Week 3 notes

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# 1 Measuring distance in a general state space

# 1.1 Introduction

Last week, we defined attracting and repelling fixed points and orbits for dynamical systems with state space  $\mathbb{R}$ . This week, we'll generalize these definitions to other state spaces.

Key concepts we used in our definitions include:

- Open intervals
- Limits

Both can be based on the concept of distance.<sup>1</sup> Our first goal for today is to generalize the idea of distance to other state spaces.

# **1.2** Examples: distance functions on $\mathbb{R}$ , $\mathbb{T}$ , and $2^{\mathbb{N}}$

# 1.2.1 The standard distance function on $\mathbb{R}$

Let's start with something familiar. The distance between two points  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  is given by the function d(x, y) = |y - x|.

Here's another way to express this distance function, which will sometimes come in handy. If you start at the point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and then move by a displacement of  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , the distance to the place you end up is |a|. In other words, d(x, x + a) = |a|.

# 1.2.2 The standard distance function on $\mathbb T$

The distance between two points on the circle is the length of the shortest path along the circle from one point to another. If you start at  $\theta \in \mathbb{T}$  and then move by a displacement of of  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , the distance to the place you end up is  $|\alpha|$ , as long as you didn't move more than halfway around the circle. In other words,  $d(\theta, \theta + \alpha) = |\alpha|$ , as long as  $\alpha \in [-\pi, \pi]$ .

# 1.2.3 The standard distance function on $2^{\mathbb{N}}$

Given two distinct sequences  $x, y \in \mathbf{2}^{\mathbb{N}}$ , let *m* be the number of digits before the first place they differ. We define  $d(x, y) = 2^{-m}$ . For example:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>They don't have to be, though. Ask me about this later if you'd like to learn more.



(The textbook uses a different distance function on  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ . I think this one is easier to work with, and more commonly used.)

### **1.3** General properties of distance functions

The distance functions we just saw all take two points x, y in a state space Y and give back a number  $d(x, y) \in [0, \infty)$ . They share the following three properties.

• Distance is the same in both directions.

$$d(x,y) = d(y,x)$$
 for all  $x, y \in Y$ 

• The distance from a point to itself is zero, and points with zero distance between them are the same.

$$x = y \iff d(x, y) = 0$$

• Direct trips are the shortest.

$$d(x,y) \le d(x,p) + d(p,y)$$
 for all  $x, y, p \in Y$ 

This property is called the *triangle inequality*.

These properties turn out to capture the essential features of a distance function. Functions that satisfy them tend to meet people's expectations for how a distance function should behave. A function that satisfies these properties is called a *metric*.

### 1.4 Open balls

Given a point x, it's often useful to know which points are within a certain distance of x. We define the *open ball* of radius r around x as the set

$$B_x(r) = \{ y \in Y \colon d(x, y) < r \}.$$

Here are some examples.

- [Sketch  $B_x(r)$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ .]
- [Sketch  $B_x(r)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .] The term "ball" comes from this example.
- [Sketch  $B_x(r)$  in  $\mathbb{T}$  for  $r \leq \pi$  and  $\pi \leq r$ .]
- In  $\mathbf{2}^{\mathbb{N}}$ , the open ball  $B_x(2^{-n})$  is the set of sequences which match x for the first n+1 digits.

### 1.5 Limits

Once we have a metric on Y, we can define the limits of sequences just like we do in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Informal definition.** The point  $p \in Y$  is a *limit* of the sequence  $y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4, \ldots$  if we can get  $y_n$  as close as we want to p just by making n large enough.

**Formal definition.** The point  $p \in Y$  is a *limit* of  $y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4, \ldots$  if for every radius r > 0, no matter how small, the sequence has a "tail"  $y_N, y_{N+1}, y_{N+2}, y_{N+3}, \ldots$  that always stays inside  $B_p(r)$ .

When you define limits in terms of distance, like we'll always do in this course, a sequence can have at most one limit.<sup>2</sup> So, it makes sense to use the shorthand  $\lim_{n\to\infty} y_n = p$  when we want to say p is a limit of  $y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4, \ldots$ 

# 2 Attraction and repulsion in a general state space

### 2.1 Definition

Consider a dynamical system with state space Y and dynamical map F. The point  $p \in Y$  is a fixed point of F.

