# Differential Equations Assignment 03

## N'Dah Jean KOUAGOU Emmanuella Sandratra RAMBELOSON Abigail Priscilla M. Djossou Hewan Leul KEDANE

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#### 17.

We consider a mechanical system whose dynamic is modelled by the differential equation:

$$x'' + ax' + 2bx + 3x^2 = 0$$

where a, b are positive constants.

Let's determine the maximal region of asymptotic stability of the zero solution. The system can be transformed into the following system :

$$\begin{cases} x' = y \\ y' = -ay - 2bx - 3x^2 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} x' = y \\ y' = -ay - g(x) \end{cases}$$
where  $g(x) = 2bx + 3x^2$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ 

Let E be the function defined by  $E(x,y) := y^2 + 2 \int_0^x g(u) du$ .

g is locally Lipschitz and we have :

$$\frac{d}{dt}E(x,y) = 2y'y + 2x'g(x)$$

$$= 2\left(-ay^2 - yg(x) + yg(x)\right)$$

$$= -2ay^2 \text{ because } a > 0 \text{ ok}$$

$$< 0$$

Furthermore, E(0,0)=0. OK Let's find the maximal open set, say D of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  containing (0,0) and such that E(x,y)>0 and  $\frac{d}{dt}E(x,y)<0$  for all  $(x,y)\in D-\{(0,0)\}$ , ie E is a strict Lyapunov function of the system for (0,0) on D. We have  $\int_0^x g(u)du=\left[bt^2+t^3\right]_0^x=bx^2+x^3$ 

We have 
$$\int_0^x g(u)du = [bt^2 + t^3]_0^x = bx^2 + x^3$$

Thus  $E(x,y) = y^2 + 2bx^2 + 2x^3 = y^2 + 2x^2(b+x)$ .

Now we have with b > 0,

$$E(x,y) \le 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} x = 0 \\ y = 0 \end{cases} \text{ or } \begin{cases} x \le -b \\ y^2 + 2x^2(b+x) \le 0 \end{cases}$$

## there are two equilibria for the system; (0,0) and (-2b/3,0), check!!

$$\begin{cases} x \le -b < 0 \\ y^2 + 2x^2(b+x) \le 0 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} x \le -b < 0 \\ y^2 \le -2x^2(b+x) \end{cases}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} x \le -b < 0 \\ |y| \le -x\sqrt{-2(b+x)} \end{cases}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} x \le -b \\ x\sqrt{-2(b+x)} \le y \le -x\sqrt{-2(b+x)} \end{cases}$$

Then  $E(x,y) \leq 0$  if and only if:

$$(x,y) \in \{(0,0)\} \cup \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | x \le -b, \ x\sqrt{-2(b+x)} \le y \le -x\sqrt{-2(b+x)}\}$$

Let 
$$D = \mathbb{R}^2 - \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | x \le -b, \ x\sqrt{-2(b+x)} \le y \le -x\sqrt{-2(b+x)} \}$$

 $\{(x,y)\in\mathbb{R}^2|x\leq -b,\ x\sqrt{-2(b+x)}\leq y\leq -x\sqrt{-2(b+x)}\}$  is closed. So D is an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  containing (0,0) and such that:

$$E(x,y)>0$$
 and  $\frac{d}{dt}E(x,y)<0$  for all  $(x,y)\in D-\{(0,0)\}.$  The open set  $D$  is the green region:

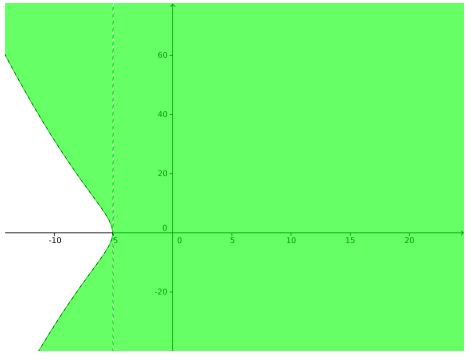


Figure 1: Region D

the plot does not give any information, no labels, etc...

