1. (Quadrature Equation)

Solve for the general solution \( y(x) \) in the equation

\[
y' = 2 \cot x + \frac{1250x^3}{1 + 25x^2} + x \ln(1 + x^2).
\]

[The required integration talent includes basic formulae, integration by parts, substitution and college algebra.]

---

Answer:

\[
y = 2 \ln \left( \sin x \right) + \frac{49}{2} x^2 \ln \left( 1 + 25x^2 \right) + 1/2 \left( 1 + x^2 \right) \ln \left( 1 + x^2 \right) - 1/2 + C
\]

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2. (Separable Equation Test)

The problem \( y' = f(x, y) \) is said to be separable provided \( f(x, y) = F(x)G(y) \) for some functions \( F \) and \( G \).

(a) [75%] Check the problems that can be put into separable form, but don’t supply any details.

- \( y' = -y(2xy + 1) + (2x + 3)y^2 \)
- \( yy' = xy^2 + 5x^2y \)
- \( y' = e^{x+y} + e^y \)
- \( 3y' + 5y = 10y^2 \)

(b) [25%] State a test which can verify that an equation is not separable. Apply the test to verify that \( y' = x + \sqrt{|xy|} \) is not separable.
Answer:
(a) \( y' = xy^2 + 5x^2y \) is not separable, but the other three are separable.
(b) Test: \( f_y/f \) not independent of \( x \) implies not separable.
If the equation is separable for all allowed \( x \) and \( y \), then it is separable on a smaller domain. Let \( f = x + \sqrt{|xy|} \) and assume \( x > 0 \) and \( y > 0 \). Then \( f = x + \sqrt{xy} = \sqrt{x\sqrt{y}} \).
We have \( f_y = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{x}/\sqrt{y} \) and \( f_y/f = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{x}/(x\sqrt{y} + y\sqrt{x}) \). When \( y = 1 \), then this fraction depends on \( x \), so the DE is not separable.

3. (Solve a Separable Equation)

Given \( y^2 y' = \frac{2x^2 + 3x}{1 + x^2} \left( \frac{125}{64} - y^3 \right) \).
(a) Find all equilibrium solutions.
(b) Find the non-equilibrium solution in implicit form.
To save time, do not solve for \( y \) explicitly.

Answer:
(a) \( y = 5/4 \)
(b) \[-\frac{1}{3} \ln |125 - 64y^3| = 2x + \frac{3}{2} \ln(1 + x^2) - 2 \arctan(x) + c\]

4. (Linear Equations)

(a) [60%] Solve \( 2v'(t) = -32 + \frac{2}{3t + 1}v(t) \), \( v(0) = -8 \). Show all integrating factor steps.
(b) [30%] Solve \( 2\sqrt{x} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} = y \), using the homogeneous equation shortcut. The answer contains symbol \( c \).
(c) [10%] The problem \( 2\sqrt{x} + 2 y' = y - 5 \) can be solved by shortcut using the answer \( y_h \) from part (b) plus superposition \( y = y_h + y_p \). Find \( y_p \). Hint: If you cannot write the answer for \( y_p \) in a few seconds, then return here after finishing all problems on the exam.

Answer:
(a) \( v(t) = -24t - 8 \)
(b) \( y(x) = Ce^{\sqrt{x+2}} \)

5. (Stability)

(a) [50%] Draw a phase line diagram for the differential equation
\[
dx/dt = 1000 \left( 2 - \sqrt[3]{x} \right)^3 (2 + 3x)(9x^2 - 4)^8.
\]
Expected in the diagram are equilibrium points and signs of $x'$ (or flow direction markers $<$ and $>$).

(b) [40%] Draw a phase portrait using the phase line diagram of (a). Add these labels as appropriate: funnel, spout, node, source, sink, stable, unstable. Show at least 8 threaded curves. A direction field is not expected or required.

(c) [10%] Outline how to solve for non-equilibrium solutions, without doing any integrations or long details. This is a paragraph of text, with only a few equations.

Answer:
(a) and (b) See a handwritten exam solution for a similar problem on midterm 1.
(c) Put the DE into the form $y'/G(y) = F(x)$ and then apply the method of quadrature.

6. (ch3)
(a) Solve for the general solutions:

(a.1) [25%] $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$ ,

(a.2) [25%] $6^6y + 4 \frac{d^4y}{dx^4} = 0$ ,

(a.3) [25%] Char. eq. $r(r - 3)(r^3 - 9r)^2(r^2 + 4)^3 = 0$ .

(b) Given $6x''(t) + 7x'(t) + 2x(t) = 0$, which represents a damped spring-mass system with $m = 6, c = 7, k = 2$, solve the differential equation [15%] and classify the answer as over-damped, critically damped or under-damped [5%]. Illustrate in a physical model drawing the meaning of constants $m, c, k$ [5%].

Answer:
(a) 1: $r^2 + 4r + 4 = 0$, $y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2$, $y_1 = e^{-2x}$, $y_2 = xe^{-2x}$.
2: $r^6 + 4r^2 = 0$, roots $r = 0, 2i, -2i$. Then $y = c_1e^{0x} + c_2xe^{0x} + c_3\cos 2x + c_4 \sin 2x$.
3: Write as $r^3(r - 3)^3(r + 3)^2(r^2 + 4)^3 = 0$. Then $y$ is a linear combination of the atoms $1, x, x^2, e^{3x}, xe^{3x}, x^2e^{3x}, e^{-3x}, xe^{-3x}, \cos 2x, \cos 2x, x \cos 2x, x^2 \cos 2x, \sin 2x, x \sin 2x, x^2 \sin 2x$.
Part (b)
Use $6r^2 + 7r + 2 = 0$ and the quadratic formula to obtain roots $r = -1/2, -2/3$. Then $x(t) = c_1e^{-t/2} + c_2e^{-2t/3}$. This is over-damped. The illustration shows a spring, dampener and mass with labels $k, c, m, x$ and the equilibrium position of the mass.

7. (ch3)
Determine for $\frac{d^6y}{dx^6} + 4 \frac{d^4y}{dx^4} = x + 2x^2 + x^3 + e^{-x} + x \sin x$ the shortest trial solution for $y_p$ according to the method of undetermined coefficients. Do not evaluate the undetermined coefficients!
The homogeneous solution is a linear combination of the atoms \( x, x^2, x^3, \cos x, \sin x \) because the characteristic polynomial has roots 0, 0, 0, 0, \( i, -i \).

An initial trial solution \( y \) is constructed by Rule I for atoms \( x, e^{3x}, e^{-3x}, \cos x, \sin x \) giving

\[
\begin{align*}
  y &= y_1 + y_2 + y_3 + y_4, \\
  y_1 &= d_1 + d_2x + d_3x^2 + d_4x^3, \\
  y_2 &= d_5 \cos x + d_6 x \cos x, \\
  y_3 &= d_7 \sin x + d_8 x \sin x, \\
  y_4 &= d_9 e^{-x}.
\end{align*}
\]

Linear combinations of the listed independent atoms are supposed to reproduce, by specialization of constants, all derivatives of the right side of the differential equation.

