# New solutions for ordinary differential equations

George Bluman, Raouf Dridi

Department of Mathematics, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC V6T 1Z1, Canada

#### Abstract

This paper introduces a new method for solving ordinary differential equations (ODEs) that enhances existing methods that are primarily based on finding integrating factors and/or point symmetries. The starting point of the new method is to find a non-invertible mapping that maps a given ODE to a related higher-order ODE that has an easily obtained integrating factor. As a consequence, the related higher-order ODE is integrated. Fixing the constant of integration, one then uses existing methods to solve the integrated ODE. By construction, each solution of the integrated ODE yields a solution of the given ODE. Moreover, it is shown when the general solution of an integrated ODE yields either the general solution or a family of particular solutions of the given ODE. As an example, new solutions are obtained for an important class of nonlinear oscillator equations. All solutions presented in this paper cannot be obtained using the current MAPLE ODE-solver.

Key words: Non-invertible mapping, first integral, classical function.

# 1. Introduction

In the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, Sophus Lie, inspired by Galois theory for algebraic equations, presented an ingenious approach for solving ordinary differential equations (ODEs) (Olver, 1986; Bluman and Kumei, 1989; Bluman and Anco, 2002). Since Lie's work, a common belief is that reduction by Lie symmetries (point or contact) is *the* method for solving ODEs. It is also the basis for the core algorithm of current ODE solvers such as the MAPLE solver dsolve.

Consider the nonlinear oscillator

$$u'' + u^2 u' + 2u^4 - 18u^3 = 0. (1)$$

ODE (1) is a special case of a more general situation discussed in Case II in Section 5 of this paper. One can easily show that the translations  $x \to x + \varepsilon$  yield the only point

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Email addresses: bluman@math.ubc.ca (George Bluman), dridi@math.ubc.ca (Raouf Dridi).

symmetry of ODE (1). The corresponding invariant solutions are the obvious solutions u(x) = 0 and u(x) = 9. On the other hand, if one uses the translation point symmetry to reduce the order of ODE (1), then one obtains the complicated Abel equation

$$(w'(t) + t^2) w(t) + 2t^4 - 18t^3 = 0, (2)$$

where t = u and w = u'. ODE (2) has no obvious reduction.

Now, substitute u(x) = v'(x) in (1) to obtain the third order ODE

$$v''' + {v'}^2 v'' + 2{v'}^4 - 18{v'}^3 = 0.$$
 (3)

By standard methods, one can easily find the integrating factor  $\mu[V] = e^{6V}$  where V is an arbitrary function of x. This yields the first integral of (3) given by

$$G[v] = \left(v'' + \frac{{v'}^3}{3} - 3{v'}^2\right)e^{6v} = c.$$
 (4)

Then through the mapping u = v', any solution of G[v] = c, where c is an arbitrary constant, is necessarily a solution of (1) but the converse is not true. Now restrict the mapping to G[v] = c. Then the mapping

$$u = v', \quad u' = v'' = -\frac{1}{3}{v'}^3 + 3{v'}^2 - ce^{-6v}$$
 (5)

is invertible if and only if the right hand side of the second equation of (5) depends explicitly on v, i.e.,  $c \neq 0$ . In this case, the differential equation G[v] = c is more complicated than our given equation (1). However, when c = 0, precisely when the mapping becomes non-invertible, the equation G = 0 is easily solved and its general solution yields the one-parameter family of solutions

$$u(x) = \frac{9}{1 + \mathcal{W}(c_1 e^{-27x})} \tag{6}$$

for the nonlinear oscillator (1). [In (6),  $\mathcal{W}(x)$  is the Lambert W function defined to be the inverse of the function  $w \to we^w$  and  $c_1$  is an arbitrary constant.] The way we obtained the solution (6) to the ODE (1) is naively the method we are presenting in this paper which extends the method introduced in Bluman and Reid (1988).

The question which arises naturally after this example is: Why is the one-parameter family of solutions (6) of ODE (1) not captured using Lie's approach? The answer is simple: Lie's approach is based on symmetries which act on the *whole* solution set of a given ODE. In particular, in Lie's approach one assumes that

$$X(F[u]) = 0 \mod F[u] = 0,$$
 (7)

where X is the infinitesimal generator of a point (or, more generally, contact) symmetry and F[u], in our example, is the left hand side of (1). For ODE (1), we were unable to find any such symmetries other than the translations  $x \to x + \varepsilon$ . On the other hand, the above non-invertible mapping (5) with c = 0 induces for ODE (1) the "symmetry"  $X = (9x - v) \partial_x + u (u - 9) \partial_u$ , where v is such that  $u - v' = 0^1$ , by push forwarding one

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> If  $\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{S} \hookrightarrow J^2(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C}^2) \\ \searrow \\ J^0(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C}^2) \end{array}$  denotes the affine subbundle of the 2-jets space  $J^2(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C}^2)$  defined by the ODE

of the eight point symmetries of G[v] = 0. When applied to F[u], instead of X(F[u]) = 0mod F[u] = 0, one has

$$X(F[u]) = 0 \mod I[u] = 0,$$
 (8)

where

$$I[u] := u' + \frac{1}{3}u^3 - 3u^2.$$
<sup>(9)</sup>

The one-parameter family of solutions (6) is the general solution of I[u] = 0 as can be seen from (5) when c = 0. The vector field X leaves only the subset of solutions I[u] = 0invariant not the whole set F[u] = 0. This aspect will be discussed in depth in a second paper (Bluman and Dridi, 2011).

