

Ordinary Differential Equations
Prof. Raju. K. George
Department of Mathematics
Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore

Module - 4
Lecture - 23
Series Solution

Welcome back. In this lecture, we will discuss about the solution of variable coefficient differential equations. We have seen that if the differential equation is constant coefficient, whether it is of first order, second order, third order; then, the method of solution we have already seen in the previous lectures, that you find the characteristic equation. So, after being finding the roots, we formulate the solution and we get the general solution and particular solution.

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Solution of Variable Coefficient Differential Equations

Consider a 2nd order variable coefficient DE

$$a_0(x)y'' + a_1(x)y' + a_2(x)y = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Example: Euler-Cauchy Eqn

$$x^2y'' + axy' + by = 0, \quad a, b \text{ constant}$$

Consider the transformation $z = \ln x$ or $x = e^z$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dz} \frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dz}$$

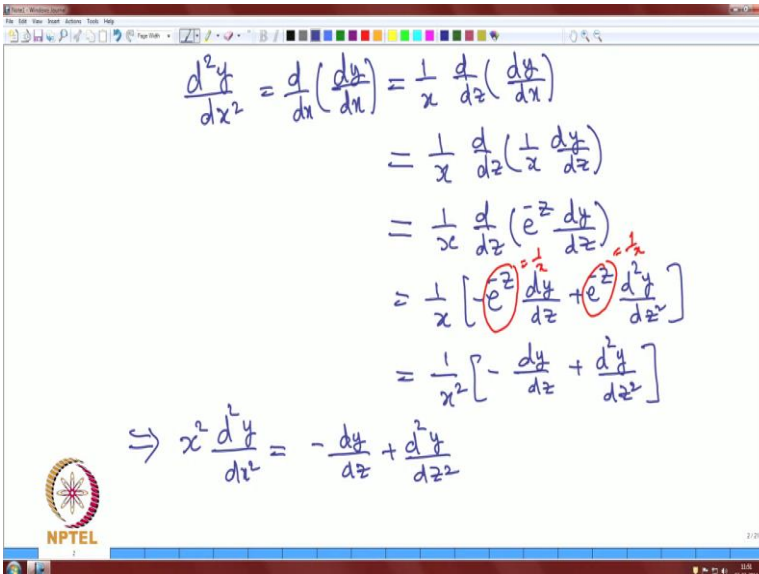
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In case if the differential equation is having a variable coefficient then... In case, if the differential equation is having a variable coefficient, then that method fails. For example, if I consider a general differential equation, say a second order. So, consider a second order variable coefficient differential equation, say this is a $0x, y$ double prime, plus a $1x, y$ prime, plus a $2x, y$ is equal to 0 ; call this equation as 1; then, how to solve it by the method of characteristic equations and finding the roots, will not work. But there are certain situations where, are special forms of this equation, which can be sole, just as

how we did in a constant coefficient differential equation. For example, if we can reduce this variable coefficient differential equation into a constant coefficient differential equation, by giving some suitable transformation; for example, if we consider the Euler-Cauchy equation given by $x^2 y'' + a x y' + b y = 0$ where, a and b are constants.

So, this equation, though, it is a variable coefficient; it is a nice form. This can be reduced into a constant coefficient differential equation, just by applying some transformation. So, consider the transformation; say z is equal to natural logarithm of x or x is equal to e to power z . So, you should use this transformation. Then, we are changing the independent variable from x to e^z . So, if you do this transformation, then what is dy by dx ; dy by dx is given by the chain rule; dy by dz into dz by dx , which is equal to $\frac{1}{x}$ by using the transformation $1/x$, dz by dx is $1/\ln x$. So, dx by dz is $1/x$; $1/x$ dy by dz . Therefore, differentiating a function with respect to x is equivalent to multiplying $1/x$, and taking the derivative of the function with respect to z ; that becomes the rule.

