Mathematical Models applied in Economy

Delia Pâncă

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Chapter 1

Ordinary Differential Equations and Linear Systems

1.1 Equations with separable variables

This chapter presents the general method of solving separable equations and a few examples.

1.1.1 The general form of an equation with separable variables

Let us consider the equation:

$$x' = f(t)g(x) \tag{SE}$$

where $f:(t_1,t_2)\subset\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$ and $g:(x_1,x_2)\subset\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$ are continuous functions and g does not cancel on (x_1,x_2) . Before showing how to solve (SE), we recall the following definition:

Definition 1.1.1.1. We call a solution on the interval $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ for the differential equation F(t, x, x') = 0 (where F is a real function defined on an open set from \mathbb{R}^3) a function $x: I \to \mathbb{R}$, differentiable on I and which verifies the equation on I, meaning:

$$F(t, x(t), x'(t)) = 0, \forall t \in I$$

It is understood that x is such as (t, x(t), x'(t)) is in the domain of function F for $t \in I$. When reffering to a solution, we will usually point the interval on which it is defined (even the maximal interval if possible).

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We return now to (SE). We assume that $x = x(t), t \in (t_1, t_2)$ is a solution for (SE). Then

$$\int_{x_0}^{x(t)} \frac{d\xi}{g(\xi)} = \int_{t_0}^t f(s)ds, t \in (t_1, t_2)$$
(1.1)

where t_0 is a random point from the interval (t_1, t_2) and $x_0 = x(t_0)$. We define

$$G(y) = \int_{x_0}^{y} \frac{d\xi}{g(\xi)}, y \in (x_1, x_2)$$
 (1.2)

knowing that G is a differentiable function (with continuous derivative) on (x_1, x_2) and strictly monotone. Therefore we can talk about G^{-1} , defined on the set $G((x_1, x_2))$ which has the same properties as function G. Since relation (1.1) can be written:

$$G(x(t)) = \int_{t_0}^{t} f(s)ds, t \in (t_1, t_2)$$
(1.3)

results that solution x has the following expression:

$$x(t) = G^{-1}\left(\int_{t_0}^t f(s)ds\right), t \in (t_1, t_2)$$
(1.4)

Mutually, a function x = x(t) defined by relation (1.4) (where x_0 is arbitrary in (x_1, x_2) and t goes through a neighbourhood of point t_0 such that $\int_{t_0}^t f(s)ds$ is in the domain of function G^{-1}) is a solution for (SE), also checking the Cauchy condition $x(t_0) = x_0$.

1.1.2 Examples

1)
$$\begin{cases} xx' = e^{-t} \\ x(0) = e \end{cases}$$

Solution: Let us consider first the equation $xx' = e^{-t}$. Then we have

$$x\frac{dx}{dx} = e^{-t}.$$

Separating the variables, we obtain

$$xdx = e^{-t}dt.$$

By integration, we get:

$$\int x dx = \int e^{-t} dt \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\frac{x^2}{2} = -e^{-t} + c_1, c_1 \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$x^2 = -2e^{-t} + c, c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

This form represents the general solution in implicit form. We impose the Cauchy condition x(0) = e. Then

$$x^2 = -2e^0 + c.$$

Hence $e^2 = -2 + c$. Thus $c = e^2 + 2$. Hence the solution in implicit form is

$$x^2 = -2e^{-t} + e^2 + 2.$$

Hence

$$x = \pm \sqrt{-2e^{-t} + e^2 + 2}.$$

We choose $x = \sqrt{-2e^{-t} + e^2 + 2}$. Thus, for t > 0 we have the solution:

$$x = \sqrt{2(1 - e^{-t}) + e^2}.$$

2) $x' = x^2 - x$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$. We consider the equation:

$$x' = x(x-1).$$

For $x \neq 0$ and $x \neq 1$ we can separate the variables:

$$\frac{1}{x(x-1)}dx = dt.$$

By integrating, we obtain:

$$\int \frac{1}{x(x-1)} dx = \int dt.$$

 \Leftrightarrow

$$\int \left(\frac{1}{x-1} - \frac{1}{x}\right) dx = t + c_1, c_1 \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Next, resolving the integrals, we get:

$$ln|x - 1| - ln|x| = t + c_1,$$

$$\ln\left|\frac{x-1}{x}\right| = t + c_1$$

 \Leftrightarrow

$$\left|\frac{x-1}{x}\right| = c_2 e^t, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$\frac{x-1}{x} = \pm c_2 e^t.$$

We can consider $\pm c_2$ a constant $c \in \mathbb{R}^*$. Then, the implicit form of the solution is:

$$\frac{x-1}{x} = ce^t, c \in \mathbb{R}^*.$$

Next, $x - 1 = xce^t$, resulting that

$$x = \frac{1}{1 - ce^t}, c \in \mathbb{R}^*. \tag{1.1}$$

We also notice that x(t) = 0 and x(t) = 1, where $t \in \mathbb{R}$ are solution for our equation. For c = 0 in (1.1) we get x(t) = 1. Hence the solutions are

$$x(t) = 0, t \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{1 - ce^t}, c \in \mathbb{R}, t \in J$$

where J is defined by the restriction $1 - ce^t = 0$.

