# <u>Part B</u> - Qualitative analysis by separation and comparison theorems

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## Qualitative behavior of solutions

- Exact analytical solutions of second-order differential equations can be obtained only for specific cases.
- Many important equations, however, cannot be solved explicitly...
- > A few examples:

Airy equation 
$$y'' - x \cdot y = 0$$

(Light diffraction through a circular aperture)

Bessel equation

$$x^2 \cdot y'' + x \cdot y' + (x^2 - v^2) \cdot y = 0$$

(vibrations modes of circular membrane)





<u>Legendre equation</u>  $(1-x^2) \cdot y'' - 2x \cdot y' + l \cdot (l+1) \cdot y = 0$ 

(Heat conduction and electrostatics in spherical coordinates)

<u>Instead</u> - we seek for <u>qualitative characteristics</u> that are of importance from the point of view of physical applications



#### (I) Qualitative analysis via the separation theorem

#### Theorem 5 - Sturm separation theorem

$$L[y] = y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0 a \le x \le b \equiv \Delta$$

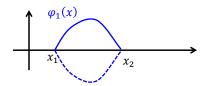
Let  $\varphi_1(x)$  and  $\varphi_2(x)$  be linearly independent solutions of L[y]=0 on an interval  $\Delta$  .

Then, between two <u>successive zeroes</u> of  $\varphi_1(x)$  there exists <u>exactly one</u> zero of  $\varphi_2(x)$ .

Meaning: the zeroes of  $\varphi_1(x)$  and  $\varphi_2(x)$  occur alternatively.

#### Proof:

Let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be <u>succesive zeroes</u> of  $\varphi_1(x)$ , i.e.  $\varphi_1(x_1) = \varphi_1(x_2) = 0$ :

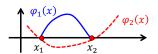


Note that  $\varphi_1(x)$ , can be either positive or negative between these zeroes  $(x_1 < x < x_2)$ .

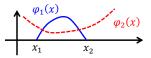
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#### Four possibilities for $\varphi_2(x)$

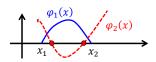
<u>Case I:</u>  $\varphi_2(x)$  <u>vanishes</u> at  $x_1$  or/and  $x_2$ .



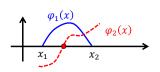
<u>Case II:</u>  $\varphi_2(x)$  <u>doesn't vanish</u> at  $x_1 \le x \le x_2$ .



<u>Case III:</u>  $\varphi_2(x)$  vanishes <u>twice or more</u> at  $x_1 < x < x_2$ .

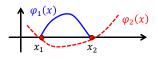


<u>Case IV:</u>  $\varphi_2(x)$  vanishes <u>exactly</u> <u>once</u> at  $x_1 < x < x_2$ .



#### Case I:

Assuming that  $\varphi_2(x)$  <u>vanishes</u> at  $x_1$  or/and  $x_2$ .



Since however  $\varphi_1(x)$  and  $\varphi_2(x)$  are linearly independent solutions of L[y]=0:

$$W(\varphi_1, \varphi_2, x) = \varphi_1 \varphi'_2 - \varphi'_1 \varphi_2 \neq 0$$



Thus,  $\varphi_2(x_1) \neq 0$ ,  $\varphi_2(x_2) \neq 0$  - otherwise  $W(\varphi_1, \varphi_2; x_1 \text{ or } x_2) = 0$ .

#### Case II:

Assuming that  $\varphi_2(x)$  doesn't vanish at  $x_1 \le x \le x_2$  .

 $\varphi_1(x)$   $\varphi_2(x)$   $x_1$   $x_2$ 

We can define a twice differential function:

$$y = \frac{\varphi_1}{\varphi_2} \longrightarrow y(x_1) = 0 \qquad y(x_2) = 0$$

Following <u>Rolle's theorem</u> (HEDVA..) - the derivative y'(x) <u>must vanish</u> at least once at  $x_1 < x < x_2$ .

The derivative y'(x) is:

$$y' = \frac{\varphi'_1 \varphi_2 - \varphi_1 \varphi'_2}{(\varphi_2)^2} \quad = -\frac{W(\varphi_1, \varphi_2, x)}{(\varphi_2)^2} \neq 0$$



Contradiction!

