

Computational Physics (PHYS6350)

Lecture 11: Ordinary Differential Equations

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

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Course materials: https://github.com/vlvovch/PHYS6350-ComputationalPhysics/tree/spring2025

Ordinary Differential Equations (ODE)

First-order ordinary differential equation (ODE) is an equation of the form

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

with initial condition

$$x(t = 0) = x_0$$

This determines the x(t) dependence at t>0.

In many physical applications t plays the role of the time variable (classical mechanics problems), although this is not always the case.

References: Chapter 8 of Computational Physics by Mark Newman

When we need numerical methods for ODEs

The solution to an ODE

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, t), \qquad x(t = 0) = x_0$$

can formally be written as

$$x(t) = x_0 + \int_0^t f[x(t'), t'])dt'$$

If f does not depend on x, the solution can be obtained through (numerical) integration. In some other cases the solution can be obtained through the separation of variables, e.g.

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

In all other cases, the solution has to be obtained numerically.

Numerical methods for ODEs

Typically obtain the solution by taking small steps from x(t) to x(t+h)

Characteristics:

- Explicit or implicit
 - Explicit methods: use x(t) to calculate x(t+h) directly
 - Implicit methods: have to solve a (non-linear) equation for x(t+h)
- Accuracy
 - Truncation error at each step is of order $O(h^n)$
 - Some schemes are explicitly time-reversal and/or conserve energy
 - Adaptive methods adjust the step size h to control the error to the desired accuracy
- Stability
 - Whether the accumulated error is bounded (that's where implicit methods shine)
- Consistency
 - Consistent methods reproduce the exact solution in the limit $h \to 0$

Euler's method

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

Let us apply the Taylor expansion to express x(t+h) in terms of x(t):

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

Given that dx/dt = f(x,t) and neglecting the high-order terms in h we have

$$x(t+h) \approx x(t) + h f[x(t), t]$$
 Euler method

We can iteratively apply this relation starting from t = 0 to evaluate x(t) at t > 0.

This is the essence of **Euler's method** – the simplest method for solving ODEs numerically.

Error:

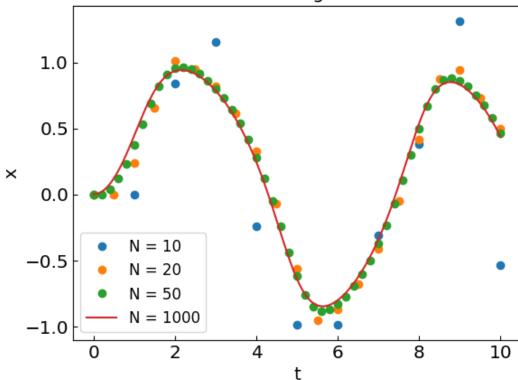
- Local (per time step): O(h²)
- Global (N= t_{end}/h time steps): O(h)

Euler's method

```
import numpy as np
def ode_euler_step(f, x, t, h):
    """Perform a single step h using Euler's scheme.
    Args:
    f: the function that defines the ODE.
    x: the value of the dependent variable at the present step.
    t: the present value of the time variable.
    h: the time step
    xnew: the value of the dependent variable at the step t+h
    return x + h * f(x,t)
def ode euler(f, x0, t0, h, nsteps):
    """Solve an ODE dx/dt = f(x,t) from t = t0 to t = t0 + h*steps using Euler's method.
    Args:
          f: the function that defines the ODE.
         x0: the initial value of the dependent variable.
         t0: the initial value of the time variable.
         h: the time step
    nsteps: the total number of Euler steps
    Returns:
    t,x: the pair of arrays corresponding to the time and dependent variables
    t = np.zeros(nsteps + 1)
    x = np.zeros(nsteps + 1)
    x[0] = x0
    t[0] = t0
    for i in range(0, nsteps):
        t[i + 1] = t[i] + h
        x[i + 1] = ode\_euler\_step(f, x[i], t[i], h)
    return t,x
```

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -x^3 + \sin t, \qquad x(t=0) = 0.$$

Solution of ODE using Euler's method



Midpoint method (2nd order Runge-Kutta)

Euler's method essentially corresponds to approximating the derivative dx/dt with a forward difference

