

Assignment_4

June 3, 2019

1 Assignment 4

Realfagslektormaster, programming course

Author: Paul Knutson

1.1 1

1.1.1 (i)

```
In [1]: import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import math

def zeta(m, s):
    """Zeta function for a singular m and s."""
    result = 0
    for n in range(int(m)):
        result += 1/np.power(float(n+1), s)

    return result

def zeta_function_m(s=4):
    """Iterative Zeta function for a range of m's."""
    start = 2
    stop = 40

    x = np.linspace(start, stop, stop - start + 1)
    y = np.zeros(len(x))
    for i in range(len(x)):
        y[i] = zeta(x[i], s)

    return x, y

def zeta_function_s(m):
```

```

"""Iterative Zeta function for a range of s's."""
start = -5
stop = 5

x = np.linspace(start, stop, stop - start + 1)
y = np.zeros(len(x))
for i in range(len(x)):
    y[i] = zeta(m, x[i])

return x, y

#fig = plt.figure()
x, y = zeta_function_s(5)
#print(x)
plt.plot(x, y)
plt.show()

# zeta_function_m(s)
# m controls smoothness of curve.
# s controls bend.
# s = 0 results in a straight line, from about (0,0) to (m,m)
# As s goes towards -inf, the curve will bend to the bottom right.
# As s goes towards +inf, the curve will bend to the top left.

# zeta_function_s(m)
# s range (stop - start) controls the smoothness of the curve.
# m < 2 results in a straight horizontal line at 1.
# As m->+inf, the curve will bend to the bottom left.
# This will also happen if the s range becomes larger.

```

<Figure size 640x480 with 1 Axes>

1.1.2 (ii)

$$\zeta(2) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \zeta(2)_m = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

```

In [2]: print("\n\nEstimation, zeta(2) = pi^2/6")
        estimate = zeta(1000, 2)
        print(estimate)

        actual_value = math.pi**2/6
        print(actual_value)

        print("Absolutt error: " + str(abs(estimate - actual_value)))

```

```

Estimation, zeta(2) = pi^2/6
1.6439345666815615
1.6449340668482264
Absolutt error: 0.0009995001666649461

```

$$\zeta(4) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \zeta(4)_m = \frac{\pi^4}{90}$$

```

In [3]: print("\n\nEstimation, zeta(4) = pi^4/90")
        estimate = zeta(1000, 4)
        print(estimate)

        actual_value = math.pi**4/90
        print(actual_value)

        print("Absolutt error: " + str(abs(estimate - actual_value)))

```

```

Estimation, zeta(4) = pi^4/90
1.082323233378306
1.082323233711138
Absolutt error: 3.328319841955363e-10

```

1.1.3 (iii)

For any $r \gg 0$, $|\zeta(2)_m - \frac{\pi^2}{6}| < 10^{-1}$, for any $m \geq N_r = 10^r$
 I.e. if $r = 3.5$, m must be at least $10^{3.5} \approx 3162.27766\dots$. In this case, $m \geq 3162$.

```

In [4]: def check_r(r):
        m = 0
        while abs(zeta(m, 2) - np.pi**2/6) >= 10**-r:
            m += 1
            if m > 4000:
                return m
        return m

        print(check_r(2))

```

100

1.2 2

1.2.1 (i)

```

In [5]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np

```

```
def plot_ell(c, a, b, min_x=0, max_x=2*np.pi, d=100):
    t = np.linspace(min_x, max_x, d)
    #x = f(t, a)
    #y = g(t, b)
    x, y = c(t, a, b)
    plt.plot(x, y)
    plt.show()
```

```
def plot(f, g, min_x=0, max_x=2*np.pi, d=100):
    t = np.linspace(min_x, max_x, d)
    x = f(t)
    y = g(t)
    plt.plot(x, y)
    plt.show()
```

1.2.2 (ii)

Any non-zero values of a and b will make the following formula describe an ellipse:

$$c(\theta) = (a \cos(\theta), b \sin(\theta)), \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$$

```
In [6]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
```

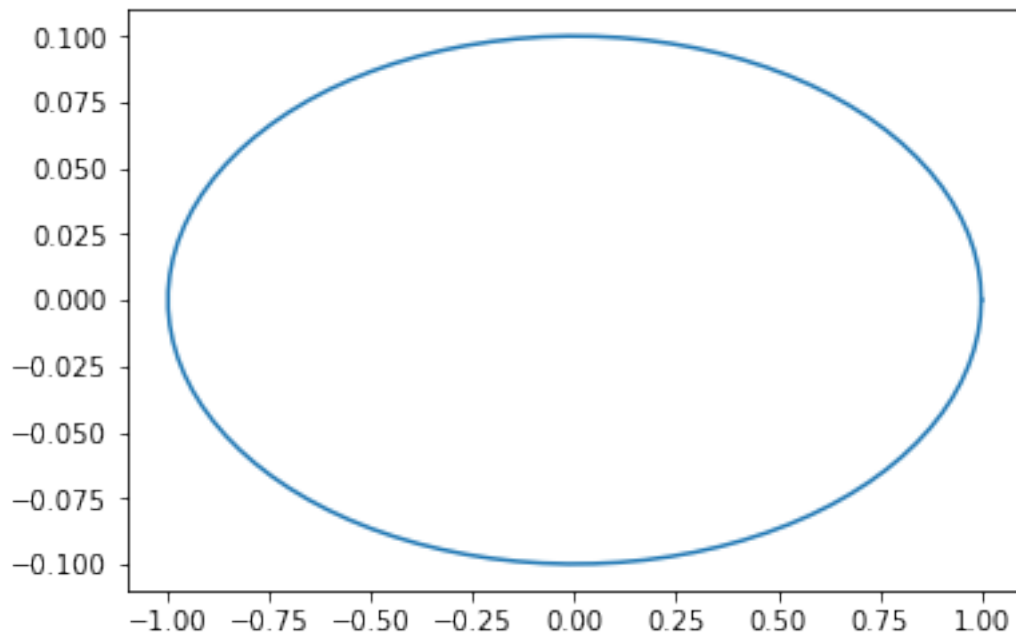
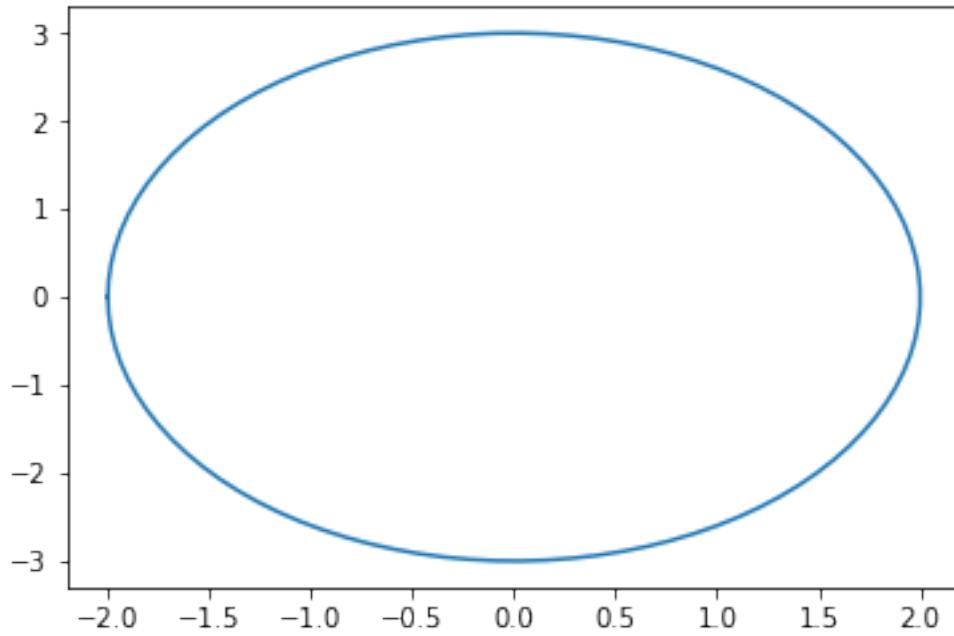
```
def f(t, a):
    return a * np.cos(t)
```

