# Ordinary Differential Equations: Graduate Level Problems and Solutions <br> Igor Yanovsky 

Disclaimer: This handbook is intended to assist graduate students with qualifying examination preparation. Please be aware, however, that the handbook might contain, and almost certainly contains, typos as well as incorrect or inaccurate solutions. I can not be made responsible for any inaccuracies contained in this handbook.

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## 1 Preliminaries

## Cauchy-Peano.

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\frac{d u}{d t}=f(t, u) \quad t_{0} \leq t \leq t_{1}  \tag{1.1}\\
u\left(t_{0}\right)=u_{0}
\end{array}\right.
$$

$f(t, u)$ is continuous in the rectangle $R=\left\{(t, u): t_{0} \leq t \leq t_{0}+a,\left|u-u_{0}\right| \leq b\right\}$. $M=\max _{R}|f(t, u)|$, and $\alpha=\min \left(a, \frac{b}{M}\right)$. Then $\exists u(t)$ with continuous first derivative s.t. it satisfies (1.1) for $t_{0} \leq t \leq t_{0}+\alpha$.

## Local Existence via Picard Iteration.

$f(t, u)$ is continuous in the rectangle $R=\left\{(t, u): t_{0} \leq t \leq t_{0}+a,\left|u-u_{0}\right| \leq b\right\}$.
Assume $f$ is Lipschitz in $u$ on $R$.
$|f(t, u)-f(t, v)| \leq L|u-v|$
$M=\max _{R}|f(t, u)|$, and $\alpha=\min \left(a, \frac{b}{M}\right)$. Then $\exists$ a unique $u(t)$, with $u, \frac{d u}{d t}$ continuous on $\left[t_{0}, t_{0}+\beta\right], \beta \in(0, \alpha]$ s.t. it satisfies (1.1) for $t_{0} \leq t \leq t_{0}+\beta$.

## Power Series.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d u}{d t}=f(t, u) \\
& u(0)=u_{0} \\
& u(t)=\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} \frac{d^{j} u}{d t^{j}}(0) t^{j} \quad \text { i.e. } \frac{d^{2} u}{d t^{2}}(0)=\left.\left(f_{t}+f_{u} f\right)\right|_{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Fixed Point Iteration.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left|x_{n}-x^{*}\right| \leq k^{n}\left|x_{0}-x^{*}\right| & k<1 \\
\left|x_{n+1}-x_{n}\right| \leq k^{n}\left|x_{1}-x_{0}\right| & k<1 \\
\Rightarrow & \left|x^{*}-x_{n}\right|=\lim _{m \rightarrow \infty}\left|x_{m}-x_{n}\right| \leq k^{n}\left(1+k+k^{2}+\cdots\right)\left|x_{1}-x_{0}\right|=\frac{k^{n}}{1-k}\left|x_{1}-x_{0}\right|
\end{array}
$$

Picard Iteration. Approximates (1.1). Initial guess: $u_{0}(t)=u_{0}$

$$
u_{n+1}(t)=T u_{n}(t)=u_{0}+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} f\left(s, u_{n}(s)\right) d s
$$

Differential Inequality. $v(t)$ piecewise continuous on $t_{0} \leq t \leq t_{0}+a$. $u(t)$ and $\frac{d u}{d t}$ continuous on some interval. If

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d u}{d t} \leq v(t) u(t) \\
& \Rightarrow \quad u(t) \leq u\left(t_{0}\right) e^{\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) d s}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Multiply both sides by $e^{-\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) d s}$. Then $\frac{d}{d t}\left[e^{-\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) d s} u(t)\right] \leq 0$.

### 1.1 Gronwall Inequality

Gronwall Inequality. $u(t), v(t)$ continuous on $\left[t_{0}, t_{0}+a\right] . v(t) \geq 0, c \geq 0$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u(t) \leq c+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) u(s) d s \\
& \Rightarrow u(t) \leq c e^{\int_{0}^{t} v(s) d s} \quad t_{0} \leq t \leq t_{0}+a
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Multiply both sides by $v(t)$ :

$$
u(t) v(t) \leq v(t)\left\{c+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) u(s) d s\right\}
$$

Denote $A(t)=c+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) u(s) d s \Rightarrow \frac{d A}{d t} \leq v(t) A(t)$. By differential inequality and hypothesis:

$$
u(t) \leq A(t) \leq A\left(t_{0}\right) e^{\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) d s}=c e^{\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) d s} .
$$

Error Estimates. $f(t, u(t))$ continuous on $R=\left\{(t, u):\left|t-t_{0}\right| \leq a,\left|u-u_{0}\right| \leq b\right\}$ $f(t, u(t))$ Lipschitz in $u:|f(t, A)-f(t, B)| \leq L|A-B|$
$u_{1}(t), u_{2}(t)$ are $\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2}$ approximate solutions

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d u_{1}}{d t}=f\left(t, u_{1}(t)\right)+R_{1}(t), \quad\left|R_{1}(t)\right| \leq \epsilon_{1} \\
& \frac{d u_{2}}{d t}=f\left(t, u_{2}(t)\right)+R_{2}(t), \quad\left|R_{2}(t)\right| \leq \epsilon_{2} \\
& \left|u_{1}\left(t_{0}\right)-u_{2}\left(t_{0}\right)\right| \leq \delta \\
& \Rightarrow \quad\left|u_{1}(t)-u_{2}(t)\right| \leq\left(\delta+a\left(\epsilon_{1}+\epsilon_{2}\right)\right) e^{a \cdot L} \quad t_{0} \leq t \leq t_{0}+a
\end{aligned}
$$

Generalized Gronwall Inequality. $w(s), u(s) \geq 0$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u(t) \leq w(t)+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) u(s) d s \\
& \Rightarrow u(t) \leq w(t)+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) w(s) e^{\int_{s}^{t} v(x) d x} d s
\end{aligned}
$$

## Improved Error Estimate (Fundamental Inequality).

$$
\left|u_{1}(t)-u_{2}(t)\right| \leq \delta e^{L\left(t-t_{0}\right)}+\frac{\left(\epsilon_{1}+\epsilon_{2}\right)}{L}\left(e^{L\left(t-t_{0}\right)}-1\right)
$$

### 1.2 Trajectories

Let $K \subset D$ compact. If for the trajectory $Z=\{(t, z(t)): \alpha<t<\beta)\}$ we have that $\beta<\infty$, then $Z$ lies outside of $K$ for all $t$ sufficiently close to $\beta$.

## 2 Linear Systems

### 2.1 Existence and Uniqueness

$A(t), g(t)$ continuous, then can solve

$$
\begin{align*}
& y^{\prime}=A(t) y+g(t)  \tag{2.1}\\
& y\left(t_{0}\right)=y_{0}
\end{align*}
$$

For uniqueness, need RHS to satisfy Lipshitz condition.

### 2.2 Fundamental Matrix

A matrix whose columns are solutions of $y^{\prime}=A(t) y$ is called a solution matrix. A solution matrix whose columns are linearly independent is called a fundamental matrix.
$F(t)$ is a fundamental matrix if:

1) $F(t)$ is a solution matrix;
2) $\operatorname{det} F(t) \neq 0$.

Either $\operatorname{det} M(t) \neq 0 \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$, or $\operatorname{det} M(t)=0 \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$.
$F(t) c$ is a solution of (2.1), where $c$ is a column vector.
If $F(t)$ is a fundamental matrix, can use it to solve:

$$
y^{\prime}(t)=A(t) y(t), y\left(t_{0}\right)=y_{0}
$$

i.e. since $\left.F(t) c\right|_{t_{0}}=F\left(t_{0}\right) c=y_{0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad c=F^{-1}\left(t_{0}\right) y_{0} \quad \Rightarrow$

$$
\Rightarrow \quad y(t)=F(t) F\left(t_{0}\right)^{-1} y_{0}
$$

### 2.2.1 Distinct Eigenvalues or Diagonalizable

$$
F(t)=\left[e^{\lambda_{1} t} v_{1}, \ldots, e^{\lambda_{n} t} v_{n}\right] \quad e^{A t}=F(t) C
$$

### 2.2.2 Arbitrary Matrix

i) Find generalized eigenspaces $X_{j}=\left\{x:\left(A-\lambda_{j} I\right)^{n_{j}} x=0\right\}$;
ii) Decompose initial vector $\eta=v_{1}+\cdots+v_{k}, \quad v_{j} \in X_{j}$, solve for $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}$ in terms of components of $\eta$

$$
\begin{equation*}
y(t)=\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{\lambda_{j} t}\left[\sum_{i=0}^{n_{j}-1} \frac{t^{i}}{i!}\left(A-\lambda_{j} I\right)^{i}\right] v_{j} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

iii) Plug in $\eta=e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ successively to get $y_{1}(t), \ldots, y_{n}(t)$ columns of $F(t)$. Note: $y(0)=\eta, F(0)=I$.

### 2.2.3 Examples

Example 1. Show that the solutions of the following system of differential equations remain bounded as $t \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
u^{\prime} & =v-u \\
v^{\prime} & =-u
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. 1) $\binom{u}{v}^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}-1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0\end{array}\right)\binom{u}{v}$. The eigenvalues of $A$ are $\lambda_{1,2}=-\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} i$, so the eigenvalues are distinct $\Rightarrow$ diagonalizable. Thus, $F(t)=\left[e^{\lambda_{1} t} v_{1}, e^{\lambda_{2} t} v_{2}\right]$ is a fundamental matrix. Since $\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{i}\right)=-\frac{1}{2}<0$, the solutions to $y^{\prime}=A y$ remain bounded as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
2) $u^{\prime \prime}=v^{\prime}-u^{\prime}=-u-u^{\prime}$,
$u^{\prime \prime}+u^{\prime}+u=0$,
$u^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime}+\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}+u^{\prime} u=0$,
$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left(\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right)+\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left(u^{2}\right)=0$,
$\frac{1}{2}\left(\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right)+\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{2}\right)+\int_{t_{0}}^{t}\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2} d t=$ const,
$\frac{1}{2}\left(\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right)+\frac{1}{2}\left(u^{2}\right) \leq$ const,
$\Rightarrow \quad\left(u^{\prime}, u\right)$ is bounded.
Example 2. Let $A$ be the matrix given by: $A=\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2\end{array}\right)$. Find the eigenvalues, the generalized eigenspaces, and a fundamental matrix for the system $y^{\prime}(t)=A y$.
Proof. - $\operatorname{det}(A-\lambda I)=(1-\lambda)^{2}(2-\lambda)$. The eigenvalues and their multiplicities:
$\lambda_{1}=1, n_{1}=2 ; \quad \lambda_{2}=2, n_{2}=1$.

- Determine subspaces $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}, \quad\left(A-\lambda_{j} I\right)^{n_{j}} x=0$.
$(A-I)^{2} x=0 \quad(A-2 I) x=0$
To find $X_{1}$ :
$(A-I)^{2} x=\left(\begin{array}{lll}0 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{lll}0 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\right) x=\left(\begin{array}{lll}0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{l}x_{1} \\ x_{2} \\ x_{3}\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 0 \\ 0\end{array}\right)$.
$\Rightarrow \quad x_{3}=0, x_{1}, x_{2}$ arbitrary $\Rightarrow X_{1}=\left\{\left(\begin{array}{c}\alpha \\ \beta \\ 0\end{array}\right)\right.$, any $\left.\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}\right\} . \quad \operatorname{dim} X_{1}=2$.
To find $X_{2}$ :
$(A-2 I) x=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}-1 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right) x=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}-1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{l}x_{1} \\ x_{2} \\ x_{3}\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 0 \\ 0\end{array}\right)$.
$\Rightarrow x_{3}=\gamma, x_{1}=3 \gamma, x_{2}=8 \gamma \quad \Rightarrow \quad X_{2}=\left\{\gamma\left(\begin{array}{l}3 \\ 8 \\ 1\end{array}\right)\right.$, any $\left.\gamma \in \mathbb{C}\right\} . \quad \operatorname{dim} X_{2}=1$.
- Need to find $v_{1} \in X_{1}, v_{2} \in X_{2}$, such that initial vector $\eta$ is decomposed as $\eta=v_{1}+v_{2}$.
$\left(\begin{array}{l}\eta_{1} \\ \eta_{2} \\ \eta_{3}\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{l}\alpha \\ \beta \\ 0\end{array}\right)+\left(\begin{array}{c}3 \gamma \\ 8 \gamma \\ \gamma\end{array}\right)$.
$\Rightarrow \quad v_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{c}\eta_{1}-3 \eta_{3} \\ \eta_{2}-8 \eta_{3} \\ 0\end{array}\right), v_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{c}3 \eta_{3} \\ 8 \eta_{3} \\ \eta_{3}\end{array}\right)$.
- $y(t)=\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{\lambda_{j} t}\left[\sum_{i=0}^{n_{j}-1} \frac{t^{i}}{i!}\left(A-\lambda_{j} I\right)^{i}\right] v_{j}=e^{\lambda_{1} t}(I+t(A-I)) v_{1}+e^{\lambda_{2} t} v_{2}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =e^{t}(I+t(A-I)) v_{1}+e^{2 t} v_{2}=e^{t}(I+t(A-I))\left(\begin{array}{c}
\eta_{1}-3 \eta_{3} \\
\eta_{2}-8 \eta_{3} \\
0
\end{array}\right)+e^{2 t}\left(\begin{array}{c}
3 \eta_{3} \\
8 \eta_{3} \\
\eta_{3}
\end{array}\right) \\
& =e^{t}\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 3 t \\
2 t & 1 & 2 t \\
0 & 0 & 1+t
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}
\eta_{1}-3 \eta_{3} \\
\eta_{2}-8 \eta_{3} \\
0
\end{array}\right)+e^{2 t}\left(\begin{array}{c}
3 \eta_{3} \\
8 \eta_{3} \\
\eta_{3}
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Note: $y(0)=\eta=\left(\begin{array}{c}\eta_{1} \\ \eta_{2} \\ \eta_{3}\end{array}\right)$.

- To find a fundamental matrix, putting $\eta$ successively equal to $\left(\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 0 \\ 0\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 1 \\ 0\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 0 \\ 1\end{array}\right)$ in this formula, we obtain the three linearly independent solutions that we use as columns of the matrix. If $\eta=\left(\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 0 \\ 0\end{array}\right), y_{1}(t)=e^{t}\left(\begin{array}{c}1 \\ 2 t \\ 0\end{array}\right)$. If $\eta=\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 1 \\ 0\end{array}\right), y_{2}(t)=$ $e^{t}\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 1 \\ 0\end{array}\right)$
If $\eta=\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 0 \\ 1\end{array}\right), y_{3}(t)=e^{t}\left(\begin{array}{c}-3 \\ -6 t-8 \\ 0\end{array}\right)+e^{2 t}\left(\begin{array}{l}3 \\ 8 \\ 1\end{array}\right)$. The fundamental matrix is

$$
F(t)=e^{A t}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
e^{t} & 0 & -3 e^{t}+3 e^{2 t} \\
2 t e^{t} & e^{t} & (-6 t-8) e^{t}+8 e^{2 t} \\
0 & 0 & e^{2 t}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Note: At $t=0, F(t)$ reduces to $I$.

### 2.3 Asymptotic Behavior of Solutions of Linear Systems with Constant Coefficients

If all $\lambda_{j}$ of A are such that $\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right)<0$, then every solution $\phi(t)$ of the system $y^{\prime}=A y$ approaches zero as $t \rightarrow \infty . \quad|\phi(t)| \leq \hat{K} e^{-\sigma t}$ or $\left|e^{A t}\right| \leq K e^{-\sigma t}$.
If, in addition, there are $\lambda_{j}$ such that $\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right)=0$ and are simple, then $\left|e^{A t}\right| \leq K$, and hence every solution of $y^{\prime}=A y$ is bounded.
Also, see the section on Stability and Asymptotic Stability.
Proof. $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{k}$ are eigenvalues and $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{k}$ are their corresponding multiplicities. Consider (2.2), i.e. the solution $y$ satisfying $y(0)=\eta$ is

$$
y(t)=e^{t A} \eta=\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{\lambda_{j} t}\left[\sum_{i=0}^{n_{j}-1} \frac{t^{i}}{i!}\left(A-\lambda_{j} I\right)^{i}\right] v_{j} .
$$

Subdivide the right hand side of equality above into two summations, i.e.:

1) $\lambda_{j}$, s.t. $n_{j}=1, \operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right) \leq 0$;
2) $\lambda_{j}$, s.t. $n_{j} \geq 2, \operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right)<0$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
y(t) & =\underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{\lambda_{j} t} v_{j}}_{\left(n_{j}=1\right)}+\underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{\lambda_{j} t}\left[I+t\left(A-\lambda_{j} I\right)+\cdots+\frac{t^{n_{j}-1}}{\left(n_{j}-1\right)!}\left(A-\lambda_{j} I\right)^{n_{j}-1}\right] v_{j}}_{\left(n_{j} \geq 2\right)} . \\
|y(t)| & \leq \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{k}\left|e^{\lambda_{j} t} I\right|\left|v_{j}\right| \leq 0}_{\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right)<0}+\underbrace{\widetilde{K} e^{-\sigma t}}_{-\sigma=\max \left(\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right), \operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right)<0\right)} \leq c \sum_{j=1}^{k}\left|v_{j}\right|+\widetilde{K} e^{-\sigma t} \\
& \leq c k \max _{j}\left|v_{j}\right|+\widetilde{K} e^{-\sigma t} \leq \underbrace{\max (c k, \widetilde{K})}_{\text {const indep of } \mathrm{t}}[\underbrace{\max _{j}\left|v_{j}\right|}_{\text {indep of } \mathrm{t}}+\underbrace{e^{-\sigma t}}_{\rightarrow 0 \text { as } t \rightarrow \infty}] \leq K .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 2.4 Variation of Constants

Derivation: Variation of constants is a method to determine a solution of $y^{\prime}=A(t) y+$ $g(t)$, provided we know a fundamental matrix for the homogeneous system $y^{\prime}=A(t) y$. Let $F$ be a fundamental matrix. Look for solution of the form $\psi(t)=F(t) v(t)$, where $v$ is a vector to be determined. (Note that if $v$ is a constant vector, then $\psi$ satisfies the homogeneous system and thus for the present purpose $v(t) \equiv c$ is ruled out.) Substituting $\psi(t)=F(t) v(t)$ into $y^{\prime}=A(t) y+g(t)$, we get

$$
\psi^{\prime}(t)=F^{\prime}(t) v(t)+F(t) v^{\prime}(t)=A(t) F(t) v(t)+g(t)
$$

Since $F$ is a fundamental matrix of the homogeneous system, $F^{\prime}(t)=A(t) F(t)$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(t) v^{\prime}(t) & =g(t) \\
v^{\prime}(t) & =F^{-1}(t) g(t), \\
v(t) & =\int_{t_{0}}^{t} F^{-1}(s) g(s) d s
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { Therefore, } \psi(t)=F(t) \int_{t_{0}}^{t} F^{-1}(s) g(s) d s
$$

Variation of Constants Formula: Every solution $y$ of $y^{\prime}=A(t) y+g(t)$ has the form:

$$
y(t)=\phi_{h}(t)+\psi_{p}(t)=F(t) \vec{c}+F(t) \int_{t_{0}}^{t} F^{-1}(s) g(s) d s
$$

where $\psi_{p}$ is the solution satisfying initial condition $\psi_{p}\left(t_{0}\right)=0$ and $\phi_{h}(t)$ is that solution of the homogeneous system satisfying the same initial condition at $t_{0}$ as $y, \phi_{h}\left(t_{0}\right)=y_{0}$. $F(t)=e^{A t}$ is the fundamental matrix of $y^{\prime}=A y$ with $F(0)=I$. Therefore, every solution of $y^{\prime}=A y$ has the form $y(t)=e^{A t} c$ for a suitably chosen constant vector $c$.

$$
y(t)=e^{\left(t-t_{0}\right) A} y_{0}+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} e^{(t-s) A} g(s) d s
$$

That is, to find the general solution of (2.1), use (2.2) to get a fundamental matrix $F(t)$.
Then, add $\int_{t_{0}}^{t} e^{(t-s) A} g(s) d s=F(t) \int_{t_{0}}^{t} F^{-1}(s) g(s) d s$ to $F(t) \vec{c}$.

### 2.5 Classification of Critical Points

$y^{\prime}=A y$. Change of variable $y=T z$, where $T$ is nonsingular constant matrix (to be determined $) \quad \Rightarrow \quad z^{\prime}=T^{-1} A T z \quad$ The solution is passing through $\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right)$ at $t=0$.

1) $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}$ are real. $z^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}\lambda_{1} & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_{2}\end{array}\right) z$

$$
\Rightarrow \quad z=\binom{c_{1} e^{\lambda_{1} t}}{c_{2} e^{\lambda_{2} t}}
$$

a) $\quad \lambda_{2}>\lambda_{1}>0 \Rightarrow z_{2}(t)=c\left(z_{1}(t)\right)^{p}, p>1 \quad$ Improper Node (tilted toward $z_{2}$-axis)
b) $\quad \lambda_{2}<\lambda_{1}<0 \Rightarrow z_{2}(t)=c\left(z_{1}(t)\right)^{p}, p>1 \quad$ Improper Node (tilted toward $z_{2}$-axis)
c) $\lambda_{2}=\lambda_{1}, A$ diagonalizable $\Rightarrow z_{2}=c z_{1} \quad$ Proper Node
d) $\lambda_{2}<0<\lambda_{1} \Rightarrow z_{1}(t)=c\left(z_{2}(t)\right)^{p}, p<0 \quad$ Saddle Point
2) $\lambda_{2}=\lambda_{1}$, $A$ non-diagonalizable, $z^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}\lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda\end{array}\right) z$

$$
\Rightarrow \quad z=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
e^{\lambda t} & t e^{\lambda t} \\
0 & e^{\lambda t}
\end{array}\right)\binom{c_{1}}{c_{2}}=\binom{c_{1}+c_{2} t}{c_{2}} e^{\lambda t} \quad \text { Improper Node }
$$

3) $\lambda_{1,2}=\sigma \pm i \nu . \quad z^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}\sigma & \nu \\ -\nu & \sigma\end{array}\right) z$

$$
\Rightarrow \quad z=e^{\sigma t}\binom{c_{1} \cos (\nu t)+c_{2} \sin (\nu t)}{-c_{1} \sin (\nu t)+c_{2} \cos (\nu t)} \quad \text { Spiral Point }
$$

### 2.5.1 Phase Portrait

Locate stationary points by setting:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d u}{d t}=f(u, v)=0 \\
& \frac{d v}{d t}=g(u, v)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

$\left(u_{0}, v_{0}\right)$ is a stationary point. In order to classify a stationary point, need to find eigenvalues of a linearized system at that point.

$$
J(f(u, v), g(u, v))=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial f}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial v} \\
\frac{\partial g}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial v}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Find $\lambda_{j}$ 's such that $\operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{\left(u_{0}, v_{0}\right)}-\lambda I\right)=0$.

### 2.6 Problems

Problem ( $\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{9 2}, \# 4$ ). Consider the autonomous differential equation

$$
v_{x x}+v-v^{3}-v_{0}=0
$$

in which $v_{0}$ is a constant.
a) Show that for $v_{0}^{2}<\frac{4}{27}$, this equation has 3 stationary points and classify their type. b) For $v_{0}=0$, draw the phase plane for this equation.

Proof. a) We have

$$
v^{\prime \prime}+v-v^{3}-v_{0}=0
$$

In order to find and analyze the stationary points of an ODE above, we write it as a first-order system.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y_{1}=v \\
& y_{2}=v^{\prime} \\
& y_{1}^{\prime}=v^{\prime}=y_{2}=0, \\
& y_{2}^{\prime}=v^{\prime \prime}=-v+v^{3}+v_{0}=y_{1}^{3}-y_{1}+v_{0}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The function $f\left(y_{1}\right)=y_{1}^{3}-y_{1}=y_{1}\left(y_{1}^{2}-1\right)$ has zeros $y_{1}=0, y_{1}=-1, y_{1}=1$.
See the figure.
 At these points, $f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)=\frac{2}{3 \sqrt{3}}, f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)=-\frac{2}{3 \sqrt{3}}$.
If $v_{0}=0, y_{2}^{\prime}$ is exactly this function $f\left(y_{1}\right)$, with 3 zeros. $v_{0}$ only raises or lowers this function. If $\left|v_{0}\right|<\frac{2}{3 \sqrt{3}}$,
i.e. $v_{0}^{2}<\frac{4}{27}$, the system would have 3 stationary points:


$$
\text { Stationary points: }\left(p_{1}, 0\right),\left(p_{2}, 0\right),\left(p_{3}, 0\right),
$$

with $p_{1}<p_{2}<p_{3}$.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{2} & =f\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right), \\
y_{2}^{\prime}=y_{1}^{3}-y_{1}+v_{0} & =g\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) .
\end{array}
$$

In order to classify a stationary point, need to find eigenvalues of a linearized system at that point.

$$
J\left(f\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right), g\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)\right)=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{1}} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{2}} \\
\frac{\partial g}{\partial y_{1}} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y_{2}}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
3 y_{1}^{2}-1 & 0
\end{array}\right] .
$$

- For $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\left(p_{i}, 0\right):$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{\left(p_{i}, 0\right)}-\lambda I\right)=\left|\begin{array}{cc}
-\lambda & 1 \\
3 p_{i}^{2}-1 & -\lambda
\end{array}\right|=\lambda^{2}-3 p_{i}^{2}+1=0 . \\
& \quad \lambda_{ \pm}= \pm \sqrt{3 p_{i}^{2}-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

At $y_{1}=p_{1}<-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad \lambda_{-}<0<\lambda_{+} . \quad\left(\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{1}}, \mathbf{0}\right)$ is Saddle Point.
At $-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}<y_{1}=p_{2}<\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad \lambda_{ \pm} \in \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{R} e\left(\lambda_{ \pm}\right)=0 . \quad\left(\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{2}}, \mathbf{0}\right)$ is Stable Concentric Circles.
At $y_{1}=p_{3}>\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad \lambda_{-}<0<\lambda_{+} . \quad\left(\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{3}}, \mathbf{0}\right)$ is Saddle Point.
b) For $v_{0}=0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{2}=0 \\
& y_{2}^{\prime}=y_{1}^{3}-y_{1}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Stationary points: $(-1,0),(0,0),(1,0)$.

$$
J\left(f\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right), g\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)\right)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
3 y_{1}^{2}-1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

- For $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=(0,0)$ :
$\operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{(0,0)}-\lambda I\right)=\left|\begin{array}{cc}-\lambda & 1 \\ -1 & -\lambda\end{array}\right|=\lambda^{2}+1=0$.

$$
\lambda_{ \pm}= \pm i
$$

( 0,0 ) is Stable Concentric Circles (Center).

- For $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=( \pm 1,0)$ :
$\operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{( \pm 1,0)}-\lambda I\right)=\left|\begin{array}{cc}-\lambda & 1 \\ 2 & -\lambda\end{array}\right|=\lambda^{2}-2=0$.

$$
\lambda_{ \pm}= \pm \sqrt{2}
$$

$(-1,0)$ and $(1,0)$ are Saddle Points.


Problem ( $\mathbf{F} \mathbf{\prime} \mathbf{8 9}, \mathbf{\# 2}$ ). Let $V(x, y)=x^{2}(x-1)^{2}+y^{2}$. Consider the dynamical system

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d x}{d t}=-\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \\
& \frac{d y}{d t}=-\frac{\partial V}{\partial y} .
\end{aligned}
$$

a) Find the critical points of this system and determine their linear stability.
b) Show that $V$ decreases along any solution of the system.
c) Use (b) to prove that if $z_{0}=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ is an isolated minimum of $V$ then $z_{0}$ is an asymptotically stable equilibrium.

Proof. a) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x^{\prime}=-4 x^{3}+6 x^{2}-2 x \\
& y^{\prime}=-2 y . \\
& \begin{cases}x^{\prime} & =-x\left(4 x^{2}-6 x+2\right)=0 \\
y^{\prime} & =-2 y=0 .\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { Stationary points: }(0,0),\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0\right),(1,0) .
$$

$$
J\left(f\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right), g\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)\right)=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\
\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-12 x^{2}+12 x-2 & 0 \\
0 & -2
\end{array}\right] .
$$

- For $(x, y)=(0,0)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{(0,0)}-\lambda I\right) & =\left|\begin{array}{cc}
-2-\lambda & 0 \\
0 & -2-\lambda
\end{array}\right| \\
& =(-2-\lambda)(-2-\lambda)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$y^{\prime}=A y, \lambda_{1}=\lambda_{2}<0, A$ diagonalizable.
$(0,0)$ is Stable Proper Node.

- For $(x, y)=\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0\right)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0\right)}-\lambda I\right) & =\left|\begin{array}{cc}
1-\lambda & 0 \\
0 & -2-\lambda
\end{array}\right| \\
& =(1-\lambda)(-2-\lambda)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$\lambda_{1}=-2, \lambda_{2}=1 . \lambda_{1}<0<\lambda_{2}$.
$\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0\right)$ is Unstable Saddle Point.

- For $(x, y)=(1,0)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{(1,0)}-\lambda I\right) & =\left|\begin{array}{cc}
-2-\lambda & 0 \\
0 & -2-\lambda
\end{array}\right| \\
& =(-2-\lambda)(-2-\lambda)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$y^{\prime}=A y, \lambda_{1}=\lambda_{2}<0, A$ diagonalizable.
$(1,0)$ is Stable Proper Node.
$x^{\prime}=-4 \times x \times+6 \times x-2 x$
$y^{\prime}=-2 y$

b) Show that $V$ decreases along any solution of the system.

$$
\frac{d V}{d t}=V_{x} x_{t}+V_{y} y_{t}=V_{x}\left(-V_{x}\right)+V_{y}\left(-V_{y}\right)=-V_{x}^{2}-V_{y}^{2}<0
$$

c) Use (b) to prove that if $z_{0}=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ is an isolated minimum of $V$ then $z_{0}$ is an asymptotically stable equilibrium.

Lyapunov Theorem: If $\exists V(y)$ that is positive definite and for which $V^{*}(y)$ is negative definite in a neighborhood of 0 , then the zero solution is asymptotically stable.
Let $W(x, y)=V(x, y)-V\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. Then, $W\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=0$.
$W(x, y)>0$ in a neighborhood around $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$, and $\frac{d W}{d t}(x, y)<0$ by (b). $\left(\frac{d V}{d t}(x, y)<0\right.$ and $\left.\frac{d V}{d t}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=0\right)$.
$\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ is asymptotically stable.

Problem (S'98, \#1). Consider the undamped pendulum, whose equation is

$$
\frac{d^{2} p}{d t^{2}}+\frac{g}{l} \sin p=0
$$

a) Describe all possible motions using a phase plane analysis.
b) Derive an integral expression for the period of oscillation at a fixed energy $E$, and find the period at small $E$ to first order.
c) Show that there exists a critical energy for which the motion is not periodic.

Proof. a) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{1} & =p \\
y_{2} & =p^{\prime} . \\
y_{1}^{\prime} & =p^{\prime}=y_{2}=0 \\
y_{2}^{\prime} & =p^{\prime \prime}=-\frac{g}{l} \sin p=-\frac{g}{l} \sin y_{1}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { Stationary points: }(n \pi, 0) .
$$

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
y_{1}^{\prime} & =y_{2} \\
y_{2}^{\prime} & =-\frac{g}{l} \sin y_{1}
\end{array}=g\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right), ~ 子 y_{1}, y_{2}\right) . ~ \$
$$

$$
J\left(f_{1}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right), f_{2}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)\right)=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial y_{1}} & \frac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial y_{2}} \\
\frac{\partial f_{2}}{\partial y_{1}} & \frac{\partial f_{2}}{\partial y_{2}}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
-\frac{g}{l} \cos y_{1} & 0
\end{array}\right] .
$$

- For $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=(n \pi, 0), n$-even:
$\operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{(n \pi, 0)}-\lambda I\right)=\left|\begin{array}{cc}-\lambda & 1 \\ -\frac{g}{l} & -\lambda\end{array}\right|=\lambda^{2}+\frac{g}{l}=0$.
$\lambda_{ \pm}=\left\{\begin{array}{llll} \pm i \sqrt{\frac{g}{l}} \in \mathbb{C}, & g>0, & \Rightarrow & (\mathbf{n} \pi, \mathbf{0}), \mathbf{n}-\mathrm{even}, \text { are Stable Centers. } \\ \pm \sqrt{-\frac{g}{l}} \in \mathbb{R}, & g<0 . & \Rightarrow & (\mathbf{n} \pi, \mathbf{0}), \mathbf{n} \text {-even, are Unstable Saddle Points. }\end{array}\right.$
- For $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=(n \pi, 0), n$-odd:
$\operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{(n \pi, 0)}-\lambda I\right)=\left|\begin{array}{cc}-\lambda & 1 \\ \frac{g}{l} & -\lambda\end{array}\right|=\lambda^{2}-\frac{g}{l}=0$.
$\lambda_{ \pm}=\left\{\begin{array}{llll} \pm \sqrt{\frac{g}{l}} \in \mathbb{R}, & g>0, & \Rightarrow & (\mathbf{n} \pi, 0), \mathbf{n} \text {-odd, are Unstable Saddle Points. } \\ \pm i \sqrt{-\frac{g}{l}} \in \mathbb{C}, & g<0, & \Rightarrow & (\mathbf{n} \pi, \mathbf{0}), \mathbf{n} \text {-odd, are Stable Centers. }\end{array}\right.$

b) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p^{\prime \prime}+\frac{g}{l} \sin p=0, \\
& p^{\prime} p^{\prime \prime}+\frac{g}{l} p^{\prime} \sin p=0, \\
& \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{2}-\frac{g}{l} \frac{d}{d t}(\cos p)=0, \\
& \frac{1}{2}\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{2}-\frac{g}{l} \cos p=\tilde{E} . \\
& E=\frac{1}{2}\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\frac{g}{l}(1-\cos p) .
\end{aligned}
$$



Since we assume that $|p|$ is small, we could replace $\sin p$ by $p$, and perform similar calculations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
p^{\prime \prime}+\frac{g}{l} p & =0 \\
p^{\prime} p^{\prime \prime}+\frac{g}{l} p^{\prime} p & =0 \\
\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{g}{l} \frac{d}{d t}(p)^{2} & =0 \\
\frac{1}{2}\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{g}{l} p^{2} & =E_{1}, \\
\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\frac{g}{l} p^{2} & =E=\text { constant. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
\frac{\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{2}}{E}+\frac{p^{2}}{\frac{l E}{g}}=1,
$$

which is an ellipse with radii $\sqrt{E}$ on $p^{\prime}$-axis, and $\sqrt{\frac{l E}{g}}$ on $p$-axis.
We derive an Integral Expression for the Period of oscillation at a fixed energy $E$.
Note that at maximum amplitude (maximum displacement), $p^{\prime}=0$.
Define $p=p_{\max }$ to be the maximum displacement:

$$
\begin{gathered}
E=\frac{1}{2}\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\frac{g}{l}(1-\cos p), \\
p^{\prime}=\sqrt{2 E-\frac{2 g}{L}(1-\cos p),} \\
\int_{0}^{\frac{T}{4}} \frac{p^{\prime}}{\sqrt{2 E-\frac{2 g}{L}(1-\cos p)}} d t=\int_{0}^{\frac{T}{4}} d t=\frac{T}{4}, \\
T=4 \int_{0}^{\frac{T}{4}} \frac{p^{\prime}}{\sqrt{2 E-\frac{2 g}{L}(1-\cos p)}} d t . \quad\left(T=4 \int_{0}^{p_{\max }} \frac{d p}{\sqrt{2 E-\frac{2 g}{L}(1-\cos p)}}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

Making change of variables: $\xi=p(t), d \xi=p^{\prime}(t) d t$, we obtain

$$
T\left(p_{\max }\right)=4 \int_{0}^{p_{\max }} \frac{d \xi}{\sqrt{2 E-\frac{2 g}{L}(1-\cos \xi)}} .
$$

Problem (F'94, \#7).
The weakly nonlinear approximation to the pendulum equation $(\ddot{x}=-\sin x)$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ddot{x}=-x+\frac{1}{6} x^{3} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

a) Draw the phase plane for (2.3).
b) Prove that (2.3) has periodic solutions $x(t)$ in the neighborhood of $x=0$.
c) For such periodic solutions, define the amplitude as $a=\max _{t} x(t)$. Find an integral formula for the period $\boldsymbol{T}$ of a periodic solution as a function of the amplitude $a$.
d) Show that $T$ is a non-decreasing function of $a$.

Hint: Find a first integral of equation (2.3).

