

MATH3720A - Lecture Notes - Week 1

Andrew Kei Fong Lam

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1 Introduction

1.1 Motivation for ODEs

Many phenomena in the world around us:

- growth of plants and animals;
- movement of people, objects and goods (in an economy);
- value of stock prices;
- flow of fluids/gases, melting of ice;

are “**dynamic**” in nature. We can associate “**dynamic**” with “**change (in time)**”, and to model these changes with mathematics, we can use equations of the form:

$$\text{rate of change of a quantity} = \text{source} - \text{depletion} .$$

As the **derivative** of a function provides the rate at which it is **changing** with respect to its variable, the equations we use to model change will involve derivatives, and we call these equations as **differential equations**.

We begin with a definition.

Definition 1.1. A **differential equation** is an equation that involves the **derivatives** of an unknown function.

Notation: Let $x = x(t)$ be a function of t . For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we write

$$x^{(n)} = \frac{d^n x}{dt^n}, \quad \text{and often} \quad x' = x^{(1)}, \quad x'' = x^{(2)} .$$

The main subject of study in this course is the class of differential equations called “**Ordinary differential equations**” (ODEs), and a problem involving ODEs has 5 components:

- (1) the **independent variable** - usually time, denoted by t ;

- (2) the **dependent variable** (also the **quantity of interest**) - such as distance, price, number of people, denoted by y ;
- (3) the equation - specifying how the quantity of interest changes with respect to the independent variable;
- (4) the **interval of definition** - denoted by $I \subset \mathbb{R}$, which is the **range** for which the solution to the ODE is defined;
- (5) the **initial conditions** - specific conditions related to the particular problem we want to model.

Example 1.1 (Motion of a falling object). *Consider an object falling in the atmosphere with mass $m > 0$. We are interested in the **velocity** v of the object as time progresses. So we think of v as a function of t and derive an equation for the rate of change $\frac{dv}{dt}$. A crucial idea is the **balances of forces** - which is **Newton's third law**. There are two (opposing) forces acting on the object as it falls:*

- (1) Gravity exerts a (downwards) force $F_g = mg$, where g is the gravitational constant;
- (2) Movement through the air generates **air resistance/drag forces**, which we take as proportional to the velocity. This gives a (upwards) force $F_a = \gamma v$, where $\gamma > 0$ is the drag coefficient.

The **net** force pointing downwards is therefore

$$F = F_g - F_a = mg - \gamma v.$$

Using **Newton's second law** - which relates net force with the product of mass and acceleration, and recalling acceleration is the rate of change of velocity with respect to time, we are led to

$$mg - \gamma v = F = ma = m \frac{dv}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{m \frac{dv}{dt} = mg - \gamma v}.$$

In the above, we see that

1. the independent variable is time t ;
2. the dependence variable is the velocity v ;
3. the equation is $mv' = mg - \gamma v$;
4. the interval of definition can be taken as $I = [0, \infty)$ - modelling the motion of the object from time $t = 0$ onwards;
5. as initial condition we can take $v(0) = 0$.

Example 1.2 (Population dynamics). Let us model the growth of a herd of cows. We are interested in the number of cows after a certain period of time. Setting t as the independent variable and $p(t)$ - the number of cows - as the dependent variable, we now derive an ODE for $p(t)$. Note that for physical reasons, only the case $p(t) \geq 0$ makes sense.

The modelling assumptions we will make are the following:

- the rate at which population changes is proportional to the population at present time - leading to the equation

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = h(p)p,$$

for some function h ;

- when $p(t)$ is small, $h(p(t))$ is positive (less competition, more food for everyone);
- when $p(t)$ is large, $h(p(t))$ is negative (more competition, less food for everyone);
- the function $h(p)$ should decrease as p grows larger.

