



## Exam 1 Review Problem Set 1: Solutions

### Differential Equations

Summer 2025

1. Solve the following initial value problem (IVP) on  $y = y(x)$ , and specify the domain for your solution:

$$\begin{cases} y' = (x \log x)^{-1}, \\ y(e) = -6. \end{cases}$$

**Solution:**

Here, we notice that this problem is separable, hence we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} dy &= \frac{1}{x \log x} dx, \\ \int dy &= \int \frac{1}{x \log x} dx. \end{aligned}$$

Now, we evaluate the integral by substitution, *i.e.*,  $u = \log x$  and  $du = dx/x$ , which give that:

$$y = \int \frac{1}{u} du = \log |u| + C = \log |\log x| + C.$$

Eventually, we plug in the initial condition, that is  $y(e) = -6$ , giving us that:

$$\begin{aligned} -6 &= \log |\log e| + C, \\ C &= -6. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the solution is:

$$y = \boxed{\log |\log x| - 6}.$$

Here, we note that  $\log(-)$  has a valid domain over positive numbers, and the double  $\log(-)$  functions enforces that  $x$  must be greater than 1, as  $\log(0)$  is undefined. Since our initial condition is  $e$ , and  $e \in (1, \infty)$ , the domain of the solution is  $\boxed{(1, \infty)}$ .

2. Suppose  $f(x)$  is non-zero, let an initial value problem be:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{1-y}{x} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{f(x)}{1+y}, \\ y(0) = 0. \end{cases}$$

(a) Show that the differential equation is **not** linear.

For the next two questions, suppose  $f(x) = \tan x$ .

(b) State, without justification, the open interval(s) in which  $f(x)$  is continuous.

(c)\* Show that there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that there exists a unique solution  $y(x)$  for  $x \in (-\delta, \delta)$ .

Now, suppose that  $f(x)$  is some function, **not** necessarily continuous.

(d) Suppose that the condition in (c) does **not** hold, give three examples in which  $f(x)$  could be.

**Solution:**

(a) *Proof.* We can write the equation as  $F(x, y, y') := y' - \frac{xf(x)}{(y+1)(y-1)} = 0$ , and since:

$$F(x, (y+1), (y+1)') = y' - \frac{xf(x)}{(y+2)y} \neq 1,$$

so the function is non-linear. □

(b) Here, we should consider that:

$$f(x) = \tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x},$$

so the discontinuities are at when  $\cos x = 0$ , that is:

$$x \in \left\{ \frac{(2k+1)\pi}{2} : k \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

Hence, we have the intervals in which  $f(x)$  being continuous as:

$$\left\{ \left( \frac{(2k-1)\pi}{2}, \frac{(2k+1)\pi}{2} \right) : k \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

(c) *Proof.* Here, we want to write our equation in the standard form and obtain that:

$$y' := f(t, y) = \frac{x \tan x}{(y+1)(y-1)}, \quad \frac{\partial f(t, y)}{\partial y} = -\frac{x \tan x \cdot 2y}{(y^2-1)^2}.$$

Clear, we note the discontinuities of  $y$  at  $y = \pm 1$ , and  $x$  demonstrated as above, thus we can form a rectangle  $Q = (-\pi/2, \pi/2) \times (-1, 1)$  in which the initial condition  $(0, 0) \in Q$  and  $f(t, y)$  with  $\partial_y f(t, y)$  are continuous on the interval. By the *existence and uniqueness theorem for non-linear case*, we know that there exists some  $\delta$  such that there is a unique solution for  $-\delta < x < \delta$ . □

(d) If the condition in (c) does not hold, by contraposition, this implies that continuity must fail, i.e.,  $xf(x)$  must be discontinuous at  $x = 0$ . Hence, some examples could be:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}, \text{ or } \log x, \text{ or } \csc x, \text{ or } \chi_{\{0\}}(x) \text{ etc.}$$

