Runge-Kutta Methods

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The aforementioned Euler's method is the simplest single step ODE solving method, but has a fairly large error. The Runge-Kutta methods are more popular due to their improved accuracy, in particular 4th and 5th order methods.

Outline of the Derivation

The idea behind Runge-Kutta is to perform integration steps using a weighted average of Euler-like steps. The following outline {% cite efferson-numerical-methods %} is not a full derivation of the method, as this requires theorems outside the scope of this course.

Second Order Runge-Kutta

We shall start by looking at second order Runge-Kutta methods. We want to solve an ODE of the form

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

on the interval $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$, where $x_{i+1} = x_i + h$, with a given initial condition $y(x = x_i) = y_i$. That is we wish to determine the value of $y(x_{i+1}) = y_{i+1}$. We start by calculating the gradient of y at 2 places:

- The start of the interval: (x_i, y_i)
- A point inside the interval, for which we approximate the y value using Euler's method: $(x_i + \alpha h, y_i + \alpha h f(x_i, y_i))$, for some choice of α .

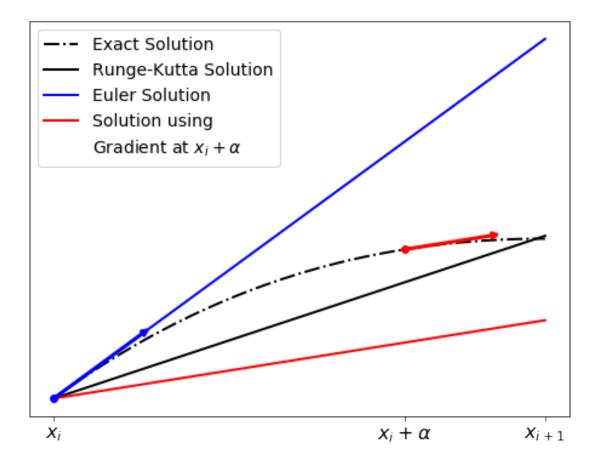
We then approximate the value of y_{i+1} using Euler's method with each of these gradients:

- $y_{i+1} \approx y_i + hf(x_i, y_i)$
- $y_{i+1} \approx y_i + hf(x_i + \alpha h, y_i + \alpha hf(x_i, y_i))$

The final approximation of y_{i+1} is calculated by taking a weighted average of these two approximations:

$$y_{i+1} \approx y_i + c_1 h f(x_i, y_i) + c_2 h f(x_i + \alpha h, y_i + \alpha h f(x_i, y_i))$$

where $c_1 + c_2 = 1$ is required.



Now, how do we go about choosing good values for c_1 , c_2 and α ? If we Taylor expand the left-hand side of the equation above, and the last term on the right-hand side gives us the relation:

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2c_2}$$

This still gives us a free choice of one of the parameters. Two popular choices are:

The trapezoid rule: $c1 = c2 = \frac{1}{2}$ and $\alpha = 1$, which yields:

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{1}{2}h\left[f(x_i, y_i) + f(x_i + h, y_i + hf(x_i, y_i))\right]$$

The midpoint rule: c1 = 0, c2 = 1 and $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$, which yields:

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + hf\left(x_i + \frac{1}{2}h, y_i + \frac{1}{2}hf(x_i, y_i)\right)$$

Both of these methods have an accumulated error of (h^2) , as opposed to Euler's method with (h)

Fourth Order Runge-Kutta (RK4)

As mentioned, the more popular Runge-Kutta method is the fourth order (for which we will not cover the derivation):

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

where the k values are the slopes:

$$k_1 = f(x_i, y_i)$$

$$k_2 = f\left(x_i + \frac{1}{2}h, y_i + \frac{1}{2}hk_1\right)$$

$$k_3 = f\left(x_i + \frac{1}{2}h, y_i + \frac{1}{2}hk_2\right)$$

$$k_4 = f(x_i + h, y_i + k_3)$$

 k_1 is gradient value at the left of the interval. k_2 is the gradient at the midpoint of the interval, approximated using k_1 . The k_3 value is the gradient at the midpoint of the interval using k_2 to approximate it. k_4 is the value of the gradient at the right end of the interval using k_3 to approximate it.