Rule II is applied individually to each of \( y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4 \). The result is the shortest trial solution

\[
\begin{align*}
  y &= y_1 + y_2 + y_3 + y_4, \\
  y_1 &= d_1 x^4 + d_2 x^5 + d_3 x^6 + d_4 x^7, \\
  y_2 &= d_5 x \cos x + d_6 x^2 \cos x, \\
  y_3 &= d_7 x \sin x + d_8 x^2 \sin x, \\
  y_4 &= d_9 e^{-x}.
\end{align*}
\]

8. (ch3)

(a) [50%] Find by undetermined coefficients the steady-state periodic solution for the equation \( x'' + 4x' + 6x = 10 \cos(2t) \).

(b) [50%] Find by variation of parameters a particular solution \( y_p \) for the equation \( y'' + 3y' + 2y = xe^{2x} \).

This instance has integration difficulties, therefore it is for a practise exam only. See Midterm 3 for an exam problem, required less integration effort.

Answer:

(a) Undetermined coefficients for \( x'' + 4x' + 6x = 10 \cos(2t) \).

We solve \( x'' + 4x' + 6x = 0 \). The characteristic equation roots are \( -2 \pm \sqrt{2}i \) and the atoms are \( x_1 = e^{-2t} \cos \sqrt{2}t, x_2 = e^{-2t} \sin \sqrt{2}t \).

The trial solution is computed from \( f = 10 \cos 2t \). We find all atoms in the derivative list \( f, f', f'' \ldots \), then take a linear combination to form the trial solution \( x = d_1 \cos 2t + d_2 \sin 2t \). No corrections are needed, because none of these terms are solutions of the homogeneous equation \( x'' + 4x' + 6x = 0 \).

Substitute the trial solution to obtain the answers \( d_1 = 5/17, d_2 = 20/17 \). Cramer’s rule was used to solve for the unknowns \( d_1, d_2 \).

The unique periodic solution \( x_{SS} \) is extracted from the general solution \( x = x_h + x_p \) by crossing out all negative exponential terms (terms which limit to zero at infinity). Because
\( x_h(t) \) contains atoms \( x_1, x_2 \) (see above) containing a negative exponential factor, then the steady state solution is

\[
x_{ss} = \frac{5}{17} \cos 2t + \frac{20}{17} \sin 2t.
\]

(b) Variation of parameters for \( y'' + 3y' + 2y = xe^{2x} \).

We solve \( y'' + 3y' + 2y = 0 \). The characteristic equation roots are \(-2, -1\) and the atoms are

\[
y_1 = e^{-2x}, \quad y_2 = e^{-x}.
\]

Compute the Wronskian \( W = y_1y_2' - y_1'y_2 = e^{-x} \). Then for \( f(x) = xe^{2x} \),

\[
y_p(x) = \left( \int y_2 \frac{-f}{W} \, dx \right) y_1(x) + \left( \int y_1 \frac{f}{W} \, dx \right) y_2(x).
\]

Substitution of \( y_1, y_2, W, f \) gives

\[
y_p(x) = \left( \int e^{-x} \frac{-xe^{2x}}{e^{-3x}} \, dx \right) y_1(x) + \left( \int e^{-2x} \frac{xe^{2x}}{e^{-3x}} \, dx \right) y_2(x) = -\frac{7e^{2x}}{144} + \frac{xe^{2x}}{12}.
\]

9. (ch5)

The eigenanalysis method says that the system \( \vec{x}' = A\vec{x} \) has general solution \( \vec{x}(t) = c_1\vec{v}_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} + c_2\vec{v}_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} + c_3\vec{v}_3 e^{\lambda_3 t} \). In the solution formula, \((\lambda_i, \vec{v}_i), i = 1, 2, 3\), is an eigenpair of \( A \). Given

\[
A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix},
\]

then

(a) [75%] Display eigenanalysis details for \( A \).

(b) [25%] Display the solution \( \vec{x}(t) \) of \( \vec{x}'(t) = A\vec{x}(t) \).

---

Answer:

(1): The eigenpairs are

\[
\begin{pmatrix} 4, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 6, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 7, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}.
\]

An expected detail is the cofactor expansion of \( \det(A - \lambda I) \) and factoring to find eigenvalues 4, 6, 7. Eigenvectors should be found by a sequence of swap, combo, mult operations on the augmented matrix, followed by taking the partial \( \partial_{t_1} \) on invented symbol \( t_1 \) in the general solution to compute the eigenvector. In short, the eigenvectors are Strang’s Special Solutions, and in general there can be many eigenvectors for a single eigenvalue.

(2): The eigenanalysis method for \( \vec{x}' = A\vec{x} \) implies

\[
\vec{x}(t) = c_1 e^{t_1} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + c_2 e^{6t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + c_3 e^{7t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.
\]
10. (ch5)

(a) [20%] Find the eigenvalues of the matrix
\[ A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}. \]

(b) [40%] Putzer’s Method removed from the final exam.

(c) [40%] Display the general solution of \( \vec{u}' = A\vec{u} \) according to the Cayley-Hamilton-Ziebur Method. In particular, display the equations that determine the three vectors in the general solution. To save time, don’t solve for the three vectors in the formula.

(d) [40%] Display the general solution of \( \vec{u}' = A\vec{u} \) according to the Eigenanalysis Method. To save time, find one eigenpair explicitly, just to show how it is done, but don’t solve for the last two eigenpairs.

(e) [40%] Display the general solution of \( \vec{u}' = A\vec{u} \) according to Laplace’s Method. To save time, use symbols for partial fraction constants and leave the symbols unevaluated.

Answer:
(a) Eigenvalue Calculation
Subtract \( \lambda \) from the diagonal elements of \( A \) to obtain matrix \( B = A - \lambda I \), then expand \( \det(B) \) by cofactors to obtain the characteristic polynomial. The roots are the eigenvalues \( \lambda = 2, 3, 5 \).

(c) Cayley-Hamilton-Ziebur Method
The eigenvalues 2, 3, 5 from (a) are used to create the list of atoms \( e^{2t}, e^{3t}, e^{5t} \). Then the Cayley-Hamilton-Ziebur method implies there are constant vectors \( \vec{d}_1, \vec{d}_2, \vec{d}_3 \) which depend on \( \vec{u}(0) \) and \( A \) such that
\[ \vec{u}(t) = e^{2t}\vec{d}_1 + e^{3t}\vec{d}_2 + e^{5t}\vec{d}_3. \]

It is known for the case of distinct eigenvalues that vectors \( \vec{d}_j \) are eigenvectors of \( A \) multiplied by arbitrary constants \( c_1, c_2, c_3 \), respectively. Discussed below is how to solve for the unknown vectors without eigenanalysis.

