

1. a.

$$\dot{x} = x^2$$

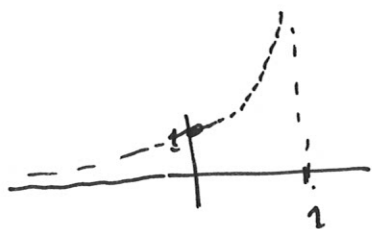
$$x(0) = 1$$

separable differential equation.

$$\int_1^x \frac{d\tilde{x}}{\tilde{x}^2} = \int_0^t 1 d\tilde{t} = t$$

$$-\frac{1}{\tilde{x}} \Big|_1^x = t$$

$$-\frac{1}{x} + 1 = t, \text{ hence } x(t) = \frac{1}{1-t}$$



solution exists for all $t \in (-\infty, 1)$

1b)

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \sqrt{y-1} \quad y(0) = 1$$

$y(t) = 1$, is a solution for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

This solution is not unique, however, since

$$\int_1^y \frac{d\tilde{y}}{\sqrt{\tilde{y}-1}} = \int_0^t 1 d\tilde{t} = t$$

$$2\sqrt{y-1} = t$$

$y(t) = 1 + \left(\frac{t}{2}\right)^2$ is also a solution.

for all $t \geq 0$

$$2. \quad x^2 y'' + 2xy' - \alpha^2 x^2 y = 0 \quad y(0)=1 \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \\ y'(0)=0$$

a. $x=0$ is a singular point, as the coefficient for y'' vanishes for $x=0$.

It is a regular singular point since: $y'' + \frac{2y'}{x} - \alpha^2 y = 0$ ~~($x=0$)~~

and the theorem says that if $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0$
 where $p(x) = \frac{2}{x}$; $q(x) = -\alpha^2$
 and $x p(x)$ analytic,
 and $x^2 q(x)$ analytic } then point is regular singular.
 $x=0$.

$x \cdot \frac{2}{x} = 2$ is analytic and $-\alpha^2 \cdot x^2$ is analytic too, hence $x=0$ is regular singular.

b. Indicial equation.

$$r(r-1) + p_0 r + q_0 = 0 \quad p_0 = 2. \quad q_0 = 0$$

$$\text{Hence } r(r-1) + 2r = 0$$

$$r^2 + r = 0 \rightarrow r=0 \text{ or } r=-1$$

c, substitute $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{n+r}$ in Eq(1) ($a_0 \neq 0$)

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (n+r)(n+r-1) x^{n+r} + 2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (n+r) x^{n+r} - \alpha^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{n+r+2} = 0.$$

Shift the index in the last term by 2:

$$-\alpha^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{n+r+2} = -\alpha^2 \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n-2} x^{n+r},$$

which yields equal powers of x in all summations:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (n+r)(n+r-1) x^{n+r} + 2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (n+r) x^{n+r} - \alpha^2 \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n-2} x^{n+r} = 0$$

The last sum starts at $n=2$, so we have
for $n \geq 2$

$$a_n (n+r)(n+r-1) + 2a_n (n+r) - x^2 a_{n-2} = 0.$$

the $n=0$, and $n=1$ we will take separately

$$n=0: \quad a_0 r(r-1) + 2a_0 r = 0 \rightarrow \text{this is the indicial equation again!}$$

$a_0 \neq 0$

$$n=1 \quad a_1 (r+1)r + 2a_1 (r+1) = 0$$

$$(r+1) a_1 (r+2) = 0.$$

since we know that $r=0$ or $r=-1$ from the indicial equation.

this gives $a_1 = 0$ if $r=0$

and a_1 undetermined if $r=-1$

d. We next solve the recurrence relation for

$$r=0: \quad a_1 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad a_n = \frac{x^2 a_{n-2}}{n(n+1)} \quad n \geq 2$$

$$a_2 = \frac{x^2 a_0}{2 \cdot 3}$$

$$a_4 = \frac{x^2 a_2}{4 \cdot 5} = \frac{x^4 a_0}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}$$

$$a_{2n} = \frac{x^{2n} a_0}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot (2n+1)}$$

the odd terms are all 0, since $a_1 = 0$.

$$\text{This gives a solution } y_1(x) = a_0 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n+1)!}$$

next we solve for $r = -1$

$$a_n = \frac{x^2 a_{n-2}}{(n-1)n}.$$

$n \geq 2$, a_1 undetermined.

