

Undergraduate Thesis

MAJOR IN MATHEMATICS

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Isochrons (and applications to Neuroscience)

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Many biological systems exhibit a periodic behaviour. From a mathematical point of view they can be considered as systems moving along a stable limit cycle, that can be parametrised by its phase. The phase can be extended to the whole basin of attraction of the limit cycle via the asymptotic phase and the set of all points having the same asymptotic phase is called isochron. Isochrons were introduced in 1974 by Winfree [5] in order to understand the behaviour of an oscillatory system under a brief stimulus, namely, the phase advance or delay that the system would experience when sent away from the periodic orbit. This helps understanding, for example, the synchronisation in neural nets. Soon after Winfree's paper, Guckenheimer [6] showed that isochrones are in fact the leaves of the stable foliation of the stable manifold of a periodic orbit. Different techniques have been developed to compute the isochrons [1, 8].

An important part of this undergraduate thesis consists on understanding the mathematical concept underlying the idea of isochron. In chapter 2 a definition is given and we describe some properties of isochrons with the objective of being able to find an approximation to first order. We also formulate a functional equation for the parametrisation of the invariant cycle and the tangent vector to the isochrons and we show how it can be solved using a quasi-Newton method. Our arguments are based in [1], where the parametrisation of the whole isochron is found. With some transformations we can simplify our equations and easily solve them. We end the chapter by giving some hints on how to proof the convergence of the method using KAM arguments [2]. In chapter 3 we describe briefly a simplified version of the well-known Hodgkin-Huxley model for the neuron and try to get some insight on what isochrons can tell us about this model.

Another important part of this thesis has been writing a program in language C to implement the algorithm described in chapter 2 in order to be able to apply it to the reduced Hodgkin-Huxley model. The program is described in chapter 4 and the source code is appended. In chapter 5 the results obtained with the program are discussed.

Chapter 2

Mathematical analysis

Consider a differential equation in the plane

$$\dot{x} = X(x), \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}^2, \tag{2.1}$$

where X is analytic. Let $\varphi(t, x_0)$ be the associated flow, i.e.:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d}{dt}\varphi(t,x_0) = X(\varphi(t,x_0)),\\ \varphi(0,x_0) = x_0. \end{cases}$$
(2.2)

We assume that X admits a stable hyperbolic limit cycle \mathcal{K} . Recall that a limit cycle is an isolated periodic orbit, i.e., a periodic orbit which is the ω -limit or α -limit set of a certain neighbourhood Ω around it. Furthermore, if the limit cycle is stable, it is the ω -limit of Ω , which is called the basin of attraction.

Our first goal is to find a parametrisation for \mathcal{K} , i.e. to find $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and some 1-periodic map:

$$K \colon \mathbb{T} = \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{R}^2$$
$$\theta \mapsto K(\theta) \tag{2.3}$$

such that $\varphi(t, K(\theta)) = K(\theta + \omega t)$ and $K(\mathbb{T}) = \mathcal{K}$. Clearly if $T = 1/\omega$ is the period of the limit cycle $\varphi(T, K(\theta)) = K(\theta + \omega T) = K(\theta + 1) = K(\theta)$.

Proposition 2.1. The map $K: \mathbb{T} \to \mathbb{R}^2$ and the number ω satisfy the following functional equation on K and ω :

$$X(K(\theta)) - K'(\theta)\omega = 0$$
(2.4)

Proof. It suffices to insert $\varphi(t, K(\theta)) = K(\theta + \omega t)$ into equation (2.2).

Note that the solution of (2.4) is not unique. If (K, ω) is a solution of that equation, so is (\tilde{K}, ω) , with $\tilde{K}(\theta) = K(\theta + \theta_0)$, for any $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{T}$. This phase shift, which allows us to place the phase origin wherever we want in the orbit, is the only source of non-uniqueness for (2.4).

So far \mathcal{K} has been parametrised in such a way that to each point of \mathcal{K} a phase $\theta \in \mathbb{T}$ has been assigned. As \mathcal{K} is a stable limit cycle we have that for each $x \in \Omega$

$$d(\varphi(t,x),\mathcal{K}) \xrightarrow{t \to \infty} 0. \tag{2.5}$$

It is quite natural to wonder what point $K(\theta) \in \mathcal{K}$ evolves under the flow $\varphi(t, \cdot)$ in such a way that

$$d(\varphi(t,x),\varphi(t,K(\theta))) = d(\varphi(t,x),K(\theta+\omega t)) \xrightarrow{t\to\infty} 0.$$
(2.6)

As pointed out in [6] it is possible to find a unique $\Theta \colon \Omega \to \mathbb{T}$ such that

$$d(\varphi(t,x), K(\Theta(x) + \omega t)) \xrightarrow{t \to \infty} 0, \qquad (2.7)$$

Observe that Θ allows to extend the concept of phase out of the periodic orbit.

Definition 1. We say that a point $x \in \Omega$ is in asymptotic phase with a point $K(\theta) \in \mathcal{K}$ if the following holds

$$d(\varphi(t,x), K(\theta + \omega t)) \xrightarrow{t \to \infty} 0, \qquad (2.8)$$

i.e., if $\Theta(x) = \theta$. In this case we say that x has asymptotic phase θ .

Definition 2. The set of points having the same asymptotic phase is called isochron:

$$S_{\theta} = \{ x \in \Omega \colon \Theta(x) = \theta \}.$$
(2.9)

Note that in the case that \mathcal{K} is unstable it suffices to reverse time in order to adapt the definitions given here. Note also that our definitions are also valid in the case of n > 2, where the isochrons are called isochronous sections and they are manifolds of dimension n - 1.

The isochrons are the level sets of $\Theta(x)$ and they foliate the basin of attraction. In fact, soon after the isochrons were introduced by Winfree in 1974 [5], Guckenheimer showed [6] that they are the leaves of the stable manifold, that is $W^s(K(\theta))$, for each $\theta \in \mathbb{T}$. The isochrons are therefore tangent to the stable space $E^s(K(\theta))$, for each $\theta \in \mathbb{T}$. As a consequence we can obtain a linear approximation of the isochrons by finding the stable bundle of \mathcal{K} .

Proposition 2.2. For each $\theta \in \mathbb{T}$, let $v_{\theta} \in T_{K(\theta)}S_{\theta}$, the tangent space of S_{θ} in the intersection with \mathcal{K} . Then v_{θ} is an eigenvector of $D\varphi(T, K(\theta))$:

$$D\varphi(T, K(\theta))v_{\theta} = e^{\lambda T} v_{\theta}, \qquad (2.10)$$

for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{<0}$. The other eigenvector of $D\varphi(T, K(\theta))$ is $K(\theta)$ with eigenvalue 1.

Proof. The first statement is a direct consequence of the observation made just before the proposition. We should strictly write $\lambda(\theta)$, but in the next proposition we will see that the stable vectors have the same eigenvalue everywhere. The sign of λ is in agreement with \mathcal{K} being attractive. In the repulsive case we would have $\lambda > 0$.

Furthermore, it follows from the definition of isochron that v_{θ} and $K'(\theta)$ are transverse. Now consider $\varphi(T, K(\theta)) = K(\theta)$. Differentiating with respect to θ one obtains

$$D\varphi(T, K(\theta))K'(\theta) = K'(\theta), \qquad (2.11)$$

which proves the second statement.

Let N(0) be the stable vector in K(0) with

$$D\varphi(T, K(0))N(0) = e^{\lambda T}N(0).$$
 (2.12)

In the next proposition we show that the stable vectors along \mathcal{K} can be obtained by simply propagating N(0) under the differential of the flux.

Proposition 2.3. Let us define

$$N(\theta) = e^{-\lambda T \theta} D\varphi(T\theta, K(0)) N(0), \qquad \theta \in \mathbb{T}.$$
(2.13)

The following holds:

$$D\varphi(T, K(\theta))N(\theta) = e^{\lambda T}N(\theta).$$
(2.14)

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} D\varphi(T, K(\theta))N(\theta) &= e^{-\lambda T\theta} D\varphi(T, K(\theta)) D\varphi(T\theta, K(0))N(0) \\ &= e^{-\lambda T\theta} D\varphi(T, \varphi(T\theta, K(0))) D\varphi(T\theta, K(0))N(0) \\ &= e^{-\lambda T\theta} D\varphi(T + T\theta, K(0))N(0) \\ &= e^{-\lambda T\theta} D\varphi(T\theta, \varphi(T, K(0))) D\varphi(T, K(0))N(0) \\ &= e^{-\lambda T\theta} D\varphi(T\theta, K(0)) D\varphi(T, K(0))N(0) \\ &= e^{-\lambda T\theta} D\varphi(T\theta, K(0)) e^{\lambda T} N(0) \\ &= e^{\lambda T} N(\theta) \end{aligned}$$
(2.15)

Proposition 2.4. The map $N: \mathbb{T} \to \mathbb{R}^2$ and the number λ satisfy the following functional equation on N and λ :

$$DX(K(\theta))N(\theta) = \lambda N(\theta) + \omega N'(\theta).$$
(2.16)

Proof. Let us recall that by differentiating (2.2) with respect to x_0 one obtains the variational equations:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d}{dt} D\varphi(t, x_0) = DX(\varphi(t, x_0)) D\varphi(t, x_0), \\ D\varphi(0, x_0) = \mathrm{id}_2. \end{cases}$$
(2.17)

If we differentiate $N(\theta) = e^{-\lambda T \theta} D\varphi(T\theta, K(0))N(0)$ with respect to θ :

$$N'(\theta) = -\lambda T e^{-\lambda T \theta} D\varphi(T\theta, K(0))N(0) +$$

$$+ T e^{-\lambda T \theta} \frac{d}{dt} D\varphi(T\theta, K(0))N(0) =$$

$$= -\lambda T N(\theta) +$$

$$+ T e^{-\lambda T \theta} D X(\varphi(T\theta, K(0))) D\varphi(T\theta, K(0))N(0) =$$

$$= -\lambda T N(\theta) + T D X(K(\theta))N(\theta),$$
(2.18)

which yields the desired result after multiplying by ω .

Note that the solutions of (2.16) are not unique. If (N, λ) is a solution of that equation, so is (\tilde{N}, λ) , with $\tilde{N}(\theta) = bN(\theta)$, for any $b \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$. This rescaling factor is the only source of non-uniqueness for (2.16).

Let us now sum up what we have done so far. Two approaches for obtaining (K, ω) and (N, λ) have arisen. The first one consists on determining first a point in \mathcal{K} , which we will name K(0). Letting K(0) evolve under the flux one can obtain the whole limit cycle and the period T, i.e., the number such that $\varphi(T, K(0)) = K(0)$. Additionally, one can obtain N(0) and λ by solving the eigenvalue problem $D\varphi(T, K(0))N(0) = e^{\lambda T}N(0)$ and then propagate N(0) under the differential of the flux in order to obtain $N(\theta)$.

For the second approach consider the functional equations (2.4) and (2.16), which must be thought of as equations for the mappings K and N and for the real numbers ω and λ . In the rest of the chapter we will show how they can be solved by means of a Newton-like method, provided that a good initial approximation is known. In section 2.1 we will design the method to be used in an informal way. In section 2.2 we will introduce some norms and give some basic properties that will allow us to give some estimate of the errors after one Newton step is performed. The error estimates will be given in section 2.3 and we will see that they are quadratically small. In this section we will also give a sketch of the proof of the convergence of the method. The kind of reasoning that we will do is very similar to that carried out in [1], where a parametrisation of the whole isochron is found by solving a functional equation. Our arguments are also very standard in KAM theory, and we will therefore follow very closely [2], where typical KAM problems are presented. However, note that "small divisors", a central piece in KAM theory, do not appear here.

2.1 The quasi-Newton method

Our objective is to find K, ω, N and λ that satisfy the functional equations derived in the previous section, namely:

$$X(K(\theta)) - K'(\theta)\omega = 0$$

$$DX(K(\theta))N(\theta) - N'(\theta)\omega - N(\theta)\lambda = 0$$
(2.19)

Suppose, however, that we have found K, ω, N and λ which are only an approximation, so that

$$X(K(\theta)) - K'(\theta)\omega = E_K(\theta)$$

$$DX(K(\theta))N(\theta) - N'(\theta)\omega - N(\theta)\lambda = E_N(\theta)$$
(2.20)

In this section we will describe how to refine this solutions using a quasi-Newton method.

2.1.1 Substep 1: correction of (K, ω)

We could in fact improve our solution (K, ω) alone without making use of N. However it proves useful to improve K and N together as seen below.