The determining equations are formed from differentiation of this formula two times, then replace \( \vec{u}' = A\vec{u}, \vec{u}'' = A\vec{u}' = AA\vec{u} \). Finally, remove \( t \) from the three equations by setting \( t = 0 \), and define \( \vec{u}_0 = \vec{u}(0) \). Then the three equations are, with \( \vec{u}_0 = \vec{u}(0) \),
\[ \begin{align*}
\vec{u}_0 &= \vec{d}_1 + \vec{d}_2 + \vec{d}_3 \\
A\vec{u}_0 &= 2\vec{d}_1 + 3\vec{d}_2 + 5\vec{d}_3 \\
A^2\vec{u}_0 &= 4\vec{d}_1 + 9\vec{d}_2 + 25\vec{d}_3
\end{align*} \]

This ends the solution to the problem. We continue just to illustrate how the unknown
vectors are found directly, without eigenanalysis. The matrix of coefficients

\[ C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 \\ 4 & 9 & 25 \end{pmatrix} \]

and its transpose matrix \( B = C^T \) give a formal relation

\[ \langle \vec{u}_0 | A \vec{u}_0 | A^2 \vec{u}_0 \rangle = \langle \vec{d}_1 | \vec{d}_2 | \vec{d}_3 \rangle B. \]

Multiplying this relation by \( B^{-1} \) gives

\[ \langle \vec{d}_1 | \vec{d}_2 | \vec{d}_3 \rangle = \langle \vec{u}_0 | A \vec{u}_0 | A^2 \vec{u}_0 \rangle B^{-1}. \]

Then disassembling the formal matrix multiply implies

\[ \vec{d}_1 = 5\vec{u}_0 - \frac{8}{3} A\vec{u}_0 + \frac{1}{3} A^2 \vec{u}_0, \]
\[ \vec{d}_2 = -5\vec{u}_0 + \frac{7}{2} A\vec{u}_0 - \frac{1}{2} A^2 \vec{u}_0, \]
\[ \vec{d}_3 = 5\vec{u}_0 - \frac{5}{6} A\vec{u}_0 + \frac{1}{6} A^2 \vec{u}_0. \]

The matrix of coefficients is

\[ \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -\frac{8}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ -5 & \frac{7}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & -\frac{5}{6} & \frac{1}{6} \end{pmatrix} = (B^{-1})^T = C^{-1}. \]

This fact, that solving for \( \vec{d}_1, \vec{d}_2, \vec{d}_3 \) in the displayed equations reduces to inverting the matrix of coefficients, can be used as a shortcut in the Cayley-Hamilton-Ziebur method.

(d) Eigenanalysis Method

For matrix

\[ A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \]

the eigenpairs are computed to be

\[ \begin{pmatrix} 2, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 5, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}. \]

Then \( \vec{u}' = A\vec{u} \) has general solution

\[ \vec{u}(t) = c_1 e^{2t} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + c_2 e^{3t} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + c_3 e^{5t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \]

(e) Laplace’s Method

The start is the Laplace resolvent formula for matrix differential equation \( \vec{u}' = A\vec{u} \).

\[ (sI - A) \mathcal{L}(\vec{u}) = \vec{u}_0. \]
This formula expands to
\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  s - 4 & -1 & 1 \\
  -1 & s - 4 & 2 \\
  0 & 0 & s - 2
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
  \mathcal{L}(x) \\
  \mathcal{L}(y) \\
  \mathcal{L}(z)
\end{pmatrix}
= \begin{pmatrix}
  a \\
  b \\
  c
\end{pmatrix}
\]
where symbols \(a, b, c\) are arbitrary constants for the initial data \(\vec{u}_0\). Let \(W\) denote the coefficient matrix. Then the inverse of \(W\) can be computed using the adjugate formula
\[
W^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj}(W)}{\det(W)}.
\]
The answer for the inverse is
\[
W^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix}
  \frac{1}{(s - 5)(s - 2)(s - 3)} \left( \begin{array}{ccc}
  s^2 - 6s + 8 & s - 2 & -s + 2 \\
  s - 2 & s^2 - 6s + 8 & -2s + 7 \\
  0 & 0 & s^2 - 8s + 15
\end{array} \right)
\end{pmatrix}
\]
True, this formula can be derived and then followed by inverse Laplace methods to obtain an answer in variable \(t\). However, we already know the outcome, because this matrix is the Laplace of the exponential matrix \(e^{At}\). The exponential matrix formula was already derived in (b) above. Expanding the matrix multiplies and collecting terms gives the final answer
\[
W^{-1} = \mathcal{L}(e^{At}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L} \begin{pmatrix}
  e^{5t} + e^{3t} & e^{5t} - e^{3t} & -e^{5t} + e^{3t} \\
  e^{5t} - e^{3t} & e^{5t} + e^{3t} & -e^{5t} + 2e^{2t} - e^{3t} \\
  0 & 0 & 2e^{2t}
\end{pmatrix}
\]
Canceling the \(\mathcal{L}\) with Lerch’s Theorem implies the same answer as found in part (b), which is
\[
\vec{u}(t) = e^{At} \begin{pmatrix}
  a \\
  b \\
  c
\end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix}
  e^{5t} + e^{3t} & e^{5t} - e^{3t} & -e^{5t} + e^{3t} \\
  e^{5t} - e^{3t} & e^{5t} + e^{3t} & -e^{5t} + 2e^{2t} - e^{3t} \\
  0 & 0 & 2e^{2t}
\end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix}
  a \\
  b \\
  c
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

11. (ch5) Do enough to make 100%
(a) [50%] The eigenvalues are 4, 6 for the matrix \(A = \begin{pmatrix}
  5 & 1 \\
  1 & 5
\end{pmatrix}\).
Display the general solution of \(\vec{u}' = A\vec{u}\). Show details from either the eigenanalysis method or the Laplace method.
(b) [50%] Using the same matrix \(A\) from part (a), display the solution of \(\vec{u}' = A\vec{u}\) according to the Cayley-Hamilton-Ziebur Method. To save time, write out the system to be solved for the two vectors, and then stop, without solving for the vectors.
(c) [50%] Using the same matrix \(A\) from part (a), compute the exponential matrix \(e^{At}\) by any known method, for example, the formula \(e^{At} = \Phi(t)\Phi^{-1}(0)\) where \(\Phi(t)\) is any fundamental matrix, or via Putzer’s 2 × 2 formula.
Answer:
(a) Eigenanalysis method

The eigenpairs of $A$ are

\[
\begin{pmatrix} 4, \left( \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ -1 \end{array} \right) \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 6, \left( \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 1 \end{array} \right) \end{pmatrix}
\]

which implies the eigenanalysis general solution

\[ \tilde{u}(t) = c_1 e^{4t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + c_2 e^{6t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \]

(b) Cayley-Hamilton-Ziebur method

Then $\tilde{u}(t) = e^{4t} \tilde{c}_1 + e^{6t} \tilde{c}_2$ for some constant vectors $\tilde{c}_1, \tilde{c}_2$ that depend on $\tilde{u}(0)$ and $A$. Differentiate this equation once and use $\tilde{u}' = A \tilde{u}$, then set $t = 0$. The resulting system is

\[
\begin{align*}
\tilde{u}_0 &= e^0 \tilde{c}_1 + e^0 \tilde{c}_2 \\
A \tilde{u}_0 &= 4e^0 \tilde{c}_1 + 6e^0 \tilde{c}_2
\end{align*}
\]

The CHZ Shortcut writes $x(t) = c_1 e^{4t} + c_2 e^{6t}$, then solve the first differential equation $x' = 5x + y$ for $y = x' - 5x$ and substitute the expression for $x(t)$ to obtain $y = 4c_1 e^{4t} + 6c_2 e^{6t} - 5c_1 e^{4t} - 5c_2 e^{6t} = -c_1 e^{4t} + c_2 e^{6t}$.

