

Applied differential equations

TW244 - Lecture 03

First-order DEs: Direction fields

Prof Nick Hale - 2020



SCIENCE
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2.1 Solution curves without a solution

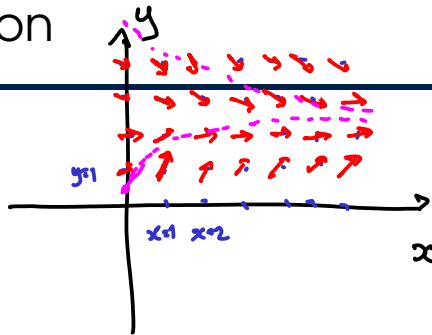
Qualitative analysis of the behaviour to some DEs, without solving the DE!

2.1 Solution curves without a solution

Direction fields

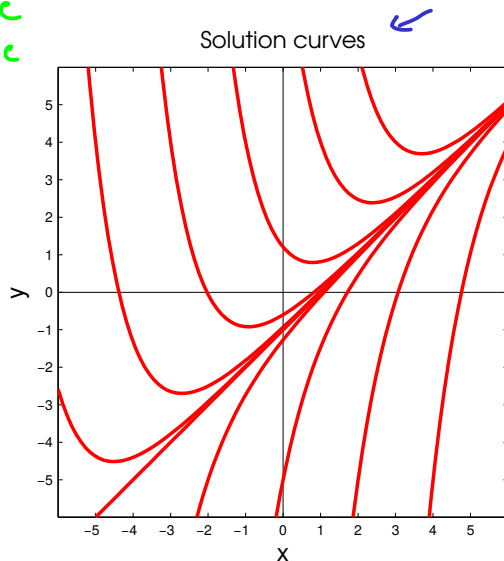
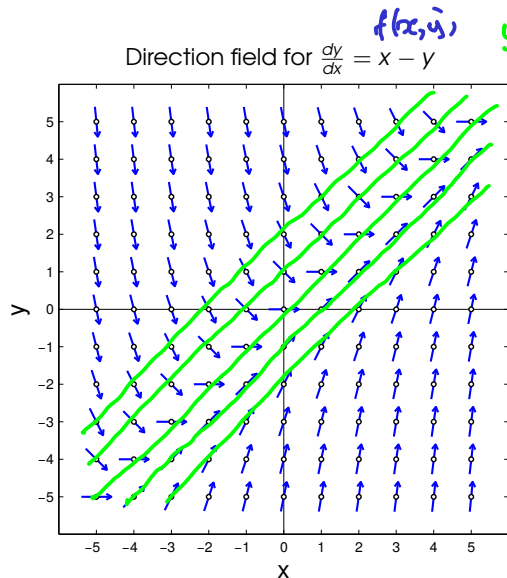
Consider the first-order DE, $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$.

- Evaluate $f(x, y)$ at a bunch of (x, y) points
- Draw a little arrow at each (x, y) to represent the direction $\frac{dy}{dx}$
- Collection of arrows forms the DE's direction field
- Gives some indication of the behaviour of the family of solutions curves in the xy -plane without solving the DE.



2.1 Solution curves without a solution

Direction fields: Example $dy/dx = x - y$

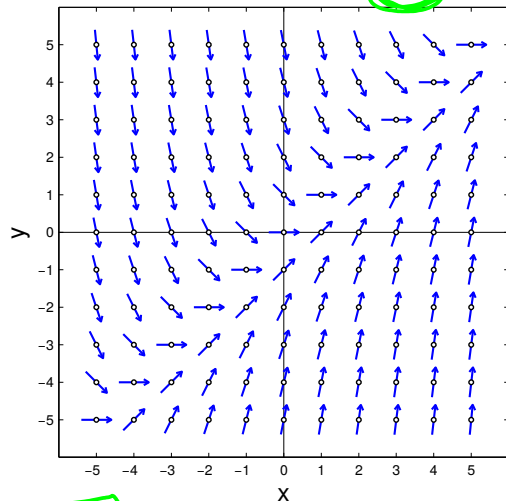


The solution curves follow the arrows!