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Let's find the limit sets of the orbits in 13.1 and 13.3 13.1



Figure 2:

with C=1

Let  $\mathcal{O}_1$  be the orbit before C and  $\mathcal{O}_2$  the orbit after C

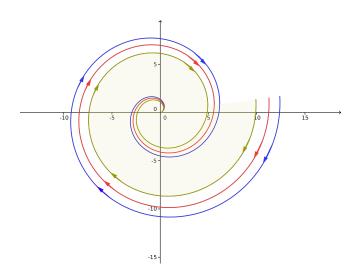
We have :  $\,$ 

$$\alpha(\mathcal{O}_1) = \emptyset, \ \omega(\mathcal{O}_1) = \{C\} \ \ \mathsf{ok}$$

$$\alpha(\mathcal{O}_2) = \{C\}, \ \omega(\mathcal{O}_2) = \emptyset \ \ \mathbf{ok}$$

## what about the orbit at C?

#### 13.3



all other orbits

Figure 3: Domain D

For each orbit  $\mathcal{O}$  here, we have :  $\alpha(\mathcal{O}) = \emptyset$ ,  $\omega(\mathcal{O}) = \{(0,0)\}$ 

for the equilibrium point 
$$O = (0, 0)$$
:  $\alpha(O) = O = \omega(O)$ ;

## Sheet 10

#### 19.

We consider the two dimensional system

$$\begin{cases} x' = x(1+3x-x^2-y^2) - y \\ y' = y(1+3x-x^2-y^2) + x \end{cases}$$

Let's prove that it has at least one periodic orbit We have :

$$\begin{cases} x' = x(1+3x-x^2-y^2) - y \\ y' = y(1+3x-x^2-y^2) + x \end{cases} \Rightarrow -x'y + xy' = x^2 + y^2$$

This shows that the only equilibrium point is (0,0) (for  $x,\ y$  constants we find  $x^2+y^2=0$ , then x=y=0). OK

Change of variables : 
$$\begin{cases} x = r\cos(\theta) \\ y = r\sin(\theta) \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} x' = r'\cos(\theta) - r\theta'\sin(\theta) \\ y' = r'\sin(\theta) + r\theta'\cos(\theta) \end{cases}$$

$$-x'y + xy' = r^2$$
 implies:

$$-rr'\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta) + r^2\theta'(\sin(\theta))^2 + rr'\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta) + r^2\theta'(\cos(\theta))^2 = r^2$$

$$\Rightarrow r^2\theta' = r^2 \Rightarrow \theta' = 1$$
 Then using  $x' = r'\cos(\theta) - r\theta'\sin(\theta)$ , we find

$$r'\cos(\theta) - r\sin(\theta) = r\cos(\theta)\left[1 + 3r\cos(\theta) - r^2\right] - r\sin(\theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow r'\cos(\theta) = r\cos(\theta)\left[1 + 3r\cos(\theta) - r^2\right]$$

$$\Rightarrow (r' - r + r^3)\cos(\theta) = 3r^2(\cos(\theta))^2$$

$$\Rightarrow r' = r - r^3 + 3r^2(\cos(\theta))^2$$
 what about  $\theta$ '?

We have 
$$: -1 < \cos(\theta) < 1 \Rightarrow -3r^2 < 3r^2(\cos(\theta))^2 < 3r^2$$

$$\Rightarrow r - r^3 - 3r^2 < r - r^3 + 3r^2(\cos(\theta))^2 < r - r^3 + 3r^2$$

We have :  $r - r^3 - 3r^2 \ge 0$  if  $0 < r \le \frac{-3 + \sqrt{13}}{2}$  : this means that the radius r increases here

and  $r - r^3 - 3r^2 < 0$  if  $r > \frac{-3 + \sqrt{13}}{2}$ : this means that the radius r decreases here.

Also, we have :  $r - r^3 + 3r^2 \ge 0$  if  $0 < r \le \frac{3 + \sqrt{13}}{2}$  this means that the radius r decreases here

r decreases here and  $r-r^3+3r^2<0$  if  $r>\frac{3+\sqrt{13}}{2}$ : this means that the radius r increases here.

Then some orbits starting in the domain between the two circles

$$C_1\left((0,0),\frac{-3+\sqrt{13}}{2}\right)$$
 and  $C_2\left((0,0),\frac{3+\sqrt{13}}{2}\right)$  stay there forever. But the

domain between the two circles is closed and bounded, and doesn't contain the (only) equilibrium point (0,0).

Therefore we can apply the theorem of **Poincarre-Bendixson** and conclude that **there exist at least one periodic orbit**.

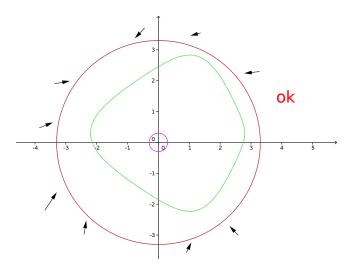


Figure 4: Example of periodic orbit (in green color)

In principle, there could be more than one periodic orbit.

