

MATH1851

Notes for HKU · Spring 2024

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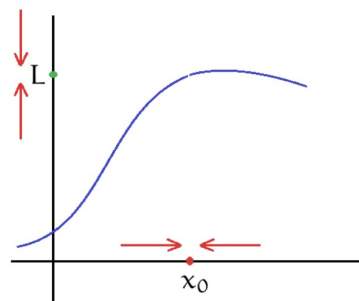
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1 Limits and Continuity

1.1 Introduction to the concept of limit

We can conceptualize that the limit of a function $f(x)$ is L as x approaches c , given that we can make $f(x)$ as close to L as we want for all x sufficiently close to a , from both sides, *without actually letting x be a* . We can write this as:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$$



1.2 One-sided limits

There are two sides that x can tend to a number. We can write it as $x \rightarrow n^-$ and $x \rightarrow n^+$, which represents from the negative (left) / positive (right) side.

1.3 Existence of limits

Condition for limit to exist

The limit for a function $f(x)$ only exists if and only if:

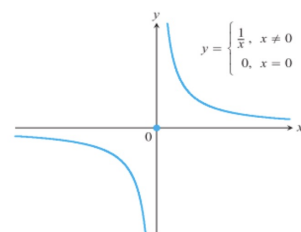
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$$

WARNING: If the **limit** is ∞ it **doesn't** exist.

For this example, when $x \rightarrow 0^-$, $y \rightarrow -\infty$.

Similarly, as $x \rightarrow 0^+$, $y \rightarrow +\infty$.

Hence, we can conclude that the limit for this function as $x \rightarrow 0$ doesn't exist.



1.4 Continuity

Continuity

A function $f(x)$ is *continuous* at $x = a$ if:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$$

Continuity properties

For f, g continuous at c , the following are also continuous at c :

1. $f \pm g$
2. kf
3. fg
4. $\frac{f}{g}$, given that $g(c) \neq 0$

Intermediate value theorem (IVT)

If a function f is continuous on $[a, b]$, there is a number c in $[a, b]$ where $f(c)$ in $[f(a), f(b)]$.

To prove that there is a root, we can use the IVT by showing there is a **change of sign** between the interval given.

To show that there's *only one solution*, check if $f'(x) > 0$ or < 0 (strict $>$) in the interval.

1.5 Computing limits

Indeterminate forms

Indeterminate forms are forms that cannot be solved by simply substituting the value of x into the function. They are:

$$\frac{0}{0}, \quad \frac{\infty}{\infty}, \quad 0 \cdot \infty, \quad \infty - \infty, \quad \infty^0, \quad 1^\infty, \quad \infty^0$$

Note that $\infty + \infty = \infty$. Related: **L'Hopital's rule**

Using the limit laws

For functions f, g and using $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} = \bigcirc$ for simpler notation:

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} c = c$
2. $\bigcirc(f \pm g) = \bigcirc f \pm \bigcirc g$
3. $\bigcirc(k \cdot f) = \bigcirc k \cdot \bigcirc f$
4. $\bigcirc(f^n) = (\bigcirc f)^n$
5. $\bigcirc(fg) = \bigcirc f \bigcirc g$
6. $\bigcirc(\frac{f}{g}) = \frac{\bigcirc f}{\bigcirc g}$, given that $\bigcirc g \neq 0$. *This strict condition prevents indeterminate forms.*

We can use these laws to break a limit into separate limits, and compute that way. Also note that:

7. $\bigcirc f(g) = f(\bigcirc g)$, given that f is **continuous** at $\bigcirc g$

Limit of a polynomial

For the limit of a polynomial $p(x)$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} p(x) = p(a)$$

This can be proven easily with the limit laws above.

Techniques to compute limits

To solve for limits, we have to get the expression to the right form - a polynomial, for us to substitute our limit value into the function.

To do this, often we have to **factorize** or **rationalize**.

