

# MATH1023/MATH1062 Calculas

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## 1 Week1

### 1.1 Differential Equation

1. **Differential Equation(DE)**: A differential equation (DE) is a mathematical equation that relates some function with its derivatives
2. **Order**: The order of a differential equation equals to a highest derivative occuring in it.
  - $\frac{dy}{dx} = -ky$  has order 1
  - $\frac{dy}{dx} = y^{18} + \frac{d^5y}{dx^2}y + x^2$  has order 5
3. **Standard Form**: The standard form of a first-order differential equation is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$$

4. **General Solution**: A general solution is a solution incoporating all constants of integration.
5. **Initial Condition**: An initial condition is a pair  $(x_0, y_0)$  such that  $y(x_0) = y_0$

## 2 Week2

### 2.1 Direction Field

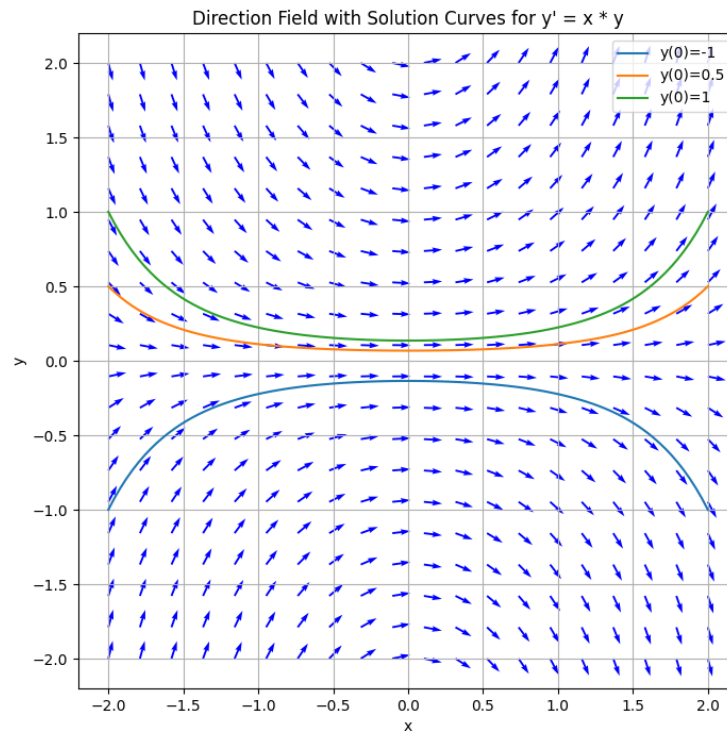
1. **Definition**: A direction field of a DE

$$y' = f(x, y)$$

consists of a grid of short line segments with slope  $f(a, b)$  drawn at points  $(a, b)$ . So the line segment at  $(a, b)$  is tangent to any solution passing through  $(a, b)$

2. **Example:** Draw some solution curves on the given direction field for the DE:

$$y' = xy$$



## 2.2 Separable equations

1. **Definition:** A first-order DE  $y' = f(x, y)$  is called **separable** if there are functions  $g(x)$  and  $h(y)$  such that  $f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$ , so a separable DE can be written

$$y' = g(x)h(y)$$

2. **Goal:** We want to find a method for solving separable DEs
3. **Method:** We can solve a separable DE:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)h(y)$$

by separating variables.

Dividing both sides by  $h(y)$  gives

$$\frac{1}{h(y)} \frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)$$

Integrating both sides gives:

$$\int \frac{1}{h(y)} dy = \int g(x) dx$$

If we can find antiderivatives  $H(y)$  for  $\frac{1}{h(y)}$  and  $G(x)$  for  $g(x)$ , then we have

$$H(y) = G(x) + C$$

### 3 Week3

#### 3.1 Modelling Population Growth

1. **Constant Growth:** This occurs when the population  $x$  increases at a constant rate. The DE is

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k$$

where  $k$  is constant

2. **Exponential Growth:** The exponential growth model assumes the growth rate is proportional to the size of the population.

The general form of a DE modelling exponential growth is

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = kx$$

where  $k$  is constant

3. **Logistic Growth:** Exponential growth is **not** a realistic growth model for all values of  $t$ . **A small animal population** with unlimited resources of food and space **may show exponential growth initially**

As the population gets larger there will be food shortages, overcrowding, and other factors that **slow down the growth rate**.

