

# Nonlinear Dynamics and Chaos I.

## Assignment 2

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2019-10-23

### 1 Approximation of forced oscillator

Considering the equation

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = \varepsilon M x^2 \\ \dot{x}(0) = 0 \\ x(0) = a_0 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

we observe that the system equations will be found to be  $\mathcal{C}^\infty$  in  $\varepsilon$ , which is why we may generally approximate the solution in orders of  $\varepsilon$ . As suggested we use Lindstedt's Ansatz and introduce a new time as well:

$$\begin{aligned} x_\varepsilon(t) &= \varphi_0(t) + \varepsilon \varphi_1(t) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2) \\ \varphi_i(t) &= \varphi_i(t + T_\varepsilon) \\ T_\varepsilon &= \frac{2\pi}{\omega_\varepsilon} \\ \tau &= \omega_\varepsilon t \\ \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} &= \omega_\varepsilon \frac{d}{d\tau} \end{aligned}$$

Simultaneously we approximate  $\omega_\varepsilon$  as:

$$\omega_\varepsilon = \omega_0 + \varepsilon \omega_1 + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2)$$

where  $\omega_0$  is the natural frequency of the equation given in eq. (1).

By substituting into eq. (1) all the introduced approximations, denoting the derivative in  $\tau$  with  $'$  and neglecting all higher order terms, we get:

$$(\omega_0^2 + 2\varepsilon \omega_0 \omega_1) \varphi'' + \varepsilon \omega^2 \varphi_1'' + \omega^2 \varphi_0 + \varepsilon \omega^2 \varphi_1 = \varepsilon M \varphi_0^2 \quad (2)$$

## 1.1 Order 0 approximation

For the order 0 we simply get a homogeneous oscillator with natural frequency equals to 1 (in the new time, i.e.  $\varphi(\tau)$ ):

$$\begin{cases} \omega_0^2 \varphi_0'' + \omega_0^2 \varphi_0 = 0 & \Rightarrow & \varphi_0'' + \varphi_0 = 0 \\ \dot{\varphi}_0(0) = 0 \\ \varphi_0(0) = a_0 \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

The solution to this homogeneous differential equation satisfying the initial conditions is:

$$\varphi_0 = a_0 \cos \tau \quad (4)$$

## 1.2 Order $\varepsilon$ approximation

Substituting the solution (eq. (4)) back into eq. (2), we get (rearranging):

$$\begin{cases} \varphi_1'' + \varphi_1 = \frac{M a_0^2}{\omega_0^2} \cos^2 \tau + 2 \frac{\omega_1}{\omega_0} a_0 \cos \tau \\ \varphi_1'(0) = 0 \\ \varphi_1(0) = 0 \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

Note that we the initial conditions are already satisfied by  $\varphi_0$ , which is why they need to be zero here. In this way the solution of the homogeneous equation simply collapses. Furthermore we can reduce the first trigonometric term:

$$\varphi_1'' + \varphi_1 = \frac{M a_0^2}{2 \omega_0^2} + \frac{M a_0^2}{\omega_0^2} \cos(2 \tau) + 2 \frac{\omega_1}{\omega_0} a_0 \cos \tau \quad (6)$$

We now notice that the eventual solution for the last term would violate our Ansatz: we observe resonance, since  $t \cos \tau$  would need to be used. To avoid this we pick

$$\omega_1 = 0 \quad (7)$$

We select our particular solution to be in the form of:

$$\varphi_{1p} = A + B \cos(2 \tau) \quad (8)$$

Coefficients can easily be determined to be:

$$A = \frac{M a_0^2}{2 \omega_0^2}$$

$$B = -\frac{M a_0^2}{3 \omega_0^2}$$

The  $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon)$  solution is therefor (note that with  $\omega_1 = 0$  we simply have  $\tau = \omega_0 t$ ):

$$\varphi(t) = a_0 \cos(\omega_0 t) + \varepsilon \frac{M a_0^2}{2 \omega^2} - \frac{M a_0^2}{3 \omega_0^2} \cos(2 \omega_0 t) \quad (9)$$

## 2 Van der Pol equation

Given the van der Pol equation

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{x} + \varepsilon (x^2 - 1) \dot{x} + x = F \cos(\omega t) \\ \dot{x}(0) = 0 \\ x(0) = a_0 \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

as before we notice that the system equations should be differentiable in  $\varepsilon$ , which is why we might approximate

$$x(t) = \varphi_0(t) + \varepsilon \varphi_1(t) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon)^2 \quad (11)$$

Substituting this in eq. (10)

$$(\varphi_0'' + \varphi_0) + \varepsilon ((\varphi_0^2 - 1) \varphi_0' + \varphi_1'' + \varphi_1) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2) = F \cos(\omega t) \quad (12)$$

Note that in this case we did not change the time, and ' just denotes the common time derivative.

