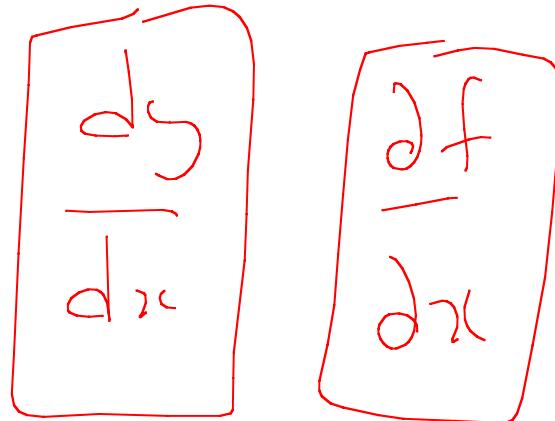


3 Differential Equations



3.1 Introduction

2 Types of Differential Equation (D.E)

(i) Ordinary Differential Equation (O.D.E)

Equation involving (ordinary) derivatives

$x, y, \frac{dy}{dx}, \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}, \dots, \frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$ (some fixed n)

$$y = y(x)$$

y is some unknown function of x together with its derivatives, i.e.

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$$

$$F(x, y, y', y'', \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0 \quad (1)$$

Note $y^4 \neq y^{(4)}$

Also if $y = y(t)$, where t is time, then we often write

$$\dot{y} = \frac{dy}{dt}, \quad \ddot{y} = \frac{d^2y}{dt^2}, \quad \dots, \quad \ddot{\dots} = \frac{d^4y}{dt^4}$$

time

Applied
Math

(ii) Partial Differential Equation (PDE)

Involve partial derivatives, i.e. unknown function dependent on two or more variables,

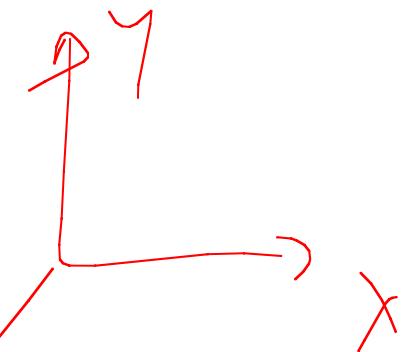
e.g.

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} - u = 0$$

So here we solving for the unknown function $u(x, y, z, t)$.

More complicated to solve - better for modelling real-life situations, e.g. finance, engineering & science.

In quant finance there is no concept of spatial variables, unlike other branches of mathematics.



Order of the highest derivative is the order of the DE

An ode is of degree r if $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$ (where n is the order of the derivative) appears with power r

$(r \in \mathbb{Z}^+)$ – the definition of n and r is distinct. Assume that any ode has the property that each

$\frac{d^\ell y}{dx^\ell}$ appears in the form $\left(\frac{d^\ell y}{dx^\ell}\right)^r \rightarrow \left(\frac{d^n y}{dx^n}\right)^r$ order n and degree r .

A hand-drawn diagram consisting of two red curved arrows. One arrow points from the term $(\frac{d^n y}{dx^n})^r$ to the term $\frac{d^\ell y}{dx^\ell}$. The other arrow points from the term $\frac{d^\ell y}{dx^\ell}$ back to the term $(\frac{d^n y}{dx^n})^r$, forming a loop.

Examples:

	DE	order	degree
(1)	$y' = 3y$	1	1
(2)	$(y')^3 + 4 \sin y = x^3$	1	3
(3)	$(y^{(4)})^2 + x^2 (y^{(2)})^5 + (y')^6 + y = 0$	4	2
(4)	$y'' = \sqrt{y' + y + x}$	2	2
(5)	$y'' + x(y')^3 - xy = 0$	2	1

Note - example (4) can be written as $(y'')^2 = y' + y + x$

We will consider ODE's of degree one, and of the form

nth ordered linear

D-E.

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

$$= \sum_{i=0}^n a_i(x) y^{(i)}(x) + g(x) \quad (\text{more pedantic})$$

$$a_i(x) \frac{dy}{dx^i}$$

Note: $y^{(0)}(x)$ - zeroth derivative, i.e. $y(x)$.

This is a Linear ODE of order n , i.e. $r = 1 \forall$ (for all) terms. Linear also because $a_i(x)$ not a function of $y^{(i)}(x)$ - else equation is Non-linear.

Examples: $\sum_{i=0}^n a_i y^i$

- | DE | |
|--|--|
| (1) $2xy'' + x^2y' - (x+1)y = x^2$ | |
| (2) $\cancel{yy''} + xy' + y = 2$ | |
| (3) $y'' + \sqrt{y'} + y = x^2$ | |
| (4) $\frac{d^4y}{dx^4} + \cancel{y^4} = 0$ | |

Nature of DE	Classification
Linear	
$a_2 = y \Rightarrow$ Non-Linear	
Non-Linear $\because (y')^{\frac{1}{2}}$	
Non-Linear - y^4	

Our aim is to solve our ODE either explicitly or by finding the most general $y(x)$ satisfying it or implicitly by finding the function y implicitly in terms of x , via the most general function g s.t $g(x, y) = 0$.

$$\underbrace{a_2(x)}_{\text{coefficient of } y''} y'' + \text{---} = 0$$

Suppose that y is given in terms of x and n arbitrary constants of integration c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n .

