

# Chapter 2

## First-order ODEs

- ❑ Solution curves (2.1)
- ❑ Separable variables (2.2)
- ❑ Linear equations (2.3)
- ❑ A numerical method (2.6)

## □ Solutions curves

- Direction field
- Autonomous ODEs

# Motivation

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- For a general 1st-order ODE:  $y'(x) = f(x,y)$ , it's helpful to know what a solution curve  $y(x)$  roughly looks like without actually solving it in detail.
- Visualization is particularly useful for nonlinear ODEs, for they are difficult to solve analytically.

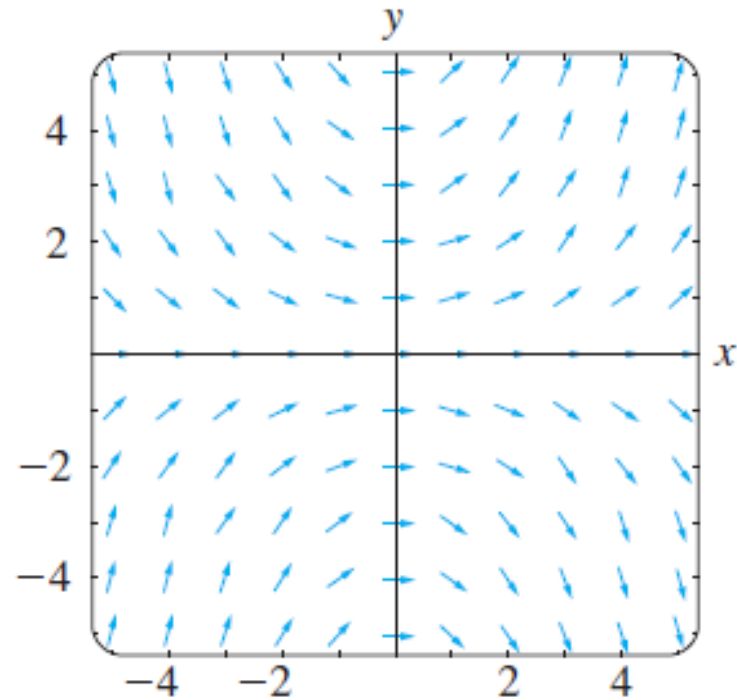
# Direction field

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- $y'(x)$  means the **slope** of the solution curve  $y(x)$  at position  $x$ .
- $y'(x) = f(x,y)$  means the slope of  $y(x)$  at any position  $(x,y)$  is specified by the given function  $f(x,y)$ .
- Direction field is established by drawing a grid of small **arrows** on the  $xy$ -plane, where the pointing direction of the arrow at position  $(x_0, y_0)$  is determined by the value of  $f(x_0, y_0)$ .

# E.g. $y' = 0.2xy$ (Example 1)

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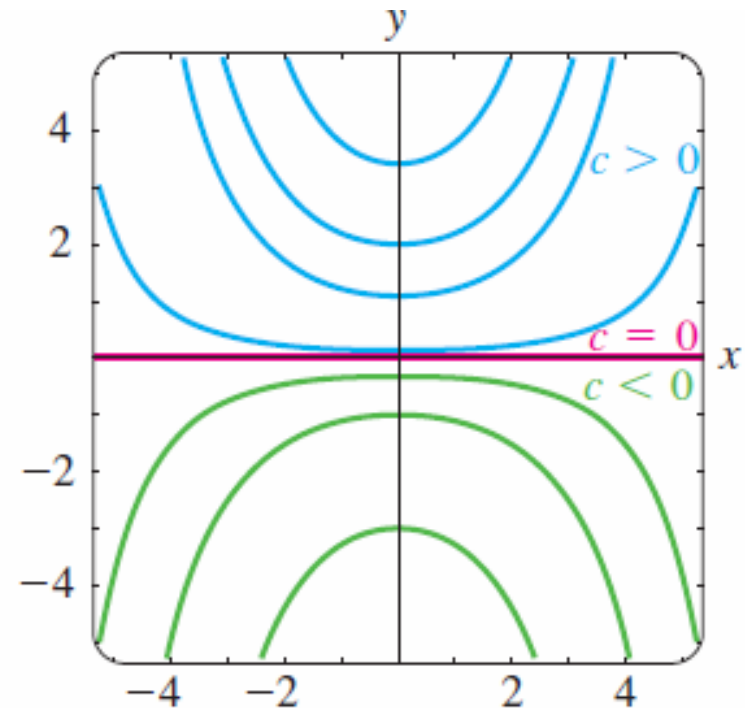


- For the 1st quadrant, slope function  $f(x,y) = 0.2xy > 0$ , all the arrows point upward.
- As  $x$  or  $y$  increases, magnitude of slope increases, arrows are increasingly steeper.
- For the 2nd quadrant, arrows point downward and are increasingly steeper as  $x$  decreases or  $y$  increases.

# Solution curves

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- A solution curve  $y(x)$  can be **roughly** sketched by
  - Starting from the point  $(x_0, y_0)$  given by IC  $y(x_0) = y_0$ ,
  - Extending  $y(x)$  by following the arrows of the direction field.
- E.g. The family of solution curves  $y(x) = c \times \exp(0.1x^2)$  to the ODE  $y' = 0.2xy$  agree with the direction field.

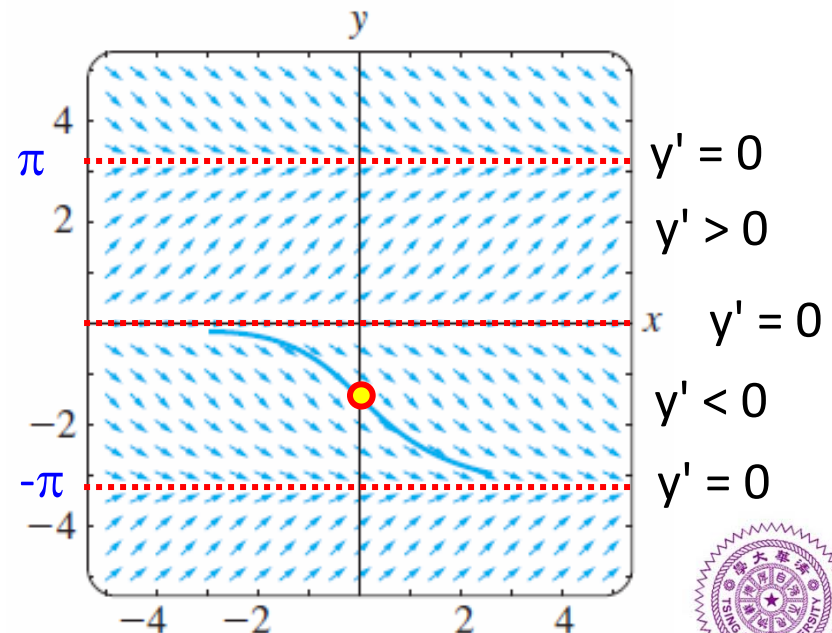


# E.g. $y' = \sin(y)$ (Example 2)

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- Q: Is it linear or nonlinear?
- $f(x,y) = \sin(y)$  is independent of  $x$ ,  $\Rightarrow$  all the points on the same row  $(x, y_0)$  have a common slope.
- $\sin(y)$  is periodic, arrows repeat themselves in a  $y$ -interval of  $2\pi$ .

