# global phase portraits of the key pitchfork BIFURCATION 

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#### Abstract

This paper deals with the following quadratic polynomial differential systems $$
\frac{d x}{d t}=y^{2}-y-x, \quad \frac{d y}{d t}=x^{2}-\mu x-y
$$ with parameter $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$, which is the key example of [30] for studying the pitchfork bifurcation of a singular point. We classify the global phase portraits in the Poincaré disc of these systems when $\mu$ varies.


## 1. InTroduction and statement of the main results

Global phase portraits are an invaluable tool in studying the long dynamical behaviour of differential systems. They reveals information such as whether an attractor, a repellor or a limit cycle is present for a given parameter value. Hence the global phase portraits analysis is the one of most important problems in the qualitative theory of differential systems.

The possibilities of topological distinct phase portraits for a general polynomial differential system are huge, it is expected that the quadratic polynomial differential systems have more than 2000 topological distinct phase portraits. Most of known results about global phase portraits of differential systems are mainly deal with special differential systems, see $[1,2,3,4,6,9,11,18,27,29,31]$ for quadratic polynomial differential systems, see [5, 7, 10, 13, 14, 33, 34] for cubic polynomial differential systems, see $[8,25,24,26]$ for quartic polynomial differential systems, see $[12,15,16,17]$ for Liénard differential systems, see [22, 23, 28] for Hamiltonian differential systems. In [20] the authors introduce how to use the computer program $P 4$ for drawing phase portraits in a Poincaré disc.

In a recent paper [30] Rajapakse and Smale considered the following quadratic polynomial differential systems

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d x}{d t}=y^{2}-y-x, \quad \frac{d y}{d t}=x^{2}-\mu x-y \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

as a key example to describe the pitchfork bifurcation, where $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$. They showed that symmetry is a dispensable condition for the existence of pitchfork bifurcation.

Let $\mathcal{X}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{X}_{2}$ be two vector fields defined on open subsets $\Delta_{1}$ and $\Delta_{2}$ of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, respectively. We say that two vector fields $\mathcal{X}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{X}_{2}$ are topologically equivalent

[^0]when there exists a homeomorphism $h: \Delta_{1} \rightarrow \Delta_{2}$ which sends orbits of $\mathcal{X}_{1}$ to orbits of $\mathcal{X}_{2}$ preserving or reversing the orientation.

In this paper we provide the topological classification of the phase portraits of systems (1) in the Poincaré disc.

Theorem 1. The global phase portrait of a differential system (1) is topologically equivalent to Figure 1.1 if $\mu \leqslant 1$, Figures 1.2 if $1<\mu<\mu^{*}$, Figure 1.3 if $\mu>\mu^{*}$ and Figure 1.4 if $\mu=\mu^{*}$, where $\mu^{*} \in(10.4722,10.4723)$.


Figure 1. Topological phase portraits of differential systems (1). S and R denote the number of separatricies and canonical regions, respectively.

Note from Figure 1 that the pitchfork bifurcation at the origin of coordinates takes place at $\mu=1$, where the stable node bifurcates into two stable foci and one saddle.

The layout of this paper is as follows. In section 2 we analyze the equilibria of systems (1) in the Poincaré compactification. In section 3 we prove Theorem 1.

## 2. Poincaré compactification

2.1. Poincaré compactification. For a given polynomial differential system

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d x}{d t}=P(x, y), \quad \frac{d y}{d t}=Q(x, y) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

of degree $d=\max \{\operatorname{deg}(P), \operatorname{deg}(Q)\}$. Let $\mathcal{X}=(P, Q)$ be the vector field associated system (2).

We call $\mathbb{S}^{2}=\left\{\mathbf{s}=\left(s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: s_{1}^{2}+s_{2}^{2}+s_{3}^{2}=1\right\}$ the Poincaré sphere. The Poincaré compactified vector field $p(\mathcal{X})$ corresponding to $\mathcal{X}$ is an analytic vector field induced on $\mathbb{S}^{2}$ as follows, for more details see Chapter 5 of [21].

