# **Linear Differential Equation**

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# **Linear Differential Equations Method of Integrating Factors**

Linear DEs are friendly to be solved.

#### DEFINITION

A first-order DE of the form

$$a_1(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + a_0(x)y = g(x) \dots (1)$$

is said to be a *linear equation* in y. When g(x) = 0, (1) is said to be *homogeneous*; otherwise it is *nonhomogeneous*.



#### Standard Form

The standard for of a first-order LDE can be written as dy/dx + P(x)y = f(x) (2)

#### METHOD OF SOLUTION

Let, left part of DE (2) be integrable, if we multiply both sides by  $\mu(x)$ , then

$$\left[\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y\right]\mu(x) = f(x)\mu(x)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\mu(x) + \mu(x)P(x)y = f(x)\mu(x)... (3)$$



If we can make the LHS of (3)

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\mu(x) + \mu(x)P(x)y = \frac{d}{dx}[\mu(x)y]... (4)$$

a whole derivative, (3) can be solved easily in terms of  $\mu(x)y$ .

Equation (4) can be written as

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\mu(x) + \mu(x)P(x)y = \frac{dy}{dx}\mu(x) + y\frac{d[\mu(x)]}{dx}... (5)$$

Cancelling  $\frac{dy}{dx}\mu(x)$  on both sides of DE (5), we have



$$\mu(x)P(x) = \frac{d[\mu(x)]}{dx}$$

$$or, \frac{d\mu(x)}{\mu(x)} = P(x)dx$$

$$or, \ln \mu(x) = \int P(x)$$

$$or, \mu(x) = e^{\int P(x)dx} ...(6)$$

Eq.(6) is called an *integrating factor* for equation (2).

Here is what we have so far: We multiplied both sides of (2) by (6) and, by construction, the left-hand side is the derivative of a product of the integrating factor and y:

$$e^{\int P(x) dx} \frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)e^{\int P(x) dx} y = e^{\int P(x) dx} f(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ e^{\int P(x) \, dx} \, y \right] = e^{\int P(x) \, dx} f(x).$$

Finally, we discover why (6) is called an *integrating factor*. We can integrate both sides of the last equation,



$$e^{\int P(x) dx} y = \int e^{\int P(x) dx} f(x) dx + c$$

We emphasize that you should **not memorize** formula (6). The following procedure should be worked through each time.

#### **Solving a Linear First-Order Equation**

- (i) Remember to put a linear equation into the standard form (2).
- (ii) From the standard form of the equation identify P(x) and then find the integrating factor  $e^{\int P(x) dx}$ . No constant need be used in evaluating the indefinite integral  $\int P(x) dx$ .
- (iii) Multiply the both sides of the standard form equation by the integrating factor. The left-hand side of the resulting equation is automatically the derivative of the product of the integrating factor  $e^{\int P(x)dx}$  and y:

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[e^{\int P(x)\,dx}y\right] = e^{\int P(x)\,dx}f(x). \tag{5}$$

(*iv*) Integrate both sides of the last equation and solve for y.

## **Workedout Examples**

Solve 
$$x \frac{dy}{dx} - 4y = x^6 e^x$$
.

**SOLUTION** Dividing by x, the standard form of the given DE is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{4}{x}y = x^5 e^x. ag{6}$$

From this form we identify P(x) = -4/x and  $f(x) = x^5 e^x$  and further observe that P and f are continuous on  $(0, \infty)$ . Hence the integrating factor is

we can use  $\ln x$  instead of  $\ln |x|$  since x > 0

$$e^{-4\int dx/x} = e^{-4\ln x} = e^{\ln x^{-4}} = x^{-4}.$$

Here we have used the basic identity  $b^{\log_b N} = N$ , N > 0. Now we multiply (6) by  $x^{-4}$  and rewrite

$$x^{-4} \frac{dy}{dx} - 4x^{-5}y = xe^x$$
 as  $\frac{d}{dx}[x^{-4}y] = xe^x$ .

