

# ODE Review

## Separation of variables

- Any equation written as  $y' = f(x, y, y', \dots, y^n)$  is a differential equation, this of first order if  $n = 1$
- The equation is linear if  $f(x)$  is a linear function in  $y$
- $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)g(y)$  is a separable equation, got to  $\frac{dy}{g(y)} = f(x)dx$  and then integrate

### Example

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x+2}{y-3} \text{ so then } f(x) = x+2 \text{ and } g(y) = y-3$$

We get the following  $\frac{dy}{y-3} = (x+2)dx$  and then integrate

$$\frac{y^2}{2} = 3y = \frac{x^2}{2} + 2x + C$$

## Linear First order ODE

- Equations of the form  $y' = P(x)y = Q(x)$  or  $ay' + by = c$  where  $a, b, c$  are functions of  $x$
- We use the integrating factor here,  $\mu(x) = e^{\int P(x)dx}$
- With this integrating factor we write  

$$\mu y' + \mu P(x)y = \mu Q(x) \implies (\mu y)' = \int \mu Q(x)dx + C$$
- $y(x) = e^{-\int P(x)dx} \int e^{\int P(x)dx} Q(x)dx + C$

### Example

$$xy' + y = 2x^3$$

$$y' + \frac{1}{x}y = 2x^2 \implies P(x) = \frac{1}{x} \text{ so then } \mu = e^{\int \frac{1}{x}dx} = x$$

$$\text{Now we have } \int (xy)' = \int 2x^3 dx + C$$

$$\text{Simplifying this gives } y = \frac{x^3}{2} + \frac{C}{x}$$

## Second Order ODE

### Constant coefficients

- $ay'' + by' + cy = d = 0 \quad a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$
- $y(x, r) = e^{rx}$

- $ar^2e^{rx} + bre^{rx} + ce^{rx} = 0 \implies ar^2 + br + c = 0$
- $r = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$  the stuff under the root is the discriminant
- $b^2 - 4ac > 0 \implies$  two real distinct roots  $r_1, r_2$
- $y(x) = C_1e^{r_1x} + C_2e^{r_2x}$
- $b^2 - 4ac = 0 \implies$  repeated roots,  $r = -\frac{b}{2a}$
- We know  $y_1(x) = C_1e^{rx}$ , and  $y_2 = xe^{rx}$
- So  $y(x) = C_1e^{rx} + C_2xe^{rx}$
- $b^2 - 4ac < 0 \implies$  you get complex conjugate roots  $r_1 = \alpha + \beta i, r_2 = \alpha - \beta i$
- $y(x) = C_1e^{(\alpha + \beta i)x} + C_2e^{(\alpha - \beta i)x} = e^{\alpha x}[C_1e^{\beta i x} + C_2e^{-\beta i x}] \dots$

### Example

$$y'' + 2y' + y = 0$$

$$r^2 + 2r + 1 = 0 \implies r_{1,2} = -1$$

$$y(x) = C_1e^{-x} + C_2xe^{-x}$$

## Cauchy-Euler ODE

- Of the form  $x^2y'' + axy' + by = 0, y(x) = x^r$
- $(r^2(r-1) + ar + b)x^r = 0$  if  $x^r \neq 0$
- So then the characteristic equation is  $r^2(r-1) + ar + b = 0$
- $r = \frac{-(a-1) \pm \sqrt{(a-q)^2 - 4b}}{2}$
- **1.** positive discriminant gives two distinct roots,  $r_1, r_2$
- $y(x) = C_1x^{r_1} + C_2x^{r_2}$
- **2.** negative discriminant, two complex roots,  $r_1 = \alpha + \beta i, r_2 = \alpha - \beta i$
- $y(x) = x^\alpha[C_1x^{i\beta} + C_2x^{-i\beta}] = x^\alpha[C_1e^{i\beta \ln x} + C_2e^{-i\beta \ln x}]$  this gives us  $x^\alpha[C_1 \cos(\beta \ln x) + C_2 \sin(\beta \ln x)]$
- **3.** discriminant is equal to zero,  $r_1, r_2 = r$
- $y_1(x) = x^r, y_2(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial r}y_1(x, r)$ 
  - $y(x, r) = x^r = e^{r \ln x} = \ln x \cdot x^r$

## Power Series Method

- $P(x)y'' + Q(x)y' + R(x)y = 0$
- Typically use numerical methods
- Given a function  $f(x)$  we approximate this function with the power series approximation  $f(x) \approx \sum_{n=0}^n a_n x^n$
- The power series is  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$
- If  $f(x)$  is analytic  $f(x) = \sum \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n$  this is the Taylor series, if  $x_0 = 0$  then  $f(x) = \sum \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$
- This is only useful if the power series converges so let's look at the **convergence**

- $f(x) = \sum a_n x^n$  converges if  $l = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N a_n x^n$
- If  $R = 0$  then the series only converges around  $x_0$
- If  $l$  is finite then the power series converges in the interval  $x_0 - R, x_0 + R$  where  $R$  is the radius of convergence,  $R$  is finite
- If  $R \rightarrow \infty$  then the series converges everywhere
- We can prove the convergence with the \*\*ratio test
- The power series  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n = \sum b_n$  converges if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n} \right| = l < 1$

### Example

$$f(x) = \sum \frac{1}{n!} x^n$$

$$b_n = \frac{x^n}{n!}; b_{n+1} = \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n!}{(n+1)!} \right| \cdot |x| = 0$$

So then the series converges for all real numbers

### Example

$$f(x) = \sum \frac{(x-1)^{2n}}{4^n}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(x-1)^{2n+2}}{4^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{4^n}{(x)^{2n}} \right|$$

$$\left| \frac{(x-1)^2}{4} \right| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 \implies \left| \frac{(x-1)^2}{4} \right| < 1$$

Which means that  $|x - 1| < 2$  so  $R = 2$  centered at  $x_0 = 1$

So the interval of convergence is  $(-1, 3)$

- Now to **solve** the ODE  $P(x)y'' + Q(x)y' + R(x)y = 0$  with the power series
- Let  $y(x) = \sum a_n (x - x_0)^n$ ,  $y' = \sum a_n n (x - x_0)^{n-1}$ ,  $y'' = \sum a_n n(n-1) (x - x_0)^{n-2}$

### Example

$y' - y = 0$ , the solution to this is clearly  $y = Ce^x$  but lets use power series

$$y(x) = \sum a_n x^n, y' = \sum a_n n x^{n-1}$$

So then we have  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n n x^{n-1} - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = 0$ , let  $m = n - 1$

$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_{m+1} (m+1) x^m - \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m x^m = 0$  Now we can combine these series into one series

$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} [a_{m+1} (m+1) - a_m] x^m = 0$ , this is only possible if  $a_{m+1} (m+1) - a_m = 0$

$a_{m+1} = \frac{a_m}{m+1}$  for  $m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ , recursive relation

$a_0$  is arbitrary

$$m = 0 \implies a_1 = a_0$$

$$m = 1 \implies a_2 = \frac{a_1}{2} = \frac{a_0}{2}$$

$$m = 2 \implies a_3 = \frac{a_2}{3} = \frac{a_1}{6} = \frac{a_0}{6}$$

$$m = n \implies a_{m+1} = \frac{a_0}{(m+1)!}$$

$$\text{So } y(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \frac{a_2x^2}{2} + \dots = a_0 \left( 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots \right)$$

$$y(x) = Ce^x$$

Now you can very easily find the radius of convergence

### ≡ Example

$x^2y' - y = 0$  we will solve this classically and with the power series

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

$$\ln y = -\frac{1}{x} + C$$

$$y = Ae^{-1/x}$$

Now let's try the power series method,  $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$

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

Now plug this into the equation:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n n x^{n+1} - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = 0, \text{ let } m = n + 1$$

Now we have the following

$$\sum_{m=2}^{\infty} a_{m-1}(m-1)x^m - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = 0$$

$$\sum_{m=2}^{\infty} a_{m-1}(m-1)x^m - \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n x^n - a_0 x^0 - a_1 x^1 = 0$$

$$-a_0 - a_1 x^1 + \sum_{m=2}^{\infty} [a_{m-1}(m-1) - a_m] x^m$$

this equation only holds if  $a_0 = 0$  and  $a_1 = 0$

$$a_m = a_{m-1}(m-1), m = 2, 3, 4 \dots$$

$$m = 2 \implies a_2 = a_1 \cdot 1 = 0$$

$$a_m = 0 \forall m$$

$$y(x) = 0$$

The difference between the results are caused by  $x = 0$  being a singular point

- Power series method is only valid at **ordinary points**

### Definition

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

A point  $x_0$  is an ordinary point of the equation if  $p(x) = \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)}$  and  $q_1(x) = \frac{R(x)}{P(x)}$  are analytic at  $x_0$

i.e.  $p(x) = p_0 + p_1(x - x_0) + p_2(x - x_0)^2 + \dots$ ,

$$q_1(x) = q_{1,0} + q_{1,1}(x - x_0) + q_{1,2}(x - x_0)^2$$

If a point is an ordinary point then the power series will work!

### ≡ Example

$$y'' - \sqrt{x}y' + xy = 0$$

$$p(x) = -\sqrt{x}, \quad q_1(x) = x$$

$x = 0$  is a singular point as the derivative is not defined there

### ≡ Example

$$x^2 y' - y = 0$$

$x = 0$  is a singular point as the derivative is not defined there,  $x = 1$  is an ordinary point, so we get the following

$$x^2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n n (x-1)^{n-1} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n (x-1)^n = 0 \text{ now we complete the square for } x^2$$

$$x^2 = (x-1)^2 + 2x - 1 = (x-1)^2 + 2(x-1) + 1$$

Now we have

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

- Given the equation  $(x - x_0)^2 y'' + \alpha(x - x_0)y' + y = 0$
- So we have  $p(x) = \frac{1}{x-x_0}$  and  $q(x) = \frac{1}{(x-x_0)^2}$
- $P(x)y'' + Q(x)y' + R(x)y = 0$
- $y'' + P(x)y' + q(x)y = 0$
- $(x - x_0)^2 y'' + (x - x_0)[(x - x_0)p(x)]y' + (x - x_0)^2 q(x)y = 0$

### Definition

A point  $x = x_0$  is a **regular singular point** if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (x - x_0)p(x) \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (x - x_0)^2 q(x) \text{ are finite}$$

### ≡ Example

$$(1 - x^2)y'' - 2xy' + \beta y$$

$x_0 = \pm 1$  are singular points, now we must check if they are regular

$$\text{At } x_0 = 1, \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x - 1) \left[ -\frac{2x}{1-x^2} \right] = 1 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x - 1)^2 \left[ \frac{\beta}{1-x^2} \right] = 0$$

### Definition

Frobenius series

$$\text{If } x = x_0 \text{ is RSP, } y(x) = (x - x_0)^r \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n$$

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

### ≡ Example

$$4xy'' + 2y' + y = 0$$

$x = 0$  is a regular singular point

so

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

Now we can plug these derivatives to get the following

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

Now we will convert the final term, let  $n+r = m+r-1 \implies m = n+1$

$$\sum [4a_m(m+r)(m+r-1) + 2a_m(m+r)]x^{m+r-1} + \sum_{m=1} a_m x^{m+r-1} = 0$$

The third term can become  $\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} a_{m-1} x^{m+r-1}$

$$[4a_0r(r-1) + 2a_0r]x^{r-1} + \sum_{m=1} (2a_m(m+r)[2(m+r-1) + 1] + a_{m-1})x^{m+r-1} = 0$$

The coefficients of the lowest  $x$  power gives you the indicial equation

$$a_0[4r(r-1) + 2r + 0] = 0$$

$$2r(r-1) + r = 0 \implies r_{1,2} = 0, \frac{1}{2}$$

From the summation we found earlier we have  $a_m = \frac{-a_{m-1}}{2(m+r)[2(m+r)+1]}$

This right here is the recurrence relation

$$\text{If } r = 0 \text{ then } a_m = -\frac{a_{m-1}}{2m(2m-1)}$$

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

$$a_2 = -\frac{a_1}{4 \cdot 3} = \frac{a_0}{4!}$$

$$y_1(x) = x^r \sum a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots$$

Now do the same with  $r = \frac{1}{2}$

- Given  $r_1$  and  $r_2$
- Case 1:  $r_1 - r_2$  is not an integer, the solution is  $y(x) = C_1 y_1(x) + C_2 y_2(x)$
- Case 2:  $r_1 - r_2 = 0$   $y_2(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial r} y_1(x, r) \big|_{r=r_1}$ 
  - $y_1 = c^r \sum a_n x^n$
  - $x^r = e^{r \ln x}$
  - Differentiate to get  $\ln x \cdot e^{r \ln x} = x^r \ln x$
  - $y_2(x) = y_1 \ln x + \sum b_n x^{n+r}$
- Case 3:  $r_1 - r_2$  is an integer
  - $y_2(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial r} ((r - r_1) y_1(x))$
  - $y_2(x) = a \ln(x) y_1 + \sum b_n x^{n+r}$
- $x^2 y'' + x y' + (x^2 - \alpha^2) y = 0$  this is a **bessel equation** used mainly for vibrations
- $p(x) = \frac{1}{x}$
- $q(x) = \frac{x^2 - \alpha^2}{x^2}$
- $p_0 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x} = 1$
- $q_0 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2(x^2 - \alpha^2)}{x^2} = -\alpha^2$
- $y(x) = \sum a_n x^{n+r}$
- $r(r-1) + r p_0 + q_0 = 0$
- $r(r-1) + r - \alpha^2 = 0 \implies r = \pm \alpha$

# Summary

- Review first and second order odes
- Series solutions of odes
  - Taylor series
  - Forbenius series  $\rightarrow$  regular singular points
- Bessel functions  $x^2y'' + xy' + (x^2 - \alpha^2)y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$  is a regular singular point