First we take $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ as the plane in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ defined by $(x, y, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$, and then project each point $(x, y, 1)$ in two points of the Poincaré sphere $\mathbb{S}^{2}$ using the straight line through $(x, y, 1)$ and the origin $(0,0,0)$. It is obvious that the equator $\mathbb{S}^{1}=\{\mathbf{s} \in$ $\left.\mathbb{S}^{2}, s_{3}=0\right\}$ corresponds to the infinity of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. So we have two copies of the vector field $\mathcal{X}$ on the Poincaré sphere $\mathbb{S}^{2}$, one in the open northern hemisphere $\mathbb{S}^{-}=\{\mathbf{s} \in$ $\left.\mathbb{S}^{2}: s_{3}>0\right\}$, and the other in the open southern hemisphere $\mathbb{S}^{+}=\left\{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{S}^{2}: s_{3}<0\right\}$. This vector field on $\mathbb{S}^{2} \backslash \mathbb{S}^{1}$ can be extended to a vector field $p(\mathcal{X})$ defined in the whole $\mathbb{S}^{2}$ multiplying it by $s_{3}^{d}$.

For studying the Poincaré sphere we use the following six local charts

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{i}=\left\{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{S}^{2}: s_{i}>0\right\}, V_{i}=\left\{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{S}^{2}: s_{i}<0\right\} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i=1,2,3$.
The expression of $p(\mathcal{X})$ in the local charts $U_{1}$ and $V_{1}$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d u}{d t}=v^{d}\left[-u P\left(\frac{u}{v}, \frac{1}{v}\right)-u Q\left(\frac{u}{v}, \frac{1}{v}\right)\right], \quad \frac{d v}{d t}=-v^{d+1} Q\left(\frac{u}{v}, \frac{1}{v}\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $v>0$ and $v<0$, respectively.
The expression of $p(\mathcal{X})$ in the local charts $U_{2}$ and $V_{2}$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d u}{d t}=v^{d}\left[-u P\left(\frac{1}{v}, \frac{u}{v}\right)+Q\left(\frac{1}{v}, \frac{u}{v}\right)\right], \quad \frac{d v}{d t}=-v^{d+1} P\left(\frac{1}{v}, \frac{u}{v}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $v>0$ and $v<0$, respectively.
The expression of $p(\mathcal{X})$ in the local charts $U_{3}$ and $V_{3}$ are just

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d u}{d t}=P(u, v), \quad \frac{d v}{d t}=Q(u, v) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

For studying the phase portrait of a differential system (2), we just need to study its Poincaré compactification $p(\mathcal{X})$ restricted to the closed northern hemisphere. We do the orthogonal projection $\pi\left(s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}\right)=\left(s_{1}, s_{2}\right)$ of the closed northern hemisphere onto the Poincaré disc $\mathbb{D}^{2}=\left\{s_{1}^{2}+s_{2}^{2} \leqslant 1\right\}$ for drawing the phase portrait.

It is obvious that the finite equilibria of system (2) are the equilibria in the interior of $\mathbb{D}^{2}$, and they can be studied using $U_{3}$. The infinite equilibria of systems (2) are the equilibria of $p(\mathcal{X})$ in the boundary of $\mathbb{D}^{2}$. Note that for studying the infinite equilibria it suffices to look the ones at the local charts $\left.U_{1}\right|_{v=0}$ and $\left.V_{1}\right|_{v=0}$, and at the origin of the local charts $U_{2}$ and $V_{2}$.
2.2. In charts $U_{1}$ and $V_{1}$. Doing the change of variables $x=\frac{1}{v}, y=\frac{u}{v}$, systems (1) become

$$
\frac{d u}{d t}=1-v-u^{3}+\mu u^{2} v, \quad \frac{d v}{d t}=v^{2}\left(v-u^{2}+\mu u v\right) .
$$

Let $v=0$, then we obtain the unique infinite equilibrium $(1,0)$ in the chart $U_{1}$, which is a stable node. Since the degree of systems (1) is 2 , so we can deduce that there is also a unique unstable node infinite equilibrium $(1,0)$ in chart $V_{1}$ by symmetry.
2.3. In charts $U_{2}$ and $V_{2}$. Doing the change of variables $x=\frac{u}{v}, y=\frac{1}{v}$, systems
(1) become

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d u}{d t}=1-\mu v-u^{3}+u^{2} v, \quad \frac{d v}{d t}=v\left(v-u^{2}+u v\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore the origin of $U_{2}$ and $V_{2}$ are not equilibria.
2.4. In charts $U_{3}$ and $V_{3}$. In order to determine the number of finite equilibrium of systems (1), we introduce the following result, see for example [32].

