

# Parabolic bifurcations of area-preserving Hénon maps

Shigehiro Ushiki

Kyoto, May, 2016

## ABSTRACT

Real one parameter family of volume preserving complex Hénon maps is studied. Cycle of neutral periodic points bifurcates from a parabolic fixed point. Cases of periods 3 and 4 are computed directly. In the area preserving real Hénon maps, pair of a cycle of saddle type and a cycle of center type appears from a parabolic fixed point. Neutral periodic cycles are observed as so-called "islands" between KAM circles around a neutral fixed points. In this note, the appearance of pair of periodic orbits of center type and saddle type is proved for period 5 cases.

## 1. Area-preserving complex Hénon map

In this section, we consider a complex one-parameter family  $H_\alpha : \mathbb{C}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^2$  defined by

$$H_\alpha(x, y) = (y, y^2 + \alpha - x),$$

parametrized by a complex parameter  $\alpha$ . The determinant of the Jacobian matrix is always equal to 1. If  $\alpha$  is real, then  $H_\alpha$  maps the real axis  $\mathbb{R}^2$  into itself and defines an area-preserving real diffeomorphism.

The fixed point  $P_* = (y_*, y_*)$  of our Hénon map is given by quadratic equation  $y_*^2 - 2y_* + \alpha = 0$ . The Jacobian matrix at the fixed point is as follows.

$$DH_\alpha|_{P_*} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 2y_* \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{trace } DH_\alpha = 2y_*, \quad \det DH_\alpha = 1.$$

## 2. Parabolic bifurcation of order 3

Let us consider the case where  $\omega = \frac{-1+\sqrt{3}i}{2}$  and  $\bar{\omega} = \frac{-1-\sqrt{3}i}{2}$  are the eigenvalues of  $DH_\alpha$  at the fixed point  $P_*$ . Then,

$$y_* = \frac{1}{2}(\omega + \bar{\omega}) = -\frac{1}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_* = 2y_* - y_*^2 = -\frac{5}{4}.$$

Compute periodic points of period 3 as follows. Let  $y_n = u_0 + \omega^n u_1 + \bar{\omega}^n u_2$ , and suppose  $y_{n+1} = y_n^2 + \alpha - y_{n-1}$  holds. We have a system of equations for cycles of period 3.

$$(F) \quad \begin{cases} 2u_0 &= u_0^2 + 2u_1u_2 + \alpha \\ (\omega + \bar{\omega})u_1 &= 2u_0u_1 + u_2^2 \\ (\bar{\omega} + \omega)u_2 &= 2u_0u_2 + u_1^2 \end{cases}$$

When  $\alpha = \alpha_*$ , then we have a solution  $u_0 = y_*, u_1 = u_2 = 0$ . We fix constants  $\alpha_* = -\frac{5}{4}$ ,  $y_* = -\frac{1}{2}$  and set  $u_0 = u_0(\varepsilon) = y_* - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . The second and third equations of (F) are rewritten as follows.

$$\begin{cases} \varepsilon u_1 &= u_2^2 \\ \varepsilon u_2 &= u_1^2 \end{cases}$$

We obtain  $u_1 = \varepsilon \omega^k, u_2 = \varepsilon \bar{\omega}^k$ , ( $k = 0, 1, 2$ ). The choice of  $k$  corresponds to the choice of initial point in the periodic orbit. We choose  $k = 0$  and obtain the solution

$$u_0 = y_* - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}, \quad u_1 = \varepsilon, \quad u_2 = \varepsilon.$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \alpha_* - \frac{3}{2}\varepsilon - \frac{9}{4}\varepsilon^2 = -\frac{9}{4}\left(\varepsilon + \frac{1}{3}\right)^2 - 1, \\ y_0 &= -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2}\varepsilon, \quad y_1 = -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{3}{2}\varepsilon, \quad y_2 = -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{3}{2}\varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

The trace of the Jacobian matrix of the 3-cycle is given by the following.

$$\tau(\varepsilon) = \text{trace}(DH_{P_2}DH_{P_1}DH_{P_0}) = 8y_2y_1y_0 - 2(y_2 + y_1 + y_0) = 2 + 9\varepsilon^2 + 27\varepsilon^3.$$

And

$$\tau(0) = 2, \quad \frac{d\tau}{d\varepsilon} = 9\varepsilon(9\varepsilon + 2), \quad \tau\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right) = 2, \quad \tau\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = -2.$$

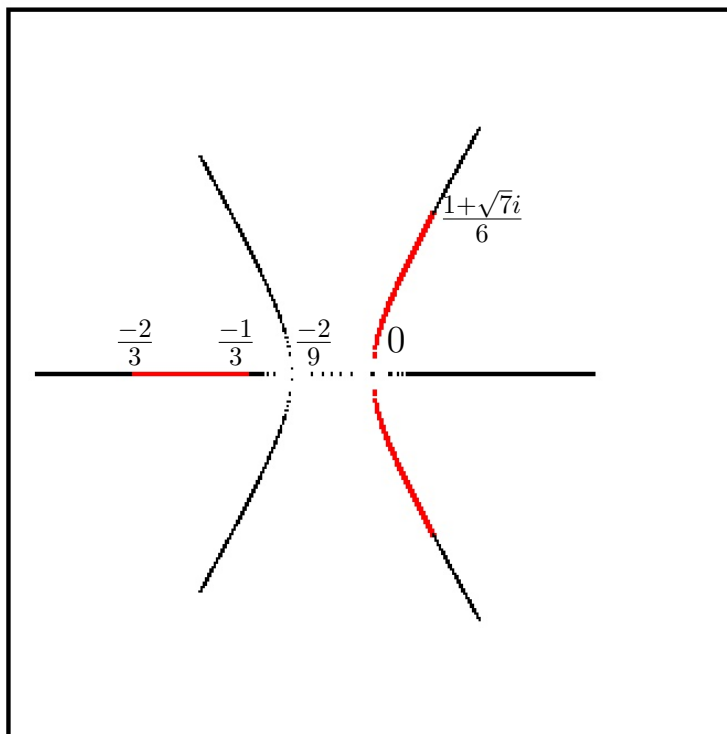


Fig.1  $\{\varepsilon \mid \tau(\varepsilon) \in [-2, 2]\}$  is drawn in red.

