

Reminders from last time:

A differential equation of the form

$$(L) \quad \frac{d^r y}{dt^r} + a_{r-1}(t) \frac{d^{r-1}y}{dt^{r-1}} + \dots + a_1(t) \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0(t)y = F(t)$$

is called linear. When $F = 0$, it is called homogeneous:

$$(H) \quad \frac{d^r y}{dt^r} + a_{r-1}(t) \frac{d^{r-1}y}{dt^{r-1}} + \dots + a_1(t) \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0(t)y = 0.$$

We have a basic Existence and Uniqueness Theorem:

Theorem. If a_{r-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0 are continuous on an open interval $I \subset \mathbb{R}$, then there exists a unique solution $\varphi: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of (H) satisfying the initial conditions

$$\varphi(t_0) = \varphi_0^{(0)}, \quad \frac{d\varphi}{dt}(t_0) = \varphi_0^{(1)}, \quad \dots, \quad \frac{d^{r-1}\varphi}{dt^{r-1}}(t_0) = \varphi_0^{(r-1)}$$

(here $t_0 \in I$, and $\varphi_0^{(0)}, \dots, \varphi_0^{(r-1)}$ are real numbers.)

As a consequence, we have shown

Theorem (Principle of Superposition) The set of solutions of (H) has the structure of an r -dimensional vector space; the map

$$\Psi_{t_0}: \varphi \mapsto \left(\varphi(t_0), \frac{d\varphi}{dt}(t_0), \dots, \frac{d^{r-1}\varphi}{dt^{r-1}}(t_0) \right)$$

is an isomorphism for every $t_0 \in I$.

Remarks. 1) The Principle of Superposition is the following statement: If φ_1 and φ_2 are solutions of (H) , and $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\alpha_1\varphi_1 + \alpha_2\varphi_2$ is again a solution of (H) . In other words, the set of solutions of (H) is a vector space; given two solutions, we may superpose them.

2) The somewhat vague "rule of thumb" from the beginning, namely that solutions to differential equations of order r tend to come in families that depend on r parameters, is made completely precise in the above theorem. There is an r -dimensional vector space of solutions to (H) , and we can think of the inverse $\Psi_{t_0}^{-1}$ as "picking out a solution using initial conditions":

$\bar{\Psi}_{t_0}^{-1} : \underbrace{(\varphi_0^{(0)}, \varphi_0^{(1)}, \dots, \varphi_0^{(r-1)})}_{\text{chosen initial conditions at } t_0} \mapsto \varphi$

Solution satisfying

$$\varphi(t_0) = \varphi_0^{(0)}, \frac{d\varphi}{dt}(t_0) = \varphi_0^{(1)}, \dots,$$

$$\frac{d^{r-1}\varphi}{dt^{r-1}}(t_0) = \varphi_0^{(r-1)}$$

As a reminder, every isomorphism
 $L: V \rightarrow W$ has an inverse map, a
linear map $L^{-1}: W \rightarrow V$ that satisfies
 $L \circ L^{-1} = \text{Id}_W$ and $L^{-1} \circ L = \text{Id}_V$.

Some more terminology:

Def. If $a_{r-1}(t), \dots, a_1(t), a_0(t)$ are constant functions,
then (t) is said to have constant coefficients;
otherwise, (t) is said to have time-varying
coefficients.

Def. A basis of the space of solutions of (t)
is called a fundamental set of solutions.

Here are a few examples of problems that give rise to linear differential equations.

First order

► Compound Interest

Let $y(t)$ = Amount of funds in a bank account at time t .

y is said to accrue compound interest at a constant rate of $100 \cdot k$ percent per annum if it satisfies the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = ky.$$

The rate may depend on time. For example,

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \left(1 + \frac{\cos(t)}{10}\right) y$$

models a rate that has a minor periodic oscillation about 1 percent/annum.

► Radioactive decay

$y(t)$ = Mass of material undergoing radioactive decay.