**The growth rate  $k$  should decrease as the population  $x$  increases.**

Since  $k$  is no longer constant, we write  $k = g(x)$ , so the DE becomes

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = g(x)x$$

A small population can grow exponentially, so we want  $g(x) \approx k$  when  $x \approx 0$ . But as  $x$  increases  $g(x)$  should decrease.

The simplest formula with this behaviour is

$$g(x) = k - ax$$

So the DE becomes

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = (k - ax)x$$

We introduce a new constant  $b = \frac{k}{a}$  so

$$(k - ax)x = ax\left(\frac{k}{a} - x\right) = ax(b - x)$$

Let  $\frac{b}{a} = b$ , the logistic DE is then given by

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = ax(b - x)$$

## 4 week4

### 4.1 First-order linear DEs

1. **First-order linear differential equation:** A first-order linear differential equation is a DE of the form:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + p(x)y = q(x)$$

$\frac{dy}{dx}$  and  $y$  occur only linearly

2. **How to solve first-order linear DEs ?:** The idea is multiplying the DE by a function  $r(x)$  give:

$$r(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + r(x)p(x)y = r(x)q(x)$$

If we can find  $r(x)$  such that:

$$r(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + r(x)p(x)y = \frac{d}{dx}(r(x)y(x))$$

then the DE becomes:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(r(x)y(x)) = r(x)q(x)$$

Integrating with respect to  $x$  gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{d}{dx}(r(x)y(x))dx &= \int r(x)q(x)dx \\ &\rightarrow \\ r(x)y(x) &= \int r(x)q(x)dx + C \end{aligned}$$

so the general solution is

$$y = \frac{1}{r(x)} \left[ \int r(x)q(x)dx + C \right]$$

3. **Integrating factor:** The function

$$r(x) = e^{\int p(x)dx}$$

is an integrating factor for the first-order linear DE

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + p(x)y = q(x)$$

4. **General Solution** the general solution of the DE is

$$y = \frac{1}{r(x)} \left[ \int r(x)q(x)dx + C \right]$$

## 5 week5

### 5.1 Higher order differential equations

Higher order DEs involve higher order derivatives. For example, the DE:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + f(x, y)\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x, y)$$

is a **second-order differential** equation.

1. Solving higher-order DEs is harder.
2. The general solution of a second-order DE has 2 degrees of freedom, so needs two initial conditions.
3. The general solution of an **nth-order DE** has **n degrees of freedom**, so **needs n initial conditions**.

### 5.2 Second-order linear DEs with constant coefficients

1. **Definition** A **second-order linear differential equation** is a DE that can be expressed in the form:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + f_1(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + f_0(x)y = g(x)$$

**The DE is linear in  $y$  and its derivatives.**

#### 2. homogeneous/inhomogeneous

- The DE is homogeneous if  $g(x) = 0$
- The DE is inhomogeneous if  $g(x) \neq 0$

If  $g(x) = 0, f_0(x) = a, f_1(x) = b$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , then we have a homogeneous second-order linear differential equation with constant coefficient:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a\frac{dy}{dx} + by = 0$$

3. Solve the above DE :

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a\frac{dy}{dx} + by = 0$$

- **Observation 1:**  $y$  is a linear combination of its first two derivatives, so we try:

$$y(x) = e^{mx}$$

We have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = me^{mx}, \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = m^2e^{mx}$$

- **Observation 2:** Find  $m$  such that  $y = Ce^{mx}$  satisfies the DE

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a\frac{dy}{dx} + by = 0$$

substituting  $y$  and its derivatives we get:

$$\begin{aligned} Cm^2e^{mx} + aCme^{mx} + bCe^{mx} &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow Ce^{mx}(m^2 + am + b) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow m &= \frac{-a \pm \sqrt{a^2 - 4b}}{2} \end{aligned}$$

So we have 2 solutions

$$m_1 = \frac{-a + \sqrt{a^2 - 4b}}{2}, m_2 = \frac{-a - \sqrt{a^2 - 4b}}{2}$$

- **Observation 3:** Show that if  $m = m_1, m_2$  are solutions of  $m^2 + am + b = 0$ , then  $y = C_1e^{m_1x} + C_2e^{m_2x}$ , satisfies the DE

