



1 In our notation we write

$$u(x^*) = e^{-10x^*} + e^{-100x^*}, \quad x^* \in [0, 1]$$

for the unscaled relation.

We observe that the function u follows three different behaviours within the interval $[0, 1]$: At first, both terms are relevant, although the second term decreases much faster than the first one (or: the derivative of the second term dominates); then, the second term is essentially negligible, while the first one is still much larger than zero; finally, both of the terms are essentially equal to zero.

Natural scalings:

- 1.) $x^* = \frac{1}{100}x$, then $e^{-100x^*} \sim 1$, when $x \sim 1$;
- 2.) $x^* = \frac{1}{10}x$, (then $e^{-10x^*} \sim 1$ and $e^{-100x^*} \ll 1$, when $x \sim 1$;
- 3.) $x^* = 1 \cdot x$, (then $u \sim 0$, when $x \sim 1$).

Reasonable regions for these scalings are as follows:

1. For the first scaling $x^* = \frac{1}{100}x$, we can use values $x \in [0, 2]$, corresponding to $x^* \in [0, \frac{2}{100}]$. Then

$$u(x) = e^{-\frac{1}{10}x} + e^{-x} \approx 1 + e^{-x}$$

or

$$u(x^*) \approx 1 + e^{-100x^*}$$

2. Here we might choose values $x \in [\frac{2}{10}, 2]$, corresponding to $x^* \in [\frac{2}{100}, \frac{2}{10}]$. Then

$$u(x) = e^{-x} + e^{-10x} \approx e^{-x}$$

or

$$u(x^*) \approx e^{-10x^*}.$$

3. Here we can choose $x = x^* \in [\frac{2}{10}, 1]$, which yields

$$u(x) = e^{-10x} + e^{-100x} \approx 0.$$

In all cases, the boundaries between the regions should be understood to be fuzzy, and a small shift of them is perfectly fine.

2 In our notation the problem can be written as

$$(1) \quad m^{*'}(t^*) = -\alpha, \quad m^*(0) = M,$$

$$(2) \quad v^{*'}(t^*) = \frac{\alpha\beta}{m^*(t^*)} - \frac{g}{\left(1 + \frac{x^*(t^*)}{R}\right)^2}, \quad v^*(0) = 0,$$

$$(3) \quad x^{*'}(t^*) = v^*(t^*), \quad x^*(0) = 0.$$

Natural scalings for x^* and m^* are

$$\begin{aligned} x^* &= Rx, \\ m^* &= Mm. \end{aligned}$$

Assuming acceleration is mainly due to the rocket engine, we neglect for the time being the gravity term. Then the scales V and T for velocity and time should be chosen in such a way that the remaining terms in (2) balance, that is,

$$\frac{V}{T} \sim \frac{V}{T} v'(t) = \frac{\alpha\beta}{M}.$$

Also, the terms in (3) should be well scaled, that is, in the equation

$$\frac{R}{T} x' = Vv,$$

the terms x' and v should be of the same order, implying that

$$R = VT.$$

Combining these relations yields the scalings

$$T = \sqrt{\frac{RM}{\alpha\beta}} \quad \text{and} \quad V = \sqrt{\frac{R\alpha\beta}{M}}.$$

In total, we obtain

$$x^* = Rx, \quad m^* = Mm, \quad t^* = \sqrt{\frac{RM}{\alpha\beta}} t, \quad v^* = \sqrt{\frac{R\alpha\beta}{M}} v.$$

Moreover, we obtain the scaled equations

$$\begin{aligned} m'(t) &= -\mu, \quad m(0) = 1, \\ v'(t) &= \frac{1}{m(t)} - \varepsilon \frac{1}{(1+x)^2}, \quad v(0) = 0, \\ x'(t) &= v(t), \quad x(0) = 0, \end{aligned}$$

with parameters

$$\mu = \sqrt{\frac{R\alpha}{M\beta}} \quad \text{and} \quad \varepsilon = \frac{Mg}{\alpha\beta}.$$

Here the parameter $\varepsilon = Mg/\alpha\beta$ will be small provided that our assumption that the acceleration is mainly due to the rocket engine was correct.

