

MATH 1851 Part 2 Ordinary Differential Equations

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1 1st order linear ODE

1.1 Seperable Equation

ODE could be solved in a seperable equation. Here's an example below.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{6x^5 - 2x + 1}{\cos y + e^y}$$

To find the general equation for this formula, we could put dx on the left side and dy on the right side.

$$(6x^5 - 2x + 1)dx = (\cos y + e^y)dy$$

We could integrate both signs by adding the integration sign.

$$\int (6x^5 - 2x + 1)dx = \int (\cos y + e^y)dy$$

To solve the equation, we have

$$x^6 - x^2 + x + C = \sin y + e^y$$

which it is an implicit form, but the answer is acceptable since we broke down $\frac{dy}{dx}$.

1.2 General Formula for 1st order ODE

For the 1st order linear ODE, we have a formula to find out the value of y.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)$$

$$\mu(x) = e^{\int P(x)dx}$$

There's a more general formula for finding y, but it is better to break down into steps.

First, our $\mu(x)$ can be used to find $\frac{d\mu(x)y}{dx}$. We need to multiply both sides by $\mu(x)$ first.

$$\frac{d\mu(x)y}{dx} = \mu(x)Q(x)$$

Move the dx to the other side.

$$d\mu(x)(y) = Q(x)dx$$

Then, we can integrate both sides.

$$\int y d\mu(x) = \int \mu(x)Q(x)dx$$

Therefore,

$$y\mu(x) = \int \mu(x)Q(x)dx + C$$

The general formula of 1st order ODE is as follows.

$$y = \frac{1}{\mu(x)} \left[\int \mu(x)Q(x)dx + C \right]$$

An example is given as below. Solve the following first order equations by integrating factors.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - y - e^{3x} = 0$$

First step is to reorder the numbers and variables to the general form.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - y = e^{3x}$$

We can identify that $P(x) = -1$ and $Q(x) = e^{3x}$. Therefore we can find $\mu(x)$. Recall

$$\mu(x) = e^{\int P(x)dx}$$

Substitute $P(X) = -1$ into the equation, we have

$$\mu(x) = e^{\int -1dx}$$

$$\mu(x) = e^{-x}$$

Then, we can multiple e^{-x} to both sides of the original equation.

$$\frac{de^{-x}y}{dx} = e^{-x}e^{3x}$$

Simplifying the equation and moving the terms, we have

$$de^{-x}y = e^{2x}dx$$

Integrate both sides of the equation,

$$\int yde^{-x} = \int e^{2x}dx$$

$$ye^{-x} = \frac{1}{2}e^{2x} + C$$

Therefore, the answer for this equation is

$$y = \frac{1}{2}e^{3x} + Ce^x$$

1.3 Bernoulli Equation

The general form of a Bernoulli Equation is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)y^n$$

To solve the equation, we first divide both sides by y^n , and let $v = y^{1-n}$. Therefore, we have:

$$\frac{1}{1-n} \frac{dv}{dx} + P(x)v = Q(x)$$

We can solve the question using integrating factor. Here is an example below. Solve the first order equation using Bernoulli Equation with $v = y^{1-n}$.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = a(\ln x)y^2$$

First, we divide both sides by y^2 and let $v = y^{-1}$.

$$-1 \frac{dv}{dx} + \frac{1}{x}v = a(\ln x)$$

$$\frac{dv}{dx} - \frac{1}{x}v = -a(\ln x)$$

We have now turn the Bernoulli Equation to the general form of 1st order ODE. Let $\mu(x)$ be our integrating factor.

$$\mu(x) = e^{\int \frac{-1}{x} dx}$$

$$\mu(x) = e^{-\ln x}$$

$$\mu(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

Multiplying both sides by $\mu(x)$,

$$\frac{d\frac{1}{x}v}{dx} = \frac{-a\ln x}{x}$$

$$d\frac{1}{x}v = \frac{-a\ln x}{x}dx$$

Integrate both sides

$$\int d\frac{1}{x}v = \int \frac{-a\ln x}{x}dx$$

Consider $\int \frac{\ln x}{x} dx$, we perform integration by parts.

