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# Methods of Bifurcation Theory



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## Preface

An alternative title for this book would perhaps be *Nonlinear Analysis, Bifurcation Theory and Differential Equations*. Our primary objective is to discuss those aspects of bifurcation theory which are particularly meaningful to differential equations.

To accomplish this objective and to make the book accessible to a wider audience, we have presented in detail much of the relevant background material from nonlinear functional analysis and the qualitative theory of differential equations. Since there is no good reference for some of the material, its inclusion seemed necessary.

Two distinct aspects of bifurcation theory are discussed—static and dynamic. Static bifurcation theory is concerned with the changes that occur in the structure of the set of zeros of a function as parameters in the function are varied. If the function is a gradient, then variational techniques play an important role and can be employed effectively even for global problems. If the function is not a gradient or if more detailed information is desired, the general theory is usually local. At the same time, the theory is constructive and valid when several independent parameters appear in the function. In differential equations, the equilibrium solutions are the zeros of the vector field. Therefore, methods in static bifurcation theory are directly applicable.

Dynamic bifurcation theory is concerned with the changes that occur in the structure of the limit sets of solutions of differential equations as parameters in the vector field are varied. For example, in addition to discussing the way that the set of zeros of the vector field (the equilibrium solutions) change through the static theory, the stability properties of these solutions must be considered. In fact, there is an intimate relationship between changes of stability and bifurcation. The dynamics in a differential equation can also introduce other types of bifurcations; for example, periodic orbits, homoclinic orbits, invariant tori. This introduces several difficulties which require rather advanced topics from differential equations for their resolution.

The introductory chapter is designed to acquaint the reader with some of the types of problems that occur in bifurcation theory. The tools from nonlinear functional analysis are presented in Chapter 2. Some of this material is used more extensively in the text than others, but all topics are a necessary part of the vocabulary of persons working in bifurcation theory.



Some of the presentations and details of proofs are different from standard ones.

Chapter 3 gives applications of the Implicit Function Theorem. These are not bifurcation problems. Some of the applications were chosen because the material is needed in later chapters. Others give good illustrations of some of the tools in Chapter 2.

Chapters 4–8 deal with static bifurcation theory. Chapter 4 contains the fundamental elements of variational theory together with serious applications to Hamiltonian systems, elliptic and hyperbolic problems.

Chapters 5–8 deal almost entirely with analytic methods in local static bifurcation theory. In Chapter 5, for functions depending on a scalar parameter, conditions are given to ensure that there is always a bifurcation near equilibrium. These conditions are based on the linear approximation and are independent of the nonlinearities. Some global results are also included.

In Chapter 6, the case of a one-dimensional null space for the linear approximation is analyzed in detail under generic conditions on the quadratic and cubic terms. The effects of symmetry are also discussed. Chapter 7 is concerned with the case where the linear approximation has a two-dimensional null space with the quadratic and cubic terms satisfying some nondegeneracy conditions. Both of these chapters contain constructive procedures in the analysis. Chapter 8 contains applications to the buckling of plates, chemical reactions and Duffing's equation.

Chapters 9–13 are devoted to dynamic bifurcation theory. Chapter 9 is concerned with the bifurcation from an equilibrium point in the case when the linear approximation has either one zero eigenvalue or a pair of purely imaginary eigenvalues. It is shown that all relevant information on existence and stability is contained in the bifurcation function obtained via the alternative method or the method Liapunov–Schmidt. The hypotheses on the linear part are the typical situation for one parameter families of vector fields. Chapter 10 is devoted to the other bifurcation phenomena that occur in the plane for typical one parameter families of autonomous vector fields.

In Chapter 11, we discuss periodic planar vector fields and especially Hamiltonian systems with a small damping and small periodic forcing term. Emphasis is placed on the existence of subharmonic solutions and the role of successive bifurcations through subharmonics in the creation of homoclinic points and a type of random behavior.

In Chapter 12, averaging, the theory of normal forms and the theory of integral manifolds for ordinary differential equations are presented. This material is relevant to the discussion of bifurcation to tori considered in that chapter as well as the problems in Chapter 13, which is devoted to the behavior of the solutions of a differential equation near an equilibrium point when the linear part of the vector field is typical of two parameter problems.

The topics in Chapter 14 on perturbation of the spectrum of linear operators is distinct from the ones in the previous chapters. It is included because



the same methods can be applied to yield elementary proofs of some results in this field.