$$a_2 = \frac{x^2 a_0}{2 \cdot 1}$$

$$a_4 = \frac{x^2 a_2}{4 \cdot 3} = \frac{x^4 a_0}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}$$

$$a_{2n} = \frac{x^{2n} a_0}{(2n)!} \quad \therefore \text{This gives a solution.}$$

$$y_2(x) = \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n} x^{2n}}{(2n)!} \right) x^{-1}$$

the odd terms:

$$a_3 = \frac{x^2 a_1}{3 \cdot 2}$$

$$a_5 = \frac{x^2 a_3}{5 \cdot 4} = \frac{x^4 a_1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}$$

$$a_{2n+1} = a_1 \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n+1)!}, \quad \text{this gives a solution}$$

$$y_3(x) = a_1 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n} x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \cdot x^{-1} = a_1 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n} x^{2n}}{(2n+1)!}$$

which is a multiple of $y_1(x)$, so we need not consider this. As $y'(0) = 0$, we also do not include $y_2(x)$, as this solution blows up if $x \downarrow 0$. This implies that the solution is given as: $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n} x^{2n}}{(2n+1)!}$, that indeed satisfies $y(0) = 0.1$ and $y'(0) = 0$.

3b

$$\dot{x} = Ax + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} e^{t \sin t}$$

Make the equation complex : $\dot{z} = Az + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} e^{(1+i)t}$

and then take imaginary part of solution $z(t)$

We try $z(t) = \underline{b} e^{(1+i)t}$

$$\dot{z} = \underline{b}(1+i) e^{(1+i)t} = A \underline{b} e^{(1+i)t} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} e^{(1+i)t}$$

$$[A - (1+i)I] \underline{b} = -\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{write augmented matrix}$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} -2-i & a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2-i & a & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -2-i & 0 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow$$

$$b_3 = 0. \quad -(2+i)b_2 + a b_3 = -1$$

$$b_2 = \frac{1}{(2+i)}$$

$$b_1 = \frac{a b_2}{(2+i)} = \frac{a}{(2+i)^2}$$

$$\text{Hence } \underline{b} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a}{(2+i)^2} \\ \frac{a}{(2+i)} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a}{3+4i} \\ \frac{a}{2+i} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a(3-4i)}{25} \\ \frac{a(2-i)}{5} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } x(t) &= \text{Im} \left[\underline{b} e^{(1+i)t} \right] = \text{Im} \left[\frac{a}{25} e^t \begin{pmatrix} 3-4i \\ 10-5i \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} [\cos t + i \sin t] \right] \\ &= \frac{a}{25} e^t \begin{bmatrix} 3 \sin t - 4 \cos t \\ 10 \sin t - 5 \cos t \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\underline{4} : \quad \begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= (x^2 - 1)y \\ \dot{y} &= (x+2)(y-1)(y+2) \end{aligned}$$

a) equilibria: $\dot{x} = 0 \rightarrow x = \pm 1$ or $y = 0$ $\rightarrow$ gives $x = -2$ when substituted in $\dot{y} = 0$
 $\dot{y} = 0$ gives $y = 1$ or $y = -2$

so we have 5 points: $(1, 1)$ $(-1, 1)$
 $(1, -2)$ $(-1, -2)$
 $(-2, 0)$

b) calculate Jacobian matrix. DF

$$DF = \begin{pmatrix} 2xy & (x^2 - 1) \\ (y-1)(y+2) & (x+2)(2y+1) \end{pmatrix}$$

Substitute: $(1, 1)$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{aligned} \lambda_1 &= 2 \\ \lambda_2 &= 9 \\ \text{unstable node.} \end{aligned}$$

$$(-1, 1) : \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{aligned} \lambda_1 &= -2 \\ \lambda_2 &= 3 \end{aligned} \rightarrow \text{saddle. (unstable)}$$

$$(1, -2) : \begin{pmatrix} -4 & 0 \\ 0 & -9 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{aligned} \lambda_1 &= -4 \\ \lambda_2 &= -9 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} &\text{asympt.} \\ &\text{stable} \\ &\text{node} \end{aligned}$$

$$(-1, -2) : \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{aligned} \lambda_1 &= 4 \\ \lambda_2 &= -3 \end{aligned} \quad \text{saddle point}$$

$$(-2, 0) : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ -2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{aligned} \lambda^2 + 6 &= 0 \\ \lambda &= \pm i\sqrt{6} \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} &\text{center.} \\ &\text{stable} \end{aligned}$$

4c) All equilibria ^{and their stability} of the linear system carry over to the nonlinear system. ~~However~~, except the center point, which has $\text{Re}(\lambda) \leq 0$, and therefore stability cannot be decided using linearization.