- E.g. The solid curve represents the solution to  $y'(x) = \sin(y)$  and IC  $y(0) = -1.5$ .



# What's autonomous ODE?

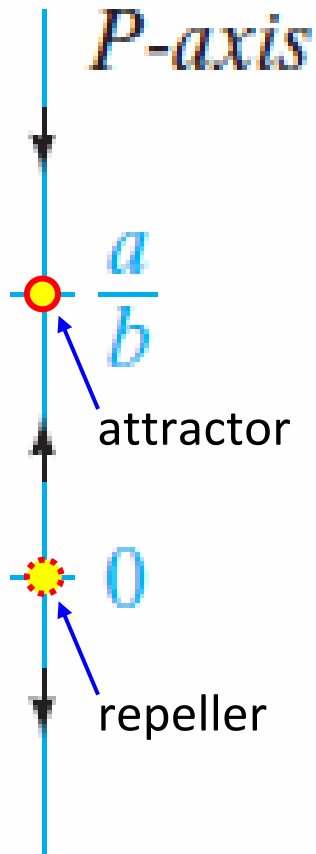
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- An ODE whose slope function  $y'(x) = f(y)$  does not vary with the independent variable  $x$  “explicitly” [i.e. after solving  $y(x)$ , you can still see  $y'(x)$  generally varying with  $x$ ].
- Models of **physical laws that do not change with time** are autonomous.
- E.g. RLC circuits with time-independent elements, Torricelli's law:  $v = \sqrt{2gh}$ , Newton's law:  $F = ma$ , ....



# E.g. $P'(t) = P(a-b \times P)$ (Example 3)

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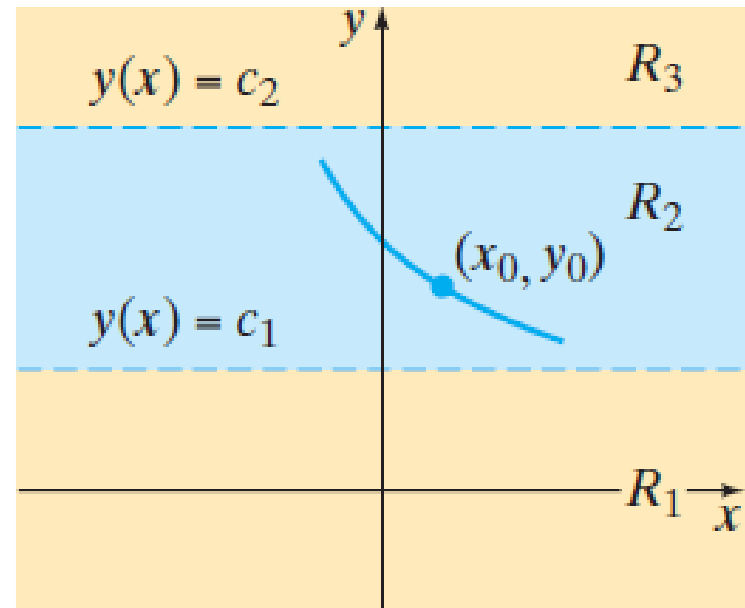
Phase portrait

- Slope function  $f(P) = P(a-b \times P) = 0$  has two solutions:  $P = 0$  and  $P = a/b$  (assuming  $a, b$  are positive constant).
- $P = 0$  and  $P = a/b$  are **equilibrium solution** to the autonomous ODE  $P' = P(a-b \times P)$  (verify it).
- For  $0 < P < a/b$ ,  $f(P) > 0$ , solution curve  $P(t)$  is monotonically **increasing**.
- For  $P < 0$ , or  $P > a/b$ ,  $f(P) < 0$ ,  $P(t)$  is monotonically **decreasing**.

# Solution curves

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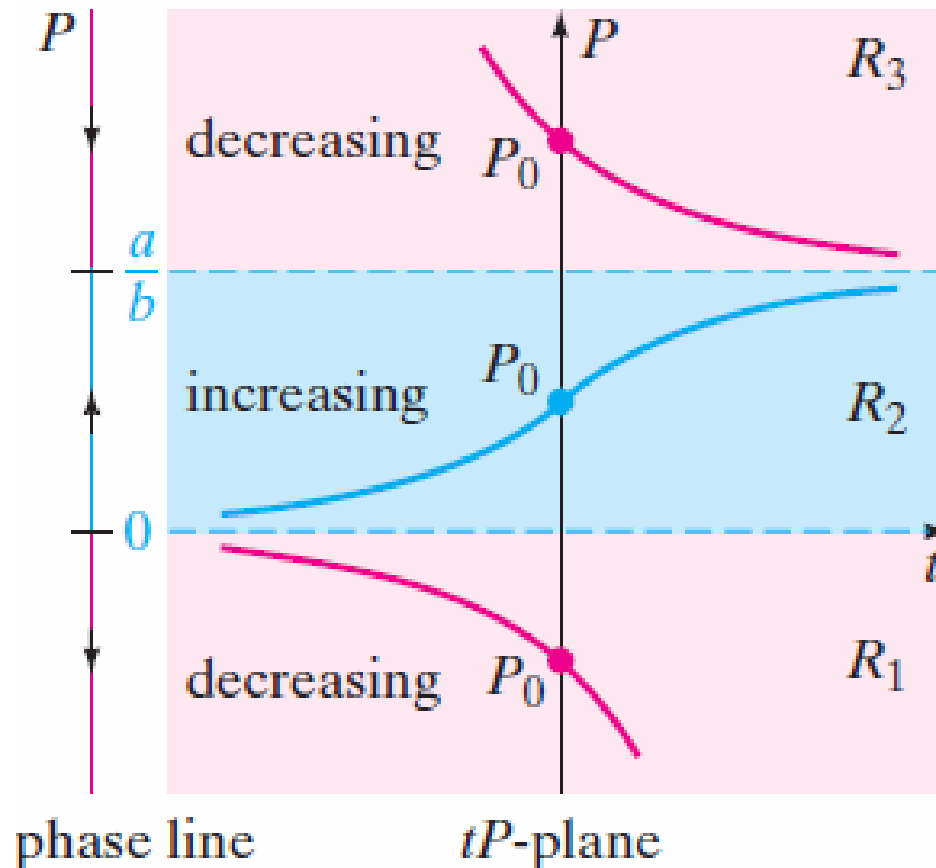
- A solution curve  $y(x)$  can be roughly sketched by
  - Starting from  $(x_0, y_0)$  given by the IC:  $y(x_0) = y_0$ ,
  - $y(x)$  is **increasing** or **decreasing** within the sub-region  $R_i$  bounded by equilibrium solutions if  $f(y \in R_i) > 0$  or  $f(y \in R_i) < 0$ .
  - $y(x)$  must approach but **never cross** an equilibrium solution (why?).



