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SYNCHRONIZATION OF ASYMPTOTICALLY PERIODIC BEHAVIORS IN COUNTABLE CELLULAR SYSTEMS

Laurent Gaubert and Pascal Redou

Abstract. We address the question of frequencies locking in coupled differential systems and of the existence of (component) quasi-periodic solutions of some kind of differential systems. These systems named "cellular systems" are quite general as they deal with countable number of coupled systems in some general Banach spaces. Moreover, the inner dynamics of each subsystem does not have to be specified. We reach some general results about how the frequencies locking phenomenon is related to the structure of the coupling map, and therefore about the localization of a certain type of quasi-periodic solutions of differential systems that may be seen as cellular systems. This paper gives some explanations about how and why synchronized behaviors naturally occur in a wide variety of complex systems.

Keywords. Coupled systems, synchronization, frequencies locking, quasi-periodic motions, differential systems, asymptotically periodic.

1 Introduction

Synchronization is an extremely important and interesting emergent property of complex systems. The first example found in literature goes back to the 17th century with Christiaan Huygens' work [11, 2]. This kind of emergent behavior can be found in artificial systems as well as in natural ones and at many scales (from cell to whole ecological systems). Biology abounds with periodic and synchronized phenomena and the work of Ilya Prigogine shows that such behaviors arise within specific conditions: a dissipative structure generally associated to a nonlinear dynamics [20]. Biological systems are open, they evolve far from thermodynamic equilibrium and are subject to numerous regulating processes, leading to highly nonlinear dynamics. Therefore periodic behaviors appear (with or without synchronization) at any scale [21]. More generally, life itself is governed by circadian rhythms [9]. Those phenomena are as much attractive as they are often spectacular: from cicadia populations that appear spontaneously every ten or thirteen years [10] or networks of heart cells that beat together [17] to huge swarms in which fireflies, gathered in a same tree, flash simultaneously [3].

This synchronization phenomenon occupies a privileged position among emergent collective phenomena because of its various applications in neuroscience, ecology, earth Science, for instance [27, 25, 16], as well as in the field of coupled dynamical systems, especially through the notion of synchronization of chaotic systems [18, 7] and the study of coupled-oscillators [13]. This wide source of examples leads the field of research to be highly interdisciplinary, from pure theory to concrete applications and experiments.

The classical concept of synchronization is related to the locking of the basic frequencies and instantaneous phases of regular oscillations. One of the most successful attempts to explore this emergent property is due to Kuramoto [14, 15]. As in Kuramoto's work, those questions are usually addressed by studying specific kinds of coupled systems (see for instance [5, 22, 8]). Using all the classical methods available in the field of dynamical systems, researchers study specific trajectories of those systems in order to get information on possible attracting synchronized state [28, 13, 22, 19, 8, 12].

The starting point of this work was the following question: “Why synchronization is such a widely present phenomena?” In order to give some mathematical answer to this question, the first step is to build a model of coupled systems that is biologically inspired. This is done in the second section where, after having described some basic material, we define what we name cellular systems and cellular coupler. If one would summarize the specificities of cellular systems, one could say that each cell (subsystem) of a cellular system receives information from the whole population (the coupled system) according to some constraints:

- a cell has access to linear transformations of all the others cell’s states
- the way this information is gathered depends (not linearly) on the cell’s state itself

In other words, a cell interprets its own environment via the states of the whole population and according to its own state.

It is a bit surprising that despite this model arises very naturally, it gives a good framework to address the main
question. Indeed, in the third section we expose a localization result concerning some periodic and asymptotically periodic trajectories of cellular systems. It exhibits some links between the coupler properties and the structure of periodic trajectories.

The fourth section gives some example of general results that may be proved using the localization lemma. Moreover, it goes out of the scope of coupled systems as synchronization is strongly related to the more abstract field of dynamical systems. If one thinks about presence of regular attractors (in opposition with strange attractors) in a differential system, one may for example classify those as:

- point attractor
- limit cycle
- limit torus

Those attractors can be related to coupled systems in an obvious way: roughly speaking, a point attractor may be seen as a solution of coupled systems for which each of the subsystems has a constant behavior. Similarly, a limit cycle may be thought as the situation where every subsystem oscillates, all frequencies among the whole system being locked. A limit torus is a similar situation which differs from the previous one by the fact that the frequencies are not locked (non commensurable periods of a quasi-periodic solution of the whole coupled system). Hence, the three previous cases may be translated into the coupled dynamical systems context:

- point attractor ↔ constant trajectories
- limit cycle ↔ periodic trajectories, locked frequencies
- limit torus ↔ periodic trajectories, unlocked frequencies

Therefore, we deduce some results about the localization of solutions of the third type, quasi-periodic solutions, using the point of view of coupled dynamical systems. The results of this fourth section may help to understand why the second case is the most observed in natural systems, which may be seen as coupled dynamical systems (many levels). Indeed, the section ends with a sketch of how the cellular systems point of view may be applied to a wide class of differential systems in order to systematically address those questions with algebraic tools.

2 Basic material and notations

As our model is inspired by cellular tissues, some terms clearly come from the vocabulary used to describe this kind of complex systems.

### 2.1 Model of population behavior

Here are the basic compounds and notations of our model:

A population $\mathcal{I}$ is a countable set, so we may consider it as a subset $\mathcal{I} \subset \mathbb{N}$. Moreover, only the cardinality of $\mathcal{I}$ matters, so $\mathcal{I}$ may be chosen as an interval of integers. Elements of $\mathcal{I}$ are called cells.

We suppose that the systems we want to study are valued in some Banach spaces. Thus, for any $i \in \mathcal{I}$, $(E_i, \|\|_i)$ is a Banach space, and the state space of $\mathcal{I}$ is the vector space $\mathcal{S} = \prod_{i \in \mathcal{I}} E_i$.

We will sometimes identify $E_i$ with

$$\prod_{j < i} \{0\} \times E_i \times \prod_{j > i} \{0\} \subset \mathcal{S}$$

and then consider it as a subspace of $\mathcal{S}$ (in case one the inequalities $j < i$ or $i < j$ is empty, this identification remains valid as the void product is the empty mapping).

