

Complex Functions

The derivative of a complex function is defined as

$$\frac{d}{dz}f(z) = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta z}.$$

A function $f(z)$ is **Analytic** in a region of \mathbb{C} if it has a unique derivative at every point of that region.

An analytic function must respect complex structure, and must therefore satisfy the **Cauchy-Riemann equations**

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}.$$
$$r \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta}, \quad r \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta}.$$

If u and v and their partial derivatives with respect to x and y are continuous and satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann equations in a region, then the function is analytic at all points **inside** the region (not necessarily on the boundary).

A **regular point** is a point at which $f(z)$ is analytic. A **singularity** of $f(z)$ is a point at which $f(z)$ is not analytic. It is called an isolated singularity if $f(z)$ is analytic in a neighbourhood of the singularity.

Taylor Expansion

If $f(z)$ is analytic in a region, then it has derivatives of all orders at points inside the region and can be expanded in a Taylor series about any point z_0 inside the region. The power series converges inside the circle about z_0 that extends to the nearest singular point.

Harmonic Functions

A function which satisfies Laplace's equation is said to be harmonic

$$\nabla^2 \phi = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$

If $f(z) = u + iv$ is analytic in a region, then both u and v are harmonic. Any harmonic function in a simply-connected region is the real or imaginary part of an analytic function $f(z)$. The pair u and v are called **conjugate harmonic functions**.

Upper bound estimate

$$\left| \int_{\Gamma} f(z) dz \right| \leq ML,$$

where M is the maximum value of $f(z)$ on Γ and L is the length of Γ

$$L = l(\Gamma) = \int_a^b \frac{ds}{dt} dt = \int_a^b \left| \frac{dz}{dt} \right| dt.$$

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$$\int_a^b f(t) dt = F(b) - F(a),$$

if f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $F'(t) = f(t)$ for all t in $[a, b]$.

Curve integral

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(z(t))z'(t) dt.$$

Cauchy's Integral Theorem

If $f(z)$ is analytic on and inside the simple contour Γ , then the contour integral vanishes

$$\oint_{\Gamma} f(z) dz = 0.$$

Cauchy Integral formula

for a function $f(z)$ analytic inside and on a simple closed contour Γ , the value of $f(z)$ at a point $z = a$ inside Γ is given by

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{f(z)}{z - z_0} dz.$$

Generalized Cauchy Integral formula

if f is analytic inside and on a simple closed positively oriented contour Γ and if z_0 is any point inside Γ , then

$$f^{(n)}(z_0) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Cauchy's Inequality

$$|f^{(n)}(z_0)| \leq \frac{n!M}{R^n},$$

where f is analytic on and inside circle C_R of radius R centred at z_0 . If $|f(z)| \leq M$ for all z on C_r .

Louville's Theorem

The only bounded entire functions are the constant functions.

Max on Boundry

A function analytic in a bounded domain and continuous up to and including its boundary attains its maximum modulus on the boundary.

Important integrals

$$\oint_C (z - z_0)^n = 2\pi i \delta_{n,-1},$$

where C encircles z_0 once in the positive direction.

Taylor series

If f is analytic at z_0 then it can be written in terms of a power series, called Taylor series:

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!} (z - z_0)^n \quad (1)$$

The disk of convergence is inside the circle around z_0 'touching' the nearest singularity.

Laurent series

If f is analytic in an annulus $r < |z - z_0| < R$ then it can be written as a sum of two series:

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (z - z_0)^k + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k \frac{1}{(z - z_0)^k}$$
$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{n+1}} dz$$
$$b_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - z_0)^{-n+1}} dz$$

Exponential Function

$$e^z = e^x (\cos y + i \sin y).$$

$$e^z = 1 \text{ holds if, and only if, } z = 2k\pi i, k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

$$e^{z_1} = e^{z_2} \text{ holds if, and only if, } z_1 = z_2 + 2k\pi i, k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

We know that the exponential function is **entire**.

