

Applied Ordinary Differential Equations — Homework 6

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Section 5.4 – Problem 25

Find all values of β for which all solutions of $x^2 y'' + \beta y = 0$ approach zero as $x \rightarrow 0$.

Solution

We begin by letting $y = x^r$, making the assumption that solutions will take this form. Then the derivatives of y can be computed.

$$y = x^r \quad \longrightarrow \quad y' = r x^{r-1} \quad \longrightarrow \quad y' = r(r-1)x^{r-2}$$

These can be substituted into the differential equation, and then this can be simplified as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} x^2(r(r-1)x^{r-2}) + \beta(x^r) &= 0 \\ r(r-1)x^r + \beta x^r &= 0 \\ x^r(r(r-1) + \beta) &= 0 \\ x^r(r^2 - r + \beta) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The roots of the inner polynomial can now be computed by the quadratic formula. This yields

$$r = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4\beta}}{2}$$

Since we say that $y = x^r$, it follows that if $x \rightarrow 0$ then $x^r \rightarrow 0$ if and only if r has a positive real part. In order to have complex eigenvalues, it must be the case that $1 - 4\beta < 0$. Equivalently,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - 4\beta &< 0 \\ 1 &< 4\beta \\ \frac{1}{4} &< \beta \end{aligned}$$

And in this scenario the real part will be guaranteed to be positive. In the case that we have real eigenvalues, for r_1, r_2 to be positive, it must be the case that $1 - \sqrt{1 - 4\beta} > 0$. Equivalently,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \sqrt{1 - 4\beta} &> 0 \\ 1 &> \sqrt{1 - 4\beta} \\ 1 &> 1 - 4\beta \\ 0 &> -4\beta \\ 0 &< \beta \end{aligned}$$

In combination, we can guarantee a positive real part for both eigenvalues simply by restricting β to be strictly positive. That is, if $\beta > 0$ then all solutions of $x^2 y'' + \beta y = 0$ approach zero as $x \rightarrow 0$.

Section 5.4 – Problem 28

Using the method of reduction of order, show that if r_1 is a repeated root of $r(r-1) + \alpha r + \beta = 0$, then x^{r_1} and $x^{r_1} \ln x$ are solutions of $x^2 y'' + \alpha x y' + \beta y = 0$ for $x > 0$.

Solution

It can be reasonably assumed that, to find a solution, we can substitute $y = x^r$ once again. These can all be differentiated, giving the following.

$$y = x^r \quad \longrightarrow \quad y' = r x^{r-1} \quad \longrightarrow \quad y' = r(r-1)x^{r-2}$$

This can be substituted into our original equation

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 r(r-1)x^{r-2} + \alpha r x^{r-1} + \beta x^r &= 0 \\ r(r-1)x^r + \alpha r x^r + \beta x^r &= 0 \\ x^r (r(r-1) + \alpha r + \beta) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

If r_1 is a root for $r(r-1) + \alpha r + \beta$, then we clearly have a solution for the differential equation given by $y = x^{r_1}$, since having the term in parenthesis go to 0 causes the entire left-hand side to be 0 and thus the equation is satisfied. If r_1 is a repeated root, then we can determine an equality involving α and β .

$$\begin{aligned} r(r-1) + \alpha r + \beta &= 0 \\ r^2 - r + 1 + \alpha r + \beta &= 0 \\ r^2 + (\alpha - 1)r + (\beta + 1) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The quadratic equation can be used to solve for the roots.

$$r = \frac{(1 - \alpha) \pm \sqrt{(\alpha - 1)^2 - 4(\beta + 1)}}{2}$$

Assuming that we have a repeated root r_1 we know that $(\alpha - 1)^2 - 4(\beta + 1) = 0$. Then we know that r_1 is of the following form.

$$r_1 = \frac{1 - \alpha}{2}$$

Set $y = v(x)x^r$, by the method of reduction of order, then the first and second derivative can be taken.

$$y = v x^r \quad \longrightarrow \quad y' = v' x^r + v r x^{r-1} \quad \longrightarrow \quad y'' = v'' x^r + v'(2r x^{r-1}) + v(r(r-1)x^{r-2})$$

Then we will substitute in these for y, y' , and y'' .

$$x^2 [v'' x^r + v'(2r x^{r-1}) + v(r(r-1)x^{r-2})] + \alpha x [v' x^r + v r x^{r-1}] + \beta [v x^r]$$