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -ky$$

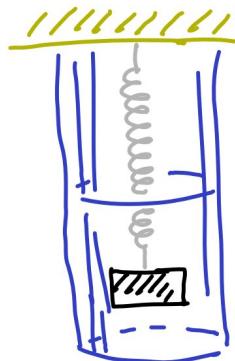
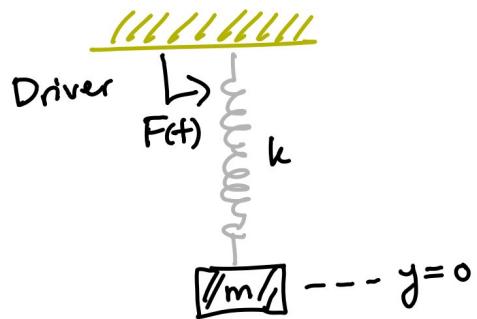
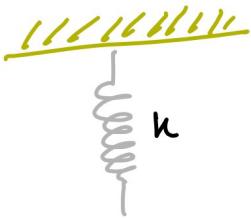
↑
Constant of proportionality
typically determined by half-life.

► Numerous other applications

Second order

► Damped harmonic oscillator

medium with
higher damping



Attaching a mass to a spring will stretch the spring to a new equilibrium point to balance the force of gravity on m . Let $y=0$ be the new equilibrium point.

The forces on the mass are

- Restoring force due to the spring
 $-ky(t)$ (Hooke's Law)
/

Spring constant

- Damping of the medium (or damper)

$$-d\dot{y}(t) \quad \begin{matrix} \leftarrow \text{Reminder:} \\ \dot{y} = \frac{dy}{dt}, \\ \ddot{y} = \frac{d^2y}{dt^2}, \dots \end{matrix}$$

↑
Damping
Constant

- Force due to driver or motor
 $F(t).$

Combining these, Newton's Second Law gives

$$m\ddot{y}(t) = F(t) - d\dot{y}(t) - ky(t), \quad \text{or}$$

$$m\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + d\frac{dy}{dt} + ky = F(t). \quad \text{In standard form,}$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + \frac{d}{m}\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{k}{m}y = \frac{F(t)}{m}.$$

This is a second-order linear differential equation with constant coefficients.

An interesting variant with time-varying coefficients arises if the mass is a function of time. Then Newton's Second Law is

$$F = \dot{p} = \frac{d}{dt}(m\dot{y}) = m\ddot{y} + \dot{m}\dot{y}$$

Momentum

and the governing equation is

$$m(t) \frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + (m(t) + d) \frac{dy}{dt} + ky = F(t).$$

► RLC circuit

This is a circuit made up of the following elements:



Resistor

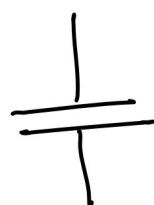
$$V = IR$$

(Ohm's Law)



Inductor

$$V = L\dot{I}$$

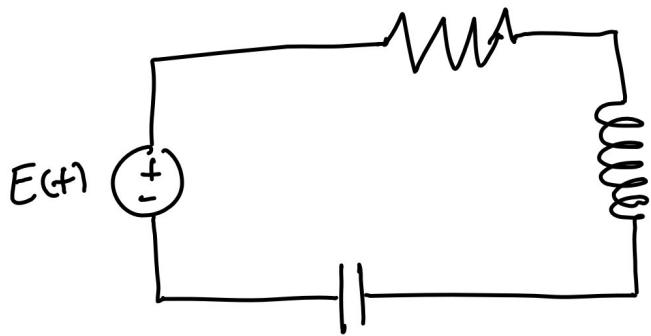


Capacitor

$$V = \frac{q}{C}$$

Here $q(t)$ = charge

$I(t)$ = current = $\dot{q}(t)$.



By Kirchoff's Voltage Law, the sum of voltage drops as we go around a loop is zero.
 (This is just conservation of energy).