Proof. a)

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{1} & =x \\
y_{2} & =x^{\prime} \\
y_{1}^{\prime} & =x^{\prime}=y_{2}=0 \\
y_{2}^{\prime} & =x^{\prime \prime}=-x+\frac{1}{6} x^{3}=-y_{1}+\frac{1}{6} y_{1}^{3}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Stationary points: $(0,0),(-\sqrt{6}, 0),(\sqrt{6}, 0)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{2} & =f\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \\
y_{2}^{\prime}=-y_{1}+\frac{1}{6} y_{1}^{3} & =g\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \\
J\left(f\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right), g\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)\right) & =\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{1}} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{2}} \\
\frac{\partial g}{\partial y_{1}} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y_{2}}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
-1+\frac{1}{2} y_{1}^{2} & 0
\end{array}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

- For $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=(0,0)$ :

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{(0,0)}-\lambda I\right)=\left|\begin{array}{cc}
-\lambda & 1 \\
-1 & -\lambda
\end{array}\right|=\lambda^{2}+1=0
$$

$$
\lambda_{ \pm}= \pm i . \quad(0,0) \text { is Stable Center. }
$$

- For $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=( \pm \sqrt{6}, 0)$ :

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(\left.J\right|_{( \pm \sqrt{6}, 0)}-\lambda I\right)=\left|\begin{array}{cc}
-\lambda & 1 \\
2 & -\lambda
\end{array}\right|=\lambda^{2}-2=0
$$

$\lambda_{ \pm}= \pm \sqrt{2} . \quad( \pm \sqrt{6}, 0)$ are Unstable Saddle Points.

b) Prove that $\ddot{x}=-x+\frac{1}{6} x^{3}$ has periodic solutions $x(t)$ in the neighborhood of $x=0$. We have

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\ddot{x}=-x+\frac{1}{6} x^{3}, \\
\dot{x} \ddot{x}=-\dot{x} x+\frac{1}{6} x^{3} \dot{x}, \\
\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left(\dot{x}^{2}\right)=-\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left(x^{2}\right)+\frac{1}{24} \frac{d}{d t}\left(x^{4}\right), \\
\frac{d}{d t}\left(\dot{x}^{2}+x^{2}-\frac{1}{12} x^{4}\right)=0, \\
E=\dot{x}^{2}+x^{2}-\frac{1}{12} x^{4} .
\end{array}
$$

Thus the energy is conserved.
For $E>0$ small enough, consider $\dot{x}= \pm \sqrt{E-x^{2}+\frac{1}{12} x^{4}}$. For small $E, x \sim \sqrt{E}$. Thus, there are periodic solutions in a neighborhood of 0 .
c) For such periodic solutions, define the amplitude as $a=\max _{t} x(t)$. Find an Integral Formula for the Period $T$ of a periodic solution as a function of the amplitude a.

Note that at maximum amplitude, $\dot{x}=0$. We have

$$
\begin{array}{r}
E=\dot{x}^{2}+x^{2}-\frac{1}{12} x^{4}, \\
\dot{x}=\sqrt{E-x^{2}+\frac{1}{12} x^{4}}, \\
\int_{0}^{\frac{T}{4}} \frac{\dot{x}}{\sqrt{E-x^{2}+\frac{1}{12} x^{4}}} d t=\int_{0}^{\frac{T}{4}} d t=\frac{T}{4}, \\
T=4 \int_{0}^{\frac{T}{4}} \frac{\dot{x}}{\sqrt{E-x^{2}+\frac{1}{12} x^{4}}} d t .
\end{array}
$$

Making change of variables: $\xi=x(t), \quad d \xi=\dot{x}(t) d t$, we obtain

$$
T(a)=4 \int_{0}^{a} \frac{d \xi}{\sqrt{E-\xi^{2}+\frac{1}{12} \xi^{4}}}
$$

d) Show that $T$ is a non-decreasing function of $a$.

$$
\frac{d T}{d a}=4 \frac{d}{d a} \int_{0}^{a} \frac{d \xi}{\sqrt{E-\xi^{2}+\frac{1}{12} \xi^{4}}}
$$

Problem (S'91, \#1). Consider the autonomous ODE

$$
\frac{d^{2} x}{d t^{2}}+\sin x=0
$$

a) Find a nontrivial function $H\left(x, \frac{d x}{d t}\right)$ that is constant along each solution. ${ }^{1}$
b) Write the equation as a system of 2 first order equations. Find all of the stationary points and analyze their type.
c) Draw a picture of the phase plane for this system.

Proof. a) We have

$$
\ddot{x}+\sin x=0 .
$$

Multiply by $\dot{x}$ and integrate:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{x} \ddot{x}+\dot{x} \sin x & =0 \\
\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left(\dot{x}^{2}\right)+\frac{d}{d t}(-\cos x) & =0 \\
\frac{\dot{x}^{2}}{2}-\cos x & =C \\
H(x, \dot{x}) & =\frac{\dot{x}^{2}}{2}-\cos x
\end{aligned}
$$

$H(x, \dot{x})$ is constant along each solution. Check:

$$
\frac{d}{d t} H(x, \dot{x})=\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} \dot{x}+\frac{\partial H}{\partial \dot{x}} \ddot{x}=(\sin x) \dot{x}+\dot{x}(-\sin x)=0
$$

$\mathrm{b}, \mathbf{c})^{2}$


[^0]
### 2.7 Stability and Asymptotic Stability

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{\prime}=f(y) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

An equilibrium solution $y_{0}$ of (2.4) is stable if $\forall \epsilon, \exists \delta(\epsilon)$ such that whenever any solution $\psi(t)$ of (2.4) satisfies $\left|\psi\left(t_{0}\right)-y_{0}\right|<\delta$, we have $\left|\psi(t)-y_{0}\right|<\epsilon$.

An equilibrium solution $y_{0}$ of (2.4) is asymptotically stable if it is stable, and $\exists \delta_{0}>0$, such that whenever any solution $\psi(t)$ of (2.4) satisfies $\left|\psi\left(t_{0}\right)-y_{0}\right|<\delta_{0}$, we have $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}\left|\psi(t)-y_{0}\right|=0$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{\prime}=f(t, y) \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

A solution $\phi(t)$ of (2.5) is stable if $\forall \epsilon, \forall t_{0} \geq 0, \exists \delta\left(\epsilon, t_{0}\right)>0$ such that whenever any solution $\psi(t)$ of (2.5) satisfies $\left|\psi\left(t_{0}\right)-\phi\left(t_{0}\right)\right|<\delta$, we have $|\psi(t)-\phi(t)|<\epsilon, \forall t \geq t_{0}$.

A solution $\phi(t)$ of (2.5) is asymptotically stable if it is stable, and $\exists \delta_{0}>0$, such that whenever any solution $\psi(t)$ of (2.5) satisfies $\left|\psi\left(t_{0}\right)-\phi\left(t_{0}\right)\right|<\delta_{0}$, we have $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}|\psi(t)-\phi(t)|=0$.

- $\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right) \leq 0$, and when $\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right)=0, \lambda_{j}$ is simple $\Rightarrow y \equiv 0$ is stable
- $\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right)<0 \Rightarrow y \equiv 0$ is asymptotically stable $e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)}$ a fundamental matrix. $\exists K>0, \sigma>0$, s.t. $\left|e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)}\right| \leq K e^{-\sigma\left(t-t_{0}\right)}$
- $\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{0}\right)>0 \Rightarrow y \equiv 0$ is unstable.

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{\prime}=(A+B(t)) y \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem. $\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right)<0, B(t)$ continuous for $0 \leq t<\infty$ and such that $\int_{0}^{\infty}|B(s)| d s<$ $\infty$. Then the zero solution of (2.6) is asymptotically stable.

Proof. $y^{\prime}=(A+B(t)) y=A y+\underbrace{B(t) y}_{g(t)}, \quad g(t)$ is an inhomogeneous term.
Let $\psi(t)$ be a solution to the ODE with $\psi\left(t_{0}\right)=y_{0}$.
By the variation of constants formula:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \psi(t)=e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)} y_{0}+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} e^{A(t-s)} B(s) \psi(s) d s \\
& \text { Note: } \psi\left(t_{0}\right)=y_{0} \\
& y_{0}=e^{t_{0} A} \eta \quad \Rightarrow \quad \eta=e^{-t_{0} A} y_{0}=e^{-t_{0} A} \psi\left(t_{0}\right) \text {. } \\
& |\psi(t)| \leq\left|e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)}\right|\left|y_{0}\right|+\int_{t_{0}}^{t}\left|e^{A(t-s)}\|\psi(s)\| B(s)\right| d s \\
& R e\left(\lambda_{j}\right)<0 \Rightarrow \exists K, \sigma>0 \text {, such that } \\
& \left|e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)}\right| \leq K e^{-\sigma\left(t-t_{0}\right)}, \quad t_{0} \leq t<\infty \\
& \left|e^{A(t-s)}\right| \leq K e^{-\sigma(t-s)}, \quad t_{0} \leq s<\infty \\
& |\psi(t)| \leq K e^{-\sigma\left(t-t_{0}\right)}\left|y_{0}\right|+K \int_{t_{0}}^{t} e^{-\sigma(t-s)}|\psi(s)||B(s)| d s \\
& \underbrace{e^{\sigma t}|\psi(t)|}_{u(t)} \leq \underbrace{K e^{\sigma t_{0}}\left|y_{0}\right|}_{c}+K \int_{t_{0}}^{t} \underbrace{e^{\sigma s}|\psi(s)|}_{u(s)} \underbrace{|B(s)|}_{v(s)} d s \\
& \text { By Gronwall Inequality: } \\
& e^{\sigma t}|\psi(t)| \leq K e^{\sigma t_{0}}\left|y_{0}\right| e^{K \int_{t_{0}}^{t}|B(s)| d s} \\
& |\psi(t)| \leq K e^{-\sigma\left(t-t_{0}\right)}\left|y_{0}\right| e^{K \int_{t_{0}}^{t}|B(s)| d s} \\
& \text { But } K \int_{t_{0}}^{t}|B(s)| d s \leq M_{0}<\infty \quad \Rightarrow \quad e^{K \int_{t_{0}}^{t}|B(s)| d s} \leq e^{M_{0}}=M_{1} \text {, } \\
& |\psi(t)| \leq K M_{1} e^{-\sigma\left(t-t_{0}\right)}\left|y_{0}\right| \rightarrow 0, \text { as } t \rightarrow \infty .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the zero solution of $y^{\prime}=(A+B(t)) y$ is asymptotically stable.
Theorem. Suppose all solutions of $y^{\prime}=A y$ are bounded. Let $B(t)$ be continuous for $0 \leq t<\infty$, and $\int_{0}^{\infty}|B(s)| d s<\infty$. Show all solutions of $y^{\prime}=(A+B(t)) y$ are bounded on $t_{0}<t<\infty$.

Proof.

$$
\begin{align*}
& y^{\prime}=A y  \tag{2.7}\\
& y^{\prime}=(A+B(t)) y \tag{2.8}
\end{align*}
$$

Solutions of (2.7) can be written as $e^{t A} c_{0}$, where $e^{t A}$ is the fundamental matrix.
Since all solutions of (2.7) are bounded, $\left|e^{t A} c_{0}\right| \leq c, 0 \leq t<\infty$.

Now look at the solutions of non-homogeneous equation (2.8). By the variation of constants formula and the previous exercise,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi(t) & =e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)} y_{0}+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} e^{A(t-s)} B(s) \psi(s) d s \\
|\psi(t)| & \leq\left|e^{A\left(t-t_{0}\right)}\left\|y_{0}\left|+\int_{t_{0}}^{t}\right| e^{A(t-s)}| | \psi(s)| | B(s)|d s \leq c| y_{0}\left|+c \int_{t_{0}}^{t}\right| \psi(s)\right\| B(s)\right| d s
\end{aligned}
$$

By Gronwall Inequality,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |\psi(t)| \leq c\left|y_{0}\right| e^{c \int_{t_{0}}^{t}|B(s)| d s} . \\
& \text { But } \quad \int_{t_{0}}^{t}|B(s)| d s<\infty \Rightarrow c \int_{t_{0}}^{t}|B(s)| d s<M_{0} \Rightarrow e^{c \int_{t_{0}}^{t}|B(s)| d s} \leq M_{1} . \\
& \Rightarrow \quad|\psi(t)| \leq c\left|y_{0}\right| M_{1} \leq \widetilde{K} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, all solutions of (2.8) are bounded.
Claim: The zero solution of $y^{\prime}=(A+B(t)) y$ is stable.
An equilibrium solution $y_{0}$ is stable if $\forall \epsilon, \exists \delta(\epsilon)$ such that whenever any solution $\psi(t)$ satisfies $\left|\psi\left(t_{0}\right)-y_{0}\right|<\delta$, we have $\left|\psi(t)-y_{0}\right|<\epsilon$.
We had $|\psi(t)| \leq c\left|\psi_{0}\right| M_{1}$. Choose $\left|\psi\left(t_{0}\right)\right|$ small enough such that $\forall \epsilon, \exists \delta(\epsilon)$ such that $\left|\psi\left(t_{0}\right)\right|<\delta<\frac{\epsilon}{C M_{1}}$
$\Rightarrow \quad|\psi(t)-0|=|\psi(t)| \leq c\left|\psi\left(t_{0}\right)\right| M_{1}<c \delta M_{1}<\epsilon$.
Thus, the zero solution of $y^{\prime}=(A+B(t)) y$ is stable.

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{\prime}=(A+B(t)) y+f(t, y) \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem. i) $\operatorname{Re}\left(\lambda_{j}\right)<0, f(t, y)$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{j}}(t, y)$ are continuous in $(t, y)$.
ii) $\lim _{|y| \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(t, y)|}{|y|}=0$ uniformly with respect to $t$.
iii) $B(t)$ continuous. $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} B(t)=0$.

Then the solution $y \equiv 0$ of (2.9) is asymptotically stable.

### 2.8 Conditional Stability

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{\prime}=A y+g(y) \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem. $g, \frac{\partial g}{\partial y_{j}}$ continuous, $g(0)=0$ and $\lim _{|y| \rightarrow 0} \frac{|g(y)|}{|y|}=0$. If the eigenvalues of $A$ are $\lambda,-\mu$ with $\lambda, \mu>0$, then $\exists$ a curve $C$ in the phase plane of original equation passing through 0 such that if any solution $\phi(t)$ of (2.10) with $|\phi(0)|$ small enough starts on $C$, then $\phi(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$. No solution $\phi(t)$ with $|\phi(0)|$ small enough that does not start on $C$ can remain small. In particular, $\phi \equiv 0$ is unstable.

### 2.9 Asymptotic Equivalence

$$
\begin{align*}
& x^{\prime}=A(t) x  \tag{2.11}\\
& y^{\prime}=A(t) y+f(t, y) \tag{2.12}
\end{align*}
$$

The two systems are asymptotically equivalent if to any solution $x(t)$ of (2.11) with $x\left(t_{0}\right)$ small enough there corresponds a solution $y(t)$ of (2.12) such that

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}|y(t)-x(t)|=0
$$

and if to any solution $\hat{y}(t)$ of (2.12) with $\hat{y}\left(t_{0}\right)$ small enough there corresponds a solution $\hat{x}(t)$ of (2.11) such that

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty}|\hat{y}(t)-\hat{x}(t)|=0
$$

### 2.9.1 Levinson

Theorem. $A$ is a constant matrix such that all solutions of $x^{\prime}=A x$ are bounded on $0 \leq t<\infty . B(t)$ is a continuous matrix such that $\int_{0}^{\infty}|B(s)| d s<\infty$. Then, the systems $x^{\prime}=A x$ and $y^{\prime}=(A+B(t)) y$ are asymptotically equivalent.

## 3 Lyapunov's Second Method

Lagrange's Principle. If the rest position of a conservative mechanical system has minimum potential energy, then this position corresponds to a stable equilibrium. If the rest position does not have minimum potential energy, then the equilibrium position is unstable.

### 3.1 Hamiltonian Form

A system of 2 (or $2 n$ ) equations determined by a single scalar function $H(y, z)$ (or $H\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right)$ ) is called Hamiltonian if it is of the form

$$
\begin{array}{llrl}
H(y, z) & y^{\prime} & =\frac{\partial H}{\partial z} & z^{\prime}
\end{array}=-\frac{\partial H}{\partial y} \quad 1 \quad y_{i}^{\prime}=\frac{\partial H}{\partial z_{i}} \quad z_{i}^{\prime}=-\frac{\partial H}{\partial y_{i}} \quad(i=1, \ldots, n)
$$

Problem. If $\phi=\left(\phi_{1}, \ldots, \phi_{2 n}\right)$ is any solution of the Hamiltonian system (3.1), then $H\left(\phi_{1}, \ldots, \phi_{2 n}\right)$ is constant.

Proof. Need to show $\frac{d H}{d t}=0$.
Can relabel: $H\left(\phi_{1}, \ldots, \phi_{n}, \phi_{n+1}, \ldots, \phi_{2 n}\right)=H\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}, z_{1}, \ldots z_{n}\right)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d H}{d t} & =\frac{d}{d t} H\left(\phi_{1}, \ldots, \phi_{n}, \phi_{n+1}, \ldots, \phi_{2 n}\right) \\
& =\frac{\partial H}{\partial \phi_{1}} \frac{d \phi_{1}}{d t}+\cdots+\frac{\partial H}{\partial \phi_{n}} \frac{d \phi_{n}}{d t}+\frac{\partial H}{\partial \phi_{n+1}} \frac{d \phi_{n+1}}{d t}+\cdots+\frac{\partial H}{\partial \phi_{2 n}} \frac{d \phi_{2 n}}{d t} \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \phi_{i}} \frac{d \phi_{i}}{d t}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \phi_{n+i}} \frac{d \phi_{n+i}}{d t}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial y_{i}} \frac{d y_{i}}{d t}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial z_{i}} \frac{d z_{i}}{d t} \\
& =(\text { by }(3.1))=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial y_{i}} \frac{\partial H}{\partial z_{i}}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial z_{i}}\left(-\frac{\partial H}{\partial y_{i}}\right)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $H\left(\phi_{1}, \ldots, \phi_{2 n}\right)$ is constant.

Problem ( $\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{9 2}, \# 5$ ). Let $x=x(t), p=p(t)$ be a solution of the Hamiltonian system

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d x}{d t} & =\frac{\partial}{\partial p} H(x, p), & x(0)=y \\
\frac{d p}{d t} & =\frac{\partial}{\partial x} H(x, p), & p(0)=\xi
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose that $H$ is smooth and satisfies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\frac{\partial H}{\partial x}(x, p)\right| & \leq C \sqrt{|p|^{2}+1} \\
\left|\frac{\partial H}{\partial p}(x, p)\right| & \leq C
\end{aligned}
$$

Prove that this system has a finite solution $x(t), p(t)$ for $-\infty<t<\infty$.

Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
x(t) & =x(0)+\int_{0}^{t} \frac{d x}{d s} d s \\
|x(t)| & \leq|x(0)|+\int_{0}^{t}\left|\frac{d x}{d s}\right| d s=|x(0)|+\int_{0}^{t}\left|\frac{\partial H}{\partial p}\right| d s \leq|x(0)|+C \int_{0}^{t} d s=|x(0)|+C t
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $x(t)$ is finite for finite $t$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(t) & =p(0)+\int_{0}^{t} \frac{d p}{d s} d s \\
|p(t)| & \leq|p(0)|+\int_{0}^{t}\left|\frac{d p}{d s}\right| d s=|p(0)|+\int_{0}^{t}\left|\frac{\partial H}{\partial x}\right| d s \leq|p(0)|+C \int_{0}^{t} \sqrt{|p|^{2}+1} d s \\
& \leq|p(0)|+C \int_{0}^{t}(1+|p|) d s=|p(0)|+C t+C \int_{0}^{t}|p| d s \\
& \leq(|p(0)|+C t) e^{\int_{0}^{t} C d s} \leq(|p(0)|+C t) e^{C t}
\end{aligned}
$$

where we have used Gronwall (Integral) Inequality. ${ }^{3}$ Thus, $p(t)$ is finite for finite $t$.

[^1]Gronwall (Integral) Inequality: $u(t), v(t)$ continuous on $\left[t_{0}, t_{0}+a\right] . v(t) \geq 0, c \geq 0$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u(t) \leq c+\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) u(s) d s \\
& \Rightarrow \quad u(t) \leq c e^{\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) d s} \quad t_{0} \leq t \leq t_{0}+a
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.2 Lyapunov's Theorems

Definitions: $\quad y^{\prime}=f(y)$
The scalar function $V(y)$ is said to be positive definite if $V(0)=0$ and $V(y)>0$ for all $y \neq 0$ in a small neighborhood of 0 .
The scalar function $V(y)$ is negative definite if $-V(y)$ is positive definite.
The derivative of $V$ with respect to the system $y^{\prime}=f(y)$ is the scalar product

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V^{*}(y)=\nabla V \cdot f(y) \\
& \frac{d}{d t} V(y(t))=\nabla V \cdot f(y)=V^{*}(y)
\end{aligned}
$$

$\Rightarrow$ along a solution $y$ the total derivative of $V(y(t))$ with respect to $t$ coincides with the derivative of $V$ with respect to the system evaluated at $y(t)$.

### 3.2.1 Stability (Autonomous Systems)

If $\exists V(y)$ that is positive definite and for which $V^{*}(y) \leq 0$ in a neighborhood of 0 , then the zero solution is stable.
If $\exists V(y)$ that is positive definite and for which $V^{*}(y)$ is negative definite in a neighborhood of 0 , then the zero solution is asymptotically stable.
If $\exists V(y), V(0)=0$, such that $V^{*}(y)$ is either positive definite or negative definite, and every neighborhood of 0 contains a point $a \neq 0$ such that $V(a) V^{*}(a)>0$, then the 0 solution is unstable.

## Problem (S'00, \#6).

a) Consider the system of ODE's in $\mathbb{R}^{2 n}$ given in vector notation by

$$
\frac{d x}{d t}=f\left(|x|^{2}\right) p \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{d p}{d t}=-f^{\prime}\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|^{2} x,
$$

where $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), \quad p=\left(p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right)$, and $f>0$, smooth on $\mathbb{R}$. We use the notation $x \cdot p=x_{1} p_{1}+\cdots+x_{n} p_{n},|x|^{2}=x \cdot x$ and $|p|^{2}=p \cdot p$.
Show that $|x|$ is increasing with $t$ when $p \cdot x>0$ and decreasing with $t$ when $p \cdot x<0$, and that $H(x, p)=f\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|^{2}$ is constant on solutions of the system.
b) Suppose $\frac{f(s)}{s}$ has a critical value at $s=r^{2}$. Show that solutions with $x(0)$ on the shpere $|x|=r$ and $p(0)$ perpendicular to $x(0)$ must remain on the sphere $|x|=r$ for all $t$. [Compute $\frac{d(p \cdot x)}{d t}$ and use part (a)].

## Proof. a)

- Consider $\boldsymbol{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{x}>\mathbf{0}$ :

Case (1): $p>0, x>0 \Rightarrow \frac{d x}{d t}>0 \Rightarrow x=|x|$ is increasing.
Case (2): $p<0, x<0 \Rightarrow \frac{d x}{d t}<0 \Rightarrow x=-|x|$ is decreasing $\Rightarrow|x|$ is increasing.

- Consider $\boldsymbol{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{x}<\mathbf{0}$ :

Case (3): $p>0, x<0 \Rightarrow \frac{d x}{d t}>0 \Rightarrow x=-|x|$ is increasing $\Rightarrow|x|$ is decreasing.
Case (4): $p<0, x>0 \Rightarrow \frac{d x}{d t}<0 \Rightarrow x=|x|$ is decreasing.
Thus, $|x|$ is increasing with $t$ when $p \cdot x>0$ and decreasing with $t$ when $p \cdot x<0$.
To show $H(x, p)=f\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|^{2}$ is constant on solutions of the system, consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d H}{d t} & =\frac{d}{d t}\left[f\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|^{2}\right]=f^{\prime}\left(|x|^{2}\right) \cdot 2 x \dot{x}|p|^{2}+f\left(|x|^{2}\right) \cdot 2 p \dot{p} \\
& =f^{\prime}\left(|x|^{2}\right) \cdot 2 x f\left(|x|^{2}\right) p|p|^{2}+f\left(|x|^{2}\right) \cdot 2 p \cdot\left(-f^{\prime}\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|^{2} x\right)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $H(x, p)$ is constant on solutions of the system.
b) $G(s)=\frac{f(s)}{s}$ has a critical value at $s=r^{2}$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
G^{\prime}(s) & =\frac{s f^{\prime}(s)-f(s)}{s^{2}}, \\
G^{\prime}\left(r^{2}\right)=0 & =\frac{r^{2} f^{\prime}\left(r^{2}\right)-f\left(r^{2}\right)}{r^{4}} \\
0 & =r^{2} f^{\prime}\left(r^{2}\right)-f\left(r^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $p(0)$ and $x(0)$ are perpendicular, $p(0) \cdot x(0)=0$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{d(p \cdot x)}{d t}=x \frac{d p}{d t}+p \frac{d x}{d t}=-f^{\prime}\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|^{2}|x|^{2}+f\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|^{2}=|p|^{2}\left(f\left(|x|^{2}\right)-f^{\prime}\left(|x|^{2}\right)|x|^{2}\right) \\
\quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{d(p \cdot x)}{d t}(t=0)=|p|^{2}\left(f\left(r^{2}\right)-f^{\prime}\left(r^{2}\right) r^{2}\right)=|p|^{2} \cdot 0=0
\end{gathered}
$$

Also, $\frac{d(p \cdot x)}{d t}=0$ holds for all $|x|=r$. Thus, $p \cdot x=C$ for $|x|=r$. Since, $p(0) \cdot x(0)=0$, $p \cdot x=0$. Hence, $p$ and $x$ are always perpendicular, and solution never leaves the sphere.

Note: The system

$$
\frac{d x}{d t}=f\left(|x|^{2}\right) p \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{d p}{d t}=-f^{\prime}\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|^{2} x
$$

determined by $H(x, p)=f\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|^{2}$ is Hamiltonian.

$$
\dot{x}=\frac{\partial H}{\partial p}=2 f\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|, \quad \dot{p}=-\frac{\partial H}{\partial x}=-2 x f^{\prime}\left(|x|^{2}\right)|p|^{2} .
$$

Example 1. Determine the stability property of the critical point at the origin for the following system.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{aligned}
y_{1}^{\prime}= & -y_{1}^{3}+y_{1} y_{2}^{2} \\
y_{2}^{\prime}= & -2 y_{1}^{2} y_{2}-y_{2}^{3} \\
\text { Try } \quad & V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=y_{1}^{2}+c y_{2}^{2} . \\
& V(0,0)=0 ; \quad V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)>0, \forall y \neq 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad V \text { is positive definite. } \\
V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)= & \frac{d V}{d t}=2 y_{1} y_{1}^{\prime}+2 c y_{2} y_{2}^{\prime}=2 y_{1}\left(-y_{1}^{3}+y_{1} y_{2}^{2}\right)+2 c y_{2}\left(-2 y_{1}^{2} y_{2}-y_{2}^{3}\right) \\
& =-2 y_{1}^{4}-2 c y_{2}^{4}+2 y_{1}^{2} y_{2}^{2}-4 c y_{1}^{2} y_{2}^{2} .
\end{aligned} \\
& \text { If } c=\frac{1}{2}, \quad V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=-2 y_{1}^{4}-y_{2}^{4}<0, \forall y \neq 0 ; \quad V^{*}(0,0)=0 \\
& \quad \Rightarrow \quad V^{*} \text { negative definite. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ is positive definite and $V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ is negative definite, the critical point at the origin is asymptotically stable.

Example 2. Determine the stability property of the critical point at the origin for the following system.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{1}^{3}-y_{2}^{3} \\
& y_{2}^{\prime}=2 y_{1} y_{2}^{2}+4 y_{1}^{2} y_{2}+2 y_{2}^{3} \\
& \text { Try } \quad V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=y_{1}^{2}+c y_{2}^{2} \text {. } \\
& V(0,0)=0 ; \quad V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)>0, \forall y \neq 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad V \text { is positive definite. } \\
& V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{d V}{d t}=2 y_{1} y_{1}^{\prime}+2 c y_{2} y_{2}^{\prime}=2 y_{1}\left(y_{1}^{3}-y_{2}^{3}\right)+2 c y_{2}\left(2 y_{1} y_{2}^{2}+4 y_{1}^{2} y_{2}+2 y_{2}^{3}\right) \\
& =2 y_{1}^{4}-2 y_{1} y_{2}^{3}+4 c y_{1} y_{2}^{3}+8 c y_{1}^{2} y_{2}^{2}+4 c y_{2}^{4} . \\
& \text { If } c=\frac{1}{2}, \quad V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=2 y_{1}^{4}+4 y_{1}^{2} y_{2}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{4}>0, \forall y \neq 0 ; \quad V^{*}(0,0)=0 \\
& \Rightarrow \quad V^{*} \text { positive definite. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ is positive definite and $V(y) V^{*}(y)>0, \forall y \neq 0$, the critical point at the origin is unstable.

Example 3. Determine the stability property of the critical point at the origin for the following system.

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{1}^{\prime} & =-y_{1}^{3}+2 y_{2}^{3} \\
y_{2}^{\prime} & =-2 y_{1} y_{2}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Try } \begin{aligned}
& V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=y_{1}^{2}+c y_{2}^{2} . \\
& V(0,0)=0 ; \quad V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)>0, \forall y \neq 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad V \text { is positive definite. }
\end{aligned} \\
& \begin{aligned}
V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)= & \frac{d V}{d t}=2 y_{1} y_{1}^{\prime}+2 c y_{2} y_{2}^{\prime}=2 y_{1}\left(-y_{1}^{3}+2 y_{2}^{3}\right)+2 c y_{2}\left(-2 y_{1} y_{2}^{2}\right) \\
= & -2 y_{1}^{4}+4 y_{1} y_{2}^{3}-4 c y_{1} y_{2}^{3} .
\end{aligned} \\
& \text { If } c=1, \\
& \Rightarrow \quad V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=-2 y_{1}^{4} \leq 0, \forall y ; V^{*}(\vec{y})=0 \text { for } y=\left(0, y_{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $V$ is positive definite and $V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \leq 0$ in a neighborhood of 0 , the critical point at the origin is at least stable.
$V$ is positive definite, $C^{1}, V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \leq 0, \forall y$. The origin is the only invariant subset of the set $E=\left\{y \mid V^{*}(y)=0\right\}=\left\{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \mid y_{1}=0\right\}$. Thus, the critical point at the origin is asymptotically stable.

Problem (S'96, \#1).
Construct a Liapunov function of the form $a x^{2}+c y^{2}$ for the system

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{x} & =-x^{3}+x y^{2} \\
\dot{y} & =-2 x^{2} y-y^{3},
\end{aligned}
$$

and use it to show that the origin is a strictly stable critical point.

Proof. We let $V(x, y)=a x^{2}+c y^{2}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
V^{*}(x, y) & =\frac{d V}{d t}=2 a x \dot{x}+2 c y \dot{y}=2 a x\left(-x^{3}+x y^{2}\right)+2 c y\left(-2 x^{2} y-y^{3}\right) \\
& =-2 a x^{4}+2 a x^{2} y^{2}-4 c x^{2} y^{2}-2 c y^{4}=-2 a x^{4}+(2 a-4 c) x^{2} y^{2}-2 c y^{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

For $2 a-4 c<0$, i.e. $a<2 c$, we have $V^{*}(x, y)<0$. For instance, $c=1, a=1$.
Then, $V(0,0)=0 ; V(x, y)>0, \forall(x, y) \neq(0,0) \quad \Rightarrow \quad V$ is positive definite.
Also, $V^{*}(0,0)=0 ; V^{*}(x, y)=-2 a x^{4}-2 x^{2} y^{2}-2 c y^{4}<0, \quad \forall(x, y) \neq(0,0)$
$\Rightarrow \quad V^{*}$ is negative definite.
Since $V(x, y)$ is positive definite and $V^{*}(x, y)$ is negative definite, the critical point at the origin is asymptotically stable.

Example 4. Consider the equation $u^{\prime \prime}+g(u)=0$, where $g$ is $C^{1}$ for $|u|<k, k>0$, and $u g(u)>0$ if $u \neq 0$. Thus, by continuity, $g(0)=0$. Write the equation as a system

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{1}^{\prime} & =y_{2} \\
y_{2}^{\prime} & =-g\left(y_{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and the origin is an isolated critical point. Set

$$
V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{2}+\int_{0}^{y_{1}} g(\sigma) d \sigma .
$$

Thus, $V(0,0)=0$ and since $\sigma g(\sigma)>0, \quad \int_{0}^{y_{1}} g(\sigma) d \sigma>0$ for $0<\left|y_{1}\right|<k$. Therefore, $V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ is positive definite on $\Omega=\left\{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)| | y_{1}\left|<k,\left|y_{2}\right|<\infty\right\}\right.$.

$$
V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{d V}{d t}=y_{2} y_{2}^{\prime}+g\left(y_{1}\right) y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{2}\left(-g\left(y_{1}\right)\right)+g\left(y_{1}\right) y_{2}=0 .
$$

Since $V$ is positive definite and $V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \leq 0$ in a neighborhood of 0 , the critical point at the origin is stable.

Example 5. The Lienard Equation. Consider the scalar equation

$$
u^{\prime \prime}+u^{\prime}+g(u)=0
$$

or, written as a system,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{2} \\
& y_{2}^{\prime}=-g\left(y_{1}\right)-y_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $g$ is $C^{1}, u g(u)>0, u \neq 0$. Try

$$
V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{2}+\int_{0}^{y_{1}} g(\sigma) d \sigma
$$

$V$ is positive definite on $\Omega=\left\{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)| | y_{1}\left|<k,\left|y_{2}\right|<\infty\right\}\right.$.

$$
V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{d V}{d t}=y_{2} y_{2}^{\prime}+g\left(y_{1}\right) y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{2}\left(-g\left(y_{1}\right)-y_{2}\right)+g\left(y_{1}\right) y_{2}=-y_{2}^{2}
$$

Since $V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \leq 0$ in $\Omega$, the solution is stable. But $V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ is not negative definite on $\Omega\left(V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=0\right.$ at all points $\left.\left(y_{1}, 0\right)\right)$. Even though the solution is asymptotically stable, we cannot infer this here by using Lyapunov's theorems. ${ }^{4}$

[^2]
### 3.3 Periodic Solutions

Problem. Consider the 2-dimensional autonomous system $y^{\prime}=f(y)$ where $f(y) \in$ $C^{1}\left(\mathbb{R}^{2}\right)$. Let $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ be simply connected, such that $\forall y \in \Omega$, we have $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}) \neq \mathbf{0}$. Show that the ODE system has no periodic solutions in $\Omega$.

Proof. Towards a contradiction, assume ODE system has a periodic solution in $\Omega$. Let $\partial \Omega$ be a boundary on $\Omega$.

$$
y^{\prime}=f(y) \quad \Rightarrow \quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}
y_{1}^{\prime}=f_{1}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \\
y_{2}^{\prime}=f_{2}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

$n=\left(n_{1}, n_{2}\right)=\left(y_{2}^{\prime},-y_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ is the normal to $\partial \Omega$. Recall Divergence Theorem:

$$
\oint_{\partial \Omega} f \cdot n d s=\iint_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} f d A .
$$

Let $y$ be a periodic solution with period $T$, i.e. $y(t+T)=y(t)$. Then, a path traversed by a solution starting from $t=a$ to $t=a+T$ is $\partial \Omega$. Then, $\partial \Omega$ is a closed curve.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\oint_{\partial \Omega} f \cdot n d s & =\int_{\partial \Omega}\left(f_{1} n_{1}+f_{2} n_{2}\right) d s=\int_{a}^{a+T}\left(y_{1}^{\prime} y_{2}^{\prime}-y_{2}^{\prime} y_{1}^{\prime}\right) d t=0 \\
& \Rightarrow \iint_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} f d A=0
\end{aligned}
$$

However, by hypothesis, $\operatorname{div} f(y) \neq 0$ and $f \in C^{1}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{div} f \in C^{0}$, and either $\operatorname{div} f>0$ or $\operatorname{div} f<0$ on $\Omega$. Thus, $\iint_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} f d A>0$ or $\iint_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} f d A<0$, a contradiction.

Example. Show that the given system has no non-trivial periodic solutions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d x}{d t}=x+y+x^{3}-y^{2}, \\
& \frac{d y}{d t}=-x+2 y+x^{2} y+\frac{y^{3}}{3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. $\frac{d x}{d t}=f_{1}(x, y), \frac{d y}{d t}=f_{2}(x, y)$.

$$
\operatorname{div} f(x, y)=\frac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial f_{2}}{\partial y}=\left(1+2 x^{2}\right)+\left(2+x^{2}+y^{2}\right)=3+3 x^{2}+y^{2}>0
$$

By the problem above, the ODE system has no periodic solutions.