So $\tilde{g}(x, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n) = 0$. Differentiating \tilde{g} , n times to get $(n+1)$ equations involving

$$c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n, x, y, y', y'', \dots, y^{(n)}.$$

Eliminating c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n we get an ODE

$$\tilde{f}(x, y, y', y'', \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0$$

x, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n

start with a f. $y \rightarrow D.E$

$$S = y(x, c) \quad | \text{ const} \Rightarrow \text{diff once}$$

Examples:

(1) $y = x^3 + ce^{-3x}$ (so 1 constant c)

\textcircled{a} $\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 3x^2 - 3ce^{-3x}$, so eliminate c by taking $3y + y' = 3x^3 + 3x^2$, i.e.

$$-3x^2(x+1) + 3y + y' = 0$$

(2) $y = c_1 e^{-x} + c_2 e^{2x}$ (2 constants so differentiate twice)

$$y' = -c_1 e^{-x} + 2c_2 e^{2x} \Rightarrow y'' = c_1 e^{-x} + 4c_2 e^{2x}$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} y + y' &= 3c_2 e^{2x} \\ y' + y'' &= 6c_2 e^{2x} \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} (a) \\ (b) \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{and } 2(a)=(b) \therefore 2(y + y') = y + y'' \rightarrow$$

$$y'' - 2y' - y = 0$$

n^{th} ordered D.E

$$3\textcircled{a} + \textcircled{b}$$

$$y' = 3x^2(x+1) - 3y$$

elim. c_1, c_2

for $\textcircled{a}, \textcircled{b}$

c

n const.

General
SOL

Conversely it can be shown (under suitable conditions) that the general solution of an n^{th} order ode will involve n arbitrary constants. If we specify values (i.e. boundary values) of

f_n : with n (cont.) \downarrow
 $y, y', \dots, y^{(n)}$ \rightarrow n^{th} order
O.D.E.

for values of x , then the constants involved may be determined.

A solution $y = y(x)$ of (1) is a function that produces zero upon substitution into the lhs of (1).

$$y = Ae^{rx}$$

Example:

2nd order $y'' - 3y' + 2y = 0$ is a 2nd order equation and $y = e^x$ is a solution.

D.E. $y = y' = y'' = e^x$ - substituting in equation gives $e^x - 3e^x + 2e^x = 0$ So we can verify that a function is the solution of a DE simply by substitution.

Exercise:

(1) Is $y(x) = c_1 \sin 2x + c_2 \cos 2x$ (c_1, c_2 arbitrary constants) a solution of $y'' + 4y = 0$

(2) Determine whether $y = x^2 - 1$ is a solution of $\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^4 + y^2 = -1$

I. V.P.

B.V.P.

3.1.1 Initial & Boundary Value Problems

A DE together with conditions, an unknown function $y(x)$ and its derivatives, all given at the same value of independent variable x is called an **Initial Value Problem (IVP)**.

e.g. $y'' + 2y' = e^x; y(\pi) = 1, y'(\pi) = 2$ is an IVP because both conditions are given at the same value $x = \pi$.

A **Boundary Value Problem (BVP)** is a DE together with conditions given at different values of x , i.e. $y'' + 2y' = e^x; y(0) = 1, y(1) = 1$.

Here conditions are defined at different values $x = 0$ and $x = 1$.

A solution to an IVP or BVP is a function $y(x)$ that both solves the DE and satisfies all given initial or boundary conditions.

Exercise: Determine whether any of the following functions

- (a) $y_1 = \sin 2x$ (b) $y_2 = x$ (c) $y_3 = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x$ is a solution of the IVP

$$y'' + 4y = 0; \quad y(0) = 0, \quad y'(0) = 1$$

$$F(x, y, y') = 0 \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$$

3.2 First Order Ordinary Differential Equations

Standard form for a first order DE (in the unknown function $y(x)$) is

$$y' = \underbrace{f(x, y)}_{(2)}$$

so given a 1st order ode

$$\underbrace{F(x, y, y')}_{(2)} = 0$$

can often be rearranged in the form (2), e.g.

$$F(x, y, y') \quad y' = f(x, y)$$

$$\boxed{xy' + 2xy - y} = 0 \Rightarrow y' = \frac{y - 2x}{x}$$

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

3.2.1 One Variable Missing

This is the simplest case

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

y missing:

$$y' = f(x) \quad \text{solution is } y = \int f(x) dx + C$$

x missing:

$$y' = f(y) \quad \text{solution is } x = \int \frac{1}{f(y)} dy$$

$$\int \frac{dy}{f(y)} = \cancel{\int dx}$$

Example:

I.V.P.

$$y' = \cos^2 y, \quad y = \frac{\pi}{4} \text{ when } x = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \int \frac{1}{\cos^2 y} dy = \int \sec^2 y dy \Rightarrow x = \tan y + C$$

C is a constant of integration.