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a\frac{dy}{dx} + by = 0$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} y &= C_1e^{m_1x} + C_2e^{m_2x} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} &= m_1C_1e^{m_1x} + m_2C_2e^{m_2x} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} &= m_1^2C_1e^{m_1x} + m_2^2C_2e^{m_2x} \end{aligned}$$

substituting into the DE we get

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} &= m_1C_1e^{m_1x} + m_2C_2e^{m_2x} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} &= m_1^2C_1e^{m_1x} + m_2^2C_2e^{m_2x} \end{aligned}$$

substituting into the DE we get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a\frac{dy}{dx} + by &= m_1^2 C_1 e^{m_1 x} + m_2^2 C_2 e^{m_2 x} + a(m_1 C_1 e^{m_1 x} + m_2 C_2 e^{m_2 x}) + b(C_1 e^{m_1 x} + C_2 e^{m_2 x}) \\ &= C_1 e^{m_1 x} (m_1^2 + am_1 + b) + C_2 e^{m_2 x} (m_2^2 + am_2 + b) \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

- **formal solution:** We now have a good candidate for a general solution of the DE:

$$y = C_1 e^{m_1 x} + C_2 e^{m_2 x}$$

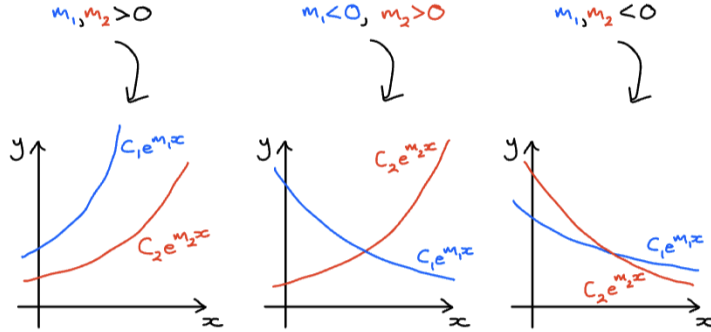
Where  $m_1 = \frac{-a + \sqrt{a^2 - 4b}}{2}, m_2 = \frac{-a - \sqrt{a^2 - 4b}}{2}$  are solutions of  $m^2 + am + b = 0$ . We have 3 cases to consider:

- **Case 1:** For  $a^2 > 4b$  we have 2 distinct real solutions

$$m_1 \neq m_2, m_1, m_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

The general solution is

$$y = C_1 e^{m_1 x} + C_2 e^{m_2 x}$$



- **Case 2:** For  $a^2 < 4b$  we have 2 distinct complex solutions:

$$m_1, m_2 = \frac{-a \pm \sqrt{a^2 - 4b}}{2} = \frac{-a \pm 2ik}{2} = -\frac{a}{2} \pm ik$$

$$\text{where } k = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{4b - a^2} > 0$$

Using Euler's formula:

$$e^{ikx} = \cos(kx) + i\sin(kx)$$

We have

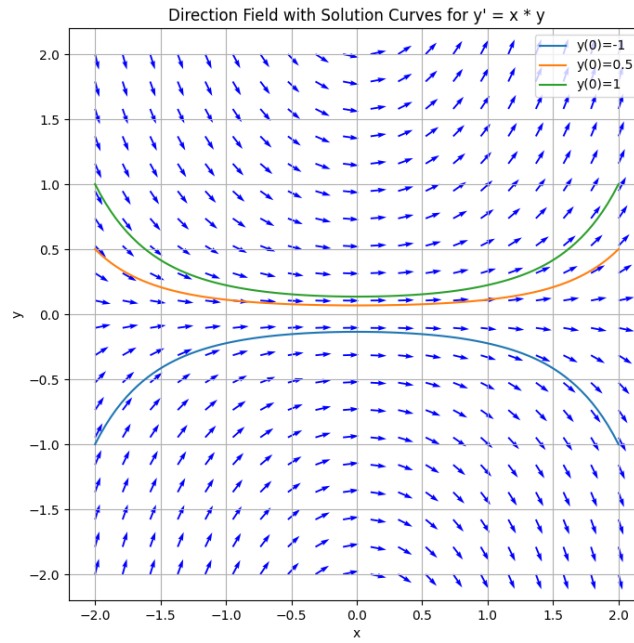
$$\begin{aligned}y &= C_1 e^{m_1 x} + C_2 e^{m_2 x} \\ &= C_1 e^{(-\frac{a}{2} + ik)x} + C_2 e^{(-\frac{a}{2} - ik)x} \\ &= e^{-\frac{a}{2}x} (C_1 e^{ikx} + C_2 e^{-ikx})\end{aligned}$$

