



Operational solution of fractional differential equations



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ABSTRACT

The main goal of this paper is to solve fractional differential equations by means of an operational calculus. Our calculus is based on a modified shift operator which acts on an abstract space of formal Laurent series. We adopt Weyl's definition of derivatives of fractional order.

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1. Introduction

Weyl's definition of the derivative of fractional order α of a function f is given by

$${}_t W_\infty^\alpha f(t) = (-1)^n \frac{1}{\Gamma(n-\alpha)} \frac{d^n}{dt^n} \int_t^\infty (z-t)^{n-\alpha-1} f(z) dz, \quad (1)$$

where $\text{Re}(\alpha) > 0$ and $t > 0$. The operator ${}_t W_\infty^\alpha$ acts with respect to t . We will omit the subscripts t and ∞ of the W in (1). For more details, see [1,2]. From definition (1) it is easy to verify that

$$W^\alpha e^{-at} = a^\alpha e^{-at}, \quad (2)$$

for $a \in \mathbb{C}$, $\text{Re}(a) > 0$, see [1, 456].

Our goal in this paper is to solve in a purely algebraic way fractional differential equations of the form $q(W^\alpha)f = g$, where q is a polynomial with complex coefficients, by means of the operational calculus introduced by Bengochea and Verde-Star in [3]. The concepts of equivalence classes and partial fraction decomposition are not used in this theory. We construct a space of formal Laurent series using the abstract objects p_k , $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Also we define the modified shift operator L which acts in the abstract objects as follows: $Lp_0 = 0$ and $Lp_k = p_{k-1}$ for $k \neq 0$. Using the properties of L we can solve equations of the form $q(L)f = g$, where q is a polynomial with complex coefficients, f is unknown and g is a known element in the image of $q(L)$.

Recently, M. Li and W. Zhao applied Mikusiński's operational calculus [4] to solve Abel's type integral equations, see [5], and in [6] they discuss some important aspects of the min-plus algebra related to the convolution product and the asymptotic expression for the identity. M. Khan and M.A. Gondal have constructed a new mechanism for the solution of Abel's type singular integral equations by means of two-step Laplace decomposition algorithm, see [7].

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2. Algebraic setting and preliminary results

In this section we summarize the work introduced in [3]. Let $\{p_k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ be a group with multiplication $p_k p_n = p_{k+n}$, for $n, k \in \mathbb{Z}$. We denote for \mathcal{F} the set of all the formal Laurent series of the form

$$a = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} a_k p_k,$$

where a_k is a complex number for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and, either, all the a_k are equal to zero, or there exists an integer $w(a)$ such that $a_k = 0$ whenever $k < w(a)$ and $a_{w(a)} \neq 0$. In the first case we write $a = 0$ and define $w(0) = \infty$. The addition and the multiplication by complex numbers in \mathcal{F} are defined in the usual way. For $a = \sum a_k p_k$ and $b = \sum b_k p_k$ in \mathcal{F} we define a multiplication $ab = \sum c_k p_k$, where

$$c_k = \sum_{w(a) \leq k \leq n-w(b)} a_k b_{n-k}.$$

With this multiplication \mathcal{F} acquires the structure of field, see [3, p. 332]. Observe that the unit element in \mathcal{F} is p_0 and the multiplicative inverse of p_n is p_{-n} . For $x \in \mathbb{C}$, it is true that

$$(p_0 - xp_1) \sum_{n \geq 0} x^n p_n = p_0, \quad (3)$$

and

$$(p_0 - xp_1)^{k+1} p_{-k} \sum_{n \geq k} \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} p_n = p_0. \quad (4)$$

We use the notation $e_{x,0}$ for $\sum_{n \geq 0} x^n p_n$ and $e_{x,k}$ for $\sum_{n \geq k} \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} p_n$. The element $e_{x,0}$ is called the geometric series associated with x . From (3) and (4) it follows that $e_{x,0}$ and $p_{-k} e_{x,k}$ are the multiplicative inverses of $p_0 - xp_1$ and $(p_0 - xp_1)^{k+1}$, respectively. It is easy to verify that $p_{-k} e_{x,k} = (e_{x,0})^{k+1}$. We define the linear operator L on \mathcal{F} by $Lp_k = p_{k-1}$, for $k \neq 0$, and $Lp_0 = 0$. This is called the modified left shift. An important property of L is that

$$L^k = p_{-k}(p_0 - P_0 - P_1 - P_2 - \cdots - P_{k-1}), \quad (5)$$

where P_n is the projection on the subspace generated by p_n , this is $P_n a = a_n p_n$. For more details see [3, p. 333].

3. Operational solution of fractional differential equations

From (2) we have that for $\beta = 1/\alpha$

$$W^\alpha e^{-t(1+x)^\beta} = (1+x)e^{-t(1+x)^\beta}, \quad (6)$$

where $\operatorname{Re}((1+x)^\beta) > 0$, $(1+x)^\beta = e^{\beta \log(1+x)}$, and \log denotes the principal branch of the logarithm function. Eq. (6) can be written as

$$(W^\alpha - I) e^{-t(1+x)^\beta} = x e^{-t(1+x)^\beta}.$$

We define $L = W^\alpha - I$, and

$$e_{x,0} = e^{-t(1+x)^\beta}. \quad (7)$$

Then Eq. (6) acquires the form $(L - xI)e_{x,0} = 0$. It is easy to verify that

$$e^{-t(1+x)^\beta} = \sum_{n \geq 0} \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{k\beta}{n} (-1)^k \frac{t^k}{k!} x^n. \quad (8)$$

From (7), (8), and the fact that $e_{x,0} = \sum_{n \geq 0} x^n p_n$ we obtain

$$p_n = \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{k\beta}{n} (-1)^k \frac{t^k}{k!}, \quad n \geq 0. \quad (9)$$

The first few p_n are given by

$$p_0 = \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{k\beta}{0} (-1)^k \frac{t^k}{k!} = u_0(t) e^{-t},$$

$$p_1 = \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{k\beta}{1} (-1)^k \frac{t^k}{k!} = u_1(t) e^{-t},$$

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