1 Introduction

Example 1.1: Confirm Differential Solution.

Test example.

1.1 Definitions and Terminology

Defn 1 (Differential Equation). A differential equation (DE) is an equation with 1 or more derivatives.

Remark 1.1. The highest differential determines the order of the differential equation. This means that the differential equation below is of order 2.

$$y'' + y = 0$$
$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = 0$$

Defn 2. Initial Value Problem A differential equation with one or more initial conditions is called an *initial value problem* (IVP).

Remark 2.1. To solve an initial value problem, you must have the same number of initial conditions as the order of the differential equation.

Remark 2.2 (Existence of Unique Solution). R is a rectangular region on the xy-plane $a \le x \le b$, $c \le y \le d$ that contains (x_0, y_0) interior. If f(x, y) and $\frac{df}{dy}$ are continuous on R, then an interval exists I_0 such that $(x_0 - h, x_0 + h)$ where h > 0, on the interval [a, b], and a unique function y(x), defined on I_0 that is a solution of the initial value problem.

1.2 Confirm If Differential Equation

You can confirm if the solution y(x) found for a differential equation y(x)' is the solution by differentiating the solution and putting that in the solved differential equation and verfiying that the equation holds true. This is shown in Example 1.2

Example 1.2: .

Given the differential equation, 2y' + y = 0, is $y = e^{\frac{-x}{2}}$ a solution?

y'

1.3 Separable Differential Equation

Defn 3 (Separable). A *separable* differential equation allows you to move various elements around to solve the equation. For example,

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = kP$$

$$\frac{1}{P}dP = kdt$$

$$\ln(P) = kt + C$$

$$P = Ce^{kt}$$

Remark 3.1. These are used extensively in modelling phenomena with differential equations. These include: Population Growth, Radioactive Decay, Newton's Law of Cooling/Heating, and Spread of Disease.

1.4 Modeling with Differential Equations

1.4.1 Population Growth

Defn 4 (Population Growth). Population growth can be modelled with a separable differential equation. Namely,

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = kP \tag{1.1}$$

Remark 4.1 (Population Growth Parameters). The parameters for the Population Growth equation are given below.

- *k* > 0
- *P* > 0

1.4.2 Radioactive Decay

Defn 5 (Radioactive Decay). Radioactive decay is the process that some particularly heave atoms undergo.

Defn 6 (Half-Life). The *half-life* is the usual reported metric, and is defined as the amount of time required for an element to half its mass through Radioactive Decay.

$$\frac{1}{2}A_0 = A_0 e^{kt} (1.2)$$

Remark 6.1 (Radioactive Decay Parameters). The parameters for the Radioactive Decay equation are given below.

- *k* < 0
- *A* > 0

1.4.3 Newton's Law of Cooling/Heating

Defn 7 (Newton's Law of Cooling/Heating). Newton's Law of Cooling/Heating is the same equation, but some of the parameters change. This equation is defined as:

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = k\left(T - T_m\right) \tag{1.3}$$

Remark 7.1. The parameters for the Newton's Law of Cooling/Heating equation are given below.

- $\frac{dT}{dt}$; The rate of change of temperature in the object per unit time.
- k < 0; The cooling constant and is unique to every object.
- T; The starting temperature.
- T_m ; The temperature of the surrounding medium.

1.4.4 Spread of Disease

Defn 8 (Spread of Disease). This is used to model the spread of something throughout a society or group of people.

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = kxy \tag{1.4}$$

Remark 8.1. The parameters for the Spread of Disease equation are given below.

- $\frac{dx}{dt}$; Change in the number of infected per unit time.
- k < 0; Transmission Constant
- x; Number of Infected
- y; Number of non-infected, y is really a function of x- y = n + 1 - x

1.4.5 Chemical Reactions

1.4.6 Tank Mixture

1.4.7 Torricelli's Law

1.4.8 LRC Circuits

Defn 9 (LRC Circuits). An *LRC Circuit* is analyzed in terms of the energy moving through the circuit. There is a unique relationship for the energy in each element:

$$E\left(t\right) = \frac{q}{C} \tag{1.5}$$

$$E(t) = RI = R\frac{dq}{dt} \tag{1.6}$$

$$E(t) = L\frac{dI}{dt} = L\frac{d^2q}{dt^2}$$
(1.7)

Remark 9.1. Depending on the circuit given, you might use a combination of these, but you **must** have at least one capacitor or inductor, otherwise it is not a differential equation.

Remark 9.2. These equations add together when the entire circuit is in series, i.e. the elements are put together back-to-back.

