



MMAT5520

Differential Equations and Linear Algebra

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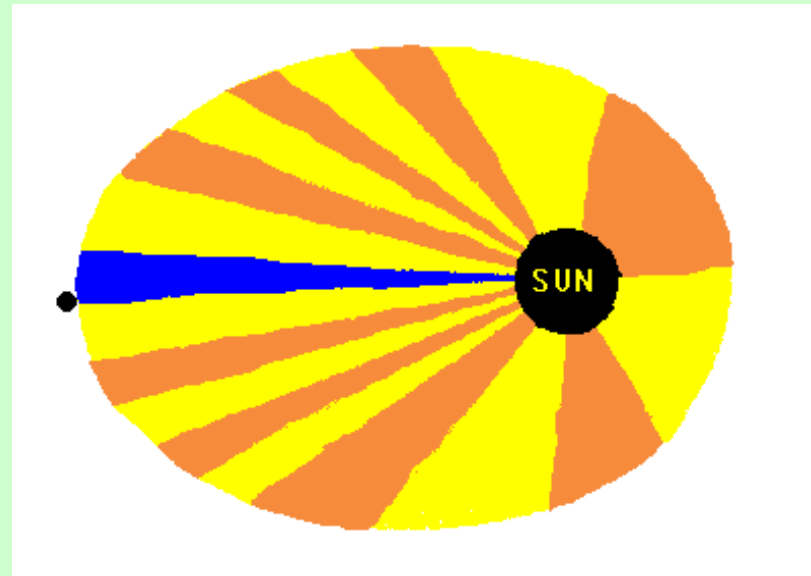
The Chinese University of Hong Kong

Isaac Newton (1643-1727)



Kepler's Laws of planetary motion

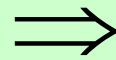
1. The orbit is an ellipse with the sun at one of the foci.
2. A line joining a planet and the sun sweeps out equal areas in equal time.
3. The squares of the orbital periods are directly proportional to the cubes of the semi-major axes.





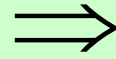
Kepler's Laws of planetary motion

Inverse
square law



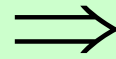
$$T^2 \propto R^3$$

Conservation
of momentum



Equal area

Differential
equation



Elliptic orbit

Kepler's Laws of planetary motion

Centripetal force:

$$\begin{aligned} F &= \frac{mv^2}{R} \\ &= \frac{m}{R} \left(\frac{2\pi R}{T} \right)^2 \\ &\propto \frac{R}{T^2} \end{aligned}$$

Assume inverse square law

$$F \propto \frac{1}{R^2}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{R^2} &\propto \frac{R}{T^2} \\ T^2 &\propto R^3 \end{aligned}$$

Kepler's Laws of planetary motion

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

is constant



Angular
momentum

$$L = m\vec{r} \times \vec{v} \\ = mr^2\dot{\theta}$$

is constant



Kepler's Laws of planetary motion

Newton second Law: $\frac{\vec{F}}{m} = \vec{a}$

$$-\frac{GM}{r^2} \hat{e}_r = (\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2) \hat{e}_r + (r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta}) \hat{e}_\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2 = -\frac{GM}{r^2} \\ r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} = 0 \end{cases}$$



Kepler's Laws of planetary motion

$$r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} = 0$$

$$r^2\ddot{\theta} + 2r\dot{r}\dot{\theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(r^2\dot{\theta}) = 0$$

$$r^2\dot{\theta} = l$$

$$\dot{\theta} = \frac{l}{r^2}$$

In fact, this is known already from conservation of angular momentum.



Kepler's Laws of planetary motion

$$-\frac{GM}{r^2} = \ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2$$

$$\ddot{r} - r\left(\frac{l}{r^2}\right)^2 = -\frac{GM}{r^2}$$

Therefore we need to solve

$$\ddot{r} - \frac{l^2}{r^3} = -\frac{GM}{r^2}$$



Kepler's Laws of planetary motion

Let $a = \frac{l^2}{GM}$ and $u = \frac{a}{r}$

$$\dot{r} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{a}{u} \right) = \frac{d\theta}{dt} \frac{d}{d\theta} \left(\frac{a}{u} \right) = -\frac{lu^2}{a^2} \cdot \frac{a}{u^2} u' = -\frac{lu'}{a}$$

$$\ddot{r} = -\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{lu'}{a} \right) = -\frac{l}{a} \frac{d\theta}{dt} \frac{d}{d\theta} u' = -\frac{l^2 u^2 u''}{a^3}$$



Kepler's Laws of planetary motion

$$\ddot{r} - \frac{l^2}{r^3} = -\frac{GM}{r^2}$$
$$-\frac{l^2 u^2 u''}{a^3} - \frac{l^2 u^3}{a^3} = -\frac{l^2 u^2}{a^3}$$

The equation is simplified to

$$u'' + u = 1$$



Kepler's Laws of planetary motion

The general solution is

$$u'' + u = 1$$

$$u = 1 + \varepsilon \cos(\theta - \alpha)$$

$$r = \frac{a}{1 + \varepsilon \cos(\theta - \alpha)}$$

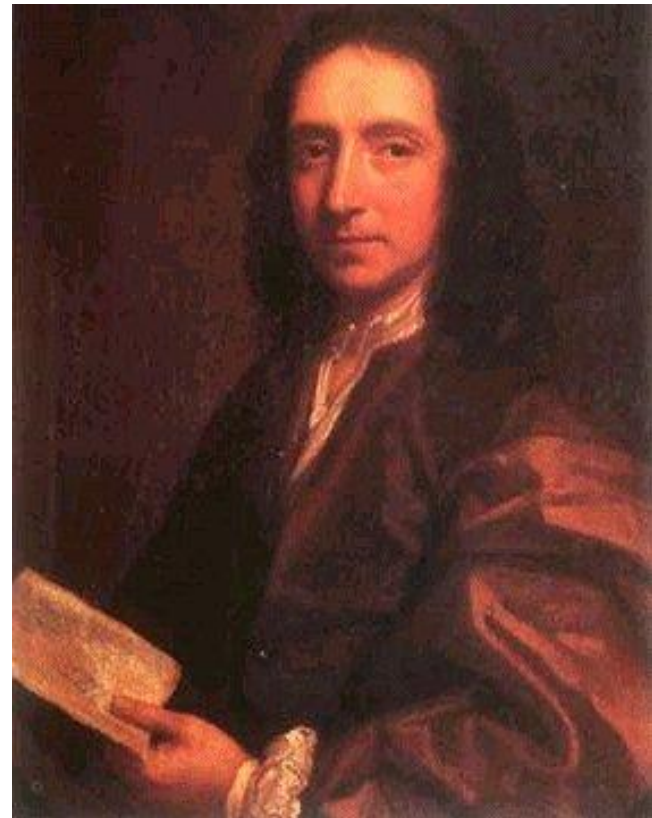
Recall:

$$u = \frac{a}{r}$$

which represents a **conic curve**
with **focus at the origin**.