Lemma 2. For a general quartic polynomial

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{0} x^{4}+a_{1} x^{3}+a_{2} x^{2}+a_{3} x+a_{4}, \quad\left(a_{0} \neq 0\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

We define the following parameters:

$$
\begin{align*}
E= & 8 a_{0}^{2} a_{3}+a_{1}^{3}-4 a_{0} a_{1} a_{2}, \\
D_{2}= & 3 a_{1}^{2}-8 a_{0} a_{2}, \\
D_{3}= & 16 a_{0}^{2} a_{2} a_{4}-18 a_{0}^{2} a_{3}^{2}-a_{0} a_{2}^{3}+14 a_{0} a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}-6 a_{0} a_{1}^{2} a_{4}+a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2}-3 a_{1}^{3} a_{3}, \\
D_{4}= & 256 a_{0}^{3} a_{4}^{3}-27 a_{0}^{2} a_{3}^{4}-192 a_{0}^{2} a_{1} a_{3} a_{4}^{2}-27 a_{1}^{4} a_{4}^{2}-6 a_{0} a_{1}^{2} a_{3}^{2} a_{4}+a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2} a_{3}^{2}  \tag{9}\\
& -4 a_{0} a_{2}^{3} a_{3}^{2}+18 a_{1}^{3} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}+144 a_{0} a_{1}^{2} a_{2} a_{4}^{2}-80 a_{0} a_{1} a_{2}^{2} a_{3} a_{4}+18 a_{0} a_{1} a_{2} a_{3}^{3} \\
& -4 a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{3} a_{4}-4 a_{1}^{3} a_{3}^{3}+16 a_{0} a_{2}^{4} a_{4}-128 a_{0}^{2} a_{2}^{2} a_{4}^{2}+144 a_{0}^{2} a_{2} a_{3}^{2} a_{4} .
\end{align*}
$$

The following statements hold.
(i) If $D_{4}>0, D_{3}>0, D_{2}>0$, then (8) has four simple real zeros.
(ii) If $D_{4}<0$, then (8) has two simple real zeros.
(iii) If $D_{4}=0, D_{3}=0, D_{2}>0, E \neq 0$, then (8) has a simple zero and a triple zero.

The finite equilibria of systems (1) must satisfy the following quartic polynomial

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(y)=y\left(\mu-1-(\mu-1) y-2 y^{2}+y^{3}\right) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

By direct computation we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
& E=-8, \quad D_{2}=4(1+2 \mu), \quad D_{3}=(\mu-1)^{3}\left(4 \mu^{2}+5 \mu+23\right) \\
& D_{4}=2(\mu-1)\left(2 \mu^{2}+3 \mu+7\right) \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

If $\mu<1$, then $D_{4}<0$. Therefore systems (1) have two simple finite equilibria $E_{1}=(0,0)$ and $E_{2}$.

If $\mu=1$, then $D_{2}>0$ and $D_{3}=D_{4}=0$. Hence systems (1) have a simple finite equilibrium $E_{1}=(0,0)$ and a triple finite equilibrium $E_{2}$.

If $\mu>1$, then $D_{2}, D_{3}$ and $D_{4}$ are positive. So systems (1) have four simple finite equilibria $E_{i}, i=1,2,3,4$.

We state the well known Bendixson's Theorem as follows, see for instance Theorem 7.10 of [21].

Theorem 3 (Bendixson's Theorem). Assume that the divergence function of $d$ ifferential system has constant sign in a simply connected region $\mathcal{R}$, and is not identically zero on any subregion of $\mathcal{R}$. Then differential system does not have a periodic orbit which lies entirely in $\mathcal{R}$.