$$= e^{-\frac{a}{2}x} (C_1 (\cos(kx) + i \sin(kx)) + C_2 (\cos(kx) - i \sin(kx)))$$

$$= e^{-\frac{a}{2}x} ((C_1 + C_2) \cos(kx) + i (C_1 - C_2) \sin(kx))$$

$$= e^{-\frac{a}{2}x} (D_1 \cos(kx) + D_2 \sin(kx))$$

So the general solution is:  $y = e^{-\frac{a}{2}x} (D_1 \cos(kx) + D_2 \sin(kx))$



– **Case 3:** For  $a^2 = 4b$  we have 1 real solution:

$$m_1 = m_2 = \frac{-a \pm \sqrt{a^2 - 4b}}{2} = -\frac{a}{2}$$

Our solution becomes

$$y = C_1 e^{-\frac{a}{2}x} + C_2 e^{-\frac{a}{2}x}$$

$$= (C_1 + C_2) e^{-\frac{a}{2}x}$$

$$= D e^{-\frac{a}{2}x}$$

Here,  $D$  is a constant ( $D = C_1 + C_2$ ), which means we only have 1 degree of freedom, so this is not a general solution.



We look for a general solution of the form

$$y = f(x)e^{-\frac{a}{2}x}$$

Substituting  $y$  and its derivatives into the differential equation (DE)

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a\frac{dy}{dx} + by = 0$$

gives

$$e^{-\frac{a}{2}x} \left( f''(x) + \frac{1}{4}(4b - a^2)f(x) \right) = 0 \quad (\text{exercise})$$

Since  $e^{-\frac{a}{2}x} \neq 0$ ,

$$f''(x) = \frac{1}{4}(a^2 - 4b)f(x) = 0$$

which implies

$$f'(x) = C_2$$

$$f(x) = C_2x + C_1$$

Hence, the general solution is

$$y = (C_1 + C_2x)e^{-\frac{a}{2}x}$$

## 6 week6

### Simple harmonic motion

- Periodic behaviour **without** damping is modelled by the DE

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + bx = 0, b > 0$$

or

$$\ddot{x} + w_0^2 x = 0$$

- We can express the solution as

$$x = A \cos(w_0 t + \phi)$$

- $A$  = amplitude
- $w_0$  = frequency
- $\phi$  = phase
- $T = \frac{2\pi}{w_0}$  = period

### Damped harmonic oscillator

- Periodic behaviour **with** damping is modelled by the DE:

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + a \frac{dx}{dt} + bx = 0$$

with  $a = 2\gamma, b = \omega_0^2$ , or

$$\ddot{x} + 2\gamma \dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = 0$$

- The characteristic equation is

$$m^2 + am + b = 0$$

which has solution

$$m = \frac{-a \pm \sqrt{a^2 - 4b}}{2} = -\gamma \pm \sqrt{\gamma^2 - \omega_0^2}$$

### Inhomogeneous second-order linear DEs with constant coefficients

- An **inhomogeneous second-order linear differential equation** with constant coefficients is a DE that can be expressed in the form:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a \frac{dy}{dx} + by = g(x)$$

- **theorem:** Let  $y_p(x)$  be a particular solution of an **inhomogeneous linear DE** and let  $y_h(x)$  be the **general solution** of the corresponding homogeneous DE. Then the general solution of the inhomogeneous DE is the

$$y(x) = y_h(x) + y_p(x)$$

- **systems of first-order linear DEs with constant coefficients:** A system of two first-order DEs with constant coefficients has the form:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= ax + by \quad (*), \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= cx + fy \quad (**)\end{aligned}$$

to solve this system, we follow the following steps:

1. Differentiate (\*)

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = a \frac{dx}{dt} + b \frac{dy}{dt} \quad (\text{I})$$

2. Substitute the right hand side of of (\*\*) into (I)

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = a \frac{dx}{dt} + b(cx + fy) \quad (\text{II})$$