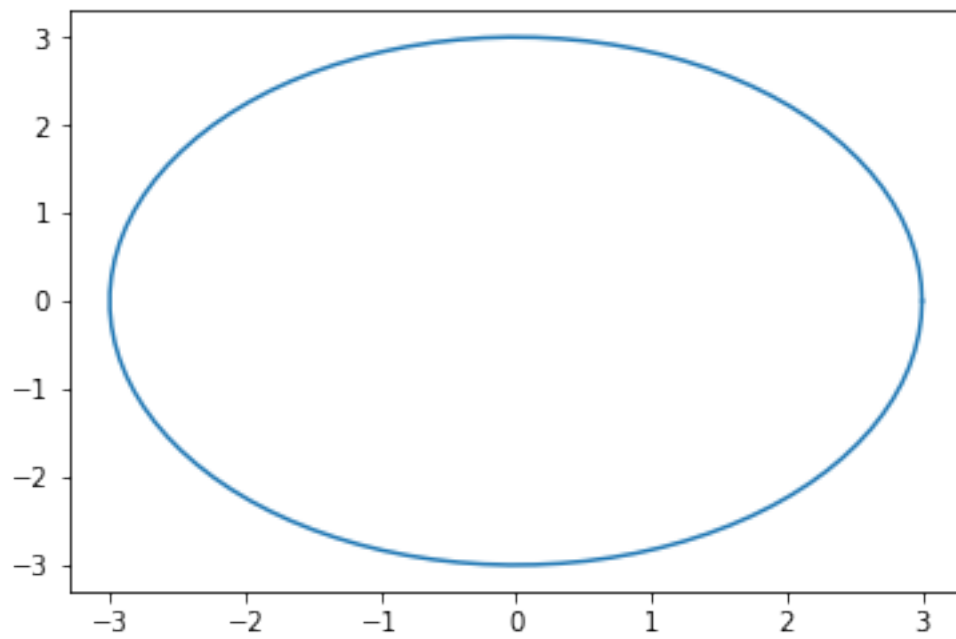
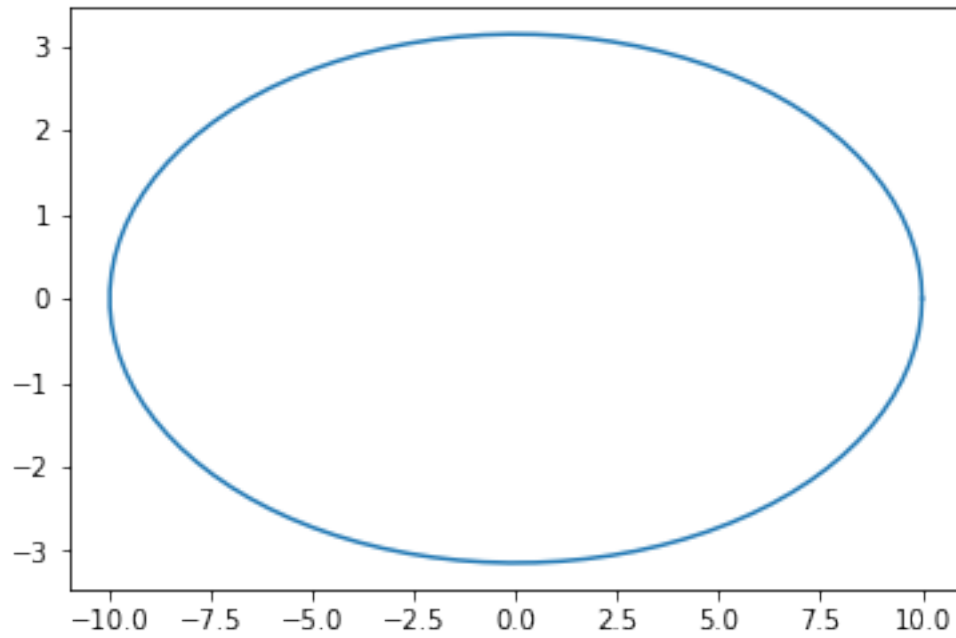
```
def g(t, b):
    return b * np.sin(t)
```

```
def c(t, a, b):
    x = f(t, a)
    y = g(t, b)
    return x, y
```

```
plot_ell(c, -2, -3)
plot_ell(c, 1, 0.1)
plot_ell(c, 10, np.pi)
plot_ell(c, 3, 3)
```

*# a describes the x-scale. b describes the y-scale.
The ellipse will have an r in the y-axis of $2*b$, from $-b$ to b .
The ellipse will have an r in the x-axis of $2*a$, from $-a$ to a .
Whether a and/or b are positive or negative does not affect the result.*





1.2.3 (iii) (pt. 1)

Numerical derivation and ellipse arc length finder, based on numerical integration.

```

In [7]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

def derr(f, x):
    h = 1/10000
    dy = (f(x+h) - f(x))/h
    return dy

def arc_length(f, g, a, b):
    d = 10000
    dt = 1/d
    integral = 0
    for i in range(d-1):
        t = (i*dt)*(b-a) + a
        func = np.sqrt(derr(f, t)**2 + derr(g, t)**2)
        integral += func*dt*(b-a)

    return integral

In [8]: def f(t):
    return t

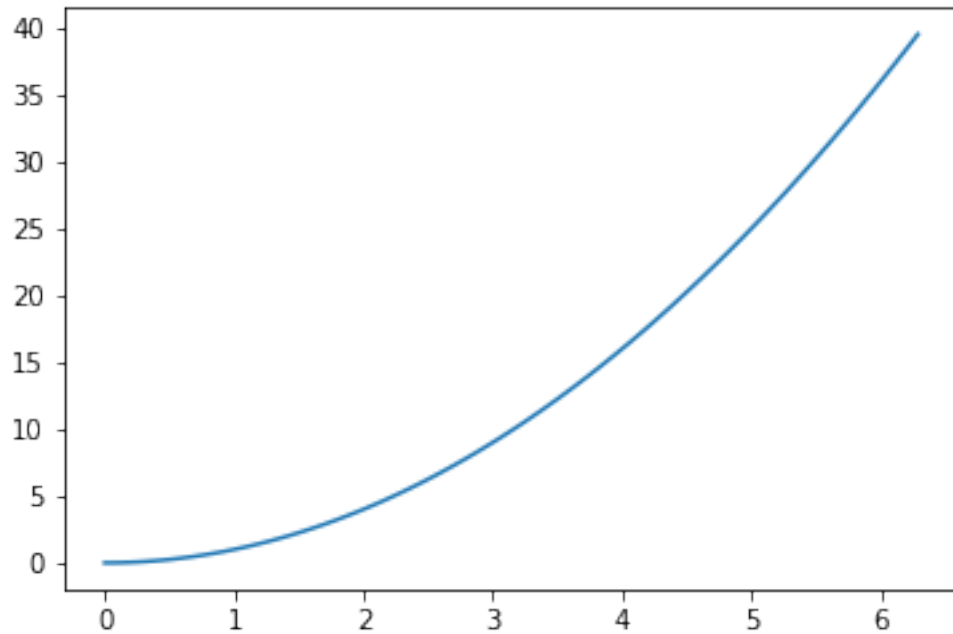
def g(t):
    return t**2

print(arc_length(f, g, 0, 1))

plot(f, g)

```

1.478719258945574



```
In [9]: import numpy as np

def df(t):
    """ g(t) = t """
    return 1

def dg(t):
    """ f(t) = t^2 """
    return 2*t

def f(t):
    return np.sqrt(df(t)**2 + dg(t)**2)

def arc_length(a, b):
    d = 10000
    dt = 1/d
    integral = 0
    for i in range(d-1):
        t = (i*dt)*(b-a) + a
        integral += f(t)*dt*(b-a)

    return integral
```



```
print("x:\t", "1.4789428575445974 (W|A)")
print("x_est:\t", arc_length(0, 1))
```

```
x:          1.4789428575445974 (W|A)
x_est:      1.4786574667270478
```

1.2.4 $(iv) + (v)$

Arc length using numerical elliptical integration. Solution for both (iv) and (v) .

```
In [10]: import numpy as np
```

```
def e_sq(a, b):
    return np.sqrt(1 - b**2/a**2)

def f(a, b, theta):
    return np.sqrt(1 - e_sq(a, b)**2 * np.sin(theta)**2)

def arc_length_ell(a, b):
    d = 10000
    integral = 0
    for i in range(d):
        theta = i/d * np.pi/2
        integral += f(a, b, theta)

    return 4*a*integral/d*np.pi/2

print(arc_length_ell(10, 5))
# 10,5 = 48.44224110273838 (W|A)

#x = np.linspace(0, 2*np.pi, 100)
#plt.plot(x, f(10, 5, x))
#plt.show()
```

```
48.44381189906502
```

1.2.5 (vi)

The defined range for the function E can be decided by its root.

$$E(e) = 4a \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sqrt{1 - e^2 \sin^2(\theta)} d\theta$$

If $1 - e^2 \sin^2(\theta) < 0$, the root becomes imaginary. We must therefore find for which values of e , $e^2 \sin^2(\theta)$ will always be lower than or equal to one.