Example 1.1 Indeterminate forms by substitution

This applies limit law #5. As substituting into the function directly gives $0/0$, we have to change it into a form such that we could apply the limit laws directly.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 + 4x - 12}{x^2 - 2x} = \frac{(x-2)(x+6)}{(x-2)x} \\ = \frac{x+6}{x}$$

Substituting 2 gives $= 4$

The squeeze / sandwich theorem

Suppose $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ in the range $[a, b]$, for c in $[a, b]$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow c} h$$

We will make use of the fact that the limits can be equal to solve for the limit of $g(x)$.

Example 1.2 Squeezing a function

When we can't seem to factorize a function, we can try squeezing it between two other functions.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \cos \frac{1}{x}$$

We know the limits of the function $\cos \frac{1}{x}$, so we can start from there.

$$\text{Given that } x \neq 0, -1 \leq \cos \frac{1}{x} \leq 1$$

$$\text{Multiplying } x^2 \text{ on both sides, } -x^2 \leq \cos x^2 \frac{1}{x} \leq x^2$$

$$\text{As } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \pm x^2 = 0, \text{ we can conclude that } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \cos \frac{1}{x} = 0$$

1.6 Infinite limits

Determining infinite limits

If $f(x)$ gets (negatively) arbitrarily large when x approaches a , we can say:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = (-)\infty$$

After we know that the limit may be infinity, we then have to make sure that the limit is the same from both sides, so that the limit is actually ∞ . We can do so by plugging numbers which are approaching the limit from both sides.

Example 1.3 *Infinite limit exists*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{6}{x^2}$$

Consider both $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{6}{x^2}$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{6}{x^2}$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{6}{x^2} = \infty$$

Example 1.4 *Infinite limit doesn't exist*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{3}{(4-x)^3}$$

Checking both sides, we can conclude that the limit doesn't exist, as:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 4^+} \frac{3}{(4-x)^3} = -\infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 4^-} \frac{3}{(4-x)^3} = \infty$$

1.7 Limits at infinity

Infinity operations

Note the following operations:

1. $\infty + k = \infty$
2. For $k < 0$, $k\infty = -\infty$

Determining limits of infinity

It is not hard to see that, for rational numbers n :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{k}{x^n} = 0$$

The easiest way to determine the limit would be to *factorize* the function so that we can use the fact above.

Determining limits of infinity of polynomials

Using the above fact, we can see that for a polynomial $p(x)$ with degree n and largest coefficient a_n :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} p(x) = a_n x^n$$

Which means we can *only consider the largest term in a polynomial* for limits of infinity.

Example 1.5 *Indeterminate forms by substitution of infinity*

Substituting ∞ into the function gives $\infty - \infty - \infty$, which is indeterminate. Hence, we must factorize it.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 2x^4 - x^2 - 8x &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [x^4(2 - \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{8}{x^3})] \\ &= \infty \times 2 \\ &= \infty \end{aligned}$$

Or we can just simply use the theorem above and consider $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 2x^4$ only to give ∞ .

Example 1.6 *Factor polynomials limit to infinity*

We can simply consider the largest terms on each side and give the final answer easily.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{\sqrt{3x^2 + 6}}{5 - 2x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{\sqrt{3x^2}}{-2x} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{\sqrt{3}|x|}{-2x} \leftarrow \sqrt{x^2} = |x| \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{-\sqrt{3}}{-2} \leftarrow |c|, c < 0 = -c \\
 &= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that, as we are considering the negative limit of infinity, we need to add - to the abs sign on line 3.

