

Lecture 14

Second order linear ODEs via power series

Review: A power series
(aka Taylor series) is a
function of the form

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x-x_0)^n$$

for some $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$.

$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots \in \mathbb{R})$
"coefficients"

Note: Can also write

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots$$

$$+ a_2 (x - x_0)^2 + a_3 (x - x_0)^3 + \dots$$

Remark: Often take $x_0 = 0$, so

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \dots$$

→ We always have $f(x_0) = a_0$, since $f(x_0) = a_0 + a_1(x_0 - x_0) + a_2(x_0 - x_0)^2 + \dots = a_0$

but f might not be defined for other values of x .

Ex: $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! (x-7)^n$

Satisfies $f(7) = 0! = 1$, but $f(c) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! (c-7)^n$ diverges for any $c \neq 7$, i.e.

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N n! (c-7)^n = +\infty \text{ for any } c \neq 7.$$

we say that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x-x_0)^n$
Converges pointwise at $x=c$
 if $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N a_n (c-x_0)^n$
 exists and is finite

→ We say it converges absolutely if
 $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N |a_n (c-x_0)^n|$
 exists and is finite.

Fact. Have

absolute convergence at $x=c$ \implies pointwise convergence at $x=c$

Ex.: $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}$ converges
 pointwise at $x=1$, but not
 absolutely.

$$f(-1) = -1 + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{5} + \dots$$

alternating harmonic series
converges, but

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \dots$$

harmonic series,
does not converge.

→ Every power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-x_0)^n$
has a radius of convergence R

such that the series converges
absolutely at c if

$|c - x_0| < R$ the series
diverges at c if

$|c - x_0| > R$, and at

$x_0 - R$ or $x_0 + R$ could
converge or diverge.

→ "ratio test": if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$ exists and is finite, then the r.o.c. is given by

$$R = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|^{-1}$$

(and if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 0$, then the r.o.c. is ∞ .)

→ "root test": more generally, the radius is, always given

by $R = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$

(if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$ exists, then $\limsup = \lim$, but \limsup is always defined.)

→ if $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n$ has r.o.c. R and

$g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (x-x_0)^n$ has
v.o.c. R_g then

$$(f+g)(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) (x-x_0)^n$$

has v.o.c. at least $\min(R_f, R_g)$

→ similarly,

$$f(x)g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{i=0}^n a_i b_{n-i} \right) (x-x_0)^n$$

Check:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(a_0 + a_1(x-x_0) + a_2(x-x_0)^2 + \dots \right) \\ & \left(b_0 + b_1(x-x_0) + b_2(x-x_0)^2 + \dots \right) \\ &= a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0) (x-x_0) \\ &+ (a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0) (x-x_0)^2 \\ &+ \dots \end{aligned}$$

and this has v.o.c. at least
 $\min(R_f, R_g)$.


Def: $f(x)$ is analytic at x_0 if it has a power series at x_0 , i.e. $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-x_0)^n$ with r.o.c. > 0 .

Prmk: If $f(x)$ is analytic at x_0 , then it's infinitely differentiable at x_0 .

Prmk: ^{smooth} Smooth at x_0 does not imply analytic at x_0 .

Fact: If $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-x_0)^n = 0$ for all x in an open interval, then must have $a_0 = a_1 = a_2 = \dots = 0$.

Ex: Consider $f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x} & x > 0 \\ 0 & x \leq 0 \end{cases}$
Then is smooth but not analytic at $x=0$.



Examples:

Ex: $1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

r.o.c.?

ratio test: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| =$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{(n+1)!} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n+1} = 0$$

So $R = +\infty$.

In fact this is e^x .

Ex: $1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$$

Ratio test: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1/1 = 1$
 $\Rightarrow R = 1/1 = 1.$

In fact, this $\frac{1}{1-x}$

Note: the power series diverges for $|x| > 1.$

Ex: $-x - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} - \dots$
 $= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} -\frac{x^n}{n}$

$a_0 = 0, a_n = -1/n.$

ratio test: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n+1)}{f(n)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1,$

$R = 1/1 = 1.$

In fact, this is $\ln(1-x)$

$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots$

Integrate term by term:

$$-\ln(1-x) = x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$$

$$\text{So } \ln(1-x) = -x - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots$$

$$\text{Similarly, } \frac{1}{1+x} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots$$

Recall: a rational function is a function of form $f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$

$P(x), Q(x)$ are polynomials.

