Honours Differential Equations

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Contents

| 1 | OD | ODE systems | | | |
|----------|------------------|---------------------------------------|----|--|--|
| | 1.1 | Integrating factors | 3 | | |
| | 1.2 | Change of variables | 3 | | |
| | 1.3 | Existence and uniqueness for IVPs | 3 | | |
| | 1.4 | Homogeneous systems | 4 | | |
| | 1.5 | Non-homogeneous systems | 5 | | |
| | 1.6 | Critical points & linearisation | 6 | | |
| | 1.7 | Stability of critical points | 7 | | |
| | 1.8 | Lyapunov's theory and limit cycles | 7 | | |
| 2 | Fourier series 8 | | | | |
| | 2.1 | Real Fourier series | 8 | | |
| | 2.2 | Complex Fourier series | 10 | | |
| | 2.3 | Parseval's theorem | 10 | | |
| 3 | PD | Es | 11 | | |
| | 3.1 | Separation of variables | 11 | | |
| | 3.2 | Heat equation | 11 | | |
| | | 3.2.1 Standard boundary conditions | 11 | | |
| | | 3.2.2 Fixed boundary temperatures | 13 | | |
| | | 3.2.3 Insulated rod ends | 14 | | |
| | 3.3 | Wave equation | 15 | | |
| | 3.4 | Laplace's equation | 16 | | |
| | | 3.4.1 Rectangular boundary conditions | 16 | | |
| | | 3.4.2 Circular boundary conditions | 17 | | |
| 4 | Stu | rm-Liouville theory | 19 | | |
| | 4.1 | Regular S-L problems | 19 | | |
| | | 4.1.1 General 2nd order ODEs | 20 | | |
| | | 4.1.2 Lagrange's identity | 20 | | |
| | | 4.1.3 Series expansion | 21 | | |
| | 4.2 | Non-homogeneous S-L problems | 22 | | |
| | 4.3 | Singular S-L problems | | | |
| | 4.4 | S-L Series solutions | 24 | | |
| 5 | Lap | lace transforms | 25 | | |

1 ODE systems

1.1 Integrating factors

Consider linear DE of form

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

Our integrating factor for this DE is:

$$I(x) = \exp\left(\int P(x)dx\right)$$

Then our solution is

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{I(x)} \int Q(x)I(x)dx + \frac{\alpha}{I(x)}$$

where here α is a constant.

1.2 Change of variables

For higher order differential equations of form

$$y^{(n)} = F(y, y', \dots, y^{(n-1)}, t),$$

consider **change of variables** $x_{i+1} = y^{(i)}$ for $i \in \{0, 1, ..., n-1\}$. Then take derivative with respect to time to obtain a first order ODE system, which takes the form:

$$x_j' = F_j(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

for j = 1, ..., n. We either immediately write this as a matrix system or linearise near a critical point.

1.3 Existence and uniqueness for IVPs

An initial value problem (IVP) is defined as

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

for **initial** condition $x(t_0) = x_0$. A solution $x : I \to \mathbb{R}$ is a differentiable function that satisfies the IVP. Similarly for a first order system

$$x_i' = F_i(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

to have a **unique** solution, F_i and $\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}$ must be continuous in a region. Here $i, j \in \{1, ..., n\}$.

1.4 Homogeneous systems

Now consider $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$, where \mathbf{A} is a $n \times n$ matrix. Substituting $\mathbf{x} = e^{rt}\boldsymbol{\xi}$ results in an eigenvector problem:

$$(\mathbf{A} - r_i \mathbf{I_n}) \boldsymbol{\xi^{(i)}} = \mathbf{0}.$$

If eigenvalues repeat we try $\mathbf{x} = te^{rt}\boldsymbol{\xi} + e^{rt}\boldsymbol{\eta}$ which gives

$$(\mathbf{A} - r_i \mathbf{I_n}) \boldsymbol{\eta^{(i)}} = \boldsymbol{\xi^{(i)}}.$$

The fundamental matrix satisfies $\Psi' = A\Psi$ and contains the basis of solutions.

$$\boldsymbol{\Psi}(t) = [\boldsymbol{x^{(1)}}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x^{(n)}}]$$

for $x^{(i)} = \exp\{(r_i t)\} \xi^{(i)}$ and hence our general solution is $x = \Psi c$.

