

# Mathematical Modelling

isakhammer

2020

## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Lecture 1</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1	Practical Information . . . . .	2
1.2	Dimensional Analysis . . . . .	2
1.3	Fundamental Units . . . . .	2
1.4	Trinity of the first atomic blast . . . . .	3
1.5	Steady-state single phase flow in a uniform straight pipeline . . .	4
<b>2</b>	<b>Lecture 2</b>	<b>5</b>
2.1	Practical Information . . . . .	5
2.2	Recall . . . . .	5
2.3	Scaling . . . . .	5
2.4	Buckinghams Pi-Theorem . . . . .	5
2.5	Scaling . . . . .	6
<b>3</b>	<b>Lecture 3</b>	<b>8</b>
3.1	Recall . . . . .	8
3.2	Sinking Ball . . . . .	8
3.2.1	Scaling . . . . .	10
3.3	Let Analyze The equation . . . . .	12
3.3.1	Case B . . . . .	12
3.3.2	Case C: High V and high friction . . . . .	12
3.4	Turbulence . . . . .	13
<b>4</b>	<b>Lecture 31/08</b>	<b>14</b>
4.1	Turbulence . . . . .	14
4.2	Regular Perturbation Theory . . . . .	16
4.3	The Projectile Problem . . . . .	16
<b>5</b>	<b>Lecture 02/09</b>	<b>20</b>
5.1	Modelling how the kidney disposes salt and water. . . . .	21
5.1.1	Scaling the model . . . . .	24
<b>6</b>	<b>References</b>	<b>25</b>

# 1 Lecture 1

## 1.1 Practical Information

You need to know

- Separable 1. order equations.
- Linear 1. order equations.
- 2. order linear equations with constant coefficients.

## 1.2 Dimensional Analysis

Basic facts

- Any physical relation has to make sense dimensionally.
- Any physical relation must be valid for any choice of fundamental units.

*Remark.*

- **Forbidden**  $3m + 2kg = ?$
- $m = f(x, t)$  is legal
- $e^{-t}$  and  $s = 5t^2$ , is nonsense
- **Dimension** is length, mass, energy, etc.
- **Unit** is meter, feet, year, etc

Make sure  
remark looks  
better

Given a variable  $R$ , we write  $R = \overbrace{v(R)}^{\text{numerical value}} \underbrace{[R]}_{\text{unit}}.$

If we have a physical relation that is dimensionally correct that

$$f(R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n) = 0 \rightarrow f(v(R_1), v(R_2), \dots, v(R_n)) = 0$$

## 1.3 Fundamental Units

Given units  $F_1, F_2, \dots, F_m$  for fundamental if

$$F_1^{\alpha_1}, F_2^{\alpha_2}, \dots, F_m^{\alpha_m} = 0 \rightarrow \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = 0$$

This units are then independent. **Example.** The units  $kg, m, s$  are independent.

**Example.** In a right angle triangle with angle  $\alpha$  and hypotenuse  $c$ . We know the area  $A$  is uniquely determined by  $\alpha$  and  $c$

$$A = f(c, \alpha)$$

$\alpha$  is dimensionless since  $\alpha = \frac{s}{r}$ . Since  $A$  scales as the square of the length, then is

$$f(ac, \alpha) = a^2 f(c, \alpha)$$

$$c = 1 \rightarrow f(a, \alpha) = a^2 f(1, \alpha) = a^2 h(\alpha)$$

Which then ends up with the relation

$$A = a^2 h(\alpha)$$

Make corollary environmet

Lets derive  $A = a^2 h(\alpha)$  somewhat differently. We know there is a relation  $f(A, c, \alpha) = 0$ . We want to introduce new variables.

$$\Pi_1 = \frac{A}{c^2}, \quad c = c_1, \quad \alpha = \alpha_1$$

which means  $f(c^2 \Pi_1, c, \alpha) = 0$  and  $h(\Pi_1, \alpha, c) = 0$ .  $h$  must be dimensionally consistent  $\rightarrow h$  must be independent of  $c$ .

$$h(\Pi_1, \alpha) = 0 \leftrightarrow \Pi_1 = k(\alpha)$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{A}{c^2} = k(\alpha) \quad \leftrightarrow \quad A = c^2 k(\alpha)$$

## 1.4 Trinity of the first atomic blast

We assume there is a relation

$$f(E, \rho, r, t) = 0$$

- Energy:  $E, [E] = kgm^2s^{-2}$
- Mass density of air:  $\rho, [\rho] = kg^{-3}$
- Radius:  $r, [r] = m$
- Time:  $t, [t] = s$

We choose 3 independent variables, say  $r, t, \rho$ . Also we call  $r, t, \rho$  **core variables**. Let us define a dimensionless number  $\Pi_1$  such that

$$[\Pi_1] = 0$$

The relation is now given by  $h(\Pi, t, r, \rho) = 0$ , where  $h$  is independent of  $t, r$  and  $\rho$ . Which in fact is  $h(\Pi) = 0$ , where  $\Pi_1 = c$  s.t.  $[c] = 1$ .

