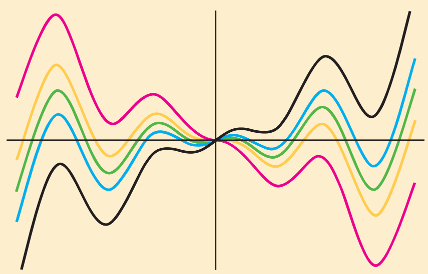
1 INTRODUCTION TO DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

1.1 Definitions and Terminology
1.2 Initial-Value Problems
1.3 Differential Equations as Mathematical Models
CHAPTER 1 IN REVIEW



The words *differential* and *equations* certainly suggest solving some kind of equation that contains derivatives y', y'', ... Analogous to a course in algebra and trigonometry, in which a good amount of time is spent solving equations such as $x^2 + 5x + 4 = 0$ for the unknown number x, in this course *one* of our tasks will be to solve differential equations such as $y'' + 2y' + y = 0$ for an unknown function $y = \phi(x)$.

The preceding paragraph tells something, but not the complete story, about the course you are about to begin. As the course unfolds, you will see that there is more to the study of differential equations than just mastering methods that someone has devised to solve them.

But first things first. In order to read, study, and be conversant in a specialized subject, you have to learn the terminology of that discipline. This is the thrust of the first two sections of this chapter. In the last section we briefly examine the link between differential equations and the real world. Practical questions such as *How fast does a disease spread? How fast does a population change?* involve rates of change or derivatives. As so the mathematical description—or mathematical model—of experiments, observations, or theories may be a differential equation.

1.1 DEFINITIONS AND TERMINOLOGY

REVIEW MATERIAL

- Definition of the derivative
- Rules of differentiation
- Derivative as a rate of change
- First derivative and increasing/decreasing
- Second derivative and concavity

INTRODUCTION The derivative dy/dx of a function $y = \phi(x)$ is itself another function $\phi'(x)$ found by an appropriate rule. The function $y = e^{0.1x^2}$ is differentiable on the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$, and by the Chain Rule its derivative is $dy/dx = 0.2xe^{0.1x^2}$. If we replace $e^{0.1x^2}$ on the right-hand side of the last equation by the symbol y, the derivative becomes

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0.2xy. \tag{1}$$

Now imagine that a friend of yours simply hands you equation (1)—you have no idea how it was constructed—and asks, *What is the function represented by the symbol y*? You are now face to face with one of the basic problems in this course:

How do you solve such an equation for the unknown function $y = \phi(x)$?

A DEFINITION The equation that we made up in (1) is called a **differential equation.** Before proceeding any further, let us consider a more precise definition of this concept.

DEFINITION 1.1.1 Differential Equation

An equation containing the derivatives of one or more dependent variables, with respect to one or more independent variables, is said to be a **differential equation (DE).**

To talk about them, we shall classify differential equations by **type, order,** and **linearity.**

CLASSIFICATION BY TYPE If an equation contains only ordinary derivatives of one or more dependent variables with respect to a single independent variable it is said to be an **ordinary differential equation (ODE).** For example,

A DE can contain more than one dependent variable

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + 5y = e^x, \qquad \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - \frac{dy}{dx} + 6y = 0, \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dy}{dt} = 2x + y \tag{2}$$

are ordinary differential equations. An equation involving partial derivatives of one or more dependent variables of two or more independent variables is called a

partial differential equation (PDE). For example,

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0, \qquad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} - 2\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}, \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \tag{3}$$

are partial differential equations.*

Throughout this text ordinary derivatives will be written by using either the **Leibniz notation** $dy/dx, d^2y/dx^2, d^3y/dx^3, \ldots$ or the **prime notation** $y', y'', y''', \ldots$. By using the latter notation, the first two differential equations in (2) can be written a little more compactly as $y' + 5y = e^x$ and $y'' - y' + 6y = 0$. Actually, the prime notation is used to denote only the first three derivatives; the fourth derivative is written $y^{(4)}$ instead of y''''. In general, the nth derivative of y is written d^ny/dx^n or $y^{(n)}$. Although less convenient to write and to typeset, the Leibniz notation has an advantage over the prime notation in that it clearly displays both the dependent and independent variables. For example, in the equation

unknown function
or dependent variable

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 16x = 0$$

independent variable

it is immediately seen that the symbol x now represents a dependent variable, whereas the independent variable is t. You should also be aware that in physical sciences and engineering, Newton's **dot notation** (derogatively referred to by some as the "flyspeck" notation) is sometimes used to denote derivatives with respect to time t. Thus the differential equation $d^2s/dt^2 = -32$ becomes $\ddot{s} = -32$. Partial derivatives are often denoted by a **subscript notation** indicating the independent variables. For example, with the subscript notation the second equation in (3) becomes $u_{xx} = u_{tt} - 2u_t$.

CLASSIFICATION BY ORDER The **order of a differential equation** (either ODE or PDE) is the order of the highest derivative in the equation. For example,

second order first order

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 5\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^3 - 4y = e^x$$

is a second-order ordinary differential equation. First-order ordinary differential equations are occasionally written in differential form $M(x, y)\,dx + N(x, y)\,dy = 0$. For example, if we assume that y denotes the dependent variable in $(y - x)\,dx + 4x\,dy = 0$, then $y' = dy/dx$, so by dividing by the differential dx, we get the alternative form $4xy' + y = x$. See the *Remarks* at the end of this section.

In symbols we can express an nth-order ordinary differential equation in one dependent variable by the general form

$$F(x, y, y', \ldots, y^{(n)}) = 0, \tag{4}$$

where F is a real-valued function of $n + 2$ variables: $x, y, y', \ldots, y^{(n)}$. For both practical and theoretical reasons we shall also make the assumption hereafter that it is possible to solve an ordinary differential equation in the form (4) uniquely for the

*Except for this introductory section, only ordinary differential equations are considered in *A First Course in Differential Equations with Modeling Applications,* Ninth Edition. In that text the word *equation* and the abbreviation DE refer only to ODEs. Partial differential equations or PDEs are considered in the expanded volume *Differential Equations with Boundary-Value Problems,* Seventh Edition.

highest derivative $y^{(n)}$ in terms of the remaining $n + 1$ variables. The differential equation

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = f(x, y, y', \ldots, y^{(n-1)}), \tag{5}$$

where f is a real-valued continuous function, is referred to as the **normal form** of (4). Thus when it suits our purposes, we shall use the normal forms

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f(x, y, y')$$

to represent general first- and second-order ordinary differential equations. For example, the normal form of the first-order equation $4xy' + y = x$ is $y' = (x - y)/4x$; the normal form of the second-order equation $y'' - y' + 6y = 0$ is $y'' = y' - 6y$. See the *Remarks*.

CLASSIFICATION BY LINEARITY An nth-order ordinary differential equation (4) is said to be **linear** if F is linear in $y, y', \ldots, y^{(n)}$. This means that an nth-order ODE is linear when (4) is $a_n(x)y^{(n)} + a_{n-1}(x)y^{(n-1)} + \cdots + a_1(x)y' + a_0(x)y - g(x) = 0$ or

$$a_n(x)\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + a_{n-1}(x)\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + \cdots + a_1(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + a_0(x)y = g(x). \tag{6}$$

Two important special cases of (6) are linear first-order ($n = 1$) and linear second-order ($n = 2$) DEs:

$$a_1(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + a_0(x)y = g(x) \qquad \text{and} \qquad a_2(x)\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a_1(x)\frac{dy}{dx} + a_0(x)y = g(x). \tag{7}$$

In the additive combination on the left-hand side of equation (6) we see that the characteristic two properties of a linear ODE are as follows:

- The dependent variable y and all its derivatives $y', y'', \ldots, y^{(n)}$ are of the first degree, that is, the power of each term involving y is 1.
- The coefficients $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n$ of $y, y', \ldots, y^{(n)}$ depend at most on the independent variable x.

The equations

$$(y - x)dx + 4x\,dy = 0, \qquad y'' - 2y' + y = 0, \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + x\frac{dy}{dx} - 5y = e^x$$

are, in turn, linear first-, second-, and third-order ordinary differential equations. We have just demonstrated that the first equation is linear in the variable y by writing it in the alternative form $4xy' + y = x$. A **nonlinear** ordinary differential equation is simply one that is not linear. Nonlinear functions of the dependent variable or its derivatives, such as $\sin y$ or $e^{y'}$, cannot appear in a linear equation. Therefore

nonlinear term: coefficient depends on y ↓ | nonlinear term: nonlinear function of y ↓ | nonlinear term: power not 1 ↓

$$(1 - y)y' + 2y = e^x, \qquad \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \sin y = 0, \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{d^4y}{dx^4} + y^2 = 0$$

are examples of nonlinear first-, second-, and fourth-order ordinary differential equations, respectively.

SOLUTIONS As was stated before, one of the goals in this course is to solve, or find solutions of, differential equations. In the next definition we consider the concept of a solution of an ordinary differential equation.

DEFINITION 1.1.2 Solution of an ODE

Any function ϕ, defined on an interval I and possessing at least n derivatives that are continuous on I, which when substituted into an nth-order ordinary differential equation reduces the equation to an identity, is said to be a **solution** of the equation on the interval.

In other words, a solution of an nth-order ordinary differential equation (4) is a function ϕ that possesses at least n derivatives and for which

$$F(x, \phi(x), \phi'(x), \ldots, \phi^{(n)}(x)) = 0 \qquad \text{for all } x \text{ in } I.$$

We say that ϕ *satisfies* the differential equation on I. For our purposes we shall also assume that a solution ϕ is a real-valued function. In our introductory discussion we saw that $y = e^{0.1x^2}$ is a solution of $dy/dx = 0.2xy$ on the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$.

Occasionally, it will be convenient to denote a solution by the alternative symbol $y(x)$.

INTERVAL OF DEFINITION You cannot think *solution* of an ordinary differential equation without simultaneously thinking *interval*. The interval I in Definition 1.1.2 is variously called the **interval of definition,** the **interval of existence,** the **interval of validity,** or the **domain of the solution** and can be an open interval (a, b), a closed interval $[a, b]$, an infinite interval (a, ∞), and so on.

EXAMPLE 1 Verification of a Solution

Verify that the indicated function is a solution of the given differential equation on the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$.

(a) $dy/dx = xy^{1/2}$; $y = \frac{1}{16}x^4$ **(b)** $y'' - 2y' + y = 0$; $y = xe^x$

SOLUTION One way of verifying that the given function is a solution is to see, after substituting, whether each side of the equation is the same for every x in the interval.

(a) From

$$\textit{left-hand side:} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{16}(4 \cdot x^3) = \frac{1}{4}x^3,$$

$$\textit{right-hand side:} \quad xy^{1/2} = x \cdot \left(\frac{1}{16}x^4\right)^{1/2} = x \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}x^2\right) = \frac{1}{4}x^3,$$

we see that each side of the equation is the same for every real number x. Note that $y^{1/2} = \frac{1}{4}x^2$ is, by definition, the nonnegative square root of $\frac{1}{16}x^4$.

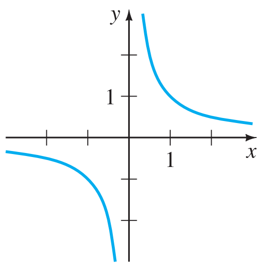
(b) From the derivatives $y' = xe^x + e^x$ and $y'' = xe^x + 2e^x$ we have, for every real number x,

$$\textit{left-hand side:} \quad y'' - 2y' + y = (xe^x + 2e^x) - 2(xe^x + e^x) + xe^x = 0,$$

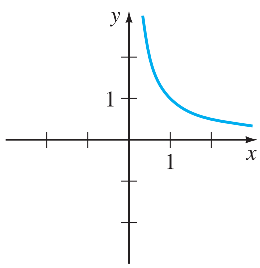
$$\textit{right-hand side:} \quad 0. \qquad \blacksquare$$

Note, too, that in Example 1 each differential equation possesses the constant solution $y = 0$, $-\infty < x < \infty$. A solution of a differential equation that is identically zero on an interval I is said to be a **trivial solution.**

SOLUTION CURVE The graph of a solution ϕ of an ODE is called a **solution curve.** Since ϕ is a differentiable function, it is continuous on its interval I of definition. Thus there may be a difference between the graph of the *function* ϕ and the graph of the *solution* ϕ. Put another way, the domain of the function ϕ need not be the same as the interval I of definition (or domain) of the solution ϕ. Example 2 illustrates the difference.



(a) function $y = 1/x$, $x \neq 0$



(b) solution $y = 1/x$, $(0, \infty)$

FIGURE 1.1.1 The function $y = 1/x$ is not the same as the solution $y = 1/x$

EXAMPLE 2 Function versus Solution

The domain of $y = 1/x$, considered simply as a *function*, is the set of all real numbers x except 0. When we graph $y = 1/x$, we plot points in the xy-plane corresponding to a judicious sampling of numbers taken from its domain. The rational function $y = 1/x$ is discontinuous at 0, and its graph, in a neighborhood of the origin, is given in Figure 1.1.1(a). The function $y = 1/x$ is not differentiable at $x = 0$, since the y-axis (whose equation is $x = 0$) is a vertical asymptote of the graph.

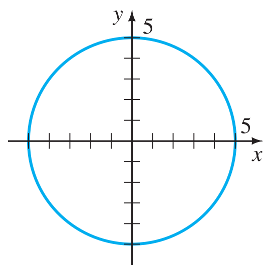
Now $y = 1/x$ is also a solution of the linear first-order differential equation $xy' + y = 0$. (Verify.) But when we say that $y = 1/x$ is a *solution* of this DE, we mean that it is a function defined on an interval I on which it is differentiable and satisfies the equation. In other words, $y = 1/x$ is a solution of the DE on *any* interval that does not contain 0, such as $(-3, -1)$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 10\right)$, $(-\infty, 0)$, or $(0, \infty)$. Because the solution curves defined by $y = 1/x$ for $-3 < x < -1$ and $\frac{1}{2} < x < 10$ are simply segments, or pieces, of the solution curves defined by $y = 1/x$ for $-\infty < x < 0$ and $0 < x < \infty$, respectively, it makes sense to take the interval I to be as large as possible. Thus we take I to be either $(-\infty, 0)$ or $(0, \infty)$. The solution curve on $(0, \infty)$ is shown in Figure 1.1.1(b). ■

EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT SOLUTIONS You should be familiar with the terms *explicit functions* and *implicit functions* from your study of calculus. A solution in which the dependent variable is expressed solely in terms of the independent variable and constants is said to be an **explicit solution.** For our purposes, let us think of an explicit solution as an explicit formula $y = \phi(x)$ that we can manipulate, evaluate, and differentiate using the standard rules. We have just seen in the last two examples that $y = \frac{1}{16}x^4$, $y = xe^x$, and $y = 1/x$ are, in turn, explicit solutions of $dy/dx = xy^{1/2}$, $y'' - 2y' + y = 0$, and $xy' + y = 0$. Moreover, the trivial solution $y = 0$ is an explicit solution of all three equations. When we get down to the business of actually solving some ordinary differential equations, you will see that methods of solution do not always lead directly to an explicit solution $y = \phi(x)$. This is particularly true when we attempt to solve nonlinear first-order differential equations. Often we have to be content with a relation or expression $G(x, y) = 0$ that defines a solution ϕ implicitly.

