

LECTURE 19 POWER SERIES METHOD (CONT.)

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An Example.

Find first four nonzero terms of y_1, y_2 of

$$e^x y'' + x y = 0 \tag{1}$$

Solution. We write

$$y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \tag{2}$$

Substitute into equation we get

$$e^x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n + x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = 0. \tag{3}$$

Now it is clear that we have to expand e^x too.

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}. \tag{4}$$

which makes the equation

$$\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \right) \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \right)'' + x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = 0. \tag{5}$$

However, as there is in general no good way of writing simple formulas for coefficients of the result of a product of power series, we cannot expect to write down a simple recurrence relation. Realizing that all we need is four nonzero terms, we try to work things out in a more ad hoc way – writing down a few terms for each power series involved.

- Finding y_1 . Set $a_0=1, a_1=0$. To get four nonzero terms, we have to compute at least up to a_4 . The lowest order term in which a_4 appears is $1 \cdot 12 a_4 x^2$, so we have to balance the equation

$$\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \right) \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \right)'' + x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = 0. \tag{6}$$

to at least x^2 term. To do this recall: To get correct coefficients of x^k in $(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n) (\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n)$, we have to expand each series up to x^k . So we write

$$\left(1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots \right) (2 a_2 + 6 a_3 x + 12 a_4 x^2 + \dots) + x + \dots = 0 \tag{7}$$

and conclude

$$2 a_2 = 0, \tag{8}$$

$$2 a_2 + 6 a_3 + 1 = 0, \tag{9}$$

$$a_2 + 6 a_3 + 12 a_4 = 0. \tag{10}$$

This gives

$$a_2 = 0, \quad a_3 = -\frac{1}{6}, \quad a_4 = \frac{1}{12}. \tag{11}$$

We still need one more nonzero a_n . We compute a_5 by expanding the series one more term:

$$\left(1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \dots \right) (2 a_2 + 6 a_3 x + 12 a_4 x^2 + 20 a_5 x^3 + \dots) + x + a_2 x^3 + \dots = 0. \tag{12}$$

The x^3 balance is (note that the $1, x, x^2$ balances have already been computed, x^3 is the only thing new):

$$\frac{a_2}{3} + 3 a_3 + 12 a_4 + 20 a_5 + a_2 = 0 \tag{13}$$

which gives $a_5 = -\frac{1}{40}$. As $a_5 \neq 0$ we have enough nonzero terms now:

$$y_1(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{12}x^4 - \frac{1}{40}x^5 + \dots \quad (14)$$

- Finding y_2 . Setting $a_0 = 0$, $a_1 = 1$ we have

$$\left(1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \dots\right)(2a_2 + 6a_3x + 12a_4x^2 + 20a_5x^3 + \dots) + x^2 + a_2x^3 + \dots = 0. \quad (15)$$

Carrying out the multiplication, we have

$$2a_2 + (2a_2 + 6a_3)x + (a_2 + 6a_3 + 12a_4 + 1)x^2 + \left(\frac{a_2}{3} + 3a_3 + 12a_4 + 20a_5 + a_2\right)x^3 + \dots = 0. \quad (16)$$

The recurrence relations are

$$2a_2 = 0, \quad (17)$$

$$2a_2 + 6a_3 = 0, \quad (18)$$

$$a_2 + 6a_3 + 12a_4 + 1 = 0, \quad (19)$$

$$\frac{a_2}{3} + 3a_3 + 12a_4 + 20a_5 + a_2 = 0, \quad (20)$$

which give

$$a_2 = 0; \quad a_3 = 0; \quad a_4 = -\frac{1}{12}; \quad a_5 = \frac{1}{20}. \quad (21)$$

Thus

$$y_2 = x - \frac{1}{12}x^4 + \frac{1}{20}x^5 + \dots \quad (22)$$

We only have 3 nonzero terms!

- Finding the 4th term.