Given by the definition is

$$\frac{Et^2}{\rho r^5} = c \quad \rightarrow \quad E = \frac{c \rho r^5}{t^2}$$

Using  $\rho = 12kgm^{-3}$ ,  $r = 110m$ ,  $t = 6 \cdot 10^{-3}$  do we end up with the relation

$$E = c \cdot 7.5 \cdot 10^{13} J$$

## 1.5 Steady-state single phase flow in a uniform straight pipeline

### Figure of a pipe

Pipe with flow  $u$ , length  $L$  and pressure drop  $\Delta p$  Then there is a relation between

- $L$  : length,  $[L] = m$
- $D$ : diameter  $[D] = m$
- $u$ : flow rate  $[u] = ms^{-1}$
- $\Delta p$ : Pressure drop,  $[\Delta p] = kgm^{-1}s^{-2}$
- $\mu$ : (Shear) viscosity  $[\mu] = kgm^{-1}s^{-1}$
- $\rho$ : mass density:  $[\rho] = kgm^{-3}$
- $E$ : Wall roughness:  $[E] = m$

We have to choose 3 core variables and they are not unique. Since we have 3 independent units  $\rho, u, D$  are independent such that it can be a core variable:

$$\Pi_1 = \frac{L}{D} \quad , \quad \Pi_2 = \frac{\Delta p}{\rho u^2} \quad , \quad \Pi_3 = \frac{\rho}{\mu} \quad , \quad \Pi_4 = \frac{E}{D}$$

Then the relation is

$$\begin{aligned} f(\Pi_1, \Pi_2, \Pi_3, \Pi_4, \rho, D, u) &= 0 \quad \Pi_2 = h(\Pi_1, \Pi_3, \Pi_4) \leftrightarrow \frac{\Delta p}{\rho u^2} = h(\Pi_1, \Pi_3, \Pi_4) \\ &\rightarrow \frac{\Delta p}{u^2 \rho} = \Pi_1 k(\Pi_3, \Pi_4) \\ \Delta p &= u^2 \rho \frac{L}{D} k\left(\frac{\rho D u}{\mu}, \frac{E}{D}\right) \\ \text{measure } \frac{\rho D \mu}{\mu} \quad , \quad k &= \frac{\Delta p D}{u^2 \rho} \end{aligned}$$

## 2 Lecture 2

### 2.1 Practical Information

Ask for zoom meeting. ola.mahlen@ntnu.no, wednesday 13-14.

### 2.2 Recall

Last time did we consider steady-state single phase in a flow in a pipe.

- Assuming  $f(L, \Delta p, u, \mu, D, E, \rho) = 0$  we arrive with this formula

$$\frac{\Delta p D}{u^2 \rho L} = k \left( \underbrace{\frac{\rho u D}{\mu}}_{\text{Reynhold number}}, \underbrace{\frac{E}{D}}_{\text{Relative wall roughness}} \right)$$

- Dimensionless numbers are often called **dimensionless groups**. Such numbers are independent of choice of fundamental units. They have real physical meaning. **Reynholds number**  $R_e$  essentially define what type of flow. Usually  $R_e < 2000$  is it laminar flow and  $R_e > 4000$  turbulent flow.

### 2.3 Scaling

Let a pipe have diameter  $D$  and flow rate  $u$  such that  $t_v = \frac{D}{u}$ . Then can we describe

$$t_\alpha = \frac{D^2}{\frac{\mu}{\rho}}$$

where  $\mu$  is the kinematic viscosity. Then is  $R_e$  defined such that

$$R_e = \frac{t_\alpha}{t_v}$$

Assume we have the relation

$$R_1 = f(R_2, \dots, R_m)$$

Such that it exist an

$$\Pi_1 = g(\Pi_2, \Pi_2, \dots, \Pi_{m-k}).$$

### 2.4 Buckingham's Pi-Theorem

Assume we have a dimensionally valid relation  $f(R_1, \dots, R_m) = 0$  and a set of fundamental units  $F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n$  such that

$$[R_j] = F_1^{a_{j1}} F_2^{a_{j2}} \dots F_n^{a_{jn}} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

This then defines the dimension matrix  $A$  given by

	Table 1:			
	$F_1$	$F_2$	$\dots$	$F_n$
$R_1$	$a_{11}$	$a_{11}$		$a_{1n}$
$R_2$	$a_{21}$	$a_{21}$		$a_{2n}$
$\vdots$		$\ddots$		
$R_n$	$a_{m1}$	$\dots$		$a_{mn}$

Fix better table environment.

Let  $\text{rank}(A) = \dim(\text{row}(A)) = k$ . This translates to that we have  $k$  dimensionally independent variables. Choosing  $k$  linearly independent row vectors, corresponds to choosing core variables. Let this basis be  $\mathbf{a}_{i1}, \mathbf{a}_{i2}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{ik}$ . Let the rest of the row vectors be

$$\mathbf{a}_{j_1}, \mathbf{a}_{j_2}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{j_{m-k}}$$

Then is  $\mathbf{a}_{j_r} = \sum_{s=1}^k C_{j_r,s} \mathbf{a}_{i_s}$  where  $r = 1, \dots, m-k$ . We end up with the equation

$$\Pi_r = \frac{R_{j_r}}{R_{i_1}^{r_{j_r,1}} R_{j_2}^{a_{j_r,2}} \dots R_{j_k}^{a_{j_r,k}}}$$

Are dimensionally numbers.

