

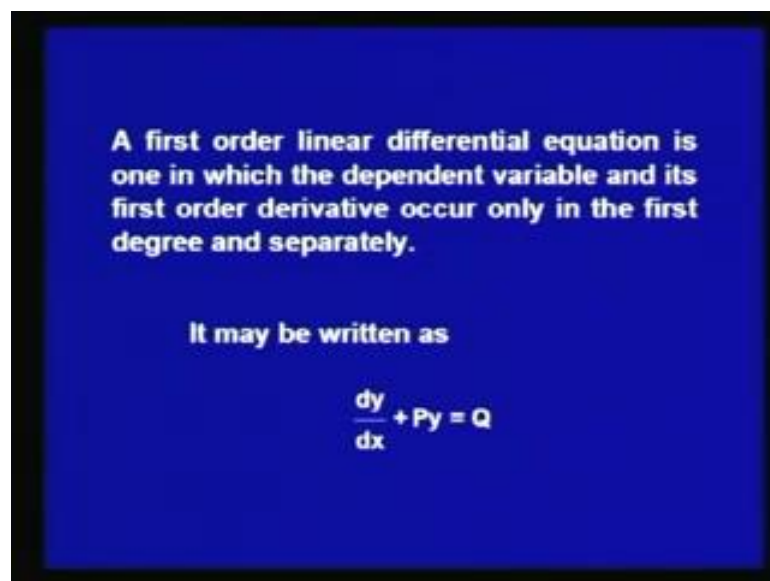
Mathematics - III
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Lecture - 2
Linear Differential Equations of the First Order and Orthogonal Trajectories

Dear viewers, in our last lecture we had discussed some standard techniques to obtain the exact solutions of certain categories of ordinary differential equations of first order and first degree. The categories of differential equations that we had considered were the differential equations in which the variables x and y can be separated or the ones in which the variables, the differential equation can be brought to the variable separable form after a certain substitution.

The second category of differential equation that we had considered where the homogeneous differential equations are the differential equations that are reducible to homogeneous form. And the third category of differential equation that we had considered where the exact differential equations are the differential equations, that can be brought to the exact form after a multiplication by a suitable function of x and y called the integrating factor. Now, in our today's lecture we will discuss Linear Differential Equation of the First Order and Orthogonal Trajectory.

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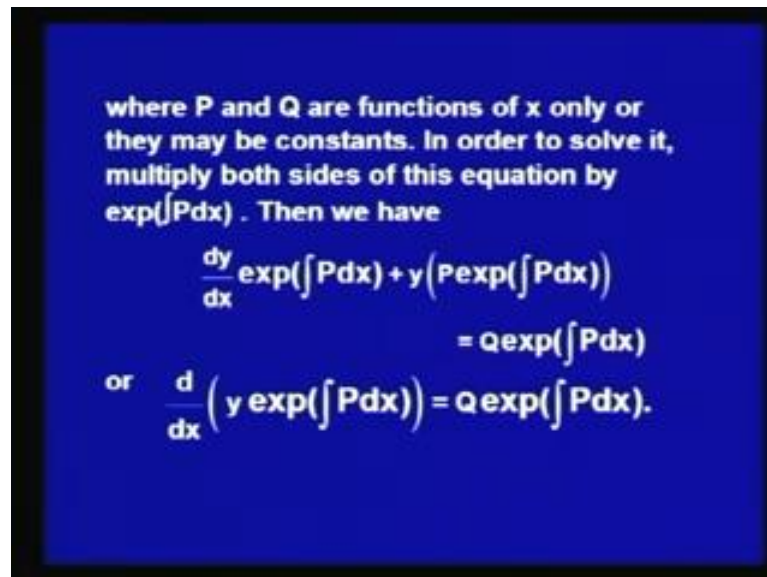
A first order linear differential equation is one in which the dependent variable and its first order derivative occur only in the first degree and separately.

It may be written as

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q$$

A first order linear differential equation is one in which the dependent variable and its first order derivative occur only in the first degree and separately. We may write the differential equation as $\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q$ where y is the dependent variable and x is the independent variable.

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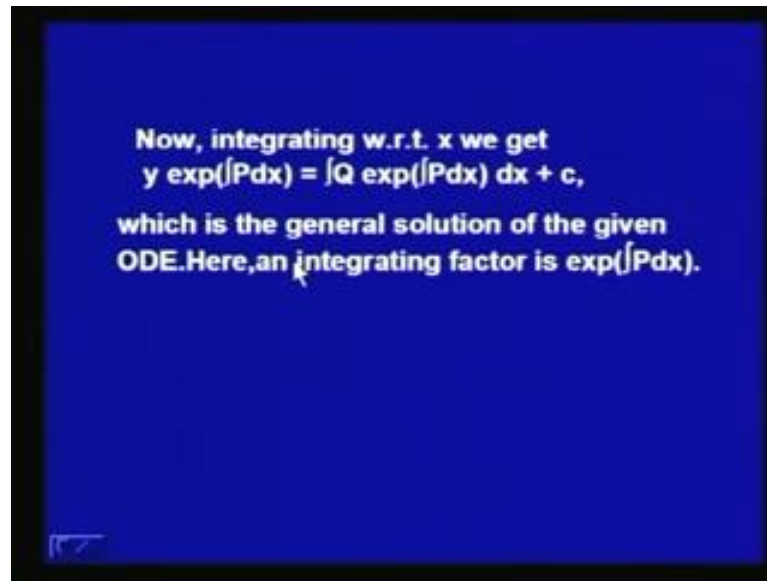
where P and Q are functions of x only or they may be constants. In order to solve it, multiply both sides of this equation by $\exp(\int P dx)$. Then we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} \exp(\int P dx) + y (P \exp(\int P dx)) = Q \exp(\int P dx)$$

or $\frac{d}{dx} (y \exp(\int P dx)) = Q \exp(\int P dx).$

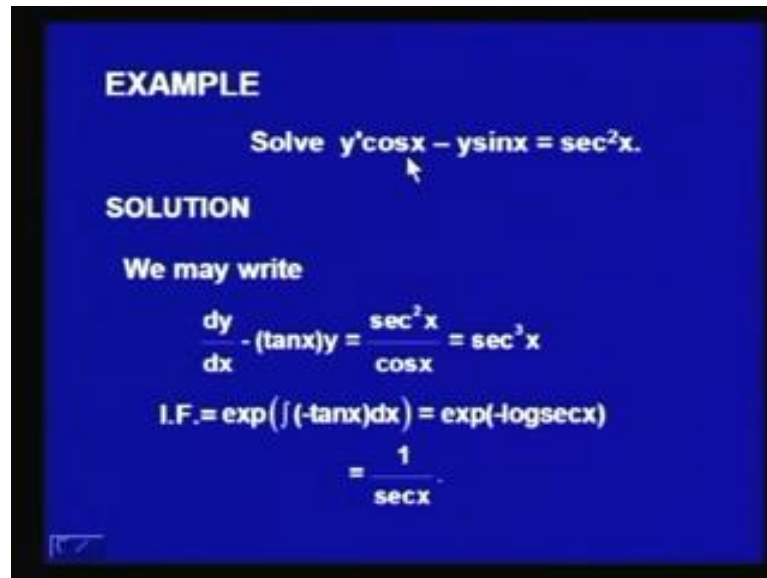
The P and Q are both functions of x only or constants, we can note that in the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q$, the coefficient of $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is unity. In order to solve this differential equation, let us multiply both sides of this differential equation by the function exponential of integral $P dx$. When we do so we get, $\frac{dy}{dx}$ into exponential of integral $P dx$ plus y times P into exponential of integral $P dx$ equal to Q into exponential of integral $P dx$. Now, let us note that the left hand side of this equation is the derivative of y in to e to the power integral $P dx$ and therefore, we have $\frac{d}{dx}$ of y in to exponential of integral $P dx$ equal to Q into exponential of integral $P dx$.

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Now, let us integrate both sides of this equation with respect to x , we shall have y into exponential of integral $P dx$ equal to integral of Q into exponential of integral $P dx dx$ plus c , where c is an arbitrary constant. And thus this equation gives us the general solution of the given ordinary differential equation of first order, which is linear. Now, since on multiplying the linear differential equation of first order by the function exponential of integral $P dx$. We note that the left hand side becomes an exact differential of y in to e to the power integral $P dx$ that is why we call the function exponential of integral $P dx$ as an integrating factor. So, when we solve the linear differential equation of first order, the function e to the power integral $P dx$ will be called an integrating factor.

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EXAMPLE

Solve $y'\cos x - y\sin x = \sec^2 x$.

SOLUTION

We may write

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - (\tan x)y = \frac{\sec^2 x}{\cos x} = \sec^3 x$$
$$\text{I.F.} = \exp\left(\int (-\tan x)dx\right) = \exp(-\log \sec x)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sec x}$$

Now, let us try to solve a differential equation which can be brought to the linear form, suppose we consider the differential equation as $y' \cos x - y \sin x = \sec^2 x$. Then we can see that we may write this differential equation as $\frac{dy}{dx} - \tan x \cdot y = \frac{\sec^2 x}{\cos x} = \sec^3 x$, we have to divide this differential equation by $\cos x$ to make the coefficient of $\frac{dy}{dx}$ unity.

Now, here if you compare this equation $\frac{dy}{dx} - \tan x \cdot y = \sec^3 x$ with this standard form of a linear differential equation of first order, we note that P is equal to $-\tan x$, while Q is equal to $\sec^3 x$. And so an integrating factor is e to the power integral of $-\tan x \, dx$, after integration of $-\tan x$ we get $-\log \sec x$. So, we get the integrating factor as exponential of $-\log \sec x$, which may be written as exponential of $\log \frac{1}{\sec x}$ and e to the power $\log \frac{1}{\sec x}$ will be $\frac{1}{\sec x}$, so integrating factor is $\frac{1}{\sec x}$ or we may also call it $\cos x$.

