

# Fields, Forms and Flows 3/34

## Solution Sheet 2

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1.  $f'$  is just the usual derivative, ie  $f'(x) = 2ax + b$ .  $f'$  vanishes for  $x = -b/2a$  ( $a \neq 0$ ). For any other  $x$ ,  $f(x)$  is invertible in a small neighbourhood around  $x$ . Eg, take  $x_0$  such that  $x_0 - (-b/2a) = \delta > 0$ . Let  $V = f(B_\delta(x_0))$ . Then there exists a  $g : V \rightarrow B_\delta(x_0)$  with  $g = f^{-1}$ . In fact, the inverse is given by the quadratic formula,

$$x(y) = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4a(c - y)}}{2a},$$

where the quantity inside the square root is necessarily positive for  $y \in V$  (check), and the sign in front of the square root is determined by requiring that  $|x(y) - x_0| < \delta$ .

2. Let  $F(x, y) = (u(x, y), v(x, y))$ , so that  $u = x^2 - y^2$  and  $v = 2xy$ .  $F'$  is given by

$$F'(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 2x & -2y \\ 2y & 2x \end{pmatrix},$$

and  $\det F'(x, y) = 4(x^2 + y^2)$ , which vanishes if and only if  $x = y = 0$ . Next, solve for  $x$  and  $y$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ . We have  $y = v/2x$ ; substitute this into the expression for  $u$  to get  $u = x^2 - v^2/4x^2$ , which leads to  $x^4 - ux^2 - v^2/4$ . We can solve for  $x^2$  (there is only one solution for which  $x^2$  is positive), and hence  $x$ , in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ . To get  $y$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ , use  $y^2 = x^2 - u$  and substitute the expression for  $x^2$ . The result is

$$x = \pm \left( \frac{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2} + u}{2} \right)^{1/2}, \quad y = \pm \left( \frac{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2} - u}{2} \right)^{1/2}.$$

The expressions for  $x$  and  $y$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$  are smooth away from  $u = v = 0$  (in particular, they are smooth for  $v = 0, u \neq 0$ , where one of the arguments of the square root goes through zero). Thus, given  $(x, y) \neq 0$ , there is an open set  $U$  containing  $(x, y)$  and an open set  $V = F(U)$  containing  $(u(x, y), v(x, y))$  such that  $F : U \rightarrow V$  is invertible and the inverse map  $G : V \rightarrow U$  is smooth. However, even excluding the origin from the  $xy$ -plane and the  $uv$ -plane,  $F$  is not 1-1 on  $\mathbb{R}^2 - \{(0, 0)\}$ ;  $(x, y)$  and  $(-x, -y)$  get mapped to the same point.

3. (a) Suppose  $f(a) = f(b)$ , with  $a \neq b$ . Without loss of generality, assume  $a < b$ . Then Rolle's theorem implies that there exists some  $c \in [a, b]$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ , contrary to assumption. (b)  $f'$  is given by

$$f'(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} e^x \cos y & -e^x \sin y \\ e^x \sin y & e^x \cos y \end{pmatrix},$$

and  $\det f'(x, y) = e^{2x} \neq 0$ . Clearly  $f(x, y)$  is not 1-1, since  $f(x, y + 2\pi) = f(x, y)$ . Thus, in more than one dimension,  $\det f'(x) \neq 0$  is not enough to ensure that  $f$  is globally invertible. In general, the inverse of  $f$  may only be defined locally (ie, not on all of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ).

4.  $f'(0)$  is the limit as  $h \rightarrow 0$  of  $(f(h) - f(0))/h$ . Since  $f(0) = 0$  by definition,  $f'(0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(h)/h = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2} + h \sin(1/h) = \frac{1}{2}$ . For  $x \neq 0$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2} + 2x \sin(1/x) - \cos(1/x)$ . Thus  $f'(x)$  is not continuous at  $x = 0$ , as arbitrarily close to  $x = 0$ ,  $f'(x)$  assumes any value in  $[-\frac{1}{2}, 1\frac{1}{2}]$ . In particular, at  $x_n = 1/(n\pi)$ ,  $f'$  is either positive (if  $n$  is odd) or negative (if  $n$  is even). This implies that  $f$  cannot be 1-1 in any neighbourhood of 0. For if a continuous function is 1-1, then it is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing; if the function is differentiable, its derivative cannot change sign.
5. If  $\partial f/\partial y$  vanishes everywhere, then  $f$  depends only on  $x$ , and therefore is not 1-1. So we can assume there exists a point  $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  for which  $\partial f/\partial y(a, b) \neq 0$ . Let  $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be given by  $F(x, y) = (x, f(x, y))$ . Then