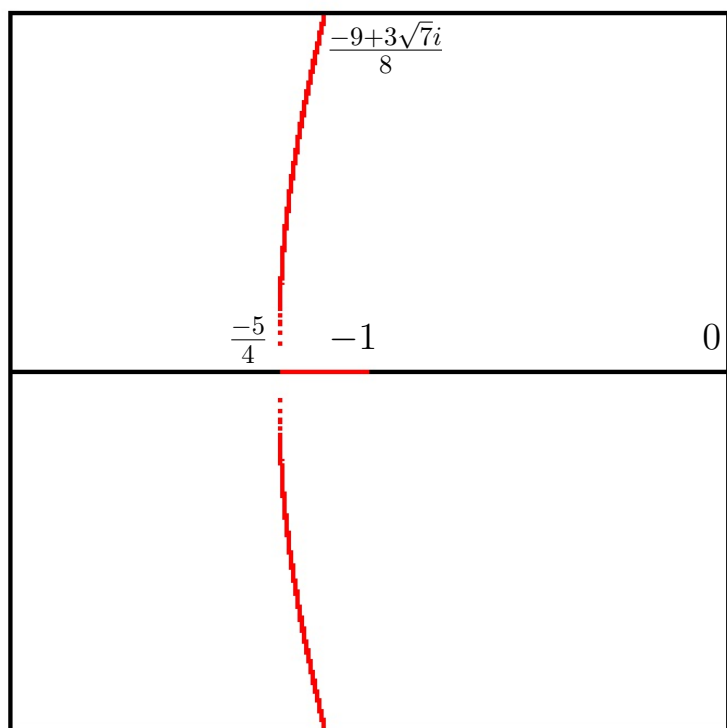


Fig.2  $\{\alpha(\varepsilon) \mid \tau(\varepsilon) \in [-2, 2]\}$  is drawn in red.

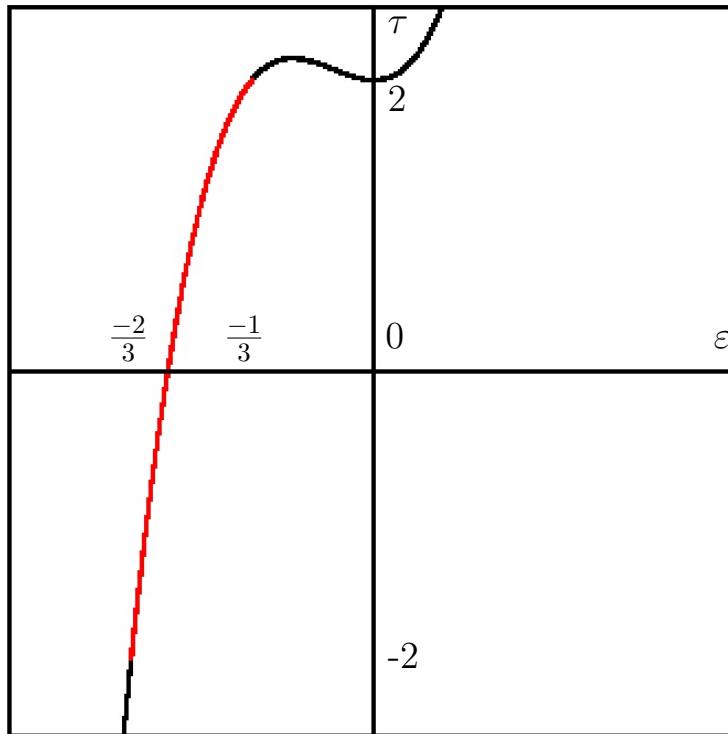


Fig.3. graph of  $\tau(\epsilon)$  for  $-1 \leq \epsilon \leq 1$ .

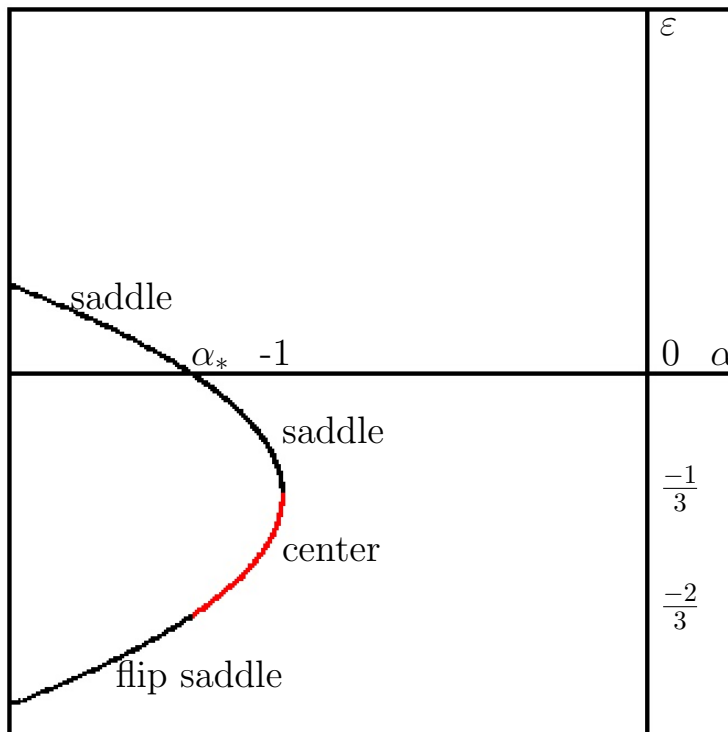


Fig.4. Bifurcation diagram of cycles of period 3.

As for the real cycles for real parameter  $\alpha$ , we pick up the cycles corresponding to real values of  $\varepsilon$ , as shown in Fig.3. The bifurcation diagram of 3-cycles is plotted in Fig.4. Cycle of saddle type with negative eigenvalues are plotted as flip saddle.

### 3. Parabolic bifurcation of order 4

Let us consider the case where  $\pm i$  are the eigenvalues of  $DH_\alpha$  at the fixed point  $P_*$ . Then  $y_* = 0$  and  $\alpha_* = 0$ .

Recall the equation of 4-periodic point. ( $y_{n+4} = y_n$ )

$$y_{n+1} = y_n^2 + \alpha - y_{n-1}, \quad n = 0, \dots, 3.$$

Discrete Fourier expansion

$$y_n = u_0 + i^n u_1 + (-1)^n u_2 + (-i)^n u_3$$

gives rise to the following system of equations.

$$(F_0) \quad 2u_0 = u_0^2 + u_2^2 + 2u_1 u_3 + \alpha,$$

$$(F_1) \quad 0 = 2u_0 u_1 + 2u_2 u_3,$$

$$(F_2) \quad -2u_2 = 2u_0 u_2 + u_1^2 + u_3^2,$$

$$(F_3) \quad 0 = 2u_0 u_3 + 2u_1 u_2.$$

From  $(F_1)$  and  $(F_3)$ , we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_0 & u_2 \\ u_2 & u_0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0}.$$

To have a non-trivial 4-cycle, it is necessary to have  $u_0^2 = u_2^2$ .

