

# 1 Differential operator (2.3)

In operational calculus, an **operator** is a transformation that transforms a function into another function. Hence, differential calculus involves an operator, the **differential operator**  $D$ , which transforms a (differentiable) function into its derivative. In operator notation we write:

$$Dy(x) = y'(x) = \frac{dy}{dx}$$

Double  $D$  allows to obtain the second derivative of the function  $y(x)$ :

$$D^2y(x) = D(Dy(x)) = Dy'(x) = y''(x).$$

Similarly, the  $n^{th}$  power of  $D$  leads to the  $n^{th}$  derivative:

$$D^n y(x) = y^{(n)}(x)$$

Here we assume that the function  $y(x)$  is  $n$  times differentiable.

So, a homogeneous linear ODE of second order of the form  $y'' + ay' + by = 0$  can be represented as

$$\begin{aligned} D^2y + aDy + by &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow (D^2 + aD + bI)y &= 0, \quad \text{where } I \text{ is the identity operator defined as } Iy = y \\ \Rightarrow P(D)y &= 0, \quad \text{where } P(D) = D^2 + aD + bI \end{aligned}$$

We call  $P(D)$  a **second-order differential operator**.

**Example 1** a.  $(D^2 - 3D)(e^{2x}) = D^2(e^{2x}) - 3D(e^{2x}) = 4e^{2x} - 6e^{2x} = -2e^{2x}$ .

b.  $(D + 11I)(x \sin x) = D(x \sin x) + 11I(x \sin x) = x \cos x + \sin x + 11x \sin x = x(\cos x + 11 \sin x) + \sin x$ .

c.  $(D - I)(2D + I) \sinh 3x = (2D^2 - D - I) \sinh 3x = 2D^2 \sinh 3x - D \sinh 3x - I \sinh 3x = 18 \sinh 3x - 3 \cosh 3x - \sinh 3x = 17 \sinh 3x - 3 \cosh 3x$ .

**Example 2** Solve  $(4D^2 - I)y = 0$  by using factorization of  $P(D) = 4D^2 - I$ .

*Solution:* The given equation can be written as

$$(2D - I)(2D + I)y = 0$$

Now, we have two different equations

$$\begin{aligned} (2D + I)y &= 0 \\ \text{and } (2D - I)y &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The first equation is nothing but a first order linear ODE. The solution is  $y = e^{-0.5x}$  (verify!!!). Similarly, for the second equation the solution is  $y = e^{0.5x}$  (verify!!!)

Since the solutions are linearly independent, the general solution is

$$y = c_1 e^{-0.5x} + c_2 e^{0.5x}.$$

**Note1:** If the factors of  $P(D)$  are repeated then the above method is not that much useful.

**Note2:** If it is only the matter to solve the problem, then one can use the techniques of Section 2.2.

## 2 Euler–Cauchy Equations (2.5)

Euler–Cauchy equations are ODEs of the form

$$x^2 y'' + axy' + by = 0 \quad (1)$$

with given constants  $a$  and  $b$  and unknown function  $y(x)$ . To find the general solution of it, we naturally choose a solution of the form

$$y = x^m. \quad (2)$$

Substituting (2) in equation (1) we get the **auxiliary equation**

$$m(m-1) + am + b = 0.$$

or,

$$m^2 + (a-1)m + b = 0. \quad (3)$$

Let  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  be the roots of (3). There are three different cases on which the general solution of (1) depends and which are as follows

Case I: ( $m_1$  and  $m_2$  are real and distinct) General solution is

$$y = c_1 x^{m_1} + c_2 x^{m_2}$$

Case II: ( $m_1$  and  $m_2$  are real and equal) General solution is

$$y = (c_1 + c_2 \ln x) x^{m_1}$$

Case III: ( $m_1$  and  $m_2$  are complex) Since complex roots occur in conjugate pair, we consider  $m_1 = p + \iota q$  and  $m_2 = p - \iota q$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are real numbers. Then the general solution is

$$y = x^p (c_1 \cos(q \ln x) + c_2 \sin(q \ln x))$$

**Example 3** Solve  $(x^2 D^2 - 4xD + 6I)y = 0$

*Solution:* Let  $y = x^m$  be a trial solution. Then the auxiliary equation is

$$\begin{aligned} m(m-1) - 4m + 6 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow m^2 - 5m + 6 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow (m-2)(m-3) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow m &= 2, 3 \end{aligned}$$

Since the roots are real and distinct, by Case I we have the general solution

$$y = c_1 x^2 + c_2 x^3,$$

where  $c_1, c_2$  are arbitrary constants.

