

Classical Mechanics III (8.(3)09)

Assignment 9: Solutions

November 17, 2021

1. Viscous Flow on an Inclined Plane [10 points]

(a) [2 points]

Let us take the $+x$ -direction in the direction of fluid flow parallel to the plane (as shown on the picture), and the $+y$ -direction normal to it (so tilted relative to gravity). Take $y = 0$ to be at the surface on the inclined plane. The Navier-Stokes equation with an external force is

$$\frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v} = -\frac{\vec{\nabla} p}{\rho} + \nu \nabla^2 \vec{v} + \frac{\vec{f}}{\rho}$$

where \vec{f} is the force per fluid volume. In our case we have $\frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} = 0$ (steady flow) and $\vec{f} = \rho \vec{g}$, so

$$(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v} = -\frac{\vec{\nabla} p}{\rho} + \nu \nabla^2 \vec{v} + \vec{g}$$

where with our coordinate system $\vec{g} = g(\hat{x} \sin \theta - \hat{y} \cos \theta)$.

(b) [4 points]

By symmetry both \vec{v} and p are functions of y only. Moreover \vec{v} is parallel to the x -direction ($\vec{v} \cdot \hat{z} = 0$ by assumption, since \hat{x} is the direction of fluid flow; and $\vec{v} \cdot \hat{y} = 0$ can be seen by invoking continuity on a pillbox from $y = 0$ to $y = y'$). Hence

$$p = p(y), \quad \vec{v} = v(y) \hat{x}.$$

Now for the boundary conditions. On the surface of the inclined plane we require the no-slip condition $v(y = 0) = 0$. The boundary condition on the water-air surface is trickier, but we can make the approximation that since air is nearly inviscid there is no shear stress at that surface:

$$\sigma'_{xy}|_{y=h} = 0$$

which implies that

$$0 = \left. \frac{\partial(\vec{v} \cdot \hat{x})}{\partial y} \right|_{y=h} = \frac{\partial v(y=h)}{\partial y}.$$

Hence the boundary conditions for v are

$$v(y=0) = 0, \quad \frac{\partial v(y=h)}{\partial y} = 0$$

(c) [4 points]

Note that $(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{v} = (\vec{v} \cdot \hat{x}) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \vec{v} = 0$. (No surprise here: $\frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = 0$ since by symmetry the velocity on each streamline is constant – note the streamlines are all parallel to \hat{x} – and we already know $\frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} = 0$.) Therefore the Navier-Stokes equation in the x - and y - directions give us respectively

$$\nu \frac{\partial^2 v(y)}{\partial y^2} + g \sin \theta = 0$$

$$-\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} - g \cos \theta = 0$$

Thus we must have

$$v(y) = -\frac{g \sin \theta}{2\nu} y^2 + Ay + B \quad \text{and} \quad p = -\rho g y \cos \theta + C$$

for some constants A , B , and C . Matching the boundary conditions given in (b), and also $p(y=h) = p_{atm}$, we get finally:

$$\vec{v} = \frac{gh^2 \sin \theta}{\nu} \left(\frac{y}{h} - \frac{y^2}{2h^2} \right) \hat{x},$$

$$p = p_{atm} + (h-y)\rho g \cos \theta.$$

2. Chaos in a Nonlinear Circuit [13 points]

Solutions for this problem are given by the pages from mathematica attached at the end of this document.

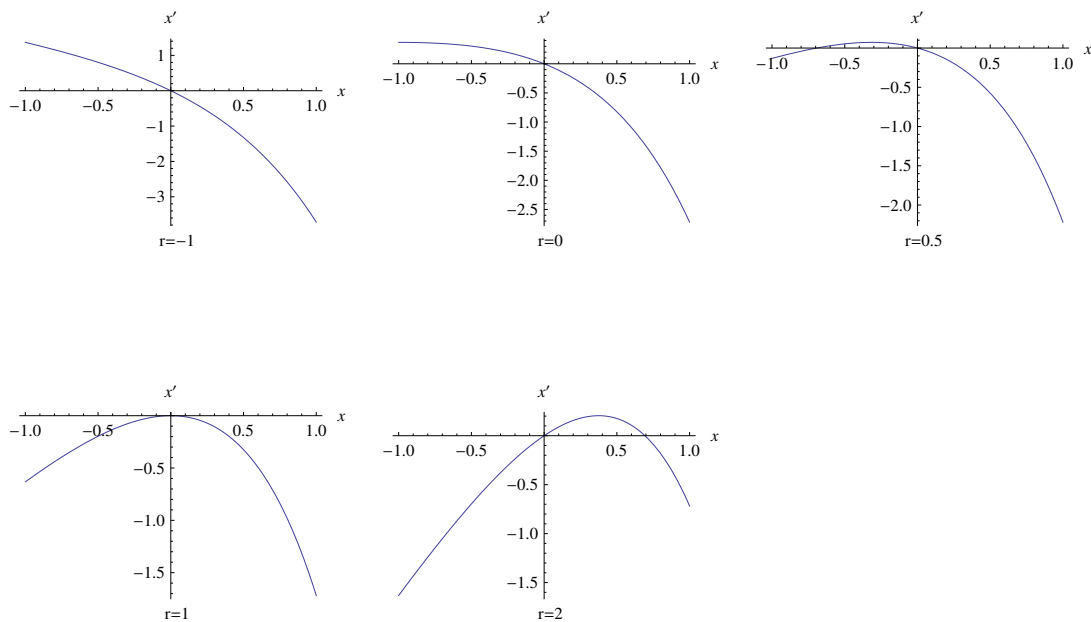
3. Bifurcations [12 points, 4 points each]

