

INTRODUCTION TO DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

1

- (1) - table of contents
(2) - introduction to notes
(3-5) - basic terminology (§1.1-1.2)
(5) - direction fields (§1.3)
(6) - Euler's Method (§1.4)
(6-7) - Separation of Variables (§2.2)
(8-9) - integrating factors (§2.3)
(10-12) - exact eqⁿ's (§2.4)
(13-16) - applications & physics (§3.1-3.4)
(17-21) - theory of linear ODEs (§4.2,4.3,6.2,6.3)
(22) - linear independence for frnts. (§4.2,6.1)
(23) - differential operators (6.3)
(24-25) - Complex analysis (§4.3,6.2)
(26) - algebra review
(27) - more differential ops. (§6.3)
(28-30) - solⁿ to nth order const. (§4.2,4.3,6.2,6.3)
coeff. linear ODE.
(31-33) - undetermined coeff. (§4.4,4.5,6.3)
(34) - annihilator method (§6.3)
(34) - superposition principle (§4.5)
(35-39) - variation of parameters (§4.6,6.4)
(40-48) - Laplace Transforms (§7.1,7.2,7.3)
(49-51) - Inverse Laplace Transforms (§7.4)
(52-54) - Solving ODEs via Laplace. (§7.5)
(55-61) - More Laplace Transforms (§7.6)
(62-65) - fun with convolutions (§7.7)
(66-69) - DIRAC DELTA FUNCTION (§7.8)
(70-71) - Systems of ODEs, how (§7.9)
to solve with Laplace
Transforms.
- (72-74) - 2 eqⁿ's & 2 unknowns
(75-82) - n eqⁿ's & n unknowns and (§9.1,9.2,9.3)
how to use matrices
to solve these algebraic
problems.
(83-84) - Normal Form (§9.4)
(85-88) - theory of systems of linear (§9.4-9.5)
diff. eqⁿ's in normal form.
(85) - linear independence of (§9.5)
vector-valued functions
(89-94) - sol² to homogeneous systems (§9.5,9.6)
of linear ODEs (easy cases)
(100-101) - undetermined coeff. for systems (§9.7)
(102-103) - variation of parameters for (§9.7)
systems of ODEs.
(104-103) - matrix exponential function and (§9.8)
how to use it to solve
any linear ODE in
normal form.

HOMEWORK SOLUTIONS

- (H1-H22) - first order DEqⁿ's, based on
prerequisite knowledge and 3-16.
(H23-H44) - higher order DEqⁿ's based on 17-39.
(H45-H70) - Laplace Methods follows 40-69.
(H71-H103) - Systems of Linear ODEs follows 70-103.

Remarks: certain homeworks supersede my
notes, but not generally. All the homework
is from our text,

"FUNDAMENTALS OF DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS
AND BOUNDARY VALUE PROBLEMS" 4th Ed.
NAGLE, SAFF & SNIDER

I have indicated the sections most
relevant to the notes parenthetically. If
you wish to see more applications the
text has much more than I've
included in these notes. My main
intent is to explain the math, I leave
the motivation to you (the adult)

INTRODUCTION TO MY NOTES

These notes follow your text mostly. If I can teach you a fraction of the text I'll be happy, it's a great book. Anyway I tend to use some abbreviations here and there so let me list them here for your convenience,

Symbols	Meaning
\S	section
\exists	there exists
\nexists	there does not exist
$a \in B$	a is an element of B
\mathbb{N}	Natural #'s 1, 2, 3, ...
\mathbb{Z}	Integers ..., -1, 0, 1, 2, ...
\Rightarrow	implies
\Leftrightarrow	if and only if
iff	\Leftrightarrow
\therefore	therefore
$\#$	change in topic
\forall	for all
\equiv	definition
def^o	definition
Sol^o	solution
w.r.t	with respect to
\notin	not an element of

Symbols	Meaning
f -la	formula
Th^m	theorem
eq^n	equation
s.t.	such that
\mathbb{R}	real numbers $(-\infty, \infty)$
α	alpha
β	beta
γ	gamma
δ	delta
θ	theta
Ω	omega
ω	omega
ψ	psi
ϕ	phi

LI = linear independence
 ODE = ordinary differential equation
 fnct = function

(3)

BASIC TERMINOLOGY

Let us suppose that x is the independent variable and y is the dependent variable. That means we can view y as a function of x . An ordinary differential equation (O.D.E.) is an eqⁿ of the form,

$$F(y^{(n)}, y^{(n-1)}, \dots, y^{(2)}, y', y, x) = 0 \quad n^{\text{th}} \text{ order differential eq}^n$$

Where $y^{(n)} = \frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$ and $y' = \frac{dy}{dx}$. This highest derivative that appears gives the order of the DEqⁿ. It is called ordinary because all the derivatives are just w.r.t. x . When a differential eqⁿ has partial derivatives (like $\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$ for example) then it is called a partial differential eqⁿ (PDE). Those are more subtle to solve and we relegate the discussion of how to solve PDE's to Ma 401.