The functional equation to solve for K and ω is

$$X(K(\theta)) - K'(\theta)\omega = 0.$$
(2.21)

Given an approximate solution (K, ω) of (2.21) such that

$$X(K(\theta)) - K'(\theta)\omega = E_K(\theta), \qquad (2.22)$$

we are looking for $(\Delta K, \delta \omega)$ such that $(K + \Delta K, \omega + \delta \omega)$ eliminates the error $E_K(\theta)$ in the linear approximation:

Retaining only linear terms in the corrections:

$$X(K(\theta) + \Delta K(\theta)) \approx X(K(\theta)) + DX(K(\theta))\Delta K(\theta), \qquad (2.23)$$

and

$$(K'(\theta) + \Delta K'(\theta))(\omega + \delta \omega) \approx K'(\theta)\omega + K'(\theta)\delta\omega + \Delta K'(\theta)\omega,$$
 (2.24)

which, when inserted in (2.21) yield

$$0 = X (K(\theta) + \Delta K(\theta)) - (K'(\theta) + \Delta K'(\theta))(\omega + \delta \omega) \approx$$

$$\approx X (K(\theta)) + DX (K(\theta))\Delta K(\theta) - K'(\theta)\omega - K'(\theta)\delta \omega - \Delta K'(\theta)\omega =$$
(2.25)

$$= E_K(\theta) + DX (K(\theta))\Delta K(\theta) - K'(\theta)\delta \omega - \Delta K'(\theta)\omega,$$

Therefore the corrections must satisfy the following equation:

$$-E_K(\theta) = DX(K(\theta))\Delta K(\theta) - K'(\theta)\delta\omega - \Delta K'(\theta)\omega.$$
(2.26)

However, we will not solve this equation directly. A change of variables along with some further approximations will allow us to simplify it. The simplified equation will be easily solved. This is what we call a quasi-Newton method.

Consider the following adapted frame¹:

$$P(\theta) = \left(L(\theta) \middle| N(\theta) \right) = \left(K'(\theta) \middle| N(\theta) \right).$$
(2.27)

We may now rewrite E_K and ΔK in this frame:

$$\Delta K(\theta) = P(\theta)\xi(\theta),$$

$$E_K(\theta) = P(\theta)\eta(\theta),$$
(2.28)

Inserting this expressions in (2.26) and multiplying by P^{-1} in order to rewrite it in the frame we obtain:

$$-\eta(\theta) = P^{-1}(\theta) DX(K(\theta)) P(\theta)\xi(\theta) - \begin{pmatrix}\delta\omega\\0\end{pmatrix} - P^{-1}(\theta) P'(\theta)\xi(\theta)\omega - \xi'(\theta)\omega, \quad (2.29)$$

which needs to be solved for ξ and $\delta\omega$.

In the first term on the right-hand side of the last equation we can do the following approximation

$$P^{-1}(\theta)DX(K(\theta))P(\theta)\xi(\theta) = P^{-1}(\theta)\left(DX(K(\theta))K'(\theta)\Big|DX(K(\theta))N(\theta)\right)\xi(\theta) =$$

$$=P^{-1}(\theta)\left(K''(\theta)\omega + E'_{K}(\theta)\Big|N'(\theta)\omega + N(\theta)\lambda\right)\xi(\theta) =$$

$$\approx P^{-1}(\theta)\left(K''(\theta)\Big|N'(\theta)\right)\xi(\theta)\omega + P^{-1}(\theta)\left(0\Big|N(\theta)\right)\xi(\theta)\lambda =$$

$$=P^{-1}(\theta)P'(\theta)\xi(\theta)\omega + P^{-1}(\theta)\left(0\Big|N(\theta)\right)\xi(\theta)\lambda =$$

$$=P^{-1}(\theta)P'(\theta)\xi(\theta)\omega + \binom{0 \ 0}{0 \ \lambda}\xi(\theta),$$
(2.30)

¹Note that any vector V satisfying $\langle K', V \rangle \neq 0$ could have been chosen for the second component and there would be no need to introduce N. However we select N since this highly simplifies our calculations. It is clear that the exact K' and N are transverse, but it may not be the case with the approximations. We assume that the non-degeneracy condition is satisfied if the initial approximation is close enough to the real solution.

where we have made use of (2.20) and assumed that, since $E'_{K}(\theta)$ is controlled by $E_{K}(\theta)$, and $\xi(\theta)$ is of the same order of smallness as $E_{K}(\theta)$, $E'_{K}(\theta)\xi(\theta)$ and $E_{N}(\theta)\xi(\theta)$ are quadratically small and can be ignored in the linear approximation.

Inserting (2.30) into (2.29) we obtain the cohomological equation

$$-\eta(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \xi(\theta) - \begin{pmatrix} \delta \omega \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \xi'(\theta)\omega.$$
 (2.31)

This equation can be readily split into two uncoupled differential equations in the L and N components and we realise that the change of variables introduced has allowed us to reduce the initial equation to a much simpler one up to quadratically small terms,

$$\begin{cases} \eta^{L}(\theta) = \omega \partial_{\theta} \xi^{L}(\theta) + \delta \omega, \\ \eta^{N}(\theta) = \omega \partial_{\theta} \xi^{N}(\theta) - \lambda \xi^{N}(\theta), \end{cases}$$
(2.32)

that can be solved by considering Fourier series expansions for $\xi^{L}(\theta)$, $\xi^{N}(\theta)$, $\eta^{L}(\theta)$ and $\eta^{N}(\theta)$:

For the first equation we have:

$$\sum_{k\in\mathbb{Z}}\eta_k^L e^{2\pi i k\theta} = \delta\omega + \sum_{k\in\mathbb{Z}} 2\pi i k\omega \xi_k^L e^{2\pi i k\theta},$$
(2.33)

which yields the following solution

$$\delta\omega = \eta_0^L, \qquad \xi_k^L = \frac{\eta_k^L}{2\pi i k \omega}, \quad \text{for } k \neq 0.$$
(2.34)

Observe that there is a free parameter, namely,

$$\xi_0^L = \langle \xi^L \rangle = \int_0^1 \xi^L(\theta) \, \mathrm{d}\theta.$$
 (2.35)

This parameter can be adjusted at each step so that there is no shift in the initial parametrisation phase, so that $\Delta K(0) = 0$, or we can take it to be zero at each step and adjust it at the end if needed.

The second equation

$$\sum_{k\in\mathbb{Z}}\eta_k^N e^{2\pi i k\theta} = \sum_{k\in\mathbb{Z}} (2\pi i k\omega - \lambda)\xi_k^N e^{2\pi i k\theta},$$
(2.36)

has the following solution

$$\xi_k^N = \frac{\eta_k^N}{2\pi i k \omega - \lambda}.$$
(2.37)

2.1.2 Substep 2: correction of (N, λ)

Once (K, ω) has been improved to $(\tilde{K}, \tilde{\omega}) = (K + \Delta K, \omega + \delta \omega)$, a similar reasoning can be made to refine (N, λ) . We start the correction by redefining the errors at the mid-step:

$$X(\tilde{K}(\theta)) - \tilde{K}'(\theta)\tilde{\omega} = \tilde{E}_K(\theta)$$
(2.38)

$$DX(\tilde{K}(\theta))N(\theta) - N'(\theta)\tilde{\omega} - N(\theta)\lambda = \tilde{E}_N(\theta)$$
(2.39)

We proceed as before introducing the corrected solution $(N + \Delta N, \lambda + \delta \lambda)$ in the equation for N and λ ,

$$DX(\tilde{K}(\theta))N(\theta) - N'(\theta)\tilde{\omega} - N(\theta)\lambda = 0, \qquad (2.40)$$

and retaining only linear terms in the corrections:

$$DX(\tilde{K}(\theta))(N(\theta) + \Delta N(\theta)) = DX(\tilde{K}(\theta))N(\theta) + DX(\tilde{K}(\theta))\Delta N(\theta),$$

$$(N'(\theta) + \Delta N'(\theta))\tilde{\omega} = N'(\theta)\tilde{\omega} + \Delta N'(\theta)\tilde{\omega},$$

$$(N(\theta) + \Delta N(\theta))(\lambda + \delta\lambda) \approx N(\theta)\lambda + N(\theta)\delta\lambda + \Delta N(\theta)\lambda,$$

(2.41)

which yields:

$$-\tilde{E}_N(\theta) = DX(\tilde{K}(\theta))\Delta N(\theta) - N(\theta)\delta\lambda - \Delta N'(\theta)\tilde{\omega} - \Delta N(\theta)\lambda.$$
(2.42)

We can now rewrite E_N and ΔN in the frame $\tilde{P}(\theta) = \left(\tilde{L}(\theta) \middle| N(\theta)\right) = \left(\tilde{K}'(\theta) \middle| N(\theta)\right)$:

$$\Delta N(\theta) = \tilde{P}(\theta)\nu(\theta),$$

$$\tilde{E}_N(\theta) = \tilde{P}(\theta)\zeta(\theta),$$
(2.43)

Inserting this expressions in (2.42) and multiplying by \tilde{P}^{-1} in order to rewrite it in the frame we obtain:

$$-\zeta(\theta) = \tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta) DX \big(\tilde{K}(\theta) \big) \tilde{P}(\theta) \nu(\theta) - \begin{pmatrix} 0\\\delta\lambda \end{pmatrix} - \tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta) \tilde{P}'(\theta) \nu(\theta) \tilde{\omega} - \nu'(\theta) \tilde{\omega} - \nu(\theta)\lambda,$$
(2.44)

which needs to be solved for ν and $\delta\lambda$.

As before some further approximations can be made:

$$\tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta)DX(\tilde{K}(\theta))\tilde{P}(\theta)\nu(\theta) = \tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta)\left(DX(\tilde{K}(\theta))\tilde{K}'(\theta)\Big|DX(\tilde{K}(\theta))N(\theta)\right)\nu(\theta) = \\ = \tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta)\left(\tilde{K}''(\theta)\tilde{\omega} + \tilde{E}'_{K}(\theta)\Big|N'(\theta)\tilde{\omega} + N(\theta)\lambda + \tilde{E}_{N}(\theta)\right)\nu(\theta) \approx \\ \approx \tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta)\left(\tilde{K}''(\theta)\tilde{\omega}\Big|N'(\theta)\tilde{\omega} + N(\theta)\lambda\right)\nu(\theta) = \\ = \tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta)\left(\tilde{K}''(\theta)\Big|N'(\theta)\right)\nu(\theta)\tilde{\omega} + \tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta)\left(0\Big|N(\theta)\right)\nu(\theta)\lambda = \\ = \tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta)\tilde{P}'(\theta)\nu(\theta)\tilde{\omega} + \tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta)\left(0\Big|N(\theta)\right)\nu(\theta)\lambda = \\ = \tilde{P}^{-1}(\theta)\tilde{P}'(\theta)\nu(\theta)\tilde{\omega} + \left(\begin{array}{c}0 & 0\\ 0 & \lambda\end{array}\right)\nu(\theta), \tag{2.45}$$

where we have dropped again $\tilde{E}'_{K}(\theta)\nu(\theta)$ and $\tilde{E}_{N}(\theta)\nu(\theta)$.

Inserting (2.45) into (2.44) we obtain the cohomological equation for the correction of N and λ :

$$-\zeta(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \nu(\theta) - \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \delta \lambda \end{pmatrix} - \nu'(\theta)\tilde{\omega} - \nu(\theta)\lambda, \qquad (2.46)$$

which gives two differential equations of the same kind as obtained in the previous section:

$$\begin{cases} \zeta^{L}(\theta) = \tilde{\omega}\partial_{\theta}\nu^{L}(\theta) + \lambda\nu^{L}(\theta), \\ \zeta^{N}(\theta) = \tilde{\omega}\partial_{\theta}\nu^{N}(\theta) + \delta\lambda, \end{cases}$$
(2.47)

From the first equation we can obtain the Fourier coefficients of $\nu^{L}(\theta)$:

$$\nu_k^L = \frac{\zeta_k^L}{2\pi i k \tilde{\omega} + \lambda},\tag{2.48}$$

and from the second those of $\nu^{N}(\theta)$ and $\delta\lambda$:

$$\delta\lambda = \zeta_0^N, \qquad \nu_k^N = \frac{\zeta_k^N}{2\pi i k \tilde{\omega}}, \quad \text{for } k \neq 0.$$
 (2.49)

The coefficient $\nu_0^N = \langle \nu^N \rangle$ is now free and it determines the normalisation condition upon N. We can set $\nu_0^N = 0$ at each step and rescale vectors N at the end of the Newton method if needed.

