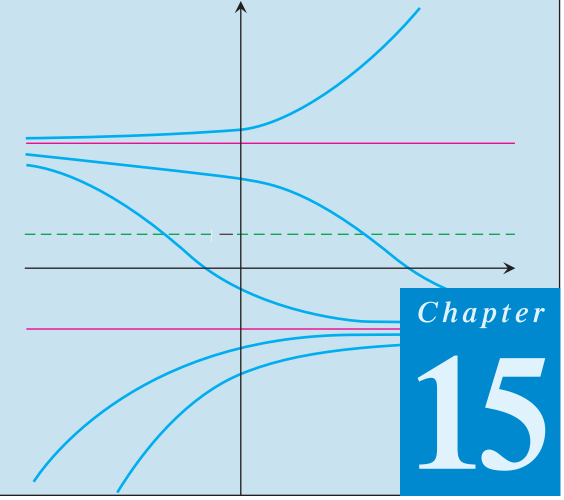


Chapter 15

First-Order Differential Equations

OVERVIEW In Section 4.8 we introduced differential equations of the form $dy/dx = f(x)$, where f is given and y is an unknown function of x. When f is continuous over some interval, we found the general solution $y(x)$ by integration, $y = \int f(x)\,dx$. In Section 6.5 we solved separable differential equations. Such equations arise when investigating exponential growth or decay, for example. In this chapter we study some other types of *first-order* differential equations. They involve only first derivatives of the unknown function.

15.1 Solutions, Slope Fields, and Picard's Theorem

We begin this section by defining general differential equations involving first derivatives. We then look at slope fields, which give a geometric picture of the solutions to such equations. Finally we present Picard's Theorem, which gives conditions under which *first-order* differential equations have exactly one solution.

General First-Order Differential Equations and Solutions

A **first-order differential equation** is an equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) \tag{1}$$

in which $f(x, y)$ is a function of two variables defined on a region in the xy-plane. The equation is of *first order* because it involves only the first derivative dy/dx (and not higher-order derivatives). We point out that the equations

$$y' = f(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx}y = f(x, y),$$

are equivalent to Equation (1) and all three forms will be used interchangeably in the text.

A **solution** of Equation (1) is a differentiable function $y = y(x)$ defined on an interval I of x-values (perhaps infinite) such that

$$\frac{d}{dx}y(x) = f(x, y(x))$$

on that interval. That is, when $y(x)$ and its derivative $y'(x)$ are substituted into Equation (1), the resulting equation is true for all x over the interval I. The **general solution** to a first-order differential equation is a solution that contains all possible solutions. The general solution always contains an arbitrary constant, but having this property doesn't mean a solution is the general solution. That is, a solution may contain an arbitrary constant without being the general solution. Establishing that a solution *is* the general solution may require deeper results from the theory of differential equations and is best studied in a more advanced course.

EXAMPLE 1 Show that every member of the family of functions

$$y = \frac{C}{x} + 2$$

is a solution of the first-order differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}(2 - y)$$

on the interval $(0, \infty)$, where C is any constant.

Solution Differentiating $y = C/x + 2$ gives

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = C\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) + 0 = -\frac{C}{x^2}.$$

Thus we need only verify that for all $x \in (0, \infty)$,

$$-\frac{C}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x}\left[2 - \left(\frac{C}{x} + 2\right)\right].$$

This last equation follows immediately by expanding the expression on the right-hand side:

$$\frac{1}{x}\left[2 - \left(\frac{C}{x} + 2\right)\right] = \frac{1}{x}\left(-\frac{C}{x}\right) = -\frac{C}{x^2}.$$

Therefore, for every value of C, the function $y = C/x + 2$ is a solution of the differential equation. ■

As was the case in finding antiderivatives, we often need a *particular* rather than the general solution to a first-order differential equation $y' = f(x, y)$. The **particular solution** satisfying the initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$ is the solution $y = y(x)$ whose value is y_0 when $x = x_0$. Thus the graph of the particular solution passes through the point (x_0, y_0) in the xy-plane. A **first-order initial value problem** is a differential equation $y' = f(x, y)$ whose solution must satisfy an initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$.

EXAMPLE 2 Show that the function

$$y = (x + 1) - \frac{1}{3}e^x$$

is a solution to the first-order initial value problem

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y - x, \qquad y(0) = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Solution The equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y - x$$

is a first-order differential equation with $f(x, y) = y - x$.

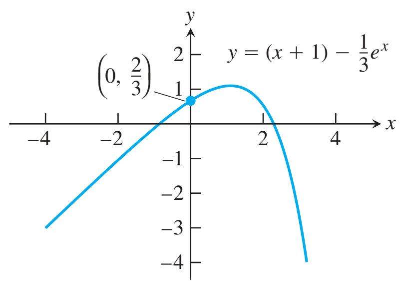


FIGURE 15.1 Graph of the solution $y = (x+1) - \frac{1}{3}e^x$ to the differential equation $dy/dx = y - x$, with initial condition $y(0) = \frac{2}{3}$ (Example 2).

On the left side of the equation:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}\left(x + 1 - \frac{1}{3}e^x\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{3}e^x.$$

On the right side of the equation:

$$y - x = (x+1) - \frac{1}{3}e^x - x = 1 - \frac{1}{3}e^x.$$

The function satisfies the initial condition because

$$y(0) = \left[(x+1) - \frac{1}{3}e^x\right]_{x=0} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

The graph of the function is shown in Figure 15.1. ■

Slope Fields: Viewing Solution Curves

Each time we specify an initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$ for the solution of a differential equation $y' = f(x, y)$, the **solution curve** (graph of the solution) is required to pass through the point (x_0, y_0) and to have slope $f(x_0, y_0)$ there. We can picture these slopes graphically by drawing short line segments of slope $f(x, y)$ at selected points (x, y) in the region of the xy-plane that constitutes the domain of f. Each segment has the same slope as the solution curve through (x, y) and so is tangent to the curve there. The resulting picture is called a **slope field** (or **direction field**) and gives a visualization of the general shape of the solution curves. Figure 15.2a shows a slope field, with a particular solution sketched into it in Figure 15.2b. We see how these line segments indicate the direction the solution curve takes at each point it passes through.

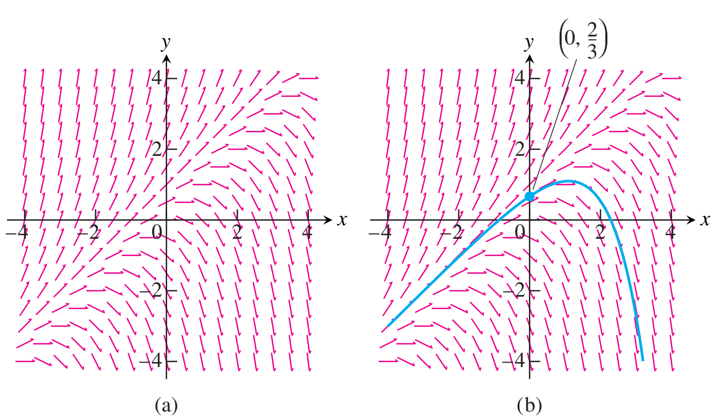


FIGURE 15.2 (a) Slope field for $\frac{dy}{dx} = y - x$. (b) The particular solution curve through the point $\left(0, \frac{2}{3}\right)$ (Example 2).

Figure 15.3 shows three slope fields and we see how the solution curves behave by following the tangent line segments in these fields.

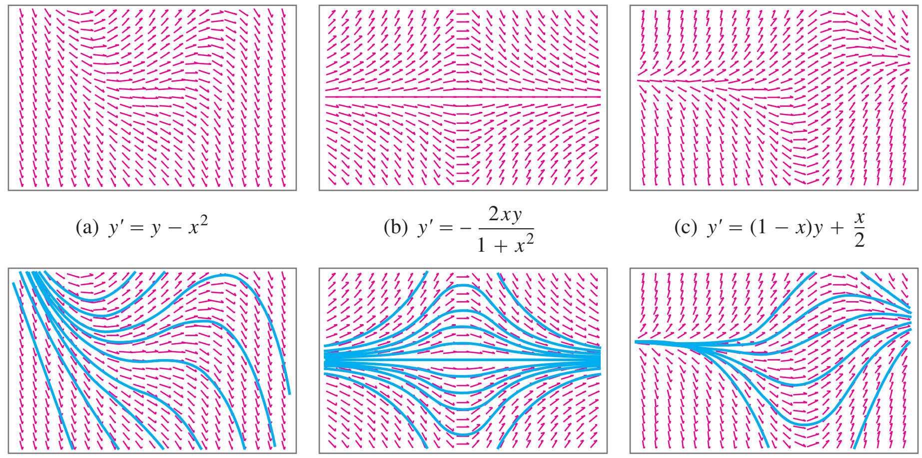


FIGURE 15.3 Slope fields (top row) and selected solution curves (bottom row). In computer renditions, slope segments are sometimes portrayed with arrows, as they are here. This is not to be taken as an indication that slopes have directions, however, for they do not.

Constructing a slope field with pencil and paper can be quite tedious. All our examples were generated by a computer.

The Existence of Solutions

A basic question in the study of first-order initial value problems concerns whether a solution even exists. A second important question asks whether there can be more than one solution. Some conditions must be imposed to assure the existence of exactly one solution, as illustrated in the next example.

EXAMPLE 3 The initial value problem

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y^{4/5}, \qquad y(0) = 0$$

has more than one solution. One solution is the constant function $y(x) = 0$ for which the graph lies along the x-axis. A second solution is found by separating variables and integrating, as we did in Section 6.5. This leads to

$$y = \left(\frac{x}{5}\right)^5.$$

The two solutions $y = 0$ and $y = (x/5)^5$ both satisfy the initial condition $y(0) = 0$ (Figure 15.4).

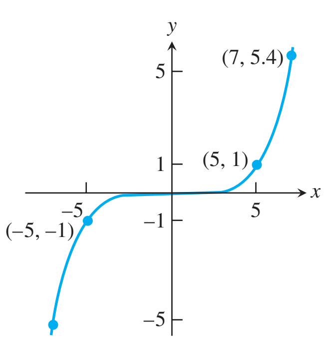


FIGURE 15.4 The graph of the solution $y = (x/5)^5$ to the initial value problem in Example 3. Another solution is $y = 0$.

We have found a differential equation with multiple solutions satisfying the same initial condition. This differential equation has even more solutions. For instance, two additional solutions are

$$y = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } x \le 0 \\ \left(\dfrac{x}{5}\right)^5, & \text{for } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

and

$$y = \begin{cases} \left(\dfrac{x}{5}\right)^5, & \text{for } x \leq 0 \\ 0, & \text{for } x > 0 \end{cases}.$$

■

In many applications it is desirable to know that there is exactly one solution to an initial value problem. Such a solution is said to be *unique.* Picard's Theorem gives conditions under which there is precisely one solution. It guarantees both the existence and uniqueness of a solution.

THEOREM 1—Picard's Theorem Suppose that both $f(x, y)$ and its partial derivative $\partial f/\partial y$ are continuous on the interior of a rectangle R, and that (x_0, y_0) is an interior point of R. Then the initial value problem

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y), \qquad y(x_0) = y_0 \tag{2}$$

has a unique solution $y = y(x)$ for x in some open interval containing x_0.

The differential equation in Example 3 fails to satisfy the conditions of Picard's Theorem. Although the function $f(x, y) = y^{4/5}$ from Example 3 is continuous in the entire xy-plane, the partial derivative $\partial f/\partial y = (4/5)\,y^{-1/5}$ fails to be continuous at the point (0, 0) specified by the initial condition. Thus we found the possibility of more than one solution to the given initial value problem. Moreover, the partial derivative $\partial f/\partial y$ is not even defined where $y = 0$. However, the initial value problem of Example 3 does have unique solutions whenever the initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$ has $y_0 \neq 0$.

Picard's Iteration Scheme

Picard's Theorem is proved by applying *Picard's iteration scheme*, which we now introduce. We begin by noticing that any solution to the initial value problem of Equations (2) must also satisfy the *integral equation*

$$y(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} f(t, y(t))\, dt \tag{3}$$

because

$$\int_{x_0}^{x} \frac{dy}{dt}\, dt = y(x) - y(x_0).$$

The converse is also true: If $y(x)$ satisfies Equation (3), then $y' = f(x, y(x))$ and $y(x_0) = y_0$. So Equations (2) may be replaced by Equation (3). This sets the stage for Picard's interation method: In the integrand in Equation (3), replace $y(t)$ by the constant y_0, then integrate and call the resulting right-hand side of Equation (3) $y_1(x)$:

$$y_1(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} f(t, y_0)\, dt. \tag{4}$$

This starts the process. To keep it going, we use the iterative formulas

$$y_{n+1}(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} f(t, y_n(t))\, dt. \tag{5}$$

The proof of Picard's Theorem consists of showing that this process produces a sequence of functions $\{y_n(x)\}$ that converge to a function $y(x)$ that satisfies Equations (2) and (3) for values of x sufficiently near x_0. (The proof also shows that the solution is unique; that is, no other method will lead to a different solution.)

The following examples illustrate the Picard iteration scheme, but in most practical cases the computations soon become too burdensome to continue.

EXAMPLE 4 Illustrate the Picard iteration scheme for the initial value problem

$$y' = x - y, \qquad y(0) = 1.$$

Solution For the problem at hand, $f(x, y) = x - y$, and Equation (4) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} y_1(x) &= 1 + \int_0^x (t - 1)\, dt && y_0 = 1 \\ &= 1 + \frac{x^2}{2} - x. \end{aligned}$$

If we now use Equation (5) with $n = 1$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} y_2(x) &= 1 + \int_0^x \left(t - 1 - \frac{t^2}{2} + t\right) dt && \text{Substitute } y_1 \text{ for } y \text{ in } f(t, y). \\ &= 1 - x + x^2 - \frac{x^3}{6}. \end{aligned}$$

The next iteration, with $n = 2$, gives

$$\begin{aligned} y_3(x) &= 1 + \int_0^x \left(t - 1 + t - t^2 + \frac{t^3}{6}\right) dt && \text{Substitute } y_2 \text{ for } y \text{ in } f(t, y). \\ &= 1 - x + x^2 - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^4}{4!}. \end{aligned}$$

In this example it is possible to find the exact solution because

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

is a first-order differential equation that is linear in y. You will learn how to find the general solution

$$y = x - 1 + Ce^{-x}$$

in the next section. The solution of the initial value problem is then

$$y = x - 1 + 2e^{-x}.$$

If we substitute the Maclaurin series for e^{-x} in this particular solution, we get

$$\begin{aligned} y &= x - 1 + 2\left(1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots\right) \\ &= 1 - x + x^2 - \frac{x^3}{3} + 2\left(\frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^5}{5!} + \cdots\right), \end{aligned}$$

and we see that the Picard scheme producing $y_3(x)$ has given us the first four terms of this expansion. ■

In the next example we cannot find a solution in terms of elementary functions. The Picard scheme is one way we could get an idea of how the solution behaves near the initial point.

