

Computational Physics

PHYS 6260

Solving ODEs

Announcements:

- No class: 1/14-16 (travel), 1/20 (MLK)
- HW 2: Due Friday 1/24

We will cover these topics

- 1st order ODEs with 1 variable
 - Euler's method
 - Runge-Kutta method
- ODEs with multiple variables
- Higher-order ODEs
- Variable step sizes
- Leapfrog method (energy conserving)

Lecture Outline

- Perhaps the most common task for computational physics is the solution of differential equations
- There are many methods, and we will cover only a few examples in this lecture
- An ordinary differential equation (ODE) has only one independent variable, such as time
 - It may contain other variables that are dependent on this independent variable, though
- The simplest type of ODE is a 1st order equation with one dependent variable, such as

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{2x}{t}$$

This can be easily solved analytically by separating the variables

But it is common for ODEs that aren't separable, such as

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{2x}{t} + \frac{3x^2}{t^3}$$

- This is also non-linear.
- We can solve it numerically. First we need the ODE in the form $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, t)$
- For now, we will focus on time-independent solutions.
- To compute a solution, we need a set of initial condtions (analytical or numerical)

Euler's Method

- The most straightforward method is Euler's method
- Evolves x with its derivate evaluated at time t with some timestep h
- We write the Taylor expansion around time t to calculate the next value of x at time t+h

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + h\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{1}{2}h^2\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \dots$$

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + h\frac{dx}{dt} + O(h^2)$$

For Euler's method, we neglect all terms higher than h^2 $x(t+h) = x(t) + h \frac{dx}{dt}$

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

In-class problem

Euler's Method

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

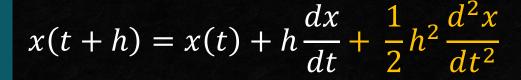
Use Euler's method to solve the ODE:

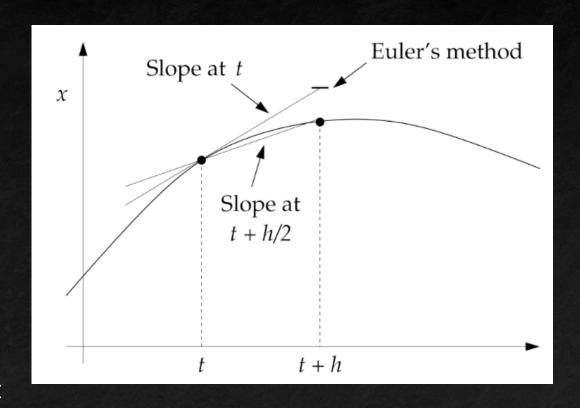
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -x^3 + \sin t$$

- Consider the initial condtion of x = 0 at t = 0
- Numerically integrate the system from $t = 0 \rightarrow 10$ with 1000 steps
- Start with the skeleton code 04_euler0.py on Canvas
- Running this program gives a good approximation to the actual solution
- In general, Euler's method is not a bad one, and in many cases, it is quite accurate
- However, it's not widely used because the higher-order Runge-Kutta method is easily implemented

Runge-Kutta method

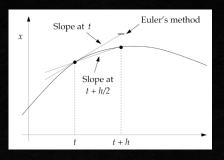
- We can improve Euler's method by keeping the 2nd order term
- We can use df/dt instead of d²x/dt²
- The Runge-Kutta (RK) method is a general method
 - Technically Euler's method is the 1st order RK method
 - The 2nd order RK method is also known as the midpoint method
- As illustrated to the right, we can estimate the next x-value with the derivative at the midpoint





$x(t+h) = x(t) + h\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{1}{2}h^2\frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$

Runge-Kutta method



We can estimate the value of x(t+h) by taking the Taylor expansion of both x(t) and x(t+h) around the midpoint t + h/2

$$x(t+h) = x(t+\frac{1}{2}h) + \frac{1}{2}h\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)_{t+h/2} + \frac{1}{8}h^2\left(\frac{d^2x}{dt^2}\right)_{t+h/2} + O(h^3)$$
$$x(t) = x(t+\frac{1}{2}h) - \frac{1}{2}h\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)_{t+h/2} + \frac{1}{8}h^2\left(\frac{d^2x}{dt^2}\right)_{t+h/2} + O(h^3)$$

Subtracting the 2nd expression from the first, we arrive at

$$\begin{aligned} x(t+h) &= x(t) + h \left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)_{t+h/2} + O(h^3) \\ &= x(t) + h f[x(t+\frac{1}{2}h), t+\frac{1}{2}h] + O(h^3) \end{aligned}$$

$x(t+h) = x(t) + h\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{1}{2}h^2\frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$