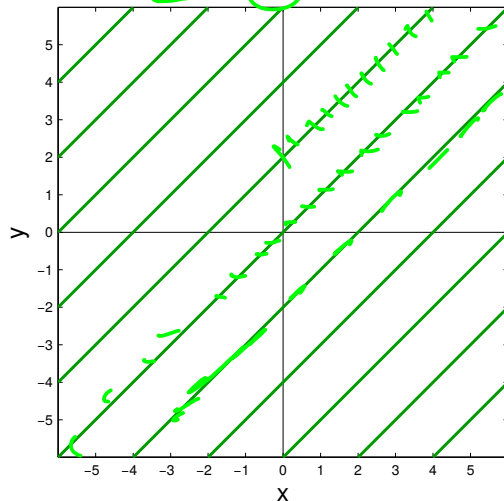
2.1 Solution curves without a solution

Direction fields: Example $dy/dx = x - y$

Direction field for $\frac{dy}{dx} = x - y$



Isoclines ($\frac{dy}{dx}$ is constant)

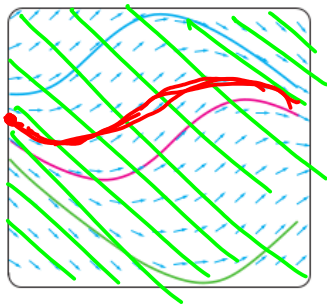


Isoclines can help you plot the direction field.

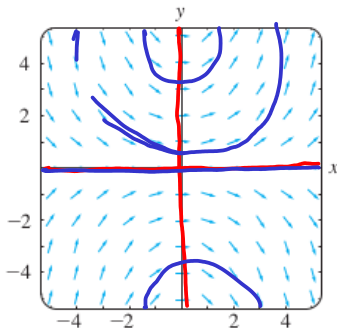
2.1 Solution curves without a solution

Direction fields: Example

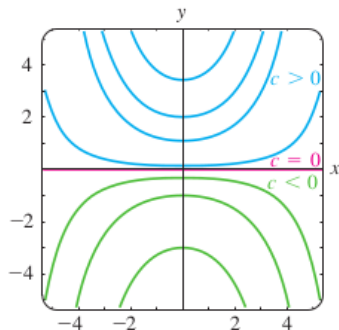
Some more examples (from the textbook):



Direction field for $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin(x+y)$.



(a) direction field for $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0.2xy$



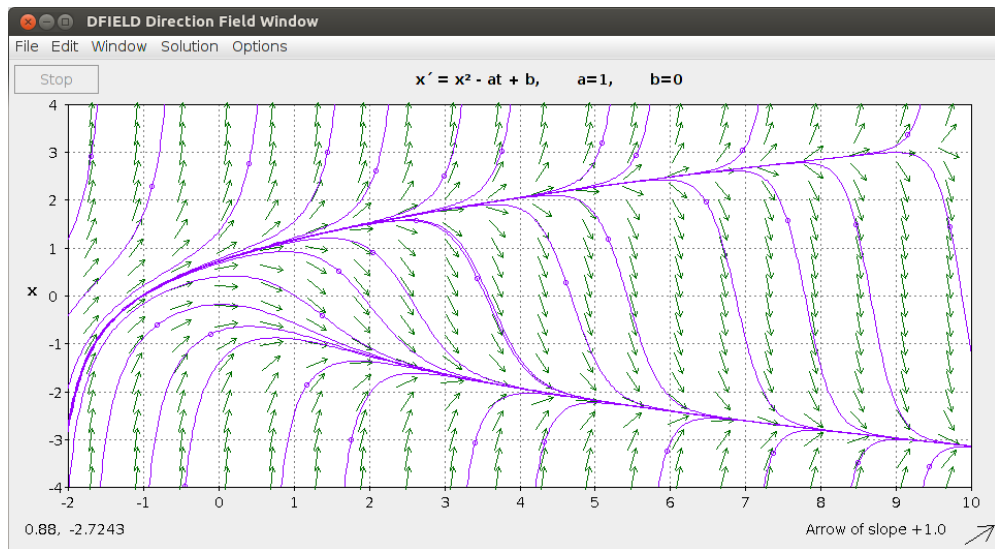
(b) some solution curves in the family $y = ce^{0.1x^2}$