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ightharpoonup So, following cases (I-II),  $\varphi_2(x)$  must vanishes <u>once or more</u> at  $x_1 < x < x_2$  .

#### Case III:

Assuming that  $\varphi_2(x)$  vanishes <u>twice or more</u> at  $x_1 < x < x_2$  .

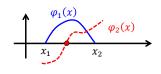
 $\varphi_1(x)$   $\varphi_2(x)$ 

Thus, following the above,  $\varphi_1(x)$  <u>must</u> also vanish - <u>at least</u> <u>once</u> - between the zeroes of  $\varphi_2(x)$ .

However, it is <u>initially</u> <u>assumed</u> that  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are <u>successive</u> <u>zeroes</u> of  $\varphi_1(x)$ .

Case IV - the only possibility left...

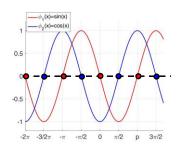
 $\varphi_2(x)$  must vanishes exactly once at  $x_1 < x < x_2$ .



#### Simple example 1:

$$y'' + y = 0$$

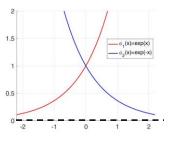
- ightharpoonup The solutions are  $\varphi_1(x) = \sin(x)$  and  $\varphi_2(x) = \cos(x)$ .
- $\triangleright$  The zeroes of  $\varphi_1(x) = \sin(x)$  occur at  $x = n\pi$ .
- For The zeroes of  $\varphi_2(x) = cos(x)$  occur at  $x = \frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi$ .



#### Simple example 2:

$$y'' - y = 0$$

- > The solutions are  $\varphi_1(x) = e^x$  and  $\varphi_2(x) = e^{-x}$ .
- ► Neither  $\varphi_1(x)$  nor  $\varphi_2(x)$  vanishes in  $-\infty < x < \infty$ .



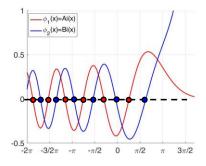
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# Less trivial example:

$$y^{\prime\prime} - xy = 0$$

Airy equation

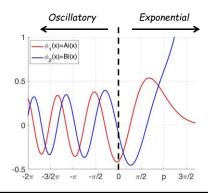
- > This equation doesn't have explicit analytical solutions.
- > Local solutions are obtained by a series expansion (we will see later on..).
- ightharpoonup The solutions of the equation are "Airy functions":  $\varphi_1(x) = Ai(x)$  and  $\varphi_2(x) = Bi(x)$
- ightharpoonup The zeros of  $\varphi_1(x)$  and  $\varphi_2(x)$  are <u>alternating</u>.



$$y^{\prime\prime} - xy = 0$$

Airy equation

- $\succ$  The equation is characterized by a <u>turning point</u> at x=0.
- For x > 0 the solution is "<u>increasingly</u> <u>exponential</u>".
- For x < 0 the solution is "increasingly oscillatory".
  - $\rightarrow$  the zeros of  $\varphi_1(x)$  and  $\varphi_2(x)$  are getting <u>closer</u> and <u>closer</u> as x < 0.



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#### (II) Normal form and the comparison theorem

$$a_0(x) \cdot y'' + a_1(x) \cdot y' + a_2(x) \cdot y = 0$$
General form
(??)

 $u^{\prime\prime} + Q(x) \cdot u = 0$ 

Normal form

- > To proceed we wish to transfer the equation into a "normal form".
- We <u>propose</u> a solution for the equation in the form of:

$$\varphi(x) = u(x) \cdot p(x) \quad \longrightarrow \quad \varphi' = u'p + up' \quad \longrightarrow \quad \varphi'' = u''p + 2u'p' + up''$$

 $\succ$  Substituting the  $\varphi$  into the equation:

$$a_0(x) \cdot (u''p + 2u'p' + up'') + a_1(x) \cdot (u'p + up') + a_2(x) \cdot (up) = 0$$

> Rearranging:

$$a_0 \cdot u'' \cdot p + u' \cdot (2a_0p' + a_1p) + u \cdot (a_0p'' + a_1p' + a_2p) = 0$$

$$u'' \cdot p + u' \cdot \left(2p' + \frac{a_1}{a_0}p\right) + u \cdot \left(p'' + \frac{a_1}{a_0}p' + \frac{a_2}{a_0}p\right) = 0$$

$$Q(x) \cdot p$$

 $\triangleright$  We select p(x) to make the second term vanish:

$$2 \cdot p' + \frac{a_1}{a_0} \cdot p = 0 \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad p(x) = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int \left(\frac{a_1}{a_0}\right) dx}$$

