

Examples

① 1] $(1-x^2)u'' - 2xu' + \lambda u = 0$ (1)

To be self-adjoint, the equation should have the form

$$(pu')' - qu + \lambda pu = 0,$$

or $pu'' + p'u' - qu + \lambda pu = 0.$

Note: $(1-x^2)' = -2x$, so Eq.(1) is self-adjoint. It can immediately be written as

$$\underbrace{((1-x^2)u')} + \lambda u = 0$$

$p(x) = 1-x^2$, $q=0$, $\underline{p=1}$ is the weight function

2] $xu'' + (1-x)u' + \lambda u = 0$ (2)

this is not equal to x'

To transform into the self-adjoint form, multiply (2) by $R(x)$:

$$R(x)xu'' + R(x)(1-x)u' + \lambda R(x)u = 0.$$

We require that

$$(R(x)x)' = R(x)(1-x)$$

$$R'x + R = R - Rx$$

$$R'x = -Rx$$

$$\frac{dR}{dx} = -R$$

$$\int \frac{dR}{R} = -\int dx$$

$$\ln R = -x \Rightarrow \underline{R = e^{-x}}$$

[Note: when finding R , we can choose the arbitrary constant in the indefinite integrals arbitrarily, e.g. equal to zero.] (2)

Multiplying (2) by $R(x) = e^{-x}$, we have:

$$e^{-x} x u'' + e^{-x} (1-x) u' + \lambda e^{-x} u = 0$$

$$\underbrace{(e^{-x} x u')}_{p(x)}' + \lambda e^{-x} u = 0$$

$q(x) = 0$ \leftarrow $\rho(x) = e^{-x}$ is the weight function

(2) (a) $u = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k$

$$u' = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k x^{k-1}$$

$$u'' = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k(k-1) x^{k-2}$$

Note: $k=0$ and $k=1$ terms are zero in this sum.

Substituting this into

$$(1-x^2)u'' - 2xu' + \lambda u = 0,$$

we obtain:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1-x^2) a_k k(k-1) x^{k-2} - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2x a_k k x^{k-1} + \lambda \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k = 0$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k(k-1) x^{k-2} - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k(k-1) x^k - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2a_k k x^k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda a_k x^k = 0$$

In this sum, replace:

$$k-2 \rightarrow k$$

$$k \rightarrow k+1$$

$$k \rightarrow k+2$$

After this, all sums contain x^k and we can write the above expression as a single sum, and factorise out x^k :

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} [a_{k+2} (k+2)(k+1) - a_k k(k-1) - 2a_k k + \lambda a_k] x^k = 0$$

Hence, the expression in square brackets must (3) be zero:

$$a_{k+2}(k+1)(k+2) - a_k k(k+1) + \lambda a_k = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a_{k+2} = - \frac{\lambda - k(k+1)}{(k+1)(k+2)} a_k, \quad (1)$$

the recurrence relation for the coefficients.

If we start from a_0 , it gives a_2, a_4, \dots

If we start from $a_1 \neq 0$, it gives a_3, a_5, \dots

(b) For the sum $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k$ to be a polynomial,

all coefficients starting from a certain highest nonzero a_n should vanish. This can

be achieved if $\lambda = n(n+1)$, where n is a non-negative integer, $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

In this case $a_{n+2} = 0$, and so are all higher a_k . The choice of the smallest nonzero coefficient (a_0 for even n and a_1 for odd n) is a matter of convention.

Note that if $\lambda \neq n(n+1)$ then the series is infinite. For large k , $k(k+1) \gg \lambda$,

and (1) becomes:

$$a_{k+2} \approx \frac{k(k+1)}{(k+1)(k+2)} a_k$$

$$\approx a_k$$

($k \gg 1$, so that $\frac{k}{k+2} \approx 1$).

Hence, the higher k part of the series (4) behaves as :

$$u = \text{const} (\dots + x^k + x^{k+2} + x^{k+4} + \dots),$$

i.e. behaves as a geometric series.

Its sum is proportional to $\frac{1}{1-x^2}$,

so that $u \approx \frac{1}{1-x^2}$.

Therefore, such solutions diverge at the ends of the interval $[-1, 1]$.

(Since $p = 1-x^2$ vanishes at $x = \pm 1$, we are dealing with a singular Sturm-Liouville problem.) Hence, by requiring that the solution is finite we select $\lambda = n(n+1)$.

The polynomials obtained in this way are orthogonal to each other (with the weight $\rho=1$) on the interval $[-1, 1]$,^{*} and are in fact identical to the Legendre polynomials (if we choose a_0 or a_1 in a suitable way), for

which
$$\int_{-1}^1 P_m(x) P_n(x) dx = 0 \quad (m \neq n).$$

^{*}) This is a property of the eigenfunctions of the Sturm-Liouville problem for the equation $((1-x^2)u')' + \lambda u = 0$.

