

# Chapter 2: First-Order Differential Equations – Part 1

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September 18, 2013

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- 2 Solution Curves without a Solution
- 3 A Numerical Method
- 4 Separable Equations
- 5 Linear Equations
  - Method
  - Discontinuous Coefficients
  - Solutions/Functions Defined by Integrals
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# First-Order Differential Equation

Throughout Chapter 2, we focus on solving the first-order ODE:

## Problem

Find  $y = \phi(x)$  satisfying

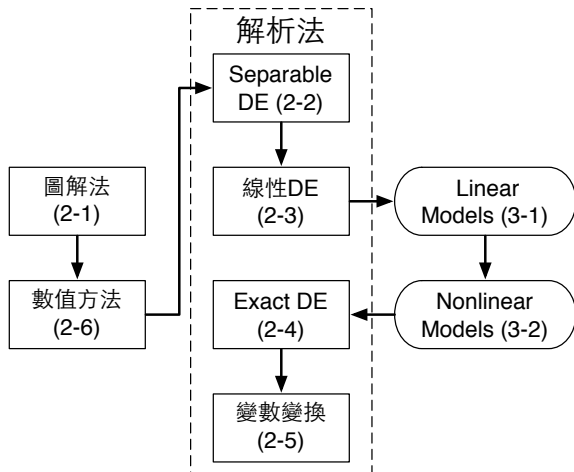
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y), \text{ subject to } y(x_0) = y_0 \quad (1)$$

# Methods of Solving First-Order ODE

- 1 Graphical Method (2-1)
- 2 Numerical Method (2-6, 9)
- 3 Analytic Method
  - Take antiderivative (*Calculus I, II*)
  - Separable Equations (2-2)
  - Solving Linear Equations (2-3)
  - Solving Exact Equations (2-4)
  - Solutions by Substitutions (2-5):  
homogeneous equations, Bernoulli's equation,  $y' = Ax + By + C$ .
- 4 Series Solution (6)
- 5 Transformation
  - Laplace Transform (7)
  - Fourier Series (11)
  - Fourier Transform (14)

## Organization of Lectures in Chapter 2 and 3

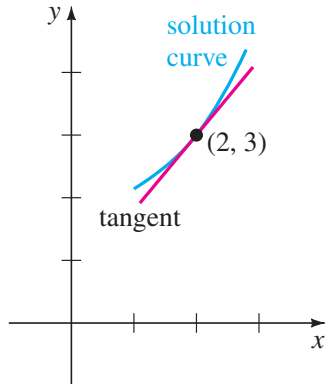
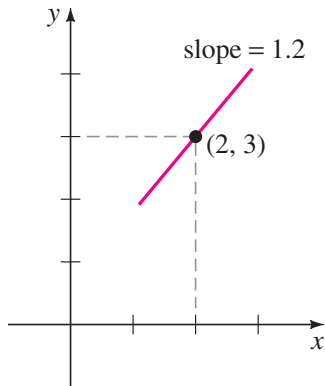
We will not follow the order in the textbook. Instead,



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## Example 1 (Zill&Wright p.36, Fig. 2.1.1.)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0.2xy$$





# Direction Fields

## Key Observation

On the  $xy$ -plane, at a point  $(x_n, y_n)$ , the first-order derivative

$$\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=x_n}$$

is the slope of the tangent line of the curve  $y(x)$  at  $(x_n, y_n)$ .

Hence, at every point on the  $xy$ -plane, one can *in principle* sketch an arrow indicating the direction of the tangent line.

From the initial point  $(x_0, y_0)$ , one can connect all the arrows one by one and then sketch the solution curve. (土法煉鋼!)