The **logarithm** is multivalued

$$\ln z = \operatorname{Ln} r + i\theta + 2\pi i k.$$

General power

$$z^\alpha = e^{\alpha \ln z}.$$

Example: Find all values of $(-2)^i$:

$$\ln(-2) = \operatorname{Ln} 2 + (\pi + 2k\pi)i,$$

$$(-2)^i = e^{i \ln(-2)} = e^{i \operatorname{Ln} 2} e^{-\pi - 2k\pi},$$

and as k is any integer, $(-2)^i$ has infinitely many values.

The n'th Complex Root

$$z^{1/n} = r^{1/n} \exp \left[i \frac{\theta + 2\pi k}{n} \right], \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1.$$

Trigonometric Functions

$$\sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}, \quad \cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}.$$

$$\sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2}, \quad \cosh z = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2}.$$

We know that \sin , \cos , \sinh and \cosh are all **entire**, they are however **not bounded**.

$$\frac{d}{dz} \sin z = \cos z, \quad \frac{d}{dz} \cos z = -\sin z,$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} \sinh z = \cosh z, \quad \frac{d}{dz} \cosh z = \sinh z,$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} \tan z = \sec^2 z, \quad \frac{d}{dz} \sec = \sec z \tan z,$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} \cot z = -\csc^2 z, \quad \frac{d}{dz} \csc z = -\csc z \cot z.$$

Trigonometric identities

$$\sin(z + 2\pi) = \sin z, \quad \cos(z + 2\pi) = \cos(z),$$

$$\sin(-z) = -\sin z, \quad \cos(-z) = \cos z,$$

$$\sin^2 z + \cos^2 z = 1, \quad \cosh^2 z - \sinh^2 z = 1,$$

$$\sin(z_1 \pm z_2) = \sin z_1 \cos z_2 \pm \sin z_2 \cos z_1,$$

$$\cos(z_1 \pm z_2) = \cos z_1 \cos z_2 \mp \sin z_1 \sin z_2,$$

$$\sin 2z = 2 \sin z \cos z, \quad \cos 2z = \cos^2 z - \sin^2 z,$$

$$\sin iz = i \sinh z, \quad \cos iz = \cosh z,$$

$$\sinh iz = i \sin z, \quad \cosh iz = \cos z.$$

Complex Power Series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n,$$

Convergence can be tested with **Ratio Test**

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{S_{n+1}}{S_n} \right| < 1,$$

$$|z - z_0| \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \equiv R,$$

where R is the **Radius of Convergence**.

Example: Disk of conv. for $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^n (z + i - 3)^{2n}$:

Using the ratio test, we find

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{2^{n+1}}{2^n} \right| \left| \frac{(z + i - 3)^{2n+2}}{(z + i - 3)^{2n}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2|(z + i - 3)|^2$$

The series converges if $\rho < 1$, giving the condition on z :

$$2|z + i - 3|^2 < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad |z - (3 - i)| < \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2},$$

disk of convergence has center $z_0 = 3 - i$ and radius $\sqrt{2}/2$.

Taylor Expansions

$$e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$$

$$e^x \cos x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k [(1+i)^k + (1-i)^k]}{2k!} = 1 + x - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{6} - \frac{x^5}{30} + \dots$$

$$e^x \sin x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k [(1+i)^k - (1-i)^k]}{2ik!} = x + x^2 + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^5}{30} - \frac{x^6}{90} + \dots$$

Residue Theory

General Pole Residue

If f has a pole of order m at z_0 , then

$$\operatorname{Res}(f; z_0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \frac{d^{m-1}}{dz^{m-1}} [(z - z_0)^m f(z)].$$

Quotient Simple Pole Residue

$$f(z) = P(z)/Q(z)$$

Let $P(z)$ and $Q(z)$ be analytic at z_0 , if $Q(z)$ has a simple zero at z_0 , while $P(z_0) \neq 0$, we have

$$\operatorname{Res}(f; z_0) = \frac{P(z_0)}{Q'(z_0)}.$$

Fourier

Fourier series

Fourier series are series expansions of periodic functions,

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos nx + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin nx.$$

Coefficients are given by

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos nx \, dx \quad (2)$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin nx \, dx \quad (3)$$

Dirichlet Conditions

A Fourier series converges if $f(x)$ has a finite number of finite discontinuities and a finite number of maxima in its interval, i.e., is bounded. At discontinuities the series converges to the mid point.