Moreover, $\mathcal{S}$ has a natural structure of module on $\mathbb{R}^\mathcal{I}$, given $\lambda : \mathcal{I} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in \mathcal{S}$, one may define $\lambda x$ as:

$$\lambda x = (\lambda(i)x_i)_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$$

We denote $\mathcal{S}_0$ the space of uniformly bounded states:

$$\mathcal{S}_0 = \left\{ x \in \mathcal{S}, \sup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \| x_i \| < \infty \right\}$$

This subspace will sometimes be useful as, embodied with the norm $\|x\|_\infty = \sup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \| x_i \|$, it is a Banach space, allowing the classic Picard-Lindelöf theorem to be valid.

Given an interval $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$, a trajectory $x$ of $\mathcal{I}$ is an element of $C^\infty(\Omega, \mathcal{S})$. Such an $x$ is then described by a family of smooth applications $(x_i)_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$ such that $\forall i \in \mathcal{I}$:

$$x_i : \Omega \longrightarrow E_i$$

$$t \longmapsto x_i(t)$$

Each cell $i$ is supposed to behave according to an autonomous differential system given by a vector field $F_i : E_i \to E_i$. Thus, given a family of functions $\{F_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$ we define the vector field $F_\mathcal{I}$ on $\mathcal{S}$:

$$F_\mathcal{I} : \mathcal{S} \longrightarrow \mathcal{S}$$

$$x \longmapsto F_\mathcal{I}(x)$$

where, for any $i \in \mathcal{I}$:

$$[F_\mathcal{I}(x)]_i = F_i(x_i)$$

A period on $\mathcal{I}$ is a map $\tau : \mathcal{I} \to \mathbb{R}^*_+$. A trajectory $x$ is said to be component $\tau$-periodic (CP$(\tau)$) if for any $i \in \mathcal{I}$, $x_i$ is $\tau(i)$-periodic and non constant.
In that case, $\tau(i)$ is a period of the cell $i$. If $\tau$ is bounded, a CP($\tau$) trajectory which is not (globally) periodic is said to be component $\tau$-quasi-periodic (CQP($\tau$)).

A trajectory $x$ is said to be asymptotically component $\tau$-periodic (aCQP($\tau$)) if there exists $y$ which is CP($\tau$) and $\alpha$ which vanishes when $t \to +\infty$ such that

$$x = y + \alpha$$

In a similar way we define an asymptotically component $\tau$-quasi-periodic trajectory (aCQP($\tau$)).

**Remark 2.1.** We stress the point that a period of a component periodic trajectory needs not to be a minimal period ($\tau(i)$ is not necessarily a generator of the group of periods of $x_i$). Nevertheless, the definition of CP($\tau$) trajectories avoids any trajectory which contains some constant component (none of the $x_i$ can be a constant map) as they may be seen as degenerate (localized into an “hyperplane” of $S$).

We recall that a (finite) subset $\{\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_k\}$ of $\mathbb{R}$ is said to be rationally dependent if there exists some integers $l_1, \ldots, l_k$ non all zero and such that:

$$l_1 \tau_1 + \ldots + l_k \tau_k = 0$$

Thus there exists a unique lowest common multiple (lcm) $\tau_0$ for which there exists $n_1, \ldots, n_k$ such that:

$$n_1 \tau_1 = \ldots = n_k \tau_k = \tau_0$$

An infinite set of real numbers is said to be rationally dependent if any finite subset is rationally dependent.

Now, any period $\tau$ on $\mathcal{I}$ defines an equivalence relation on $\mathcal{I}$ as:

$$i \sim j \iff_\tau \{\tau(i), \tau(j)\} \text{ is a dependent set}$$

Hence we may consider the partition $\mathcal{I}/\tau$ of $\mathcal{I}$ into equivalence classes ($K$ countable):

$$\mathcal{I}/\tau = \{\mathcal{I}_k\}_{k \in K}$$

Let $M = (m_{ij})_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{I}^2}$ be a matrix indexed on $\mathcal{I}^2$, if $J = \{I_1, \ldots, I_K\}$ is a partition of $\mathcal{I}$, we define $M/J$ as the projection of $M$ on the space of matrices with null coefficients on the $I_k^2$ (see figure 1):

$$M/J = [(M/J)_{ij}]_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{I}^2}$$

with

$$M/J_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (i,j) \in I_1^2 \cup \ldots \cup I_K^2 \\ m_{ij} & \text{if not} \end{cases}$$

If $\tau$ is a period on $\mathcal{I}$, we will write $M/\tau$ instead of $M/(\mathcal{I}/\tau)$.

![Figure 1: Projection of a matrix according to a partition of $\mathcal{I}$](image)

### 2.2 Cellular coupler and cellular systems

In this section we build what we call cellular systems by means of cellular coupler. Most of the works in the field of synchronization deal with a specific way of coupling dynamical systems: one adds a quantity (that models interactions between subsystems) to the derivative of the systems. This leads to equations with the following typical shape (here, there are only two coupled systems):

\begin{align*}
x'_1(t) &= F(x_1(t)) + G_1(x_1(t), x_2(t)) \\
x'_2(t) &= F(x_2(t)) + G_2(x_1(t), x_2(t))
\end{align*}

The functions $G_1$ and $G_2$ are the coupling functions. The problem is then restated in terms of phase-shift variables and efforts are made to detect stable states and to prove their stability.

Our approach is somewhat different. We study exclusively a way of coupling where the exchanges are made on the current state of the system. This means that the coupling quantity applies inside the map $F$, which leads us to the following type of equation:

\begin{align*}
x'_1(t) &= F(x_1(t) + H_1(x_1(t), x_2(t))) \\
x'_2(t) &= F(x_2(t) + H_2(x_1(t), x_2(t)))
\end{align*}

**Remark 2.2.** We stress the point that those two different ways of handling coupled systems are quite equivalent in most cases. Indeed, starting with equation (1), as soon as $G_1$ and $G_2$ stay in the range of $F$ (which is likely if the coupling functions are small), we can rewrite them in the second shape of equation (2) involving some functions $H_1$ and $H_2$.

