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ON THE FIRST AND THE SECOND CONJUGATE POINTS

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Three properties of conjugate points and extremal solutions of an *n*th-order linear ordinary differential equation are discussed. Also, a connection between the zero distribution and the factorization of an *n*th-order differential operator in the interval $(a, \eta_2(a))$ is established.

1. Introduction. We shall be concerned with the *n*th-order differential equation

(1.1)
$$Ly = \sum_{k=0}^{n} p_k(x) y^{(k)} = 0,$$

where the coefficients are real-valued functions which are continuous on an interval I and $p_n(x) \neq 0$, $x \in I$. A differential equation of the form (1.1) is called nonsingular on I. A solution y of (1.1) is said to have a zero of order k at $c \in I$ if $y(c) = y'(c) = \cdots = y^{(k-1)}(c) = 0$; if in addition $y^{(k)}(c) \neq 0$, we say that y has a zero of order exactly k at c. A zero of order exactly one is called simple. The mth conjugate point $\eta_m(a)$ of a point $a \in I$ is the smallest number $b > a, b \in I$, such that there exists a nontrivial solution of (1.1) which vanishes at a and has n + m - 1 zeros (counting multiplicities) on [a, b] [6]. Obviously, we have the relation $\eta_1(a) \leq \eta_2(a) \leq \cdots$. A nontrivial solution of (1.1) which has n zeros on $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ is called an extremal solution for the interval $[a, \eta_1(a)]$. A nontrivial solution of (1.1) is said to have an $i_1 - i_2 - \cdots - i_j$ distribution of zeros on I if it has a zero of order i_k at $x_k \in I$, $x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_j$, $k = 1, 2, \cdots, j$.

So far as the study of zero distribution of solutions [1-5, 8-11, 14] is concerned, it is convenient to divide the problem into two cases: $\eta_1(a) = \eta_2(a)$ and $\eta_1(a) < \eta_2(a)$. In a recent paper, Gustafson [2] obtained an interesting result for the case $\eta_1(a) = \eta_2(a)$. Evidently, $\eta_1(a) < \eta_2(a)$ for any second-order differential equation of the form (1.1). However, for higher-order equations both cases $\eta_1(a) = \eta_2(a)$ and $\eta_1(a) < \eta_2(a)$ occur. For example, $\eta_1(a) = \eta_2(a) = \eta_3(a)$ for the equation $y^{(w)} + 10y'' + 9y = 0$ [1], while $\eta_1(a) < \eta_2(a)$ for

$$(ry'')'' - py = 0, r > 0, p > 0, r \in C'', p \in C,$$

according to a result of Leighton and Nehari [6]. Other equations with the property

$$(\mathbf{P}_1) \qquad \qquad \eta_1(a) < \eta_2(a)$$

have been observed by Peterson [10].

Suppose Eq. (1.1) has an extremal solution for $[a, \eta_1(a)]$. Then it is well-known that (1.1) has an extremal solution for $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ which does not vanish on $(a, \eta_1(a))$ [12]. Of particular interest is the equation which has the property

(P₂) No extremal solution for $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ vanishes on $(a, \eta_1(a))$.

For example, it can be easily shown that y''' + y = 0 and y''' - y = 0 have the property (P₂). In fact, every extremal solution of y''' + y = 0 has a 2-1 distribution of zeros. On the other hand, every extremal solution of y''' - y = 0 has a 1-2 distribution of zeros. These two equations also have the property (P₁).

As it turns out, closely connected with (P_1) and (P_2) is the property

(P₃) There do not exist two (not necessarily distinct) extremal solutions for $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ with zero distributions (n - k) - k and (n - k - 1) - (k + 1), respectively, where k is a fixed number, $1 \le k \le n - 2$.

In §2 we prove that (P_3) implies (P_1) and (P_2) . Conversely, (P_1) and (P_2) taken together imply (P_3) . Moreover, we shall show that in general (P_1) neither implies nor is implied by (P_2) . As the last result of this section we shall exhibit a class of differential equations which has the properties (P_1) , (P_2) and (P_3) .

In §3 we assume (P₁) and investigate the zero distribution of solutions on the intervals $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ and $(a, \eta_2(a))$, and their consequences. In particular, we discuss a connection between the zero distribution and the factorization of (1.1) on the interval $(a, \eta_2(a))$.

In the sequel we shall have an occasion to use the function $w(x; x_1^{[k_1]}, x_2^{[k_2]}, \dots, x_p^{[k_p]})$ defined and used in [5]. Let y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n be *n* linearly independent solutions of (1.1). Then the function *w* is defined by

 $1 \le p \le n-1, k_1+k_2+\cdots+k_p = n-1$. Obviously, this function w is a solution of (1.1) with a zero of order k_i at x_i , $i = 1, 2, \cdots, p$. Moreover, it is continuous function of x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_p .