2.2 Theoretical background

As we want to estimate the errors we need to be able to measure functions in some function space. For the following arguments we need to consider that all the functions that have appeared so far can be analytically extended to a complex neighbourhood. Consider a complex strip of width $\rho > 0$:

$$\mathbb{T}_{\rho} = \{ \theta \in \mathbb{C}/\mathbb{Z} \mid |\operatorname{Im}(\theta)| < \rho \}.$$
(2.50)

Definition 3. Given a holomorphic periodic function $f : \mathbb{T}_{\rho} \to \mathbb{C}$ we define the following norm

$$\|f\|_{\rho} = \sup_{\theta \in \mathbb{T}_{\rho}} |f(\theta)|.$$
(2.51)

The set of functions with finite $\|\cdot\|_{\rho}$ norm form a Banach space with this norm.

For vector-valued functions we will use the maximum norm. Given a periodic function $f = (f_1, f_2) : \mathbb{T}_{\rho} \to \mathbb{C}^2$ we extend the norm in the following way

$$||f||_{\rho} = \max(||f_1||_{\rho}, ||f_2||_{\rho}).$$
(2.52)

For matrices of holomorphic functions on \mathbb{T}_{ρ} the corresponding induced norm will be used. Given a 2 × 2 matrix A = (f|g) we define:

$$||A||_{\rho} = \max(||f_1||_{\rho} + ||g_1||_{\rho}, ||f_2||_{\rho} + ||g_2||_{\rho}).$$
(2.53)

Proposition 2.5. Let f be an holomorphic function on \mathbb{T}_{ρ} . For any $\delta > 0$ the derivative of $f(\theta)$, $f'(\theta)$, is holomorphic on $\mathbb{T}_{\rho-\delta}$ and the following holds:

$$\|f'\|_{\rho-\delta} \le \frac{1}{\delta} \,\|f\|_{\rho} \,. \tag{2.54}$$

Proof. For every $\theta \in \mathbb{T}_{\rho}$ consider the closed disk D_r contained in \mathbb{T}_{ρ} . It is a typical result of complex analysis that

$$|f'(\theta)| \le \frac{|f(\theta)|}{r}.$$
(2.55)

The largest r that one can choose for every $\theta \in \mathbb{T}_{\rho-\delta}$ is δ . Taking supremums at both sides yields the desired result. If a vector-valued function $f = (f_1, f_2)$ is considered:

$$\|f'\|_{\rho-\delta} = \max(\|f_1\|_{\rho-\delta}, \|f_2\|_{\rho-\delta}) \le \frac{1}{\delta} \max(\|f_1'\|_{\delta}, \|f_2'\|_{\rho}) = \frac{1}{\delta} \|f\|_{\rho}.$$
(2.56)

Proposition 2.6. Let X be an analytic vector field in a domain $U \subset \mathbb{C}^2$. Let $K \colon \mathbb{T}_{\rho} \to \mathbb{C}^2$ be such that

$$d(K(\mathbb{T}_{\rho}), \mathbb{C}^2 - U) \ge \kappa > 0.$$
(2.57)

Then the following hold:

• $X \circ K$ is holomorphic on \mathbb{T}_{ρ} .

• For $\Delta K \colon \mathbb{T}_{\rho} \to \mathbb{C}^2$ with $\|\Delta K\|_{\rho}$ sufficiently small (so that $d((K + \Delta K)(\mathbb{T}_{\rho}), \mathbb{C}^2 - U) > 0$), we have

$$\|X \circ (K + \Delta K) - X \circ K - (DX \circ K)\Delta K\|_{\rho} \le C \|\Delta K\|_{\rho}^{2}.$$

$$(2.58)$$

Proof. It follows from Taylor's theorem:

$$X(K(\theta) + \Delta K(\theta)) = X(K(\theta)) + DX(K(\theta))\Delta K(\theta) + \int_0^1 (1-t)DX^2(K(\theta) + t\Delta K(\theta))[\Delta K(\theta), \Delta K(\theta)]t$$
(2.59)

Taking supremums at both sides yields the desired result with $C = \frac{1}{2} \sup_{x \in U} \|D^2 X\|$.

Proposition 2.7. Let $f: \mathbb{T}_{\rho} \to \mathbb{C}$ be written as a Fourier series

$$f(\theta) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} f_k e^{2\pi i k \theta}.$$
 (2.60)

Then for all $0 < \tilde{\rho} < \rho$ the following holds:

$$|f_k| \le e^{-2\pi |k|\tilde{\rho}|} \|f\|_{\rho} \le \|f\|_{\rho}$$
(2.61)

Proof. For k > 0 the path of integration can be shifted downwards:

$$f_k = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\theta) e^{-2\pi i k \theta} d\theta = \int_0^{-\tilde{\rho}} f(0+is) e^{-2\pi i k(0+is)} ds + \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\theta-i\tilde{\rho}) e^{-2\pi i k(\theta-i\tilde{\rho})} d\theta + \int_{-\tilde{\rho}}^0 f(1+is) e^{-2\pi i k(1+is)} ds.$$
(2.62)

As f(0+is) = f(1+is) we have that

$$f_k = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\theta - i\tilde{\rho}) e^{-2\pi i k(\theta - i\tilde{\rho})} d\theta = e^{-2\pi i k\tilde{\rho}} \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\theta - i\tilde{\rho}) e^{-2\pi i k\theta} d\theta, \qquad (2.63)$$

so that

$$|f_k| \le e^{-2\pi k\tilde{\rho}} \int_{\mathbb{T}} ||f||_{\rho} d\theta = e^{-2\pi k\tilde{\rho}} ||f||_{\rho}.$$
 (2.64)

For k < 0 shift the path of integration upwards. For k = 0 the path along the real line gives the desired result.

2.3 Estimating the error

So far we have presented the quasi-Newton method in an informal way by simply dropping some terms that we have considered to be quadratically small. We will here give an estimate of the error after one step and see that it is bounded by the square of the error before performing the step. When developing the method we have highlighted the approximately equal symbol \approx in order to keep track of all the terms that have been ignored.

We will denote the errors after the first half step with \tilde{E} and the errors after the whole quasi-Newton step has been performed as \bar{E} .

Proposition 2.8. Assume that X is analytic in some domain $U \subset \mathbb{C}^2$. Let $K \colon \mathbb{T}_{\rho} \to U$ be such that

$$d(K(\mathbb{T}_{\rho}), \mathbb{C}^2 - U) \ge \kappa > 0 \tag{2.65}$$

and let $N: \mathbb{T}_{\rho} \to \mathbb{C}^2$. Let $\epsilon \geq 0$ be such that

$$\|E_K\|_{\rho} = \|X \circ K - \omega K'\|_{\rho} \le \epsilon$$

$$\|E_N\|_{\rho} = \|(DX \circ K)N - \omega N' - \lambda N\|_{\rho} \le \epsilon$$

(2.66)

and let $\delta > 0$ be such that it satisfies a certain relation

$$\delta^{-1}C\epsilon < 1, \tag{2.67}$$

for a certain constant C depending on κ , $|\omega|$, $|\lambda|$, $\sup_{x \in U} ||D^2X||$, $||P||_{\rho}$, $||P^{-1}||_{\rho}$, where P = (K'|N). Then the errors \bar{E}_N , \bar{E}_K for the improved solutions $(K + \Delta K, \omega + \delta \omega)$ and $(N + \Delta N, \lambda + \delta \lambda)$ obtained after the quasi-Newton step satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} \left\| \bar{E}_N \right\|_{\rho-\delta} &\leq C \delta^{-1} \epsilon^2, \\ \left\| \bar{E}_K \right\|_{\rho-\delta} &\leq C \delta^{-1} \epsilon^2, \end{aligned} \tag{2.68}$$

where the constant C appearing in the conclusions is different than that appearing in the hypothesis, as is common practice in KAM arguments.

Only a sketch of the proof will be given:

Let us first consider substep 1. Using proposition 2.7 and the explicit expressions for the corrections in the frame derived in the last section we can give the following bounds:

$$\begin{split} \|\delta\omega\| &\leq \|\eta\|_{\rho} \leq \left\|P^{-1}\right\|_{\rho} \|E_{K}\|_{\rho} \leq C\epsilon, \\ \|\xi^{L}\|_{\rho} &\leq \frac{1}{\omega} \|\eta^{L}\|_{\rho} \leq \left(\frac{1}{\omega} + \frac{1}{\lambda}\right) \|\eta^{L}\|_{\rho}, \\ \|\xi^{N}\|_{\rho} &\leq \left(\frac{1}{\omega} + \frac{1}{\lambda}\right) \|\eta^{N}\|_{\rho}, \\ \|\xi\|_{\rho} &\leq \left(\frac{1}{\omega} + \frac{1}{\lambda}\right) \|\eta\|_{\rho} \leq \left(\frac{1}{\omega} + \frac{1}{\lambda}\right) \|P^{-1}\|_{\rho} \|E_{K}\|_{\rho} \leq C\epsilon \end{split}$$

$$(2.69)$$

From these expressions and using also proposition 2.5 we can obtain the following bounds:

$$\begin{aligned} \|E'_{K}\|_{\rho-\delta} &\leq \frac{C}{\delta} \, \|E_{K}\|_{\rho} \leq \frac{C}{\delta} \epsilon, \\ \|\Delta K\|_{\rho} &\leq \|P\|_{\rho} \, \|\xi\|_{\rho} \leq C\epsilon, \\ \|\Delta K'\|_{\rho-\delta} &\leq \frac{C}{\delta} \, \|\Delta K\|_{\rho} \leq \frac{C}{\delta} \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.70)$$

Now if we go back to substep 1 of the Newton method, where the correction of K and ω is considered we can add and substract terms to obtain the following expression:

$$\begin{split} \tilde{E}_{K}(\theta) &= X\left(K(\theta) + \Delta K(\theta)\right) - (K'(\theta) + \Delta K'(\theta))(\omega + \delta\omega) = \\ &= X\left(K(\theta) + \Delta K(\theta)\right) - X\left(K(\theta)\right) - DX\left(K(\theta)\right)\Delta K(\theta) + \\ &+ X\left(K(\theta)\right) + DX\left(K(\theta)\right)\Delta K(\theta) - K'(\theta)\omega - \Delta K'(\theta)\delta\omega - \\ &= X\left(K(\theta) + \Delta K(\theta)\right) - X\left(K(\theta)\right) - DX\left(K(\theta)\right)\Delta K(\theta) + \\ &+ E_{K}(\theta) + DX\left(K(\theta)\right) - X\left(K(\theta)\right) - DX\left(K(\theta)\right)\Delta K(\theta) + \\ &+ E_{K}(\theta) - E_{K}(\theta) + P^{-1}(\theta)\left(E'_{K}(\theta) \middle| E_{N}(\theta)\right)\xi(\theta) \\ &- \Delta K'(\theta)\delta\omega = \\ &= X\left(K(\theta) + \Delta K(\theta)\right) - X\left(K(\theta)\right) - DX\left(K(\theta)\right)\Delta K(\theta) + \\ &+ P^{-1}(\theta)\left(E'_{K}(\theta) \middle| E_{N}(\theta)\right)\xi(\theta) \\ &- \Delta K'(\theta)\delta\omega = \\ &= A_{1} + A_{2} + A_{3}, \end{split}$$
(2.71)

where we denote each line in the last expression by A_1, A_2, A_3 .

Making use of the bounds that we have just computed we can estimate each line as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \|A_1\|_{\rho} &\leq C \|\Delta K\|_{\rho}^2 \leq C\epsilon^2, \\ \|A_2\|_{\rho-\delta} &\leq \|P^{-1}\|_{\rho-\delta} \|E'_K \xi^L + E_N \xi^N\|_{\rho-\delta} \leq \\ &\leq \|P^{-1}\|_{\rho-\delta} \left(\|E'_K\|_{\rho-\delta} \|\xi^L\|_{\rho-\delta} + \|E_N\|_{\rho-\delta} \|\xi^N\|_{\rho-\delta}\right) \leq \\ &\leq \frac{C}{\delta}\epsilon^2 + C\epsilon^2, \\ \|A_3\|_{\rho-\delta} &\leq \|\Delta K'\|_{\rho-\delta} |\delta\omega| \leq \frac{C}{\delta}\epsilon^2. \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.72)$$

Note that for the first estimate the proposition 2.6 has been used.

We can see that each term is bounded by the square of the initial error as desired.

A similar reasoning can be applied for the mid-step error for the functional equation on N:

$$\tilde{E}_{N}(\theta) = DX (K(\theta) + \Delta K(\theta)) N(\theta) - N'(\theta)(\omega + \delta\omega) - N(\theta)\lambda =$$

$$= DX (K(\theta) + \Delta K(\theta)) N(\theta) - DX (K(\theta)) N(\theta) +$$

$$+ DX (K(\theta)) N(\theta) - N'(\theta)\omega - N(\theta)\lambda -$$

$$- N'(\theta)\delta\omega =$$

$$= B_{1} + E_{N}(\theta) + B_{2},$$
(2.73)

where we use a similar notation as before.

