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## A SHORT COURSE ON DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

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## A SHORT COURSE ON

# DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

BY

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## PREFACE

In many Colleges of Engineering, the need is felt for a textbook on Differential Equations, limited in scope yet comprehensive enough to furnish the student of engineering with sufficient information to enable him to deal intelligently with any differential equation which he is likely to encounter. To meet this need is the object of this book.

Throughout the book, I have endeavored to confine myself strictly to those principles which are of interest to the student of engineering. In the selection of problems, the aim was constantly before me to choose only those that illustrate differential equations or mathematical principles which the engineer may meet in the practice of his profession.

I have consulted freely the Treatises on Differential Equations, of Boole, Forsyth, Johnson, and Murray. I am indebted to two of my colleagues, Professors N. C. Riggs and C. W. Leigh, for reading parts of the manuscript and verifying many of the answers to problems.

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#### D. F. CAMPBELL.

CHICAGO, ILL., September, 1906.



## CONTENTS

	C	HAP	TER	I					PAGES
INTRODUCTION	•	•	·	•	•	•	•	•	1–15
	C	НАРІ	ER	II					
CHANGE OF VARIABLE	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	16-21
	CI	HAPT	ER	III					
ORDINARY DIFFERENTIAL	Eqt	ATION	IS OF	THE	First	r Ori	DER A	ND	
FIRST DEGREE .	•	•	•	•	·	•	•	•	22–40
	C	НАРІ	ER	IV					
Ordinary Linear Diffi Coefficients	eren	TIAL	Equ <i>i</i>	101	ns wi	гн С	ONSTA	NT ·	41–64
	(	CHAP	TER	v					
Homogeneous Linear Linear Differentia				-	UATIC	ons.	ExA	СТ	65–70
	С	HAP	rer	VI					
CERTAIN PARTICULAR FO	RMS	ог Е	QUAT	IONS	• •	•	•	•	71–76
	C	НАРІ	ER	VII					
Ordinary Differentia Variables	ь Е	QUAT:	ions •	IN	Two	Dei	PENDF	ENT	77–88
	CF	IAPT	ER	vIII					
PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL	Equ.	ATION	s.	•	•	•	•	•	89–96



## A SHORT COURSE

#### ON

# DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

#### CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

1. There are various definitions given for a function of one variable. We shall here adopt the following :

If to every value of x there corresponds one or more values of f(x), then f(x) is said to be a function of x.

This definition includes a constant as a function of x, for if f(x) is constant, then for every value of x, f(x) has a value, namely, this constant.

A definition of a function of two variables is the following :

If to every pair of values of two variables x and y there corresponds one or more values of f(x, y), then f(x, y) is said to be a function of x and y.

This includes a constant or a function of one variable as a function of x and y.

A function f(x) of one variable x is single valued when for every value of x there is one and only one corresponding value of f(x).

A function f(x) of one variable x is continuous for a value x = a if f(a) is finite, and

$$\lim_{h \doteq 0} \left[ f(a+h) \right] = \lim_{h \doteq 0} \left[ f(a-h) \right] = f(a).$$

A function f(x, y) of two independent variables x and y is single valued when for every set of values for x and y there is one and only one corresponding value of f(x, y). A function f(x, y) of two independent variables x and y is continuous for a set of values x = a, y = b if f(a, b) is finite, and

$$\lim_{\substack{h = 0 \\ k = 0}} \left[ f(a + h, b + k) \right] = f(a, b)$$

no matter how h and k approach zero.

The following definitions are given in almost any work in calculus :

If f(x) is a single valued and continuous function of x, given by the equation y = f(x), then

 $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  denote the increments of x and y respectively,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x} \inf_{x \to 0} \left[ \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} \right],$$
$$dy = \frac{dy}{dx} dx.$$

If f(x) is single valued and continuous, and dy/dx is continuous, then

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right).$$

In general, if f(x) is single valued and continuous, and the preceding derivatives are all continuous, then

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} \right).$$

If f(x, y) is a single valued and continuous function of two independent variables x and y, given by the equation z = f(x, y), then  $\partial z/\partial x$  is the derivative of z with respect to x when y is held constant;  $\partial z/\partial y$  is the derivative of z with respect to y when x is held constant.

2. In a single valued and continuous function f(x) of one variable x, given by the equation y = f(x), whether x is the independent variable or a function of some other variable or variables, we have

$$d^{*}x = d(dx); \ d^{*}x = d(d^{*}x); \ \cdots; \ d^{n}x = d(d^{n-1}x);$$
  
 $d^{*}y = d(dy); \ d^{*}y = d(d^{*}y); \ \cdots; \ d^{n}y = d(d^{n-1}y).$ 

**Definitions.** The differentials dx,  $d^{3}x$ ,  $d^{3}x$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $d^{n}x$ , or dy,  $d^{2}y$ ,  $d^{3}y$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $d^{n}y$  are called the first, second, third,  $\cdots$ , nth, differentials respectively.

3. Derivation of  $d^2y$  and  $d^3y$  when no assumption is made regarding x being independent or a function of some variable or variables.

$$d^{2}y = d(dy) = d\left(\frac{dy}{dx}dx\right) = \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}}dx^{2} + \frac{dy}{dx}d^{3}x.$$
$$d^{3}y = d(d^{2}y) = d\left(\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}}dx^{2} + \frac{dy}{dx}d^{2}x\right)$$
$$= \frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}}dx^{3} + 3\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}}dxd^{2}x + \frac{dy}{dx}d^{3}x.$$

By taking differentials in succession any differential may ultimately be found.

4. In the differentials of the preceding article, if x is an independent variable, it can be assumed without loss of generality, that  $\Delta x$ , or what is the same in this case, dx, is constant. That is, it can be assumed that x changes by equal increments. Under this supposition, therefore,  $d^2x$  and all higher differentials of x can be taken zero. Therefore, under this supposition,

$$d^2y = rac{d^2y}{dx^2}dx^2,$$
  
 $d^3y = rac{d^3y}{dx^3}dx^3.$ 

The place which a derivative or differential occupies in the succession of derivatives or differentials indicates the **order** of the derivative or differential. Thus, a second derivative or differential is said to be of the second order, a third of the third order, and so on.

#### 4 SHORT COURSE ON DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

5. The only functions usually considered in elementary works in calculus are functions of a real variable. Such functions with one exception are the only ones considered in the following pages. The exception is  $e^{z}$  where z is a complex quantity.

The student is already familiar with the definition of  $e^z$  where x is real. He is, however, probably not familiar with the definition of  $e^z$  when z is a complex quantity. A definition of this function will now be given.

The infinite series

$$1+z+\frac{z^2}{2}+\frac{z^3}{3}+\cdots,$$

where z is a complex quantity, can be shown to have a determinate, finite value for every value of z. It also reduces to the infinite series

$$1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \cdots$$

when z becomes real and equal to x, and this series, it will be remembered, is equal to  $e^z$  for all values of x. It therefore appears that the infinite series in z would be satisfactory as a definition of  $e^z$ . We shall define  $e^z$  by saying that it is equal to the infinite series

$$1+z+\frac{z^2}{\underline{|2|}}+\frac{z^3}{\underline{|3|}}+\cdots$$

for all values of z.

From this definition, the following theorem can be established : **Theorem.** If z=x+yj where x and y are real, and  $j=\sqrt{-1}$ , then

$$e^{x} = e^{x}(\cos y + j\sin y).$$

Proof.

$$e^{z} = 1 + z + \frac{z^{2}}{2} + \frac{z^{3}}{3} + \cdots$$
, by definition.

$$= 1 + (x + yj) + \frac{(x + yj)^2}{|\underline{2}|} + \frac{(x + yj)^3}{|\underline{3}|} + \cdots$$

Consider all the terms containing  $x^r$ . These are found from the terms

$$\frac{(x+y)^r}{|\underline{r}|} + \frac{(x+y)^{r+1}}{|\underline{r+1}|} + \cdots$$

They are

$$\frac{x^{r}}{[r]}\left[1+y^{j}+\frac{(y^{j})^{3}}{[2]}+\frac{(y^{j})^{3}}{[3]}+\frac{(y^{j})^{4}}{[4]}+\frac{(y^{j})^{5}}{[5]}+\cdots\right],$$

or

or

$$\frac{x^{r}}{|r|}\left[1+y^{j}-\frac{y^{2}}{|2|}-\frac{y^{3}j}{|3|}+\frac{y^{4}}{|4|}+\frac{y^{5}j}{|5|}-\cdots\right].$$

Separate the real terms from the imaginary and there results,

$$\frac{x^{r}}{|\underline{r}|} \left[ 1 - \frac{y^{2}}{|\underline{2}|} + \frac{y^{4}}{|\underline{4}|} - \dots + j \left\{ y - \frac{y^{3}}{|\underline{3}|} + \frac{y^{5}}{|\underline{5}|} - \dots \right\} \right],$$
$$\frac{x^{r}}{|\underline{r}|} [\cos y + j \sin y].$$

Let r take all positive integral values in succession from 0. In this way we get all the terms of the development  $e^z$ . Then

$$e^{\mathbf{z}} = \left[1 + x + \frac{x^2}{\underline{2}} + \frac{x^3}{\underline{3}} + \cdots\right] \left[\cos y + j\sin y\right]$$
$$= e^{\mathbf{z}} (\cos y + j\sin y).$$

The theorem is therefore proved.

EXAMPLES. 
$$e^{-x+3xj} = e^{-x}(\cos 3x + j \sin 3x)$$

#### EXERCISES

1. Given  $y = \log x$ , find dy,  $d^2y$ ,  $d^3y$ :

(a), on the assumption that x is the independent variable;

(b), making no assumption with regard to x.

In the results of (b), substitute  $x = \cos \theta$  and show that the results are the same as those obtained by first substituting the value of x in log x and then taking the differentials.

2. Given  $y = e^x$  where  $x = \cos \theta$ , express dy,  $d^2y$ ,  $d^3y$  in terms of  $\theta$  without substituting the value of x in the equation  $y = e^x$ .

#### 6' SHORT COURSE ON DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

3. Given  $y = \log x$  where  $x = \sin \theta$ , express dy,  $d^{s}y$ ,  $d^{s}y$  in terms of  $\theta$  without substituting the value of x in the equation  $y = \log x$ .

4. Prove that  $e^{x-yj} = e^x(\cos y - j\sin y)$ .

5. Prove that  $e^{x+yj}e^{x+wj} = e^{x+x+(y+w)j}$ , where x, y, z and w are real.

#### ANSWERS

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

(b). 
$$dy = \frac{dx}{x}$$
;  $d^{2}y = \frac{xd^{2}x - dx^{2}}{x^{2}}$ ;  $d^{3}y = \frac{x^{2}d^{3}x - 3xdxd^{2}x + 2dx^{3}}{x^{3}}$ .

2. 
$$dy = -\sin\theta \, e^{\cos\theta} d\theta ;$$
  

$$d^2y = -\sin\theta \, e^{\cos\theta} d^2\theta + (\sin^2\theta - \cos\theta) e^{\cos\theta} d\theta^2 ;$$
  

$$d^3y = -\sin\theta \, e^{\cos\theta} d^3\theta + 3(\sin^2\theta - \cos\theta) e^{\cos\theta} d\theta d^2\theta + \sin\theta(1 + 3\cos\theta - \sin^2\theta) e^{\cos\theta} d\theta^3.$$

3. 
$$dy = \cot\theta \ d\theta$$
;  $d^2y = \cot\theta \ d^2\theta - \csc^2\theta \ d\theta^2$ ;  
 $d^3y = \cot\theta \ d^3\theta - 3 \ \csc^2\theta \ d\theta \ d^2\theta + 2 \ \csc^2\theta \ \cot\theta \ d\theta^3$ .

6. Definition of differential equation. A differential equation is an equation involving derivatives or differentials with or without the variables from which these derivatives or differentials are derived.

The following are examples of differential equations :

$$\left(\frac{d^3y}{dx^3}\right)^2 = x^3 \frac{dy}{dx}.$$
 (1)

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 + y = 0.$$
(2)

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2y\frac{dy}{dx} + y^2 = 0.$$
 (3)

$$3\left(\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\right)^2 - \frac{dy}{dx}\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} - \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = 0.$$
(4)

#### INTRODUCTION

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 0.$$
 (5)

$$\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$
 (6)

7. In examples (1) to (4) inclusive of the preceding article it will be noticed that differentials enter the equation only in derivatives. It is conceivable, however, that there might be an equation containing differentials other than those in the derivatives, as for example,

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

but there is no need of entering into a discussion of such equations, and we shall not do so. In what follows, we shall assume that if the equation is written in differential form, the differentials can all be converted into derivatives by the process of division.

8. Classes of differential equations. Differential equations are divided into two classes : ordinary and partial.

An ordinary differential equation is one in which all the derivatives involved have reference to a single independent variable.

A partial differential equation is one which contains partial derivatives and therefore indicates the existence of two or more independent variables with respect to which these derivatives have been formed.

Thus, in Art. 6, equations (1), (2), (3) and (4) are ordinary differential equations, and equations (5) and (6) are partial differential equations.

Chapters I to VII inclusive are devoted to a discussion of ordinary differential equations. Chapter VIII contains a short treatment of some partial differential equations.

9. Order and degree of a differential equation. The order of a differential equation is that of the highest derivative or differential in the equation. Thus, in Art. 6, equations (1) and (4) are of the third order, and (2) and (3) of the second order.

The **degree** of a differential equation is the degree of the derivative or differential of highest order in the equation after the equation is freed from radicals and fractions in its derivatives.

Thus, in Art. 6, equation (1) is of the second degree, equations (2), (3) and (4) of the first degree.

10. Solutions of a differential equation. Let us consider the differential equation in each of the two following examples, and see if, from the equation, we can get a relation connecting x and y and not involving derivatives, such that, if the value of y in terms of x be substituted in the equation, the equation is satisfied.

EXAMPLE 1.	$\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2.$
By integration, we get	$y = \frac{x^3}{3} +$

EXAMPLE 2.

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

Multiply the equation by 2dy/dx and integrate.

$$\therefore \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 + y^2 = c.$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = \pm \sqrt{c - y^2}.$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{\sqrt{c - y^2}} = \pm dx.$$

 $\therefore y = \pm \sqrt{c} \sin (x + c_1), \text{ or } y = \pm \sqrt{c} \cos (x + c_2).$ 

In example 1, if  $\frac{1}{3}x^3 + c$  be substituted for y in the equation, there results  $x^2 = x^2$ . The equation is therefore satisfied.

In example 2, if  $\pm \sqrt{c} \sin (x + c_1)$ , or  $\pm \sqrt{c} \cos (x + c_2)$  be substituted for y in the equation, there results, in the first case,

 $= \sqrt{c} \sin (x + c_1) \pm \sqrt{c} \sin (x + c_1) = 0, \text{ and in the second case,}$ =  $\sqrt{c} \cos (x + c_2) \pm \sqrt{c} \cos (x + c_2) = 0.$  In either case the equation is satisfied.

**Definition.** A solution of a differential equation is a relation between the variables of the equation and not involving derivatives, such that if the value of the dependent variable be substituted in the equation, the equation is satisfied.

Thus,  $y = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + c$  of example 1, and  $y = \pm \sqrt{c} \sin (x + c_1)$  of example 2, are solutions of the equations.

In this book we shall not concern ourselves with the question of whether every differential equation has a solution but shall be content with finding solutions in the few special cases discussed here.

11. A solution of an ordinary differential equation may be one of three kinds: general, particular and singular.

A general solution is one which contains arbitrary constants equal in number to the exponent of the order of the equation.

Thus, in example 1, Art. 10, the number of arbitrary constants is one and the exponent of the order of the equation is 1, and in example 2 of the same article the number of arbitrary constants is two, and the exponent of the order of the equation is 2. In either case the solution is the general solution of the equation.

A particular solution of a differential equation is a solution obtained from the general solution by giving one or more of the constants particular values.

Thus

$$y = \frac{x^3}{3}, \quad y = \frac{x^3}{3} + 1 \quad \text{or} \quad y = \frac{x^3}{3} - 5,$$

of example 1, Art. 10, or  $y = \sin x$ ,  $y=2 \sin x$ , or  $y=-3 \cos x$ , of example 2 of the same article, are particular solutions of the equations.

A singular solution of a differential equation is a solution without arbitrary constants which cannot be derived from the general solution by giving the constants particular values.

 $\mathbf{2}$ 

#### 10 SHORT COURSE ON DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

Singular solutions will not be considered in this book.

12. A solution of a differential equation is not a general solution unless the constants are in number equal to the exponent of the order of the equation, and cannot be reduced to a fewer number of equivalent constants.

Thus,  $y = ce^{x+a}$ , c and a arbitrary constants, although it contains two arbitrary constants, is not the general solution of a differential equation of the second order, as can readily be shown. The equation  $y = ce^{x+a}$  is the same as  $y = c^a e^x$ . Now  $c^a$  is equivalent to only one arbitrary constant because an arbitrary constant can have any value and thus all the particular solutions got by giving c and a all possible values can be obtained. Therefore  $y = c^a e^x$  is equivalent to a solution  $y = Ae^x$ , A arbitrary, and cannot therefore be the general solution of a differential equation of the second order.

13. Let  $y = f_1(x)$ ,  $y = f_2(x)$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $y = f_n(x)$  be solutions of a differential equation.

**Definition.** If the c's cannot be chosen, not all zero, such that  $c_1f_1(x) + c_2f_2(x) + \cdots + c_nf_n(x)$  is identically zero, then the solutions are said to be **linearly independent**.

Thus,  $y = \pm \sqrt{c} \sin (x + c_1)$  and  $y = \pm \sqrt{c} \cos (x + c_2)$  of example 2, Art. 10, are such that no values  $c_3$  and  $c_4$ , not both zero, can be chosen such that  $\pm c_3 \sqrt{c} \sin (x + c_1) \pm c_4 \sqrt{c} \cos (x + c_2)$  is identically zero. The solutions are therefore linearly independent.

#### 14. Derivation of an ordinary differential equation. Let

$$\phi(x, y, c_1) = 0 \tag{1}$$

be an equation containing x and y, and the arbitrary constant  $c_1$ .

By differentiation of (1) there results

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0.$$
 (2)

Equation (2) will in general contain  $c_1$ . If between (1) and

### INTRODUCTION

(2),  $c_1$  be eliminated, the result is a differential equation of the first order of which  $\phi(x, y, c_1) = 0$  is the general solution.