$$e^2 \sin^2(\theta) \leq 1 \implies e^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sin^2(\theta)} \implies e \leq \frac{1}{\sin(\theta)}$$

Since $\sin(\theta)$ can never exceed 1, we know that $\sin(\theta) \leq 1 \implies \frac{1}{\sin(\theta)} \geq 1$. Therefore $e^2 \leq 1 \implies |e| \leq 1$

1.2.6 (vii)

Using $|e| \leq 1$, we can quite easily change the code from (iv) and (v).

```
In [11]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

def f(e, theta):
    return np.sqrt(1 - e**2 * np.sin(theta)**2)

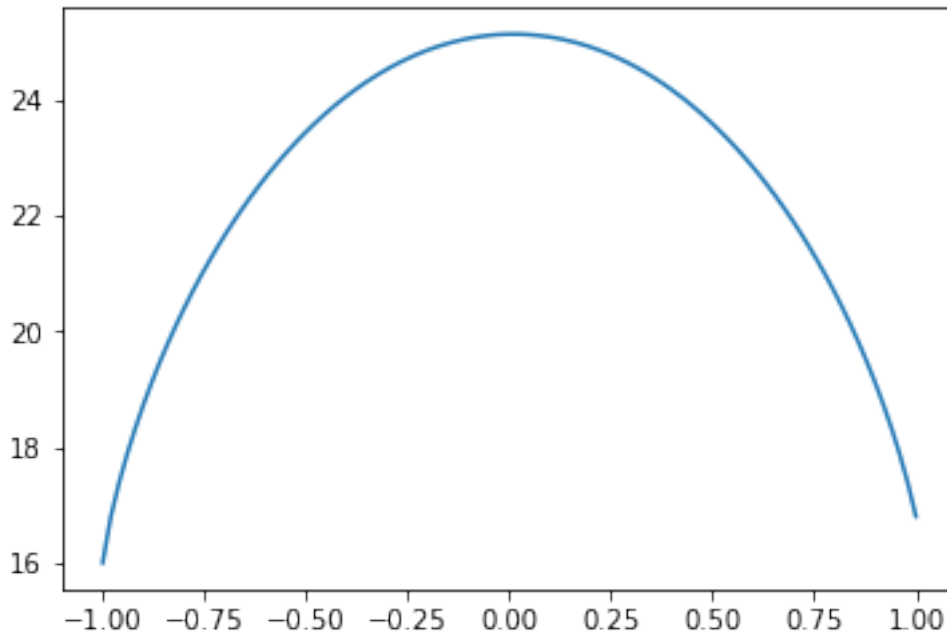
def arc_length_ell(e, a, b, A):
    d = 1000
    dt = 1/d
    integral = 0
    for i in range(d):
        theta = (i*dt) * (b - a) + a
        integral += f(e, theta)

    return 4*A*integral*dt*(b - a)

a = 0
b = 2*np.pi
A = 1
e_min = -1
e_max = 1

x = np.linspace(e_min, e_max, 100)
y = np.zeros(len(x))
for i in range(len(x)):
    e = i*(e_max - e_min)/len(x) + e_min
    y[i] = arc_length_ell(e, a, b, A)

plt.plot(x, y)
plt.show()
```



1.2.7 (viii)

Here, we will do the same as (vii), but with a constant e and a variable x as upper limit for the integral, and 0 as its bottom limit. With e close to 0, you get an almost linear function. When e moves closer to 1, it will zigzag more. (This is true when b is 2π instead of $\frac{\pi}{2}$, as I found out when mistakenly using the wrong limit.

When using an $|e| > 1$, it will be linear, with a fall off as $x \rightarrow \infty$. (It will also give you error messages, as you are going outside its range, so do it at your own risk.)

```
In [12]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

def f(e, theta):
    return np.sqrt(1 - e**2 * np.sin(theta)**2)

def arc_length_ell(e, a, b, A):
    d = 1000
    dt = 1/d
    integral = 0
    for i in range(d):
        theta = (i*dt) * (b - a) + a
        integral += f(e, theta)
```

```

    return 4*A*integral*dt*(b - a)

a = 0
b = np.pi/2
A = 1

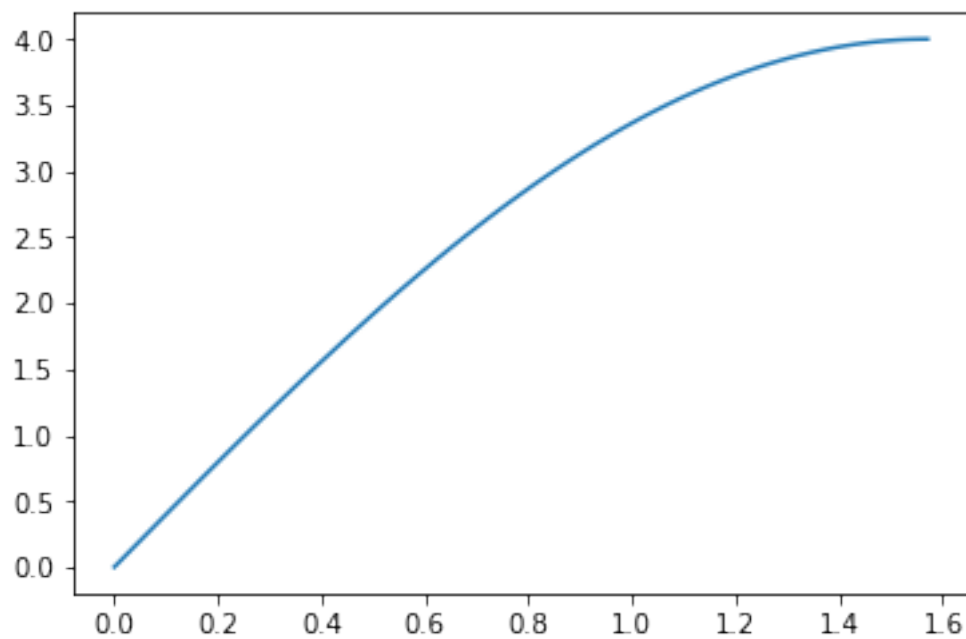
e = 1

x = np.linspace(a, b, 100)
y = np.zeros(len(x))

for i in range(len(x)):
    y[i] = arc_length_ell(e, a, x[i], A)

plt.plot(x, y)
plt.show()

```



1.2.8 (ix)

It takes a few seconds to calculate.

```

In [13]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

```

```

def f(e, theta):
    return np.sqrt(1 - e**2 * np.sin(theta)**2)

def arc_length_ell(e, a, b, A):
    d = 1000
    dt = 1/d
    integral = 0
    for i in range(d):
        theta = (i*dt) * (b - a) + a
        integral += f(e, theta)

    return 4*A*integral*dt*(b - a)

a = 0
b = np.pi/2
A = 1

e = np.linspace(-1, 1, 11)
for j in range(len(e)):
    x = np.linspace(a, b, 100)
    y = np.zeros(len(x))

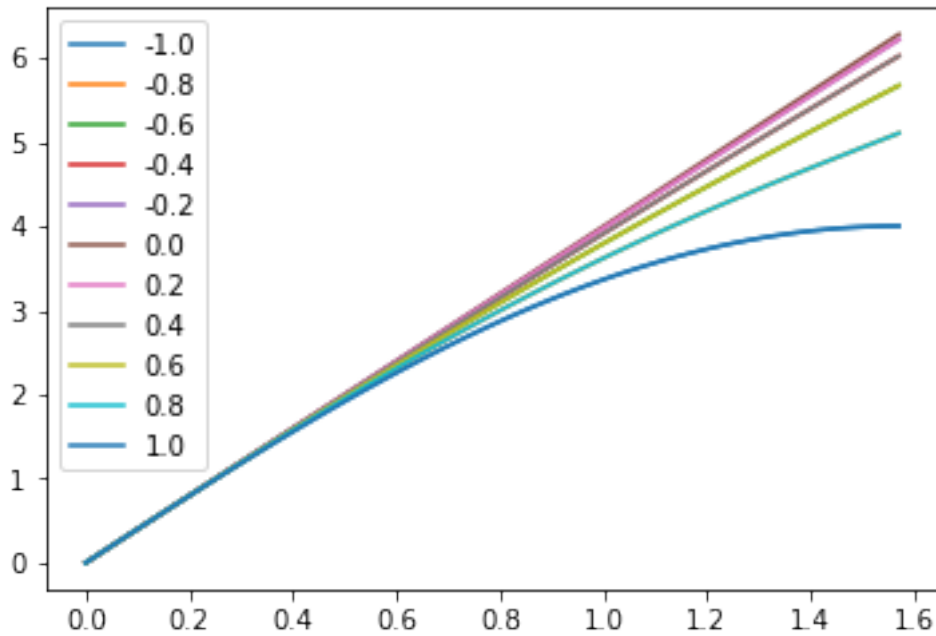
    for i in range(len(x)):
        y[i] = arc_length_ell(e[j], a, x[i], A)

plt.plot(x, y)

for i in range(len(e)):
    e[i] = round(e[i], 1)

plt.legend(e)
plt.show()

```



1.3 3 - Differential Equations and Euler's Method

```
In [40]: import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

h = 0.001

t_0 = 0
t_max = 5

def A(t, y):
    return [y[1], F(t,y[0],y[1])]

def _next_y(t, y):
    return y + np.dot(A(t, y),h)

def _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0):
    t_lst = [t_0]
    z_lst = [y_0]
    y_lst = [y_0[0]]
    lst = np.linspace(t_0, t_max, int((t_max-t_0)/h))

    for i in range(1,len(lst)):
        t_lst.append(t_0 + i*h)
```

```

        z_lst.append(_next_y(t_0+(i-1)*h, z_lst[i-1]))
        y_lst.append(z_lst[i][0])
    return t_lst, y_lst

```

(i)

Using the Euler's Method Python code.