3. Draw the phase line and determine the stability of each equilibrium for the following autonomous differential equations:

(a)  $y' = y^4 - 3y^3 + 2y^2.$

(b)  $y' = y^{2025} - 1.$

**Solution:**

- (a) First, we need to factor the right hand side polynomial as:

$$y^4 - 3y^3 + 2y^2 = y^2(y^2 - 3y + 2) = y^2(y - 1)(y - 2),$$

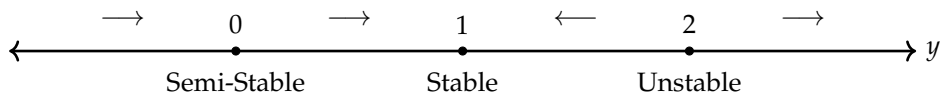
so, we can trivially note the roots as:

$$y = 0 \text{ with multiplicity } 2, y = 1, \text{ and } y = 2.$$

Sophisticated readers shall notice that this polynomial has a positive leading coefficient, hence it approaches  $+\infty$  when  $y \rightarrow \infty$ , hence the arrows can be easily determined.

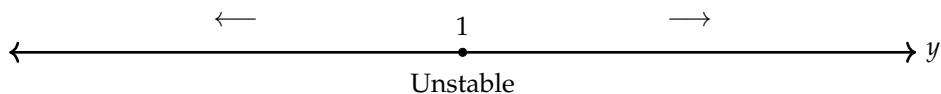
Otherwise, readers can plug in a value within each intervals, such as  $y = 3$  for  $y > 2$ ,  $y = 3/2$  for  $1 < y < 2$ , etc., which should work equivalently.

Hence, we should expect a graph as follows:



The stability is given by the directions of the arrows.

- (b) Here, readers shall realize that the right hand side polynomial is monotonic  $((y^{2025} - 1)' \geq 0)$ , so the only real root is at  $y = 1$ , and since the polynomial has positive leading coefficient and odd order, it shall approach  $\mp\infty$  as  $y \rightarrow \mp\infty$ , so the phase line is:



The stability is given by the directions of the arrows.

4. Let a differential equation be defined as follows:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = e^{2x} + y - 1.$$

- What is the integrating factor ( $\mu(x)$ ) for the equation? Solve for the general solution.
- Is the equation *exact*? If not, make it exact, then find the general solution.
- Do solutions from part (a) and (b) agree?

**Solutions:**

- First, we write the equation in standard form, that is  $y' - y = e^{2x} - 1$ . Hence, with  $p(x) = -1$ , the integrating factor is:

$$\mu(x) = \exp\left(\int_0^x p(s)ds\right) = \exp\left(\int_0^x (-1)ds\right) = \boxed{\exp(-x)}.$$

Then, we multiply the integrating factors on both ends to obtain:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx} [ye^{-x}] &= e^x - e^{-x}, \\ ye^{-x} &= \int (e^x - e^{-x}) dx = e^x + e^{-x} + C, \\ y &= \boxed{Ce^x + e^{2x} + 1}.\end{aligned}$$

- Note that for exactness, we write the equation as:

$$\underbrace{(-e^{2x} - y + 1)}_{M(x,y)} + \underbrace{(1)}_{N(x,y)} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0,$$

meaning that their partial derivatives are, respectively:

$$\partial_y M(x, y) = -1 \text{ and } \partial_x N(x, y) = 0,$$

and since they are different, the equation is **not exact**.