(c) Putzer Method (not required, course enrichment)

The result is $e^{At} = e^{At}I + e^{At} - e^{At} = 4 \begin{pmatrix} e^{4t} + e^{6t} \\ e^{6t} - e^{4t} \end{pmatrix}$. Functions $r_1, r_2$ are computed from $r_1' = 4r_1, r_1(0) = 1, r_2' = 6r_2 + r_1, r_2(0) = 0$.

\[
e^{At} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} e^{4t} + e^{6t} & e^{6t} - e^{4t} \\ e^{6t} - e^{4t} & e^{4t} + e^{6t} \end{pmatrix}.
\]

Alternatively, the Putzer formula can be memorized for $2 \times 2$ matrices, which shortens the details considerably:

\[
e^{At} = e^{\lambda_1 t} I + \frac{e^{\lambda_1 t} - e^{\lambda_2 t}}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} (A - \lambda_1 I) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} e^{4t} + e^{6t} & e^{6t} - e^{4t} \\ e^{6t} - e^{4t} & e^{4t} + e^{6t} \end{pmatrix}.
\]

12. (ch5) Do both

(a) [50%] Display the solution of $\tilde{u}' = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \tilde{u}$, $\tilde{u}(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, using any method that applies. The expected answer is $\Phi(t) \tilde{u}(0)$, where $\Phi$ is a fundamental matrix.

(b) [50%] Display the variation of parameters formula for the system below. Then integrate to find $\bar{u}_p(t)$ for $\bar{u}' = A \bar{u}$.

\[
\bar{u}' = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \bar{u} + \begin{pmatrix} e^{2t} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.
\]
(a) Resolvent method
The resolvent equation \((sI - A)\mathcal{L}(\vec{u}) = \vec{u}(0)\) is the system
\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  s - 2 & 0 \\
  -1 & s - 2
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
  \mathcal{L}(x) \\
  \mathcal{L}(y)
\end{pmatrix}
= 
\begin{pmatrix}
  0 \\
  1
\end{pmatrix}.
\]
The system is solved by Cramer’s rule for unknowns \(\mathcal{L}(x), \mathcal{L}(y)\) to obtain
\[
\mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{0}{(s - 2)^2}, \quad \mathcal{L}(y) = \frac{s - 2}{(s - 2)^2}.
\]
The backward Laplace table implies
\[
x(t) = 0, \quad y(t) = e^{2t}.
\]

Eigenanalysis Method. It fails to apply because the matrix is not diagonalizable (has only one eigenpair, not two).

Integrating Factor method, Ch1. Look at the equations as scalar equations \(x' = 2x, \quad x(0) = 0\) and \(y' = x + 2y, \quad y(0) = 1\). Picard says \(x(t) = 0\) and then \(y' = 0 + 2y, \quad y(0) = 1\) implies \(y(t) = e^{2t}\).

Cayley-Hamilton-Ziebur Shortcut. The eigenvalues are 2, 2 and the atoms are \(e^{2t}, te^{2t}\). Write \(y = c_1e^{2t} + c_2te^{2t}\). Use the second differential equation \(y' = x + 2y\) to solve for \(x = y' - 2y = 2c_1e^{2t} + 2tc_2e^{2t} + c_2e^{2t} - 2c_1e^{2t} - 2c_2te^{2t}\). Reduce it to \(x = c_2e^{2t}\).

Now use \(x(0) = 0, \quad y(0) = 1\) to determine \(c_2 = 0, \quad c_2 = 1\). Then \(x = 0, \quad y = e^{2t}\).

Fundamental Matrix. From the general solution, take partials on symbols \(c_1, c_2\) to find \(\Phi(t) = \begin{pmatrix}
  e^{2t} & te^{2t} \\
  0 & e^{2t}
\end{pmatrix}\). Then \(e^{At} = \Phi(t)\Phi(0)^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix}
  e^{2t} & 0 \\
  te^{2t} & e^{2t}
\end{pmatrix}\).

Putzer Method
Putzer’s exponential formula gives
\[
e^{At} = e^{2t}I + te^{2t}(A - 2I) = \begin{pmatrix}
  e^{2t} & 0 \\
  te^{2t} & e^{2t}
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

(b) Variation of Parameters
Then regardless of how we found \(e^{At}\), the variation of parameters formula implies \(\vec{u}_p(t) = e^{At} \int_0^t e^{-Au} \begin{pmatrix}
  e^{2u} \\
  0
\end{pmatrix} du = e^{At} \int_0^t \begin{pmatrix}
  1 \\
  -u
\end{pmatrix} du = \begin{pmatrix}
  te^{2t} \\
  t^2e^{2t}/2
\end{pmatrix}\).

13. (ch6)

(a) Define asymptotically stable equilibrium geometrically for \(\vec{u}' = \vec{f}(\vec{u})\), a 2-dimensional autonomous dynamical system.

(b) Give examples of 2-dimensional systems of type saddle, spiral, center and node.

(c) Give a 2-dimensional predator-prey example \(\vec{u}' = \vec{f}(\vec{u})\) and identify the predator and prey variables.
(a) Definition
An equilibrium point \( \vec{u} = \vec{u}_0 \) is asymptotically stable at \( t = \infty \) provided it is stable and in addition \( \lim_{t \to \infty} \vec{u}(t) = \vec{u}_0 \) for all solutions \( \vec{u}(t) \) with \( \| \vec{u}(0) - \vec{u}_0 \| \) sufficiently small. Geometrically, solutions starting near the equilibrium point exist out to \( t = \infty \), stay near the equilibrium for \( t \geq 0 \), and limit to the equilibrium at \( t = \infty \).

An equilibrium point \( \vec{u} = \vec{u}_0 \) is stable at \( t = \infty \) provided for each \( \epsilon > 0 \) there corresponds a number \( \delta > 0 \), depending on \( \epsilon \), such that \( \| \vec{u}(0) - \vec{u}_0 \| < \delta \) implies \( \vec{u}(t) \) exists for \( 0 \leq t < \infty \) and for all such \( t \)-values \( \| \vec{u}(t) - \vec{u}_0 \| < \epsilon \).

(b) Examples
The roots are considered for each type, to give the correct geometric picture. For instance, the example \( x = e^t, \ y = e^{-t} \) traces out one branch of a saddle. Here's the answers:

\[
A_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{saddle} \quad \text{roots} = 1, -1
\]

\[
A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{node} \quad \text{roots} = 1, 1
\]

\[
A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{center} \quad \text{roots} = i, -i
\]

\[
A_4 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{spiral} \quad \text{roots} = -1 + i, -1 - i
\]

(c) Predator-Prey
An example is

\[
x' = (1 - x - y)x, \\
y' = (2 - y + x)y.
\]

Then \( x \) is the prey and \( y \) is the predator. Without the interaction terms, each population would change according to a logistic equation, with carrying capacities of 1 and 2, respectively, for \( x \) and \( y \). There are four equilibria, three of which are extinction states and one that represents the ideal population sizes, about which the real populations oscillate.

14. (ch6)
Find the equilibrium points of \( x' = 14x - x^2/2 - xy, \ y' = 16y - y^2/2 - xy \) and classify each linearization at an equilibrium as a node, spiral, center, saddle. What classifications can be deduced for the nonlinear system, according to the Paste Theorem, which is textbook Theorem 2, section 6.2?