## 2. Preliminaries

Consider a given nth order algebraic differential equation

$$F(x, u, u', \cdots, u^{(n)}) = 0.$$
(10)

i.e., the corresponding ODE function  $F[U] := F(x, U, U', \dots, U^{(n)})$  is a polynomial in the variables  $U, U', \dots$ , and  $U^{(n)}$  where U is an arbitrary function of x. The coefficients field is the field of rational functions  $\mathbb{C}(x)$ . The notation for this is  $F[U] \in \mathbb{C}(x)[U, U', \dots, U^{(n)}]$ . There is a clear distinction between the ODE F[u] = 0 and the ODE function F[U]. We assume F[U] is linear in the highest derivative  $U^{(n)}$ .

Consider the mapping

$$U = f[V] = f(x, V, V') \in \mathbb{C}(x)(V, V')$$

$$(11)$$

rational in V and V'. We assume f[V] has an essential dependence on V'. Let

$$\mu[V] = \mu(x, V, V', \cdots, V^{(\ell)}), \quad \ell \le n,$$
(12)

be a multiplier function. Let

$$H[V] = H\left(x, V, V', \cdots, V^{(n+1)}\right) \in \mathbb{C}(x)\left(V, V', \cdots, V^{(n+1)}\right)$$
(13)

be the rational function obtained after substituting the mapping (11) into the ODE function F[U]. In particular,

$$H[V] = H\left(x, V, V', \cdots, V^{(n+1)}\right) = F\left(x, f[V], \frac{df[V]}{dx}, \cdots, \frac{d^{(n)}f[V]}{dx^n}\right), \quad (14)$$

where  $\frac{d}{dx} := \partial_x + V' \partial_V + \cdots + V^{(n+2)} \partial_{V^{(n+1)}}$ . Now suppose the multiplier (12) is an *integrating factor* for (14), i.e.,

$$\mu[V]H[V] = \frac{d}{dx}G[V],\tag{15}$$

for some function

$$G[V] = G\left(x, V, V', \cdots, V^{(n)}\right).$$
(16)

The function  $\mu[V]$  in (12) is an integrating factor for (14) if and only if

$$E_V\left(\mu[V]H[V]\right) \equiv 0\tag{17}$$

system F[u] = 0 and u - v' = 0, then the vector field X lives in  $\Gamma TJ^0(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C}^2)$ . It can be lifted uniquely to  $J^2(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C}^2)$  by preserving its contact structure (and that of  $J^1(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C}^2)$ ). The resulting vector field, called the second prolongation of X, is also denoted by X. In particular, in (8)  $X \in \Gamma TJ^2(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C}^2)$ ).

in terms of the Euler operator

$$E_V = \frac{\partial}{\partial V} - \frac{d}{dx}\frac{\partial}{\partial V'} + \dots + (-1)^{(n+1)}\frac{d^{n+1}}{dx^{n+1}}\frac{\partial}{\partial V^{(n+1)}}.$$
 (18)

The left hand side of (17) is linear in  $\mu[V]$  and its partial derivatives with coefficients in the field  $\mathbb{C}(x, V, V', \dots, V^{(n+2)})(f, f_x, f_V, f_{V'}, \dots)$ . Now suppose  $v(x) = \Theta(x)$  is a solution of the *integrated ODE* 

$$G[v] = G\left(x, v, v', \cdots, v^{(n)}\right) = c, \tag{19}$$

for some fixed constant c. Then through the mapping (11), it follows that

$$u = f[v] = f(x, \Theta(x), \Theta'(x))$$
(20)

is a solution of the given ODE (10). Moreover, if  $v(x) = \Phi(x; c_1, \dots, c_n)$  is a general solution of the integrated ODE (19), then

$$u = f(x, \Phi(x; c_1, \cdots, c_n), \Phi_x(x; c_1, \cdots, c_n))$$
(21)

solves the given ODE (10). If  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  are *n* essential constants in the solution (21), then (21) yields a general solution of the given ODE (10).

**Proposition 1.** A general solution of the integrated ODE (19), for a fixed value of the constant c, yields a general solution of the given ODE (10) if and only if u = f(x, v, v') and  $u' = \frac{d}{dx}f(x, v, v')$  are functionally independent over  $\mathbb{C}(x)$  modulo the corresponding integrated ODE (19), i.e., if and only if the determinant

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \partial_v f[v] & \partial_{v'} f[v] \\ \\ \partial_v \frac{d}{dx} f[v] & \partial_{v'} \frac{d}{dx} f[v] \end{pmatrix} \neq 0 \mod G[v] = c.$$
(22)

*Proof.* The transverse mapping f is by construction a contact preserving mapping i.e., it sends the contact distribution of equation (10) to the contact distribution of equation (13). The restriction to equation (19) i.e., composing the mapping f with a contact preserving surjective map, is again a contact preserving map. The condition (22) makes the restricted f a diffeomorphism of  $J^n(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C})$  and hence a contact transformation of  $J^n(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C})$ .  $\Box$ 

To illustrate the above proposition consider again the example of the introduction where equations (10) and (19) correspond to the second order ODEs (n = 2) given by (1) and (4). The restriction of the mapping u = v' to equation (4) is given by

$$u = v', \quad u' = v'' = -\frac{1}{3}{v'}^3 + 3{v'}^2 - ce^{-6v}$$
 (23)

Here the determinant in (22) is equal to  $-6ce^{-6v}$ . The mapping (23) is a contact transformation relating equations (10) and (19) if and only if c is not zero.