- A basin of attraction for p is an open ball U with the following properties.
  - -U contains p.
  - Every orbit starting in U stays in U forever.
  - Every orbit starting in U limits to p.

If there's a basin of attraction for p, we say p is attracting.<sup>3</sup>

(The second property is equivalent to the property that  $F(U) \subset U$ , using our shorthand from last week.)

- A region of repulsion for p is an open ball U with the following properties.
  - -U contains p.
  - Every orbit starting in U eventually leaves U, unless it starts at p.
    - (It only has to leave once; it can come back later.)

If there's a region of repulsion for p, we say p is repelling.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>For the one or two students who've studied topology: this comes from the more general fact that a sequence in a Hausdorff space can have at most one limit. A topology defined in terms of a metric is always Hausdorff.

 $<sup>^3\</sup>mathrm{The}$  textbook uses the term weakly attracting.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>The textbook uses the term *weakly repelling*.

#### 2.2 Examples

#### 2.2.1 The doubling map

We learned earlier that the doubling map  $D: \mathbb{T} \to \mathbb{T}$  has one fixed point: the angle 0. It turns out to be repelling. Here's how to see this.

- The easy way: use the linearization trick we learned last week, which works for the state space  $\mathbb{T}$  as well as for  $\mathbb{R}$ . Observe that D is differentiable near 0, with |D'(t)| > 1. It follows that 0 is repelling.
- The straightforward way: find a region of repulsion. The ball  $B_0(\frac{\pi}{2})$  will do the trick. Pick any point  $\theta \in B_0(\frac{\pi}{2})$  other than 0, and express it as a number  $t \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ . Observe that  $D^n(t) \equiv 2^n t$ . We can always find a whole number n with  $|2^n t| \in [\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi)$ .

#### 2.2.2 The shift map

We learned earlier that the shift map  $S: \mathbf{2}^{\mathbb{N}} \to \mathbf{2}^{\mathbb{N}}$  has two fixed points:  $\overline{\mathbf{0}}$  and  $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ . They both turn out to be repelling. Here's how to show this.

I claim that  $B_{\overline{0}}(1)$  is a region of repulsion for  $\overline{0}$ . To see why, pick any point  $x \in B_{\overline{0}}(1)$  other than  $\overline{0}$ . Since  $1 = 2^{-0}$ , the sequences in  $B_{\overline{0}}(1)$  are the ones that have the same first digit as  $\overline{0}$ . Hence,

x = 0

Since x is not  $\overline{0}$ , it must have a 1 somewhere.

$$x = \underbrace{\mathbf{0}}_{n \text{ digits}} \mathbf{1}$$

Let's say there's a 1 with n digits before it. Since  $S^n$  erases the first n digits,  $S^n(x)$  starts with a 1.

$$S^n(x) = 1$$

Hence,  $S^n(x)$  is not in  $B_{\overline{0}}(1)$ .

In summary, we've shown that for any  $x \in B_{\overline{0}}(1)$  other than  $\overline{0}$ , there's some time n at which  $S^n(x)$  leaves  $B_{\overline{0}}(1)$ . That means  $B_{\overline{0}}(1)$  is a region of repulsion.

#### 2.2.3 Sweeping away the 1s

In the homework, we defined a dynamical map  $A \colon \mathbf{2}^{\mathbb{N}} \to \mathbf{2}^{\mathbb{N}}$ .

- Defining rule: when you apply A, each 1 that's followed by a 0 turns into a 0.
- Fixed points:

$$p_n = \underbrace{000\dots0}_n 11111\dots$$
$$q = 00000000000\dots$$

The fixed point  $p_n$  turns out to be repelling for every  $n \in \{0, 1, 2...\}$ . The open ball  $B_{p_n}(2^{-n})$  is a region of repulsion. To see why, consider any  $x \in B_{p_n}(2^{-n})$  other than  $p_n$ . By the definition of an open ball,  $d(p_n, x) < 2^{-n}$ , so x matches  $p_n$  for at least the first n + 1 digits:

$$x = \underbrace{000\dots0}_n 1$$

Since  $x \neq p_n$ , there must be a 0 somewhere after that initial 1:

$$x = \underbrace{000\ldots0}_{n} 1 \qquad 0$$

Hence, the orbit of x eventually reaches

$$\underbrace{\underbrace{000\ldots0}_n}^{n} 0$$

which is outside  $B_{p_n}(2^{-n})$ .