ENGR 308 (Fall 2025) S. Alghunaim

1. Mathematical modeling and engineering problem solving

- mathematical modeling
- simple mathematical model
- conservation laws

Knowledge and understanding vs tools

- effective use of computational tools depends on insight into engineering systems
- even advanced tools are ineffective without a deep understanding of the system
- computers enhance problem-solving but rely on knowledge of system behavior

Gaining understanding

- empirical: observations and experiments yield data and qualitative insights
- theoretical: repeated patterns lead to fundamental laws (e.g., conservation laws)

mathematical modeling SA = FNGR308 1.2

Empirical and theoretical problem solving

Empirical approach

- observe, measure, and experiment
- identify patterns and trends in data

Theoretical approach

- formulate principles and laws
- derive predictions and explanations

effective engineering integrates both approaches

Data-theory relationship

- new data improves or updates models
- theories guide how experiments are designed
- theories unify observations into key principles

Mathematical models and problem solving

a mathematical model represents a physical system using equations

Types of models

- empirical: derived from observed data (e.g., curve fitting)
- theoretical: based on physical laws (e.g., Newton's laws)

Problem solving process

- problem definition: specify the system, goals, and constraints
- data and theory: integrate observations with fundamental laws
- mathematical model: represent the system with equations
- problem-solving tools: apply numerical methods, computation, and statistics
- implementation: produce quantitative or graphical results
- societal interfaces: interpret, optimize, communicate, and apply outcomes

Outline

- mathematical modeling
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Mathematical model

in general, a mathematical model can be expressed as a functional relationship: $dependent \ variable = f(independent \ variables, parameters, forcing functions)$

- *f*: a multi-variable function representing the model
- dependent variable: system response or state (e.g., velocity)
- independent variables: dimensions such as time or space (e.g., t)
- parameters: fixed system properties (e.g., mass)
- forcing functions: external inputs or influences (e.g., applied force)

Example: Newton's second law

Physical law: net force acting on an object equals its mass times acceleration:

$$F = ma$$

where F = net force (N), m = mass (kg), $a = \text{acceleration (m/s}^2)$

Rewritten in model form

$$a = \frac{F}{m}$$

- dependent variable: *a* (acceleration)
- forcing function: *F* (net force)
- parameter: *m* (mass)
- no independent variable (time-independent for this simple case)

Range of mathematical models

Simple vs. complex models

- simple models: algebraic equations (e.g., F = ma)
- complex models: sets of differential equations
 - example: modeling fluid flow or heat transfer

Solution approaches

- analytical: exact solutions (possible for simple models)
- numerical: approximate solutions for complex models

Role of numerical methods

- enable solutions for complex models where analytical methods fail
- provide systematic approximations with controllable error
- connect mathematical models to practical engineering outcomes
- example: solving differential equations for dynamic systems

numerical methods bridge theory and application

Problem: model the velocity of a parachutist under gravity and air resistance



- apply Newton's second law to a dynamic system
- account for forces: gravity (downward) and air resistance (upward)
- derive a differential equation for velocity
- solve analytically or numerically

applying Newton's law ma = F (conservation of momentum) with

$$a = \frac{dv}{dt}$$
, $F = F_U + F_D$, $F_D = mg$, $F_U = -cv$

gives the differential equation

$$m\frac{dv}{dt} = mg - cv$$

- $m = \text{mass kg}, g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$ (gravitational acceleration)
- c = drag coefficient (kg/s), v = velocity
- can be solved exactly (next page)
- numerical approach: approximate using finite differences (covered shortly)

Solution: for initial condition v(0) = 0

$$v(t) = \frac{gm}{c} (1 - e^{-(c/m)t})$$

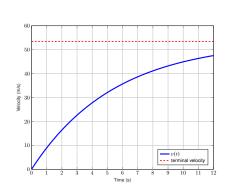
- maps to general model form: v(t) = f(t, m, c, g)
- parameters: m, c
- forcing function: g
- independent variable: t
- dependent variable: v(t)
- predicts terminal velocity as $t \to \infty$: $v \to \frac{gm}{c}$