### 2.1 Order 0 approximation

For the  $\mathcal{O}(0)$  approximation eq. (12) collapses to:

$$\varphi_0''(t) + \varphi_0(t) = F \cos(t\omega) \quad (13)$$

This ODE, with the initial value conditions has a general solution:

$$a_0 \cos(t) + \frac{F(\cos(t) - \cos(t\omega))}{\omega^2 - 1} \quad (14)$$

Now using the suggestions, we avoid  $2\pi$  - periodic terms and aim for an exact  $\frac{2\pi}{\omega}$  - periodic solution. For this reason we may select  $a_0$  to be:

$$a_0 = -\frac{F}{\omega^2 - 1} \quad (15)$$

In this way our constant order approximation in  $\varepsilon$  becomes:

$$\varphi_0(t) = \frac{F}{\omega^2 - 1} \cos(\omega t) \quad (16)$$

### 2.2 Order $\varepsilon$ approximation

For the next order we simply substitute the obtained solution in the original eq. (12). This yields after rearranging terms:

$$\frac{F\omega \sin(t\omega) (F^2 \cos^2(t\omega) - (\omega^2 - 1)^2)}{(\omega^2 - 1)^3} + \varphi_1''(t) + \varphi_1(t) = 0 \quad (17)$$

The homogeneous solutions would introduce again some non  $\frac{2\pi}{\omega}$  - periodic component, i.e.  $\cos(t)$  and  $\sin(t)$  so we simply choose them to be zero.

As we can see the equation has become a bit more complicated, with a cosine squared multiplied by a sinus, which again need to be reduced. After some notable amount of calculations, the particular solution can be found to be:

$$\varphi_1(t) = \frac{F\omega \sin(\omega t) (F^2(\omega^2 - 1) \cos(2\omega t) + F^2(5\omega^2 - 1) - 2(\omega^2 - 1)^2(9\omega^2 - 1))}{2(\omega^2 - 1)^4(9\omega^2 - 1)} \quad (18)$$

So finally putting the solutions together by adding  $\varepsilon\varphi_1$  to the constant order solution, we get:

$$x(t) \approx \frac{F \cos(\omega t)}{1 - \omega^2} + \frac{\varepsilon F \omega \sin(\omega t) (F^2(\omega^2 - 1) \cos(2\omega t) + F^2(5\omega^2 - 1) - 2(\omega^2 - 1)^2(9\omega^2 - 1))}{2(\omega^2 - 1)^4(9\omega^2 - 1)} \quad (19)$$

