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ON A RELATION BETWEEN A THEOREM OF HARTMAN AND A THEOREM OF SHERMAN

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1. Introduction. We are concerned with the *n*th-order linear differential equation

(1)
$$y^{(n)} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} p_k(x) y^{(k)} = 0$$

where the coefficients are assumed to be continuous. Hartman [1] proved that (see Definition 2) the first conjugate point $\eta_1(t)$ of t satisfies

(2)
$$\eta_1(t) = r_{1\cdots 1}(t).$$

Hartman actually proved a more general result which has very important applications in nonlinear differential equations. Opial [2] gives a shorter proof of Hartman's result in the context of (1). Sherman [3], then improved Opial's result by showing that given any $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a nontrivial solution of (1) with *n* zeros on $[t, \eta_1(t) + \varepsilon]$ the first *n* of which are simple zeros with the first zero being at *t*. Most recently, Kim [4] gave a shorter proof of this result of Sherman's. Theorem 4 in this paper is an analogue of this result. Another very interesting result which is due to Sherman [5] is that

(3)
$$\eta_1(t) = \min\{r_{n-1,1}(t), r_{n-2,2}(t), \ldots, r_{1,n-1}(t)\}.$$

From Hartman's result (2) and Sherman's result (3) we obtain

(4)
$$r_{1\cdots 1}(t) = \min\{r_{n-1,1}(t), \ldots, r_{1,n-1}(t)\}.$$

Theorem 3 gives an interesting analogue of (4). Corollary 5 is the analogue of $\eta_1(t)$ being a continuous function of t, and Corollary 6 is the analogue of η_1 being a continuous function of the coefficients of (1). Theorem 1 generalizes some of the results in [6].

2. Definitions and main results. Before we define the boundary value functions $r_{i_1,\ldots,i_k}(t)$, we need the following definition.

DEFINITION 1. A nontrivial solution y(x) of (1) is said to have an (i_1, \ldots, i_k) distribution of zeros, $0 \le i_m \le n$, $\sum_{n=1}^k i_m = n$, on [t, b] provided there are numbers $t \le t_1 < \cdots < t_k \le b$ such that y(x) has a zero at each t_m , $1 \le m \le k$, with multiplicity at least i_m .

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DEFINITION 2. Let $R = \{r > t$: there is a nontrivial solution of (1) having an (i_1, \ldots, i_k) -distribution of zeros, $0 \le i_m \le n$, $\sum_{m=1}^k i_m = n$, on [t, r]. If $R \ne \phi$, set $r_{i_1 \ldots i_k}(t) = \inf R$. If $R = \phi$, set $r_{i_1 \ldots i_k}(t) = \infty$.

REMARK 1. If, in Definition 2, k=2 and $R \neq \phi$, then $r_{i_1i_2}(t) = \min R$. If k>2 this is not true in general (see e.g. [7]).

REMARK 2. If $t \le t_1 < \cdots < t_k < r_{i_1 \cdots i_k}(t) \le \infty$, then there is a unique solution of (1) satisfying

$$y^{(m_j)}(t_j) = A_{m_j j}$$

where $A_{m_j j}$ is a constant, $j=1,\ldots,k, m_j=0,\ldots,i_j-1$.

DEFINITION 3. If $r_{n-1,1}(t) = \cdots = r_{k,n-k}(t) = \infty$ we set $\rho_k(t) = \infty$. Otherwise

$$\rho_k(t) = \min\{r_{n-1,1}(t), r_{n-2,2}(t), \dots, r_{k,n-k}(t)\}$$

 $k=1,\ldots,n-1.$

The identity (4) can now be written as

(5)
$$\rho_1(t) = r_1 \dots t_1(t).$$

Before we prove the analogue of (5) we need the following theorem and lemma. Theorem 1 generalizes the first two parts of Theorem 5, [6]. See also Theorem 3.3, [7].

THEOREM 1. For
$$k = 1, ..., n-1$$
,

$$r_{i_1\cdots i_m}(t) \ge \rho_k(t)$$

as long as $i_1 \ge k$.