Thus, we look for the integrating factor, i.e.:

$$\mu(t) = \exp\left(\int_0^x \frac{\partial_y M(x, y) - \partial_x N(x, y)}{N(x, y)}\right) = \exp\left(\int_0^x \frac{-1 - 0}{1} ds\right) = \exp(-x).$$

Now, we multiply  $e^{-x}$  on both sides, giving us that:

$$\underbrace{(-e^x - ye^{-x} + e^{-x})}_{\tilde{M}(x,y)} + \underbrace{(e^{-x})}_{\tilde{N}(x,y)} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0.$$

Now, the equation should be exact. *We leave the check to the readers as an exercise.*

To get the solution, we first integrate  $\tilde{M}(x, y)$  with respect to  $x$ , that is:

$$\varphi(x, y) = \int (-e^x - ye^{-x} + e^{-x}) dx = -e^x + ye^{-x} - e^{-x} + h(y).$$

Now, taking the derivative with respect to  $y$  gives:

$$\partial_y \varphi(x, y) = e^{-x} + h'(y) = e^{-x},$$

which pushes  $h(y)$  to be constant, hence we have solution:

$$\varphi(x, y) = \boxed{-e^x + ye^{-x} - e^{-x} = C}.$$

- The solutions **agree** by simple arithmetic deductions.

5.\* This brief digression to “differential forms” aims for the following goals:

- Legitimizing  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = \frac{f(x)}{g(y)} \iff g(y)dy = f(x)dx$  via the differential operator  $d$ .
- Get the foundation of *exactness* for certain differential equation relationship.

First, consider variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , we may define the wedge product ( $\wedge$ ) to connect any two variables satisfying that:

$$x_i \wedge x_j = -x_j \wedge x_i \text{ for all } 1 \leq i, j \leq n.$$

(a) Show that  $x_i \wedge x_i = 0$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

Now, given any smooth function  $f$ , we define the differential operator ( $d$ ) as:

$$df = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_i.$$

(b) Suppose  $y(x) = e^x$ , find  $dy$ .

(c) Now, suppose that  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = \frac{f(x)}{g(y)}$ , can you express  $dy$  in terms of the differential form of  $x$ .

*Note:* Since we have just one variable, we have  $dy/dx = \partial y / \partial x$ , leading to our first goal.

Furthermore, we can apply the differential operator over differential forms with wedge products already. Suppose:

$$\omega = \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_k} f_{i_1, \dots, i_k} dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k},$$

we may have the differential of  $\omega$  as:

$$d\omega = \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_k} (df_{i_1, \dots, i_k}) dx_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i_k}.$$

(d) Suppose  $x, y$  are the variables, and  $\omega = 2xy^2 dx + 2x^2 y dy$ , show that  $d\omega = 0$ .

This then relates to a concept called *exactness* in differential equations. Consider the equation:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{F(x, y)}{G(x, y)} = 0,$$

we can rewrite it as  $F(x, y)dx + G(x, y)dy = 0$ . Exactness enforces that:

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial G}{\partial x}.$$

Similarly, exactness is considering finding a solution  $f(x, y) = c$  such that  $F = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  and  $G = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ .

(e) Show that  $df = F(x, y)dx + G(x, y)dy$  and exactness is equivalently  $d(df) = 0$ .

*Note:* This implies that the differential equation in part (d) satisfies *exactness*.

**Solution:**

(a) *Proof.* Since we have:

$$x_i \wedge x_i = -x_i \wedge x_i,$$

we must have  $x_i \wedge x_i = 0$ . □

(b) By the given differential operator:

$$dy = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} dx = \boxed{e^x} dx.$$

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(c) Then, we have:

$$dy = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} dx = \frac{f(x)}{g(y)} dx.$$

Hence, we justify the separation of the variables as  $g(y)dy = f(x)dx$ .