Using Taylor in a similar way as in proposition 2.6 one can find

$$\|B_1\|_{\rho} \le C \|\Delta K\|_{\rho} \|N\|_{\rho} \le C\epsilon, \qquad (2.74)$$

and using proposition 2.5:

$$\|B_2\|_{\rho-\delta} \le \|N'\|_{\rho-\delta} \, |\delta\omega| \le \frac{C}{\delta}\epsilon, \tag{2.75}$$

so that \tilde{E}_N , the mid-step error for N, is of the order of E_N .

The same kind of bounds can be found for the correction of N and λ , but they will not be specified here, since it is out of the scope of this undergraduate thesis.

However, a key point must be noted. To control the error in the second substep we must be able to control the inverse of \tilde{P} . This can be done using Neumann series. Consider the following expression:

$$\tilde{P}^{-1} = (\tilde{P} - P + P)^{-1} = P^{-1}(I + (\tilde{P} - P)P^{-1})^{-1} = P^{-1}(I - X + X^2 - \dots), \quad (2.76)$$

where $X = P^{-1}(\tilde{P} - P)$.

The matrix \tilde{P} is invertible if P is invertible and $||X||_{\rho} < 1$. And we can write

$$\|X\|_{\rho} = \left\|\tilde{P} - P\right\|_{\rho} \cdot \left\|P^{-1}\right\|_{\rho} < 1$$
(2.77)

From this we can clearly see that the worse conditioned P is, the closer \tilde{P} needs to be to P, which means that the error in the initial approximation needs to be smaller. In fact from (2.76) we can write the following bound

$$\left\|\tilde{P}^{-1}\right\|_{\rho} \le \|P\|_{\rho} \frac{1}{1 - \|X\|_{\rho}},\tag{2.78}$$

which would allow us to obtain a specific condition that could be included in the constant C appearing in the hypothesis. We would like to repeat now that the greater

C is, the smaller ϵ can be, i.e., the better the initial condition passed to the algorithm has to be, for it to converge quadratically.

So far we have shown that the error after the iterative step is bounded by the square of the error before the step. However one must carefully observe that the functions after the step are in a slightly smaller domain and that there is some constant δ^{-1} that determines this loss of analyticity appearing in the bounds. A balance must be satisfied between taking a very small δ (where the constants blow up) and keeping the constants small (where we finally end up with no domain). This kind of problems are very usual in KAM theory and they are solved in the following way. The following sequence is considered for each step $n \geq 1$

$$\delta_n = \frac{1}{4} \delta_0 2^{-n}, \tag{2.79}$$

where δ_0 is the global analyticity loss. If the initial approximation is good enough it can be shown that the hypothesis of proposition 2.8 is satisfied at each step and the error at step n can be estimated as

$$\epsilon_n \le C(\delta_0 2^{-n-1})^{-1} \epsilon_{n-1}^2 \le \dots \le (C\delta_0^{-1} 2^2 \epsilon_0)^{2n}.$$
 (2.80)

If $(C\delta_0^{-1}2^2\epsilon_0) < 1$ (which would appear as a hypothesis in the theorem stating the convergence of the method), ϵ_n decreases superexponentially, while δ_n decreases only exponentially. This is the key point in understanding why the hypothesis of our proposition is satisfied again after the Newton step, provided that the initial approximation is good enough.

Chapter 3

The reduced Hodgkin-Huxley model

The electrical activity in neurons can be understood in terms of four ions travelling through its membrane: sodium (Na⁺), potassium (K⁺), calcium (Ca²⁺) and chloride (Cl⁻). When the cell membrane is at rest, there is a high concentration of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in the extracellular medium, while the intracellular medium is rich in K⁺ and negatively charged molecules.

The different concentrations of these ions inside and outside the cell membrane creates electrochemical gradients that are responsible for the electrical activity of the cells. The cell membrane does not allow ions to pass through it, but it has some ion-specific channels that can open and allow the flow of ions.

In 1952 Hodgkin and Huxley proposed a mathematical model [10] of the squid giant axon, which is one of the most important models in computational neuroscience. It must be said, however, that this model has the difficulty of involving four variables, and several simplifications that capture the essence of the dynamics of the neuron with only two variables have been proposed. The simplified model that we will consider in this thesis can be described with the following equations:

$$C\dot{V} = I - g_{Na}m_{\infty}(V)(V - V_{Na}) - g_{K}n(V - V_{K}) - g_{L}(V - V_{L}),$$

$$\dot{n} = n_{\infty}(V) - n,$$
(3.1)

with

$$m_{\infty}(V) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(V - V_{max,m})/k_m)},$$

$$n_{\infty}(V) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(V - V_{max,n})/k_n)}.$$
(3.2)

This model is called the $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model and is said to describe a fast persistent sodium current and a slower potassium current. In order to understand briefly the meaning of these equations, consider the first equation in (3.1) written in the following way:

$$I = C\dot{V} + g_{Na}m_{\infty}(V)(V - V_{Na}) + g_{K}n(V - V_{K}) + g_{L}(V - V_{L})$$
(3.3)

This equation is a simple application of Kirchoff's law to the neuron membrane. I represents the total current crossing the membrane, which may be due to synaptic current, axial current, tangential current along the membrane surface or current injected artificially with an electrode. On the right hand side of the last equality, we have $C\dot{V}$, which amounts for the capacitative current of the membrane, i.e., for the accumulation of ions at each side of the membrane when the membrane potential is changing. The third terms is called leakage current and is due to the fact that the membrane is never fully impermeable. Finally the two middle terms correspond to the flow of sodium and potassium ions with conductances $g_{Na}m_{\infty}(V)$ and g_Kn , respectively. As we have said before the membrane has several ion channels that can open and close. g_{Na} and g_K can be interpreted as the maximum conductances, when all the channels are open, and $m_{\infty}(V)$ and n as the fraction of channels that are open at a given time. As we can see the fraction of open channels is voltage dependent in both cases, but time-dependent only in the second one.

As in [1] and [8] we use the following values for the parameters: $C_m = 1$, $g_{Na} = 20$, $V_{Na} = 60$, $g_K = 10$, $V_K = -90$, $g_L = 8$, $V_L = -80$, $V_{max,m} = -20$, $k_m = 15$, $V_{max,n} = -25$ and $k_n = 5$. The parameter I can be studied as a bifurcation parameter.

For I = 0 the system has no periodic orbits as shown in figure 3.1. A fixed point is localised at about $(V, n) \approx (-30, 0.4)$. The other two equilibria are localised at about n = 0 for $V \approx -55$, -65 and they are joined by two heteroclinic orbits. The neuron is expected to be in the stable equilibrium. If a small positive perturbation in the potential is applied, the neuron will go back to the stable equilibrium through a short path close to the short heteroclinic orbit. However, if this perturbation is such that the V-nullcline is crossed, then the neuron will go for a long loop close to the long heteroclinic orbit before returning to the starting point. In this case an action potential is elicited. Systems exhibiting this feature are called excitable media.

As the value of the parameter I is increased the stable and unstable equilibria connected by the two heteroclinic orbits become closer and closer until they fuse at I = 4.51, as shown in figure 3.2. At this point a bifurcation called Saddle-Node on an invariant circle (SNIC) happens.

For larger values of I, a limit cycle appears as shown in figure 3.3 and the membrane voltage exhibits a periodic behaviour with periodic spiking as seen in figure 3.4.

For the case I = 10 we show in figure 3.5 the isochrons defined in the last chapter computed for 40 evenly distributed phases. Let us recall that the concept of isochron allowed us to extend the idea of phase of oscillation to the basin of attraction of a



Figure 3.1: $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model. No periodic orbits for I = 0. Source: [7]



Figure 3.2: $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model. SNIC bifurcation for I = 4.51. Source: [7]



Figure 3.3: $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model. Limit cycle attractor for I = 10. Source: [7]



Figure 3.4: $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model. Transition from resting state to periodic spiking. Source: [7]

limit cycle. Consider a neuron whose dynamics can be qualitatively described with figure 3.5. The neuron is periodically spiking and travelling along the limit cycle. As

we did before (I = 0) we can ask what happens if a small perturbation in the voltage occurs at a certain time. The neuron abandons the limit cycle and evolves in such a way that it will clearly go back to it, but it may have experienced a phase advance or delay. Isochrons allow us to determine quantitatively the phase shift experienced by the neuron. If a perturbation occurs when the neuron is at a phase θ_i and the neuron falls on an isochron with phase θ_f we know that when the neuron goes back to the limit cycle it will have suffered a phase shift:

$$\Delta \theta = \theta_f - \theta_i. \tag{3.4}$$



Figure 3.5: $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model. Isochrons of the limit cycle attractor in figure 3.3. Source: [7]

Understanding the concept of isochron and being able to compute them plays a central role in computational neuroscience since it allows to understand how two coupled neurons behave depending on their intrinsic dynamics, how a net of synchronous neurons will react in front of a perturbation or how one desynchronised neuron can resynchronise again in front of the stimulus passed by the others.

Isochrons offer another kind information. Looking again at figure 3.5 we can see that isochrons accumulate at a certain part of the limit cycle, while they are spaciously distributed in other parts. As the isochrons are plotted for evenly distributed values of θ , which corresponds to evenly distributed values of t, we can easily see where the neuron goes faster and slower in the periodic orbit. It must be noted that the points where the trajectory slows down are those where the bifurcation occurred. In this case very strong slow-fast dynamics are observed.

Chapter 4

Numerical implementation

We select the model described in the last chapter (equations 3.1) and write a program in language C that is able to find a parametrisation of the periodic orbit $K(\theta)$ and find the vectors $N(\theta)$ through integration and that refines the initial solutions using the quasi-Newton method described in chapter 2. The source code is appended at the end of this undergraduate thesis, and the reader is invited to have a look at it while reading this chapter in order to follow the explanations given here.

4.1 The Taylor method for integrating ODEs

Our program needs to integrate the flux and the variational equations. For the integration of differential equations we use the Taylor method.

Consider the following Cauchy problem:

$$x'(t) = f(t, x(t)),$$

 $x(t_0) = x_0,$
(4.1)

The Taylor method is based on the possibility of performing a Taylor expansion of the function x(t) around t_0 , for $h \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$x(t_0 + h) = x(t_0) + x'(t_0)h + \frac{1}{2!}x''(t_0)h^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{p!}x^{(p)}(t_0)h^p + \dots, \qquad (4.2)$$

Taking a certain step h we can approximate $x(t_0+h)$ by the truncated Taylor series up to order p^1 and we call this approximation x_1 :

$$x_1 = x(t_0) + x'(t_0)h + \frac{1}{2!}x''(t_0)h^2 + \dots \frac{1}{p!}x^{(p)}(t_0)h^p, \qquad (4.3)$$

Now we can consider the new Cauchy problem with initial condition $x(t_1) = x_1$, where we use the notation $t_1 = t_0 + h$. The same procedure can be used in order to

¹If p = 1 the method is know as the Euler method

obtain an approximation $x_2 \approx x(t_2)$, for $t_2 = t_1 + h$. The process can be iterated as long as needed, so that for each pair t_i, x_i a new x_{i+1} can be obtained for $t_{i+1} = t_i + h$.

Consider equation (4.3). At each step of the integration we need to compute the values of the derivatives $x^{(j)}(t_0)$ up to order p. The first derivative is given directly by the field: $x'(t_0) = f(t_0, x_0)$. For higher order derivatives we can differentiate the first equation in (4.1):

$$x''(t) = f_t(t, x(t)) + f_x(t, x(t))x'(t),$$
(4.4)

and so on. However, as we consider derivatives of higher order, the expressions that we get become more and more complicated and it becomes difficult to compute the derivatives of f and also to evaluate such long expressions numerically.

This difficulty however can be overcome using automatic differentiation, a recursive procedure which allows to compute easily the derivatives of a given function at a given point. This works only for a special class of functions, those that can be obtained by sum, product, quotient, and composition of elementary functions (polynomials, trigonometric functions, real powers, exponentials and logarithms).

Consider a function $a: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, which is assumed to be smooth, and which can be written as a(t) = F(b(t), c(t)), and assume furthermore that we know $b^{(j)}(t)$ and $c^{(j)}(t)$ up to order n at a given t_0 . If F is one of the functions specified before the rules of automatic differentiation [4] allow us to write $a^{(j)}(t)$ in t_0 up to order n as a function of the already know derivatives of b and c in t_0 . These rules can be applied recursively in x'(t) = f(t, x(t)) to obtain the derivatives of x(t) in t_0 up to any order desired.

In our program we use the software package provided by Jorba and Zou [4], which, given some differential equations, is able to generate some routines of integration, which are in the header file taylor.h and have the structure:

int taylor_step_name(long double *ti, long double *x, int dir, int step_ctl, double log10abserr, double log10relerr, long double *endtime, long double *ht, int *order)

The arguments ti and x correspond to the initial conditions t_i and x_i and are overwritten with the new conditions t_{i+1} and x_{i+1} after one step of the integration.