# E.g. Revisit $P'(t) = P(a-b \times P)$

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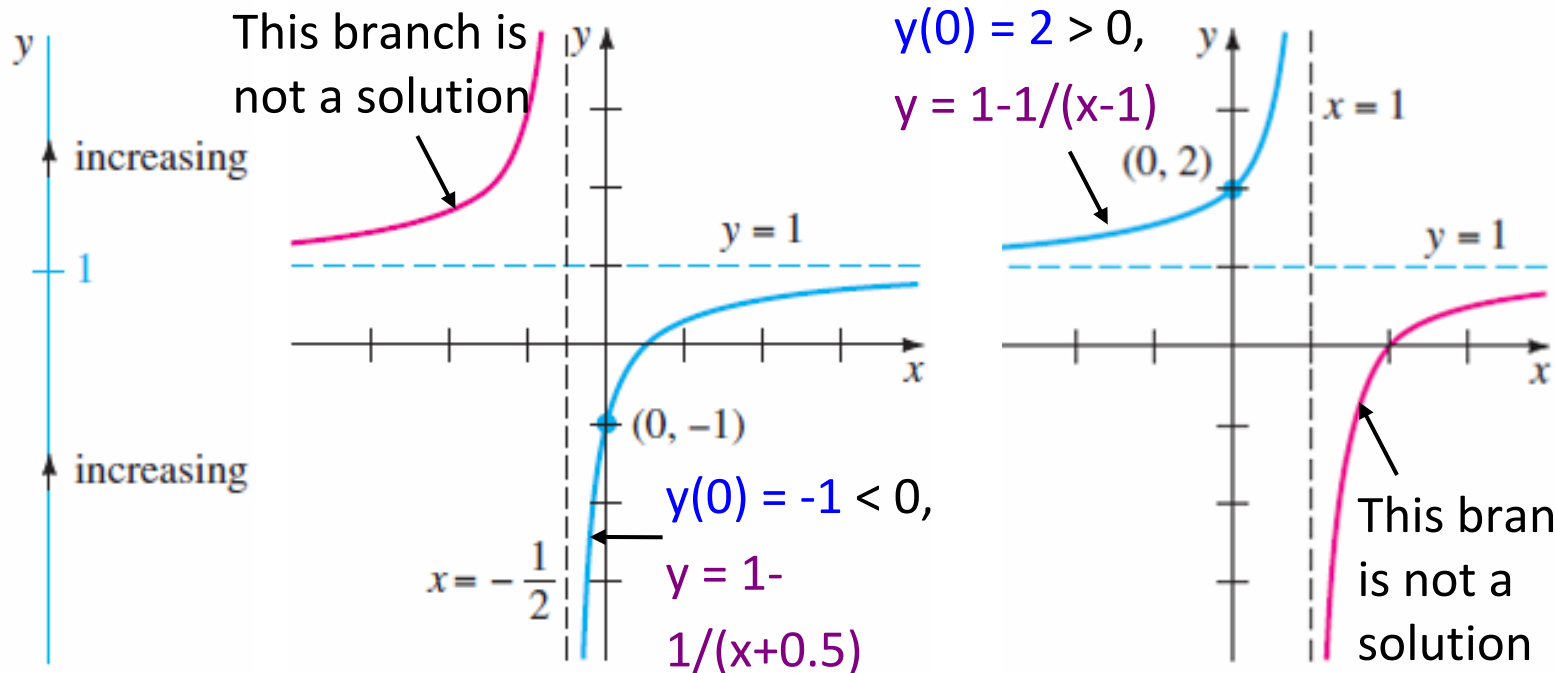
- Solution curve  $P(t)$  depends on the IC:  $P(0) = P_0$ :



# E.g. $y'(x) = (y-1)^2$ (Example 5)

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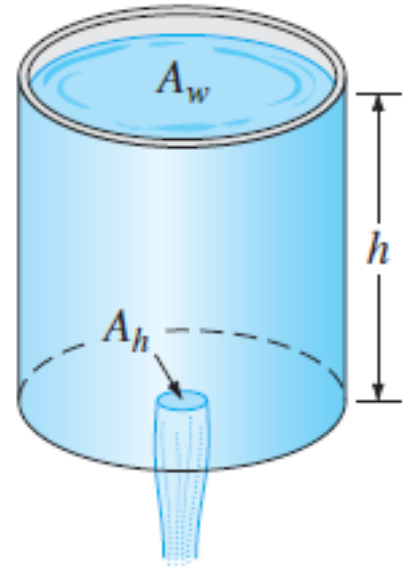
- One equilibrium solution  $y = 1$  is derived by solving  $f(y) = (y-1)^2 = 0$ .
- In either of the two sub-regions  $R_1 = \{y < 1\}$ ,  $R_2 = \{y > 1\}$ ,  $y(x)$  must be **increasing** for  $f(y) > 0$ .



# E.g. Draining a tank

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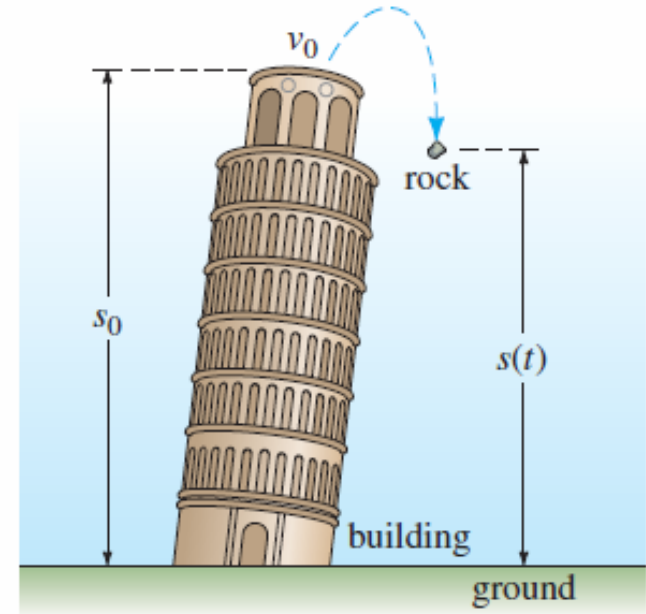
- ODE:  $h'(t) = -(A_h/A_w) \times \sqrt{2gh}$
- Q: What does the direction field look like?
- Q: Is it autonomous?
- Q: What's the equilibrium solution?
- Q: What does a solution curve  $h(t)$  look like if the IC is  $h(0) = H$ ?
- Remark: Direction field and equilibrium solutions are particularly useful for nonlinear ODEs.



# E.g. Falling bodies

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- ODE:  $\mathbf{v}'(t) = g - (k/m)\mathbf{v}$
- Q: What does the direction field look like?
- Q: Is it autonomous?
- Q: What's the equilibrium solution?
- Q: What does a solution curve  $\mathbf{v}(t)$  look like if the IC is  $\mathbf{v}(0) = 0$ ?