## Problem (F'04, \#5).

Consider a generalized Volterra-Lotka system in the plane, given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{\prime}(t)=f(x(t)), \quad x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}, \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $f(x)=\left(f_{1}(x), f_{2}(x)\right)=\left(a x_{1}-b x_{1} x_{2}-e x_{1}^{2},-c x_{2}+d x_{1} x_{2}-f x_{2}^{2}\right)$ and $a, b, c, d, e, f$ are positive constants. Show that

$$
\operatorname{div}(\varphi \mathbf{f}) \neq \mathbf{0} \quad x_{1}>0, x_{2}>0,
$$

where $\varphi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=1 /\left(x_{1} x_{2}\right)$. Using this observation, prove that the autonomous system (3.2) has no closed orbits in the first quadrant.

Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi f & =\binom{\frac{a x_{1}-b x_{1} x_{2}-e x_{1}^{2}}{x_{1} x_{2}}}{\frac{-c x_{2}+d x_{1} x_{2}-f x_{2}^{2}}{x_{1} x_{2}}}=\binom{a x_{2}^{-1}-b-e x_{1} x_{2}^{-1}}{-c x_{1}^{-1}+d-f x_{1}^{-1} x_{2}}, \\
\operatorname{div}(\varphi f) & =\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{1}}\left(a x_{2}^{-1}-b-e x_{1} x_{2}^{-1}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{2}}\left(-c x_{1}^{-1}+d-f x_{1}^{-1} x_{2}\right)=-e x_{2}^{-1}-f x_{1}^{-1} \neq 0,
\end{aligned}
$$

for $x_{1}, x_{2}>0, f, e>0$.
Towards a contradiction, assume ODE system has a closed orbit in the first quadrant. Let $\Omega$ be a bounded domain with an orbit that is $\partial \Omega$.
Let $x$ be a periodic solution with a period $T$, i.e. $x(t+T)=x(t)$. $n=\left(n_{1}, n_{2}\right)=\left(x_{2}^{\prime},-x_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ is the normal to $\partial \Omega$. By Divergence Theorem,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div}(\varphi f) d x & =\int_{\partial \Omega}(\varphi f) \cdot n d S=\int_{\partial \Omega} \varphi\left(f_{1} n_{1}+f_{2} n_{2}\right) d S \\
& =\int_{a}^{a+T} \varphi\left(x_{1}^{\prime} x_{2}^{\prime}-x_{2}^{\prime} x_{1}^{\prime}\right) d t=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\varphi f \in C^{1}$ in $\Omega$, then $\operatorname{div}(\varphi f) \in C^{0} \quad$ in $\Omega$.
Thus, the above result implies $\operatorname{div}(\varphi f)=0$ for some $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \in \Omega$, which contradicts the assumption.

## Problem (F'04, \#4).

Prove that each solution (except $x_{1}=x_{2}=0$ ) of the autonomous system

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x_{1}^{\prime}=x_{2}+x_{1}\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right) \\
x_{2}^{\prime}=-x_{1}+x_{2}\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

blows up in finite time. What is the blow-up time for the solution which starts at the point $(1,0)$ when $t=0$ ?

Proof. We have $r^{2}=x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}$. Multiply the first equation by $x_{1}$ and the second by $x_{2}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1} x_{1}^{\prime}=x_{1} x_{2}+x_{1}^{2}\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right) \\
& x_{2} x_{2}^{\prime}=-x_{1} x_{2}+x_{2}^{2}\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Add equations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{1} x_{1}^{\prime}+x_{2} x_{2}^{\prime} & =\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right)\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right), \\
\frac{1}{2}\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right)^{\prime} & =\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right)\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right), \\
\frac{1}{2}\left(r^{2}\right)^{\prime} & =r^{4}, \\
r r^{\prime} & =r^{4} \\
r^{\prime} & =r^{3} \\
\frac{d r}{d t} & =r^{3}, \\
\frac{d r}{r^{3}} & =d t, \\
-\frac{1}{2 r^{2}} & =t+C, \\
r & =\sqrt{\frac{-1}{2(t+C)}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, solution blows up at $t=-C$. We determine $C$.
Initial conditions: $x_{1}(0)=1, x_{2}(0)=0 \quad \Rightarrow r(0)=1$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
1=r(0) & =\sqrt{\frac{-1}{2 C}} \\
C & =-\frac{1}{2} \\
\Rightarrow r & =\sqrt{\frac{-1}{2 t-1}}=\sqrt{\frac{1}{1-2 t}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the blow-up time is $t=\frac{1}{2}$.

### 3.4 Invariant Sets and Stability

A set $K$ of points in phase space is invariant with respect to the system $y^{\prime}=f(y)$ if every solution of $y^{\prime}=f(y)$ starting in $K$ remains in $K$ for all future time.
A point $p \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is said to lie in the positive limit set $L\left(C^{+}\right)$(or is said to be a limit point of the orbit $C^{+}$) of the solution $\phi(t)$ iff for the solution $\phi(t)$ that gives $C^{+}$for $t \geq 0, \exists$ a sequence $\left\{t_{n}\right\} \rightarrow+\infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ such that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi\left(t_{n}\right)=p$.
Remark: $V^{*} \leq 0, S_{\lambda}=\left\{y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: V(y) \leq \lambda\right\}$.
For every $\lambda$ the set $S_{\lambda}$, in fact, each of its components, is an invariant set with respect to $y^{\prime}=f(y)$.
Reasoning: if $y_{0} \in S_{\lambda}$ and $\phi\left(t, y_{0}\right)$ is solution $\Rightarrow$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Rightarrow \quad \frac{d}{d t} V\left(\phi\left(t, y_{0}\right)\right)=V^{*}\left(\phi\left(t, y_{0}\right)\right) \leq 0 \\
& \Rightarrow \quad V\left(\phi\left(t, y_{0}\right)\right) \leq V\left(\phi\left(0, y_{0}\right)\right), \quad \forall t \geq 0 \\
& \Rightarrow \quad \phi\left(t, y_{0}\right) \in S_{\lambda}, \quad \forall t \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

$\Rightarrow S_{\lambda}$ invariant (as its components).

- If the solution $\phi\left(t, y_{0}\right)$ is bounded for $t \geq 0 \Rightarrow L\left(C^{+}\right)$is a nonempty closed, connected, invariant set. Moreover, the solution $\phi\left(t, y_{0}\right) \rightarrow L\left(C^{+}\right)$as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
- $V \in \Omega$ is $C^{1}$. $V^{*} \leq 0$ on $\Omega$. Let $y_{0} \in \Omega$ and $\phi\left(t, y_{0}\right)$ be bounded with $\phi\left(t, y_{0}\right) \in \Omega$, $\forall t \geq 0$. Assume that $L\left(C^{+}\right)$lies in $\Omega$. Then, $V^{*}(y)=0$ at all points of $L\left(C^{+}\right)$.
- $V$ positive definite, $C^{1}, V^{*} \leq 0$. Let the origin be the only invariant subset of the set $\left\{y \mid V^{*}(y)=0\right\}$. Then the sero solution is asymptotically stable.
- $V$ nonnegative, $C^{1}, V^{*} \leq 0, V(0)=0$. Let $M$ be the largest invariant subset of $\left\{y \mid V^{*}(y)=0\right\}$. Then all bounded solutions approach the set $M$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
- $L\left(C^{+}\right)$contains a closed (periodic) orbit $\Rightarrow L\left(C^{+}\right)$contains no other points.
- The limit set can not be a closed disk topologically.

Example. The Lienard Equation. Consider the scalar equation

$$
u^{\prime \prime}+f(u) u^{\prime}+g(u)=0
$$

where $f(u)>0$ for $u \neq 0$ and $u g(u)>0$ for $u \neq 0$. Written as a system,

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{1}^{\prime} & =y_{2} \\
y_{2}^{\prime} & =-f\left(y_{1}\right) y_{2}-g\left(y_{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{2}+\int_{0}^{y_{1}} g(\sigma) d \sigma
$$

$V(0,0)=0 ; \quad V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)>0, \forall y \neq 0$, so $V$ is positive definite.
$V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{d V}{d t}=y_{2} y_{2}^{\prime}+g\left(y_{1}\right) y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{2}\left(-f\left(y_{1}\right) y_{2}-g\left(y_{1}\right)\right)+g\left(y_{1}\right) y_{2}=-\underbrace{f\left(y_{1}\right)}_{>0} \underbrace{y_{2}^{2}}_{\geq 0} \leq 0$.
The zero solution is at least stable by one of Lyapunov's theorems.
$V^{*}\left(y_{1}, 0\right)=0$ on $y_{1}$ axis $\Rightarrow E=\left\{y \mid V^{*}(y)=0\right\}=\left\{y \mid\left(y_{1}, 0\right)\right\} \Rightarrow E$ is $y_{1}$-axis. $A$ set $\Gamma$ of points in phase space is invariant if every solution that starts in $\Gamma$ remains in $\Gamma$ for all time.
On $y_{1}$-axis $\left(y_{2}=0\right)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d y_{1}}{d t}=0 \\
& \frac{d y_{2}}{d t}=-g\left(y_{1}\right)=-\left\{\begin{array}{l}
>0, y_{1}>0 \\
<0, y_{1}<0
\end{array} \quad=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
<0, y_{1}>0 \\
>0, y_{1}<0
\end{array}\right.\right.
\end{aligned}
$$



The solution can remain on $E\left(y_{2}=0\right)$ only if $y_{2}^{\prime}=-g\left(y_{1}\right)=0$.
Thus, $(0,0)$ is the largest (and only) invariant subset of $E=\left\{y \mid V^{*}(y)=0\right\}$.
Since $V$ is positive definite, $C^{1}$ on $\mathbb{R}^{2}, V^{*} \leq 0, \forall y \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$, and the origin is the only invariant subset of $E$, the zero solution is asymptotically stable.

Example. Van Der Pol Equation. Region of Asymptotic Stability.
Determine an estimate of the region of asymptotic stability in the phase plane for

$$
u^{\prime \prime}+\epsilon\left(1-u^{2}\right) u^{\prime}+u=0, \quad \epsilon>0, \text { a constant. }
$$

Proof. Recall the Lienard equation: $u^{\prime \prime}+f(u) u^{\prime}+g(u)=0$. In our case, $f(u)=\epsilon\left(1-u^{2}\right), \quad g(u)=u$.
Similar to assumptions made for the Lienard equation, we have
$g(0)=0, u g(u)=u^{2}>0, u \neq 0$. Let $F(u)=\int_{0}^{u} f(\sigma) d \sigma$.

$$
F(u)=\int_{0}^{u} f(\sigma) d \sigma=\int_{0}^{u} \epsilon\left(1-\sigma^{2}\right) d \sigma=\epsilon u-\frac{\epsilon u^{3}}{3} .
$$

Find $a>0$ such that $u F(u)>0$ for $0<|u|<a$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
u F(u)=\epsilon u^{2}-\frac{\epsilon u^{4}}{3}>0 \Rightarrow 0<|u|<\sqrt{3}=a \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, we employ a different equivalent system than we had done in previous examples,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y_{1}=u, \\
& y_{2}=u^{\prime}+F(u), \quad \text { which gives }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{1}^{\prime} & =y_{2}-F\left(y_{1}\right), \\
y_{2}^{\prime} & =-y_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Define $G\left(y_{1}\right)=\int_{0}^{y_{1}} g(\sigma) d \sigma=\int_{0}^{y_{1}} \sigma d \sigma=\frac{y_{1}^{2}}{2}$.
Choose $V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{2}+G\left(y_{1}\right)=\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{2}+\frac{y_{1}^{2}}{2} \Rightarrow V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ is positive definite on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)= & y_{2} y_{2}^{\prime}+y_{1} y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{2}\left(-y_{1}\right)+y_{1}\left(y_{2}-F\left(y_{1}\right)\right)=-y_{1} F\left(y_{1}\right) \leq 0 \\
\text { on the strip } & \Omega=\left\{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \mid-\sqrt{3}<y_{1}<\sqrt{3},-\infty<y_{2}<\infty\right\}, \quad \text { by }(3.3) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the origin is stable.
$V^{*}=-y_{1} F\left(y_{1}\right)=0$ for $y_{1}=0\left(y_{2}\right.$-axis)
$\Rightarrow E=\left\{y \mid V^{*}(y)=0\right\}=\left\{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \mid y_{1}=0\right\} . \quad$ On $E: y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{2}, y_{2}^{\prime}=0$.
Thus, 0 is the only invariant subset of $E$, and the zero solution is asymptotically stable. Consider the curves $V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\lambda\left(\frac{y_{1}^{2}}{2}+\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{2}=\lambda\right)$ for $-\sqrt{3}<y_{1}<\sqrt{3}$ with increasing values of $\lambda$, beginning with $\lambda=0$. These are closed curves symmetric about the $y_{1}$-axis.


Since $V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{2}+\frac{y_{1}^{2}}{2}, V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$ first makes contact with the boundary of $\Omega$ at one of the points $(-\sqrt{3}, 0)$ or $(\sqrt{3}, 0)$. The best value of $\hat{\lambda}=\min (G(\sqrt{3}), G(-\sqrt{3}))=$ $\min \left(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2}\right)=\frac{3}{2}$ and $C_{\hat{\lambda}}=\left\{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \left\lvert\, \frac{y_{2}^{2}}{2}+\frac{y_{1}^{2}}{2}<\hat{\lambda}\right.\right\}=\left\{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \mid y_{1}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}<3\right\}$.
$\Rightarrow$ Every solution that starts in $C_{\lambda}$ approaches the origin. ${ }^{5}$

### 3.5 Global Asymptotic Stability

Theorem. Let there exist a scalar function $V(y)$ such that:
(i) $V(y)$ is positive definite on all $\mathbb{R}^{n}$;
(ii) $V(y) \rightarrow \infty$ as $|y| \rightarrow \infty$;
(iii) $V^{*}(y) \leq 0$ on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$;
(iv) 0 it the onlty invariant subset of $E=\left\{y \mid V^{*}(y)=0\right\}$.

Then 0 is globally asymptotically stable.
Corollary. $V(y)$ satisfies (i) and (ii) above, and $V^{*}(y)$ is negative definite.
Then 0 is globally asymptotically stable.

[^3]
### 3.6 Stability (Non-autonomous Systems)

$$
y^{\prime}=f(t, y)
$$

The scalar function $V(t, y)$ is positive definite if $V(t, 0)=0, \forall t$ and $\exists W(y)$ positive definite, s.t. $V(t, y) \geq W(y)$ in $\Omega=\{(t, y): t \geq 0,|y| \leq b, b>0\}$.
The scalar function $V(t, y)$ is negative definite if $-V(t, y)$ is positive definite.

$$
V^{*}(t, y)=\frac{d}{d t} V(t, y(t))=\frac{\partial V}{\partial t}+\nabla V \cdot f(t, y)
$$

If there exists a scalar function $V(t, y)$ that is positive definite and for which $V^{*}(t, y) \leq 0$ in $\Omega$, then the zero solution is stable.
If there exists a scalar function $V(t, y)$ that is positive definite, satisfies an infinitesimal upper bound (i.e. $\lim _{\delta \rightarrow 0^{+}} \sup _{t \geq 0,|y| \leq \delta}|V(t, y)|=0$ ), and for which $V^{*}(t, y)$ is negative definite, then the zero solution is asymptotically stable.

### 3.6.1 Examples

- $V(t, y)=y_{1}^{2}+(1+t) y_{2}^{2} \geq y_{1}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}=W(y) \Rightarrow V$ positive definite on $\Omega=\{(t, y): t \geq$ 0) $\}$
- $V(t, y)=y_{1}^{2}+t y_{2}^{2} \geq y_{1}^{2}+a y_{2}^{2}=W(y) \Rightarrow V$ positive definite on $\Omega=\{(t, y): t \geq$ $a, a>0)\}$
- $V(t, y)=y_{1}^{2}+\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{1+t}$. Since $V\left(t, 0, a_{2}\right)=\frac{a_{2}^{2}}{1+t} \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow V$ not positive definite even though $V(t, y)>0$ for $y \neq 0$.


## 4 Poincare-Bendixson Theory

A segment without contact with respect to a vector field $V: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a finite, closed segment $L$ of a straight line, s.t:
a) Every point of $L$ is a regular point of $V$;
b) At no point of $L$ the vector field $V$ has the same direction as $L$.

Poincare-Bendixson Theorem. Let $C^{+}$be a positive semi-orbit contained in a closed and bounded set $K \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$. If its limit set $L\left(C^{+}\right)$contains no critical points of vector field $\vec{f}$, then $L\left(C^{+}\right)$is a periodic orbit. Also, either:
i) $C=L\left(C^{+}\right)$, or
ii) C approaches $L\left(C^{+}\right)$spirally from either inside or outside.

Corollary. If $C^{+}$is a semiorbit contained in an invariant compact set $K$ in which $f$ has no critical points, then $K$ contains a periodic orbit. Such a set cannot be equivalent to a disk.

Example. Prove that the second order differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
z^{\prime \prime}+\left(z^{2}+2\left(z^{\prime}\right)^{2}-1\right) z^{\prime}+z=0 \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

has a non-trivial periodic solution.
Proof. Write (4.1) as a first-order system:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y_{1}^{\prime}=y_{2} \\
& y_{2}^{\prime}=-y_{1}-\left(y_{1}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{2}-1\right) y_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{1}{2} y_{1}^{2}+\frac{1}{2} y_{2}^{2}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) & =y_{1} y_{1}^{\prime}+y_{2} y_{2}^{\prime}=y_{1} y_{2}+y_{2}\left(-y_{1}-\left(y_{1}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{2}-1\right) y_{2}\right) \\
& =-y_{2}^{2}\left(y_{1}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{2}-1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Use Poincare-Bendixson Theorem: If $C^{+}$is a semiorbit contained in an invariant compact set $K$ in which $f$ has no critical points, then $K$ contains a periodic orbit. Setting both equations of the system to 0 , we see that $(0,0)$ is the only critical point. Choose a compact set $K=\left\{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \left\lvert\, \frac{1}{4} \leq y_{1}^{2}+y_{2}^{2} \leq 4\right.\right\}$ and show that it is invariant.

$$
V^{*}=\nabla V \cdot \vec{f} . \quad \text { Need }\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{o u t}}<0,\left.\quad V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{i n}}>0
$$

Check invariance of $K$ :

- $\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{\text {out }}}=-y_{2}^{2}\left(y_{1}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{2}-1\right) \underbrace{<}_{\text {need }} 0$,

Need: $y_{1}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{2}-1>0$, $y_{1}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{2}-1 \geq y_{1}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}-1=4-1=3>0$.

- $\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{i n}}=-y_{2}^{2}\left(y_{1}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{2}-1\right) \underbrace{>}_{\text {need }} 0$,

Need: $y_{1}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{2}-1<0$,
$y_{1}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{2}-1 \leq 2 y_{1}^{2}+2 y_{2}^{2}-1=2\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)-1=-\frac{1}{2}<0 . \vee$
$\Rightarrow \quad K$ is an invariant set. $(0,0) \notin K$.
Thus $K$ contains a periodic orbit.


Polar Coordinates. Sometimes it is convenient to use polar coordinates when applying Poincare-Bendixson theorem.
$y_{1}^{\prime}=f_{1}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$
$y_{2}^{\prime}=f_{2}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)$
$V=\frac{y_{1}^{2}}{2}+\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{2}$
$V^{*}=\frac{d V}{d t}=y_{1} y_{1}^{\prime}+y_{2} y_{2}^{\prime}=r \cos \theta f_{1}(r, \theta)+r \sin \theta f_{2}(r, \theta)$.
Example. Polar Coordinates. Consider the system

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{1}^{\prime} & =y_{2}+y_{1}\left(1-y_{1}^{2}-y_{2}^{2}\right) \\
y_{2}^{\prime} & =-y_{1}+y_{2}\left(1-y_{1}^{2}-y_{2}^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Let $V\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)=\frac{y_{1}^{2}}{2}+\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{2}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
V^{*}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) & =y_{1} y_{1}^{\prime}+y_{2} y_{2}^{\prime}=r \cos \theta f_{1}(r, \theta)+r \sin \theta f_{2}(r, \theta) \\
& =r \cos \theta\left(r \sin \theta+r \cos \theta\left(1-r^{2}\right)\right)+r \sin \theta\left(-r \cos \theta+r \sin \theta\left(1-r^{2}\right)\right) \\
& =r^{2} \cos \theta \sin \theta+r^{2} \cos ^{2} \theta\left(1-r^{2}\right)-r^{2} \cos \theta \sin \theta+r^{2} \sin ^{2} \theta\left(1-r^{2}\right) \\
& =r^{2}\left(1-r^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Use Poincare-Bendixson Theorem: If $C^{+}$is a semiorbit contained in an invariant compact set $K$ in which $f$ has no critical points, then $K$ contains a periodic orbit. Setting both equations of the system to 0 , we see that $(0,0)$ is the only critical point. Choose a compact set $K=\left\{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right) \left\lvert\, \frac{1}{4} \leq y_{1}^{2}+y_{2}^{2} \leq 4\right.\right.$ and show that it is invariant.
$V^{*}=\nabla V \cdot \vec{f}$. Need $\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{\text {out }}}<0,\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{\text {in }}}>0$. Check invariance of $K$ :

- $\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{\text {out }}}=r^{2}\left(1-r^{2}\right)=4(1-4)<0 . \checkmark$
- $\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{i n}}=r^{2}\left(1-r^{2}\right)=\frac{1}{4}\left(1-\frac{1}{4}\right)>0 . \checkmark$
$\Rightarrow K$ is an invariant set. $(0,0) \notin K$.
Thus $K$ contains a periodic orbit.


Example. Show that the autonomous system

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d u}{d t}=u-v-u^{3}-u v^{2} \\
& \frac{d v}{d t}=u+v-v^{3}-u^{2} v
\end{aligned}
$$

has (a) a unique equilibrium point, (b) which is unstable, and (c) a unique closed solution curve.

Proof. a) Set above equations to 0 and multiply the first by $v$ and the second by $u$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
u v-v^{2}-u^{3} v-u v^{3} & =0 \\
u^{2}+u v-u v^{3}-u^{3} v & =0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad u^{2}+v^{2}=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad u^{2}=-v^{2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad u=0, v=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $(0,0)$ is a unique equilibrium point.
b) Let $V(u, v)=\frac{1}{2} u^{2}+\frac{1}{2} v^{2}, \quad V$ is positive definite in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
V^{*}(u, v) & =u u^{\prime}+v v^{\prime}=u\left(u-v-u^{3}-u v^{2}\right)+v\left(u+v-v^{3}-u^{2} v\right) \\
& =\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)^{2}=\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\left(1-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

$V^{*}(u, v)$ is positive definite in a small neighborhood of $(0,0)$, i.e. $V^{*}$ is positive definite on $\Omega=\left\{(u, v) \left\lvert\, u^{2}+v^{2}=\frac{1}{2}\right.\right\}$. Thus $(0,0)$ is unstable.
c) To show that the ODE system has a closed solution curve, use Poincare-Bendixson theorem: If $C^{+}$is a semiorbit contained in an invariant compact set $K$ in which $f$ has no critical points, then $K$ contains a periodic orbit.
Choose a compact set $K=\left\{(u, v) \left\lvert\, \frac{1}{2} \leq u^{2}+v^{2} \leq 2\right.\right\}$ and show that it is invariant. $V^{*}=\nabla V \cdot \vec{f}$. Need $\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{\text {out }}}<0,\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{i n}}>0$.
Check invariance of $K$ :

- $\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{\text {out }}}=\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\left(1-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\right)=2(1-2)=-2<0$. $\checkmark$
- $\left.V^{*}\right|_{\Gamma_{i n}}=\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\left(1-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right)=\frac{1}{4}>0$.
$\Rightarrow K$ is an invariant set. $(0,0) \notin K$.
Thus $K$ contains a periodic orbit.
To show uniqueness of a periodic orbit, suppose $\Gamma$ is the orbit of a periodic solution in $K$.


$$
\begin{gathered}
\int_{\Gamma} d V=0 \\
d V=\frac{d V}{d t} d t=V^{*} d t \\
\Rightarrow \int_{\Gamma} V^{*} d t=0 . \\
V^{*}(u, v)=\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\left(1-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\right) \\
\Rightarrow \int_{\Gamma}\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\left(1-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\right) d t=0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

$u^{2}+v^{2}=1$ is a periodic orbit.


Suppose there is another periodic orbit in $K$. We know that the following integral should be equal to 0 for a closed curve $\Gamma$ :

$$
\int_{\Gamma} \underbrace{\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)}_{\neq 0} \cdot \underbrace{\left(1-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\right)}_{\text {oscillates about } 0 \text { as going around }} \cdot d t=0
$$

In order for integral above to be equal to $0,\left(1-\left(u^{2}+v^{2}\right)\right)$ should change sign as going around. At some point $a, \Gamma=\left\{(u, v) \mid u^{2}+v^{2}=1\right\}$ and $\Gamma_{2}$ defined by the second solution would intersect. But this is impossible, since at that point, there would be more than one possible solution. $\Rightarrow$ contradiction. Thus, the system has unique closed solution curve.

Problem (S'99, \#8). Consider the pair of ordinary differential equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d x_{1}}{d t}=x_{2} \\
& \frac{d x_{2}}{d t}=-x_{1}+\left(1-x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}\right) x_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

a) Show any nontrivial solution has the property that $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}$ decreases in time if its magnitude is greater than one and increases in time if its magnitude is less than one.
b) Use your work in (a) to show that on a periodic orbit, the integral

$$
\int\left(1-x_{1}^{2}(t)-x_{2}^{2}(t)\right) x_{2}^{2}(t) d t=0
$$

c) Consider the class of solutions $x_{1}=\sin (t+c), x_{2}=\cos (t+c)$. Show that these are the only periodic orbits, for c any constant.
Hint: Use (b) to show that any periodic solution for which $1-x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2} \neq 0$ must be such that $1-x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}$ changes sign on the orbit and use (a) to show this is impossible.

Proof. a) $(0,0)$ is the only equilibrium point.
Let $V\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\frac{1}{2} x_{1}^{2}+\frac{1}{2} x_{2}^{2} ; \quad V$ is positive definite on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
V^{*}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=x_{1} x_{1}^{\prime}+x_{2} x_{2}^{\prime}=x_{1} x_{2}+x_{2}\left(-x_{1}+\left(1-x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}\right) x_{2}\right)=\left(1-x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}\right) x_{2}^{2} \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

$V^{*}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \geq 0$ inside and $V^{*}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \leq 0$ outside the unit circle in the phase plane.
Since $V^{*}=0$ on $x_{2}=0$ ( $x_{1}$-axis), it can not be concluded
that the statement to be proved is satisfied.
Let $r=\frac{1}{2} x_{1}^{2}+\frac{1}{2} x_{2}^{2}$ in (4.2), then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V^{*}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\frac{d}{d t}\left(\frac{1}{2} x_{1}^{2}+\frac{1}{2} x_{2}^{2}\right)=\left(1-x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}\right) x_{2}^{2}, \\
& \frac{d r}{d t}=(1-2 r) x_{2}^{2}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
<0,2 r>1 \\
>0,2 r<1
\end{array}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
<0, x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}> \\
>0, \\
x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}<
\end{array}\right.\right.
\end{aligned}
$$



Thus, $r$ (and thus, $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}$ ) decreases if $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}>1$ and increases if $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}<1$.
If $r=\frac{1}{2}, \frac{d r}{d t}=0$, so $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}=1$ is a circular orbit.
b) The only periodic orbit is $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}=1$ where $V^{*}=0$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{\Gamma} d V=0 \\
& d V=\frac{d V}{d t} d t=V^{*} d t \\
& \Rightarrow \int_{\Gamma} V^{*} d t=0 . \quad \Rightarrow \quad \int_{\Gamma}\left(1-x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}\right) x_{2}^{2} d t=0
\end{aligned}
$$

c) The class of solutions $x_{1}=\sin (t+c), \quad x_{2}=\cos (t+c)$ satisfy $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}=1$, and therefore, are periodic orbits, for $c$ any constant. Suppose there is another periodic orbit. We know that the following integral should be equal to 0 for a closed curve $\Gamma$ :

$$
\int_{\Gamma} \underbrace{\left(1-x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}\right)}_{\text {oscillates about } 0 \text { as going around }} \cdot \underbrace{x_{2}^{2}}_{\neq 0} \cdot d t=0 .
$$

In order for integral above to be equal to $0,1-x_{1}^{2}-x_{2}^{2}$ should change sign as going around.
At some point $a, \Gamma=\left\{\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \mid x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}=1\right\}$ and $\Gamma_{2}$ defined by the second solution
would intersect. But this is impossible, since at that point, there would be more than one possible solution. $\Rightarrow$ contradiction. Thus, the system has a unique closed solution curve.
Also, by (a), we can conclude that solution curves either increase or decrease in time if the magnitude of $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}$ is not one. Thus, they approach the only periodic solution $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}=1$.

## 5 Sturm-Liouville Theory

Definition. The differential equation

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(p y^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q y+r \lambda y=0, \quad a \leq x \leq b  \tag{5.1}\\
& c_{1} y(a)+c_{2} y^{\prime}(a)=0, \quad c_{3} y(b)+c_{4} y^{\prime}(b)=0
\end{align*}
$$

is called a Sturm-Liouville equation. A value of the parameter $\lambda$ for which a nontrivial solution $(y \neq 0)$ exists is called an eigenvalue of the problem and corresponding nontrivial solution $y(x)$ of (5.1) is called an eigenfunction which is associated with that eigenvalue. Problem (5.1) is also called an eigenvalue problem.

The coefficients $p, q$, and $r$ must be real and continuous everywhere and $p>0$ and $r>0$ everywhere.

### 5.1 Sturm-Liouville Operator

Consider the Sturm-Liouville differential operator

$$
\begin{equation*}
L y=\left(p y^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q y \quad\left[L=\frac{d}{d x}\left(p \frac{d}{d x}\right)+q\right] \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p>0, r>0$, and $p^{\prime}, q$ and $r$ are continuous on $[a, b]$. The differential equation (5.1) takes the operational form

$$
\begin{align*}
& L y+\lambda r y=0, \quad a \leq x \leq b  \tag{5.3}\\
& c_{1} y(a)+c_{2} y^{\prime}(a)=0, \quad c_{3} y(b)+c_{4} y^{\prime}(b)=0 .
\end{align*}
$$

### 5.2 Existence and Uniqueness for Initial-Value Problems

Theorem ${ }^{6}$. Let $P(x), Q(x)$ and $R(x)$ be continuous on $[a, b]$. If $x_{0}$ is a point in this interval and $y_{0}$ and $y_{1}$ are arbitrary numbers, then the initial-value problem

$$
\begin{array}{r}
y^{\prime \prime}+P(x) y^{\prime}+Q(x) y=R(x) \\
y\left(x_{0}\right)=y_{0}, \quad y^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)=y_{1}
\end{array}
$$

has a unique solution on $[a, b]$.
Note. The unique solution of the initial-value problem with $R(x)=0, y\left(x_{0}\right)=$ $y^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)=0$, is the trivial solution.

### 5.3 Existence of Eigenvalues

Theorem ${ }^{7}$. The Sturm-Liouville problem (5.1) has an infinite number of eigenvalues, which can be written in increasing order as $\lambda_{1}<\lambda_{2}<\ldots<\lambda_{n}<\ldots$, such that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_{n}=\infty$. The eigenfunctions $y_{n}(x)$ corresponding to $\lambda_{n}$ has exactly $n-1$ zeros in ( $a, b$ ).

[^4]
### 5.4 Series of Eigenfunctions

Theorem ${ }^{8}$. The eigenfunctions $\phi_{n}(x)$ form a "complete" set, meaning that any piecewise smooth function $f(x)$ can be represented by a generalized Fourier series of eigenfunctions:

$$
f(x) \sim \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} \phi_{n}(x) .
$$

### 5.5 Lagrange's Identity

We calculate $u L(v)-v L(u)$, where $u$ and $v$ are any two functions. Recall that

$$
L(u)=\left(p u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q u \quad \text { and } \quad L(v)=\left(p v^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q v
$$

and hence

$$
u L(v)-v L(u)=u\left(p v^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q u v-v\left(p u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-q u v=u\left(p v^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-v\left(p u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} .
$$

The right hand side is manipulated to an exact differential:

$$
u L(v)-v L(u)=\left[p\left(u v^{\prime}-v u^{\prime}\right)\right]^{\prime} .
$$

### 5.6 Green's Formula

The integral form of the Lagrange's identity is known as Green's formula.

$$
\int_{a}^{b}[u L(v)-v L(u)] d x=\left.p\left(u v^{\prime}-v u^{\prime}\right)\right|_{a} ^{b}
$$

for any functions $u$ and $v$.

[^5]
### 5.7 Self-Adjointness

With the additional restriction that the boundary terms vanish,

$$
\left.p\left(u v^{\prime}-v u^{\prime}\right)\right|_{a} ^{b}=0
$$

we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{b}[u L(v)-v L(u)] d x=0 \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

In fact, in the regular Sturm-Liouville eigenvalue problems, the boundary terms vanish. ${ }^{9}$ When (5.4) is valid, we say that $L$ is self-adjoint.

Definition ${ }^{10}$. Let L and $L^{*}$ denote the linear, second-order differential operators defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
L y & =p_{2}(x) y^{\prime \prime}+p_{1}(x) y^{\prime}+p_{0}(x) y \\
L^{*} y & =\left(y p_{2}(x)\right)^{\prime \prime}-\left(y p_{1}(x)\right)^{\prime}+y p_{0}(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $L^{*}$ is called the adjoint of $L$ and the differential equation $L^{*} y=0$ is called the adjoint equation. The operator $L$ is said to be self-adjoint, if $L=L^{*}$. $A$ homogeneous, linear, second order ODE is said to be in self-adjoint form if the ODE has the form

$$
\left(p(x) y^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q(x) y=0
$$

Note: The linear, second-order differential operator

$$
L y=p_{2}(x) y^{\prime \prime}+p_{1}(x) y^{\prime}+p_{0}(x) y
$$

is self-adjoint $\left(L=L^{*}\right)$ if and only if $p_{2}^{\prime}(x)=p_{1}(x)$, i.e.,

$$
L y=\left(p_{2}(x) y^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+p_{0}(x) y
$$

Proof. The adjoint $L^{*}$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
L^{*} y & =\left(y p_{2}(x)\right)^{\prime \prime}-\left(y p_{1}(x)\right)^{\prime}+y p_{0}(x)=y^{\prime \prime} p_{2}+2 y^{\prime} p_{2}^{\prime}+y p_{2}^{\prime \prime}-p_{1}^{\prime} y-p_{1} y^{\prime}+y p_{0} \\
& =p_{2} y^{\prime \prime}+\left(2 p_{2}^{\prime}-p_{1}\right) y^{\prime}+\left(p_{2}^{\prime \prime}-p_{1}^{\prime}+p_{0}\right) y .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $L=L^{*} \Rightarrow 2 p_{2}^{\prime}-p_{1}=p_{1}$, or $p_{2}^{\prime}=p_{1}$.

[^6]Problem ( $\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{9 1}, \mathbf{\# 6}$ ). Consider the boundary value problem

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \frac{d^{2} w}{d x^{2}}+(a-x) \frac{d w}{d x}=-\lambda w \\
& w(L)=w(R)=0,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $a, L(>0)$ and $R(>L)$ are real constants.
By casting the problem in self-adjoint form shows that the eigenfunctions, $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$, corresponding to different eigenvalues, $\lambda_{1}$ and $\lambda_{2}$, are orthogonal in the sense that

$$
\int_{L}^{R} e^{-x} x^{a-1} w_{1} w_{2} d x=\int_{L}^{R} e^{-x} x^{a} \frac{d w_{1}}{d x} \frac{d w_{2}}{d x} d x=0
$$

Show also that

$$
\lambda_{i}=\frac{\int_{L}^{R} e^{-x} x^{a}\left(\frac{d w_{i}}{d x}\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{L}^{R} e^{-x} x^{a-1} w_{i}^{2} d x}
$$

and hence that all eigenvalues are positive.

