Spring Term 2022 Numerical Analysis II

Problem Sheet 1

Problem 1.1 Simple Pendulum

(1.1a) A simple pendulum is one which can be considered to be a point mass suspended from a string or rod of negligible mass. Denote

- l =length of the rod/string in meters
- m = mass of the point mass in kilograms
- g = accelaration due to gravity $= 9.81007 m/s^2$ according to Wikipedia.



Figure 1.1: Simple pendulum

Using Newton's laws of motion, show that the angle $\theta(t)$, expressed as a function of time, satisfies the differential equation

$$\ddot{\theta} = -\frac{g\sin\theta}{l}.\tag{1.1.1}$$

Solution: Fix the coordinate system as shown in Figure 1.2. Let (x(t), y(t)) denote the position of the point mass at time t. By Newton's second law, we have that

$$\begin{cases} F_x = m \frac{\mathrm{d}^2 x}{\mathrm{d}t^2}, \\ F_y = m \frac{\mathrm{d}^2 y}{\mathrm{d}t^2}. \end{cases}$$



Figure 1.2: Coordinate system

Decomposing the forces acting on the mass gives the system

$$\begin{cases} F_x = mg - T\cos\theta, \\ F_y = -T\sin\theta. \end{cases}$$

Notice that (x, y) must obey the geometric constraints

$$\begin{cases} x = l\cos\theta, \\ y = l\sin\theta. \end{cases}$$

Taking the derivative of (x, y) with respect to t, we have

$$\begin{split} \dot{x} &= -l\sin\theta\dot{\theta},\\ \ddot{x} &= -l\cos\theta\dot{\theta}^2 - l\sin\theta\ddot{\theta},\\ \dot{y} &= l\cos\theta\dot{\theta},\\ \ddot{y} &= -l\sin\theta\dot{\theta}^2 + l\cos\theta\ddot{\theta}. \end{split}$$

Combining everything together, we reach

$$-m(l\cos\theta\dot{\theta}^2 + l\sin\theta\ddot{\theta}) = mg - T\cos\theta,$$
$$m(-l\sin\theta\dot{\theta}^2 + l\cos\theta\ddot{\theta}) = -T\sin\theta.$$

After eliminating T, the equation system becomes

$$ml(\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta)\ddot{\theta} = -mg\sin\theta,$$

that is

$$\ddot{\theta} = -\frac{g\sin\theta}{l}.\tag{1.1.2}$$

(1.1b) Write a Python script that solves your ODE for the initial conditions $\theta(0) = \pi/4$, $\dot{\theta}(0) = 0$. Plot the solution $\theta(t)$ for $t \in [0, 10]$.

HINT: You may need to convert the second-order ODE into first-order ODE system to use the ODE solver.

Solution:

```
import numpy as np
1
  from scipy.integrate import ode
2
  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
3
  def q():
5
      return 9.81007
6
  def l():
7
      return 1.0
8
  def fun(t, y):
9
      return np.array([y[1], - g() * np.sin(y[0])/1()])
10
  t0, t1 = 0, 10
                                      # start and end
11
  t = np.linspace(t0, t1, 100) # the points of
12
     evaluation of solution
  y0 = [np.pi/4, 0]
                                      # initial value
13
  y = np.zeros((len(t), len(y0))) # array for solution
14
  y[0, :] = y0
15
  r = ode(fun)
16
  r.set_initial_value(y0, t0)
                                # set initial values
17
  for i in range(1, t.size):
18
     y[i, :] = r.integrate(t[i])  # compute each time step
19
  plt.plot(t, y[:,0])
20
  plt.show()
21
```



Figure 1.3: Plot of $\theta(t)$, from simplependulum.py

(1.1c) Recall the Taylor expansion of $\sin \theta = \theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} + \dots$ Thus, if θ is small we can substitute $\sin \theta \approx \theta$ in our equation (1.1.1). Repeat the analysis of (1.1b) for the approximated

equation:

$$\ddot{\theta} = -\frac{g\theta}{l}.\tag{1.1.3}$$

Now, consider the case where $\theta(0) \approx \pi$, i.e. pendulum is almost inverted. If we let $\phi = \theta - \pi$ then we have that $\sin \theta = -\sin \phi = -\phi + \frac{\phi^3}{3!} - \frac{\phi^5}{5!} + \dots$ whenever $\phi \approx 0$.

Using a small angle approximation around π , solve the ODE and plot the solution in the case that $\theta(0) = 3\pi/4, \dot{\theta}(0) = 0$. What's wrong?

Solution: (1.1.3) is solved using simplependulumapprox.py, the solution is shown in Figure 1.4.

