

NONLINEAR TIME SERIES ANALYSIS, WITH APPLICATIONS TO MEDICINE

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LECTURE 2

DYNAMICAL SYSTEMS

- 1 **Generalities**
- 2 **Attractors & dimensions**
- 3 **Lyapunov exponents**
- 4 **Invariant measures**
- 5 **Chaotic attractors**
- 6 **Some nonlinear phenomena**
- 7 **References**

1. Generalities

Dynamical systems are models for phenomena evolving in time in a deterministic way.

Ingredients.

- 1 A state space Ω . A state $x \in \Omega$ is determined by d variables or “degrees of freedom”.
- 2 Time, which may be
 - discrete: $n = 0, 1, \dots$ (future), $n = -1, -2, \dots$ (past)
 - continuous: $t \rightarrow \infty$ (future), $t \rightarrow -\infty$ (past)
- 3 Evolution equation:
 - discrete time: difference eqn. ($x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$).
 - continuous time: differential eqn. ($dx/dt = f(x(t))$).

We will mostly consider discrete-time dynamical systems.

1. Generalities

Notation for discrete-time DS: (Ω, f)

Historically f was (and very often still is) supposed to be invertible because Newtonian mechanics is time reversible.

A dynamical system can be

- *linear*, if the evolution equation is linear.
- *nonlinear*, otherwise.
- *conservative*, if the volume in state space is preserved in time
- *dissipative*, if the volume in state space is contracted in time.

1. Generalities

Examples of discrete-time systems

- The number of individuals of a population every day, year, generation, etc.
- Monthly interest earned by a saving deposit
- Average temperature in the last years, decades, centuries,...

Examples of continuous-time systems

- A particle moving in a force field
- Current or voltage in an electronic circuit
- Concentration of a compound during a chemical reaction

1. Generalities

Examples of state spaces.

- 1 Simple pendulum: $\Omega = \text{circle}$
- 2 Double pendulum: $\Omega = \text{circle} \times \text{circle} = 2\text{D torus}$
- 3 Mass point on the plane with polar coordinates: $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^3 \times \text{circle} = \text{cylinder}$
- 4 Mass point in space with Cartesian coordinates: $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^6$

1. Generalities

Forward evolution equation of a discrete-time system:

Let f a map from Ω to Ω : $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$.

- Initial state (time $n = 0$): x_0
- Time $n = 1$: $x_1 = f(x_0)$.
- Time $n = 2$: $x_2 = f(x_1) = f(f(x_0)) \equiv f^2(x_0)$
- Time $n = k$: $x_k = f(x_{k-1}) = f^k(x_0)$, where

$$f^k(x) \equiv \underbrace{f(f(\dots f(x)\dots))}_{k \text{ times}}$$

is called the k th iterate of f .

1. Generalities

The infinite sequence

$$x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k, \dots = x_0, f(x_0), \dots, f^k(x_0), \dots \equiv (f^n(x_0))_{n \geq 0},$$

is called the (*forward*) *orbit* of x_0 . The state x_0 is the *initial condition*.

- If f is an *invertible* map, one can also define the *backward orbit*:

$$x_0, x_{-1}, \dots, x_{-k}, \dots = x_0, f^{-1}(x_0), \dots, f^{-k}(x_0), \dots \equiv (f^{-n}(x_0))_{n \geq 0}.$$

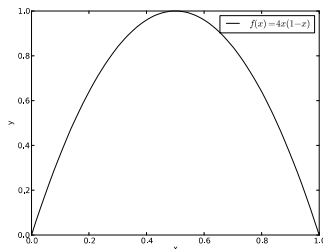
The *full orbit* is

$$\dots, x_{-k}, \dots, x_{-1}, x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k, \dots (f^n(x_0))_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}.$$

- *At the contrary that with random sequences, once x_0 is known its orbit is determined.*

1. Generalities

Example. Take $\Omega = [0, 1]$ and $f(x) = 4x(1 - x)$, the *logistic map*.



$\Rightarrow (f^n(0.6416))_{n \geq 0} = 0.6416, 0.9198, 0.2951, 0.8320, 0.5590, 0.9861, \dots$

Remark. For the logistic map

$$x_n = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 - \cos \left(2^n \cos^{-1}(1 - 2x_0) \right) \right],$$

but don't use this formula for computations!

2. Attractors & dimensions

Special orbits.

- A point x is a *fixed point*, *stationary point*, or *equilibrium point* if

$$f(x) = x.$$

- A point x is *periodic* of *period* p if the finite sequence

$$\{x, f(x), f^2(x), \dots, f^{p-1}(x)\}$$

repeats in its orbit. This means that $f^p(x) = x$.

