# Algorithmic Verification of Linearizability for Ordinary Differential Equations 

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## Introduction

How to solve differential equation?

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\begin{equation*}
y^{\prime \prime \prime}+\frac{3 y^{\prime}}{y}\left(y^{\prime \prime}-y^{\prime}\right)-3 y^{\prime \prime}+2 y^{\prime}-y=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It admits rich Lie symmetry group, however Maple solver dsolve outputs

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\begin{aligned}
& y(x)=\mathrm{e}
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On the other hand, Eq. (1) admits the linearization [Ibragimov, 2009]


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On the other hand, Eq. (1) admits the linearization [Ibragimov, 2009]

$$
u^{\prime \prime \prime}-\frac{2}{t^{3}} u=0, \quad t=\exp (x), \quad u=y^{2}
$$

## Prehistory

The linearization problem for a second-order ODE

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{\prime \prime}+f\left(x, y, y^{\prime}\right)=0 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

was solved by Sophus Lie. He showed that only equations of the following form are linearizable by point transformations:


$$
\begin{equation*}
f=F_{3}(x, y)\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{3}+F_{2}(x, y)\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{2}+F_{1}(x, y) y^{\prime}+F_{0}(x, y) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Theorem.

Equation (2) is linearizable by point transformation if and only if

$$
\begin{gather*}
3\left(F_{3}\right)_{x x}-2\left(F_{2}\right)_{x y}+\left(F_{1}\right)_{y y}-3 F_{1}\left(F_{3}\right)_{x}+2 F_{2}\left(F_{2}\right)_{x} \\
-3 F_{3}\left(F_{1}\right)_{x}+3 F_{0}\left(F_{3}\right)_{y}+6 F_{3}\left(F_{0}\right)_{y}-F_{2}\left(F_{1}\right)_{y}=0  \tag{4}\\
\left(F_{2}\right)_{x x}-2\left(F_{1}\right)_{x y}+3\left(F_{0}\right)_{y y}-6 F_{0}\left(F_{3}\right)_{x}+F_{1}\left(F_{2}\right)_{x} \\
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\end{gather*}
$$

In this paper we consider ODEs of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{(n)}+f\left(x, y, y^{\prime}, \ldots, y^{(n-1)}\right)=0, \quad y^{(k)}:=\frac{d^{k} y}{d x^{k}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $f \in \mathcal{C}\left(x, y, y^{\prime}, \ldots, y^{(n-1)}\right)$ solved with respect to the highest order derivative.

Given an ODE of the form (5), our aim is to check the existence of an invertible transformation

which maps (5) into a linear $n$-th order homogeneous equation


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\begin{equation*}
u=\phi(x, y), \quad t=\psi(x, y) \tag{6}
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which maps (5) into a linear $n$-th order homogeneous equation

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u^{(n)}(t)+\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{k}(t) u^{(k)}(t)=0, \quad u^{(k)}:=\frac{d^{k} u}{d t^{k}} \tag{7}
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J:=\phi_{x} \psi_{y}-\phi_{y} \psi_{x} \neq 0
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## Lie Symmetry

One way to check the linearizability of Eq. (5) is to follow the classical approach by Lie to study the symmetry properties of Eq. (5) under one-parameter group of transformation [Lie, 1883]

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F(x,y,\mp@subsup{y}{}{\prime},\ldots,\mp@subsup{y}{}{(n)})=0
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## Infinitesimal Transformation

The key point is to study vector field of infinitesimal transformation, which is the first term in Taylor expansion of one-parameter group of transformation

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\begin{equation*}
\tilde{x}=x+\varepsilon \underline{\xi(x, y)}+\mathcal{O}\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right), \quad \tilde{y}=y+\varepsilon \underline{\eta(x, y)}+\mathcal{O}\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Infinitesimal symmetry operators

$$
\mathcal{X}:=\xi(x, y) \partial_{x}+\eta(x, y) \partial_{y}
$$

## form Lie algebra $L$ under Lie bracket

$$
\left[\mathcal{\chi}_{1}, \mathcal{x}_{2}\right]=\mathcal{\chi}_{1} \mathcal{X}_{2}-\mathcal{x}_{2} \mathcal{\chi}_{1} .
$$

Sophus Lie showed that Lie algebra of $n$-dimensional ODE satisfies


- if $n=2$, then $\operatorname{dim}(L) \leq 8$
- if $n>2$, then $\operatorname{dim}(L) \leq n+4$


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## Basic Theorem

Linear homogeneous $n$-th order equation (7) with variable coefficients admits the Lie point symmetry group

- $\tilde{t}=t, \tilde{u}=u+c_{i} \cdot v_{i}(t), i=1 \ldots n$
- $\tilde{t}=t, \tilde{u}=c_{n+1} \cdot u$
where $c_{i}, c_{n+1}$ are constants (the group parameters) and $\left\{v_{i}(t)\right\}$ is the fundamental solution of (7).