## 3. Outline of the method

The method introduced in Section 2 involves three procedures. The first procedure lie\_solution computes a particular solution of PDE systems using Lie symmetries. The

second procedure solution\_pair looks for a pair  $(f[V], \mu[V])$  satisfying the non linear PDE system (17) with the inequations  $f_{V'} \neq 0, \mu \neq 0$ . The third and main procedure is the solver.

### 3.1. The first procedure lie\_solution

Given a system of differential equations and inequations, the procedure lie\_solution computes a *particular* (i.e., invariant) solution (one or more) of the given system using Lie's symmetries. This procedure is very similar to the MAPLE command symgen. The inequations are handled by localization (for instance,  $f_{V'} \neq 0$  is replaced by  $f_{V'}w = 1$ ).

## 3.2. The second procedure solution\_pair

Let  $k := \mathbb{C}(x, V, V', \dots, V^{(n-1)})$  be the differential field of rational functions endowed with the derivations  $\{\partial_x, \partial_V, \partial_{V'}, \dots, \partial_{V^{(n-1)}}\}$ . To solve the nonlinear system (17) with the inequations  $f_{V'} \neq 0, \mu \neq 0$ , we use a table of ansatzes. Each entree of the table corresponds to a differential system  $\Sigma \subset k$ . For instance (in the case of second order ODEs) the first entree is given by the list  $[f_x, f_V, \mu_x, \mu_{V'}, \mu_{V''}]$  corresponding to the assumptions f[V] is a function of v' and  $\mu[V]$  a function of V only.

To find a solution pair, we proceed as follows

 $PROCEDURE \ solution\_pair$ 

**Input** An ODE function F[U]

**Output** A solution pair  $(f[V], \mu[V])$  satisfying (17) with  $f_{V'} \neq 0, \mu \neq 0$ 

- (1) for each  $\Sigma$  in the table of ansatzes do
  - (i) compute a characteristic set C of the system (17) union  $\Sigma$  with  $f_{V'} \neq 0, \mu \neq 0$
  - (ii) return  $(f[V], \mu[V]) := \text{lie\_solution}(C)$  if not empty

3.3. The solver ode\_solver

PROCEDURE ode\_solver Input An ODE F[u] = 0Output Solution of F[u] = 0

(1)  $(f[V], \mu[V]) :=$  solution\_pair (F[U])

- (2) compute a characteristic set C of the linear system (15) with  $G[V]_{V^{(n-1)}} \neq 0$
- (3)  $G[V] := lie\_solution(C)$

(4) solve the ODE system  $\{G[v] - c(x) = 0, c'(x) = 0\}$ .

(5) return  $u = f[\Theta(x)]$  for each solution  $(v = \Theta(x), c = c_0)$ 

**Remark 1.** In step (4), the solving process of the ODE system  $\{G[v] - c(x) = 0, c'(x) = 0\}$  starts by computing first integrals using lie\_solve. If *n* functionally independent first integrals for the same value of  $c = c_0$  are found, then the general solution of the integrated ODE  $G[v] - c_0 = 0$  is obtained. If no such first integrals are found then the solving process returns a list of invariant solutions.

The above method is now illustrated through two examples (A more complicated example is the nonlinear oscillator treated in Section 5).

**Example.** Consider again ODE (1), i.e,

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$$u'' + u^2 u' + 2u^4 - 18u^3 = 0.$$

The corresponding ODE function is given by  $F[U] = U'' + U^2U' + 2U^4 - 18U^3$ . Restrict the mapping (11) to be of the form  $U = f[V] = \psi(V)V'$ . For the multiplier (15), consider the ansatz  $\mu[V] = \mu(V)$ . For the corresponding determining equation (17), one obtains the solution pair

$$(f[V], \mu[V]) = \left(\psi(V)V', c_1 e^{\int 6\psi(V)dV}\right),$$

where  $\psi(V)$  is an arbitrary function. Setting  $\psi(V) = c_1 = 1$ , one obtains the third order ODE

$$H[v] := v''' + v'^2 v'' + 2v'^4 - 18v'^3 = 0$$

that in turn yields the integrated ODE (4). The rest of the calculation is already given in the introduction.