Edmond Halley (1656-1742)

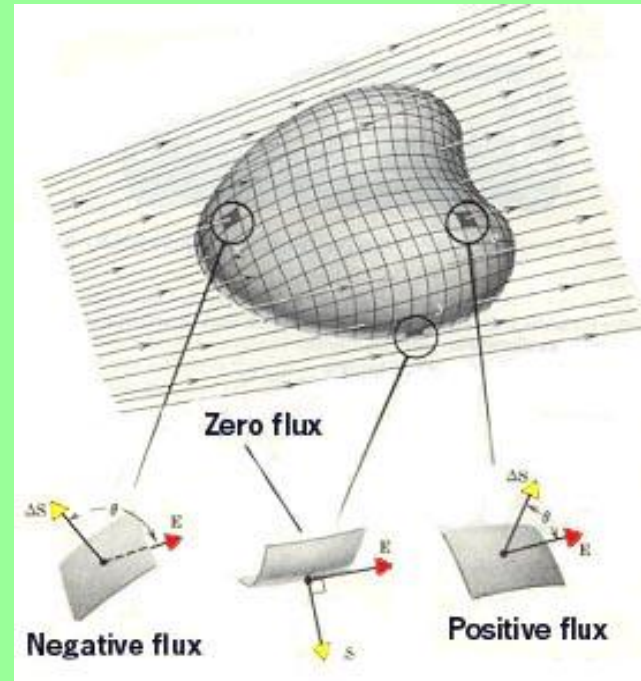
- Claim that the comet sightings of 1456, 1531, 1607 and 1682 related to the same comet.
- Predicted that the comet would return in 1758.
- The Halley's comet was seen again on 25th Dec 1758.



Electromagnetism

Gauss' Law

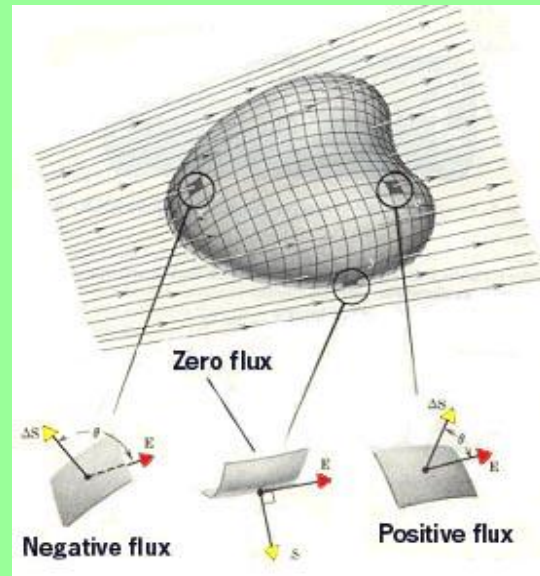
$$\oiint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$



Electromagnetism

Gauss' Law for magnetism

$$\oiint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0$$



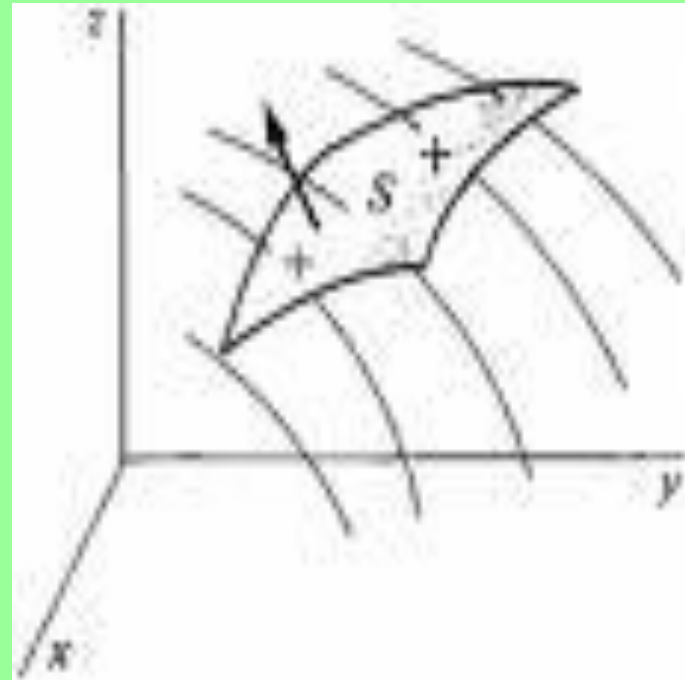
Electromagnetism

Faraday's Law

$$\oint_{\partial S} \vec{E} \times d\vec{l} = - \frac{\partial \Phi_B}{\partial t}$$

where

$$\Phi_B = \iint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A}$$



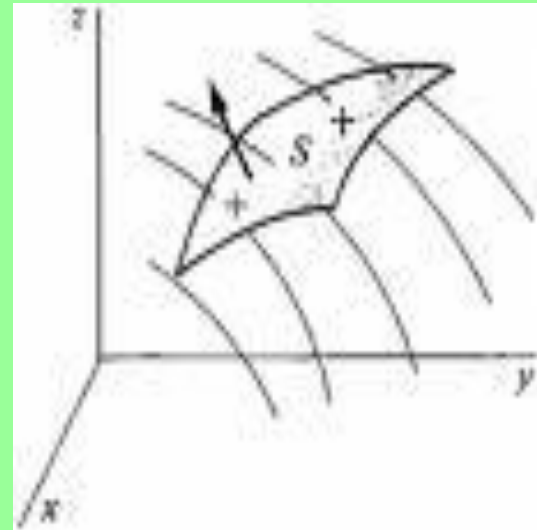
Electromagnetism

Ampere's Law

$$\oint_{\partial S} \vec{B} \times d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \Phi_E}{\partial t}$$

where

$$\Phi_E = \iint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$$



Maxwell's Equations

Name	Integral form	Differential form
Gauss' Law	$\oiint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$	$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$
Gauss' Law	$\oiint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0$	$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$
Faraday's Law	$\oint_{\partial S} \vec{E} \times d\vec{l} = -\frac{\partial \Phi_B}{\partial t}$	$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$
Ampere's Law	$\oint_{\partial S} \vec{B} \times d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \Phi_E}{\partial t}$	$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$



Electromagnetic wave

In vacuum, Maxwell's equations become

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

Electromagnetic wave

Using the identity $\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) = \vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) - \vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{A}$

We have

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) = \vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}) - \vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{E}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \left(-\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \right) = -\vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{E}$$

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = -\vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{E}$$

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \right) = -\vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{E}$$

$$\vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{E} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