The material in this book can be easily adapted to several types of one semester courses. For example, four possible reasonable arrangements could be:

- I. Chapters 1, 5, 6, 7, 8 with Sections 2.3–2.8 from Chapter 2.
- II. Chapter 2, 3, 4.
- III. Chapters 1, 9, 10 with Sections 2.3, 2.4, 2.5 from Chapter 2.
- IV. Chapters 11, 12, 13.

Examples I, II, III are independent and require minimal knowledge of differential equations. Example IV can only be taught after III and requires more sophisticated concepts from differential equations.

The authors are indebted to numerous colleagues and students for their assistance in this work. We especially thank John Mallet-Paret with whom we had so many stimulating conversations about technique and method of presentation. Luis Magalhães also was of great assistance, especially in the presentation in Chapter 11 and the examples in Chapter 12. We have also been assisted by many persons in the preparation of the final manuscript. We are indebted especially to Eleanor Addison, Dorothy Libutti, Sandra Spinacci, Kate MacDougall, Mary Reynolds and Diane Norton. The second author is also indebted to the Guggenheim Foundation for a Fellowship during 1979–80.



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## Chapter 1

# Introduction and Examples

### 1.1. Definition of Bifurcation Surface

Every problem in applications contains several physical parameters which may vary over certain specified sets. Thus, it is important to understand the qualitative behavior of the system as the parameters vary. A good design for a system will always be such that the qualitative behavior does not change when the parameters are varied a small amount about the value for which the original design was made. However, the behavior may change when the system is subjected to large variations in the parameters. A change in the qualitative properties could mean a change in stability of the original system and thus the system must assume a state different from the original design. In vague terms, the values of the parameters where this change takes place are called bifurcation values. Knowledge of the bifurcation values is absolutely necessary for the complete understanding of the system. Our objective is to give an overall view of methods and results in this area. To facilitate the introductory discussion, we first define the basic problem and give a precise definition of a bifurcation value.

Suppose  $X, Z$  are Banach spaces,  $A$  is an open set in a Banach space,  $M: A \times X \rightarrow Z$  is continuous together with its first Frechet derivative. The set  $A$  will be called the *parameter set*. Sometimes, more derivatives on  $M$  are required and it will always be assumed that  $M$  has as many derivatives as necessary if it is not always explicitly stated. Consider the equation

$$(1.1) \quad M(\lambda, x) = 0$$

for  $\lambda \in A, x \in X$ .

A *solution* of Equation (1.1) is a point  $(\lambda, x) \in A \times X$  such that Equation (1.1) is satisfied. Let  $S \subset A \times X$  denote the set of solutions of Equation (1.1) and, for any  $\lambda \in A$ , let

$$S_\lambda = \{x \in X : (\lambda, x) \in S\}.$$

In a physical system, Equation (1.1) generally represents the equilibrium positions of the system or, more generally, equations for the state of the



system which satisfy certain boundary conditions. The dynamics of the system are not included in Equation (1.1). Stability of a solution of Equation (1.1) often requires a discussion of a differential equation  $du/dt = \bar{M}(u, \lambda)$  for  $u$  near  $x \in S_\lambda$  and  $\bar{M}$  related to  $M$  in some way.

If  $S$  is any closed set in  $\Lambda \times X$ , one can always construct an  $M$  such that  $S$  is the solution set for Equation (1.1). As a consequence, it is impossible to give a complete description of  $S_\lambda$  as  $\lambda$  varies. In the applications, the most typical solution sets have components consisting of various pieces of the solution set depicted in Figure 1.1.

