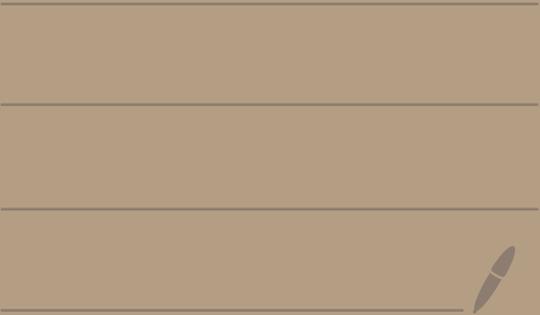


Math 2150-02

4/14/25



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TOPIC 12

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REVIEW

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TEST 2

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TOPIC 13

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TOPIC 13
(HAND BACK TESTS)

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REVIEW
FOR
FINAL

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FINAL
12-2

HW 11

1(g) Find the first few terms for the power series of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ centered at $x_0 = 1$

Use Taylor series

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2!}(x - x_0)^2 + \frac{f'''(x_0)}{3!}(x - x_0)^3$$

+ ...

Here $x_0 = 1$.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} = x^{-2} \quad \leftarrow f(1) = \frac{1}{1^2} = 1$$

$$f'(x) = -2x^{-3} = -\frac{2}{x^3} \quad \leftarrow f'(1) = \frac{-2}{(1)^3} = -2$$

$$f''(x) = 6x^{-4} \quad \leftarrow f''(1) = \frac{6}{(1)^4} = 6$$
$$= \frac{6}{x^4}$$

$$f'''(x) = -24x^{-5} \quad \leftarrow f'''(1) = \frac{-24}{(1)^5} = -24$$
$$= -\frac{24}{x^5}$$

Plug into Taylor's series formula :

$$f(x) = 1 - 2(x-1) + \frac{6}{2!}(x-1)^2$$
$$- \frac{24}{3!}(x-1)^3 + \dots$$

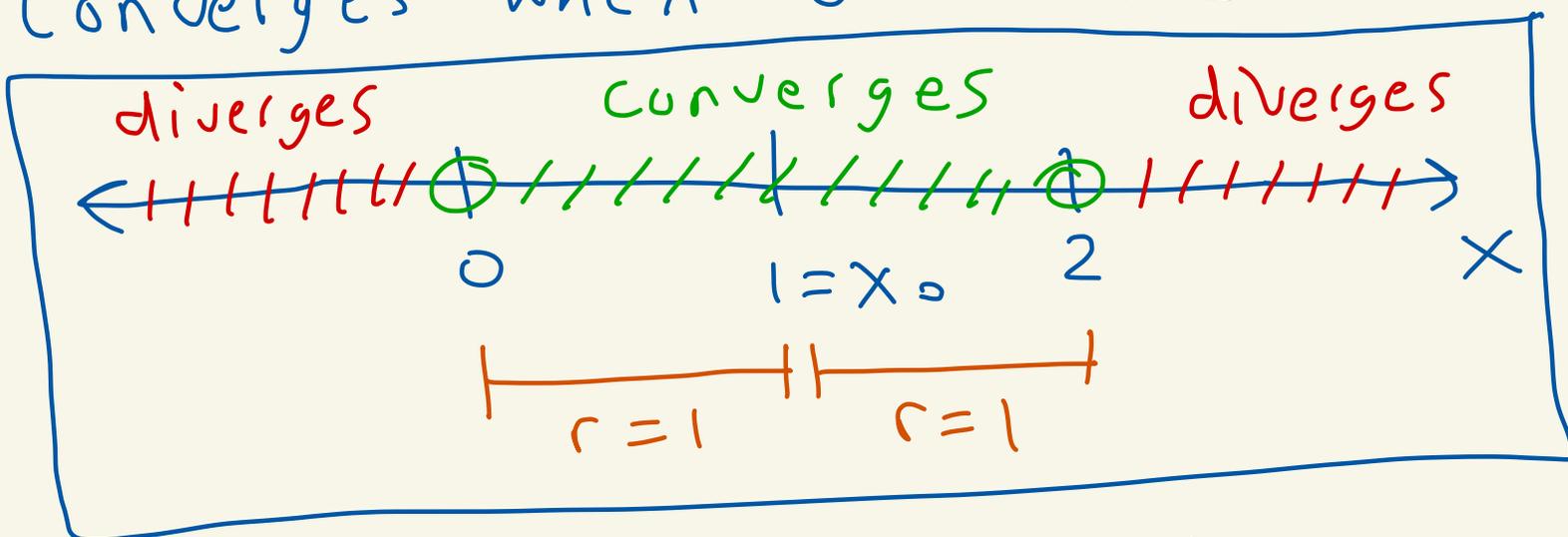
$$= 1 - 2(x-1) + 3(x-1)^2 - 4(x-1)^3 + \dots$$

This method though doesn't provide the radius of convergence.

Last time we saw that:

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

Converges when $0 < x < 2$



radius of convergence $r = 1$.

