This paper is based on two sources [1] [2], the numbers of the definitions, lemmas and theorems correspond to those in the sources for ease of reference.

Consider a smooth system  $(f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n \text{ is } C^1\text{-smooth})$ 

$$\dot{x} = f(x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n \tag{1}$$

Recall that the corresponding flow  $\varphi^t(x)$  is at least  $C^1$  jointly in (t, x).

Let  $\Gamma_0 \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a periodic orbit (cycle) of the dynamical system generated by (1), i.e. there exists T > 0 (the minimal period) such that for every  $x_0 \in \Gamma_0$  we have  $\varphi^T(x_0) = x_0$  and  $\varphi^t(x_0) \neq x_0$  for  $t \in (0,T)$ .

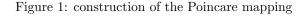
Choose  $x_0 \in \Gamma_0$  and define

$$\Sigma_0 = \{\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle f(x_0), \xi \rangle = 0\}$$

and introduce a cross-section

$$\Pi_{x_0} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x = x_0 + \xi, \xi \in \Sigma_0 \}$$

The orbit starting at  $x_0$  ( $\Gamma_0$ ) hits  $\Pi_{x_0}$  again after T units of time. Our next aim is to show that orbits of (1) starting at points on  $\Pi_{x_0}$  near  $x_0$  also hit  $\Pi_{x_0}$  after approximately T units of time. Actually, we show that this is true for all orbits starting near  $x_0$ , either on or off  $\Pi_{x_0}$  (see Figure 1).



**Lemma 3.11** (return to cross-section  $\Pi_{x_0}$ ) There exists a  $C^1 \operatorname{map} \tau : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}, \xi \mapsto \tau(\xi)$ , defined in a neighbourhood of  $\xi = 0$  and such that (i)  $\tau(0) = T$ ; (ii)  $\varphi^{\tau(\xi)}(x_0 + \xi) \in \Pi_{x_0}$ .

*Proof.* Define  $F : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$F(t,\xi) = \left\langle f(x_0), \varphi^t(x_0+\xi) - x_0 \right\rangle$$

and consider the equation

$$F(t,\xi) = 0$$

Since  $\varphi^t(x)$  is at least  $C^1$  jointly in  $(t, x), F \in C^1$ . We can compute the derivative over t of F,

$$F_t(t,\xi) = \left\langle f(x_0), \frac{\partial}{\partial t}\varphi^t(x_0+\xi) \right\rangle = \left\langle f(x_0), f(\varphi^t(x_0+\xi)) \right\rangle$$

Note that

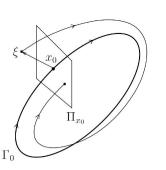
$$F(T,0) = \langle f(x_0), \varphi^T(x_0) - x_0 \rangle = \langle f(x_0), x_0 - x_0 \rangle = 0$$

while

$$F_t(T,0) = \langle f(x_0), f(\varphi^T(x_0)) \rangle = \langle f(x_0), f(x_0) \rangle = ||f(x_0)||^2 \neq 0$$

The Implicit Function Theorem now yields that there exists an open neighbourhood of  $\xi = 0$  on which there exists a  $C^1 \operatorname{map} \tau : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\tau(0) = T, \quad F(\tau(\xi), \xi) = 0$$



Thus for any  $\xi$  in this neighbourhood,

$$\varphi^{\tau(\xi)} \left( x_0 + \xi \right) - x_0 \in \Sigma_0$$

and

$$x_0 + \varphi^{\tau(\xi)} (x_0 + \xi) - x_0 = \varphi^{\tau(\xi)} (x_0 + \xi) \in \Pi_{x_0}$$

**Definition 3.12** The map  $\mathcal{P}: \Sigma_0 \to \Sigma_0$ , defined for  $\xi \in \Sigma_0$  near  $\xi = 0$  by the formula

$$\mathcal{P}(\xi) = \varphi^{\tau(\xi)} \left( x_0 + \xi \right) - x_0, \tag{2}$$

is called a Poincaré map of the periodic orbit  $\Gamma_0$ .