DEFINITION 1.1.3 Implicit Solution of an ODE

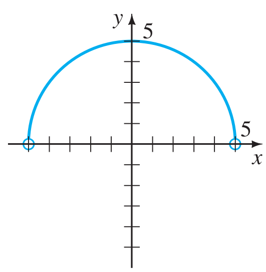
A relation $G(x, y) = 0$ is said to be an **implicit solution** of an ordinary differential equation (4) on an interval I, provided that there exists at least one function ϕ that satisfies the relation as well as the differential equation on I.

It is beyond the scope of this course to investigate the conditions under which a relation $G(x, y) = 0$ defines a differentiable function ϕ. So we shall assume that if the formal implementation of a method of solution leads to a relation $G(x, y) = 0$, then there exists at least one function ϕ that satisfies both the relation (that is, $G(x, \phi(x)) = 0$) and the differential equation on an interval I. If the implicit solution $G(x, y) = 0$ is fairly simple, we may be able to solve for y in terms of x and obtain one or more explicit solutions. See the *Remarks.*



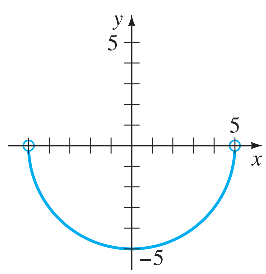
(a) implicit solution

$x^2 + y^2 = 25$



(b) explicit solution

$y_1 = \sqrt{25 - x^2},\ -5 < x < 5$



(c) explicit solution

$y_2 = -\sqrt{25 - x^2},\ -5 < x < 5$

FIGURE 1.1.2 An implicit solution and two explicit solutions of $y' = -x/y$

EXAMPLE 3 Verification of an Implicit Solution

The relation $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ is an implicit solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y} \tag{8}$$

on the open interval $(-5, 5)$. By implicit differentiation we obtain

$$\frac{d}{dx}x^2 + \frac{d}{dx}y^2 = \frac{d}{dx}25 \qquad \text{or} \qquad 2x + 2y\frac{dy}{dx} = 0.$$

Solving the last equation for the symbol dy/dx gives (8). Moreover, solving $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ for y in terms of x yields $y = \pm\sqrt{25 - x^2}$. The two functions $y = \phi_1(x) = \sqrt{25 - x^2}$ and $y = \phi_2(x) = -\sqrt{25 - x^2}$ satisfy the relation (that is, $x^2 + \phi_1^2 = 25$ and $x^2 + \phi_2^2 = 25$) and are explicit solutions defined on the interval $(-5, 5)$. The solution curves given in Figures 1.1.2(b) and 1.1.2(c) are segments of the graph of the implicit solution in Figure 1.1.2(a). ■

Any relation of the form $x^2 + y^2 - c = 0$ *formally* satisfies (8) for any constant c. However, it is understood that the relation should always make sense in the real number system; thus, for example, if $c = -25$, we cannot say that $x^2 + y^2 + 25 = 0$ is an implicit solution of the equation. (Why not?)

Because the distinction between an explicit solution and an implicit solution should be intuitively clear, we will not belabor the issue by always saying, "Here is an explicit (implicit) solution."

FAMILIES OF SOLUTIONS The study of differential equations is similar to that of integral calculus. In some texts a solution ϕ is sometimes referred to as an **integral** of the equation, and its graph is called an **integral curve.** When evaluating an antiderivative or indefinite integral in calculus, we use a single constant c of integration. Analogously, when solving a first-order differential equation $F(x, y, y') = 0$, we *usually* obtain a solution containing a single arbitrary constant or parameter c. A solution containing an arbitrary constant represents a set $G(x, y, c) = 0$ of solutions called a **one-parameter family of solutions.** When solving an nth-order differential equation $F(x, y, y', \ldots, y^{(n)}) = 0$, we seek an ***n*-parameter family of solutions** $G(x, y, c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n) = 0$. This means that *a single differential equation can possess an infinite number of solutions* corresponding to the unlimited number of choices for the parameter(s). A solution of a differential equation that is free of arbitrary parameters is called a **particular solution.** For example, the one-parameter family $y = cx - x\cos x$ is an explicit solution of the linear first-order equation $xy' - y = x^2 \sin x$ on the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$. (Verify.) Figure 1.1.3, obtained by using graphing software, shows the graphs of some of the solutions in this family. The solution $y = -x\cos x$, the blue curve in the figure, is a particular solution corresponding to $c = 0$. Similarly, on the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$, $y = c_1e^x + c_2xe^x$ is a two-parameter family of solutions of the linear second-order equation $y'' - 2y' + y = 0$ in Example 1. (Verify.) Some particular solutions of the equation are the trivial solution $y = 0$ $(c_1 = c_2 = 0)$, $y = xe^x$ $(c_1 = 0, c_2 = 1)$, $y = 5e^x - 2xe^x$ $(c_1 = 5, c_2 = -2)$, and so on.

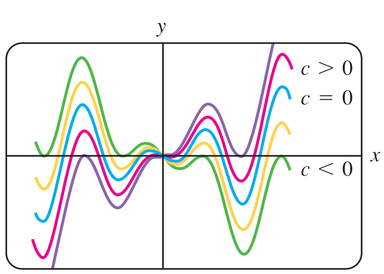


FIGURE 1.1.3 Some solutions of $xy' - y = x^2 \sin x$

Sometimes a differential equation possesses a solution that is not a member of a family of solutions of the equation—that is, a solution that cannot be obtained by specializing *any* of the parameters in the family of solutions. Such an extra solution is called a **singular solution.** For example, we have seen that $y = \frac{1}{16}x^4$ and $y = 0$ are solutions of the differential equation $dy/dx = xy^{1/2}$ on $(-\infty, \infty)$. In Section 2.2 we shall demonstrate, by actually solving it, that the differential equation $dy/dx = xy^{1/2}$ possesses the one-parameter family of solutions $y = \left(\frac{1}{4}x^2 + c\right)^2$. When $c = 0$, the resulting particular solution is $y = \frac{1}{16}x^4$. But notice that the trivial solution $y = 0$ is a singular solution, since it is not a member of the family $y = \left(\frac{1}{4}x^2 + c\right)^2$; there is no way of assigning a value to the constant c to obtain $y = 0$.

In all the preceding examples we used x and y to denote the independent and dependent variables, respectively. But you should become accustomed to seeing and working with other symbols to denote these variables. For example, we could denote the independent variable by t and the dependent variable by x.

EXAMPLE 4 Using Different Symbols

The functions $x = c_1 \cos 4t$ and $x = c_2 \sin 4t$, where c_1 and c_2 are arbitrary constants or parameters, are both solutions of the linear differential equation

$$x'' + 16x = 0.$$

For $x = c_1 \cos 4t$ the first two derivatives with respect to t are $x' = -4c_1 \sin 4t$ and $x'' = -16c_1 \cos 4t$. Substituting x'' and x then gives

$$x'' + 16x = -16c_1 \cos 4t + 16(c_1 \cos 4t) = 0.$$

In like manner, for $x = c_2 \sin 4t$ we have $x'' = -16c_2 \sin 4t$, and so

$$x'' + 16x = -16c_2 \sin 4t + 16(c_2 \sin 4t) = 0.$$

Finally, it is straightforward to verify that the linear combination of solutions, or the two-parameter family $x = c_1 \cos 4t + c_2 \sin 4t$, is also a solution of the differential equation. ■

The next example shows that a solution of a differential equation can be a piecewise-defined function.

EXAMPLE 5 A Piecewise-Defined Solution

You should verify that the one-parameter family $y = cx^4$ is a one-parameter family of solutions of the differential equation $xy' - 4y = 0$ on the inverval $(-\infty, \infty)$. See Figure 1.1.4(a). The piecewise-defined differentiable function

$$y = \begin{cases} -x^4, & x < 0 \\ x^4, & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

is a particular solution of the equation but cannot be obtained from the family $y = cx^4$ by a single choice of c; the solution is constructed from the family by choosing $c = -1$ for $x < 0$ and $c = 1$ for $x \geq 0$. See Figure 1.1.4(b). ■

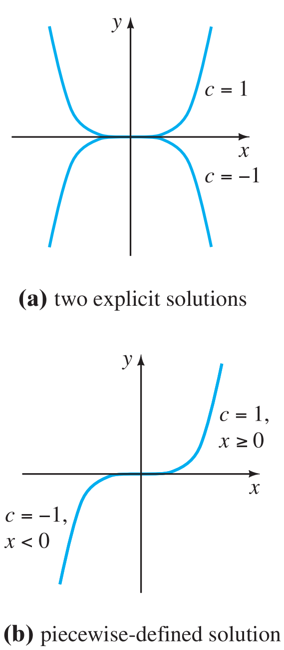


FIGURE 1.1.4 Some solutions of $xy' - 4y = 0$

SYSTEMS OF DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS Up to this point we have been discussing single differential equations containing one unknown function. But often in theory, as well as in many applications, we must deal with systems of differential equations. A **system of ordinary differential equations** is two or more equations involving the derivatives of two or more unknown functions of a single independent variable. For example, if x and y denote dependent variables and t denotes the independent variable, then a system of two first-order differential equations is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dx}{dt} &= f(t, x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= g(t, x, y). \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

A **solution** of a system such as (9) is a pair of differentiable functions $x = \phi_1(t)$, $y = \phi_2(t)$, defined on a common interval I, that satisfy each equation of the system on this interval.

REMARKS

(*i*) A few last words about implicit solutions of differential equations are in order. In Example 3 we were able to solve the relation $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ for y in terms of x to get two explicit solutions, $\phi_1(x) = \sqrt{25 - x^2}$ and $\phi_2(x) = -\sqrt{25 - x^2}$, of the differential equation (8). But don't read too much into this one example. Unless it is easy or important or you are instructed to, there is usually no need to try to solve an implicit solution $G(x, y) = 0$ for y explicitly in terms of x. Also do not misinterpret the second sentence following Definition 1.1.3. An implicit solution $G(x, y) = 0$ can define a perfectly good differentiable function ϕ that is a solution of a DE, yet we might not be able to solve $G(x, y) = 0$ using analytical methods such as algebra. The solution curve of ϕ may be a segment or piece of the graph of $G(x, y) = 0$. See Problems 45 and 46 in Exercises 1.1. Also, read the discussion following Example 4 in Section 2.2.

(*ii*) Although the concept of a solution has been emphasized in this section, you should also be aware that a DE does not necessarily have to possess a solution. See Problem 39 in Exercises 1.1. The question of whether a solution exists will be touched on in the next section.

(*iii*) It might not be apparent whether a first-order ODE written in differential form $M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0$ is linear or nonlinear because there is nothing in this form that tells us which symbol denotes the dependent variable. See Problems 9 and 10 in Exercises 1.1.

(*iv*) It might not seem like a big deal to assume that $F(x, y, y', \ldots, y^{(n)}) = 0$ can be solved for $y^{(n)}$, but one should be a little bit careful here. There are exceptions, and there certainly are some problems connected with this assumption. See Problems 52 and 53 in Exercises 1.1.

(*v*) You may run across the term *closed form solutions* in DE texts or in lectures in courses in differential equations. Translated, this phrase usually refers to explicit solutions that are expressible in terms of *elementary* (or familiar) *functions:* finite combinations of integer powers of x, roots, exponential and logarithmic functions, and trigonometric and inverse trigonometric functions.

(*vi*) If *every* solution of an nth-order ODE $F(x, y, y', \ldots, y^{(n)}) = 0$ on an interval I can be obtained from an n-parameter family $G(x, y, c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n) = 0$ by appropriate choices of the parameters c_i, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, we then say that the family is the **general solution** of the DE. In solving linear ODEs, we shall impose relatively simple restrictions on the coefficients of the equation; with these restrictions one can be assured that not only does a solution exist on an interval but also that a family of solutions yields all possible solutions. Nonlinear ODEs, with the exception of some first-order equations, are usually difficult or impossible to solve in terms of elementary functions. Furthermore, if we happen to obtain a family of solutions for a nonlinear equation, it is not obvious whether this family contains all solutions. On a practical level, then, the designation "general solution" is applied only to linear ODEs. Don't be concerned about this concept at this point, but store the words "general solution" in the back of your mind—we will come back to this notion in Section 2.3 and again in Chapter 4.

EXERCISES 1.1

Answers to selected odd-numbered problems begin on page ANS-1.

In Problems 1–8 state the order of the given ordinary differential equation. Determine whether the equation is linear or nonlinear by matching it with (6).

1. $(1 - x)y'' - 4xy' + 5y = \cos x$
2. $x\dfrac{d^3y}{dx^3} - \left(\dfrac{dy}{dx}\right)^4 + y = 0$
3. $t^5y^{(4)} - t^3y'' + 6y = 0$
4. $\dfrac{d^2u}{dr^2} + \dfrac{du}{dr} + u = \cos(r + u)$
5. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \sqrt{1 + \left(\dfrac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}$
6. $\dfrac{d^2R}{dt^2} = -\dfrac{k}{R^2}$
7. $(\sin\theta)y''' - (\cos\theta)y' = 2$
8. $\ddot{x} - \left(1 - \dfrac{\dot{x}^2}{3}\right)\dot{x} + x = 0$

In Problems 9 and 10 determine whether the given first-order differential equation is linear in the indicated dependent variable by matching it with the first differential equation given in (7).

9. $(y^2 - 1)\,dx + x\,dy = 0$; in y; in x
10. $u\,dv + (v + uv - ue^u)\,du = 0$; in v; in u

In Problems 11–14 verify that the indicated function is an explicit solution of the given differential equation. Assume an appropriate interval I of definition for each solution.

11. $2y' + y = 0; \quad y = e^{-x/2}$
12. $\dfrac{dy}{dt} + 20y = 24; \quad y = \dfrac{6}{5} - \dfrac{6}{5}e^{-20t}$
13. $y'' - 6y' + 13y = 0; \quad y = e^{3x}\cos 2x$
14. $y'' + y = \tan x; \quad y = -(\cos x)\ln(\sec x + \tan x)$

In Problems 15–18 verify that the indicated function $y = \phi(x)$ is an explicit solution of the given first-order differential equation. Proceed as in Example 2, by considering ϕ simply as a *function,* give its domain. Then by considering ϕ as a *solution* of the differential equation, give at least one interval I of definition.

15. $(y - x)y' = y - x + 8; \quad y = x + 4\sqrt{x + 2}$
16. $y' = 25 + y^2; \quad y = 5\tan 5x$
17. $y' = 2xy^2; \quad y = 1/(4 - x^2)$
18. $2y' = y^3\cos x; \quad y = (1 - \sin x)^{-1/2}$

In Problems 19 and 20 verify that the indicated expression is an implicit solution of the given first-order differential equation. Find at least one explicit solution $y = \phi(x)$ in each case. Use a graphing utility to obtain the graph of an explicit solution. Give an interval I of definition of each solution ϕ.

19. $\dfrac{dX}{dt} = (X - 1)(1 - 2X); \quad \ln\left(\dfrac{2X - 1}{X - 1}\right) = t$
20. $2xy\,dx + (x^2 - y)\,dy = 0; \quad -2x^2y + y^2 = 1$

In Problems 21–24 verify that the indicated family of functions is a solution of the given differential equation. Assume an appropriate interval I of definition for each solution.