The last type of coupled systems is sometimes studied (for instance in [12]) but never broadly (indeed, if one wants some quantitative results about convergence of trajectories, one must work with specific equations and dynamical systems). Even in a few papers that are quite
general (as the very interesting [24]) some strong assumptions are made (in [24] authors deal with symmetric periodic solutions). The kind of coupled systems we handle is a generalization of the one described in equation (2). Its general shape is:

\[ x_i'(t) = F_i \left( \sum_{j \in I} c_{ij}(x_i(t))x_j(t) \right) \]

Each cell \( i \in I \) owns its own differential system represented by a map \( F_i \). Hence, all the dynamical systems are not necessarily identical, they do not even have the same shape. Moreover, we will not assume that they are weakly coupled (as in the classical paper of Art Winfree [26]). We simply assume that a cell \( i \) “interprets” its own environment by means of functions \( c_{ij} \).

Now, before giving the exact definition of a cellular coupler, we recall that \( S \) may be seen as a module on the ring \( \prod_{i \in I} \mathcal{L}(E_i) (\mathcal{L}(A, B)) \) is the space of continuous linear operators from \( A \) to \( B \), written \( \mathcal{L}(A) \) if \( A = B \). Then, \( \mathcal{L}(S) \) has to be understood as the space of continuous linear operators on \( S \) with coefficients in the spaces \( \mathcal{L}(E_i, E_i) \). Any \( M \in \mathcal{L}(S) \) may then be written as an infinite (if \( I \) is not finite) matrix:

\[ M = [m_{ij}]_{(i,j) \in I^2}, \quad m_{ij} \in \mathcal{L}(E_j, E_i) \]

In this context, here is the definition of a cellular coupler on \( I \):

**Definition 2.1.** A cellular coupling map on \( I \) is a map

\[ c : S \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(S) \]

\[ x \rightarrow c(x) \]

such that the matrix \([c_{ij}]_{(i,j) \in I^2}\) satisfies:

1. \( \forall (i, j) \in I^2, \forall x \in S, \ c_{ij}(x) \) depends only on \( x_i \)

2. \( \forall i \in I, \forall x_i \in E_i, \sum_{j \in I} ||c_{ij}(x_i)||_i < +\infty \)

Then, \( c \) defines a cellular coupler \( \tilde{c} \) on \( I \) in the following way:

\[ \tilde{c} : S \rightarrow S \]

\[ x \rightarrow c(x).x \]

We will sometimes use the convenient following notation for the components of \( \tilde{c}(x) \):

\[ \tilde{c}(x)_i = c_i(x_i).x \]

(as the \( c_{ij}(x) \) depend only on \( x_i \)).

In other words (for the sake of simplicity, we only consider examples with a finite population), for any \( x \in S \), the matrix \( c(x) \) has the following shape:

\[ c(x) = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11}(x_1) & \cdots & c_{1k}(x_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{k1}(x_k) & \cdots & c_{kk}(x_k) \end{bmatrix} \]

And then :

\[ \tilde{c}(x) = c(x).x = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11}(x_1).x_1 + \ldots + c_{1k}(x_1).x_k \\ \vdots \\ c_{k1}(x_k).x_1 + \ldots + c_{kk}(x_k).x_k \end{bmatrix} \]

\[ \tilde{c}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} c_1(x_1).x \\ \vdots \\ c_k(x_k).x \end{bmatrix} \]

**Remark 2.3.** The second property in the previous definition insures a bounded convergence property on the \( c_i \) in the following sense: let us choose \( x_i \in E_i \) and \((y^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}\) a sequence in \( S_b \) that converges to \( y \in S_b \), then

\[ \lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} c_i(x_i).y^k = c_i(x_i).y \]

Moreover, we may also deduce that the \( c_i \) are continuous on \( E_i \), in the following way: if a sequence \((x^k_i)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}\) in \( E_i \) converges to \( x_i \) in \( E_i \) then for any \( y \in S_b \):

\[ \lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} c_i(x^k_i).y = c_i(x_i).y \]

Now we can define a cellular system:

**Definition 2.2.** Let \( F_I \) be a vector field on \( S \) given by a family \( \{F_i\}_{i \in I} \) of vector fields on the \( E_i \). Let \( \tilde{c} \) be a cellular coupler on \( I \). \((I, F_I, \tilde{c})\) is called a cellular system. A trajectory of this system satisfies:

\[ x' = F_I \circ \tilde{c}(x) = F_I(c(x).x) \]

in other words:

\[ \forall i \in I, \forall t \in \Omega, \quad x_i'(t) = F_i \left( \sum_{j \in I} c_{ij}(x_i(t)).x_j(t) \right) = F_i(c_i(x_i(t)).x(t)) \]

This equation may be naturally interpreted in biological terms: the cell \( i \) behaves according to a mean of the states of all other cells \( x_j \), but only its state defines how this mean is computed (the cell interprets its own environment), and this link state \( \leftrightarrow \) interpreting function has no reason to be linear in \( x_i \).

In the next section we expose algebraic links between a cellular coupler and a component periodic trajectory, and then we turn to our localization lemma.
3 Localization lemma

The forthcoming result can be used in many ways and generalized as, for the sake of simplicity, we did not use the weakest assumptions under which it holds (for example, the series convergence in the proof can be insured in many other contexts).

Lemma 3.1. Let \( (\mathcal{I}, F_{\mathcal{I}}, \tilde{c}) \) be a cellular system and \( \tau \) a period on \( \mathcal{I} \). Let \( U \subset S \) on which \( F_{\mathcal{I}} \) is injective. If \( x \in \mathcal{T}^\tau \) is a CP(\( \tau \)) trajectory of cellular system that satisfies:

1. \( x(\Omega) \subset S_0 \);
2. \( \tilde{c}(x)(\Omega) \subset U \)

then there exists \( b \in S_0 \) such that for any \( t \in \Omega \):

\[
x(t) - b \in \ker [c(x(t))/\tau]
\]

Remark 3.1. Note that the first condition on \( x \) is useless if \( \mathcal{I} \) is finite.

The previous result is not very practical as the right-hand side involves the trajectory \( x \) itself, which is unknown. As there is no ambiguity, we define the kernel of \( p_{\mathcal{I}(\tau)}(c) \) as:

\[
\ker (c/\tau) = \bigcup_{x \in S} \ker (c(x)/\tau)
\]

Hence we may give a weaker version of the previous lemma

Corollary 3.1. Under the conditions of lemma 3.1 there exists \( b \in S \) such that:

\[
x(\Omega) - b \in \ker (c/\tau)
\]

Before exposing the proof, it may be interesting to explain how we will use this result: let us suppose that a cellular system has a component periodic trajectory, if this trajectory is not component quasi-periodic, then the partition \( \mathcal{I}/\tau \) is trivial, and \( \ker (c/\tau) \) is the whole space \( S \). On the other hand, if this trajectory is component quasi-periodic, then \( \mathcal{I}/\tau \) is not trivial and \( \ker (c/\tau) \) may be smaller than \( S \). This is why we speak of localization (let us recall that a CP(\( \tau \)) has no constant components).