Our relation becomes

$$g(\Pi_1, \dots, \Pi_{m-k}) = 0, \quad \begin{cases} i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k \\ j_1, \dots, j_{m-k} \end{cases}$$

**Example.** Swinging pendulum

Assume there is a relation

$$f(w, \alpha_0, L, M, g) = 0$$

where  $w$  is the frequency,  $g$  gravitational acceleration,  $M$  mass,  $\alpha_0$  the swinging angle. We can set  $L, M, g$  as core variables such that

$$\left[ \frac{L}{g} \right] = s^2 \quad \rightarrow \quad \left[ \frac{L}{g} w^2 \right] = 1$$

$$f(w, \alpha_0, L, M, g) = 0 \implies g \left( \alpha_0, \frac{L w^2}{g} \right) = 0$$

## 2.5 Scaling

We have a problem at hand, usually differential equations. Then we try to find representative scales for the various variables, and then write the equation on so-called dimensionless form. This has several advantages

- Our dimensionless variables are of order 1 .
- We get rid of a lot of physical constants.
- It makes us able to see what terms are "small" in the equation. The idea is to introduce dimensionless variables by introducing appropriate scales. If we have a stick of length  $L$ , we choose  $L$  as length scale i.e

$$x^* = Lx \quad \text{Where } x \text{ is dimensionless}$$

**Example.** Heat flow in a rod with length  $L$ . Let  $u^*(x^*, t^*)$  be the temperature with the boundary conditions

$$u^*(0, t^*) = 0 \quad u^*(L, t^*) = 0$$

If we let the model be

$$\frac{\partial u^*}{\partial t^*} = D \cdot \frac{\partial^2 u^*}{\partial x^{*2}}, \quad u^*(0, t^*) = 0 \quad u^*(L, t^*) = 0$$

$$u^*(x^*, 0) = u_0 \sin\left(\pi \frac{x^*}{L}\right)$$

We find the time scale  $T$  by scales **balancing the equation** .

Let  $x^* = Lx$  , and  $t^* = Tt$ , where  $T$  is to be determined  $u^* = u_0 u$ . If we find  $u(x, t)$ , then the physical temperature is given by

$$u^*(x^*, t^*) = u_0 u\left(\frac{x^*}{L}, \frac{t^*}{T}\right)$$

We have  $u(0, t) = u(1, t) = 0$

$$\frac{\partial u^*}{\partial t^*} = D \frac{\partial^2 u^*}{\partial x^{*2}} \implies \frac{u_0}{T} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{u_0}{L^2} D \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

$$\leftrightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \left(\frac{TD}{L^2}\right) \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \quad \text{Balancing the equation}$$

$$\frac{TD}{L^2} = 1 \implies T = \frac{L^2}{D}$$

$$u^*(x^*, 0) = u_0 \sin\left(\pi \frac{x^*}{L}\right)$$

$$u(x, 0) = \sin(\pi x)$$

which fulfills the condition

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}, \quad u(0, t) = u(1, t) = 0$$

### 3 Lecture 3

#### 3.1 Recall

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial u^*}{\partial t^*} &= D \frac{\partial^2 u^*}{\partial x^{*2}} \\ 0 &\leq x^* \leq L \\ x^* &= Lx \\ t^* &= Tt \\ u^* &= u_0\end{aligned}$$

We can also recall

$$\begin{aligned}u^*(x^*, t^*) &= u_0 u\left(\frac{x^*}{L}, \frac{t^*}{T}\right) \\ \frac{u_0}{T} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} &= D \frac{u_0}{L^2} \implies \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{TD}{L^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \\ \text{Require } \frac{TD}{L^2} &= 1 \implies T = \frac{L^2}{D}\end{aligned}$$

This can be generalized to

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1$$

#### 3.2 Sinking Ball

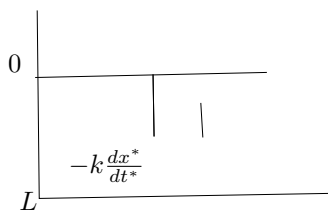


Figure 1: sinkingball

Let



- $\rho_b$  e mass density of ball
- $\rho_f$  mass density of fluid
- $V$  Volume of ball

Then is the equation

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_b V g - \rho_f V g &= V g \rho_b \left(1 - \frac{\rho_f}{\rho_b}\right) \\ &= m \hat{g} \implies \hat{g} = g \left(1 - \frac{\rho_f}{\rho_b}\right)\end{aligned}$$

And we then end up with the newtons law

$$m \frac{dx^{*2}}{dt^{*2}} = m \hat{g} - k \frac{dx^*}{dt^*}, \quad \text{Friction coefficient } k$$

where

$$x^*(0) = 0, \quad \frac{dx^*}{dt^*}(0) = V$$

The cases can be described as follows

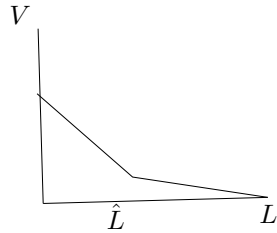


Figure 2: highV

1. High friction, not so high  $V$ . Ball will sink at constant speed most of the time.
2. Friction is low, and  $C$  not "too high". ( "Free fall with  $V=0$ ")
3. High  $V$ , and high friction  $m \frac{d^2 x^*}{dt^{*2}} = m \hat{g} - k \frac{dx^*}{dt^*}$