Defⁿ/ A n^{th} order linear differential eqⁿ has the form

$$a_n(x) \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + a_{n-1}(x) \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + a_1(x) \frac{dy}{dx} + a_0(x) y = F(x)$$

Examples

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2 \quad (\text{non-linear} // \text{solved by separating variables})$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y = \cos(x) \quad (\text{linear} // \text{solved with method of undetermined coefficients})$$

$$y'' + 3y' + 3y = \tan(t) \quad (\text{linear} // \text{variation of parameters will solve it})$$

$$\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = \sin(x) \quad (\text{non-linear} // \text{if you can solve this I'll be impressed.})$$

Defⁿ/ A solution to a differential eqⁿ $F(y^{(n)}, \dots, x) = 0$ is a function f such that

$$F(f^{(n)}(x), f^{(n-1)}(x), \dots, f'(x), f(x), x) = 0$$

- Given a n^{th} order ODE $F(y^{(n)}, \dots, y', x) = 0$ we will find there is not a unique solⁿ just on the basis of the DEgⁿ itself. Roughly speaking solving a n^{th} order DEgⁿ amounts to taking n -integrals. For each integral we get an integration constant, so as those constants are arbitrary we see we get infinitely many solⁿ's. As a common abuse of terminology I will often refer to this infinite family of solutions as the "general sol".
- Now, if DEgⁿ's are to describe the real world this is discouraging, it would seem we can never uniquely describe a system with an ODE. The solⁿ to this is simple, physical systems are in practice modelled by DEgⁿ's + INTIAL CONDITIONS.

Def/A solⁿ to an initial value problem (IVP) on an interval I containing x_0 is a solⁿ to a DEgⁿ $F(Y^{(n)}, \dots, Y', x) = 0$ that also satisfies n -extra initial conditions

$$Y(x_0) = y_0, \frac{dy}{dx}(x_0) = y_1, \dots, \frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}}(x_0) = y_{n-1}$$

where y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} are given constants.

- Usually an initial value problem has a unique solⁿ, but not always (you have a hwk. problem to illustrate this)

Thⁿ(1) Given an IVP $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y), Y(x_0) = y_0$. If f and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ are continuous in a rectangle that contains the point (x_0, y_0) . then the IVP has a unique solⁿ in some interval $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ for $\delta > 0$.

- The solⁿ may or may not extend to the whole rectangle. This is a local theorem, it just tells us about solⁿ's near the point x_0 .

Remark: Sometimes we will given an implicit formula to describe a function. For some examples rather than possessing an explicit formula for $f(x)$ we'll instead say the sol^2 is the locus of points satisfying some relation.

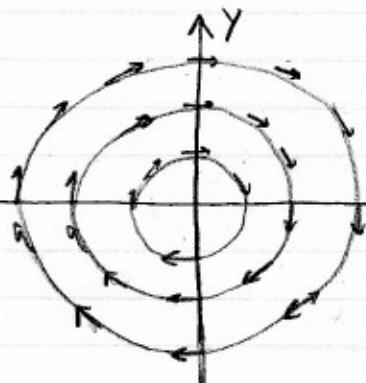
Example: $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is a sol^2 to $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$

At the level of functions we'd have two sol^2 's $f_1(x) = \sqrt{1-x^2}$ for $y > 0$ and $f_2(x) = -\sqrt{1-x^2}$ for $y < 0$.

DIRECTION FIELDS

One method of visualizing a DEqⁿ is to draw its direction field.

[E1]

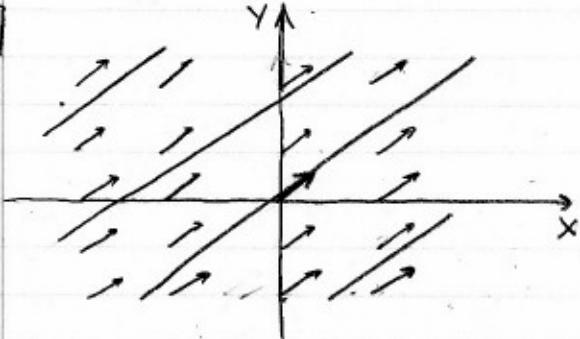


the little arrows → indicate the slope that tangents to the sol^2 curves must have. Here I've tried to sketch:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$$

and a few of the sol^2 's which happen to be circles.

