

Linear Equations with Variable Coefficients

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A linear differential equation of order n with variable coefficients is an equation of the form:

$$a_0(x) y^{(n)} + a_1(x) y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_n(x) y = b(x).$$

where a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are complex-valued functions on some real interval I .

For some points $x \in I$, $a_0(x) = 0$, such points are called singular points. We consider this special case in the next chapter.

Therefore in this chapter we assume that $a_0(x) \neq 0$ on I . (ie for all points $x \in I$, $a_0(x) \neq 0$.)

So we can safely divide by $a_0(x)$.

$$y^{(n)} + \frac{a_1(x)}{a_0(x)} y^{(n-1)} + \dots + \frac{a_n(x)}{a_0(x)} y = \frac{b(x)}{a_0(x)} \quad (2)$$

For simplicity we again consider the coefficients as $a_1(x), \dots, a_n(x)$ and the RHS as $b(x)$:

$$y^{(n)} + a_1(x) y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_n(x) y = b(x)$$

In the operator form we write as

$$\mathcal{L}(y) = b(x)$$

If $b(x) \equiv 0 \quad \forall x \in I$ we say $\mathcal{L}(y) = 0$ is a homogeneous eqn.

If $b(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in I$, the eqn $\mathcal{L}(y) = b(x)$ is a nonhomogeneous eqn.

Definition of a solution to the linear equation of order 'n': We say a

function ϕ is a solution if ϕ is differentiable n times on I and ϕ satisfies the equation - $\mathcal{L}(\phi) = b(x)$.

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$$\mathcal{L}: C^n(I) \longrightarrow C(I).$$

$$\phi \longmapsto \mathcal{L}(\phi).$$

(Space of n times continuously differentiable functions.)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\phi)(x) = & \phi^{(n)}(x) + a_1(x) \phi^{(n-1)}(x) \\ & + \dots + a_n(x) \phi(x). \end{aligned}$$

In this chapter we assume that the complex-valued functions a_1, \dots, a_n, b are continuous on some real interval I .

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Most of the results we developed in the previous chapter for the case when a_1, \dots, a_n are constants continue to be valid in the more general case we are now considering.

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The major difficulty with linear equations with variable coefficients, from a practical point of view, is that it is rare that we can solve the equations in terms of elementary functions, such as the exponential and trigonometric functions. Thus there is no analogue of the rather powerful Theorem 11 of the previous chapter.

However, in case a_1, \dots, a_n, b have convergent power series expansions the solutions will have this property also, and these series solutions can be obtained by a simple formal process.

Although in many cases it is not possible to express a solution of

$$y^{(n)} + a_1(x)y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_n(x)y' = b(x)$$

in terms of elementary functions, it can be proved that solutions always exist.

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Existence of solution of Initial value problem (IVP) :

Theorem 1: Let $a_1(x), \dots, a_n(x)$ be continuous functions on an interval I containing the point x_0 . If $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ are any n constants, there exists a solution of

$$L(y) = y^{(n)} + a_1(x)y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_n(x)y = 0$$

on I satisfying

$$\phi(x_0) = \alpha_1, \quad \phi'(x_0) = \alpha_2, \quad \dots, \quad \phi^{(n-1)}(x_0) = \alpha_n$$

Now we assume this result and prove in the forthcoming chapter on system of equations.

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Just as in the case where the coefficients a_j ($j=1, \dots, n$) are constants, the uniqueness of the solution ϕ given in Theorem 1 is demonstrated with the aid of an estimate for

$$\|\phi(x)\|^2 = |\phi(x)|^2 + |\phi'(x)|^2 + \dots + |\phi^{(n-1)}(x)|^2$$

Theorem 2: Let b_1, \dots, b_n be non-negative constants such that for all x in I

$$|a_j(x)| \leq b_j, \quad (j=1, \dots, n),$$

and define k by

$$k = 1 + b_1 + \dots + b_n.$$

If x_0 is a point in I , and ϕ is a solution of $\mathcal{L}(y) = 0$ on I , then

$$\|\phi(x_0)\| e^{-k|x-x_0|} \leq \|\phi(x)\| \leq \|\phi(x_0)\| e^{k|x-x_0|}$$

for all x in I .

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Proof: Since $\mathcal{L}(\phi) = 0$ we have

$$\phi^{(n)}(x) = -a_1(x)\phi^{(n-1)}(x) - \dots - a_n(x)\phi(x),$$

and therefore:

$$|\phi^{(n)}(x)| \leq |a_1(x)| |\phi^{(n-1)}(x)| + \dots + |a_n(x)| |\phi(x)| \\ \leq b_1 |\phi^{(n-1)}(x)| + \dots + b_n |\phi(x)|.$$

The proof of Theorem 13, of the previous chapter, now applies if we substitute b_j , everywhere in place of $|a_j|$.

We remark that if I is a closed and bounded interval, that is of the form $a \leq x \leq b$, with a, b real, and if the a_j are continuous on I , then there always exist finite constants b_j such that $|a_j(x)| \leq b_j$ on I .

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⑧

Uniqueness Theorem (Theorem 3):

Let x_0 be in I , and let $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ be any n constants. There is at most one solution ϕ of $\mathcal{L}(y) = 0$ on I satisfying:

$$\textcircled{*} \leftarrow \phi(x_0) = \alpha_1, \phi'(x_0) = \alpha_2, \dots, \phi^{(n-1)}(x_0) = \alpha_n$$

Proof: Let ϕ, ψ be two solutions of $\mathcal{L}(y) = 0$ on I satisfying the conditions $\textcircled{*}$ at x_0 , and consider

$$\chi = \phi - \psi. \text{ We wish to prove } \chi(x) \equiv 0.$$

Even though the functions a_j are continuous on I they need not be bounded there. For eg: $a_1(x) = x$ is not bounded on $0 \leq x < \infty$; and $a_1(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ is not bounded on $0 < x \leq 1$.