It follows from integration by parts that the general solution defined on the interval  $(0, \infty)$  is  $x^{-4}y = xe^x - e^x + c$  or  $y = x^5e^x - x^4e^x + cx^4$ .

Find the general solution of  $(x^2 - 9) \frac{dy}{dx} + xy = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** We write the differential equation in standard form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{x}{x^2 - 9}y = 0\tag{7}$$

and identify  $P(x) = x/(x^2 - 9)$ . Although P is continuous on  $(-\infty, -3)$ , (-3, 3), and  $(3, \infty)$ , we shall solve the equation on the first and third intervals. On these intervals the integrating factor is

$$e^{\int x \, dx/(x^2-9)} = e^{\frac{1}{2}\int 2x \, dx/(x^2-9)} = e^{\frac{1}{2}\ln|x^2-9|} = \sqrt{x^2-9}$$
.

After multiplying the standard form (7) by this factor, we get

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \sqrt{x^2 - 9} \, y \right] = 0.$$

Integrating both sides of the last equation gives  $\sqrt{x^2 - 9}$  y = c. Thus for either x > 3 or x < -3 the general solution of the equation is  $y = \frac{c}{\sqrt{x^2 - 9}}$ .



Solve 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y = x$$
,  $y(0) = 4$ .

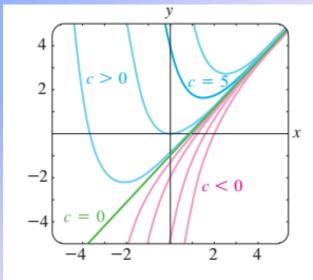
**SOLUTION** The equation is in standard form, and P(x) = 1 and f(x) = x are continuous on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . The integrating factor is  $e^{\int dx} = e^x$ , so integrating

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[e^{x}y\right] = xe^{x}$$

gives  $e^x y = xe^x - e^x + c$ . Solving this last equation for y yields the general solution  $y = x - 1 + ce^{-x}$ . But from the initial condition we know that y = 4 when x = 0. Substituting these values into the general solution implies that c = 5. Hence the solution of the problem is

$$y = x - 1 + 5e^{-x}, -\infty < x < \infty.$$
 (8)

Figure 2.3.2, obtained with the aid of a graphing utility, shows the graph of the solution (8) in dark blue along with the graphs of other members of the one-parameter family of solutions  $y = x - 1 + ce^{-x}$ . It is interesting to observe that as x increases, the graphs of *all* members of this family are close to the graph of the solution y = x - 1. The last solution corresponds to c = 0 in the family and is shown in



**FIGURE 2.3.2** Solution curves of DE in Example 5

dark green in Figure 2.3.2. This asymptotic behavior of solutions is due to the fact that the contribution of  $ce^{-x}$ ,  $c \neq 0$ , becomes negligible for increasing values of x. We say that  $ce^{-x}$  is a **transient term**, since  $e^{-x} \rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . While this behavior is not characteristic of all general solutions of linear equations (see Example 2), the notion of a transient is often important in applied problems.

Solve 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y = f(x)$$
,  $y(0) = 0$  where  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le x \le 1, \\ 0, & x > 1. \end{cases}$ 

**SOLUTION** The graph of the discontinuous function f is shown in Figure 2.3.3. We solve the DE for y(x) first on the interval [0, 1] and then on the interval  $(1, \infty)$ . For  $0 \le x \le 1$  we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 1$$
 or, equivalently,  $\frac{d}{dx}[e^x y] = e^x$ .