Gen. Sol.

$$\int \frac{dy}{f(y)} + C$$

This is the general solution. To obtain a particular solution use

$$y(2) = \frac{\pi}{4} \rightarrow 2 = \tan \frac{\pi}{4} + c \Rightarrow c = 1$$

so rearranging gives

$$y = \arctan(x - 1)$$

Particular

$$y = \arctan(x - 1)$$

Job

$$\tan y = x - 1$$

$$S^1 = \boxed{f(x,y)}$$

3.2.2 Variable Separable

$$y' = g(x)h(y) \quad (3)$$

So $f(x,y) = g(x)h(y)$ where g and h are functions of x only and y only in turn. So

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)h(y) \rightarrow \int \frac{dy}{h(y)} = \int g(x)dx + c$$

c — arbitrary constant.

$$\underline{f(x,y)}$$

Two examples follow on the next page:

$$x \mapsto \cancel{\int} g(x)h(y)$$

$$x^2 \sin y ? \checkmark$$

$$e^x \log y \checkmark$$

$$x \mapsto y$$

$$y^2 = \frac{2}{1}x^3 + 4x + d$$

$$\frac{1}{y^2} = \frac{2}{1}x^3 + 4x + d \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x^2 + 2}{y}$$

$$\int y \, dy = \int (x^2 + 2) \, dx \rightarrow \frac{y^2}{2} = \frac{x^3}{3} + 2x + c$$

$$f(x, y) = (x^2 + 2) \cdot \frac{1}{y}$$

$$S(x) \quad h(y)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y \ln x \text{ subject to } y = 1 \text{ at } x = e \quad (y(e) = 1) \quad J.V.P.$$

$$\int \frac{dy}{y} = \int \ln x \, dx \quad \text{Recall: } \int \ln x \, dx = x(\ln x - 1)$$

$$\ln y = x(\ln x - 1) + c \rightarrow y = A \exp(x \ln x - x)$$

A — arb. constant

now putting $x = e, y = 1$ gives $A = 1$. So solution becomes

$$y = \exp(\ln x^x) \exp(-x) \rightarrow y = \frac{x^x}{e^x} \Rightarrow y = \left(\frac{x}{e}\right)^x$$

P.S. Partial
soln

3.2.3 Linear Equations

These are equations of the form

$$y' + P(x)y = Q(x) \quad (4)$$

which are similar to (3), but the presence of $Q(x)$ renders this no longer separable. We look for a function $R(x)$, called an **Integrating Factor (I.F)** so that

$$R(x)y' + R(x)P(x)y = \frac{d}{dx}(R(x)y)$$

So upon multiplying the lhs of (4), it becomes a derivative of $R(x)y$, i.e.

$$Ry' + RP_y = Ry' + R'y$$

from (4).

This gives $RPy = R'y \Rightarrow R(x)P(x) = \frac{dR}{dx}$, which is a DE for R which is separable, hence

$$\int \frac{dR}{R} = \int P dx + c \rightarrow \ln R = \int P dx + c$$

So $R(x) = K \exp(\int P dx)$, hence there exists a function $R(x)$ with the required property. Multiply (4) through by $R(x)$

$$\underbrace{R(x)[y' + P(x)y]}_{= \frac{d}{dx}(R(x)y)} = R(x)Q(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(Ry) = R(x)Q(x) \rightarrow Ry = \int R(x)Q(x)dx + B$$

B – arb. constant.

We also know the form of $R(x) \rightarrow$

$$yK \exp\left(\int P dx\right) = \int K \exp\left(\int P dx\right) Q(x)dx + B.$$

Divide through by K to give

$$y \exp\left(\int P dx\right) = \int \exp\left(\int P dx\right) Q(x) dx + \text{constant.}$$

So we can take $K = 1$ in the expression for $R(x)$.

To solve $y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$ calculate $\boxed{R(x) = \exp\left(\int P dx\right)}$, which is the I.F.

Examples:

1. Solve $y' - \frac{1}{x}y = x^2$

In this case c.f (4) gives $P(x) \equiv -\frac{1}{x}$ & $Q(x) \equiv x^2$, therefore

I.F $R(x) = \exp \left(\int -\frac{1}{x} dx \right) = \exp(-\ln x) = \frac{1}{x}$. Multiply DE by $\frac{1}{x}$ \rightarrow

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{x} \left(y' - \frac{1}{x}y \right) &= x \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{y}{x} \right) = x \rightarrow \int d \left(x^{-1}y \right) \\ &= \int x dx + c \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{y}{x} = \frac{x^2}{2} + c \therefore \text{GS is } y = \frac{x^3}{2} + cx$$

2. Obtain the general solution of $(1 + ye^x) \frac{dx}{dy} = e^x$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = (1 + ye^x) e^{-x} = e^{-x} + y \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - y = e^{-x}$$

$P(x) = -1$

Which is a linear equation, with $P = -1$, $Q = e^{-x}$

I.F $R(y) = \exp\left(\int -dx\right) = e^{-x}$

so multiplying DE by I.F

$$e^{-x}(y' - y) = e^{-2x} \rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}(ye^{-x}) = e^{-2x} \Rightarrow$$

$$\int d(ye^{-x}) = \int e^{-2x} dx$$

$$ye^{-x} = -\frac{1}{2}e^{-2x} + c \therefore y = ce^x - \frac{1}{2}e^{-x}$$

is the GS.

3.3 Second Order ODE's

$$F(x, y, y', y'') = 0$$

Typical second order ODE (degree 1) is

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

solution involves two arbitrary constants.

$$a_2(x)y'' + a_1(x)y' + a_0(x)y = g(x)$$

3.3.1 Simplest Cases

A y' , y missing, so

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

Integrate wrt x (twice): $y = \int (\int f(x) dx) dx$

Example: $y'' = 4x$

$$\int_1 y'' \rightarrow y'$$

$$\int_2 y' \rightarrow y$$

$$y'' = f(x, \cancel{y}, y')$$

GS $y = \int \left(\int 4x \, dx \right) dx = \int [2x^2 + C] \, dx = \frac{2x^3}{3} + Cx + D$

B y missing, so $y'' = f(y', x)$

$P(x) = y'$
 Put $P = y' \rightarrow y'' = \frac{dP}{dx} = f(P, x)$, i.e. $P' = f(P, x)$ - first order ode

