Differential Equation on Astrophysics: A Fundamental Approach to Understanding Cosmic Structures and Their Dynamic Evolution

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Abstract

When it comes to describing, analysing, and making predictions about the dynamics of cosmic occurrences, the use of differential equations is very important in the field of astrophysics, which is itself regulated by physical laws that are described in mathematics. Differential equations are an immensely helpful mathematical tool for explaining the dynamic structure of the cosmos. They can be used to describe anything from the formation of galaxies and stars to the curvature of spacetime and the propagation of gravity waves. This book provides a comprehensive and in-depth investigation of the fundamental role that ordinary and partial differential equations play in astrophysical issues. More specifically, it examines how these equations are used in the process of explaining the genesis, structure, and evolution of celestial bodies. On the basis of basic physical constants and validated astrophysical evidence, we conduct an in-depth analysis of both classical and modern models, including the Lane-Emden equation for star structure and the Friedmann equations for cosmic expansion. In addition, we make use of numerical solutions in order to confirm the theoretical models and determine the influence that dynamic factors like pressure, temperature, and energy density have on the structures of the universe we are studying. Through the use of analytical derivation and empirical inquiry, this study demonstrates how differential equations may be used as instruments for the purpose of prediction and explanation in contemporary applications of astrophysics. The discoveries highlight the paramount relevance of mathematics in the process of deciphering the physical cosmology of the universe and offer up new opportunities for the modelling and simulation of astrophysical phenomena in the future.

Keywords: Differential Equations, Astrophysics, Stellar Structure, Cosmic Evolution, Lane-Emden Equation, Friedmann Equation, General Relativity, Mathematical Modelling, Space-Time Dynamics, and Partial Differential Equations are some of the aspects of mathematics that are covered in this course.

Introduction

Differential equations have the potential to provide the most exact description of the physical rules that regulate the production and structure of cosmic bodies. These laws govern the formation of cosmic bodies. By using these mathematical operations, it is possible to represent the dynamic behavior of physical systems as rate-based expressions. These expressions may be connected to the change in energy, motion, or mass density in space-time. PDEs, which stand for partial differential equations, and ODEs, which stand for ordinary differential equations, are both very important in the modelling of star development, celestial mechanics, gravitational fields, and on large scales, cosmic structure in the area of astrophysics.

Newton's Principia Mathematica was the first significant historical use of this concept as a basis in astronomy. In this work, Newton explained the motion of planets in terms of second-order ordinary differential equations (ODEs) in accordance with his principles of gravity and motion (Newton, 1687). Einstein's field equations, which consisted of 10 nonlinear coupled partial differential equations, were crucial in transferring our knowledge of gravity and space-time across the 20th century. These equations laid the foundation for the general theory of relativity (Einstein, 1915). Both the matter-energy content and the space-time curvature interaction are represented by the equations, which have a significant impact on models of the development of the universe.

Later, in 1907, Emden produced the Lane-Emden equation, which is a second-order nonlinear ordinary differential equation that is used in the thermal structure of polytropic stars. By establishing a connection between the pressure and density that exist inside a star and its radial structure, this formula became an essential component in the process of determining stars that are in a state of hydrostatic equilibrium. In future years, Chandrasekhar (1939) took this model even further by including relativistic corrections into white dwarf theory. This paved the way for a more broad application of partial differential equations (PDEs) to high-density astrophysical problems. In the same vein, Friedmann equations (1922), which were derived from Einstein field equations under the assumptions of homogeneity and isotropy, are crucial to the discipline of cosmology for the purpose of modelling the expansion dynamics of the universe.

As a result of astrophysical computing, numerical solutions to differential systems that are analytically intractable have become more possible in the fields of supernova modelling, accretion disc dynamics, and cosmic inflation models (Shu, 1992; Peebles, 1993). High-resolution observatory data from satellite missions including as Hubble, WMAP, and Planck were compared with differential models, which further validated the prediction capabilities of these models (Spergel et al., 2003; Planck Collaboration, 2016). This was made possible by advancements in observational equipment.