 $\triangleright$  Finally, dividing by p(x) we obtain the <u>normal form</u>:

$$u'' + Q(x) \cdot u = 0$$
 Normal form

> Where:

$$Q(x) = \frac{p''}{p} + \frac{a_1}{a_0} \frac{p'}{p} + \frac{a_2}{a_0}$$
 
$$p(x) = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int \left(\frac{a_1}{a_0}\right) dx}$$

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## Example - Bessel equation:

Bessel equation 
$$x^2 \cdot y'' + x \cdot y' + (x^2 - v^2) \cdot y = 0$$
  $v = const$ ,  $x > 0$ 

> To transfer into the *normal form* we identify:

$$a_0 = x^2$$
 ,  $a_1 = x$  ,  $a_2 = x^2 - v^2$ 

 $\triangleright$  Thus, p(x) is:

$$p(x) = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int \left(\frac{a_1}{a_0}\right) dx} = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int \left(\frac{x}{x^2}\right) dx} = e^{-\frac{1}{2} ln(x)}$$

$$p(x) = x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$
  $p'(x) = -\frac{1}{2}x^{-\frac{3}{2}}$   $p''(x) = -\frac{3}{4}x^{-\frac{5}{2}}$ 

 $\triangleright$  Calculating Q(x):

$$Q(x) = \frac{p''}{p} + \frac{a_1}{a_0} \frac{p'}{p} + \frac{a_2}{a_0} = -\frac{3}{4} x^{-2} + \left(\frac{x}{x^2}\right) \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{2} x^{-1}\right) + \left(\frac{x^2 - v^2}{x^2}\right)$$

$$\longrightarrow \qquad \qquad Q(x) = 1 + \frac{1 - 4v^2}{4x^2}$$

$$x^{2} \cdot y'' + x \cdot y' + (x^{2} - v^{2}) \cdot y = 0 \longrightarrow u'' + \left(1 + \frac{1 - 4v^{2}}{4x^{2}}\right)u = 0$$

Bessel equation

Normal form

ightharpoonup For the <u>special case</u> of  $\nu=1/2$  , the normal form reduces into:

$$u^{\prime\prime} + u = 0$$

> The <u>solutions</u> of the <u>normal form</u> (with  $\nu = 1/2$ ) are:

$$u_1 = sin(x)$$
  $u_2 = cos(x)$ 

> The <u>solutions</u> of <u>Bessel equation</u> on an order v = 1/2, are thus :

$$\varphi(x) = u(x)p(x) = u(x)x^{-\frac{1}{2}} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_1(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{\sin(x)}{\sqrt{x}} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \varphi_2(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{\cos(x)}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$J_{\nu=1/2}(x) \qquad J_{\nu=-1/2}(x)$$

> These <u>solutions</u> are denoted as "Bessel functions of the <u>first kind</u> of an order v = 1/2"

 $J_{\nu=1/2}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{\sin(x)}{\sqrt{x}} \longrightarrow J_{\nu=1/2}(x) = 0 \rightarrow x = n\pi$   $J_{\nu=-1/2}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{\cos(x)}{\sqrt{x}} \longrightarrow J_{\nu=-1/2}(x) = 0 \rightarrow x = n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}$ The zeros of  $J_{\nu=1/2}(x)$  and  $J_{\nu=-1/2}(x)$  are alternating (Sturm separation theorem..)  $J_{\nu=-1/2}(x) = 0 \rightarrow x = n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}$  (Sturm separation theorem..)