EXAMPLE 5 Find $y_n(x)$ for $n = 0, 1, 2,$ and 3 for the initial value problem

$$y' = x^2 + y^2, \qquad y(0) = 0.$$

Solution By definition, $y_0(x) = y(0) = 0$. The other functions $y_n(x)$ are generated by the integral representation

$$\begin{aligned} y_{n+1}(x) &= 0 + \int_0^x \left[t^2 + (y_n(t))^2\right] dt \\ &= \frac{x^3}{3} + \int_0^x (y_n(t))^2\, dt. \end{aligned}$$

We successively calculate

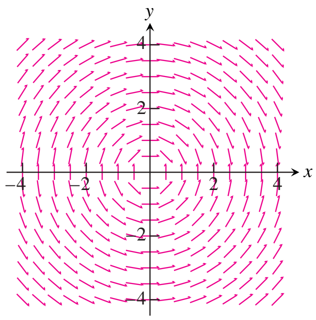
$$\begin{aligned} y_1(x) &= \frac{x^3}{3}, \\ y_2(x) &= \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^7}{63}, \\ y_3(x) &= \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^7}{63} + \frac{2x^{11}}{2079} + \frac{x^{15}}{59535}. \end{aligned}$$

■

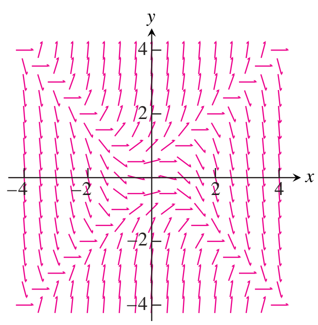
In Section 15.4 we introduce numerical methods for solving initial value problems like those in Examples 4 and 5.

EXERCISES 15.1

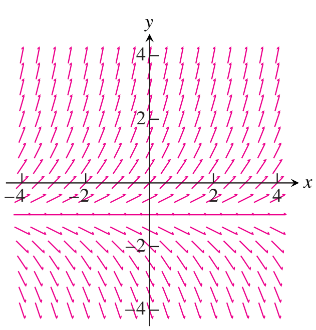
In Exercises 1–4, match the differential equations with their slope fields, graphed here.



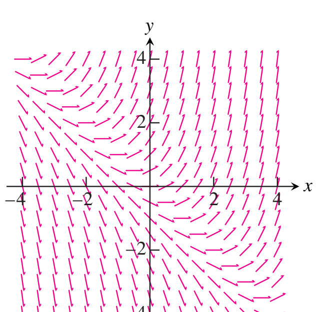
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

1. $y' = x + y$

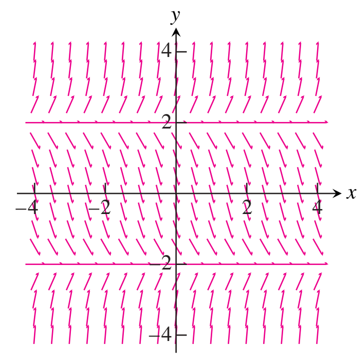
2. $y' = y + 1$

3. $y' = -\dfrac{x}{y}$

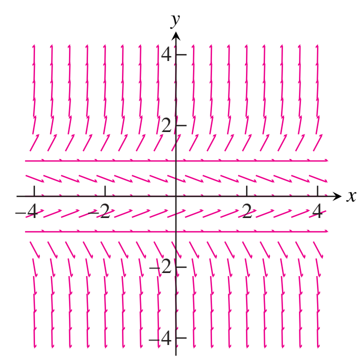
4. $y' = y^2 - x^2$

In Exercises 5 and 6, copy the slope fields and sketch in some of the solution curves.

5. $y' = (y + 2)(y - 2)$



6. $y' = y(y + 1)(y - 1)$



In Exercises 7–10, write an equivalent first-order differential equation and initial condition for y.

7. $y = -1 + \displaystyle\int_1^x (t - y(t))\,dt$

8. $y = \displaystyle\int_1^x \frac{1}{t}\,dt$

9. $y = 2 - \displaystyle\int_0^x (1 + y(t)) \sin t\,dt$

10. $y = 1 + \displaystyle\int_0^x y(t)\,dt$

Use Picard's iteration scheme to find $y_n(x)$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, 3$ in Exercises 11–16.

11. $y' = x, \quad y(1) = 2$

12. $y' = y, \quad y(0) = 1$

13. $y' = xy, \quad y(1) = 1$

14. $y' = x + y, \quad y(0) = 0$

15. $y' = x + y, \quad y(0) = 1$

16. $y' = 2x - y, \quad y(-1) = 1$

17. Show that the solution of the initial value problem

$$y' = x + y, \quad y(x_0) = y_0$$

is

$$y = -1 - x + (1 + x_0 + y_0)\, e^{x - x_0}.$$

18. What integral equation is equivalent to the initial value problem $y' = f(x),\ y(x_0) = y_0$?

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

In Exercises 19–24, obtain a slope field and add to it graphs of the solution curves passing through the given points.

19. $y' = y$ with

a. $(0, 1)$ **b.** $(0, 2)$ **c.** $(0, -1)$

20. $y' = 2(y - 4)$ with

a. $(0, 1)$ **b.** $(0, 4)$ **c.** $(0, 5)$

21. $y' = y(x + y)$ with

a. $(0, 1)$ **b.** $(0, -2)$ **c.** $(0, 1/4)$ **d.** $(-1, -1)$

22. $y' = y^2$ with

a. $(0, 1)$ **b.** $(0, 2)$ **c.** $(0, -1)$ **d.** $(0, 0)$

23. $y' = (y - 1)(x + 2)$ with

a. $(0, -1)$ **b.** $(0, 1)$ **c.** $(0, 3)$ **d.** $(1, -1)$

24. $y' = \dfrac{xy}{x^2 + 4}$ with

a. $(0, 2)$ **b.** $(0, -6)$ **c.** $\left(-2\sqrt{3}, -4\right)$

In Exercises 25 and 26, obtain a slope field and graph the particular solution over the specified interval. Use your CAS DE solver to find the general solution of the differential equation.

25. **A logistic equation** $y' = y(2 - y), \quad y(0) = 1/2;$
$0 \le x \le 4, \quad 0 \le y \le 3$

26. $y' = (\sin x)(\sin y), \quad y(0) = 2; \quad -6 \le x \le 6, \quad -6 \le y \le 6$

Exercises 27 and 28 have no explicit solution in terms of elementary functions. Use a CAS to explore graphically each of the differential equations.

27. $y' = \cos(2x - y), \quad y(0) = 2; \quad 0 \le x \le 5, \quad 0 \le y \le 5$

28. **A Gompertz equation** $y' = y(1/2 - \ln y), \quad y(0) = 1/3;$
$0 \le x \le 4, \quad 0 \le y \le 3$

29. Use a CAS to find the solutions of $y' + y = f(x)$ subject to the initial condition $y(0) = 0$, if $f(x)$ is

a. $2x$ **b.** $\sin 2x$ **c.** $3e^{x/2}$ **d.** $2e^{-x/2}\cos 2x$.

Graph all four solutions over the interval $-2 \le x \le 6$ to compare the results.

30. **a.** Use a CAS to plot the slope field of the differential equation

$$y' = \frac{3x^2 + 4x + 2}{2(y - 1)}$$

over the region $-3 \le x \le 3$ and $-3 \le y \le 3$.

b. Separate the variables and use a CAS integrator to find the general solution in implicit form.

c. Using a CAS implicit function grapher, plot solution curves for the arbitrary constant values $C = -6, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, 6$.

d. Find and graph the solution that satisfies the initial condition $y(0) = -1$.

15.2 First-Order Linear Equations

A first-order **linear** differential equation is one that can be written in the form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x), \tag{1}$$

where P and Q are continuous functions of x. Equation (1) is the linear equation's **standard form**. Since the exponential growth/decay equation $dy/dx = ky$ (Section 6.5) can be put in the standard form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - ky = 0,$$

we see it is a linear equation with $P(x) = -k$ and $Q(x) = 0$. Equation (1) is *linear* (in y) because y and its derivative dy/dx occur only to the first power, are not multiplied together, nor do they appear as the argument of a function $\left(\text{such as } \sin y,\ e^y, \text{ or } \sqrt{dy/dx}\right)$.

EXAMPLE 1 Put the following equation in standard form:

$$x\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 + 3y, \qquad x > 0.$$

Solution

$$x\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 + 3y$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x + \frac{3}{x}y \qquad \text{Divide by } x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{3}{x}y = x \qquad \text{Standard form with } P(x) = -3/x \text{ and } Q(x) = x$$

Notice that $P(x)$ is $-3/x$, not $+3/x$. The standard form is $y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$, so the minus sign is part of the formula for $P(x)$. ■

Solving Linear Equations

We solve the equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x) \tag{2}$$

by multiplying both sides by a *positive* function $v(x)$ that transforms the left-hand side into the derivative of the product $v(x) \cdot y$. We will show how to find v in a moment, but first we want to show how, once found, it provides the solution we seek.

Here is why multiplying by $v(x)$ works:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x) \qquad \text{Original equation is in standard form.}$$

$$v(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)v(x)y = v(x)Q(x) \qquad \text{Multiply by positive } v(x).$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(v(x) \cdot y) = v(x)Q(x) \qquad v(x) \text{ is chosen to make } v\frac{dy}{dx} + Pvy = \frac{d}{dx}(v \cdot y).$$

$$v(x) \cdot y = \int v(x)Q(x)\,dx \qquad \text{Integrate with respect to } x.$$

$$y = \frac{1}{v(x)}\int v(x)Q(x)\,dx \tag{3}$$

Equation (3) expresses the solution of Equation (2) in terms of the function $v(x)$ and $Q(x)$. We call $v(x)$ an **integrating factor** for Equation (2) because its presence makes the equation integrable.

Why doesn't the formula for $P(x)$ appear in the solution as well? It does, but indirectly, in the construction of the positive function $v(x)$. We have

$$\frac{d}{dx}(vy) = v\frac{dy}{dx} + Pvy \qquad \text{Condition imposed on } v$$

$$v\frac{dy}{dx} + y\frac{dv}{dx} = v\frac{dy}{dx} + Pvy \qquad \text{Product Rule for derivatives}$$

$$y\frac{dv}{dx} = Pvy \qquad \text{The terms } v\frac{dy}{dx} \text{ cancel.}$$

This last equation will hold if

$$\frac{dv}{dx} = Pv$$

$$\frac{dv}{v} = P\,dx \qquad \text{Variables separated, } v > 0$$

$$\int \frac{dv}{v} = \int P\,dx \qquad \text{Integrate both sides.}$$

$$\ln v = \int P\,dx \qquad \text{Since } v > 0\text{, we do not need absolute value signs in } \ln v.$$

$$e^{\ln v} = e^{\int P\,dx} \qquad \text{Exponentiate both sides to solve for } v.$$

$$v = e^{\int P\,dx} \tag{4}$$

Thus a formula for the general solution to Equation (1) is given by Equation (3), where $v(x)$ is given by Equation (4). However, rather than memorizing the formula, just remember how to find the integrating factor once you have the standard form so $P(x)$ is correctly identified.

> To solve the linear equation $y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$, multiply both sides by the integrating factor $v(x) = e^{\int P(x)\,dx}$ and integrate both sides.

When you integrate the left-hand side product in this procedure, you always obtain the product $v(x)y$ of the integrating factor and solution function y because of the way v is defined.

EXAMPLE 2 Solve the equation

$$x\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 + 3y, \qquad x > 0.$$

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY

Adrien Marie Legendre (1752–1833)

Solution First we put the equation in standard form (Example 1):

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{3}{x}y = x,$$

so $P(x) = -3/x$ is identified.

The integrating factor is

$$\begin{aligned} v(x) = e^{\int P(x)\,dx} &= e^{\int(-3/x)\,dx} \\ &= e^{-3\ln|x|} && \text{Constant of integration is 0, so } v \text{ is as simple as possible.} \\ &= e^{-3\ln x} && x > 0 \\ &= e^{\ln x^{-3}} = \frac{1}{x^3}. \end{aligned}$$

Next we multiply both sides of the standard form by $v(x)$ and integrate:

$$\frac{1}{x^3}\cdot\left(\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{3}{x}y\right) = \frac{1}{x^3}\cdot x$$

$$\frac{1}{x^3}\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{3}{x^4}y = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{1}{x^3}y\right) = \frac{1}{x^2} \qquad \text{Left-hand side is } \frac{d}{dx}(v\cdot y).$$

$$\frac{1}{x^3}y = \int \frac{1}{x^2}\,dx \qquad \text{Integrate both sides.}$$

$$\frac{1}{x^3}y = -\frac{1}{x} + C.$$

Solving this last equation for y gives the general solution:

$$y = x^3\left(-\frac{1}{x} + C\right) = -x^2 + Cx^3, \qquad x > 0.$$

■

EXAMPLE 3 Find the particular solution of

$$3xy' - y = \ln x + 1, \qquad x > 0,$$

satisfying $y(1) = -2$.

Solution With $x > 0$, we write the equation in standard form:

$$y' - \frac{1}{3x}y = \frac{\ln x + 1}{3x}.$$

Then the integrating factor is given by

$$v = e^{\int -dx/3x} = e^{(-1/3)\ln x} = x^{-1/3}. \qquad x > 0$$

Thus

$$x^{-1/3}y = \frac{1}{3}\int (\ln x + 1)x^{-4/3}\,dx. \qquad \text{Left-hand side is } vy.$$

Integration by parts of the right-hand side gives

$$x^{-1/3}y = -x^{-1/3}(\ln x + 1) + \int x^{-4/3}\,dx + C.$$

Therefore

$$x^{-1/3}y = -x^{-1/3}(\ln x + 1) - 3x^{-1/3} + C$$

or, solving for y,

$$y = -(\ln x + 4) + Cx^{1/3}.$$

When $x = 1$ and $y = -2$ this last equation becomes

$$-2 = -(0 + 4) + C,$$

so

$$C = 2.$$

Substitution into the equation for y gives the particular solution

$$y = 2x^{1/3} - \ln x - 4.$$

In solving the linear equation in Example 2, we integrated both sides of the equation after multiplying each side by the integrating factor. However, we can shorten the amount of work, as in Example 3, by remembering that the left-hand side *always* integrates into the product $v(x) \cdot y$ of the integrating factor times the solution function. From Equation (3) this means that

$$v(x)y = \int v(x)Q(x)\, dx.$$

We need only integrate the product of the integrating factor $v(x)$ with the right-hand side $Q(x)$ of Equation (1) and then equate the result with $v(x)y$ to obtain the general solution. Nevertheless, to emphasize the role of $v(x)$ in the solution process, we sometimes follow the complete procedure as illustrated in Example 2.

Observe that if the function $Q(x)$ is identically zero in the standard form given by Equation (1), the linear equation is separable:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = 0 \qquad Q(x) \equiv 0$$

$$dy = -P(x)\, dx \qquad \text{Separating the variables}$$

We now present two applied problems modeled by a first-order linear differential equation.

RL Circuits

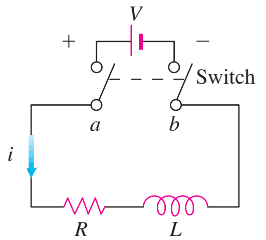


FIGURE 15.5 The *RL* circuit in Example 4.

