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# LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL TRANSFORMATIONS OF THE $2^{2^{\text {d }}}$ ORDER AS A REPRESENTATION OF AN ABSTRACT MODEL 

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## INTRODUCTION

We start with the notation and the terminology. By the carriers $q_{0} Q_{0} \ldots$ we mean the continuous real functions $q(t), Q(t), \ldots$ in open intervals. We deal with $2^{\text {nd }}$ order differential equations

$$
(g)
$$

$$
y^{\prime \prime}=q(t) y
$$

and

$$
(Q)
$$

$$
Y^{\prime \prime}=Q(t) Y
$$

provided the coefficients $\boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{Q}$ are continuous in convenient open intervals.
For any two equations $(q),(Q)$ there are considered transformations of the form $\boldsymbol{Y}(t)=m(t) y(\alpha(t))$ with convenient $m(t)$ and $\alpha(t)$, where $y$ and $Y$ are solutions of ( $q$ ) and ( $Q$ ), respectively.

Solutions of the present differential equations are considered in open intervals only. By the term integral, we mean a non-continuable solution which is, moreover, for the differential equations (q), (Q), $\ldots$ a non-trivial one.

Recall that for any map $f: M \rightarrow N$ the symbols $M=\operatorname{Dom} f$ and $N=\operatorname{Im} f$ are used.

It is proved [1] that
1- $m(t)=$ const $/ \sqrt{\left|\alpha^{\prime}(t)\right|}$ and thus the transformation is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y(t)=\frac{y(\alpha(t))}{\sqrt{\left|\alpha^{\prime}(t)\right|}}, \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

$2^{\circ}$ if the last formula holds in some open interval $J$, then $\alpha$ is a solution in $J$ of the 3rd order non-linear differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\{\alpha, t\}+q(\alpha) \alpha^{\prime 2}=Q(t) \tag{q,Q}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\{\alpha, t\}=\frac{1}{2} \frac{\alpha^{\prime \prime \prime}}{\alpha^{\prime}}-\frac{3}{4} \frac{\alpha^{\prime \prime 2}}{\alpha^{\prime 2}}=-\sqrt{\left|\alpha^{\prime}\right|}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\left|\alpha^{\prime}\right|}}\right)^{\prime \prime}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\alpha^{\prime \prime}}{\alpha^{\prime}}\right)^{\prime}-\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{\alpha^{\prime \prime}}{\alpha^{\prime}}\right)^{2}
$$

is Schwarz's derivative,
$3^{\circ}$ for any integral $y$ of $(q)$ and $\alpha$ of $(q, Q)$ the function (*) is a solution of (Q) in $\operatorname{Dom} \alpha$ and the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=\frac{Y(A)}{\sqrt{\left|A^{\prime}\right|}} \tag{**}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds in $\operatorname{Im} \alpha$, where $A=\alpha^{-1}$ means the inverse function.
$4^{\circ}$ for the arbitrary initial conditions $\alpha_{0} \in \operatorname{Dom} q, \alpha_{0}^{\prime} \neq 0, \alpha_{0}^{\prime \prime} \in \mathbf{R}$ at $t_{0} \in \operatorname{Dom} \boldsymbol{Q}$ the equation $(q, Q)$ has the unique integral $\alpha$. Thus $\alpha \in C_{\text {Dom } Q}^{3}, \alpha^{\prime} \neq 0$ and $\alpha$ approaches the boundary of $\operatorname{Dom} Q \times \operatorname{Dom} q$,
$5^{\circ}$ for integrals $\beta$ of $(q, Q)$ and $\alpha$ of $(Q, \tilde{q})$ the composition $\beta \circ \alpha$ - if it exists, i.e. iff $\operatorname{Dom} \beta \cap \operatorname{Im} \alpha$ is an open interval - is a solution of $(q, \tilde{q})$,
$6^{\circ}$ for any integral $\alpha$ of $(q, Q)$ the inverse function $\alpha^{-1}$ is an integral of ( $Q, q$ ).
Note that the equation ( $q, Q$ ) splits in two equations: one of them is

$$
\sqrt{\alpha^{\prime}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha^{\prime}}}\right)^{\prime \prime}+q(\alpha){\alpha^{\prime 2}}^{\prime \prime}=Q(t)
$$

and admits only increasing solutions, the other is

$$
\sqrt{-\alpha^{\prime}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{-\alpha^{\prime}}}\right)^{\prime \prime}+q(\alpha) \alpha^{\prime 2}=Q(t)
$$

and has only decreasing solutions.
Let us borrow the symbol $[y, z]$ for denoting the ordered couple of linearly independent integrals of the equation ( $q$ ) and call it a basis of ( $q$ ). Putting any basis $[y, z]$ of $(q)$ to the form $y= \pm r \sin \alpha, z= \pm r \cos \alpha, r>0$ we get $\frac{y}{z}=\operatorname{tg} \alpha$ and $r=\sqrt{y^{2}+z^{2}}=\frac{\text { const }}{\sqrt{\left|\alpha^{\prime}\right|}}$.

