

Ordinary differential equations

UFC/DC
SA (CK0191)
2018.1

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Generalities
Linear and time-invariant
General linear

Transforms

Fourier transforms
Laplace transforms

Numerical integration

Picard-Lindelöf theorem

Ordinary differential equations

Stochastic algorithms

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Ordinary differential equations are equations in some unknown quantity

- The unknown quantity is a function

The equations involve the derivatives of the unknown function

We provide some general background on ODEs

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Interrelated changing entities are commonplace in systems modelling

- Changing entities are called **variables**

The rate of change of one variable with respect to another is a **derivative**

Relations among variables and their derivatives are **differential equations**

We are interested in knowing how the variables are related

Origins

General concepts

Origins

Example

Consider the problem of determining the age of a bonfire

~> From the remains of charcoal

We know a few things, from common sense and notions

- Charcoal is burned wood
 - Wood is organic matter
 - Organic matter is C
 - C has two isotopes
- ~> C¹⁴ and C¹²

In living organisms, the [C¹²]/[C¹⁴] ratio is constant

- C¹⁴ is radioactive
- C¹² is stable

Origins (cont.)

When organic matter dies its composition changes, with time

- C¹⁴ lost by radiation is not replaced
- ~> [C¹⁴] and [C¹²]/[C¹⁴] change

The changing entities of this problem are [C¹⁴] and time t

- The changing entities are related to each other

The relation between them requires the use of derivatives

- The relation is a differential equation

Origins (cont.)

Let t be the time elapsed since the wood was chopped off its tree

Let $x(t)$ be the amount of C¹⁴ in the dead chops/charcoal

- At any time t

The instantaneous rate at which C¹⁴ decomposes is $\frac{dx(t)}{dt}$

Origins (cont.)

We assume that the rate of decomposition varies linearly with $x(t)$

$$\rightsquigarrow \frac{dx(t)}{dt} = -kx(t)$$

- $k > 0$, proportionality constant
- $-$ sign, $[C^{14}]$ is decreasing

Instantaneous rate of decomposition of C^{14} is k -times the amount of C^{14}

- According to this relationship (a differential equation)

Origins (cont.)

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = -kx(t)$$

For instance, let us suppose that $k = 0.01$ and let t be measured in years

- \rightsquigarrow For $x(t)|_{t_1} = 200$ [units], we have $dx(t)/dt|_{t_1} = 2$ [units/year]
- \rightsquigarrow For $x(t)|_{t_2} = 50$ [units], we have $dx(t)/dt|_{t_2} = 1/2$ [units/year]

Origins (cont.)

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = -kx(t)$$

Next task, try to determine a functionality between x and time t , $x(t)$

We multiply both sides of the differential equation by $dt/x(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \frac{dt}{x(t)} &= -kx(t) \frac{dt}{x(t)} \\ \rightsquigarrow \frac{dx(t)}{x(t)} &= -k dt \end{aligned}$$

By integration,

$$\rightsquigarrow \log [x(t)] = -kt + c$$

c is an arbitrary constant

Origins (cont.)

$$\log [x(t)] = -kt + c$$

By the definition of logarithm, we get

$$\rightsquigarrow x(t) = e^{(-kt+c)} = e^c e^{(-kt)} = Ae^{(-kt)}$$

This is nearly the answer we are after¹

- We need values for A and k

¹A relation between the variable quantity x and the variable time t .

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Origins (cont.)

$$x(t) = Ae^{(-kt)}$$

At time $t = 0$, by substitution, we know we had $x(t = 0) = A$ units of C^{14}

From chemistry, we know $\sim 99,876\%$ of A is still present after 10 years

- For $t = 10$, we have $x(t = 10) = 0.99876A$

Thus,

$$0.99876A = Ae^{(-10k)}$$

$$0.99876 = e^{(-10k)}$$

$$\log(0.99876) = -10k$$

$$-0.00124 = -10k$$

$$\rightsquigarrow k = 0.000124$$

Origins (cont.)

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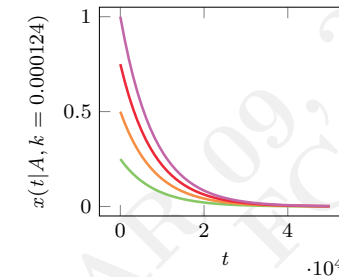
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For $k = 0.000124$

$$\rightsquigarrow x(t) = Ae^{-0.000124t}$$

We need to determine the value of A

- The initial amount of C^{14}

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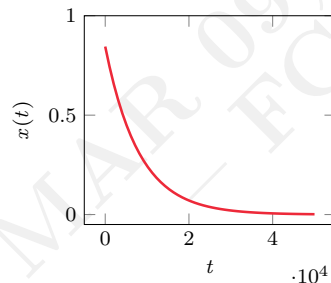
Origins (cont.)

By chemical analysis of charcoal, we can measure $[C^{14}]/[C^{12}]$

- Living wood (known) and bonfire (measured)

At time t (now), 85.5% of $[C^{14}]$ had decomposed

$\rightsquigarrow 14.5\%$ remained ($0.145A$)



$$0.145A = Ae^{-0.000124t}$$

$$0.145 = e^{-0.000124t}$$

$$\log(0.145) = -0.000124t$$

$$-1.9310 = -0.000124t$$

$$\rightsquigarrow t = 15573$$

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Definitions

In calculus, we studied methods for differentiating elementary functions

Example

Consider the function $y(x) = \log(x)$

We have the successive derivatives

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx}y(x) &= \frac{1}{x} = y' \\ \frac{d^2}{dx^2}y(x) &= \frac{-1}{x^2} = y'' \\ \frac{d^3}{dx^3}y(x) &= \frac{2}{x^3} = y''' \\ &\dots = \dots\end{aligned}$$