EXAMPLE. Find the differential equation of which C1 = 4-12

$$y = \frac{m}{2} + c_1 e^{-x^2}$$

is the general solution.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -2c_1xe^{-x^2}.$$

Therefore Eliminate  $c_1$  between the equations.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + 2xy = mx$$

s the differential equation of which

$$y = \frac{m}{2} + c_1 e^{-x^2}$$

s the general solution.

Sometimes the arbitrary constant is so involved that it disapbears in the equation which results from the differentiation. In such a case this equation is the desired equation.

EXAMPLE. Find the differential equation of which  $y^2 = 2c_1 x$ s the general solution.

Divide both sides of the equation by x.

$$\therefore \frac{y^2}{x} = 2c_1.$$

By differentiation there results

$$2x\frac{dy}{dx} - y = 0,$$

which is the desired differential equation. Let

$$\phi(x, y, c_1, c_2) = 0 \tag{1}$$

be an equation between x and y, and two arbitrary constants  $c_1$ und c.

#### 12 SHORT COURSE ON DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

By differentiation of (1) there results

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0.$$
 (2)

Equation (2) contains dy/dx and will in general contain  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  also. Eliminate one of the constants between the two equations. Suppose the constant  $c_1$  to be eliminated. The resulting equation contains dy/dx and in general x, y and  $c_2$ . Call it

$$\psi(x, y, \frac{dy}{dx}, c_{\mathbf{1}}) = 0.$$

By differentiation there results

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0.$$
 (3)

Equation (3) contains  $d^2y/dx^2$  and will in general contain  $c_2$ . Eliminate  $c_2$  between (2) and (3). The result is a differential equation of which  $\phi(x, y, c_1, c_2) = 0$  is the general solution.

EXAMPLE. Find the differential equation of which

$$y = c_1 x + \frac{c_2}{x}$$

is the general solution.

Differentiate 
$$y = c_1 x + \frac{c_1}{x}$$
  
 $\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = c_1 -$ 

Eliminate  $c_1$ .

$$\therefore y - x \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2c_2}{x}.$$

$$\therefore \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{2c_2}{x^3}.$$

Differentiate.

Eliminate  $c_{a}$  between

$$rac{d^2y}{dx^2}=rac{2c_2}{x^3} \quad ext{and} \quad y=xrac{dy}{dx}=rac{2c_2}{x}.$$

which is the desired differential equation.

15. It is seen from the preceding article that one constant can be removed after each differentiation. From this it would be expected that, starting with the differential equation, an arbitrary constant might be introduced every time the order of the differential equation was lowered by unity. Then, since lowering the order of a differential equation of the *n*th order by unity n times would result in a solution of the differential equation, it would be expected that a solution would contain not more than n arbitrary constants.

It is a theorem that a differential equation cannot contain a solution having more arbitrary constants than the exponent of the order of the equation unless the constants are such that they can be reduced to a fewer number of equivalent constants. This will be assumed without further discussion.

It is also a theorem that a differential equation cannot have more than one general solution. This theorem will be assumed without discussion.

16. A general solution may have various forms but there is always a relation between the constants of one form and those of another. Thus, the general solution of example 2, Art. 10, may be written  $y = A \sin x + B \cos x$  instead of  $y = \pm \sqrt{c} \sin (x+c_1)$ . This latter form of solution is  $y = \pm \sqrt{c} \cos c_1 \sin x \pm \sqrt{c} \sin c_1 \cos x$ , so that  $A = \pm \sqrt{c} \cos c_1$ , and  $B = \pm \sqrt{c} \sin c_1$ .

#### EXERCISES

1. Determine the order and degree of the following equations.

(a). 
$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = c \left\{ 1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 \right\}.$$
 (c). 
$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = c \left\{ 1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 \right\}^{\frac{3}{2}}.$$
  
(b). 
$$x^3 \frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + x^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0.$$
 (d). 
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = a^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}.$$

#### 14 SHORT COURSE ON DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

In each of the seven following exercises determine the differ ential equation of which the given equation is the general solu tion, given that  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$  and c are arbitrary constants.

2.  $y = c_1 \sin mx + c_2 \cos mx$ . 5.  $y = cx + c - c^3$ . 3.  $v = c_1 \cos(mt + c_2)$ . 6.  $xy = c_1 e^x + c_2 e^{-x}$ . 4.  $(x - c_1)^2 + (y - c_2)^2 = m^2$ . 7.  $y^2 - 2cx - c^2 = 0$ . 8.  $y(1+x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = c_1 + \log \frac{x}{1+(1+x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$ 9. Show that  $y = c_1 x + \frac{c_2}{\alpha} + c_3$ is a solution of  $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + \frac{3}{x}\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0.$ 10. Show that  $4y = \frac{1}{2x} + c_1 x^5 + c_2 x$ is a solution of  $x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 5x \frac{dy}{dx} + 5y = \frac{1}{x}.$ 11. Show that  $y = \frac{2}{15}e^{2x} + c_1e^{-x} + c_2e^{-3x}$ is a solution of  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4\frac{dy}{dx} + 3y = 2e^{2x}$ . 12. Show that  $v = \frac{c_1}{m} + c_2$ is a solution of  $\frac{d^2v}{dx^2} + \frac{2}{x}\frac{dv}{dx} = 0.$ 

#### ANSWERS

 $3. \quad \frac{d^2v}{dt^2} = -m^2v.$ 

 $2. \quad \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -m^2y.$ 

4. 
$$1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 \pm \frac{m}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}} \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0.$$
  
5.  $y = x\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{dy}{dx} - \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^3.$  6.  $x\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2\frac{dy}{dx} = xy.$   
7.  $y - 2x\frac{dy}{dx} - y\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = 0.$  8.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{x}{1 + x^2}y = \frac{1}{x(1 + x^2)}.$ 

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## CHAPTER 'II

#### CHANGE OF VARIABLE

17. Interchange of Variables. It is sometimes desirable to transform an expression involving derivatives of the function y, in y = f(x) where x is the independent variable, into an equivalent expression involving derivatives of the function x, given by the same equation, where y is the independent variable.

The formulas for such a transformation can be readily established as follows:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x = 0} \left[ \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} \right] = \lim_{\Delta y = 0} \left[ \frac{1}{\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta y}} \right] = \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dy}}.$$
(1)
$$\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{2}} = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dy} \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right) \cdot \frac{dy}{dx}, \qquad \text{since } \frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx}.$$

$$= \frac{d}{dy} \left( \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dy}} \right) \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dy}}, \qquad \text{by substitution from (1).}$$

$$= -\frac{\frac{d^{2}x}{(\frac{dx}{dy})^{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dy}} = -\frac{\frac{d^{2}x}{(\frac{dx}{dy})^{3}}}{(\frac{dx}{dy})^{3}}.$$
(2)
$$\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} \right) = \frac{d}{dy} \left\{ -\frac{\frac{d^{2}x}{(\frac{dx}{dy})^{3}}}{(\frac{dx}{dy})^{3}} \right\} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dy}}$$

$$\frac{1}{16}$$

CHANGE OF VARIABLE

$$=\frac{-\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^{3}\frac{d^{3}x}{dy^{3}}+3\left(\frac{d^{2}x}{dy^{2}}\right)^{2}\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^{7}}=\frac{-\frac{d^{3}x}{dy}\frac{dx}{dy}+3\left(\frac{d^{2}x}{dy^{2}}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^{5}}.$$
 (3)

The method of procedure for higher derivatives is evident. The transformations to which these formulas apply are called change of the independent variable or interchange of variables.

EXAMPLE. Change the independent variable from x to y in the equation

$$3\left(\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\right)^2 - \frac{dy}{dx}\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} - \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = 0.$$

Substitute from (1), (2) and (3).

2

$$\therefore 3 \left\{ -\frac{\frac{d^2 x}{dy^2}}{\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^3} \right\}^2 - \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dy}} \cdot \frac{-\frac{d^3 x}{dy^3} \frac{dx}{dy} + 3\left(\frac{d^2 x}{dy^2}\right)^2}{\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^5} + \frac{\frac{d^2 x}{dy^2}}{\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^3} \cdot \frac{1}{\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2} = 0.$$

$$\therefore \left(\frac{d^3 x}{dy^3} + \frac{d^2 x}{dy^2}\right) \frac{dx}{dy} = 0.$$

18. Change of the dependent variable. Suppose that y is a function of x and at the same time is a function of some other variable z. The derivatives of y with respect to x can then be expressed in terms of derivatives of z with respect to x.

As a function of z, let  $y = \phi(z)$ . Denote differentiation with respect to z by primes. Then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dz}\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{d\phi(z)}{dz}\frac{dz}{dx} = \phi'(z)\frac{dz}{dx}.$$
$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right) = \frac{d\phi'(z)}{dx}\frac{dz}{dx} + \phi'(z)\frac{d^2z}{dx^2} = \phi''(z)\left(\frac{dz}{dx}\right)^2 + \phi'(z)\frac{d^2z}{dx^2}.$$

$$\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \right) = \phi^{\prime\prime\prime}(z) \left( \frac{dz}{dx} \right)^3 + 3\phi^{\prime\prime}(z) \frac{dz}{dx} \frac{d^2z}{dx^2} + \phi^\prime(z) \frac{d^3z}{dx^3}$$

Similarly for higher derivatives.

The above transformation is called **change of the dependent** variable.

EXAMPLE. In the equation

$$(1+y^2)\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - (2y-1)\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 + 3x(1+y^2)\frac{dy}{dx} = 0,$$

change the dependent variable from y to z where y = tan z.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sec^2 z \frac{dz}{dx}.$$
$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 2 \sec^2 z \tan z \left(\frac{dz}{dx}\right)^2 + \sec^2 z \frac{d^2z}{dx^2}.$$

Substitute in the equation.

$$\therefore 2 \sec^4 z \tan z \left(\frac{dz}{dx}\right)^2 + \sec^4 z \frac{d^2 z}{dx^2} - (2 \tan z - 1) \sec^4 z \left(\frac{dz}{dx}\right)^2 + 3x \sec^4 z \frac{dz}{dx} = 0.$$
$$\therefore \frac{d^2 z}{dx^2} + \left(\frac{dz}{dx}\right)^2 + 3x \frac{dz}{dx} = 0.$$

19. Change of the independent variable. Suppose that y is a function of x where x is a function of some other variable z. The derivatives of y with respect to x can then be expressed in terms of derivatives of y with respect to z.

As a function of z let  $x = \phi(z)$ . Denote differentiation with respect to z by primes. Then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dz}\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dz}\frac{1}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dz}\frac{1}{\phi'(z)}.$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right) = \frac{d}{dz}\left(\frac{dy}{dz}\frac{1}{\phi'(z)}\right)\frac{1}{dx} = \frac{1}{\{\phi'(z)\}^2}\frac{d^2y}{dz^2} - \frac{\phi''(z)}{\{\phi'(z)\}^3}\frac{dy}{dz}.$$

#### CHANGE OF VARIABLE

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^3y}{dx^3} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \right) = \frac{d}{dz} \left[ \frac{1}{\{\phi'(z)\}^2} \frac{d^2y}{dz^2} - \frac{\phi''(z)}{\{\phi'(z)\}^3} \frac{dy}{dz} \right] \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dz}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\{\phi'(z)\}^3} \frac{d^3y}{dz^3} - 3 \frac{\phi''(z)}{\{\phi'(z)\}^4} \frac{d^2y}{dz^2} \\ &- \frac{\phi'(z)\phi'''(z) - 3\{\phi''(z)\}^2}{\{\phi'(z)\}^5} \frac{dy}{dz} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly for higher derivatives.

The above transformation is called **change of the independent** variable.

EXAMPLE. In the equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - \frac{x}{1-x^2}\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{1-x^2} = 0,$$

change the independent variable from x to z, where  $x = \cos z$ .

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dz}\frac{dz}{dx} = -\operatorname{cosec} z\frac{dy}{dz}.$$
$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right) = \frac{d}{dz}\left(-\operatorname{cosec} z\frac{dy}{dz}\right)\frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dz}}$$
$$= -\operatorname{cosec}^2 z \operatorname{cot} z\frac{dy}{dz} + \operatorname{cosec}^2 z\frac{d^2y}{dz^2}.$$

Substitute in the equation.

$$\therefore \operatorname{cosec}^{2} z \frac{d^{2} y}{dz^{2}} - \operatorname{cosec}^{2} z \operatorname{cot} z \frac{d y}{dz} + \operatorname{cosec}^{2} z \operatorname{cot} z \frac{d y}{dz} + \operatorname{cosec}^{2} z y = 0.$$
$$\therefore \frac{d^{2} y}{dz^{2}} + y = 0.$$

When changing either the dependent or independent variable to a third variable, it is better to work out each derivative in the particular case considered rather than use the derivatives expressed in the general case as formulas.

#### EXERCISES

In each of the four following exercises, change the independent variable from x to y.

1. 
$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2y\frac{dy}{dx} = 0.$$
2. 
$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 - y\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^3 = 0.$$
3. 
$$\frac{\left[1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}}{\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}} = \rho.$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx}\frac{dy}{dx} - \left(\frac{d^2y}{dx}\right)^2 - \frac{d^2y}{dx}\frac{dy}{dx} - \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^4 - \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^5$$

4. 
$$\frac{d^3y}{dx^3}\frac{dy}{dx} - 3\left(\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\right)^2 + 3\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 - 2\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^4 - x\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^5 = 0.$$

In each of the two following exercises change the dependent variable from y to z.

5. 
$$(1+y^2)\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2y\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 - 2(1+y^2)\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2(1+y^2),$$

where  $y = \tan z$ .

6. 
$$y^{2} \frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} - \left(3y \frac{dy}{dx} + 2xy^{2}\right) \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + \left\{2\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{2} + 2xy \frac{dy}{dx} + 3x^{2}y^{2}\right\} \frac{dy}{dx} + x^{3}y^{3} = 0,$$
where  $y = e^{x}$ 

where  $y = e^x$ .

In each of the four following exercises, change the independent variable from x to z.

7. 
$$x^{2} \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$
, where  $x = e^{x}$ .  
8.  $(1 - x^{2}) \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - x \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ , where  $x = \sin z$ .  
9.  $x^{3} \frac{d^{3}v}{dx^{3}} + 2x^{2} \frac{d^{2}v}{dx^{2}} + v = 0$ , where  $x = e^{x}$ .  
10.  $\frac{d^{2}v}{dx^{2}} + \frac{2x}{1 + x^{2}} \frac{dv}{dx} + \frac{v}{(1 + x^{2})^{2}} = 0$ , where  $x = \tan z$ .

#### CHANGE OF VARIABLE

#### 11. Transform the formula for radius of curvature,

$$\boldsymbol{\rho} = \frac{\left[1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}}{\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}},$$

into polar coördinates, the equations of transformation being  $x = r \cos \theta$ ,  $y = r \sin \theta$ .

ANSWERS  
1. 
$$\frac{d^{2}x}{dy^{2}} + 2y\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^{2} = 0.$$
 2.  $\frac{d^{2}x}{dy^{2}} + \frac{dx}{dy} + y = 0.$   
3.  $\rho = -\frac{\left[1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^{2}\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}}{\frac{d^{2}x}{dy^{2}}}.$  4.  $\frac{d^{3}x}{dy^{3}} + 3\frac{d^{2}x}{dy^{2}} + 2\frac{dx}{dy} + x = 0.$   
5.  $\frac{d^{2}z}{dx^{2}} - 2\frac{dz}{dx} = \sin^{2}z.$  6.  $\frac{d^{3}z}{dx^{3}} - 2x\frac{d^{2}z}{dx^{2}} + 3x^{2}\frac{dz}{dx} + x^{3} = 0.$   
7.  $\frac{d^{2}y}{dz^{2}} + y = 0.$  8.  $\frac{d^{2}y}{dz^{2}} = 0.$   
9.  $\frac{d^{3}v}{dz^{3}} - \frac{d^{2}v}{dz^{2}} + v = 0.$  10.  $\frac{d^{2}v}{dz^{2}} + v = 0.$   
11.  $\rho = \frac{\left[r^{2} + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^{2}\right]^{\frac{3}{2}}}{r^{2} + 2\left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^{2} - r\frac{d^{2}r}{d\theta^{2}}}.$ 

21

## CHAPTER III

#### ORDINARY DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS OF THE FIRST ORDER AND FIRST DEGREE

20. An ordinary differential equation in one dependent variable, of the first order and first degree, may be represented by the equation

$$Mdx + Ndy = 0$$

where M and N are functions of x and y and do not contain derivatives.

The equation Mdx + Ndy = 0 cannot be integrated in the general form. There are certain particular forms of it, however, which can be integrated. Some of these will now be investigated.

#### 21. LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS OF THE FIRST ORDER

Definition. An ordinary linear differential equation of the first order is an equation in the form

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

where P and Q are functions of x and do not contain y or derivatives.

The general solution of the equation

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



can be found as follows :

Multiply both sides of the equation by  $e^{\int Pdx}$ .

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} e^{\int P dx} + P y e^{\int P dx} = Q e^{\int P dx}$$

### EQUATIONS OF FIRST ORDER AND FIRST DEGREE 23

If the substitution  $u = ye \int^{Pdx} be$  made, the left hand member of the equation reduces to du/dx.

which is the general solution of the equation.

In the original equation, if P is zero, the equation reduces to the familiar form dy/dx = Q, and the general solution is

$$y = c + \int Q dx.$$

If Q is zero, the equation becomes

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = 0,$$

and the general solution is  $y = ce^{-\int P dx}$ .

When Q, in the equation

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

is zero, the equation is called the ordinary linear differential equation of the first order with the right hand member zero.

EXAMPLE. Find the general solution of the equation dy = 1

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

Multiply both sides of the equation by  $e^{\int \frac{1}{x} dx}$ .

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} e^{\int \frac{1}{x} dx} + \frac{1}{x} \left( e^{\int \frac{1}{x} dx} y \right) \xrightarrow{} x^2 e^{\int \frac{1}{x} dx}.$$

Let 
$$u = ye^{\int \frac{1}{x}dx}$$
.  
 $\therefore \frac{du}{dx} = x^2 e^{\int \frac{1}{x}dx}$ .  $\therefore u = \int x^2 e^{\int \frac{1}{x}dx} dx + c$ .  
Now  $e^{\int \frac{1}{x}dx} = e^{\log x} = x$ .  
 $\therefore u = \int x^3 dx + c = \frac{x^4}{4} + c$ .  $\therefore y = \frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{x^4}{4} + c\right) = \frac{x^3}{4} + \frac{c}{x}$ .

