

Algebraic view

The basic simplified dynamic system is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} v_{t+1} &= v_t + y_t \\ y_{t+1} &= -v_t + (1 - \alpha)y_t \end{aligned} \quad \text{Equ. 1}$$

where $y_t = p - x_t$.

Let $P_t = \begin{pmatrix} v_t \\ y_t \end{pmatrix}$ be the current point in R^2 , and $M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 - \alpha \end{pmatrix}$ the matrix of the system. So we have

$$P_{t+1} = MP_t \text{ and, more generally, } P_t = M^t P_0$$

So the system is completely defined by M .

The eigenvalues of M are:

$$\begin{aligned} e_1 &= 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{\alpha^2 - 4}}{2} \\ e_2 &= 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{\alpha^2 - 4}}{2} \end{aligned} \quad \text{Equ. 2}$$

We see immediately that the value $\alpha = 4$ is special. We will see below what it means.

For $\alpha \neq 4$ we can define a matrix A so that $AMA^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} e_1 & 0 \\ 0 & e_2 \end{pmatrix}$

(if $\alpha = 4$, A^{-1} doesn't exist).

For example, from the canonical form $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & 1 \\ c & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ we find

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \frac{1 + \sqrt{\alpha^2 - 4}}{2} \\ c &= \frac{1 - \sqrt{\alpha^2 - 4}}{2} \end{aligned}$$

In order to have simpler formulas, we can multiply by 2, to produce a matrix A :

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \sqrt{\alpha^2 - 4} & 2 \\ 1 - \sqrt{\alpha^2 - 4} & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

So if we define $Q_t = AP_t$ we can now write

$$\begin{aligned} P_{t+1} &= A^{-1} L A P_t \\ A P_{t+1} &= L A P_t \\ Q_{t+1} &= L Q_t \end{aligned}$$

that is to say we have, finally, $Q_t = L^t Q_0$

But L is a diagonal matrix, so we have simply $L^t = \begin{pmatrix} e_1^t & 0 \\ 0 & e_2^t \end{pmatrix}$

In particular, we have a cyclic behavior if and only if $Q_t = Q_0$ (or, more generally if $Q_{t+k} = Q_t$). This just means that we have the system of two equations:

$$\begin{aligned} e_1^t &= 1 \\ e_2^t &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Case $\alpha < 4$

For $\alpha < 4$, the eigenvalues are complex, and there is always at least one (real) solution for α . More precisely we can write

$$\begin{aligned} e_1 &= \cos(\alpha) + i \sin(\alpha) \\ e_2 &= \cos(\alpha) - i \sin(\alpha) \end{aligned}$$

with $\cos(\alpha) = 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}$ and $\sin(\alpha) = \frac{\sqrt{4 - \alpha^2}}{2}$
and then

$$\begin{aligned} e_1^t &= \cos(t\alpha) + i \sin(t\alpha) \\ e_2^t &= \cos(t\alpha) - i \sin(t\alpha) \end{aligned}$$

and cycles are given by any t so that $t\alpha = \frac{2k\pi}{t}$

So for each t , the solutions for α are given by

$$\alpha = 2\pi \left(1 - \cos \frac{2k}{t}\right), k \in \{1, 2, \dots, t-1\}$$

Table 1 gives some nontrivial values of α for which the system is cyclic.

Table 1. Some values for which the system is cyclic.

	<i>size of the cycle</i>
3	3 (see Figure 1)
2	4
$\frac{5 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$	5 (see Figure 2 and Figure 3)
1, 3	6, 3
1, 2, 3, $2 \pm \sqrt{3}$	6, 4, 3, 12

For any other value, the system is just quasi-cyclic (see Figure 4).

We can be a little bit more precise. Below, $\| \cdot \|$ is the 2-norm (the Euclidean one for a vector).

We have here

$$\|Q_t\| = \|A^t P_t\| = \|Q_0\|$$

$$\|A^{-1}\| \|Q_0\| = \|P_t\| = \frac{\|Q_0\|}{\|A\|}$$

For example, for $v_0=0$ and $y_0=1$, we have

$$\sqrt{\max \left| \frac{1}{2} \left(3 - 4 \pm \sqrt{5^2 - 8 + 16} \right) \right|} \quad \|P_i\| \quad \sqrt{\max \left| \frac{2}{3 - 4 \pm \sqrt{5^2 - 8 + 16}} \right|}$$

Figure 1. 3-cycle.