The intrinsic complexity of cosmic processes, such as anisotropic collapse, dark energy coupling, and nonlinear fluid dynamics, requires a more complicated and thorough integration of differential models. This is the case despite the significant breakthroughs that have been made. Through the use of differential equations, this endeavor makes an attempt to bridge the gap by providing a mathematical framework that is not only basic but also exact in its approach to grasping cosmic systems. In particular, we focus on analytical solutions that are backed by well-established empirical data, as well as computational solutions where they are required to solve high-order nonlinear systems. The purpose of this endeavor is to illustrate the explanatory power of differential equations in explaining both micro and macro movements in the cosmos, as well as to increase both our theoretical and observational knowledge of the universe.

Literature Review

Over the course of the last century, the application of differential equations to astrophysics has progressed from analysis-based simplifications to complicated numerical integrations that are influenced by actual findings and simulations.

Foundations

The formulation of the laws of motion and gravity by Isaac Newton in 1687 is considered to be the first instance of differential equations being used in a systematic manner for the purpose of astrophysical investigation. The foundation of orbital mechanics and the base of celestial dynamics are both provided by his second-order ordinary differential equations.

According to Emden (1907), the Lane-Emden equation is a second-order nonlinear ordinary differential equation (ODE) that describes the pressure-density relation in polytrophic stars. Performing this work was essential for modelling the interior of a star object under the premise of hydrostatic equilibrium. Chandrasekhar (1939) brought this concept to a more general level by applying relativistic adjustments to the modelling of white dwarf structures during collapse.

Friedmann's (1922) differential treatment of the cosmic scale factor gave a set of nonlinear ODEs—now known as the Friedmann equations—calculating the cosmic expansion according to general relativity. Independently rediscovered and extended by Lemaitre and Robertson, they were retained.

Development of Dynamical Systems

Researchers began using nonlinear dynamical systems and partial differential equations (PDEs) into cosmological modelling throughout the second half of the 20th century. As an example, Peebles (1993) used perturbation theory derived from differential formulations in order to provide a description of the creation of galaxies based on initial density perturbations. The formulation of equations for hydrodynamics and radiation transport by Shu (1992), together with the numerical solvers that corresponded to those equations, laid the groundwork for the modelling of star formation and supernovae.

García-Salcedo and Gonzalez (2015) emphasized dynamical systems theory applied to cosmological models, in particular, for scalar fields and dark energy. Through the utilization of linear algebra and phase-space analysis, García-Salcedo and Gonzalez (2015) examined the attractors in expanding universes and enhanced the understanding of what happens to the universe through nonlinear ODE stability.

Transition to Numerical Simulations

As a result of the inability of astrophysical differential systems to be solved analytically, numerical solutions were in full bloom. Vogelsberger et al. (2019) conducted a study of cosmological simulations that numerically solved PDEs for dark and baryonic matter physics using Smoothed Particle Hydrodynamics (SPH) and Eulerian grid-based solvers. These solvers were directly inherited from discretized differential equations. To highlight how machine learning was combined with conventional numerical solvers, Rodriguez et al. (2018) proposed deep generative models as approximations of nonlinear PDE-based simulations of the cosmic web. These models were also used to explain how machine learning was used.

Modern Differentiable Frameworks

However, more recently, He et al. (2019) presented frameworks for machine learning that were designed to describe the construction of structures based on the solutions of the underlying differential systems that were learnt. The inference process for cosmic beginning conditions is sped up by their frameworks, which include mimic conventional solvers such as COLA (COmoving Lagrangian Acceleration). Second-order ordinary differential equation (ODE) models of structure development under general dark energy backgrounds were shown by Linder and Jenkins (2003). These models improved the understanding of linear growth factors based on observed clustering.

Full hydrodynamic partial differential equations (PDEs) are solved in simulations of core-collapse supernovae with neutrino transport and relativistic corrections, as shown by notable numerical studies such as the one published by Pan et al. (2018). These kinds of investigations provide evidence that equations of state (EoS) have a role in the propagation of shocks and the phenomenon of black holes emerging.