It is usual to solve an ordinary linear differential equation of the first order by substituting directly in formula (1). Thus, in the above example, formula (1) becomes

$$y = e^{-\int_x^1 dx} \int x^2 e^{\int_x^1 dx} dx + c e^{-\int_x^1 dx}$$
$$= \frac{x^3}{4} + \frac{c}{x}.$$

# 22. EQUATIONS REDUCIBLE TO THE LINEAR FORM A form easily reducible to the linear form is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Qy^n$$

where P and Q are functions of x and do not contain y or derivatives.

Divide by  $y^n$ .

Let 
$$y^{-n+1} = u$$
.  
 $\therefore y^{-n} \frac{dy}{dx} + Py^{-n+1} = Q$ .  
 $\therefore (-n+1)y^{-n} \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx}$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{1}{-n+1} \frac{du}{dx} + Pu = Q$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{du}{dx} + (1-n)Pu = Q(1-n)$ ,

which is linear and can therefore be solved by the methods of Art. 21.

EQUATIONS OF FIRST ORDER AND FIRST DEGREE 25

EXAMPLE. Find the general solution of the equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{1}{x}y = x^2y^3.$$

Divide by  $y^3$ .

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

Let  $y^{-2} = u$ .

$$\therefore -2y^{-3}\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx}.$$
$$\therefore \frac{du}{dx} - \frac{2}{x}u = -2x^{2}.$$

$$\therefore u = -2e^{\int \frac{2}{x}dx}\int x^2 e^{-\int \frac{2}{x}dx}dx + ce^{\int \frac{2}{x}dx} = -2x^3 + cx^2.$$

Therefore  $-2x^3y^2 + cx^2y^2 = 1$  is the general solution of the equation.

# 23. VARIABLES SEPARABLE

Sometimes the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0 can be brought to the form Xdx + Ydy = 0 where X is a function of x alone and Y is a function of y alone. In such a case the general solution is evidently

$$\int X dx + \int Y dy = c,$$

c being an arbitrary constant.

ÈXAMPLE. Find the general solution of the equation

$$x\sqrt{1-y^2}dx + y\sqrt{1-x^2}dy = 0.$$

Divide by  $\sqrt{1-y^2}\sqrt{1-x^2}$ .

$$\therefore \frac{x}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} dx + \frac{y}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} dy = 0.$$
$$\therefore \int \frac{y dy}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} = c_1$$

Therefore  $\sqrt{1-x^2} + \sqrt{1-y^2} = c$  is the general solution of the equation.

3

The process of reducing the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0 to the form Xdx + Ydy = 0 is called separation of the variables.

### 24. EXACT DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS OF THE FIRST ORDER AND FIRST DEGREE

**Definition.** The ordinary differential equation Mdx + Ndy = 0where M and N are functions of x and y, is said to be **exact** when there is a function u(x, y) such that du = Mdx + Ndy.

EXAMPLE. The equation  $2xydx + x^2dy = 0$  is said to be exact because  $u = x^2y$  is such that  $du = 2xydx + x^2dy$ .

When there is a function u(x, y) such that du = Mdx + Ndy, then u = c, where c is an arbitrary constant, is the general solution of the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0.

Condition that the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0 be exact. If the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0 be exact, then, by definition, there is a function u(x, y) such that du = Mdx + Ndy. Now

$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dy,$$

from the definition of the differential of two independent variables.

$$\therefore M = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \quad \text{and} \quad N = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}.$$
$$\therefore \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y \partial x}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y}.$$
$$\therefore \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}.$$

That the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0 be exact, it is therefore necessary that

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}.$$

Conversely, the condition is sufficient. That is if



then Mdx + Ndy = 0 is an exact differential equation.

EQUATIONS OF FIRST ORDER AND FIRST DEGREE 27

**Proof:** Let  $\int Mdx = P$ ,  $\therefore \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} = M$ .  $\therefore \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$ .  $\therefore \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right)$ .  $\therefore N = \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} + F(y)$ .  $\therefore Mdx + Ndy = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} dy + F(y) dy = d\{P + Q(y)\},$ where Q(y) is such that dQ(y) = F(y) dy. Therefore, if  $\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}, \qquad \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial N}{\partial X}$ 

the left hand member of the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0 is an exact differential and therefore the equation is an exact differential equation.

To find the general solution of the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0when the equation is exact.

Let u(x, y) be a function whose differential is Mdx + Ndy. Since  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = M$ ,

$$\therefore u = \int M dx + F(y).$$

Since  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = N$ ,  $\therefore N = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \int M dx + \frac{dF(y)}{dy}$ .  $\therefore \frac{dF(y)}{dy} = N - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \int M dx$ .  $\therefore F(y) = \int \left(N - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \int M dx\right) dy$ .  $\therefore u = \int M dx + \int \left(N - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \int M dx\right) dy$ .

The general solution of the equation is u = c where c is an arbitrary constant.

EXAMPLE. Find the general solution of the equation

$$(x^{3} + 2xy + y)dx + (y^{3} + x^{2} + x)dy = 0.$$

This is an exact differential equation. Therefore the general solution can be obtained by the above method.

Since 
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = M$$
,  
 $\therefore u = \int (x^3 + 2xy + y)dx + F'(y) = \frac{x^4}{4} + x^2y + xy + F'(y)$ .  
Now  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = N$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left\{ \frac{x^4}{4} + x^2y + xy + F(y) \right\} = y^3 + x^2 + x$ .  
 $\therefore x^2 + x + \frac{dF'(y)}{dy} = y^3 + x^2 + x$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{dF'(y)}{dy} = y^3$ .  $\therefore F'(y) = \frac{y^4}{4}$ .  
 $\therefore u = \frac{x^4}{4} + x^2y + xy + \frac{y^4}{4}$ .

Therefore  $\frac{x^4}{4} + x^2y + xy + \frac{y^4}{4} = c$  is the required general solution of the equation.

### 25. INTEGRATING FACTORS

It sometimes happens that the differential equation

$$Mdx + Ndy = 0$$

is not exact but becomes so when it is multiplied by some quantity. Thus,

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

of Art. 21, is not exact but becomes so after multiplication by  $e \int P dx$ .

**Definition.** A factor which changes a differential equation into an exact differential equation is called an integrating factor of the equation.

Sometimes an integrating factor can be found by inspection.

EXAMPLE. Find the general solution of the equation

 $(x^2e^x - y^2)dx + 2xydy = 0.$ 

The equation is not exact as it stands but becomes so on multiplication by  $1/x^2$ .

Multiply by  $1/x^2$ .

$$\therefore \frac{x^2 e^x - y^2}{x^2} dx + \frac{2y}{x} dy = 0.$$
$$\therefore e^x dx - \frac{y^2}{x^2} dx + \frac{2y}{x} dy = 0.$$
$$\therefore de^x + d\left(\frac{y^2}{x}\right) = 0.$$
$$\therefore e^x + \frac{y^2}{x} = c. \quad \therefore y^2 = -xe^x + cx.$$

Therefore  $y^2 = -xe^x + cx$  is the general solution of the equation.

Rules have been devised for finding integrating factors in many cases where they cannot be found by inspection. For a discussion of them, the student is referred to Boole's, Murray's, or Johnson's Differential Equations.

# 26. EQUATIONS HOMOGENEOUS IN x AND y

**Definition.** If M and N of the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0are both of the same degree in x and y and are homogeneous, the equation is said to be homogeneous.

To find the general solution of the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0when the equation is homogeneous.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{M}{N}.$$

Divide both numerator and denominator of  $-\frac{M}{N}$  by x raised to the power indicated by the degree of M or N.

Then every term in M and N is constant or in the form of a coefficient multiplied by some power of  $\frac{y}{x}$ .

Then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right).$$

Let  $y \equiv vx$ .

$$\therefore x \frac{dv}{dx} + v = f(v).$$

Therefore

$$\frac{dx}{x} = \frac{dv}{f(v) - v},$$

an equation in which the variables are separated, and can therefore usually be integrated without difficulty.

EXAMPLE. Find the general solution of the equation  $(x^2 + y^2)dx - xydy = 0.$ 

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{xy}.$$
Let  $y = vx$ .  
 $\therefore v + x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{1 + v^2}{v}.$   $\therefore x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{1 + v^2}{v} - v = \frac{1}{v}.$   
 $\therefore v dv = \frac{dx}{x}.$   
 $\therefore v^2 = 2 \log ex.$ 

Therefore  $y^2 = 2x^2 \log cx$  is the general solution of the equation.

27. EQUATIONS OF THE FORM  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{a_1x + b_1y + c_1}{a_2x + b_2y + c_2}$ 

The general solution of an equation in the above form can be found as follows :

Let  $x = x' + x_0$ , and  $y = y' + y_0$ , where x' and y' are new variables, and  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  are constants.

EQUATIONS OF FIRST ORDER AND FIRST DEGREE 31 Change the variables to x' and y'.

$$\therefore \frac{dy'}{dx'} = \frac{a_1 x' + b_1 y' + a_1 x_0 + b_1 y_0 + c_1}{a_2 x' + b_2 y' + a_2 x_0 + b_2 y_0 + c_2}.$$
(1)

**Case I.** If  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  can be determined such that

$$a_1x_0 + b_1y_0 + c_1 = 0$$
, and  $a_2x_0 + b_2y_0 + c_2 = 0$ ,

then, on determining them such, equation (1) becomes

$$\frac{dy'}{dx'} = \frac{a_1x' + b_1y'}{a_2x' + b_2y'},$$

which is homogeneous and can be solved by the method of Art. 26.

**Case II.** If  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  cannot be determined such that

 $a_1x_0 + b_1y_0 + c_1 = 0$ , and  $a_2x_0 + b_2y_0 + c_2 = 0$ , then, as was seen in algebra,

$$\frac{a_1}{a_2} = \frac{b_1}{b_2} = \frac{1}{m}$$

By substitution, the original equation becomes

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{a_1x + b_1y + c_1}{m(a_1x + b_1y) + c_2}$$

Let  $a_1x + b_1y = v$ .

$$\therefore a_1 + b_1 \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dv}{dx}.$$

Therefore

$$\frac{dv}{dx} = a_1 + b_1 \frac{v + c_1}{mv + c_2},$$

an equation in which the variables are separable.

**EXAMPLE 1.** Find the general solution of the equation

$$(2x + 3y - 6)\frac{dy}{dx} = 6x - 2y - 7.$$
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{6x - 2y - 7}{2x + 3y - 6}.$$

# dx = 7×+34-0

32 SHORT COURSE ON DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

Let 
$$x = x_0 + x'$$
,  $y = y_0 + y'$  where  
 $6x_0 - 2y_0 - 7 = 0$ , and  $2x_0 + 3y_0 - 6 = 0$ .  
 $\therefore x = \frac{3}{2} + x'$ ,  $y = 1 + y'$ .  $\therefore \frac{dy'}{dx'} = \frac{6x' - 2y'}{2x' + 3y'}$ .  
 $\therefore x' \frac{dv}{dx'} = \frac{6 - 2v}{2 + 3v} - v = \frac{6 - 4v - 3v^2}{2 + 3v}$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{(2 + 3v)dv}{6 - 4v - 3v^2} = \frac{dx'}{x'}$ .  
 $\therefore -\log c_1 x' = \log (3v^2 + 4v - 6)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{1}{c_1 x'} = (3v^2 + 4v - 6)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{c_2}{(x - \frac{3}{2})^2} = 3\left(\frac{y - 1}{x - \frac{3}{2}}\right)^2 + 4\left(\frac{y - 1}{x - \frac{3}{2}}\right) - 6$ .

Therefore  $3y^2 + 4xy - 6x^2 - 12y + 14x = c$  is the general solution of the equation.

EXAMPLE 2. Find the general solution of the equation

$$(3x - y + 4)\frac{dy}{dx} = 6x - 2y - 7.$$

This comes under case II.

Let 
$$6x - 2y = v$$
.  
 $\therefore 6 - 2\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dv}{dx}$ .  
 $\therefore 6 - 2\frac{v - 7}{\frac{1}{2}v + 4} = \frac{dv}{dx}$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{2v + 76}{v + 8}$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{(v + 8)dv}{v + 38} = 2dx$ .  
 $\therefore (1 - \frac{30}{v + 38}) dv = 2dx$ .  
 $\therefore v - 30 \log (v + 38) = 2x + c_1$ .  
 $\therefore 4x - 2y - 30 \log (6x - 2y + 38) = 30$ 

C1.

Therefore  $2x - y - 15 \log (3x - y + 19) = c$  is the general solution of the equation.

### EXERCISES

Find the general solution of each of the thirty-six following equations.

1.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{1}{x}y = 1 - x^2$ . 2.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \cot x y = \csc^2 x$ . 3.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x - y$ . 4.  $(1+x^2)\frac{dy}{dx}+x^2y=x^3-x^2\tan^{-1}x$ . 5.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{x}{1+x^2}y = \frac{1}{x(1+x^2)}$ . 6.  $x(1-x^2)\frac{dy}{dx} + (x^2-1)y = x^8$ . 7.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \cos x \, y = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x.$ 8.  $x(1-x^2)\frac{dy}{dx} + (2x^2-1)y = ax^3$ . 9.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \sin x \, y = y^2 \sin x$ . 10.  $(1 - x^2) \frac{dy}{dx} - xy = axy^2$ . 11.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \cos x \, y = y^n \sin 2x.$  12.  $3y^2 \frac{dy}{dx} + y^3 = x - 1.$ 13.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \tan x \, y = y^4 \sec x$ . 14.  $y\sqrt{x^2-1}dx + x\sqrt{y^2-1}dy = 0.$ 15.  $(e^{y} + 1) \cos x \, dx + e^{y} \sin x \, dy = 0.$ 16.  $\sqrt{2ay - y^2} \operatorname{cosec} x \, dx + y \tan x \, dy = 0.$ 17.  $y(3+y)\frac{dy}{dx} = x(2y+3).$ 18.  $(x^3 - 3x^2y + 5xy^2 - 7y^3)dx$  $+ (y^{4} + 2y^{2} - x^{3} + 5x^{2}y - 21xy^{2})dy = 0.$ 

34 SHORT COURSE ON DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS  
19. 
$$(x^3 + 4xy + y^2)dx + (2x^2 + 2xy + 4y^3)dy = 0.$$
  
20.  $\sin x \cos y \, dx + \cos x \sin y \, dy = 0.$   
21.  $(x^2 + \log y)dx + \frac{x}{y} \, dy = 0.$   
22.  $x(x - 2y)dy + (x^2 + 2y^2)dx = 0.$   
23.  $5xydy - (x^2 + y^2)dx = 0.$   
24.  $(x^2 + 3xy - y^2)dy - 3y^2dx = 0.$   
25.  $(x^2 + 2xy)dy - (3x^2 - 2xy + y^2)dx = 0.$   
26.  $5xydy - (4x^2 + y^2)dx = 0.$   
27.  $(x^2 - 2xy)dy + (x^3 - 3xy + 2y^2)dx = 0.$   
28.  $3x^2dy + (2x^2 - 3y^2)dx = 0.$   
29.  $(3x + 2y - 7)\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x - 3y + 6.$   
30.  $(6x - 5y + 4)\frac{dy}{dx} = x - 3y + 2.$   
31.  $(5x - 2y + 7)\frac{dy}{dx} = 5x - 7y.$   
33.  $(x - 3y + 4)\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x - 6y + 7.$   
34.  $(5x - 2y + 7)\frac{dy}{dx} = 10x - 4y + 6.$   
35.  $(2x - 2y + 5)\frac{dy}{dx} = x - 2y + 1.$ 

The following formulas, derived in almost any work in calculus, are inserted here for convenience of reference : The subtangent and subnormal at a point (x, y) on a curve whose equation is expressed in rectangular coördinates are  $y \frac{dx}{dy}$  and  $y \frac{dy}{dx}$  respectively. The polar subtangent and polar subnormal at a point  $(r, \theta)$  on a curve are  $r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dr}$  and  $\frac{dr}{d\theta}$  respectively. The angle between the radius vector to a point  $(r, \theta)$  and the

The angle between the radius vector to a point  $(r, \theta)$  and the tangent line to the curve at the point is

$$an^{-1}rac{r}{dr}\cdot rac{r}{d heta}$$

The equation of the tangent line to the curve y = f(x) at the point  $(x_1, y_1)$  on the curve is

$$y-y_1=\frac{dy}{dx}\Big|_{x=x_1}(x-x_1).$$

The area enclosed between the curve y = f(x), the x-axis, and the ordinates whose abscissas are  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  respectively is

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_1} y dx$$

provided the curve does not cut the x-axis between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$ .

The length of the arc of the curve y = f(x) between the points  $(x_0, y_0)$  and  $(x_1, y_1)$  on the curve is

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_1} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx.$$

37. Determine the curve whose subtangent at a point on it is *n*-times the abscissa of the point. Find the particular curve that goes through the point (3, 4). Plot the curve (a), for n = 1, (b), for n = 2.

38. Determine the curve whose subtangent at a point on it is *n*-times the subnormal at the point. Find the particular curve that goes through the point  $(\sqrt{n}, 2)$ . Plot the curve when n = 4.

39. Determine the curve whose subtangent is constant and equal to a. Plot the curve, (a), when a = 1, (b), when a = 2.

40. Determine the curve whose subnormal is constant and equal to a. Find the particular curve that goes through the point (1, 2).

41. Determine the curve which is such that the length of the perpendicular from the foot of the ordinate of any point on the curve to the tangent line at that point is constant and equal to a. Determine the particular curve when c = a. At what angle does this curve cut the y-axis?

42. Determine the curve which is such that the area between the curve, the x-axis, and two ordinates, is equal to the arc between the ordinates.

43. Determine the curve which is such that the perpendicular from the origin upon any tangent line is equal to the abscissa of the point of contact.

44. Determine the curve in which the angle between the radius vector and the tangent line is *n*-times the vectorial angle. Plot the curve when  $n = \frac{1}{2}$ .

45. Determine the curve in which the polar subnormal is proportional to the sine of the vectorial angle.

46. Determine the curve in which the polar subtangent is proportional to the length of the radius vector.

The equation for a circuit containing induction and resistance is

$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = e$$

where e is the electromotive force [E.M.F.] impressed upon the circuit, R the resistance offered by the circuit, L the coefficient of induction, i the current, and t the time during which the circuit is in operation. In each of the four following exercises, determine the current in the circuit after a time t supposing that the resistance and induction are constant.