1.5 Linear and Non-Linear Differential Equations

Defn 10 (Linear Differential Equation). A *linear differential equation* is one that satisfies one of the following equations below.

$$a_{1}(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + a_{0}(x) = g(x)$$

$$a_{2}(x)\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + a_{1}(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + a_{0}(x) = g(x)$$
(1.8)

Remark 10.1. The equations in Equation (1.8) can be generalized to the nth order as shown below.

$$a_n(x)\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + a_{n-1}(x)\frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \ldots + a_1(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + a_0(x) = g(x)$$
 (1.9)

Defn 11 (Non-Linear). A *non-linear* differential equation is one that does not satisfy the definition of a Linear Differential Equation. It does not obey Equation (1.9).

A Reference Material

B Trigonometry

B.1 Trigonometric Formulas

$$\sin(\alpha) + \sin(\beta) = 2\sin\left(\frac{\alpha+\beta}{2}\right)\cos\left(\frac{\alpha-\beta}{2}\right)$$
 (B.1)

$$\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}\sin(2\theta) \tag{B.2}$$

B.2 Euler Equivalents of Trigonometric Functions

$$e^{\pm i\alpha} = \cos(\alpha) \pm i\sin(\alpha)$$
 (B.3)

$$\sin\left(x\right) = \frac{e^{ix} + e^{-ix}}{2} \tag{B.4}$$

$$\cos\left(x\right) = \frac{e^{ix} - e^{-ix}}{2i} \tag{B.5}$$

$$\sinh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$$
 (B.6)

$$\cosh\left(x\right) = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \tag{B.7}$$

B.3 Angle Sum and Difference Identities

$$\sin(\alpha \pm \beta) = \sin(\alpha)\cos(\beta) \pm \cos(\alpha)\sin(\beta) \tag{B.8}$$

$$\cos(\alpha \pm \beta) = \cos(\alpha)\cos(\beta) \mp \sin(\alpha)\sin(\beta) \tag{B.9}$$

B.4 Double-Angle Formulae

$$\sin(2\alpha) = 2\sin(\alpha)\cos(\alpha) \tag{B.10}$$

$$\cos(2\alpha) = \cos^2(\alpha) - \sin^2(\alpha) \tag{B.11}$$

B.5 Half-Angle Formulae

$$\sin\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \cos\left(\alpha\right)}{2}}\tag{B.12}$$

$$\cos\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \cos\left(\alpha\right)}{2}}\tag{B.13}$$

B.6 Exponent Reduction Formulae

$$\sin^2(\alpha) = \frac{1 - \cos(2\alpha)}{2} \tag{B.14}$$

$$\cos^2(\alpha) = \frac{1 + \cos(2\alpha)}{2} \tag{B.15}$$

B.7 Product-to-Sum Identities

$$2\cos(\alpha)\cos(\beta) = \cos(\alpha - \beta) + \cos(\alpha + \beta) \tag{B.16}$$

$$2\sin(\alpha)\sin(\beta) = \cos(\alpha - \beta) - \cos(\alpha + \beta)$$
(B.17)

$$2\sin(\alpha)\cos(\beta) = \sin(\alpha + \beta) + \sin(\alpha - \beta)$$
(B.18)

$$2\cos(\alpha)\sin(\beta) = \sin(\alpha + \beta) - \sin(\alpha - \beta)$$
(B.19)

B.8 Sum-to-Product Identities

$$\sin(\alpha) \pm \sin(\beta) = 2\sin\left(\frac{\alpha \pm \beta}{2}\right)\cos\left(\frac{\alpha \mp \beta}{2}\right)$$
 (B.20)

$$\cos(\alpha) + \cos(\alpha) = 2\cos\left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right)\cos\left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{2}\right)$$
(B.21)

$$\cos(\alpha) - \cos(\beta) = -2\sin\left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right)\sin\left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{2}\right)$$
(B.22)

B.9 Pythagorean Theorem for Trig

$$\cos^2(\alpha) + \sin^2(\alpha) = 1^2 \tag{B.23}$$

B.10 Rectangular to Polar

$$a + ib = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}e^{i\theta} = re^{i\theta} \tag{B.24}$$

$$\theta = \begin{cases} \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) & a > 0\\ \pi - \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) & a < 0 \end{cases}$$
(B.25)

B.11 Polar to Rectangular

$$re^{i\theta} = r\cos(\theta) + ir\sin(\theta) \tag{B.26}$$

C Calculus

C.1 Fundamental Theorems of Calculus

Defn 12 (First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus). The first fundamental theorem of calculus states that, if f is continuous on the closed interval [a, b] and F is the indefinite integral of f on [a, b], then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) \tag{C.1}$$

Defn 13 (Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus). The second fundamental theorem of calculus holds for f a continuous function on an open interval I and a any point in I, and states that if F is defined by

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt,$$

then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt = f(x)$$

$$F'(x) = f(x)$$
(C.2)

Defn 14 (argmax). The arguments to the *argmax* function are to be maximized by using their derivatives. You must take the derivative of the function, find critical points, then determine if that critical point is a global maxima. This is denoted as

argmax