Now consider the geometry of the problem. Recall that  $S \hookrightarrow J^2(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C}^2)$  refers to the subbundle of  $J^2(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C}^2)$  defined by the system  $\{F[u] = 0, u - f[v] = 0\}$ . It sits above the double fibration given by

$$\mathcal{S}$$
  
 $\pi_1 \swarrow \pi_2$   
 $J^2(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C}) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{F} \qquad \mathcal{H} \hookrightarrow J^3(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C})$ 

where the subbundles  $\mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  are defined by F[u] = 0 and H[u] = 0, respectively. The pull-back of  $\mu[V]H[V] = \frac{d}{dx}G[V]$  with respect to the right projection  $\pi_2$  (which changes U to V', U' to V'' and leaves V invariant) yields  $e^{6V}F[U] = \frac{d}{dx}(e^{6V}I[U])$  where  $I[U] = U' + \frac{1}{3}U^3 - 3U^2$  [Now  $\frac{d}{dx}$  is the total derivative operator induced by the system  $\mathcal{S}$ ]. In other words, the function  $e^{6V}I[U]$  is a first integral for the ODE system  $\mathcal{S}$ . The only way to get rid of V is to make it equal to zero.

The double-fibration in the previous example is usually called a Bäcklund transformation. In general, the data given by equations (10), (11) and (13) always define a Bäcklund transformation where  $\pi_2$  changes U to f(x, V, V'), U' to  $\frac{d}{dx}f(x, V, V')$  etc., and leaves V invariant.

**Example.** As another example, consider the class of differential equations arising from reduction of the nonlinear diffusion equation under scaling invariance of the form

$$2(K(u)u')' + xu' = 0.$$
(24)

One can show that ODE (24) has a point symmetry if and only if

$$K(u) = a(u+b)^c, (25)$$

where  $\{a, b, c\}$  are arbitrary constants, or the limiting case

$$K(u) = ae^{bu}. (26)$$

In particular, Lie's symmetry reduction method can only reduce the order of (24) when K(u) is of the form (25) or (26). In (Bluman and Reid, 1988), "new symmetries" were found for the class of ODEs (24) when

$$K(u) = \frac{1}{au^2 + bu + c} \exp\left(\lambda \int \frac{1}{au^2 + bu + c} du\right)$$
(27)

where  $\{a, b, c, \lambda\}$  are arbitrary constants. For arbitrary K(u), one can easily check that the Bäcklund transformation u = v' transforms the ODE (24) to the conserved form ODE

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(2K(v')v'' + xv' - v\right) = 0.$$
(28)

One can show that a corresponding related second order ODE

$$2K(v')v'' + xv' - v = 0 \tag{29}$$

has a point symmetry if and only if K(u) is of the form (27). As an example, when  $K(u) = \frac{1}{u^2+1}$ , the ODE (29) has the point symmetry with infinitesimal generator  $X = (x + vv') \frac{\partial}{\partial v}$ . In (Bluman and Reid, 1988), it was shown how this led to the general solution of ODE (29) and, in turn, to the general solution of the ODE (24). Indeed, the mapping u = v' when restricted to (29) yields the contact transofmation  $u = v', u' = v'' = \frac{v - xv'}{2K(v')}$ .

**Example.** If F[u] = 0 is the Riccati equation  $u' + a_2(x)u^2 + a_1(x)u + a_0(x) = 0$  then the computation yields the well known Bäcklund transformation  $f[V] = \frac{\psi'(V)}{\psi(V)a_2(x)}V'$  where  $\psi(V)$  is an arbitrary function of V.

## 4. Classical and nonclassical functions in the sense of Umemura

An ordinary differential field K is a field endowed with a derivation. If K is a subfield of a differential field L and it is stable under the derivation of L, then K, endowed with the same derivation, is a differential field and is said to be a differential subfield of L. If  $\Sigma$  is a set of elements of L, the extension of K generated by  $\Sigma$ , denoted by  $K < \Sigma >$ , is the smallest differential subfield of L containing  $\Sigma$  and K. The following definition is due to (Umemura, 1998).

**Definition 1.** An ordinary differential field extension K of the field of rational functions  $\mathbb{C}(x)$  is said to be *classical* if there exist  $y_1, \dots, y_N$  such that

- (i) the field K is a differential subfield of the field  $\mathbb{C}(x) < y_1, \cdots, y_N >$ ;
- (ii) for each i, one of the following conditions is satisfied:
  - (a)  $y_i$  is a solution of a homogeneous linear ODE with coefficients in  $\mathbb{C}(x) < y_1, \dots, y_{i-1} >$  [Picad-Vessiot extension].

(b)  $y_i$  is the composite function  $\psi(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  for a certain Abelian function  $\psi^{-2}$ 

and certain  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{C}(x) < y_1, \dots, y_{i-1} > [Abelian extension].$ 

An element of a classical extension is called a *classical function*.

The primitive of a classical function is also classical (since y'(x) = a(x) implies the second order homogeneous linear ODE (y'/a)' = 0 for y). It is also true, although not clear from the definition, that any solution of  $f^n + a_1 f^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 = 0$  is a classical function provided the  $a_i$  are classical. Such solutions are said to be algebraic (over the appropriate field). However, transcendental classical functions are solutions of homogeneous linear ODEs with classical coefficients (or Abelian functions which arise rarely in practice). The Airy function solution of v'' - xv = 0 is a transcendental classical function. Other examples include Bessel functions, hypergeometric functions, the error function, etc.

The solution  $u(x) = \frac{9}{1 + \mathcal{W}(c_1 e^{-27x})}$  of ODE (1) is a transcendental classical function.

