# Solution of Equations with $q$-Derivatives and Ward's Derivatives Using an Operational Method 

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#### Abstract

We show that several types of differential equations that involve $q$-derivatives, Fibonacci derivatives, and other Ward's derivatives, can be solved by an algebraic operational method that does not use integrals nor integral transforms. We deal with extensions of the Ward's derivatives that can be applied to formal Laurent series. Several examples of linear and nonlinear equations are presented.


## 1. Introduction

It is well-known that formal power series play a central role in the resolution of ordinary differential equations. This is mainly due to the fact that the usual derivative $D$ acts on the monomials $x^{n}$ in a simple way, that is, $D x^{n}=n x^{n-1}$. In order to extend this property of $D$, Appell [1] defined polynomial sequences, called Appell sequences, $\left\{p_{n}(x)\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}}$, that satisfy $D p_{n}(x)=n p_{n-1}(x)$ and such that the degree of $p_{n}(x)$ is equal to $n$, for all $n \geq 0$. The Appell sequences constitute a useful tool for solving several kinds of differential and difference equations. Many properties of Appell sequences have been studied using the theory of umbral calculus. See the books [7] and [8].

In an attempt to generalize previous work of Jackson [3], Ward [11] introduced several "derivatives", that is, generalizations of the usual derivative, by replacing the ordinary binomial coefficients by the generalized binomial coefficients

$$
[n, r]=\frac{h_{n} h_{n-1} \cdots h_{n-r+1}}{h_{1} h_{2} \cdots h_{r}}
$$

where $\left\{h_{k}\right\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ is a fixed sequence of complex numbers such that $h_{0}=0, h_{1}=1$, and $h_{k} \neq 0$, for $k>1$. In others words, for the usual derivative we have $D x^{n}=\binom{n}{1} x^{n-1}$, and for the new derivative, denoted by $\mathscr{D}_{h}$, we have $\mathscr{D}_{h} x^{n}=[n, 1] x^{n-1}$. Each sequence $\left\{h_{k}\right\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ yields a new derivative. Among the most important are

[^0]the Fibonacci derivative, the zero Jackson derivative, and the Jackson derivative, or $q$-derivative, which we will consider in this paper. It is important to mention that the Ward's calculus and the Appell sequences are closely related. A sequence of the form $\left\{\frac{x^{n}}{h_{1} h_{2} \cdots h_{n}}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$ is an Appell sequence with respect to Ward's derivative $\mathscr{D}_{h}$, that is,
$$
\mathscr{D}_{h} \frac{x^{n}}{h_{1} h_{2} \cdots h_{n}}=\frac{x^{n-1}}{h_{1} h_{2} \cdots h_{n-1}}, \quad n \geq 0
$$
and $\mathscr{D}_{h} 1=0$.
Recently, Luzón, Morón, and Ramírez [6] extended the theory of Ward's calculus and studied its connections with Sheffer polynomial sequences and Riordan matrices.

In this paper, we study the extension of generalized difference operators from formal series to formal Laurent series. For this, we will define the $h$-factorial function for any integer. An important case of such generalized operators is the Ward's derivative. We obtain properties of generalized difference operators showing that the Ward's derivative satisfies $\mathscr{D}_{h} p_{n}=p_{n-1}$, for every nonzero integer $n$, and $\mathscr{D}_{h} p_{0}=0$, when $p_{n}=\frac{x^{n}}{h_{1} h_{2} \cdots h_{n}}$. Consequently, the derivative $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ can be applied to any formal Laurent series of the form

$$
a=\sum_{k \geq v(a)}^{\infty} a_{k} p_{k}, \quad v(a) \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad a_{v(a)} \neq 0
$$

This is the key property that allows us to apply the general algebraic operational calculus, that we introduced in [2], to solve equations with Ward's derivatives, without using neither integrals nor integral transforms.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the basic theory of the operational method introduced in [2]. In Section 3 we study the generalized difference operator and extend its domain to the complex vector space of formal Laurent series. We consider some particular cases that include the Ward's derivative, the Fibonacci derivative, the zero Jackson derivative, and the $q$-derivative. The application of the operational method to Ward's calculus is presented in Section 4. Finally, Section 5 contains the main conclusions.

## 2. The operational method

In this section, we summarize the main results obtained in [2]. Let $\left\{p_{k}: k \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ be a group with the multiplication defined by $p_{k} p_{n}=p_{k+n}$, for $k, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let $\mathscr{F}$ be the set of all the formal series of the form

$$
a=\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} a_{k} p_{k}
$$

where the coefficients $a_{k}$ are complex numbers and, either, all the $a_{k}$ are equal to zero, or there exists an integer $v(a)$ such that $a_{k}=0$ whenever $k<v(a)$, and $a_{v(a)} \neq 0$. In the first case we write $a=0$ and define $v(0)=\infty$. Addition in $\mathscr{F}$ and multiplication by complex numbers are defined in the usual way.