Solve once $\rightarrow P(x)$

Solve again $\rightarrow y(x)$

Example: Solve $x \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} = x^3$

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

$$= f(x, P)$$

Note: A is a special case of B

C y' and x missing, so

$$y'' = f(y)$$

Put $p = y'$, then

$$y'' = \frac{dp}{dx} \quad \text{chain Rule}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} &= \frac{dp}{dx} = \frac{dp}{dy} \frac{dy}{dx} = p \frac{dp}{dy} \\ &= f(y) \end{aligned}$$

So solve 1st order ode

$$p \frac{dp}{dy} = f(y)$$

which is separable, so

$$\int p \, dp = \int f(y) \, dy \rightarrow$$

$$\frac{1}{2} p^2 = p \int f(y) \, dy$$

$$\frac{1}{2}p^2 = \int f(y) dy + \text{const.}$$

Example: Solve $y^3 y'' = 4$

$$\Rightarrow y'' = \frac{4}{y^3}. \text{ Put } p = y' \rightarrow \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{dp}{dy} = \frac{4}{y^3}$$

$$\therefore \int p dp = \int \frac{4}{y^3} dy \Rightarrow p^2 = -\frac{4}{y^2} + D \quad \therefore p = \frac{\pm\sqrt{Dy^2 - 4}}{y}, \text{ so from our definition of } p,$$

$$P - \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\pm\sqrt{Dy^2 - 4}}{y} \Rightarrow \int dx = \int \frac{\pm y}{\sqrt{Dy^2 - 4}} dy$$

Integrate rhs by substitution (i.e. $u = Dy^2 - 4$) to give

$$x = \frac{\pm\sqrt{Dy^2 - 4}}{D} + E \rightarrow [D(x - E)^2] = Dy^2 - 4$$

$$\therefore \text{GS is } Dy^2 - D^2(x - E)^2 = 4$$

D x missing: $y'' = f(y', y)$

Same case

Put $P = y'$, so $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \boxed{P \frac{dP}{dy}}$ = $f(P, y)$ - 1st order ODE

agin' we chas' Rule.

Given B, C, D decomposed 2^{24} into eg's

In b 2 1st order eg's

3.3.2 Linear ODE's of Order at least 2

General n^{th} order linear ode is of form:

$$a_n(x)y^{(n)} + a_{n-1}(x)y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1(x)y' + a_0(x)y = g(x)$$

Use symbolic notation:

$$D \equiv \frac{d}{dx}; \quad D^r \equiv \frac{d^r}{dx^r} \quad \text{so} \quad D^r y \equiv \frac{d^r y}{dx^r}$$

$$\therefore a_r D^r \equiv a_r(x) \frac{d^r}{dx^r} \quad \text{so}$$

$$a_r D^r y = a_r(x) \frac{d^r y}{dx^r}$$

Now introduce

$$L = (a_n D^n + a_{n-1} D^{n-1} + a_{n-2} D^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 D + a_0)$$

so we can write a linear ode in the form

$$L y = g$$

operator notation

Linear
Diff.
operator

L – Linear Differential Operator of order n and its definition will be used throughout.

If $g(x) = 0 \forall x$, then $L y = 0$ is said to be **HOMOGENEOUS**.

$L y = 0$ is said to be the homogeneous part of $L y = g$.

L is a linear operator because as is trivially verified:

$$(1) L(y_1 + y_2) = L(y_1) + L(y_2)$$

$$(2) L(cy) = cL(y) \quad c \in \mathbb{R}$$

GS of $Ly = g$ is given by

$$y = y_c + y_p$$

y_c solⁿ of $Ly = 0$

y_p solⁿ of $Ly = g$

$y = y_c + y_p$

where y_c — Complimentary Function & y_p — Particular Integral (or Particular Solution)

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} y_c \text{ is solution of } Ly = 0 \\ y_p \text{ is solution of } Ly = g \end{array} \right\} \therefore \text{GS } y = y_c + y_p$$

Look at homogeneous case $Ly = 0$. Put \mathbb{S} = all solutions of $Ly = 0$. Then \mathbb{S} forms a vector space of dimension n . Functions $y_1(x), \dots, y_n(x)$ are LINEARLY DEPENDENT if $\exists \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$ (not all zero) s.t

$$\lambda_1 y_1(x) + \lambda_2 y_2(x) + \dots + \lambda_n y_n(x) = 0$$

Otherwise y_i 's ($i = 1, \dots, n$) are said to be LINEARLY INDEPENDENT (Lin. Indep.) \Rightarrow whenever

$$\lambda_1 y_1(x) + \lambda_2 y_2(x) + \dots + \lambda_n y_n(x) = 0 \quad \forall x$$

then $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_n = 0$.

$$Ly = 0 \rightarrow y_1, \dots, y_n$$

FACT:

(1) $L - n^{\text{th}}$ order linear operator, then $\exists n$ Lin. Indep. solutions y_1, \dots, y_n of $Ly = 0$ s.t GS of $Ly = 0$ is given by

$y \rightarrow$

$$y = \lambda_1 y_1 + \lambda_2 y_2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n \quad \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R} . \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$$

(2) Any n Lin. Indep. solutions of $Ly = 0$ have this property.

