# <span id="page-0-0"></span>Lecture 5 Numerical Techniques: Numerical Differentiation and Integration Variable Force in One Dimension, Simple Pendulum

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#### <span id="page-2-0"></span>**Variable force in one dimension I**

• Consider the motion of a particle of mass *m* moving along the x-axis under the action of a force F.

Write Newton's second law  $(F = ma)$  in terms of velocity for a most general force **F(x,v,t)** *dv*  $\frac{dt}{dt}$  = *F*(*x*,*v*,*t*) *m dx*  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}$  = *v* (1)

- In principle, the functions  $v = v(t)$  and  $x = x(t)$  can be found by solving Equation [1](#page-2-1) for every *F*(*x*, *v*, *t*) function  $(i.e., constant acceleration for F = constant, or harmonic$ oscillating motion for  $F = -kx$ ).
- However, for more complex forces  $F(x, v, t)$  the analytical solution may not always be available.
- In this case, we will consider the numerical solution.

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#### **Variable force in one dimension II**

- We want to find the solutions of the Equation [1](#page-2-1) at the equally spaced times  $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_N$  and  $x_i$  and  $v_i$ .
- Write the velocity and position derivatives in the form of *forward-difference* derivative approximation. Take *dt* = *h* as step length, then:

$$
\frac{v_{i+1}-v_i}{h}=\frac{F(x,v,t)}{m}\longrightarrow v_{i+1}=v_i+\frac{F_i}{m}h
$$

$$
\frac{x_{i+1}-x_i}{h}=v_i\longrightarrow x_{i+1}=x_i+v_ih
$$

• By given initial velocity  $v_1$ , initial position  $x_1$  at the time  $t_1 = 0$  and the values for  $F_i = F(x_i, v_i, t_i)$ ; the values for  $v_i$ ,  $x_i$  can be calculated for  $i = 2.3, \ldots$  in a loop.

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# **Numerical Differentiation and Integration I**

- When the function is explicitly known, we can emulate the methods of calculus.
- If we are working with experimental data that are displayed in a table of [*x*, *f*(*x*)] pairs emulation of calculus is **impossible**.
	- We must *approximate* the function behind the data in some way.

### • **Differentiation with a Computer:**

- Employs the interpolating polynomials to derive formulas for getting derivatives.
- These can be applied to functions known explicitly as well as those whose values are found in a table.
- **Numerical Integration-The Trapezoidal Rule:**
	- Approximates, the integrand function with a *linear* interpolating polynomial to derive a very simple but important formula for numerically integrating functions between given limits.

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# **Numerical Differentiation and Integration II**

- We cannot often find the true answer numerically because the analytical value is the limit of the sum of an infinite number of terms.
- We must be satisfied with approximations for both derivatives and integrals but, for most applications, the **numerical answer is adequate**.
- The derivative of a function,  $f(x)$  at  $x = a$ , is defined as

$$
\frac{df}{dx}|_{x=a} = lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(a + \Delta x) - f(a)}{\Delta x}
$$

- This is called a *forward-difference* approximation.
- The limit could be approached from the opposite direction, giving a *backward-difference* approximation.

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#### <span id="page-6-0"></span>**Differentiation with a Computer I**

• **Forward-difference** approximation. A computer can calculate an approximation to the derivative, *if a very small value is used for* ∆*x*.

$$
\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=a} = \frac{f(a + \Delta x) - f(a)}{\Delta x}
$$

- Recalculating with smaller and smaller values of *x* starting from an initial value.
- What happens if the value is not small enough?
- We should expect to find an *optimal value* for *x*.
- Because round-off errors in the numerator will become great as *x* approaches zero.
- When we try this for

 $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$ 

at *x* = 1.9. **The analytical answer is 4.1653826.**

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#### **Differentiation with a Computer II**

#### Apply Forward-difference approximation to  $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$ . (**Example py-file:** [myforwardderivative.py\)](http://cemozdogan.net/ScientificComputingwithPython/pyfiles/myforwardderivative.py)



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**Table:** Forward-difference approximation for  $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$ .

