

GENERAL SOLUTIONS OF SECOND ORDER LINEAR HOMOGENEOUS DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

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INTRODUCTION

Let us consider the second order linear homogeneous differential equation

$$\frac{d^2 V}{dt^2} + P_1(t) \frac{dV}{dt} + Q_1(t) V(t) = 0 \quad [01]$$

and exclude the trivial solution $V = 0$; with the assumption

$$V(t) = U(t) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \int P_1 dt\right) \quad [02]$$

equation (01) takes the form which is called *normal* (*), namely:

$$\frac{d^2 U}{dt^2} + P(t)U = 0 \quad [03]$$

The coefficient $P(t)$ is referred to as the *invariant* of the differential equation, and it is easily found its expression, that is:

$$P(t) = Q_1(t) - \frac{1}{4} P_1^2(t) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{dP_1(t)}{dt} \quad [04]$$

The [03] transformation is possible under the scarcely limiting condition that $P_1(t)$ is derivable.

It is rather idle to remember that a very large number of practical problems of physics are represented by equations which can be reduced to an (homogeneous or less) « normal » type, like (0,3); as an example of uttermost importance, see any factorizable case of the Schrödinger equation.

(*) Cf. E. Kamke, Differ. Gleich., Leipzig 1944 Bd I, 119; and S. Brodetsky, Proc. Edimb. Math. Soc. 34 (1916) 45.

1° Series expansion for the solutions of second order linear differential equation $U'' = [k^2 + f(t)] U(t)$.

Let

$$\frac{d^2 V}{dt^2} = (k^2 + f(t)) V \quad [1]$$

be a « normal » differential equation where $f(t)$ is a known function, k a const., and assume

$$U = e^{kt} \Phi ; \quad k = \pm \sqrt{k^2} \quad [2]$$

defining the function

$$\Phi = \exp \int \gamma dt \quad [3]$$

in such a way that when $f \equiv \text{const.}$, then $\Phi \equiv 1$

Particularly, if $f \equiv 0$, equation [1] reenters in the common case with harmonic solutions e^{kt} .

With the process outlined above by substitution of [2] into [1], one may obtain the *Riccati's* equation (*):

$$\gamma' + \gamma^2 + 2k\gamma = f \quad [4]$$

Suppose now to determine such a value t_k of the variable t that $f_k = f(t_k)$ obeys to the condition:

$$f_k = \gamma^2(t_k) = \gamma_k^2 ; \quad [5]$$

in this case the solution of equation [4] at the point t_k will be:

$$\gamma_k' + 2k\gamma_k = 0 \quad [6]$$

that is

$$\gamma_k = \exp(-2kt_k - 2a) ; \quad 2a = \text{const.} \quad [7]$$

and therefore

$$f(t_k) = \exp(-4t_k - 4a) \quad [8]$$

from which we may deduce t_k if the arbitrary constant a is fixed.

The arbitrariness of a assures us about the existence of the point t_k . It is then possible an expansion of γ into a Taylor's series in the vicinity of t_k :

$$\gamma = \gamma_k + \frac{(t-t_k)}{1!} \gamma_k' + \frac{(t-t_k)^2}{2!} \gamma_k'' + \dots \quad [9]$$

(*) By the way, the present method may be useful for solving Riccati's first order equations.

where

$$\gamma_k = e^{-2kt - 2a} = A$$

$$\gamma'_k = -2kA \quad [10]$$

$$\gamma''_k = f'_k - 2k\gamma'_k - 2(\gamma\gamma')_k = \quad [11]$$

$$= f'_k + (2k)^2 A + 2(2k)A^2 \quad [12]$$

$$\gamma'''_k = f''_k - 2k\gamma''_k - (\gamma^2)'''_k =$$

$$= f''_k - (2k)f'_k - (2k)^3 A - 2(2k)^2 A^2 - (\gamma^2)'''_k. \quad [13]$$

Observe now that

$$(\gamma^2)' = 2\gamma\gamma'$$

$$(\gamma^2)'' = 2\gamma\gamma'' + 2\gamma'^2$$

$$(\gamma^2)''' = 2\gamma\gamma''' + 6\gamma'\gamma'' \quad [14]$$

$$(\gamma^2)^{IV} = 2\gamma\gamma^{IV} + 8\gamma'\gamma''' + 6\gamma''^2$$

which, for $\gamma_k \rightarrow 0$, $\gamma'_k \rightarrow 0$, entraines $(\gamma^2)^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$, so that we may write symbolically

