# Limit Cycles II

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#### MOL 410/510

## How to prove a closed orbit exists?

- numerically
- Poincaré-Bendixson Theorem: If
  - 1.  ${\cal R}$  is a closed, bounded subset of the plane
  - 2.  $\dot{\vec{x}} = \vec{f}(\vec{x})$  is a continuously differentiable vector field on an open set containing R
  - 3. R does not contain any fixed points
  - 4. There exists a trajectory C that is "confined" in R

Then either C is a closed orbit or it spirals towards a closed orbit as  $t \to \infty$ . Either way, R contains a closed orbit.



Figure 1: Poincaré-Bendixson Theorem

## Example — Glycolytic oscillations

#### Background

Organisms may obtain energy by breaking down sugar. Glycolysis can proceed in an oscillatory fashion. In a simple model with

x =concentration of ADP (adenosine diphosphate) y =concentration of F6P (fructose-6-phosphate) we have



Figure 2: Glycolysis model

#### Starting from Kinetic Equations

A brief aside on deriving dimensionless equations from kinetic equations - by rescaling chemical concentrations and time by appropriate units, one can generally reduce the number of parameters. In our case, the underlying kinetic equations are

$$\frac{d[A]}{dt} = -\mu[A] + \alpha[F] + \gamma[A]^{2}[F]$$
$$\frac{d[F]}{dt} = \beta - \alpha[F] - \gamma[A]^{2}[F]$$

which has four (dimensionful) parameters,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ , and  $\mu$ . We'll start by rescaling time. Divide by  $\mu$ , which is a rate, to give

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}[\mathrm{A}]}{\mathrm{d}(\mu t)} = \frac{\mathrm{d}[\mathrm{A}]}{\mathrm{d}t'} = -[\mathrm{A}] + (\alpha/\mu)[\mathrm{F}] + (\gamma/\mu)[\mathrm{A}]^2[\mathrm{F}]$$
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}[\mathrm{F}]}{\mathrm{d}(\mu t)} = \frac{\mathrm{d}[\mathrm{F}]}{\mathrm{d}t'} = \beta/\mu - (\alpha/\mu)[\mathrm{F}] - (\gamma/\mu)[\mathrm{A}]^2[\mathrm{F}],$$

where we have defined  $t' = \mu t$ . Now, to eliminate the parameter  $\gamma/\mu$  in front of the last term in each equation, while continuing to measure [A] and [F] in the same units, we'll rescale the concentrations [A] and [F] as

$$[\mathbf{A}] = (\mu/\gamma)^{1/2} x$$
$$[\mathbf{F}] = (\mu/\gamma)^{1/2} y,$$

which yields

$$\begin{aligned} (\mu/\gamma)^{1/2} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t'} &= -(\mu/\gamma)^{1/2} x + (\alpha/\mu)(\mu/\gamma)^{1/2} y + (\gamma/\mu)(\mu/\gamma)^{3/2} x^2 y \\ (\mu/\gamma)^{1/2} \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t'} &= \beta/\mu - (\alpha/\mu)(\mu/\gamma)^{1/2} y - (\gamma/\mu)(\mu/\gamma)^{3/2} x^2 y, \end{aligned}$$

and simplifies to

$$\begin{split} \dot{x} &= -x + (\alpha/\mu)y + x^2y \\ \dot{y} &= (\gamma/\mu)^{1/2}(\beta/\mu) - (\alpha/\mu)y - x^2y \end{split}$$

These are our original, dimensionless equations, and now we can see exactly how the two remaining dimensionless constants a and b depend on the underlying rates in the kinetic equations:  $a = \alpha/\mu$  and  $b = (\gamma/\mu)^{1/2} (\beta/\mu)$ .

#### Intuition

Since rate of F6P $\rightarrow$ ADP increases with ADP, we can get "overshooting," i.e. F6P gets depleted, ADP has no source so it also gets depleted, followed by slow recovery of F6P. This is a possible oscillator, but how can we prove a limit cycle?

#### Find the nullclines



x



$$\dot{x} = 0 \qquad \implies -x + ay + x^2y = 0$$
$$\implies y = \frac{x}{a + x^2}$$
$$\dot{y} = 0 \qquad \implies b - ay - x^2y = 0$$
$$\implies y = \frac{b}{a + x^2}$$

Solve for fixed point: x = b,  $y = \frac{b}{a+b^2}$ . Does this prove a limit cycle? *NO*! We could have a stable fixed point at *P*, or trajectories could spiral out to  $\infty$ . Indeed, at the intersection of the nullclines  $\dot{x} = \dot{y} = 0$ , so P is a fixed point.