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Multiplying by this I.F. throughout the given equation & integrating, we get

$$\frac{1}{\sec x} y = \int \sec^2 x \, dx + c = \tan x + c$$

\uparrow
 $y = \sec x (\tan x + c),$

which gives us the general solution
of the given differential equation.

Now, let us multiply this integrating factor throughout the given linear differential equation ((Refer Time: 05:36)) $y' + \tan x \cdot y = \sec^3 x$, we shall have after integration with respect to x , $\frac{1}{\sec x} y = \int \sec^2 x \, dx + c$. Now, integral of $\sec^2 x$ we know it is $\tan x$, so we have the right hand side as $\tan x + c$ after multiplying by $\sec x$ this equation becomes $y = \sec x (\tan x + c)$, which gives us the general solution of the given differential equation.

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Example: Solve

$$x(1-x^2) \frac{dy}{dx} + (2x^2-1)y = x^3$$

Dividing by $x(1-x^2)$, the given equation becomes

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

Hence the integrating factor

$$= e^{\int \frac{(2x^2-1)}{x(1-x^2)} dx}$$
$$= \exp \left[\int -\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{2(1-x)} - \frac{1}{2(1+x)} dx \right]$$

Now, let us take one more example on a linear differential equation of first order, the equation is $x^2(1-x^2) \frac{dy}{dx} + 2x^2y = x^3$. So, here again we shall divide this differential equation by $x^2(1-x^2)$ in order to bring it to the standard form. So, divide by $x^2(1-x^2)$, we find that $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{2y}{1-x^2} = \frac{x}{1-x^2}$.

Now, when we compare with the standard form we note that P is equal to $\frac{2x^2}{x^2(1-x^2)}$ and Q is $\frac{x^3}{x^2(1-x^2)}$. So, the integrating factor here will be $e^{\int \frac{2x^2}{x^2(1-x^2)} dx}$, now let us break $\frac{2x^2}{x^2(1-x^2)}$ into partial fractions, the denominator has factors $x(1-x)(1+x)$. So, we will have the partial fractions of the function $\frac{2x^2}{x^2(1-x^2)}$ as $\frac{-1}{x} + \frac{2}{1-x} - \frac{2}{1+x}$, we then integrate those functions.

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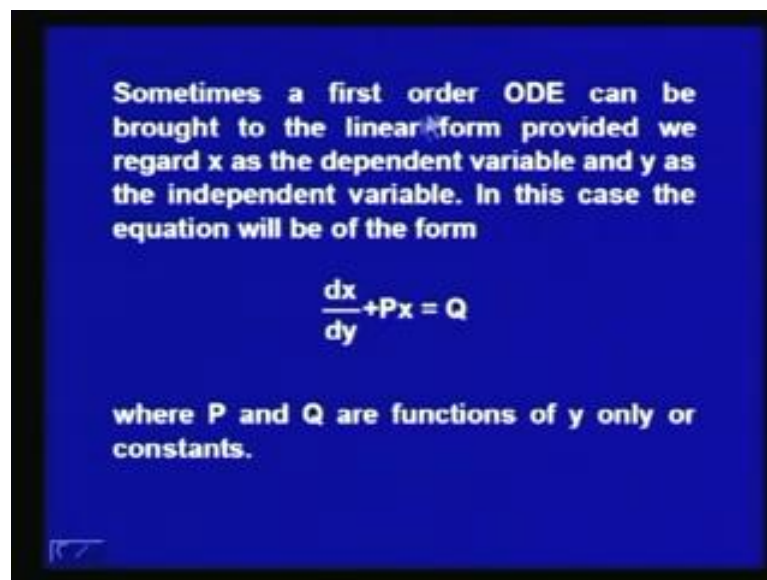
$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \exp \left[-\log x - \frac{1}{2} \log(1-x) - \frac{1}{2} \log(1+x) \right] \\
 &= \exp \left(-\log x \sqrt{(1-x^2)} \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{x \sqrt{(1-x^2)}} \\
 \text{Hence, the general solution is} \\
 y \frac{1}{x \sqrt{(1-x^2)}} &= \int \frac{x^2}{(1-x^2)} \cdot \frac{1}{x \sqrt{(1-x^2)}} dx + c \\
 &= \int \frac{x}{(1-x^2)^{3/2}} + c = (1-x^2)^{-1/2} + c \\
 \text{or } y &= x + c x \sqrt{(1-x^2)}
 \end{aligned}$$

And find the integrating factor as $e^{-\log x - \frac{1}{2} \log(1-x) - \frac{1}{2} \log(1+x)}$, which is equal to $e^{-\log x \sqrt{(1-x^2)}}$ which is also equal to $\frac{1}{x \sqrt{(1-x^2)}}$. And hence, the general solution is the dependent variable y into the integrating factor $\frac{1}{x \sqrt{(1-x^2)}}$ equal to integral of Q, that is $\frac{x^3}{x^2(1-x^2)}$

into the integrating factor $\frac{1}{x \sqrt{1-x^2}}$ into $\int \frac{dx}{x \sqrt{1-x^2}}$ plus c , which is equal to $\int \frac{dx}{x \sqrt{1-x^2}}$ raised to the power $\frac{3}{2}$ plus c .

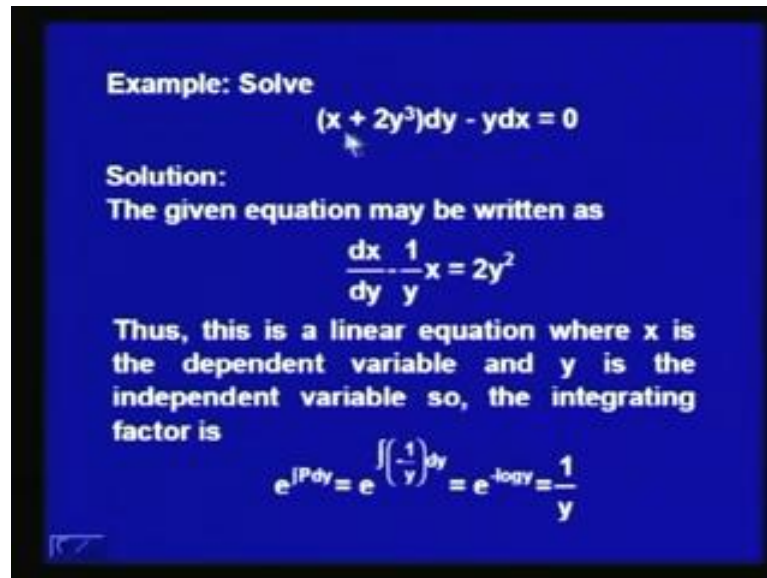
Now, here when you put $1-x^2$ as t and then change the variable from x to t we can easily show that the integral of this is $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ plus c . And so we get the right hand side as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ plus c , now we multiply this equation by $x \sqrt{1-x^2}$ and then obtain y equal to $x \sqrt{1-x^2}$ plus c into $x \sqrt{1-x^2}$, which is the general solution of the given differential equation.

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Now, sometimes what happens is that, a first order ordinary differential equation is not in the form which we have discussed earlier that is $\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q$. But, it can be brought to the linear form provided we regard x as the dependant variable and y as the independent variable that is we interchange the rows of x and y . So, in this case the equation will be of the form $\frac{dx}{dy} + Px = Q$, where P and Q now will be functions of y only or they will be constants.

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Example: Solve
 $(x + 2y^3)dy - ydx = 0$

Solution:
The given equation may be written as

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

Thus, this is a linear equation where x is the dependent variable and y is the independent variable so, the integrating factor is

$$e^{\int P dy} = e^{\int \left(-\frac{1}{y}\right) dy} = e^{-\log y} = \frac{1}{y}$$

Let us take an example of this differential equation of this type, x plus $2y$ cube into dy minus $y dx$ equal to 0 , then we can write this differential equation as $\frac{dx}{dy} - \frac{1}{y}x = 2y^2$. So, if you compare it with the form $\frac{dx}{dy} + P x = Q$, we note that P is minus 1 over y and Q is $2y^2$. And therefore, it is a linear differential equation, where x is taken as the dependent variable and y as the independent variable.

And so the integrating factor will be e to the power integral $P dy$, which is equal to e to the power minus 1 over y integral of minus 1 over $y dy$, an integral of minus 1 over y with respect to y is minus $\log y$, so we have e to the power minus $\log y$, which is equal to 1 over y . First the integrating factor is 1 over y and so let us multiply the differential equation $\frac{dx}{dy} - \frac{1}{y}x = 2y^2$ by the integrating factor 1 over y .

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Thus, we have the general solution as

$$x \cdot \frac{1}{y} = \int 2y^2 \cdot \frac{1}{y} dy + c$$

or $x \left(\frac{1}{y} \right) = y^2 + c$

or $x = y(y^2 + c)$

Note that if we write the given ODE as follows:

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

An integrate with respect to y, we find that the general solution is the dependent variable x into the integrating factor 1 over y equal to integral of Q, which is 2 y square into the integrating factor 1 over y d y plus c. After the integration on the right side, we get the solution of the differential equation as x into 1 over y equal to y square plus c or we may write it as x equal to y into y square plus c, which is the general solution of the given differential equation. Now, let us note the following that the given ODE can also be expressed as x d y minus y d x over y square equal to minus 2 y d y.

