

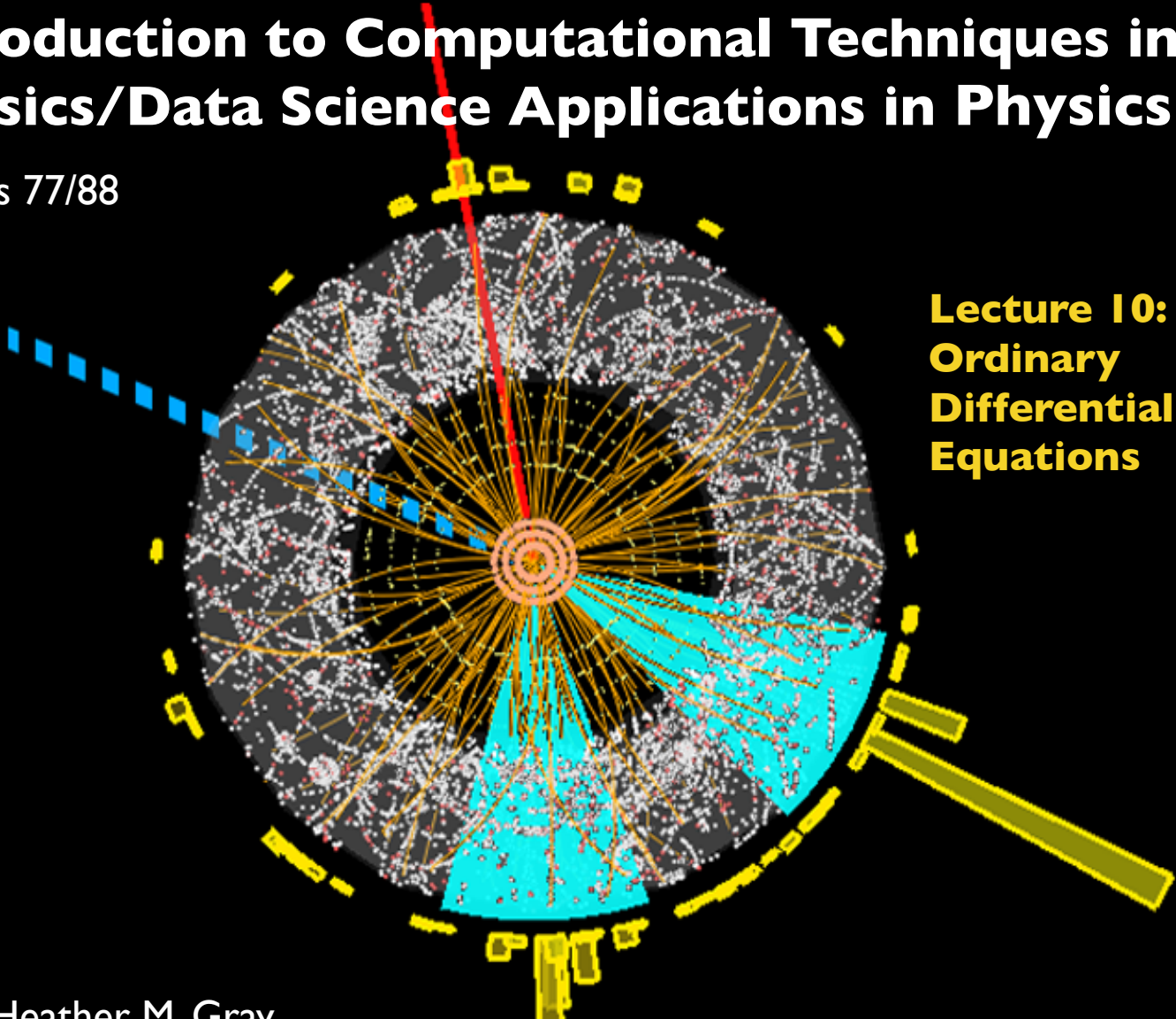
# Introduction to Computational Techniques in Physics/Data Science Applications in Physics

Physics 77/88

## Lecture 10: Ordinary Differential Equations

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Many thanks to Yury Kolomensky for material used in this course



# Differential Equations

- Equations that are composed of *unknown function(s)* and their *derivative(s)* are called differential equations