(a) $\dot{x} = x(r - e^x)$

We first find the fixed points, i.e. those points $x = x^*$ for which $\dot{x} = x^*(r - e^{x^*}) = 0$. It is clear that $x^* = 0$ is always a fixed point. The other fixed point x^* , if it exists, is such that $r - e^{x^*} = 0$; this can only occur if $r > 0$, in which case $x^* = \ln r$. Thus the fixed points of the system are

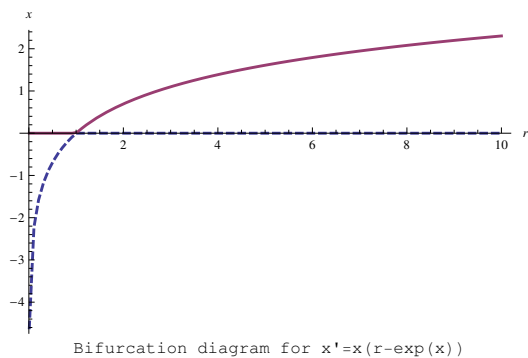
$$\begin{aligned} x^* &= 0 & , & & \text{if } r \leq 0 \\ x^* &= 0, \ln r & , & & \text{if } r > 0. \end{aligned}$$

Note that the fixed points $x^* = 0$ and $x = \ln r$ merge at $r = 1$, so we expect a bifurcation at $r = 1$. Let's therefore plot \dot{x} versus x for the four cases $r < 0$, $r = 0$, $0 < r < 1$, $r = 1$, and $r > 1$:



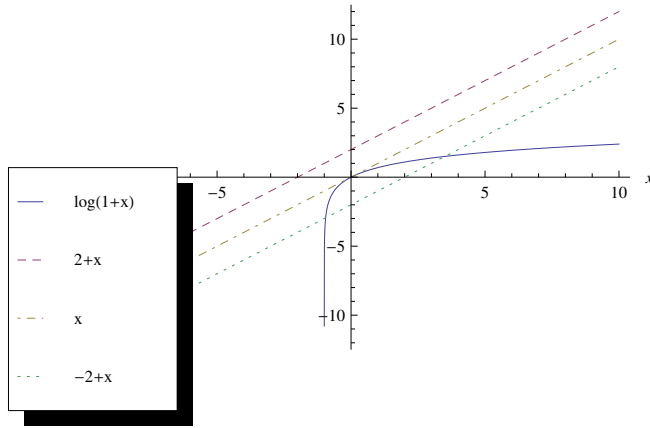
- For $r \leq 0$, there is one fixed point at $x^* = 0$.
- For $0 < r < 1$, the fixed point $x^* = \ln r$ is unstable while $x^* = 0$ is stable.
- At $r = 1$, the two fixed points merge and there is only a single fixed point at $x^* = 0$; it is half-stable (as can be seen from the above graph, or by noting that $\dot{x} = -\frac{1}{2}x^2 + O(x^3)$ for $r = 1$). As r increases the two fixed points swap stabilities:
- For $r > 1$, the fixed point $x^* = \ln r$ is stable while $x^* = 0$ is unstable.

The bifurcation at $r = 1$ is a transcritical bifurcation. The bifurcation diagram is shown below.



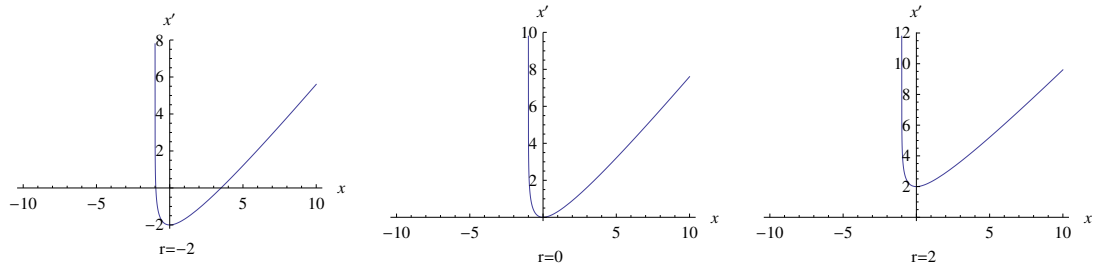
(b) $\dot{x} = r + x - \ln(1 + x)$

To determine the number and location of the fixed points, we plot $y = r + x$ and $y = \ln(1 + x)$. The x -coordinates of the intersections are the fixed points.



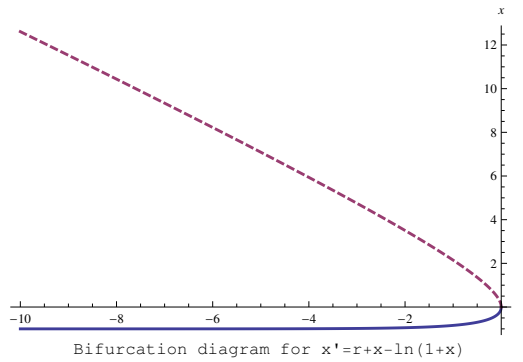
Note that $\frac{d \ln(1+x)}{dx} = \frac{1}{1+x}$, whose maximum matches the slope of $y = r + x$ (namely, 1) at $x = 0$. Hence we expect a bifurcation when $x = 0$ is a fixed point, and this happens when $r = 0$.