## Sheet 11

#### 20.

Consider the two dimensional system of ordinary differential equations

$$\begin{cases} x' = -x & (1) \\ y' = -2y + x & (2) \end{cases}$$

Solve iteratively this system (first the equation in x and then the other) and write down a fundamental solution of it,  $\Phi(t)$ .

Solution: We know that the solution of equation (1) is  $x(t) = c_1 e^{-t}$ ,  $c_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ Now we use this solution in the equation (2)

$$y' = -2y + x$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y' = -2y + c_1 e^{-t}, \ c_1 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y' + 2y = c_1 e^{-t}, \ c_1 \in \mathbb{R}$$

Let  $\mu$  be a positive function of class  $C^1$ 

$$y' + 2y = c_1 e^{-t}, \ c_1 \in \mathbb{R}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow y'\mu + 2y\mu = c_1\mu e^{-t}, \ c_1 \in \mathbb{R}.$ 

We require  $\mu$  to satisfy  $\mu' = 2\mu$ . We can take  $\mu(t) = e^{2t}$ . Then

$$y'\mu + 2y\mu = c_1\mu e^{-t}, \ c_1 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (y\mu)' = c_1\mu e^{-t}, \ c_1 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \int (y\mu)'dt = c_1 \int \mu e^{-t}dt \ , \ c_1 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y\mu + c = c_1 \int e^{2t}e^{-t}dt \ , \ c_1, c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y\mu = -c + c_1 \int e^tdt \ , \ c_1, c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow ye^{2t} = c_2 + c_1e^t, \ c_2 = -c$$

$$\Leftrightarrow y(t) = c_1e^{-t} + c_2e^{-2t}, \ c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

The solution is 
$$\begin{pmatrix} x(t) \\ y(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 e^{-t} \\ c_1 e^{-t} + c_2 e^{-2t} \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$   
Fundamental matrix:  $\Phi(t)$   
We have  $\begin{pmatrix} c_1 e^{-t} \\ c_1 e^{-t} + c_2 e^{-2t} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-t} & 0 \\ e^{-t} & e^{-2t} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}$   
Thus  $\Phi(t) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-t} & 0 \\ e^{-t} & e^{-2t} \end{pmatrix}$  ok

#### 21.

Let X(t) be a fundamental solution of the system x' = A(t)x, where  $A(.): \mathbb{R} \to \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$  is continuous. Let's prove that if  $b(.): \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is also continuous, the function

$$x(t) = X(t)X(t_0)^{-1}x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t X(t)X(s)^{-1}b(s)ds$$

is the unique solution of x' = A(t)x + b(t) with initial condition  $x(t_0) = x_0$ .

## try to make logical arguments in a flow of points

$$x' = A(t)x + b(t) \quad (*)$$

X(t) is the fundamental solution of (\*)

 $b(.): \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is continuous

We have x(t) = X(t)C where  $C \in \mathbb{R}^n$ Then  $C = X(t)X(t_0)^{-1}$  and

$$x(t) = X(t)X(t_0)^{-1}x(t_0)$$

Every solution of x' = A(t)x + b(t) is the sum of one solution of x' = A(t)xand one solution of y' = b(t).

$$\int_{t_0}^t X(t)X(s)^{-1}b(s)ds \text{ is a solution of }$$

$$\begin{cases} y' = b(t) \\ y(t_0) = O \end{cases}$$

because

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{t_0}^t X(t)X(s)^{-1}b(s)ds = X(t)X(t)^{-1}b(t) = b(t)$$

and  $x(t) = X(t)X(t_0)^{-1}x_0$  is a solution of

$$\begin{cases} x' = A(t)x \\ x(t_0) = x_0 \end{cases}$$

But A(t,x) := A(t)x is locally Lipschitz in x.

Then the solution of

$$\begin{cases} x' = A(t)x \\ x(t_0) = x_0 \end{cases}$$

. is unique. As a result,  $x(t)=X(t)X(t_0)^{-1}x_0+\int_{t_0}^tX(t)X(s)^{-1}b(s)ds$  is the unique solution of x' = A(t)x + b(t) with the initial condition  $x(t_0) = x_0$ 

## Exercise sheet 12

**22.** Let's prove that  $e^A = \text{diag}(e^{A_1}, \dots, e^{A_k})$ .

 $A = \operatorname{diag}(A_1, \ldots, A_k)$ , where the  $A_j$  are square matrices along the diagonal of A.