4d) orbit: $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x} = \frac{(x+2)(y-1)(y+2)}{(x+1)(x-1)y}$

$$\int \frac{y}{(y-1)(y+2)} dy = \int \frac{(x+2)}{(x+1)(x-1)} dx$$

$$\int \left\{ \frac{1}{y+2} + \frac{1}{3} \left[-\frac{1}{y+2} + \frac{1}{y-1} \right] \right\} dy = \int \left\{ \frac{1}{x-1} + \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{x-1} - \frac{1}{x+1} \right] \right\} dx$$

$$\int \left\{ \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{y+2} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{y-1} \right\} dy = \int \left(\frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{x-1} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{x+1} \right) dx$$

$$\frac{2}{3} \ln|y+2| + \frac{1}{3} \ln|y-1| = \frac{3}{2} \ln|x-1| - \frac{1}{2} \ln|x+1| + k$$

$$\ln|(y+2)^2 |y-1|| = \frac{9}{2} \ln|x-1| - \frac{3}{2} \ln|x+1| + 3k$$

Hence: $\ln|(y+2)^2 |y-1|| - \ln \left[\frac{|x-1|^{9/2}}{|x+1|^{3/2}} \right] = 3k$

$$\ln \left[\frac{(y+2)^2 |y-1| |x+1|^{3/2}}{|x-1|^{9/2}} \right] = 3k$$

Hence we have:

$$F(x,y) = \frac{(y+2)^2 |y-1| |x+1|^{3/2}}{|x-1|^{9/2}} = C \geq 0$$

describes the orbits in implicit form.

4e)

Since $F(x,y)$ depends on the absolute values we restrict ourselves to the region $R: (-\infty, -1) \times (-1, 1)$

$$x \leq -1 \quad \text{and} \quad y \in (-1, 1)$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \text{so } |x-1| = -x+1 & & \text{so } |y-1| = 1-y \\ \text{and } |x+1| = -x-1 & & \end{array}$$

$F(x,y)$ on R is given as:

$$F_R(x,y) = \frac{(y+2)(1-y)(x+1)^{3/2}}{(1-x)^{9/2}} = C.$$

To determine periodic orbits, we have to find intersections with the x -axis and the line $x = -2$.

First substitute $x = -2$:

$$F_R(-2, y) = \frac{(y+2)(1-y)}{3^{9/2}} = C.$$

$$y^2 + y - 2 + 81\sqrt{3}C = 0.$$

intersection points: $y_{1,2} = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4(81\sqrt{3}C - 2)}}{2}$

there will be 2 points if $-4(81\sqrt{3}C - 2) \leq 1$

$$81.4\sqrt{3}C \geq 7.$$

Hence $C \geq \frac{7}{81.4\sqrt{3}}$

These points have to be 1 positive, 1 negative, hence

Next find 2 intersection points with $y = 0$.

$$C \leq \frac{2}{81\sqrt{3}}$$

$$F_R(x, 0) = \frac{2(-x-1)^{3/2}}{(1-x)^{9/2}}$$

You can see that $F_k(x, 0) \rightarrow 0$ if $x \uparrow -1$

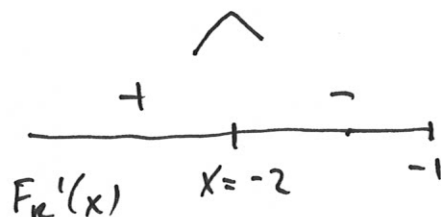
We now calculate $F_k'(x, 0)$

$$F_k'(x, 0) = \frac{\frac{3}{2} \cdot 2(-x-1)^{1/2} \cdot (-1)}{(1-x)^{9/2}} + 2(-x-1)^{3/2} (1-x)^{-11/2} \left(\frac{-9}{2}\right) \cdot (-1)$$

$$= \frac{-3(-x-1)^{1/2}}{(1-x)^{9/2}} (1-x) + \frac{(-x-1)(-x-1)^{1/2}}{(1-x)^{11/2}} 9$$

$$= \frac{(-x-1)^{1/2}}{(1-x)^{11/2}} \left[-3(1-x) + 9(-x-1) \right]$$

so $F_k'(x, 0) = 0$ if $3x - 9x - 3 - 9 = 0$
 $-6x = 12$
 $x = -2$.