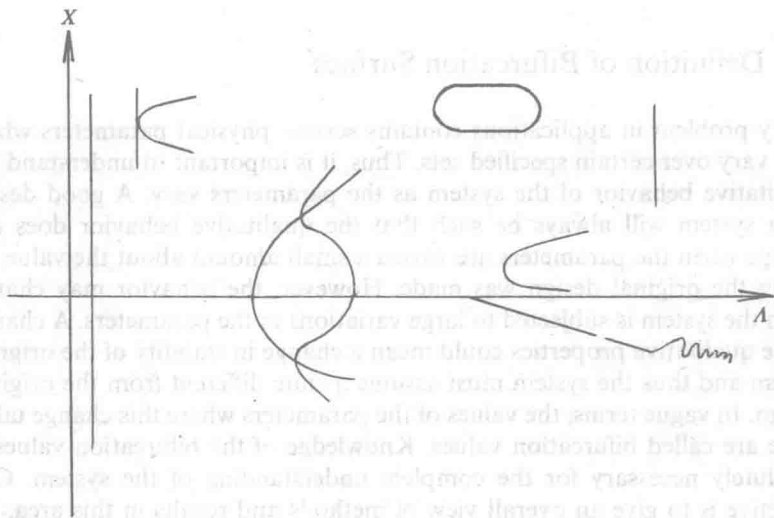


Figure 1.1

The basic problem is to discuss the dependence of the set  $S_\lambda$  on  $\lambda$ . Suppose  $U$  is an open set in  $X$ . We say  $S_\lambda$  is *equivalent* to  $S_\mu$ ,  $S_\lambda \sim S_\mu$ , in  $U$  if  $S_\lambda \cap U$  is homeomorphic to  $S_\mu \cap U$ . We say  $\lambda_0$  is a *bifurcation point* for  $(S, \sim)$  if, for any neighborhood  $V$  of  $\lambda_0$ , there is an  $x_0 \in S_{\lambda_0}$ , a neighborhood  $U$  of  $x_0$  and  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  in  $V$  such that  $S_{\lambda_1} \sim S_{\lambda_2}$  in  $U$ . In particular, a point  $\lambda_0$  is a bifurcation point if  $S_{\lambda_0} \neq \emptyset$ , the empty set, and there is an  $x_0 \in S_{\lambda_0}$  such that, for any neighborhood  $U$  of  $(\lambda_0, x_0)$ , there are two distinct solutions  $(\lambda, x_1), (\lambda, x_2) \in U$ ; that is, there is a  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ ,  $x_1, x_2 \in X$ ,  $x_1 \neq x_2$ , such that  $(\lambda, x_1), (\lambda, x_2) \in U$  and  $(\lambda, x_1), (\lambda, x_2)$  satisfy Equation (1.1). Whenever possible, it is desirable to have the complete characterization of the solution set  $S$  in a neighborhood  $U$  of a solution  $(\lambda_0, x_0)$  for which  $\lambda_0$  is a bifurcation point.

The Implicit Function Theorem shows that the characterization is trivial near some solutions  $(\lambda_0, x_0)$ .

**Lemma 1.1.** *If  $(\lambda_0, x_0) \in S$  and  $D_x M(\lambda_0, x_0)$  has a bounded inverse, then there is a neighborhood  $\Omega$  of  $(\lambda_0, x_0)$  such that  $S \cap \Omega$  is a diffeomorphic image of a*



neighborhood of  $\lambda_0$ ; more precisely, there is a neighborhood  $A_0$  of  $\lambda_0$  and a continuously differentiable function  $x^*: A_0 \rightarrow X$  such that  $S \cap \Omega = \{(\lambda, x^*(\lambda)), \lambda \in A_0\}$ .

As a consequence of Lemma 1.1, the only points  $(\lambda_0, x_0) \in S$  that require further discussion are those for which  $D_x M(\lambda_0, x_0)$  is singular.

## 1.2. Examples with One Parameter

If  $X = Z$ ,  $M(\lambda, x) = Bx - \lambda x$ , where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $B: X \rightarrow X$  is a bounded linear operator, then any eigenvalue  $\lambda_0$  of  $B$  is a bifurcation point. In fact, if  $\lambda_0$  is an eigenvalue of  $B$ , then, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is an  $x_0 \in X$ ,  $|x_0| = \varepsilon$  such that  $Bx_0 = \lambda_0 x_0$ . On the other hand, if

$$(2.1) \quad M(\lambda, x) = Bx - \lambda x + 0(|x|^2 + |\lambda - \lambda_0|^2|x|)$$

as  $x \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\lambda \rightarrow \lambda_0$  where  $\lambda_0$  is an eigenvalue of  $B$ , the point  $\lambda_0$  may not be a bifurcation point. Notice that  $M(\lambda, 0) = 0$  for all  $\lambda \in A$  so that  $(\lambda, 0)$  is a solution. In fact, suppose  $x = (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and consider the equations

$$(2.2) \quad \begin{aligned} x_2(x_1^2 + x_2^2) + \lambda x_1 &= 0 \\ -x_1(x_1^2 + x_2^2) + \lambda x_2 &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Any solution of Equation (2.2) must satisfy  $(x_1^2 + x_2^2)^2 = 0$  for all  $\lambda$ ; that is,  $x_1 = x_2 = 0$ . Thus,  $\lambda = 0$  is not a bifurcation point and it is a double eigenvalue of the linear part of Equation (2.2).