Proof. Assume $r_{i_1 \cdots i_m}(t) < \rho_k(t)$, $i_1 \ge k$. Then there is a nontrivial solution v(x) of (1) with an (i_1, \ldots, i_m) distribution of zeros on $[t, \rho_k(t))$. Let $(t \le x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_m(<\rho_k(t))$ be the points at which these zeros of v(x) occur. Define a fundamental set of solutions $\{u_i(x, x_1)\}$ of (1) by the initial conditions at $x = x_1$

$$u_{j}^{(i)}(x_{1}, x_{1}) = \delta_{ij}$$
 $i, j = 0, ..., n - 1.$

Then define the $(n-i_1)$ -order operator Q by

$$Q[y] = \begin{vmatrix} y & u_{i1}(x, x_1) & \cdots & u_{n-1}(x, x_1) \\ y' & u_{i1}'(x, x_1) & \cdots & u_{n-1}'(x, x_1) \\ \cdots & & \cdots \\ y^{(n-i_1)} & u_{i_1}^{(n-i_1)}(x, x_1) & \cdots & u_{n-1}^{(n-i_1)}(x, x_1) \end{vmatrix}$$

Since $r_{i_1,n-i_1}(t) \ge \rho_k(t)$, Q[y]=0 is a nonsingular linear differential equation on $(x_1, \rho_k(t))$. Note that solutions of Q[y]=0 on $(x_1, \rho_k(t))$ are solutions of (1) with

zeros of order $\geq i_1$ at x_1 restricted to the interval $(x_1, \rho_k(t))$. But since $r_{j,n-j}(t) \geq \rho_k(t), j=n-1, n-2, \ldots, i_1(\geq k), \{u_{n-1}(x, x_1), \ldots, u_{i_1}(x, x_1)\}$ forms (except for signs) a system of solutions of Q[y]=0 with Polya's w-property [8] on $(x_1, \rho_k(t))$. Hence [8] Q[y]=0 is disconjugate on $(x_1, \rho_k(t))$. This contradicts the fact that v(x) is nontrivial solution of Q[y]=0 with at least $n-i_1$ zeros on $(x_1, \rho_k(t))$.

In analogy with the definition of an extremal solution of (1) for $\eta_1(t)$ we make the definition.

DEFINITION 4. If $\rho_k(t) < \infty$, then any nontrivial solution of (1) with a zero at t of order at least k and a total of n zeros on $[t, p_k(t)]$ is called an extremal solution of (1) for $\rho_k(t)$.

REMARK 3. It follows from Theorem 1 that every extremal solution of (1) for $\rho_k(t)$ has a zero at $\rho_k(t)$.

The following lemma will be used in the proof of Theorem 3.

Lemma 2.

$$r_{i_1\cdots i_m}(t) \ge \min[r_{i_11\cdots i_1}(t), r_{i_1,n-i_1}(t)].$$

Proof. Let $b = \min[r_{i_11...1}(t), r_{i_1n-i_1}(t)] \le \infty$, and let $s \in [t, b)$. In Theorem (I) ([1, p. 124]) take F to be the set of all solutions of (1) with a zero at s of order \ge to i_1 . It follows from Theorem (I) that no nontrivial solution of (1) has a zero of order i_1 at s and a distribution of zeros on (s, b) whose multiplicities add up to a number \ge to $n-i_1$. Since s is arbitrary in [t, b), no nontrivial solution of (1) has a (i_1, \ldots, i_m) -distribution of zeros on [t, b].

In the proof of Theorem 3 we will use notation used by Kim [4]. Let $y_1(x), \ldots, y_n(x)$ be *n* linearly independent solutions of (1). Define

$$w(x; x_1^{k_1}, \dots, x_m^{k_m}) = \begin{vmatrix} y_1(x) & y_2(x) & \cdots & y_n(x) \\ y_1(x_1) & y_2(x_1) & \cdots & y_n(x_1) \\ y_1'(x_1) & y_2'(x_1) & \cdots & y_n'(x_1) \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ y_1^{(k_1-1)}(x_1) & y_2^{(k_1-1)}(x_1) & \cdots & y_n^{(k_1-1)}(x_1) \\ y_1(x_2) & y_2(x_2) & \cdots & y_n(x_2) \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ y_1(x_m) & y_2(x_m) & \cdots & y_n(x_m) \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ y_1^{(k_m-1)} x_m) & y_2^{(k_m-1)}(x_m) & \cdots & y_n^{(k_m-1)}(x_m) \end{vmatrix}$$

 $1 \le m \le n-1, k_1 + \dots + k_m = n-1$. If no superscript appears on one of the x_i 's it

is assumed to be a one. Note, as Kim points out [4], that $w(x; x_1^{k_1}, \ldots, x_m^{k_m})$ is a continuous function of the terms, e.g., $y_2^{(k_1-1)}(x_1)$, appearing in the determinant.

