## Project 4

## Euler's Method and Sky Diving

## Background

The derivative $f^{\prime}$ of a function $f$ at $x=x_{0}$ gives the slope of the tangent line at the point $\left(x_{0}, f\left(x_{0}\right)\right)$. One can use the tangent line to estimate values of $f$ for values of $x$ near $x_{0}$ and see whether the function is increasing or decreasing.


We observe that near $x=x_{0}$ the value of $d y$ is a "good" approximation to the true value of $\Delta y$; i.e., the tangent line is "close" to the graph of $f$ when $x$ is close to $x_{0}$. Leibniz's notation for the derivative at $a, \frac{d y}{d x}=f^{\prime}(a)$, was chosen to suggest that $d y=d x \cdot f^{\prime}(a)$. So our new value $y+\Delta y$ is approximated by $y+d y=f(a)+d x \cdot f^{\prime}(a)$. Certainly, the actual value of $y+\Delta y$ could be larger or smaller than our estimate-that depends on the function. The smaller the change in $x$, however, the smaller the error should be.

We have already used the local linearity of differentiable functions to develop Newton's method to approximate the zeroes of a function. A second, and historically important application, interpolation is used to extend the tables. If one knows $f(a)$ and
can determine $f^{\prime}(a)$, then values of $f(a+\Delta x)$ can be estimated by:

$$
f(a+\Delta x) \approx f(a)+\Delta x \cdot f^{\prime}(a)
$$

This technique is particularly valuable when values for $f$ are difficult to calculate.
Local linearity is also used to solve initial value problems:
Suppose we have an easy way to compute $f^{\prime}(x)$. Suppose further we have one point, the initial value, that lies on the graph of $y=f(x)$. From this information we "reconstruct" $f$.
In this project, we adopt a frequently used strategy. We weaken our notion of what it is to reconstruct $f$. Instead of insisting on a formula for $f$, we produce a table of values $[x, f(x)]$. Typically, such data arrays contain anywhere from 20 to 20,000 points $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$.

Before starting to calculate, we need to decide on the size of the table. This decision is based on the needs of the end user of the data, the equipment and time available, and the mathematical nature of the problem. The size of the table determines the range of $x$-values and the total number of entries. Often, the $x$-values are equally spaced to simplify the formulas. Then the domain and the number of entries together determine $\Delta x$, the distance between successive $x$-values in the table.

We construct the table of values as follows:
Our initial point is $\left(x_{0}, f\left(x_{0}\right)\right)$. We calculate $f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)$. The tangent line to $f$ is given by

$$
y=f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right) \cdot\left(x-x_{0}\right)+f\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

Taking $x_{1}=x_{0}+\Delta x$ and substituting into the equation of the tangent line, we get the value

$$
y_{1}=f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right) \cdot\left(x_{1}-x_{0}\right)+f\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

which simplifies to

$$
y_{1}=f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right) \cdot \Delta x+f\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

Knowing the equality $y_{1}=f\left(x_{1}\right)$ is at best approximate, we accept the value and enter it in the table. Now start over from the point $\left(x_{1}, f\left(x_{1}\right)\right)$. We next calculate $f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)$. The corresponding tangent line to $f$ is given by

$$
y=f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot\left(x-x_{1}\right)+f\left(x_{1}\right)
$$

Taking $x_{2}=x_{1}+\Delta x$ and substituting into the equation of the tangent line, we get the value

$$
y_{2}=f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot\left(x_{2}-x_{1}\right)+f\left(x_{1}\right)
$$

which simplifies to

$$
y_{2}=f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right) \cdot \Delta x+f\left(x_{1}\right)
$$

Again we accept the equality $y_{2}=f\left(x_{2}\right)$ for use in the table. To produce the next point, we calculate $f^{\prime}\left(x_{2}\right)$ and move along the new tangent line to reach $\left(x_{3}, y_{3}\right)$.

The process is continued until we have filled the table. Successively generating new values of $f$ in a table by following the tangent lines is known as Euler's method. The diagram below illustrates the construction of the first three points in the table generated by Euler's method.


To give you some feel for the accuracy possible with Euler's method, the figure below shows the graph of the function $f$ along with the graph of the table produced from the initial value problem:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\prime}(x) & =1+2 \cos (2 x) \\
\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) & =(0,0)
\end{aligned}
$$

with the table size determined as:
Range of table: $\quad x$ values from $x=0$ to $x=3$
Number of table entries: 51 (50 new values + the initial point $)$
Step size: $\quad \Delta x=\frac{3-0}{50}=0.06$


Note in this example, on the interval where the function itself is concave down, Euler's method over-approximates the change in $f$. On the interval in which the function is concave up, Euler's method under-approximates the change in $f$. Over the entire interval $[0,3]$, the two errors appear to cancel for this initial value problem.