The diagram in Figure 15.5 represents an electrical circuit whose total resistance is a constant R ohms and whose self-inductance, shown as a coil, is L henries, also a constant. There is a switch whose terminals at a and b can be closed to connect a constant electrical source of V volts.

Ohm's Law, $V = RI$, has to be modified for such a circuit. The modified form is

$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = V, \tag{5}$$

where i is the intensity of the current in amperes and t is the time in seconds. By solving this equation, we can predict how the current will flow after the switch is closed.

EXAMPLE 4 The switch in the *RL* circuit in Figure 15.5 is closed at time $t = 0$. How will the current flow as a function of time?

Solution Equation (5) is a first-order linear differential equation for i as a function of t. Its standard form is

$$\frac{di}{dt} + \frac{R}{L}i = \frac{V}{L}, \tag{6}$$

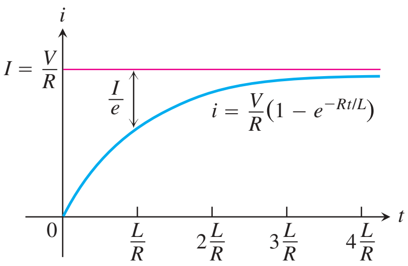


FIGURE 15.6 The growth of the current in the RL circuit in Example 4. I is the current's steady-state value. The number $t = L/R$ is the time constant of the circuit. The current gets to within 5% of its steady-state value in 3 time constants (Exercise 31).

and the corresponding solution, given that $i = 0$ when $t = 0$, is

$$i = \frac{V}{R} - \frac{V}{R}e^{-(R/L)t} \tag{7}$$

(Exercise 32). Since R and L are positive, $-(R/L)$ is negative and $e^{-(R/L)t} \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$. Thus,

$$\lim_{t\to\infty} i = \lim_{t\to\infty}\left(\frac{V}{R} - \frac{V}{R}e^{-(R/L)t}\right) = \frac{V}{R} - \frac{V}{R}\cdot 0 = \frac{V}{R}.$$

At any given time, the current is theoretically less than V/R, but as time passes, the current approaches the **steady-state value** V/R. According to the equation

$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = V,$$

$I = V/R$ is the current that will flow in the circuit if either $L = 0$ (no inductance) or $di/dt = 0$ (steady current, $i =$ constant) (Figure 15.6).

Equation (7) expresses the solution of Equation (6) as the sum of two terms: a **steady-state solution** V/R and a **transient solution** $-(V/R)e^{-(R/L)t}$ that tends to zero as $t \to \infty$. ■

Mixture Problems

A chemical in a liquid solution (or dispersed in a gas) runs into a container holding the liquid (or the gas) with, possibly, a specified amount of the chemical dissolved as well. The mixture is kept uniform by stirring and flows out of the container at a known rate. In this process, it is often important to know the concentration of the chemical in the container at any given time. The differential equation describing the process is based on the formula

$$\begin{matrix}\text{Rate of change}\\ \text{of amount}\\ \text{in container}\end{matrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\text{rate at which}\\ \text{chemical}\\ \text{arrives}\end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix}\text{rate at which}\\ \text{chemical}\\ \text{departs.}\end{pmatrix} \tag{8}$$

If $y(t)$ is the amount of chemical in the container at time t and $V(t)$ is the total volume of liquid in the container at time t, then the departure rate of the chemical at time t is

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Departure rate} &= \frac{y(t)}{V(t)}\cdot(\text{outflow rate})\\ &= \begin{pmatrix}\text{concentration in}\\ \text{container at time } t\end{pmatrix}\cdot(\text{outflow rate}).\end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

Accordingly, Equation (8) becomes

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = (\text{chemical's arrival rate}) - \frac{y(t)}{V(t)}\cdot(\text{outflow rate}). \tag{10}$$

If, say, y is measured in pounds, V in gallons, and t in minutes, the units in Equation (10) are

$$\frac{\text{pounds}}{\text{minutes}} = \frac{\text{pounds}}{\text{minutes}} - \frac{\text{pounds}}{\text{gallons}}\cdot\frac{\text{gallons}}{\text{minutes}}.$$

EXAMPLE 5 In an oil refinery, a storage tank contains 2000 gal of gasoline that initially has 100 lb of an additive dissolved in it. In preparation for winter weather, gasoline containing 2 lb of additive per gallon is pumped into the tank at a rate of 40 gal/min. The well-mixed solution is pumped out at a rate of 45 gal/min. How much of the additive is in the tank 20 min after the pumping process begins (Figure 15.7)?

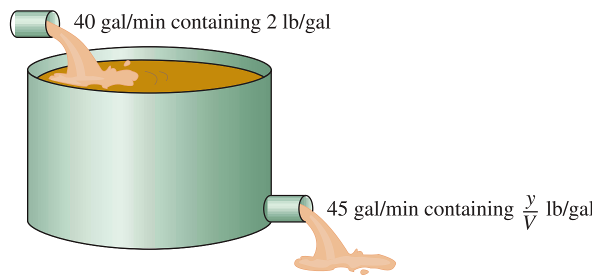


FIGURE 15.7 The storage tank in Example 5 mixes input liquid with stored liquid to produce an output liquid.

Solution Let y be the amount (in pounds) of additive in the tank at time t. We know that $y = 100$ when $t = 0$. The number of gallons of gasoline and additive in solution in the tank at any time t is

$$
\begin{aligned}
V(t) &= 2000 \text{ gal} + \left(40 \frac{\text{gal}}{\text{min}} - 45 \frac{\text{gal}}{\text{min}}\right)(t \text{ min}) \\
&= (2000 - 5t) \text{ gal}.
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text{Rate out} &= \frac{y(t)}{V(t)} \cdot \text{outflow rate} && \text{Eq. (9)} \\
&= \left(\frac{y}{2000 - 5t}\right) 45 && \text{Outflow rate is 45 gal/min and } v = 2000 - 5t. \\
&= \frac{45y}{2000 - 5t} \frac{\text{lb}}{\text{min}}.
\end{aligned}
$$

Also,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text{Rate in} &= \left(2 \frac{\text{lb}}{\text{gal}}\right)\left(40 \frac{\text{gal}}{\text{min}}\right) \\
&= 80 \frac{\text{lb}}{\text{min}}. && \text{Eq. (10)}
\end{aligned}
$$

The differential equation modeling the mixture process is

$$
\frac{dy}{dt} = 80 - \frac{45y}{2000 - 5t}
$$

in pounds per minute.

To solve this differential equation, we first write it in standard form:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{45}{2000 - 5t}\, y = 80.$$

Thus, $P(t) = 45/(2000 - 5t)$ and $Q(t) = 80$. The integrating factor is

$$\begin{aligned}
v(t) &= e^{\int P\,dt} = e^{\int \frac{45}{2000-5t}\,dt} \\
&= e^{-9\ln(2000-5t)} \qquad 2000 - 5t > 0 \\
&= (2000 - 5t)^{-9}.
\end{aligned}$$

Multiplying both sides of the standard equation by $v(t)$ and integrating both sides gives

$$\begin{aligned}
(2000 - 5t)^{-9} \cdot \left(\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{45}{2000 - 5t}\, y\right) &= 80(2000 - 5t)^{-9} \\
(2000 - 5t)^{-9}\frac{dy}{dt} + 45(2000 - 5t)^{-10}\, y &= 80(2000 - 5t)^{-9} \\
\frac{d}{dt}\left[(2000 - 5t)^{-9} y\right] &= 80(2000 - 5t)^{-9} \\
(2000 - 5t)^{-9} y &= \int 80(2000 - 5t)^{-9}\,dt \\
(2000 - 5t)^{-9} y &= 80 \cdot \frac{(2000 - 5t)^{-8}}{(-8)(-5)} + C.
\end{aligned}$$

The general solution is

$$y = 2(2000 - 5t) + C(2000 - 5t)^9.$$

Because $y = 100$ when $t = 0$, we can determine the value of C:

$$\begin{aligned}
100 &= 2(2000 - 0) + C(2000 - 0)^9 \\
C &= -\frac{3900}{(2000)^9}.
\end{aligned}$$

The particular solution of the initial value problem is

$$y = 2(2000 - 5t) - \frac{3900}{(2000)^9}(2000 - 5t)^9.$$

The amount of additive 20 min after the pumping begins is

$$y(20) = 2[2000 - 5(20)] - \frac{3900}{(2000)^9}[2000 - 5(20)]^9 \approx 1342 \text{ lb}.$$ ■

EXERCISES 15.2

Solve the differential equations in Exercises 1–14.

1. $x\dfrac{dy}{dx} + y = e^x, \quad x > 0$

2. $e^x\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 2e^x y = 1$

3. $xy' + 3y = \dfrac{\sin x}{x^2}, \quad x > 0$

4. $y' + (\tan x)y = \cos^2 x, \quad -\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$

5. $x\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 1 - \dfrac{1}{x}, \quad x > 0$

6. $(1 + x)y' + y = \sqrt{x}$

7. $2y' = e^{x/2} + y$

8. $e^{2x}y' + 2e^{2x}y = 2x$

9. $xy' - y = 2x\ln x$

10. $x\dfrac{dy}{dx} = \dfrac{\cos x}{x} - 2y, \quad x > 0$

11. $(t - 1)^3\dfrac{ds}{dt} + 4(t - 1)^2 s = t + 1, \quad t > 1$

12. $(t + 1)\dfrac{ds}{dt} + 2s = 3(t + 1) + \dfrac{1}{(t + 1)^2}, \quad t > -1$

13. $\sin\theta\dfrac{dr}{d\theta} + (\cos\theta)r = \tan\theta, \quad 0 < \theta < \pi/2$

14. $\tan\theta\dfrac{dr}{d\theta} + r = \sin^2\theta, \quad 0 < \theta < \pi/2$

Solve the initial value problems in Exercises 15–20.

15. $\dfrac{dy}{dt} + 2y = 3, \quad y(0) = 1$

16. $t\dfrac{dy}{dt} + 2y = t^3, \quad t > 0, \quad y(2) = 1$

17. $\theta\dfrac{dy}{d\theta} + y = \sin\theta, \quad \theta > 0, \quad y(\pi/2) = 1$

18. $\theta\dfrac{dy}{d\theta} - 2y = \theta^3\sec\theta\tan\theta, \quad \theta > 0, \quad y(\pi/3) = 2$

19. $(x + 1)\dfrac{dy}{dx} - 2(x^2 + x)y = \dfrac{e^{x^2}}{x + 1}, \quad x > -1, \quad y(0) = 5$

20. $\dfrac{dy}{dx} + xy = x, \quad y(0) = -6$

21. Solve the exponential growth/decay initial value problem for y as a function of t thinking of the differential equation as a first-order linear equation with $P(x) = -k$ and $Q(x) = 0$:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = ky \quad (k \text{ constant}), \quad y(0) = y_0$$

22. Solve the following initial value problem for u as a function of t:

$$\frac{du}{dt} + \frac{k}{m}u = 0 \quad (k \text{ and } m \text{ positive constants}), \quad u(0) = u_0$$

a. as a first-order linear equation.

b. as a separable equation.

23. Is either of the following equations correct? Give reasons for your answers.

a. $x\displaystyle\int \frac{1}{x}\,dx = x\ln|x| + C$ **b.** $x\displaystyle\int \frac{1}{x}\,dx = x\ln|x| + Cx$

24. Is either of the following equations correct? Give reasons for your answers.

a. $\dfrac{1}{\cos x}\displaystyle\int \cos x\,dx = \tan x + C$

b. $\dfrac{1}{\cos x}\displaystyle\int \cos x\,dx = \tan x + \dfrac{C}{\cos x}$

25. Salt mixture A tank initially contains 100 gal of brine in which 50 lb of salt are dissolved. A brine containing 2 lb/gal of salt runs into the tank at the rate of 5 gal/min. The mixture is kept uniform by stirring and flows out of the tank at the rate of 4 gal/min.

a. At what rate (pounds per minute) does salt enter the tank at time t?

b. What is the volume of brine in the tank at time t?

c. At what rate (pounds per minute) does salt leave the tank at time t?

d. Write down and solve the initial value problem describing the mixing process.

e. Find the concentration of salt in the tank 25 min after the process starts.

26. Mixture problem A 200-gal tank is half full of distilled water. At time $t = 0$, a solution containing 0.5 lb/gal of concentrate enters the tank at the rate of 5 gal/min, and the well-stirred mixture is withdrawn at the rate of 3 gal/min.

a. At what time will the tank be full?

b. At the time the tank is full, how many pounds of concentrate will it contain?

27. Fertilizer mixture A tank contains 100 gal of fresh water. A solution containing 1 lb/gal of soluble lawn fertilizer runs into the tank at the rate of 1 gal/min, and the mixture is pumped out of the tank at the rate of 3 gal/min. Find the maximum amount of fertilizer in the tank and the time required to reach the maximum.

28. Carbon monoxide pollution An executive conference room of a corporation contains 4500 ft^3 of air initially free of carbon monoxide. Starting at time $t = 0$, cigarette smoke containing 4% carbon monoxide is blown into the room at the rate of 0.3 ft^3/min. A ceiling fan keeps the air in the room well circulated and the air leaves the room at the same rate of 0.3 ft^3/min. Find the time when the concentration of carbon monoxide in the room reaches 0.01%.

29. Current in a closed *RL* circuit How many seconds after the switch in an RL circuit is closed will it take the current i to reach half of its steady-state value? Notice that the time depends on R and L and not on how much voltage is applied.

30. Current in an open *RL* circuit If the switch is thrown open after the current in an RL circuit has built up to its steady-state value $I = V/R$, the decaying current (graphed here) obeys the equation

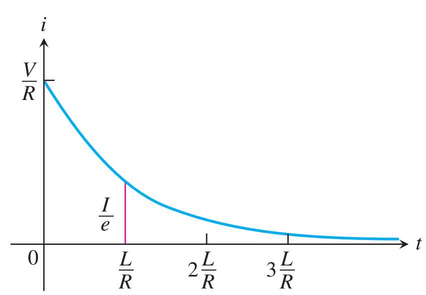
$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = 0,$$

which is Equation (5) with $V = 0$.

a. Solve the equation to express i as a function of t.

b. How long after the switch is thrown will it take the current to fall to half its original value?

c. Show that the value of the current when $t = L/R$ is I/e. (The significance of this time is explained in the next exercise.)



31. Time constants Engineers call the number L/R the *time constant* of the RL circuit in Figure 15.6. The significance of the time constant is that the current will reach 95% of its final value within 3 time constants of the time the switch is closed (Figure 15.6). Thus, the time constant gives a built-in measure of how rapidly an individual circuit will reach equilibrium.

a. Find the value of i in Equation (7) that corresponds to $t = 3L/R$ and show that it is about 95% of the steady-state value $I = V/R$.

b. Approximately what percentage of the steady-state current will be flowing in the circuit 2 time constants after the switch is closed (i.e., when $t = 2L/R$)?