Integrating this last equation and solving for y gives  $y = 1 + c_1 e^{-x}$ . Since y(0) = 0, we must have  $c_1 = -1$ , and therefore  $y = 1 - e^{-x}$ ,  $0 \le x \le 1$ . Then for x > 1 the equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$

leads to  $y = c_2 e^{-x}$ . Hence we can write

$$y = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-x}, & 0 \le x \le 1, \\ c_2 e^{-x}, & x > 1. \end{cases}$$

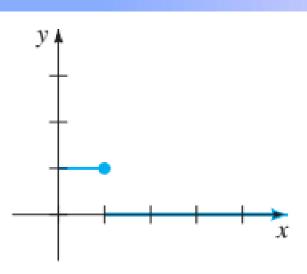


By appealing to the definition of continuity at a point, it is possible to determine  $c_2$  so that the foregoing function is continuous at x = 1. The requirement that  $\lim_{x\to 1^+} y(x) = y(1)$  implies that  $c_2e^{-1} = 1 - e^{-1}$  or  $c_2 = e - 1$ . As seen in Figure 2.3.4, the function

$$y = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-x}, & 0 \le x \le 1, \\ (e - 1)e^{-x}, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$
 (9)

is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$ .

It is worthwhile to think about (9) and Figure 2.3.4 a little bit; you are urged to read and answer Problem 48 in Exercises 2.3.



**FIGURE 2.3.3** Discontinuous f(x) in Example 6

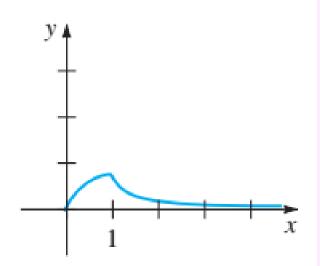


FIGURE 2.3.4 Graph of (9) in Example 6

Solve the initial value problem

$$ty' + 2y = 4t^2, (34)$$

$$y(1) = 2.$$
 (35)

#### **Solution:**

In order to determine p(t) and g(t) correctly, we must first rewrite equation (34) in the standard form (3). Thus we have

$$y' + \frac{2}{t}y = 4t, (36)$$

so p(t) = 2/t and g(t) = 4t. To solve equation (36), we first compute the integrating factor  $\mu(t)$ :

$$\mu(t) = \exp\left(\int \frac{2}{t} dt\right) = e^{2\ln|t|} = t^2.$$



On multiplying equation (36) by  $\mu(t) = t^2$ , we obtain

$$t^2y' + 2ty = (t^2y)' = 4t^3,$$

and therefore

$$t^2 y = \int 4t^3 \, dt = t^4 + c,$$

where c is an arbitrary constant. It follows that, for t > 0,

$$y = t^2 + \frac{c}{t^2} \tag{37}$$

is the general solution of equation (34). Integral curves of equation (34) for several values of c are shown in Figure 2.1.3.

To satisfy initial condition (35), set t = 1 and y = 2 in equation (37): 2 = 1 + c, so c = 1; thus

$$y = t^2 + \frac{1}{t^2}, \quad t > 0 \tag{38}$$



Solve: 
$$y' + \tan(x)y = \cos^2(x)$$
,  $y(0) = 2$ 

#### **Solution:**

$$I.F. = e^{\int \tan x dx} = e^{\ln \sec x} = \sec x$$

The solution 
$$y \sec x = \int \sec x \cos^2 x \, dx + c = \int \cos x \, dx + c$$
  

$$\Rightarrow y \sec x = \sin x + c$$

When 
$$x=0$$
, then  $2 = c$ 

$$\therefore y \sec x = \sin x + 2 \ Ans.$$



Solve: 
$$x \frac{dy}{dx} = y(1 - x \tan x) + x^2(\cos x + scex)$$

Soln: 
$$x \frac{dy}{dx} = y(1 - x \tan x) + x^2(\cos x + \sec x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{y(1-x\tan x)}{x} = x\cos x + x\sec x$$

$$I.F = e^{\int -\frac{(1-x\tan x)}{x}dx} = e^{\int -\frac{1}{x}dx} \times e^{\int \tan x \, dx}$$

$$= e^{-\ln x} \times e^{\ln \sec x} = \frac{\sec x}{x}$$



The solution is

$$\frac{y \sec x}{x} = \int \frac{\sec x}{x} x \cos x \, dx + \int \frac{\sec x}{x} x \sec x \, dx + c$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{y \sec x}{x} = \int dx + \int \sec^2 x \, dx + c$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{y \sec x}{x} = x + \tan x + c$$

$$\Rightarrow y = x^2 \cos x + x \sin x + cx \cos x$$
 Ans

### **Exercises**

In Problems 1–24 find the general solution of the given differential equation. Give the largest interval I over which the general solution is defined. Determine whether there are any transient terms in the general solution.