Proof. A homogeneous, linear, second order ODE is said to be in self-adjoint form if the ODE has the form

$$
\left(p(x) u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q(x) u=0 .
$$

We have

$$
L u=x u^{\prime \prime}+(a-x) u^{\prime} .
$$

Multiply the equation by $v$ so that it becomes of self-adjoint form:

$$
v L u=x v u^{\prime \prime}+(a-x) v u^{\prime} .
$$

Thus, we need

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(p u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} & =x v u^{\prime \prime}+(a-x) v u^{\prime}, \\
p u^{\prime \prime}+p^{\prime} u^{\prime} & =x v u^{\prime \prime}+(a-x) v u^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $p=x v$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
(x v)^{\prime} & =(a-x) v \\
x v^{\prime}+v & =a v-x v \\
\frac{v^{\prime}}{v} & =\frac{a-x-1}{x}, \\
\frac{v^{\prime}}{v} & =\frac{a-1}{x}-1, \\
\ln v & =(a-1) \ln x-x, \\
\ln v & =\ln x^{a-1}-x \\
v & =e^{\ln x^{a-1}} e^{-x}=x^{a-1} e^{-x} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the self-adjoint form is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(x v u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda u v=0, \quad \text { or } \\
& \left(x^{a} e^{-x} u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda x^{a-1} e^{-x} u=0 . \quad \circledast
\end{aligned}
$$

- Let $\lambda_{m}, \lambda_{n}$, be the eigenvalues and $u_{m}, u_{n}$ be the corresponding eigenfunctions. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(x^{a} e^{-x} u_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda_{m} x^{a-1} e^{-x} u_{m} & =0  \tag{5.5}\\
\left(x^{a} e^{-x} u_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda_{n} x^{a-1} e^{-x} u_{n} & =0 \tag{5.6}
\end{align*}
$$

Multiply (5.5) by $u_{n}$ and (5.6) by $u_{m}$ and subtract equations from each other

$$
\begin{aligned}
u_{n}\left(x^{a} e^{-x} u_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda_{m} x^{a-1} e^{-x} u_{n} u_{m} & =0 \\
u_{m}\left(x^{a} e^{-x} u_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda_{n} x^{a-1} e^{-x} u_{m} u_{n} & =0 \\
\left(\lambda_{m}-\lambda_{n}\right) x^{a-1} e^{-x} u_{m} u_{n} & =u_{m}\left(x^{a} e^{-x} u_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-u_{n}\left(x^{a} e^{-x} u_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \\
& =\left[x^{a} e^{-x}\left(u_{m} u_{n}^{\prime}-u_{n} u_{m}^{\prime}\right)\right]^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

Integrating over $(L, R)$ gives

$$
\left(\lambda_{m}-\lambda_{n}\right) \int_{L}^{R} x^{a-1} e^{-x} u_{m} u_{n} d x=\left[x^{a} e^{-x}\left(u_{m} u_{n}^{\prime}-u_{n} u_{m}^{\prime}\right)\right]_{L}^{R}=0
$$

Since $\lambda_{n} \neq \lambda_{m}, \quad u_{n}(x)$ and $u_{m}(x)$ are orthogonal on $[L, R]$.

- To show that $u_{m}^{\prime}$ and $u_{n}^{\prime}$ are orthogonal with respect to $x^{a-1} e^{-x}$, consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{L}^{R} x^{a} e^{-x} u_{m}^{\prime} u_{n}^{\prime} d x & =\left.x^{a} e^{-x} u_{m}^{\prime} u_{n}\right|_{L} ^{R}-\int_{L}^{R}\left(x^{a} e^{-x} u_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} u_{n} d x \\
& =-\int_{L}^{R}\left(x^{a} e^{-x} u_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} u_{n} d x=\circledast=\lambda_{m} \int_{0}^{1} x^{a-1} e^{-x} u_{m} u_{n} d x=\odot=0
\end{aligned}
$$

- We now show that eigenvalues $\lambda$ are positive. We have

$$
\left(x^{a} e^{-x} u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda x^{a-1} e^{-x} u=0
$$

Multiplying by $u$ and integrating, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{L}^{R} u\left(x^{a} e^{-x} u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda x^{a-1} e^{-x} u^{2} d x & =0 \\
\underbrace{\left.x^{a} e^{-x} u u^{\prime}\right|_{L} ^{R}}_{=0}-\int_{L}^{R} x^{a} e^{-x} u^{\prime 2} d x+\lambda \int_{L}^{R} x^{a-1} e^{-x} u^{2} d x & =0 \\
\lambda=\frac{\int_{L}^{R} x^{a} e^{-x} u^{\prime 2} d x}{\int_{L}^{R} x^{a-1} e^{-x} u^{2} d x} & \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

The equality holds only if $u^{\prime} \equiv 0$, which means $u=C$. Since $u(0)=u(1)=0$, then $u \equiv 0$, which is not an eigenfunction. Thus, $\lambda>0$.

Problem (F'01, \#2). Consider the differential operator

$$
L=\left(\frac{d}{d x}\right)^{2}+2\left(\frac{d}{d x}\right)+\alpha(x)
$$

in which $\alpha$ is a real-valued function. The domain is $x \in[0,1]$, with Neumann boundary conditions

$$
\frac{d u}{d x}(0)=\frac{d u}{d x}(1)=0 .
$$

a) Find a function $\phi=\phi(x)$ for which $L$ is self-adjoint in the norm

$$
\|u\|^{2}=\int_{0}^{1} u^{2} \phi d x
$$

b) Show that $L$ must have a positive eigenvalue if $\alpha$ is not identically zero and

$$
\int_{0}^{1} \alpha(x) d x \geq 0
$$

Proof. a) $L u=u^{\prime \prime}+2 u^{\prime}+\alpha(x) u$. $L$ is self-adjoint in the above norm, if

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{1}[u L(v)-v L(u)] \phi d x & =0, \text { or } \\
\int_{0}^{1} u L(v) \phi d x & =\int_{0}^{1} v L(u) \phi d x, \\
\int_{0}^{1} u\left(v^{\prime \prime}+2 v^{\prime}+\alpha(x) v\right) \phi d x & =\int_{0}^{1} v\left(u^{\prime \prime}+2 u^{\prime}+\alpha(x) u\right) \phi d x, \\
\int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{v^{\prime \prime}}_{g^{\prime}} \underbrace{u \phi}_{f} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} u v^{\prime} \phi d x+\int_{0}^{1} \alpha(x) u v d x & =\int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{u^{\prime \prime}}_{g^{\prime}} \underbrace{v \phi}_{f} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} v u^{\prime} \phi d x+\int_{0}^{1} \alpha(x) u v d x, \\
\left.v^{\prime} u \phi\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1} v^{\prime}\left(u^{\prime} \phi+u \phi^{\prime}\right) d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} u v^{\prime} \phi d x & =\left.u^{\prime} v \phi\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime}\left(v^{\prime} \phi+v \phi^{\prime}\right) d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} v u^{\prime} \phi d x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Boundary terms are 0 due to boundary conditions. Cancelling out other terms, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
-\int_{0}^{1} u v^{\prime} \phi^{\prime} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} u v^{\prime} \phi d x & =-\int_{0}^{1} v u^{\prime} \phi^{\prime} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} v u^{\prime} \phi d x \\
-u v^{\prime} \phi^{\prime}+2 u v^{\prime} \phi & =-v u^{\prime} \phi^{\prime}+2 v u^{\prime} \phi \\
\left(v u^{\prime}-u v^{\prime}\right) \phi^{\prime} & =2\left(v u^{\prime}-u v^{\prime}\right) \phi \\
\phi^{\prime} & =2 \phi . \quad \text { Thus, }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\phi=a e^{2 x} \text {. }
$$

b) Divide by $u$ and integrate:

$$
\begin{aligned}
u^{\prime \prime}+2 u^{\prime}+\alpha(x) u & =\lambda u \\
\int_{0}^{1} \frac{u^{\prime \prime}}{u} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} \frac{u^{\prime}}{u} d x+\int_{0}^{1} \alpha(x) d x & =\int_{0}^{1} \lambda d x \\
\left.\frac{1}{u} u^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{-\frac{1}{u}}_{g^{\prime}} \underbrace{\frac{1}{u^{2}} u^{\prime}}_{f^{\prime}} \underbrace{u^{\prime}}_{g} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} \frac{u^{\prime}}{u} d x+\int_{0}^{1} \alpha(x) d x & =\lambda \\
\int_{0}^{1} \frac{u^{\prime 2}}{u^{2}} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} \frac{u^{\prime}}{u} d x+\int_{0}^{1} \alpha(x) d x & =\lambda \\
\int_{0}^{1} \frac{u^{\prime}}{u} d x+\int_{0}^{1} \alpha(x) d x & =\lambda
\end{aligned}
$$

In order to have $\lambda>0$, we must prove that there exists $u(x)$ such that

$$
\int_{0}^{1}\left[\left(\frac{u^{\prime}}{u}\right)^{2}+2 \frac{u^{\prime}}{u}\right] d x>0
$$

We can choose to have

$$
\left(\frac{u^{\prime}}{u}\right)^{2}+2 \frac{u^{\prime}}{u}>0
$$

which means that $\frac{u^{\prime}}{u}>0$ or $\frac{u^{\prime}}{u}<-2$. For example, if $u(x)=e^{c x}$ with $c>0$, we have

$$
\frac{u^{\prime}}{u}=c>0
$$

For such $u(x), \quad \lambda>0$.

Problem (F'99, \#7). Consider the differential operator

$$
L=\left(\frac{d}{d x}\right)^{2}+2\left(\frac{d}{d x}\right)
$$

The domain is $x \in[0,1]$, with boundary conditions $u(0)=u(1)=0$.
a) Find a function $\phi=\phi(x)$ for which $L$ is self-adjoint in the norm

$$
\|u\|^{2}=\int_{0}^{1} u^{2} \phi d x
$$

b) If $a<0$ show that $L+a I$ is invertible.
c) Find a value of $a$, so that $(L+a I) u=0$ has a nontrivial solution.

Proof. a) $L y=y^{\prime \prime}+2 y^{\prime}$. $L$ is self-adjoint in the above norm, if

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{1}[u L(v)-v L(u)] \phi d x & =0, \quad \text { or } \\
\int_{0}^{1} u L(v) \phi d x & =\int_{0}^{1} v L(u) \phi d x \\
\int_{0}^{1} u\left(v^{\prime \prime}+2 v^{\prime}\right) \phi d x & =\int_{0}^{1} v\left(u^{\prime \prime}+2 u^{\prime}\right) \phi d x \\
\int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{v^{\prime \prime}}_{g^{\prime}} \underbrace{u \phi}_{f} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} u v^{\prime} \phi d x & =\int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{u^{\prime \prime}}_{g^{\prime}} \underbrace{v \phi}_{f} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} v u^{\prime} \phi d x \\
\left.v^{\prime} u \phi\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1} v^{\prime}\left(u^{\prime} \phi+u \phi^{\prime}\right) d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} u v^{\prime} \phi d x & =\left.u^{\prime} v \phi\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime}\left(v^{\prime} \phi+v \phi^{\prime}\right) d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} v u^{\prime} \phi d x
\end{aligned}
$$

Boundary terms are 0 due to boundary conditions. Cancelling out other terms, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
-\int_{0}^{1} u v^{\prime} \phi^{\prime} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} u v^{\prime} \phi d x & =-\int_{0}^{1} v u^{\prime} \phi^{\prime} d x+2 \int_{0}^{1} v u^{\prime} \phi d x \\
-u v^{\prime} \phi^{\prime}+2 u v^{\prime} \phi & =-v u^{\prime} \phi^{\prime}+2 v u^{\prime} \phi \\
\left(v u^{\prime}-u v^{\prime}\right) \phi^{\prime} & =2\left(v u^{\prime}-u v^{\prime}\right) \phi \\
\phi^{\prime} & =2 \phi
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
\phi=a e^{2 x}
$$

b) $L+a I$ is invertible if the following holds:

$$
(L+a I) u=0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad u \equiv 0
$$

- $\Leftarrow \mid \quad u=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad(L+a I) u=0$.
- $\Rightarrow$ We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(L+a I) u & =0 \\
L u+a u & =0 \\
u^{\prime \prime}+2 u^{\prime}+a u & =0
\end{aligned}
$$

Multiply by $u$ and integrate:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \qquad \int_{0}^{1} u u^{\prime \prime} d x+\int_{0}^{1} 2 u u^{\prime} d x+\int_{0}^{1} a u^{2} d x=0 \\
& \underbrace{\left.u u^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{1}\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\underbrace{\left.2 u u\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0} \underbrace{-\int_{0}^{1} 2 u^{\prime} u d x}_{=0, \text { since } \int_{0}^{1} 2 u^{\prime} u=-\int_{0}^{1}}+\int_{0}^{1} a u^{2} d x=0 \\
& -\int_{0}^{1}\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{1} a u^{2} d x=0 \\
& \int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{\left(-\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}+a u^{2}\right)}_{\leq 0,(a<0)} d x=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $u \equiv 0$.

- $\Rightarrow$ We could also solve the equation directly and show $u \equiv 0$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
(L+a I) u & =0, \\
L u+a u & =0, \\
u^{\prime \prime}+2 u^{\prime}+a u & =0, \\
u & =c e^{s x}, \quad(\text { anzats }) \\
u(x) & =c_{1} e^{(-1+\sqrt{1-a}) x}+c_{2} e^{(-1-\sqrt{1-a}) x}, \\
u(0) & =0=c_{1}+c_{2} \Rightarrow c_{1}=-c_{2} \\
u(1) & =0=c_{1} e^{-1+\sqrt{1-a}}-c_{1} e^{-1-\sqrt{1-a}} \\
0 & =c_{1} e^{-1}\left(e^{\sqrt{1-a}}-e^{-\sqrt{1-a}}\right), \\
& \Rightarrow c_{1}=0 \quad \Rightarrow c_{2}=0 \quad \Rightarrow u \equiv 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

c) We want to find a value of $a$, so that $(L+a I) u=0$ has a nontrivial solution.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u^{\prime \prime}+2 u^{\prime}+a u=0, \\
& u(x)=c_{1} e^{(-1+\sqrt{1-a}) x}+c_{2} e^{(-1-\sqrt{1-a}) x}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $a=1+\pi^{2}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
u(x) & =c_{1} e^{\left(-1+\sqrt{-\pi^{2}}\right) x}+c_{2} e^{\left(-1-\sqrt{-\pi^{2}}\right) x}=c_{1} e^{(-1+i \pi) x}+c_{2} e^{(-1-i \pi) x} \\
& =c_{1} e^{-x} e^{i \pi x}+c_{2} e^{-x} e^{-i \pi x}=c_{1} e^{-x}(\cos \pi x+i \sin \pi x)+c_{2} e^{-x}(\cos \pi x-i \sin \pi x), \\
u(0) & =0=c_{1}+c_{2} \Rightarrow c_{1}=-c_{2} \\
u(x) & =c_{1} e^{-x}(\cos \pi x+i \sin \pi x)-c_{1} e^{-x}(\cos \pi x-i \sin \pi x)=2 i c_{1} e^{-x} \sin \pi x \\
u(1) & =0 . \checkmark
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $c_{1}=-i$. Then, $u(x)=2 e^{-x} \sin \pi x$, is a nontrivial solution.

Problem ( $\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{9 0}, \# \mathbf{6}$ ). Consider the differential-difference operator

$$
L u=u^{\prime \prime}(x)+u^{\prime}(x-1)+3 u(x)
$$

defined on $0<x<3 / 2$ along with the boundary conditions $u(x) \equiv 0$ on $-1 \leq x \leq 0$ and $u(3 / 2)=0$. Determine the adjoint operator and the adjoint boundary conditions. Hint: Take the inner product to be $(u, v) \equiv \int_{0}^{3 / 2} u(x) v(x) d x$.

Proof. The adjoint operator of $L$ is $L^{*}$, such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}}\left[u L v-v L^{*} u\right] d x=\left.H(x)\right|_{0} ^{\frac{3}{2}} \\
& \begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u L v d x & =\int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u\left(v^{\prime \prime}(x)+v^{\prime}(x-1)+3 v(x)\right) d x \\
& =\int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u(x) v^{\prime \prime}(x)+\int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u(x) v^{\prime}(x-1)+3 \int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u(x) v(x)=\circledast
\end{aligned}
\end{aligned}
$$

Change of variables: $y=x-1, d y=d x$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u(x) v^{\prime}(x-1) d x=\int_{-1}^{\frac{1}{2}} u(y+1) v^{\prime}(y) d y=\int_{-1}^{\frac{1}{2}} u(x+1) v^{\prime}(x) d x \\
\circledast & =\underbrace{\int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u(x) v^{\prime \prime}(x)+\int_{-1}^{\frac{1}{2}} u(x+1) v^{\prime}(x) d x+3 \int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u(x) v(x)}_{=0} \\
= & \underbrace{\left.u(x) v^{\prime}(x)\right|_{0} ^{\frac{3}{2}}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u^{\prime}(x) v^{\prime}(x)+\underbrace{\left.u(x+1) v(x)\right|_{-1} ^{\frac{1}{2}}}_{=0}-\int_{-1}^{\frac{1}{2}} u^{\prime}(x+1) v(x)+3 \int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u(x) v(x) \\
= & \left.u_{0}^{\frac{u^{\prime}}{2}} u^{\prime \prime}(x) v(x)\right|_{0} ^{\frac{3}{2}}+\int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u^{\prime \prime}(x) v(x)-\int_{-1}^{\frac{1}{2}} u^{\prime}(x+1) v(x)+3 \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} u^{\prime}(x+1) v(x)+3 \int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u(x) v(x) \\
= & \int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u^{\prime \prime}(x) v(x)-\int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u^{\prime}(x+1) v(x)+3 \int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} u(x) v(x) \\
= & \int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}}\left(u^{\prime \prime}(x) v(x)-u^{\prime}(x+1) v(x)+3 u(x) v(x)\right) d x \\
= & \left.\int_{0}^{\frac{3}{2}} v\left(u^{\prime \prime}(x)-u^{\prime}(x+1)+3 u(x)\right) d x=0 \text { for } x \in[-1,0],\left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}\right]\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the adjoint boundary conditions are $u \equiv 0$ for $-1 \leq x \leq 0, \quad \frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{3}{2}$, and

$$
L^{*} u=u^{\prime \prime}(x)-u^{\prime}(x+1)+3 u(x)
$$

Problem (S'92, \#2). Consider the two point boundary value problem

$$
y^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+a(x) y^{\prime \prime \prime}+b(x) y^{\prime}+c(x) y=F \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1
$$

with boundary conditions

$$
y(0)=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}(0)=\alpha y^{\prime \prime \prime}(0), \quad y(1)=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}(1)=\beta y^{\prime \prime \prime}(1) .
$$

Here $a, b, c$ are real $C^{\infty}$-smooth functions and $\alpha, \beta$ are real constants.
a) Derive necessary and sufficient conditions for $a, b, c, \alpha, \beta$ such that the problem is self-adjoint.

Proof. a) METHOD I: $L$ is self-adjoint if

$$
\begin{aligned}
L & =L^{*}, \\
y^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+a y^{\prime \prime \prime}+b y^{\prime}+c y & =y^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}-(a y)^{\prime \prime \prime}-(b y)^{\prime}+c y, \\
a y^{\prime \prime \prime}+b y^{\prime} & =-(a y)^{\prime \prime \prime}-(b y)^{\prime}, \\
a y^{\prime \prime \prime}+b y^{\prime} & =-a^{\prime \prime \prime} y-3 a^{\prime \prime} y^{\prime}-3 a^{\prime} y^{\prime \prime}-a y^{\prime \prime \prime}-b^{\prime} y-b y^{\prime}, \\
2 a y^{\prime \prime \prime}+3 a^{\prime} y^{\prime \prime} & +\left(3 a^{\prime \prime}+2 b\right) y^{\prime}+\left(a^{\prime \prime \prime}+b^{\prime}\right) y=0, \\
\Rightarrow & a=0, b=0, \quad c \text { arbitrary. }
\end{aligned}
$$

METHOD II: $L$ is self-adjoint if

$$
\begin{aligned}
(L u \mid v) & =(u \mid L v), \\
\int_{0}^{1} u L(v) d x & =\int_{0}^{1} v L(u) d x
\end{aligned}
$$

In the procedure below, we integrate each term of $u L(v)$ by parts at most 4 times to get

$$
\int_{0}^{1} u L(v) d x=\int_{0}^{1} v L(u) d x+F(x)
$$

and set $F(x)=0$, which determines the conditions on $a, b$ and $c$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{0}^{1} u L(v) d x=\int_{0}^{1} u\left(v^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+a v^{\prime \prime \prime}+b v^{\prime}+c v\right) d x \\
&= \int_{0}^{1} u v^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+\int_{0}^{1} a u v^{\prime \prime \prime}+\int_{0}^{1} b u v^{\prime}+\int_{0}^{1} c u v \\
&= \underbrace{\left.u v^{\prime \prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime \prime}+\underbrace{\left.a u v^{\prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime} u v^{\prime \prime}+a u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime}\right)+\underbrace{\left.b u v\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{1}\left(b^{\prime} u v+b u^{\prime} v\right)+\int_{0}^{1} c u v}_{=0} \\
&=-\left.u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime \prime}-\underbrace{\left.a^{\prime} u v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime \prime} u v^{\prime}+a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v^{\prime}\right)-\left.a u^{\prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v^{\prime}+a u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime}\right)-\int_{0}^{1}\left(b^{\prime} u v+b u^{\prime} v\right)+\int_{0}^{1} \\
&=-\left.u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\left.u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime \prime \prime} v^{\prime}+\underbrace{\left.a^{\prime \prime} u v\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime \prime \prime} u v+a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime} v\right)+\underbrace{\left.a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime} v+a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime} v\right)}_{=0} \\
&-\left.a u^{\prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\underbrace{\left.a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime} v+a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime} v\right)+\underbrace{\left.a u^{\prime \prime} v\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime} v+a u^{\prime \prime \prime} v\right)-\int_{0}^{1}\left(b^{\prime} u v+b u^{\prime} v\right)+\int_{0}^{1} c u v}_{=0} \\
&=-\left.u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\left.u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\underbrace{\left.u^{\prime \prime \prime} v\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime} v-\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime \prime \prime} u v+a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime} v\right)-\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime} v+a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime} v\right) \\
&-\left.a u^{\prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime} v+a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime} v\right)-\int_{0}^{1}\left(a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime} v+a u^{\prime \prime \prime} v\right)-\int_{0}^{1}\left(b^{\prime} u v+b u^{\prime} v\right)+\int_{0}^{1} c u v \\
&=-\left.u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\left.u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\left.a u^{\prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1} \\
&+ \int_{0}^{1}\left(u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}-a^{\prime \prime \prime} u-a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime}-a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime}-a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime}-a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime}-a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime}-a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime}-a u^{\prime \prime \prime}-b^{\prime} u-b u^{\prime}+c u\right) v \\
&=-\left.u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\left.u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\left.a u^{\prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\int_{0}^{1}\left(u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}-a^{\prime \prime \prime} u-3 a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime}-3 a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime}-a u^{\prime \prime \prime}-b^{\prime} u-b u^{\prime}+c u\right) v \\
&= \int_{0}^{1} v\left(u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+a u^{\prime \prime \prime}+b u^{\prime}+c u\right) \\
&-\left.u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\left.u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\left.a u^{\prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\int_{0}^{1}\left(-a^{\prime \prime \prime} u-3 a^{\prime \prime} u^{\prime}-3 a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime}-2 a u^{\prime \prime \prime}-b^{\prime} u-2 b u^{\prime}\right) v \\
&= \int_{0}^{1} v L(u) d x-\left.u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\left.u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\left.a u^{\prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\int_{0}^{1}\left(\left(-a^{\prime \prime \prime}-b^{\prime}\right) u-\left(3 a^{\prime \prime}+2 b\right) u^{\prime}-3 a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime}-2 a u^{\prime \prime \prime}\right) v .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $L$ is self-adjoint if $\int_{0}^{1}\left(\left(-a^{\prime \prime \prime}-b^{\prime}\right) u-\left(3 a^{\prime \prime}+2 b\right) u^{\prime}-3 a^{\prime} u^{\prime \prime}-2 a u^{\prime \prime \prime}\right) v=0$, or $a=0, b=0, c$ arbitrary. Also, need

$$
\begin{aligned}
&-u^{\prime}(1) v^{\prime \prime}(1)+u^{\prime}(0) v^{\prime \prime}(0)+u^{\prime \prime}(1) v^{\prime}(1)-u^{\prime \prime}(0) v^{\prime}(0)-\underbrace{\left.a u^{\prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0,(a=0)}=0 \\
&-\beta u^{\prime}(1) v^{\prime \prime \prime}(1)+\alpha u^{\prime}(0) v^{\prime \prime \prime}(0)+\beta u^{\prime \prime \prime}(1) v^{\prime}(1)-\alpha u^{\prime \prime \prime}(0) v^{\prime}(0)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $\alpha, \beta=0$.
Note that both Methods I and II give the same answers. However, we need to use Method II in order to obtain information about boundary conditions.
b) Assume that $c(x)=c_{0}$ is constant and that the problem is self-adjoint. Determinte the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions and show that they form a complete
orthonormal set.
From part (a), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+c_{0} y=F \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\
& y(0)=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}(0)=0, \quad y(1)=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}(1)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The eigenvalue problem is

$$
\begin{array}{r}
y^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+c_{0} y=\lambda y \\
\Rightarrow \quad y^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}-\left(\lambda-c_{0}\right) y=0 .
\end{array}
$$

To determine eigenfunctions, try $y=a \cos \left(\lambda-c_{0}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} x+b \sin \left(\lambda-c_{0}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} x$. Initial conditions give

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y(0)=a=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad y=b \sin \left(\lambda-c_{0}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} x \\
& y(1)=b \sin \left(\lambda-c_{0}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}}=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad\left(\lambda-c_{0}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}}=n \pi \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lambda_{n}=n^{4} \pi^{4}+c_{0} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions are

$$
\lambda_{n}=n^{4} \pi^{4}+c_{0}, \quad y_{n}=\sin \left(\lambda_{n}-c_{0}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} x=\sin n \pi x, \quad n=1,2, \ldots
$$

「 We could also use the table to find out that the eigenfunctions are $y=\sin \frac{n \pi x}{L}=$ $\sin n \pi x$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
y^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+c_{0} y & =\lambda y \\
(\sin n \pi x)^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+c_{0} \sin n \pi x & =\lambda \sin n \pi x, \\
n^{4} \pi^{4} \sin n \pi x+c_{0} \sin n \pi x & =\lambda \sin n \pi x \\
n^{4} \pi^{4}+c_{0} & =\lambda_{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The normalized eigenfunctions form an orthonormal set

$$
\int_{0}^{1}(\sqrt{2} \sin n \pi x)(\sqrt{2} \sin m \pi x) d x= \begin{cases}0 & n \neq m \\ 1 & n=m\end{cases}
$$

Any smooth function $f$ can be written in terms of eigenfunctions $f(x)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} \sqrt{2} \sin n \pi x$.

## c) Use the eigenfunctions to construct the Green's function.

We have

$$
\begin{align*}
& y^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+c_{0} y=F(x)  \tag{5.7}\\
& y(0)=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}(0)=0, \quad y(1)=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}(1)=0 \tag{5.8}
\end{align*}
$$

The related eigenvalue problem is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+c_{0} y=\lambda y \\
& y(0)=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}(0)=0, \quad y(1)=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}(1)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

The eigenvalues are $\lambda_{n}=n^{4} \pi^{4}+c_{0}$, and the corresponding eigenfunctions are $\sin n \pi x$, $n=1,2, \ldots$.
Writing $y=\sum a_{n} \phi_{n}=\sum a_{n} \sin n \pi x$ and inserting into (5.7), we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a_{n} n^{4} \pi^{4} \sin n \pi x+c_{0} a_{n} \sin n \pi x\right)=F(x), \\
& \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(n^{4} \pi^{4}+c_{0}\right) \sin n \pi x=F(x), \\
& \int_{0}^{1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(n^{4} \pi^{4}+c_{0}\right) \sin n \pi x \sin m \pi x d x=\int_{0}^{1} F(x) \sin m \pi x d x, \\
& a_{n}\left(n^{4} \pi^{4}+c_{0}\right) \frac{1}{2}=\int_{0}^{1} F(x) \sin n \pi x d x, \\
& a_{n}=\frac{2 \int_{0}^{1} F(x) \sin n \pi x d x}{n^{4} \pi^{4}+c_{0}} . \\
& y(x)=\sum_{n} a_{n} \sin n \pi x=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2 \int_{0}^{1} F(\xi) \sin n \pi x \sin n \pi \xi d \xi}{n^{4} \pi^{4}+c_{0}}, \\
& y=\int_{0}^{1} F(\xi) \underbrace{\left[2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin n \pi x \sin n \pi \xi}{n^{4} \pi^{4}+c_{0}}\right]}_{=G(x, \xi)} d \xi .
\end{aligned}
$$

See a less complicated problem, $y^{\prime \prime}=f$, in Poisson Equation subsection of Eigenvalues of the Laplacian section (PDEs).

Problem (S'91, \#5). Define the operator

$$
L u=u_{x x x x}+a(x) u_{x x}+b(x) u_{x}+c(x) u
$$

for $0 \leq x \leq 2 \pi$ with boundary conditions

$$
u=u_{x x}=0 \quad \text { on } \quad x=0,2 \pi .
$$

a) Find conditions on the functions $a, b$ and $c$ so that $L$ is self-adjoint.
b) For $a=b=0$ and $c=$ constant, find the fundamental solution for the PDE

$$
u_{t}=-L u
$$

as a Fourier series in $x$.
Proof. a) METHOD I: $L$ is self-adjoint if

$$
\begin{aligned}
L & =L^{*}, \\
u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+a u^{\prime \prime}+b u^{\prime}+c u & =u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+(a u)^{\prime \prime}-(b u)^{\prime}+c u, \\
a u^{\prime \prime}+b u^{\prime} & =(a u)^{\prime \prime}-(b u)^{\prime}, \\
a u^{\prime \prime}+b u^{\prime} & =a^{\prime \prime} u+2 a^{\prime} u^{\prime}+a u^{\prime \prime}-b^{\prime} u-b u^{\prime}, \\
0 & =a^{\prime \prime} u+2 a^{\prime} u^{\prime}-b^{\prime} u-2 b u^{\prime}, \\
0 & =\left(a^{\prime \prime}-b^{\prime}\right) u+2\left(a^{\prime}-b\right) u^{\prime}, \\
\Rightarrow & a^{\prime}=b, \quad c \text { arbitrary. }
\end{aligned}
$$

METHOD II: $L$ is self-adjoint if

$$
\begin{aligned}
(L u \mid v) & =(u \mid L v), \quad \text { or } \\
\int_{0}^{2 \pi} u L(v) d x & =\int_{0}^{2 \pi} v L(u) d x
\end{aligned}
$$

In the procedure below, we integrate each term of $u L(v)$ by parts at most 4 times to get

$$
\int_{0}^{2 \pi} u L(v) d x=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} v L(u) d x+F(x)
$$

and set $F(x)=0$, which determines the conditions on $a, b$ and $c$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{0}^{2 \pi} u L(v) d x=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} u\left(v^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+a v^{\prime \prime}+b v^{\prime}+c v\right) d x \\
= & \int_{0}^{2 \pi} u v^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+\int_{0}^{2 \pi} a u v^{\prime \prime}+\int_{0}^{2 \pi} b u v^{\prime}+\int_{0}^{2 \pi} c u v \\
= & \underbrace{\left.u v^{\prime \prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{2 \pi}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{2 \pi} u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime \prime}+\underbrace{\left.a u v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{2 \pi}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(a^{\prime} u v^{\prime}+a u^{\prime} v^{\prime}\right)+\underbrace{\left.b u v\right|_{0} ^{2 \pi}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(b^{\prime} u v+b u^{\prime} v\right)+\int_{0}^{2 \pi} c u v \\
= & \underbrace{-\left.u^{\prime} v^{\prime \prime}\right|_{0} ^{2 \pi}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{2 \pi} u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime \prime}-\underbrace{\left.a^{\prime} u v\right|_{0} ^{2 \pi}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(a^{\prime \prime} u v+a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v\right)-\underbrace{\left.a u^{\prime} v\right|_{0} ^{2 \pi}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v+a u^{\prime \prime} v\right)-\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(b^{\prime} u v+b u^{\prime} v\right)+ \\
= & \underbrace{\left.u^{\prime \prime} v^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{2 \pi}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{2 \pi} u^{\prime \prime \prime} v^{\prime}+\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(a^{\prime \prime} u v+a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v\right)+\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v+a u^{\prime \prime} v\right)-\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(b^{\prime} u v+b u^{\prime} v\right)+\int_{0}^{2 \pi} c u v \\
= & \underbrace{-\left.u^{\prime \prime \prime} v\right|_{0} ^{2 \pi}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime} v+a^{\prime \prime} u v+a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v+a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v+a u^{\prime \prime} v-b^{\prime} u v-b u^{\prime} v+c u v\right) \\
= & \int_{0}^{2 \pi} v\left(u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+a u^{\prime \prime}+b u^{\prime}+c u\right)+\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(a^{\prime \prime} u v+2 a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v-b^{\prime} u v-2 b u^{\prime} v\right) \\
= & \int_{0}^{2 \pi} v L(u) d x+\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(a^{\prime \prime} u v+2 a^{\prime} u^{\prime} v-b^{\prime} u v-2 b u^{\prime} v\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $L$ is self-adjoint if $\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(a^{\prime \prime} u+2 a^{\prime} u^{\prime}-b^{\prime} u-2 b u^{\prime}\right) v=0$, or $\quad a^{\prime}=b, c$ arbitrary.
b) For $a=b=0$ and $c=$ constant, find the fundamental solution for the PDE

$$
u_{t}=-L u
$$

## as a Fourier series in $x$.

We have $u_{t}=-L u=-u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}-c u$. We first need to find eigenfunctions and eigenvalues. The eigenvalue problem is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+c u=\lambda u \\
\Rightarrow \quad & u^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}-(\lambda-c) u=0, \\
& u=u_{x x}=0 \quad \text { on } \quad x=0,2 \pi
\end{aligned}
$$

To determine eigenfunctions, try $u=a \cos (\lambda-c)^{\frac{1}{4}} x+b \sin (\lambda-c)^{\frac{1}{4}} x$. Initial conditions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
u(0) & =a=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad u=b \sin (\lambda-c)^{\frac{1}{4}} x \\
u(2 \pi) & =0=b \sin (\lambda-c)^{\frac{1}{4}} 2 \pi=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad(\lambda-c)^{\frac{1}{4}} 2 \pi=n \pi \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lambda_{n}=\frac{n^{4}}{16}+c .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lambda_{n}=\frac{n^{4}}{16}+c, \quad u_{n}=\sin \left(\lambda_{n}-c\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} x=\sin \frac{n x}{2}, \quad n=1,2, \ldots \\
& \text { Let } \quad u(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_{n}(t) \sin \frac{n x}{2} . \\
& u(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(u_{n}^{\prime}(t) \sin \frac{n x}{2}+u_{n}(t) \frac{n^{4}}{16} \sin \frac{n x}{2}+c u_{n}(t) \sin \frac{n x}{2}\right)=0, \\
& u_{n}^{\prime}(t)+u_{n}(t) \frac{n^{4}}{16}+c u_{n}(t)=0, \\
& u_{n}^{\prime}(t)+\left(\frac{n^{4}}{16}+c\right) u_{n}(t)=0, \\
& \quad u_{n}(t)=c_{n} e^{-\left(\frac{n^{4}}{16}+c\right) t} . \\
& u(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_{n} e^{-\left(\frac{n^{4}}{16}+c\right) t} \sin \frac{n x}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In order to determine $c_{n}$ we need initial conditions $u(x, 0)=f(x)$. Then ${ }^{11}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u(x, 0)= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_{n} \sin \frac{n x}{2} d x=f(x) . \\
& \pi c_{n}= \int_{0}^{2 \pi} f(x) \sin \frac{n x}{2} d x \\
& c_{n}= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} f(x) \sin \frac{n x}{2} d x . \\
& \Rightarrow \quad u(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_{n} e^{-\left(\frac{n^{4}}{16}+c\right) t} \sin \frac{n x}{2}=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} f(\xi) \sin \frac{n \xi}{2} e^{-\left(\frac{n^{4}}{16}+c\right) t} \sin \frac{n x}{2} d \xi .
\end{aligned}
$$

[^7]$$
u(x, t)=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} f(\xi) \underbrace{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\pi} \sin \frac{n \xi}{2} \sin \frac{n x}{2} e^{-\left(\frac{n^{4}}{16}+c\right) t}}_{=G\left(x, t ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)} d \xi
$$

### 5.8 Orthogonality of Eigenfunctions

Definition ${ }^{12}$. A positive, continuous function $r(x)$ defined on $[a, b]$ is called a weight function. Two continuous functions $f(x)$ and $h(x)$ defined on $[a, b]$ are said to be orthogonal on $[a, b]$ with respect to the weight function $r(x)$, if

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) h(x) r(x) d x=0
$$

Theorem ${ }^{13}$. Let $\lambda_{m}$ and $\lambda_{n}$ be two distinct eigenvalues of the Sturm-Liouville problem (5.3). Then the corresponding eigenfunctions $y_{m}(x)$ and $y_{n}(x)$ are orthogonal on $[a, b]$ with respect to the weight function $r(x)$.

$$
\int_{a}^{b} y_{m}(x) y_{n}(x) r(x) d x=0
$$

Proof. We have the relations

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(p y_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q y_{m}+\lambda_{m} r y_{m}=0  \tag{5.9}\\
& \left(p y_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q y_{n}+\lambda_{n} r y_{n}=0 \tag{5.10}
\end{align*}
$$

Multiply (5.9) by $y_{n}$ and (5.10) by $y_{m}$ and subtract equations from each other ${ }^{14}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\lambda_{n}-\lambda_{m}\right) r y_{m} y_{n}=y_{n}\left(p y_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-y_{m}\left(p y_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\left[p\left(y_{n} y_{m}^{\prime}-y_{m} y_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right]^{\prime} \tag{5.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Integrating both sides of $(5.11)$ over $(a, b)$ gives

$$
\left(\lambda_{n}-\lambda_{m}\right) \int_{a}^{b} y_{m} y_{n} r=\left[p\left(y_{n} y_{m}^{\prime}-y_{m} y_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right]_{a}^{b}
$$

The boundary conditions in (5.3) ensure that the right side vanishes (e.g. if $c_{2} \neq 0$, then $y^{\prime}(a)=-\frac{c_{1}}{c_{2}} y(a)$, and $\left.y_{n}(a) y_{m}^{\prime}(a)-y_{m}(a) y_{n}^{\prime}(a)=-y_{n}(a) \frac{c_{1}}{c_{2}} y_{m}(a)+y_{m}(a) \frac{c_{1}}{c_{2}} y_{n}(a)=0\right)$. Thus,

$$
\left(\lambda_{n}-\lambda_{m}\right) \int_{a}^{b} y_{m} y_{n} r=0
$$

Since $\lambda_{n} \neq \lambda_{m}, \quad y_{n}(x)$ and $y_{m}(x)$ are orthogonal on $[a, b]$ with respect to the weight function $r(x)$.

