

## Runge-Kutta Methods

In the preceding lecture we discussed the Euler method; a fairly simple iterative algorithm for determining the solution of an initial value problem

$$(21.1) \quad \frac{dx}{dt} = F(t, x) \quad , \quad x(t_0) = x_0 .$$

The key idea was to interpret the  $F(x, t)$  as the slope  $m$  of the best straight line fit to the graph of a solution at the point  $(t, x)$ . Knowing the slope of the solution curve at  $(t_0, x_0)$  we could get to another (approximate) point on the solution curve by following the best straight-line-fit to a point  $(t_1, x_1) = (t_0 + \Delta t, x_0 + m_0 \Delta t)$ , where  $m_0 = F(t_0, x_0)$ . And then we could repeat this process to find a third point  $(t_2, x_2) = (t_1 + \Delta t, x_1 + m_1 \Delta t)$ , and so on. Iterating this process  $n$  times gives us a set of  $n + 1$  values  $x_i = x(t_i)$  for an approximate solution on the interval  $[t_0, t_0 + n\Delta t]$ .

Now recall from our discussion of the numerical procedures for calculating derivatives that the formal definition

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(t+h) - x(t)}{h}$$

does actually provide the most accurate numerical procedure for computing derivatives. For

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{x(t+h) - x(t)}{h} + \mathcal{O}(h)$$

but a more accurate formula would be

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{4}{3h} (x(t+h/2) - x(t-h/2)) - \frac{1}{6h} (x(t+h) - x(t)) + \mathcal{O}(h^4)$$

and even more accurate formulas were possible using Richardson Extrapolations of higher order.

In a similar vein, we shall now seek to improve on the Euler method. Let us begin with the Taylor series for  $x(t+h)$ :

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hx'(t) + \frac{h^2}{2} x''(t) + \frac{h^3}{6} x'''(t) + \mathcal{O}(h^4)$$

From the differential equation we have

$$\begin{aligned} x'(t) &= F \\ x''(t) &= F_t + F_x F \\ x'''(t) &= F_{tt} + F_{tx} F + (F_{xt} + F_{xx} F) F + (F_t + F_x F) F_x \end{aligned}$$

And so the Taylor series for  $x(t+h)$  can be written

$$(21.2) \quad x(t+h) = x(t) + hF(t, x) + \frac{h^2}{2} (F_t(t, x) + F_x(t, x)F(t, x)) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

$$(21.3) \quad = x(t) + \frac{1}{2} h F(t, x) + \frac{1}{2} h (F(t, x) + h F_t(t, x) + h F(t, x) F_x(t, x)) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

Now

$$F(t+h, x+hF(t, h)) = F(t, x) + hF_t(t, x) + F_x(t, h) (hF(t, h)) + \mathcal{O}(h^2)$$

and so we can rewrite (??) as

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + \frac{h}{2}F(t, x) + \frac{h}{2}F(t+h, x+hF(t, x)) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

or

$$(21.4) \quad x(t+h) = x(t) + \frac{1}{2}(F_1 + F_2)$$

where

$$(21.5) \quad F_1 = hF(t, x)$$

$$(21.6) \quad F_2 = hF(t+h, x+F_1)$$

We thus arrive at the following algorithm for computing a solution to the initial value problem (21.1):

1. Partition the solution interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta t &= \frac{b-a}{n} \\ t_k &= a + k\Delta t \end{aligned}$$

2. Set  $x_0$  equal to  $x(a)$  and then for  $k$  from 0 to  $n-1$  calculate

$$\begin{aligned} F_{1,k} &= \Delta t F(t_k, x_k) \\ F_{2,k} &= \Delta t F(t_k + \Delta t, x_k + \Delta t F_{1,k}) \\ x_{k+1} &= x_k + \frac{1}{2}(F_{1,k} + F_{2,k}) \end{aligned}$$

This method is known as **Heun's method** or the **second order Runge-Kutta method**.