The usual Cauchy product series is used to extend the multiplication of the group $\left\{p_{k}: k \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ to a multiplication on $\mathscr{F}$ as follows. If $a=\sum a_{k} p_{k}$ and $b=\sum b_{k} p_{k}$ are elements of $\mathscr{F}$ then $a b=c=\sum c_{n} p_{n}$, where the coefficients $c_{n}$ are defined by

$$
c_{n}=\sum_{v(a) \leq k \leq n-v(b)} a_{k} b_{n-k} .
$$

Note that $v(a b)=v(a)+v(b)$. This multiplication in $\mathscr{F}$ is associative and commutative and $p_{0}$ is its unit element. Define $\mathscr{F}_{n}=\{a \in \mathscr{F}: v(a) \geq n\}$, for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. It was proved in [2] that $\mathscr{F}$ is a field and that $\mathscr{F}_{0}$ is a subring of $\mathscr{F}$.

Some important properties of the series in $\mathscr{F}$ are the following.

- For $x \in \mathbb{C}$

$$
\left(p_{0}-x p_{1}\right) \sum_{n \geq 0} x^{n} p_{n}=p_{0} .
$$

The series $\sum_{k \geq 0} x^{k} p_{k}$ is denoted by $e_{x, 0}$ and called the geometric series associated with $x$.

- For $x \in \mathbb{C}$ and $k>0$ we define

$$
e_{x, k}=\frac{p_{k}}{\left(p_{0}-x p_{1}\right)^{k+1}} .
$$

Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{x, k}=p_{k}\left(e_{x, 0}\right)^{k+1}=\frac{D_{x}^{k}}{k!} e_{x, 0}=\sum_{n \geq k}\binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} p_{n}, \quad k \geq 0, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D_{x}$ denotes the usual differentiation operator with respect to $x$.

- For $x, y \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $x \neq y$

$$
p_{1} e_{x, m} e_{y, n}=\sum_{k=0}^{m} \frac{\binom{n+k}{k}(-1)^{k} e_{x, m-k}}{(x-y)^{1+n+k}}+\sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{\binom{m+j}{j}(-1)^{j} e_{y, n-j}}{(y-x)^{1+m+j}}, \quad n, m \in \mathbb{N} .
$$

Note that the right-hand side is a linear combination of the elements of the sets $\left\{e_{x, k}: 0 \leq k \leq m\right\}$ and $\left\{e_{y, j}: 0 \leq j \leq n\right\}$. A simple particular case is

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{1} e_{x, 0} e_{y, 0}=\frac{e_{x, 0}-e_{y, 0}}{x-y} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Denote by $P_{n}$ the projection on $\left\langle p_{n}\right\rangle$, the subspace generated by $p_{n}$, that is, if $a$ is in $\mathscr{F}$ then $P_{n} a=a_{n} p_{n}$. We define a linear operator $L$ on $\mathscr{F}$ as follows. $L p_{k}=p_{-1} p_{k}=p_{k-1}$ for $k \neq 0$, and $L p_{0}=0$. Then, for $a$ in $\mathscr{F}$ we have

$$
L a=L \sum_{k \geq v(a)} a_{k} p_{k}=p_{-1}\left(a-a_{0} p_{0}\right)=p_{-1}\left(I-P_{0}\right) a
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
L^{k} a=p_{-k}\left(I-\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} P_{j}\right) a, \quad k \geq 1 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $I$ is the identity operator. We call $L$ the modified left shift. Note that $L$ is not invertible, since its kernel is the subspace $\left\langle p_{0}\right\rangle$.

For $k \geq 0$ let $\mathscr{F}_{[0, k]}=\operatorname{Ker}\left(P_{0}+P_{1}+\cdots+P_{k}\right)$. If $k=0$, we write $\mathscr{F}_{[0]}$ instead of $\mathscr{F}_{[0,0]}$.
Let

$$
w(t)=\prod_{j=0}^{r}\left(t-x_{j}\right)^{m_{j}+1}
$$

where $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}$ are distinct complex numbers, $m_{0}, m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r}$ are nonnegative integers, and we set $n+1=$ $\sum_{j}\left(m_{j}+1\right)$. We define the operator

$$
\begin{equation*}
w(L)=\left(L-x_{0} I\right)^{m_{0}+1}\left(L-x_{1} I\right)^{m_{1}+1} \cdots\left(L-x_{r} I\right)^{m_{r}+1} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 2.1 ([2], p. 339.)., Let $w(L)$ be as defined in (4). Define

$$
d_{w}=p_{r+1} e_{x_{0}, m_{0}} e_{x_{1}, m_{1}} \cdots e_{x_{r}, m_{r}}
$$

and

$$
K_{w}=\left\langle e_{x_{j, i}, i}: 0 \leq j \leq r, 0 \leq i \leq m_{j}\right\rangle
$$

