

Ordinary Differential Equations

BY YULIANG WANG

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Chapter 2: First Order Differential Equations

General form

$$F(u, u') = 0$$

Example 1. (Falling object in the air)

The motion of the object is governed by the Newton's law. Let $v(t)$ be the velocity of the object at time t .

$$mv' = mg - \gamma v,$$

where m is the mass of the object, g is the gravitational constant, and γ is the coefficient of air resistant force.

This is a first order linear ODE.

1 Method of integrating factors

Example 2. Find the general solutions of

$$u' + u = 2$$

Idea: combine $u' + u$ into the derivative of another function.

Consider the product rule of differentiation:

$$(fg)' = f'g + fg'.$$

Let $f = u(t)$, $g = e^t$, then

$$[u(t)e^t]' = u'e^t + ue^t = e^t(u' + u).$$

Now, we multiply the original equation by e^t :

$$(u' + u)e^t = 2e^t \implies [u(t)e^t]' = 2e^t \implies u(t)e^t = \int 2e^t dt = 2e^t + c$$

Divide by e^t :

$$u(t) = e^{-t}[2e^t + c] = 2 + ce^{-t}.$$

Method of integrating factors:

Consider the 1st order linear ODE (standard form):

$$u'(t) + p(t)u(t) = q(t).$$

Multiply left side by $\mu(t)$:

$$[u'(t) + p(t)u(t)]\mu(t) = u'\mu + pu\mu.$$

We want

$$\mu = g, p\mu = g'$$

i.e.

$$\mu'(t) = p(t)\mu(t) \implies \mu(t) = e^{\int p(t) dt}.$$

Check (by the chain rule and fundamental theorem of calculus)

$$\mu' = e^{\int p(t) dt} p(t) = \mu(t)p(t).$$

Derivation directly:

$$\mu'(t) = p(t)\mu(t) \implies \frac{\mu'(t)}{\mu(t)} = p(t) \implies [\ln \mu(t)]' = p(t)$$

$$\implies \ln \mu(t) = \int p(t) dt \implies \mu(t) = e^{\int p(t) dt}.$$

So the original ODE becomes

$$[\mu(t)u(t)]' = \mu(t)q(t) \implies \mu(t)u(t) = \int \mu(t)q(t) dt + c$$

$$\implies u(t) = \frac{1}{\mu(t)} \left[\int \mu(t)q(t) dt + c \right],$$

where

$$\mu(t) = e^{\int p(t) dt}$$

is called the **integrating factor**.

Example 3. Find the **general solution** of

$$(4 + t^2) \frac{dy}{dt} + 2ty = 4t$$

Answer: Rewrite it in the standard form

$$y' + \frac{2t}{4 + t^2} y = \frac{4t}{4 + t^2}.$$

Here $p(t) = \frac{2t}{4+t^2}$. Then find the integrating factor $\mu(t)$:

$$\mu(t) = e^{\int p(t)dt} = e^{\ln(4+t^2)} = 4+t^2.$$

So the solution is

$$y(t) = \frac{1}{4+t^2} \left(\int (4+t^2) \frac{4t}{4+t^2} dt + c \right) = \frac{1}{4+t^2} (2t^2 + c)$$

Example 4. Solve the **initial value problem**

$$ty' + 2y = 4t^2$$

$$\text{initial condition: } y(1) = 2$$

Answer: First rewrite the equation into the standard form:

$$y' + \frac{2}{t}y = 4t.$$

Find the integrating factor:

$$\mu = e^{\int \frac{2}{t} dt} = e^{2\ln|t|} = e^{\ln t^2} = t^2.$$

The general solution is

$$y = \frac{1}{t^2} \left[\int t^2 4t dt + c \right] = \frac{1}{t^2} [t^4 + c] = t^2 + \frac{c}{t^2}.$$

Plugging the initial condition:

$$y(1) = 2 \implies 1 + \frac{1}{c} = 2 \implies c = 1.$$

The solution of the initial value problem is

$$y = t^2 + \frac{1}{t^2}.$$

2 Separable equations

Example 5. Solve

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x^2}{1-y^2}.$$

This equation is nonlinear. We can separate the variables x and y as follows

$$(1-y^2)dy = x^2 dx \implies \int (1-y^2)dy = \int x^2 dx$$

$$\implies y - \frac{y^3}{3} = \frac{x^3}{3} + c$$

This is an example of **implicit solutions**.