Higher order Runge-Kutta methods are also possible; however, they are very tedious to derive. Here is the formula for the **classical fourth-order Runge-Kutta method**:

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + \frac{1}{6}(F_1 + 2F_2 + 2F_3 + F_4)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} F_1 &= hF(t, x) \\ F_2 &= hF\left(t + \frac{1}{2}h, x + \frac{1}{2}F_1\right) \\ F_3 &= hF\left(t + \frac{1}{2}h, x + \frac{1}{2}F_2\right) \\ F_4 &= hF(t+h, x+F_3) \end{aligned}$$

Below is a Maple program that implements the fourth order Runge-Kutta method to solve

$$(21.7) \quad \frac{dx}{dt} = -\frac{x^2 + t^2}{2xt}, \quad x(1) = 1$$

on the interval  $[1, 2]$ .

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F := (x,t) -> - (x^2 + t^2)/(2*x*t) ;
n := 100;
t[0] := 1.0;
x[0] := 1.0;
h := 1.0/n
for i from 0 to n-1 do
    F1 := evalf(h*F(t[i],x[i]));
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F2 := evalf(h*F(t[i]+h/2,x[i]+F1/2));
F3 := evalf(h*F(t[i] +h/2,x[i]+F2/2));
F4 := evalf(h*F(t[i]+h,x[i]+F3));
t[i+1] := t[i] +h;
x[i+1] := x[i] +(F1 +2*F2+2*F3+F4)/6;
od:

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The exact solution to (21.7) is

$$x(t) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{4}{t} - t^3 \right)}$$

### 1. Error Analysis for the Runge-Kutta Method

Recall from the preceding lecture the formula underlying the fourth order Runge-Kutta Method: if  $x(t)$  is a solution to

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

then

$$x(t_0 + h) = x(t_0) + \frac{1}{6} (F_1 + 2F_2 + 2F_3 + F_4) + \mathcal{O}(h^5)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} F_1 &= hf(t_0, x_0) \\ F_2 &= hf\left(t_0 + \frac{1}{2}h, x_0 + \frac{1}{2}F_1\right) \\ F_3 &= hf\left(t_0 + \frac{1}{2}h, x_0 + \frac{1}{2}F_2\right) \\ F_4 &= hf(t_0 + h, x_0 + F_3) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the local truncation error (the error induced for each successive stage of the iterated algorithm) will behave like

$$err = Ch^5$$

for some constant  $C$ . Here  $C$  is a number independent of  $h$ , but dependent on  $t_0$  and the fourth derivative of the exact solution  $\tilde{x}(t)$  at  $t_0$  (the constant factor in the error term corresponding to truncating the Taylor series for  $x(t_0 + h)$  about  $t_0$  at order  $h^4$ ). To estimate  $Ch^5$  we shall assume that the constant  $C$  does not change much as  $t$  varies from  $t_0$  to  $t_0 + h$ .

Let  $u$  be the approximate solution to  $\tilde{x}(t)$  at  $t_0 + h$  obtained by carrying out a one-step fourth order Runge-Kutta approximation:

$$\tilde{x}(t) = u + Ch^5$$

Let  $v$  be the approximate solution to  $\tilde{x}(t)$  at  $t_0 + h$  obtained by carrying out a two-step fourth order Runge-Kutta approximation (with step sizes of  $\frac{1}{2}h$ )

$$\tilde{x}(t) = v + 2C \left( \frac{h}{2} \right)^5$$

Subtracting these two equations we obtain

$$0 = u - v + C(1 - 2^{-4})h^5$$

or

$$\text{local truncation error} = Ch^5 = \frac{u - v}{1 - h^{-4}} \approx u - v$$

In a computer program that uses a Runge-Kutta method, this local truncation error can be easily monitored, by occasionally computing  $|u - v|$  as the program runs through its iterative loop. Indeed, if this error rises above a given threshold, one can readjust the step size  $h$  on the fly to restore a tolerable degree of accuracy. Programs that uses algorithms of this type are known as **adaptive Runge-Kutta methods**.