Every continuous solution $\alpha$ in $\operatorname{Dom} q$ of the functional equation $\operatorname{tg} \alpha=\frac{y}{z}$ is called a phase of the ordered couple $[y, z]$.

There holds [1]
$7^{\circ}$ every phase $\alpha$ is an integral of the differential equation

$$
(-1, q) \quad-\{\alpha, t\}-\alpha^{\prime 2}=q(t)
$$

in Dom $q$ and, on the contrary, each integral $\alpha$ of $(-1, q)$ exists in Dom $q$ and is a phase of $(q)$, i.e. of some convenient basis $[y, z]$ of $(q)$.

Consequently every integral $w$ of $(q)$ is expressible in the form

$$
w(t)=\frac{a}{\sqrt{\left|\alpha^{\prime}(t)\right|}} \sin (\alpha(t)-b),
$$

where $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$.

## 1. BOTH-SIDED OSCILLATORY CARRIERS AND PHASES

Henceforth only both-sided oscillatory equations ( $q$ ), ( $Q$ ), $\ldots$ in $\mathbf{R}$ are considered. Without any loss of generality we limit ourselves to increasing phases and put

$$
\mathfrak{P}=\left\{\alpha \in \mathrm{C}_{\mathbf{R}}^{3} \mid \alpha^{\prime}>0, \operatorname{Im} \alpha=\mathbf{R}\right\} .
$$

Evidently $\mathfrak{P}$ is a group with respect to the composition of functions. Every $\alpha \in \mathfrak{P}$ is the phase of the basis $\left[\frac{\sin \alpha}{\sqrt{\alpha^{\prime}}}, \frac{\cos \alpha}{\sqrt{\alpha^{\prime}}}\right]$ of the both-sided oscillatory equation (q) in $\mathbf{R}$, where $q(t)=-\{\alpha, t\}-\alpha^{\prime 2}$.

On the contrary, if $\alpha$ is any increasing phase of the basis $[y, z]$ of some both-sided oscillatory equation ( $q$ ) in $\mathbf{R}$, then $\alpha$ is an integral of $(-1, q)$ in $\mathbf{R}$ and according to the property $3^{\circ}$ the function $w=\frac{\sin \alpha}{\sqrt{\alpha^{\prime}}}$ is a solution of $(q)$ in $\mathbf{R}$. Since $w$ has infinitely many zeros at $-\infty$ and $+\infty$ the phase $\alpha$ fulfils $\operatorname{Im} \alpha=\mathbf{R}$ and thus $\alpha \in \boldsymbol{F}$.

This proves that $\mathfrak{B}$ is in fact the group of (increasing) phases and can be written as $\mathfrak{P}=\bigcup\langle-1, q\rangle$ where $q$ ranges over all both-sided oscillatory carriers in $\mathbf{R}$, the union being disjoint and provided that $\langle-1, q\rangle$ means the set of all increasing phases of the equation ( $q$ ).

Let us denote the subgroup $\langle-1,-1\rangle$ by $\mathbb{E}$, i.e. the set of all increasing integrals of the equation
$(-1,-1) \quad-\{\alpha, t\}-\alpha^{\prime 2}=-1$.
By the same arguments as in [2] it can be proved that ${ }^{\boldsymbol{n} \mathbb{E}}=\mathbb{E}$. In comparison with the basic model we have put here -1 instead of $e$. We denote here by $\langle q, Q\rangle$ the set of all increasing integrals of the differential equation $(q, Q)$. The map $\Gamma$ is here $\operatorname{tg} t$ and $\mathscr{M}$ is the set of all functions $\operatorname{tg} \alpha(t)$, where $\alpha(t)$ ranges over $\mathfrak{P}$.

The group $\mathscr{H}$ is here the group of all real homographies $h(t)=\frac{a t+b}{c t+d}$ with the positive determinant. The multiplication $\mathscr{M} \circ \mathfrak{P} \subseteq \mathscr{M}$ is here the composition of functions.

We can see that the subgroup $3=\Gamma^{-1}(\Gamma t)$ is here the set of all $\alpha \in \mathfrak{P}$ such that $\operatorname{tg} \alpha(t)=\operatorname{tg} t$, i.e. $3=\left\{\varepsilon^{v}\right\}_{v a z}$ where $Z$ denotes the set of all integers and $e^{v}(t)=$ $=t+v \pi$. In other words $\mathbf{3}$ is the infinite cyclic group generated by the function $s(t)=t+\pi$.