This routines implement also optional stepsize and order control, which means that a different step h and different order p may be used for each step. By setting step_ctl to 1, the stepsize and order control are performed and the integrator tries to keep either the absolute or relative errors below the values given by the user. The decimal logarithm of the absolute and relative accuracy is passed to the function with log10abserr and log10abserr, respectively. At the end of the step, ht gives the time step used and order gives the degree used in the Taylor expansion. The flag dir can be either 1 for forward integration, or -1 for backward integration. Additionally, one can set a value for endtime, so that the size of the last step is adapted in order to fit the required end time. The output of the function is 0, unless ti=endtime. In this case the function returns 1.

On the other hand, it is possible to set step_ctl to 0. In this case no stepsize or order control are performed and the stepsize and order to be used are defined by the user through ht and order, while the other flags are ignored.

4.2 Discrete Fourier transform

As we will be dealing with periodic functions and we will need to solve some equations involving their Fourier coefficients it essential to be able to find them. Consider $f: \mathbb{T}_{\rho} \to \mathbb{R}$:

$$f(\theta) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{f}_k e^{2\pi i k \theta}.$$
(4.5)

As we have seen in proposition 2.7 the coefficients are expected to decay exponentially with |k| and therefore the Fourier series can be truncated at some point:

$$f(\theta) \approx \sum_{k=-N/2}^{N/2-1} \tilde{f}_k e^{2\pi i k \theta}.$$
(4.6)

With the objective of finding such an approximation we will make use of the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT). We discretise \mathbb{T}_{ρ} by taking N values $\{\theta_j = j/N\}_{j=0}^{N-1}$ equally spaced on the interval, and we evaluate the function f at these points in order to obtain a set of values:

$$\{f_j = f(\theta_j)\}_{j=0}^{N-1}$$
(4.7)

The DFT transforms this set of N values into an N periodic set of complex values

$$\tilde{f}_k = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f_j e^{-2\pi i k \theta_j}, \qquad k \in \mathbb{Z},$$
(4.8)

that satisfy $\tilde{f}_j = \tilde{f}_{j(\text{mod}N)}$. Those indexed by $0, \ldots, N$ are the coefficients of the interpolating trigonometric polynomial up to a factor 1/N:

$$P(\theta) = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{N} \tilde{f}_j e^{2\pi i j \theta},$$
(4.9)

that satisfies $P(\theta_j) = f_j$.

The implementation of the Discrete Fourier Transform will be done using the Fast Fourier Transform algorithms found in the library FFTW, included in the code with the header fftw3.h. These algorithms are able to perform the transform in O(NlogN) operations (specially if N is a power of 2).

In our code one can see that there is a bunch of functions related to Fourier transforms. The technical requirements of the routines in the FFTW library have been hidden under the functions void createfourier() and void destroyfourier() for the sake of clarity, and they can be thought of as allocating and freeing memory when working with pointers. The functions in fftw3.h perform the DFT on an array of numbers. However, as we are working with arrays of two-dimensional vectors we have also created our own functions

void forwardfourier(long double complex **IN, long double complex **OUT);

void backwardfourier(long double complex **IN, long double complex **OUT);

that work on arrays of vectors.

The function forwardfourier reads an array IN[2] [Ngrid], performs the DFT on each array of components and divides the result by Ngrid before writing it on OUT[2] [Ngrid], so that we obtain directly the coefficients of the interpolating trigonometric polynomial. The function backwardfourier performs a backward DFT, which simply consists in evaluating the interpolating polynomial at the values $\theta_j = j/N$, for $j = 1, \ldots N$, so that no further rescaling is needed.

As already said when we do the forward Fourier transform we obtain the coefficients of the interpolating polynomial (4.9), that correspond, up to a shift in the indexes, to the coefficients of the truncated Fourier series (4.6). A function int ind(int i) has been also created, which reads an integer $i=-N/2, \ldots, N/2-1$ and shifts it to the range $0, \ldots, N-1$. When working with vectors in the Fourier space this function will be used.

The function void derivatefourier(long double complex **K_, long double complex **DK_) is used for differentiating truncated Fourier series (4.6):

$$f(\theta) = \sum_{k=-N/2}^{N/2-1} 2\pi i k \tilde{f}_k e^{2\pi i k \theta}.$$
 (4.10)

The function int ind(int i) turns out to be very useful in this case.

Still an important observation is to be made. As our functions are real-valued, the Fourier coefficient for a certain k is the complex conjugate of that for -k. However, when truncating the series and working with even N, we can see that the so-called Nyquist term, $\tilde{f}_{-N/2}$, is not compensated by a complex conjugate, since $\tilde{f}_{N/2}$ is taken to be 0. This means that we are no longer working with real objects. This could be compensated by artificially adding a term $\tilde{f}_{N/2}$ to compensate for this effect. This is something we don't do, because we don't need to evaluate the Fourier series out of the grid. However, this problem naturally arises when differentiating. In this case we set the Nyquist term of the derivative to be zero as suggested in [9].

4.3 The program

In the appendix, the source code is commented. However, some features are still worth mentioning.

As already seen, our program is written using precision long double. At the beginning of the code one can see that the values of the parameters are specified. The values chosen are those that already appeared in the previous chapter, and we choose the bifurcation parameter I to be 10 mV. The absolute and relative tolerances that we used for the integrator and for other purposes are 10^{-16} .

Several functions are defined: void matrixvector2(long double M[2][2], long double *v) and void invmatrixvector2(long double M[2][2], long double *v), which apply the matrix M (and its inverse, respectively) to the vector v.

For the computation of the periodic orbit we first choose a Pincaré section Σ at V = -40 (see figure 3.5) and give initial conditions $\mathbf{x}[0]=-40$; $\mathbf{x}[1]=0.2$. This is passed to the function long double poincaremap(long double *x), which reads $\mathbf{x}[2]$, applies the Poincaré map $p: \Sigma \to \Sigma$ to this point and returns the so-called return time. The internal structure of the function poincaremap is divided in two parts. In the first one it lets the point evolve until the Poincaré section is overpassed. Let x_0 be the last point before the Pincaré section is reached and h the step of the last integration, then we know that

$$\Pi_1(\varphi(0, x_0)) = \Pi_1(x_0) < -40,$$

$$\Pi_1(\varphi(h, x_0)) > -40,$$
(4.11)

where $\Pi_1 \colon \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ is the projection on the *x* axis, which in this case corresponds to the variable *V*. Then we are interested in solving the equation

$$\Pi_1(\varphi(\tau, x_0)) + 40 = 0, \tag{4.12}$$

for the variable τ . This is done in the second part of the function **poincaremap** by means of a Newton method.

The function **poincaremap** is applied recursively until the point in the periodic orbit is found and the return value of the function gives the period of the oscillation, which is stored in T.

We start with Ngrid=64 and store in K[] [0]² the point of the orbit obtained in the Poincaré section. Using taylor_step_inapik we let this point evolve in time in order to obtain Ngrid samples on the periodic orbit evenly distributed in time, i.e, $K(\theta_j)$, for $\theta_j = j/N$. Then the Fourier transform is performed and the coefficients are stored

²In our program K[i][j] means the *i*-th component of the *j*-th sample in (4.7), i.e., j goes from 0 to Ngrid, and for each j, we can have K[0][j] and K[1][j].

in $K_[2]$ [Ngrid]. The tail of the Fourier series is checked in order to determine if a larger number of samples is needed. In that case we choose Ngrid*=2 and start again.

With all this information the error function for the functional equation in K and ω is evaluated and the results are stored in EK.

Then we proceed to compute the stable vector N. The first step is to find N(0). In order to do this we integrate the variational equations backwards for a whole period so that we obtain:

$$D\varphi(-T, K(0)). \tag{4.13}$$

This is obtained using another integration routine: taylor_step_inapikvariational(&t, vareqn, -1, 1, log10tol, log10rtol, &tau, &h, &order), where the initial conditions are vareqn[0]=K[0][0] and vareqn[1]=K[1][0] for the point in the orbit K(0) and vareqn[3]=1., vareqn[4]=0., vareqn[5]=0. and vareqn[6]=1. for the values of the matrix $D\varphi$ at K(0). As the integration is backwards and the orbit is unstable, we integrate at time intervals of -T/Ngrid and force the point to stay in the orbit by setting manually vareqn[0]=K[0][Ngrid-j] and vareqn[1]=K[1][Ngrid-j], for the j which corresponds at every step.

The matrix $D\varphi(-T, K(0))$ is stored in M and the eigenvalues and eigenvectors are obtained. From these we can find N(0) and λ . And by propagating this vector (backwards again) as discussed in proposition 2.3 we can obtain $N(\theta_j)$ for $\theta_j = j/N$. The Fourier transform is performed and the error function is evaluated.

Finally, with this initial approximations in hand, the Newton method described in chapter 2 is applied.

Chapter 5

Results

5.1 The reduced Hodgkin-Huxley model

Our program is applied to the reduced Hudgkin-Huxley model described in chapter 3.1. We start with the case I = 10, in which 8192 samples are needed for the Fourier series. We obtain a period T = 7.0735 and $\lambda = -3.9110$. With the initial approximation found by integration the error in the functional equation for K is of the order of 10^{-11} , but for N it is of the order of 10^{-7} . In figure 5.1 we plot the limit cycle obtained and the the linear approximation of 64 isochrons. The slow-fast dynamics is clearly observable.



Figure 5.1: $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model. I = 10. Limit cycle and 64 stable vectors. The stable vectors have been rescaled since they have extremely different length scales.

We expected the Newton method designed in chapter 2 to improve the solutions found, but to our surprise the method failed to find better solutions. Instead after ten iterations the error of both K and N blows up to orders of 10^3 , which is clearly unacceptable. We understand this anomalous behaviour in terms of numerical problems. On one hand when the differential of the flux is integrated for one period and the two eigenvalues are found, we see that one of them is 1, while the other is of the order of 10^{-12} . Compare this difference with the 10^{-16} tolerance that we chose for our program. We are in front of a very attractive limit cycle, which simplifies the calculation of $K(\theta)$, but makes it really difficult to find $N(\theta)$ satisfactorily. Yet another problem is to be considered. In figure 5.2 we plot for each θ the angle between the limit cycle and the isochron crossing it at $K(\theta)$, i.e., the angle between $N(\theta)$ and $K'(\theta)$.



Figure 5.2: $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model. I = 10. Angle between the orbit and the vector N for each θ . Note that $\Pi_1(K(\theta = 0)) = -40$.

It is clear that, apart from being far from continuous, even if so many samples have been considered, the angle is very close to 0 for most of the values of θ . Let us recall at this point that for the Newton method we need to transform our equations to the frame P = (K'|N), and it is clear that K' and N must satisfy the non-degeneracy condition $\langle K', N \rangle \neq 0$. The further they are from this condition the better our initial approximations have to be for our method to converge. The numerical instability is intrinsic to the model we have selected, which presents stiff dynamics, but we hope that it could be overcome using extended precision arithmetic.

We have also run our program for I = 100, which is a bit further from the SNIC bifurcation. In this case we obtain T = 2.7405 and $\lambda = -5.4031$. The initial approximation for K and N is also found with an error similar to that of I = 10, and the Newton method also fails to improve the solutions, even though the error grows a bit slowlier. A plot of the periodic orbit is shown in figure 5.3. Observe how in this case the vectors N are more evenly distributed. This is due to the fact that, as already mentioned, the SNIC bifurcation is much further than at I = 10.



Figure 5.3: $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model. I = 100. Limit cycle and 64 stable vectors. The stable vectors have been rescaled since they have extremely different length scales.

We have still considered the case I = 190, close to a Hopf bifurcation that occurs at around I = 214. In this case T = 1.3055 and $\lambda = -0.4639$, and we obtain an error of about 10^{-12} in the initial approximation of K and about 10^{-11} for N. Note than in this case the stable eigenvalue of the $D\varphi(T, K(0))$ is $e^{\lambda T} = 0.5457$, which is not even one order of magnitude below 0. In this case the Newton method can be applied as many times as desired and the error does not grow, nor does it decrease. In figure 5.4 the linear approximation of 64 isochrons is shown.