CASE I  $u_0 = u_2 = 0$ .

In this case, from  $(F_2)$  and  $(F_0)$ , we have two sub-cases

$$u_3 = iu_1, \quad \alpha = 2iu_1^2, \quad y_0 = y_1 = (1+i)u_1, \quad y_2 = y_3 = -(1+i)u_1,$$

and

$$u_3 = -iu_1, \quad \alpha = -2iu_1^2, \quad y_0 = y_1 = (1-i)u_1, \quad y_2 = y_3 = -(1-i)u_1.$$

They give the same 4-cycle. And the trace of the 4-cycle is given by  $\tau = 2 - 64u_1^4$ .

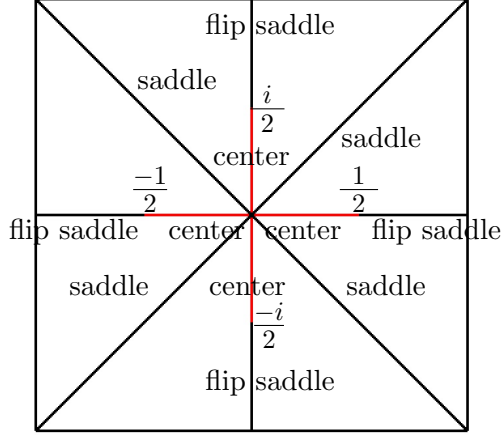


Fig.5.  $\{u_1 \mid \tau(u_1) \in [-2, 2]\}$  is drawn in red in  $u_1$  space.

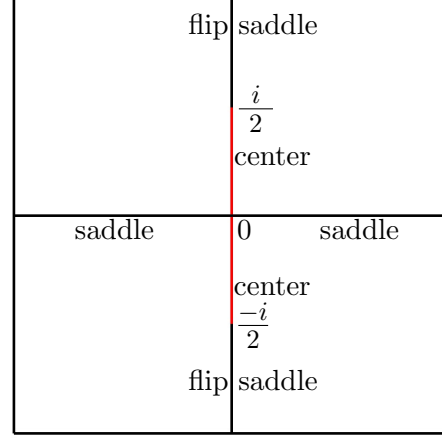


Fig.6.  $\alpha$  space for CASE I.

In this case, real cycles for real  $\alpha$  are all saddles.

CASE II  $u_2 = -u_0$  and  $u_3 = u_1$ .  
From  $(F_2)$ ,  $u_1 = \pm\sqrt{u_0^2 + u_0}$ .

$$y_0 = 2u_1, \quad y_1 = 2u_0, \quad y_2 = -2u_1, \quad y_3 = 2u_0.$$

CASE III  $u_0 = u_2$  and  $u_3 = -u_1$ .  
From  $(F_2)$ ,  $u_1 = \pm\sqrt{-u_0^2 - u_0}$ .

$$y_0 = 2u_0, \quad y_1 = 2iu_1, \quad y_2 = 2u_0, \quad y_3 = -2iu_1.$$

This gives the same orbit as in CASE II.

In these cases the trace of the 4-cycle is given by  $\tau = 2 - 256u_0^3(1 + u_0)$ . And  $\alpha = -4u_0^2$ . For real  $u_0$ , the trace  $\tau$  is real and plotted in Fig.7. Location of the  $u_0$  values with  $\tau(u_0) \in [-2, 2]$  is plotted in Fig.8. And the corresponding values of  $\alpha$  are plotted in Fig.9 and Fig.10. In Figs 9 and 10, segment  $[-\frac{i}{2}, \frac{i}{2}]$  of CASE I is plotted, too.

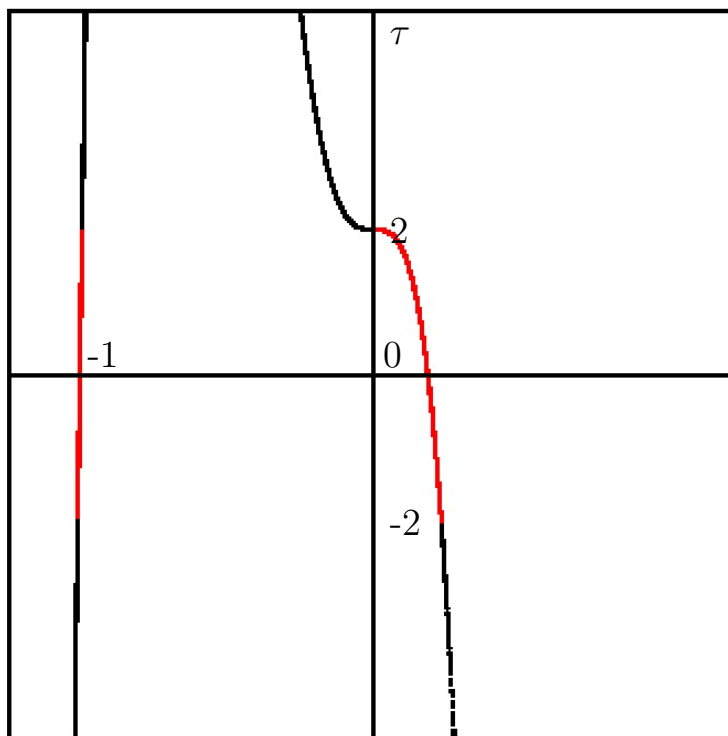


Fig.7. Graph of  $\tau(u_0)$  for real  $u_0$ .

