Section 5.4 continued

Solve 
$$x^2y'' - 2xy' = 0$$
 (\*).

We could solve by letting v = y', but we will instead use 5.4 methods

Note x is an ordinary point iff  $x \neq 0$   $(y'' - \frac{2}{x}y' = 0.)$  x = 0 is a singular point.

Note  $x^2x^{r-2}r(r-1) - 2xx^{r-1}r = 0$  implies  $r^2 - r - 2r = 0$  and recall  $y = (-x)^r$  gives same equation for r as  $y = x^r$ .

Thus 
$$y = |x|^r$$
 implies  $r^2 + (\alpha - 1)r + \beta = r^2 - 3r + 0 = r(r - 3) = 0$ 

Thus 
$$r = 0, 3$$
. Thus  $y = |x|^0 = 1$  and  $y = |x|^3$  are solutions to (\*)

Since (\*) is a linear equation, the general solution is  $y = c_1 + c_2 |x|^3$ . Note an equivalent general solution is  $y = k_1 + k_2 x^3$ .

Both forms are valid for all x.

## When is a unique solution to the following initial value problem guaranteed?

$$x^2y'' - 2xy' = 0$$
,  $y(t_0) = y_0$ ,  $y'(t_0) = y_1$  (\*\*)  
 $y'' - \frac{2}{x}y' = 0$ ,  $y(t_0) = y_0$ ,  $y'(t_0) = y_1$ 

Since  $\frac{2}{x}$  and the zero constant function are continuous on  $(-\infty,0) \cup (0,\infty)$ ,

- (\*\*) has a unique solution for  $t_0 < 0$  and this solution exists on  $(-\infty, 0)$ .
- (\*\*) has a unique solution for  $t_0 > 0$  and this solution exists on  $(0, \infty)$ .

There are an infinite number of solutions for y(0) = a, y'(0) = 0.

## How is $x^r$ defined:

If n is a positive integer:  $x^n = x \cdot x \cdot \dots \cdot x$ 

If m is a positive integer: If  $f(x) = x^m$ , then  $f^{-1}(x) = x^{\frac{1}{m}}$  and  $x^{\frac{n}{m}} = (x^n)^{\frac{1}{m}}$ 

Let  $r \geq 0$ . Let  $r_n$  be any sequence consisting of positive rational numbers such that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} r_n = r$ . Then

$$x^r = \lim_{n \to \infty} x^{r_n}.$$

See more advanced class for why the above is well-defined.

If r < 0, then  $x^r = x^{-r}$ .

If x is a real number, when is  $x^r$  a real number?

 $x^n = x \cdot x \cdot \dots \cdot x$  is a real number when n is a positive integer.

If 
$$f(x) = x^n$$
, then the image of  $f = \begin{cases} \text{real numbers} & n \text{ odd} \\ [0, \infty) & n \text{ even} \end{cases}$ 

Thus if  $f^{-1}(x) = x^{\frac{1}{n}}$  is real-valued, then
the domain of  $f^{-1}$  is  $\begin{cases} \text{real numbers} & n \text{ odd} \\ [0, \infty) & n \text{ even} \end{cases}$ 

In complex analysis, 
$$\left(\frac{1+i\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)^3 = -1$$
,  $(-1)^3 = -1$ ,  $\left(\frac{1-i\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)^3 = -1$ 

Recall 
$$\left(e^{\frac{i\pi}{3}}\right)^3 = (\cos\frac{\pi}{3} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{3})^3 = -1$$

Complex numbers are also roots of unity:

$$\left(e^{\frac{2i\pi}{3}}\right)^3 = 1$$
  $\left(e^{\frac{-2i\pi}{3}}\right)^3 = 1$ ,  $(1)^3 = 1$ 

Solve  $x^2y'' + \alpha xy' + \beta y = 0$ . Let  $y = x^r$ ,  $y' = rx^{r-1}$ ,  $y'' = r(r-1)x^{r-2}$  (case when  $y = (-x)^r$  is similar).

$$x^{2}x^{r-2}r(r-1) + \alpha xx^{r-1}r + \beta x^{r} = 0$$

$$x^r[r^2 - r + \alpha r + \beta] = 0$$
 for all  $x$  implies  $r^2 + (\alpha - 1)r + \beta = 0$ 

Thus  $x^r$  is a solution iff  $r = \frac{-(\alpha-1)\pm\sqrt{(\alpha-1)^2-4\beta}}{2}$ 

Case 1: Two real roots,  $r_1, r_2$ .

General solution is  $y = c_1|x|^{r_1} + c_2|x|^{r_2}$ 

Case 2: Two complex roots,  $r_i = \lambda \pm i\mu$ :

Convert solution to form without complex numbers.

Note 
$$|x|^{\pm i\mu} = e^{\ln(|x|^{\pm i\mu})} = e^{(\pm i\mu)\ln|x|} = e^{i(\pm \mu \ln|x|)}$$

$$= cos(\pm \mu ln|x|) + isin(\pm \mu ln|x|)$$

$$= cos(\mu ln|x|) \pm i sin(\mu ln|x|)$$

General solution is  $y = c_1 |x|^{r_1} + c_2 |x|^{r_2} = c_1 |x|^{\lambda + i\mu} + c_2 |x|^{\lambda - i\mu}$ 

$$= |x|^{\lambda} (c_1|x|^{i\mu} + c_2|x|^{-i\mu})$$

$$= |x|^{\lambda} (c_1[\cos(\mu ln|x|) + i\sin(\mu ln|x|))] + c_2[\cos(\mu ln|x|) - i\sin(\mu ln|x|)])$$

$$= |x|^{\lambda} ([c_1 + c_2] cos(\mu ln|x|) + i[c_1 - c_2] sin(\mu ln|x|))$$

$$= |x|^{\lambda} (k_1 cos(\mu ln|x|) + k_2 sin(\mu ln|x|))$$

$$= k_1 |x|^{\lambda} cos(\mu ln|x|) + k_2 |x|^{\lambda} sin(\mu ln|x|)$$

**Case 3:** one repeated root,  $r_1 = \frac{-(\alpha - 1)}{2}$ . (i.e.,  $\sqrt{(\alpha - 1)^2 - 4\beta} = 0$ ):

Thus  $|x|^{r_1}$  is a solution. Find 2nd solution.

Method 1. Reduction of order: Suppose  $y = u(x)|x|^{r_1}$  is a solution to  $x^2y'' + \alpha xy' + \beta y = 0$ . Plug in and determine u(x)

Method 2: Let 
$$L(y) = x^2 y'' + \alpha x y' + \beta y$$
 where  $y' = \frac{dy}{dx}$ .  
 $L(|x|^r) = |x|^r (r - r_1)^2$ 

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r}[L(|x|^r)] = \frac{\partial}{\partial r}[|x|^r(r-r_1)^2] = (|x|^r)'(r-r_1)^2 + 2|x|^r(r-r_1) = 0$$
 if  $r = r_1$ .

Suppose x is constant with respect to r and all the partial derivatives are continuous. Then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r}[L(y)] = \frac{\partial}{\partial r}[x^2y'' + \alpha xy' + \beta y] = x^2 \frac{\partial y''}{\partial r} + \alpha x \frac{\partial y'}{\partial r} + \beta \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}$$

$$= x^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r}[\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2}] + \alpha x \frac{\partial}{\partial r}[\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}] + \beta \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}$$

$$= x^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}[\frac{\partial y}{\partial r}] + \alpha x \frac{\partial}{\partial x}[\frac{\partial y}{\partial r}] + \beta \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}$$

$$= L(\frac{\partial y}{\partial r}) \text{ for all } r$$

$$L(\frac{\partial |x|^r}{\partial r}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial r}[L(|x|^r)] = 0 \text{ for } r = r_1.$$

$$\frac{\partial |x|^r}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial e^{ln|x|^r}}{\partial r} \frac{\partial e^{rln|x|}}{\partial r} = (e^{rln|x|})ln|x| = |x|^r ln|x|$$

Thus  $|x|^{r_1}ln|x|$  is a solution.

Thus general solution is  $y = c_1|x|^{r_1} + c_2|x|^{r_1}ln|x|$ 

since by the Wronskian,  $|x|^{r_1}$  and  $|x|^{r_1}ln|x|$  are linearly independent. Suppose x > 0 and  $r_1 \neq 0$ .

$$\begin{vmatrix} x^{r_1} & x^{r_1} ln|x| \\ r_1 x^{r_1-1} & r_1 x^{r_1-1} ln|x| + x^{r_1-1} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= x^{r_1} (r_1 x^{r_1-1} ln|x| + x^{r_1-1}) - x^{r_1} ln|x| r_1 x^{r_1-1}$$

$$= x^{2r_1-1} [r_1 ln|x| + 1 - ln|x| r_1] = x^{2r_1-1} \neq 0 \text{ for } x \neq 0$$

Other cases for Wronskian are similar.