## Example 1 (Zill&Wright p.37, Fig. 2.1.3.)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0.2xy$$

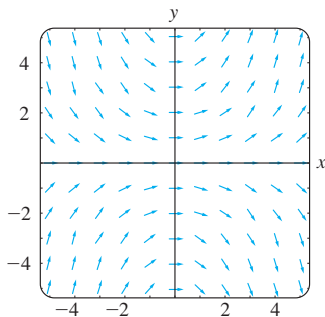


Figure : Direction Field

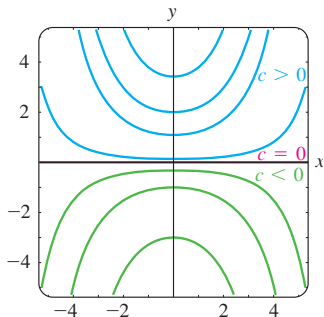
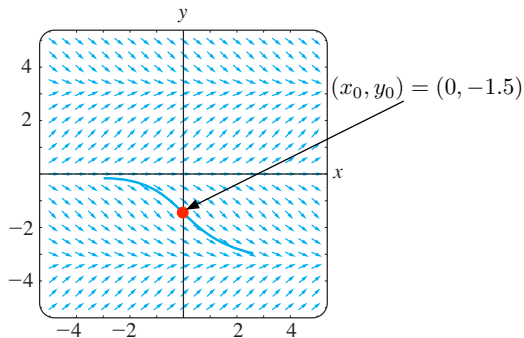


Figure : Family of Solution Curves

## Example 2 (Zill&Wright p.37-38, Fig. 2.1.4.)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin y, \quad y(0) = -1.5$$



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# Euler's Method

The graphical method of “connecting arrows” on the directional field can be mathematically thought of as follows:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Initial Point:} & & (x_0, y_0) \\ \text{\textit{x} Increment:} & & x_1 = x_0 + h \\ \text{\textit{y} Increment:} & & y_1 = y_0 + h \left( \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=x_0} \right) = y_0 + hf(x_0, y_0) \\ \text{Second Point:} & & (x_1, y_1) \\ & \vdots & \vdots \end{array}$$

# Euler's Method

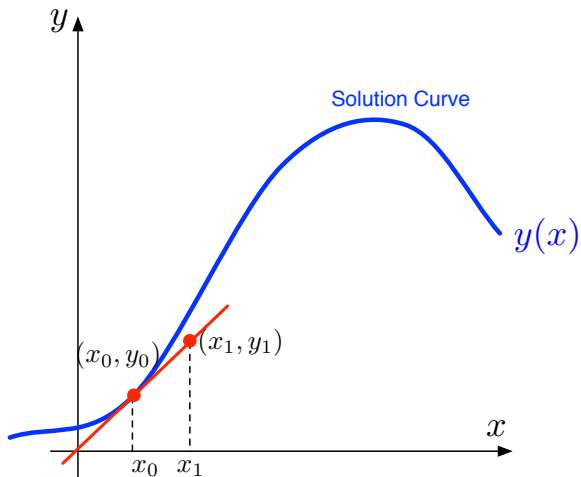
## Recursive Formula

Let  $h > 0$  be the recursive step size,

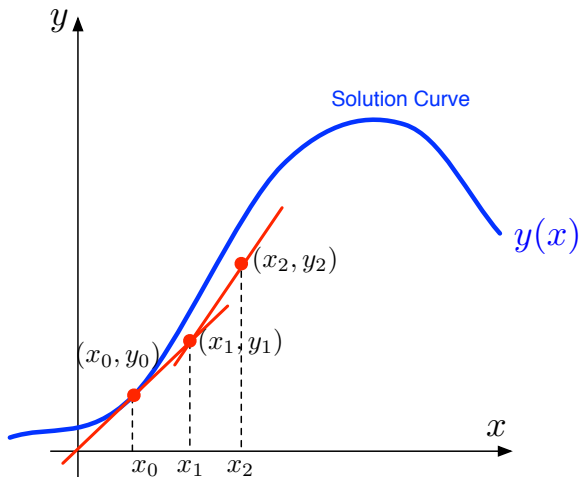
$$x_{n+1} = x_n + h, \quad y_{n+1} = y_n + hf(x_n, y_n), \quad \forall n \geq 0$$

$$x_{n-1} = x_n - h, \quad y_{n-1} = y_n - hf(x_n, y_n), \quad \forall n \leq 0$$