Differentiate both sides above and the radius of convergence stays the same at $r = 1$.

$$-\frac{1}{x^2} = 0 - 1 + 2(x-1) - 3(x-1)^2 + \dots$$

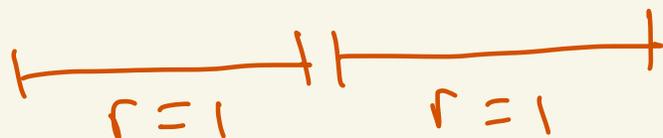
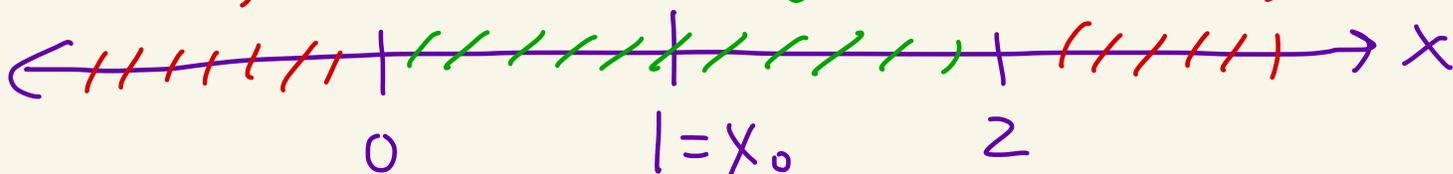
derivative
of $\frac{1}{x} = x^{-1}$

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

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

radius of convergence $r = 1$.

diverges converges diverges



Topic 12 — Power series solutions of ODE

Def: We say that a function $f(x)$ is analytic at x_0

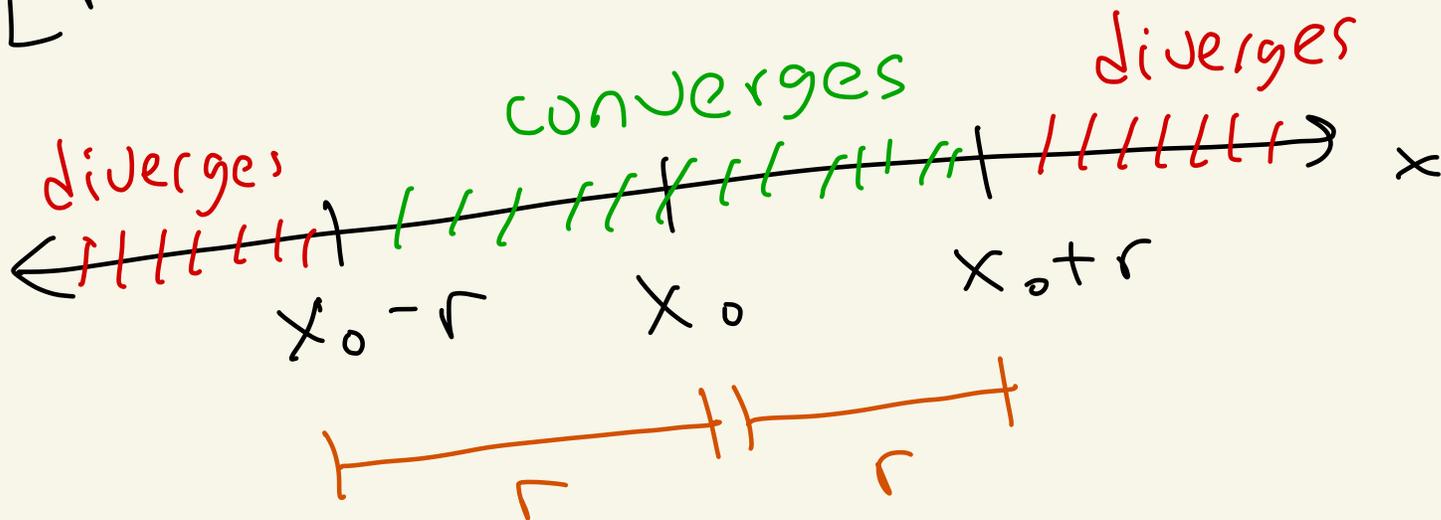
if it has a power series

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

centered at x_0 with

a radius of convergence $r > 0$

[$r = \infty$ is allowed]



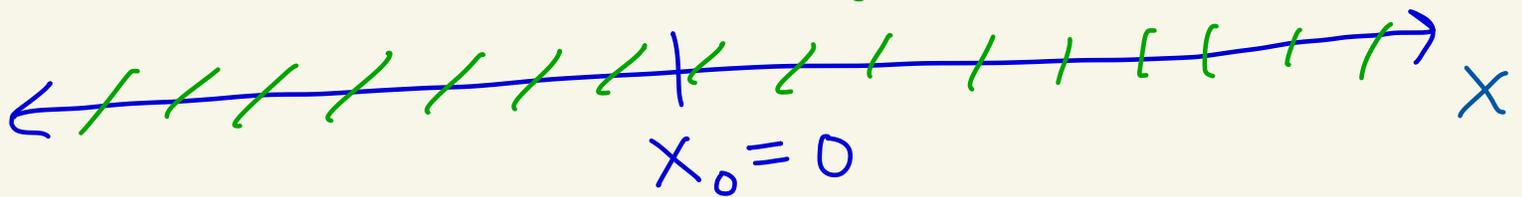
Ex: $f(x) = e^x$ is analytic at $x_0 = 0$ because

