

# C24 Dynamical Systems — Notes based on Ron Daniel's lectures and lecture notes in MT 2014

## 1 Linear algebra

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Then

$$e^{\mathbf{A}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{A}^k}{k!} \quad (1)$$

**Proposition 1.1.** If  $\mathbf{S}$  and  $\mathbf{T}$  are linear transformations on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which commute, i.e.  $\mathbf{ST} = \mathbf{TS}$ , then  $e^{\mathbf{S}+\mathbf{T}} = e^{\mathbf{ST}}$ .

*Proof.* Not interesting. □

**Proposition 1.2.** If  $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{T}$  are linear transformations on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (i.e.  $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ) and  $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{PTP}^{-1}$  then  $e^{\mathbf{S}} = \mathbf{P}e^{\mathbf{T}}\mathbf{P}^{-1}$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} e^{\mathbf{S}} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(\mathbf{PTP}^{-1})^k}{k!} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\mathbf{PT}^k\mathbf{P}^{-1}}{k!} \\ &= \mathbf{P} \left( \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\mathbf{T}^k}{k!} \right) \mathbf{P}^{-1} \\ &= \mathbf{P}e^{\mathbf{T}}\mathbf{P}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Proposition 1.3.** If

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

then

$$e^{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} e^a & 0 \\ 0 & e^b \end{bmatrix}$$

*Proof.* By induction

$$\mathbf{A}^k = \begin{bmatrix} a^k & 0 \\ 0 & b^k \end{bmatrix}$$

for  $k = 0, 1, \dots$ . Then we can write

$$\begin{aligned} e^{\mathbf{A}} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{A}^k}{k!} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \begin{bmatrix} a^k & 0 \\ 0 & b^k \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \begin{bmatrix} a^k/k! & 0 \\ 0 & b^k/k! \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} e^a & 0 \\ 0 & e^b \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Proposition 1.4.** *If*

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$$

*then*

$$e^{\mathbf{A}} = e^a \begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

*Proof.* Write  $\mathbf{A} = a\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{B}$  where

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then  $a\mathbf{I}$  commutes with  $\mathbf{B}$  and by Proposition 1.1,

$$e^{\mathbf{A}} = e^{a\mathbf{I}}e^{\mathbf{B}} = e^a e^{\mathbf{B}}$$

And from the definition

$$e^{\mathbf{B}} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{B}^2/2! + \dots = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{B}$$

since by direct computation  $\mathbf{B}^2 = \mathbf{B}^3 = \dots = 0$ .

□

**Proposition 1.5.** *If*

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

*then*

$$e^{\mathbf{A}} = e^a \begin{bmatrix} \cos b & -\sin b \\ \sin b & \cos b \end{bmatrix}$$

*Proof.* If  $\lambda = a + ib$ , it follows by induction that

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}^k = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Re}(\lambda^k) & -\operatorname{Im}(\lambda^k) \\ \operatorname{Im}(\lambda^k) & \operatorname{Re}(\lambda^k) \end{bmatrix}$$

explicitly: it is true for  $k = 0$  and assuming true for  $k - 1$ , we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda^{k-1} &= a_{k-1} + ib_{k-1} \\ \lambda^k &= \lambda^{k-1}\lambda \\ &= (a_{k-1} + ib_{k-1})(a + ib) \\ &= (a_{k-1}a - b_{k-1}b) + i(b_{k-1}a + a_{k-1}b) \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}^k &= \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Re}(\lambda^{k-1}) & -\operatorname{Im}(\lambda^{k-1}) \\ \operatorname{Im}(\lambda^{k-1}) & \operatorname{Re}(\lambda^{k-1}) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{k-1} & -b_{k-1} \\ b_{k-1} & a_{k-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} (a_{k-1}a - b_{k-1}b) & (-a_{k-1}b - b_{k-1}a) \\ (b_{k-1}a + a_{k-1}b) & (-b_{k-1}b + a_{k-1}a) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Re}(\lambda^k) & -\operatorname{Im}(\lambda^k) \\ \operatorname{Im}(\lambda^k) & \operatorname{Re}(\lambda^k) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Using this

$$\begin{aligned} e^{\mathbf{A}} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Re}(\frac{\lambda^k}{k!}) & -\operatorname{Im}(\frac{\lambda^k}{k!}) \\ \operatorname{Im}(\frac{\lambda^k}{k!}) & \operatorname{Re}(\frac{\lambda^k}{k!}) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Re}(e^\lambda) & -\operatorname{Im}(e^\lambda) \\ \operatorname{Im}(e^\lambda) & \operatorname{Re}(e^\lambda) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= e^a \begin{bmatrix} \cos b & -\sin b \\ \sin b & \cos b \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 1.1** (The Jordan Canonical Form). *Let  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{2n-k}$  be a real matrix with*

- *real eigenvalues  $\lambda_j, j = 1, \dots, k$  and*
- *complex eigenvalues  $\lambda_j = a_j + ib_j$  and  $\bar{\lambda}_j = a_j - ib_j, j = k+1, \dots, n$ .*