[E2]



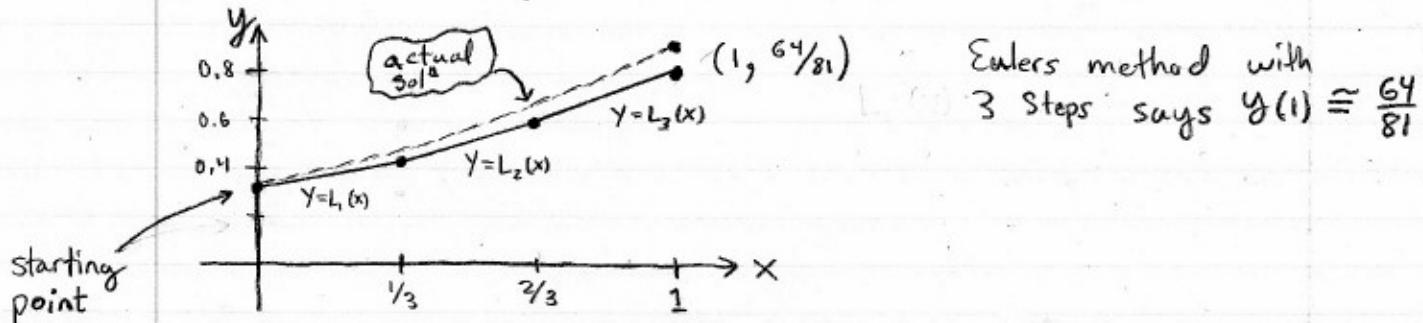
here I've sketched the direction field for $\frac{dy}{dx} = 1$. Sol^2 's have slope one everywhere, that means they're lines of slope one,
 $y = x + b$

Remark: I cannot draw all the sol^2 's, they literally fill the (xy) -plane*. We can see that DEqⁿ's do not usually give unique sol^2 's. *oh, to be careful we should throw out $(0,0)$ in [E1])

Euler's Method

- Closely related to the idea of the direction field.
- In short, Euler's Method generates approximate solⁿ's to a DEqⁿ by replacing the real solⁿ with a piecewise linear version of the solⁿ.

[E3] $\frac{dy}{dx} = y$ given the initial data $y(0) = \frac{1}{3}$ find $y(1)$ using Euler's method with 3 - steps.



$$\begin{aligned} L_1(x) &= \frac{1}{3} + \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)(x-0) &\Rightarrow L_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) &= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{4}{9} = y_1 \\ L_2(x) &= \frac{4}{9} + \left(\frac{4}{9}\right)(x-\frac{1}{3}) &\Rightarrow L_2\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) &= \frac{4}{9} + \frac{4}{27} = \frac{16}{27} = y_2 \\ L_3(x) &= \frac{16}{27} + \left(\frac{16}{27}\right)(x-\frac{2}{3}) &\Rightarrow L_3(1) &= \frac{16}{27} + \frac{16}{81} = \frac{64}{81} = y_3 \end{aligned}$$

Remark: Euler's method & Direction fields require a lot of brute force arithmetic, as such they are best implemented by technology. We will focus on those methods which do not require numerical assistance. You should be aware that many problems defy closed form solⁿ's so we are driven to solve numerically.

Separation of Variables

[E1] $\frac{dy}{dx} = y \Rightarrow \int \frac{dy}{y} = \int dx \Rightarrow \ln|y| = x + C \Rightarrow y = ce^x$

$$y(0) = c = \frac{1}{3} \Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{3} e^x \quad (\text{exact sol}^n \text{ to [E3] above})$$

- let's compare the approximation to the real deal,

$$y(1) = \frac{1}{3} e^1 = 0.9061 \quad \text{compared to } \frac{64}{81} = 0.79$$

E2 $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{6x^5 - 2x + 1}{\cos(y) + \sec^2(y)}$, find the general solⁿ implicitly

$$\int (\cos(y) + \sec^2(y)) dy = \int (6x^5 - 2x + 1) dx$$

$$\boxed{\sin(y) + \tan(y) = x^6 - x^2 + x + C} \leftarrow \text{implicit general sol}^n$$

E3 $y' = x^3(1-y)$ with $y(0) = 3$, find explicit sol^e to IVP.
Recall that $y' = \frac{dy}{dx}$ when x is the independent variable,

$$\int \frac{dy}{1-y} = \int x^3 dx \Rightarrow -\ln|1-y| = \frac{1}{4}x^4 + C_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln|1-y| = C_2 - \frac{x^4}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow |1-y| = e^{C_2 - \frac{x^4}{4}}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1-y = \pm e^{C_2} e^{-x^4/4}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{y = 1 + ce^{-x^4/4}}$$

$$\text{Now } y(0) = 3 \Rightarrow 3 = 1 + c \quad \therefore c=2 \Rightarrow \boxed{y = 1 + 2e^{-x^4/4}}$$

E4 $x = \text{position}$

$v = \frac{dx}{dt} = \text{velocity}$

$a = \frac{dv}{dt} = \text{acceleration}$

Suppose that the acceleration is constant, in particular consider $a = g \in \mathbb{R}$. Find velocity as a function of time, and then position.

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = g \Rightarrow \int dv = \int g dt \Rightarrow \boxed{v = gt + C}$$

To find v as a function of x we could find $x(t)$ then solve for t , but we can get around finding $x(t)$ if we use the chain rule $\frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{dx}{dt} \frac{dv}{dx}$ but $\frac{dx}{dt} = v$ so,

$$v \frac{dv}{dx} = g \Rightarrow \int v dv = \int g dx \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}v^2 = gx + C$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{v = \pm \sqrt{2gx + C}}$$