Answer:
The equilibria are constant solutions, which are found from the equations

\[
0 = (14 - x/2 - y)x \\
0 = (16 - y/2 - x)y
\]
Considering when a zero factor can occur leads to the four equilibria $(0, 0)$, $(0, 32)$, $(28, 0)$, $(12, 8)$. The last equilibrium comes from solving the system of equations
\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{x}{2} + y &= 14 \\
x + \frac{y}{2} &= 16
\end{align*}
\]

**Linearization**

The Jacobian matrix $J$ is the augmented matrix of column vector partial derivatives $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \mathbf{F}$, $\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \mathbf{F}$ computed from vector function

\[
\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 14x - x^2/2 - yx \\ 16y - y^2/2 - xy \end{pmatrix}.
\]

Then

\[
J(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 14 - x - y & -x \\ -y & 16 - y - x \end{pmatrix}.
\]

The four matrices below are $J(x, y)$ when $(x, y)$ is replaced by each of the four equilibrium points. Included in the table are the roots of the characteristic equation for each matrix and its classification based on the roots. No book was consulted for the classifications. The idea in each is to examine the limits at $t = \pm\infty$, then eliminate classifications. No matrix has complex eigenvalues, and that eliminates the center and spiral. The first three are stable at either $t = \infty$ or $t = \infty$, which eliminates the saddle and leaves the node as the only possible classification.

\[
\begin{align*}
A_1 &= J(0, 0) = \begin{pmatrix} 14 & 0 \\ 0 & 16 \end{pmatrix} & r = 14, 16 & \text{node} \\
A_2 &= J(0, 32) = \begin{pmatrix} -18 & 0 \\ -32 & -16 \end{pmatrix} & r = -18, -16 & \text{node} \\
A_3 &= J(28, 0) = \begin{pmatrix} -14 & -28 \\ 0 & -12 \end{pmatrix} & r = -14, -12 & \text{node} \\
A_4 &= J(12, 8) = \begin{pmatrix} -6 & -12 \\ -8 & -4 \end{pmatrix} & r = -5 + \sqrt{97}, -5 - \sqrt{97} & \text{saddle}
\end{align*}
\]

Some maple code for checking the answers:

\[
\begin{align*}
F &:= \text{unapply}([14*x - x^2/2 - y*x, 16*y - y^2/2 - x*y], (x, y)); \\
Fx &:= \text{unapply}((u -> \text{diff}(u, x), F(x, y)), (x, y)); \\
Fy &:= \text{unapply}((u -> \text{diff}(u, y), F(x, y)), (x, y)); \\
Fx(0, 0); Fy(0, 0); Fx(28, 0); Fy(28, 0); Fx(0, 32); Fy(0, 32); Fx(0, 32); Fy(0, 32);
\end{align*}
\]

15. (ch6) Do enough to make 100%

(a) [25%] Which of the four types center, spiral, node, saddle can be unstable at $t = \infty$? Explain your answer.

(b) [25%] Give an example of a linear 2-dimensional system $\mathbf{u}' = A\mathbf{u}$ with a saddle
at equilibrium point \( x = y = 0 \), and \( A \) is not triangular.

(c) \([25\%]\) Give an example of a nonlinear 2-dimensional predator-prey system with exactly four equilibria.

(d) \([25\%]\) Display a formula for the general solution of the equation \( \vec{u}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \vec{u} \).

Then explain why the system has a spiral at \((0, 0)\).

(e) \([25\%]\) Is the origin an isolated equilibrium point of the linear system \( \vec{u}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \vec{u} \)? Explain your answer.

Answer:
(a) All except the center, which is stable but not asymptotically stable. All the others correspond to a general solution which can have an exponential factor \( e^{kt} \) in each term. If \( k > 0 \), then the solution cannot approach the origin at \( t = \infty \).

(b) Required are characteristic roots like \( 1, -1 \). Let \( B = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \). Define \( A = \text{PBP}^{-1} \) where \( P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \). Then \( \vec{u}' = A\vec{u} \) has a saddle at the origin, because the characteristic roots of \( A \) are still \( 1, -1 \). And \( A = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ -4 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \) is not triangular.

(c) Example: The nonlinear predator-prey system \( x' = (x+y-4)x \), \( y' = (-x+2y-2)y \) has exactly four equilibrium points \((0, 0)\), \((4, 0)\), \((0, 1)\), \((2, 2)\).

(d) The characteristic equation \( \det(A - \lambda I) = 0 \) is \((1 - \lambda)^2 + 1 = 0 \) with complex roots \( 1 \pm i \) and corresponding atoms \( e^t \cos t \), \( e^t \sin t \). Then the Cayley-Hamilton-Ziebur Method implies
\[
\vec{u}(t) = e^t \cos t \vec{c}_1 + e^t \sin t \vec{c}_2.
\]

Explanation, why the classification is a spiral. Such solutions containing sine and cosine factors wrap around the origin. This makes it a spiral or a center. Because of the exponential factor \( e^t \), it is asymptotically stable at \( t = -\infty \), which disallows a center, so it is a spiral.

(e) No, because \( \det(A) = 0 \). In this case, \( A\vec{u} = \vec{0} \) has infinitely many solutions, describing a line of equilibria through the origin. This implies the equilibrium point \((0, 0)\) is not isolated [you cannot draw a circle about \((0, 0)\) which contains no other equilibrium point].

16. (ch7)

(a) Define the direct Laplace Transform.

(b) Define Heaviside’s unit step function.

(c) Derive a Laplace integral formula for Heaviside’s unit step function.

(d) Explain all the steps in Laplace’s Method, as applied to the differential equation \( x''(t) + 2x(t) = e^t \), \( x(0) = 1 \).
(a) Definition of Direct Laplace Transform

\[ \mathcal{L}(f(t)) = \int_{0}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st}dt. \]

(b) Definition of the Heaviside unit step

\[ u(t-a) = \begin{cases} 1 & t \geq a, \\ 0 & t < a. \end{cases} \]

(c) Derivation
We prove the second shifting theorem \( \mathcal{L}(u(t-a)f(t-a)) = e^{-as}\mathcal{L}(f(t)) \), which includes an integral formula for the Heaviside function by substitution of \( f(t) = 1 \).

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{L}(u(t-a)f(t-a)) &= \int_{0}^{\infty} u(t-a)f(t-a)e^{-st}dt \\
&= \int_{0}^{a} (\text{integrand})dt + \int_{a}^{\infty} (\text{integrand})dt \\
&= 0 + \int_{a}^{\infty} f(t-a)e^{-st}dt \\
&= \int_{0}^{\infty} f(u)e^{-s(u+a)}du \\
&= e^{-sa}\int_{0}^{\infty} f(u)e^{-su}du \\
&= e^{-sa}\mathcal{L}(f(t))
\end{align*}
\]

Used in the derivation is a change of variable \( u = t-a, \ du = dt \). Line 3 uses \( u(t-a) = 0 \) on the interval \( 0 \leq t \leq a \) and \( u(t-a) = 1 \) on \( a \leq t < \infty \), which simplifies each integrand. Line 5 observes that factor \( e^{-sa} \) in the integrand is a constant relative to \( u \)-integration, therefore it can move through the integral sign.

