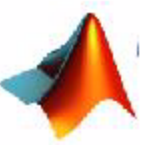




MATLAB Course

For Engineers

lecture 6



Curve Fitting

Numerical Integration

Numerical Differentiation

Numerical Methods for Differential Equations

Curve Fitting (**regression analysis**)

Curve fitting is a **process** of fitting a function to a set of data points. The function can then be used as a **mathematical model** of the data.

There are **many** types of functions (**linear, polynomial, power, exponential, etc**).

Curve fitting with Polynomial, the **polyfit** function is based on the **least-squares** method.

```
p = polyfit(x,y,n)
```

Description

Fits a polynomial of **degree** ***n*** to data described by the vectors ***x*** and ***y***, where ***x*** is the **independent** variable.

Returns a **row** vector ***p*** of length ***n* + 1** that contains the polynomial **coefficients** in order of **descending** powers.

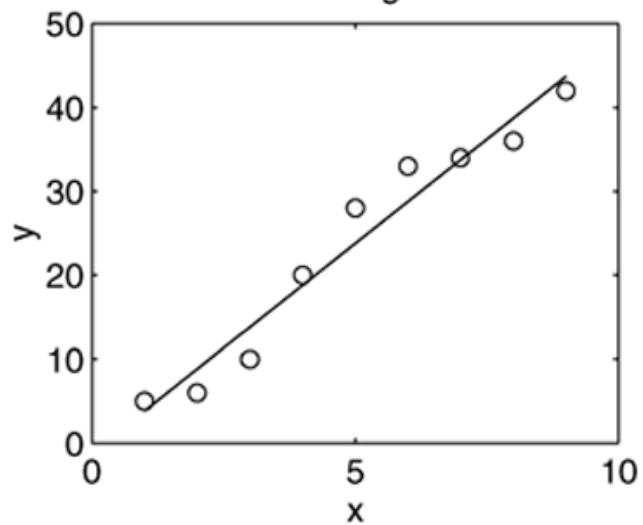
Example: Find a curve fitting (best fit) for a set data, where

x=1,2,3,4,5,6...9 and **y= 5,6,10,20,28,33,34,36,42**.

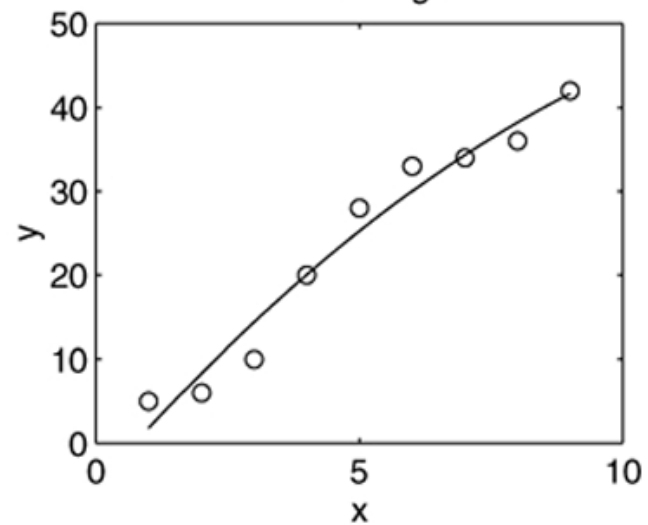
The following **script** file computes the **coefficients** of the **first** – through **fourth-degree** polynomials for these data.

```
x=[1:9] ;  
y=[5,6,10,20,28,33,34,36,42] ;  
P1=polyfit(x,y,1) % First order  
subplot(2,2,1)  
plot(x,y,'o',x,polyval(P1,x),'k'),xlabel('x'),ylabel('y')  
P2=polyfit(x,y,2) % Second order  
subplot(2,2,2)  
plot(x,y,'o',x,polyval(P2,x),'k'),xlabel('x'),ylabel('y')  
P3=polyfit(x,y,3) % Third order  
subplot(2,2,3)  
plot(x,y,'o',x,polyval(P3,x),'k'),xlabel('x'),ylabel('y')  
P4=polyfit(x,y,4) % Fourth order  
subplot(2,2,4)  
plot(x,y,'o',x,polyval(P4,x),'k'),xlabel('x'),ylabel('y')
```

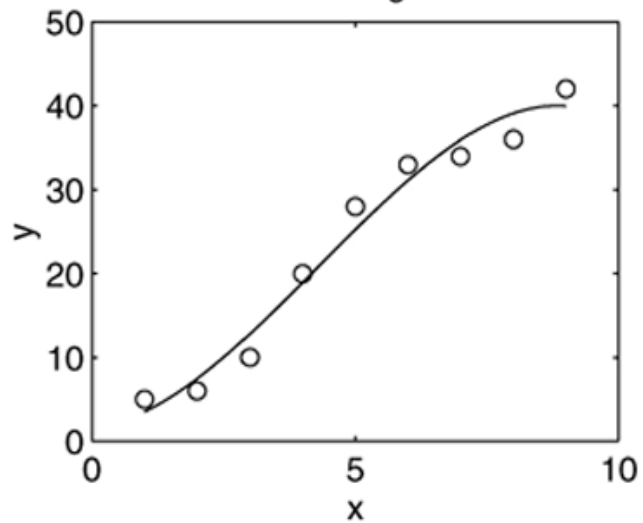
First Degree



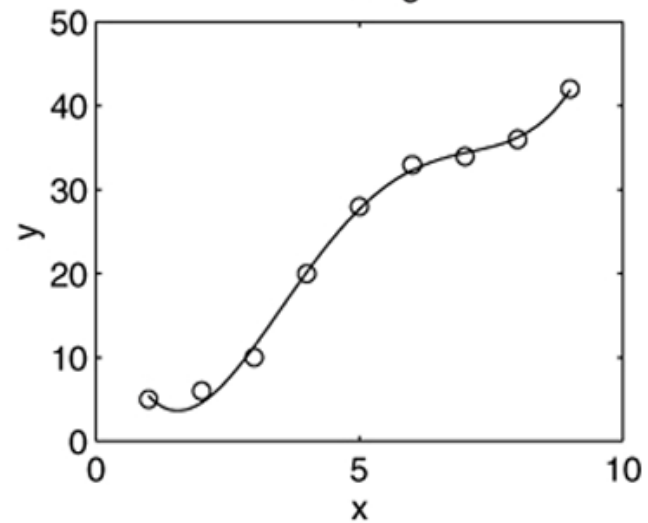
Second Degree



Third Degree



Fourth Degree



Curve Fitting with Functions Order than Polynomials

Using command **polyfit** to find the **curve fitting** of these function :

$$y = bx^m$$

(Power Function)

$$y = be^{mx} \text{ or } y = b(10)^{mx}$$

(Exponential Function)

$$y = m\ln(x)+b \text{ or } y = m\log(x)+b$$

(Logarithmic Function)

$$y = 1/(mx+b)$$

(Reciprocal Function)

All of these functions can easily be fitted to given data with the **polyfit** function. This is done by rewriting the functions in a form that can be fitted with a **linear polynomial** (**n=1**) which has the form : $y=mx+b$

The **logarithmic** function is already in this form, and the **power**, **exponential** and **reciprocal** equations can be rewritten as:

$$\ln(y) = m\ln(x) + \ln(b)$$

(Power Function)

$$\ln(y) = mx + \ln(b) \text{ or } \log(y) = mx + \log(b)$$

(Exponential Function)

$$1/y = mx + b$$

(Reciprocal Function)

polyfit function form

`p=polyfit(log(x),log(y),1)`

$$y = bx^m$$

(Power Function)

`p=polyfit(x,log(y),1)`

$$y = be^{mx}$$

(Exponential Function)

`p=polyfit(x,log10(y),1)`

$$y = b(10)^{mx}$$

`p=polyfit(log(x),y,1)`

$$y = m\ln(x) + b$$

(Logarithmic Function)

`p=polyfit(log10(x),y,1)`

$$y = m\log(x) + b$$

`p=polyfit(x,1./y,1)`

$$y = 1/(mx + b)$$

(Reciprocal Function)

For given data it is **possible** to foresee, to some extent, which of the function has the **potential** for providing a **good fit**. This is done by **plotting** the data using different combinations of **linear** and **logarithmic** axes. If the **data points** in **one** of the **plots** appear to fit a **straight line**, the corresponding function can provide a good fit according to the list below.