The integrated equation with c = 0 simplifies to  $\left(v'' + \frac{v'^3}{3} - 3v'^2\right) = 0$  which can be mapped to the homogeneous linear ODE w''(t) + 3w'(t) = 0 under the invertible birational transformation w(t) = x - v/2, t = v(x). Consequently, v(x) is a transcendental classical function and so is u(x), the primitive of v(x). The general solution of (1) is not necessarily a classical function, i.e., there is no invertible transformation  $u = f(x, v, v') \in$ K(v, v') mapping the ODE (1) to (a second order) homogeneous linear ODE [Here K is a classical extension of  $\mathbb{C}(x)$ ].

An example of a nonclassical function is the general solution of the first Painlevé equation  $v'' - 6v^2 - x = 0$ . If this Painlevé equation happens to be an integrated ODE for some second order ODE then this latter equation has no solutions which are classical functions (Otherwise v(x) satisfies the first order ODE u(x) - f(x, v(x), v'(x)) = 0 which contradicts the irreducibility of the Painlevé equation).

As an example, it is now shown how the method presented here yields all classical solutions of the second Painlevé equation  $u'' - 2u^3 - xu - \alpha = 0$ . We obtain  $(\mu[V], f_{\alpha}[V], \alpha) = (\psi(V), \alpha \frac{\psi'(V)}{\psi(V)}V', \pm \frac{1}{2})$ . Set  $\psi(V) = 1/V^2$ . The mapping  $f_{-\frac{1}{2}}[v]$  reduces to  $u = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{v'}{v}$ ,  $u' = u^2 + \frac{1}{2}x - cv^2$  and the integrated ODE is the Airy equation when c = 0. This yields the well known Airy-like solution of the second Painlevé equation. Furthermore, since  $f_{-\frac{1}{2}}[v]$  and  $f_{+\frac{1}{2}}[v]$  map to the same Airy equation the symmetry  $s_1 : (u, \alpha) \to (-u, -\alpha)$  is constructed. Its invariant solution is simply u(x) = 0. On the other hand, leaving  $u' - u^2 - \frac{1}{2}x = 0$  invariant, one obtains a second symmetry  $s_2 : (u, \alpha) \to (u + \frac{\alpha + \frac{1}{2}}{u' + u^2 + \frac{1}{2}x}, -1 - \alpha)$ . It has been proven by the Japanese school (Umemura, 1998) that the reflections  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  (which generate a Weyl affine group of type  $A_1^{(1)}$  where  $u' - u^2 + \frac{1}{2}x = 0$  corresponds to a wall of a Weyl chamber of this affine group) generate together with the two above seed solutions (u(x) = 0 and the Airy-like solution) all classical solutions of the second Painlevé equation. Surprisingly, when  $c \neq 0$ , the integrated ODE is again Painlevé II with the non zero constant c as a parameter. The contact transformation  $u = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{v}{v}$ ,  $u' = u^2 + \frac{1}{2}x - cv^2$  is the folding transformation (Tsuda et al., 2005) mapping algebraic solutions to Airy-like solutions of Painlevé II.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Recall that an Abelian function is a meromorphic function on the complex torus (Abelian variety)  $\mathbb{C}^p/\Gamma$  where  $\Gamma \subset \mathbb{C}^p$  is a lattice. Abelian functions generalize the concept of elliptic functions (i.e. double-periodic meromorphic functions on the complex plane such as the Weierstrass function) for p > 1. The condition (b) simply means we may have to solve Weierstrass-like equations.

#### 5. Nonlinear oscillator equations

In this section we consider the nonlinear oscillator equation

$$u'' + A(u)u' + B(u) = 0, (30)$$

where  $A(u), B(u) \in \mathbb{Q}(u)$ ;  $\mathbb{Q}(u)$  is the field of rational functions in u with rational coefficients [We are interested only in real ODEs. Moreover, it is sufficient to consider rational coefficients since real numbers are finitely represented in computer computation as mantissa×base<sup>exponent</sup>, i.e., as rational numbers.]

Before starting our investigation, we make the remark that in the generic case, the above ODE, just like the example in the introduction, has a one-dimensional point symmetry group: the translations  $x \to x + \varepsilon$ . In terms of the corresponding invariants t = u and w = u' the equation (30) reduces to

$$(w'(t) + A(t))w(t) + B(t) = 0, (31)$$

which is an Abel equation of the second kind (Polyanin and Zaitsev, 1995).

## 5.1. The general case

Since the nonlinear oscillator equation (30) has arbitrary functions A(u) and B(u), we restrict the mapping (11) to be of the form U = V'. Moreover, we restrict the integrating factor (12) to be a function of V. In this case, the determining equation (17) splits into the two ODEs

$$\begin{cases} V_1^3 \mu'''(V) - V_1^2 A(V_1) \mu''(V) - (B(V_1) - V_1 B'(V_1)) \mu'(V) = 0, \\ 3V_1 \mu''(v) - (2A(V_1) + V_1 A'(V_1)) \mu'(V) + B''(V_1) \mu(V) = 0. \end{cases}$$
(32)