Graphs show meters of displacement/movement m and seconds s .

```

In [41]: def F(t,y,yprime):          #  $y'' = F(t,y,y')$ 
        return -k/m * y

```

```

k = 15
m = 0.75

```

```

fig = plt.figure()
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(111)
ax1.grid(True)

```

```

y_0 = [1,0] # startverdier  $[y(0),y'(0)]$ 

```

```

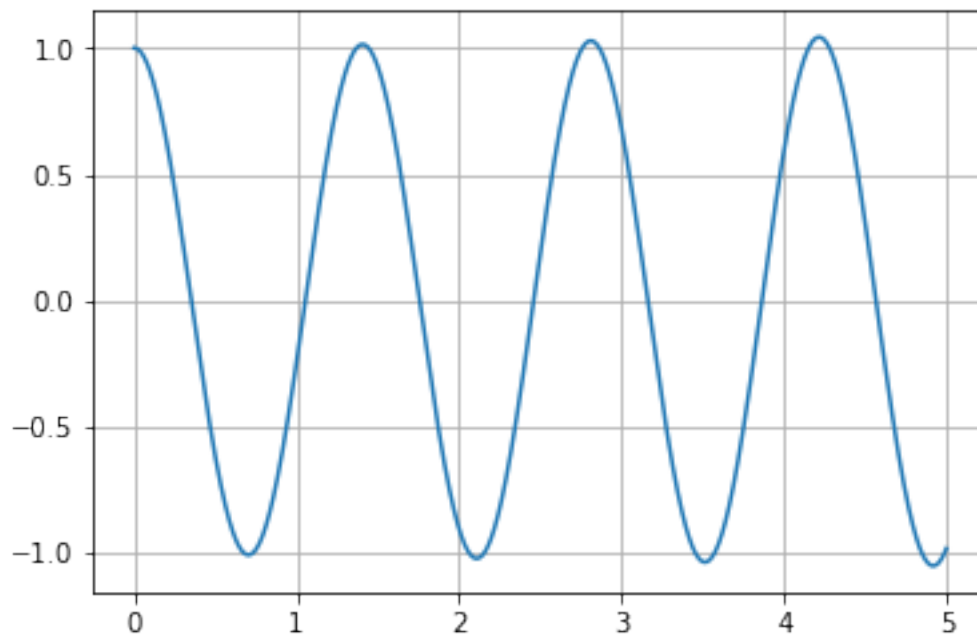
x, y = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
ax1.plot(x, y)

```

```

fig.show()

```



1.3.1 (ii)

This shows how the spring system will act with three different forces applied by the spring. $3.0\frac{N}{m}$, $11.5\frac{N}{m}$ and $20\frac{N}{m}$. The pattern is clear: the stronger the force, the faster the mass is moved/accelerated, and the faster initial speed, the higher amplitudes you get. This seems reasonable by physical standards.

```
In [16]: def F(t,y,yprime):          # y'' = F(t,y,y')
          return -k/m * y

k = 0
m = 0.75

fig = plt.figure()
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(111)
ax1.grid(True)

x_base = np.linspace(3, 20, 3)

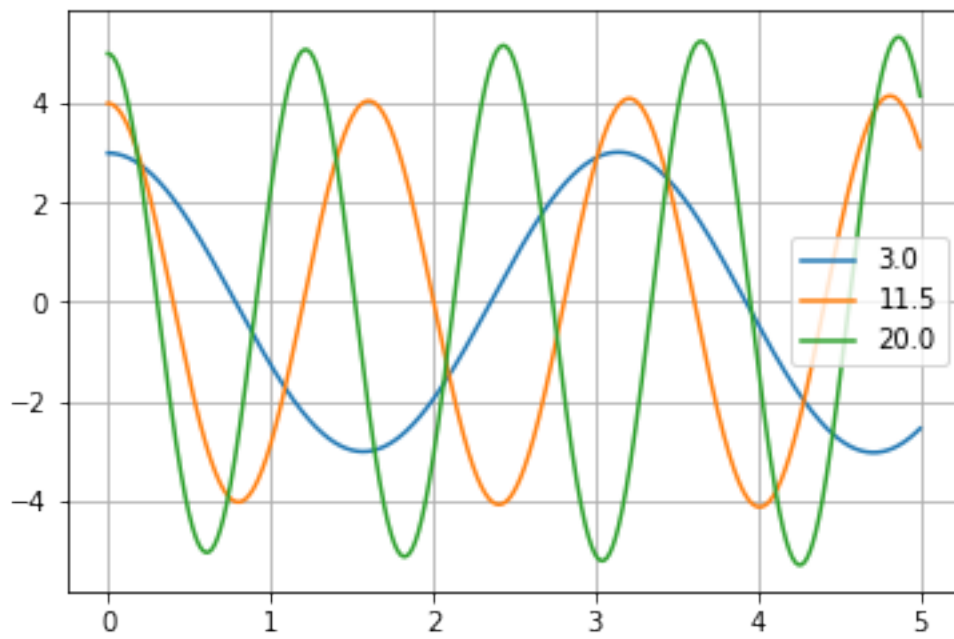
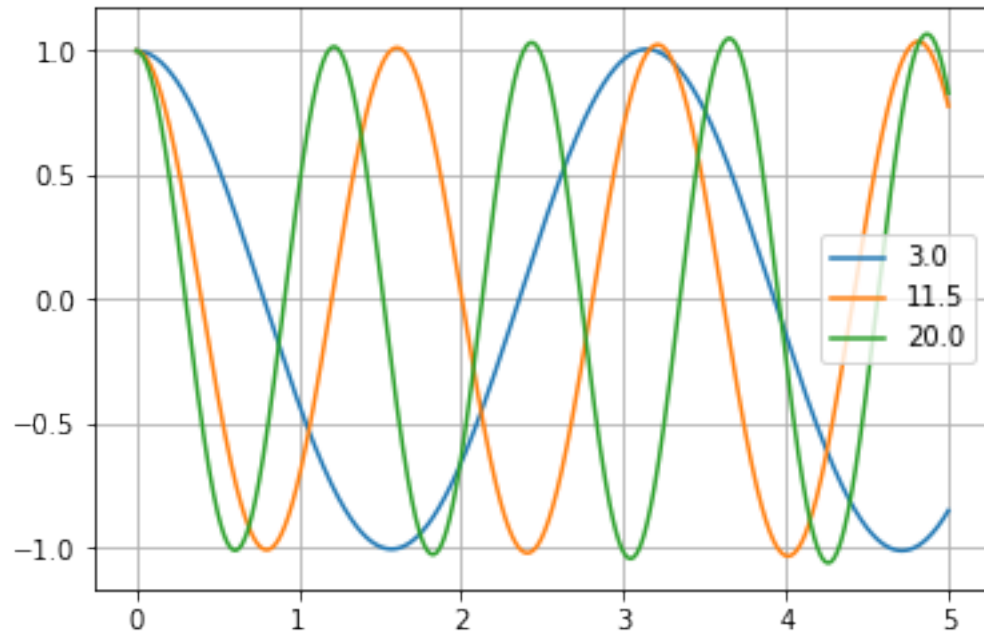
y_0 = [1, 0]

for i in range(len(x_base)):
    k = x_base[i]
    x, y = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
    ax1.plot(x, y)

plt.legend(x_base)
fig = plt.figure()
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(111)
ax1.grid(True)

for i in range(len(x_base)):
    y_0 = [i+3, 0]
    k = x_base[i]
    x, y = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
    ax1.plot(x, y)

plt.legend(x_base)
fig.show()
```