We have 
$$e_A = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^n}{n!}$$

For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $A^n = \operatorname{diag}(A_1^n, \dots, A_k^n)$ 

Thus, 
$$e^A = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\operatorname{diag}(A_1^n, \dots, A_k^n)}{n!}$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{A_1^n}{n!}, \dots, \frac{A_1^k}{n!}\right)$$
$$= \operatorname{diag}\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{A_1^n}{n!}, \dots, \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{A_1^k}{n!}\right) \quad \text{ok}$$
$$e^A = \operatorname{diag}(e^{A_1}, \dots, e^{A_k})$$

#### 23.

We consider the following differential equation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

a) Let's determine  $e^{At}$  where:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We have A = D + N where:

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad N = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Also

$$DN = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } ND = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, DN = ND and then we have  $e^{D+N} = e^D e^N$ . As a result,  $e^{At} = e^{tD} e^{tN}$ .

But we have  $N^2=0$  and then  $e^{tN}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}t^k\frac{N^k}{k!}=I+tN.$ 

Using the exercise 22, we have  $e^{Dt} = \overset{\kappa=0}{diag}(e^t, e^{-t}, e^{-t}, e^{-t})$ .

It follows that

$$\begin{split} e^{At} &= (I+tN) \ diag(e^t,e^{-t},e^{-t},e^{-t}) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & t & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^t & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-t} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{-t} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} \end{split}$$

$$e^{At} = \begin{bmatrix} e^t & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-t} & te^{-t} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{-t} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{-t} \end{bmatrix}$$

b) We want the solutions to stay bounded when  $t \to +\infty$ . The solutions are in the form :

$$x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} e^t & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-t} & te - t & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{-t} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{ok}$$

$$x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 e^t \\ c_2 e^{-t} + c_3 t e^{-t} \\ c_3 e^{-t} \\ c_4 e^{-t} \end{bmatrix}, c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4 \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Since the only component which could go to  $\infty$  is the first one  $(c_1e^t)$ , then we have to take  $c_1 = 0$ . Ok

Therefore, we have to choose our initial conditions in the real vectorial space

generated by : 
$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

This vectorial space is also defined by :  $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^4 \mid c_1 = 0 \right\}.$ 

## Exercise sheet 13

#### 24.

Let's draw the phase portraits.

a) 
$$x' = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x$$
  
Let  $M = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ .  
The eigenvalues of  $M$ :

$$det(M - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} -1 - \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & -1 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (1 + \lambda)^2$$

M has one eigenvalue  $\lambda = -1$  with the algebraic multiplicity 2. good An eigenvector u of M is given by (M+I)u=0.

Denoting u by  $u = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix}$ , we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow u_2 = 0.$$

 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is an eigenvector of M. **Ok** 

We have 
$$M = D + N$$
 with  $D = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $N = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$N^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

DN = ND and using the results in Exercise 22, we have:

$$e^{Mt} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-t} & te^{-t} \\ 0 & e^{-t} \end{bmatrix}$$

The solution of the system are given by:

$$\begin{split} x(t) &= e^{Mt}.C \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} e^{-t} & te^{-t} \\ 0 & e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \left(c_1e^{-t} + c_2te^{-t}\right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_2e^{-t} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \ c_1, c_2 \ \in \mathbb{R} \ \ \textbf{Ok} \end{split}$$

We can now draw the phase portrait:

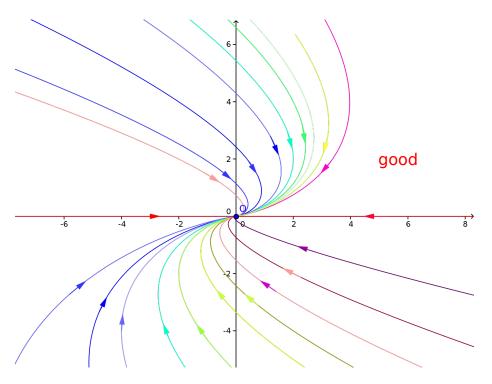


Figure 5: caption?

b) 
$$x' = \begin{bmatrix} -2/3 & 1/3 \\ 2/3 & -1/3 \end{bmatrix} x$$
  
Let  $M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2/3 & 1/3 \\ 2/3 & -1/3 \end{bmatrix}$ .  
The eigenvalues of  $M$ :

$$det(M_1 - \lambda I) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{vmatrix} -2/3 - \lambda & 1/3 \\ 2/3 & -1/3 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{2}{3}\lambda + \frac{1}{3}\lambda + \lambda^2 = 0$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \lambda = 0 \text{ or } \lambda = -1. \quad \mathbf{0k}$$

 $M_1$  has two different eigenvalues, thus  $M_1$  is diagonalizable.  ${\bf Eigenvectors:}$ 

Engenvectors.