32. Derivation of Equation (7) in Example 4

a. Show that the solution of the equation

$$\frac{di}{dt} + \frac{R}{L}i = \frac{V}{L}$$

is

$$i = \frac{V}{R} + Ce^{-(R/L)t}.$$

b. Then use the initial condition $i(0) = 0$ to determine the value of C. This will complete the derivation of Equation (7).

c. Show that $i = V/R$ is a solution of Equation (6) and that $i = Ce^{-(R/L)t}$ satisfies the equation

$$\frac{di}{dt} + \frac{R}{L}i = 0.$$

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY

James Bernoulli
(1654–1705)

A **Bernoulli differential equation** is of the form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)y^n.$$

Observe that, if $n = 0$ or 1, the Bernoulli equation is linear. For other values of n, the substitution $u = y^{1-n}$ transforms the Bernoulli equation into the linear equation

$$\frac{du}{dx} + (1-n)P(x)u = (1-n)Q(x).$$

For example, in the equation

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

we have $n = 2$, so that $u = y^{1-2} = y^{-1}$ and $du/dx = -y^{-2}\,dy/dx$. Then $dy/dx = -y^2\,du/dx = -u^{-2}\,du/dx$. Substitution into the original equation gives

$$-u^{-2}\frac{du}{dx} - u^{-1} = e^{-x}u^{-2}$$

or, equivalently,

$$\frac{du}{dx} + u = -e^{-x}.$$

This last equation is linear in the (unknown) dependent variable u.

Solve the differential equations in Exercises 33–36.

33. $y' - y = -y^2$

34. $y' - y = xy^2$

35. $xy' + y = y^{-2}$

36. $x^2y' + 2xy = y^3$

15.3 Applications

We now look at three applications of first-order differential equations. The first application analyzes an object moving along a straight line while subject to a force opposing its motion. The second is a model of population growth. The last application considers a curve or curves intersecting each curve in a second family of curves *orthogonally* (that is, at right angles).

Resistance Proportional to Velocity

In some cases it is reasonable to assume that the resistance encountered by a moving object, such as a car coasting to a stop, is proportional to the object's velocity. The faster the object moves, the more its forward progress is resisted by the air through which it passes. Picture the object as a mass m moving along a coordinate line with position function s and velocity v at time t. From Newton's second law of motion, the resisting force opposing the motion is

$$\text{Force} = \text{mass} \times \text{acceleration} = m\frac{dv}{dt}.$$

If the resisting force is proportional to velocity, we have

$$m\frac{dv}{dt} = -kv \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{k}{m}v \qquad (k > 0).$$

This is a separable differential equation representing exponential change. The solution to the equation with initial condition $v = v_0$ at $t = 0$ is (Section 6.5)

$$v = v_0 e^{-(k/m)t}. \tag{1}$$

What can we learn from Equation (1)? For one thing, we can see that if m is something large, like the mass of a 20,000-ton ore boat in Lake Erie, it will take a long time for the velocity to approach zero (because t must be large in the exponent of the equation in order to make kt/m large enough for v to be small). We can learn even more if we integrate Equation (1) to find the position s as a function of time t.

Suppose that a body is coasting to a stop and the only force acting on it is a resistance proportional to its speed. How far will it coast? To find out, we start with Equation (1) and solve the initial value problem

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = v_0 e^{-(k/m)t}, \qquad s(0) = 0.$$

Integrating with respect to t gives

$$s = -\frac{v_0 m}{k}e^{-(k/m)t} + C.$$

Substituting $s = 0$ when $t = 0$ gives

$$0 = -\frac{v_0 m}{k} + C \qquad \text{and} \qquad C = \frac{v_0 m}{k}.$$

The body's position at time t is therefore

$$s(t) = -\frac{v_0 m}{k}e^{-(k/m)t} + \frac{v_0 m}{k} = \frac{v_0 m}{k}\left(1 - e^{-(k/m)t}\right). \tag{2}$$

To find how far the body will coast, we find the limit of $s(t)$ as $t \to \infty$. Since $-(k/m) < 0$, we know that $e^{-(k/m)t} \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$, so that

$$\lim_{t\to\infty} s(t) = \lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{v_0 m}{k}\left(1 - e^{-(k/m)t}\right)$$
$$= \frac{v_0 m}{k}(1 - 0) = \frac{v_0 m}{k}.$$

Thus,

$$\text{Distance coasted} = \frac{v_0 m}{k}. \tag{3}$$

The number $v_0 m/k$ is only an upper bound (albeit a useful one). It is true to life in one respect, at least: if m is large, it will take a lot of energy to stop the body.

In the English system, where weight is measured in pounds, mass is measured in **slugs**. Thus,

$$\text{Pounds} = \text{slugs} \times 32,$$

assuming the gravitational constant is 32 ft/sec^2.

EXAMPLE 1 For a 192-lb ice skater, the k in Equation (1) is about 1/3 slug/sec and $m = 192/32 = 6$ slugs. How long will it take the skater to coast from 11 ft/sec (7.5 mph) to 1 ft/sec? How far will the skater coast before coming to a complete stop?

Solution We answer the first question by solving Equation (1) for t:

$$\begin{aligned} 11e^{-t/18} &= 1 && \text{Eq. (1) with } k = 1/3,\ m = 6,\ v_0 = 11,\ v = 1 \\ e^{-t/18} &= 1/11 \\ -t/18 &= \ln(1/11) = -\ln 11 \\ t &= 18 \ln 11 \approx 43 \text{ sec}. \end{aligned}$$

We answer the second question with Equation (3):

$$\text{Distance coasted} = \frac{v_0 m}{k} = \frac{11 \cdot 6}{1/3}$$
$$= 198 \text{ ft}.$$

Modeling Population Growth

In Section 6.5 we modeled population growth with the Law of Exponential Change:

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = kP, \qquad P(0) = P_0$$

where P is the population at time t, $k > 0$ is a constant growth rate, and P_0 is the size of the population at time $t = 0$. In Section 6.5 we found the solution $P = P_0 e^{kt}$ to this model.

To assess the model, notice that the exponential growth differential equation says that

$$\frac{dP/dt}{P} = k \tag{4}$$

is constant. This rate is called the **relative growth rate**. Now, Table 15.1 gives the world population at midyear for the years 1980 to 1989. Taking $dt = 1$ and $dP \approx \Delta P$, we see from the table that the relative growth rate in Equation (4) is approximately the constant 0.017. Thus, based on the tabled data with $t = 0$ representing 1980, $t = 1$ representing 1981, and so forth, the world population could be modeled by the initial value problem,

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = 0.017P, \qquad P(0) = 4454.$$

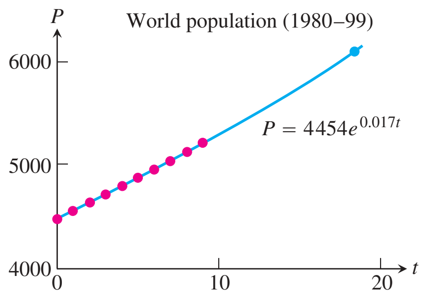


FIGURE 15.8 Notice that the value of the solution $P = 4454e^{0.017t}$ is 6152.16 when $t = 19$, which is slightly higher than the actual population in 1999.

TABLE 15.1 World population (midyear)

Year	Population (millions)	$\Delta P/P$
1980	4454	$76/4454 \approx 0.0171$
1981	4530	$80/4530 \approx 0.0177$
1982	4610	$80/4610 \approx 0.0174$
1983	4690	$80/4690 \approx 0.0171$
1984	4770	$81/4770 \approx 0.0170$
1985	4851	$82/4851 \approx 0.0169$
1986	4933	$85/4933 \approx 0.0172$
1987	5018	$87/5018 \approx 0.0173$
1988	5105	$85/5105 \approx 0.0167$
1989	5190	

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census (Sept., 1999): www.census.gov/ipc/www/worldpop.html.

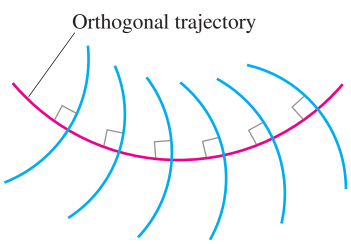


FIGURE 15.9 An orthogonal trajectory intersects the family of curves at right angles, or orthogonally.

The solution to this initial value problem gives the population function $P = 4454e^{0.017t}$. In year 1999 (so $t = 19$), the solution predicts the world population in midyear to be about 6152 million, or 6.15 billion (Figure 15.8), which is more than the actual population of 6001 million from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. In Section 15.5 we propose a more realistic model considering environmental factors affecting the growth rate.

Orthogonal Trajectories

An **orthogonal trajectory** of a family of curves is a curve that intersects each curve of the family at right angles, or *orthogonally* (Figure 15.9). For instance, each straight line through the origin is an orthogonal trajectory of the family of circles $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, centered at the origin (Figure 15.10). Such mutually orthogonal systems of curves are of particular importance in physical problems related to electrical potential, where the curves in one family correspond to flow of electric current and those in the other family correspond to curves of constant potential. They also occur in hydrodynamics and heat-flow problems.

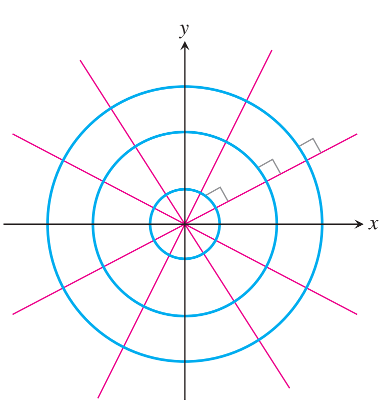


FIGURE 15.10 Every straight line through the origin is orthogonal to the family of circles centered at the origin.

EXAMPLE 2 Find the orthogonal trajectories of the family of curves $xy = a$, where $a \neq 0$ is an arbitrary constant.

Solution The curves $xy = a$ form a family of hyperbolas with asymptotes $y = \pm x$. First we find the slopes of each curve in this family, or their dy/dx values. Differentiating $xy = a$ implicitly gives

$$x\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0 \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{y}{x}.$$

Thus the slope of the tangent line at any point (x, y) on one of the hyperbolas $xy = a$ is $y' = -y/x$. On an orthogonal trajectory the slope of the tangent line at this same point

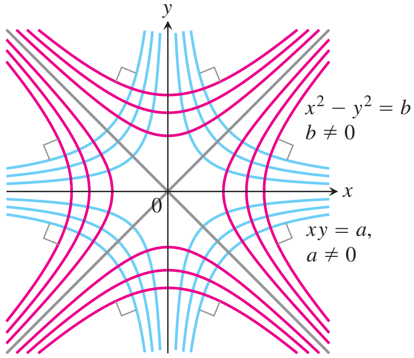


FIGURE 15.11 Each curve is orthogonal to every curve it meets in the other family (Example 2).

must be the negative reciprocal, or x/y. Therefore, the orthogonal trajectories must satisfy the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x}{y}.$$

This differential equation is separable and we solve it as in Section 6.5:

$$y\,dy = x\,dx \qquad \text{Separate variables.}$$

$$\int y\,dy = \int x\,dx \qquad \text{Integrate both sides.}$$

$$\frac{1}{2}y^2 = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + C$$

$$y^2 - x^2 = b, \tag{5}$$

where $b = 2C$ is an arbitrary constant. The orthogonal trajectories are the family of hyperbolas given by Equation (5) and sketched in Figure 15.11. ■

EXERCISES 15.3

1. **Coasting bicycle** A 66-kg cyclist on a 7-kg bicycle starts coasting on level ground at 9 m/sec. The k in Equation (1) is about 3.9 kg/sec.
   a. About how far will the cyclist coast before reaching a complete stop?
   b. How long will it take the cyclist's speed to drop to 1 m/sec?
2. **Coasting battleship** Suppose that an Iowa class battleship has mass around 51,000 metric tons (51,000,000 kg) and a k value in Equation (1) of about 59,000 kg/sec. Assume that the ship loses power when it is moving at a speed of 9 m/sec.
   a. About how far will the ship coast before it is dead in the water?
   b. About how long will it take the ship's speed to drop to 1 m/sec?
3. The data in Table 15.2 were collected with a motion detector and a CBL™ by Valerie Sharritts, a mathematics teacher at St. Francis DeSales High School in Columbus, Ohio. The table shows the distance s (meters) coasted on in-line skates in t sec by her daughter Ashley when she was 10 years old. Find a model for Ashley's position given by the data in Table 15.2 in the form of Equation (2). Her initial velocity was $v_0 = 2.75$ m/sec, her mass $m = 39.92$ kg (she weighed 88 lb), and her total coasting distance was 4.91 m.
4. **Coasting to a stop** Table 15.3 shows the distance s (meters) coasted on in-line skates in terms of time t (seconds) by Kelly Schmitzer. Find a model for her position in the form of Equation (2). Her initial velocity was $v_0 = 0.80$ m/sec, her mass $m = 49.90$ kg (110 lb), and her total coasting distance was 1.32 m.

TABLE 15.2 Ashley Sharritts skating data

t (sec)	*s* (m)	*t* (sec)	*s* (m)	*t* (sec)	*s* (m)
0	0	2.24	3.05	4.48	4.77
0.16	0.31	2.40	3.22	4.64	4.82
0.32	0.57	2.56	3.38	4.80	4.84
0.48	0.80	2.72	3.52	4.96	4.86
0.64	1.05	2.88	3.67	5.12	4.88
0.80	1.28	3.04	3.82	5.28	4.89
0.96	1.50	3.20	3.96	5.44	4.90
1.12	1.72	3.36	4.08	5.60	4.90
1.28	1.93	3.52	4.18	5.76	4.91
1.44	2.09	3.68	4.31	5.92	4.90
1.60	2.30	3.84	4.41	6.08	4.91
1.76	2.53	4.00	4.52	6.24	4.90
1.92	2.73	4.16	4.63	6.40	4.91
2.08	2.89	4.32	4.69	6.56	4.91

TABLE 15.3 Kelly Schmitzer skating data

t (sec)	*s* (m)	*t* (sec)	*s* (m)	*t* (sec)	*s* (m)
0	0	1.5	0.89	3.1	1.30
0.1	0.07	1.7	0.97	3.3	1.31
0.3	0.22	1.9	1.05	3.5	1.32
0.5	0.36	2.1	1.11	3.7	1.32
0.7	0.49	2.3	1.17	3.9	1.32
0.9	0.60	2.5	1.22	4.1	1.32
1.1	0.71	2.7	1.25	4.3	1.32
1.3	0.81	2.9	1.28	4.5	1.32

In Exercises 5–10, find the orthogonal trajectories of the family of curves. Sketch several members of each family.

5. $y = mx$

6. $y = cx^2$

7. $kx^2 + y^2 = 1$

8. $2x^2 + y^2 = c^2$

9. $y = ce^{-x}$

10. $y = e^{kx}$

11. Show that the curves $2x^2 + 3y^2 = 5$ and $y^2 = x^3$ are orthogonal.

12. Find the family of solutions of the given differential equation and the family of orthogonal trajectories. Sketch both families.

a. $x\,dx + y\,dy = 0$ **b.** $x\,dy - 2y\,dx = 0$

13. Suppose a and b are positive numbers. Sketch the parabolas

$$y^2 = 4a^2 - 4ax \quad \text{and} \quad y^2 = 4b^2 + 4bx$$

in the same diagram. Show that they intersect at $\left(a - b, \pm 2\sqrt{ab}\right)$, and that each "$a$-parabola" is orthogonal to every "b-parabola."