# □ Separable variables

# What's separable ODE?

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- $y'(x) = f(x,y) = g(x) \times h(y).$



# E.g. $y'(x) = -x/y$ (Example 2)

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- Q: Is it autonomous or nonautonomous?
- Q: Is it linear or nonlinear?
- $dy/dx = -x/y, \Rightarrow y \times dy = -x \times dx;$
- Integration for both sides of equality:

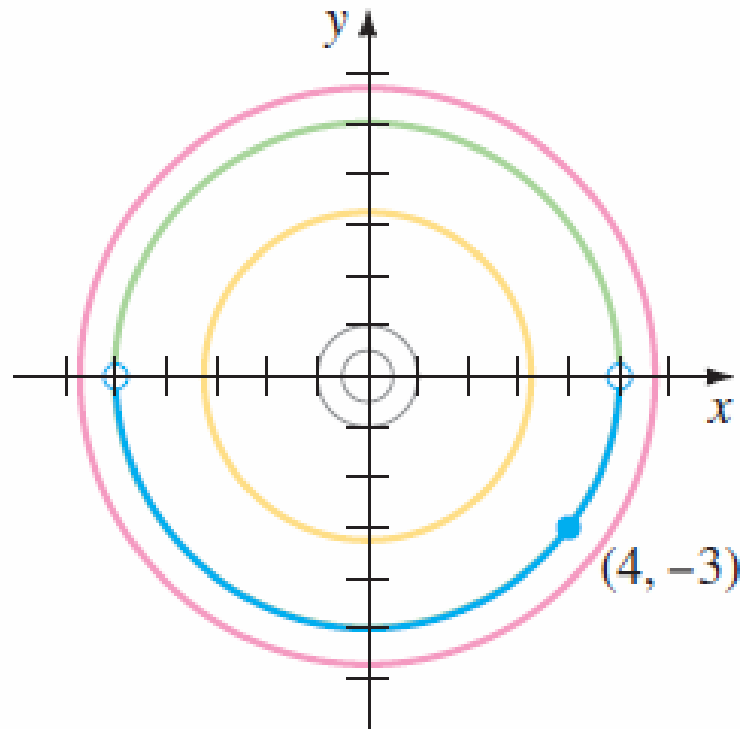
$$\int y \, dy = - \int x \, dx \longrightarrow \frac{y^2}{2} = -\frac{x^2}{2} + c_1.$$

- **Implicit** form of the solutions:  $x^2 + y^2 = c^2$   
(concentric circles).

# E.g. Unique solution

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- By imposing the IC:  $y(4) = -3, \Rightarrow c^2 = 4^2 + (-3)^2 = 25$ .
- However, the solution  $y(x)$  is not a complete circle of radius 5 but its lower half  $y = -\sqrt{(25-x^2)}$  (why?).



# E.g. An IVP (Example 4)

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- ODE:  $(e^{2y}-y)(\cos x)y' = e^y(\sin 2x)$ .

- IC:  $y(0) = 0$ .

- Rearrangement:

$$\frac{e^{2y} - y}{e^y} dy = \frac{\sin 2x}{\cos x} dx, \Rightarrow (e^y - ye^{-y})dy = 2(\sin x)dx$$

- Integration for both sides of equality:

$$\int (e^y (-ye^{-y})) dy = 2 \int \sin x dx$$

$$e^y + (ye^{-y} + e^{-y}) = -2 \cos x + c$$

- IC gives  $c = 4$ . But it's simply an **implicit** solution.

# Contour line

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- A function of two variables  $G(x,y)$  can be illustrated in 3D like a topographic map (地形圖).
- $G(x,y) = c$  is a contour line (等高線) obtained by sectioning the 3D map with a plane  $z = c$ .



(GinkgoMaps.com)



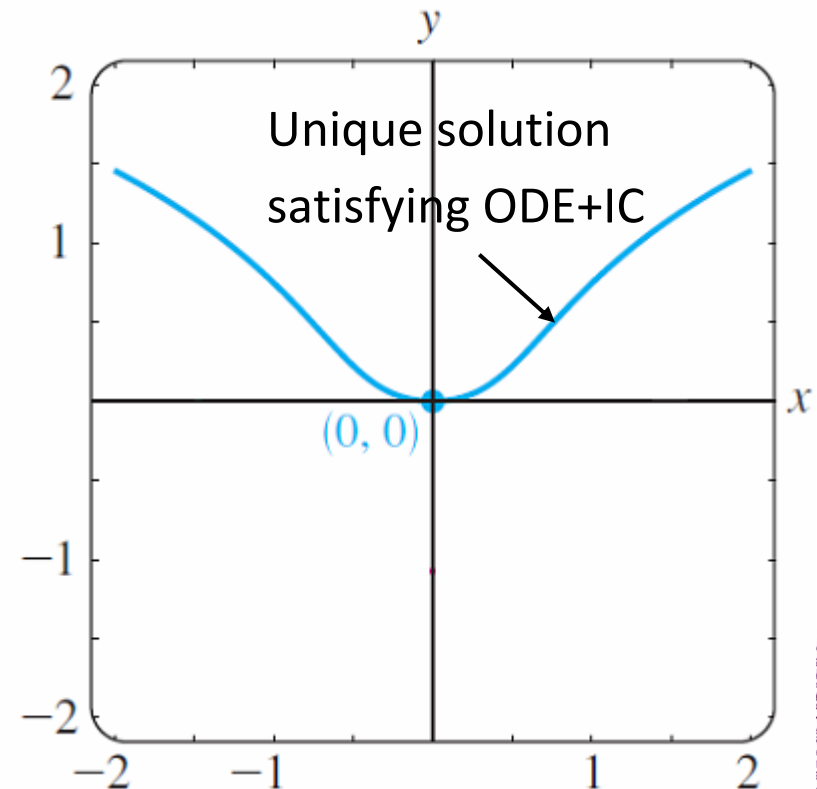
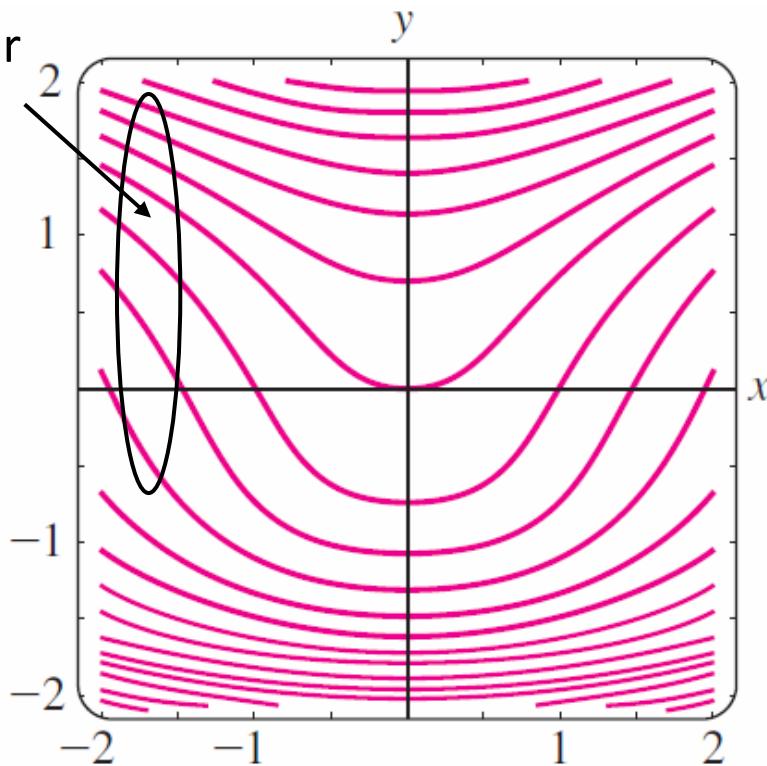
# Contour lines of the IVP

