

# Review Notes: The General Case

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## 1 Systems of 1 st order LDEs

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{P}(t)\mathbf{x} = \begin{cases} x'_1 = p_{11}(t)x_1 + p_{12}(t)x_2 + \cdots + p_{1n}(t)x_n \\ x'_2 = p_{21}(t)x_1 + p_{22}(t)x_2 + \cdots + p_{2n}(t)x_n \\ \dots \\ x'_n = p_{n1}(t)x_1 + p_{n2}(t)x_2 + \cdots + p_{nn}(t)x_n \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

### 1.1 Solutions

The general solutions of a system of n 1st order LDEs is a sum of n linearly independent solution vectors  $\mathbf{x}_{1\dots n}$ .

$$c_1\mathbf{x}_1 + c_2\mathbf{x}_2 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{x}_n \quad (2)$$

Substitution of initial values will yield a linear system of n equations for coefficients.

### 1.2 Wronskian of solutions

The wronskian of a set of solution vectors is defined as the determinant of the matrix formed by those solutions as column vectors. By properties of the determinant, the solution vectors are linearly independent iff their determinant is non-zero and linearly dependent if it is zero.

### 1.3 Constant Coefficients

For a system with a constant coefficient matrix  $\mathbf{P}(t) = \mathbf{A}$ , solution vectors will be of the form  $\mathbf{v}_n e^{\lambda t}$ , where  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\lambda$  are eigenvectors and eigenvalues respectively of the coefficient matrix. So in order to solve these systems, we calculate eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

If the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  has n unique eigenvalues, it will also have n unique eigenvectors. For real eigenvectors, the general solution is simply a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_{1\dots n} e^{\lambda_{1\dots n} t}$ .

For complex eigenvalues, they and their eigenvectors will appear in conjugate form:  $\lambda = p \pm qi$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}i$ . Thus the solution for a particular eigenvalue will be

$$x(t) = \mathbf{v} e^{(p+qi)t} = (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}i) e^{pt} (\cos qt + i \sin qt) = e^{pt} (\mathbf{a} \cos qt - \mathbf{b} \sin qt) + i e^{pt} (\mathbf{b} \cos qt + \mathbf{a} \sin qt) \quad (3)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = e^{pt} (\mathbf{a} \cos qt - \mathbf{b} \sin qt)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_2 = e^{pt} (\mathbf{b} \cos qt + \mathbf{a} \sin qt)$$

By taking the real and imaginary parts separately, we get two real valued solutions. The conjugate eigenvector will yield the same two solutions, so in general:

1. Find a single complex-valued solution associated with the complex eigenvalue.
2. Then find the real and imaginary parts to get two independent real-valued solutions corresponding to the two complex conjugate eigenvalues.

### 1.3.1 Repeated eigenvalues

For a system with repeated eigenvalues and only one linearly independent eigenvector  $v_1$ . The second solution will be of the form

$$\mathbf{x}_2 = (\mathbf{v}_1 t + \mathbf{v}_2) e^{\lambda t} \quad (4)$$

To find  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ , first find a (nonzero) solution vector to

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})^2 \mathbf{v}_2 = 0 \quad (5)$$

and define  $v_1$  as

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{v}_1 \quad (6)$$

Then one may form the general solutions:

$$c_2 \mathbf{v}_1 e^{\lambda t} + c_2 (\mathbf{v}_1 t + \mathbf{v}_2) e^{\lambda t} \quad (7)$$

## 2 The Laplace Transform

$$F(s) = \mathcal{L}(f(t)) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt \quad (8)$$

The value of the Laplace transform is that it may take a differential equation and turn it into an algebraic equation. We may then solve this algebraic equation, do an inverse Laplace transform, and obtain a solution. This also has the strength that it does not involve calculating initial values.

### 2.1 Existence and Uniqueness of the Laplace transform

Theorem 1: A function's Laplace transform exists (converges) if the function  $f(t)$  is piecewise continuous, and of exponential order.

1. Piecewise continuous: continuous and having a limit at endpoints of a finite number of subintervals which cover the whole interval
2. Exponential Order: A function  $f(t)$  is of exponential order if it is bounded above by  $M e^{ct}$  for some  $M, c, t > T$ . All polynomials are of exponential order. More formally:

$$\exists M, c, T \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } |f(t)| \leq M e^{ct} \text{ for some } t > T \quad (9)$$

This also means that  $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} F(s) = 0$ . If two functions  $f(t)$  and  $g(t)$  satisfy theorem 1, so  $F(s)$  and  $G(s)$  exist, then if  $F(s) = G(s)$  (for some  $s > c$ , then  $f(t) = g(t)$  everywhere  $f(t)$  and  $g(t)$  are continuous.

### 2.2 Table

function	transform	function	transform
$f(t)$	$F(s)$	<i>cell2</i>	<i>cell3</i>
$af(t) + bg(t)$	$aF(s) + bG(s)$	<i>cell5</i>	<i>cell6</i>
$f'(t)$	$sF(s) - f(0)$	<i>cell8</i>	<i>cell9</i>
$f''(t)$	$s^2 F(s)$		

### 2.3 Unit-Step functions and Dirac-Delta functions