### 2.3 Solution comparison plot

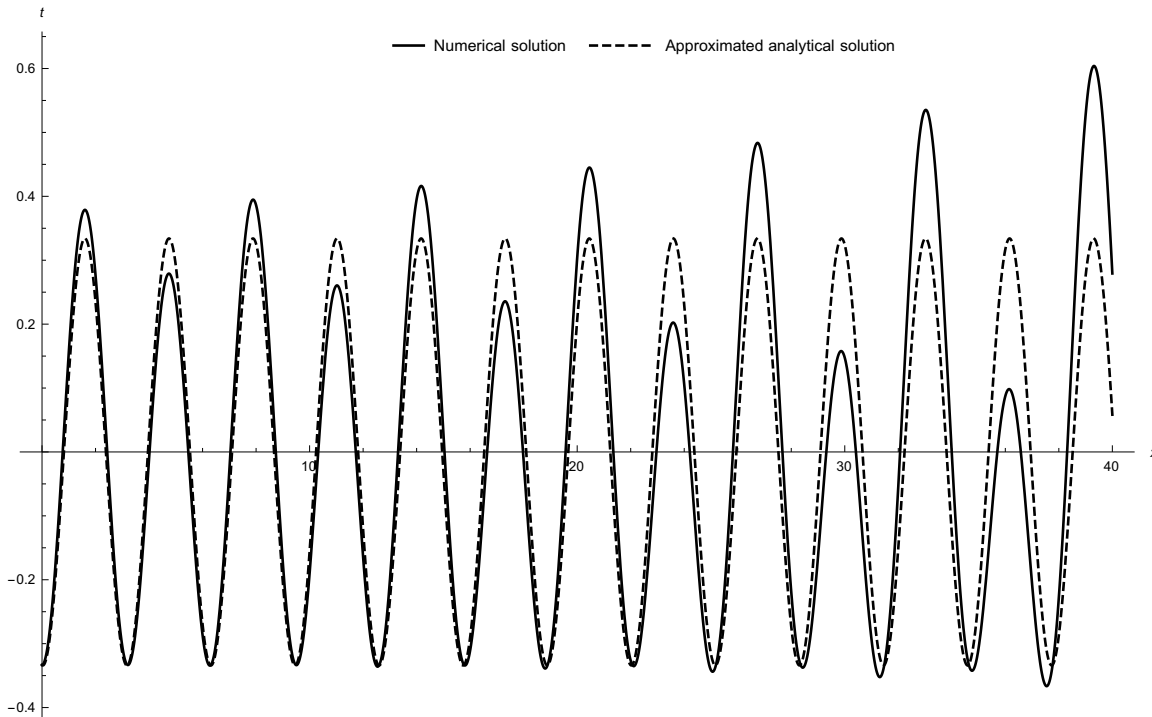


Figure 1: Solution Comparison

As fig. 1 suggests, eq. (19) can be a reasonable approximation in regions around  $t=0$ , but for the  $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon)$  approximation, the (actual) numerical solution diverges in a non trivial behavior from this perfectly periodic approximation.

## 3 Mass on a loop equilibria analysis

Converting the equation

$$mR^2\ddot{\alpha} + bR^2\dot{\alpha} + mR^2\left(\frac{g}{R} - \Omega^2 \cos \alpha\right) \sin \alpha = 0 \quad (20)$$

into a first order system of ODEs, eq. (20) becomes:

$$\dot{x} = f(x) \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \dot{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = \sin x_1 \left( \Omega^2 \cos x_1 - \frac{g}{R} \right) - \frac{bx_2}{m} \end{cases}$$

Looking for equilibria points where

$$f(x^*) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\Leftrightarrow$

$$x_2^* = \dot{\alpha}^* = 0 \quad (21)$$

$$x_1^* = \alpha^* = \begin{cases} 2k\pi & k \in \mathbb{Z} \\ \arccos \frac{1}{\nu} \end{cases} \quad (22)$$

with

$$\nu = \frac{R \Omega^2}{g} \quad (23)$$

Plotting the position  $\alpha$  in function of  $\nu$  yields:

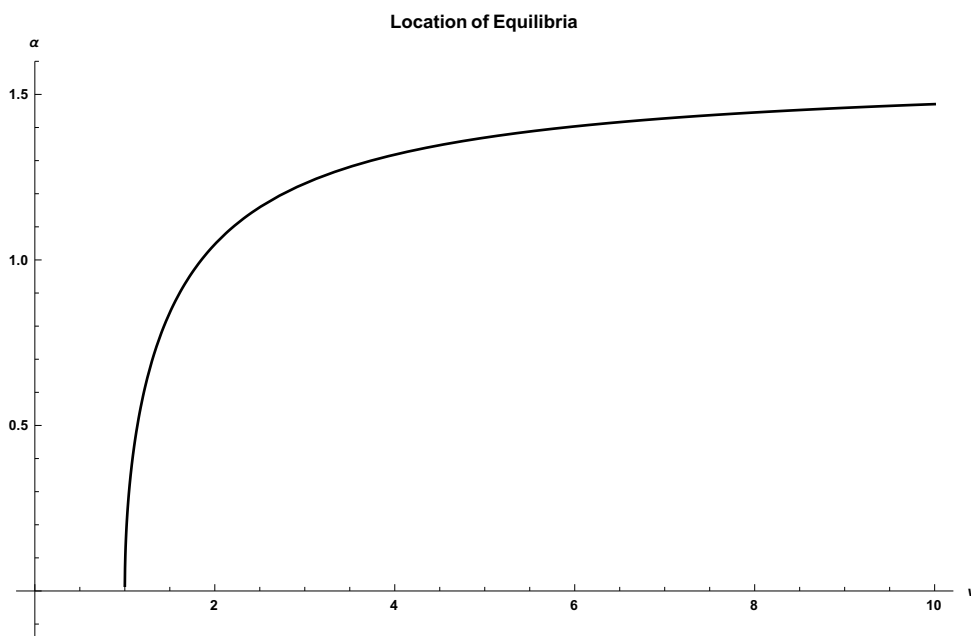


Figure 2: Location of equilibria

As we can see, also analytically, values of  $\nu$  need to be  $\geq 1$  in order to meet the domain requirements of  $\arccos$ . The angular position  $\alpha$  is approaching  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ , while demanding  $\Omega^2$  speed or large  $R$ , as eq. (23) shows.