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = g - \frac{c}{m} v$$

$\nwarrow$        $\nwarrow$   
 $\nearrow$

- $v$ : *dependent* variable
- $t$ : *independent* variable
- Fundamental* importance in physics:
  - Dynamical* problems: naturally *formulated* in terms of *rate* of some *changes* of some
    - Equations of motion: relate *acceleration* to *forces*
    - Thermodynamics: *temperature* gradient to *heat flow*
    - E&M: *divergence of field* to *charge distribution*

# Ordinary Differential Equations (ODEs)

- Most *physical systems* are described by a (set of) *differential equations*
  - e.g.  $F(x, t) = m\ddot{x}$  ←
- Solutions are not always *analytical*
  - Only for the *simplest cases* you find in a textbook
    - e.g.  $x(t) = x_0 + v_0 t + \frac{a}{2} t^2$
- We will consider the *most generic*
  - *Numerical* solutions

# Classification of ODEs

- ODE can be classified in different ways
  - Order
    - first
    - second
    - nth
  - Linearity
    - Linear
    - Nonlinear
  - Auxiliary conditions
    - Initial value problems
    - Boundary value problems

# Order of ODE

- The *order* of an ordinary differential equation is the order of the *highest order derivative*

- Examples

- $\frac{dy}{dx} - y = e^x$ : *first* order ODE

- $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 5\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = \cos x$ : *second* order ODE

- $\left(\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\right)^3 - \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y^4 = 1$ : *second* order ODE

# Linear vs Nonlinear ODEs

- An ODE is *linear* if the *unknown function* and its *derivatives* appear to power *one*
- And there is *no product* of the unknown function and/or its derivatives

$$a_n(x)y^n(x) + a_{n-1}(x)y^{n-1}(x) + \dots + a_1(x)y'(x) + a_0(x)y(x) = g(x)$$

- Examples

- $\frac{dy}{dx} - y = e^x$  *linear* ODE

- $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 5\frac{dy}{dx} + 2x^2y = \cos(x)$  *linear* ODE

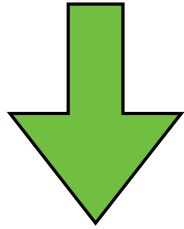
- $(\frac{d^2y}{dx^2})^3 - \frac{dy}{dx} + \sqrt{y} = 1$  *non-linear* ODE

# Initial Conditions

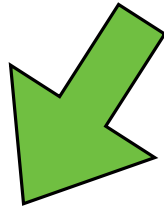
- Initial-value problems
  - The auxiliary conditions are at one point of the independent variable
    - e.g.  $y'' + 2y' + y = e^{-2x}$ 
      - $y(0) = 1$  ;  $y'(0) = 2.5$
- Boundary-value problems
  - The auxiliary conditions are not at one point of the independent variable
    - e.g.  $y'' + 2y' + y = e^{-2x}$ 
      - $y(0) = 1$  ;  $y'(1) = 2.5 \rightarrow y(1) = 2.5$

# Analytical vs Numerical Solutions

$$F = ma$$



$$\frac{dv}{dt} = g - \frac{c}{m}v$$



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

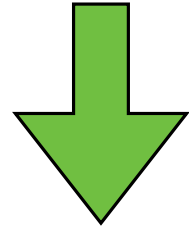
Analytical



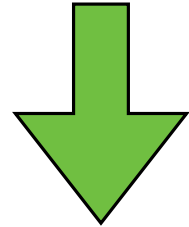
$$v_{i+1} = v_i + (g - \frac{c}{m}v_i)\Delta t$$

