# Fall 2016 Notes

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### **Probability**

We will devote this chapter to the material that is covered in MA 51900 (discrete probability) as it was covered in DasGupta's class. We will, for the most part, reference Feller's *An introduction to probability theory and its applications, Volume 1* [4] (especially for the discrete noncalculus portion of the class) and DasGupta's own book *Fundamentals of Probability: A First Course* [2].

#### 1.1 Discrete Probability

The material in this chapter is mostly pulled from Sheldon Ross's A First Course in Probability Theory [8] with some examples from [2] and [4]. I find Ross's book to be better structured than the latter two.

#### Combinatorial Analysis

These are the main results from this section.

**Theorem 1.1** (The basic principle of counting). Suppose that two experiments are to be performed. Then if experiment 1 can result in any one of m possible outcomes and if, for each outcome of experiment 1, there are n possible outcomes of experiment 2, then together there are mn possible outcomes of the two experiments.

**Theorem 1.2** (The generalized principle of counting). If r experiments that are to be performed are such that the first one may result in any of  $n_1$  possible outcomes; and if, for each of these  $n_1$  possible outcomes, there are  $n_2$  possible outcomes for the second experiment; and if, for each of the possible outcomes of the first two experiments, there are  $n_3$  possible outcomes for the third experiment; etc. ..., then there is a total of  $n_1 n_2 \cdots n_r$  possible outcomes of the r experiments.

Using notation as in [4], the number

$$(n)_r = n(n-1)\cdots(n-r+1)$$

represents the number of different ways that a group of r items could be selected from n items when the order of selection is relevant, and as each group of r items will be counted r! times in this count,

it follows that the number of different groups of r items that could be formed from a set of n items is

$$\frac{(n)_r}{r!} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}$$

for which we reserve the notation

$$\binom{n}{r}$$

read n choose r. (This is called a binomial coefficient since it appears in the binomial expansion  $(a+b)^n$ .)

A useful combinatorial identity on binomial coefficients is the following

$$\binom{n}{r} = \binom{n-1}{r-1} + \binom{n-1}{r}$$

for  $1 \le r \le n$ .

**Theorem 1.3** (The binomial theorem).

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}.$$

PROOF. We provide a combinational proof of the theorem. Consider the product

$$(a_1+b_1)\cdots(a_n+b_n).$$

Its expansion consists of the sum of  $2^n$  terms, each term being the product of n factors. Furthermore, each of the  $2^n$  terms in the sum will contain as a factor either  $a_i$  or  $b_i$  for each  $1 \le i \le n$ . Now, how many of the  $2^n$  terms in the sum will have k of the  $a_i$  and n-k of the  $b_i$  as factors? As each term consisting of k of the  $a_i$  and n-k of the  $b_i$  correspond to a choice of a group of k from the values  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ , there are  $\binom{n}{k}$  such terms. Thus, letting  $a_i = a$ ,  $b_i = b$ ,  $1 \le i \le n$ , we see that

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}.$$

# Introduction to Partial Differential Equations

Here we summarize some important points about PDEs. The material is mostly taken from Evans's *Partial Differential Equations* [3] with occasional detours to Strauss's *Partial Differential Equations: An Introduction* [9]. We will be following Dr. Petrosyan's Course Log which can be found here https://www.math.purdue.edu/~arshak/F16/MA523/courselog/, i.e., summarizing the appropriate chapters from [3].

#### 2.1 Introduction

#### Partial differential equations

**Definition 2.1.** An expression of the form

$$F(D^{k}u(x), D^{k-1}u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x) = 0, \quad x \in U,$$
(2.1)

is called a kth-order partial differential equation (PDE), where

$$F: \mathbf{R}^{n^k} \times \mathbf{R}^{n^{k-1}} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{R}^n \times U \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}$$

is given, and

$$u \colon U \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}$$

is the unknown.

Here are some more definitions,

#### Definition 2.2.

(i) The partial differential equation (2.1) is called *linear* if it has the form

$$\sum_{|\alpha| \le k} a_{\alpha}(x) D^{\alpha} u = f(x)$$

for given functions  $a_{\alpha}(|\alpha| \leq k)$ , f. This linear PDE is homogeneous if f = 0.