Electromagnetic wave

$$\nabla^2 \vec{E} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

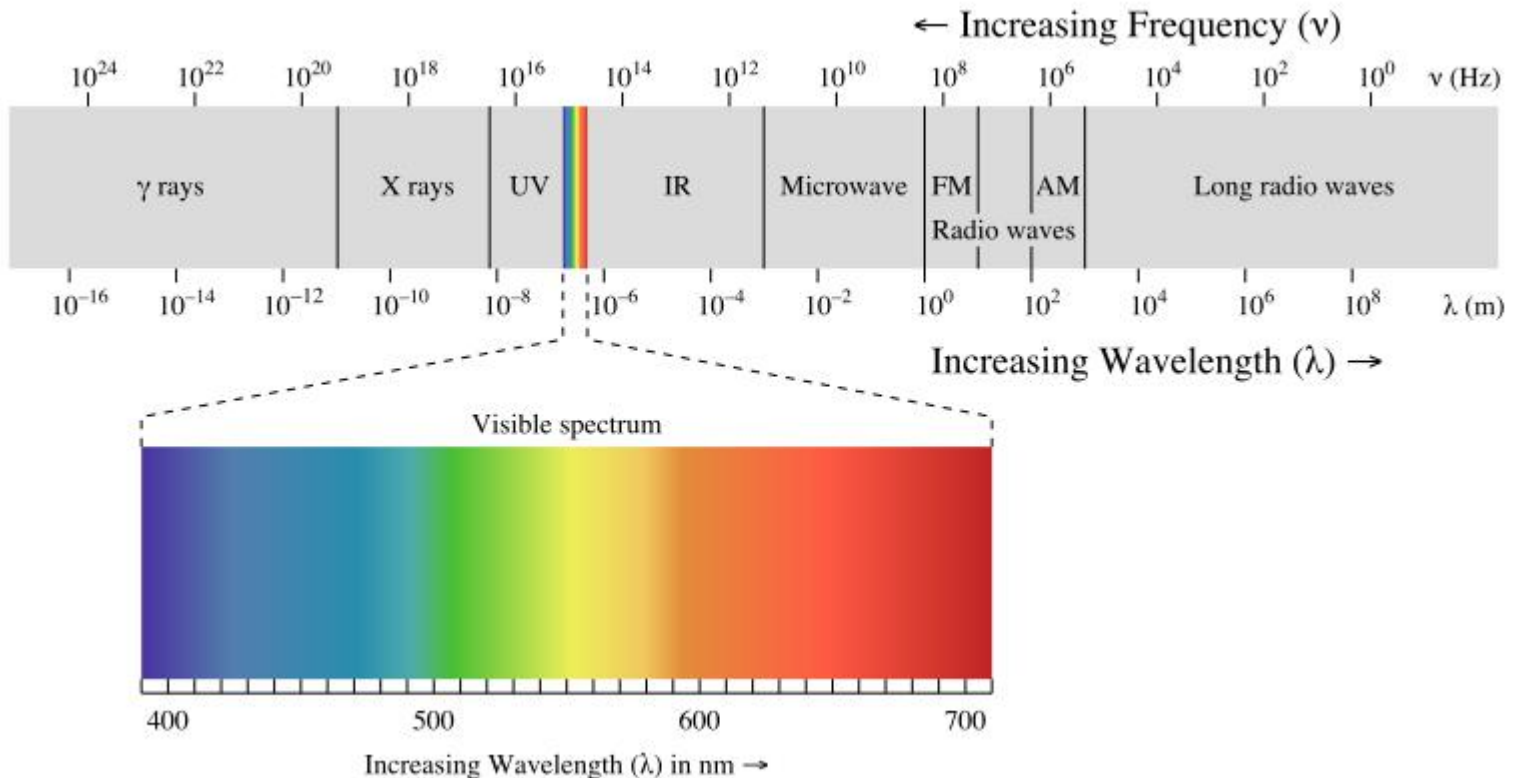
The above equation shows the existence of wave of oscillating electric and magnetic fields which travel at a speed

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}} \approx 300,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$$

which is very close to the speed of light.

Maxwell then claimed that light is in fact electromagnetic wave.

Electromagnetic wave



Special Relativity

Maxwell's equation in tensor form

$$\begin{cases} F^{\alpha\beta}{}_{,\alpha} = \frac{4\pi}{c} J^{\beta} \\ F_{\alpha\beta,\gamma} + F_{\beta\gamma,\alpha} + F_{\gamma\alpha,\beta} = 0 \end{cases}$$

where

$$F^{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -E_x & -E_y & -E_z \\ E_x & 0 & -B_z & B_y \\ E_y & B_z & 0 & -B_x \\ E_z & -B_y & B_x & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$J^{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} c\rho \\ J_x \\ J_y \\ J_z \end{pmatrix}$$

are the electromagnetic tensor and the 4-current.

Lotka-Volterra Equation

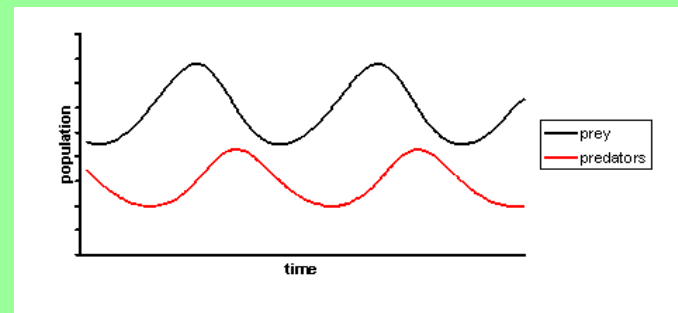
Also known as the predator-prey equations. It is used to describe the dynamics of biological systems.

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = x(\alpha - \beta y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} = -y(\gamma - \delta x) \end{cases}$$

where

y : number of predator

x : number of prey



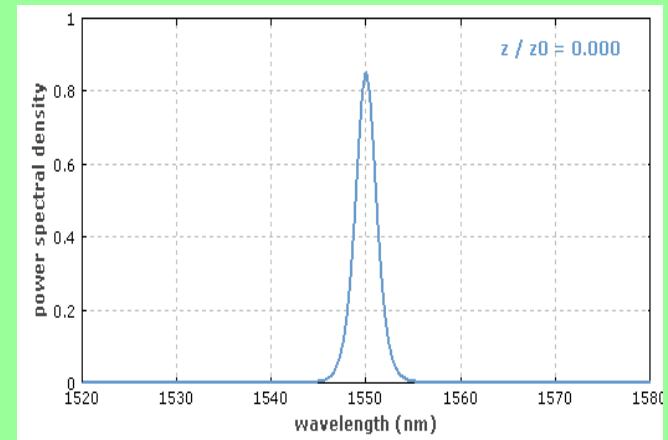
KdV Equation

Korteweg-de Vries equation

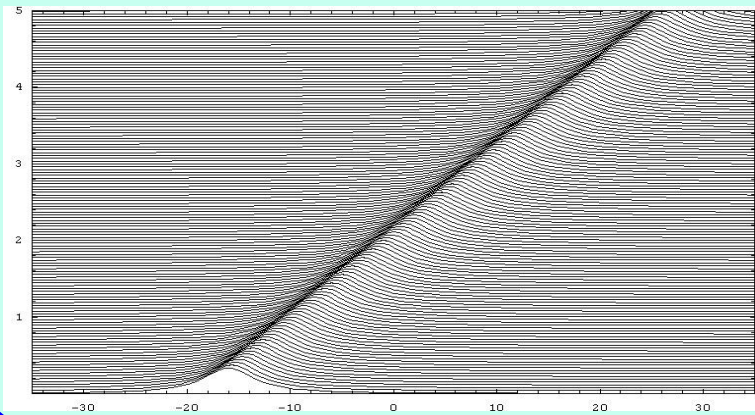
$$\partial_t \phi + \partial_x^3 \phi + 6\phi \partial_x \phi = 0$$