[^8]Problem (S'90, \#3). Consider the eigenvalue problem

$$
a(x) \frac{d^{2} u(x)}{d x^{2}}=\lambda u(x), \quad 0<x<1,
$$

with the boundary conditions $u(0)=0, u^{\prime}(1)=0$. Here $0<c_{1} \leq a(x) \leq c_{2}$ is a smooth function on $[0,1]$. Let $\lambda_{n}, n=1, \ldots$, be the eigenvalues and $\varphi_{n}(x)$ be the corresponding eigenfunctions. Prove that there is a weight $\rho(x)$ such that

$$
\int_{0}^{1} \varphi_{m}(x) \varphi_{n}(x) \rho(x) d x=0 \quad \text { for } m \neq n
$$

Proof. Rewrite the equation as

$$
u^{\prime \prime}-\lambda \frac{1}{a(x)} u=0
$$

Let $\lambda_{m}, \lambda_{n}$, be the eigenvalues and $u_{m}, u_{n}$ be the corresponding eigenfunctions. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
& u_{m}^{\prime \prime}-\lambda_{m} \frac{1}{a(x)} u_{m}=0,  \tag{5.12}\\
& u_{n}^{\prime \prime}-\lambda_{n} \frac{1}{a(x)} u_{n}=0 . \tag{5.13}
\end{align*}
$$

Multiply (5.12) by $u_{n}$ and (5.13) by $u_{m}$ and subtract equations from each other

$$
\begin{aligned}
u_{n} u_{m}^{\prime \prime} & =\lambda_{m} \frac{1}{a(x)} u_{m} u_{n}, \\
u_{m} u_{n}^{\prime \prime} & =\lambda_{n} \frac{1}{a(x)} u_{n} u_{m} . \\
\left(\lambda_{m}-\lambda_{n}\right) \frac{1}{a(x)} u_{m} u_{n} & =u_{n} u_{m}^{\prime \prime}-u_{m} u_{n}^{\prime \prime}=\left(u_{n} u_{m}^{\prime}-u_{m} u_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Integrating over $(0,1)$ gives

$$
\left(\lambda_{m}-\lambda_{n}\right) \int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{a(x)} u_{m} u_{n} d x=\left[u_{n} u_{m}^{\prime}-u_{m} u_{n}^{\prime}\right]_{0}^{1}=0 .
$$

Since $\lambda_{n} \neq \lambda_{m}, u_{n}(x)$ and $u_{m}(x)$ are orthogonal on $[0,1]$ with respect to the weight function $\rho(x)=\frac{1}{a(x)}$.

### 5.9 Real Eigenvalues

Theorem ${ }^{15}$. For any regular Sturm-Liouville problem, all the eigenvalues $\lambda$ are real.
Proof. We can use orthogonality of eigenfunctions to prove that the eigenvalues are real. Suppose that $\lambda$ is a complex eigenvalue and $\phi(x)$ the corresponding eigenfunction (also allowed to be complex since the differential equation defining the eigenfunction would be complex):

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(\phi)+\lambda r \phi=0 . \tag{5.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, the complex conjugate of (5.14) is also valid:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\overline{L(\phi)}+\bar{\lambda} r \bar{\phi}=0, \tag{5.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^9]assuming that $r$ is real. Since the coefficients of a linear operator $L=\frac{d}{d x}\left(p \frac{d}{d x}\right)+q$ are real, $\overline{L(\phi)}=L(\bar{\phi})$. Thus,
$$
L(\bar{\phi})+\bar{\lambda} r \bar{\phi}=0 .
$$

If $\phi$ satisfies boundary conditions with real coefficients, for example $c_{1} \phi(a)+c_{2} \phi^{\prime}(a)=0$, then $\bar{\phi}$ satisfies the same boundary conditions, $c_{1} \bar{\phi}(a)+c_{2} \bar{\phi}^{\prime}(a)=0$. Equation (5.14) and the boundary conditions show that $\bar{\phi}$ satisfies the Sturm-Liouville problem, but with eigenvalue being $\bar{\lambda}$. Thus, if $\lambda$ is a complex eigenvalue with corresponding eigenfunction $\phi$, then $\bar{\lambda}$ is also an eigenvalue with corresponding eigenfunction $\bar{\phi}$.
Using orthogonality of eigenfunctions, $\phi$ and $\bar{\phi}$ are orthogonal (with weight $r$ ). Thus,

$$
\int_{a}^{b} \phi \bar{\phi} r d x=0
$$

Since $\phi \bar{\phi}=|\phi|^{2} \geq 0$ and $r>0$, the integral above is $\geq 0$. In fact, the integral can equal 0 only if $\phi \equiv 0$, which is prohibited since $\phi$ is an eigenfunction. Thus, $\lambda=\bar{\lambda}$, and hence $\lambda$ is real.

### 5.10 Unique Eigenfunctions

Theorem. Consider the Sturm-Liouville problem (5.3). If $y_{1}(x)$ and $y_{2}(x)$ are two eigenfunctions corresponding to the same eigenvalue $\lambda$, then $y_{1}(x)=\alpha y_{2}(x)$, $a \leq x \leq b$, for some nonzero constant $\alpha$, (i.e., $y_{1}(x)$ and $y_{2}(x)$ are linearly dependent).

Proof. ${ }^{16}$ Method 1: Suppose that there are two different eigenfunctions $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ corresponding to the same eigenvalue $\lambda$. In this case,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& L\left(y_{1}\right)+\lambda r y_{1}=0 \\
& L\left(y_{2}\right)+\lambda r y_{2}=0 \\
& 0=y_{2}\left(L\left(y_{1}\right)+\lambda r y_{1}\right)-y_{1}\left(L\left(y_{2}\right)+\lambda r y_{2}\right)=y_{2} L\left(y_{1}\right)-y_{1} L\left(y_{2}\right)=\left[p\left(y_{2} y_{1}^{\prime}-y_{1} y_{2}^{\prime}\right)\right]^{\prime},
\end{aligned}
$$

where the Lagrange's identity was used in the last equality. It follows that

$$
p\left(y_{2} y_{1}^{\prime}-y_{1} y_{2}^{\prime}\right)=\text { constant }
$$

This constant is evaluated from the boundary conditions and is equal to 0 if the boundary conditions are of the Sturm-Liouville type. Thus,

$$
y_{2} y_{1}^{\prime}-y_{1} y_{2}^{\prime}=0
$$

This is equivalent to $\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{y_{1}}{y_{2}}\right)=0$, and hence for these boundary conditions

$$
y_{2}=c y_{1} .
$$

Thus, the two eigenfunctions are dependent; the eigenfunction is unique.
Proof. ${ }^{17}$ Method 2: Consider the function

$$
w(x)=y_{2}^{\prime}(a) y_{1}(x)-y_{1}^{\prime}(a) y_{2}(x),
$$

and suppose that

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{1}^{\prime}(a)^{2}+y_{2}^{\prime}(a)^{2} \neq 0 \tag{5.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $w(x)$ satisfies the following initial-value problem

$$
\begin{array}{r}
L w+\lambda r w=0 \quad a \leq x \leq b \quad\left[\left(p w^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q w+\lambda r w=0\right] \\
w(a)=w^{\prime}(a)=0 .
\end{array}
$$

$\lceil$ Check that $w(x)$ indeed satisfies the initial-value problem:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left(p w^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q w+\lambda r w=\left[p\left(y_{2}^{\prime}(a) y_{1}(x)-y_{1}^{\prime}(a) y_{2}(x)\right)^{\prime}\right]^{\prime}+q\left(y_{2}^{\prime}(a) y_{1}(x)-y_{1}^{\prime}(a) y_{2}(x)\right) \\
+\lambda r\left(y_{2}^{\prime}(a) y_{1}(x)-y_{1}^{\prime}(a) y_{2}(x)\right) \\
=y_{2}^{\prime}(a)\left[\left(p y_{1}^{\prime}(x)\right)^{\prime}+q y_{1}(x)+\lambda r y_{1}(x)\right]-y_{1}^{\prime}(a)\left[\left(p y_{2}^{\prime}(x)\right)^{\prime}+q y_{2}(x)+\lambda r y_{2}(x)\right]=0,
\end{array}
$$

since $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are eigenfunctions. Also,

$$
\begin{aligned}
w(a) & =y_{2}^{\prime}(a) y_{1}(a)-y_{1}^{\prime}(a) y_{2}(a)=-\frac{c_{1}}{c_{2}} y_{2}(a) y_{1}(a)+\frac{c_{1}}{c_{2}} y_{1}(a) y_{2}(a)=0, \\
w^{\prime}(a) & \left.=y_{2}^{\prime}(a) y_{1}^{\prime}(a)-y_{1}^{\prime}(a) y_{2}^{\prime}(a)=0 . \quad\right\rfloor
\end{aligned}
$$

[^10]By the uniqueness theorem for initial-value problems, $w(x) \equiv 0$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{2}^{\prime}(a) y_{1}(x)-y_{1}^{\prime}(a) y_{2}(x) \equiv 0, \quad a \leq x \leq b . \tag{5.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $y_{1}(x)$ and $y_{2}(x)$ are eigenfunctions, $y_{1}(x)$ and $y_{2}(x)$ are not identically 0 . Hence, (5.16) and (5.17) imply that $y_{1}^{\prime}(a) y_{2}^{\prime}(a) \neq 0$. Thus, by (5.17), $y_{1}(x)=\alpha y_{2}(x)$, where $\alpha=y_{1}^{\prime}(a) / y_{2}^{\prime}(a)$.

Remark: In the theorem above, we showed that, for the Sturm-Liouville problem (5.3), there is only one linearly independent eigenfunction associated with each eigenvalue $\lambda$. For this reason, $\lambda$ is said to be simple.

### 5.11 Rayleigh Quotient

Theorem ${ }^{18}$. Any eigenvalue can be related to its eigenfunction by the Rayleigh quotient:

$$
\lambda=\frac{-\left.p \phi \phi^{\prime}\right|_{a} ^{b}+\int_{a}^{b}\left[p\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2}-q \phi^{2}\right] d x}{\int_{a}^{b} \phi^{2} r d x} .
$$

Proof. The Rayleigh quotient can be derived from the Sturm-Liouville differential equation,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(p \phi^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q \phi+\lambda r \phi=0 \tag{5.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

by multiplying (5.18) by $\phi$ and integrating:

$$
\int_{a}^{b}\left[\phi\left(p \phi^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+q \phi^{2}\right] d x+\lambda \int_{a}^{b} r \phi^{2} d x=0
$$

Since $\int_{a}^{b} r \phi^{2}>0$, we can solve for $\lambda$ :

$$
\lambda=\frac{\int_{a}^{b}\left[-\phi\left(p \phi^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-q \phi^{2}\right] d x}{\int_{a}^{b} r \phi^{2} d x} .
$$

Integrating by parts gives

$$
\lambda=\frac{-\left.p \phi \phi^{\prime}\right|_{a} ^{b}+\int_{a}^{b}\left[p\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2}-q \phi^{2}\right] d x}{\int_{a}^{b} r \phi^{2} d x} .
$$

Note: Given the equation:

$$
\frac{1}{x}\left(x f^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda f=0
$$

we can obtain

$$
\lambda=\frac{\int_{0}^{1} x f^{\prime 2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} x f^{2} d x} \geq 0
$$

[^11]We can establish the Rayleigh-Ritz principle, namely that

$$
F(f)=\frac{\int_{0}^{1} x\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} x f^{2} d x}
$$

is an upper bound on the smallest eigenvalue.
Let $f(x)=\sum a_{n} f_{n}$, where $f_{n}$ 's are eigenfunctions. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(f) & =\frac{\int_{0}^{1} x\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} x f^{2} d x}=\frac{\int_{0}^{1} x\left(\sum a_{n} f_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} x\left(\sum a_{n} f_{n}\right)^{2} d x} \quad \text { (by orthogonality) } \\
& =\frac{\sum a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{\prime 2} d x}{\sum a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{2} d x}=\circledast=\frac{\sum a_{n}^{2} \lambda_{n} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{2} d x}{\sum a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{2} d x}>\lambda_{\min } \frac{\sum a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{2} d x}{\sum a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{2} d x}=\lambda_{\text {min }} .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 5.12 More Problems

Example. Determine the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of the Sturm-Liouville problem

$$
\begin{array}{r}
y^{\prime \prime}+\lambda y=0, \quad 0 \leq x \leq L \\
y(0)=0, \quad y(L)=0 .
\end{array}
$$

Proof. Note that we get this equation from (5.1) with $p \equiv 1, \quad q \equiv 0, r \equiv 1, \quad a=0$, $b=L$. We consider the three cases $\lambda>0, \lambda=0, \lambda<0$.

- If $\lambda=0$, the ODE reduces to $y^{\prime \prime}=0$. Try $y(x)=A x+B$.

Applying the first boundary condition gives $y(0)=0=B$. The second boundary condition gives $y(L)=0=A L$, or $A=0$. Therefore, the only solution for this case is the trivial solution, $y(x) \equiv 0$, which is not an eigenfunction, and therefore, 0 is not an eigenvalue.

- If $\lambda<0$, or $\lambda=-\beta^{2}$, the ODE becomes

$$
y^{\prime \prime}-\beta^{2} y=0 .
$$

The anzats $y=e^{s x}$ gives $s^{2}-\beta^{2}=0$, or $s= \pm \beta$. Thus the general solution is

$$
y(x)=A e^{\beta x}+B e^{-\beta x}
$$

Applying the first boundary condition gives

$$
y(0)=0=A+B, \quad \text { or } \quad B=-A .
$$

The second boundary condition gives

$$
y(L)=0=A\left(e^{\beta L}-e^{-\beta L}\right)=2 A \sinh \beta L, \quad \text { or } \quad A=0 .
$$

Thus, the only solution is the trivial solution, $y(x) \equiv 0$, which is not an eigenfunction, and therefore, there are no negative eigenvalues.

- If $\lambda>0, \operatorname{try} \lambda=+\beta^{2}$

$$
y^{\prime \prime}+\beta^{2} y=0
$$

with the anzats $y=e^{s x}$, which gives $s= \pm i \beta$ with the family of solutions

$$
y(x)=A \sin \beta x+B \cos \beta x .
$$

Applying the first boundary condition gives

$$
y(0)=0=B .
$$

The second boundary condition gives

$$
y(L)=0=A \sin \beta L .
$$

Since we want nontrivial solutions, $A \neq 0$, and we set $A \sin \beta L=0$, obtaining $\beta L=n \pi$. Thus the eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenfunctions are

$$
\lambda=\lambda_{n}=\left(\frac{n \pi}{L}\right)^{2}, \quad y_{n}(x)=A_{n} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi x}{L}\right) .
$$

「 Also, the eigenfunctions can always be used to represent any piecewise smooth function $f(x)$,

$$
f(x) \sim \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} y_{n}(x)
$$

Thus, for our example,

$$
\left.f(x) \sim \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} \sin \frac{n \pi x}{L} . \quad\right\rfloor
$$

Problem (F'98, \#3). Consider the eigenvalue problem

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d^{2} \phi}{d x^{2}}+\lambda \phi=0 \\
& \phi(0)-\frac{d \phi}{d x}(0)=0, \quad \phi(1)+\frac{d \phi}{d x}(1)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

a) Show that all eigenvalues are positive.
b) Show that there exist a sequence of eigenvalues $\lambda=\lambda_{n}$, each of which satisfies

$$
\tan \sqrt{\lambda}=\frac{2 \sqrt{\lambda}}{\lambda-1}
$$

Proof. a) Method (1). • If $\lambda=0$, the ODE reduces to $\phi^{\prime \prime}=0$. Try $\phi(x)=A x+B$. From the first boundary condition,

$$
\phi(0)-\phi^{\prime}(0)=0=B-A \quad \Rightarrow \quad B=A .
$$

Thus, the solution takes the form $\phi(x)=A x+A$. The second boundary condition gives

$$
\phi(1)+\phi^{\prime}(1)=0=3 A \quad \Rightarrow \quad A=B=0 .
$$

Thus the only solution is $\phi \equiv 0$, which is not an eigenfunction, and 0 not an eigenvalue. $\checkmark$

- If $\lambda<0, \operatorname{try} \phi(x)=e^{s x}$, which gives $s= \pm \sqrt{-\lambda}= \pm \beta \in \mathbb{R}$.

Hence, the family of solutions is $\phi(x)=A e^{\beta x}+B e^{-\beta x}$. Also, $\phi^{\prime}(x)=\beta A e^{\beta x}-\beta B e^{-\beta x}$. The boundary conditions give

$$
\begin{gather*}
\phi(0)-\phi^{\prime}(0)=0=A+B-\beta A+\beta B=A(1-\beta)+B(1+\beta),  \tag{5.19}\\
\phi(1)+\phi^{\prime}(1)=0=A e^{\beta}+B e^{-\beta}+\beta A e^{\beta}-\beta B e^{-\beta}=A e^{\beta}(1+\beta)+B e^{-\beta}(1-\beta) . \tag{5.20}
\end{gather*}
$$

From (5.19) and (5.20) we get

$$
\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}=-\frac{A}{B} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}=-\frac{B}{A} e^{-2 \beta}, \quad \text { or } \quad \frac{A}{B}=e^{-\beta} .
$$

From (5.19), $\beta=\frac{A+B}{A-B}$ and thus, $\quad \frac{A}{B}=e^{\frac{A+B}{B-A}}$, which has no solutions. $\checkmark$
Method (2). Multiply the equation by $\phi$ and integrate from 0 to 1 .

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{0}^{1} \phi \phi^{\prime \prime} d x+\lambda \int_{0}^{1} \phi^{2} d x=0 \\
& \left.\phi \phi^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1}\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\lambda \int_{0}^{1} \phi^{2} d x=0, \\
& \lambda=\frac{-\phi(1) \phi^{\prime}(1)+\phi(0) \phi^{\prime}(0)+\int_{0}^{1}\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} \phi^{2} d x}=\frac{\phi(1)^{2}+\phi(0)^{2}+\int_{0}^{1}\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} \phi^{2} d x}
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $\lambda>0$ for $\phi$ not identically 0 .
b) Since $\lambda>0$, the anzats $\phi=e^{s x}$ gives $s= \pm i \sqrt{\lambda}$ and the family of solutions takes the form

$$
\phi(x)=A \sin (x \sqrt{\lambda})+B \cos (x \sqrt{\lambda})
$$

Then, $\phi^{\prime}(x)=A \sqrt{\lambda} \cos (x \sqrt{\lambda})-B \sqrt{\lambda} \sin (x \sqrt{\lambda})$. The first boundary condition gives

$$
\phi(0)-\phi^{\prime}(0)=0=B-A \sqrt{\lambda} \quad \Rightarrow \quad B=A \sqrt{\lambda} .
$$

Hence, $\phi(x)=A \sin (x \sqrt{\lambda})+A \sqrt{\lambda} \cos (x \sqrt{\lambda})$. The second boundary condition gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi(1)+\phi^{\prime}(1)=0 & =A \sin (\sqrt{\lambda})+A \sqrt{\lambda} \cos (\sqrt{\lambda})+A \sqrt{\lambda} \cos (\sqrt{\lambda})-A \lambda \sin (\sqrt{\lambda}) \\
& =A[(1-\lambda) \sin (\sqrt{\lambda})+2 \sqrt{\lambda} \cos (\sqrt{\lambda})]
\end{aligned}
$$

$A \neq 0$ (since $A=0$ implies $B=0$ and $\phi=0$, which is not an eigenfunction). Therefore, $-(1-\lambda) \sin (\sqrt{\lambda})=2 \sqrt{\lambda} \cos (\sqrt{\lambda})$, and thus $\tan (\sqrt{\lambda})=\frac{2 \sqrt{\lambda}}{\lambda-1}$.

Problem (F'02, \#2). Consider the second order differential operator $L$ defined by

$$
L u=-u^{\prime \prime}+\epsilon x u
$$

for $0<x<\pi$ with boundary conditions

$$
u(0)=u(\pi)=0
$$

a) For $\epsilon=0$ find the leading (i.e. smallest) eigenvalue $\lambda_{0}$ and the corresponding eigenfunction $\phi_{0}$ for $L$.
b) For $\epsilon>0$ look for the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions to have an expansion of the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda & =\lambda_{0}+\epsilon \lambda_{1}+O\left(\epsilon^{2}\right), \\
\phi & =\phi_{0}+\epsilon \phi_{1}+O\left(\epsilon^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Find formulas for $\lambda_{1}$ and $\phi_{1}$ (your formulas will contain definite integrals which you do not need to evaluate).
Proof. a) Since $\epsilon=0$, the eigenvalue problem for $\lambda=\nu^{2}$ becomes

$$
u^{\prime \prime}+\nu^{2} u=0
$$

The equation has solutions in the form

$$
u(x)=A \sin \nu x+B \cos \nu x .
$$

The first boundary condition gives $u(0)=0=B$, and the second gives $u(\pi)=0=$ $A \sin \nu \pi$. Since we are looking for nontrivial solutions, $A \neq 0$ and $\sin \nu \pi=0$, which gives $\nu=1,2,3, \ldots$. Thus, the smallest eigenvalue and the corresponding eigenfunction are

$$
\lambda_{0}=1, \quad \phi_{0}=\sin x .
$$

b) For $\epsilon>0$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -u^{\prime \prime}+\epsilon x u-\lambda u=0 \\
& -\left(\phi_{0}+\epsilon \phi_{1}\right)^{\prime \prime}+\epsilon x\left(\phi_{0}+\epsilon \phi_{1}\right)-\left(\lambda_{0}+\epsilon \lambda_{1}\right)\left(\phi_{0}+\epsilon \phi_{1}\right)=0 \\
& -\phi_{0}^{\prime \prime}-\epsilon \phi_{1}^{\prime \prime}+\epsilon x \phi_{0}+\epsilon^{2} x \phi_{1}-\lambda_{0} \phi_{0}-\epsilon \lambda_{0} \phi_{1}-\epsilon \lambda_{1} \phi_{0}-\epsilon^{2} \lambda_{1} \phi_{1}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Drop $O\left(\epsilon^{2}\right)$ terms. Since $\phi_{0}^{\prime \prime}+\lambda_{0} \phi_{0}=0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\epsilon \phi_{1}^{\prime \prime}+\epsilon x \phi_{0}-\epsilon \lambda_{0} \phi_{1}-\epsilon \lambda_{1} \phi_{0}=0, \\
& -\phi_{1}^{\prime \prime}+x \phi_{0}-\lambda_{0} \phi_{1}-\lambda_{1} \phi_{0}=0, \\
& -\phi_{1}^{\prime \prime}+x \sin x-\phi_{1}-\lambda_{1} \sin x=0, \\
& \phi_{1}^{\prime \prime}+\phi_{1}=x \sin x-\lambda_{1} \sin x
\end{aligned}
$$

Multiplying by $\phi_{0}$ and using orthogonality of the eigenfunctions ${ }^{19}$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{\pi} \phi_{0} \phi_{1}^{\prime \prime} d x+\underbrace{\int_{0}^{\pi} \phi_{0} \phi_{1} d x}_{=0} & =\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(x \sin ^{2} x-\lambda_{1} \sin ^{2} x\right) d x \\
\left.\phi_{0} \phi_{1}^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{\pi}-\int_{0}^{\pi} \phi_{0}^{\prime} \phi_{1}^{\prime} d x & =\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(x \sin ^{2} x-\lambda_{1} \sin ^{2} x\right) d x \\
0 & =\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(x \sin ^{2} x-\lambda_{1} \sin ^{2} x\right) d x \\
\lambda_{1} \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin ^{2} x d x & =\int_{0}^{\pi} x \sin ^{2} x d x
\end{aligned}
$$

[^12]$$
\lambda_{1}=\frac{\int_{0}^{\pi} x \sin ^{2} x d x}{\int_{0}^{\pi} \sin ^{2} x d x}
$$

Since $\lambda_{1}$ is known, we should be able to solve the ODE $\phi_{1}^{\prime \prime}+\phi_{1}=x \sin x-\lambda_{1} \sin x$ by the variation of parameters.

Problem ( $\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{0 0}, \mathbf{\# 5}$ ). Consider the eigenvalue problem on the interval $[0,1]$,

$$
\begin{array}{r}
-y^{\prime \prime}(t)+p(t) y(t)=\lambda y(t) \\
y(0)=y(1)=0
\end{array}
$$

a) Prove that all eigenvalues $\lambda$ are simple.
b) Prove that there is at most a finite number of negative eigenvalues.
a) In order to show that $\lambda$ is simple, need to show that there is only one linearly independent eigenfunction associated with each eigenvalue $\lambda$.

Proof. Method 1: Let $y_{1}(x)$ and $y_{2}(x)$ be two eigenfunctions corresponding to the same eigenvalue $\lambda$. We will show that $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are linearly dependent. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
&-y_{1}^{\prime \prime}+p y_{1}-\lambda y_{1}=0 \\
&-y_{2}^{\prime \prime}+p y_{2}-\lambda y_{2}=0 \\
& 0=y_{2}\left(-y_{1}^{\prime \prime}+p y_{1}-\lambda y_{1}\right)-y_{1}\left(-y_{2}^{\prime \prime}+p y_{2}-\lambda y_{2}\right)=y_{1} y_{2}^{\prime \prime}-y_{2} y_{1}^{\prime \prime}=\left[y_{1} y_{2}^{\prime}-y_{2} y_{1}^{\prime}\right]^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

where Lagrange's identity was used in the last equality. It follows that

$$
y_{1} y_{2}^{\prime}-y_{2} y_{1}^{\prime}=\text { constant } .
$$

Using boundary conditions,

$$
\left(y_{1} y_{2}^{\prime}-y_{2} y_{1}^{\prime}\right)(0)=0 .
$$

Therefore, $y_{1} y_{2}^{\prime}-y_{2} y_{1}^{\prime} \equiv 0$. This is equivalent to $\left(\frac{y_{2}}{y_{1}}\right)^{\prime}=0$, and hence

$$
y_{2}=c y_{1} .
$$

Thus the two eigenfunctions are dependent; the eigenfunction is unique, and $\lambda$ simple.

Proof. Method 2: Let $y_{1}(x)$ and $y_{2}(x)$ be two eigenfunctions corresponding to the same eigenvalue $\lambda$. We will show that $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are linearly dependent. We only consider the case with

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{1}^{\prime}(0)^{2}+y_{2}^{\prime}(0)^{2} \neq 0 . \tag{5.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consider the function

$$
w(x)=y_{2}^{\prime}(0) y_{1}(x)-y_{1}^{\prime}(0) y_{2}(x),
$$

Then $w(x)$ satisfies the following initial-value problem

$$
\begin{gathered}
-w^{\prime \prime}+p w-\lambda w=0 \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\
w(0)=w^{\prime}(0)=0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

$\lceil$ Check that $w(x)$ indeed satisfies the initial-value problem:

$$
\begin{aligned}
&-w^{\prime \prime}+p w-\lambda w=-\left[y_{2}^{\prime}(0) y_{1}(x)-y_{1}^{\prime}(0) y_{2}(x)\right]^{\prime \prime}+p\left[y_{2}^{\prime}(0) y_{1}(x)-y_{1}^{\prime}(0) y_{2}(x)\right] \\
&-\lambda\left[y_{2}^{\prime}(0) y_{1}(x)-y_{1}^{\prime}(0) y_{2}(x)\right] \\
&=y_{2}^{\prime}(0)\left[-y_{1}^{\prime \prime}(x)+p y_{1}(x)-\lambda y_{1}(x)\right]-y_{1}^{\prime}(0)\left[-y_{2}^{\prime \prime}(x)+p y_{2}(x)-\lambda y_{2}(x)\right]=0,
\end{aligned}
$$

since $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are eigenfunctions. Also,

$$
\begin{aligned}
w(0) & =y_{2}^{\prime}(0) y_{1}(0)-y_{1}^{\prime}(0) y_{2}(0)=y_{2}^{\prime}(0) \cdot 0-y_{1}^{\prime}(0) \cdot 0=0, \\
w^{\prime}(0) & \left.=y_{2}^{\prime}(0) y_{1}^{\prime}(0)-y_{1}^{\prime}(0) y_{2}^{\prime}(0)=0 . \quad\right\rfloor
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, by the uniqueness theorem for initial-value problems, $w(x) \equiv 0$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{2}^{\prime}(0) y_{1}(x)-y_{1}^{\prime}(0) y_{2}(x) \equiv 0, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 \tag{5.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $y_{1}(x)$ and $y_{2}(x)$ are eigenfunctions, $y_{1}(x)$ and $y_{2}(x)$ are not identically 0 . Hence, (5.21) and (5.22) imply that $y_{1}^{\prime}(0) y_{2}^{\prime}(0) \neq 0$. Thus, by (5.22), $y_{1}(x)=\alpha y_{2}(x)$, where $\alpha=y_{1}^{\prime}(0) / y_{2}^{\prime}(0)$.

$$
\begin{array}{r}
-y^{\prime \prime}(t)+p(t) y(t)=\lambda y(t), \\
y(0)=y(1)=0 .
\end{array}
$$

b) Prove that there is at most a finite number of negative eigenvalues.

We need to show that the eigenvalues are bounded below

$$
-\infty<\lambda_{0}<\lambda_{1}<\lambda_{2}<\ldots ; \quad \text { with } \lambda_{n} \rightarrow \infty \text { as } n \rightarrow \infty .
$$

Multiply the equation by $y$ and integrate:

$$
\begin{aligned}
&-y y^{\prime \prime}+p y^{2}=\lambda y^{2} \\
&-\int_{0}^{1} y y^{\prime \prime} d t+\int_{0}^{1} p y^{2} d t=\lambda \int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t \\
& \underbrace{-\left.y y^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{1}\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{2} d t+\int_{0}^{1} p y^{2} d t=\lambda \int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t \\
& \lambda=\frac{\int_{0}^{1}\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{2} d t+\int_{0}^{1} p y^{2} d t}{\int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The Poincare inequality gives:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t & \leq C \int_{0}^{1}\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{2} d t \\
-\int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t & \geq-C \int_{0}^{1}\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{2} d t
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda & =\frac{\int_{0}^{1}\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{2} d t+\int_{0}^{1} p y^{2} d t}{\int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t} \geq \frac{\int_{0}^{1}\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{2} d t-\max _{0 \leq x \leq 1}|p| \int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t}{\int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t} \\
& \geq \frac{\frac{1}{C} \int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t-\max _{0 \leq x \leq 1}|p| \int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t}{\int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t}=\frac{\left(\frac{1}{C}-\max |p|\right) \int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t}{\int_{0}^{1} y^{2} d t} \\
& =\frac{1}{C}-\max |p| .
\end{aligned}
$$

Problem (S'94, \#6). Consider the eigenvalue problem

$$
-\frac{d^{2} u}{d x^{2}}+v(x) u=\lambda u \quad \text { on }[0,1]
$$

with the boundary conditions $\frac{d u}{d x}(0)=\frac{d u}{d x}(1)=0$. Show that if $\int_{0}^{1} v(x) d x=0$ then there is a negative eigenvalue, unless $v(x) \equiv 0$.

Proof. Divide by $u$ and integrate:

$$
\begin{aligned}
-u^{\prime \prime}+v(x) u & =\lambda u \\
-\int_{0}^{1} \frac{u^{\prime \prime}}{u} d x+\underbrace{\int_{0}^{1} v(x) d x}_{=0} & =\int_{0}^{1} \lambda d x \\
-\int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{\frac{1}{u}}_{f} \underbrace{u^{\prime \prime}}_{g^{\prime}} d x & =\lambda \\
-\left.\frac{1}{u} u^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}+\int_{0}^{1} \underbrace{-\frac{1}{u^{2}} u^{\prime}}_{f^{\prime}} \underbrace{u^{\prime}}_{g} d x & =\lambda \\
0>-\int_{0}^{1} \frac{u^{\prime 2}}{u^{2}} d x & =\lambda .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $\lambda<0$.

Problem (S'95, \#1). Find the eigenfunctions/eigenvalues for the following operator

$$
\begin{aligned}
L f= & \frac{d^{2}}{d x^{2}} f+4 f \quad-\pi<x<\pi \\
& 2 \pi-\text { periodic. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Find all solutions (periodic or non-periodic) for the problems
a) $L f=\cos x$,
b) $L f=\cos 2 x$.

Proof. To find eigenfunctions and eigenvalues for $L$, consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f^{\prime \prime}+4 f+\lambda f=0 \\
& f^{\prime \prime}+(\lambda+4) f=0
\end{aligned}
$$

The anzats $f=e^{s x}$ gives $s^{2}+(\lambda+4)=0$, or $s= \pm \sqrt{-\lambda-4}$.

$$
\text { Case 1: }-\lambda-4<0 \Rightarrow s= \pm i \underbrace{\sqrt{\lambda+4}}_{\in \mathbb{R}} \text {. }
$$

Thus, eigenfunctions are $\cos \sqrt{\lambda+4} x, \sin \sqrt{\lambda+4} x$. To make these $2 \pi$ periodic, need

$$
n=\sqrt{\lambda_{n}+4} \Rightarrow \lambda_{n}+4=n^{2} \Rightarrow \lambda_{n}=-4+n^{2}, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots \quad(\text { note }:-\lambda-4<0) .
$$

Thus, the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions are

$$
\lambda_{n}=-4+n^{2}, \quad \cos n x, n=0,1,2, \ldots, \quad \sin n x, n=1,2, \ldots
$$

For example, with $n=1$, eigenvalues and eigenfunctions are:

$$
\lambda_{1}=-3, \quad \cos x, \quad \sin x .
$$

Note that $-\infty<\lambda_{0}<\lambda_{1}<\lambda_{2}<\ldots ;$ with $\lambda_{n} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
Case 2: $-\lambda-4=0, \quad(\lambda+4=0)$
$\Rightarrow \quad f^{\prime \prime}=0 \quad f=a x+b$. Since $a \neq 0$ does not satisfy periodicity (being a linear function), $a=0$. Since an eigenfunction can not be 0 everywhere $b \neq 0$. Thus,

$$
\lambda=-4, \quad f=b \neq 0
$$

is $2 \pi$ periodic.
Case 3: $-\lambda-4>0 \Rightarrow s= \pm \sqrt{-\lambda-4}$
Eigenfunctions $e^{-\sqrt{-\lambda-4} x}, e^{\sqrt{-\lambda-4} x}$ are not $2 \pi$-periodic.