Runge-Kutta method

■ The h² terms have vanished so that the method has O(h³) errors now

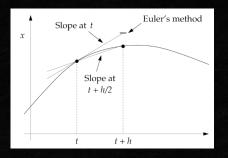
$$x(t+h) = x(t) + h\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)_{t+h/2} + O(h^3)$$

= $x(t) + hf[x(t + \frac{1}{2}h), t + \frac{1}{2}h] + O(h^3)$

- How do we calculate the slope at the midpoint?
 - We can calculate it with Euler's method!

$$x\left(t+\frac{h}{2}\right) = x(t) + \frac{1}{2}hf(x,t)$$

We then use it in the equation above



Runge-Kutta method

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + h\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{1}{2}h^2\frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$$

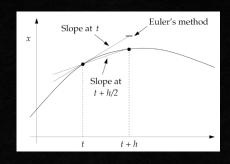
This is the 2nd order RK method

$$k_1 = hf(x, t),$$

$$k_2 = hf(x + \frac{1}{2}k_1, t + \frac{1}{2}h),$$

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + k_2.$$

It's called 2nd order because it's accurate to h²



4th order Runge-Kutta method

- We can take even higher-order terms in the Taylor expansion
- The "sweet spot" is 4th order that gives very high accuracy without much complexity
- It is the most widely used method to solve ODEs
- There are five equations to solve for the next timestep

$$k_1 = hf(x,t),$$

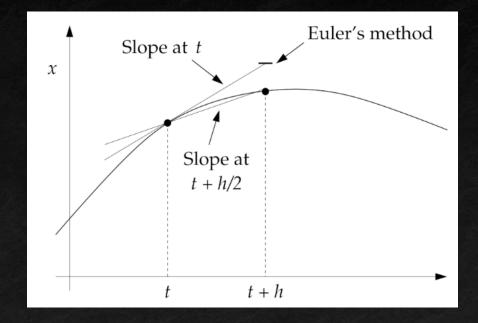
$$k_2 = hf(x + \frac{1}{2}k_1, t + \frac{1}{2}h),$$

$$k_3 = hf(x + \frac{1}{2}k_2, t + \frac{1}{2}h),$$

$$k_4 = hf(x + k_3, t + h),$$

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + \frac{1}{6}(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4).$$

This gives an accurate solution for the example for only N = 20 steps!



Multi-variable ODEs

Many physics problems have multiple dependent variables -- a system of ODEs. For example,

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = xy - x, \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = y - xy + \sin^2(\omega t)$$

- There is only one independent variable, t
- A general form for two 1st order ODEs is

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f_x(x, y, t), \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = f_y(x, y, t)$$

We can further generalize this into an arbitrary number of dependent variables by putting the variables and functions into vectors:

$$\vec{r} = (x, y, ...), \qquad \vec{f}(\vec{r}, t) = (f_x(\vec{r}, t), f_y(\vec{r}, t), ...)$$

Multi-variable ODEs

Put the variables and functions into vectors:

$$\vec{r} = (x, y, ...), \qquad \vec{f}(\vec{r}, t) = (f_x(\vec{r}, t), f_y(\vec{r}, t), ...)$$

Thus we can compactly express the system as

$$\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = \vec{f}(\vec{r}, t)$$

■ We can use this form on any RK method. For example, the 4th order method reads as

$$\mathbf{k}_{1} = h\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\mathbf{k}_{2} = h\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{r} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{k}_{1}, t + \frac{1}{2}h),$$

$$\mathbf{k}_{3} = h\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{r} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{k}_{2}, t + \frac{1}{2}h),$$

$$\mathbf{k}_{4} = h\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{k}_{3}, t + h),$$

$$\mathbf{r}(t + h) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \frac{1}{6}(\mathbf{k}_{1} + 2\mathbf{k}_{2} + 2\mathbf{k}_{3} + \mathbf{k}_{4}).$$

In-class example

System of ODEs with RK4

Use the skeleton code 04_RK4.py on Canvas to solve the system of ODEs

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = xy - x, \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = y - xy + \sin^2(\omega t)$$

- Use numpy's vector notation
- Use the initial condition of x = 1, y = 1 at t = 0
- Use a frequency of $\omega=1$
- Integrate from $t = 0 \rightarrow 10$

$$\mathbf{k}_1 = h\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\mathbf{k}_2 = h\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{r} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{k}_1, t + \frac{1}{2}h),$$

$$\mathbf{k}_3 = h\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{r} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{k}_2, t + \frac{1}{2}h),$$

$$\mathbf{k}_4 = h\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{k}_3, t + h),$$

$$\mathbf{r}(t+h) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \frac{1}{6}(\mathbf{k}_1 + 2\mathbf{k}_2 + 2\mathbf{k}_3 + \mathbf{k}_4).$$