The equations involve variables and their derivatives

- One independent variable x

They are called ordinary differential equations

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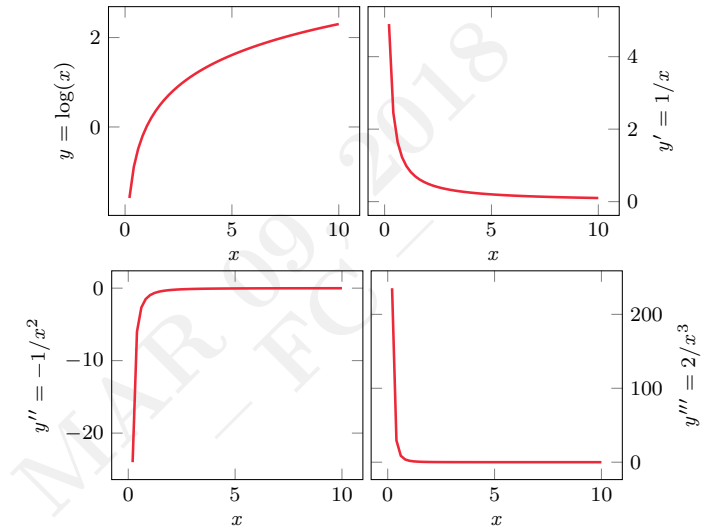
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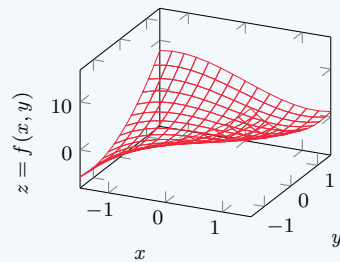
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Example



Consider the function

$$z(x, y) = x^3 - 3xy + 2y^2$$

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The partial derivatives with respect to x and y

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial x}z(x, y) &= 3x^2 - 3y \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y}z(x, y) &= -3x + 4y \\ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}z(x, y) &= 6x \\ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}z(x, y) &= 4 \\ &\dots = \dots\end{aligned}$$

The equations involves variables and their derivatives

- Two independent variables x and y

They are called partial differential equations

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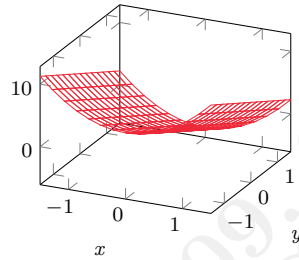
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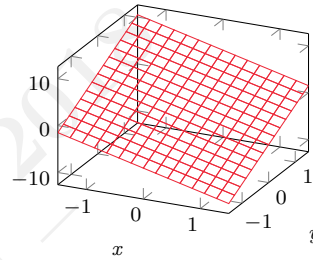
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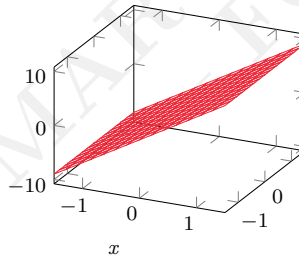
$$\partial z / \partial x = 3x^2 - 3y$$



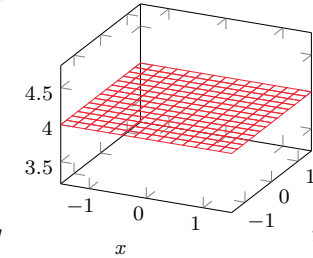
$$\partial z / \partial y = -3x + 4y$$



$$\partial^2 z / \partial x^2 = 6x$$



$$\partial^2 z / \partial y^2 = 4$$



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Definition

Ordinary differential equation

Let $f(x)$ be a function of x defined over some interval, $\mathcal{I} : a < x < b$

By **ordinary differential equation**, we mean an equation involving x , the function $f(x)$ and one or more of the derivatives of $f(x)$

Definitions (cont.)

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Habits

Common custom in writing differential equations uses $f(x)$ for $y(x)$ or y

For example,

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(x) + x \cdot [f(x)]^2 = 0 \rightsquigarrow \begin{cases} \frac{d}{dx}y(x) &= x \cdot [y(x)]^2 = 0 \\ \frac{d}{dx}y &= xy^2 = 0 \\ y' &= xy = 0 \end{cases}$$

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Definition

Order of a differential equation

The **order of a differential equation** is the order of the highest derivative involved in the equation

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Consider the algebraic equation

$$x^2 - 2x - 3 = 0$$

If x is replaced by 3, the equality holds true

- We say that $x = 3$ is a solution

We mean that $x = 3$ satisfies the equation

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Solution (cont.)

Consider the differential equation

$$x^2 y'' + 2xy' + y = \log(x) + 3x + 1, \text{ with } x > 0$$

Function $f(x) = \log(x) + x$ is a solution of the differential equation ($x > 0$)

$f(x)$ and its first and second derivatives can be substituted in y , y' and y''

- The equality will hold true

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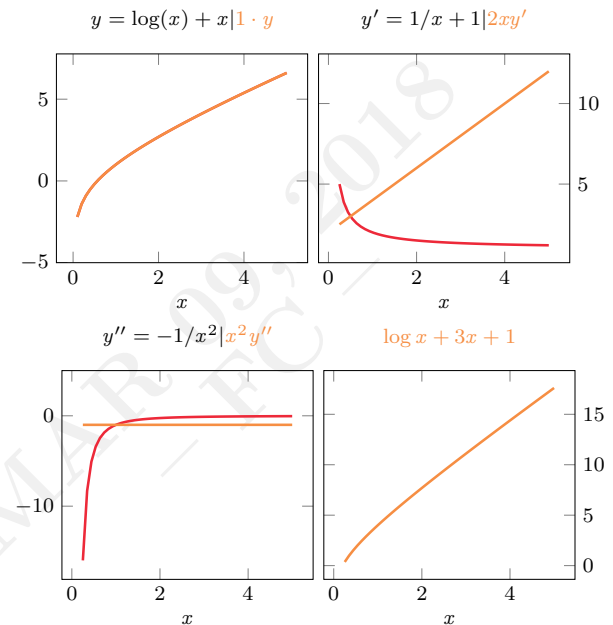
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Solution (cont.)