- The continuous-time counterpart of a periodic cycle is called a *limit cycle*.

2. Attractors & dimensions

Fixed points and periodic cycles are examples of *invariant sets*.

A set $A \subset \Omega$ is called *invariant* if $f(A) \subset A$, i.e., no orbit starting in A can leave.

Definition. A *bounded and closed set* $A \subset \Omega$ is an *attractor* if

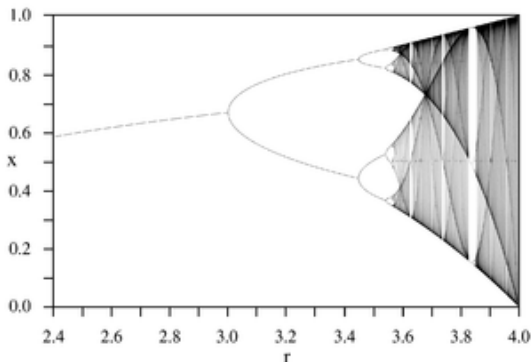
- 1 it is *absorbing* (i.e., absorbs all orbits starting in a neighborhood of A)
- 2 it is *invariant*

The greatest neighborhood absorbed by an attractor is called its *basin of attraction*.

Attractors are important because they contain the long-term dynamical behavior of the system.

2. Attractors & dimensions

Attractors of the logistic family, $f_r(x) = rx(1 - x)$, $0 \leq x \leq 1$,
 $0 \leq r \leq 4$.



2. Attractors & dimensions

Henon attractor. *Henon map:*

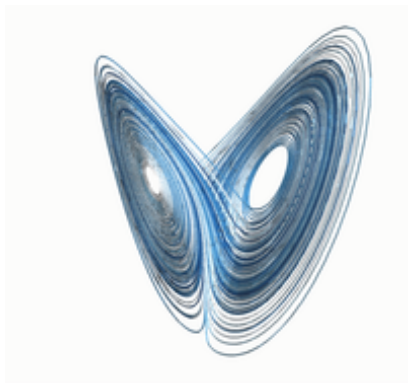
$$H(x, y) = (1 - 1.4x^2 + 0.3y, x).$$



2. Attractors & dimensions

Lorenz attractor. *Lorenz system:*

$$(dx/dt, dy/dt, dz/dt) = (-10(x - y), 28x - y - xz, -\frac{8}{3}z + xy)$$



2. Attractors & dimensions

Main characterizations of an attractor:

- *Dimensions* (or active degrees of freedom)
 - Box-counting dimension
 - Information dimension
 - Generalized dimensions (correlation dimension, etc.)
- *Lyapunov exponents*

2. Attractors & dimensions

The box counting dimension is a poor man's version of the conventional geometric dimension (*Hausdorff dimension*).

Method. Put a grid of size s on the structure and count the number $N(s)$ of grid boxes which contain points of the structure. Its *box-counting dimension* is

$$D_0 = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{N(s)}{\log(1/s)}.$$

- If you plot $N(s)$ vs $\log(1/s)$, then D_0 is the slope of the resulting straight line.
- In practice, the orbits have a finite length n .

$$N(s, n) \approx N(s) - \text{const} \cdot s^{-\alpha} n^{-\beta}.$$

2. Attractors & dimensions

Example. For coast of the UK, $D_0 = 1.31$.



2. Attractors & dimensions

The information dimension takes into account the number of points inside the grid boxes.

Definition. Let $B_1, \dots, B_{N(s)}$ the boxes of a grid of size s containing points of an attractor A , and $\mu(B_j)$ the relative count of points in B_j . The *information needed to locate a point in the attractor with precision s* is

$$I(s) = - \sum_{j=1}^{N(s)} \mu(B_j) \log \mu(B_j).$$

The *information dimension* of A , D_1 , is

$$D_1 = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{I(s)}{\log(1/s)}$$

2. Attractors & dimensions

D_0 and D_1 are just the two first instances of a whole hierarchy of dimensions. Set

$$I_q(s) = \frac{1}{1-q} \log \sum_{j=1}^{N(s)} \mu(B_j)^q,$$

where $q \geq 0$. The *Renyi dimension* of the attractor is

$$D_q = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{I_q(s)}{\log(1/s)}.$$

D_2 is called the *correlation dimension*.

