

# MA3220 Ordinary Differential Equations

AY2022/23 Semester 1 · Midterm Examination Cheatsheet · Prepared by Tian Xiao @snoidetx

## Differential Equations

### Solving a separable ODE

$$y'(t) = P(t)Q(y)$$

$$\int \frac{1}{Q(y)} dy = \int P(t) dt + C$$

### Existence & uniqueness of solutions

• 1st order linear ODE: If the functions  $p$  and  $g$  are continuous on an open interval  $I : \alpha < t < \beta$  containing the point  $t = t_0$ , then for any  $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exists a unique solution to the differential equation  $y' + p(t)y = g(t)$  for each  $t$  in  $I$ , with initial condition  $y(t_0) = y_0$ .

• 1st order non-linear ODE: Consider the equation  $y' = f(t, y)$  with initial condition  $y(t_0) = y_0$ . If  $f$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  are both continuous in some rectangle  $R = (\alpha, \beta) \times (\gamma, \delta)$  containing the point  $(t_0, y_0)$ , then in some interval  $t_0 - h < t < t_0 + h$  contained in  $\alpha < t < \beta$ , there exists a unique solution to the IVP.

• 2nd order linear ODE: If the functions  $p, q, g$  are continuous on an open interval  $I : \alpha < t < \beta$  containing the point  $t = t_0$ , then there exists a unique solution to the differential equation  $y'' + p(t)y' + q(t)y = g(t)$  for each  $t$  in  $I$ , with initial condition  $y(t_0) = y_0$  and  $y'(t_0) = y'_0$ .

## 1st Order ODEs

### Terminologies

• Linearity: An ODE is *linear* if it can be written in the form  $a_n(x)y^{(n)} + a_{n-1}(x)y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1y = P(x)$ .

• Homogeneity:  $P(x) = 0$ .

• Convexity: If  $y''(x) > 0$ , then  $y(x)$  is *concave*; otherwise, it is *convex*.

• Equilibrium solution:  $y'(x) = 0$ .

• Exact equation: An ODE  $M(x, y) + N(x, y)y' = 0$  is called an *exact ODE* if there exists a function  $\psi(x, y)$  such that  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}(x, y) = M(x, y)$  and  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}(x, y) = N(x, y)$ .

- If an ODE is exact,  $M_y = N_x$ .

- If  $M, N, M_y, N_x$  are continuous in a simply connected region  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ , then the equation  $M(x, y) + N(x, y)y' = 0$  is an exact equation if and only if  $M_y = N_x$ .

### Solving a 1st order linear ODE

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

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

$$\mu'(x) = \mu(x)P(x);$$

$$\mu(x)y' + \mu'(x)y = \mu(x)Q(x)$$

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

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

### Euler's method

1. Partition the interval  $[x_0, X]$  into a finite number of mesh points  $x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = X$ . If they are uniformly distributed, then the step size  $h = \frac{X - x_0}{n}$ .

2. For each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , obtain the approximate solution  $y_i$  by  $y_i = y_{i-1} + y'(i-1)h$ .

## 2nd Order ODEs

### Superposition principle

For a linear homogenous equation  $L(y) = 0$ , if  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  are solutions, then for any constant  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ , the linear combination  $c_1y_1 + c_2y_2$  is also a solution.

### Wronskian and general solution

Let  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  be two solutions of a 2nd order linear homogenous ODE, their *Wronskian* is defined as

$$W[y_1, y_2](t) := \begin{vmatrix} y_1 & y_2 \\ y_1' & y_2' \end{vmatrix} = y_1y_2' - y_2y_1'$$

Let  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  be two solutions of  $y'' + p(t)y' + q(t)y = 0$  in an interval  $I$ , with  $p, q$  continuous in  $I$ . Then  $y(t) = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2$  is the *general solution* in  $I$  if and only if  $W[y_1, y_2](t_0) \neq 0$  for some  $t_0 \in I$ .

### Abel's theorem

Let  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  be two solutions of  $y'' + p(t)y' + q(t)y = 0$  in an interval  $I$ , with  $p, q$  continuous in  $I$ . Then their Wronskian satisfies

$$W[y_1, y_2](t) = ce^{-\int p(t) dt}$$

for some constant  $c$ . As a result,  $W$  is either always 0 or never 0.