Definition 6

An ODE in the form of

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{f(x)}{g(y)}$$

is called **separable**.

We can solve it as follows

$$\int f(x)dx = \int g(y)dy$$

Example 7. Solve the initial value problem

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{3x^2 + 4x + 2}{2(y-1)}, \quad y(0) = -1$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \int (3x^2 + 4x + 2) dx &= \int 2(y-1) dy \\ \Rightarrow x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x &= y^2 - 2y + c. \end{aligned}$$

Plugging the initial condition

$$y(0) = -1 \Rightarrow 0 = 1 + 2 + c \Rightarrow c = -3.$$

The solution to the initial value problem is

$$x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x = y^2 - 2y - 3.$$

Question 1. What is the domain and range of the solution?

3 Exact Equations

3.1 Motivation and definition

Suppose $\psi(x, y) = c$ is an solution of some ODE. Taking d/dx on both sides of the solution.

$$\frac{d}{dx} \psi(x, y) = \frac{d}{dx} c \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \Rightarrow M(x, y) + N(x, y) y' = 0,$$

where

$$M(x, y) = \partial_x \psi, \quad N(x, y) = \partial_y \psi.$$

Example 8. Solve $2x + y^2 + 2xyy' = 0$.

Answer. Guess the solution. Let $\psi = x^2 + y^2x$. Then

$$\psi_x = 2x + y^2, \quad \psi_y = 2xy.$$

So

$$0 = \psi_x + \psi_y y' = \frac{d}{dx} \psi(x, y)$$

So the solution is

$$\psi(x, y) = c.$$

Definition

An ODE of the form

$$M(x, y) + N(x, y) y' = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad M(x, y) dx + N(x, y) dy = 0$$

is called **exact** if there exists $\psi(x, y)$ such that

$$\psi_x = M, \quad \psi_y = N.$$

The solution of the equation is

$$\psi(x, y) = c,$$

where c is an arbitrary constant.

3.2 Theorem and method

Theorem 9

Suppose an ODE can be written in the form

$$M(x, y) + N(x, y)y' = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0 \quad (1)$$

where the functions M, N, M_y and N_x are all continuous in the rectangular region $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$. Then Eq. (1) is an exact differential equation **if and only if**

$$M_y(x, y) = N_x(x, y), \forall (x, y) \in R.$$

Proof. " \Rightarrow ". Suppose Eq. (1) is exact. Then there exists a $\psi(x, y)$ such that

$$\psi_x = M, \quad \psi_y = N.$$

Then

$$M_y = \psi_{xy}, \quad N_x = \psi_{yx}.$$

Since M_y, N_x are continuous, we have ψ_{xy} and ψ_{yx} are continuous. So

$$\psi_{xy} = \psi_{yx}.$$

i.e.

$$M_y = N_x.$$

" \Leftarrow ". Suppose $M_y = N_x$. We want to find a function $\psi(x, y)$ such that $\psi_x = M$ and $\psi_y = N$. Let

$$\psi = \int M(x, y)dx + h(y).$$

Then $\psi_x = M$, and

$$\psi_y = \partial_y \int M(x, y)dx + h'(y).$$

We want $\psi_y = N$, that is

$$h'(y) = N(x, y) - \partial_y \int M(x, y)dx.$$

We need the RHS to be independent of x . That is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[N(x, y) - \partial_y \int M(x, y)dx \right] = 0.$$

Let's check:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[N(x, y) - \partial_y \int M(x, y)dx \right] = N_x - \partial_y \partial_x \int M dx = N_x - M_y = 0.$$

□

Example 10. Solve the ODE

$$(y \cos x + 2xe^y) + (\sin x + x^2e^y - 1)y' = 0.$$

Answer:

$$\begin{aligned} M_y &= \cos x + 2xe^y \\ N_x &= \cos x + 2xe^y \end{aligned}$$

So $M_y = N_x$, and the equation is exact.