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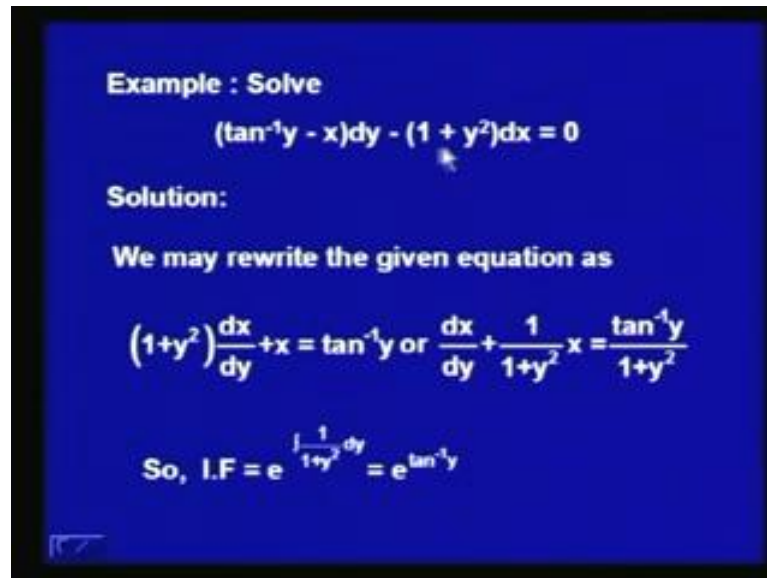
We can obtain the general solution by inspection only because then we will have

$$d \left(\frac{x}{y} \right) = d(-y^2)$$

$\Rightarrow -\frac{x}{y} = -y^2 + c'$ or $x = y(y^2 + c)$ where $c' = -c$

And so we can obtain the general solution of this ODE by inspection also, because the left hand side is the differential of minus x over y and the right hand side is the differential of minus y square. And so when we integrate on both sides, we find the general solution as minus x over y equal to minus y square plus c dash or x square equal to y into y square plus c, where c dash is equal to minus c.

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Example : Solve
 $(\tan^{-1}y - x)dy - (1 + y^2)dx = 0$

Solution:
 We may rewrite the given equation as

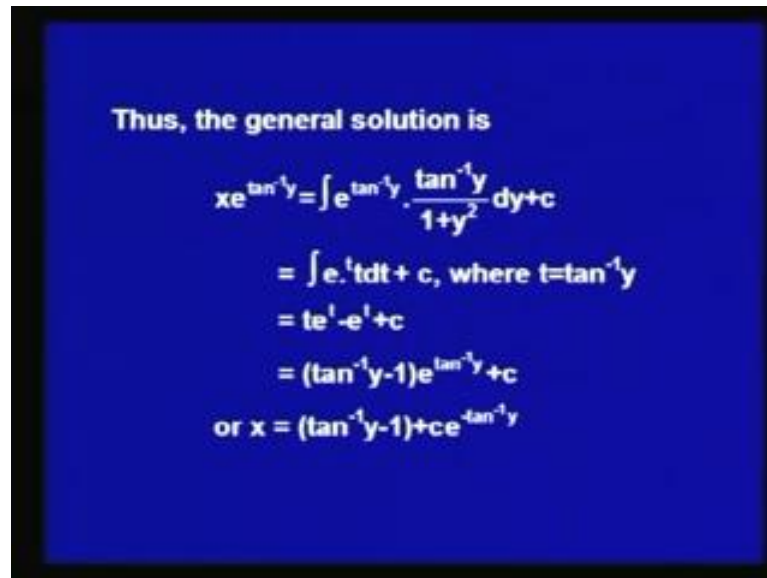
$$(1+y^2) \frac{dx}{dy} + x = \tan^{-1}y \text{ or } \frac{dx}{dy} + \frac{1}{1+y^2}x = \frac{\tan^{-1}y}{1+y^2}$$

So, I.F = $e^{\int \frac{1}{1+y^2} dy} = e^{\tan^{-1}y}$

Let us take an example, one more example of differential equation of this type, say tan inverse y minus x into d y minus 1 plus y square into d x equal to 0. Now, we can write this differential equation in the form 1 plus y square into d x over d y plus x equal to tan inverse y or we may also write it as d x over d y plus 1 over 1 plus y square into x equal to tan inverse y over 1 plus y square.

So, it is a linear differential equation of first order in the variable x, the dependent variable is x, the independent variable is y and when we compare with this standard form P is 1 over 1 plus y square, while Q is tan inverse y over 1 plus y square. So, integrating factor is equal to e to the power integral of 1 over 1 plus y square d y, which is equal to e to the power tan inverse y.

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Thus, the general solution is

$$\begin{aligned}xe^{\tan^{-1}y} &= \int e^{\tan^{-1}y} \cdot \frac{\tan^{-1}y}{1+y^2} dy + c \\ &= \int e^t dt + c, \text{ where } t = \tan^{-1}y \\ &= te^t - e^t + c \\ &= (\tan^{-1}y - 1)e^{\tan^{-1}y} + c \\ \text{or } x &= (\tan^{-1}y - 1) + ce^{-\tan^{-1}y}\end{aligned}$$

And hence, the general solution is x into e to the power $\tan^{-1}y$ equal to e to the power $\tan^{-1}y$ into $\tan^{-1}y$ over $1 + y^2$ $dy + c$. Now, let us take $\tan^{-1}y$ equal to t here, then we will note that 1 over $1 + y^2$ dy is equal to dt and so the integral on the right hand side will reduce to integral of e to the power t into t $dt + c$.

And the integral of t into e to the power t integration by parts will come out to be t into e to the power t minus e to the power t plus c . And let us now put the value of t that is $\tan^{-1}y$, we will have the right hand side equal to $\tan^{-1}y$ minus 1 into e to the power $\tan^{-1}y$ plus c . And so we multiply the given the solution x into e to the power $\tan^{-1}y$ equal to $\tan^{-1}y$ minus 1 into e to the power $\tan^{-1}y$ plus c by the reciprocal of e to the power $\tan^{-1}y$. And get the general solution of the given differential equation as x equal to $\tan^{-1}y$ minus 1 plus c into e to the power minus $\tan^{-1}y$.

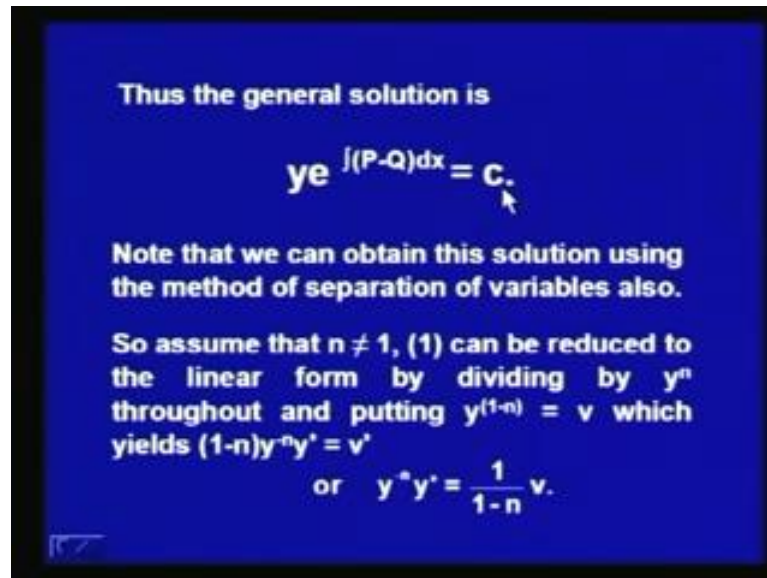
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Equations reducible to linear form:
The differential equation
$$y' + P y = Q y^n, \quad (1)$$
where P & Q are functions of x alone or constants is known as Bernoulli's equation after the Swiss Mathematician James Bernoulli (1654-1705).
Here, evidently $n \neq 1$ because otherwise the equation will be linear. When $n = 1$ we will have
$$\frac{dy}{dx} + (P - Q)y = 0$$
Hence I.F. = $e^{\int(P-Q)dx}$

Next we consider the differential equations that are reducible to linear form, let us consider the differential equation y dash plus $P y$ equal to Q into y to the power n , where P and Q are functions of x only or they are constants. This equation is known as Bernoulli's equation, after the Swiss mathematician James Bernoulli 1654 to 1705, now let us note here that here n is not equal to 1.

Because, if n is equal to 1 then y dash plus $P y$ equal to $Q y$ will be giving us $d y$ over $d x$ plus P minus Q into y equal to 0, which will be a linear differential equation of first order in the dependant variable y . And so integrating factor will be e to the power integral P minus Q into $d x$.

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Thus the general solution is

$$ye^{\int(P-Q)dx} = c$$

Note that we can obtain this solution using the method of separation of variables also.

So assume that $n \neq 1$, (1) can be reduced to the linear form by dividing by y^n throughout and putting $y^{(1-n)} = v$ which yields $(1-n)y^{-n}y' = v'$

$$\text{or } y^{-n}y' = \frac{1}{1-n} v.$$

And so that is we can find the general solution as y into e to the power integral P minus Q dx equal to c , where c is an arbitrary constant, note that we can obtain this solution using the method of separation of variables. We can write ((Refer Time: 15:47)) this equation $\frac{dy}{dx} + P y = Q y^n$ as $\frac{dy}{y} + \frac{P}{y} = \frac{Q}{y^{1-n}}$ into dx .

So, we are able to separate the variables x and y and therefore, we can obtain the general solution of that differential equation, which will again be the same as y into e to the power integral P minus Q dx equal to c . Now, so we assume that n is not equal to 1 and then the differential equation $y' + P y = Q y^n$, can be reduced to the linear form by dividing by y to the power n .

((Refer Time: 16:35)) When you divide by y to the power n , what do get is y to the power minus n into y' plus P into y to the power $1 - n$ equal to Q and then what we will do is we will put y to the power $1 - n$ equal to v . Now, here we differentiate with respect to x , we will get $1 - n$ y to the power minus n into dy by dx which is y' equal to dv by dx which we have denoted by v' . And so since n is not equal to 1, we can divide this equation by $1 - n$ giving us y to the power minus n into y' equal to $\frac{1}{1 - n} v'$.

