# On Solving Differential and Difference Equations with Variable Coefficients* 

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#### Abstract

We introduce a method of solving the functional equation $\sum_{j=0}^{n} a_{j} L^{j f}(x)=0$ where the $a$ 's are constants and $L$ is a differential or finite difference operator that reduces the degree of a polynomial by 1 .


## Introduction

Linear differential equations with constant coefficients are the simplest differential equations to solve. The next equations to consider are linear differential equations with polynomial, or in general analytic, coefficients. The situation here is quite different. As a matter of fact, there are only very few special equations that we know how to solve. In most cases, the existence of the solution(s) follows from general criteria and the solution, if unique, is computed numerically. One way of solving linear differential equations with constant coefficients is by Mikusinski's operational calculus, see Erdelyi [13] for details. Recently Ditkin and Prudnikov [12] constructed an operational calculus to solve linear differential equations with constant coefficients in $D x D, D \equiv d / d x$, that is, of the type

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=0}^{n} a_{j} L^{j} f(x)=0 \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $L=D \mathfrak{x} D$, and their work was generalized by Meller [16] to solve (1.1) when $L=x^{-\alpha} D x^{\alpha+1} D$. Later in a series of papers by Dimovski [8-11], this was further generalized to solve (1.1) with

$$
L=x^{\alpha_{0}} \frac{d}{d x} x^{\alpha_{1}} \frac{d}{d x} \cdots x^{\alpha_{m-1}} \frac{d}{d x} x^{\alpha_{m}}
$$

[^0]where
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{0}+\alpha_{1}+\cdots+\alpha_{m}-m<0 \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

We felt that these extensions are getting complicated; for example, the convolution products in Dimovski's works [9-12] are quite cumbersome to work with. Others used the approach of changing the independent variable to reduce the differential equation to a linear equation with constant coefficients. Euler's equation is, of course, the model for this approach. Breuer and Gottlieb [6] characterized the $n$th order differential equations of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=0}^{n} P_{k}(x) D^{k} y(x)=0 \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

that can be reduced to linear differential equations with constant coefficients in a new independent variable. Later Breuer [5] did the same for the finite difference analog of (1.4).

In the present paper we attempt to develop a theory for solving equations of type (1.1) analogous to the theory of linear differential equations with constant coefficients in the most direct, simple, and obvious way. Our theory, however, does not determine all the linear independent solutions of a given equation. Our methods determine only the totality of admissible solutions; see below. This situation is also encountered in solving differential equations using the Laplace transform. In Section 2 we develop our new method, while Section 3 is devoted to treating some special differential and difference equations in details.

## 2. Main Results

Let $L$ be an operator defined on all polynomials so that $L x^{n}$ is a polynomial of degree $n-1$ if $n>0$ and is identically zero if $n=0$. Sheffer [20, Sect. 1] proved that such operator $L$ has the representation

$$
\begin{equation*}
L=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_{k}(x) D^{k+1}, \quad b_{0} \neq 0 \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $b_{k}(x)$ is a polynomial of degree at most $k$. Sheffer also proved the existence of a unique polynomial set $\left\{P_{n}(x)\right\}_{0}^{\infty}, P_{n}(x)$ is of precise degree $n$, satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
L P_{n}(x)=n P_{n-1}(x), \quad n=0,1, \ldots, P_{-1}(x)=0 \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{0}(0)=1, \quad \text { and } \quad P_{n}(0)=0 \quad \text { for } n>0 \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Such a set is called the basic set of $L$. We define $R_{L}$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{L}=\operatorname{inff}_{x}\left\{\left.\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}|n!| P_{n}(x)\right|^{1 / n}\right\} . \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We shall restrict ourselves to operators $L$ of type (2.1) whose $R_{L}$ is positive and that makes $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(P_{n}(x) / n!\right) t^{n}$ an entire function of $x$ for every $t$ with $|t|<R_{L}$. It is clear that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_{n}(x)\left(t^{n} \mid n!\right)$ is an analytic function of $t$ in $t<R_{L}$ and for all $x$. A solution of $(x)$ to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=0}^{n} a_{j} L^{i} f(x)=g(x) \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

is called admissible if $f(x)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{k}\left(P_{k}(x) / k!\right)$ with $L^{j} f(x)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{k+j}\left(P_{k k}(x) / k!\right)$, $j=1,2, \ldots, n$. Clearly the notion of admissibility depends on the equation under consideration. The reader must always keep in mind the analogy between the present theory and the theory of linear differential equations, with constant coefficients, which is available in any elementary text on differential equations. We now present our results.