THEOREM 3. If $\rho_k(t) < r_{k,n-k}(t)$, then

$$r_{k1\cdots 1}(t) = \rho_k(t), \qquad k = 1, \dots, n-2.$$

Proof. By Theorem 1, $r_{k1,\ldots,1}(t) \ge \rho_k(t)$. Assume Theorem 3 is false, then $r_{k1,\ldots,1}(t) > \rho_k(t)$. Since $\rho_{k+1}(t) = \rho_k(t) < r_{k,n-k}(t)$, there is an $x_0 \in [t, \rho_k(t))$ such that there is an extremal solution u(x) of (1) for $\rho_{k+1}(x_0)$ (see Remark 1). Also note that $\rho_{k+1}(x_0) = \rho_k(t)$. Let A be the set of all extremal solutions of (1) for $\rho_{k+1}(x_0)$. Note $A \ne \phi$ as $u \in A$. Let p be the maximum number of distinct zeros on $(x_0, \rho_k(t))$ of a member of A. Let $y \in A$ with p distinct zeros at $(t <)x_1 < \cdots < x_p(<\rho_k(t))$ of multiplicities $k_i, i=1,\ldots,p$, respectively. Let $k+k_0(k_0\ge 1)$ and $k_{p+1}(\ge 1)$ denote the multiplicities of the zeros of y at x_0 and $x_{p+1} \equiv \rho_k(t)$ respectively. The x_i , $i=0,\ldots,p+1$, will remain fixed in the remainder of this proof. Let

$$M = n - 1 - k - \sum_{i=0}^{p} k_i \quad (\text{so } 0 \le M < k_{p+1})$$

and define

$$w_1(x) = w(x; x_0^{k+k_0}, x_1^{k_1}, \ldots, x_p^{k_p}, x_{p+1}^M).$$

Let K_i be the exact multiplicity of the zero of $w_1(x)$ at x_i , $i=0, \ldots, p+1$. It is easy to see that $K_0 \ge k+k_0$, $K_i \ge k_i$, $i=1, \ldots, p+1$. Because of the maximality of p, $w_1(x)$ and y(x) have no other zeros on (x_0, x_{p+1}) . The claim is that $w_1(x)$ and y(x) are linearly dependent. Assume they are linearly independent, then there are two possibilities. One possibility is that at least one of the zeros, say x_i , of $w_1(x)$ and y(x) has the same multiplicity. In this case there is a nontrivial linear combination of the two solutions with a zero of order at least K_i+1 at x_i . But then it follows from Cramer's rule that $w_1(x)$ has a zero of order K_i+1 at x_i which is a contradiction. The second possibility is that $K_0 > k+k_0$, $K_i > k_i$, $i=1, \ldots, p+1$. But then it is easy to see that there is a nontrivial linear combination of y(x) and $w_1(x)$ which is a member of A with more than p zeros on (x_0, x_{p+1}) which contradicts the maximality of p.

Now let

$$w_2(x) = w(x; x_0^{k+k_0-1}, x_1^{k_1}, \dots, x_p^{k_p}, x_{p+1}^p)$$

where P=M+1 (so $1 \le P \le k_{p+1}$). If $k_0 \ge 2$, then $w_2(x) \ne 0$ by the maximality of p, and if $k_0=1$, then $w_2(x) \ne 0$ by Lemma 2. By Cramer's rule $w_2(x)$ has zeros of order $k+k_0$, k_1, \ldots, k_{p+1} at x_0, \ldots, x_{p+1} respectively. Hence, by above argument with $v(x)=w_2(x)$, we see that $w_1(x)$ and $w_2(x)$ are linearly dependent. We now consider two cases.

Case 1. k_{p+1} and P have the same parity: In this case define

$$w_3(x) = w(x; x_0^k, \S_{01}, \dots, \S_{0k0}, x_1, \S_{12}, \dots, \S_{1k_1}, x_2, \dots, x_p, \S_{p2}, \dots, \S_{pkp}, \S_{p+1,1}, \dots, \S_M)$$

