

Notes available on public course page:
austinchristian.math.gatech.edu/teaching/2552-f21

Please wear a mask.

Goals for Day 2:

- Define some basic terms.
- Develop a solution method for separable ODEs.
- Develop a solution method for first-order, linear ODEs.

Definitions (§1.3)

A differential equation is an equation that contains derivatives of one or more unknown functions with respect to one or more independent variables.

Ex $\frac{du}{dt} = k(T_0 - u)$ ← ODE

$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$ ← PDE

~~Math - you = ??~~

No derivatives

→ not a diff. eq.

A differential equation involving just one independent variable is an ordinary differential equation. If there's more than one indep. var., we have a partial differential equation.

$$\underline{\underline{Ex}} \quad \frac{du}{dt} = k(T_0 - u)$$

One ind. var. (t),

\therefore ODE

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

two indep. vars.

\therefore PDE

A system of differential equations is a collection of differential equations involving the same functions and indep. variables, which we plan to solve simultaneously.

$$\underline{\underline{Ex}} \quad \frac{dx}{dt} = \alpha x - \alpha xy$$

Function(s): x, y

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -cy + \gamma xy$$

Ind. var(s.): t

Parameter(s): $a, d,$
 c, γ

The order of a differential equation is the order of the highest derivative (ordinary or partial) that appears in the equation.

$$\underline{\text{Ex}} \quad u' = k(T_0 - u)$$

1

$$y'' + y = 0$$

2

$$\frac{du}{dx} - 2 \frac{d^2u}{dx dy} + \frac{du}{dy} = 0$$

2

$$y^{(n)} = f(t, y, y', \dots, y^{(n-1)})$$

n

$$4x + 3y = 15$$

An order n linear ODE has the form

$$a_0(t) y^{(n)} + a_1(t) y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_n(t) y = g(t).$$

We call $a_0(t), a_1(t), \dots, a_n(t)$ the Coefficients of the ODE. If $g(t) = 0$, we call the ODE homogeneous; otherwise, the ODE is non-homogeneous.

Note: The coefficients can only depend on t.

Ex Which are linear?

$$\frac{du}{dt} = k(T_0 - u)$$

$$u' = kT_0 - ku$$

$$u' + ku = kT_0$$

Linear

$$\frac{du}{dt} = k^2(T_0 - u)$$

$$u' = k^2 T_0 - k^2 u$$

$$u' + \underline{k^2 u} = k^2 T_0$$

Linear

$$\frac{d^2u}{dt^2} = k(T_0 - u)$$

$$u'' = kT_0 - ku$$

$$u'' + ku = kT_0$$

Linear

$$\frac{du}{dt} = k(T_0 - u^2)$$

$$u' = kT_0 - ku^2$$

$$u' + \cancel{ku^2} = kT_0$$

Non-linear

When deciding whether or not an ODE is linear, think of the unknown function and its derivatives as the variables. We need to be linear in these variables.

So $\sin(t) \cdot y'' + y = 0$ is linear, but $t \cdot \sin(y'') + y = 0$ is not.

A solution of the ODE

$$y^{(n)} = f(t, y, y', \dots, y^{(n-1)})$$

on the interval $\alpha < t < \beta$ is a function $\phi(t)$ such that

$$\phi^{(n)} = f(t, \phi(t), \phi'(t), \dots, \phi^{(n-1)}(t)),$$

for all $\alpha < t < \beta$.

Note: We won't emphasize it right away, but the interval matters a lot. We need to know how long we can trust our models!

An initial value problem for an n^{th} order ODE

$$y^{(n)} = f(t, y, y', \dots, y^{(n-1)})$$

Consists of the ODE plus n initial conditions

$$y(t_0) = y_0, \quad y'(t_0) = y_1, \quad \dots, \quad y^{(n-1)}(t_0) = y_{n-1}$$

at some time t_0 , where y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} are constants.

Ex $y'' + y = 0$, $y(0) = 2$, $y'(0) = 1$ is an IVP.

- $\cos(t)$ solves the ODE, but neither IC
- $2\cos(t)$ solves the ODE and $y(0) = 2$, but not $y'(0) = 1$

- $2\cos t + \sin t$ solves the IVP

Check this!

Separable ODEs (§2.1)

We now want a solution technique for Separable ODEs.

We say that the first-order ODE

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

is separable if $f(x, y) = \underline{p(x)} \underline{q(y)}$,
for some functions $p \neq q$.