To obtain the ODE we simply need to find a suitable function for h . One simple choice is

$$h(p) = r - ap,$$

where $r, a > 0$ are the reproduction and elimination rates, respectively. Setting

$$K := \frac{r}{a},$$

which is also known as the carrying capacity, the ODE for p now reads as

$$\boxed{\frac{dp}{dt} = (r - ap)p = rp \left(1 - \frac{p}{K}\right)}.$$

The above equation is also called the Logistic equation. Once again, we are interested in the values of p from $t = 0$ onwards, so we set $I = [0, \infty)$. As for initial condition, we set $p(0) = p_0$, where p_0 is the initial number of cows the farmer has.

Example 1.3 (Motion of a pendulum). An object of mass $m > 0$ is attached to a rigid rod of length L and affixed to the ceiling. The object is allowed to swing in one direction and its motion traces out an arc. We are interested at how the angle θ between the rod and the centreline changes in time as the pendulum swings. Again we think of θ as a function of t and derive an equation for $\frac{d\theta}{dt}$. The key idea is also the balance of forces. Note that in the weight of the object $W = mg$ exerts two forces that are perpendicular to each other. A tangential force $F_s = mg \sin \theta$

that drives the motion of the pendulum, and a **normal force** $F_c = mg \cos \theta$ that is perpendicular and does not contribute to the motion.

By Newton's second law, taking into account that the tangential force F_s points in the opposite direction to the motion of the pendulum, leads to

$$mg \sin \theta = F_s = -ma \Rightarrow a = -g \sin \theta.$$

Meanwhile, the velocity v of the object is given as $v = L \frac{d\theta}{dt}$, and the acceleration $a = \frac{dv}{dt}$ can be computed as $a = L \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2}$. Altogether we now have the **pendulum equation**

$$\boxed{L \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} = -g \sin \theta}.$$

For the interval of definition, we again consider $I = [0, \infty)$, and for the initial conditions we have to prescribe an initial angle (position of the pendulum) $\theta(0) = \theta_0$, and an initial velocity $\frac{d\theta}{dt}(0) = \frac{v_0}{L}$ (how hard you initially swing the pendulum).

In all of the examples above, we have to set an initial condition(s) for the ODE. What is the reason for this? If we consider the simple ODE example:

$$\text{Solve } \frac{dy}{dt} = t.$$

Integration gives

$$\boxed{y(t) = \frac{1}{2}t^2 + c},$$

where $c \in \mathbb{R}$ is a **constant of integration**. We call the above formula the **general solution** to the ODE.

Since $c \in \mathbb{R}$ is an arbitrary constant, we have in fact obtained an **infinite number** of solutions to the ODE. The question becomes:

Which solution should I take as the "correct one"?

To remove this ambiguity, we prescribe an initial condition to **fix** the constant c : Suppose we set $y(t_0) = y_0$ for some **given** constants $t_0 \in I$ and $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, then it turns out that

$$y_0 = \frac{1}{2}t_0^2 + c \Rightarrow c = y_0 - \frac{1}{2}t_0^2 \Rightarrow \boxed{y(t) = \frac{1}{2}(t^2 - t_0^2) + y_0}.$$

We call the above formula a **particular solution** to the ODE.

Rule of thumb - The **number** of initial conditions needed is the same as the **highest** number of derivatives appearing in the ODE.

Definition 1.2. An ordinary differential equation is an equation involving **ONE** independent variable $t \in I$ and **ONE** dependent variable y of the form

$$F(t, y, y', y'', \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0.$$

Given constants $t_0, t_1, \dots, t_{n-1} \in I$ and $y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$, we call

$$\begin{cases} F(t, y, y', y'', \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0, \\ y(t_0) = y_0, \frac{dy}{dt}(t_1) = y_1, \dots, \frac{d^{(n-1)}y}{dt^{n-1}}(t_{n-1}) = y_{n-1}, \end{cases}$$

an **initial value problem** (IVP).

Definition 1.3.

- (a) The **order** of an ODE is the **highest order** of derivative that appears.
- (b) An ODE $F(t, y, y', \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0$ is **linear** if F is a **linear function** of $y, \frac{dy}{dt}, \dots, \frac{d^n y}{dt^n}$. Otherwise, it is a **non-linear** ODE. The general **linear** ODE of order n is

$$a_0(t)y^{(n)}(t) + a_1(t)y^{(n-1)}(t) + \dots + a_n(t)y(t) = f(t),$$

for some given functions a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n and f .

