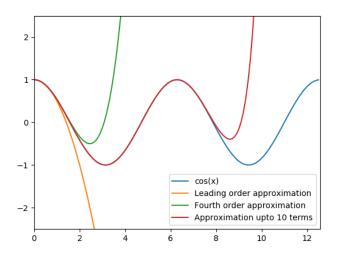
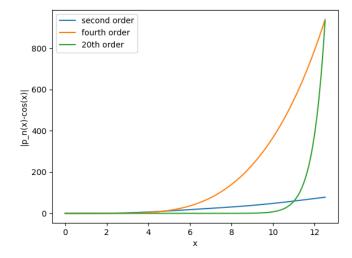
2. The taylor series approximation of $cos(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$.

The following is an image of the taylor series approximation up to second, fourth and twentieth order plotted against the original graph of cos(x)



These approximations continue to approximate cos(x) to a better and better degree with higher and higher orders. In order to understand this, we can study $|p_n(x) - cos(x)|$ where $p_n(x)$ is the nth order approximation of cos(x). Asymptotically, as $n \to \infty$ we expect our approximations to approach g(x) = 0. The following is the plot of $|p_2 - cos(x)|$, $|p_4 - cos(x)|$ and $|p_{20} - cos(x)|$, and it is evident that $p_n(x)$ is a better approximation as $n \uparrow$.



3. The classical formula for variance is $E[x^2] - E[x]^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{N-1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i^2 - N\bar{x}^2)}{N-1}$. This is the formula that is computed in the first pseudocode.

The second pseudocode, we use a technique attributed to Welford. Where, we consider the following "trick". Let v_n be the variance of the first n terms. Then it can be shown that

$$(N-1)v_N - (N-2)v_{N-1} = (x_N - \bar{x}_N)(x_N - \bar{x}_{N-1})$$

Welford's technique uses this method to recursively compute

 $(N-1)v_N = (N-2)v_{N-1} + (x_N - \bar{x}_N)(x_N - \bar{x}_{N-1})$, and the end of the computation, we divide by (N-1) to obtain v_N as desired.

At each step, \bar{x}_i is computed from \bar{x}_{i-1} using the formula, $\bar{x}_i = \bar{x}_{i-1} + \frac{x_i - \bar{x}_{i-1}}{i}$

In the third pseudocode, we use a technique similar to Welford, which is attributed to Youngs and Cramer. Their technique is similar to that of Welford's technique - and this can be attained by just a few algebraic manipulation of the mean terms that appear in Welford's formula.

4. A shooting method was implimented in python to solve the following boundary value problem

$$y'' = -\pi^2 y$$

with the boundary constraints y(0) = 0 and $y(\frac{1}{2}) = 1$.

Analytically, we can easily deduce (using the characteristic polynomial of this DE, or simply by observation) that the solution is $y = sin(\pi x)$. However, in order to solve this boundary value problem numerically, we turn the BV problem into a Initial value problem by assuming an arbitrary value a for y'(0). Let z = y'(x) Now, we are equipped with the following Initial value problems in z, namely

$$z = y'(x) = f_1(x, y, z),$$
 $z(0) = a$
 $z' = -\pi^2 * y(x) = f_2(x, y, z),$ $y(0) = 0$

Initially, we have x = 0, y = 0, z = a, therefore, we can numerically solve for the next data point (taking a stepsize h) for x, y and z using the discrete equations

$$x_n = x_{n-1} + h$$

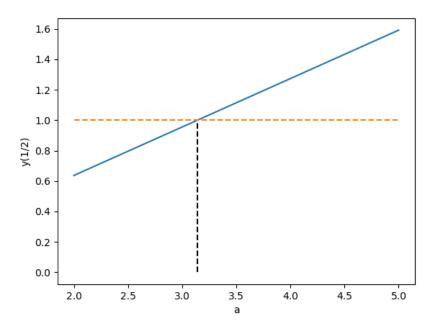
$$y_n = y_{n-1} + f_1(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}, z_{n-1})h$$

$$z_n = z_{n-1} + f_2(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}, z_{n-1})h$$

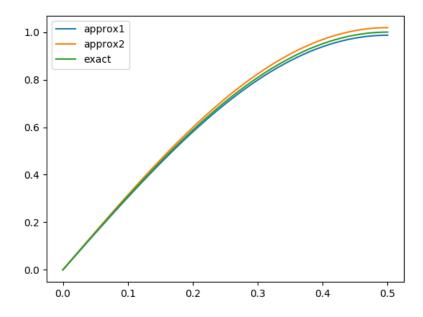
After iterating until $x=\frac{1}{2}$, we can check the value of y(1/2) against $sin(\frac{\pi}{2})=1$.

We can now, iterate through other values of a, and plot $y(\frac{1}{2})$ against its respective a-value. The a value at which this plot interescts the function $f(a) = 1 = sin(\frac{\pi}{2})$, will be the critical a_0 value for which our BVP is equal to the IVP with the IC being y(0) = 0, $y'(0) = a_0$.

The plot of $y(\frac{1}{2})$ vs. a is presented below. It is evident that it intersects the function f(a) = 1 at π which we can analytically confirm is correct.



The actual plot of sin(x) is plotted below alongside the two closest approximations we obtained using the shooting method



It can be seen that the obtained functions closely approximate sin(x), any deviation from the actual function can be attributed to a large stepsize of 0.1 for the a value.