(c) According to Rodrigues' formula, (5)

$$P_n(x) = \frac{1}{2^n n!} \frac{d^n (x^2-1)^n}{dx^n}$$

Let us verify that this polynomial satisfies

$$(1-x^2) P_n'' - 2x P_n' + n(n+1) P_n = 0 \quad (*)$$

Consider $v = (x^2-1)^n$, $P_n(x) = \frac{1}{2^n n!} v^{(n)}$.

$$v' = n(x^2-1)^{n-1} 2x$$

$$(x^2-1)v' = n(x^2-1)^n 2x$$

$$(x^2-1)v' = 2xn v$$

Note: $P_n(x)$
and $v^{(n)}$ satisfies
the same equation
 $v^{(n)}$ - nth derivative
of v .

Differentiating this equation:

$$2x v' + (x^2-1)v'' = 2nv + 2xn v'$$

$$(x^2-1)v'' = 2nv + 2x(n-1)v'$$

Differentiating again:

$$2x v'' + (x^2-1)v''' = 2n v' + 2(n-1)v' + 2x(n-1)v''$$

$$(k=1) \quad (x^2-1)v''' = (4n-2)v' + 2x(n-2)v''$$

And again:

$$2x v''' + (x^2-1)v^{(4)} = (4n-2)v'' + 2(n-2)v'' + 2x(n-2)v''$$

$$(k=2) \quad (x^2-1)v^{(4)} = (6n-6)v'' + 2x(n-3)v''$$

Noticing the pattern, we see that after $k-2$ more differentiations, we will obtain:

$$(x^2-1)v^{(k+2)} = [2(k+1)n - k(k+1)]v^{(k)} + 2x(n-k-1)v^{(k)}$$

For $k=n$ this gives:

$$(x^2-1)v^{(n+2)} = [2(n+1)n - n(n+1)]v^{(n)} + 2x(n-n-1)v^{(n)}$$

or: $(x^2-1)(v^{(n)})'' + 2x(v^{(n)})' - n(n+1)v^{(n)} = 0$,

and multiplying by -1 , we obtain Eq. (*), as required

③ (a) $xu'' + (1-x)u' + \lambda u = 0$ (6)

$$u = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k, \quad u' = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k x^{k-1}, \quad u'' = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k(k-1) x^{k-2}$$

Substituting into the equation:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k(k-1) x^{k-1} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1-x) a_k k x^{k-1} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda a_k x^k = 0$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k(k-1) x^{k-1} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k x^{k-1} - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k x^k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda a_k x^k = 0$$

joining these

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k^2 x^{k-1} - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k k x^k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda a_k x^k = 0$$

Replace: $k-1 \rightarrow k$
 $k \rightarrow k+1$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (a_{k+1}(k+1)^2 - a_k k + \lambda a_k) x^k = 0$$

must be equal to zero

$$\Rightarrow a_{k+1} = - \frac{\lambda - k}{(k+1)^2} a_k$$

Starting from $k=0$, $a_0 \neq 0$, we can use the recurrence relation to generate a_1, a_2, \dots

(b) The solution will be a polynomial if the coefficients vanish, starting from a certain point. This will happen if $\lambda = n$, where n is a non-negative integer, $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Then a_n will be the highest nonzero coefficients, and $a_{n+1} = a_{n+2} = \dots = 0$.

What if $\lambda \neq n$? The set of coefficients (7) will be infinite. For $k \gg n$, the recurrence relation takes the form:

$$a_{k+1} \approx \frac{k}{(k+1)^2} a_k$$

$$\approx \frac{a_k}{k+1}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \frac{k}{k+1} \approx 1 \\ \text{for } k \gg 1. \end{array} \right\}$$

Hence, for high k the series has the form:

$$u \approx \text{const} \left[\dots + \frac{x^k}{k!} + \frac{x^{k+1}}{(k+1)!} + \frac{x^{k+2}}{(k+2)!} + \dots \right]$$

(where we wrote $a_k = \frac{\text{const}}{k!}$, for convenience).

In this series we recognise the same pattern as in

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

Hence, the solution for $\lambda \neq n$ behaves

as $u \approx e^x$, i.e. diverges strongly at $x \rightarrow \infty$.

From the self-adjoint form of the equation (see (1)),

$$(x e^{-x} u')' + \lambda e^{-x} u = 0,$$

we notice that the solutions (eigenfunctions) must be orthogonal with the weight function e^{-x} on $[0, +\infty)$,

$$\int_0^{\infty} u_m(x) u_n(x) e^{-x} dx = 0 \quad (m \neq n)$$

Clearly, this integral would diverge if the functions behaved as $u \sim e^x$. Hence, integer values only, $\lambda = n$, $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ must be used.