- (c) An ODE is called **autonomous** if the independent variable does not appear explicitly (only in the derivatives). Otherwise it is a **non-autonomous** ODE.

Looking at the ODEs we have studied so far:

ODE	Order	Linear ?	Autonomous ?
$mv' = mg - \gamma v$	1	✓	✓
$p' = rp(1 - p/K)$	1	✗	✓
$L\theta'' = -g \sin \theta$	2	✗	✓
$y' = t$	1	✓	✗

While one expects the solution y to an ODE is a function depending on t , there is also a **special class** of solutions worth looking at:

Definition 1.4. For a first order ODE $y' = F(t, y)$, we say that a function y_* is an **equilibrium solution** (or a **stationary solution**) to the ODE if

$$F(t, y_*) = 0 \quad \forall t \in I.$$

Note that the equilibrium solution y_* does not depend on t , i.e., $\frac{dy_*}{dt} = 0$, and so it automatically satisfies the ODE.

Example 1.4.

1. For the motion of the falling object, the ODE is $mv' = mg - \gamma v = F(t, v)$. So if $F(t, v_*) = 0$ for some function v_* , we compute to see that

$$0 = F(t, v_*) = mg - \gamma v_* \Rightarrow v_* = \frac{mg}{\gamma} \text{ (related to the terminal velocity).$$

2. For the population dynamics, the ODE is $p' = rp(1 - p/K) = F(t, p)$. So if $F(t, p_*) = 0$ for some function p_* , we have

$$0 = F(t, p_*) = rp_*(1 - p_*/K) \Rightarrow p_* = 0 \text{ or } p_* = K.$$

Interpretation: if $p_* = 0$, then we have no cows left (extinction), and if $p_* = K > 0$, then the number of cows is equal to the carrying capacity - the maximum number that is supported by the environment.

3. For the pendulum (although it is a second order ODE), suppose θ_* is a function satisfying $F(t, \theta_*) = -g \sin \theta_* = 0$. Then

$$0 = -g \sin \theta_* \Rightarrow \theta_* = 0,$$

and the interpretation is that the pendulum lies on the centreline.

1.2 Goal of this course

Given an ODE

$$\begin{cases} F(t, y, y', \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0, \\ y(t_0) = y_0, \frac{dy}{dt}(t_1) = y_1, \dots, \frac{d^{(n-1)}y}{dt^{n-1}}(t_{n-1}) = y_{n-1}, \end{cases} \quad (*)$$

we attempt to answer the following questions:

1. can we find an explicit formula for the solution $y(t)$?
2. if not, can we prove that there exists a solution $y(t)$? If a solution exists, is it a unique solution?
3. if a solution $y(t)$ exists, what is its behaviour as t varies?
4. are there stationary solutions to $(*)$?

2 First order equations

2.1 Two linear ODE example

We begin our study with two examples of first order linear ODEs.

2.1.1 Example 1

For given real constants a, b, t_0, y_0 , solve

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dy}{dt} = ay + b, \\ y(t_0) = y_0. \end{cases}$$

This is a linear and autonomous ODE. Let us consider the case $a = 0$. Then the ODE becomes

$$y' = b, \quad y(t_0) = y_0.$$

Integrating yields the general solution

$$y(t) = bt + c, \quad c \in \mathbb{R},$$

and the initial condition gives the particular solution

$$\boxed{y(t) = y_0 + b(t - t_0)}.$$

For the case $a \neq 0$, we rearrange the ODE into another form:

$$y' = ay + b = a(y + b/a) \Rightarrow \frac{1}{y + \frac{b}{a}} \frac{dy}{dt} = a.$$