1.8 Asymptotes

Vertical asymptotes

f will have v-asymptotes at $x = a$ if any \pm is true:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^{\pm}} f(x) = \pm\infty$$

Horizontal asymptotes

f will have h-asymptotes at $y = L$ if any \pm is true:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = L$$

Related: Graphing functions

2 Trigonometry review

Trigonometric identities

1. $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$
2. $\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$
3. $\csc x = \frac{1}{\sin x}$
4. $\sec x = \frac{1}{\cos x}$
5. $\cot x = \frac{1}{\tan x}$
6. $\sin 2x = 2 \sin x \cos x$
7. $\cos 2x = \cos^2 x - \sin^2 x$
8. $\tan 2x = \frac{2 \tan x}{1 - \tan^2 x}$
9. $\sin(x \pm y) = \sin x \cos y \pm \cos x \sin y$
10. $\cos(x \pm y) = \cos x \cos y \mp \sin x \sin y$
11. $\tan(x \pm y) = \frac{\tan x \pm \tan y}{1 \mp \tan x \tan y}$
12. $1 + \tan^2 x = \sec^2 x$
13. $1 + \cot^2 x = \csc^2 x$

Related: [Techniques of integration](#)

3 Derivatives

First principle

The first principle is the definition of the derivative of a function $f(x)$ at $x = a$:

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

Differentiability

The function is differentiable at $x = a$ if:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f' = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f'$$

3.1 Differentiation formulas and rules

Basic formulas

- We can differentiate individual items: $(f \pm g)' = f' \pm g'$
- We can factor out a multiplicative constant: $(cf)' = cf'$
- Derivative of a constant is 0: $\frac{d}{dx}k = 0$
- Power rule: $\frac{d}{dx}x^n = nx^{n-1}$

Chain rule

Shorthand: **d1x2 + d2x1**

$$(u(v))' = u'(v)v' \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \frac{du}{dx}$$

Product rule

Shorthand: **d** from outside to inside

$$(uv)' = uv' + vu' \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{d}{dx}(uv) = u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx}$$

Quotient rule

Shorthand: move lower **d** upper - **d** lower x upper, lower square

$$\left(\frac{u}{v}\right)' = \frac{vu' - uv'}{v^2} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) = \frac{v \frac{du}{dx} - u \frac{dv}{dx}}{v^2}$$

	$f(x)$	$f'(x)$
1.	a^x	$\ln a \cdot a^x$
2.	e^{kx}	ke^{kx}
3.	$\ln kx$	x^{-1}
4.	$ x $	$\frac{ x }{x}$
5.	$\sin kx$	$k \cos kx$
6.	$\cos kx$	$-k \sin kx$
7.	$\tan kx$	$k \sec^2 kx$
8.	$\csc x$	$-\csc x \cot x$
9.	$\sec x$	$\sec x \tan x$
10.	$\cot x$	$-\csc^2 x$
11.	$\sin^{-1} x$	$(\sqrt{1-x^2})^{-1}$
12.	$\cos^{-1} x$	$-(\sqrt{1-x^2})^{-1}$
13.	$\tan^{-1} x$	$(1+x^2)^{-1}$

Note that the trigo derivatives can be extended to hyperbolic trigo functions, with the except of $\frac{d}{dx} \operatorname{sech} u = -\operatorname{sech} u \tanh u$.

3.2 Techniques of differentiation

Parametric differentiation

For a parametric equation $y = f(t)$ and $x = g(t)$:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \div \frac{dx}{dt}$$

Derivative of Inverse functions

At c , we first find $f'(x)$ and the value of $f^{-1}(c)$, then we apply the formula to find the value of $f^{-1}'(c)$:

$$f^{-1}'(c) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(c))}$$

$f^{-1}(c)$ can be found by solving $f(x) = c$.

Implicit differentiation

Differentiate all xy , add y' behind all differentiations of y .

To find y' for $y^2 = x^2 + \sin(xy)$:

$$y^2 = x^2 + \sin(xy)$$

$$2yy' = \frac{d}{dx}(\sin(xy))$$

$$2yy' = 2x + \cos(xy)(xy' + y)$$

Then we simply collect terms of y'

$$y' = \frac{2x + y \cos(xy)}{2y - x \cos(xy)}$$

To find the second derivative y'' , differentiate the expression and substitute y' back in.

