

Discrete Dynamical Systems: The Linear, the Nonlinear, and the Chaotic Part II

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Review: Discrete-Time Dynamical Systems

A (deterministic) **discrete-time dynamical system** is a pair (X, F) such that

- The **state space** X is a topological space.
- $F : X \rightarrow X$ is a **continuous map**.

The **time evolution function** is then given by

$$\varphi(x, t) = F^t(x).$$

When F is a homeomorphism we will write (X, T) instead of (X, F) . The system then becomes time-reversible and we take $\mathbb{T} = \mathbb{Z}$ as the **time line**.

When we write (X, F) , we implicitly assume that $\mathbb{T} = \mathbb{N}$ is the **time line**.

Review: Linear systems

Consider systems (\mathbb{R}^n, F) . For simplicity we will mostly write x instead of \vec{x} .

- Such a system is **linear** if $F(x) = Mx$ for some $n \times n$ matrix M .
- The zero vector $\vec{0}$ is always an equilibrium, and it is unique iff $M - I$ is invertible, that is, iff 1 is not an eigenvalue of M .
- Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ be the eigenvalues of M .
 - $\vec{0}$ is (locally and globally) asymptotically stable iff $\max |\lambda_i| < 1$,
 - $\vec{0}$ is unstable if $\max |\lambda_i| > 1$,
 - If all eigenvalues have multiplicity 1, then $\vec{0}$ is Lyapunov stable iff $\max |\lambda_i| \leq 1$.

In the previous lecture we looked at an example of dimension $n = 1$; now we will look at a higher-dimensional example.

Example 5: Age-structured populations

The simplest model of population growth under unlimited resources assumes that $P(t+1) = \lambda P(t)$, where $P(t)$ is the population at time t and λ is a positive constant.

This ignores the fact that not all age groups contribute equally to population growth. In age-structured models, the (female) population is partitioned into age classes $\vec{P} = (P_1, \dots, P_n)$.

For each i , let σ_i be the survival probability for individuals in the i -th class for one time step. Moreover, let β_i be the average number of daughters that an individual in the i -th class contributes to P_1 over one time unit. This gives:

$$P_1(t+1) = \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i P_i(t)$$

$$P_{i+1}(t+1) = \sigma_i P_i(t) \quad \text{for } i < n$$

$$P_n(t+1) = \sigma_{n-1} P_{n-1}(t) + \sigma_n P_n(t).$$

Example 5 continued: The Leslie matrix

The dynamics defined on the previous slide can be written as $\vec{P}(t+1) = L\vec{P}(t)$, where L is called the **Leslie matrix**.

For example, consider a population of human females (in millions) with age classes 0–19, 20–39, 40–59, 60–120. If the mortalities over a 20-year time step for these age classes are 10%, 20%, 30%, 70% respectively, and the average numbers of daughters are $\beta_1 = 1, \beta_2 = 0.5, \beta_3 = 0.02, \beta_4 = 0$, then we get the Leslie matrix

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} ? & ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 5 continued: The Leslie matrix

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$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 & 0.02 & 0 \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 & 0.02 & 0 \\ 0.9 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.8 & 0 & 0 \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 & 0.02 & 0 \\ 0.9 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.8 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 5 continued: Properties of L

$$\vec{P}(t+1) = L\vec{P}(t), \text{ where } L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 & 0.02 & 0 \\ 0.9 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.8 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\vec{v}_1 = (0, 0, 0, 1)^T$ is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 0.3.
- $\vec{v}_2 = (0.4279, 0.2867, 0.1708, 0.1146)^T$ is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 1.3430 and $\|\vec{v}_2\|_1 = 1$.
- There are two more eigenvectors \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4 with eigenvalues -0.3083 and -0.0348 respectively.
- The **stable subspace** $E_s = \text{span}(\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4)$.
- The **unstable subspace** $E_u = \text{span}(\vec{v}_2)$.
- The equilibrium $\vec{0}$ is **hyperbolic**.

Example 5 continued: Properties of the dynamics

$$\vec{P}(t+1) = L\vec{P}(t), \text{ where } L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 & 0.02 & 0 \\ 0.9 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.8 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.7 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The biologically feasible region Ω consists of all vectors that have only nonnegative coordinates.
- The intersection of this region with E_S is contained in $\text{span}((0, 0, 0, 1)^T)$. All trajectories that start in this area asymptotically approach $\vec{0}$.
- For all trajectories that start in $\Omega \setminus E_S$ we have $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P_i(t) = \infty$.
- Moreover, for all trajectories that start in $\Omega \setminus E_S$ we have $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\vec{P}(t)}{\|\vec{P}(t)\|_1} = \vec{v}_2$, where $\|\vec{P}(t)\|_1 = |P_1(t) + P_2(t) + P_3(t) + P_4(t)|$.

Example 6: A nonlinear version of Example 5

Let L be the Leslie matrix of Example 5, and let

$$\Omega_1 = \{\vec{P} \in \Omega : P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + P_4 = 1\} = \{\vec{P} \in \Omega : \|\vec{P}\|_1 = 1\}.$$

Consider the system (Ω_1, T) , where $T(\vec{P}) = \frac{L\vec{P}}{\|\vec{P}\|_1}$.

During the presentation we numerically explored this system.

$\vec{P}^* = (0, 0, 0, 1)^T$ is an unstable equilibrium.

$\vec{P}^{**} = (0.4279, 0.2867, 0.1708, 0.1146)^T$ is a locally stable equilibrium.

It is approached by all trajectories that start with $\vec{P}(0) \neq \vec{P}^*$.

While the system (Ω_1, T) is nonlinear, it has the big advantage that its state space Ω_1 is a compact subset of $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^4$.

Most of the theory of dynamical systems focuses on systems with a compact state space.