To solve $Ly = 0$ we need only find by "hook or by crook" n Lin. Indep. solutions.

$$q_2(x)y'' + q_1(x)y' + q_0(y) = 0$$

3.3.3 Linear ODE's with Constant Coefficients

Consider Homogeneous case: $Ly = 0$.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} q_2 = a \\ q_1 = b \\ q_0 = c \end{array} \right\} \text{const.}$$

All basic features appear for the case $n = 2$, so we analyse this.

$$L y = a \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + b \frac{dy}{dx} + cy = 0 \quad a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$$

Try a solution of the form $y = \exp(\lambda x)$

$$\lambda^2 + \frac{b}{a}\lambda + \frac{c}{a} = 0 \quad \lambda = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

$$L(e^{\lambda x}) = (aD^2 + bD + c)e^{\lambda x}$$

hence $a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c = 0$ and so λ is a root of the quadratic equation

$$a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c = 0$$

AUXILLIARY EQUATION (A.E)

There are three cases to consider:

(1) $b^2 - 4ac > 0$

So $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, so GS is

$$y = c_1 \exp(\lambda_1 x) + c_2 \exp(\lambda_2 x)$$

c_1, c_2 — arb. const. of steps.

(2) $b^2 - 4ac = 0$

So $\lambda = \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = -\frac{b}{2a}$

$$c_1 e^{\lambda_1 x} + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 x}$$

$$e^{\lambda_2 x}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda &= \lambda_1 \rightarrow y_1 = e^{\lambda_1 x} \\ \lambda &= \lambda_2 \rightarrow y_2 = e^{\lambda_2 x}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}c_1 e^{\lambda_1 x} + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 x} &= c_1 e^{\lambda_1 x} + c_1 e^{\lambda_1 x} \\ &\stackrel{b=-1}{=} c_1 e^{\lambda_1 x}\end{aligned}$$

$$y_1 = c_1 e^{\lambda x}$$

$$y_2 = c_2 x e^{\lambda x}$$

$$y = c_1 e^{\lambda x} + c_2 x e^{\lambda x}$$

Clearly $e^{\lambda x}$ is a solution of $L y = 0$ - but theory tells us there exist two solutions for a 2nd order ode. So now try $y = x \exp(\lambda x)$

$$\lambda = -\frac{b}{2a}$$

$$\begin{aligned} L(xe^{\lambda x}) &= (aD^2 + bD + c)(xe^{\lambda x}) \\ &= \underbrace{(a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c)}_{=0} (xe^{\lambda x}) + \underbrace{(2a\lambda + b)}_{=0} (e^{\lambda x}) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda = -\frac{b}{2a}$$

This gives a 2nd solution \therefore GS is $y = c_1 \exp(\lambda x) + c_2 x \exp(\lambda x)$, hence

$$y = (c_1 + c_2 x) \exp(\lambda x)$$

$$(3) b^2 - 4ac < 0$$

$$2a\lambda + b = 0$$

So $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ - Complex conjugate pair $\lambda = p \pm iq$ where

$$p = -\frac{b}{2a}, \quad q = \frac{1}{2a} \sqrt{|b^2 - 4ac|} \quad (\neq 0)$$

$$\lambda_1 = p + iq$$

$$\lambda_2 = p - iq$$

$$\lambda = p \pm iq$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}y &= c_1 \exp(p + iq)x + c_2 \exp(p - iq)x \\&= c_1 e^{px} e^{iq} + c_2 e^{px} e^{-iq} = e^{px} (c_1 e^{iqx} + c_2 e^{-iqx})\end{aligned}$$

Eulers identity gives $\exp(\pm i\theta) = \cos \theta \pm i \sin \theta$

Simplifying (using Euler) then gives the GS

$$y(x) = e^{px} (A \cos qx + B \sin qx)$$

Examples:

(1) $y'' - 3y' - 4y = 0$

Put $y = e^{\lambda x}$ to obtain A.E

A.E: $\lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 4 = 0 \rightarrow (\lambda - 4)(\lambda + 1) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 4 \text{ & } -1$ - 2
distinct \mathbb{R} roots

GS $y(x) = Ae^{4x} + Be^{-x}$

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_1 &= 4 \rightarrow y_1 = e^{4x} \\ \lambda_2 &= -1 \rightarrow y_2 = e^{-x}\end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda = 4 \rightarrow y_1 = e^{4x}$$

$$(2) y'' - 8y' + 16y = 0$$

A.E $\lambda^2 - 8\lambda + 16 = 0 \rightarrow (\lambda - 4)^2 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 4, 4$ (2 fold root)

'go up one', i.e. instead of $y = e^{\lambda x}$, take $y = xe^{\lambda x}$

GS $y(x) = (C + Dx)e^{4x}$

$$(3) y'' - 3y' + 4y = 0$$

A.E: $\lambda^2 - 3\lambda + 4 = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{9 - 16}}{2} = \frac{3 \pm i\sqrt{7}}{2} \equiv p \pm iq$

$$\left(p = \frac{3}{2}, q = \frac{\sqrt{7}}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} \pm i \frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}$$

$$y = e^{\frac{3}{2}x} \left(a \cos \frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}x + b \sin \frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}x \right)$$

$$y = e^{px} [A \cos qx + B \sin qx]$$

$$y_1 = x e^{4x}$$

$$y_1 = e^{\frac{3}{2}x} \cos \frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}x$$

$$y_2 = e^{\frac{3}{2}x} \sin \frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}x$$

3.4 General n^{th} Order Equation

Consider

$$Ly = a_n y^{(n)} + a_{n-1} y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1 y' + a_0 y = 0$$

