UNIVERSITY OF OSLO

COMPUTATIONAL PHYSICS

Project 5



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Computational Physics

Project number:

5

Link to GitHub folder:

https://?????

Hand-in deadline:

Friday, December 11, 2015

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Copies: 1

Page count: 15 Appendices: 0

Completed: ????, 2015

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ABSTRACT

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Introduction

2

METHOD

The source codes for the algorithms described in this chapter can be found in the Github folder https://?????. 1

2.1 Newtonian two-body problem in three dimension

² $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the three-dimensional space vector consisting of the coordinated (x(t), y(t), z(t)), whilst $\mathbf{v}(t)$ is the three-dimensional velocity vector with coordinates $(v_x(t), v_y(t), v_z(t))$, both of which are dependent on time.

In general, the differential equation that is considered is

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = f(t, y) \tag{2.1}$$

Which yields that

$$y(t) = \int f(t, y)dt \tag{2.2}$$

³ For the two bodies in a three dimensional Newtonian gravitational field this corresponds to six coupled differential equations given by the vector equations

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \mathbf{v}$$
 and $\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = -\frac{GM_1M_2}{r^3}\mathbf{r}$ (2.3)

⁴ in which M_1 and M_2 ⁵ are the masses of the two bodies, respectively, whilst r is the distance between the bodies. The equations in (2.3) are computed by the script given below in which drdt corresponds to the derivative of the coordinates of the position, and dvdt corresponds to the derivative of the velocity coordinates.

void Derivative(double r[3], double v[3], double (&drdt)[3], double (&dvdt)[3], double
G, double mass){

¹FiXme Note: fix these lines

²FiXme Note: make short intro, e.q. drawing

³FiXme Note: do we need to write y_{i+1} eq from p. 250 in lecture notes??

⁴FiXme Note: maybe we should divide by mass as on p. 248??

⁵FiXme Note: fix the this with M_1 and M_2

```
drdt[0] = v[0];
drdt[1] = v[1];
drdt[2] = v[2];

double distance_squared = r[0]*r[0] + r[1]*r[1] + r[2]*r[2];
double newtonian_force = -G*mass/pow(distance_squared,1.5);
dvdt[0] = newtonian_force*r[0];
dvdt[1] = newtonian_force*r[1];
dvdt[2] = newtonian_force*r[2];
}
```

2.1.1 Velocity-Verlet method

- Remember to write about accuracy of algorithm!!

Consider the Taylor expansion of the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t_i \pm \delta t)$:

$$\mathbf{r}(t_i \pm \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t_i) \pm \mathbf{v}(t_i)\delta t + \mathbf{a}(t_i)\frac{\delta t^2}{2} \pm \frac{\delta t^3}{6} \frac{d^3 \mathbf{r}(t_i)}{dt^3} + \mathcal{O}(\delta t^4)$$
(2.4)

Adding the two expressions in Eq. (2.4) gives

$$\mathbf{r}(t_i + \delta t) = 2\mathbf{r}(t_i) - \mathbf{r}(t_i - \delta t) + \mathbf{a}(t_i)\delta t^2 + \mathcal{O}(\delta t^4)$$
(2.5)

which has a truncation error that goes as $\mathcal{O}(\delta t^4)$.

$$\mathbf{r}(t_i + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t_i) + \mathbf{v}(t_i)\delta t + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}(t_i)\delta t^2$$
(2.6)

$$\mathbf{v}(t+\delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{a}(t) + \mathbf{a}(t+\delta t))\delta t$$
(2.7)

The velocity is in the algorithm calculated ⁶ by first calculating

$$\mathbf{v}_{part1}(t+\delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}(t)\delta t$$
(2.8)

and then use ?? ⁷ to determine $\mathbf{a}(t+\delta t)$, which is then used to compute the remaining term of Eq. (2.7) as

$$\mathbf{v}_{part2}(t+\delta t) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}(t+\delta t)\delta t \tag{2.9}$$

The velocity-Verlet method uses the algorithm *Derivative* described in Sec. 2.1, to generate the six differential equations, in the following while-loop that runs until reaching the final time in time steps of length $\delta t = (t_{initial} - t_{final})/(\#timesteps)$.