If there exists a function $H(y)$ such that $H'(y) = (y + b/a)^{-1}$, then the ODE becomes (via the Chain rule)

$$H'(y) \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} H(y(t)) = a.$$

It turns out that

$$H(y) = \ln(y + b/a),$$

and so we have

$$\ln(y(t) + b/a) = at + c, \quad c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Taking exponential then leads to the general solution

$$\boxed{y(t) = \kappa \exp(at) - \frac{b}{a}}, \quad \kappa := \exp(c).$$

Using the initial condition $y(t_0) = y_0$ we obtain the particular solution

$$\boxed{y(t) = (y_0 + b/a) \exp(a(t - t_0)) - \frac{b}{a}}.$$

In summary we find that

$$y(t) = \begin{cases} y_0 + b(t - t_0) & \text{for } a = 0, \\ (y_0 + b/a) \exp(a(t - t_0)) - \frac{b}{a} & \text{for } a \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

This example shows that the explicit formula for the solution can depend on the values of the given coefficients. Always keep this in mind before starting to solve the ODE.

2.1.2 Example 2

For a given function $p(t)$, find the general solution to

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = p(t)y.$$

Note that $y(t) \equiv 0$ is one solution! Suppose that $y(t_*) \neq 0$ for some $t_* \in I$, then we can rearrange the ODE into the form

$$\frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dt} = p(t) \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \ln(y(t)) = p(t).$$

Integrating yields

$$\ln(y(t)) = \int p(t) dt + c, \quad c \in \mathbb{R},$$

and taking exponential gives the general solution

$$\boxed{y(t) = \kappa \exp\left(\int p(t) dt\right)}, \quad \kappa := \exp(c).$$

Remark 2.1. *In the above examples, it should have been*

$$\ln|y(t)| = \int p(t) dt + c.$$

Once we take the exponential we find that

$$|y(t)| = \exp\left(\int p(t) dt\right) \exp(c).$$

Setting

$$\kappa = \begin{cases} \exp(c) & \text{if } y(t) > 0, \\ -\exp(c) & \text{if } y(t) < 0, \end{cases} \Rightarrow y(t) = \kappa \exp\left(\int p(t) dt\right).$$

The sign of the constant κ does not matter once we use the initial condition to determine its value.

2.2 Linear first order equations - method of integrating factors

In the above Example 2, we obtain that the general solution to the ODE

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = p(t)y$$

is

$$y(t) = \kappa \exp\left(\int p(t) dt\right),$$

for some arbitrary non-negative constant κ . We now study the general linear first order ODE:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dy}{dt} = p(t)y + q(t), \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \end{cases} \quad (2.1)$$

for some given functions $p(t)$, $q(t)$ and constants t_0 and y_0 . One example is the equation for the motion of the falling object: $mv' = mg - \gamma v$, where we set $y = v$, $p = -\gamma/m$ and $q = g$. The method we use is called the method of integrating factors.

Idea: Multiply the ODE (2.1) by a function $\mu(t)$, leading to

$$\mu(t) \frac{dy}{dt} - \mu(t)p(t)y(t) = \mu(t)q(t). \quad (2.2)$$

Suppose

$$\boxed{\mu(t) \frac{dy}{dt} - \mu(t)p(t)y(t) = \frac{d}{dt}(\mu(t)y(t))}, \quad (2.3)$$

then, the multiplied ODE (2.2) becomes

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mu(t)y(t)) = \mu(t)q(t) \Rightarrow \boxed{\mu(t)y(t) = \int \mu(t)q(t) dt + c}, \quad c \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (2.4)$$

If in addition, $\mu(t)$ is **non-zero**, we can divide by $\mu(t)$ and end up with the general solution

$$\boxed{y(t) = \frac{1}{\mu(t)} \left[\int \mu(t)q(t) dt + c \right]}. \quad (2.5)$$

Definition 2.1. *If such a function $\mu(t)$ exists satisfying (2.3), then we call $\mu(t)$ the integrating factor.*