### Solving a 2nd order linear homogenous ODE

$$ay'' + by' + c = 0$$

Case I:  $\Delta > 0, x = \lambda_1$  or  $\lambda_2$ .

$$y = c_1e^{\lambda_1 t} + c_2e^{\lambda_2 t}$$

Case II:  $\Delta < 0, x = \alpha \pm \beta i$ .

$$y = e^{\alpha t}(c_1 \cos \beta t + \sin \beta t)$$

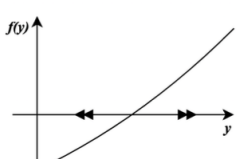
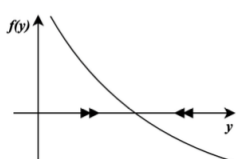
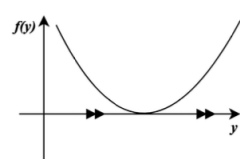
Case III:  $\Delta = 0, x = \lambda$ .

$$y = (c_1 + c_2 t)e^{\lambda t}$$

### Finding another solution

• Abel's theorem: Plug in the value of  $y_1(t), y_1'(t)$  and  $ce^{-\int p(t) dt}$  and solve for  $y_2$ . Set  $c = 1$  for convenience.

• Reduction of order: Let  $y_2(t) = v(t)y_1(t)$  and plug in to the ODE.

| Case I  | Case II  | Case III  |
|---|--|---|
|  |  |  |
| Unstable equilibrium  | Asymptotically stable equilibrium  | Semi-stable equilibrium   |

## Solving a 2nd order linear non-homogenous ODE

- Making the right guess:

| $g(t)$                              | guess                               |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| $Ce^{kt}$                           | $Ae^{kt}$                           |
| $C \sin kt; C \cos kt$              | $A \sin kt + B \cos kt$             |
| degree- $n$ polynomial              | degree- $n$ polynomial              |
| sum of different types of terms     | sum of their respective guesses     |
| product of different types of terms | product of their respective guesses |

- We handle exceptions by multiplying  $t$  to our guess.

- Variation of parameters: For the equation  $y'' + p(t)y + q(t)y = g(t)$ , let the general solution be  $Y(t) = u_1(t)y_1(t) + u_2(t)y_2(t)$ , where  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  are the solutions to the corresponding homogenous equation. Set  $u_1'y_1 + u_2'y_2 = 0$ , so that  $Y' = u_1y_1' + u_2y_2'$  and  $Y'' = u_1'y_1' + u_1y_1'' + u_2'y_2' + u_2y_2''$ . Plug this into the ODE and we get:

$$\begin{cases} u_1'y_1 + u_2'y_2 = 0 \\ u_1'y_1' + u_2'y_2' = g(t) \end{cases}$$

Solve this simultaneous equation and we get:

$$\begin{cases} u_1(t) = -\int \frac{y_2(t)g(t)}{W[y_1, y_2](t)} dt + c_1 \\ u_2(t) = -\int \frac{y_1(t)g(t)}{W[y_1, y_2](t)} dt + c_2 \end{cases}$$

- Using power series: A *power series* centered at  $x_0$  is an infinite series of the form  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x - x_0)^n$ . Guess  $y = f(x)$  and plug into the ODE. Use *shift of summation index* to get a recurrence relation.

- Taylor series:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n$$

- Convergence radius: Every power series has a *convergence radius*  $\rho$  (can be 0, positive or infinity), such that when  $|x - x_0| > \rho$ , the series diverges and when  $|x - x_0| < \rho$ , the series converges absolutely. If  $f(x)$  is a polynomial, the power series of the function  $\frac{1}{f(x)}$  centered at  $x_0$  has its convergence radius equal to the distance between  $x_0$  and the nearest complex roots of  $f(x)$ .