Then $g$ is in the image of $w(L)$ if and only if $d_{w} g \in \mathscr{F}_{[0, n]}, K_{w}=\operatorname{Ker}(w(L))$, and for every $g \in \operatorname{Im}(w(L))$ we have $w(L)\left(d_{w} g\right)=g$ and thus

$$
\{f \in \mathscr{F}: w(L) f=g\}=\left\{d_{w} g+h: h \in K_{w}\right\} .
$$

## 3. Generalized difference operators and Ward's derivatives

Let $\left\{u_{k}(t)\right\}_{k \geq 0}$ be a sequence of monic polynomials in $\mathbb{C}[t]$ such that $u_{k}$ has degree $k$ for $k \geq 0$. We say that $\left\{u_{k}(t)\right\}_{k \geq 0}$ is a polynomial sequence. It is clear that every polynomial sequence is a basis for the vector space $\mathbb{C}[t]$.

Let $\left(h_{k}\right)_{k=0}^{\infty}=\left(h_{0}, h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots\right)$ be a sequence of complex numbers such that $h_{0}=0$ and $h_{k} \neq 0$ for $k \geq 1$, and let $\left\{u_{k}(t)\right\}_{k \geq 0}$ be a polynomial sequence. We define the generalized difference operator $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ on the vector space of polynomials through $\mathscr{D}_{h} u_{k}=h_{k} u_{k-1}$ for $k \geq 0$. If $u_{k}(t)=t^{k}$ for $k \geq 0$ then $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ is called the Ward's derivative associated with the sequence $\left(h_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$. The usual derivative is obtained when $h_{k}=k$ for $k \geq 0$.

The usual difference operator with increment $d \neq 0$ is obtained when the polynomial sequence $u_{k}(t)$ is defined by $u_{0}(t)=1$ and

$$
u_{k}(t)=t(t-d)(t-2 d) \cdots(t-(k-1) d), \quad k \geq 1
$$

In this case we have

$$
\frac{u_{k}(t+d)-u_{k}(t)}{d}=k d u_{k-1}(t), \quad k \geq 0
$$

and therefore, if we define $h_{k}=k d$ for $k \geq 0$, the generalized difference associated with $\left\{u_{k}\right\}$ and $\left(h_{k}\right)$ is the usual difference operator

$$
\mathscr{D}_{h} p(t)=\frac{p(t+d)-p(t)}{d}, \quad p \in \mathbb{C}[t]
$$

Note that this difference operator is not a Ward's derivative.
If $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ is the generalized difference operator associated with a polynomial sequence $\left\{u_{k}\right\}_{k \geq 0}$ and sequence $\left(h_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$ then $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ can be extended to a linear operator on the vector space of formal series of the form $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{k} u_{k}(t)$, where the coefficients $a_{k}$ are complex numbers, by defining

$$
\mathscr{D}_{h} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{k} u_{k}(t)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{k} h_{k} u_{k-1}(t)
$$

Now let $\left\{w_{k}(t): k \geq 0\right\}$ be another polynomial sequence and extend the sequence $\left(h_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$ to a bilateral sequence $\left(h_{k}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$, with $h_{k} \neq 0$ if $k \neq 0$. Define the rational functions

$$
u_{-k}(t)=\frac{1}{w_{k}(t)}, \quad k \geq 1
$$

Let $\mathscr{L}_{u}$ be the complex vector space of the formal Laurent series of the form

$$
a=\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} a_{k} u_{k}(t)
$$

where the coefficients $a_{k}$ are complex numbers, and if not all the $a_{k}$ are zero then there exists an integer $v(a)$ such that $a_{k}=0$ whenever $k<v(a)$ and $a_{v(a)} \neq 0$. We extend the generalized difference $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ to an operator on $\mathscr{L}_{u}$, which we also denote by $\mathscr{D}_{h}$, as follows

$$
\mathscr{D}_{h} a=\mathscr{D}_{k} \sum_{k \geq v(a)} a_{k} u_{k}(t)=\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} a_{k} h_{k} u_{k-1}(t), \quad a \in \mathscr{L}_{u} .
$$