1.3.2 (iii)

Here, the friction α (alpha), which is now part of the differential equation

$$-\alpha y_p - \frac{k}{m}y$$

(where y is the displacement in meters) has the values of $\alpha \in [0, 4]$ with a step size of 1. The higher the friction, the faster the mass slows down.

```
In [17]: def F(t,y,yprime):          # y'' = F(t,y,y')
         return - k/m * y - alpha*yprime
```

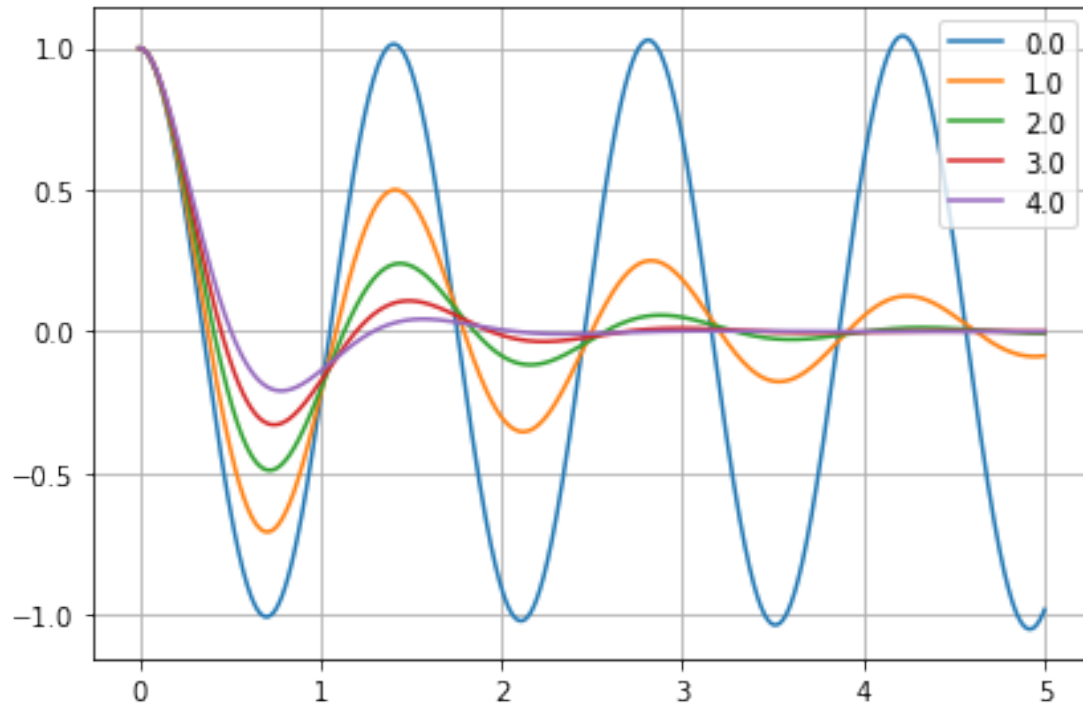
```
k = 15
m = 0.75
alpha = 0

fig = plt.figure()
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(111)
ax1.grid(True)

base = np.linspace(0, 4, 5)

for i in range(len(base)):
    y_0 = [1, 0]
    alpha = base[i]
    x, y = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
    ax1.plot(x, y)
    base[i] = round(base[i], 2)

fig.tight_layout()
plt.legend(base)
fig.show()
```



1.3.3 (iv)

```
In [18]: def F(t,y,yprime):          #  $y'' = F(t,y,y')$ 
         return -alpha*yprime - k/m*y + AA*np.cos(t)
```

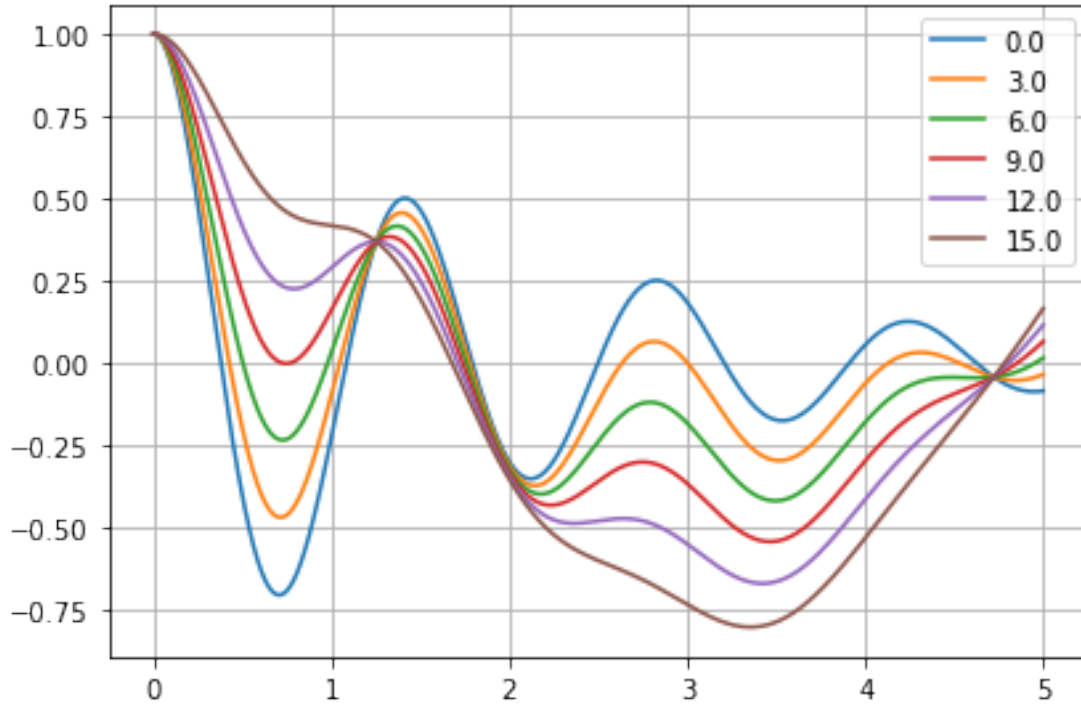
```
k = 15
m = 0.75
alpha = 1
AA = 0
```

```
fig = plt.figure()
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(111)
ax1.grid(True)
```

```
base = np.linspace(0, 15, 6)
```

```
for i in range(len(base)):
    y_0 = [1, 0]
    AA = base[i]
    x, y = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
    ax1.plot(x, y)
    base[i] = round(base[i], 2)
```

```
fig.tight_layout()
plt.legend(base)
fig.show()
```



1.3.4 (v)

Use any of the following functions by first running them, and then running the plotting below.

```
In [19]: def F(t,y,yprime):
         return -alpha*yprime - t*k/m*y + AA*np.cos(t)
```

```
In [20]: def F(t,y,yprime):
         return -alpha*yprime - t**2*k/m*y + AA*np.cos(t)
```

```
In [21]: def F(t,y,yprime):
         return -alpha*yprime - 1/(t+1)*k/m*y + AA*np.cos(t)
```

```
In [22]: k = 15
         m = 0.75
         alpha = 1
         AA = 0

         fig = plt.figure()
```

```

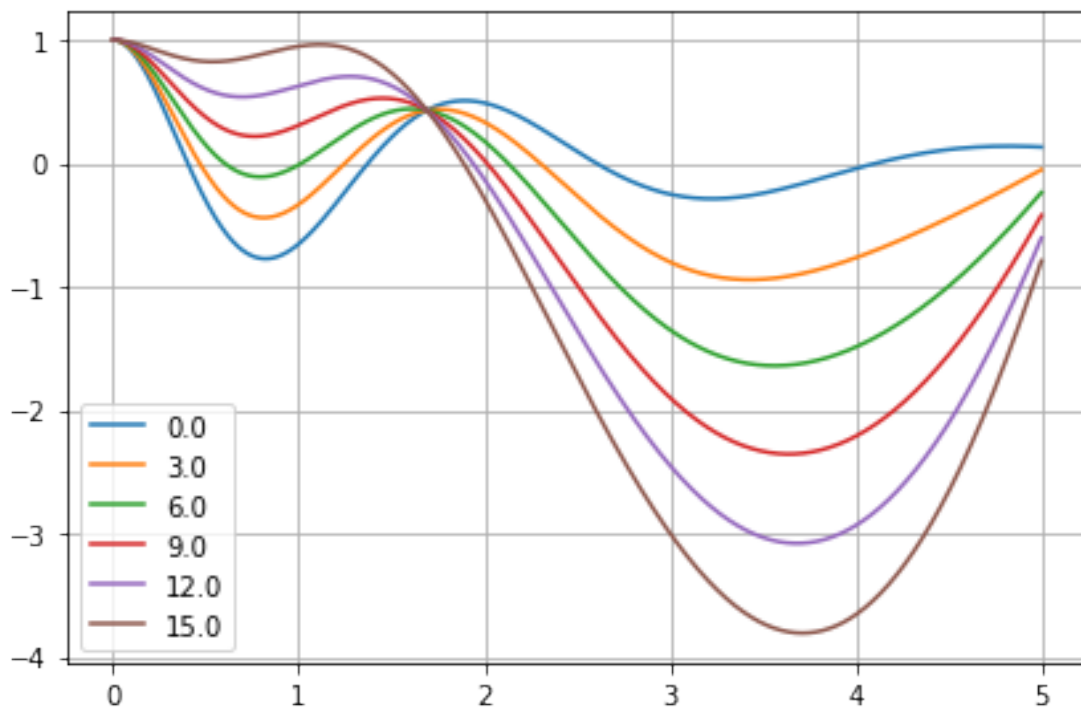
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(111)
ax1.grid(True)

base = np.linspace(0, 15, 6)

for i in range(len(base)):
    y_0 = [1, 0]
    AA = base[i]
    x, y = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
    ax1.plot(x, y)
    base[i] = round(base[i], 2)

fig.tight_layout()
plt.legend(base)
fig.show()

