

MATRIX
Multiplication
 $A(Cx) = cAx$
 $\in \text{LINEAR}$

Linear Functions

A function f is linear if $f(ax + by) = af(x) + bf(y)$

Or equivalently f is linear if 1.) $f(ax) = af(x)$ and
 2.) $f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{y})$

Theorem: If f is linear, then $f(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$

Proof: $f(\mathbf{0}) = f(0 \cdot \mathbf{0}) = 0 \cdot f(\mathbf{0}) = 0$

Example 1a.) $f: R \rightarrow R$, $f(x) = 2x$

Proof: $f(ax + by) = 2(ax + by) = 2ax + 2by = af(x) + bf(y)$

Example 1b.) $f: R \rightarrow R$, $f(x) = 2x + 3$ is NOT linear.

Proof: $f(2 \cdot 0) = f(0) = 3$, but $2f(0) = 2 \cdot 3 = 6$.

Hence $f(2 \cdot 0) \neq 2f(0)$

Alternate Proof: $f(0 + 1) = f(1) = 5$, but
 $f(0) + f(1) = 3 + 5 = 8$. Hence $f(0 + 1) \neq f(0) + f(1)$

Note confusing notation: Most lines, $f(x) = mx + b$
 are not linear functions.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{MATRIX} \\ \text{Multiplication} \\ \in \text{LINEAR} \end{array} \right\} A(x+y) = Ax + Ay \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{MATRIX} \\ \text{Multiplication} \\ \in \text{LINEAR} \end{array} \right\} A(cx) = cAx$$

Question: When is a line, $f(x) = mx + b$, a linear function?

Example 2.) $f: R^2 \rightarrow R^2$,
 $f((x_1, x_2)) = (2x_1, x_1 + x_2)$ ↳ NOT LINEAR

Proof: Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$, $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{ax} + \mathbf{by} &= a(x_1, x_2) + b(y_1, y_2) = (ax_1, ax_2) + (by_1, by_2) = \boxed{\mathbf{0}} \\ (ax_1 + by_1, ax_2 + by_2) &\\ f(ax_1 + by_1, ax_2 + by_2) &\\ &= (2(ax_1 + by_1), ax_1 + by_1 + ax_2 + by_2) \\ &= (2ax_1 + 2by_1, ax_1 + ax_2 + by_1 + by_2) \\ &= (2ax_1, ax_1 + ax_2) + (2by_1, by_1 + by_2) \\ &= a(2x_1, x_1 + x_2) + b(2y_1, y_1 + y_2) \\ &= af((x_1, x_2)) + bf((y_1, y_2)) \end{aligned}$$

Example 3.) D : set of all differential functions → set of all functions, $D(f) = f'$

Proof:
 $D(af + bg) = (af + bg)' = af' + bg' = aD(f) + bD(g)$

In this class

scalar = constant real #

$$\alpha y'' + \beta y' + cy = 0$$

$$L(\psi_i) = \alpha \psi_i'' + \beta \psi_i' + c \psi_i = 0$$

LINÉAR COMB OF SOLNS ARE SOLNS

Consequence 1: If ψ_1, ψ_2 are solutions to $af'' + bf' + cf = 0$, then $3\psi_1 + 5\psi_2$ is also a solution to $af'' + bf' + cf = 0$

$$\text{Proof: } I(sf + tg) = \int_a^b sf + t \int_a^b g = sI(f) + tI(g)$$

Example 4.) Given a, b real numbers,
 $I : \text{set of all integrable functions on } [a, b] \rightarrow R$,
 $I(f) = \int_a^b f$

$$\text{Proof: } I(sf + tg) = \int_a^b sf + t \int_a^b g =$$

Example 5.) The inverse of a linear function is linear
 (when the inverse exists).

$$\text{Suppose } f^{-1}(x) = c, f^{-1}(y) = d.$$

$$\text{Then } f(c) = x \text{ and } f(d) = y \text{ and}$$

$$f(ac + bd) = af(c) + bf(d) = ax + by.$$

$$\text{Hence } f^{-1}(ax + by) = ac + bd = af^{-1}(x) + bf^{-1}(y).$$

Example 6.) D : set of all twice differentiable functions
 → set of all functions, $L(f) = a f'' + b f' + cf$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} L(sf + tg) &= a(sf + tg)'' + b(sf + tg)' + c(sf + tg) \\ &= saf'' + tag'' + sbf' + tbg' + scf + tcg \\ &= s(af'' + bf' + cf) + t(ag'' + bg' + cg) \\ &= sL(f) + tL(g) \end{aligned}$$