If $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ is a Ward's derivative, then $u_{k}(t)=t^{k}$ for $k \geq 0$ and we take $w_{k}(t)=t^{k}$ for $k \geq 0$. Therefore in that case, $\mathscr{L}_{u}$ is the usual vector space of formal Laurent power series, that we denote by $\mathscr{L}$, and the extension of $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ to $\mathscr{L}$ is given by

$$
\mathscr{D}_{h} a=\sum_{k \geq v(a)} a_{k} h_{k} k^{k-1}, \quad a \in \mathscr{L} .
$$

If $\left(h_{k}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a bilateral sequence such that $h_{0}=0$ and $h_{k} \neq 0$ for $k \neq 0$ then we define the $h$-factorial function $c_{k}$ as follows, $c_{0}=1, c_{-1}=1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{k}=h_{1} h_{2} \cdots h_{k}, \quad k>0, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{k}=\frac{1}{h_{-1} h_{-2} \cdots h_{k+1}}, \quad k<-1 . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ is the generalized difference operator associated with the sequence $\left\{u_{k}\right\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ and the bilateral sequence $\left(h_{k}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{D}_{h} \frac{u_{n}(t)}{c_{n}}=\frac{u_{n-1}(t)}{c_{n-1}}, \quad n \neq 0, \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and if $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ is the Ward's derivative associated with $\left(h_{k}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{D}_{h} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}=\frac{t^{n-1}}{c_{n-1}}, \quad n \neq 0 . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (7), we see that if we take $p_{n}=\frac{u_{n}(t)}{c_{n}}$ then the generalized difference operator $\mathscr{D}_{n}$ plays the role of the modified left shift $L$ and therefore we can use the operational method presented in Section 2 to solve equations of the form $w\left(\mathscr{D}_{h}\right) f=g$, where $w$ is a polynomial. The multiplication $p_{k} p_{n}=p_{k+n}$ becomes a convolution product on the space $\mathscr{L}$ defined by

$$
\frac{u_{k}(t)}{c_{k}} * \frac{u_{n}(t)}{c_{n}}=\frac{u_{k+n}(t)}{c_{k+n}}, \quad k, n \in \mathbb{Z} .
$$

The generalized difference operators include a large class of difference and differential operators with variable coefficients and different orders.

From this point on, we restrict our attention to the case when $u_{n}(t)=t^{n}$, for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, that is, when $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ is a Ward's derivative on the space $\mathscr{L}$ of formal Laurent power series. We present next some particular examples of such Ward's derivatives on the space $\mathscr{L}$.
Example 3.1. The finite Fibonacci derivative $\mathscr{D}_{F}[5]$ is obtained when $\left(h_{k}\right)_{k \geq 0}$ is the sequence of Fibonacci numbers

$$
\left(F_{k}\right)_{k=0}^{\infty}=(0,1,1,2,3,5,8, \ldots),
$$

that satisfy the difference equation $F_{n}=F_{n-1}+F_{n-2}$, for $n \geq 2$, with initial conditions $F_{0}=1, F_{1}=1$. Using the same recurrence relation, written as $F_{n-2}=F_{n}-F_{n-1}$, we extend the sequence $\left(F_{n}\right)$ to the bilateral sequence

$$
\left(F_{k}\right)_{k=-\infty}^{\infty}=(\ldots, 5,-3,2,-1,1,0,1,1,2,3,5, \ldots),
$$

and then the Fibonacci derivative acts on formal Laurent power series as follows

$$
\mathscr{D}_{F} a=\mathscr{D}_{F} \sum_{n=v(a)}^{\infty} a_{n} t^{n}=\sum_{n=v(a)}^{\infty} F_{n} a_{n} t^{n-1} .
$$

Example 3.2. The usual derivative $D$ is obtained when $h_{k}=k$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, and it acts on formal Laurent power series as

$$
D \sum_{n=v(a)}^{\infty} a_{n} t^{n}=\sum_{n=v(a)}^{\infty} n a_{n} t^{n-1}
$$

In the paper [6] the authors prove that the only derivative $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ on the space of formal power series that satisfies both the Leibniz rule and the chain rule is the usual derivative. Their proof can be adapted to show that the same result holds for derivative operators $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ on the space of formal Laurent power series.
Example 3.3. The zero Jackson derivative $\mathscr{D}_{0}$ is the Ward's derivative associated with the sequence

$$
\left(z_{k}\right)_{k=1}^{\infty}=(1,1,1, \ldots)
$$

Extending this sequence to the bilateral sequence

$$
\left(z_{k}\right)_{k=-\infty}^{\infty}=(\ldots,-1,-1,-1,0,1,1,1, \ldots)
$$

we obtain the extension of $\mathscr{D}_{0}$ to the space of formal Laurent power series. For $a=\sum_{n=v(a)}^{\infty} a_{n} t^{n}$ we have

$$
\mathscr{D}_{0} a=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} t^{n-1}-\sum_{n=v(a)}^{-1} a_{n} t^{n-1}
$$