Let $u = \ln x$, $du = \frac{1}{x}dx$

Let $dv = \frac{1}{x}dx$, $v = \ln x$

$$\int \frac{\ln x}{x} = (\ln x)^2 - \int \frac{\ln x}{x} dx$$

$$2 \int \frac{\ln x}{x} = (\ln x)^2$$

$$\int \frac{\ln x}{x} = \frac{(\ln x)^2}{2}$$

Put it into the equation, we have

$$\frac{1}{x}v = \frac{-a(\ln x)^2}{2} + C$$

$$v = \frac{-ax(\ln x)^2}{2} + Cx$$

As $v = y^{-1} = \frac{1}{y}$, we can conclude that

$$yx[C + \frac{-a(\ln x)^2}{2}] = 1$$

1.4 Ricatti Equation

If one solution $u(x)$ is known, we can perform the substitution in which $y = u + \frac{1}{v}$. It will become a first order ODE in v .

An example is provided as below.

Given that $u(x) = x$, solve the following first order Ricatti Equation.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x^3(y - x)^2 + \frac{y}{x}$$

First, we let $y = x + \frac{1}{v}$.

$$\frac{d(x + \frac{1}{v})}{dx} = x^3(x + \frac{1}{v} - x)^2 + \frac{x + \frac{1}{v}}{x}$$

$$\frac{d(x + \frac{1}{v})}{dx} = x^3(\frac{1}{v})^2 + 1 + \frac{1}{vx}$$

Consider $\frac{d(x + \frac{1}{v})}{dx}$,

$$\frac{d(x + \frac{1}{v})}{dx} = 1 + -v^{-2} \frac{dv}{dx}$$

Substitute it to the equation, we have

$$-v^{-2} \frac{dv}{dx} = x^3(\frac{1}{v})^2 + \frac{1}{vx}$$

$$\frac{dv}{dx} = -x^3 - \frac{v}{x}$$

Reordering the equation, we get the 1st order ODE general form.

$$\frac{dv}{dx} + \frac{1}{x}v = -x^3$$

The solution for the above equation is

$$v = -\frac{1}{5}x^4 + \frac{C}{x}$$

Substitute v into the equation $y = x + \frac{1}{v}$, we have the final answer

$$y = \left(-\frac{1}{5}x^4 + \frac{C}{x}\right)^{-1} + x$$

1.5 Homogeneous Equation

The general idea is to let $v = \frac{y}{x}$. Here's an example of solving this type of question.

Question:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x} + 3\sqrt{\frac{x}{y}}$$

Now, we let $v = \frac{y}{x}$, and we have:

$$\frac{dvx}{dx} = v + 3\sqrt{v^{-1}}$$

Consider $\frac{dvx}{dx}$,

$$\frac{dvx}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx}$$

Then,

$$\frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{3\sqrt{v^{-1}}}{x}$$

It becomes a seperable equation. Now, we can solve by moving the terms.

$$\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{v}dv = \frac{1}{x}dx$$

Integrating both sides, we have:

$$\frac{1}{3} \int v^{\frac{1}{2}} dv = \int \frac{1}{x} dx$$

After integrating, we have:

$$\frac{2}{9}v^{\frac{3}{2}} = \ln x + C$$

Moving the terms and breaking down v, we eventually have:

$$y^{\frac{3}{2}} = x^{\frac{3}{2}} \left(\frac{9}{2} \ln x + C \right)$$

To simplify and y, we could just multiply the exponential by $\frac{2}{3}$ on both sides.

1.6 Exact Equation

Now, we dive in the session of exact equation, which introduces a concept called Partial Derivative. Let's use an example to explain.

Question: Use exact equation to solve the following:

$$(y\cos x + \cos y + \frac{1}{x})dx + (\sin x - x\sin y + 2y)dy = 0$$

Now, let me introduce the general exact equation representation.

$$M(x)dx + N(x)dy = 0$$

The condition is, the derivative of M(x) in respect to y and the derivative of N(x) in respect to x should be equal.