### 3.1 Stability analysis

The general Jacobian of section 3 is:

$$J(x_1, x_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \Omega^2 \cos(2x_1) - \frac{g}{R} \cos x_1 & -\frac{b}{m} \end{bmatrix} \quad (24)$$

Plugging in the equilibria point  $(\arccos(\frac{1}{v}), 0)$  we get:

$$J(x_1^*, x_2^*) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{g^2}{R^2 \Omega^2} - \Omega^2 & -\frac{b}{m} \end{bmatrix} \quad (25)$$

Getting the associated characteristic equation of the eigenvalues  $\lambda$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \det(J(x_1^*, x_2^*) - \lambda \mathbb{I}) &= 0 \\ \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ \frac{g^2}{R^2 \Omega^2} - \Omega^2 & -\frac{b}{m} - \lambda \end{vmatrix} &= 0 \\ \lambda^2 + \frac{b}{m} \lambda + \left( \Omega^2 - \frac{g^2}{R^2 \Omega^2} \right) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Applying Routh-Hurwitz, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} D_2 &= \begin{vmatrix} \frac{b}{m} & \left( \Omega^2 - \frac{g^2}{R^2 \Omega^2} \right) \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{b}{m} > 0 \\ D_1 &= \frac{b}{m} > 0 \\ D_0 &= \left( \Omega^2 - \frac{g^2}{R^2 \Omega^2} \right) > 0 \end{aligned}$$

From  $D_0$  we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega^2 &> \frac{g^2}{R^2 \Omega^2} \\ \frac{\Omega^2 R}{g} &> \frac{g}{\Omega^2 R} \\ v &> \frac{1}{v} \iff v > 1 \end{aligned}$$

From the other equilibria point found in eq. (20), namely  $(2k\pi, 0)$ , we get from the jacobian in eq. (24):

$$J(x_1^*, x_2^*) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \Omega^2 - \frac{g}{R} & -\frac{b}{m} \end{bmatrix}$$

With a completely analog development to the one carried out before, we get for asymptotic stability the condition:

$$\frac{g}{R} - \Omega^2 > 0 \quad (26)$$

$$\frac{g}{R} > \Omega^2 \quad (27)$$

$$1 > \frac{R\Omega^2}{g} \quad (28)$$

$$\nu < 1 \quad (29)$$

Summerizing the results we have:

- for  $(x_1^*, x_2^*) = (\arccos(\frac{1}{\nu}), 0)$  asymptotically stable if  $\nu > 1$
- for  $(x_1^*, x_2^*) = (2k\pi, 0)$  asymptotically stable if  $\nu < 1$

Note that given the parameters of the system  $\nu > 0$  in any case. In  $\nu = 1$  we have a bifurcation for which we cannot determine the stability of the non-linear system in the discussed way, because for both fixpoints the associated matrix gets singular, meaning that they are no hyperbolic fixpoints anymore. Hartman-Grobman theorem for topological equivalence can thus not be applied anymore.

For our graph in fig. 2 this means that we can add a segment  $0 < \nu < 1$  with  $\alpha = 0$  (even  $2k\pi$ ), since under these conditions it turns out to be an asymptotically stable fixpoint as well.

## 4 Discrete Dynamical Systems

In this section the autonomous system

$$x_{k+1} = f(x_k), \quad f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad (30)$$

is treated.

### 4.1 Linearized mapping

To define a linearized mapping for the vicinity of  $p$  we pick:

$$y_k = x_k - p \quad (31)$$

We have:

$$\begin{aligned} y_{k+1} &= x_{k+1} - p \\ &= f(x_k) - f(p) \\ &= f(p + y_k) - f(p) \\ &= f(p) + D_x f(p) y_k - f(p) \\ &= D_x f(p) y_k \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $y_k$  can be considered to be small, since  $y_k = x_k - p$ . Defining  $A := D_x f(p)$ , we have

$$y_{k+1} = A y_k \quad (32)$$

## 4.2 General solution for A fully ranked

Being  $s_i$  one of the  $n$  independent eigenvectors of  $A$ , by the definition of eigenvector / value we may write:

$$A s_i = \lambda_i s_i \quad (33)$$

Defining  $V$  as matrix with all  $n$  vectors  $s_i$  in the columns, i.e.

$$V := [s_1 \quad s_2 \quad \dots \quad s_n]$$

we may apply the definition eq. (33) using the whole matrix  $V$  getting

$$\begin{aligned} A V &= [\lambda_1 s_1 \quad \lambda_2 s_2 \quad \dots \quad \lambda_n s_n] \\ &= V \Lambda \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

where  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix with all the eigenvalues  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{C}$  on the diagonal.

