Linear (Autonomous) Equations of Order n

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(I) General remarks

General case:

$$x^{(n)} + a_{n-1}(t)x^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1(t)\dot{x} + a_0(t) = b(t)$$

where $a_i(t), b(t)$ are continuous and x(t) is the unknown. Corresponding first order system:

$$[x(t)]' = \dot{x}(t)$$

$$[\dot{x}(t)]' = \ddot{x}(t)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$[x^{(n-1)}(t)]' = -a_0(t)x(t) - a_1(t)\dot{x}(t) \cdot \cdot \cdot - a_{n-1}(t)x^{(n-1)}(t) + b(t)$$

Written as a matrix we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ \dot{x} \\ \vdots \\ x^{(n-1)} \end{pmatrix}' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ -a_0 & & \cdots & & -a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ \dot{x} \\ \vdots \\ x^{(n-1)} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ b(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

In short $\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = A(t)\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{b}(t)$.

If b(t)=0: homogeneous equation, else inhomogeneous equation. If $a_j(t)=a_j=$ const. $(j=0,\ldots,n-1)$, A(t)=A: autonomous equation.

Note

The solutions form a n dimensional vector space. A solution is uniquely determined by the initial conditions

$$x(0) = x_0$$

$$\dot{x}(0) = x_1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x^{(n-1)}(0) = x_{n-1}$$

In short: $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_0$

From now on: autonomous equations

If we write

$$P(z) := z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1z + a_0$$

our equation becomes

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x) = \left[\frac{d^n}{dt^n} + a_{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_1\frac{d}{dt} + a_0\right](x)$$
$$= x^{(n)} + a_{n-1}x^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1\dot{x} + a_0$$
$$= b(t)$$

We receive

$$\chi_A(z) = \det(z \operatorname{Id} - A) = z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1z + a_0$$

through Laplace Expansion on the last row of

$$\begin{vmatrix} z & -1 \\ & z & -1 \\ & & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & \ddots & -1 \\ a_0 & & \cdots & z+a_{n-1} \end{vmatrix}$$

And hence we have in \mathbb{C}

$$\chi_A(z) = P(z) = \prod_{j=1}^{m} (z - \lambda_j)^{\mu_j}$$

where λ_i is an Eigenvalue with multiplicity μ_i .

(II) Homogeneous Autonomous Equations of Order n

Now we look at equations of the form

$$x^{(n)} + a_{n-1}x^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1\dot{x} + a_0 = 0$$

Example (1)

$$x^{(4)} + 4\ddot{x} = 0.$$

The corresponding system is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ \dot{x} \\ \ddot{x} \\ x^{(3)} \end{pmatrix}' = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & -4 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ \dot{x} \\ \ddot{x} \\ x^{(3)} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\chi_A(z) = P(z) = z^4 + 4z^2 = z^2(z^2 + 4) = z^2(z - 2i)(z + 2i) \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

has solutions $\lambda_1=0,\ \lambda_2=2i,\ \lambda_3=-2i$ with multiplicities $\mu_1=2$ and $\mu_2=\mu_3=1.$



Theorem (Solutions in \mathbb{C})

The functions

$$x_{j,k}(t) := t^k \exp(\lambda_j t) \quad (0 \le k < \mu_j, \ 1 \le j \le m)$$

are n linearly independent solutions. These solutions therefore form a basis of the space of all solutions. The general solution thus has the form

$$x(t) = \sum_{j,k} C_{j,k} t^k \exp(\lambda_j t) \quad (C_{j,k} \in \mathbb{C})$$

Example (2)

$$x^{(4)} + 4\ddot{x} = 0.$$

This has eigenvalues $\lambda_1=0$, $\lambda_2=2i$, $\lambda_3=-2i$ with multiplicities $\mu_1=2$ and $\mu_2=\mu_3=1$. Therefore

$$x_{1,0}(t) = t^{0} \exp(0t) = 1$$

$$x_{1,1}(t) = t^{1} \exp(0t) = t$$

$$x_{2}(t) = t^{0} \exp(i2t) = e^{i2t}$$

$$x_{3}(t) = t^{0} \exp(-i2t) = e^{-i2t}$$

are linearly independent solutions and the general solution is of the form

$$x(t) = C_{1,0} + C_{1,1}t + C_2e^{i2t} + C_3e^{-i2t}$$

with $C_{1,0}, C_{1,1}, C_2, C_3 \in \mathbb{C}$.

Proof Theorem.