$$(\gamma^2)^{(n)}_k = (\gamma_k + \gamma_k)^{(n)} = \sum_r^m \binom{n}{r} \gamma_k^{(n-r)} \gamma_k^{(r)} \quad [15]$$

Thus we obtain:

$$\gamma_k^{(n)} = f_k^{(n-1)} - 2k\gamma_k^{(n-1)} - (\gamma^2)_k^{(n-1)} = \quad [16]$$

$$= f_k^{(n-1)} - 2k\gamma_k^{(n-1)} - \sum_r^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{r} \gamma_k^{(n-1-r)} \gamma_k^{(r)}$$

For the determination of A it is necessary to recall the condition $\Phi=1$ when $f = \text{const}$. If we consider that [2] and [3] give $U = \exp(kt + f \int \gamma dt)$, and that this expression must coincide with e^{kt} when $f = \text{const} = 0$, then we recognize that the value $\gamma_k = 0$ verifies our assumption, id est

$$A = 0 \quad ; \quad a = +\infty \quad [17]$$

Thus we get:

$$\gamma_k = 0 \quad [18]$$

$$\gamma'_k = 0 \quad [19]$$

$$\gamma''_k = f'_k \quad [20]$$

$$\gamma'''_k = f''_k - 2kf'_k \quad [21]$$

The condition

$$\gamma_k = 0 \quad [22]$$

signifies that t_k is a zero of the function $f(t)$ and therefore it requires the reliability of [23]:

$$f_k = 0 \quad [23]$$

id est $f(t)$ must have at least one zero. If this is not the case, instead of the equation [1] we may deal with

$$\frac{d^2 U}{dt^2} = [k^2 + h^2 + (f - h^2)] U \quad [24]$$

where $h^2 = \text{const}$ is the minimum distance of $f(t)$ from zero, or it is the mean value of $f(t)$ or even an absolute value of $f(t)$ higher than the minimum (absolute) value of $f(t)$, or other equivalent definition. It may be shown that the apparent arbitrariness of $\text{const. } h^2$ or even of $K^2 = k^2 + h^2$ is removed by the border conditions of the actual problem which leads to the equation [1], (see § 5), and to the eigenvalues of the differential equation.

With the notations

$$F(t) = f(t) - h^2 \quad ; \quad K^2 = k^2 + h^2 \quad [25]$$

i. e. adding and subtracting h^2 in the bracket of the second member of [1], we obtain the equation [26] identical to the given equation:

$$\frac{d^2 V}{dt^2} = (K^2 + F(t)) V \quad [26]$$

which satisfies however the desired condition [23] (*). In the following text we always write $f(t)$, which must be understood as changed into $F(t)$ when $f(t)$ has no zero.

Now let us punt:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma^{(n)} = & f^{(n-1)} - p f^{(n-2)} + p^2 f^{(n-3)} - \dots + (-1)^{n-1} p^{n-1} f + \\ & + (-1)^n (p^n \gamma + p^{n-1} G - p^{n-2} G' + \dots) - G^{(n-1)} \end{aligned} \quad [27]$$

where

$$G'_k = 2 \gamma_k \gamma'_k = 0 \quad [28]$$

$$p = 2k \quad [29]$$

(*) It is obvious that at the points t_k one must find $F(t_k) = 0$ when $f(t)$ has no zero.