Let us plot \dot{x} versus x :



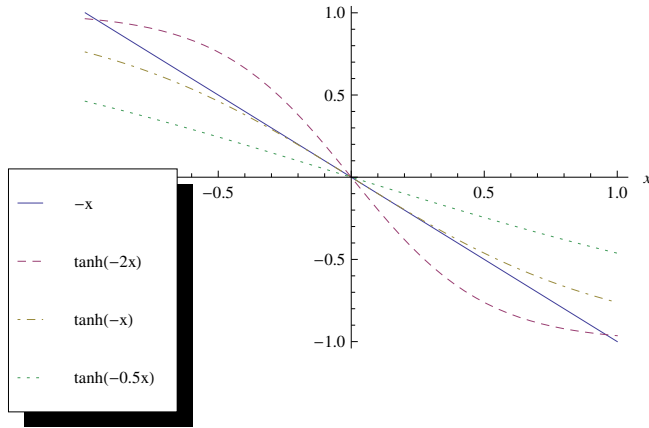
- For $r < 0$, there are two fixed points. The fixed point $x^* > 0$ is unstable, while the fixed point $x^* < 0$ is stable.
- For $r = 0$, there is one fixed point at $x^* = 0$. From the plot we see it is half-stable; this can also be seen from $\dot{x} = x - \ln(1+x) = \frac{x^2}{2} + O(x^3)$ around $x^* = 0$.
- For $r > 0$, there are no fixed points.

Hence there is a saddle-node bifurcation at $r = 0$. The bifurcation diagram is shown below.

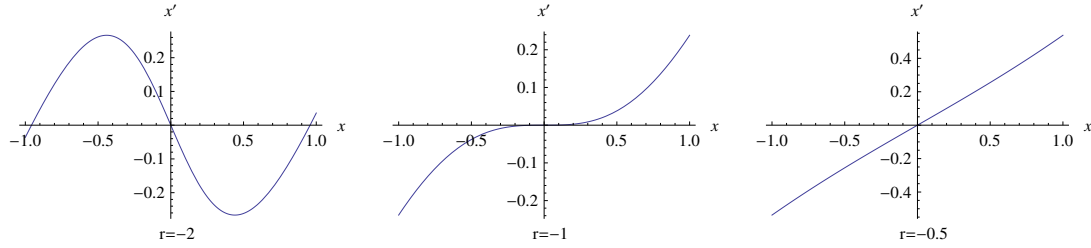


(c) $\dot{x} = x + \tanh(rx)$

Note that for $r \geq 0$ we have that \dot{x} and x always have the same sign, and the only fixed point is $x^* = 0$. For the case when $r < 0$, let us plot $y = -x$ and $y = \tanh(rx)$; their intersections are the fixed points.

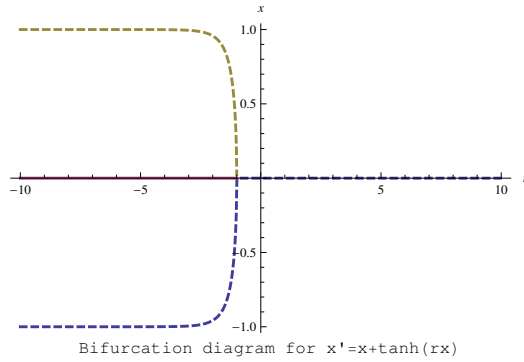


The derivative of $\tanh(rx)$ is $\frac{d \tanh(rx)}{dx} = r \operatorname{sech}^2(rx)$, whose extremum value occurs at $x = 0$ and is r . Thus the slopes of $y = \tanh(x)$ and $y = -x$ match at $x = 0$ when $r = -1$, and we expect a bifurcation there. Let us plot \dot{x} versus x :



- For $r < -1$, there are three fixed points: the fixed point at $x^* = 0$ is stable, while the fixed points at $x^* = \pm \tilde{x}$, for some $\tilde{x} > 0$, are unstable.
- For $r \geq -1$, there is a single fixed point at $x^* = 0$, which is unstable. (The stability of the case $r = -1$ may be seen from the graph, or by calculating that $\dot{x} = x + \tanh(-x) = \frac{x^3}{3} + O(x^5)$, so \dot{x} and $x - x^*$ have the same sign around $x^* = 0$.)

There is a subcritical pitchfork at $r = -1$. The bifurcation diagram is shown below.



4. Damped Nonlinear Oscillator [15 points]

(a) [2 points] Let θ' be the deviation from a fixed point, i.e. $\theta = n\pi + \theta'$ for some fixed $n\pi$. Then around this fixed point, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sin \theta &= \sin(n\pi + \theta') = \sin(n\pi) \cos(\theta') + \cos(n\pi) \sin(\theta') \\ &= (-1)^n \sin(\theta') \\ &\approx (-1)^n \theta'\end{aligned}$$

and so to first order in θ' and ω we have

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\theta}' &= \omega \\ \dot{\omega} &= -\frac{\omega}{q} - (-1)^n \theta' .\end{aligned}$$

(b) [4 points] First let us consider the case that n is even. In this case we have the harmonic oscillator equations $\dot{\theta}' = \omega$, $\dot{\omega} = -\theta'$ with spring constant 1, so the solutions are

$$\theta' = A \cos(t + \delta), \quad \omega = -A \sin(t + \delta)$$

for some constants A and δ . We therefore have elliptical oscillations around the fixed point.