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

Recall that central (midpoint) difference gives better accuracy

$$f(x, t+h/2) pprox rac{x(t+h)-x(t)}{h} + \mathcal{O}(h^2).$$

therefore

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

How to calculate x(t+h/2) entering the r.h.s? Use Euler's method $x(t+h/2) = x(t) + \frac{1}{2}hf(x,t) + \mathcal{O}(h^2)$

Therefore,
$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hf\left[x(t) + \frac{1}{2}hf(x,t), t + \frac{1}{2}h\right] + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$
, which can be written in two steps

$$k_1 = h f(x, t),$$
 trial step
 $k_2 = h f(x + k_1/2, t + h/2),$ real step
 $x(t+h) = x(t) + k_2$.

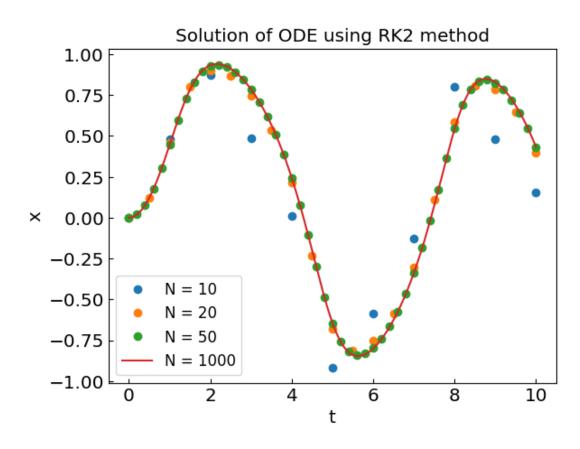
Midpoint method (2nd order Runge-Kutta)

```
def ode rk2 step(f, x, t, h):
    """Perform a single step h using 2nd order Runge-Kutta scheme.
   f: the function that defines the ODE.
   x: the value of the dependent variable at the present step.
   t: the present value of the time variable.
   h: the time step
    xnew: the value of the dependent variable at the step t+h
    k1 = h * f(x,t)
    k2 = h * f(x + k1/2., t + h /2.)
   return x + k2
def ode_rk2(f, x0, t0, h, nsteps):
    """Solve an ODE dx/dt = f(x,t) from t = t0 to t = t0 + h*steps using Euler's method.
         f: the function that defines the ODE.
        x0: the initial value of the dependent variable.
        t0: the initial value of the time variable.
         h: the time step
    nsteps: the total number of Euler steps
   t,x: the pair of arrays corresponding to the time and dependent variables
   t = np.zeros(nsteps + 1)
   x = np.zeros(nsteps + 1)
    x[0] = x0
   t[0] = t0
    for i in range(0, nsteps):
       t[i + 1] = t[i] + h
       x[i + 1] = ode_rk2\_step(f, x[i], t[i], h)
    return t,x
```

Error:

- Local (per time step): O(h³)
- Global (N= t_{end}/h time steps): O(h²)

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -x^3 + \sin t, \qquad x(t=0) = 0.$$



