

## Section 3: Separation of Variables

Recall that a first order ODE is called **separable** if it has the form

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

We solve the equation by separating the variables and integrating:

$$\int \frac{1}{h(y)} dy = \int g(x) dx.$$

This does assume that dividing by  $h(y)$  is acceptable (i.e.,  $h(y) \neq 0$  on the domain of definition).

Find an explicit solution to the IVP<sup>1</sup>

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = -2(Q-70), \quad Q(0) = 180$$

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = g(t)h(Q)$$

$$g(t) = -2, \quad h(Q) = Q-70$$

Separate

$$\frac{1}{Q-70} dQ = -2 dt$$

$$\int \frac{1}{Q-70} dQ = \int -2 dt \Rightarrow \ln|Q-70| = -2t + C$$

$$\text{Let's solve for } Q: e^{\ln|Q-70|} = e^{-2t+C} = e^C e^{-2t}$$

$$|Q-70| = e^C e^{-2t}$$

<sup>1</sup>Recall IVP stands for *initial value problem*.

Let  $k = \pm e^c$  or  $k = 0$

$$Q - 70 = k e^{-2t} \Rightarrow Q = k e^{-2t} + 70$$

Apply the initial condition  $Q(0) = 180$

$$Q(0) = 180 = k e^{-2(0)} + 70 = k + 70$$

$$\Rightarrow k = 110$$

The solution to the IVP is

$$Q(t) = 110 e^{-2t} + 70$$

Consider  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} Q(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (110e^{-2t} + 70)$

$$= 70$$

## In Class Exercise:

Take a few minutes to find a family of explicit solutions to the ODE

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 4x\sqrt{y}.$$

$$y = x^4 + Cx + \frac{C^2}{4} = (x^2 + C/2)^2$$

$$2\sqrt{y} = 2x^2 + C$$

$$y = (x^2 + k)^2$$

Solve the IVP  $y' = 4x\sqrt{y}$ ,  $y(0) = 0$

$$y = (x^2 + k)^2$$

Apply  $y(0) = 0$

$$y(0) = 0 = (0^2 + k)^2 \Rightarrow 0 = k^2 \Rightarrow k = 0$$

The soln to the IVP is

$$y = x^4$$

## Missed Solution

We made an assumption about being able to divide by  $h(y)$  when solving  $\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)h(y)$ . This may cause us to not find valid solutions.

The IVP  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 4x\sqrt{y}$ ,  $y(0) = 0$  has two distinct solutions

$$y = x^4, \quad \text{and} \quad y(x) = 0.$$

The second solution **CANNOT** be found by separation of variables.

**Why?**

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{y}} dy = 4x dx$$

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

**Theorem:** If the number  $c$  is a zero of the function  $h$ , i.e.  $h(c) = 0$ , then the constant function  $y(x) = c$  is a solution to the differential equation  $\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)h(y)$ .

**Remark:** Such a constant solution may or may not be recovered by separation of variables. We can always look for such solutions in addition to separation of variables.



## Solutions Defined by Integrals

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus tells us that: If  $g$  and  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  are continuous on an interval  $[x_0, b)$  and  $x$  is in this interval, then

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

**Theorem:** If  $g$  is continuous on some interval containing  $x_0$ , then the function

$$y = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x g(t) dt$$

is a solution of the initial value problem

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

## Example

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

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin(x^2), \quad y(\sqrt{\pi}) = 1$$

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

$$y = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x g(t) dt$$

Here,  $g(x) = \sin(x^2)$

$$x_0 = \sqrt{\pi}, \quad y_0 = 1$$

The solution  $y = 1 + \int_{\sqrt{\pi}}^x \sin(t^2) dt$

Let's verify:

Show  $y(\sqrt{\pi}) = 1$

$$y(\sqrt{\pi}) = 1 + \int_{\sqrt{\pi}}^{\sqrt{\pi}} \sin(t^2) dt = 1 + 0 = 1$$

Show  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin(x^2)$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \left( 1 + \int_{\sqrt{\pi}}^x \sin(t^2) dt \right)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} (1) + \frac{d}{dx} \int_{\sqrt{\pi}}^x \sin(t^2) dt$$

$$= 0 + \frac{d}{dx} \int_{\sqrt{\pi}}^x \sin(t^2) dt = \sin(x^2)$$

$y$  solves the ODE and the initial condition.

## 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

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

$$P(x) = \frac{a_0(x)}{a_1(x)}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{g(x)}{a_1(x)}$$

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 equation

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

(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!

## Motivating Example

This is not in standard form.

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

If you look at the left carefully, you might notice that it's a derivative of a product.

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

The ODE is actually

$$\frac{d}{dx} (x^2 y) = e^x$$

To find  $y$ , integrate and divide by  $x^2$ .

$$\int \frac{d}{dx} (x^2 y) dx = \int e^x dx$$

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

The solutions are

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

1 parameter  
family  
of  
solutions

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

↑  $y_i$                       ↑  $y_p$

# Derivation of Solution via Integrating Factor

Solve the equation in standard form

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

We'll find a function  $\mu(x)$  such that when we multiply both sides by  $\mu(x)$ , the left side becomes  $\frac{d}{dx}(\mu(x)y)$ .

Suppose  $\mu$  exists.  $\mu$  times the left side is

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



Note  $\frac{d}{dx} (\mu y) = \mu \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{d\mu}{dx} y$

We require

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

Subtract  $\mu \frac{dy}{dx}$

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

Cancel  $y$  to get a separable equation  
for  $\mu$

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

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\mu} d\mu = P(x) dx$$

$$\int \frac{1}{\mu} d\mu = \int P(x) dx$$

$$\ln|\mu| = \int P(x) dx$$

Let's assume  $\mu(x) > 0$

$$\mu = e^{\int P(x) dx}$$

# General Solution of First Order Linear ODE

- ▶ Put the equation in standard form  $y' + P(x)y = f(x)$ , and correctly identify the function  $P(x)$ .
- ▶ Obtain the integrating factor  $\mu(x) = \exp\left(\int P(x) dx\right)$ .
- ▶ Multiply both sides of the equation (in standard form) by the integrating factor  $\mu$ . The left hand side **will always** collapse into the derivative of a product

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\mu(x)y] = \mu(x)f(x).$$

- ▶ Integrate both sides, and solve for  $y$ .

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{\mu(x)} \int \mu(x)f(x) dx = e^{-\int P(x) dx} \left( \int e^{\int P(x) dx} f(x) dx + C \right)$$

## Solve the IVP

$$x \frac{dy}{dx} - y = 2x^2, \quad x > 0 \quad y(1) = 5$$

Standard form:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{1}{x} y = 2x$$

Ident. fn  $P(x)$  :  $P(x) = -\frac{1}{x}$

Get  $\mu$  :  $\mu = e^{\int P(x) dx} = e^{\int -\frac{1}{x} dx} = e^{-\ln x}$   
 $= e^{\ln x^{-1}} = x^{-1}$

$$\mu = x^{-1}$$

$$x^{-1} \left( \frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{1}{x} y \right) = x^{-1} (2x)$$

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

Integrate and divide by  $\mu$ .

$$\int \frac{d}{dx} (x^{-1} y) dx = \int 2 dx$$

$$x^{-1} y = 2x + C$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{2x+C}{x^{-1}} = 2x^2 + Cx$$

The general solution to the ODE is

$$y = 2x^2 + Cx$$

Apply  $y(1) = 5$

$$y(1) = 2(1^2) + C(1) = 5$$

$$2 + C = 5 \Rightarrow C = 3$$

The solution to the IVP is

$$y = 2x^2 + 3x$$