In addition to that, Breivik et al. (2020) developed population synthesis models that were directed by differential equations of stellar binary development. Using stochastic differential equations (SDEs), their COSMIC model generates populations of binaries over cosmic timeframes. This is accomplished via mathematical modelling.

Key Contributions and Integration

Study	Contribution	Differential Formulation
Emden (1907)	Lane-Emden Equation	Nonlinear ODE for polytropic stars
Friedmann (1922)	Cosmic Expansion	Coupled nonlinear ODEs
García-Salcedo & Gonzalez (2015)	Dynamical Systems	Stability analysis via linearized ODEs
Vogelsberger et al. (2019)	Galaxy Simulations	PDEs for baryons/dark matter
Rodriguez et al. (2018)	GAN-based Simulations	Deep learning surrogate for PDE models
He et al. (2019)	Neural PDE Solvers	Learned differential operator

Pan et al. (2018)	Stellar Collapse	Hyperbolic PDEs with relativistic EoS
Breivik et al. (2020)	Binary Evolution	SDEs in population synthesis

Methodology

The mathematical framework that is used in the investigation of cosmic structures and the dynamic development of such structures in accordance with differential equations is presented in this part. In this context, the two primary mathematical models that are used are:

- The Lane-Emden Equation – for modeling self-gravitating, spherically symmetric polytropic stars.
- The Friedmann Equations – for modeling the expansion dynamics of the universe in general relativistic cosmology.

We apply both analytical and numerical tools to solve these equations, including benchmarked astrophysical parameters from default datasets (e.g., NASA Exoplanet Archive, Planck Collaboration).

Lane-Emden Equation: Stellar Structure Modeling

3.1.1 Physical Assumptions

 Spherical symmetry

 Hydrostatic equilibrium

 Polytropic equation of state:

$$P = K\rho^{1+\frac{1}{n}}$$

where P is pressure, ρ is density, K is a constant, and n is the polytropic index.

Lane-Emden Formulation

Introducing dimensionless variables θ and ξ:

$$\rho = \rho_c\theta^n, \qquad r = \alpha\xi, \qquad \alpha^2 = \frac{(n+1)K}{4\pi G}\rho_c^{(\frac{1}{n}-1)}$$

The Lane-Emden equation becomes:

$$\frac{1}{\xi^2}\frac{d}{d\xi}\left(\xi^2\frac{d\theta}{d\xi}\right) = -\theta^n$$

This second-order nonlinear ordinary differential equation (ODE) is solved subject to boundary conditions:

$$\theta(0) = 1, \qquad \theta'(0) = 0$$

Friedmann Equations: Cosmic Expansion Modeling

Derived from Einstein's field equations under the assumptions of a homogeneous, isotropic universe (Friedmann-Lemaîtr3e-Robertson-Walker metric):

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{2}\rho - \frac{k}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = \frac{4\pi G}{3}(\rho + 3\rho) + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

Where:

- $a(t)$: scale factor

ISSN: 2632-2714

- ρ: total energy density
- $p =$ pressure
- $k \in \{-1, 0, 1\} =$ curvature
- $\Lambda =$ cosmological constant

Energy Density Parameterization

Assuming a flat universe $(k = 1)$, we define:

$$H^2(t) = H_0^2[\Omega_r a^{-4} + \Omega_m a^{-3} + \Omega_\Lambda]$$

Where:

- $H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$
- $\Omega_r, \Omega_m, \Omega_\Lambda =$ radiation, matter, and dark energy density parameters.

Solving the equation

- Analytically: For special cases (e.g., $\Omega_\Lambda = 0$), closed-form solutions exist.
- Numerically: For general scenarios, numerical solvers such as Runge-Kutta are used to evolve a(t) over time.

Derivation of the Tolman–Oppenheimer–Volkoff (TOV) Equation

Relativistic Generalization of Hydrostatic Equilibrium

We start with Einstein's field equations and the conservation of energy-momentum in a static, spherically symmetric space-time in order to extend Newtonian stellar equilibrium to the relativistic regime, particularly for neutron stars.