Example 3.4. The $q$-derivative $\mathscr{D}_{q}$, also called Jackson derivative, is the Ward's derivative associated with the sequence

$$
\left(J_{k}\right)_{k=1}^{\infty}=\left([1]_{q},[2]_{q},[3]_{q}, \ldots\right), \quad[n]_{q}=\frac{q^{n}-1}{q-1} .
$$

When $q=1, \mathscr{D}_{q}$ becomes the usual derivative, and when $q=0$ we obtain the zero Jackson derivative. Since the definition of $q$-integer $[n]_{q}$ makes sense for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the bilateral sequence

$$
\left(J_{k}\right)_{k=-\infty}^{\infty}=\left(\ldots,[-3]_{q},[-2]_{q},[-1]_{q},[0]_{q},[1]_{q},[2]_{q},[3]_{q}, \ldots\right),
$$

gives us the extension of $\mathscr{D}_{q}$ to the space of formal Laurent power series. Observe that $[-n]_{q}=-[n]_{q} q^{-n}$. For $a=\sum_{n=v(a)}^{\infty} a_{n} t^{n}$ we have $\mathscr{D}_{q} a=\sum_{n=v(a)}^{\infty}[n]_{q} a_{n} t^{n-1}$.

Some authors use the ( $p, q$ )-integers, defined by

$$
[n]_{p, q}=\frac{p^{n}-q^{n}}{p-q}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

to replace the $q$-integers and they define an operator $\mathscr{D}_{p, q}$, called the $(p, q)$-derivative, or difference. The theory of such operators is not a generalization of the theory of the Jackson derivative, and the additional parameter $p$ turns out to be redundant. The results obtained in the $(p, q)$-calculus can be easily produced, by straightforward parametric and argument variations, from the corresponding results in the $q$-calculus. For example,

$$
[n]_{p, q}=p^{n-1}[n]_{\frac{q}{p}}, \quad[n]_{q}=p^{1-n}[n]_{p, p q},
$$

and

$$
\left(\mathscr{D}_{p, q} f\right)(z)=\left(\mathscr{D}_{\frac{q}{p}} f\right)(p z), \quad\left(\mathscr{D}_{q} f\right)(z)=\left(\mathscr{D}_{p, p q} f\right)\left(\frac{z}{p}\right), \quad 0<q<p \leq 1
$$

See [9] and [10, Sect. 5].
Remark 3.5. It is important to note that for every derivative operator $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ on the space $\mathscr{L}$ of formal Laurent power series we have $\mathscr{D}_{h} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}=\frac{t^{n-1}}{c_{n-1}}, n \neq 0$, and $\mathscr{D}_{h} \frac{t^{0}}{c_{0}}=0$, where $c_{n}$ is the corresponding $h$-factorial function.

## 4. Application of the operational method to Ward's derivatives

In this section we apply the operational method presented in Section 2 to solve equations that involve Ward's derivatives.

Let $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ be the derivative operator on the space $\mathscr{L}$ of formal Laurent power series associated with the bilateral sequence $\left(h_{k}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$. Define $L=\mathscr{D}_{h}$ and $p_{n}=\frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}$ with $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, where $c_{n}$ is the $h$-factorial function defined in (5) and (6). From (8) we see that $L p_{n}=p_{n-1}$ for $n \neq 0$, and $L p_{0}=0$, and therefore we can use the results in Section 2 to solve $h$-differential equations, that is, equations constructed with the derivative operator $\mathscr{D} h$.

The geometric series is in this case

$$
e_{x, 0}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^{k} \frac{t^{k}}{c_{k}}, \quad x \in \mathbb{C}
$$

and

$$
e_{x, k}=\sum_{n=k}^{\infty}\binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}, \quad x \in \mathbb{C}
$$

The multiplication of the $p_{k}$ gives us the convolution on $\mathscr{L}$ defined by

$$
\frac{t^{k}}{c_{k}} * \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}=\frac{t^{k+n}}{c_{k+n}}, \quad k, n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

Let us note that our geometric series $e_{x, 0}$ coincides with the one introduced in [6].

