

PHYS 5319-001: Math Methods in Physics III

Numerical Solution of ODE

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Ordinary Differential Equations

Standard form: $\frac{d\vec{y}}{dt} = \vec{f}(t, \vec{y})$

Or a set of coupled 1st order ODEs:

$$\frac{dy_i(x)}{dx} = f_i(x, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N)$$

\vec{f} : known
 \vec{y} : unknown except
initial value

e.g. SHO:

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \frac{k}{m}x = 0$$

Define: $y^{(1)}(t) \equiv x(t)$; $y^{(2)}(t) \equiv \frac{dx}{dt}$



$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dy^{(1)}(t)}{dt} &= y^{(2)}(t) \\ \frac{dy^{(2)}(t)}{dt} &= -\frac{k}{m}y^{(1)}(t)\end{aligned}$$

ODEs with initial values

- Starting with 1st order ODE

$$\frac{dy(t)}{dt} = f(t, y)$$

with initial condition $y(0) = y_0$.

- The Taylor series expansion of ~~x~~^y around t gives

$$y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + \frac{dy}{dt} \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} (\Delta t)^2 + \dots \quad (1)$$

Assume a reasonably smooth function $y(t)$ and a small interval Δt , we can propagate $y(t)$ to $y(t + \Delta t)$ to any accuracy desired, as long as we know the derivatives of $y(t)$.



Numerical solution: Euler method

- When Δt is small, it is a good approximation by simply ignoring the second and higher orders of Δt in Eq. (1) as

$$y(t + \Delta t) \approx y(t) + \frac{dy}{dt} \Delta t = y(t) + f(t, y(t)) \Delta t \quad (2)$$

- This is the First-order Approximation – **Euler method**.

- Or in general: $\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + h\vec{f}(t_n, \vec{y}_n) + O(h^2)$

- Obtaining $y(t + \Delta t)$ from $y(t)$ with Eq. (2), we can estimate $y(t + 2\Delta t)$ from $y(t + \Delta t)$ as

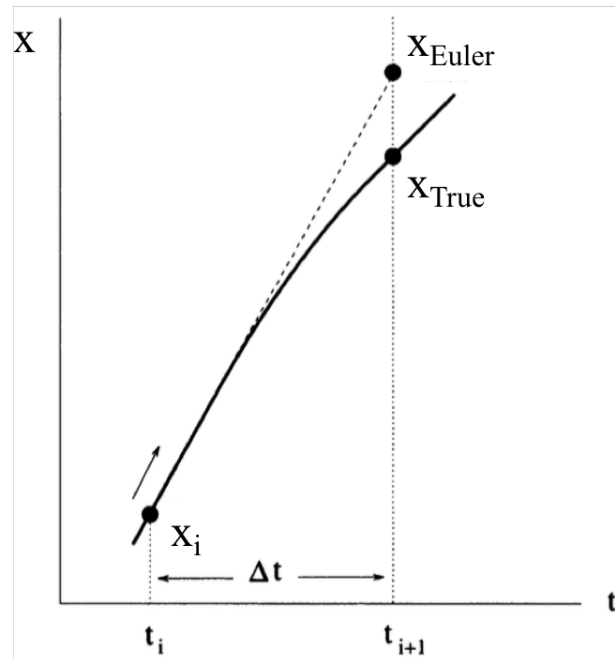
$$y(t + 2\Delta t) = y(t + \Delta t) + f(t + \Delta t, y(t + \Delta t)) \Delta t$$

- Iteratively, we can obtain $y(t + N\Delta t)$. ($N\Delta t \rightarrow$ the interested)

- How to interpret Euler approximation geometrically?

$$x(t + \Delta t) \approx x(t) + \frac{dx}{dt} \Delta t = x(t) + f(x(t), t) \Delta t$$

Here $x(t) \leftrightarrow y(t)$



Error: $O(\Delta t^2)$

Graphically, the Euler method corresponds to the linear extrapolation up to $(t + \Delta t)$ by using a line tangent to $x(t)$ at t .

A larger interval Δt , would cause a larger discrepancy between x_{true} and x_{Euler} .

How to systematically improve it?

How to systematically improve it?

A smaller Δt ? Of course! However, the cost would be the reduction of the efficiency...