Abmobj

then

$$L \equiv a_n D^n + a_{n-1} D^{n-1} + a_{n-2} D^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 D + a_0$$

def of

so $Ly = 0$ and the A.E becomes

$$a_n \lambda^n + a_{n-1} \lambda^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 \lambda + a_0 = 0$$

form

$$y = e^{\lambda x}$$

$$y_1 = e^{\lambda_1 x} \quad y_2 = e^{\lambda_2 x} \quad y_3 = e^{\lambda_3 x}$$

Case 1 (Basic)

n distinct roots $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ then $e^{\lambda_1 x}, e^{\lambda_2 x}, \dots, e^{\lambda_n x}$ are n Lin. Indep. solutions giving a GS

β_i - arb.

$$y = \beta_1 e^{\lambda_1 x} + \beta_2 e^{\lambda_2 x} + \dots + \beta_n e^{\lambda_n x}$$

$$y_r = e^{\lambda_r x}$$

Case 2

$$y_1 \quad y_2 \quad y_3$$

$$y_r$$

If λ is a real r -fold root of the A.E then $e^{\lambda x}, xe^{\lambda x}, x^2 e^{\lambda x}, \dots, x^{r-1} e^{\lambda x}$ are r Lin. Indep. solutions of $Ly = 0$, i.e.

$$y = e^{\lambda x} (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 x + \alpha_3 x^2 + \dots + \alpha_r x^{r-1})$$

α_i - arb.

$$e^{\lambda x} \quad xe^{\lambda x}$$

Case 3

If $\lambda = p + iq$ is a r -fold root of the A.E then so is $p - iq$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} e^{px} \cos qx, xe^{px} \cos qx, \dots, x^{r-1} e^{px} \cos qx \\ e^{px} \sin qx, xe^{px} \sin qx, \dots, x^{r-1} e^{px} \sin qx \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow 2r \text{ Lin. Indep. solutions of } L y = 0$$

$$\text{GS } y = e^{px} (c_1 + c_2 x + c_3 x^2 + \dots) \cos qx + e^{px} (C_1 + C_2 x + C_3 x^2 + \dots) \sin qx$$

$$e^{px} [a \cos qx + b \sin qx] + ke^{px} [\dots] + ke^{px} [\dots] - \dots$$

$$e^{rx}, xe^{rx}, x^2 e^{rx}, \dots, x^{r-1} e^{rx} \rightarrow \pm \mathbb{S}$$

Examples: Find the GS of each ODE

$$(1) y^{(4)} - 5y'' + 6y = 0$$

$$\text{A.E: } \lambda^4 - 5\lambda^2 + 6 = 0 \rightarrow (\lambda^2 - 2)(\lambda^2 - 3) = 0$$

So $\lambda = \pm\sqrt{2}, \lambda = \pm\sqrt{3}$ - four distinct roots

$$\therefore \text{GS } y = Ae^{\sqrt{2}x} + Be^{-\sqrt{2}x} + Ce^{\sqrt{3}x} + De^{-\sqrt{3}x} \quad (\text{Case 1})$$

$$(2) \frac{d^6y}{dx^6} - 5\frac{d^4y}{dx^4} = 0 \quad \lambda^4 [(\lambda^2 - 5)] = 0 \quad \lambda^2 = 5$$

$$\text{A.E: } \lambda^6 - 5\lambda^4 = 0 \quad \text{roots: } 0, 0, 0, 0, \pm\sqrt{5}$$

$$\text{GS } y = Ae^{\sqrt{5}x} + Be^{-\sqrt{5}x} + (C + Dx + Ex^2 + Fx^3) \quad (\because \exp(0) = 1)$$

$$(2^2 + 1)^2 = 0 \rightarrow 2^2 = -1 \rightarrow \lambda = \pm i$$

f(4) not

$$(3) \frac{d^4y}{dx^4} + 2\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = 0$$

A.E: $\lambda^4 + 2\lambda^2 + 1 = (\lambda^2 + 1)^2 = 0 \quad \lambda = \pm i$ is a 2 fold root.

Example of Case (3)

$$y = A \cos x + Bx \cos x + C \sin x + Dx \sin x$$

$$\equiv p+iq$$

$$y = [A(\cos qx + B \sin qx) + Cx(\cos qx + D \sin qx)]$$

$p=0$
 $q=1$

$$y = [C(\cos qx + D \sin qx)]$$

$$Ly = g(x)$$

3.5 Non-Homogeneous Case - Method of Undetermined Coefficients

$$\text{GS } y = \text{C.F} + \text{P.I}$$

C.F comes from the roots of the A.E

There are three methods for finding P.I

(a) "Guesswork" - which we are interested in

(b) Annihilator

(c) D-operator Method

$$y = y_c + y_p$$

$$Ly = L(y_c + y_p)$$

$$= Ly_c + \underbrace{Ly_p}_{0}$$

0

0

(a) Guesswork Method

If the rhs of the ode $g(x)$ is of a certain type, we can guess the form of P.I. We then try it out and determine the numerical coefficients.

The method will work when $g(x)$ has the following forms

i. Polynomial in x $g(x) = p_0 + p_1x + p_2x^2 + \dots + p_mx^m$.

ii. An exponential $g(x) = Ce^{kx}$ (Provided k is not a root of A.E).

iii. Trigonometric terms, $g(x)$ has the form $\sin ax$, $\cos ax$ (Provided ia is not a root of A.E).

iv. $g(x)$ is a combination of i. , ii. , iii. provided $g(x)$ does not contain part of the C.F (in which case use other methods).

