

Supporting textbook chapters for week 6: Chapters 8.1, 8.2, 8.5.1 to 8.5.3 Lecture 6, topics:

- Euler method
- Runge-Kutta methods
- Leapfrog and Verlet Methods --- energy conservation

Consider ODE(s) with some initial condition(s):

- 1D: $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, t)$ with $x(t=0) = x_0$.
- nD: $\frac{dx_i}{dt} = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n, t)$ with $x_i(t=0) = x_{i0}$.
- higher order, e.g.:

$$\frac{d^3 x}{dt^3} = f(x, t) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{dx}{dt} = v, \quad \frac{dv}{dt} = a, \quad \frac{da}{dt} = f.$$

These equations can be impossible to solve analytically, but easy to solve on a computer.

SciPy's canned routines

- Python has built-in ODE solvers called `odeint` (older) and `solve_ivp` (preferred) located in the `scipy.integrate` module. (Aside: This module also contains a bunch of integration functions that can do Gaussian quadrature, Simpson's rule etc.).
- See <http://docs.scipy.org/doc/scipy/reference/tutorial/integrate.html> (<http://docs.scipy.org/doc/scipy/reference/tutorial/integrate.html>).
- `odeint` uses the LSODA algorithm. Very powerful but lots of automatic knobs make it difficult to track what is actually going on (error estimate?).
- `solve_ivp` allows more user control. Still, useful to know how these methods work under the hood to really know how to use canned routines.
- If that doesn't matter to your specific application, then just use `odeint` or `solve_ivp`. However, if it does matter, then you can write your own ODE solver with the method that you want.

Euler method

Let's solve for

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -x^3(t) + \sin(t)$$

```
In [2]: # Load euler-odeint.py modified from Newman
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from scipy.integrate import odeint

def f(x,t):
    return -x**3 + np.sin(t)

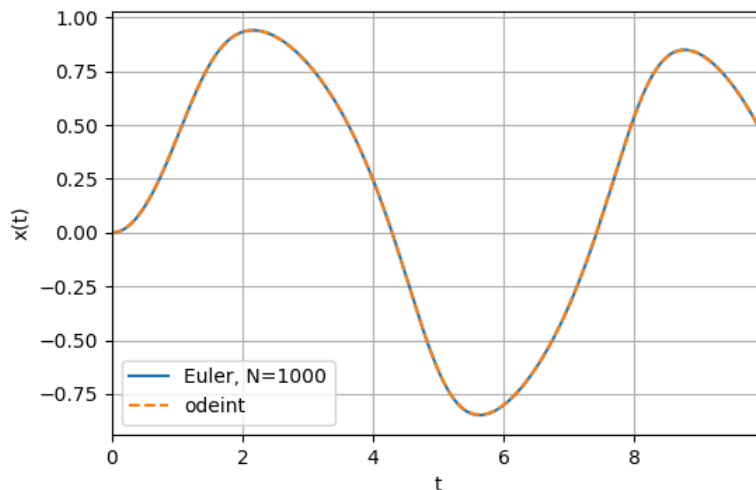
a = 0.0          # Start of the interval
b = 10.0         # End of the interval
N = 1000         # Number of steps
h = (b-a)/N      # Size of a single step
x = 0.0          # Initial condition

tpoints = np.arange(a,b,h)
xpoints = []
for t in tpoints:
    xpoints.append(x)
    x += h*f(x,t)

#also solve by odeint
x_new = odeint(func=f, y0=0, t=tpoints)
```

```
In [3]: plt.figure(dpi=100)
plt.plot(tpoints, xpoints, label='Euler, N={:d}'.format(N))
plt.xlabel("t")
plt.ylabel("x(t)")
plt.plot(tpoints, x_new, '--', label='odeint')
plt.autoscale(enable=True, axis='x', tight=True)
plt.grid()
plt.legend()
```

Out[3]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x7f1bb71126a0>



- The Euler method has error $O(h^2)$ at each step (error = $O(h^2)$),
- integrating across the whole interval: global error is $O(h)$ (see eqn 8.8, p. 331):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Taylor expansion } \Rightarrow x(t+h) &= x(t) + h \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{h^2}{2} \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \overbrace{O(h^3)}^{\epsilon} \\ \sum \epsilon &= \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \frac{h^2}{2} \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} \Big|_{x_k, t_k} = \frac{h}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h \frac{df}{dt} \Big|_{x_k, t_k} \\ &\approx \frac{h}{2} \int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = \frac{h}{2} [f_b - f_a] \end{aligned}$$

- For some applications, this is good enough. But for others, we need to do better!