<u>x axis</u>	<u>y axis</u>	<u>Function</u>
linear	linear	linear $y = mx + b$
logarithmic	logarithmic	power $y = bx^m$
linear	logarithmic	exponential $y = be^{mx}$ or $y = b10^{mx}$
logarithmic	linear	logarithmic $y = m \ln(x) + b$ or $y = m \log(x) + b$
linear	linear (plot $1/y$)	reciprocal $y = \frac{1}{mx + b}$

Considerations when choosing a **function** are:

- **Exponential** functions can not pass through the **origin**.
- **Exponential** functions can **only** fit data with all **positive** y 's, or all **negative** y 's.
- **Logarithmic** functions can not model $x=0$, or **negative** values of x .
- For the **power** function $y=0$ when $x=0$.
- The **reciprocal** equation can not model $y=0$.

Example: The following data points are given. **Determine** a function $w=f(t)$ where is **t** **independent** variable, **w** is the **dependent** variable.

t	0	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.5	4.0	4.5	5.0
w	6	4.3	3.7	3.15	2.41	1.83	1.49	1.21	0.96	0.73	0.64

The following **script** file computes the coefficients of the function:

```
t=[0:.5:5];  
w=[6,4.83,3.7,3.15,2.41,1.83,1.49,1.21,...  
0.96,0.73,0.64];  
subplot(2,2,1)  
plot(t,w,'o-')  
subplot(2,2,2)  
semilogx(t,w,'o-')  
subplot(2,2,3)  
semilogy(t,w,'o-')  
subplot(2,2,4)  
loglog(t,w,'o-')
```

%The curve fitting of the function is...
exponential from graph

```
p=polyfit(t,log(w),1) %w=be^(mt)
```

```
m=p(1)
```

```
b=exp(p(2))
```

```
t1=[0:0.01:5];
```

```
w1=b*exp(m*t1);
```

```
figure
```

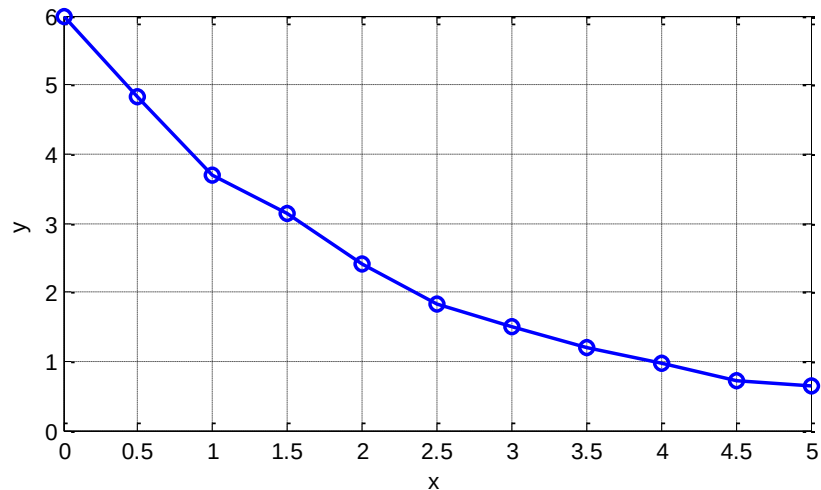
```
plot(t,w,'o',t1,w1,'r')
```

```
title('w = be^{mt}')
```

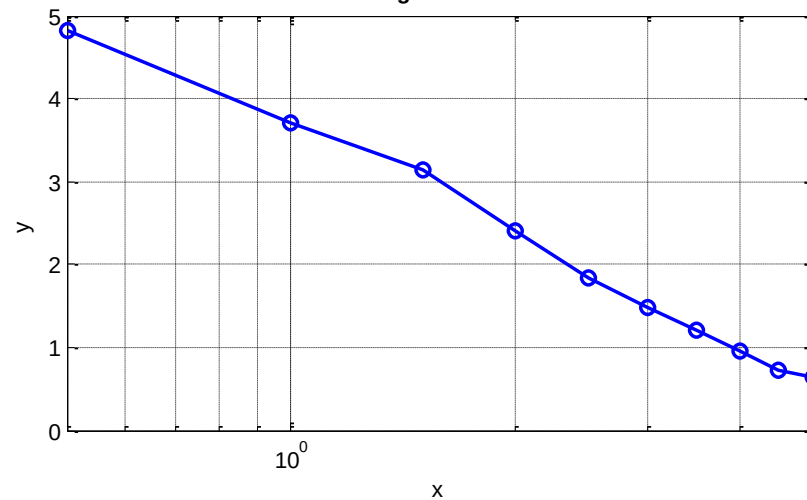
```
xlabel('t')
```

```
ylabel('w')
```

