

Classification

order

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

which is 1st order, x independent variable, y dependent variable

$$\frac{d^4y}{dt^4} + 5\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 3x \sin t$$

which is 4th order

because above equation only have 1 independent variable, they are ordinary differential equations(ODEs).

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = r$$

which is 1st order

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

which is 2nd order

above equation have more than one independent variable, they are partial differential equations(PDEs).

n th-order ODE: $F(x, y, y', \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0$

In certain condition on F , it can be written as

$$y^{(n)} = f(x, y, y', \dots, y^{(n-1)}) = 0(\star)$$

Example $(y')^2 + y' + xy = 0$

$$y' = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4xy}}{2}$$

Definition. a function $\phi(x)$ is called a solution of (\star) on $a < x < b$ if $\phi^{(n)}$ exists on $a < x < b$ and

$$\phi^{(n)}(x) = f(x, \phi(x), \phi'(x), \dots, \phi^{(n-1)}(x)) \quad \forall a < x < b$$

Example. Verify that $y = e^{2x}$ is a solution of $y'' + y' - 6y = 0$

Proof. $y'' + y' - 6y = 4e^{2x} + 2e^{2x} - 6e^{2x} = 0 \quad \forall -\infty < x < \infty$

$\therefore y = e^{2x}$ is a solution on $-\infty < x < \infty$ ■

Note. $y' = \frac{xy}{x+y+1}$ is derivative form $\Leftrightarrow dy = \frac{xy}{x+y+1}dx$ or $xydx - (x+y+1)dy = 0$ is differential form.

Definition. An ODE of order n is called linear if it may be written in the form

$$b_0(x)y^{(n)} + b_1(x)y^{(n-1)} + \cdots + b_{n-1}(x)y' + b_n(x)y = R(x)$$

where $b_0 \neq 0$, An ODE that is not linear is called nonlinear ODE.

Example

linear

$$\begin{aligned} y'(x) + 5y'(x) + 6y(x) &= 0 \\ y'''(x) + x^2y''(x) + x^3y'(x) &= xe^x \end{aligned}$$

non linear

$$\begin{aligned} y''(x) + 5y'(x) + 6y^2(x) &= 0 \\ y''(x) + 5(y'(x))^3 + 6y(x) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Initial-Value Problem (IVP): same point (and 1st order)

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = 0 \\ y(1) = 3 \\ y(1) = 2 \end{cases}$$

Boundary-Value Problem (BVP): two or more different points

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = 0 \\ y(1) = 3 \\ y(2) = 2 \end{cases}$$

Theorem (Existence and uniqueness). *Consider*

$$\begin{cases} y' = f(x, y) \\ y(x_0) = y_0 \end{cases}$$

where $x_0, y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ are given

Let $T = \{(x, y) \mid |x - x_0| \leq a, |y - y_0| \leq b\}$, where $a, b > 0$. Suppose that f and f_y are continuous in T . Then (IVP) has a unique solution defined on $[x_0 - h, x_0 + h]$ for some $h > 0$

§ **Separable equation** $A(x)dx = B(y)dy$

Example.

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

Solution.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{y} dy &= \frac{2}{x} dx \\ \implies \int \frac{1}{y} dy &= \int \frac{2}{x} dx \\ \implies \ln |y| &= 2 \ln |x| + C \end{aligned}$$

■

$$(2) \quad \begin{cases} (1 + y^2)dx + (1 + x^2)dy = 0 \\ y(0) = -1 \end{cases}$$

Solution.