21. $\dfrac{dP}{dt} = P(1 - P); \quad P = \dfrac{c_1e^t}{1 + c_1e^t}$
22. $\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 2xy = 1; \quad y = e^{-x^2}\displaystyle\int_0^x e^{t^2}dt + c_1e^{-x^2}$
23. $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 4\dfrac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0; \quad y = c_1e^{2x} + c_2xe^{2x}$
24. $x^3\dfrac{d^3y}{dx^3} + 2x^2\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} - x\dfrac{dy}{dx} + y = 12x^2;$

    $y = c_1x^{-1} + c_2x + c_3x\ln x + 4x^2$
25. Verify that the piecewise-defined function

    $$y = \begin{cases} -x^2, & x < 0 \\ x^2, & x \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

    is a solution of the differential equation $xy' - 2y = 0$ on $(-\infty, \infty)$.
26. In Example 3 we saw that $y = \phi_1(x) = \sqrt{25 - x^2}$ and $y = \phi_2(x) = -\sqrt{25 - x^2}$ are solutions of $dy/dx = -x/y$ on the interval $(-5, 5)$. Explain why the piecewise-defined function

    $$y = \begin{cases} \sqrt{25 - x^2}, & -5 < x < 0 \\ -\sqrt{25 - x^2}, & 0 \le x < 5 \end{cases}$$

    is *not* a solution of the differential equation on the interval $(-5, 5)$.

In Problems 27–30 find values of m so that the function $y = e^{mx}$ is a solution of the given differential equation.

27. $y' + 2y = 0$ **28.** $5y' = 2y$

29. $y'' - 5y' + 6y = 0$ **30.** $2y'' + 7y' - 4y = 0$

In Problems 31 and 32 find values of m so that the function $y = x^m$ is a solution of the given differential equation.

31. $xy'' + 2y' = 0$

32. $x^2y'' - 7xy' + 15y = 0$

In Problems 33–36 use the concept that $y = c$, $-\infty < x < \infty$, is a constant function if and only if $y' = 0$ to determine whether the given differential equation possesses constant solutions.

33. $3xy' + 5y = 10$

34. $y' = y^2 + 2y - 3$

35. $(y - 1)y' = 1$

36. $y'' + 4y' + 6y = 10$

In Problems 37 and 38 verify that the indicated pair of functions is a solution of the given system of differential equations on the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$.

37. $\dfrac{dx}{dt} = x + 3y$

$\dfrac{dy}{dt} = 5x + 3y;$

$x = e^{-2t} + 3e^{6t},$

$y = -e^{-2t} + 5e^{6t}$

38. $\dfrac{d^2x}{dt^2} = 4y + e^t$

$\dfrac{d^2y}{dt^2} = 4x - e^t;$

$x = \cos 2t + \sin 2t + \frac{1}{5}e^t,$

$y = -\cos 2t - \sin 2t - \frac{1}{5}e^t$

Discussion Problems

39. Make up a differential equation that does not possess any real solutions.

40. Make up a differential equation that you feel confident possesses only the trivial solution $y = 0$. Explain your reasoning.

41. What function do you know from calculus is such that its first derivative is itself? Its first derivative is a constant multiple k of itself? Write each answer in the form of a first-order differential equation with a solution.

42. What function (or functions) do you know from calculus is such that its second derivative is itself? Its second derivative is the negative of itself? Write each answer in the form of a second-order differential equation with a solution.

43. Given that $y = \sin x$ is an explicit solution of the first-order differential equation $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{1 - y^2}$. Find an interval I of definition. [*Hint*: I is *not* the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$.]

44. Discuss why it makes intuitive sense to presume that the linear differential equation $y'' + 2y' + 4y = 5 \sin t$ has a solution of the form $y = A \sin t + B \cos t$, where A and B are constants. Then find specific constants A and B so that $y = A \sin t + B \cos t$ is a particular solution of the DE.

In Problems 45 and 46 the given figure represents the graph of an implicit solution $G(x, y) = 0$ of a differential equation $dy/dx = f(x, y)$. In each case the relation $G(x, y) = 0$ implicitly defines several solutions of the DE. Carefully reproduce each figure on a piece of paper. Use different colored pencils to mark off segments, or pieces, on each graph that correspond to graphs of solutions. Keep in mind that a solution ϕ must be a function and differentiable. Use the solution curve to estimate an interval I of definition of each solution ϕ.

45.

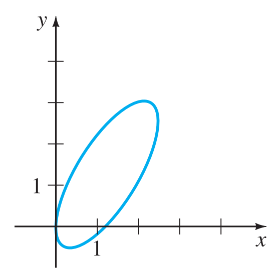


FIGURE 1.1.5 Graph for Problem 45

46.

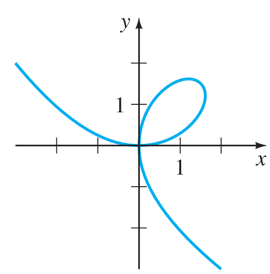


FIGURE 1.1.6 Graph for Problem 46

47. The graphs of members of the one-parameter family $x^3 + y^3 = 3cxy$ are called **folia of Descartes.** Verify that this family is an implicit solution of the first-order differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y(y^3 - 2x^3)}{x(2y^3 - x^3)}.$$

48. The graph in Figure 1.1.6 is the member of the family of folia in Problem 47 corresponding to $c = 1$. Discuss: How can the DE in Problem 47 help in finding points on the graph of $x^3 + y^3 = 3xy$ where the tangent line is vertical? How does knowing where a tangent line is vertical help in determining an interval I of definition of a solution ϕ of the DE? Carry out your ideas, and compare with your estimates of the intervals in Problem 46.

49. In Example 3 the largest interval I over which the explicit solutions $y = \phi_1(x)$ and $y = \phi_2(x)$ are defined is the open interval $(-5, 5)$. Why can't the interval I of definition be the closed interval $[-5, 5]$?

50. In Problem 21 a one-parameter family of solutions of the DE $P' = P(1 - P)$ is given. Does any solution curve pass through the point $(0, 3)$? Through the point $(0, 1)$?

51. Discuss, and illustrate with examples, how to solve differential equations of the forms $dy/dx = f(x)$ and $d^2y/dx^2 = f(x)$.

52. The differential equation $x(y')^2 - 4y' - 12x^3 = 0$ has the form given in (4). Determine whether the equation can be put into the normal form $dy/dx = f(x, y)$.

53. The normal form (5) of an nth-order differential equation is equivalent to (4) whenever both forms have exactly the same solutions. Make up a first-order differential equation for which $F(x, y, y') = 0$ is not equivalent to the normal form $dy/dx = f(x, y)$.

54. Find a linear second-order differential equation $F(x, y, y', y'') = 0$ for which $y = c_1x + c_2x^2$ is a two-parameter family of solutions. Make sure that your equation is free of the arbitrary parameters c_1 and c_2.

Qualitative information about a solution $y = \phi(x)$ of a differential equation can often be obtained from the equation itself. Before working Problems 55–58, recall the geometric significance of the derivatives dy/dx and d^2y/dx^2.

55. Consider the differential equation $dy/dx = e^{-x^2}$.

(a) Explain why a solution of the DE must be an increasing function on any interval of the x-axis.

(b) What are $\lim_{x\to-\infty} dy/dx$ and $\lim_{x\to\infty} dy/dx$? What does this suggest about a solution curve as $x \to \pm\infty$?

(c) Determine an interval over which a solution curve is concave down and an interval over which the curve is concave up.

(d) Sketch the graph of a solution $y = \phi(x)$ of the differential equation whose shape is suggested by parts (a)–(c).

56. Consider the differential equation $dy/dx = 5 - y$.

(a) Either by inspection or by the method suggested in Problems 33–36, find a constant solution of the DE.

(b) Using only the differential equation, find intervals on the y-axis on which a nonconstant solution $y = \phi(x)$ is increasing. Find intervals on the y-axis on which $y = \phi(x)$ is decreasing.

57. Consider the differential equation $dy/dx = y(a - by)$, where a and b are positive constants.

(a) Either by inspection or by the method suggested in Problems 33–36, find two constant solutions of the DE.

(b) Using only the differential equation, find intervals on the y-axis on which a nonconstant solution $y = \phi(x)$ is increasing. Find intervals on which $y = \phi(x)$ is decreasing.

(c) Using only the differential equation, explain why $y = a/2b$ is the y-coordinate of a point of inflection of the graph of a nonconstant solution $y = \phi(x)$.

(d) On the same coordinate axes, sketch the graphs of the two constant solutions found in part (a). These constant solutions partition the xy-plane into three regions. In each region, sketch the graph of a nonconstant solution $y = \phi(x)$ whose shape is suggested by the results in parts (b) and (c).

58. Consider the differential equation $y' = y^2 + 4$.

(a) Explain why there exist no constant solutions of the DE.

(b) Describe the graph of a solution $y = \phi(x)$. For example, can a solution curve have any relative extrema?

(c) Explain why $y = 0$ is the y-coordinate of a point of inflection of a solution curve.

(d) Sketch the graph of a solution $y = \phi(x)$ of the differential equation whose shape is suggested by parts (a)–(c).

Computer Lab Assignments

In Problems 59 and 60 use a CAS to compute all derivatives and to carry out the simplifications needed to verify that the indicated function is a particular solution of the given differential equation.

59. $y^{(4)} - 20y''' + 158y'' - 580y' + 841y = 0;$
$y = xe^{5x}\cos 2x$

60. $x^3y''' + 2x^2y'' + 20xy' - 78y = 0;$

$$y = 20\frac{\cos(5\ln x)}{x} - 3\frac{\sin(5\ln x)}{x}$$

1.2 INITIAL-VALUE PROBLEMS

REVIEW MATERIAL

- Normal form of a DE
- Solution of a DE
- Family of solutions

INTRODUCTION We are often interested in problems in which we seek a solution $y(x)$ of a differential equation so that $y(x)$ satisfies prescribed side conditions—that is, conditions imposed on the unknown $y(x)$ or its derivatives. On some interval I containing x_0 the problem

$$\begin{aligned} &\textit{Solve:} && \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = f\left(x, y, y', \ldots, y^{(n-1)}\right) \\ &\textit{Subject to:} && y(x_0) = y_0,\ y'(x_0) = y_1, \ldots, y^{(n-1)}(x_0) = y_{n-1}, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where $y_0, y_1, \ldots, y_{n-1}$ are arbitrarily specified real constants, is called an **initial-value problem (IVP).** The values of $y(x)$ and its first $n - 1$ derivatives at a single point x_0, $y(x_0) = y_0$, $y'(x_0) = y_1, \ldots, y^{(n-1)}(x_0) = y_{n-1}$, are called **initial conditions.**

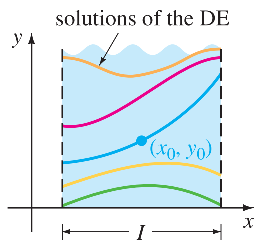


FIGURE 1.2.1 Solution of first-order IVP

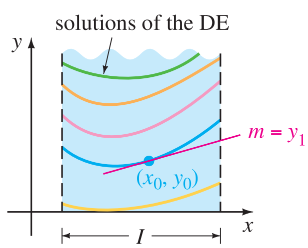


FIGURE 1.2.2 Solution of second-order IVP

FIRST- AND SECOND-ORDER IVPS The problem given in (1) is also called an ***n*th-order initial-value problem.** For example,

$$\begin{aligned} &\textit{Solve:} && \frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) \\ &\textit{Subject to:} && y(x_0) = y_0 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} &\textit{Solve:} && \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f(x, y, y') \\ &\textit{Subject to:} && y(x_0) = y_0,\ y'(x_0) = y_1 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

are **first-** and **second-order** initial-value problems, respectively. These two problems are easy to interpret in geometric terms. For (2) we are seeking a solution $y(x)$ of the differential equation $y' = f(x, y)$ on an interval I containing x_0 so that its graph passes through the specified point (x_0, y_0). A solution curve is shown in blue in Figure 1.2.1. For (3) we want to find a solution $y(x)$ of the differential equation $y'' = f(x, y, y')$ on an interval I containing x_0 so that its graph not only passes through (x_0, y_0) but the slope of the curve at this point is the number y_1. A solution curve is shown in blue in Figure 1.2.2. The words *initial conditions* derive from physical systems where the independent variable is time t and where $y(t_0) = y_0$ and $y'(t_0) = y_1$ represent the position and velocity, respectively, of an object at some beginning, or initial, time t_0.

Solving an nth-order initial-value problem such as (1) frequently entails first finding an n-parameter family of solutions of the given differential equation and then using the n initial conditions at x_0 to determine numerical values of the n constants in the family. The resulting particular solution is defined on some interval I containing the initial point x_0.

EXAMPLE 1 Two First-Order IVPs

In Problem 41 in Exercises 1.1 you were asked to deduce that $y = ce^x$ is a one-parameter family of solutions of the simple first-order equation $y' = y$. All the solutions in this family are defined on the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$. If we impose an initial condition, say, $y(0) = 3$, then substituting $x = 0$, $y = 3$ in the family determines the

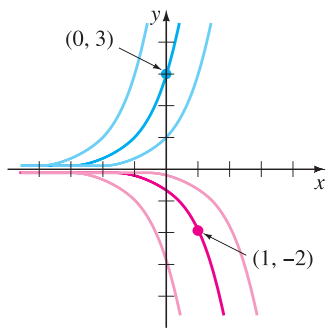


FIGURE 1.2.3 Solutions of two IVPs

constant $3 = ce^0 = c$. Thus $y = 3e^x$ is a solution of the IVP

$$y' = y, \quad y(0) = 3.$$

Now if we demand that a solution curve pass through the point $(1, -2)$ rather than $(0, 3)$, then $y(1) = -2$ will yield $-2 = ce$ or $c = -2e^{-1}$. In this case $y = -2e^{x-1}$ is a solution of the IVP

$$y' = y, \quad y(1) = -2.$$

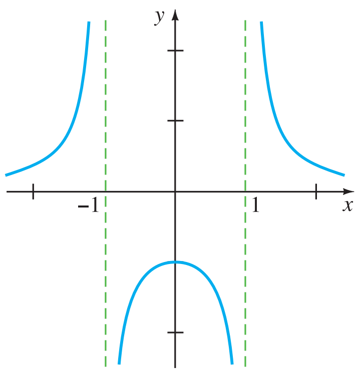
The two solution curves are shown in dark blue and dark red in Figure 1.2.3. ■

The next example illustrates another first-order initial-value problem. In this example notice how the interval I of definition of the solution $y(x)$ depends on the initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$.