$$F'(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \partial f/\partial x & \partial f/\partial y \end{pmatrix} (x, y).$$

Thus  $\det F'(a, b) = \partial f/\partial y(a, b) \neq 0$ . Let  $f(a, b) = c$ , so that  $F(a, b) = (a, c)$ . By the inverse function theorem, there exist open sets  $U, V \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  with  $(a, b) \in U$  and  $(a, c) \in V$  such that  $F : U \rightarrow V$  is 1-1 with smooth inverse. Since  $V$  is open, there is a  $\delta > 0$  so that  $(a + t, c) \in V$  for  $|t| < \delta$ . Let  $(x(t), y(t)) = F^{-1}(a + t, c)$ . Then  $F(x(t), y(t)) = (a + t, c)$ , so that  $f(x(t), y(t)) = c$ . Since  $F^{-1}$  is 1-1, the points  $(x(t), y(t))$  are distinct for different values of  $t$ . Thus  $f$  is not 1-1.

6. (a) We can identify the space of  $2 \times 2$  matrices with  $\mathbb{R}^4$ ,

$$x = (a, b, c, d) \longleftrightarrow X = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}.$$

For the purposes of this solution, we'll denote vectors by small letters, eg,  $x, y$ , etc, and the corresponding matrices by capital letters, eg  $X, Y$ , etc.

Squaring a matrix, ie

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + bc & b(a+d) \\ c(a+d) & bc + d^2 \end{pmatrix},$$

corresponds to the map  $F: \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$  given by

$$F((a, b, c, d)) = (a^2 + bc, b(a+d), c(a+d), bc + d^2).$$

The derivative of this map is given by

$$F'((a, b, c, d)) = \begin{pmatrix} 2a & c & b & 0 \\ b & a+d & 0 & b \\ c & 0 & a+d & c \\ 0 & c & b & 2d \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let  $x_0 = (2, 0, 0, -1)$ , so that

$$X_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let  $Y_0 = F(x_0) = (4, 0, 0, 1)$ , so that

$$Y_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We have that

$$F'(x_0) = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix},$$

which is clearly nonsingular. Therefore, by the inverse function theorem, there exists an open neighbourhood  $U$  of  $x_0$  and an open neighbourhood  $V$  of  $y_0$  such that  $F: U \rightarrow V$  is invertible with smooth inverse  $G: V \rightarrow U$ .  $U$  can be made arbitrarily small (so that points in  $U$  are arbitrarily close to  $x_0$ ). Let  $K$  be the arbitrary  $2 \times 2$  matrix in the problem. For  $\epsilon$  sufficiently small,  $y_0 + \epsilon k$  belongs to  $V$ , and  $x = G(y_0 + \epsilon k)$  belongs to  $U$ , and therefore is close to  $x_0$ . The fact that  $F(G(y_0 + \epsilon k)) = y_0 + \epsilon k$  implies that  $X^2 = Y_0 + \epsilon K$ , so  $X$  is the required square root.

- (b) Let  $x_0 = (1, 0, 0, -1)$ , so that

$$X_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then

$$F'(x_0) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix},$$

which is clearly singular. Therefore, the inverse function theorem does not apply in this case.

Let's try to find the asked-for square root directly. Taking  $K$  as in the suggestion with  $\epsilon \neq 0$ , we want to find  $(a, b, c, d)$  small such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1+a & b \\ c & -1+d \end{pmatrix}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} (1+a)^2 + bc & b(a+d) \\ c(a+d) & (-1+d)^2 + bc \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \epsilon \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

('small' means that  $(a, b, c, d)$  should go to zero as  $\epsilon$  goes to zero).