(d) Laplace’s method explained.
The first step transforms the equation using the parts formula and initial data to get

\[ (s+2)\mathcal{L}(x) = 1 + \mathcal{L}(e^t). \]

The forward Laplace table applies to write, after a division, the isolated formula for \( \mathcal{L}(x) \):

\[ \mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{1 + 1/(s-1)}{s+2} = \frac{s}{(s-1)(s+2)}. \]

Partial fraction methods imply

\[ \mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{a}{s-1} + \frac{b}{s+2} = \mathcal{L}(ae^t + be^{-2t}) \]

and then \( x(t) = ae^t + be^{-2t} \) by Lerch’s theorem. The constants are \( a = 1/3, b = 2/3 \).

17. (ch7)

(a) Solve \( \mathcal{L}(f(t)) = \frac{100}{(s^2 + 1)(s^2 + 4)} \) for \( f(t) \).
(b) Solve for \( f(t) \) in the equation \( \mathcal{L}(f(t)) = \frac{1}{s^2(s-3)}. \)

(c) Find \( \mathcal{L}(f) \) given \( f(t) = (-t)e^{2t} \sin(3t). \)

(d) Find \( \mathcal{L}(f) \) where \( f(t) \) is the periodic function of period 2 equal to \( t/2 \) on \( 0 \leq t \leq 2 \) (sawtooth wave).

**Answer:**

(a) \( \mathcal{L}(f) = \frac{100}{(a+1)(u+4)} + \frac{100}{u+1} + \frac{100}{u+4} \) where \( a = s^2. \) Then \( \mathcal{L}(f) = \frac{100}{3} \left( \frac{1}{s^2+1} - \frac{1}{s^2+4} \right) = \frac{100}{3} \mathcal{L}(\sin t - \frac{1}{2} \sin 2t) \) implies \( f(t) = \frac{100}{3} (\sin t - \frac{1}{2} \sin 2t). \)

(b) \( \mathcal{L}(f) = \frac{a}{s} + \frac{b}{s^2} + \frac{c}{s-3} = \mathcal{L}(a+bt+ce^{3t}) \) implies \( f(t) = a+bt+ce^{3t}. \) The constants, by Heaviside coverup, are \( a = -1/9, b = -1/3, c = 1/9. \)

(c) \( \mathcal{L}(f) = \frac{d}{ds} \mathcal{L}(e^{2t} \sin 3t) \) by the \( s \)-differentiation theorem. The first shifting theorem implies \( \mathcal{L}(e^{2t} \sin 3t) = \mathcal{L}(\sin 3t) |_{s \to (s-2)}. \) Finally, the forward table implies \( \mathcal{L}(f) = \frac{-2}{((s-2)^2+9)}. \)

18. (ch7)

(a) Solve \( y'' + 4y' + 4y = t^2, \ y(0) = y'(0) = 0 \) by Laplace’s Method.

(b) Solve \( x'''' + x''' - 6x' = 0, \ x(0) = x'(0) = 0, \ x''(0) = 1 \) by Laplace’s Method.

(c) Solve the system \( x' = x + y, \ y' = x - y + e^t, \ x(0) = 0, \ y(0) = 0 \) by Laplace’s Method.

**Answer:**

(a) Transform to get \( \mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{\mathcal{L}(t^2)}{s^2+4s+4}. \) Then \( \mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{1}{s^2(s+2)^2} = \frac{a}{s} + \frac{b}{s^2} + \frac{c}{s-3} + \frac{d}{s+2} + \frac{f}{(s+2)^2} = \mathcal{L}(a+bt+ct^2+de^{-2t}+fte^{-2t}). \) The answer is \( x(t) = a+bt+ct^2+de^{-2t}+fte^{-2t}. \)

The partial fraction constants are \( a = 3/16, b = -1/4, c = 1/4, d = -3/16, f = -1/8. \)

(b) Transform to get \( \mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{1}{s^3+s^2-6s} = \frac{1}{s(s-2)(s+3)} = \frac{a}{s} + \frac{b}{s-2} + \frac{c}{s+3} = \mathcal{L}(a+be^{2t}+ce^{-3t}). \)

Then the answer is \( x(t) = a+be^{2t}+ce^{-3t}. \) The partial fraction constants are \( a = -1/6, b = 1/10, c = 1/15. \)

19. (ch7)

(a) [25\%] Solve by Laplace’s method \( x'' + x = \cos t, \ x(0) = x'(0) = 0. \)

(b) [10\%] Does there exist \( f(t) \) of exponential order such that \( \mathcal{L}(f(t)) = \frac{s}{s+1}? \) Details required.

(c) [15\%] Linearity \( \mathcal{L}(c_1f + c_2g) = c_1\mathcal{L}(f) + c_2\mathcal{L}(g) \) is one Laplace rule. State four other Laplace rules. Forward and backward table entries are not rules, which means \( \mathcal{L}(1) = 1/s \) doesn’t count.
(d) [25%] Solve by Laplace’s resolvent method

\[
x'(t) = x(t) + y(t), \\
y'(t) = 2x(t),
\]

with initial conditions \(x(0) = -1, y(0) = 2\).

(e) [25%] Derive \(y(t) = \int_0^t \sin(t - u)f(u)du\) by Laplace transform methods from the forced oscillator problem

\[
y''(t) + y(t) = f(t), \quad y(0) = y'(0) = 0.
\]

Answer:
(a) Transform to obtain \(\mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{s}{(s^2 + 1)s^2}\).

Calculus method. Observe that \(\frac{d}{ds}\frac{1}{s^2+1} = \frac{-2s}{(s^2+1)^2}\). Then \(\mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{-1}{2} \frac{d}{ds} \frac{1}{s^2+1} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{ds} \mathcal{L}(\sin t) = -\frac{1}{2} \mathcal{L}((-t) \sin t)\) by the \(s\)-differentiation theorem. Finally, \(x(t) = \frac{1}{2} t \sin t\).

Convolution method. Write \(\mathcal{L}(x) = \mathcal{L}(\sin t) \mathcal{L}(\cos t)\). Apply the convolution theorem to obtain \(x(t) = \int_0^t \sin u \cos(t-u)du = \frac{1}{2} t \sin t\). A maple answer check is

\[
\text{int}(\sin(u) \cdot \cos(t-u), u=0..t);
\]

Hand integration uses the trigonometric identity \(2 \sin(a) \cos(b) = \cos(a-b) - \cos(a+b)\).
(b) No. The limit of the Laplace transform of a function of exponential order is zero as \(s \to \infty\). The result \(F(\infty) = 0\) is called the Final Value Theorem.
(c) The possible rules: Linearity, Lerch’s cancelation law, parts formula, \(s\)-differentiation, first shift theorem, second shift theorem, periodic function formula, convolution theorem, delta function formula, integral theorem.
(d) The resolvent formula \((sI - A)\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{u}_0\) becomes the \(2 \times 2\) system of equations

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  s - 1 & -1 \\
  -2 & s - 0
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
  \mathcal{L}(x) \\
  \mathcal{L}(y)
\end{pmatrix}
= \begin{pmatrix}
  -1 \\
  2
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

Multiply by the inverse matrix of \((sI - A)\) on the left to obtain

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  \mathcal{L}(x) \\
  \mathcal{L}(y)
\end{pmatrix}
= \begin{pmatrix}
  s - 1 & -1 \\
  -2 & s - 0
\end{pmatrix}^{-1}
\begin{pmatrix}
  -1 \\
  2
\end{pmatrix}
= \frac{1}{\Delta}
\begin{pmatrix}
  s - 0 & 1 \\
  2 & s - 1
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
  -1 \\
  2
\end{pmatrix},
\]

where \(\Delta = \det(sI - A) = (s + 1)(s - 2)\). Then \(\mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{2}{\Delta} = \frac{1}{s+1}\), \(\mathcal{L}(y) = \frac{2s}{\Delta} = \frac{2s - 4}{(s+1)(s-2)} = \frac{2}{s+1}\). Then \(x(t) = -e^{-t}\), \(y(t) = 2e^{-t}\).

