

# MATH1072 Summary - Ordinary Differential Equations

## Dimensional Analysis

### Base Dimensions

Majority of dimensions consist of the main base dimensions:

- Length ( $L$ )
- Time ( $T$ )
- Mass ( $M$ )

There are other non-mechanical base dimensions like temperature, electrical current etc.

### Derived Dimensions

Some common derived dimensions include

- Speed -  $\frac{L}{T}$
- Force -  $N = M \frac{L}{T^2}$
- Energy -  $J = M \frac{L^2}{T^2}$

It is important that the dimensions on both sides of the equation are **equal**. We then call the equation **dimensionally homogeneous**

## ODEs

### Equilibrium Solutions

An equilibrium solution is a constant solution such that  $y(t) = c$  satisfies the ODE.

In other words, the solution to  $f(t, y) = 0$  where  $f(t, y) = y'$ , representing the ODE.

### Stability of Solutions

If the general solutions in a small neighbourhood converge towards an equilibrium solution  $y = c$ , then it is said to be the solution is *stable* at  $y = c$ .

### Analytical Solutions

#### Linear First Order ODEs

The key thing is if the ODE is separable, the form of a linear (first order) ODE is

$$y'(t) = f(t)y(t) + g(t)$$

**Example 1.** The linear ODE  $ty' + y = t \cos t$  is separable. Note that by the chain rule,  $(ty)' = ty' + y$ .

$$(ty)' = t \cos t$$

Integrate both sides

$$\int (ty)' dy = \int t \cos t dt$$

By integration by parts

$$\begin{aligned} ty &= t \sin t - \int \sin t dt \\ ty &= t \sin t + \cos t + c_1 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore our ODE solution is

$$y = \sin t + \frac{\cos t}{t} + \frac{c_1}{t}$$

### Approximating Solutions

#### Euler's Method

Given  $y' = f(t, y)$ ,  $y(0) = c$

$$\begin{aligned} y'(t) &= \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{y(t + \Delta) - y(t)}{\Delta} \\ &\approx \frac{y(t + \Delta) - y(t)}{\Delta} \end{aligned}$$

Euler's Method is iterative, so  $y_{k+1} = y_k + f(t_k, y_k)$ . So

$$\frac{y(t_{k+1}) - y(t_k)}{\Delta} \approx f(t_k, y_k)$$

### Heun's Method

### Second Order Differential Equations

Say we have a linear second order ODE of form  $f(y'', y', y, t) = 0$ , assuming  $f$  is homogeneous and constant coefficient, we can denote the ODE as

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

For any ODE of this form, we can represent its characteristic equation as

$$\lambda^2 + a\lambda + b = 0$$

(You should know where this comes from, but its ok if you dont). We can solve the characteristic equation with the quadratic formula

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{-a \pm \sqrt{a^2 - 4b}}{2}$$

**Case 1: There are 2 real solutions for  $\lambda$**  The general solution is then

$$y(t) = c_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 t}$$

**Case 2: There is only 1 real solution for  $\lambda$**  The general solution is then

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

**Case 3: There is no real solutions (only complex) for  $\lambda$**  As there is no real solutions, then  $\lambda = \alpha \pm \beta i$ , thus the general solution is

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

Generally analytically solvable 2nd order ODES may look like

$$y'' + p(t)y' + q(t)y = r(x)$$

If  $r(x) = 0$ , we say it is homogeneous. If it is homogeneous, we can use the **principle of superposition** for the general solution.

### Method of Reduction of Order

The steps to solve with this method are

1.  $y'' + p(t)y' + q(t)y = 0$
2. Assume that  $y_1(t)$  is a solution.
3. Look for solutions of the form  $y = u(t)y_1(t)$
4. Substitute into the equation
5.  $(uy_1)'' + p(t)(uy_1)' + q(t)uy_1 = 0$

# MATH1072 Summary - Multivariate Calculus

## Two Variable Limits

For a function  $f(x, y)$ , we can check if the limit

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y)$$

exists with the following method

$$\text{If } \begin{cases} f(x, y) \rightarrow L_1 \text{ as } (x, y) \rightarrow (a, b) \text{ along } C_1 \in D \\ f(x, y) \rightarrow L_2 \text{ as } (x, y) \rightarrow (a, b) \text{ along } C_2 \in D \end{cases}$$

Where  $C_1, C_2$  are paths in the domain  $D$ .