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The image shows a handwritten derivation on a whiteboard background. The derivation starts with the second derivative $\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}$ and uses the chain rule to express it in terms of z . The steps are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right) = \frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dz} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{dz} \left(e^{-z} \frac{dy}{dz} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{x} \left[-e^{-z} \frac{dy}{dz} + e^{-z} \frac{d^2 y}{dz^2} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{x^2} \left[-\frac{dy}{dz} + \frac{d^2 y}{dz^2} \right]\end{aligned}$$

Finally, the result is rearranged to show the transformation of the second derivative term in the Euler-Cauchy equation:

$$\Rightarrow x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = -\frac{dy}{dz} + \frac{d^2 y}{dz^2}$$

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If this is the case, let me find the second derivative. So, $d^2 y$ by dx^2 is nothing, but d by dx of dy by dx . So, we apply the rule, stated just above. That is differentiating a function with respect to x is equivalent to $1/x$ into differentiating the function with respect to z . Therefore, we get the second derivative, $d^2 y$ by dx^2

square is equal to d by $d x$ of $d y$ by $d x$, which is equal to 1 by x times d by $d z$ of $d y$ by $d x$, which is again, by definition, 1 by x times d by $d z$ of; what is $d y$ by $d x$; $d y$ by $d x$ is 1 by x again; 1 by x $d y$ by $d z$, which is equal to 1 by x times d by $d z$ of; 1 by x is, by transformation, e to the power minus $e z$. So, $d y$ by $d z$; now, we can differentiate with respect to $d z$. So, this gives me 1 by x into minus e to the power minus z .

Applying the product rule, $d y$ by $d z$ plus e to the power minus z times d square y by $d z$ square. So, this is equal to, and this e to the power minus z is 1 by x , and this is also, 1 by x . You can take 1 by x outside. So, this gives me 1 by x square into minus $d y$ by $d z$ plus d square y by $d z$ square. Therefore, the second derivative, d square y by $d x$ square is 1 by x square into minus $d y$ by $d z$ plus d square y by $d z$ square. So, this implies that x square into d square y by $d x$ square is equal to minus d by $d z$ plus d square y by $d z$ square. Now, putting this into the Euler-Cauchy equation; therefore, the Euler-Cauchy equation becomes minus $d y$ $d z$ plus d square y , $d z$ square plus a times $d y$ by $d z$ plus $b y$ is equal to 0 .

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$$-\frac{dy}{dz} + \frac{d^2y}{dz^2} + a \frac{dy}{dz} + by = 0$$

$$\boxed{\frac{d^2y}{dz^2} + (a-1) \frac{dy}{dz} + by = 0}$$

This is a constant coeff. differential eqn.
Method: characteristic roots

$$\lambda_1, \lambda_2 = \frac{(1-a) \pm \sqrt{(a-1)^2 - 4b}}{2}$$

Roots are real & distinct, Soln is given by $y(z) = c_1 e^{\lambda_1 z} + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 z}$

General soln: $y(x) = c_1 e^{\lambda_1 \ln x} + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 \ln x} = c_1 x^{\lambda_1} + c_2 x^{\lambda_2}$

Therefore, if you simplify this, and taking d square y by $d z$ square first, this is d square y by $d z$ square plus a minus 1 , $d y$ by $d z$ plus $b y$ is equal to 0 . Look at this equation. This equation is a second order constant coefficient differential equation. So, we started with the Euler-Cauchy variable coefficient differential equation. The transformation reduced this into a constant coefficient differential equation, of course, is second order. This

equation can be solved. Now, we are taking the characteristic route. So, it is a constant coefficient differential equation. The method is characteristic roots; find the characteristic roots, and three situations where, the roots are real and distinct; the roots are real and equal; and roots are complex, which we have already seen.