```



1.3.5 (vi)

Using the Euler's Method + phase code.

```

In [23]: import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

h = 0.001

```

```

t_0 = 0
t_max = 10

def A(t, y):
    return [y[1], F(t,y[0],y[1])]

def _next_y(t, y):
    return y + np.dot(A(t, y),h)

def _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0):
    t_lst = [t_0]
    z_lst = [y_0]
    y_lst = [y_0[0]]
    yprime_lst = [y_0[1]]
    lst = np.linspace(t_0, t_max, int((t_max-t_0)/h))

    for i in range(1,len(lst)):
        t_lst.append(t_0 + i*h)
        z_lst.append(_next_y(t_0+(i-1)*h, z_lst[i-1]))
        y_lst.append(z_lst[i][0])
        yprime_lst.append(z_lst[i][1])
    return t_lst, y_lst, yprime_lst

```

```

In [24]: def F(t,y,yprime):
    return -alpha*yprime - k/m*y + AA*np.cos(t)

```

```

In [25]: k = 15
    m = 0.75

```

```

alpha = 0
AA = 0

```

```

y_0 = [1,1]      # startverdier y_0 = [y(0), y'(0)]
x, y, yprime = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)

```

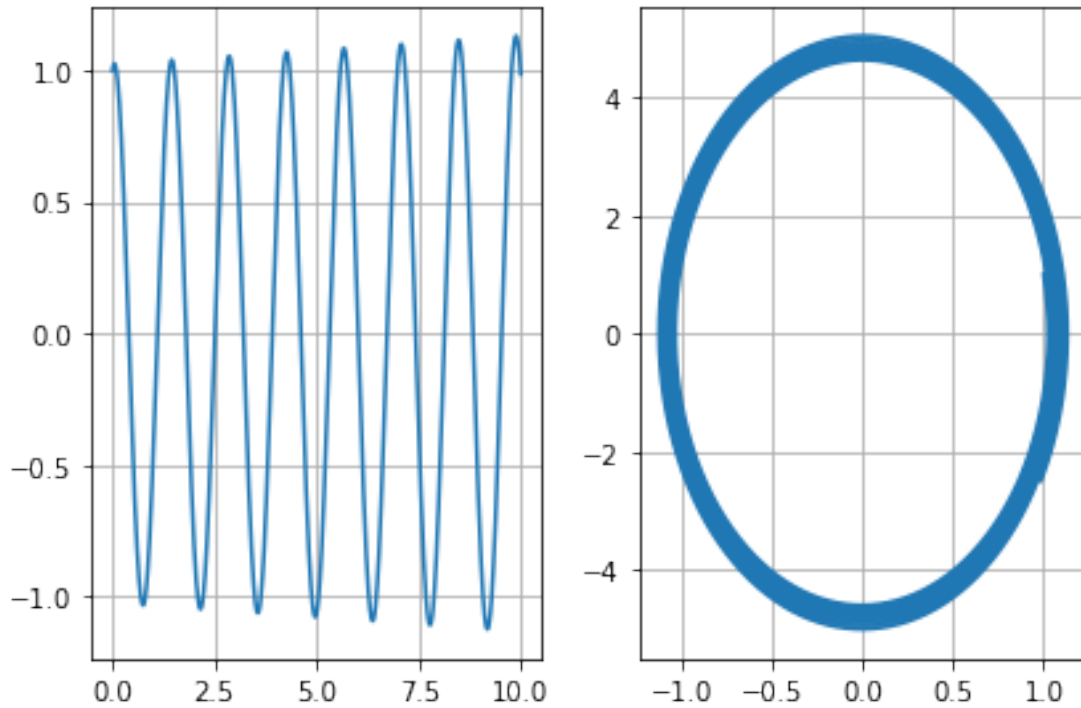
```

In [26]: fig = plt.figure()
    ax1 = fig.add_subplot(121)
    ax1.grid(True)
    ax2 = fig.add_subplot(122)
    ax2.grid(True)

    ax1.plot(x, y)
    ax2.plot(y,yprime)

    fig.tight_layout()
    fig.show()

```

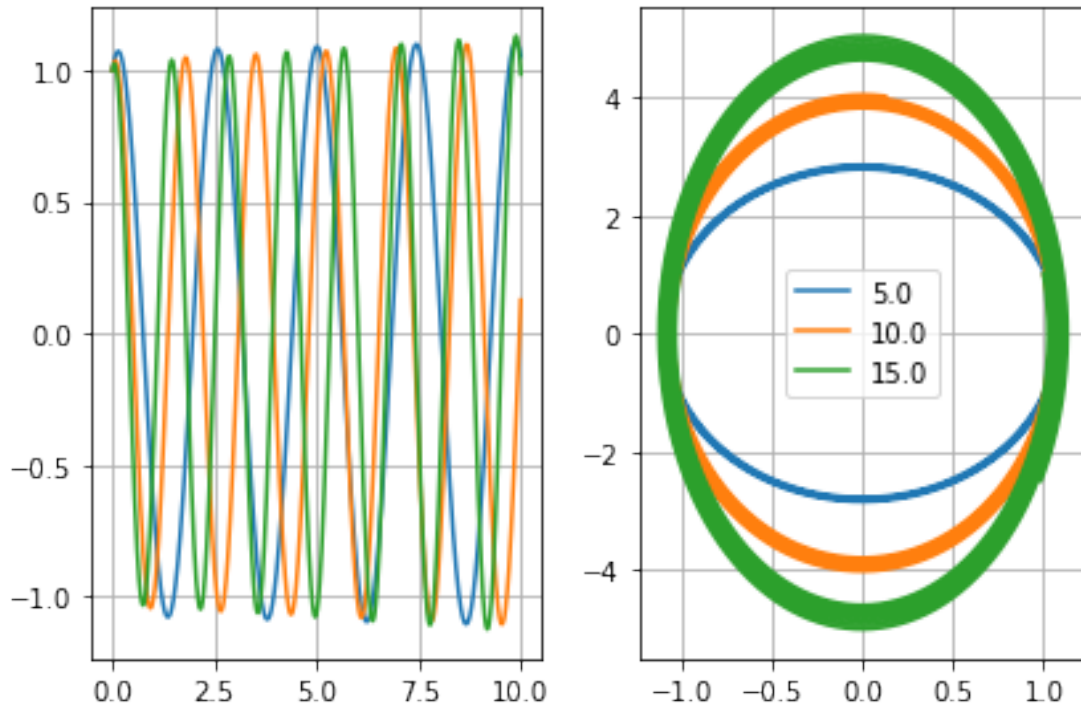


```
In [27]: fig = plt.figure()
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(121)
ax1.grid(True)
ax2 = fig.add_subplot(122)
ax2.grid(True)

base = np.linspace(5, 15, 3)

for i in range(len(base)):
    k = base[i]
    x, y, yprime = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
    ax1.plot(x, y)
    ax2.plot(y, yprime)
    base[i] = round(base[i], 2)

fig.tight_layout()
plt.legend(base)
fig.show()
```



