

Differential Equations

Contain Derivatives

Consider the equation of a straight line $y = mx + c$, with m and c being fixed parameters.

Taking the first derivative we get,

$\frac{dy}{dx} = m$ and the second derivative gives us $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$.

- i/. Successive derivatives reduce the number of fixed parameters. This implies greater generalisation and more universal relevance.
- ii/. Derivatives capture changes, and are relevant for evolving systems.

These are the two advantages of working with Differential equations.

Changes in an independent variable,
t, ("time", but it can be anything else).

We use a differential equation to express
changes of a variable, x, in time, t.

dependent variable, x \rightarrow Population,
Capital, height, position, etc.

$\boxed{\frac{dx}{dt}}$ \rightarrow Rate at which x changes
with t.

Since $\boxed{x \equiv x(t)}$, i.e. x depends on ONLY
one variable, we get a full derivative
(or ordinary derivative) in t. This
requires an ordinary differential equation.

Orders of a differential equation:

- A) First-order: Highest derivative is $\boxed{\frac{dx}{dt}}$.
- B) Second-order: Highest derivative is $\boxed{\frac{d^2x}{dt^2}}$.

Examples:

A) First-order ordinary differential equation

$$\boxed{\frac{dx}{dt} = x}$$

Eg. Compound interest.

B) Second-order ordinary differential equation.

$$\boxed{\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 2b\frac{dx}{dt} + \omega^2x = 0}$$

Eg. Damped oscillator.

Order of the ^{differential equation} ~~derivatives~~ = The number
of initial (or boundary) conditions
required in an integral solution.

If there are more than one independent variables, as in $\boxed{\psi(x,t)}$, then we have a partial differential equation, such as The Diffusion (or Heat) Equation:

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \kappa \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}}$$

which requires one initial condition (first order in t) and two boundary conditions (second order in space).

The Wave Equation:

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2}}$$

Requires two initial conditions and two boundary conditions, because it is second order in t and also second order in x .

Second-order Differential Equations

Consider Newton's Second Law.

$$\boxed{F = k m a} \Rightarrow \boxed{F = m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2}} \quad (k=1)$$

Now we write $\boxed{\frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = \frac{F(x,t)}{m}}$,

in which we substitute,

$$\boxed{\frac{dx}{dt} = v} \Rightarrow \boxed{x \equiv x(t)}$$

and $\boxed{\frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{F(x,t)}{m}} \Rightarrow \boxed{v \equiv v(t)}$

At ~~a~~ a given time, $t = t_0$, two initial conditions are required, $x(t_0)$ (an initial position) and $v(t_0)$ (an initial velocity). The former specifies the state and the latter the rate at which the state is changing (velocity).

Rate \propto State :

$$\boxed{\frac{dx}{dt} \propto x}$$

First-order System

We consider a system

$$\boxed{\frac{dx}{dt} = \pm ax}$$

in which $a > 0$.

(^{for +a}geometric growth)

+ sign \Rightarrow growth | - sign \Rightarrow decay

Rescaling :

$$\boxed{\frac{dx}{d(at)} = \pm x}$$

~~Now~~ Now we rescale $T = at$, and

get

$$\boxed{\frac{dx}{dT} = \pm x}$$

$x=0$ is a trivial solution.

Separation of Variables :

$$\boxed{\int \frac{dx}{x} = \pm \int dT}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\ln x = \ln A \pm \ln e^T}$$

A \rightarrow integral constant

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{x = A e^{\pm T}} \Rightarrow \boxed{x = A e^{\pm at}}$$

A linear First-order Autonomous ^{Ordinary}

Differential Equation :

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

$$\boxed{\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x) = a \pm bx}$$

$$\boxed{a, b > 0}$$

(An autonomous form)

$\boxed{\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x,t)}$ is in a NON-AUTONOMOUS form.

Transformation of variables:

Write $y = a \pm bx$. $\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dt} = \pm b \frac{dx}{dt}$

But $\frac{dx}{dt} = a \pm bx = y$.

Hence, $\frac{dy}{dt} = \pm by$, which we

rescale to get $\frac{dy}{d(bt)} = \pm y$ $T = bt$.

and, therefore, $\frac{dy}{dT} = \pm y$. This

Equation is in the rate & state form.

Its solution is $y = C e^{\pm T}$, as before.

