August 22 Math 2306 sec. 57 Fall 2017

Section 3: Separation of Variables

The simplest type of equation we could encounter would be of the form

$$\frac{dy}{dx}=g(x).$$

* fedx = te +c

For example, solve the ODE

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 4e^{2x} + 1.$$

$$y = \int \left(\begin{array}{c} \left(\begin{array}{c} 2x \\ e \end{array} + 1 \right) \end{array} \right) dx \qquad \text{for } a \neq 0$$

$$: y \cdot \frac{1}{2} e^{2x} + x + C$$

$$y = 2e^{2x} + x + C$$

$$(a + 2e^{2x} + x + C)$$

Separable Equations

Definition: The first order equation y' = f(x, y) is said to be **separable** if the right side has the form

$$f(x,y)=g(x)h(y).$$

That is, a separable equation is one that has the form

$$\frac{dy}{dx}=g(x)h(y).$$

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Determine which (if any) of the following are separable.

(a)
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x^3 y$$
 yes it's separable with $g(x) = x^3$ and $h(y) = y$

(b)
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x + y$$
 this is not separable.

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(c)
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin(xy^2)$$
 (Not separable, xy^2 would be
but Sin(xy^2) is not

(d)
$$\frac{dy}{dt} - te^{t-y} = 0 \implies \int_{t}^{dy} = te^{t-y} = te^{t-y} \cdot e^{t-y}$$

This is separable.
 $g(t) \quad h(y)$

Solving Separable Equations

Recall that from $\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)$, we can integrate both sides

$$\int \frac{dy}{dx} dx = \int g(x) dx.$$

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We'll use this observation!

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Solving Separable Equations

Let's assume that it's safe to divide by h(y) and let's set p(y) = 1/h(y). We solve (usually find an implicit solution) by **separating the** variables.

Divide by h(5) $\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)h(y)$ $\frac{1}{h(y)} \frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)$ multiply by dx and integrate $\int P(y) \frac{dy}{dx} dx = \int g(x) dx$ [p(y) dy = [g(x) dx Integrate

P(s) = G(x) + Cwhere Pond G are anti-derivatures of pond 3, respectively.

defines a 1-parameter P(y) = G(x) + Ctanils of solutions implicitly.

Solve the ODE $\frac{1}{1/2} \frac{d_b}{dx} = -x$ $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{v} = -\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}} \Rightarrow$ $y \frac{dy}{dx} = -x$ $\Rightarrow \int y \frac{dy}{dx} dx = \int -x dx$ = Jydy = - Jxdx Mult by 2 and let 2C = k $= \frac{y^2}{2} = -\frac{x^2}{2} + C$ y2 = -x2+ k = $x^{2}+y^{2} = k$

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An IVP¹

$$\frac{dy}{dt} - te^{t-y} = 0, \quad y(0) = 1$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = te^{t} \cdot e^{t} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{e^{-t}} \frac{dy}{dt} = te^{t}$$

$$e^{t} \frac{dy}{dt} = te^{t} \Rightarrow \int e^{t} \frac{dy}{dt} dt = \int te^{t} dt$$

$$\int e^{t} dy = \int te^{t} dt \qquad \frac{\ln t}{u = t} \frac{y}{u = t} dt$$

$$e^{t} = te^{t} - \int e^{t} dt \qquad y = e^{t} dy = e^{t} dt$$

¹Recall IVP stands for *initial value problem*.

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Impose
$$y(0)=1 \Rightarrow when t=0, y=1$$

 $e^{l} = 0e^{0} - e^{0} + C \Rightarrow e = -1 + (\Rightarrow C = e+1)$
The solution to the IVP is given by
 $e^{0} = te^{1} - e^{1} + e+1$.

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Caveat regarding division by h(y).

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Recall that the IVP

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x\sqrt{y}, \quad y(0) = 0$$

has two solutions

$$y(x) = \frac{x^4}{16}$$
 and $y(x) = 0$.

If we separate the variables

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{y}}\,dy=x\,dx$$

we lose the second solu

Why?

nonzero.

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Solutions Defined by Integrals

Recall (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{x_0}^{x} g(t) dt = g(x) \text{ and } \int_{x_0}^{x} \frac{dy}{dt} dt = y(x) - y(x_0).$$
Use this to solve

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x), \quad y(x_0) = y_0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(t) \Rightarrow \int_{x_0}^{x} \frac{dy}{dt} dt = \int_{x_0}^{x} g(t) dt$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad g(x) - y(x_0) = \int_{x_0}^{x} g(t) dt$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \int_{x_0}^{x} g(t) dt$$

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$$\begin{aligned} y(x) &= y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} g(y) dt & \text{is a solute the IVP.} \\ \text{Let's verify: Inithel condition} & & & \\ y(x_0) &= y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x_0} g(y) dt &= y_0 + 0 = y_0 \\ & & y(x_0) &= y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} g(y) dt \\ & & y(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} g(y) dt \right) \\ & & \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} y_0 + \frac{d}{dx} \int_{x_0}^{x} g(y) dt \\ & & = 0 + \frac{d}{dx} \int_{x_0}^{x} g(y) dt = 0 + g(x) \\ & & \frac{dy}{dx} &= g(x) \quad y \text{ solves the ODE too} \end{aligned}$$

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Example: Express the solution of the IVP in terms of an integral.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin(x^2), \quad y(\sqrt{\pi}) = 1 \qquad \text{here} \qquad g(t) = \sin(t^2) \\ x_0 = \sqrt{\pi} \quad \text{and} \quad y_0 = 1 \\ y(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} g(t) dt \\ y(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x} g(t) dt \\ y(x) = 1 + \int_{x_0}^{x} \sin(t^2) dt \\ y(x) = 1 + \int_{x_0}^{x} \sin($$

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Section 4: First Order Equations: Linear

A first order linear equation has the form

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

If g(x) = 0 the equation is called **homogeneous**. Otherwise it is called **nonhomogeneous**.

Provided $a_1(x) \neq 0$ on the interval *I* of definition of a solution, we can write the **standard form** of the equation $P(x) = \frac{a_0(x)}{a_0(x)}$

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

We'll be interested in equations (and intervals I) for which P and f are continuous on I.

Solutions (the General Solution)

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

It turns out the solution will always have a basic form of $y = y_c + y_p$ where

y_c is called the **complementary** solution and would solve the problem

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

(called the associated homogeneous equation), and

y_p is called the **particular** solution, and is heavily influenced by the function f(x).

The cool thing is that our solution method will get both parts in one process—we won't get this benefit with higher order equations!