15.4 Euler's Method

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY

Leonhard Euler
(1703–1783)

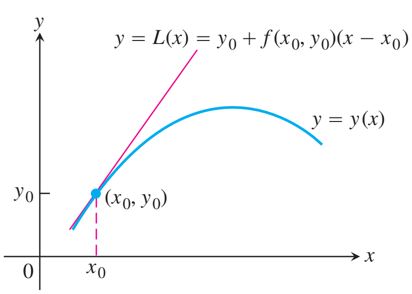


FIGURE 15.12 The linearization $L(x)$ of $y = y(x)$ at $x = x_0$.

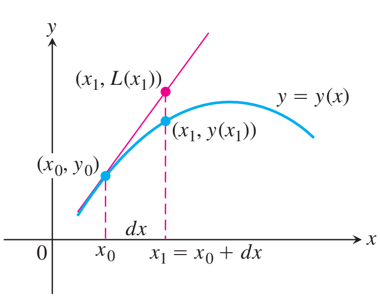


FIGURE 15.13 The first Euler step approximates $y(x_1)$ with $y_1 = L(x_1)$.

If we do not require or cannot immediately find an *exact* solution for an initial value problem $y' = f(x, y), y(x_0) = y_0$, we can often use a computer to generate a table of approximate numerical values of y for values of x in an appropriate interval. Such a table is called a **numerical solution** of the problem, and the method by which we generate the table is called a **numerical method**. Numerical methods are generally fast and accurate, and they are often the methods of choice when exact formulas are unnecessary, unavailable, or overly complicated. In this section, we study one such method, called *Euler's method*, upon which many other numerical methods are based.

Euler's Method

Given a differential equation $dy/dx = f(x, y)$ and an initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$, we can approximate the solution $y = y(x)$ by its linearization

$$L(x) = y(x_0) + y'(x_0)(x - x_0) \quad \text{or} \quad L(x) = y_0 + f(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0).$$

The function $L(x)$ gives a good approximation to the solution $y(x)$ in a short interval about x_0 (Figure 15.12). The basis of Euler's method is to patch together a string of linearizations to approximate the curve over a longer stretch. Here is how the method works.

We know the point (x_0, y_0) lies on the solution curve. Suppose that we specify a new value for the independent variable to be $x_1 = x_0 + dx$. (Recall that $dx = \Delta x$ in the definition of differentials.) If the increment dx is small, then

$$y_1 = L(x_1) = y_0 + f(x_0, y_0)\,dx$$

is a good approximation to the exact solution value $y = y(x_1)$. So from the point (x_0, y_0), which lies *exactly* on the solution curve, we have obtained the point (x_1, y_1), which lies very close to the point $(x_1, y(x_1))$ on the solution curve (Figure 15.13).

Using the point (x_1, y_1) and the slope $f(x_1, y_1)$ of the solution curve through (x_1, y_1), we take a second step. Setting $x_2 = x_1 + dx$, we use the linearization of the solution curve through (x_1, y_1) to calculate

$$y_2 = y_1 + f(x_1, y_1)\,dx.$$

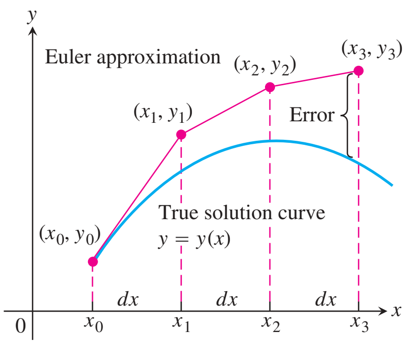


FIGURE 15.14 Three steps in the Euler approximation to the solution of the initial value problem $y' = f(x, y), y(x_0) = y_0$. As we take more steps, the errors involved usually accumulate, but not in the exaggerated way shown here.

This gives the next approximation (x_2, y_2) to values along the solution curve $y = y(x)$ (Figure 15.14). Continuing in this fashion, we take a third step from the point (x_2, y_2) with slope $f(x_2, y_2)$ to obtain the third approximation

$$y_3 = y_2 + f(x_2, y_2)\,dx,$$

and so on. We are literally building an approximation to one of the solutions by following the direction of the slope field of the differential equation.

The steps in Figure 15.14 are drawn large to illustrate the construction process, so the approximation looks crude. In practice, dx would be small enough to make the red curve hug the blue one and give a good approximation throughout.

EXAMPLE 1 Find the first three approximations y_1, y_2, y_3 using Euler's method for the initial value problem

$$y' = 1 + y, \qquad y(0) = 1,$$

starting at $x_0 = 0$ with $dx = 0.1$.

Solution We have $x_0 = 0, y_0 = 1, x_1 = x_0 + dx = 0.1, x_2 = x_0 + 2dx = 0.2$, and $x_3 = x_0 + 3\,dx = 0.3$.

$$\begin{aligned}
\textit{First}: \quad y_1 &= y_0 + f(x_0, y_0)\,dx \\
&= y_0 + (1 + y_0)\,dx \\
&= 1 + (1 + 1)(0.1) = 1.2 \\
\textit{Second}: \quad y_2 &= y_1 + f(x_1, y_1)\,dx \\
&= y_1 + (1 + y_1)\,dx \\
&= 1.2 + (1 + 1.2)(0.1) = 1.42 \\
\textit{Third}: \quad y_3 &= y_2 + f(x_2, y_2)\,dx \\
&= y_2 + (1 + y_2)\,dx \\
&= 1.42 + (1 + 1.42)(0.1) = 1.662
\end{aligned}$$

■

The step-by-step process used in Example 1 can be continued easily. Using equally spaced values for the independent variable in the table and generating n of them, set

$$\begin{aligned}
x_1 &= x_0 + dx \\
x_2 &= x_1 + dx \\
&\vdots \\
x_n &= x_{n-1} + dx.
\end{aligned}$$

Then calculate the approximations to the solution,

$$\begin{aligned}
y_1 &= y_0 + f(x_0, y_0)\,dx \\
y_2 &= y_1 + f(x_1, y_1)\,dx \\
&\vdots \\
y_n &= y_{n-1} + f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\,dx.
\end{aligned}$$

The number of steps n can be as large as we like, but errors can accumulate if n is too large.

Euler's method is easy to implement on a computer or calculator. A computer program generates a table of numerical solutions to an initial value problem, allowing us to input x_0 and y_0, the number of steps n, and the step size dx. It then calculates the approximate solution values $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$ in iterative fashion, as just described.

Solving the separable equation in Example 1, we find that the exact solution to the initial value problem is $y = 2e^x - 1$. We use this information in Example 2.

EXAMPLE 2 Use Euler's method to solve

$$y' = 1 + y, \qquad y(0) = 1,$$

on the interval $0 \le x \le 1$, starting at $x_0 = 0$ and taking **(a)** $dx = 0.1$, **(b)** $dx = 0.05$. Compare the approximations with the values of the exact solution $y = 2e^x - 1$.

Solution

(a) We used a computer to generate the approximate values in Table 15.4. The "error" column is obtained by subtracting the unrounded Euler values from the unrounded values found using the exact solution. All entries are then rounded to four decimal places.

TABLE 15.4 Euler solution of $y' = 1 + y$, $y(0) = 1$, step size $dx = 0.1$

x	y (Euler)	y (exact)	Error
0	1	1	0
0.1	1.2	1.2103	0.0103
0.2	1.42	1.4428	0.0228
0.3	1.662	1.6997	0.0377
0.4	1.9282	1.9836	0.0554
0.5	2.2210	2.2974	0.0764
0.6	2.5431	2.6442	0.1011
0.7	2.8974	3.0275	0.1301
0.8	3.2872	3.4511	0.1639
0.9	3.7159	3.9192	0.2033
1.0	4.1875	4.4366	0.2491

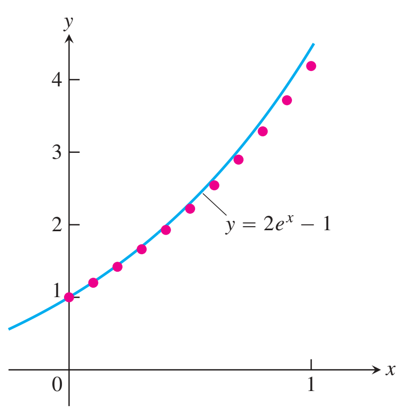


FIGURE 15.15 The graph of $y = 2e^x - 1$ superimposed on a scatterplot of the Euler approximations shown in Table 15.4 (Example 2).

By the time we reach $x = 1$ (after 10 steps), the error is about 5.6% of the exact solution. A plot of the exact solution curve with the scatterplot of Euler solution points from Table 15.4 is shown in Figure 15.15.

(b) One way to try to reduce the error is to decrease the step size. Table 15.5 shows the results and their comparisons with the exact solutions when we decrease the step size to 0.05, doubling the number of steps to 20. As in Table 15.4, all computations are performed before rounding. This time when we reach $x = 1$, the relative error is only about 2.9%.

TABLE 15.5 Euler solution of $y' = 1 + y$, $y(0) = 1$, step size $dx = 0.05$

x	y (Euler)	y (exact)	Error
0	1	1	0
0.05	1.1	1.1025	0.0025
0.10	1.205	1.2103	0.0053
0.15	1.3153	1.3237	0.0084
0.20	1.4310	1.4428	0.0118
0.25	1.5526	1.5681	0.0155
0.30	1.6802	1.6997	0.0195
0.35	1.8142	1.8381	0.0239
0.40	1.9549	1.9836	0.0287
0.45	2.1027	2.1366	0.0340
0.50	2.2578	2.2974	0.0397
0.55	2.4207	2.4665	0.0458
0.60	2.5917	2.6442	0.0525
0.65	2.7713	2.8311	0.0598
0.70	2.9599	3.0275	0.0676
0.75	3.1579	3.2340	0.0761
0.80	3.3657	3.4511	0.0853
0.85	3.5840	3.6793	0.0953
0.90	3.8132	3.9192	0.1060
0.95	4.0539	4.1714	0.1175
1.00	4.3066	4.4366	0.1300

It might be tempting to reduce the step size even further in Example 2 to obtain greater accuracy. Each additional calculation, however, not only requires additional computer time but more importantly adds to the buildup of round-off errors due to the approximate representations of numbers inside the computer.

The analysis of error and the investigation of methods to reduce it when making numerical calculations are important but are appropriate for a more advanced course. There are numerical methods more accurate than Euler's method, as you can see in a further study of differential equations. We study one improvement here.

Improved Euler's Method

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY

Carl Runge
(1856–1927)

We can improve on Euler's method by taking an average of two slopes. We first estimate y_n as in the original Euler method, but denote it by z_n. We then take the average of $f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ and $f(x_n, z_n)$ in place of $f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$ in the next step. Thus, we calculate the next approximation y_n using

$$z_n = y_{n-1} + f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\, dx$$

$$y_n = y_{n-1} + \left[\frac{f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}) + f(x_n, z_n)}{2}\right] dx.$$

EXAMPLE 3 Use the improved Euler's method to solve

$$y' = 1 + y, \qquad y(0) = 1,$$

on the interval $0 \le x \le 1$, starting at $x_0 = 0$ and taking $dx = 0.1$. Compare the approximations with the values of the exact solution $y = 2e^x - 1$.

Solution We used a computer to generate the approximate values in Table 15.6. The "error" column is obtained by subtracting the unrounded improved Euler values from the unrounded values found using the exact solution. All entries are then rounded to four decimal places.

TABLE 15.6 Improved Euler solution of $y' = 1 + y$, $y(0) = 1$, step size $dx = 0.1$

x	y (improved Euler)	y (exact)	Error
0	1	1	0
0.1	1.21	1.2103	0.0003
0.2	1.4421	1.4428	0.0008
0.3	1.6985	1.6997	0.0013
0.4	1.9818	1.9836	0.0018
0.5	2.2949	2.2974	0.0025
0.6	2.6409	2.6442	0.0034
0.7	3.0231	3.0275	0.0044
0.8	3.4456	3.4511	0.0055
0.9	3.9124	3.9192	0.0068
1.0	4.4282	4.4366	0.0084

By the time we reach $x = 1$ (after 10 steps), the relative error is about 0.19%. ■

By comparing Tables 15.4 and 15.6, we see that the improved Euler's method is considerably more accurate than the regular Euler's method, at least for the initial value problem $y' = 1 + y$, $y(0) = 1$.

EXERCISES 15.4

In Exercises 1–6, use Euler's method to calculate the first three approximations to the given initial value problem for the specified increment size. Calculate the exact solution and investigate the accuracy of your approximations. Round your results to four decimal places.

1. $y' = 1 - \dfrac{y}{x}, \quad y(2) = -1, \quad dx = 0.5$

2. $y' = x(1 - y), \quad y(1) = 0, \quad dx = 0.2$

3. $y' = 2xy + 2y, \quad y(0) = 3, \quad dx = 0.2$

4. $y' = y^2(1 + 2x), \quad y(-1) = 1, \quad dx = 0.5$

T **5.** $y' = 2xe^{x^2}, \quad y(0) = 2, \quad dx = 0.1$

T **6.** $y' = y + e^x - 2, \quad y(0) = 2, \quad dx = 0.5$

7. Use the Euler method with $dx = 0.2$ to estimate $y(1)$ if $y' = y$ and $y(0) = 1$. What is the exact value of $y(1)$?

8. Use the Euler method with $dx = 0.2$ to estimate $y(2)$ if $y' = y/x$ and $y(1) = 2$. What is the exact value of $y(2)$?

T **9.** Use the Euler method with $dx = 0.5$ to estimate $y(5)$ if $y' = y^2/\sqrt{x}$ and $y(1) = -1$. What is the exact value of $y(5)$?

T **10.** Use the Euler method with $dx = 1/3$ to estimate $y(2)$ if $y' = y - e^{2x}$ and $y(0) = 1$. What is the exact value of $y(2)$?

In Exercises 11 and 12, use the improved Euler's method to calculate the first three approximations to the given initial value problem. Compare the approximations with the values of the exact solution.

11. $y' = 2y(x + 1), \quad y(0) = 3, \quad dx = 0.2$
(See Exercise 3 for the exact solution.)

12. $y' = x(1 - y), \quad y(1) = 0, \quad dx = 0.2$
(See Exercise 2 for the exact solution.)

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

In Exercises 13–16, use Euler's method with the specified step size to estimate the value of the solution at the given point x^*. Find the value of the exact solution at x^*.

13. $y' = 2xe^{x^2}, \quad y(0) = 2, \quad dx = 0.1, \quad x^* = 1$

14. $y' = y + e^x - 2, \quad y(0) = 2, \quad dx = 0.5, \quad x^* = 2$

15. $y' = \sqrt{x}/y, \quad y > 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad dx = 0.1, \quad x^* = 1$

16. $y' = 1 + y^2, \quad y(0) = 0, \quad dx = 0.1, \quad x^* = 1$

In Exercises 17 and 18, **(a)** find the exact solution of the initial value problem. Then compare the accuracy of the approximation with $y(x^*)$ using Euler's method starting at x_0 with step size **(b)** 0.2, **(c)** 0.1, and **(d)** 0.05.