#### Theorem 6 - Sturm comparison theorem

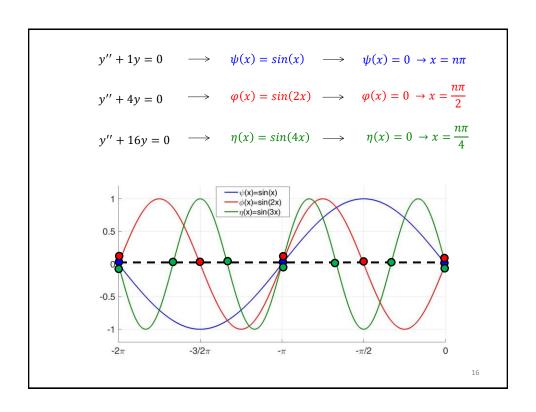
Let  $\varphi(x)$  and  $\psi(x)$  be nontrivial solutions of the following  $(\varphi \neq 0, \psi \neq 0)$ :

$$y'' + A(x) \cdot y = 0$$
  $y'' + B(x) \cdot y = 0$   $a \le x \le b \equiv \Delta$ 

Where A(x) > B(x) for all  $x \in \Delta$ .

Then, between any two zeros of  $\psi(x)$  (if existing...) there is <u>at least</u> one zero of  $\varphi(x)$ .

#### Simple examples:

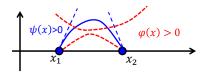


#### <u>Proof - Sturm comparison theorem:</u>

Let  $\varphi(x)$  and  $\psi(x)$  be nontrivial solutions of the following equations with A(x) > B(x):

$$\varphi'' + A(x) \cdot \varphi = 0 \qquad \qquad \psi'' + B(x) \cdot \psi = 0$$

Let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be succesive zeroes of  $\psi(x)$ , i.e.  $\psi(x_1) = \psi(x_2) = 0$ :



Considering, for example, that:  $\psi(x) > 0 \longrightarrow \psi'(x_1) \geq 0$  $\psi'(x_2) \leq 0$ 

Assuming - in contradiction - that  $\varphi(x)$  has no zeros for for all  $x_1 < x < x_2$ .

 $\rightarrow$  For example:  $\varphi(x) > 0$ 

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#### From one side: The Wronskian of $\psi(x)$ and $\varphi(x)$ is:

$$W(\varphi, \psi; x) = \varphi(x)\psi'(x) - \varphi'(x)\psi(x)$$

The  $W(\varphi, \psi; x)$  at  $x = x_1$  and  $x = x_2$  yields:

$$W(\varphi, \psi; x_1) = \varphi(x_1)\psi'(x_1) - \varphi'(x_1)\psi(x_1) = \underbrace{\varphi(x_1)\psi'(x_1)}_{\geq 0} \geq 0$$

$$W(\varphi, \psi; x_2) = \varphi(x_2)\psi'(x_2) - \varphi'(x_2)\psi(x_2) = \underbrace{\varphi(x_2)\psi'(x_2)}_{\geq 0} \leq 0$$

$$W(\varphi, \psi; x_2) = \varphi(x_2)\psi'(x_2) - \varphi'(x_2)\psi(x_2) = \varphi(x_2)\psi'(x_2) \le 0$$

Thus, <u>exists</u> (at least) one x in the range  $x_1 < x < x_2$  - for which:

 $\frac{dW(\varphi,\psi;x)}{dW(\varphi,\psi;x)} \le 0$ 

> From the other side, however:

$$\frac{dW(\varphi,\psi;x)}{dx} = \varphi(x)\psi^{\prime\prime}(x) - \varphi^{\prime\prime}(x)\psi(x)$$

 $\varphi'' + \underline{A(x)} \cdot \varphi = 0 \qquad = -\varphi(x) \cdot B(x)\psi(x) + \underline{A(x)}\varphi(x) \cdot \psi(x) \qquad = [\underline{A(x)} - \underline{B(x)}] \cdot \varphi(x)\psi(x)$  $\psi'' + B(x) \cdot \psi = 0$ 

 $\frac{dW(\varphi,\psi;x)}{dx}>0$ 

Contradiction!

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#### Example:

Airy equation 
$$y'' - x \cdot y = 0 \qquad (-\infty < x < -1)$$

- $\succ$  The equation <u>cannot</u> be solved explicitly by the methods that we currently have in hand..
- > Yet, we can say **something** about its solution in the above range.
- > We can <u>propose</u> another equation that we <u>do know</u> its solution:

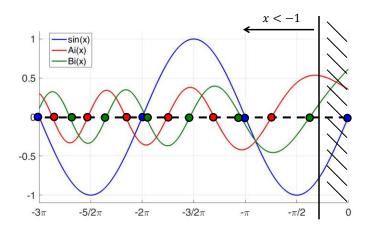
$$y'' + 1 \cdot y = 0$$
  $\longrightarrow \varphi = sin(x)$   
 $sin(x) = 0 ; x = n\pi$ 

- Noting that A(x) > B(x), we can now use the <u>comparison theorem</u> to investigate the zeroes of Airy equation solution.
- $\triangleright$  The solutions of the equation, "Airy functions" Ai(x) and Bi(x), thus:
  - Possess <u>infinite zeroes</u> at the range  $-\infty < x < -1$ .
  - The distance between successive zeroes of Ai(x) or Bi(x) is <u>less than</u>  $\Delta x < \pi$ .