**remark**  $\mathcal{P}$  is a (locally defined) map on the (n-1)-dimensional subspace  $\Sigma_0$ . Let  $N_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, i = 1, 2, ..., n-1$ , be linearly independent vectors in  $\Sigma_0$ , so that

$$\langle N_i, f(x_0) \rangle = 0$$

Then any  $\xi \in \Sigma_0$  can be written as

$$\xi = \eta_1 N_1 + \eta_2 N_2 + \dots + \eta_{n-1} N_{n-1}$$

We will denote this map as

$$N: \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \to \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \eta \mapsto N\xi$$

where N denotes the  $n \times (n-1)$  matrix

 $\begin{pmatrix} N_1 & N_2 & \dots & N_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$ 

Since the columns of the matrix are linearly independent and span  $\Sigma_0$  there exists an inverse matrix  $N^{-1}$ restricted to  $\Sigma_0$ . Given such coordinates  $\eta$  in  $\Sigma_0$ , the map  $\mathcal{P}$  as defined in (2) is fully described by a (local)  $C^1$ -map  $P: \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \to \mathbb{R}^{n-1}, \quad \eta \mapsto P(\eta)$ 

defined by

$$P(\eta) = N^{-1} \mathcal{P}(N\eta)$$

which is often also called the Poincaré map of  $\Gamma_0$ . Note that  $\eta = 0$  is a fixed point of this map: P(0) = 0. The derivatives of  $P(\eta)$  and  $\mathcal{P}(\xi)$  are related by

$$\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(\xi) = NP_n(N^{-1}\xi)N^{-1}$$

The eigenvalues of the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ -matrix  $P_{\eta}(0)$  are the eigenvalues of the linear map  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)$ . Indeed,

$$\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)v = \lambda v = NP_{\eta}(0)N^{-1}v$$
$$\lambda N^{-1}v = P_{\eta}(0)N^{-1}v$$

and conversely

$$P_{\eta}(0)v = \lambda v = N^{-1} \mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0) N v$$
$$\lambda N v = \mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0) N v$$

So in particular  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)$  restricted to  $\Sigma_0$  has (n-1) eigenvalues.

Restricting the neighbourhood of Lemma 1 to  $\Sigma_0$  shows that the Poincaré map is well defined and since  $\tau$  is  $C^1$  the Poincaré map is smooth.

## Theorem 3.13

(i) If all (n-1) eigenvalues of the linearization  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)$  of the Poincaré map  $\mathcal{P}$  at  $\xi = 0$  satisfy  $|\lambda| < 1$ , then  $\Gamma_0$  is asymptotically stable.

(ii) If  $|\lambda| > 1$  for some eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of the linearization of the Poincaré map  $\mathcal{P}$ , then  $\Gamma_0$  is unstable.

*Proof.* (i) By theorem 2.7 (see stability of linear maps section at the end of this document) introduce an equivalent norm  $\|\cdot\|_1$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  in which  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)$  is a linear contraction on  $\Sigma_0$ . By theorem 3.1 there exists  $\delta_0 > 0$  such that for all  $\xi \in \Sigma_0$  with  $\|\xi\|_1 \leq \delta_0$  the inequality

$$\|\mathcal{P}(\xi)\|_{1} \le \rho_{1} \|\xi\|_{1} \tag{3}$$

holds with some  $\rho_1 < 1$ . For any  $\delta \leq \delta_0$ , construct a neighbourhood  $U_{\delta}$  of  $\Gamma_0$  as follows. Take the ball in  $\Sigma_0$ 

$$B_{\delta} = \{\xi \in \Sigma_0 : \|\xi\|_1 \le \delta\}$$

and consider all orbits of (1) starting at  $x_0 + \xi$  with  $\xi \in B_{\delta}$ . Any such orbit returns back to  $\Pi_0$  after  $\tau(\xi)$  units of time. Define now  $U_{\delta} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  as the union of all such orbit segments (see figure 2), i.e.,

$$U_{\delta} = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x = \varphi^t \left( x_0 + \xi \right), \xi \in B_{\delta}, 0 \le t \le \tau(\xi) \right\}$$