17. $y' = 2y^2(x - 1), \quad y(2) = -1/2, \quad x_0 = 2, \quad x^* = 3$

18. $y' = y - 1, \quad y(0) = 3, \quad x_0 = 0, \quad x^* = 1$

In Exercises 19 and 20, compare the accuracy of the approximation with $y(x^*)$ using the improved Euler's method starting at x_0 with step size

a. 0.2 **b.** 0.1 **c.** 0.05

d. Describe what happens to the error as the step size decreases.

19. $y' = 2y^2(x - 1), \quad y(2) = -1/2, \quad x_0 = 2, \quad x^* = 3$
(See Exercise 17 for the exact solution.)

20. $y' = y - 1, \quad y(0) = 3, \quad x_0 = 0, \quad x^* = 1$
(See Exercise 18 for the exact solution.)

Use a CAS to explore graphically each of the differential equations in Exercises 21–24. Perform the following steps to help with your explorations.

a. Plot a slope field for the differential equation in the given xy-window.

b. Find the general solution of the differential equation using your CAS DE solver.

c. Graph the solutions for the values of the arbitrary constant $C = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2$ superimposed on your slope field plot.

d. Find and graph the solution that satisfies the specified initial condition over the interval $[0, b]$.

e. Find the Euler numerical approximation to the solution of the initial value problem with 4 subintervals of the x-interval and plot the Euler approximation superimposed on the graph produced in part (d).

f. Repeat part (e) for 8, 16, and 32 subintervals. Plot these three Euler approximations superimposed on the graph from part (e).

g. Find the error $(y(\text{exact}) - y(\text{Euler}))$ at the specified point $x = b$ for each of your four Euler approximations. Discuss the improvement in the percentage error.

21. $y' = x + y, \quad y(0) = -7/10; \quad -4 \le x \le 4, \quad -4 \le y \le 4;$ $b = 1$

22. $y' = -x/y, \quad y(0) = 2; \quad -3 \le x \le 3, \quad -3 \le y \le 3; \quad b = 2$

23. **A logistic equation** $y' = y(2 - y), \quad y(0) = 1/2;$ $0 \le x \le 4, \ 0 \le y \le 3; \quad b = 3$

24. $y' = (\sin x)(\sin y), \quad y(0) = 2; \quad -6 \le x \le 6, \quad -6 \le y \le 6;$ $b = 3\pi/2$

15.5 Graphical Solutions of Autonomous Equations

In Chapter 4 we learned that the sign of the first derivative tells where the graph of a function is increasing and where it is decreasing. The sign of the second derivative tells the concavity of the graph. We can build on our knowledge of how derivatives determine the shape of a graph to solve differential equations graphically. The starting ideas for doing so are the notions of *phase line* and *equilibrium value*. We arrive at these notions by investigating what happens when the derivative of a differentiable function is zero from a point of view different from that studied in Chapter 4.

Equilibrium Values and Phase Lines

When we differentiate implicitly the equation

$$\frac{1}{5}\ln(5y - 15) = x + 1$$

we obtain

$$\frac{1}{5}\left(\frac{5}{5y - 15}\right)\frac{dy}{dx} = 1.$$

Solving for $y' = dy/dx$ we find $y' = 5y - 15 = 5(y - 3)$. In this case the derivative y' is a function of y only (the dependent variable) and is zero when $y = 3$.

A differential equation for which dy/dx is a function of y only is called an **autonomous** differential equation. Let's investigate what happens when the derivative in an autonomous equation equals zero. We assume any derivatives are continuous.

DEFINITION If $dy/dx = g(y)$ is an autonomous differential equation, then the values of y for which $dy/dx = 0$ are called **equilibrium values** or **rest points**.

Thus, equilibrium values are those at which no change occurs in the dependent variable, so y is at *rest*. The emphasis is on the value of y where $dy/dx = 0$, not the value of x, as we studied in Chapter 4. For example, the equilibrium values for the autonomous differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = (y + 1)(y - 2)$$

are $y = -1$ and $y = 2$.

To construct a graphical solution to an autonomous differential equation, we first make a **phase line** for the equation, a plot on the y-axis that shows the equation's equilibrium values along with the intervals where dy/dx and d^2y/dx^2 are positive and negative. Then we know where the solutions are increasing and decreasing, and the concavity of the solution curves. These are the essential features we found in Section 4.4, so we can determine the shapes of the solution curves without having to find formulas for them.

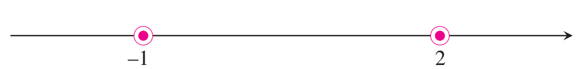
EXAMPLE 1 Draw a phase line for the equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = (y + 1)(y - 2)$$

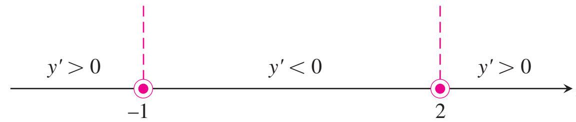
and use it to sketch solutions to the equation.

Solution

1. *Draw a number line for y and mark the equilibrium values* $y = -1$ *and* $y = 2$, *where* $dy/dx = 0$.



2. *Identify and label the intervals where $y' > 0$ and $y' < 0$.* This step resembles what we did in Section 4.3, only now we are marking the y-axis instead of the x-axis.



We can encapsulate the information about the sign of y' on the phase line itself. Since $y' > 0$ on the interval to the left of $y = -1$, a solution of the differential equation with a y-value less than -1 will increase from there toward $y = -1$. We display this information by drawing an arrow on the interval pointing to -1.

Similarly, $y' < 0$ between $y = -1$ and $y = 2$, so any solution with a value in this interval will decrease toward $y = -1$.

For $y > 2$, we have $y' > 0$, so a solution with a y-value greater than 2 will increase from there without bound.

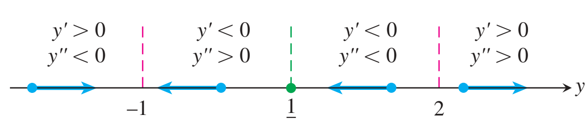
In short, solution curves below the horizontal line $y = -1$ in the xy-plane rise toward $y = -1$. Solution curves between the lines $y = -1$ and $y = 2$ fall away from $y = 2$ toward $y = -1$. Solution curves above $y = 2$ rise away from $y = 2$ and keep going up.

3. *Calculate y'' and mark the intervals where $y'' > 0$ and $y'' < 0$.* To find y'', we differentiate y' *with respect to x*, using implicit differentiation.

$$y' = (y+1)(y-2) = y^2 - y - 2 \qquad \text{Formula for } y' \ldots$$

$$\begin{aligned} y'' &= \frac{d}{dx}(y') = \frac{d}{dx}(y^2 - y - 2) \\ &= 2yy' - y' \qquad \text{differentiated implicitly with respect to } x. \\ &= (2y-1)y' \\ &= (2y-1)(y+1)(y-2). \end{aligned}$$

From this formula, we see that y'' changes sign at $y = -1$, $y = 1/2$, and $y = 2$. We add the sign information to the phase line.



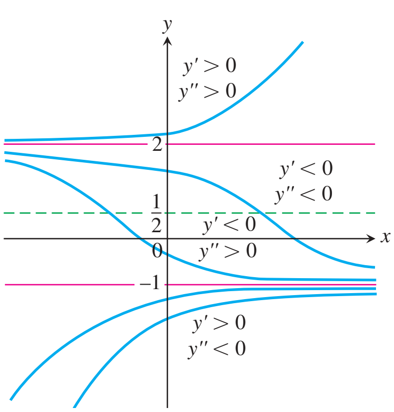


FIGURE 15.16 Graphical solutions from Example 1 include the horizontal lines $y = -1$ and $y = 2$ through the equilibrium values. From Theorem 1, no two solution curves will ever cross or touch each other.

4. *Sketch an assortment of solution curves in the xy-plane.* The horizontal lines $y = -1$, $y = 1/2$, and $y = 2$ partition the plane into horizontal bands in which we know the signs of y' and y''. In each band, this information tells us whether the solution curves rise or fall and how they bend as x increases (Figure 15.16).

The "equilibrium lines" $y = -1$ and $y = 2$ are also solution curves. (The constant functions $y = -1$ and $y = 2$ satisfy the differential equation.) Solution curves that cross the line $y = 1/2$ have an inflection point there. The concavity changes from concave down (above the line) to concave up (below the line).

As predicted in Step 2, solutions in the middle and lower bands approach the equilibrium value $y = -1$ as x increases. Solutions in the upper band rise steadily away from the value $y = 2$. ■

Stable and Unstable Equilibria

Look at Figure 15.16 once more, in particular at the behavior of the solution curves near the equilibrium values. Once a solution curve has a value near $y = -1$, it tends steadily toward that value; $y = -1$ is a **stable equilibrium**. The behavior near $y = 2$ is just the opposite: all solutions except the equilibrium solution $y = 2$ itself move *away* from it as x increases. We call $y = 2$ an **unstable equilibrium**. If the solution is *at* that value, it stays, but if it is off by any amount, no matter how small, it moves away. (Sometimes an equilibrium value is unstable because a solution moves away from it only on one side of the point.)

Now that we know what to look for, we can already see this behavior on the initial phase line. The arrows lead away from $y = 2$ and, once to the left of $y = 2$, toward $y = -1$.

We now present several applied examples for which we can sketch a family of solution curves to the differential equation models using the method in Example 1.

In Section 6.5 we solved analytically the differential equation

$$\frac{dH}{dt} = -k(H - H_S), \qquad k > 0$$

modeling Newton's law of cooling. Here H is the temperature (amount of heat) of an object at time t and H_S is the constant temperature of the surrounding medium. Our first example uses a phase line analysis to understand the graphical behavior of this temperature model over time.

EXAMPLE 2 What happens to the temperature of the soup when a cup of hot soup is placed on a table in a room? We know the soup cools down, but what does a typical temperature curve look like as a function of time?

Solution Suppose that the surrounding medium has a constant Celsius temperature of 15°C. We can then express the difference in temperature as $H(t) - 15$. Assuming H is a differentiable function of time t, by Newton's law of cooling, there is a constant of proportionality $k > 0$ such that

$$\frac{dH}{dt} = -k(H - 15) \tag{1}$$

(*minus* k to give a negative derivative when $H > 15$).

Since $dH/dt = 0$ at $H = 15$, the temperature 15°C is an equilibrium value. If $H > 15$, Equation (1) tells us that $(H - 15) > 0$ and $dH/dt < 0$. If the object is hotter than the room, it will get cooler. Similarly, if $H < 15$, then $(H - 15) < 0$ and $dH/dt > 0$. An object cooler than the room will warm up. Thus, the behavior described by Equation (1) agrees with our intuition of how temperature should behave. These observations are captured in the initial phase line diagram in Figure 15.17. The value $H = 15$ is a stable equilibrium.

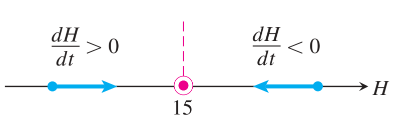


FIGURE 15.17 First step in constructing the phase line for Newton's law of cooling in Example 2. The temperature tends towards the equilibrium (surrounding-medium) value in the long run.

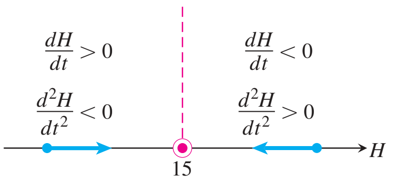


FIGURE 15.18 The complete phase line for Newton's law of cooling (Example 2).

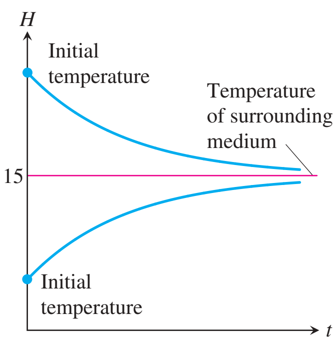


FIGURE 15.19 Temperature versus time. Regardless of initial temperature, the object's temperature $H(t)$ tends toward 15°C, the temperature of the surrounding medium.

We determine the concavity of the solution curves by differentiating both sides of Equation (1) with respect to t:

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{dH}{dt}\right) = \frac{d}{dt}(-k(H - 15))$$

$$\frac{d^2H}{dt^2} = -k\frac{dH}{dt}.$$

Since $-k$ is negative, we see that d^2H/dt^2 is positive when $dH/dt < 0$ and negative when $dH/dt > 0$. Figure 15.18 adds this information to the phase line.

The completed phase line shows that if the temperature of the object is above the equilibrium value of 15°C, the graph of $H(t)$ will be decreasing and concave upward. If the temperature is below 15°C (the temperature of the surrounding medium), the graph of $H(t)$ will be increasing and concave downward. We use this information to sketch typical solution curves (Figure 15.19).

From the upper solution curve in Figure 15.19, we see that as the object cools down, the rate at which it cools slows down because dH/dt approaches zero. This observation is implicit in Newton's law of cooling and contained in the differential equation, but the flattening of the graph as time advances gives an immediate visual representation of the phenomenon. The ability to discern physical behavior from graphs is a powerful tool in understanding real-world systems. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Galileo and Newton both observed that the rate of change in momentum encountered by a moving object is equal to the net force applied to it. In mathematical terms,

$$F = \frac{d}{dt}(mv) \tag{2}$$

where F is the force and m and v the object's mass and velocity. If m varies with time, as it will if the object is a rocket burning fuel, the right-hand side of Equation (2) expands to

$$m\frac{dv}{dt} + v\frac{dm}{dt}$$

using the Product Rule. In many situations, however, m is constant, $dm/dt = 0$, and Equation (2) takes the simpler form

$$F = m\frac{dv}{dt} \qquad \text{or} \qquad F = ma, \tag{3}$$

known as *Newton's second law of motion* (see Section 15.3).

In free fall, the constant acceleration due to gravity is denoted by g and the one force acting downward on the falling body is

$$F_p = mg,$$

the propulsion due to gravity. If, however, we think of a real body falling through the air—say, a penny from a great height or a parachutist from an even greater height—we know that at some point air resistance is a factor in the speed of the fall. A more realistic model of free fall would include air resistance, shown as a force F_r in the schematic diagram in Figure 15.20.

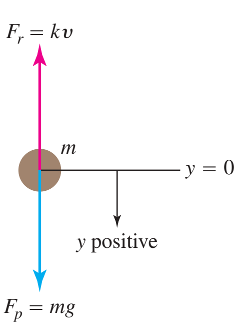


FIGURE 15.20 An object falling under the influence of gravity with a resistive force assumed to be proportional to the velocity.

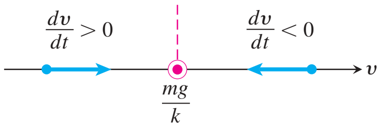


FIGURE 15.21 Initial phase line for Example 3.

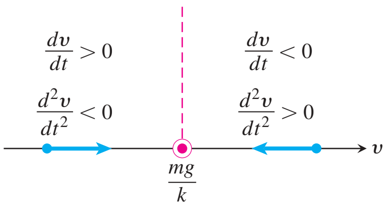


FIGURE 15.22 The completed phase line for Example 3.