*Then there exists a basis  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_{k+1}, \mathbf{u}_{k+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n, \mathbf{u}_n\}$  for  $\mathbb{R}^{2n-k}$ , where*

- *$\mathbf{v}_j, j = 1, \dots, k$  and*

- $\mathbf{u}_j + i\mathbf{v}_j, j = k+1, \dots, n$

are generalised eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}$  such that the matrix

$$\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_{k+1}, \mathbf{u}_{k+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n, \mathbf{u}_n]$$

is invertible and

$$\mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{J}_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \mathbf{J}_r \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

where the elementary Jordan blocks  $\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{J}_j, j = 1, \dots, r$  are either of the form

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \cdots & & & & \\ 0 & \cdots & & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \cdots & & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

for one of the real eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\lambda$ , or of the form

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{I} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \cdots & & & & \\ \mathbf{0} & \cdots & & \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{0} & \cdots & & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

with

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

for one of the complex eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\lambda = a + ib$ .

**Corollary 1.1.** For any  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ , there exists an invertible matrix  $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$  (described in the proof) such that the matrix

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = \mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{W}$$

has one of the following forms

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{\Lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}, \text{ or } \mathbf{\Lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

It then follows from Propositions 1.3, 1.4 and 1.5 that

$$e^{\mathbf{\Lambda}t} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\mu t} \end{bmatrix}, e^{\mathbf{\Lambda}t} = e^{\lambda t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ or } e^{\mathbf{\Lambda}t} = e^{at} \begin{bmatrix} \cos bt & -\sin bt \\ \sin bt & \cos bt \end{bmatrix}$$

respectively. And by Proposition 1.2, the matrix  $e^{\mathbf{A}t}$  is then given by

$$e^{\mathbf{A}t} = \mathbf{W}e^{\mathbf{\Lambda}t}\mathbf{W}^{-1}$$

*Proof.* We analyse the Jordan Canonical Form of three possible cases of eigendecomposition of  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$  (characteristic equation  $|\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}|$  a quadratic equation in  $\lambda$ ):

1. Eigenvalues are real and distinct:  $\lambda, \mu$ . Eigenvectors are  $\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2$ .

In this case  $n = k = 2$ . For the matrix  $\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2]$ :

$$\mathbf{W}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} J_1 & 0 \\ 0 & J_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $J_1 = \lambda, J_2 = \mu$ .

2. Eigenvalues are real and equal:  $\lambda$ . There is only one eigenvector,  $\mathbf{w}$ .

In this case  $n = k = 2$ . For the matrix  $\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}]$ :

$$\mathbf{W}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{J}_1]$$

where

$$\mathbf{J}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

3. Eigenvalues are complex conjugates:  $\lambda_1 = a + ib, \lambda_2 = a - ib$ . Eigenvectors are  $\mathbf{w}_1 = \mathbf{u} + i\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}_2 = \mathbf{u} - i\mathbf{v}$ .

In this case  $k = 0, n = 1$ . For the matrix  $\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u}]$ :

$$\mathbf{W}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{D}]$$

where

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

□

## 2 Introduction

We have: state  $\mathbf{x}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , function  $\mathbf{f} : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then a dynamical system can be written as

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \tag{5}$$

In this lecture course, we assume that the solution exists and is unique locally, i.e. we will assume that the vector fields are sufficiently smooth to allow this.

We call  $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$  a linear autonomous system.

**Theorem 2.1** (The Fundamental Theorem for Linear Systems). *Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Then for a given  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the initial value problem*

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \quad (6)$$

$$\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_0 \quad (7)$$

*has a unique solution given by*

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{x}_0 \quad (8)$$

### 3 Equilibria and stability

Equilibrium solution of  $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$  is a solution  $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$  which is constant, i.e.  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$ .  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is called a fixed point, stationary point, rest point, critical point or steady state.

For maps,  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}_k)$ , the equilibrium solution is a solution  $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ .

**Definition 3.1.** *An equilibrium point  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is said to be stable if, given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a real number  $\delta > 0$  such that for any other solution  $\mathbf{y}(t)$  satisfying  $|\mathbf{y}(0) - \mathbf{x}^*| < \delta$ ,  $|\mathbf{y}(t) - \mathbf{x}^*| < \epsilon$  for all  $t \geq 0$ . Otherwise it is called unstable.*

**Definition 3.2.** *An equilibrium point  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is said to be asymptotically stable if it is stable and there is a  $b > 0$  such that if  $|\mathbf{y}(0) - \mathbf{x}^*| < b$  then  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} |\mathbf{y}(t) - \mathbf{x}^*| = 0$ .*

**Definition 3.3.** *An equilibrium point  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is said to be exponentially stable if it is asymptotically stable and there exist finite  $\alpha, \beta, \delta > 0$  such that if  $|\mathbf{y}(0) - \mathbf{x}^*| < \delta$  then  $|\mathbf{y}(t) - \mathbf{x}^*| \leq \alpha e^{-\beta t} |\mathbf{y}(0) - \mathbf{x}^*|$  for  $t \geq 0$ .*