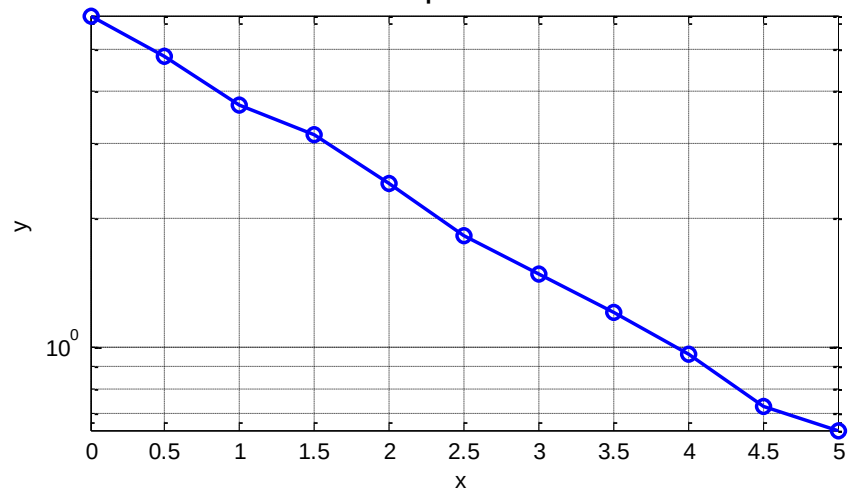
rectilinear



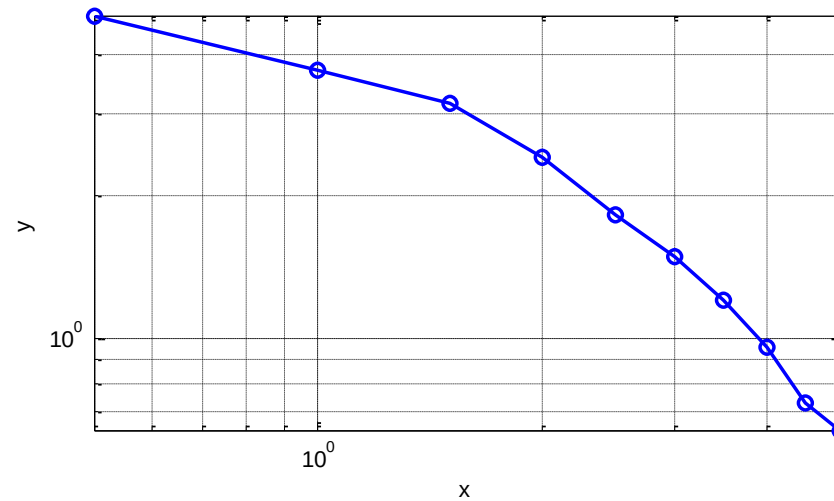
logarithmic

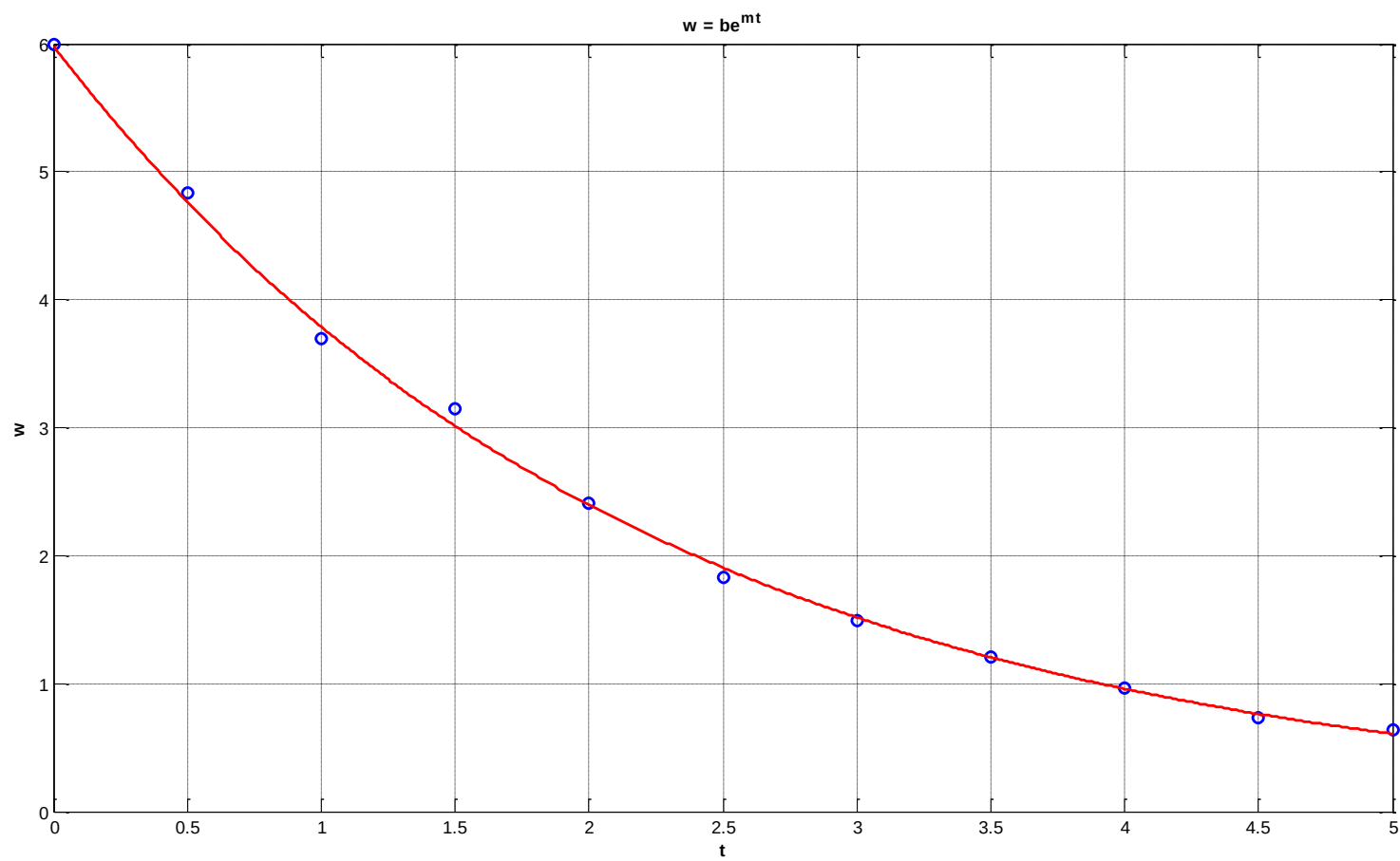


Exponential



Power





Numerical Integration

The **integral** of $f(x)$ interpreted as the area **A** under the curve of $f(x)$ from **$x = a$** to **$x = b$** .