47. The E.M.F. is zero. Solve subject to the condition that i = I when t = 0.

48. The E.M.F. is constant and equal to E.

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#### EQUATIONS OF FIRST ORDER AND FIRST DEGREE 37

49. The E.M.F. is a simple sine function of the time, =  $E \sin \omega t$  where E is the maximum value of the impressed E.M.F., and  $\omega$  is the angular velocity, equivalent to  $2\pi n$  where n denotes the number of complete periods or alternations per second.

50. The E.M.F. is the sum of two components each following the sine law, that is,  $e = E_1 \sin \omega t + E_2 \sin (b\omega t + \theta)$ .

The equation for a circuit containing resistance and capacity is

$$\frac{di}{dt} + \frac{i}{RC} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{de}{dt}$$

where e is the E.M.F., R the resistance, C the capacity, i the current, and t the time during which the circuit is in operation.

In each of the two following exercises determine the current in the circuit after a time t, supposing that the resistance and capacity are constant.

51. The E.M.F. is constant and equal to E.

52. The E.M.F. is a simple sine function of the time, =  $E \sin \omega t$ .

The equation for a circuit containing resistance and capacity is

$$R\frac{dq}{dt} + \frac{q}{C} = e$$

where e is the E.M.F., R the resistance, C the capacity, q the quantity of charge in the conductor, and t the time during which the circuit is in operation. In each of the three following exercises determine the charge in the circuit after a time t, supposing that the resistance and capacity are constant.

53. The E.M.F. is zero. Solve subject to the condition that q = Q when t = 0.

 $\checkmark$  54. The E.M.F. is constant and equal to E.

155. The E.M.F. is a simple sine function of the time, =  $E \sin \omega t$ .

#### ANSWERS

1.  $4xy = 2x^2 - x^4 + c$ . 2.  $y \sin x = \log \tan \frac{x}{2} + c$ .

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38	SHORT COURSE ON DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS
3.	$y = x - 1 + ce^{-x}$ . 4. $y = x - 1 - \tan^{-1}x + ce^{\tan^{-1}x - 2}$
5.	$y(1 + x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \log \frac{x}{1 + (1 + x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} + c.$
6.	$y = -\frac{x}{2}\log(1-x^2) + cx.$ 7. $y = \sin x - 1 + ce^{-\sin x}.$
8.	$y = ax + cx \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ . 9. $\frac{1}{y} = 1 + ce^{-\cos x}$ .
10.	$\frac{1}{y} = -a + c\sqrt{1-x^2}.$
11.	$y^{1-n} = 2\sin x - \frac{2}{1-n} + ce^{-(1-n)\sin x}.$
12.	$y^{3} = x - 2 + ce^{-x}.$
13.	$y^{-3} = -3\sin x \cos^2 x - \sin^3 x + c \cos^3 x.$
14.	$\sqrt{x^2 - 1} = \sec^{-1}x + \sqrt{y^2 - 1} = \sec^{-1}y = c.$
15.	$(e^y+1)\sin x=c.$
16.	$\operatorname{cosec} x + \sqrt{2ay - y^2} - a \operatorname{vers}^{-1} \frac{y}{a} = c.$
17.	$2y^{2} + 6y - 9 \log (2y + 3) = 4x^{2} + c.$
18.	$\frac{x^4}{4} - x^3y + \frac{5}{2}x^2y^2 - 7xy^3 + \frac{y^5}{5} + \frac{2}{3}y^3 = c.$
19.	$\frac{x^4}{4} + 2x^2y + xy^2 + y^4 = c.  20. \ \cos x \cos y = c.$
21.	$\frac{x^3}{3} + x \log y = c. \qquad 22. \ x^2 e^{\frac{2y}{x}} = c(x+y)^3.$
23.	$(4y^2 - x^2)^5 = cx^2.$ 24. $y^2 = c\left(\frac{y-x}{y+x}\right)^3.$
25.	$c(y^{2} + 3xy - 3x^{2}) = x \left\{ \frac{2y + (3 - \sqrt{21})x}{2y + (3 + \sqrt{21})x} \right\}^{\frac{2}{\gamma_{\overline{11}}}}.$
26.	$(x^2 - y^2)^5 \stackrel{i}{=} cx^2$ . 27. $y = x \log \frac{c}{x}$ .

28. 
$$cx = \left\{ \frac{6y - (3 + \sqrt{33})x}{6y - (3 - \sqrt{33})x} \right\}^{\frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{11}}}.$$
29. 
$$(y - \frac{3}{13})^{2} + 3(x - \frac{9}{13})(y - \frac{3}{2}) - (x - \frac{9}{13})^{2} = c.$$
30. 
$$(5y - 2x - 3)^{4} = c(4y - 4x - 3).$$

$$\frac{\{2(y - \frac{3}{13}) - (4 - \sqrt{14})(x + \frac{1}{13})\}^{1/\sqrt{14}}(2y^{2} - \frac{14}{13}\frac{8}{y})}{(2(y - \frac{3}{13}) - (4 + \sqrt{14})(x + \frac{1}{13}))^{1/\sqrt{14}}} = c.$$
31. 
$$\frac{(2(y - \frac{3}{13}) - (4 + \sqrt{14})(x + \frac{1}{13}))^{1/\sqrt{14}}}{\{2(y - \frac{3}{13}) - (4 + \sqrt{14})(x + \frac{1}{13})\}^{1/\sqrt{14}}} = c.$$
32. 
$$(3y - 5x + 10)^{2} = c(y - x + 1).$$
33. 
$$15y - 30x + c = 3 \log (5x - 15y + 17).$$
34. 
$$4x - 2y + c = 16 \log (5x - 2y + 23).$$
35. 
$$2y - x + c = \frac{1}{4} \log (12x - 8y + 1).$$
37. 
$$y^{a} = cx; \quad y^{a} = \frac{4}{3}nx.$$
38. 
$$y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}x + c; \quad y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}x + 1.$$
39. 
$$y^{a} = ce^{z}.$$
40. 
$$y^{2} = 2ax + c; \quad y^{2} = 2ax + 4 - 2a.$$
41. 
$$y = \frac{c}{2} \left(e^{\frac{\pi}{a}} + \frac{a^{2}}{c^{2}}e^{-\frac{\pi}{a}}\right); \quad y = \frac{a}{2} \left(e^{\frac{\pi}{a}} + e^{-\frac{\pi}{a}}\right); \quad zero.$$
42. 
$$y = \frac{1}{2c} \left(e^{\pi *} + c^{2}e^{\pm x}\right).$$
43. 
$$x^{z} + y^{2} = cx.$$
44. 
$$r^{n} = c \sin n\theta.$$
45. 
$$r = c - k \cos \theta.$$
46. 
$$r = ce^{\theta/k}.$$
47. 
$$i = Ie^{-\frac{R}{L}i}.$$
49. 
$$i = \frac{E}{L\left(\frac{R^{2}}{T^{2}} + \omega^{2}\right)} \left(\frac{R}{L}\sin \omega t - \omega \cos \omega t\right) + ce^{-\frac{R}{L}i}.$$

50. 
$$i = \frac{E_1}{L\left(\frac{R^2}{L^2} + \omega^2\right)} \left(\frac{R}{L}\sin\omega t - \omega\cos\omega t\right)$$
$$+ \frac{E_2}{L\left(\frac{R^2}{L^2} + b\omega^2\right)} \left[\frac{R}{L}\sin(b\omega t + \theta) - b\omega\cos(b\omega t + \theta)\right]$$
$$+ ce^{-\frac{R}{L}t}.$$
  
51. 
$$i = ce^{-\frac{R}{R0}t}.$$
  
52. 
$$i = ce^{-\frac{1}{R0}t} + \frac{CE\omega}{1 + R^2C^2\omega^2}(\cos\omega t + RC\omega\sin\omega t).$$
  
53. 
$$q = Qe^{-\frac{1}{R0}t}.$$
  
54. 
$$q = CE + ce^{-\frac{1}{R0}t}.$$

55. 
$$q = \frac{CE}{1 + R^2 C^2 \omega^2} (\sin \omega t - RC\omega \cos \omega t) + c e^{-\frac{1}{Rc}t}.$$

- 1

### CHAPTER IV

## ORDINARY LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS WITH CONSTANT COEFFICIENTS

28. Definition. An ordinary linear differential equation is a differential equation in one dependent variable which is linear in the dependent variable and its derivatives.

We saw in Art. 21 that the type of an ordinary linear differential equation of the first order is

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

where P and Q are functions of x, and do not contain y or derivatives.

In general, the type of an ordinary linear differential equation is

$$\frac{d^{n}y}{dx^{n}} + P_{1}\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + P_{2}\frac{d^{n-2}y}{dx^{n-2}} + \dots + P_{n}y = X$$

where  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n$ , and X, are functions of x, and do not contain y or derivatives.

In this chapter the only cases considered are those where  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n$  are constants and real. Two forms of this equation present themselves, namely, when the right hand member is zero, and when the right hand member is not zero.

#### RIGHT HAND MEMBER ZERO

29. We shall first prove a theorem used in the investigation of equations in this form. It is :

**Theorem.** If  $y = y_1$ ,  $y = y_2$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $y = y_n$ , are solutions of the equation

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + P_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + P_2 \frac{d^{n-2} y}{dx^{n-2}} + \cdots + P_n y = 0,$$

4

 $_{\mathrm{then}}$ 

$$y = c_1 y_1 + c_2 y_2 + \cdots + c_n y_n, \qquad c_1, \ c_2, \ \cdots c_n,$$

arbitrary constants, is also a solution of the equation.

**Proof.** Substitute  $y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2 + \cdots + c_ny_n$  in the equation.

Now each expression in brackets is zero, since

$$y = y_1, y = y_2, \cdots, y = y_n,$$

are solutions of the equation. Therefore

$$y = c_1 y_2 + c_2 y_2 + \cdots + c_n y_n$$

is a solution of the equation.

**Cor.** If  $y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2 + \cdots + c_ny_n$  is a solution of the equation, then  $y = c_1y_1$ ,  $y = c_2y_2$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $y = c_ny_n$ , are solutions of the equation.

If  $y = y_1$ ,  $y = y_2$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $y = y_n$  are linearly independent solutions of the equation, then  $y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2 + \cdots + c_ny_n$  is the general solution of the equation (see Art. 13).

30. To find a solution of the equation

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + P_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + P_2 \frac{d^{n-2} y}{dx^{n-2}} + \dots + P_n y = 0, \qquad (1)$$

in the form  $y = e^{mx}$ .

Let  $y = e^{mx}$  and substitute in the equation. If  $y = e^{mx}$  is a solution of the equation, then

$$e^{mx}(m^n + P_1m^{n-1} + P_2m^{n-2} + \cdots + P_n) = 0.$$

Since  $e^{mx}$  cannot be zero for any value of m, then must

$$m^{n} + P_{1}m^{n-1} + P_{2}m^{n-2} + \dots + P_{n} = 0.$$

Therefore, if  $y = e^{mx}$  is a solution of the equation, it is necessary that

$$m^{n} + P_{1}m^{n-1} + P_{2}m^{n-2} + \dots + P_{n} = 0.$$

Conversely, if m has a value  $m_1$  such that

$$m_1^n + P_1 m_1^{n-1} + P_2 m_1^{n-2} + \dots + P_2 = 0,$$

then  $y = e^{m_1 x}$  is a solution of the equation. This is obvious because on substitution of  $y = e^{m_1 x}$ , the equation reduces to

$$e^{m_1x}(m_1^n + P_1m_1^{n-1} + P_2m_1^{n-2} + \dots + P_n) = 0.$$

Therefore the necessary and sufficient condition that equation (1) has a solution in the form  $y = e^{mx}$  is that m be such that

$$m^{n} + P_{1}m^{n-1} + P_{2}m^{n-2} + \cdots + P_{n} = 0.$$

**Definition.** The equation

$$m^n + P_1 m^{n-1} + P_2 m^{n-2} + \dots + P_n = 0$$

is called the auxiliary equation of

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + P_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + P_2 \frac{d^{n-2} y}{dx^{n-2}} + \dots + P_n y = 0.$$

### 31. To find the general solution of the equation

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + P_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + P_2 \frac{d^{n-2} y}{dx^{n-2}} + \cdots + P_n y = 0.$$

When the auxiliary equation has distinct roots. Denote the roots by  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n$ . Then *n* linearly independent solutions of the equation are  $y = e^{m_1 x}$ ,  $y = e^{m_2 x}$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $y = e^{m_n x}$ , and the general solution is  $y = c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{m_2 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$  (see Art. 29).

EXAMPLE 1. Find the general solution of the equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 3\frac{dy}{dx} - 4y = 0.$$

Let  $y = e^{mx}$ .

$$\therefore e^{mx}(m^2 - 3m - 4) = 0. \quad \therefore (m - 4)(m + 1) = 0.$$

Therefore  $y = c_1 e^{4x} + c_2 e^{-x}$  is the general solution of the equation. EXAMPLE 2. Find the general solution of the equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0.$$
  
Let  $y = e^{mx}$ .  
 $\therefore e^{mx}(m^2 + m + 4) = 0.$   
 $\therefore \left(m + \frac{1 - \sqrt{15}j}{2}\right) \left(m + \frac{1 + \sqrt{15}j}{2}\right) = 0, \quad j = \sqrt{-1}.$ 

Therefore  $y = \bar{c}_1 e^{-\frac{1-\gamma \bar{1} \bar{s}_j}{2}x} + \bar{c}_2 e^{-\frac{1+\gamma \bar{1} \bar{s}_j}{2}x}$  is the general solution of the equation.

This solution may be written as

$$y = c_1 e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} \cos \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2} x + c_2 e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} \sin \frac{\sqrt{15}}{2} x$$
 (see Art. 5).

When the auxiliary equation has multiple roots. Suppose that the auxiliary equation  $m^n + P_1 m^{n-1} + P_2 m^{n-2} + \cdots + P_n = 0$  has the roots  $m_1, m_2, m_3, \cdots, m_n$ .

At first suppose that two roots are equal. Suppose for definiteness that  $m_2 = m_1$ . Then a solution of the differential equation is

$$y = (c_1 + c_2)e^{m_1x} + c_3e^{m_3x} + c_ne^{m_nx}.$$

Since  $c_1 + c_2$  is equivalent to only one constant, this solution contains only n = 1 arbitrary constants and is not therefore the general solution of the equation.

To find the general solution in this case :

# LINEAR EQUATIONS WITH CONSTANT COEFFICIENTS 45

Suppose that the differential equation is such that its auxiliary equation has the roots  $m_1, m_1 + h, m_3, \dots, m_n$ . The general solution of this equation is

$$y = c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{(m_1 + h)x} + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$$
  
=  $c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{m_1 x} e^{h x} + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}.$ 

Expand  $e^{hx}$  by Maclaurin's Theorem to n terms and the remainder.

$$\therefore e^{hx} = 1 + hx + \frac{(hx)^2}{\underline{|2|}} + \dots + \frac{(hx)^{n-1}}{\underline{|n-1|}} + \frac{(hx)^n}{\underline{|n|}} e^{hx_1},$$

Substitute in the above equation.

$$\therefore y = (c_1 + c_2)e^{m_1 x} \\ + c_2 h x e^{m_1 x} \left[ 1 + \frac{hx}{2} + \frac{(hx)^2}{\underline{3}} + \dots + \frac{(hx)^{n-2}}{\underline{n-1}} + \frac{(hx)^{n-1}}{\underline{n}} e^{hx_1} \right] \\ + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}.$$

Since  $c_2$  is arbitrary, h may be chosen such that  $c_2h$  is any constant B for all values of h. Since  $c_1$  is arbitrary,  $c_1 + c_2$  may be chosen such that  $c_1 + c_2 = A$ . Then

$$y = Ae^{m_1x} + Bxe^{m_1x} \left[ 1 + \frac{hx}{2} + \dots + \frac{(hx)^{n-2}}{\lfloor n-1 \rfloor} + \frac{(hx)^{n-1}}{\lfloor n \rfloor} e^{hx_1} \right] + c_s e^{m_3x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_nx}, \quad (1)$$

where A and B are arbitrary constants.

Let h approach zero. As h approaches zero, the assumed auxiliary and differential equations approach identity with the given ones, and (1) approaches the general solution of the given differential equation.

Now

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \left[ \frac{hx}{2} + \dots + \frac{(hx)^{n-2}}{|n-1|} + \frac{(hx)^{n-1}}{|n|} e^{hx_1} \right] = 0.$$

Therefore the general solution of the differential equation is

$$y = (A + Bx)e^{m_1x} + c_s e^{m_3x} + \cdots + c_n e^{m_nx},$$

or, as we shall write it,

 $y = (c_1 + c_2 x)e^{m_1 x} + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}.$ 

In a similar manner it can be shown that if three roots of the auxiliary equation are equal, the general solution of the differential equation is

$$y = (c_1 + c_2 x + c_3 x^2) e^{m_1 x} + c_4 e^{m_4 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}.$$

and, in general, if r roots are equal, the general solution of the equation is

$$y = (c_1 + c_2 x + \cdots + c_r x^{r-1})e^{m_1 x} + c_{r+1}e^{m_{r+1} x} + \cdots + c_n e^{m_n x}.$$

If a pair of imaginary roots occur twice, the part of the general solution derived from these roots is

$$\begin{split} y &= (c_1 + c_2 x) e^{(a+\beta j)x} + (c_3 + c_4 x) e^{(a-\beta j)x} \\ &= (c_1 + c_2 x) e^{ax} (\cos\beta x + j\sin\beta x) + (c_3 + c_4 x) e^{ax} (\cos\beta x - j\sin\beta x) \\ &= e^{ax} [(A_1 + B_1 x) \cos\beta x + (A_2 + B_2 x) \sin\beta x]. \end{split}$$

EXAMPLE 1. Find the general solution of the equation

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

The auxiliary equation is  $m^2 + 2m + 1 = 0$ , or  $(m + 1)^2 = 0$ . The general solution is therefore  $y = e^{-x}(c_1 + c_2 x)$ .

EXAMPLE 2. Find the general solution of the equation

$$\frac{d^4y}{dx^4} - 4\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + 8\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 8\frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0.$$

The auxiliary equation is  $m^4 - 4m^3 + 8m^2 - 8m + 4 = 0$ , or  $\{(m-1-j)(m-1+j)\}^2 = 0$ .

The general solution is therefore

$$y = e^{x} \{ (A_{1} + B_{1}x) \cos x + (A_{2} + B_{2}x) \sin x \}.$$

32. As a physical application of the above principles, consider the following discussion (see Emptage, Electricity and Magnetism, page 180):

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### LINEAR EQUATIONS WITH CONSTANT COEFFICIENTS 47

In a galvanometer in which resistance is offered to the motion of the needle, the equation of motion of the needle for small oscillations may be written as  $\mathcal{H}_{a,a}$  and  $\mathcal{H}_{a,a}$ 

$$\frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} + 2k\frac{d\theta}{dt} + \omega^2(\theta - \alpha) = 0, \qquad (1)$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle through which the needle turns in the time t, k is a constant depending on the resistance offered to the motion of the needle,  $\omega^2$  is a constant depending on the moments of the restoring forces on the needle, and a is the angle which the needle at rest makes with the line from which angles are measured. Let  $\theta - a = \theta'$ , and substitute in (1).

$$\cdot \cdot \frac{d^2 heta'}{dt^2} + 2k \frac{d heta'}{dt} + \omega^2 heta' = 0.$$

This is a linear differential equation of the second order with constant coefficients and right hand member zero. The auxiliary equation is  $m^2 + 2km + \omega^2 = 0$ . The roots of the auxiliary equation are  $m = -k \pm \sqrt{k^2 - \omega^2}$ .

Case I. If  $k > \omega$ .

In this case,  $\theta - \alpha = c_1 e^{(-k+\sqrt{k^2-\omega^2})t} + c_2 e^{(-k-\sqrt{k^2-\omega^2})t}$  is the general solution of (1).

Case II. If  $k = \omega$ .

In this case  $\theta - \alpha = (c_1 + c_2 t)e^{-kt}$  is the general solution of (1).

# Case III. If $k < \omega$ .

In this case  $\theta - a = e^{-kt} [c_1 \cos \sqrt{\omega^2 - k^2} t + c_2 \sin \sqrt{\omega^2 - k^2} t]$ is the general solution of (1).

In cases I and II the motion is not oscillatory. The needle can go through the position of equilibrium for one value of t, after which it reaches a position of maximum deflection and then continually approaches but never reaches the position of equilibrium. In case III there are oscillations in equal times, the periodic time being

$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{\omega^2 - k^2}}.$$

#### EXERCISES

Find the general solution of each of the following equations.

1.  $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + 3\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 0.$  2.  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^3} + 2\frac{dy}{dx} - 2y = 0.$ 3.  $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} - 3\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2\frac{dy}{dx} = 0.$  4.  $2\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 4\frac{dy}{dx} - 3y = 0.$ 5.  $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} - 3\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 3\frac{dy}{dx} - y = 0.$  6.  $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + 3\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} - 5y = 0.$ 7.  $2\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} - 3\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 0.$ 8.  $\frac{d^4y}{dx^4} - y = 0.$ 9.  $\frac{d^4y}{dx^4} + 2\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = 0.$ ANSWERS 1.  $y = c_1 e^{-2x} + c_2 e^{-x}$ . 2.  $y = c_1 e^{-(1+\sqrt{3})x} + c_2 e^{-(1-\sqrt{3})x}$ . 3.  $y = c_1 e^x + c_2 e^{2x} + c_3$ . 4.  $y = e^{-x}(c_1 + c_2 x) + c_3 e^{\frac{3}{2}x}$ . 5.  $y = e^{x}(c_1 + c_2 x + c_2 x^2)$ . 6.  $y = c_1 e^x + e^{-2x} (c_2 \cos x + c_3 \sin x).$ 8.  $y = c_1 e^x + c_2 e^{-x} + c_3 \cos x + c_4 \sin x$ . 9.  $y = (c_1 + c_2 x) \cos x$ 9.  $y = (c_1 + c_2 x) \cos x + (c_3 + c_4 \overline{x}) \sin x.$  ( $s_1 + c_2$ ) (cs.  $x + c_3$ 

#### RIGHT-HAND MEMBER NOT ZERO

33. Symbolic form of equation. The equation, when the right hand member is not zero, is

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + P_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + P_2 \frac{d^{n-2} y}{dx^{n-2}} + \dots + P_n y = X, \qquad (1)$$

where  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n$ , are constants, and X is a function of x but not of y.

Let

$$\frac{d}{dx}=D,$$

and the equation may be written,

$$D^n y + P_1 D^{n-1} y + P_2 D^{n-2} y + \dots + P_n y = X.$$

Suppose that y is treated as an algebraic factor of the left hand member of the equation. On this supposition, the equation becomes

$$(D^{n} + P_{1}D^{n-1} + P_{2}D^{n-2} + \dots + P_{n})y = X.$$

Suppose also that  $D^n + P_1 D^{n-1} + P_2 D^{n-2} + \cdots + P_n$ , factored as an algebraic expression in D, is

$$(D = m_1)(D = m_2) \cdots (D = m_n),$$

and that the equation is written

(D

$$(D - m_1)(D - m_2) \cdots (D - m_n)y = X.$$
 (2)

Equation (2) is not equivalent to equation (1) except in a symbolic sense. Let us see what conventions must be made in order that equation (2) be equivalent to equation (1).

Let us make the convention that (D - m)u where u is a function of x is equal to

$$\frac{du}{dx} - mu.$$

Also, let us agree that we shall begin at the right of the left hand member of (2) and work towards the left, evaluating according to the preceding convention at each step. Then

$$(D - m_{n})y = \frac{dy}{dx} - m_{n}y,$$
  
-  $m_{n-1}$ ) $(D - m_{n})y = (D - m_{n-1})\left(\frac{dy}{dx} - m_{n}y\right)$   
=  $\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{dy}{dx} - m_{n}y\right) - m_{n-1}\left(\frac{dy}{dx} - m_{n}y\right)$   
=  $\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - (m_{n-1} + m_{n})\frac{dy}{dx} + m_{n-1}m_{n}y,$ 

and finally,

$$(D = m_1)(D = m_2) \cdots (D = m_n)y$$
  
=  $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} - (m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_n) \frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + (-1)^n m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n y.$ 

Now  $-(m_1+m_2+\cdots+m_n)=P_1, \cdots, (-1)^n m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n=P_n$ , since the factors of  $D^n + P_1 D^{n-1} + P_2 D^{n-2} + \cdots + P_n$ , treated as an algebraic expression in D are  $D-m_1, D-m_2, \cdots, D-m_n$ . This expression is therefore the same as the left hand member of equation (1). Therefore, with these conventions, equations (2) is equivalent to equation (1).

EXAMPLE. With the above conventions, the equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + P_1\frac{dy}{dx} + P_2y = X$$

may be written in the equivalent form  $(D-m_1)(D-m_2)y = X$ , where  $D = m_1$  and  $D = m_2$  are the factors of the expression  $D^2 + P_1D + P_2$  treated as an algebraic expression in D. For,

$$(D - m_{1})y = \frac{dy}{dx} - m_{2}y,$$
  
$$(D - m_{1})(D - m_{2})y = (D - m_{1})\left(\frac{dy}{dx} - m_{2}y\right)$$
  
$$= \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - (m_{1} + m_{2})\frac{dy}{dx} + m_{1}m_{2}y.$$

Now  $-(m_1 + m_2) = P_1$ , and  $m_1m_2 = P_2$ . Therefore the second form of the equation is equivalent to the first.

**Definitions.** When equations in the form (1) are expressed in the form (2), they are said to be expressed symbolically, or to be expressed by means of symbolic factors.

When a symbolic factor D = m and a function u are applied to each other so as to give (D = m)u or  $\frac{du}{dx} = mu$ , the function u is said to be **operated upon** by D = m, or the factor D = m to be multiplied symbolically by u.

### LINEAR EQUATIONS WITH CONSTANT COEFFICIENTS 51

The factor D = m is called the symbolic operator, or more briefly, the operator.

**34.** Theorem. The order in which the symbolic factors in the equation of the last article are taken is immaterial.

Consider in illustration the equation of the second order. Let the equation be taken in the form

$$(D-m_2) (D-m_1)y = X.$$

Then

$$(D-m_1)y=\frac{dy}{dx}-m_1y,$$

and

$$(D - m_2)(D - m_1)y = (D - m_3)\left(\frac{dy}{dx} - m_1y\right)$$
  
=  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - (m_1 + m_2)\frac{dy}{dx} + m_1m_2y.$ 

Therefore  $(D - m_1)(D - m_1)y = X$  is equivalent to

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + P_1\frac{dy}{dx} + P_2y = X.$$

Also,  $(D - m_1)(D - m_2)y = X$  is equivalent to

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + P_1\frac{dy}{dx} + P_2y = X. \qquad (\text{See Art. 33.})$$

Therefore, in the case of the equation of the second order, the order in which the factors are taken is immaterial.

The proof in the general case is left as an exercise to the student.

### 35. First method of solution of the equation

$$(D - m_1)(D - m_2)y = X.$$

Let  $(D - m_2)y = u$ . The equation then becomes

$$(D - m_1)u = X$$
 or  $\frac{du}{dx} - m_1u = X$ 

The general solution of the equation

$$\frac{du}{dx} - m_{\mathbf{i}}u = X$$

is (see Art. 21)

$$u = e^{m_1 x} \int e^{-m_1 x} X dx + \overline{c}_1 e^{m_1 x}.$$

$$(D - m_2)y = e^{m_1 x} \int e^{-m_1 x} X dx + \bar{c}_1 e^{m_1 x}$$

$$\therefore y = e^{m_2 x} \int e^{(m_1 - m_2)x} \int e^{-m_1 x} X(dx)^2 + \overline{c_1} e^{m_2 x} \int e^{(m_1 - m_2)x} dx + c_2 e^{m_2 x} .$$

$$= e^{m_2 x} \int e^{(m_1 - m_2)x} \int e^{-m_1 x} X(dx)^2 + c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{m_2 x} .$$

This is the general solution of the given equation. EXAMPLE. Find the general solution of the equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 3\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = \cos x.$$

Write the equation as  $(D-1)(D-2)y = \cos x$ . Let (D-2)y = u. The equation then becomes

$$(D-1)u = \cos x \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{du}{dx} - u = \cos x.$$
  
$$\therefore u = e^x \int e^{-x} \cos x \, dx + \overline{c}_1 e^x$$
  
$$= \frac{1}{2} (\sin x - \cos x) + \overline{c}_1 e^x.$$
  
$$\therefore (D-2)y = \frac{1}{2} (\sin x - \cos x) + \overline{c}_1 e^x.$$
  
$$\therefore y = \frac{1}{2} e^{2x} \int e^{-2x} (\sin x - \cos x) \, dx + \overline{c}_1 e^{2x} \int e^{-x} \, dx + c_2 e^{2x}.$$

This is the general solution of the given equation.

36. To solve the equation

$$(D-m_1)(D-m_2)\cdots(D-m_n)y=X,$$

we may proceed as follows :

First, let  $(D - m_1) \cdots (D - m_n)y = u$ . The equation then becomes  $(D - m_1)u = X$ .

#### LINEAR EQUATIONS WITH CONSTANT COEFFICIENTS 53

From this equation, u can be determined as in the case of the equation of the second order. Let

Then  $(D - m_s) \cdots (D - m_n)y = v.$  $(D - m_s)v = u.$ 

From this equation v can be determined in the same manner as u was determined before. After n = 1 such steps there results  $(D = m_n)y = z$  where z is a known function of x.

The general solution of the equation  $(D - m_n)y = z$  is the general solution of the original equation.

37. The following theorems concerning the symbolic operator will now be established :

**Theorem I.** A constant factor in a function may be written in front of the operator.

**Proof:** Let au be a function containing a constant a as a factor. Let D = m be the operator. Then

$$(D-m)au = \frac{dau}{dx} - mau,$$
 by definition  
=  $a\left(\frac{du}{dx} - mu\right)$   
=  $a(D-m)u.$ 

**Theorem II.** The result when the operator is applied to the sum of a number of functions is equal to the sum of the results found when the operator is applied to each of the functions separately.

**Proof:** Let  $u + v + w + \cdots + z$  be the sum of a number of functions. Let D = m be the operator. Then

$$(D - m)(u + v + w + \dots + z) = \frac{d(u + v + w + \dots + z)}{dx} - m(u + v + w + \dots + z)^{-1} = \frac{du}{dx} - mu + \frac{dv}{dx} - mv + \frac{dw}{dx} - mw + \dots + \frac{dz}{dx} - mz = (D - m)u + (D - m)v + (D - m)w + \dots + (D - m)z.$$

38. The equation  $(D - m_1) (D - m_2) \cdots (D - m_n)y = X$  may be written in the form

$$y = \frac{1}{(D - m_1)(D - m_2)\cdots(D - m_n)}X.$$

In the first form the symbolic operators

$$D = m_1, D = m_2, \cdots, D = m_n$$

applied in succession give X. Moreover, by the theorem of Art. 34, the order in which the operators are applied is immaterial. If the second form, therefore, is to be the same as the first, the symbolic expression  $\frac{1}{(D-m_1)(D-m_2)\cdots(D-m_n)}X$  must be such that, when operated upon by

$$D = m_1, D = m_2, \cdots, D = m_n,$$

in succession in any order, the result is X.

Definition. The symbol  $\frac{1}{(D-m_1)(D-m_2)\cdots(D-m_n)}$  is called the inverse symbolic operator, or, more briefly, the inverse operator.

39. Let

$$y = \frac{1}{(D - m_1)(D - m_2)} X$$

be a linear differential equation where the symbolic factors viewed as algebraic factors are distinct. Break up  $\frac{1}{(D-m_1)(D-m_2)}$ into partial fractions as if it were an algebraic expression in D. Then

$$\frac{1}{(D-m_{1})(D-m_{2})} \equiv \frac{1}{m_{1}-m_{2}} \left(\frac{1}{D-m_{1}} - \frac{1}{D-m_{2}}\right).$$
Let
$$\frac{1}{m_{1}-m_{2}} \frac{1}{D-m_{1}} X = u \text{ and } -\frac{1}{m_{1}-m_{2}} \frac{1}{D-m_{2}} X = v.$$
Theorem. (The result of operating on  $u + v$  with  $(D-m_{1})(D-m_{2})$  is  $X.$ 

**Proof:** Operate on u + v with  $(D - m_1)(D - m_2)$ .

$$(D - m_1)(D - m_2)(u + v) = (D - m_1)(D - m_2)u +$$

 $(D - m_1)(D - m_2)v$ , by theorem II, Art. 37. Now

$$(D - m_1)u = \frac{1}{m_1 - m_2}X$$
, and  $(D - m_2)v = -\frac{1}{m_1 - m_2}X$ ,

by definition and theorem I, Art. 37.

$$\therefore (D = m_1)(D = m_2)(u + v)$$

$$= (D - m_2) \frac{1}{m_1 - m_2} X + (D - m_1) \left( -\frac{1}{m_1 - m_2} X \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{m_1 - m_2} \left[ (D - m_2) X - (D - m_1) X \right] = X.$$

40. When the symbolic factors  $D = m_1$  and  $D = m_2$ , viewed as algebraic factors, are distinct, the result of operating on

$$y = \frac{1}{m_1 - m_2} \frac{1}{D - m_1} X - \frac{1}{m_1 - m_2} \frac{1}{D - m_2} X$$

with  $(D - m_1)(D - m_2)$  is X, by the preceding article, and the result of operating on

$$y = \frac{1}{(D - m_1)(D - m_2)} X$$

with the same factors is X, by definition. Therefore when the symbolic factors  $D = m_1$  and  $D = m_2$ , viewed as algebraic factors, are distinct, the inverse operator of

$$y = \frac{1}{(D - m_1)(D - m_2)} X$$

may be broken up into partial fractions the same as if it were an algebraic expression in D, and the result of operating with  $(D - m_1)(D - m_2)$  on the expression formed by multiplying each of the fractions symbolically by X, and taking the algebraic sum of the results, is X.

In general, when the symbolic factors

$$D = m_1, D = m_2, \cdots, D = m_n,$$

viewed as algebraic factors are distinct, the inverse operator of

$$y = \frac{1}{(D-m_1)(D-m_2)\cdots(D-m_n)} X$$

can be broken up into partial fractions the same as if it were an algebraic expression in D, and the result of operating with  $(D = m_1)(D = m_2) \cdots (D = m_n)$ , on the expression formed by multiplying each fraction symbolically by X and taking the algebraic sum of the results is X.

The proof of this theorem is left as an exercise to the student.

### 41. Second method of solution of the equation

$$y = \frac{1}{(D - m_1)(D - m_2)} X$$

Break up  $\frac{1}{(D-m_1)(D-m_2)}$  into partial fractions the same as if it were an algebraic expression in D.

$$\cdot \cdot \frac{1}{(D-m_1)(D-m_2)} \equiv \frac{1}{m_1-m_2} \left( \frac{1}{D-m_1} - \frac{1}{D-m_2} \right).$$
 Let

$$u = rac{1}{m_1 - m_2} rac{1}{D - m_1} X \ \ \, ext{and} \ \ \, v = -rac{1}{m_1 - m_2} rac{1}{D - m_2} X.$$

Operate on u with  $D = m_1$ .

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot \frac{du}{dx} - m_1 u = \frac{1}{m_1 - m_2} X.$$
$$\cdot \cdot u = \frac{1}{m_1 - m_2} e^{m_1 x} \int e^{-m_1 x} X dx + c_1 e^{m_1 x}.$$

Operate on v with  $D = m_{z}$ 

$$\cdot \cdot \frac{dv}{dx} - m_2 v = -\frac{1}{m_1 - m_2} X.$$

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot v = -\frac{1}{m_1 - m_2} e^{m_2 x} \int e^{-m_2 x} X dx + c_2 e^{m_2 x}.$$

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot y = \frac{1}{m_1 - m_1} e^{m_1 x} \int e^{-m_1 x} X dx - \frac{1}{m_1 - m_2} e^{m_2 x} \int e^{-m_2 x} X dx \\ + c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{m_2 x},$$

which is the general solution of the equation.