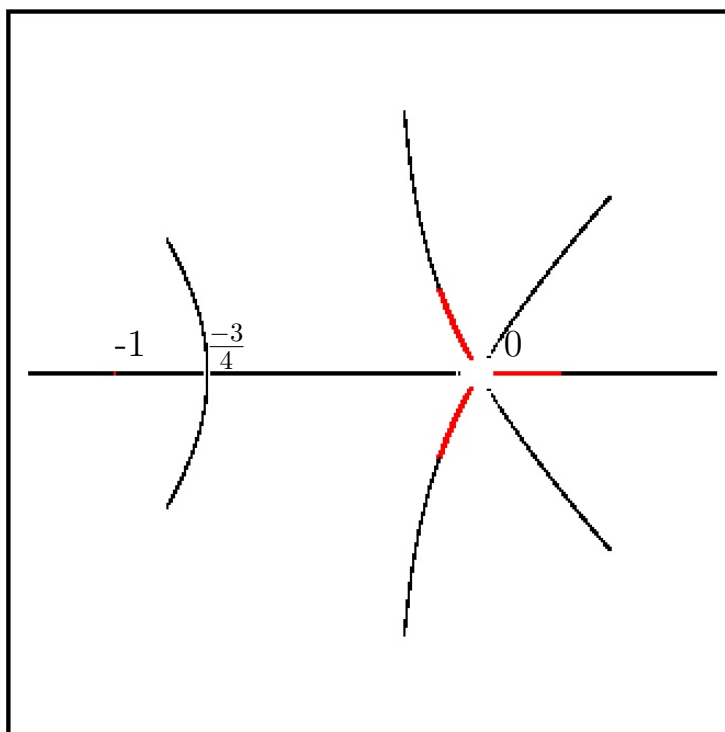


Fig.8.  $\{u_0 \mid \tau(u_0) \in [-2, 2]\}$  is drawn in red.  
Observe that a short interval near  $-1$  is in red.

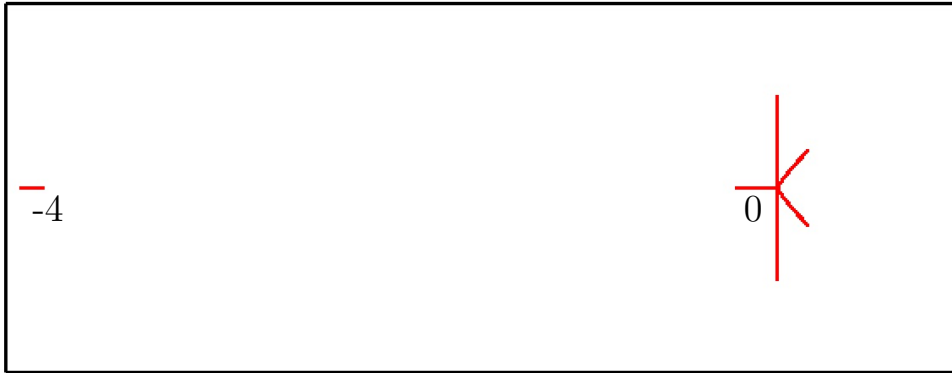


Fig.9.  $\{\alpha(\varepsilon) \mid \tau(\varepsilon) \in [-2, 2]\}$  is drawn in red.

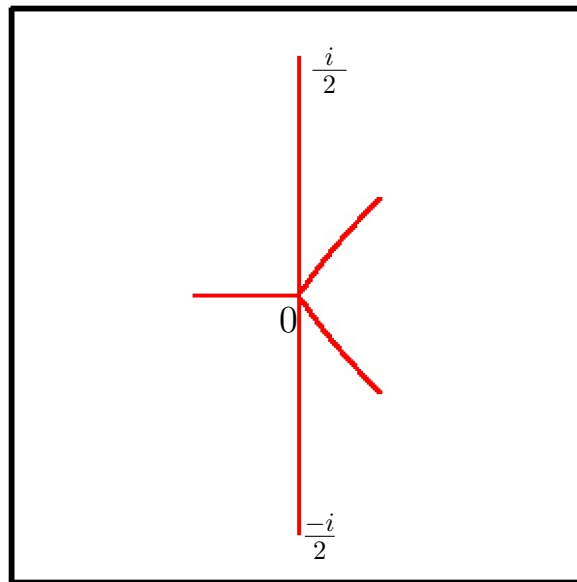


Fig.10. Enlargement of fig.6.

The bifurcation diagram for real parameter  $\alpha$  and real 4-cycles is plotted in Fig.11.



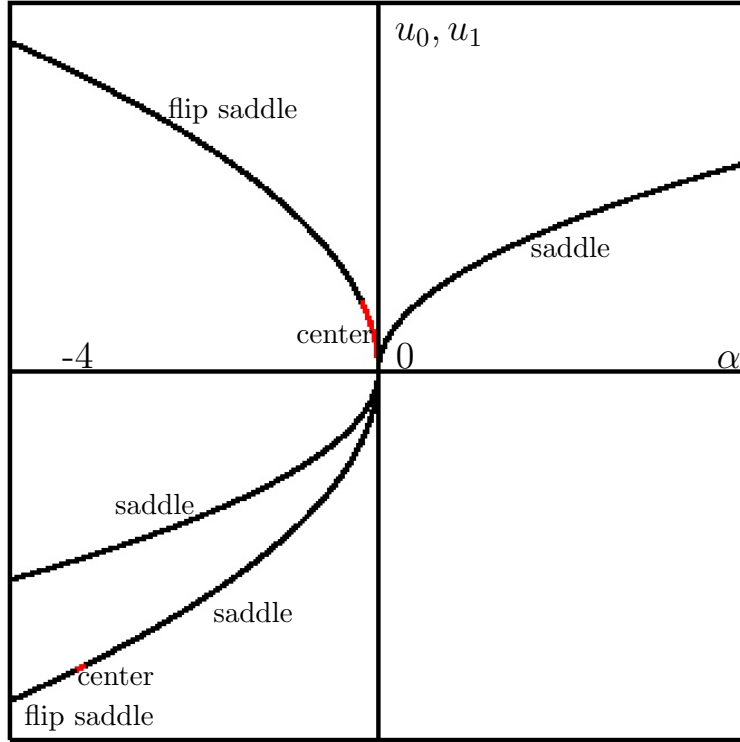


Fig.11. Bifurcation diagram of real 4-cycles for real  $\alpha$ .

#### 4. Parabolic bifurcation of order 5

In this section, we consider the case where the eigenvalue of the fixed point is a primary fifth root of unity. Let  $\Omega = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{5}}$  or  $\Omega = e^{\frac{4\pi i}{5}}$  denote a primary fifth root of unity. And suppose eigenvalues at the fixed point  $P_*$  are  $\Omega$  and  $\bar{\Omega}$ . In the following, we treat two cases with same notations.

We set  $\omega_1 = \Omega + \bar{\Omega} = \frac{\pm\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$ ,  $\omega_2 = \Omega^2 + \bar{\Omega}^2 = \frac{\pm\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$ , with  $\omega_1\omega_2 < 0$ . then,

$$y_* = \frac{\Omega + \bar{\Omega}}{2}, \quad \alpha_0 = 2y_* - y_*^2 = \frac{-7 \pm \sqrt{5}}{8}.$$

**THEOREM A** A pair of cycles of period 5 bifurcates from the fixed point  $P_*$  for  $\alpha < \alpha_0$  near  $\alpha_0$ . One of the cycles is saddle type and the other is center type.