Proof: Since ψ_1, ψ_2 are solutions to $af'' + bf' + cf = 0$,
 $L(\psi_1) = 0$ and $L(\psi_2) = 0$.

$$\text{Hence } L(3\psi_1 + 5\psi_2) = 3L(\psi_1) + 5L(\psi_2)$$

Thus $3\psi_1 + 5\psi_2$ is also a solution to $af'' + bf' + cf = 0$

Consequence 2:

If ψ_1 is a solution to $af'' + bf' + cf = h$
 and ψ_2 is a solution to $af'' + bf' + cf = k$,
 then $3\psi_1 + 5\psi_2$ is a solution to $af'' + bf' + cf = 3h + 5k$,

Since ψ_1 is a solution to $af'' + bf' + cf = h$, $L(\psi_1) = h$.
 Since ψ_2 is a solution to $af'' + bf' + cf = k$, $L(\psi_2) = k$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } L(3\psi_1 + 5\psi_2) &= 3L(\psi_1) + 5L(\psi_2) \\ &= 3h + 5k. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $3\psi_1 + 5\psi_2$ is also a solution to
 $af'' + bf' + cf = 3h + 5k$

non homogeneous

4

3.5, 3.6

3

Ch 3, 1, 2, 4

Summary of sections 3.1, 3, 4: Solve linear homogeneous 2nd order DE with constant coefficients.

a, b, c constants

Solve $ay'' + by' + cy = 0$ Educated guess $y = e^{rt}$, then

$ar^2e^{rt} + bre^{rt} + ce^{rt} = 0$ implies $ar^2 + br + c = 0$,

Suppose $r = r_1, r_2$ are solutions to $ar^2 + br + c = 0$

$$r_1, r_2 = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

If $r_1 \neq r_2$, then $b^2 - 4ac \neq 0$. Hence a general solution is $y = c_1 e^{r_1 t} + c_2 e^{r_2 t}$

3.1) 2 real solns

If $b^2 - 4ac > 0$, general solution is $y = c_1 e^{r_1 t} + c_2 e^{r_2 t}$.

3.3) 2 complex solns $r = d \pm in$

If $b^2 - 4ac < 0$, change format to linear combination of real-valued functions instead of complex valued functions by using Euler's formula.

general solution is $y = c_1 e^{dt} \cos(nt) + c_2 e^{dt} \sin(nt)$ where $r = d \pm in$

3.4) 1 real repeated root

If $b^2 - 4ac = 0$, $r_1 = r_2$, so need 2nd (independent) solution: $te^{r_1 t}$

Hence general solution is $y = c_1 e^{r_1 t} + c_2 te^{r_1 t}$.

Initial value problem: use $y(t_0) = y_0$, $y'(t_0) = y'_0$ to solve for c_1, c_2 to find unique solution.



Examples:

Ex 1: Solve $y'' - 3y' - 4y = 0$, $y(0) = 1$, $y'(0) = 2$.

If $y = e^{rt}$, then $y' = re^{rt}$ and $y'' = r^2e^{rt}$.
 $r^2e^{rt} - 3re^{rt} - 4e^{rt} = 0$

$r^2 - 3r - 4 = 0$ implies $(r-4)(r+1) = 0$. Thus $r = 4, -1$

Hence general solution is $y = c_1 e^{4t} + c_2 e^{-t}$

Solution to IVP:

Need to solve for 2 unknowns, c_1 & c_2 ; thus need 2 eqns:

$$y = c_1 e^{4t} + c_2 e^{-t}, \quad y(0) = 1 \quad \text{implies} \quad 1 = c_1 + c_2$$

$$y' = 4c_1 e^{4t} - c_2 e^{-t}, \quad y'(0) = 2 \quad \text{implies} \quad 2 = 4c_1 - c_2$$

$$\text{Thus } 3 = 5c_1 \text{ & hence } c_1 = \frac{3}{5} \text{ and } c_2 = 1 - c_1 = 1 - \frac{3}{5} = \frac{2}{5}$$

Thus IVP soln: $y = \frac{3}{5}e^{4t} + \frac{2}{5}e^{-t}$

Ex 2: Solve $y'' - 3y' + 4y = 0$. Sect 3.3

$y = e^{rt}$ implies $r^2 - 3r + 4 = 0$ and hence

$$r = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{(-3)^2 - 4(1)(4)}}{2} = \frac{3}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{9-16}}{2} = \left(\frac{3}{2}\right) \pm i\frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}$$