Single soliton solution

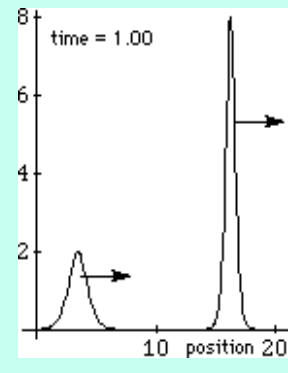
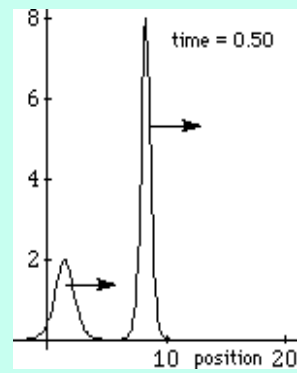
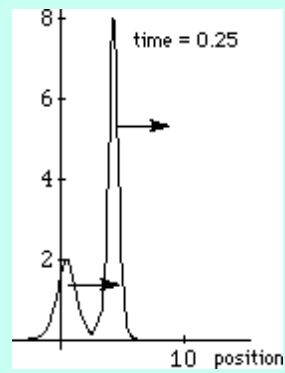
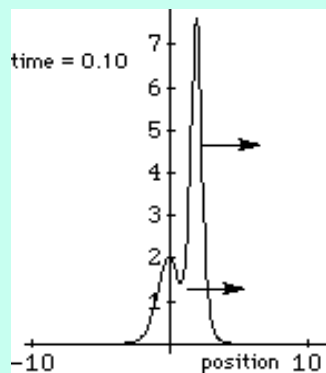
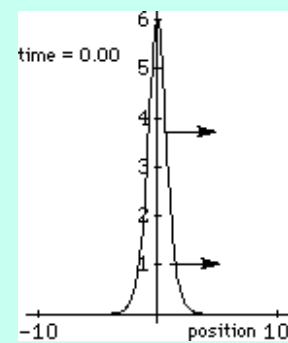
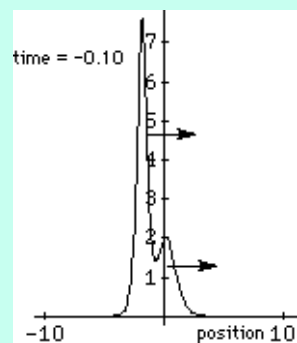
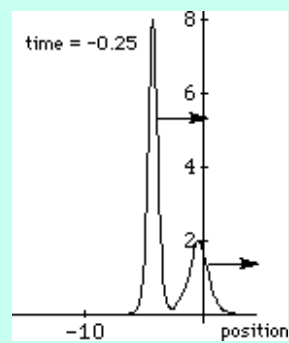
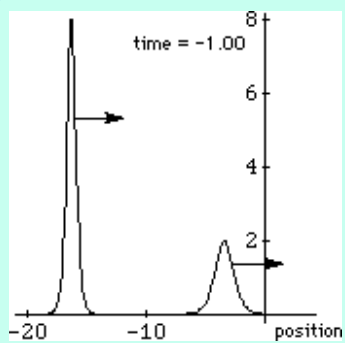
$$\phi(x, t) = \frac{c}{2 \cosh^2 \left(\frac{\sqrt{c}}{2} (x - ct - a) \right)}$$



Soliton



Soliton



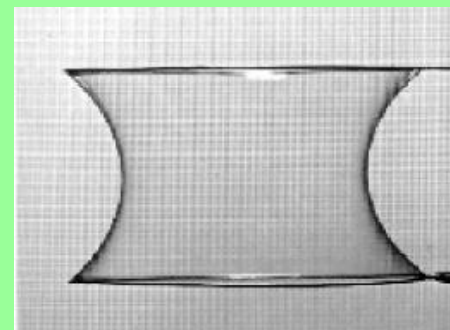
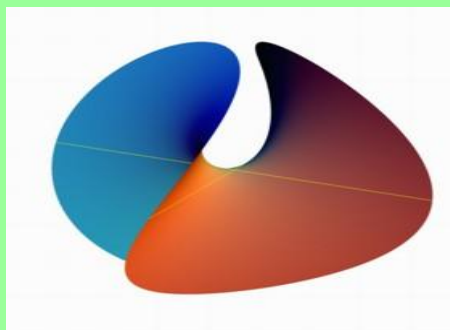
$$u(x, t) = 12 \frac{3 + 4 \cosh(2x - 8t) + \cosh(4x - 64t)}{[3 \cosh(x - 28t) + \cosh(3x - 36t)]^2}$$

Minimal Surface Equation

$$\operatorname{div} \left(\frac{\nabla u}{\sqrt{1 + |\nabla u|^2}} \right) = 0$$

Mean curvature free

$$H = \frac{1}{2} (\kappa_1 + \kappa_2) = 0$$

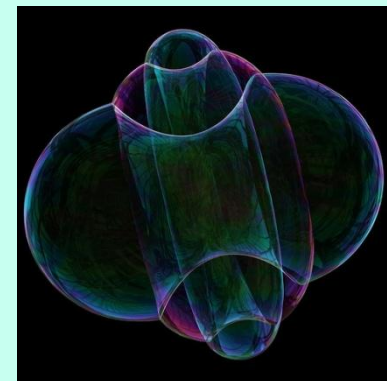
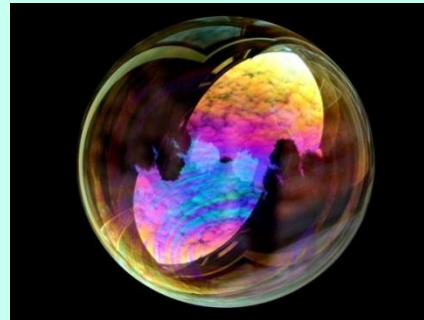


Soap Bubble

Constant Mean
curvature

$$H = \frac{1}{2}(\kappa_1 + \kappa_2)$$

= constant





General Relativity

According to Einstein field equation, gravity is described as a curved space time caused by matter and energy.

$$R_{\alpha\beta} - \frac{1}{2}Rg_{\alpha\beta} = -\frac{8\pi G}{c^4}T_{\alpha\beta}$$

$R_{\alpha\beta}$: Ricci tensor

R : scalar curvature

$g_{\alpha\beta}$: metric tensor

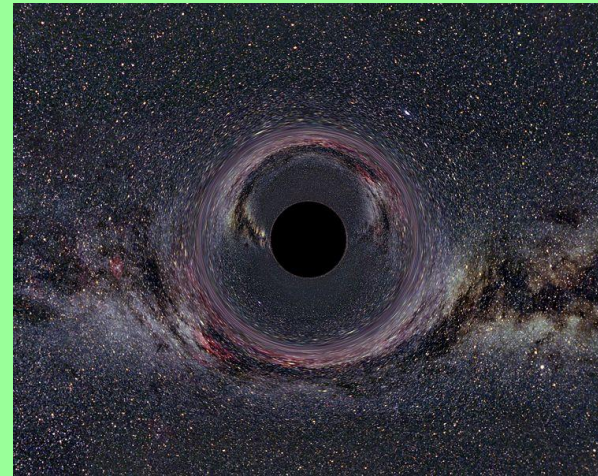
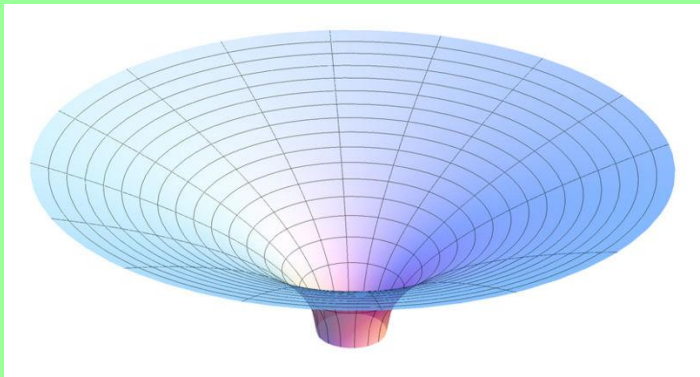
$T_{\alpha\beta}$: energy-momentum-stress tensor

Schwarzschild Black Hole

A black hole with no charge or angular momentum.