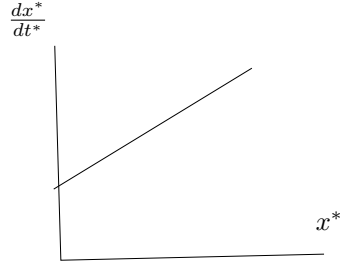


Figure 3: frefall

For this problem there is 3 characteristic speeds

1.  $V$  : initial velocity
2.  $v_0$  : equilibrium speed in case A  $v_0 = \frac{m\hat{g}}{k}$
3.  $v_f$  : free fall  $v_f = \sqrt{2\hat{g}L}$

Let us put

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 x^*}{dt^{*2}} = 0 &\implies k \frac{dx^*}{dt} = \hat{g}m \\ &\implies \frac{dx^*}{dt^*} = \hat{g} \frac{m}{k} = v_0 \end{aligned}$$

and put

$$\begin{aligned} x^*(0) = \frac{dx^*}{dt^*}(0) &= 0 \\ k &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

### 3.2.1 Scaling

1. Case A: The ball sinks at constant speed "most" of the time.
  - (a) Length scale  $L$  :  $x^* = Lx$ . Since the ball falls with speed most of the time, a timescale would be  $T = \frac{L}{v_0}$ .  $v$  is not much larger than  $v_0$

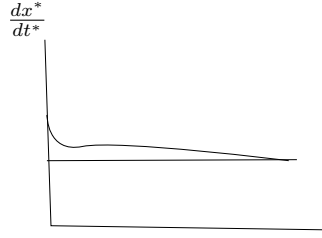


Figure 4: sinking

$\Rightarrow$  it is not so that  $v \gg v_0$

$$\begin{aligned}
 m \frac{L}{T^2} x'' &= m\hat{g} - k \frac{L}{T} x' \quad \text{Divide by } L \\
 \Rightarrow m \frac{1}{kT} x'' &= \frac{Tm\hat{g}}{KL} - x' \\
 \frac{m}{k \frac{L}{v_0}} x'' &= \frac{\frac{k}{v_0} m\hat{g}}{kL} - x' \\
 \Rightarrow \frac{mv_0}{Lk} x'' &= \frac{Lm\hat{g}}{KLv_0} - x'
 \end{aligned}$$

We can then derive

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{m \frac{m\hat{g}}{k}}{Lk} x'' &= 1 - x' \\
 \Rightarrow \frac{m^2 \hat{g}}{Lk^2} x'' &= 1 - x' \\
 \Rightarrow \frac{m^2 \hat{g}^2}{\hat{g} Lk^2} x'' &= 1 - x' \\
 \epsilon x'' &= 1 - x' \quad \text{Where } \epsilon = 2 \left( \frac{v_0}{v_f} \right)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

The condition are  $x(0) = 0$ ,  $\frac{L}{T} x'(0) = V$  which can be rewritten to

$$x'(0) = \frac{TV}{L} \frac{\frac{L}{v_0 V}}{L} = \frac{V}{v_0} = \mu$$

### 3.3 Let Analyze The equation

In case A is the

$$\epsilon \ddot{x} = 1 - \dot{x}$$

An approximation we can do is to put  $\epsilon = 0$  such that

$$0 = 1 - \dot{x} \quad x(0) = 0, \quad \dot{x}(0) = \mu \quad \ddot{x} = 0$$

unless  $\mu = 1$ , we cant find a solution.

#### 3.3.1 Case B

Small friction,  $V$  is not too high. Let the lengthscale be  $L$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2}{dt^{*2}} x^{*2} &= \hat{g}, \quad x^*(0) = \frac{dx^*}{dt^*}(0) = 0 \\ x^*(t^*) &= \frac{1}{2} \hat{g} (t^*)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Hit the bottom with speed  $V_f$ . We can choose time scale  $T$  such that

$$T = \frac{L}{v_f}$$

So gain

$$\frac{mL}{T^2} \ddot{x} = m\hat{g} - \frac{kL}{T} \dot{x}$$

What you can observe is that gravity dominates so we modify the equation to be

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{L}{\hat{g}T^2} \ddot{x} &= 1 - \frac{kL}{gmT} \dot{x} \\ \implies 2\ddot{x} &= 1 - \left( \frac{v_F}{v_0} \right), \quad \frac{K}{T} \dot{x}(0) = 0 \\ 2\ddot{x} &= 1 - \epsilon \dot{x} \quad \dot{x}(0) = \frac{V}{v_f} = \mu \end{aligned}$$

#### 3.3.2 Case C: High V and high friction

Let us consider

$$m \frac{d^2 x^*}{dt^{*2}} = -kV \quad \frac{dx^*}{dt^*} = V - \frac{kV}{m} t^* = 0$$

Where we choose the scales  $t^* = \frac{m}{k} = T$ ,  $L = \frac{Vm}{k}$ , where  $TV = L$ .

$$\implies \ddot{x} = \epsilon - \dot{x}, \quad x(0) = 1, \quad \dot{x} = 1, \quad \epsilon = \frac{v_0}{V}$$

**Example.** Let

$$a \frac{d^2 x^*}{dt^{*2}} + b \frac{dx^*}{dt^*} + cx^* = 0$$

$$x^*(0) = x_0, \quad \frac{dx^*}{dt^*}(0) = 0$$

Three ways to scale by balancing the equation. Last term "small"

$$x^* = x_0 x, \quad t^* = T t$$

Where  $T$  is to be determined.