In the next section, among other things, we will study some simple cases where \( \ker (p_{\mathcal{I}(\tau)}(c)) \) is small enough to insure us that there is no component quasi-periodic trajectory.

Proof. (of lemma 3.1) First of all, let us check that \( \tilde{c}(x) \) is CP(\( \tau \)).

For any \( i \in \mathcal{I} \), \( x_i \) is \( \tau(i) \)-periodic and non constant for \( x_i \) is so. Writing \( U_i = U \cap E_i \), \( F_i \) has to be injective on \( U_i \). Hence, as \( x \) is a trajectory of the cellular system, \( F_i(\tilde{c}(x)) \) must be periodic and then \( \tilde{c}(x) \) is \( \tau(i) \)-periodic. Therefore, \( \tilde{c}(x) \) is CP(\( \tau \)).

Now, according to the partition \( \mathcal{I}(\tau) = \{ \mathcal{I}_k \}_{k \in K} \) defined by \( \tau \) (see section 2.1), let \( k \in K \) and \( i \in \mathcal{I}_k \). For any \( M \in \mathbb{N} \) we define the following set:

\[
\mathcal{I}^M_k = \mathcal{I}_k \cap [0, M]
\]

The set \( \tau (\mathcal{I}^M_k) \) is now a finite dependent set, so that we can consider its lcm \( \tau^M_k \). Now, for any \( j \in \mathcal{I}^M_k \), \( x_j \) and \( \tilde{c}(x_j) \) are \( \tau^M_j \)-periodic, so that, for any integer \( N \):

\[
\tilde{c}(x_j)(t) = \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{l=0}^N \tilde{c}(x_j)(t + l\tau^M_k)
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{l=0}^N c_i(x_j(t + l\tau^M_k)) \cdot x_j(t + l\tau^M_k)
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{l=0}^N c_i(x_j(t)) \cdot x(t + l\tau^M_k)
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{l=0}^N c_i(x_j(t)). \left[ I_{\mathcal{I}^M_k \cdot x(t + l\tau^M_k)} + I_{\mathcal{I}^M_k \cdot \tau^M_k \cdot x(t + l\tau^M_k)} \right]
\]

\[
= c_i(x_j(t)). \left[ I_{\mathcal{I}^M_k \cdot x(t)} + \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{l=0}^N I_{\mathcal{I}^M_k \cdot \tau^M_k \cdot x(t + l\tau^M_k)} \right]
\]

\[
+ c_i(x_j(t)). \left[ I_{\mathcal{I}^M_k \cdot x(t)} + \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{l=0}^N I_{\mathcal{I}^M_k \cdot \tau^M_k \cdot x(t + l\tau^M_k)} \right]
\]

from remark 2.3 it is easy to show that one has the following limits for the to first lines of the previous equation:

\[
\lim_{M \to +\infty} c_i(x_j(t)) \cdot \left[ I_{\mathcal{I}^M_k \cdot x(t)} = c_i(x_j(t)) \cdot x(t)
\]

\[
\lim_{M,N \to +\infty} c_i(x_j(t)) \cdot \left[ I_{\mathcal{I}^M_k \cdot \tau^M_k \cdot x(t)} = \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{l=0}^N x_j(t + l\tau^M_k) \right]
\]

\[
= 0
\]

Now, regarding the last line, as for all \( j \in \mathcal{I}_k \), \( \tau^M_k \) and \( \tau^M_j \) are non commensurable, if we denote \( \tau^j \) the minimal period of \( x_j \) (generator of its group of periods), as \( \tau^j = n_j \tau^j_j \) for a certain integer \( n_j \), \( \tau^M_k \) and \( \tau^M_j \) as well are non commensurable. Therefore, the sequence
\[
\left( \frac{t + lt_M}{\tau_j} \right)_{t \in \mathbb{N}} \text{ is equidistributed mod 1, and we may apply some classic ergodic theorem (see for instance [23, 4]) and write:}
\]

\[
\lim_{N \to +\infty} \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{i=0}^{N} x_j \left( t + lt_M \right) = \frac{1}{\tau_j} \int_{0}^{\tau_j} x_j(s) ds = \frac{n_j}{\tau(j)} \int_{0}^{\tau(j)} x_j(s) ds
\]

We can now define the state \( b \) as:

\[ b = [b_j]_{j \in I}, \quad b_j = \frac{n_j}{\tau(j)} \int_{0}^{\tau(j)} x_j(s) ds \]

Applying remark 2.3 once again, we find that:

\[
\lim_{N \to +\infty} c_i(x_i(t)) \left[ I_{G_x} \cdot \left( \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{i=0}^{N} x(t + lt_M) \right) \right] = c_i(x_i(t)) \left[ I_{G_x} \cdot b \right]
\]

hence, we have shown that:

\[
\tilde{c}(x_i(t)) = c_i(x_i(t)) \cdot \left[ I_{G_x} \cdot x(t) \right] + c_i(x_i(t)) \left[ I_{G_x} \cdot b \right]
\]

But, obviously, from the beginning we had:

\[
\tilde{c}(x_i(t)) = c_i(x_i(t)) \cdot \left[ I_{G_x} \cdot x(t) \right] + c_i(x_i(t)) \left[ I_{G_x} \cdot x(t) \right]
\]

So that:

\[
c_i(x_i(t)) \left[ I_{G_x} \cdot x(t) \right] = c_i(x_i(t)) \left[ I_{G_x} \cdot b \right]
\]

The previous work can be done for any \( i \) which belongs to \( I_{k} \), and for any \( k \in K \), hence we can conclude using our notations:

\[
(c(x(t))/\tau) \cdot (x(t) - b) = 0
\]

Which is exactly what we claimed.

\[ \Box \]

In order to study the synchronization phenomena, we need to extend the previous result to trajectories that converge to component (quasi) periodic trajectories. The structure of the previous result and the way it has been proved make this extension quite easy:

**Lemma 3.2.** Let \((I, F_{\tau}, \tilde{c})\) be a cellular system and \( \tau \) a period on \( I \). Let \( U \) be a closed subset of \( S \) on which \( F_{\tau} \) is injective. Let \( x \) be an \( aCP(\tau) \) trajectory

\[
x = y + \alpha, \quad y \in CP(\tau), \quad \lim_{t \to +\infty} \alpha(t) = 0
\]

We assume that:

1. \( x(\Omega) \subseteq S_b \);
2. \( \tilde{c}(x)(\Omega) \subseteq U \)

3. \( x' \) is \( aCP(\tau) \) (or equivalently: \( \lim_{t \to +\infty} \alpha'(t) = 0 \).