Schwarzschild metric:

$$ds^2 = -\left(1 - \frac{2GM}{r}\right) dt^2 + \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{r}\right)^{-1} dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega^2$$

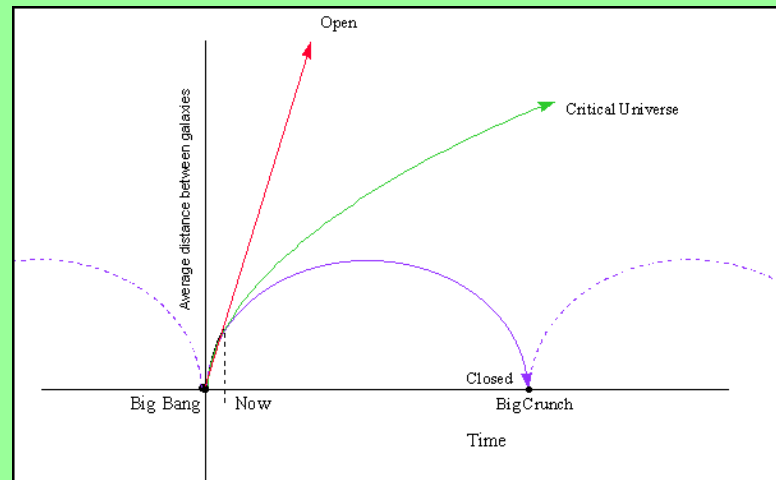
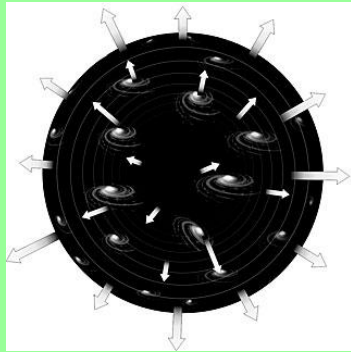


Expanding Universe

Robertson-Walker metric

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - R^2(t) \left(d\chi^2 + S^2(\chi) d\Omega^2 \right)$$

$$S(\chi) = \begin{cases} \sin \chi, & \text{curvature} > 0 \\ \chi, & \text{curvature} = 0 \\ \sinh \chi, & \text{curvature} < 0 \end{cases}$$





Schrödinger equation

In quantum mechanics, particles are described by wave function satisfying

$$i \frac{h}{2\pi} \frac{d\psi}{dt} = H\psi$$

where

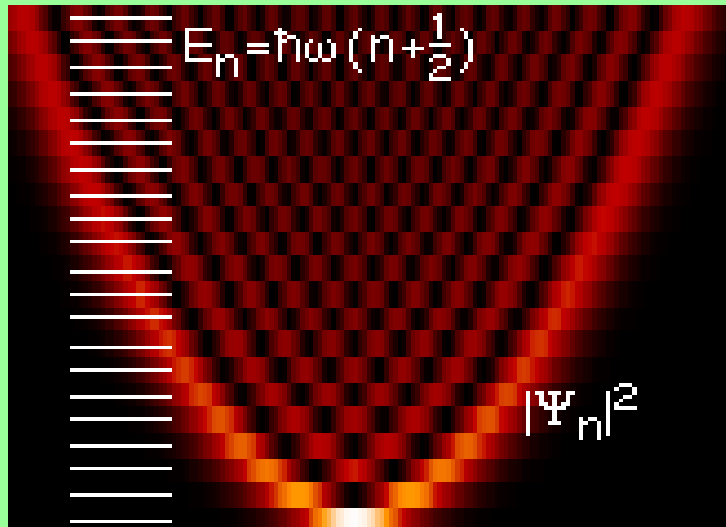
h : Planck's constant

ψ : wave function

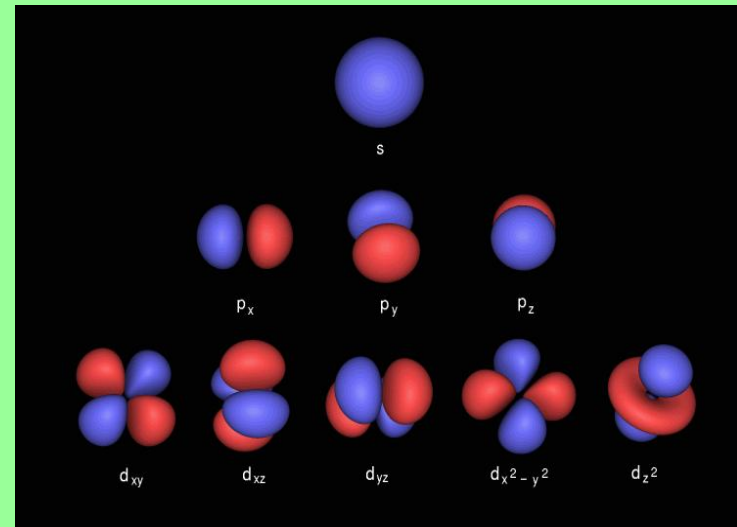
H : Hamiltonian operator

Schrödinger equation

Harmonic Oscillator



Electron orbitals





Navier-Stokes Equation

Navier-Stokes Equation describe the motion of viscous fluid.

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v} \right) = -\nabla p + \mu \Delta \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{f}$$

where

- \mathbf{v} : velocity
- ρ : density
- p : pressure
- \mathbf{f} : external force

The continuity equation reads

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$$



Black-Scholes' equation

Black-Scholes model the price of an option by

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 S^2 \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial S^2} + rS \frac{\partial V}{\partial S} - rV = 0$$

where V : price of the option

S : price of the underlying instrument

σ : volatility

r : constant interest rate

Calabi's Conjecture

Let $(M, g_{i\bar{j}})$ be a compact Kähler manifold. Any closed $(1,1)$ -form which represents the first Chern class of M is the Ricci form of a metric determines the same cohomology class as $g_{i\bar{j}}$.



Calabi's Conjecture

Equivalent to the existence of solution of the following complex Monge-Ampère equation

$$\det\left(g_{i\bar{j}} + \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial z_i \partial \bar{z}_j}\right) \det(g_{i\bar{j}})^{-1} = \exp(F)$$

where

$$\int_M \exp(F) = \text{Vol}(M)$$

Proved by Yau Shing Tung
in 1976.



Poincaré's Conjecture

Every compact simply-connected 3 dimensional manifold is homeomorphic to the 3 dimensional sphere.





Generalized Poincaré's Conjecture

If a compact n dimensional manifold is homotopic to the n dimensional sphere, then it is homeomorphic to the n dimensional sphere.



Generalized Poincaré's Conjecture

Dimension	Solver	Year	Field's Medal
1 or 2	Classical		
5 or above	Stephen Smale	1960	1966
4	Michael Freeman	1982	1986
3	Grigori Perelman	2003	2006

