

INTRODUCTION TO MY NOTES

(4)

These notes follow your text mostly. If I can teach you a fraction of the text I'll be happy, it's a great book. Anyway I tend to use some abbreviations here and there so let me list them here for your convenience,

Symbols	Meaning
§	section
∃	there exists
∄	there does not exist
$a \in B$	a is an element of B
\mathbb{N}	Natural #'s 1, 2, 3, ...
\mathbb{Z}	Integers ..., -1, 0, 1, 2, ...
\Rightarrow	implies
\Leftrightarrow	if and only if
iff	\Leftrightarrow
\therefore	therefore
#	change in topic
\forall	for all
\equiv	definition
def ⁿ	definition
Sol ⁿ	Solution
w.r.t	with respect to
\notin	not an element of

Symbols	Meaning
f-la	formula
Th ^m	theorem
eq ⁿ	equation
s.t.	such that
\mathbb{R}	real numbers ($-\infty, \infty$)
α	alpha
β	beta
γ	gamma
δ	delta
θ	theta
ω	omega
ψ	psi
ϕ	phi

LI = linear independence
ODE = ordinary differential equation
fct = function

DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS IN PHYSICS

I.

$$\text{Schrödinger's Eq}^n: \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + V\Psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} \quad \boxed{\text{Eq}^n \textcircled{1}}$$

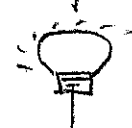
is the starting point for non relativistic Quantum Mechanics here the solⁿ $\Psi(x,t)$ is the wave function. This is a partial differential eqⁿ because there are at least two independent variables x and t . There is a large class of separable solⁿs where

$$\Psi(x,t) = \psi(x)\varphi(t)$$

If we substitute into Eqⁿ ① we get

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \psi''\varphi + V\psi\varphi = i\hbar \psi\varphi'$$

Divide by $\psi\varphi$ to get

$$\underbrace{\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\psi''}{\psi} + V}_{\text{function of } x} = \underbrace{i\hbar \frac{\varphi'}{\varphi}}_{\text{function of } t} = \text{constant} \equiv E$$


So we get two ordinary differential eqⁿs

we'll learn how to solve these soon

$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} + V\psi = E\psi$: Time independent Schrödinger Eq ⁿ
$i\hbar \frac{d\varphi}{dt} = E\varphi$: Energy Eigenvalue Eq ⁿ

My Point? At some point it usually ends up being a problem of solving ODEs.

II) Maxwell's Eqⁿ's:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \vec{E} &= \rho / \epsilon_0 & : \text{ Gauss' Law} \\ \nabla \cdot \vec{B} &= 0 & : \text{ No magnetic monopoles} \\ \nabla \times \vec{E} &= -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} & : \text{ Faraday's Law} \\ \nabla \times \vec{B} &= \mu_0 \vec{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} & : \text{ Ampere's Law} \end{aligned}$$

Again these are Partial Differential eqⁿ's since the solⁿ's are the electric and magnetic fields $\vec{E}(x, y, z, t)$ and $\vec{B}(x, y, z, t)$. If you study a particular problem these will reduce to several Ordinary Differential Eqⁿ's.

Example: In vacuum $\rho = \vec{J} = 0$. Maxwell's Eqⁿ's can be rewritten as $\nabla^2 \vec{E} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$ and $\nabla^2 \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2}$. Each of these is 3 PDE's and in case you're wondering $\nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$

$$\nabla^2 E_x = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial t^2} \quad \text{for } \vec{E} = (E_x, E_y, E_z)$$

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

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

Lets pick one and pretend our system is one-dimensional so $\nabla^2 = \partial^2 / \partial x^2$ (the real story is more complicated)
We should solve

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

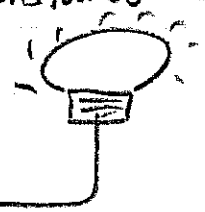
The way to solve this is to suppose $E(x, t) = X(x)T(t)$

II Continued, we're trying to solve $\frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial x^2} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial t^2}$ we guessed $E(x,t) = \mathcal{X}(x) T(t)$ so substitute into

$$\mathcal{X}''(x) T(t) = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \mathcal{X}(x) T''(t)$$

Divide by $\mathcal{X}(x) T(t)$,

$$\underbrace{\frac{\mathcal{X}''(x)}{\mathcal{X}(x)}}_{\text{function of } x} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \underbrace{\frac{T''(t)}{T(t)}}_{\text{function of } t} = \text{constant} = a$$



So we have to solve a pair of Ordinary Differential Eq's

$$\frac{d^2 \mathcal{X}}{dx^2} = a \mathcal{X} \quad \& \quad \frac{d^2 T}{dt^2} = \frac{a}{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}$$

If $a = -k^2$ we find sol^{n's}, let $\omega \equiv k / \sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}$

$$\mathcal{X}(x) = A_1 \cos(kx + \phi_1)$$

$$T(t) = A_2 \cos(\omega t + \phi_2)$$

Then a little algebra reveals

$$\boxed{E(x,t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t)}$$

This is a wave with speed $v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}} = c = 3 \times 10^8 \frac{m}{s}$.