Let  $\gamma = \omega_2 - \omega_1 = \mp\sqrt{5}$  and

$$\rho_1(n) = \begin{cases} 2 & (n \equiv 0, \text{ mod } 5) \\ \omega_1 & (n \equiv 1 \text{ or } 4) \\ \omega_2 & (n \equiv 2 \text{ or } 3) \end{cases}, \quad \rho_2(n) = \begin{cases} 2 & (n \equiv 0, \text{ mod } 5) \\ \omega_2 & (n \equiv 1 \text{ or } 4) \\ \omega_1 & (n \equiv 2 \text{ or } 3) \end{cases}.$$

**THEOREM B**     There exists a function

$$\alpha(\varepsilon) = \alpha_0 + \gamma\omega_1\varepsilon^2 + \gamma\varepsilon^3 + \dots$$

and a family of periodic sequences

$$y_n = y_* - \frac{\gamma}{5}\varepsilon^2 + \rho_1(n)(\varepsilon - \frac{\gamma}{4}\varepsilon^2 + \dots) + \rho_2(n)(\frac{\gamma}{5}\varepsilon^2 - \frac{1}{10}\varepsilon^3 + \dots)$$

holomorphic in  $\varepsilon$  near  $0 \in \mathbb{C}$ , such that for each  $\varepsilon$ ,  $H_{\alpha(\varepsilon)}$  has a cycle  $\{P_n = (y_n, y_{n+1})\}$  of period 5.

**THEOREM C**     The trace function of the cycle

$$\tau(\varepsilon) = \text{trace } DH_{\alpha(\varepsilon)}^{\circ 5} \Big|_{(y_0, y_1)}$$

is real analytic in  $\varepsilon$  and not constant near  $\varepsilon = 0$ , with  $\tau(0) = 2$ .

## 5. Discrete Fourier expansion and the principal part of the solution

Apply the discrete Fourier expansion method

$$y_n = u_0 + \Omega^n u_1 + \Omega^{2n} u_2 + \bar{\Omega}^{2n} u_3 + \bar{\Omega}^n u_4,$$

to the periodic sequence  $\{y_n\}$  satisfying  $y_{n+1} + y_{n-1} = y_n^2 + \alpha$ . We get a system of equations:

$$(F_0) \quad 2u_0 = u_0^2 + 2u_1 u_4 + 2u_2 u_3 + \alpha,$$

$$(F_1) \quad \omega_1 u_1 = 2u_0 u_1 + u_3^2 + 2u_2 u_4,$$

$$(F_2) \quad \omega_2 u_2 = 2u_0 u_2 + u_1^2 + 2u_3 u_4,$$

$$(F_3) \quad \omega_2 u_3 = 2u_0 u_3 + u_4^2 + 2u_1 u_2,$$

$$(F_4) \quad \omega_1 u_4 = 2u_0 u_4 + u_2^2 + 2u_1 u_3.$$

Here,  $\alpha$  appears only in the first equation ( $F_0$ ). Let  $\delta$  denote a constant, which will be determined as  $\delta = \frac{2}{\gamma}$  later, and let

$$u_0 = y_* - \frac{\delta}{2}\varepsilon^2 = \frac{\omega_1}{2} - \frac{\delta}{2}\varepsilon^2.$$

Replace  $u_0$  in equations  $(F_1), \dots, (F_4)$  to obtain a system of algebraic equations parametrized by  $\varepsilon$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (F_{\varepsilon,1}) \quad \delta\varepsilon^2 u_1 &= u_3^2 + 2u_2 u_4, \\ (F_{\varepsilon,2}) \quad (\gamma + \delta\varepsilon^2)u_2 &= u_1^2 + 2u_3 u_4, \\ (F_{\varepsilon,3}) \quad (\gamma + \delta\varepsilon^2)u_3 &= u_4^2 + 2u_1 u_2, \\ (F_{\varepsilon,4}) \quad \delta\varepsilon^2 u_4 &= u_2^2 + 2u_1 u_3. \end{aligned}$$

The difference of the both sides defines a polynomial mapping:

$$F_\varepsilon : \mathbb{C}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^4, \quad F_\varepsilon(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}, \quad \mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3, u_4).$$

Clearly,  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$  is always a solution. The solutions of our system of algebraic equations  $F_\varepsilon(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$  are defined as an algebraic set. So, the solving process is essentially a resolution of singularities.

By weighted scaling of variables:

$$u_1 = \varepsilon v_1, \quad u_2 = \varepsilon^2 v_2, \quad u_3 = \varepsilon^2 v_3, \quad u_4 = \varepsilon v_4,$$

and weighted scaling of equations, assuming  $\varepsilon \neq 0$ , we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} (G_{\varepsilon,1}) \quad \delta v_1 &= 2v_2 v_4 + \varepsilon v_3^2, \\ (G_{\varepsilon,2}) \quad (\gamma + \delta\varepsilon^2)v_2 &= v_1^2 + 2\varepsilon v_3 v_4, \\ (G_{\varepsilon,3}) \quad (\gamma + \delta\varepsilon^2)v_3 &= v_4^2 + 2\varepsilon v_1 v_2, \\ (G_{\varepsilon,4}) \quad \delta v_4 &= 2v_1 v_3 + \varepsilon v_2^2. \end{aligned}$$

These define an equation  $G_\varepsilon(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$ , with  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}(\varepsilon) = (v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4)$ . Let  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{v}(0)$ . Then  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4)$  is a solution of  $(G_0)$ :

$$\delta a_1 = 2a_2 a_4, \quad \gamma a_2 = a_1^2, \quad \gamma a_3 = a_4^2, \quad \delta a_4 = 2a_1 a_3.$$

Now, determine the constant  $\delta = \frac{2}{\gamma}$ , as noticed above, to obtain non-trivial solutions in a simple form. Suppose  $a_1 \neq 0$ . then we have

$$a_2 = \frac{a_1^2}{\gamma}, \quad a_3 = \frac{a_1^{-2}}{\gamma}, \quad a_4 = a_1^{-1}.$$

Here,  $\mathbf{a}$  is not uniquely determined. In the next section, we see  $a_1$  must satisfy another condition to have a nontrivial family of solutions  $\mathbf{v}(\varepsilon)$ .