Numerical

Physical Law



ODE



Solution



# Visualization: Direction Fields

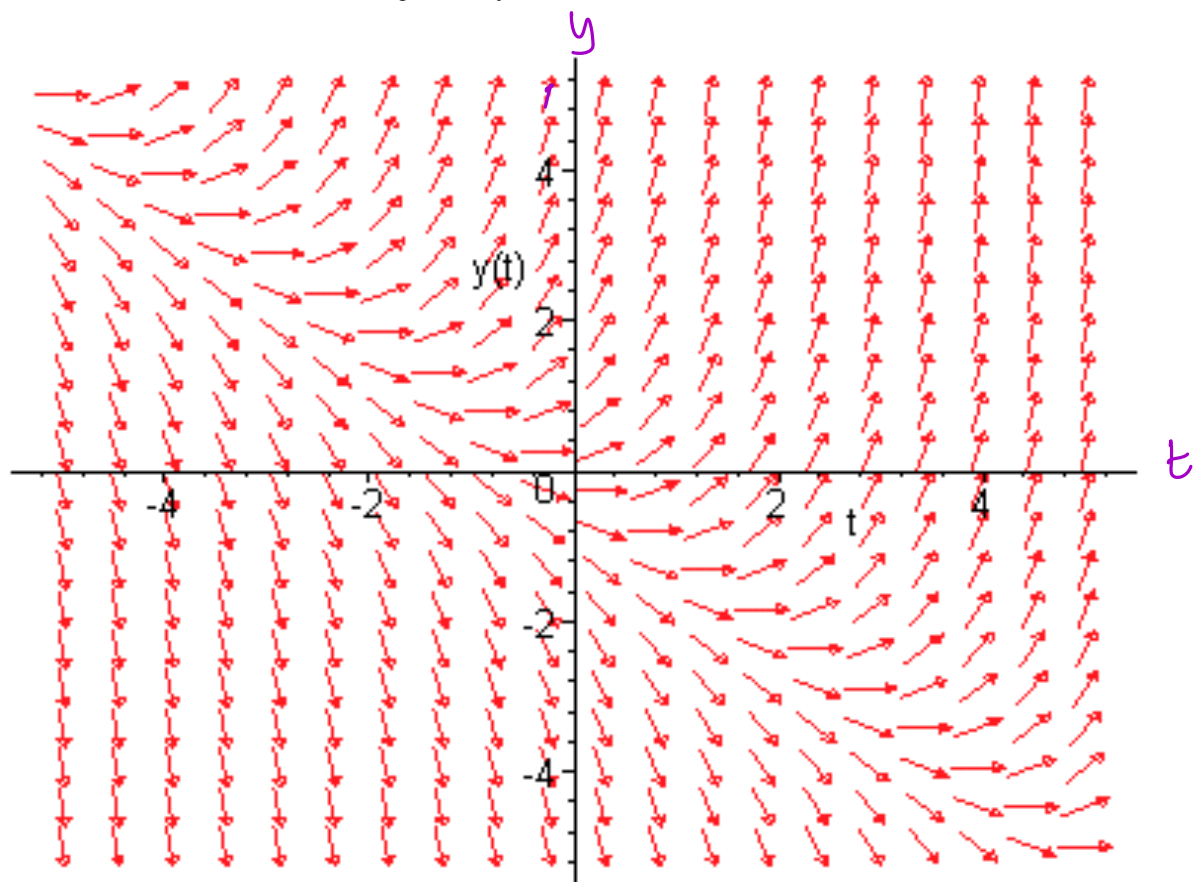
- Consider the first order differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$$

- Equation specifies slope at each point in the  $x$ - $y$  plane
- Gives the direction that a solution to the equation must have at each point
- A plot of short line segments drawn at various points in the  $x - y$  plane showing the slope of the solution curve
  - Direction field
- Direction field gives the flow of solutions