Exercise: Verify that $y = ce^{0.1x^2}$ is a family of solutions to $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0.2xy$.

2.1 Solution curves without a solution

dfield

Direction fields: Example



For more complicated examples, software can be used (see CA01).

Autonomous first-order DEs

2.1 Solution curves without a solution

Autonomous first-order DEs

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

An **autonomous equation** is one in which the independent variable does not appear explicitly, i.e., a DE of the form

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

(Remember, we're interested in functions $y = y(x)$ that satisfy this DE.)

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= 1 + y^2 && \leftarrow \text{autonomous, } \frac{dy}{dx} = f(y) \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= 0.2xy && \leftarrow \text{not autonomous, } \frac{dy}{dx} = \underline{f(x, y)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (y')^2 &= xy \\ \text{order} &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

2.1 Solution curves without a solution

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

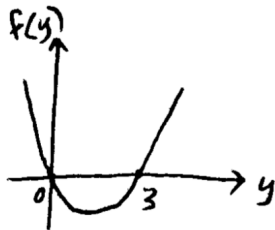
Critical points (also known as “stationary” or “equilibrium” points)

An critical point of an autonomous DE is any $c \in \mathbb{R}$ for which $f(c) = 0$.

If $y(x) = c$ then $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0 = f(y)$, so $y = c$ satisfies the DE.

We call this an equilibrium solution. (Why?)

Example:



DE

Critical points:

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

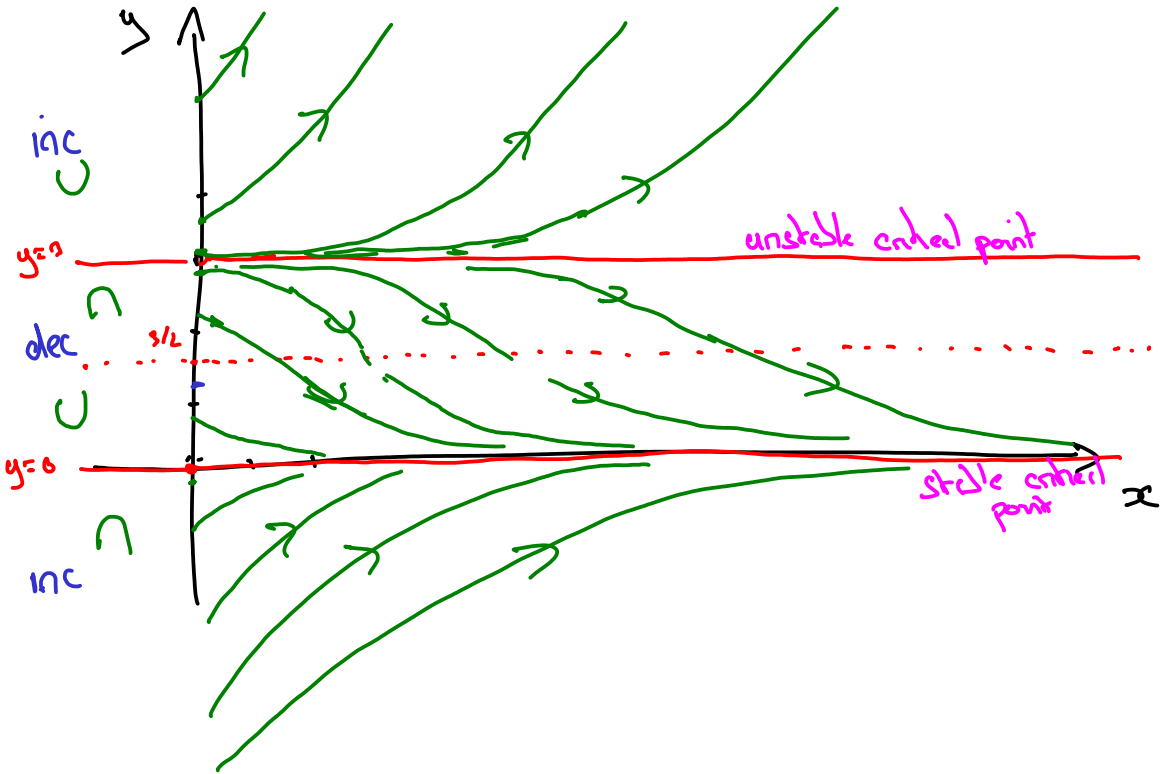
$$y^2 - 3y = 0$$

$$y(y - 3) = 0$$

$$\therefore y = 0 \text{ or } y = 3$$

← autonomous

We can now continue our qualitative analysis..



2.1 Solution curves without a solution

Increasing or decreasing?

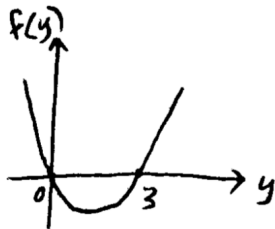
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \underline{f(y)}$$

We can tell when a non-constant solution $y = y(x)$ is increasing or decreasing by looking at the sign of f . In particular

■ $f(y) > 0 \implies \frac{dy}{dx} > 0 \implies y(x)$ is strictly increasing

■ $f(y) < 0 \implies \frac{dy}{dx} < 0 \implies y(x)$ is strictly decreasing

For the example $f(y) = y^2 - 3y$ we have



$\therefore y$ increases when $y < 0$ or $y > 3$ (critical points!)
 y decreases when $0 < y < 3$

2.1 Solution curves without a solution

Concavity

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

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{df(y)}{dy} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx}$$

We just looked at the sign of $f(y)$. Now let's look at the sign of $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$.

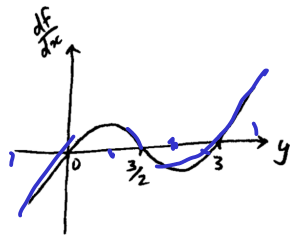
$$\blacksquare \frac{df}{dy} > 0 \implies \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} > 0 \implies y \text{ is concave up} \quad \cup$$

$$\blacksquare \frac{df}{dy} < 0 \implies \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} < 0 \implies y \text{ is concave down} \quad \cap$$

Chain rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx} y^2 = 2y \frac{dy}{dx}$$

For the example $f(y) = y^2 - 3y$ we have



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{df}{dy} &= \frac{d}{dy} (y^2 - 3y) = 2y - 3 \\ &= 2y \frac{dy}{dx} - 3 \frac{dy}{dx} = (2y - 3) \frac{dy}{dx} \\ &= (2y - 3)(y^2 - 3y) = y(2y - 3)(y - 3) \end{aligned}$$