1. 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 5y$$

**2.** 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 0$$

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

**4.** 
$$3\frac{dy}{dx} + 12y = 4$$

5. 
$$y' + 3x^2y = x^2$$

**6.** 
$$y' + 2xy = x^3$$

7. 
$$x^2y' + xy = 1$$

8. 
$$y' = 2y + x^2 + 5$$

**9.** 
$$x \frac{dy}{dx} - y = x^2 \sin x$$
 **10.**  $x \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 3$ 

**10.** 
$$x \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 3$$

**23.** 
$$x \frac{dy}{dx} + (3x + 1)y = e^{-3x}$$

**24.** 
$$(x^2 - 1)\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = (x + 1)^2$$

In Problems 25-36 solve the given initial-value problem. Give the largest interval I over which the solution is defined.

**25.** 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x + 5y$$
,  $y(0) = 3$ 

**26.** 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x - 3y$$
,  $y(0) = \frac{1}{3}$ 

**27.** 
$$xy' + y = e^x$$
,  $y(1) = 2$ 

**29.** 
$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = E$$
,  $i(0) = i_0$ ,  $L, R, E, i_0$  constants

**30.** 
$$\frac{dT}{dt} = k(T - T_m), \quad T(0) = T_0, \quad k, T_m, T_0 \text{ constants}$$

**31.** 
$$x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 4x + 1$$
,  $y(1) = 8$ 

**32.** 
$$y' + 4xy = x^3 e^{x^2}$$
,  $y(0) = -1$ 

**33.** 
$$(x+1)\frac{dy}{dx} + y = \ln x$$
,  $y(1) = 10$ 

**34.** 
$$x(x+1)\frac{dy}{dx} + xy = 1$$
,  $y(e) = 1$ 

**35.** 
$$y' - (\sin x)y = 2 \sin x$$
,  $y(/2) = 1$ 

**36.** 
$$y' + (\tan x)y = \cos^2 x$$
,  $y(0) = -1$ 



In Problems 37–40 proceed as in Example 6 to solve the given initial-value problem. Use a graphing utility to graph the continuous function y(x).

37. 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = f(x), y(0) = 0$$
, where 
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le x \le 3 \\ 0, & x > 3 \end{cases}$$

38. 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y = f(x), y(0) = 1, \text{ where}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ -1, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

39. 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} + 2xy = f(x), y(0) = 2$$
, where 
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & 0 \le x & 1\\ 0, & x \ge 1 \end{cases}$$

**40.** 
$$(1 + x^2) \frac{dy}{dx} + 2xy = f(x), y(0) = 0$$
, where 
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & 0 \le x & 1\\ -x, & x \ge 1 \end{cases}$$



## EXAMPLE 5

#### Mixture of Two Salt Solutions

Recall that the large tank considered in Section 1.3 held 300 gallons of a brine solution. Salt was entering and leaving the tank; a brine solution was being pumped into the tank at the rate of 3 gal/min; it mixed with the solution there, and then the mixture was pumped out at the rate of 3 gal/min. The concentration of the salt in the inflow, or solution entering, was 2 lb/gal, so salt was entering the tank at the rate  $R_{in} = (2 \text{ lb/gal}) \cdot (3 \text{ gal/min}) = 6 \text{ lb/min}$  and leaving the tank at the rate  $R_{out} = (A/300 \text{ lb/gal}) \cdot (3 \text{ gal/min}) = A/100 \text{ lb/min}$ . From this data and (5) we get equation (8) of Section 1.3. Let us pose the question: If 50 pounds of salt were dissolved initially in the 300 gallons, how much salt is in the tank after a long time?