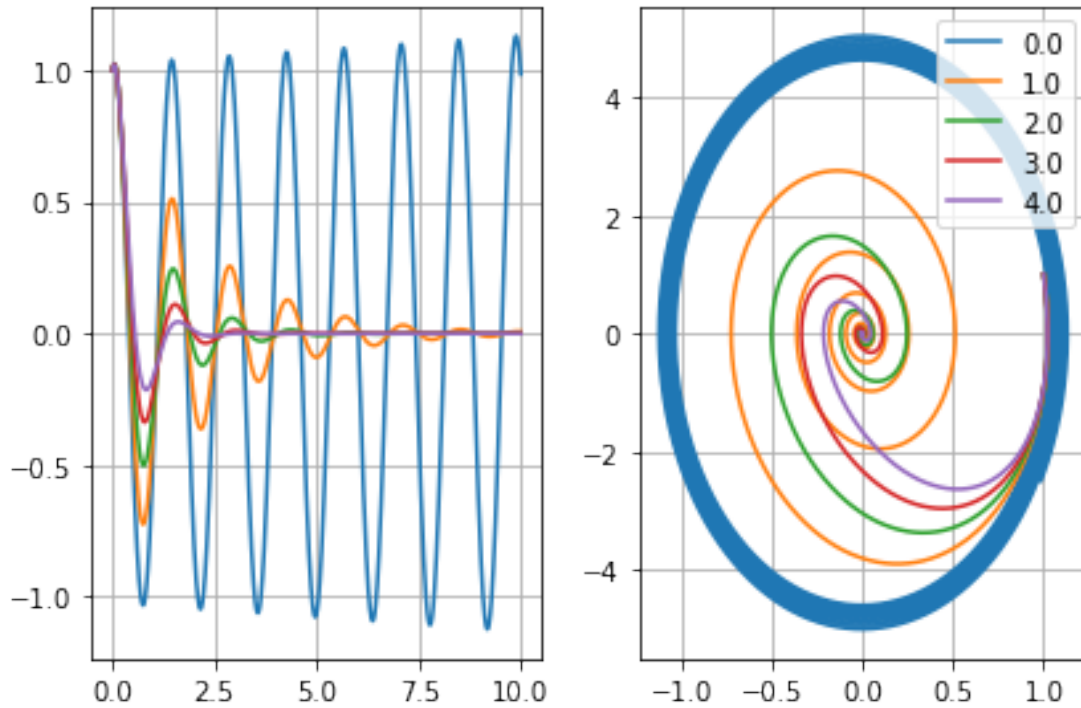
Higher friction α makes the mass reduce its speed, and makes the (y, y_p) diagram spiral inwards.

```
In [28]: fig = plt.figure()
         ax1 = fig.add_subplot(121)
         ax1.grid(True)
         ax2 = fig.add_subplot(122)
         ax2.grid(True)

         base = np.linspace(0, 4, 5)

         for i in range(len(base)):
             alpha = base[i]
             x, y, yprime = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
             ax1.plot(x, y)
             ax2.plot(y, yprime)
             base[i] = round(base[i], 2)

         fig.tight_layout()
         plt.legend(base)
         fig.show()
```

Changing the AA (A) value.

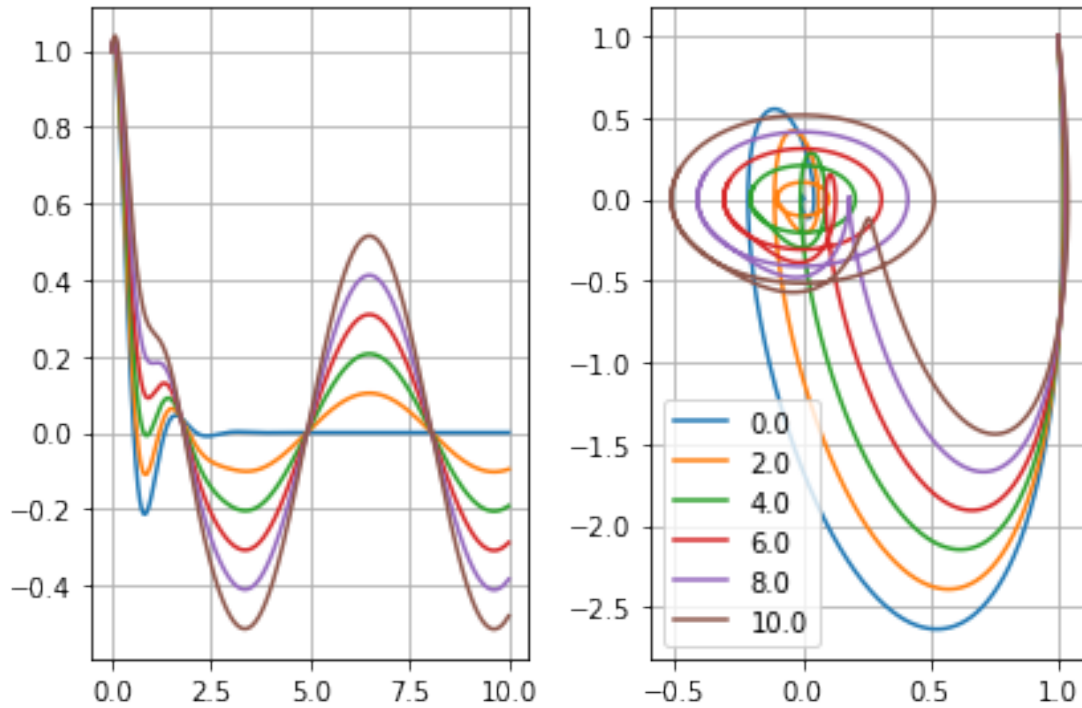
```
In [29]: def F(t,y,yprime):
          return -alpha*yprime - k/m*y + AA*np.cos(t)

fig = plt.figure()
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(121)
ax1.grid(True)
ax2 = fig.add_subplot(122)
ax2.grid(True)

base = np.linspace(0, 10, 6)

for i in range(len(base)):
    AA = base[i]
    x, y, yprime = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
    ax1.plot(x, y)
    ax2.plot(y,yprime)
    base[i] = round(base[i], 2)

fig.tight_layout()
plt.legend(base)
fig.show()
```



Experimentation with changes in $\alpha(t)$ and $\omega^2(t)$.

Making A (from $A \cos(t)$) more affecting will make the mass start swinging more like a sine wave, while making A smaller will make it less affecting.

$A \cos(t)$ will be the base line for the displacement, where the system will converge, assuming friction. $\omega^2(t)$ will force movement back and forth as long as it is not overpowered by the friction force. $\alpha(t)$ will reduce the movement over time, and make the displacement converge.

Changing $\alpha(t)$ will affect how the

Making the friction force or the spring force positive will make the system quickly spiral out of control as it becomes a positive feedback loop.

```
In [30]: k = 15
         m = 0.75
         AA = 2
         alpha = 1
```

```
In [31]: def F(t,y,yprime):
         return -alpha*yprime - k/m*y + AA*np.cos(t)
```

```
In [32]: def F(t,y,yprime):
         return -alpha*yprime - t*k/m*y - AA*np.cos(t)
```

```
In [33]: def F(t,y,yprime):
         return -alpha*yprime - k/m*y + 10*AA*np.cos(t)
```

```
In [34]: def F(t,y,yprime):
         return -alpha*yprime - t**2*k/m*y + AA*np.cos(t)
```

```

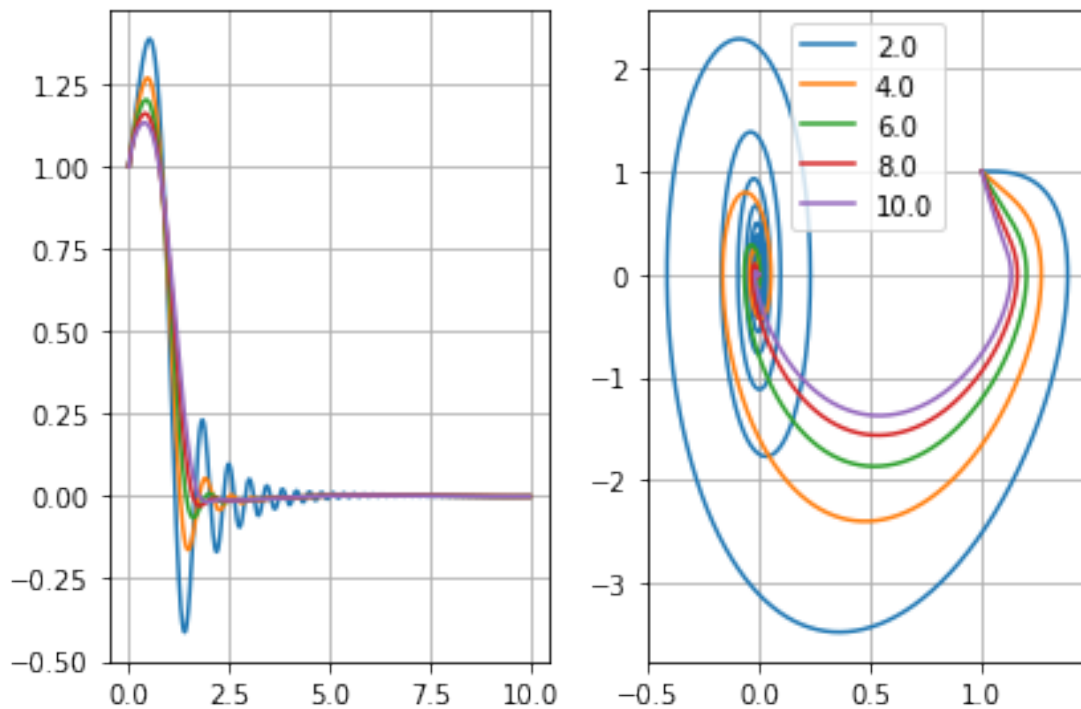
In [35]: fig = plt.figure()
         ax1 = fig.add_subplot(121)
         ax1.grid(True)
         ax2 = fig.add_subplot(122)
         ax2.grid(True)

         base = np.linspace(2, 10, 5)

         for i in range(len(base)):
             alpha = base[i]
             x, y, yprime = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
             ax1.plot(x, y)
             ax2.plot(y, yprime)
             base[i] = round(base[i], 2)

         fig.tight_layout()
         plt.legend(base)
         fig.show()