So $q(t)$ satisfies the differential equation

$$L \frac{d^2 q}{dt^2} + R \frac{dq}{dt} + \frac{1}{C} q = E(t).$$

Differentiating, the current $I(t)$ satisfies the differential equation

$$L \frac{d^2 I}{dt^2} + R \frac{dI}{dt} + \frac{1}{C} I = \frac{dE}{dt}(t).$$

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Methods of Establishing Linear Independence in $C^r(I, \mathbb{R})$

Method 1: Proceed directly from the definition of linear independence:

Show that if functions f_1, \dots, f_k in $C^r(I, \mathbb{R})$ satisfy

$$\alpha_1 f_1 + \dots + \alpha_k f_k = 0$$

for some $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_k = 0.$$

Example. Look at the equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + y = 0$$

The simple
Harmonic
Oscillator
(no damping:
 $d=0$)

We noticed before that

$$q_1(t) = \sin(t) \text{ and}$$

$$q_2(t) = \cos(t)$$

are two solutions. If we check that they are linearly independent, we'll have a basis for solutions (since the equation has order 2, the space of solutions is two-dimensional).

We check that $\sin(t)$ and $\cos(t)$ are linearly independent (as elements of $C^r(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$):

Suppose

$$\alpha_1 \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \alpha_2 = 0$$

$$\alpha_1 \sin(t) + \alpha_2 \cos(t) = 0 \quad \text{for all } t.$$

At $t=0$, the equality is

$$0 = \alpha_1 \sin(0) + \alpha_2 \cos(0) = 0 + \alpha_2 \cdot 1$$

At $t=\frac{\pi}{2}$, the equality is

$$0 = \alpha_1 \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + \alpha_2 \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \alpha_1 \cdot 1 + \alpha_2 \cdot 0$$

Therefore, $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0$. $\{\sin(t), \cos(t)\}$ is linearly independent.

Aside:

Only for the interested, here is a general version of this computation that does not involve a particular choice of two points.

If we picked another pair of points t_0 and t_1 , we would find

$$0 = \alpha_1 \sin(t_0) + \alpha_2 \cos(t_0)$$

$$0 = \alpha_1 \sin(t_1) + \alpha_2 \cos(t_1). \quad \text{This can be written as the matrix equation}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sin(t_0) & \cos(t_0) \\ \sin(t_1) & \cos(t_1) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We compute that

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \sin(t_0) & \cos(t_0) \\ \sin(t_1) & \cos(t_1) \end{pmatrix} = \sin(t_0)\cos(t_1) - \cos(t_0)\sin(t_1) \\ = \sin(t_0 - t_1)$$

If $t_0 - t_1 \neq k\pi$ for any integer k ,

then the above determinant is not zero,
which implies that $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

If $t_0 - t_1 = k\pi$, we made a particularly poor choice of points, and the above argument would not work.

Method 2: Wronskians

Def. For $f_1, \dots, f_r \in C^{r-1}(I, \mathbb{R})$, their Wronskian is the function

$$W(f_1, \dots, f_r)(t) = \det \begin{pmatrix} f_1 & \cdots & f_r \\ \frac{df_1}{dt} & \cdots & \frac{df_r}{dt} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{d^{r-1}f_1}{dt^{r-1}} & \cdots & \frac{d^{r-1}f_r}{dt^{r-1}} \end{pmatrix}$$

with domain I .

Example. $f_1(t) = \sin(t)$ in $C^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$
 $f_2(t) = \cos(t)$

$$W(\sin(t), \cos(t))(t) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \sin(t) & \cos(t) \\ \cos(t) & -\sin(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= -\sin^2(t) - \cos^2(t) \\ &= -(\sin^2(t) + \cos^2(t)) \\ &= -1 \quad \text{for all } t. \end{aligned}$$

We shall return to Wronskians and their properties next class.

Have a good weekend, everyone !!