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + y^2)dx &= -(1 + x^2)dy \\ \implies \frac{dx}{-(1 + x^2)} &= \frac{dy}{(1 + y^2)} \\ \implies \int \frac{1}{1 + x^2} dx &= - \int \frac{1}{1 + y^2} dy \end{aligned}$$

you can let $x = \tan \theta \implies dx = \sec^2 \theta d\theta$

$$\therefore \int \frac{1}{1 + x^2} dx = \int \cos^2 \theta \sec^2 \theta d\theta = \theta + C = \tan^{-1} x + C$$

$$\implies \tan^{-1} x = -\tan^{-1} y + C$$

$$y(0) = -1 \implies 0 = \frac{\pi}{4} + C \implies C = -\frac{\pi}{4}, \therefore \tan^{-1} x = -\tan^{-1} y - \frac{\pi}{4}$$

■

$$(3) \begin{cases} 2x(y+1)dx - ydy = 0 \\ y(0) = -2 \end{cases}$$

Solution. $\int 2xdx = \int \frac{y}{y+1}dy \implies x^2 = y - \ln|y+1| + C$
 $y(0) = -2 \implies 0 = -2 + c \implies c = 2 \therefore x^2 + y - \ln|y+1| + 2$ ■

§ Homogeneous equations

Definition. a function $f(x, y)$ is said to be homogeneous of degree k in x and y if and only if

$$f(\lambda x, \lambda y) = \lambda^k f(x, y)$$

Example. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$

$$\begin{aligned} f(\lambda x, \lambda y) &= (\lambda x)^2 + (\lambda y)^2 \\ &= \lambda^2(x^2 + y^2) \\ &= \lambda^2 f(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore f(x, y)$ is homogeneous, $k = 2$

Theorem. If $M(x, y)$ and $N(x, y)$ are both homogeneous and of the same degree, then $\frac{M(x, y)}{N(x, y)}$ is homogeneous of degree zero.

Proof. Set $f(x, y) = \frac{M(x, y)}{N(x, y)}$. By definition, we assume M and N are homogeneous of degree k , so

$$\begin{aligned} M(\lambda x, \lambda y) &= \lambda^k M(x, y) \text{ and } N(\lambda x, \lambda y) = \lambda^k N(x, y) \\ \therefore f(\lambda x, \lambda y) &= \frac{M(\lambda x, \lambda y)}{N(\lambda x, \lambda y)} = \frac{\lambda^k}{\lambda^k} \cdot \frac{M(x, y)}{N(x, y)} = \lambda^0 \frac{M(x, y)}{N(x, y)} \end{aligned} \quad \blacksquare$$

Theorem. If $f(x, y)$ is homogeneous of degree zero in x and y , then $f(x, y) = g(\frac{y}{x})$ for some function g .

Proof. By assumption,

$$f(\lambda x, \lambda y) = \lambda^0 f(x, y) = f(x, y)$$

Take $\lambda = \frac{1}{x}$. Then $f(x, y) = f(1, \frac{y}{x}) = g(\frac{y}{x})$, where $g(v) = f(1, v)$. ■

Corollary. If $M(x, y)$ and $N(x, y)$ are both homogeneous and of the same degree, then $\frac{M(x, y)}{N(x, y)} = g(\frac{y}{x})$ for some function g .

Definition. $M(x, y) + N(x, y)dy = 0$ is said to be homogeneous if it can be written as the form $\frac{dy}{dx} = g(\frac{y}{x})$ for some function g

Example. $(x^2 - 3y^2)dx + 2xydy = 0$ (★)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x^2 - 3y^2}{2xy} = -\frac{1 - 3(\frac{y}{x})^2}{2 \cdot \frac{y}{x}} = g(\frac{y}{x}) \text{ where } g(v) = \frac{1 - 3v^2}{-2v}$$

Remark. If $M(x, y)$ and $N(x, y)$ are homogeneous of the same degree, then $M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0$ is homogeneous.

Proof. By assumption and corollary, $\frac{M(x, y)}{N(x, y)} = g(\frac{y}{x})$ for some function g . $\therefore Mdx + Ndy = 0 \implies \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{M(x, y)}{N(x, y)} = -g(\frac{y}{x})$
 $\therefore Mdx + Ndy$ is homogeneous. ■

How to solve homogeneous equation

Suppose $M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0$ (★) is homogeneous.