- Ratio test for convergence: Consider the expression

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| |x - x_0|$$

If the value  $< 1$ , the series converges absolutely at  $x$ ; if the value  $= 1$ , the test is inconclusive; if the value  $> 1$ , the series diverges.

$$- f^{(n)}(x_0) = n!a_n.$$

- A point  $t_0$  is called an *ordinary point* if both  $p(t)$  and  $q(t)$  are analytical at  $t_0$ ; otherwise it is called a *singular point*. If  $t_0$  is an ordinary point, then the ODE has a series solution centered at  $t_0$ :

$$y(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(t - t_0)^n = a_0y_1(t) + a_1y_2(t)$$

Here  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  form a fundamental set of solutions, and their convergence radius is at least the minimum of the convergence radius of  $p$  and  $q$ .

## Appendix: Integrations

### Basic

$$\begin{aligned} - \int k dx &= kx + C \\ - \int x^n dx &= \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + C \\ - \int \frac{1}{x} dx &= \ln|x| + C \\ - \int e^x dx &= e^x + C \end{aligned}$$

### Fractional

$$\begin{aligned} - \int \frac{1}{ax+b} &= \frac{1}{a} \ln|ax+b| + C \\ - \int \frac{1}{a^2+x^2} dx &= \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C \\ - \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2-x^2}} dx &= \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C \\ - \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2+x^2}} dx &= \sinh^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C \\ - \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2-a^2}} dx &= \cosh^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C \\ - \int \frac{1}{a^2-x^2} dx &= \frac{1}{a} \tanh^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C \\ - \int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx &= -\frac{1}{x} + C \\ - \int \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{1+x^2}} dx &= -\frac{1}{x} + C \end{aligned}$$

### Logarithmic

$$- \int \ln x dx = x \ln x - x + C$$

### Trigonometric

$$\begin{aligned} - \int \cos x dx &= \sin x + C \\ - \int \sin x dx &= -\cos x + C \\ - \int \tan x dx &= \ln|\sec x| + C \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} - \int \sec x dx &= \ln|\sec x + \tan x| + C \\ - \int \sec^2 x dx &= \tan x + C \\ - \int \sec x \tan x dx &= \sec x + C \\ - \int \csc x \cot x dx &= -\csc x + C \\ - \int \csc^2 x dx &= -\cot x + C \\ - \int \sinh x dx &= \cosh x + C \\ - \int \cosh x dx &= \sinh x + C \\ - \int^2 x dx &= \tanh x + C \\ - \int^2 x dx &= -\coth x + C \\ - \int x \tanh x dx &= -x + C \\ - \int x \coth x dx &= -x + C \end{aligned}$$

## Appendix: DE

$$1. M(x) - N(y)y' = 0$$

(Separable) Separate the variables  $x$  and  $y$  and rewrite the equation as  $\int M(x) dx = \int N(y) dy$ .

$$2. y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$$

Multiply both sides by an **integrating factor**  $\mu(x) = e^{\int P(x) dx}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(x)y' + \mu(x)P(x)y &= \mu(x)Q(x) \\ \mu(x)y &= \int \mu(x)Q(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

$$3. y' + P(x)y = Q(x)y^n$$

(Bernoulli) Let  $z = y^{1-n}$ , then  $z' = (1-n)y^{-n}y'$ . Hence we have:

$$\begin{aligned} y^{-n}y' + P(x)y^{1-n} &= Q(x) \\ \frac{z'}{1-n} + P(x)z &= Q(x) \end{aligned}$$

and use integrating factor.

$$4. ay'' + by' + cy = 0$$

Consider the **characteristic equation**  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$  with roots  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ :

- If  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $y = c_1e^{\lambda_1 x} + c_2e^{\lambda_2 x}$ .

- If  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $y = (c_1 + c_2x)e^{\lambda x}$ .

- If  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 = \alpha \pm \beta i \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $y = e^{\alpha x}(c_1 \cos \beta x + c_2 \sin \beta x)$ .

$$5. ay'' + by' + cy = r(x), r(x) \neq 0$$

The goal is to find the **particular solution**  $y_p$ :

- If  $r(x)$  is in the form of  $g(x)e^{kx}$ , let  $y_p(x) = u(x)e^{kx}$ .

- If  $r(x)$  is in the form of  $g(x) \cos kx$  or  $u(x) \sin kx$ , let  $z(x) = u(x)e^{ikx}$  and take  $\text{Re}(z)$  or  $\text{Im}(z)$ .