The system (32) has the family of solutions  $\mu(V) = c_0 e^{c_1 V}$  provided the functions  $A(V_1)$ and  $B(V_1)$  are related by the restriction

$$A(V_1) = \frac{c_1^2 V_1^3 + V_1 B'(V_1) - B(V_1)}{c_1 V_1^2} \text{ or, equivalently, } B(V_1) = V_1 \left( \int (c_1 A(V_1) - c_1 V_1) dV_1 + c_2 \right)$$
(33)

where  $c_0, c_1$  and  $c_2$  are arbitrary constants  $[c_0c_1 \neq 0]$ . It is easy to see that  $A(V_1)$  is a polynomial function i.e.,  $A(V_1) \in \mathbb{Q}[V_1]$  if and only if  $B(V_1) \in \mathbb{Q}[V_1]$  and B(0) = 0. Also deg $(B(V_1)) = \text{deg}(A(V_1)) + 2$ . We set  $c_0$  to 1. In term of  $B(v_1)$ , the corresponding integrated equation is

$$G[v] = e^{c_1 v} \left( v'' + \frac{B(v_1)}{c_1 v_1} \right).$$

The mapping u = v' restricted to G[v] = c is given by

$$u = v', \ u' = v'' = -\frac{B(u)}{c_1 u} + c e^{-c_1 v}.$$
(34)

The mapping (34) is invertible if and only if c is not zero. In the generic case, the ODE G[v] = c has only a one-dimensional point symmetry group (the translations  $x \to x + \varepsilon$ ) and this is not enough to integrate it. However, when c = 0, provided A(u) and B(u) are subject to the restriction (33), we have for the nonlinear oscillator equation (30)

the one-parameter family of solutions  $x + \int \left(\frac{c_1 u}{B(u)}\right) du + c_3 = 0$  corresponding to the general solution of the separable equation  $u' + \frac{B(u)}{c_1 u} = 0$ .

Now consider specific examples.

5.2. Nonlinear oscillator with  $A(u) = a_4 u^4 + a_3 u^3 + a_2 u^2 + a_1 u + a_0$ 

One obtains six cases where B(u) is a polynomial in u and B(0) = 0.

5.2.1. Case I:  $A(u) = u^4 + 4b_5u^3 + 3b_4u^2 + (1+2b_3)u + b_2$ ,  $B(u) = (1/5)u^6 + \sum_{1}^{5} b_i u^i$  and  $\mu(V) = e^V$ 

Here, the ODE (30) takes the form

$$u'' + \left(u^4 + 4b_5u^3 + 3b_4u^2 + (1+2b_3)u + b_2\right)u' + (1/5)u^6 + \sum_{1}^{5}b_iu^i = 0.$$
 (35)

The point symmetry group of ODE (35) is one-dimensional. The integrated equation is

$$G[v] := e^{v} \left( v'' + \left( \frac{B(v')}{v'} \right) \right) = c, \tag{36}$$

which induces the mapping

$$u = v_1, \quad u' = -\left(\frac{B(u)}{u}\right) + ce^{-v},$$

which is invertible if and only if  $c \neq 0$ .

**Proposition 2.** When  $c \neq 0$ , the point symmetry group of the integrated differential equation (36) is given by the translations  $x \to x + \varepsilon$  induced by the original equation (35). Moreover, there is no further restrictions on the parameters which enlarges the admitted point symmetry group.

*Proof.* The unique characteristic set of the Lie defining equations with respect to the evident ranking on the differential variables  $\xi$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  is  $\{\xi_x = 0, \xi_v, \eta = 0\}$ . Here  $\xi = \xi(x, v)$  and  $\eta = \eta(x, v)$  represent the infinitesimals.  $\Box$ 

Furthermore, one can only obtain for the second order ODE (35) a one-parameter family of solutions and not its general solution. So setting c to zero, the corresponding one-parameter family of solutions is the general solution of the separable first order differential equation

$$u' + \left(\frac{B(u)}{u}\right) = 0. \tag{37}$$

Suppose  $\frac{B(u)}{u} = \prod_{i=1}^{5} (u - r_i)$  where  $r_1 < r_2 < \dots < r_5$  are real roots. Then the general

solution of the first order ODE (37) is given by

$$x + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{5} \frac{\ln(u(x) - r_i)}{\left[\frac{d}{du} \left(\frac{B(u)}{u}\right)\right]_{u=r_i}} = 0,$$

where  $c_1$  is an arbitrary constant.

If  $\frac{B(u)}{u} = (u-r)^5$ , where r is real, then one has the algebraic general solution given by

$$x + c_1 - \frac{1}{4(u(x) - r)^5} = 0,$$

where  $c_1$  is an arbitrary constant.