Solving 2nd order ODEs

- So far, we've focused on 1st order ODEs, but these are rare in physics
- 2nd order and higher ODEs are more common
- Solving these are an extension of the 1st order methods
- Consider a 2nd order ODE with one independent variable t

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = f\left(x, \frac{dx}{dt}, t\right)$$

• Meaning that the 2nd derivative can be any arbitrary function, including non-linear ones

Solving 2nd order ODEs

For example, consider

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = \frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + 2\frac{dx}{dt} - x^2 e^{-4t}$$

• We can put this equation in the form $\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = f\left(x, \frac{dx}{dt}, t\right)$ by defining $y \equiv \frac{dx}{dt}$ that leads to

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

That is exactly the same as a 1st order ODE

Solving higher-order ODEs

We can use a similar approach for 3rd and higher order ODEs

$$\frac{d^3x}{dt^3} = f\left(x, \frac{dx}{dt}, \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}, t\right)$$

This will have two additional independent variables that are the 1st and 2nd derivatives

•
$$y \equiv \frac{dx}{dt}$$
, $z \equiv \frac{dy}{dt}$

Leading to a system of three 1st order ODEs

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = f(x, y, z, t)$$

Solving higher-order ODEs

 We can generalize this to a vector form where we can consider an arbitrary number of dependent variables and higher order derivatives

$$\frac{d^2\vec{r}}{dt^2} = \vec{f}\left(\vec{r}, \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}, t\right)$$

This is equivalent to the 1st order equations

$$\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = \vec{s}, \qquad \frac{d\vec{s}}{dt} = \vec{f}(\vec{r}, \vec{s}, t)$$

Given a system of n equations of mth order, we would have a set of m x n simulataneous
 1st order equations that we can use conventional ODE and matrix solvers

In-class problem

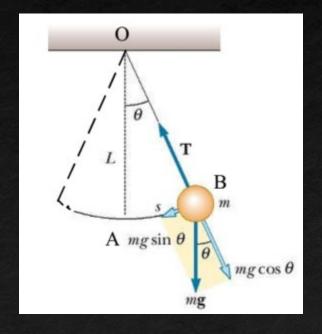
The non-linear pendulum

- A standard physics problem is the linear pendulum
 - Approximates the behavior with a linear ODE that can be solved exactly
- The equation of motion is

$$ml\frac{d^{2}\theta}{dt^{2}} = -mg\sin\theta$$
$$\frac{d^{2}\theta}{dt^{2}} = -\frac{g}{l}\sin\theta$$

We can re-write this as two 1st order ODEs

$$rac{d heta}{dt} = \omega, \qquad rac{d\omega}{dt} = -rac{g}{l} \sin heta$$

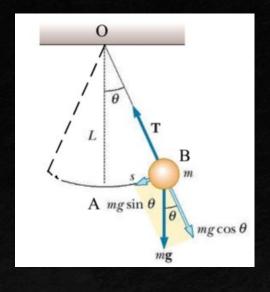


In-class problem

The non-linear pendulum

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \omega, \quad \frac{d\omega}{dt} = -\frac{g}{l} \sin\theta$$

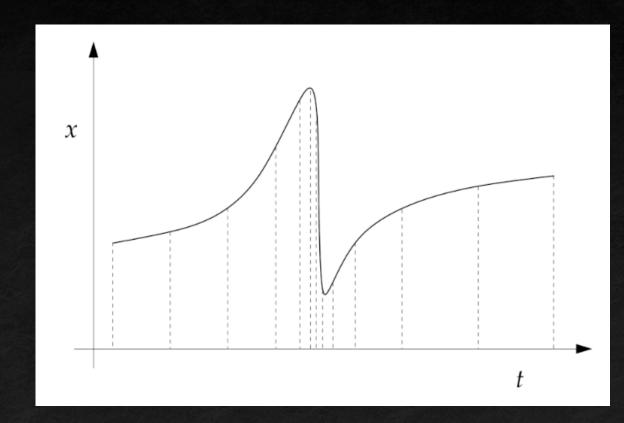
- We can combine these two variables into a single vector $\vec{r}=(\theta,\omega)$
- Use the RK4 method to solve these two equations simulataneously
- We are only interested in θ though
- Consider the case where the arm is 10 cm
- Initial condition: $\theta=179^\circ$, $\omega=0$
- Use the skeleton code 04_pendulum0.py

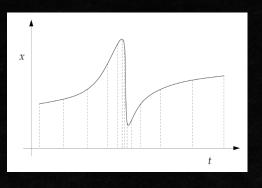


I'm a Comet!