5.2 The Rayleigh oscillator

We have seen in the previous section that our program can effectively compute an initial approximation for K, N, T and λ for several values of I in the $I_{Na,p}+I_K$ -model, but the Newton method that we have designed did not work properly. Therefore, we consider in this section a much simpler model in order to show the convergence of our method. The Rayleigh oscillator has equations:

$$\dot{x} = -y + \mu(x - x^3),$$

 $\dot{y} = x.$
(5.1)

It is known to have an unstable focus at (0,0). For $\mu = 1$ it also has a stable limit cycle, for which we have found T = 6.6632 and $\lambda = -1.059$. In this case we have



Figure 5.4: $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model. I = 190. Limit cycle and 64 stable vectors.

needed N = 2048, and initial approximations of K and N are found with errors of 10^{-14} and 10^{-13} , respectively. The Newton method is able to reduce these errors to 10^{-16} in both cases after only two steps. A plot of the periodic orbit with 32 stable vectors is shown in figure 5.5



Figure 5.5: Rayleigh oscillator. $\mu = 1$. Limit cycle and 32 stable vectors.

Just for comparison with the $I_{Na,p} + I_K$ -model and figure 5.2 we show in figure 5.6 the angle between K' and N in the Rayleigh oscillator. This is a much better conditioned problem and it is easy to understand why our method performs efficiently here.



Figure 5.6: Rayleigh oscillator. $\mu = 1$. Angle between the orbit and the vector N for each θ . In this case $\Pi_1(K(\theta = 0)) = 0$

The Newton method that we designed allows also to do continuation with respect to parameters. For the case $\mu = 1.2$ we can take the values of K, T, N and λ that we obtained for $\mu = 1$ as an initial approximation and use the Newton method to improve them. No integration is needed in this case. For $\mu = 1.2$ and using this procedure the initial error is 10^{-2} , which is rapidly reduced to 10^{-15} after 20 iterations of the method. We obtain T = 6.8212 and $\lambda = -1.2997$. We plot the limit cycle and 32 stable vectors in figure 5.7. The same is done for $\mu = 1.6$ with an initial error of almost 1, which after 20 steps is reduced to 10^{-13} . We obtain T = 7.1966 and $\lambda = -1.8180$. The limit cycle and 32 stable vectors are shown in figure 5.8.



Figure 5.7: Rayleigh oscillator. $\mu = 1.2$. Limit cycle and 32 stable vectors obtained by improving the solutions found for $\mu = 1$.



Figure 5.8: Rayleigh oscillator. $\mu = 1.6$. Limit cycle and 32 stable vectors obtained by improving the solutions found for $\mu = 1$.

Chapter 6

Conclusions

Some new techniques and concepts have been learnt throughout the development of this thesis. With an example we have seen how a biological system can be satisfactorily modelled with mathematical tools and how this can help to understand many properties of such a system.

Although the algorithm designed in chapter 2 did not work as expected for the model that we selected, we have also learnt many numerical techniques for programming that turn out to be very useful in front of real problems, that cannot usually be described by means of an analytical expression.

At the same time, we have also seen the close relationship between the designed algorithms and the numerical implementation, so that we can understand under which circumstances a numerical algorithm will fail.

Three topics remain open for the author as further work. The first one is to get a better understanding of the KAM theory and its implications. The second one is to think how to improve the designed algorithms in order for them to work in the first model considered here. The third one is to read more about how to effectively apply the concept of isochron to coupled oscillators and the implications that this has in neural systems.

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Appendix A

The program

```
1 #include "taylor.h"
2 #include <stdio.h>
3 #include <stdlib.h>
4 #include <math.h>
5 #include <complex.h>
6
   // If <complex.h> comes before <fftw3.h>, then fftwl_complex is defined to be the
        native complex type and you can manipulate it with ordinary arithmetic
7
   #include <fftw3.h>
8
9
   long double current=10.;
10
   long double C=1.0, gNa=20., VNa=60., gK=10., VK=-90., gL=8., VL=-80., Vmaxm=-20., km
11
        =15., Vmaxn = -25., kn = 5.;
12
   double tol=1e-16;
13
14
   double log10tol;
15
   double rtol=1e-16;
16
   double log10rtol;
17
18
   void field(long double *x, long double *f);
19
   void dfield(long double *x, long double df[2][2]);
20
   void matrixvector2(long double M[2][2], long double *v);
21
   void invmatrixvector2(long double M[2][2], long double *v);
22
   void checkpoint();
23
   void space(int n);
24
25
   long double poincaremap(long double *x);
26
27
   // Fourier things
28 int Ngrid=64;
29 fftwl_complex *in, *out;
30
   fftwl_plan planback, planfor;
   void createfourier();
31
32
   void destroyfourier();
   void forwardfourier(long double complex **IN, long double complex **OUT);
33
   void backwardfourier(long double complex **IN, long double complex **OUT);
34
   void derivatefourier (long double complex **K_, long double complex **DK_);
35
36
   int ind(int i);
37
   void qNewton_K_step(long double *lambda, long double *omega, long double complex **K,
38
```

long double complex **N, long double complex **DK, long double complex **EK);

```
40
   int main(void){
41
42
     \log 10 \operatorname{tol} = \log 10 (\operatorname{tol});
43
     \log 10 \operatorname{rtol} = \log 10 (\operatorname{rtol});
44
45
     \operatorname{space}(2);
               _____\n");
46
     printf("-
     47
     48
     printf("_____
                              _____\n");
49
     50
51
     \operatorname{space}(2);
52
53
54
     printf("Looking_for_K_and_Tn");
55
     printf("______\n");
56
     space(1);
57
     long double t=0, h=0;
58
     long double x[2];
59
     long double aux;
60
     int order = 20:
61
62
     int finished:
     // Initial values are given on the Poincare section for V=-40 \,
63
64
     x[0] = -40;
     x[1] = 0.2;
65
66
67
     // The Poincare map is applied until the fixed point is found up to a tolerance tol
68
     do{
69
      aux=x[1];
70
      t = poincaremap(x);
71
     while(fabs(x[1]-aux)>tol);
72
     long double T=t;
73
     long double omega=1./T;
74
     long double orbp[2];
75
     \operatorname{orbp}[0] = x[0];
76
     orbp[1] = x[1];
77
78
     printf("T=\%20.12Lf\n", T);
79
     \operatorname{space}(1);
80
     // Find Fourier coefficients using fftwl3
81
82
     t = 0;
83
     long double complex *K[2], *K_[2];
84
     long double tail [2];
85
     t a i l [0] = -1.;
86
87
     // We start with Ngrid=64. After doing the FFT, the tail is checked in order to
        determine if a larger number of samples is needed.
88
     do{
      if(tail[0]! = -1.){
89
        Ngrid *=2;
90
        destroyfourier();
91
        free (K[0]);
92
93
        free (K[1]);
```

```
free(K_{-}[0]);
94
95
           free(K_{-}[1]);
96
         }
97
         createfourier():
         // In K we will store the samples values, in K<sub>-</sub> the Fourier coefficients of K(\setminus
98
             theta)
99
         K[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
100
         K[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
         K<sub>-</sub>[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
101
         K<sub>-</sub>[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
102
103
         // We integrate the flux at intervals of T/Ngrid in order to obtain the values of
104
              K(\setminus \text{theta})
105
         t = 0:
106
         long double tau=0;
107
         for (int i=0; i < Ngrid; i++){
           K[0][i]=x[0];
108
109
           K[1][i]=x[1];
           tau+=T/(long_double)Ngrid;
110
111
           do{
              finished=taylor_step_inapik(&t, x, 1, 1, log10tol, log10rtol, &tau, &h, &
112
                  order);
113
           } while (finished!=1);
114
         }
115
         forwardfourier(K,K_);
116
117
         // The norm of the tail is found. Use of the function ind for a reindexing is
118
             made since we are working Fourier coefficients
         for (int i=0; i<2; i++){
119
           tail[i] = cabs(K_{-}[i][ind(-Ngrid/2)]);
120
121
           for (int j=Ngrid/4; j<Ngrid/2; j++){
122
                tail[i] += cabs(K_{-}[i][ind(j)]) + cabs(K_{-}[i][ind(-j)]);
123
           }
         }
124
         // An average of the tail is computed
125
126
         tail[0] = tail[0] / (long double) (Ngrid/2);
127
         tail[1] = tail[1]/(long double)(Ngrid/2);
128
        while (tail [0] > tol || tail [1] > tol); 
129
       printf("Ngrid=%d\n", Ngrid);
130
       // We store in DK_{\text{-}} the coefficients of the derivative of K(\ \ beta) and in DK the
131
           values of this derivative evaluated at each \theta
132
       long double complex *DK[2], *DK_[2];
133
      DK[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
134
      DK[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
135
       DK_[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
136
       DK_[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
137
       derivatefourier (K_,DK_);
138
       backwardfourier(DK_,DK);
139
140
       // Find the error function evaluating the functional equation
141
142
       long double complex *EK[2];
143
      EK[0] = (long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
144
      EK[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
145
146
       long double norm;
```

```
147
       long double maxEK;
       \max EK = 0;
148
149
150
       for (int j=0; j < Ngrid; j++){
          x[0] = K[0][j];
151
         x\,[\,1\,]\!=\!K\,[\,1\,]\,[\,j\,]\,;
152
153
          long double f[2];
154
          field (x, f);
          EK[0][j] = f[0] - DK[0][j] * omega;
155
          EK[1][j] = f[1] - DK[1][j] * omega;
156
157
          norm=hypotl(EK[0][j],EK[1][j]);
158
          if (norm>maxEK) {
              maxEK=norm;
159
160
          }
161
       }
162
          \operatorname{space}(1);
163
          printf("maxEK=%.2Le\n", maxEK);
164
165
       space(2);
166
167
168
       printf("Looking_for_N_and_lambdan");