(i)
$$c \in R \Rightarrow e^t = \frac{1}{c} \Rightarrow$$

(a)
$$c > 0 \Rightarrow e^t = \frac{1}{c} \Leftrightarrow t = \ln \frac{1}{c} = -\ln c \Rightarrow x(t) = \frac{1}{1-ce^t}, t \in (-\infty, -\ln c) \text{ or } t \in (-\ln c, +\infty).$$

(b)
$$c < 0 \Rightarrow e^t = \frac{1}{c} \Leftrightarrow t \in \emptyset \Rightarrow x(t) = \frac{1}{1 - ce^t}, t \in \mathbb{R}$$

(ii)
$$c = 0 \Rightarrow x(t) = 1, t \in \mathbb{R}$$
.

For example, if we have a Cauchy problem of the following form: $\begin{cases} x' = x^2 - x \\ x(0) = 2 \end{cases}$ then x(t) = 0 and x(t) = 1, $t \in \mathbb{R}$ are not solutions. For $x(t) = \frac{1}{1 - ce^t}$:

$$x(0) = 2 \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{1-c} = 2 \Leftrightarrow 1-c = \frac{1}{2} \Leftrightarrow c = \frac{1}{2}.$$

In conclusion, the solution for the given Cauchy problem is:

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}e^t}, t \in (-\infty, -\ln 2).$$

For the phase portrait, we have x' = f(x). $f(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$ or x = 1. The function $f(x) = x^2 - x$ has the following signs on \mathbb{R} :

1.2 Linear Differential Equations of First Order

The following chapter introduces the reader to the general method of solving Linear Differential Equations of First Order and a few examples.

1.2.1 The General Form of a linear differential equation of first order

A Linear differential equation has the following expression:

$$x' = a(t)x + b(t) \tag{LE}$$

where $a, b: (t_1, t_2) \subset \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ are continous on (t_1, t_2) (bounded or not). If x = x(t), $t_1 < t < t_2$ is a solutions for (LE), then multiplying with $exp(-\int_{t_0}^t a(s)ds)$, where t_0 is arbitrary chosen from (t_1, t_2) , the following equation is obtained

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left[e^{-\int_{t_0}^t a(s)ds} x(t) \right] = b(t)e^{-\int_{t_0}^t a(s)ds}, t \in (t_1, t_2)$$

So

$$x(t) = e^{\int_{t_0}^t a(s)ds} (x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t b(s)e^{-\int_{t_0}^s a(\sigma)d\sigma}), t \in (t_1, t_2)$$
 (SOL)

where x_0 is an arbitrary real number. Reciprocally, we can easily agree that any function $x = x(t), t \in (t_1, t_2)$ given by the formula (SOL) is a solution for (LE). Actually, (SOL) asserts the solution of (LE) with the Cauchy condition $x(t_0) = x_0$.

Sometimes, it is more convienent to use the following form of (SOL):

$$x(t) = e^{\int a(s)ds} * \int b(t)e^{-\int a(t)dt}dt$$
 (SOL*)

with the convention that $\int a(t)dt$ is a fixed primitive of a=a(t) (the same in (SOL) and (SOL*)).

1.3 Linear Differential Systems

1.3.1 The general form of a linear differential system

Many evolutive processes from the real world can't be described by only one variable. Therefore, for two or more variables, we must consider a system of two or more differential equations. In the following chapter, we will consider differential systems of the first order:

$$\begin{cases} x' = f(t, x, y) \\ y' = g(t, x, y) \end{cases}$$
(DS)

where f,g are given functions and the unknowns are the functions x,y of variable t.

Definition 1.3.1.1. A solution for (DS) is a pair $(x, y) \in C^1(J)$, where $J \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, which satisfy on J the two equations from (DS), for any $t \in J$.