Because of the recurrent formulae [15] and of the conditions $\gamma_k = 0$, $\gamma'_k = 0$, all derivatives $G^{(n)}$ vanish, so that, omitting for the sake of simplicity all indexes k , we obtain:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \gamma = 0 \\ \gamma' = 0 \\ \gamma'' = f' \\ \gamma''' = f'' - p f' \\ \gamma^{IV} = f''' - p f'' + p^2 f' \end{array} \right. \quad [30]$$

and therefore

$$\gamma^{(n)} = \sum_r^{n-1} (-1)^r p^r f^{(n-1-r)} \quad [31]$$

whence, because of [9], indicating with t_0 a particular value of t for which $f(t)$ or $F(t)$ vanish,

$$\gamma = \sum_n \frac{(t-t_0)^n}{n!} \sum_r^{n-1} (-1)^r (2k)^r f_0^{(n-1-r)} \quad [32]$$

As a final result from [2] [3] [31] [32] we have:

$$\begin{aligned} U &= \exp \left\{ kt + \sum_n \sum_r^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^r}{n!} (2k)^r f_0^{(n-1-r)} \int (t-t_0)^n dt \right\} = [33] \\ &= \exp \left\{ kt + \sum_n \sum_r^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^r}{(n+1)!} (2k)^r f_0^{(n-1-r)} (t-t_0)^{n+1} \right\} = \\ &= \exp \{ kt + S \} \end{aligned}$$

with $S = \log \Phi$.

The formula [33] is the desired expansion. Actually two expansions are possible in correspondence with the two signs of $k = \pm \sqrt{k^2}$. It is well-known that this double value leads to the determination of the two arbitrary constants connected to a second order differential equation.

It is not unuseful to remark, either from an algebraic or from a practical point of view for the calculation of the solutions, that as matter of fact our problem can just be considered as resolved with the formula [33]. Further developments are only possible simplifications or explicit expressions of this formula.

It is worth noting that the solution [33] is particularly suitable

for numerical calculations, as it depends only upon kt and upon the derivatives $f_o^{(n)}$. As far as the derivation is usually an operation of much easier calculation than the integration, the usefulness of [33] seems to be evident.

2° *Explicit expression of the solution* [33]

The expression appearing in [33]

$$\log \Phi = S = \sum_n^{\infty} \sum_o^{n-1} (-1)^r \frac{p^r}{(n+1)!} (t-t_o)^{n+1} f_o^{(n-1-r)} \quad [34]$$

for successive r values, recalling that $f_o^{(0)} = f_o = o$, with the notation

$$\tau = t - t_o \quad [35]$$

gives the successive summations, which may be disposed along a triangle:

$$S = \sum_n^{\infty} \frac{\tau^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} f_o^{(n-1)} - p \sum_n^{\infty} \frac{\tau^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} f_o^{(n-2)} + \quad [36]$$

$$+ p^2 \sum_n^{\infty} \frac{\tau^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} f_o^{(n-3)} - \dots$$

Now we may substitute for n , through the individual sums, another symbol in order to reduce to a unique value, for instance $(n+1)$, all the $(n-r)$ symbolic exponents of f_o' that is

$$S = \sum_n^{\infty} \frac{\tau^{n+3}}{(n+3)!} f_o^{(n+1)} - p \sum_n^{\infty} \frac{\tau^{n+4}}{(n+4)!} f_o^{(n+1)} + \quad [37]$$

$$+ p^2 \sum_n^{\infty} \frac{\tau^{n+5}}{(n+5)!} f_o^{(n+1)} - \dots$$

By adding in column the coefficients of the same derivative $f_o^{(n+1)}$ and because of one of the wellknown theorems for the double series, we get:

$$S = \sum_n^{\infty} \sum_o^{\infty} \frac{\tau^{n+3+r} (-1)^r p^r}{(n+3+r)!} f_o^{(n+1)} \quad [38]$$