We have

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \exp(tA)\mathbf{x}_0 = U \exp(tU^{-1}AU)U^{-1}\mathbf{x}_0$$

$$= U \exp\left(t\begin{pmatrix} J_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & J_m \end{pmatrix}\right)\mathbf{y}_0$$

$$= U \begin{pmatrix} \exp(tJ_1) & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \exp(tJ_m) \end{pmatrix}\mathbf{y}_0$$

where U is a fitting change of coordinates

We have

$$\exp(tJ_i) = \exp\left(t\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_j & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_j \end{pmatrix} + t\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

$$= \exp\left(\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_j t & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_j t \end{pmatrix}\right) \exp\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & t & & \\ & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & 0 & t \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

We see with $x_{i,k}(t) = t^k e^{\lambda_j t}$ further that

$$\exp(tJ_i) = \exp\left(\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_j t & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_j t \end{pmatrix}\right) \exp\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & t & & \\ & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & 0 & t \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

$$= e^{\lambda_j t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t & \frac{t^2}{2!} & \cdots & \frac{t^{\mu_j - 1}}{(\mu_j - 1)!} \\ & 1 & t & & \vdots \\ & & 1 & \ddots & \frac{t^2}{2!} \\ & & & \ddots & t \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{j,0} & x_{j,1} & \frac{x_{j,2}}{2!} & \cdots & \frac{x_{j,\mu_j - 1}}{(\mu_j - 1)!} \\ & x_{j,0} & x_{j,1} & & \vdots \\ & & x_{j,0} & \ddots & \frac{x_{j,2}}{2!} \\ & & & \ddots & x_{j,1} \\ & & & & x_{j,0} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x(t) \\ \dot{x}(t) \\ \vdots \\ x^{(n-1)}(t) \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{x}(t) = U \begin{pmatrix} \exp(tJ_1) \\ & \ddots \\ & & \exp(tJ_m) \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}_0$$

implies that x(t) is a linear combination of

$$x_{j,k}(t) = t^k \exp(\lambda_j t) \quad (0 \le k < \mu_j, \ 1 \le j \le m)$$

Because x(t) uniquely determines $\mathbf{x}(t)$ and vice versa we can identify x(t) with $\mathbf{x}(t)$. The space of solutions $\mathbf{x}(t)$ is n-dimensional and hence the space of solutions x(t) is also n-dimensional. As these n functions span the Space of solutions x(t) they must form a basis. This means they are linearly independent.

Proposition.

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(e^{\lambda t}) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j \left(e^{\lambda t}\right)^{(j)} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j(\lambda)^j e^{\lambda t} = P(\lambda)(e^{\lambda t})$$

Alternative Proof of the Theorem.

We give an alternative proof that $x_{j,k}(t) = t^k e^{\lambda_j t}$ solves the homogeneous equation. For k=0 we have

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x_{j,0}(t)) = P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(e^{\lambda_j t}) = P(\lambda_j) e^{\lambda_j t} = 0$$

Alternative Proof of the Theorem (cont.)

For $1 \le k < \mu_j$ we observe

$$t^k e^{\lambda_j t} = \frac{d^k}{d\lambda_j^k} e^{\lambda_j t}$$

As λ_j is a zero of P(z) with multiplicity μ_j we have for $0 \leq i \leq k < \mu_j$: $\frac{d^i}{d\lambda_j^i}P(\lambda_j)=0$. It then follows from Schwarz's theorem and Leibniz's formula

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x_{j,k}(t)) = P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(t^k e^{\lambda_j t}) = P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\left(\frac{d^k}{d\lambda_j^k}e^{\lambda_j t}\right)$$
$$= \frac{d^k}{d\lambda_j^k}P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\left(e^{\lambda_j t}\right) = \frac{d^k}{d\lambda_j^k}\left[P\left(\lambda_j\right)e^{\lambda_j t}\right]$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i}\underbrace{\frac{d^i}{d\lambda_j^i}P\left(\lambda_j\right)}_{=0}\underbrace{\frac{d^{k-i}}{d\lambda_j^{k-i}}e^{\lambda_j t}} = 0$$

Proposition (Solutions in \mathbb{R} , Complexification)

For $a_j \in \mathbb{R}$ we know: If $\lambda = \alpha + i\beta \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ is a root of P(z) then $\overline{\lambda} = \alpha - i\beta$ is also a root with the same multiplicity. We can replace

$$\begin{cases} t^k e^{\lambda t} \\ t^k e^{\overline{\lambda} t} \end{cases}$$

with

$$\begin{cases} \Re(t^k e^{\lambda t}) = t^k e^{\alpha t} \sin(\beta t) \\ \Im(t^k e^{\lambda t}) = t^k e^{\alpha t} \cos(\beta t) \end{cases}$$

This insures all solutions are real.

Proof Proposition.