Remark 4.1. The set $\left\{e_{x, k}: x \in \mathbb{C}, k \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ is a basis for the vector space $\mathscr{E}_{h}$ of the $h$-exponential polynomials. By Theorem 2.1 the space of solutions of every homogeneous equation of the form $w\left(\mathscr{D}_{h}\right) f=0$, where $w$ is a polynomial, is a finite dimensional subspace of $\mathscr{E}_{h}$ whose dimension is equal to the degree of $w$. When $h_{n}=n$, for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the derivative $\mathscr{D}_{h}$ is the usual operator of differentiation with respect to $t$, and the $h$-exponential polynomials are the usual exponential polynomials, also called pseudo-polynomials.

We present next some examples that illustrate how the operational method is used to solve equations involving particular derivative operators $\mathscr{D}_{h}$.

### 4.1. Fibonacci derivative

For the Fibonacci derivative $\mathscr{D}_{F}$, the $F$-factorial function is given by $c_{0}=c_{-1}=1$,

$$
c_{k}=F_{1} F_{2} \cdots F_{k}, \quad k \geq 1
$$

and

$$
c_{k}=F_{-1} F_{-2} \cdots F_{k+1}, \quad k<-1
$$

where the $F_{k}$ are the Fibonacci numbers.
The geometric series are

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{x, 0}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
e_{x, k}=\frac{D_{x}^{k}}{k!} e_{x, 0}=\sum_{n \geq k}^{\infty}\binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} \frac{n^{n}}{c_{n}}
$$

Remark 4.2. The series (9) coincides with the Fibonacci exponential function $e_{F}^{\alpha t}$ presented in $[5,6]$.
Example 4.3. Consider the equation

$$
\mathscr{D}_{F}^{2} y(t)+2 \mathscr{D}_{F} y(t)+y(t)=e_{F}^{t} .
$$

This equation can be rewritten as

$$
\left(\mathscr{D}_{F}+I\right)^{2} y(t)=e_{F}^{t} .
$$

Observe that $e_{F}^{t}=e_{1,0}$. Suppose that $y=\sum y_{n} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}=\sum y_{n} p_{n}$. By Theorem 2.1, a particular solution is given by

$$
d_{w} e_{1,0}=p_{1} e_{-1,1} e_{1,0}=-\frac{1}{2} e_{-1,1}-\frac{1}{4} e_{-1,0}+\frac{1}{4} e_{1,0} .
$$

and the space of solutions of the homogeneous equation is

$$
K_{w}=\left\langle e_{-1,0}, e_{-1,1}\right\rangle
$$

Finally, we obtain the general solution

$$
y=\left(d_{1}-\frac{1}{2}\right) e_{-1,1}+\left(d_{2}-\frac{1}{4}\right) e_{-1,0}+\frac{1}{4} e_{1,0}
$$

where $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$ are arbitrary constants. In terms of the concrete realization we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
y(t) & =C_{1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n(-1)^{n-1} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}+C_{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}+\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}} \\
& =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(n(-1)^{n-1} C_{1}+(-1)^{n} C_{2}+1\right) \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}
\end{aligned}
$$

The constants $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ allow us to work with initial conditions.

### 4.2. Zero Jackson derivative

Recall that the bilateral sequence associated with the zero Jackson derivative is given by

$$
(\ldots,-1,-1,-1,0,1,1,1, \ldots)
$$

In this case the $h$-factorial function is given by

$$
c_{k}=1, \quad k \geq 0
$$

and

$$
c_{k}=(-1)^{-k+1}, \quad k<0
$$

The geometric series $e_{x, 0}$ becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{x, 0}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n} t^{n}=\frac{1}{1-x t^{\prime}} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

and from (1)

$$
e_{x, k}=\frac{D_{x}^{k}}{k!} e_{x, 0}=\sum_{n \geq k}^{\infty}\binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} t^{n}=\frac{t^{k}}{(1-x t)^{k+1}}
$$

where $D_{x}$ is the usual derivation with respect to $x$.

Remark 4.4. Our geometric series (10) coincides with the zero exponential function $e_{0}^{\chi t}$ presented in [6].
Example 4.5. Consider the equation

$$
\mathscr{D}_{0} y(t)-y(t)=t^{3}+e_{0}^{-3 t}
$$

This equation can be transformed into

$$
(L-I) y(t)=p_{3}+e_{-3,0}
$$

Suppose that $y=\sum y_{n} t^{n}=\sum y_{n} p_{n}$. Applying Theorem 2.1, we obtain the particular solution