Consider M(x),

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(y\cos x + \cos y + \frac{1}{x}) = \cos x - \sin y$$

Notice that $\cos x$, $\frac{1}{x}$ are constants in respect to y. Thus, we do not have to use any rules such as power rule and product rule to differentiate those terms.

Consider N(x),

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\sin x - x\sin y + 2y) = \cos x - \sin y$$

Again, since $\sin y$ and $2y$ are constants in respect to x. Thus we do not have to differentiate them. Since

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}M(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}N(x)$$

It is an exact equation. Now onto the main dish.

$$F(x, y) = \int (\sin x - x\sin y + 2y)dy$$

We make either M(x) or N(x) to become F(x,y). Choose the one you think it is easy to integrate.

Then, we integrate it and define F(x,y).

$$F(x, y) = y\sin x + x\cos y + y^2 + h(x)$$

Then, we are going to perform partial derivative on F(x,y) opposite to it's original respect. In this case, we will differentiate in respect to x instead of y.

$$\frac{\partial F(x, y)}{\partial x} = y\cos x + \cos y + h'(x)$$

This equation looks oddly similar right? Check M(x)! Therefore we can derive that $h'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ and find F(x,y).

The solution to this problem is as below.

$$C = y\sin x + x\cos y + y^2 + \ln(x)$$

And that's how you do it.

2 2nd order ODE

2.1 Characteristic Equation

When we encounter a 2nd order ODE, if the equation matches the following format, we define it as homogeneous.

$$Ay'' + By' + Cy = 0$$

2.1.1 Case 1: Distinct Real Roots

Given the following equation:

$$y'' + 5y' + 6y = 0$$

Let $y = e^{rx}$, we have:

$$r^2 + 5r + 6 = 0$$

Solving the equation, we have $r = -2$ or -3 . As such, we can use the following formula.

$$y = C_1e^{r_1x} + C_2e^{r_2x}$$

Therefore, the solution is:

$$y = C_1e^{-2x} + C_2e^{-3x}$$

2.1.2 Case 2: Repeated Real Roots

Given the following equation:

$$y'' + 6y' + 9y = 0$$

Let $y = e^{rx}$, we have:

$$r^2 + 6r + 9 = 0$$

Solving the equation, we have $r = -3$ (repeated). Therefore, we can use the following formula as our equation.

$$y = C_1e^{rx} + C_2xe^{rx}$$

Therefore, as $r = -3$ in our case, we have:

$$y = C_1e^{-3x} + C_2xe^{-3x}$$

2.1.3 Case 3: Complex Conjugate Roots

Given the following equation:

$$y'' + 2y' + 17y = 0$$

Let $r = e^{rx}$, we have:

$$r^2 + 2r + 17 = 0$$

We can use the quadratic formula of $\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$ to find the roots. Hence, the solution is $-1 \pm 4i$.

The formula above suggest the solution of y.

$$y = e^{\alpha x}(C_1 \cos(\beta x) + C_2 \sin(\beta x))$$

In this case, we have

$$y = C_1 e^{-x} \cos(4x) + C_2 e^{-x} \sin(4x)$$

2.2 Non-homogeneous Equation

The above we discussed about 2nd order homogeneous equation. Usually, the form of non-homogeneous equation is as below.

$$Ay'' + By' + Cy = G(x)$$

The solution for non-homogeneous equation contains both complementary solution and particular solution such that:

$$y = y_p(x) + y_c(x)$$

In all the following cases, we will define $y_p(x)$ as our particular solution, and $y_c(x)$ to be our complementary solution. Below, we will discuss three cases for non-homogeneous equations and the respective methods to answer them.

