Differential Equations (Math 285)

- **H32** Use the phase line to investigate the stability of the equilibrium solutions of the following autonomous ODE's.
 - a) $y' = 2(1-y)(1-e^y);$ b) $y' = (1-y^2)(4-y^2);$ c) $y' = \sin^2 y.$
- **H33** For the following ODE's y' = f(y), use the Existence and Uniqueness Theorem to determine the points $(t_0, y_0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ such that the initial value problem $y' = f(y) \wedge y(t_0) = y_0$ has a unique solution near (t_0, y_0) . Then solve the ODE, sketch the integral curves, and compare with your prediction.
 - a) y' = |y|; b) $y' = \sqrt{|y y^2|}.$
- **H34** Use Picard-Lindelöf iteration to compute the solution $\phi = (\phi_1, \phi_2)^T$ of the system

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1' \\ y_2' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -y_2 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

with initial condition $\phi(0) = (1,0)^{\mathsf{T}}$.

H35 Suppose that $f: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and satisfies locally a Lipschitz condition, and that

$$f(-t, y) = -f(t, y)$$
 for all $(t, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

Show that any solution $\phi: [-r, r] \to \mathbb{R}$, r > 0, of y' = f(t, y) is its own mirror image with respect to the y-axis.

H36 From a previous final exam

Consider the differential equation

$$(3xy + 2y^2) dx + (3x^2 + 6xy + 3y^2) dy = 0.$$
 (DF)

- a) Show that (0,0) is the only singular point of (DF).
- b) Transform (DF) into an exact equation and determine the general solution in implicit form.
- c) Is every point of \mathbb{R}^2 on a unique integral curve of (DF)?

Due on Fri Mar 31, 4 pm

The phase line of an autonomous ODE (required for H32) will be discussed in the lecture on Mon Mar 27 (cf. also [BDM17], Ch. 2.5).

Solutions

32 a) Setting $y' = 2(1-y)(1-e^y) = 0$ gives the two equilibrium solutions $y_1 = 0$, $y_2 = 1$. The graph of y' versus y is shown below. So $y_1 = 0$ is an asymptotically stable stable

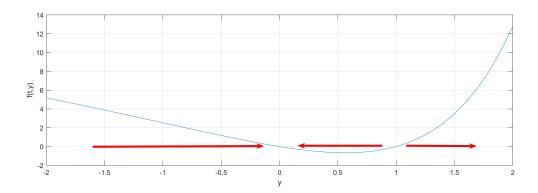


Figure 1: H32a)

equilibrium, while $y_2 = 1$ is an unstable equilibrium.

b) Setting $y' = (1-y^2)(4-y^2) = 0$ gives the four equilibria $y_1 = -2$, $y_2 = -1$, $y_3 = 1$, $y_4 = 2$. The graph of y' versus y is shown below. So $y_1 = -2$, $y_3 = 1$ are asymptotically

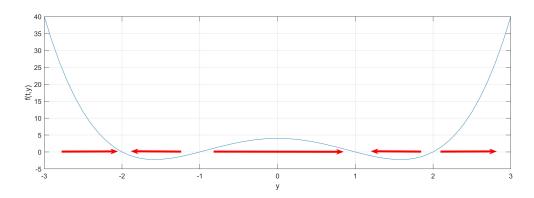


Figure 2: H32b)

stable solutions, while $y_2 = -1, y_4 = 2$ are unstable solutions.

- c) Setting $y' = \sin^2 y = 0$ gives infinitely many equilibrium solutions, viz. $y_k = k\pi$ $(k \in \mathbb{Z})$. The graph of y' versus y is shown below. So all equilibria are semistable (asymptotically stable from below, unstable from above).
- **33** Note that solutions of all three ODE's must have non-negative derivative and hence cannot decrease anywhere strictly.
- a) The function f(t,y) = |y| is continuous and trivially satisfies a Lipschitz condition with respect to y (with Lipschitz constant L = 1, since $|f(t,y_1) f(t,y_2)| = |y_1 y_2| \le 1 \cdot |y_1 y_2|$. Hence solutions exist and are unique everywhere. The general solution is

$$y_C(t) = \begin{cases} C e^t & \text{if } C \ge 0, \\ C e^{-t} & \text{if } C < 0, \end{cases}$$

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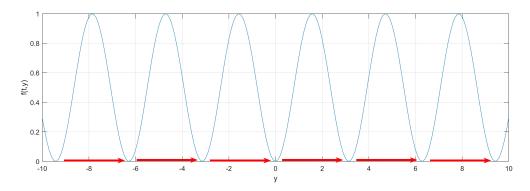


Figure 3: H32c)

where C can be any real number. This follows by considering the three cases y > 0, y = 0, y < 0 separately.

b) $f(t,y) = \sqrt{|y-y^2|}$ is C^1 on the three plane regions y < 0, 0 < y < 1, y > 1, and does not satisfy a Lipschitz condition with respect to y locally at points of the separating lines y = 0 and y = 1. The latter follows from the fact that the derivative $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ is unbounded near y = 0 and y = 1. For example, for 0 < y < 1 we have

$$|f(t,y) - f(t,1)| = \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(t,\eta) \right| |y - 1| = \left| \frac{1 - 2\eta}{2\sqrt{\eta - \eta^2}} \right| |y - 1|$$

for some $\eta \in (y, 1)$, and for y (and hence η) close to 1 the factor $\left| \frac{1-2\eta}{2\sqrt{\eta-\eta^2}} \right|$ becomes arbitarily large.