To emphasize the role of the nonlinearities in Equation (2.2), we make only a sign change and bifurcation will occur at  $\lambda = 0$ . In fact, the equations

$$(2.3) \quad \begin{aligned} x_2(x_1^2 + x_2^2) + \lambda x_1 &= 0 \\ x_1(x_1^2 + x_2^2) + \lambda x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

have the solutions  $x_2 = x_1$ ,  $x_1(2x_1^2 + \lambda) = 0$ . Thus,  $\lambda = 0$  is a bifurcation point.

It is also possible to give a similar example in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  for the case in which the null space  $\mathcal{N}(B)$  has dimension one. In fact, consider the equation

$$(2.4) \quad \begin{aligned} x_2 + \lambda x_1 &= 0 \\ \lambda x_2 - x_1^3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

near  $(\lambda_0, x_{10}, x_{20}) = (0, 0, 0)$ . The matrix  $B$  for this case is

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



which has  $\lambda_0 = 0$  as an eigenvalue of multiplicity two but  $\mathcal{N}(B)$  has dimension one. The above equation is equivalent to  $x_2 + \lambda x_1 = 0$ ,  $x_1(\lambda^2 + x_1^2) = 0$  which has only the solution  $x_1 = x_2 = 0$  for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Therefore,  $\lambda_0 = 0$  is not a bifurcation point.

If  $\lambda_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  is a simple eigenvalue of  $B$  and  $M$  is given as in Relation (2.1), then  $\lambda_0$  is always a bifurcation point. Although an even more general result will be given in Chapter 4, it is instructive to do the simplest case here. Suppose  $X = Z = \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $A = \mathbb{R}$  and  $M$  is given in Relation (2.1). If  $\lambda_0$  is a simple eigenvalue of  $B$ , then we may assume that  $B = \text{diag}(0, B_0)$  where  $B_0 - \lambda_0 I$  is an  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  nonsingular matrix. If  $x = (y, z)$ ,  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $z \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ , then  $M(\lambda, x) = 0$  is equivalent to:

$$(2.5) \quad \begin{aligned} (a) \quad & \mu y = g(\mu, y, z) \\ (b) \quad & (B_0 - \lambda_0 I)z = h(\mu, y, z) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mu = \lambda - \lambda_0$ , and both  $g, h$  are  $O(y^2 + |z|^2 + \mu^2(|y| + |z|))$  as  $y, z, \mu \rightarrow 0$ . Since  $B_0 - \lambda_0 I$  is nonsingular, one can invoke the Implicit Function Theorem to solve Equation (2.5b) for  $z = z^*(\mu, y)$  near  $\mu = 0$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $z^*(\mu, 0) = 0$ . Therefore, Equations (2.5) are equivalent to the scalar equation

$$(2.6) \quad \mu y = g(\mu, y, z^*(\mu, y)).$$

Since  $z^*(\mu, 0) = 0$ ,  $g(\mu, 0, 0) = 0$ , one can divide Equation (2.6) by  $y$  to obtain the equivalent equation for  $y \neq 0$

$$(2.7) \quad \mu = \bar{g}(\mu, y)$$

where  $\bar{g}(\mu, y) = g(\mu, y, z^*(\mu, y))/y$  satisfies  $\bar{g}(0, 0) = 0$ ,  $D_\mu \bar{g}(0, 0) \neq 0$ . Thus, the Implicit Function Theorem implies there is a solution  $\mu = \mu^*(y)$  for  $y$  near zero and  $\mu^*(0) = 0$ . This proves  $\mu = 0$  (or  $\lambda = \lambda_0$ ) is a bifurcation point. In Figure 2.1, we have depicted a possible solution set. Without further restrictions on the nonlinearity, we can only assert that the curve  $\mu = \mu^*(y)$  is a smooth curve passing through  $(0, 0)$ .

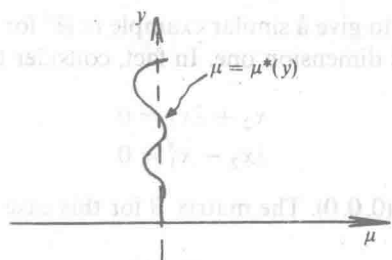


Figure 2.1



The procedure used in the above example is known as the method of Liapunov-Schmidt or the method of alternative problems. The method in abstract form is fundamental in bifurcation theory.