**Example 4** Solve  $(x^2 D^2 - 3xD + 4I)y = 0$

*Solution:* Let  $y = x^m$  be a trial solution. Then the auxiliary equation is

$$\begin{aligned} m(m-1) - 3m + 4 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow m^2 - 4m + 4 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow (m-2)^2 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow m &= 2, 2 \end{aligned}$$

Since the roots are real and equal, by Case II we have the general solution

$$y = (c_1 + c_2 \ln x) x^2,$$

where  $c_1, c_2$  are arbitrary constants.

### 3 Existence and Uniqueness of Solutions. Wronskian (2.6)

In this section we shall discuss the general theory of homogeneous linear ODEs

$$y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0 \quad (4)$$

with continuous, but otherwise arbitrary, variable coefficients  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$ . This will concern the existence and form of a general solution of (4) as well as the uniqueness of the solution of initial value problems consisting of such an ODE with two initial conditions

$$y(x_0) = K_0, \quad y'(x_0) = K_1 \quad (5)$$

with given  $x_0$ ,  $K_0$  and  $K_1$ .

**Theorem 1 (Existence and Uniqueness Theorem for Initial Value Problems)** *If  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are continuous functions on some open interval  $I$  and  $x_0$  is in  $I$ , then the initial value problem consisting of (4) and (5) has a unique solution on the interval  $I$ .*

#### 3.1 Linear Independence of Solutions

Let  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  be two solutions of (4) on an open interval  $I$ . We call  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  **linearly independent** on  $I$  if the equation

$$c_1y_1 + c_2y_2 = 0 \text{ on } I \text{ has the only solution } c_1 = 0 \text{ and } c_2 = 0$$

We call  $y_1, y_2$  **linearly dependent** on  $I$  if this equation also holds for constants  $c_1, c_2$  not both 0.

Also, in another way we can say if there exists some constant  $k \neq 0$  for which  $y_2 = ky_1$ , then  $y_1, y_2$  are linearly dependent.

**Note:** If solutions  $y_1, y_2$  are linearly independent, then the set  $\{y_1, y_2\}$  is called **basis of solutions** of (4).

**Theorem 2 (Wronskian)** *Let the ODE (4) have continuous coefficients  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  on an open interval  $I$ . Then two solutions  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  of (4) on  $I$  are linearly dependent on  $I$  if and only if their "Wronskian"*

$$W(y_1, y_2) = \begin{vmatrix} y_1 & y_2 \\ y_1' & y_2' \end{vmatrix} = y_1y_2' - y_1'y_2$$

*is 0 at some  $x_0$  in  $I$ . Furthermore, if  $W(y_1, y_2) = 0$  at an  $x = x_0$  in  $I$ , then  $W(y_1, y_2) = 0$  on  $I$ ; hence, if there is an  $x_1$  in  $I$  at which  $W(y_1, y_2)$  is not 0, then  $y_1, y_2$  are linearly independent on  $I$ .*

#### 3.2 A general solution of (4)

**Theorem 3 (Existence of a General Solution)** *If  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are continuous on an open interval  $I$ , then (4) has a general solution on  $I$ .*

**Theorem 4** *If the ODE (4) has continuous coefficients  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  on some open interval  $I$ , then every solution of (4) on  $I$  is of the form*

$$y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2$$

*where  $\{y_1, y_2\}$  is any basis of solutions of (4) on  $I$  and  $c_1, c_2$  are suitable constants.*

**Example 5** *We see that  $W(x, \frac{1}{x}) = \begin{vmatrix} x & \frac{1}{x} \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{x^2} \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x} = -\frac{2}{x} \neq 0$ . So, the set  $\{x, \frac{1}{x}\}$  is linearly independent.*

**Example 6** *We see that  $W(2x, 3x) = \begin{vmatrix} 2x & 3x \\ 2 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 0$ . So, the set  $\{2x, 3x\}$  is linearly dependent.*

**Note:** *One can check that  $2x = (\frac{2}{3})3x$ . It also implies that the set  $\{2x, 3x\}$  is linearly dependent.*