- 3 The exact solution of the initial value problem is $y_{exact}(t) = \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} (1 - e^{-\epsilon t}) - \frac{t}{\epsilon}$. Let $y_{approx}(t) = y_0(t) + \epsilon y_1(t) + \epsilon^2 y_2(t)$. We want y_{approx} to satisfy the initial data for every value of $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$. This implies that $y_0(0) = y_1(0) = y_2(0) = 0$ and $y'_0(0) = y'_1(0) = y'_2(0) = 0$. Inserting y_{approx} in the equation, we get

$$y''_0 + 1 + \epsilon (y''_1 + y'_0) + \epsilon^2 (y''_2 + y'_1) = 0.$$

As this should hold for all $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} y''_0 + 1 &= 0, \\ y''_1 + y'_0 &= 0, \\ y''_2 + y'_1 &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

The initial values and integration of the equations gives

$$y_{approx}(t) = -\frac{1}{2}t^2 + \epsilon \frac{1}{6}t^3 - \epsilon^2 \frac{1}{24}t^4.$$

The Taylor expansion of y_{exact} is given by

$$y_{exact}(t) = \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left(1 - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\epsilon t)^n}{n!} \right) - \frac{t}{\epsilon} = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{\epsilon^{n-2} (-1)^{n+1} t^n}{n!}.$$

The difference between the exact and approximate solution is then

$$y_{exact} - y_{approx} = \sum_{n=5}^{\infty} \frac{\epsilon^{n-2} (-1)^{n+1} t^n}{n!} = t^2 O(\epsilon^3 t^3).$$

Thus, as long as t and ϵt are not too big, the approximation is very good. However, for large values of ϵt , the exact solution behaves like

$$y_{exact}(t) \sim -\frac{t}{\epsilon} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \epsilon t,$$

whereas the approximate solution behaves like

$$y_{approx}(t) \sim -\epsilon^2 \frac{1}{24} t^4 = -\frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \frac{1}{24} \epsilon^4 t^4.$$

Thus, for large values of t , we only have a good approximation, if ϵ decreases at the same time.

- 4 (a) From the problem's nature we have $0 \leq v^*(t) \leq V_0$. Then, V_0 will be a scale for v^* , and moreover

$$\frac{|b(v^*)^2|}{|av^*|} \leq \frac{bV_0}{a} \ll 1.$$

We find a time scale from the simplified equation $m \frac{dv^*}{dt^*} + av^* = 0$ with solution $v^*(t^*) = A \exp(-\frac{a}{m} t^*)$, that is $T = \frac{m}{a}$. Alternatively, and this is easier, we find this scale by balancing the first and second term in equation (5) in the problem set (set $v^* = Vv$ and $t^* = Tt$):

$$m \frac{dv^*}{dt^*} \sim av^* \quad \Rightarrow \quad m \frac{V}{T} \frac{dv}{dt} \sim aVv \quad \underset{v, \dot{v} \sim 1}{\rightsquigarrow} \quad m \frac{V}{T} \sim aV \quad \Rightarrow \quad T \sim \frac{m}{a}.$$

Using this scaling, we obtain the equation in the desired form and $\varepsilon = bV_0/a \ll 1$.

(b) Plugging in $v(t) = v_0(t) + \varepsilon v_1(t) + \dots$ into the equation, we get that

$$\begin{aligned} O(\varepsilon^0) : \quad & \dot{v}_0 = -v_0, \\ O(\varepsilon^1) : \quad & \dot{v}_1 = -v_1 + v_0^2. \end{aligned}$$

With the initial condition we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} v_0(t) &= e^{-t}, \\ v_1(t) &= e^{-t} - e^{-2t}, \end{aligned}$$

or

$$v(t) = e^{-t} + \varepsilon(e^{-t} - e^{-2t}) + O(\varepsilon^2).$$

This is the so-called *regular perturbation*. We have seen previously that the approximate solution is not always reasonable when $t \rightarrow \infty$, and we thus need to check its long term validity.

From the theory we know that the exact solution has the form

$$v_{\text{ex}}(t) = \frac{e^{-t}}{1 - \varepsilon(1 - e^{-t})},$$

and since $0 \leq 1 - e^{-t} < 1$ for $t \geq 0$, we can write the solution as a convergent geometric series.

$$v_{\text{ex}}(t) = e^{-t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\varepsilon(1 - e^{-t}))^k$$

The initial terms in the perturbation expansion coincide with the initial terms in the series above, and we have:

$$v_{\text{ex}}(t) - (v_0(t) + \varepsilon v_1(t)) = e^{-t} \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (\varepsilon(1 - e^{-t}))^k \leq e^{-t} \varepsilon^2 \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \varepsilon^m = \frac{\varepsilon^2 e^{-t}}{1 - \varepsilon} \leq \frac{\varepsilon^2}{1 - \varepsilon}.$$

Thus, we have

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \left(\sup_{t > 0} |v_{\text{ex}}(t) - (v_0(t) + \varepsilon v_1(t))| \right) = 0,$$

and so $v_a(t) = v_0(t) + \varepsilon v_1(t)$ is a uniform approximation to the exact solution on the domain $t > 0$.