3. Rearrange (\*) to make y the subject

$$y = \frac{1}{b} \left( \frac{dx}{dt} - ax \right) \quad (\text{III})$$

4. Substitute the right hand side of (III) into (II)

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = a \frac{dx}{dt} + b \left( cx + \frac{f}{b} \left( \frac{dx}{dt} - ax \right) \right) \rightarrow \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = (a + f) \frac{dx}{dt} + (bx - af)x$$

5. Solve the DE

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} - (a + f) \frac{dx}{dt} - (bc - af)x = 0 \text{ for } x.$$

6. Substitute x into (\*\*) and solve the **first-order linear DE** for y

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = cx + fy \rightarrow \frac{dy}{dt} + p(t)y = q(t)$$

## 7 Week7

### 2-dimensional plane

- The **2-dimensional plane**, often called the  $(x, y)$ -plane, can be represented by the set

$$\mathbb{R}^2 = \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

- The **graph** of a function

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad y = f(x), \quad D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$$

is given by the set

$$\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid y = f(x), x \in D\}$$

- Curves in the plane can also be given by parametric equations:

$$x = f(t), \quad y = g(t)$$

where  $t$  is a parameter.

### 3-dimensional space

- **3-dimensional space** can be represented by the set

$$\mathbb{R}^3 = \{(x, y, z) \mid x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

- **Right-handed system:** The  $x, y, z$  axes are a right-handed system. The positive  $x, y, z$  directions are determined by the right-hand rule:

1. Point the fingers of your right hand in the positive  $x$ -direction.
2. Curl your fingers in the positive  $y$ -direction.
3. Your thumb points in the positive  $z$ -direction.

### Curves in $\mathbb{R}^3$

- Curves in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  can be represented using parametric equations:

$$x = f(t), \quad y = g(t), \quad z = h(t)$$

- There is **no** way of turning these parametric equations of a curve in space into a single Cartesian equation

### Surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^3$

- A **surface** in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is given by a single equation involving  $x, y, z$
- The general form of a plane is  $ax + by + cz = d$
- The general form of a **sphere** with radius  $r$  and centre  $(a, b, c)$  is  $(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 + (z - c)^2 = r^2$
- The general form of a **paraboloid** is given by

$$z = c \pm ((x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2)$$

## 8 Week8

### Function of one variable

- **Definition:** Recall that a **function of one real variable**

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$$

is a rule that assigns to each number  $x \in D$  a number  $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$

- The **domain** of  $f$  is the set  $D$  of allowed inputs.
- The **natural domain** of  $f$  is the largest subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  of allowed inputs.

## Function of 2 variables

- **Definition:** A function of 2 real variables:

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$$

is a rule that assigns to each pair  $(x, y) \in D$  a number  $f(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$

- The **domain** of  $f$  is the set  $D$  of allowed inputs
- The **natural domain** of  $f$  is the largest subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  of allowed inputs

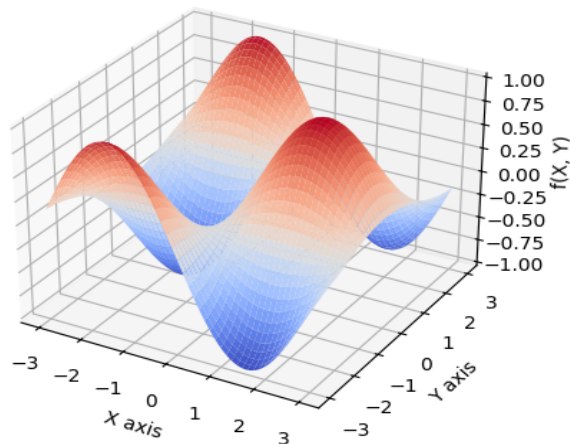
## Graphs of functions

- The **graph** of a function of 2 variables:

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is the set of points

$$\{(x, y, f(x, y)) \in \mathbb{R}^3 | (x, y) \in D\}$$



- We **can not** get a full sphere as a function. It fails the vertical line test.