According to Bendixson's Theorem, we can obtain a preliminary result for systems (1).

Proposition 4. Systems (1) have no periodic orbits, no homoclinic loops as the one of Figure 2.1.


Figure 2. 2.1. The homoclinic loop of the saddle $E_{2}$. 2.2. Local dynamics of the finite equilibria of systems (1) for $\mu>1 . l_{1}, l_{2}, l_{4}$ are the straight lines through the equilibria $E_{1}$ and $E_{3}, E_{2}, E_{4}$, respectively. $l_{3}$ is the straight line $y=x . l_{5}$ is the straight line through equilibria $E_{2}$ and $E_{3}$.

Proof. Since the divergence of systems (1) is -2 , it follows that these systems have no periodic orbits by Theorem 3. Assume that systems (1) have a homoclinic loop $\Gamma$ containing equilibrium $E_{2}$, see Figure 2.1. From Green's formula we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\Gamma} P d y-Q d x=\iint_{\operatorname{int}(\Gamma)}\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial Q}{\partial y}\right) d x d y \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $\Gamma$ is an orbit of systems (1), $P d y-Q d x=0$ holds everywhere along $\Gamma$. Hence the left side of (12) is zero. Recall that the divergence of systems (1) is -2 , so the right side of (12) negative, which giving a contradiction.

In order to study the types and stabilities of finite equilibria of systems (1), we introduce the Poincaré-Hopf Theorem and the Berlinskii Theorem, see Theorem 6.30 of [21] and Theorem 7 of [19], respectively.

Theorem 5 (Poincaré-Hopf Theorem). For every tangent vector field on $\mathbb{S}^{2}$ with a finite number of equilibria, the sum of their topological indices is 2 .

Theorem 6 (Berlinskii Theorem). Consider the quadratic polynomial differential systems (2). Suppose that there are four equilibrium points. If the quadrilateral with vertices at these points is convex then two opposite equilibrium points are saddles and the other two are antisaddles (nodes, foci, or centers). But if the quadrilateral is not convex then either the three exterior vertices are saddles and the interior vertex an antisaddle, or the exterior vertices are antisaddles and the interior vertex a saddle.

The types and stabilities of the infinite equilibria of systems (1) can be stated as follows:

Proposition 7. Consider systems (1) we have
(i) If $\mu<0$, then systems (1) have two finite equilibria: $E_{1}$ is a hyperbolic stable focus, and $E_{2}$ is a hyperbolic saddle.
(ii) If $0 \leqslant \mu<1$, then systems (1) have two finite equilibria: $E_{1}$ is a hyperbolic stable node, and $E_{2}$ is a hyperbolic saddle.
(iii) If $\mu=1$, then systems (1) have two finite equilibria: $E_{1}$ is a semi-hyperbolic stable node, and $E_{2}=(2,2)$ is a hyperbolic saddle.
(iv) If $\mu>1$, then systems (1) have four finite equilibria: $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ are hyperbolic saddles, $E_{3}$ and $E_{4}$ are hyperbolic stable foci, see Figure 2.2.

Proof. First we consider the finite equilibrium $E_{1}=(0,0)$. The Jacobian matrix of systems (1) at the equilibrium $E_{1}=(0,0)$ is

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
-1 & -1  \tag{13}\\
-\mu & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

The eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrix (13) are $-1-\sqrt{\mu}$ and $-1+\sqrt{\mu}$. It is obvious that $E_{1}$ is a hyperbolic saddle when $\mu>1$, a stable hyperbolic node for $0 \leqslant \mu<1$, and a hyperbolic stable focus if $\mu<0$. For the case $\mu=1$ doing the change of variables $X=x-y, Y=x+y, T=-t$, then systems (1) become

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d X}{d T}=X Y, \quad \frac{d Y}{d T}=2 Y-\frac{X^{2}}{2}-\frac{Y^{2}}{2} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

According to statement (ii) of Theorem 2.19 of [21], we know that the origin of systems (14) is an unstable topological node. Note that we have reverse the time, hence the origin of systems (1) for $\mu=1$ is a semi-hyperbolic stable node.