Complex Fourier Series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{inx}, \quad c_k = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) e^{-ikx} \, dx$$

Other intervals, length $2L$

$$x \rightarrow \frac{\pi x}{L}, \quad \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2L} \int_{-L}^L$$

Parseval's theorem

$$\frac{1}{2L} \int_{-L}^L |f(x)|^2 dx = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} |c_n|^2$$

Fourier transforms

$$F(k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-ikx} \, dx \quad (4)$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(k) e^{ikx} \, dk \quad (5)$$

Fourier integral theorem: The inverse transformation is valid if $f(x)$ satisfies the Dirichlet conditions on a finite interval, and the integral

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)| \, dx < \infty$$

At discontinuities in $f(x)$, transforming to $F(k)$ and back gives the value at the midpoint of the jump.

Fourier transforms of derivatives

$$\mathcal{F}[f'(x)] = ik\mathcal{F}[f(x)], \mathcal{F}[f''(x)] = -k^2\mathcal{F}[f(x)]$$

Parseval's theorem

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)|^2 dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |F(k)|^2 dk$$

Fourier Sine Transform

$$f_s(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} F_s(k) \sin kx \, dk$$

$$F_s(k) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} f_s(x) \sin kx \, dx$$

Fourier Cosine Transform

$$f_s(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} F_c(k) \cos kx \, dk$$

$$F_s(k) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} f_c(x) \cos kx \, dx$$

Tensors

Cross-product

$$(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B})_i = \epsilon_{ijk} A_j B_k$$

Dot-product

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = A_i B_i$$

Product of two Levi-Cevita

$$\epsilon_{ijk} \epsilon_{imn} = \delta_{jm} \delta_{kn} - \delta_{jn} \delta_{km}$$

Substitution property

$$\delta_{ij} A_j = A_i$$

Matrix-product

$$C = AB, \quad C_{ij} = A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

Determinant of a matrix

$$|M| = \epsilon_{ijk} M_{1i} M_{2j} M_{3k}$$

Grad

$$[\nabla f]_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = \partial_i f.$$

Div

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_j} = \partial_j x_j.$$

Curl

$$[\nabla \times \mathbf{u}]_i = \epsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_j}.$$

Rules of suffix notation

- An index that appears twice in a term is called a dummy index and is summed from 1 to 3.
This is called the summation convention.
- A pair of dummy indices can be changed.
For example: $a_i b_i = a_m b_m = a_l b_l$.
- The order of terms in a suffix notation expression does not matter, and so can be arranged at will.

Moment of Inertia tensor

We know that

$$L_j = I_{jk} \omega_k,$$

Inserting for \mathbf{L} gives formulas for I_{jk}

$$\mathbf{L} = m \mathbf{r} \times (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}) = m[r^2 \boldsymbol{\omega} - (x\omega_x + y\omega_y + z\omega_z)\mathbf{r}].$$

And so we have

$$I_{xx} = m(r^2 - x^2) = m(y^2 + z^2)$$

$$I_{yy} = m(r^2 - y^2) = m(x^2 + z^2)$$

$$I_{zz} = m(r^2 - z^2) = m(x^2 + y^2)$$

$$I_{xy} = I_{yx} = -mxy$$

$$I_{xz} = I_{zx} = -mzx$$

$$I_{yz} = I_{zy} = -myz$$

Note that this is for a single point, so for a continuous body we have

$$I_{xx} = \int_V \rho(\mathbf{r})(r^2 - x^2) dV,$$

and for a system of point masses

$$I_{xx} = \sum_i m_i (r_i^2 - x_i^2).$$

Principle moments of inertia

The principle moments of inertia are the eigenvalues of the matrix I .