Listing	1.2:	simpl	ependu	luman	prox.pv
Listing	1.4.	Simpi	ependu	unnup	pron.py

```
import numpy as np
1
  from scipy.integrate import ode
2
  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
3
  def q():
5
      return 9.81007
6
  def l():
7
     return 1.0
8
  def fun(t, y):
9
      return np.array([y[1], - g() * y[0]/l()])
10
                                  # start and end
# the points of
 |t0, t1 = 0, 10|
11
 t = np.linspace(t0, t1, 100)
12
    evaluation of solution
y_0 = [np. pi/4, 0]
                                       # initial value
 y = np.zeros((len(t), len(y0))) # array for solution
14
15 \ y[0, :] = y0
|r| = ode(fun)
  r.set_initial_value(y0, t0)
                                    # set initial values
17
  for i in range(1, t.size):
18
     y[i, :] = r.integrate(t[i])  # compute each time step
19
  plt.plot(t, y[:,0])
20
 plt.show()
21
```

When the pendulum is almost inverted, its small angle approximation equation is:

$$\ddot{\phi} = \frac{g\phi}{l},$$

where $\phi = \theta - \pi$. This is solved using simplependulumapproxinverted.py, the solution is shown in Figure 1.5. The reason that the outcome is wrong is that the direction of the force T (as shown in Figure 1.2) is different in the cases $\theta > \pi/2$ and $\theta < \pi/2$.

Listing 1.3: simplependuluminverted.py

```
import numpy as np
from scipy.integrate import ode
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```



Figure 1.4: Plot of approximated $\theta(t)$, from simplependulumapprox.py

```
4
  def q():
5
      return 9.81007
6
  def l():
7
      return 1.0
8
  def fun(t, y):
9
      return np.array([y[1], g() * y[0]/l()])
10
  t0, t1 = 0, 10
                                         # start and end
11
  t = np.linspace(t0, t1, 100)
                                         # the points of
12
     evaluation of solution
  y0 = [-np.pi/4, 0]
                                          # initial value
13
  y = np.zeros((len(t), len(y0)))
                                         # array for solution
14
  y[0, :] = y0
15
  r = ode(fun)
16
  r.set_initial_value(y0, t0)
                                         # set initial values
17
  for i in range(1, t.size):
18
     y[i, :] = r.integrate(t[i])
                                        # compute each time step
19
  plt.plot(t, y[:,0]+np.pi)
20
  plt.show()
21
```

Problem 1.2 Population dynamics

In biological applications, the population P of certain organisms at time t is sometimes assumed to obey the equation

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}P}{\mathrm{d}t} = aP(1 - \frac{P}{E}),\tag{1.2.1}$$

where a and E are positive constants. This model is sometimes called the logistic growth model. P needs to be non-negative.



Figure 1.5: Plot of $\theta(t)$ for the inverted pendulum, from simplependuluminverted.py

(1.2a) Find the equilibrium solutions, i.e. solutions that do not vary in time.

Solution: An equilibrium solution is such that $\frac{dP}{dt} = 0$, thus P = 0 or P = E.

(1.2b) For which values of P is P increasing or decreasing as a function of t? Using (1.2.1), find an expression for $\frac{d^2P}{dt^2}$ in terms of P and the constants a and E. For which values of P is P convex $\left(\frac{d^2P}{dt^2} > 0\right)$ or concave $\left(\frac{d^2P}{dt^2} < 0\right)$ as a function of t?

Solution: *P* is monotone increasing in the region region 0 < P < E and monotone decreasing if P > E.

The second derivative of P is

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 P}{\mathrm{d}t^2} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \frac{\mathrm{d}P}{\mathrm{d}t}$$
$$= (a - \frac{2aP}{E})\frac{\mathrm{d}P}{\mathrm{d}t}$$
$$= a^2 P(1 - \frac{2P}{E})(1 - \frac{P}{E})$$

So, P is convex when P > E or 0 < P < E/2 and P is concave when E/2 < P < E.

(1.2c) Let E = 100 and a = 0.1. Write a Python script to solve (1.2.1) and plot the graph of P as a function of t over the interval [0, 100]. Use $P_0 = 10$ and $P_1 = 150$ as initial values, plotting the two curves on the same axes. What's the behaviour of P as t becomes large?

Solution:

See population.py and Figure 1.6.

Listing 1.4: population.py

i import numpy as np

```
from scipy.integrate import ode
2
  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
3
4
  def E():
5
      return 100
6
  def a():
7
      return 0.1
8
  def fun(t, y):
9
      return a() *y*(1-y/E())
10
  t0, t1 = 0, 100
                                         # start and end
11
  t = np.linspace(t0, t1, 100)
                                         # the points of
12
     evaluation of solution
  init = [10, 150]
                                         # initial values
13
  y = np.zeros((len(t),len(init))) # array for solution
14
  for i in range(len(init)):
15
      y[0, i] = init[i]
16
      r = ode(fun)
17
      r.set_initial_value(init[i], t0)
                                                   # set initial
18
         values
      for j in range(1, t.size):
19
           y[j,i] = r.integrate(t[j])
                                            # compute each time
20
              step
  plt.plot(t, y)
21
  plt.show()
22
```



Figure 1.6: Population P(t), for initial values $P_0 = 10$ and $P_1 = 150$.

For large t, both solutions converge to 100, which is the positive equilibrium solution (since E = 100).

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