$$a \frac{x_0}{T^2} \ddot{x} + b \frac{x_0}{T} \dot{x} + cx_0 = 0$$

$$\ddot{x} + \frac{bT}{a} \dot{x} + \frac{cT^2}{a} = 0$$

If we are smart can we choose the timescale  $T = \frac{a}{b}$  then we get

$$\ddot{x} + \dot{x} + \frac{ca^2}{b^2 a} = 0.$$

$$\implies \ddot{x} + \dot{x} + \left( \frac{ca}{b^2} \right) x = 0$$

### 3.4 Turbulence

Reynold number

$$Re = \frac{u \rho L}{\mu} = \frac{uL}{\frac{\mu u}{\rho}} = \frac{uL}{\nu}$$

Then we have

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = \nu \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2}$$

## 4 Lecture 31/08

### 4.1 Turbulence

Kolmogorov's Microscales .

$$\rho \frac{du}{dt} = \mu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

Time scale for convective flow over a distance  $L$

$$t_c = \frac{L}{U}, \quad U \text{ is velocity.}$$

This can be rearranged such that

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \left( \frac{\mu}{\rho} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right).$$

We also define  $\mathcal{V} = \frac{\mu}{\rho}$  where  $[\mathcal{V}] = m^2 s^{-1}$ , which is the time for dispersion of velocity.

Let  $t_d = \frac{L^2}{\mathcal{V}}$  such that the Reynolds number can be written

$$Re = \frac{v\rho L}{\mu} = \frac{UL}{\left(\frac{\mu}{\rho}\right)} = \frac{UL}{\mathcal{V}} = \frac{t_d}{t_0}$$

For water is  $\mathcal{V} = 10^{-6} m^2 s^{-1}$ . So for a river, put  $L = 100m$  with  $U = 1m s^{-1}$

$$Re = \frac{1m s^{-1} \cdot 100m}{10^{-6} m^2 s^{-1}} = 10^8$$

Assume the generation of new whirls stops when  $t_d \approx t_c \rightarrow Re \approx 1$ . Let

$$E = \frac{\text{Energy}}{\text{time per unit mass}}$$
$$[E] = kg m^2 s^{-2} s^{-1} kg$$

Let  $l$  be the scale of the smallest whirls and  $u$  the unit velocity then is

$$E = E(l, u, \mathcal{V}).$$

We assume that  $E$  is proportional to  $u^2$ .

$$f\left(\frac{E}{u^2}, l, \mathcal{V}\right) = 0$$

Table 2:

	$m$	$s$
$\frac{E}{n^2}$	1	0
$l$	1	0
$v$	2	-2

$$\left[ \begin{array}{c} \frac{E}{u^2} \\ \mathcal{V} \end{array} \right] = m^{-2}$$

$$\Pi = \frac{\frac{E}{u^2}}{\mathcal{V}} l^2$$

choose  $\Pi = 1$

$$\rightarrow E = \mathcal{V} \left( \frac{u^2}{l} \right)^2$$

$$ul = \mathcal{V}$$

$$\Rightarrow k = \left( \mathcal{V}^3 \frac{1}{E} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}}, \quad u = (VE)^{\frac{1}{4}}$$

**Example .** Let us have  $1kg$  what in a mixmaster and apply  $100W$  power.  
then is

$$l = \left( \frac{(10^{-6} m^2 s^{-1})^3}{100 m^2 s^{-3}} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} = 0.01 mm$$

## 4.2 Regular Perturbation Theory

Assume we have an equation s.t.

$$D(x, \varepsilon) = 0 \quad \text{where} \quad \varepsilon \ll 1$$

meaning that  $\varepsilon$  is small.

We have a solution  $x(\varepsilon)$  to the problem  $D(x, \varepsilon)$ . The perturbation problem is regular if  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} x(\varepsilon)$  is a solution to  $D(x, 0) = 0$ . The idea is

1. Put  $x(\varepsilon) = x_0 + \varepsilon x_1 + \varepsilon^2 x_2 + \dots$

$$x(\varepsilon) \approx x_0 \quad \text{in 0. order}$$

$$x(\varepsilon) \approx x_0 + \varepsilon x_1 \quad \text{to 1. order}$$

2. Insert  $x(\varepsilon) = x_0 + \varepsilon x_1 + \dots$  into  $D(x, \varepsilon)$ .

3. Collect all terms of order 0, all terms of order 1 so that

$$D(x, \varepsilon) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \underbrace{(\quad)}_{=0} + \underbrace{(\quad)}_{=0} \varepsilon^2 + \dots = 0$$

**Example.** Let

$$x^3 + x^2 + \varepsilon x - 2 = 0, \quad \varepsilon \ll 1$$

For  $\varepsilon = 0$  we have  $x = 1$  as a solution. To find a solution "close to" 1 when  $\varepsilon \neq 0$  we put

$$x = 1 + \varepsilon x_1 + \varepsilon^2 x_2 + O(\varepsilon)$$

Want an approximation to 2. order. We get

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + \varepsilon x_1 + \varepsilon^2 x_2)^3 + (1 + \varepsilon x_1 + \varepsilon^2 x_2)^2 + \varepsilon(1 + \varepsilon x_1 + \varepsilon^2 x_2) - 2 &= 0 \\ \implies \varepsilon(5x_1 + 1) + \varepsilon^2(\dots) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$x(\varepsilon) \approx 1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{5} + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{125}$$

## 4.3 The Projectile Problem

Let  $v_0$  be the vertical velocity and  $v_e$  be escape velocity such that  $v_0 \ll v_e$ .