2. Attractors & dimensions

Property. $D_0 \geq D_1 \geq \dots \geq D_q \geq D_{q+1} \geq \dots$

Example. For the Henon attractor:

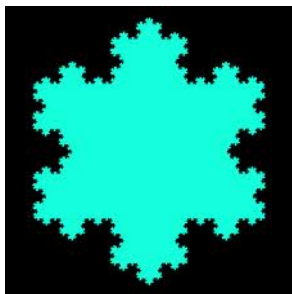
$$D_0 = 1.28 \pm 0.01; D_1 = 1.23 \pm 0.02; D_2 = 1.21 \pm 0.01.$$

Attractors with fractional dimensions are called *strange attractors*. They are typical of chaotic dissipative maps and flows.

2. Attractors & dimensions

Fractional dimensions are typical of self-similar objects (*fractal geometry*).

Example. The *Koch snowflake* (fractal dimension = $\log 4 / \log 3 \simeq 1.26$)



3. Lyapunov exponents

Definition. The map f has *sensitive dependence on initial conditions* if for any $x_0 \in \Omega$ there is other $y_0 \in \Omega$ arbitrarily closed such their orbits diverge from each other at some time (they can join later).

This property is quantified by the *maximal Lyapunov exponent* λ :

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{dist}(x_0, y_0) &= \delta_0 \ll 1 \\ \text{dist}(x_n, y_n) &= \delta_n \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \delta_n \simeq \delta_0 e^{\lambda n}$$

Thus $\lambda > 0$ amounts to an exponential divergence of nearby orbits.

Remarks.

- In general, $\lambda = \lambda(x_0)$
- There are so many Lyapunov exponents as directions in Ω ($\dim \Omega$).

3. Lyapunov exponents

Calculation of λ .

- If Ω is a 1D interval and f is differentiable,

$$\lambda(x_0) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \ln |f'(x_k)|,$$

where $x_k = f^k(x_0)$.

- In general, one has to use numerical algorithms (quite tricky!).

3. Lyapunov exponents

Definition. An attractor A is called *chaotic* if f has sensitive dependence on initial conditions taken on A .

Relation between λ and the attractor dynamics.

stable fixed point	$\lambda < 0$
stable limit cycle	$\lambda = 0$
chaos	$0 < \lambda < \infty$
noise	$\lambda = \infty$

4. Invariant measures

A *measure* generalizes the concept of length, area, and volume.

- **Lebesgue measure.** Let $B \subset \mathbb{R}^d$:

$$\text{Lebesgue measure of } B \equiv \int_B dx \quad [\text{Shorthand: } \mu(dx) = dx]$$

= length ($d = 1$), area ($d = 2$), volume ($d = 3$) of B .

- **Stieltjes measure.** Let ρ be a *density* (i.e. $\rho(x) \geq 0$, $\int_{\Omega} \rho(x) = 1$):

$$\text{Stieltjes measure of } B \equiv \int_B \rho(x) dx \quad [\text{Shorthand: } \mu(dx) = \rho(x) dx]$$

Used to calculate the mass, charge, etc. of continuous distributions.

- **Dirac measure.** Let $\omega \in \Omega$ (the “support”):

$$\delta_{\omega}(B) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in B, \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \notin B. \end{cases} \Rightarrow \int_{\Omega} f(x) d\delta_{\omega}(x) = f(\omega).$$

Used to calculate the mass, charge, etc. of discrete distributions.

4. Invariant measures

In dynamical systems a measure μ must have two properties:

- 1 **Normalization**, i.e., $\mu(\Omega) = 1$ (hence, it is formally a probability).
- 2 **Invariance**, i.e.,

$$\mu(f^{-1}(B)) = \mu(B),$$

where $B \subset \Omega$ and $f^{-1}(B)$ is the set of all predecessors of points in B .

A dynamical system (Ω, f) endowed with a normalized and invariant measure μ is called a *measure-preserving system*, and denoted by

$$(\Omega, f, \mu).$$

Measure-preserving systems are the deterministic counterpart of stationary random systems.

4. Invariant measures

There are plenty of invariant measures.

- If x_0 is a fixed point,

$$\mu = \delta_{x_0}$$

- If x_0, x_1, \dots, x_N is a periodic cycle,

$$\mu = \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{k=0}^N \delta_{x_k}$$

But they are physically unobservable in general, and the dynamic is uninteresting anyway.

4. Invariant measures

When defining D_1 , we considered the quantities

$$\mu(B) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} \in B\}}{n}, \quad (1)$$

where $x_1 = f(x_0)$, $x_2 = f^2(x_0)$, etc.

Fact. On chaotic attractors, (1) defines a normalized and invariant measure.