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\begin{aligned}
& \text { The symmetry algebra has the } n \text {-dimensional abelian Lie subalgebra } \\
& \qquad L_{n+1}:=\left\{\mathcal{X}_{i}:=v_{i}(t) \partial_{u}(i=1, . ., n), \mathcal{X}_{n+1}:=u \partial_{u}\right\}
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## Theorem

A necessary and sufficient condition for the linearization of (5) with $n>3$ via a point transformation is the existence of an abelian $n$-dimensional subalgebra in symmetry algebra.

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## LinearizationTest I

## What can we do algorithmically?

- generation of determining equations
- dimension of solution space (by Differential Dimension Polynomial)
- structure constants of Lie algebra [Reid. 1991$]$
$\mathcal{X}=$ truncated Taylor series $\rightarrow\left[\mathcal{X}_{i}, \mathcal{X}_{j}\right]=\sum_{k=1}^{m} C_{i, j}^{k} \mathcal{X}_{k}, \quad 1 \leq i<j \leq m$.


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Fc. (5) with $n \geq 2$ is linearizable by a point transformation if and only if one f the following conditions is fulfilled:$n=2, m=8$
(2) $n>3, m=n+4$;
(3) $n \geq 3, m \in\{n+1, n+2\}$ and derived algebra is abelian and has dimension $n$.

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## Algorithm: LinearizationTest I (q)

Input: $q$, a nonlinear differential equation of form (5)
Output: True, if $q$ is linearizable and False, otherwise
1: $n:=\operatorname{order}(q)$;
2: $D S:=$ DeterminingSystem (q);
3: IDS := InvolutiveDeterminingSystem (DS);
4: $m:=\operatorname{dim}($ LieSymmetryAlgebra) (IDS);
5: if $n=1 \vee(n=2 \wedge m=8) \vee(n>2 \wedge m=n+4)$ then
6: return True;
7: elif $n>2 \wedge(m=n+1 \vee m=n+2)$ then
8: $\quad L:=$ LieSymmetryAlgebra (IDS);
9: $\quad D A:=$ DerivedAlgebra $(L)$;
10: $\quad$ if $D A$ is abelian and $\operatorname{dim}(D A)=n$ then
11: return True;
12: fi
13: fi
14: return False;

## Differential Thomas Decomposition

The differential Thomas decomposition is universal algorithmic tool, which provides a characteristic decomposition of the radical of the differential ideal, generated by differential system.
Definition.
A differential system is a system $S:=\left\{S=, S^{\neq}\right\}$of differential equations and (possibly) inequations of the form
$S^{=}:=\left\{g_{1}=0, \ldots, g_{s}=0\right\}, S^{\neq}:=\left\{h_{1} \neq 0, \ldots, h_{t} \neq 0\right\}, s \geq 1, t \geq 0$.
$\square$ applied to a differential system $S$ yields a finite set of involutive and simple differential systems:

- every simple system has a solution under $\mathcal{C}$
- solution spaces of two different systems are distinct


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## LinearizationTest II

Substitution

$$
[u=\phi(x, y), \quad t=\psi(x, y)] \rightarrow u^{(n)}(t)+\sum_{k} a_{k}(t) u^{(k)}(t)=0 .
$$