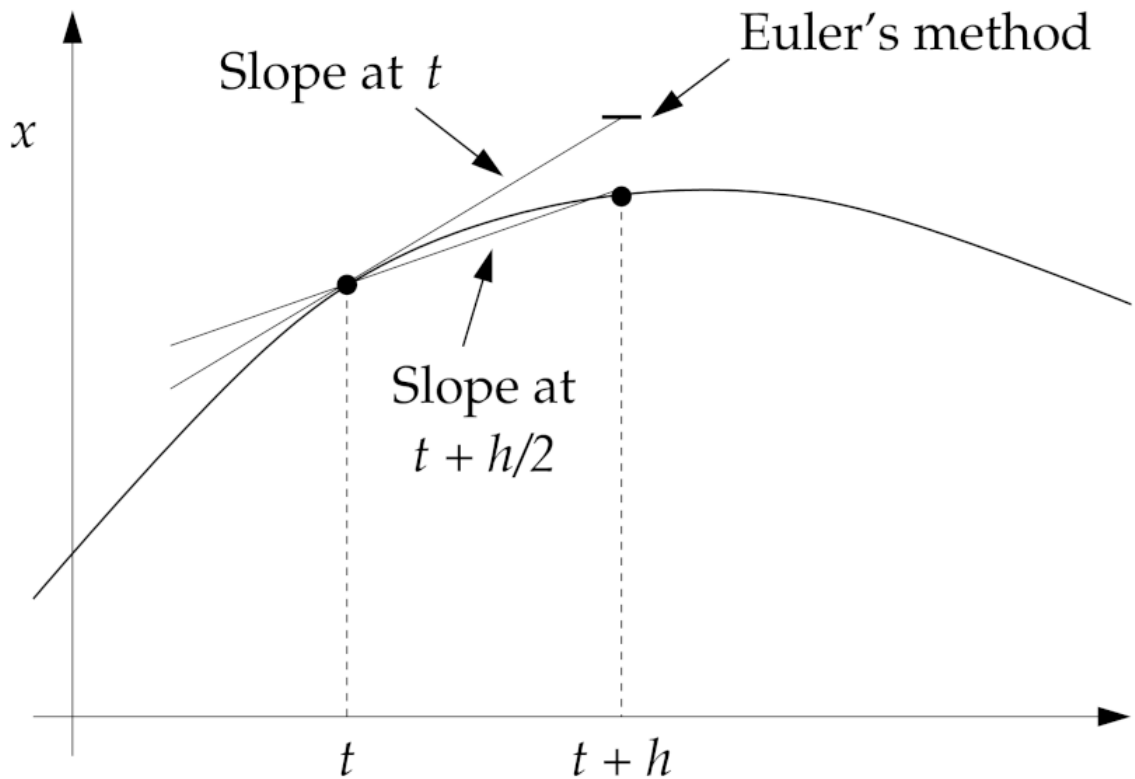
2nd-order Runge-Kutta (RK2) method

- Use the middle point $t + h/2$ and evaluate with Euler's method,

$$x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right) \approx x(t) + \frac{h}{2} f[x(t), t]$$

- Slope at $t + \frac{h}{2} \approx f\left[x(t) + \frac{h}{2} f[x(t), t], t + \frac{h}{2}\right]$

$$\Rightarrow x(t+h) = x(t) + hf\left[x(t) + \frac{h}{2} f[x(t), t], t + \frac{h}{2}\right]$$



RK2 usually coded by defining intermediate quantities:

- $k_1 = hf(x, t)$ as preliminary step before $x(t + h/2)$,
- $k_2 = hf\left(x + \frac{k_1}{2}, t + \frac{h}{2}\right)$,
- $x(t + h) = x(t) + k_2$.

RK2: $O(h^3)$ step-by-step error, usually $O(h^2)$ global error.