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- Implicit solution  $(e^y + ye^{-y} + e^{-y}) = -2(\cos x) + 4$  corresponds to a contour line

$$G(x,y) = e^y + ye^{-y} + e^{-y} + 2(\cos x) = 4$$

Family of  
contour  
lines



# E.g. An IVP (Example 5)

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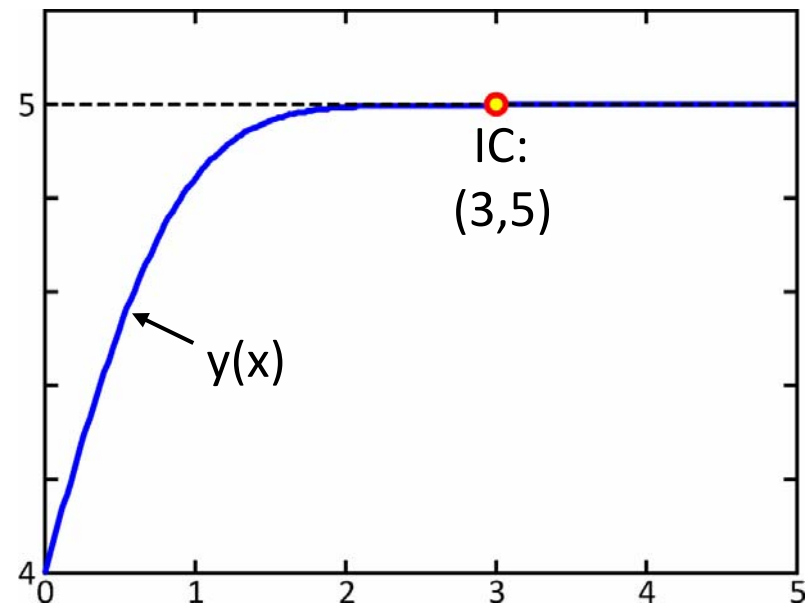
- ODE:  $y' = \exp(-x^2)$ .
- IC:  $y(3) = 5$ .

$$\int_3^x \frac{dy}{dt} dt = \int_3^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

$$y(t) \Big|_3^x = \int_3^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

$$y(x) - y(3) = \int_3^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

$$y(x) = 5 + \int_3^x e^{-t^2} dt.$$

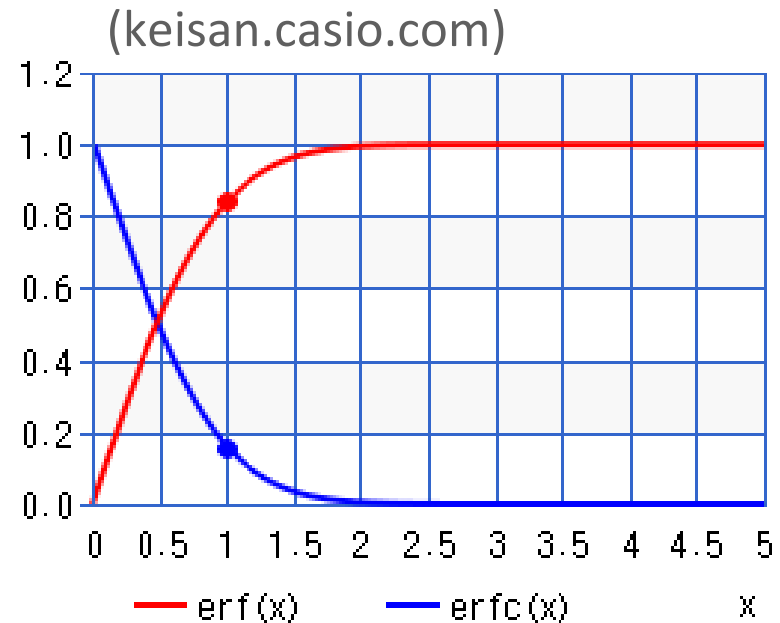
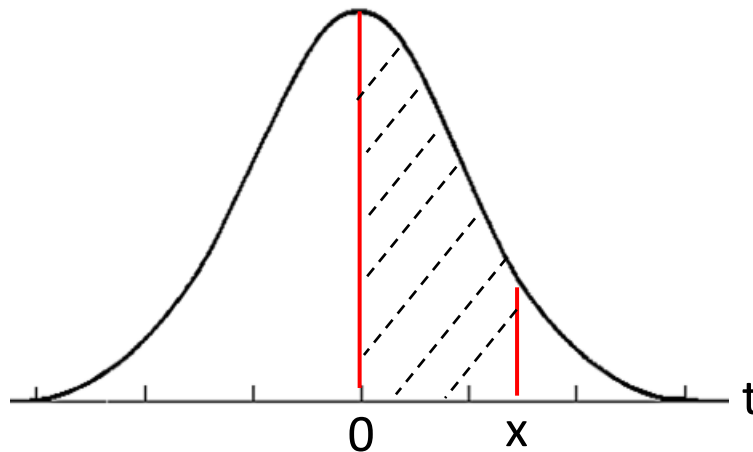


# Error function: erf(x)


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- A non-elementary function useful in probability.

- Definition:  $\text{erf}(x) \equiv \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$



- Complementary error function:  $\text{erfc}(x) = 1 - \text{erf}(x)$

 
$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_x^\infty e^{-t^2} dt$$



# □ Linear equations

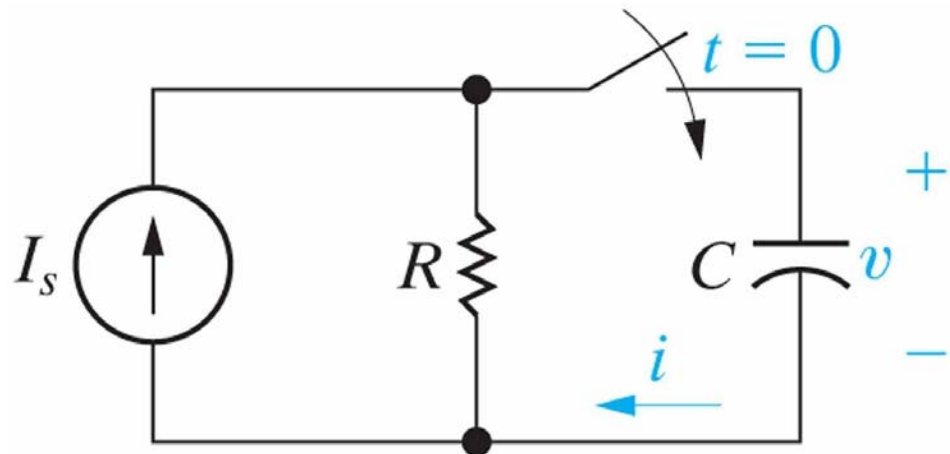


# What's linear, 1st-order ODE?

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- $y'(x) + P(x)y = f(x)$ .
- It's an **homogeneous** ODE when  $f(x) = 0$ .
- In physical models,  $f(x)$  usually refers to an **external driving force**.
- E.g. The ODE of an RC circuit driven by a current source  $I_s$  is

$$\frac{dv}{dt} + \frac{v}{RC} = \frac{I_s}{C},$$



# How to solve a linear, 1st-order ODE?

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- $y'(x) + P(x) \times y = f(x)$ .
- Multiply both sides of the equality by the **integrating factor**  $e^{\int P(x)dx}$  :

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

$\downarrow$

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

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

$$\Rightarrow y(x) = \underbrace{c}_{\text{constant}} e^{-\int P(x)dx} + e^{-\int P(x)dx} \left[ \int e^{\int P(x)dx} \times f(x) dx \right]$$

# E.g. An IVP (Example 5)

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- ODE:  $y' + y = x$ ;  $\Rightarrow P(x) = 1, f(x) = x$ .