2. Properties (P₁), (P₂) and (P₃). Suppose (1.1) has an extremal solution Y for $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ with an $i_1 - i_2 - \cdots - i_i$ distribution of zeros, i.e., Y has a zero of order i_k at x_k , $k = 1, 2, \cdots, j$, $i_1 + i_2 + \cdots + i_i = n$, $a = x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_i = \eta_1(a)$. Numerous results have been obtained for the zero distribution of Y [2, 5, 9, 10, 12]. Of particular importance in this section is the following result which will be frequently referred to in the proofs.

THEOREM 2.1 [5]. If Y has a zero of order exactly i_m at x_m , $2 \le m \le j-1$, then (1.1) has an extremal solution for $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ with an $i_1 - \cdots - i_{m-1} - (i_m - 1) - i_{m+1} - \cdots - i_j$ distribution of zeros and an additional zero at an arbitrary point $\xi \in [a, \eta_1(a)]$.

A simple application of this theorem shows that (P_3) implies (P_2) . This result can then be used to prove that (P_3) also implies (P_1) . On the other hand, if (1.1) does not satisfy (P_3) , it is easily confirmed that (1.1) must violate either (P_1) or (P_2) .

THEOREM 2.2. Eq. (1.1) has the property (P_3) if and only if it satisfies (P_1) and (P_2) .

We shall illustrate by means of examples that in general (P_1) neither implies nor is implied by (P_2) . The nonsingular equation

(2.1)
$$y''' - \frac{6\sin x \cos x (\cos^2 x - \sin^2 x)}{3\sin^2 x \cos^2 x - 2} y''$$
$$-\frac{9\sin^2 x \cos^2 x + 14}{3\sin^2 x \cos^2 x - 2} y' = 0$$

has as a fundamental set of solutions $\sin^2 x \cos x$, $\cos^2 x \sin x$, and 1 [1, 13]. The Wronskian W of these three solutions is given by $W = 3\sin^2 x \cos^2 x - 2 < 0$, and the corresponding adjoint equation

(2.1)*
$$v''' + \left(\frac{6\sin x \cos x (\cos^2 x - \sin^2 x)}{3\sin^2 x \cos^2 x - 2} v\right)'' - \left(\frac{9\sin^2 x \cos^2 x + 14}{3\sin^2 x \cos^2 x - 2} v\right)' = 0$$

has a fundamental set of solutions $\sin^2 2x/W$, $(2\sin x - 3\sin^3 x)/W$, and $(3\cos^3 x - 2\cos x)/W$. It is easily confirmed that $\eta_1(0) = \eta_2(0) = \pi/2$ for (2.1)* and no extremal solution for $[0, \eta_1(0)]$ of (2.1)* vanishes in $(0, \eta_1(0))$. This shows that (P₂) does not in general imply (P₁).

To see that (P_1) does not in general imply (P_2) , consider the nonsingular equation

(2.2)
$$(6x^2 - 8x + 3)y^{(w)} - (12x - 8)y^{''} + 12y^{''} = 0,$$

for which $1, x, x(1-x)^2$, and $x(1-x)^3$ form a fundamental set of solutions, $\eta_1(0) = 1$, and of which no extremal solution for [0, 1] has a 3-1 distribution of zeros [4]. Moreover, no extremal solution for [0, 1] can vanish more than once in (0, 1). It is easily verified that (2.2) has no nontrivial solution with zeros of order 2 and 3 at x = 0 and x = 1, respectively. From these facts we can readily deduce $\eta_1(0) < \eta_2(0)$. On the other hand, $x(\lambda - x)(1 - x)^2$, $0 < \lambda < 1$, is an extremal solution for [0, 1] which vanishes at $\lambda, 0 < \lambda < 1$.

An obvious consequence of these examples is that (P_3) is not in general implied by either (P_1) or (P_2) alone.

In view of Theorem 2.2, it is clear that any differential equation which satisfies (P_3) will also satisfy (P_1) and (P_2) . Consider a differential equation of the form

$$L_n y + p y = 0,$$

where the operator L_n is successively defined by

$$L_0 y = \rho_0 y, \quad L_k y = \rho_k (L_{k-1} y)', \qquad k = 2, 3, \cdots, n.$$

The functions $\rho_0, \rho_1, \dots, \rho_n$ are assumed to be positive, $\rho_k \in C^{n-k}$, $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$, and p is assumed not to vanish. Eq. (2.3) was extensively studied by Nehari [7], who established the following result: If a nontrivial solution of (2.3) has zeros of order k and n - k at x = a and x = b, respectively (a < b), then n - k is even or odd, according as p < 0 or p > 0. Evidently, this result implies that Eq. (2.3) satisfies (P₃). Hence, we have the following theorem.