Next, let

$$\psi = \int M dx = \int y(\cos x) + 2xe^y dx = y(\sin x) + x^2e^y + h(y).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_y &= \sin x + x^2 e^y + h'(y) = N = \sin x + x^2 e^y - 1 \\ \implies h'(y) &= -1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad h(y) = -y.\end{aligned}$$

So the solution is

$$\psi = y(\sin x) + x^2 e^y - y = c.$$

Exercise. Solve the above equation, but using $\psi = \int N dy + h(x)$ first.

Question. What is the relationship between separable and exact equations?

3.3 Integrating factors

Sometimes we can multiply a function to a non-exact equation to make it exact. Take a function $\mu(x, y) \neq 0$,

$$\begin{aligned}M(x, y) dx + N(x, y) dy &= 0 \\ \mu(x, y)[M(x, y) dx + N(x, y) dy] &= 0 \\ \mu(x, y)M(x, y) dx + \mu(x, y)N(x, y) dy &= 0 \\ \tilde{M}(x, y) dx + \tilde{N}(x, y) dy &= 0\end{aligned}$$

where $\tilde{M}(x, y) = \mu(x, y)M(x, y)$, $\tilde{N}(x, y) = \mu(x, y)N(x, y)$. Then let

$$\tilde{M}_y = \mu_y M + \mu M_y, \quad \tilde{N}_x = \mu_x N + \mu N_x.$$

We want $\tilde{M}_y = \tilde{N}_x$, i.e.

$$\mu_y M + \mu M_y = \mu_x N + \mu N_x.$$

Let's choose μ such that $\mu_y = 0$. Then the above equation reduces to

$$\mu M_y = \mu_x N + \mu N_x \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mu_x = \frac{M_y - N_x}{N} \mu.$$

If the function $(M_y - N_x)/N$ is a function of x only, then we can solve μ as a separable equation. Here μ is called an integrating factor.

Example 11. Solve the ODE

$$(3xy + y^2) + (x^2 + xy)y' = 0.$$

Answer: It's first order, nonlinear, and not separable. Check if it's exact:

$$M_y = 3x + 2y, \quad N_x = 2x + y.$$

Not exact!. Next, try integrating factors.

$$\frac{M_y - N_x}{N} = \frac{x + y}{x^2 + xy} = \frac{1}{x}$$

is a function of x only! Let

$$\mu'(x) = \frac{1}{x} \mu \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mu(x) = x.$$

Then multiply μ to the original equation:

$$x(3xy + y^2) + x(x^2 + xy)y' = 0$$

$$(3x^2y + xy^2) + (x^3 + x^2y)y' = 0$$

Double check the new equation is exact! Then solve it as usual (exercise).

Similarly, if $(N_x - M_y)/M$ is a function of y only, then we can use the integrating factor $\mu(y)$ solving

$$\mu' = \frac{N_x - M_y}{M} \mu.$$

4 Direction fields

Consider the first order ODE:

$$y' = f(t, y)$$

Draw small arrows as a vector $(1, f(t, y))$ at many points (t, y)

Online plotter:

<https://aeb019.hosted.uark.edu/dfield.html>

Example. Consider

$$y' = \frac{y \cos x}{1 + 3y^3}$$

5 The Existence and Uniqueness Theorem

5.1 Linear equations

Theorem

Consider the initial value problem

$$y' + p(t)y = q(t), \quad y(t_0) = y_0.$$

If p, q are continuous on an interval $I = [a, b]$ containing t_0 , then the IVP has a unique solution on I .

