## Linear Differential Equations

Consider a differential equation of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{x}=A(t) x+h(t) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A(t)$ is a continuous real or complex $n \times n$ matrix valued function and $h(t)$ is a continuous $n$-vector-valued function. We assume that $A(t), h(t)$ are defined for all $t \in(-\infty, \infty)$. Let $V=\mathbf{R}^{n}$ or $\mathbf{C}^{n}$. We assume both $A(\cdot), h(t)$ are $V-$ valued.

Given an equation (1), the associated homogeneous equation is the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{x}=A(t) x \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We have already proved that every initial value problem for (1) has solutions defined for all $t$.

Basic Facts:

1. If $x(t), y(t)$ are solutions of $(1)$, then $z(t)=y(t)-x(t)$ is a solution of (2).
2. If $x(t)$ is a solution of (1) and $z(t)$ is a solution of $(2)$, then $y(t)=$ $x(t)+z(t)$ is a solution of (1).

Thus, if one knows all solutions of (2), and one knows one particular solution of (1), then one can get all solutions of (1).

The general solution of (1) is a vector-valued expression

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(t, \mathbf{c}) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

involving a vector $\mathbf{c}=\left(c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}\right)$ of constants so that every solution can be represented as (3) for a unique choice of the vector $\mathbf{c}$.

We now study the general properties of equation (2).
Proposition. The set of solutions to (2) form an n-dimensional linear subspace of the vector space of $C^{1}$ dunctions from $\mathbf{R}$ to $V$.

## Proof.

Let $\mathcal{S}$ be the set of solutions.
Clearly, $\mathcal{S} \subset C^{1}(\mathbf{R}, V)$.
(A) $\mathcal{S}$ is a linear subspace:

Suppose $x(t), y(t)$ are in $\mathcal{S}$, and $a, b$ are scalars.

Then, $z(t)=a x(t)+b y(t)$ satisfies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{z}(t) & =a \dot{x}(t)+b \dot{y}(t) \\
& =a A(t) x(t)+b A(t) y(t) \\
& =A(t)(z(t))
\end{aligned}
$$

so, $z(t) \in \mathcal{S}$.
(B) $\mathcal{S}$ is $n$-dimensional:

We need to find $n$ solutions $x_{1}(t), \ldots, x_{n}(t)$ such that every solutions can be uniquely expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(t)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} x_{i}(t) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha_{i}$ are scalars.
Let $x_{i}(t)$ be the unique solution such that $x_{i}(0)=e_{i}$ where $e_{i}$ is the $i-t h$ standard basis vector of $V$.

Let $x(t)$ be an arbitrary solution of (2). Then, there are scalars $\alpha_{i}$ such that $x(0)=\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} e_{i}$. Consider $y(t)=\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} x_{i}(t)$.

Then, both $x(\cdot), y(\cdot)$ are solutions and they agree at $t=0$. By uniqueness of solutions, we have $x(t)=y(t)$ for all $t$.

Now, if $x(t)=\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} x_{i}(t)=\sum_{i} \beta_{i} x_{i}(t)$ for all $t$, then this is true for $t=0$, so $\alpha_{i}=\beta_{i} \forall i$ since $\left\{e_{i}\right\}$ is a basis for $V$. QED

Definition. A set $\left\{y_{1}(t), \ldots, y_{\ell}\right\}$ of solutions to (2) is called linearly independent if it is a linearly independent subset of $C^{1}(\mathbf{R}, V)$. That is, whenever

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \alpha_{i} y_{i}(t)=0 \forall t
$$

we have $\alpha_{i}=0 \forall i$.
A maximal linearly independent set of solutions is called a fundamental set of solutions.

Thus, a set $\left\{y_{1}(t), \ldots, y_{n}(t)\right\}$ is a fundamental set of solutions iff the set is a basis for the subspace $\mathcal{S}$ of $C^{1}(\mathbf{R}, V)$.

Note, that, since any two bases of a vector space have the same number of elements, we have $\ell=n$ for any fundamental set of solutions.

We now want a criterion for a set $\left\{y_{1}(t), \ldots, y_{n}(t)\right\}$ of solutions to be a fundamental set.