**SOLUTION** To find the amount of salt A(t) in the tank at time t, we solve the initial-value problem

$$\frac{dA}{dt} + \frac{1}{100}A = 6$$
,  $A(0) = 50$ .



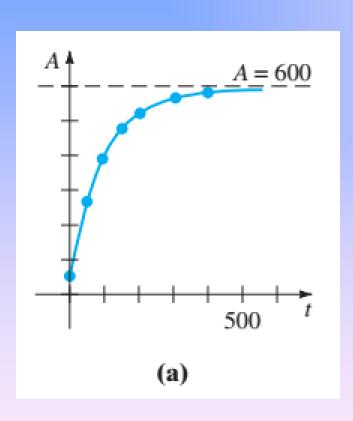
Note here that the side condition is the initial amount of salt A(0) = 50 in the tank and *not* the initial amount of liquid in the tank. Now since the integrating factor of the linear differential equation is  $e^{t/100}$ , we can write the equation as

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left[ e^{t/100} A \right] = 6 e^{t/100}.$$

Integrating the last equation and solving for A gives the general solution  $A(t) = 600 + ce^{-t/100}$ . When t = 0, A = 50, so we find that c = -550. Thus the amount of salt in the tank at time t is given by

$$A(t) = 600 - 550e^{-t/100}. (6)$$

The solution (6) was used to construct the table in Figure 3.1.5(b). Also, it can be seen from (6) and Figure 3.1.5(a) that  $A(t) \rightarrow 600$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . Of course, this is what we would intuitively expect; over a long time the number of pounds of salt in the solution must be (300 gal)(2 lb/gal) = 600 lb.



t (min)	A (lb)
50	266.41
100	397.67
150	477.27
200	525.57
300	572.62
400	589.93
	(b)

**FIGURE 3.1.5** Pounds of salt in the tank in Example 5



**Series Circuits** For a series circuit containing only a resistor and an inductor, Kirchhoff's second law states that the sum of the voltage drop across the inductor (L(di/dt)) and the voltage drop across the resistor (iR) is the same as the impressed voltage (E(t)) on the circuit. See Figure 3.1.7.

Thus we obtain the linear differential equation for the current i(t),

$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = E(t), (7)$$

where L and R are constants known as the inductance and the resistance, respectively. The current i(t) is also called the **response** of the system.

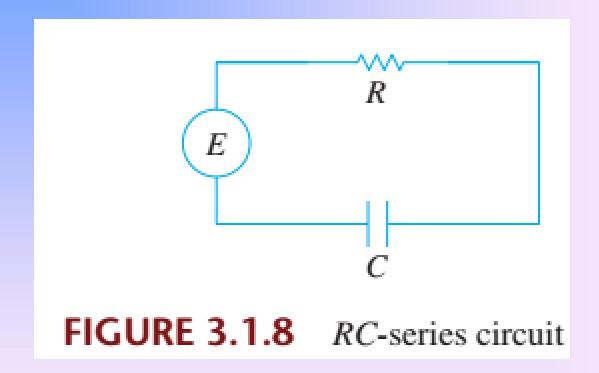
The voltage drop across a capacitor with capacitance C is given by q(t)/C, where q is the charge on the capacitor. Hence, for the series circuit shown in Figure 3.1.8, Kirchhoff's second law gives

$$Ri + \frac{1}{C}q = E(t). (8)$$

But current i and charge q are related by i = dq/dt, so (8) becomes the linear differential equation

$$R\frac{dq}{dt} + \frac{1}{C}q = E(t). (9)$$





#### EXAMPLE 7

#### **Series Circuit**

A 12-volt battery is connected to a series circuit in which the inductance is  $\frac{1}{2}$  henry and the resistance is 10 ohms. Determine the current *i* if the initial current is zero.