Principle axes of inertia

The principle axes of inertia are the eigenvectors of the matrix I .

Laplace Transform

The Laplace transform is an integral transform, defined as

$$\mathcal{L}[f(t)] = \int_0^\infty f(t)e^{-pt} \, dt = F(p).$$

Note that the Laplace transform is linear

$$\mathcal{L}[af(t) + bg(t)] = a\mathcal{L}[f(t)] + b\mathcal{L}[g(t)].$$

The Laplace transform of the derivative

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}[y] &= Y, \\ \mathcal{L}[y'] &= pY - y_0, \\ \mathcal{L}[y''] &= p^2Y - py_0 - y_0' .\end{aligned}$$

Using this we can solve differential equations, example:

$$\begin{aligned}y'' - 4y' + 4y &= t^2e^{-2t}, \quad y_0 = 0, y_0' = 0 \\ p^2Y - 4pY + 4Y &= \mathcal{L}[t^2e^{-2t}] = \frac{2}{(p+2)^3}, \\ Y &= \frac{2}{(p+2)^5}, \quad y = \mathcal{L}^{-1}[Y] = \frac{t^4e^{-2t}}{12} .\end{aligned}$$

Convolution

$$G(p)H(p) = \mathcal{L}\left[\int_0^t g(t-\tau)h(\tau) \, d\tau\right] = \mathcal{L}[g * h].$$

Note that: $g * h = h * g$.

Example:

$$y'' + 3y' + 2y = e^{-t}, \quad y_0 = y_0' = 0.$$

Inserting for the derivatives gives

$$Y = \frac{1}{(p+2)(p+1)}\mathcal{L}[e^{-t}].$$

We need the inverse transform:

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{(p+2)(p+1)}\right] = e^{-t} - e^{-2t}.$$

Giving

$$Y = \mathcal{L}[e^{-t} - e^{-2t}]\mathcal{L}[e^{-t}] = G(p)H(p),$$

with $g(t) = e^{-t} - e^{-2t}$, and $h(t) = e^{-t}$. Giving

$$\begin{aligned}y &= \int_0^t g(\tau)h(t-\tau) \, d\tau \\ &= \int_0^t (e^{-\tau} - e^{-2\tau})(e^{-(t-\tau)}) \, d\tau \\ &= te^{-t} + e^{-2t} - e^{-t} .\end{aligned}$$

Convolution of Fourier Transforms

We let $g_1(\alpha)$ and $g_2(\alpha)$ be the Fourier transforms of $f_1(x)$ and $f_2(x)$. Then we know that

$$g_1 \cdot g_2 \text{ and } \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}f_1 * f_2 \text{ are a pair of Fourier transforms}$$

$$g_1 * g_2 \text{ and } \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}f_1 \cdot f_2 \text{ are a pair of Fourier transforms}$$