The Existence and Uniqueness Theorem gives that solutions exist and are unique locally at points within the three regions. At points (t, y) with $y \in \{0, 1\}$ solutions are not unique as the following explicit solution shows.

$$0 < y < 1 : dy/\sqrt{y-y^2} = 2 dy/\sqrt{1-(2y-1)^2} = 1 \Longrightarrow \arcsin(2y-1) = t+C \Longrightarrow y = \frac{1}{2} \left(1+\sin(t+C)\right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(1+\cos(t+C')\right)$$

$$y > 1 : dy/\sqrt{y^2-y} = 2 dy/\sqrt{(2y-1)^2-1} = 1 \Longrightarrow \operatorname{arcosh}(2y-1)$$

$$= t+C \Longrightarrow y = \frac{1}{2} \left(1+\cosh(t+C)\right)$$

$$y < 0 : dy/\sqrt{y^2-y} = 2 dy/\sqrt{(1-2y)^2-1} = 1 \Longrightarrow -\operatorname{arcosh}(1-2y)$$

$$= t+C \Longrightarrow y = \frac{1}{2} \left(1-\cosh(-t+C')\right)$$

Solutions from the 3 cases can be glued together at y = 0 and y = 1 to satisfy the same initial conditions as the constant solutions. One particular example is

$$y(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cosh(-t - \pi) & \text{for } t \le -\pi, \\ \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos t) & \text{for } -\pi \le t \le 0, \\ \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cosh t) & \text{for } t \ge 0; \end{cases}$$

see Figure 4. When constructing solutions, there is more degree of freedom, e.g., we can make solutions follow the line y = 0 for a while, then branch off and flow into the line y = 1, follow this line for another while, etc.

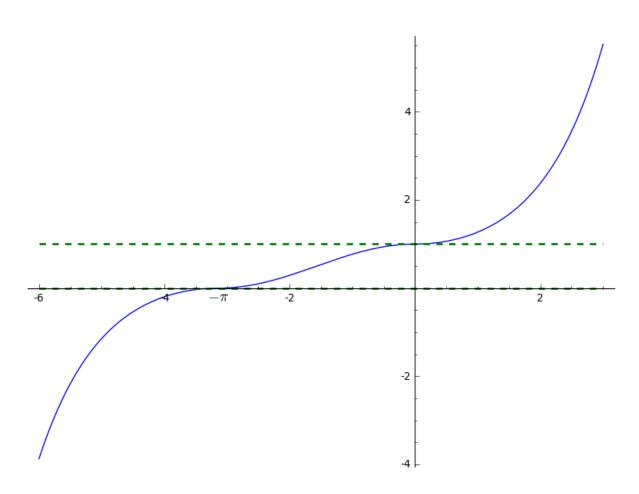


Figure 4: The solution y(t) from H33b)

34 According to Picard-Lindelöf iteration, we have

$$\phi_{k+1}(t) = y_0 + \int_0^t f(s, \phi_k(s)) ds, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Note that in this case $\phi_k(t)$ and y_0 are vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 , and the notation used is somewhat inconsistent with " $\phi = (\phi_1, \phi_2)^T$ " in the statement of the exercise (but preferred for its simplicity).

Since $\phi_0(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = y_0$, we have

$$\begin{split} \phi_1(t) &= y_0 + \int_0^t f(s,\phi_0(s)) \, ds = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \int_0^t \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \, ds = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ t \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ t \end{pmatrix}, \\ \phi_2(t) &= y_0 + \int_0^t f(s,\phi_1(s)) \, ds = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \int_0^t \begin{pmatrix} -s \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \, ds = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{t^2}{2} \\ t \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{t^2}{2} \\ t \end{pmatrix}, \\ \phi_3(t) &= y_0 + \int_0^t f(s,\phi_2(s)) \, ds = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \int_0^t \begin{pmatrix} -s \\ 1 - \frac{s^2}{2} \end{pmatrix} \, ds = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{t^2}{2} \\ t - \frac{t^3}{6} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{t^2}{2} \\ t - \frac{t^3}{6} \end{pmatrix}, \\ \phi_4(t) &= y_0 + \int_0^t f(s,\phi_3(s)) \, ds = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \int_0^t \left(\frac{s^3}{6} - s \\ 1 - \frac{s^2}{2} \right) \, ds = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{t^4}{24} - \frac{t^2}{2} \\ t - \frac{t^3}{6} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{t^2}{2} + \frac{t^4}{24} \\ t - \frac{t^3}{6} \end{pmatrix}, \end{split}$$