This amounts to a change of basis:

$$e^{\alpha t} \cos(\beta t) = \Re \left(e^{\alpha t} (\cos(\beta t) + i \sin(\beta t)) \right)$$

$$= \Re \left(e^{\lambda t} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(e^{\lambda t} + e^{\overline{\lambda} t} \right)$$

$$e^{\alpha t} \sin(\beta t) = \Im \left(e^{\alpha t} (\cos(\beta t) + i \sin(\beta t)) \right)$$

$$= \Im \left(e^{\lambda t} \right) = \frac{1}{2i} \left(e^{\lambda t} - e^{\overline{\lambda} t} \right)$$

$$e^{\lambda t} = e^{\alpha t} (\cos(\beta t) + i \sin(\beta t))$$

$$e^{\overline{\lambda} t} = e^{\alpha t} (\cos(\beta t) - i \sin(\beta t))$$

Example (3)

$$x^{(4)} + 4\ddot{x} = 0.$$

This has eigenvalues $\lambda_1=0,\ \lambda_2=2i,\ \lambda_3=-2i$ with multiplicities $\mu_1=2$ and $\mu_2=\mu_3=1.$ The complex solutions

$$x_2(t) = e^{i2t}$$
$$x_3(t) = e^{-i2t}$$

can be transformed into

$$\tilde{x}_2(t) = \Re(e^{i2t}) = e^0 \cos(2t) = \cos(2t)$$

 $\tilde{x}_3(t) = \Im(e^{i2t}) = e^0 \sin(2t) = \sin(2t)$

The real solution can therefore be written as

$$x(t) = C_{1,0} + C_{1,1}t + C_2\cos(2t) + C_3\sin(2t)$$

with $C_{1,0}, C_{1,1}, C_2, C_3 \in \mathbb{R}$



(III) Inhomogeneous Autonomous Equations of Order n

We shall now consider equations of the form

$$x^{(n)} + a_{n-1}x^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1\dot{x} + a_0 = b(t) \neq 0$$

Idea

Find the general solution $x_h(t)$ to the corresponding homogeneous equation $P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x_h)=0$ and a particular solution $x_p(t)$ to $P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x_p(t))=b(t)$. Set

$$x(t) = x_h(t) + x_p(t)$$

Then it follows from linearity

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x) = P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x_h + x_p) = \underbrace{P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x_h)}_{0} + P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x_p) = b(t)$$

Proposition (Particular solution)

$$x_p(t) = \int_0^t x_u(t-s)b(s)ds$$

is a solution to the inhomogeneous equation. $x_u(t)$ is a solution to the corresponding homogeneous equation $P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x_u)=0$ with initial values

$$x_u(0) = \dot{x}_u(0) = \dots = x_u^{(n-2)}(0) = 0$$

and

$$x_u^{(n-1)}(0) = 1.$$

Example (4)

$$x^{(4)} + 4\ddot{x} = 16.$$

We know

$$x_u(t) = C_{1,0} + C_{1,1}t + C_2\cos(2t) + C_3\sin(2t)$$

with $C_{1,0},C_{1,1},C_2,C_3\in\mathbb{C}$ solves the equation. Our initial value problem states that $x_u(0)=\dot{x}_u(0)=\ddot{x}_u(0)=0$ and $x_u^{(3)}(0)=1$. We get x_u by solving the system of linear equations.

Example (4)

We have
$$x_u(t) = C_{1,0} + C_{1,1}t + C_2\cos(2t) + C_3\sin(2t)$$

$$1 = x_u^{(3)}(0) = C_2 2^3 \sin(2 \cdot 0) - C_3 2^3 \cos(2 \cdot 0) = -2^3 C_3$$

$$\implies C_3 = -\frac{1}{8}$$

$$0 = \ddot{x}_u(0) = -C_2 2^2 \cos(2 \cdot 0) - C_3 2^2 \sin(2 \cdot 0) = -2^2 C_2$$

$$\implies C_2 = 0$$

$$0 = \dot{x}_u(0) = C_{1,1} - \frac{1}{8} 2 \cos(2 \cdot 0) = C_{1,1} - \frac{1}{4} \implies C_{1,1} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$0 = x_u(0) = C_{1,0} + \frac{1}{4} \cdot 0 - \frac{1}{8} \sin(2 \cdot 0) = C_{1,0} \implies C_{1,0} = 0$$

Thus
$$x_u(t) = \frac{1}{4}t - \frac{1}{8}\sin(2t)$$

Example (4)