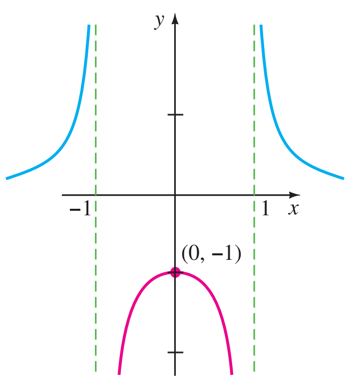
EXAMPLE 2 Interval *I* of Definition of a Solution

In Problem 6 of Exercises 2.2 you will be asked to show that a one-parameter family of solutions of the first-order differential equation $y' + 2xy^2 = 0$ is $y = 1/(x^2 + c)$. If we impose the initial condition $y(0) = -1$, then substituting $x = 0$ and $y = -1$ into the family of solutions gives $-1 = 1/c$ or $c = -1$. Thus $y = 1/(x^2 - 1)$. We now emphasize the following three distinctions:

- Considered as a *function*, the domain of $y = 1/(x^2 - 1)$ is the set of real numbers x for which $y(x)$ is defined; this is the set of all real numbers except $x = -1$ and $x = 1$. See Figure 1.2.4(a).
- Considered as a *solution of the differential equation* $y' + 2xy^2 = 0$, the interval I of definition of $y = 1/(x^2 - 1)$ could be taken to be any interval over which $y(x)$ is defined and differentiable. As can be seen in Figure 1.2.4(a), the largest intervals on which $y = 1/(x^2 - 1)$ is a solution are $(-\infty, -1)$, $(-1, 1)$, and $(1, \infty)$.
- Considered as a *solution of the initial-value problem* $y' + 2xy^2 = 0$, $y(0) = -1$, the interval I of definition of $y = 1/(x^2 - 1)$ could be taken to be any interval over which $y(x)$ is defined, differentiable, *and* contains the initial point $x = 0$; the largest interval for which this is true is $(-1, 1)$. See the red curve in Figure 1.2.4(b). ■



(a) function defined for all x except $x = \pm 1$



(b) solution defined on interval containing $x = 0$

FIGURE 1.2.4 Graphs of function and solution of IVP in Example 2

See Problems 3–6 in Exercises 1.2 for a continuation of Example 2.

EXAMPLE 3 Second-Order IVP

In Example 4 of Section 1.1 we saw that $x = c_1 \cos 4t + c_2 \sin 4t$ is a two-parameter family of solutions of $x'' + 16x = 0$. Find a solution of the initial-value problem

$$x'' + 16x = 0, \quad x\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -2, \quad x'\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 1. \tag{4}$$

SOLUTION We first apply $x(\pi/2) = -2$ to the given family of solutions: $c_1 \cos 2\pi + c_2 \sin 2\pi = -2$. Since $\cos 2\pi = 1$ and $\sin 2\pi = 0$, we find that $c_1 = -2$. We next apply $x'(\pi/2) = 1$ to the one-parameter family $x(t) = -2 \cos 4t + c_2 \sin 4t$. Differentiating and then setting $t = \pi/2$ and $x' = 1$ gives $8 \sin 2\pi + 4c_2 \cos 2\pi = 1$, from which we see that $c_2 = \frac{1}{4}$. Hence $x = -2 \cos 4t + \frac{1}{4} \sin 4t$ is a solution of (4). ■

EXISTENCE AND UNIQUENESS Two fundamental questions arise in considering an initial-value problem:

Does a solution of the problem exist?
If a solution exists, is it unique?

For the first-order initial-value problem (2) we ask:

Existence $\begin{cases} \textit{Does the differential equation } dy/dx = f(x, y) \textit{ possess solutions?} \\ \textit{Do any of the solution curves pass through the point } (x_0, y_0)\textit{?} \end{cases}$

Uniqueness $\begin{cases} \textit{When can we be certain that there is precisely one solution curve} \\ \textit{passing through the point } (x_0, y_0)\textit{?} \end{cases}$

Note that in Examples 1 and 3 the phrase "*a* solution" is used rather than "*the* solution" of the problem. The indefinite article "a" is used deliberately to suggest the possibility that other solutions may exist. At this point it has not been demonstrated that there is a single solution of each problem. The next example illustrates an initial-value problem with two solutions.

EXAMPLE 4 An IVP Can Have Several Solutions

Each of the functions $y = 0$ and $y = \frac{1}{16}x^4$ satisfies the differential equation $dy/dx = xy^{1/2}$ and the initial condition $y(0) = 0$, so the initial-value problem

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = xy^{1/2}, \quad y(0) = 0$$

has at least two solutions. As illustrated in Figure 1.2.5, the graphs of both functions pass through the same point (0, 0). ■

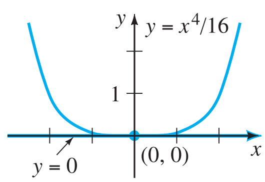


FIGURE 1.2.5 Two solutions of the same IVP

Within the safe confines of a formal course in differential equations one can be fairly confident that *most* differential equations will have solutions and that solutions of initial-value problems will *probably* be unique. Real life, however, is not so idyllic. Therefore it is desirable to know in advance of trying to solve an initial-value problem whether a solution exists and, when it does, whether it is the only solution of the problem. Since we are going to consider first-order differential equations in the next two chapters, we state here without proof a straightforward theorem that gives conditions that are sufficient to guarantee the existence and uniqueness of a solution of a first-order initial-value problem of the form given in (2). We shall wait until Chapter 4 to address the question of existence and uniqueness of a second-order initial-value problem.

THEOREM 1.2.1 Existence of a Unique Solution

Let R be a rectangular region in the xy-plane defined by $a \le x \le b$, $c \le y \le d$ that contains the point (x_0, y_0) in its interior. If $f(x, y)$ and $\partial f/\partial y$ are continuous on R, then there exists some interval I_0: $(x_0 - h, x_0 + h)$, $h > 0$, contained in $[a, b]$, and a unique function $y(x)$, defined on I_0, that is a solution of the initial-value problem (2).

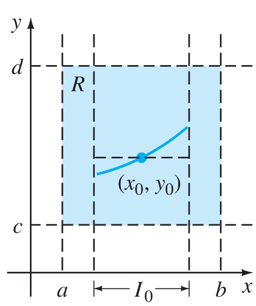


FIGURE 1.2.6 Rectangular region R

The foregoing result is one of the most popular existence and uniqueness theorems for first-order differential equations because the criteria of continuity of $f(x, y)$ and $\partial f/\partial y$ are relatively easy to check. The geometry of Theorem 1.2.1 is illustrated in Figure 1.2.6.

EXAMPLE 5 Example 4 Revisited

We saw in Example 4 that the differential equation $dy/dx = xy^{1/2}$ possesses at least two solutions whose graphs pass through (0, 0). Inspection of the functions

$$f(x, y) = xy^{1/2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{x}{2y^{1/2}}$$

shows that they are continuous in the upper half-plane defined by $y > 0$. Hence Theorem 1.2.1 enables us to conclude that through any point (x_0, y_0), $y_0 > 0$ in the upper half-plane there is some interval centered at x_0 on which the given differential equation has a unique solution. Thus, for example, even without solving it, we know that there exists some interval centered at 2 on which the initial-value problem $dy/dx = xy^{1/2}$, $y(2) = 1$ has a unique solution. ■

In Example 1, Theorem 1.2.1 guarantees that there are no other solutions of the initial-value problems $y' = y$, $y(0) = 3$ and $y' = y$, $y(1) = -2$ other than $y = 3e^x$ and $y = -2e^{x-1}$, respectively. This follows from the fact that $f(x, y) = y$ and $\partial f/\partial y = 1$ are continuous throughout the entire xy-plane. It can be further shown that the interval I on which each solution is defined is $(-\infty, \infty)$.

INTERVAL OF EXISTENCE/UNIQUENESS Suppose $y(x)$ represents a solution of the initial-value problem (2). The following three sets on the real x-axis may not be the same: the domain of the function $y(x)$, the interval I over which the solution $y(x)$ is defined or exists, and the interval I_0 of existence *and* uniqueness. Example 2 of Section 1.1 illustrated the difference between the domain of a function and the interval I of definition. Now suppose (x_0, y_0) is a point in the interior of the rectangular region R in Theorem 1.2.1. It turns out that the continuity of the function $f(x, y)$ on R by itself is sufficient to guarantee the existence of at least one solution of $dy/dx = f(x, y)$, $y(x_0) = y_0$, defined on some interval I. The interval I of definition for this initial-value problem is usually taken to be the largest interval containing x_0 over which the solution $y(x)$ is defined and differentiable. The interval I depends on both $f(x, y)$ and the initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$. See Problems 31–34 in Exercises 1.2. The extra condition of continuity of the first partial derivative $\partial f/\partial y$ on R enables us to say that not only does a solution exist on some interval I_0 containing x_0, but it is the *only* solution satisfying $y(x_0) = y_0$. However, Theorem 1.2.1 does not give any indication of the sizes of intervals I and I_0; *the interval I of definition need not be as wide as the region R, and the interval I_0 of existence and uniqueness may not be as large as I.* The number $h > 0$ that defines the interval I_0: $(x_0 - h, x_0 + h)$ could be very small, so it is best to think that the solution $y(x)$ is *unique in a local sense*—that is, a solution defined near the point (x_0, y_0). See Problem 44 in Exercises 1.2.

REMARKS

(*i*) The conditions in Theorem 1.2.1 are sufficient but not necessary. This means that when $f(x, y)$ and $\partial f/\partial y$ are continuous on a rectangular region R, it must always follow that a solution of (2) exists and is unique whenever (x_0, y_0) is a point interior to R. However, if the conditions stated in the hypothesis of Theorem 1.2.1 do not hold, then anything could happen: Problem (2) *may* still have a solution and this solution *may* be unique, or (2) may have several solutions, or it may have no solution at all. A rereading of Example 5 reveals that the hypotheses of Theorem 1.2.1 do not hold on the line $y = 0$ for the differential equation $dy/dx = xy^{1/2}$, so it is not surprising, as we saw in Example 4 of this section, that there are two solutions defined on a common interval $-h < x < h$ satisfying $y(0) = 0$. On the other hand, the hypotheses of Theorem 1.2.1 do not hold on the line $y = 1$ for the differential equation $dy/dx = |y - 1|$. Nevertheless it can be proved that the solution of the initial-value problem $dy/dx = |y - 1|$, $y(0) = 1$, is unique. Can you guess this solution?

(*ii*) You are encouraged to read, think about, work, and then keep in mind Problem 43 in Exercises 1.2.

EXERCISES 1.2

Answers to selected odd-numbered problems begin on page ANS-1.

In Problems 1 and 2, $y = 1/(1 + c_1e^{-x})$ is a one-parameter family of solutions of the first-order DE $y' = y - y^2$. Find a solution of the first-order IVP consisting of this differential equation and the given initial condition.

1. $y(0) = -\frac{1}{3}$ **2.** $y(-1) = 2$

In Problems 3–6, $y = 1/(x^2 + c)$ is a one-parameter family of solutions of the first-order DE $y' + 2xy^2 = 0$. Find a solution of the first-order IVP consisting of this differential equation and the given initial condition. Give the largest interval I over which the solution is defined.

3. $y(2) = \frac{1}{3}$ **4.** $y(-2) = \frac{1}{2}$

5. $y(0) = 1$ **6.** $y\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = -4$

In Problems 7–10, $x = c_1 \cos t + c_2 \sin t$ is a two-parameter family of solutions of the second-order DE $x'' + x = 0$. Find a solution of the second-order IVP consisting of this differential equation and the given initial conditions.

7. $x(0) = -1, \quad x'(0) = 8$

8. $x(\pi/2) = 0, \quad x'(\pi/2) = 1$

9. $x(\pi/6) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad x'(\pi/6) = 0$

10. $x(\pi/4) = \sqrt{2}, \quad x'(\pi/4) = 2\sqrt{2}$

In Problems 11–14, $y = c_1e^x + c_2e^{-x}$ is a two-parameter family of solutions of the second-order DE $y'' - y = 0$. Find a solution of the second-order IVP consisting of this differential equation and the given initial conditions.

11. $y(0) = 1, \quad y'(0) = 2$

12. $y(1) = 0, \quad y'(1) = e$

13. $y(-1) = 5, \quad y'(-1) = -5$

14. $y(0) = 0, \quad y'(0) = 0$

In Problems 15 and 16 determine by inspection at least two solutions of the given first-order IVP.

15. $y' = 3y^{2/3}, \quad y(0) = 0$

16. $xy' = 2y, \quad y(0) = 0$

In Problems 17–24 determine a region of the xy-plane for which the given differential equation would have a unique solution whose graph passes through a point (x_0, y_0) in the region.

17. $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = y^{2/3}$ **18.** $\dfrac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{xy}$

19. $x\dfrac{dy}{dx} = y$ **20.** $\dfrac{dy}{dx} - y = x$

21. $(4 - y^2)y' = x^2$ **22.** $(1 + y^3)y' = x^2$

23. $(x^2 + y^2)y' = y^2$ **24.** $(y - x)y' = y + x$

In Problems 25–28 determine whether Theorem 1.2.1 guarantees that the differential equation $y' = \sqrt{y^2 - 9}$ possesses a unique solution through the given point.

25. $(1, 4)$ **26.** $(5, 3)$

27. $(2, -3)$ **28.** $(-1, 1)$

29. **(a)** By inspection find a one-parameter family of solutions of the differential equation $xy' = y$. Verify that each member of the family is a solution of the initial-value problem $xy' = y$, $y(0) = 0$.

(b) Explain part (a) by determining a region R in the xy-plane for which the differential equation $xy' = y$ would have a unique solution through a point (x_0, y_0) in R.

(c) Verify that the piecewise-defined function

$$y = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x, & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

satisfies the condition $y(0) = 0$. Determine whether this function is also a solution of the initial-value problem in part (a).

30. **(a)** Verify that $y = \tan(x + c)$ is a one-parameter family of solutions of the differential equation $y' = 1 + y^2$.

(b) Since $f(x, y) = 1 + y^2$ and $\partial f/\partial y = 2y$ are continuous everywhere, the region R in Theorem 1.2.1 can be taken to be the entire xy-plane. Use the family of solutions in part (a) to find an explicit solution of the first-order initial-value problem $y' = 1 + y^2$, $y(0) = 0$. Even though $x_0 = 0$ is in the interval $(-2, 2)$, explain why the solution is not defined on this interval.

(c) Determine the largest interval I of definition for the solution of the initial-value problem in part (b).

31. **(a)** Verify that $y = -1/(x + c)$ is a one-parameter family of solutions of the differential equation $y' = y^2$.

(b) Since $f(x, y) = y^2$ and $\partial f/\partial y = 2y$ are continuous everywhere, the region R in Theorem 1.2.1 can be taken to be the entire xy-plane. Find a solution from the family in part (a) that satisfies $y(0) = 1$. Then find a solution from the family in part (a) that satisfies $y(0) = -1$. Determine the largest interval I of definition for the solution of each initial-value problem.

(c) Determine the largest interval I of definition for the solution of the first-order initial-value problem $y' = y^2$, $y(0) = 0$. [*Hint*: The solution is not a member of the family of solutions in part (a).]

32. (a) Show that a solution from the family in part (a) of Problem 31 that satisfies $y' = y^2$, $y(1) = 1$, is $y = 1/(2 - x)$.

(b) Then show that a solution from the family in part (a) of Problem 31 that satisfies $y' = y^2$, $y(3) = -1$, is $y = 1/(2 - x)$.

(c) Are the solutions in parts (a) and (b) the same?

33. (a) Verify that $3x^2 - y^2 = c$ is a one-parameter family of solutions of the differential equation $y\,dy/dx = 3x$.

(b) By hand, sketch the graph of the implicit solution $3x^2 - y^2 = 3$. Find all explicit solutions $y = \phi(x)$ of the DE in part (a) defined by this relation. Give the interval I of definition of each explicit solution.

(c) The point $(-2, 3)$ is on the graph of $3x^2 - y^2 = 3$, but which of the explicit solutions in part (b) satisfies $y(-2) = 3$?