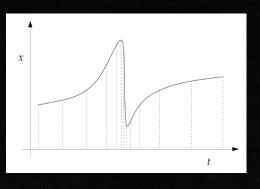
Varying the step size

- So far, we've been using methods with constant step sizes
- We can achieve much higher accuracy if we allow the step size to vary
- Suppose that we're solving a 1st order ODE: $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, t)$ shown to the right
- When the slope is steep, a smaller stepsize will prevent overshooting the actual solution
- Otherwise we can take longer steps and maintain accuracy while being efficient





- The idea behind an adaptive step size is to keep a constant error per unit interval t
- In practice, there are two parts to this
 - Estimate the error and compare to our desired accuracy
 - Increase/decrease the step size to maintain this accuracy
- Let's look at the RK4 method as an example
 - Choose some initial step h
 - Take two steps to time t + 2h
 - Go back to time t and take a single step 2h
 - Compare the results of x(t + 2h)



- RK4 is a 4th order method that has 5th order errors: ch⁵ for a single timestep, where c is an unknown constant.
- Therefore, for a two timesteps of size h, we have the numerical solution x_1 and the error $x(t+2h) = x_1 + 2ch^5$
- For a single timestep of 2h,

$$x(t+2h) = x_2 + 32ch^5$$

Equating these two solutions, we find that the error per timestep is

$$\epsilon \equiv ch^5 = \frac{1}{30}(x_1 - x_2)$$

• Our goal is to adjust h so that ϵ is closer but never greater than a target accuracy

- Consider a target accuracy δ per unit time
- Let's call the "perfect" timestep h' that achieves this accuracy

$$\epsilon' = ch'^5 = ch^5 \left(\frac{h'}{h}\right)^5 = \frac{1}{30}(x_1 - x_2) \left(\frac{h'}{h}\right)^5$$

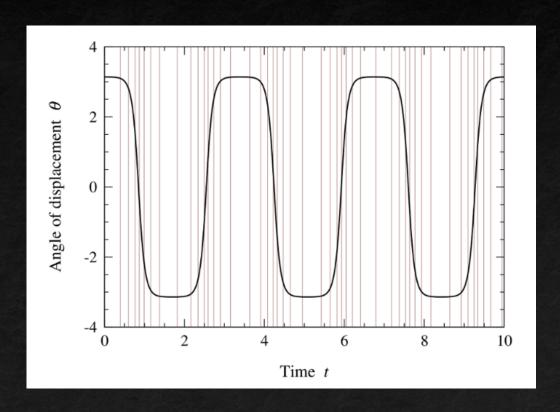
Set this error equal to the target accuracy

$$\frac{1}{30}|x_1 - x_2| \left(\frac{h'}{h}\right)^5 = h'\delta$$

Solve for h'

$$h' = h \left(\frac{30h\delta}{|x_1 - x_2|} \right)^{1/4} = h\rho^{1/4}$$

• Where we've defined $\rho \equiv 30h\delta/|x_1 - x_2|$



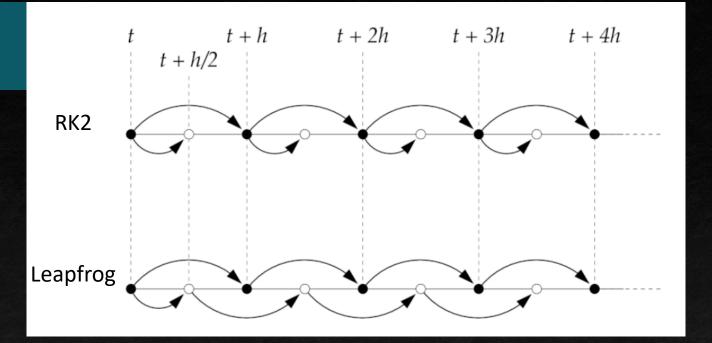
- Summary
- 1. Perform two steps of size h and one step of size 2h, starting at the same point
- 2. From these calculations, compute ρ from the two estimates x_1 and x_2
- 3. If $\rho > 1$, the actual accuracy is better than the target one
 - 1. Keep the x_1 estimate (2 steps)
 - 2. To avoid computational waste in the next step, we increase h by the factor ρ
- 4. If $\rho < 1$, the actual accuracy is poor than the target one. We have to repeat the calculation with a smaller timestep, decreased by the factor ρ
- 5. Note: usually the step size is not allowed to change more than a factor of two