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

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

has radius of convergence $r = \infty$.

converges



Ex: $g(x) = x^2$ is analytic at

$x_0 = 2$ because

$$x^2 = 4 + 4(x-2) + (x-2)^2 \quad \left. \vphantom{x^2} \right\} \text{last week}$$

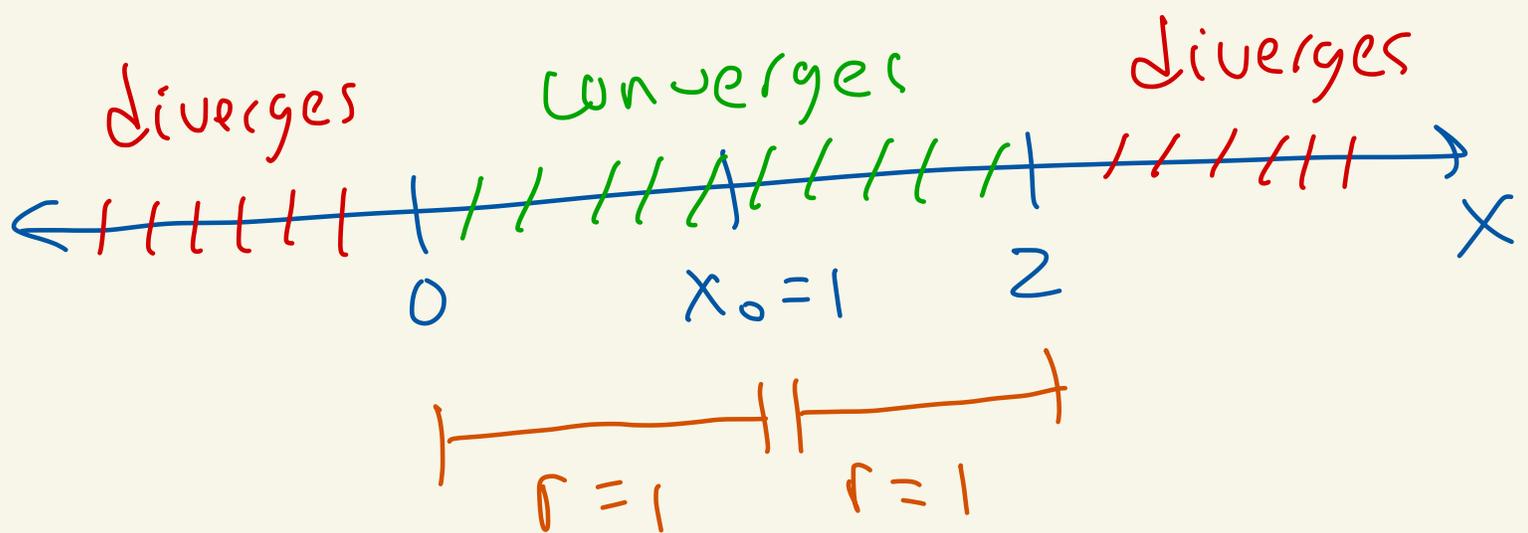
has radius of convergence $r = \infty$

Ex: $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ is analytic

at $x_0 = 1$ because

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

has radius of convergence $r = 1$.



Facts:

- polynomials are analytic at every x_0
- e^x , $\sin(x)$, $\cos(x)$ are analytic at every x_0
- $\tan(x)$, $\sec(x)$, $\csc(x)$ are analytic at any x_0 except at their asymptotes
- rational functions (ratios of polynomials) are analytic at every x_0 except possibly where the denominator is zero.

Ex:

$$x^2 + 5x - 2$$

$$e^x$$

$$\sin(x)$$

$$\cos(x)$$

} all
analytic
for any
 x_0

Ex:

$$\frac{x}{x^2 - 1}$$

rational
function

is analytic at
all x_0 except

$$x_0 = 1, -1$$

when

$$x^2 - 1 = 0$$

Main Theorem

Consider either of the initial value problems:

$$y' + a_0(x)y = b(x)$$
$$y(x_0) = y_0$$

first order

OR

$$y'' + a_1(x)y' + a_0(x)y = b(x)$$
$$y'(x_0) = y'_0, y(x_0) = y_0$$

second order

In either case, if the $a_i(x)$ and $b(x)$ are analytic at x_0 then there is a unique power series solution

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

centered at x_0 .

Furthermore, the radius of convergence $r > 0$ for the

power series of $y(x)$ is at least the smallest radius of convergence from amongst the $a_i(x)$ and $b(x)$.