$F_k(x, 0)$ has a maximum
 at $x = -2$.
 since $F_k''(-2, 0) \neq 0$.

$$F_k(-2, 0) = \frac{2 \cdot 1}{81\sqrt{3}} = \frac{2}{81\sqrt{3}}$$

but $\frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{81\sqrt{3}} \right) < C < 2 \left(\frac{1}{81\sqrt{3}} \right)$

So indeed ~~for~~ there are two points of intersection of $F_k(x, 0)$ with C .

Since the ~~cur~~ solution curves are continuous

there have to be infinitely many closed curves surrounding $(-2, 0)$. There are no equilibria on this closed curve, ~~hence~~ Therefore the solution corresponding to the closed curve is periodic.

4f) From b,c) you know the saddles $(-1,1)$
and $(-1,-2)$
and an asymptotically stable node $(1,-2)$
and an unstable node $(1,1)$

the eigenvectors are always $(1,0)$ and $(0,1)$

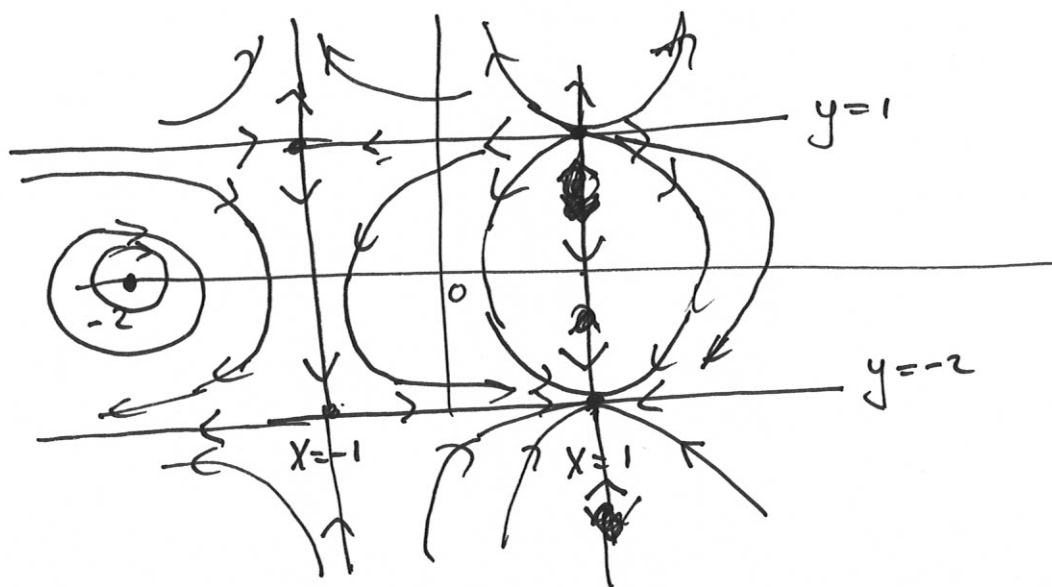
Furthermore, we know from 4e) that there are
periodic solutions around $(-2,0)$

The only new information that we can obtain
by ~~calculating~~ calculating some orbits

$x = \pm 1$ is an orbit

$\left. \begin{array}{l} y = 1 \\ y = -2 \end{array} \right\}$ are also orbits

This gives



$$5. \quad \dot{\underline{x}} = A(t) \underline{x} \quad \underline{x}(0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\dot{\underline{X}} = A(t) \underline{X} \quad \underline{X}(0) \text{ is a fundamental matrix}$$

$$\dot{\underline{X}}^T = \underline{X}^T A^T \quad \text{by taking transpose}$$

next write $(\underline{X}^T)^{-1} \underline{X}^T(t) = \text{id.}$

and differentiate wrt t .

$$\frac{d}{dt} [(\underline{X}^T)^{-1} \underline{X}^T] = \frac{d(\underline{X}^T)^{-1}}{dt} \underline{X}^T + (\underline{X}^T)^{-1} \frac{d\underline{X}^T}{dt}$$

$$\underline{Y}(t) := (\underline{X}^{-1})^T(t)$$

$$\frac{d\underline{Y}}{dt} \underline{X}^T(t) = - \underbrace{(\underline{X}^T)^{-1} (\underline{X}^T)}_{\text{id.}} A^T(t)$$

$$\frac{d\underline{Y}}{dt} (\underline{X}^T)(t) = -A^T(t)$$

multiply by $(\underline{X}^T)^{-1}(t)$

$$\frac{d\underline{Y}}{dt} = -A^T(t) (\underline{X}^T(t))^{-1} = -A^T(t) \underline{Y}(t)$$