Another obvious answer is to keep to higher orders in the Taylor expansion. For example, we could take an iterative approach

$$\begin{aligned} x(t_{i+1}) &\approx x(t_i) + \underbrace{\frac{dx}{dt}}_{f} \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} \Delta t^2 \\ &= x(t_i) + f_i \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\frac{d^2 x}{dt^2}}_{f'} \Delta t^2 \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Remember: $\frac{d}{dt} x(t) = f(x, t)$

Then $\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} x(t) \right) = \frac{d}{dt} (f(x, t))$

➡ $\frac{d^2}{dt^2} (x(t)) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \frac{dt}{dt} = f(x, t) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \quad (2)$

(2) \Rightarrow (1), we obtain the approximation of $x(t_{i+1})$ until the second order in the Taylor expansion as

$$x(t_{i+1}) \approx x(t_i) + f_i \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \left[f_i \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right|_i \right] (\Delta t)^2 ,$$

where the subscript i on the derivatives indicates evaluation at x_i and t_i . This would produce a higher order approximation locally, however, the partial derivatives of $f(x, t)$ must be evaluated.

How about other methods without evaluating the partial derivatives of $f(x, t)$?

One possible approach is to consider the problem as the integration of dx/dt in the range of t to $t + \Delta t$.

What is the integration of $\int_t^{t+\Delta t} \frac{dx}{dt} dt$?

It equals $x(t + \Delta t) - x(t)$, or it can be taken as the area covered by the $\frac{dx}{dt}$ curve and the t axis, with boundaries of $t=t$ and $t=t+\Delta t$.

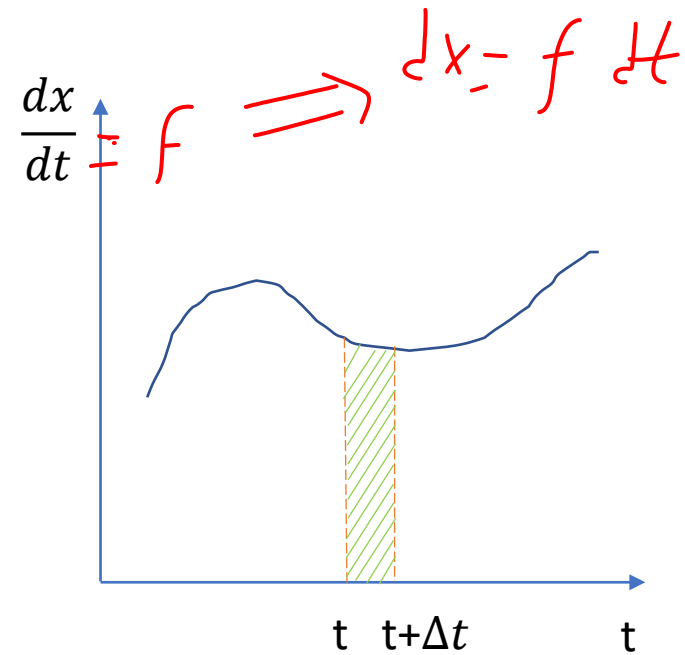
This area can be irregular shape. How to compute it?

-- The mean value theorem

if f is a continuous function on the closed interval $[a, b]$ and differentiable on the open interval (a, b) , then there exists a point c in (a, b) such that the tangent at c is parallel to the secant line through the endpoints $(a, f(a))$ and $(b, f(b))$, that is

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}. \quad \text{Or} \quad f(b) - f(a) = f'(c) * (b - a)$$

= the integration area



That just means there exists a point t_m between t and $t+\Delta t$, and the rectangular area made by the height $\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dy}{dt} \big|_{t=t_m}$, equals to the irregular area $\int_t^{t+\Delta t} \frac{dy}{dt} dt$:

$$y(t + \Delta t) - y(t) = \frac{dy}{dt} \big|_{t=t_m} \Delta t$$

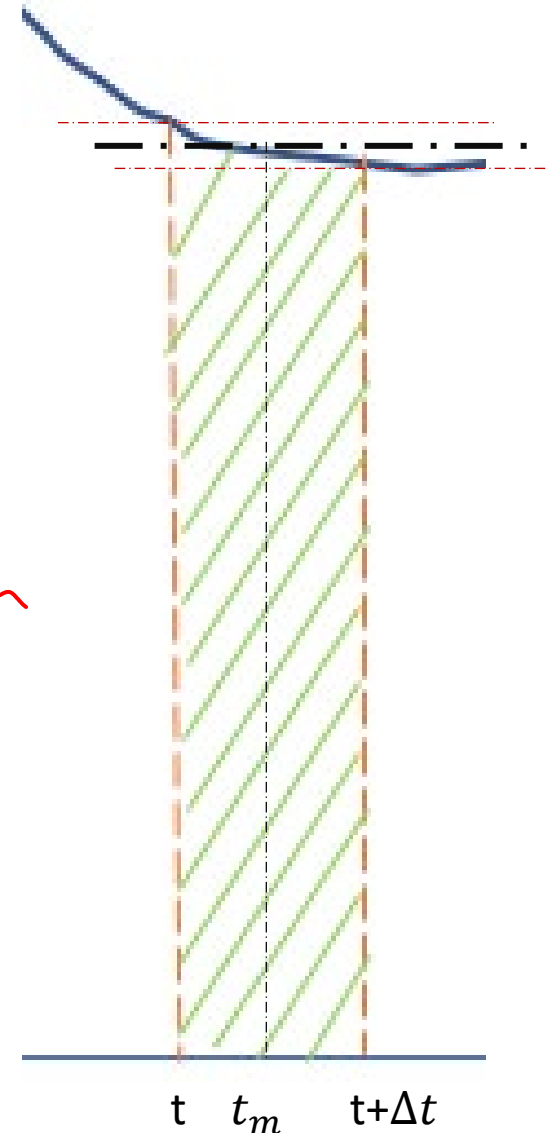
Or $y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + \frac{dy}{dt} \big|_{t=t_m} \Delta t$

$f|_{t=t_m}$

If we could find the point t_m , we then can compute $y(t + \Delta t)$ from $y(t)$ accurately!

Yet, it is not easy to know the exact value of t_m and we will try to estimate it and $\frac{dy}{dt} \big|_{t=t_m}$ effectively.

Here $x(t) \leftrightarrow y(t)$



- A popular estimation method is the second-order Runge-Kutta method

$$y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + f(t', y')\Delta t$$

where

$$y' = y(t) + \frac{1}{2}f(t, y(t))\Delta t$$

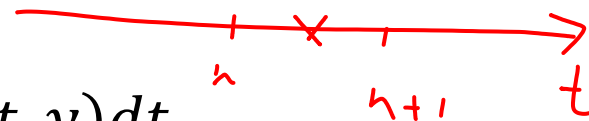
$$t' = \underline{t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t}$$

← Euler
 $O(\Delta t^2)$

- In other words, the slope $\frac{dy}{dt} \big|_{t=t_m}$ is estimated as the value $f(t', y')$ where t' is the midpoint of the interval and y' is the Euler approximated value of y at t' .

- QDE to be solved

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = f(t, y) \Rightarrow dy = f(t, y)dt$$



Integrate on both sides from n-th to (n+1)-th point:

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \int_{t_n}^{t_{n+1}} \underline{f(t, y)} dt$$

$$\int_a^{a+1} dy = y \Big|_a^{a+1} = y_{a+1} - y_a$$

- Since the idea is using the midpoint. Take Taylor series at it:

$$\underline{f(t, y)} \approx f\left(t_{n+\frac{1}{2}}, y_{n+\frac{1}{2}}\right) + (t - t_{n+\frac{1}{2}}) \frac{df}{dt} \Big|_{t_{n+\frac{1}{2}}} + O(h^2)$$

- Substitute $f(t, y)$ into the integral *and do the integration*

Note: $\int_{t_n}^{t_{n+1}} (t - t_{n+\frac{1}{2}}) dt = \frac{1}{2} t^2 \Big|_{t_n}^{t_{n+1}} - \underline{\left(t_{n+\frac{1}{2}} (t_{n+1} - t_n) \right)} = 0$

$$t_{n+\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2} (t_n + t_{n+1})$$

Handwritten note: $\frac{1}{2} (t_{n+1} - t_n)$

- So $\int_{t_n}^{t_{n+1}} f(t, y) dt = f\left(t_{n+\frac{1}{2}}, y_{n+\frac{1}{2}}\right) h + O(h^3)$

$$\Rightarrow y_{n+1} \approx y_n + h f\left(t_{n+\frac{1}{2}}, y_{n+\frac{1}{2}}\right) + O(h^3)$$

The price for the improved precision: to evaluate $f(t,y)$ in the middle of an interval by Euler's algorithm: $y_{n+\frac{1}{2}} \approx y_n + \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{h}{2} = y_n + \frac{h}{2} f(t_n, y_n)$

In summary, the 2nd-order Runge-Kutta algorithm:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{y}_{n+1} &\approx \vec{y}_n + \vec{K}_2 \\ \vec{K}_2 &= h\vec{f}\left(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, \vec{y}_n + \frac{\vec{K}_1}{2}\right) \\ \vec{K}_1 &= h\vec{f}(t_n, \vec{y}_n)\end{aligned}$$

\vec{f} : derivative function(s); known

\vec{y} : unknown; only the initial value(s) required

The algorithm is self-starting

Code (FORTRAN)

```

c second-order Runge-Kutta subroutine
  Subroutine rk2(t, dt, y, n)
c declarations
  Real*8 deriv, h, t, dt, y(1)
  Real*8 k1(5), k2(5), t1(5)
  Integer i, n
  h=dt/2.0
  Do i = 1,n
    k1(i) = dt * deriv(t, y, i)
    t1(i) = y(i) + 0.5*k1(i)
  enddo
  Do i = 1,n
    k2(i) = dt * deriv(t+h, t1, i)
    y(i) = y(i) + k2(i)
  enddo
  Return
  End

```

```

c function which returns the derivatives
  Function deriv(x, temp, i)
c 2 SHO function components: dx/dt = v(t), dv/dt = -w**2*x(t)
c the second term is damping term
  Real*8 deriv, x, temp(2), omega, alpha
  Integer i
  data omega /3.13d0/
  data alpha /0.5d0/
c
  If (i .EQ. 1) deriv=temp(2)
  If (i .EQ. 2) deriv=-temp(1) * omega**2
  Return
  End

```

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} \approx \vec{y}_n + \vec{K}_2$$

$$\vec{K}_2 = h \vec{f}\left(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, \vec{y}_n + \frac{\vec{K}_1}{2}\right)$$

$$\vec{K}_1 = h \vec{f}(t_n, \vec{y}_n)$$

$$\omega^2 = \frac{k}{m}$$

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \left(\frac{k}{m}\right)x = 0$$

$$\frac{dy^{(1)}(t)}{dt} = y^{(2)}(t)$$

$$\frac{dy^{(2)}(t)}{dt} = -\frac{k}{m}y^{(1)}(t)$$

Fourth-order Runge-Kutta

$O(h^5)$

On excellent balance of power, precision, and programming simplicity.

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \frac{1}{6}(\vec{K}_1 + 2\vec{K}_2 + 2\vec{K}_3 + \vec{K}_4)$$

$$\vec{K}_1 = h\vec{f}(t_n, \vec{y}_n)$$

— Euler

$$\vec{K}_2 = h\vec{f}\left(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, \vec{y}_n + \frac{\vec{K}_1}{2}\right)$$

— 2nd-order

$$\vec{K}_3 = h\vec{f}\left(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, \vec{y}_n + \frac{\vec{K}_2}{2}\right)$$

$$\vec{K}_4 = h\vec{f}(t_n + h, \vec{y}_n + \vec{K}_3)$$

4 gradient (K 's) terms; \Rightarrow better approximation to $f(t, y)$ at midpoint.
The 4 K 's can be programmed easily just as 4 functions/subroutines.

Code (FORTRAN)

c fourth-order Runge-Kutta subroutine

Subroutine rk4(x, xstep, y, n)

c declarations

Real*8 deriv, h, x, xstep, y(5)

Real*8 k1(5), k2(5), k3(5), k4(5), t1(5), t2(5), t3(5)

Integer i, n

h=xstep/2.0

Do i = 1, n

k1(i) = xstep * deriv(x, y, i)

t1(i) = y(i) + 0.5*k1(i)

Enddo

Do i = 1, n

k2(i) = xstep * deriv(x+h, t1, i)

t2(i) = y(i) + 0.5*k2(i)

Enddo

Do i = 1, n

k3(i) = xstep * deriv(x+h, t2, i)

t3(i) = y(i) + k3(i)

Enddo

Do i = 1, n

k4(i) = xstep * deriv(x+xstep, t3, i)

y(i) = y(i) + (k1(i) + (2.*(k2(i) + k3(i))) + k4(i))/6.0

Enddo

Return

End

$$\vec{y}_n \rightarrow (\vec{y}_{n+1})$$

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \frac{1}{6}(\vec{K}_1 + 2\vec{K}_2 + 2\vec{K}_3 + \vec{K}_4)$$

$$\vec{K}_1 = h\vec{f}(t_n, \vec{y}_n)$$

$$\vec{K}_2 = h\vec{f}\left(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, \vec{y}_n + \frac{\vec{K}_1}{2}\right) \quad t_1$$

$$\vec{K}_3 = h\vec{f}\left(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, \vec{y}_n + \frac{\vec{K}_2}{2}\right) \quad t_2$$

$$\vec{K}_4 = h\vec{f}(t_n + h, \vec{y}_n + \vec{K}_3)$$

c