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$$y'' + 1y = 0$$
  $\longrightarrow$   $\psi(x) = \sin(x)$   $\longrightarrow$   $\psi(x) = 0$   $\to x = n\pi$ 

$$y'' - xy = 0$$
  $\longrightarrow$   $\varphi_1(x) = A_i(x)$   $\longrightarrow$   $\varphi_1(x) = 0$   $\varphi_2(x) = B_i(x)$   $\varphi_2(x) = 0$ 



#### Example:

Bessel equation

$$x^{2} \cdot y'' + x \cdot y' + (x^{2} - v^{2}) \cdot y = 0 \qquad (0 < x)$$

- Also here, the equation <u>cannot</u> be solved explicitly by the methods that we have in hand..
- > Changing into its normal form:

Normal form

$$u'' + \left(1 + \frac{1 - 4v^2}{4x^2}\right)u = 0$$

$$y = u(x)/\sqrt{x}$$

$$B(x; v)$$

Note that: The zeroes of **Bessel equation** solutions are also the zeroes of the normal form

> We should distinguish between three cases:

Case (I) -B(x) > 1, obtained for  $0 \le v < 1/2$ .

Case (II) - B(x) < 1, obtained for  $\nu > 1/2$ .

Case (III) - B(x) = 1, obtained for v = 1/2.

Case (I) -  $0 \le \nu < 1/2$ 

$$u^{\prime\prime} + \left(1 + \frac{1 - 4v^2}{4x^2}\right)u = 0$$

$$B(x; v) > 1$$

We can <u>propose</u> (again..) the following equation that we <u>do know</u> its solution:

$$y'' + 1 \cdot y = 0$$
  $\longrightarrow \varphi = sin(x)$   
 $A(x)=1$   $sin(x) = 0 ; x = n\pi$ 

- Noting B(x;v) > A(x), we can use the <u>comparison theorem</u> to investigate the zeroes of Bessel equation solutions  $y(x) = u(x)/\sqrt{x}$ .
- ► The solutions y(x) with  $0 \le v < 1/2$ , are thus characterized by:
  - Infinite zeroes at the range  $0 < x < \infty$ .
  - The distance between successive zeroes of the solution is <u>less than</u>  $\Delta x < \pi$ .

$$y'' + 1y = 0 \qquad \rightarrow \psi(x) = \sin(x) \qquad \rightarrow \psi(x) = 0 \rightarrow x = n\pi$$

$$x^2y'' + xy' + (x^2 - v^2)y = 0 \qquad \rightarrow \varphi(x) = J_{v=1/4}(x) \qquad \rightarrow J_{v=1/4}(x) = 0$$

$$Bessel function of the first kind of an order  $v = 1/4$ 

$$0.5$$

$$J_{i=1/4}(x)$$

$$0.5$$

$$-0.5$$

$$-1$$

$$0$$

$$1/2\pi \qquad \pi \qquad 3/2\pi \qquad 2\pi \qquad 5\pi/2 \qquad 3\pi \qquad 7\pi/2 \qquad 4\pi \qquad 9\pi/2 \qquad 5\pi$$$$

#### Case (II) - $\nu > 1/2$

$$u^{\prime\prime} + \left(1 + \frac{1 - 4v^2}{4x^2}\right)u = 0$$

$$B(x; v) < 1$$

We can <u>propose</u> (again..) the following equation that we <u>do know</u> its solution:

$$y'' + 1 \cdot y = 0$$
  $\longrightarrow \varphi = sin(x)$   
 $sin(x) = 0 ; x = n\pi$ 