Equating the off-diagonal elements we get that  $c(a+d) = 0$  and  $b(a+d) = \epsilon$ , so that

$$c = 0.$$

Equating the diagonal elements and substituting  $c = 0$  gives  $(1+a)^2 = 1 = (-1+d)^2$ , with solutions  $a = 0$  or  $-2$ ,  $d = 0$  or  $2$ . Since  $a+d$  cannot vanish (since  $b(a+d) = \epsilon$ ), we conclude that

$$\text{Either } a = 0, d = 2, b = \epsilon/2 \text{ or } a = -2, d = 0, b = -\epsilon/2.$$

In neither case is  $(a, b, c, d)$  small, so a square root near  $X_0$  cannot be found.

7. Let  $y(t) \in \mathbb{R}^4$  be given by  $(x(t), \dot{x}(t), \ddot{x}(t), t)$ . Then

$$\dot{y} = (\dot{x}, \ddot{x}, d^3x/dt^3, 1) = (y^2, y^3, \sin y^4 (y^1 y^3 / (y^2)^2), 1).$$

That is,  $y(t)$  satisfies the first-order autonomous system

$$\dot{y} = Y(y),$$

with

$$Y((y^1, y^2, y^3, y^4)) = (y^2, y^3, \sin y^4 (y^1 y^3 / (y^2)^2), 1).$$

8. Given  $\ddot{q} = 1$ , let  $x = (u, v) = (q, \dot{q})$ . Then  $\dot{x} = (\dot{u}, \dot{v}) = \mathbb{X}(x) = (v, 1)$ . The equation  $\dot{v} = 1$  has solution  $v(t) = v_0 + t$ . The equation  $\dot{u} = v = v_0 + t$  has solution  $u_0 + v_0 t + t^2/2$ . Therefore, the flow is given by

$$\Phi_t(u_0, v_0) = (u_0 + v_0 t + t^2/2, v_0 + t),$$

or

$$\Phi_t(u, v) = (u + vt + t^2/2, v + t).$$

(It doesn't matter what we call the argument of  $\Phi_t$ .)

Now verify the composition law:

$$\begin{aligned} (\Phi_s \circ \Phi_t)((u, v)) &= \Phi_s(\Phi_t((u, v))) \\ &= \Phi_s((u + vt + t^2/2, v + t)) \\ &= (u + vt + t^2/2 + (v + t)s + s^2/2, v + t + s) \\ &= (u + v(s + t) + (s + t)^2/2, v + (s + t)) = \Phi_{s+t}((u, v)), \end{aligned}$$

as required.

9. Let  $\dot{x} = x^2$ .  $x(t) = 0$  is the unique solution satisfying the initial condition  $x(0) = x_0 = 0$  (since  $x^2$  is smooth, solutions are unique). If  $x_0 \neq 0$ , then

$$\int_{x_0}^x \frac{dx'}{x'^2} = \int_0^t dt,$$

or

$$\frac{1}{x_0} - \frac{1}{x} = t.$$

Solve to get

$$x(t) = \frac{x_0}{1 - x_0 t}.$$

The solution has a singularity at  $T = 1/x_0$ . For  $x_0 < 0$ , the solution is defined for  $t \in (1/x_0, \infty)$  (the singularity is in the past). For  $x_0 > 0$ , the solution is defined for  $t \in (-\infty, 1/x_0)$  (the singularity is in the future). If  $x_0 = 0$ , then  $x(t) = 0$ , and the solution is defined for all times.

Next, let  $\dot{x} = x^2/(1 + x^2)$ . If  $x_0 = 0$ , then  $x(t) = 0$  is the unique solution (since  $x^2/(1 + x^2)$  is smooth, solutions are unique). Integrate to get

$$\int_{x_0}^x \frac{(1 + x'^2)dx'}{x'^2} = \int_0^t dt,$$

or

$$\frac{1}{x_0} - \frac{1}{x} + x - x_0 = t.$$

Multiplying by  $x$  we obtain a quadratic equation in  $x$  which may be solved to obtain

$$x(t) = \Phi_t(x_0) = \frac{1}{2} \left( x_0 + t - 1/x_0 \pm \sqrt{(x_0 + t - 1/x_0)^2 + 4} \right).$$

Note that the sign of the square root is determined by requiring that  $x(0) = x_0$  (the sign is equal to sign of  $x_0$ ). This solution has no singularities and therefore is defined for all  $t$ .