The basic properties, known from the basic model, of the decomposition $\mathfrak{P} / \mathrm{a}$ © and the map $\Gamma: \mathfrak{P} \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}$ are here consequences of the following statements $1^{-1}\{t, t\}=0$, where $\imath$ denotes the identity on $\mathbf{R}$,
$2^{\circ}\{\operatorname{tg} t, t\}=1$,
$3^{\circ}\{\alpha, t\}=\{\beta, t\}$ iff there exists a homography
$h \in \tilde{\mathscr{H}}$ such that $\beta=h \circ \alpha,(\tilde{\mathscr{H}}$ are homographies with $\operatorname{det} \neq 0)$
$4^{\circ}$ for the composed functions $\beta \circ \alpha$ there holds

$$
\{\beta \circ \alpha, t\}=\{\beta(\alpha), \alpha\} \alpha^{\prime 2}+\{\alpha, t\} .
$$

## 2. BOTH-SIDES OSCILLATORY BASES AND DISPERSIONS

For every both-sided oscillatory carrier $q(t)$ on $\mathbf{R}$ let us consider the corresponding 2-dimensional real vector space $\boldsymbol{V}_{q}$ consisting of the zero function on $\mathbf{R}$ and all integrals of the equation (q).

If $u=[y, z]$ is a basis of ( $q$ ), then the formula $\operatorname{tg} \alpha=\frac{y}{z}$ implies $\alpha^{\prime} / \cos ^{2} \alpha=$ $=-W(u) / z^{2}$, where $W(\boldsymbol{m})$ means the Wronskian of the basis $\boldsymbol{m}$. Hence here the constant value $W(\boldsymbol{u})$ has always the opposite sign than $\alpha^{\prime}$.

Since we consider the increasing phases only, we must limit ourselves to the bases $u=[y, z]$ with negative Wronskians. Let $\langle q\rangle$ denote the set of all bases of $(q)$ the Wronskians of which are negative. Then we put $\mathscr{G}=\bigcup\langle q\rangle$, where $q$ ranges over all both-sided oscillatory carriers on $\mathbf{R}$.

To obtain the realization of the map $\Delta: \mathscr{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$, known from the basic model, let us put $\Delta \boldsymbol{u}=\frac{y}{z}$ for every basis $\boldsymbol{u}=[y, z] \in \mathscr{D}$. All needed properties of this map $\Delta$ follow from the statements $1^{\circ}-4^{\circ}$ sub 1 . about Schwarz's derivative.

If $\boldsymbol{u}=[y, z]$ is a basis of $(q)$, then all bases $\boldsymbol{U}=[Y, Z]$ of $(q)$ are given by the formula

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
Y \\
Z
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
y \\
z
\end{array}\right],
$$

where $k=\left[\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right]$ ranges over all real non-singular matrices.
Owing to the formula $W(\boldsymbol{U})=W(\boldsymbol{u})$. det $\boldsymbol{k}$ we must choose $\mathscr{K}$ as the set of all $2^{\text {did }}$ order real matrices with positive determinants. Evidently this group $\mathscr{X}$ with multiplication of matrices as the group operation works as a group of permutations on $\$$.

The kernel $\mathscr{A}$ of the homomorphism $\boldsymbol{\theta}: \mathscr{X} \rightarrow \mathscr{H}$ is the set $\{\lambda\}_{\lambda \neq 0}$ where $I=\left[\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right]$ and $\lambda$ ranges over all real numbers different from zero.

For every $\alpha \in \mathscr{P}$ and every $u=[y, z] \in \mathscr{P}$ the product $u \square \alpha$ is defined by the formula
$\left({ }^{*} *\right)$

$$
u \square \alpha=\left[\frac{y(\alpha(t))}{\sqrt{\alpha^{\prime}(t)}}, \frac{z(\alpha(t))}{\sqrt{\alpha^{\prime}(t)}}\right]
$$

according to the introduction. Hence the multiplication $\square \boldsymbol{B}=\mathscr{B}$ is well defined and we can see that it is associative with respect to $\Delta, \mathscr{H}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ and fulfils all other needed properties supposed in the basic model.

A phase $\varphi \in \mathfrak{P}$ will be called a dispersion of the carrier $q$ if it satisfies the differential equation $(q, q)$. The set $\langle q, q\rangle$ of all dispersions of the carrier $q$ is a subgroup in $\mathfrak{P}$, conjugated with $\mathfrak{E}=\langle-1,-1\rangle$ by the formula $\langle q, q\rangle=\alpha^{-1} \circ \mathfrak{E} \circ \alpha$ for any phase $\alpha \in\langle-1, q\rangle$.