# Illustration

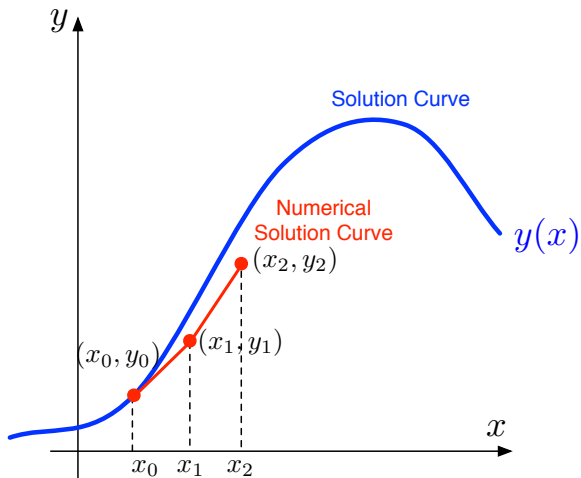


# Illustration





# Illustration



## Remarks

- The approximate numerical solution converges to the actual solution as  $h \rightarrow 0$ .
- Euler's method is just one simple numerical method for solving differential equations. Chapter 9 of the textbook introduces more advanced methods.

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# Solving (1) Analytically

Recall the first-order ODE (1) we would like to solve

## Problem

Find  $y = \phi(x)$  satisfying

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y), \text{ subject to } y(x_0) = y_0 \quad (1)$$

We start by inspecting the equation and see if we can identify some **special structure** of it.

## When $f(x, y)$ depends only on $x$

If  $f(x, y) = g(x)$ , then by what we learn in Calculus I & II,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x) \implies y(x) = \int_{x_0}^x g(t) dt + y_0$$

### Method: Direct Integration

In the first-order ODE (1), if  $f(x, y) = g(x)$  only depends on  $x$ , it can be solved by directly integrating the function  $g(x)$ .

## When $f(x, y)$ depends only on $x$

### Example

Solve

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} + e^x, \text{ subject to } y(-1) = 0.$$

A: From calculus we know that the

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln |x|, \quad \int e^x dx = e^x$$

Plugging in the initial condition, we have

$$y(x) = \ln |x| + e^x - \frac{1}{e}, \quad x < 0.$$

## When $f(x, y)$ depends only on $y$

If  $f(x, y) = h(y)$ , then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = h(y) \implies \frac{dy}{h(y)} = dx \xRightarrow{\text{integrate both sides}} \int_{y_0}^y \frac{dy}{h(y)} = x - x_0$$

Assume that the antiderivative (不定積分、反導函數) of  $1/h(y)$  is  $H(y)$ .  
 That is,

$$\int \frac{1}{h(y)} dy = H(y).$$

Then, we have

$$H(y) - H(y_0) = x - x_0 \implies y(x) = H^{-1}(x - x_0 + H(y_0))$$

## When $f(x, y)$ depends only on $y$

### Example

$$\text{Solve } \frac{dy}{dx} = (y - 1)^2.$$

A: Use the same principle, we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = (y - 1)^2 \implies \frac{dy}{(y - 1)^2} = dx, \quad y \neq 1$$

$$\implies \frac{1}{1 - y} = x + c, \quad \text{for some constant } c$$

$$\implies y = 1 - \frac{1}{x + c}, \quad \text{for some constant } c, \text{ or } y = 1$$

**Note:** How about the constant function  $y = 1$ ?

$\implies y = 1$  is called a **singular solution**.



# Table of Integrals

## Function

$$u^n$$

$$u^{-1}$$

$$a^u$$

$$\sin u$$

$$\cos u$$

$$\tan u$$

$$\cot u$$

$$\frac{1}{a^2 + u^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}$$

⋮

## Antiderivative

$$\frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} + C, \quad n \neq -1$$

$$\ln |u| + C$$

$$\frac{a^u}{\ln a} + C$$

$$-\cos u + C$$

$$\sin u + C$$

$$-\ln |\cos u| + C$$

$$\ln |\sin u| + C$$

$$\frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C$$

$$\sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C$$

⋮

# Separable Equations: $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$

## Definition (Separable Equations)

If in (1) the function  $f(x, y)$  on the right hand side takes the form  $f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$ , we call the first-order ODE **separable**, or to have **separable variables**.