Coding Euler:

```
In [ ]: for t in tpoints:
        x += h*f(x, t)
```

Coding RK2:

```
In [ ]: for t in tpoints:
        k1 = h*f(x, t)
        k2 = h*f(x + 0.5*k1, t+0.5*h)
        x += k2
```

4th-order Runge-Kutta method (RK4)

- Various Taylor expansions at various points in the interval \Rightarrow higher-order RK's.
- RK4 is reasonable to code yourself. Higher-order methods \Rightarrow use canned routines.
- End result, after tedious algebra:
 1. $k_1 = hf(x, t)$,
 2. $k_2 = hf\left(x + \frac{k_1}{2}, t + \frac{h}{2}\right)$,
 3. $k_3 = hf\left(x + \frac{k_2}{2}, t + \frac{h}{2}\right)$,
 4. $k_4 = hf(x + k_3, t + h)$,
 5. $x(t + h) = x(t) + \frac{1}{6}(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4)$.

Coding RK4:

```
In [ ]: for t in tpoints:
    k1 = h*f(x, t)
    k2 = h*f(x+0.5*k1, t+0.5*h)
    k3 = h*f(x+0.5*k2, t+0.5*h)
    k4 = h*f(x+k3, t+h)
    x += (k1 + 2*k2 + 2*k3 + k4)/6
```

- RK4 carries $O(h^4)$ error globally
- Many small things to keep track of: easy to introduce a coding error!

Leapfrog methods

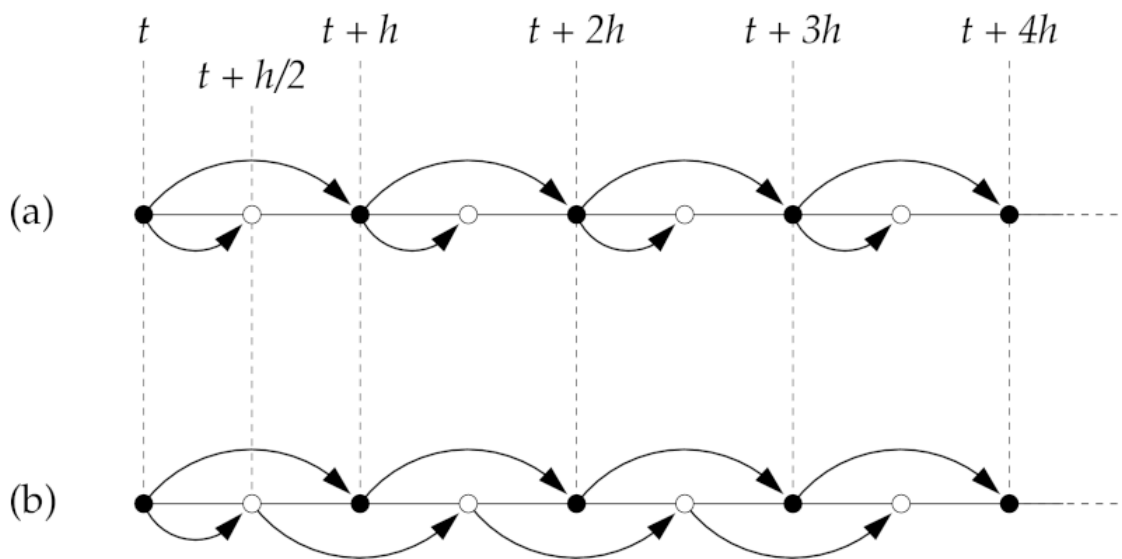
- RK2: Use mid-point location to jump to $t + h$

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hf \left[x + \frac{h}{2} f(x, t), t + \frac{h}{2} \right]$$

- Leapfrog: use each point as a mid-point.

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hf \left[x + \frac{h}{2} f(x, t), t + \frac{h}{2} \right],$$

$$x \left(t + \frac{3}{2}h \right) = x \left(t + \frac{h}{2} \right) + hf[x(t+h), t+h].$$



- Also $O(h^2)$ global error, and not RK4-able (not trivially at least, cf. Yoshida algorithms).
- So, why is it useful?

- It is **time-reversible**!
- Noether's Theorem: If a system has a continuous symmetry property, then there are corresponding quantities whose values are conserved in time.
- Invariance in time of the laws of Physics \Rightarrow conservation of energy.

Leapfrog timesteping is reversible!