MAXWELL'S EQ'S \Rightarrow SPEED OF LIGHT IS CONSTANT!

III Newton's Law: $m \frac{d^2 \vec{r}}{dt^2} = \vec{F}_{\text{net}}$ (assuming $\frac{dm}{dt} = 0$)

In this case we have one independent variable, the time t . Again to solve particular problem it boils down to solving ODEs.

Example: Gravity near earth's surface.

$$m \frac{d^2 \vec{r}}{dt^2} = -mg \hat{k} \begin{cases} \rightarrow m x'' = 0 \\ \rightarrow m y'' = 0 \\ \rightarrow m z'' = -mg \end{cases} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{three} \\ \text{ordinary} \\ \text{diff. eq's.} \end{array} \right\}$$

QUESTION: where will we use ordinary differential eq's in the real world?

ANSWER: MOST EVERYWHERE THAT AN EQUATION CAN MODEL AN ACTIVITY. MY EXAMPLES ARE FROM FOUNDATIONAL PHYSICS, BUT THERE ARE MANY MANY MORE EXAMPLES IN APPLICATIONS OF PHYSICS, ENGINEERING, BIOLOGY, ETC... SO ORDINARY DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS ARE BASIC KNOWLEDGE YOU SHOULD ADD TO YOUR ARSENAL OF MATHEMATICAL TOOLS.

Remark: Systems of Differential Equations naturally suggest the use of eigenvectors. Since linear algebra builds up the theory underlying eigenvectors we treat systems of ODE's in math 321.

BASIC TERMINOLOGY

Let us suppose that x is the independent variable and y is the dependent variable. That means we can view y as a function of x . An ordinary differential equation (O.D.E.) is an eqⁿ of the form,

$$F(y^{(n)}, y^{(n-1)}, \dots, y^{(2)}, y', y, x) = 0 \quad \text{n}^{\text{th}} \text{ order differential eq}^n$$

Where $y^{(n)} = \frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$ and $y' = \frac{dy}{dx}$. This highest derivative that appears gives the order of the DEⁿ. It is called ordinary because all the derivatives are just w.r.t. x . When a differential eqⁿ has partial derivatives (like $\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$ for example) then it is called a partial differential eqⁿ (PDE). We'll learn how to solve a few basic PDEs at the end of this course.

Defⁿ A n^{th} order linear differential eqⁿ has the form

$$a_n(x) \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + a_{n-1}(x) \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + a_1(x) \frac{dy}{dx} + a_0(x) y = F(x)$$

- EO $\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2$ (non-linear // solved by separating variables)
- $\frac{dy}{dx} + y = \cos(x)$ (linear // solve with method of undeter. coefficients)
- $y'' + 3y' + 3y = \tan(t)$ (linear // variation of parameters will solve it)
- $(\frac{dy}{dx})^3 + (\frac{dy}{dx})^2 = \sin(x)$ (non-linear // if you can solve this I'll be impressed.)

Defⁿ A solution to a differential eqⁿ $F(y^{(n)}, \dots, x) = 0$ is a function f such that

$$F(f^{(n)}(x), f^{(n-1)}(x), \dots, f'(x), f(x), x) = 0$$

- Given a n^{th} order ODE $F(y^{(n)}, \dots, y', x) = 0$ we will find there is not a unique solⁿ just on the basis of the DEqⁿ itself. Roughly speaking solving a n^{th} order DEqⁿ amounts to taking n -integrals. For each integral we get an integration constant, so as those constants are arbitrary we see we get infinitely many solⁿ's. As a common abuse of terminology I will often refer to this infinite family of solutions as the 'general solⁿ'.
- Now, if DEqⁿ's are to describe the real world this is discouraging, it would seem we can never uniquely describe a system with an ODE. The solⁿ to this is simple, physical systems are in practice modelled by DEqⁿ's + INITIAL CONDITIONS.

Defⁿ/ A solⁿ to an initial value problem (IVP) on an interval I containing x_0 is a solⁿ to a DEqⁿ $F(y^{(n)}, \dots, y', x) = 0$ that also satisfies n -extra initial conditions

$$y(x_0) = y_0, \quad \frac{dy}{dx}(x_0) = y_1, \quad \dots, \quad \frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}}(x_0) = y_{n-1}$$

where y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} are given constants.

- Usually an initial value problem has a unique solⁿ, but not always (you have a hwk. problem to illustrate this)

Th^m(1) Given an IVP $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y), y(x_0) = y_0$.

If f and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ are continuous in a rectangle that contains the point (x_0, y_0) then

the IVP has a unique solⁿ in some interval $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ for $\delta > 0$.

- The solⁿ may or may not extend to the whole rectangle. This is a local theorem, it just tells us about solⁿ's near the point x_0 .