(ii) The PDE (2.1) is semilinear if it has the form

$$\sum_{|\alpha|=k} a_{\alpha} D^{\alpha} u + a_0 \left( D^{k-1} u, \dots, D u, u, x \right) = 0.$$

(iii) The PDE (2.1) is quasilinear if it has the form

$$\sum_{|\alpha|=k} a_{\alpha} (D^{k-1}u, \dots, Du, u, x) D^{\alpha}u + a_0 (D^{k-1}u, \dots, Du, u, x) = 0.$$

(iv) The PDE (2.1) is fully nonlinear if it depends upon the highest order derivatives.

A *system* of partial differential equations is, informally speaking, a collection of several PDEs for several unknown functions.

#### **Definition 2.3.** An expression of the form

$$\mathbf{F}(D^k \mathbf{u}(x), D^{k-1} \mathbf{u}(x), \dots, D\mathbf{u}(x), \mathbf{u}(x), x) = 0, \quad x \in U,$$
(2.2)

is called a kth-order system of PDEs, where

$$\mathbf{F} \colon \mathbf{R}^{mn^k} \times \mathbf{R}^{mn^{k-1}} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{R}^{mn} \times \mathbf{R}^m \times U \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^m$$

is given and

$$\mathbf{u} \colon U \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^m, \quad \mathbf{u} = (u^1, \dots, u^m)$$

is the unknown.

Remark 2.4. We haven't talked much about systems of PDEs and I suspect we will not do so very much in this course.

#### Examples

This is only a fraction of the PDEs listed in Evan's chapter.

#### Linear equations

1. Laplace's equation

$$\Delta u = \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_{x_i x_i} = 0.$$

2. Helmholtz's (or eigenvalue) equation

$$-\Delta u = \lambda u.$$

3. Linear transport equation

$$u_t + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b^i u_{x_i} = 0.$$

4. Liouville's equation

$$u_t - \sum_{i=1}^n (b^i u)_{x_i} = 0.$$

5. Heat (or diffusion) equation

$$u_t - \Delta u = 0.$$

6. Wave equation

$$u_{tt} - \Delta u = 0.$$

7. Telegraph equation

$$u_{tt} + du_t - u_{xx} = 0.$$

#### Nonlinear equations

1. Eikonal equation

$$|Du| = 1.$$

2. Nonlinear Poisson equation

$$-\Delta u = f(u).$$

3. Inviscid Burgers' equation

$$u_t + uu_x = 0.$$

and so on.

#### 2.2 The transport equation

We begin our study with one of the simplest PDEs, the *transport equation* with constant coefficients. This is the PDE

$$u_t + b \cdot Du = 0$$
, in  $\mathbf{R}^n \times (0, \infty)$ , (2.3)

where b is a fixed vector in  $\mathbf{R}^n$ ,  $b = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$ ,  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n$  is a typical point in space,  $t \geq 0$  denotes a typical time and  $u \colon \mathbf{R} \times [0, \infty) \to \mathbf{R}$  is the unknown, u = u(x, t). We write  $Du = D_x u = (u_{x_1}, \dots, u_{x_n})$  for the gradient of u with respect to the spatial variable x.

So, which functions solve (2.3)? Well, let us suppose for a moment that u is a smooth solution to the PDE and let us try to compute it. To do so, we first recognize that (2.3) asserts that a particular directional derivative of u vanishes, namely,  $D_b u = 0$ . We exploit this by fixing a point  $(x,t) \in \mathbf{R}^n \times (0,\infty)$  and defining

$$z(s) := u(x+sb, t+s), \quad s \in \mathbf{R}.$$

Then we calculate

$$\dot{z}(s) = Du(x+sb,t+s) \cdot b + u_t(x+sb,t+s)$$
  
= 0,

the second equality holding by (2.3). Thus, z is a constant function of s, and consequently for each (x,t), u is constant on the line through (x,t) with direction  $(b,1) \in \mathbf{R}^{n+1}$ . Hence, if we know the value of u at any point on each such line, we know its value everywhere in  $\mathbf{R}^n \times (0,\infty)$ .