Two things are worth noting

Values of x for which function $f(x)$ is defined had been clearly specified

- Though they would have been tacitly assumed
- $\log(x)$ is undefined for $x \leq 0$

We specified the interval in which the differential equation makes sense

- Redundant, because of the presence of $\log(x)$

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Explicit solution

Definition

Explicit solution

Let $y = f(x)$ define y as a function of x over an interval, $\mathcal{I} : a < x < b$

We say that function $f(x)$ is an **explicit solution** of an ordinary differential equation involving x , $f(x)$ and derivatives, if it satisfies the equation $\forall x \in \mathcal{I}$

Function $f(x)$ is a solution of the differential equation

$$F[x, y, y', \dots, y^{(n)}] = 0,$$

if

$$F[x, f(x), f'(x), \dots, f^{(n)}(x)] = 0, \quad \text{for every } x \text{ in } \mathcal{I}$$

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Explicit solution (cont.)

We can replace y by $f(x)$, y' by $f'(x)$, y'' by $f''(x)$, ..., $y^{(n)}$ by $f^{(n)}(x)$

↪ The differential equation reduces to an identity in x

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Explicit solution (cont.)

Habits

We use expressions like 'solve' or 'find a solution' of a differential equation

~ 'Find a function which is solution of the differential expression'

We may refer to a certain equation as the solution of a differential equation

~ We mean, the function defined by the equation is the solution

Explicit solution (cont.)

Remark

An equation that does not define a function, cannot be a solution

- You may still show that the differential equation is satisfied

A function

Suppose that to each element of an independent variable x on a set E (the set must be specified) there corresponds one and only one (real) value of a dependent variables y

We say that the dependent variable y is a **function** of the independent variable x on the set E

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Explicit solution (cont.)

Example

Equation $y = \sqrt{-(1+x^2)}$ does not define a (real) function

Meaningless to say that it is a solution of the differential equation $x + yy' = 0$

Though, by formal substitution, we obtain an identity

$$\rightsquigarrow y = \sqrt{-(1+x^2)}$$

$$\rightsquigarrow y' = -x\sqrt{-(1+x^2)}$$

■

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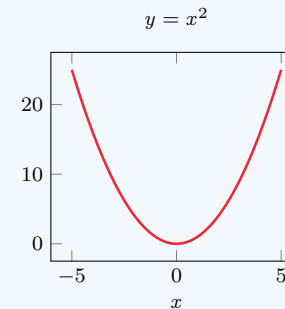
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Explicit solution (cont.)

Example



Consider the function

$$y = x^2, \text{ with } -\infty < x < \infty$$

Verify that it is a solution to the differential equation

$$(y'')^3 + (y')^2 - y - 3x^2 - 8 = 0$$

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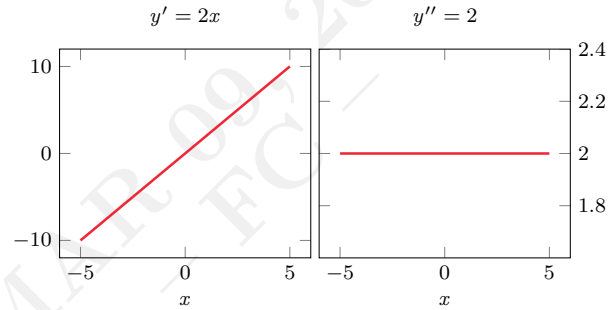
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Explicit solution (cont.)

Together with $y = f(x) = x^2$, we have $y' = f'(x) = 2x$ and $y'' = f''(x) = 2$



Explicit solution (cont.)

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$$\underbrace{(y'')^3}_{f''(x)=2} + \underbrace{(y')^2}_{f'(x)=2x} - \underbrace{y}_{f(x)=x^2} - 3x^2 - 8 = 0$$

Substituting these values, we obtain

$$8 + (4x^2 - x^2) - 3x^2 - 8 = 0$$

$$F[x, f(x), f'(x), f''(x)]$$

LHS is zero, $y = x^2$ is an explicit solution

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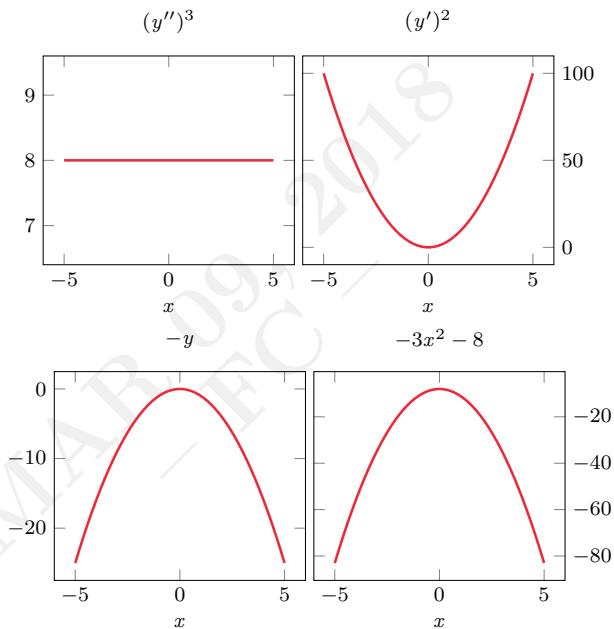
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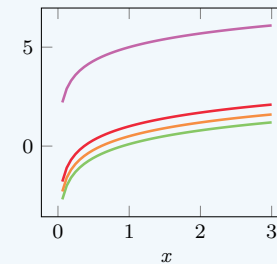
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Example

$$y = \log(x) + c$$



Consider function

$$y = \log(x) + c, \text{ with } x > 0$$

Verify that it is a solution to the differential equation

$$y' = 1/x$$

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Explicit solution (cont.)

Together with $y = f(x) = \log(x) + c$, we have $y' = f'(x) = 1/x$, for $x > 0$

By substitution of these values, we obtain an identity in the variable x

- $y = \log(x) + c$ is a solution of $y' = 1/x$, for all $x > 0$



Explicit solution (cont.)

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Implicit solution

We can test if an implicit solution defined by $f(x, y) = 0$ is a solution

- The procedure is much more involved

Not always easy to solve the equation $f(x, y) = 0$ for y in terms of x

Suppose that it can be shown that an implicit function $y = g(x)$ satisfies a given differential equation over an interval $\mathcal{I} : a < x < b$

- Relation $f(x, y) = 0$ is an implicit solution of the differential equation

Implicit solution (cont.)