So our particular solution is

$$x_p(t) = \int_0^t x_u(t-s)b(s)ds$$

$$= \int_0^t \left[\frac{1}{4}(t-s) - \frac{1}{8}\sin(2(t-s)) \right] \cdot 16ds$$

$$= \int_0^t \left[4t - 4s - 2\sin(2(t-s)) \right] ds$$

$$= \left[4ts - 2s^2 - \cos(2(t-s)) \right]_0^t$$

$$= \left[4t^2 - 2t^2 - \cos(2(t-t)) \right] + \cos(2(t-0))$$

$$= \cos(2t) + 2t^2 - 1$$

Proposition (Duhamel's Formula)

For $\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = A\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{b}(t)$ there is a particular solution of the form

$$\mathbf{x}_p(t) = \int_0^t \exp\left((t-s)A\right) \mathbf{b}(s) ds$$

Proof Duhamel's Formula.

As tAsA = sAtA commutes it follows that

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{p}(t) = \left[\int_{0}^{t} \exp\left((t-s)A\right) \mathbf{b}(s) ds \right]'$$

$$= \left[\int_{0}^{t} \exp\left(tA\right) \exp\left(-sA\right) \mathbf{b}(s) ds \right]'$$

$$= \left[\exp\left(tA\right) \int_{0}^{t} \exp\left(-sA\right) \mathbf{b}(s) ds \right]'$$

$$= A \exp\left(tA\right) \int_{0}^{t} \exp\left(-sA\right) \mathbf{b}(s) ds + \exp\left(tA\right) \exp\left(-tA\right) \mathbf{b}(t)$$

$$= A \int_{0}^{t} \exp\left(tA\right) \exp\left(-sA\right) \mathbf{b}(s) ds + \exp\left(tA - tA\right) \mathbf{b}(t)$$

$$= A \mathbf{x}_{p}(t) + \mathbf{b}(t)$$

Proof Particular Solution.

We know from Duhamel's formula that for $\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = A\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{b}(t)$ there is a particular solution of the form

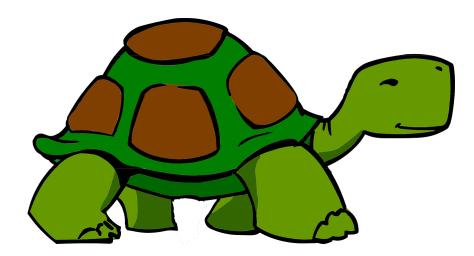
$$\mathbf{x}_{p}(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \exp((t-s)A) \mathbf{b}(s) ds$$

$$= \int_{0}^{t} \exp((t-s)A) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} b(s) ds$$

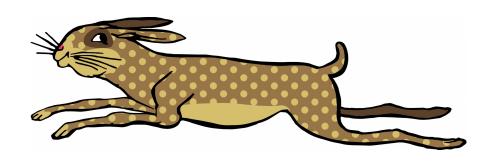
$$= \int_{0}^{t} \mathbf{x}_{u}(t-s)b(s) ds$$

And by taking the first component we get our claim.

This was more like...



We want to be like...



Theorem (Ansatz for solutions)

If we have

$$b(t) = R(t) \exp(ct), \quad c \in \mathbb{C}, R(t) \neq 0$$

then $P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x)=b$ has a solution of the form

$$x_p(t) = t^{\mu}Q(t)\exp(ct)$$

where $\deg Q = \deg R$ and

$$\mu \coloneqq \begin{cases} \mu_j \ , & \text{if } c = \lambda_j \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

Example (5)

$$x^{(4)} + 4\ddot{x} = t = te^{0t}.$$

As $c=0=\lambda_1$ is a root with multiplicity $\mu_1=2=\mu$, we are looking for a solution of the form $t^2Q(t)e^{0t}$ with $\deg Q=\deg t=1$. Substituting

$$x_p(t) = t^2(at+b)e^{0t} = at^3 + bt^2$$

into the equation we receive

$$0 + 4(3 \cdot 2at + 2b) \stackrel{!}{=} t$$

$$\rightsquigarrow b = 0, \ a = \frac{1}{24}$$

Thus

$$x_p(t) = \frac{1}{24}t^3.$$

Lemma

Let f, g be n times differentiable, P(z) polynomial, $\deg P \leq n$. Then

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(fg) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{1}{j!} f^{(j)} P^{(j)}\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(g)$$

Proof Lemma.