set parameters: m = 68.1, kg, c = 12.5 kg/s, g = 9.81 m/s²

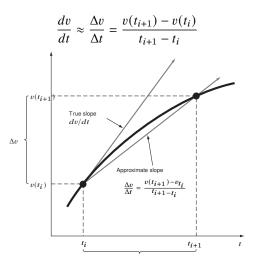
$$v(t) = \frac{9.81 \cdot 68.1}{12.5} (1 - e^{-(12.5/68.1)t}) = 53.44 (1 - e^{-0.18355t}) \text{ m/s}$$

```
m = 68.1; c = 12.5; g = 9.81;
t = 0:0.1:12;
v = (g*m/c)*(1 - exp(-(c/m)*t));
plot(t, v); xlabel('Time (s)'); ylabel('Velocity (m/s)');
```

t (s)	v (m/s)
0	0.00
2	16.42
4	27.80
6	35.68
8	41.14
10	44.92
12	47.54
∞	53.44



Objective: solve numerically by approximating the derivative in the parachutist model



substitute into differential equation on page 1.10:

$$\frac{v(t_{i+1}) - v(t_i)}{t_{i+1} - t_i} = g - \frac{c}{m}v(t_i)$$

rearrange for next velocity

$$v(t_{i+1}) = v(t_i) + \left[g - \frac{c}{m}v(t_i)\right](t_{i+1} - t_i)$$

- formula: new value = old value + slope × step size
- slope: right-hand side of differential equation
- known as Euler's method

compute parachutist velocity using Euler's method and $\Delta t = t_{i+1} - t_i = 2\,\mathrm{s}$

- parameters: $g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$, m = 68.1 kg, c = 12.5 kg/s
- initial condition: v(0) = 0 m/s

First step (t = 0 to t = 2):

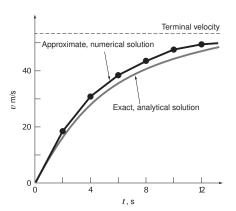
$$v(2) = 0 + \left[9.81 - \frac{12.5}{68.1}(0)\right] \cdot 2 = 19.62\,\mathrm{m/s}$$

Second step (t = 2 to t = 4):

$$v(4) = 19.62 + \left[9.81 - \frac{12.5}{68.1}(19.62)\right] \cdot 2 = 32.04 \,\mathrm{m/s}$$

Results ($\Delta t = 2 \text{ s}$)

v (m/s)
0.00
19.62
32.04
39.90
44.87
48.02
50.01
53.44



Accuracy vs computational effort

- Euler's method approximates the true solution
- finite step size (Δt) causes discrepancy (error)
- smaller Δt (e.g., 1 s) reduces error but increase computation
 - smaller steps improve accuracy
 - double computations per halving of step size

Outline

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Conservation laws

conservation laws govern engineering systems

General form

change = increases - decreases

- simple yet powerful for modeling complex systems
- applied to predict changes or balance states
- examples: mass, momentum, energy conservation
- called time-variable or transient computation

No change: system in balance

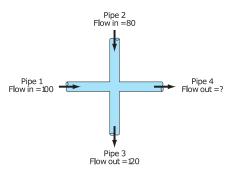
change = $0 \implies$ increases = decreases

- called steady-state computation
- · many applications in engineering

Example: fluid flow

flow in = flow out

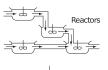
Example: pipe junction



- flow into junction equals flow out
- 100 + 80 = 120 + pipe 4 flow out \Rightarrow pipe 4 flow out = 60

Engineering applications

Chemical engineering



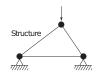
Conservation of mass

Mass balance:



Over a unit of time period \[\Delta \text{mass} = \text{inputs} - \text{outputs} \]

Civil engineering



Conservation of momentum Force balance:



At each node

- Σ horizontal forces $(F_H) = 0$
- Σ vertical forces $(F_{\nu}) = 0$

Engineering applications

Mechanical engineering

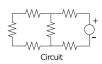


Conservation of momentum Force balance:



 $m\frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$ =downward force – upward force

Electrical engineering



Conservation of charge

Current balance:

For each node Σ current () = 0



Conservation of energy Voltage balance:



Around each loop $\Sigma \ emf's - \Sigma \ voltage \ drops \ for \ resistors = 0 \\ \Sigma \ \xi - \Sigma \ \emph{iR} = 0$

References and further readings

- S. C. Chapra and R. P. Canale. Numerical Methods for Engineers (8th edition). McGraw Hill, 2021. (Ch.1)
- S. C. Chapra. Applied Numerical Methods with MATLAB for Engineers and Scientists (5th edition).
 McGraw Hill, 2023. (Ch.1)

references SA_ENGRADE 1.22