#### 2.3 Characteristics

#### Derivation of characteristic ODEs

Consider the nonlinear first-order PDE

$$F(Du, u, x) = 0 \quad \text{in } U, \tag{2.4}$$

subject now to the boundary condition

$$u = g \quad \text{on } \Gamma,$$
 (2.5)

where  $\Gamma \subseteq \partial U$  and  $g \colon \Gamma \to \mathbf{R}$  are given. We hereafter suppose that F, g are smooth functions.

We now develop the method of *characteristics*, which solves (2.4) and (2.5) by converting the PDE into an appropriate system of ODEs. Suppose u solves the (2.4), (2.5) and fix any point  $x \in U$ . We would like to calculate u(x) by finding some curve lying within U, connecting x with a point  $x^0 \in \Gamma$  and along which we can compute u. Since (2.5) says u = g on  $\Gamma$ , we know the value of u at the one end  $x^0$ . We hope then to be able to calculate u all along the curve, and so in particular at x.

#### Finding the characteristic ODEs

How can we choose the curve so all this will work? Let us suppose it is described parametrically by the function  $\mathbf{x}(s) = (x^1(s), \dots, x^n(s))$ , the parameter s lying in some subinterval of  $\mathbf{R}$ . Assuming u is a  $C^2$  solution of (2.4), we define also

$$z(s) := u(\mathbf{x}(s)).$$

In addition, set

$$\mathbf{p}(s) := Du(\mathbf{x}(s));$$

that is,  $\mathbf{p}(s) = (p^1(s), \dots, p^n(s))$ , where

$$p^{i}(s) = u_{x_{\delta}}(\mathbf{x}(s)), \tag{2.6}$$

 $1 \le i \le n$ . So z gives the values of u along the curve and **p** records the values of the gradient Du. We must choose a function **x** in such a way that we can compute z and **p**.

For this, first differentiate (2.6)

$$\dot{p}^i(s) = \sum_{j=1}^n u_{x_i x_j} (\mathbf{x}(s)) \dot{x}^j(s)$$

This expression is not too promising, since it involves the second derivatives of u. On the other hand, we can also differentiate the PDE (2.4) with respect to  $x_i$  to get

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial p_{i}} F(Du, u, x) u_{x_{i}x_{i}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} F(Du, u, x) u_{x_{i}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} F(Du, u, x) = 0.$$

We are able to employ this identity to get rid of the *dangerous* second derivative terms provided we first set

$$\dot{x}^{j}(s) = \frac{\partial}{\partial p_{i}} F(\mathbf{p}(s), z(s), \mathbf{x}(s)).$$

Assuming now that the above equation holds, we can evaluate the partials

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial p_{j}} F(\mathbf{p}(s), z(s), \mathbf{x}(s)) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} F(\mathbf{p}(s), z(s), \mathbf{x}(s)) p^{i}(s) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} F(\mathbf{p}(s), z(s), \mathbf{x}(s)) = 0.$$

Substitute this expression and the previous one into the derivative for  $\dot{p}^i$  and we get

$$\dot{p}^{i}(s) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} F(\mathbf{p}(s), z(s), \mathbf{x}(s))$$

Finally, we differentiate z to get

$$\dot{z}(s) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}} u(\mathbf{x}(s)) \dot{x}^{j}(s) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} p^{j}(s) \frac{\partial}{\partial p_{j}} F(\mathbf{p}(s), z(s), \mathbf{x}(s)),$$

the second equality holding by –fuck this guy for numbering every expression–(5) and (8)–whatever they are.

We summarize by rewriting equations (8)–(10) in vector notation:

$$\begin{cases}
(a) \dot{\mathbf{p}}(s) = -D_x F(\mathbf{p}(s), z(s), \mathbf{x}(s)) - D_z F(\mathbf{p}(s), z(s), \mathbf{x}(s)) \mathbf{p}(s), \\
(b) \dot{z}(s) = D_p F(\mathbf{p}(s), z(s), \mathbf{x}(s)) \cdot \mathbf{p}(s), \\
(c) \dot{\mathbf{x}}(s) = D_p F(\mathbf{p}(s), z(s), \mathbf{x}(s)).
\end{cases} (2.7)$$

This important system of 2n+1 first-order ODEs comprises the *characteristic equations* of the nonlinear first-order PDE (2.4). The functions  $\mathbf{p}=(p^1,\ldots,p^n),\ z,\ \mathbf{x}=(x^1,\ldots,x^n)$  are a called the *characteristics*. We will sometimes refer to  $\mathbf{x}$  as the *projected characteristics*: it is the projection of the full characteristics  $(\mathbf{p},z,\mathbf{x})\subseteq\mathbf{R}^{2n+1}$  onto the physical region  $U\subseteq\mathbf{R}^n$ .