It is enough to prove this for $P(z)=z^k$, $k\leq n$. The general case follows by taking the linear combination. We have

$$P^{(j)}\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right) = \begin{cases} k(k-1)\dots(k-j+1)\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)^{k-j} & \text{, if } j \leq k\\ 0 & \text{, if } j > k \end{cases}$$

It follows from Leibniz's formula that

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(fg) = (fg)^{(k)} = \sum_{j=0}^{k} {k \choose j} f^{(k)} g^{(k-j)}$$
$$= \sum_{j=0}^{k} \frac{k(k-1)\dots(k-j+1)}{j!} f^{(k)} g^{(k-j)}$$
$$= \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{1}{j!} f^{(k)} P^{(j)} \left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(g)$$

Proof Theorem.

The lemma implies that

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right) (t^{\mu}Q(t)e^{ct}) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{1}{j!} (t^{\mu}Q(t))^{(j)} P^{(j)} \left(\frac{d}{dt}\right) (e^{ct})$$
$$= \sum_{j>\mu} \frac{1}{j!} (t^{\mu}Q(t))^{(j)} P^{(j)}(c)e^{ct}$$

As $P^{(j)}(c)=0$ for $j\leq \mu-1$ and $P^{(j)}=0$ for $j\geq n$.

It follows further that

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\left(t^{\mu}Q(t)e^{ct}\right) = \sum_{j\geq\mu} \frac{1}{j!} \underbrace{(t^{\mu}Q(t))^{(j)}}_{(t^{\mu}Q(t))^{(\mu)}=:y(t)} P^{(j)}(c)e^{ct}$$

$$= \sum_{j\geq\mu} \frac{1}{j!} y^{(j-\mu)}(t) P^{(j)}(c)e^{ct}$$

$$= \sum_{j\geq0} \underbrace{\frac{1}{(j+\mu)!} P^{(j+\mu)}(c)e^{ct}}_{=:b_{j}} y^{(j)}(t)$$

$$= \sum_{j\geq0} b_{j}y^{(j)}(t) = b_{0}y(t) + b_{1}\dot{y}(t) + \dots$$

$$\stackrel{!}{=} R(t)$$

Note that if a polynomial y(t) exists, so that $\deg y = \deg R$ and

$$b_0 y(t) + b_1 \dot{y}(t) + \dots = R(t) = r_k t^k + \dots + r_0$$

we are finished because $y(t)=(t^\mu Q(t))^{(\mu)}.$ We get Q(t) by integrating y μ times and then dividing by $t^\mu.$ Then it follows that

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\left(t^{\mu}Q(t)e^{ct}\right) = b_0y(t) + b_1\dot{y}(t) + \dots = R(t)$$

We prove the existence of y(t) by induction to $k = \deg R$

$$k=0$$
: Set for $R(t)=r_0$

$$y(t) := \frac{r_0}{b_0} \quad (b_0 = \frac{1}{(\mu)!} P^{(\mu)}(c) e^{ct} \neq 0)$$

Then $\deg y = 0 = \deg R$ and

$$b_0 y(t) + b_1 \dot{y}(t) + \dots = b_0 \frac{r_0}{b_0} = r_0 = R(t)$$

Proof Theorem (cont.)

$$k-1 \rightsquigarrow k$$
: Set $y(t) := \frac{r_k}{b_0} t^k + z(t)$ with $\deg z < k$. Then

$$b_0 \left(\frac{r_k}{b_0} t^k + z(t) \right) + b_1 \left(\frac{r_k}{b_0} t^k + z(t) \right)' + \dots$$

$$= r_k t^k + b_0 z(t) + b_1 k \frac{r_k}{b_0} t^{k-1} + b_1 \dot{z}(t) + \dots$$

$$= R(t) = r_k t^k + r_{k-1} t^{k-1} + \dots + r_0$$

This is equivalent to

$$b_0 z(t) + b_1 \dot{z}(t) + \dots$$

= $r_{k-1} t^{k-1} + \dots + r_0 - b_1 k \frac{r_k}{b_0} t^{k-1} - \dots$

By induction hypothesis z(t) exists and therefore $y(t) = \frac{r_k}{b_0} t^k + z(t)$ exists and $\deg y = k = \deg R$.

Proposition (linear combination of b(t))

If
$$b(t) = c_1b_1(t) + \cdots + c_kb_k(t)$$
 and $P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x_j) = b_j$ then $x = c_1x_1 + \cdots + c_kx_k$ solves $P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x) = b$.

Proof.