Now consider instead the case where n is odd. Then instead we have $\dot{\theta}' = \omega$, $\dot{\omega} = \theta'$. Thus $\ddot{\theta}' = \theta'$ and $\ddot{\omega} = \omega$, and the solutions to these equations are

$$\theta' = Ae^t + Be^{-t}, \quad \omega = Ae^t - Be^{-t}$$

for some constants A and B . Note that

$$\theta' + \omega = 2Ae^t$$

$$\theta' - \omega = 2Be^{-t}$$

so the $\theta' + \omega$ direction corresponds to the growing solution, and the $\theta' - \omega$ direction corresponds to the decaying solution. (We could also have gotten this more systematically by putting this in

matrix form, see part (c).)

(c) [4 points] For finite q the fixed points where n is even become attractors, as we'll see in a moment. (This isn't surprising, since we already know that for a damped harmonic oscillator the fixed point is an attractor.) In this case we have

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} \theta' \\ \omega \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1/q \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta' \\ \omega \end{pmatrix}$$

Let us write $\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \theta' \\ \omega \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1/q \end{pmatrix}$, so

$$\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} = M\vec{x}, \quad M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1/q \end{pmatrix}$$

We can try a solution of the form $\vec{x} = e^{\lambda t} \vec{a}$, where \vec{a} is a constant vector (i.e. independent of time). Then this gives

$$M\vec{a} = \lambda \vec{a}$$

i.e. λ is an eigenvalue of M , with corresponding eigenvector \vec{a} . We can directly solve the characteristic equation

$$\det(M - \lambda \mathbb{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ -1 & -1/q - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda(\lambda + \frac{1}{q}) + 1 = 0$$

which has the solutions

$$\lambda_{\pm} = -\frac{1}{2q} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{2q}\right)^2 - 1}.$$

We now break into cases [Note to grader: if less detail is given, relying on results from 8.03, then that is fine.]:

1. $q > 1/2$. In this case the factor in the square root is negative, so we have two complex eigenvalues:

$$\lambda_{\pm} = -\frac{1}{2q} \pm i\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{1}{2q}\right)^2} \equiv -\frac{1}{2q} + i\Omega_0$$

where $\Omega_0 = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{1}{2q}\right)^2}$. The general solution is then a linear combination of the specific solutions $e^{\lambda_{\pm} t} \vec{a}_{\pm}$, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x} &= A_+ \vec{a}_+ e^{\lambda_+ t} + A_- \vec{a}_- e^{\lambda_- t} \\ &= e^{-t/(2q)} [A_+ \vec{a}_+ (\cos(\Omega_0 t) + i \sin(\Omega_0 t)) + A_- \vec{a}_- (\cos(\Omega_0 t) - i \sin(\Omega_0 t))] \\ &= e^{-t/(2q)} [(A_+ \vec{a}_+ + A_- \vec{a}_-) \cos(\Omega_0 t) + i(A_+ \vec{a}_+ - A_- \vec{a}_-) \sin(\Omega_0 t)] \\ &= e^{-t/(2q)} [\vec{a}_1 \cos(\Omega_0 t) + \vec{a}_2 \sin(\Omega_0 t)] \end{aligned}$$

for some vectors \vec{a}_1 and \vec{a}_2 . (Both vectors must be real to be physically meaningful.) Therefore

we can write, for some constants A_1 and A_2 ,

$$\begin{aligned}\theta' &= e^{-t/(2q)}[A_1 \cos(\Omega_0 t) + A_2 \sin(\Omega_0 t)] \\ \omega &= e^{-t/(2q)}[(A_2 \Omega_0 - \frac{A_1}{2q}) \cos(\Omega_0 t) + (-A_1 \Omega_0 - \frac{A_2}{2q}) \sin(\Omega_0 t)]\end{aligned}$$

(we got the solution for ω by differentiating that of θ' by t). This is an oscillating solution that exponentially decays to the fixed point, i.e. it is the underdamped case. (We could also have written $\theta' = Ae^{-t/(2q)} \cos(\Omega_0 t + \delta)$ and differentiated that for the solution for ω .) Figure is below.

2. $q < 1/2$. Then the factor in the square root is positive, and we have two distinct real eigenvalues:

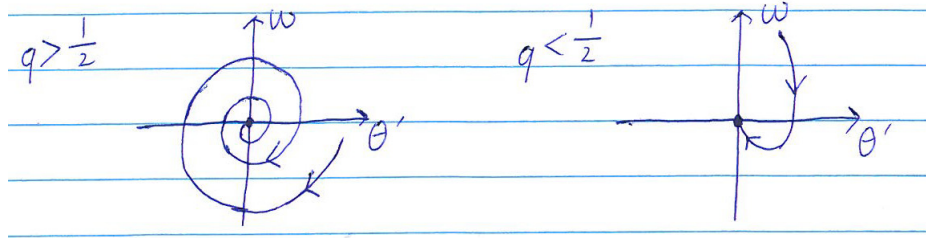
$$\lambda_{\pm} = -\frac{1}{2q} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{2q}\right)^2 - 1}$$

and the general solution is simply $\vec{x} = A_+ e^{\lambda_+ t} \vec{a}_+ + A_- e^{\lambda_- t} \vec{a}_-$ for some constants A_+ and A_- , or

$$\begin{aligned}\theta' &= A_1 e^{\lambda_+ t} + A_2 e^{\lambda_- t} \\ \omega &= \lambda_+ A_1 e^{\lambda_+ t} + \lambda_- A_2 e^{\lambda_- t}\end{aligned}$$

for some constants A_1 and A_2 . Note that both eigenvalues are smaller than zero: $\lambda_+, \lambda_- < 0$, so this is the overdamped case. Figure is below.