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Hence, $\frac{1}{1-n} v' + P v = Q$
or
 $v' + (1-n) P v = (1-n) Q,$
which is a linear differential equation of first order with v as the dependant variable.
Thus, I.F. = $\exp(\int(1-n)P dx) = \exp((1-n)\int P dx).$
Hence the general solution is
 $v(I.F.) = (1-n) \int Q(I.F.) dx + c$

And hence, the equation becomes $\frac{1}{1-n} v' + P v = Q$ or after multiplying by $1-n$ we get $v' + (1-n) P v = (1-n) Q$. So, this is a linear differential equation of first order in the dependant variable v , where the coefficient of v is $(1-n) P$, which is our new P and the right hand side is $(1-n) Q$, which is the new Q .

And so we can find the integrating factor here as $e^{\int (1-n) P dx}$, which is equal to $e^{(1-n) \int P dx}$. And so the general solution of this equation we may write the dependant variable v into the integrating factor equal to $(1-n) \int Q e^{\int (1-n) P dx} dx + c$.

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EXAMPLE

Solve

$$x^3 y' = x^2 y - y^4 \cos x, \quad y(0) = 1$$

Let us take an example of a differential equation $x^3 y' = x^2 y - y^4 \cos x$, where we are given the initial condition that at $x = 0$, y is equal to 1. So, in order to solve this differential equation first what we will do is, we will divide by x^3 .

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SOLUTION

We may write the given ODE as

$$y' - \frac{1}{x} y = \frac{-y^4 \cos x}{x^3}$$
$$y^4 y' - \frac{1}{x} y^3 = \frac{-\cos x}{x^3}$$

Let $-y^{-3} = v$ then $3y^{-4} y' = v'$

$$\frac{1}{3} v' + \frac{1}{x} v = \frac{-\cos x}{x^3}$$

When we divide by x^3 , we can write the differential equation as $y' - \frac{1}{x} y = \frac{-y^4 \cos x}{x^3}$. Now, this is not a linear differential equation in y , but it can be made linear if we divide it by y^4 and then put

minus y to the power minus 3 equal to v . So, when we divide by minus with y to the power 4 we get y to the power minus 4 into y dash minus 1 over x into y to the power minus 3 equal to minus $\cos x$ over x cube.

Now, let us put minus y to the power minus 3 equal to v , then when we differentiate with respect to x , we will have 3 into y to the power minus 4 into y dash equal to v dash. So, making use of this the equation reduces to 1 by 3 into v dash plus 1 over x into v equal to minus $\cos x$ over x cube.

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or $v' + \frac{3}{x}v = \frac{-3\cos x}{x^3}$

Hence I.F. = $e^{\int \frac{3}{x} dx} = e^{3 \log x} = x^3$.

Multiplying by the I.F. & integrating, we get

$$x^3 v = -3 \sin x + c$$

or $\frac{-x^3}{y^3} = -3 \sin x + c$

is the general solution.

Or we may write it as v dash plus 3 over x into v equal to minus 3 $\cos x$ over x cube, now let us find, so this is a linear differential equation of first order in the dependant variable v . So, let us find the integrating factor here it is e to the power integral 3 over x d x or e to the power 3 $\log x$ which is equal to x cube; let us multiply the equation v dash plus 3 over x v equal to minus 3 $\cos x$ over x cube by the integrating factor x cube.

And integrate with respect to x , we shall have x cube which is the integrating factor into the dependant variable v equal to minus 3 $\sin x$ plus c after integration with respect to x or we will have minus x cube upon y cube equal to minus 3 $\sin x$ plus c , where we have put the value of v as minus 1 upon y cube. So, minus x cube on y cube equal to x plus c gives us the general solution of the given differential equation.

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An equation of the form

$$f(y) \frac{dy}{dx} + Pf(y) = Q,$$

where P and Q are functions of x only or constants can also be reduced to the linear form. If we put $f(y) = v$ then

$$f'(y) \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dv}{dx}$$

and so the given equation becomes

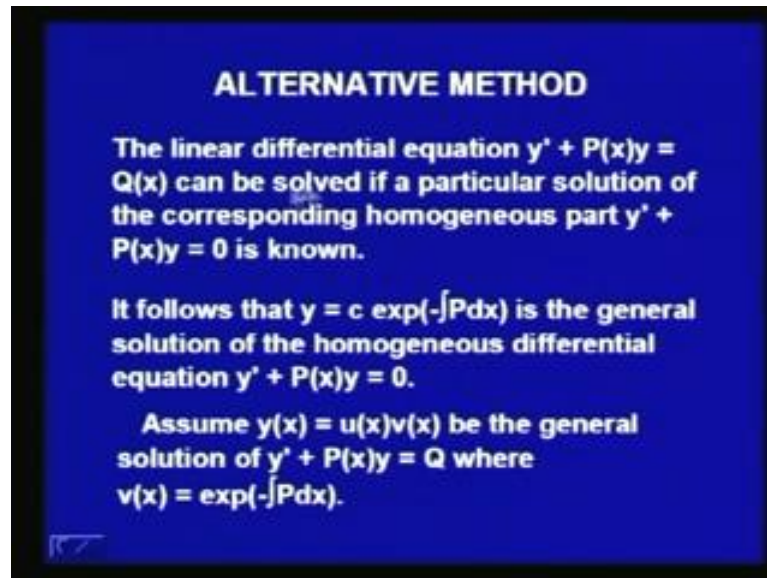
$$\frac{dv}{dx} + Pv = Q$$

which is a linear differential equation.

Now, next we consider an equation of the form $f \text{ dash } y \text{ into } d y \text{ by } d x \text{ plus } P \text{ into } f y \text{ equal to } Q$, where P and Q are functions of x only or they may be constants, now such a differential equation can also be reduced to the linear form. Let us if we put $f y$ equal to a variable v, then when we differentiate with respect to x we shall have $f \text{ dash } y \text{ into } d y \text{ by } d x$ equal to $d v \text{ by } d x$.

And so the given equation will become $d v \text{ over } d x \text{ plus } P \text{ into } v \text{ equal to } Q$, which we can see is a linear differential equation in the dependant variable v and so can be solved by the method of solving a linear differential equation. Now, let us discuss in alternative method for finding the solution of a linear differential equation of first order.

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ALTERNATIVE METHOD

The linear differential equation $y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$ can be solved if a particular solution of the corresponding homogeneous part $y' + P(x)y = 0$ is known.

It follows that $y = c \exp(-\int P dx)$ is the general solution of the homogeneous differential equation $y' + P(x)y = 0$.

Assume $y(x) = u(x)v(x)$ be the general solution of $y' + P(x)y = Q$ where $v(x) = \exp(-\int P dx)$.

As we know the linear differential equation of first order in the dependent variable is of the form $y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$. Now, it can be solved also if we know a particular solution of the corresponding homogeneous part that is the solution of $y' + P(x)y = 0$. We can see here that $y' + P(x)y = 0$ can be solved easily by separating the variables x and y .

We can write $y' + P(x)y = 0$ as $\frac{dy}{y} = -P(x) dx$, when we integrate both sides we shall find that $y = c \exp(-\int P dx)$ is the general solution of the differential equation $y' + P(x)y = 0$. So, what we do is let us assume that $y(x) = u(x)v(x)$ be the general solution of $y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$, where we take $v(x)$ as $\exp(-\int P dx)$, which is the particular solution of the homogeneous part. $y' + P(x)y = 0$, we have taken c as 1 in the general solution to get v , v is equal to $\exp(-\int P dx)$.

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Then, substituting $y = uv$ in $y' + P(x)y = Q$ we get $u'v + u(v' + Pv) = Q$ but $v' + Pv = 0$ because v is a particular solution of the homogenous part.

Hence
$$u = \int \frac{Q}{v} dx + k,$$

(k being an arbitrary constant). So, the general solution of the given ODE is

$$y = v \left(\int \frac{Q}{v} dx + k \right).$$

So, then substituting y equal to $u v$ in the given differential equation y' plus $P x$ into y equal to Q , we will have y' is $u' v$ plus $u v'$ plus Q is $u v$, so we have P into $u v$ and then it is equal to Q . But, since v is a particular solution of the homogeneous part of the given differential equation, therefore v' plus $P v$ will be equal to 0 and so this will reduce to $u' v$ equal to Q .

And we then divide $u' v$ equal to Q by the function v and integrate with respect to x we shall have u equal to integral of Q over v into dx plus k , where k is an arbitrary constant. And so we have found the function u and therefore, the general solution of the given ODE, y will be y equal to v into u which is integral of Q over v into dx plus k .

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EXAMPLE

Solve Here $y' + y \sec x = \tan x$.

$$v = \exp(-\int \sec x dx) = \exp(-\log(\sec x + \tan x)).$$
$$= \frac{1}{(\sec x + \tan x)}$$

hence

$$u = \int \frac{\tan x dx}{\frac{1}{(\sec x + \tan x)}} + k$$
$$= \int (\sec x \tan x + \tan^2 x) dx + k$$

Now, let us illustrate this method by an example, so let us consider the differential equation $y' + y \sec x = \tan x$, so here $P(x)$ is equal to $\sec x$ and $Q(x)$ is equal to $\tan x$. And therefore, a particular solution of the homogeneous part $y' + y \sec x = 0$ that is v is equal to $e^{-\int \sec x dx}$, now we know that integral of $\sec x$ with respect to x is $\log |\sec x + \tan x|$.

So, v will be equal to $e^{-\log |\sec x + \tan x|}$, which is also equal to $\frac{1}{\sec x + \tan x}$ and hence, u will be equal to integral of Q over v ; Q is $\tan x$ v is $\frac{1}{\sec x + \tan x}$ into dx plus k , the right hand side is therefore integral of $\sec x \tan x + \tan^2 x$ into dx plus k .