$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x) = P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\left(\sum_{j} c_{j} x_{j}\right) = \sum_{j} c_{j} P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x_{j})$$
$$= \sum_{j} c_{j} b_{j} = b$$

Note

All right-hand-sides of the form

$$b(t) = \sum_j R_j(t) \exp(c_j t), \quad R_j(t)
eq 0, c_j \in \mathbb{C}$$
 ("quasi-polynomials")

can be solved. In particular $\sin(t)$ and $\cos(t)$ are quasi-polynomials because:

$$\cos(t) = \frac{1}{2} (e^{ix} + e^{-ix}), \quad \sin(t) = \frac{1}{2i} (e^{ix} - e^{-ix})$$

Example (6)

$$x^{(4)} + 4\ddot{x} = \sin(t).$$

Because $\sin(t)=\Im(e^{it})$, we complexify the problem and then take the imaginary part of the solution: $x^{(4)}+4\ddot{x}=e^{it}$. As c=i is not a root of P(z) and $\deg Q=\deg 1=0$ we are looking for a solution of the form $x_p(t)=t^0ae^{it}=ae^{it}$. Substituting into the equation we receive:

$$(i)^4 a e^{it} + 4(i)^2 a e^{it} = a e^{it} - 4a e^{it} = -3a e^{it} \stackrel{!}{=} e^{it}$$

 $\Rightarrow a = -\frac{1}{3}$

And taking the imaginary part of the solution

$$x_p(t) = \Im\left(-\frac{1}{3}e^{it}\right) = -\frac{1}{3}\sin(t)$$

Example (7)

$$x^{(4)} + 4\ddot{x} = 6 \cdot \sin(t) - 24t.$$

We know:

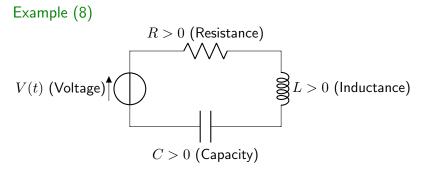
$$P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{3}\sin(t)\right) = \sin(t), \qquad P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\left(\frac{1}{24}t^3\right) = t$$

The proposition thus tells us that

$$x_p(t) = 6\left(-\frac{1}{3}\sin(t)\right) - 24\left(\frac{1}{24}t^3\right) = 2\cdot\sin(t) - t^3$$

is a particular solution to our equation.

(IV) Some Aspects of 2nd Order Autonomous Equations



Ohm's law: $v_R = RI$ Faraday's law: $v_L = L\dot{I}$

Capacitor: $v_C = \frac{Q}{C}$ $(I = \dot{Q}, \text{ charge})$

We are looking at a periodic forcing term (Voltage) $V(t) = V_0 \cos(\omega t)$. ω is the external angular frequency.



We know that

$$\frac{\dot{V}(t)}{L} = \frac{[V_0 \cos(\omega t)]'}{L} = \underbrace{-\frac{V_0 \omega}{L}}_{=:A} \sin(\omega t) = A \sin(\omega t)$$

Together with Kirchhoff's law this yields:

$$V(t) = v_L + v_R + v_C = L\dot{I} + RI + \frac{Q}{C}$$

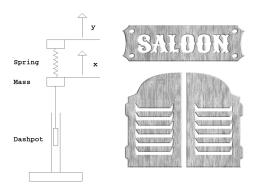
$$\implies \dot{V}(t) = L\ddot{I} + R\dot{I} + \frac{1}{C}I$$

$$\implies \frac{\dot{V}(t)}{L} = \ddot{I} + \underbrace{\frac{R}{L}}_{=:2\eta>0} \dot{I} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{LC}}_{=:\omega_n^2>0} I$$

$$\implies A\sin(\omega t) = \ddot{x} + 2\eta\dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x$$

Where x = I, 2η is the damping constant and ω_n is the natural angular frequency.

Example (9)



Swinging saloon doors and a spring/mass/dashpot system also lead to an equation of the form

$$\ddot{x} + 2\eta \dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = A\sin(\omega t)$$

Homogeneous equation

For $\eta > 0$, $\omega_n^2 > 0$ the homogeneous equation is

$$\ddot{x} + 2\eta \dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = 0$$

This has the eigenvalues

$$\lambda_{1,2} = -\eta \pm \sqrt{\eta^2 - \omega_n^2}$$

We distinguish 3 cases

Over damping: $\eta > \omega_n \ \lambda_1, \lambda_2 < 0$. This has the real solution

$$x_h(t) = C_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} + C_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} \quad (C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R})$$

Critical damping: $\eta = \omega_n \ \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = -\eta < 0$. This has the real solution

$$x_h(t) = (C_{1,0} + C_{1,1}t)e^{\lambda_1 t} \quad (C_{1,0}, C_{1,1} \in \mathbb{R})$$

Under damping: $\eta < \omega_n \ \lambda_{1,2} = -\eta \pm i\omega_d, \ \omega_d = \sqrt{\omega_n^2 - \eta^2}$. This has the real solution $(C_{1,0}, C_{1,1}, C, \varphi \in \mathbb{R})$

$$x_h(t) = C_1 \Re(e^{\lambda_1 t}) + C_2 \Im(e^{\lambda_1 t})$$

= $C_1 e^{-\eta t} \cos(\omega_d t) + C_2 e^{-\eta t} \sin(\omega_d t)$
= $C e^{-\eta t} \sin(\omega_d t + \varphi)$

Here ω_d is called the *damped angular frequency* (pseudo-frequency). It is the frequency of an unforced oscillation.