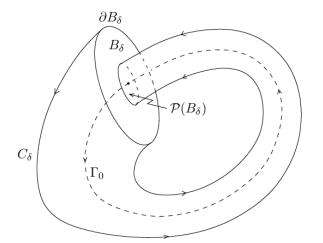


Figure 2: construction of  $U_{\delta}$ 

The set  $U_{\delta}$  is a closed tubular neighbourhood of  $\Gamma_0$  that shrinks to  $\Gamma_0$  as  $\delta \to 0$ . Indeed, because  $\varphi^t(x)$  is  $C^1$  in (t, x) it is Lipschitz continuous over the closed interval [0, 2T]. Thus for some  $C \ge 1$ ,

$$\|\varphi^{t}(x_{0}) - \varphi^{t}(x_{0} + \xi)\| \le C\|(t, x_{0}) - (t, x_{0} + \xi)\| = C\|\xi\|$$
(4)

This holds for all  $t \in [0, 2T]$  (this includes the whole cycle for small enough  $\delta$  since  $\tau(\xi) \to T$  as  $\delta \to 0$ ) and  $\xi \in B_{\delta}$ , thus  $U_{\delta}$  shrinks to  $\Gamma_0$  as  $\delta \to 0$ .

Since  $\mathcal{P}(B_{\delta})$  is located strictly in  $B_{\delta}, U_{\delta}$  is a trapping region, i.e. any orbit starting in  $U_{\delta}$  remains in it for all  $t \geq 0$ .

Indeed, the boundary  $\partial U_{\delta}$  of  $U_{\delta}$  consists of a cylinder  $C_{\delta}$ , which is formed by translations of all points of  $\partial B_{\delta}$  by the flow until they return to  $\Sigma_0$ , and a set  $D_{\delta}$  defined by

$$D_{\delta} = \operatorname{Int} B_{\delta} \setminus \operatorname{Int} \mathcal{P} (B_{\delta}),$$

which is an annulus in  $\Sigma_0$  between  $B_{\delta}$  and  $\mathcal{P}(B_{\delta})$ . Provided  $\delta$  is sufficiently small, since f(x) is smooth and  $f(x_0)$  is transverse to  $D_{\delta}$ , all orbits of the ODE that start in  $D_{\delta}$  cross it transversally and then enter  $U_{\delta}$ . This implies that any orbit starting in  $U_{\delta}$  cannot leave  $U_{\delta}$  for  $t \geq 0$ , if one takes into account that the cylinder  $C_{\delta}$  is positively invariant with respect to the system flow.

Consider now any small open neighbourhood U of  $\Gamma_0$ . Making  $\delta$  sufficiently small, we can guarantee that  $U_{\delta} \subset U$ . Since  $U_{\delta}$  is a trapping region, this implies Lyapunov stability of  $\Gamma_0$ .

By induction, it follows from (3) that

$$\left\| \mathcal{P}^{k}(\xi) \right\|_{1} \leq \rho_{1}^{k} \|\xi\|_{1}, \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \cdots.$$

Let  $\xi_k = \mathcal{P}^k(\xi)$ , then since  $\rho_1 < 1$ ,  $\|\xi_k\|_1 \to 0$  as  $k \to \infty$ . This means that the forward half of any orbit starting in  $U_{\delta}$  can be divided into finite segments, whose end-points  $x_0 + \xi_k$  where  $\xi_k \in \Sigma_0$ , form a convergent sequence with  $\{\xi_k\} \to 0$ . Using (4) we see that these segments converge to  $\Gamma_0$  since  $\xi_k$  converges to 0. We conclude that dist  $(\varphi^t(x_0 + \xi), \Gamma_0) \to 0$  as  $t \to +\infty$ , i.e.  $\Gamma_0$  is asymptotically stable.

(ii) This part also follows from Theorem 3.1, since instability for the Poincaré map  $\mathcal{P}$  immediately implies instability of  $\Gamma_0$  with respect to the flow generated by the ODE.

There is actually a stronger sense of stability near  $\Gamma_0$  that follows from (3),

**Definition 3.14** A cycle  $\Gamma_0$  through  $x_0$  is called exponentially orbitally stable with asymptotic phase if there exist c > 0, K > 1, and  $t_0 = t_0(x) \in [0, T)$  such that

$$\left\|\varphi^{t}(x) - \varphi^{t-t_{0}}(x_{0})\right\| \leq K e^{-ct}, \quad t \geq 0$$

for all x with sufficiently small dist  $(x, \Gamma_0)$ .