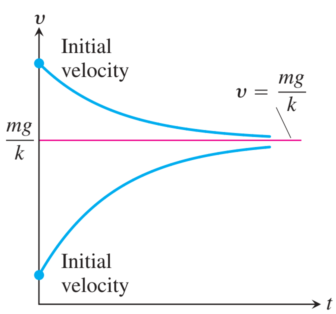


FIGURE 15.23 Typical velocity curves in Example 3. The value $v = mg/k$ is the terminal velocity.

For low speeds well below the speed of sound, physical experiments have shown that F_r is approximately proportional to the body's velocity. The net force on the falling body is therefore

$$F = F_p - F_r,$$

giving

$$m\frac{dv}{dt} = mg - kv$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = g - \frac{k}{m}v. \tag{4}$$

We can use a phase line to analyze the velocity functions that solve this differential equation.

The equilibrium point, obtained by setting the right-hand side of Equation (4) equal to zero, is

$$v = \frac{mg}{k}.$$

If the body is initially moving faster than this, dv/dt is negative and the body slows down. If the body is moving at a velocity below mg/k, then $dv/dt > 0$ and the body speeds up. These observations are captured in the initial phase line diagram in Figure 15.21.

We determine the concavity of the solution curves by differentiating both sides of Equation (4) with respect to t:

$$\frac{d^2v}{dt^2} = \frac{d}{dt}\left(g - \frac{k}{m}v\right) = -\frac{k}{m}\frac{dv}{dt}.$$

We see that $d^2v/dt^2 < 0$ when $v < mg/k$ and $d^2v/dt^2 > 0$ when $v > mg/k$. Figure 15.22 adds this information to the phase line. Notice the similarity to the phase line for Newton's law of cooling (Figure 15.18). The solution curves are similar as well (Figure 15.23).

Figure 15.23 shows two typical solution curves. Regardless of the initial velocity, we see the body's velocity tending toward the limiting value $v = mg/k$. This value, a stable equilibrium point, is called the body's **terminal velocity**. Skydivers can vary their terminal velocity from 95 mph to 180 mph by changing the amount of body area opposing the fall. ■

EXAMPLE 4 In Section 15.3 we examined population growth using the model of exponential change. That is, if P represents the number of individuals and we neglect departures and arrivals, then

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = kP, \tag{5}$$

where $k > 0$ is the birthrate minus the death rate per individual per unit time.

Because the natural environment has only a limited number of resources to sustain life, it is reasonable to assume that only a maximum population M can be accommodated. As the population approaches this **limiting population** or **carrying capacity**, resources become less abundant and the growth rate k decreases. A simple relationship exhibiting this behavior is

$$k = r(M - P),$$

where $r > 0$ is a constant. Notice that k decreases as P increases toward M and that k is negative if P is greater than M. Substituting $r(M - P)$ for k in Equation (5) gives the differential equation

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = r(M - P)P = rMP - rP^2. \tag{6}$$

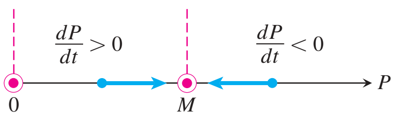


FIGURE 15.24 The initial phase line for Equation 6.

The model given by Equation (6) is referred to as **logistic growth**.

We can forecast the behavior of the population over time by analyzing the phase line for Equation (6). The equilibrium values are $P = M$ and $P = 0$, and we can see that $dP/dt > 0$ if $0 < P < M$ and $dP/dt < 0$ if $P > M$. These observations are recorded on the phase line in Figure 15.24.

We determine the concavity of the population curves by differentiating both sides of Equation (6) with respect to t:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2P}{dt^2} &= \frac{d}{dt}(rMP - rP^2) \\ &= rM\frac{dP}{dt} - 2rP\frac{dP}{dt} \\ &= r(M - 2P)\frac{dP}{dt}. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

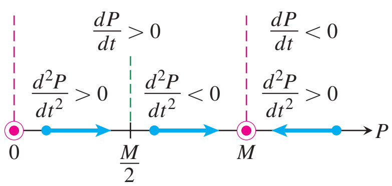


FIGURE 15.25 The completed phase line for logistic growth (Equation 6).

If $P = M/2$, then $d^2P/dt^2 = 0$. If $P < M/2$, then $(M - 2P)$ and dP/dt are positive and $d^2P/dt^2 > 0$. If $M/2 < P < M$, then $(M - 2P) < 0$, $dP/dt > 0$, and $d^2P/dt^2 < 0$. If $P > M$, then $(M - 2P)$ and dP/dt are both negative and $d^2P/dt^2 > 0$. We add this information to the phase line (Figure 15.25).

The lines $P = M/2$ and $P = M$ divide the first quadrant of the tP-plane into horizontal bands in which we know the signs of both dP/dt and d^2P/dt^2. In each band, we know how the solution curves rise and fall, and how they bend as time passes. The equilibrium lines $P = 0$ and $P = M$ are both population curves. Population curves crossing the line $P = M/2$ have an inflection point there, giving them a **sigmoid** shape (curved in two directions like a letter S). Figure 15.26 displays typical population curves. ■

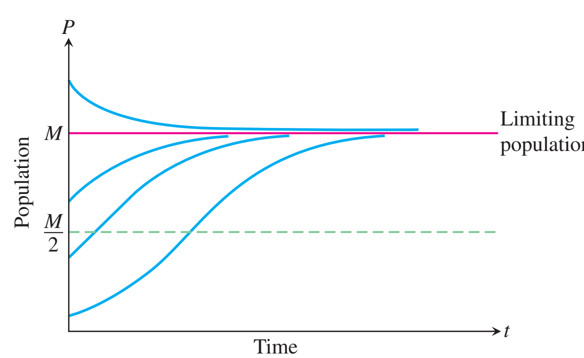


FIGURE 15.26 Population curves in Example 4.

EXERCISES 15.5

In Exercises 1–8,

a. Identify the equilibrium values. Which are stable and which are unstable?

b. Construct a phase line. Identify the signs of y' and y''.

c. Sketch several solution curves.

1. $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = (y + 2)(y - 3)$ **2.** $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = y^2 - 4$

3. $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = y^3 - y$ **4.** $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = y^2 - 2y$

5. $y' = \sqrt{y}, \quad y > 0$ **6.** $y' = y - \sqrt{y}, \quad y > 0$

7. $y' = (y - 1)(y - 2)(y - 3)$ **8.** $y' = y^3 - y^2$

The autonomous differential equations in Exercises 9–12 represent models for population growth. For each exercise, use a phase line analysis to sketch solution curves for $P(t)$, selecting different starting values $P(0)$ (as in Example 4). Which equilibria are stable, and which are unstable?

9. $\dfrac{dP}{dt} = 1 - 2P$ **10.** $\dfrac{dP}{dt} = P(1 - 2P)$

11. $\dfrac{dP}{dt} = 2P(P - 3)$ **12.** $\dfrac{dP}{dt} = 3P(1 - P)\left(P - \dfrac{1}{2}\right)$

13. Catastrophic continuation of Example 4 Suppose that a healthy population of some species is growing in a limited environment and that the current population P_0 is fairly close to the carrying capacity M_0. You might imagine a population of fish living in a freshwater lake in a wilderness area. Suddenly a catastrophe such as the Mount St. Helens volcanic eruption contaminates the lake and destroys a significant part of the food and oxygen on which the fish depend. The result is a new environment with a carrying capacity M_1 considerably less than M_0 and, in fact, less than the current population P_0. Starting at some time before the catastrophe, sketch a "before-and-after" curve that shows how the fish population responds to the change in environment.

14. Controlling a population The fish and game department in a certain state is planning to issue hunting permits to control the deer population (one deer per permit). It is known that if the deer population falls below a certain level m, the deer will become extinct. It is also known that if the deer population rises above the carrying capacity M, the population will decrease back to M through disease and malnutrition.

a. Discuss the reasonableness of the following model for the growth rate of the deer population as a function of time:

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = rP(M - P)(P - m),$$

where P is the population of the deer and r is a positive constant of proportionality. Include a phase line.

b. Explain how this model differs from the logistic model $dP/dt = rP(M - P)$. Is it better or worse than the logistic model?

c. Show that if $P > M$ for all t, then $\lim_{t\to\infty} P(t) = M$.

d. What happens if $P < m$ for all t?

e. Discuss the solutions to the differential equation. What are the equilibrium points of the model? Explain the dependence of the steady-state value of P on the initial values of P. About how many permits should be issued?

15. Skydiving If a body of mass m falling from rest under the action of gravity encounters an air resistance proportional to the square of velocity, then the body's velocity t seconds into the fall satisfies the equation.

$$m\frac{dv}{dt} = mg - kv^2, \qquad k > 0$$

where k is a constant that depends on the body's aerodynamic properties and the density of the air. (We assume that the fall is too short to be affected by changes in the air's density.)

a. Draw a phase line for the equation.

b. Sketch a typical velocity curve.

c. For a 160-lb skydiver ($mg = 160$) and with time in seconds and distance in feet, a typical value of k is 0.005. What is the diver's terminal velocity?

16. Resistance proportional to $\sqrt{v}$ A body of mass m is projected vertically downward with initial velocity v_0. Assume that the resisting force is proportional to the square root of the velocity and find the terminal velocity from a graphical analysis.

17. Sailing A sailboat is running along a straight course with the wind providing a constant forward force of 50 lb. The only other force acting on the boat is resistance as the boat moves through the water. The resisting force is numerically equal to five times the boat's speed, and the initial velocity is 1 ft/sec. What is the maximum velocity in feet per second of the boat under this wind?

18. The spread of information Sociologists recognize a phenomenon called *social diffusion*, which is the spreading of a piece of information, technological innovation, or cultural fad among a population. The members of the population can be divided into two classes: those who have the information and those who do not. In a fixed population whose size is known, it is reasonable to assume that the rate of diffusion is proportional to the number who have the information times the number yet to receive it. If X denotes the number of individuals who have the information in a population of N people, then a mathematical model for social diffusion is given by

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = kX(N - X),$$

where t represents time in days and k is a positive constant.

a. Discuss the reasonableness of the model.

b. Construct a phase line identifying the signs of X' and X''.

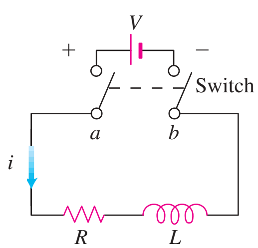
c. Sketch representative solution curves.

d. Predict the value of X for which the information is spreading most rapidly. How many people eventually receive the information?

19. Current in an *RL*-circuit The accompanying diagram represents an electrical circuit whose total resistance is a constant R ohms and whose self-inductance, shown as a coil, is L henries, also a constant. There is a switch whose terminals at a and b can be closed to connect a constant electrical source of V volts. From Section 15.2, we have

$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = V,$$

where i is the intensity of the current in amperes and t is the time in seconds.



Use a phase line analysis to sketch the solution curve assuming that the switch in the RL-circuit is closed at time $t = 0$. What happens to the current as $t \to \infty$? This value is called the *steady-state solution.*

20. A pearl in shampoo Suppose that a pearl is sinking in a thick fluid, like shampoo, subject to a frictional force opposing its fall and proportional to its velocity. Suppose that there is also a resistive buoyant force exerted by the shampoo. According to *Archimedes' principle*, the buoyant force equals the weight of the fluid displaced by the pearl. Using m for the mass of the pearl and P for the mass of the shampoo displaced by the pearl as it descends, complete the following steps.

a. Draw a schematic diagram showing the forces acting on the pearl as it sinks, as in Figure 15.20.

b. Using $v(t)$ for the pearl's velocity as a function of time t, write a differential equation modeling the velocity of the pearl as a falling body.

c. Construct a phase line displaying the signs of v' and v''.

d. Sketch typical solution curves.

e. What is the terminal velocity of the pearl?

15.6 Systems of Equations and Phase Planes

In some situations we are led to consider not one, but several first-order differential equations. Such a collection is called a **system** of differential equations. In this section we present an approach to understanding systems through a graphical procedure known as a *phase-plane analysis*. We present this analysis in the context of modeling the populations of trout and bass living in a common pond.

Phase Planes

A general system of two first-order differential equations may take the form

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

Such a system of equations is called **autonomous** because dx/dt and dy/dt do not depend on the independent variable time t, but only on the dependent variables x and y. A **solution** of such a system consists of a pair of functions $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ that satisfies both of the differential equations simultaneously for every t over some time interval (finite or infinite).

We cannot look at just one of these equations in isolation to find solutions $x(t)$ or $y(t)$ since each derivative depends on both x and y. To gain insight into the solutions, we look at both dependent variables together by plotting the points $(x(t), y(t))$ in the xy-plane starting at some specified point. Therefore the solution functions are considered as parametric equations (with parameter t), and a corresponding solution curve through the specified point is called a **trajectory** of the system. The xy-plane itself, in which these trajectories reside, is referred to as the **phase plane**. Thus we consider both solutions together and study the behavior of all the solution trajectories in the phase plane. It can be proved that two trajectories can never cross or touch each other.

A Competitive-Hunter Model

Imagine two species of fish, say trout and bass, competing for the same limited resources in a certain pond. We let $x(t)$ represent the number of trout and $y(t)$ the number of bass living in the pond at time t. In reality $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ are always integer valued, but we will approximate them with real-valued differentiable functions. This allows us to apply the methods of differential equations.

Several factors affect the rates of change of these populations. As time passes, each species breeds, so we assume its population increases proportionally to its size. Taken by itself, this would lead to exponential growth in each of the two populations. However, there is a countervailing effect from the fact that the two species are in competition. A large number of bass tends to cause a decrease in the number of trout, and vice-versa. Our model takes the size of this effect to be proportional to the frequency with which the two species interact, which in turn is proportional to xy, the product of the two populations. These considerations lead to the following model for the growth of the trout and bass in the pond:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = (a - by)x, \tag{1a}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = (m - nx)y. \tag{1b}$$

Here $x(t)$ represents the trout population, $y(t)$ the bass population, and a, b, m, n are positive constants. A solution of this system then consists of a pair of functions $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ that gives the population of each fish species at time t. Each equation in (1) contains both of the unknown functions x and y, so we are unable to solve them individually. Instead, we will use a graphical analysis to study the solution trajectories of this **competitive-hunter model**.

We now examine the nature of the phase plane in the trout-bass population model. We will be interested in the 1st quadrant of the xy-plane, where $x \geq 0$ and $y \geq 0$, since populations cannot be negative. First, we determine where the bass and trout populations are both constant. Noting that the $(x(t), y(t))$ values remain unchanged when $dx/dt = 0$ and $dy/dt = 0$, Equations (1a and 1b) then become

$$(a - by)x = 0,$$
$$(m - nx)y = 0.$$

This pair of simultaneous equations has two solutions: $(x, y) = (0, 0)$ and $(x, y) = (m/n, a/b)$. At these (x, y) values, called **equilibrium** or **rest points**, the two populations remain at constant values over all time. The point $(0, 0)$ represents a pond containing no members of either fish species; the point $(m/n, a/b)$ corresponds to a pond with an unchanging number of each fish species.