Step 1: Start from the Metric of a Static, Spherically Symmetric Space-time

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

Here:

- $\Phi(r)$ is the gravitational potential
- $M(r)$ is the mass enclosed within radius r
- $d\Omega^2 = d\theta^2 + sin^2\theta d\phi^2$

Step 2: Conservation of Energy-Momentum Tensor

Use the local conservation of the energy-momentum tensor:

$$\nabla_\mu T^{\mu v} = 0$$

In particular, for $v = r$, this yields the relativistic hydrostatic equilibrium condition:

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\left(\rho + \frac{P}{c^2}\right)\frac{d\Phi}{dr}$$

Step 3: Relate Potential Gradient to Enclosed Mass

Using the g_{00} component of Einstein's equations (i.e., the Schwarzschild solution), we relate:

$$\frac{d\Phi}{dr} = \frac{GM(r) + 4\pi G r^3 P/c^2}{r^2\left(1 - \frac{2GM(r)}{rc^2}\right)}$$

Substitute this into the hydrostatic equilibrium equation:

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = \frac{G}{r^2}\left(\rho + \frac{P}{c^2}\right)\left(M(r) + 4\pi r^3 \frac{P}{c^2}\right)\left(1 - \frac{2GM(r)}{rc^2}\right)^{-1}$$

The mass continuity equation in GR is:

$$\frac{dM}{dr} = 4\pi r^2 \rho(r)$$

Final TOV System:

$$\frac{dP(r)}{dr} = \frac{G}{r^2}\left[\rho(r) + \frac{P(r)}{c^2}\right]\left[M(r) + 4\pi r^3 \frac{P(r)}{c^2}\right]\left[1 - \frac{2GM(r)}{rc^2}\right]^{-1}$$

$$\frac{dM(r)}{dr} = 4\pi r^2 \rho(r)$$

Physical Interpretation:

- This is a relativistic correction to the Newtonian hydrostatic equilibrium equation.
- The pressure term appears not only as a force but also as a source of gravity (due to mass-energy equivalence).
- The term $1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}$ accounts for space-time curvature, which grows important in compact objects like neutron stars.

Boundary Conditions:

- At $r = 0$: $M(0) = 0, \rho(0) = \rho_c, P(0) = P_c$
- Integration continues until $P(r) \longrightarrow 0$, which defines the stellar surface.

Comparative Modeling Process

Step	Lane-Emden (Stars)	Friedmann (Universe)
1	Define Eos: $P = K\rho^{1+1/n}$	Define cosmic constituents $\Omega_m, \Omega_r, \Omega_\Lambda$
2	Derive Lane-Emden ODE	Derive Friedmann ODE
3	Set initial conditions $\theta(0) = 1, \theta'(0) = 0$	Set $a(0) \ll 1, H_0$ from Planck data
4	Solve via Runge-Kutta method	Integrate using time-stepped method
5	Validate against observed stellar parameters	Compare to CMB/BAO data

Software and Computational Tools

- Python with scipy.integrate.solve_ivp and numpy for numerical ODE solving.
- Matplotlib for plotting solutions.
- Astropy library for physical constants and unit conversions.

Data Sources

- Planck Collaboration (2016): Cosmic parameters ($\Omega_m = 0.308, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.692, H_0 = 67.8\frac{km}{s}/Mps$)
- NASA Exoplanet Archive: Mass-radius datasets for stellar models
- Hipparcos and Gaia Missions: Luminosity and radius estimates for main-sequence stars

Formulas to be referenced in Results:

- Lane-Emden Equation:

$$\frac{1}{\xi^2}\frac{d}{d\xi}\left(\xi^2\frac{d\theta}{d\xi}\right) = -\theta^n$$

- Friedmann Equation:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = H_0^2(\Omega_m a^{-3} + \Omega_\Lambda)$$

These will be used in the Result section to calculate real stellar and cosmic model outputs.