**Theorem 3.15** If all (n-1) eigenvalues of the linearization  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)$  of the Poincaré map  $\mathcal{P}$  at  $\xi = 0$  satisfy  $|\lambda| < 1$ , then  $\Gamma_0$  is exponentially orbitally stable with asymptotic phase.

*Proof.* Consider first  $x = x_0 + \xi$ ,  $\xi \in \Sigma_0$ , and define for a given  $\xi$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \xi_0 &= \xi, \\ \xi_k &= \mathcal{P}\left(\xi_{k-1}\right), \\ \tau_k &= \tau\left(\xi_{k-1}\right) + \tau_{k-1}, \tau_0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

for k = 1, 2, ... Using (3) we know that (we denote the norm  $\|\cdot\|_1$  by  $\|\cdot\|$ ) there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $\xi$  with  $\|\xi\| \leq \delta$  the estimate,

$$\|\xi_k\| = \|\mathcal{P}^k(\xi)\| \le \rho_1^k \|\xi\| \le e^{-\alpha k} \|\xi\|$$

holds. The last inequality follows from the fact that  $\rho_1 < 1$  and,

$$\rho_1^k = e^{k \ln \rho_1} \le e^{-\alpha k}$$

for some  $-\alpha \geq \ln \rho_1$ , we choose  $-\alpha < 0$ .

Since  $\tau \in C^1$ , it is Lipschitz continuous on  $[0, \delta]$  and we can derive the estimate:

$$|\tau(\xi_{k-1}) - T| = |\tau(\xi_{k-1}) - \tau(0)| \le C ||\xi_{k-1}|| \le C e^{-\alpha(k-1)} ||\xi_0|$$

This implies

$$|(\tau_k - kT) - (\tau_{k-1} - (k-1)T)| = |\tau(\xi_{k-1}) - T| \le C e^{-\alpha(k-1)} ||\xi_0||.$$

Thus,  $\theta_k = \tau_k - kT$  is a Cauchy sequence, so it has a limit that we denote by  $t_0$ . By iteratively applying the previous inequality we have

$$|\tau_{k+m} - (k+m)T - (\tau_k - kT)| \le C \|\xi_0\| \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} e^{-\alpha(k+j)} \le C \|\xi_0\| e^{-\alpha k} \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} e^{-\alpha j} \le C \|\xi_0\| \frac{e^{-\alpha k}}{1 - e^{-\alpha}}$$

where the last inequality follows from the geometric series and the fact that  $e^{-\alpha} < 1$ . Taking the limit  $m \to +\infty$ , we find

$$|\tau_k - kT - t_0| \le C \|\xi_0\| \frac{\mathrm{e}^{-\alpha k}}{1 - \mathrm{e}^{-\alpha}}$$

We now apply the Lipschitz continuity of  $\varphi^t(x)$  given by (4) to obtain,

$$\left\|\varphi^{t+\tau_{k}}\left(x_{0}+\xi_{0}\right)-\varphi^{t}\left(x_{0}\right)\right\|=\left\|\varphi^{t}\left(x_{0}+\xi_{k}\right)-\varphi^{t}\left(x_{0}\right)\right\|\leq C_{1}\left\|\xi_{k}\right\|\leq C_{1}e^{-\alpha k}\left\|\xi_{0}\right\|$$

for  $0 \leq t \leq T$ . Likewise

$$\begin{aligned} \left\| \varphi^{t+\tau_{k}} \left( x_{0} + \xi_{0} \right) - \varphi^{t+kT+t_{0}} \left( x_{0} + \xi_{0} \right) \right\| &= \left\| \varphi^{t} \left( x_{0} + \xi_{k} \right) - \varphi^{t} \left( \varphi^{kT+t_{0}-\tau_{k}} \left( x_{0} + \xi_{k} \right) \right) \right\| \\ &= \left| \tau_{k} - kT - t_{0} \right| \\ &\leq C \left\| \xi_{0} \right\| \frac{\mathrm{e}^{-\alpha k}}{1 - \mathrm{e}^{-\alpha}} \\ &= C_{2} \mathrm{e}^{-\alpha k} \left\| \xi_{0} \right\|, \end{aligned}$$

for  $0 \le t \le T$ . Combining the last two inequalities and using the periodicity of  $\varphi^t(x_0)$ , we find

$$\left\|\varphi^{t+t_0}(x_0+\xi_0) - \varphi^t(x_0)\right\| \le (C_1+C_2) e^{-\alpha k} \left\|\xi_0\right\|$$

for  $kT \leq t \leq (k+1)T$ . Now take any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  near  $\Gamma_0$ . If this point does not belong to  $\Pi_0$ , consider the first intersection of the forward half-orbit starting at x with  $\Pi_0$  and represent it as  $x_0 + \xi_0$ . Apply then the above given proof.