- As in F'92 \#3, could take $f(x)=\sum a_{n} e^{i n x}, 2 \pi-$ periodic. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
f^{\prime \prime}+4 f+\lambda f=0 \\
-n^{2}+4+\lambda=0 \\
\lambda_{n}=-4+n^{2} \\
e^{i n x}, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots, \text { are eigenfunctions. }
\end{gathered}
$$

a) $f^{\prime \prime}+4 f=\cos x$. We first solve the homogeneous equation $f^{\prime \prime}+4 f=0$. Substitution $f=e^{s x}$ gives $s^{2}+4=0$. Hence, $s_{1,2}= \pm 2 i$ and the superposition principle gives:

$$
f_{h}(x)=A \cos 2 x+B \sin 2 x
$$

Find a particular solution of the inhomogeneous equation $f^{\prime \prime}+4 f=\cos x$.
$\operatorname{Tr} y(x)=C \cos x+D \sin x$. Then,

$$
\begin{array}{r}
-C \cos x-D \sin x+4 C \cos x+4 D \sin x=\cos x \\
3 C \cos x+3 D \sin x=\cos x \\
C=\frac{1}{3}, \quad D=0
\end{array}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{p}(x) & =\frac{1}{3} \cos x \\
f(x) & =f_{h}(x)+f_{p}(x)=A \cos 2 x+B \sin 2 x+\frac{1}{3} \cos x
\end{aligned}
$$

b) $f^{\prime \prime}+4 f=\cos 2 x$. In part (a), we already found

$$
f_{h}(x)=A \cos 2 x+B \sin 2 x .
$$

to be a homogeneous equation. To find a particular solution of the inhomogeneous equation, we try

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{p}(x) & =C x \cos 2 x+D x \sin 2 x, \\
f_{p}^{\prime}(x) & =-2 C x \sin 2 x+C \cos 2 x+2 D x \cos 2 x+D \sin 2 x, \\
f_{p}^{\prime \prime}(x) & =-4 C x \cos 2 x-2 C \sin 2 x-2 C \sin 2 x-4 D x \sin 2 x+2 D \cos 2 x+2 D \cos 2 x \\
& =-4 C x \cos 2 x-4 C \sin 2 x-4 D x \sin 2 x+4 D \cos 2 x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Substitution into $f^{\prime \prime}+4 f=\cos 2 x$ gives:
$-4 C x \cos 2 x-4 C \sin 2 x-4 D x \sin 2 x+4 D \cos 2 x+4 C x \cos 2 x+4 D x \sin 2 x=\cos 2 x$, which gives $-4 C \sin 2 x+4 D \cos 2 x=\cos 2 x, \quad$ or $C=0, D=\frac{1}{4}$.
Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{p}(x) & =\frac{1}{4} x \sin 2 x \\
f(x) & =f_{h}(x)+f_{p}(x)=A \cos 2 x+B \sin 2 x+\frac{1}{4} x \sin 2 x
\end{aligned}
$$

Problem (F'92, \#3). Denote

$$
L f=\frac{\partial^{4} f}{\partial x^{4}}+3 \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x^{2}}+f \quad \text { for } 0<x<\pi
$$

for $f$ satisfying

$$
f=\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x^{2}} f=0 \quad \text { for } \quad x=0 \text { and } x=\pi
$$

a) Find the eigenfunctions and eigenvalues for $L$.
b) Solve the problem

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial}{\partial t} f=L f \\
& f(x, t=0)=\frac{e^{i x}}{1-\frac{1}{2} e^{i x}}-\frac{e^{-i x}}{1-\frac{1}{2} e^{-i x}}
\end{aligned}
$$

with the boundary conditions above.

Proof. a) In order to find eigenfunctions and eigenvalues for $L$, consider

$$
f^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+3 f^{\prime \prime}+f=\lambda f .
$$

Let $\quad f(x)=\frac{a_{0}}{2}+\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} \cos n x+b_{n} \sin n x$.
$f(0)=f(\pi)=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad a_{n}=0, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots$.
$f^{\prime \prime}(0)=f^{\prime \prime}(\pi)=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad a_{n}=0, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots$.

$$
\Rightarrow \quad f(x)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_{n} \sin n x .
$$

Thus, the eigenfunctions are $\sin n x, n=1,2, \ldots$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\sin n x)^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}+3(\sin n x)^{\prime \prime}+\sin n x & =\lambda \sin n x, \\
\left(n^{4}-3 n^{2}+1\right) \sin n x & =\lambda \sin n x, \\
n^{4}-3 n^{2}+1 & =\lambda_{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions are

$$
\lambda_{n}=n^{4}-3 n^{2}+1, \quad f_{n}(x)=\sin n x, \quad n=1,2, \ldots
$$

b) We have

$$
\begin{array}{r}
f_{t}=f_{x x x x}+3 f_{x x}+f \\
f(x, 0)=\frac{e^{i x}}{1-\frac{1}{2} e^{i x}}-\frac{e^{-i x}}{1-\frac{1}{2} e^{-i x}}
\end{array}
$$

Let $f(x, t)=\sum f_{n}(t) \sin n x$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_{n}^{\prime}(t) \sin n x=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_{n}(t) n^{4} \sin n x-3 f_{n}(t) n^{2} \sin n x+f_{n}(t) \sin n x \\
& f_{n}^{\prime}(t)=\left(n^{4}-3 n^{2}+1\right) f_{n}(t) \\
& f_{n}^{\prime}(t)-\left(n^{4}-3 n^{2}+1\right) f_{n}(t)=0 \\
& f_{n}(t)=c_{n} e^{\left(n^{4}-3 n^{2}+1\right) t} \\
& f(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_{n} e^{\left(n^{4}-3 n^{2}+1\right) t} \sin n x
\end{aligned}
$$

Using initial conditions, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x, 0)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_{n} \sin n x & =\frac{e^{i x}}{1-\frac{1}{2} e^{i x}}-\frac{e^{-i x}}{1-\frac{1}{2} e^{-i x}}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{i x}\left(\frac{1}{2} e^{i x}\right)^{n}-\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-i x}\left(\frac{1}{2} e^{-i x}\right)^{n} \\
& =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n}} e^{i x(n+1)}-\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n}} e^{-i x(n+1)}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n}}\left(e^{i x(n+1)}-e^{-i x(n+1)}\right) \\
& =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \frac{i}{2 i}\left(e^{i x(n+1)}-e^{-i x(n+1)}\right)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{i}{2^{n-1}} \sin ((n+1) x) \\
& =\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{i}{2^{n-2}} \sin n x
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $c_{n}=i / 2^{n-2}, \quad n=1,2, \ldots$, and

$$
f(x, t)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{i}{2^{n-2}} e^{\left(n^{4}-3 n^{2}+1\right) t} \sin n x
$$

Problem (W'02, \#2). a) Prove that

$$
\int_{0}^{\pi}|u(x)|^{2} d x \leq \int_{0}^{\pi}\left|\frac{d u}{d x}\right|^{2} d x
$$

for all continuously differentiable functions $u$ satisfying $u(0)=u(\pi)=0$.
b) Consider the differential operator

$$
L u=-\frac{d^{2} u}{d x^{2}}+q(x) u, \quad 0<x<\pi
$$

with the boundary conditions $u(0)=u(\pi)=0$. Suppose $q$ is continuous on $[0, \pi]$ and $q(x)>-1$ on $[0, \pi]$. Prove that all eigenvalues of $L$ are positive.

Proof. a) Use eigenvalues of the Laplacian for $u^{\prime \prime}+\lambda u=0, u(0)=u(\pi)=0$.
Then $\phi_{n}=\sin n x, \quad \lambda_{n}=n^{2}, \quad n=1,2, \ldots$.
Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{\pi} u^{2} d x & =\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(\sum_{m} a_{m} \phi_{m}\right)\left(\sum_{n} a_{n} \phi_{n}\right) d x=\sum_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin ^{2} n x d x \\
& =\sum_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{\pi} \frac{1-\cos 2 n x}{2} d x=\sum_{n} a_{n}^{2}\left[\frac{x}{2}-\frac{1}{4 n} \sin 2 n x\right]_{0}^{\pi}=\frac{\pi}{2} \sum_{n} a_{n}^{2} \\
\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x & =u(\pi) u^{\prime}(\pi)-u(0) u^{\prime}(0)-\int_{0}^{\pi} u u^{\prime \prime} d x=-\int_{0}^{\pi} u u^{\prime \prime} d x \\
& =-\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(\sum_{m} a_{m} \phi_{m}\right)\left(\sum_{n}-\lambda_{n} a_{n} \phi_{n}\right) d x \\
& =\sum_{n} \lambda_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin ^{2} n x d x=\frac{\pi}{2} \sum_{n} \lambda_{n} a_{n}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\lambda_{n}=n^{2}, n=1,2, \ldots \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lambda_{n} \geq 1$, so ${ }^{20}$

$$
\int_{0}^{\pi} u^{2} d x=\frac{\pi}{2} \sum_{n} a_{n}^{2} \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \sum_{n} \lambda_{n} a_{n}^{2}=\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x
$$

b) We have

$$
\begin{array}{r}
-u^{\prime \prime}+q(x) u-\lambda u=0 \\
-u u^{\prime \prime}+q(x) u^{2}-\lambda u^{2}=0 \\
\int_{0}^{\pi}-u u^{\prime \prime} d x+\int_{0}^{\pi} q(x) u^{2} d x-\int_{0}^{\pi} \lambda u^{2} d x=0 \\
-\left.u u^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{\pi}+\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{\pi} q(x) u^{2} d x-\int_{0}^{\pi} \lambda u^{2} d x=0 \\
\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{\pi} q(x) u^{2} d x=\lambda \int_{0}^{\pi} u^{2} d x
\end{array}
$$

Since $q(x)>-1$, and using result from part (a),

$$
0 \underbrace{\leq}_{(a)} \int_{0}^{\pi}\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x-\int_{0}^{\pi} u^{2} d x \underbrace{<}_{q>-1} \int_{0}^{\pi}\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{\pi} q(x) u^{2} d x=\lambda \int_{0}^{\pi} u^{2} d x
$$

Since $\int_{0}^{\pi} u^{2} d x \geq 0$, we have $\lambda>0$.

[^13]Problem ( $\left.\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{0 2}, \# 5 ; \mathbf{F}^{\prime} 89, \# 6\right)$. a) Suppose that $u$ is a continuously differentiable function on $[0,1]$ with $u(0)=0$. Starting with $u(x)=\int_{0}^{x} u^{\prime}(t) d t$, prove the (sharp) estimate

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max _{[0,1]}|u(x)|^{2} \leq \int_{0}^{1}\left|u^{\prime}(t)\right|^{2} d t \tag{5.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

b) For any function $p$ define $p_{-}(x)=-\min \{p(x), 0\} .{ }^{21}$ Using the inequality (5.23), if $p$ is continuous on $[0,2]$, show that all eigenvalues of

$$
L u=-u^{\prime \prime}+p u \quad \text { on }[0,2]
$$

with $u(0)=u(2)=0$ are strictly positive if $\int_{0}^{2} p_{-}(t) d t<1$.

Proof. a) By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{x} u^{\prime}(t) d t & =u(x)-u(0)=u(x) \\
\max _{[0,1]}|u(x)| & =\left|\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime}(t) d t\right| \leq \int_{0}^{1}\left|u^{\prime}(t)\right| d t \leq\|1\|_{L^{2}}\left(\int_{0}^{1}\left|u^{\prime}(t)\right|^{2} d t\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}=\left(\int_{0}^{1}\left|u^{\prime}(t)\right|^{2} d t\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
\max _{[0,1]}|u(x)|^{2} & \leq \int_{0}^{1}\left|u^{\prime}(t)\right|^{2} d t
\end{aligned}
$$

b) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
-u^{\prime \prime}+p u & =\lambda u \\
\int_{0}^{2}-u u^{\prime \prime} d t+\int_{0}^{2} p u^{2} d t & =\int_{0}^{2} \lambda u^{2} d t \\
\underbrace{-\left.u u^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{2}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{2}\left|u^{\prime}\right|^{2} d t+\int_{0}^{2} p u^{2} d t & =\int_{0}^{2} \lambda u^{2} d t .
\end{aligned}
$$

If we define $\quad p_{+}(x)=\max \{p(x), 0\} \quad$ and $\quad p_{-}(x)=-\min \{p(x), 0\}$, then $p=p_{+}-p_{-}$.

[^14]\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{2}\left|u^{\prime}\right|^{2} d t+\int_{0}^{2} p_{+} u^{2} d t-\int_{0}^{2} p_{-} u^{2} d t & =\lambda \int_{0}^{2} u^{2} d t \\
\int_{0}^{2}\left|u^{\prime}\right|^{2} d t-\int_{0}^{2} p_{-} u^{2} d t & \leq \lambda \int_{0}^{2} u^{2} d t \\
\max _{[0,2]}|u|^{2}-\int_{0}^{2} p_{-} u^{2} d t & \leq \lambda \int_{0}^{2} u^{2} d t, \\
\max _{[0,2]}|u|^{2}-\max _{[0,2]}|u|^{2} \int_{0}^{2} p_{-} d t & \leq \lambda \int_{0}^{2} u^{2} d t, \\
\max _{[0,2]}|u|^{2}(1-\underbrace{\int_{0}^{2} p_{-} d t}_{<1}) & \leq \lambda \int_{0}^{2} u^{2} d t, \\
c^{2} \max _{[0,2]}|u|^{2} & \leq \lambda \int_{0}^{2} u^{2} d t .
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

Thus, $\lambda>0$.

Problem (F'95, \#6). Define

$$
L y(x)=-y^{\prime \prime}(x)+q(x) y(x) \quad \text { on }(0, a)
$$

Denote $q_{-}(x)=\min (q(x), 0)$. We seek conditions on $q_{-}(x)$ so that $L$ will be nonnegative definite on $C_{0}^{\infty}(0, a)$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
(L \phi, \phi)=\int_{0}^{a} \phi(x) \cdot L \phi(x) d x \geq 0 \quad \forall \phi \in C_{0}^{\infty}(0, a) \tag{5.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Find optimal conditions on $q_{-}(x)$ so that (5.24) holds.
Can $q_{-}(x)$ be unbounded and (5.24) still hold?

Proof. Define $q_{+}=\max (q(x), 0)$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{a} \phi(x) \cdot L \phi(x) d x & =\int_{0}^{a} \phi \cdot\left(-\phi^{\prime \prime}+q \phi\right) d x=\int_{0}^{a}\left(-\phi \phi^{\prime \prime}+q \phi^{2}\right) d x \\
& =\underbrace{-\left.\phi \phi^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{a}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{a}\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2}+q \phi^{2} d x=\int_{0}^{a}\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{a} q \phi^{2} d x \\
\circledast & \geq\left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{2} \int_{0}^{a} \phi^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{a} q \phi^{2} d x \geq\left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{2} \int_{0}^{a} \phi^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{a} q-\phi^{2} d x \\
& =\int_{0}^{a}\left(\left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{2}+q_{-}\right) \phi^{2} d x \underbrace{\geq}_{\text {need }} 0
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, if $\left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{2}+q_{-} \geq 0, L$ will be nonnegative definite on $C_{0}^{\infty}(0, a)$.
Proof of $\circledast$ :
Use eigenvalues of the Laplacian for $\phi^{\prime \prime}+\lambda \phi=0, \quad \phi(0)=\phi(a)=0$.
Then $\phi_{n}=\sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{a}\right) x, \quad \lambda_{n}=\left(\frac{n \pi}{a}\right)^{2}, \quad n=1,2, \ldots$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{a} \phi^{2} d x & =\int_{0}^{a}\left(\sum_{m} a_{m} \phi_{m}\right)\left(\sum_{n} a_{n} \phi_{n}\right) d x=\sum_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{a} \sin ^{2}\left(\frac{n \pi x}{a}\right) d x \\
\int_{0}^{a}\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x & =\left.\phi \phi^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{a}-\int_{0}^{a} \phi \phi^{\prime \prime} d x=-\int_{0}^{a} \phi \phi^{\prime \prime} d x \\
& =-\int_{0}^{a}\left(\sum_{m} a_{m} \phi_{m}\right)\left(\sum_{n}-\lambda_{n} a_{n} \phi_{n}\right) d x \\
= & \sum_{n} \lambda_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{a} \sin ^{2}\left(\frac{n \pi x}{a}\right) d x \\
\left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{2} \int_{0}^{a} \phi^{2} d x & =\left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{2} \sum_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{a} \sin ^{2}\left(\frac{n \pi x}{a}\right) d x \leq \sum_{n} \lambda_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{a} \sin ^{2}\left(\frac{n \pi x}{a}\right) d x \\
& =\int_{0}^{a}\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x \\
\Rightarrow & \int_{0}^{a}\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x \geq\left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{2} \int_{0}^{a} \phi^{2} d x
\end{aligned}
$$

Problem (W'04, \#4). Consider boundary value problem on $[0, \pi]$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -y^{\prime \prime}(x)+p(x) y(x)=f(x), \quad 0<x<\pi, \\
& y(0)=0, \quad y^{\prime}(\pi)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Find the smallest $\lambda_{0}$ such that the boundary value problem has a unique solution whenever $p(x)>\lambda_{0}$ for all $x$. Justify your answer.

Proof. Suppose $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are two solutions of the problem. Let $w=y_{1}-y_{2}$. Then

$$
\begin{array}{r}
-w^{\prime \prime}+p w=0, \quad 0<x<\pi \\
w(0)=0, \quad w^{\prime}(\pi)=0 .
\end{array}
$$

Multiply by $w$ and integrate

$$
\begin{array}{r}
-\int_{0}^{1} w w^{\prime \prime} d x+\int_{0}^{\pi} p w^{2} d x=0 \\
\underbrace{-\left.w w^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{\pi}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(w^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{\pi} p w^{2} d x=0 \\
\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(w^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{\pi} p w^{2} d x=0 .
\end{array}
$$

We will derive the Poincare inequality for this boundary value problem.
Use eigenvalues of the Laplacian for $w^{\prime \prime}+\lambda w=0, w(0)=w^{\prime}(\pi)=0$.
Expand $w$ in eigenfunctions: $w=\sum_{n} a_{n} \phi_{n}$. Then $\phi_{n}(x)=a_{n} \cos \sqrt{\lambda_{n}} x+b_{n} \sin \sqrt{\lambda_{n}} x$.
Boundary conditions give:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda_{n}=\left(n+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}, & \phi_{n}(x)=\sin \left(n+\frac{1}{2}\right) x, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots . \\
\int_{0}^{\pi} w^{2} d x & =\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(\sum_{m} a_{m} \phi_{m}\right)\left(\sum_{n} a_{n} \phi_{n}\right) d x=\sum_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{\pi} \phi_{n}^{2}(x) d x \\
\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(w^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x & =\left.w w^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{\pi}-\int_{0}^{\pi} w w^{\prime \prime} d x=-\int_{0}^{\pi} w w^{\prime \prime} d x \\
& =-\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(\sum_{m} a_{m} \phi_{m}\right)\left(\sum_{n}-\lambda_{n} a_{n} \phi_{n}\right) d x=\sum_{n} \lambda_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{\pi} \phi_{n}^{2} d x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the Poincare inequality is:

$$
\frac{1}{4} \int_{0}^{\pi} w^{2} d x=\frac{1}{4} \sum_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{\pi} \phi_{n}^{2} d x \leq \sum_{n} \lambda_{n} a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{\pi} \phi_{n}^{2} d x=\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(w^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x
$$

Thus, from $\circledast$ :
$0=\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(w^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{\pi} p w^{2} d x \geq \frac{1}{4} \int_{0}^{\pi} w^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{\pi} p w^{2} d x=\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(\frac{1}{4}+p\right) w^{2} d x$.
If $\frac{1}{4}+p(x)>0, \quad\left(p(x)>-\frac{1}{4}\right), \quad \forall x$, then $w \equiv 0$, and we obtain uniqueness.

Problem ( $\left.\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{9 7}, \# 5\right)$. a) Prove that all eigenvalues of the Sturm-Liouville problem

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d}{d x}\left(p(x) \frac{d u}{d x}\right)+\lambda u(x)=0, \quad 0<x<a \\
& u(0)=0, \quad \frac{d u(a)}{d x}+h u(a)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

are positive. Here $h>0, p(x)>0$ and continuous on $[0, a]$.
b) Show that the same is true when $h<0$ and $|h|$ is sufficiently small.

Proof. a) Let $\phi$ be an eigenfunction. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(p \phi^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda \phi=0 \tag{5.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Multiply (5.25) by $\phi$ and integrate from 0 to $a$,

$$
\int_{0}^{a}\left(\left(p \phi^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \phi+\lambda \phi^{2}\right) d x=0
$$

Since $\int_{0}^{a} \phi^{2} d x>0$, we can solve for $\lambda$ :

$$
\lambda=\frac{-\int_{0}^{a}\left(p \phi^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \phi d x}{\int_{0}^{a} \phi^{2} d x}
$$

Integrating by parts and plugging in the boundary conditions give

$$
\lambda=\frac{-\left.p \phi \phi^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{a}+\int_{0}^{a} p\left(\phi^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{a} \phi^{2} d x}=\frac{h p(a) \phi^{2}(a)+\int_{0}^{a} p(x)\left(\phi^{\prime}(x)\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{a} \phi^{2}(x) d x} \geq 0
$$

To show that $\lambda>0$, assume $\lambda=0$. Then the ODE becomes

$$
\left(p u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=0 \Rightarrow p(x) u^{\prime}(x)=C, \text { a constant. }
$$

Then

$$
p(a) u^{\prime}(a)=-h p(a) u(a)=C
$$

Wrong assumption follows: $u=0$.
b) $h<0$. For $|h|$ is sufficiently small, i.e.

$$
\left|h p(a) \phi^{2}(a)\right|<\int_{0}^{a} p(x)\left(\phi^{\prime}(x)\right)^{2} d x
$$

we have

$$
\lambda=\frac{h p(a) \phi^{2}(a)+\int_{0}^{a} p(x)\left(\phi^{\prime}(x)\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{a} \phi^{2}(x) d x}>0
$$

Problem (S'93, \#7). a) Show that the general solution of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{d x}\left[x \frac{d f}{d x}\right]=-\lambda f \tag{5.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda$ is a constant, is a linear combination of $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$, where

$$
f_{1}=O(1), \quad f_{2}=O(\ln x), \quad x \rightarrow 0
$$

Proof. a) We use the method of dominant balance. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{x}\left(x f^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} & =-\lambda f, \\
\frac{1}{x}\left(x f^{\prime \prime}+f^{\prime}\right) & =-\lambda f, \\
f^{\prime \prime}+\frac{1}{x} f^{\prime} & =-\lambda f, \\
x f^{\prime \prime}+f^{\prime} & =-\lambda x f .
\end{aligned}
$$

As $x \rightarrow 0, f^{\prime}(x) \rightarrow 0$, i.e. $f(x) \rightarrow C$. (Incomplete)
b) Consider the eigenvalue problem posed by (5.26) and the conditions

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(0)=O(1), \quad f(1)=0 . \tag{5.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assuming that the spectrum of $\lambda$ is discrete, show that the eigenfunctions belonging to different $\lambda$ are orthogonal:

$$
\int_{0}^{1} x f_{i} f_{j} d x=\int_{0}^{1} x \frac{d f_{i}}{d x} \frac{d f_{j}}{d x} d x=0, \quad \lambda_{i} \neq \lambda_{j}
$$

and that all eigenvalues are positive.

Proof. Rewrite the equation as

$$
\frac{1}{x}\left(x f^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda f=0 . \quad \circledast
$$

Let $\lambda_{m}, \lambda_{n}$, be the eigenvalues and $f_{m}, f_{n}$ be the corresponding eigenfunctions. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{x}\left(x f_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda_{m} f_{m} & =0  \tag{5.28}\\
\frac{1}{x}\left(x f_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda_{n} f_{n} & =0 . \tag{5.29}
\end{align*}
$$

Multiply (5.28) by $f_{n}$ and (5.29) by $f_{m}$ and subtract equations from each other

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{n} \frac{1}{x}\left(x f_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda_{m} f_{n} f_{m} & =0 \\
f_{m} \frac{1}{x}\left(x f_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda_{n} f_{m} f_{n} & =0 \\
\left(\lambda_{m}-\lambda_{n}\right) f_{m} f_{n} & =f_{m} \frac{1}{x}\left(x f_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-f_{n} \frac{1}{x}\left(x f_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \\
\left(\lambda_{m}-\lambda_{n}\right) x f_{m} f_{n} & =f_{m}\left(x f_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-f_{n}\left(x f_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\left[x\left(f_{m} f_{n}^{\prime}-f_{n} f_{m}^{\prime}\right)\right]^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

Integrating over $(0,1)$ gives

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(\lambda_{m}-\lambda_{n}\right) \int_{0}^{1} x f_{m} f_{n} d x & =\left[x\left(f_{m} f_{n}^{\prime}-f_{n} f_{m}^{\prime}\right)\right]_{0}^{1} \\
& =1 \cdot\left(f_{m} f_{n}^{\prime}-f_{n} f_{m}^{\prime}\right)(1)-0 \cdot\left(f_{m} f_{n}^{\prime}-f_{n} f_{m}^{\prime}\right)(0)=0
\end{align*}
$$

since $f_{m}(1)=f_{n}(1)=0$. Since $\lambda_{n} \neq \lambda_{m}, f_{n}(x)$ and $f_{m}(x)$ are orthogonal on $[0,1]$.

- To show that $f_{m}^{\prime}$ and $f_{n}^{\prime}$ are orthogonal with respect to $x$, consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{1} x f_{m}^{\prime} f_{n}^{\prime} d x & =\left.x f_{m}^{\prime} f_{n}\right|_{0} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1}\left(x f_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} f_{n} d x \\
& =1 \cdot f_{m}^{\prime}(1) f_{n}(1)-0 \cdot f_{m}^{\prime}(0) f_{n}(0)-\int_{0}^{1}\left(x f_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} f_{n} d x \\
& =-\int_{0}^{1}\left(x f_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} f_{n} d x=\circledast=\lambda_{m} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{m} f_{n} d x=\odot=0
\end{aligned}
$$

- We now show that eigenvalues $\lambda$ are positive. We have

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{1}{x}\left(x f^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda f=0 \\
\left(x f^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\lambda x f=0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

Multiplying by $f$ and integrating, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{1} f\left(x f^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} d x+\lambda \int_{0}^{1} x f^{2} d x & =0 \\
\underbrace{\left.f x f^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{1} x f^{\prime 2} d x+\lambda \int_{0}^{1} x f^{2} d x & =0, \\
\lambda=\frac{\int_{0}^{1} x f^{\prime 2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} x f^{2} d x} & \geq 0 .
\end{aligned} \circledast \circledast<?
$$

The equality holds only if $f^{\prime} \equiv 0$, which means $f=C$. Since $f(1)=0$, then $f \equiv 0$, which is not an eigenfunction. Thus, $\lambda>0$.
c) Let $f(x)$ be any function that can be expanded as a linear combination of eigenfunctions of (5.26) and (5.27). Establish the Rayleigh-Ritz principle, namely that

$$
F(f)=\frac{\int_{0}^{1} x\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} x f^{2} d x}
$$

is an upper bound on the smallest eigenvalue.

Proof. Let $f(x)=\sum a_{n} f_{n}$, where $f_{n}$ 's are eigenfunctions. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(f) & =\frac{\int_{0}^{1} x\left(f^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} x f^{2} d x}=\frac{\int_{0}^{1} x\left(\sum a_{n} f_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} x\left(\sum a_{n} f_{n}\right)^{2} d x} \quad \text { (by orthogonality) } \\
& =\frac{\int_{0}^{1} x \sum a_{n}^{2} f_{n}^{\prime 2} d x}{\int_{0}^{1} x \sum a_{n}^{2} f_{n}^{2} d x}=\frac{\sum a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{\prime 2} d x}{\sum a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{2} d x} \quad(\text { by } \circledast \circledast) \\
& =\frac{\sum a_{n}^{2} \lambda_{n} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{2} d x}{\sum a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{2} d x}>\lambda_{\min } \frac{\sum a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{2} d x}{\sum a_{n}^{2} \int_{0}^{1} x f_{n}^{2} d x}=\lambda_{\min } .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $\lambda_{\min }<F(f)$, i.e. $F(f)$ is an upper bound on $\lambda_{\min }$.
d) The Bessel function $J_{0}(r)$ is $O(1)$ at $r=0$ and obeys

$$
\frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{d r}\left[r \frac{d J_{0}}{d r}\right]=-J_{0}
$$

Obtain an upper bound for the smallest positive zero of $J_{0}$.

Problem (F'90, \#8). Consider the differential equation

$$
\begin{gathered}
-u_{x x}+\left(1+x^{2}\right) u=\lambda u, \\
u(0)=u(a)=0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

a) Find a variational characterization for the eigenvalues $\lambda_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots$.
b) Show that the eigenvalues are all positive, i.e. $\lambda_{i}>0$.
c) Consider the problem for two different values of $a$ : $a=a_{1}$ and $a=a_{2}$ with $a_{1}<$ $a_{2}$. Show that the eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}\left(a_{1}\right)$ for $a=a_{1}$ is larger than (or equal to) the first eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}\left(a_{2}\right)$ for $a_{2}$, i.e.

$$
\lambda_{1}\left(a_{1}\right) \geq \lambda_{1}\left(a_{2}\right) \quad \text { for } a_{1}<a_{2}
$$

d) Is this still true for $i>1$, i.e. is

$$
\lambda_{i}\left(a_{1}\right) \geq \lambda_{i}\left(a_{2}\right) \quad \text { for } a_{1}<a_{2} ?
$$

Proof. a) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
&-u^{\prime \prime}+\left(1+x^{2}\right) u=\lambda u, \\
&-\int_{0}^{a} u u^{\prime \prime} d x+\int_{0}^{a}\left(1+x^{2}\right) u^{2} d x=\lambda \int_{0}^{a} u^{2} d x, \\
& \underbrace{-\left.u u^{\prime}\right|_{0} ^{a}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{a}\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x+\int_{0}^{a}\left(1+x^{2}\right) u^{2} d x=\lambda \int_{0}^{a} u^{2} d x, \\
& \lambda=\frac{\int_{0}^{a}\left(\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\left(1+x^{2}\right) u^{2}\right) d x}{\int_{0}^{a} u^{2} d x} .
\end{aligned}
$$

b) $\quad \lambda=\frac{\int_{0}^{a}\left(\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\left(1+x^{2}\right) u^{2}\right) d x}{\int_{0}^{a} u^{2} d x}>0, \quad$ if $u$ not identically 0 .
c) $\quad \lambda_{1}\left(a_{1}\right)=\min _{\left[0, a_{1}\right]} \frac{\int_{0}^{a_{1}}\left(\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\left(1+x^{2}\right) u^{2}\right) d x}{\int_{0}^{a_{1}} u^{2} d x}$,

$$
\lambda_{1}\left(a_{2}\right)=\min _{\left[0, a_{2}\right]} \frac{\int_{0}^{a_{2}}\left(\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\left(1+x^{2}\right) u^{2}\right) d x}{\int_{0}^{a_{2}} u^{2} d x}
$$

The minimum value in a small interval is greater then or equal to the minimum value in the larger interval. Thus, $\lambda_{1}\left(a_{1}\right) \geq \lambda_{1}\left(a_{2}\right)$ for $a_{1}<a_{2}$.
We may also think of this as follows: We can always make a 0 extension of $u$ from $a_{1}$ to $a_{2}$. Then, we can observe that the minimum of $\lambda$ for such extended functions would be greater.
d)

## 6 Variational (V) and Minimization (M) Formulations

Consider
(D) $\left\{\begin{array}{l}-u^{\prime \prime}(x)=f(x) \\ u(0)=u(1)=0,\end{array}\right.$ for $0<x<1, ~$
(V) Find $u \in V$, s.t. $a(u, v)=L(v) \quad \forall v \in V$,
(M) Find $u \in V$, s.t. $F(u) \leq F(v) \quad \forall v \in V, \quad\left(F(u)=\min _{v \in V} F(v)\right)$.
$V=\left\{v: v \in C^{0}[0,1], v^{\prime}\right.$ piecewise continous and bounded on $[0,1]$, and $v(0)=v(1)=$ $0\}$.

$$
F(v)=\frac{1}{2} a(v, v)-L(v)
$$

$(\mathrm{D}) \Leftrightarrow(\mathrm{V}) \Leftrightarrow(\mathrm{M})$
$(\mathrm{D}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{V})$
Multiply the equation by $v \in V$, and integrate over $(0,1)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
-u^{\prime \prime} & =f(x), \\
\int_{0}^{1}-u^{\prime \prime} v d x & =\int_{0}^{1} f v d x, \\
\underbrace{-\left.u^{\prime} v\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}+\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime} v^{\prime} d x & =\int_{0}^{1} f v d x, \\
\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime} v^{\prime} d x & =\int_{0}^{1} f v d x, \\
a(u, v) & =L(v) \quad \forall v \in V .
\end{aligned}
$$

$(\mathrm{V}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{M})$
We have $a(u, v)=L(v), \quad \forall v \in V \circledast$. Suppose $v=u+w, w \in V$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(v) & =F(u+w)=\frac{1}{2} a(u+w, u+w)-L(u+w) \\
& =\frac{1}{2} a(u, u)+a(u, w)+\frac{1}{2} a(w, w)-L(u)-L(w) \\
& =\underbrace{\frac{1}{2} a(u, u)-L(u)}_{=F(u)}+\frac{1}{2} a(w, w)+\underbrace{a(u, w)-L(w)}_{=0, b y \circledast} \\
& \geq F(u) .
\end{aligned}
$$

$(\mathrm{M}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{V})$
We have $F(u) \leq F(u+\varepsilon v)$, for any $v \in V$, since $u+\varepsilon v \in V$. Thus, the function

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(\varepsilon) & \equiv F(u+\varepsilon v)=\frac{1}{2} a(u+\varepsilon v, u+\varepsilon v)-L(u+\varepsilon v) \\
& =\frac{1}{2} a(u, u)+\varepsilon a(u, v)+\frac{\varepsilon^{2}}{2} a(v, v)-L(u)-\varepsilon L(v),
\end{aligned}
$$

has a minimum at $\varepsilon=0$ and hence $g^{\prime}(0)=0$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{\prime}(\varepsilon) & =a(u, v)+\varepsilon a(v, v)-L(v) \\
0=g^{\prime}(0) & =a(u, v)-L(v) \\
a(u, v) & =L(v)
\end{aligned}
$$

$(\mathrm{V}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{D})$
We have

$$
\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime} v^{\prime} d x-\int_{0}^{1} f v d x=0 \quad \forall v \in V
$$

Assume $u^{\prime \prime}$ exists and is continuous, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \underbrace{\left.u^{\prime} v\right|_{0} ^{1}}_{=0}-\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime \prime} v d x-\int_{0}^{1} f v d x=0 \\
& -\int_{0}^{1}\left(u^{\prime \prime}+f\right) v d x=0 \quad \forall v \in V
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $u^{\prime \prime}+f$ is continuous, then

$$
\left(u^{\prime \prime}+f\right)(x)=0 \quad 0<x<1
$$

We can show that $(\mathbf{V})$ is uniquely determined if $a(u, v)=\left(u^{\prime}, v^{\prime}\right)=\int_{0}^{1} u^{\prime} v^{\prime} d x$.
Suppose $u_{1}, u_{2} \in V$ and

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left(u_{1}^{\prime}, v^{\prime}\right)=L(v) & \forall v \in V \\
\left(u_{2}^{\prime}, v^{\prime}\right)=L(v) & \forall v \in V
\end{array}
$$

Subtracting these equations gives

$$
\left(u_{1}^{\prime}-u_{2}^{\prime}, v^{\prime}\right)=0 \quad \forall v \in V
$$

Choose $v=u_{1}-u_{2} \in V$. We get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(u_{1}^{\prime}-u_{2}^{\prime}, u_{1}^{\prime}-u_{2}^{\prime}\right) & =0 \\
\int_{0}^{1}\left(u_{1}^{\prime}-u_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{2} d x & =\int_{0}^{1}\left(u_{1}-u_{2}\right)^{\prime 2} d x=0
\end{aligned}
$$

which shows that

$$
\left(u_{1}-u_{2}\right)^{\prime}(x)=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad u_{1}-u_{2}=\mathrm{constant}
$$

The boundary conditions $u_{1}(0)=u_{2}(0)=0 \quad$ give $\quad u_{1}(x)=u_{2}(x), \quad x \in[0,1]$.

Problem (F'91, \#4). Consider a boundary value problem in a bounded plane domain $\Omega$ :

$$
\begin{cases}\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}+\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial y^{2}}=f(x, y) & \text { in } \Omega  \tag{6.1}\\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}+a(s) u=0 & \text { on } \partial \Omega\end{cases}
$$

where $a(s)$ is a smooth function on $\partial \Omega$.
a) Find the variational formulation of this problem, i.e. find a functional $F(v)$ defined on smooth functions in the $\bar{\Omega}$ such that the Euler-Lagrange equation for this functional is equivalent to (6.1).