#### **Differentiation with a Computer III**



**Figure:** Forward-difference approximation for  $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$ .

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### **Differentiation with a Computer IV**

- Starting with ∆*x* = 0.05 and halving ∆*x* each time. Table gives the results.
- We find that the errors of the approximation decrease as ∆*x* is reduced until about ∆*x* = 0.05/2097152.
- Notice that each successive error is about 1/2 of the previous error as ∆*x* is halved until ∆*x* gets quite small, **at which time round off affects the ratio**.
- At values for ∆*x* smaller than 0.05/2097152, the error of the approximation increases due to round off.
- In effect, the best value for ∆*x* is **when the effects of round-off and truncation errors are balanced**.
- If a backward-difference approximation is used; similar results are obtained.
- **Backward-difference** approximation.

$$
\left|\frac{df}{dx}\right|_{x=a} = \frac{f(a) - f(a - \Delta x)}{\Delta x}
$$

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#### **Differentiation with a Computer V**

#### Apply Backward-difference approximation to  $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$ . (**Example py-file:** [mybackwardderivative.py\)](http://cemozdogan.net/ScientificComputingwithPython/pyfiles/mybackwardderivative.py)



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**Table:** Backward-difference approximation for  $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$ .

#### **Differentiation with a Computer VI**



**Figure:** Backward-difference approximation for  $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$ .

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### **Differentiation with a Computer VII**

- It is not by chance that the errors are about **halved each time** for both forward- and backward-difference approximations.
- Look at this Taylor series where we have used *h* for ∆*x*:

$$
f(x+h) = f(x) + f'(x) * h + f''(\xi) * h^2/2
$$

- Where the last term is the error term. The value of  $\xi$  is at some point between  $x$  and  $x + h$ .
- If we solve this equation for  $f'(x)$ , we get

$$
f'(x) = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} - f''(\xi) * \frac{h}{2}
$$

• If we repeat this but begin with the Taylor series for  $f(x - h)$ , it turns out that

$$
f'(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x - h)}{h} + f''(\zeta) * \frac{h}{2}
$$
 (3)

- Where ζ is between *x* and *x* − *h*.
- The two error terms of Eqs. [2](#page-12-0) and [3](#page-12-1) are not identical though both are *O*(*h*).

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#### **Differentiation with a Computer VIII**

• If we add Eqs. [2](#page-12-0) and [3,](#page-12-1) then divide by 2, we get the *central-difference* approximation to the derivative:

$$
f'(x) = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x-h)}{2h} - f'''(\xi) * \frac{h^2}{6}
$$

- We had to extend the two Taylor series by an additional term to get the error **because the** *f* ′′(*x*) **terms cancel**.
- This shows that using a central-difference approximation is a much *preferred way* to estimate the derivative.
- Even though we use the same number of computations of the function at each step,
- We approach the answer **much more rapidly**.

$$
\left|\frac{df}{dx}\right|_{x=a}=\frac{f(x+h)-f(x-h)}{2h}
$$

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#### **Differentiation with a Computer IX**

#### Apply Central-difference approximation to  $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$ . (**Example py-file:** [mycentralderivative.py\)](http://cemozdogan.net/ScientificComputingwithPython/pyfiles/mycentralderivative.py)



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**Table:** Central-difference approximation for  $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$ .

#### **Differentiation with a Computer X**



**Figure:** Central-difference approximation for  $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$ .

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### **Variable force in one dimension III**

Apply Forward-difference approximation to Simple Harmonic Motion. (**Example py-file:** [shm.py\)](http://cemozdogan.net/ScientificComputingwithPython/pyfiles/shm.py)



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**Figure:** Time change of position and velocity in motion under the force F=-kx.

# <span id="page-17-0"></span>**Simple Pendulum I**



**Figure:** Simple pendulum.

• Since  $s = L\theta$ ,

• The motion of a simple pendulum, which consists of a point mass 
$$
m
$$
 suspended on the end of a rope of length  $L$ .