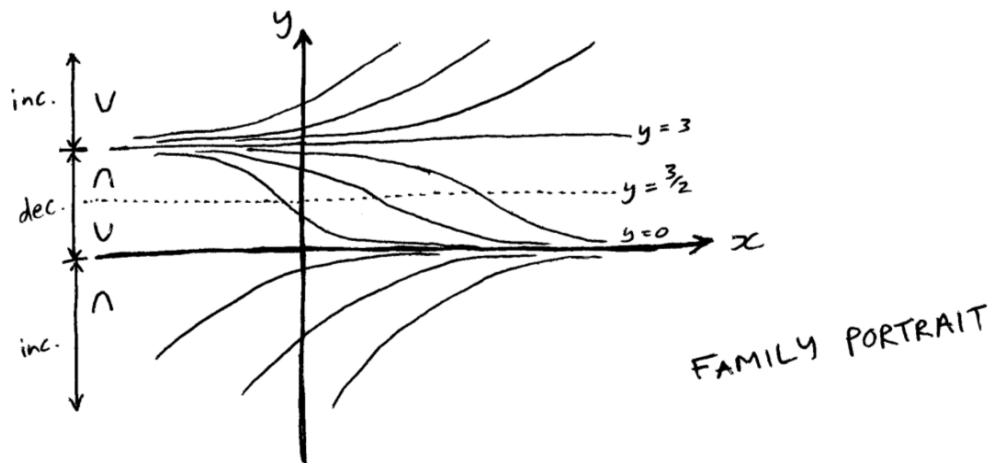
$\therefore y$ is concave up when $0 < y < \frac{3}{2}$ or $y > 3$

y is concave down when $y < 0$ or $\frac{3}{2} < y < 3$

2.1 Solution curves without a solution

Putting it all together

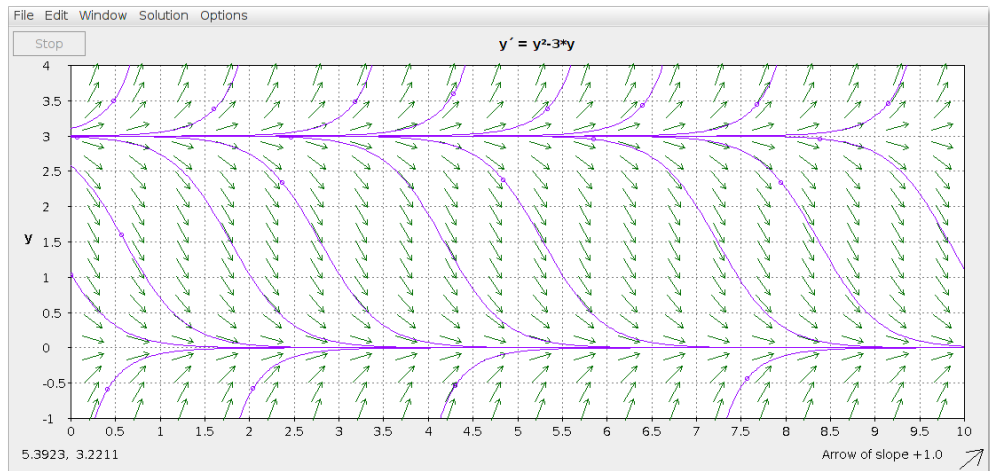
For the DE $\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2 - 3y$, we can put all we've established in one picture:



2.1 Solution curves without a solution

Putting it all together

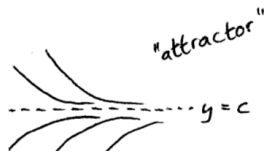
For the DE $\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2 - 3y$, we can put all we've established in one picture:



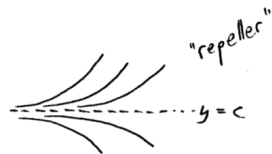
2.1 Solution curves without a solution

Classifying critical solutions

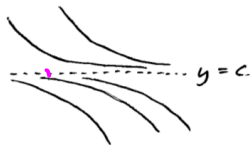
Asymptotically stable: Solution curves tend to $y = c$ on both sides as $x \rightarrow \infty$.



Asymptotically unstable: Solution curves tend away from $y = c$ on both sides as $x \rightarrow \infty$.



Asymptotically semi-stable: Tend to $y = c$ on one side and away on the other side.



Exercise: Classify the equilibrium solutions of the DE $\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2 - 3y$.