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where $x_0 < \S_{01} < \cdots < \S_{0k_0} < x_1 < \S_{12} < \cdots < \S_{pM} < x_{p+1}$. Since $r_{k1...1}(t) > \S_{pM}$, $w_3(x) \neq 0$. It follows from looking at the Taylor's formula with remainder and the continuity of $w_1(x)$ with respect to elements in its determinate that

$$w_3(x) \to Aw_1(x) \quad (A > 0)$$

uniformly on $[x_0, x_{p+1}+1]$ as $\S_{ik_1} \rightarrow x_i$, $i=0, \ldots, p$, and $\S_{p+1,1} \rightarrow x_{p+1}$. (For the details of writing down the value of A and hence more details on the validity of this statement see [4, p. 559].) Since $r_{i_1 \cdots i_m} \ge x_{p+1}$ for $i_1 \ge k$ (Theorem 1), $w_3(x)$ has exactly a zero of order k at x_0 , simple zeros at the n-k-1 points $\S_{01}, \ldots, \S_{0k_0}, x_1, \ldots, \S_{pM}$ and no other zeros on $[x_0, x_{p+1}]$. Since k_{p+1} and P have the same parity, k_{p+1} and M have the opposite parity. Hence for $\S_{ik_i}, \S_{p+1,1}$ sufficiently close to x_i, x_{p+1} respectively, $w_3(x)$ has another (odd ordered) zero in $[x_{p+1}, r_{k1} \ldots 1(t))$ which is a contradiction.

Case 2. k_{p+1} and P have opposite parity: In this case consider

$$w_4(x) = w(x; x_0^k, \S_{01}, \dots, \S_{0,k_0-1}, x_1, \S_{12}, \dots, \S_{1k_1}, x_2, \dots, x_p, \S_{p2}, \dots, \S_{pk_p}, \S_{p+1,1}, \dots, \S_{p+1,p})$$

where $x_0 < \S_{01} < \S_{02} < \cdots < \S_{p+1,P} < x_{p+1}$. Similar to above

 $w_4(x) \to Lw_2(x) \qquad (L > 0)$

uniformly on $[x_0, x_{p+1}+1]$ as $\S_{0,k_0-1} \rightarrow x_0$, $\S_{ik_i} \rightarrow x_i$, $i=1, \ldots, p$, and $\S_{p+1,1} \rightarrow x_{p+1}$. Similar to above $w_4(x)$ is a nontrivial solution of (1) with a zero at x_0 of order exactly k, simple zeros at the n-k-1 points $\S_{01}, \ldots, \S_{p+1,P}$, and no other zeros on $[x_0, x_{p+1}]$. But k_{p+1} and P have the opposite parity and so $w_4(x)$ must have a (odd ordered) zero in $[x_{p+1}, r_{k1}, \ldots, 1(t))$ which is a contradiction. Hence $\rho_k(t) = r_{k1} \dots 1(t)$.

REMARK 4. Theorem 3 could have been stated: If $\rho_{k+1}(t) < r_{k,n-k}(t)$, then $\rho_{k+1}(t) = r_{k1...1}(t)$. If one lets k=0 in this statement one obtains (since $r_{0n}(t) = \infty$) the result (5) of Hartman and Sherman.

EXAMPLE. It is well known (e.g. Theorem 3.2, [9]) that if p(x) is continuous and positive, then for

(6)
$$y^{(n)} - p(x)y = 0,$$

 $r_{ii}(t) = \infty$ if j is odd, and for

(7)
$$y^{(n)} + p(x)y = 0$$

 $r_{ij}(t) = \infty$ if j is even. Hence for (6) we have $\rho_k(t) = r_{k1...1}(t)$ if n and k have the opposite parity. For equation (7) we have that $\rho_k(t) = r_{k1...1}(t)$ if n and k have the same parity.

THEOREM 4. If $\rho_k(t) < r_{k,n-k}(t)$, then for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a nontrivial solution of (1) with a zero of order exactly k at some point $x_0 \in [t, \rho_k(t))$, exactly n-k-1 simple zeros in $(x_0, \rho_k(t))$ and an odd order zero in $[\rho_k(t), \rho_k(t)+\varepsilon)$.

Proof. This theorem follows from a closer examination of the proof of Theorem 3. Theorem 3 was proved by contradiction. The only place the assumption $r_{k1...1}(t) > \rho_k(t)$ was needed was to show $w_2(x) \equiv 0$ when $k_0 = 1$. We now show that the assumption