This method has an accumulated error of (h^4)

Worked Example

Consider the ordinary differential equation:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

with the initial condition y = 1 at x = 0.

This has the exact solution:

$$y = 1 + \arctan(x)$$

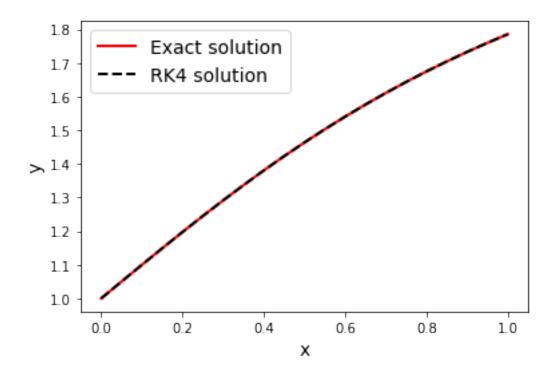
which we can compare are results to.

```
[7]: import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x0, y0 = 0, 1 #initial conditions
h = 0.05
x_end = 1

#Differential equation
def f(x, y):
    return 1/(1 + x*x)
#Exact solution
```

```
def y_exact(x):
    return 1 + np.arctan(x)
#Constructing the arrays:
x_arr = np.arange(x0, x_end + h, h) #make sure it goes up to and including x_end
y_arr = np.zeros(x_arr.shape)
y_arr[0] = y0
#Runge-Kutta method
for i,x in enumerate(x_arr[:-1]):
    #k values
    k1 = f(x, y_arr[i])
    k2 = f(x + 0.5*h, y_arr[i] + 0.5*h*k1)
    k3 = f(x + 0.5*h, y_arr[i] + 0.5*h*k2)
    k4 = f(x + h, y_arr[i] + k3)
    #update
    y_arr[i+1] = y_arr[i] + h/6*(k1 + 2*k2 + 2*k3 + k4)
#Plotting the solution
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
ax.plot(x_arr, y_exact(x_arr), '-r', label = 'Exact solution', linewidth = 2)
ax.plot(x_arr, y_arr, '--k', label = 'RK4 solution', linewidth = 2)
ax.set_xlabel('x', fontsize = 14)
ax.set_ylabel('y', fontsize = 14)
ax.legend(fontsize = 14)
plt.show()
```



High Order ODEs

As we have discussed in a previous page, higher order ODEs can be reduced to a collection of coupled first order ODEs, for example:

$$\frac{dy_0}{dx} = f_0(x, y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1})$$

$$\frac{dy_1}{dx} = f_1(x, y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1})$$

$$\frac{dy_2}{dx} = f_2(x, y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1})$$
(3)

$$\frac{dy_1}{dx} = f_1(x, y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1}) \tag{2}$$

$$\frac{dy_2}{dx} = f_2(x, y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1}) \tag{3}$$

$$\vdots (4)$$

$$\frac{dy_{n-1}}{dx} = f_{n-1}(x, y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1})$$
(5)

As we have seen, the Euler's method solution for this is fairly simple. For the RK4 method, things are slightly more complicated. We must decide how to calculate the k values.

$$y_{j,i+1} = y_{j,i} + \frac{h}{6}(k_{1,j} + 2k_{2,j} + 2k_{3,j} + k_{4,j})$$

Note that the y_i variables are not explicitly dependent on each other, but on the independent variable x. Thus we do not have free choice over which y_j values to use when examining another for a particular value of x. For any change in x, we expect simultenous change in all of the y_i . For this reason, when calculating the k_j values for a particular y_j , we need to consider the changes in the other y_l .