Example. Consider

$$ty' + 2y = 4t^2, \quad y(1) = 2.$$

Solve it by integrating factors,

$$y' + \frac{2}{t}y = 4t \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mu = \exp\left[\int \frac{2}{t} dt\right] = t^2.$$

$$y = \frac{1}{t^2} \left[\int 4t^3 dt + c \right] = \frac{1}{t^2} [t^4 + c] = t^2 + \frac{c}{t^2}.$$

Plugging $y(1) = 2$, we obtain $c = 1$. The solution is

$$y = t^2 + \frac{1}{t^2}.$$

Now, $p(t) = \frac{2}{t}$, $q(t) = 4t$. So p, q are continuous in $(-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty)$. But $1 \in (0, \infty)$ only, so we know from the theorem the IVP has a unique solution in $(0, \infty)$, which is

$$y = t^2 + \frac{1}{t^2}, \quad t \in (0, \infty).$$

If the initial condition is changed to $y(-1) = 2$, then the solution is

$$y = t^2 + \frac{1}{t^2}, \quad t \in (-\infty, 0).$$

5.2 Nonlinear equations

Theorem

Consider the initial value problem

$$y' = f(t, y), \quad y(t_0) = y_0.$$

If f and $\partial_y f$ are continuous on a rectangular domain $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$ containing the point (t_0, y_0) . Then the IVP has a unique solution in some interval I containing t_0 .

Example. Consider the IVP.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{3x^2 + 4x + 2}{2(y-1)}, \quad y(0) = -1$$

It is separable. Let's solve it first,

$$\begin{aligned} 2(y-1)dy &= (3x^2 + 4x + 2)dx \Rightarrow y^2 - 2y = x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x + c \\ y(0) &= -1 \Rightarrow c = 3. \end{aligned}$$

The solution is

$$\begin{aligned} y^2 - 2y &= x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x + 3 \\ y &= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 + 4(x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x + 3)}}{2} = 1 \pm \sqrt{x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x + 4} = 1 - \sqrt{x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x + 4}. \end{aligned}$$

Here f and $\partial_y f$ are continuous everywhere except $y = 1$.

Example. Consider

$$y' = y^{1/3}, \quad y(0) = 0 \quad (t \geq 0)$$

First, let's solve it as a separable equation.

$$y^{-1/3} dy = dt \Rightarrow \frac{3}{2} y^{2/3} = t + c$$

Plugging $y(0) = 0$ yields $c = 0$. So

$$y = \pm \left(\frac{2}{3} t \right)^{3/2}$$

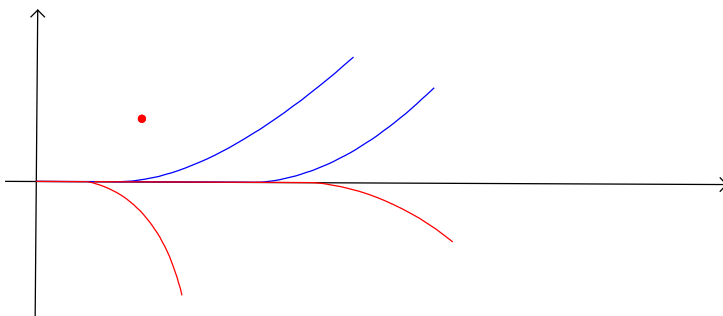
are two solutions. In addition

$$y = 0$$

is also a solution. In fact, we have infinitely many solutions defined as

$$y = \begin{cases} 0, & t < t_0 \\ \left[\frac{2}{3}(t - t_0) \right]^{3/2}, & t \geq t_0 \end{cases}, \text{ or } y = \begin{cases} 0, & t < t_0 \\ -\left[\frac{2}{3}(t - t_0) \right]^{3/2}, & t \geq t_0 \end{cases}$$

for any $t_0 > 0$. (**Exercise:** check y is continuous and differentiable at $t = t_0$.)



In fact,

$$f = y^{1/3}, \quad \partial_y f = \frac{1}{3}y^{-2/3}.$$

So $\partial_y f$ is discontinuous near $(0,0)$. So there exists no rectangle R containing $(0,0)$ such that $f, \partial_y f$ are both continuous in R . So we can't guarantee the existence and uniqueness of solution for the IVP.