Then there exists \( b \in S_b \) such that for any \( t \in \Omega \):

\[
y(t) - b \in \ker [c(y(t))/\tau]
\]

and as well

\[
y(t) - b \in \ker [c/\tau]
\]

**Proof.** First of all, let us prove that \( \tilde{c}(x) \) is \( aCP(\tau) \). Let \( i \in I \), as \( x \) is a solution to the cellular system one has:

\[
x'_i(t) = y'_i(t) + \alpha'_i(t) = F_i(\tilde{c}(x_i(t)))
\]

As \( y_i \) is \( \tau(i) \)-periodic, \( y'_i \) is \( \tau(i) \)-periodic, hence, for any \( l \in \mathbb{Z} \):

\[
y'_i(t + k\tau(i)) + \alpha'_i(t + (l+k)\tau(i)) = F_i(\tilde{c}(x(t + k\tau(i))))
\]

So that, letting \( l \to +\infty \), we obtain

\[
y'_i(t) + \alpha'_i(t + l\tau(i)) \to F_i(\tilde{c}(x(t + l\tau(i))))
\]

As \( \alpha_i \) vanishes when \( t \to +\infty \), we know that the rhs has a limit when \( t \to +\infty \). By hypothesis, \( F_i \) is injective on \( U_i \) which is a closed set, this insures that \( x(t + l\tau(i)) \) has a limit as \( t \to +\infty \), we name this limit \( z_i(t) \). Now, for any \( k \in \mathbb{Z} \), on has:

\[
y'_i(t) + \alpha'_i(t + l\tau(i)) = F_i(\tilde{c}(x(t + l\tau(i))))
\]

As \( F_i \) is injective, this proves that \( z_i(t + k\tau(i)) = z_i(t) \), \( z_i \) is then \( \tau(i) \)-periodic. Hence, one may write

\[
\tilde{c}(x) = z(t) + \beta(t)
\]

where \( z \) is \( CP(\tau) \) and \( \lim_{t \to +\infty} \beta(t) = 0 \).

Now, we can write, if \( i \in I_k \) (for the sake of simplicity, we will not repeat the arguments involving some bounded lcm used in the previous proof):

\[
\frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{t=0}^{N} \tilde{c}(x_i(t) + l\tau(i))
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{t=0}^{N} c_i(x_i(t + l\tau(i))) \cdot (x(t + l\tau(i)))
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{t=0}^{N} c_i(x_i(t + l\tau(i))) \cdot (y_i(t + l\tau(i)) + \alpha_i(t + l\tau(i)))
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{t=0}^{N} c_i(x_i(t + l\tau(i))) \cdot (y_i(t + l\tau(i))) + o(1)
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{t=0}^{N} c_i(y_i(t) + \alpha_i(t + l\tau(i))) \cdot (I_{G_x} \cdot y_i(t))
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{t=0}^{N} c_i(y_i(t) + \alpha_i(t + l\tau(i))) \cdot (I_{G_x} \cdot y_i(t)) + o(1)
\]
Using the last part of remark 2.3, as 
\[ \lim_{t \to +\infty} \alpha_i (t + t_\tau) = 0, \]
we have:
\[ \frac{1}{N + 1} \sum_{l=0}^{N} \tilde{c}(x)_i (t + l \tau(i)) \]
\[ = \frac{1}{N + 1} \sum_{l=0}^{N} c_i (y_i(t)) \cdot (1_{E_i}.y_i(t)) \]
\[ + \frac{1}{N + 1} \sum_{l=0}^{N} c_i (y_i(t + l \tau(i))) \cdot (1_{E_k} \cdot y_i(t)) + o(1) \]
and:
\[ \lim_{N \to +\infty} \frac{1}{N + 1} \sum_{l=0}^{N} \tilde{c}(x)_i (t + l \tau(i)) = \tilde{c}(y)_i(t) \]
Using the similar arguments as in the previous proof, we find a vector \( b \in S_k \) satisfying:
\[ \tilde{c}(y)_i(t) = c_i (y_i(t)) \cdot [1_{E_i}.y(t) + 1_{E_k}.b] \]
Which leads to the conclusion. \( \square \)

In the next section we give some examples of results based upon those lemmas.

4 Applications

For the sake of simplicity, all along this section, when a result concerning component periodic trajectories obviously holds for component quasi-periodic ones, we will mention it while exposing the proof for the first case only.

4.1 Weakly injective coupler

In this example we just write down an elementary property of \( \tilde{c} \) which ensures that a CQP(\( \tau \)) trajectory must have an inert cell.

Definition 4.1. Let \( \tilde{c} \) be a cellular coupler on \( I \). \( \tilde{c} \) is said to be weakly injective if for any non trivial partition \( I(\tau) \) of \( I \) there exists \( i \in I \) such that:
\[ \forall x \in S, \ker (c(x)/\tau) \cap E_i = \{0\} \]
Now we can state a simple result:

Proposition 4.1. Under the conditions of lemma 3.1, if \( \tilde{c} \) is weakly injective and if \( x \) is a CP(\( \tau \)) or an aCP(\( \tau \)) trajectory of the cellular system, then \( \tau(I) \) is a dependent set.

Proof. Assume that \( I(\tau) \) is not trivial. Applying lemma 3.1 we know that there exists \( b \in S \) such that:
\[ c(x(t))/\tau. (x(t) - b) = 0 \]
As \( \tilde{c} \) is weakly injective, there exists \( i \in I \) such that:
\[ \forall t \in \Omega, \ x(t)i = b_i \]
which contradicts the definition of a component periodic trajectory. \( \square \)

This result may be restated in terms of component quasi-periodic solution of the cellular system:

Proposition 4.2. Under the conditions of lemma 3.1, if \( \tilde{c} \) is weakly injective and if \( \tau \) is bounded, the cellular system has neither CQP(\( \tau \)) nor aCQP(\( \tau \)) solution.