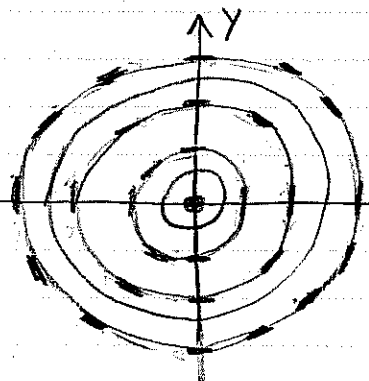
Remark: Sometimes we will be given an implicit formula to describe a function. For some examples rather than possessing an explicit f-lu for $f(x)$ we'll instead say the solⁿ is the locus of points satisfying some relation. For example, $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is a solⁿ of $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-x}{y}$. At the level of functions we have two solutions $y = f_1(x) = \sqrt{1-x^2}$ and $y = f_2(x) = -\sqrt{1-x^2}$.

Comment: Slope fields and Euler's Method are not req^d topics. I include a comment about them for breadth. It is likely you would cover them in depth in a numerical methods course.

SLOPE FIELDS

One method of visualizing a DEqⁿ is to draw it's slope field, (Chapter 12 of text is devoted to graphics)

E1

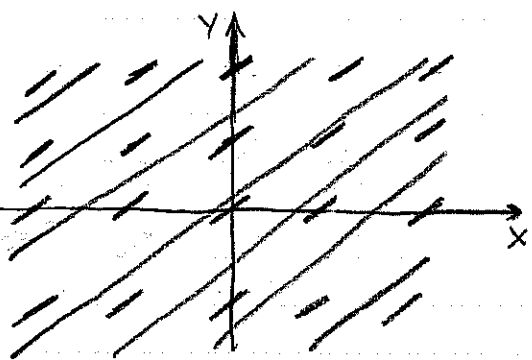


the little dashes — indicate the slope that tangents to the solⁿ curves must have. Here I've tried to sketch:

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

and a few of the solⁿ's which happen to be circles.

E2



here I've sketched the slope field for $\frac{dy}{dx} = 1$. Solⁿ's have slope one everywhere, that means they're lines of slope one,

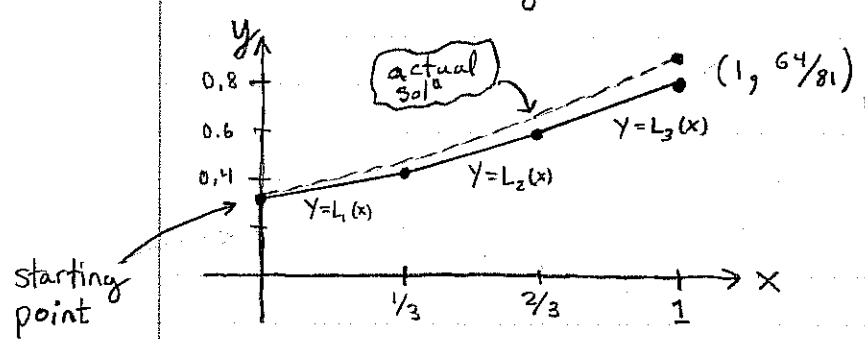
$$y = x + b$$

Remark: I cannot draw all the solⁿ's, they literally fill the (xy)-plane*. We can see that DEqⁿ's do not usually give unique solⁿ's. *(ok, to be careful we should throw out (0,0) in E1)

Euler's Method

- Closely related to the idea of the slope field.
- In short, Euler's Method generates approximate solⁿ's to a DEqⁿ by replacing the real solⁿ with a piecewise linear version of the solⁿ.

E3 $\frac{dy}{dx} = y$ given the initial data $y(0) = \frac{1}{3}$ find $y(1)$ using Euler's method with 3-steps.



Euler's method with 3 Steps says $y(1) \approx \frac{64}{81}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 L_1(x) &= \frac{1}{3} + \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)(x-0) &\Rightarrow L_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) &= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{4}{9} = y_1 \\
 L_2(x) &= \frac{4}{9} + \left(\frac{4}{9}\right)(x-\frac{1}{3}) &\Rightarrow L_2\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) &= \frac{4}{9} + \frac{4}{27} = \frac{16}{27} = y_2 \\
 L_3(x) &= \frac{16}{27} + \left(\frac{16}{27}\right)(x-\frac{2}{3}) &\Rightarrow L_3(1) &= \frac{16}{27} + \frac{16}{81} = \frac{64}{81} = y_3
 \end{aligned}$$

Remark: Euler's method & Slope fields require a lot of brute force arithmetic, as such they are best implemented by technology. We will focus on those methods which do not require numerical assistance. You should be aware that many problems defy closed form solⁿ's so we are driven to solve numerically.

Separation of Variables (exact solⁿ of problem above)

E4 $\frac{dy}{dx} = y \Rightarrow \int \frac{dy}{y} = \int dx \Rightarrow \ln|y| = x + \tilde{c} \Rightarrow y = ce^x$

$y(0) = c = \frac{1}{3} \Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{3}e^x$ (exact solⁿ to **E3** above)

- lets compare the approximation to the real deal,

$y(1) = \frac{1}{3}e^1 = 0.9061$ compared to $\frac{64}{81} = 0.79$