Second we study the other finite equilibria. For the case $\mu=1$, it is obvious that $E_{2}=(2,2)$ is a hyperbolic saddle. For the case $\mu<1$. Since the two infinity equilibria are hyperbolic nodes and the finite equilibrium $E_{1}=(0,0)$ is a node
or a focus, the other finite equilibrium $E_{2}$ should be a hyperbolic saddle applying Theorem 5 to the Poincaré sphere.

For the case $\mu>1$. According to Theorem 5 again, the sum of the indices of finite equilibria $E_{i}, i=1,2,3,4$ is 0 because the two infinity equilibria are hyperbolic nodes. Thus we can conclude that the quadrilateral with vertices at these finite equilibria is convex by Theorem 6, and then $E_{2}$ is a hyperbolic saddle, $E_{3}$ and $E_{4}$ are hyperbolic antisaddles, i.e. they can be nodes, foci or centers. The equilibria $E_{3}$ and $E_{4}$ cannot be centers because systems (1) have no periodic orbits by Proposition 4. In the following we prove that $E_{3}$ and $E_{4}$ are stable foci. The eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrix of systems (1) at a point $(x, y)$ are

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{ \pm}=-1 \pm \sqrt{(2 x-\mu)(2 y-1)} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\mu=2$, then we know that $E_{3}$ and $E_{4}$ are stable foci. Since $(2 x-\mu)(2 y-1)$ with $\mu>1$ never vanish in the equilibria $E_{3}$ and $E_{4}$ of systems (1) and taking into account that the sum of the eigenvalues at any equilibrium point is -2 , we can deduce that $E_{3}$ and $E_{4}$ are stable foci for all $\mu>1$.

## 3. Proof of Theorem 1

Let $\varphi(t, p)$ be an orbit of an analytic vector field. If this orbit is defined for all $t \geqslant 0$ we denote its $\omega$-limit set as $\omega(p)$ or $\omega(\varphi)$. If this orbit is defined for all $t \leqslant 0$ its $\alpha$-limit set is defined by $\alpha(p)$ or $\alpha(\varphi)$.

Before prove our main result we state the well known Poincaré-Bendixson Theorem and the Markus-Neumann-Peixoto Theorem, see Corollary 1.30 and Theorem 1.43 of [21].

Theorem 8 (Poincaré-Bendixson Theorem). Let $\varphi(t, p)$ be an integral curve of an analytic vector field $\mathcal{X}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ defined for all $t \geqslant 0$, such that $\gamma_{p}^{+}=\{\varphi(t, p): t \geqslant 0\}$ is contained in a compact set $K$. Assume that the vector field $\mathcal{X}$ has a finite number of equilibrium points in $\omega(p)$. Then one of the following statement holds.
(i) If $\omega(p)$ contains only regular points, then $\omega(p)$ is a limit cycle.
(ii) If $\omega(p)$ contains regular and equilibrium points, then $\omega(p)$ is formed by a finite number of orbits $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \cdots, \gamma_{n}$ and a finite number of equilibrium points $p_{1}, p_{2}, \cdots, p_{n}$ such that $\alpha\left(\gamma_{i}\right)=p_{i}, \omega\left(\gamma_{i}\right)=p_{i+1}$ for $i=1,2, \cdots, n-$ $1, \alpha\left(\gamma_{n}\right)=p_{n}$ and $\omega\left(\gamma_{n}\right)=p_{1}$. Such kind of $\omega$-limit sets are called graphics. Possibly some of the equilibrium points $\gamma_{i}$ can be identified.
(iii) If $\omega(p)$ does not contain regular points, then $\omega(p)$ is a equilibrium point.
(iv) Similar results for the $\alpha$-limit set.

Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a polynomial vector field, and let $p(\mathcal{X})$ be its Poincaré compactification. Assume that $p(\mathcal{X})$ has finitely many equilibria. Then the set $\Sigma$ of all separatrices of $p(\mathcal{X})$ in the Poincaré disc are all its infinite orbits, its finite equilibria, its limit cycles and its graphics. It is known that $\Sigma$ is a closed set in the Poincaré disc $\mathbb{D}^{2}$. Each open component of $\mathbb{D}^{2} \backslash \Sigma$ is called a canonical region. Then a separatrix skeleton $\mathcal{S}$ of $\mathcal{X}$ or of $p(\mathcal{X})$ is the union of $\Sigma$ plus an orbit of each canonical region. We say that two separatrix skeletons $\mathcal{S}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{S}_{2}$ corresponding to two polynomial vector fields $\mathcal{X}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{X}_{2}$ are equivalent if there exists a homeomorphism $h: \mathcal{S}_{1} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_{2}$.

Theorem 9 (Markus-Neumann-Peixoto Theorem). Assume that $p\left(\mathcal{X}_{1}\right)$ and $p\left(\mathcal{X}_{2}\right)$ are two Poincaré compactifications of two polynomial vector fields $\mathcal{X}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{X}_{2}$ with finitely many separatrices. Then their phase portraits in the Poincaré disc are topologically equivalent if and only if their separatrix skeletons are equivalent.

In order to obtain the position of the local separatrices of the saddle $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ (see Figure 2.2), we introduce the following result which is given in [19].

Lemma 10. On any straight line which is not composed of paths the total number of equilibrium points and contacts is at most two. If there are two such points, $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$, then the paths intersecting the segment $\infty P_{1}$ cross in the same sense as the paths intersecting $P_{2} \infty$ and in the opposite sense to the paths intersecting $P_{1} P_{2}$.

Proof of Theorem 1. From subsections 2.2 and 2.3, systems (1) have two infinite equilibria, a stable node and an unstable node for all values of $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$. Recall that systems (1) have no periodic orbits and no homoclinic loops by Proposition 4.
(I) For the case $\mu<0$. There are two finite equilibria: $E_{1}=(0,0)$ is a hyperbolic stable focus and $E_{2}$ is a hyperbolic saddle by statements (i) of Proposition 7.

Since there are no limit cycles and no graphics, the $\alpha$ - and $\omega$-limit sets of the separatrices of the saddle $E_{2}$ it must be equilibrium points by Theorem 8 . We know that the two unstable separatrices of the saddle $E_{2}$ cannot go together to the stable focus $E_{1}$, or to the stable node at infinity, because one of the stable separatrix of the saddle $E_{2}$ would not have its $\alpha$-limit set. So one of the unstable separatrices of the saddle $E_{2}$ goes to the stable focus $E_{1}$ and the other goes to the stable node at infinity. Therefore the two stable separatrices of $E_{2}$ have their $\alpha$-limit set at the unstable node at infinity. From the above analysis, the phase portrait of systems (1) for $\mu \geqslant 1$ is topologically equivalent to the one of Figure 1.1.
(II) For the case $\mu \in[0,1]$. There are two finite equilibria: $E_{1}=(0,0)$ is a hyperbolic stable node if $\mu \in[0,1)$, or is a semi-hyperbolic stable node if $\mu=1$, and $E_{2}$ is a hyperbolic saddle by statements (ii) and (iii) of Proposition 7. Similar with the proof of case (I) we obtain the phase portrait of systems (1) for $\mu \in[0,1]$ is topologically equivalent to the one of Figure 1.1.
(III) For the case $\mu>1$. There are four finite equilibria $E_{i}, i=1,2,3,4$ by the statement (iv) of Proposition 7, see Figure 2.2. $E_{i}$ for $i=1,2$ are hyperbolic saddles, which have two unstable separatrices $s_{i, 1}$ and $s_{i, 2}$ and two stable separatrices $s_{i, 3}$ and $s_{i, 4}$. $E_{i}$ for $i=3,4$ are hyperbolic stable foci.

We divide the proof of Theorem 1 for $\mu>1$ into five steps.
Step 1. The flow of systems (1) on the straight line $l_{1}$ (see its definition in Figure 2.2) can be determined as follows. According to the orientation of the flow at infinity we can deduce the flows of systems (1) on the segment $\infty E_{1}$ is upward, see Figure 2.2. Then we can determine the flow of systems (1) on the segment $E_{1} E_{3}$ and $E_{3} \infty$ by Lemma 10. The flow of systems (1) on the straight lines $l_{2}, l_{4}$ and $l_{5}$ can be deduced similarly. Recall that $l_{3}: y=x$. Since the inner product of the vectors $(-1,1)$ and $\left(y^{2}-y-x, x^{2}-\mu x-y\right)$ on the straight line $y=x$ is equal to $(1-\mu) x$, the flows of systems (1) on the line $y=x$ is described in Figure 2.2.