- IC:  $y(0) = 4$ .

- Integrating factor:  $e^{\int P(x)dx} = e^x$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}[e^x y] = e^x x; e^x y = xe^x - e^x + c$$

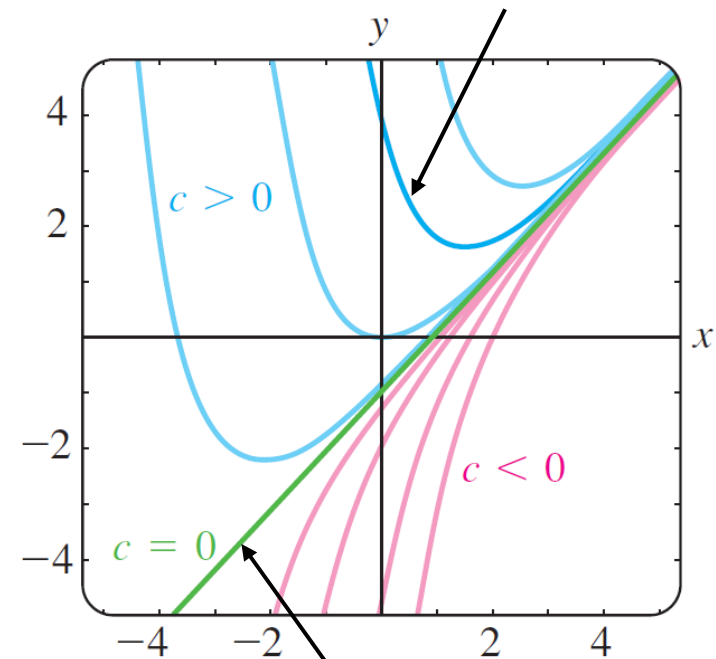
$$\Rightarrow y = \underbrace{(x-1)}_{\text{steady-state}} + \underbrace{(ce^{-x})}_{\text{transient}}$$

- IC gives  $c = 5$ .

- All possible solutions to the ODE converges to  $x-1$ ,  $\Rightarrow ce^{-x}$

is a **transient** term.

Unique solution to ODE+IC



Steady-state term:  $y = x-1$

# E.g. An IVP (Example 2)

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■ ODE:  $y' - 3y = 6$ ;  $\Rightarrow P(x) = -3, f(x) = 6$ .

■ IC:  $y(0) = 0$ .

■ Integrating factor:  $e^{\int P(x)dx} = e^{-3x}$  Unique solution to ODE+IC

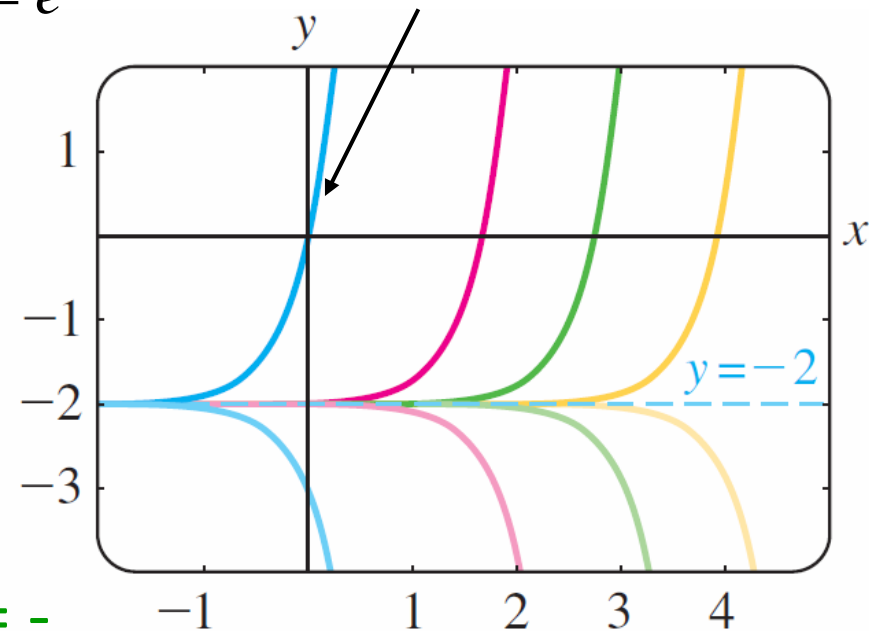
$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx} [e^{-3x} y] = 6e^{-3x};$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{-3x} y = -2e^{-3x} + c;$$

$$\Rightarrow y = [-2] + [ce^{3x}]$$

■ IC gives  $c = 2$ .

■ Solutions diverge from  $y = -2$ ,  $\Rightarrow ce^{3x}$  is NOT transient.



- A numerical method
  - Euler's method

# Motivation

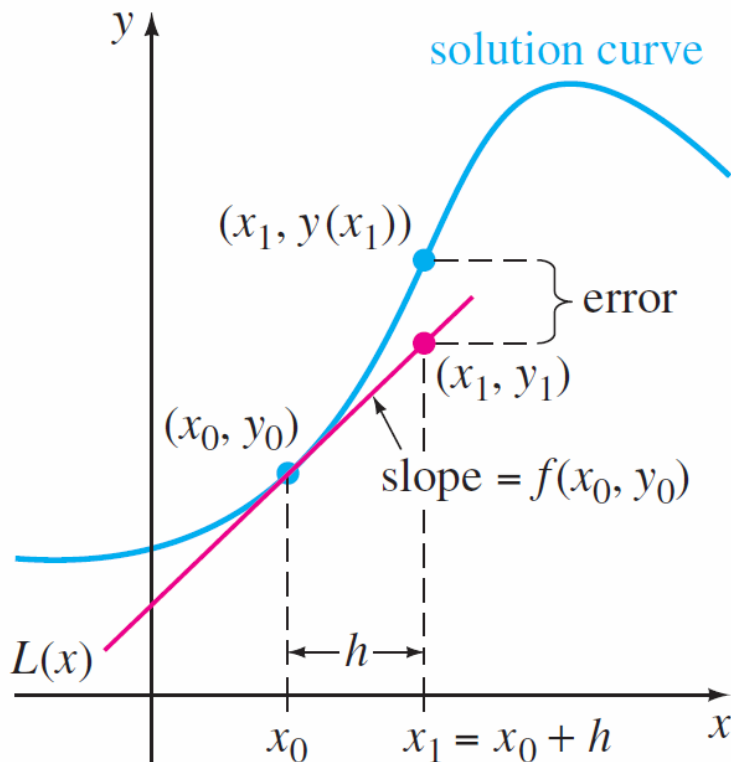
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- Sometimes (quite often actually), the given IVP cannot be solved by any analytical method.
- E.g. ODE:  $y' = 0.1\sqrt{y} + 0.4x^2$ , IC:  $y(2) = 4$ .
- Q: Is the ODE linear or nonlinear?
- Q: Is it autonomous or not?