But does such a function $\mu(t)$ exist? If it doesn't then this is a useless method. What is the equation satisfied by μ ? From (2.3) we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(t)y'(t) - \mu(t)p(t)y(t) &= \frac{d}{dt}(\mu y) = \mu'(t)y(t) + \mu(t)y'(t) \\ \Rightarrow y(t) \left(\frac{d\mu}{dt} + p(t)\mu(t) \right) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

The above equation is satisfied if $y(t) = 0$ or $\mu'(t) + p(t)\mu(t) = 0$. The first case $y(t) = 0$ is not desirable, since if the initial condition y_0 is non-zero, we have a contradiction. Therefore, we consider the second case and obtain the equation

$$\boxed{\frac{d\mu}{dt} = -p(t)\mu} \quad (2.6)$$

as the ODE for μ . But this type of equation has been encountered before. From Example 2, we see that the general solution is

$$\mu(t) = \kappa \exp\left(-\int p(t) dt\right), \quad \kappa \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}. \quad (2.7)$$

Take note of the minus sign! The question is what should we take the value of κ to be? Let us first substitute the formula (2.7) into the multiplied ODE (2.2):

$$\begin{aligned} & \kappa \exp\left(-\int p(t) dt\right) \frac{dy}{dt} - \kappa \exp\left(-\int p(t) dt\right) p(t)y(t) = \kappa \exp\left(-\int p(t) dt\right) q(t) \\ \Rightarrow & \kappa \frac{d}{dt} \left(e^{-\int p(t) dt} y(t)\right) = \kappa e^{-\int p(t) dt} q(t). \end{aligned}$$

It turns out that κ appears on both sides of the equation, and thus we can cancel out κ . In effect, we can choose $\kappa = 1$, which we will do so from now on. This implies that we take the integrating factor $\mu(t)$ to be

$$\boxed{\mu(t) = \exp\left(-\int p(t) dt\right)}, \quad (2.8)$$

and the general solution $y(t)$ to the ODE $y' = p(t)y + q(t)$ is given as

$$\boxed{y(t) = e^{\int p(t) dt} \left[\int e^{-\int p(t) dt} q(t) dt + c \right]}. \quad (2.9)$$

The particular solution and the constant c can be computed with the initial condition $y(t_0) = y_0$, which we will not do here.

Example 2.1. *Derive the general solution to the ODE*

$$t \frac{dy}{dt} + 2y = 4t^2.$$

Step 1. *Write the ODE in the form $y' = p(t)y + q(t)$ and identify p and q :*

$$t \frac{dy}{dt} + 2y = 4t^2 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{2}{t}y + 4t \Rightarrow p(t) = -\frac{2}{t}, \quad q(t) = 4t.$$

Step 2. *Compute the integrating factor $\mu(t)$:*

$$\mu(t) = \exp\left(-\int p(t) dt\right) = \exp\left(\int \frac{2}{t} dt\right) = t^2.$$

Step 3. *Plug into the formula (2.9)*

$$y(t) = \frac{1}{t^2} \left[\int t^2 \times 4t dt + c \right] = t^2 + \frac{c}{t^2}.$$

Remark 2.2. *The general solution $y(t) = t^2 + \frac{c}{t^2}$, for $c \neq 0$, is not defined at the point $t = 0$. So far in the course, we have not really discussed the interval of definition $I \subset \mathbb{R}$. In this case, the general solution is defined only for $t \in (-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$. If the graph of $y(t)$ is sketched we see that the graph has two parts, one to the left of the y -axis and one to the right of the y -axis. Which part we take depends on the initial condition.*

If we consider an initial condition $y(t_0) = y_0$, where $t_0 > 0$, then we choose the right part - since we can determine the arbitrary constant c in the general solution only in the interval $(0, \infty)$. In this case the interval of definition is $I = (0, \infty)$. Similarly, if $t_0 < 0$, then we choose the left part as the solution, with $I = (-\infty, 0)$. This example serves as a reminder that the solution $y(t)$ to ODEs may not be defined for all values of $t \in \mathbb{R}$, and the initial condition plays a role in determining the interval of definition.