Since as the hypothesis states, there are  $n$  *linearly independent* eigenvectors,  $V$  is fully ranked  $\Rightarrow \exists V^{-1}$ . Right multiplying eq. (34) by the inverse of  $V$ , yields

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1} \quad (35)$$

Now starting from  $k = 0$ , using eq. (35) yields:

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= A y_0 \\ y_2 &= A y_1 = A A y_0 = \\ &= V \Lambda V^{-1} V \Lambda V^{-1} y_0 \\ &= V \Lambda^2 V^{-1} y_0 \end{aligned}$$

Where  $\Lambda^2$  is a diagonal matrix with all the eigenvalues *elevated to the power of 2* on its diagonal. In general:

$$y_k = V \Lambda^k V^{-1} y_0 \quad (36)$$

Inspecting the product matrix product  $V \Lambda^k$  we notice that the result is made of the following columns:

$$V \Lambda^k = [\lambda_1^k s_1 \quad \lambda_2^k s_2 \quad \dots \quad \lambda_n^k s_n] \quad (37)$$

For sure the solution is a linear combination of those columns, i.e.

$$y_k = c_1 \lambda_1^k s_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^k s_2 + \dots + c_n \lambda_n^k s_n \quad (38)$$

Indeed, the coordinates  $c_i$  can be defined as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = V^{-1} y_0 \quad (39)$$



Note that we might want to redefine eq. (37) as:

$$\Psi(k) := V \Lambda^k \quad (40)$$

which then yields

$$y_k = \Psi(k) \Psi^{-1}(0) y_0 \quad (41)$$

being  $\Psi^{-1}(0)$  nothing else but  $V^{-1}$ .

□ *q.e.d.*

### 4.3 Stability definitions

#### 4.3.1 Stable

We call the fixed point  $p = f(p)$  stable if

$$\forall k > 0, \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \quad \delta(\varepsilon) > 0$$

such that  $\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $|x_0 - p| \leq \delta$  we have

$$|x_k - p| = |f^k(x_0) - p| \leq \varepsilon$$

#### 4.3.2 Asymptotically stable

We call the fixed point  $p = f(p)$  asymptotically stable if

1. it is stable
- 2.

$$\forall k > 0, \quad \exists \quad \delta_0(k) > 0$$

such that  $\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $|x_0 - p| \leq \delta_0$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^k(x_0) = p$$

#### 4.3.3 Unstable

A fixed point  $p = f(p)$  is called unstable, if it is not stable.

### 4.4 Sufficient and necessary condition for asymptotic stability

The linearized system defined in eq. (32) with  $A$  fully ranked, i.e. all  $n$  eigenvectors being linearly independent, is asymptotically stable,  $\iff$

$$|\lambda_i| < 1 \quad \forall \quad 1 \leq i \leq n, \quad \lambda_i \in \mathbb{C} \quad (42)$$

**4.4.1 Proof 1: Sufficient**

The definition of  $y$  given in eq. (31) tells us that generally, our fixed point for the linearized system is found in  $y = 0$ . We need then to apply the definition of asymptotic stability to this system, i.e.<sup>1</sup>:

$$y_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^k(y_0) \stackrel{?}{=} 0$$

Where  $y_0$  is a small perturbation  $\leq \delta_0$  of the initial condition, i.e. near zero. From eq. (41) we get:

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} y_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Psi(k) \Psi^{-1}(0) y_0 \tag{43}$$

Using eq. (38) and the linear properties of the limit operator we get:

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} c_i \lambda_i^k s_i \stackrel{?}{=} 0 \quad 1 \leq i \leq n \tag{44}$$

The limit just exists finitely, if

$$|\lambda_i| < 1 \quad 1 \leq i \leq n \tag{45}$$

□ *q.e.d.*

**4.4.2 Proof 2: Necessary**

Equation (38), might suggest that there is another possibility of all  $c_i$  being zero. Recalling eq. (39), denoting all the coordinates by the vector  $c$  we get:

$$c = V^{-1} y_0 \tag{46}$$

Remember that  $V$  is fully ranked, being the matrix with the eigenvectors in its columns, and so is  $V^{-1}$ . Indeed the fixed point itself being zero, generates coordinates all being zero as well. However, the nullspace is empty elsewhere due to the full rank, and it is indeed just the trivial subspace of the zero vector (fixed point) itself. This means that any *smallest perturbation* in an arbitrary direction generates arbitrary values different from zero for any of the coordinates. This means that we will never be able to find a ball defined by  $\delta_0 > 0$  in which we could guarantee that even just some coordinates would be zero.

This means that the condition reported in eq. (45) is indeed *necessary* to guarantee an asymptotically stable fixpoint.

□ *q.e.d.*

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<sup>1</sup>question mark denotes assumption to proof