169
       printf("-
                                           —\n");
170
       space(1);
171
172
       long double complex *N[2], *N_{-}[2];
173
       N[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
174
       N[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
       N_[0] = (long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
175
       N_[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
176
177
178
       long double vareqn[6];
       long double lambda=0;
179
       long double taux;
180
181
       long double vaux[2];
182
       long double V[2];
183
       long double M[2][2];
184
185
       // Integrate backwards variational equations together with the flux for one period.
186
       vareqn[0] = K[0][0];
187
       vareqn[1] = K[1][0];
188
       vareqn[2] = 1.;
189
       vareqn[3] = 0.;
190
       \operatorname{vareqn}[4] = 0.;
191
       vareqn[5] = 1.;
192
       t = 0;
193
       tau=0;
194
          for (int j=1; j<Ngrid+1; j++){
195
              tau-=T/(long double)Ngrid;
196
              do{
197
                   finished=taylor_step_inapikvariational(&t, vareqn, -1, 1, log10tol,
                       log10rtol, &tau, &h, &order);
              } while (finished !=1);
198
              // The integration is performed at intervals of T/Ngrid and after each step
199
                   we force the point to stay in the orbit since we are integrating backwards
                    and the problem is very unstable
200
              \operatorname{vareqn}[0] = K[0] [\operatorname{Ngrid}-j];
201
              \operatorname{vareqn}[1] = K[1] [\operatorname{Ngrid}-j];
```

```
202
          }
203
204
       M[0][0] = vareqn[2];
205
       M[0][1] = vareqn[3];
206
       M[1][0] = vareqn[4];
207
       M[1][1] = vareqn[5];
208
       // Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the matrix M, which is the differential
209
             of the flux after one cycle has been completed.
210
211
       long double det=M[0][0]*M[1][1]-M[1][0]*M[0][1];
212
       long double tr=M[0][0]+M[1][1];
213
214
       long double eigval1=tr/2+sqrt(tr*tr/4-det);
215
       long double eigval2=tr/2-sqrt(tr*tr/4-det);
216
217
       if (eigval1 < eigval2) {
218
          aux=eigval1;
219
          eigval1=eigval2;
220
          eigval2=aux;
221
       }
222
       // eigval2 must be 1 and eigval1 must be e^{lambda*T}
223
       printf("eigval1=\%20.12Lf\n", eigval1);
224
       printf("eigval2=\%20.12Lf\n", eigval2);
225
226
227
       lambda=-log(eigval1)*omega;
228
229
       vaux[0] = M[1][0];
230
       \operatorname{vaux}[1] = \operatorname{eigval1} - M[0][0];
231
       norm=sqrt (vaux [0] * vaux [0] + vaux [1] * vaux [1] );
232
       \operatorname{vaux}[0] / = \operatorname{norm};
233
       \operatorname{vaux}[1]/=\operatorname{norm};
234
        printf("%20.12Lf____%20.12Lf\n", vaux[0], vaux[1]);
235
236
       // We store the stable vector in N(\text{theta}=0)
237
238
       N[0][0] = vaux[0];
239
       N[1][0] = vaux[1];
240
241
       printf("lambda=\%20.12Lf\n", lambda);
242
       \operatorname{space}(1);
243
244
       // Propagate N(0) backwards under the differential of the flux to find N(theta)
245
246
       \operatorname{vareqn}[0] = K[0][0];
247
       vareqn[1]=K[1][0];
       vareqn[2] = 1.;
248
249
       vareqn[3] = 0.;
250
       vareqn[4] = 0.;
251
       vareqn[5] = 1.;
252
       t = 0;
253
       tau=0;
254
       long double maxnorm=1;
       for (int j=1; j<Ngrid; j++){
255
256
          tau-=T/(long double)Ngrid;
         do{
257
258
            finished=taylor_step_inapikvariational(&t, vareqn, -1, 1, log10tol, log10rtol,
```

```
&tau, &h, &order);
259
          } while (finished!=1);
260
          \operatorname{vareqn}[0] = K[0] [\operatorname{Ngrid}-j];
261
          vareqn[1] = K[1] [Ngrid-j];
262
263
          M[0][0] = vareqn[2];
264
          M[0][1] = vareqn[3];
265
          M[1][0] = vareqn[4];
266
          M[1][1] = vareqn[5];
267
268
          vaux[0] = N[0][0];
269
          vaux[1] = N[1][0];
270
          matrixvector2(M, vaux);
271
272
          // We apply the differential of the flux to N(0) to obtain N(\text{theta}), since we
               know that isochrons go to isochrons under the flux
273
          N[0][Ngrid-j]=vaux[0]*exp(-lambda*tau);
274
          N[1][Ngrid-j]=vaux[1]*exp(-lambda*tau);
275
276
            norm=hypotl(N[0][Ngrid-j],N[1][Ngrid-j]);
277
             if (norm>maxnorm) {
278
                 maxnorm=norm;
279
             }
280
281
        }
282
283
        // Check that with one more step we obtain N(0) again
284
        tau-=T/(long_double)Ngrid;
285
        do{
          finished=taylor_step_inapikvariational(&t, vareqn, -1, 1, log10tol, log10rtol, &
286
               tau, &h, &order);
287
        } while (finished!=1);
288
289
       M[0][0] = vareqn[2];
290
       M[0][1] = vareqn[3];
291
       M[1][0] = vareqn[4];
292
       M[1][1] = vareqn[5];
293
294
        vaux[0] = N[0][0];
295
        vaux[1] = N[1][0];
296
        matrixvector2(M, vaux);
297
        \operatorname{vaux}[0] * = \exp(-\operatorname{lambda} * \operatorname{tau});
298
        \operatorname{vaux}[1] * = \exp(-\operatorname{lambda} * \operatorname{tau});
        printf("\%20.12Lf_{222}\%20.12Lf \ n", \ creall(N[0][0]), \ creall(N[1][0]));
299
300
        printf("\%20.12Lf_{222}\%20.12Lf/n", vaux[0], vaux[1]);
301
302
303
        // Normalise all the vectors N by the maximum norm
304
        for (int j=0; j<Ngrid; j++){
305
               N\left[\,0\,\right]\left[\,j\,\right]/{=}maxnorm\,;
306
               N[1][j]/=maxnorm;
307
        }
308
309
310
        forwardfourier (N, N<sub>-</sub>);
311
        // As before we store in DN<sub>-</sub> the Fourier coefficients of the derivative of N and in
312
             DN the values of this derivative at each theta
```

```
313
       long double complex *DN[2], *DN_[2];
      DN[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
314
315
      DN[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
316
       DN_[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
317
       DN_[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
318
319
       derivate fourier (N_{-}, DN_{-});
320
       backwardfourier(DN_,DN);
321
322
       // Find the error function evaluating the functional equation for N and lambda
323
       long double complex *EN[2];
324
      EN[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
      EN[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
325
326
327
       long double maxEN;
328
       maxEN=0;
329
330
       for (int j=0; j<Ngrid; j++){
         long double df[2][2];
331
         x[0] = K[0][j];
332
333
         x[1] = K[1][j];
334
         V[0] = N[0][j];
335
         V[1] = N[1][j];
336
         dfield(x,df);
337
         matrixvector2(df,V);
338
         EN[0][j]=V[0]-lambda*N[0][j]-DN[0][j]*omega;
339
         EN[1][j]=V[1]-lambda*N[1][j]-DN[1][j]*omega;
340
         norm=hypotl(EN[0][j],EN[1][j]);
341
         if (norm>maxEN) {
             maxEN=norm;
342
343
         }
344
345
       }
346
       space(2);
347
       printf("maxEN=\%.2Le\n", maxEN);
348
349
       space(2);
350
351
352
       printf("Refining_solutions_for_K, N, Lomega, Llambda\n");
       printf("
353
                                                            –\n"):
354
       space(1);
355
356
       int d=0;
357
       do{
            // The substep for K and omega is applied
358
359
            qNewton_K_step(\&lambda,\&omega,K,N,DK,EK);
360
            // The values are refreshed
361
            T=1./omega;
362
            printf("\%20.12Lf\n", creall(K[0][0]));
            forwardfourier(K, K_);
363
364
            derivatefourier (K_, DK_);
            backwardfourier(DK_,DK);
365
            // The error function EK is refreshed
366
367
            maxEK=0;
368
            for (int j=0; j<Ngrid; j++){
369
                x[0] = K[0][j];
370
                x[1] = K[1][j];
```

```
371
                 long double f[2];
372
                 field (x, f);
373
                 EK[0][j] = f[0] - DK[0][j] * omega;
374
                 EK[1][j] = f[1] - DK[1][j] * omega;
375
                 norm=hypotl(EK[0][j],EK[1][j]);
376
                 if (norm>maxEK) {
377
                      maxEK=norm;
378
                 }
379
             }
             printf("maxEK=\%.2Le\n", maxEK);
380
             // The errors function EN is refreshed to the mid-value
381
382
             for (int j=0; j<Ngrid; j++){
383
                  long double df[2][2];
384
                  x[0] = K[0][j];
385
                  x[1] = K[1][j];
386
                  V[0] = N[0][j];
387
                  V[1] = N[1][j];
388
                  dfield(x,df);
389
                  matrixvector2(df,V);
                  EN[0][j]=V[0]-lambda*N[0][j]-DN[0][j]*omega;
390
391
                  EN[1][j]=V[1]-lambda*N[1][j]-DN[1][j]*omega;
392
              }
393
              // The substep for N and lambda is applied
394
              qNewton_N_step(&lambda,&omega,K,N,DK,DN,EN);
395
              // The values are refreshed
              printf("\%20.12Lf\n", lambda);
396
397
              forwardfourier (N, N_);
              derivatefourier (N_,DN_);
398
399
              backwardfourier(DN_,DN);
              // The error function E\!N is refreshed
400
              maxEN=0;
401
              for (int j=0; j < Ngrid; j++){
402
403
                  long double df[2][2];
404
                  x[0] = K[0][j];
405
                  x[1] = K[1][j];
406
                  V[0] = N[0][j];
407
                  V[1] = N[1][j];
408
                  dfield(x,df);
409
                  matrixvector2(df,V);
410
                  EN[0][j]=V[0]-lambda*N[0][j]-DN[0][j]*omega;
                  EN[1][j]=V[1]-lambda*N[1][j]-DN[1][j]*omega;
411
412
                  norm=hypotl(EN[0][j],EN[1][j]);
413
                  if (norm>maxEN) {
414
                       maxEN=norm;
415
                  }
416
               }
417
              printf("maxEN=\%.2Le \setminus n", maxEN);
418
              d++;
         while(d<10);
419
420
421
422
423
424
       destroyfourier();
425
       free(K[0]);
426
       free (K[1]);
427
       free (K_{-}[0]);
428
       free(K_{-}[1]);
```