Theorem 1. Assume $|t|<R_{L}$. The general admissible solution of

$$
\begin{equation*}
(L-t) f(x)=b \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{j+k}(x) t^{k} \mid k! \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

is

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=a \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_{k}(x)}{k!} t^{k}+\frac{b}{j+1} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_{k+j+1}(x)}{k!} t^{k} . \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Let $\varphi(x)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mu_{k}(t)\left(P_{k}(x) / k!\right)$ satisfy (2.6) with $b=0$. A direct substitution shows that $\mu_{k+1}(t)=t \mu_{k}(t), k=0,1, \ldots$, hence $\mu_{k}(t)=a t^{k}$, $k=0,1, \ldots$. We now claim that $[b /(j+1)] \sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\left(P_{k+j+1}(x) / k!\right) t^{k}$ satisfies (2.6). This is so, since

$$
\begin{aligned}
(L-t) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_{j+k+1}(x)}{k!} t^{k} & =\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(j+k+1)}{k!} P_{j+k}(x) t^{k}-\sum_{0}^{\infty} \frac{P_{j+k+1}(x)}{k!} t^{k+1} \\
& =(j+1) P_{j}(x)+\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_{k+j+1}}{(k+1)!} t^{k+1}(j \div k+2-k-1) \\
& =(j+1) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{P_{i+k}(x)}{k!} t^{k} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore (2.7) is the general admissible solution of (2.6) because it is the sum
of the general solution of the homogeneous equation and a particular solution of (2.6).

Before proceeding to Theorem 2 we introduce the finite difference operators $E$ and $\Delta$ defined as

$$
E f(x)=f(x+1), \quad \Delta f(x)=f(x+1)-f(x) .
$$

Clearly,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta^{n} f(x)=(E-1)^{n} f(x)=\sum_{s=0}^{n}\binom{n}{s}(-1)^{n-s} f(x+s) . \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 2. The general admissible solution to

$$
\begin{equation*}
(L-t)^{m} f(x)=0 \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

when $|t|<R_{L}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \lambda_{j} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{k+j}(x) \frac{t^{k}}{k!}, \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the $\lambda$ 's are independent of $x$.
Proof. Let $\phi_{j}(x)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{j+k}(x)\left(t^{k} / k!\right)$. To show that $\phi_{j}(x)$ satisfies (2.9) for $j=0,1, \ldots, m-1$ it suffices to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(L-t)^{j+1} \phi_{j}(x)=0, \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $m>j$. Therefore we have, since $P_{-1}(x) /(-1)!=0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
(L-t)^{j+1} \phi_{j}(x) & =\sum_{l=0}^{j+1}\binom{j+1}{l}(-t)^{l} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^{k}(k+j)!}{k!(k+l-1)!} P_{k+l-1}(x) \\
& =\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} P_{r}(x) \frac{t^{r+1}}{r!} \sum_{l=0}^{j+1}\binom{j+1}{l}(-1)^{l}(r+2-l)_{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $(x)_{j}$ is 1 if $j=0$ and $x(x+1) \cdots(x+j-1)$ if $j>0$. Note that $(x)_{j}$ is a polynomial of degree $j$ and since the operator $\Delta$ decreases the degree of a polynomial by one, we get, by (2.8),

$$
\sum_{l=1}^{j+1}\binom{j+1}{l}(-1)^{l}(r+2-l)_{j}=\Delta^{j+1}(x)_{j} \quad \text { when } \quad x=r-j+1
$$

hence is zero for all $r$ and $j$ and (2.11) follows. Therefore, $f(x)$ as given by (2.10) satisfies (2.9). To show that (2.10) represents the general admissible solution to (2.9) we use induction. When $m=1$, this holds by Theorem 1 .