(8)
$$w_2(x) = w(x; x_0^k, x_1^{k_1}, \dots, x_p^{k_p}, x_{p+1}^p) \equiv 0$$

leads to a contradiction. It follows from (7) that there is an extremal solution of (1) for $\rho_k(t)$ with at least p+1 zeros on $(x_0, x_{p+1}=\rho_k(t))$. Let B be the set of all extremal solutions of (1) for $\rho_k(x_0)$. Let q be the maximum number of distinct zeros on (x_0, x_{p+1}) of a member of B. Note that $q \ge p+1$. Since q > p, every extremal solution of (1) for $\rho_k(t)$ with q distinct zeros on $(x_0, \rho_k(t))$ has a zero of order exactly k at x_0 . Hence there are points z_1, \ldots, z_q such that

$$w_5(x) = w(x; z_0^k, z_1^{l_1}, \ldots, z_q^{l_q}, z_{q+1}^Q),$$

where

$$z_0 \equiv x_0, \qquad z_{q+1} \equiv \rho_k(t), \qquad k + \sum_{m=1}^q l_m + Q = n - 1,$$

is a nontrivial solution (by the maximality of q) with n zeros on $[z_0, z_{q+1}]$. Assume $l_i > 1$ for some $i \in \{1, \ldots, q\}$. Let

 $w_{6}(x) = w(x; x_{0}^{k}, z_{1}, \S_{12}, \dots, \S_{1, l_{1}}, z_{2}, \dots, z_{i}, \S_{i2}, \dots, \S_{i, l_{i}-1}, \dots, \S_{ql_{q}}, \S_{q+1, 1}, \dots, \S_{q+1, Q})$ where $x_{0} < z_{1} < \S_{12} < \dots < \S_{q+1, Q} < z_{q+1}$. It follows for $\S_{1, l_{1}}, \dots, \S_{i, l_{i}-1}, \dots, \S_{q, l_{q}}$, $\S_{q+1, 1}$ sufficiently close to $z_{1}, \dots, z_{i}, \dots, z_{q}$, z_{q+1} respectively, $w_{6}(x)$ is a nontrivial solution of (1) with a zero of order k at x_{0} and n-k zeros on (z_{0}, z_{q+1}) . This contradicts Theorem 1. Hence $l_{1} = \dots = l_{q} = 1$ and

$$w_5(x) = w(x; z_0^k, z_1, \ldots, z_q, z_{q+1}^Q).$$

Since $r_{k,n-k}(z_0) > z_{q+1}$ for $\varepsilon > 0$ sufficiently small we can define a set of nontrivial solutions $\{u_{\varepsilon}(x)\}$ of (1) by the boundary conditions

$$u_{\varepsilon}^{(j)}(z_0) = 0, \quad j = 0, \dots, k-1$$

$$u_{\varepsilon}^{(l)}(z_{q+1} - \varepsilon) = w_5^{(l)}(x_{q+1}), \quad l = 0, \dots, n-k-1.$$

Then

 $u_{\varepsilon}(x) \rightarrow w_{5}(x)$

uniformly on $[z_0, z_{q+1}]$ as $\varepsilon \to 0$. Since $w_5(x)$ has simple zeros in (z_0, z_{q+1}) we have for $\varepsilon > 0$, sufficiently small, $u_{\varepsilon}(x)$ is a nontrivial solution of (1) with a zero of order k at z_0 and n-k zeros on $[z_0, z_{q+1}-\varepsilon]$. This contradicts Theorem 1.

REMARK 5. By using the type of argument that appears at the end of the proof of Theorem 4 one can show that no extremal solution of (1) for $\rho_k(t)$ has an $(n-k, 1, \ldots, 1)$ -distribution of zeros on $[t, \rho_k(t)]$.

Two very interesting corollaries follow from Theorem 4.

COROLLARY 5. For those values of t for which $\rho_k(t) < r_{k,n-k}(t)$, $\rho_k(t)$ is a continuous function of t.

Proof. The proof of this theorem follows easily from Theorem 4 and the continuous dependence of solutions on the initial point.

REMARK 6. Corollary 5 could have been stated: For those values of t for which $\rho_{k+1}(t) < r_{k+1}(t)$, $\rho_{k+1}(t)$ is a continuous function of t. This statement with k=0 is the well known fact that $\eta_1(t)$ is a continuous function of t.

COROLLARY 6. If $\rho_k(t) < r_{k,n-k}(t)$, then $\rho_k(t)$ is a continuous function of the coefficients of (1).

Proof. This theorem follows from Theorem 4 and the use of the continuous dependence of solutions with respect to the coefficients of the differential equation. See the proof of Theorem 3 [10].

REMARK 7. Corollary 6 could have been stated: If $\rho_{k+1}(t) < r_{k,n-k}(t)$, then $\rho_{k+1}(t)$ is a continuous function of the coefficients of (1). This statement with k=0 is the fact that $\eta_1(t)$ is a continuous function of the coefficients of (1) (see [3, Theorem 3]).

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