For a set $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ of vectors in $V$ to be linearly independent if is necessary and sufficient that

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right) \neq 0
$$

But linear independence of functions is a slightly different condition. The values of a set of vector valued functions $\left\{z_{1}(t), \ldots, z_{n}(t)\right\}$ might be a linearly independent set of vectors for some $t^{\prime} s$ and be a linearly dependent set for other $t^{\prime} s$. Thus, if we form the function

$$
W(t)=W\left(z_{1}(t), \ldots, z_{n}(t)\right)=\operatorname{det}\left(z_{1}(t), \ldots, z_{n}(t)\right)
$$

we may have $W(t)=0$ for some $t^{\prime} s$ and not zero for other $t^{\prime} s$. It turns out that this cannot happen if the $z_{i}(t)$ are all solutions of the same homogeneous linear differential equation (2).

Proposition. Suppose $\left\{y_{1}(t), \ldots, y_{n}(t)\right\}$ are $n$ solutions to (2), and let $W(t)=\operatorname{det}\left(y_{1}(t), \ldots, y_{n}(t)\right)$.

Then, for any real $t_{0}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
W(t)=W\left(t_{0}\right) \exp \left(\int_{t_{0}}^{t} \operatorname{trace}(A(s)) d s\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Corollary. Under the hypotheses of the theorem, if $W(t)=0$ at a single $t=t_{0}$, then $W(t)$ is identically equal to zero.

Before we proceed to the proof of the proposition, we recall some properties of determinants.

If $A=\left(a_{i j}\right)$ is an $n \times n$ matrix, let $A(i \mid j)$ denote the $(n-1) \times(n-1)$ matrix obtained by deleting the $i$-th row and $j$-th column of $A$.

The expanding by minors along the first column gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{det}(A)=\sum_{j=1}^{n}(-1)^{1+j} a_{j 1} \operatorname{det} A(j \mid 1) . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also, if $h$ is a real number, and $B$ is obtained from $A$ by multiplying a single row (or column) of $A$ by $h$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{det}(B)=h \operatorname{det}(A) . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

We define $\operatorname{tr}(A)=\operatorname{trace}(A)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i i}$ to be the sum of the diagonal elements of $A$.

Lemma 1. Let $A(t)=\left(a_{i j}(t)\right)$ by a continuous $n \times n$ matrix function of $t$, and let $h>0$. Then,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{det}(I+A(t) h)=1+\operatorname{tr}(A(t)) h+O\left(h^{2}\right) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $I$ is the $n \times n$ identity matrix and $O\left(h^{2}\right)$ denotes any function $R(h)$ such that there is a constant $C>0$ such that

$$
\limsup _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{R(h)}{h^{2}}<C .
$$

## Proof of Lemma 1.

We use induction of $n$.
It is trivial for $n=1$ since we can use the zero function for $O\left(h^{2}\right)$.
Assume the Lemma is true for $n-1$.
Let $B=I+A(t) h$.
Expanding by minors down the first column of $B$ gives

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{det}(I+A(t) h) & =\left(1+a_{11}(t) h\right) \operatorname{det}(B(1 \mid 1) \\
& +\sum_{j=2}^{n}(-1)^{1+j} h a_{j 1}(t) \operatorname{det}(B(j \mid 1) . \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

Now, letting $I_{n-1}$ denote the $(n-1) \times(n-1)$ identity matrix, we have

$$
B(1 \mid 1)=I_{n-1}+h A(1 \mid 1) .
$$

So, by induction, we have the first entry on the right side of (9) equals

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(1+a_{11}(t) h\right)\left(1+h \operatorname{tr} A(1 \mid 1)+O\left(h^{2}\right)\right)= & 1+a_{11}(t) h+ \\
& h \operatorname{tr} A(1 \mid 1)+O\left(h^{2}\right) \\
= & 1+h \operatorname{tr} A(t)+O\left(h^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

On the other hand, each entry in the sum in the second term in equation (9) has an $h$ in its first column. So, this whole sum is $O\left(h^{2}\right)$. QED.