If now we put

$$q = p \tau \quad [39]$$

and

$$\tau^{n+3} B_3(n, q) = \sum_o^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^r p^r \tau^{n+3+r}}{(n+3+r)!} = \tau^{n+3} \sum_o^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^r q^r}{(n+3+r)!} \quad [40]$$

that is

$$B_3(n, q) = \sum_r^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^r q^r}{(n+3+r)!} \quad (*)$$

then

[41]

$$S = \sum_n^{\infty} \tau^{n+3} B_3(n, q) f_0^{(n+4)}$$

But

$$\begin{aligned} B_3(n, q) &= \sum_r^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^r q^r}{(n+3+r)!} = \frac{1}{q^{n+3}} \sum_r^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^r q^{n+3+r}}{(n+3+r)!} = \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{n+3}}{q^{n+3}} \left[\sum_r^{\infty} - \sum_r^2 \right] \frac{(-1)^r q^r}{r!} = \frac{(-1)^{n+3}}{q^{n+3}} \left(e^{-q} - \sum_r^{\frac{n+2}{}} \frac{(-1)^r q^r}{r!} \right) \end{aligned} \quad [42]$$

so that

$$B_3(n, q) = \frac{(-1)^{n+3}}{q^{n+3}} \left(e^{-q} - \sum_r^{\frac{n+2}{}} \frac{(-1)^r q^r}{r!} \right) \quad (*) \quad [43]$$

Therefore the expression S , and consequently U , is completely determined if the values of $f_0^{(n+4)}$ are known. Formula [43] means also that for $n \rightarrow \infty$ the $B_3(n, q)$'s tend towards $(-1)^{n+4}(e^{-q} - e^{-q})/q^{n+3} \rightarrow 0/q^{n+3}$.

3° $B_3(n, q)$ reduction to the incomplete Γ function.

With a methode indicated by *Cauchy and Saalschütz* (see *Whittaker & Watson - Modern Analysis, Cambridge, 1950 pg. 244*) if we write

$$\beta(n, q) = (-1)^{n+3} q^{n+3} B_3(n, q) \quad [44]$$

we obtain

$$\Gamma(z) = \lim_{q \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^q q^{z-1} \beta(n, q) dq \quad [45]$$

(*) It is generally defined:

$$B_s(n, q) = \sum_r^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^r q^r}{(n+s+r)!} = B_n(s, q), \quad [41 A]$$

A particular value is

$$B_0(0, q) = e^{-q}, \quad [41 B]$$

(*) The sum in the brackets may be formally definide as the incomplete exponential function, since its value tends towards e^{-q} for $n \rightarrow \infty$.

where z is real and greater than 1, and n is the integer *immediately superior* to z if z is not an integer. If z is an integer number, then, obviously,

$$n = +z > 1 \quad [46]$$

Now integrating by parts we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^q q^{z-1} \beta(n, q) dq &= \left[\frac{q^z}{z} \beta(n, q) \right]_0^q + \frac{1}{z} \int_0^q q^z \beta(n-1, q) dq = \\ &= \frac{1}{z} q^z \beta(n, q) + \frac{1}{z} \int_0^q q^z \beta(n-1, q) dq \end{aligned} \quad [47]$$

Consider the case $q \geq 0$.

The first member of [47] is indistinguishable from the definition of the incomplete Γ function (or « digamma ») which is indicated by $\Gamma(q, z)$ so that:

$$\Gamma(q, z) = \frac{1}{z} q^z \beta(n, q) + \frac{1}{z} \Gamma(q, z+1) \quad [48]$$

and therefore when

$$q \geq 0$$

we get

$$\beta(n, q) = z q^{-z} \Gamma(q, z) - q^{-z} \Gamma(q, z+1) = q^{-n} [n \Gamma(q, n) - \Gamma(q, n+1)] \quad [49]$$

The $\Gamma(q, n)$ are tabulated by *K. Pearson*, Tables of the incomplete Γ - functions, « Biometrika », Cambridge, 1951, who gives the functions

$$I(u, n) = \frac{\Gamma(u, n)}{\Gamma(u, \infty)} \quad [50]$$

where

$$\Gamma(u, \infty) = \Gamma(u) = (u-1)! \quad [51]$$

and

$$u = \frac{q}{\sqrt{n+1}} \quad [52]$$

It is always possible to use the formula [49] even for $q < 0$, though for negative values of q it is necessary to calculate $I(-u, n)$

as function of $I(u, n)$ through Pearson's tables, with the formula (Pearson op. cit. pg. VI, formula [III] ter):