Logarithmic differentiation

For $y = f(x)$, $y' = f(x) \times (\ln f(x))'$. (Takes natural log for both sides)

To find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ for $y = x^x$:

$$y = x^x$$

$$\ln y = x \ln x$$

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

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x^x (\ln x + 1) = x^x (x \ln x)'$$

L'Hopital's rule

For any $a \in [\mathbb{R}, \pm\infty]$, if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (\frac{f}{g})$ is in **indeterminate form** after substitution, we can conclude:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f}{g} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f'}{g'} \right)$$

To find $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} x e^x$, we first check if the limit is indeterminate, then we can apply the rule:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} x e^x &\Rightarrow \infty \times 0 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} x e^x &= \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{x}{e^{-x}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{-e^{-x}} \quad (\text{rule applied}) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

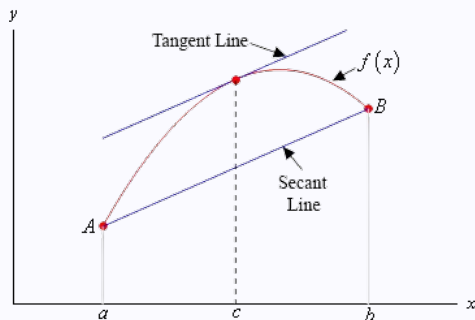
3.3 Important theorems

Mean value theorem (MVT)

For $f(x)$ that is *continuous* in $[a, b]$ and *differentiable* in (a, b) :

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}, \quad c \in (a, b)$$

The theorem tells us that, in described conditions, there must be a point c where the slope of the *tangent line* is equal to the slope of the line from $a \rightarrow b$ (secant line).

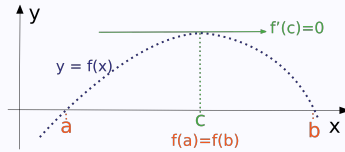


Source: <https://tutorial.math.lamar.edu/Classes/CalcI/MeanValueTheorem.aspx>

Rolle's theorem

For $f(x)$ that is *continuous* in $[a, b]$ and *differentiable* in (a, b) :

$$\forall f(a) = f(b) \text{ there exists } f'(c) = 0, \quad c \in (a, b)$$



For $F' = f$, if F has 4 roots, then f has 3 roots.

3.4 Extremum points

Critical and inflection points

A **critical point** is a point where $f'(x) = 0$ or undefined, or the end-points of the domain if inclusive. An **inflection point** is a point where $f''(x) = 0$ or undefined, that the **concavity** of the function changes.

Max/minimum points

The **absolute maximum/minimum points** are the points where the function has the largest/smallest value in the entire domain.

The **local maximum/minimum points** are the points where the function has the largest/smallest value in a small interval around the point.

3.5 Determining shape of graph

Concavity

Concavity is the direction of the curve, and can be described by the values of f' and f'' :

f''	-	+	+	-
f'	-	+	-	+
f	↘	↙	↖	↗

Note: Arrows goes clock-wise.

Step	Expression
1. Determine domain of function	
2. Special points without continuity?	
3. Axis intercepts	$(f(x) = 0, 0) (0, f(0))$
4. Critical points	$f'(x) = 0$ or undefined
5. Point maxima?	$+f''(x)$ or $-f''(x)$
6. Inflection points	$f''(x) = 0$ or undefined
7. Horizontal asymptotes	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = n?$
8. Vertical asymptotes	$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} f(x) = \pm\infty?$
9. Area strictly increasing/decreasing?	$f'(x) > 0$ or $f'(x) < 0$
10. Area concavity?	$- + + - / - + - + / \searrow \nearrow \nwarrow \nearrow$

Related: [Definition of asymptotes](#)

Higher derivatives

Derivatives of higher order (e.g. $f''(x), f'''(x)$) can be expressed as $f^{(n)}(x)$

4 Integrals

Definition of natural logs

$$\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt, \quad x > 0$$

4.1 Definite integrals

Signed areas

Signed area is the area between the curve and the x-axis, where the area above the x-axis is positive and below is negative.