$$A = \int_a^b f(x) \cdot dx$$

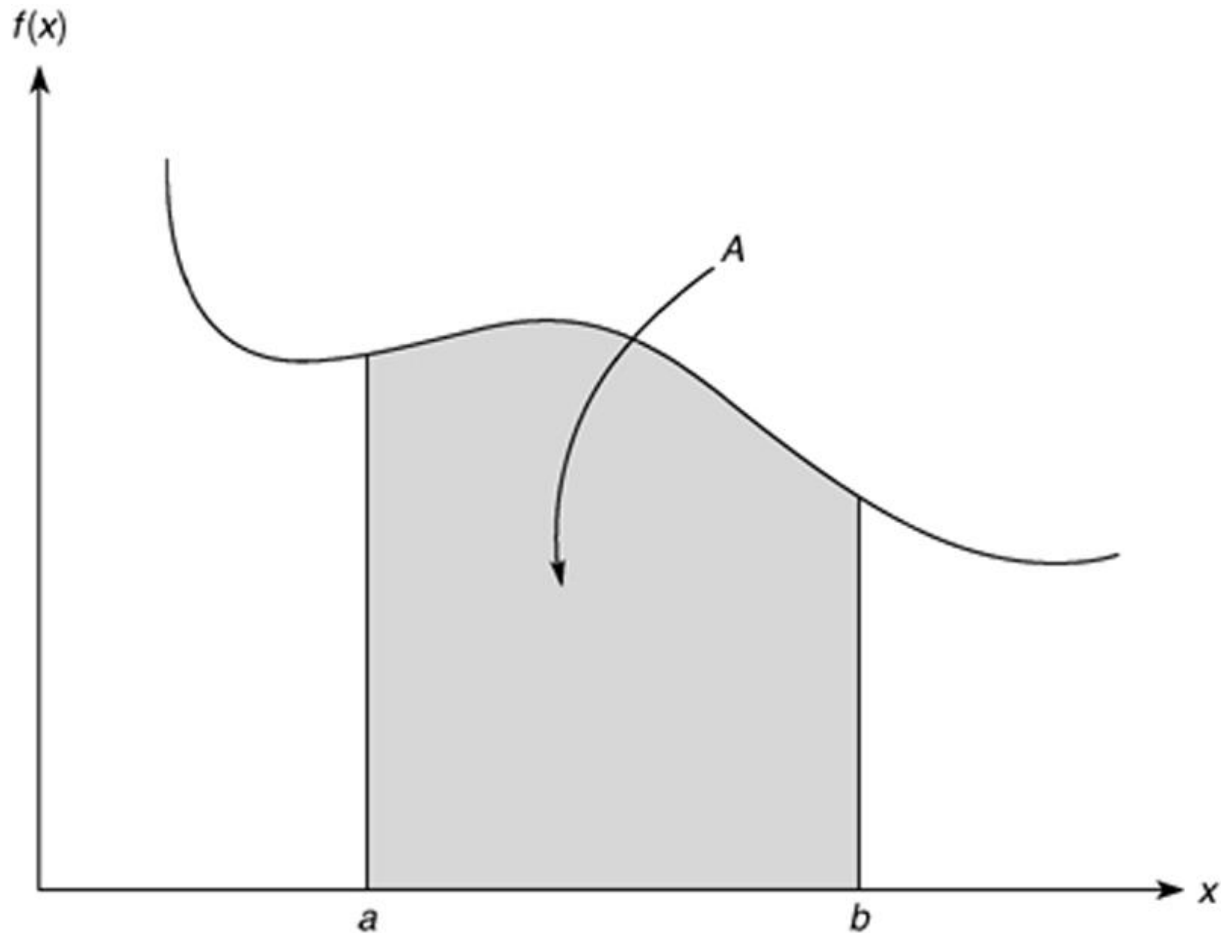
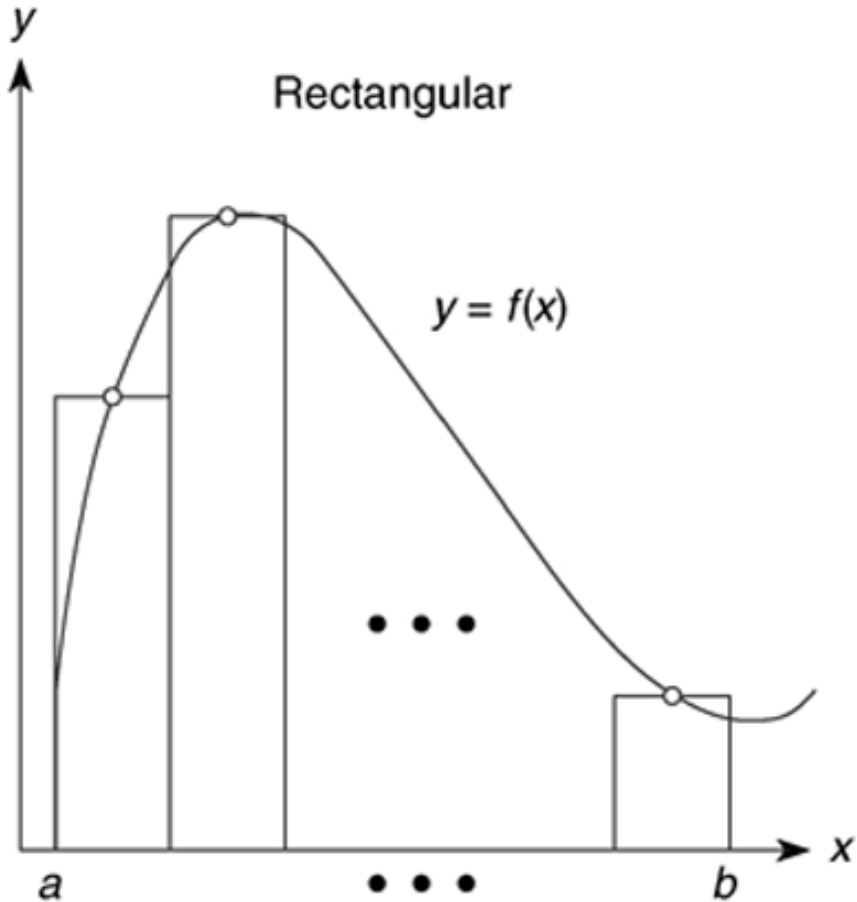
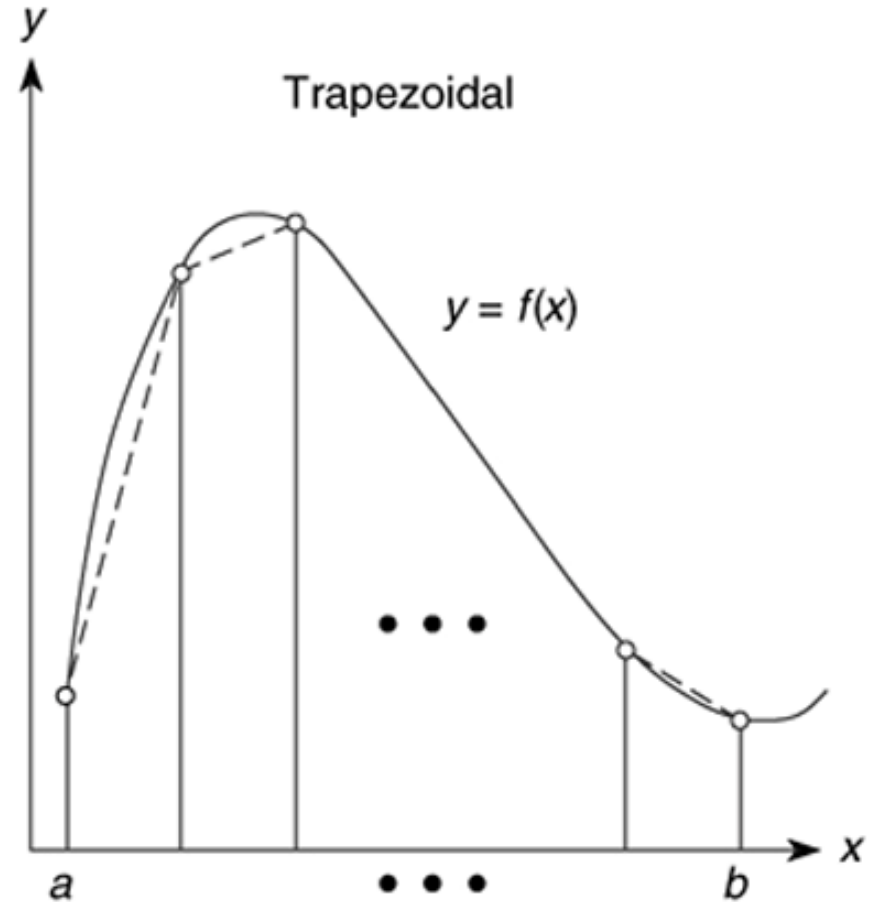


Illustration of (a) **rectangular** and (b) **trapezoidal** numerical integration.



(a)



(b)

Numerical integration functions

Command	Description
<code>quad (fun, a, b)</code>	Uses an adaptive Simpson's rule to compute the integral of the function whose handle is fun , with a as the lower integration limit and b as the upper limit. The function fun <u>must</u> accept a vector argument.
<code>quadl (fun, a, b)</code>	Uses Lobatto quadrature to compute the integral of the function fun . The rest of the syntax is identical to quad .
<code>trapz (x, y)</code>	Uses trapezoidal integration to compute the integral of y with respect to x , where the array y contains the function values at the points contained in the array x .

MATLAB function **quad** implements an adaptive version of **Simpson's rule**, while the **quadl** function is based on an adaptive **Lobatto integration** algorithm.

To compute the **integral** of $\sin(x)$ from 0 to π , type

```
>>A = quad(@sin,0,pi)
```

The **answer** given by MATLAB is **2.0000**, which is correct.
We use **quadl** the same way; namely,

```
>> A = quadl(@sin,0,pi) .
```

To integrate $\cos(x^2)$ from 0 to $\sqrt{2\pi}$, create the function:

```
function c2 = cossq(x)
% cosine squared function.
c2 = cos(x.^2);
```

Note that we must use array exponentiation.