Ricci flow

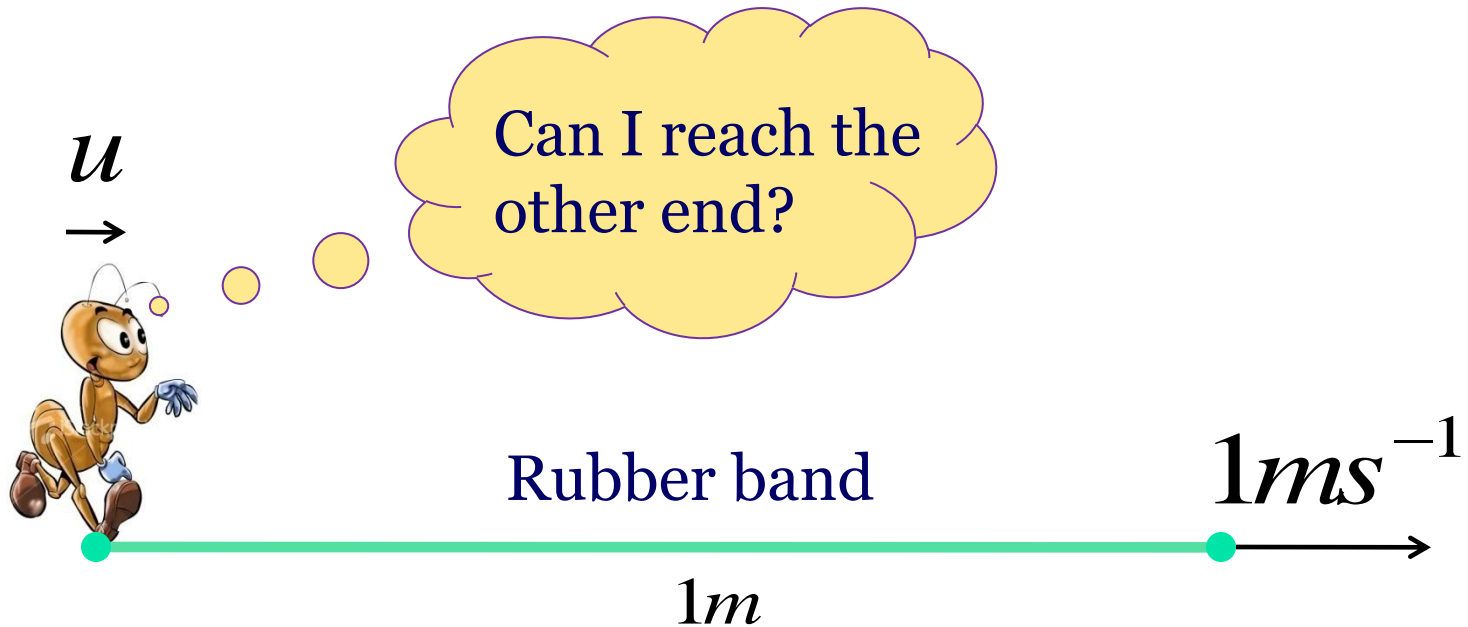
Proved by Perelman by using Ricci flow defined by Hamilton.

$$\frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial t} = -2R_{ij}$$



Perelman declined both the Fields medal and the Clay Millennium Prize.

Can Antson reach the other end?



What is the minimum value of u for Antson to reach the other end?



Definition

An **Ordinary Differential Equation** of order n is an equation of the form

$$F(x, y', y'', \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0$$

where $y^{(n)}$ denotes the n th derivative of y .



Definition

If there are more than one independent variable and the equation involves partial derivatives, then it is called **Partial Differential Equation.**



Examples

First order ODE:

i) Linear equations

$$a) \quad \frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0$$

$$b) \quad \frac{dy}{dx} - xy = \cos x$$

ii) Bernoulli equation

$$y' + p(x)y = q(x)y^n$$



Examples

Second order ODE:

i) Linear equations

$$a) \quad y'' = 2y' - y$$

$$b) \quad y'' - x^2 y' + e^{3x} y = 2 \sin x$$

ii) Non-linear equations

$$a) \quad y'' = y^2$$

$$b) \quad y'' + yy' = e^x$$



Examples

PDE:

i) Elliptic

$$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$$

ii) Parabolic

$$u_t = u_{xx} + u_{yy}$$

ii) Hyperbolic

$$u_{xx} + u_{yy} - u_{tt} = 0$$

Solution

Differential Equation

$$y' = y + 2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x^2 + xy}{3xy + y^2}$$

$$y'' - 3y' - 4y = 5e^{-x}$$

$$u_{xx} - 4u_{tt} = 0$$

Solution

$$y = Ce^x - 2$$

$$2x^3 y + x^2 y^2 = C$$

$$y = C_1 e^{4x} + C_2 e^{-x} - x e^{-x}$$

$$u = \cos(2x - t)^*$$

* Particular solution



IVP and BVP

Initial Value Problem:

$$\begin{cases} y'' - 3y' + 2y = \sin x, & x \in [0, 2\pi] \\ y(0) = 0, y'(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

Boundary Value Problem:

$$\begin{cases} y'' - 3y' + 2y = \sin x, & x \in [0, 2\pi] \\ y(0) = 0, y(2\pi) = -2 \end{cases}$$

Can Antson reach the other end?

1cm s^{-1}



Can I reach the other end?

Rubber band

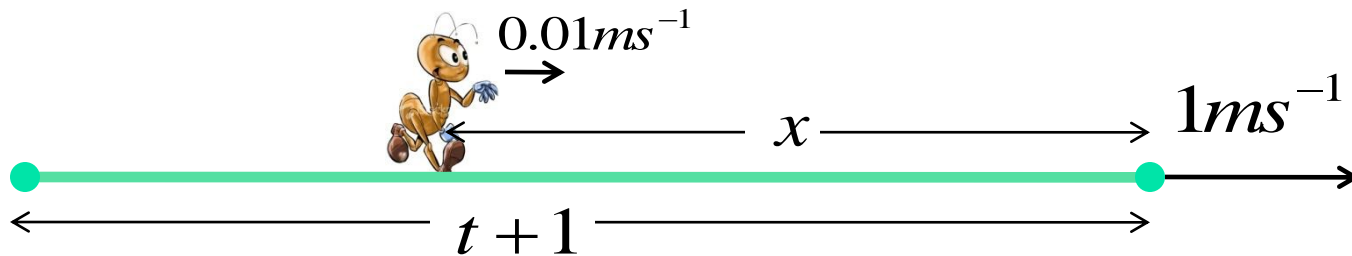
1m s^{-1}

1m

Can Antson reach the other end if he runs at 1cm per second?

Antson can always reach the other end when $u > 0$.

When $u = 0.01$ and $v = 1$



$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{x}{t+1} - 0.01 \\ x(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

Sol: $x = (t+1) \left(1 - \frac{\ln(t+1)}{100} \right)$

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \ln(t+1) &= 100 \\ \Rightarrow t &= e^{100} - 1 \approx 2.7 \times 10^{43} \end{aligned}$$

It takes about
 8.5×10^{35} years



What we are interested in?

1. Exact Solutions
2. Existence
3. Uniqueness
4. Numerical Solutions

Further problems:

5. Regularity
6. Well-posedness



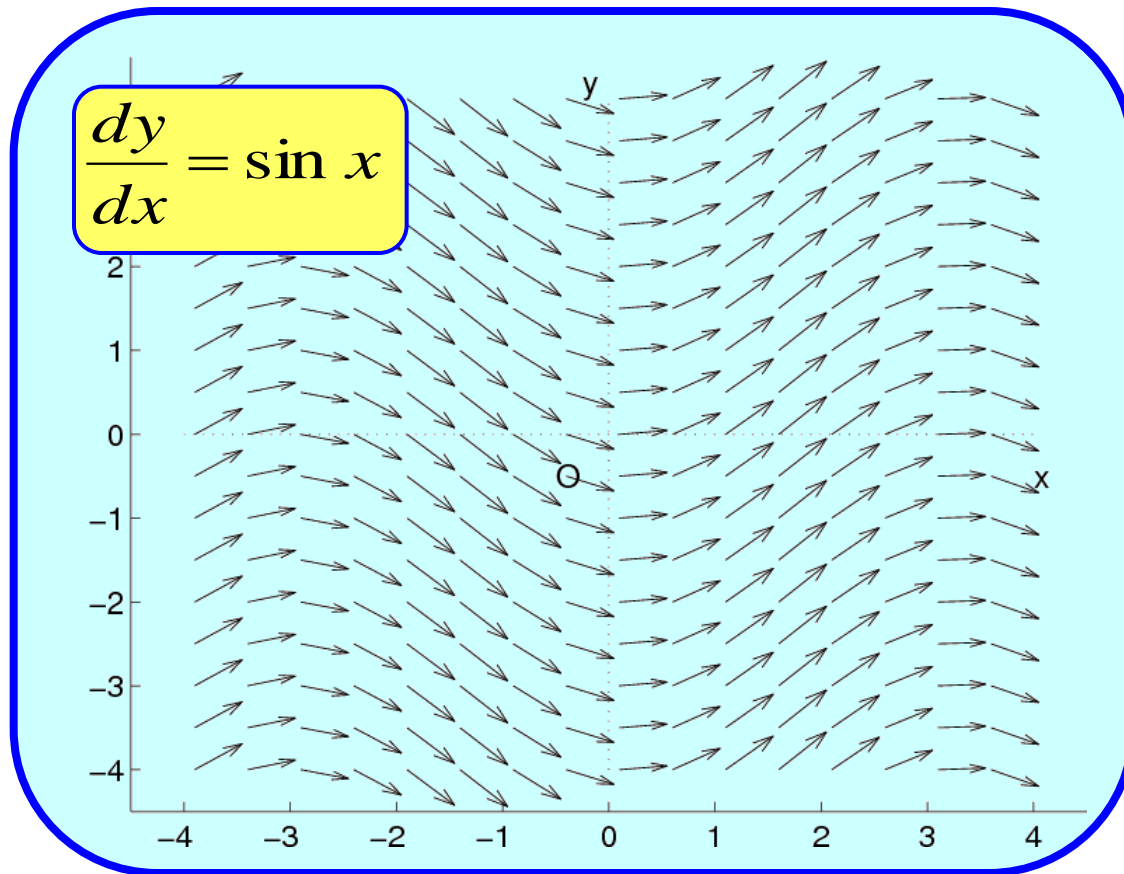
First Order Equation

The first order ODE

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$$

can be interpreted as a **direction field**. The integral curves are solutions of the equation.

Direction Field

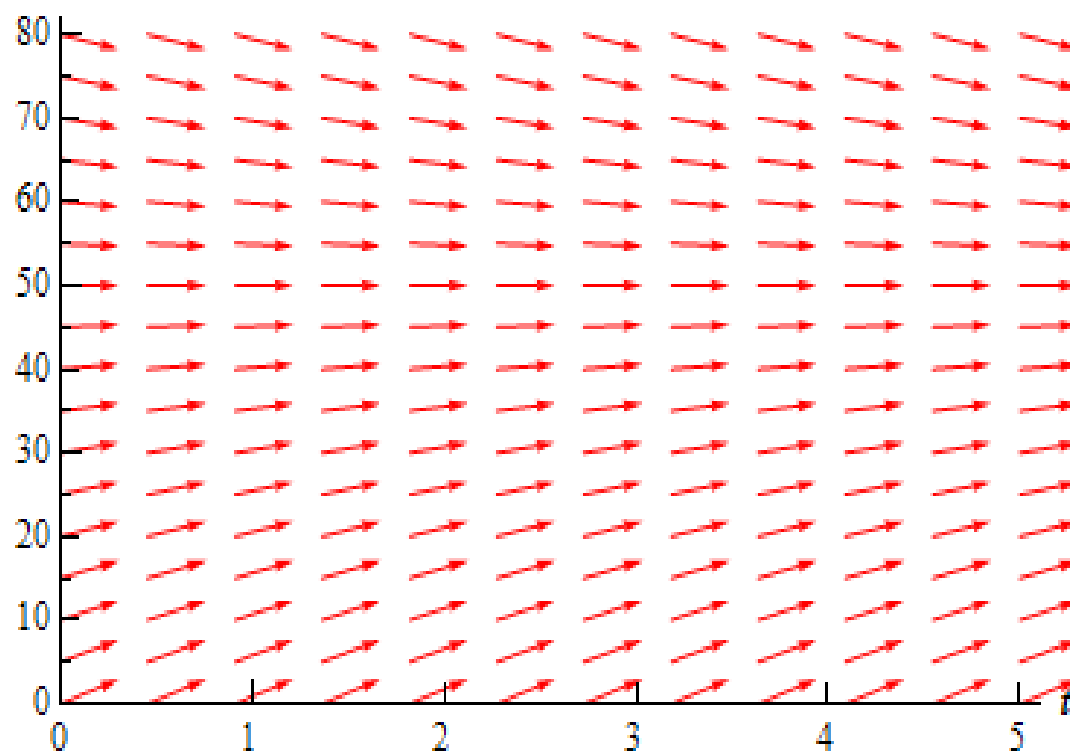


$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin x$$

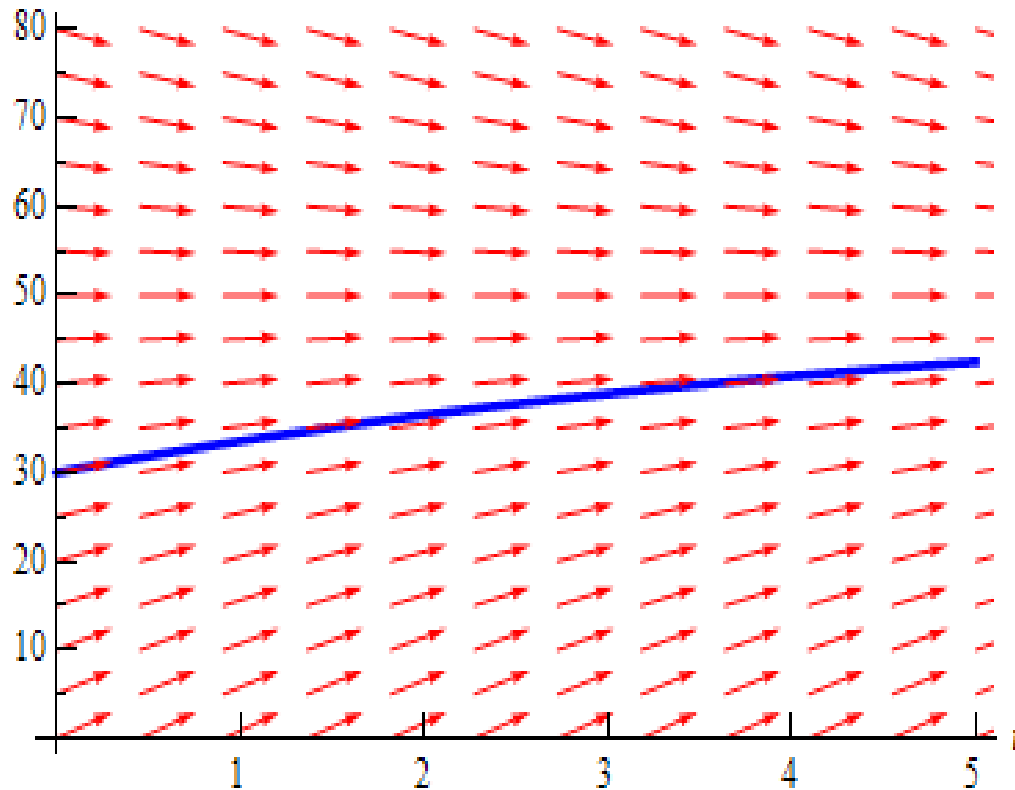
$$y = \int \sin x \, dx$$
$$= -\cos x + C$$