This can be simplified with some algebra.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= x^2 [v'' x^r + v'(2r x^{r-1}) + v(r(r-1)x^{r-2})] + \alpha x [v' x^r + v r x^{r-1}] + \beta [v x^r] \\ 0 &= [v'' x^{r+2} + v' 2r x^{r+1} + v(r(r-1)x^r)] + [v' \alpha x^{r+1} + v \alpha r x^r] + v[\beta x^r] \\ 0 &= v''(x^{r+2}) + v'(x^{r+1}(2r + \alpha)) + v(x^r(r(r-1) + \alpha r + \beta)) \end{aligned}$$

Since r_1 is a root of $r(r-1) + \alpha r + \beta$, the coefficient of v is equal to 0. Since $r_1 = \frac{1 - \alpha}{2}$, we can simplify the coefficient on the term with v' .

$$\begin{aligned} 2r_1 + \alpha &= 2 \frac{1 - \alpha}{2} + \alpha \\ &= 1 - \alpha + \alpha \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

So then our equation simplifies further.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= v''(x^{r+2}) + v'(x^{r+1}(2r + \alpha)) + v(x^r(r(r-1) + \alpha r + \beta)) \\ 0 &= v''(x^{r+2}) + v'(x^{r+1}) \end{aligned}$$

Let $w = v'$, and we can reduce the order of our differential equation. Substituting in our new variable w , and $w' = v''$, we can rewrite the equation.

$$0 = w'x^{r+2} + wx^{r+1}$$

This can be solved using the separation of variables method.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= w'x^{r+2} + wx^{r+1} \\ -wx^{r+1} &= w'x^{r+2} \\ \frac{-w}{x} &= w' \\ \frac{-w}{x} &= \frac{dw}{dx} \\ \frac{-1}{x} &= \frac{1}{w} \cdot \frac{dw}{dx} \\ \frac{-1}{x}dx &= \frac{1}{w}dw \\ -\ln|x| + c &= \ln|w| \\ e^{-\ln|x|+c} &= e^{\ln|w|} \\ \frac{e^c}{e^{\ln|x|}} &= w \\ \frac{k}{x} &= w \end{aligned}$$

Since $w = v'$, we can integrate w to solve for v .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{k}{x} &= w \\ \frac{k}{x} &= v' \\ \int \frac{k}{x}dx &= \int v'dx \\ k\ln|x| + c &= v \end{aligned}$$

If we assume that our constants of integration were both zero, then $k = e^{c_1} = e^0 = 1$ and $c_2 = 1$. Then v can be substituted into our original solution $y = vx^r$, giving us

$$y = x^r \ln x$$

Section 5.5 – Problem 10

The Bessel equation of order 0 is

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

- Show that $x = 0$ is a regular singular point.
- Show that the roots of the indicial equation are $r_1 = r_2 = 0$.
- Show that one solution for $x > 0$ is

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

The function J_0 is known as the Bessel function of the first kind of order zero.

- Show that the series for $J_0(x)$ converges for all x .
-

Solution

a.

Proof. Firstly, it must be identified that $P(x) = x^2$, $Q(x) = x$, $R(x) = x^2$. The point $x_0 = 0$ must be a singular point since

$$P(x_0) = P(0) = 0^2 = 0$$

To check that it is regular, it must be the case that the following limits are both finite.

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)}$

2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \frac{R(x)}{P(x)}$

The first can be evaluated simply.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \frac{x}{x^2} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 1 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly we can also evaluate the second limit somewhat trivially.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \frac{R(x)}{P(x)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \frac{x^2}{x^2} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since both limits are finite, we conclude the point $x = 0$ is a regular singular point. □

b.

Proof. We assume that we have some solution of the form

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

This can be differentiated twice to find y' and y'' .

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

These power series representations can be substituted in to our original order 0 Bessel equation.

$$\begin{aligned}
x^2 \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)(r+n-1)x^{r+n-2} \right] + x \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)x^{r+n-1} \right] + x^2 \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n} \right] &= 0 \\
\left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)(r+n-1)x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n+2} \right] &= 0 \\
\left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)(r+n-1)x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n-2}x^{r+n} \right] &= 0 \\
\left[\sum_{n=0}^2 a_n(r+n)^2 x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} x^{r+n} (a_n(r+n)(r+n-1) + a_n(r+n) + a_{n-2}) \right] &= 0 \\
a_0 r^2 x^r + a_1(r+1)^2 x^{r+1} + \left[\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} x^{r+n} (a_n(r+n)^2 + a_{n-2}) \right] &= 0
\end{aligned}$$

Since we know that our term x^r cannot be zero, and it must be the case that $a_0 \neq 0$, then our indicial equation is

$$r^2 = 0.$$

Clearly, the roots for this equation must both be 0. That is, $r_1 = r_2 = 0$. □

c.

Proof. For the terms that remain within the sum, we know that they must also be equal to 0 for this sum to be equal to 0. This gives us an equation that can be turned into an equivalence relation.

$$\begin{aligned}
a_n(r+n)^2 + a_{n-2} &= 0 \\
a_n(r+n)^2 &= -a_{n-2} \\
a_n &= \frac{-a_{n-2}}{(r+n)^2}
\end{aligned}$$

So we can compute some of our power series coefficients in terms of a_1 and a_2 .

$$\begin{aligned}
a_2 &= \frac{(-1)}{(r+2)^2} \cdot a_0 \\
a_4 &= \frac{(-1)^2}{(r+4)^2(r+2)^2} \cdot a_0 \\
a_6 &= \frac{(-1)^3}{(r+6)^2(r+4)^2(r+2)^2} \cdot a_0 \\
&\vdots \\
a_3 &= \frac{(-1)}{(r+3)^2} \cdot a_1 \\
a_5 &= \frac{(-1)^2}{(r+5)^2(r+3)^2} \cdot a_1 \\
a_7 &= \frac{(-1)^3}{(r+7)^2(r+5)^2(r+3)^2} \cdot a_1
\end{aligned}$$

Let $r = 0$, and let n be even, then

$$a_n = \frac{(-1)^{\frac{n}{2}}}{(n)^2(n-2)^2 \dots (2)^2}.$$

And since all the terms in the denominator are even, we can write

$$a_n = \frac{(-1)^k a_0}{(2k)^2(2(k-1))^2 \dots (2)^2} = \frac{(-1)^k a_0}{2^2(k)^2 2^2(k-1)^2 \dots 2^2(2)^2} = \frac{(-1)^k a_0}{2^{2k} (k!)^2} \quad \left(\text{where } k = \frac{n}{2} \right).$$

Let a_1 be zero and it follows that we have a solution

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 x^0 + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k a_0 x^n}{2^{2k} (k!)^2} &= 0 \\ x^0 + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^n}{2^{2k} (k!)^2} &= 0 \\ J_0(x) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{2^{2k} (k!)^2} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

d.

Proof. We need only check that the series converges for all x . The ratio test will be useful in testing the convergence of this series. So we will first simplify the fraction $a_{n+1}x^{n+1}/a_nx^n$.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\frac{(-1)^{k+1} x^{2k+1}}{2^{2(k+1)} (k+1)!^2}}{\frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{2^{2k} (k!)^2}} &= \frac{(-1)^{k+1} x^{2k+1}}{2^{2(k+1)} (k+1)!^2} \cdot \frac{2^{2k} (k!)^2}{(-1)^k x^{2k}} \\ &= \frac{(-1)(-1)^k x x^{2k}}{2^2 2^{2k} (k+1)^2 (k!)^2} \cdot \frac{2^{2k} (k!)^2}{(-1)^k x^{2k}} \\ &= \frac{(-1)x}{2^2 (k+1)^2} \end{aligned}$$

Now we take the limit as $k \rightarrow \infty$ and we get

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)x}{2^2 (k+1)^2} &= \frac{(-1)x}{2^2} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{(k+1)^2} \\ &= \frac{(-1)x}{2^2} \cdot 0 \\ &= 0 \quad \forall x. \end{aligned}$$

This means that we can conclude that the series converges for all x .

□

Section 5.5 – Problem 12

The Bessel equation of order one is

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

- Show that $x = 0$ is a regular singular point.
- Show that the roots of the indicial equation are $r_1 = 1$ and $r_2 = -1$.
- Show that one solution for $x > 0$ is

$$J_1(x) = \frac{x}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(n+1)!n!2^{2n}}$$

The function J_1 is known as the Bessel function of the first kind of order 1.

- Show that the series for $J_1(x)$ converges for all x .
-

Solution

a.

Firstly, it must be identified that $P(x) = x^2$, $Q(x) = x$, $R(x) = x^2 - 1$. The point $x_0 = 0$ must be a singular point since

$$P(x_0) = P(0) = 0^2 = 0$$

To check that it is regular, it must be the case that the following limits are both finite.

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)}$

2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \frac{R(x)}{P(x)}$

The first can be evaluated simply.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \frac{x}{x^2} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 1 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly we can also evaluate the second limit somewhat trivially.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \frac{R(x)}{P(x)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 - 1 \\ &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

Since both limits are finite, we conclude the point $x = 0$ is a regular singular point.

b.

Proof. We assume that we have some solution of the form

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

This can be differentiated twice to find y' and y'' .

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

These power series representations can be substituted in to our original order 1 Bessel equation.

$$\begin{aligned}
& x^2 \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (r+n)(r+n-1) x^{r+n-2} \right] + x \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (r+n) x^{r+n-1} \right] + (x^2 - 1) \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n} \right] = 0 \\
& \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (r+n)(r+n-1) x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (r+n) x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n+2} - a_n x^{r+n} \right] = 0 \\
& \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (r+n)(r+n-1) x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (r+n) x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n+2} \right] - \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n} \right] = 0 \\
& \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n} ((r+n)(r+n-1) + (r+n) - 1) + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n-2} x^{r+n} = 0 \\
& a_0 x^r (r(r-1) + r - 1) + a_1 x^{r+1} ((r+1)(r) + r) + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} [x^{r+n} (a_n ((r+n)(r+n-1) + (r+n) - 1) + a_{n-2})] = 0
\end{aligned}$$

Since $a_0 \neq 0$ and our x^r term must be non-trivial, the only way for this equation to hold is if our indicial equation,

$$r(r-1) + r - 1,$$

is equal to 0. So we solve for roots on this equation.

$$\begin{aligned}
r(r-1) + r - 1 &= 0 \\
r^2 - r + r - 1 &= 0 \\
r^2 - 1 &= 0 \\
r^2 &= 1 \\
r &= \pm 1
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have two roots to the indicial equation $r_1 = 1, r_2 = -1$. □

c.

Proof. For the remaining terms, we must ensure that they are 0 as well. That is, that

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

From this, we can find a recurrence relation.

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

Let us fix $r = r_1 = 1$, then this can be simplified to

$$\begin{aligned}
a_n &= \frac{-a_{n-2}}{(1+n)(1+n-1) + (1+n) - 1} \\
a_n &= \frac{-1}{(1+n)n + n} \cdot a_{n-2} \\
a_n &= \frac{-1}{n(n+2)} \cdot a_{n-2}
\end{aligned}$$

For $n = 2, 4, 6, \dots$ we can write

$$\begin{aligned}
a_2 &= \frac{(-1)}{2(4)} \cdot a_0 \\
a_4 &= \frac{(-1)^2}{2(4)(4)(6)} \cdot a_0 \\
a_6 &= \frac{(-1)^3}{2(4)(4)(6)(6)(8)} \cdot a_0
\end{aligned}$$

So we can write the following general relation for even n .

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \frac{(-1)^{n/2}}{(n+2) \cdot 2(n)2(n-2) \cdots 2(4) \cdot 2} \cdot a_0 \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{n/2}}{[(n+2)(n)(n-2) \cdots (4)][(n)(n-2) \cdots (4)(2)]} \cdot a_0 \end{aligned}$$

Since n is even, let $k = \frac{n}{2}$. Now a 2 can be factored out from both terms in the denominator.

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \frac{(-1)^{n/2}}{[(n+2)(n)(n-2) \cdots (4)][(n)(n-2) \cdots (4)(2)]} \cdot a_0 \\ &= \frac{(-1)^k}{2^k[(k+1)(k)(k-1) \cdots (2)]2^k[(k)(k-1) \cdots (2)(1)]} \cdot a_0 \\ &= \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{2k}(k+1)!k!} \cdot a_0 \end{aligned}$$

And this begins to take the desired form. Let $a_1 = 0$ and the odd terms will vanish, so what we are left with is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{1+2k}}{2^{2k}(k+1)!k!} \cdot a_0 = \frac{x}{2} \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(k+1)!k!2^{2k}} \cdot a_0.$$

So we can omit the a_0 term, which finally gives us

$$J_1(x) = \frac{x}{2} \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(k+1)!k!2^{2k}}.$$

□

d.

Proof. To show that the series converges, it is sufficient to show that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(k+1)!k!2^{2k}}$$

converges. By the ratio test, if $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |a_{k+1}/a_k| < 1$ then the series converges.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\frac{(-1)^{k+1} x^{2(k+1)}}{(k+2)!(k+1)!2^{2(k+1)}}}{\frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(k+1)!k!2^{2k}}} &= \frac{(-1)^{k+1} x^{2(k+1)}}{(k+2)!(k+1)!2^{2(k+1)}} \cdot \frac{(k+1)!k!2^{2k}}{(-1)^k x^{2k}} \\ &= \frac{(-1)(-1)^k x^2 x^{2k}}{(k+2)(k+1)2^2(k+1)!k!2^{2k}} \cdot \frac{(k+1)!k!2^{2k}}{(-1)^k x^{2k}} \\ &= \frac{-x^2}{2^2(k+2)(k+1)} \\ &= \frac{-x^2}{2^2} \cdot \frac{1}{k^2 + 3k + 2} \end{aligned}$$

So if we take the limit as $k \rightarrow \infty$, then we get

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{-x^2}{2^2} \cdot \frac{1}{k^2 + 3k + 2} \right| &= \frac{x^2}{4} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1}{k^2 + 3k + 2} \right| \\ &= \frac{x^2}{4} \cdot 0 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

So we conclude that the series does converge for all x .

□

Section 5.7 – Problem 8

Consider the Bessel equation of order ν .

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

where ν is real and positive.

- Show that $x = 0$ is a regular singular point and that the roots of the indicial equation are ν and $-\nu$.
- Corresponding to the larger root ν , show that one solution is

$$y_1(x) = x^\nu \left(1 - \frac{1}{1!(1+\nu)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{2!(1+\nu)(2+\nu)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^4 + \sum_{m=3}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m}{m!(1+\nu) \cdots (m+\nu)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2m} \right)$$

- If 2ν is not an integer, show that a second solution is

$$y_1(x) = x^{-\nu} \left(1 - \frac{1}{1!(1-\nu)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{2!(1-\nu)(2-\nu)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^4 + \sum_{m=3}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m}{m!(1-\nu) \cdots (m+\nu)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2m} \right)$$

- Verify by direct methods that the power series in the expressions for $y_1(x)$ and $y_2(x)$ converge absolutely for all x . Also verify that y_2 is a solution, provided only that ν is not an integer.

Solution

a.

Proof. Firstly, it must be identified that $P(x) = x^2, Q(x) = x, R(x) = x^2 - \nu^2$. The point $x_0 = 0$ must be a singular point since

$$P(x_0) = P(0) = 0^2 = 0$$

To check that it is regular, it must be the case that the following limits are both finite.

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)}$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \frac{R(x)}{P(x)}$

The first can be evaluated simply.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \frac{x}{x^2} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 1 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly we can also evaluate the second limit somewhat trivially.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \frac{R(x)}{P(x)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \frac{x^2 - \nu^2}{x^2} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 - \nu^2 \\ &= -\nu^2 \end{aligned}$$

Since both limits are finite, we conclude the point $x = 0$ is a regular singular point. We assume that we have some solution of the form

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

This can be differentiated twice to find y' and y'' .

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

These power series representations can be substituted in to our original order 1 Bessel equation.

$$\begin{aligned}
& x^2 \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)(r+n-1)x^{r+n-2} \right] + x \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)x^{r+n-1} \right] + (x^2 - \nu^2) \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n} \right] = 0 \\
& \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)(r+n-1)x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x^2 - \nu^2)x^{r+n} \right] = 0 \\
& \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)(r+n-1)x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n+2} \right] - \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \nu^2 x^{r+n} \right] = 0 \\
& \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(r+n)(r+n-1)x^{r+n} + a_n(r+n)x^{r+n} - a_n \nu^2 x^{r+n} \right] + \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n+2} \right] = 0 \\
& \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n} ((r+n)(r+n-1) + (r+n) - \nu^2) \right] + \left[\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n-2} x^{r+n} \right] = 0 \\
& a_0 x^r ((r)(r-1) + r - \nu^2) + a_1 x^{r+1} ((r+1)(r) + (r+1) - \nu^2) + \left[\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n x^{r+n} ((r+n)(r+n-1) + (r+n) - \nu^2) + a_{n-2} x^{r+n} \right] = 0
\end{aligned}$$

So we have our indicial equation,

$$r(r-1) + r - \nu^2 = r^2 - \nu^2 = (r+\nu)(r-\nu).$$

Clearly, this has two roots that are equal to ν and $-\nu$. □