Note that in the following section  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  denotes the total derivative of a function w.r.t. the variable x, this is also denoted using subscript x.

Lemma 3.6 The matrix

$$Y(t) = \left. \frac{\partial \varphi^t(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x_0}$$

satisfies the linear differential equation

$$\dot{Y} = f_x \left( \varphi^t \left( x_0 \right) \right) Y$$

and the initial condition  $Y(0) = I_n$ .

*Proof.* Let  $x(t, x_0 + hv) = \varphi^t(x_0 + hv)$ . Note that Y(t) is the total derivative of  $\varphi^t$  w.r.t. x, so any directional derivative can be written as Y(t)v (where v is the direction). Thus, for any  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$[Y(t)]v = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [x (t, x_0 + hv) - x (t, x_0)].$$

Now

$$[\dot{Y}(t)]v = \frac{d}{dt}[Y(t)]v = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [\dot{x}(t, x_0 + hv) - \dot{x}(t, x_0)]$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [f(x(t, x_0 + hv)) - f(x(t, x_0))]$$

Note that this is the directional derivative of  $f(\varphi^t(x))$  in the direction v in the point  $x_0$ . Thus,

$$\begin{split} \dot{Y}(t)]v &= \left[ \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f\left( \varphi^t\left( x \right) \right) \right|_{x=x_0} \right] v \\ &= \left[ \left. f_x\left( \varphi^t\left( x \right) \right) \cdot \varphi^t_x(x) \right|_{x=x_0} \right] v \\ &= f_x\left( \varphi^t\left( x_0 \right) \right) Y(t)v \end{split}$$

for any  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , so  $\dot{Y} = f_x \left( \varphi^t \left( x_0 \right) \right) Y$ . Since  $\varphi^0 \left( x \right) = x, Y(0) = I_n$ .

Note that Y(T) is also dependent on the initial point  $x_0$ , while this is not explicitly written.

**Lemma 3.7** Let  $y_0 = f(x_0)$  and  $y_1 = f(\varphi^{t_1}(x_0))$ . Then  $y_1 = Y(t_1)y_0$ .

*Proof.* Since  $x(t) = \varphi^t(x_0)$  is a solution to (1), we have

$$\frac{d}{dt}\varphi^{t}\left(x_{0}\right) = f\left(\varphi^{t}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)$$

Differentiating this equation with respect to t we find

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{d}{dt}\varphi^{t}\left(x_{0}\right)\right) = f_{x}\left(\varphi^{t}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)\frac{d}{dt}\varphi^{t}\left(x_{0}\right)$$

 $\mathbf{SO}$ 

$$y(t) = \frac{d}{dt}\varphi^{t}(x_{0}) = f\left(\varphi^{t}(x_{0})\right)$$

is a solution to the linearized problem

$$\dot{y} = f_x \left( \varphi^t \left( x_0 \right) \right) y, \quad y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

with the initial condition  $y(0) = f(x_0) = y_0$ . Since any such solution has the form  $y(t) = Y(t)y_0$  (Y(t) is the fundamental matrix solution by lemma 3.6), we get

$$y_1 = y(t_1) = Y(t_1) y_0$$

**Theorem 3.8** For any  $x_0 \in \Gamma_0$ ,  $f(x_0)$  is an eigenvector of Y(T) corresponding to eigenvalue 1.

*Proof.* By Lemma 3.7,  $f(\varphi^T(x_0)) = Y(T)f(x_0)$ . The periodicity now yields  $f(x_0) = Y(T)f(x_0)$ .