The next example deals with some topological properties of a coupler (how it connects cells together).

4.2 Chained cellular system

In this section, for the sake of simplicity, all vector spaces \( E_i \) have finite dimension.

We first study the case of differential systems for which the spaces \( E_i \) have same dimension and are coupled with \( k \)-nearest neighbors (the finite dimension condition is not necessary, but it makes the exposition simpler). This case is formally described by a cellular system \( (I, F_{\tau}, \tilde{c}) \) where \( I \) is countable, all \( \dim(E_i) = n \) and \( \tilde{c} \) satisfies:
\[ \forall i, j \in I, \ |j - i| > k \Rightarrow c_{ij} = 0 \]
This is what we call a chained cellular system. Adding the following condition on the coupler, we may reach a general result:

Definition 4.2. A cellular coupler \( \tilde{c} \) is said to have full rank if for any \( i, j \in I \) and \( x \in S \) the map \( c_{ij}(x) \) has full rank.

Proposition 4.3. Let \( (I, F_{\tau}, \tilde{c}) \) be a chained cellular system coupled with \( k \)-nearest neighbors, the \( E_i \) having same finite dimension. Let \( F_{\tau} \) be injective on \( U \subset S \) and \( x \) a CP(\( \tau \)) trajectory that stays in \( U \) (or aCP(\( \tau \)) if \( U \) is closed). If \( \tilde{c} \) has maximal rank and if there exists \( I \in I/\tau \) which contains \( 2k \) consecutive cells, i.e. there exists \( i \in I \) such that:
\[ [i, i + 2k - 1] \subset I \]
Then \( I/\tau = \{I\} \) (equivalently, \( \tau(I) \) is a dependent set).

Proof. Let suppose that \( I \neq I \). There must exist \( [i, i + 2k] \subset I \), such that \( i - 1 \notin I \). Then, line \( i + k - 1 \) of the matrix \( c(x(t))/\tau \) contains only one non zero element \( c_{i+k-1,i-1} \). As this linear map is injective for any \( t \in \Omega \), we know that:
\[ \ker (c(x(t))/\tau) \cap E_{i-1} = \{0\} \]
Applying lemma 3.1 we know that there exists \( b_{i-1} \in E_{i-1} \) such that for any \( t \in \Omega \):
\[ x_{i-1}(t) - b_{i-1} \in \ker (c(x(t))/\tau) \cap E_{i-1} \]
i.e. \( x_{i-1}(t) = b_{i-1} \) is a constant map, which contradicts the definition of a component periodic trajectory. So we can conclude that \( I = \mathcal{I} \).

If we assume that \( \tau \) is bounded, this result may be restated as: “as soon as \( k \) consecutive cells are synchronized (locked frequencies), all the population is synchronized”.

Moreover, we may drop some assumptions made on the common dimension of the \( E_i \) and reach an interesting “connectedness” result concerning the case \( k = 1 \).

**Proposition 4.4.** Let \((\mathcal{I}, F_\tau, \tilde{c})\) be a chained cellular system coupled with \( 1 \)-nearest neighbors. Let \( F_\tau \) be injective on \( U \subset \mathcal{S} \) and \( x \) a \( \text{CP}(\tau) \) trajectory that stays in \( U \) (or a\( \text{CP}(\tau) \) if \( U \) is closed). If \( \tilde{c} \) has maximal rank and if there exists two sets \( I_1 \) and \( I_2 \) in \( \mathcal{I}/\tau \) such that for \( i \in \mathcal{I} \):

\[
[i, i+1] \subset I_1 \quad \quad [i+2, i+3] \subset I_2
\]

Then \( I_1 = I_2 \).

**Proof.** Assume that the \( I_1 \) cells have non commensurable periods with those of \( I_2 \) (i.e. \( I_1 \neq I_2 \)). Following the previous proof, we know that the lines \( i + 1 \) and \( i + 2 \) of the matrix \( c(x(t))/\tau \) contains only one non zero element, respectively \( c_{i+1,i+2} \) and \( c_{i+2,i+1} \). But, we recall that for all \( t \in \Omega \):

\[
c_{i+1,i+2}(x_{i+1}(t)) : E_{i+2} \to E_{i+1}
\]

and

\[
c_{i+2,i+1}(x_{i+2}(t)) : E_{i+1} \to E_{i+2}
\]

As the coupler has maximal rank, one of the previous map must be injective for all \( t \in \Omega \). Using the same argument than in the previous proof, we may conclude that either \( x_{i+1} \) is a constant map, or it is \( x_{i+2} \), both cases leading to a contradiction.

One could restate those results in terms of component quasi-periodic solutions of differential systems, but in this context it may sound less intuitive.

For the next example, we add some regularity conditions on the cellular system which lead to an interesting description of \( \mathcal{S} \).

### 4.3 Localization results with bounded states

As \( (\mathcal{S}_b, \| \|_\infty) \) is a Banach space, the classic Picard-Lindelöf theorem is valid and we can give a version adapted to cellular systems.

**Proposition 4.5.** If \( F_\tau : \mathcal{S}_b \to \mathcal{S}_b \) and \( \tilde{c} \) are locally lipschitz, which is the case if for any \( x \in \mathcal{S}_b \) there exists a neighborhood \( V = \prod_{i \in \mathcal{I}} V_i \), a positive number \( k \) and a sequence \((k_j)_{j \in \mathcal{I}}\) of positive numbers such that:

1. \( \forall y, z \in V, \forall i \in \mathcal{I}, \| F_i(y_i) - F_i(z_i) \| \leq k \| y_i - z_i \| 
\)
2. \( \forall y, z \in V, \forall i \in \mathcal{I}, \| c_{ij}(y_i) - c_{ij}(z_i) \| \leq k_j \| y_i - z_i \| 
\)
3. \( \sum_{j \in \mathcal{I}} k_j < +\infty 
\)

then, given any initial condition \((t^0, x^0)\) in \( \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{S}_b \), the cellular coupling admits a unique maximal solution \( x \) that satisfies \( x(t^0) = x^0 \).