**SOLUTION** From (7) we see that we must solve

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{di}{dt} + 10i = 12,$$

subject to i(0) = 0. First, we multiply the differential equation by 2 and read off the integrating factor  $e^{20t}$ . We then obtain

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left[ e^{20t} i \right] = 24 e^{20t}.$$

Integrating each side of the last equation and solving for i gives  $i(t) = \frac{6}{5} + ce^{-20t}$ . Now i(0) = 0 implies that  $0 = \frac{6}{5} + c$  or  $c = -\frac{6}{5}$ . Therefore the response is  $i(t) = \frac{6}{5} - \frac{6}{5}e^{-20t}$ .



**Bernoulli's Equation** The differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = f(x)y^n, (4)$$

where n is any real number, is called **Bernoulli's equation.** Note that for n = 0 and n = 1, equation (4) is linear. For  $n \neq 0$  and  $n \neq 1$  the substitution  $u = y^{1-n}$  reduces any equation of form (4) to a linear equation.

#### EXAMPLE 2

Solving a Bernoulli DE

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

**SOLUTION** We first rewrite the equation as

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{1}{x}y = xy^2$$



by dividing by x. With n = 2 we have  $u = y^{-1}$  or  $y = u^{-1}$ . We then substitute

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du}\frac{du}{dx} = -u^{-2}\frac{du}{dx}$$
 Chain Rule

into the given equation and simplify. The result is

$$\frac{du}{dx} - \frac{1}{x}u = -x.$$

The integrating factor for this linear equation on, say,  $(0, \infty)$  is

$$e^{-\int dx dx} = e^{-\ln x} = e^{\ln x^{-1}} = x^{-1}$$
.

Integrating

$$\frac{d}{dx}[x^{-1}u] = -1$$

gives  $x^{-1}u = -x + c$  or  $u = -x^2 + cx$ . Since  $u = y^{-1}$ , we have y = 1/u, so a solution of the given equation is  $y = 1/(-x^2 + cx)$ .

Solve: 
$$x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = (xy)^{\frac{3}{2}}$$

Solution: The given equation can be written as

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

putting 
$$y^{-\frac{1}{2}} = v \Rightarrow y^{-\frac{3}{2}} \frac{dy}{dx} = -2 \frac{dv}{dx}$$



The above equation reduces to

$$-2\frac{dv}{dx} + \frac{v}{x} = x^{\frac{1}{2}} \Rightarrow \frac{dv}{dx} - \frac{v}{2x} = -\frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}}}{2}$$

I.F 
$$e^{-\int \frac{dx}{2x}} = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\log x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Therefore, the solution is

$$\frac{v}{\sqrt{x}} = -\int \frac{\sqrt{x}}{2\sqrt{x}} dx \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{xy}} = -\frac{x}{2} + c \quad Ans$$

### **Exercises**

Each DE in Problems 15-22 is a Bernoulli equation.

In Problems 15-20 solve the given differential equation by using an appropriate substitution.

**15.** 
$$x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = \frac{1}{y^2}$$
 **16.**  $\frac{dy}{dx} - y = e^x y^2$ 

17. 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y(xy^3 - 1)$$
 18.  $x\frac{dy}{dx} - (1+x)y = xy^2$ 

**19.** 
$$t^2 \frac{dy}{dt} + y^2 = ty$$
 **20.**  $3(1+t^2) \frac{dy}{dt} = 2ty(y^3-1)$ 

In Problems 21 and 22 solve the given initial-value problem.

**21.** 
$$x^2 \frac{dy}{dx} - 2xy = 3y^4$$
,  $y(1) = \frac{1}{2}$ 

**22.** 
$$y^{1/2} \frac{dy}{dx} + y^{3/2} = 1$$
,  $y(0) = 4$ 

# Thanks a lot ...