34. (a) Use the family of solutions in part (a) of Problem 33 to find an implicit solution of the initial-value problem $y\,dy/dx = 3x$, $y(2) = -4$. Then, by hand, sketch the graph of the explicit solution of this problem and give its interval I of definition.

(b) Are there any explicit solutions of $y\,dy/dx = 3x$ that pass through the origin?

In Problems 35–38 the graph of a member of a family of solutions of a second-order differential equation $d^2y/dx^2 = f(x, y, y')$ is given. Match the solution curve with at least one pair of the following initial conditions.

(a) $y(1) = 1, \quad y'(1) = -2$

(b) $y(-1) = 0, \quad y'(-1) = -4$

(c) $y(1) = 1, \quad y'(1) = 2$

(d) $y(0) = -1, \quad y'(0) = 2$

(e) $y(0) = -1, \quad y'(0) = 0$

(f) $y(0) = -4, \quad y'(0) = -2$

35.

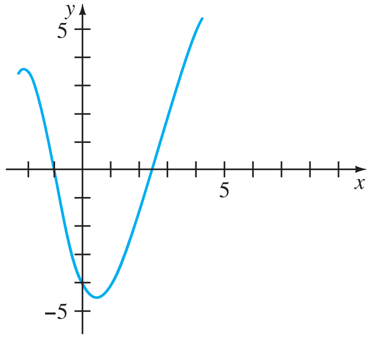


FIGURE 1.2.7 Graph for Problem 35

36.

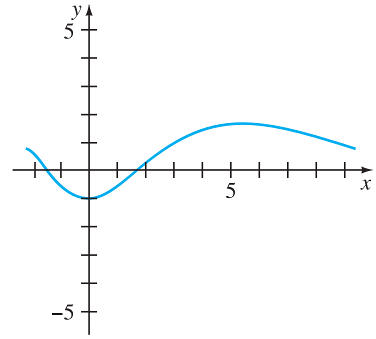


FIGURE 1.2.8 Graph for Problem 36

37.

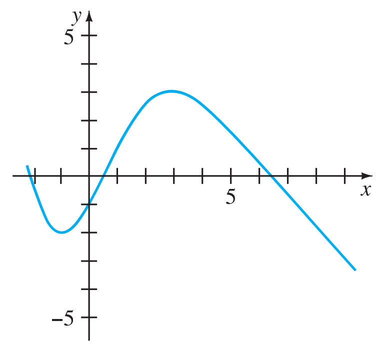


FIGURE 1.2.9 Graph for Problem 37

38.

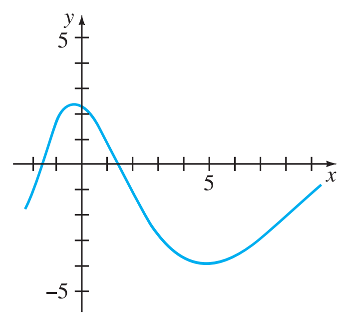


FIGURE 1.2.10 Graph for Problem 38

Discussion Problems

In Problems 39 and 40 use Problem 51 in Exercises 1.1 and (2) and (3) of this section.

39. Find a function $y = f(x)$ whose graph at each point (x, y) has the slope given by $8e^{2x} + 6x$ and has the y-intercept $(0, 9)$.

40. Find a function $y = f(x)$ whose second derivative is $y'' = 12x - 2$ at each point (x, y) on its graph and $y = -x + 5$ is tangent to the graph at the point corresponding to $x = 1$.

41. Consider the initial-value problem $y' = x - 2y$, $y(0) = \frac{1}{2}$. Determine which of the two curves shown in Figure 1.2.11 is the only plausible solution curve. Explain your reasoning.

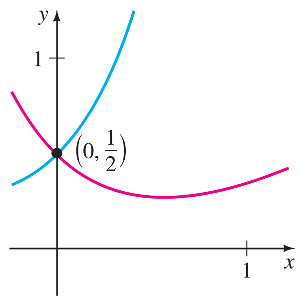


FIGURE 1.2.11 Graphs for Problem 41

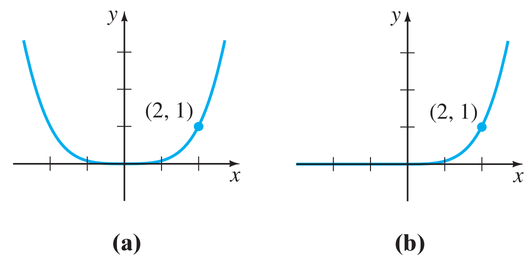


FIGURE 1.2.12 Two solutions of the IVP in Problem 44

42. Determine a plausible value of x_0 for which the graph of the solution of the initial-value problem $y' + 2y = 3x - 6$, $y(x_0) = 0$ is tangent to the x-axis at $(x_0, 0)$. Explain your reasoning.

43. Suppose that the first-order differential equation $dy/dx = f(x, y)$ possesses a one-parameter family of solutions and that $f(x, y)$ satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 1.2.1 in some rectangular region R of the xy-plane. Explain why two different solution curves cannot intersect or be tangent to each other at a point (x_0, y_0) in R.

44. The functions $y(x) = \frac{1}{16}x^4$, $\quad -\infty < x < \infty$ and

$$y(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ \frac{1}{16}x^4, & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

have the same domain but are clearly different. See Figures 1.2.12(a) and 1.2.12(b), respectively. Show that both functions are solutions of the initial-value problem $dy/dx = xy^{1/2}$, $y(2) = 1$ on the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$. Resolve the apparent contradiction between this fact and the last sentence in Example 5.

Mathematical Model

45. Population Growth Beginning in the next section we will see that differential equations can be used to describe or *model* many different physical systems. In this problem suppose that a model of the growing population of a small community is given by the initial-value problem

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = 0.15P(t) + 20, \quad P(0) = 100,$$

where P is the number of individuals in the community and time t is measured in years. How fast—that is, at what *rate*—is the population increasing at $t = 0$? How fast is the population increasing when the population is 500?

1.3 DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS AS MATHEMATICAL MODELS

REVIEW MATERIAL

- Units of measurement for weight, mass, and density
- Newton's second law of motion
- Hooke's law
- Kirchhoff's laws
- Archimedes' principle

INTRODUCTION In this section we introduce the notion of a differential equation as a mathematical model and discuss some specific models in biology, chemistry, and physics. Once we have studied some methods for solving DEs in Chapters 2 and 4, we return to, and solve, some of these models in Chapters 3 and 5.

MATHEMATICAL MODELS It is often desirable to describe the behavior of some real-life system or phenomenon, whether physical, sociological, or even economic, in mathematical terms. The mathematical description of a system of phenomenon is called a **mathematical model** and is constructed with certain goals in mind. For example, we may wish to understand the mechanisms of a certain ecosystem by studying the growth of animal populations in that system, or we may wish to date fossils by analyzing the decay of a radioactive substance either in the fossil or in the stratum in which it was discovered.

Construction of a mathematical model of a system starts with

(*i*) identification of the variables that are responsible for changing the system. We may choose not to incorporate all these variables into the model at first. In this step we are specifying the **level of resolution** of the model.

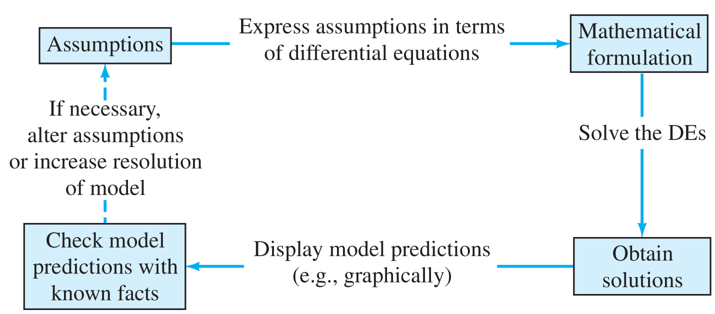
Next

(*ii*) we make a set of reasonable assumptions, or hypotheses, about the system we are trying to describe. These assumptions will also include any empirical laws that may be applicable to the system.

For some purposes it may be perfectly within reason to be content with low-resolution models. For example, you may already be aware that in beginning physics courses, the retarding force of air friction is sometimes ignored in modeling the motion of a body falling near the surface of the Earth, but if you are a scientist whose job it is to accurately predict the flight path of a long-range projectile, you have to take into account air resistance and other factors such as the curvature of the Earth.

Since the assumptions made about a system frequently involve *a rate of change* of one or more of the variables, the mathematical depiction of all these assumptions may be one or more equations involving *derivatives.* In other words, the mathematical model may be a differential equation or a system of differential equations.

Once we have formulated a mathematical model that is either a differential equation or a system of differential equations, we are faced with the not insignificant problem of trying to solve it. *If* we can solve it, then we deem the model to be reasonable if its solution is consistent with either experimental data or known facts about the behavior of the system. But if the predictions produced by the solution are poor, we can either increase the level of resolution of the model or make alternative assumptions about the mechanisms for change in the system. The steps of the modeling process are then repeated, as shown in the following diagram:



Of course, by increasing the resolution, we add to the complexity of the mathematical model and increase the likelihood that we cannot obtain an explicit solution.

A mathematical model of a physical system will often involve the variable time t. A solution of the model then gives the **state of the system;** in other words, the values of the dependent variable (or variables) for appropriate values of t describe the system in the past, present, and future.

POPULATION DYNAMICS One of the earliest attempts to model human **population growth** by means of mathematics was by the English economist Thomas Malthus in 1798. Basically, the idea behind the Malthusian model is the assumption that the rate at which the population of a country grows at a certain time is proportional* to the total population of the country at that time. In other words, the more people there are at time t, the more there are going to be in the future. In mathematical terms, if $P(t)$ denotes the

*If two quantities u and v are proportional, we write $u \propto v$. This means that one quantity is a constant multiple of the other: $u = kv$.

total population at time t, then this assumption can be expressed as

$$\frac{dP}{dt} \propto P \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{dP}{dt} = kP, \tag{1}$$

where k is a constant of proportionality. This simple model, which fails to take into account many factors that can influence human populations to either grow or decline (immigration and emigration, for example), nevertheless turned out to be fairly accurate in predicting the population of the United States during the years 1790–1860. Populations that grow at a rate described by (1) are rare; nevertheless, (1) is still used to model *growth of small populations over short intervals of time* (bacteria growing in a petri dish, for example).

RADIOACTIVE DECAY The nucleus of an atom consists of combinations of protons and neutrons. Many of these combinations of protons and neutrons are unstable—that is, the atoms decay or transmute into atoms of another substance. Such nuclei are said to be radioactive. For example, over time the highly radioactive radium, Ra-226, transmutes into the radioactive gas radon, Rn-222. To model the phenomenon of **radioactive decay,** it is assumed that the rate dA/dt at which the nuclei of a substance decay is proportional to the amount (more precisely, the number of nuclei) $A(t)$ of the substance remaining at time t:

$$\frac{dA}{dt} \propto A \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{dA}{dt} = kA. \tag{2}$$

Of course, equations (1) and (2) are exactly the same; the difference is only in the interpretation of the symbols and the constants of proportionality. For growth, as we expect in (1), $k > 0$, and for decay, as in (2), $k < 0$.

The model (1) for growth can also be seen as the equation $dS/dt = rS$, which describes the growth of capital S when an annual rate of interest r is compounded continuously. The model (2) for decay also occurs in biological applications such as determining the half-life of a drug—the time that it takes for 50% of a drug to be eliminated from a body by excretion or metabolism. In chemistry the decay model (2) appears in the mathematical description of a first-order chemical reaction. The point is this:

> *A single differential equation can serve as a mathematical model for many different phenomena.*

Mathematical models are often accompanied by certain side conditions. For example, in (1) and (2) we would expect to know, in turn, the initial population P_0 and the initial amount of radioactive substance A_0 on hand. If the initial point in time is taken to be $t = 0$, then we know that $P(0) = P_0$ and $A(0) = A_0$. In other words, a mathematical model can consist of either an initial-value problem or, as we shall see later on in Section 5.2, a boundary-value problem.

NEWTON'S LAW OF COOLING/WARMING According to Newton's empirical law of cooling/warming, the rate at which the temperature of a body changes is proportional to the difference between the temperature of the body and the temperature of the surrounding medium, the so-called ambient temperature. If $T(t)$ represents the temperature of a body at time t, T_m the temperature of the surrounding medium, and dT/dt the rate at which the temperature of the body changes, then Newton's law of cooling/warming translates into the mathematical statement

$$\frac{dT}{dt} \propto T - T_m \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{dT}{dt} = k(T - T_m), \tag{3}$$

where k is a constant of proportionality. In either case, cooling or warming, if T_m is a constant, it stands to reason that $k < 0$.

SPREAD OF A DISEASE A contagious disease—for example, a flu virus—is spread throughout a community by people coming into contact with other people. Let $x(t)$ denote the number of people who have contracted the disease and $y(t)$ denote the number of people who have not yet been exposed. It seems reasonable to assume that the rate dx/dt at which the disease spreads is proportional to the number of encounters, or *interactions,* between these two groups of people. If we assume that the number of interactions is jointly proportional to $x(t)$ and $y(t)$—that is, proportional to the product xy—then

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = kxy, \tag{4}$$

where k is the usual constant of proportionality. Suppose a small community has a fixed population of n people. If one infected person is introduced into this community, then it could be argued that $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ are related by $x + y = n + 1$. Using this last equation to eliminate y in (4) gives us the model

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = kx(n + 1 - x). \tag{5}$$

An obvious initial condition accompanying equation (5) is $x(0) = 1$.