where the convolution is now defined as

$$f_1 * f_2 = \int f_1(x-u)f_2(u) \, du.$$

Laplace Table

$f(t)$	$F(p) = \mathcal{L}[f(t)]$	Valid for
1	$\frac{1}{p}$	$\text{Re } p > 0$
e^{-at}	$\frac{1}{p+a}$	$\text{Re } (p+a) > 0$
$\sin at$	$\frac{a}{p^2+a^2}$	$\text{Re } p > \text{Im } a $
$\cos at$	$\frac{p}{p^2+a^2}$	$\text{Re } p > \text{Im } a $
$t^k, k > -1$	$\frac{k!}{p^{k+1}}$ or $\frac{\Gamma(k+1)}{p^{k+1}}$	$\text{Re } p > 0$
$t^ke^{-at}, k > -1$	$\frac{k!}{p^{k+1}}$ or $\frac{\Gamma(k+1)}{p^{k+1}}$	$\text{Re } (p+a) > 0$
$\frac{e^{-at} - e^{-bt}}{b-a}$	$\frac{1}{(p+a)(p+b)}$	$\text{Re } (p+a) > 0$ $\text{Re } (p+b) > 0$
$\frac{ae^{-at} - be^{-bt}}{a-b}$	$\frac{p}{(p+a)(p+b)}$	$\text{Re } (p+b) > 0$ $\text{Re } (p+b) > 0$
$\sinh at$	$\frac{a}{p^2-a^2}$	$\text{Re } p > \text{Re } a $
$\cosh at$	$\frac{p}{p^2-a^2}$	$\text{Re } p > \text{Re } a $
$t \sin at$	$\frac{2ap}{(p^2+a^2)^2}$	$\text{Re } p > \text{Im } a $
$t \cos at$	$\frac{p^2-a^2}{(p^2+a^2)^2}$	$\text{Re } p > \text{Im } a $
$e^{-at} \sin bt$	$\frac{b}{(p^2+a^2)^2+b^2}$	$\text{Re}(p+a) > \text{Im } b $
$e^{-at} \cos bt$	$\frac{p+a}{(p^2+a^2)^2+b^2}$	$\text{Re}(p+a) > \text{Im } b $
$g(t-a), t > a$ $g(t-a)u(t-a)$	$e^{-pa}G(p)$	
$e^{-at}g(t)$	$G(p+a)$	
$tf(t)$	$-\frac{d}{dp}F(p)$	

Dirac Delta Function

Sifting property

$$\int_a^b \phi(t)\delta(t-t_0) \, dt = \phi(t_0), \quad \text{if } a < t_0 < b$$

Derivatives of the Delta-function

$$\int_a^b \phi(x)\delta^{(n)}(x-a) \, dx = (-1)^n\phi^{(n)}(a)$$

Connection to the unit step function

$$u'(x-a) = \delta(x-a)$$

Scaling-factors

$$\delta(ax) = \frac{1}{|a|}\delta(x), \quad a \neq 0.$$

Integral-form

$$\delta(\omega-\omega_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{i(\omega-\omega_0)x} \, dx$$

Ordinary Differential Equations

Variation of Parameters

If one solution $y_1(x)$ of a homogeneous DE is known, a second, linearly independent one, can be found from the ansatz

$$y_2(x) = c(x)y_1(x),$$

this will lead to a first order DE for $c'(x)$, to be solved by integrating factors.

Integrating Factor

$$y' + P(x)y = Q(x), \quad I = \int P(x) \, dx.$$

Then

$$ye^I = \int Q(x)e^{I(x)} \, dx + c.$$

Homogeneous ODE w/ constant coefficients

$$y'' + ay' + by = 0.$$

Get quadratic **characteristic equation**

$$\text{Two real roots: } y(x) = Ae^{\lambda_1 x} + Be^{\lambda_2 x}$$

$$\text{One real root: } y(x) = Ae^{\lambda x} + Bxe^{\lambda x}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Two imaginary roots: } y(x) &= e^{\alpha x} (Ae^{i\beta x} + Be^{-i\beta x}) \\ &= e^{\alpha x} (c_1 \sin \beta x + c_2 \cos \beta x) \\ &= ce^{\alpha x} \sin(\beta x + \gamma) \end{aligned}$$

Inhomogeneous ODE w/ constant coefficients

If the rhs is ke^{cx} , guess at a particular solution

$$y_p = \begin{cases} Ce^{cx} & \text{if } c \text{ is not equal to either } a \text{ or } b, \\ Cxe^{cx} & \text{if } c \text{ equals either } a \text{ or } b, a \neq b, \\ Cx^2e^{cx} & \text{if } a = b = c. \end{cases}$$

If the rhs is either $k \sin \alpha x$ or $k \cos \alpha x$, first solve with the rhs $ke^{i\alpha x}$ and then take either the real or complex part.