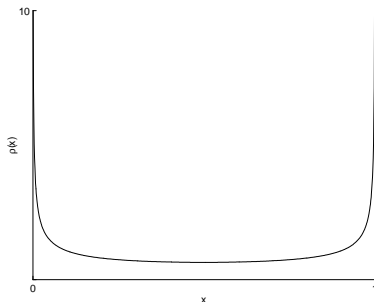
This measure is called the *natural, physical, or empirical measure*.

The natural measure is the invariant measure used in applications.

4. Invariant measures

Example. The natural measure of the *logistic map* is

$$\mu(B) = \int_B \frac{dx}{\pi\sqrt{x(1-x)}}, \text{ i.e., } \rho(x) = \frac{1}{\pi\sqrt{x(1-x)}}$$



$\rho(x)$ can be visualized as the histogram of a generic orbit.

4. Invariant measures

If an invariant measure cannot be decomposed into further invariant pieces, it is called *ergodic*.

Ergodic Theorem (Birkhoff). If the invariant measure μ is ergodic, then for every continuous map $\varphi : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$\underbrace{\int_{\Omega} \varphi(x) d\mu(x)}_{\text{space average of } \varphi} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \varphi(f^k(x_0))}_{\text{time average of } \varphi}$$

for almost all x_0 (i.e., the exceptions build a set of μ -measure 0).

Properties that hold except for a set of points with μ -measure 0, all called *generic*.

E.g., the value of λ is generic for chaotic attractors.

5. Chaotic attractors

Dynamical systems with chaotic attractors.

(1D-1) The *logistic* (or quadratic) family: $x_{n+1} = f_r(x_n)$, where

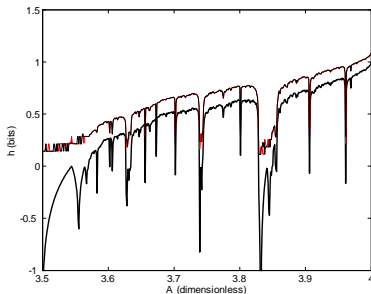
$$f_r(x) = rx(1-x), \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1, \quad 0 \leq r \leq 4.$$

- $f_4(x) = 4x(1-x)$ is the *logistic map*.
- The attractor of f_4 is $A = [0, 1]$.
- Lyapunov exponent of $f_4(x)$:

$$\lambda = \int_0^1 |f'(x)| d\mu(x) = \int_0^1 \frac{\log |4(1-2x)|}{\pi \sqrt{x(1-x)}} dx = \log 2.$$

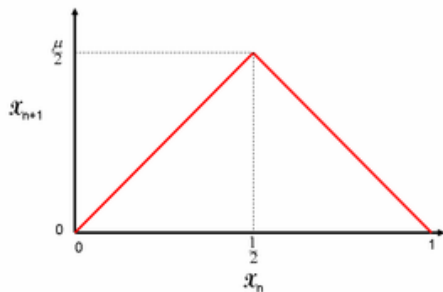
5. Chaotic attractors

- f_r can be chaotic only if $r \geq r_\infty := 3.5699456718\dots$, the *Feigenbaum point*.
- For $r_\infty < r \leq 4$ there are infinite “periodic windows”.
- Lyapunov exponents of the logistic family (*thick line*).



5. Chaotic attractors

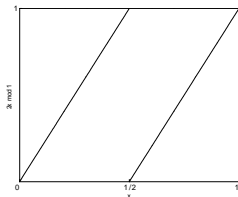
(1D-2) The *tent map* (1-dimensional “baker’s map”)



$\lambda = \log 2$, $\mu =$ Lebesgue measure

5. Chaotic attractors

(1D-3) The *binary shift map*:



$$\lambda = \log 2, \mu = \text{Lebesgue measure}$$

Remark. The logistic, tent, and binary shift maps are 'isomorphic' (i.e., equivalent) in the sense of dynamical systems¹. Thus:

- Orbits and invariant measures go into each other by a change of coordinates.
- They have the same Lyapunov exponents.

¹J.M.A, *Permutation Complexity in Dynamical Systems*, Springer Verlag, 2010.

5. Chaotic attractors

(D2-1) *Henon map*:

$$(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}) = (1 - 1.4x_n^2 + 0.3y_n, x_n)$$

$$\lambda = 0.419222 \pm 0.000003.$$

The Henon map is dissipative, with an area contraction factor of 0.3.