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Implicit function

The relation $f(x, y) = 0$ defines y as an **implicit function** of x over the interval $\mathcal{I} : a < x < b$, if there exists a function $y = g(x)$ defined over \mathcal{I}

$$\rightsquigarrow f[x, g(x)] = 0, \text{ for every } x \in \mathcal{I}$$

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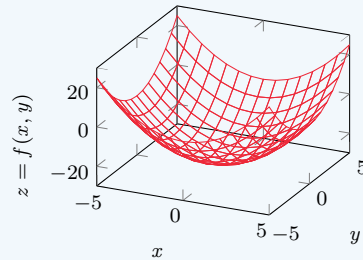
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Implicit solution (cont.)

Example



Consider the relationship

$$x^2 + y^2 - 25 = 0$$

Does it define a function?

Implicit solution (cont.)

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Let $x > +5$ or $x < -5$

- The formula will not determine a value of y
- (If $x = 7$, no y can satisfy the relation)

Let $-5 \leq x \leq +5$

- We solve the relation for y
- $y = \pm\sqrt{25 - x^2}$

It does not uniquely define $y(x)$

$$y = +\sqrt{25 - x^2}, \quad (x \in [-5, +5])$$

$$y = -\sqrt{25 - x^2}, \quad (x \in [-5, +5])$$

$$y = +\sqrt{25 - x^2}, \quad (x \in [-5, 0])$$

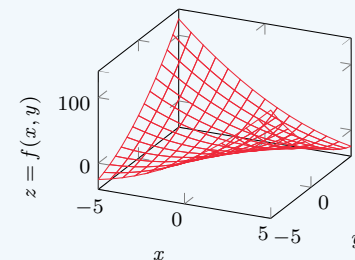
$$y = -\sqrt{25 - x^2}, \quad (x \in (0, +5])$$

Each formula defines a proper function

- We can *choose* any of them

Implicit solution (cont.)

Example



Consider the relationship

$$x^2 + y^2 - 3xy = 0$$

Does it define a function?

If it does, for what values of x will it uniquely determine a value of y ?

It is not easy to solve the relation for y in terms of x

Implicit solution (cont.)

Definition

Implicit solution

A relation $f(x, y) = 0$ is an **implicit solution** of the differential equation

$$F[x, y, y', y'', \dots, y^{(n)}] = 0, \text{ with } x \in \mathcal{I} = (a, b)$$

if

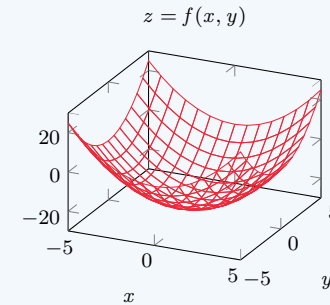
1. $f(x, y)$ defines y as an implicit function of x on \mathcal{I} (there exists a function $y = g(x)$ defined over \mathcal{I} such that $f[x, g(x)] = 0$ for every $x \in \mathcal{I}$)
2. $g(x)$ satisfies the differential equation

$$F[x, g(x), g(x)', g(x)'', \dots, g(x)^{(n)}] = 0, \text{ for every } x \in \mathcal{I} = (a, b)$$

■

Implicit solution (cont.)

Example



Consider the relation

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 25 = 0$$

Check whether $f(x, y) = 0$ is an implicit solution of the differential equation

$$F(x, y, y') = yy' + x = 0, \text{ with } \mathcal{I} : -5 < x < 5$$

Implicit solution (cont.)

Function $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 25$ defines y as an implicit function of $x \in \mathcal{I}$

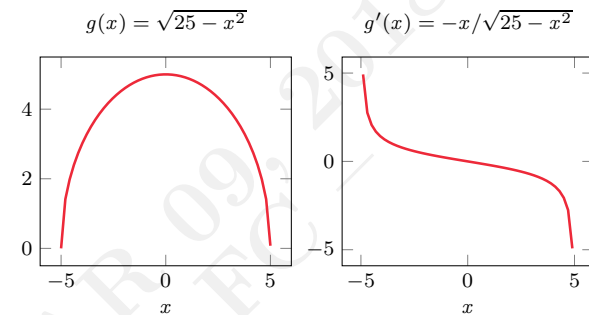
↪ There is a function $g(x)$ defined on \mathcal{I} such that

$$f[x, g(x)] = 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{I}$$

Specifically, let $g(x) = y = \sqrt{25 - x^2}$ for $-5 \leq x \leq +5$

Then, $f(x, y) = f[x, g(x)] = x^2 + \underbrace{[\sqrt{25 - x^2}]^2}_y - 25 = 0$ is satisfied

Implicit solution (cont.)



By substituting $g(x)$ for y and $g'(x)$ for y' in $F(x, y, y') = yy' + x = 0$

$$\rightsquigarrow f[x, g(x), g'(x)] = \sqrt{25 - x^2} \left(-\frac{x}{\sqrt{25 - x^2}} \right) + x = 0$$

■

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General solution

In calculus, we studied methods for integrating elementary functions

- It was the same as solving simple differential equations

$$\rightsquigarrow y'(x) = f(x)$$

General solution (cont.)

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Example

Consider the differential equation

$$y'(x) = e^x$$

Its solution, by integration

$$\rightsquigarrow y(x) = e^x + c$$

c can take any arbitrary numerical value

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General solution (cont.)

If $y''(x) = e^x$, then its solution by double integration

$$\rightsquigarrow y(x) = e^x + c_1 x + c_2$$

c_1 and c_2 can take any numerical values

General solution (cont.)

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If $y'''(x) = e^x$, then its solution by triple integration

$$\rightsquigarrow y(x) = e^x + c_1 x^2 + c_2 x + c_3$$

c_1 , c_2 and c_3 can take any numerical values



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General solution (cont.)

Two important (yet false) conjectures seem to stem from this example

If a differential equation has a solution, it has infinitely many solutions

↪ As many as there are values of c

If a differential equation is first order, then there is only one constant

↪ If it is second order, two constants

↪ If it is third order, three constants

↪ ...

If a differential equation is n -th order, the solution has n constants

General solution (cont.)