The nucleus $\mathfrak{J}$ of $\mathfrak{E}$ is the kernel of the homomorphism $\mathcal{S}: \mathbb{E} \rightarrow \mathscr{H}$ which assigns the homography $h \in \mathscr{H}$ to the dispersion $\eta \in \mathbb{E}$ according to the formula $\operatorname{tg} \eta=h \circ \operatorname{tg} t$. This nucleus 3 generates the nucleus $3 q$ of $\langle q, q\rangle$ by the formula $\mathbf{3}_{q}=\alpha^{-1} \circ 3 \circ \alpha$ for each $\alpha \in\langle-1, q\rangle$ owing to the normality of $\mathbf{3}$ in $\mathbb{E}$.

Two things are here particularly important, first that $\mathbf{3}_{\mathbf{q}}$ are infinite cyclic groups and secondly that we deal with increasing phases only. If the invertor of the group $\mathcal{B}_{q}$ in $\mathfrak{P}$ is defined as ${ }^{1} \mathcal{B}_{q}=\left\{\alpha \in \mathfrak{P} \mid \alpha \circ \gamma=\gamma^{-1} \circ \alpha \forall \gamma \in \mathcal{Z}_{q}\right\}$ and the centralizator as ${ }^{2} \mathcal{Z}_{q}=\left\{\alpha \in \mathfrak{P} \mid \alpha \circ \gamma=\gamma \circ \alpha \forall \gamma \in \mathcal{B}_{\ell}\right\}$, then owing to the first property of 3 we have $\alpha \in^{1} 3$ iff $\alpha \circ \varepsilon=\varepsilon^{-1} \circ \alpha$ and $\alpha \in \underbrace{z} 3$ iff $\alpha \circ \varepsilon=\varepsilon \circ \alpha$. The second property implies that ${ }^{1} 3=\varnothing$ since for $\alpha \in^{1} 3$ it is $\alpha 0 \varepsilon=\varepsilon^{-1} \circ \alpha$ or $\alpha(t+\pi)=\alpha(t)-\pi$ which contradicts the increasing of $\alpha$. The first property ensures that ${ }^{3} 3={ }^{2} 3 \cup^{1} 3$ where ${ }^{n} 3=\{\alpha \in \mathfrak{P} \mid \alpha \circ 3=3 \circ \alpha\}$ is the normalizator of 3 . Thus we have here ${ }^{n} 3={ }^{2} 3$ and consequently the isomorphism ${ }^{*} \alpha: 3 \rightarrow 3$, such that $\gamma \mapsto \alpha^{-1} \circ \gamma \circ \alpha$ for each $\gamma \in 3$ is really independent on $\alpha \in\langle-1, q\rangle$ owing to the inclusion $\mathbb{E} \subseteq{ }^{n} 3={ }^{2} 3$. Hence the generator $\varphi=$ $=a^{-1} \circ \varepsilon \circ \alpha$ of $3_{q}$ is determined univocally and independently on $\alpha \in\langle-1, q\rangle$.

In other words, for the dispersions $\varepsilon^{\boldsymbol{y}} \in \mathbf{3}, \varphi^{\boldsymbol{y}} \in \mathbf{3}_{\mathbf{q}}$ and the phases $\alpha \in\langle-1, q\rangle$ we have the Abelian relations $\alpha \circ \varphi^{v}=\varepsilon^{v} \circ \alpha, v \in \mathrm{Z}$.

Recall that the notion of Abelian relations for the group 3 according to the basic model implies that for every $\gamma \in \mathbf{3}$ the mapping $\gamma \mapsto \alpha^{-1} \circ \gamma \circ \alpha$ is an automorphism of 3 independent on $\alpha$ taken from the same class of the decomposition $\mathfrak{E} / \mathbf{n}_{\mathrm{n}}(\mathbf{Z} 3) \cap \mathfrak{E}$.

Since here $\mathbb{E} \subseteq{ }^{\mathbf{z}} \mathbf{3}$, we have only one automorphism for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{E}$, which is necessarily the identity. Hence $\mathbf{3} \subseteq^{8} \mathfrak{C}$ where ${ }^{8} \mathfrak{C}$ means the centre of $\mathfrak{E}$. Certainly, there holds $\mathbf{3}_{\boldsymbol{q}} \subseteq^{8}\langle q, q\rangle$ for every carrier $q$.

Note that in this $2^{\text {nd }}$ order realization we have ${ }^{\boldsymbol{B}} \mathscr{H}=\{i\}$ and ${ }^{\mathbf{8}} \mathscr{X}=\mathscr{R}=\{\lambda I\}_{\lambda \neq 0}$. This implies ${ }^{B}\langle q, q\rangle \subseteq 3_{q}=^{*}\langle q, q\rangle$ and hence we have here a very particular realization of the basic model, namely that fulfilling ${ }^{3}\langle q, q\rangle=3_{q}={ }^{\mathrm{K}}\langle q, q\rangle$ and, moreover, ${ }^{\boldsymbol{8}} \boldsymbol{X}=\boldsymbol{A}$.