We notice that in all cases $x_h(t) \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$. Therefore

$$x(t) = x_h(t) + x_p(t) \approx x_p(t)$$

Inhomogeneous Equation

Now we will look for a particular solution of the inhomogeneous equation. Because $A\sin(\omega t)=\Im(Ae^{i\omega t})$ we can complexify the problem to

$$\ddot{x} + 2\eta \dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = Ae^{i\omega t}$$

We know that $\Re(\lambda_{1,2}) \neq 0$. Therefore $i\omega$ is not a root and we can try the ansatz $x_p(t) = t^0 Q(t) e^{i\omega t} = q e^{i\omega t}$ $(c \in \mathbb{C})$ which leads to

$$\begin{split} P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\left(qe^{i\omega t}\right) &= qP\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\left(e^{i\omega t}\right) = qP\left(i\omega\right)e^{i\omega t} \stackrel{!}{=} Ae^{i\omega t} \\ \implies q &= \frac{A}{P(i\omega)} = \frac{A}{(i\omega)^2 + 2\eta i\omega + \omega_n^2} =: \alpha + i\beta \end{split}$$

We get

$$(\alpha + i\beta)e^{i\omega t} = (\alpha\cos(\omega t) - \beta\sin(\omega t)) + i(\alpha\sin(\omega t) + \beta\cos(\omega t))$$

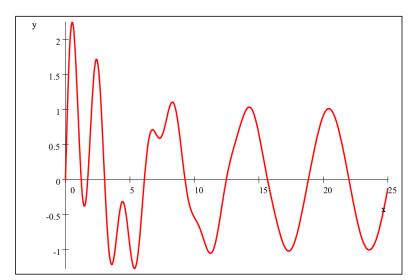
And by taking the imaginary part the solution

$$x_p(t) = \alpha \sin(\omega t) + \beta \cos(\omega t) = B \sin(\omega t + \psi)$$

with
$$B=|\alpha+i\beta|=|q|$$
 and $\cos(\psi)=\frac{\alpha}{B}$

Example (10)

Plot of a possible solution: $x(t) = \underbrace{2e^{-t/4}\sin(t)}_{=x_h} + \underbrace{\sin(t)}_{=x_p}$



For which ω is the amplitude B maximal?

$$B^{2} = |q|^{2} = \frac{|A|^{2}}{|(i\omega)^{2} + 2\eta i\omega + \omega_{n}^{2}|^{2}}$$

is maximal, if

$$|(i\omega)^{2} + 2\eta i\omega + \omega_{n}^{2}|^{2} = (-\omega^{2} + \omega_{n}^{2})^{2} + (2\eta\omega)^{2}$$

$$= \omega^{4} - 2\omega^{2}\omega_{n}^{2} + \omega_{n}^{4} + (2\eta)^{2}\omega^{2}$$

$$= \omega^{4} + ((2\eta)^{2} - 2\omega_{n}^{2})\omega^{2} + \omega_{n}^{4}$$

is minimal.

This occurs if
$$\omega^4 + \underbrace{((2\eta)^2 - 2\omega_n^2)}_{=:-2\omega_r^2} \omega^2 = \omega^4 - 2\omega_r^2 \omega^2$$
 is minimal:

case 1:
$$(2\eta)^2 \geq 2\omega_n^2$$
, when $\omega = 0$.

case 2:
$$(2\eta)^2 < 2\omega_n^2$$
, when

$$\omega^2 = \omega_r^2$$

$$\implies \omega = \omega_r = \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}((2\eta)^2 - 2\omega_n^2)} = \sqrt{\omega_n^2 - 2\eta^2}$$

 ω_r is called the *resonant angular frequency*. If $\omega=\omega_r$ resonance occurs (greatest response). Note that in general $\omega_d=\sqrt{\omega_n^2-\eta^2}\neq\sqrt{\omega_n^2-2\eta^2}=\omega_r$ (damped angular frequency \neq resonant angular frequency)