• Newton's second law for motion in the tangential direction:

$$
F = ma \longrightarrow -mgSin\theta = m\frac{d^2s}{dt^2}
$$

• Here s is the arc length and  $\theta$  is the angle the rope makes with the vertical (see Figure).

$$
\frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} = -\frac{g}{L}\sin\theta
$$

• This differential equation has no analytical solution.

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# **Simple Pendulum II**

• However, for small angle oscillations  $sin\theta \approx \theta$  is approximated:

<span id="page-18-0"></span>
$$
\frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} = -\frac{g}{L}\theta\tag{4}
$$

• This equation has a solution in terms of sinusoidal functions: 2π*t*

$$
\theta(t) = \theta_0 \cos \frac{2\pi t}{T}
$$

$$
\mathcal{T}=2\pi\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}
$$

- Here T is the period of the oscillation and  $\theta_0$  is the angular amplitude.
- This formula is small angle  $(\theta_0 \leq 15^\circ)$  amplitudes gives approximately good results.
- We want to find the exact solution of the pendulum problem **for each amplitude**  $\theta_0$  **numerically**.
- For this purpose, we will transform the problem into a numerical integral.

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$$
\frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}}\frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}}\frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}}
$$

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### **Simple Pendulum III**

• Let's multiply both sides of the equation [4](#page-18-0) by *d*θ/*dt* and rearrange:

$$
\frac{d\theta}{dt} \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} = -\frac{g}{L} sin\theta \frac{d\theta}{dt}
$$
\n
$$
\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \left[ \frac{d\theta}{dt} \right]^2 = -\frac{g}{L} \frac{d}{dt} cos\theta
$$

• If the indefinite integral is taken side by side,

$$
\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{d\theta}{dt}\right)^2 = \frac{g}{L}cos\theta + C
$$

- The initial velocity and angle values are used to determine the integration constant C.
	- If the pendulum is initially released from the maximum angle, its velocity will be zero.
	- So, if  $d\theta/dt = 0$  and  $\theta = \theta_0$  are substituted into the equation at time  $t = 0$ ,  $C = -(q/L)cos\theta_0$  is found.

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### **Simple Pendulum IV**

• If the constant C is put in place and the arrangement is made,

$$
\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \sqrt{\frac{2g}{L}(\cos\theta - \cos\theta_0)}
$$
  

$$
dt = \sqrt{\frac{L}{2g}} \frac{d\theta}{\sqrt{\cos\theta - \cos\theta_0}}
$$

• Integrating the right side of this expression from  $\theta = 0$  to the angle  $\theta = \theta_0$ , the left side will be one quarter of a period.

$$
\frac{7}{4} = \sqrt{\frac{L}{2g}} \int_0^{\theta_0} \frac{d\theta}{\sqrt{\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0}}
$$

*Thus, we have written the period formula as an integral.*

- For each given amplitude  $\theta_0$  we can calculate this integral numerically.
- However, since the value of the integrand diverges at the upper bound (for  $\theta = \theta_0$ ), it is necessary to do a **variable replacement** first.

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### **Simple Pendulum V**

- For this purpose, first, the identities  $cos\theta = 1 2sin^2(\theta/2)$ and  $cos\theta_0 = 1 - 2sin^2(\theta_0/2)$  are inserted in the denominator,
- and then with the variable change  $k = sin(\theta_0/2) = \frac{sin(\theta/2)}{sin\phi}$ , the integral becomes:

$$
\boxed{\mathit{T}=4\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}\int_{0}^{\pi/2} \frac{d\phi}{\sqrt{1-sin^{2}(\theta_{0}/2)sin^{2}\phi}}}
$$

- This integral whose denominator is never zero is known as an *elliptical integral of the first kind*.
- **There is no analytical solution.**

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### <span id="page-22-0"></span>**Numerical Integration - The Trapezoidal Rule I**

- Given the function, *f*(*x*), the **antiderivative** is a function  $F(x)$  such that  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .
- The definite integral

$$
\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)
$$

can be evaluated from the antiderivative.