Proof. a) (D) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{M})$
We will proceed as follows: $(\mathrm{D}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{V}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{M})$. We have

$$
\begin{cases}\triangle u=f & \text { in } \Omega \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}+a(s) u=0 & \text { on } \partial \Omega\end{cases}
$$

- (D) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{V})$

Multiply the equation by $v \in V$, and integrate over $\Omega$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta u & =f \\
\int_{\Omega} \Delta u v d x & =\int_{\Omega} f v d x \\
\int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} v d s-\int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v d x & =\int_{\Omega} f v d x \\
-\int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) u v d s-\int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v d x & =\int_{\Omega} f v d x \\
\underbrace{\int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v d x+\int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) u v d s}_{\Omega(u, v)} & =\underbrace{-\int_{\Omega} f v d x}_{L(v)}
\end{aligned}
$$

- $(\mathrm{V}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{M})$

$$
\begin{aligned}
a(u, v) & =L(v), \\
a(u, v) & =\int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v d x+\int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) u v d s, \\
L(v) & =-\int_{\Omega} f v d x, \\
F(v) & =\frac{1}{2} a(v, v)-L(v) .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
F(v)=\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega}|\nabla v|^{2} d x+\frac{1}{2} \int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) v^{2} d s+\int_{\Omega} f v d x .
$$

We show that $F(v)$, defined as $\circledast$, minimizes the functional.
We have $a(u, v)=L(v), \quad \forall v \in V \circledast$. Suppose $v=u+w, w \in V$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(v) & =F(u+w)=\frac{1}{2} a(u+w, u+w)-L(u+w) \\
& =\frac{1}{2} a(u, u)+a(u, w)+\frac{1}{2} a(w, w)-L(u)-L(w) \\
& =\underbrace{\frac{1}{2} a(u, u)-L(u)}_{=F(u)}+\frac{1}{2} a(w, w)+\underbrace{a(u, w)-L(w)}_{=0, b y \circledast} \geq F(u) .
\end{aligned}
$$

b) Prove that if $a(s)>0$, then the solution of (6.1) is unique in the class of smooth functions in $\bar{\Omega}$.

Proof. • Let $u_{1}, u_{2}$ be two solutions of (6.1), and set $w=u_{1}-u_{2}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
a\left(u_{1}, v\right) & =L(v) \\
a\left(u_{2}, v\right) & =L(v) \\
a(w, v) & =0
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $v=w \in V$. Then,

$$
a(w, w)=\int_{\Omega}|\nabla w|^{2} d x+\int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) w^{2} d s=0
$$

Since $a(s)>0, w \equiv 0$.

- We can also begin from considering

$$
\begin{cases}\triangle w=0 & \text { in } \Omega \\ \frac{\partial w}{\partial n}+a(s) w=0 & \text { on } \partial \Omega\end{cases}
$$

Multiplying the equation by $w$ and integrating, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{\Omega} w \Delta w d x & =0 \\
\int_{\partial \Omega} w \frac{\partial w}{\partial n} d s-\int_{\Omega}|\nabla w|^{2} d x & =0 \\
-\int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) w^{2} d s-\int_{\Omega}|\nabla w|^{2} d x & =0 \\
\int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) w^{2} d s+\int_{\Omega}|\nabla w|^{2} d x & =0
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $a(s)>0, \quad w \equiv 0$.

Problem ( $\left.\mathbf{W}^{\prime} \mathbf{0 4}, \# \mathbf{2}\right)$. Let $C^{2}(\bar{\Omega})$ be the space of all twice continuously differentiable functions in the bounded smooth closed domain $\bar{\Omega} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$. Let $u_{0}(x, y)$ be the function that minimizes the functional
$D(u)=\iint_{\Omega}\left[\left(\frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial x}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial y}\right)^{2}+f(x, y) u(x, y)\right] d x d y+\int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) u^{2}(x(s), y(s)) d s$
where $f(x, y)$ and $a(s)$ are given continuous functions.
Find the differential equation and the boundary condition that $u_{0}$ satisfies.
Proof. (M) $\Rightarrow$ (D)
We will proceed as follows: $(\mathbf{M}) \Rightarrow(\mathbf{V}) \Rightarrow(\mathbf{D})$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(v)= & \int_{\Omega}\left(|\nabla v|^{2}+f v\right) d x+\int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) v^{2} d s \\
F(v) & =\frac{1}{2} a(v, v)-L(v) \\
a(u, v) & =2 \int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v d x+2 \int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) u v d s \\
L(v) & =-\int_{\Omega} f v d x
\end{aligned}
$$

- $(\mathbf{M}) \Rightarrow(\mathbf{V}) \quad$ Since $u_{0}$ minimizes $F(v)$ we have

$$
F\left(u_{0}\right) \leq F(v), \quad \forall v \in V
$$

Thus, the function

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(\varepsilon) & \equiv F\left(u_{0}+\varepsilon v\right)=\frac{1}{2} a\left(u_{0}+\varepsilon v, u_{0}+\varepsilon v\right)-L\left(u_{0}+\varepsilon v\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2} a\left(u_{0}, u_{0}\right)+\varepsilon a\left(u_{0}, v\right)+\frac{\varepsilon^{2}}{2} a(v, v)-L\left(u_{0}\right)-\varepsilon L(v)
\end{aligned}
$$

has a minimum at $\varepsilon=0$ and hence $g^{\prime}(0)=0$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{\prime}(\varepsilon) & =a\left(u_{0}, v\right)+\varepsilon a(v, v)-L(v) \\
0=g^{\prime}(0) & =a\left(u_{0}, v\right)-L(v) \\
a\left(u_{0}, v\right) & =L(v) \\
2 \int_{\Omega} \nabla u_{0} \cdot & \nabla v d x+2 \int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) u_{0} v d s=-\int_{\Omega} f v d x
\end{aligned}
$$

- (V) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{D})$

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
2 \int_{\Omega} \nabla u_{0} \cdot \nabla v d x+2 \int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) u_{0} v d s=-\int_{\Omega} f v d x \\
2 \int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial u_{0}}{\partial n} v d s-2 \int_{\Omega} \triangle u_{0} v d x+2 \int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) u_{0} v d s \\
=-\int_{\Omega} f v d x \\
\int_{\Omega}\left(-2 \triangle u_{0}+f\right) v d x+2 \int_{\partial \Omega}\left(\frac{\partial u_{0}}{\partial n}+a(s) u_{0}\right) v d s
\end{array}\right)
$$

If $\frac{\partial u_{0}}{\partial n}+a(s) u_{0}=0$, we have

$$
\int_{\Omega}\left(-2 \triangle u_{0}+f\right) v d x=0 \quad \forall v \in V
$$

Since $-2 \triangle u_{0}+f$ is continuous, then $-2 \triangle u_{0}+f=0$.

$$
\begin{cases}-2 \triangle u_{0}+f=0, & x \in \Omega, \\ \frac{\partial u_{0}}{\partial n}+a(s) u_{0}=0, & x \in \partial \Omega\end{cases}
$$

See the preferred solution in the Euler-Lagrange Equations section.

## 7 Euler-Lagrange Equations

Consider the problem of determining a $C^{1}$ function $u(x)$ for which the integral

$$
E=\int_{\Omega} J(\vec{x}, u, \nabla u) d \vec{x}
$$

takes on a minimum value.
Suppose $u(x)$ is the actual minimizing function, and choose any $C^{1}$ function $\eta(x)$.
Since $u$ is the minimizer

$$
E(u+\varepsilon \eta) \geq E(u), \quad \forall \varepsilon
$$

$E(u+\varepsilon \eta)$ has a minimum at $\varepsilon=0$. Thus,

$$
\left.\frac{d E}{d \varepsilon}(u+\varepsilon \eta)\right|_{\varepsilon=0}=0
$$

### 7.1 Rudin-Osher-Fatemi

$$
\begin{aligned}
E=\int_{\Omega}|\nabla u| & +\lambda(u-f)^{2} d x \\
\left.\frac{d E}{d \varepsilon}(u+\varepsilon \eta)\right|_{\varepsilon=0} & =\frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{\Omega}|\nabla(u+\varepsilon \eta)|+\left.\lambda(u+\varepsilon \eta-f)^{2} d x\right|_{\varepsilon=0} \\
& =\int_{\Omega} \frac{\nabla(u+\varepsilon \eta)}{|\nabla(u+\varepsilon \eta)|} \cdot \nabla \eta+\left.2 \lambda(u+\varepsilon \eta-f) \eta d x\right|_{\varepsilon=0} \\
& =\int_{\Omega} \frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|} \cdot \nabla \eta+2 \lambda(u-f) \eta d x \\
& =\int_{\partial \Omega} \eta \frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|} \cdot n d s-\int_{\Omega} \nabla \cdot\left(\frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|}\right) \eta d x+\int_{\Omega} 2 \lambda(u-f) \eta d x \\
& =\int_{\partial \Omega} \eta \frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|} \cdot n d s-\int_{\Omega}\left[\nabla \cdot\left(\frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|}\right)-2 \lambda(u-f)\right] \eta d x=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Choose $\eta \in C_{c}^{1}(\Omega)$. The Euler-Lagrange equations ${ }^{22}$ are

$$
\nabla \cdot\left(\frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|}\right)-2 \lambda(u-f)=0 \quad \text { on } \Omega,
$$

${ }^{22}$ Hildebrand's (p.124-128) definition of Euler-Lagrange equations in one dimension:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{x_{1}}^{x_{2}}\left[\frac{\partial J}{\partial y} \eta-\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{\partial J}{\partial y^{\prime}}\right) \eta\right] d x+\left[\frac{\partial J}{\partial y^{\prime}} \eta(x)\right]_{x_{1}}^{x_{2}}=0 . \\
& \frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{\partial J}{\partial y^{\prime}}\right)=\frac{\partial J}{\partial y} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\left[\frac{\partial J}{\partial y^{\prime}}\right]_{x=x_{1}}=0, \quad\left[\frac{\partial J}{\partial y^{\prime}}\right]_{x=x_{2}}=0
$$

In $n$ dimensions:

$$
\nabla_{x} \cdot\left(\nabla_{p} J\right)=\nabla_{u} J \quad \text { on } \Omega,
$$

$$
\begin{array}{|ll|}
\hline \nabla_{p} J \cdot n=0 \quad \text { on } \quad \partial \Omega, \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

where $p=\nabla u=\left(u_{x}, u_{y}\right)$.

$$
\nabla u \cdot n=0 \quad \text { on } \partial \Omega \text {. }
$$

### 7.1.1 Gradient Descent

If we want to find a local minimum of a function $f$ in $\mathbb{R}^{1}$, we have

$$
\frac{d x}{d t}=-\frac{d f}{d x} .
$$

To minimize the energy $E$ (in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ ), we would have

$$
\frac{d u}{d t}=-\frac{d E(u)}{d u} .
$$

Also, consider

$$
E=\int_{\Omega}|\nabla u|+\lambda(u-f)^{2} d x .
$$

We want $E(u(x, t))$ to decrease, that is,

$$
\frac{d}{d t} E(u(x, t)) \leq 0, \quad \text { for all } t
$$

Assume $\nabla u \cdot n=0$ on $\partial \Omega$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d}{d t} E(u(x, t)) & =\frac{d}{d t} \int_{\Omega}|\nabla u|+\lambda(u-f)^{2} d x \\
& =\int_{\Omega} \frac{\nabla u \cdot \nabla u_{t}}{|\nabla u|}+2 \lambda(u-f) u_{t} d x \\
& =\int_{\Omega}-\nabla \cdot\left(\frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|}\right) u_{t}+2 \lambda(u-f) u_{t} d x \\
& =\int_{\Omega} u_{t}[\underbrace{-\nabla \cdot\left(\frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|}\right)+2 \lambda(u-f)}_{(1)}] d x \leq \circledast \leq 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

To ensure that $\circledast$ holds, we need to choose $u_{t}$ to be negative of $(1)$, or

$$
u_{t}=\nabla \cdot\left(\frac{\nabla u}{|\nabla u|}\right)-2 \lambda(u-f)
$$

### 7.2 Chan-Vese

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F^{C V}= \mu \int_{\Omega} \delta(\phi)|\nabla \phi| d x+\nu \int_{\Omega}(1-H(\phi)) d x \\
&+ \lambda_{1} \int_{\Omega}\left|u_{0}-c_{1}\right|^{2}(1-H(\phi)) d x+\lambda_{2} \int_{\Omega}\left|u_{0}-c_{2}\right|^{2} H(\phi) d x \\
&\left.\frac{d F^{C V}}{d \varepsilon}(\phi+\varepsilon \eta)\right|_{\varepsilon=0}= \mu \frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{\Omega} \delta(\phi+\varepsilon \eta)|\nabla(\phi+\varepsilon \eta)| d x+\nu \frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{\Omega}(1-H(\phi+\varepsilon \eta)) d x \\
&+\lambda_{1} \frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{\Omega}\left(u_{0}-c_{1}\right)^{2}(1-H(\phi+\varepsilon \eta)) d x+\left.\lambda_{2} \frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{\Omega}\left(u_{0}-c_{2}\right)^{2} H(\phi+\varepsilon \eta) d x\right|_{\varepsilon=0} \\
&= \mu \int_{\Omega}\left[\delta^{\prime}(\phi+\varepsilon \eta) \eta|\nabla(\phi+\varepsilon \eta)|+\delta(\phi+\varepsilon \eta) \frac{\nabla(\phi+\varepsilon \eta)}{|\nabla(\phi+\varepsilon \eta)|} \cdot \nabla \eta\right] d x \\
&+\nu \int_{\Omega}-H^{\prime}(\phi+\varepsilon \eta) \eta d x \\
&+\lambda_{1} \int_{\Omega}\left(u_{0}-c_{1}\right)^{2}\left(-H^{\prime}(\phi+\varepsilon \eta)\right) \eta d x \\
&+\left.\lambda_{2} \int_{\Omega}\left(u_{0}-c_{2}\right)^{2} H^{\prime}(\phi+\varepsilon \eta) \eta d x\right|_{\varepsilon=0} \\
&= \mu \int_{\Omega}\left[\delta^{\prime}(\phi) \eta|\nabla \phi|+\delta(\phi) \frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|} \cdot \nabla \eta\right] d x \\
&-\nu \int_{\Omega} H^{\prime}(\phi) \eta d x \\
&-\lambda_{1} \int_{\Omega}\left(u_{0}-c_{1}\right)^{2} H^{\prime}(\phi) \eta d x \\
&+\lambda_{2} \int_{\Omega}\left(u_{0}-c_{2}\right)^{2} H^{\prime}(\phi) \eta d x \\
&= \mu \int_{\Omega} \delta^{\prime}(\phi)|\nabla \phi| \eta d x+\mu \int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\delta(\phi)}{|\nabla \phi|} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} \eta d s \\
&-\mu \int_{\Omega} \delta^{\prime}(\phi) \nabla \phi \frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|} \eta d x-\mu \int_{\Omega} \delta(\phi) \nabla_{x} \cdot\left(\frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|}\right) \eta d x \\
&-\nu \int_{\Omega} \delta(\phi) \eta d x \\
&-\lambda_{1} \int_{\Omega}\left(u_{0}-c_{1}\right)^{2} \delta(\phi) \eta d x \\
&+\lambda_{2} \int_{\Omega}\left(u_{0}-c_{2}\right)^{2} \delta(\phi) \eta d x \\
&= \mu \int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\delta(\phi)}{|\nabla \phi|} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} \eta d s \\
&+\int_{\Omega} \delta(\phi)\left[-\mu \nabla \cdot\left(\frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|}\right)-\nu-\lambda_{1}\left(u_{0}-c_{1}\right)^{2}+\lambda_{2}\left(u_{0}-c_{2}\right)^{2}\right] \eta d x=0 . \\
& \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
$$

Choose $\eta \in C_{c}^{1}(\Omega)$. The Euler-Lagrange equations are

$$
\delta(\phi)\left[\mu \nabla \cdot\left(\frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|}\right)+\nu+\lambda_{1}\left(u_{0}-c_{1}\right)^{2}-\lambda_{2}\left(u_{0}-c_{2}\right)^{2}\right]=0 \quad \text { on } \Omega,
$$

$$
\frac{\delta(\phi)}{|\nabla \phi|} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n}=0 \quad \text { on } \partial \Omega .
$$

### 7.3 Problems

The problem below was solved in the previous section. However, the approach below is preferable.
Problem (W'04, \#2). Let $C^{2}(\bar{\Omega})$ be the space of all twice continuously differentiable functions in the bounded smooth closed domain $\bar{\Omega} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$. Let $u_{0}(x, y)$ be the function that minimizes the functional
$D(u)=\iint_{\Omega}\left[\left(\frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial x}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial y}\right)^{2}+f(x, y) u(x, y)\right] d x d y+\int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) u^{2}(x(s), y(s)) d s$,
where $f(x, y)$ and $a(s)$ are given continuous functions.
Find the differential equation and the boundary condition that $u_{0}$ satisfies.

Proof. Suppose $u(x)$ is the actual minimizing function, and choose any $C^{1}$ function $\eta(x)$.
Since $u$ is the minimizer

$$
F(u+\varepsilon \eta) \geq F(u), \quad \forall \varepsilon .
$$

$F(u+\varepsilon \eta)$ has a minimum at $\varepsilon=0$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left.\frac{d F}{d \varepsilon}(u+\varepsilon \eta)\right|_{\varepsilon=0}=0 \\
& F(u)= \int_{\Omega}\left(|\nabla u|^{2}+f u\right) d x+\int_{\partial \Omega} a(s) u^{2} d s \\
&\left.\frac{d F}{d \varepsilon}(u+\varepsilon \eta)\right|_{\varepsilon=0}=\frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{\Omega}\left(|\nabla(u+\varepsilon \eta)|^{2}+f \cdot(u+\varepsilon \eta)\right) d x+\left.\frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{\partial \Omega} a(s)(u+\varepsilon \eta)^{2} d s\right|_{\varepsilon=0} \\
&=\int_{\Omega}(2 \nabla(u+\varepsilon \eta) \cdot \nabla \eta+f \eta) d x+\left.\int_{\partial \Omega} 2 a(s)(u+\varepsilon \eta) \eta d s\right|_{\varepsilon=0} \\
&=\int_{\Omega}(2 \nabla u \cdot \nabla \eta+f \eta) d x+\int_{\partial \Omega} 2 a(s) u \eta d s \\
&=\int_{\partial \Omega} 2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} \eta d s-\int_{\Omega}(2 \triangle u \eta-f \eta) d x+\int_{\partial \Omega} 2 a(s) u \eta d s \\
&=2 \int_{\partial \Omega}\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial n}+a(s) u\right) \eta d s-\int_{\Omega}(2 \triangle u-f) \eta d x=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The Euler-Lagrange equations are

$$
\begin{cases}2 \triangle u=f, & x \in \Omega \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}+a(s) u=0, & x \in \partial \Omega\end{cases}
$$

Problem ( $\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{9 2}, \mathbf{\# 7}$ ). Let $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ be positive constants with $a_{1} \neq a_{2}$ and define

$$
a(x)= \begin{cases}a_{1} & \text { for } 0<x<\frac{1}{2} \\ a_{2} & \text { for } \frac{1}{2}<x<1\end{cases}
$$

and let $f(x)$ be a smooth function. Consider the functional

$$
F(u)=\int_{0}^{1} a(x) u_{x}^{2} d x-\int_{0}^{1} f(x) u(x) d x
$$

in which $u$ is continuous on $[0,1]$, twice differentiable on $\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right]$ and $\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right]$, and has a possible jump discontinuity in $u_{x}$ at $x=\frac{1}{2}$. Find the Euler-Lagrange equation for $u(x)$ that minimizes the functional $F(u)$. In addition find the boundary conditions on $u$ at $x=0, x=\frac{1}{2}$ and $x=1$.

Proof. Suppose $u(x)$ is the actual minimizing function, and choose any $C^{1}$ function $\eta(x)$.
Since $u$ is the minimizer

$$
F(u+\varepsilon \eta) \geq F(u), \quad \forall \varepsilon .
$$

$F(u+\varepsilon \eta)$ has a minimum at $\varepsilon=0$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left.\frac{d F}{d \varepsilon}(u+\varepsilon \eta)\right|_{\varepsilon=0}=0 \\
& F(u)=\int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} a_{1} u_{x}^{2} d x+\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{1} a_{2} u_{x}^{2} d x-\int_{0}^{1} f(x) u(x) d x \\
&\left.\frac{d F}{d \varepsilon}(u+\varepsilon \eta)\right|_{\varepsilon=0}=\frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} a_{1}\left(u_{x}+\varepsilon \eta_{x}\right)^{2} d x+\frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{1} a_{2}\left(u_{x}+\varepsilon \eta_{x}\right)^{2} d x-\left.\frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{0}^{1} f(x)(u+\varepsilon \eta) d x\right|_{\varepsilon=0} \\
&=\int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} 2 a_{1}\left(u_{x}+\varepsilon \eta_{x}\right) \eta_{x} d x+\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{1} 2 a_{2}\left(u_{x}+\varepsilon \eta_{x}\right) \eta_{x} d x-\left.\int_{0}^{1} f(x) \eta d x\right|_{\varepsilon=0} \\
&=\int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} 2 a_{1} u_{x} \eta_{x} d x+\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{1} 2 a_{2} u_{x} \eta_{x} d x-\int_{0}^{1} f(x) \eta d x \\
&=\left.2 a_{1} u_{x} \eta\right|_{0} ^{\frac{1}{2}}-\int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} 2 a_{1} u_{x x} \eta d x+\left.2 a_{2} u_{x} \eta\right|_{\frac{1}{2}} ^{1}-\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{1} 2 a_{2} u_{x x} \eta d x-\int_{0}^{1} f(x) \eta d x \\
&=\left.2 a_{1} u_{x} \eta\right|_{0} ^{\frac{1}{2}}+\left.2 a_{2} u_{x} \eta\right|_{\frac{1}{2}} ^{1}-\int_{0}^{1} 2 a(x) u_{x x} \eta d x-\int_{0}^{1} f(x) \eta d x
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{1} u_{x}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \eta\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)-a_{1} u_{x}(0) \eta(0)+a_{2} u_{x}(1) \eta(1)-a_{2} u_{x}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \eta\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)=0 . \\
& \int_{0}^{1}\left[2 a(x) u_{x x}+f(x)\right] \eta d x=0
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
2 a(x) u_{x x}+f(x)=0 \\
u_{x}(0)=0 \\
u_{x}(1)=0 \\
a_{1} u_{x}\left(\frac{1}{2}-\right)=a_{2} u_{x}\left(\frac{1}{2}+\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

The process of finding Euler-Lagrange equations (given the minimization functional) is equivalent to $\mathbf{( D )} \Leftarrow \mathbf{( V )} \Leftarrow \mathbf{( M )}$.

Problem (F'00, \#4). Consider the following functional

$$
F(v)=\iiint_{\Omega}\left[\sum_{j, k=1}^{3}\left(\frac{\partial v_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}\right)^{2}+\alpha\left(\sum_{j=1}^{3} v_{j}^{2}(x)-1\right)^{2}\right] d x
$$

where $x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}, v(x)=\left(v_{1}(x), v_{2}(x), v_{3}(x)\right), \Omega \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ bounded, and $\alpha>0$ is a constant. Let $u(x)=\left(u_{1}(x), u_{2}(x), u_{3}(x)\right)$ be the minimizer of $F(v)$ among all smooth functions satisfying the Dirichlet condition, $u_{k}(x)=\varphi_{k}(x), k=1,2,3$. Derive the system of differential equations that $u(x)$ satisfies.

Proof. (M) $\Rightarrow$ (D)
Suppose $u(x)$ is the actual minimizing function, and choose any $C^{1}$ function $\eta(x)=$ $\left(\eta_{1}(x), \eta_{2}(x), \eta_{3}(x)\right)$.
Since $u$ is the minimizer

$$
F(u+\varepsilon \eta) \geq F(u), \quad \forall \varepsilon .
$$

$F(u+\varepsilon \eta)$ has a minimum at $\varepsilon=0$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left.\frac{d F}{d \varepsilon}(u+\varepsilon \eta)\right|_{\varepsilon=0}=0 . \\
&\left.\frac{d F}{d \varepsilon}(u+\varepsilon \eta)\right|_{\varepsilon=0}=\left.\frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \int_{\Omega}\left[\sum_{j, k=1}^{3}\left(\frac{\partial u_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}+\varepsilon \frac{\partial \eta_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}\right)^{2}+\alpha\left(\sum_{j=1}^{3}\left(u_{j}+\varepsilon \eta_{j}\right)^{2}-1\right)^{2}\right] d x\right|_{\varepsilon=0} \\
&=\left.\int_{\Omega}\left[2 \sum_{j, k=1}^{3}\left(\frac{\partial u_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}+\varepsilon \frac{\partial \eta_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}\right) \frac{\partial \eta_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}+2 \alpha\left(\sum_{j=1}^{3}\left(u_{j}+\varepsilon \eta_{j}\right)^{2}-1\right) 2 \sum_{j=1}^{3}\left(u_{j}+\varepsilon \eta_{j}\right) \eta_{j}\right] d x\right|_{\varepsilon=0} \\
&= \int_{\Omega}\left[2 \sum_{j, k=1}^{3}\left(\frac{\partial u_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}\right) \frac{\partial \eta_{j}}{\partial x_{k}}+4 \alpha\left(\sum_{j=1}^{3} u_{j}^{2}-1\right) \sum_{j=1}^{3} u_{j} \eta_{j}\right] d x \\
&= \int_{\Omega}\left[2\left(\nabla u_{1} \cdot \nabla \eta_{1}+\nabla u_{2} \cdot \nabla \eta_{2}+\nabla u_{3} \cdot \nabla \eta_{3}\right)\right. \\
&\left.\quad+4 \alpha\left(u_{1}^{2}+u_{2}^{2}+u_{3}^{2}-1\right)\left(u_{1} \eta_{1}+u_{2} \eta_{2}+u_{3} \eta_{3}\right)\right] d x \\
&= \int_{\partial \Omega}\left[2\left(\frac{\partial u_{1}}{\partial n} \eta_{1}+\frac{\partial u_{2}}{\partial n} \eta_{2}+\frac{\partial u_{3}}{\partial n} \eta_{3}\right) d s+\int_{\Omega}\left[2\left(\triangle u_{1} \eta_{1}+\triangle u_{2} \eta_{2}+\Delta u_{2} \eta_{3}\right) d x\right.\right. \\
&\left.\quad+4 \alpha\left(u_{1}^{2}+u_{2}^{2}+u_{3}^{2}-1\right)\left(u_{1} \eta_{1}+u_{2} \eta_{2}+u_{3} \eta_{3}\right)\right] d x=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

If we assume that $u_{1}^{2}+u_{2}^{2}+u_{3}^{2}-1=1$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left.\frac{d F}{d \varepsilon}(u+\varepsilon \eta)\right|_{\varepsilon=0}=\int_{\partial \Omega} & {\left[2\left(\frac{\partial u_{1}}{\partial n} \eta_{1}+\frac{\partial u_{2}}{\partial n} \eta_{2}+\frac{\partial u_{3}}{\partial n} \eta_{3}\right) d s+\int_{\Omega}\left[2\left(\Delta u_{1} \eta_{1}+\Delta u_{2} \eta_{2}+\Delta u_{2} \eta_{3}\right) d x\right.\right.} \\
& \left.+4 \alpha\left(u_{1} \eta_{1}+u_{2} \eta_{2}+u_{3} \eta_{3}\right)\right] d x=0
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\triangle u_{i}+2 \alpha u_{i}=0, \quad \text { in } \Omega
$$

$$
\frac{\partial u_{i}}{\partial n}=0, \quad i=1,2,3, \quad \text { on } \quad \partial \Omega .
$$

## 8 Integral Equations

Fredholm Equation: $\quad \alpha(x) y(x)=F(x)+\lambda \int_{a}^{b} K(x, \xi) y(\xi) d \xi$
Volterra Equation: $\quad \alpha(x) y(x)=F(x)+\lambda \int_{a}^{x} K(x, \xi) y(\xi) d \xi$
When $\alpha \equiv 0$, the equation is said to be an integral equation of the first kind. When $\alpha \equiv 1$, the equation is said to be an integral equation of the second kind.

$$
\frac{d}{d x} \int_{A(x)}^{B(x)} F(x, \xi) d \xi=\int_{A}^{B} \frac{\partial F(x, \xi)}{\partial x} d \xi+F(x, B(x)) \frac{d B}{d x}-F(x, A(x)) \frac{d A}{d x} .
$$

### 8.1 Relations Between Differential and Integral Equations

Example 1. Consider the boundary-value problem

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y^{\prime \prime}+\lambda y=0 \\
& y(0)=y(L)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

After the first integration over $(0, x)$, we obtain

$$
y^{\prime}(x)=-\lambda \int_{0}^{x} y(\xi) d \xi+C
$$

where $C$ represents the unknown value of $y^{\prime}(0)$. A second integration over $(0, x)$ gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{aligned}
& y(x)=-\lambda \int_{0}^{x} \underbrace{d s}_{v^{\prime}} \underbrace{\int_{0}^{s} y(\xi) d \xi}_{u}+C x+D=-\lambda\left[\left[s \int_{0}^{s} y(\xi) d \xi\right]_{0}^{x}-\int_{0}^{x} s y(s) d s\right]+C x+D \\
&=-\lambda\left[x \int_{0}^{x} y(\xi) d \xi-\int_{0}^{x} \xi y(\xi) d \xi\right]+C x+D=-\lambda \int_{0}^{x}(x-\xi) y(\xi) d \xi+C x+D . \\
& y(0)=0 \text { gives } D=0 . \text { Since } y(L)=0 \text {, then } \\
& y(L)=0=-\lambda \int_{0}^{L}(L-\xi) y(\xi) d \xi+C L \\
& C=\frac{\lambda}{L} \int_{0}^{L}(L-\xi) y(\xi) d \xi
\end{aligned}
\end{aligned}
$$

If the values of $C$ and $D$ are introduced into $\circledast$, this relation takes the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
y(x) & =-\lambda \int_{0}^{x}(x-\xi) y(\xi) d \xi+\lambda \frac{x}{L} \int_{0}^{L}(L-\xi) y(\xi) d \xi \\
& =-\lambda \int_{0}^{x}(x-\xi) y(\xi) d \xi+\lambda \int_{0}^{x} \frac{x}{L}(L-\xi) y(\xi) d \xi+\lambda \int_{x}^{L} \frac{x}{L}(L-\xi) y(\xi) d \xi \\
& =\lambda \int_{0}^{x} \frac{\xi}{L}(L-\xi) y(\xi) d \xi+\lambda \int_{x}^{L} \frac{x}{L}(L-\xi) y(\xi) d \xi .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
y(x)=\lambda \int_{0}^{L} K(x, \xi) y(\xi) d \xi
$$

where

$$
K(x, \xi)= \begin{cases}\frac{\xi}{L}(L-\xi), & \xi<x \\ \frac{x}{L}(L-\xi), & \xi>x\end{cases}
$$

Note, $K(x, \xi)$ is symmetric: $K(x, \xi)=K(\xi, x)$.
The kernel $K$ is continuous at $x=\xi$.

Example 2. Consider the boundary-value problem

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y^{\prime \prime}+A y^{\prime}+B y=0 \\
& y(0)=y(1)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Integrating over $(0, x)$ twice, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
y^{\prime}(x) & =-A y(x)-B \int_{0}^{x} y(\xi) d \xi+C \\
y(x) & =-A \int_{0}^{x} y(\xi) d \xi-B \int_{0}^{x} \underbrace{d s}_{v^{\prime}} \underbrace{\int_{0}^{s} y(\xi) d \xi}_{u}+C x+D \\
& =-A \int_{0}^{x} y(\xi) d \xi-B\left[\left[s \int_{0}^{s} y(\xi) d \xi\right]_{0}^{x}-\int_{0}^{x} s y(s) d s\right]+C x+D \\
& =-A \int_{0}^{x} y(\xi) d \xi-B\left[x \int_{0}^{x} y(\xi) d \xi-\int_{0}^{x} \xi y(\xi) d \xi\right]+C x+D \\
& =\int_{0}^{x}[-A-B(x-\xi)] y(\xi) d \xi+C x+D . \circledast
\end{aligned}
$$

$y(0)=0$ gives $D=0$. Since $y(1)=0$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
y(1)=0 & =\int_{0}^{1}[-A-B(1-\xi)] y(\xi) d \xi+C \\
C & =\int_{0}^{1}[A+B(1-\xi)] y(\xi) d \xi
\end{aligned}
$$

If the values of $C$ and $D$ are introduced into $\circledast$, this relation takes the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
y(x) & =\int_{0}^{x}[-A-B(x-\xi)] y(\xi) d \xi+x \int_{0}^{1}[A+B(1-\xi)] y(\xi) d \xi \\
& =\int_{0}^{x}[-A-B(x-\xi)] y(\xi) d \xi+\int_{0}^{x}[A x+B x(1-\xi)] y(\xi) d \xi+\int_{x}^{1}[A x+B x(1-\xi)] y(\xi) d \xi \\
& =\int_{0}^{x}[A(x-1)+B \xi(1-x)] y(\xi) d \xi+\int_{x}^{1}[A x+B x(1-\xi)] y(\xi) d \xi
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
y(x)=\int_{0}^{1} K(x, \xi) y(\xi) d \xi
$$

where

$$
K(x, \xi)= \begin{cases}A(x-1)+B \xi(1-x), & \xi<x \\ A x+B x(1-\xi), & \xi>x\end{cases}
$$

Note, $K(x, \xi)$ is not symmetric: $K(x, \xi) \neq K(\xi, x)$, unless $A=0$.
The kernel $K$ is not continuous at $x=\xi$, since
$\lim _{x \rightarrow \xi^{+}} A(x-1)+B \xi(1-x)=A(\xi-1)+B \xi(1-\xi) \neq A \xi+B \xi(1-\xi)=\lim _{x \rightarrow \xi^{-}} A x+B x(1-\xi)$.

### 8.2 Green's Function

Given the differential operator

$$
L=\frac{d}{d x}\left(p \frac{d}{d x}\right)+q,
$$

consider the differential equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& L y+F(x)=0, \quad a \leq x \leq b \\
& c_{1} y(a)+c_{2} y^{\prime}(a)=0, \quad c_{3} y(b)+c_{4} y^{\prime}(b)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

where $F$ may also depend upon $x$ indirectly through $y(x), F(x)=F(x, y(x))$.
We construct a Green's function $G$ which, for a given number $\xi$, is given by $u(x)$ when $x<\xi$ and by $v(x)$ when $x>\xi$, and which has the following four properties: (1) The functions $u$ and $v$ satisfy the equation $L G=0$ in their intervals of definition; that is $L u=0$ when $x<\xi$, and $L v=0$ when $x>\xi$.
(2) $u$ satisfies the boundary condition at $x=a$, and $v$ that at $x=b$.
(3) $G$ is continuous at $x=\xi$; that is $u(\xi)=v(\xi)$.
(4) $v^{\prime}(\xi)-u^{\prime}(\xi)=-1 / p(\xi)$.

「 When $G(x, \xi)$ exists, the original formulation of the problem can be transformed to

$$
\left.y(x)=\int_{a}^{b} G(x, \xi) F(\xi) d \xi .\right\rfloor
$$

Thus, conditions (1) and (2) imply

$$
G= \begin{cases}u(x), & x<\xi,  \tag{8.1}\\ v(x), & x>\xi\end{cases}
$$

where $u$ and $v$ satisfty respective boundary conditions, and conditions (3) and (4) determine additional properties of $u$ and $v$ (i.e. constants in terms of $\xi$ ):

$$
\begin{align*}
& c_{2} v(\xi)-c_{1} u(\xi)=0,  \tag{8.2}\\
& c_{2} v^{\prime}(\xi)-c_{1} u^{\prime}(\xi)=-\frac{1}{p(\xi)} . \tag{8.3}
\end{align*}
$$

Example. Transform the problem

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d^{2} y}{d x^{2}}+y+\epsilon y^{2}=f(x) \\
& \quad y(0)=0, \quad y(1)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

to a nonlinear Fredholm integral equation in each of the two following ways. Use
a) $L y=y^{\prime \prime}$.
b) $L y=y^{\prime \prime}+y$.