Thus we can obtain the position of the local separatrices of the saddles $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ as they are indicated in Figure 2.2. Let $\mu=2$ we know that the finite equilibria $E_{2}$ and $E_{3}$ are located in the region $y<x$, and $E_{4}$ is contained in the region $y>x$. Taking into account the direction of the flows on the straight line $l_{3}$ and that the quadrilateral with vertices at these equilibria $E_{i}, i=1,2,3,4$ is convex (due to Berlinskii Theorem), then we can deduce that for $\mu>1$ the equilibria $E_{2}$ and $E_{3}$ always are located in the region $y<x$, while $E_{4}$ is always contained in the region $y>x$.

Step 2. Since systems (1) have no homoclinic loops (see Proposition 4), and taking into account that the sense of the flow of systems (1) on the straight lines $l_{3}$ and $l_{4}$, we know that the $\alpha$-limit set of separatrix $s_{1,3}$ of the saddle $E_{1}$ is the unstable node at infinity. Similarly we can deduce the $\alpha$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{1,4}$ of the saddle $E_{1}$ is the unstable node at infinity, and the $\omega$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{2,2}$ of the saddle $E_{2}$ is the stable node at infinity.

Step 3. Note that the separatrix $s_{1,4}$ of the saddle $E_{1}$ must intersect the straight line $l_{4}$ in the segment $\infty E_{4}$. It is easy to know using the Poincaré-Bendixson Theorem that the $\omega$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{1,2}$ of the saddle $E_{1}$ is the stable focus $E_{4}$ because the systems have no periodic orbits (see Proposition 4), and the $\alpha$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{2,3}$ of the saddle $E_{2}$ is the unstable node at infinity.

Step 4. We claim using the Poincaré-Bendixson Theorem that the $\omega$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{2,1}$ of the saddle $E_{2}$ is the stable focus $E_{3}$ because the systems have no periodic orbits (see Proposition 4). Otherwise it can only be the stable node at infinity, this situation cannot occurs because then the $\alpha$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{2,4}$ of the saddle $E_{2}$ cannot exist.

Step 5. The remaining separatrices are $s_{1,1}$ and $s_{2,4}$. The $\omega$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{1,1}$ of the saddle $E_{1}$ can be either the stable focus $E_{3}$ or the stable node at infinity.

Subcase (III.1) If the $\omega$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{1,1}$ of the saddle $E_{1}$ is the stable focus $E_{3}$, then the $\alpha$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{2,4}$ of the saddle $E_{2}$ is the unstable node at infinity. In this case the phase portrait of systems (1) for $\mu>1$ is topologically equivalent to the one of Figure 1.2. In fact it is not difficult to check that for $\mu>1$ but close to 1 , then the phase portrait of a differential systems (1) is topologically equivalent to Figure 1.2.

Subcase (III.2) If the $\omega$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{1,1}$ of the saddle $E_{1}$ is the stable node at infinity, then the $\alpha$-limit set of the separatrix $s_{2,4}$ of the saddle $E_{2}$ is also the unstable node at infinity. In this case the phase portrait of systems (1) for $\mu>1$ is topologically equivalent to the one of Figure 1.3. If $\mu=20$ it is not difficult to verify that the phase portrait of a differential systems (1) is topologically equivalent to Figure 1.3.

Subcase (III.3) From the above subcases (III.1) and (III.2), we know that the separatrix $s_{1,1}$ of the saddle $E_{1}$ and the separatrix $s_{2,4}$ of the saddle $E_{2}$ must connect for some value $\mu^{*}$ of the parameter $\mu$ by continuity. In this case the phase portrait of a systems (1) is topologically equivalent to the one of Figure 1.4. Moreover, numerically we find that $\mu^{*} \in(10.4722,10.4723)$.

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