Properties of definite integrals

1. $\int_a^b f(x) dx = -\int_b^a f(x) dx$
2. $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$
3. $\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx$
4. $\int_a^b k f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$
5. $\int_a^b (f(x) \pm g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$

4.2 Fundamental theorem of calculus

Fundamental theorem of calculus (FTC)

If $f(x)$ is continuous in $[a, b]$, then:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

Where $F(x)$ is the definite integral of $f(x)$.

Second fundamental theorem of calculus

If $f(x)$ is continuous in $[a, b]$, then:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x)$$

Find $g'(x)$ for $g(x) = \int_1^{x^2} \cos t \, dt$:

We first define $G(u) = \int_1^u \cos t \, dt$, then we can apply the chain rule:

$$\begin{aligned} g'(x) &= (G(x^2))' \\ &= G'(x^2) \cdot 2x \\ &= \cos x^2 \cdot 2x \end{aligned}$$

Cases of area 0

For $\int_a^b f(x)dx$:

- If $b = a$, then the area is 0 (no width)
- If $f(x) = f(-x)$ and $a = -b$, then the area is 0 (symmetry)

4.3 Techniques of integration

Overview

- By **substitution**: “sub $g(x) \rightarrow u$, find du and replace all functions of $x(dx)$ with $u(du)$ ”
- By **part**: “ $\int ab = a \int b - \int (a' \times \int b)$ ”
- By **joining recurring parts**: “ $\int ab = f(ab) + \int ab \rightarrow 2 \int ab = f(ab)$ ”
- By **partial fractions**: “ $\frac{k}{f(x)g(x)} = \frac{A}{f(x)} + \frac{B}{g(x)}$ ”
- By **trigonometric identities**
- By **multiplying fractions by one**: “Multiplying $\frac{\sec^2 x}{\sec^2 x}$ to fit trigo form”

Integration by substitution

For $\int f(g)g' dx$:

1. Let $u = g$
2. Find $du = g' dx$
3. Change limits in terms of u if definite
4. Replace all $g \rightarrow u$ and $g' dx \rightarrow du$
5. Integrate, then substitute $u \rightarrow g$

Integration by parts

$$\int ab = a \int b - \int (a' \times \int b)$$

Tips: Let a (differentiating term) to the first term you see on the list:

1. **L**ogarithmic
2. **I**nverse trigo
3. **A**lebratic (polynomial)
4. **T**rigo
5. **E**xponential

Deriving the IBP formula

The formula is derived from the product rule of differentiation:

$$\begin{aligned}(ab)' &= a'b + b'a \\ b'a &= (ab)' - a'b \\ \int b'a &= ab - \int a'b \\ \int ab &= a \int b - \int (a' \times \int b)\end{aligned}$$

Trigo-identities substitution tips

Use the following trigonometric identities to simplify the integral:

- $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$
- $\sin^2 x = \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2}$
- $\cos^2 x = \frac{1 + \cos 2x}{2}$
- $2 \sin x \cos x = \sin 2x$
- $\cos 2x = \cos^2 x - \sin^2 x$
- $\sec^2 x = 1 + \tan^2 x$
- $\csc^2 x = 1 + \cot^2 x$

Use the following substitutions for similar expressions:

$$\text{Expressions of the form } \begin{cases} a^2 - f(x)^2 & \rightarrow f(x) = a \sin \theta \\ a^2 + f(x)^2 & \rightarrow f(x) = a \tan \theta \\ f(x)^2 - a^2 & \rightarrow f(x) = a \sec \theta \end{cases}$$

Remember that this uses *integration by substitution*, so we need to find dx in terms of θ .

4.4 Solids of revolution

Solids of revolution

A 3D shape formed by rotating a *region* around an axis.