1.5 Non-homogeneous systems

Consider non-homogeneous ODE system:

$$x' = Ax + q.$$

There a couple of different approaches we can take to solve such a system.

• Change of basis

Let x = Ty, where T is our eigenvector matrix from diagonalisation. So $A = TDT^{-1}$, and after some algebra we obtain:

$$\boldsymbol{y}' = \boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{T}^{-1}\boldsymbol{g}$$

which can be solved by integrating factors. Finally revert back to x.

• Variation of parameters

So $x_H = \Psi c$ solves the x' = Ax, where c is a constant vector.

We then assume that the solution to our non-homogeneous system takes the form:

$$x = \Psi u$$

for here u = u(t). We then get $\Psi u' = g$, which can be solved by eliminating variables and integrating.

• Method of undetermined coefficients

Our non-homogeneous ODE system has solutions of form:

$$x = x_H + x_p$$

Solving the homogeneous ODE gives us x_H .

On the other hand we just need to find a **particular solution** x_p that satisfies our non-homogeneous ODE. Then our solution is complete.

Whilst the fastest, this method is not guaranteed to work.

1.6 Critical points & linearisation

Consider non-linear ODE system

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

$$y' = G(x, y).$$

We define $x^0 = \begin{bmatrix} x^0 \\ y^0 \end{bmatrix}$ as a **critical point** when $F(x^0) = G(x^0) = 0$.

Non-linear systems may then be linearised by Taylor expanding them around a critical point x^0 , and discarding higher order terms.

i.e. let
$$u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 where $u_1 = x - x^0$ and $u_2 = y - y^0$.

$$\begin{split} \therefore u_1' &= x' \\ &\approx F(x^0, y^0) + \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}\right)_{x^0} (x - x^0) + \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial y}\right)_{y^0} (y - y^0) \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \therefore u_2' &= y' \\ &\approx G(x^0, y^0) + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial x}\right)_{x^0} (x - x^0) + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial y}\right)_{y^0} (y - y^0) \end{split}$$

Then we end up with the following linear system:

$$u' = Au$$

where
$$\boldsymbol{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial F/\partial x & \partial F/\partial y \\ \partial G/\partial x & \partial G/\partial y \end{bmatrix}_{\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{x^0}}$$
 and is a 2 × 2 Jacobian matrix.

Our critical points x^0 may also be classified:

| Eigenvalues | Critical Points | Stability |
|---|----------------------|---------------|
| $r_1 > r_2 > 0$ | Node (source) | unstable |
| $r_1 < r_2 < 0$ | Node (sink) | asymp. stable |
| $r_2 < 0 < r_1$ | saddle | unstable |
| $r_1 = r_2 > 0$ | Proper/Improper node | unstable |
| $r_1 = r_2 < 0$ | Proper/Improper node | asymp. stable |
| $r_1, r_2 = \lambda \pm i\mu \ (\lambda > 0)$ | focus | unstable |
| $r_1, r_2 = \lambda \pm i\mu \ (\lambda < 0)$ | focus | asymp. stable |
| $r_1=i\mu,r_2=-i\mu$ | center | stable |

Linearisation preserves critical point behaviour **except** when eigenvalues are of $r = \pm i\mu$ form, for which then classification is unknown.

1.7 Stability of critical points

Stable critical points x^0 : All solutions start and stay near x^0 .

$$\forall \epsilon > 0; \exists \delta > 0; \forall \boldsymbol{x}_{solution} \text{ to } \boldsymbol{x}' = \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{x}, t): \\ |\boldsymbol{x}(0) - \boldsymbol{x}^{\mathbf{0}}| < \delta \implies |\boldsymbol{x}(t) - \boldsymbol{x}^{\mathbf{0}}| < \epsilon \text{ for } \forall t \geq 0$$

Attracting critical points x^0 : All solutions <u>tends</u> to x^0 .

$$\forall \delta > 0: |\boldsymbol{x}(0) - \boldsymbol{x^0}| < \delta \implies \lim_{t \to \infty} \boldsymbol{x}(t) = \boldsymbol{x^0}$$

Asymptotically stable critical points x^0 : Attracting and stable

1.8 Lyapunov's theory and limit cycles

In this section \dot{x} means its first time derivative. So consider:

$$\dot{x} = F(x, y),$$

$$\dot{y} = G(x, y)$$

defined in \mathbb{R}^2 . Let $\boldsymbol{x^0} \in D$ be a critical point.

The function $E:D\subset\mathbb{R}^2\to\mathbb{R}$ is a Lyapunov function where $E(x^0,y^0)=0$, whenever it exists. Note that the time derivative of E is:

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial x} F + \frac{\partial E}{\partial y} G$$

- Let E > 0 for $\forall x \neq x^0$.
 - If $\frac{dE}{dt} \leq 0$ then x^0 is stable.

If $\frac{dE}{dt} < 0$ then x^0 is asymptotically stable.

• If every neighbourhood of x^0 contains x^* such that $E(x^*) > 0$ and if $\frac{dE}{dt} > 0$ then x^0 is unstable.

Now **limit cycles** are defined as periodic solutions such that at least one other non-closed trajectory approaches the limit cycle as $t \to \infty$.

2 Fourier series

2.1 Real Fourier series

Let f(x) and f'(x) be **piecewise continuous** in [-L, L] with **period** 2L. i.e. f(x) = f(x + 2L) for $\forall x$. Then the Fourier series for f(x) is

$$f_{FS}(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} + b_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}).$$

The **convergence** of our Fourier series depends on the continuity of f(x):

- If f(x) is <u>continuous</u> then $f_{FS}(x) = f(x)$.
- If $f(\alpha)$ is discontinuous then at point α we have

$$f_{FS}(\alpha) = \frac{f(\alpha^+) + f(\alpha^-)}{2}.$$

Note that f(x) is continuous at α if $f(\alpha) = \lim_{x \to \alpha} f(x)$ and we define:

$$f(\alpha^{-}) = \lim_{x \to \alpha^{-}} f(x)$$

and

$$f(\alpha^+) = \lim_{x \to \alpha^+} f(x),$$

i.e. limits from left and right respectively. It is important to also note that the <u>derivative</u> of a Fourier series is **not necessarily convergent**.

Now consider $S_n = \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}$ and $C_n = \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L}$. We then have the following **orthogonality relations**:

$$\langle S_n, S_m \rangle = \langle C_n, C_m \rangle = L\delta_{mn}$$

and

$$\langle S_n, C_m \rangle = 0$$

which are used to find a_n and b_n in $f_{FS}(x)$. So:

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} f(x) dx,$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} f(x) dx$$

and

$$b_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} f(x) dx.$$

Note that δ_{mn} is the **Kronecker delta** and is defined as:

$$\delta_{mn} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & m = n \\ 0 & m \neq n \end{array} \right.$$

These trigonometric identities are useful for finding Fourier coefficients:

$$\cos A \cos B = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(A - B) + \cos(A + B)],$$

$$\sin A \sin B = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(A - B) - \cos(A + B)],$$

$$\sin A \cos B = \frac{1}{2} [\sin(A + B) + \sin(A - B)].$$

The inner product of two functions is also defined as:

$$\langle u(x), v(x) \rangle = \int_{-L}^{L} u(x)v(x)dx.$$

A shortcut is to note that:

- The Fourier series of even functions contains only cosines.
- The Fourier series of **odd** functions contains only **sines**.

Even functions are defined f(-x) = f(x), and:

$$\int_{-L}^{L} f_{even} dx = 2 \int_{0}^{L} f_{even} dx.$$

Similarly **odd** functions are defined f(-x) = -f(x), and:

$$\int_{-L}^{L} f_{odd} dx = 0.$$

2.2 Complex Fourier series

Our Fourier series may be rewritten as a complex Fourier series

$$f_{FS}(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n \exp\left(\frac{in\pi}{L}x\right)$$

using Euler's formula $e^{i\theta} = \sin \theta + i \cos \theta$. Then:

$$c_n = \begin{cases} (a_n - ib_n)/2 & n > 0\\ (a_0)/2 & n = 0\\ (a_n + ib_n)/2 & n < 0 \end{cases}$$

and therefore negative n values are included. By orthogonality:

$$c_n = \frac{1}{2L} \int_{-L}^{L} \exp\left(-\frac{in\pi}{L}x\right) f(x) dx$$

for $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Here we define the **inner product** for complex functions as

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f^*(x)g(x)dx$$

where $f^*(x)$ is the complex conjugate of f(x). Then:

$$\langle \exp\left(\frac{i\boldsymbol{m}\pi}{L}x\right), \exp\left(\frac{i\boldsymbol{n}\pi}{L}x\right) \rangle = \int_{-L}^{L} \exp\left(-\frac{i\boldsymbol{m}\pi}{L}x\right) \exp\left(\frac{i\boldsymbol{n}\pi}{L}x\right) dx$$

= $2L\delta_{mn}$

and since $f(x) = f_{FS}(x)$ we obtain our formula.

2.3 Parseval's theorem

Parseval's theorem states that given a periodic f(x) with convergent Fourier series we have that

$$\langle f, f \rangle = \int_{-L}^{L} |f(x)|^2 dx$$

$$= 2L \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} |c_n|^2$$

$$= L \left[\frac{|a_0|^2}{2} + \sum_{n = 1}^{\infty} (|a_n|^2 + |b_n|^2) \right]$$

and is derived by orthogonality and direct calculation.

3 PDEs

3.1 Separation of variables

The only methodology considered is separation of variables. So for PDE:

$$\hat{D}[u(x_1,\ldots,x_n)]=0$$

where \hat{D} is our differential operator, we look for solutions of form:

$$u(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=X_1(x_1)\cdots X_n(x_n)$$

subject to initial and boundary conditions.

3.2 Heat equation

The heat equation is an equation of the following form:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \alpha^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}.$$

where α^2 is the thermal diffusivity constant.

3.2.1 Standard boundary conditions

We firstly define:

- Initial condition: u(x,0) = f(x) for $0 \le x \le L$
- Boundary condition: u(0,t) = u(L,t) = 0 for $\forall t > 0$

Let solutions be of form:

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

$$\therefore X(x) \cdot \dot{T}(t) = \alpha^2 X''(x) \cdot T(t)$$

Only a constant function may satisfy the first equality:

$$\frac{1}{\alpha^2} \frac{\dot{T}}{T} = \frac{X''}{X} = -\lambda.$$

Writing this as two ODEs:

$$\dot{T} + \alpha^2 \lambda T = 0$$

$$X'' + \lambda X = 0.$$

The first one we can directly integrate, yielding:

$$T(t) = a_1 \exp\left(-\alpha^2 \lambda t\right).$$

The second ODE is a spring system, hence it has solution of form:

$$X(x) = b_1 \cos \lambda^{1/2} x + b_2 \sin \lambda^{1/2} x.$$

However this time before proceeding we need to <u>consider</u> boundary conditions:

$$X(0) = X(L) = 0.$$

We find $X(0) = b_1 = 0$ and $X(L) = b_2 \sin \lambda^{1/2} L = 0$.

The second equation implies that λ must of the following form:

$$\lambda_n = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \quad \text{for } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

and so

$$X'' + \lambda X = 0 \implies X_n = b_2 \sin \lambda_n^{1/2} x.$$

Since λ is discretised:

$$T_n = a_1 \exp\left(-\alpha^2 \lambda_n t\right).$$

Our general solution must then be:

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \exp(-\alpha^2 \lambda_n t) \sin \lambda_n^{1/2} x$$

where $\lambda_n = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2$. Using initial condition u(x,0) = f(x):

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sin \lambda_n^{1/2} x$$

and we recognise this as an <u>odd</u> Fourier series with period 2L.

$$\therefore \int_{-L}^{L} \sin\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} x\right) f(x) dx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \int_{-L}^{L} \left(\sin\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} x\right)\right)^2 dx$$

$$\therefore 2\int_0^L \sin\left(\lambda_n^{1/2}x\right) f(x) dx = c_n L$$

The final step we split the integration range and use $x = -x^*$.

$$\therefore c_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \sin\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} x\right) f(x) dx$$

This is fine because we can extend u(x,t) via <u>reflection</u> for negative x.

3.2.2 Fixed boundary temperatures

We reconsider the heat equation:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \alpha^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

but now with the following non-homogeneous boundary conditions:

- $u(0,t) = T_1$
- $u(L,t) = T_2$
- $\bullet \ u(x,0) = f(x)$

Physically our rod has fixed boundary temperatures, namely T_1 and T_2 .

We approach this problem with a change of variables:

$$v(x) = \lim_{t \to \infty} u(x, t).$$

Using our boundary conditions v must be linear:

$$\therefore v(x) = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{L}x + T_1$$

since v'' = 0, $v(0) = T_1$ and $v(L) = T_2$. We then deduce that:

$$u(x,t) = v(x) + \omega(x,t)$$

for $\omega(x,t)$ satisfies the same heat equation with initial conditions:

- $\omega(0,t) = \omega(L,t) = 0$
- $\omega(x,0) = f(x) v(x)$

Recognising this as our initial example:

$$\omega(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \exp\left(-\alpha^2 \lambda_n t\right) \sin \lambda_n^{1/2} x$$

where again $\lambda_n = \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2$ and because $\omega(x,t)$ is a Fourier series with period 2L:

$$c_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \sin(\lambda_n^{1/2} x) \{f(x) - v(x)\} dx.$$

3.2.3 Insulated rod ends

For the final example we consider:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \alpha^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

and define the following conditions:

$$\bullet \ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} u(0,t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} u(L,t) = 0$$

$$\bullet \ u(x,0) = f(x)$$

We begin again with a separation of variables:

3.3 Wave equation

3.4 Laplace's equation

Laplace's equation takes the form $\nabla^2 u = 0$. In two dimensions:

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

and we only consider boundary conditions. (Dirichlet conditions)

3.4.1 Rectangular boundary conditions

We open with the following example:

- Boundary for y: u(x,0) = u(x,b) = 0
- Boundary for x: u(0,y) = 0 and u(a,y) = f(y)

where $x \in [0, a]$ and $y \in [0, b]$. Begin by separation of variables:

$$u(x,y) = X(x) \cdot Y(y)$$

$$\therefore \frac{X''}{X} = -\frac{Y''}{Y} = \lambda.$$

Recognising the previous statement as two ODEs:

$$X'' - \lambda X = 0$$
 for $X(0) = 0$

$$Y'' + \lambda Y = 0$$
 for $Y(0) = Y(b) = 0$

The second ODE we have already solved in the heat equation. It has solution:

$$Y_n = a_1 \sin\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} y\right) \text{ for } \lambda_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2}{b^2}.$$

The first ODE has solutions of form:

$$X_n = a_2 \cosh\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} x\right) + a_3 \sinh\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} x\right)$$

where these are the hyperbolic functions:

$$\sinh x = \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x})$$

$$\cosh x = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x}).$$

Using our boundary condition X(0) = 0 gives:

$$X_n = a_3 \sinh\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} x\right).$$

Now putting all of this together we get:

$$u(x,y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sinh\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} x\right) \sin\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} y\right)$$

To find coefficients c_n we use u(a, y) = f(y).

$$\therefore f(y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sinh\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} a\right) \sin\left(\lambda_n^{1/2} y\right)$$

Since we have a Fourier series with period 2b:

$$\begin{split} \int_{-b}^{b} \sin\Bigl(\lambda_{n}^{1/2}y\Bigr) f(y) dy &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_{n} \sinh\Bigl(\lambda_{n}^{1/2}a\Bigr) \int_{-b}^{b} \sin\Bigl(\lambda_{n}^{1/2}y\Bigr) dy \\ &= c_{n} \sinh\Bigl(\lambda_{n}^{1/2}a\Bigr) \cdot b \end{split}$$

We can split the first integral to give us:

$$c_n = \frac{2}{b \sinh(\lambda_n^{1/2} a)} \int_0^b \sin(\lambda_n^{1/2} y) f(y) dy$$

where $\lambda_n = \left(\frac{n\pi}{b}\right)^2$ and our solution is complete.

3.4.2 Circular boundary conditions

Now we solve Laplace's equation

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

but with a circular boundary. In polar coordinates (r, θ) :

- $u(a,\theta) = f(\theta)$
- $u(r,\theta)$ is bounded

where a is the radius of our circle and $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$. Since u = u(x, y):

$$\begin{split} u'_{\theta} &= u'_x x'_{\theta} + u'_y y'_{\theta} \\ u''_{\theta\theta} &= (u''_{xx} x'_{\theta} + u''_{xy} y'_{\theta}) x'_{\theta} + u'_x x''_{\theta\theta} + (u''_{yy} y'_{\theta} + u''_{xy} x'_{\theta}) x'_{\theta} + u'_y y''_{\theta\theta} \\ u'_r &= u'_x x'_r + u'_y y'_r \\ u''_{rr} &= (u''_{xx} x'_r + u''_{xy} y'_r) x'_r + u'_x x''_{rr} + (u''_{xy} x'_r + u''_{yy} y'_r) y'_r + u'_y y''_{rr} \end{split}$$

and here we have used the chain rule.

Applying these derivatives we obtain the following equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} = 0.$$

Using separation of variables:

$$u(r,\theta) = R(r)\Theta(\theta)$$

$$\therefore r^2 \frac{R''}{R} + r \frac{R'}{R} = -\frac{\ddot{\Theta}}{\Theta} = \lambda$$

where λ is our separation constant.

$$\therefore \ddot{\Theta} + \lambda \Theta = 0$$

$$\therefore r^2 R'' + rR' = \lambda R$$

4 Sturm-Liouville theory

4.1 Regular S-L problems

Sturm-Liouville theory is a general theory for 2nd order ODEs.

Consider the following eigenvalue ODE:

$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(p(x)\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}\right) + q(x)y = \lambda r(x)y$$

where r(x) is our weight function. We define the following boundary conditions:

- 1. $a_1y(0) + a_2y'(0) = 0$
- 2. $b_1y(1) + b_2y'(1) = 0$.

This is a **regular Sturm-Liouville** problem, where p(x), p'(x), q(x), r(x) are continuous functions and p(x), r(x) are strictly positive functions for $\forall x \in [0, 1]$.

Eigenvalues λ_n yield eigenfunctions $\phi_n(x)$ which are <u>nontrivial solutions</u> to our S-L problem. Important consequences include:

- Eigenvalues λ_n of a S-L problem are **real**. Furthermore each eigenvalue corresponds to one eigenfunction.
- Eigenfunctions $\phi_n(x)$ are orthogonal:

$$\langle \phi_m, \phi_n \rangle = \int_0^1 r(x)\phi_m(x)\phi_n(x)dx = \delta_{mn}$$

in Hilbert space $L^2([0,1],r(x)\mathrm{d}x)$.

Note that our eigenfunctions are orthonormal and so we define:

$$\phi_n(x) = k_n y_n(x)$$

where k_n is our scale factor. Since $\langle \phi_n, \phi_n \rangle = 1$:

$$\therefore \int_0^1 r(x)k_n^2 y_n^2(x) \mathrm{d}x = 1$$

and so we have that:

$$k_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\langle y_n, y_n \rangle}}$$
$$= \left(\int_0^1 r(x) y_n^2(x) dx \right)^{-1/2}.$$

4.1.1 General 2nd order ODEs

Consider the following general 2nd order eigenvalue ODE:

$$-P(x)\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 y}{\mathrm{d}x^2} - \omega(x)\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} + q(x)y = \lambda r(x)y.$$

Multiply this by the following integrating factor:

$$F(x) = \exp\left[\int_0^x \frac{\omega(s) - p'(s)}{p(s)} ds\right]$$

yields an ODE of S-L form:

$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \left[F(x)P(x)\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \right] + F(x)q(x)y = \lambda F(x)r(x)y.$$

4.1.2 Lagrange's identity

Our previous definition is motivated by the Lagrange's identity:

$$\begin{split} \langle \mathcal{L}[u], v \rangle - \langle u, \mathcal{L}[v] \rangle &= - \left[p \Big(u' v^* - u(v^*)' \Big) \right]_0^1 \\ &= - \left[p(x) \Big(\frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}x} \cdot v^* - u \cdot \frac{\mathrm{d}v^*}{\mathrm{d}x} \Big) \right]_0^1 \end{split}$$

where u = u(x), v = v(x) are complex functions and

$$\mathcal{L}[u] = -\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \Big[p(x) \frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}x} \Big] + q(x)u.$$

Here the inner product is defined as

$$\langle u, v \rangle = \int_0^1 u v^* \mathrm{d}x$$

and we have integrated by parts using the following identities:

$$[pu'v^*]' = (pu')'v^* + pu'(v^*)'$$

$$[pu(v^*)']' = (p(v^*)')'u + pu'(v^*)'.$$

For a S-L problem its properties follow from:

$$\langle \mathcal{L}[u], v \rangle = \langle u, \mathcal{L}[v] \rangle$$

where functions u and v satisfy its boundary conditions.

4.1.3 Series expansion

Now the set of orthonormal eigenfunctions $\{\phi_n(x)\}\$ from a S-L problem with boundary conditions may be used to expand function f(x):

$$f_{\phi}(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \phi_n(x)$$

for $\forall x \in [0,1]$. Integrating this on both sides:

$$\int_0^1 r(x)\phi_m(x)f(x)dx = \int_0^1 r(x)\phi_m(x) \sum_{n=1}^\infty c_n\phi_n(x)dx$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^\infty c_n \int_0^1 r(x)\phi_m(x)\phi_n(x)dx$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^\infty c_n\delta_{mn}$$
$$= c_m$$

and so we get a general formula for our coefficients:

$$c_n = \int_0^1 r(x)\phi_n(x)f(x)\mathrm{d}x.$$

If f(x) and f'(x) are piecewise continuous on $x \in [0, 1]$ then:

$$\forall x \in (0,1); \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \phi_n(x) = \frac{f(x^-) + f(x^+)}{2}$$

where these are the left and right handed limits.

4.2 Non-homogeneous S-L problems

Consider:

$$\mathcal{L}[y] = \mu r(x)y + f(x)$$

where f(x) is our non-homogeneous term, and that we define

$$\mathcal{L}[y] = -\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \Big[P(x) \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \Big] + q(x)y.$$

Given that this ODE satisfies the S-L boundary conditions:

$$\mathcal{L}[y] = \lambda r(x)y$$

is solved by a sum of eigenfunctions

$$y(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \phi_n(x).$$

Substituting this into our original ODE gives:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \mathcal{L}[\phi_n(x)] = r(x) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \lambda_n \phi_n(x)$$
$$= \mu r(x) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \phi_n(x) + f(x).$$

Rearranging then gives:

$$\frac{f(x)}{r(x)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n (\lambda_n - \mu) \phi_n(x).$$

Now we can also expand $\frac{f(x)}{r(x)}$ in terms of our eigenfunctions:

$$\frac{f(x)}{r(x)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \phi_n(x)$$

with

$$c_n = \int_0^1 r(x)\phi_n(x) \frac{f(x)}{r(x)} dx$$
$$= \int_0^1 \phi_n(x) f(x) dx$$

and so equating yields the following relation

$$b_n = \frac{c_n}{\lambda_n - \mu}.$$

4.3 Singular S-L problems

quite alot of theory not covered in this course general definition of singular s-l problems bessel's equation (order 0 example) conditions for singular problems

4.4 S-L Series solutions

5 Laplace transforms