(d) *Proof.* As instructed, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} d\omega &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(2xy^2)dx \wedge dx + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(2xy^2)dy \wedge dx + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(2x^2y)dx \wedge dy + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(2x^2y)dy \wedge dy \\ &= 0 + 4xydy \wedge dx + 4xydx \wedge dy + 0 = -4xydx \wedge dy + 4xydx \wedge dy = 0, \end{aligned}$$

as desired.  $\square$

(e) *Proof.* First, we have that:

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}dy = Fdx + Gdy.$$

Then, in terms of the exactness relationship, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial G}{\partial x} &\iff \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}dy \wedge dx = -\frac{\partial G}{\partial x}dx \wedge dy \\ &\iff \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}dy \wedge dx + \frac{\partial G}{\partial x}dx \wedge dy = 0 \\ &\iff \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}dx \wedge dx + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}dy \wedge dx + \frac{\partial G}{\partial x}dx \wedge dy + \frac{\partial G}{\partial y}dy \wedge dy = 0 \\ &\iff d(df) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have shown that the exactness is exactly that the differential form satisfies that  $d(df) = 0$ .  $\square$

In fact, for any smooth function  $f$ , we have  $d(df) = 0$ , which is the equivalent of the conclusion such that mixed partials are equal. We invite capable readers to investigate that  $d^2 := d \circ d = 0$  for all smooth function  $f$ . Additionally, people with experiences in vector calculus could investigate the following *commutative diagram*.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \Omega^0(\mathbb{R}^3) & \xrightarrow{d(-)} & \Omega^1(\mathbb{R}^3) & \xrightarrow{d(-)} & \Omega^2(\mathbb{R}^3) & \xrightarrow{d(-)} & \Omega^3(\mathbb{R}^3) \\ \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong \\ \mathcal{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{R}) & \xrightarrow{\nabla(-)} & \mathcal{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{R}^3) & \xrightarrow{\nabla \times (-)} & \mathcal{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{R}^3) & \xrightarrow{\nabla \cdot (-)} & \mathcal{C}^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{R}) \end{array}$$

The above are respectively 0-form, 1-form, 2-form, and 3-form (with 0, 1, 2, or, 3  $\wedge$ 's in the differential form) and the below are smooth functions mapping in respective Euclidean spaces.

- 6.\* Determine if the following differential equation is exact. If not, find the integrating factor to make it exact. Then, solve for its general solution;

$$y'(x) = e^{2x} + y(x) - 1.$$

**Solution:**

First, we write the equation in the general form:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + (1 - e^{2x} - y) = 0.$$

Now, we take the partial derivatives to obtain that:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}[1 - e^{2x} - y] = -1,$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}[1] = 0.$$

Notice that the mixed partials are not the same, the equation is not exact.

Here, we choose the integrating factor as:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(x) &= \exp \left( \int_0^x \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial y}[1 - e^{2s} - y] - \frac{\partial}{\partial s}[1]}{1} ds \right) \\ &= \exp \left( \int_0^x -ds \right) = \exp(-x). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, our equation becomes:

$$(e^{-x}) \frac{dy}{dx} + (e^{-x} - e^x - ye^{-x}) = 0.$$

After multiplying the integrating factor, it would be exact. *We leave the repetitive check as an exercise to the readers.*

Now, we can integrate to find the solution with a  $h(y)$  as function:

$$\varphi(x, y) = \int (e^{-x} - e^x - ye^{-x}) dx = -e^{-x} - e^x + ye^{-x} + h(y).$$

By taking the partial derivative with respect to  $y$ , we have:

$$\partial_y \varphi(x, y) = e^{-x} + h'(y),$$

which leads to the conclusion that  $h'(y) = 0$  so  $h(y) = C$ .

Then, we can conclude that the solution is now:

$$\varphi(x, y) = -e^{-x} - e^x + ye^{-x} + C = 0,$$

which is equivalently:

$$y(x) = \boxed{\widetilde{C}e^x + 1 + e^{2x}}.$$

7. For the first-order autonomous ODE:

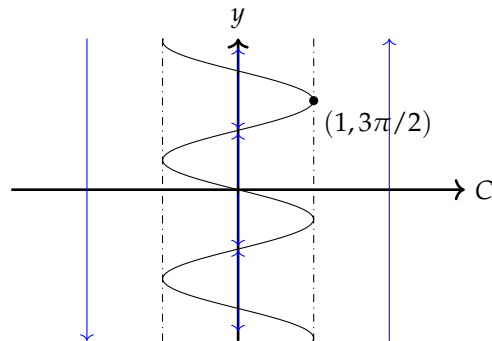
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \sin y + C,$$

where  $C \in \mathbb{R}$  is a parameter. Determine any and all bifurcation values for the parameter  $C$  and sketch a bifurcation diagram.