#### 3.1 Analysing stability in 2x2 systems

In a linear system

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

$$\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_0$$

where  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  where we can decompose  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{W}^{-1}$  according to Corollary 1.1, we can use the coordinate transformation  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{z}_0 = \mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{x}_0$  to analyse the system in the transformed coordinates  $\mathbf{z}$ :

$$\dot{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{z}$$

$$\mathbf{z}(0) = \mathbf{z}_0$$

hence according to Theorem 2.1:

$$\mathbf{z}(t) = e^{\mathbf{\Lambda}t}\mathbf{z}_0$$

We now analyse the three possible cases of  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ :

**Real, distinct eigenvalues.** We have for  $\lambda, \mu, \lambda \neq \mu$ :

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$e^{\mathbf{\Lambda}t} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\mu t} \end{bmatrix}$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\mu t} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_0 \\ &= z_{1,0}e^{\lambda t} + z_{2,0}e^{\mu t} \end{aligned}$$

There can be three subcases:

- $\lambda < \mu < 0$ : stable.
- $\lambda < 0 < \mu$ : saddle shape (separatrices).
- $0 < \lambda < \mu$ : unstable (opposite arrows to stable case).

**Duplicate real eigenvalue.** We have for  $\lambda \neq 0$ :

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$e^{\mathbf{\Lambda}t} = e^{\lambda t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

hence

$$\mathbf{z}(t) = e^{\lambda t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_0$$

There can be two subcases:

- $\lambda < 0$ : stable.
- $\lambda > 0$ : unstable.

**Complex eigenvalues.** We have for  $\lambda_1 = a + ib, \lambda_2 = a - ib$ :

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

and

$$e^{\mathbf{A}t} = e^{at} \begin{bmatrix} \cos bt & -\sin bt \\ \sin bt & \cos bt \end{bmatrix}$$

hence

$$\mathbf{z}(t) = e^{at} \begin{bmatrix} \cos bt & -\sin bt \\ \sin bt & \cos bt \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_0$$

We can look at the norm of  $\mathbf{z}(t)$  to analyse the shape of the solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{z}(t)\|^2 &= |e^{at}|^2 \left\| \begin{bmatrix} z_{1,0} \cos bt - z_{2,0} \sin bt \\ z_{1,0} \sin bt + z_{2,0} \cos bt \end{bmatrix} \right\|^2 \\ &= |e^{at}|^2 (z_{1,0}^2 \cos^2 bt - 2z_{1,0}z_{2,0} \sin bt \cos bt + z_{2,0}^2 \sin^2 bt + \\ &\quad z_{1,0}^2 \sin^2 bt + 2z_{1,0}z_{2,0} \sin bt \cos bt + z_{2,0}^2 \cos^2 bt) \\ &= |e^{at}|^2 (z_{1,0}^2 (\sin^2 bt + \cos^2 bt) + z_{2,0}^2 (\sin^2 bt + \cos^2 bt)) \\ &= |e^{at}|^2 (z_{1,0}^2 + z_{2,0}^2) \\ &= |e^{at}|^2 \|\mathbf{z}_0\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

i.e.  $\|\mathbf{z}(t)\| = |e^{at}| \|\mathbf{z}_0\|$ . So

- $a = 0$ : circle.
- $a < 0$ : stable spiral.
- $a > 0$ : unstable spiral.
- $b > 0$ : anticlockwise.
- $b < 0$ : clockwise.

### 3.2 Nonlinear systems

Consider  $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$  with an equilibrium  $\mathbf{x}^*$ , such that  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$ . Let  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^* + \mathbf{w}$  and assume  $\mathbf{f}$  is differentiable and not that the equilibrium point doesn't change with time. Then for  $j = 1, \dots, n$ :

$$f_j(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{w}) = f_j(\mathbf{x}^*) + (\text{grad}_{\mathbf{x}} f_j(\mathbf{x}^*))^T \mathbf{w} + \dots$$

Hence we can write

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \dot{\mathbf{w}} = D\{\mathbf{x}^*\} \mathbf{w} + \dots$$

where

$$D\{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*)\} = \begin{bmatrix} (\text{grad}_{\mathbf{x}} f_1(\mathbf{x}^*))^T \\ \vdots \\ (\text{grad}_{\mathbf{x}} f_n(\mathbf{x}^*))^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$



Hence we can analyse the following small perturbation model

$$\dot{\mathbf{w}} \approx D\{\mathbf{x}^*\}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{w}$$

**Definition 3.4.** 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  $D\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^*)$  have zero real part.

**Theorem 3.1.** 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.

## 4 Invariant Manifolds

### 4.1 Linear systems: Stable, Unstable and Centre subspaces

### 4.2 Nonlinear system local theory

## 5 Lyapunov Functions

## 6 Asymptotic behaviour

## 7 Limit Cycles and Index Theory

## 8 Local Bifurcations

## 9 Chaos