## 3. HOMOMORPHISMS AND PSEUDONORMS

Certainly, we still suppose that all carriers are both-sides oscillatory on $\mathbf{R}$.
We deal with three decompositions $\mathfrak{P} /{ }_{\mathrm{r}} \mathbb{E}, \mathscr{M} /_{\mathrm{r}} \mathscr{H}$ and $\mathscr{B} / \mathbf{r} \mathscr{K}$ the first two being in one-to-one correspondence under the map $\Gamma$ and the last two under $\Delta$. Their classes can be written as $\langle-1, q\rangle,\langle 0, q\rangle$ and $\langle q\rangle$, respectively. Note that the notation $\langle 0, q\rangle$ has here a real sense since $\zeta \in\langle 0, q\rangle$ are all solutions on $\mathbf{R}$ with increasing branches of the differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\{\zeta, t\}=q(t) \tag{0,q}
\end{equation*}
$$

For every $\zeta \in\langle 0, q\rangle$ the homomorphism $* \zeta:\langle q, q\rangle \rightarrow \mathscr{H}$ is defined by the equation $\zeta \circ \alpha=h \zeta$. Its kernel is $\mathbf{3}_{\boldsymbol{q}}$.

In this realization of the basic model the group $\mathscr{K}$ has the special property similarly as $\mathscr{H}$, namely that the implication $\left(\boldsymbol{k}_{1} u=\boldsymbol{k}_{2} \boldsymbol{u}\right) \Rightarrow\left(\boldsymbol{k}_{1}=\boldsymbol{k}_{2}\right)$ holds for any fixed $u \in \mathscr{B}$ and $k_{1}, k_{2} \in \mathscr{K}$.

For every $u \in\langle q\rangle$ the homomorphism ${ }^{*} u:\langle q, q\rangle \rightarrow \mathscr{X}$ is defined by the equation $\boldsymbol{u} \square \alpha=\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{u}$, i.e. by the equation

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\frac{y(\alpha)}{\sqrt{\alpha^{\prime}}} \\
\frac{z(\alpha)}{\sqrt{\alpha^{\prime}}}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
y \\
z
\end{array}\right],
$$

where $u=[y, z]$ and $k=\left[\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right]$. Passing to the Wronskians, we get $W(u(\alpha))=$ $=W(u)$. det $k$, where on the left it is the value of $W(u)$ at the number $\alpha(t)$. Hence we have necessarily $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{k}=1$.

The most important thing now is to prove that the group $\mathscr{K}^{\prime}$ of all unimodular $2^{\text {nd }}$ order real matrices with the determinant equal to 1 is the image of the homomorphism *u. We can prove a slightly more general

Lemma 1. Let $\boldsymbol{u}=[y, z]$ be a basis of an arbitrary (not necessarily both-sided oscillatory) differential equation $(q)$ defined in some open interval $\operatorname{Dom} q \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ and similarly $U=[Y, Z]$ a basis of $(Q)$ defined in $\operatorname{Dom} Q \subseteq \mathbf{R}$. Let $\zeta=\frac{y}{z}$ and $\boldsymbol{Z}=\frac{\boldsymbol{Y}}{\boldsymbol{Z}}$ be the corresponding semi-phases.

There exists a solution $\alpha$ of the differential equation $(\boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{Q})$ such that
(**) $\quad \frac{y(\alpha(t))}{\sqrt{\left|\alpha^{\prime}(t)\right|}}=Y(t) \quad$ and $\quad \frac{z(\alpha(t))}{\sqrt{\left|\alpha^{\prime}(t)\right|}}=Z(t)$
holds if and only if the absolute values of Wronskians are equal, i.e. $|W(U)|=$ $=|W(u)|$, and an open interval $J \subseteq \operatorname{Im} \zeta \cap \operatorname{Im} Z$ exists such that $\operatorname{sgn} \gamma\left(\alpha_{0}\right)=$ $=\operatorname{sgn} Y\left(t_{0}\right)$ (or $\operatorname{sgn} z\left(\alpha_{0}\right)=\operatorname{sgn} Z\left(t_{0}\right)$ ) is fulfilled for some $\alpha_{0} \in \zeta^{-1}(J)$ and $t_{0} \in$ $\in Z^{-1}(J)$.