Error accumulation

- The RK method gives a straightforward and robust way to integrate ODEs
- But in the pendulum example, we can show that it doesn't necessarily conserve energy
- The methods covered today conserve energy
 - Ideal for long integration periods
- Consider the 1st order ODE: dx/dt = f(x,t)
- Solving it with RK2 that requires dx/dt at the midpoint
 - 2nd order accurate method
 - We estimate the midpoint slope every step
 - The associated errors accumulate
 - Total error is only 1st order accurate

Leapfrog method

- We can avoid accumulating errors by not taking the half timesteps
- Have two simulataneous solutions
 - At integer steps
 - At half-integer steps
- Then we have estimates of the slopes at the midpoints for both solutions
- Results in the total error remaining 2nd order accurate
- Conserves energy



$$x(t + \frac{1}{2}h) = x(t) + \frac{1}{2}f(x,t)$$

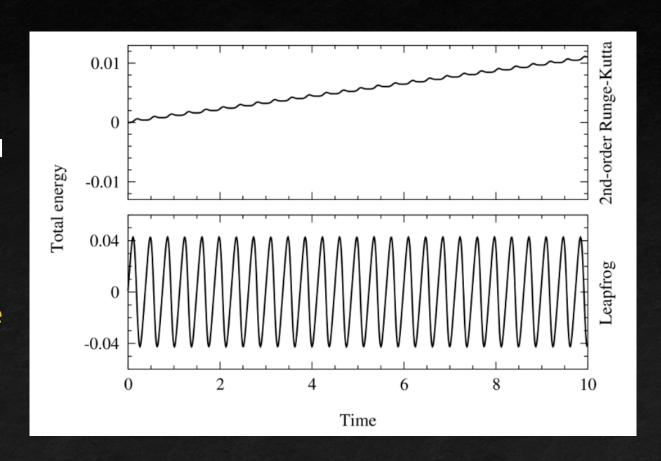
$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hf(x(t + \frac{1}{2}h), t + \frac{1}{2}h).$$

$$x(t + \frac{3}{2}h) = x(t + \frac{1}{2}h) + hf(x(t+h), t+h).$$

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

Leapfrog method

- The leapfrog method is time-reversal symmetric → conserves energy
 - One can show this by going forward in time +h with the governing equations and then backwards with –h to recover the original equations
 - Runge-Kutta methods do not have this property
- In general, the leapfrog method should be used for any periodic system
- Provides a stable long-term solution, conserving energy



Verlet method

 Suppose that we're using the leapfrog method to solve a 2nd order ODE, like Newton's second law

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = f(x, t)$$

That can be written as two coupled 1st order ODEs

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

• By defining the vector $\vec{r} = (r, v)$, we write it as a single expression

$$\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = \vec{f}(\vec{r}, t)$$

Verlet method

- Let's inspect the numerics of the system (leapfrog method)
- The position at the next timestep is given by

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hv\left(t + \frac{1}{2}h\right)$$

To advance to (t + 2h) we need the velocity at the next midpoint

$$v\left(t+\frac{3}{2}h\right) = v\left(t+\frac{1}{2}h\right) + hf(x(t+h),t+h)$$

- Notice that we never need the velocity at integer timesteps
- This is a special case where (1) the RHS of the 1st equation only depends on v not x and (2) the RHS of the 2nd equation only depends on x not v
- Many physics problems have this form

Verlet method

- The only downside to this method happens if we need a quantity that depends on v at full timesteps, like energy
- One can estimate v with Euler's method from a half-timestep

$$v(t+h) = v\left(t + \frac{1}{2}h\right) + \frac{1}{2}hf(x(t+h), t+h)$$

- In summary
 - Calculate the velocity at the first halftimestep: $v\left(t + \frac{h}{2}\right) = v(t) + \frac{1}{2}hf(x(t), t)$
 - Then the subsequent values of x and v are calculated with

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hv(t + \frac{1}{2}h)$$

$$k = hf(x(t+h), t+h)$$

$$v(t+h) = v(t + \frac{1}{2}h) + \frac{1}{2}k$$

$$v(t + \frac{3}{2}h) = v(t + \frac{1}{2}h) + k$$

Modified midpoint method

Because the leapfrog method has the nice property of time reversalibility, its error is

$$\epsilon(-h) = -\epsilon(h)$$

Telling us that the error is an odd function

$$\epsilon(h) = c_3 h^3 + c_5 h^5 + c_7 h^7 + \dots$$

- where c_i are constants
- There is one catch where we need to use Euler's method to estimate the slope at the first midpoint.
 - Introduces errors on the order of h²
- We can cancel these errors out in the last timestep (see lecture notes / book for details)
- Not a popular method because it few benefits over leapfrog and is less accurate than RK4