Let's consider an initial value problem in detail:

Suppose $f^{\prime}(x, y)=x^{2}-y^{2}$ and $f(0.5)=1$.
Construct a table for $f(x)$ over the interval from $x=0.5$ to $x=1.0$.

To begin our construction, we take $\Delta x=0.1$; this will produce five new values and complete a table of 6 entries.

Question 1 How does the choice of the value for $\Delta x$ affect the size of the table generated?

Set up the initial values and functions in your calculator by entering as follows.
Define the $x$ values as list $L_{1}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{seq}(0.5+0.1 \mathrm{~K}, \mathrm{~K}, \quad 0,5) & \rightarrow \mathrm{L}_{1} \\
& \{.5 .6 .7 .8 .9 \ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

Setup list $\mathrm{L}_{2}$ to hold the initial value $y_{0}$ and the 5 calculated $y$ values.

$$
6 \rightarrow \operatorname{dim}\left(L_{2}\right)
$$

and put $y_{0}=1.0$ into $\mathrm{L}_{2}(1)$ and $\Delta x=0.1$ into D .


Now we will create the slope function $m=f^{\prime}(x, y)$ using $Y_{1}$.

```
Y}=\mp@subsup{L}{1}{}(\textrm{X}\mp@subsup{)}{}{\wedge}2-\mp@subsup{L}{2}{\prime}(\textrm{X}\mp@subsup{)}{}{\wedge}
Y
Y}
```

The syntax will be in the form $Y_{1}(1)$ to calculate the slope at the first point $(x, y)=\left(\mathrm{L}_{1}(1), \mathrm{L}_{2}(2)\right)$, then $\mathrm{Y}_{1}(2)$ to calculate the slope at the second point, etc.

Compute the second $y$ value and put it into $\mathrm{L}_{2}(2)$.

$$
\mathrm{L}_{2}(1)+\mathrm{Y}_{1}(1) * \mathrm{D} \rightarrow \mathrm{~L}_{2}(2)
$$

Calculate the rest of the table entries.

| $\mathrm{L}_{2}(2)+\mathrm{Y}_{1}(2) * \mathrm{D} \rightarrow \mathrm{L}_{2}(3)$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | . 8754375 |
| $L_{2}(3)+Y_{1}(3) * D \rightarrow L_{2}(4)$ |  |  |
|  |  | . 8477984184 |
| $L_{2}(4)+Y_{1}(4) * D \rightarrow L_{2}(5)$ |  |  |
|  |  | . 8399222026 |

Tedious, wasn't it? To put our values in an array, we will use the calculator's Table. First return to the $Y=$ editor and put $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ into $Y_{2}$ and $Y_{3}$ as shown below.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{Y}_{1}=\mathrm{L}_{1}(\mathrm{X})^{\wedge} 2-\mathrm{L}_{2}(\mathrm{X})^{\wedge} 2 \\
& \mathrm{Y}_{2}=\mathrm{L}_{1}(\mathrm{X}) \\
& \mathrm{Y}_{3}=\mathrm{L}_{2}(\mathrm{X}) \\
& \mathrm{Y}_{4}=
\end{aligned}
$$

In the TBLSET screen, set TblStart to $1, \Delta$ Tbl to 1 , Indpnt to Auto and Depend to Ask. Now go to TABLE. Move the cursor to the $Y_{2}$ column; press ENTER to show the value. Move the cursor to the $Y_{3}$ column; press ENTER to show the value. Moving the cursor and pressing ENTER shows each value. Do not go out of the range of the data or an error will result.

| X | $\mathrm{Y}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Y}_{3}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | .5 | 1 |
| 2 | .6 | .925 |
| 3 | .7 | .87544 |
| 4 | .8 | .84780 |
| 5 | .9 | .83992 |
| 6 | 1 | .85038 |
| 7 |  |  |
| $\mathrm{Y}_{2}=$ |  |  |

The data can also be plotted easily. Go to STAT PLOT, choose Plot 1 and press ENTER. Turn the plot On and set Xlist and Ylist to $L_{1}$ and $L_{1}$, respectively. Before attempting to plot, turn off $Y_{1}, Y_{2}$, and $Y_{3}$ in the $Y=$ editor. Now go to GRAPH setting
the window appropriately.