Proof. a) We have

$$
\underbrace{y^{\prime \prime}}_{L y}+\underbrace{y+\epsilon y^{2}-f(x)}_{F(x)}=0
$$

(1) $L y=y^{\prime \prime}=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad y=a x+b$
$u(x)=a x+b, \quad v(x)=c x+d$.
(2) $u(0)=0=b \quad \Rightarrow \quad u(x)=a x$.
$v(1)=0=c+d \quad \Rightarrow \quad \overline{v(x)=c(x}-1)$.
Determine $a$ and $c$ in terms of $\xi$ :
(3) $u(\xi)=v(\xi)$,
$a \xi=c(\xi-1)$,
$\xi=\frac{c}{c-a}$.
(4) $v^{\prime}(\xi)-u^{\prime}(\xi)=c-a=-\frac{1}{p(\xi)}=-1$,

$$
\Rightarrow \quad c=-\xi, \quad a=1-\xi . \quad \text { Thus, }
$$

$$
G=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
u(x), & x<\xi, \\
v(x), & x>\xi .
\end{array}= \begin{cases}x(1-\xi), & x<\xi, \\
\xi(1-\xi), & x>\xi\end{cases}\right.
$$

$$
y(x)=\int_{0}^{1} G(x, \xi) F(\xi) d \xi=-\int_{0}^{1} G(x, \xi) f(\xi) d \xi+\int_{0}^{1} G(x, \xi)\left[y(\xi)+\epsilon y^{2}(\xi)\right] d \xi
$$

b) We have

$$
\underbrace{y^{\prime \prime}+y}_{L y}+\underbrace{\epsilon y^{2}-f(x)}_{F(x)}=0
$$

(1) $L y=y^{\prime \prime}+y=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad y=A \cos x+B \sin x$
$u(x)=a \cos x+b \sin x, \quad v(x)=c \cos x+d \sin x$.
(2) $u(0)=0=a \quad \Rightarrow \quad u(x)=b \sin x$.
$\left.v(1)=0=c \cos 1+d \sin 1 \Rightarrow \overline{v(x)=d(\sin x}-\frac{\sin 1}{\cos 1} \cos x\right)$.
Determine $b$ and $d$ in terms of $\xi$ :
(3) $u(\xi)=v(\xi)$,

$$
b \sin \xi=d\left(\sin \xi-\frac{\sin 1}{\cos 1} \cos \xi\right),
$$

$$
b=d\left(1-\frac{\sin 1}{\cos 1} \frac{\cos \xi}{\sin \xi}\right) .
$$

(4) $v^{\prime}(\xi)-u^{\prime}(\xi)=d\left(\frac{\sin 1}{\cos 1} \sin \xi+\cos \xi-b \cos \xi\right)=-\frac{1}{p(\xi)}=-1$.

After some algebra,
$u(x)=\frac{\sin (1-\xi) \sin x}{\sin 1}$,
$v(x)=\frac{\sin (1-x) \sin \xi}{\sin 1}$.

$$
G= \begin{cases}\frac{\sin (1-\xi) \sin x}{\sin 1}, & x<\xi, \\ \frac{\sin (1-x) \sin \xi}{\sin 1}, & x>\xi .\end{cases}
$$

$$
y(x)=\int_{0}^{1} G(x, \xi) F(\xi) d \xi=-\int_{0}^{1} G(x, \xi) f(\xi) d \xi+\epsilon \int_{0}^{1} G(x, \xi) y^{2}(\xi) d \xi
$$

Problem (W'02, \#1). Consider the second order differential operator $L$ defined by

$$
L y=\frac{d^{2} y}{d x^{2}}-y .
$$

Find the Green's function (= solution operator kernel) for the boundary value problem $L y=f$ on $0<x<1, y(1)=y(0)=0$.

Proof. (1) Ly $=y^{\prime \prime}-y=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad y=A e^{-x}+B e^{x}$
$u(x)=a e^{-x}+b e^{x}, \quad v(x)=c e^{-x}+d e^{x}$.
$\begin{aligned} \text { (2) } u(0) & =0=a+b & \Rightarrow \quad u(x)=a\left(e^{-x}-e^{x}\right) . \\ v(1) & =0=c e^{-1}+d e^{1} & \Rightarrow \quad \underline{v(x)=d\left(e^{x}-e^{2-x}\right)} .\end{aligned}$
Determine $a$ and $d$ in terms of $\xi$ :
(3) $u(\xi)=v(\xi)$,
$a\left(e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}\right)=d\left(e^{\xi}-e^{2-\xi}\right)$,
$a=d \frac{e^{\xi}-e^{2-\xi}}{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}$.
(4) $v^{\prime}(\xi)-u^{\prime}(\xi)=d\left(e^{\xi}+e^{2-\xi}\right)-a\left(-e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}\right)=-\frac{1}{p(\xi)}=-1$.

Plugging in (3) into (4), we get

$$
\begin{array}{r}
d\left(e^{\xi}+e^{2-\xi}\right)-d \frac{e^{\xi}-e^{2-\xi}}{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}\left(-e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}\right)=-1, \\
e^{\xi}+e^{2-\xi}+\frac{e^{\xi}-e^{2-\xi}}{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}\left(e^{-\xi}+e^{\xi}\right)=-\frac{1}{d}, \\
\left(e^{\xi}+e^{2-\xi}\right) \frac{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}+\frac{e^{\xi}-e^{2-\xi}}{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}\left(e^{-\xi}+e^{\xi}\right)=-\frac{1}{d}, \\
\frac{1-e^{2 \xi}+e^{2-2 \xi}-e^{2}}{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}+\frac{1+e^{2 \xi}-e^{2-2 \xi}-e^{2}}{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}=-\frac{1}{d}, \\
\frac{2-2 e^{2}}{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}=-\frac{1}{d}, \\
d=\frac{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}{2\left(e^{2}-1\right)} . \\
a=d \frac{e^{\xi}-e^{2-\xi}}{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}=\frac{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}{2\left(e^{2}-1\right)} \cdot \frac{e^{\xi}-e^{2-\xi}}{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}=\frac{e^{\xi}-e^{2-\xi}}{2\left(e^{2}-1\right)} . \\
G= \begin{cases}\frac{e^{\xi}-e^{2-\xi}}{2\left(e^{2}-1\right)} \\
\frac{e^{-\xi}-e^{\xi}}{2\left(e^{2}-1\right)}\left(e^{x}-e^{2-x}\right), & x<\xi, \\
\hline\end{cases}
\end{array}
$$

Example. Show that the Green's function $G(x, \xi)$ associated with the expression $\frac{d^{2} y}{d x^{2}}-y$ over the infinite interval $(-\infty, \infty)$, subject to the requirement that $y$ be bounded as $x \rightarrow \pm \infty$, is of the form

$$
G(x, \xi)=\frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\xi|} .
$$

Proof. (1) Ly $=y^{\prime \prime}-y=0 \Rightarrow y=A e^{-x}+B e^{x}$

$$
u(x)=a e^{-x}+b e^{x}, \quad v(x)=c e^{-x}+d e^{x} .
$$

$\begin{aligned} \text { (2) Since } y \text { is bounded as } x \rightarrow-\infty, a=0 & \Rightarrow \frac{u(x)=b e^{x} .}{v} . \\ \text { Since } y \text { is bounded as } x \rightarrow+\infty, d=0 & \Rightarrow \underline{v(x)=c e^{-x}} .\end{aligned}$
Determine $b$ and $c$ in terms of $\xi$ :
(3) $u(\xi)=v(\xi)$,

$$
b e^{\xi}=c e^{-\xi}
$$

$b=c e^{-2 \xi}$.
(4) $v^{\prime}(\xi)-u^{\prime}(\xi)=-c e^{-\xi}-b e^{\xi}=-\frac{1}{p(\xi)}=-1$.
$c=\frac{1-b e^{\xi}}{e^{-\xi}}=\frac{1-c e^{-2 \xi} e^{\xi}}{e^{-\xi}}=\frac{1-c e^{-\xi}}{e^{-\xi}}=e^{\xi}-c$,
$c=\frac{1}{2} e^{\xi} \quad \Rightarrow \quad b=\frac{1}{2} e^{-\xi}$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
G(x, \xi) & =\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
b e^{x}, & x<\xi \\
c e^{-x}, & x>\xi
\end{array}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{1}{2} e^{-\xi} e^{x}, & x<\xi \\
\frac{1}{2} e^{\xi} e^{-x}, & x>\xi
\end{array}= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2} e^{x-\xi}, & x<\xi \\
\frac{1}{2} e^{\xi-x}, & x>\xi\end{cases} \right.\right. \\
& =\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\xi|}, & x<\xi \\
\frac{1}{2} e^{-|\xi-x|}, & x>\xi
\end{array}= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\xi|}, & x<\xi \\
\frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\xi|}, & x>\xi\end{cases} \right. \\
G(x, \xi) & =\frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\xi|}
\end{aligned}
$$

Problem ( $\mathbf{W}^{\prime} \mathbf{0} 4, \# 7$ ). For the two-point boundary value problem $L f=f_{x x}-f$ on $-\infty<x<\infty$ with $\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)=\lim _{x \rightarrow-\infty} f(x)=0$, the Green's function $G\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$ solves $L G=\delta\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)$ in which $L$ acts on the variable $x$.
a) Show that $G\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=G\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)$.
b) For each $x^{\prime}$, show that

$$
G\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)= \begin{cases}a_{-} e^{x} & \text { for } x<x^{\prime} \\ a_{+} e^{-x} & \text { for } x^{\prime}<x\end{cases}
$$

in which $a_{ \pm}$are functions that depend only on $x^{\prime}$.
c) Using (a), find the $x^{\prime}$ dependence of $a_{ \pm}$.
d) Finish finding $G\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$ by using the jump conditions to find the remaining unknowns in $a_{ \pm}$.

Proof. a) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
L f & =f_{x x}-f \\
L G & =G\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)_{x x}-G\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\delta\left(x-x^{\prime}\right) \\
? ? ? & \Rightarrow G\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=G\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{d})(1) L f=f^{\prime \prime}-f=0 \Rightarrow y=A e^{-x}+B e^{x}$

$$
u(x)=a e^{-x}+b e^{x}, \quad v(x)=c e^{-x}+d e^{x}
$$

(2) Since $\lim _{x \rightarrow-\infty} f(x)=0, a=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad u(x)=b e^{x}$.

Since $\lim _{x \rightarrow+\infty} f(x)=0, \quad d=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \overline{v(x)=c e^{-x}}$.
Determine $b$ and $c$ in terms of $\xi$ :
(3) $u(\xi)=v(\xi)$,
$b e^{\xi}=c e^{-\xi}$,
$b=c e^{-2 \xi}$.
(4) $v^{\prime}(\xi)-u^{\prime}(\xi)=-c e^{-\xi}-b e^{\xi}=-\frac{1}{p(\xi)}=-1$.
$c=\frac{1-b e^{\xi}}{e^{-\xi}}=\frac{1-c e^{-2 \xi} e^{\xi}}{e^{-\xi}}=\frac{1-c e^{-\xi}}{e^{-\xi}}=e^{\xi}-c$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
c=\frac{1}{2} e^{\xi} & \Rightarrow b=\frac{1}{2} e^{-\xi} . \quad \text { Thus, } \\
G(x, \xi) & =\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
b e^{x}, & x<\xi \\
c e^{-x}, & x>\xi
\end{array}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{1}{2} e^{-\xi} e^{x}, & x<\xi \\
\frac{1}{2} e^{\xi} e^{-x}, & x>\xi
\end{array}= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2} e^{x-\xi}, & x<\xi \\
\frac{1}{2} e^{\xi-x}, & x>\xi\end{cases} \right.\right. \\
& =\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\xi|}, & x<\xi \\
\frac{1}{2} e^{-|\xi-x|}, & x>\xi
\end{array}= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\xi|}, & x<\xi, \\
\frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\xi|}, & x>\xi .\end{cases} \right. \\
G(x, \xi) & =\frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\xi|}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 9 Miscellaneous

Problem (F'98, \#1). Determine $\beta$ such that the differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d^{2} \phi}{d x^{2}}+\phi=\beta+x^{2} \tag{9.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\phi(0)=0$ and $\phi(\pi)=0$ has a solution.
Proof. Solve the homogeneous equation $\phi^{\prime \prime}+\phi=0$. Subsitution $\phi=e^{s x}$ gives $s^{2}+1=0$. Hence, $s_{1,2}= \pm i$ and the superposition principle gives the family of solutions:

$$
\phi_{h}(x)=A \cos x+B \sin x .
$$

Find a particular solution of the inhomogeneous equation $\phi^{\prime \prime}+\phi=\beta+x^{2}$.
$\operatorname{Try} \phi(x)=a x^{2}+b x+c$. Substitution into (9.1) gives

$$
a x^{2}+b x+2 a+c=\beta+x^{2} .
$$

By equating coefficients, $a=1, b=0, c=\beta-2$. Thus,

$$
\phi_{p}(x)=x^{2}+\beta-2 .
$$

Use the principle of the complementary function to form the family of solutions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi(x) & =\phi_{h}(x)+\phi_{p}(x)=A \cos x+B \sin x+x^{2}+\beta-2 . \\
\phi(0) & =0=A+\beta-2 \\
\phi(\pi) & =0=-A+\pi^{2}+\beta-2 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $A=\frac{\pi^{2}}{2}$, which gives $\beta=2-\frac{\pi^{2}}{2}$.

Problem (S'92, \#5). Consider the initial value problem for the ODEs

$$
y^{\prime}=y-y^{3}, \quad y^{\prime}=y+y^{3}, \quad t \geq 0,
$$

with initial data

$$
y(0)=\frac{1}{2} .
$$

Investigate whether the solutions stay bounded for all times. If not compute the "blowup" time.

Proof. a) We solve the initial value problem.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d y}{d t}=y-y^{3}=y\left(1-y^{2}\right) & =y(1-y)(1+y), \\
\frac{d y}{y(1-y)(1+y)} & =d t, \\
\left(\frac{1}{y}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1-y}-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1+y}\right) d y & =d t, \\
\ln y-\frac{1}{2} \ln (1-y)-\frac{1}{2} \ln (1+y) & =t+c_{1}, \\
\ln y-\frac{1}{2} \ln ((1-y)(1+y)) & =t+c_{1}, \\
\ln y-\ln ((1-y)(1+y))^{\frac{1}{2}} & =t+c_{1}, \\
\ln \left(\frac{y}{((1-y)(1+y))^{\frac{1}{2}}}\right) & =t+c_{1}, \\
\frac{y}{((1-y)(1+y))^{\frac{1}{2}}}=c_{2} e^{t}, & \\
\frac{y}{\left(1-y^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}=c_{2} e^{t} . &
\end{aligned}
$$

Initial condition $y(0)=\frac{1}{2}$, we obtain $c_{2}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$. Thus

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{y}{\left(1-y^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} e^{t}, \\
\frac{y^{2}}{1-y^{2}}=\frac{1}{3} e^{2 t}, \\
y=\frac{ \pm 1}{\sqrt{3 e^{-2 t}+1}} .
\end{gathered}
$$



As $t \rightarrow \infty \quad \Rightarrow \quad y \rightarrow \pm 1$. Thus, the solutions stay bounded for all times.
We can also observe from the image above that at $y(0)=\frac{1}{2}, \frac{d x}{d t}>0$. Thus $y \rightarrow 1$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
b) We solve the initial value problem.

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\frac{d y}{d t}=y+y^{3}, \\
y^{-3} y^{\prime}=y^{-2}+1 .
\end{array}
$$

Let $v=y^{-2}$, then $v^{\prime}=-2 y^{-3} y^{\prime}$. We have


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad-\frac{1}{2} v^{\prime}-v=1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad v^{\prime}+2 v=-2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad v=c e^{-2 t}-1, \\
& \Rightarrow \quad y^{-2}=v=c e^{-2 t}-1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad y=\frac{ \pm 1}{\sqrt{c e^{-2 t}-1}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad y=\frac{ \pm 1}{\sqrt{5 e^{-2 t}-1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The solution blows up at $t=\frac{1}{2} \ln 5$.

## Problem (S'94, \#4).

Suppose that $\varphi_{1}(t)$ and $\varphi_{2}(t)$ are any two solutions of the linear differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime \prime}+a_{1}(t) f^{\prime}+a_{2}(t) f=0 \tag{9.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

a) Show that

$$
\varphi_{1}(t) \varphi_{2}^{\prime}(t)-\varphi_{2}(t) \varphi_{1}^{\prime}(t)=c e^{-\int^{t} a_{1}(s) d s}
$$

for some constant $c$.
b) For any solution $\varphi_{1}(t)$, show that

$$
\psi(t)=\varphi_{1}(t) \int^{t} e^{-\int^{s} a_{1}(r) d r} \frac{1}{\varphi_{1}(s)^{2}} d s
$$

is also a solution and is independent of $\varphi_{1}$, on any interval in which $\varphi_{1}(t) \neq 0$.

Proof. a) Suppose $\varphi_{1}$ and $\varphi_{2}$ are two solutions of (9.2). Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \varphi_{1}^{\prime \prime}+a_{1} \varphi_{1}^{\prime}+a_{2} \varphi_{1}=0 \\
& \varphi_{2}^{\prime \prime}+a_{1} \varphi_{2}^{\prime}+a_{2} \varphi_{2}=0 \\
& \varphi_{1}\left[\varphi_{2}^{\prime \prime}+a_{1} \varphi_{2}^{\prime}+a_{2} \varphi_{2}\right]-\varphi_{2}\left[\varphi_{1}^{\prime \prime}+a_{1} \varphi_{1}^{\prime}+a_{2} \varphi_{1}\right]=0 \\
& \varphi_{1} \varphi_{2}^{\prime \prime}-\varphi_{2} \varphi_{1}^{\prime \prime}+a_{1}\left[\varphi_{1} \varphi_{2}^{\prime}-\varphi_{2} \varphi_{1}^{\prime}\right]=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $w=\varphi_{1} \varphi_{2}^{\prime}-\varphi_{2} \varphi_{1}^{\prime}$. Then, $w^{\prime}=\varphi_{1} \varphi_{2}^{\prime \prime}-\varphi_{2} \varphi_{1}^{\prime \prime}$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& w^{\prime}+a_{1}(t) w=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{w^{\prime}}{w}=-a_{1}(t) \quad \Rightarrow \quad w=c e^{-\int^{t} a_{1}(s) d s} \\
& \varphi_{1} \varphi_{2}^{\prime}-\varphi_{2} \varphi_{1}^{\prime}=c e^{-\int^{t} a_{1}(s) d s}
\end{aligned}
$$

b) Let $\psi(t)=\varphi_{1}(t) v(t)$ for some non-constant function $v(t)$, which we will find. Since $\psi(t)$ is a solution of (9.2), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \psi^{\prime \prime}+a_{1} \psi^{\prime}+a_{2} \psi=0 \\
& \left(\varphi_{1} v\right)^{\prime \prime}+a_{1}\left(\varphi_{1} v\right)^{\prime}+a_{2} \varphi_{1} v=0 \\
& \varphi_{1}^{\prime \prime} v+2 \varphi_{1}^{\prime} v^{\prime}+\varphi_{1} v^{\prime \prime}+a_{1} \varphi_{1}^{\prime} v+a_{1} \varphi_{1} v^{\prime}+a_{2} \varphi_{1} v=0 \\
& \varphi_{1} v^{\prime \prime}+\left[2 \varphi_{1}^{\prime}+a_{1} \varphi_{1}\right] v^{\prime}+[\underbrace{\varphi_{1}^{\prime \prime}+a_{1} \varphi_{1}^{\prime}+a_{2} \varphi_{1}}_{=0}] v=0 \\
& \varphi_{1} v^{\prime \prime}+\left[2 \varphi_{1}^{\prime}+a_{1} \varphi_{1}\right] v^{\prime}=0, \\
& \frac{v^{\prime \prime}}{v^{\prime}}=-\frac{2 \varphi_{1}^{\prime}+a_{1} \varphi_{1}}{\varphi_{1}}=-2 \frac{\varphi_{1}^{\prime}}{\varphi_{1}}-a_{1} \\
& \ln v^{\prime}=-2 \ln \varphi_{1}-\int^{t} a_{1}(s) d s+c_{1} \\
& v^{\prime}=c \frac{1}{\varphi_{1}^{2}} e^{-\int^{t} a_{1}(s) d s}, \\
& v=c \int^{t} \frac{1}{\varphi_{1}^{2}} e^{-\int^{s} a_{1}(r) d r} d s \\
& \psi(t)=\varphi_{1}(t) v(t)=c \varphi_{1}(t) \int^{t} \frac{1}{\varphi_{1}(s)^{2}} e^{-\int^{s} a_{1}(r) d r} d s . \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
$$

$\psi(t)$ is a solution independent of $\varphi_{1}(t)$.

Problem ( $\left.\mathbf{W}^{\prime} \mathbf{0 3}, \# 7\right)$. Under what conditions on $g$, continuous on $[0, L]$, is there $a$ solution of

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}} & =g \\
u(0) & =u(L / 3)=u(L)=0 ?
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
u_{x x} & =g(x) \\
u_{x} & =\int_{0}^{x} g(\xi) d \xi+C \\
u(x) & =\int_{0}^{x} \int_{0}^{\xi} g(s) d s d \xi+C x+D \\
0 & =u(0)=D . \quad \text { Thus, } \\
u(x) & =\int_{0}^{x} \int_{0}^{\xi} g(s) d s d \xi+C x \\
0 & =u(L)=\int_{0}^{L} \int_{0}^{\xi} g(s) d s d \xi+C L \\
0 & =u(L / 3)=\int_{0}^{\frac{L}{3}} \int_{0}^{\xi} g(s) d s d \xi+\frac{C L}{3}
\end{align*}
$$

$\circledast$ and $\odot$ are the conditions on $g$.

## 10 Dominant Balance

Problem ( $\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{9 0}, \# 4$ ). Use the method of dominant balance to find the asymptotic behavior at $t=\infty$ for solutions of the equation

$$
f_{t t}+t^{3} f_{t}^{2}-4 f=0
$$

Proof. Assume $f=c t^{n}$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, where need to find $n$ and $c$. Then

$$
\begin{array}{r}
n(n-1) c t^{n-2}+n^{2} c^{2} t^{3} t^{2 n-2}-4 c t^{n}=0 \\
n(n-1) c t^{n-2}+n^{2} c^{2} t^{2 n+1}-4 c t^{n}=0 .
\end{array}
$$

The $2^{\text {nd }}$ and the $3^{\text {rd }}$ terms are dominant. In order to satisfy the ODE for $t \rightarrow \infty$, set

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 n+1=n & \Rightarrow n=-1, \\
n^{2} c^{2}=4 c & \Rightarrow c^{2}-4 c=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad c=4 . \\
f \sim 4 t^{-1}, & \text { as } t \rightarrow \infty .
\end{aligned}
$$

Problem (S'91, \#3). Find the large time behavior for solutions of the equation

$$
\frac{d^{2}}{d t^{2}} f+\frac{d}{d t} f+f^{3}=0
$$

using the method of dominant balance.

Proof. ${ }^{23}$ Assume $f=c t^{n}$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, where need to find $n$ and $c$. Then

$$
n(n-1) c t^{n-2}+n c t^{n-1}+c^{3} t^{3 n}=0
$$

The $2^{\text {nd }}$ and the $3^{\text {rd }}$ terms are dominant. In order to satisfy the ODE for $t \rightarrow \infty$, set

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n-1=3 n \Rightarrow n=-\frac{1}{2}, \\
& n c+c^{3}=0 \Rightarrow-\frac{1}{2} c+c^{3}=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad c= \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} . \\
& f \sim \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} t^{-\frac{1}{2}}, \quad \text { as } t \rightarrow \infty .
\end{aligned}
$$

[^15]
## 11 Perturbation Theory

Problem (F'89, \#5a). Solve the following ODE for $u(x)$ by perturbation theory

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
u_{x x}=\varepsilon u^{2} \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1  \tag{11.1}\\
u(0)=0, \quad u(1)=1
\end{array}\right.
$$

for small $\varepsilon$. In particular, find the first two terms of $u$ as an expansion in powers of the parameter $\varepsilon$.

Proof. We write $u=u_{0}(x)+\varepsilon u_{1}(x)+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)$ as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ and find the first two terms $u_{0}$ and $u_{1}$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
u & =u_{0}+\varepsilon u_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right) \\
u^{2} & =\left(u_{0}+\varepsilon u_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)\right)^{2}=u_{0}^{2}+2 \varepsilon u_{0} u_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Plugging this into (11.1), we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u_{0 x x}+\varepsilon u_{1 x x}+O\left(\epsilon^{2}\right)=\varepsilon\left(u_{0}^{2}+2 \varepsilon u_{0} u_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)\right) \\
& u_{0 x x}+\varepsilon u_{1 x x}+O\left(\epsilon^{2}\right)=\varepsilon u_{0}^{2}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$O(1)$ terms:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u_{0 x x}=0 \\
& u_{0}=c_{0} x+c_{1} \\
& u_{0}(0)=c_{1}=0 \\
& u_{0}(1)=c_{0}=1 \\
& \bullet u_{0}=x
\end{aligned}
$$

$O(\varepsilon)$ terms:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \varepsilon u_{1 x x}=\varepsilon u_{0}^{2}, \\
& u_{1 x x}=u_{0}^{2}, \\
& u_{1 x x}=x^{2}, \\
& u_{1}=\frac{x^{4}}{12}+c_{2} x+c_{3}, \\
& u_{1}(0)=c_{3}=0, \\
& u_{1}(1)=\frac{1}{12}+c_{2}=0 \Rightarrow c_{2}=-\frac{1}{12}, \\
& \bullet u_{1}=\frac{x^{4}}{12}-\frac{1}{12} x . \\
& u(x)=x+\varepsilon\left(\frac{x^{4}}{12}-\frac{1}{12} x\right)+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right) . \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
$$

Problem (F'89, \#5b). For the differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{x x}=u^{2}+x^{3} u^{3} \tag{11.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

look for any solution which are bounded for $x$ near $+\infty$. Determine the behavior u for $x$ near $+\infty$ for any such solutions.
Hint: Look for the dominant behavior of $u$ to be in the form $x^{-n}$.

Proof. Let $u=c x^{-n}$. Plugging this into (11.2), we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
-n(-n-1) c x^{-n-2} & =c^{2} x^{-2 n}+c^{3} x^{3} x^{-3 n} \\
n(n+1) c x^{-n-2} & =c^{2} x^{-2 n}+c^{3} x^{3-3 n}
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the method of dominant balance, we want to cancel two terms such that the third term is 0 at $+\infty$ compared to the other two. Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -n-2=3-3 n, \\
& \text { - } n=\frac{5}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Also,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{5}{2}\left(\frac{5}{2}+1\right) c=c^{3}, \\
& \text { - } c= \pm \frac{\sqrt{35}}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
u(x)= \pm \frac{\sqrt{35}}{2} x^{-\frac{5}{2}}
$$

Problem ( $\mathbf{F}^{\prime} \mathbf{0 3}, \mathbf{\# 6}$ ). For the cubic equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon^{3} x^{3}-2 \varepsilon x^{2}+2 x-6=0 \tag{11.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

write the solutions $x$ in the asymptotic expansion $x=x_{0}+\varepsilon x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)$ as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.
Find the first two terms $x_{0}$ and $x_{1}$ for all solutions $x$.
Proof. As $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
x & =x_{0}+\epsilon x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right), \\
x^{2} & =\left(x_{0}+\varepsilon x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)\right)^{2}=x_{0}^{2}+2 \varepsilon x_{0} x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right), \\
x^{3} & =\left(x_{0}+\varepsilon x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)\right)^{3}=\left(x_{0}^{2}+2 \varepsilon x_{0} x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)\right)\left(x_{0}+\varepsilon x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)\right) \\
& =x_{0}^{3}+3 \varepsilon x_{0}^{2} x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Plugging this into (11.3), we obtain
$\varepsilon^{3}\left(x_{0}^{3}+3 \varepsilon x_{0}^{2} x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)\right)-2 \varepsilon\left(x_{0}^{2}+2 \varepsilon x_{0} x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)\right)+2\left(x_{0}+\varepsilon x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)\right)-6=0$.
As $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, we ignore the $O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)$ terms:

$$
\begin{align*}
& -2 \varepsilon x_{0}^{2}-O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)+2 x_{0}+2 \varepsilon x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)-6=0, \\
& -\varepsilon x_{0}^{2}+x_{0}+\varepsilon x_{1}-3+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)=0 . \tag{11.4}
\end{align*}
$$

As $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0,-\varepsilon x_{0}^{2}+x_{0}+\varepsilon x_{1}-3+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right) \rightarrow x_{0}-3=0$. Thus, $x_{0}=3$.
Plugging this value of $x_{0}$ into (11.4), we obtain

$$
\begin{array}{r}
-9 \varepsilon+3+\varepsilon x_{1}-3+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)=0 \\
-9 \varepsilon+\varepsilon x_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)=0 \\
x_{2}=9
\end{array}
$$

$$
x=3+9 \varepsilon+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right) .
$$

Problem (F'03, \#6b). For the ODE

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
u_{t}=u-\varepsilon u^{3}  \tag{11.5}\\
u(0)=1
\end{array}\right.
$$

write $u=u_{0}(t)+\varepsilon u_{1}(t)+\varepsilon^{2} u_{2}(t)+O\left(\varepsilon^{3}\right)$ as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$. Find the first three terms $u_{0}, u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$.
Proof. We have $u=u_{0}+\varepsilon u_{1}+\varepsilon^{2} u_{2}+O\left(\varepsilon^{3}\right)$ as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.

$$
u^{3}=\left(u_{0}+\varepsilon u_{1}+\varepsilon^{2} u_{2}+O\left(\varepsilon^{3}\right)\right)^{3}=u_{0}^{3}+3 \varepsilon u_{0}^{2} u_{1}+3 \varepsilon^{2} u_{0}^{2} u_{2}+3 \varepsilon^{2} u_{0} u_{1}^{2}+O\left(\varepsilon^{3}\right) .
$$

Plugging this into (11.5), we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad u_{0 t}+\varepsilon u_{1 t}+\varepsilon^{2} u_{2 t}+O\left(\epsilon^{3}\right) \\
& \quad=u_{0}+\varepsilon u_{1}+\varepsilon^{2} u_{2}+O\left(\varepsilon^{3}\right)-\varepsilon\left(u_{0}^{3}+3 \varepsilon u_{0}^{2} u_{1}+3 \varepsilon^{2} u_{0}^{2} u_{2}+3 \varepsilon^{2} u_{0} u_{1}^{2}+O\left(\varepsilon^{3}\right)\right), \\
& u_{0 t}+\varepsilon u_{1 t}+\varepsilon^{2} u_{2 t}+O\left(\epsilon^{3}\right)=u_{0}+\varepsilon u_{1}+\varepsilon^{2} u_{2}-\varepsilon u_{0}^{3}-3 \varepsilon^{2} u_{0}^{2} u_{1}+O\left(\varepsilon^{3}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

$O(1)$ terms:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u_{0 t}=u_{0} \\
& \bullet \cdot u_{0}=c_{0} e^{t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$O(\varepsilon)$ terms:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \varepsilon u_{1 t}=\varepsilon u_{1}-\varepsilon u_{0}^{3}, \\
& u_{1 t}=u_{1}-u_{0}^{3}, \\
& u_{1 t}-u_{1}=-c_{0}^{3} e^{3 t}, \\
& \text { - } u_{1}=c_{1} e^{t}-\frac{1}{2} c_{0}^{3} e^{3 t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)$ terms: ${ }^{24}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \varepsilon^{2} u_{2 t}=\varepsilon^{2} u_{2}-3 \varepsilon^{2} u_{0}^{2} u_{1}, \\
& u_{2 t}=u_{2}-3 u_{0}^{2} u_{1}, \\
& u_{2 t}-u_{2}=-3 c_{0}^{2} e^{2 t}\left(c_{1} e^{t}-\frac{1}{2} c_{0}^{3} e^{3 t}\right), \\
& u_{2 t}-u_{2}=-3 c_{0}^{2} c_{1} e^{t} e^{2 t}+\frac{3}{2} c_{0}^{5} e^{2 t} e^{3 t}, \\
& \text { - } u_{2}=c_{2} e^{t}-\frac{3}{2} c_{0}^{2} c_{1} e^{t} e^{2 t}+\frac{3}{8} c_{0}^{5} e^{2 t} e^{3 t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
u(t)=c_{0} e^{t}+\varepsilon\left(c_{1} e^{t}-\frac{1}{2} c_{0}^{3} e^{3 t}\right)+\varepsilon^{2}\left(c_{2} e^{t}-\frac{3}{2} c_{0}^{2} c_{1} e^{t} e^{2 t}+\frac{3}{8} c_{0}^{5} e^{2 t} e^{3 t}\right)+O\left(\varepsilon^{3}\right)
$$

Initial condition gives

$$
u(0)=c_{0}+\varepsilon\left(c_{1}-\frac{1}{2} c_{0}^{3}\right)+\varepsilon^{2}\left(c_{2}-\frac{3}{2} c_{0}^{2} c_{1}+\frac{3}{8} c_{0}^{5}\right)+O\left(\varepsilon^{3}\right)=1 .
$$

Thus, $c_{0}=1, \quad c_{1}=\frac{1}{2}, \quad c_{2}=\frac{3}{8}$, and

$$
u(t)=e^{t}+\varepsilon \frac{1}{2}\left(e^{t}-e^{3 t}\right)+\varepsilon^{2}\left(\frac{3}{8} e^{t}-\frac{3}{4} e^{t} e^{2 t}+\frac{3}{8} e^{2 t} e^{3 t}\right)+O\left(\varepsilon^{3}\right) .
$$

[^16]
[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Note that $H$ does not necessarily mean that it is a Hamiltonian.
    ${ }^{2}$ See S'98 \#1a.

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ Gronwall (Differential) Inequality: $v(t)$ piecewise continuous on $t_{0} \leq t \leq t_{0}+a$. $u(t)$ and $\frac{d u}{d t}$ continuous on some interval. If

    $$
    \begin{aligned}
    & \frac{d u}{d t} \leq v(t) u(t) \\
    & \Rightarrow \quad u(t) \leq u\left(t_{0}\right) e^{\int_{t_{0}}^{t} v(s) d s}
    \end{aligned}
    $$

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ See the example in 'Invariant Sets and Stability' section.

[^3]:    ${ }^{5}$ Brauer, Nohel, Theorem 5.5, p. 214.

[^4]:    ${ }^{6}$ Bleecker and Csordas, Theorem 1, p. 260.
    ${ }^{7}$ Bleecker and Csordas, Theorem 2, p. 260.

[^5]:    ${ }^{8}$ Haberman, edition 4, Theorem 4, p. 163.

[^6]:    ${ }^{9}$ Haberman, p. 176.
    ${ }^{10}$ Bleecker and Csordas, p. 264.

[^7]:    ${ }^{11}$ ChiuYen's solutions list $G\left(x, t ; x_{0}, t_{0}\right)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\pi} \sin \frac{n x_{0}}{2} e^{-\left(\frac{n^{4}}{16}+c\right)\left(t-\mathbf{t}_{0}\right)} \sin \frac{n x}{2}$. Similar result may be found in Haberman, p. 383.

[^8]:    ${ }^{12}$ Bleecker and Csordas, p. 266.
    ${ }^{13}$ Bleecker and Csordas, Theorem 5, p. 267.
    ${ }^{14}$ Note an important identity:

    $$
    y_{n}\left(p y_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-y_{m}\left(p y_{n}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\left[p\left(y_{n} y_{m}^{\prime}-y_{m} y_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right]^{\prime}
    $$

[^9]:    ${ }^{15}$ Haberman, edition 4, p. 178.

[^10]:    ${ }^{16}$ Haberman, edition 4, p. 179.
    ${ }^{17}$ Bleecker and Csordas, Theorem 3, p. 265.

[^11]:    ${ }^{18}$ Haberman, edition 4, Theorem 6, p. 189.

[^12]:    ${ }^{19}$ Bleecker and Csordas, p. 267, p. 274.

[^13]:    ${ }^{20}$ See similar Poincare Inequality PDE problem.

[^14]:    ${ }^{21}$ Note that $p_{+}$and $p_{-}$are defined by

    $$
    p_{+}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
    p(x) & \text { for } p(x) \geq 0 \\
    0 & \text { for } p(x)<0,
    \end{array} \quad p_{-}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
    0 & \text { for } p(x) \geq 0 \\
    |p(x)| & \text { for } p(x)<0
    \end{array}\right.\right.
    $$

[^15]:    ${ }^{23}$ ChiuYen's solutions show a different approach, but they are wrong.

[^16]:    ${ }^{24}$ Solutions to ODEs in $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$ are obtained by adding homogeneous and particular solutions.