We need a standard result from the calculus of maps from $\mathbf{R}^{n}$ to $\mathbf{R}$.
Lemma 2. Let $\psi: \mathbf{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be a $C^{1}$ function defined on an open set $D \subset \mathbf{R}^{n}$, and let $u, v$ be vectors in $D$ such that the closed line segment joining
$u$ to $u+v$ is completely contained in $D$ (i.e. $\{u+t v: 0 \leq t \leq 1\} \subset D$ ). Then, there is a constant $K>0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\psi(u+v)-\psi(u)| \leq K|v| . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Proof.

Let $\nabla \psi(x)$ denote the gradient of $\psi$ at the point $x$.
Since the map $t \rightarrow|\nabla \psi(u+t v)|$ is continuous on the closed unit interval $[0,1]$, we have that

$$
K \xlongequal{\text { def }} \sup _{0 \leq t \leq 1}|\nabla \psi(u+t v)|<\infty .
$$

The map $\eta(t)=\psi(u+t v)$ is a $C^{1}$ real-valued function of the variable $t$ on the closed interval $[0,1]$, so the Mean-Value theorem gives that there is a $0<t_{0}<1$ such that

$$
\psi(u+v)-\psi(u)=\eta(1)-\eta(0)=\eta^{\prime}\left(t_{0}\right)(1-0)=\eta^{\prime}\left(t_{0}\right) .
$$

By the Chain Rule for functions of several variables, we have that

$$
\eta^{\prime}\left(t_{0}\right)=\nabla \psi\left(u+t_{0} v\right) \cdot(v)
$$

where • denotes the usual dot product (inner product) in $\mathbf{R}^{n}$.
By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\psi(u+v)-\psi(u)| & =\left|\eta^{\prime}\left(t_{0}\right)\right| \\
& =\left|\nabla \psi\left(u+t_{0} v\right) \cdot(v)\right| \\
& \leq\left|\nabla \psi\left(u+t_{0} v\right)\right||\cdot(v)| \\
& \leq K|v|
\end{aligned}
$$

QED.
We now apply this to the determinant function, det, on $n \times n$ matrices, thinking of these as elements of $\mathbf{R}^{n^{2}}$.

Lemma 3. Let $A$ and $B$ be two $n \times n$ matrices. Then, there is a constant $K$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\operatorname{det}(A+B)-\operatorname{det}(A)| \leq K|B| \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that we may write this using the 'big oh' notation as

$$
\operatorname{det}(A+B)=\operatorname{det}(A)+O(B)
$$

## Proof of Lemma 3.

We recall that, if $A=\left(a_{i j}\right)$, then

$$
\operatorname{det}(A)=\sum_{\text {permutations } \sigma}(-1)^{\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)} a_{1 \sigma(1)} a_{2 \sigma(2)} \ldots a_{n \sigma(n)}
$$

where $\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)$ denotes the sign of the permutation $\sigma$.
Thus, $\operatorname{det}(A)$ is a polynomial in the coefficients $\left(a_{i j}\right)$. (This can also be seen using induction on $n$ and the expansion by minors along the first column formula).

Thus, as a function on $\mathbf{R}^{n^{2}}$, the map $A \rightarrow \operatorname{det}(A)$ is certainly $C^{1}$.
We apply Lemma 2. Note, that, since we used the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, the constant $K$ obtained in Lemma 2 requires that we use the norm

$$
|A|_{1}=\left(\sum_{i, j} a_{i j}^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

on matrices $A$.
Thus, we get some constant, say $K_{1}$ such that

$$
|\operatorname{det}(A+B)-\operatorname{det}(A)| \leq K_{1}|B|_{1}
$$

Since, any two norms on $\mathbf{R}^{n^{2}}$ are boundedly related, we have that,

$$
|B|_{1} \leq K_{2}|B|
$$

where $|B|$ is the usual operator norm sup $|x|=1|B x|$.
Thus, (11) follows using $K=J_{1} K_{2}$. QED.