The **quad** function is **called** as follows:

```
>>quad(@cossq,0,sqrt(2*pi))
```

The **result** is **0.6119**.

Polynomial Integration

`q = polyint(p, C)` returns a polynomial `q` representing the integral of polynomial `p` with a user-specified scalar constant of integration `C`.

For example: the integral of $12x^3 + 9x^2 + 8x + 5$ is obtained from `q = polyint([12, 9, 8, 5], 10)`.

The **answer** is `q = [3, 3, 4, 5, 10]`, which corresponds to $3x^4 + 3x^3 + 4x^2 + 5x + 10$.

Double Integrals

A = dblquad(fun,a,b,c,d)

Computes the integral of $f(x,y)$ from $x = a$ to b , and $y = c$ to d .

Here is an **example** $A = \int_0^1 \int_1^3 xy^2 dx dy$ using an **anonymous** function to represent $f(x,y) = xy^2$.

```
>>fun = @(x,y)x.*y^2;  
>>A = dblquad(fun,1,3,0,1)
```

The **answer** is **A = 1.3333**.

Triple Integrals

A = triplequad(fun, a, b, c, d, e, f)

Computes the triple integral of $f(x,y,z)$ from **x = a** to **b**,
y = c to **d**, and **z = e** to **f**.

Here is an **example**

$$A = \int_1^2 \int_0^2 \int_1^3 \left(\frac{xy - y^2}{z} \right) dx dy dz$$

using an **anonymous** function to represent

$$f(x,y,z) = (xy - y^2)/z.$$

```
>>fun = @(x,y,z) (x*y -y^2) /z;
```

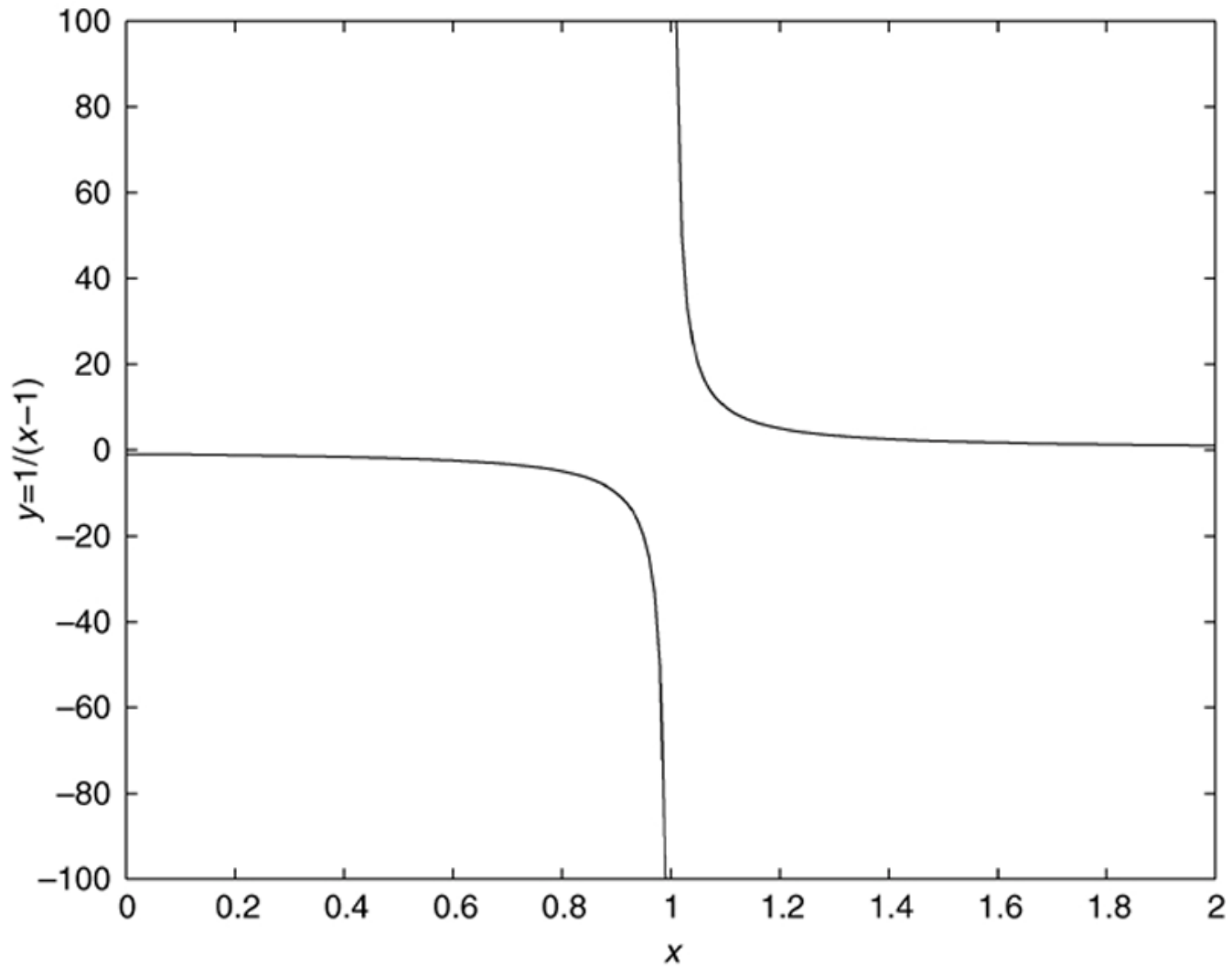
```
>>A = triplequad(fun,1,3,0,2,1,2)
```

The **answer** is **A = 1.8484**. **Note** that the function **must** accept a vector **x**, but **scalar** **y** and **z**.