Ex • $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y} \rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \underbrace{(-x)}_{p(x)} \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{y}\right)}_{q(y)}$

- $-x^2 + (1-y^2) \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$
- $\rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x^2}{1-y^2} = (x^2) \left(\frac{1}{1-y^2} \right)$
- (non-example) $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + xy + y$

Separable ODEs are nice because we can solve them by cheating: using a trick

Ex. $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$ ← Not linear

Cheat: "cross-multiply"

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y} \rightarrow y dy = -x dx$$

$$\rightarrow \int y dy = \int -x dx$$

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

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{2} (x^2 + y^2) = C$$

$$\rightarrow \boxed{x^2 + y^2 = C}$$

Notes

- We call $x^2 + y^2 = c$ an implicit solution of our ODE. It looks better than writing $y = \pm \sqrt{c - x^2}$, and makes more sense, too.
- When it makes sense, we leave general solutions in implicit form; solutions to IVPs should be explicit.

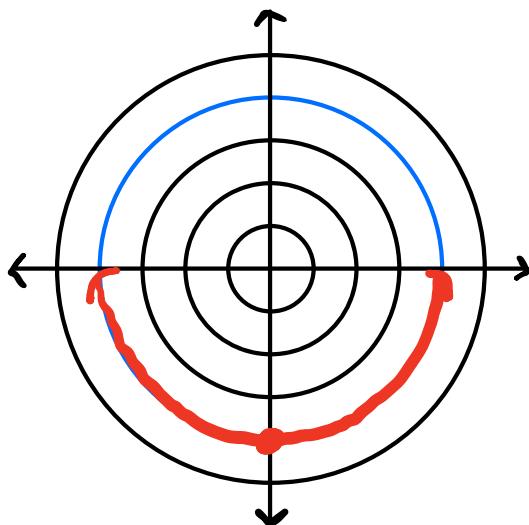
Ex. Solve the IVP $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$, $y(0) = -4$.

From above, $x^2 + y^2 = C$.

$$y(0) = -4 \rightarrow 0^2 + (-4)^2 = C \rightarrow C = 16.$$

$$\text{So } x^2 + y^2 = 16. \rightarrow y^2 = 16 - x^2$$

$$\rightarrow y = \pm \sqrt{16 - x^2}$$



Since $y(0) = -4$,

$$y = -\sqrt{16 - x^2}$$

$$\cancel{-4 \leq x \leq 4}$$

$$-4 < x < 4$$

@ $x = \pm 4$, $y = 0 \rightarrow \text{diff. eq. breaks}$

Why does the cheat work?
It's a change of variables.

Cheat: $\frac{dy}{dx} = p(x)q(y) \rightarrow \frac{1}{q(y)} dy = p(x) dx$

$$\rightarrow \int \frac{1}{q(y)} dy = \int p(x) dx$$

Change of vars: $\frac{dy}{dx} = p(x)q(y) \rightarrow \frac{1}{q(y)} \frac{dy}{dx} = p(x)$

Now integrate both sides against x :

$$\int \frac{1}{q(y)} \frac{dy}{dx} dx = \int p(x) dx$$

Let $u = y$. Then $du = \frac{dy}{dx} dx$, so

$$\int \frac{1}{q(y)} \frac{dy}{dx} dx = \int \frac{1}{q(u)} du.$$

u is just a
variable name

May as well be y .

So $\int \frac{1}{q(y)} dy = \int p(x) dx.$ ✓

Ex $y' = \frac{2x}{1+2y}$, $y(2) = 0$. (Include interval)

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{2x}{1+2y} \rightarrow (1+2y) dy = 2x dx \\ &\rightarrow \int (1+2y) dy = \int 2x dx \\ &\rightarrow \boxed{y + y^2 = x^2 + C} \quad \text{L general solution}\end{aligned}$$

$$y(2) = 0 \rightarrow 0 + 0^2 = (2)^2 + C \rightarrow C = -4$$

$$\text{So } y + y^2 = x^2 - 4 \rightarrow y^2 + y - (x^2 - 4) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned}y &= \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4(1)(4-x^2)}}{2} \\ &= \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{4x^2 - 15}}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

$$0 = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{4(2)^2 - 15}}{2} = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1}}{2}$$

$$y = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{4x^2 - 15}}{2}$$

$$4x^2 - 15 \geq 0 \rightarrow x \leq \sqrt{\frac{15}{4}} \text{ or } x \geq \sqrt{\frac{15}{4}}$$

$$1+2y \neq 0 \text{ (from diff. eq.)}$$

$$\hookrightarrow y \neq -\frac{1}{2} \rightarrow x \neq \sqrt{\frac{15}{4}}$$

$$\text{So } (-\infty, -\sqrt{\frac{15}{4}}) \text{ or } (\sqrt{\frac{15}{4}}, \infty) \leftarrow \text{contains initial cond. (x=2)}$$

First-order linear ODEs (§2.2)

A first-order linear ODE is an ODE which can be written in the form

$$\underline{\frac{dy}{dt} + p(t)y = g(t)} \quad (\star)$$

Words

- We call (\star) the standard form for first-order linear ODEs.
- We call $p(t)$ a coefficient of the ODE.
- If $g(t) = 0$, then the ODE is homogeneous.