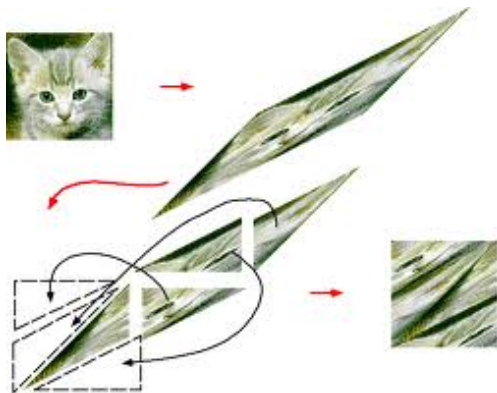
(D2-2) *Baker's map*: For $0 \leq x_n y_n \leq 1$,

$$(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}) = \begin{cases} (2x_n, y_n) & \text{if } 0 \leq x_n < \frac{1}{2} \\ (2x_n - 1, \frac{1}{2}(y_n + 1)) & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \leq x_n \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\lambda = \log 2, \mu = \text{Lebesgue measure}$$

5. Chaotic attractors

(D2-2) *Cat map*: $x_{n+1} = 2x_n + y_n \pmod{1}$, $y_{n+1} = x_n + y_n \pmod{1}$.

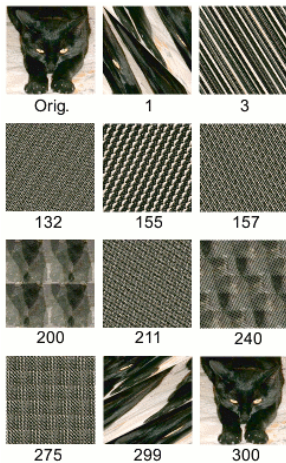


$$\lambda = \ln \frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2} = 0.96242365\dots$$

The cat map is conservative.

5. Chaotic attractors

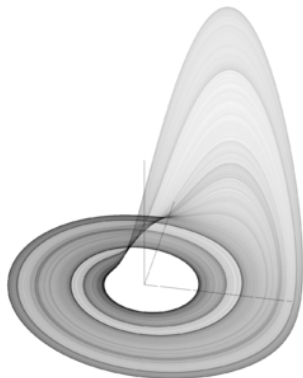
Question: Is the cat map really chaotic?



5. Chaotic attractors

(3D-1) *Lorenz flow*. It is highly dissipative.

(3D-2) *Rössler flow*. $dx/dt = -y - x$, $dy/dt = x + ay$,
 $dz/dt = b + z(x - c)$.



6. Some nonlinear phenomena

Some nonlinear phenomena:

① *Coexistence of attractors* (multistability).

- Description: f has several attractors.
- Problem for TSA: Repetition of the experiment with the same parameters may yield a qualitatively different result.

② *Intermittency*.

- Description: Orbits alternate between periodic (regular, laminar) and chaotic (irregular, turbulent) behavior.
- Problem for TSA: Different time scales.

③ *Bifurcations* (or phase transitions).

- Description: Abrupt change of the attractor geometry at a critical value of a control parameter.
- Problem for TSA: Change of stability.

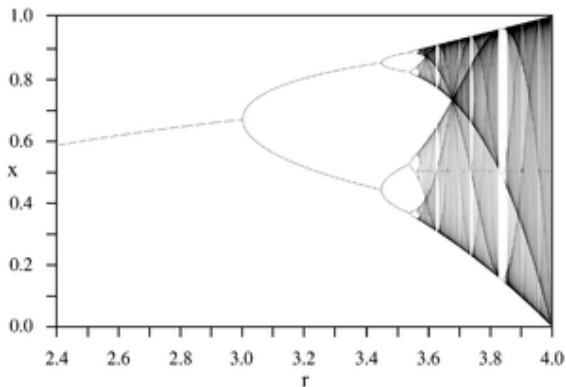
6. Some nonlinear phenomena

A few typical bifurcations.

- *Pitchfork bifurcation*. A stable fixed point becomes unstable and two new stable fixed points are created.
- *Tangent (or saddle-node) bifurcation*. It consists in the creation of two periodic orbits, one stable and one unstable. Tangent bifurcation is the mechanism for one type of intermittency (type I).
- *Supercritical Hopf bifurcation*. At the parameter value where a stable fixed point becomes unstable, a stable limit cycle is born.

6. Some nonlinear phenomena.

Example: Feigenbaum bifurcations.



- ① E. Ott, *Chaos in Dynamical systems*, Cambridge University Press, 2002.
- ② H.O. Peitgen, H. Jürgens, and D. Saupe, *Chaos and Fractals*. Springer Verlag, 2004.
- ③ R.C. Robinson, *An introduction to dynamical systems*, Prentice Hall, 2004.
- ④ S.H. Strogatz, *Nonlinear dynamics and chaos*, Westview, 2000.