Therefore we can not apply Theorem 2 directly. However, let x be any point on I other than x_0 , and let J be any closed bounded interval in I

which contains x_0 and x . On this interval ⁽⁹⁾ the functions a_j are bounded, that is

$$|a_j(x)| \leq b_j, \quad (j=1, 2, \dots, n),$$

on J for some constants b_j , which may depend on J . Now we apply Theorem 2 to X defined on J . We have $L(X) = 0$ on J , and $\|X(x_0)\| = 0$. Therefore

$$\|X(x)\| = 0, \text{ and hence } \phi(x) = \psi(x).$$

Since x was chosen to be any point in I other than x_0 , we have proved $\phi(x) = \psi(x)$ for all x in I .

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If ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_m are any m solutions of the n -th order equation $L(y) = 0$, on an interval I , and c_1, \dots, c_m are any m constants, then

$$L(c_1\phi_1 + \dots + c_m\phi_m) = c_1 L(\phi_1) + \dots + c_m L(\phi_m),$$

which implies that $c_1\phi_1 + \dots + c_m\phi_m$ is also a solution.

As in the case of an \mathcal{L} with constant coefficients, every solution of $\mathcal{L}(y) = 0$ is a linear combination of any n linearly independent solutions.

Using Theorem 1 we construct n linearly independent solutions, and show that every solution is a linear combination of these. In the next section we show that every solution is a linear combination of any n linearly independent solutions.

Theorem 4: There exist n linearly independent solutions of $\mathcal{L}(y) = 0$ on I .

Proof: Let x_0 be a point in I .

According to Theorem 1 there is a solution ϕ_1 of $\mathcal{L}(y) = 0$ satisfying

$$\phi_1(x_0) = 1, \phi_1'(x_0) = 0, \dots, \phi_1^{(n-1)}(x_0) = 0.$$

In general for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

there is a solution ϕ_i satisfying $\textcircled{11}$

$$\phi_i^{(i-1)}(x_0) = 1, \quad \phi_i^{(j-1)}(x_0) = 0, \quad j \neq i.$$

The solutions ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_n are linearly independent on I , for suppose there are constants c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n such that

$$\textcircled{*} \quad \leftarrow c_1 \phi_1(x) + c_2 \phi_2(x) + \dots + c_n \phi_n(x) = 0$$

for all x in I . Differentiating we see that

$$\textcircled{**} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} c_1 \phi_1'(x) + c_2 \phi_2'(x) + \dots + c_n \phi_n'(x) = 0 \\ c_1 \phi_1''(x) + c_2 \phi_2''(x) + \dots + c_n \phi_n''(x) = 0 \\ \vdots \\ c_1 \phi_1^{(n-1)}(x) + c_2 \phi_2^{(n-1)}(x) + \dots + c_n \phi_n^{(n-1)}(x) = 0. \end{array} \right.$$

In particular, the equations $\textcircled{*}$ & $\textcircled{**}$ must hold at x_0 . Putting $x = x_0$ in $\textcircled{*}$

$$\text{we find that } c_1 \cdot 1 + 0 + \dots + 0 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow c_1 = 0.$$

Putting $x = x_0$ in the equations $\textcircled{**}$

$$\text{we obtain } c_2 = c_3 = \dots = c_n = 0.$$

and thus the solutions ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_n are linearly independent.

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Theorem 5: Let ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_n be the n solutions of $\mathcal{L}(y) = 0$ on I satisfying

$$\phi_i^{(i-1)}(x_0) = 1, \quad \phi_i^{(j-1)}(x_0) = 0, \quad j \neq i.$$

$$\phi_i^{(j-1)}(x_0) = \delta_{ij} \text{ (Kronecker delta).}$$

If ϕ is any solution of $\mathcal{L}(y) = 0$ on I , there are n constants c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n such that

$$\phi = c_1 \phi_1 + \dots + c_n \phi_n.$$

Proof: Let

$\phi(x_0) = \alpha_1, \phi'(x_0) = \alpha_2, \dots, \phi^{(n-1)}(x_0) = \alpha_n$
and consider the function

$$\psi = \alpha_1 \phi_1 + \alpha_2 \phi_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \phi_n$$

It is a solution of $\mathcal{L}(y) = 0$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{clearly } \psi(x_0) &= \alpha_1 \phi_1(x_0) + \alpha_2 \phi_2(x_0) + \dots \\ &\quad + \alpha_n \phi_n(x_0) \\ &= \alpha_1, \end{aligned}$$

Similarly we get $\psi'(x_0) = \alpha_2$

$$\vdots$$

$$\psi^{(n-1)}(x_0) = \alpha_n.$$

Thus ψ is a solution of $\mathcal{L}(y)=0$ having the same initial conditions at x_0 as ϕ . By Theorem 3, we must have $\phi = \psi$, that is

$$\phi = \alpha_1 \phi_1 + \alpha_2 \phi_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \phi_n$$

we have proved the theorem with the constants

$$C_1 = \alpha_1, C_2 = \alpha_2, \dots, C_n = \alpha_n.$$

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The Wronskian and linear independence

Theorem 6: If ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_n are n solutions of $\mathcal{L}(y)=0$ on I , they are linearly independent there if and only if

$$W(\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n)(x) \neq 0 \quad \forall x \in I.$$