## Example (Are the following equations separable?)

- $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y$  No.
- $\frac{dy}{dx} = e^{x+y}$  Yes.
- $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y + xy + 1$  Yes,  $\because x + y + xy + 1 = (x + 1)(y + 1)$ .
- $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y + xy$  No.

# Separable Equations: $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$

## General Procedure of Solving a Separable DE

- 1 分別移項:  $\frac{dy}{h(y)} = g(x) dx$ . 若分母  $h(y) = 0$ , singular solutions!
- 2 兩邊積分:  $\int \frac{dy}{h(y)} = \int g(x) dx \implies H(y) = G(x) + c$ .
- 3 代入條件:  $c = H(y_0) - G(x_0)$ .
- 4 取反函數:  $y = H^{-1}(G(x) + H(y_0) - G(x_0))$ .  
Don't forget to check singular solutions!

## Example

### Example

Solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = k\frac{x}{y}$  subject to (i)  $k = -1, y(-1) = -1$ ; (ii)  $k = 1, y(0) = 1$ .

$$A: \frac{dy}{dx} = k\frac{x}{y} \implies \int y \, dy = \int kx \, dx \implies y^2 = kx^2 + c.$$

Note that we require  $y \neq 0$  so that the derivate  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  is well-defined.

- (i) Plug in the initial condition, we have:  $c = 1 + 1 = 2$ .  
Hence  $y = -\sqrt{2 - x^2}$ , for  $x \in (-\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2})$ .
- (ii) Plug in the initial condition, we have:  $c = 0 + 1 = 1$ .  
Hence  $y = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$ , for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

## Example

### Example

Solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x\sqrt{y}$  subject to  $y(0) = 0$ .

$$A: \frac{dy}{dx} = x\sqrt{y} \xrightarrow{y \neq 0} \int y^{-1/2} dy = \int x dx \implies 2\sqrt{y} = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + c.$$

Plug in the initial condition, we have  $c = 0 \implies y = x^4/16$ .

Check the singular solution  $y = 0$

$\implies y = 0$  is also a solution (trivial, singular).

Both  $y = x^4/16$  and  $y = 0$  are solutions to the initial-value problem.

## More Examples

### Example

Solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = e^{x+y}$ , subject to  $y(0) = 0$ .

### Example

Solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y + xy + 1$ , subject to  $y(0) = -1$ .

### Example

Solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2 + 1$ , subject to  $y(0) = 0$ .

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# Linear Equations

**Linear First-Order ODE:** such an ODE takes the following general form:

$$a_1(x) \frac{dy}{dx} + a_0(x)y = g(x).$$

## The Standard Form of a Linear First-Order ODE

Find  $y = \phi(x)$  satisfying

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = f(x), \text{ subject to } y(x_0) = y_0 \quad (2)$$



## Useful Observations

Consider the derivative of the product of  $y(x)$  and some function  $\mu(x)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d(\mu y)}{dx} &= \mu \frac{dy}{dx} + y \frac{d\mu}{dx} \\ &= \mu \{-P(x)y + f(x)\} + y \frac{d\mu}{dx} \quad (\text{Plug in (2)}) \\ &= \mu(x)f(x) + \left\{ \frac{d\mu}{dx} - P(x)\mu \right\} y \end{aligned}$$

**Observation:** If we can force the term  $\left\{ \frac{d\mu}{dx} - P(x)\mu \right\}$  to zero, then we can solve  $\mu(x)y(x)$  by directly integrating  $\mu(x)f(x)$ !

$\implies$  We need to solve an auxiliary (輔助的) DE first:  $\frac{d\mu}{dx} = P(x)\mu$ .

## Example

### Example (A Linear First-Order ODE, part 1)

Solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y$ ,  $y(0) = 2$ .