**Solution:**

It is not hard to observe that  $\sin y$  will intersect the axis infinitely many times, while  $\sin(\mathbb{R}) = [-1, 1]$ , one shall then realize that the bifurcation value would be  $\pm 1$ , since when  $C > 1$  or  $C < -1$ , there will be no equilibriums at all.

Therefore, the bifurcation diagram can be illustrated as:





8. Let a first order IVP on  $y := y(t)$  be defined as follows:

$$\begin{cases} y' = \frac{2}{t}y, \\ y(1) = 1. \end{cases}$$

- (a) Find the solution to the above initial value problem.  
 (b) Recall the theorem on existence and uniqueness, as follows:

For an IVP in simple form:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dy}{dt} = a(t)y + b(t), \\ y(t_0) = y_0. \end{cases}$$

For some  $I = (\alpha, \beta) \ni t_0$ , if  $a(t)$  and  $b(t)$  are continuous on the interval  $I$ . Then, there exists a unique solution to the IVP on the interval  $I$ .

Show that the IVP in this problem does not satisfy the condition for the existence and uniqueness theorem for  $\mathbb{R}$ .

- (c) Does the above example violates the existence and uniqueness theorem? Why?

**Solution:**

- (a) This problem is clearly separable, we may compute:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{y} &= 2 \frac{dt}{t} \\ \int \frac{dy}{y} &= 2 \int \frac{dt}{t} \\ \log |y| &= 2 \log |t| + C \\ y &= \tilde{C}t^2. \end{aligned}$$

Note that the initial condition enforces that  $y(1) = 1$ , so the solution is just:

$$y = t^2.$$

- (b) Note that  $a(t) = 2/t$ , which is not continuous over  $(-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty)$ , then the theorem does not guarantee the existence and uniqueness of a solution over  $\mathbb{R}$ .  
 (c) This is not a violation since the converse of the theorem is not necessarily true. In propositional logic, if  $A$  implies  $B$  (written as  $A \implies B$ ), the converse ( $B$  implies  $A$ , written as  $B \implies A$ ) is not necessarily true. Hence, we can still have a solution that is unique over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

9. Solve the following second order differential equations for  $y = y(x)$ :

(a)  $y'' + y' - 132y = 0.$

(b)  $y'' - 4y' = -4y.$

(c)  $y'' - 2y' + 3y = 0.$

**Solution:**

(a) We find the characteristic polynomial as  $r^2 + r - 132 = 0$ , which can be trivially factorized into:

$$(r - 11)(r + 12) = 0,$$

so with roots  $r_1 = 11$  and  $r_2 = -12$ , we have the general solution as:

$$y(x) = \boxed{C_1 e^{11x} + C_2 e^{-12x}}.$$

(b) We turn the equation to the standard form:

$$y'' - 4y' + 4 = 0.$$

We find the characteristic polynomial as  $r^2 - 4r + 4 = 0$ , which can be immediately factorized into:

$$(r - 2)^2 = 0,$$

so with roots  $r_1 = r_2 = 2$  (repeated roots), we have the general solution as:

$$y(x) = \boxed{C_1 e^{2x} + C_2 x e^{2x}}.$$

(c) We find the characteristic polynomial as  $r^2 - 2r + 3 = 0$ , which the quadratic formula gives:

$$r = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{2^2 - 4 \times 3}}{2} = 1 \pm i\sqrt{2}$$

so with roots  $r_1 = 1 + i\sqrt{2}$  and  $r_2 = 1 - i\sqrt{2}$ , we would have the solution:

$$y(x) = C_1 e^{(1+i\sqrt{2})x} + C_2 e^{(1-i\sqrt{2})x}.$$

To obtain real solution, we apply Euler's identity:

$$y_1(x) = e^x (\cos(\sqrt{2}x) - i \sin(\sqrt{2}x)) \text{ and } y_2(x) = e^x (\cos(-\sqrt{2}x) - i \sin(-\sqrt{2}x)).$$