# Euler's method

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- ODE:  $y'(x) = f(x, y)$ ; IC:  $y(x_0) = y_0$ .
- Linearization of the solution curve  $y(x)$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$ :  
$$y(x) \approx L(x) = y_0 + f(x_0, y_0) \times (x - x_0)$$



- As a result,  $y_1 \equiv y(x_1) \approx L(x_1) = y_0 + f(x_0, y_0) \times h$ , where  $h = x_1 - x_0$  is the **step size**.
- **Recursive** relation:  
$$y_{n+1} \approx y_n + h \times f(x_n, y_n)$$
- It's quantitative realization of **direction field** (Sec. 2.1).

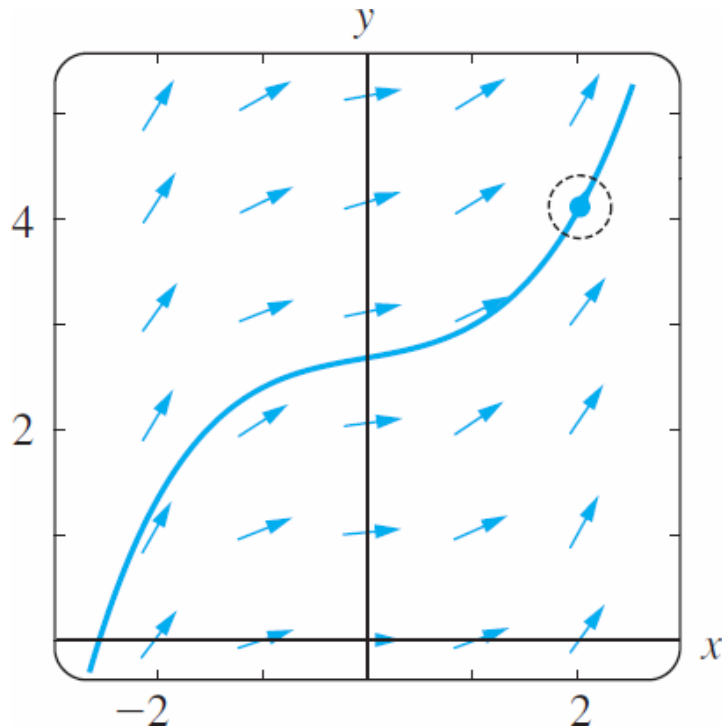


# E.g. An IVP (Example 1)

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■ ODE:  $y' = 0.1\sqrt{y} + 0.4x^2$ ; IC:  $(x_0, y_0) = (2, 4)$

■ Slope function  $f(x, y) = 0.1\sqrt{y} + 0.4x^2$



Direction field

■  $y_{n+1} \approx y_n + h \times [0.1\sqrt{y_n} + 0.4(x_n)^2]$

■ For  $h = 0.1$ :

●  $y_1 \approx 4 + 0.1 \times [0.1\sqrt{4} + 0.4(2)^2] = 4.18;$

●  $y_2 \approx 4.18 + 0.1 \times [0.1\sqrt{4.18} + 0.4(2.1)^2] = 4.3768, \dots$

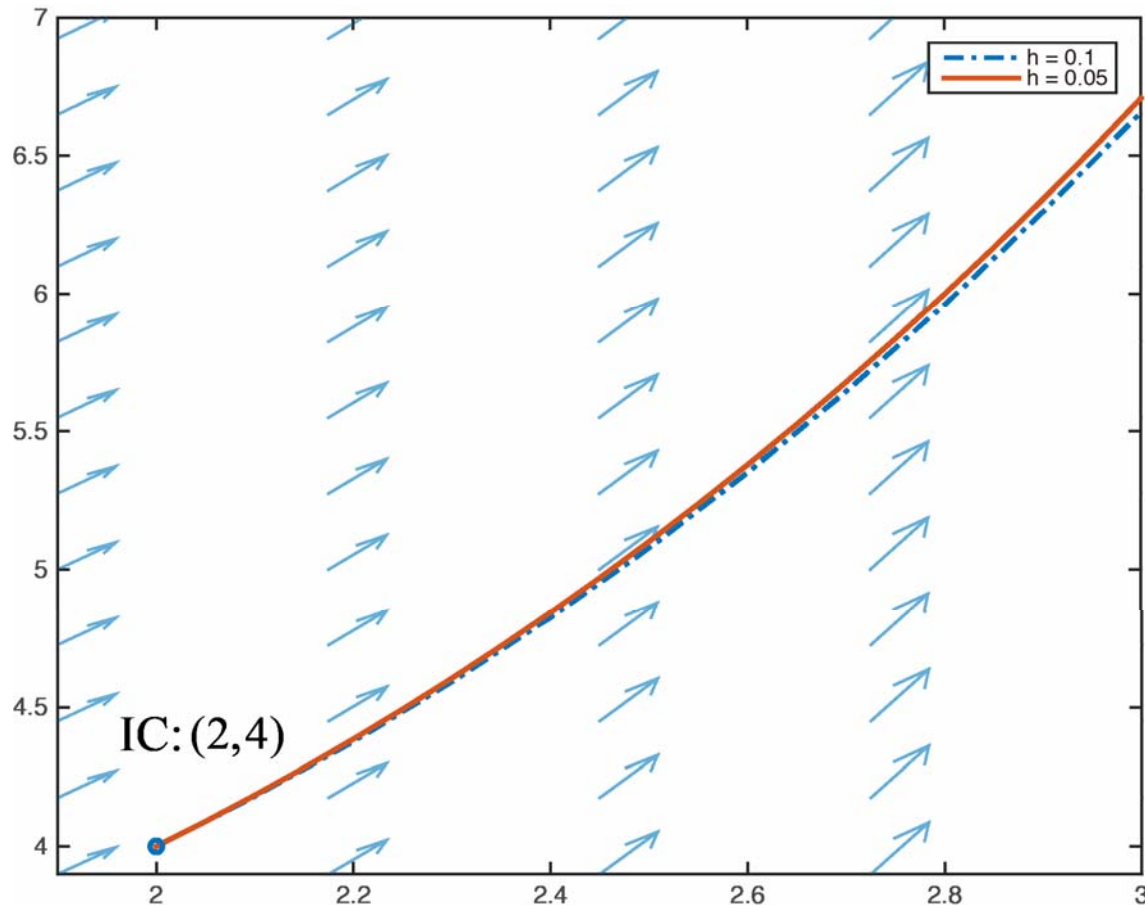
●  $y(2.5) = y_5 \approx 5.0768.$



# Impact of step size (Example 1)

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- For  $h = 0.05$ ,  $y(2.5) = y_{10} \approx 5.0997$  [vs.  $y(2.5) = y_5 \approx 5.0768$ ]