Newton gravitational law

$$\mathbf{F} = -m \frac{R^2 g}{(R + x^*)^2}$$

Where  $g$  is the gravitational constant at  $x^* = 0$ .



Energy to move to  $x^* = \infty$

$$\begin{aligned}
-\int_0^\infty \mathbf{F} dx^* &= mgR^2 \int_0^\infty \frac{dx^*}{(R+x^*)^2} \\
&= mgR^2 \left[ -\frac{1}{(R+x^*)} \right]_0^\infty \\
&= mgR = \frac{1}{2}mv_e^2 \\
\implies v_e &= \sqrt{2gR}
\end{aligned}$$

We have

$$m \frac{d^2 x^*}{dt^{*2}} = -m \frac{gR^2}{(R+x^*)^2}$$

Such that

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^{*2}} = -\frac{R^2 g}{(R+x^*)^2}, \quad x^*(0) = 0, \quad \frac{dx^*}{dt^*}(0) = v_0$$

and  $v_0 \ll v_e$ , when  $x^* \ll R$  (a consequence of  $v_0 \ll v_e$ )

$$\frac{d^2 x^*}{dt^{*2}} \approx -g \quad \frac{dx^*}{dt^*} = v_0 - t^* g = 0 \quad \leftrightarrow t^* = \frac{v_0}{g} = T = \text{timescale}$$

$$X^* = v_0 t^* - \frac{1}{2} t^{*2} g \quad x^*(T) = \frac{v_0^2}{g} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{v_0^2}{g} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{v_0^2}{g}$$

Let  $L = \frac{v_0^2}{g}$  and scale the equation  $\left(\frac{L}{T}\right) = v_0$  and  $x^* = Lx$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{L}{T^2} \ddot{x} &= \frac{-gR^2}{(R+Lx)^2} \leftrightarrow \frac{L}{T^2} \ddot{x} = -\frac{gR^2}{R^2 \left(1 + \frac{L}{R}x\right)^2} \\
\rightarrow \ddot{x} &= \frac{-T^2 \frac{g}{L}}{\left(1 + \frac{L}{R}x\right)^2} \rightarrow \ddot{x} = \frac{-1}{(1 + \varepsilon x)^2}
\end{aligned}$$

Where

$$\varepsilon = \frac{L}{R} = \frac{v_0^2}{Rg} = 2 \frac{2v_0^2}{v_e^2}$$

Following problem

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{-1}{(1 + \varepsilon x)^2}, \quad x(0) = 0, \quad \dot{x}(0) = 1$$

Recall that

$$\begin{aligned}
f(u) &= \frac{1}{(1+u)^2} \rightarrow \int f(u) = \frac{1}{1+u} + C \\
&= C - (1 - u + u^2 - u^3 + \dots) \\
\implies f(u) &= 1 - 2u + 3u^2 + O(u^3)
\end{aligned}$$

Then to second order

$$\ddot{x} = -(1 - 2\varepsilon x + 3\varepsilon x^2), \quad x(0) = 0, \quad \dot{x}(0) = q$$

Next et

$$x(t) = x_0(t) + \varepsilon x_1(t) + \varepsilon^2 x_2(t) + O(\varepsilon^3)$$

So let

$$\begin{aligned} x_j(0) &= 0 \quad \text{for } j = 0, 1, 2 \\ \ddot{x}_0(0) &= 1, \quad \dot{x}_1(0) = \dot{x}_2(0) = 0 \\ &\rightarrow \ddot{x}_0 + \varepsilon \ddot{x}_1 + \varepsilon^2 \ddot{x}_2 = -1 + 2\varepsilon(x_0 + \varepsilon x_1) - 3\varepsilon^2 x_0^2 \\ &\rightarrow (\ddot{x}_0 + 1) + \varepsilon(\ddot{x}_1 - 2x_0) + \varepsilon^2(\ddot{x}_2 + 2x_1 + 3x_0^2) = 0 \\ \ddot{x}_0 &= -1 \quad x_0(0) = 0, \quad \dot{x}_0 = 1 \\ \ddot{x}_1 &= 2x_0, \quad \dot{x}_1(0) = \dot{x}_2(0) = 0 \\ \ddot{x}_2 &= 2x_1 - 3x_0^2, \quad x_2(0) = \dot{x}_2(0) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\rightarrow x_0(t) = t - \frac{1}{2}t^2 \\ \ddot{x}_1(t) &= 2t - t^2 \\ \dot{x}_1(t) &= t^2 - \frac{1}{3}t^3 \\ x_1(t) &= \frac{1}{3}t^3 - \frac{1}{12}t^4 \end{aligned}$$

Where

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{x}_2 &= \frac{2}{3}t^3 - \frac{1}{6}t^4 - 3\left(t^2 - t^3 + \frac{1}{4}t^4\right) \\ x_2 &= -\frac{1}{4}t^4 + \frac{11}{60}t^5 - \frac{11}{360}t^6 \end{aligned}$$

Which end up with

$$x(t) = t - \frac{1}{2}t^2 + \varepsilon\left(\frac{1}{3}t^3 - \frac{1}{12}t^4\right) + \varepsilon^2\left(-\frac{1}{4}t^4 + \frac{11}{60}t^5 - \frac{11}{360}t^6\right)$$

Gives the idea of how to approx the time to the maximum height.  $\dot{x}(t) = 0$  is a 5. degree equation containing  $\varepsilon$ .