- Noting B(x; v) < A(x), we can use the <u>comparison</u> theorem to investigate the zeroes of Bessel equation solutions  $y(x) = u(x)/\sqrt{x}$  for v > 1/2.
- ightharpoonup The solutions y(x) with  $\nu > 1/2$ , are thus characterized by:
  - <u>Infinite zeroes</u> at the range  $0 < x < \infty$ .
  - The distance between successive zeroes of the solution is <u>greater than</u>  $\Delta x > \pi$ .

$$y'' + 1y = 0 \qquad \rightarrow \qquad \psi(x) = \sin(x) \qquad \rightarrow \qquad \psi(x) = 0 \rightarrow x = n\pi$$

$$x^2y'' + xy' + (x^2 - v^2)y = 0 \qquad \rightarrow \qquad \varphi(x) = \int_{v=1}(x) \qquad \rightarrow \qquad \int_{v=1}(x) = 0$$
Bessel function of the first kind of an order  $v = 1$ 

$$0.5$$

$$\int_{v=1}^{\infty} \sin(x) dx$$

$$\int_{v=1}^{\infty} \sin(x) dx$$

$$\int_{v=1}^{\infty} (x) dx$$

Case (III) - 
$$v = 1/2$$

$$u'' + \left(1 + \frac{1 - 4v^2}{4x^2}\right)u = 0$$

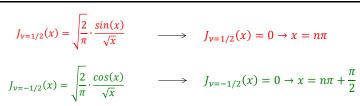
$$y = u(x)/\sqrt{x}$$

> The solutions for this case were already found:

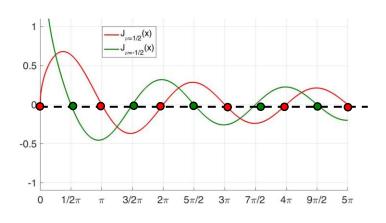
$$J_{\nu=1/2}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{\sin(x)}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$J_{\nu=-1/2}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{\cos(x)}{\sqrt{x}}$$

- $\succ$  The solutions y(x) with  $\nu=1/2$ , are thus characterized by:
  - <u>Infinite zeroes</u> at the range  $0 < x < \infty$ .
  - The distance between successive zeroes of the solution is **exactly**  $\Delta x = \pi$ .



$$J_{\nu=-1/2}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{\cos(x)}{\sqrt{x}} \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad J_{\nu=-1/2}(x) = 0 \rightarrow x = n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}$$



#### Theorem 7 - A specific variation of comparison theorem

Let  $\varphi(x)$  nontrivial solution of the following:

$$y'' + B(x) \cdot y = 0$$
  $a \le x \le b \equiv \Delta$ 

Where 0 > B(x) for all  $x \in \Delta$ .

Then, the solution  $\varphi(x)$  has <u>at the most</u> one zero at the range.

Proof:

You can, and will, do it by yourself... (at H.W.)

# <u>Part C</u> - Adjoint forms

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#### (I) The adjoint differential operator

> A second-order linear differential operator:

$$L = a_0(x) \cdot \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + a_1(x) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} + a_2(x)$$

 $a_0(x)$  ,  $a_1(x)$  and  $a_2(x)$  are  $\underline{real-valued}$   $\underline{continues}$  functions in an interval  $\Delta\equiv a\leq x\leq b$ 

- Consider now two function y(x) and z(x)
- > We now focus on the product:

$$z \cdot L[y] = z \cdot [a_0(x) \cdot y'' + a_1(x) \cdot y' + a_2(x) \cdot y]$$

> We will see that this product can <u>uniquely</u> be written as:

$$z \cdot L[y] = y \cdot \tilde{L}[z] + \underbrace{\frac{d}{dx} F(x, y, z, y', z')}_{An \ \underline{adjoint} \ \ operator}$$
An adjoint differential

#### Proof by construction

> And we wish to show that:

$$z \cdot L[y] = y \cdot \tilde{L}[z] + \frac{d}{dx} F(x, y, z, y', z')$$

> Writing the right side:

$$z \cdot L[y] = z \cdot [a_0(x) \cdot y'' + a_1(x) \cdot y' + a_2(x) \cdot y]$$

$$= [z \cdot a_0(x) \cdot y''] + [z \cdot a_1(x) \cdot y'] + y \cdot [a_2(x) \cdot z]$$

$$(I) \qquad (II)$$

Let's expand these terms a bit...