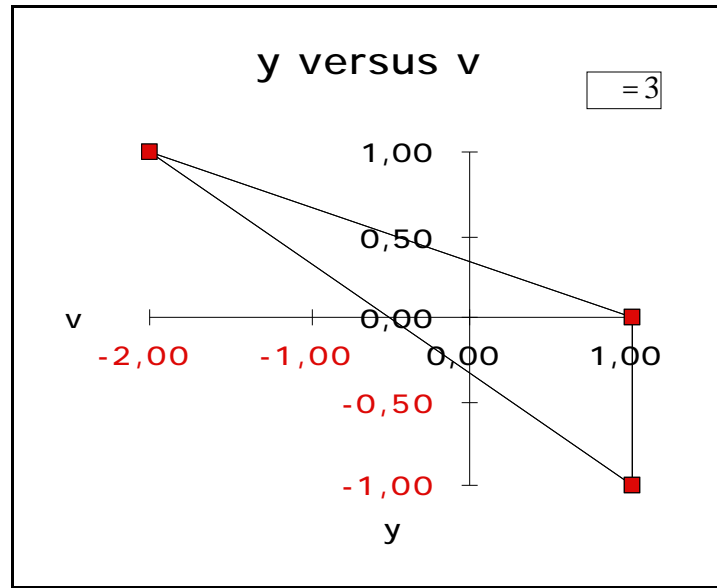


Figure 2. Non convex 5-cycle.

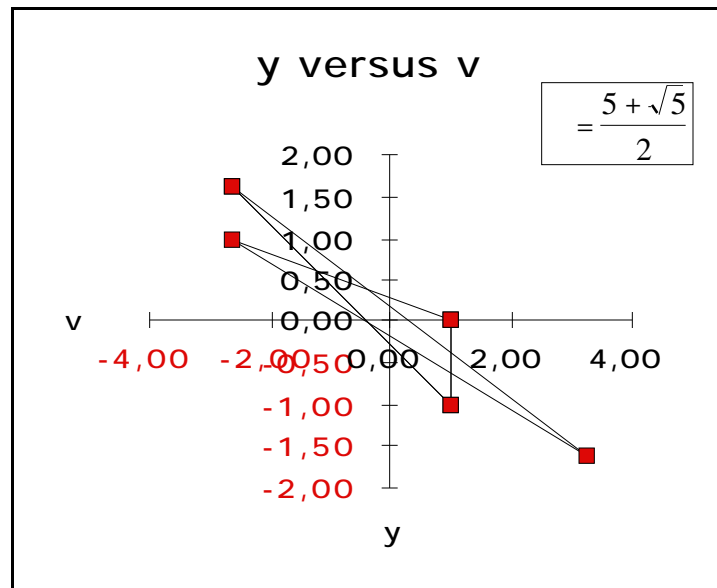


Figure 3. Convex 5-cycle.

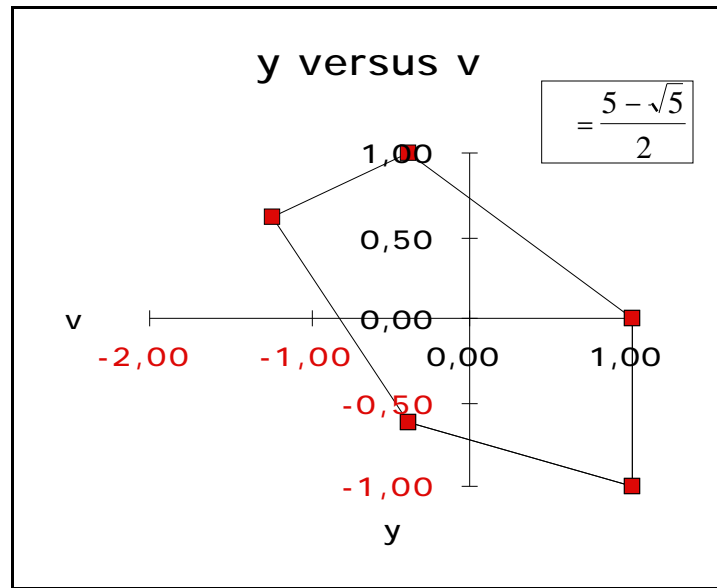
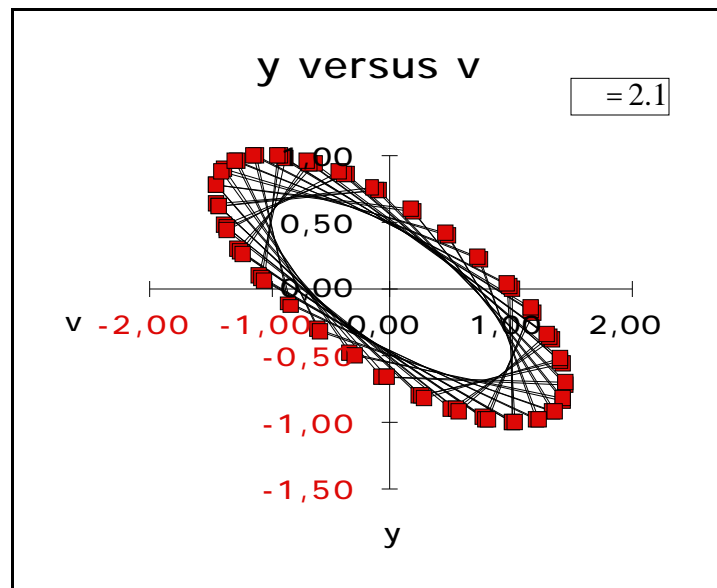


Figure 4. Quasi-cycle.