(DS) is linear if functions f and g depend affinely on x and y. Then (DS) has the following form:

$$\begin{cases} x' = a_{11}(t)x + a_{12}(t)y + b_1(t) \\ y' = a_{21}(t)x + a_{22}(t)y + b_2(t) \end{cases}$$
(DS*)

Coefficients a_{ij} and free terms b_i are alleged to be continuous functions on an interval J. If, in particular, coefficients a_{ij} are constants, we say that the linear system is with constant coefficients. If $b_i = 0$, we say that the system is homogeneous. If both situations take place, the system is linear and homogeneous, with constant coefficients.

1.3.2 Matrix Analysis Theory

Let us define $\mathcal{M}_{nm}(\mathbb{K})$ the set of matrices with n rows and m columns, with elements from the field $\mathbb{K}(\mathbb{R} \text{ or } \mathbb{C})$. It is known that $(\mathcal{M}_{nm}(\mathbb{K}), +, \cdot, \mathbb{R})$ is a linear space of dimension $n \cdot m$. It can be organized as a normalized space using the following norm:

$$||A|| = \left(\sum_{i,j=1}^{n} a_{ij}^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Then $(\mathcal{M}_{nm}(\mathbb{K}), \|\cdot\|)$ is a Banach space. The defined norm has the following properties on the Banach space presented earlier:

- 1. $||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||$
- 2. $||\lambda A|| = |\lambda| ||A||$
- 3. $||Ax||_{\mathbb{R}^n} = ||A|| ||x||_{\mathbb{R}^n}$
- 4. $||A \cdot B|| \le ||A|| \cdot ||B||$

Next, let $M \in \mathcal{M}_{nn}(\mathbb{K})$. Then:

$$e^{M} = \sum_{k>0} \frac{1}{k!} M^{k} \tag{3.1}$$

Proof. Let $S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} M^k$ the partial sum of serie (3.1). Next, we prove that S_n is a Cauchy sequence in the Banach space $(\mathcal{M}_{nm}(\mathbb{K}), \|\cdot\|)$.

$$||S_{n+p} - S_n|| = ||\frac{1}{(n+1!)}A^{n+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{(n+p!)}A^{n+p}||$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{(n+1)!} ||A^{n+1}|| + \dots + \frac{1}{(n+p)!} ||A^{n+p}|| = |a_{n+p} - a_n|$$

where

$$a_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{1}{k!} ||M||^k$$

.

Due to the fact that

$$\sum_{k \ge 0} \frac{1}{k!} x^k$$

is a convergent series and the sum of it is equal to e^x , $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow$

$$\sum_{k>0} \frac{1}{k!} ||M||^k$$

is convergent, therefore a_n is convergent, which means that a_n is Cauchy $\Rightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$ so that

$$||S_{n+p} - S_n|| \le \varepsilon$$

 $\forall n \geq n(\varepsilon), \forall p \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow (S_n)$ is a Cauchy sequence \Rightarrow the existence of (3.1) is proved.

1.3.3 Existence and uniqueness Theorems

Let us consider the system:

$$\begin{cases} u' = A(t)u + B(t) \\ u(t_0) = u_0 \end{cases}$$
 (Sys1)

where $t \in J = [t_0 - a, t_0 + a], a > 0 \ t_0 \in J \ \text{and} \ u_0 \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

Regarding the existence and uniqueness of the solution of the previous system, we present the following result:

Theorem 1.3.3.1. Considering (Sys1), we assume that $A \in C(J, \mathcal{M}_2(\mathbb{R}))$, $B \in C(J, \mathbb{R}^2)$. Then, there exists a unique solution $u^* \in C^1(J, \mathbb{R}^2)$.

Proof. We will use the following Lemma:

Lemma 1.3.3.2. The solution u^* is equivalent to the following system of integral equations:

$$u(t) = \int_{t_0}^{t} \left[A(s)u(s) + B(s) \right] ds + u_0$$
 (IntSol)

Proof. " \Rightarrow " If u satisfies (Sys1), then by integrating from t_0 to $t \in J$, we get:

$$u(t) - u(t_0) = \int_{t_0}^t \left[A(s)u(s) + B(s) \right] ds$$

 $u(t_0) = u_0 \Rightarrow (IntSol).$

" \Rightarrow " Let u be a solution of (IntSol). Then u'(t) = A(t)u + B(t). Since the right side is continuous, we obtain that $u \in C^1(J, \mathbb{R})$. Moreover, $u(t_0) = u_0$. The lemma is proved.