Fact: A rational func. $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ is analytic $x=x_0$ provided that $Q(x_0) \neq 0$, after canceling common factors in $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$.

Moreover, the r.o.c. is then given by the distance from x_0 to the nearest (possibly complex-valued) root

at $\alpha(x)$.

Ex: $\frac{1+x}{1-x}$ is analytic at
all $x \neq 1$

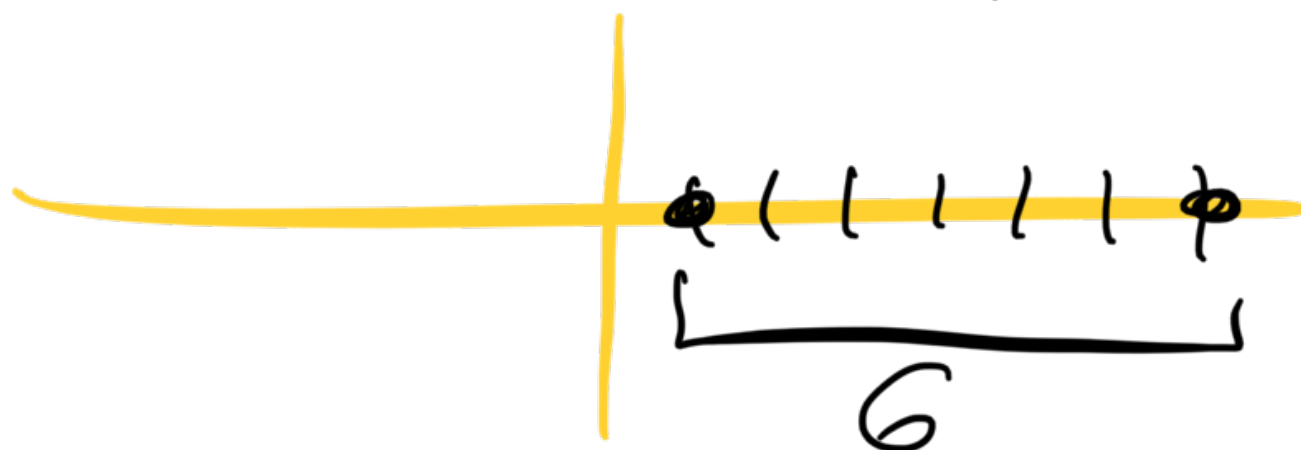
Ex: $\frac{x^2+2x+1}{x+1}$ is analytic at
all $x \in \mathbb{R}$

Since $\frac{(x+1)^2}{x+1} = x+1$

Ex: $\frac{1}{1-x}$ is analytic at $x=7$

i.e. $\frac{1}{1-x} = a_0 + a_1(x-7) + a_2(x-7)^2 + \dots$

and the r.o.c. is 6.



Ex: $\frac{x-1}{x^2+1}$ is analytic at

all $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$x = \pm i, \text{ so } \dots$$