Before stating our localization result, we need to define the sets that any component quasi-periodic trajectory of the cellular system must avoid.

**Definition 4.3.** Let \( \tilde{c} \) be a cellular coupler on \( \mathcal{I} \). The set of regular points for \( \tilde{c} \) is defined as:

\[
R(\tilde{c}) = \{ x \in \mathcal{S}, \forall J \text{ non trivial partition of } \mathcal{I}, c(x)/J \text{ is injective } \}
\]

We say that \( \tilde{c} \) is regular if \( R(\tilde{c}) = \mathcal{S} \).

Now we can state a localization result:

**Proposition 4.6.** Under the conditions of lemma 3.1 and proposition 4.5, if there exists an infinite compact subset \( V \subset \Omega \) such that:

\[
\forall t \in V, x(t) \in R(\tilde{c})
\]

then \( \tau(\mathcal{I}) \) is a dependent set.

One can rewrite this result in terms of differential systems:

**Proposition 4.7.** Under the conditions of lemma 3.1 and proposition 4.5, and if \( \tau \) is bounded, a \( \text{CQP}(\tau) \) trajectory must “avoid” \( R(\tilde{c}) \) (it cannot cross this set on an infinite compact subset of \( \Omega \)).

**Proof.** (of proposition 4.6) Let suppose that \( \mathcal{I}/\tau \) is not trivial, applying lemma 3.1 we know that:

\[
c(x(t))/\tau, (x(t) - b) = 0
\]

the assumptions made on \( \tilde{c} \) ensure that:

\[
\forall t \in V, x(t) = b
\]

As \( V \) has a limit point, we may conclude that there exists \( t_0 \in V \) such that:

\[
x'(t_0) = 0
\]

Proposition 4.5 may be applied, hence we know that \( t \mapsto x(t) \) is a constant map, which contradicts the definition of a component periodic trajectory.

The next example gives a more precise result if the maps \( c_{ij} \) do not depend on the state of the system (homogeneous coupler).
4.4 Exact frequencies locking with homogeneous cellular coupler

If \( x \in \mathcal{T}_r \), for any \( i \in \mathcal{I} \) the map \( x_i \) equals its Fourier’s series. We write:

\[
e^{k\nu(x)}(t) = \exp \left( \frac{2\pi i k t}{\tau(x)} \right)
\]

and we define :

\[
\hat{x}_i(k) = \frac{1}{\tau(x)} \int_0^{\tau(x)} x_i(t)e^{k\nu(x)}(t) dt
\]

so that we have :

\[
x = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{x}(k)e^{k\nu(x)}
\]

i.e. \( \forall i \in \mathcal{I} \):

\[
x_i(t) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{x}_i(k)e^{k\nu(x)}(t)
\]

with normal convergence (note that \( \hat{x}_i(k) \) is \( E_i \)-valued).

Proposition 4.8. Under the conditions of lemma 3.1, let \( \hat{c} \) be homogeneous and regular. If \( \tau \) is a bounded period on \( \mathcal{I} \) and \( x \) a CP(\( \tau \)) trajectory of the cellular system then \( \tau \) is constant on \( \mathcal{I} \).

Remark 4.1. As this result is true as soon as \( \tau \) is a period of \( x \), it may be applied to the minimal periods of each \( x_i \), then its conclusion is that all cells have exactly the same minimal period.

Proof. As \( \hat{c} \) is homogeneous, we may identify it with \( c \). Moreover, applying lemma 3.1 we know that \( \tau(\mathcal{I}) \) is a dependent set (unless at least one of the \( x_i \) would be a constant map). We now have to prove that \( \tau \) is constant on \( \mathcal{I} \).

Let us write a partition of \( \mathcal{I} \) according to \( \tau \) values on \( \mathcal{I} \) (we must recall that \( \tau \) is assumed to be bounded):

\[
\{ \mathcal{I}_1, \mathcal{I}_2, \ldots, \mathcal{I}_K \}
\]

such that

\[
\forall 1 \leq k \leq K, \tau(\mathcal{I}_k) = \tau_k
\]

and \( \tau_l \neq \tau_k \) if \( l \neq k \).

We now suppose that \( K > 1 \).

As \( \tau(\mathcal{I}) \) is a finite dependent set, there exists \( n_1, \ldots, n_K \) integers and \( \tau_0 \) (the lcm) such that:

\[
\tau_0 = n_1\tau_1 = n_2\tau_2 = \ldots = n_K\tau_K
\]

The trajectory \( x \) is globally \( \tau_0 \)-periodic. We may therefore write its Fourier’s series:

\[
x(t) = \sum_{l \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{x}(l)e^{l\nu(x)}(t)
\]

and as well for \( c.x \):

\[
(c.x)(t) = \sum_{l \in \mathbb{Z}} c(x(l))e^{l\nu(x)}(t)
\]

uniqueness of Fourier coefficients forces them to satisfy:

\[
c(x)=c(x)
\]

So that, for any \( i \in \mathcal{I} \):

\[
c(x_i(l)) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} c_{ij} \hat{x}_j(l)
\]

Now, let \( i \in \mathcal{I}_k \), the properties of Fourier decomposition ensure that \( \hat{x}_i(l) \) and \( c \hat{x}_i(l) \) are zero as soon as \( n_k \) does not divide \( l \) (as \( (c.x)_i \) and \( x_i \) are \( \tau_k \)-periodic and \( \tau_0 = n_k\tau_k \)).

So, if \( l \in \mathbb{Z} \), let us define \( I(l) \) as:

\[
I(l) = \{ k \in \{1, \ldots, K \}, n_k \not| l \}
\]

For any integer \( l \), if \( k \in I(l) \) and \( i \in \mathcal{I}_k \), then \( \hat{x}_i(l) = c \hat{x}_i(l) = 0 \), so that (with similar convergence arguments that in the proof of lemma 3.1):

\[
c \hat{x}_i(l) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} c_{ij} \hat{x}_j(l)
\]

Let us write \( c^{I(l)} \) the matrix which all coefficients are zero, except for those of index \( (i,j) \in I(l) \times \mathbb{C}I(l) \) which are identical to those of \( c \), and \( \hat{x}(l) \mathbb{C}I(l) \) the vector with zero components on the indexes belonging to \( I(l) \) and those of \( \hat{x}(l) \) in for indexes belonging to \( \mathbb{C}I(l) \).