Resuming the proof of the theorem, let us denote $A:C(J,\mathbb{R}^2)\to C(J,\mathbb{R}^2),\ u\longmapsto Au,$ where: $Au(t):=\int_{t_0}^t\bigg[A(s)u(s)+B(s)\bigg]ds+u_0$ "(IntSol) $\Leftrightarrow u=Au$ "

We consider on $C(J, \mathbb{R}^2)$ the Bielecki norm:

$$||u||_B = \max_{t \in J} (||u||_{\mathbb{R}^2} e^{-\tau |t-t_0|}), \tau > 0$$

 $(C(J, \mathbb{R}^2), ||.||)$ is a Banach space.

Then we have that $||Au - Av||_B \le L_A ||u - v||_B, \forall u, v \in C(J, \mathbb{R}^2, L_A \in (0, 1)).$ For $t \ge t_0$:

$$||Au(t) - Av(t)||_{\mathbb{R}^{2}} = ||\int_{t_{0}}^{t} A(s)(u(s) - v(s))ds||$$

$$\leq \int_{t_{0}}^{t} ||A(s)(u(s) - v(s))||ds$$

$$\leq \int_{t_{0}}^{t} ||A(s)||_{\mathcal{M}_{2}(\mathbb{R}^{2})} ||u(s) - v(s)||_{\mathbb{R}^{2}} ds$$

$$\leq M_{A} \int_{t_{0}}^{t} ||u(s) - v(s)||e^{-\tau(s-t_{0})}e^{\tau(s-t_{0})} ds$$

$$\leq \int_{t_{0}}^{t} \max_{(s \in J)} (||u(s) - v(s)||e^{-\tau(s-t_{0})})e^{\tau(s-t_{0})} ds$$

$$\leq M_{A} ||u - v||_{B} \frac{1}{\tau} (e^{\tau(t-t_{0})} - 1)$$

$$\leq \frac{M_{A}}{\tau} ||u - v||_{B} e^{\tau(t-t_{0})}$$

$$\Rightarrow ||Au - Av|| \leq \frac{M_{A}}{\tau} ||u - v||_{B}.$$

Let $L_A = \frac{M_A}{\tau}$ such as $\tau > M_A$. Then $L_A < 1$.

1.3.4 Representations of the solution

Let us remark that (DS) can be written as a single vectorial equation:

$$u' = F(t, u) \tag{VDS}$$

where u and F are vectorials, with two real components, more exactly column matrix:

$$u = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}, \quad F(t, u) = \begin{bmatrix} f(t, x, y) \\ g(t, x, y) \end{bmatrix}$$

The condition for the Cauchy Problem of the system can be written:

$$u(t_0) = u_0, u_0 = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Also, (DS^*) can be written:

$$u' = A(t)u + B(t) \tag{MDS}$$

where

$$A(t) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}(t) & a_{12}(t) \\ a_{21}(t) & a_{22}(t) \end{bmatrix} \quad B(t) = \begin{bmatrix} b_1(t) \\ b_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 1.3.4.1 (of representing the solutions of linear systems). Let $A \in C(J, \mathcal{M}_{\in})$ and $B \in (J, \mathbb{R}^2)$. Then the solutions of the linear system (MDS) are defined by the formula

$$u = e^{\int_{t_0}^t A(\sigma)d\sigma} C + \int_{t_0}^t e^{\int_s^t A(\sigma)d\sigma} B(s)ds$$

where
$$C = \begin{bmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $C_1, C_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 1.3.4.2 (of existence, uniqueness and representation of the solution). Let $A \in C(J, M_2(\mathbb{R}))$, $B \in C(J, \mathbb{R})$, $t_0 \in Jandu_0 \in \mathbb{R}^2$. Then the Cauchy Problem has a unique solution defined on J, given by the formula:

$$u = e^{\int_{t_0}^t A(\sigma)d\sigma} u_0 + \int_{t_0}^t e^{\int_s^t A(\sigma)d\sigma} B(s)ds$$

Theorem 1.3.4.3 (the structure of the set of solutions). (a) The set of solutions of a bidimensional linear and homogeneous system is a linear bidimensional space.

(b) If u_p is a particular solution of a linear non-homogeneous system (MDS), then any other solution u of the system (MDS) is the sum between the solution of the homogeneous system (u_0) with the particular solution u_p :

$$u = u_o + u_p$$

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Definition 1.3.4.1. A matrix in which the columns are the linearly independent solutions of the homogeneous system is called fundamental matrix of the system.

Lemma 1.3.4.4. (a) Any fundamental matrix is unsingular for any $t \in J$. (b) Any fundamental matrix U(t) satisfies the differential matricial equation:

$$U'(t) = A(t)U(t)$$