Example 7: The discrete logistic system

All population dynamics models that we have considered so far implicitly assume unlimited resources. The **discrete logistic model** is based on the more realistic assumption that at high population densities the population will grow at a slower rate or even decline due to scarcity of resources.

The variable x in this model represents the population size as a fraction of a hypothetical maximal population size, so that the state space $X = [0, 1]$ is compact.

The updating function is given by $F(x) = rx(1 - x)$, where r is a parameter with $0 < r \leq 4$.

When $x_t \approx 0$ we have $x_{t+1} = rx_t(1 - x_t) \approx rx_t$, so that population growth will be nearly exponential.

At higher population densities the factor $1 - x_t$ will slow down growth, and when $x_t > 0.5$, result in a population decline between times t and $t + 1$.

Properties of the discrete logistic system

The properties of the dynamics depend on the value of r :

- For $0 < r \leq 1$, the system has a unique equilibrium $x^* = 0$ (extinction). It is asymptotically stable.
- For $1 < r$, the equilibrium $x^* = 0$ is unstable and the system has a second equilibrium x^{**} that corresponds the **carrying capacity of the environment**.
- For $1 < r < 3$ the equilibrium x^{**} is locally asymptotically stable and will be approached by all trajectories that start in $(0, 1]$.
- For $3 < r$ the equilibrium x^{**} is unstable.
- For $3 < r < 1 + \sqrt{6} \approx 3.4495$ the system has an orbit of period 2 that will be approached by almost all trajectories.

We can see that the system undergoes qualitative changes called **bifurcations** when we increase the **bifurcation parameter** r past certain **bifurcation values** $r^* = 1, 3, 3.4495$.

The one at $r^* = 3.4495$ is called a **period-doubling bifurcation**.

The discrete logistic system for larger values of r

When we slowly increase the value of r beyond 3.4495:

- First a sequence of additional period-doubling bifurcations occurs when we increase r on $(3.4495, 3.570)$, so that successively stable periodic orbits of length 2^n appear and then become unstable .
- For $r \in (3.570, 4]$ the situation is quite complicated.
 - For example, when $r \approx 3.839$, there is a unique stable equilibrium of period 3.
 - For some other values of r in this range, the system exhibits **chaotic dynamics**.

But what, exactly, is chaos?

First hallmark of chaos: Sensitive dependence

The literature on definitions of chaos is a bit ... chaotic.

There are many different, not necessarily equivalent definitions.

One important feature is **sensitive dependence**, which means that trajectories that start nearby will quickly grow far apart.

Here is one formal definition.

Definition

Let (X, F) be a discrete dynamical system and let $K \subseteq X$. We say that the system is **sensitive on K** if

$$\exists \varepsilon > 0 \forall x \in K \forall \delta > 0 \exists y \in B_\delta(x) \cap K \exists t \in \mathbb{N} d(F^t(x), F^t(y)) > \varepsilon.$$

Sensitive dependence alone does not characterize chaos

A linear system is sensitive (on the whole state space) iff the equilibrium $\vec{0}$ is unstable.

These examples would not be considered chaotic though, as trajectories that grow apart will keep growing apart, at an exponential rate, in a very predictable way.

If the state space is **compact**, then there is an upper limit on how far apart two trajectories can grow.

In truly chaotic systems, trajectories may grow apart for a while, but then get close together again in a region K of the state space where we have sensitive dependence, and this pattern will repeat *ad infinitum*.

Definition

(X, F) is **transitive** if for all nonempty open $U, V \subseteq X$ there exist infinitely many $t > 0$ with $F^t(U) \cap V \neq \emptyset$.

- Linear systems are not transitive.
- The discrete logistic system $([0, 1], F)$ with $F(x) = 4x(1 - x)$ is transitive and sensitive on $K = [0, 1]$.

Definition (First definition of chaos)

A system (X, F) that is transitive and sensitive on X is chaotic.

A second definition of chaos

Our first definition is too restrictive, as it does not apply to those examples of systems where trajectories approach a subset of the state space called an **attractor**. These attractors are often, but not always, beautiful **fractals**.

These attractors may be proper subsets $A \subset X$, and forward trajectories will eventually move out of any open set U whose closure does not intersect A , so that we don't have transitivity on the whole state space.

But attractors will always be forward invariant, so that $(A, F \upharpoonright A)$ is a related dynamical system.

Definition (Second definition of chaos)

A system (X, F) is chaotic iff it is sensitive on an attractor A .

What are attractors?

Examples and an informal definition

- For example, if x^* is a locally asymptotically stable fixed point, then $\{x^*\}$ is an attractor.
- More generally, if x is locally asymptotically stable fixed point of (X, F^p) , then $\{x, F(x), F^2(x), F^{p-1}(x)\}$ is a periodic attractor.
- Attractors are **closed** and **forward invariant** subsets of X .
- A **attracts a nonempty open set $U \supseteq A$ of initial conditions.** For any trajectory that starts in U we have $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} d(x(t), A) = 0$.
- A is minimal with respect to the last two properties.

Some observations

Assume a dynamical system is sensitive on an attractor.

- The dynamics on the attractor cannot be periodic. In particular, the attractor cannot be a finite set.
- Aperiodicity on the attractor does not all by itself imply chaos. For example, consider a rotation of $X = S^1$ by an angle α such that $\frac{\alpha}{2\pi}$ is irrational. Such a system is transitive, has aperiodic and dense orbits, but is not sensitive. Here S^1 itself is the only attractor.
- If (X, F) is transitive, then X itself must be the attractor. While many attractors of chaotic systems are fractals, some are perfectly ordinary sets, like $[0, 1]$ in the discrete logistic system $([0, 1], 4x(1 - x))$.