Then $\alpha$ can be determined by the initial conditions $\alpha\left(t_{0}\right)=\alpha_{0}, \alpha^{\prime}\left(t_{0}\right)=\alpha_{0}^{\prime}$ and $\alpha_{0}^{\prime \prime}\left(t_{0}\right)=\alpha_{0}^{\prime \prime}$, where $\alpha_{0}^{\prime}$ is uniquely calculated from the relations

$$
\left|\alpha_{0}^{\prime}\right|=\frac{y^{2}\left(\alpha_{0}\right)}{Y^{2}\left(t_{0}\right)}\left(=\frac{z^{2}\left(\alpha_{0}\right)}{Z^{2}\left(t_{0}\right)}\right), \quad W(\boldsymbol{U})=W(u) \cdot \operatorname{sgn} \alpha_{0}^{\prime}
$$

and $\alpha_{0}^{\prime \prime}$ is uniquely calculated from the equation

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
Y^{\prime}\left(t_{0}\right) \\
Z^{\prime}\left(t_{0}\right)
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
y^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{0}\right) \\
z^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{0}\right)
\end{array}\right] \sqrt{\left|\alpha_{0}^{\prime}\right|} \operatorname{sgn} \alpha_{0}^{\prime}-\frac{1}{2}\left[\begin{array}{l}
Y\left(t_{0}\right) \\
Z\left(t_{0}\right)
\end{array}\right] \frac{\alpha_{0}^{\prime \prime}}{\alpha_{0}^{\prime}} .
$$

Moreover, the formulae $\left(_{*}^{*}{ }_{*}^{*}\right.$ ) hold in the Dom $\alpha$ of the whole integral $\alpha$ of $(q, Q)$ which is given by those initial conditions.

Now, in case of both-sided oscillatory carriers on $\mathbf{R}$ it is clear that the condition of lemma is satisfied. We can even put $t_{0}$ equal to an arbitrary zero of $Y$ and $\alpha_{0}$ equal to one of any two consecutive zeros of $y$ (for one of them the condition is fulfilled and for the other not, since the sign of $z$ changes in any two consecutive zeros of $y$ ).

Certainly, we deal here in fact with a basis $u=[y, z] \in\langle q\rangle$ and another basis $\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{u}=\boldsymbol{U}=[Y, Z]$ where $\boldsymbol{k} \in \mathscr{K}$ and $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{k}=1$. Thus $\boldsymbol{U} \in\langle q\rangle$ and $W(\boldsymbol{U})=W(\boldsymbol{u})$ so that the transformation $\left({ }_{*}^{*} \underset{*}{*}\right)$ is realized by means of some increasing integral $\alpha$ of the equation $(q, q)$.

The question of Dom $\alpha$ and $\operatorname{Im} \alpha$ for integrals of $(q, q)$ is now topical. We shall prove.

Lemma 2. If and only if the carrier $q$ in $\operatorname{Dom} q \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ is both-sided oscillatory, then for every carrier $Q$ it is $\operatorname{Dom} \alpha=\operatorname{Dom} Q$ for each integral $\alpha$ of the equation $(q, Q)$.

Proof. Let $\operatorname{Dom} \alpha=\operatorname{Dom} Q$ for every $Q$ and each integral $\alpha$ of $(q, Q)$. Then for each integral $A$ of $(Q, q)$ the inverse function $A^{-1}$ is an integral of $(q, Q)$ and thus $\operatorname{Im} A=\operatorname{Dom} A^{-1}=\operatorname{Dom} Q$. Particularly if $Q$ is both-sided oscillatory in Dom $Q$, then for each integral $Y$ of $(Q)$ and each integral $A$ of $(Q, q)$ the solution of $(q), y=Y(A) / \sqrt{\left|A^{\prime}\right|}$, has infinitely many roots at both ends of its interval of existence Dom $A$. Hence $y$ is an integral of both-sided oscillatory equation ( $q$ ) and it is by the way $\operatorname{Dom} A=\operatorname{Dom} q$.

On the contrary, let ( $q$ ) be both-sided oscillatory in Dom $q$. Let us admit that there exists a carrier $Q$ and an integral $\alpha$ of $(q, Q)$ such that $\operatorname{Dom} \alpha \neq \operatorname{Dom} \boldsymbol{Q}$.

Without loss of generality we can suppose that $\alpha$ is increasing, $\operatorname{Dom} q=] a, b[$, Dom $\alpha=] c, d[$, where $a<c$.

Let us denote the restriction $Q / j c, d\left[\right.$ by $Q^{*}$. Then $\alpha$ is an integral of $(q, Q)$ and for every integral $y$ of $(q)$ the solution of $\left(Q^{*}\right), Y=y(\alpha) / \sqrt{\left|\alpha^{\prime}\right|}$, has infinitely many roots at $c$. Hence $Q^{*}$ is a left-sided oscillatory carrier and no left-sided continuous prolongation of $Q^{*}$ exists. This contradicts the existence of $Q$, which is such a prolongation. Hence we find that for every carrier $Q$ and each integral $\alpha$ of $(q, \boldsymbol{Q})$ it holds $\operatorname{Dom} \alpha=\operatorname{Dom} Q$. Lemma 2 is proved.