## 6. Second jet

In the previous section,  $\mathbf{a}$  was not uniquely determined. Let  $a_1 = \sigma$ , and  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}(\sigma) = (\sigma, \frac{\sigma^2}{\gamma}, \frac{\sigma^{-2}}{\gamma}, \sigma^{-1})$ . Then  $G_0(\mathbf{a}(\sigma)) = 0$  holds for  $\sigma \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ .

Let  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{a} + \varepsilon \mathbf{w}$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4)$ ,  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4)$ ,  $v_i = a_i + \varepsilon w_i$ , and rewrite the equation  $(G_\varepsilon)$ .

$$(M_{\varepsilon,1}) \quad \frac{2}{\gamma} w_1 = \frac{\sigma^{-4}}{\gamma^2} + \frac{2\sigma^2}{\gamma} w_4 + 2\sigma^{-1} w_2 + \varepsilon \left( \frac{2\sigma^{-2}}{\gamma} w_3 + 2w_2 w_4 \right) + \varepsilon^2 w_3^2,$$

$$(M_{\varepsilon,2}) \quad \gamma w_2 + \varepsilon \left( \frac{2\sigma^2}{\gamma^2} + \frac{2\varepsilon}{\gamma} w_2 \right) = 2\sigma w_1 + \frac{2\sigma^{-3}}{\gamma} \\ + \varepsilon \left( w_1^2 + \frac{2\sigma^{-2}}{\gamma} w_4 + 2\sigma^{-1} w_3 \right) + 2\varepsilon^2 w_3 w_4,$$

$$(M_{\varepsilon,3}) \quad \gamma w_3 + \varepsilon \left( \frac{2\sigma^{-2}}{\gamma^2} + \frac{2\varepsilon}{\gamma} w_3 \right) = 2\sigma^{-1} w_4 + \frac{2\sigma^3}{\gamma} \\ + \varepsilon \left( w_4^2 + \frac{2\sigma^2}{\gamma} w_1 + 2\sigma w_2 \right) + 2\varepsilon^2 w_1 w_2,$$

$$(M_{\varepsilon,4}) \quad \frac{2}{\gamma} w_4 = \frac{\sigma^4}{\gamma^2} + \frac{2\sigma^{-2}}{\gamma} w_1 + 2\sigma w_3 + \varepsilon \left( \frac{2\sigma^2}{\gamma} w_2 + 2w_1 w_3 \right) + \varepsilon^2 w_2^2.$$

Here,  $\mathbf{w}$  is supposed to be an analytic function of  $\varepsilon$ , and let  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{b} + O(\varepsilon)$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4)$ , with  $w_i = b_i + O(\varepsilon)$ . The principal part of  $(M_\varepsilon)$  is obtained by letting  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ .

$$(M_{0,1}) \quad \frac{2}{\gamma} b_1 = \frac{\sigma^{-4}}{\gamma^2} + \frac{2\sigma^2}{\gamma} b_4 + 2\sigma^{-1} b_2,$$

$$(M_{0,2}) \quad \gamma b_2 = 2\sigma b_1 + \frac{2\sigma^{-3}}{\gamma},$$

$$(M_{0,3}) \quad \gamma b_3 = 2\sigma^{-1} b_4 + \frac{2\sigma^3}{\gamma},$$

$$(M_{0,4}) \quad \frac{2}{\gamma} b_4 = \frac{\sigma^4}{\gamma^2} + \frac{2\sigma^{-2}}{\gamma} b_1 + 2\sigma b_3.$$

Rewrite this system of equations as follows.

$$\begin{pmatrix} -\frac{2}{\gamma} & 2\sigma^{-1} & 0 & \frac{2\sigma^2}{\gamma} \\ 2\sigma & -\gamma & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\gamma & 2\sigma^{-1} \\ \frac{2\sigma^{-2}}{\gamma} & 0 & 2\sigma & -\frac{2}{\gamma} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{\sigma^{-4}}{\gamma^2} \\ -\frac{2\sigma^{-3}}{\gamma} \\ -\frac{2\sigma^3}{\gamma} \\ -\frac{\sigma^4}{\gamma^2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Here, the rank the coefficient matrix is 3. So, to have a non-trivial solution of  $\mathbf{b}$ , it is necessary that the rank of the extended matrix is 3, too. This condition gives  $\sigma^5 - \sigma^{-5} = 0$ . Note that  $\mathbf{b}$  is not uniquely determined here.

PROPOSITION. Without loss of generalities, we can choose  $\sigma = 1$ . Other choices of  $\sigma$  give the same family of cycles.

PROOF. As replacing  $a_1$  by  $\Omega^k a_1$  changes the initial point of the periodic orbit, we only need to examine the cases  $\sigma = \pm 1$ . Observe the equation  $(M_\varepsilon)$  carefully. The equation has a kind of symmetry.

Let  $\sigma' = -\sigma$ ,  $\varepsilon' = -\varepsilon$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} w'_1(\varepsilon') &= w_1(-\varepsilon'), & w'_2(\varepsilon') &= -w_2(-\varepsilon'), \\ w'_3(\varepsilon') &= -w_3(-\varepsilon'), & w'_4(\varepsilon') &= w_4(-\varepsilon'). \end{aligned}$$

Then if

$$\begin{aligned} u_0 &= y_* - \frac{1}{\gamma}\varepsilon^2, & u_1 &= \varepsilon\sigma + \varepsilon^2 w_1(\varepsilon), & u_2 &= \frac{1}{\gamma}\varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon^3 w_2(\varepsilon), \\ u_3 &= \frac{1}{\gamma}\varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon^3 w_3(\varepsilon), & u_4 &= \varepsilon\sigma + \varepsilon^2 w_4(\varepsilon) \end{aligned}$$

is a solution of  $(M_\varepsilon^\sigma)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} u_0 &= y_* - \frac{1}{\gamma}(\varepsilon')^2, & u_1 &= \varepsilon'\sigma' + (\varepsilon')^2 w'_1(\varepsilon'), & u_2 &= \frac{1}{\gamma}(\varepsilon')^2 + (\varepsilon')^3 w'_2(\varepsilon'), \\ u_3 &= \frac{1}{\gamma}(\varepsilon')^2 + (\varepsilon')^3 w'_3(\varepsilon'), & u_4 &= \varepsilon'\sigma' + (\varepsilon')^2 w'_4(\varepsilon') \end{aligned}$$

is a solution of  $(M_{\varepsilon'}^{\sigma'})$ . Equations  $(M_\varepsilon^\sigma)$  and  $(M_{\varepsilon'}^{\sigma'})$  are equivalent.