To find the 4th term, we need to expand everything to higher power. Let's try expanding to x^4 :

$$\left(1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^4}{24} + \dots\right)(2a_2 + 6a_3x + 12a_4x^2 + 20a_5x^3 + 30a_6x^4 + \dots) + x^2 + a_2x^3 + a_3x^4 + \dots = 0. \quad (23)$$

This gives a new recurrence relation via setting coefficients of x^4 to be 0:

$$\frac{a_2}{12} + a_3 + 6a_4 + 20a_5 + 30a_6 + a_3 = 0. \quad (24)$$

We obtain

$$a_6 = -\frac{1}{60}. \quad (25)$$

The updated y_2 is now

$$y_2(x) = x - \frac{1}{12}x^4 + \frac{1}{20}x^5 - \frac{1}{60}x^6 + \dots \quad (26)$$

Now we have 4 nonzero terms.

Remark 1. Note that y_1 solves the equation with initial values $y(0) = 1$, $y'(0) = 0$ and y_2 solves the equation with $y(0) = 0$, $y'(0) = 1$.

Regular points and singular points.

- Turns out that we can find out a **lower bound** of the radius of convergence for power series solutions **without** actually solving the equation. To do this we have to first write the equation into its standard form

$$y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0. \quad (27)$$

Theorem 2. The radius of convergence ρ for the power series solution satisfies

$$\rho \geq \min(\rho_1, \rho_2) \quad (28)$$

where ρ_1, ρ_2 is determined through

$$p(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p_n (x - x_0)^n \quad \text{for } |x - x_0| < \rho_1; \quad (29)$$

$$q(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} q_n (x - x_0)^n \quad \text{for } |x - x_0| < \rho_2. \quad (30)$$

Remark 3. Note that ρ_1, ρ_2 **may not be** the radii of convergence for the Taylor expansion of p and q . For example, the Taylor expansion of $e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$ at $x_0 = 0$ has radius of convergence ∞ , but the function equals its Taylor expansion only at x_0 and nowhere else.

- Often the following theorem is even easier to use:

Theorem 4. *The radius of convergence for the power series solution satisfies*

$$\rho \geq \text{distance of } x_0 \text{ to the nearest } \mathbf{complex} \text{ singular point of the equation.} \quad (31)$$

To be able to apply this we need the following notions:

- A point is singular for the equation (**in standard form!**)

$$y'' + p(x) y' + q(x) y = 0 \quad (32)$$

if either p or q (or both) is not analytic at at this point; Otherwise it's called "regular".

- A function $f(x)$ is analytic at a point x_0 if there is a sequence a_n and a number $\rho > 0$ such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n \quad (33)$$

holds $|x - x_0| < \rho$.

Remark 5. The function $e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$ is a typical example illustrating the following subtle fact: f is analytic at x_0 is **not the same** as "The Taylor expansion of f at x_0 has positive radius of convergence".

- How to tell?

From the above remark we see that it's not possible to tell whether $f(x)$ is analytic at a certain point x_0 from looking at its Taylor expansion. Then how to? In theory we have to do the following:

1. Compute its Taylor expansion at x_0 ;
2. Show

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - x_0)^n \quad (34)$$

holds $|x - x_0| < \rho$ for some positive ρ .

The second step, of course is totally ad hoc and can be very difficult.

Fortunately that are several "rules of thumb" which are enough for this class.

1. e^x , $\sin x$, $\cos x$ and polynomials are analytic for all x ; $\ln(1+x)$ is analytic for $|x| < 1$.
2. If $f(x)$ is analytic at x_0 and $g(x)$ is analytic at $f(x_0)$, then the composite function $g(f(x))$ is analytic at x_0 . For example, e^{x^2} is analytic everywhere.
3. If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are both analytic at x_0 , then $f \pm g$ and fg are analytic at x_0 ;
4. If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are analytic at x_0 and $g(x_0) \neq 0$, then $\frac{f}{g}$ is analytic at x_0 .