## Level Curves

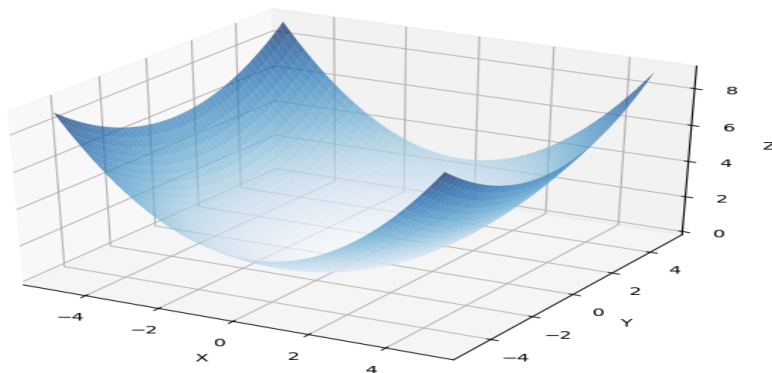
- **Definition:** A **level curve** of a function  $f(x, y)$  is a curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = c$$

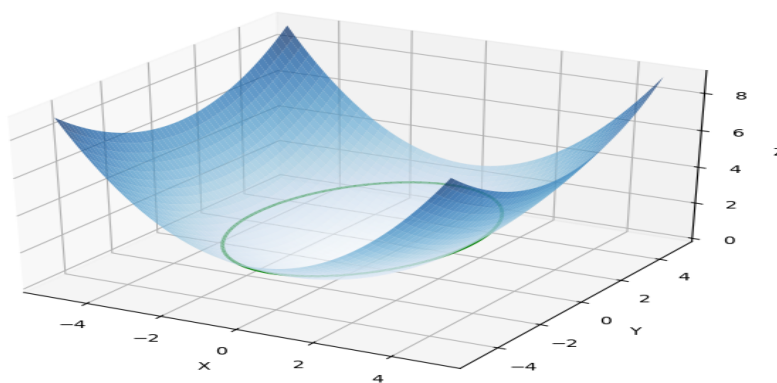
for a constant  $c \in \mathbb{R}$

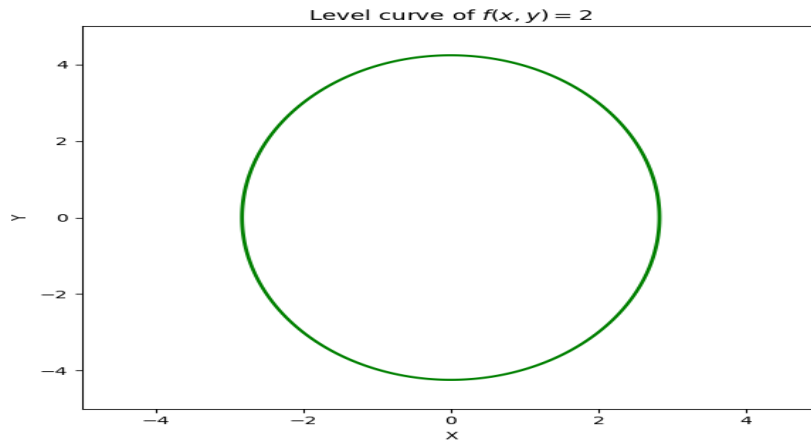
- The level curves  $f(x, y) = c$  are the intersections of the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  with the planes  $z = c$

Graph of  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{9}$



Graph of  $f(x, y) = c$  where  $c = 2$





## Partial derivatives

- **Definition:** for a sufficiently smooth function of 2 variables

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$$

The partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  at  $(x, y) = (a, b)$  is:

$$f_x(a, b) = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(x,y)=(a,b)} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h, b) - f(a, b)}{h}$$

and the partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $y$  at  $(x, y) = (a, b)$  is

$$f_y(a, b) = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(x,y)=(a,b)} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a, b+h) - f(a, b)}{h}$$

- **Terminology:** If  $f_x(a, b) = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(a,b)}$  exists for all  $(a, b) \in D$ , then we say that  $f$  is differentiable with respect to  $x$  on  $D$  and we write

$$f_x(x, y) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y)$$

for the derivative function of  $f$  w.r.t.  $x$ .