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Recall the product rule: 
$$\frac{d(z \cdot y)}{dx} = z \cdot \frac{d(y)}{dx} + y \cdot \frac{d(z)}{dx}$$

> The first term yields:

$$z \cdot a_0 \cdot y'' = (z \cdot a_0 \cdot y')' - (z \cdot a_0)' \cdot y'$$

$$Additional product.$$

$$= (z \cdot a_0 \cdot y')' - ((z \cdot a_0)' \cdot y)' + (z \cdot a_0)'' \cdot y$$

$$Full differentials$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} [z \cdot a_0 \cdot y' - (z \cdot a_0)' \cdot y] + y \cdot [(z \cdot a_0)'']$$

> The <u>second term</u> yields:

$$z \cdot a_1 \cdot y' = (z \cdot a_1 \cdot y)' - (z \cdot a_0)' \cdot y = \frac{d}{dx} [z \cdot a_1 \cdot y] - y \cdot [(z \cdot a_0)']$$
[II]

Full differential

> Substituting (1)&(11) back to (\*) and combining terms...

$$z \cdot L[y] = z \cdot [a_0(x) \cdot y'' + a_1(x) \cdot y' + a_2(x) \cdot y]$$

$$=\frac{d}{dx}\left[a_0\cdot(z\cdot y'-z'\cdot y)+(a_1-a_0')\cdot z\cdot y\right]+\underbrace{y\cdot[z\cdot a_2-(z\cdot a_1)'+(z\cdot a_0)'']}_{F(x,y,z,y',z')}$$

> Identifying the differential function:

$$F(x, y, z, y', z') = a_0 \cdot (z \cdot y' - z' \cdot y) + (a_1 - a_0') \cdot z \cdot y$$

> Identifying the adjoint operator:

Adjoint operator

$$\tilde{L} \equiv a_0 \cdot \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + (2a_0' - a_1) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} + (a_0'' - a_1' + a_2)$$

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#### **Theorem**

For <u>any</u> linear differential operator L - always <u>exists</u> a <u>unique</u> <u>adjoint operator</u>  $\tilde{L}$ , such that:

$$z \cdot L[y] - y \cdot \tilde{L}[z] = \frac{d}{dx} F(x, y, z, y', z')$$

Specifically, for second-order operators:

$$L = a_0(x) \cdot \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + a_1(x) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} + a_2(x)$$

The adjoint operator is:

$$\tilde{L} \equiv a_0 \cdot \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + (2a_0' - a_1) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} + (a_0'' - a_1' + a_2)$$

And the differential function is:

$$F(x,y,z,y',z') = z \cdot a_0 \cdot y' + z \cdot (a_1 - a_0) \cdot y$$



$$z \cdot L[y] - y \cdot \tilde{L}[z] = \frac{d}{dx} F(x, y, z, y', z')$$

Lagrange identity

ightharpoonup By <u>integrating</u> between  $a \le x \le b$ , we obtain "<u>Green's (second) Identity</u>":



$$\int_{a}^{b} \{z \cdot L[y] - y \cdot \tilde{L}[z]\} dx = [F(x, y, z, y', z')]_{a}^{b}$$

Green's identity

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#### (II) Self-adjoint operator

 $\succ$  The differential operator (L) and adjoint operator ( $\tilde{L}$ ) of a second-order equation are:

$$L = a_0 \cdot \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + a_1 \cdot \frac{d}{dx} + a_2$$

$$\tilde{L} = a_0 \cdot \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + (2a_0' - a_1) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} + (a_0'' - a_1' + a_2)$$

- $\blacktriangleright$  The operator L is said to be <u>self-adjoint</u> if:
- $L = \tilde{L}$
- > This is obtained if the following relations are thus satisfied:

$$a_1 = 2a'_0 - a_1$$
 $a_2 = a''_0 - a'_1 + a_2$ 

$$a_3 = a''_0 - a'_1 + a_2$$

Self-adjoint differential operator (second-order)

$$L = \tilde{L} = \frac{d}{dx} \left( p(x) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} \right) + q(x)$$

Strum-Liouville operator

#### **Examples**

 $\triangleright$  Bessel equation of an order  $\nu$ :

$$x^{2} \cdot y'' + x \cdot y' + (x^{2} - v^{2}) \cdot y = 0$$

$$x \cdot (x \cdot y')' + (x^{2} - v^{2}) \cdot y = 0$$

$$L = \frac{d}{dx}\left(x \cdot \frac{d}{dx}\right) + \left(x - \frac{v^2}{x}\right)$$