429

```
free(DK[0]);
       free(DK[1]);
430
431
       free(DK_{-}[0]);
432
       free(DK_{-}[1]);
       free(EK[0]);
433
       free(EK[1]);
434
435
436
       free(N[0]);
437
       free(N[1]);
       free (N_{-}[0]);
438
       free(N_{-}[1]);
439
440
       free(DN[0]);
441
       free(DN[1]);
442
       free(DN_{-}[0]);
443
       free(DN_{-}[1]);
444
       free(EN[0]);
445
       free (EN[1]);
446
447
       space(2);
448
449
       return 0;
450
     }
451
452
453
454
     void checkpoint(){
       static int countercheck=1;
455
       printf("THIS_IS_CHECKPOINT_NUMBER_%d\n", countercheck);
456
457
       countercheck++;
     }
458
459
460
461
     void space(int n){
462
463
       for (int i=0; i<n; i++){
464
         printf(" \ n");
465
       }
466
     }
467
468
469
470
     // The field evaluated at vector x and stored in vector f
471
     void field(long double *x, long double *f){
         long double minfi=1.+exp(-(x[0]-Vmaxm)/km);
472
473
         long double minf=1./minfi;
474
         long double ninfi=1.+exp(-(x[0]-Vmaxn)/kn);
475
         long double ninf=1./ninfi;
476
         f[0] = (current - gNa * minf * (x[0] - VNa) - gK * x[1] * (x[0] - VK) - gL * (x[0] - VL))/C;
477
         f[1] = ninf - x[1];
478
    }
479
480
481
     // The differential of the field is evaluated at vector x and stored in matrix df
482
     void dfield(long double *x, long double df[2][2]){
483
484
       long double minfi=1.+exp(-(x[0]-Vmaxm)/km);
485
       long double minf=1./minfi;
486
       long double ninfi=1.+exp(-(x[0]-Vmaxn)/kn);
```

```
487
       long double ninf=1./ninfi;
488
       long double dminf_dV=(minf-minf*minf)/km;
489
       long double dninf_dV=(ninf-ninf*ninf)/kn;
490
       df[0][0] = (-gNa*minf-gNa*(x[0]-VNa)*dminf_dV-gK*x[1]-gL)/C;
       df[1][0] = (-gK*(x[0]-VK))/C;
491
492
       df[0][1] = dninf_dV;
493
       df[1][1] = -1.;
494
     }
495
496
497
     // Computes the result of applying M to v and stores the result in v
498
     void matrixvector2(long double M[2][2], long double *v){
499
500
       long double vaux [2];
501
       \operatorname{vaux}[0] = \operatorname{v}[0];
502
       vaux[1] = v[1];
503
       v[0] = vaux[0] * M[0][0] + vaux[1] * M[1][0];
504
       v[1] = vaux[0] * M[0][1] + vaux[1] * M[1][1];
505
     }
506
507
508
509
     // Applies the inverse of matrix M to v and stores the result in v
510
     void invmatrixvector2(long double M[2][2], long double *v){
       long double det=M[0][0]*M[1][1]-M[0][1]*M[1][0];
511
       long double vaux[2];
512
       \operatorname{vaux}[0] = \operatorname{v}[0];
513
       vaux[1] = v[1];
514
       v[0] = vaux[0] * M[1][1] - vaux[1] * M[1][0];
515
       v[1] = -vaux[0] *M[0][1] + vaux[1] *M[0][0];
516
517
       v[0]/=det;
       v[1] / = det;
518
519
     }
520
521
522
     // If x is in the Poincare section at V=-40 applies to it the Poincare map, if it is
523
         not it lets it evolve under the flux until the Poincare section is reached anyway
524
     long double poincaremap(long double *x){
525
       long double tau=0;
526
       long double h=0;
527
       int order=20;
528
       long double taux;
529
       long double xaux[2];
530
       // Right semicycle if needed
531
532
       while (x[0] > = -40. - tol) {
533
         taylor_step_inapik(&tau, x, 1,1, log10tol, log10rtol, NULL, &h, &order);
534
       }
535
       // It approaches the Poincare section and stops with xaux right before and x right
536
            after
       do{
537
         \operatorname{xaux}[0] = x[0];
538
539
         xaux[1] = x[1];
540
         taux=tau;
541
         taylor_step_inapik(&tau, x, 1,1, log10tol, log10rtol, NULL, &h, &order);
542
       while(x[0] < -40);
```

```
543
544
       x[0] = xaux[0];
545
       x[1] = xaux[1];
546
       tau=taux;
547
       // Newton to obtain tau and the return point to the Poincare section.
548
549
       long double delta=0;
550
       long double t=h;
       long double **a;
551
       do{
552
553
         taux=0;
         \operatorname{xaux}[0] = x[0];
554
555
         xaux[1] = x[1];
         taylor_step_inapik(&taux, xaux, 1, 0, log10tol, log10rtol, NULL, &t, &order);
556
557
         /* a=taylor_coeficients_inapik (t, x, order) gives a two dim array. The rows are
             the taylor coefficients of order i of the state variables */
558
         /* a[0][0] and a[1][0] are x[0] and x[1] */
         /* a [0][1] and a [1][1] are the components of the field in (a [0][0], a [1][0]) */
559
         /* a[][2] gives the second order coefficients, which are the derivatives times 2!
560
              */
561
         /* ... */
562
         a=taylor_coefficients_inapik(0, xaux, 1);
563
         delta = (xaux[0] - (-40.)) / (a[0][1]);
564
         t=t-delta;
         // Ensure that t is < dstep (the last step taken for which the taylor step was
565
             precise enough
566
         if(fabs(t)>fabs(h)){
           printf("\nLittle_problem:_t>last_step:_t-h=%20.12Le\n\n", t-h);
567
         }
568
       while (fabs (xaux [0] - (-40)) > tol / 100.);
569
570
       \mathbf{x}[0] = \mathbf{xaux}[0];
       x[1] = xaux[1];
571
572
       tau=tau+t;
573
574
       return tau;
575
     }
576
577
578
579
     void createfourier(){
       in=(fftwl_complex *) fftwl_malloc(sizeof(fftwl_complex)*Ngrid);
580
581
       out=(fftwl_complex *) fftwl_malloc(sizeof(fftwl_complex)*Ngrid);
582
       planfor=fftwl_plan_dft_1d(Ngrid, in, out, FFTW_FORWARD, FFTW_ESTIMATE);
583
       planback=fftwl_plan_dft_1d (Ngrid, in, out, FFTW_BACKWARD, FFTW_ESTIMATE);
584
     }
585
586
587
     void destroyfourier(){
588
       fftwl_destroy_plan(planback);
589
       fftwl_destroy_plan(planfor);
590
       fftwl_free(in);
591
       fftwl_free(out);
592
593 }
594
595
596
    // Computation of the forward Fourier transform of the vector array IN. The result is
597
```

```
stored in OUT. Note that the result is divided by Ngrid
598
     void forwardfourier(long double complex **IN, long double complex **OUT){
       int i;
599
600
       for (i=0; i<Ngrid; i++){
601
         in[i] = IN[0][i];
602
       }
603
       fftwl_execute(planfor);
       for(i=0; i<Ngrid; i++){
604
605
         OUT[0][i]=out[i]/Ngrid;
606
       }
607
608
       for (i=0; i<Ngrid; i++){
609
         in [i]=IN [1][i];
610
       }
611
       fftwl_execute(planfor);
612
       for (i=0; i<Ngrid; i++){
613
         OUT[1][i]=out[i]/Ngrid;
614
       }
615
     }
616
617
618
     // Computation of the backward Fourier transform of the vector array IN. The result
619
         is stored in OUT
     void backwardfourier (long double complex **IN, long double complex **OUT) {
620
       int i;
621
622
       for (i=0; i<Ngrid; i++){
         in[i] = IN[0][i];
623
624
       }
625
       fftwl_execute(planback);
626
       for (i=0; i<Ngrid; i++){
         OUT[0][i] = out[i];
627
628
       }
       for (i=0; i<Ngrid; i++){
629
630
         in [i]=IN [1] [i];
631
       }
632
       fftwl_execute(planback);
633
       for (i=0; i<Ngrid; i++){
634
         OUT[1][i] = out[i];
635
       }
636
     }
637
638
639
640
     // Derivation of the function K(theta). We have the Fourier coefficients of this
         function in K_ and this function stores the coefficients of the derivative in DK_.
          Note that the Nyquist coefficient is set to 0.
641
     void derivatefourier(long double complex **K_, long double complex **DK_){
       DK_{-}[0][ind(-Ngrid/2)]=0.*K_{-}[0][ind(-Ngrid/2)];
642
       DK_{-}[1][ind(-Ngrid/2)]=0.*K_{-}[1][ind(-Ngrid/2)];
643
       for (int j=-Ngrid/2; j<Ngrid/2; j++){
644
         DK_{-}[0][ind(j)] = 2.*M_{-}PI*j*I*K_{-}[0][ind(j)];
645
         DK_{1}[1][ind(j)] = 2.*M_{PI}*j*I*K_{1}[1][ind(j)];
646
647
       }
     }
648
649
650
651
```

```
// Reindexing. Given an index i between -N/2 and N/2-1 (Fourier coefficients) and it
652
        returns the corresponding index for the arrays given by the forward Fourier
        transform by FFTW
    int ind(int i){
653
      if(i \ge 0 \&\& i < Ngrid/2){
654
655
         return i;
656
      }else if (i<0 && i>-Ngrid/2-1){
657
        return i+Ngrid;
      else{
658
         printf("The_index_is_out_of_the_boundary\n");
659
660
         exit(-1);
661
      }
662
    }
663
664
665
    // quasiNewton substep for K and omega
666
    void qNewton_K_step(long double *lambda, long double *omega, long double complex **K,
667
         long double complex **N, long double complex **DK, long double complex **EK) {
668
         long double vaux [2];
669
         long double M[2][2];
670
        long double complex *frame [2][2];
671
        frame[0][0] = (long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
672
        frame[0][1] = (long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
        frame[1][0] = (long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
673
        frame[1][1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
674
675
        long double complex *EKframe[2];
        EKframe[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
676
        EKframe[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
677
678
        long double complex *EKframe_[2];
        EKframe_[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
679
        EKframe_[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
680
681
        long double complex *DeltaKframe[2];
682
        DeltaKframe[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
683
        DeltaKframe[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
684
        long double complex *DeltaKframe_[2];
685
        DeltaKframe_[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid)
686
         DeltaKframe_[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid)
             ;
687
688
        long double deltaomega;
689
        long double complex *DeltaK[2];
690
        DeltaK[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
691
         DeltaK[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
692
693
694
695
         for (int j=0; j<Ngrid; j++){
696
697
             // Store the frame P for each value of theta. P=(K'|N)
698
             frame [0][0][j]=DK[0][j];
699
             frame [0][1][j]=DK[1][j];
700
701
             frame [1][0][j]=N[0][j];
702
             frame [1][1][j]=N[1][j];
703
             M[0][0] = frame[0][0][j];
704
            M[0][1] = frame[0][1][j];
```

```
M[1][0] = frame[1][0][j];
705
706
             M[1][1] = frame[1][1][j];
707
708
              \operatorname{vaux}[0] = \operatorname{EK}[0][j];
              \operatorname{vaux}[1] = \operatorname{EK}[1][j];
709
              // Apply P(-1) to the error function in order to find the error in the frame.
710
                   Index 0 corresponds to the correction in the tangent direction, while
                  index 1 corresponds to the correction in the direction of the stable
                  vector
711
              invmatrixvector2(M, vaux);
712
              EKframe [0][j] = vaux [0];
713
              EKframe [1] [j]=vaux [1];
714
         }
715
716
         // Fourier coefficients of the error in the frame
717
         forwardfourier(EKframe, EKframe_);
718
         // Find delta omega and the corrections of the Fourier coefficients in the frame
719
              according to the formulas
720
         deltaomega=EKframe_[0][ind(0)];
         for (int j=-Ngrid/2; j<Ngrid/2; j++){
721
722
              if(j!=0){
                  DeltaKframe_[0][ind(j)] = EKframe_[0][ind(j)]/(2*M_PI*I*j*(*omega));
723
724
              }else{
725
                  DeltaKframe_[0][ind(j)]=0;
726
              }
727
              DeltaKframe_{[1]}[ind(j)] = EKframe_{[1]}[ind(j)]/(2*M_PI*I*j*(*omega)-(*lambda));
         }
728
729
         // Obtain the correction in the frame at each theta from the correction of the
730
              Fourier coefficients via an inverse Fourier transform
731
         backwardfourier(DeltaKframe_, DeltaKframe);
732
         for (int j=0; j < Ngrid; j++){
733
734
             M[0][0] = frame[0][0][j];
735
             M[0][1] = frame[0][1][j];
736
             M[1][0] = frame[1][0][j];
737
             M[1][1] = frame[1][1][j];
738
              vaux[0] = DeltaKframe[0][j];
739
              vaux[1] = DeltaKframe[1][j];
740
              // Go back from the frame to the original coordinate system
741
              matrixvector2(M, vaux);
742
              DeltaK[0][j] = vaux[0];
743
              DeltaK[1][j]=vaux[1];
744
         }
745
         // Refresh values for K, omega
746
747
         for (int j=0; j < Ngrid; j++){
             K[0][j] + = DeltaK[0][j];
748
749
             K[1][j]+=DeltaK[1][j];
750
         }
         (*omega)+=deltaomega;
751
752
753
         free(frame[0][0]);
754
755
         free (frame [0] [1]);
756
         free(frame[1][0]);
757
         free(frame[1][1]);
```

```
free(EKframe[0]);
758
759
         free (EKframe [1]);
760
         free(EKframe_[0]);
761
         free(EKframe_[1]);
         free(DeltaKframe[0]);
762
         free(DeltaKframe[1]);
763
         free(DeltaKframe_[0]);
764
765
         free (DeltaKframe_[1]);
766
         free(DeltaK[0]);
767
         free (DeltaK [1]);
768
769
    }
770
771
772
773
    // quasiNewton substep for N and lambda (similar as before)
    void qNewton_N_step(long double *lambda, long double *omega, long double complex **K,
774
          long double complex **N, long double complex **DK, long double complex **DN, long
         double complex **EN) {
         long double vaux [2];
775
776
         long double M[2][2];
777
         long double complex *frame [2][2];
778
         frame[0][0] = (long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
779
         frame[0][1] = (long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
         frame[1][0] = (long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
780
         frame[1][1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
781
         long double complex *ENframe[2];
782
         ENframe[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
783
         ENframe[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
784
785
         long double complex *ENframe_[2];
         ENframe_[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
786
         ENframe_[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
787
788
         long double complex *DeltaNframe[2];
789
         DeltaNframe[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
790
         DeltaNframe[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
791
         long double complex *DeltaNframe_[2];
792
         DeltaNframe_[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid)
793
         DeltaNframe_[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid)
             ;
794
795
         long double deltalambda;
796
         long double complex *DeltaN[2];
797
         DeltaN[0]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
798
         DeltaN[1]=(long double complex *) malloc(sizeof(long double complex)*Ngrid);
799
800
801
         for (int j=0; j < Ngrid; j++){
802
             frame [0][0][j]=DK[0][j];
803
             frame [0][1][j]=DK[1][j];
804
             frame [1][0][j]=N[0][j];
805
806
             frame [1] [1] [j]=N [1] [j];
807
             M[0][0] = frame[0][0][j];
808
            M[0][1] = frame[0][1][j];
809
            M[1][0] = frame[1][0][j];
810
            M[1][1] = frame[1][1][j];
811
```

```
\operatorname{vaux}[0] = \operatorname{EN}[0][j];
812
813
               \operatorname{vaux}[1] = \operatorname{EN}[1][j];
814
               invmatrixvector2(M, vaux);
815
               ENframe[0][j]=vaux[0];
816
               ENframe [1][j]=vaux [1];
817
          }
818
819
          forwardfourier(ENframe, ENframe_);
820
821
          for (int j=-Ngrid/2; j<Ngrid/2; j++){
822
               DeltaNframe_{0}[0][ind(j)] = ENframe_{0}[0][ind(j)]/((*lambda)+2*M_{P}I*I*j*(*omega));
823
824
               if(j!=0){
                    DeltaNframe_[1][ind(j)] = ENframe_[1][ind(j)]/(2*M_PI*I*j*(*omega));
825
826
               else
827
                    deltalambda=ENframe_[1][ind(0)];
828
                    DeltaNframe_{-}[1][ind(j)]=0.;
829
               }
          }
830
831
          backwardfourier(DeltaNframe_,DeltaNframe);
832
833
834
          for (int j=0; j < Ngrid; j++){
835
              M[0][0] = frame[0][0][j];
              M[\,0\,]\,[\,1\,] = frame\,[\,0\,]\,[\,1\,]\,[\,j\,]\,;
836
              M[1][0] = frame[1][0][j];
837
              M[\,1\,]\,[\,1\,]=frame\,[\,1\,]\,[\,1\,]\,[\,j\,]\,;
838
839
               vaux[0] = DeltaNframe[0][j];
840
               vaux[1] = DeltaNframe[1][j];
               matrixvector2(M, vaux);
841
               DeltaN[0][j] = vaux[0];
842
843
               DeltaN[1][j]=vaux[1];
          }
844
845
846
          // Refresh values for N, lambda
847
          for (int j=0; j < Ngrid; j++){
848
               N[0][j]+=DeltaN[0][j];
849
               N[1][j] += Delta N[1][j];
850
          }
851
          (*lambda)+=deltalambda;
852
853
854
          free(frame[0][0]);
          free(frame[0][1]);
855
856
          free (frame [1][0]);
          free(frame[1][1]);
857
858
          free(ENframe[0]);
859
          free(ENframe[1]);
          free(ENframe_[0]);
860
          free (ENframe_[1]);
861
          free(DeltaNframe[0]);
862
          free (DeltaNframe [1]);
863
          free (DeltaNframe_[0]);
864
          free (DeltaNframe_[1]);
865
866
          free (DeltaN[0]);
867
868
          free (DeltaN[1]);
869
    }
```