A region is defined by 2 curves and an interval:

1. The vertical region bounded by an outer curve $R(x)$ and an inner curve $r(x)$.
2. The inner curve is $y = 0$ for the region bounded by the x -axis.
3. The horizontal region is bounded by an interval $x : [a, b]$

Note that for the methods below, the terms x and y can be *switched* to fit the problem.

$\{f(x) \rightarrow \odot x\}$ denotes using a function of x to find the volume of a solid of revolution around the x -axis.

If the volume is generated by the rotation about an axis other than the main axes, we can simply *shift* the function to fit the main axes.

Volume by Washers (Disk)

$$\{f(x) \rightarrow \odot x\} : \quad V = \pi \int_a^b R^2(x) - r^2(x) dx$$

For rotating about $y = n$: $\forall f(x) \rightarrow f(x) - n$

Volume by Cylindrical shells

$$\{f(x) \rightarrow \odot y\} : \quad V = 2\pi \int_a^b [x][R^2(x) - r^2(x)] dx$$

For rotating about $x = n$: $[x] \rightarrow [x - n]$

4.5 Arcs and surfaces

Arc length

The *arc length* of a curve $y = f(x)$ from $x = a$ to $x = b$ is given by:

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + f'^2(x)} dx$$

And for parametrized equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$:

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{f'^2(t) + g'^2(t)} dt$$

Area surfaces of revolution

Used to find the *surface area* generated by rotating a curve along an axis.

$$\{f(x) \rightarrow \odot x\} : \quad A = 2\pi \int_a^b f(x) \sqrt{1 + f'^2(x)} dx$$

And for parametrized equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$:

$$A = 2\pi \int_a^b g(t) \sqrt{f'^2(t) + g'^2(t)} dt$$

5 First order Ordinary Differential Equations

Ordinary differential equations are equations that involve a function and its derivatives. We will learn how to solve them.

First order ODEs

A first order ODE is an equation of the form:

$$F(x, y, y') = 0$$

Where y' is the first derivative of y with respect to x . The highest degree of the derivative is 1. Note that y is really just $y(x)$ (A function of x)

5.1 Solving linear ODEs

Linear ODEs

A linear ODE are ODEs that does not contain non-linear functions. Otherwise, it's a non-linear ODE.

Solving by integrating factors

We can solve a first order linear ODE using:

$$y' + p(x)y = q(x) \quad : \quad \times e^{p(x)}$$

The multiplied integration factor $e^{p(x)}$ will give us a product of the *product rule*, then we simply integrate both sides to solve for y .

Separable equations

We can solve a separable equation as followed, provided a **particular solution** of a (x, y) pair.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= f(x)g(y) \\ g(y)^{-1} dy &= f(x)dx \\ \int g(y)^{-1} dy &= \int f(x) dx \Leftarrow [(x, y) \rightarrow c] \end{aligned}$$

5.2 Solving non-linear ODEs

Bernoulli's equation

A first order *non-linear* ODE of the form can be solved by:

$$y' + p(x)y = q(x)y^n \quad n \in \mathbb{R} \quad : \quad \text{sub } u = y^{1-n}$$

The substitution $u = y^{1-n}$ will turn the equation into a linear ODE.

Riccati's equation

A first order *non-linear* ODE of the form can be solved by the following, given a **particular solution** of $y(x)$:

$$y' = p(x)y^2 + q(x)y + r(x) \quad : \quad \text{sub } y = y(x) + u^{-1}$$

Homogeneous equations

A homogeneous equation has its x and y terms **in the same degree**. (e.g. $x^2 + xy + y^2 = 0$)

A first order *non-linear* ODE of the form can be solved by the following, given a **particular solution** of $y(x)$:

$$y' = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) \quad : \quad \text{sub } u = \frac{y}{x} \rightarrow y' = u + xu'$$

We can **divide the formula** by x^n or y^n to get the equation in the desired form (*every term is the ratio $\frac{y}{x}$*).

After substitution, we will get a **separable equation** after the substitution, and the particular solution is used.