In the following, we treat only the case of  $\sigma = 1$ .

## 7. Further change of variables and rescaling of equations

From equations  $(M_{\varepsilon,1}), \dots, (M_{\varepsilon,4})$ , we obtain, by setting  $\sigma = 1$ , and putting all terms on the righthand side,

$$(M'_1) \quad 0 = \frac{1}{\gamma^2} - \frac{2}{\gamma}w_1 + 2w_2 + \frac{2}{\gamma}w_4 + \varepsilon\left(\frac{2}{\gamma}w_3 + 2w_2w_4\right) + \varepsilon^2w_3^2,$$

$$(M'_2) \quad 0 = \frac{2}{\gamma} + 2w_1 - \gamma w_2 + \varepsilon\left(-\frac{2}{\gamma^2} + w_1^2 + 2w_3 + \frac{2}{\gamma}w_4\right) \\ + \varepsilon^2\left(-\frac{2}{\gamma}w_2 + 2w_3w_4\right),$$

$$(M'_3) \quad 0 = \frac{2}{\gamma} - \gamma w_3 + 2w_4 + \varepsilon\left(-\frac{2}{\gamma^2} + \frac{2}{\gamma}w_1 + 2w_2 + w_4^2\right) \\ + \varepsilon^2\left(-\frac{2}{\gamma}w_3 + 2w_1w_2\right),$$

$$(M'_4) \quad 0 = \frac{1}{\gamma^2} + \frac{2}{\gamma}w_1 + 2w_3 - \frac{2}{\gamma}w_4 + \varepsilon\left(\frac{2}{\gamma}w_2 + 2w_1w_3\right) + \varepsilon^2w_2^2.$$

Observe the symmetry of the equations with respect to the variables. By change of variables:

$$p = w_1 + w_4, \quad q = w_2 + w_3, \quad r = w_2 - w_3, \quad s = w_1 - w_4,$$

and change of equations:

$$(P) = (M'_1) + (M'_4), \quad (Q) = (M'_2) + (M'_3),$$

$$(R) = (M'_2) - (M'_3), \quad (S) = (M'_1) - (M'_4),$$

we obtain the following system of equations. (Terms as  $O(\varepsilon)$  will be computed later.)

$$(P) \quad \frac{2}{\gamma^2} + 2q + O(\varepsilon) = 0,$$

$$(Q) \quad \frac{4}{\gamma} + 2p - \gamma q + O(\varepsilon) = 0,$$

$$(R) \quad 2s - \gamma r + \varepsilon(ps - 2r - \frac{2}{\gamma}s) + O(\varepsilon^2) = 0,$$

$$(S) \quad -\frac{4}{\gamma}s + 2r + \varepsilon(-\frac{2}{\gamma}r + pr - qs) + O(\varepsilon^2) = 0.$$

Now, let  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , to have:

$$\frac{2}{\gamma^2} + 2q_0 = 0, \quad \frac{4}{\gamma} + 2p_0 - \gamma q_0 = 0, \quad 2s_0 - \gamma r_0 = 0, \quad -\frac{4}{\gamma}s_0 + 2r_0 = 0.$$

The last two equations are equivalent. We have:

$$q_0 = -\frac{1}{\gamma^2}, \quad p_0 = -\frac{5}{2\gamma}, \quad \text{and} \quad 2s_0 - \gamma r_0 = 0.$$

Here,  $s_0$  and  $r_0$  are not uniquely determined. Remember that  $b_1, \dots, b_4$  were not uniquely determined.

$$p_0 = b_1 + b_4, \quad q_0 = b_2 + b_3, \quad r_0 = b_2 - b_3, \quad s_0 = b_1 - b_4.$$

In order to extract further information from the equation, eliminate the constant terms from  $(R)$  and  $(S)$ , by a new equation  $(U) = (2(R) + \gamma(S))/\varepsilon$ , to get:

$$(U) \quad (\gamma p - 6)r + (2p - \gamma q - \frac{4}{\gamma})s + O(\varepsilon) = 0.$$

We supposed that our equations holds for all  $\varepsilon$  near 0. So we assume, by letting  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$(\gamma p_0 - 6)r_0 + (2p_0 - \gamma q_0 - \frac{4}{\gamma})s_0 = 0$$

holds. This turns out to:

$$-\frac{17}{2}r_0 - \frac{8}{\gamma}s_0 = 0.$$

Hence together with  $2s_0 - \gamma r_0 = 0$ , we determine  $r_0 = s_0 = 0$ .

## 8. Analytic family of cycles of period 5

Now, we have a system of algebraic equations  $\{(P), (Q), (R), (U)\}$ , in variables  $(p, q, r, s)$ , analytically parametrized by  $\varepsilon$ . This system of algebraic equations has a solution  $(p_0, q_0, r_0, s_0) = (-\frac{5}{2\gamma}, -\frac{1}{\gamma}, 0, 0)$  for  $\varepsilon = 0$ .

In order to apply the implicit function theorem to have solutions for small  $\varepsilon$ , we compute the Jacobian at the solution.

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -\gamma & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\gamma & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{17}{2} & -\frac{8}{\gamma} \end{pmatrix} = -100 \neq 0.$$

By the implicit function theorem, our system has a family of solutions. We have the following proposition.

**PROPOSITION** System of equations  $\{(P), (Q), (R), (S)\}$  has a family of solutions  $(p(\varepsilon), q(\varepsilon), r(\varepsilon), s(\varepsilon))$ , analytic near  $\varepsilon = 0$ , satisfying  $p(0) = p_0$ ,  $q(0) = q_0$ , and  $r(\varepsilon) \equiv 0$ ,  $s(\varepsilon) \equiv 0$ .

**PROOF** System of equations  $\{(P), (Q), (R), (S)\}$  is equivalent to the system of equations  $\{(P), (Q), (R), (U)\}$ , which has the solution. System of equations  $\{(P), (Q), (R), (U)\}$  has a solution  $(p(\varepsilon), q(\varepsilon), r(\varepsilon), s(\varepsilon))$ , analytic near  $\varepsilon = 0$ , satisfying  $p(0) = p_0$ ,  $q(0) = q_0$ ,  $r(0) = 0$ ,  $s(0) = 0$ . The terms  $O(\varepsilon^2)$  in equations  $(R)$  and  $(S)$  are computed as follows.

$$-\varepsilon^2(pr + qs + \frac{1}{\gamma}r), \quad -\varepsilon^2(qr).$$

Hence,  $(R)$  and  $(S)$  always hold if  $r = s = 0$ .