**Deriving the Auxiliary DE:**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{d(\mu y)}{dx} &= \mu \frac{dy}{dx} + y \frac{d\mu}{dx} \\
 &= \mu \{x + y\} + y \frac{d\mu}{dx} \quad (\text{Plug in } \frac{dy}{dx} = x + y) \\
 &= \mu x + \left\{ \frac{d\mu}{dx} + \mu \right\} y
 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

$\implies$  Auxiliary DE: find some  $\mu(x)$  such that  $\frac{d\mu}{dx} + \mu = 0$ .

## Solving an Auxiliary DE to Find an *Integrating Factor*

### Auxiliary DE

Find an  $\mu(x)$  satisfying

$$\frac{d\mu}{dx} = P(x)\mu$$

Note that we only need to find one such  $\mu$  (called an **integrating factor**)

A: This is easy to solve by [Separation of Variables](#):

$$\frac{d\mu}{\mu} = P(x)dx \implies \ln|\mu| = \int P(x)dx + c$$

We shall pick  $c = 0$  and restrict  $\mu$  to be positive to get one solution:

$$\mu(x) = e^{\int P(x)dx}.$$

## Example (continued)

### Example (A Linear First-Order ODE, part 2)

Solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y$ ,  $y(0) = 2$ .

**Solving the Auxiliary DE:** Find some  $\mu(x)$  such that  $\frac{d\mu}{dx} + \mu = 0$ .

This is easy to solve by [Separation of Variables](#):

$$\frac{d\mu}{\mu} = -dx \implies \ln |\mu| = -x + c \xrightarrow{c=0, \mu>0} \mu(x) = e^{-x}.$$

**Solving the Original DE:** Plugging  $\mu(x) = e^{-x}$  into (3), we have

$$\frac{d(e^{-x}y)}{dx} = xe^{-x}$$

$$\implies e^{-x}y = -xe^{-x} - e^{-x} + 3 \quad \text{Plug in } y(0) = 2 \text{ to find the constant } 3$$

$$\implies y = -x - 1 + 3e^x, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

# Singular Points

Consider a general linear first-order ODE:

$$a_1(x) \frac{dy}{dx} + a_0(x)y = g(x).$$

When rewriting the original linear equation into its standard form, that is, when we want to figure out how to represent  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  in terms of linear combinations of  $y$  and functions of  $x$ , we need to divide everything by the coefficient  $a_1(x)$ :

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{a_0(x)}{a_1(x)}y = \frac{g(x)}{a_1(x)}.$$

Here we implicitly impose the condition that  $a_1(x) \neq 0$ .  
The points at which  $a_1(x) = 0$  are called **singular points**.

# Solving the Linear First-Order ODE

## General Procedure of Solving a Linear First-Order ODE

- 1 寫成標準式: Rewrite the give ODE into the form  $\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = f(x)$ .  
若分母=0, exclude the singular points from the interval of solutions.
- 2 導出輔助式: Introduce an integrating factor  $\mu(x)$  and derive the auxiliary equation of  $\mu$  to find  $\mu$  such that  $\frac{d(\mu y)}{dx} = \mu(x)f(x)$ .
- 3 解輔助式: Find one  $\mu$  satisfying the auxiliary DE  $\frac{d\mu}{dx} = P(x)\mu$ .
- 4 解原式: Plug in the integrating factor  $\mu(x)$  we found and solve  $\mu(x)y$  by directly integrating  $\mu(x)f(x)$ .  
Check if the singular points can be included into the interval of solutions.

## Example

### Example (A Linear First-Order ODE, part 1)

Solve  $(x^2 - 9) \frac{dy}{dx} + xy = 0$ ,  $y(0) = 2$ .

**Deriving the Auxiliary DE:**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{d(\mu y)}{dx} &= \mu \frac{dy}{dx} + y \frac{d\mu}{dx} \\
 &= \mu \left\{ \frac{-xy}{x^2 - 9} \right\} + y \frac{d\mu}{dx} \quad (\text{Plug in } \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-xy}{x^2 - 9}, x \neq \pm 3) \\
 &= \left\{ \frac{d\mu}{dx} - \mu \frac{x}{x^2 - 9} \right\} y \quad (4)
 \end{aligned}$$

$\implies$  Auxiliary DE: find some  $\mu(x)$  such that  $\frac{d\mu}{dx} - \mu \frac{x}{x^2 - 9} = 0$ .