THEOREM 2.3. Eq. (2.3) has the properties (P_1) , (P_2) , and (P_3) .

3. Zero distribution and factorization. In this section we exclusively consider a differential equation of the form (1.1) with property (P₁). Let Y be an extremal solution of (1.1) for $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ with an $i_1 - i_2 - \cdots - i_j$ distribution of zeros, $a = x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_j = \eta(a)$, $i_1 + i_2 + \cdots + i_j = n$. Then Y has a zero of order exactly i_k at $x_k, k = 1, 2, \cdots, j$. This is because $\eta_1(a) < \eta_2(a)$. Therefore, by a repeated application of Theorem 2.1, we obtain

THEOREM 3.1. Suppose (1.1) has the property $\eta_1(a) < \eta_2(a)$ and has an extremal solution for $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ with an $i_1 - i_2 - \cdots - i_j$ distribution of zeros, $i_1 + i_2 + \cdots + i_j = n$. Let k_1, k_2, \cdots, k_p be arbitrary positive integers such that $k_1 + k_2 + \cdots + k_p = n$, and let $a = \xi_1, \xi_2, \cdots, \xi_p = \eta_1(a)$ be distinct points in $[a, \eta_1(a)]$. If $i_1 \leq k_1$ and $i_j \leq k_p$, then (1.1) has an extremal solution for $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ which has a zero of order exactly k_m at $\xi_m, m = 1, 2, \cdots, p$.

As is clear from Theorem 3.1, the zeros of solutions in $(a, \eta_1(a))$ can be moved to an arbitrary point in $(a, \eta_1(a))$, or can be separated into lower-order zeros in $(a, \eta_1(a))$. However, no such statements can be made in general for the zeros at the end points a and $\eta_1(a)$. On the other hand, the zeros of an extremal solution for $[a, \eta_1(a)]$ can be simultaneously separated into simple zeros in $[a, \eta_1(a) + \epsilon)$, $\epsilon > 0$ [4, 14]. By using a slight modification of the arguments given in the proof of Theorem 1 in [4], we shall establish the following result.

THEOREM 3.2. If (1.1) has a nontrivial solution with an (n-l)-l distribution of zeros in $(a, \eta_2(a))$, then (1.1) has a nontrivial solution with the zero distribution

(3.1)
$$\underbrace{1-1-\cdots-1}_{i}-j-1\underbrace{-\cdots-1}_{k}, \quad i+j+k=n,$$

in $(a, \eta_2(a))$, provided $i \ge n - l$ or $k \ge l$.

Proof. Consider the case $i \ge n - l$. Let y be a nontrivial solution of (1.1) which has zeros of order n - l and l at x = b and x = c, respectively, $a < b < c < \eta_2(a)$ and suppose l is maximal. Consider the function

$$w(x) = \begin{cases} w(x; c^{[n-1]}) & \text{if } l = n-1, \\ w(x; b^{[n-l-1]}, c^{[l]}), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

defined in §1. This function w cannot vanish identically; for if $w \equiv 0$ it would imply the existence of a nontrivial solution with a zero of order n-l-1 at b and a zero of order l+1 at c, contrary to the assumption. Therefore, w is a nontrivial solution of (1.1) with a zero of order exactly n-l at b and a zero of order exactly l at c. Consequently, the n-l zeros at b and l-j (out of l) zeros at c can be separated into n-j simple zeros in such a way that there are i simple zeros to the left and k simple zeros to the right of the jth-order zero at c (Cf. The proof of Theorem 1 [4]). This proves the theorem for the case $i \ge n-l$.

The proof for the case $k \ge l$ is similar.

REMARK. The above theorem can be restated as follows: If (1.1) does not have a nontrivial solution with the zero distribution (3.1) in $(a, \eta_2(a))$, then (1.1) does not have nontrivial solutions in $(a, \eta_2(a))$ with zero distributions (n-1)-1, (n-2)-2, \cdots , (n-k)-k, (n-k-j)-(k+j), \cdots , 1-(n-1).

We shall see that this result provides a link between the zero distribution and the factorization of the differential operator L in (1.1).