CHEMICAL REACTIONS The disintegration of a radioactive substance, governed by the differential equation (1), is said to be a **first-order reaction.** In chemistry a few reactions follow this same empirical law: If the molecules of substance A decompose into smaller molecules, it is a natural assumption that the rate at which this decomposition takes place is proportional to the amount of the first substance that has not undergone conversion; that is, if $X(t)$ is the amount of substance A remaining at any time, then $dX/dt = kX$, where k is a negative constant since X is decreasing. An example of a first-order chemical reaction is the conversion of t-butyl chloride, $(CH_3)_3CCl$, into t-butyl alcohol, $(CH_3)_3COH$:

$$(CH_3)_3CCl + NaOH \rightarrow (CH_3)_3COH + NaCl.$$

Only the concentration of the t-butyl chloride controls the rate of reaction. But in the reaction

$$CH_3Cl + NaOH \rightarrow CH_3OH + NaCl$$

one molecule of sodium hydroxide, NaOH, is consumed for every molecule of methyl chloride, CH_3Cl, thus forming one molecule of methyl alcohol, CH_3OH, and one molecule of sodium chloride, NaCl. In this case the rate at which the reaction proceeds is proportional to the product of the remaining concentrations of CH_3Cl and NaOH. To describe this second reaction in general, let us suppose *one* molecule of a substance A combines with *one* molecule of a substance B to form *one* molecule of a substance C. If X denotes the amount of chemical C formed at time t and if α and β are, in turn, the amounts of the two chemicals A and B at $t = 0$ (the initial amounts), then the instantaneous amounts of A and B not converted to chemical C are $\alpha - X$ and $\beta - X$, respectively. Hence the rate of formation of C is given by

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = k(\alpha - X)(\beta - X), \tag{6}$$

where k is a constant of proportionality. A reaction whose model is equation (6) is said to be a **second-order reaction.**

MIXTURES The mixing of two salt solutions of differing concentrations gives rise to a first-order differential equation for the amount of salt contained in the mixture. Let us suppose that a large mixing tank initially holds 300 gallons of brine (that is, water in which a certain number of pounds of salt has been dissolved). Another

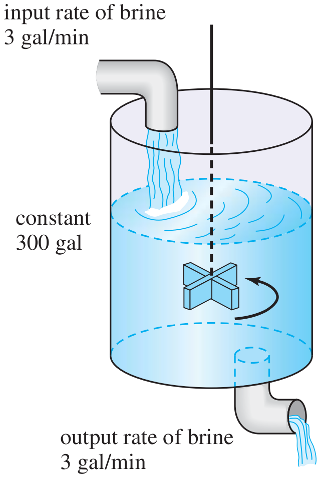


FIGURE 1.3.1 Mixing tank

brine solution is pumped into the large tank at a rate of 3 gallons per minute; the concentration of the salt in this inflow is 2 pounds per gallon. When the solution in the tank is well stirred, it is pumped out at the same rate as the entering solution. See Figure 1.3.1. If $A(t)$ denotes the amount of salt (measured in pounds) in the tank at time t, then the rate at which $A(t)$ changes is a net rate:

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \begin{pmatrix} \textit{input rate} \\ \textit{of salt} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \textit{output rate} \\ \textit{of salt} \end{pmatrix} = R_{in} - R_{out}. \tag{7}$$

The input rate R_{in} at which salt enters the tank is the product of the inflow concentration of salt and the inflow rate of fluid. Note that R_{in} is measured in pounds per minute:

$$R_{in} = \underset{\substack{\text{concentration} \\ \text{of salt} \\ \text{in inflow}}}{(2 \text{ lb/gal})} \cdot \underset{\substack{\text{input rate} \\ \text{of brine}}}{(3 \text{ gal/min})} = \underset{\substack{\text{input rate} \\ \text{of salt}}}{(6 \text{ lb/min})}.$$

Now, since the solution is being pumped out of the tank at the same rate that it is pumped in, the number of gallons of brine in the tank at time t is a constant 300 gallons. Hence the concentration of the salt in the tank as well as in the outflow is $c(t) = A(t)/300$ lb/gal, so the output rate R_{out} of salt is

$$R_{out} = \underset{\substack{\text{concentration} \\ \text{of salt} \\ \text{in outflow}}}{\left(\frac{A(t)}{300} \text{ lb/gal}\right)} \cdot \underset{\substack{\text{output rate} \\ \text{of brine}}}{(3 \text{ gal/min})} = \underset{\substack{\text{output rate} \\ \text{of salt}}}{\frac{A(t)}{100} \text{ lb/min}}.$$

The net rate (7) then becomes

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = 6 - \frac{A}{100} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{dA}{dt} + \frac{1}{100}A = 6. \tag{8}$$

If r_{in} and r_{out} denote general input and output rates of the brine solutions,* then there are three possibilities: $r_{in} = r_{out}$, $r_{in} > r_{out}$, and $r_{in} < r_{out}$. In the analysis leading to (8) we have assumed that $r_{in} = r_{out}$. In the latter two cases the number of gallons of brine in the tank is either increasing ($r_{in} > r_{out}$) or decreasing ($r_{in} < r_{out}$) at the net rate $r_{in} - r_{out}$. See Problems 10–12 in Exercises 1.3.

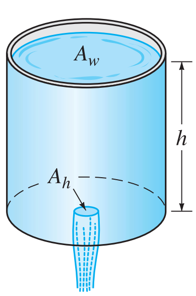
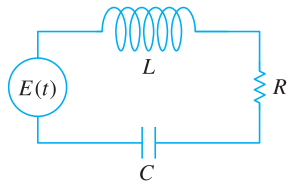


FIGURE 1.3.2 Draining tank

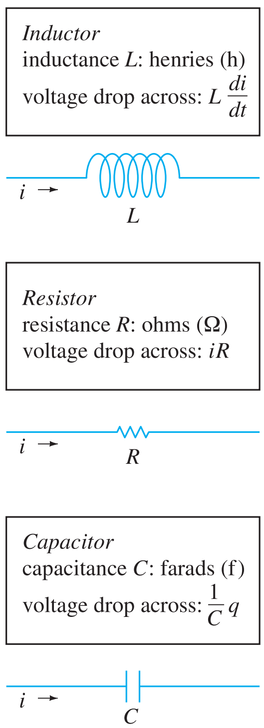
DRAINING A TANK In hydrodynamics **Torricelli's law** states that the speed v of efflux of water though a sharp-edged hole at the bottom of a tank filled to a depth h is the same as the speed that a body (in this case a drop of water) would acquire in falling freely from a height h—that is, $v = \sqrt{2gh}$, where g is the acceleration due to gravity. This last expression comes from equating the kinetic energy $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ with the potential energy mgh and solving for v. Suppose a tank filled with water is allowed to drain through a hole under the influence of gravity. We would like to find the depth h of water remaining in the tank at time t. Consider the tank shown in Figure 1.3.2. If the area of the hole is A_h (in ft^2) and the speed of the water leaving the tank is $v = \sqrt{2gh}$ (in ft/s), then the volume of water leaving the tank per second is $A_h\sqrt{2gh}$ (in ft^3/s). Thus if $V(t)$ denotes the volume of water in the tank at time t, then

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = -A_h\sqrt{2gh}, \tag{9}$$

*Don't confuse these symbols with R_{in} and R_{out}, which are input and output rates of *salt*.



(a) *LRC*-series circuit



(b)

FIGURE 1.3.3 Symbols, units, and voltages. Current $i(t)$ and charge $q(t)$ are measured in amperes (A) and coulombs (C), respectively

where the minus sign indicates that V is decreasing. Note here that we are ignoring the possibility of friction at the hole that might cause a reduction of the rate of flow there. Now if the tank is such that the volume of water in it at time t can be written $V(t) = A_w h$, where A_w (in ft^2) is the *constant* area of the upper surface of the water (see Figure 1.3.2), then $dV/dt = A_w\, dh/dt$. Substituting this last expression into (9) gives us the desired differential equation for the height of the water at time t:

$$\frac{dh}{dt} = -\frac{A_h}{A_w}\sqrt{2gh}. \tag{10}$$

It is interesting to note that (10) remains valid even when A_w is not constant. In this case we must express the upper surface area of the water as a function of h—that is, $A_w = A(h)$. See Problem 14 in Exercises 1.3.

SERIES CIRCUITS Consider the single-loop series circuit shown in Figure 1.3.3(a), containing an inductor, resistor, and capacitor. The current in a circuit after a switch is closed is denoted by $i(t)$; the charge on a capacitor at time t is denoted by $q(t)$. The letters L, R, and C are known as inductance, resistance, and capacitance, respectively, and are generally constants. Now according to **Kirchhoff's second law,** the impressed voltage $E(t)$ on a closed loop must equal the sum of the voltage drops in the loop. Figure 1.3.3(b) shows the symbols and the formulas for the respective voltage drops across an inductor, a capacitor, and a resistor. Since current $i(t)$ is related to charge $q(t)$ on the capacitor by $i = dq/dt$, adding the three voltages

$$\overset{\text{inductor}}{L\frac{di}{dt} = L\frac{d^2q}{dt^2}}, \qquad \overset{\text{resistor}}{iR = R\frac{dq}{dt}}, \qquad \text{and} \qquad \overset{\text{capacitor}}{\frac{1}{C}q}$$

and equating the sum to the impressed voltage yields a second-order differential equation

$$L\frac{d^2q}{dt^2} + R\frac{dq}{dt} + \frac{1}{C}q = E(t). \tag{11}$$

We will examine a differential equation analogous to (11) in great detail in Section 5.1.

FALLING BODIES To construct a mathematical model of the motion of a body moving in a force field, one often starts with Newton's second law of motion. Recall from elementary physics that **Newton's first law of motion** states that a body either will remain at rest or will continue to move with a constant velocity unless acted on by an external force. In each case this is equivalent to saying that when the sum of the forces $F = \sum F_k$—that is, the *net* or resultant force—acting on the body is zero, then the acceleration a of the body is zero. **Newton's second law of motion** indicates that when the net force acting on a body is not zero, then the net force is proportional to its acceleration a or, more precisely, $F = ma$, where m is the mass of the body.

Now suppose a rock is tossed upward from the roof of a building as illustrated in Figure 1.3.4. What is the position $s(t)$ of the rock relative to the ground at time t? The acceleration of the rock is the second derivative d^2s/dt^2. If we assume that the upward direction is positive and that no force acts on the rock other than the force of gravity, then Newton's second law gives

$$m\frac{d^2s}{dt^2} = -mg \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{d^2s}{dt^2} = -g. \tag{12}$$

In other words, the net force is simply the weight $F = F_1 = -W$ of the rock near the surface of the Earth. Recall that the magnitude of the weight is $W = mg$, where m is

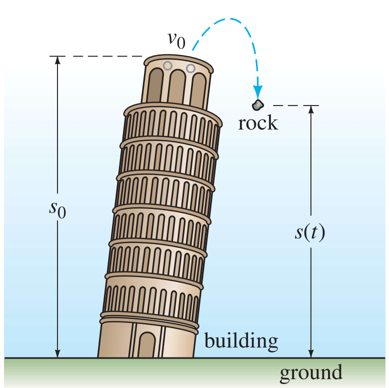


FIGURE 1.3.4 Position of rock measured from ground level

the mass of the body and g is the acceleration due to gravity. The minus sign in (12) is used because the weight of the rock is a force directed downward, which is opposite to the positive direction. If the height of the building is s_0 and the initial velocity of the rock is v_0, then s is determined from the second-order initial-value problem

$$\frac{d^2s}{dt^2} = -g, \quad s(0) = s_0, \quad s'(0) = v_0. \tag{13}$$

Although we have not been stressing solutions of the equations we have constructed, note that (13) can be solved by integrating the constant $-g$ twice with respect to t. The initial conditions determine the two constants of integration. From elementary physics you might recognize the solution of (13) as the formula $s(t) = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2 + v_0t + s_0$.

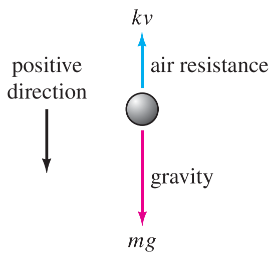


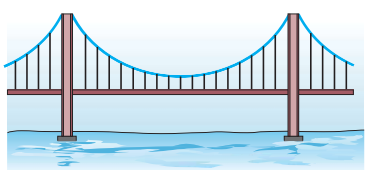
FIGURE 1.3.5 Falling body of mass m

FALLING BODIES AND AIR RESISTANCE Before Galileo's famous experiment from the leaning tower of Pisa, it was generally believed that heavier objects in free fall, such as a cannonball, fell with a greater acceleration than lighter objects, such as a feather. Obviously, a cannonball and a feather when dropped simultaneously from the same height *do* fall at different rates, but it is not because a cannonball is heavier. The difference in rates is due to air resistance. The resistive force of air was ignored in the model given in (13). Under some circumstances a falling body of mass m, such as a feather with low density and irregular shape, encounters air resistance proportional to its instantaneous velocity v. If we take, in this circumstance, the positive direction to be oriented downward, then the net force acting on the mass is given by $F = F_1 + F_2 = mg - kv$, where the weight $F_1 = mg$ of the body is force acting in the positive direction and air resistance $F_2 = -kv$ is a force, called **viscous damping,** acting in the opposite or upward direction. See Figure 1.3.5. Now since v is related to acceleration a by $a = dv/dt$, Newton's second law becomes $F = ma = m\,dv/dt$. By equating the net force to this form of Newton's second law, we obtain a first-order differential equation for the velocity $v(t)$ of the body at time t,

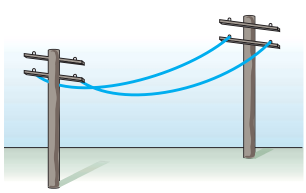
$$m\frac{dv}{dt} = mg - kv. \tag{14}$$

Here k is a positive constant of proportionality. If $s(t)$ is the distance the body falls in time t from its initial point of release, then $v = ds/dt$ and $a = dv/dt = d^2s/dt^2$. In terms of s, (14) is a second-order differential equation

$$m\frac{d^2s}{dt^2} = mg - k\frac{ds}{dt} \quad \text{or} \quad m\frac{d^2s}{dt^2} + k\frac{ds}{dt} = mg. \tag{15}$$



(a) suspension bridge cable



(b) telephone wires

FIGURE 1.3.6 Cables suspended between vertical supports

SUSPENDED CABLES Suppose a flexible cable, wire, or heavy rope is suspended between two vertical supports. Physical examples of this could be one of the two cables supporting the roadbed of a suspension bridge as shown in Figure 1.3.6(a) or a long telephone wire strung between two posts as shown in Figure 1.3.6(b). Our goal is to construct a mathematical model that describes the shape that such a cable assumes.

To begin, let's agree to examine only a portion or element of the cable between its lowest point P_1 and any arbitrary point P_2. As drawn in blue in Figure 1.3.7, this element of the cable is the curve in a rectangular coordinate system with y-axis chosen to pass through the lowest point P_1 on the curve and the x-axis chosen a units below P_1. Three forces are acting on the cable: the tensions $\mathbf{T}_1$ and $\mathbf{T}_2$ in the cable that are tangent to the cable at P_1 and P_2, respectively, and the portion $\mathbf{W}$ of the total vertical load between the points P_1 and P_2. Let $T_1 = |\mathbf{T}_1|$, $T_2 = |\mathbf{T}_2|$, and $W = |\mathbf{W}|$ denote the magnitudes of these vectors. Now the tension $\mathbf{T}_2$ resolves into horizontal and vertical components (scalar quantities) $T_2 \cos\theta$ and $T_2 \sin\theta$.

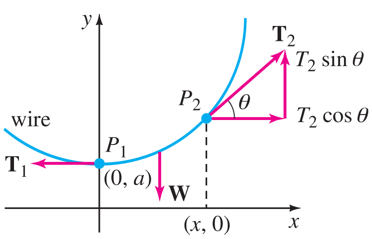


FIGURE 1.3.7 Element of cable

Because of static equilibrium we can write

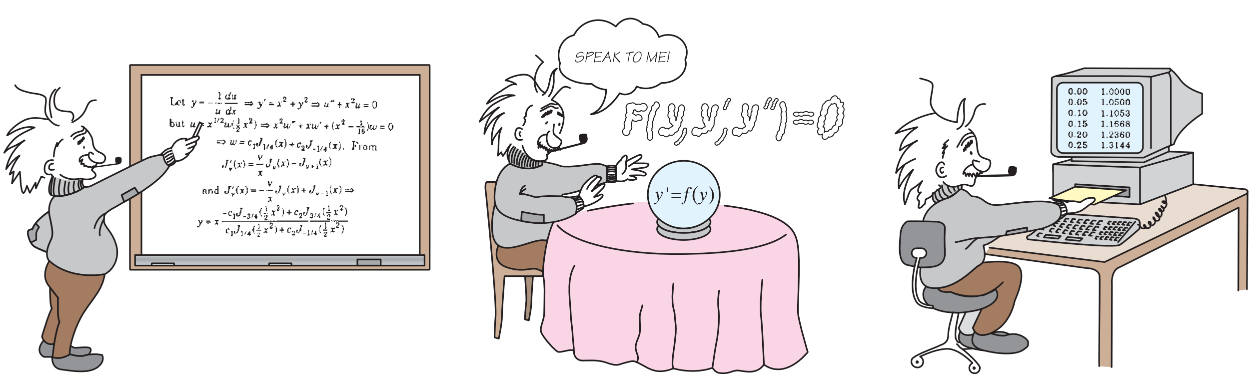
$$T_1 = T_2 \cos\theta \qquad \text{and} \qquad W = T_2 \sin\theta.$$

By dividing the last equation by the first, we eliminate T_2 and get $\tan\theta = W/T_1$. But because $dy/dx = \tan\theta$, we arrive at

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{W}{T_1}. \tag{16}$$

This simple first-order differential equation serves as a model for both the shape of a flexible wire such as a telephone wire hanging under its own weight and the shape of the cables that support the roadbed of a suspension bridge. We will come back to equation (16) in Exercises 2.2 and Section 5.3.