## Example (continued)

### Example (A Linear First-Order ODE, part 2)

Solve  $(x^2 - 9) \frac{dy}{dx} + xy = 0$ ,  $y(0) = 2$ .

**Solving the Auxiliary DE:** Find some  $\mu(x)$  such that  $\frac{d\mu}{dx} - \mu \frac{x}{x^2 - 9} = 0$ .

$$\frac{d\mu}{\mu} = \frac{x}{x^2 - 9} dx = \left\{ \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{x - 3} + \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{x + 3} \right\} dx$$

$$\implies \ln |\mu| = \frac{1}{2} \ln |x - 3| + \frac{1}{2} \ln |x + 3|$$

$$\implies \mu(x) = \sqrt{9 - x^2}, \quad -3 < x < 3 \quad (\text{Because initial point is } x = 0!)$$



## Example (continued)

### Example (A Linear First-Order ODE, part 3)

Solve  $(x^2 - 9) \frac{dy}{dx} + xy = 0$ ,  $y(0) = 2$ .

**Solving the Original DE:** Plugging  $\mu(x) = \sqrt{9 - x^2}$  into (4), we have

$$\frac{d(\sqrt{9 - x^2}y)}{dx} = 0$$

$$\implies \sqrt{9 - x^2}y = 6 \quad \text{Plug in } y(0) = 2 \text{ to find the constant } 6$$

$$\implies y = \frac{6}{\sqrt{9 - x^2}}, \quad -3 < x < 3$$

## A Remark on Singular Points

In the above example, the solution is undefined at the singular points  $x = \pm 3$ . However, it is possible that the final solution can be defined at the excluded singular points. See Example 3 in Section 2-3 on Page 57.

This becomes important if the initial point is a singular point.

### Example

Solve  $x \frac{dy}{dx} = 4y + x^6 e^x$ ,  $y(0) = 0$ .

Using the same method, we have  $y = x^4(xe^x - e^x + c)$ . But the interval of solution cannot contain  $x = 0$ . However, one can check that the function and its derivative are both continuous at  $x = 0$ . Hence we can include it and find that  $y = x^4(xe^x - e^x + c)$  is a solution to the initial-value problem for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# A Trick

When a first-order ODE (1) is not linear in terms of  $y' = \frac{dy}{dx}$  and  $y$  but linear in terms of  $x$  and  $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{y'}$ , we can first solve  $x$  as a function of  $y$  and then take the inverse function to find  $y(x)$ .

## Example

Solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x+y}$ .

A: We already know that the solution to  $\frac{dx}{dy} = x + y$  is

$$x = -y - 1 + ce^y,$$

which is an implicit solution.

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# Discontinuous Coefficients

What if coefficients are discontinuous?

## Example

$$\text{Solve } \frac{dy}{dx} + y = f(x), \quad y(1) = 1 - e^{-1}, \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \leq 1 \\ 0, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

If they are piecewise continuous and only discontinuous at finitely many points, we can solve the equations on each interval and “stitch” them together.

See Example 6 in Section 2-3 on Page 59.

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## Solutions Defined by Integrals

What if we cannot find a closed-form antiderivative?

For example,  $\int e^{-t^2} dt$ .

We can express the solution in terms of integrals.

Some classes of these integrals are defined as **special functions**, and many properties are derived. For example, error functions, Bessel functions, Gamma functions, etc.

See Example 7 in Section 2-3 on Page 60.

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## Short Recap

- First-Order ODE
- Graphical Methods: solution curves without a solution
- A Numerical Method: Euler's method
- Separable Equations: solve by separation of variables
- Linear Equations: solve an auxiliary DE to find an integrating factor
- Watch out: singular solutions and interval of the solution

# Self-Practice Exercises

2-2: 1, 9, 13, 19, 25, 27, 31, 39, 41, 49

2-3: 3, 9, 13, 17, 25, 29, 35, 39