• Still, there are functions that do not have an antiderivative expressible in terms of ordinary functions. Such as the function:  $f(x) = e^x / log(x)$ 

```
_1 from sympy import \star2 \times = symbols ('x')3 f = exp(x)/log(x)4 df = integrate (f, x) # Function derivative in symbolic form
5 print (df)\frac{1}{2} Integral (exp(x)/log(x), x)
```
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# **Numerical Integration - The Trapezoidal Rule II**

- Is there any way that the definite integral can be found when the antiderivative is unknown?
- We can do it numerically by using the **composite trapezoidal rule**
- The definite integral is the area between the curve of  $f(x)$ and the *x*-axis.
- That is the principle behind all numerical integration;



**Figure:** The trapezoidal rule.

- We divide the distance from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$  into **vertical strips** and add the areas of these strips.
- The strips are often made equal in widths but that is not always required.
- Approximate the curve with a sequence of straight lines.
- In effect, we slope the top of the strips to match with the curve as best we can.
- The gives us the *trapezoidal rule*. Figure illustrates this.

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#### **The Trapezoidal Rule II**

• It is clear that the area of the strip from  $x_i$  to  $x_{i+1}$  gives an approximation to the area under the curve:

$$
\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x) dx \approx \frac{f_i + f_{i+1}}{2} (x_{i+1} - x_i)
$$

- We will usually write  $h = (x_{i+1} x_i)$  for the width of the interval.
- Error term for the trapezoidal integration is

$$
Error = -(1/12)h^3f''(\xi) = O(h^3)
$$

- What happens, if we are getting the integral of a known function over a larger span of x-values, say, from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$ ?
- We subdivide [a,b] into *n* smaller intervals with ∆*x* = *h*, apply the rule to each subinterval, and add.

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#### <span id="page-25-0"></span>**The Composite Trapezoidal Rule I**

• This gives the **composite trapezoidal rule**;

$$
\int_a^b \approx \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{h}{2}(f_i + f_{i+1}) = \frac{h}{2}(f_0 + 2f_1 + 2f_2 + \ldots + 2f_{n-1} + f_n)
$$

• The error is not the local error  $O(h^3)$  but the global error, the sum of *n* local errors;

Global error = 
$$
\frac{-(b-a)}{12}h^2f''(\xi) = O(h^2)
$$

where  $nh = (b - a)$ 

- Use the trapezoidal rule to estimate the integral from  $x = 1.8$  to  $x = 3.4$  for  $f(x) = e^x$ .
- Applying the trapezoidal rule:

$$
\int_{1.8}^{3.4} f(x) dx \approx \frac{0.2}{2} [f(1.8) + 2f(2.0) + 2f(2.2) + 2f(2.4) + 2f(2.6) + 2f(2.8) + 2f(3.0) + 2f(3.2) + f(3.4)] = 23.9944
$$

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### **The Composite Trapezoidal Rule II**

Apply The trapezoidal rule to  $f(x) = e^x$  in interval of 1.8 and 3.4. (**Example py-file:** [mytrapezoid.py\)](http://cemozdogan.net/ScientificComputingwithPython/pyfiles/mytrapezoid.py)

Mytrapezoid: Integration is SciPy trapezoid: Integration is 23.9941143322614288 for the function Se^x\$ in interval of 1.800000 and 3.400000. 23.9146518697568169 for the function \$e^x\$ in interval of 1.800000 and 3.400000.



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**Figure:** Integration for  $f(x) = e^x$  by the trapezoidal rule.

#### <span id="page-27-0"></span>**Simple Pendulum VI**

#### Apply The trapezoidal rule to Simple Pendulum to find the period. (**Example py-file:** [simplependulum.py\)](http://cemozdogan.net/ScientificComputingwithPython/pyfiles/simplependulum.py)



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**Table:** Integration for -

1.0<br> $\sqrt{1.0 - (sin(θ) / 2)sin(φ)}$ 

by the trapezoidal rule.