If the rhs is $e^{cx}P_n(x)$, where P_n is a n-degree polynomial

$$y_p = \begin{cases} e^{cx}Q_n(x) & \text{if } c \text{ is not equal to either } a \text{ or } b, \\ xe^{cx}Q_n(x) & \text{if } c \text{ equals either } a \text{ or } b, a \neq b, \\ x^2e^{cx}Q_n(x) & \text{if } a = b = c, \end{cases}$$

Where Q_n is a polynomial of undetermined coefficients. Sines and cosines is handled by letting c be complex.

Euler-Cauchy

We have an equation on the form

$$y'' + \frac{a}{x}y' + \frac{b}{x^2} = 0.$$

We assume the solution to be given by $y = x^m$. We have

$$y' = mx^{m-1}, \quad y'' = m(m-1)x^{m-2},$$

so we have

$$m^2 + (a-1)m + b = 0.$$

If equation has real roots m_1 and m_2

$$y = c_1x^{m_1} + c_2x^{m_2},$$

if equation has one repeated real root

$$y = c_1x^m \ln x + c_2x^m,$$

if equation has two complex roots

$$y = c_1x^\alpha \cos \beta \ln x + c_2x^\alpha \sin \beta \ln x, \quad \alpha = \operatorname{Re}(m), \beta = \operatorname{Im}(m).$$

Alternative method

The substitution $x = e^z$ reduces the DE to one with constant coefficients. No solution at $x = 0$, in general different solutions (i.e. different constants) for $x < 0$ and $x > 0$.

$$x \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dz} \quad \text{and} \quad x^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2y}{dz^2} - \frac{dy}{dz}.$$

Factorization

If $u(x)$ is a solution of the homogeneous equation, then the ansatz

$$y_p(x) = u(x)v(x),$$

will give a first order equation for $v'(x)$, which can thus be solved using integrating factors.

Variation of Parameters

Set $y(x) = c_1(x)y_1(x) + c_2(x)y_2(x)$, where y_1 and y_2 are solutions of the homogeneous equation

$$\begin{aligned} y' &= c'_1y_1 + c'_2y_2 + c_1y'_1 + c_2y'_2, \quad c'_1y_1 + c'_2y_2 = 0, \\ y'' &= c'_1y'_1 + c'_2y'_2 + c_1y''_1 + c_2y''_2 \end{aligned}$$

Inserting y'', y' and y into the inhomogeneous equation and using the fact that y_1 and y_2 are solutions to the homogeneous equation now gives us

$$\begin{aligned} c'_1y_1 + c'_2y_2 &= 0, \\ c'_1y'_1 + c'_2y'_2 &= f(x). \end{aligned}$$

This also leads to the explicit solution

$$y_p(x) = -y_1 \int \frac{y_2 f(x)}{W} \, dx + y_2 \int \frac{y_1 f(x)}{W} \, dx,$$

where $W = y_1y'_2 - y_2y'_1$ is the Wronskian.

Power Series

We assume a solution of a DE to be a power series

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n, \quad y' = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1}, \quad y'' = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) a_n x^{n-2}.$$

Frobenius' Method

We now use a **generalized power series**

$$y = x^s \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{n+s},$$

by assumption, $a_0 \neq 0$.

Indicial Equation

The DE

$$y'' + \frac{P(x)}{x} y' + \frac{Q(x)}{x^2} y = 0,$$

has the indicial equation

$$s(s-1) + P(0)s + Q(0) = 0.$$

And Frobenius' will work if P and Q are analytic at $x = 0$.