:

$$\phi_{2k-1}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{t^2}{2!} + \frac{t^4}{4!} - \frac{t^6}{6!} + \dots + (-1)^{k-1} \frac{t^{2k-2}}{(2k-2)!} \\ t - \frac{t^3}{3!} + \frac{t^5}{5!} - \frac{t^7}{7!} + \dots + (-1)^{k-1} \frac{t^{2k-1}}{(2k-1)!} \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\phi_{2k}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{t^2}{2!} + \frac{t^4}{4!} - \frac{t^6}{6!} + \dots + (-1)^k \frac{t^{2k}}{2k!} \\ t - \frac{t^3}{3!} + \frac{t^5}{5!} - \frac{t^7}{7!} + \dots + (-1)^{k-1} \frac{t^{2k-1}}{(2k-1)!} \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\implies \phi(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{t^{2k}}{2k!} \\ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{t^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos t \\ \sin t \end{pmatrix}$$

35 Consider the function $\psi(t) = \phi(-t)$, also defined for $t \in [-r, r]$. We have $\psi(0) = \phi(0) = y_0$, say, and

$$\psi'(t) = -\phi'(-t) = -f(-t, \phi(-t)) = f(t, \phi(-t)) = f(t, \psi(t)).$$

Hence both ϕ and ψ solve the IVP $y' = f(t,y) \wedge y(0) = y_0$. Since f satisfies the assumptions in the Existence and Uniqueness Theorem(s), it follows that $\phi = \psi$, i.e., $\phi(t) = \phi(-t)$ for $t \in [-r, r]$. This is the indicated symmetry property.

Remark: It is sufficient to assume that f satisfies locally a Lipschitz condition with respect to y, which is weaker than "Lipschitz condition per se".

- **36** a) $M(x,y) = 3xy + 2y^2 = y(3x + 2y)$, $N(x,y) = 3x^2 + 6xy + 3y^2 = 3(x+y)^2$ have no common zero except (0,0). $\Longrightarrow (0,0)$ is the only singular point.
- b) We have

$$M_y - N_x = 3x + 4y - (6x + 6y) = -3x - 2y = M(-1/y).$$

Thus $(M_y - N_x)/M$ depends only on y, and there is an integrating factor of the form g(y).

The integrability condition $(gM)_y = (gN)_x$ then becomes $g'M + gM_y = gN_x$, i.e.,

$$g' = \frac{g(N_x - M_y)}{M} = \frac{g}{y}.$$

The solution of this ODE is g(y) = cy, so that we can take g(y) = y. \implies On $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus x$ -axis the ODE $(3xy + 2y^2) dx + (3x^2 + 6xy + 3y^2) dy = 0$ is equivalent to the exact ODE

$$(3xy^2 + 2y^3) dx + (3x^2y + 6xy^2 + 3y^3) dy = 0.$$

An antiderivative f of the corresponding exact differential is determined in the usual way by "partial integration" with respect to x, say.

$$f(x,y) = \frac{3}{2}x^2y^2 + 2xy^3 + g(y),$$

$$f_y(x,y) = 3x^2y + 6xy^2 + g'(y) \stackrel{!}{=} 3x^2y + 6xy^2 + 3y^3$$

 \implies $g'(y) = 3y^3 \implies g(y) = \frac{3}{4}y^4 + C \implies f(x,y) = \frac{3}{2}x^2y^2 + 2xy^3 + \frac{3}{4}y^4 + C$ The general implicit solution of the exact ODE is then given by (in slightly simplified form and with a different C)

$$6x^2y^2 + 8xy^3 + 3y^4 = C, \quad C \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Solutions with C < 0 don't exist and for C = 0 the x-axis is obtained, since $6x^2y^2 + 8xy^3 + 3y^4 = y^2(6x^2 + 8xy + 3y^2)$ and the quadratic has discriminant $8^2 - 4 \cdot 6 \cdot 3 = -8 < 0$.

Since the x-axis (equivalently, the function $y(x) \equiv 0$) is a solution of (DF), multiplication by y hasn't introduced any new solution, and $6x^2y^2 + 8xy^3 + 3y^4 = C$, $C \ge 0$ solves (DF) as well.

c) Yes. This is implicit in the preceding discussion. Intersection points of integral curves must be singular, so that the only candidate for such a point is the origin. But the corresponding contour of f, the 0-contour, consists of a single integral curve, viz. the x-axis.

Remark: Part c) serves as an illustration for the fact that at singular points virtually anything can happen. Here it is due to the fact that at (0,0) the partial derivatives of f up to order 3 vanish. In the lecture we have seen an example of a singular point being on exactly two integral curves (Example 8 of the introduction, lecture1-3_handout.pdf, Slides 31 ff), and another one with a singular point contained in infinitely many integral curves (the example at the end of lecture17-18_handout.pdf). Singular points contained in no integral curve are also possible: For exact equations $\omega = \mathrm{d}f = 0$ this happens at a strict local extremum of f, where the corresponding contour reduces to a single point (at least locally).