

- Types of Ordinary differential equations.
- Euler's method.

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- Examples :

$$m \frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} = -kx(t)$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2} + V(x)\psi(x, t)$$

- Ordinary vs Partial differential equations.

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- General solution vs particular solution of the differential equation.
- Initial value problem vs boundary value problem vs eigenvalue problem.

$$\begin{aligned}m \frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} &= -kx(t) \\ x(t=0) &= x_0 \\ \left. \frac{dx}{dt} \right|_{t=0} &= v_0\end{aligned}$$

is initial value problem for the second order ordinary linear homogeneous differential equation

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# Ordinary vs Partial differential equations

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Example: stationary Schrödinger equation
- The partial differential equations (PDE) – have functions of several independent variables.  
Example: time dependent Schrödinger equation for  $\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$

- A linear differential equation – all of the derivatives appear in linear form and none of the coefficient depends on the dependent variable

$$a_0x(t) + a_1\frac{dx}{dt} + a_2\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \dots = c$$

Example:

$$m\frac{d^2x(t)}{dt^2} = -kx(t)$$

- A nonlinear differential equation – if the coefficients depend on the dependent variable, OR the derivatives appear in a nonlinear form:

Examples:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} - x(t) = 0$$

$$t^2 \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} - x^2(t) = 0$$

- The order  $n$  of an ordinary differential equation is the order of the highest derivative appearing in the differential equation

$$t^2 \frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} - x(t) = 0 \quad \text{second order}$$

$$t \frac{d^3 x(t)}{dt^3} - \frac{dx(t)}{dt} = 0 \quad \text{third order}$$

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■ General Solution:

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■ Partial solutions:

$$x(t) = 2.0e^t$$

$$x(t) = 4.8e^t$$

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- A non-homogeneous equation: contains additional term (source terms, forcing functions) which do not involve the dependent variable:

$$m \frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} - kx(t) = F_0 \cos(\omega t)$$

# Three major categories of ODE

- Initial-value problems – involve time-dependent equations with given initial conditions:

$$m \frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} - kx(t) = 0 \quad x(t=0) = x_0, \quad \left. \frac{dx}{dt} \right|_{t=0} = v_0$$

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- Boundary-value problems – involve differential equations with specified boundary conditions:

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In reality, a problem may have more than just one of the categories active.



# Three general classifications in physics

- Propagation problems – are initial value problems in open domains where the initial values are marched forward in time (or space) . The order may be one or greater. The number of initial values must be equal to the order of the differential equation.

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- Eigenproblems – are a special type of problems where the solution exists only for special values of a parameter.

# Converting $n^{th}$ order to $n$ linear equations

Any  $n^{th}$  order linear differential equation can be reduced to  $n$  coupled first order differential equations. Example:

$$m \frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} - kx(t) = 0$$

is the same as:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} &= v(t) \\ m \frac{dv(t)}{dt} &= -kx(t) \end{aligned}$$

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- Approximating the exact derivatives in the ODE by algebraic finite difference approximations (FDAs)
- Substituting the FDA into ODE to obtain an algebraic finite difference equation (FDE).
- Solving the resulting algebraic FDE

# Three groups of FDs for solving initial-value ODEs

- Single point methods advance the solution from one grid point to the next grid point using only the data at a single grid point. (most significant method – 4th order Runge-Kutta).

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- Extrapolation methods evaluate the solution at a grid point for several values of grid size and extrapolate those results to get for a more accurate solution.
- Multipoint methods advance the solution from one grid point to the next using the data at several known points (4th order Adams-Bashforth-Moulton method).

Using the Taylor series for  $x_{n+1}$  using the grid point  $n$ .

truncation error  $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^{m+1})$

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$$x_{n+1} = x_n + x'|_n \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} x''_n (\Delta t)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{m!} x^m|_n \Delta t^m + R^{m+1}$$

$$R^{m+1} = \frac{1}{(m+1)!} x^{m+1}(\tau) \Delta t^{m+1} \quad t \leq \tau \leq t + \Delta t$$

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Solving for  $x'|_n$  yields:

$$x'|_n = \frac{x_{n+1} - x_n}{\Delta t} - \frac{1}{2} x''_n \Delta t - \frac{1}{6} x'''_n (\Delta t)^3$$



Using the Taylor series for  $x_{n+1}$  using the grid point  $n$ .

- a first - order finite difference approximation:

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- A second-order centered difference approximation of  $x'$  at point  $n + \frac{1}{2}$ :

$$x'|_{n+\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{x_{n+1} - x_n}{\Delta t} \quad \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^2)$$

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Substitute into the ODE and solve for  $x_{n+1}$ :

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Explicit finite difference (first order):

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- The local truncation error is  $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^2)$
- The global error accumulated after  $n$  steps  $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t)$
- Problem: the method is conditionally stable for  $\Delta t \leq \Delta t_{cr}$ .

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$$x'|_{n+1} = \frac{x_{n+1} - x_n}{\Delta t}$$

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- Implicit (since  $f(x_{n+1}, t_{n+1})$  does depend on  $x_{n+1}$  )
- The implicit Euler is unconditionally stable.
- However, if  $f(x, t)$  is non-linear, then we need to use one of the methods for solving non-linear equations.

Consider the 'linear test equation':

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

where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $x(t=0) = x_0 \neq 0$ .

The exact solution of this equation is:

$$x(t) = x_0 e^{\lambda t}$$

For  $\Re(\lambda) < 0$ , then the solution  $x(t \rightarrow \infty) \rightarrow 0$ .

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \lambda \delta t x_n$$

$$x_{n+1} = (1 + \lambda \delta t)^n x_0$$

So for the case when  $\Re(\lambda) < 0$ :

$$|1 + \lambda \delta t| < 1$$

# Stability of explicit Euler equation

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If we restrict that  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$-1 < 1 + \lambda \delta t < 1$$

$$-2 < \lambda \delta t < 0$$

$$0 < \delta t < -\frac{2}{\lambda}$$

(as  $\delta t > 0$  and  $\lambda < 0$ ).

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The condition of stability is:

$$\delta t < -\frac{2}{\lambda}$$



$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \lambda \delta t x_{n+1}$$

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{1 - \lambda \delta t} x_n$$

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$$\left| \frac{1}{1 - \lambda \delta t} \right| < 1$$

If we restrict  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , the negativity of  $\lambda$  implies that the single-step amplification factor  $1/(1 + |\lambda|\delta t)$  is  $< 1$ , irrespective of  $\delta t$ . Thus, implicit Euler method is unconditionally stable.