We define multivariate limits similar to single variable limits,

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y) = L$$

∞ If  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$  such that if  $(x, y) \in D$  then

$$\sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2} < \delta \implies |f(x, y) - L| < \epsilon$$

## Partial Derivatives

Given a function  $f(x, y)$ , the partial derivatives of  $x$  and  $y$  respectively at a point  $P = (a, b)$  are

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) = f_x(a, b) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h, b) - f(a, b)}{h}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) = f_y(a, b) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a, b+h) - f(a, b)}{h}$$

Generally, the partial derivative  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  or  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  can be thought of (and computed) as the derivative with respect to  $x$  or  $y$  respectively.

**Example 2.** Find the partial derivatives of  $f(x, y) = x \sin y + y \cos x$

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

Anything with a  $y$  is basically treated as a constant

$$= \sin y - y \cos x$$

The same applies to the partial derivative of  $y$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (x \sin y + y \cos x) \\ &= x \cos y + \cos x \end{aligned}$$

## Higher Order Partial Derivatives

Higher order partials are usually notated as

$$f_{xx} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \quad f_{yy} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

We can also have higher orders of unique partials

$$f_{xy} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$$

$$f_{yx} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$$

If  $f_{xy}$  and  $f_{yx}$  are both continuous, then  $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$ .

## Chain Rule for Partial

For a function  $f(x, y)$  where  $x, y$  are functions of  $t$ , the chain rule is defined as

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

You can extrapolate this to as many dimensions as you want, Given a function  $f(a_1(t), a_2(t), a_3(t), \dots, a_n(t))$ , you can represent its derivative as

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial a_i} \frac{da_i}{dt} \right) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial a_1} \frac{da_1}{dt} + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial a_n} \frac{da_n}{dt}$$

Where  $n$  is the highest dimension of the function  $f$ .

## Gradient Vectors $\nabla f$

The gradient vector of  $f$  is defined as

$$\nabla f = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = f_x \mathbf{i} + f_y \mathbf{j}$$

## Directional Derivative

We can express the direction derivative with the gradient vector

$$f_u = \nabla f \cdot \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|}$$

As this is the dot product, recall that

$$\underline{A} \cdot \underline{B} = \|\underline{A}\| \|\underline{B}\| \cos \theta$$

## Tangent Planes

For  $z = f(x, y)$  at  $(a, b, f(a, b))$ , the tangent plane is defined as

$$f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b)$$

## Line Integrals

For higher dimensions, we can compute work done by a force field with a line integral. Given a function defined by

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = F_1(x, y, z)\mathbf{i} + F_2(x, y, z)\mathbf{j} + F_3(x, y, z)\mathbf{k}$$

which moves along a curve  $C$ . Then we denote the line integral to be

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

Where  $\mathbf{r}$  is a parametrisation of the curve  $C$ .

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)), \quad a \leq t \leq b$$

To compute work is to compute the line integral given a domain  $[a, b]$  on  $C$ .

$$W = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_a^b \mathbf{F}(r(t)) \cdot r'(t) dt$$

## Conservative Fields

$\mathbf{F}$  is conservative if the line integral between  $A$  and  $B$ ,  $\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  will give the same result for **any** path you choose in between  $A$  and  $B$

If a gradient field  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative, then there exists a function  $f$  such that  $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$ , which you can use to compute line integrals with

$$\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(B) - f(A)$$

Where  $f$  is called the **potential function**. It is expected to use this formula as apposed to the parametrisation of the path when asked to evaluate the work done on a conservative field. (Or other cases of computing a line integral over a path)

## Checking if a field is conservative

An easy check to see if a force field is conservative is given  $\mathbf{F} = (F_1, F_2) = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$ .

$$\frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial y} \implies \text{Field is conservative}$$