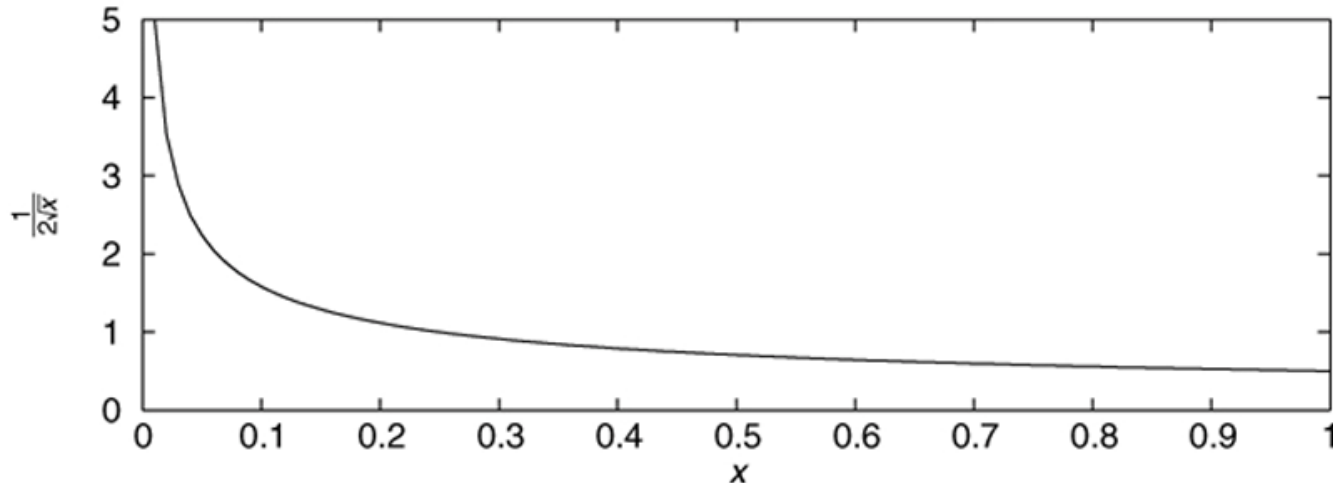
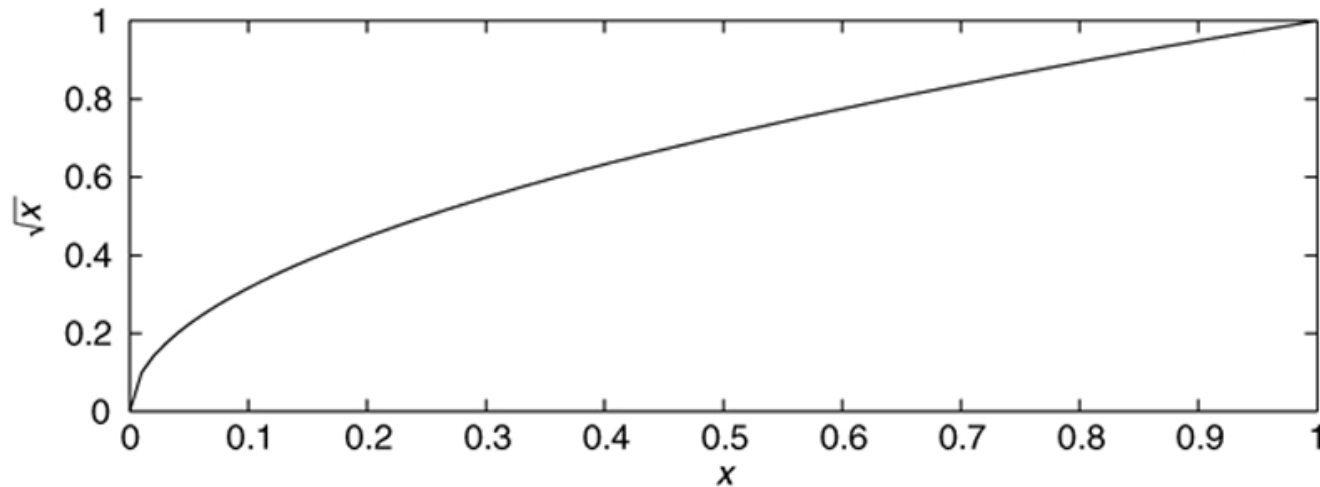
A potential problem with integration.

A function having a **singularity at $x = 1$.**

The plot of
 $y = 1/(x-1)$



Potential problem with integration: a function having a **singularity** in its slope function. The top graph shows the function $y = \sqrt{x}$. The **bottom** graph shows the **derivative** of y . The slope has a **singularity** at $x = 0$.



Although the **quad** and **quadl** functions are **more accurate** than **trapz**, they are **restricted** to computing the integrals of functions and **cannot** be used when the **integrand** is specified by a **set of points**. For such cases, use the **trapz** function.

Using the **trapz** function. Compute the **integral**

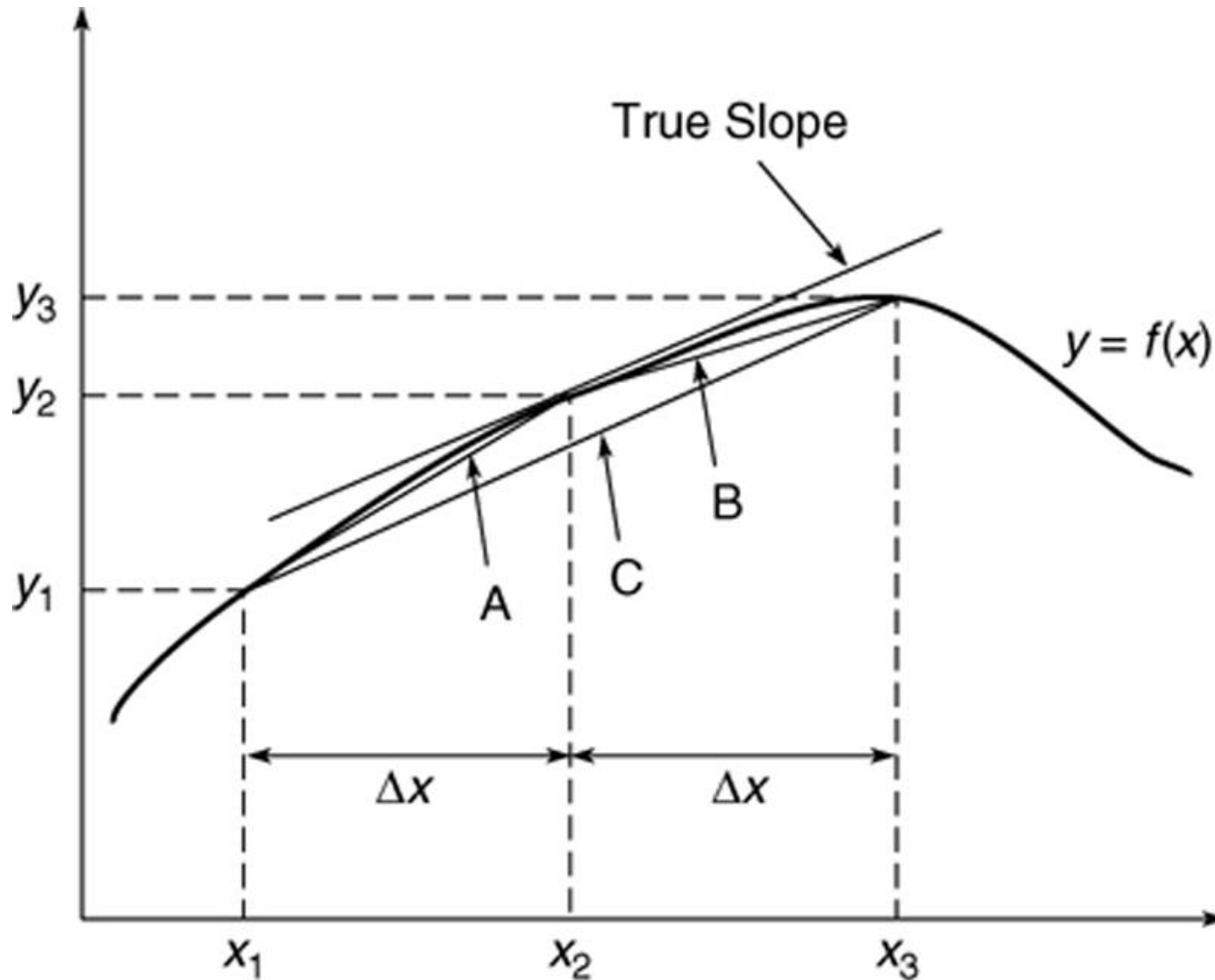
$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx$$

First use **10** panels with equal widths of **$\pi/10$** . The **script** file is

```
x = linspace(0,pi,10) ;  
y = sin(x) ;  
trapz(x,y)
```

The **answer** is **1.9797**, which gives a **relative error** of **$100(2 - 1.9797)/2 = 1\%$** .

Numerical Differentiation: Illustration of **three** methods for estimating the derivative dy/dx .



MATLAB provides the **diff** function to use for computing **derivative** estimates.