Now assume that (2.6) is such a solution for some $m$ and let $\varphi(x)$ be a solution of (2.9) with $m$ replaced by $m+1$. Hence

$$
(L-t) \varphi(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \lambda_{j+1} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{k+j}(x) \frac{t^{k}}{k!},
$$

and, by Theorem 1, we obtain

$$
\varphi(x)=\lambda_{0} \sum_{0}^{\infty} P_{k}(x) \frac{t^{k}}{k!}+\sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{\lambda_{j}}{j} \sum_{k=0}^{n} P_{j+k}(x) \frac{t^{k}}{k!}
$$

and the induction is complete.

Theorem 3. The functions $\phi_{j}(x)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{k+j}(x)\left(t^{k} / k!\right), j=0,1, \ldots, m$, $|t|<R_{L}$ are linearly independent.

Proof. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=0}^{m} a_{j} \phi_{j}(x)=0 \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, the coefficient of $P_{k}(x)$ in the left-hand side of (2.12) must vanish. However, this coefficient is the same as the coefficient of $x^{k}$ in $\sum_{j=0}^{m} a_{j} x^{j} e^{t x}$. This shows that $\phi_{0}(x), \phi_{1}(x), \ldots, \phi_{m}(x)$ are linearly independent if and only if $e^{t x}$, $x e^{t x}, \ldots, x^{m} e^{t x}$ are so. But $e^{t x}, x e^{t x}, \ldots, x^{m} e^{t x}$ are clearly linearly independent. This completes the proof.

Using the same argument of Theorem 3 one can easily prove the following therem.

Theorem 4. The functions $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{k+j}(x)\left(\left(t_{l}\right)^{k} / k!\right), j, l=0,1,2, \ldots$ are linearly independent if and only if the $t$ 's are distinct.

The following theorem can be easily verified.

Theorem 5 (The method of undetermined coefficients). A particular solution of

$$
\begin{equation*}
(L-t)^{m} f(x)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{k+j}(x) \frac{s^{k}}{k!} \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

is either

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{l=0}^{j} \lambda_{l} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{k+l}(x) \frac{s^{k}}{k!}, \quad \text { when } \quad s \neq t \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{l=m}^{m+i} \lambda_{l} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{k+l}(x) \frac{s^{k}}{k!}, \quad \text { when } \quad s=t \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the coefficients $\lambda_{l}$ can be determined by substituting for (2.14) or (2.15) in (2.13).

Following the analogy with differential equations, we call the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=0}^{n} a_{k} t^{k}=0 \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

the characteristic equation of (2.5) and call its roots characteristic values.
Theorem 6. Let $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{r}$ be the characteristic values of (2.5). Assume $\left|t_{j}\right|<R_{L}$ for $j=1, \ldots, r$. If $t_{j}$ has multiplicity $\alpha_{j}$, then the general admissible solution of (2.5) when $g(x) \equiv 0$ is

$$
f(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{r} \sum_{l=0}^{\alpha_{j}-1} \lambda_{j, l}\left\{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{l+k}(x) \frac{\left(t_{j}\right)^{k}}{k!}\right\} .
$$

Theorem 6 follows from Theorems 2 and 5.
Remark. The above theory could be easily extended to operators $J$ such that $J x^{n}$ is a polynomial of degree $n-r$ if $n \geqslant r$, and is zero if $n=0,1, \ldots, r-1$ by showing that such operator has the representation

$$
J=\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} b_{l}(x) D^{l+r}
$$

with $b_{l}(x)$ a polynomial of degree at most $l$ and with $b_{0}$ is a nonzero constant. This shows that $J=L^{r}$, where $L$ reduces the degree of a polynomial by 1 and then we can apply our theory to $L$.