3. $q = 1/2$. (Note to grader: do not grade this case.) In this case we have only one real eigenvalue, and in fact there are no longer two distinct eigenvectors. Instead we have $\lambda = -1$ with a single eigenvector $\vec{a} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$. The two independent solutions in this case are actually $e^{\lambda t} \vec{a}$ and $te^{\lambda t} \vec{a}$, so $\theta' = e^{-t}(A_1 + A_2 t)$ for some A_1 and A_2 . (This is the critically damped case.)



Aside: For first-order homogenous linear differential equations with constant coefficients, i.e. equations of the form $\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} = M\vec{x}$ for some constant matrix M , we can usually express the general solution as a linear combination of solutions of the form $\vec{x} = e^{\lambda t} \vec{a}$, where \vec{a} is constant. λ and \vec{a} are the eigenvalue-eigenvector pairs of M . The only situation where this is insufficient to generate the required $\dim(M)$ independent solutions is when M does not have $\dim(M)$ independent eigenvectors,

i.e. when M is not diagonalizable.

(d) [5 points] We now consider the case where n is odd. Then again, with $\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \theta' \\ \omega \end{pmatrix}$,

$$\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} = M\vec{x}, \quad M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1/q \end{pmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues of M in this case are given by

$$\det(M - \lambda \mathbb{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & -1/q - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda(\lambda + \frac{1}{q}) - 1 = 0$$

so

$$\lambda_{\pm} = -\frac{1}{2q} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{2q}\right)^2 + 1}$$

Note that the eigenvalues are always real. Moreover $0 < \lambda_+ < 1$ and $-\infty < \lambda_- < -1$; λ_+ gives the growing mode and λ_- gives the decaying mode, so this fixed point is indeed a saddle point. The corresponding eigenvectors are

$$\vec{a}_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \lambda_{\pm}^2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \lambda_{\pm} \end{pmatrix}$$

and the general solution is $\vec{x} = A_+ e^{\lambda_+ t} \vec{a}_+ + A_- e^{\lambda_- t} \vec{a}_-$, or

$$\begin{aligned} \theta' &= A_1 e^{\lambda_+ t} + A_2 e^{\lambda_- t} \\ \omega &= \lambda_+ A_1 e^{\lambda_+ t} + \lambda_- A_2 e^{\lambda_- t}. \end{aligned}$$

where A_1, A_2 are arbitrary constants. The growth rate of the growing mode is of course $\kappa = \lambda_+$, while the direction of the purely growing solution is given by the direction of \vec{a}_+ , which makes an angle of

$$\tan^{-1}(\lambda_+) = \tan^{-1} \left(-\frac{1}{2q} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{2q}\right)^2 + 1} \right)$$

with the θ -axis.

5. Lorenz Equations [10 points]

(a) [2 points] Recall that the rate of change of a phase space volume V is given by (we use ∂V to indicate the boundary of V)

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = \int_{\partial V} \vec{f} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_V \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{f} dV$$

by the divergence theorem, where $\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = \dot{\vec{x}}$ is the total time derivative of the coordinates of a phase space element. In our case, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{f} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\sigma y - \sigma x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(rx - y - xz) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(-bz + xy) \\ &= -(\sigma + b + 1) < 0\end{aligned}$$

so $\frac{dV}{dt} < 0$, and the volume contracts. (In fact $\frac{dV}{dt} = -(\sigma + b + 1)V$, $V = V_0 \exp[-(\sigma + b + 1)t]$, and the volume contracts exponentially fast.)

(b) [3 points] We seek solutions $\vec{x}^* = \begin{pmatrix} x^* \\ y^* \\ z^* \end{pmatrix}$ such that $\vec{f}(\vec{x}^*) = 0$, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}(x^*, y^*, z^*) &= \sigma y^* - \sigma x^* = 0 \\ \dot{y}(x^*, y^*, z^*) &= rx^* - y^* - x^* z^* = 0 \\ \dot{z}(x^*, y^*, z^*) &= -bz^* + x^* y^* = 0\end{aligned}$$

The equations $\dot{x} = 0$ and $\dot{z} = 0$ immediately give

$$x^* = y^*, \quad z^* = \frac{x^{*2}}{b}.$$

Plugging this into $\dot{y} = 0$ gives

$$(r - 1)x^* - \frac{1}{b}x^{*3} = 0.$$

and we obtain the three fixed point solutions

$$\begin{aligned}(x^*, y^*, z^*) &= (0, 0, 0) \\ (x^*, y^*, z^*) &= \left(\sqrt{b(r - 1)}, \sqrt{b(r - 1)}, r - 1 \right) \\ (x^*, y^*, z^*) &= \left(-\sqrt{b(r - 1)}, -\sqrt{b(r - 1)}, r - 1 \right).\end{aligned}$$

Note that the latter two solutions only exist if $r > 1$ (and if $r = 1$ they coincide with the first one).