- Similarly, If  $f_y(a, b) = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(a,b)}$  exists for all  $(a, b) \in D$ , then we say that  $f$  is differentiable with respect to  $y$  on  $D$  and we write

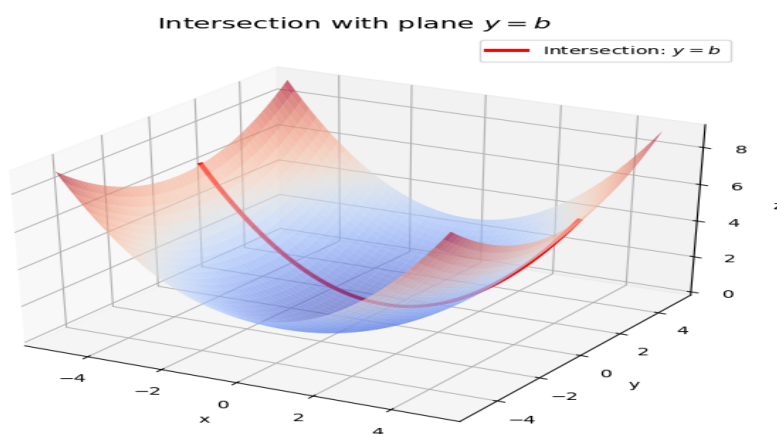
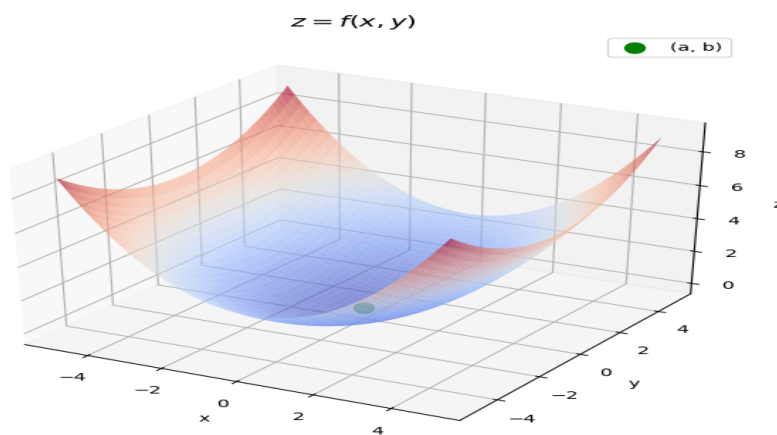
$$f_y(x, y) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y)$$

for the derivative function of  $f$  w.r.t.  $y$ .

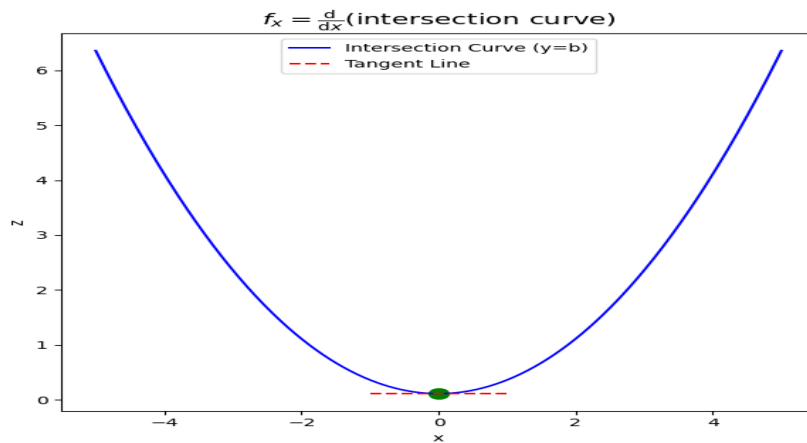
- What do partial derivatives measure? For a sufficiently smooth function:

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$$

the partial derivatives  $f_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  measure the rate of change of  $f$  on the  $x$  direction.







- Here we have the intersection of the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  and the plane  $y = b$  is the function of one variable given by

$$g(x) = f(x, b)$$

The gradient of the tangent to this curve at  $x = a$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} g'(a) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(a+h) - g(a)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h, b) - f(a, b)}{h} \\ &= f_x(a, b) \end{aligned}$$

- How do we calculate partial derivatives?
  - To calculate  $f_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ 
    1. Imagine  $y$  is a constant
    2. Differentiate as a function of one variable  $x$ .
  - To calculate  $f_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ 
    1. Imagine  $x$  is a constant
    2. Differentiate as a function of one variable  $y$ .