$\Rightarrow a \pm bx = C e^{\pm bt}$ $C \rightarrow \text{Integration Constant}$

$\Rightarrow \mp bx = a - C e^{\pm bt}$

$\Rightarrow \mp x = \frac{a}{b} - \frac{C}{b} e^{\pm bt}$

$\Rightarrow x = \mp \left(\frac{a}{b} - \frac{C}{b} e^{\pm bt} \right)$

The choice of the lower ~~(negative)~~ sign

gives $x = \frac{a}{b} - \frac{C}{b} e^{-bt}$ from $\frac{dx}{dt} = a - bx$

Solving $\frac{dx}{dt} = a - bx$ where $a, b > 0$

Separation of variables:

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

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dx}{a - bx} = dt$$

$$\Rightarrow \int \frac{d(-bx)}{a - bx} = \int d(-bt)$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln(a - bx) = \ln c - bt = \ln c + \ln e^{-bt}$$

$$\Rightarrow a - bx = ce^{-bt} \Rightarrow bx = a - ce^{-bt}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{a}{b} - \frac{c}{b} e^{-bt} \quad C \rightarrow \text{Integration Constant}$$

Since we started with a first-order differential equation in t , we require ONE INITIAL condition, which is

When $t = 0, x = 0 \Rightarrow 0 = \frac{a}{b} - \frac{c}{b} e^{-b \cdot 0}$

$$\Rightarrow c = a, \text{ by which we get.}$$

$$x = \frac{a}{b} (1 - e^{-bt})$$

We now define a

Scale for x as $x_0 = a/b$ and a scale for t as $\tau = 1/b$. Using these scales

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we can write $x = x_0 (1 - e^{-t/\tau})$

Rescaling $X = \frac{x}{x_0}$ and $T = \frac{t}{\tau}$,

we get $X = 1 - e^{-T}$. We can

(Alternative approach)

also perform a rescaling on $\frac{dx}{dt} = a - bx$

to obtain $X = 1 - e^{-T}$. This can be

done as $\frac{1}{b} \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{a}{b} - x$

$\Rightarrow \frac{dx}{d(bt)} = \frac{a}{b} - x$. Since $T = bt$ and $x_0 = a/b$

we write $\frac{dx}{dT} = x_0 - x$. (x_0 and τ are NATURAL scales)

$\Rightarrow \frac{d(x/x_0)}{dT} = 1 - (x/x_0)$. Since $X = \frac{x}{x_0}$

we finally get $\frac{dX}{dT} = 1 - X$, a rescaled (parameter free)

Differential equation whose solution is as before, $X = 1 - e^{-T}$. The

limiting cases of this solution are

When $T = 0$, $X = 0$ and when $T \rightarrow \infty$,

$X \rightarrow 1$, which is a convergence to a finite value.

Plotting $X = 1 - e^{-T}$ (Plotting by hand)

i) We know that when $T=0$, $X=0$.

Now, when $0 < T \ll 1$, we expand

$$e^{-T} = 1 - T + \frac{T^2}{2!} - \frac{T^3}{3!} + \dots$$

Infinite Series

Successive terms in this series diminish very rapidly since $T \ll 1$. Hence,

$$e^{-T} \approx 1 - T \quad \text{when } T \ll 1 \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Small} \\ \text{time} \\ \text{limit} \end{array} \right)$$

$$\therefore X = 1 - e^{-T} \approx 1 - (1 - T)$$

$$\Rightarrow X \approx T \Rightarrow \frac{X}{X_0} \approx \frac{t}{\tau}$$

$$\therefore X \approx X_0 \frac{t}{\tau} = \frac{a}{b} t \approx at$$

Hence, for $\frac{t}{\tau} \ll 1$ (or $T \ll 1$), $X \approx at$.

ii) In the opposite limit when $T \rightarrow \infty$, (long time limit)

$$X = 1 - e^{-\infty} = 1 \Rightarrow X \rightarrow 1, \text{ when } T \rightarrow \infty.$$

