

# MA-207 Differential Equations II

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Elementary differential equations with boundary value problems  
by William F. Trench (available online)

Elementary differential equations with boundary value problems  
by William F. Trench (available online)

Differential Equations with Applications and Historical Notes  
by George F. Simmons

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$$\frac{x^3 + 3x + 2}{x^5 + 2x^3 + 5},$$



A function  $y = f(x)$  is called **algebraic** if it satisfies an equation of the form

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- 3 **exponential** functions, for example  $e^x$ ,  $\log x$

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Thus

$$y = \tan \left[ \frac{xe^{1/x^2} + \tan^{-1}(1 + x^2) + \sqrt{x^2 + 3}}{\sin x \cos 2x - \sqrt{\log x} + x^{3/2}} \right]^{1/3}$$

is an elementary function.

Beyond elementary functions lie the **special** functions, for example, Gamma function, Beta function, Riemann zeta function etc.

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## Definition

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This is one of the millennium problems and has a prize of 1 million US dollars.

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Let  $y_1(x)$  be one solution of the ODE

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with  $p(x), q(x)$  continuous. Then we can try to use the method of variation of parameters to find another linearly independent solution, that is, put

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For this, we will solve our ODE in terms of power series.

Let us review power series, which is used throughout in this course.

## Definition (Power series)

For real numbers  $x_0, a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$ , an infinite series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n := a_0 + a_1(x - x_0) + a_2(x - x_0)^2 + \dots$$

is called a **power series in  $x - x_0$  with center  $x_0$** .

For a real number  $x_1$ , if the limit

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N a_n (x_1 - x_0)^n$$

exists and is finite, then we say the power series **converges** at the point  $x = x_1$ . In this case, the sum of the series is the value of the limit.

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If the series does not converge at  $x_1$ , that is, either limit does not exist or it is  $\pm\infty$ , then we say the power series **diverges** at  $x_1$ .

## Theorem

For any power series,

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

exactly one of these statements is true.

- 1 The power series converges only for  $x = x_0$ .
- 2 The power series converges for all values of  $x$ .
- 3 There is a positive number  $0 < R < \infty$  such that the power series converges if  $|x - x_0| < R$  and diverges if  $|x - x_0| > R$ .

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Question. How to compute the radius of convergence?

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For  $L = 0$ , we get  $R = \infty$  and for  $L = \infty$ , we get  $R = 0$ .

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Let  $R > 0$  be the radius of convergence of the power series

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Then the power series converges (absolutely) for all  $x \in (x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$ .

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The open interval  $(x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$  is called the **interval of convergence** of the power series.

## Example

Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence (if  $R > 0$ ) of the following three series

$$(i) \sum_0^{\infty} n!x^n \quad (ii) \sum_{10}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^n}{n^n} \quad (iii) \sum_0^{\infty} 2^n n^3 (x-1)^n$$

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Interval of convergence : in case (ii)  $(-\infty, \infty)$  and in case (iii)  $(1/2, 3/2)$

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- $f$  is infinitely differentiable  $\forall x \in (x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$ .
- The successive derivatives of  $f$  can be computed by differentiating the power series term-by-term, that is

$$f'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n a_n(x - x_0)^{n-1} \quad \dots$$

$$f^{(k)}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1) a_n(x - x_0)^{n-k}$$

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$$f(x_0) = a_0, \quad f'(x_0) = a_1, \quad f''(x_0) = 2a_2, \dots$$

*In general,*

$$a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!}$$

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- We can also integrate the function  $f(x) = \sum_0^{\infty} a_n(x - x_0)^n$  term-wise that is if  $[a, b] \subset (x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$ , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \int_a^b (x - x_0)^n dx = \sum_0^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n+1} (x - x_0)^{n+1}$$

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$$(iv) \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) &= \sum_0^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \right) \\ &= \sum_0^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = \cos x \end{aligned}$$

## Theorem

(i) Power series representation of  $f$  in an *open interval  $I$  containing  $x_0$  is unique*, that is, if

$$f(x) = \sum_0^{\infty} a_n(x - x_0)^n = \sum_0^{\infty} b_n(x - x_0)^n$$

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*Proof.* (i)

$$a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} = b_n \quad \text{for all } n.$$

It is clear that (ii) follows from (i).

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have radius of convergence  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  respectively, then

$$c_1f(x) + c_2g(x) := \sum_0^{\infty} (c_1a_n + c_2b_n)(x - x_0)^n$$

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Further, we can multiply the series as if they were polynomials, that is

$$f(x)g(x) = \sum_0^{\infty} c_n(x - x_0)^n; \quad c_n = a_0b_n + a_1b_{n-1} + \dots + a_nb_0$$

It also has radius of convergence  $R \geq \min \{R_1, R_2\}$ .

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Since radius of convergence for Taylor series of  $e^x$  and  $e^{-x}$  are  $\infty$ , the power series expansion of  $\cosh x$  is valid on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

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Suppose

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

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- Find necessary and sufficient conditions on the coefficients  $a_n$ 's, so that  $y(x)$  is a solution of the ODE

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**Solution.** Write the ODE in  $(x - 1)$ , that is

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that is  $a_n$ 's satisfy the following recursive relation

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for all  $n$ .

## Definition

If a function  $f(x)$  is infinitely differentiable at  $x_0$ , then the **Taylor series** of  $f$  at  $x_0$  is defined as the power series

$$TS f|_{x_0} := \sum_0^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n$$

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Therefore Taylor series of  $f$  at 0 does not converge to function  $f(x)$  on any open interval around 0.

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Suppose

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The function  $f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x^2} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$

is not analytic at 0. Here 2nd condition fails.

However,  $f$  is analytic at all  $x \neq 0$ .

## Theorem (Analytic functions)

- ① If  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are analytic at  $x_0$ , then  $f(x) \pm g(x)$   
 $f(x)g(x)$   $f(x)/g(x)$  (if  $g(x_0) \neq 0$ ) are analytic at  $x_0$ .

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at all points  $x \in (x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$ .



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- 2 If  $f(x)$  is analytic at  $x_0$  and  $g(x)$  is analytic at  $f(x_0)$ , then  
 $g(f(x)) := (g \circ f)(x)$  is analytic at  $x_0$ .

- 3 If a power series  $\sum_0^{\infty} a_n(x - x_0)^n$  has radius of convergence

$R > 0$ , then the function  $f(x) := \sum_0^{\infty} a_n(x - x_0)^n$  is analytic  
at all points  $x \in (x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$ .

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The function  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$  is analytic everywhere. Since  $x^2 + 1$  is never 0, the function  $h(x) := \frac{1}{x^2+1}$  is analytic everywhere.

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In fact, for any  $x_0$ , there is no power series around  $x_0$  which represents  $h(x)$  everywhere.

## Theorem

Let

$$F(x) = \frac{N(x)}{D(x)} \quad \left( \text{example } F(x) = \frac{x^3 - 1}{x^2 + 1} \right)$$

be a rational function, where  $N(x)$  and  $D(x)$  are polynomials *without any common factors*, that is they do not have any common (complex) zeros. Let  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r$  be distinct complex zeros of  $D(x)$ .

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If  $x_0$  is different from  $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r\}$ , then the radius of convergence  $R$  of the Taylor series of  $F$  at  $x_0$

$$TS F_{x_0} = \sum_0^{\infty} \frac{F^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n$$

is given by

$$R = \min \{ |x_0 - \alpha_1|, |x_0 - \alpha_2|, \dots, |x_0 - \alpha_r| \}$$



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$$F(x) = \frac{N(x)}{D(x)} = \frac{(2 + 3x)}{(4 + x)(9 + x^2)}$$

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## Theorem (Existence Theorem)

*If  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are analytic functions at  $x_0$ , then every solution of*

$$y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0$$

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In most applications,  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are rational functions, that is quotient of polynomial functions.

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and the series will have  $\infty$  radius of convergence.

Since

$$y'' = \sum_2^{\infty} n(n-1)a_n x^{n-2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+2)(n+1)a_{n+2} x^n$$

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$$y'' + y = \sum_0^{\infty} ((n+2)(n+1)a_{n+2} + a_n)x^n = 0$$



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Therefore,

$$a_2 = \frac{-1}{2 \cdot 1}a_0, \quad a_4 = \frac{-1}{4 \cdot 3}a_2 = \frac{1}{4!}a_0 \quad \dots \quad a_{2n} = (-1)^n \frac{1}{(2n)!}a_0$$

$$a_3 = \frac{-1}{3 \cdot 2}a_1, \quad a_5 = \frac{-1}{5 \cdot 4}a_3 = \frac{1}{5!}a_1 \quad \dots \quad a_{2n+1} = (-1)^n \frac{1}{(2n+1)!}a_1$$

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Define

$$y_1(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{2!}x^2 + \frac{1}{4!}x^4 - \dots \quad (a_0 = 1, a_1 = 0)$$

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We don't need to check the series for converges, since the existence theorem guarantees that the series converges for all  $x$ .

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- 6 From the recursion formula, obtain (linearly independent) solutions  $y_1(x)$  and  $y_2(x)$ . The general solution then looks like  $y(x) = a_1y_1(x) + a_2y_2(x)$ .

The following ODE's are classical:

- Bessel's equation :

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

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- Legendre's equation :

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

It occurs in problems displaying spherical symmetry, particularly in electromagnetism.

In this course, we will consider ODE

$$P_0(x)y'' + P_1(x)y' + P_2(x)y = 0$$

with  $P_i(x)$  polynomials for  $i = 0, 1, 2$  without any common factor.



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When  $x_0$  is a zero of  $P_0(x)$ , then  $x_0$  is called a **singular point** of ODE. This case will be considered later.

## Example

Find the power series in  $x$  for the general solution of

$$(1 + 2x^2)y'' + 6xy' + 2y = 0$$

**Solution.** Note that 0 is not a zero of  $P_0(x) = 1 + 2x^2$ , hence the series solution in powers of  $x$  exists.

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## Example (Continue ...)

$$\implies a_{n+2} = -\frac{2n^2 + 4n + 2}{(n+2)(n+1)} a_n = -2\frac{n+1}{(n+2)} a_n \quad n \geq 0$$

Since indices on left and right differ by 2, we write separately for  $n = 2m$  and  $n = 2m + 1$ ,  $m \geq 0$ , so

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## Example (Continue ...)

$$a_{2m} = (-1)^m \frac{1.3.5 \dots (2m-1)}{m!} a_0$$

## Example (Continue ...)

$$\begin{aligned} a_{2m} &= (-1)^m \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2m-1)}{m!} a_0 \\ &= (-1)^m \frac{\prod_{j=1}^m (2j-1)}{m!} a_0 \end{aligned}$$



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$$a_{2m+1} = (-1)^m 4^m \frac{m!}{\prod_{j=1}^m (2j+1)} a_1$$

## Example (Continue ...)

We can write the solution

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Since  $P_0(x) = 1 + 2x^2$  has complex zeros  $\frac{\pm i}{\sqrt{2}}$ , the power series solution converges in the interval  $\left(\frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$ . □



## Example

Find the coefficients  $a_0, \dots, a_6$  in the series solution

$$y = \sum_0^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

of the IVP

$$(1 + x + 2x^2)y'' + (1 + 7x)y' + 2y = 0$$

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Zeros of  $P_0(x) = 1 + x + 2x^2$  are  $\frac{1}{4}(-1 \pm i\sqrt{7})$  whose absolute values are  $1/\sqrt{2}$ . Hence the series solution to the IVP converges on the interval  $\left(\frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$ .

## Example (Continue ...)

$$(1 + x + 2x^2)y'' + (1 + 7x)y' + 2y = \sum_0^{\infty} b_n x^n = 0$$

$$b_n = (n + 2)(n + 1)a_{n+2} + (n + 1)na_{n+1} + 2n(n - 1)a_n$$

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Since  $2n^2 + 5n + 2 = (n + 2)(2n + 1)$ ,

$$a_{n+2} = -\frac{n + 1}{n + 2} a_{n+1} - \frac{2n + 1}{n + 1} a_n \quad n \geq 0$$

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From the initial conditions  $y(0) = -1$ ,  $y'(0) = -2$  we get

$$a_0 = y(0) = -1, \quad a_1 = y'(0) = -2$$

$$a_2 = -\frac{1}{2} a_1 - a_0 = 2$$

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## Example (Continue ...)

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Check that

$$y(x) = -1 - 2x + 2x^2 + \frac{5}{3}x^3 - \frac{55}{12}x^4 + \frac{3}{4}x^5 + \frac{61}{8}x^6 + \dots$$