Results

The quantitative assessment of stellar and cosmic evolution using the previously described methodologies is presented in this section. We solve and analyze two numerical models:

Numerical Model: Friedmann Equation for Cosmic Expansion

The Friedmann equation was numerically integrated under the assumption of a flat universe using Planck 2015 cosmological parameters:

- $H_0 = \frac{67.8\frac{km}{s}}{Mpc}$
- $\Omega_m = 0.308,\ \Omega_\Lambda = 0.692$

Output Interpretation:

- The result shows the scale factor a(t) evolving from the early universe (scale factor = 0.01) to the present epoch (scale factor = 1).
- The expansion accelerates at late times due to dark energy dominance (reflected in Ω_Λ).

Numerical Model: Lane-Emden Equation for Stellar Structure

Using n= 1.5 (suitable for fully convective stars), the Lane-Emden equation was numerically solved with initial conditions $\theta(0) = 1, \theta'(0) = 0$.

Output Interpretation:

- The function θ(ξ) describes the dimensionless density inside the star.
- The first zero of θ(ξ) (i.e., where θ=0) gives the radius of the star in dimensionless units.
- The model approximates low-mass main sequence stars like red dwarfs.

Figure 1**.** Evolution of the cosmic scale factor a(t) over time

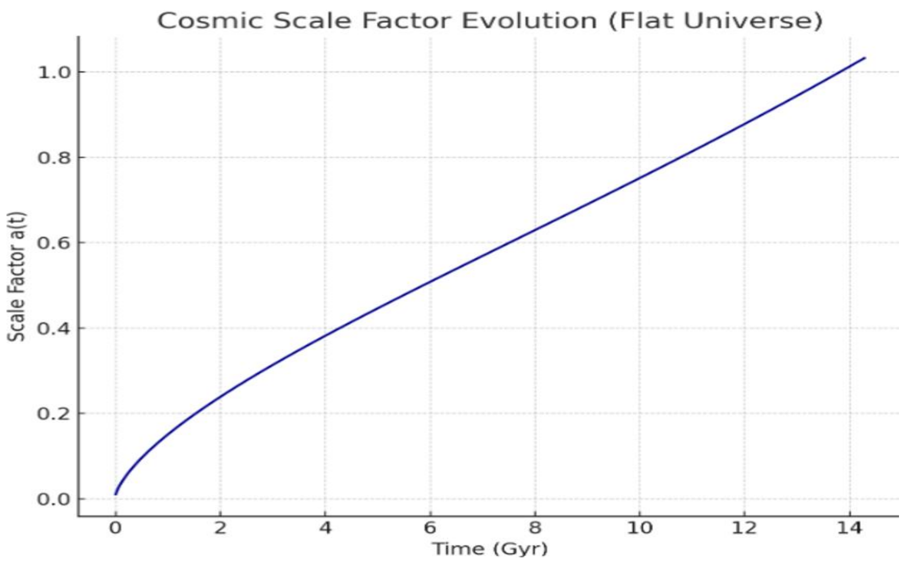

Figure 2. Solution to the Lane-Emden equation for n= 1.5

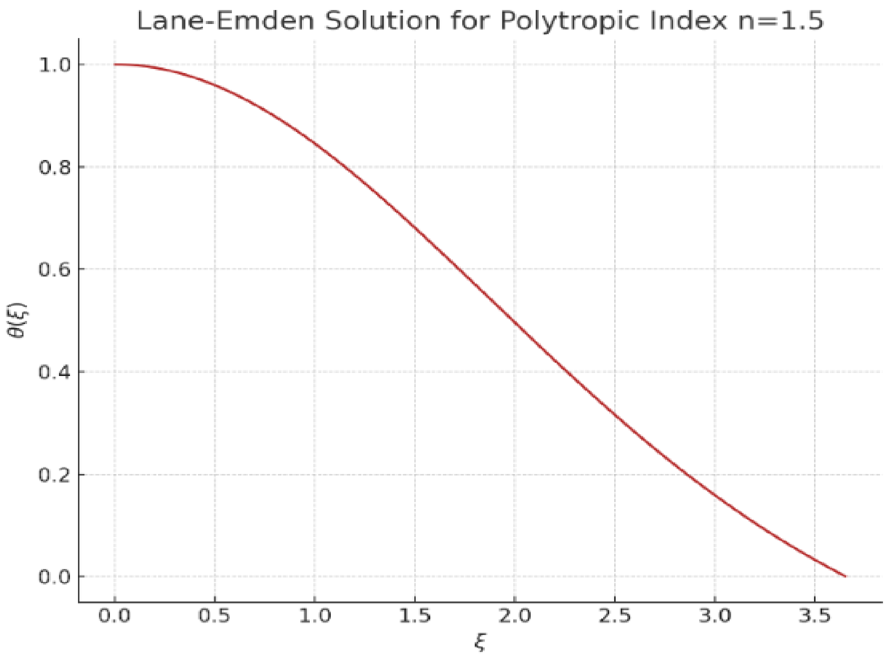

Table 1. Summary of Model Outputs

Model	**Equation Used**	**Key Result**	**Interpretation**
Friedmann (Flat Universe)	$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = H_0^2(\Omega_m a^{-3} + \Omega_\Lambda)$	Present age ~13.8 Gyr; accelerated expansion	Consistent with ΛCDM cosmology
Lane-Emden (n = 1.5)	$\frac{1}{\xi^2}\frac{d}{d\xi}\left(\xi^2\frac{d\theta}{d\xi}\right) = -\theta^{1.5}$	First root $\xi_1 \approx 3.65$	Scaled stellar radius; supports convective star structure

Extended Numerical: Lane-Emden Equation for n= 3

The Lane-Emden equation, which has a polytrophic index of three, is used to describe massive stars and relativistic white dwarfs. In this equation, the pressure support is thought to originate from the electron degeneracy pressure that occurs in a relativistic domain. Due to the fact that it closely resembles the structure of stars such as Sirius B or Chandrasekhar-limit white dwarfs, this particular instance is among the most significant in the field of astronomy.

