Department of Mathematical Sciences Carnegie Mellon University

## 21-476 Ordinary Differential Equations Fall 2003

## I. Review of Some Solution Techniques for Single First-Order Equations

1. Linear Equations: Let I be an interval and assume that  $p, q : I \to \mathbb{R}$  are continuous. Given  $t_0 \in I$  and  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ , consider the initial-value problem

(1.1) 
$$\dot{x}(t) + p(t)x(t) = q(t), \quad x(t_0) = x_0.$$

To solve (1.1) we chose  $P: I \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\dot{P}(t) = p(t)$  for all  $t \in I$  and put  $\mu(t) = \exp(P(t))$  for all  $t \in I$ . (Such a function  $\mu$  is called an *integrating factor*.) Observe that

(1.2) 
$$\dot{\mu}(t) = \exp(P(t))\dot{P}(t) = \mu(t)p(t).$$

Multiplying the differential equation by  $\mu$  and making use of (1.2) we find that

(1.3) 
$$\mu(t)\dot{x}(t) + \dot{\mu}(t)x(t) = \mu(t)q(t)$$

or

(1.4) 
$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mu(t)x(t)) = \mu(t)q(t),$$

which can be integrated to find x. The solution of (1.1) is given by

(1.5) 
$$x(t) = \frac{1}{\mu(t)} \left[ \mu(t_0) x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t \mu(s) q(s) ds \right].$$

2. Separation of Variables: Let I and J be open intervals and assume that  $g: I \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and  $h: J \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuously differentiable. Given  $t_0 \in I$  and  $x_0 \in J$ , consider the initial value problem

(1.6) 
$$\dot{x}(t) = g(t)h(x(t)); \ x(t_0) = x_0.$$

It can be shown that either the solution is constant, i.e.  $x(t) = x_0$  for all  $t \in I$  or h(x(t)) never vanishes. It is easy to check whether or not the constant function  $x(t) = x_0$  satisfies the differential equation. Suppose the solution of (1.6) is nonconstant. Then h(x(t)) never vanishes and we may rewrite the differential equation as

(1.7) 
$$\frac{1}{h(x(t))}\dot{x}(t) = g(t).$$

Let  $J_0$  be the largest interval such that  $x_0 \in J_0 \subset J$  and h does not vanish on  $J_0$ . We choose  $H: J_0 \to \mathbb{R}$  such that

(1.8) 
$$H'(z) = \frac{1}{h(z)} \quad \text{for all } z \in J_0.$$

Then we may rewrite (1.7) as

(1.9) 
$$\frac{d}{dt}H(x(t)) = g(t),$$

which can be integrated to obtain

(1.10) 
$$H(x(t)) = H(x_0) + \int_{t_0}^t g(s) ds.$$

3. **Exact Equations**: Let D be a simply connected<sup>\*</sup> open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and assume that  $M, N : D \to \mathbb{R}$  are continuously differentiable. Consider the differential equation

(1.11) 
$$M(t, x(t)) + N(t, x(t))\dot{x}(t) = 0.$$

Equation (1.11) is said to be *exact* if there exists a function  $\psi: D \to \mathbb{R}$  such that

(1.12) 
$$\psi_{,1} = M \text{ and } \psi_{,2} = N \text{ on } D,$$

where  $\psi_{,1}$  and  $\psi_{,2}$  are the partial derivatives of  $\psi$  with respect to the first and second argument. It can be shown that (1.11) is exact if and only if

<sup>\*</sup>See Definition 9.7.

(1.13) 
$$M_{,2} = N_{,1}$$
 on  $D$ .

Let us assume now that (1.13) is satisfied and choose a function  $\psi : D \to \mathbb{R}$ such that (1.12) holds. If c is constant, I is an interval, and  $x : I \to \mathbb{R}$  is a differentiable function such that  $(t, x(t)) \in D$  and  $\psi(t, x(t)) = c$  for all  $t \in I$ , then x is a solution of (1.11).

- 4. **Remark**: Sometimes an equation that is not of any of the forms discussed above can be converted to one of these forms by a simple device. Three such devices are mentioned below.
  - (a) Sometimes a *substitution* or *change of variable* can be used to convert a nonlinear equation to a linear one or a nonseparable equation to a separable one.
  - (b) Occasionally a nonlinear equation becomes linear if we interchange the roles of the independent and dependent variables. What this really amounts to is looking a differential equation for the *inverse function*.
  - (c) In theory one can always find a nonzero function  $\mu$  such that if we multiply equation (1.11) by  $\mu$  it becomes exact. In practice, however, this approach is usually not of much use because it is very difficult to find a suitable  $\mu$ .