We'll solve first-order linear ODEs using integrating factors.

Idea: Multiply the ODE by some function of t in order to make the LHS easy (ish) to integrate.

$$\underline{\text{Ex}} \quad y' - 3y = e^{3t} \quad \begin{cases} p(t) = -3 \\ g(t) = e^{3t} \end{cases}$$

We'll build a function $\mu(t)$ and consider

$$\mu(t) y' - 3\mu(t) y = e^{3t} \mu(t)$$

Idea: Choose $\mu(t)$ so that LHS looks like the derivative of something.

Right now, LHS looks a bit like a product rule:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mu(t)y) = \mu(t)y' + \mu'(t)y$$

New ODE: $\mu' = -3\mu$. Easy!

$$\frac{d\mu}{dt} = -3\mu \rightarrow \frac{d\mu}{\mu} = -3dt \rightarrow \ln|\mu| = -3t + C$$

$$\rightarrow |\mu| = e^{-3t} e^C \rightarrow \mu = \pm e^C e^{-3t}$$

$$\mu = A e^{-3t}$$

We're happy with any μ that works, so let's take $A=1$. Then $\mu = e^{-3t}$, so we have

$$e^{-3t} y' - 3e^{-3t} y = e^{-3t} e^{3t}$$

The LHS is a derivative by construction:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(e^{-3t}y) = 1$$

Now integrate both sides:

$$\int \frac{d}{dt}(e^{-3t}y) dt = \int 1 dt \rightarrow e^{-3t}y = t + C$$

And solve for y :

$$y = te^{3t} + Ce^{3t}$$

For the ODE $y' + p(t)y = g(t)$, we use the integrating factor

$$M(t) = e^{\int p(t) dt}$$

Let's check that this works:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} + p(t)y = g(t)$$

$$\hookrightarrow e^{\int p(t) dt} y' + p(t)e^{\int p(t) dt} y = g(t)e^{\int p(t) dt}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(e^{\int p(t) dt} y \right) = g(t) e^{\int p(t) dt}$$

Now integrate:

$$e^{\int p(t) dt} y = \int g(t) e^{\int p(t) dt} dt$$

So

$$y = e^{-\int p(t) dt} \left(\int e^{\int p(t) dt} g(t) dt + C \right)$$

Don't try to memorize this!

Ex. Suppose the oven in which we cooked our turkey last time has a varying temperature: $T_0 + A \sin(\omega_0 t)$.

Then our ODE becomes

$$\frac{du}{dt} = k (T_0 + A \sin(\omega_0 t) - u)$$

Let's find the general solution.

Step 1: Write in standard form.

$$\frac{du}{dt} + ku = k(T_0 + A \sin(\omega_0 t))$$

Step 2: Calculate $\mu(t)$.

$$\mu(t) = e^{\int p(t) dt} = e^{\int k dt} = e^{kt}$$

Step 3: Multiply through our ODE.

$$\underbrace{e^{kt} \frac{du}{dt} + ke^{kt} u}_{\frac{d}{dt}(e^{kt} u)} = ke^{kt}(T_0 + A \sin(\omega_0 t))$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(e^{kt} u)$$

Step 4: Integrate against t

$$\begin{aligned} e^{kt} u &= \int ke^{kt} T_0 dt + \int ke^{kt} A \sin(\omega_0 t) dt \\ &= T_0 e^{kt} + I(t) + C \end{aligned}$$

Step 5! Solve for u .

$$u = T_0 + e^{-kt} I(t) + C e^{-kt}$$

Fact: $\int k e^{kt} A \sin(\omega_0 t) dt$

$$= \frac{e^{kt} A k}{k^2 + \omega_0^2} (-\omega_0 \cos(\omega_0 t) + k \sin(\omega_0 t))$$

$\therefore u = T_0 + \frac{A k}{k^2 + \omega_0^2} (-\omega_0 \cos(\omega_0 t) + k \sin(\omega_0 t))$
 $+ C e^{-kt}$