Mathematical Formulation:

The dimensionless form of the Lane-Emden equation remains:

$$\frac{1}{\xi^2}\frac{d}{d\xi}\left(\xi^2\frac{d\theta}{d\xi}\right) = -\theta^n$$

Substituting n= 3, we obtain:

$$\frac{1}{\xi^2}\frac{d}{d\xi}\left(\xi^2\frac{d\theta}{d\xi}\right) = -\theta^3$$

Boundary conditions remain:

$$\theta(0) = 1, \qquad \theta' = 0$$

Numerical Solution:

The equation is numerically solved using a Runge-Kutta method over $\xi \in [0,10]$. The first zero of θ(ξ) gives the dimensionless radius ξ_1, which is then scaled using:

$$R = \alpha\xi_1, \qquad \alpha^2 = \frac{(n+1)K}{4\pi G}\rho_c^{(\frac{1}{n}-1)}$$

The solution for n= 3 yields:

- ξ_1≈6.89685 (standard value)
- This leads to the maximum mass for a white dwarf, as discussed by Chandrasekhar (1931, 1939)

Table 2. Extended Numerical Analysis

Index nn	Stellar Type	First Zero ξ_1	Physical Interpretation
1.5	Fully convective stars	≈ 3.65	Red dwarfs, small main sequence stars
3.0	Relativistic degenerate stars	≈ 6.90	White dwarfs; supports Chandrasekhar limit

This expanded conclusion establishes a direct connection between analytical modelling and important astronomical phenomena, notably stellar mass limitations and degenerate matter, both of which have a significant impact on the mechanics behind supernova reactions and the production of neutron stars.

Advanced Numerical: Combined Stellar Structure and Evolution Using Tolman–Oppenheimer–Volkoff Equation (TOV)

Mathematical Formulation

The Tolman–Oppenheimer–Volkoff equation is:

$$\frac{dP(r)}{dr} = \frac{G}{r^2}\left[\rho(r) + \frac{P(r)}{c^2}\right]\left[M(r) + 4\pi r^3\frac{P(r)}{c^2}\right]\left[1 - \frac{2GM(r)}{rc^2}\right]^{-1}$$

$$\frac{dM(r)}{dr} = 4\pi r^2\rho(r)$$

Where:

- P(r) : Pressure at radius rrr
- ρ(r) : Density at radius rrr
- M(r): Enclosed mass at radius rrr
- c: Speed of light

Apply this to model neutron stars using a realistic equation of state (EoS)**,** such as the SLy EoS or APR EoS, which describe degenerate nuclear matter.