$$\frac{I(-u, p)}{(-u)^{p+1}} = \frac{[I(o, p)]^2}{I'(u, p)} \cdot \left\{ 1 + \frac{u^2 (p+1)^2}{(p+2)^2 (p+3)} + \frac{u^4 (p+1)^3}{(p+2)(p+3)^2 (p+4)(p+5)} + \frac{u^6 (p+1)^4}{(p+2)(p+3)(p+4)^2 (p+5)(p+6)(p+7)} + \dots \right\} \quad [53]$$

where

$$I'(u, p) = \frac{I(u, p)}{u^{p+1}} \quad [54]$$

The functions $I'(u, p)$ may be found in table III of the just quoted Pearson's book; the particular value $I'(o, p)$ is given by the formula

$$I'(o, p) = (p+1)^{\sqrt{p-1}} / \Gamma(p+1) \quad [55]$$

4° *A remarkable reduction.*

The function defined in [3], say

$$\Phi(\tau) = \exp \sum_0^\infty \beta(n, q) f_0^{(n+1)} \tau^{n+3}; \quad U = e^{kt} \Phi(\tau) \quad [56]$$

with

$$\beta(n, q) = \sum_0^\infty \frac{(-1)^r q^r}{(n+3+r)!} \quad [57]$$

may be, at its turn, developed in MacLaurin series:

$$\Phi(\tau) = 1 + \sum_1^\infty \frac{\tau^s}{s!} \Phi_0^{(s)} \quad [58]$$

As $\Phi_0 = \Phi(o) = 1$, and as the derivatives are

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\tau} \sum_0^\infty \beta(n, q) f_0^{(n+1)} \tau^{n+3} &= \\ &= \sum_0^\infty \sum_0^\infty \frac{(-1)^r p^r \tau^{n+2+r}}{(n+2+r)!} f_0^{(n+1)} \end{aligned}$$

and generally

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^s}{d\tau^s} \Phi(\tau) &= \sum_{n,r} (-1)^r p^r f_0^{(n+1)} \frac{\tau^{n+2+r-s} (n+3+r)(n+2+r) \dots (n+3+r-s)}{(n+3+r)!} = \\ &= \sum_0^\infty \sum_r (-1)^r p^r f_0^{(n+1)} \frac{\tau^{n+3+r-s}}{(n+3+r-s)!} \end{aligned} \quad [59]$$

so it is immediately seen that at the point $\tau = 0$, all addends for which $n + 3 + r - s = 0$, do vanish. The only one which does not vanish, has, as exponent for r ,

$$n + 3 + r - s = 0 \quad [60]$$

and reduces to

$$(-1)^r p^r f_0^{(n+1)} = (-1)^{s-n-3} p^{s-n-3} f_0^{(n+1)}$$

if, we assume, as well as it is generally assumed in any series expansion, (for instance in the $\cos x$ series for $x \rightarrow 0$):

$$\frac{0^0}{0!} = 1.$$

Therefore

$$\frac{d^s \Phi(\tau)}{d\tau^s} = \sum_0^\infty (-1)^{s-n-3} p^{s-n-3} f_0^{(n+1)} \quad [61]$$

Now on one hand the exponent r cannot be less than zero, therefore $r = s - n - 3 \geq 0$; on the other hand $r = 0$, if $n = s - 3$, but n cannot be less than zero, so that

$$n \geq s - 3 \geq 0.$$

and therefore *all derivatives with $s < 3$ vanish.*

By putting

$$s = 3 + u \quad (u = 0, 1, \dots)$$

we get the condition

$$n + r = u = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

and then for $s \geq 3$ we obtain

$$\left(\frac{d^{3+u} \Phi}{d\tau^{3+u}} \right)_0 = \sum_0^u \sum_0^{u-n} (-1)^{u-n} p^{u-n} f_0^{(n+1)} \quad [62]$$

with the condition, for $(u - n)$, to be always positive or zero.

Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi'_0 &= 0 \\ \Phi''_0 &= 0 \\ \Phi'''_0 &= f_0^{(1)} \\ \Phi^{IV}_0 &= -p f_0^{(1)} + f_0^{(2)} \\ \Phi^V_0 &= p^2 f_0^{(1)} - p f_0^{(2)} + f_0^{(3)} \end{aligned} \quad [63]$$

and generally, for $n \geq 0$

$$\Phi_o^{(3+u)} = \sum_r^n (-1)^{u+r} p^{u-r} f_o^{(r+1)} \quad [64]$$

so that our MacLaurin's series becomes

$$\Phi(\tau) = 1 + \sum_s^\infty \frac{\tau^{3+s}}{(3+s)!} \sum_r^s (-1)^{s+r} p^{s-r} f_o^{(r+1)} \quad [65]$$

and defining the *polynomials*

$$\gamma_s(p, f_o) = \sum_r^s (-1)^{s+r} p^{s-r} f_o^{(r+1)} \quad [66]$$

we finally obtain the most practical form of our resolving formula, say:

$$\Phi(\tau) = 1 + \sum_s^\infty \frac{\tau^{3+s}}{(3+s)!} \gamma_s(p, f_o) \quad [67]$$

In the case of p imaginary, we may solve the polynomials $\gamma_s(p, f_o)$ in a real part $R_s(p, f_o)$ and in an imaginary part $I_s(p, f_o)$.

Actually, if s is even:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_s(i p, f_o) &= \sum_1^s (-1)^l i^l p^l f_o^{(s+1-l)} = & [68] \\ &= f_o^{(s+1)} - i p f_o^{(s)} - p^2 f_o^{(s-1)} + i p^3 f_o^{(s-2)} + p^4 f_o^{(s-3)} \dots = \\ &= f_o^{(s+1)} - p^2 f_o^{(s-1)} + p^4 f_o^{(s-3)} \dots + i \{ p f_o^{(s)} - p^3 f_o^{(s-2)} + p^5 f_o^{(s-4)} \} = \\ &= \sum_0^{\frac{1}{2}s} (-1)^l p^{2l} f_o^{(s+1-2l)} - i \sum_0^{\frac{1}{2}(s-2)} (-1)^l p^{2l+1} f_o^{(s-2l)} ; \end{aligned}$$

id est

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{2n}(i p, f_o) &= \sum_0^n (-1)^l p^{2l} f_o^{(2n+1-2l)} - i \sum_0^{n-1} (-1)^l p^{2l+1} f_o^{(2n-2l)} = & [69] \\ &= R_{2n}(p, f_o) - i I_{2n}(p, f_o) ; \end{aligned}$$

if s is odd, $s = 2n + 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{2n+1}(i p, f_o) &= \sum_0^{2n+1} (-1)^l i^l p^l f_o^{(2n+2-l)} = & [70] \\ &= \sum_0^n (-1)^l p^{2l} f_o^{(2n+2-2l)} - i \sum_0^n (-1)^l p^{2l+1} f_o^{(2n+1-2l)} = \\ &= R_{2n+1}(p, f_o) - i I_{2n+1}(p, f_o) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} R_{2n}(p, f_0) &= \sum_0^n (-1)^i p^{2i} f_0^{(2n+1-2i)} \\ I_{2n}(p, f_0) &= \sum_0^n (-1)^i p^{2i+1} f_0^{(2n-2i)} \end{aligned} \right. \quad [71]$$

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} R_{2n+1}(p, f_0) &= \sum_0^n (-1)^i p^{2i} f_0^{(2n+1-2i)} \\ I_{2n+1}(p, f_0) &= \sum_0^n (-1)^i p^{2i+1} f_0^{(2n+1-2i)} \end{aligned} \right.$$

and as a *general result* we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(\tau) &= 1 + \sum_0^\infty \frac{\tau^{3+s}}{(3+s)!} (R_s - i I_s) = \\ &= 1 + \sum_0^\infty \frac{\tau^{3+2s}}{(3+2s)!} R_{2s}(p, f_0) - i \sum_0^\infty \frac{\tau^{4+2s}}{(4+2s)!} I_{2s+1}(p, f_0). \end{aligned} \quad [72]$$

5° *Determination of h^2 . — Eigenvalues.*

Since we have assumed that f_k equals zero at the particular point $t = t_k$, it follows that at this point the function Φ takes obviously the value

$$\Phi_k = 1. \quad [73]$$

Now, when the function U , which enters into the normal differential equation [1], has two given values as border conditions, or even when it is given a value of U and of its derivative at a known point, then these two given values, determine the general solution of the differential equation.