In the second case we get for $\omega = \omega_r$

$$\begin{split} B_{\text{max}}^2 &= \frac{|A|^2}{\omega_r^4 - 2\omega_r^2 \omega_r^2 + \omega_n^4} = \frac{|A|^2}{\omega_n^4 - \omega_r^4} \\ &= \frac{|A|^2}{\omega_n^4 - (\omega_n^2 - 2\eta^2)^2} = \frac{|A|^2}{2\omega_n^2 \cdot 2\eta^2 - (2\eta)^2 \eta^2} \\ &= \frac{|A|^2}{(2\eta)^2 (\omega_n^2 - \eta^2)} = \frac{|A|^2}{(2\eta)^2 \omega_d^2} \end{split}$$

The maximal amplitude thus is

$$B_{\text{max}} = \frac{|A|}{(2\eta)|\omega_d|}$$

Resonance catastrophe

We see that for $\eta \to 0$ we have $B_{\max} = \frac{|A|}{(2\eta)|\omega_d|} \to \infty$ in the case of resonance. In particular if $\eta = 0$, x(t) grows beyond all bounds. We then have complete resonance and $\omega = \omega_r = \omega_d$. This leads to resonance catastrophe.

Example (Resonance catastrophe) Glass breaking as a result of resonance:



(V) Linear Equations of Order n

As at the beginning we have

$$x^{(n)} + a_{n-1}(t)x^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1(t)\dot{x} + a_0(t) = b(t)$$

Now $a_j(t)$ is not necessarily constant.

Note

There is no general way of solving n'th order equations.

Reduction of Order (d'Alambert)

We have a solution ϕ of the equation $P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(\phi)=0$. We try a variation of constants ansatz $x(t)=c(t)\phi(t)$. Setting $d\coloneqq\dot{c}$ our lemma leads to an equation of order (n-1):

$$0 \stackrel{!}{=} P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(x) = P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(c\phi) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{1}{j!} c^{(j)} P^{(j)}\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(\phi)$$

$$= \frac{1}{0!} c \underbrace{P\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(\phi)}_{=0} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{j!} \underbrace{c^{(j)}}_{=d^{(j-1)}} P^{(j)}\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(\phi)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \underbrace{\left[\frac{1}{j!} P^{(j)}\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)(\phi)\right]}_{=:b_{j}} d^{(j-1)} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} b_{j-1} d^{(j)}$$

Example (11)

 $\ddot{x}-2t\dot{x}-2x=0$ where $\phi(t)=e^{t^2}$ is a solution Now we set $x(t)=c(t)e^{t^2}$ and obtain

$$\begin{split} 0 &\stackrel{!}{=} \left[ce^{t^2} \right]'' - 2t \left[ce^{t^2} \right]' - 2ce^{t^2} \\ &= \left[\ddot{c}e^{t^2} + 2\dot{c}e^{t^2}(2t) + c \left[e^{t^2}(2t) \right]' \right] - 2t \left[\dot{c}e^{t^2} + ce^{t^2}(2t) \right] - 2ce^{t^2} \\ &= \left[\ddot{c}e^{t^2} + (2t)\dot{c}e^{t^2} + c \left[e^{t^2}(2t)^2 + 2e^{t^2} \right] \right] - (2t)^2 \left[ce^{t^2} \right] - 2ce^{t^2} \\ &= \ddot{c}e^{t^2} + (2t)\dot{c}e^{t^2} = e^{t^2} \left(\ddot{c} + (2t)\dot{c} \right) = e^{t^2} \left(\dot{d} + (2t)d \right) \end{split}$$

$$\dot{d}(t) = -(2t)d(t)$$
 has the solution $d(t) = e^{-t^2}$.

Example (11)

We get c by integrating

$$c = \int_0^t d(s)ds = \int_0^t e^{-s^2} ds = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \operatorname{erf}(t)$$

where ${\rm erf}(t)=\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}\int_0^t e^{-s^2}ds$ is the Gauss error function. We have the second solution

$$\psi(t) = e^{t^2} \operatorname{erf}(t)$$

(VI) Summary

Algorithm to solve an autonomous equation:

- 1. Complexify, if in \mathbb{R}
- 2. Find x_h
 - 2.1 Find the eigenvalues of the corresponding first order system
 - 2.2 Find $x_{i,k}(t) = t^k e^{\lambda_j t}$
 - 2.3 Change basis to get real solution, if in $\mathbb R$
 - 2.4 If there are initial values find $C_{j,k}$ so that $x = \sum_{j,k} C_{j,k} x_{j,k}$ is a solution
- 3. Find x_p
 - 3.1 With an ansatz
 - 3.2 With Duhamel's Formula
 - 3.3 Take the real part, if in \mathbb{R}
- 4. Your solution is $x = x_h + x_p$

If the equation is not autonomous and a solution ϕ is given, try $c\phi$ as an ansatz.

Thank you for listening

Questions?

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