Forward leapfrog:

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hf \left(x \left(t + \frac{h}{2} \right), t + \frac{h}{2} \right),$$

$$x \left(t + \frac{3}{2}h \right) = x \left(t + \frac{h}{2} \right) + hf(x(t+h), t+h).$$

Backward Leapfrog: $h \rightarrow -h$

$$x(t-h) = x(t) - hf \left(x \left(t - \frac{h}{2} \right), t - \frac{h}{2} \right),$$

$$x \left(t - \frac{3}{2}h \right) = x \left(t - \frac{h}{2} \right) - hf(x(t-h), t-h).$$

Leapfrog timesteping is reversible!

Forward leapfrog:

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hf\left(x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right), t + \frac{h}{2}\right),$$
$$x\left(t + \frac{3}{2}h\right) = x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right) + hf(x(t+h), t+h).$$

Shift in time: $t \rightarrow t + 3h/2$

$$x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right) = x\left(t + \frac{3}{2}h\right) - hf(x(t+h), t+h),$$
$$x(t) = x(t+h) - hf\left(x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right), t + \frac{h}{2}\right).$$

Doesn't work with RK2

Forward RK2:

$$x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right) = x(t) + \frac{h}{2}f(x(t), t)$$

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hf\left(x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right), t + \frac{h}{2}\right)$$

Backward RK2: $h \rightarrow -h$

$$x\left(t - \frac{h}{2}\right) = x(t) - \frac{h}{2}f(x(t), t)$$

$$x(t-h) = x(t) - hf\left(x\left(t - \frac{h}{2}\right), t - \frac{h}{2}\right)$$

Doesn't work with RK2

Forward RK2:

$$x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right) = x(t) + \frac{h}{2}f(x(t), t)$$

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hf\left(x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right), t + \frac{h}{2}\right)$$

Shift in time: $t \rightarrow t + h$

$$x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right) = x(t+h) - \frac{h}{2}f(x(t+h), t+h)$$

$$x(t) = x(t+h) - hf\left(x\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right), t + \frac{h}{2}\right)$$

Doesn't work with RK2

- Everything "resets" at $t + h$, so the info at the mid-point is lost and the reverse path is not a "retracing of the steps".
- Graphically, reverse is not like drawing the arrows in reverse

