# MAT 350 ENGINEERING MATHEMATICS

**Power Series Solutions of ODEs** 

Lecture: 13

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**Power Series** Recall from calculus that **power series** in x - a is an infinit series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n = c_0 + c_1 (x-a) + c_2 (x-a)^2 + \cdots$$

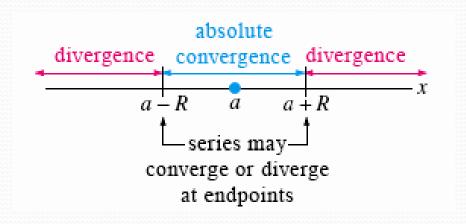
Such a series also said to be a power series centered at a.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^n x^n = 1 + 2x + 4x^2 + \cdots$$

- Convergence A power series is convergent at a specified value of x if its sequence of partial sums {S<sub>N</sub>(x)} converges, that is, lim S<sub>N</sub>(x) = lim ∑<sub>n=0</sub><sup>N</sup> c<sub>n</sub>(x a)<sup>n</sup> exists. If the limit does not exist at x, then the series is said to be divergent.
- Interval of Convergence Every power series has an interval of convergence.
   The interval of convergence is the set of all real numbers x for which the series converges. The center of the interval of convergence is the center a of the series.

Radius of Convergence The radius R of the interval of convergence of a power series is called its radius of convergence. If R > 0, then a power series converges for |x - a| < R and diverges for |x - a| > R. If the series converges only at its center a, then R = 0. If the series converges for all x, then we write R = ∞. Recall, the absolute-value inequality |x - a| < R is equivalent to the simultaneous inequality a - R < x < a + R. A power series may or may not converge at the endpoints a - R and a + R of this interval.</li>

Absolute Convergence Within its interval of convergence a power series converges absolutely. In other words, if x is in the interval of convergence and is not an endpoint of the interval, then the series of absolute values Σ<sub>n=0</sub><sup>∞</sup> | c<sub>n</sub>(x - a)<sup>n</sup> | converges. See Figure 6.1.1.



Find the interval and radius of convergence for  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-3)^n}{2^n n}$ .

**SOLUTION** The ratio test gives

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{(x-3)^{n+1}}{2^{n+1}(n+1)}}{\frac{(x-3)^n}{2^n n}} \right| = |x-3| \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n+1}{2n} = \frac{1}{2}|x-3|.$$

The series converges absolutely for  $\frac{1}{2}|x-3| < 1$  or |x-3| < 2 or 1 < x < 5. This last inequality defines the open interval of convergence. The series diverges for |x-3|>2, that is, for x>5 or x<1. At the left endpoint x=1 of the open interval of convergence, the series of constants  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ((-1)^n/n)$  is convergent by the alternating series test. At the right endpoint x = 5, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1/n)$  is the divergent harmonic series. The interval of convergence of the series is [1, 5), and the radius of convergence is R=2.

Analytic at a Point A function f is said to be analytic at a point a if it can be represented by a power series in x - a with either a positive or an infinite radius of conve gence.

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$$e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$$

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n)!} x^{2n}$$

$$(-\infty, \infty)$$

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} x^{2n+1}$$

$$(-\infty, \infty)$$

$$\tan^{-1} x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2n+1} x^{2n+1}$$

$$[-1, 1]$$
 (2)

$$\cosh x = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n)!} x^{2n}$$

$$(-\infty, \infty)$$

$$\sinh x = x + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n+1)!} x^{2n+1}$$

$$(-\infty, \infty)$$

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} x^n$$

$$(-1, 1]$$

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$$

$$(-1, 1)$$

Write

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

as one power serion

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

series starts with 
$$x$$
 with  $x$  for  $n = 3$  for  $n = 0$   $\downarrow$ 

$$= 2 \cdot 1c_2x^0 + \sum_{n=3}^{\infty} n(n-1)c_nx^{n-2} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_nx^{n+1}$$
(3)

Now to get the same summation index we are inspired by the exponents of x; we let k = n - 2 in the first series and at the same time let k = n + 1 in the second series. For n = 3 in k = n - 2 we get k = 1, and for n = 0 in k = n + 1 we get k = 1, and so the right-hand side of (3) becomes

$$2c_{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (k+2)(k+1)c_{k+2}x^{k} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_{k-1}x^{k}.$$
(4)

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)c_n x^{n-2} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^{n+1} = 2c_2 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} [(k+2)(k+1)c_{k+2} + c_{k-1}]x^k.$$
 (5)

## EXAMPLE 4

#### A Power Series Solution

Find a power series solution  $y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$  of the differential equation y' + y = 0.

**SOLUTION** We break down the solution into a sequence of steps.

(i) First calculate the derivative of the assumed solution:

$$y' = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n n x^{n-1} \leftarrow \text{see the first line in (1)}$$

(ii) Then substitute y and y' into the given DE:

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

(iii) Now shift the indices of summation. When the indices of summation have the same starting point and the powers of x agree, combine the summations:

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

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{k+1}(k+1) x^k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k x^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} [c_{k+1}(k+1) + c_k] x^k.$$

(iv) Because we want y' + y = 0 for all x in some interval,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} [c_{k+1}(k+1) + c_k] x^k = 0$$

is an identity and so we must have  $c_{k+1}(k+1) + c_k = 0$ , or

$$c_{k+1} = -\frac{1}{k+1}c_k, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

(v) By letting k take on successive integer values starting with k = 0, we fin

$$c_{1} = -\frac{1}{1}c_{0} = -c_{0}$$

$$c_{2} = -\frac{1}{2}c_{1} = -\frac{1}{2}(-c_{0}) = \frac{1}{2}c_{0}$$

$$c_{3} = -\frac{1}{3}c_{2} = -\frac{1}{3}(\frac{1}{2}c_{0}) = -\frac{1}{3 \cdot 2}c_{0}$$

$$c_{4} = -\frac{1}{4}c_{2} = -\frac{1}{4}(-\frac{1}{3 \cdot 2}c_{0}) = \frac{1}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2}c_{0}$$

and so on, where  $c_0$  is arbitrary.

(vi) Using the original assumed solution and the results in part (v) we obtain a formal power series solution

$$y = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + c_4 x^4 + \cdots$$

$$= c_0 - c_0 x + \frac{1}{2} c_0 x^2 - c_0 \frac{1}{3 \cdot 2} x^3 + c_0 \frac{1}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2} x^4 - \cdots$$

$$= c_0 \left[ 1 - x + \frac{1}{2} x^2 - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 2} x^3 + \frac{1}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2} x^4 - \cdots \right].$$

It should be fairly obvious that the pattern of the coefficients in part (v) is  $c_k = c_0(-1)^k/k!, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  so that in summation notation we can write

$$y = c_0 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} x^k.$$
 (8)

#### **6.2** SOLUTIONS ABOUT ORDINARY POINTS

**A Definitio** If we divide the homogeneous linear second-order differential equation

$$a_2(x)y'' + a_1(x)y' + a_0(x)y = 0 (1)$$

by the lead coefficient  $a_2(x)$  we obtain the standard form

$$y'' + P(x)y' + Q(x)y = 0.$$
 (2)

## **DEFINITION 6.2.1** Ordinary and Singular Points

A point  $x = x_0$  is said to be an **ordinary point** of the differential of the differential equation (1) if both coefficients P(x) and Q(x) in the standard form (2) are analytic at  $x_0$ . A point that is *not* an ordinary point of (1) is said to be a **singular point** of the DE.

Example-1

$$y'' + xy' + (\ln x)y = 0$$

$$P(x) = x$$
 and  $Q(x) = \ln x$ .

Now P(x) = x is analytic at every real number, and  $Q(x) = \ln x$  is analytic at every positive real number. However, since  $Q(x) = \ln x$  is discontinuous at x = 0 it cannot be represented by a power series in x, that is, a power series centered at 0. We conclude that x = 0 is a singular point of the DE.

#### Example-2

$$xy'' + y' + xy = 0$$
  
 $y'' + \frac{1}{x}y' + y = 0$ ,

we see that P(x) = 1/x fails to be analytic at x = 0. Hence x = 0 is a singular point of the equation.

## Example-3

(a) The only singular points of the differential equation

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

are the solutions of  $x^2 - 1 = 0$  or  $x = \pm 1$ . All other values of x are ordinary points.

#### THEOREM 6.2.1 Existence of Power Series Solutions

If  $x = x_0$  is an ordinary point of the differential equation (1), we can always find two linearly independent solutions in the form of a power series centered at  $x_0$ , that is,

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

A power series solution converges at least on some interval defined by  $|x - x_0| < R$ , where R is the distance from  $x_0$  to the closest singular point.

A solution of the form  $y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x - x_0)^n$  is said to be a **solution about the** ordinary point  $x_0$ . The distance R in Theorem 6.2.1 is the *minimum* value or *lower* bound for the radius of convergence.

Solve y'' + xy = 0.

**SOLUTION** Since there are no singular points, Theorem 6.2.1 guarantees two power series solutions centered at 0 that converge for  $|x| < \infty$ . Substituting  $y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$  and the second derivative  $y'' = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)c_n x^{n-2}$  (see (1) in Section 6.1) into the differential equation give

$$y'' + \lambda y'' + xy = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} c_n n(n-1) x^{n-2} + x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} c = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} c_n n(n-1) x^{n-2} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^{n+1}.$$
 (3)

$$y'' + xy = 2c_2 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} [(k+1)(k+2)c_{k+2} + c_{k-1}]x^k = 0.$$
(4)

Equating coefficient of  $x^0$   $2c_2 = 0$ 

$$(k+1)(k+2)c_{k+2} + c_{k-1} = 0, k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$
 (5)

the expression in (5), called a recurrence relation,

$$c_{k+2} = -\frac{c_{k-1}}{(k+1)(k+2)}, \qquad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$
 (6)

$$k = 1,$$
  $c_3 = -\frac{c_0}{2 \cdot 3}$ 

$$k = 2,$$
  $c_4 = -\frac{c_1}{3 \cdot 4}$ 

$$k = 3,$$
  $c_5 = -\frac{c_2}{4 \cdot 5} = 0$ 

 $\leftarrow c_2$  is zero

$$k = 4$$
,  $c_6 = -\frac{c_3}{5 \cdot 6} = \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} c_0$ 

$$k = 5,$$
  $c_7 = -\frac{c_4}{6 \cdot 7} = \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot 7} c_1$ 

$$k = 6,$$
  $c_8 = -\frac{c_5}{7 \cdot 8} = 0$ 

$$k = 7$$
,  $c_9 = -\frac{c_6}{8 \cdot 9} = -\frac{1}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 8 \cdot 9} c_0$ 

$$k = 8,$$
  $c_{10} = -\frac{c_7}{9 \cdot 10} = -\frac{1}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 \cdot 9 \cdot 10} c_1$ 

$$k = 9,$$
  $c_{11} = -\frac{c_8}{10 \cdot 11} = 0$ 

$$\leftarrow c_8$$
 is zero

 $\leftarrow c_5$  is zero

Now substituting the coefficients just obtained into the original assumption

$$y = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + c_4 x^4 + c_5 x^5 + c_6 x^6 + c_7 x^7 + c_8 x^8 + c_9 x^9 + c_{10} x^{10} + c_{11} x^{11} + \cdots,$$

we get

$$y = c_0 + c_1 x + 0 - \frac{c_0}{2 \cdot 3} x^3 - \frac{c_1}{3 \cdot 4} x^4 + 0 + \frac{c_0}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} x^6$$

$$+ \frac{c_1}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot 7} x^7 + 0 - \frac{c_0}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 8 \cdot 9} x^9 - \frac{c_1}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 \cdot 9 \cdot 10} x^{10} + 0 + \cdot$$

After grouping the terms containing  $c_0$  and the terms containing  $c_1$ , we obtain  $y = c_0y_1(x) + c_1y_2(x)$ , where

$$y_1(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3}x^3 + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 6}x^6 - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 8 \cdot 9}x^9 + \cdots$$

$$y_2(x) = x - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4}x^4 + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot 7}x^7 - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 \cdot 9 \cdot 10}x^{10} + \cdots$$

$$y_1(x) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cdot \cdot (3k-1)(3k)} x^{3k}$$

$$y_2(x) = x + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot \cdot \cdot (3k)(3k+1)} x^{3k+1}.$$