(c) [5 points] Around the fixed point $(0, 0, 0)$ we neglect all terms of quadratic order, giving

$$\dot{z} = -bz$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sigma & \sigma \\ r & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \equiv M \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}.$$

The variable z decouples and has the decaying solution $z = A \exp(-bt)$. For the other two variables, the eigenvalues of M are given by

$$0 = \det(M - \lambda \mathbb{I}) = (\lambda + \sigma)(\lambda + 1) - \sigma r$$

which has the solutions

$$\lambda_{\pm} = -\frac{1+\sigma}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(1+\sigma)^2 - 4\sigma(1-r)}.$$

Notice that the term inside the square root is equal to $(1-\sigma)^2 + 4\sigma r$, and so is always positive; there are always two distinct real roots. The corresponding eigenvectors are easily determined: they are (we omit normalization)

$$\vec{a}_{\pm} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 + \frac{\lambda_{\pm}}{\sigma} \end{pmatrix}$$

and the general solution is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = A_+ \vec{a}_+ e^{\lambda_+ t} + A_- \vec{a}_- e^{\lambda_- t}.$$

Now we want to determine the nature of this fixed point.

1. If $r < 1$ then $\lambda_+, \lambda_- < 0$, and all solutions (including the z -direction) decay (i.e. approaches the fixed point): the fixed point is an attractor.
2. If $r > 1$, then $\lambda_+ > 0 > \lambda_-$, and solutions in the \vec{a}_+ direction grow (are repelled from the origin), while solutions in the \vec{a}_- and z -directions decay: the fixed point is a saddle point.
3. If $r = 1$, then $\lambda_+ = 0 > \lambda_-$. This is a critical case, and keeping only terms up to linear order is insufficient to determine the nature of the fixed point. [Grader: give full credit even if this case was ignored]

Problem Set #9, Problem 2, Nonlinear Circuit

First Order equations :

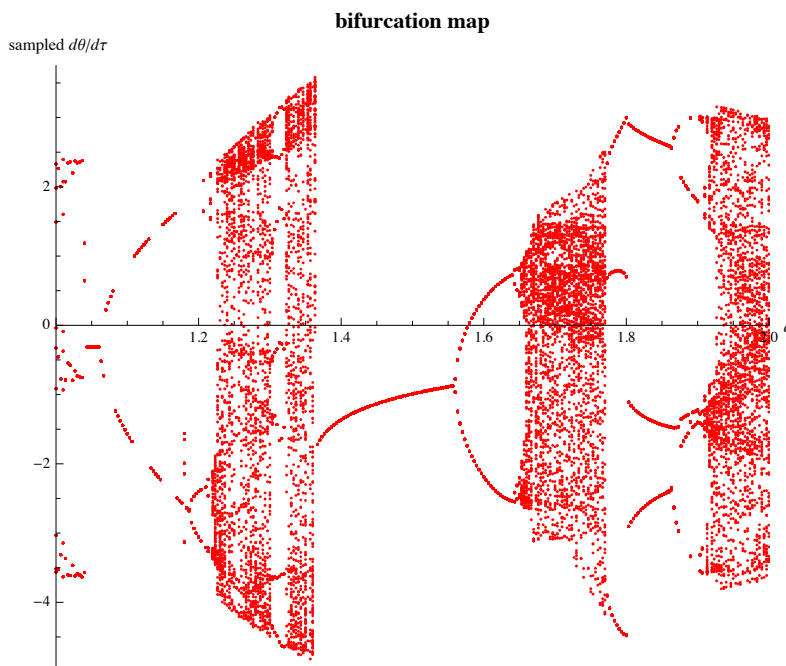
$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= w, \\ \dot{\phi} &= w_D, \\ \dot{w} &= \frac{-1}{q_C} w - x^3 - B \cos[\phi] \\ &= \frac{-1}{5 q} w - x^3 - 6 a \cos[\phi]\end{aligned}$$

where my Map is : $B = 6 a$, $q_C = 5 q$ (other possibilities fine too).

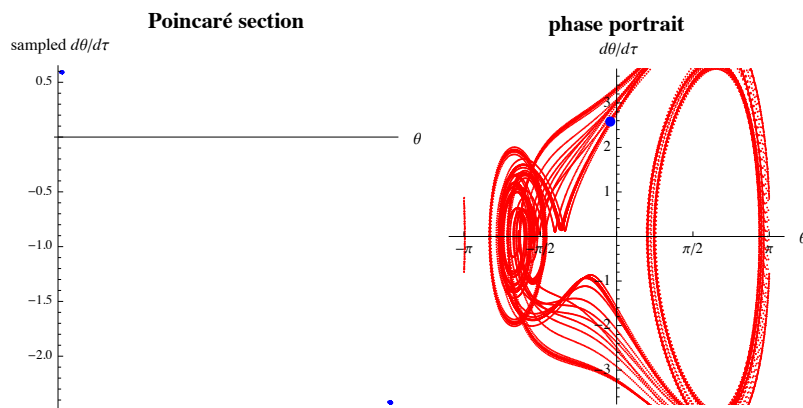
Except where otherwise indicated I use the default initial conditions :