**Definition 3.9** Y(T) is called the monodromy matrix. Its eigenvalues are called the (characteristic or) Floquet multipliers. The multiplier 1 is called trivial, while all others are called nontrivial multipliers.

**Definition 3.10** A cycle  $\Gamma_0$  of (1) is called simple if  $\lambda = 1$  is a simple eigenvalue of Y(T).

We're now going to establish a relationship between the eigenvalues of the linear part  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)$  of the Poincaré mapping and the eigenvalues of the monodromy matrix Y(T).

**Lemma 3.16** (i) The linearization around  $\xi = 0$  of  $\mathcal{P}(\xi)$  is the restriction to  $\Sigma_0$  of the linear map

$$\xi \mapsto \langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle f(x_0) + Y(T)\xi \tag{5}$$

(ii) Take a point in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .  $f(x_0)$  and  $\Sigma_0$  span  $\mathbb{R}^n$  so we can write this point as  $cf(x_0) + \xi$  for  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\xi \in \Sigma_0$ . Denote this point by its span  $\{f(x_0)\}$  and  $\Sigma_0$  component as  $(c, \xi)$ . Then Y(T) maps

$$(c,\xi) \mapsto (c - \langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle, \mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi)$$

*Proof.* (i) By Lemma 3.11 the map  $\xi \mapsto \tau(\xi)$  is defined and differentiable in a neighbourhood of the origin in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Since  $\varphi^t(x)$  is differentiable in both t, x the same is true for the Poincaré map  $\xi \mapsto \mathcal{P}(\xi) = \varphi^{\tau(\xi)} (x_0 + \xi) - x_0$ . The derivative of the Poincaré map is determined using the chain rule. To make clear the steps of taking the derivative we define the following functions,

$$\varphi(t,x) = \varphi^t(x), \quad g(\xi) = x_0 + \xi$$
$$\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(\xi) = \frac{d}{d\xi} \left(\varphi(\tau(\xi), g(\xi)) - x_0\right) = \frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial t} \frac{d\tau}{d\xi} + \frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial x} \frac{dg}{d\xi} = \frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial t} \frac{d\tau}{d\xi} + \frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial x}$$

Since  $\varphi$  is a flow of the system (1)  $\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} = f(\varphi)$ . Substituting this and writing the arguments of the functions gives,

$$\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(\xi) = f(\varphi(\tau(\xi), g(\xi)))\tau_{\xi}(\xi) + \varphi_x(\tau(\xi), g(\xi))$$
$$\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0) = f(\varphi(T, x_0))\tau_{\xi}(0) + \varphi_x(T, x_0)$$

Since  $Y(T) = \varphi_x^T(x_0)$  and  $\varphi(T, x_0) = x_0$ ,

$$\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0) = f(x_0)\tau_{\xi}(0) + Y(T)$$

Thus the linearization around  $\xi = 0$  is given by (5). Next we simply restrict to  $\Sigma_0$ . (ii) Since  $Y(T)f(x_0) = f(x_0)$ , the point with coordinates  $(c, \xi)$  is mapped to  $cf(x_0) + Y(T)\xi$ . According to part (i) we may write

$$Y(T)\xi = \mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi - \langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle f(x_0)$$

 $\mathcal{P}$  maps points on  $\Sigma_0$  to  $\Sigma_0$ . Since  $\Sigma_0$  is an affine vector subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the derivative of  $\mathcal{P}$  also maps to  $\Sigma_0$ ,

$$\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi\in\Sigma_0$$

So the image point has coordinates  $(c - \langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle, \mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi)$ .

**Theorem 3.17** (i)  $\lambda \neq 1$  is an eigenvalue of  $P_{\xi}(0)$  if and only if  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of Y(T). (ii)  $\lambda = 1$  is an eigenvalue of  $P_{\xi}(0)$  if and only if the eigenvalue 1 of Y(T) has multiplicity bigger than one.