```



1.3.6 (vii)

The Duffing equation, shown below, describes an oscillator using Hooke's law.

$$\frac{d^2s}{dt^2} + \alpha(t) \frac{ds}{dt} + \omega^2(t) s(t) + \gamma s(t)^3 = \beta \cos(ut), \quad \beta, u \in \mathbb{R}$$

Conclusion: Reminds me of a Picasso.

```
In [36]: k = 15
         m = 0.75
         AA = 2
         alpha = 0.3
         beta = 1
         gamma = 1
         omega2 = -1
         u = 1.2
         y = [1, 0]

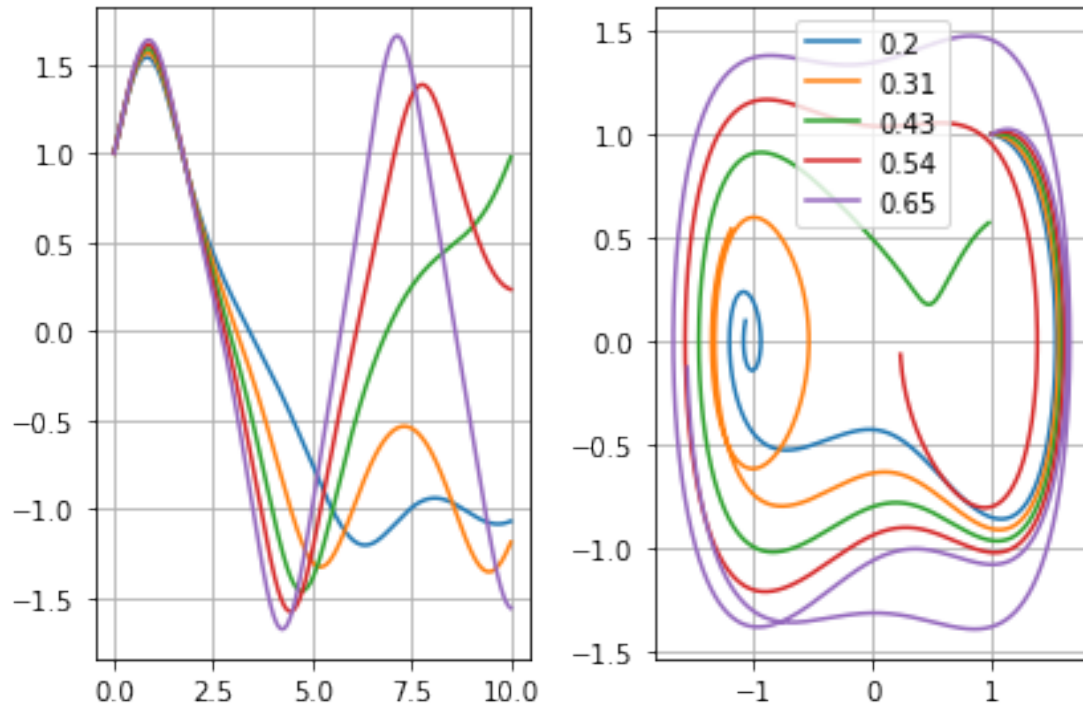
In [37]: def F(t,y,yprime):
         return -alpha*yprime - omega2*y - gamma*y**3 + beta*np.cos(u*t)

fig = plt.figure()
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(121)
ax1.grid(True)
ax2 = fig.add_subplot(122)
ax2.grid(True)

base = np.linspace(0.2, 0.65, 5)

for i in range(len(base)):
    beta = base[i]
    x, y, yprime = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
    ax1.plot(x, y)
    ax2.plot(y,yprime)
    base[i] = round(base[i], 2)

fig.tight_layout()
plt.legend(base)
fig.show()
```



1.3.7 (viii)

```
In [38]: k = 15
         m = 0.75
         alpha = 0.7
         beta = 2
         gamma = 5
         omega2 = -1.5
         u = 5
         y = [-1, -1]

In [39]: def F(t,y,yprime):
         return -alpha*yprime - omega2*y - gamma*y**3 + beta*np.cos(u*t)

fig = plt.figure()
ax1 = fig.add_subplot(121)
ax1.grid(True)
ax2 = fig.add_subplot(122)
ax2.grid(True)

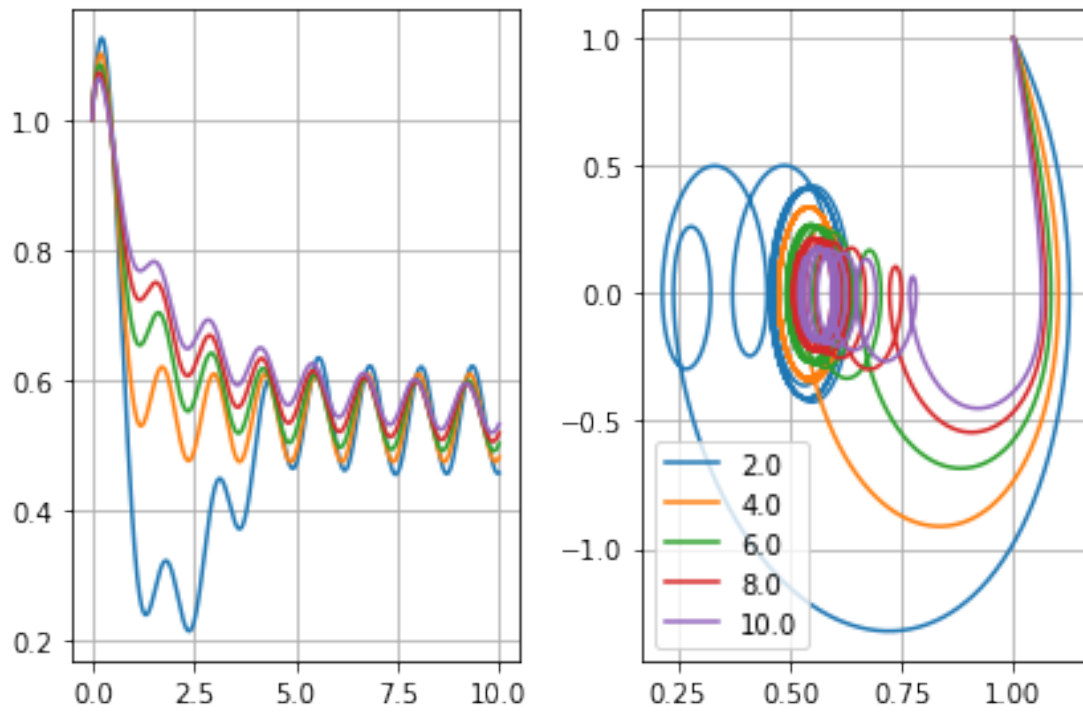
base = np.linspace(2, 10, 5)
```

```

for i in range(len(base)):
    alpha = base[i]
    x, y, yprime = _euler(t_0, t_max, y_0)
    ax1.plot(x, y)
    ax2.plot(y, yprime)
    base[i] = round(base[i], 2)

fig.tight_layout()
plt.legend(base)
fig.show()

```



In []: