

Lecture 24

To begin, it may be helpful to make a few comments on the case of **regular singular points** before starting the next big topic of the course, namely the Laplace Transform.

If $x = x_0$ is a regular singular point of a linear, second order ODE

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

then we look for series solutions just like in the case of an ordinary point, but with a difference, namely we try

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

where r is a constant to be determined, which r need not be an integer, or even a rational number. (When r is not rational, it will be a quadratic irrational.) Assuming that the radius of convergence R (around x_0) is positive, we differentiate the series expression term by term (for x satisfying $|x - x_0| < R$) to get series expressions for y' and y'' . Plugging this information back in the differential equation, we get an identity of the form

$$x^r \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x - x_0)^n = 0,$$

where the coefficients c_n of the power series on the left are determined by the coefficients a_n of y (and hence of y', y'') as well as by $r, p(x), q(x)$. It follows that for such an identity to hold for all x close to x_0 , we need to have

$$c_n = 0, \quad \forall n \geq 0.$$

A key difference with the ordinary case occurs when we look at the condition $c_0 = 0$, because this leads to an equation for r , called the *indicial equation* associated to $(*)$, which will be a quadratic equation in r . In this course we will only look at the case when this has two distinct real roots, and moreover assume that the two roots do not differ by a integer. (As usual, it is more subtle when there is a repeated root, and even when the roots are not repeated, if they differ by a positive integer, we will not be able to find

easily a second series solution.) For an r satisfying the indicial equation, we may plug its value in and solve the equations $c_n = 0$ for all $n > 0$. This results, as in the ordinary case, a formula for the coefficients a_n , which can be used to find an explicit series solutions of (*).

Let us illustrate this by solving the following ODE:

$$(i) \quad x^2 y'' - (x+1)y = 0,$$

where $p(x) = 0$ and $q(x) = -(x+1)/x^2$. The only singular point of the ODE, given by looking at where the coefficient of y'' vanishes, is the point $x = 0$. Since $xp(x) = 0$ and $x^2q(x) = -x - 1$, both of which are obviously analytic, $x = 0$ is a regular singular point. So we try a series solution of the form

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

which we assume has a positive radius of convergence R . Then for $|x| < R$, we may differentiate (again and again) the series expression for y term by term. We get

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

Differentiating this again, and rearranging, we obtain

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

so that

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

Moreover,

$$(iii) \quad (x+1)y = x^r \sum_{n \geq 1} a_{n-1} x^n + \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n.$$

Plugging (ii) and (iii) back into (i) and rearranging,

$$x^r \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = 0,$$

where

$$c_0 = r(r-1) - 1,$$

and

$$(iv) \quad c_n = ((r-1+n)(r+n) - 1) a_n - a_{n-1}, \quad \forall n \geq 1.$$

We need to have $c_n = 0$ for all $n \geq 0$. Just from the $n = 0$ case, and assuming $a_0 \neq 0$, we get the indicial equation:

$$(r-1)r - 1 = 0,$$

whose solutions are

$$r_{\pm} = \frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2}.$$

Clearly, these are distinct roots, with $r_+ - r_- = \sqrt{5}$, which is not an integer.

Plugging in for r (and using (iv) in $c_n = 0$), we get for every $n \geq 1$,

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

which makes sense because the denominator is non-zero. (This is where we would run into a problem if the two roots differ by an integer.) It follows that

$$a_n = \left(\prod_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{(n-j+r+1)(n-j+r)} \right) a_0.$$

This leads to two series solutions with $a_0 = 1$:

$$y_{\pm} = x^{r_{\pm}} \left(1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n,\pm} x^n \right),$$

with

$$a_{n,\pm} = \prod_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{(n-j+r_{\pm}+1)(n-j+r_{\pm})}, \quad \forall n \geq 1.$$

(Check that these series have positive radius of convergence R . Is $R = \infty$?)

We claim that these two solutions are independent. Indeed, otherwise y_- would be a multiple of y_+ for all x near 0. Since they both have equal constant term (corresponding to $n = 0$ in the respective series), we must have an equality of the $n = 1$ term as well, which does not hold since $r_+ \neq r_-$. Hence the Claim.

Laplace Transform

Let f be a function on the half-open interval $[0, \infty) \subset \mathbb{R}$. Its *Laplace transform* is defined for $s > 0$ (when it makes sense) by

$$F(s) = \mathcal{L}(f(t)) = \int_0^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st} dt.$$

The integral on the right is an *improper integral* and hence is evaluated as the limit

$$\lim_{A \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^A f(t)e^{-st} dt.$$

Before looking at explicit examples, let us state the following without proof:

Theorem 1 *Suppose f is a function on $[0, \infty)$ satisfying the following:*

- (i) f is, for each $A > 0$, piecewise continuous on $[0, A]$; and
- (ii) f is a -nice for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$, i.e., there exist real numbers C, a, T with $C, T > 0$, such that

$$|f(t)| \leq Ce^{at}, \quad \forall t > T.$$

Then the Laplace transform $F(s)$ is defined for all positive $s > a$.

Recall that f is piecewise continuous on $[0, A]$ means we can partition the interval as

$$0 = b_0 < b_1 < \cdots < b_{n-1} < b_n = A,$$

for some $n > 0$, such that f is continuous on each subinterval $[b_{j-1}, b_j]$, for $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

The simplest example of a piecewise continuous function is a step function.

Remarks:

- (1) The reason for the hypothesis (i) (of Theorem 1) is this: *If f is a piecewise continuous function on a closed interval $[0, A]$, then we know (cf. Ma1a) that f is integrable there, and so is $f(t)e^{-st}$, which is also piecewise continuous. Thus at least $\int_0^A f(t)e^{-st}$ makes sense for such a function.*

(2) The reason for the hypothesis (ii) is this: We can write (for f a -nice):

$$\lim_{A \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^A f(t)e^{-st} = \int_0^T f(t)e^{-st} dt + \lim_{A \rightarrow \infty} \int_T^A f(t)e^{-st} dt,$$

and for $t > T$, $|f(t)e^{-st}|$ is less than or equal to $Ce^{(a-s)t}$, which goes to zero at $t \rightarrow \infty$ when $a - s < 0$, which makes $F(s)$ well defined.

(3) \mathcal{L} is a linear operator, i.e., for all f, g as in Theorem, and for all α, β scalars,

$$\mathcal{L}(\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha \mathcal{L}(f) + \beta \mathcal{L}(g).$$

(4) \mathcal{L} is a prime example of an *integral transform*. Other important examples are the *Fourier transform* and the *Mellin transform*. Also useful is the *discrete version* of the Laplace transform, called the z -transform, which associates to any sequence $\{f(n)\}$ the "transform": $\sum_n f(n)z^{-n}$, with z , resp. n , playing the role of e^s , resp. t .

Note that any bounded function on $[0, \infty)$, such as $\sin t$ or e^{-t} , satisfies (ii) with $a = 0$. Moreover, any polynomial, even a rational function, and $\ln x$, are a -nice for any $a > 0$, because any positive power of the exponential function dominates any such function as t goes to ∞ .

Examples:

(1) (*Heaviside function*) For any $c > 0$, define the associated simple step function u_c on $[0, \infty)$ by setting it to be 1 if $t \geq c$ and 0 if $0 \leq t < c$. Then f is evidently piecewise continuous and 0-nice, so that for all $s > 0$, we have

$$F(s) = \lim_{A \rightarrow \infty} \int_c^A e^{-st} dt = \frac{1}{s} \lim_{A \rightarrow \infty} (e^{-cs} - e^{-As}) = \frac{e^{-cs}}{s}.$$

(2) Put $f(t) = t/2$ if $t < \pi/2$, and $f(t) = \sin t$ if $t \geq \pi/2$. Note that f is then piecewise continuous and bounded (in fact with $|f(t)| \leq 1$), so its Laplace transform is well defined for all $s > 0$. Since $\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{t}{2} dt = \pi^2/4$, we have

$$\mathcal{L}(f(t)) = \frac{\pi^2}{4} + \lim_{A \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\pi/2}^A \sin t e^{-st} dt.$$

One solves the integral of $\sin t e^{-st}$ by integration by parts (using the methods of Ma1a).

Here is the reason why we need to bother with \mathcal{L} :

The Laplace transform converts differentiation into multiplication, up to an additional term involving the initial value.

Theorem 2 *Let f be differentiable with f, f' piecewise continuous and a -nice. Then we have, for all $s > a$,*

$$\mathcal{L}(f'(t)) = s\mathcal{L}(f(t)) - f(0).$$

More generally, for any $n \geq 1$, if f is n -times differentiable with all the derivatives $f^{(j)}$, for $0 \leq j \leq n$, satisfying the hypotheses of Theorem 1, we have

$$\mathcal{L}(f^{(n)}(t)) = s^n \mathcal{L}(f(t)) - s^{n-1} f'(0) - \dots - s f^{(n-2)}(0) - f^{(n-1)}(0).$$

Here is the reason: Since $f'(t)dt = d(f(t))$, we have by the integration by parts

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^A f'(t)e^{-st} dt &= f(t)e^{-st} \Big|_0^A - \int_0^A f(t)d(e^{-st}) \\ &= f(A)e^{-sA} + s \int_0^A f(t)e^{-st} dt, \end{aligned}$$

and since $|f(A)| \leq Ce^{aA}$ for large A , and since $e^{(a-s)A}$ goes to 0 as A goes to ∞ (by virtue of s being $> a$), we see, by taking the limits as $A \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\mathcal{L}(f'(t)) = -f(0) + s\mathcal{L}(f(t)),$$

as asserted. The generalization for any n follows the same way by repeated differentiation, and will be left as an exercise to check.

QED.