Clearly, in extending the table to $x=2.5$ we could spend an inordinate amount of time doing arithmetic and entering commands. We can automate Euler's method using a program. Press PRGM and select NEW. Type the name EULER. Carefully enter the lines below:

```
PROGRAM: EULER
:N\longrightarrowDIM(L
:N\longrightarrowDIM(L+
: B}->\mp@subsup{L}{2}{\prime}(1
: seq}(A+J*D,J,0,N-1)->\mp@subsup{L}{1}{
: FOR (K, 1,N-1)
: L
: END
```

To use the program, first define the derivative function and set the initial values:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{Y}_{1}=\mathrm{L}_{1}(\mathrm{X})^{\wedge} 2-\mathrm{L}_{2}(\mathrm{X})^{\wedge} 2 & \text { Define } y^{\prime}=f(x, y)=x^{2}-y^{2} \\
\mathrm{~A}=0.5 & \text { Set } x_{0} \\
\mathrm{~B}=1.0 & \text { Set } y_{0} \\
\mathrm{D}=0.1 & \text { Set } \Delta x \\
\mathrm{~N}=21 & \text { Set } N, \text { the number of points }(x, y)
\end{array}
$$

Now run the program by pressing PRGM and choosing EXEC, EULER. When the Home screen appears, you'll see PrgmEULER. Press ENTER. After a moment, the program will finish.

To see the table of the results, turn on $Y_{1}$ and $Y_{2}$ in the $Y=$ editor and then go to the TABLE.

To see the plot, turn off $Y_{1}$ and $Y_{2}$ in the $Y=$ editor and go to GRAPH choosing ZoomSt at for a good viewing window.

Your data should be similar to the results below.
$\left[\begin{array}{cc}.5 & 1.0 \\ .6 & .925 \\ .7 & .8754375 \\ .8 & .8477984184 \\ .9 & .8399222026 \\ 1.0 & .8503752720 \\ 1.1 & .8780614617 \\ 1.2 & .9219622687 \\ 1.3 & .9809608262 \\ 1.4 & 1.053732412 \\ 1.5 & 1.138697212 \\ 1.6 & 1.234034078 \\ 1.7 & 1.337750067 \\ 1.8 & 1.447792543 \\ 1.9 & 1.562182218 \\ 2.0 & 1.679140890 \\ 2.1 & 1.797189477 \\ 2.2 & 1.915200475 \\ 2.3 & 2.032401189 \\ 2.4 & 2.148335730 \\ 2.5 & 2.262801089\end{array}\right] \quad$

We have avoided several possible problems. In using this procedure you must be careful that all of the initial values are entered as floating point numbers (they must contain a decimal point). Care must be taken in entering parentheses and brackets where required. Minor typing mistakes can result in warnings about "recursive definitions" - heed them unless you have a perverse desire to crash the machine and lose your work.

## Project Report

The velocity of a sky diver is modeled using Newton's Second Law by the system:

$$
\begin{aligned}
v^{\prime}(t) & =9.8-k \cdot[v(t)]^{1.1} & & \text { The units are acceleration, } \mathrm{m} / \mathrm{sec}^{2} \\
v(0) & =v_{0} & & \text { Initial velocity is in } \mathrm{m} / \mathrm{sec} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The first term in the derivative is the acceleration due to the gravity of the earth. The second term is due to air resistance - an important quantity to sky divers.

For your models, take the coefficient of resistance $k=2.1$ and the initial velocities $v_{0}=0.0 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{sec}$ and $v_{0}=4.8 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{sec}$. Use Euler's method to determine the velocity of the sky diver after 10 seconds. Produce at least three tables of different sizes. The first table should have 21 values.

Question 2 Euler's method when used with a small number of points (which gives a large $\Delta x$ ) produces a jagged graph. What size table is needed before the graph "smooths"?

## Extension

1. Recall that velocity $v$ is the derivative of displacement $s$. Use your reconstruction of $v$ from one or more of your tables above to reconstruct $s(t)$, the distance fallen by the sky diver.
2. Consider the effect of a parachute opening after 60 seconds.

## Report Requirements

A minimal project report will include:

- English responses to Questions 1 and 2.
- The annotated Maple statements and calculations used to generate the velocity table.
- A plot of the generated points $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$.
- A discussion of the graphs in relation to your physical intuition of sky diving.