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$$= \sec x + \tan x - x + k.$$

Thus, general solution is

$$y = (\sec x + \tan x - x + k) \frac{1}{(\sec x + \tan x)}.$$

After integration we can see that we find $\sec x$ plus $\tan x$ minus x plus k , when you replace $\tan^2 x$ by $\sec^2 x - 1$, so the general solution is y equal to u which is $\sec x$ plus $\tan x$ minus x plus k into v , that is 1 over $\sec x$ plus $\tan x$.

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ORTHOGONAL TRAJECTORIES

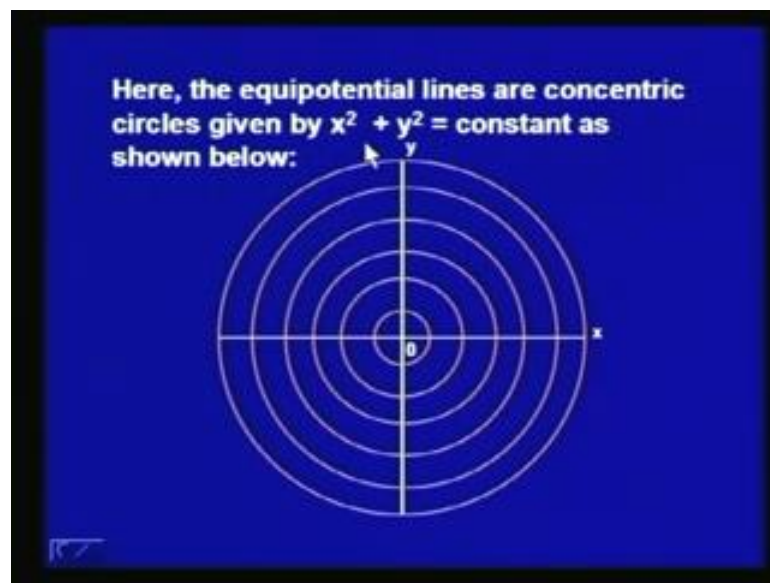
Two families of curves $f(x, y, c) = 0$ and $g(x, y, c') = 0$ where c and c' are arbitrary constant are called orthogonal trajectories of each other if every member of either family cuts each member of the other family at right angles.

Now, we consider an important application of differential equations of first order that is we consider the orthogonal trajectories, we can use differential equations to find the curves which cut the given family of curves at right angles. Let us consider two families

of curves $f(x, y, c) = 0$, and $g(x, y, c) = 0$, where c and c' are arbitrary constants.

The two families of curves given by $f(x, y, c) = 0$ and $g(x, y, c') = 0$ are called orthogonal trajectories of each other, if every member of either family cuts each member of the other family at right angles. For example, let us consider the family of parabolas $y = cx^2$, we shall see that the family of parabolas $y = c/x^2$ has orthogonal trajectories given by the ellipses $x^2 + y^2 = c'$. The concept of orthogonal trajectories plays an important role in various fields of physics for example, let us consider an electric field between two concentric cylinders. Then the path along which the current flows are orthogonal trajectories of the equipotential curves and vice versa.

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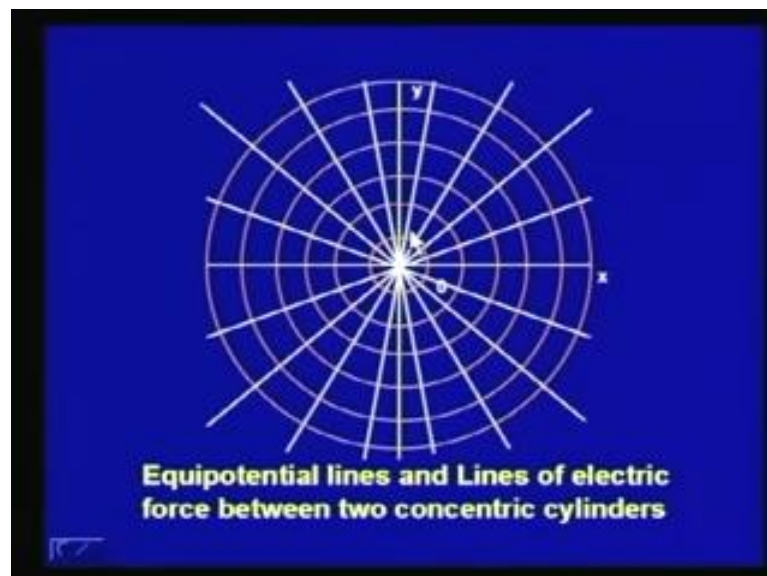
Here the equipotential lines are concentric circles given by $x^2 + y^2 = \text{constant}$ as shown in this figure, you can see that they are all concentric circles the center being at the origin.

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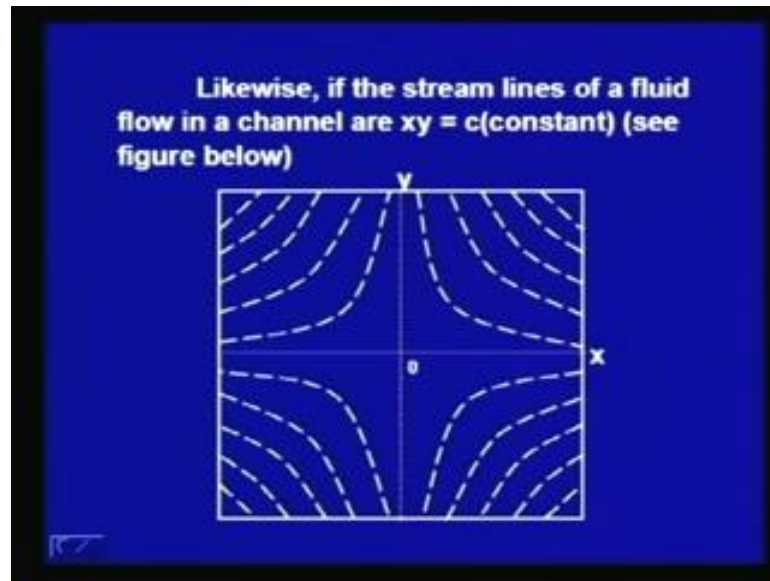
So, they are equipotential curves and their orthogonal trajectories are this straight lines that is the lines of electric force given by y equal to $m x$, where m is the parameter, you can see in this figure that the electric lines are lines of force, that is the straight lines given by y equal to $m x$ are the lines which pass through the origin. So, they are the lines of electric force and they happen to be the orthogonal trajectories of the concentric circles, which are shown in this picture.

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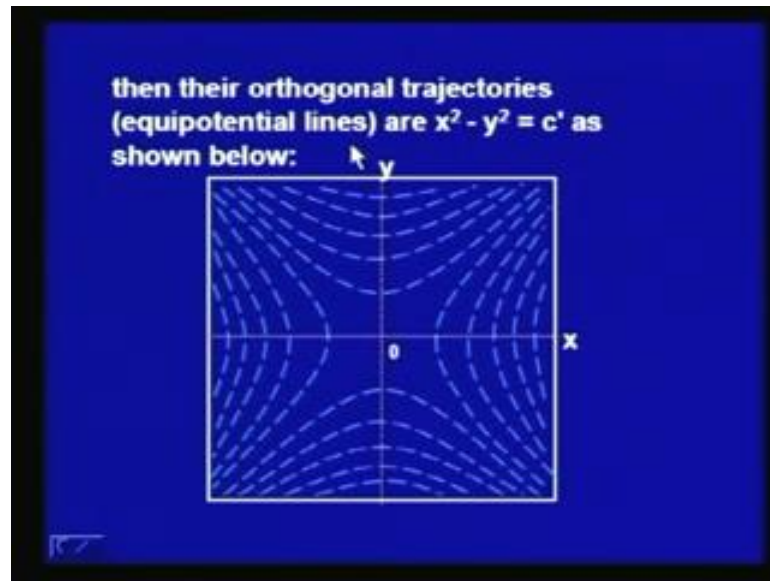
In this figure you can see that the concentric circles the familiar concentric circles are orthogonal to the family of straight lines, these the lines of force electric force. So, we have equipotential lines and lines of electric force between two concentric cylinders, the two families intersect each other orthogonally, so they are orthogonal trajectories of each other.

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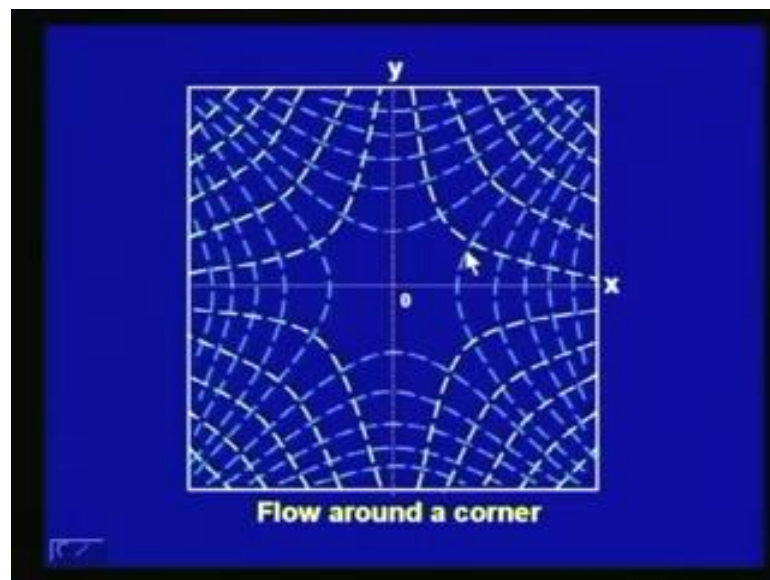
Let us consider another example, let us consider the stream lines of a fluid flow in a channel suppose they are given by $xy = c$, a constant we know that $xy = c$ give us a family of rectangular hyperbolas. So, in this figure we have drawn a this family of rectangular hyperbolas, they are the stream lines of a fluid flow in a channel.