(e) Derive \(y(t) = \int_0^t \sin(t - u)f(u)du\)

Transform \(y'' + y = f\) to get the transfer function relation

\[
\mathcal{L}(y(t)) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 1} \mathcal{L}(f(t)) = \mathcal{L}(\sin t) \mathcal{L}(f(t)).
\]

The convolution theorem implies the right side of the equation is \(\mathcal{L}(\int_0^t \sin(t - u)f(u)du)\). Lerch’s cancelation law implies \(y(t) = \int_0^t \sin(t - u)f(u)du\).
20. (ch7)
(a) [25%] Solve \( L(f(t)) = \frac{10}{(s^2 + 8)(s^2 + 4)} \) for \( f(t) \).

(b) [25%] Solve for \( f(t) \) in the equation \( L(f(t)) = \frac{s + 1}{s^2(s + 2)} \).

(c) [20%] Solve for \( f(t) \) in the equation \( L(f(t)) = \frac{s - 1}{s^2 + 2s + 5} \).

(d) [10%] Solve for \( f(t) \) in the relation \( L(f) = \frac{d}{ds}L(t^2 \sin 3t) \).

(e) [10%] Solve for \( f(t) \) in the relation \( L(f) = \left. \left( L(t^3 e^{9t} \cos 8t) \right) \right|_{s \to s+3} \).

Answer:
(a) \( L(f(t)) = \frac{10}{u+8}u + 4 \) where \( u = s^2 \). Use Heaviside’s coverup method to find the partial fraction expansion
\[
\frac{10}{u+8}u + 4 = \frac{-5/2}{u+8} + \frac{5/2}{u+4} = \frac{-5/2}{s^2 + 8} + \frac{5/2}{s^2 + 4}.
\]
Then \( L(f(t)) = L\left( -\frac{5}{2} \frac{\sin \sqrt{8}t}{\sqrt{8}} + \frac{5}{2} \frac{\sin 2t}{2} \right) \) implies by Lerch’s theorem
\[
f(t) = -\frac{5}{2} \frac{\sin \sqrt{8}t}{\sqrt{8}} + \frac{5}{2} \frac{\sin 2t}{2}.
\]
(b) Expand the fraction into partial fractions as follows:
\[
L(f) = \frac{s + 1}{s^2(s + 2)} = \frac{a}{s} + \frac{b}{s^2} + \frac{c}{s + 2} = L(a + bt + ce^{-2t}).
\]
Then Lerch’s theorem implies \( f(t) = a + bt + ce^{-2t} \). The partial fraction constants are \( a = 1/4, b = 1/2, c = -1/4 \).

(d) Because \( \frac{d}{dt}L(g(t)) = L((-t)g(t)) \), then \( L(f) = L((-t)t^2 \sin 3t) \). Lerch’s theorem implies \( f(t) = -t^3 \sin 3t \).

(e) The shifting theorem \( L(g(t))|_{s \to s-a} = L(e^{at}g(t)) \) is applied to remove the shift on the outside and put \( e^{-3t} \) into the Laplace integrand. Then \( L(f(t)) = L(e^{-3t}t^3 e^{9t} \cos 8t) \). Lerch’s theorem implies \( f(t) = t^3 e^{6t} \cos 8t \).

21. (ch9)
(a) Find the Fourier sine and cosine coefficients for the 2-periodic function \( f(t) \) equal to \( t/2 \) on \( 0 \leq t < 2 \), \( f(2) = 0 \).
(b) State Fourier’s convergence theorem.
(c) State the results for term-by-term integration and differentiation of Fourier series.

Answer:
(a) See the solution to problem 25 (a), infra.
(b) Use the statement in the textbook, Chapter 9. The requirement on \( f \) is \( 2T \)-periodic and piecewise smooth. The formal Fourier series converges at every \( x \) to the average of the left and right hand limits of \( f(x) \). See also Problem 27, infra.
(c) Use the statements in Chapter 9. Basically, integration always works, but differentiation fails except in exceptional cases of extra smoothness of \( f \).

22. (ch9)
(a) Find a steady-state periodic solution using Fourier series and undetermined coefficients for \( x'' + x = F(t) \), where \( F(t) \) is 2-periodic and equal to 10 on \( 0 < t < 1 \), equal to \(-10\) on \( 1 < t < 2 \).

(b) Display Fourier’s Replacement Model for the solution to the heat problem \( u_t = u_{xx}, u(0,t) = u(1,t) = 0, u(x,0) = f(x) \) on \( 0 \leq x \leq 1, \ t \geq 0 \).

(c) Solve \( u_t = u_{xx}, u(0,t) = u(\pi,t) = 0, u(x,0) = 80 \sin^3 x \) on \( 0 \leq x \leq \pi, \ t \geq 0 \).

Answer:
(a) Because \( F(t) \) equals 10 times the square wave on \( -1 < t < 1 \), then a standard Fourier series table can be used to write a Fourier series for \( F(t) \). The method of undetermined coefficients supplies the answer for \( x(t) \).

Some details. Only basic definitions and results for Fourier series will be used. Because \( F(t) \) is odd and \( L = 1 \) in the standard Fourier coefficient formulas, then all cosine coefficients are zero and the sine coefficients \( b_n \) are given by

\[
b_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} F(t) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi t}{L}\right) dt = \frac{1}{1} \left(2 \int_{0}^{1} 10 \sin(n\pi t) dt\right) = \frac{2(1 - (-1)^n)}{n\pi}.
\]

Undetermined coefficients assumes the output is
\[
x(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_n \sin(n\pi t).
\]

Substitution into the differential equation, using the rules for differentiation of Fourier series, gives the identity
\[
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} -k^2 \pi^2 c_k \sin(k\pi t) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k \sin(k\pi t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin(n\pi t).
\]

Matching coefficients of the sine terms left and right implies \( (1 - k^2 \pi^2)c_k = b_k \). Then
\[
x(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_k}{1 - k^2 \pi^2} \sin(k\pi t).
\]
(b) The eigenpairs for the problem are \((\lambda_n, f_n)\), where \(\lambda_n = (n\pi)^2\), \(f_n(x) = \sin(\sqrt{\lambda_n}x)\). Write \(f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin(n\pi x)\). Then \(u(x, t)\) is obtained from \(f(x)\) by insertion of the exponential factor \(e^{-\lambda_n t}\) after the sine factor:

\[
f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin(n\pi x) e^{-n^2\pi^2 t}.
\]

(c) The trick is to apply part (b), after writing \(f(x)\) as a sine series. This uses trig identities, as follows.