5.2.2. Case II: 
$$A(u) = u^3 + 3b_4u^2 + (1+2b_3)u + b_2$$
,  $B(u) = (1/4)u^5 + \sum_1^4 b_i u^i$  and  $\mu(V) = e^V$ 

Here the ODE (30) takes the form

$$u'' + \left(u^3 + 3b_4u^2 + (1+2b_3)u + b_2\right)u' + (1/4)u^5 + \sum_{1}^{4} b_i u^i = 0.$$
 (38)

The point symmetry group of ODE (35) is one-dimensional. The integrated ODE is

$$G[v] := e^{v} \left( v'' + \left( \frac{B(v')}{v'} \right) \right) = c.$$

This induces the mapping u = v',  $u' = -\left(\frac{B(u)}{u}\right) + ce^{-v}$ . The determinant of the corresponding Jacobian is  $ce^{-v}$  which vanishes if and only if c = 0. There is a similar proposition as in the previous case. When c = 0, ODE (38) has a one-parameter family of solutions given by the general solution of the separable first order ODE

$$u' + \left(\frac{B(u)}{u}\right) = 0. \tag{39}$$

Suppose  $\frac{B(u)}{u} = \prod_{i=1}^{4} (u - r_i)$  where  $r_1 < r_2 < r_3 < r_4$  are real roots. Then the general solution of the first order ODE (39) is given by

$$x + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{4} \frac{\ln(u(x) - r_i)}{\left[\frac{d}{du} \left(\frac{B(u)}{u}\right)\right]_{u=r_i}} = 0$$

where  $c_1$  is an arbitrary constant.

5.2.3. Case III:  $A(u) = u^2 + (1+2b_3)u + b_2$ ,  $B(u) = (1/3)u^4 + \sum_{i=1}^{3} b_i u^i$  and  $\mu(V) = e^V$ The corresponding ODE is

$$u'' + \left(u^2 + (1+2b_3)u + b_2\right)u' + (1/3)u^4 + \sum_{i=1}^{3} b_i u^i = 0.$$
 (40)

Again the admitted point symmetry group is one-dimensional and no further restrictions on the parameters will enlarge it. One obtains a one-parameter family of solutions given by the general solution of the separable first order ODE

$$u' + \left(\frac{B(u)}{u}\right) = 0. \tag{41}$$

Suppose  $\frac{B(u)}{u} = (u - r_1)(u - r_2)(u - r_3)$  where  $r_1 < r_2 < r_3$  are real roots. Then the general solution of the first order ODE (41) is given by

$$x + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{3} \frac{\ln(u(x) - r_i)}{\left[\frac{d}{du} \left(\frac{B(u)}{u}\right)\right]_{u=r_i}} = 0,$$

where  $c_1$  is an arbitrary constant.

5.2.4. Case IV:  $A(u) = \frac{2a_0^2 + b_2^2}{a_0 b_2} u + a_0$ ,  $B(u) = u^3 + b_2 u + b_1 u$  and  $\mu(V) = e^{3\frac{b_2}{a_0}V}$ The corresponding ODE (30) is

$$u'' + \left(\frac{2a_0^2 + b_2^2}{a_0b_2}u + a_0\right)u' + u^3 + b_2u + b_1u = 0,$$
(42)

which again has a one-dimensional point symmetry group. The resulting integrated ODE is

$$G[v] := e^{\frac{b_2}{a_0}v} \left( v_2 + \frac{a_0}{b_2} \left( \frac{B(v')}{v'} \right) \right) = c$$

This induces the mapping

$$u = v', \quad u' = -\frac{a_0}{b_2} \left(\frac{B(u)}{u}\right) + ce^{-\frac{b_2}{a_0}v}.$$

The determinant of the corresponding Jacobian is

$$\frac{b_2}{a_0}ce^{-\frac{b_2}{a_0}v}$$

which vanishes if and only if c = 0 (since  $a_0b_2$  can not vanish in this case). Setting c = 0, the ODE (42) has a one-parameter family of solutions given by the general solution of the separable first order ODE

$$u' + \frac{a_0}{b_2} \left( u^2 + b_2 u + b_1 \right) = 0.$$

which can be represented as

$$u(x) = -\frac{1}{2} \left( b_2 - \tanh\left(\frac{1}{2}\frac{a_0\sqrt{\Delta}}{b_2}(x+c_1)\right)\sqrt{\Delta}\right) \quad \text{when} \quad \Delta > 0,$$
  

$$u(x) = -\frac{1}{2} \left( b_2 + \tan\left(\frac{1}{2}\frac{a_0\sqrt{-\Delta}}{b_2}(x+c_1)\right)\sqrt{-\Delta}\right) \quad \text{when} \quad \Delta < 0,$$
  

$$u(x) = -\frac{1}{2} \left( b_2 - \frac{2}{a_0(x+c_1)}\right) \quad \text{when} \quad \Delta = 0,$$
  

$$= b_2^2 - 4b_1 \text{ is the discriminant of } \frac{B(u)}{2} = u^2 + b_2 u + b_1$$

where  $\Delta = b_2^2 - 4b_1$  is the discriminant of  $\frac{B(u)}{u} = u^2 + b_2 u + b_1$ .

**Remark 2.** In Case IV, one can set  $c \neq 0$  [Here the mapping is invertible and hence one can obtain the general solution]. One finds four cases where with further restrictions on the parameters the integrated ODE is solvable. However, in all these restricted cases MAPLE was able to find the general solution directly from the original ODE. 5.2.5. Case V:  $A(u) = a_1 u$  and  $B(u) = b_3 u^3 + b_1 u$ Here the ODE (30) becomes

$$u'' + a_1 u u' + b_3 u^3 + b_1 u = 0.$$

This case is solvable by Lie's method (by MAPLE). Indeed, here the reduced Abel equation

$$(w'(t) + a_1t)w(t) + b_3t^3 + b_1t = 0$$

has the symmetry  $\frac{(2b_3w^2 + (t^2a_1b_3 + a_1b_1)w + b_3^2t^4 + 2b_1b_3t^2 + b_1^2)}{w}\partial_w.$ 

5.2.6. Case VI:  $A(u) = a_1 u$  and  $B(u) = b_1 u + b_0$ The ODE (30) becomes

$$u'' + a_1 u u' + (b_1 u + b_0) = 0. (43)$$

For this case, excluding the trivial subcases, we were unable to find any solution. One can prove that the solutions of ODE (43) are nonclassical functions.