Unknown

$$Ce^{kx}$$

$$k = 5$$

Examples:

(1) $y'' + 3y' + 2y = 3e^{5x}$

① Solve $Ly = 0$

② Solve $Ly = g$

The homogeneous part is the same as in (1), so $y_c = Ae^{-x} + Be^{-2x}$. For the non-homog. part we note that $g(x)$ has the form e^{kx} , so try $y_p = Ce^{5x}$, and $k = 5$ is not a solution of the A.E.

Substituting y_p into the DE gives

Equate coeffs
of e^{5x}

$$C(5^2 + 15 + 2)e^{5x} = 3e^{5x} \rightarrow C = \frac{1}{14}$$

$$y_p = 5Ce^{5x} \quad y_p'' = 25Ce^{5x}$$

$$y_p = \frac{1}{14}e^{5x}$$

$$\therefore y = Ae^{-x} + Be^{-2x} + \frac{1}{14}e^{5x}$$

$$y_c \qquad \qquad y_p$$

$$(2) \quad y'' + 3y' + 2y = x^2 \quad = \quad 0 + 0x + 1x^2$$

$$\text{GS} \quad y = \text{C.F} + \text{P.I} = y_c + y_p$$

C.F: A.E gives

$$\lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 2 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = -1, -2 \therefore y_c = ae^{-x} + be^{-2x}$$

P.I Now $g(x) = x^2$,

$$\text{so try } y_p = p_0 + p_1x + p_2x^2 \rightarrow y'_p = p_1 + 2p_2x \rightarrow y''_p = 2p_2$$

Now substitute these in to the DE, ie

$$2p_2 + 3(p_1 + 2p_2x) + 2(p_0 + p_1x + p_2x^2) = x^2 \text{ and equate coefficients of } x^n$$

$$O(x^2) : \quad 2p_2 = 1 \Rightarrow p_2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$O(x) : \quad 6p_2 + 2p_1 = 0 \Rightarrow p_1 = -\frac{3}{2}$$

$$y_p = \frac{7}{4} - \frac{3}{2}x + \frac{1}{2}x^2$$

$$O(x^0) : \quad 2p_2 + 3p_1 + 2p_0 = 0 \Rightarrow p_0 = \frac{7}{4}$$

A

$$\therefore \text{GS } y = ae^{-x} + be^{-2x} \left[\frac{7}{4} - \frac{3}{2}x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right]$$

y

y_p

$$(3) y'' - 5y' - 6y = \cos 3x \Rightarrow \operatorname{Re} [e^{ix}] = \cos 3x$$

A.E: $\lambda^2 - \lambda - 6 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = -1, 6 \Rightarrow y_c = \alpha e^{-x} + \beta e^{6x}$

Guided by the rhs, i.e. $g(x)$ is a trigonometric term, we can try $y_p = A \cos 3x + B \sin 3x$, and calculate the coefficients A and B .

How about a more sublime approach? Put $y_p = \operatorname{Re} K e^{i3x}$ for the unknown coefficient K .

$\rightarrow y'_p = 3 \operatorname{Re} i K e^{i3x} \rightarrow y''_p = -9 \operatorname{Re} K e^{i3x}$ and substitute into the DE, dropping Re

$$(-9 - 15i - 6) K e^{i3x} = e^{i3x}$$

$$-15(1+i)K = 1$$

$$-15K = \frac{1}{1+i} \rightarrow K = \frac{1}{2}(1-i)$$

$$y_p = K \operatorname{Re}(e^{ix})$$

Hence $K = -\frac{1}{30}(1-i)$ to give

$$\begin{aligned} y_p &= -\frac{1}{30} \operatorname{Re}(1-i)(\cos 3x + i \sin 3x) \\ &= -\frac{1}{30} (\cos 3x + i \sin 3x - i \cos 3x + \sin 3x) \end{aligned}$$

so general solution becomes

$$y = \boxed{\alpha e^{-x} + \beta e^{6x}} - \frac{1}{30} (\cos 3x + \sin 3x)$$

$$y_c$$

$$y_p$$

Now let's take

Real part

$$+$$

$$y_p$$

3.5.1 Failure Case

Consider the DE $y'' - 5y' + 6y = e^{2x}$, which has a CF given by $y(x) = \alpha e^{2x} + \beta e^{3x}$. To find a PI, if we try $y_p = Ae^{2x}$, we have upon substitution

$$Ae^{2x} [4 - 10 + 6] = e^{2x}$$

so when $k (= 2)$ is also a solution of the C.F., then the trial solution $y_p = Ae^{kx}$ fails, so we must seek the existence of an alternative solution.

$$y_p = Axe^{2x}$$

$Ly = y'' + ay' + b = \alpha e^{kx}$ - trial function is normally $y_p = Ce^{kx}$.

If k is a root of the A.E then $L(Ce^{kx}) = 0$ so this substitution does not work. In this case, we try $y_p = Cxe^{kx}$ - so 'go one up'.

This works provided k is not a repeated root of the A.E, if so try $y_p = Cx^2e^{kx}$, and so forth

3.6 Linear ODE's with Variable Coefficients - Euler Equation

In the previous sections we have looked at various second order DE's with constant coefficients. We now introduce a 2nd order equation in which the coefficients are variable in x . An equation of the form

$$L y = ax^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \beta x \frac{dy}{dx} + cy = g(x)$$

D O (-)
(x)y

is called a Cauchy-Euler equation. Note the relationship between the coefficient and corresponding derivative term, ie $a_n(x) = ax^n$ and $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$, i.e. both power and order of derivative are n .