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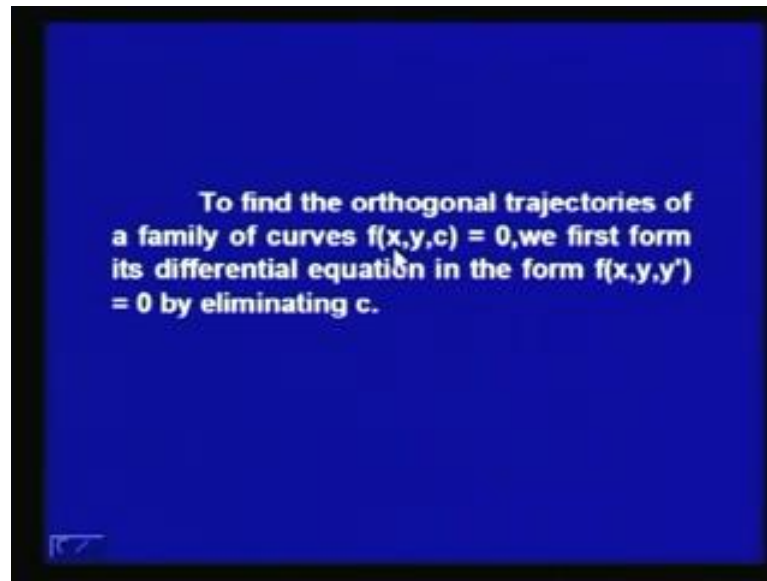
Then, their orthogonal trajectories that is the equipotential lines turn out to be $x^2 - y^2 = c'$, they again are a family of hyperbolas as shown in this picture.

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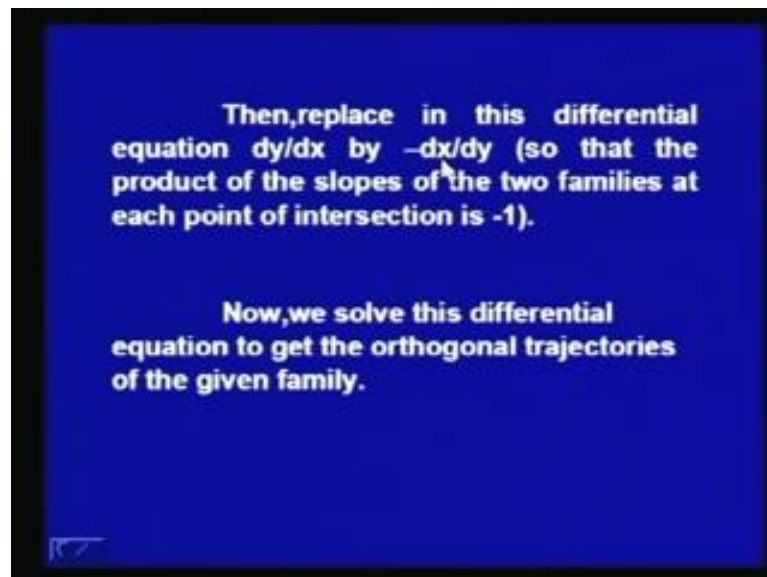
And in this picture we show that the two families of hyperbolas cut each other at right angles, so they are orthogonal trajectories of each other; every member of one family cuts every member of the other family at right angles.

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Now, let us see how to find the orthogonal trajectories for a given family of curves, suppose the family of curves is given by the equation $f(x, y, c) = 0$. Then first we form its differential equation in the form $f(x, y, y')$ equal to 0 by eliminating c that is we arrive at a differential equation a first order dy by dx equal to $g(x, y)$.

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And then replace in the differential equation dy by dx equal to $g(x, y)$, dy by dx by minus 1 upon dy by dx which can also be written as minus dx over dy . Because, at each point of intersection the product of slopes of the two families of curves will be

equal to minus 1 and so we replace $\frac{dy}{dx}$ by $-\frac{dx}{dy}$ and arrive at the differential equation for the family of orthogonal trajectories. So, let us consider the family of parabolas given by $y = cx^2$ and find its orthogonal trajectories.

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EXAMPLE

Find the orthogonal trajectories of the family of parabolas $y = cx^2$.

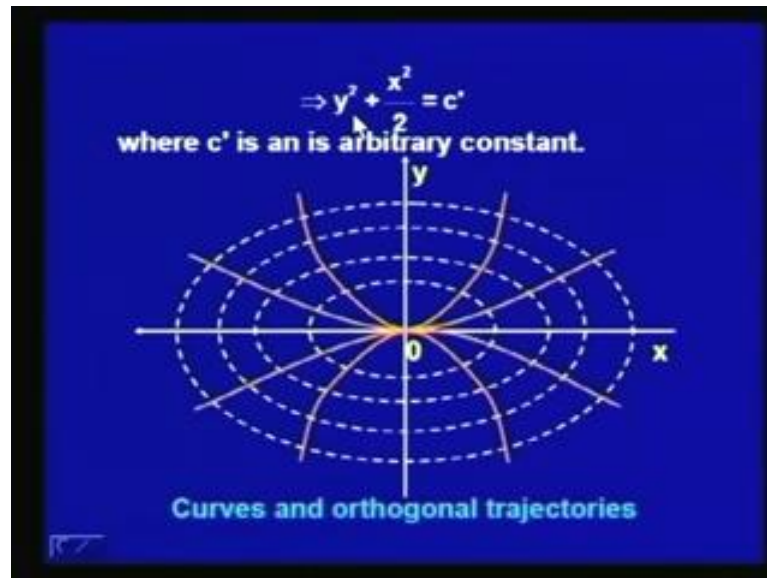
SOLUTION: $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2cx = 2\left(\frac{y}{x^2}\right)x = \frac{2y}{x}$
or $x\frac{dy}{dx} = 2y$.

Replacing $\frac{dy}{dx}$ by $-\frac{dx}{dy}$ we get

$$x\left(-\frac{dx}{dy}\right) = 2y \text{ or } 2ydy + xdx = 0$$

Now, $y = cx^2$ gives us $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2cx$, so we can eliminate c from the equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2cx$ using the equation $y = cx^2$, it will become $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2\frac{y}{x}$ or $x\frac{dy}{dx} = 2y$. So, this is the differential equation corresponding to the given family of parabolas, it is of the form $f(x, y, y')$ equal to 0. Now, in this differential equation we shall replace $\frac{dy}{dx}$ by $-\frac{dx}{dy}$ to arrive at the differential equation corresponding to the orthogonal trajectories of $y = cx^2$, we shall have $x\left(-\frac{dx}{dy}\right) = 2y$ or $2ydy + xdx = 0$.

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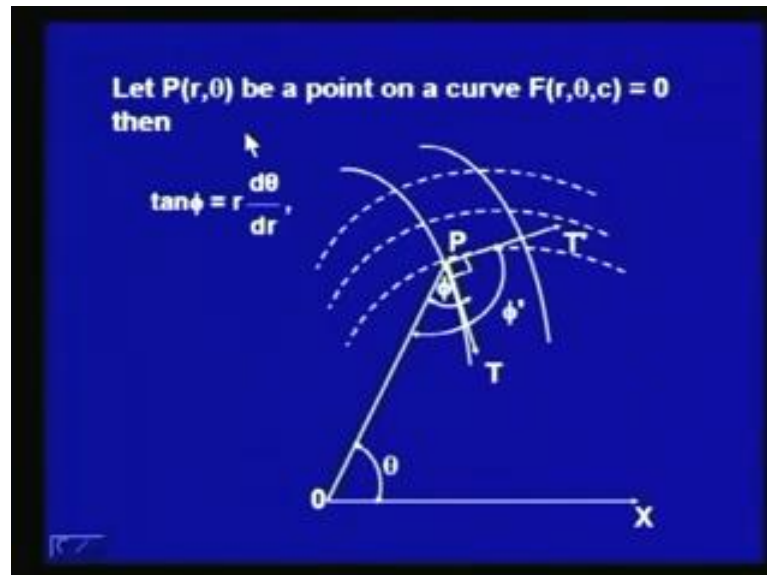
When we integrate on both sides of this differential equation, we can see that we will have $y^2 + \frac{x^2}{2} = c'$, where c' is an arbitrary constant. Now, you can see that this is a family of ellipses where the semi major axis has length $\sqrt{2c'}$ and the semi minor axis as length $\sqrt{c'}$. We have shown this, this is the family of parabolas and these are ellipses and you can see that at each point of intersection every member of the family of parabolas intersect, every member of the family of ellipses at right angles, so they are orthogonal trajectories of each other.

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To find the orthogonal trajectories of the curves $F(r, \theta, c) = 0$:

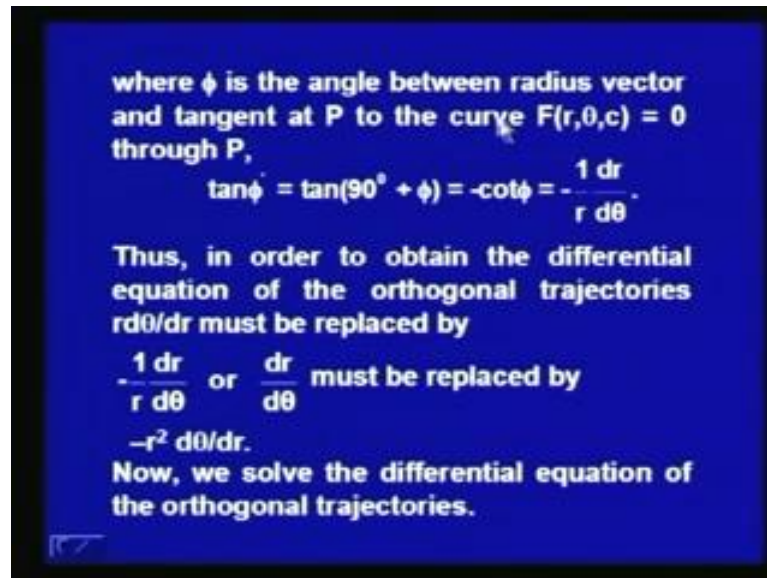
Now, let us take the case of a polar equation of $F(r, \theta, c) = 0$ and let us find the orthogonal trajectories of a polar family of curves $F(r, \theta, c) = 0$.

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So, here let us see, let $P(r, \theta)$ be a point on the curve, $F(r, \theta, c) = c$, this is the curve $F(r, \theta, c) = 0$, P is a point here, we can see that the radius vector OP makes angle ϕ with the tangent PT to the curve $F(r, \theta, c) = 0$. And these curves shown by dotted lines, this is their the family of orthogonal trajectories; so you can see that at the point of intersection P the angle between the tangents to the curve $F(r, \theta, c) = 0$ and the orthogonal curve it is ϕ by ϕ by 2. PT dash is tangent to this curve while PT is tangent to the curve, $F(r, \theta, c) = 0$, the angle between the 2 is ϕ by 2.

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So, ϕ is the angle between the radius vector and tangent at P to the curve $F(r, \theta, c)$ equal to 0, now through the point P, now $\tan \phi'$, since $\phi' - \phi$ is equal to 90. So, $\tan \phi'$ will be equal to $\tan 90 + \phi$ and $\tan 90 + \phi$ is $-\cot \phi$, we know that $\tan \phi$ is equal to $r \frac{d\theta}{dr}$, so $-\cot \phi$ will be $-\frac{1}{r \frac{dr}{d\theta}}$.

And therefore, in order to obtain the differential equation of the orthogonal trajectories $r \frac{d\theta}{dr}$ in the given differential equation of the family of curves $F(r, \theta, c)$ equal to 0 must be replaced by $-\frac{1}{r \frac{dr}{d\theta}}$. Or we can say that $\frac{dr}{d\theta}$ by $r \frac{dr}{d\theta}$ they are must be replaced by $-\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{d\theta}$, or we can take the reciprocal and say that, $\frac{dr}{d\theta}$ in that differential equation of the family $F(r, \theta, c)$ equal to 0 must be replaced by $-r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dr}$. Now, we solve the differential equation of the orthogonal trajectories.

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EXAMPLE

Let $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$.

Then $2r \frac{dr}{d\theta} = a^2 (-2 \sin 2\theta)$

or $r \frac{dr}{d\theta} = -a^2 \sin 2\theta$

or $r \cos 2\theta \frac{dr}{d\theta} = -(a^2 \cos 2\theta) \sin 2\theta$

$= -r^2 \sin 2\theta$

Let us consider the equation $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$, so when you differentiate with respect to θ on both sides we get $2r \frac{dr}{d\theta} = a^2 (-2 \sin 2\theta)$, or we can say $r \frac{dr}{d\theta} = -a^2 \sin 2\theta$. Let us multiply by $\cos 2\theta$ both sides, we want to eliminate a^2 from here to arrive at the differential equation of the family of curves $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$; it is known that this $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$ gives us a lemniscate, so this is a family of lemniscates.

So, we multiply both sides of $r \frac{dr}{d\theta} = -a^2 \sin 2\theta$ by $\cos 2\theta$ and get $r \cos 2\theta \frac{dr}{d\theta} = -a^2 \cos 2\theta \sin 2\theta$. We replace $a^2 \cos 2\theta$ by r^2 and so we will get the right hand side as $-r^2 \sin 2\theta$.

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{or } \cos 2\theta \frac{dr}{d\theta} &= -r \sin 2\theta \\ \text{replacing } \frac{dr}{d\theta} \text{ by } -r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dr}, \text{ we have} \\ -r^2 \cos 2\theta \frac{d\theta}{dr} &= -r \sin 2\theta \\ \text{or } \frac{dr}{r} &= \cot 2\theta d\theta \end{aligned}$$

Or we can say $\cos 2\theta \frac{dr}{d\theta}$ by $d\theta$ is equal to $-r \sin 2\theta$, now let us replace $r \frac{dr}{d\theta}$ by $d\theta$ by $-\frac{r^2}{dr} d\theta$ to get the differential equation of the orthogonal trajectories of the family of lemniscates. We will have $-\frac{r^2}{dr} \cos 2\theta d\theta = -r \sin 2\theta$ or we will have $\frac{dr}{r} = \cot 2\theta d\theta$.

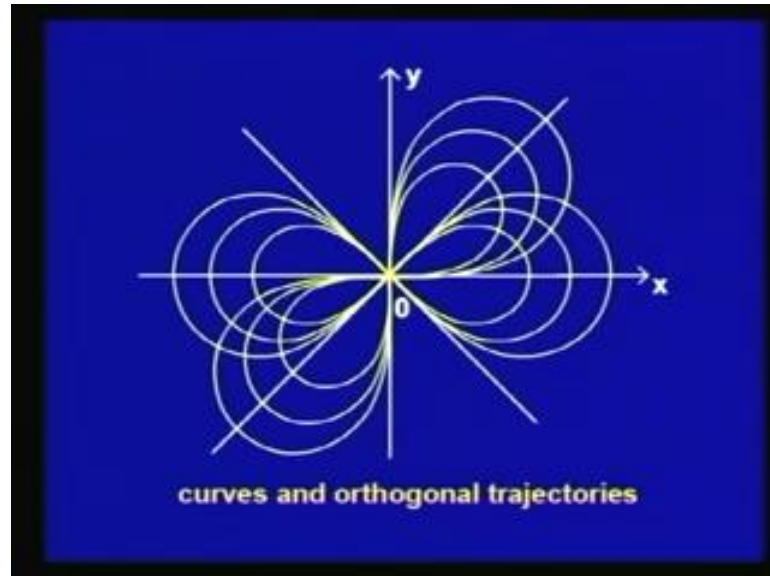
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$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \log r &= \frac{1}{2} \log \sin 2\theta + \log c \\ r &= c \sin^{1/2} 2\theta \\ \text{or } r^2 &= c^2 \sin 2\theta \\ &\text{is the family of orthogonal trajectories.} \end{aligned}$$

We can integrate with both sides, we will have $\log r$ equal to $\frac{1}{2} \log \sin 2\theta$ plus $\log c$ or we can write r equal to $c \sin 2\theta$ raised to the power half, squaring both

sides we have $r^2 = c^2 \sin^2 2\theta$, which is the family of the orthogonal trajectories of the family of lemniscates.

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In this picture, these curves they are the curves corresponding to $r^2 = c^2 \cos^2 2\theta$, they are family of lemniscates and they are orthogonal trajectories are these curves given by $r^2 = c^2 \sin^2 2\theta$. You can see that at each point of intersection every member of one family cuts every member of the other family at right angles, it is their orthogonal trajectories of each other.

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Existence and Uniqueness of solutions

An initial value problem (IVP) of the form

$$y' = f(x, y), y(x_0) = y_0 \quad (1)$$

may have none, precisely one or more than one solution. For example, the IVP

$$|y'| + |y| = 0, y(0) = 1$$

has no solution because $y = 0$ is the only solution of this differential equation.

Next we discuss existence and uniqueness of solutions, so for the differential equations that we have considered each one had a general solution. In the case of an initial value problem, an initial value problem consist of a differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$ and a condition $y(x_0) = y_0$ which the solution has to satisfy. We could obtain a particular solution of the differential equation by finding the value of the constant c , which occurs in the general solution using the initial condition $y(x_0) = y_0$.

But, in the general case an initial value problem $y' = f(x, y)$, where $y(x_0) = y_0$ may not have any solution or it may have a unique solution or it may have more than one solution. Let us discuss an example of each one of those cases, first we consider the initial value problem $y' + y = 0$ where we are given that $y(0) = 1$.

Now, the differential equation $y' + y = 0$ has a unique solution $y = 0$. Because, the left hand side of the differential equation $y' + y$ is the sum of two non negative real valued functions, so their sum is 0 if and only if y is identically 0. Since we are given that $y(0) = 1$ $y = 0$ cannot be the solution of the given initial value problem, because $y = 0$ at $x = 0$ gives us value 0 and not 1. So, the given initial value problem $y' + y = 0$ where $y(0) = 1$ has no solution.

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The IVP $y' = x, y(0) = 1$
has precisely one solution e.g.
$$y = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 1$$

while the IVP $xy' = y-1, y(0) = 1$
has infinitely many solutions e.g.
 $y = 1 + cx$ where c is an arbitrary constant.
Thus, there arise the following two
fundamental questions.

Next we consider the initial value problem $y' = x$ where we are given that $y(0)$ is equal to 1, we shall show that it has precisely one solution, $\frac{dy}{dx} = x$ we can write as $dy = x dx$, that is we are able to separate the variables x and y . After integrating both sides we shall have $y = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + c$, the value of c we can find using the initial condition $y(0) = 1$, it will turn out that the value of c is 1.

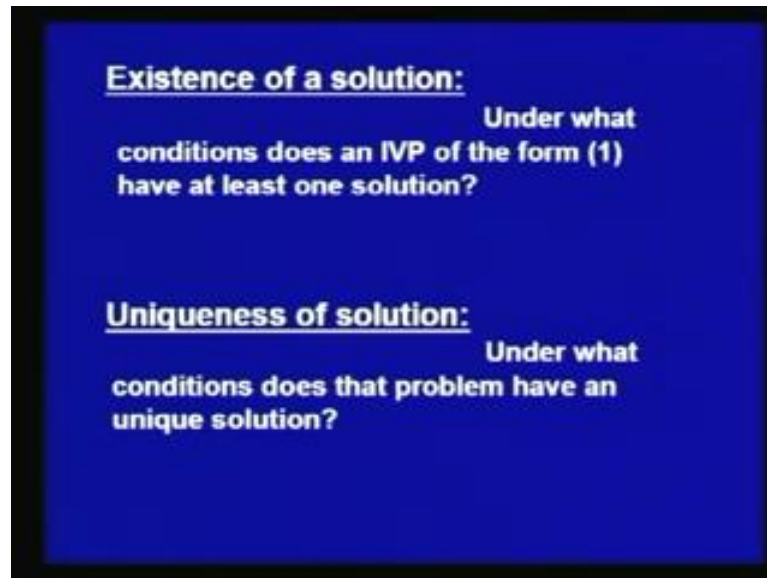
And therefore, $y = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 1$ is the solution of the given initial value problem $y' = x$, where $y(0) = 1$, so the given initial value problem has precisely one solution. Next let us consider the case of an initial value problem $x y' = y - 1$, where $y(0) = 1$ we can see that here in the differential equation $x y' = y - 1$, if you put $x = 0$ we find $y = 1$.

So, $y(0) = 1$ is automatically satisfied, so let us assume that x is not equal to 0, we can divide this equation $x y' = y - 1$ by x and then we shall have $y' = \frac{y}{x} - \frac{1}{x}$. We can bring it to the linear form $y' - \frac{1}{x}y = -\frac{1}{x}$, it will be a linear differential equation of first order in y where the integrating factor will be $e^{-\int \frac{1}{x} dx} = \frac{1}{x}$.

So, we will have the integrating factor as $e^{-\log x}$ that is $\frac{1}{x}$ and so we will be able to find the general solution as the dependant variable by $\frac{1}{x} y = \int \frac{-1}{x^2} dx + c$, which will give us $y = 1 + cx$. Now, $y = 1 + cx$ is the solution of $x y' = y - 1$ for all x not equal to 0, but when you put $x = 0$ in this we see that $y = 1$.

So, $y(0) = 1$ that case can also be included in the solution $y = 1 + cx$ and therefore, we may say that $y = 1 + cx$ is the general solution of the initial value problem $x y' = y - 1$. Since c is an arbitrary constant, so $y = 1 + cx$ gives us infinitely many solutions of the given initial value problem. Thus an initial value problem in the general case may have none and unique or infinitely many solutions and so there arise the following two fundamental questions.

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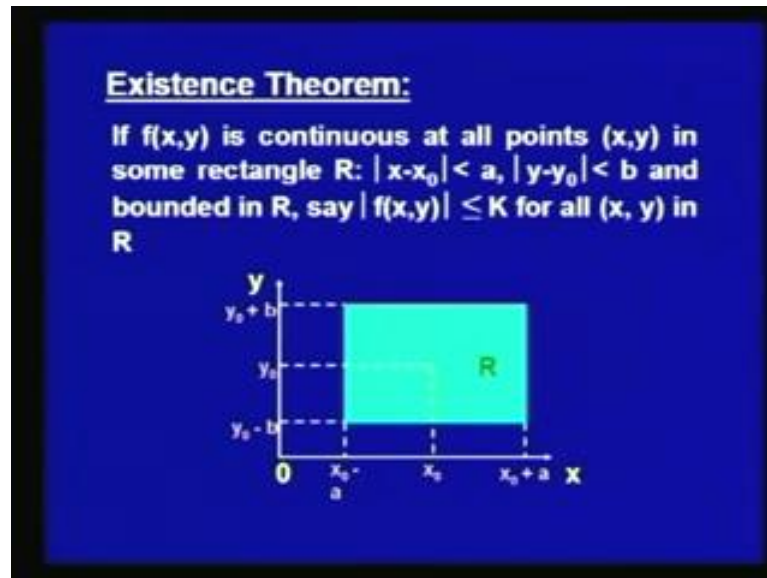


It is question is the existence of a solution, under what conditions does an initial value problem of the form one that is $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$, where $y(x_0) = y_0$ have at least one solution. The next question is uniqueness of solution, under what conditions does the initial value problem have an unique solution, the theorems that answers these two questions are known as the existence theorems and uniqueness theorems.

The examples considered above were so simple, we have considered three examples earlier, one example was the example of an usual value problem which had no solution. Then we considered an example of a initial value problem where we had precisely one solution. And then the third example was an initial value problem where we had infinitely many solutions, so those examples were so simple that we could find answers to the questions of existence of a solution, an uniqueness of the solution just by looking at the differential equation and making some simple calculations.

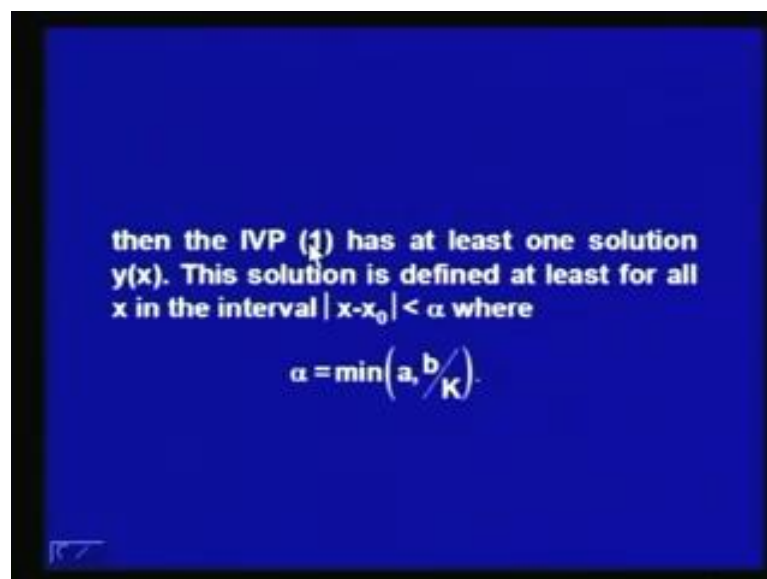
But, in the case of complicated differential equations that is the differential equations, which cannot be solved by elementary methods that is the techniques which we discussed so far; the existence an uniqueness theorems will be of greater importance.

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Let us look at the existence theorem, if $f(x,y)$ is continuous at all points (x,y) in some rectangle R given by mod of x minus x_0 less than a , mod of y minus y_0 less than b and bounded in R say mod of $f(x,y)$ less than or equal to k for all (x,y) in R .

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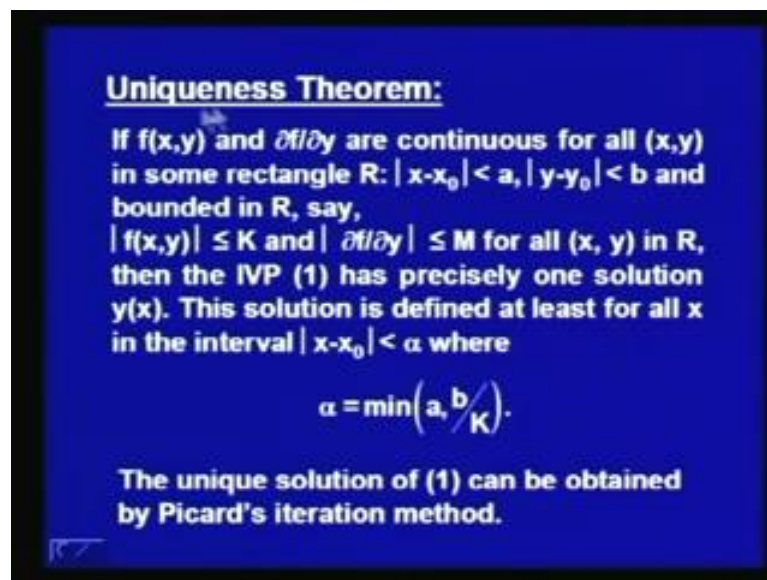


Then, the initial value problem 1 has at least one solution this solution is defined at least for all x in the interval mod of x minus x_0 less than α , where α is equal to minimum of a and b by K . Now, ((Refer Time: 47:29)) this theorem tells us that if the function $f(x,y)$ is continuous in some region of the (x,y) plane and it is a bounded

function for all (x, y) in that region, then the initial value problem always has a solution, so this theorem is known as an existence theorem.

In this picture you can see that this is the rectangle R , which is given by the inequalities $|x - x_0| < a$ and $|y - y_0| < b$ and containing the point (x_0, y_0) here. So, if the function $f(x, y)$ is continuous in this region and bounded in R , then the initial value problem will all ways have a solution. And the solution will be defined at least for all values of x in the interval, $|x - x_0| < \alpha$, where α is the minimum of the 2 numbers a and b by K .

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The next theorem which is the uniqueness theorem tells us that, if $f(x, y)$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ are continuous for all (x, y) in some rectangle R , given by $|x - x_0| < a$ and $|y - y_0| < b$ and bounded in R . That is to say $|f(x, y)| \leq K$ and $|\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}| \leq M$ for all (x, y) in R . Then the initial value problem one has precisely one solution $y(x)$ and this solution is defined at least for all x in the interval $|x - x_0| < \alpha$ where α is the minimum of a and b by K .

The unique solution of the differential equation 1, that is the initial value problem $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$, where $y(x_0) = y_0$ can be obtained by Picard's iteration method. So, in our next lecture we shall discuss the geometrical interpretation of

the existence and uniqueness theorems and we shall discuss the Picard's iteration method. And then certain numerical methods, like Euler's method and modified Euler's method to arrive at the numerical solution of an initial value problem $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$, where $y(x_0) = y_0$.

Thank you.