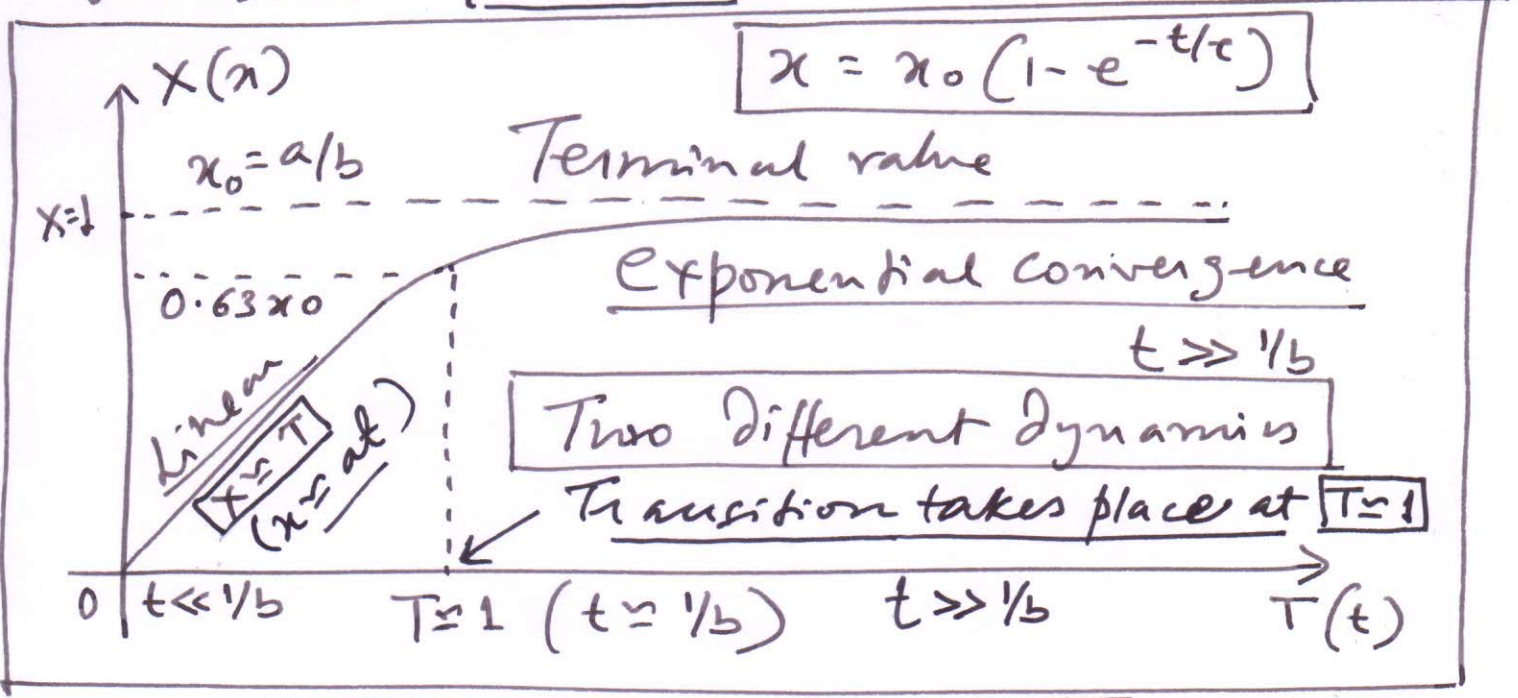
$\Rightarrow X \rightarrow X_0 = a/b$, when $t \rightarrow \infty$. So for long time scale, X converges towards a limiting value of a/b .

iii.) We can obtain the derivative of $x = 1 - e^{-T}$, as $\frac{dx}{dT} = e^{-T}$. If $\frac{dx}{dT} = 0 \Rightarrow T \rightarrow \infty$.

The second derivative is $\frac{d^2x}{dT^2} = -e^{-T}$

When $T \rightarrow \infty$, $\frac{d^2x}{dT^2} = 0$. Hence this is not a turning point. ~~At $x=1$~~

iv.) The transition from the linear behaviour $x = T$ to an exponential convergence of $x = 1 - e^{-T}$ takes place when $T \approx 1$ or when $t \approx 1/b$ (natural time scale).



When $t = \tau$, $x = x_0(1 - e^{-1}) \Rightarrow x \approx 0.63x_0$

There are two different dynamics on two different time scales. Eg. Growth of humans or the inflationary universe.