This looks more complicated then it is to apply in practice. All we need to do is vectorize the solution, as on the previous page. We can represent all the y_i as a vector \vec{y} , i.e

$$\vec{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

the ODE can thus be represented as:

$$\frac{d\vec{y}}{dx} = \vec{f}(x, \vec{y}) = \begin{pmatrix} f_0(x, \vec{y}) \\ f_1(x, \vec{y}) \\ \vdots \\ f_{n-1}(x, \vec{y}) \end{pmatrix}$$

and an update step as:

$$\vec{y}_{i+1} = \vec{y}_i + \frac{1}{6}h(\vec{k}_1 + 2\vec{k}_2 + 2\vec{k}_3 + \vec{k}_4)$$

where:

$$\vec{k_m} = \begin{pmatrix} k_{0,m} \\ k_{1,m} \\ \vdots \\ k_{n-1,m} \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that we can write:

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_{0,i} + \frac{1}{2}hk_{1,0} \\ \vdots \\ y_{j,i} + \frac{1}{2}hk_{1,j} \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1,i} + \frac{1}{2}hk_{1,n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \vec{y_i} + \frac{1}{2}h\vec{k1}$$

with this in mind, we can simply write the k values as:

$$\vec{k_1} = \vec{f}(x_i, \vec{y_i})$$

$$\vec{k_2} = \vec{f}\left(x_i + \frac{1}{2}h, \vec{y_i} + \frac{1}{2}h \ \vec{k_1}\right)$$

$$\vec{k_3} = \vec{f}\left(x_i + \frac{1}{2}h, \vec{y_i} + \frac{1}{2}h \ \vec{k_2}\right)$$

$$\vec{k_4} = \vec{f}\left(x_i + h, \vec{y_i} + h \ \vec{k_3}\right)$$

Worked Example Consider the third order differential equation:

$$\frac{d^4y}{dx^4} = -12xy - 4x^2 \frac{dy}{dx}$$

with the initial conditions: y(x=0)=0, y'(0)=0 and y''(0)=2.

This has an exact solution of:

$$y(x) = e^{-x^2}$$

which we shall use to test our numerical result.

We shall solve this up to x = 5 with steps of size h = 0.1.

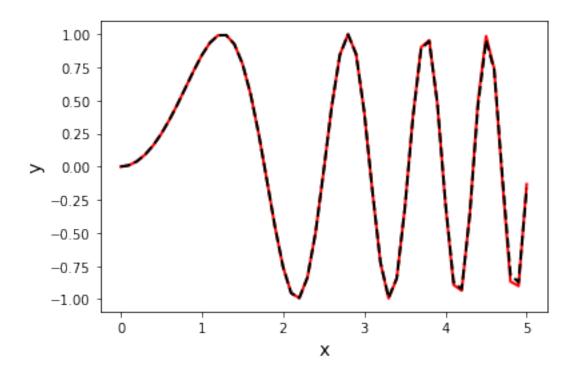
First we reduce this to a system of first order equations by introducing the variables $y_0(x) = y(x)$, $y_1(x) = y'(x)$ and $y_2(x) = y''(x)$:

$$\frac{dy_0}{dx} = y_1$$

$$\frac{dy_1}{dx} = y_2$$

$$\frac{dy_2}{dx} = -12xy_0 - 4x^2y_1$$

```
def y_exact(x):
   return np.sin(x*x)
#Constructing the arrays:
x_arr = np.arange(x0, x_end + h, h) #make sure it goes up to and including x_end
y_arr = np.zeros((x_arr.size, len(y0)))
y_arr[0, :] = y0
#Runge-Kutta method
for i,x in enumerate(x_arr[:-1]):
   y = y_arr[i,:]
    #k values
   k1 = f(x, y)
   k2 = f(x + 0.5*h, y + 0.5*h*k1)
   k3 = f(x + 0.5*h, y + 0.5*h*k2)
   k4 = f(x + h, y + h*k3)
    #update
    y_arr[i+1, :] = y + h/6*(k1 + 2*k2 + 2*k3 + k4)
#Plotting the solution
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
ax.plot(x_arr, y_exact(x_arr), 'r-', linewidth = 2)
ax.plot(x_arr, y_arr[:, 0], 'k--', linewidth = 2)
ax.set_xlabel('x', fontsize = 14)
ax.set_ylabel('y', fontsize = 14)
plt.show()
```



References

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