Hence general sol'n is $y = c_1 e^{\frac{3}{2}t} \cos\left(\frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}t\right) + c_2 e^{\frac{3}{2}t} \sin\left(\frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}t\right)$

Ex 3: $y'' - 6y' + 9y = 0$ implies $r^2 - 6r + 9 = (r-3)^2 = 0$

Repeated root, $r = 3$ implies

general solution is $y = c_1 e^{3t} + c_2 t e^{3t}$

Sect 3.4

So why did we guess $y = e^{rt}$?

F Y I

Goal: Solve linear homogeneous 2nd order DE with constant coefficients,

$$ay'' + by' + cy = 0 \text{ where } a, b, c \text{ are constants}$$

Standard mathematical technique: make up simpler problems and see if you can generalize to the problem of interest.

Ex: linear homogeneous 1rst order DE: $y' + 2y = 0$

integrating factor $u(t) = e^{\int 2dt} = e^{2t}$

$$y'e^{2t} + 2e^{2t}y = 0$$

$$(e^{2t}y)' = 0. \text{ Thus } \int (e^{2t}y)' dt = \int 0 dt. \text{ Hence } e^{2t}y = C$$

So $y = Ce^{-2t}$.

Thus exponential function could also be a solution to a linear homogeneous 2nd order DE

Ex: Simple linear homog 2nd order DE $y'' + 2y' = 0$.

Let $v = y'$, then $v' = y''$

$$y'' + 2y' = 0 \text{ implies } v' + 2v = 0 \text{ implies } v = e^{2t}.$$

$$\text{Thus } v = y' = \frac{dy}{dt} = Ce^{-2t}. \text{ Hence } dy = Ce^{-2t}dt \text{ and}$$

$$y = c_1 e^{-2t} + c_2$$

$$y = c_1 e^{-2t} + c_2.$$

Note 2 integrations give us 2 constants.

$$y'' + 2y' = 0$$

$$r^2 + 2r = 0$$

$$r(r+2) = 0$$

Note also that we ~~the~~ the general solution is a linear combination of two solutions:

Let $c_1 = 1, c_2 = 0$, then we see, $y(t) = e^{-2t}$ is a solution.

Let $c_1 = 0, c_2 = 1$, then we see, $y(t) = 1$ is a solution.

$$y(t) = e^{0t} \quad r=0$$

The general solution is a linear combination of two solutions:

$$y = c_1 e^{-2t} + c_2(1).$$

Recall: you have seen this before:

Solve linear homogeneous matrix equation $Ay = 0$.

The general solution is a linear combination of linearly independent vectors that span the solution space:

$$\mathbf{y} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots c_n \mathbf{v}_n$$

FYI: You could see this again:

Math 4050: Solve homogeneous linear recurrence relation $x_n - x_{n-1} - x_{n-2} = 0$ where $x_1 = 1$ and $x_2 = 1$.

Fibonacci sequence: $x_n = x_{n-1} + x_{n-2}$

$$1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \dots$$

Note $x_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n$

Proof: $x_n = x_{n-1} + x_{n-2}$ implies $x_n - x_{n-1} - x_{n-2} = 0$

Guess
Suppose $x_n = r^n$. Then $x_{n-1} = r^{n-1}$ and $x_{n-2} = r^{n-2}$

Then $0 = x_n - x_{n-1} - x_{n-2} = r^n - r^{n-1} - r^{n-2}$

Thus $r^{n-2}(r^2 - r - 1) = 0$.

Thus either $r = 0$ or $r = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1-4(1)(-1)}}{2} = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$

Thus $x_n = 0$, $x_n = \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n$ and $f_n = \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n$

are 3 different sequences that satisfy the
homog linear recurrence relation: $x_n - x_{n-1} - x_{n-2} = 0$.

Hence $x_n = c_1 \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n + c_2 \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n$ also satisfies this
homogeneous linear recurrence relation.

Suppose the initial conditions are $x_1 = 1$ and $x_2 = 1$

Then for $n = 1$: $x_1 = 1$ implies $c_1 + c_2 = 1$

For $n = 2$: $x_2 = 1$ implies $c_1 \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) + c_2 \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) = 1$

We can solve this for c_1 and c_2 to determine that

$$x_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n$$