*Proof.* (i) If  $Y(T)\eta = \lambda \eta$  and  $\eta$  has coordinates  $(c, \xi)$ , then  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi = \lambda \xi$  because of Lemma 3.16 (ii) and the fact that span  $\{f(x_0)\}$  and  $\Sigma_0$  are linearly independent. If  $\lambda \neq 1$  then  $\xi \neq 0$  since the eigenvector corresponding to  $\xi = 0$  of Y(T) is  $f(x_0)$  which has eigenvalue 1. On the other hand, if  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi = \lambda \xi$  and  $\lambda \neq 1$ , then  $\eta$  given by

$$\eta = \frac{1}{1-\lambda} \left\langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \right\rangle f(x_0) + \xi$$

is such that

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$$Y(T)\eta = \frac{1}{1-\lambda} \langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle Y(T) f(x_{0}) + \mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi - \langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle f(x_{0})$$
$$= \lambda\xi + \left(\frac{1}{1-\lambda} - 1\right) \langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle f(x_{0})$$
$$= \lambda\xi + \left(\frac{\lambda}{1-\lambda}\right) \langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle f(x_{0}) = \lambda\eta$$

In the above calculation we used (5) and theorem 3.8.

(ii) Suppose first that  $\eta$  is not a multiple of  $f(x_0)$ . We can distinguish two cases,

 $Y(T)\eta=\eta$ 

and

$$Y(T)\eta - \eta = f(x_0)$$

For case one, the  $\Sigma_0$ -component  $\xi$  of  $\eta$  is nonzero. And, by Lemma 3.16 (ii),  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi = \xi$ , so 1 is an eigenvalue of  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)$ .

For case two write  $\eta = cf(x) + \xi$ . Then it follows from Lemma 3.16 (ii) that

$$(c - \langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle) f(x_0) + \mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi - cf(x_0) - \xi = f(x_0)$$
  
 $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi - \xi = 0$ 

so  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi = \xi$  where  $\xi$  is the  $\Sigma_0$ -component of  $\eta$  which is nonzero.

If, conversely,  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi = \xi$  we distinguish the case where  $\langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle \neq 0$  from the case where  $\langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle = 0$ . In the latter case it follows from (5) that  $Y(T)\xi = \mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)\xi = \xi$ , so 1 is an eigenvalue of Y(T) and  $\xi$  is not a multiple of  $f(x_0)$  since the image of  $\mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0)$  is  $\Sigma_0$ . Thus the eigenvalue 1 has multiplicity bigger than one. In the former case, we find that the normalized vector

$$\zeta = -\frac{1}{\langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle} \xi$$

satisfies

$$Y(T)\zeta - \zeta = -\langle \tau_{\xi}(0), -\frac{1}{\langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle} \xi \rangle f(x_{0}) + \mathcal{P}_{\xi}(0) \left( -\frac{1}{\langle \tau_{\xi}(0), \xi \rangle} \xi \right) - \zeta$$
$$= \zeta + f(x_{0}) - \zeta$$
$$= f(x_{0})$$

showing that, corresponding to the eigenvalue 1, Y(T) has a higher-than-one dimensional generalized eigenspace and thus that the eigenvalue 1 has a multiplicity bigger than 1.

Theorem 3.17 implies that

$$\det \left(\lambda I_n - Y(T)\right) = (\lambda - 1) \det \left(\lambda I_{n-1} - P_n(0)\right)$$

where  $P_{\xi}$  is defined in a remark immediately after Definition 3.12. Furthermore, by combining Theorems 3.13, 3.15, and 3.17 we arrive at the following summarising result.

**Theorem 3.18** If all nontrivial Floquet multipliers of a simple cycle have modulus less than one, then the cycle is exponentially orbitally stable with asymptotic phase. If some multiplier lies outside the unit circle, the cycle is unstable.

## stability of linear maps

**Definition 2.4** The spectral radius of a linear map A is defined by

$$r(A) = \sup_{\lambda \in \sigma(A)} |\lambda|$$

The relation between these quantities is specified by Gelfand's formula which we will state without proof,

$$r(A) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \|A^k\|^{1/k} = \inf_{k \ge 1} \|A^k\|^{1/k}$$
(6)

This shows that the eigenvalues of A yield information about the growth or decay of the time-series obtained by iterating A.

**Theorem 2.7** Let  $\rho > r(A)$ . There exists an equivalent norm  $\|\cdot\|_1$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\|A\|_1 \leq \rho$ .