Note 12. One may not be able to find all solutions to nonlinear equations using one method.

Example. Consider

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = y^2, \quad y(0) = y_0 \neq 0$$

We can first solve it as a separable eqn.

$$y^{-2}dy = dt \Rightarrow -y^{-1} = t + c \Rightarrow y = -\frac{1}{t+c} \Rightarrow y = -\frac{1}{t - \frac{1}{y_0}}.$$

Now $f = y^2, \partial_y f = 2y$ are continuous everywhere. However, the solution is not defined for every t . For example, if $y_0 > 0$, then the solution is defined only in $(-\infty, \frac{1}{y_0})$.

6 Applications

6.1 Falling object in the air

$$mv' = mg - \gamma v,$$

where v is the velocity, m, g, γ are constants.

- Analyze the solutions using direction field.
- Solve it by integrating factors.

$$v' + \frac{\gamma}{m}v = g$$

integrating factor

$$\mu = e^{\int \gamma/m} = e^{\frac{\gamma}{m}t}$$

$$v(t) = e^{-\frac{\gamma}{m}t} \left[\int g e^{\frac{\gamma}{m}t} dt + c \right] = e^{-\frac{\gamma}{m}t} \left[\frac{gm}{\gamma} e^{\frac{\gamma}{m}t} + c \right] = \frac{gm}{\gamma} + c e^{-\frac{\gamma}{m}t}.$$

If the initial condition is $v(0) = v_0$. Then $c = v_0 - gm/\gamma$. So the solution of the IVP is

$$v(t) = \frac{gm}{\gamma} + \left[v_0 - \frac{gm}{\gamma} \right] e^{-\frac{\gamma}{m}t}.$$

So

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} v(t) = \frac{gm}{\gamma}.$$

All other solutions converge to the **equilibrium solution** $v = gm/\gamma$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$. This equilibrium solution is a **stable** one.

6.2 Compound interest with deposits/withdrawals

Assume the annual interest rate is r . The continuous rate of deposit/withdrawal is k . Then the ODE model for the total balance $u(t)$ is

$$u' = ru + k.$$

integrating factor

$$\mu = e^{-rt}$$

$$u = e^{rt} \left[\int k e^{-rt} + c \right] = e^{rt} \left[-\frac{k}{r} e^{-rt} + c \right] = -\frac{k}{r} + c e^{rt}.$$

If the initial condition is $u(0) = u_0$, then $c = u_0 + k/r$. So the solution of the IVP is

$$u = -\frac{k}{r} + \left(u_0 + \frac{k}{r} \right) e^{rt}.$$

The equilibrium solution is $u = -\frac{k}{r}$, and it is an **unstable** one since all other solutions diverge from it as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

6.3 Population dynamics

6.3.1 Exponential growth

$$y' = ry,$$

The solution is

$$y = y_0 e^{rt}$$

where $y_0 = y(0)$.

- If $r > 0$, we have exponential growth
- If $r < 0$, we have exponential decay, such as radioactive decay.

6.3.2 Logistic growth

$$y' = (r - ay)y.$$

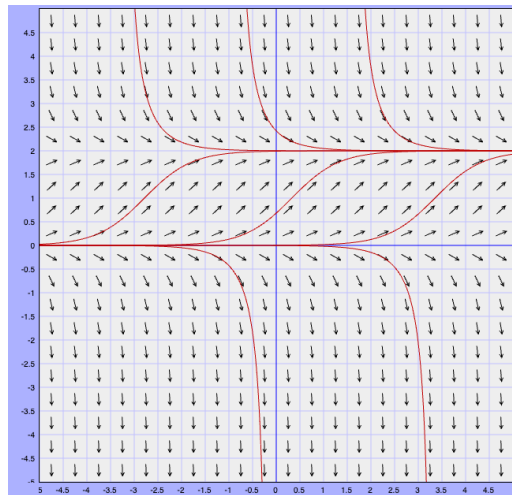
Note that the right-hand-side depends on y only. In general, ODE of the form

$$y' = f(y)$$

is called **autonomous**. There are two equilibrium solutions

$$y = 0, \quad y = \frac{r}{a}.$$

From the direction field we can tell the equilibrium solution $y = 0$ is unstable, while the solution $y = \frac{r}{a}$ is stable.