EXAMPLE. Find the general solution of the equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 3\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = \cos x.$$

Write the expression in the form

$$y = \frac{1}{(D-1)(D-2)} \cos x.$$

Break up  $\frac{1}{(D-1)(D-2)}$  into partial fractions the same as if it were an algebraic expression in D.

$$\frac{1}{(D-1)(D-2)} \equiv -\frac{1}{D-1} + \frac{1}{D-2}.$$

Let

$$-\frac{1}{D-1}\cos x = u \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{D-2}\cos x = v.$$

Operate on u with D = 1.

$$\therefore \frac{du}{dx} - u = -\cos x.$$

$$\therefore u = \frac{1}{2}\cos x - \frac{1}{2}\sin x + c_1 e^x.$$

Operate on v with D = 2.

$$\therefore \frac{dv}{dx} - 2v = + \cos x.$$
  
$$\therefore v = -\frac{2}{5} \cos x + \frac{1}{5} \sin x + c_2 e^{2x}.$$
  
$$\therefore y = \frac{1}{10} \cos x - \frac{3}{10} \sin x + c_1 e^x + c_2 e^{2x},$$

which is the general solution of the equation.

This method does not apply when the symbolic factors viewed as algebraic factors are not distinct.

5

42. It will be noticed in the example of the preceding article that the result is the same as that found by applying the method of Art. 35 to the same equation. This will be the case in any linear differential equation with constant coefficients to which both methods apply.

The first method of solution will apply in all cases where the left hand member of the equation can be factored into linear factors in D. The second method will also apply if the linear factors in D are all distinct. If two or more factors are equal, and the inverse operator be broken up into partial fractions, the term or terms corresponding to these factors may be evaluated by the first method.

Usually the second method is easier of application than the first.

43. An examination of either method by which the general solution of a linear differential equation of the *n*th order with constant coefficients and second member not zero is derived shows immediately that the general solution consists of the sum of two parts, one containing terms not involving arbitrary constants, the other containing terms involving such constants. Moreover the arbitrary constants are involved so that when any one is zero, the term in which it appears vanishes.

**Definition.** The part of the general solution of a linear differential equation with constant coefficients and second member not zero which contains the arbitrary constants is called the **complementary function** of the general solution of the equation.

### EXERCISES

Find the general solution of each of the fourteen following equations.

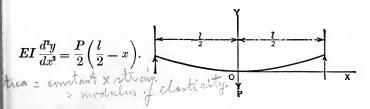
1. 
$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4\frac{dy}{dx} + 3y = 2e^{2x}$$
. 2.  $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + 4\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 3\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2$ .  
3.  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 4\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = x$ . 4.  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 3\frac{dy}{dx} - y = e^x$ .

LINEAR EQUATIONS WITH CONSTANT COEFFICIENTS 59

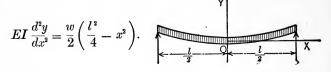
5. 
$$\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} + 5\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + 6\frac{dy}{dx} = x.$$
  
6. 
$$\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} - 6\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + 11\frac{dy}{dx} - 6y = x.$$
  
7. 
$$\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - 2\frac{dy}{dx} + y = e^{x}.$$
  
8. 
$$\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - 2\frac{dy}{dx} + y = x.$$
  
9. 
$$\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{2}} + y = \cos x.$$
  
10. 
$$\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} + \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - 4\frac{dy}{dx} - 4y = x.$$
  
11. 
$$\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + y = \sin x.$$
  
12. 
$$\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} - \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + \frac{dy}{dx} - y = \cos x.$$
  
13. 
$$\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} - 3\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + 3\frac{dy}{dx} - y = e^{x}.$$
  
14. 
$$\frac{d^{4}y}{dx^{4}} - y = x^{4}.$$

In each of the six following exercises, find the equation of the elastic curve of the beam from the given differential equation, determining the constants of integration. Find also the deflection of the beam. In these equations, E is the modulus of elasticity, I is the moment of inertia of a cross section of the beam about a gravity axis in the section perpendicular to the applied forces, and l is the length of the beam.

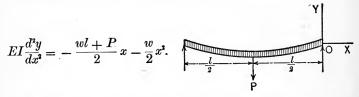
15. The beam rests on supports at its ends. It is supposed weightless with a weight P at its middle point.



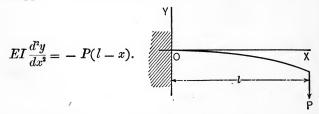
16. The beam rests on supports at its ends. It is supposed to be of uniform cross section and of weight w per unit of length.



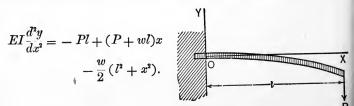
• 17. The beam rests on supports at its ends. It is supposed to be of uniform cross section and of weight w per unit of length, and to have a weight P at its middle point.



18. The beam is a cantilever fixed horizontally in the wall. It is supposed weightless with a weight P at its extremity.



19. The beam is a cantilever fixed horizontally in the wall. It is supposed to be of uniform cross section and of weight w per unit of length, and to have a weight P at its extremity.



20. The beam is vertical. It has rounded ends. It is supposed weightless. It is deflected a small amount a and a load P is applied at its upper end just sufficient to hold it in position.

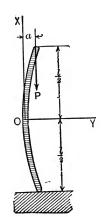
$$EI\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = P(a - y).$$

The equation for a circuit containing resistance, induction and capacity in terms of the current i is

$$\frac{d^2i}{dt^2} + \frac{R}{L}\frac{di}{dt} + \frac{i}{LC} = \frac{1}{L}\frac{de}{dt};$$

in terms of the quantity of charge q is

$$\frac{d^2q}{dt^2} + \frac{R}{L}\frac{dq}{dt} + \frac{q}{LC} = \frac{1}{L}e$$



where e denotes the E.M.F., R the resistance, L the induction, C the capacity, and t the time during which the circuit is in operation. In each of the three following exercises, determine the current and quantity of charge in the circuit after a time t, supposing that the resistance, induction and capacity are constant.  $\sim 21$ . The E.M.F. is equal to f(t). Solve when  $R^2C \neq 4L$ . 22. The E.M.F. is constant and equal to E.

23. The E.M.F. is a simple sine function of the time, =  $E \sin \omega t$ . Solve when  $R^2 C \neq 4L$ .

#### ANSWERS

1. 
$$y = \frac{2}{15}e^{2x} + c_1e^{-x} + c_2e^{-3x}$$
.  
2.  $y = \frac{1}{9}x^3 - \frac{4}{9}x^2 + \frac{2}{27}e^{x} + c_1 + c_2e^{-x} + c_3e^{-8x}$ .  
3.  $y = \frac{x+2}{2} + c_1e^{(2+\sqrt{2})x} + c_2e^{(2-\sqrt{2})x}$ .  
4.  $y = \frac{1}{3}e^x + c_1e^{-\frac{(3-\sqrt{13})x}{2}} + c_2e^{-\frac{(3+\sqrt{13})x}{2}}$ .

21 
$$i = \frac{C}{\sqrt{R^2 C^2 - 4LC}} \left\{ e^{-\frac{t}{T_1}} \int e^{\frac{t}{T_1}} f'(t) dt - e^{-\frac{t}{T_2}} \int e^{\frac{t}{T_2}} f'(t) dt \right\} + c_1 e^{-\frac{t}{T_1}} + c_2 e^{-\frac{t}{T_2}},$$

$$T_1 = \frac{2LC}{RC - \sqrt{R^2C^2 - 4LC}} \quad \text{and} \quad T_2 = \frac{2LC}{RC + \sqrt{R^2C^2 - 4LC}}.$$

The value for q differs from that for i only in having f(t) instead of f'(t).

22. 
$$i = c_1 e^{-\frac{RC - \sqrt{R^2 C^2 - 4LC}}{2LC}t} + c_2 e^{-\frac{RC + \sqrt{R^2 C^2 - 4LC}}{2LC}}$$
,

when  $R^2 C > 4L$ .

$$\begin{split} i &= c_1 e^{-\frac{R}{2L}t} \cos \frac{\sqrt{4LC - R^2C^2}}{2LC} t + c_2 e^{-\frac{R}{2L}t} \sin \frac{\sqrt{4LC - R^2C^2}}{2LC} t, \\ \text{when } R^2C &< 4L. \end{split}$$

$$i = c_1 e^{-\frac{R}{2L}t} + c_2 t e^{-\frac{R}{2L}t},$$

when  $R^2 C = 4L$ .

$$q = CE + c_1 e^{-\frac{RC - \sqrt{R^2 C^2 - 4LC}}{2LC}t} + c_2 e^{-\frac{RC + \sqrt{R^2 C^2 - 4LC}}{2LC}t},$$

when  $R^2 C > 4L$ .

$$q = CE + c_1 e^{-\frac{R}{2L}t} \cos \frac{\sqrt{4LC - R^2C^2}}{2LC}t$$

$$+ c_2 e^{-\frac{R}{2L}t} \sin \frac{\sqrt{4LC - R^2C^2}}{2LC} t,$$

when  $R^2 C < 4L$ .

$$q = CE + c_1 e^{-\frac{R}{2L}t} + c_2 t e^{-\frac{R}{2L}t},$$

when  $R^2C = 4L$ .

23. 
$$i = \frac{E\omega^2 R}{R^2 \omega^2 + \left(\frac{1}{C} - L\omega^2\right)^2} \sin \omega t + \frac{E\omega \left(\frac{1}{C} - L\omega^2\right)}{R^2 \omega^2 + \left(\frac{1}{C} - L\omega^2\right)^2} \cos \omega t + c_1 e^{-\frac{t}{T_1}} + c_2 e^{-\frac{t}{T_2}}$$

64 SHORT COURSE ON DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS where  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  have the values given in exercise 21.

 $q = \frac{-E\omega R}{R^2\omega^2 + \left(\frac{1}{C} - L\omega^2\right)^2} \cos \omega t + \frac{E\left(\frac{1}{C} - L\omega^2\right)}{R^2\omega^2 + \left(\frac{1}{C} - L\omega^2\right)^2} \sin \omega t$  $+ c_1 e^{-\frac{t}{T_1}} + c_2 e^{-\frac{t}{T_2}}.$ 

#### CHAPTER V

## HOMOGENEOUS LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS. EXACT LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

### HOMOGENEOUS LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

44. Definition. A homogeneous linear differential equation is an equation of the form

$$x^{n}\frac{d^{n}y}{dx^{n}} + p_{1}x^{n-1}\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + p_{n-1}x\frac{dy}{dx} + p_{n}y = X$$

where  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{n-1}, p_n$  are constants, and X is a function of x but not of y.

This equation can be transformed into an ordinary linear differential equation with constant coefficients by changing the independent variable from x to z, the equation of transformation being  $x = e^{z}$ . The equation that results from the transformation may be solved by the methods of the last chapter. If a solution is y = f(z), the corresponding solution of the original equation is  $y = f(\log x)$ .

45. The transformation and general solution of a homogeneous linear differential equation in the general case will not be considered here. We shall merely consider them in a particular example.

EXAMPLE. Find the general solution of the equation

$$x^{3} \frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} + 4x^{2} \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - 2x \frac{dy}{dx} - 4y = \log x.$$

Let  $x = e^{z}$ .  $\therefore z = \log x$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{dy}{dz}\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}\frac{dy}{dz},\\ \frac{d^2y}{dz^2} &= \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{1}{x}\frac{dy}{dz}\right) = -\frac{1}{x^2}\frac{dy}{dz} + \frac{1}{x}\frac{d^2y}{dz^2}\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{1}{x^2}\left(\frac{d^2y}{dz^2} - \frac{dy}{dz}\right),\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^3y}{dz^3} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left\{ \frac{1}{x^2} \left( \frac{d^2y}{dz^2} - \frac{dy}{dz} \right) \right\} = \frac{1}{x^3} \left( \frac{d^3y}{dz^3} - 3\frac{d^2y}{dz^2} + 2\frac{dy}{dz} \right).\\ &\therefore x \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dz}.\\ &x^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2y}{dz^2} - \frac{dy}{dz}.\\ &x^3 \frac{d^3y}{dx^3} = \frac{d^3y}{dz^3} - 3\frac{d^2y}{dz^2} + 2\frac{dy}{dz}. \end{aligned}$$

Substitute in the equation.

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot \frac{d^3y}{dz^3} + \frac{d^2y}{dz^2} - 4\frac{dy}{dz} - 4y = z.$$

The general solution of this equation can be found by the methods of the last chapter. It is

$$y = -\frac{1}{4}z + \frac{1}{4} + c_1e^{-z} + c_2e^{-2z} + c_3e^{2z}.$$

The general solution of the original equation is therefore

$$y = -\frac{1}{4}\log x + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{c_1}{x} + \frac{c_2}{x^2} + c_3 x^2.$$

#### EXACT LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

46. Definition. A linear differential equation

$$P_{0}\frac{d^{n}y}{dx^{n}} + P_{1}\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + P_{n-3}\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} + P_{n-2}\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + P_{n-1}\frac{dy}{dx} + P_{n}y = X$$

is said to be exact, when, if the left hand member be represented by V, the expression Vdx is the exact differential of some function U which does not contain an integral of y.

The expression U is evidently an expression actually containing a derivative of order n = 1.

47. To find the necessary and sufficient condition that the equation of the preceding article be exact, and a method of solution of such an equation.

Multiply each term by dx and take the integral of each term.

$$\therefore \int P_0 \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} dx + \int P_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} dx + \dots + \int P_{n-3} \frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} dx$$

$$+ \int P_{n-3} \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} dx + \int P_{n-1} \frac{dy}{dx} dx + \int P_n y dx = \int X dx + c.$$
Now
$$\int P_n y dy = \int P_n y dy$$
identically.

And, by integration by parts,

where the primes denote differentiation with respect to x.

$$\begin{split} \ddots \int X dx + c &= \int (P_n - P'_{n-1} + P''_{n-2} - P'''_{n-3} + \cdots) y dx. \\ &+ (P_{n-1} - P'_{n-2} + P''_{n-3} - \cdots) y \\ &+ (P_{n-2} - P'_{n-3} + \cdots) y' \\ &+ (P_{n-3} - \cdots) y' \\ &+ (P_{n-3} - \cdots) y'' \end{split}$$

Write the expression in brackets as  $Q_n$ ,  $Q_{n-1}$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $Q_0$  respectively.

$$\therefore \int X dx + c = \int Q_n y dx + Q_{n-1} y + Q_{n-2} y' + \dots + Q_0 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}}.$$
 (1)

Now in order that the equation be integrable there must be no term in the right hand member of (1) containing an integral of y. The necessary and sufficient condition for this is that  $Q_n = 0$ .

Therefore the necessary and sufficient condition that the equation be exact is that  $Q_n = 0$  or

$$P_{n} - P'_{n-1} + P''_{n-2} - P'''_{n-3} + \dots = 0.$$
 (2)

When this condition is satisfied the equation reduces to

$$Q_0 \frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + Q_{n-2} \frac{dy}{dx} + Q_{n-1}y = \int X dx + c.$$
 (3)

If the coefficients in (3) satisfy a relation in Q similar to (2) in P, equation (3) is exact and the above process may be repeated.

**EXAMPLE.** Solve the equation

$$x(1-x^2)\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + (1-5x^2)\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2x\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 6x.$$

Here  $P_n = 2$ ,  $-P'_{n-1} = 2$ ,  $P''_{n-2} = -10$ ,  $-P'''_{n-3} = 6$ .  $\therefore P_n - P'_{n-1} + P''_{n-2} - P'''_{n-3} = 0$ .

The necessary and sufficient condition that the equation be exact is therefore satisfied.

$$\begin{split} Q_{n-1} &= -2x + 10x - 6x \equiv 2x, \quad Q_{n-2} = 1 - 5x^2 - 1 + 3x^2 \equiv -2x^2, \\ Q_{n-3} &= x(1 - x^2). \end{split}$$

The equation therefore reduces to

$$x(1-x^2)\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2x^2\frac{dy}{dx} + 2xy = 3x^2 + c_1.$$

In this equation,  $P_n = 2x$ ,  $-P'_{n-1} = 4x$ ,  $P''_{n-2} = -6x$ .

$$P_n = P'_{n-1} + P''_{n-2} = 0.$$

The necessary and sufficient condition that this equation be exact is therefore satisfied.

 $Q_{n-1} = -2x^2 + 3x^2 - 1 \equiv x^2 - 1, \quad Q_{n-2} = x(1-x^2).$ The equation therefore reduces to

$$x(1 - x^2)\frac{dy}{dx} + (x^2 - 1)y = x^3 + c_1x + c_2$$

This equation is not exact. It is however an ordinary linear differential equation of the first order, and can therefore be solved by the method of Art. 21. The general solution is

$$y = -\frac{1}{2}x \log (1 - x^2) + \frac{c_1}{2}x \log \frac{x^2}{1 - x^2} + c_s \left(-1 + \frac{1}{2}x \log \frac{1 + x}{1 - x}\right) + c_s x,$$

which is therefore the general solution of the original equation.

# exercises

Find the general solution of each of the following equations.

1. 
$$x^{3}\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} + 7x^{2}\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + 8x\frac{dy}{dx} = (\log x)^{2}$$
.  
2.  $x^{2}\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{2}} + 3x\frac{dy}{dx} - 8y = x$ .  
3.  $x^{3}\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} - 3x^{2}\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + 6x\frac{dy}{dx} - 6y = x^{3}$ .  
4.  $x^{3}\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} + 2x^{2}\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - 4x\frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = \log x$ .  
5.  $x^{3}\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} + 4x^{2}\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + x\frac{dy}{dx} - y = 0$ .  
6.  $x\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + 2\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$ . 7.  $x^{2}\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - x\frac{dy}{dx} + y = \log x$ .  
8.  $(x^{2} - 1)\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + 4x\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 2x$ .  
9.  $(1 + x^{2})\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + 4x\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = x$ .  
10.  $\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - \cot x\frac{dy}{dx} + \csc^{2} xy = \cos x$ .  
11.  $(x^{2} - x)\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + (3x - 2)\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$ .