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{w}\left(p_{3}+e_{-3,0}\right) & =p_{1} e_{1,0}\left(p_{3}+e_{-3,0}\right) \\
& =p_{4} e_{1,0}+p_{1} e_{1,0} e_{-3,0} \\
& =p_{4} e_{1,0}+\frac{e_{1,0}-e_{-3,0}}{4},
\end{aligned}
$$

and the space of solutions of the homogeneous equation is $K_{w}=\left\langle e_{1,0}\right\rangle$. Finally, we obtain the general solution

$$
y=\left(d_{1}+\frac{1}{4}\right) e_{1,0}+p_{4} e_{1,0}-\frac{1}{4} e_{-3,0}
$$

where $d_{1}$ is an arbitrary constant.
In terms of the concrete realization, we have

$$
y(t)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(d_{1}+\frac{1}{4}-\frac{(-3)^{n}}{4}\right) t^{n}+\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} t^{n}
$$

### 4.3. Jackson derivative (q-derivative)

We recall that the bilateral sequence associated with the Jackson derivative $\mathscr{D}_{q}$ is the sequence of $q$ integers $[k]_{q}$ and therefore the $h$-factorial function is given by $c_{0}=c_{-1}=1$,

$$
c_{k}=[1]_{q}[2]_{q} \cdots[k]_{q}, \quad k \geq 1,
$$

and

$$
c_{k}=\frac{1}{[-1]_{q}[-2]_{q} \cdots[k+1]_{q}}, \quad k<-1
$$

The $q$-analogue of the binomial coefficients is given by

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
n  \tag{11}\\
j
\end{array}\right]_{q}=\frac{c_{n}}{c_{j} c_{n-j}}
$$

The geometric series $e_{x, 0}$ is in this case

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{x, 0}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

and from (1) we obtain

$$
e_{x, k}=\frac{D_{x}^{k}}{k!} e_{x, 0}=\sum_{n \geq k}^{\infty}\binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}
$$

where $D_{x}$ is the usual derivative with respect to $x$.

Remark 4.6. The series (12) coincides with the $q$-analogue of the exponential function $e_{q}^{x t}$ presented in [4].
In this concrete realization, the $q$-trigonometric functions can be expressed as linear combinations of geometric series, this is

$$
\sin _{q}(\omega t)=\frac{e_{i \omega, 0}-e_{-i \omega, 0}}{2 i}
$$

and

$$
\cos _{q}(\omega t)=\frac{e_{i \omega, 0}+e_{-i \omega, 0}}{2}
$$

The next examples can be easily solved by the direct application of Theorem 2.1, but we prefer to show another procedure based in the same theory, which helps us to understand better some aspects of the theory.

Example 4.7. Several problems appearing in physics can be described by means of the classical $q$-oscillator equation which is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{D}_{q}^{2} y(t)+\omega^{2} y(t)=0 . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that the solution $y$ can be represented as a sum of the form $\sum y_{n} p_{n}$. Equation (13) can be written as

$$
\left(L^{2}+\omega^{2} I\right) y=0
$$

From (3), $L^{2}=p_{-2}\left(p_{0}-P_{0}-P_{1}\right)$, and then

$$
\left.\left(p_{-2}\left(p_{0}-P_{0}-P_{1}\right)+\omega^{2} p_{0}\right)\right) \sum y_{n} p_{n}=0
$$

After some algebraic manipulations (remember that $P_{0} y=y_{0} p_{0}$ and $P_{1} y=y_{1} p_{1}$ ) and simplifications we get

$$
\left(p_{0}+i \omega p_{1}\right)\left(p_{0}-i \omega p_{1}\right) y=y_{0} p_{0}+y_{1} p_{1} .
$$

The multiplicative inverses of $\left(p_{0}+i \omega p_{1}\right)$ and $\left(p_{0}-i \omega p_{1}\right)$ are $e_{-i \omega, 0}$ and $e_{i \omega, 0}$, respectively. Then

$$
y=\left(y_{0} p_{0}+y_{1} p_{1}\right) e_{-i \omega, 0} e_{i \omega, 0} .
$$

From (2) we obtain

$$
e_{i \omega, 0} e_{-i \omega, 0}=p_{-1} \frac{e_{i \omega, 0}-e_{-i \omega, 0}}{2 i \omega}
$$

and thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
y & =y_{0} p_{-1} \frac{e_{i \omega, 0}-e_{-i \omega, 0}}{2 i \omega}+y_{1} \frac{e_{i \omega, 0}-e_{-i \omega, 0}}{2 i \omega} \\
& =y_{0} \frac{e_{i \omega, 0}+e_{-i \omega, 0}}{2}+\frac{y_{1}}{\omega} \frac{e_{i \omega, 0}-e_{-i \omega, 0}}{2 i},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $y_{0}$ and $y_{1}$ are arbitrary values that are determined by the initial conditions. In terms of the concrete realization we have

$$
y(t)=C_{1} \cos _{q}(\omega t)+C_{2} \sin _{q}(\omega t)
$$

We can also solve non-linear equations using a slightly different procedure. In the next example, we consider a $q$-analogue of the logistic equation.