Let $y = vx \implies \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dv}{dx}x + v$ (1)

\therefore (★) is homogeneous \therefore By definition, (★) $\Leftrightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = g(\frac{y}{x})$ (2)
 where g is a function.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{put (1) to (2)} &\implies \frac{dv}{dx}x + v = g(v) \\ &\implies \frac{dv}{dx}x = g(v) - v \\ &\implies \frac{1}{g(v) - v}dv = \frac{1}{x}dx, \text{ which is separable} \end{aligned}$$

\therefore The solution is $\int \frac{1}{g(v) - v}dv = \int \frac{1}{x}dx$

Example. $(x^2 - xy + y^2)dx - xydy = 0$ —(1)

Solution.

$$\begin{aligned} M(\lambda x, \lambda y) &= (\lambda x)^2 - (\lambda x)(\lambda y) + (\lambda y)^2 \\ &= \lambda^2(x^2 - xy + y^2) \\ &= \lambda^2 M(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
N(\lambda x, \lambda y) &= -(\lambda x)(\lambda y) \\
&= -\lambda^2 xy \\
&= \lambda^2 N(x, y)
\end{aligned}$$

■

so (1) is homogeneous.

$$\text{Let } y = vx \implies \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dv}{dx}x + v$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(1) \implies \frac{dy}{dx} &= -\frac{x^2 - xy + y^2}{xy} = \frac{1 - \frac{y}{x} + (\frac{y}{x})^2}{\frac{y}{x}} \\
&\implies \frac{dv}{dx}x + v = \frac{1 - v + v^2}{v} \\
&\implies \frac{dv}{dx}x = \frac{1 - v + v^2}{v} - v = \frac{1 - v}{v} \\
&\implies \int \frac{v}{1 - v} dv = \int \frac{1}{x} \\
&\implies \frac{v - 1 + 1}{1 - v} = -1 - \frac{1}{v - 1} \\
&\implies -v - \ln|v - 1| = \ln|x| + c
\end{aligned}$$

Example. $xydx + (x^2 + y^2)dy = 0$

$$\text{Solution. } \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{xy}{-(x^2 + y^2)} = -\frac{\frac{y}{x}}{1 + (\frac{y}{x})^2} = g(\frac{y}{x}) \text{ --- (1),}$$

where $g(v) = \frac{-v}{1 + v^2}$, so the equation is homogeneous.

$$\text{Let } y = vx \implies \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dv}{dx}x + v$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(1) \quad &\implies \frac{dv}{dx}x + v = -\frac{v}{1+v^2} \\
&\implies \frac{dv}{dx} \cdot x = -\frac{v}{1+v^2} - v = -\frac{2v+v^3}{1+v^2} \\
&\implies \int \frac{1+v^2}{2v+v^3} dv = -\int \frac{1}{x} dx \\
&\implies \int \left(\frac{0.5}{v} + \frac{0.5v+0}{2+v^2} \right) = -\int \frac{1}{x} dx \\
&\therefore 0.5 \int \frac{1}{v} + \frac{v}{2+v^2} dv = -\ln|x| + c \\
&\implies 0.5 \ln|v| + 0.25 \ln|2+v^2| + -\ln|x| + c \\
&\implies 0.5 \ln\left|\frac{y}{x}\right| + 0.25 \ln\left|2 + \frac{y^2}{x^2}\right| = -\ln|x| + c
\end{aligned}$$

■

§ Exact equation

Definition. $M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0$ is called an exact equation if there exists a function $F(x, y)$ such that $F_x = M$ and $F_y = N$

Example.

$y^2 dx + 2xy dy = 0$ Set $F(x, y) = xy^2 \implies F_x = y^2$ and $F_y = 2xy$
 \therefore exact equation.