Consequently the dual affirmation holds: if and only if the carrier $\boldsymbol{Q}$ is bothsided oscillatory in $\operatorname{Dom} \boldsymbol{Q} \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ then for every carrier $q$ and each integral $\alpha$ of $(q, Q)$ it holds $\operatorname{Im} \alpha=\operatorname{Dom} q$.

Particularly if and only if both carriers $q$ and $Q$ are both-sided oscillatory, then each integral $\alpha$ of $(q, Q)$ is defined on $\operatorname{Dom} Q$ and maps this interval onto Dom $q$.

Now we can finish the exposition that the group $\mathscr{H}^{\prime}$ of all $2^{\text {nd }}$ order real matrices $\boldsymbol{k}$ with $\operatorname{det} k=1$ is the image of any homomorphism * $u$.

In fact, only the both-sided oscillatory carriers $q$ on $\mathbf{R}$ are considered and we have seen that for any $u \in\langle q\rangle$ and $k \in \mathscr{H}^{\prime}$ there exists an increasing integral $a$ of $(q, q)$ such that $\left({ }_{*}^{*}{ }_{*}^{*}\right)$ holds. Now it is clear that $\operatorname{Dom} \alpha=\operatorname{Im} \alpha=\mathbf{R}$ and thus $\alpha \in \mathscr{F}$ or even $\alpha \in\langle q, q\rangle$ and thus to every $k \in \mathscr{K}^{\prime}$ there exists $\alpha \in\langle q, q\rangle$ such that $\boldsymbol{m} \square \boldsymbol{\alpha}=\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{u}$ holds.

Evidently the group $\mathscr{K}^{\prime}$ is invariant in $\mathscr{K}$. Moreover, there exists a minimal subgroup $\mathscr{L} \subseteq \mathscr{X}$ such that $\mathscr{L} \cap \mathscr{K}^{\prime}=\{I\}$ and $\mathscr{L} \mathscr{K}^{\prime}=\mathscr{K}$; namely $\mathscr{L}=$ $=\{\lambda I\}_{\lambda>0}$ where $\lambda$ ranges over all positive real numbers.

Note that $\mathscr{R}=\{\lambda I\}_{\lambda \neq 0}$ and that $\mathscr{R} \cap \mathscr{K}^{\prime}= \pm I$ and $\mathscr{R} \mathscr{K}^{\prime}=\mathscr{K}$.
The same arguments as in the preceding paragraph ensure that the set $\mathscr{T}^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{w})=$ $=\{m \square \alpha \mid \alpha \in \mathfrak{B}\}$ consists of all bases $v \in \mathscr{B}$ which have the same (negative) value of Wronskians as $\boldsymbol{w}$.

According to the absolute values of Wronskians the set $\mathscr{O}$ of all bases decomposes into classes $\mathscr{F}^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{w})$.

It is natural to keep the multiplicative group $G=] 0, \infty[$ and assign to every basis $\boldsymbol{u} \in \mathscr{G}$ the pseudonorm $|\boldsymbol{u}|=|W(u)|$.

Note that the groups $G, \mathscr{L}$ and the factorgroup $\mathscr{K} / \mathscr{X}^{\prime}$ are isomorph. The pseudonorm of $\boldsymbol{k} \in \mathscr{X}$ is defined here as the (positive) value det $\boldsymbol{k}$.

The other decomposition of $\mathscr{B}$ consists of the classes $\langle q\rangle$. We can see that any class $\langle q\rangle$ of the latter decomposition intersects with any class $\boldsymbol{G}^{\prime}(w)$ of the former decomposition in the set of all bases $u \quad\langle q, q\rangle=\mathscr{X}^{\prime} u$.

In comparison with the basic model here the unimodular bases are exactly those with the Wronskian equal to -1 . One of them is the basis [sin $t, \cos t$ ].

Now the following test for the transformation $v=u \square \alpha$ between two given bases $u, v \in \mathscr{B}$ becomes more visible: such a transformation holds iff the (negative) values of Wronskians of $u$ and $v$ are equal.

## 4. APPLICATION TO THE DISTRIBUTION OF ZEROS

A real function $\alpha(t)$ of real variable $t$ will describe the distribution of zeros of integrals of the differential equation $(q)$ if for every integral $w$ of $(q)$ some non-zero constant $\lambda_{w}$ exists such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{w(\alpha(t))}{\sqrt{\left|\alpha^{\prime}(t)\right|}}=\lambda_{w} w(t) \tag{}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds. Certainly, then $\alpha$ is a solution of the differential equation $(q, q)$. Moreover, $\alpha(t)$ is increasing owing to the Sturm theorem.