Direction Field

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 10 - \frac{y}{5}$$



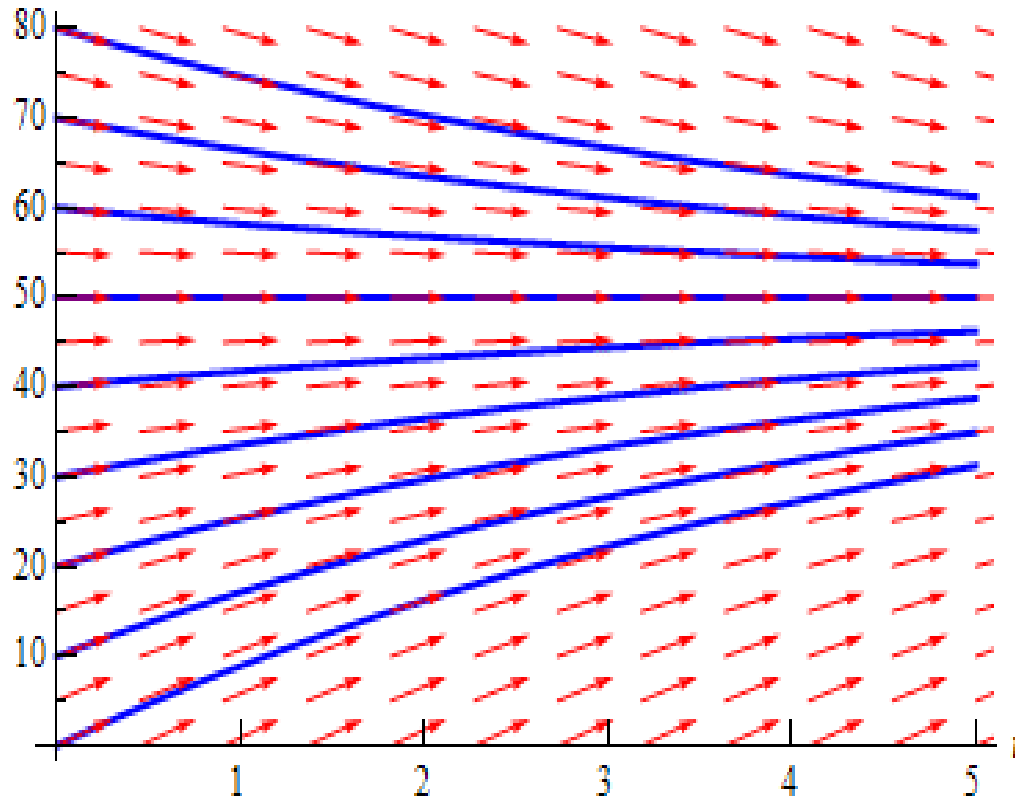
Direction Field



$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 10 - \frac{y}{5}$$

$$y = 50 - 20e^{-\frac{x}{5}}$$

Direction Field

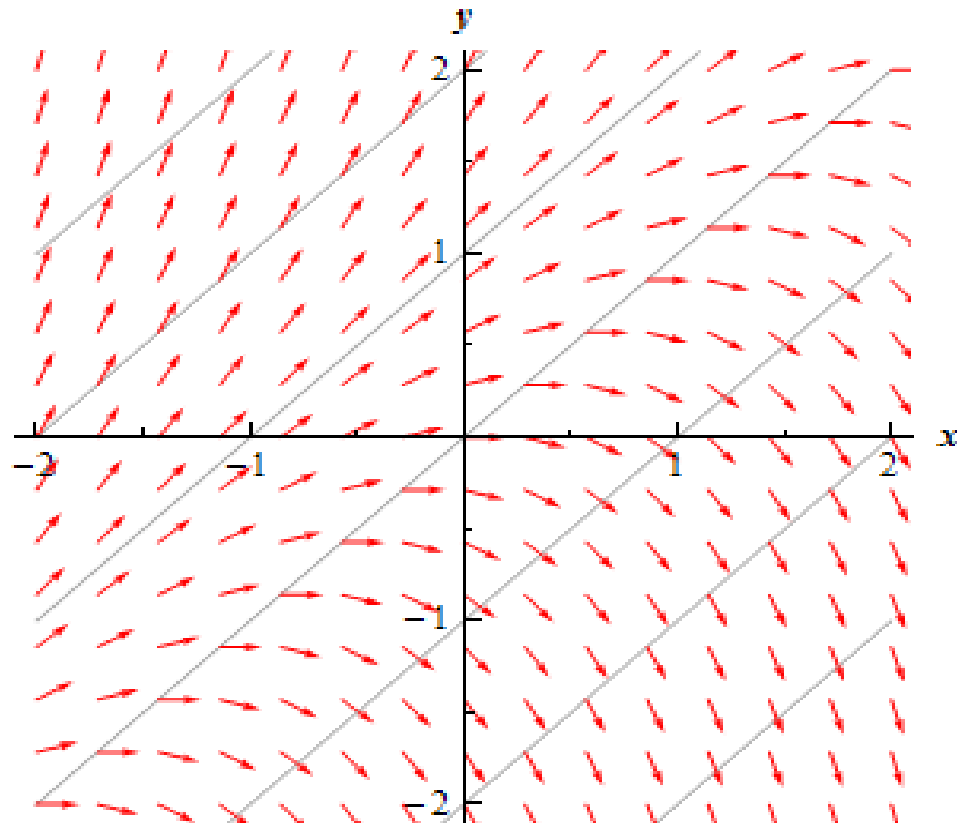


$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 10 - \frac{y}{5}$$

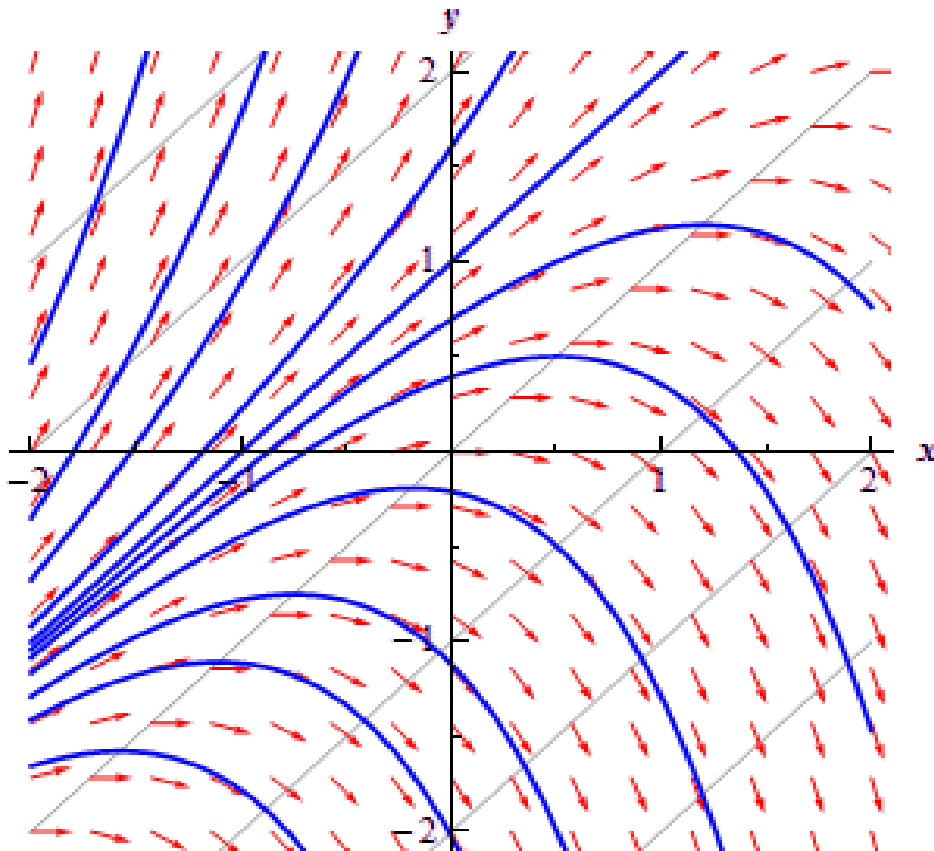
$$y = 50 - Ce^{-\frac{x}{5}}$$

Direction Field

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y - x$$



Direction Field



$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y - x$$

$$y = Ce^x + x + 1$$