Let 
$$u = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

For  $\lambda = 0$ , we have  $M_1 u = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ 
 $\Leftrightarrow -\frac{2}{3}u_1 + \frac{1}{3}u_2 = 0$ 
 $\Leftrightarrow u_2 = 2u_1$ 

Thus  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$  is an eigenvector of  $M_1$ . Ok

For  $\lambda = -1$ , we have  $(M_1 + I)u = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ 

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{3}u_1 + \frac{1}{3}u_2 = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow u_2 = -u_1$$
Thus,  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$  is an eigenvector of  $M_1$ . **OK**

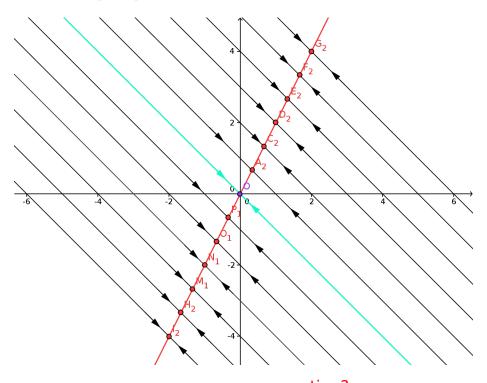
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ are linearly independent.}$$
The fundamental solution of the differential equation can be written in the form:

form:

$$x(t) = c_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + c_2 e^{-t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R} \quad \mathbf{good}$$
Then: 
$$\begin{cases} x_1(t) = c_1 + c_2 e^{-t} \\ x_2(t) = 2c_1 - c_2 e^{-t} \end{cases}$$

We have  $x_2(t) = -x_1(t+3c_1)$ : this is the equation of straight lines parallel to the line y = -x.

Therefore the phase portrait is:



caption? Figure 6:

for Q.25, you start first by solving the system of linear and non-linear ODEs, check that  $h \circ \phi t = \psi t \circ h$  before checking that  $h^-1$  exists and is a differentiable function.

#### Exercise sheet 14

#### 25.

Verifying that  $h(x,y)=(x,y+\frac{x^3}{4})$  is a differentiable conjugacy between the solutions of the systems

$$\begin{cases} x' = x \\ y' = -y \end{cases} \text{ and } \begin{cases} x' = x \\ y' = -y + x^3 \end{cases}$$

$$S_1 \Leftrightarrow X' = F(X) \text{ with } F(X = (x, y)) = (x, -y)$$

$$S_2 \Leftrightarrow Y' = G(Y) \text{ with } G(Y = (x, y)) = (x, -y + x^3)$$

$$h : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$(x, y) \mapsto (x, y + \frac{x^3}{4})$$

is a differentiable function because  $(x,y)\mapsto x$  and  $(x,y)\mapsto y+\frac{x^3}{4}$  are differentiable

 $\bullet$  Let's show that h is a bijection

• one-to-one Let 
$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $\begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  Suppose  $h(x_1, y_1) = h(x_2, y_2)$  Then we have

 $\begin{cases} x_1 = x_2 \\ y_1 + \frac{x_1^3}{4} = y_2 + \frac{x_2^3}{4} \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} x_1 = x_2 \\ y_1 = y_2 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$ 

h is one-to-one

•onto

Let 
$$(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2$$

We have 
$$(u, v - \frac{u^3}{4}) \in \mathbb{R}^2$$
 and  $h(u, v - \frac{u^3}{4}) = (u, v - \frac{u^3}{4} + \frac{u^3}{4}) = (u, v)$ 

We conclude that h is a bijection and  $h^{-1}(u,v)=(u,v-\frac{u^3}{4})$   $\forall (u,v) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

• We can see also that  $h^{-1}$  is differentiable. ok

Now we have to show that: 
$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial X}(X)F(X) = G(h(X))$$

We have 
$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial X}(X) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{3}{4}x^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$G(h(X)) = G(x, y + \frac{x^3}{4}) = (x, -y - \frac{x^3}{4} + x^3) = (x, -y + \frac{3x^3}{4})$$

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial X}(X)F(X) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{3}{4}x^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ -y \end{pmatrix} = (x, \frac{3x^3}{4} - y)$$

Thus 
$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial X}(X)F(X) = G(h(X))$$

We conclude that h is a differentiable conjugacy between the solutions of the two systems.