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Example

Consider the first-order differential equation

$$(y')^2 + y^2 = 0$$

Consider the second-order differential equation

$$(y'')^2 + y^2 = 0$$

Both differential equations admit only one solution

$$\rightsquigarrow y(x) = 0$$



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General solution (cont.)

Example

Consider the first-order differential equation

$$|y'| + 1 = 0$$

Consider the second-order differential equation

$$|y''| + 1 = 0$$

Both differential equations have no solution



General solution (cont.)

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Example

Consider the first-order differential equation

$$xy' = 1$$

The equation has no solution if $x \in \mathcal{I} = (-1, +1)$

The differential equation can be formally solved

$$y(x) = \log |x| + c$$

The function is discontinuous at the origin $x = 0$

- Not okay in \mathcal{I}

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General solution (cont.)

If $x < 0$, we have $y(x) = \log(-x) + c_1$

- This is a valid solution in $x < 0$

If $x > 0$, we have $y(x) = \log(x) + c_2$

- This is a valid solution in $x > 0$

There is no valid solution at $x = 0$



General solution (cont.)

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Example

Consider the first-order differential equation

$$(y' - y)(y' - 2y) = 0$$

The solution to this differential equation

$$(y - c_1 e^x)(y - c_2 e^{2x}) = 0$$

- Two arbitrary constants (not one)



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General solution (cont.)

The examples warn that not all differential equations have a solution

- Also, the number of constants is not the order of the equation

The conjectures are true for a large class of differential equations

Consider a solution that contains n constants c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n

↪ It is called a **n-parameter family of solutions**

↪ c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n are thus the **parameters**

General solution (cont.)

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Definition

Consider the family of functions in the $(n + 1)$ variables x, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n

$$y = f(x, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n)$$

Such functions are called a **n-parameter family of solutions** of the n -order differential equation

$$F[x, y, y', \dots, y^{(n)}] = 0$$

if for each choice of a set of values c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n the resulting function $f(x)$ (a function of x alone) is such that

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



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General solution (cont.)

Example

Consider the functions

$$y = f(x, c_1, c_2) = 3 + 2x + c_1 e^x + c_2 e^{2x}$$

A 2-parameter family of solutions of second-order differential equation

$$F[x, y, y', y''] = y'' - 3y' + 2y - 4x = 0$$

Let a, b be any two values of c_1, c_2

Then, as a function of only x

$$y = f(x) = 3 + 2x + ae^x + be^{2x}$$

General solution (cont.)

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The first and second derivatives of $y = f(x)$

$$y' = f'(x) = 2 + ae^x + 2be^{2x}$$

$$y'' = f''(x) = ae^x + 4be^{2x}$$

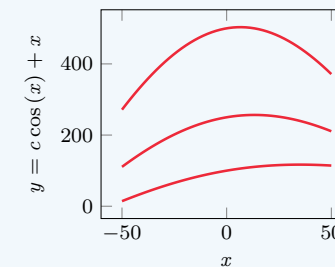
Substituting the values of f, f' and f'' for y, y' and y'' , we get

$$\leadsto F(x, f, f', f'') = ae^x + 4be^{2x} - 6 - 3ae^x - 6be^{2x} + 4x + 6 + 2ae^x + 2be^{2x} - 4x = 0$$

General solution (cont.)

Example

Find a differential equation for the 1-parameter family of solutions



This family has one constant

$$y(x) = c \cos(x) + x$$

We seek a first-order equation

By differentiating the family of solutions, we obtain

$$y' = -c \sin(x) + 1$$

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General solution (cont.)

$$y' = -c \sin(x) + 1$$

This differential equation still contains the constant

- It is not the searched one

We eliminate it by the following multiplications

To be completed as exercise? ■

General solution (cont.)

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Example

Find a differential equation for the 2-parameter family of solutions

$$y = c_1 e^x + c_2 e^{-x}$$

First-order equation

To be completed as exercise? ■

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General solution (cont.)

Consider the second order differential equation of a forced spring

$$\frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} + \gamma \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + \nu^2 x(t) = w(t)$$

γ and ν are constants

Force $w(t)$ is some given function (may/may not depend on time)

- Position $x(t)$ is the dependent variable
- Time t is the independent variable

The equation is called inhomogeneous, because of the forcing term

General solution

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The solution to the differential equation is defined as **particular solution**

- It satisfies the ordinary differential equation
- Does not contain arbitrary constants

A **general solution** contains every possible particular solutions

- Parameterised by some free constants

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General solution (cont.)

To solve the equation, we tie together general solution and initial conditions

We need to know the spring position $x(t_0)$ and velocity $dx(t_0)/dt$

- At some fixed initial time t_0

Given the initial conditions, there is a unique solution to the equation

- (provided that $w(t)$ is continuous)

General solution (cont.)

It is common to omit dependencies of x and w on t

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2}x(t) + \gamma \frac{d}{dt}x(t) + \nu^2 x(t) = w(t)$$

Time derivatives are often denoted using dot (Newtonian) notation

$$\ddot{x}(t) + \gamma \dot{x}(t) + \nu^2 x(t) = w(t)$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \ddot{x}(t) = d^2x(t)/dt^2$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \dot{x}(t) = dx(t)/dt$$

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General solution (cont.)

Differential equations of arbitrary order n can almost always be converted

\rightsquigarrow Vector differential equations of order one

General solution (cont.)

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2}x(t) + \gamma \frac{d}{dt}x(t) + \nu^2 x(t) = w(t)$$

For the spring model, we can define the **state variable** $\mathbf{x}(t)$

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{x}(t) = [x_1(t), x_2(t)] = [x(t), dx(t)/dt]$$

We re-write the original equation as a first-order equation

$$\rightsquigarrow \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} dx_1(t)/dt \\ dx_2(t)/dt \end{bmatrix}}_{d\mathbf{x}(t)/dt} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -\nu^2 & -\gamma \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t)]} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{L}} w(t)$$

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General solution (cont.)