5.3. Nonlinear oscillator with  $B(u) = b_4 u^4 + b_3 u^3 + b_2 u^2 + b_1 u + b_0 = 0$ 

One can also consider the nonlinear oscillator equations (where  $B(0) = b_0 \neq 0$ )

 $u'' + A(u)u' + b_4u^4 + b_3u^3 + b_2u^2 + b_1u + b_0 = 0.$ 

According to the constraint (33), A(u) is a rational (not a polynomial) function of u. We just consider two cases here.

5.3.1. Case 1: 
$$A(u) = \frac{1}{u^2} + a_0 + a_1 u + a_2 u^2$$
,  $B(u) = u^4 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{(3a_1a_2 - 9)}{a_2^2} u^3 + \frac{3a_0}{a_2} u^2 + b_1 u - \frac{3}{a_2}$   
and  $\mu(V) = c_0 e^{\frac{3}{a_2}V}$ 

Suppose  $B(u) = \prod_{i=1}^{4} (u - r_i)$  where  $r_1 < r_2 < r_3 < r_4$  are real roots, then one obtains the one-parameter family of solutions

$$x + c_1 + 6a_2 \sum_{i=1}^{4} \frac{r_i \left( \ln(u(x) - r_i) \right)}{[B'(u)]_{u=r_i}} = 0,$$

where  $c_1$  is an arbitrary constant.

5.3.2. Case 2:  $A(u) = \frac{1}{u^2} + u$ ,  $B(u) = b_1 u - 1$  and  $\mu(V) = c_0 + c'_0 e^V$ Here the ODE (30) takes the form

$$u'' + \left(\frac{1}{u^2} + u\right)u' + b_1u - 1 = 0.$$
(44)

The corresponding separable first order ODE is

$$u' - \frac{1}{u} + b_1 = 0.$$

This yields the one-parameter family of solutions of ODE (44) given by

$$u(x) = \frac{1}{b_1} \left( \mathcal{W} \left( e^{-(b_1^2 x + c_1)} \right) + 1 \right),$$

where  $c_1$  is an arbitrary constant and  $\mathcal{W}(x)$  is the Lambert W function.

## 5.4. Solutions for Abel equations

The first order ODE  $u'(x) + \frac{B(u)}{c_1 u} = 0$  yields an explicit solution for the Abel equation

$$(w'(t) + A(t)) w(t) + B(t) = 0,$$

where  $A(t) = \frac{c_1^2 t^3 + tB'(t) - B(t)}{c_1 t^2}$  since t = u(x) and w(t) = u'(x). For instance, for the ODE (44) the corresponding first order ODE is

$$u' - \frac{1}{u} + b_1 = 0. (45)$$

Writing (45) in terms of t = u(x) and w(t) = u'(x) yields  $w(t) = \frac{1}{t} - b_1$ , a solution of the Abel equation

$$\left(w'(t) + \frac{1}{t^2} + t\right)w(t) + b_1t - 1 = 0.$$

Similarly,  $w(t) = -\frac{1}{3}t^3 + 3t^2$  is solution of the Abel equation (2) in the Introduction.

5.5. The integrating factor as a function of x

Of course one can restrict the integrating factor (12) to be a function of x instead of being a function of V [The mapping (11) is again U = V']. For example, if

$$A(u) = B'(u) + c_0, \ B(u) = (1/5)u^5 + \sum_{0}^{4} b_i u^i \text{ and } \mu = c_0 e^x$$
(46)

then one obtains the one-parameter family of solutions  $x + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{5} \frac{\ln(u(x) - r_i)}{[B'(u)]_{u=r_i}} = 0$  if  $B(u) = \prod_{i=1}^{5} (u - r_i)$  where  $r_1 < r_2 \cdots < r_5$ . In the previous cases of Section 5.2, where the integrating factor  $\mu = \mu(V)$ , one had

In the previous cases of Section 5.2, where the integrating factor  $\mu = \mu(V)$ , one had  $\deg(B(u)) = \deg(A(u))+2$ . On the other hand, in (46) one has  $\deg(B(u)) = \deg(A(u))+1$ .

#### 6. Concluding remarks

In this paper, we introduced a method for finding particular solutions of ODEs. Such solutions are not obtainable through a direct use of the MAPLE ODE solver dsolve (which depends on finding and using integrating factors, Lie point symmetries and contact symmetries). Our method, presented in detail in Section 3, uses a combination of invertible and non-invertible mappings. Many new solutions were found for various nonlinear oscillator equations.

In a future paper (Bluman and Dridi, 2011), we will present in more detail the theoretical background of the new method presented in this paper.

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