## First-order nonlinear systems

(from Strogatz, Nonlinear dynamics and chaos, Perseus Books, Cambridge, Ma, 1994, Ch. 2)

### 2.1 A Geometric Way of Thinking

Pictures are often more helpful than formulas for analyzing nonlinear systems. Here we illustrate this point by a simple example. Along the way we will introduce one of the most basic techniques of dynamics: *interpreting a differential equation* as a vector field.

Consider the following nonlinear differential equation:

$$\dot{x} = \sin x. \tag{1}$$

To emphasize our point about formulas versus pictures, we have chosen one of the few nonlinear equations that can be solved in closed form. We separate the variables and then integrate:

$$dt = \frac{dx}{\sin x},$$

which implies

$$t = \int \csc x \, dx$$

$$= -\ln|\csc x + \cot x| + C.$$

To evaluate the constant C, suppose that  $x = x_0$  at t = 0. Then  $C = \ln \left| \csc x_0 + \cot x_0 \right|$ . Hence the solution is

$$t = \ln \left| \frac{\csc x_0 + \cot x_0}{\csc x + \cot x} \right|. \tag{2}$$

This result is exact, but a headache to interpret. For example, can you answer the following questions?

- 1. Suppose  $x_0 = \pi/4$ ; describe the qualitative features of the solution x(t) for all t > 0. In particular, what happens as  $t \to \infty$ ?
- 2. For an arbitrary initial condition  $x_0$ , what is the behavior of x(t) as  $t \to \infty$ ?

Think about these questions for a while, to see that formula (2) is not transparent. In contrast, a graphical analysis of (1) is clear and simple, as shown in Figure 2.1.1. We think of t as time, x as the position of an imaginary particle moving

along the real line, and  $\dot{x}$  as the velocity of that particle. Then the differential equation  $\dot{x} = \sin x$  represents a **vector field** on the line: it dictates the velocity vector  $\dot{x}$  at each x. To sketch the vector field, it is convenient to plot  $\dot{x}$  versus x, and then draw arrows on the x-axis to indicate the corresponding velocity vector at each x. The arrows point to the right when  $\dot{x} > 0$  and to the left when  $\dot{x} < 0$ .

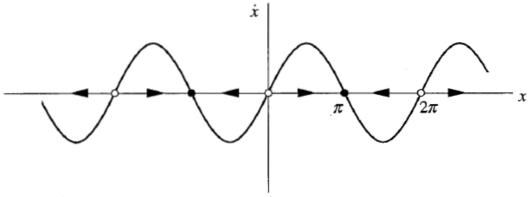


Figure 2.1.1

Here's a more physical way to think about the vector field: imagine that fluid is flowing steadily along the x-axis with a velocity that varies from place to place, according to the rule  $\dot{x} = \sin x$ . As shown in Figure 2.1.1, the **flow** is to the right when  $\dot{x} > 0$  and to the left when  $\dot{x} < 0$ . At points where  $\dot{x} = 0$ , there is no flow; such points are therefore called **fixed points**. You can see that there are two kinds of fixed points in Figure 2.1.1: solid black dots represent **stable** fixed points (often called **attractors** or **sinks**, because the flow is toward them) and open circles represent **unstable** fixed points (also known as **repellers** or **sources**).

Armed with this picture, we can now easily understand the solutions to the differential equation  $\dot{x} = \sin x$ . We just start our imaginary particle at  $x_0$  and watch how it is carried along by the flow.

This approach allows us to answer the questions above as follows:

1. Figure 2.1.1 shows that a particle starting at  $x_0 = \pi/4$  moves to the right faster and faster until it crosses  $x = \pi/2$  (where  $\sin x$  reaches its maximum). Then the particle starts slowing down and eventually approaches the stable fixed point  $x = \pi$  from the left. Thus, the qualitative form of the solution is as shown in Figure 2.1.2.

Note that the curve is concave up at first, and then concave down; this corresponds to the initial acceleration for  $x < \pi/2$ , followed by the deceleration toward  $x = \pi$ .

2. The same reasoning applies to any initial condition  $x_0$ . Figure 2.1.1 shows that if  $\dot{x} > 0$  initially, the particle heads to the right and asymptot-

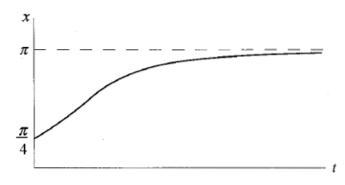


Figure 2.1.2

ically approaches the nearest stable fixed point. Similarly, if  $\dot{x} < 0$  initially, the particle approaches the nearest stable fixed point to its left. If  $\dot{x} = 0$ , then x remains constant. The qualitative form of the solution for any initial condition is sketched in Figure 2.1.3.

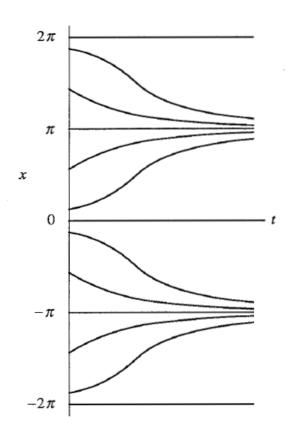


Figure 2.1.3

In all honesty, we should admit that a picture can't tell us certain *quantitative* things: for instance, we don't know the time at which the speed  $|\dot{x}|$  is greatest. But in many cases *qualitative* information is what we care about, and then pictures are fine.

# 2.2 Fixed Points and Stability

The ideas developed in the last section can be extended to any one-dimensional system  $\dot{x} = f(x)$ . We just need to draw the graph of f(x) and then use it to sketch the vector field on the real line (the x-axis in Figure 2.2.1).