Example 4.8. Consider the $q$-analogue of the logistic equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathscr{D}_{q} y(t)-\beta y(t)=-\beta y^{2}(t) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Before we solve the equation, we need to deal with the non-linear term. If we suppose that the solution $y(t)$ can be written as the $q$-Taylor series $\sum_{n \geq 0} y_{n} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}$, then

$$
y^{2}(t)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_{n} \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}}
$$

where

$$
b_{n}=\sum_{j=0}^{n}\left[\begin{array}{l}
n  \tag{15}\\
j
\end{array}\right]_{q} y_{j} y_{n-j} .
$$

In terms of the $p_{k}$ 's, we have $y=\sum_{n \geq 0} y_{n} p_{n}$ and $y^{2}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_{n} p_{n}$.
On the other hand, it is clear that (14) can be written as

$$
(L-\beta I) y=-\beta y^{2}
$$

and in terms of the $p_{k}$ 's this is

$$
\left(p_{-1}\left(p_{0}-P_{0}\right)-\beta p_{0}\right) y=-\beta y^{2}
$$

which can be rewritten as

$$
\left(p_{0}-\beta p_{1}\right) y=y_{0} p_{0}-\beta p_{1} y^{2}
$$

Since $e_{\beta, 0}$ is the multiplicative inverse of $\left(p_{0}-\beta p_{1}\right)$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
y & =y_{0} e_{\beta, 0}-\beta p_{1} e_{\beta, 0} y^{2} \\
& =y_{0}\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \beta^{n} p_{n}\right)-\beta\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \beta^{n} p_{n}\right)\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_{n} p_{n+1}\right) \\
& =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(y_{0} \beta^{n}-\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \beta^{j+1} b_{n-j-1}\right) p_{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \beta^{j+1} b_{n-j}=0$, for $n=0$. This result leads us to the recursive formula

$$
y_{n}=y_{0} \beta^{n}-\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \beta^{j+1} b_{n-j-1}
$$

where $b_{n-j-1}$ is computed by means of (15), and $y_{0}$ is the initial condition. A few of the initial coefficients are the following

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y_{0}=y_{0} \\
& y_{1}=\beta y_{0}-\beta b_{0}=\beta y_{0}-\beta y_{0}^{2} \\
& y_{2}=\beta y_{1}-\beta\left(b_{1}+\beta b_{0}\right)=\beta y_{1}-\beta\left(2 y_{0} y_{1}+y_{0}^{2}\right) \\
& y_{3}=\beta y_{2}-\beta\left(b_{2}+\beta b_{1}+\beta^{2} b_{0}\right)=\beta y_{2}-\beta\left(2 y_{0} y_{2}+\left[\begin{array}{l}
2 \\
1
\end{array}\right]_{q} y_{1}^{2}+2 \beta y_{0} y_{1}+\beta^{2} y_{0}^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, the solution in terms of the concrete realization is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
y(t)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(y_{0} \beta^{n}-\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \beta^{j+1} b_{n-j-1}\right) \frac{t^{n}}{c_{n}} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $q=1, \beta=1$ and $y_{0}=\frac{1}{2}$, (16) can be written in closed form as $y(t)=\frac{1}{1+e^{-t}}$. It would be interesting to investigate if $(16)$ is related with $\frac{1}{1+e_{q}^{-t}}$.

## 5. Conclusions

Based on the theory presented in [2], we developed an algebraic method to solve several kinds of $h$ differential equations in Ward's calculus. We extended the domain of the Ward's derivatives from the space of formal power series to the space of formal Laurent series. We showed through several examples that the theory can be applied in two ways. The first one uses Theorem 2.1, which gives us quickly the solution, but dealing with initial conditions is not simple. The second one is more laborious, but the incorporation of initial conditions is more natural. A main feature of this theory is that the concept of integral in Ward's calculus is not required. Finally, we leave for future works the application of the operational method in the more general case of equations with generalized difference operators and delta operators.

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[^0]:    2020 Mathematics Subject Classification. Primary 44A40, 34A06, 39A13
    Keywords. Operational calculus; $q$-calculus; Ward's calculus
    Received: 10 May 2021; Accepted: 26 October 2021
    Communicated by Hari M. Srivastava
    Corresponding author: Gabriel Bengochea
    The third author was supported by National Funds through the Foundation for Science and Technology of Portugal, under the projects UIDB/00066/2020.

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