## 3. Examples and Remarks

Let us take the operator $L$ to satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
L x^{n}=c_{n} x^{n-1} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c_{0}=0, c_{n} \neq 0$ for $n>0$, and $c_{n} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. We follow Ward's notation [22] where [0]! $=1$ and [ $n$ ]! $=c_{1} c_{2} \cdots c_{n}$ for $n>0$. In this case $P_{k}(x)=(k!/[k]!) x^{k}, R_{L}=\infty$, and the theory developed in Section 2 is applicable. Typical examples of these operators are the generalized Bessel operator
$x^{-\alpha} D x^{\alpha+1} D$, see [16] when $c_{n}=n(n+\alpha)$ or Dimovski's (1.2) after a change of both the dependent and independent variable to replace (1.3) by $\alpha_{m}=0$ and $\alpha_{0}+\alpha_{1}+\cdots+\alpha_{m-1}-m=-1$, which corresponds to $c_{n}=n\left(n+\alpha_{1}\right) \cdots$ $\left(n+\alpha_{m-1}\right)$. See also the remark at the end of Section 2. The $q$-difference operator $D_{q}$ defined by $D_{q} f(x)=(f(q x)-f(x)) /(q-1) x$ also belongs to the above class with $c_{n}=\left(q^{n}-1\right) /(q-1)$ when $q>1$. The case $q<1$ could also be hendled if in (2.5) $x$ is replaced by $x q^{-n}$. This reduces (2.5) to a $q$-difference equation with $q>1$. Abdi [1] showed how $q$-Laplace transforms can be used to solve equations of the type (2.5) with $L=D_{q}$ and $g(x) \cong 0$ while McLeod [15] and Ismail [14, Chap. 5] developed operational calculi to do the same. However, there is no nkown transform technique or operational calculus that handles equations of type (2.5) with $L$ defined by (3.1) and $g(x) \equiv 0$.

Let us now study the finite difference operator $\Delta$. The polynomial $P_{k}(x)$ are $P_{0}(x)=1$ and $P_{k}(x)=x(x-1) \cdots(x-k+1)$ for $k>0$. In this example $x$ takes only the values $0,1,2, \ldots$ and so we have only to assume that $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{k+j}(x)\left(t^{k} / k!\right)$ is an entire function in $t$. This is true because $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P_{k+j}(x)\left(t^{k} / k!\right)$ is in fact a polynomial in $t$. The theory of linear difference equations with constant coefficients is well known. Berg [4] developed an operational calculus to solve these equations, while Al-Salam and Ismail [3] introduced operational calculi and transforms that can solve (1.1) when

$$
\begin{equation*}
L\binom{x}{k}=c_{k}\binom{x}{k-1}, \quad k=0,1, \ldots, \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\binom{x}{1}=0$. Again here $x=0,1,2, \ldots$, and there is no restriction on $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{k+j}(x)\left(t^{k} / k\right.$ !) because these will be polynomials. These are finite difference analogs of (3.1). Al-Salam and Ismail's transforms have an advantage over our present approach because their use of formal series avoids solving a polynomial fo degree $n$, the characteristic polynomial, which may be difficult for large $n$.

Note that while our approach of polynomial expansions may seem to be easy, a very important question arises. How can one recognize an equation of type (2.5) because differential and difference equations are usually written in terms of derivatives or difference operators. By expanding powers of $x^{-\alpha} D x^{\alpha+1} D$ in terms of powers of $D$. Osipov [17] characterized the general form of (1.1) when $L=x^{-\alpha} D x^{\alpha+1} D$; see also Osipov [18]. Expansions of powers or operators of type (3.1) and (3.2) when $c_{n}=n\left(n+\alpha_{1}\right) \cdots\left(n+\alpha_{k}\right)$ in terms of dericatives and finite difference operators, respectively, follow from general operational formulas developed by Al-Salam and Ismail [2]. However, this general problem is not settled yet.

We note that while Equation (2.5) is of degree $n$ in $L$ and has $n$ linear-independent admissible solutions it might be of a higher degree as a differential or difference equation and hence will have nonadmissible solutions. This situation
is not new, and as a matter of fact, it also arises in solving differential equations using the Laplace transform, see Doetsch [7, Sect. 38].
In conclusion, we would like to mention that using polynomial expansions to solve functional equations is ceratinly an old idea. For example, Pincherle [19] used it to solve

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{k} a_{j} y\left(x+w_{j}\right)=F(x)
$$

For details and related results, see Sheffer [21]. Our approach is quite different even though we also use polynomial expansions.

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