WHAT LIES AHEAD Throughout this text you will see three different types of approaches to, or analyses of, differential equations. Over the centuries differential equations would often spring from the efforts of a scientist or engineer to describe some physical phenomenon or to translate an empirical or experimental law into mathematical terms. As a consequence a scientist, engineer, or mathematician would often spend many years of his or her life trying to find the solutions of a DE. With a solution in hand, the study of its properties then followed. This quest for solutions is called by some the *analytical approach* to differential equations. Once they realized that explicit solutions are at best difficult to obtain and at worst impossible to obtain, mathematicians learned that a differential equation itself could be a font of valuable information. It is possible, in some instances, to glean directly from the differential equation answers to questions such as *Does the DE actually have solutions? If a solution of the DE exists and satisfies an initial condition, is it the only such solution? What are some of the properties of the unknown solutions? What can we say about the geometry of the solution curves?* Such an approach is *qualitative analysis.* Finally, if a differential equation cannot be solved by analytical methods, yet we can prove that a solution exists, the next logical query is *Can we somehow approximate the values of an unknown solution?* Here we enter the realm of *numerical analysis.* An affirmative answer to the last question stems from the fact that a differential equation can be used as a cornerstone for constructing very accurate approximation algorithms. In Chapter 2 we start with qualitative considerations of first-order ODEs, then examine analytical stratagems for solving some special first-order equations, and conclude with an introduction to an elementary numerical method. See Figure 1.3.8.



(a) analytical **(b)** qualitative **(c)** numerical

FIGURE 1.3.8 Different approaches to the study of differential equations

REMARKS

Each example in this section has described a dynamical system—a system that changes or evolves with the flow of time t. Since the study of dynamical systems is a branch of mathematics currently in vogue, we shall occasionally relate the terminology of that field to the discussion at hand.

In more precise terms, a **dynamical system** consists of a set of time-dependent variables, called **state variables,** together with a rule that enables us to determine (without ambiguity) the state of the system (this may be a past, present, or future state) in terms of a state prescribed at some time t_0. Dynamical systems are classified as either discrete-time systems or continuous-time systems. In this course we shall be concerned only with continuous-time systems—systems in which *all* variables are defined over a continuous range of time. The rule, or mathematical model, in a continuous-time dynamical system is a differential equation or a system of differential equations. The **state of the system** at a time t is the value of the state variables at that time; the specified state of the system at a time t_0 is simply the initial conditions that accompany the mathematical model. The solution of the initial-value problem is referred to as the **response of the system.** For example, in the case of radioactive decay, the rule is $dA/dt = kA$. Now if the quantity of a radioactive substance at some time t_0 is known, say $A(t_0) = A_0$, then by solving the rule we find that the response of the system for $t \geq t_0$ is $A(t) = A_0 e^{(t-t_0)}$ (see Section 3.1). The response $A(t)$ is the single state variable for this system. In the case of the rock tossed from the roof of a building, the response of the system—the solution of the differential equation $d^2s/dt^2 = -g$, subject to the initial state $s(0) = s_0$, $s'(0) = v_0$, is the function $s(t) = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2 + v_0 t + s_0$, $0 \leq t \leq T$, where T represents the time when the rock hits the ground. The state variables are $s(t)$ and $s'(t)$, which are the vertical position of the rock above ground and its velocity at time t, respectively. The acceleration $s''(t)$ is *not* a state variable, since we have to know only any initial position and initial velocity at a time t_0 to uniquely determine the rock's position $s(t)$ and velocity $s'(t) = v(t)$ for any time in the interval $t_0 \leq t \leq T$. The acceleration $s''(t) = a(t)$ is, of course, given by the differential equation $s''(t) = -g$, $0 < t < T$.

One last point: Not every system studied in this text is a dynamical system. We shall also examine some static systems in which the model is a differential equation.

EXERCISES 1.3

Answers to selected odd-numbered problems begin on page ANS-1.

Population Dynamics

1. Under the same assumptions that underlie the model in (1), determine a differential equation for the population $P(t)$ of a country when individuals are allowed to immigrate into the country at a constant rate $r > 0$. What is the differential equation for the population $P(t)$ of the country when individuals are allowed to emigrate from the country at a constant rate $r > 0$?

2. The population model given in (1) fails to take death into consideration; the growth rate equals the birth rate. In another model of a changing population of a community it is assumed that the rate at which the population changes is a *net* rate—that is, the difference between the rate of births and the rate of deaths in the community. Determine a model for the population $P(t)$ if both the birth rate and the death rate are proportional to the population present at time t.

3. Using the concept of net rate introduced in Problem 2, determine a model for a population $P(t)$ if the birth rate is proportional to the population present at time t but the death rate is proportional to the square of the population present at time t.

4. Modify the model in Problem 3 for net rate at which the population $P(t)$ of a certain kind of fish changes by also assuming that the fish are harvested at a constant rate $h > 0$.

Newton's Law of Cooling/Warming

5. A cup of coffee cools according to Newton's law of cooling (3). Use data from the graph of the temperature $T(t)$ in Figure 1.3.9 to estimate the constants T_m, T_0, and k in a model of the form of a first-order initial-value problem: $dT/dt = k(T - T_m)$, $T(0) = T_0$.

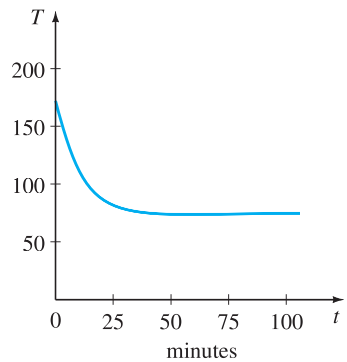


FIGURE 1.3.9 Cooling curve in Problem 5

6. The ambient temperature T_m in (3) could be a function of time t. Suppose that in an artificially controlled environment, $T_m(t)$ is periodic with a 24-hour period, as illustrated in Figure 1.3.10. Devise a mathematical model for the temperature $T(t)$ of a body within this environment.

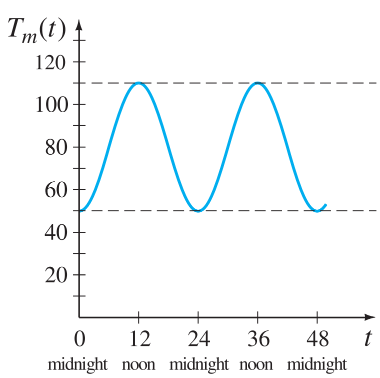


FIGURE 1.3.10 Ambient temperature in Problem 6

Spread of a Disease/Technology

7. Suppose a student carrying a flu virus returns to an isolated college campus of 1000 students. Determine a differential equation for the number of people $x(t)$ who have contracted the flu if the rate at which the disease spreads is proportional to the number of interactions between the number of students who have the flu and the number of students who have not yet been exposed to it.

8. At a time denoted as $t = 0$ a technological innovation is introduced into a community that has a fixed population of n people. Determine a differential equation for the number of people $x(t)$ who have adopted the innovation at time t if it is assumed that the rate at which the innovations spread through the community is jointly proportional to the number of people who have adopted it and the number of people who have not adopted it.

Mixtures

9. Suppose that a large mixing tank initially holds 300 gallons of water in which 50 pounds of salt have been dissolved. Pure water is pumped into the tank at a rate of 3 gal/min, and when the solution is well stirred, it is then pumped out at the same rate. Determine a differential equation for the amount of salt $A(t)$ in the tank at time t. What is $A(0)$?

10. Suppose that a large mixing tank initially holds 300 gallons of water is which 50 pounds of salt have been dissolved. Another brine solution is pumped into the tank at a rate of 3 gal/min, and when the solution is well stirred, it is then pumped out at a *slower* rate of 2 gal/min. If the concentration of the solution entering is 2 lb/gal, determine a differential equation for the amount of salt $A(t)$ in the tank at time t.

11. What is the differential equation in Problem 10, if the well-stirred solution is pumped out at a *faster* rate of 3.5 gal/min?

12. Generalize the model given in equation (8) on page 23 by assuming that the large tank initially contains N_0 number of gallons of brine, r_{in} and r_{out} are the input and output rates of the brine, respectively (measured in gallons per minute), c_{in} is the concentration of the salt in the inflow, $c(t)$ the concentration of the salt in the tank as well as in the outflow at time t (measured in pounds of salt per gallon), and $A(t)$ is the amount of salt in the tank at time t.

Draining a Tank

13. Suppose water is leaking from a tank through a circular hole of area A_h at its bottom. When water leaks through a hole, friction and contraction of the stream near the hole reduce the volume of water leaving the tank per second to $cA_h\sqrt{2gh}$, where c $(0 < c < 1)$ is an empirical constant. Determine a differential equation for the height h of water at time t for the cubical tank shown in Figure 1.3.11. The radius of the hole is 2 in., and $g = 32$ ft/s^2.

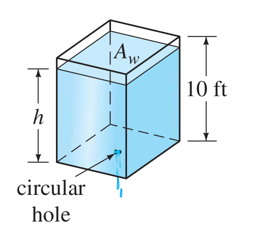


FIGURE 1.3.11 Cubical tank in Problem 13

14. The right-circular conical tank shown in Figure 1.3.12 loses water out of a circular hole at its bottom. Determine a differential equation for the height of the water h at time t. The radius of the hole is 2 in., $g = 32$ ft/s^2, and the friction/contraction factor introduced in Problem 13 is $c = 0.6$.

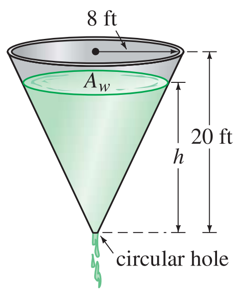


FIGURE 1.3.12 Conical tank in Problem 14

Series Circuits

15. A series circuit contains a resistor and an inductor as shown in Figure 1.3.13. Determine a differential equation for the current $i(t)$ if the resistance is R, the inductance is L, and the impressed voltage is $E(t)$.

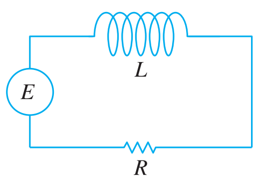


FIGURE 1.3.13 *LR* series circuit in Problem 15

16. A series circuit contains a resistor and a capacitor as shown in Figure 1.3.14. Determine a differential equation for the charge $q(t)$ on the capacitor if the resistance is R, the capacitance is C, and the impressed voltage is $E(t)$.

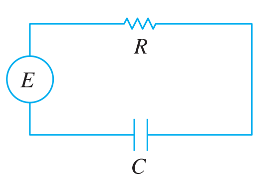


FIGURE 1.3.14 *RC* series circuit in Problem 16

Falling Bodies and Air Resistance

17. For high-speed motion through the air—such as the skydiver shown in Figure 1.3.15, falling before the parachute is opened—air resistance is closer to a power of the instantaneous velocity $v(t)$. Determine a differential equation for the velocity $v(t)$ of a falling body of mass m if air resistance is proportional to the square of the instantaneous velocity.

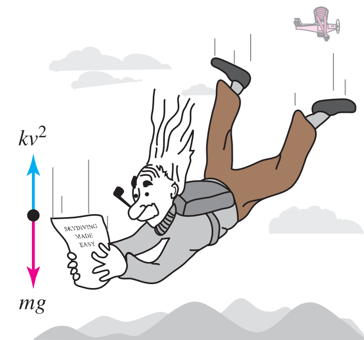


FIGURE 1.3.15 Air resistance proportional to square of velocity in Problem 17

Newton's Second Law and Archimedes' Principle

18. A cylindrical barrel s feet in diameter of weight w lb is floating in water as shown in Figure 1.3.16(a). After an initial depression the barrel exhibits an up-and-down bobbing motion along a vertical line. Using Figure 1.3.16(b), determine a differential equation for the vertical displacement $y(t)$ if the origin is taken to be on the vertical axis at the surface of the water when the barrel is at rest. Use **Archimedes' principle:** Buoyancy, or upward force of the water on the barrel, is equal to the weight of the water displaced. Assume that the downward direction is positive, that the weight density of water is 62.4 lb/ft^3, and that there is no resistance between the barrel and the water.

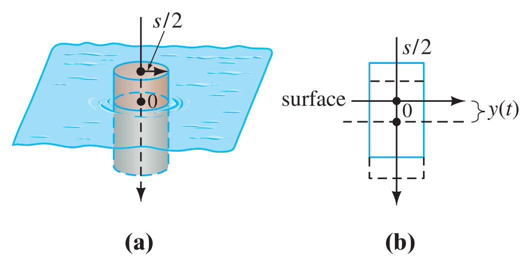


FIGURE 1.3.16 Bobbing motion of floating barrel in Problem 18

Newton's Second Law and Hooke's Law

19. After a mass m is attached to a spring, it stretches it s units and then hangs at rest in the equilibrium position as shown in Figure 1.3.17(b). After the spring/mass

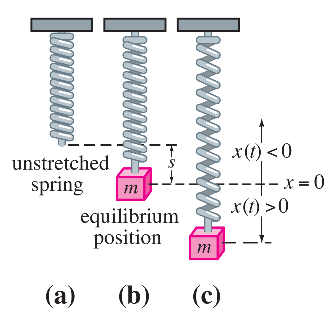


FIGURE 1.3.17 Spring/mass system in Problem 19

system has been set in motion, let $x(t)$ denote the directed distance of the mass beyond the equilibrium position. As indicated in Figure 1.3.17(c), assume that the downward direction is positive, that the motion takes place in a vertical straight line through the center of gravity of the mass, and that the only forces acting on the system are the weight of the mass and the restoring force of the stretched spring. Use **Hooke's law:** The restoring force of a spring is proportional to its total elongation. Determine a differential equation for the displacement $x(t)$ at time t.

20. In Problem 19, what is a differential equation for the displacement $x(t)$ if the motion takes place in a medium that imparts a damping force on the spring/mass system that is proportional to the instantaneous velocity of the mass and acts in a direction opposite to that of motion?

Newton's Second Law and the Law of Universal Gravitation

21. By **Newton's universal law of gravitation** the free-fall acceleration a of a body, such as the satellite shown in Figure 1.3.18, falling a great distance to the surface is *not* the constant g. Rather, the acceleration a is inversely proportional to the square of the distance from the center of the Earth, $a = k/r^2$, where k is the constant of proportionality. Use the fact that at the surface of the Earth $r = R$ and $a = g$ to determine k. If the positive direction is upward, use Newton's second law and his universal law of gravitation to find a differential equation for the distance r.