By differentiating the equality $u(\psi(x, y(x)))=\phi(x, y(x))$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u^{\prime}(t)=\frac{\phi_{x}+\phi_{y} y^{\prime}}{\psi_{x}+\psi_{y} y^{\prime}}, \\
& u^{\prime \prime}(t)=\frac{\phi_{x} \psi_{y}-\phi_{y} \psi_{x}}{\left(\psi_{x}+\psi_{y} y^{\prime}\right)^{3}} y^{\prime \prime}+\frac{\left(\psi_{x}+\psi_{y} y^{\prime}\right)\left(\phi_{x x}+\phi_{x y} y^{\prime}+\phi_{y y}\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right)}{\left(\psi_{x}+\psi_{y} y^{\prime}\right)^{3}}, \\
& \vdots \\
& u^{(n)}(t)=\frac{J}{\left(\psi_{x}+\psi_{y} y^{\prime}\right)^{n+1}} y^{(n)}+\frac{P_{n}\left(y^{\prime}, \ldots, y^{(n-1)}\right)}{\left(\psi_{x}+\psi_{y} y^{\prime}\right)^{2 n-1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## LinearizationTest II

## Definition.

The differential system made up of the above constructed PDE set $S^{=}$and of the inequation set $S^{\neq}=\{J \neq 0\}$ will be called linearizing differential system.

> Theorem.
> Eq. (5) is linearizable via a point transformation (6) if and only if the linearizing differential system is consistent, i.e. has a solution. It is equivalent to statement that result of differential Thomas decomposition algorithm applied to linearizing system is non-empty set.

## Remark.

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## Algorithm: LinearizationTest II $(q, P, H)$

Input: $q$, a nonlinear differential equation of form (5) of order $\geq 2$; $P$, a set of parameters; $H$, a set of undetermined functions in $(x, y)$
Output: Set $G$ of differential systems for functions $\phi$ and $\psi$ in (6) and (possibly) in elements of $P$ and $H$ if (5) is linearizable, and the empty set, otherwise
1: $n:=\operatorname{order}(q)$;
2: $G:=\emptyset$;
3: $\quad M:=$ numerator $(f) ; \quad N:=$ denominator $(f)$;
4: $J:=\phi_{x} \psi_{y}-\phi_{y} \psi_{x}$;
5: if $n=2$ then
6: $\quad r:=u^{\prime \prime}(t)=0$;
7: $\quad A:=\emptyset$;
8: else
9: $\quad r:=u^{(n)}(t)+\sum_{k=0}^{n-3} a_{k}(t) u^{(k)}(t)=0$;
10: $\quad A:=\left\{a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-3}\right\}$;
11: fi
12: $r \xrightarrow{\text { by }(6)} y^{(n)}+\frac{R\left(y^{\prime}, \ldots, y^{(n-1)}\right)}{J \cdot\left(\psi_{x}+\psi_{y} y^{\prime}\right)^{(n-2)}}=0$;
13: $T:=R \cdot N-M \cdot J \cdot\left(\psi_{x}+\psi_{y} y^{\prime}\right)^{(n-2)}=0$;
14: $S^{=}:=\left\{c=0 \mid c \in \operatorname{coeffs}\left(T,\left\{y^{\prime}, \ldots, y^{(n-1)}\right\}\right)\right\}$;
15: $S^{=}:=S^{=} \cup_{p \in P}\left\{p_{x}=0, p_{y}=0\right\}$;
16: $S=:=S=\cup_{a \in A}\left\{a_{x} \psi_{y}-a_{y} \psi_{x}=0\right\}$;
17: $s^{\neq}:=\{J \neq 0\}$;
18: $G:=$ ThomasDecomposition $\left(S^{=}, S^{f}\right)$;
19: return $G$;

## Examples

1. 

$$
y^{\prime \prime \prime}+\frac{3 y^{\prime}}{y}\left(y^{\prime \prime}-y^{\prime}\right)-3 y^{\prime \prime}+2 y^{\prime}-y=0
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$$

2. 

$$
y^{\prime \prime}+F_{3}(x, y)\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{3}+F_{2}(x, y)\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{2}+F_{1}(x, y) y^{\prime}+F_{0}(x, y)=0
$$

## Conclusions

- For the first time, the problem of the linearization test for a wide class of ordinary differential equation of arbitrary order was algorithmically solved.
- LinearizationTest I is a efficient way to check the linearizability of ODE, based only on algorithmic symmetry properties.
- LinearizationTest II allows to check linearizability and to construct linearizing mapping.
- The second algorithm may also improve the built-in Maple solver dsolve of differential equations.
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[^0]:    Theorem
    A necessary and sufficient condition for the linearization of (5) with $n \geqslant 3$ via a point transformation is the existence of an abelian $n$-dimensional subalgebra

[^1]:    Remark.
    Linearizing differential system for given ODE $(n \geq 2)$ is finite-dimensional.