Its syntax is **d = diff(x)**, where **x** is a vector of values, and the result is a vector **d** containing the differences between adjacent elements in **x**.

That is, if **x** has **n** elements, **d** will have **n - 1** elements, where

$$d = [x(2) - x(1), x(3) - x(2), \dots, x(n) - x(n-1)].$$

For example, if **x = [5, 7, 12, -20]**, then **diff(x)** returns the vector **[2, 5, -32]**.

The Euler Method

The *Euler method* is the simplest algorithm for numerical solution of a differential equation. Consider the equations

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = f(t, y) \quad y(0) = y_0 \quad (9.3-1)$$

where $f(t, y)$ is a known function and y_0 is the initial condition, which is the given value of $y(t)$ at $t = 0$. From the definition of the derivative,

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{y(t + \Delta t) - y(t)}{\Delta t}$$

If the time increment Δt is chosen small enough, the derivative can be replaced by the approximate expression

$$\frac{dy}{dt} \approx \frac{y(t + \Delta t) - y(t)}{\Delta t} \quad (9.3-2)$$

Assume that the function $f(t, y)$ in Equation (9.3-1) remains constant over the time interval $(t, t + \Delta t)$, and replace Equation (9.3-1) by the following approximation:

$$\frac{y(t + \Delta t) - y(t)}{\Delta t} = f(t, y)$$

or

$$y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + f(t, y)\Delta t \quad (9.3-3)$$

The smaller Δt is, the more accurate are our two assumptions leading to Equation (9.3-3). This technique for replacing a differential equation with a difference equation is the *Euler method*. The increment Δt is called the *step size*.

Equation (9.3-3) can be written in more convenient form as

$$y(t_{k+1}) = y(t_k) + \Delta t f[t_k, y(t_k)] \quad (9.3-4)$$

where $t_{k+1} = t_k + \Delta t$. This equation can be applied successively at the times t_k by putting it in a `for` loop. The accuracy of the Euler method can be improved sometimes by using a smaller step size. However, very small step sizes require longer run times and can result in a large accumulated error due to roundoff effects.

Numerical Methods for Differential Equations

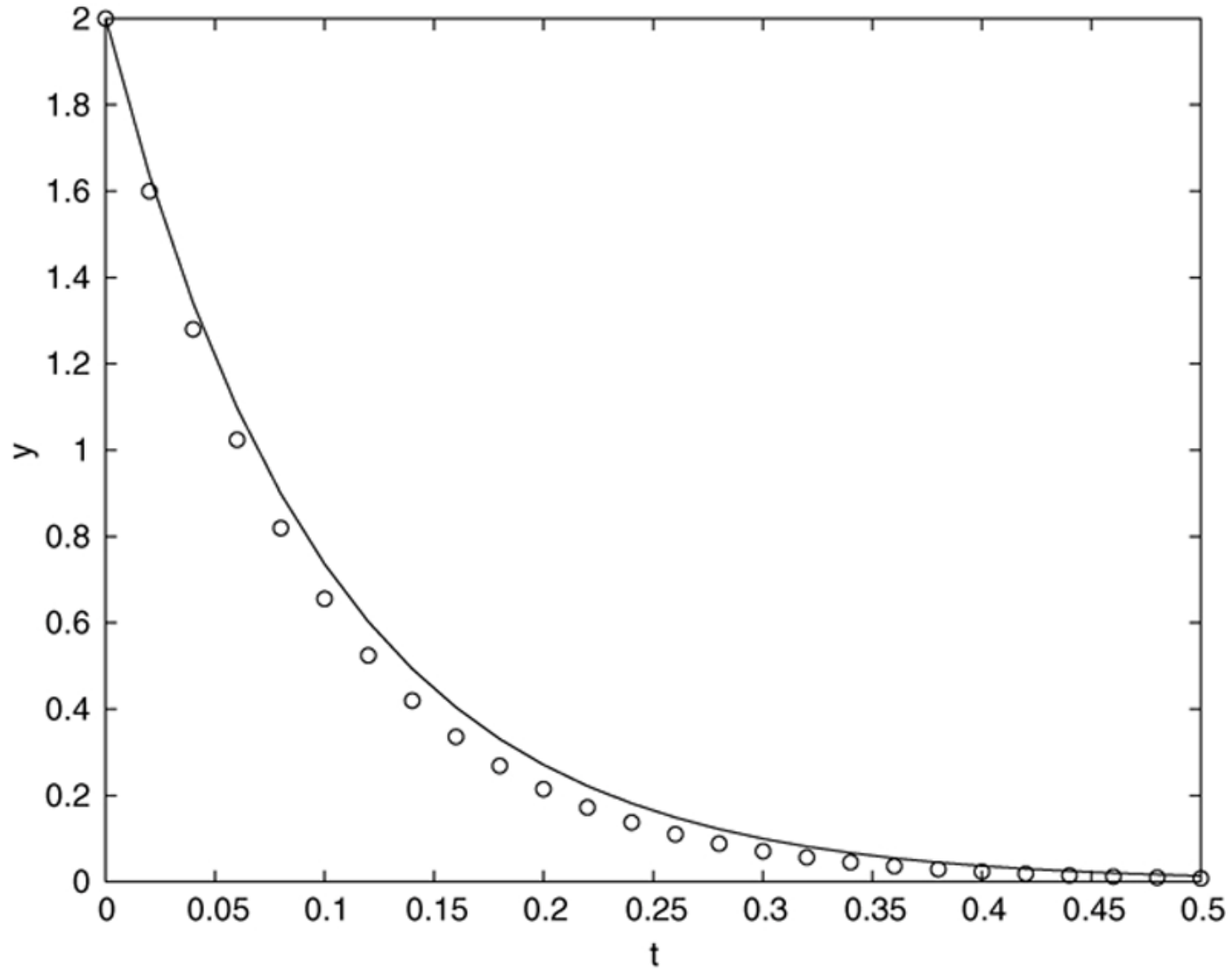
Let $dy/dt = -10y$, $y(0) = 2$ and $0 \leq t \leq 0.5$.

The **true** solution is $y(t) = 2e^{-10t}$.

The following **script** files solves and **plots** the solution by using **Euler method**.

```
r = -10; delta = 0.02; y(1) = 2;  
k=0;  
for time = [delta:delta:0.5]  
k = k + 1;  
y(k+1) = y(k) + r*y(k)*delta;  
end  
t = [0:delta:0.5]; % for true solution.  
y_t= 2*exp(-10*t); % true solution.  
plot(t,y,'o',t,y_t),xlabel('t'),  
...ylabel('y')
```

Euler method solution for the *free response* of
 $dy/dt = -10y$, $y(0) = 2$.



The **ode** solvers.

When used to solve the **ODE** equation $dy/dt = f(t, y)$, the basic syntax is (using **ode23** or **ode45** as the **example**):

```
[t,y] = ode23('ydot', [tspan], y0)
```

where **ydot** is the name of the **function** file whose inputs must be **t** and **y** and whose output must be a **column** vector representing dy/dt ; that is, $f(t, y)$. The number of rows in this **column** vector must equal the **order** of the equation.

Application of an **ode** solver to find the **response** of an RC circuit .