Green Function

We have the DE

$$y'' + P(x)y' + Q(x)y = f(x),$$

we can find a Green function $G(x, z)$ so that

$$y(x) = \int_a^b G(x, z) f(z) \, dz,$$

BCs are given at $x = a, b$. G satisfies

$$G'' + P(x)G' + Q(x)G = \delta(x - x'),$$

which has the solutions

$$\begin{aligned} G_I(x, z) &= A(z)y_1(x) + B(z)y_2(x), \quad \text{for } x < z \\ G_{II}(x, z) &= C(z)y_1(x) + D(z)y_2(x), \quad \text{for } x > z. \end{aligned}$$

$y_1(x)$ and $y_2(x)$ are the solutions to the homogeneous DE.

Need to patch G_I and G_{II} . G is continuous at $x = z$ and dG/dx has a discontinuity of 1.

1. $G_I(a, z) = A(z)y_1(a) + B(z)y_2(a)$
2. $G_{II}(b, z) = C(z)y_1(b) + D(z)y_2(b)$
3. $G_I(z, z) = G_{II}(z, z)$
4. $\left. \frac{dG_{II}}{dx} \right|_{x=z} - \left. \frac{dG_I}{dx} \right|_{x=z} = 1$

Example: Green's function

We will solve the ODE

$$y'' + y = \frac{1}{\sin x},$$

with boundry conditions

$$y(0) = y(\pi/2) = 0,$$

using Green's function. We find the homogeneous solutions

$$y_1 = \sin x, \quad y_2 = \cos x.$$

So we have

$$G_I(x, x') = A(x') \sin x + B(x') \cos x \quad x < z$$

$$G_{II}(x, x') = C(x') \sin x + D(x') \cos x \quad x > z$$

We now use our conditions:

1. $G_I(0, z) = A(z) \sin 0 + B(z) \cos 0 = 0$
 $\Rightarrow B(z) = 0.$
2. $G_{II}(b, z) = C(z) \sin(\pi/2) + D(z) \cos(\pi/2) = 0$
 $\Rightarrow C(z) = 0.$
3. $G_I(z, z) = G_{II}(z, z)$
 $\Rightarrow A(z) \sin z = D(z) \cos z.$
4. $\left. \frac{dG_{II}}{dx} \right|_{x=z} - \left. \frac{dG_I}{dx} \right|_{x=z} = 1$
 $\Rightarrow -D(z) \sin z - A(z) \cos z = 1.$

By combining our two equations for $A(z)$ and $D(z)$, we now find

$$A(z) = -\cos z, \quad D(z) = -\sin z.$$

And we can do our final integral to find the solution

$$\begin{aligned} y(x) &= \int_a^b G(x, z) f(z) \, dz, \\ &= \int_0^x -\sin z \cos x \frac{1}{\sin z} \, dz + \int_x^{\pi/2} -\cos z \sin x \frac{1}{\sin z} \, dz \\ &= -\cos x(x-0) - \sin x \int_x^{\pi/2} \frac{\cos z}{\sin z} \, dz \\ &= -x \cos x - \sin x \cdot \ln |u| \Big|_{\sin x}^1 \\ &= -x \cos x + \sin x \ln |\sin x|. \end{aligned}$$

Partial Differential Equations

Separation of Variables

We are looking for a solution of two or more variables $u(x, t)$. Start by assuming that the solution can be written as the product

$$u(x, t) = X(x) \cdot T(t),$$

The PDE will then separate, so that each term is only dependant on one single variable. As the function $u(x, t)$ can vary in x and t independantly, we see that the terms in the sperated equation must be equal to the same **seperation constant**. Using this, the original PDE separates into two or more ODEs, one for each variable. Solve each of these seperately, then combine them together to find the solution $u(x, t)$. The general solution, will then be a linear combination of such separable solutions. Examples:

Laplace's equation

$$\nabla^2 u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0,$$

Look for seperable answers $u(x, y) = X(x)Y(y)$,

$$\frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} X + \frac{1}{Y} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} Y = 0.$$

Set each term equal to the same seperation constant

$$\frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} X = -\frac{1}{Y} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} Y = \text{const.} = -k^2.$$