Lets put

$$t = 1 + \varepsilon t_2 + \varepsilon^2 t_3$$

Into the 5. degree equation and to regular perturbation

$$\rightarrow t = 1 + \frac{2}{3}\varepsilon + \frac{2}{5}\varepsilon^2 + O(\varepsilon^3)$$

such that

$$\begin{aligned}\ddot{x} &= \frac{-1}{(1+\varepsilon x)^2} \rightarrow \ddot{x}\dot{x} = \frac{\dot{x}}{(1+\varepsilon x)^2} \\ \rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 \right) &= \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{-1}{\varepsilon} \frac{1}{1+\varepsilon x} \right) \\ \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 &= \frac{-1}{\varepsilon} \frac{1}{1+\varepsilon x} + C \\ \frac{1}{2} &= \frac{-1}{\varepsilon}\end{aligned}$$

$$C = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

where

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 = \frac{-1}{\varepsilon} \frac{1}{1+\varepsilon x} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

At maximum height  $\dot{x} = 0$

$$0 = -\frac{1}{\varepsilon}.$$

## 5 Lecture 02/09

Let Newtons Law be

$$\frac{d^2 s^*}{dt^{*2}} = g \sin(\alpha^*) \implies \frac{d^2 \alpha^*}{dt^{*2}} = -\frac{g}{L} \sin(\alpha^*)$$

scaling:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^* &= \varepsilon \alpha, \quad t^* = Tt \\ \frac{\varepsilon}{T^2} \ddot{\alpha} &= \frac{-g}{L} \sin(\varepsilon \alpha) \implies \ddot{\alpha} = -\left(T^2 g \frac{1}{L}\right) \frac{\sin(\varepsilon \alpha)}{\varepsilon} \\ T &= \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}} \implies \ddot{\alpha} = -\frac{\sin(\varepsilon \alpha)}{\varepsilon} \\ \alpha(0) &= 1 \quad \dot{\alpha}(0) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Let put  $\alpha = \alpha_0(t) + \varepsilon^2 \alpha_2(t) + O(\varepsilon^4)$ . where  $\alpha(t)$  is an even function of  $\varepsilon$  due to symmetry.

$$\alpha_0(0) = 1, \quad \dot{\alpha}_0(0) = 0, \quad \alpha_2(0) = \dot{\alpha}_2(0) = 0$$

Inserted into the equation

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{\alpha}_0 + \varepsilon^2 \ddot{\alpha}_2 &= -\frac{\sin(\varepsilon(\alpha_0 + \varepsilon^2 \alpha_2))}{\varepsilon} \implies \ddot{\alpha}_0 + \varepsilon^2 \ddot{\alpha}_2 \\ &= \frac{-1}{3} \left( \varepsilon \underbrace{(\alpha_0 + \varepsilon^2 \alpha_2)}_u \frac{\varepsilon^2}{6} (\alpha_0 + \alpha \varepsilon^2) \right) \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_0(t) &= A \cos t + B \sin t \\ \alpha_0(0) &= 1, \quad \dot{\alpha}_0(0) = 0 \implies \alpha_0(t) = \cos t \\ \alpha_2(t) &= A \cos t + B \sin t + \alpha_{2,f}(t) \\ \cos^3 t &= \left( \frac{1}{2} (e^{it} - e^{-it}) \right)^3 = \frac{1}{8} (e^{i3t} + 3e^{it} - 3e^{-it} - e^{-i3t}) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} (\cos 3t + 3 \cos t) \\ \alpha_{20}(t) &= A \cos 3t + B \sin 3t + Ct \cos t + Dt \sin t \\ \alpha_2(t) &= \frac{1}{192} (\cos t + \cos 3t) + \frac{1}{16} t \sin t \\ \alpha(t) &= \alpha_0(t) + \varepsilon^2 \alpha_2(t) \quad \text{is not periodic} \end{aligned}$$

**Poincare-Lin Stel Method** . Instead let

$$\alpha(t) = \alpha_0(\omega(\varepsilon)t) + \alpha_2(\omega(\varepsilon)t)\varepsilon^2 + O(\varepsilon^4)$$

Where  $\omega(\varepsilon) = 1 + \omega_2\varepsilon^2 + O(\varepsilon^4)$  . See exercise.

## 5.1 Modelling how the kidney disposes salt and water.

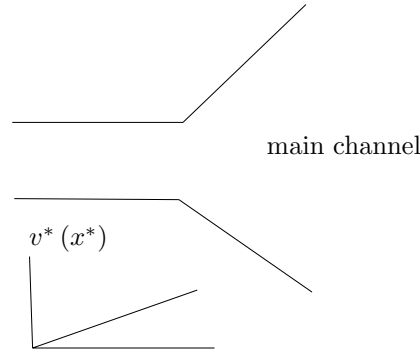


Figure 5: watermodell

### Assumptions

1. Secondary channel is fed water by osmosis from the surrounding tissue.
2. Ions are transported down the channel by convection and diffusion.
3. Ions are fed into the channel by a chemical pump.

We want the steady-state profiles of ion concentration  $C^*(x^*)$  and the velocity  $v^*(x^*)$  of the ion water solution.