Next, we note that if $y = a/b$, then Equation (1a) implies $dx/dt = 0$, so the trout population $x(t)$ is constant. Similarly, if $x = m/n$, then Equation (1b) implies $dy/dt = 0$, and the bass population $y(t)$ is constant. This information is recorded in Figure 15.27.

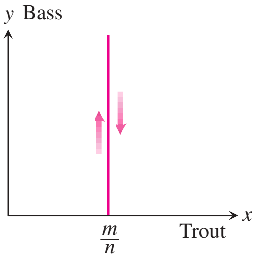


FIGURE 15.28 To the left of the line $x = m/n$ the trajectories move upward, and to the right they move downward.

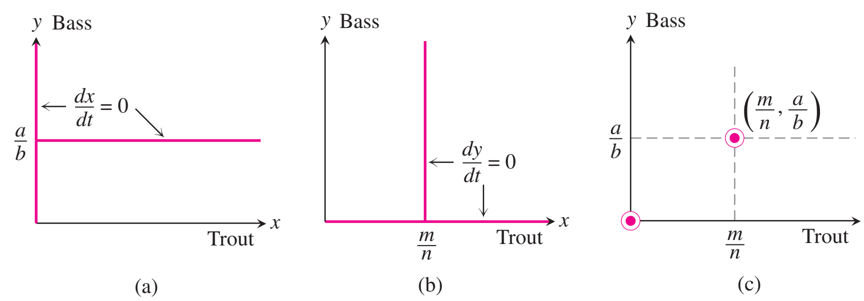


FIGURE 15.27 Rest points in the competitive-hunter model given by Equations (1a and 1b).

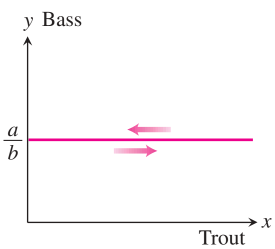


FIGURE 15.29 Above the line $y = a/b$ the trajectories move to the left, and below it they move to the right.

In setting up our competitive-hunter model, precise values of the constants a, b, m, n will not generally be known. Nonetheless, we can analyze the system of Equations (1) to learn the nature of its solution trajectories. We begin by determining the signs of dx/dt and dy/dt throughout the phase plane. Although $x(t)$ represents the number of trout and $y(t)$ the number of bass at time t, we are thinking of the pair of values $(x(t), y(t))$ as a point tracing out a trajectory curve in the phase plane. When dx/dt is positive, $x(t)$ is increasing and the point is moving to the right in the phase plane. If dx/dt is negative, the point is moving to the left. Likewise, the point is moving upward where dy/dt is positive and downward where dy/dt is negative.

We saw that $dy/dt = 0$ along the vertical line $x = m/n$. To the left of this line, dy/dt is positive since $dy/dt = (m - nx)y$ and $x < m/n$. So the trajectories on this side of the line are directed upward. To the right of this line, dy/dt is negative and the trajectories point downward. The directions of the associated trajectories are indicated in Figure 15.28. Similarly, above the horizontal line $y = a/b$, we have $dx/dt < 0$ and the trajectories head leftward; below this line they head rightward, as shown in Figure 15.29. Combining this information gives four distinct regions in the plane A, B, C, D, with their respective trajectory directions shown in Figure 15.30.

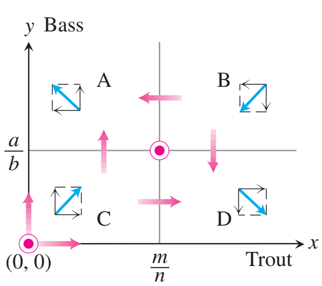


FIGURE 15.30 Composite graphical analysis of the trajectory directions in the four regions determined by $x = m/n$ and $y = a/b$.

Next, we examine what happens near the two equilibrium points. The trajectories near $(0, 0)$ point away from it, upward and to the right. The behavior near the equilibrium point $(m/n, a/b)$ depends on the region in which a trajectory begins. If it starts in region B, for instance, then it will move downward and leftward towards the equilibrium point. Depending on where the trajectory begins, it may move downward into region D, leftward into region A, or perhaps straight into the equilibrium point. If it enters into regions A or D, then it will continue to move away from the rest point. We say that both rest points are **unstable**, meaning (in this setting) there are trajectories near each point that head away from them. These features are indicated in Figure 15.31.

It turns out that in each of the half-planes above and below the line $y = a/b$, there is exactly one trajectory approaching the equilibrium point $(m/n, a/b)$ (see Exercise 7). Above these two trajectories the bass population increases and below them it decreases. The two trajectories approaching the equilibrium point are suggested in Figure 15.32.

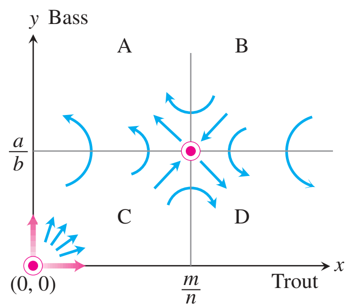


FIGURE 15.31 Motion along the trajectories near the rest points (0, 0) and $(m/n, a/b)$.

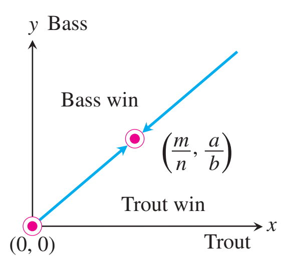


FIGURE 15.32 Qualitative results of analyzing the competitive-hunter model. There are exactly two trajectories approaching the point $(m/n, a/b)$.

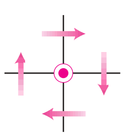


FIGURE 15.33 Trajectory direction near the rest point (0, 0).

Our graphical analysis leads us to conclude that, under the assumptions of the competitive-hunter model, it is unlikely that both species will reach equilibrium levels. This is because it would be almost impossible for the fish populations to move exactly along one of the two approaching trajectories for all time. Furthermore, the initial populations point (x_0, y_0) determines which of the two species is likely to survive over time, and mutual coexistence of the species is highly improbable.

Limitations of the Phase-Plane Analysis Method

Unlike the situation for the competitive-hunter model, it is not always possible to determine the behavior of trajectories near a rest point. For example, suppose we know that the trajectories near a rest point, chosen here to be the origin (0, 0), behave as in Figure 15.33. The information provided by Figure 15.33 is not sufficient to distinguish between the three possible trajectories shown in Figure 15.34. Even if we could determine that a trajectory near an equilibrium point resembles that of Figure 15.34c, we would still not know how the other trajectories behave. It could happen that a trajectory closer to the origin behaves like the motions displayed in Figure 15.34a or 15.34b. The spiraling trajectory in Figure 15.34b can never actually reach the rest point in a finite time period.

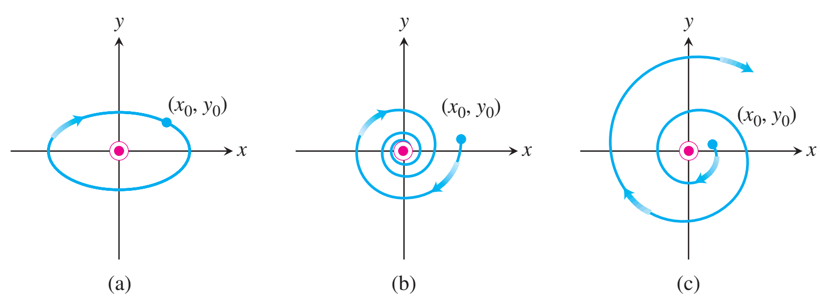


FIGURE 15.34 Three possible trajectory motions: (a) periodic motion, (b) motion toward an asymptotically stable rest point, and (c) motion near an unstable rest point.

Another Type of Behavior

The system

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = y + x - x(x^2 + y^2), \qquad \text{(2a)}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -x + y - y(x^2 + y^2) \qquad \text{(2b)}$$

can be shown to have only one equilibrium point at (0, 0). Yet any trajectory starting on the unit circle traverses it clockwise because, when $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, we have $dy/dx = -x/y$ (see Exercise 2). If a trajectory starts inside the unit circle, it spirals outward, asymptotically approaching the circle as $t \to \infty$. If a trajectory starts outside the unit circle, it spirals inward, again asymptotically approaching the circle as $t \to \infty$. The circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is called a **limit cycle** of the system (Figure 15.35). In this system, the values of x and y eventually become periodic.

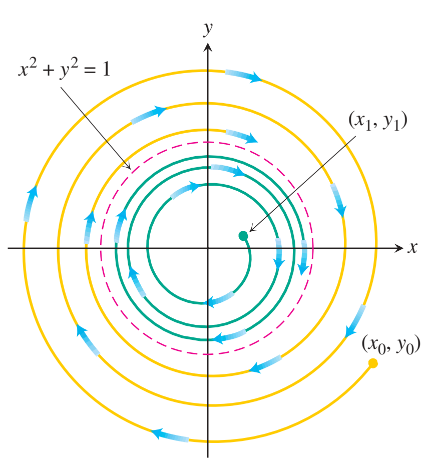


FIGURE 15.35 The solution $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is a limit cycle.

EXERCISES 15.6

1. List three important considerations that are ignored in the competitive-hunter model as presented in the text.
2. For the system (2a and 2b), show that any trajectory starting on the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ will traverse the unit circle in a periodic solution. First introduce polar coordinates and rewrite the system as $dr/dt = r(1 - r^2)$ and $d\theta/dt = 1$.
3. Develop a model for the growth of trout and bass assuming that in isolation trout demonstrate exponential decay [so that $a < 0$ in Equations (1a and 1b)] and that the bass population grows logistically with a population limit M. Analyze graphically the motion in the vicinity of the rest points in your model. Is coexistence possible?
4. How might the competitive-hunter model be validated? Include a discussion of how the various constants a, b, m, and n might be estimated. How could state conservation authorities use the model to ensure the survival of both species?
5. Consider another competitive-hunter model defined by

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = a\left(1 - \frac{x}{k_1}\right)x - bxy,$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = m\left(1 - \frac{y}{k_2}\right)y - nxy,$$

where x and y represent trout and bass populations, respectively.

   a. What assumptions are implicitly being made about the growth of trout and bass in the absence of competition?

   b. Interpret the constants a, b, m, n, k_1, and k_2 in terms of the physical problem.

   c. Perform a graphical analysis:

   i. Find the possible equilibrium levels.

   ii. Determine whether coexistence is possible.

   iii. Pick several typical starting points and sketch typical trajectories in the phase plane.

   iv. Interpret the outcomes predicted by your graphical analysis in terms of the constants a, b, m, n, k_1, and k_2.

   Note: When you get to part (iii), you should realize that five cases exist. You will need to analyze all five cases.
6. Consider the following economic model. Let P be the price of a single item on the market. Let Q be the quantity of the item available on the market. Both P and Q are functions of time. If one considers price and quantity as two interacting species, the following model might be proposed:

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = aP\left(\frac{b}{Q} - P\right),$$

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = cQ(fP - Q),$$

where a, b, c, and f are positive constants. Justify and discuss the adequacy of the model.

   a. If $a = 1$, $b = 20{,}000$, $c = 1$, and $f = 30$, find the equilibrium points of this system. If possible, classify each equilibrium point with respect to its stability. If a point cannot be readily classified, give some explanation.

   b. Perform a graphical stability analysis to determine what will happen to the levels of P and Q as time increases.

   c. Give an economic interpretation of the curves that determine the equilibrium points.
7. Show that the two trajectories leading to $(m/n, a/b)$ shown in Figure 15.32 are unique by carrying out the following steps.

   a. From system (1a and 1b) derive the following equation:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{(m - nx)y}{(a - by)x}.$$

   b. Separate variables, integrate, and exponentiate to obtain

$$y^a e^{-by} = Kx^m e^{-nx}$$

   where K is a constant of integration.

   c. Let $f(y) = y^a/e^{by}$ and $g(x) = x^m/e^{nx}$. Show that $f(y)$ has a unique maximum of $M_y = (a/eb)^a$ when $y = a/b$ as shown in Figure 15.36. Similarly, show that $g(x)$ has a unique maximum $M_x = (m/en)^m$ when $x = m/n$, also shown in Figure 15.36.

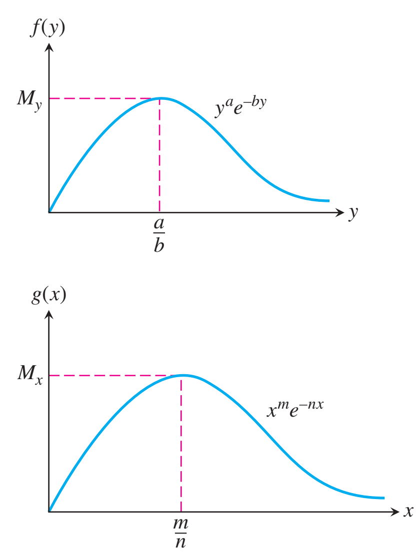


FIGURE 15.36 Graphs of the functions $f(y) = y^a/e^{by}$ and $g(x) = x^m/e^{nx}$.

   d. Consider what happens as (x, y) approaches $(m/n, a/b)$. Take limits in part (b) as $x \to m/n$ and $y \to a/b$ to show that either

$$\lim_{\substack{x \to m/n \\ y \to a/b}} \left[\left(\frac{y^a}{e^{by}} \right) \left(\frac{e^{nx}}{x^m} \right) \right] = K$$

or $M_y/M_x = K$. Thus any solution trajectory that approaches $(m/n, a/b)$ must satisfy

$$\frac{y^a}{e^{by}} = \left(\frac{M_y}{M_x} \right) \left(\frac{x^m}{e^{nx}} \right).$$

e. Show that only one trajectory can approach $(m/n, a/b)$ from below the line $y = a/b$. Pick $y_0 < a/b$. From Figure 15.36 you can see that $f(y_0) < M_y$, which implies that

$$\frac{M_y}{M_x} \left(\frac{x^m}{e^{nx}} \right) = {y_0}^a / e^{by_0} < M_y.$$

This in turn implies that

$$\frac{x^m}{e^{nx}} < M_x.$$

Figure 15.36 tells you that for $g(x)$ there is a unique value $x_0 < m/n$ satisfying this last inequality. That is, for each $y < a/b$ there is a unique value of x satisfying the equation in part (d). Thus there can exist only one trajectory solution approaching $(m/n, a/b)$ from below, as shown in Figure 15.37.

f. Use a similar argument to show that the solution trajectory leading to $(m/n, a/b)$ is unique if $y_0 > a/b$.

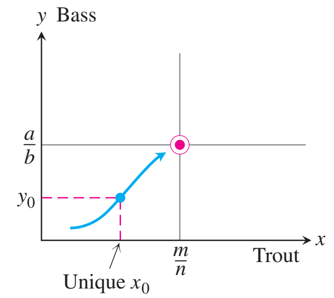


FIGURE 15.37 For any $y < a/b$ only one solution trajectory leads to the rest point $(m/n, a/b)$.

8. Show that the second-order differential equation $y'' = F(x, y, y')$ can be reduced to a system of two first-order differential equations

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = z,$$

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

Can something similar be done to the nth-order differential equation $y^{(n)} = F\left(x, y, y', y'', \ldots, y^{(n-1)}\right)$?