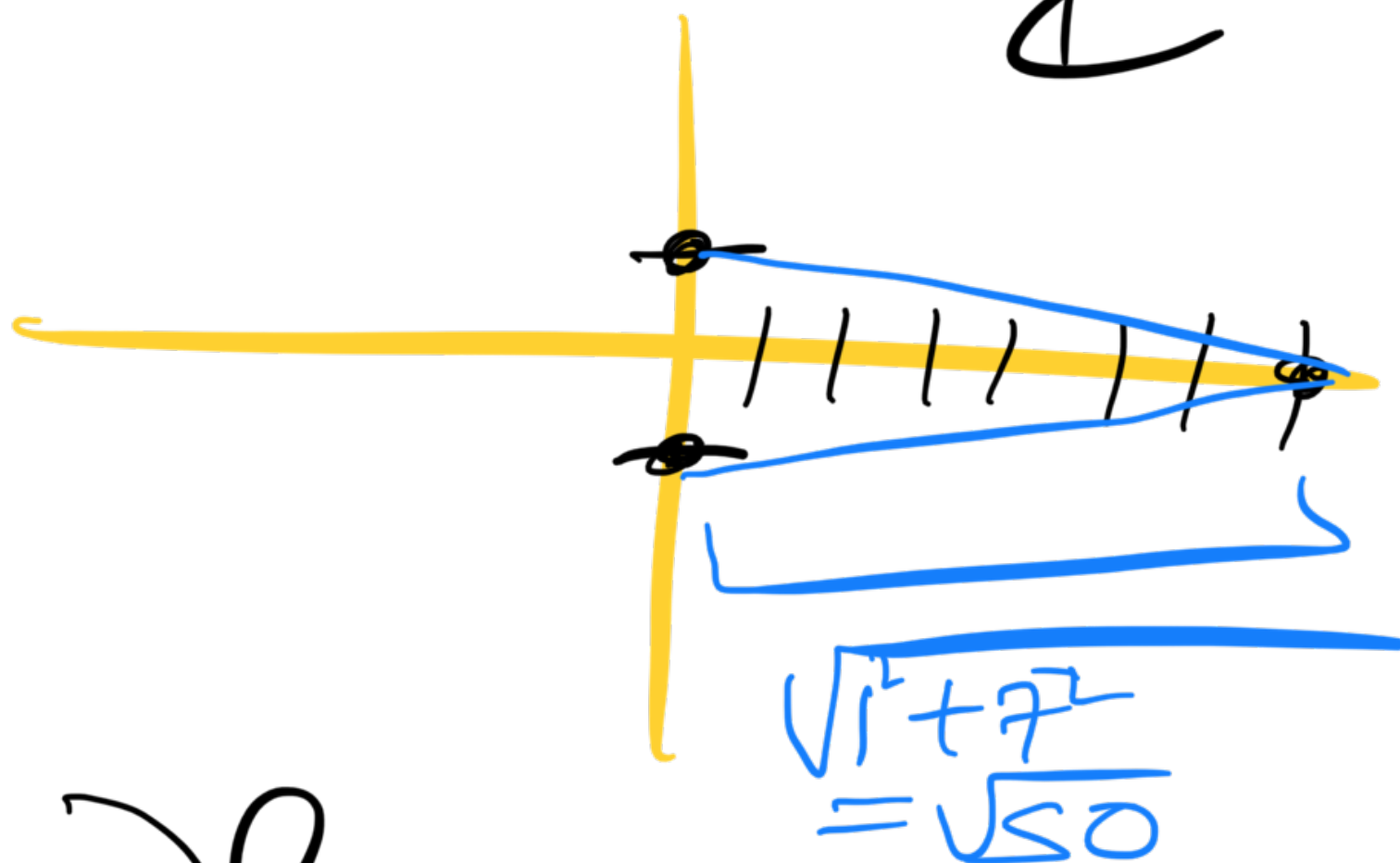
$$\frac{x-1}{x^2+1} = a_0 + a_1(x-7) + a_2(x-7)^2 + \dots$$

with v.o.c. $R = \sqrt{50}$.

(So this power series diverges when $x > 7 + \sqrt{50}$ or $x < 7 - \sqrt{50}$)

Reason: roots of x^2+1 are $\pm i$,

\mathbb{C}



Harmonic oscillator :

$$y'' + y = 0$$

spring ↘



Ansatz:

$$y(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n t^n$$

equilibrium position $y(t)$

$$y'(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n n t^{n-1}$$

$$y''(t) = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n n(n-1) t^{n-2}$$

plug into ODE:

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

$$\left(a_2 2 \cdot 1 + a_3 3 \cdot 2 \cdot t + a_4 4 \cdot 3 t^2 + a_5 5 \cdot 4 \cdot t^3 + \dots \right) + \left(a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2 + a_3 t^3 + \dots \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (a_2 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 + a_0) + (a_3 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 + a_1) t \\
 &\quad + (a_4 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 + a_2) t^2 \\
 &\quad + (a_5 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 + a_3) t^3 \\
 &\quad + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

$= 0$

So each coefficient must be zero:

$$a_2 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 + a_0 = 0$$

$$a_3 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 + a_1 = 0$$

$$a_4 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 + a_2 = 0$$

$$a_5 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 + a_3 = 0$$

...