$$\theta(0) = 0.6184; \quad \frac{d\theta(0)}{d\tau} = 0; \quad \phi(0) = 0$$

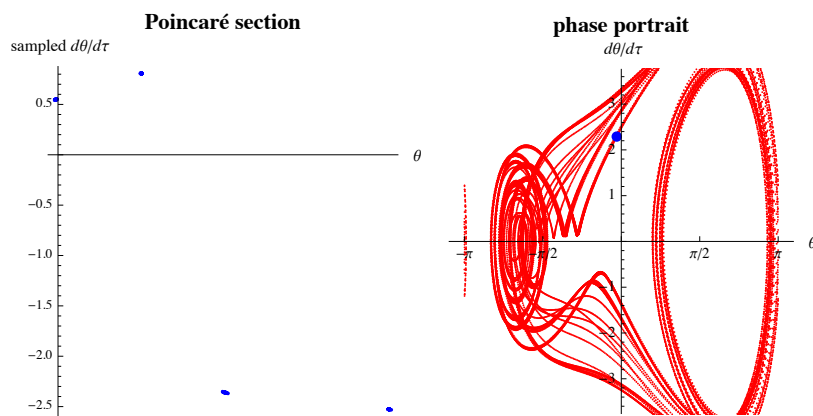
(a) First plot the Bifurcation map, $w_D = 2/3$, $q_C = 10$
Showing the range $1 < a < 2$, so $6 < B < 12$:



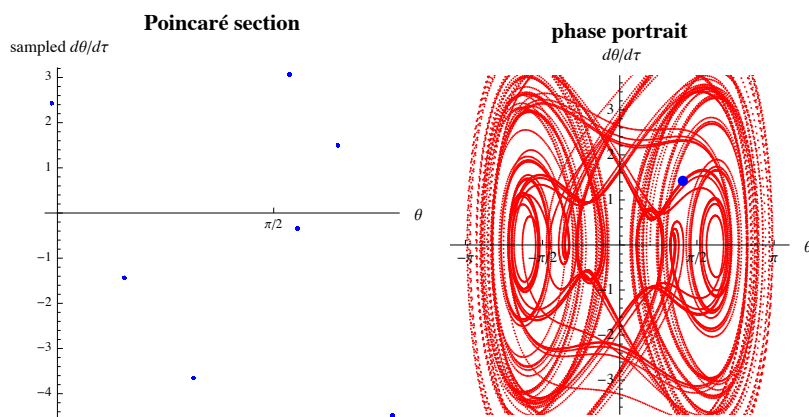
(b) Example with 2 periods ($a=1.62$, so $B=9.72$)



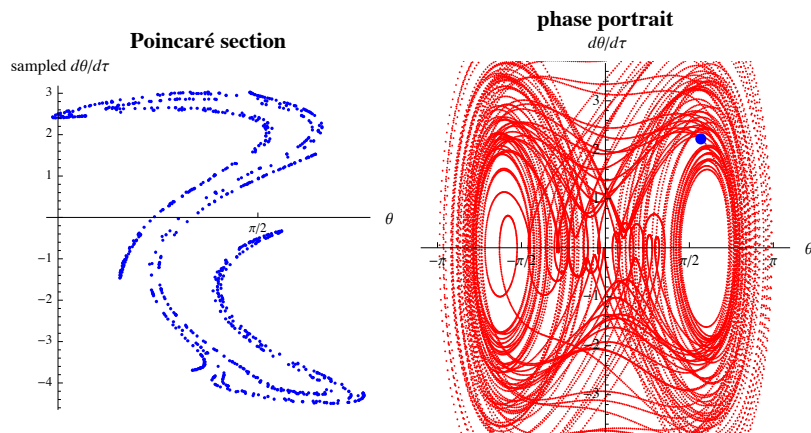
Example with 4 periods ($a=1.645$, so $B=9.87$)



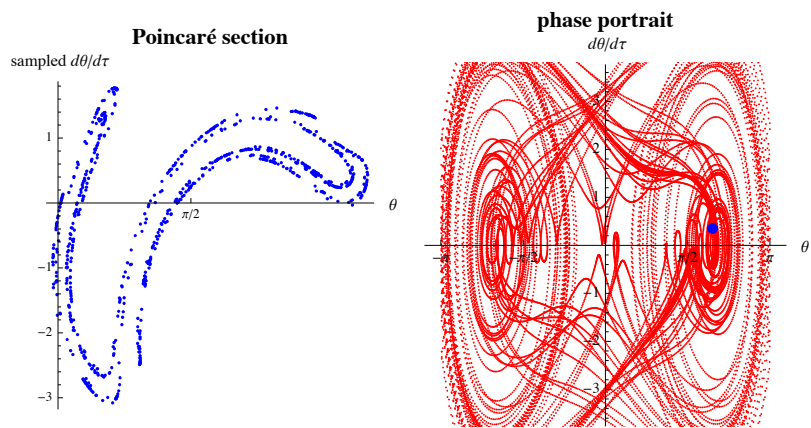
Here's an example with 7 periods that you were not asked to provide ($a=1.31$, so $B=7.86$)