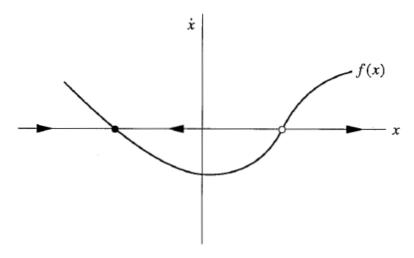


Figure 2.2.1

### **EXAMPLE 2.2.1:**

Find all fixed points for  $\dot{x} = x^2 - 1$ , and classify their stability.

Solution: Here  $f(x) = x^2 - 1$ . To find the fixed points, we set  $f(x^*) = 0$  and solve for  $x^*$ . Thus  $x^* = \pm 1$ . To determine stability, we plot  $x^2 - 1$  and then sketch the vector field (Figure 2.2.2). The flow is to the right where  $x^2 - 1 > 0$  and to the left where  $x^2 - 1 < 0$ . Thus  $x^* = -1$  is stable, and  $x^* = 1$  is unstable.

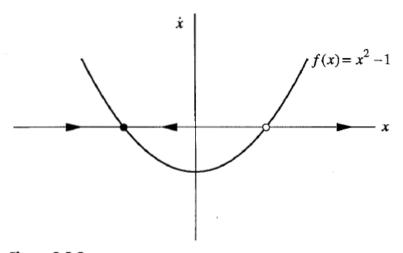


Figure 2.2.2

## 2.4 Linear Stability Analysis

So far we have relied on graphical methods to determine the stability of fixed points. Frequently one would like to have a more quantitative measure of stability, such as the rate of decay to a stable fixed point. This sort of information may be obtained by *linearizing* about a fixed point, as we now explain.

Let  $x^*$  be a fixed point, and let  $\eta(t) = x(t) - x^*$  be a small perturbation away from  $x^*$ . To see whether the perturbation grows or decays, we derive a differential equation for  $\eta$ . Differentiation yields

$$\dot{\eta} = \frac{d}{dt}(x - x^*) = \dot{x},$$

since  $x^*$  is constant. Thus  $\dot{\eta} = \dot{x} = f(x) = f(x^* + \eta)$ . Now using Taylor's expansion we obtain

$$f(x^* + \eta) = f(x^*) + \eta f'(x^*) + O(\eta^2),$$

where  $O(\eta^2)$  denotes quadratically small terms in  $\eta$ . Finally, note that  $f(x^*) = 0$  since  $x^*$  is a fixed point. Hence

$$\dot{\eta} = \eta f'(x^*) + O(\eta^2).$$

Now if  $f'(x^*) \neq 0$ , the  $O(\eta^2)$  terms are negligible and we may write the approximation

$$\dot{\eta} \approx \eta f'(x^*)$$
.

This is a linear equation in  $\eta$ , and is called the *linearization about*  $x^*$ . It shows that the perturbation  $\eta(t)$  grows exponentially if  $f'(x^*) > 0$  and decays if  $f'(x^*) < 0$ . If  $f'(x^*) = 0$ , the  $O(\eta^2)$  terms are not negligible and a nonlinear analysis is needed to determine stability, as discussed in Example 2.4.3 below.

The upshot is that the slope  $f'(x^*)$  at the fixed point determines its stability. If you look back at the earlier examples, you'll see that the slope was always negative at a stable fixed point. The importance of the sign of  $f'(x^*)$  was clear from our graphical approach; the new feature is that now we have a measure of how stable a fixed point is—that's determined by the magnitude of  $f'(x^*)$ . This magnitude plays the role of an exponential growth or decay rate. Its reciprocal  $1/|f'(x^*)|$  is a *characteristic time scale*; it determines the time required for x(t) to vary significantly in the neighborhood of  $x^*$ .

#### **EXAMPLE 2.4.1:**

Using linear stability analysis, determine the stability of the fixed points for  $\dot{x} = \sin x$ .

Solution: The fixed points occur where  $f(x) = \sin x = 0$ . Thus  $x^* = k\pi$ , where k is an integer. Then

$$f'(x^*) = \cos k\pi = \begin{cases} 1, & k \text{ even} \\ -1, & k \text{ odd.} \end{cases}$$

Hence  $x^*$  is unstable if k is even and stable if k is odd. This agrees with the results shown in Figure 2.1.1.

#### **EXAMPLE 2.4.3:**

What can be said about the stability of a fixed point when  $f'(x^*) = 0$ ?

Solution: Nothing can be said in general. The stability is best determined on a case-by-case basis, using graphical methods. Consider the following examples:

(a) 
$$\dot{x} = -x^3$$
 (b)  $\dot{x} = x^3$  (c)  $\dot{x} = x^2$  (d)  $\dot{x} = 0$ 

Each of these systems has a fixed point  $x^* = 0$  with  $f'(x^*) = 0$ . However the stability is different in each case. Figure 2.4.1 shows that (a) is stable and (b) is unstable. Case (c) is a hybrid case we'll call **half-stable**, since the fixed point is attracting from the left and repelling from the right. We therefore indicate this type of fixed point by a half-filled circle. Case (d) is a whole line of fixed points; perturbations neither grow nor decay.

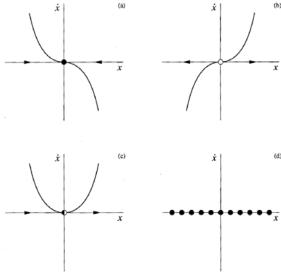


Figure 2.4.1