Case >4

If >4 , then e_1 and e_2 are real numbers (and $\dot{e}_1 = \dot{e}_2$), so we have either

- $e_1 = e_2 = 1$ (for t even) which implies $=0$, not consistent with the hypothesis >4
- $e_1 = -e_2 = 1$ (or -1) which is impossible
- $e_1 = e_2 = -1$ that is to say $=4$, not consistent with the hypothesis >4

So, and this is the point, there is no cyclic behavior for >4 . And, in fact, the distance from the point P_t to the center $(0,0)$ is strictly increasing with t .

We have

$$Q_t = AP_t$$

$$L^t Q_0 = AP_t$$

$$L^t Q_0 = AP_t$$

So

$$\|L^t Q_0\| = \|A\| \|P_t\|$$

$$\frac{\|L^t Q_0\|}{\|A\|} = \|P_t\|$$

But we can also write

$$P_t = A^{-1} Q_t$$

$$\|P_t\| = \|A^{-1}\| \|Q_t\|$$

$$\|P_t\| = \|A^{-1}\| \|L^t Q_0\|$$

So, finally, $\|P_t\|$ is increasing “like” $\|L^t Q_0\|$.

This result can be used to prevent the “explosion” of the system by defining "constriction" coefficients.

Case =4

We have here $M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -1 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$

In this particular case, the eigenvalues are both equal to -1, and there is just one family of eigenvectors, generated by $V = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. So we have $MV = -V$.

So, if P_0 is an eigenvector, proportional to V (that is to say if $v_0 + 2y_0 = 0$), we just have two “symmetrical” points, for

$$P_{t+1} = \pm \begin{pmatrix} 2y_0 \\ -y_0 \end{pmatrix} = -P_t$$

In the case where P_0 is not an eigenvector, we compute directly how $\|P_t\|$ is decreasing and/or increasing.

Let us define $\Delta_t = \|P_{t+1}\|^2 - \|P_t\|^2$.

It is easy to see (by recurrence) we have has the following form:

$$\Delta_t = a_t v_0^2 + b_t v_0 y_0 + c_t y_0^2$$

where a_t, b_t, c_t are integer numbers so that $\Delta_t = 0$ for $v_0 + 2y_0 = 0$.

Now, let's suppose for a particular t we have $\Delta_t > 0$. What about Δ_{t+1} ?

We easily compute $\Delta_t = v_t^2 + 14v_t y_t + 24y_t^2$.

This quantity is positive if and only if v_t is not between (or equal to) the roots $\{-2y_t, -12y_t\}$

Now, if we compute Δ_{t+1} we have $\Delta_{t+1} = 11v_t^2 + 54v_t y_t + 64y_t^2$, and the roots are $-2y_t, -\frac{32y_t}{11}$. As

$\frac{32}{11} < 12$, it means that Δ_{t+1} is also positive.

So as soon as $\|P_t\|$ begins to increase, it does so infinitely.

But it can be decreasing, at the beginning. How many times ?

Suppose we have $y_0 < 0$.

It means v_0 is between $-2y_0$ and $-12y_0$. For instance in the case $y_0 > 0$, we can write

$$v_0 = -2y_0 - \epsilon, \text{ with } \epsilon \in]0, 10y_0[$$

By recurrence, we have then

$$v_0 = -10y_0 + \epsilon^2$$

$$v_1 = -10y_0 + 11\epsilon^2$$

$$v_2 = -10y_0 + 21\epsilon^2$$

$$v_{t+2} = v_t + 2\epsilon^2, v_{t+1} = -10y_0 + k_{t+2}\epsilon^2, \text{ with } k_{t+2} = -k_t + 2k_{t+1}$$

Finally, we can write

$$v_t = -10y_0 + (1 + 10t)\epsilon^2$$

as long as

$$(1 + 10t)\epsilon^2 \geq 10y_0$$

that is to say (for t is an integer) as long as

$$t \geq 1 + \text{Integer_part} \left(\frac{y_0}{\epsilon^2} \right)$$

After that, $\|P_t\|$ increases.

We can do exactly the same analysis for $y_0 < 0$. In this case $\epsilon < 0$ too, so the formula is the same.

In fact, we can even be more precise. If we define

$$\epsilon = -10y_0 + \epsilon^2$$

$$\epsilon = 10\epsilon^2$$

then we have

$$\|P_t\| = t \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon^2}{t} + \frac{\|P_0\|^2}{t^2}}$$

That is to say $\|P_t\|$ is decreasing/increasing almost linearly when t is big enough. In particular, even if it begins to decrease, after that it tends to increase almost like $t\sqrt{5}|v_0 + 2y_0|$.