How to solve homogeneous equation

Suppose $M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0$ —(★) is exact

$\implies \exists$ a function $F(x, y)$ such that $F_x = M$ and $F_y = N$

$$\begin{aligned}
(\star) \quad &\implies F_x dx + F_y dy = 0 \\
&\implies dF = 0 \\
&\implies F = C, \text{ where } C \text{ is an arbitrary constant}
\end{aligned}$$

Theorem. Suppose M, N, M_y, N_x are continuous. Then $Mdx + Ndy = 0$ is an exact equation $\Leftrightarrow M_y = N_x$

Proof. (\Leftarrow) Suppose $M_y = N_x$. Claim (★) is exact

$$\begin{cases} F_x = M & \text{---(1)} \\ F_y = N & \text{---(2)} \end{cases}$$

(1) $\Leftrightarrow F(x, y) = \int M(x, y) dx + \phi(y)$ for some function ϕ

$$\begin{aligned}
(1)(2) &\Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \int M(x, y) \partial x + \phi'(y) = N(x, y) \\
&\Leftrightarrow \phi'(y) = N(x, y) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \int M(x, y) \partial x = N(x, y) - \int My(x, y) \partial x
\end{aligned}$$

We compute

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[N(x, y) - \int My(x, y) \partial x \right] = Nx(x, y) - My(x, y) = 0$$

This implies $N(x, y) - \int My(x, y) \partial x$ is independent of x

$$\therefore \phi(y) = \int [N(x, y) - \int My(x, y) \partial x] dy$$

$$\therefore F(x, y) = \int M(x, y) \partial x + \int [N(x, y) - \int My(x, y) \partial x] dy \text{ satisfy (1)(2)}$$

$$\therefore Mdx + Ndy = 0 \text{ is exact.}$$

■

Example. $3x(xy - 2)dx + (x^3 + 2y)dy = 0$

Solution. $\therefore My = 3x^2 = Nx \therefore$ exact

$$\text{Find a function } F \text{ s.t. } \begin{cases} Fx = M = 3x^2y - 6x & (1) \\ Fy = N = x^3 + 2y & (2) \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(1) \implies F &= \int (2x^3 - xy^2 - 2y + 3) \partial x + \phi(y) \\
&= \frac{1}{3}x^4 - \frac{1}{2}x^2y^2 - 2xy + 3x + \phi(y) \\
\implies -x^2y - 2x &= Fy = -x^2y - 3x + \phi'(y) \implies \phi'(y) = c \\
\implies \phi(y) &= 0 \implies F = x^4 - \frac{1}{2}x^2y^2 - 2xy + 3x
\end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{2}x^4 - \frac{1}{2}x^2y^2 - 2xy + 3x = C \text{ is the general solution}$$

■

§ **Linear equations:** $A(x)y' + B(x)y = c(x)$, where $A(x) \neq 0$

Suppose $c(x) = 0$

$$\implies A(x)y' + B(x)y = 0$$

$$\implies A(x)y' = -B(x)y \implies \frac{1}{y}dy = \frac{B(x)}{-A(x)}dx, \text{ which is separable}$$

Suppose $B(x) = 0 \implies$ it's easy to solve

Suppose $c(x) \neq 0$ and $B(x) \neq 0$

$$A(x)y' + B(x)y = c(x) \implies y' + p(x)y = Q(x), \text{ where } p(x) = \frac{B(x)}{A(x)}$$

$$\text{and } Q(x) = \frac{C(x)}{A(x)}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow dF = 0 \Leftrightarrow Fx dx + Fy dy = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (P(x)y - Q(x))dx + 1dy = 0 \text{---(1) is not exact.}$$

$$\text{Let } v = v(x), (1) \times v \implies v(P(x)y - Q(x))dx + v(x)dy \text{--- (2)}$$

$$(2) \text{ is exact } \Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial y} [v(x)P(x)y - Q(x)] = v'(x)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow v(x)P(x) = v'(x) \Leftrightarrow P(x)dx = \frac{1}{v}dv$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \ln |v| = \int P(x)dx \Leftrightarrow |v| = e$$

Let $v(x) = e^{\int p(x)dx}$, which is called the integrating factor of (1)