

# ODE

Philippe Rukimbira

Department of Mathematics  
Florida International University

## 4.4 The method of Variation of parameters

1. Second order differential equations (Normalized, standard form!).

$$y'' + P(x)y' + Q(x)y = f(x)$$

Suppose  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  form a fundamental set of solutions on an interval  $I$  for

$$y'' + P(x)y' + Q(x)y = 0$$

We seek functions  $u_1(x)$  and  $u_2(x)$  such that:

$$y_p = u_1y_1 + u_2y_2$$

is a particular solution of the nonhomogeneous differential equation.

In that case,

$$y'_p = u_1 y'_1 + y_1 u'_1 + u_2 y'_2 + y_2 u'_2$$

We can impose the additional condition on  $u_1$  and  $u_2$ :

$$y_1 u'_1 + y_2 u'_2 = 0$$

That is equivalent to

$$y'_p = u_1 y'_1 + u_2 y'_2$$

From there,

$$y_p'' = u_1' y_1' + u_1 y_1'' + u_2' y_2' + u_2 y_2''$$

Now, substitute for  $y_p$ ,  $y_p'$  and  $y_p''$  into the nonhomogeneous differential equation"

$$y_p'' + P y_p' + Q y_p = f(x)$$

which becomes:

$$u_1' y_1' + u_1 y_1'' + u_2' y_2' + u_2 y_2'' + P u_1 y_1' + P u_2 y_2' + Q u_1 y_1 + Q u_2 y_2 = f(x)$$

Reorganizing leads to

$$u_1' y_1' + u_1 (y_1'' + P y_1' + Q y_1) + u_2' y_2' + u_2 (y_2'' + P y_2' + Q y_2) = f(x).$$

and finally, one obtains a second condition on  $u_1$  and  $u_2$

$$y_1' u_1' + y_2' u_2' = f(x)$$

What we have now is a system of two equations involving (the derivatives of )  $u_1$  and  $u_2$

$$\begin{aligned}y_1 u_1' + y_2 u_2' &= 0 \\y_1' u_1' + y_2' u_2' &= f(x)\end{aligned}$$

Observe that the determinant of the linear system is no other than the Wronskian  $W(y_1, y_2) \neq 0$  by assumption. Hence, the system has a unique solution  $(u'_1, u'_2)$ .

$$u'_1 = \frac{\det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & y_2 \\ f(x) & y'_2 \end{pmatrix}}{W(y_1, y_2)} = -\frac{y_2 f(x)}{y_1 y'_2 - y'_1 y_2}$$
$$u'_2 = \frac{f(x) y_1}{y_1 y'_2 - y'_1 y_2}$$

From  $u'_1$  and  $u'_2$ , we obtain  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  by integration.

## Example

$$y'' - 3y' + 2y = \frac{e^{3x}}{1 + e^x}$$

Notice that undetermined coefficient methods does not work in this example! Using the characteristic equation technique for instance, we find that the general solution to the associated homogeneous equation is

$$y_c = C_1 e^x + C_2 e^{2x}.$$



The method of variation of parameters tells us that we can find a particular solution

$$y_p = u_1 e^x + u_2 e^{2x}$$

by solving

$$\begin{aligned} e^x u_1' + e^{2x} u_2' &= 0 \\ e^x u_1' + 2e^{2x} u_2' &= \frac{e^{3x}}{1 + e^x} \end{aligned}$$

$$u_1' = -\frac{e^{2x}}{1 + e^x}$$

$$u_2' = \frac{e^x}{1 + e^x}$$

$$u_1 = -(e^x + 1) + \ln(e^x + 1)$$

$$u_2 = \ln(e^x + 1)$$

A particular solution is

$$y_p = (-(e^x + 1) + \ln(e^x + 1))e^x + \ln(e^x + 1)e^{2x}$$

and, finally, the general solution is

$$y = C_1 e^x + C_2 e^{2x} + e^{2x}(\ln(e^x + 1)) + e^x(\ln(e^x + 1) - (e^x + 1)).$$

# Variation of parameters for higher order equations

$$y^{(n)} + P_1 y^{(n-1)} + \dots + P_n y = f(x).$$

Let  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  be  $n$  linearly independent solutions of

$$y^{(n)} + P_1 y^{(n-1)} + \dots + P_n y = 0$$

Look for  $u_1, \dots, u_n$  such that  $u_1 y_1 + \dots + u_n y_n$  is a particular solution of the nonhomogeneous equation.

For that, one solves the following linear system:

$$\begin{aligned}y_1 u_1' + \dots + y_n u_n' &= 0 \\y_1' u_1' + \dots + y_n' u_n' &= 0 \\&\vdots = \vdots \\y_1^{(n-1)} u_1' + \dots + y_n^{(n-1)} u_n' &= f(x)\end{aligned}$$

$$u_i' = \frac{W_i(y_1, \dots, y_n)}{W(y_1, \dots, y_n)}$$

where  $W_i(y_1, \dots, y_n)$  is the Wronskian in which the column  $i$  has been replaced by the column  $(0, \dots, 0, f(x))$ .

# Example

$$y''' + y' = \tan x$$

$$y''' + y' = \sec x$$

## 4.5 The Cauchy-Euler equation

Standard form,  $n^{\text{th}}$  order:

$$a_n x^n \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + \dots + a_1 x \frac{dy}{dx} + a_0 y = g(x).$$

Second order example:

$$x^2 y'' - 2xy' + 2y = x^3 \ln x$$

Observation: The substitution  $t = \ln x$  reduces Cauchy-Euler equation to an equation with constant coefficients!

From

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

and

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

Substitution leads to

$$\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} - 3\frac{dy}{dt} + 2y = te^{3t}.$$

This can be solved using the method of undetermined coefficients or variation of parameters!

$$y(t) = C_1 e^{2t} + C_2 e^t + \left(\frac{1}{2}t - \frac{3}{4}\right)e^{3t}$$

$$y(x) = C_1 x^2 + C_2 x + \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln x - \frac{3}{4}\right)x^3$$



## 5.1-5.4: Applications: Spring vibrations, electric circuits problems

### Second order differential equations with constant coefficients

Consider a spring with natural length  $L$ .

Suspend a mass with weight  $F_g = mg$ . The spring is stretched by  $l$ .  
Choose an orientation vector  $\vec{i}$  downward.

### Hooke's Law

$$mg = Kl$$

where  $K$  is the constant of the spring.

Disturb the mass  $m$  with initial position  $x_0$  and velocity  $v_0$ .

If  $x$  denotes the displacement from equilibrium position, then

$$m\ddot{x}\vec{i} = -Kx\vec{i}$$

$$m\ddot{x} = -Kx$$

$$\ddot{x} + \lambda^2 x = 0$$

where

$$\lambda^2 = \frac{K}{m}.$$

The mass executes a **free, undamped motion**.

$$x(t) = C_1 \cos \lambda t + C_2 \sin \lambda t.$$

$$x(t) = A \cos(\lambda t + \Phi)$$

The simple, harmonic motion.

$\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{K}{m}}$  is the angular velocity,

$T = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$  is the natural period of the motion

$f = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{T}$  is the natural frequency.

$A = \sqrt{C_1^2 + C_2^2}$  is the amplitude and  $\Phi$  from  $\tan \Phi = -\frac{C_2}{C_1}$  is the phase angle.

Solving

$$\lambda t + \Phi = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$t_0 = \frac{\frac{\pi}{2} - \Phi}{\lambda}$  is the phase shift.

The motion can be graphed now!

Example #1, page 197.

Example: A 16 lb weight is placed upon the lower end of a coil spring suspended vertically from a fixed support. The weight comes to rest in its equilibrium position, thereby stretching the spring 6 in. Determine the resulting displacement as a function of time in each of the following cases:

- a) If the weight is then pulled down 4 in. below its equilibrium position and released at  $t=0$  with initial velocity of 2 ft/sec directed downward.
- b) If the weight is then pulled down 4 in. below its equilibrium position and released at  $t=0$  with an initial velocity of 2 ft/sec directed upward.
- c) If the weight is then pushed up 4 in. above its equilibrium position and released at  $t=0$  with an initial velocity of 2 ft/sec. directed downward.

$$16 = K \frac{6}{12} = \frac{K}{2}, \text{ so } K = 32.$$

$$\ddot{x} + \frac{K}{M}x = 0, \quad M = \frac{16}{32} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ slugs}$$

$$\ddot{x} + 64x = 0$$

Finish the example!

$$M\ddot{x} = -Kx - \beta\dot{x}; \quad F_R = -\beta\dot{x}$$

$$\ddot{x} + \lambda^2 x + 2b\dot{x} = 0$$

where

$$2b = \frac{\beta}{M}.$$

$$\ddot{x} + 2b\dot{x} + \lambda^2 x = 0$$

**Free, damped motion** The motion is not necessarily periodic anymore.

$$m^2 + 2bm + \lambda^2 = 0$$

$$m = -b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - \lambda^2}.$$

$b^2 - \lambda^2 > 0$ : Over-damped motion.

$$x(t) = e^{-bt} [C_1 e^{\sqrt{b^2 - \lambda^2} t} + C_2 e^{-\sqrt{b^2 - \lambda^2} t}].$$

Observe the damping factor  $e^{-bt}$ !



$b^2 - \lambda^2 = 0$ : Critically damped motion.

$$x(t) = e^{-bt}(C_1 + C_2t).$$

$b^2 - \lambda^2 = 0$ : Critically damped motion.

$$x(t) = e^{-bt}(C_1 + C_2t).$$

$b^2 - \lambda^2 < 0$ : Under-damped motion.

$$x(t) = e^{-bt}[C_1 \cos \sqrt{\lambda^2 - b^2}t + C_2 \sin \sqrt{\lambda^2 - b^2}t].$$

Observe a periodic factor and a damping factor!

Example #2, page 208.

$$M\ddot{x} + \beta\dot{x} + Kx = F \cos \omega t$$

$$\ddot{x} + 2b\dot{x} + \lambda^2 x = f \cos \omega t$$

where

$$f = \frac{F}{M}, \quad 2b = \frac{\beta}{M}, \quad \lambda^2 = \frac{K}{M}.$$

Assume we are in the under-damped situation, so that

$$x_c(t) = Ae^{-bt} \cos(\sqrt{\lambda^2 - b^2}t + \phi).$$

We look for a particular solution using the undetermined coefficients method:

$$x_p(t) = C \cos \omega t + D \sin \omega t$$

We find that:

$$-\omega^2 C + 2b\omega D + \lambda^2 C = f$$

$$-\omega^2 D - 2b\omega C + \lambda^2 D = 0$$

We find that:

$$-\omega^2 C + 2b\omega D + \lambda^2 C = f$$

$$-\omega^2 D - 2b\omega C + \lambda^2 D = 0$$

or equivalently

$$(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)C + 2\lambda\omega D = f$$

$$-2b\omega C + (\lambda^2 - \omega)D = 0$$

By Cramer's method for instance,

$$C = \frac{f(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)}{(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)^2 + 4b^2\omega^2}$$

$$D = \frac{2b\omega f}{(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)^2 + 4b^2\omega^2}$$



$$x_p = \frac{f(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)}{(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)^2 + 4b^2\omega^2} \cos \omega t + \frac{2b\omega f}{(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)^2 + 4b^2\omega^2} \sin \omega t$$

We will express  $x_p$  as

$$x_p = A \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$A \cos \phi = \frac{f(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)}{(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)^2 + 4b^2\omega^2}$$
$$-A \sin \phi = \frac{2b\omega f}{(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)^2 + 4b^2\omega^2}$$

So

$$A = \frac{f}{[(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)^2 + 4b^2\omega^2]^{1/2}}$$

and finally

$$x_p(t) = \frac{f}{[(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)^2 + 4b^2\omega^2]^{1/2}} \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$\frac{dA}{d\omega} = \frac{2(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)\omega - 4b^2\omega}{[(\lambda^2 - \omega^2)^2 + 4b^2\omega^2]^{3/2}} f$$

The critical  $\omega$ 's are  $\omega = 0$  and  $\omega^2 = \lambda^2 - 2b^2$ .

$x_p(t)$  achieves the maximum amplitude when

$$\omega = \omega_R = \sqrt{\lambda^2 - 2b^2} = \sqrt{\frac{K}{M} - \frac{\beta^2}{2M^2}}$$

$\omega_R$  is called **the resonance frequency**.

Observe that the resonance frequency  $\omega_R \leq \sqrt{\lambda^2 - b^2} = \sqrt{\frac{K}{M} - \frac{\beta^2}{4M^2}}$  is smaller than the frequency of the free motion!

The graph of  $y = A(\omega)$  is called the resonance curve!

$$x(t) = x_c + x_p$$

The function  $x_c(t)$  eventually becomes negligible as time goes on, this is the **transient state**.

$x_p(t)$  which remains forever, is called the **steady state solution**.

In the undamped situation,  $b = 0$ ,

$$x_p(t) = \frac{f}{\lambda^2 - \omega^2} \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

We can see that as  $\omega$  approaches the natural frequency  $\lambda$ , the amplitude of the steady state blows up! This phenomenon is known as **Pure resonance**. It always has destructive effects on the systems.

Assignments: page 189, #10-12, Page 217 (Ross), # 4-7, Page 224,  
#1-3

## Example: Forced motion

A mass weighting 4 lb stretches a spring 1.5 in. The mass is displaced 2 in. in the positive direction and released with zero initial velocity. assuming that there is no damping, and that the mass is acted upon by an external force of  $2 \cos 3t$  lb, formulate the initial value problem describing the motion of the mass and solve it.



$$4 = \frac{1}{8}K \text{ so } K = 32$$

$$x(0) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$\dot{x}(0) = 0$$

$$4 = m.32 \text{ so, } m = \frac{1}{8}$$

$$\frac{1}{8}\ddot{x} + 32x = 2 \cos 3t$$

$$\begin{aligned}\ddot{x} + 256x &= 16 \cos 3t \\ x(0) &= 0 \\ \dot{x}(0) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Solving the above initial value problem leads to

$$x(t) = \frac{151}{1482} \cos 16t + \frac{16}{247} \cos 3t.$$

# Analogous systems

Mass on a spring:

$$m\ddot{x} + \beta\dot{x} + Kx = f(t)$$

Inductor-Resistor-Capacitor (L-R-C) series circuit:

$$L\ddot{q} + R\dot{q} + \frac{1}{C}q = E(t)$$

( $E(t)$  is the electric potential)

Put  $E(t) = E_0 \sin \omega t$

Write the circuit equation as

$$LI'' + RI' + \frac{1}{C}I = \omega E_0 \cos \omega t$$

Solving:

$$I(t) = I_{tr} + I_{sp}$$

where

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} I_{tr} = 0$$

$I_{sp} = \text{Steady periodic solution}$

$$I_{sp} = \frac{E_0 \cos(\omega t - \alpha)}{\sqrt{R^2 + (\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C})^2}}$$

$$\alpha = \tan^{-1} \frac{\omega RC}{1 - LC\omega^2}, \quad 0 \leq \alpha \leq \pi$$

$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C})^2}$$

(in Ohms) is called the **impedance** of the circuit. The amplitude of the signal is

$$I_0 = \frac{E_0}{Z}$$

# Electrical resonance

$I_0 = \frac{E_0}{Z} = \frac{E_0}{\sqrt{R^2 + (\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C})^2}}$  attains its maximum when

$$\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$

This is the resonance frequency!. Tuning a radio receiver consists essentially in modifying the value of  $C$  so as to match the frequency of the incoming radio signal!

## 6. Series solutions

### Examples

Solve

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - 2xy = 0$$

We look for a solution of the form

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$$

Then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n c_n x^{n-1}$$

and

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - 2xy = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n c_n x^{n-1} - 2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^{n+1} = 0$$

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (m+1)c_{m+1}x^m - 2 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} c_{m-1}x^m = 0$$

$$c_1 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} [(m+1)c_{m+1} - 2c_{m-1}]x^m = 0$$



$c_1 = 0$  and  $(m + 1)c_{m+1} - 2c_{m-1} = 0$  which implies that

$$c_1 = 0 \text{ and } c_{m+1} = 2 \frac{c_{m-1}}{m+1}$$

for  $m \geq 2$ .

We will use the [recurrence formula](#) for  $c_m$  to generate all coefficients in the power series.

$$c_0 \quad \textit{arbitrary}$$

$$c_1 = 0$$

$$c_2 = 2 \frac{c_0}{2} = c_0$$

$$c_3 = 2 \frac{c_1}{3} = 0$$

$$c_4 = 2 \frac{c_2}{4} = \frac{c_0}{2}$$

$$c_5 = 0$$

In general,

$$c_{2n+1} = 0$$

for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  and

$$\begin{aligned} c_{2n} &= 2 \frac{c_{2(n-1)}}{2n} \\ &= 2 \frac{c_{2(n-2)}}{(n-2)(n-1)} = \frac{c_{2(n-2)}}{n(n-1)} \\ &\vdots \\ &= \frac{c_0}{n!} \end{aligned}$$

$$y = c_0 \left( 1 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2m}}{m!} \right) = c_0 \left( \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x^2)^m}{m!} \right)$$

$$y = c_0 e^{x^2}.$$

$$y = c_0 \left( 1 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2m}}{m!} \right) = c_0 \left( \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x^2)^m}{m!} \right)$$
$$y = c_0 e^{x^2}.$$

Check this solution using the separable equation technique!

## Example 2

$$(x - 1)y'' - xy' + y = 0, \quad y(0) = -2, \quad y'(0) = 6$$

$$y = \sum_{n \geq 0} c_n x^n$$

$$y' = \sum_{n \geq 0} n c_n x^{n-1}$$

$$y'' = \sum_{n \geq 0} n(n-1) c_n x^{n-2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= (x - 1)y'' - xy' + y = xy'' - y'' - xy' + y \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 0} [(n+1)nc_{n+1} - (n+2)(n+1)c_{n+2} + (1-n)c_n] x^n \end{aligned}$$

So

$$c_{n+2} = \frac{(1-n)c_n + (n+1)nc_{n+1}}{(n+2)(n+1)}$$

$$c_0 = y(0) = -2$$

$$c_1 = y'(0) = 6$$

Using the above recurrence formula, we see that

$$c_2 = -1, c_3 = -\frac{1}{3}, c_4 = -\frac{1}{4 \cdot 3}, c_5 = -\frac{1}{5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3}$$

Claim: for  $n \geq 2$ ,  $c_n = -\frac{2}{n!}$ .

True for  $c_2$  and  $c_3$ . Assume it is true for  $n - 1$  and  $n - 2$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}c_n &= \frac{(1 - n)c_{n-2} + (n - 1)(n - 2)c_{n-1}}{n(n - 1)} \\&= \frac{(1 - n)\frac{-2}{(n-2)!} + (n - 1)(n - 2)\frac{-2}{(n-1)!}}{n(n - 1)} \\&= -\frac{2}{n!}\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= -2 + 6x - 2 \sum_{n \geq 2} \frac{x^n}{n!} \\
 &= 8x - 2 - 2x - 2 \sum_{n \geq 2} \frac{x^n}{n!} \\
 &= 8x - 2 \left( \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{x^n}{n!} \right) \\
 y &= 8x - 2e^x
 \end{aligned}$$

Check by substitution that this is indeed the solution to the initial value problem.

## Example 2

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

$$c_0 = y(0) = 2, \quad c_1 = y'(0) = -1$$

The recurrence relation is:

$$c_{n+2} = \frac{c_n + (n - 2)c_{n+1}}{n + 2}$$

$$y = 2 - x + 2x^2 - x^3 + \frac{x^4}{2} - \frac{x^5}{10} + \frac{x^6}{20} + \frac{x^7}{140} + \dots$$

# Series solutions around ordinary points

$$y'' + P(x)y' + Q(x)y = 0$$

The standard form for a second order linear differential equation.

## Definition

A point  $x_0$  is said to be an **ordinary point** for the above differential equation if  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  are analytic at  $x_0$ ; that is, both have power series in  $(x - x_0)$  with positive radius of convergence.

A point that is not an ordinary point is said to be a **singular point**.

Note: For power series solutions at an ordinary point, the radius of convergence is at least equal to the distance to the nearest singular point.

## Example

$$(x^2 - 1)y'' + 4xy' + \frac{2}{x^2 - 1}y = 0$$

takes the standard form

$$y'' + \frac{4x}{x^2 - 1}y' + \frac{2}{(x^2 - 1)^2}y = 0$$

1 and  $-1$  are singular points for this equation. Any other point is a regular point, according to the above definition.

## Theorem

*If  $x = x_0$  is an ordinary point of the differential equation  $y'' + P(x)y' + Q(x)y = 0$ , we can always find two linearly independent power series solutions of the form*

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x - x_0)^n$$

# Example

Find two linearly independent solutions for

$$y'' - xy' + 2y = 0$$

# Example

Find two linearly independent solutions for

$$y'' - xy' + 2y = 0$$

Look for

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$$

Then:

$$y' = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^{n-1}$$

$$y'' = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) c_n x^{n-2}$$



Therefore,  $y'' - xy' + 2y = 0$  implies that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)c_n x^{n-2} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2c_n x^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+2)(n+1)c_{n+2} x^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2c_n x^n - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^n \\ &= 2c_2 + 2c_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [(n+2)(n+1)c_{n+2} + (2-n)c_n] x^n \end{aligned}$$

We deduce that

$$c_2 = -c_0$$
$$c_{n+2} = \frac{(n-2)c_n}{(n+2)(n+1)}$$

We deduce that

$$c_2 = -c_0$$
$$c_{n+2} = \frac{(n-2)c_n}{(n+2)(n+1)}$$

$c_0$ : Arbitrary

$$c_2 = -c_0$$

$$c_4 = 0$$

$$c_{2n} = 0, \quad n > 2$$

$c_1$  is also arbitrary.

$$c_{2n+1} = \frac{(2n-3)c_{2n-1}}{(2n+1)(2n)}, \quad 2n+1 > 3$$

$$c_3 = -\frac{c_1}{3 \cdot 2}$$

$$y_1 = c_0 - c_0x^2 = c_0(1 - x^2)$$

$$y_2 = c_1x - \frac{c_1}{6}x^3 + \dots = c_1\left(x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \dots\right)$$

## Another example

$$y'' - xy' - y = 0, \quad x_0 = 1$$

Find two linearly independent power series solutions.

Look for

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x - 1)^n$$

for

$$y'' - (x - 1)y' - y = 0$$

## 6.2. Solutions about singular points: Frobenious Method

### Definition

For a differential equation

$$Py'' + Qy' + Ry = 0$$

A singular point  $x_0$  is said to be a **regular singular** point if  $(x - x_0)\frac{Q}{P}$  and  $(x - x_0)^2\frac{R}{P}$  are analytic at  $x_0$ . Otherwise, the regular point  $x_0$  is said to be irregular singular.

## Example: The Euler Equation

$$x^2 y'' + \alpha x y' + \beta y = 0$$

$x = 0$  is a regular singular point. As an alternate method of solution, we look for

$$y = x^r$$

Then

$$x^r (x^r)'' + \alpha x (x^r)' + \beta x^r = 0 = x^r (r(r-1) + \alpha r + \beta)$$

Any solution of

$$F(r) = r(r-1) + \alpha r + \beta = 0$$

leads to a solution  $y = x^r$  of the Euler equation.

# Real, Distinct Roots

If  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are the 2, real distinct roots, then

$$y = Ax^{r_1} + Bx^{r_2}$$

Example:  $2x^2y'' + 3xy' - y = 0, x > 0$



# Double Roots

$$F(r) = (r - r_1)^2$$

In this case  $y_1 = x^{r_1}$  is a solution and the method of reduction of order shows that

$$y_2 = x^{r_1} \ln x$$

is also a solution. (Check this directly!)

Example:

$$x^2 y'' + 5xy' + 4y = 0, \quad x > 0$$

# Complex-Conjugate Roots

$$r_1 = \lambda + i\mu, \quad r_2 = \lambda - i\mu$$

$$z_1 = x^{\lambda+i\mu} = e^{(\lambda+i\mu)\ln x} = x^\lambda(\cos(\mu \ln x) + i \sin(\mu \ln x))$$

$$z_2 = x^\lambda(\cos(\mu \ln x) - i \sin(\mu \ln x))$$

$$y_1 = \frac{1}{2}(z_1 + z_2) = x^\lambda \cos(\mu \ln x)$$

and

$$y_2 = -\frac{1}{2i}(z_1 - z_2) = x^\lambda \sin(\mu \ln x)$$

are two linearly independent real solutions.

Example:

$$x^2 y'' + xy' + y = 0$$

# More Generally

Example:

$$2x^2y'' - xy' + (1 + x)y = 0$$

0 is a regular singular point. We look for

$$y = x^r \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{n+r}$$

Substituting into the differential equation and grouping like terms from lowest power of  $x$  to higher powers:

$$F(r)x^{r+k} + \sum_{n \geq 1} [G(r, n)]x^{n+r+k} = 0$$

Solve the **indicial equation**

$$F(r) = 0$$

and obtain recurrence relations from

$$G(r, n) = 0$$

If  $r_1 - r_2$  is not an integer, we always obtain two linearly independent solutions.

## Example 2

$$x^2 y'' + (x^2 + 4x)y' + (2x + 2)y = 0$$

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^{n+r}$$

$$y' = \sum (n+r)c_n x^{n+r-1}, \quad y'' = \sum (n+r)(n+r-1)c_n x^{n+r-2}$$

$$x^2 y' = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+r) c_n x^{n+r+1} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} (m-1+r) c_{m-1} x^{m+r}$$

$$2xy = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2c_n x^{n+r+1} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} 2c_{m-1} x^{m+r}$$

$$\sum (n+r)(n+r-1)c_n x^{n+r} + \sum (n+r)c_n x^{n+r+1} + \sum 4(n+r)c_n x^{n+r} + \sum 2c_n x^{n+r+1} + \sum 2c_n x^{n+r} = 0$$

$$c_0(r(r-1) + 4r + 2)x^r + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} [[(m+r)(m+r+3) + 2]c_m + (m+r+1)c_{m-1}] x^{m+r} = 0$$

$$F(r) = r(r+3) + 2 = 0 = r^2 + 3r + 2$$

$$c_m = -\frac{(m+r+1)c_{m-1}}{(m+r)(m+r+3) + 2}$$



$$r_1 = -2, r_2 = -1$$

Work with the smaller root  $-2$  first:

$$c_n = -\frac{c_{n-1}}{n}$$

Inductively, we see that

$$c_n = \frac{(-1)^n c_0}{n!}$$

This leads to

$$y_1 = c_0 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} x^{n-2} = c_0 x^{-2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{n!} = c_0 x^{-2} e^{-x}$$

Form  $r = -1$ , we obtain

$$c_n = -\frac{c_{n-1}}{n+1}$$

Inductively:

$$c_n = (-1)^n \frac{c_0}{(n+1)!}$$

$$Y_2 = c_0 \sum \frac{(-1)^n}{(n+1)!} x^{n-1} = -c_0 x^{-2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} = -c_0 x^{-2} (e^{-x} - 1)$$

Check directly that  $x^{-2}$  and  $x^{-2}e^{-x}$  are solutions!

The general solution is

$$y = Ax^{-2}e^{-x} + Bx^{-2}$$

## 6.3 Bessel's Equation and Bessel's functions

$$x^2 y'' + xy' + (x^2 - p^2)y = 0$$

Bessel's Equation of order  $p$ .

Any solution is called a **Bessel function** of order  $p$ . These functions occur in connection with problems of Physics and Engineering.

# The case $p = 0$

$$xy'' + y' + xy = 0$$

0 is a regular, singular point.

Look for

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^{n+r}$$

$$r^2 c_0 x^{r-1} + (1+r)c_1 x^r + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} [(n+r)^2 c_n + c_{n-2}] x^{n+r-1} = 0$$

The indicial equation is

$$r^2 = 0$$

with double root  $r_1 = 0 = r_2$ .

Then

$$(1 + r)^2 c_1 = 0$$

and

$$(n + r)^2 c_n + c_{n-2} = 0, \quad n \geq 2$$

$$r = 0 \Rightarrow c_1 = 0$$

$$r = 0 \Rightarrow n^2 c_n + c_{n-2} = 0 \Rightarrow c_n = -\frac{c_{n-2}}{n^2}$$

$$c_{2n+1} = 0$$

$$c_{2n} = \frac{(-1)^n c_0}{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}, \quad n \geq 1$$

$$y = c_0 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(n!)^2} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2n} = y_1(x).$$

$$J_0(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(n!)^2} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2n}$$

Bessel Function of the first kind of order zero.

$$J_0(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{x^4}{64} - \frac{x^6}{2304} + \dots$$

A second solution must be of the form (See Theorem 6.3)

$$y = x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n^* x^n + J_0(x) \ln x$$

## 8.3. Successive approximations

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

### Picard's Method

$y = \phi(x)$ , the d.e. is just specifying the slope of the tangent line to the graph of the solution!

Zeroth approximation:  $\phi_0 = y_0$ .

First approximation:  $\phi_1$  (satisfying a different d.e.)

$$\phi_1'(x) = f(x, \phi_0(x)), \quad \phi_1(x_0) = y_0.$$

$$\phi_1(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, \phi_0) dt$$

Second approximation:  $\phi_2$ . (Satisfying a different d.e.)

$$\phi_2'(x) = f(x, \phi_1), \quad \phi_2(x_0) = y_0.$$

$$\phi_2(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, \phi_1(t)) dt$$

⋮

$n^{\text{th}}$  approximation:

$$\phi_n(x) = \int_{x_0}^x f(t, \phi_{n-1}(t)) dt$$



One has a sequence of functions  $\phi_0, \phi_1, \dots, \phi_n, \dots$ . The exact solution is given by:

$$\phi = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi_n$$

Picard used this method to prove existence of solutions!

Observe that

$$\phi'(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi'_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x, \phi_{n-1}(x)) = f(x, \phi).$$

# Example

$$y' = xy, \quad y(0) = 1$$

Let

$$y = \phi(x)$$

$$\phi_0 = 1$$

$$\phi_1 = 1 + \int_0^x t dt = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2}.$$

$$\phi_2 = 1 + \int_0^x t \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{2}\right) dt = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{\left(\frac{x^2}{2}\right)^2}{2}$$

$$\phi_3 = 1 + u + \frac{u^2}{2} + \frac{u^3}{3!}$$

where  $u = \frac{x^2}{2}$ .

⋮

$$\phi_n(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{u^i}{i!}$$

Where  $u = \frac{x^2}{2}$ .

$$\phi(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi_n(x) = e^{\frac{x^2}{2}}.$$

## 8.4. Numerical Methods: The Euler Method

Approximating the solution of

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

Let  $x_1 = x_0, x_2 = x_0 + h, \dots$

$$x_N = x_{N-1} + h$$

If  $\phi(x)$  is the exact solution, let  $\phi(x_1), \dots, \phi(x_N)$  be the evaluation of  $\phi$  at points  $x_k$ .

A numerical method will use the IVP to estimate  $\phi(x_k)$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, N$ .

Let  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N$  be approximations to  $\phi(x_1), \phi(x_2), \dots, \phi(x_N)$ . A one-step method uses  $y_{k-1}$  to find  $y_k$  using the differential equation. The method has also an alternate name of “starting method”.

The multi-step methods (using several previous approximations to find  $y_k$ ) are also known as "**continuing methods**".

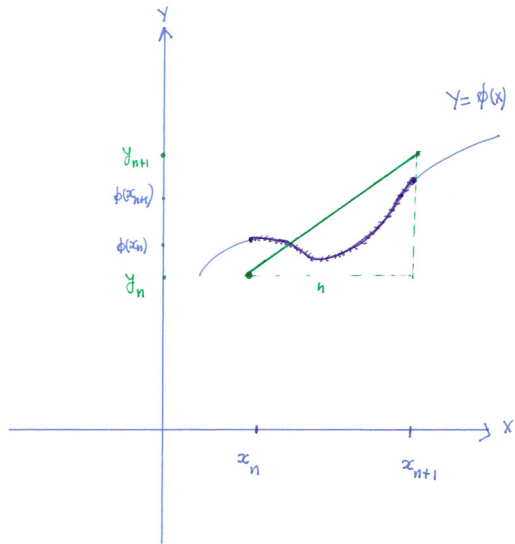
# The Euler Method

$\phi$  the exact solution of  $y' = f(x, y)$ ,  $y(x_0) = y_0$ .

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + hf(x_n, y_n).$$

Geometrically, the segment of the graph of  $y = \phi(x)$  between  $(x_n, \phi(x_n))$  and  $(x_{n+1}, \phi(x_{n+1}))$  is replaced by the line segment joining  $(x_n, y_n)$  and  $(x_{n+1}, y_n + hf(x_n, y_n))$ .

$$y_0 = \phi(x_0)$$





# Example

$$y' = 2x + y; \quad y(0) = 1$$

Use  $h = 0.2$ .

$x_0 = 0$	$x_1 = 0.2$	$x_2 = 0.4$	$x_3 = 0.6$	$x_4 = 0.8$
$y_0 = 1$	$y_1 = \frac{12}{10}$	$y_2 = \frac{152}{100}$	$y_3 = \frac{1984}{1000}$	$y_4 = \frac{26168}{10000}$