**Theorem 2.5** (Structure of characteristic ODEs). Let  $u \in C^2(U)$  solve the nonlinear, first-order partial differential equation (2.4) in U. Assume  $\mathbf{x}$  solves the ODEs (2.7)(c), where  $\mathbf{p} = Du$ , z = u. Then  $\mathbf{p}$  solves the ODE (2.7)(a) and z solves the ODE (2.7)(b), for those s such that  $\mathbf{x} \in U$ .

#### Examples

#### $\boldsymbol{F}$ linear

Consider first the situation that (2.4) is linear and homogeneous, and thus has the form

$$F(Du, u, x) = \mathbf{b}(x) \cdot Du(x) + c(x)u(x) = 0, \qquad x \in U$$

Then  $F(p, z, x) = \mathbf{b}(x) \cdot p + c(x)z$ , and so

$$D_p F = \mathbf{b}(x).$$

In this circumstance (2.7)(c) becomes

$$\mathbf{x}(s) = \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{x}(s)),$$

an ODE involving only the function x. Furthermore (2.7)(b) becomes

$$\dot{z}(s) = \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{x}(s)) \cdot \mathbf{p}(s). \tag{2.8}$$

Since  $\mathbf{p}(\cdot) = Du(\mathbf{x}(\cdot))$ , the PDE simplifies the above to

$$\dot{z}(s) = -c(\mathbf{x}(s))z(s).$$

This ODE is linear in z, once we know the function  $\mathbf{x}$  by solving its ODE. In summary,

$$\begin{cases} (a) \ \dot{\mathbf{x}}(s) = \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{x}(s)) \\ (b) \ \dot{z}(s) = -c(\mathbf{x}(s))z(s) \end{cases}$$
 (2.9)

comprise the characteristic equations for the linear, first-order PDE (2.8).

**Example 2.6.** We demonstrate the utility of equations (2.9) by explicitly solving the problem

$$\begin{cases} x_1 u_{x_2} - x_2 u_{x_1} = u & \text{in } U \\ u = g & \text{on } \Gamma, \end{cases}$$
 (2.10)

where U is the quadrant  $\{x_1 > 0, x_2 > 0\}$  and  $\Gamma = \{x_1 > 0, x_2 = 0\} \subseteq \partial U$ . The PDE in (2.10) is of the form (2.8), for  $\mathbf{b} = (-x_2, x_1)$  and c = -1. Thus the equations (2.9) read

$$\begin{cases} (x^1, x^2)(s) = (x^0 \cos s, x^0 \sin s) \\ z(s) = z^0 e^s = g(x^0) e^s, \end{cases}$$
 (2.11)

where  $x^0 \ge 0$ ,  $0 \le s \le \pi/2$ . Fix a point  $(x_1, x_2) \in U$ . We select s > 0,  $x^0 > 0$  so that  $(x_1, x_2) = (x^1(s), x^2(s)) = (x^0 \cos s, x^0 \sin s)$ . That is,  $x^0 = (x_1^2 + x_2^2)^{1/2}$ ,  $s = \arctan(x_2/x_1)$ . Therefore,

