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Mh4718 Week 8

Week 8

0.1 Solving Differential Equations

We will consider only differential equations which can be written in the form:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = F(x, y).$$

Examples:

$$-\frac{dy}{dx} = y, \text{ that is } F(x,y) = y.$$

$$-\frac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{1-y^2}, \text{ that is } F(x,y) = \sqrt{1-y^2}.$$

$$-\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2y}{x}, \text{ that is } F(x,y) = \frac{2y}{x}.$$

If f(x) is a solution for the equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = F(x, y)$ then

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = F(x, f(x))$$

In general there is more than one solution to a well formed differential equation. For example, $y = e^x$ and $y = 3e^x$ are both solutions of the d.e. $\frac{dy}{dx} = y$. In fact, it is easy to see there are infinitely many solutions to this d.e. In order to pick out a unique solution we need to specify what are known as *initial values* for a solution. That is, we must specify one value which a solution must have at a particular point.

For example if we said that we want a solution of $\frac{dy}{dx} = y$ with y(0) = 1 then we see that $y = e^x$ satisfies the equations and has y(0) = 1 but $y = 3e^x$ does not have the required so-called initial values.

Note that specifying initial values is the same as specifying a point which must be on the graph of the solution.

(0,1) is on the graph of $y = e^x$ but is not on the graph of $3e^x$.

A differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = F(x, y)$ together with initial values $y(x_0) = y_0$ is called an *initial value problem*. (IVP)

If certain conditions are fulfilled, an initial value problem has precisely one solution. We have the following theorem:

Theorem 0.1

If F and $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}F(x,y)$ are continuous in a rectangle containing the point (x_0, y_0) then the initial value problem

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = F(x, y), \quad y(x_0) = y_0$$

has a unique solution y = f(x) defined in some open interval around x_0 .

The initial value problem supplies us with enough information to determine the Taylor expansion around the initial value x_0 for the unique solution.

Example 0.2

(i) We already know that the IVP $\frac{dy}{dx} = y, y(0) = 1$ has solution $y = e^x$. but we can construct the Taylor series around 0 for this solution from the IVP as follows:

$$y(x) = y(0) + y^{(1)}(0)x + y^{(2)}(0)\frac{x^2}{2!} + y^{(3)}(0)\frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

Using this notation the IVP is

$$y^{(1)}(x) = y(x), y(0) = 1.$$

And so we have

$$y(0) = 1$$

$$y^{(1)}(x) = y \Rightarrow y^{(1)}(0) = y(0) = 1$$

$$y^{(2)}(x) = y^{(1)}(x) = y \Rightarrow y^{(2)}(0) = y(0) = 1$$

$$y^{(3)}(x) = y^{(2)}(x) = y \Rightarrow y^{(3)}(0) = y(0) = 1$$

Continuing like this we have

$$y(0) = 1, y^{(1)}(0) = 1, y^{(2)}(0) = 1, y^{(3)}(0) = 1, y^{(4)} = 1...$$

and so we get the Taylor series

$$1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

which we recognise as the Taylor series for e^x .

If we didn't know it already we could now conclude that the solution $y(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots = e^x$

(ii) Consider the IVP

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2y}{x}, \quad y(1) = 1.$$

We can attempt to solve this using a Taylor series again.

$$\begin{split} y(1) &= 1, \\ y^{(1)}(x) &= \frac{2y(x)}{x} \Rightarrow y^{(1)}(1) = \frac{2y(1)}{1} = \frac{2}{1} = 2 \\ y^{(2)}(x) &= \frac{2y^{(1)}x - 2y}{x^2} = \frac{2\frac{2y}{x}x - 2y}{x^2} = \frac{4y - 2y}{x^2} = \frac{2y}{x^2} \\ y^{(2)}(1) &= \frac{2}{1} = 2 \\ y^{(3)}(x) &= \frac{2y^{(1)}x^2 - 4yx}{x^4} = \frac{2\frac{2y}{x}x^2 - 4yx}{x^4} = \frac{4yx - 4yx}{x^4} = 0 \end{split}$$

Therefore we get the finite Taylor expansion

$$y(x) = 1 + 2(x - 1) + 2\frac{(x - 1)^2}{2!} = x^2$$