⁶FiXme Note: ad to gange

⁷FiXme Note: fix this!

```
while(time<=t_final){
Derivative(r,v,drdt,dvdt,G,mass);

for(int i=0; i<6; i++){
   r[i] = r[i]+dt*drdt[i] + 0.5 * dt * dt * dvdt[i];
   v_partly[i] = drdt[i] + 0.5 * dt * dvdt[i];
   dvdt[i] = v_partly[i];
}

Derivative(r,v,drdt,dvdt,G,mass);

for(int i=0; i<n; i++){
   v[i] = v_partly[i] + 0.5 * dt * dvdt[i];
}

time += dt;
}</pre>
```

2.1.2 Fourth Order Runge-Kutta Method

- Remember to write about accuracy of algorithm!!

The Runge-Kutta method is based on Taylor expansions, with the next function value after a times step $\delta t = t_i - t_{i+1}$ being computed from four more or less improved slopes of the function in the points t_i , $t_i + \delta t/2$ and t_{i+1} .

The first step of the RK4 method is to compute the slope k_1 of the function in t_i by

$$k_1 = \delta t f(t_i, y_i)$$

Then the slope k_1 at the midpoint is computed from k_1 as

$$k_2 = \delta t f(t_i + \delta t/2, y_i + k_1/2)$$

The slope at the midpoint is then improved from k_2 by

$$k_3 = \delta t f(t_i + \delta t/2, y_i + k_2/2)$$

from which the slope k_4 at the next step y_{i+1} is predicted to be

$$k_4 = \delta t f(t_i + \delta t, y_i + k_3)$$

From the computed slopes k_1 , k_2 , k_3 and k_4 , the function value at $t_i + \delta t$ is computed as

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{1}{6}(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4)$$
(2.10)

When implementing this for the two-body problem in three dimensions, it boils down to a continuous call of two functions, namely the function *Derivative* given in Sec. 2.1 and the function *updating_dummies* given below.

```
void updating_dummies(double dt, double drdt[3], double dvdt[3], double (&r_dummy)[3],
    double (&v_dummy)[3], double number, double (&kr)[3], double (&kv)[3], double
    r[3], double v[3])
{
    for (int i = 0; i<3; i++){
        kr[i] = dt * drdt[i];
        kv[i] = dt * dvdt[i];
        r_dummy[i] = r[i] + kr[i]/number;
        v_dummy[i] = v[i] + kv[i]/number;
}
</pre>
```

The function *updating_dummies* computes the values of k_1 , k_2 , k_3 and k_4 for all three space coordinates and velocity coordinates from the derivatives drdt and dvdt computed by the *Derivative* function. To compute the next step given by Eq. (2.10), the following succession of function calls are made until the time reaches the final time t_{final} after $(t_{final} - t_{inital})/\delta t$ time steps.

```
while(time<=t_final){</pre>
   Derivative(r,v,drdt,dvdt,G,mass);
   updating_dummies(dt,drdt,dvdt,r_dummy,v_dummy,2,k1r,k1v,r,v);
   Derivative(r_dummy, v_dummy, drdt, dvdt, G, mass);
   updating_dummies(dt,drdt,dvdt,r_dummy,v_dummy,2,k2r,k2v,r,v);
   Derivative(r_dummy, v_dummy, drdt, dvdt, G, mass);
   updating_dummies(dt,drdt,dvdt,r_dummy,v_dummy,1,k3r,k3v,r,v);
   Derivative(r_dummy, v_dummy, drdt, dvdt, G, mass);
   for (int i = 0; i<n; i++){</pre>
       k4r[i] = dt*drdt[i];
       k4v[i] = dt*dvdt[i];
   }
   for (int i=0; i<n;i++){</pre>
       r[i] = r[i] + (1.0/6.0)*(k1r[i]+2*k2r[i]+2*k3r[i]+k4r[i]);
       v[i] = v[i] + (1.0/6.0)*(k1v[i]+2*k2v[i]+2*k3v[i]+k4v[i]);
   }
   time += dt;
   }
```

2.2 Generating Position, Mass and Velocity for Cluster Particles

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2.2.1 Gaussian Distributed Mass

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⁸FiXme Note: write small intro

⁹FiXme Note: in this section, we can introduce a generation of velocity, if we need that at some point

¹⁰FiXme Note: write here, what kind of distribution, we want!

```
void gaussian_mass_generator(vec (&mass), int number_of_particles)
 srand(time(NULL));
 for (int i = 0; i < number_of_particles; i++)</pre>
 static int iset = 0;
 static double gset;
 double fac, rsq, v1, v2;
   do{
     v1 = 2.*((double) rand() / (RAND_MAX)) -1.0;
     v2 = 2.*((double) rand() / (RAND_MAX)) -1.0;
     rsq = v1*v1+v2*v2;
   } while (rsq >= 1.0 || rsq == 0.);
   fac = sqrt(-2.*log(rsq)/rsq);
   gset = v1*fac;
   iset = 1;
   mass(i) = v2*fac;
   mass(i) += 10;
 }
}
```

