The Method of Frobenius

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Partial Differential Equations April 7, 2015

Motivating example Failure of the power series method

Consider the ODE 2xy'' + y' + y = 0. In standard form this is

$$y'' + \frac{1}{2x}y' + \frac{1}{2x}y = 0 \Rightarrow p(x) = q(x) = \frac{1}{2x}, g(x) = 0.$$

In exercise A.4.25 you showed that 1/x is analytic at any a > 0, with radius R = a. Hence:

Every solution of 2xy'' + y' + y = 0 is analytic at a > 0 with radius $R \ge a$ (i.e. given by a PS for 0 < x < 2a).

However, since p, q, g are continuous for x > 0, general theory guarantees that:

Every solution of 2xy'' + y' + y = 0 is defined for all x > 0.

Question: Can we find series solutions defined for all x > 0?

Even though p(x) = q(x) = 1/2x is *not* analytic at a = 0, we nonetheless assume

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$
 (with positive radius)

and see what happens. Plugging into the ODE and collecting common powers of x leads to

$$a_{n+1} = rac{-a_n}{(n+1)(2n+1)}$$
 for $n \ge 1$,

and then choosing $a_0 = 1$ yields the first solution

$$a_n = \frac{(-1)^n 2^n}{(2n)!} \quad \Rightarrow \quad y_1 = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 2^n}{(2n)!} x^n = \cos\left(\sqrt{2x}\right).$$

But choosing $a_0 = 0$ gives $a_n = 0$ for all $n \ge 0$, so that $y_2 \equiv 0$.

What now?

To find a second independent solution, we instead assume

$$y = x^{r} \sum_{\substack{n=0\\ PS \text{ with } R > 0}}^{\infty} a_{n} x^{n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} x^{n+r} \quad (a_{0} \neq 0)$$

for some $r \in \mathbb{R}$ to be determined. Since

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

plugging into the ODE gives

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

Distributing the 2x and setting m = n - 1 in the first two series yields

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

or, replacing m with n

$$\underbrace{\frac{(2r(r-1)+r)a_0x^{r-1}}{n=-1}}_{n=-1} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left((n+r+1)\left(2(n+r)+1\right)a_{n+1} + a_n \right) x^{n+r} = 0.$$

This requires the coefficients on each power of x to equal zero.

That is

$$r(2r-1)a_0=0 \Rightarrow r(2r-1)=0 \Rightarrow r=0, rac{1}{2},$$

and $(n + r + 1)(2n + 2r + 1)a_{n+1} + a_n = 0$, or

$$a_{n+1} = rac{-a_n}{(n+r+1)(2n+2r+1)}$$
 for $n \ge 0$.

Each value of *r* gives a *different* recurrence:

$$r = 0 \Rightarrow a_{n+1} = \frac{-a_n}{(n+1)(2n+1)},$$

 $r = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow a_{n+1} = \frac{-a_n}{(n+3/2)(2n+2)} = \frac{-a_n}{(2n+3)(n+1)}.$

Notice that the first is the original recurrence!

Taking $a_0 = 1$ in the second we eventually find that

$$a_n = \frac{(-1)^n 2^n}{(2n+1)!} \Rightarrow y_2 = x^{1/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 2^n}{(2n+1)!} x^n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sin\left(\sqrt{2x}\right).$$

This gives the second (linearly independent) solution to the ODE, and we have the general solution

$$y = c_1 y_1 + c_2 y_2 = c_1 \cos\left(\sqrt{2x}\right) + c_2' \sin\left(\sqrt{2x}\right) \quad (x > 0).$$

Remarks:

- The fact that both series yielded familiar functions is simply a coincidence, and should not be expected in general.
- One could also have obtained y_2 from y_1 (or vice-verse) using a technique called *reduction of order*.

Method of Frobenius - First Solution

When will the preceding technique work at an "extraordinary" point? Here's a *partial* answer:

Theorem

Suppose that at least one of p(x) or q(x) is not analytic at x = 0, but that both of xp(x) and $x^2q(x)$ are. If

$$\lim_{x\to 0} xp(x) = p_0 \quad and \quad \lim_{x\to 0} x^2q(x) = q_0,$$

then there is a solution to y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0 (x > 0) of the form

$$y = x^r \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \quad (a_0 \neq 0),$$

where r is a root of the indicial equation $r^2 + (p_0 - 1)r + q_0 = 0$.

Remarks

- Under the hypotheses of the theorem, we say that a = 0 is a *regular singular point* of the ODE.
- Suppose the roots of the indicial equation are r_1 and r_2 .
 - If $r_1 r_2 \notin \mathbb{Z}$, then both $r = r_1$ and $r = r_2$ yield (linearly independent) solutions.
 - If $r_1 r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$, then only $r = \max\{r_1, r_2\}$ is guaranteed to work. The other may or may not.
- If the PS for xp(x) and x²q(x) both converge for |x| < R, so does the PS factor of y.
- We can talk about regular singularities at any x = a by instead considering (x a)p(x), $(x a)^2q(x)$, $\lim_{x \to a}$, and writing the solution in powers of (x a).

Example

Find the general solution to $x^2y'' + xy' + (x - 2)y = 0$.

In standard form this ODE has

$$p(x)=rac{1}{x}$$
 and $q(x)=rac{x-2}{x^2},$

neither of which is analytic at x = 0. However, both

$$xp(x)=1$$
 and $x^2q(x)=x-2$

are analytic at x = 0, so we have a regular singularity with

$$p_0 = \lim_{x \to 0} x p(x) = 1$$
 and $q_0 = \lim_{x \to 0} x^2 q(x) = -2.$

The indicial equation is

$$r^2 + (1-1)r - 2 = 0 \Rightarrow r = \pm \sqrt{2}.$$

Applying the method of Frobenius, we set

$$y = x^r \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^{n+r} \quad (a_0 \neq 0)$$

and substitute into the ODE, obtaining

$$(r^{2}-2)a_{0}x^{r}+\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\left((n+r)^{2}-2\right)a_{n}+a_{n-1}\right)x^{n+r}=0.$$

Hence we must have $r^2 - 2 = 0$ (which we already knew) and

$$a_n = \frac{-a_{n-1}}{(n+r)^2 - 2} = \frac{-a_{n-1}}{n(n+2r)}$$
 for $n \ge 1$.

Taking $a_0 = 1$ one readily sees that

$$a_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{n!(1+2r)(2+2r)(3+2r)\cdots(n+2r)}.$$

Since the difference of the roots is $\sqrt{2} - (-\sqrt{2}) = 2\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Z}$, the two *r*-values give independent solutions:

$$y_1 = x^{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{n! (1 + 2\sqrt{2})(2 + 2\sqrt{2})(3 + 2\sqrt{2}) \cdots (n + 2\sqrt{2})},$$

$$y_2 = x^{-\sqrt{2}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{n! (1 - 2\sqrt{2})(2 - 2\sqrt{2})(3 - 2\sqrt{2}) \cdots (n - 2\sqrt{2})},$$

and the general solution (for x > 0) is

$$y = c_1 y_1 + c_2 y_2.$$

Remark: Because xp(x) = 1 and $x^2q(x) = x - 2$ both have infinite radius of convergence, so do both series above.

Method of Frobenius - Second Solution

What do we do if the indicial roots differ by an integer?

Theorem

Suppose that x = 0 is a regular singular point of y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0, and that the roots of the indicial equation are r_1 and r_2 , with $r_1 - r_2 \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

• If $r_1 = r_2 = r$, the second solution has the form

$$y_2 = y_1 \ln x + x^r \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n x^n.$$

• If $r_1 > r_2$ (so that y_1 uses r_1), the second solution has the form

$$y_2 = ky_1 \ln x + x^{r_2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n \quad (b_0 \neq 0).$$

Frobenius' Method

Daileda

Example

Find the general solution to xy'' + (1 - x)y' + 2y = 0, x > 0.

In standard form we have

$$p(x)=rac{1-x}{x}$$
 and $q(x)=rac{2}{x},$

which are non-analytic at x = 0, and

$$xp(x) = 1 - x$$
 and $x^2q(x) = 2x$,

which are. This makes x = 0 a regular singularity with

$$p_0 = \lim_{x \to 0} 1 - x = 1$$
 and $\lim_{x \to 0} 2x = 0$,

and indicial equation

$$r^2 + (1-1)r + 0 = 0 \Rightarrow r = 0.$$

Since r = 0 is a double root, we are guaranteed only one solution of the form

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

Plugging this into the ODE and simplifying leads to the recursion

$$a_{n+1}=rac{(n-2)a_n}{(n+1)^2} ext{ for } n\geq 0.$$

Taking $a_0 = 1$ we find that

$$a_1 = \frac{-2a_0}{1^2} = -2, \ a_2 = \frac{-a_1}{2^2} = \frac{1}{2}, \ a_3 = \frac{0 \cdot a_2}{3^2} = 0,$$

and hence $a_4 = a_5 = a_6 = \cdots = 0$ as well. So our first solution is

$$y_1 = 1 - 2x + \frac{x^2}{2}.$$

According to the theorem, a second independent solution has the form $~~\sim$

$$y_2 = y_1 \ln x + \underbrace{x^0 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n x^n}_{w},$$

and we need to solve for the b_n . The product rule gives us

$$y_2' = y_1' \ln x + \frac{y_1}{x} + w',$$

$$y_2'' = y_1'' \ln x + \frac{2y_1'}{x} - \frac{y_1}{x^2} + w'',$$

and plugging these into $xy_2'' + (1-x)y_2' + 2y_2 = 0$ we obtain

$$\underbrace{\left(xy_1'' + (1-x)y_1' + 2y_1\right)}_{=0} \ln x - y_1 + 2y_1' + xw'' + (1-x)w' + 2w = 0,$$
$$xw'' + (1-x)w' + 2w = -2y_1' + y_1.$$

We now plug $y_1 = 1 - 2x + x^2/2$ and $w = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ into this equation to obtain a recurrence for the b_n :

$$b_1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ((n+1)^2 b_{n+1} - (n-2)b_n) x^n = 5 - 4x + \frac{x^2}{2}.$$

Hence

$$b_1 = 5$$
, $4b_2 + b_1 = -4$, $9b_3 = \frac{1}{2}$,

and

$$b_{n+1} = rac{(n-2)b_n}{(n+1)^2} \ \Rightarrow \ b_n = rac{36b_3}{n(n-1)(n-2)n!} \ ext{ for } n \geq 3.$$

Thus, since $b_3 = 1/18$,

$$y_{2} = \underbrace{\left(1 - 2x + \frac{x^{2}}{2}\right)}_{y_{1}} \ln x + \underbrace{5x - \frac{9}{4}x^{2} + 2\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n(n-1)(n-2)n!}}_{w}.$$

Finally, we have that the general solution is given by

$$y = c_1 y_1 + c_2 y_2.$$

Remarks. Regarding the case $r_1 - r_2 \in \mathbb{N}_0$:

- When y_1 has infinitely many nonzero coefficients, the general recursion for b_n will be more complicated.
- If a closed form expression for the coefficients of y₁ isn't available, the recursion relations for the a_n and b_n still allow us to compute as many terms as we need.
- Similar computations and comments hold when $r_1 r_2 \in \mathbb{N}$, except that one must also solve for k.
- Because of the ln x factor, one can frequently conclude that $|y_2| \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow 0^+$, without explicitly computing the b_n . This will suffice for our applications.