\[
\sin^3(x) = (1 - \cos^2(x)) \sin(x) = \sin(x) - \frac{1}{2} \cos(x)(2\sin(x)\cos(x))
= \sin(x) - \frac{1}{2} \cos(x) \sin(2x)
= \sin(x) - \frac{1}{2} \left( \sin(2x + x) + \sin(2x - x) \right)
= \sin(x) - \frac{1}{4} \sin(3x) + \frac{1}{4} \sin(x)
= \frac{3}{4} \sin(x) - \frac{1}{4} \sin(3x)
\]

Then

\[
f(x) = 80 \left( \frac{3}{4} \sin(x) - \frac{1}{4} \sin(3x) \right) = 60 \sin(x) - 20 \sin(3x).
\]

Fourier’s replacement method then gives

\[
u(x, t) = 60 \sin(x)e^{-t} - 20 \sin(3x)e^{-9t}.
\]

23. (Vibration of a Finite String)

The normal modes for the string equation \(u_{tt} = c^2 u_{xx}\) are given by the functions

\[
\sin \left( \frac{n\pi x}{L} \right) \cos \left( \frac{n\pi ct}{L} \right), \quad \sin \left( \frac{n\pi x}{L} \right) \sin \left( \frac{n\pi ct}{L} \right).
\]

It is known that each normal mode is a solution of the string equation and that the problem below has solution \(u(x, t)\) equal to an infinite series of constants times normal modes.

Solve the finite string vibration problem on \(0 \leq x \leq 2, \ t > 0\),

\[
\begin{align*}
  u_{tt} &= c^2 u_{xx}, \\
  u(0, t) &= 0, \\
  u(2, t) &= 0, \\
  u(x, 0) &= 0, \\
  u_t(x, 0) &= -11 \sin(5\pi x).
\end{align*}
\]

**Answer:** Because the wave initial shape is zero, then the only normal modes appearing
in the solution $u(x,t)$ are sine times sine.
The initial wave velocity is already a Fourier series, using orthogonal set \{\sin(n\pi x/2)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}.
The 1-term Fourier series $-11\sin(5\pi x)$ can be modified into a solution by inserting an appropriate sine factor $\sin(5\pi t)$ present in the corresponding normal mode. The required initial velocity is $u_t(0,t) = -11\sin(5\pi x)$, so the sine factor has to be adjust by a constant $k$. We compute Because \( \frac{d}{dt} \sin(5\pi t) = 5\pi \cos(5\pi t) \) at $t = 0$ is $5\pi$, then $k = 1/(5\pi)$.
Then $u(x,t) = -11\sin(5\pi x) \sin(5\pi ct)/(5\pi)$. We check it is a solution.

24. (Periodic Functions)

(a) [30%] Find the period of $f(x) = \sin(x) \cos(2x) + \sin(2x) \cos(x)$.

(b) [40%] Let $p = 5$. If $f(x)$ is the odd $2p$-periodic extension to $(-\infty, \infty)$ of the function $f_0(x) = 100xe^{10x}$ on $0 \leq x \leq p$, then find $f(11.3)$. The answer is not to be simplified or evaluated to a decimal.

(c) [30%] Mark the expressions which are periodic with letter $P$, those odd with $O$ and those even with $E$.

$\sin(\cos(2x))$ \hspace{1cm} $\ln|2 + \sin(x)|$ \hspace{1cm} $\sin(2x) \cos(x)$ \hspace{1cm} $\frac{1 + \sin(x)}{2 + \cos(x)}$

Answer: (a) $f(x) = \sin(x + 2x)$ by a trig identity. Then period $= 2\pi/3$.
(b) $f(11.3) = f(11.3 - p - p) = f(1.3) = f_0(1.3) = 130e^{13}$.
(c) All are periodic of period $2\pi$, satisfying $f(x + 2\pi) = f(x)$. The first is even and the third is odd. The remaining functions are neither even nor odd.

25. (Fourier Series)

Let $f_0(x) = x$ on the interval $0 < x < 2$, $f_0(x) = -x$ on $-2 < x < 0$, $f_0(x) = 0$ for $x = 0$, $f_0(x) = 2$ at $x = \pm 2$. Let $f(x)$ be the periodic extension of $f_0$ to the whole real line, of period $4$.

(a) [80%] Compute the Fourier coefficients of $f(x)$ (defined above) for the terms $\sin(67\pi x)$ and $\cos(2\pi x)$. Leave tedious integrations in integral form, but evaluate the easy ones like the integral of the square of sine or cosine.

(b) [20%] Which values of $x$ in $|x| < 12$ might exhibit Gibbs’s over-shoot?

Answer: (a) Because $f_0(x)$ is even, then $f(x)$ is even. Then the coefficient of $\sin(67\pi x)$ is zero, without computation, because all sine terms in the Fourier series of $f$ have zero coefficient. The coefficient of $\cos(n\pi x/2)$ for $n > 0$ is given by the formula

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-2}^{2} f_0(x) \cos(n\pi x/2)dx = \int_{0}^{2} x \cos(n\pi x/2)dx.$$
For \( \cos(2\pi x) \), we select \( n\pi x/2 = 2\pi x \), or index \( n = 4 \).

(b) There are no jump discontinuities, \( f \) is continuous, so no Gibbs overshoot.

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26. (Cosine and Sine Series)

Find the first nonzero term in the sine series expansion of \( f(x) \), formed as the odd \( 2\pi \)-periodic extension of the function \( \sin(x)\cos(x) \) on \( 0 < x < \pi \). Leave the Fourier coefficient in integral form, unevaluated, unless you can compute the value in a minute or two.

**Answer:** Because \( \sin(x)\cos(x) = (1/2)\sin(2x) \) is odd and \( 2\pi \)-periodic, this is the Fourier series of \( f \). This term is for coefficient \( b_2 \), so \( b_2 = 1/2 \) is the first nonzero Fourier coefficient. The first nonzero term is \( (1/2)\sin(2x) \).

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27. (Convergence of Fourier Series)

(a) [40%] The Fourier Convergence Theorem for piecewise smooth functions applies to continuously differentiable functions of period \( 2p \). Re-state the Fourier Convergence Theorem for the special case of a \( 2p \)-periodic continuously differentiable function. It is necessary to translate the results for interval \( -\pi \leq x \leq \pi \) to the interval \( -p \leq x \leq p \) and simplify the value to which the Fourier series converges.

(b) [30%] Give an example of a function \( f(x) \) periodic of period 2 that has a Gibb’s over-shoot at the integers \( x = 0, \pm 2, \pm 4, \ldots \) (all \( \pm 2n \)) and nowhere else.

**Answer:** (a) Let \( f \) be a \( 2p \)-periodic smooth function on \( (-\infty, \infty) \). Then for all values of \( x \),

\[
f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(n\pi x/p) + b_n \sin(n\pi x/p)),
\]

where the Fourier coefficients \( a_0, a_n, b_n \) are given by the Euler formulas:

\[
a_0 = \frac{1}{2p} \int_{-p}^{p} f(x)dx, \quad a_n = \frac{1}{p} \int_{-p}^{p} f(x)\cos(n\pi x/p)dx,
\]

\[
b_n = \frac{1}{p} \int_{-p}^{p} f(x)\sin(n\pi x/p)dx.
\]

(b) Any \( 2 \)-periodic continuous function \( f \) will work, if we alter the values of \( f \) at the desired points to produce a jump discontinuity. For example, define \( f(x) = \sin(\pi x) \) except at the points \( \pm 2n \), where \( f(2n) = 2 \) \((n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots)\).