

2013.3 Question 2

We must have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} \cdot \frac{\arcsin x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{1-x^2} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \cdot \sqrt{1-x^2} - \arcsin x \cdot (-2x) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{1-x^2} \cdot \left(1 + x \cdot \frac{\arcsin x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{1-x^2} \cdot (1 + xy),
 \end{aligned}$$

which gives

$$(1-x^2) \frac{dy}{dx} - xy - 1 = (1+xy) - xy - 1 = 0$$

as desired.

Differentiating both sides of this equation w.r.t. x gives

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \cdot (1-x^2) - 2x \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} - y - x \frac{dy}{dx} = 0,$$

which combined gives

$$(1-x^2) \cdot \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 3x \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} - y = 0.$$

If we extend the definition of the differentiation operator to

$$\frac{d^0y}{dx^0} = y,$$

then this precisely proves the desired statement for the case $n = 0$ since $2n + 3 = 3$ and $(n + 1)^2 = 1$, and we will prove the desired statement for all non-negative integer n . The base case is shown as above.

Now, assume the given holds for some $n = k$ where k is a non-negative integer, i.e.

$$(1-x^2) \cdot \frac{d^{k+2}y}{dx^{k+2}} - (2k+3)x \cdot \frac{d^{k+1}y}{dx^{k+1}} - (k+1)^2 \cdot \frac{d^ky}{dx^k} = 0,$$

we aim to show that the same holds for $n = k + 1$.

Differentiating both sides with respect to x gives

$$(-2x) \cdot \frac{d^{k+2}y}{dx^{k+2}} + (1-x^2) \cdot \frac{d^{k+3}y}{dx^{k+3}} - (2k+3) \cdot \frac{d^{k+1}y}{dx^{k+1}} - (2k+3)x \cdot \frac{d^{k+2}y}{dx^{k+2}} - (k+1)^2 \cdot \frac{d^{k+1}y}{dx^{k+1}} = 0,$$

which then simplifies to

$$(1-x^2) \cdot \frac{d^{k+3}y}{dx^{k+3}} - (2k+5)x \cdot \frac{d^{k+2}y}{dx^{k+2}} - (k^2 + 4k + 4) \cdot \frac{d^{k+1}y}{dx^{k+1}} = 0.$$

But notice that $n+2 = (k+1)+2 = k+3$, $n+1 = (k+1)+1 = k+2$, $(n+1)^2 = (k+2)^2 = k^2 + 4k + 4$, $2n+3 = 2(k+1)+3 = 2k+5$, so this is exactly the statement when $n = k+1$, which finishes our inductive step.

Hence, by the Principle of Mathematical Induction, we can conclude that the original statement holds for any non-negative integer n , and hence for any positive integer n .

We have that

$$y|_{x=0} = \frac{\arcsin 0}{\sqrt{1-0^2}} = \frac{0}{1} = 0,$$

and evaluating the equation on the first derivative at $x = 0$ gives

$$\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=0} = 1.$$

Evaluating the proven equation at $x = 0$ gives

$$\left. \frac{d^{n+2}y}{dx^{n+2}} \right|_{x=0} = (n+1)^2 \left. \frac{d^ny}{dx^n} \right|_{x=0}.$$

Using this, we can conclude that

$$\left. \frac{d^{2r}y}{dx^{2r}} \right|_{x=0} = 0$$

for all $r \geq 0$ where r is an integer, since it is 0 when $n = 0$, and that

$$\left. \frac{d^{2r+1}y}{dx^{2r+1}} \right|_{x=0} = ((2r)!)^2 = 2^{2r} \cdot (r!)^2$$

for all $r \geq 0$ where r is an integer, by mathematical induction.

Hence, the MacLaurin Series for $\frac{\arcsin x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$, must be

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\arcsin x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left. \frac{d^k y}{dx^k} \right|_{x=0}}{k!} \cdot x^k \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left. \frac{d^{2r} y}{dx^{2r}} \right|_{x=0}}{(2r)!} \cdot x^{2r} + \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left. \frac{d^{2r+1} y}{dx^{2r+1}} \right|_{x=0}}{(2r+1)!} \cdot x^{2r+1} \\ &= 0 + \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^{2r} \cdot (r!)^2}{(2r+1)!} \cdot x^{2r+1} \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^{2r} \cdot (r!)^2}{(2r+1)!} \cdot x^{2r+1}. \end{aligned}$$

This means the general term for even powers of x is zero, and the general term for odd powers of x is

$$\frac{2^{2r} \cdot (r!)^2}{(2r+1)!} \cdot x^{2r+1}$$

where r is any non-negative integer.

The infinite sum can be expressed as

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{(r!)^2}{(2r+1)!} = 2 \cdot \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^{2r} \cdot (r!)^2}{(2r+1)!} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2r+1},$$

which is precisely double the value of

$$\left[\frac{\arcsin x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \right]_{x=\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\arcsin \frac{1}{2}}{\sqrt{1-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2}} = \frac{\pi/6}{\sqrt{3}/2} = \frac{\pi}{3\sqrt{3}},$$

Hence, the sum evaluates to $\frac{2\pi}{3\sqrt{3}}$.