2.2.1 Case 1: Polynomials

Given the equation below:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 8\frac{dy}{dx} + 16y = x$$

We consider the complementary solution of the above equation.

$$r^2 - 8r + 16 = 0$$

which $r = 4$ (repeated), so we have:

$$y = C_1 e^{4x} + C_2 x e^{4x}$$

Then we consider the particular solution.

$$y_p(x) = A_1x + A_0$$

$$y_p'(x) = A_1$$

$$y_p''(x) = 0$$

Then by substituting the above into the equation, we have:

$$-8(A_1) + 16A_1x + 16A_0 = x$$

Using the method of Undetermined Coefficients, we have:

$$-8(A_1) + 16A_0 = 0 \tag{1}$$

$$16A_1x = 1 \tag{2}$$

2.2.2 Case 2: Exponential

Given the equation below:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 7\frac{dy}{dx} + 10y = e^{3x}$$

2.2.3 Case 3: Trigonometric Functions

Given the equation below:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2\frac{dy}{dx} + 10y = \sin 3x$$

2.2.4 Mixed Cases Problems

2.3 Cauchy-Euler Equaiton

In this session, we will only focus on second-order homogeneous Cauchy-Euler Equations. Given a 2nd-order ordinary differential equation,

$$ax^2y'' + bxy' + cy = 0$$

We can rewrite it as below, using the equation:

$$ar^2 + (-a + b)r + c = 0$$

First, to find out why it would turn it like this, we have do find let $y = x^r$.

$$y' = rx^{r-1}$$

$$y'' = r(r-1)x^{r-2}$$

2.3.1 Case 1: Distinct real roots

If the roots of the equation are distinct, then we can use the following equation as our solution.

$$y = C_1x^{r_1} + C_2x^{r_2}$$

An example is as belows. Given the 2nd-order differential equation:

$$x^2y'' - 9xy' + 16y = 0$$

We can turn into the Cauchy-Euler equation form by identifying a, b, c. In this case, we know that a = 1, b = -9, c = 16.

$$r^2 - 10r + 16 = 0$$

From the above quadratic equation, we know that r = 8 or 2. Therefore, the solution for y is obviously:

$$y = C_1x^8 + C_2x^2$$

2.3.2 Case 2: Repeated Roots

If the roots of the equation are repeated, then we can use the following equation as our solution.

$$y = C_1x^r + C_2x^r \ln x$$

An example is as below. Given the 2nd-order differential equation:

$$x^2y'' - 5xy' + 9y = 0$$

We can turn into the Cauchy-Euler equation form by identifying a,b,c. In this case, we know that a = 1, b = -5, c = 9.

$$r^2 - 6r + 9 = 0$$

From the above quadratic equation, we know that r = 3 (repeated). Therefore, the solution for y is obviously:

$$y = C_1x^3 + C_2x^3 \ln x$$

2.3.3 Case 3: Complex Conjugate Roots

If the roots of the equation could be written in complex form, then we can use the following equation as our solution.

$$y = C_1x^\alpha \cos(\beta \ln x) + C_2x^\alpha \sin(\beta \ln x)$$

An example is as below. Given the 2nd-order differential equation:

$$x^2y'' - 5xy' + 10y = 0$$

We can turn into the Cauchy-Euler equation form by identifying a,b,c. In this case, we know that a = 1, b = -5, c = 10.

$$r^2 - 6r + 10 = 0$$

Solving the equation with quadratic formula, we have $r = 3 \pm 2i$. Obvious, the solution for y is:

$$y = C_1 x^3 \cos(2\ln x) + C_2 x^3 \sin(2\ln x)$$

2.4 Variation of Parameters

2.5 D-operator (Optional)

D-operator method is essentially another way of doing 2nd order linear non-homogeneous (or it could solve homogeneous equations too). First of all, given the following equation:

$$y'' + y' - 2y = 4xe^x$$

We first solve this as an ordinary non-homogeneous equation. Let $y = e^{rx}$, we can find that r = -2 or 1.

$$y_c = C_1 e^{-2x} + C_2 x e^x$$

We let $D = \frac{d}{dx}$, then $y' = Dy$, $y'' = D^2 y$.

$$(D^2 + D - 2)y = 4xe^x$$

Then, we let $f = 4xe^x$. Essentially we wanted to find some equation that's equal to 0. Here's a more detailed operation.