The more general form

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t), t] + \mathbf{L}[\mathbf{x}(t), t]\mathbf{w}(t)$$

- The vector values function $\mathbf{x}(t) \in \mathcal{R}^n$ is called the state of the system
- The vector valued function $\mathbf{w}(t) \in \mathcal{R}^s$ is the forcing (input) function

It is possible to absorb the second term in the RHS into the first one

We get,

$$\rightsquigarrow \frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t), t]$$

General solution (cont.)

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The first-order vector representation of a n -order differential equation

\rightsquigarrow The state-space representation

We develop the theory and solution methods for first-order equations

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General solution (cont.)

The spring model is a special case of linear differential equation

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{F}(t)\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{L}(t)\mathbf{w}(t)$$

It is an important class of differential equations

\rightsquigarrow We can actually solve these equations

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**Linear and time-invariant
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Linear and time-invariant

Consider a scalar linear homogeneous differential equation

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = fx(t), \quad \text{given } x(0)$$

f is a constant (time-independent) scalar

The equation can be solved by variable separation

$$\rightsquigarrow \frac{dx(t)}{x(t)} = f dt$$

Linear and time-invariant (cont.)

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$$\frac{dx(t)}{x(t)} = f dt$$

We integrate the LHS from $x(0)$ to $x(t)$ and the RHS from 0 to t

We get,

$$\ln[x(t)] - \ln[x(0)] = ft \rightsquigarrow x(t) = x(0)e^{(ft)}$$

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Linear and time-invariant (cont.)

Another way of solving the equation consists of integrating both sides

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = fx(t), \quad \text{given } x(0)$$

Integrating from 0 to t , we get $\int_0^t dx/dt = x(t) - x(0)$

$$\rightsquigarrow x(t) = x(0) + \int_0^t d\tau fx(\tau)$$

We can now substitute the RHS of the equation for $x(t)$ in the integral

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= x(0) + \int_0^t d\tau f \left[x(0) + \int_0^\tau d\tau' fx(\tau') \right] \\ &= x(0) + fx(0) \int_0^t d\tau + \int_0^t \int_0^\tau d\tau' f^2 x(\tau') \\ &= x(0) + fx(0)t + \int_0^t \int_0^\tau d\tau' f^2 x(\tau') \end{aligned}$$

Linear and time-invariant (cont.)

The same procedure can be performed again on the last integral

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= x(0) + fx(0)t + \int_0^t \int_0^\tau d\tau' f^2 \left[x(0) + \int_0^{\tau'} d\tau'' fx(\tau'') \right] \\ &= x(0) + fx(0)t + f^2 x(0) \int_0^t \int_0^\tau d\tau' + \int_0^t \int_0^\tau \int_0^{\tau'} d\tau'' f^3 x(\tau'') d\tau' d\tau \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to repeat the same procedure

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= x(0) + fx(0)t + f^2 x(0) \frac{t^2}{2} + f^3 x(0) \frac{t^3}{6} + \dots \\ &\rightsquigarrow = \underbrace{\left(1 + ft + \frac{f^2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{f^3 t^3}{3!} + \dots \right)}_{e^{(ft)}} x(0) \end{aligned}$$

As the Taylor expansion of $e^{(ft)}$ converges, we have

$$\rightsquigarrow x(t) = e^{(ft)} x(0)$$

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Linear and time-invariant (cont.)

The multivariate generalisation of homogeneous linear differential equations

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}(t), \quad \text{given } \mathbf{x}(0)$$

\mathbf{F} is a constant (time-independent) matrix

We cannot use variable separation

Linear and time-invariant (cont.)

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We can use the expansion-based type solution

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{x}(t) = \underbrace{\left(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{F}t + \frac{\mathbf{F}^2 t^2}{2!} + \frac{\mathbf{F}^3 t^3}{3!} + \cdots \right)}_{e^{(\mathbf{F}t)}} \mathbf{x}(0)$$

The series (always) converges [To the matrix exponential $e^{(\mathbf{F}t)}$]

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{x}(t) = e^{(\mathbf{F}t)} \mathbf{x}(0)$$

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Linear and time-invariant (cont.)

The matrix exponential can be evaluated analytically

- Taylor series expansion
- Laplace transform
- Fourier transform
- Cayley-Hamilton
- ...

Linear and time-invariant (cont.)

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theorem

Consider the linear differential equation, with inhomogeneous term

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{L}\mathbf{w}(t), \quad \text{given } \mathbf{x}(0)$$

\mathbf{F} and \mathbf{L} are constant (time-independent) matrices

These equations can be solved using the integrating factor method

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Linear and time-invariant (cont.)

We first move $\mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}(t)$ to the LHS and then we multiply by $e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)}$

$$\rightsquigarrow e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)} \frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} - e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)} \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)} \mathbf{L}(t) \mathbf{w}(t)$$

From the definition of matrix exponential, we derive

$$\rightsquigarrow \frac{d}{dt} [e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)}] = -e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)} \mathbf{F}$$

We have,

$$\rightsquigarrow \frac{d}{dt} [e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)} \mathbf{x}(t)] = e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)} \frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} - e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)} \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}(t)$$

Linear and time-invariant (cont.)

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Thus, we can re-write

$$\rightsquigarrow \frac{d}{dt} [e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)} \mathbf{x}(t)] = e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)} \mathbf{L}(t) \mathbf{w}(t)$$

By integrating between t_0 and t , we get

$$\rightsquigarrow e^{(-\mathbf{F}t)} \mathbf{x}(t) - e^{(-\mathbf{F}t_0)} \mathbf{x}(t_0) = \int_{t_0}^t d\tau e^{(-\mathbf{F}\tau)} \mathbf{L}(\tau) \mathbf{w}(\tau)$$

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Linear and time-invariant (cont.)

The complete solution

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{x}(t) = e^{[-\mathbf{F}(t-t_0)]} \mathbf{x}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t d\tau e^{[\mathbf{F}(t-\tau)]} \mathbf{L}(\tau) \mathbf{w}(\tau)$$

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**General linear
Solution**

General linear

Consider the general time-varying linear differential equations

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{F}(t)\mathbf{x}(t), \quad \text{given } \mathbf{x}(t_0)$$

- The solution in terms of matrix exponential is not valid

We can still formulate the implicit solution

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{x}(t) = \Psi(t, t_0)\mathbf{x}(t_0)$$

- $\Psi(t, t_0)$ is the **transition matrix**

General linear (cont.)