10. Let

$$V(q) = \begin{cases} -\frac{3}{4}q^{4/3}, & q > 0, \\ 0, & q \leq 0. \end{cases}$$

Then  $\ddot{q} = -V'(q)$  is equivalent to the first-order system

$$(\dot{x}^1, \dot{x}^2) = (x^2, -V'(x^1)),$$

where  $x^1 = q$  and  $x^2 = \dot{q}$ . Let  $q(t) = 0$ . Clearly  $q(t)$  satisfies the differential equation, as  $\ddot{q} = 0 = V'(0)$ , with initial conditions  $q(0) = \dot{q}(0) = 0$ . Now look for another solution of the form  $q(t) = at^b$ . Substituting into the differential equation gives  $ab(b-1)t^{b-2} = a^{1/3}t^{b/3}$  for  $t > 0$ . Equating exponents and coefficients of  $t$ , we get that  $b/3 = b-2$ , or  $b = 3$ , and  $ab(b-1) = a^{1/3}$ , or  $a = 6^{-3/2}$ . What about  $t < 0$ ? The preceding analysis does not apply, because while we still have that  $\ddot{q} = t/\sqrt{6}$ , we also have that  $q(t) = 6^{-3/2}t^3 < 0$  for  $t < 0$ . But  $V'(q) = 0$  for  $q < 0$ . Therefore, for  $t < 0$ ,  $q(t) = 6^{-3/2}t^3$  does not satisfy the differential equation  $\ddot{q} = -V'(q)$ . On the other hand,  $q(t) = 0$  is obviously a solution for  $t < 0$ . Thus,

$$q(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t \leq 0, \\ 6^{-3/2}t^3, & t > 0 \end{cases}$$

satisfies the differential equation. The initial conditions are  $q(0) = \dot{q}(0) = 0$ , the same as those satisfied by the trivial solution  $q(0)$ . In fact, there is a family of solutions parameterised by  $t_0 \geq 0$  given by

$$q(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t \leq t_0, \\ \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^{3/2}(t - t_0)^3, & t > t_0, \end{cases}$$

all of which satisfy the initial conditions. Thus solutions of Newton's equation are not unique in this case. A particle at rest at the top of the hill with height  $V(q)$  could start rolling down at any time; Newtonian mechanics does not tell us when. Note that the force  $F(q) = -V'(q)$  is not smooth at  $q = 0$ . The singularity in the derivative  $F'(q)$  at  $q = 0$  is responsible for the nonuniqueness of the solution.

More generally, consider

$$\ddot{q} = \begin{cases} 0, & q \leq 0, \\ q^\alpha, & q > 0, \end{cases}$$

where  $\alpha > 0$ , with initial conditions  $q(0) = \dot{q}(0) = 0$ . We take  $\alpha > 0$  to ensure continuity of  $\ddot{q}$  at  $q = 0$ . Let  $q = at^b$  for  $t \geq 0$ . Then we get that  $ab(b-1)t^{b-2} = a^\alpha t^{\alpha b}$ . Equating exponents yields  $b = 2/(1-\alpha)$ . To have  $\dot{q}(0) = 0$ , we must have  $b > 1$ . This implies that  $2/(1-\alpha) > 1$ , or  $-1 < \alpha < 1$  (but we also have  $\alpha > 0$ ). Equating coefficients yields  $ab(b-1) = a^\alpha$ , or

$$a = \left( \frac{(1-\alpha)^2}{2(1+\alpha)} \right)^{1/(1-\alpha)},$$

which is well defined for  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . Thus, for  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , we get a family of solutions parameterised by  $t_0 > 0$ ,

$$q(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t \leq t_0, \\ \left( \frac{(1-\alpha)^2}{2(1+\alpha)} \right)^{1/(1-\alpha)} (t - t_0)^{2/(1-\alpha)}, & t > t_0. \end{cases}$$