$$f = 4xe^x$$

$$Df = 4e^x + 4xe^x$$

$$D^2 f = 8e^x + 4xe^x$$

Since we observe that if we multiply Df by 2, and minus f, it would be equal to $D^2 f$. Hence,

$$D^2 f - 2Df - f = 0$$

Pulling out common factors, we have

$$(D^2 - 2D - 1)f = 0$$

Now, go back to the original equation. We can multiply both sides by $D^2 - 2D - 1$.

$$(D^2 + D - 2)(D^2 - 2D - 1)y = (D^2 - 2D - 1)f = 0$$

Then, we could just write our equation for y_p , and use the method of undetermined coefficient and finish the rest. Since the roots of $D^2 - 2D - 1$ is repeated (-1), therefore we know that we have to give an extra degree to the equation such as:

$$y_p = A x e^x + B x^2 e^x$$

3 Laplace Transform

The equation of Laplace Transform is as below.

$$\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} f(t) dt$$

For any types for $f(t)$, we could derive its form of Laplace Transform using the above integral. However, there's some common types of Laplace Transform provided during the exam. They are:

$$\mathcal{L}\{1\} = \frac{1}{s}$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{e^{at}\} = \frac{1}{s-a}$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{t^n\} = \frac{n!}{s^{n+1}}$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sin at\} = \frac{a}{s^2 + a^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\cos at\} = \frac{s}{s^2 + a^2}$$

3.1 Relation between derivatives and laplace transform

For the first derivative,

$$\mathcal{L}\{f'(x)\} = s\mathcal{L}\{f(x)\} - f(0)$$

For the second derivative,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}\{f''(x)\} &= s\mathcal{L}\{f'(x)\} - f'(0) \\ &= s(s\mathcal{L}\{f(x)\} - f(0)) - f'(0) \\ &= s^2\mathcal{L}\{f(x)\} - sf(0) - f'(0)\end{aligned}$$

An example is demonstrated below. (Credit: Khan Academy)

$$y'' + 5y' + 6y = 0, y(0) = 2, y'(0) = 3$$

We can perform Laplace Transform on both sides. Note that $\mathcal{L}\{0\} = 0$.

$$\mathcal{L}\{y''\} + 5\mathcal{L}\{y'\} + 6\mathcal{L}\{y\} = 0$$

We can use the relation stated above.

$$s\mathcal{L}\{y'\} - y'(0) + 5[s\mathcal{L}\{y\} - y(0)] + 6\mathcal{L}\{y\} = 0$$

$$s[s\mathcal{L}\{y\} - y(0)] - y'(0) + 5[s\mathcal{L}\{y\} - y(0)] + 6\mathcal{L}\{y\} = 0$$

Grouping terms, we have

$$s^2\mathcal{L}\{y\} - s * y(0) - y'(0) + 5s\mathcal{L}\{y\} - 5y(0) + 6\mathcal{L}\{y\} = 0$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{y\}(s^2 + 5s + 6) - 2s - 5(2) - 3 = 0$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{y\}(s^2 + 5s + 6) = 2s + 13$$

We can come up that for the laplace transform of y,

$$\mathcal{L}\{y\} = \frac{2s + 13}{s^2 + 5s + 6}$$

Perform partial fraction (We won't include it here), we have

$$\mathcal{L}\{y\} = 9\frac{1}{s+2} - 7\frac{1}{s+3}$$

Recall $\mathcal{L}\{e^{at}\} = \frac{1}{s-a}$,

$$\mathcal{L}\{y\} = 9\mathcal{L}e^{-2t} - 7\mathcal{L}e^{-3t}$$

Using the linear property of laplace transform, we have

$$\mathcal{L}\{y\} = \mathcal{L}\{9e^{-2t} - 7e^{-3t}\}$$

Therefore, we come up the solution of y.

$$y = 9e^{-2t} - 7e^{-3t}$$

3.2 Shifting Properties of Laplace Transform

It is said that

$$\mathcal{L}\{e^{at}f(t)\} = F(s-a)$$

One quick example to demonstrate this property:

$$\mathcal{L}\{e^{3t}\sin 2t\} = \frac{2}{(3-2)+4}$$

We substitute s-a into the original function of s.