By the *principle of superposition*, we can linearly combine the solutions to be different solutions, so we have:

$$\tilde{y}_1(x) = \frac{1}{2}(y_1 + y_2) = e^x \cos(\sqrt{2}x),$$

$$\tilde{y}_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(y_2 - y_1) = e^x \sin(\sqrt{2}x).$$

One can verify that  $\tilde{y}_1$  and  $\tilde{y}_2$  are linearly independent by taking Wronskian, i.e.:

$$\begin{aligned} W[\tilde{y}_1, \tilde{y}_2] &= \det \begin{pmatrix} e^x \cos(\sqrt{2}x) & e^x \sin(\sqrt{2}x) \\ e^x \cos(\sqrt{2}x) - \sqrt{2}e^x \sin(\sqrt{2}x) & e^x \sin(\sqrt{2}x) + \sqrt{2}e^x \cos(\sqrt{2}x) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \sqrt{2}e^{2x} \cos^2(\sqrt{2}x) + \sqrt{2}e^{2x} \sin^2(\sqrt{2}x) = \sqrt{2}e^{2x} \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Now, they are linearly independent, so we have the general solution as:

$$y(x) = \boxed{C_1 e^x \cos(\sqrt{2}x) + C_2 e^x \sin(\sqrt{2}x)}.$$

10.\* Given the following second order initial value problem:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \cos(1-x)y = x^2 - 2x + 1, \\ y(1) = 1, \\ \frac{dy}{dx}(1) = 0. \end{cases}$$

Prove that the solution  $y(x)$  is symmetric about  $x = 1$ , i.e., satisfying that  $y(x) = y(2-x)$ .

*Hint:* Consider the interval in which the solution is unique.

**Solution:**

Note that I deliberately messed up with all the messy functions. Not only haven't I found a solution to the system, Wolfram cannot have an elementary solution as well. Hence, we need to think, alternatively, on some theorems.

*Proof.* Here, we suppose that  $y(x)$  is a solution, and we want to show that  $y(2-x)$  is also a solution.

First we note that we can think of taking the derivatives of  $y(2-x)$ , by the chain rule:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx}[y(2-x)] &= -y'(2-x), \\ \frac{d^2}{dx^2}[y(2-x)] &= y''(2-x). \end{aligned}$$

Now, if we plug in  $y(2-x)$  into the system of equations, we have:

- First, for the differential equation, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2}{dx^2}[y(2-x)] + \cos(1-x)y(2-x) &= y''(2-x) + \cos(1-x)y(2-x) \\ &= y''(2-x) + \cos(1-(2-x))y(2-x) \\ &= y''(x) + \cos(1-x)y(x) \\ &= x^2 - 2x + 1 = (x-1)^2 = (1-x)^2 \\ &= ((2-x)-1)^2 = (2-x)^2 - 2(2-x) + 1. \end{aligned}$$

- For the initial conditions, we trivially have that:

$$y(1) = y(2-1) \text{ and } y'(1) = y'(2-1).$$

Hence, we have shown that  $y(2-x)$  is a solution if  $y(x)$  is a solution.

Again, we observe the original initial value problem that:

$$\cos(1-x) \text{ and } x^2 - 2x + 1 \text{ are continuous on } \mathbb{R}.$$

Therefore, by the *existence and uniqueness theorem for second order linear case*, there could be only one solution, which forces that:

$$y(x) = y(2-x),$$

so the solution is symmetric about  $x = 1$ , as desired. □