*Proof.* Define  $\|\cdot\|_1$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  by the formula:

$$||x||_1 = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \rho^{-k} ||A^k x||$$

Formula (6) implies that this series converges. Indeed, for k sufficiently large and some q < 1,

$$\left\|A^{k}\right\|^{1/k} \leq \rho q$$
$$\rho^{-1} \left\|A^{k}\right\|^{1/k} \leq q$$

and hence

$$\rho^{-k} \|A^{k}x\| \le \rho^{-k} \|A^{k}\| \|x\| \le \|x\| q^{k}$$
$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \rho^{-k} \|A^{k}x\| \le \|x\| \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} q^{k}$$

Since q < 1 this implies that the sum converges. Clearly,  $||x||_1 \ge 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $||x||_1 = 0$  if and only if  $||A^k x|| = 0$  if and only if x = 0. Likewise the property  $||\alpha x||_1 = |\alpha| ||x||_1$  holds,

$$\|\alpha x\|_{1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \rho^{-k} \|A^{k} \alpha x\| = |\alpha| \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \rho^{-k} \|A^{k} x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|_{1}$$

and  $||x + y||_1 \le ||x||_1 + ||y||_1$  also holds,

$$\|x+y\|_{1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \rho^{-k} \|A^{k}x + A^{k}y\| \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \rho^{-k} (\|A^{k}x\| + \|A^{k}y\|) = \|x\|_{1} + \|y\|_{1}$$

So  $\|\cdot\|_1$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and since  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is finite dimensional  $\|\cdot\|_1$  is equivalent to  $\|\cdot\|$ . Now, for  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\|Ax\|_{1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \rho^{-k} \|A^{k+1}x\| = \rho \sum_{k=-1}^{\infty} \rho^{-(k+1)} \|A^{k+1}x\| - \rho \|A^{0}x\| = \rho (\|x\|_{1} - \|x\|)$$

so that

$$||Ax||_1 \le \rho ||x||_1, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

**Theorem 3.1** (Principle of Linearized Stability for Maps) Consider a  $C^1$ -map

 $x \mapsto g(x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

with g(0) = 0. Let A = g<sub>x</sub>(0).
(i) If r(A) < 1 then the fixed point x = 0 is asymptotically stable.</li>
(ii) If r(A) > 1 then the fixed point x = 0 is unstable.

Proof. We will only prove part (i), for the proof of part (2) see [2]. (i) Take any  $\rho$  satisfying  $r(A) < \rho < 1$ . By theorem 2.7, there is a norm  $\|\cdot\|_1$ , which is equivalent to  $\|\cdot\|$  and for which  $\|Am\| < c\|m\| = m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$||Ax||_1 \le \rho ||x||_1, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Since g is a C<sup>1</sup>-map, for any small  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is  $\delta > 0$ , such that

$$\|g(x) - Ax\|_1 \le \varepsilon \|x\|_1$$

when  $||x||_1 \leq \delta$ . Then, for all such x,

$$||g(x)||_1 = ||Ax + g(x) - Ax||_1 \le ||Ax||_1 + ||g(x) - Ax||_1 \le (\rho + \varepsilon) ||x||_1$$

Since  $\rho < 1$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  is arbitrarily small, we can achieve that  $\rho_1 = \rho + \varepsilon < 1$ , which implies that g maps the ball

$$\bar{B}_{\delta} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\|_1 \le \delta \}$$

into itself for all sufficiently small  $\delta > 0$ , so the fixed point x = 0 is stable. By induction:

$$\|g^k(x)\|_1 \le \rho_1^k \|x\|_1$$

showing that  $g^k(x) \to 0$  as  $k \to +\infty$  for any x with  $||x||_1 \leq \delta$ . Therefore, the fixed point x = 0 is asymptotically stable.

## bibliography

## References

- [1] Yuri A. Kuznetsov, Odo Diekmann, and W. -J. Beyn. *Chapter 2 linear maps and odes*. Dec. 2011. URL: https://webspace.science.uu.nl/~kouzn101/NLDV/Lect2\_3.pdf.
- [2] Yuri A. Kuznetsov, Odo Diekmann, and W. -J. Beyn. *Chapter 3 Local behavior of nonlinear systems*. Dec. 2011. URL: https://webspace.science.uu.nl/~kouzn101/NLDV/Lect4\_5.pdf.