The ion concentration is written as

$$[C^*] = \frac{\text{ions}}{m^3} = \frac{\text{osmol}}{m^3}$$

One mole salt gives two moles ions

**Osmosis :**

$$J^* = P(c^* - c_0)$$

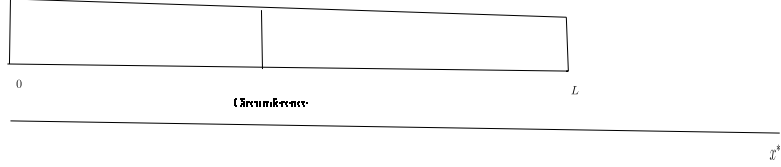


Figure 6: molefig

Is flux density of water entering the secondary channel.  $J^*$  is volume water in per area per time.  $c_0$  ion concentration is tissue and main channel.  $P$  is called membrane permeability.

$$[P] = \frac{[J^*]}{[c^*]} = \frac{ms^{-1}}{osmol \cdot m^{-3}} = \frac{m^4}{s \cdot osmol}$$

Ion flux density

$$N^* = \begin{cases} N_0, & 0 \leq x^* \leq \delta \\ 0, & \delta \leq x^* \leq L \end{cases}$$

Where  $[N_0] = \frac{osmol}{m^2 \cdot s}$ . The total rate of salt entering the channel

$$N_0 \cdot c \cdot \delta$$

Where  $c$  is the area of pump.

- The flux density of ions in the secondary channel

$$F^* = F_c^* + F_\alpha^*$$

$$[F^*] = \frac{osmol}{m^2 \cdot s}$$

- Convective flow

$$F_c^* = c^* v^*$$

- Diffusion: **Ficus law**

$$F_1^* = -D \frac{dc^*}{dx^*}.$$

where  $D$  is the diffusion of salt in water.

Conservation of water

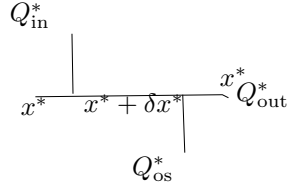


Figure 7: conssswater

$$\begin{aligned}
 Q_{\text{out}}^* &= Q_{\text{in}}^* + Q_{\text{os}}^* \\
 v^*(x^* + \Delta x^*) &= v^* A + P(c^*(\hat{x}) - c_0) c \Delta x^* \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{x}^* \in \langle x^*, x^* + \Delta x^* \rangle \\
 \Rightarrow \frac{v^*(x^* + \Delta x^*) - v^*(x^*)}{\Delta x^*} &= \frac{c}{A} P(c^*(\hat{x}^*) - c_0) \\
 \Delta x^* \rightarrow 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{dv^*}{dx^*} &= \left( \frac{cP}{A} \right) (c^* - c_0)
 \end{aligned}$$

COnservation of salt

$$F^*(x^* + \Delta x^*) A = F^*(x^*) A + N^*(\hat{x}^*) c \Delta x^*$$

This ends up with

$$\begin{aligned}
&\implies \frac{dF^*}{dx^*} = \frac{c}{A} N^*(x^*) \\
&\text{or } \frac{dF^*}{dx^*} = \frac{c}{A} \cdot \begin{cases} N_0, & 0 < x^* < \delta \\ 0, & \delta < x^* < L \end{cases} \\
&F^*(0) = 0 \implies F(x^*) = \begin{cases} \frac{N_0 c}{A} x^*, & 0 < x^* < \delta \\ \frac{N_0 \delta c}{A}, & \delta < x^* < L \end{cases} \\
&\implies v^* c^* - D \frac{dc^*}{dx^*} = F^*(x^*) \\
&\frac{dv^*}{dt^*} = \frac{cP}{A} (c^* - c_0) \\
&v^*(0) = 0 \\
&c^*(L) = c_0
\end{aligned}$$

Also same that  $v^*$  and  $c^*$  are continious at  $x^* = \delta$ .

### 5.1.1 Scaling the model

Two length scales  $\delta$  and  $L$ . Choose  $\delta$  as length scale. Natural to use  $c_0$  as scale for  $c^*$ . The rate salt supplied is

$$N_0 \delta c = c_0 U A$$

Ions supplied is convectiv flux with  $c^*$  such that  $U = \frac{N_0 \delta c}{c_0 A}$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
x^* &= \delta, \\
c^* &= c_0 c \\
v^* &= U v
\end{aligned}$$

1.  $(U c_0) c v - \frac{D c_0}{\delta} \dot{c} = F^*$  such that

$$\implies v c - \frac{D c}{\delta U c_0} \dot{c} = \frac{1}{U c} \cdot \begin{cases} \frac{N_0 c \delta x}{A U c_0}, & 0 < x \delta < \delta \\ \frac{N_0 c \delta}{A u c_0}, & \delta < x \delta < L \end{cases}$$

$$v c - \varepsilon \dot{c} = \begin{cases} x & 0 < x < 1 \\ 1 & 1 < x < \lambda \end{cases}$$

where  $\varepsilon = \frac{D}{\delta u}$ , and  $\lambda = \frac{L}{\delta}$

$$\implies U = \frac{N_0 \delta c}{c_0 A}$$

2.  $\frac{U}{\delta} \dot{v} = \frac{cP}{A} c_0 (c - 1)$



## 6 References