

1.

Linear Differential Equation with constant coefficients

Introduction :-

(i) The general form of a linear D.E. of n -th order is

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + P_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + P_2 \frac{d^{n-2} y}{dx^{n-2}} + \dots + P_{n-1} \frac{dy}{dx} + P_n y = Q \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Where P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n and Q are constants or functions of x (but not contain y).

Equations of First order :-

Let us take $n=1$ & $Q=0$. We then obtain

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P_1 y = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = -P_1 y$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y} = -P_1 dx$$

Integrating, we have

$$-\log A + \log y = -P_1 x$$

$$\therefore y = A e^{-P_1 x}, \text{ where } A \text{ is an}$$

$$\text{arbitrary constant.}$$

Equations of second order :-

If $n=2$ & $g=0$, equation ① becomes

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + P_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + P_2 y = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

The solution of equation ② suggest that

$y = A e^{mx}$, where m is constant, putting this value in equation ③

$$A e^{mx} (m^2 + P_1 m + P_2) = 0$$

Thus, if m is a root of

$$m^2 + P_1 m + P_2 = 0 \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$y = A e^{mx}$ is a solution of equation ③, whatever may be the value of A

Let the equation ④ have two distinct real roots α & β . Then we have two solutions of equation ①, namely

$$y = A e^{\alpha x} \& y = B e^{\beta x}; \text{ where } A \& B \text{ are arbitrary constants.}$$

Now if substitute $y = A e^{\alpha x} + B e^{\beta x}$ in the left side of the equation ③, we shall obtain

$$A e^{\alpha x} (\alpha^2 + P_1 \alpha + P_2) + B e^{\beta x} (\beta^2 + P_1 \beta + P_2) = 0$$

which is obviously 0 as α & β are the roots of equation ④.

Thus, $y = Ae^{kx} + Be^{bx}$ is solution of equation ③
 & since it contains two ~~arbitrary~~ independent
 arbitrary constants A & B, we may
 regard it as the general solution or
complete primitive of the equation ③.

Example ① :→ Solve $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 3 \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} - 54y = 0$

Solution :→ We take $y = Ae^{mx}$, a trial solution

$$\therefore Ae^{mx}(m^2 + 3m - 54) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 + 3m - 54 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow m = 6, -9$$

Therefore the general solution is

$$y = Ae^{6x} + Be^{-9x}$$

Where A & B are arbitrary constants.

Two special cases :→

① When the ~~auxiliary~~ auxiliary equation has
 imaginary roots.

When the auxiliary equation ④ has
 complex roots of the form $\alpha + i\beta$ & $\alpha - i\beta$
 (β are real), then the general solution

$$y = Ae^{(\alpha+i\beta)x} + Be^{(\alpha-i\beta)x}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = e^{ax} [A e^{ipx} + B e^{-ipx}]$$

$$= e^{ax} [A (\cos px + i \sin px) + B (\cos px - i \sin px)]$$

$$= e^{ax} [E \cos px + F \sin px]$$

$$\text{Where } E = A + B \quad \& \quad F = i(A - B)$$

Example 2 solve $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 6 \frac{dy}{dx} + 13y = 0$

Solution: →

If the trial solution is taken as

$$y = A e^{mx}, \text{ the A.E. becomes}$$

$$m^2 - 6m + 13 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow m = 3 \pm 2i$$

∴ The general solution may be written as

$$y = A e^{(3+2i)x} + B e^{(3-2i)x}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = e^{3x} (A \cos 2x + B \sin 2x)$$

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② Case of equal roots :-

When the auxiliary equation has equal roots α and α , the solution becomes

$$y = Ae^{\alpha x} + Be^{\alpha x} = (A+B)e^{\alpha x}$$

Now $A+B$ is really only a single arbitrary constant.

Hence it cannot be regarded as the most general solution.

The general solution of this case will be

$$y = (A+Bx)e^{\alpha x}$$

A & B being arbitrary constants.

Example ③ solve $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4 \frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0$

Solution :-

The trial solution is $y = Ae^{mx}$

$$\therefore A \cdot E = m^2 + 4m + 4 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow m = -2, -2$$

$$\therefore y = (A+Bx)e^{-2x}$$

Ans.

Equations of order higher than the second

Let the equation be

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + P_1 \frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + P_{n-1} \frac{dy}{dx} + P_n = 0 \quad \textcircled{1}$$

And suppose the trial solution

$$y = A e^{mx}$$

the auxiliary equation is

$$m^n + P_1 m^{n-1} + \dots + P_{n-1} m + P_n = 0 \quad \textcircled{2}$$

Rule I: Let m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n be n distinct real roots of $\textcircled{2}$. The general solution is then

$$y = c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{m_2 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$$

where c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n are arbitrary constants.

Rule-II: If two roots m_1 & m_2 of the auxiliary equation are equal, each equal to m , the corresponding part of the general solution is $(c_1 + c_2 x) e^{mx}$, & if three roots m_1, m_2, m_3 are each equal to m , the corresponding part of the solution is $(c_1 + c_2 x + c_3 x^2) e^{mx}$; & so on.

Rule-III :-

If the A.E. has a pair of imaginary roots, say $m_1 = \alpha + i\beta$, $m_2 = \alpha - i\beta$, the corresponding part of the general solution is

$$e^{\alpha x} (c_1 \cos \beta x + c_2 \sin \beta x)$$

$$\text{or, } c_3 e^{\alpha x} \cos(\beta x + c_4)$$

$$\text{or, } c_5 e^{\alpha x} \cdot \sin(\beta x + c_6)$$

Any one of these form is used.

Rule-IV :- If a pair of imaginary roots $\alpha \pm i\beta$ occurs twice, the corresponding part of the general solution is

$$e^{\alpha x} [(c_1 + c_2 x) \cos \beta x + (c_3 + c_4 x) \sin \beta x]$$

Rule-IV :-

If the two real roots be $m & -m$, the corresponding parts of the solution is

$$c_1 e^{mx} + c_2 e^{-mx}$$

$$\text{or, } c_1 (\cosh mx + \sinh mx) + c_2 (\cosh mx - \sinh mx)$$

$$\text{or, } c_3 \cosh mx + c_4 \sinh mx$$

~~Ans~~
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Example ④ solve $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} - 3 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4y = 0$

Solution: →

The auxiliary equation is

$$m^3 - 3m^2 + 4 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (m+1)(m^2 - 4m + 4) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (m+1)(m-2)^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow m = -1, 2, 2$$

∴ The general solution is

$$y = (c_1 + c_2x)e^{2x} + c_3e^{-x}$$

Example ⑤ solve $\frac{d^4y}{dx^2} + 8 \frac{dy}{dx^2} + 16y = 0$

Solution: →

$$A \cdot E \equiv m^4 + 8m^2 + 16 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (m^2 + 4)^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow m = \pm 2i, \pm 2i$$

∴ The general solution is

$$y = e^{0x} [(c_1 + c_2x) \cos 2x + (c_3 + c_4x) \sin 2x]$$

$$= (c_1 + c_2x) \cos 2x + (c_3 + c_4x) \sin 2x$$

Ans.

General Theory of Linear Differential Equations

The most general linear differential equation of n -th order is

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + P_1 \frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + P_{n-1} \frac{dy}{dx} + P_n y = g \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Where the coefficients P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n and the right hand member g are continuous function of x in $a \leq x \leq b$.

The fundamental ~~theorem~~ existance theorem proves that there exists a continuous solution $y(x)$ which assumes a given value y_0 at a point x_0 within $[a, b]$ and whose first $(n-1)$ derivatives are continuous & assume respectively the values

$$y'_0, y''_0, \dots, y^{(n-1)}_0$$

at $x = x_0$.

Introducing operators D for $\frac{d}{dx}$, D^2 for $\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$, etc, we write the equation (1) in the form

$$\{D^n + P_1 D^{n-1} + \dots + P_{n-1} D + P_n\} y = g$$

will be called a linear differential operator of order n and will be denoted by $F(D)$.

Then equation ① can be written as

$$F(D)y = Q \quad \text{--- ②}$$

The equation

$$F(D)y = 0 \quad \text{--- ③}$$

Where the right-hand member Q is supposed to be 0 is called the reduced equation (R.E.) of equation ①.

Properties of $F(D)$

① If $y = y_1$ is a solution of the reduced equation ③, then $y = cy_1$ is also a solution, where c is any arbitrary constant.

Proof:- Clearly $D^n(cy_1) = cD^n y_1$,

Then

$$\begin{aligned} F(D)cy_1 &= D^n(cy_1) + P_1 D^{n-1}(cy_1) + \dots + P_{n-1} D(cy_1) + P_n \cdot y_1 \\ &= c \{ D^n y_1 + P_1 D^{n-1} y_1 + \dots + P_{n-1} D y_1 + P_n y_1 \} \\ &= c F(D) y_1 \end{aligned}$$

\therefore When $y = y_1$ is a solution of $F(D)y = 0$, the right-hand member vanishes and consequently

$$F(D)cy_1 = 0$$

i.e; cy_1 is also a solution of $F(D)y = 0$.

Case-II :- If $y = y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m$ are m solutions of the reduced equation $F(D)y = 0$, then

$$y = c_1 y_1 + c_2 y_2 + \dots + c_m y_m$$

is a solution of the same equation

(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_m are arbitrary constants)

Proof :-

$$\because D^{\sigma} \{c_1 y_1 + c_2 y_2 + \dots + c_m y_m\}$$

$$= c_1 D^{\sigma} y_1 + c_2 D^{\sigma} y_2 + \dots + c_m D^{\sigma} y_m$$

Now similarly argue with as in I

Case-III :- Let $y = y_0(x)$ be any solution of equation ②, namely, $F(D)y = Q$. Then if $u(x)$ be the complete primitive of the reduced equation $F(D)y = 0$, $y = y_0(x) + u(x)$ will be the most general solution of $F(D)y = Q$.

Proof :-

Since the operator D^{σ} is distributive, the linear operator $F(D)$ is distributive, that is to say

$$F(D)\{y_0(x) + u(x)\} = F(D)\{y_0(x)\} + F(D)\{u(x)\}$$

$$= Q + 0$$

$$= Q.$$

Moreover, the solution $y = y_0(x) + u(x)$ involves n arbitrary constants, it is therefore, the

most general solution of $F(D)y = g$.

Example ① solve $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4y = 4x$

Solution: → The equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4y = 4x$$

has the reduced equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4y = 0$$

The complete primitive of which is

$$y = A \cos 2x + B \sin 2x.$$

clearly $y = x$ is one solution of the given equation.

$$\therefore y = C.F. + P.I.$$

$$= (A \cos 2x + B \sin 2x) + x$$

Ans.