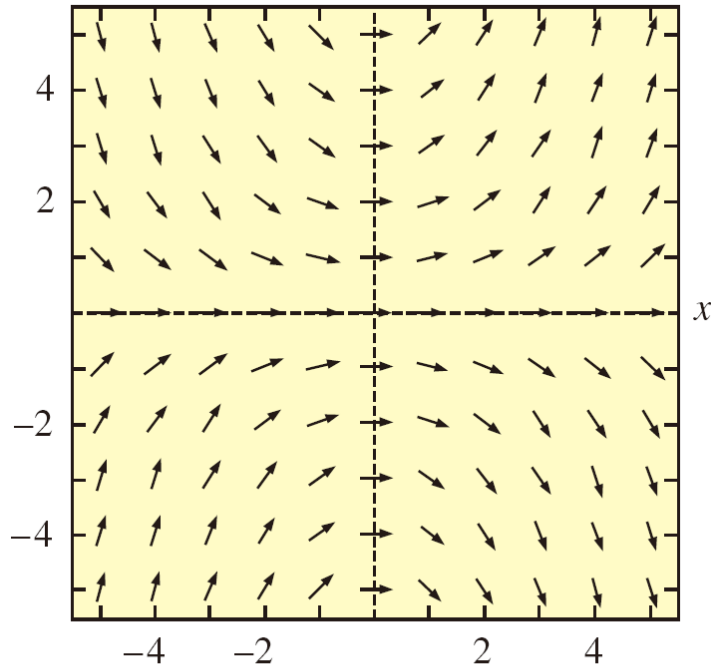
# Example

$$f(t, y) = t + y$$

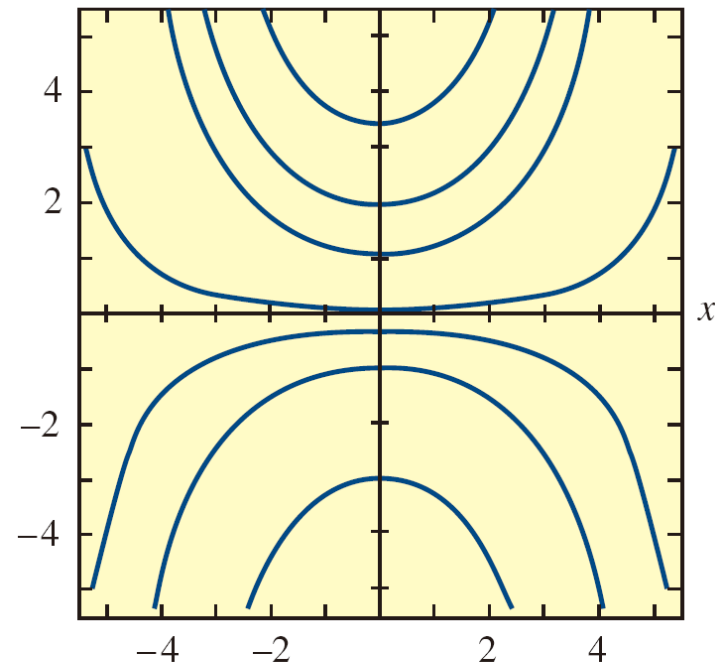


# Example

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0.2xy$$



$$y = ce^{0.1x^2}$$



Direction fields can help in selecting a class of *analytical solutions*

# Methods to solve Differential Equations

- Trial and error
  - Try a class of functions, see if it works
    - Boundary conditions reduce the set of possible solutions
- Look up
  - Reduce the equation to a previously solved case
- Numerical integration

# Example: Analytical Solution

- An *analytical solution* to a differential equation is a *function* that satisfies the equation

- Example

$$\bullet \frac{dx}{dt} + x(t) = 0$$

- Solution

$$\bullet x(t) = e^{-t}$$

- Proof

$$\bullet \frac{dx(t)}{dt} = -e^{-t}$$

$$\bullet \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} + x(t) = -e^{-t} + e^{-t} = 0$$

# Stability and Chaos

- Solution of an ODE can be

, stable

- Solutions resulting from perturbations of the initial value remain close to the original solution
- Asymptotically stable
  - Solutions resulting from the perturbations converge back to the original solution
- Unstable

- Solutions resulting from perturbations diverge from the original solutions with bounds

# Numerical Solutions

- Approximate solution values are generated step-by-step in increments moving across the interval where the solution is sought
  - i.e. need to solve differential equations in a discrete domain
- In stepping from one discrete point to the next, incur some numerical error
  - Next approximate solution values lie on a different solution from the one we started from
- Stability or instability of solutions determines, in part, whether such errors are magnified or diminished with time

# Euler Method

- Example: find the position of a projectile

- $\overset{v}{x}(x, t) = \frac{dx}{dt}$

- Rewrite with partial differences

- $dx = v(x, t) dt$

- $\Rightarrow \Delta x = v(x, t) \Delta t$

- Implementation

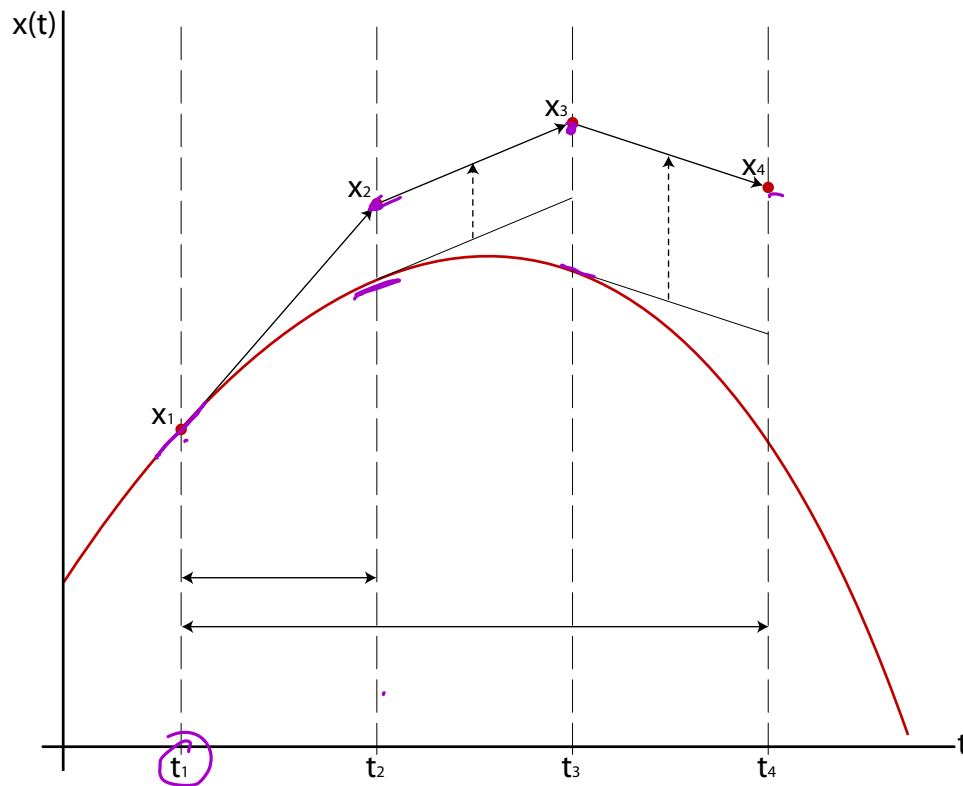
- $\underbrace{x_{i+1}} = x_i + \frac{dx}{dt} \Delta t$

- $x(0) = x_0$

This is known as the Euler method



# Euler Method



# Euler Method

- Precision limited by step size  $\Delta t$ 
  - Decrease  $\Delta t$  to reduce error
- Calculation time scales linearly with the number of steps
  - $N_{\text{steps}} \sim \frac{\tau}{\Delta t}$  where  $\tau$  is the total time interval to be integrated
- So far limited to first-order ODEs

# Euler Method for 2<sup>nd</sup> Order ODE

- Standard trick: convert a 2<sup>nd</sup> (or higher) order ODE into a system of 1<sup>st</sup> order ODEs
- Example: free fall
  - $\ddot{x} = -g$
  - Define
    - $\dot{x} = v$
    - $\dot{v} = -g$
- Solutions can be obtained by applying the Euler method
  - $x_{i+1} = x_i + \dot{x} \Delta t$
  - $v_{i+1} = v_i + \dot{v} \Delta t$

# Generalize

- Rewrite in vector form

- $y = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ v \end{bmatrix}$

- Vector of derivatives is

- $\dot{y} = \begin{bmatrix} v \\ -g \end{bmatrix}$

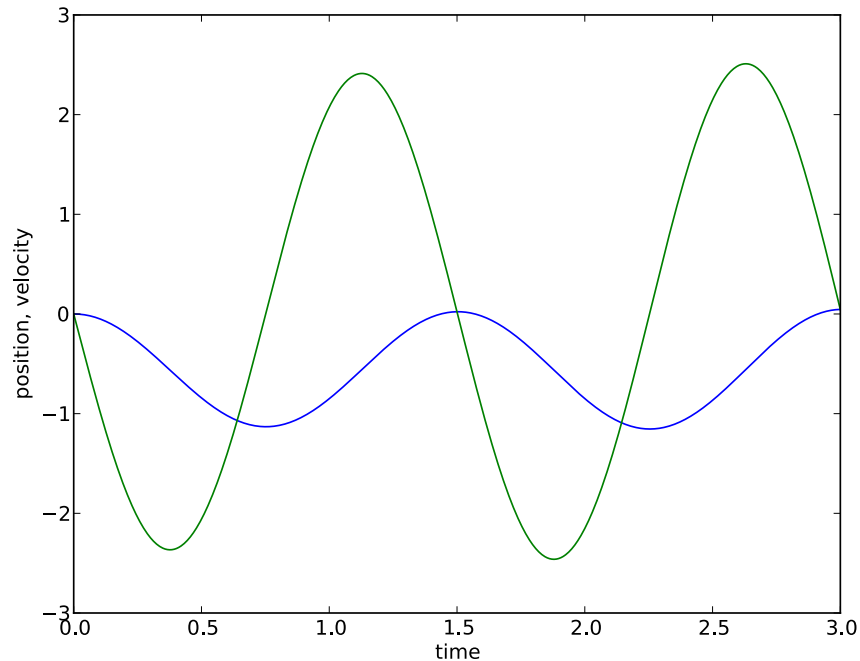
- Euler solution

- $y_{i+1} = y_i + \dot{y}_i \Delta t$

- See notebook for implementation

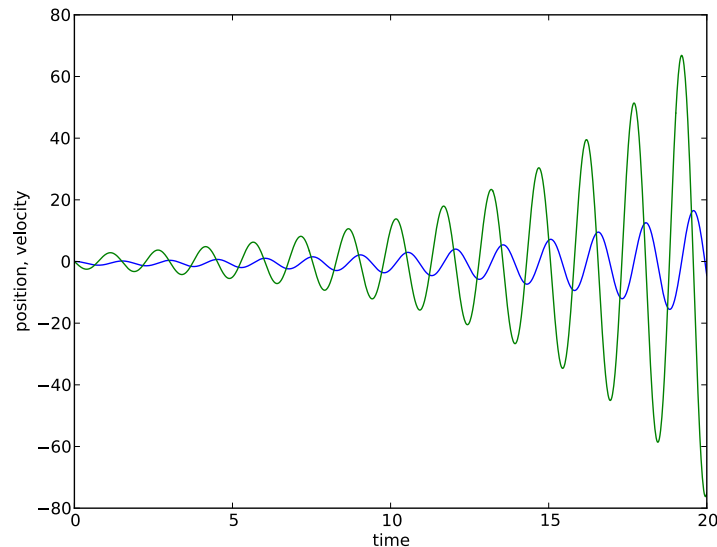
# Solutions

- Example: simple harmonic motion
  - Mass on a vertical spring
    - $F = -mg + kx$



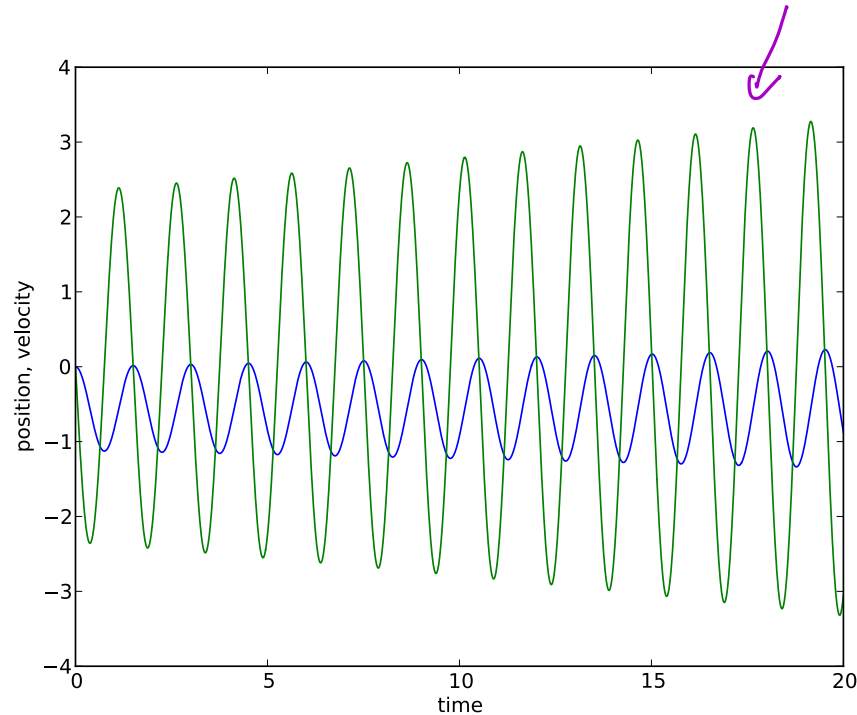
# Problems

- Euler method *underestimates curvature*
- Energy is *not conserved*



Example with a total time of 20 seconds and  $N = 1000$

# Problems



Example with a total time of 20 seconds and  $N = 10000$   
Better, but the *energy* is still *increasing with time*

# Euler-Cromer Method

- Trick that works for simple harmonic oscillator (SHO)
    - Replace derivative with derivative evaluated at the next step
- $$y_{i+1} = y_i + \dot{y}_{i+1} \Delta t$$
- Not a general solution, so we need to do better



# Runge-Kutta Methods

- General case:

- Find a function  $y(t)$  with its time derivative

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

- Apply the chain rule

$$\begin{aligned}\ddot{y} &= \frac{d}{dt} [\dot{y}] \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} [g(y, t)]\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\bullet \quad &= \frac{\partial g}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \\ &= g_t + g_y g\end{aligned}$$

$$g_a \equiv \frac{\partial y}{\partial a}$$

$$g_{ab} \equiv \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial a \partial b}$$

# Runge-Kutta Methods

- Similarly,

- $\ddot{y} = g_{tt} + 2g g_{ty} + g^2 g_{yy} + g g_y^2 + g_t g_y$

- Reminder

$$g_a \equiv \frac{\partial y}{\partial a}$$

- $g_{ab} \equiv \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial a \partial b}$

# Runge-Kutta Methods

- Taylor expansion:

$$y(t + \Delta t) = y(t)$$

$$+ g \Delta t$$

$$+ \frac{\Delta t^2}{2!} (g_t + g_y g)$$

$$\bullet \quad + \frac{\Delta t^3}{3!} (g_{tt} + 2g g_{ty} + g^2 g_{yy} + g g_y^2 + g_t g_y)$$

$$+ O(\Delta t^4)$$

- Compare to an alternative polynomial expansion:

$$\bullet y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + \alpha_1 k_1 + \alpha_2 k_2 + \dots + \alpha_n k_n$$

# Runge-Kutta Methods

- Polynomials:

- $k_1 = \Delta t g(y, t)$

- $k_2 = \Delta t g(y + v_{21} k_1, t + v_{21} \Delta t)$

- $k_3 = \Delta t g(y + v_{31} k_1 + v_{32} k_2, t + v_{31} \Delta t + v_{32} \Delta t)$

- $\vdots$

- $k_n = \Delta t g(y + \sum_{l=1}^{n-1} v_{nl} k_l, t + \Delta t \sum_{l=1}^{n-1} v_{nl})$

- Coefficients  $v_{ij}$  and  $v_{ne}$  are determined by matching coefficients against Taylor expansion

- Determined by expansion order

- i.e. 2nd order RK, 4th order RK, etc

## 2nd order RK

- $y(t + \Delta t) = y + \alpha_1 k_1 + \alpha_2 k_2$
- $k_2 = \Delta t g(y + v_{21} k_1, t + v_{21} \Delta t)$
- $= \Delta t [g + v_{21} k_1 g_y + v_{21} \Delta t g_t + O(\Delta t^2)](t + v_{21} \Delta t)$
- $= \Delta t g + v_{21} \Delta t^2 g g_y + v_{21} \Delta t^2 g_t + O(\Delta t^3)$
- Follows:
  - $y(t + \Delta t) = y + [(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) g] \Delta t + [\alpha_2 v_{21} (g g_y + g_t)] \Delta t^2$
  - $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 1$
  - $\alpha_1 v_{21} = \frac{1}{2}$

## 2nd order RK

- Standard solution:

- $v_{21} = 1$

- $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0.5$

- $y(t + \Delta t) = y + \frac{1}{2}k_1 + \frac{1}{2}k_2 + O(\Delta t^3)$

- $k_1 = \Delta t g(y, t)$

- $k_2 = \Delta t g(y + k, t + \Delta t)$

# 4th Order RK

$$\bullet y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + \frac{1}{6}(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4) + O(\Delta t^4)$$

$$\bullet k_1 = g(y, t) \Delta t$$

$$\bullet k_2 = g(y + \frac{1}{2}k_1, t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t) \Delta t$$

$$\bullet k_3 = g(y + \frac{1}{2}k_2, t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t) \Delta t$$

$$\bullet k_4 = g(y + k_3, t + \Delta t) \Delta t$$

• 4th order RK is a standard tool

• good trade off between precision and speed

# Runge-Kutta Illustration