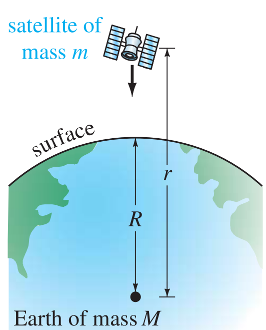


FIGURE 1.3.18 Satellite in Problem 21

22. Suppose a hole is drilled through the center of the Earth and a bowling ball of mass m is dropped into the hole, as shown in Figure 1.3.19. Construct a mathematical model that describes the motion of the ball. At time t let r denote the distance from the center of the Earth to the mass m, M denote the mass of the Earth, M_r denote the mass of that portion of the Earth within a sphere of radius r, and δ denote the constant density of the Earth.

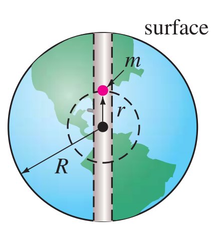


FIGURE 1.3.19 Hole through Earth in Problem 22

Additional Mathematical Models

23. Learning Theory In the theory of learning, the rate at which a subject is memorized is assumed to be proportional to the amount that is left to be memorized. Suppose M denotes the total amount of a subject to be memorized and $A(t)$ is the amount memorized in time t. Determine a differential equation for the amount $A(t)$.

24. Forgetfulness In Problem 23 assume that the rate at which material is *forgotten* is proportional to the amount memorized in time t. Determine a differential equation for the amount $A(t)$ when forgetfulness is taken into account.

25. Infusion of a Drug A drug is infused into a patient's bloodstream at a constant rate of r grams per second. Simultaneously, the drug is removed at a rate proportional to the amount $x(t)$ of the drug present at time t. Determine a differential equation for the amount $x(t)$.

26. Tractrix A person P, starting at the origin, moves in the direction of the positive x-axis, pulling a weight along the curve C, called a **tractrix,** as shown in Figure 1.3.20. The weight, initially located on the y-axis at $(0, s)$, is pulled by a rope of constant length s, which is kept taut throughout the motion. Determine a differential equation for the path C of motion. Assume that the rope is always tangent to C.

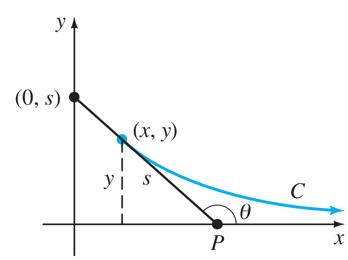


FIGURE 1.3.20 Tractrix curve in Problem 26

27. Reflecting Surface Assume that when the plane curve C shown in Figure 1.3.21 is revolved about the x-axis, it generates a surface of revolution with the property that all light rays L parallel to the x-axis striking the surface are reflected to a single point O (the origin). Use the fact that the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection to determine a differential equation that

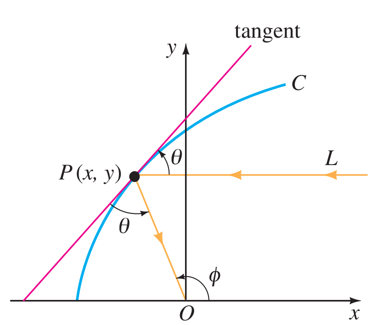


FIGURE 1.3.21 Reflecting surface in Problem 27

describes the shape of the curve C. Such a curve C is important in applications ranging from construction of telescopes to satellite antennas, automobile headlights, and solar collectors. [*Hint*: Inspection of the figure shows that we can write $\phi = 2\theta$. Why? Now use an appropriate trigonometric identity.]

Discussion Problems

28. Reread Problem 41 in Exercises 1.1 and then give an explicit solution $P(t)$ for equation (1). Find a one-parameter family of solutions of (1).

29. Reread the sentence following equation (3) and assume that T_m is a positive constant. Discuss why we would expect $k < 0$ in (3) in both cases of cooling and warming. You might start by interpreting, say, $T(t) > T_m$ in a graphical manner.

30. Reread the discussion leading up to equation (8). If we assume that initially the tank holds, say, 50 lb of salt, it stands to reason that because salt is being added to the tank continuously for $t > 0$, $A(t)$ should be an increasing function. Discuss how you might determine from the DE, without actually solving it, the number of pounds of salt in the tank after a long period of time.

31. Population Model The differential equation $\dfrac{dP}{dt} = (k \cos t)P$, where k is a positive constant, is a model of human population $P(t)$ of a certain community. Discuss an interpretation for the solution of this equation. In other words, what kind of population do you think the differential equation describes?

32. Rotating Fluid As shown in Figure 1.3.22(a), a right-circular cylinder partially filled with fluid is rotated with a constant angular velocity ω about a vertical y-axis through its center. The rotating fluid forms a surface of revolution S. To identify S, we first establish a coordinate system consisting of a vertical plane determined by the y-axis and an x-axis drawn perpendicular to the y-axis such that the point of intersection of the axes (the origin) is located at the lowest point on the surface S. We then seek a function $y = f(x)$ that represents the curve C of intersection of the surface S and the vertical coordinate plane. Let the point $P(x, y)$ denote the position of a particle of the rotating fluid of mass m in the coordinate plane. See Figure 1.3.22(b).

(a) At P there is a reaction force of magnitude F due to the other particles of the fluid which is normal to the surface S. By Newton's second law the magnitude of the net force acting on the particle is $m\omega^2 x$. What is this force? Use Figure 1.3.22(b) to discuss the nature and origin of the equations

$$F \cos\theta = mg, \qquad F \sin\theta = m\omega^2 x.$$

(b) Use part (a) to find a first-order differential equation that defines the function $y = f(x)$.

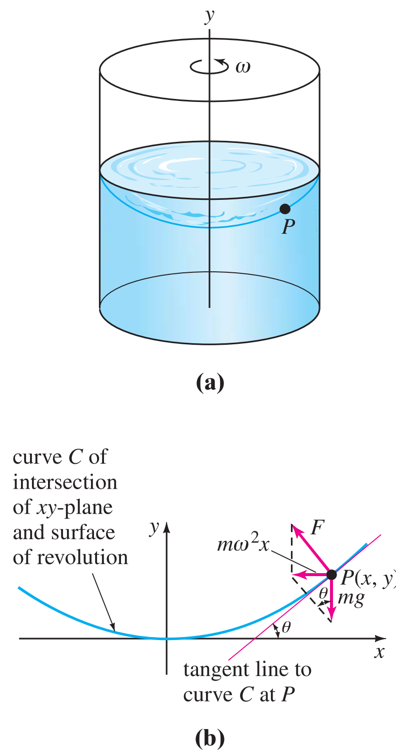


FIGURE 1.3.22 Rotating fluid in Problem 32

33. Falling Body In Problem 21, suppose $r = R + s$, where s is the distance from the surface of the Earth to the falling body. What does the differential equation obtained in Problem 21 become when s is very small in comparison to R? [*Hint*: Think binomial series for

$$(R + s)^{-2} = R^{-2}(1 + s/R)^{-2}.]$$

34. Raindrops Keep Falling In meteorology the term *virga* refers to falling raindrops or ice particles that evaporate before they reach the ground. Assume that a typical raindrop is spherical. Starting at some time, which we can designate as $t = 0$, the raindrop of radius r_0 falls from rest from a cloud and begins to evaporate.

(a) If it is assumed that a raindrop evaporates in such a manner that its shape remains spherical, then it also makes sense to assume that the rate at which the raindrop evaporates—that is, the rate at which it loses mass—is proportional to its surface area. Show that this latter assumption implies that the rate at which the radius r of the raindrop decreases is a constant. Find $r(t)$. [*Hint*: See Problem 51 in Exercises 1.1.]

(b) If the positive direction is downward, construct a mathematical model for the velocity v of the falling raindrop at time t. Ignore air resistance. [*Hint*: When the mass m of an object is changing with time, Newton's second law becomes $F = \dfrac{d}{dt}(mv)$, where F is the net force acting on the body and mv is its momentum.]

35. Let It Snow The "snowplow problem" is a classic and appears in many differential equations texts but was probably made famous by Ralph Palmer Agnew:

> *"One day it started snowing at a heavy and steady rate. A snowplow started out at noon, going 2 miles the first hour and 1 mile the second hour. What time did it start snowing?"*

Find the text *Differential Equations,* Ralph Palmer Agnew, McGraw-Hill Book Co., and then discuss the construction and solution of the mathematical model.

36. Reread this section and classify each mathematical model as linear or nonlinear.

CHAPTER 1 IN REVIEW

Answers to selected odd-numbered problems begin on page ANS-1.

In Problems 1 and 2 fill in the blank and then write this result as a linear first-order differential equation that is free of the symbol c_1 and has the form $dy/dx = f(x, y)$. The symbol c_1 represents a constant.

1. $\dfrac{d}{dx} c_1 e^{10x} =$ ________

2. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(5 + c_1 e^{-2x}) =$ ________

In Problems 3 and 4 fill in the blank and then write this result as a linear second-order differential equation that is free of the symbols c_1 and c_2 and has the form $F(y, y'') = 0$. The symbols c_1, c_2, and k represent constants.

3. $\dfrac{d^2}{dx^2}(c_1 \cos kx + c_2 \sin kx) =$ ________

4. $\dfrac{d^2}{dx^2}(c_1 \cosh kx + c_2 \sinh kx) =$ ________

In Problems 5 and 6 compute y' and y'' and then combine these derivatives with y as a linear second-order differential equation that is free of the symbols c_1 and c_2 and has the form $F(y, y' y'') = 0$. The symbols c_1 and c_2 represent constants.

5. $y = c_1 e^x + c_2 x e^x$ **6.** $y = c_1 e^x \cos x + c_2 e^x \sin x$

In Problems 7–12 match each of the given differential equations with one or more of these solutions:

(a) $y = 0$, **(b)** $y = 2$, **(c)** $y = 2x$, **(d)** $y = 2x^2$.

7. $xy' = 2y$ **8.** $y' = 2$

9. $y' = 2y - 4$ **10.** $xy' = y$

11. $y'' + 9y = 18$ **12.** $xy'' - y' = 0$

In Problems 13 and 14 determine by inspection at least one solution of the given differential equation.

13. $y'' = y'$ **14.** $y' = y(y - 3)$

In Problems 15 and 16 interpret each statement as a differential equation.

15. On the graph of $y = \phi(x)$ the slope of the tangent line at a point $P(x, y)$ is the square of the distance from $P(x, y)$ to the origin.

16. On the graph of $y = \phi(x)$ the rate at which the slope changes with respect to x at a point $P(x, y)$ is the negative of the slope of the tangent line at $P(x, y)$.

17. **(a)** Give the domain of the function $y = x^{2/3}$.

(b) Give the largest interval I of definition over which $y = x^{2/3}$ is solution of the differential equation $3xy' - 2y = 0$.

18. **(a)** Verify that the one-parameter family $y^2 - 2y = x^2 - x + c$ is an implicit solution of the differential equation $(2y - 2)y' = 2x - 1$.

(b) Find a member of the one-parameter family in part (a) that satisfies the initial condition $y(0) = 1$.

(c) Use your result in part (b) to find an explicit *function* $y = \phi(x)$ that satisfies $y(0) = 1$. Give the domain of the function ϕ. Is $y = \phi(x)$ a *solution* of the initial-value problem? If so, give its interval I of definition; if not, explain.

19. Given that $y = x - 2/x$ is a solution of the DE $xy' + y = 2x$. Find x_0 and the largest interval I for which $y(x)$ is a solution of the first-order IVP $xy' + y = 2x$, $y(x_0) = 1$.

20. Suppose that $y(x)$ denotes a solution of the first-order IVP $y' = x^2 + y^2$, $y(1) = -1$ and that $y(x)$ possesses at least a second derivative at $x = 1$. In some neighborhood of $x = 1$ use the DE to determine whether $y(x)$ is increasing or decreasing and whether the graph $y(x)$ is concave up or concave down.

21. A differential equation may possess more than one family of solutions.

(a) Plot different members of the families $y = \phi_1(x) = x^2 + c_1$ and $y = \phi_2(x) = -x^2 + c_2$.

(b) Verify that $y = \phi_1(x)$ and $y = \phi_2(x)$ are two solutions of the nonlinear first-order differential equation $(y')^2 = 4x^2$.

(c) Construct a piecewise-defined function that is a solution of the nonlinear DE in part (b) but is not a member of either family of solutions in part (a).

22. What is the slope of the tangent line to the graph of a solution of $y' = 6\sqrt{y} + 5x^3$ that passes through $(-1, 4)$?

In Problems 23–26 verify that the indicated function is a particular solution of the given differential equation. Give an interval of definition I for each solution.

23. $y'' + y = 2 \cos x - 2 \sin x$; $y = x \sin x + x \cos x$

24. $y'' + y = \sec x$; $y = x \sin x + (\cos x)\ln(\cos x)$

25. $x^2y'' + xy' + y = 0; \quad y = \sin(\ln x)$

26. $x^2y'' + xy' + y = \sec(\ln x);$
$y = \cos(\ln x)\ln(\cos(\ln x)) + (\ln x)\sin(\ln x)$

In Problems 27–30, $y = c_1e^{3x} + c_2e^{-x} - 2x$ is a two-parameter family of the second-order DE $y'' - 2y' - 3y = 6x + 4$. Find a solution of the second-order IVP consisting of this differential equation and the given initial conditions.

27. $y(0) = 0, y'(0) = 0$

28. $y(0) = 1, y'(0) = -3$

29. $y(1) = 4, y'(1) = -2$

30. $y(-1) = 0, y'(-1) = 1$

31. The graph of a solution of a second-order initial-value problem $d^2y/dx^2 = f(x, y, y'), y(2) = y_0, y'(2) = y_1$, is given in Figure 1.R.1. Use the graph to estimate the values of y_0 and y_1.

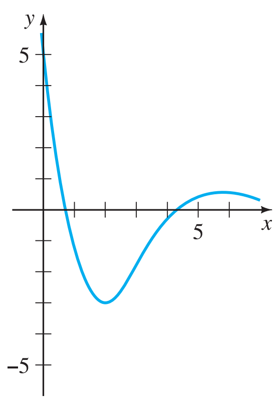


FIGURE 1.R.1 Graph for Problem 31

32. A tank in the form of a right-circular cylinder of radius 2 feet and height 10 feet is standing on end. If the tank is initially full of water and water leaks from a circular hole of radius $\frac{1}{2}$ inch at its bottom, determine a differential equation for the height h of the water at time t. Ignore friction and contraction of water at the hole.

33. The number of field mice in a certain pasture is given by the function $200 - 10t$, where time t is measured in years. Determine a differential equation governing a population of owls that feed on the mice if the rate at which the owl population grows is proportional to the difference between the number of owls at time t and number of field mice at time t.

34. Suppose that $dA/dt = -0.0004332\,A(t)$ represents a mathematical model for the radioactive decay of radium-226, where $A(t)$ is the amount of radium (measured in grams) remaining at time t (measured in years). How much of the radium sample remains at the time t when the sample is decaying at a rate of 0.002 gram per year?