#### Fixed point

We can't apply Poincaré-Bendixson yet because of the fixed point. We can use P-B, though, if the fixed point is a repeller, because then our trapping region is just  $R \setminus P$ . Analyze stability of fixed point P by linearizing the differential equations around the fixed point:

Jacobian 
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \dot{x}}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial \dot{x}}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial \dot{y}}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial \dot{y}}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1+2xy & a+x^2 \\ -2xy & -(a+x^2) \end{pmatrix}$$
  
Fixed point  $P \colon x^* = b, y^* = \frac{b}{a+b^2}$   
 $A(P) = \begin{pmatrix} -1+2\frac{b^2}{a+b^2} & a+b^2 \\ -\frac{2b^2}{a+b^2} & -(a+b^2) \end{pmatrix}$ 

$$\Delta = \det A(P) = a + b^2 > 0$$
  
$$\tau = \operatorname{tr} A(P) = -1 + 2\frac{b^2}{a + b^2} - (a + b^2) = -\frac{b^4 + (2a - 1)b^2 + (a + a^2)}{a + b^2}$$

In general, we can quickly determine the stability of a fixed point if we know  $\Delta$  and  $\tau,$  i.e. the determinant and trace of the Jacobian at the fixed point, because the eigenvalues are given by

$$\lambda_J = \frac{1}{2}(\tau \pm \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}).$$

(It's worth remembering that for any square matrix  $\Delta = \prod_i \lambda_i$  and  $\tau = \sum_i \lambda_i$ .)



Figure 4: Stability and types of fixed points

The fixed point P is unstable for  $\tau > 0$ , stable for  $\tau < 0$ . The dividing line  $\tau = 0$  is at

$$b^2 = \frac{1}{2}(1 - 2a \pm \sqrt{1 - 8a})$$



Figure 5: Glycolysis analysis



Figure 6: Trapping region

## Find a trapping region

Examine Figure 6 (page 6). The vectors for  $\dot{x} = 0$  or  $\dot{y} = 0$  follow from the last figure. But what about the circled vector?

Circled vector is trapping if  $\dot{y} < -\dot{x}$  (i.e.  $\dot{x} + \dot{y} < 0$ ) along the boundary:

 $\dot{x} + \dot{y} = -x + b \implies \dot{x} + \dot{y} < 0 \text{ if } x > b,$ 

so the dashed lines do define a trapping region.

#### A model for glycolysis

We can conclude that our glycolytic model functions as in Figure 5 (page 5). Does this make sense? If *a* is too big, then F6P $\rightarrow$ ADP even for low levels of ADP, so there's no chance for a pool of F6P to accumulate. At a fixed *a*, if *b* is too small then new F6P will "instantly" turn into ADP and get used up, so the system is locked in a low flux state. If *b* is too big, ADP will never be low enough, so the system is locked into a high flux state.

## How to characterize a limit cycle?

- (nearly) harmonic oscillator vs relaxation oscillator
- period
- amplitude

## Example - van der Pol oscillator

$$\ddot{x} + \mu (x^2 - 1)\dot{x} + x = 0$$

Damped harmonic oscillator: ordinary damping for |x| > 1, "negative" damping for |x| < 1. Large amplitude oscillations will decay, but small amplitude oscillations will get pumped up. Like a parent pushing a child on a swing...

It can be proven that the van der Pol oscillator has a single, stable limit cycle for each  $\mu > 0$ .

#### van der Pol as a relaxation oscillator ( $\mu >> 1$ )

$$\ddot{x} + \mu(x^2 - 1)\dot{x} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left[ \dot{x} + \mu(\frac{1}{3}x^3 - x) \right]$$
  
Let  $F(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 - x, \omega = \dot{x} + \mu F(x).$ 

The van der Pol equation implies

$$\dot{\omega} = -x, \quad \dot{x} = \omega - \mu F(x),$$

and if we let  $y = \omega/\mu$ ,

$$\begin{split} \dot{x} &= \mu [y - F(x)] & \leftarrow \text{fast} \\ \dot{y} &= -\frac{1}{\mu} x & \leftarrow \text{slow} \end{split}$$

#### **Nullclines**

So there are two separated timescales:

"crawls" 
$$\Delta t \sim \mu$$
  
"jumps"  $\Delta t \sim 1/\mu$ 

#### Period

The period of relaxation oscillator is dominated by crawls. For van der Pol, by symmetry  $T\approx 2\int_{t_A}^{t_B}\mathrm{d}t.$  On the slow branches:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t} \approx \left. \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \right|_{\mathrm{Nullcline}} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{\mathrm{d}F(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t} = (x^2 - 1)\frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t}.$$

But

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t} = -\frac{1}{\mu}x,$$



Figure 7: van der Pol nullclines

 $\mathbf{so}$ 

$$-\frac{1}{\mu}x\approx(x^2-1)\frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t}$$

and

$$\mathrm{d}t \approx -\frac{\mu(x^2-1)}{x}\mathrm{d}x.$$

Therefore:

$$T = 2 \int_{t_A}^{t_B} dt \approx 2 \int_{x_A}^{x_B} -\frac{\mu(x^2 - 1)}{x} dx$$
  
=  $2\mu \left[ \frac{x^2}{2} - \ln x \right] \Big|_{1}^{2}$  since  $(x_A = 2, x_B = 1)$   
=  $\mu(3 - 2\ln 2) \sim \mu$   $\checkmark$