$$u(x_1, x_2) = u(x^1(s), x^2(s))$$

$$= z(s)$$

$$= g(x^0)e^s$$

$$= g((x_1^2 + x_2^2)^{1/2})e^{\arctan(x_2/x_1)}.$$

#### F quasilinear

The PDE (2.4) is quasilinear if it has the form

$$F(Du, u, x) = \mathbf{b}(x, u(x)) \cdot Du(x) + c(x, u(x)) = 0. \tag{2.12}$$

In this circumstance  $F(p, z, x) = \mathbf{b}(x, z) \cdot p + c(x, z)$ ; whence

$$D_n F = \mathbf{b}(x, z).$$

Hence equation (2.9)(c) reads

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{x}(s), z(s)),$$

and (2.9)(b) becomes

$$\dot{z}(s) = \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{x}(s), z(s)) \cdot \mathbf{p}(s)$$
$$= -c(\mathbf{x}(s), z(s))$$

by (2.12). Consequently

$$\begin{cases} (\mathbf{a}) \ \dot{\mathbf{x}}(s) = \mathbf{b} \big( \mathbf{x}(s), z(s) \big), \\ (\mathbf{b}) \ \dot{z}(s) = -c \big( \mathbf{x}(s), z(s) \big) \end{cases}$$

$$(2.13)$$

are the characteristic equations for the quasilinear first-order PDE.

**Example 2.7.** The characteristic ODEs (2.13) are in general difficult to solve, and so we work out in this example the simpler case of a boundary-value problem for a semilinear PDE:

$$\begin{cases} u_{x_1} + u_{x_2} = u^2 & \text{in } U \\ u = g & \text{on } \Gamma. \end{cases}$$
 (2.14)

Now U is the half-space  $\{x_2 > 0\}$  and  $\Gamma = \{x_2 = 0h\} = \partial U$ . Here  $\mathbf{b} = (1,1)$  and  $c = -z^2$ . Then (2.13) becomes

$$\begin{cases} (\dot{x}^1, \dot{x}^2) = 1\\ \dot{z} = z^2. \end{cases}$$

Consequently

$$\begin{cases} (x^1, x^2)(s) = (x^0 + s, s) \\ z(s) = \frac{z^0}{1 - sz^0} \\ = \frac{g(x^0)}{1 - sg(x^0)}, \end{cases}$$

where  $x^0 \in \mathbf{R}$ ,  $s \ge 0$ , provided the denominator is not zero.

Fix a point  $x_1, x_2 \in U$ . We select s > 0 and  $x^0 \in \mathbf{R}$  so that  $(x_1, x_2) = (x^1(s), x^2(s)) = (x^0 + s, s)$ ; that is,  $x^0 = x_1 - x_2$ ,  $s = x_2$ . Then

$$u(x_1, x_2) = u(x^1(s), x^2(s))$$

$$= z(s)$$

$$= \frac{g(x^0)}{1 - sg(x^0)}$$

$$= \frac{g(x_1 - x_2)}{1 - x_2g(x_1 - x_2)}$$

This solution of course make sense only if  $1 - x_2 g(x_1 - x_2) \neq 0$ .

#### F fully nonlinear

In the general case, the full characteristic equations (2.7) must be integrated, if possible.

**Example 2.8.** Consider the fully nonlinear problem

$$\begin{cases} u_{x_1} u_{x_2} = u & \text{on } U \\ u = x_2^2 & \text{on } \Gamma \end{cases}$$
 (2.15)

where  $U = \{x_1 > 0\}$ ,  $\Gamma = \{x_1 = 0\} = \partial U$ . Here  $F(p, z, x) = p_1 p_2 - z$ , and hence the characteristic ODEs (2.7) become

$$\begin{cases} (\dot{p}^1, \dot{p}^2) = (p^1, p^2) \\ \dot{z} = 2p^1p^2 \\ (\dot{x}^1, \dot{x}^2) = (p^2, p^1). \end{cases}$$

We integrate these equations to find

$$\begin{cases} (x^1, x^2)(s) = (p_2^0(e^s - 1), p_1^0(e^s - 1)) \\ z(s) = z^0 + p_1^0 p_2^0(e^{2s} - 1) \\ (p^1, p^2)(s) = (p_1^0 e^s, p_2^0 e^s), \end{cases}$$

where  $x^0 \in \mathbf{R}$ ,  $s \in \mathbf{R}$ , and  $z^0 = (x^0)^2$ .