## Proof of the proposition.

We show that $W(t)$ satisfies the scalar linear non-autonomous differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
W^{\prime}=\operatorname{tr} A(t) W \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

It will then follow that

$$
\frac{W^{\prime}}{W}=\operatorname{tr} A(t)
$$

or

$$
\left.\log W(t)\right|_{W\left(t_{0}\right)} ^{W(t)}=\int_{t_{0}}^{t} \operatorname{tr} A(s) d s
$$

or

$$
W(t)=W\left(t_{0}\right) \exp \left(\int_{t_{0}}^{t} \operatorname{tr} A(s) d s\right)
$$

As usual, we let $o(h)$ denote a function $r(h)$ such that

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{r(h)}{h}=0 .
$$

Let $\Phi(t)$ be the matrix whose columns are the solutions $y_{1}(t), \ldots, y_{n}(t)$, so that we have the matrix equation

$$
\Phi^{\prime}(t)=A(t) \Phi(t)
$$

Now, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi(t+h) & =\Phi(t)+\Phi^{\prime}(t) h+o(h) \\
& =\Phi(t)+A(t) \Phi(t) h+o(h) \\
& =(I+A(t) h) \Phi(t)+o(h)
\end{aligned}
$$

which, in turn, gives

$$
W(t+h)=\operatorname{det}((I+A(t) h) \Phi(t)+o(h))
$$

Applying Lemma 3 with $A=(I+A(t) h) \Phi(t)$ and $B=o(h)$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{det}((I+A(t) h) \Phi(t)+o(h)) & =\operatorname{det}((I+A(t) h) \Phi(t))+O(o(h)) \\
& =\operatorname{det}((I+A(t) h) \Phi(t))+o(h)
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the fact that the $\operatorname{det}(A B)=\operatorname{det}(A) \operatorname{det}(B)$ for all $A, B$ and Lemma 1 gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
W(t+h) & =W(t)\left(1+\operatorname{tr} A(t) h+O\left(h^{2}\right)\right)+o(h) \\
& =W(t)+W(t)(\operatorname{tr} A(t) h)+o(h) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So,

$$
\frac{W(t+h)-W(t)}{h}=W(t) \operatorname{tr} A(t)+\frac{o(h)}{h} .
$$

Letting $h \rightarrow 0$ gives

$$
W^{\prime}=\operatorname{tr} A(t) W
$$

as required. QED.
Definition. The determinant $W(t)=W\left(y_{1}(t), \ldots, y_{n}(t)\right)$ of the set of solutions $\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\}$ is called the Wronskian of this set of solutions.

This a set of solutions is a fundamental set if and only if its Wronskian is not zero for some (or any) $t$.

When, $\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\}$ is a fundamental set of solutions, we form the matrix $\Phi(t)$ whose columns are the $y_{i}^{\prime} s$ and call this matrix a fundamental matrix for (2).

Thus, the general solution to (2) has the form

$$
x(t)=\Phi(t) \mathbf{c}
$$

where $\Phi(t)$ is any fundamnental matrix for (2) and $\mathbf{c}$ is a constant vector.
Fact: Suppose $\Phi(t)$ is a fundamental matrix for (2) and $h(t)$ is not identically zero. Then, one can always find a particular solution for (1) of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{p}(t)=\Phi(t) v(t) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $v(t)$ is some non-constant vector-valued function of $t$.
Proof.
To motivate how we find $v(t)$, first suppose that we can find a solution as in (13).

Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{p}^{\prime} & =\Phi^{\prime} v+\Phi v^{\prime} \\
& =A \Phi v+\Phi v^{\prime} \\
& =A x_{p}+h \\
& =A \Phi v+h
\end{aligned}
$$

Or,

$$
\Phi v^{\prime}=h
$$

Since, $\Phi$ is invertible, we can write the last equation as

$$
v^{\prime}=\Phi(t)^{-1} h(t)
$$

Integrating, gives

$$
v(t)=\int_{t_{0}}^{t} \Phi(s)^{-1} h(s) d s
$$

for any $t_{0}$.
Now, take $v(t)$ in this last equation and reverse the steps. This gives us

$$
x_{p}(t)=\Phi(t) \int_{t_{0}}^{t} \Phi(s)^{-1} h(s) d s
$$

and, the general solution to (1) has the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(t)=\Phi(t) \mathbf{c}+\Phi(t) \int_{t_{0}}^{t} \Phi(s)^{-1} h(s) d s \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

This last formula is known as the variation of constants formula or the variation of parameters formula.