Let $\boldsymbol{u}=[y, z]$ be a basis of $(q)$. Then for every integral $w=a y+b z$ of $(q)$ the formula ( $\left(^{*}\right)$ ) gives $a \lambda_{y} y+b \lambda_{z} z=\lambda_{w}(a y+b z)$ and hence $\lambda_{w}=\lambda_{y}=\lambda_{z}$. Thus in the formula ((*)), if it holds for all integrals of $(q)$, the constants $\lambda_{w}$ do not depend on $w$, say $\lambda_{w}=\lambda$ for all $w$.

If $q$ is any both-sided oscillatory carrier on $\mathbf{R}$ and if $\alpha: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ describes the distribution of zeros of $(q)$, then $\alpha \in \mathfrak{P}$ and for every basis $u \in\langle q\rangle$ we have $u \square \alpha=$ $=\lambda u$ for some fixed real number $\lambda \neq 0$.

In conformity with [4] it is $\lambda I \in \mathscr{K}^{\prime} \cap^{8} \mathscr{K}$ and since here is ${ }^{8} \mathscr{X}=\mathscr{T}$ we find $\lambda I= \pm I$.

Hence the unique dispersions which can describe the distribution of zeros are the nuclear dispersions $\varphi^{\nu}$ where $\varphi=\alpha^{-1} \circ \varepsilon \circ \alpha$ for $\alpha \in\langle-1, q\rangle$ and $\varepsilon(t)=t+\pi$.

According to [4] it is $\boldsymbol{3}_{q} / \operatorname{Ker}^{*} u=\mathscr{K}^{\prime} \cap \mathscr{R}= \pm \boldsymbol{I}$. Since $\boldsymbol{3}_{\mathbb{q}}$ is an infinite cyclic group, the unique subgroup $\operatorname{Ker}^{*} u$ having the index 2 , is $\left\{\varphi^{2 v}\right\}_{v e z}$. Hence the equation $u \square \alpha=u$ holds iff $\alpha=\varphi^{2 v}$ and the other equation $u \square \alpha=-u$ holds iff $\alpha=\varphi^{2 v+1}$.

The constructive meaning, describing the distribution of zeros, of the disper$\operatorname{sion} \varphi^{\nu}$ is evident: for any $t \in \mathbf{R}$ the number $\varphi^{\nu}(t)$ means the $v$-th zero of $\boldsymbol{w}$ with respect to $t$ of any integral $w$ of $(q)$ which vanishes at $t$. For positive $v$ the roots are counted to the right side and for $v$ negative to the left side.

For any carrier $q$ the fundamental central dispersion $\varphi=\alpha^{-1} \circ \varepsilon \circ \alpha$, where $\alpha \in\langle-1, q\rangle$, is most important. This one describes completely the distribution of zeros for all integrals of the differential equation (q). Evidently, $\varphi \in C_{R}^{3}, \varphi^{\prime}>0$, $\varphi(t)>t$ and $\operatorname{Im} \varphi=\mathbf{R}$.

Unfortunately we do not know $\varphi(t)$ for every given equation ( $q$ ). That's why the backward procedure was needed. It is based on the fact proved by the author in 1961 [3]:

Let $\varphi \in \mathrm{C}_{\mathbf{R}}^{3}$ be such that $\varphi^{\prime}(t)>0, \varphi(t)>t$ and $\operatorname{Im} \varphi=\mathbf{R}$.
Then there exist both-sided oscillatory (in $\mathbf{R}$ ) differential equations ( $q$ ) for which $\varphi(t)$ is the fundamental central dispersion. All such carriers $q$ are given by the formula $q(t)=-\{\alpha, t\}-\alpha^{\prime 2}$ where $\alpha$ ranges over all solutions of the Abelian functional equation
$1^{\circ}$

$$
\alpha(\varphi(t))=\alpha(t)+\pi
$$

such that $\alpha \in \boldsymbol{\beta}$.
By the method of the proof of this statement it is evident that there exists the continuum of carriers having the same fundamental central dispersion.

Every solution $\alpha$ of $1^{\circ}$ depends namely on an arbitrary function $\gamma \in \mathrm{C}_{[t, \varphi(\gamma) t}^{3}$ with $\gamma^{\prime}>0$ and fulfilling some boundary conditions. For some fixed $t_{0}$ inside $[t, \varphi(t)]$ and for arbitrary initial conditions $\alpha_{0}, \alpha_{0}^{\prime}>0, \alpha_{0}^{\prime \prime}$ at $t_{0}$ there are $\mathbb{N}$ functions $\gamma$ fulfilling these initial conditions.

Now, every $q$ corresponds to many solutions $\alpha$ of the Abelian functional equation, but only one $\alpha$ of them has the initial conditions $\alpha_{0}, \alpha_{0}^{\prime}>0, \alpha_{0}^{\prime \prime}$ at $t_{0}$. Hence there is one-to-one correspondence between the carriers $q$ and these solutions of $1^{\circ}$ and thus there exists the continuum of carriers $q$ with the same fundamental central dispersion $\varphi$.

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