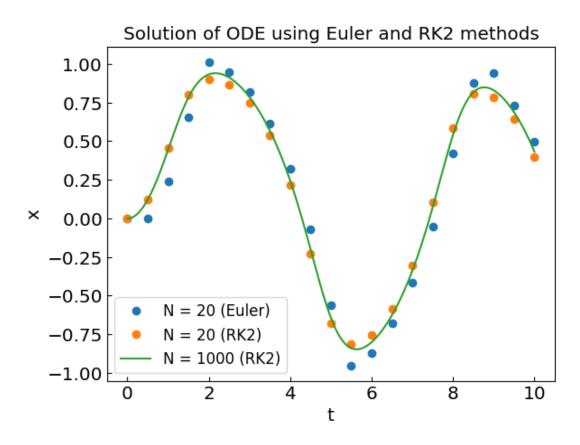
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   t = np.zeros(nsteps + 1)
   x = np.zeros(nsteps + 1)
    x[0] = x0
   t[0] = t0
    for i in range(0, nsteps):
       t[i + 1] = t[i] + h
       x[i + 1] = ode_rk2\_step(f, x[i], t[i], h)
    return t,x
```

Error:

- Local (per time step): O(h³)
- Global ($N=t_{end}/h$ time step): $O(h^2)$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -x^3 + \sin t, \qquad x(t=0) = 0.$$



Classical 4th order Runge-Kutta method

The above logic can be generalized to cancel high-order error terms in various powers in h, requiring more and more evaluations of function f(x,t) at intermediate steps.

The classical 4th-order Runge-Kutta method is often considered a sweet spot.

It corresponds to the following scheme:

$$k_1 = h f(x, t),$$

$$k_2 = h f(x + k_1/2, t + h/2),$$

$$k_3 = h f(x + k_2/2, t + h/2),$$

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

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

Error:

- Local (per time step): O(h⁵)
- Global (N= t_{end}/h time steps): O(h⁴)

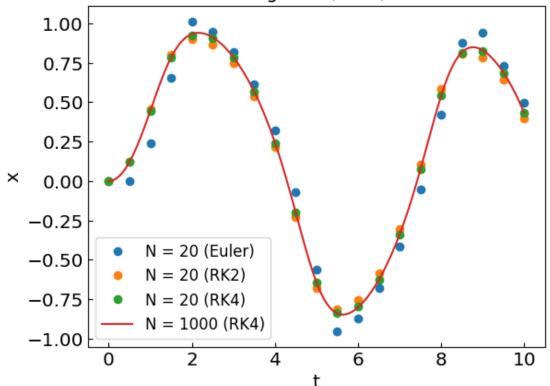
The classical 4th-order Runge-Kutta method is a good first choice for solving physics ODEs.

Classical 4th order Runge-Kutta method

```
def ode rk4 step(f, x, t, h):
   """Perform a single step h using 4th order Runge-Kutta method.
   f: the function that defines the ODE.
   x: the value of the dependent variable at the present step.
   t: the present value of the time variable.
   h: the time step
   xnew: the value of the dependent variable at the step t+h
   k1 = h * f(x,t)
   k2 = h * f(x + k1/2., t + h /2.)
   k3 = h * f(x + k2/2., t + h /2.)
   k4 = h * f(x + k3, t + h)
   return x + (k1 + 2. * k2 + 2. * k3 + k4) / 6.
def ode rk4(f, x0, t0, h, nsteps):
   """Solve an ODE dx/dt = f(x,t) from t = t0 to t = t0 + h*steps using 4th order Runge-Kutta method.
   Args:
         f: the function that defines the ODE.
        x0: the initial value of the dependent variable.
        t0: the initial value of the time variable.
         h: the time step
    nsteps: the total number of Euler steps
   Returns:
   t,x: the pair of arrays corresponding to the time and dependent variables
   t = np.zeros(nsteps + 1)
   x = np.zeros(nsteps + 1)
   x[0] = x0
   t[0] = t0
   for i in range(0, nsteps):
       t[i + 1] = t[i] + h
       x[i + 1] = ode_rk4\_step(f, x[i], t[i], h)
   return t.x
```

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -x^3 + \sin t, \qquad x(t=0) = 0.$$

Solution of ODE using Euler, RK2, and RK4 methods



Adaptive time step

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

The choice of the time step is important to reach the desired accuracy/performance.

- h too large: the desired accuracy not reached
- h too small: we waste computing resources on unnecessary iterations
- Local truncation error itself is a function of time depending on the behavior of f(x,t)

Adaptive time step: make a local error estimate and adjust *h* to correspond to the desired accuracy

Ways to estimate the error:

- Make two small steps (h) to compute x(t+2h) and compare to the one from a single double step 2h
- Use two methods of a different order and compare their results (e.g. <u>Runge-Kutta-Fehlberg method</u> RKF45)

Adaptive time step in RK4 using double step

Recall that the error for one RK4 time step h is of order ch^5 . Let us take two RK4 steps h to approximate $x(t+2h) \approx x_1$. Then,

$$x(t+2h)\approx x_1+2ch^5$$

Now take single RK4 step $x(t + 2h) \approx x_2$ of length 2h

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

The local error estimate for a single RK4 time step h is then

$$\epsilon_{\mathsf{RK4}} = |ch^5| = \frac{|x_1 - x_2|}{30}.$$

If the desired accuracy per unit time is δ , the desired accuracy per time step h' is

$$h'\delta = ch'^5$$

so the time step should be adjusted from h to h' as

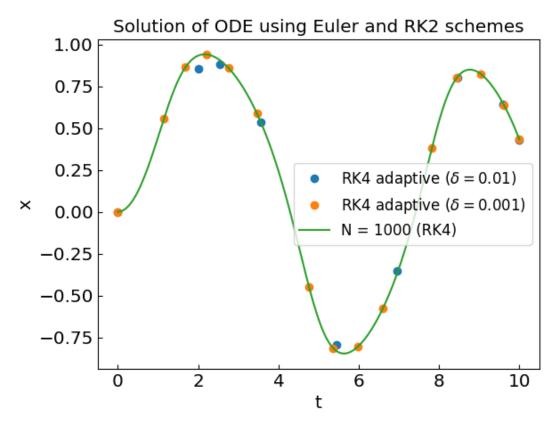
$$h'=h\left(\frac{30h\delta}{|x_1-x_2|}\right)^{1/4}.$$

- h'>h: our step size is too small, move on to $\mathsf{x}(\mathsf{t}+2\mathsf{h})$ and increase the step size to h'
- h' < h: our step size is too large, decrease step size to h' and try the current step again

RK4 method with adaptive step size

