

# MA-207 Differential Equations II

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# Ordinary and singular points

## Definition

Consider the second-order linear ODE in **standard form**

$$y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0 \quad (*)$$

- 1  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an **ordinary point** of  $(*)$  if  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are analytic at  $x_0$
- 2  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  is called **regular singular point** if  $(x - x_0)p(x)$  and  $(x - x_0)^2q(x)$  are analytic at  $x_0$ .

This is equivalent to saying that there are functions  $b(x)$  and  $c(x)$  which are analytic at  $x_0$  such that

$$p(x) = \frac{b(x)}{(x - x_0)} \quad q(x) = \frac{c(x)}{(x - x_0)^2}$$

- 3 If  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  is not ordinary or regular singular, then we call it **irregular singular**.

# Ordinary and singular points

## Example

$x = 0$  is an irregular singular point of  $x^3y'' + xy' + y = 0$

Let us write the ODE in standard form

$$y'' + \frac{1}{x^2}y' + \frac{1}{x^3}y = 0$$

Then

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} \quad q(x) = \frac{1}{x^3}$$

Clearly,

$$xp(x) = \frac{1}{x} \quad x^2q(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

are not analytic at 0. Thus,  $x = 0$  is an irregular singular point.

## Example

Consider the **Cauchy-Euler equation**

$$x^2 y'' + b_0 x y' + c_0 y = 0 \quad b_0, c_0 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$x = 0$  is a regular singular point, since we can write the ODE as

$$y'' + \frac{b_0}{x} y' + \frac{c_0}{x^2} y = 0$$

All  $x \neq 0$  are ordinary points.

Assume  $x > 0$

Note that  $y = x^r$  solves the equation iff

$$r(r - 1) + b_0 r + c_0 = 0$$

$$\iff r^2 + (b_0 - 1)r + c_0 = 0$$

Let  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  denote the roots of this quadratic equation.

## Example (continues ...)

- If the roots  $r_1 \neq r_2$  are real, then

$$x^{r_1} \quad \text{and} \quad x^{r_2}$$

are two independent solutions.

- If the roots  $r_1 = r_2$  are real, then

$$x^{r_1} \quad \text{and} \quad (\log x)x^{r_1}$$

are two independent solutions.

- If the roots are complex (written as  $a \pm ib$ ), then

$$x^a \cos(b \log x) \quad \text{and} \quad x^a \sin(b \log x)$$

are two independent solutions.

This example motivates us to look for solutions which involve  $x^r$ .

# First solution in regular singular case

Consider  $x^2y'' + xb(x)y' + c(x)y = 0$  with

$$b(x) = \sum_{i \geq 0} b_i x^i \quad c(x) = \sum_{i \geq 0} c_i x^i$$

analytic functions in a small neighborhood of 0.

$x = 0$  is a regular singular point.

Define the indicial equation

$$I(r) := r(r - 1) + b_0 r + c_0$$

Look for solution of the type

$$y(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^{n+r}$$

by substituting this into the differential equation and setting the coefficient of  $x^{n+r}$  to 0.

# First solution in regular singular case

We get the following

- 1 The coefficient of  $x^r$  is  $I(r)a_0$ , thus we need  $I(r)a_0 = 0$
- 2 The coefficient of  $x^{n+r}$ , for  $n \geq 1$ , is

$$I(n+r)a_n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_{n-i}(i+r)a_i + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{n-i}a_i$$

We need this to be 0

Let  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  be roots of  $I(r) = 0$ . Assume  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are real and  $r_1 \geq r_2$ .

Define  $a_0 = 1$ .

Set  $r = r_1$  in the above equation and define  $a_n$ , for  $n \geq 1$ , inductively by the equation

$$a_n(r_1) = -\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_{n-i}(i+r_1)a_i + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{n-i}a_i}{I(n+r_1)}$$

## First solution in regular singular case

Since  $I(n + r_1) \neq 0$  for  $n \geq 1$ ,  $a_n(r_1)$  is a well defined real number.

Thus,

$$y_1(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(r_1) x^{n+r_1}$$

is a possible solution to the above differential equation.



## Theorem

Consider the ODE  $x^2y'' + xb(x)y' + c(x)y = 0$  (\*)

where  $b(x)$  and  $c(x)$  are analytic at 0. Then  $x = 0$  is a regular singular point of ODE.

Then (\*) has a solution of the form

$$y(x) = x^r \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n \quad a_0 \neq 0, \quad r \in \mathbb{C} \quad (**)$$

The solution (\*\*) is called *Frobenius solution* or *fractional power series solution*.

The power series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n$  converges on  $(-\rho, \rho)$ , where  $\rho$  is the minimum of the radius of convergence of  $b(x)$  and  $c(x)$ . We will consider the solution  $y(x)$  in the open interval  $(0, \rho)$ .

The analysis now breaks into the following three cases

- $r_1 - r_2 \notin \mathbb{Z}$
- $r_1 = r_2$
- $0 \neq r_1 - r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$

## Second solution: $r_1 - r_2 \notin \mathbb{Z}$

In this case, because of the assumption that  $r_1 - r_2 \notin \mathbb{Z}$ , it follows that  $I(n + r_2) \neq 0$  for any  $n \geq 1$ .

Thus, as before, the second solution is given by

$$y_2(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(r_2) x^{n+r_2}$$

### Example

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

Observe that  $x = 0$  is a regular singular point.

$$\begin{aligned} I(r) &= r(r-1) - \frac{1}{2}r + \frac{1}{2} \\ &= (2r(r-1) - r + 1)/2 \\ &= (2r^2 - 3r + 1)/2 \\ &= (r-1)(2r-1)/2 \end{aligned}$$

Roots of  $I(r) = 0$  are  $r_1 = 1$  and  $r_2 = 1/2$

## Second solution: $r_1 - r_2 \notin \mathbb{Z}$

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

Their difference  $r_1 - r_2 = 1/2$  is not an integer.

The equation defining  $a_n$ , for  $n \geq 1$ , is

$$I(n+r)a_n + \frac{1}{2}a_{n-1} = 0$$

Thus,

$$a_n(r) = -\frac{a_{n-1}(r)}{(n+r-1)(2n+2r-1)}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} a_n(r_1) = a_n(1) &= -\frac{a_{n-1}}{n(2n+1)} \\ &= (-1)^n \frac{1}{n!((2n+1)(2n-1)\dots 3)} \end{aligned}$$

## Second solution: $r_1 - r_2 \notin \mathbb{Z}$

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

$$y_1(x) = x \left( 1 + \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{n!(2n+1)(2n-1)\dots 3} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} a_n(r_2) &= -\frac{a_{n-1}}{n(2n-1)} \\ &= (-1)^n \frac{1}{n!(2n-1)(2n-3)\dots 1} \end{aligned}$$

$$y_2(x) = x^{1/2} \left( 1 + \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{n!(2n-1)(2n-3)\dots 1} \right)$$

Since  $|a_n|$  are smaller than  $\frac{1}{n!}$ , it is clear that both solutions converge on  $(0, \infty)$ .

## Second solution: $r_1 = r_2$

Consider the function of two variables

$$\psi(r, x) := \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(r) x^{n+r}$$

Consider the differential operator

$$L := x^2 \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + xb(x) \frac{d}{dx} + c(x)$$

We have already computed the coefficient of  $x^{n+r}$  in  $L\psi(r, x)$ . Recall that this is given by

- 1 The coefficient of  $x^r$  is  $I(r)a_0$
- 2 The coefficient of  $x^{n+r}$ , for  $n \geq 1$ , is

$$I(n+r)a_n(r) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_{n-i}(i+r)a_i(r) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{n-i}a_i(r)$$

## Second solution: $r_1 = r_2$

Consider the functions  $a_n(r)$ , defined inductively using the equations

$$a_0(r) := 1$$

and for  $n \geq 1$

$$I(n+r)a_n(r) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_{n-i}(i+r)a_i(r) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{n-i}a_i(r) = 0$$

With these definitions, it follows that

$$L\psi(r, x) = I(r)x^r$$

## Second solution: $r_1 = r_2$

If  $r_1 - r_2 \notin \mathbb{Z}$  then the second solution is given by

$$y_2(x) = x^{r_2} \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(r_2) x^n$$

Now let us consider the case when  $I$  has repeated roots

Since  $I$  has repeated roots  $r_1 = r_2$ , it follows that, for every  $n \geq 1$ , the polynomial  $\prod_{i=1}^n I(i+r)$  does not vanish at  $r = r_1$

Consequently, it is clear that the  $a_n(r)$  are analytic in a small neighborhood around  $r = r_1 = r_2$ .



## Second solution: $r_1 = r_2$

Now let us apply the differential operator  $\frac{d}{dr}$  on both sides of the equation  $L\psi(r, x) = I(r)x^r$ . Clearly the operators  $L$  and  $\frac{d}{dr}$  commute with each other, and so we get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dr}L\psi(r, x) &= L\frac{d}{dr}\psi(r, x) \\ &= L\sum_{n\geq 0} (a'_n(r)x^{n+r} + a_n(r)x^{n+r} \log x) = \frac{d}{dr}I(r)x^r \\ &= I'(r)x^r + I(r)x^r \log x\end{aligned}$$

Thus, if we plug in  $r = r_1 = r_2$  in the above, then we get

$$L\left(\sum_{n\geq 0} a'_n(r_2)x^{n+r_2} + a_n(r_2)x^{n+r_2} \log x\right) = 0$$

## Second solution: $r_1 = r_2$

Theorem (Second solution:  $r_1 = r_2$ )

*A second solution to the differential equation is given by*

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} a'_n(r_2)x^{n+r_2} + \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(r_2)x^{n+r_2} \log x$$

## Example

Consider the ODE

$$x^2 y'' + 3xy' + (1 - 2x)y = 0$$

This has a regular singularity at  $x = 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} I(r) &= r(r-1) + 3r + 1 \\ &= r^2 + 2r + 1 \end{aligned}$$

has a repeated roots  $-1, -1$ .

Let us find the Frobenius solution directly by putting

$$y = x^r \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(r) x^n \quad a_0 = 1$$

$$y' = \sum_{n \geq 0} (n+r) a_n(r) x^{n+r-1}$$

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

### Example (continues ...)

$$\begin{aligned} & x^2 y(x, r)'' + 3xy(x, r)' + (1 - 2x)y(x, r) \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} [(n+r)(n+r-1) + 3(n+r) + 1] a_n(r) x^{n+r} \\ &\quad - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2a_n(r) x^{n+r+1} \end{aligned}$$

Recursion relations for  $n \geq 1$  are

$$\begin{aligned} a_n(r) &= \frac{2a_{n-1}(r)}{(n+r)(n+r-1) + 3(n+r) + 1} \\ &= \frac{2a_{n-1}(r)}{(n+r+1)^2} \\ &= \frac{2^n}{[(n+r+1)(n+r) \dots (r+2)]^2} a_0 \end{aligned}$$

### Example (continues ...)

Setting  $r = -1$  (and  $a_0 = 1$ ) yields the fractional power series solution

$$y_1(x) = \frac{1}{x} \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{2^n}{(n!)^2} x^n$$

The power series converges on  $(0, \infty)$ .

The second solution is

$$y_2(x) = y_1(x) \log x + x^{-1} \sum_{n \geq 1} a'_n(-1) x^n$$

where

$$a_n(r) = \frac{2^n}{[(n+r+1)(n+r)\dots(r+2)]^2}$$

$$a'_n(r) = \frac{-2 \cdot 2^n [(n+r+1)(n+r)\dots(r+2)]'}{[(n+r+1)(n+r)\dots(r+2)]^3}$$

### Example (continued)

$$= -2a_n(r) \left( \frac{1}{n+r+1} + \frac{1}{n+r} + \cdots + \frac{1}{r+2} \right)$$

Putting  $r = -1$ , we get

$$a'_n(-1) = -\frac{2^{n+1}H_n}{(n!)^2}$$

where

$$H_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n}$$

(These are the partial sums of the harmonic series.)

So the second solution is

$$y_2(x) = y_1(x) \log x - \frac{1}{x} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{2^{n+1}H_n}{(n!)^2} x^n$$

It is clear that this series converges on  $(0, \infty)$ .

## Second solution: $0 \neq r_1 - r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$

Define

$$N := r_1 - r_2$$

Note that each  $a_n(r)$  is a rational function in  $r$ , in fact, the denominator is exactly  $\prod_{i=1}^n I(i+r)$ .

The polynomial  $\prod_{i=1}^n I(i+r)$  evaluated at  $r_2$  vanishes iff  $n \geq N$ . For  $n \geq N$  it vanishes to order exactly 1.

Thus, if we define

$$A_n(r) := a_n(r)(r - r_2)$$

then it is clear that for every  $n \geq 0$ , the function  $A_n(r)$  is analytic in a neighborhood of  $r_2$ .

## Second solution: $0 \neq r_1 - r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$

In particular,  $A_n(r_2)$  and  $A'_n(r_2)$  are well defined real numbers.

Multiplying the equation  $L\psi(r, x) = I(r)x^r$  with  $r - r_2$  we get

$$(r - r_2)L\psi(r, x) = L(r - r_2)\psi(r, x) = (r - r_2)I(r)x^r$$

Note that

$$(r - r_2)\psi(r, x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} A_n(r)x^{n+r}$$



## Second solution: $0 \neq r_1 - r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$

Now let us apply the differential operator  $\frac{d}{dr}$  on both sides of the equation  $L(r - r_2)\psi(r, x) = (r - r_2)I(r)x^r$  to get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dr}L(r - r_2)\psi(r, x) &= L\frac{d}{dr}(r - r_2)\psi(r, x) \\ &= \frac{d}{dr}(r - r_2)I(r)x^r \\ &= I(r)x^r + (r - r_2)I'(r)x^r + (r - r_2)I(r)x^r \log x\end{aligned}$$

Thus we get

$$\begin{aligned}L\frac{d}{dr}\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} A_n(r)x^{n+r}\right) &= L\frac{d}{dr}\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} A_n(r)x^{n+r}\right) \\ &= L\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} A'_n(r)x^{n+r} + A_n(r)x^{n+r} \log x\right) \\ &= I(r)x^r + (r - r_2)I'(r)x^r + \\ &\quad (r - r_2)I(r)x^r \log x\end{aligned}$$

## Second solution: $0 \neq r_1 - r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$

If we set  $r = r_2$  into the equation

$$L\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} A'_n(r)x^{n+r} + A_n(r)x^{n+r} \log x\right) = I(r)x^r + (r - r_2)I'(r)x^r + (r - r_2)I(r)x^r \log x$$

we get the second solution

$$L\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} A'_n(r_2)x^{n+r_2} + A_n(r_2)x^{n+r_2} \log x\right) = 0$$

**Theorem (Second solution:  $0 \neq r_1 - r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ )**

*A second solution to the differential equation is given by*

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} A'_n(r_2)x^{n+r_2} + \sum_{n \geq 0} A_n(r_2)x^{n+r_2} \log x$$

### Example

Consider the ODE  $xy'' - (4+x)y' + 2y = 0$  (\*)

Multiplying (\*) with  $x$ , we get  $x = 0$  is a regular singular point.

$$I(r) = r(r-1) - 4r + 0 = r(r-5) = 0$$

with the roots differing by a positive integer.

Put  $y(x, r) = x^r \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r)x^n$ ,  $a_0(r) = 1$ , into the ODE to get

$$x \sum_{n \geq 0} (n+r)(n+r-1)a_n(r)x^{n+r-2} - (4+x) \sum_{n \geq 0} (n+r)a_n(r)x^{n+r-1} + 2 \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n(r)x^{n+r} = 0$$

the coefficient of  $x^{n+r-1}$  for  $n \geq 1$  gives

## Example (continues ...)

$$(n+r)(n+r-1)a_n(r) - 4(n+r)a_n(r) - (n+r-1)a_{n-1}(r) + 2a_{n-1}(r) = 0$$

For  $n \geq 1$ ,

$$(n+r)(n+r-5)a_n = (n+r-3)a_{n-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a_n(r) &= \frac{(n+r-3)}{(n+r)(n+r-5)} a_{n-1} \\ &= \frac{(n+r-3) \dots (r-2)}{(n+r) \dots (1+r)(n+r-5) \dots (r-4)} a_0 \end{aligned}$$

For the first solution, set  $r = r_1 = 5$  (and  $a_0 = 1$ ), we get

$$\begin{aligned} a_n(5) &= \frac{(n+2) \dots (3)}{(n+5) \dots 6(n) \dots 1} \\ &= \frac{(n+2)!/2}{(n!)(n+5)!/5!} \end{aligned}$$

Example (continues ...)

$$= \frac{60}{n!(n+5)(n+4)(n+3)}$$

Thus

$$y_1(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{60}{n!(n+5)(n+4)(n+3)} x^{n+5}$$

Recall  $N = r_1 - r_2 = 5 - 0$  is integer, so the second solution is

$$y_2(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} A'_n(r_2) x^{n+r_2} + \sum_{n \geq 0} A_n(r_2) x^{n+r_2} \log x$$

where, for  $n \geq 0$

$$A_n(r) = (r - r_2) a_n(r)$$

Since  $r_2 = 0$ , the above becomes

$$A_n(r) = r a_n(r)$$

### Example

In this example, we can easily check that none of the  $a_n(r)$  have a singularity at  $r = 0$ .

Thus,  $A_n(0) = 0$  for all  $n \geq 0$ ; and  $A'_n(0) = a_n(0)$  for all  $n \geq 0$ .

$$a_1(0) = \frac{1}{2}; a_2(0) = \frac{1}{12};$$

It is easily checked that for  $n \geq 3$

$$a_n(r) = \frac{(n+r-3)(n+r-4)}{n!12}$$

Thus,  $a_3(0) = a_4(0) = 0$ .

### Example

Therefore a second solution is

$$\begin{aligned}y_2(x) &= 1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{12} + \sum_{n \geq 5} \frac{(n-3)(n-4)}{n!12} x^n \\ &= 1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{12} + \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{k!(k+5)(k+4)(k+3)12} x^{k+5}\end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{k!(k+5)(k+4)(k+3)12} x^{k+5}$$

is a multiple of  $y_1(x)$ ,  
we get that a second solution is

$$y_2(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{12}.$$

While solving an ODE around a regular singular point by the Frobenius method, the cases encountered are

- roots not differing by an integer
- repeated roots
- roots differing by a positive integer

The larger root always yields a fractional power series solution. In the first case, the smaller root also yields a fractional power series solution.

In the second and third cases, the second solution may involve a log term.



Let us write down some classical ODE's.

- (Euler equation)  $\alpha x^2 y'' + \beta x y' + \gamma y = 0$
- (Bessel equation)  $x^2 y'' + x y' + (x^2 - \nu^2) y = 0$ . We will next look at this case more closely.
- (Laguerre equation)  $x y'' + (1 - x) y' + \lambda y = 0$