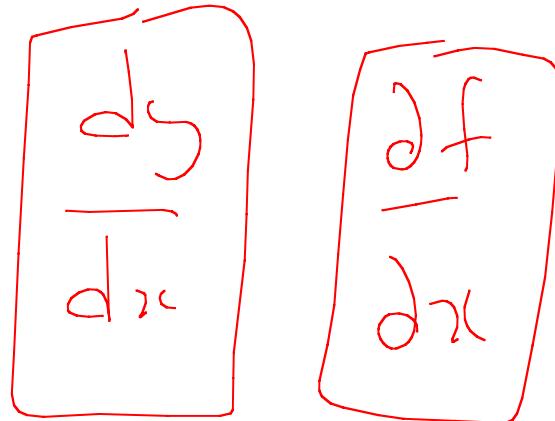


# 3 Differential Equations



## 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

*n<sup>th</sup> ordered linear*

D-E.

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

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

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

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:**  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i y^i$

- | 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

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

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

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

$n^{\text{th}}$  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  $n^{\text{th}}$  order ode will involve  $n$  arbitrary constants. If we specify values (i.e. boundary values) of

$f_n$ : with  $n$  (cont.)  $\downarrow$   
 $y, y', \dots, y^{(n)}$   $\rightarrow$   $n^{\text{th}}$  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:**

2<sup>nd</sup> order  $y'' - 3y' + 2y = 0$  is a 2<sup>nd</sup> 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 1<sup>st</sup> 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

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

sol

$$\tan y = x - 1$$

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

### 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:

$$x \rightarrow \cancel{\int} \ y(x) \ln(y)$$

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

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

$$x \rightarrow y$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$A$  — 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  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \boxed{P \frac{dP}{dy}}$  =  $f(P, y)$  - 1<sup>st</sup> order ODE

agin' we chas' Rule.

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

In b 2 1<sup>st</sup> order eg's

### 3.3.2 Linear ODE's of Order at least 2

General  $n^{\text{th}}$  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

$$y = y_c + y_p$$

$y_c$  sol<sup>n</sup> of  $Ly = 0$

$y_p$  sol<sup>n</sup> 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  $y = \exp(\lambda x)$

$$\lambda^2 + \frac{b}{a}\lambda + \frac{c}{a} = 0$$

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

hence  $a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c = 0$  and so  $\lambda$  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  $\lambda = \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = -\frac{b}{2a}$

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

$$e^{\lambda_2 x}$$

$$\lambda = \lambda_1 \rightarrow y_1 = e^{\lambda_1 x}$$

$$\lambda = \lambda_2 \rightarrow y_2 = e^{\lambda_2 x}$$

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

$$b^2 = 0 \Rightarrow c_2 = 0$$

$$c_1 e^{\lambda_1 x}$$

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

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

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

Clearly  $e^{\lambda x}$  is a solution of  $L y = 0$  - but theory tells us there exist two solutions for a 2<sup>nd</sup> 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 2<sup>nd</sup> 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

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

$$\lambda_1 = p + iq \quad \lambda_2 = p - iq \quad \lambda = p \pm iq$$

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 $n^{\text{th}}$ Order Equation

Consider

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

Homog'

then

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

if

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

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

from

$y = e^{\lambda x}$

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

### 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

$\beta_i$  - 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  $\lambda$  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.

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

$\alpha_i$  - 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  $p - iq$

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

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

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

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

**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  $\operatorname{Re}$

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

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

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

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

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 2<sup>nd</sup> 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

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

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

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

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

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

$$(s-2) = -1$$

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:

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

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

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

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

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