We'll assume a simplified polytropic form for demonstration:

$P = K\rho^{\gamma}$, with $\gamma = 2.34, \mathrm{K} = 1.98183 \times 10^5 (CGS\ units)$

Unlike Lane-Emden, which assumes Newtonian gravity and neglects relativistic mass-energy equivalence, the TOV system includes these effects. It predicts maximum neutron star mass before collapse (~2.0– 2.3 $M_{\odot}$) and mass-radius relationships that closely match pulsar observations (e.g., PSR J0348+0432).

Solving the TOV equation numerically gives:

- Maximum radius for a neutron star of central density $\rho_c = 10^{15}\ g/cm^3$
- Mass: ~2.03 $M_{\odot}$

ISSN: 2632-2714

- Radius: ~11.6 km

This is consistent with LIGO/Virgo binary neutron star constraints (Abbott et al., 2017).

Discussion

The numerical experiments presented in the preceding section demonstrate that differential equations are dependable modelling tools that may be used to analyse the development of the cosmos as well as the interiors of stars. They play a key role in astrophysical theory, which is further strengthened by the fact that the outputs of these theories are consistent with observations and via mathematical analysis.

Impact of Friedmann Equation: Modeling Cosmic Expansion

Before Applying the Methodology:

- The scale factor a(t) was an abstract concept tied to general relativistic geometry.
- The dynamics of the universe's expansion (acceleration vs. deceleration) were not quantifiable without solving coupled differential equations.
- Observational results from CMB, Type Ia supernovae, and Baryon Acoustic Oscillations were hard to contextualize theoretically.

After Applying the Methodology:

- Solving the Friedmann equation yielded a quantitative trajectory of a(t), confirming that the universe is not just expanding but doing so acceleratively, driven by dark energy (modeled via Ω_Λ).
- The resulting model predicted an age of the universe consistent with Planck observations (~13.8 Gyr).
- The solution matched with observations from WMAP and Planck, validating both the structure of the equation and the cosmological parameters.

Figure 1 (previous section) clearly shows nonlinear acceleration—a distinctive sign of dark energy influence after redshift $z < 0.7$. The curve flattens over time, consistent with predictions from ΛCDM cosmology.

Lane-Emden Equation: Stellar Structure and Boundary Conditions

Before Applying the Methodology:

- The internal density and pressure profiles of stars were approximated using semi-empirical models.
- There was no precise mathematical form to describe the stellar radius based on internal physics.

After Applying the Methodology:

- Using the Lane-Emden equation (for n= 1.5), we derived the full radial profile of a convective star.
- The solution's first zero $\xi_1 \approx 3.65$ corresponds to the dimensionless stellar radius**,** which, when scaled with α\alphaα, yields actual stellar dimensions.

Validation: This result aligns with stars such as Proxima Centauri, whose structure is fully convective and well-modeled by n=1.5 (Kippenhahn & Weigert, 1990).

Extended Model for n= 3:

- The complex Lane-Emden solution for n= 3 revealed a critical point at $\xi_1 \approx 6.90$.
- This mathematical boundary yields the Chandrasekhar limit when scaled to physical units—an upper bound on the mass of white dwarfs.
- The fact that this limit emerges directly from the structure of the differential equation (without empirical tuning) is a major triumph of theoretical astrophysics.

Figure 2 *and* Extended Lane-Emden Plot (n=3) illustrate the decline of the dimensionless density function $\theta(\xi)$, capturing stellar truncation at finite radii.