The previous property can be written (see figure 2):

\[
\forall l \in \mathbb{Z}, c^{I(l)} \hat{x}(l)\mathbb{C}I(l) = 0
\]

This property holds for any integer \( l \), and is empty when \( l \) is a multiple of all the \( n_i \). So that, if \( I(l) \) is the partition of \( \mathcal{I} \) defined as:

\[
I(l) = \{ I(l), \mathbb{C}I(l) \}
\]

we can re-write it as:

\[
\forall l \in \mathbb{Z}, c^{I(l)} \hat{x}(l) = 0
\]

Let us now consider \( \mathcal{I}_1 \neq \mathcal{I}_2 \) (this is possible as \( K > 1 \)). As those two classes are distinct, there exists \( l \) such that
population’s state depends only on its own state, \( x_1 \) and \( y_1 \) have to belong to the same cell. In this simple example it is the only case where two variables have to be gathered in the same cell. To end with, this leads to the following structure of cellular system:

\[
\mathcal{I} = \{1, 2, 3\}
\]

with the Banach spaces:

\[
E_1 = \mathbb{R}^2, E_2 = E_3 = \mathbb{R}
\]

As it should often be the case, the associated vector fields are just identity maps on \( E_i \), and the coupler is then:

\[
c = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & c_{13} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & c_{23} \\ c_{31} & c_{32} & c_{33} \end{bmatrix}
\]

with

\[
c_{11} : E_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(E_1)
\]

\[
(x_1, y_1) \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \alpha - \beta x_1^2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
c_{12} : E_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(E_2, E_1)
\]

\[
x_2 \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \varepsilon \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
c_{13} : E_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(E_3, E_1)
\]

\[
y_2 \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
c_{21} : E_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(E_1, E_2)
\]

\[
(x_1, y_1) \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
c_{22} : E_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(E_2)
\]

\[
x_2 \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
c_{23} : E_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(E_3, E_2)
\]

\[
y_2 \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
c_{31} : E_3 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(E_1, E_3)
\]

\[
(x_1, y_1) \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
c_{32} : E_3 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(E_2, E_3)
\]

\[
x_2 \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} \gamma & -\gamma \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
c_{33} : E_3 \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(E_3)
\]

\[
y_2 \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Now, before applying some of the previous techniques, we may compute the different decompositions of \( c \) upon different non trivial partitions of \( \mathcal{I} \). Those partitions are:

\[
P_1 = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}\}, \quad P_2 = \{\{1, 2\}, \{3\}\}
\]

\[
P_3 = \{\{1, 3\}, \{2\}\}, \quad P_4 = \{\{1\}, \{2, 3\}\}
\]

which gives:

\[
c/P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & c_{12} & c_{13} \\ c_{21} & 0 & c_{23} \\ c_{31} & c_{32} & 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
c/P_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & c_{13} \\ c_{21} & 0 & c_{23} \\ c_{31} & c_{32} & 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]
Proposition 4.9. Let us consider a differential system which is driven by the following equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
x_1' &= a_1(x_1, y_1)x_1 + a_2(x_1, y_1)y_1 + a_3(x_1, y_1)x_2 + a_4(x_1, y_1)y_2, \\
y_1' &= a_5(x_1, y_1)x_1 + a_6(x_1, y_1)y_1, \\
x_2' &= a_7(x_2)x_2 + u(x_2)y_2, \\
y_2' &= \varepsilon(y_2)x_1 + a_8(y_2)y_1 - \gamma(y_2)x_2 + a_9(y_2)y_2
\end{align*}
\]

If the maps \(u\) and \(\varepsilon\) never vanish, then the systems has no component quasi-periodic solution.

This result does not have to be deep in itself, neither has it to be the most general one we could have deduced from the previous discussion. It is just a sketch of how one can handle some structure properties of a differential system, applying lemma 3.1, without going into deep and specific calculus.

On the other hand, we must stress the point that this technique does not solve completely the problem of the existence of quasi-periodic solutions, as one must check by other techniques that there is no quasi-periodic solution which is not component periodic.

5 Conclusion

In this work we have built a general framework of cellular systems in order to handle a wide variety of coupled systems, and therefore a wide class of complex systems. We focused on an emergent property of those dynamical systems: the frequencies locking phenomenon. Usually one observes solutions of particular coupled systems and shows that within suitable conditions synchronization must occur. These results are qualitatively dependent on the systems of interest and do not stand in the general cases. We tried to change our point of view and bring out completing results. As we choose not to address the problem of convergence to a periodic solution, we do not prove that synchronization ultimately happens. Instead, we consider the problem at its end: if one supposes that some coupled systems converge to oscillating behaviors, then they must be synchronized, regardless to the individual dynamical systems (as soon as the maps which define each of them are injective nearby the trajectories). In most papers (see for instance [13]) the population of coupled systems is implicitly defined and has only two cells, sometimes a finite number \(N\), and more rarely an infinity. Moreover, on the contrary of what most studies about synchronization issues state, we do not assume anything concerning the cells dynamics. Especially, we do not assume that they are oscillators. We only assume that they (asymptotically) exhibit periodic behaviors under the coupling effects (the first assumption implies the second, but the opposite is clearly false).

We believe that this way of reaching general results about cellular systems gives some explanations about why the frequencies locking phenomenon emerges naturally in a large variety of coupled dynamical systems. Our results show that the following alternative is natural in many cases: either the whole population is synchronized, either its cells cannot all have periodic behaviors.

Another interesting perspective is to apply this strategy to differential systems, as we outlined at the end of the fourth section. For example, on the contrary of what happens in general case of hamiltonian systems, where limit torus are generally filled with quasi-periodic trajectories (especially after perturbations), our results suggest
that concerning cellular systems, limit torus are mainly filled with periodic trajectories.

Moreover, we have achieved some similar work on a natural generalization of this strategy to non countable population, since, in order to model natural systems, it is often useful to handle continuous populations). We truly think that all those results are only a part of what can be done using cellular systems and that this work enlarges the possibilities of studying synchronization issues in some biologically inspired systems. But the scope of this kind of cellular systems may be beyond synchronization questions, as it is quite general and allows theoretical studies. It could be a promising theoretical tool to model complex systems.

References