By assuming  $r = s = 0$ , we see our system of equations reduces to the following system of equation in  $p$  and  $q$  only.

$$(P_0) \quad \frac{2}{\gamma^2} + 2q + \varepsilon(\frac{2}{\gamma}q + pq) + \varepsilon^2\frac{q^2}{2} = 0,$$

$$(Q_0) \quad \frac{4}{\gamma} + 2p - \gamma q + \varepsilon(\frac{1}{2}p^2 + \frac{2}{\gamma}p + 2q - \frac{4}{\gamma^2}) + \varepsilon^2(pq - \frac{1}{\gamma}q) = 0,$$

which has a family of solutions  $p(\varepsilon)$  and  $q(\varepsilon)$ , near  $\varepsilon = 0$ , satisfying  $p(0) = p_0$  and  $q(0) = q_0$ .

By the uniqueness of the solutions given by the implicit function theorem, these solutions are the same.



## 9. Proof of theorem B

As stated in the above, our system of equations has a family of solutions parametrized by  $\varepsilon$ . Obviously, our solutions give the followings.

$$a_1 = a_4 = 1, \quad a_2 = a_3 = \frac{1}{\gamma}, \quad b_1 = b_4 = -\frac{5}{4\gamma}, \quad b_2 = b_3 = -\frac{1}{2\gamma^2}.$$

$$u_0 = y_* - \frac{\varepsilon^2}{\gamma},$$

$$u_1 = u_4 = \varepsilon - \frac{5}{4\gamma}\varepsilon^2 + \dots,$$

$$u_2 = u_3 = \frac{1}{\gamma}\varepsilon^2 - \frac{1}{2\gamma^2}\varepsilon^3 + \dots.$$

Hence, we have

$$y_n = y_* - \frac{1}{\gamma}\varepsilon^2 + \rho_1(n)(\varepsilon - \frac{5}{4\gamma}\varepsilon^2 + \dots) + \rho_2(n)(\frac{1}{\gamma}\varepsilon^2 - \frac{1}{2\gamma^2}\varepsilon^3 + \dots).$$

Furthermore, from  $(F_0)$ ,

$$\alpha(\varepsilon) - \alpha_0 = (\frac{\omega_1}{\gamma} - \frac{2}{\gamma} - 2)\varepsilon^2 + \frac{5}{\gamma}\varepsilon^3 + \dots,$$

with  $\omega_1 - 2 - 2\gamma = \omega_1 - 2 - 2\omega_2 + 2\omega_1 = 5\omega_1$ , we get

$$\alpha(\varepsilon) = \alpha_0 + \frac{5}{\gamma}\omega_1\varepsilon^2 + \frac{5}{\gamma}\varepsilon^3 + \dots.$$

Note that if  $\omega_1 = \Omega + \bar{\Omega} > 0$ , then  $\gamma = \Omega^2 + \bar{\Omega}^2 - (\Omega + \bar{\Omega}) < 0$ . And if  $\Omega + \bar{\Omega} < 0$ , then  $\gamma > 0$ . So,  $\frac{5}{\gamma}\omega_1 < 0$ . These prove Theorem B.

## 10. Proof of Theorem C

The system of equations  $\{(P_0), (Q_0)\}$ , with conditions  $p(0) = p_0$  and  $q(0) = q_0$ , can be regarded as a real analytic family of systems of real analytic equations. So, for sufficiently small real values of  $\varepsilon$ ,  $p(\varepsilon)$  and  $q(\varepsilon)$  are real. With real values of  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , the corresponding parameter  $\alpha(\varepsilon)$  and periodic points are real and real analytic with respect to  $\varepsilon$ , near  $\varepsilon = 0$ .

The trace of the Jacobian matrix along the cycle is also real analytic in  $\varepsilon$  and takes real values. It is also holomorphic in  $\varepsilon$ , considered as a

complex variable, near  $\varepsilon = 0$ . As  $\alpha(0) = \alpha_0$ , and the eigenvalues of the fixed point  $P_*$  are  $\Omega$  and  $\bar{\Omega}$ , we see that  $\tau(0) = 2$ . On the other hand, the coordinates of the periodic cycle is algebraic with respect to complex parameter  $\alpha$ . For sufficiently large value of  $\alpha$ , the periodic cycle become hyperbolic, *i.e.*, the absolute value of the analytic continuation of the trace function is larger than 2. Therefore, the trace function is not constant as an algebraic function of  $\alpha$ . Hence  $\tau(\varepsilon)$  is not constant near  $\varepsilon = 0$ .

## 11. Proof of Theorem A

As is shown in the proof of Theorem B,  $\frac{\omega_1}{\gamma} < 0$  holds in both cases of  $\Omega$ . Parameter  $\alpha$  is related to  $\varepsilon$  by a real analytic function

$$\alpha(\varepsilon) = \alpha_0 + \frac{5}{\gamma}\omega_1\varepsilon^2 + \frac{5}{\gamma}\varepsilon^3 + \cdots.$$

If  $\alpha < \alpha_0$  and  $\alpha$  is sufficiently near  $\alpha_0$ , there exist real values  $\varepsilon_-$  and  $\varepsilon_+$  near  $\varepsilon = 0$ , such that

$$\alpha = \alpha(\varepsilon_-) = \alpha(\varepsilon_+), \quad \varepsilon_- < 0 < \varepsilon_+,$$

with

$$\tau(\varepsilon_-) \neq 2, \quad \tau(\varepsilon_+) \neq 2.$$

If  $\alpha > \alpha_0$  and sufficiently near  $\alpha_0$ , then  $\alpha = \alpha(\varepsilon)$  has no solutions near  $\varepsilon = 0$ .

Index of a fixed point  $P \in \mathbb{R}^2$  of mapping  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is defined as follows. Let  $U$  denote a small neighborhood of the fixed point. Define a mapping  $\varphi : U \setminus \{P\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{O\}$  by  $\varphi(X) = f(X) - X$ . By an appropriate choice of the neighborhood  $U$ , the induced homomorphism,  $\varphi_* : \pi_1(U \setminus \{P\}) \rightarrow \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{O\})$ , of the fundamental groups defines an integer. This integer is called the local index of fixed point  $P$ .

By Poincaré's index theorem, the sum of the local indices of the fixed points is invariant under continuous perturbations of the mapping  $f$ . In the case of area preserving diffeomorphism, the local index of a saddle is  $-1$ , and the local index of a center is  $+1$ . So, the created two cycles cannot be the same type. This proves Theorem A.