We must determine  $p^0 = (p_1^0, p_2^0)$ . Since  $u = x_2^2$  on  $\Gamma$ ,  $p_2^0 = u_{x_2}(0, x^0) = 2x^0$ . Furthermore the PDE  $u_{x_1}u_{x_2} = u$  itself implies  $p_1^0p_2^0 = z^0 = (x^0)^2$ , and so  $p_1^0 = x^2/2$ . Consequently the formulas above become

$$\begin{cases} (x^1, x^2)(s) = (2x^9(e^s - 1), x^0(e^s + 1)/2) \\ z(s) = (x^0)^2 e^{2s} \\ (p^1, p^2)(s) = (x^0 e^s / 2, 2x^0 e^s). \end{cases}$$

Fix a point  $(x_1, x_2) \in U$ . Select s and  $x^0$  so that

$$(x_1, x_2) = (x^1(s), x^2(s)) = (2x^0(e^s - 1), x^0(e^s + 1)/2).$$

This equality implies  $x^0 = (4x_2 - x_1)/4$ ,  $e^s = (x_1 + 4x_2)/(4x_2 - x_1)$ ; and so

$$u(x_1, x_2) = u(x^1(s), x^2(s))$$
$$= \frac{(x_1 + 4x_2)^2}{16}.$$

#### 2.4 Boundary conditions

#### Straightening the boundary

We intend in the following section to invoke the characteristic ODE (2.7) to actually solve the boundary-value problem (2.4), (2.5), at least in a small region near an appropriate portion  $\Gamma$  of  $\partial U$ . In order to simplify the relevant calculations, it is convenient first fix any point  $x^0 \in \partial U$ . Then utilizing the notation from the appendix §C.1 of [3], we find smooth mappings  $\Phi, \Psi \colon \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$  such that  $\Psi = \Phi^{-1}$  and  $\Phi$  straightens  $\partial U$  near  $x^0$ .

Given a function  $u: U \to \mathbf{R}$ , let us write  $V := \Phi(U)$  and set

$$v(y) := u(\Psi(y)) \qquad y \in V. \tag{2.16}$$

Then

$$u(x) = v(\mathbf{\Phi}(x)) \qquad x \in U. \tag{2.17}$$

Now suppose that u is a  $C^1$  solution of our boundary-value problem (2.4), (2.5) in U. What PDE does v then satisfy in V?

According to (2.17), we have

$$u_{x_i}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n v_{y_k}(\mathbf{\Phi}(x)) \Phi_{x_i}^k(x)$$

i.e.,

$$Du(x) = Dv(y)D\Phi(x).$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= F \big( Du(x), u(x), x \big) \\ &= F \big( Dv(y), D \Phi \big( \Psi(y) \big), v(y), \Psi(y) \big) \end{aligned}$$

## Algebraic Geometry

A summary to a course on an introduction to sheaf cohomology. We will mostly reference Donu's notes available here https://www.math.purdue.edu/~dvb/classroom.html, but also cite Ravi Vakil's Fundamentals of Algebraic Geometry [10] available here https://math216.wordpress.com/.

#### 3.1 The statement of de Rham's theorem

These are almost verbatim Arapura's notes on the de Rham Complex and cohomology.

Before doing anything fancy, let's start at the beginning. Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  be an open set. In calculus class, we learn about operations

$$\{ \text{ functions } \} \xrightarrow{\nabla} \{ \text{ vector fields } \} \xrightarrow{\nabla \times} \{ \text{ vector fields } \} \xrightarrow{\nabla} \{ \text{ functions } \}$$

such that  $(\nabla \times)(\nabla) = 0$  and  $(\nabla \cdot)(\nabla \times) = 0$ . This is a prototype for a *complex*. An obvious question: does  $\nabla \times v = 0$  imply that v is a gradient? Answer: sometimes yes (e.g. if  $U = \mathbf{R}^3$ ) and sometimes no (e.g. if  $U = \mathbf{R}^3$  minus a line).

# Algebraic Topology

From my meetings with Mark. We reference Hatcher's *Algebraic Topology* [6] freely available here https://www.math.cornell.edu/~hatcher/#ATI.

### 4.1 Cohomology

# Group Theory and Differential Equations

This is a summary of Kuga's Galois' Dream: Group Theory and Differential Equations book.

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