12. 
$$(x + 3x^2) \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2(1 + 6x) \frac{dy}{dx} + 6y = \sin x.$$
  
13.  $(x^3 + x^2 - 3x + 1) \frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + (9x^2 + 6x - 9) \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + (18x + 6) \frac{dy}{dx} + 6y = x^3.$   
14.  $x^2 \frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + 5x \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4 \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{1}{x^2}.$ 

#### ANSWERS

1.  $y = \frac{1}{9}(\log x)^3 - \frac{4}{9}(\log x)^2 + \frac{26}{27}\log x + c_1 + \frac{c_2}{x} + \frac{c_3}{x^3}$ . 2.  $y = -\frac{1}{5}x + c_1x^2 + \frac{c_2}{x^4}$ . 3.  $y = \frac{1}{2}x^3 \log x - \frac{3}{4}x^3 + c_x + c_x^2 + c_x^3$ . 4.  $y = \frac{1}{4} \log x + \frac{1}{4} + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \frac{c_3}{x^2}$ . 5.  $y = \frac{c_1}{a} + \frac{c_2}{a} \log x + c_s x$ . 6.  $y = \frac{1}{3}x^2 + \frac{c_1}{a} + c_s$ . 7.  $y = \log x + 2 + c_1 x \log x + c_2 x$ . 8.  $y = \frac{1}{3} \frac{x^3}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{c_1 x}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{c_2}{x^2 + 1}$ 9.  $y = \frac{1}{6} \frac{x^3}{1+x^2} + \frac{c_1 x}{1+x^2} + \frac{c_2}{1+x^2}$ 10.  $y = x \sin x + c_1 \sin x \log (\operatorname{cosec} x - \cot x) + c_2 \sin x$ . 11.  $y = \frac{c_1}{n} \log(x-1) + \frac{c_2}{n}$ . 12.  $(x + 3x^2)y = -\sin x + c_x + c_x$ 13.  $(x^3 + x^2 - 3x + 1)y = \frac{1}{120}x^6 + c_1 + c_2x + c_3x^2$ . 14.  $y = \frac{1}{2\pi} (\log x)^2 + c_1 + \frac{c_2}{x} \log x + \frac{c_3}{x}$ 

#### CHAPTER VI

#### CERTAIN PARTICULAR FORMS OF EQUATIONS

48. An equation in the form  $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = f(x)$ .

An equation in this form is exact and can therefore be integrated by the methods of the preceding chapter. It can also be integrated by direct integration.

The first integration gives

$$\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} = \int f(x)dx + a_1$$

where  $a_1$  is an arbitrary constant.

The second gives

$$\frac{d^{n-2}y}{dx^{n-2}} = \int \int f(x) (dx)^2 + a_1 x + a_2$$

where  $a_{i}$  is an arbitrary constant.

After n integrations there results

$$y = \int \int \int \cdots \int f(x) (dx)^n + c_1 x^{n-1} + c_2 x^{n-2} + \cdots + c_n$$

where  $c_1, c_2, \cdots, c_n$  are arbitrary constants.

49. An equation in the form  $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = f(y)$ .

An equation in this form can in general be integrated only when n = 1 and n = 2.

When  $n \equiv 1$  the equation is

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

To integrate, separate the variables.

When n = 2 the equation is in the form

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f(y).$$

To integrate, multiply by  $2 \frac{dy}{dx}$ .

 $\therefore 2 \frac{dy}{dx} \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 2f(y) \frac{dy}{dx}.$ 

Now

$$2\frac{dy}{dx}\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2.$$
  
$$\therefore \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = 2f(y)\frac{dy}{dx}.$$
  
$$\therefore \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = 2\int f(y)dy + c_1$$

Suppose that  $2\int f(y)dy = \psi(y)$ .

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = \pm \sqrt{\psi(y) + c_1}.$$

$$\therefore \pm \frac{dy}{\sqrt{\psi(y) + c_1}} = dx.$$

$$\therefore x + c_2 = \pm \int \frac{dy}{\sqrt{\psi(y) + c_1}}$$

50. An equation that does not contain x directly. Such an equation is of the form

$$F\left(y, rac{dy}{dx}, \cdots, rac{d^ny}{dx^n}
ight) = 0.$$

Let

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = p.$$

Then

$$rac{d^2y}{dx^2} = rac{dp}{dx} = rac{dp}{dy}rac{dy}{dx} = prac{dp}{dy}$$
 ;

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^3y}{dx^3} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \right) = \frac{d}{dx} \left( p \ \frac{dp}{dy} \right) = \frac{d}{dy} \left( p \ \frac{dp}{dy} \right) \frac{dy}{dx} \\ &= p^2 \frac{d^2p}{dy^2} + p \left( \frac{dp}{dy} \right)^2; \end{aligned}$$

and so on.

The equation then becomes a differential equation in p and y of order n = 1. Suppose that it can be solved and that the solution is p = f(y). Then a solution of the original equation is

$$x + c = \int \frac{dy}{f(y)} \, .$$

51. An equation which does not contain y directly. Such an equation is of the form

$$F\left(x, rac{dy}{dx}, \cdots, rac{d^n y}{dx^n}
ight) = 0.$$
 $rac{dy}{dx} = p.$ 

Let

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The equation then becomes a differential equation in p and x of order n = 1. If the equation can be solved for p and the solution is p = f(x), a solution of the original equation is

$$y + c = \int f(x) dx.$$

## 52. An equation of the first order solvable for y.

In such a case, when solved for y, the equation becomes

 $y = F(x, p). \tag{1}$ 

Differentiate with respect to x.

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot p = \phi\left(x, p, \frac{dp}{dx}\right).$$

This equation does not contain y explicitly. It is an equation of the first order in p and x. If it can be integrated as an equation in p and x, there results on integration an equation between x, pand an arbitrary constant. From the resulting equation and (1), if p can be eliminated, there results an equation between x, y and an arbitrary constant, which will be the general solution of the equation.

#### 53. An equation of the first order solvable for x.

In such a case, when solved for x, the equation becomes y = F(y, p). Differentiate with respect to y.

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot \frac{1}{p} = \phi\left(y, \ p, \ \frac{dp}{dy}\right).$$

The method of procedure from this point is similar to that in the preceding article.

#### **EXERCISES**

Find the general solution of each of the twelve following equations.

1.  $\frac{d^{n}y}{dx^{n}} = x$ . 3.  $x^{2}\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} = \log x$ . 5.  $\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} = \frac{1}{y^{2}}$ . 7.  $y\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{2} = 1$ . 8.  $(1 + x^{2})\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - 1 - \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{2} = 0$ .

9. 
$$x \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 3 \frac{dy}{dx} = 3x$$
.  
10.  $x = \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ .  
11.  $x = y + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2$ .  
12.  $y = x \frac{dy}{dx} - \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2$ .

13. Find the curve whose curvature is constant and equal to  $\kappa$ .

14. If a sphere of radius  $R_1$  is surrounded by a concentric shell of radii  $R_2$  and  $R_3$ , the potential function, V, at a point either in the space between the conductors or outside the outer, satisfies the equation

$$rac{d^2V}{dr^2}+rac{2}{r}rac{dV}{dr}=0,$$

where r is the distance of the point from the center of the sphere.

Solve the equation given that  $V_1$  is the potential on the sphere and  $V_2$  on the spherical shell.

15. If a circular cylinder of radius  $R_1$  is surrounded by a circular cylindrical shell of radii  $R_2$  and  $R_3$ , both of very great length, the potential function, V, in the space between the conductors, is such that

$$\frac{d^2V}{dr^2} + \frac{1}{r}\frac{dV}{dr} = 0, \quad \leq \quad \rangle$$

where r is the distance from the point to the axis of the cylinder.

Solve the equation given that  $V_1$  is the potential on the cylinder and  $V_2$  on the spherical shell.

#### ANSWERS

1. 
$$y = \frac{x^{n+1}}{\lfloor n+1 \rfloor} + c_1 x^{n-1} + c_2 x^{n-2} + \dots + c_{n-1}.$$
  
2.  $y = -\cos x + c_1 x + c_2.$   
3.  $y = -\log x - \frac{1}{2}(\log x)^2 + c_1 x + c_2.$   
4.  $y = c_1 \sin (ax + c_2).$ 

$$5. \pm x + c_{2} = \frac{\sqrt{y}}{c_{1}} \sqrt{c_{1}y - 2} + \frac{2}{c_{1}^{\frac{3}{2}}} \log\left(\sqrt{c_{1}y} + \sqrt{c_{1}y - 2}\right).$$

$$6. y = c_{2}e^{c_{1}x}.$$

$$7. \pm x + c_{1} = \frac{1}{c} \log\left(cy + \sqrt{c^{2}y^{2} - 1}\right).$$

$$8. y = -\frac{1}{c_{1}}x - \frac{c_{1}^{2} + 1}{c_{1}^{2}} \log\left(1 - c_{1}x\right) + c_{2}.$$

$$9. y = \frac{3}{8}x^{2} + \frac{c_{1}}{x^{2}} + c_{2}.$$

$$10. y + c_{1} = \frac{1}{2}x^{2} - x + ce^{-x}.$$

$$11. \frac{1}{2}x + c_{1} = \pm \sqrt{x - y} - \log\left(1 \pm \sqrt{x - y}\right).$$

$$12. y = cx - c^{2}.$$

$$13. A \text{ circle of radius } \frac{1}{\kappa}.$$

$$14. V = \frac{R_{1}R_{2}}{R_{2} - R_{1}} \frac{V_{1} - V_{2}}{r} + \frac{R_{2}V_{2} - R_{1}V_{1}}{R_{2} - R_{1}}.$$

$$15. V = \frac{V_{1} - V_{2}}{\log \frac{R_{1}}{R_{2}}} \log r + \frac{V_{2}\log R_{1} - V_{1}\log R_{2}}{\log \frac{R_{1}}{R_{2}}}.$$

## CHAPTER VII

## ORDINARY DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS IN TWO DEPENDENT VARIABLES

54. So far, the differential equations considered consisted of two variables, one independent and one dependent. We shall now consider equations in three variables. These may be divided into two classes : those in which there is only one independent variable, and those in which there is only one dependent variable. The first comes under the class called ordinary or total differential equations : the second, partial differential equations. This chapter is taken up with a discussion of a few forms of ordinary differential equations. The next chapter is devoted to partial differential equations.

55. If f(x, y) is a single valued and continuous function of the two independent variables x and y, given by the equation z = f(x, y), and  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}$  are continuous, then, by definition,

$$dz = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}dy,$$

or

$$dz = \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} dy.$$
(1)

If f(x, y, z) is a single valued and continuous function of the three independent variables x, y and z, given by the equation u = f(x, y, z), and  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$  and  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$  are continuous, then, by definition,

$$du = \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial z} dz.$$
 (2)

56. Equation (1) of the preceding article has, as a special case when z = 0, the equation

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} dy = 0.$$

That is, the equation is true for the equation f(x, y) = 0 where x and y are independent variables. If y in f(x, y) = 0 is a single valued and continuous function of x, the equation holds true for all values of x for which y is a single valued and continuous function, for in this case y is merely restricted to values which it could assume, as well as others, in the more general case where it is independent.

This can be seen more clearly perhaps by a consideration of the geometrical representations of the equations.

The equation z = f(x, y) when x and y are independent variables represents a surface. If z = 0, the surface is the xy-plane, and the equation

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} \, dx + \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} \, dy = 0$$

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holds true for every point in the plane. If y is a single valued and continuous function of x, the equation f(x, y) = 0 represents a curve in the xy-plane in which the equation expressed in the form  $y = \phi(x)$  gives a single valued and continuous function of x, and since

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} \, dx + \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} \, dy = 0$$

holds true for all sets of values of x and y in the plane, it holds true for all sets of values which together determine a point on the curve in the plane.

57. Equation (2) of Art. 55 has as a special case when z = 0, the equation

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial z} dz = 0.$$

By reasoning similar to that employed in the preceding article in the case of two dependent variables, it may be seen that this equation holds true when z is a single valued and continuous function of x and y.

58. An integral relation in x, y and z, equated to an arbitrary constant c, say  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$ , can always be expressed in the form

$$Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0,$$

where P, Q and R are functions of x, y and z, and do not contain the arbitrary constant c.

For, the result of taking the differential of each member of the equation  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$  is, by the preceding article,

$$\frac{\partial \phi(x, y, z)}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial \phi(x, y, z)}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial \phi(x, y, z)}{\partial z} dz = 0,$$

and this equation is in the specified form.

EXAMPLE. The result of taking the differential of each member of the equation  $x^2y - xz^2 + y^2z = c$  where c is arbitrary, is

$$(2xy - z^2)dx + (x^2 + 2yz)dy + (y^2 - 2xz)dz = 0.$$

This equation is in the form Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0.

The resulting equation Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0 is such that P, Q and R are proportional to

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}$$
,  $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}$  and  $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$ ,

respectively.

Conversely, however, an equation of the form

$$Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0$$

where P, Q and R are functions of x, y and z, does not necessarily give rise to a solution of the form  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$ . This can be seen immediately because an equation of the form

$$Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0$$

which gives rise to a relation  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$  must be such that P, Q and R are proportional to

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}$$
,  $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}$  and  $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$ ,

respectively, and these relations cannot hold for all values of P, Q and R.

59. To determine when an equation of the form

Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0

has a solution of the form  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$ .

If it be assumed that Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0 has a solution  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$ , then P, Q and R must be proportional to

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}$$
,  $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}$  and  $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$ ,

respectively, or

 $\mu P = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}, \quad \mu Q = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}, \quad \mu R = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z},$ 

where  $\mu$  is a certain unknown function. From the first two of these equations there results

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\mu P) = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\mu Q),$$

$$\mu \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} + P \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial y} = \mu \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} + Q \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial x}.$$
  
$$\cdots \mu \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}\right) = Q \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial x} - P \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial y}, \qquad (1)$$

Similarly, by using the first and third equations we get

$$\mu\left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}\right) = P\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial z} - R\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial x},\qquad(2)$$

and by using the second and third,

$$\mu \left( \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial y} \right) = R \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial y} - Q \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial z}.$$
 (3)

 $\mathbf{or}$ 

Multiply equations (1), (2) and (3) by R, Q and P respectively, and add.

$$\therefore P\left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial y}\right) + Q\left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}\right) + R\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}\right) = 0.$$
(4)

Therefore, if the equation Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0 has a solution  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$ , equation (4) must be satisfied.

Conversely, if equation (4) is satisfied, the equation

$$Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0$$

has a solution  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$ . The proof of this theorem is somewhat long and will not be given in this book.\* The theorem however will be assumed in the subsequent work.

**Definition.** Equation (4) is called the condition of integrability of the equation Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0.

60. To solve the equation Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0 when the condition of integrability is satisfied.

Suppose at first that z is constant so that the equation becomes Pdx + Qdy = 0. Solve this equation. Suppose that the solution is f(x, y, z) = a constant. Let u = f(x, y, z). Find a quantity  $\mu$  such that

$$\mu P = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}.$$
$$\therefore \mu Q = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

Multiply the equation Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0 by  $\mu$ .

 $\therefore \mu(Pdx + Qdy + Rdz) = 0.$ 

This equation may be written in the form du + Sdz = 0 where u and S are in general functions of x, y and z. In the equation du + Sdz, change the variables from x, y and z to x, u and z by means of the relation u = f(x, y, z). The equation then be-

\* For a proof of this theorem and also that S' of Art. 60 does not contain x, the student is referred to Forsyth, A Treatise on Differential Equations, Art. 152. Commun. payer 77

comes du + S'dz = 0. It can be shown that S' does not contain x. Assuming that it does not, the equation du + S'dz can be integrated as an equation in u and z. The general solution of the equation is the general solution of the original equation.

-EXAMPLE. Solve the equation

$$\frac{yz}{x^2 + y^2} dx - \frac{xz}{x^2 + y^2} dy = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} dz = 0.$$

Suppose that z is constant. The equation then becomes

$$\frac{yz}{x^2 + y^2} dx - \frac{xz}{x^2 + y^2} dy = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad y \, dx - x \, dy = 0.$$

The solution of this equation is

$$\frac{x}{y} = a \text{ constant.}$$
Let  $u = \frac{x}{y}$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{y}$ .  
Let  $\mu P = \frac{1}{y}$ .  
 $\therefore \mu = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{y^2 z}$ .  
Multiply the original equation by  $\frac{x^2 + y^2}{y^2 z}$ .  
 $\therefore \frac{1}{y} dx - \frac{x}{y^2} dy - \frac{x^2 + y^2}{y^2 z} \tan^{-1}\frac{y}{x} dz = 0$ .  
Now  
 $du = \frac{1}{y} dx - \frac{x}{y^2} dy$ .  
 $\therefore du - \frac{x^2 + y^2}{y^2 z} \tan^{-1}\frac{y}{x} dz = 0$ .  
Substitute  
 $y = \frac{x}{u}$ 

in this equation, y being derived from the equation

$$u = \frac{x}{y}.$$
$$\therefore du = \frac{u^2 + 1}{z} \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{u} dz = 0.$$

Separate the variables.

$$\cdot \cdot - \frac{du}{(u^2+1)\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{u}} + \frac{dz}{z} = 0.$$

Let  $\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{u} = v$ .

Therefore

$$z \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} = c$$

is the general solution of the original equation.

61. Suppose that in the equation

Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = 0

the condition of integrability is not satisfied. Then there is no relation  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$  which satisfies the equation. In such a case a relation

 $\psi(x, y, z) = 0$ 

is assumed arbitrarily and a relation  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$  is sought which, together with  $\psi(x, y, z) = 0$ , will satisfy the equation. By differentiation of  $\psi(x, y, z) = 0$  there results

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}dy + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z}dz = 0.$$

From this equation and (1) suppose that z and dz be eliminated. Then there will result an equation of the form P'dx + Q'dy = 0

where P' and Q' are functions of x and y the values of which depend upon  $\psi(x, y, z)$ . Suppose that a solution of this equation containing an arbitrary constant is found and is  $\phi(x, y, z) = c$ . Then this solution and  $\psi(x, y, z) = 0$  together give a solution of the equation.

As an illustration consider the following example : The equation

$$L\frac{di}{dt} + Ri = e,$$

considered in exercises 47 to 50 inclusive, Chapter III, for special cases of e, does not satisfy the condition of integrability if e, i and t are variables independent of each other. For, the equation may be written as

$$Ldi + (Ri - e)dt + 0 \cdot de = 0.$$

By application of the condition of integrability there results

$$L\left\{\frac{\partial(Ri-e)}{\partial e} - \frac{\partial o}{\partial t}\right\} + (Ri-e)\left(\frac{\partial o}{\partial i} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial e}\right) + 0\left\{\frac{\partial L}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial(Ri-e)}{\partial i}\right\} = 0,$$
  
or  
$$-L = 0$$

Since L is not zero, the equation does not satisfy the condition of integrability. Assume e = f(t), however, and the equation becomes an ordinary linear differential equation of the first order. The solution is

$$i = \frac{e}{L}^{-\frac{R}{L}t} \int e^{\frac{R}{L}t} f(t) dt + c e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}.$$

From this solution the results of exercises 47 to 50 inclusive, Chapter III, may be found by substitution.

62. The cases considered thus far consisted of one equation in two dependent variables. Another important class of equations is the case of two total differential equations in two dependent variables where each equation is of the first degree with constant coefficients. The method of solution of this class of equations is as follows :

By differentiation and elimination, obtain one equation in one unknown. This equation may be solved by methods previously discussed. The solution found must be a solution of the original equations. Another solution is found by substituting the one just found in the equations. The complete solution consists of two linearly independent relations between the variables.

EXAMPLE. Solve the equations

$$\frac{dz}{dx} - 2y + z = 0. \tag{1}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - 6y + 5z = 0. \tag{2}$$

Differentiate (2) with respect to x.

$$\therefore \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 6\frac{dy}{dx} + 5\frac{dz}{dx} = 0.$$
(3)

Multiply (1) by -5, and add to (2) and (3).

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 5\frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0.$$

This is a linear differential equation of the second order with constant coefficients and right hand member zero. It can therefore be solved by the methods of Art. 31.

$$\therefore y = c_1 e^x + c_2 e^{4x}.$$
 (4)

Substitute this value of y in (2) and solve for z.

$$\therefore z = c_1 e^x + \frac{2c_2}{5} e^{4x}.$$
 (5)

Equations (4) and (5) together constitute a set of solutions of the given equations.

#### EXERCISES

In each of the seven following equations, show that the condition of integrability is satisfied. Solve the equation.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1. & (y+z)dx + (z+x)dy + (x+y)dz = 0. \\ 2. & (2x^2y + 2xy^2 + 2xyz + 1)dx + (x^3 + x^2y + x^2z + 2xyz \\ & + 2y^2z + 2yz^2 + 1)dy + (xy^2 + y^3 + y^2z + 1)dz = 0 \\ 3. & (2xy + z^2)dx + (x^2 + 2yz)dy + (y^2 + 2xz)dz = 0. \\ 4. & (a+z)ydx + (a+z)xdy - xydz = 0. \\ 5. & (y+b)(z+k)dx + (x+a)(z+k)dy + (x+a)(y+b)dz = 0. \\ 6. & (yz + 2x)dx + (xz + 2y)dy + (xy + 2z)dz = 0. \\ 7. & (2xyz + y^2z + yz^2)dx + (x^2z + 2xyz + xz^2)dy \\ & + (x^2y + xy^2 + 2xyz)dz = 0. \end{array}$$

Solve the following sets of equations.

8.  $\frac{dz}{dx} + 7y - 3z = 0$ ,  $7\frac{dy}{dx} + 63y - 36z = 0$ . 9.  $\frac{dz}{dx} + 2\frac{dy}{dx} + 3y = 0$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dx} + 3y - 2z = 0$ . 10.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + 3y + z = 0$ ,  $\frac{dz}{dx} + 3y + 5z = 0$ . 11.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + 3y + 2z = 0$ ,  $\frac{dz}{dx} + 2y - 4z = 0$ . 12.  $\frac{dy}{dx} - 3y - 2z = 0$ ,  $\frac{dz}{dx} + y - 2z = 0$ . 13.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{dz}{dx} + 6y = 0$ ,  $\frac{dz}{dx} + 5y + z = 0$ . 14.  $\frac{dz}{dx} + \frac{dy}{dx} + 5y - 3z = x + e^x$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y - z = e^x$ . EQUATIONS IN TWO DEPENDENT VARIABLES 87

- 15.  $\frac{dz}{dx} + y + 3z = e^{z}$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dx} + 3y + 4z = e^{2z}$ . 16.  $\frac{dz}{dx} - 3y + 2z = e^{z}$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y - z = e^{3z}$ . 17.  $\frac{dz}{dx} + 5y - 2z = x$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dx} + 4y + z = x$ . 18.  $\frac{dz}{dx} + 7y - 9z = e^{z}$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dx} - y - 3z = e^{2z}$ .
- 19.  $\frac{dy}{dx} 2y 2z = e^{3x}$ ,  $\frac{dz}{dx} + 5y 2z = e^{4x}$ .

#### ANSWERS

1. xy + yz + zx = c. 2.  $x^2y + y^2z + \log(x + y + z) = c$ . 3.  $x^2y + y^2z + z^2x = c$ . 4. xy = c(a + z). 5. (x+a)(y+b)(z+k) = c. 6.  $xyz + x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = c$ . 7. xyz(x + y + z) = c. 8.  $y = c_1 e^{-3x} + c_2 x e^{-3x}$ ,  $z = \frac{7c_1}{6} e^{-3x} + \frac{7c_2}{36} e^{-3x} + \frac{7c_2}{6} x e^{-3x}$ . 9.  $y = c_1 e^{-x} + c_2 e^{-6x}$ ,  $z = c_1 e^{-x} - \frac{3c_2}{2} e^{-6x}$ . 10.  $y = c_1 e^{-6x} + c_2 e^{-2x}$ ,  $z = 3c_1 e^{-6x} - c_2 e^{-2x}$ . 11.  $y = c_1 e^{\frac{1+\sqrt{65}}{2}x} + c_2 e^{\frac{1+\sqrt{65}}{2}x}$  $z = -\frac{c_1}{4} \left(7 + \sqrt{65}\right) e^{\frac{1+\sqrt{65}}{2}x} - \frac{c_2}{4} \left(7 + \sqrt{65}\right) e^{\frac{1+\sqrt{65}}{2}x}.$ 12.  $y = c_1 e^{\frac{1}{2}x} \cos \frac{\sqrt{7}}{2} x + c_2 e^{\frac{1}{2}x} \sin \frac{\sqrt{7}}{2} x$ ,  $z = \left(\frac{\sqrt{7}c_2}{4} - \frac{c_1}{4}\right)e^{\frac{\pi}{2}x}\cos\frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}x - \left(\frac{c_2}{4} + \frac{\sqrt{7}c_1}{4}\right)e^{\frac{\pi}{2}x}\sin\frac{\sqrt{7}}{2}x.$ 

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### CHAPTER VIII

#### PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS.

63. So far we have considered differential equations in which there is only one independent variable. We shall now consider equations involving two independent variables. Such equations belong to the class called partial differential equations.

In this book, the independent variables will be denoted by x and y, and the dependent variable by z. The partial derivative of z with respect to x and with respect to y will be denoted by p and q, respectively.

Definition. A linear partial differential equation of the first order is an equation of the form

$$Pp + Qq = R,$$

where P, Q and R are functions of x, y and z, and do not contain p or q.

64. If there are two equations containing x, y and z, p and q, which can be solved for p and q, the result may be substituted in

$$dz = pdx + qdy$$

thus giving an ordinary differential equation. Usually, however, there is only a single differential equation given.

## 65. Derivation of a partial differential equation.

(a) By the elimination of constants. Let  $\phi(x, y, z, c_1, c_2) = 0$ be a relation between x, y, z and two arbitrary constants  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ . By differentiation of  $\phi(x, y, z, c_1, c_2) = 0$  with respect to x holding y constant there results

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} p = 0.$$

7

By differentiation with respect to y holding x constant there results

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}q = 0.$$

By means of these two equations and  $\phi(x, y, z, c_1, c_2) = 0$ ,  $c_1$ , and  $c_2$  can be eliminated. The result is an equation

F(x, y, z, p, q) = 0

which is a partial differential equation of the first order.

EXAMPLE. Let  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + c_1x + c_2y = 0$  be an equation between x, y and z, and two arbitrary constants  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ . By differentiation with respect to x holding y constant there results

$$2x + c_1 + 2zp = 0.$$

By differentiation with respect to y holding x constant there results

$$2y + c_2 + 2zq = 0.$$

By elimination of  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  between the three equations there results

 $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 + 2xzp + 2yzq = 0.$ 

This is a partial differential equation of the first order.

(b) By the elimination of an arbitrary function. Suppose that u and v are functions of the variables x, y and z, and that  $\phi(u, v) = 0$  where  $\phi(u, v)$  is an arbitrary function of u and v.

The differential of  $\phi(u, v) = 0$  is

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u} du + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial v} dv = 0.$$

Now

$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} d_{x}z$$

when y is constant, and

$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} d_y z$$

when x is constant, and similarly for v.

Therefore the partial derivatives of the equation  $\phi(u, v) = 0$ with respect to x and y, respectively, are

and

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u} \left[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} p \right] + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial v} \left[ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} p \right] = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u} \left[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} q \right] + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial v} \left[ \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} q \right] = 0.$$

Eliminate  $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u}$  and  $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial v}$  from these equations.

$$\cdot \cdot \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}p\right) \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}q\right) = \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}p\right) \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}q\right).$$

When arranged in powers of p and q and the coefficients expressed as determinants, the equation becomes

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix} p + \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \end{vmatrix} q = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{vmatrix}.$$

This may be written in the form

where

 $Pp + Qq = R \tag{1}$ 

P	Q	R		
$ \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix} $	$= \frac{\partial u}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial u} =$	$\left  \partial u  \partial u \right $	•	
$\overline{\partial y}  \overline{\partial z}$	$\overline{\partial z}$ $\overline{\partial x}$	$\overline{\partial x}  \overline{\partial y}$		
$ \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix} $	$\partial v  \partial v$	$\partial v  \partial v$		
$\left  \overline{\partial y}  \overline{\partial z} \right $	$\overline{\partial z}$ $\overline{\partial x}$	$\left  \frac{\partial x}{\partial x}  \frac{\partial y}{\partial y} \right $		

This is a partial differential equation of the first order. Therefore from the equation  $\phi(u, v) = 0$  a partial linear differential equation of the first order can be formed which does not contain the arbitrary function  $\phi(u, v)$ .

**EXAMPLE.** Suppose that u = x + y + z and  $v = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ . Let  $\phi(u, v) = 0$  be an equation connecting u and v where  $\phi(u, v)$  is an arbitrary function of u and v.

By differentiation of  $\phi(u, v) = 0$  with respect to x and with respect to y there result

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u}(1+p) + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial v}(2x+2zp) = 0$$

and

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u}(1+q) + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial v}(2y+2zq) = 0,$$

respectively. By elimination of  $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u}$  and  $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial v}$  from these equations there results

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ z & y \end{vmatrix} p + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ x & z \end{vmatrix} q = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ y & x \end{vmatrix},$$

or

$$(y-z)p + (z-x)q = x - y.$$

This is a partial linear differential equation of the first order which does not contain the arbitrary function

$$\phi(x + y + z, x^2 + y^2 + z^2).$$

66. We have seen that a differential equation with two independent variables can be derived from an expression containing two arbitrary constants or from an expression containing an arbitrary function of two independent functions of the variables. We see therefore that a differential equation with two independent variables may involve in its solutions, arbitrary constants or an arbitrary function of the variables.

**Definitions.** A relation between the variables of a differential equation with two independent variables which includes two arbitrary constants is called a **complete integral** of the equation.

A relation between the variables of a differential equation with two independent variables which involves an arbitrary function of two independent functions of these variables is called a general integral of the equation.

There is another class of solutions called **singular integrals** but these will not be considered here.

67. Consider the two equations  $u = c_1$  and  $v = c_2$  where u and v are functions of x, y and z, and c, and c, are arbitrary constants. By differentiation of  $u = c_1$  and  $v = c_2$ , there result

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}dy + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}dz = 0$$
(1)

and

if

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}dy + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}dz = 0,$$
(2)

respectively.

Multiply (1) by  $\frac{\partial v}{\partial z}$ , (2) by  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$ , and subtract.

	$rac{\partial u}{\partial z}$	$rac{\partial u}{\partial x}$	1	$\left  rac{\partial u}{\partial y}  ight $	$rac{\partial u}{\partial z}$	<i>.</i>
··	$rac{\partial v}{\partial z}$	$rac{\partial v}{\partial x}$	<i>ax</i>	$\left  rac{\partial v}{\partial y}  ight $	$\frac{\partial v}{\partial z}$	dy = 0.

Multiply (1) by  $\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$ , (2) by  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$ , and subtract.

$$\begin{array}{c} \cdot \cdot \cdot \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{vmatrix} dx - \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix} dz = 0. \\ \cdot \cdot \cdot \frac{dx}{\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{dy}{\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{dz}{\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \end{vmatrix}}.$$

Now  $\phi(u, v) = 0$  is a general integral of the equation

Pp + Qq = R,

 $\frac{P}{\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{Q}{\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{R}{\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \end{vmatrix}}.$  See Art. 65.

Therefore  $\phi(u, v) = 0$  is a general integral of the equation Pp + Qq = R if  $u = c_1$  and  $v = c_2$  are solutions of the equations

$$\frac{dx}{P} = \frac{dy}{Q} = \frac{dz}{R}.$$

68. From the investigations of Arts. 65 and 67 the following rule for finding a general integral of the linear partial differential equation Pp + Qq = R is determined.

Solve the equations

$$\frac{dx}{P} = \frac{dy}{Q} = \frac{dz}{R}.$$

Suppose that  $u = c_1$  and  $v = c_2$  are two independent integrals of these equations. Then  $\phi(u, v) = 0$  where  $\phi(u, v)$  is an arbitrary function of u and v is a general integral of the equation Pp + Qq = R.

Definition. The equations

$$\frac{dx}{P} = \frac{dy}{Q} = \frac{dz}{R}$$

are called the subsidiary equations of Pp + Qq = R. They are also sometimes called Lagrange's equations.

69. As illustrations of the method of solution of a linear partial differential equation of the first order, consider the following examples.

EXAMPLE 1. Solve the equation  $x^2p + xyq + y^2 = 0$ . Write the subsidiary equations

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

Solve the equation

$$\frac{dx}{x^2} = \frac{dy}{xy}, \quad \therefore \frac{x}{y} = c_1.$$

Solve the equation

$$\frac{dy}{xy} = -\frac{dz}{y^2}.$$

From

$$\frac{x}{y} = c_1,$$

substitute the value of x, and the equation becomes

$$\frac{dy}{c_1} = -dz.$$
  
$$\therefore \frac{y}{c_1} = -z + c_2.$$
  
$$\therefore \frac{y^2}{x} + z = c_2.$$

A general integral of the original equation is therefore

$$\phi\left(\frac{x}{y},\frac{y^2}{x}+z\right)=0.$$

EXAMPLE 2. Solve the equation (y - z)p + (z - x)q = x - y. Write the subsidiary equations

$$\frac{dx}{y-z} = \frac{dy}{z-x} = \frac{dz}{x-y}.$$

From a familiar theorem of algebra, if

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d} = \frac{e}{f},$$

then la + mc + ne = lb + md + nf where l, m and n are any multipliers whatsoever. Application of this theorem to the subsidiary equations gives

$$dx + dy + dz = 0, (1)$$

when l = m = n, and

$$xdx + ydy + zdz = 0, (2)$$

when l = x, m = y, n = z.

Solve equations (1) and (2). Therefore  $x + y + z = c_1$  and  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = c_1$  are solutions of equations (1) and (2), and therefore of the subsidiary equations. A general integral of the original equation is therefore  $\phi(x + y + z, x^2 + y^2 + z^2) = 0$ .

#### EXERCISES

Determine the partial differential equations of which the four following equations are complete solutions,  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  being arbitrary constants.

1. 
$$z = c_1 x + c_2 y$$
.  
3.  $z = (x + c_1)(y + c_2)$ .  
4.  $\frac{x^2}{c_1^2} + \frac{y^2}{c_2^2} + \frac{z^2}{a^2} = 1$ .

Eliminate the arbitrary function from each of the four following equations.

5.  $\phi(x+y-z, x^2+y^2-z^2) = 0.$  6.  $\phi(x+y+z, z) = 0.$ 7.  $z = e^y \phi(x+y).$  8.  $z = f(x^2+y^2).$ 

Find a general integral of each of the following equations.

9. xzp - yzq = xy. 10.  $x^2p + y^2q - z^2 = 0$ . 11.  $x^2yp + yq = x^2z$ . 12. xp - yq = x - y. 13.  $(y^2 - z^2)p + (z^2 - x^2)q + (y^2 - x^2) = 0$ . 14. (2z - 3y)p + (3x - 4z)q = 4y - 2x.

#### **ANSWERS**

1. xp + yq = z. 3. pq = z. 5. (y-z)p + (z-x)q = y - x. 7. p - q = -z. 9.  $\phi\left(xy, \log y + \frac{z^2}{2xy}\right) = 0$ . 10.  $\phi\left(\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{y}, \frac{1}{y} - \frac{1}{z}\right) = 0$ . 11.  $\phi\left\{y + \frac{1}{x}, \frac{x^2}{(xy+1)^2}\log xy + \frac{x^2}{xy+1} - \log z\right\} = 0$ . 12.  $\phi(xy, x + y - z) = 0$ . 13.  $\phi(x + y + z, x^3 + y^3 + z^3) = 0$ . 14.  $\phi(4x + 2y + 3z, x^2 + y^2 + z^2) = 0$ .

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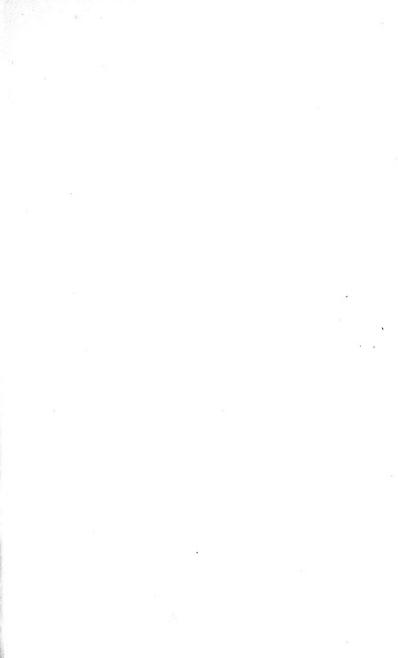
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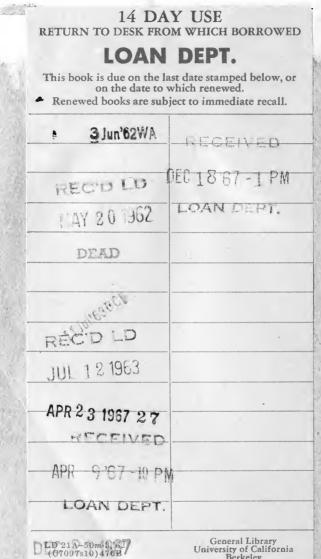
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