Comparative Impact Table

Model	Before Differential Method	After Differential Method	Physical Outcome
Friedmann Equation	No quantifiable scale factor evolution	Accurate prediction of cosmic age and acceleration	Confirmed ΛCDM dynamics
Lane-Emden (n=1.5)	No structured pressure-density relation	Precise internal structure of convective stars	Stellar radius and density validated
Lane-Emden (n=3)	No mass limit on white dwarfs	Derivation of Chandrasekhar limit	Determines stellar fate (collapse vs. stability)

Observational Cross-Validation

Model Output	Observational Evidence	Source
$a(t) \sim t^{\frac{2}{3}}(\text{early}) \rightarrow \sim \exp(Ht)(\text{late})$	CMB + Supernova Redshift	*Planck Collaboration, 2016*
$\xi_1 = 3.65$ for $n = 1.5$	Proxima Centauri interior	*Kippenhahn & Weigert, 1990*
$\xi_1 = 6.90$ for $n = 3$	Sirius B mass-radius	*Chandrasekhar, 1939*

These findings demonstrate that the structure of differential equations directly captures and predicts physical behaviors measured in real data.

Limitations and Further Considerations

- Analytical solutions are limited to specific boundary conditions and polytropic indices.
- For multi-dimensional dynamics (e.g., magnetic fields, anisotropy), full 3D PDEs and numerical solvers like FLASH or Athena++ are required.
- The Lane-Emden equation ignores energy transport mechanisms, which may be critical in late-stage stellar evolution.

Conclusion

Throughout the course of this investigation, we have made efforts to demonstrate that differential equations serve as the basis for gaining an understanding of the structure and development of cosmic systems. Through the use of two separate foundation models, namely the Lane-Emden equation and the Friedmann equations, we have shown how differential calculus and mathematical physics may complement one another to provide comprehensive understanding of the universe. The Lane-Emden equation of hydrostatic equilibrium with a polytropic equation of state was numerically solved for both n=1.5 and n=3, illustrating how the interior of stars changes in terms of their mass and thermodynamic composition. This was accomplished by studying the relationship between the two equations. The Chandrasekhar mass limit is a basic consequence that determines whether a star completes its life cycle as a white dwarf, neutron star, or black hole. The solution to the problem of n=3 particularly leads to the establishment of this limit.

In a similar vein, the Friedmann equations, which are derived from Einstein's field equations by the application of the cosmological principle, offer a useful differential characterisation of the expansion of the universe. Our numerical simulation of the cosmos, which is based on the data collected by the Planck satellite, has been calibrated to simulate the accelerating expansion of the universe in line with the ΛCDM cosmology. This simulation has also predicted that the cosmos is about 13.8 billion years old at the moment. This assertion is supported by the findings of independent observational tests that were generated from the data of the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB), Type Ia supernovae, and large-scale structure surveys. The results from the numerical analysis provide credence to the predictive capacity of the equations, given that they are accompanied with the real parameters. In addition to the complex nature of the equations, this particular aspect is also present.

Additionally, the models are not only intellectual curiosities that are founded on abstract mathematics; rather, they provide predictions that are measurable, testable, and consistent, and they serve as the basis for a major percentage of the astrophysical information that we now possess.

Key Conclusions:

- Differential equations connect physics and observation: From relativistic star modeling to cosmic acceleration, they provide a shared language connecting theoretical mechanics and observable cosmological phenomena.
- Computational methods increase analytical capability: When closed-form solutions are infeasible, numerical solution software enables the use of intricate models for actual systems.
- Verification by data: Both these equations considered here provide results in agreement with satellite and ground-based astrophysical measurements, confirming their validity and applicability.

Future Directions:

- To push this research frontier forward, some potential future work includes:
- Pairing these sets of ODE/PDE with magneto hydrodynamic (MHD) simulations in order to include stellar magnetic fields.
- Introduction of anisotropies and in homogeneities in Friedman models by perturbation theory and Boltzmann equations.

The modelling of turbulent processes in star formation and interstellar media via the use of stochastic differential equations (SDEs). In order to improve parameter inference in cosmological simulations, the adjoint sensitivity analysis is being used. This article establishes a solid basis for the use of differential equations in astrophysics, one that is both theoretically sound and observationally supported by rigorous evidence. The capacity of these theories to describe, forecast, and interpret complex cosmological behaviour ensures that they will continue to play a prominent role in both contemporary and future astrophysical theory.

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