The properties that define the transition matrix $\Psi(t, t_0)$

$$\partial \Psi(\tau, t) / \partial \tau = \mathbf{F}(\tau) \Psi(\tau, t)$$

$$\partial \Psi(\tau, t) / \partial t = -\Psi(\tau, t) \mathbf{F}(t)$$

$$\Psi(\tau, t) = \Psi(\tau, s) \Psi(s, t)$$

$$\Psi(t, \tau) = \Psi^{-1}(\tau, t)$$

$$\Psi(t, t) = \mathbf{I}$$

Given the transition matrix, we can build the solution

General linear (cont.)

Consider the inhomogeneous case

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{F}(t)\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{L}(t)\mathbf{w}(t), \quad \text{given } \mathbf{x}(t_0)$$

The solution is analogous to the time-invariant case

- The integrating factor is $\Psi(t, t_0)$

We obtain the solution,

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{x}(t) = \Psi(t, t_0)\mathbf{x}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t d\tau \Psi(t, \tau) \mathbf{L}(\tau) \mathbf{w}(\tau)$$

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Fourier transforms

Useful for solving inhomogeneous linear time-invariant differential equations

The **Fourier transform** of a function $g(t)$

$$\rightsquigarrow G(i\omega) = \mathcal{F}[g(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt g(t) e^{-i\omega t}$$

The corresponding inverse transform

$$\rightsquigarrow g(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}[G(i\omega)] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega G(i\omega) e^{-i\omega t}$$

Fourier transforms (cont.)

The main usefulness comes from the following property

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathcal{F}[d^n g(t)/dt^n] = (i\omega)^n \mathcal{F}[g(t)]$$

- Differentiation transformed into multiplication by $(i\omega)$

Also convolution can be transformed into multiplication

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathcal{F}[g(t) \star h(t)] = \mathcal{F}[g(t)] \mathcal{F}[h(t)]$$

- This is known as the convolution theorem²

²Convolution is defined as

$$g(t) \star h(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau g(t - \tau) h(\tau).$$

Fourier transforms (cont.)

The above properties require that the initial conditions are zero

- Not an actual restriction

Fourier transforms (cont.)

Consider the spring model

$$\frac{d^2x(t)}{dt^2} + \gamma \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + \nu^2 x(t) = w(t)$$

By taking the Fourier transform, we get

$$\leadsto (i\omega)^2 X(i\omega) + \gamma(i\omega)X(i\omega) + \nu^2 X(i\omega) = W(i\omega)$$

- $X(i\omega)$ is the Fourier transform of $x(t)$
- $W(i\omega)$ is the Fourier transform of $w(t)$

Fourier transforms (cont.)

$$(i\omega)^2 X(i\omega) + \gamma(i\omega)X(i\omega) + \nu^2 X(i\omega) = W(i\omega)$$

We first solve for $X(i\omega)$, we get

$$X(i\omega) = \frac{W(i\omega)}{(i\omega)^2 + \gamma(i\omega) + \nu^2}$$

We take the inverse-transform, we get

$$\leadsto x(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left[\frac{W(i\omega)}{(i\omega)^2 + \gamma(i\omega) + \nu^2} \right]$$

This is the solution

Fourier transforms (cont.)

For a general $w(t)$, we note that the RHS is a product

$$\frac{W(i\omega)}{(i\omega)^2 + \gamma(i\omega) + \nu^2} = \frac{1}{(i\omega)^2 + \gamma(i\omega) + \nu^2} W(i\omega) = H(i\omega) W(i\omega)$$

This product can be converted into a convolution

We compute the impulse response function

$$\begin{aligned} h(t) &= \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{(i\omega)^2 + \gamma(i\omega) + \nu^2} \right] \\ &= b^{-1} e^{(-at)} \sin(bt) u(t) \end{aligned}$$

\leadsto We have $a = \gamma/2$ and $b = \sqrt{\nu^2 - \gamma^2/4}$

$\leadsto u(t)$, the Heaviside step function

Fourier transforms (cont.)

Then, we get the full solution

$$\leadsto x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau h(t - \tau) w(\tau)$$

We construct $x(t)$ by feeding the signal $w(t)$ through a linear system

- (a filter) with impulse responses $h(t)$

Fourier transforms (cont.)

We can use the Fourier transform for general LTI equations

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{L}\mathbf{w}(t)$$

By taking the Fourier transform, we get

$$\rightsquigarrow (i\omega)\mathbf{X}(i\omega) = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{X}(i\omega) + \mathbf{L}\mathbf{W}(i\omega)$$

By solving for $\mathbf{X}(i\omega)$, we get

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{X}(i\omega) = [(i\omega)\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{F}]^{-1}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{W}(i\omega)$$

Fourier transforms (cont.)

$$\mathbf{X}(i\omega) = [(i\omega)\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{F}]^{-1}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{W}(i\omega)$$

We compare it with the solution

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{\Psi}(t, t_0)\mathbf{x}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t d\tau \mathbf{\Psi}(t, \tau)\mathbf{L}(\tau)\mathbf{w}(\tau)$$

We obtain the useful identity

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathcal{F}^{-1}\left\{[(i\omega)\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{F}]^{-1}\right\} = e^{(\mathbf{F}t)}u(t)$$

This is a valid way of computing matrix exponentials

Laplace transforms

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Laplace transforms

Another transform commonly used for solving LTI equations

The **Laplace transform** of a function $f(t)$

$$\rightsquigarrow F(s) = \mathcal{L}[f(t)](s) = \int_0^\infty dt f(t)e^{-st}, \quad \text{for } t \geq 0$$

The corresponding inverse transform

$$\rightsquigarrow f(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}[F(s)](t)$$

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Consider the nonlinear differential equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f[x(t), t], \quad \text{given } x(t_0)$$

We cannot derive an analytical solution

- ~> We resort to a numerical solution
- ~> An approximation

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Numerical integration (cont.)