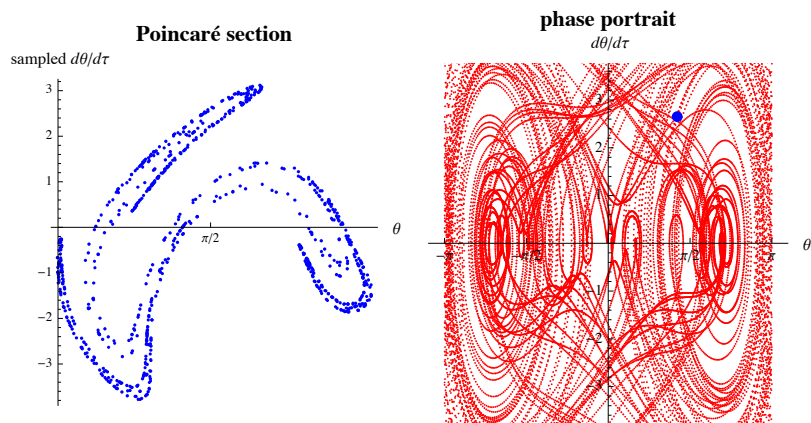
Example 1 with Chaos ($a=1.3$, so $B=7.8$)



Example 2 with Chaos ($a=1.7$, so $B=10.2$)



Example 3 with Chaos (only two examples required) ($a=1.95$, so $B=11.7$)

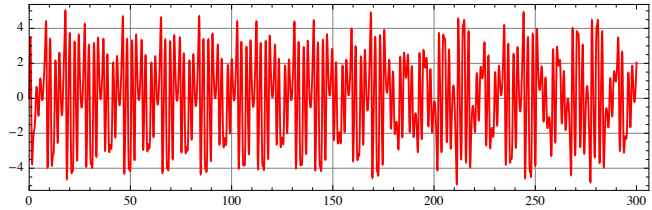


(c) Demonstration of Sensitivity to Initial Conditions

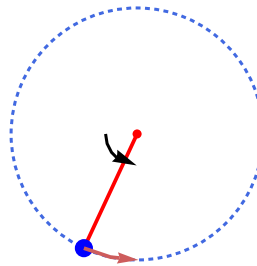
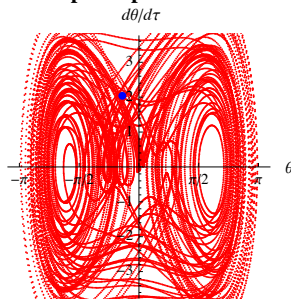
we consider the case ($a=1.3$, so $B=7.8$) and change the initial condition for $\theta(0)$ by $\sim 10^{-4}$. [Varying a different initial condition also fine.] There are clear differences in the the generated time series for time >120 . One also observes that the phase space location of the oscillator is quite different for these cases.

(* $\theta(0)=0.6146$ *)

time series $d\theta/d\tau$ vs. τ (dimensionless) time: 300.00

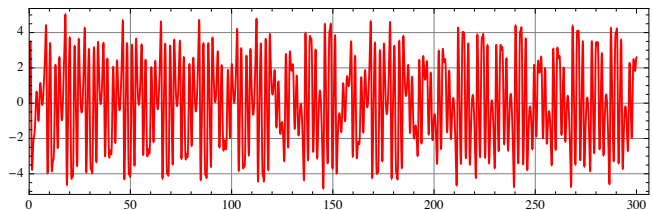


phase portrait

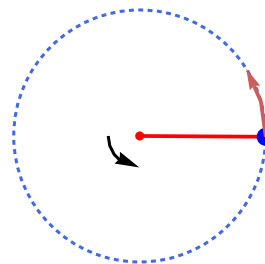
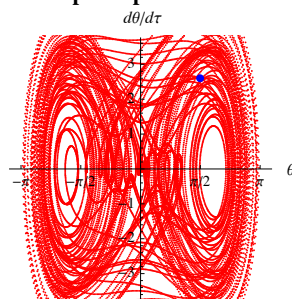


(* $\theta(0)=0.6147$ *)

time series $d\theta/d\tau$ vs. τ (dimensionless) time: 300.00

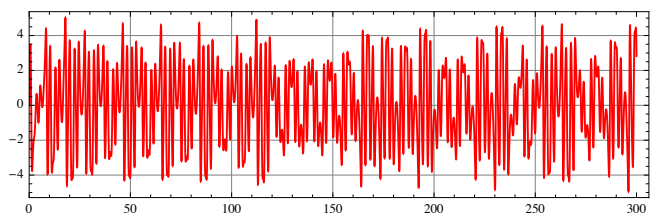


phase portrait

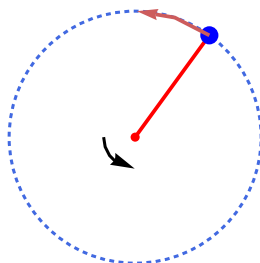
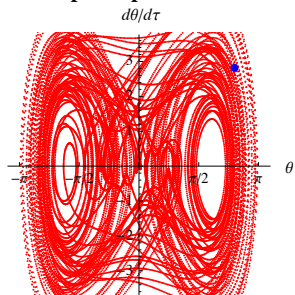


(* $\theta(0)=0.6148$ *)

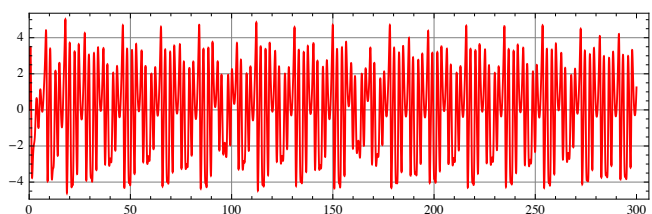
time series $d\theta/d\tau$ vs. τ (dimensionless) time: 300.00



phase portrait



time series $d\theta/d\tau$ vs. τ (dimensionless) time: 300.00



(* $\theta(0)=0.6149$ *)

phase portrait