Say for example, if we take the characteristic roots, the roots are given by λ_1 . λ_2 is equal to $1 \pm \sqrt{a^2 - 4b}$, all divided by 2; the discriminant of the equation, $b^2 - 4ac$ by 2. So, if the roots are real and distinct; call it then, λ_1 , λ_2 are the real roots. Then, the solution is given by y of; remember, the independent variable is now changed to z ; y of z is given by $c_1 e^{\lambda_1 z} + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 z}$. Again, if I want to change it back in terms of x to change the independent variable back to x , use the transformation. Therefore, y of x is equal to, you change z to x ; that is $c_1 e^{\lambda_1 x} + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 x}$. So, \ln of x plus $c_2 e^{\lambda_2 \ln x}$. This is nothing but \ln of e to the power $\lambda_1 \ln x$ is c_1 , if we simplify it; is x to the power λ_1 plus $c_2 x$ to the power λ_2 . So, this is a general solution. If the roots are real and distinct, and similarly if the roots are real and repeated, and roots are complex, can be treated, similarly. This is a situation where, if the differential equations have a very special form.

And in case, now, we are going to deal with differential equation, which is in a general form; that is $a_0 x^2 y'' + a_1 x y' + a_2 y = 0$. If this cannot be reduced into a constant coefficient equation and no other methods are available to solve it, then one method of solving is by using the power series solution; the series solution of this differential equation. So, let us see how to solve this by using a power series solution.

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Power series solution to $a_0(x)y'' + a_1(x)y' + a_2(x)y = 0$ — (1)

We expect a solution to (1) in the form

$$y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-x_0)^n \text{ — (2)}$$

where c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots are constants

Question: Does there exist a power series soln to (1) in the form (2)?

: If yes, how to compute c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots in (2)?

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Power series solution to the equation $a_0(x)y'' + a_1(x)y' + a_2(x)y = 0$. What we expect is we expect a solution to this equation; call it (1); in the form $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-x_0)^n$ where, c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots are constants. So, we expect a solution to the variable coefficient differential equation (1), in a power series, from infinite power series, about a point x_0 . Now, the question is does there exist a power series solution to (1) in the form (2)? Call this form as (2). Does there exist a power series solution to the above differential equation in the form (2)? If it exists how to compute the constants, c_0, c_1, c_2 ? If yes, how to compute c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots in (2)? So, these are the two questions.

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Existence of power series Solution to (1).

Basic definitions:

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

Equivalent normal form $y'' + p_1(x)y' + p_2(x)y = 0$
 where $p_1(x) = \frac{a_1(x)}{a_0(x)}, p_2(x) = \frac{a_2(x)}{a_0(x)}$

Definition: A function f is said to be analytic at x_0 if its Taylor series about x_0 , $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x-x_0)^n$ exists and converges to $f(x)$ for x in some interval containing x_0 .

First, we address existence, existence of power series solution to 1. Under what condition, the power series solution for 1 exists, and that is series is convergent. To answer this question, we need some of the basic ideas, some basic definitions. So, to address existence problem; that is under what condition, 1 has a power series solution of the form 2, we require some conditions and we define. Let us again, state the form of this equation, $a_0(x)y'' + a_1(x)y' + a_2(x)y = 0$, and equivalent normal form is, we call this equation 1, and if we take the equivalent normal form, $y'' + p_1(x)y' + p_2(x)y = 0$ where, divide throughout by a_0 , where $p_1(x)$ is equal to $a_1(x)/a_0(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ is $a_2(x)/a_0(x)$. Now, we define what you mean by an analytic function. Definition; a function f is said to be analytic, a real valued function, f is said to be analytic at a point x_0 , if its Taylor series expansion about x_0 , given by summation, n goes from 0 to infinity; the n th derivative of f evaluated at x_0 , divided by n factorial into $(x-x_0)^n$. The Taylor series about x_0 exists and converges to $f(x)$ for all x in some neighborhood of x_0 , containing x_0 . So, in some neighborhood, in this case is interval; some interval; some interval containing x_0 . In this case, we say that a function is analytic.

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Examples ① All polynomial functions are analytic everywhere.

② e^x , $\sin x$, $\cos x$

③ Rational function is analytic except at those values of x at which the denominator is zero

eg $\frac{1}{x^2-3x+2} = \frac{1}{(x-1)(x-2)}$ is analytic at all points except at $x=1$ & $x=2$.

Definition: The point x_0 is called an ordinary point of the diff. eqn $y'' + P_1(x)y' + P_2(x)y = 0$ if both of the functions $P_1(x)$ and $P_2(x)$ are analytic at x_0 .

Examples; see, all polynomial functions are analytic, everywhere, and functions containing e to the power x , sine x , cosine x ; they are also, analytic. Another important class of functions, analytic is all rational functions. Rational functions of the form $p(x)/q(x)$ where, $p(x)$ is a polynomial; $q(x)$ is a polynomial. So, rational functions are also analytic at all point except, at the point at which, denominators are 0; except, at the point denominator is equal to 0. So, rational function is analytic except, at those values of x at which, the denominator is 0. For example, if we take a rational function $1/(x^2 - 3x + 2)$, which is written in the form, $1/((x-1)(x-2))$. So, this is analytic at all points except, at x is equal to 1 and x is equal to 2. In these 2 points, x is equal to 1, and x is equal to 2; the rational function is not analytic; elsewhere, it is analytic. Now, a point is, another definition is ordinary point for a differential equation. So, definition; the point x_0 is called an ordinary point of the differential equation 1.

If differential equation 1 is in the normalized form; call it $y'' + p_1(x)y' + p_2(x)y = 0$, if both of the functions $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ are analytic at x_0 . A point x_0 is said to be an ordinary point of the differential equation in the normal form, $y'' + p_1(x)y' + p_2(x)y = 0$, if both of the functions, $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ are analytic at x_0 . If that fails, if it is not true, then we say the point is a singular point.

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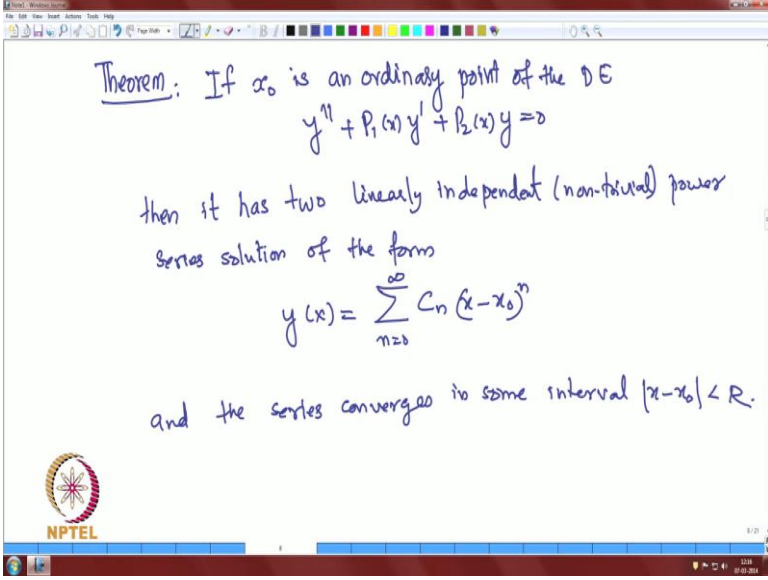
If either (or both) of these functions are not analytic at x_0 , then x_0 is called a singular point of the diff. eqn.

Ex: ① $y'' + xy' + (x^2 + 2)y = 0$
 $P_1(x) = x, P_2(x) = x^2 + 2$
 All points are ordinary points for the DE.

② $(x-1)y'' + xy' + \frac{1}{x}y = 0$
 $P_1(x) = \frac{x}{x-1}, P_2(x) = \frac{1}{x(x-1)}$
 $x=0, x=1$ are singular points of DE.

A singular point; if either or both of these functions are not analytic at x_0 , then x_0 is called a singular point of the differential equation. See, quickly, let us look into an example; $y'' + xy' + (x^2 + 2)y = 0$. Here, $p_1(x)$ is this x , and $p_2(x)$ is $x^2 + 2$. So, obviously, both are analytic for all points. All points are ordinary points for this differential equation; all points are ordinary points. If we consider another differential equation $(x-1)y'' + xy' + \frac{1}{x}y = 0$. Here, $p_1(x)$ is $x/(x-1)$, and $p_2(x)$ is $1/(x(x-1))$. So, p_1 is analytic for all points except, at 1. So, for p_1 , x is equal to 1, is a point at which, p_1 is not analytic. Here, x is equal to 0 and x is equal to 1, for p_2 is not analytic at these two points. Therefore, the differential equation is analytic for all points except, 1 and 0. So, the conclusion is 0 and 1 are the only singular points. So, this tells us x is equal to 0 and x is equal to 1 are singular points of three differential equations. Now, if x_0 is an ordinary point of a differential equation, then we have a sufficient condition to guarantee (()) series solution. Now, I state the form of the theorem.

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Theorem: If x_0 is an ordinary point of the DE
 $y'' + P_1(x)y' + P_2(x)y = 0$
then it has two linearly independent (non-trivial) power
series solution of the form
$$y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n (x-x_0)^n$$

and the series converges in some interval $|x-x_0| < R$.

The image shows a digital whiteboard with a red border. At the top left, there is a menu bar with 'File', 'Edit', 'View', 'Insert', 'Format', 'Tools', and 'Help'. Below the menu bar is a toolbar with various drawing tools. The main area of the whiteboard contains handwritten text in blue ink. At the bottom left, there is a logo for NPTEL (National Programme on Technology Enhanced Learning) featuring a stylized flower or star shape. At the bottom right, there is a status bar with a date and time display.

Theorem says if x_0 is an ordinary point of the differential equation; call it $y'' + p_1(x)y' + p_2(x)y = 0$; then, it has two linearly independent non trivial power series solutions of the form, $y(x)$ is equal to summation $C_n (x - x_0)^n$; n goes from 0 to infinity; and the series converges in some interval; the interval of convergence; $|x - x_0| < R$. So, this is an important theorem, guarantees the existence of a power series solution to a differential equation. If x_0 is an ordinary point of a differential equation, then above that point, we can find if we have a second order equation, then we can find two linearly independent power series solutions. So, existence of two linearly independent power series solutions at an ordinary point is guaranteed by this theorem. Now, the method of solution; how to compute the solution?

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Method of solution : To find c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots in the expression

$$y = c_0 + c_1(x-x_0) + c_2(x-x_0)^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-x_0)^n$$

Since the series converges on $|x-x_0| < R$ about x_0 , it may be differentiated term by term on this interval.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = c_1 + 2c_2(x-x_0) + 3c_3(x-x_0)^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n(x-x_0)^{n-1}$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 2c_2 + 6c_3(x-x_0) + 12c_4(x-x_0)^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)c_n(x-x_0)^{n-2}$$

Now substituting $y, \frac{dy}{dx}, \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ in the diff. eqn and simplifying we get

Method of solution is what we want to find? We want to find c_0, c_1, c_2 , etcetera. all these coefficients in the expression y is equal to $(())$ series solution is of the form c is c_0 plus $c_1 x$ minus x_0 plus $c_2 x$ minus x_0 square plus, etc, which is in compact form; you write as $c_n x$ minus x_0 to the power n ; n goes to 0 to infinity. So, our aim is to find these coefficients. Since, the series converges on x minus x_0 less than r , some number r , by the existence theorem, about the ordinary point x_0 ; the series can be differentiated; it may be differentiated term by term, on this interval; see, $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is derivative of y , which is c_1 plus $2c_2 x$ minus x_0 plus $3c_3 x$ minus x_0 square plus, etcetera. which is summation; n goes from 1 to infinity; $n c_n x$ minus x_0 to the power n minus 1.

Similarly, second derivative, $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$, the derivative of the about series, which is $2c_2$ plus $6c_3$ into x minus x_0 plus $12c_4$ into x minus x_0 square plus, etcetera. which is written as summation; n is equal to 2 to infinity; n into $n-1$ into c_n , x minus x_0 to the power $n-2$. Now, substituting these values of $y, \frac{dy}{dx}, \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ in the original equation; now, substituting $y, \frac{dy}{dx}, \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ in the differential equation and simplifying.

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$$K_0 + K_1(x-x_0) + K_2(x-x_0)^2 + \dots = 0$$

Where K_0, K_1, K_2, \dots are functions of c_1, c_2, \dots .
 Since it is valid for all x in the interval $|x-x_0| < R$

$K_0 = 0, K_1 = 0, K_2 = 0, \dots$

Solve these to obtain values of c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots

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

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We get some constant k_0 plus k_1 into x minus x_0 plus k_2 into x minus x_0 square plus, etcetera. is equal to 0 where, these constants k_0, k_1, k_2 ; these are functions of our other constants c_1, c_2 , etcetera. Since the series, it is valid for all x in the interval x minus x_0 less than r ; that is interval of convergence. Now, equating right hand side and left hand side, the coefficients of x , x square, x cube, etcetera. And also, the constant terms; we get k_0 is equal to 0; k_1 is equal to 0; k_2 is equal to 0, etcetera. So, we get equations k_0 is equal to 0; k_1 is 0; k_2 is 0; if we solve these equations, then we get the values of c_0 . So, solve these to obtain values of c_0, c_1, c_2 , etcetera. Once we have c_0, c_1, c_2 , etcetera. plug into the series form; we get the series solution. The series solution $y(x)$ is equal to summation $c_n(x-x_0)^n$. So, this is the method. Let us illustrate this by an example.

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Example: Find the power series solution of the differential equation

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

In powers of x . (ie $x_0 = 0$)

$P_1 = x$, $P_2 = x^2 + 2$ All points are ordinary points.
 $x_0 = 0$ is an ordinary pt.

$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$ There are two I.I power series solns.

Differentiating we get $y' = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^{n-1}$, $y'' = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) c_n x^{n-2}$

Substituting in the D.E

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

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Let us consider an example. What is a problem? The problem is, the question is to find the power series solution of the differential equation given by $y'' + xy' + x^2 y = 0$. So, find the power series solution of the differential equation in powers of x ; the question is to expand or get the power series solution in powers of x . That is ask to expand the solution, get the solution in powers of x minus x_0 where, x_0 is 0. Thus, check whether, 0 is an ordinary point. Obviously, your P_1 is x , P_2 is $x^2 + 2$. So, all points are ordinary points. So, x_0 is equal to 0, is an ordinary point. Therefore, by the existence theorem, there exists a power series solution, two linearly independent power series solution of the form summation $c_n x^n$ to the power n .

So, we look for a solution $y(x)$; y is equal to summation $c_n x^n$ to the power n ; n goes from 0 to infinity. This is guaranteed by the existence theorem. So, there are two linearly independent power series solution. We want to do now; our aim is to find this assumes c_0, c_1, c_2, c_n . So, what we do is by differentiating, we get y' ; y' is summation; n goes from 1 to infinity, n into $c_n x^{n-1}$. Similarly, y'' is summation, is going from n is equal to 2 to infinity, n into $n-1$ x^{n-2} to the power $n-2$. Now, plug in these values to the given differential equation; substituting in the differential equation, we get summation n into $n-1$, $c_n x^{n-2}$; the first term, that n goes from 2 to infinity; the first term, and the second term is x into y' , which is x into summation; n goes from 1 to infinity; n

into $c_n x$ to the power n minus 1. Now, the third term is the sum of two terms, x square plus 2. I take x square into summation into y , summation $c_n x$ to the power n ; n goes from 0 to infinity, plus constant term 2; 2 into summation; n goes from 0 to infinity; $c_n x$ to the power n , which is equal to 0. Since x is independent of the index, we may rewrite this.

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Re-writing,

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

Consider the 1st term, Replace $n-2$ by a new variable m

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (m+2)(m+1) c_{m+2} x^m$$

m -dummy index change $m \rightarrow n$

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

Similarly

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_{n-2} x^n \rightarrow \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} c_{n-2} x^n$$

So, rewriting, we get summation n goes from 2 to infinity, n into n minus 1, $c_n x$ to the power n minus 2; the first term plus, summation n is equal to 1 to infinity, n into $c_n x$ to the power n plus, summation; if we have just multiplied each term by x , you get x to the power n , and n goes from 0 to infinity; the third term. There also, we did a multiplication by x square. So, the results c_n into x to the power n plus 2, and multiplied by x square plus 2 times summation, n goes from 0 to infinity, $c_n x$ n is equal to 0. Now, look at the first and third term; this first term and third term. The first term, the index is n minus 2; the third term, the index is n plus 2. We want to make all the same uniform index that x n . So, we can do the following to rearrange that. Consider the first term, first summation and replace n minus 2 by a new variable, new dummy index, m . Therefore, what we have is m is equal to n minus 2 or n is equal to m plus 2. So, if we use this, then the summation becomes; then, this gives the first term in terms of m ; m goes from 0 to infinity. Now, n is going from 2 to infinity; that becomes when n is 2, m is 0.

So, the summation goes from 0 to infinity, $m+2$ into $m+1$. So, m becomes $m+2$, and $n-1$ is $n+1$, into c_{m+2} , into x to the power m . Now, remember, that m is just a dummy variable, dummy index. We can change m to n ; change m to n notation. Therefore, it becomes summation n is equal to 0 to infinity, $n+2$ into $n+1$, into c_{n+2} , x to the power n . Similarly, if you do the same thing for the third term, similarly, there we will make $n+2$ is equal to m or n is $m-2$. So, this gives in terms of m , this will be m is going from 2 to infinity; instead of n is going from 0 to infinity, and m is going from 2 to infinity, c_{m-2} and x to the power m . Again, that m is a dummy index. Therefore, we can plug back the n or we get this is n goes from 2 to infinity, c_{n-2} , x to the power n . Now, the index of these terms are n with respect to m .

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The eqn becomes

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

$$\downarrow$$

$$2c_2 + 6c_3x + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (n+2)(n+1) c_{n+2} x^n + c_1x + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n c_n x^n + 2c_0 + 2c_1x + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} c_n x^n = 0$$

$$(2c_0 + 2c_2) + (3c_1 + 6c_3)x + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} [(n+2)(n+1) c_{n+2} + (n+2)c_n + c_{n-2}] x^n = 0$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 2c_0 + 2c_2 = 0 \\ 3c_1 + 6c_3 = 0 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} c_2 = -c_0 \\ c_3 = -\frac{1}{2}c_1 \end{array}$$

$|x-x_0| < R$

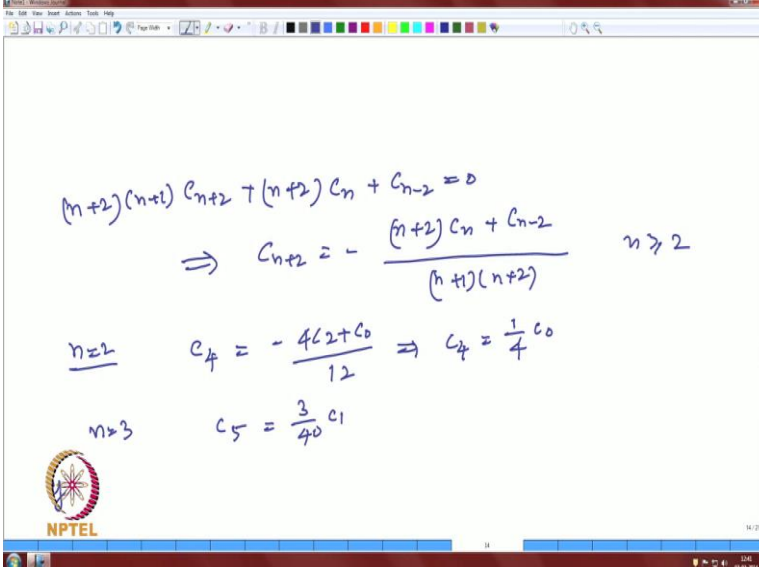
So, what we do is the equation now, becomes summation, n goes from 0 to infinity, $n+2$ into $n+1$, c_{n+2} , x to the power n plus, summation n goes from 1 to infinity, $n c_n$; there, we did not do any change; x plus summation; the third term is also changed; n goes from 2 to infinity, c_{n-2} , x plus the last term, 2 times summation n goes from 0 to infinity, $c_n x$ to the power is equal to 0.

Now, we want to make some common range, since, this summation is not uniform; someone is starting from a 2; 2 infinity, another one is 1 to infinity; other one is 0 to infinity. The common summation range is 2 to infinity. So, the other terms, we can

separate out. For example, the first term, first summation, the case n is equal to 0, and n is equal to 1, can be separated out. Therefore, what we get is this term, which is $2c_1$; 2 times, when n is equal to 0, get $2c_2$ plus $6c_3x$ plus, the common range, n is equal to 2 to infinity, n plus 2 into n plus 1 into c_{n+2} plus $2c_{n+1}$ into x to the power n . Similarly, for the second term, that can be split as c_1x plus, the common range, n is equal to 2 to infinity, n c_n , x to the power n . Third term, you do not have to change. The last term, it can be changed; this is $2c_0$ plus $2c_1x$ plus, summation c_n , x to the power n , n goes from 2 to infinity.

Now, if we rearrange all this, we get, this implies that $2c_2$ plus $6c_3$ plus summation, the first term; if we combine all this together, if we add them together, we get $2c_0$ plus $2c_2$ plus $3c_1$ plus $6c_3x$ plus, summation, the common summation, we will take n is equal to 2 to infinity, n plus 2 into n plus 1 c_{n+2} plus $2c_{n+1}$ plus c_n minus 2 times, x to the power n is equal to 0. This series converges for in the interval x minus x 0 is less than r . So, equating the coefficients of the powers, left hand side to 0, because right hand is already 0; we get $2c_0$ plus $2c_2$ is 0 and $3c_1$ plus $6c_3$ is 0, and this gives c_2 is minus c_0 and c_3 is minus half c_1 .

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Handwritten mathematical derivation on a whiteboard:

$$(n+2)(n+1)c_{n+2} + (n+2)c_n + c_{n-2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow c_{n+2} = -\frac{(n+2)c_n + c_{n-2}}{(n+1)(n+2)} \quad n \geq 2$$

For $n=2$:

$$c_4 = -\frac{4c_2 + c_0}{12} \Rightarrow c_4 = -\frac{1}{4}c_0$$

For $n=3$:

$$c_5 = -\frac{3}{40}c_1$$

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Also we get from the summation term that n plus 2 into n plus 1, c_{n+2} plus $2c_{n+1}$ plus c_n minus 2 is equal to 0. If we solve it, c_{n+2} is obtained as minus, n plus 2, c_n plus c_{n-2} , divided by n plus 1 into n plus 2 for n greater

than 2. Therefore, for each case, n is equal to 2 case, c₄ can be solved; c₄ is minus 4 c₂ plus c₀ by 12. So, this implies that c₄ is 1 by 4 c₀, and similarly n is equal to 3 case; c₅ is told to be 3 by 40 c₁.

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$$y(x) = c_0 \underbrace{\left(1 - x^2 + \frac{1}{4}x^4 - \dots\right)}_{1^{st}} + c_1 \underbrace{\left(x - \frac{1}{2}x^3 + \frac{3}{40}x^5 - \dots\right)}_{2^{nd}}$$

General series solution.

Therefore, the solution can be written as by using these coefficients. So, y of x is equal to c₀ into 1 minus x square plus, 1 by 4 x to the power 4 minus, etcetera. plus, c₁ into x minus half x cube plus, 3 by 40 x to the power 5 plus, etcetera. So, we see that there are two series. So, this is a two series solution. The first one and the second one; they are linearly independent two series solutions and they have the linear combinations, c₀ of the first one plus, c₁ of the second one; it is a general solution, say, general series solution.

Therefore, by doing this method, you can find if a point is an ordinary point, we can get the series solution and two linearly independent series solution of a differential equation, if the point is an ordinary point. If the point is a singular point, there are methods, Frobenius methods, and all, that will come in another series. So, with this, I would like to finish. So, we have seen even, if the differential equation is variable coefficient, we can have solution in power series form, series solution.

Bye.