerical results with the plot grid taken on a mesh with of granularity  $(h, \Delta a) = (0.075, 0.075)$ .



# Experiment V2: Observations and open questions

- ▶ If we witness the convergence of  $\lambda_0(a)$  and  $\nu(a, u; t)$  to a probability measure, are there then subsets of such measure inducing parameters where we get particularly “nice” distributions?
- ▶ As is typical with chaotic attractor systems, we should (probably?) expect that for any fixed  $(a, u)$  where we get this convergence, there should be some “sweet spot”  $\hat{P} = (a_0, u_0)$  such that  $(a, u)$  is in a small neighborhood of  $\hat{P}$  and at the main point we find exquisite properties given the territory.
- ▶ In running the Python script used to generate the plots on the previous slide, we have had to exclude singularities for several  $a$  where the ratio  $\vartheta_{N,i,j} = y_{N,j}(a)/x_{N,i}(a) = +\infty$  blows up. What does this indicate?

# Concluding remarks and discussion

## The End

Questions?

Comments?

Feedback?

# Thank you for attending!

# References I



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*Runge-Kutta method*. [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Runge-Kutta\\_methods](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Runge-Kutta_methods)