Solve the ODE for each term seperately

$$\begin{aligned} X'' &= -k^2 X, & Y'' &= k^2 Y. \\ X &= \begin{cases} \sin kx, \\ \cos kx, \end{cases}, & Y &= \begin{cases} e^{ky}, \\ e^{-ky}, \end{cases}, \end{aligned}$$

And the final solution is then

$$u(x, y) = X(x) \cdot Y(y) = \begin{Bmatrix} \sin kx \\ \cos kx \end{Bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} e^{ky} \\ e^{-ky} \end{Bmatrix}$$

The diffusion equation

$$\nabla^2 u = \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t},$$

seperation of variables gives

$$u(x, t) = \begin{Bmatrix} \sin kx \\ \cos kx \end{Bmatrix} e^{-k^2 \alpha^2 t}.$$

The other time-solution is ignored, as it is unphysical.

The Wave Equation

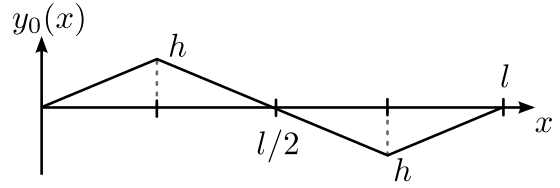
$$\nabla^2 u = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$$

seperation of variables gives

$$u(x, t) = \begin{Bmatrix} \sin kx \\ \cos kx \end{Bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \sin kvt \\ \cos kvt \end{Bmatrix}.$$

Example of Boundry Conditions: Wave Equation

We want to find the solution to the wave equation for a string with $\dot{y}_0(x) = 0$ and starts in the shape:



As the ends of the strings are attached, $y(0) = y(L) = 0$, so we throw away all the cosine-solutions in x and see that $k = n\pi/l$. As the string starts from rest $\dot{y}_0(x) = 0$ so we throw away all the sine-solutions in t .

$$y(x) = \sum_n \sin b_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{l} \cos \frac{n\pi vt}{L}.$$

We find the coefficients b_n from the Fourier series integral

$$b_n = \frac{2}{l} \int_0^L y_0(x) \sin \left(\frac{n\pi x}{l} \right) dx.$$

where

$$y_0(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{4h}{L}x & \text{for } 0 \leq x < L/2 \\ \frac{4h}{L}(L/2 - x) & \text{for } L/2 \leq x < 3L/4 \\ \frac{4h}{L}(x - L) & \text{for } 3L/4 \leq x < L. \end{cases}$$

Giving

$$b_n = \frac{8h}{n^2\pi^2} \left[\sin n\pi + 2 \sin \frac{n\pi}{4} - 2 \sin \frac{3n\pi}{4} \right].$$

Solving PDE with Laplace-transforms

Taking the Laplace transform of a PDE reduces the number of independent variables by one, effectively transforming a two-variable PDE into an ODE. When taking the transform of a PDE, treat all but one of the variables as constant, and remember to transform the boundry conditions aswell.

Example

$$x \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial t} = xt, \quad u(x, 0) = 0, \quad u(0, t) = 0.$$

regard x as a constant parameter, take Laplace transform

$$x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} U(x, p) + pU(x, p) - u(x, 0) = x\mathcal{L}[t].$$

We get the ODE

$$U' + (p/x)U = 1/p^2, \quad \Rightarrow \quad U(x, p) = \frac{C(p)}{x^p} + \frac{x}{p^2(p+1)}.$$

Transforming the boundry-condition in time, gives

$$\mathcal{L}[u(0, t)] = \mathcal{L}[0] \quad \Rightarrow \quad U(0, p) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad C(p) = 0.$$

So the final solution is

$$u(x, t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}[U(x, p)] = x\mathcal{L}^{-1}[1/p^2(p+1)].$$

Partial fraction decomposition gives

$$u(x, t) = x(t - 1 + e^{-t}).$$