Let y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n be *n* linearly independent solutions of (1.1) and define

$$W_{k} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} y_{1} & y_{2} & \cdots & y_{k} \\ y'_{1} & y'_{2} & \cdots & y'_{k} \\ & & & \\ y_{1}^{(k-1)} & y_{2}^{(k-1)} & \cdots & y_{k}^{(k-1)} \end{vmatrix}, \quad k = 1, 2, \cdots, n.$$

It is well-known that $W_p > 0$ if and only if the operator L can be written as $L = L_1L_2$, where L_1 and L_2 are nonsingular differential operators of order n - p and p, respectively [15]. We require the following obvious extension of this result. THEOREM 3.3. Eq. (1.1) has k solutions y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k such that $W_{k_1} > 0$, $W_{k_2} > 0, \dots, W_{k_l} > 0$, $k_1 < k_2 < \dots < k_l = k$, if and only if the differential operator L in (1.1) can be written as the product of l + 1 nonsingular differential operators, i.e., $L = L_{l+1}L_l \cdots L_1$, where L_1 is of order k_1, L_i is of order $k_i - k_{i-1}$, $i = 2, 3, \dots, l$, and L_{l+1} is of order $n - k_l$.

Suppose (1.1) does not have a nontrivial solution with an (n-p)-p distribution of zeros in (a, b). Let y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n be solutions of (1.1) such that $y_i^{(n-j)}(a+\epsilon) = \delta_{ij}$, $\epsilon > 0$, $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Then $W_p > 0$ in $(a+\epsilon, b)$. Since $\epsilon > 0$ is arbitrary, we may assume that $W_p > 0$ in (a, b). Hence, we have $L = L_1L_2$, where L_1 and L_2 are nonsingular differential operators of order n-p and p, respectively.

Likewise, from Theorems 3.2, 3.3, and the above remark we deduce

THEOREM 3.4. If (1.1) does not have a nontrivial solution with the zero distribution (3.1) in $(a, \eta_2(a))$, the differential operator L can be written as the product of nonsingular differential operators,

$$L = L_{i+k+1} L_{i+k} \cdots L_1$$

in $(a, \eta_2(a))$, where $L_m, m \neq k + 1$, is of first order and L_{k+1} is of jth order.

Let

$$\mathfrak{U}v = \sum_{k=0}^{n} q_{k}(\xi) v^{(k)} = 0$$

be the differential equation obtained from Ly = 0 through the change of variable $\xi = a + \eta_2(a) - x$. Clearly, Ly = 0 has a nontrivial solution with an $i_1 - i_2 - \cdots - i_k$ distribution of zeros in $(a, \eta_2(a))$ if and only if $\mathfrak{L}v = 0$ has a nontrivial solution with an $i_k - i_{k-1} - \cdots - i_1$ distribution of zeros in $(a, \eta_2(a))$. In particular, if Ly = 0 does not have a nontrivial solution with the zero distribution (3.1), then $\mathfrak{L}v = 0$ does not have a nontrivial solution with the zero distribution

$$\underbrace{1-1-\cdots-1}_{k}-j-1-\underbrace{\cdots-1}_{i}, \quad i+j+k=n,$$

in $(a, \eta_2(a))$. Apply Theorem 3.4 to the nonsingular differential operator $\mathfrak{L}: \mathfrak{L}$ can be written as the product of nonsingular differential operators

$$\mathfrak{L} = \dot{\mathfrak{L}}_{i+k+1} \dot{\mathfrak{L}}_{i+k} \cdots \dot{\mathfrak{L}}_1$$

in $(a, \eta_2(a))$, where $\hat{\mathfrak{L}}_p, p \neq i + 1$, is of first order and $\hat{\mathfrak{L}}_{i+1}$ is of *j*th order. Transform the equation $\mathfrak{L}v = \hat{\mathfrak{L}}_{i+k+1}\hat{\mathfrak{L}}_{i+k}\cdots\hat{\mathfrak{L}}_1v = 0$ back to Ly = 0 by substituting $x = a + \eta_2(a) - \xi$. Under this transformation each differential operator $\hat{\mathfrak{L}}_p, p = 1, 2, \cdots, i + k + 1$, in (3.2) remains nonsingular. Moreover, the order of each $\hat{\mathfrak{L}}_p$ and the order in which these differential operators appear remain unchanged. We summarize this result in the following theorem.

THEOREM 3.5. If (1.1) does not have a nontrivial solution with the zero distribution (3.1) in $(a, \eta_2(a))$, the differential operator L can be written as the product of nonsingular differential operators, $L = \mathfrak{L}_{i+k+1}\mathfrak{L}_{i+k}\cdots\mathfrak{L}_1$, in $(a, \eta_2(a))$, where $\mathfrak{L}_p, p \neq i+1$, is of first order and \mathfrak{L}_{i+1} is of jth order.

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