# E.g. An IVP (Example 2)

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- ODE:  $y' = 0.2xy$ ; IC:  $(x_0, y_0) = (1, 1)$
- Analytic solution is:  $y(x) = \exp[0.1(x^2-1)]$
- Relative error  $\varepsilon_r \equiv |[y_n - y(x_n)]/y(x_n)|$
- For  $h = 0.1$ :

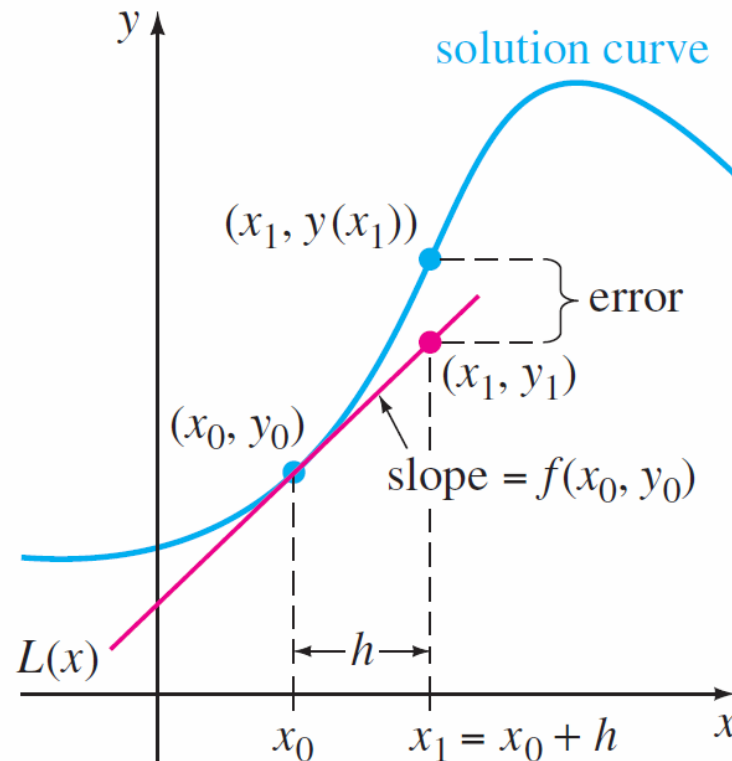
$x_n$	$y_n$	Actual value	Abs. error	% Rel. error
1.00	1.0000	1.0000	0.0000	0.00
1.10	1.0200	1.0212	0.0012	0.12
1.20	1.0424	1.0450	0.0025	0.24
1.30	1.0675	1.0714	0.0040	0.37
1.40	1.0952	1.1008	0.0055	0.50
1.50	1.1259	1.1331	0.0073	0.64

- For  $h = 0.05$ ,  $\varepsilon_r = 0.32\%$  at  $x_n = 1.5$ .

# Choice of step size

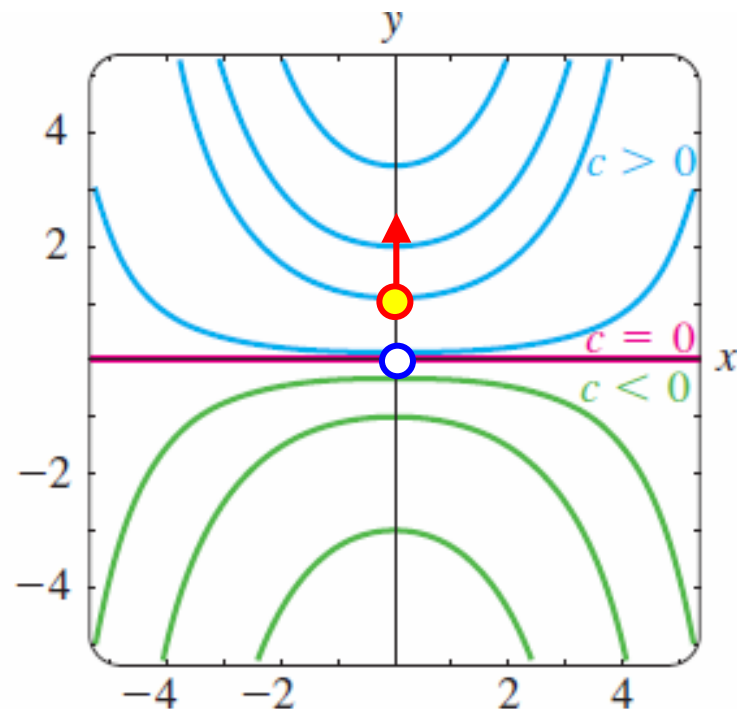
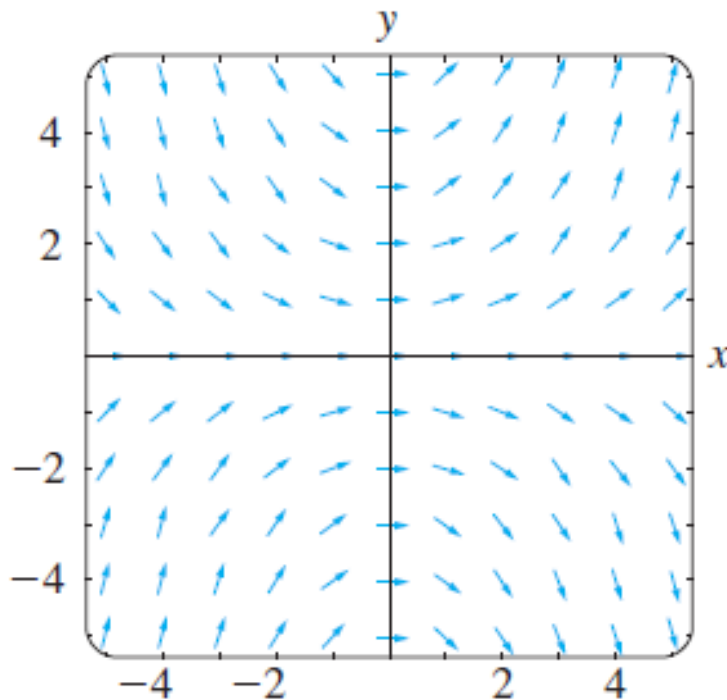
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- Trade-off: A smaller  $h$  gives a more precise  $y(x)$  at the cost of heavier computation load.
- Q: How to choose  $h$ ?



# E.g. $y' = 0.2xy$

- ODE:  $y' = f(x,y) = 0.2xy$ ;  $\Rightarrow y(x) = c \times \exp(0.1x^2)$
- If  $y(0) = 0$ , Euler's method gives  $y(x) = 0$ , no error.
- If  $y(0) = y_0$ , error increases with  $|y_0|$ . So ...



# Perspective

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- Euler's method is seldom used because of the fast growth of the accumulated error.
- The forth-order Runge-Kutta (**RK4**) method (see Ch9) can give significantly greater accuracy even with a ridiculously large step size  $h$ .