The equation is still linear. To solve the homogeneous part, we look for a solution of the form

$$y = x^\lambda$$

So $y' = \lambda x^{\lambda-1} \rightarrow y'' = \lambda(\lambda - 1) x^{\lambda-2}$, which upon substitution yields the quadratic, A.E.

$$a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c = 0$$

[where $b = (\beta - a)$] which can be solved in the usual way - there are 3 cases to consider, depending upon the nature of $b^2 - 4ac$.

$$\lambda_1 \rightarrow \gamma_1 = x^{\lambda_1}$$

Case 1: $b^2 - 4ac > 0 \rightarrow \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ - 2 real distinct roots

$$\lambda_2 \rightarrow \gamma_2 = x^{\lambda_2}$$

GS $y = Ax^{\lambda_1} + Bx^{\lambda_2}$

Case 2: $b^2 - 4ac = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ - 1 real (double fold) root

GS $y = x^\lambda (A + B \ln x)$

A graph showing a curve that has a sharp corner or cusp at the origin (0,0). The curve is labeled with 'x' near the origin. To the right of the curve, there are two separate branches labeled 'y1' and 'y2'. A bracket groups the two branches together, indicating they share a common point at the cusp.

Case 3: $b^2 - 4ac < 0 \rightarrow \lambda = \alpha \pm i\beta \in \mathbb{C}$ - pair of complex conjugate roots

GS $y = x^\alpha (A \cos(\beta \ln x) + B \sin(\beta \ln x))$

$$a=1 \quad s=-2 \quad c=-4$$

Example 1 Solve $x^2y'' - 2xy' - 4y = 0$

$$(s-2) = -4$$

Put $y = x^\lambda \Rightarrow y' = \lambda x^{\lambda-1} \Rightarrow y'' = \lambda(\lambda-1)x^{\lambda-2}$ and substitute in DE to obtain (upon simplification) the A.E. $\lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 4 = 0 \rightarrow (\lambda - 4)(\lambda + 1) = 0$

$\Rightarrow \lambda = 4 \text{ & } -1$: 2 distinct \mathbb{R} roots. So GS is

Y
 X ←

$$y(x) = Ax^4 + Bx^{-1}$$

Example 2 Solve $x^2y'' - 7xy' + 16y = 0$

$$a=1 \quad s=-7$$

So assume $y = x^\lambda$

$$c=1$$

A.E $\lambda^2 - 8\lambda + 16 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 4, 4$ (2 fold root)

$$s-s = -7$$

'go up one', i.e. instead of $y = x^\lambda$, take $y = x^\lambda \ln x$ to give

$$y(x) = x^4(A + B \ln x)$$

$$s_1 = X$$

$$s_2 = X^4 \ln X$$

$$a=1 \quad b=-3 \quad c=13$$

Example 3 Solve $x^2y'' - 3xy' + 13y = 0$

$$S-a = -4$$

Assume existence of solution of the form $y = x^\lambda$

A.E becomes

$$\boxed{\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 13 = 0} \rightarrow \lambda = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{16 - 52}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm 6i}{2} = 2 \pm 3i$$

$$\lambda_1 = 2 + 3i, \quad \lambda_2 = 2 - 3i \equiv \alpha \pm i\beta \quad (\alpha = 2, \beta = 3)$$

$$\alpha = 2$$

$$\beta = 3$$

$$y = x^2(A \cos(3 \ln x) + B \sin(3 \ln x))$$

Euler Transform Cont. coeff.

3.6.1 Reduction to constant coefficient

The Euler equation considered above can be reduced to the constant coefficient problem discussed earlier by use of a suitable transform. To illustrate this simple technique we use a specific example.

Solve $x^2y'' - xy' + y = \ln x$

$$a=1 \quad s=-1 \quad c=1$$

$$y(x)$$

Use the substitution $x = e^t$ i.e. $t = \ln x$. We now rewrite the equation in terms of the variable t , so require new expressions for the derivatives (chain rule):

Chain Rule

$$\begin{aligned} x &= e^t \\ y(t) & \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

$$\begin{aligned} t &= \ln x \\ \frac{dt}{dx} &= \frac{1}{x} \end{aligned}$$

Now we'll

(Info from previous slide -

$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dt} \right) = \frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{dx} \frac{dy}{dt} - \frac{1}{x^2} \frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= \frac{1}{x} \frac{dt}{dx} \frac{d}{dt} \frac{dy}{dt} - \frac{1}{x^2} \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{x^2} \frac{d^2y}{dt^2} - \frac{1}{x^2} \frac{dy}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

product rule

∴ the Euler equation becomes

$$\cancel{x^2} \left(\frac{1}{x^2} \frac{d^2y}{dt^2} - \frac{1}{x^2} \frac{dy}{dt} \right) - \cancel{x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dt} \right) + y = t \rightarrow$$

$y''(t) - 2y'(t) + y = t$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} \frac{d}{dt} \\ &= \frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

The solution of the homogeneous part , ie C.F. is $y_c = e^t (A + Bt)$.

The particular integral (P.I.) is obtained by using $y_p = p_0 + p_1t$ to give
 $y_p = 2 + t$

$$t \rightarrow \ln x$$

The GS of this equation becomes

$$y(t) = e^t(A + Bt) + 2 + t$$

which is a function of t . The original problem was $y = y(x)$, so we use our transformation $t = \ln x$ to get the GS

$$y = x(A + B \ln x) + 2 + \ln x.$$