Namely, the two signs of const. $\sqrt{k^2}$ determine two solutions either of them corresponding to one of the two signs of k .

Indicating by U_1 and U_2 these two solutions, the general solution will be:

$$U = MU_1 + NU_2 \quad [74]$$

where M, N are constants. Because of the condition [73] we get now, for instance,

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} M e^{kt_k} + N e^{-kt_k} &= U_k = U(k) \\ M e^{ka} \Phi_a + N e^{-ka} \Phi_a^* &= U_a = U(a) \\ M e^{kb} \Phi_b + N e^{-kb} \Phi_b^* &= U_b = U(b) \end{aligned} \right. \quad [75]$$

in the case of two given values of U at two points like a and b . Here Φ_a^* [or Φ_b^*] is the value of $\Phi(a)$ [or $\Phi(b)$] with $-k$ instead of $+k$.

In a quite similar way we may get a similar system like [75] for the case in which the known values are $U(a)$ and $U'(a)$.

The system [75] consists of three equations with four unknowns M, N, K, U_k ; thus one of these is indetermined. However this indeterminacy may be removed by the fact that U is always determined by an arbitrary factor apart, so that instead of the system [75] one may deal with the system (for example)

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} e^{kt} + p e^{-kt} = U_k \\ e^{ka} \Phi_a + p e^{-ka} \Phi_a^* = U_a \\ e^{kb} \Phi_b + p e^{-kb} \Phi_b^* = U_b \end{array} \right. \quad [76]$$

which has three unknowns only, namely p, U_k, k . Of course [76], can be replaced by a symmetrical system in which p is the coefficient of the factor e^{+kt} , whilst e^{-kt} has the coefficient 1.

Consequently we may assume the solution

$$U = e^{kt} \Phi + p e^{-kt} \Phi^* \quad [77]$$

a factor apart.

It is well-known that when the const. k deduced from [76] has a discrete or even a continuous set of values, these are referred to as the *eigenvalues* of the given equation.

By the way, it is worth while to observe, too, that the indeterminacy of the factor of U is usually removed with the well-known *condition of normalization* of the function U , accordingly to the actual problem represented by the given differential equation.

6° Multiple sets of eigenvalues

In the former treatment we have simply assumed the existence of such a point t_k as to yield the *characteristic equation*

$$f(t) = 0. \quad [78]$$

Now, let us consider the more general case, when the characteristic equation [78] has more than one (real or complex) solution. Then there are as so many systems like [75] as how many values t_k are determined by the characteristic equation [78].

If system [75] leads to a set of eigenvalues, then there are as many sets of eigenvalues as how many are the t_k ; that is, one gets a *multiple set of eigenvalues*.

Denote by K_α the single elements of one set, corresponding to a single $t_\alpha = t_{k_\alpha}$ solution of the characteristic equation [78].

If $f(t)$ is a polynomial, then the $t_{\alpha'}$ are the roots of the algebraic equation $f(t) = 0$. Therefore there are some known relations between the roots $t_{\alpha'}$ and the coefficients of the polynomial $f(t)$.

It is quite obvious that even these relations lead to corresponding relations between the eigenvalues of the different sets.

Then we may say that the sets are *linked* together.

Otherwise, when $f(t)$ is not a polynomial and no relation is reliable between the roots of $f(t) = 0$, then the sets of eigenvalues will be called *unlinked*.

Roma, December 1954.

SUMMARY

Here man searches the solutions of the 2nd order differential equations of the type $U'' + PU' + QU = 0$ where P, Q are known function of the independent variable; that type is of uttermost importance for physics.

The solutions are found as a special series of powers whose coefficients can be evaluated by the values of P and Q and the derivatives of them colculated in some determined points. Formulae ⁽³³⁾ and ⁽⁷²⁾ of the text are reliable for numerical calculations. Some properties of the eigenvalues are also found.