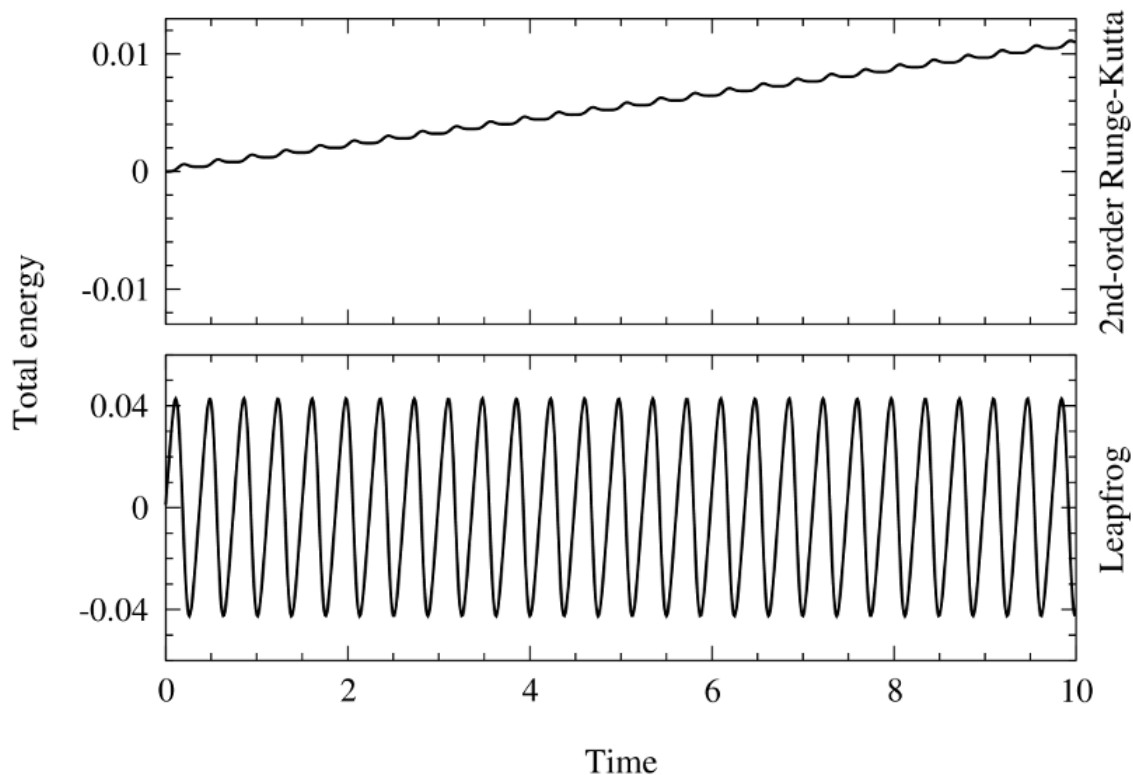
Example: Energy of a nonlinear pendulum

Solving

$$\frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} = -\sin\theta$$

(angular frequency = 1 rad/s)

Try RK2 vs Leapfrog: with RK2 we see energy drift over time. RK4 would be more precise, so energy drift would be less significant, but still there.



Leapfrog to Verlet

- Leapfrog extension to two (or n) coupled ODEs: cf. §§ 8.2, 8.3 in textbook.
- Verlet is for the special case of two coupled ODEs, with LHS and RHS having separated variables. Like for Newton's 2nd law for conservative forces:

$$\frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = \frac{F(x)}{m} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{dx}{dt} = v \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{F(x)}{m}.$$

1st ODE: x on LHS, v on RHS; 2nd ODE: v on LHS, x on RHS.

- Verlet method:

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hv\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right),$$

$$v\left(t + \frac{3}{2}h\right) = v\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right) + h\frac{F(x(t+h))}{m}.$$

- Verlet is a 2-variable leapfrog method at 1/2 the cost.
- It conserves energy too.
- If diagnostics (like energy) are needed at specific time steps, we need to recompute the half-step quantities.

Pros and Cons of each method

RK2:

- \oplus Easily extended to RK4
- \oplus Possible to use adaptive time step (see next week)
- \ominus not time-reversible
- \ominus not great accuracy

RK4:

- \oplus accuracy
- \oplus Possible to use adaptive time step (see next week)
- \ominus not time-reversible

Leapfrog:

- \oplus time-reversible
- \oplus basis for higher-order methods (Bulirsch-Stoer, see next week)
- \ominus not great accuracy
- \ominus time step has to be constant.

Let's return to our example of solving

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -x^3(t) + \sin(t)$$

```
In [5]: # Load euler-odeint.py modified from Newman
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from scipy.integrate import odeint

def f(x,t):
    return -x**3 + np.sin(t)

a = 0.0          # Start of the interval
b = 10.0         # End of the interval
N = 12           # Number of steps
h = (b-a)/N      # Size of a single step
xE = 0.0         # Initial condition for Euler

tpoints = np.arange(a,b,h)
```

```
In [6]: x2 = 0. # Initial condition for RK2
x4 = 0. # Initial condition for RK4
xEpoints = [] # results for Euler
x2points = [] # for RK2
x4points = [] # for RK4
for t in tpoints:
    xEpoints.append(xE) #Euler
    xE += h*f(xE, t)

    x2points.append(x2) #RK2
    k1 = h*f(x2, t)
    k2 = h*f(x2 + 0.5*k1, t+0.5*h)
    x2 += k2

    x4points.append(x4) #RK4
    k2 = h*f(x4+0.5*k1, t+0.5*h)
    k3 = h*f(x4+0.5*k2, t+0.5*h)
    k4 = h*f(x4+k3, t+h)
    x4 += (k1 + 2*k2 + 2*k3 + k4)/6

#also solve by odeint
x_new = odeint(func=f, y0=0, t=tpoints)
```

```

In [8]: plt.figure(dpi=100)
plt.plot(tpoints, xEpoints, label='Euler, N={:d}'.format(N))
plt.plot(tpoints, np.array(x2points), label='RK2, N={:d}'.format(N))
plt.plot(tpoints, np.array(x4points), label='RK4, N={:d}'.format(N))
plt.xlabel("t")
plt.ylabel("x(t)")
plt.plot(tpoints, x_new, '--', label='odeint')
plt.autoscale(enable=True, axis='x', tight=True)
plt.grid()
plt.legend()

```

Out[8]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x7f1bb6fad6a0>