The circuit model for **zero** input voltage v is

$$RC \, dy/dt + y = 0$$

$$RC=0.1s, \, v(t)=0 \, y(0)=2.$$

First solve this for dy/dt :

$$dy/dt = -10y$$

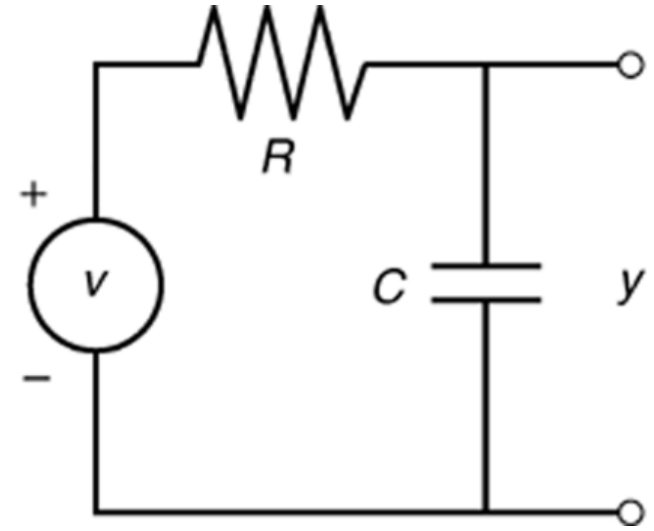
Next **define** the following **function** file.

Note : that the order of the input arguments **must** be **t** and **y**.

The func.name **rccirc.m**.

```
function ydot = rccirc(t,y)
```

```
ydot = -10*y;
```



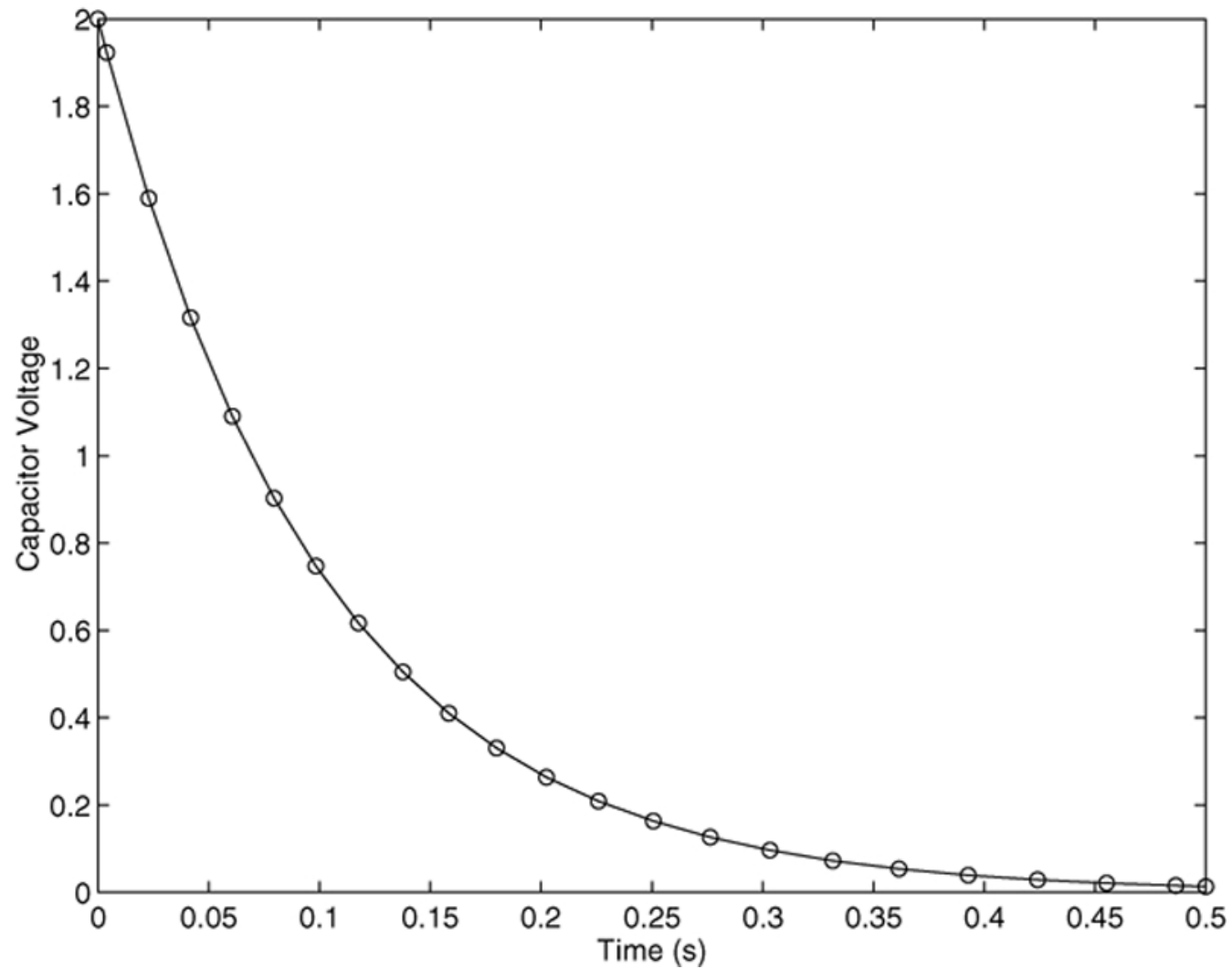
The function is **called** as follows, and the **solution** plotted along with the analytical solution **y_true**.

```
[t,y] = ode45('rccirc',[0,0.4],2);  
y_true = 2*exp(-10*t);  
plot(t,y,'o',t,y_true),  
xlabel('Time(s)')  
ylabel('Capacitor Voltage')
```

Note: that we **need not generate** the array **t** to evaluate **y_true**, because **t** is **generated** by the **ode45** function.

The **plot** is shown on the **next** slide. 

Free response of an RC circuit.



Higher – Order Differential Equations

To use the **ODE** solvers to solve an equation **higher** than order **1**, you **must** first **write** the equation as a set of **first-order** equations.

For example,

$$5d^2y/dt^2 + 7dy/dt + 4y = f(t)$$

$$\text{Set : } x_1 = y, \text{ and } x_2 = dy/dt$$

$$dx_1/dt = x_2$$

$$dx_2/dt = (1/5)f(t) - (4/5)x_1 - (7/5)x_2$$

This form is sometimes called the **Cauchy** form or the **state-variable** form.

$$\text{Solve: } 5d^2y/dt^2 + 7dy/dt + 4y = \sin t$$

Suppose that $f(t) = \sin t$. Then the required file is

```
function xdot= example1(t,x)
% Computes derivatives of two equations
xdot(1) = x(2);
xdot(2) = (1/5)*(sin(t)-4*x(1)-7*x(2));
xdot = [xdot(1); xdot(2)];
```

Note that:

$\text{xdot}(1)$ represents dx_1/dt ,

$\text{xdot}(2)$ represents dx_2/dt ,

$x(1)$ represents x_1 , and $x(2)$ represents x_2 .

Suppose we want to solve previous ODE equation for $0 \leq t \leq 6$ with the initial conditions $x_1(0) = 3$, $x_2(0) = 9$.

Then the initial condition for the vector x is $[3, 9]$. To use `ode45`, you type

```
[t,x] = ode45('example1', [0,6], [3,9]);
```

Each **row** in the vector **x** corresponds to a time returned in the **column** vector **t**. If you type `plot(t,x)`, you will obtain a **plot** of both **x₁** and **x₂** versus **t**.

Note that **x** is a matrix with **two** columns; the **first column** contains the values of **x₁** at the various times generated by the solver. The **second column** contains the values of **x₂**. Thus to **plot** only **x₁**, type `plot(t,x(:,1),t,x(:,2))`.