Systems of the form $\frac{dx}{dt} = a + bx$

$$a, b > 0$$

We know where $\frac{dx}{dt} = a - bx$ (with $a, b > 0$)

the solution is $x = \frac{a}{b} (1 - e^{-bt})$. When

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = a + bx = a - (-b)x$$

we make the transformation

$$b \rightarrow -b$$

Hence, $x = \frac{a}{-b} (1 - e^{bt})$

$\Rightarrow x = \frac{a}{b} (e^{bt} - 1)$ is the solution of $\frac{dx}{dt} = a + bx$.

Writing $x_0 = a/b$ and $\tau = 1/b$, we get

$$x = x_0 (e^{t/\tau} - 1) \quad \text{or} \quad X = e^T - 1 \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} X = x/x_0 \\ \text{and } T = t/\tau \end{array} \right)$$

$\tau = 1/b$ is the natural time scale.

Limiting behaviour:

i) When $t \ll \tau$, $e^{t/\tau} \approx 1 + t/\tau$ (linear order only)

$\therefore x \approx x_0 \left(1 + \frac{t}{\tau} - 1 \right) = x_0 \frac{t}{\tau} = at$

$\Rightarrow x = at$ (early growth is linear).

ii) When $t \gg \tau$, $e^{t/\tau} - 1 \approx e^{t/\tau}$ (for long time).

$\therefore x = x_0 e^{t/\tau}$ (late growth is exponential)

Consider a hypothetical case when $t < 0$.

iii) For $t \rightarrow -\infty$, $x \rightarrow -x_0$ (limiting terminal value)

iv) For $|t| \ll \tau$, $e^{t/\tau} \approx 1 + t/\tau$ (linear order)

$\Rightarrow x \approx x_0 t/\tau \Rightarrow x \approx at$ (linear)

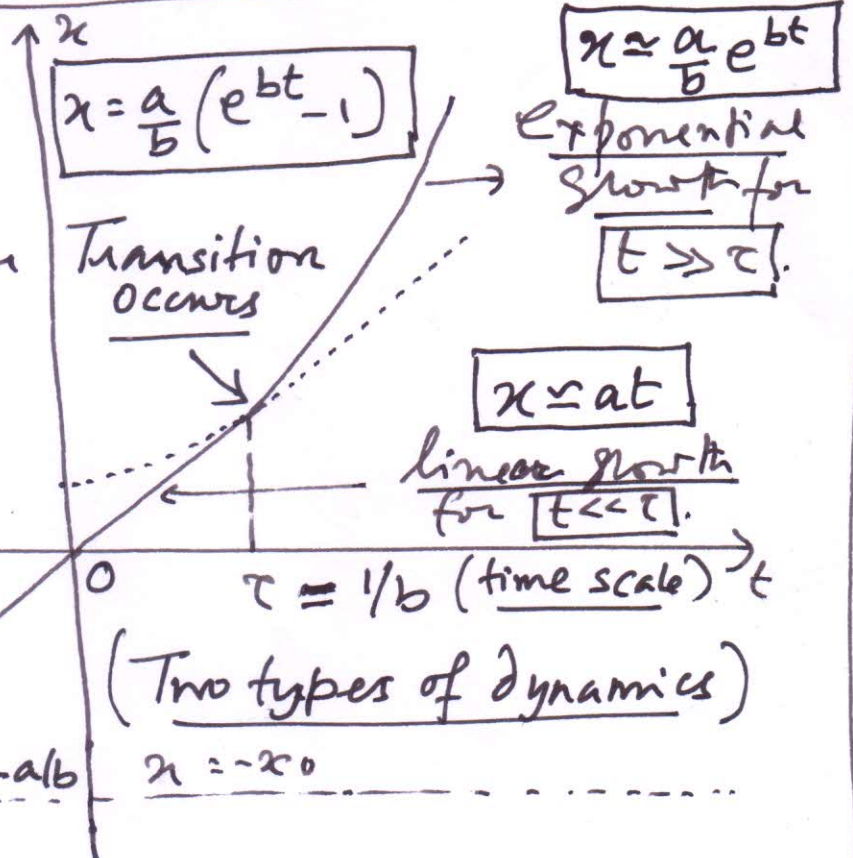
Plotting:

$$x = x_0(e^{t/\tau} - 1)$$

$$x_0 = a/b$$

$$\tau = 1/b$$

There is no limiting behaviour for $t \rightarrow \infty$.



There is an exchange of the functional behaviour from the fast to the third quadrant as $\frac{dx}{dt} = a - bx$ goes to $\frac{dx}{dt} = a + bx$.