#### 26.

We consider the two dimensional Hamiltonian ordinary different equation

$$\begin{cases} q' &= \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} \\ p' &= \frac{-\partial H}{\partial q} \end{cases} (2)$$

a) Let's prove that the Hamiltonian H is first interval of the Hamiltonian system. H is not constant in any open set of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . We have:

$$\begin{pmatrix} p \\ q \end{pmatrix} \text{ is a solution } \iff \begin{cases} p' &= \frac{-\partial H}{\partial q} \\ q' &= \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} \end{cases}$$

$$\iff p' \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} = -q' \frac{\partial H}{\partial q}$$

$$\iff p' \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} + q' \frac{\partial H}{\partial q} = 0$$

$$\iff \frac{\partial H}{\partial t}(p,q) = 0 \text{ OK}$$

$$\iff \text{H is constant along the solutions of (2)}.$$

It follows that H is a first integral of the Hamiltonian system.

b)

$$H(p,q) = q^3 - q^2 + p^2$$

i) Equilibrium points:

We have 
$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial p} = 2p$$
,  $\frac{\partial H}{\partial q} = 3q^2 - 2q$   
We solve : 
$$\begin{cases} 2p = 0 \\ 3q^2 - 2q = 0 \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} p = 0 \\ q = 0 \end{cases} \text{ or } \begin{cases} p = 0 \\ q = \frac{2}{3} \end{cases} \text{ ok}$$

Thus, the equilibrium points are (0,0) and  $(0,\frac{2}{3})$ .

Let's the equilibrium point with which we can apply theorem of Hartman-Grobman. Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $f(p,q) = (-\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}, \frac{\partial H}{\partial p})$  with

$$(p,q) \in \mathbb{R}$$
. So, we have  $f(p,q) = (-3q^2 + 2q, 2p)$   
$$J_f(p,q) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -6q + 2 \\ 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$J_f(p,q) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -6q+2\\ 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

• 
$$J_f(0,0) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 Eigenvalues of  $J_f(0,0)$ :

$$det(J_f(0,0) - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 - 4$$
 The eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1 = -2, \lambda_2 = 2$ 

$$\bullet \ J_f(0, \frac{2}{3}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2 \\ 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$det(J_f(0, \frac{2}{3}) - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & -2 \\ 2 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 + 4$$

 $det(J_f(0, \frac{2}{3}) - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & -2 \\ 2 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 + 4$ The eigenvalues are :  $\lambda_1 = 2i$ ,  $\lambda_2 = -2i$ . So the eigenvalues of  $J_f(0, \frac{2}{3})$  are zero-real part. Whereas the real parts of the eigenvalues of  $J_f(0, 0)$  are non-zero 0. Therefore we can apply the theorem of Hartman-Grobman for the equilibrium **point** (0,0) only. iii)

Since the eigenvalues of  $J_f(0,0)$  are non-zero real parts, the equilibrium point (0,0) is hyperbolic. ok

This means that in a neighbourhood of (0,0), orbits should look like hyperbolas.

Using the theorem of Hartman-Grobman and Hadamard-Perre, we can say that the phase portrait of (2) close to (0,0) is almost the same as the one of  $y' = \frac{\partial f}{\partial X}(0,0)y$  in a neighbourhood of (0,0).

iv) Let's draw the phase portrait of (2):

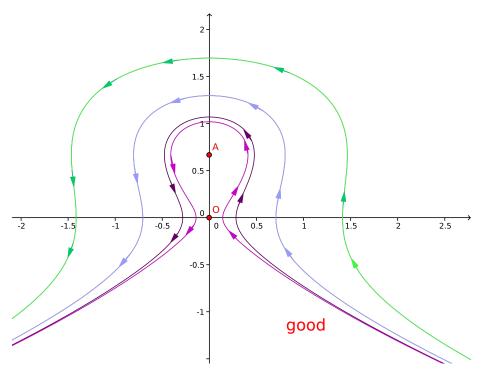


Figure 7: