

## Cauchy-Euler equation

In general, solving a linear equation with **variable coefficients** is more involved than solving a linear equation with **constant coefficients** and typically involves a solution in a form of an infinite series. However, the Cauchy-Euler equation is an exception of which a general solution can always be expressed in terms of powers of  $x$ , sines, cosines, logarithmic and exponential functions.

Any linear differential equation of the form

$$a_n x^n \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + a_1 x \frac{dy}{dx} + a_0 y = g(x)$$

where the coefficients  $a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_0$  are constants is known as **Cauchy-Euler equation**. Notice that the degree  $k = n, n - 1, \dots, 1, 0$  of the monomial coefficient  $x^k$  matches the order  $k$  of the differentiation  $\frac{d^k y}{dx^k}$ .

To guarantee an existence of a unique solution, we will confine our attention to finding the general solution on the interval  $(0, \infty)$ . Solutions on the interval  $(-\infty, 0)$  can be obtained by substituting  $t = -x$  into the differential equation.

We will start with examination of the forms of the general solutions of the **homogeneous second-order equation**

$$a x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + b x \frac{dy}{dx} + cy = 0.$$

## Method of solution

We try a solution of the form  $y = x^m$  where  $m$  is to be determined. After substituting  $y = x^m$  into a Cauchy-Euler equation, the equation becomes a polynomial in  $m$  times  $x^m$ :

$$\begin{aligned} a_k x^k \frac{d^k y}{dx^k} &= a_k x^k m(m-1)(m-2)\dots(m-k+1) x^{m-k} \\ &= a_k m(m-1)(m-2)\dots(m-k+1) x^m. \end{aligned}$$

For example, by substituting  $x^m$  to the second order equation gives

$$a x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + b x \frac{dy}{dx} + cy = am(m-1)x^m + bmx^m + cx^m = (am(m-1) + bm + c)x^m.$$

Thus  $y = x^m$  is a solution of the differential equation whenever  $m$  is a solution of the **auxiliary equation**:

$$am(m-1) + bm + c = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad am^2 + (b-a)m + c = 0.$$

There are three distinct cases to be considered depending on whether the roots are

- (I) real and distinct,
- (II) real and equal, or
- (III) complex.

### Case I: Distinct real roots

Let  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  denote the real roots of the auxiliary equation

$$am^2 + (b - a)m + c = 0$$

such that  $m_1 \neq m_2$ . Then  $y_1 = x^{m_1}$  and  $y_2 = x^{m_2}$  form a fundamental set of solutions.

Hence the general solution is

$$y = c_1x^{m_1} + c_2x^{m_2}.$$

**Example:** Solve:

$$x^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2x \frac{dy}{dx} - 4y = 0.$$

Assume  $y = x^m$  and differentiate twice

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = mx^{m-1}, \quad \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = m(m-1)x^{m-2},$$

and substitute to the differential equation

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2x \frac{dy}{dx} - 4y &= x^2 \cdot m(m-1)x^{m-2} - 2x \cdot mx^{m-1} - 4x^m \\ &= x^m(m(m-1) - 2m - 4) = x^m(m^2 - 3m - 4) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

The roots of the equation  $m^2 - 3m - 4 = 0$  are  $m_1 = -1, m_2 = 4$ , so the general solution is

$$y = c_1x^{-1} + c_2x^4.$$

## Case II: Repeated real roots

If the roots of the auxiliary equation

$$am^2 + (b - a)m + c = 0$$

are repeated,  $m_1 = m_2$ , then we obtain only one solution  $y = x^{m_1}$ . In this case, it follows from the quadratic formula that the root must be  $m_1 = -(b - a)/2a$ .

We can construct the second solution  $y_2$  using the reduction of order method. We write the Cauchy-Euler equation in the standard form

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{b}{ax} \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{c}{ax^2}y = 0$$

with  $P(x) = b/ax$  and  $\int (b/ax)dx = (b/a) \ln x$ .

We get with  $P(x) = b/ax$  and  $\int(b/ax)dx = (b/a) \ln x$  the following

$$\begin{aligned}y_2 &= x^{m_1} \int \frac{e^{-(b/a) \ln x}}{x^{2m_1}} dx \\&= x^{m_1} \int x^{-b/a} \cdot x^{-2m_1} dx \\&= x^{m_1} \int x^{-b/a} \cdot x^{(b-a)/a} dx \\&= x^{m_1} \int \frac{dx}{x} = x^{m_1} \ln x\end{aligned}$$

The general solution is then

$$y = c_1 x^{m_1} + c_2 x^{m_1} \ln x.$$



For higher-order equations, it can be shown that if  $m_1$  is a root of multiplicity  $k$ , then

$$x^{m_1}, x^{m_1} \ln x, x^{m_1} (\ln x)^2, \dots, x^{m_1} (\ln x)^{k-1},$$

are  $k$  linearly independent solutions and the general solution must contain a linear combination of these  $k$  solutions.

**Example:** Solve

$$4x^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 8x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0.$$

The substitution  $y = x^m$  yields

$$4x^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 8x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = x^m((4m(m-1) + 8m + 1)) = x^m(4m^2 + 4m + 1) = 0$$

when  $4m^2 + 4m + 1 = (2m + 1)^2 = 0$ , so  $m_1 = -\frac{1}{2}$  is a repeated root.

The general solution is then

$$y = c_1x^{-1/2} + c_2x^{-1/2} \ln x.$$

### Case III: Conjugate complex roots

If the roots of the auxiliary equation

$$am^2 + (b - a)m + c = 0$$

are the conjugate pair  $m_1 = \alpha + i\beta$  and  $m_2 = \alpha - i\beta$  where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta > 0$  are real, then a solution is

$$y = C_1x^{\alpha+i\beta} + C_2x^{\alpha-i\beta}.$$

However, we wish to write the solution in terms of real functions only.

We use the identity

$$x^{i\beta} = (e^{\ln x})^{i\beta} = e^{i\beta \ln x}$$

and using the Euler formula

$$x^{i\beta} = \cos(\beta \ln x) + i \sin(\beta \ln x)$$

and

$$x^{-i\beta} = \cos(\beta \ln x) - i \sin(\beta \ln x)$$

Adding and subtracting the last two results gives

$$x^{i\beta} + x^{-i\beta} = 2 \cos(\beta \ln x) \quad \text{and} \quad x^{i\beta} - x^{-i\beta} = 2i \sin(\beta \ln x),$$

respectively.

Taking into account that  $y = C_1 x^{\alpha+i\beta} + C_2 x^{\alpha-i\beta}$  is a solution for any values of the constants, we choose  $C_1 = C_2 = 1$  and  $C_1 = -C_2 = 1$  and get

$$y_1 = x^\alpha (x^{i\beta} + x^{-i\beta}) \quad \text{and} \quad y_2 = x^\alpha (x^{i\beta} - x^{-i\beta})$$

or

$$y_1 = 2x^\alpha \cos(\beta \ln x) \quad \text{and} \quad y_2 = 2ix^\alpha \sin(\beta \ln x)$$

are also solutions.

Since  $W(x^\alpha \cos(\beta \ln x), x^\alpha \sin(\beta \ln x)) = \beta x^{2\alpha-1} \neq 0$ ,  $\beta > 0$ , on the interval  $(0, \infty)$ , we conclude that

$$y_1 = x^\alpha \cos(\beta \ln x) \quad \text{and} \quad y_2 = x^\alpha \sin(\beta \ln x)$$

constitute a fundamental set of solutions of the differential equation.

The general solution is then

$$y = x^\alpha [c_1 \cos(\beta \ln x) + c_2 \sin(\beta \ln x)].$$

Once we have solved the associated homogeneous equation, we can use **the method of variation of parameters** to find the solution of the original non-homogeneous equation.

**Example:** Initial value problem

$$4x^2y'' + 17y = 0, \quad y(1) = -1, y'(1) = -\frac{1}{2}.$$

The solution  $y = x^m$  yields

$$4x^2y'' + 17y = x^m(4m(m-1) + 17) = x^m(4m^2 - 4m + 17) = 0$$

when  $4m^2 - 4m + 17 = 0$  has two conjugate complex roots  $m_1 = \frac{1}{2} + 2i$  and  $m_2 = \frac{1}{2} - 2i$ , so  $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\beta = 2$ .

The general solution is then

$$y = x^{1/2} [c_1 \cos(2 \ln x) + c_2 \sin(2 \ln x)].$$

By applying the initial conditions we find  $c_1 = -1$  and  $c_2 = 0$ , so the solution of the IVP is

$$y = -x^{1/2} \cos(2 \ln x).$$

**Example:** Solve

$$x^2y'' - 3xy' + 3y = 2x^4e^x.$$

We first solve the associated homogeneous problem: from the auxiliary equation  $(m - 1)(m - 3) = 0$  we find

$$y_c = c_1x + c_2x^3$$

We assume the particular solution in the form  $y_p = u_1y_1 + u_2y_2$  and

$$u'_1 = \frac{W_1}{W} \quad \text{and} \quad u'_2 = \frac{W_2}{W}$$

where  $W_1$ ,  $W_2$ , and  $W$  are the determinants defined earlier and are derived under the assumption that the ODE has been put into the standard form by division by  $x^2$

$$\begin{aligned} y'' + P(x)y' + Q(x)y &= f(x), \\ y'' - \frac{3}{x}y' + \frac{3}{x^2}y &= 2x^2e^x. \end{aligned}$$



With the identification  $f(x) = 2x^2e^x$ , and  $y_1 = x$  and  $y_2 = x^3$  we get

$$W = \begin{vmatrix} x & x^3 \\ 1 & 3x^2 \end{vmatrix} = 2x^3, \quad W_1 = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & x^3 \\ 2x^2e^x & 3x^2 \end{vmatrix} = -2x^5e^x, \quad W_2 = \begin{vmatrix} x & 0 \\ 1 & 2x^2e^x \end{vmatrix} = 2x^3e^x.$$

and we find that

$$u'_1 = -\frac{2x^5e^x}{2x^3} = -x^2e^x \quad \text{and} \quad u'_2 = \frac{2x^3e^x}{2x^3} = e^x.$$

The integral of the last expressions (for  $u_1$  using integration by parts twice), we get the results

$$u_1 = -x^2e^x + 2xe^x - 2e^x \quad \text{and} \quad u_2 = e^x$$

so the particular solution is

$$y_p = u_1y_1 + u_2y_2 = (-x^2e^x + 2xe^x - 2e^x)x + e^xx^3 = 2x^2e^x - 2xe^x.$$

The general solution is then

$$y = y_c + y_p = c_1x + c_2x^3 + 2x^2e^x - 2xe^x.$$

Remark:

There is a similarity between the form of solutions of Cauchy-Euler equations and solutions of linear equations with constant coefficients.

For example when the roots of auxiliary equations for  $ay'' + by' + cy = 0$  and  $ax^2y'' + bxy' + cy = 0$  are distinct and real, the respective general solutions are

$$y = c_1e^{m_1x} + c_2e^{m_2x} \quad \text{and} \quad y = c_1x^{m_1} + c_2x^{m_2}, x > 0.$$

As a consequence of the identity  $e^{\ln x} = x, x > 0$ , the second solution can be expressed in the same form as the first solution:

$$y = c_1e^{m_1 \ln x} + c_2e^{m_2 \ln x} = c_1e^{m_1 t} + c_2e^{m_2 t},$$

where  $t = \ln x$ .

Any Cauchy-Euler equation can always be rewritten as a linear differential equation with constant coefficients by means of the substitution  $x = e^t$ . The new equation can be solved in terms of the variable  $t$ , and once the general solution is obtained, resubstitute  $t = \ln x$ .