First Order Linear ODEs

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1 Recap of previous modules

A differentiable equation is an mathematical relation involving a derivative of a dependant variable w.r.t. single/many independant variables

1.1 Notation:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \dot{x}, \qquad \frac{dy}{dx} = y', \qquad f\left(x, y, \frac{dy}{dx}, \dots, \frac{d^n y}{dx^n}\right) = 0$$

$$f_{xy} = \frac{\partial^f}{\partial x \partial y}$$

1.2 Prerequisites:

Integration, ODEs and PDEs from Advanced Calculus.

2 Basic Defintions and Concepts

2.1 Classifications

- 1. Use of full or partial derivative
- 2. Coefficients are functions of independant variables only / contant, otherwise non Linear
- 3. The highest derivative is the order of the description DE
- 4. Degree is the highest derivative in rationalised form
- 5. An explicit solution is; f = F(x, y, z, t) and implicit solution; F(f, x, y, z, t) = 0
- 6. Initial Value Problem (time) or boundary value problem (space).

2.2 Review of integration methods

- 1. List of commonly used integrals (link)
- 2. Polynomials, logarithms, trigonometric, inverse, hyperbolic and inverse hyperbolic trig.

2.3 Concepts

- 1. Given a DE, we want a solution.
- 2. A solution is a derived relation between the dependant and independant variables without any derivative term and defined in the iterval / domain / region.
- 3. replacing the solution within the domain satisfies the description DE
- 4. Needs integration on one or two variables
- 5. Not always analytical and closed forms possible. (could use numerical integration, iterative solution schemes.)
- 1. Linear higher order ODEs (Laplace transforms)
 - (a) transforms linear ODEs in algebraic forms
 - (b) needs table of laplace, inverse laplace formula
- 2. the Geometric meaning is the slope of y(x): $y'(x) = f(x_0, y_0)$ implies at a point (x_0, y_0) is the slope at $\frac{dy}{dx}$
- 3. There is something called a direction field that we can use to visualise the DE without solving it.
- 4. Curves of equal inclination f(x, y) = c along which derivative is constant. Lots of paralell lines.
- 5. Limitation of direction field give an overall idea about the solution but have limited accuracy
- 6. Orthoganal trajectories are a family of courves that intersect another family of curves at right angles. For a curve G(x, y, c) firstly final out $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$. General solution of the orthoganal trajector $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{f(x,y)}$.
- 7. existence is under what condition there is at least one Solution
- 8. uniqueness is what condition it has at most one Solution item the general solution contains the constants of integration
- 9. particular solution are when you ise the initial / boundary conditions

2.4 Famous models

• Van der Pol oscillator

$$\dot{x} = y$$

$$\dot{y} = \mu(1 - x^2)y - x$$

• Lorentz Attractor

$$\dot{x} = \sigma(y - x)$$

$$\dot{y} = x(\rho - z) - y$$

$$\dot{z} = xy - \beta z$$

Have to be careful between phase portrait and direction fields. Phase portraits are almost a guess and direction field as you have a solution at every point with a direction field.

3 Analytical Solutions

3.1 Separation of variables

$$g(y)y' = f(x)$$

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

3.2 Reduction to seperable form

$$y' = f(\frac{y}{x})$$

$$v + x\frac{dv}{dx} = f(v)$$
 by letting $y = vx$

$$\int \frac{dv}{f(v) - v} = \int \frac{dx}{x} + c$$

$$= \ln|x| + c$$

3.3 Exact ODEs and integrating fac-

Let us have an ODE: $M(x,y) + N(x,y) \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ which can be written as M(x,y)dx + N(x,y)dy. We can then write a total differential as partial derivatives:

$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0 \implies u(x,y) = c$$
 (1)

Which then we can compare the two and we get:

$$M = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \qquad N = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

$$\implies \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y \partial x}, \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y}$$

So then we can say for an ODE to be exact:

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$$

To solve the DE, take (1) and integrate with respect to u:

$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$u = \int M dx + K(y) = c$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[\int M dx \right] + \frac{dK(y)}{dy} = N$$

$$\implies \frac{dK}{dy} = N - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[\int M dx \right]$$

$$\implies k = \int \left[N - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[\int M dx \right] \right] dy$$
(1)

From this we can substitute k(y) back in and get the general solution of an exact ODE:

$$u(x,y) = \int M dx + \int \left[N + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[\int M dx \right] \right] dy$$

3.4 Reduction to Integrating Factors

We have a P(x,y)dx + Q(x,y)dy = 0 can be moved into $F \cdot Pdx + F \cdot Qdx = 0$ and is exact. So we hope that:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(FP) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(FQ)$$

$$\implies \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}P + \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}Q + F\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}$$

Now let, F=F(x) only, then we can say that $\frac{\partial F}{\partial y}=0$ and $\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}=\frac{dF}{dx}$

$$\therefore \frac{dF}{dx} = \frac{F}{Q} \left[\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \right] = F \cdot R$$

where $R = \frac{1}{Q} \left[\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \right]$ and we can solve nicely as:

$$F = Ke^{\int Rdx}$$

R must be of x only, not x and y or both. We can do the reverse with y, the maths is the same, but the R this time, which denote as R^* :

$$R^* = \frac{1}{P} \left[\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right]$$

4 Linear ODEs

First order linear ODEs:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + p(x)y = r(x)$$

Linear Homogenous ODEs if r(x) = 0:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + p(x)y = 0$$

which has a solution:

$$y(x) = ce^{-\int p(x)dx}$$

Example 1 Solve $x^3dx + y^3dy$

Solution 1 Firstly let us test for exactness. Our $M=x^3$ and $N=y^3$. The test says that the DE is exact if we know that $\frac{\partial M}{\partial y}=\frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$. We know that from a differential:

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = 0 = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = 0$$

This means that the equation is exact, so we can now plug this into the general solution to an exact equation:

$$u(x,y) = \int M dx + \int \left[N + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[\int M dx \right] \right] dy$$

and we get the solution:

$$u(x,y) = \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \frac{1}{4}y^4 + C$$

4.1 Nonhomogeneous Linear ODEs

When $r(x) \neq 0$ in $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + p(x)y = r(x)$. We can then do the following:

$$\implies dy + pydx = rdx$$
$$dy + (py - r)dx = 0$$
$$(py - r)dx = dy = 0$$

Now we can look at the integrating factor, which we know is of form:

$$R = \frac{1}{N} \left[\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} \right]$$

which we can sub in M = py - r and N = 1 and we get:

$$R = 1 \cdot (p - 0) = p(x)$$

So for a non-homogenous linear ODE, the integrating factor is p(x).

5 Non-linear ODE

We can take a bernoulli equation:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + p(x)y = g(x) \cdot y^n$$

which we can write it as:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = gy^n - py$$

The equation is linear for n = 0, 1, so we shall consider it without this condition. Firstly we are going to apply a substitution, $u(x) = y(x)^{1-n}$. Working it through we get:

$$\frac{du}{dx} = (1 - n) [y(x)]^{-n} \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$$

$$= (1 - n)y^{-n}(gy^n - py)$$

$$= (1 - n)(g - py^{1-n})$$

$$= (1 - n)(g - pu)$$

Which is linear and solvable.

6 Existence and Uniqueness

An initial value problem $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f(x,y), \quad y(x_0) = y_0$ has:

- no Solution
- precisely one solution
- many solutions

Defintion 1 Existence: Under what condition the IVP has at least one solution.

More formally: A function f(x,y) is continuous in some bounded rectangle R, $R:|x-x_0|< a,\,|y-y_0|< b$ there exists some K, such that $|f(x,y)|\leq K \quad \forall (x,y)\in R$ then the IVP exists.

Defintion 2 Uniqueness: Under what conditions the IVP has at most one solution.

More formally: If the function and its partial derivatives f, f_y are continuous in R: $|f(x,y)| \leq K|f_y(x,y)| \leq M, \quad \forall (x,y) \in R$