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f[x(t), t]$$

We integrate the equation from t to $t + \Delta t$

$$x(t + \Delta t) = x(t) + \int_t^{t+\Delta t} d\tau f[x(\tau), \tau]$$

We generate the solution at time steps $t_0, t_1 = t_0 + \Delta t, t_2 = t_0 + 2\Delta t, \dots$

- We must know how to calculate the integral

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Numerical integration (cont.)

$$x(t_0 + \Delta t) = x(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + \Delta t} d\tau f[x(\tau), \tau]$$

$$x(t_0 + 2\Delta t) = x(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + 2\Delta t} d\tau f[x(\tau), \tau]$$

$$x(t_0 + 3\Delta t) = x(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + 3\Delta t} d\tau f[x(\tau), \tau]$$

$$\dots = \dots$$

Different approximations of the integral lead to different numerical methods

Numerical integration (cont.)

Euler's method

Use the integral approximation

$$\int_t^{t+\Delta\tau} d\tau \mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(\tau), \tau] \approx \mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t), t] \Delta t$$

Start from $\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) = \mathbf{x}(t_0)$ and divide the integration interval $[t_0, t]$

$\rightsquigarrow n$ steps, $t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = t$

$\rightsquigarrow \Delta t = t_{k+1} - t_k$

At each step k , we approximate the solution

$$\rightsquigarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_{k+1}) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k) + \mathbf{f}[\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k), t_k] \Delta t$$

Numerical integration (cont.)

The global order of a numerical method

It is defined to be the smallest exponent p such that if we numerically solve an ODE using $n = 1/\Delta t$ steps of length Δt , there is a constant K such that

$$\rightsquigarrow |\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_n) - \mathbf{x}(t_n)| \leq K(\Delta t)^p$$

$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_n)$ is the approximation of $\mathbf{x}(t_n)$, the true solution

The error of integrating over $1/\Delta t$ steps is proportional to Δt

- The first discarded term is order $(\Delta t)^2$

Thus, the Euler method is order $p = 1$

Numerical integration (cont.)

We can improve this approximation by using a trapezoidal approximation

$$\int_t^{t+\Delta t} d\tau \mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(\tau), \tau] \approx \frac{\Delta t}{2} \{ \mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t), t] + \mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t + \Delta t), t + \Delta t] \}$$

The resulting approximation integration rule

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{x}(t_{k+1}) \approx \mathbf{x}(t_k) + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \{ \mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t_k), t_k] + \mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t_{k+1}), t_{k+1}] \}$$

This is an implicit recursion rule $[\mathbf{x}(t_{k+1})$ appears also on the RHS]

- We must solve a nonlinear system of equation to use this rule
- (At each iteration step, heavy for large \mathbf{x})

Numerical integration (cont.)

Heun's method

Replace the the RHS of the solution with its Euler's approximation

Start from $\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) = \mathbf{x}(t_0)$ and divide the integration interval $[t_0, t]$

$\rightsquigarrow n$ steps, $t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = t$

$\rightsquigarrow \Delta t = t_{k+1} - t_k$

At each step k , we approximate the solution

$$\rightsquigarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_{k+1}) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k) + \mathbf{f}[\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k), t_k] \Delta t$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_{k+1}) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k) + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \{ \mathbf{f}[\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k), t_k] + \mathbf{f}[\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_{k+1}), t_{k+1}] \}$$

The method has global order $p = 2$

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Numerical integration (cont.)

Another useful class of methods are the Runge-Kutta methods

- We consider the classical 4-th order case

Numerical integration (cont.)

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Runge-Kutta method (4-th order)

Start from $\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) = \mathbf{x}(t_0)$ and divide the integration interval $[t_0, t]$

$\rightsquigarrow n$ steps, $t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = t$

$\rightsquigarrow \Delta t = t_{k+1} - t_k$

At each step k , we approximate the solution

$$\Delta \mathbf{x}_k^1 = \mathbf{f}[\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k), t_k] \Delta t$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{x}_k^2 = \mathbf{f}\left[\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k) + \frac{\Delta \mathbf{x}_k^1}{2}, t_k + \frac{\Delta t}{2}\right] \Delta t$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{x}_k^3 = \mathbf{f}\left[\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k) + \frac{\Delta \mathbf{x}_k^2}{2}, t_k + \frac{\Delta t}{2}\right] \Delta t$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{x}_k^4 = \mathbf{f}[\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k) + \Delta \mathbf{x}_k^3, t_k + \Delta t] \Delta t$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_{k+1}) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_k) + \frac{1}{6}(\Delta \mathbf{x}_k^1 + 2\Delta \mathbf{x}_k^2 + 2\Delta \mathbf{x}_k^3 + \Delta \mathbf{x}_k^4)$$

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Numerical integration (cont.)

The method can be derived by writing the Taylor expansion for the solution

- Select coefficient so that lower-order terms cancel out

The method has global order $p = 4$

Numerical integration (cont.)

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There is a wide class of methods for integrating ordinary differential forms

The methods that we have overviewed have fixed step length

- There exists various variable step size methods

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It is important to know whether a solution to a ODE exists and is unique

We consider a general equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f[x(t), t]$$

- Function $f(x(t), t)$ is given

Suppose that function $f \mapsto f[x(t), t]$ is integrable in the Reimann sense

- We can integrate both sides of the equation from t_0 to t

$$\rightsquigarrow x(t) = x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t d\tau f[x(\tau), \tau]$$

The identity can be used to find approximate solutions

- **Picard's iteration**

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Picard-Lindelöf theorem (cont.)

Picard's algorithm

Start with an initial guess $\varphi_0(t) = x_0$

Then, compute the approximations $\varphi_1(t), \varphi_2(t), \varphi_3(t), \dots$,

$$\rightsquigarrow \varphi_{n+1}(t) = x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t d\tau f[\varphi_n(t), t]$$

- Same recursion used for linear differential equations

The procedure converges to the unique (around $t = t_0$) solution

$$\rightsquigarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_n(t) = x(t)$$

$f(x, t)$ must be continuous in x and t , and Lipschitz continuous in x

Picard-Lindelöf theorem (cont.)

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The Picard-Lindelöf theorem

Under the above continuity conditions, the differential equation has a solution and that solution is unique in a certain interval around $t = t_0$