Now let's solve the equation:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dy}{(r-ay)y} = dt &\Rightarrow \int \frac{dy}{(r-ay)y} = \int dt \Rightarrow \\ \frac{1}{(r-ay)y} = \frac{A}{y} + \frac{B}{r-ay} = \frac{A(r-ay) + By}{y(r-ay)} &\Rightarrow 1 = A(r-ay) + By \\ y=0 \Rightarrow A=1/r, \quad y=r/a \Rightarrow B=a/r\end{aligned}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{dy}{(r-ay)y} &= \int \frac{1}{ry} + \frac{a/r}{r-ay} dy = \frac{1}{r} \ln|y| + \frac{a}{r} \left(\frac{1}{-a} \right) \ln|r-ay| = \frac{1}{r} \ln|y| - \frac{1}{r} \ln|r-ay| \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \ln \frac{|y|}{|r-ay|} = \int dt = t + c \\ \Rightarrow \frac{|y|}{|r-ay|} &= e^{r(t+c)} = ce^{rt} \Rightarrow \frac{y}{r-ay} = ce^{rt}. \\ \Rightarrow y &= \frac{rce^{rt}}{1+ace^{rt}} = \frac{rc}{e^{-rt}+ac} = \frac{r}{\frac{1}{c}e^{-rt}+a}.\end{aligned}$$

Suppose the initial condition is $y(0) = y_0$, then

$$c = \frac{y_0}{r-ay_0} \Rightarrow y = \frac{r}{\frac{r-ay_0}{y_0}e^{-rt}+a} = \frac{ry_0}{ay_0 + (r-ay_0)e^{-rt}} = \boxed{\frac{Ky_0}{y_0 + (K-y_0)e^{-rt}}},$$

where $K = \frac{r}{a}$. Note that $y' = (r-ay)y = r\left(1 - \frac{y}{K}\right)y$

1. If $0 < y_0 < K$, then $y(t)$ is an increasing function, and $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} y(t) = K$, but $y(t) < K$ for all $t > 0$. Moreover, $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} y'(t) = 0$, and

$$y'' = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} f(y) = f'(y) \frac{dy}{dt} = f'(y)f(y),$$

where

$$f(y) = r\left(1 - \frac{y}{K}\right)y, \quad f'(y) = r\left(1 - \frac{2y}{K}\right)$$

- a. If $0 < y < \frac{K}{2}$, then $y'' > 0$, so the graph is concave up.
 - b. If $\frac{K}{2} < y < K$, then $y'' < 0$, so the graph is concave down.
2. If $y_0 > K$, then $y(t)$ is an decreasing function, and $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} y(t) = K$, but $y(t) > K$ for all $t > 0$. Moreover, $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} y'(t) = 0$, and $y''(t) > 0$ for all t .

7 Euler's method

Consider a general 1st order ODE

$$y' = f(t, y).$$

Take (t_0, y_0) , then

$$y'(t_0) = f(t_0, y_0)$$

$$y'(t_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{y(t_0+h) - y(t_0)}{h} \approx \frac{y(t_1) - y(t_0)}{t_1 - t_0}$$

if $|t_1 - t_0|$ is small. So

$$y(t_1) \approx y(t_0) + (t_1 - t_0)y'(t_0) = y(t_0) + (t_1 - t_0)f(t_0, y_0)$$

Let

$$y_1 = y_0 + (t_1 - t_0)f(t_0, y_0)$$

So $y_1 \approx y(t_1)$. Repeat this process, we obtain an algorithm: For a sequence of t_0, t_1, t_2, \dots

$$\boxed{y_{k+1} = y_k + (t_{k+1} - t_k)f(t_k, y_k)}$$

This sequence of y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots is an approximation of the true values $y(t_0), y(t_1), y(t_2), \dots$