### 1.3. The Euler-Bernoulli Rod

To illustrate some other ideas that occur in bifurcation theory, let us consider the Euler-Bernoulli problem of the buckling of a rod. In equilibrium position, suppose the rod of length  $l$  is represented in the  $(x, y)$ -plane by the set  $\{(x, 0), 0 \leq x \leq l\}$ , the rod is fixed at  $(0, 0)$  and the other end  $(l, 0)$  is allowed to vary along the  $x$ -axis when it is subjected to a constant horizontal force  $P$  at the right end. If  $s$  represents arc length along the displaced rod,  $\phi(s)$  represents the angle which the unit tangent vector to the rod makes with the  $x$ -axis (see Figure 3.1) and it is assumed that the change in curvature is proportional to the moment of force, then the equations describing the displacement of the rod are

$$(3.1) \quad Py = -k \frac{d\phi}{ds}$$

$$\frac{dy}{ds} = \sin \phi$$

where  $k$  is a constant and the boundary conditions are

$$(3.2) \quad y(0) = y(l) = 0, \quad x(0) = 0.$$

If  $P \neq 0$ , Equations (3.1) and Boundary Conditions (3.2) are equivalent to

$$(3.3) \quad \frac{d^2\phi}{ds^2} + \lambda \sin \phi = 0$$

$$\phi'(0) = \phi'(l) = 0.$$

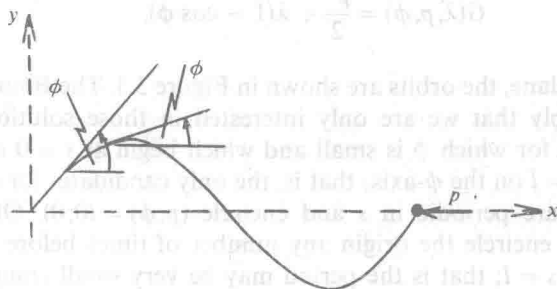


Figure 3.1



Let  $C^k[0, l] = \{f: [0, l] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: f \text{ is continuous together with derivatives up through order } k\}$ . For any  $f \in C^k[0, l]$ , let

$$\|f\|_k = \max \{ \sup[|f^{(j)}(s)|: 0 \leq s \leq l], j = 0, 1, \dots, k \}.$$

Let  $X = \{f \in C^2[0, l]: f'(0) = f'(l) = 0\}$ ,  $Z = C^0[0, l]$  and define

$$(3.4) \quad F: \mathbb{R} \times X \rightarrow Z, \quad F(\lambda, \phi) = \frac{d^2 \phi}{ds^2} + \lambda \sin \phi.$$

Our objective is to determine all solutions of the equation

$$(3.5) \quad F(\lambda, \phi) = 0, \quad (\lambda, \phi) \in \mathbb{R} \times X$$

which have  $\phi$  “close” to the trivial solution  $\phi = 0$ .

Let us first consider the linear problem

$$(3.6) \quad D_\phi F(\lambda, 0)\psi = 0$$

which is equivalent to

$$(3.7) \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 \psi}{ds^2} + \lambda \psi &= 0 \\ \psi'(0) &= \psi'(l) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to verify that this equation has a nontrivial solution if and only if  $\lambda = \lambda_m = m^2 \pi^2 / l^2$ ,  $m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  and, for  $\lambda = \lambda_m$ , every solution is a constant multiple of  $\psi_m(s) = \cos \sqrt{\lambda_m} s$ . For the original problem of the bar,  $m = 0$  is not possible since  $m = 0$  and  $P \neq 0$  implies that  $y(s) = 0$ ,  $0 \leq s \leq l$ . Figure 3.2 shows the displaced rod corresponding to  $\lambda_m$  for  $m = 1, 2, 3$ .

If  $\phi(s)$  is a solution of Equation (3.3) and  $p(s) = d\phi(s)/ds$ , then

$$(3.8) \quad \begin{aligned} G(\lambda, p(s), \phi(s)) &= G(\lambda, p(0), \phi(0)), \quad 0 \leq s \leq l, \\ G(\lambda, p, \phi) &= \frac{p^2}{2} + \lambda(1 - \cos \phi). \end{aligned}$$

In the  $(p, \phi)$ -plane, the orbits are shown in Figure 3.3. The Boundary Condition (3.2) imply that we are only interested in those solutions satisfying Relation (3.8) for which  $\phi$  is small and which begin at  $s = 0$  on the  $\phi$ -axis and end at  $s = l$  on the  $\phi$ -axis; that is, the only candidates for solutions are those which are periodic in  $s$  and encircle  $(p, \phi) = (0, 0)$ . Of course, the solution may encircle the origin any number of times before it returns to the  $\phi$ -axis at  $s = l$ ; that is the period may be very small compared with  $l$ . In terms of the original rod, this means more zeros (nodes) as shown in Figure 3.2.