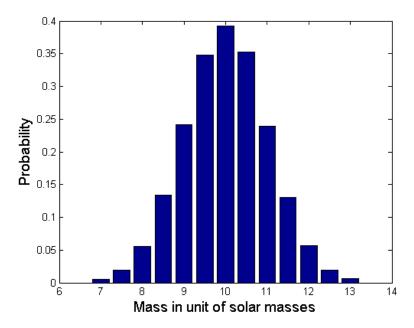


Figure 2.1. Histogram of the mass of 100,000 particles generated by the c++ code introduced ¹¹.

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2.2.2 Uniformly Distributed Position

13

¹²FiXme Note: eq. include gaussian dist. in fig

¹³FiXme Note: write here, what kind of distribution, we want!

```
void uniform_pos_generator(mat (&position), int N)
double pi=3.14159, c = 2*pi, R = 20;
vec phi(N), r(N), theta(N), x(N), y(N), v(N);
srand(time(NULL));
for (int i=0;i<N;i++){</pre>
       x(i) = ((double) rand() / (RAND_MAX)); //random numbers generated in the
           interval(0,1)
       y(i) = ((double) rand() / (RAND_MAX));
       v(i) = ((double) rand() / (RAND_MAX));
  }
for (int i=0;i<N;i++){</pre>
       phi(i)=c*x(i);
       r(i)=R*pow(y(i),1.0/3.0);
       theta(i)=acos(1.0-2.0*v(i));
       position(i,0)=r(i)*sin(theta(i))*cos(phi(i));
       position(i,1)=r(i)*sin(theta(i))*sin(phi(i));
       position(i,2)= r(i)*cos(theta(i));
  }
}
```

To test whether the generated positions within the sphere of radius 20 ly, the density of particles in the cross-sectional area of each x-value is determined and plotted as a histogram in Fig. 2.3 for 100,000 particles with position generated by the introduced lines of code. The density of particles in the cross-sectional area of each x-value is found by dividing the total number of particles with that x-value with the cross-sectional area of the sphere in that x-value (see Fig. ??).

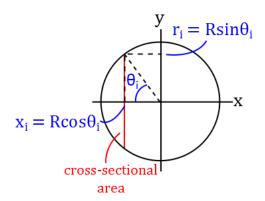


Figure 2.2. Two-dimensional illustration of the three-dimensional problem of determining the density of particles in each *x*-value.

The cross-sectional area of the sphere in a specific area is found from a little trigonometry, by first considering that the radius of the circle that makes of the cross-sectional area in a point x_i is given by $r_i = 20sin\theta_i$ ly. This yields that the area A_i of the cross-sectional area, in ly, is given as

$$A_i = 400\pi \sin^2 \theta_i = 400\pi (1 - \cos^2 \theta) \tag{2.11}$$

in which the last equal sign stems from $1 = cos^2\theta + sin^2\theta$. But $x_i = 20cos\theta_i$ ly, giving

$$A_i = \pi (400 - x_i^2) \tag{2.12}$$

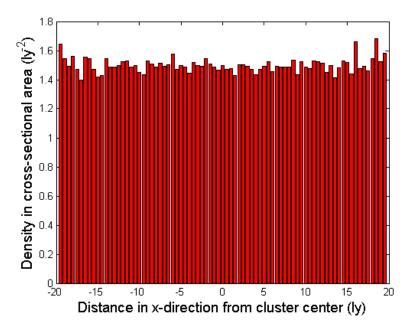


Figure 2.3. Histogram of density of 100,000 particles with position generated by the code introduced in 14 as a function of the *x*-coordinate of the particles. The histogram is made with bins in the interval [-19.5; 19.5] and a bin-size of 0.5. The distance $x = \pm 20$ from the cluster center is not considered, since the cross-sectional area in that point is zero.

CHAPTER

3

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results from running the codes described in Chap. 2 for computing the blah blah ?? can be found in the GitHub folder https:/??, together with the MatLab scripts for the plots presented in this chapter.

¹FiXme Note: fix these lines



Conclusion

BIBLIOGRAPHY