System of
oly linear
eqns and
oly var
variables

$$a_2 = \frac{-a_0}{2 \cdot 1}$$

$$a_3 = \frac{-a_1}{3 \cdot 2}$$

$$a_4 = \frac{-a_2}{4 \cdot 3} = \frac{-\left(\frac{-a_0}{2 \cdot 1}\right)}{4 \cdot 3} = \frac{a_0}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}$$

$$a_5 = \frac{-a_3}{5 \cdot 4} = \frac{a_1}{5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2}$$

$$a_6 = \frac{-a_4}{6.5} = \frac{-\left(\frac{a_0}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}\right)}{6.5} = \frac{-a_0}{6!}$$

$$a_7 = \frac{-a_5}{7.6} = \frac{-a_1}{7!}$$

$$a_{2n} = \frac{a_0 (-1)^n}{(2n)!}$$

$$a_{2n+1} = \frac{a_1 (-1)^n}{(2n+1)!}$$

$$y(t) = a_0 \left(1 - \frac{t^2}{2!} + \frac{t^4}{4!} - \frac{t^6}{6!} + \dots \right) + a_1 \left(t - \frac{t^3}{3!} + \frac{t^5}{5!} - \frac{t^7}{7!} + \dots \right)$$

$$\text{Put } f(t) = 1 - \frac{t^2}{2!} + \frac{t^4}{4!} - \frac{t^6}{6!} + \dots$$

$$g(t) = t - \frac{t^3}{3!} + \frac{t^5}{5!} - \dots$$

Can check; both of these power series have t.o.c. _____

Note: $f(t), g(t)$ both solve
 $y'' + y = 0$.

So the general soln to
 $y'' + y = 0$ is given by

$$C_1 f(t) + C_2 g(t).$$

Note:

$$f(t) = \cos(t)$$

$$g(t) = \sin(t)$$

Some famous 2nd order
linear ODEs:

Legendre eqn: $(1-t^2)y'' - 2ty' + k(k+1)y = 0$

Singular pts: $t = -1, 1$ $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

Laguerre eqn: $ty'' + (1-t)y' + ky = 0$

Singular pts: $t = 0$ $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

Bessel eqn: $t^2 y'' + ty' + (t^2 - k^2)y = 0$
 $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

Sing pts: $t = 0$

Airy eqn: $y'' + ty = 0$

Sing pts: none!

Hermite eqn: $y'' - 2ty' + 2ky = 0$,
 $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

Sing pts: none

Terminology:

Consider $\underline{P(t)y''(t) + Q(t)y'(t) + R(t)y(t) = 0}$

Can also write as

$$y'' + p(t)y' + q(t)y = 0, \text{ for}$$

$$p(t) = Q(t)/P(t)$$

$$q(t) = R(t)/P(t)$$

If $P(t_0) \neq 0$ or more generally, if $p(t)$ and $q(t)$ analytic at t_0 ,

then t_0 is an ordinary pt of the ODE. Otherwise, t_0 is a singular pt.

Ex: $(1+t)y'' + 5y' + (t^2 + 2t + 1)y = 0$

Can write as

$$y'' + \frac{5}{1+t} y' + \frac{(t^2 + 2t + 1)y}{1+t} = 0$$

So $p(t) = \frac{5}{1+t}$ \leftarrow not analytic when $t = -1$

$q(t) = \frac{(t+1)^2}{t+1} = t+1$ \leftarrow is analytic for all t

So $t = -1$ is a singular pt,
all other t are ordinary pts.

Note:

Ex: $\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$ for which

x is this analytic?

✓

U Recall: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = 1$

write $\sin(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$

$$\frac{\sin(x)}{x} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} - \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots$$

power series with ∞
radius of convergence,

so $\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$ is analytic for all x .

However,

Ex: $\frac{\sin(x)}{x^2}$ is not analytic
at $x=0$.

$\sin(x) \sim x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \dots$