Legendre equation of an order l:

$$(1 - x^{2}) \cdot y'' - 2x \cdot y' + l \cdot (l+1) \cdot y = 0$$

$$((1 - x^{2}) \cdot y')' + l \cdot (l+1) \cdot y = 0$$

$$L = \frac{d}{dx} \left( (1 - x^2) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} \right) + l \cdot (l+1)$$

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Lagrange and Green's identities - self adjoint operators

$$L = \tilde{L} = \frac{d}{dx} \left( p(x) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} \right) + q(x)$$



$$z \cdot L[y] - y \cdot L[z] = \frac{d}{dx} F(x, y, z, y', z')$$

Lagrange identity



$$\int_{a}^{b} \{z \cdot L[y] - y \cdot L[z]\} dx = [F(x, y, z, y', z')]_{a}^{b}$$
 Green's identity

 $\blacktriangleright$  Where the differential function for a <u>self-adjoint</u> <u>second-order</u> operator is:

$$F(x, y, z, y', z') = p(x) \cdot (z \cdot y' - z' \cdot y)$$

#### (III) Transformation into a self-adjoint form

- > In general, a second order differential operator is not (!) self-adjoint.
- However, every homogeneous equation can be transformed into a self-adjoint form.

$$a_0(x) \cdot y^{\prime \prime} + a_1(x) \cdot y^{\prime} + a_2(x) \cdot y = 0 \qquad \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{c} Self\text{-adjoint} \\ \text{form} \end{array}} \qquad [p(x) \cdot y^{\prime}]^{\prime} + q(x) \cdot y = 0$$

$$y'' + \frac{a_1}{a_0} \cdot y' + \frac{a_2}{a_0} \cdot y = 0 \qquad /\cdot p(x) \quad \text{(yet undetermined)}$$

$$p(x)\cdot y'' + p(x)\cdot \frac{a_1}{a_0}\cdot y' + p(x)\cdot \frac{a_2}{a_0}\cdot y = 0$$

$$A_0(x) \qquad A_1(x) \qquad A_2(x)$$

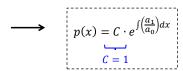
Self-adjoint condition

$$\frac{dA_0(x)}{dx} = A_1(x) \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad \frac{dp(x)}{dx} = p(x) \cdot \frac{a_1}{a_0}$$

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> <u>Self-adjoint</u> form will thus be obtained for a <u>selection</u> of p(x) - such that:

$$\frac{dp(x)}{dx} = p(x) \cdot \frac{a_1}{a_0}$$



(Selection of p(x) that will produce a self-adjoint form)

> After the transformation, the self-adjoint form of the equation is:

$$[p(x) \cdot y']' + \left[p(x) \cdot \frac{a_2}{a_0}\right] \cdot y = 0$$

$$\equiv q(x)$$

$$[p(x) \cdot y']' + q(x) \cdot y = 0$$

#### Example - Legendre equation (the long way..)

 $\triangleright$  Legendre equation of an order n:

$$(1 - x^{2}) \cdot y'' - 2x \cdot y' + l \cdot (l+1) \cdot y = 0$$

$$a_{0}(x) \qquad a_{1}(x) \qquad a_{2}(x)$$

> The self-adjoint form of the equation is obtained by:

$$[p(x) \cdot y']' + \left[p(x) \cdot \frac{a_2}{a_0}\right] \cdot y = 0 \qquad p(x) = e^{\int \left(\frac{a_1}{a_0}\right) dx}$$

 $\triangleright$  The calculation of p(x) yields:

$$p(x) = e^{\int \left(\frac{a_1}{a_0}\right) dx} = e^{\int \left(\frac{-2x}{1-x^2}\right) dx} = e^{\ln(1-x^2)} = 1 - x^2$$

> Substituting into the self-adjoint form yields:

$$[(1-x^2)\cdot y']' + (1-x^2)\cdot \frac{l\cdot (l+1)}{(1-x^2)}\cdot y = 0$$

$$[(1 - x^2) \cdot y']' + l \cdot (l+1) \cdot y = 0$$