```
def ode_rk4_adaptive(f, x0, t0, h0, tmax, delta = 1.e-6):
    ts = [t0]
    xs = [x0]
    h = h0
    t = t0
    i = 0
    while (t < tmax):</pre>
        if (t + h >= tmax):
            ts.append(tmax)
            h = tmax - t
            xs.append(ode_rk4_step(f, xs[i], ts[i], h))
            t = tmax
            break
        x1 = ode_rk4_step(f, xs[i], ts[i], h)
        x1 = ode_rk4\_step(f, x1, ts[i] + h, h)
        x2 = ode_rk4\_step(f, xs[i], ts[i], 2*h)
        rho = 30. * h * delta / np.abs(x1 - x2)
        if rho < 1.:
            h *= rho**(1/4.)
        else:
            if (t + 2.*h) < tmax:
                xs.append(x1)
                ts.append(t + 2*h)
                t += 2*h
            else:
                xs.append(ode_rk4_step(f, xs[i], ts[i], h))
                ts.append(t + h)
                t += h
            i += 1
            h = min(2.*h, h * rho**(1/4.))
    return ts,xs
```

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -x^3 + \sin t, \qquad x(t=0) = 0.$$



Step size tends to decrease when dx/dt (the r.h.s) is large

Stability, stiff equations, and implicit methods

Consider the following ODE

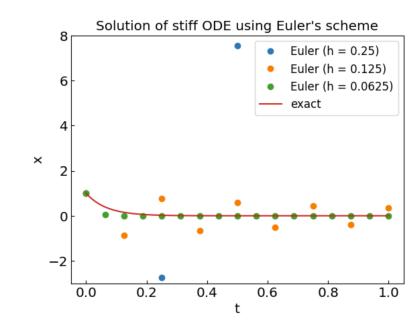
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -15x, \qquad stiff equation$$

with the initial condition x(t=0) = 1.

The exact solution is of course $x(t) = e^{-15t}$ and goes to zero at large times.

Let us apply Euler's method with h=1/4, 1/8, 1/16

Divergence for h=1/4!



Stability, stiff equations, and implicit methods

Consider the following ODE

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -15x, \qquad \text{stiff equation}$$

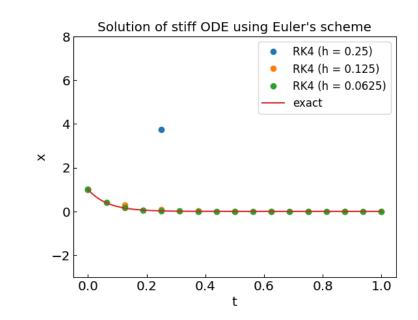
with the initial condition x(t=0) = 1.

The exact solution is of course $x(t) = e^{-15t}$ and goes to zero at large times.

Let us apply Euler's method with h=1/4, 1/8, 1/16

Divergence for h=1/4!

RK4: better but still diverges for h=1/4



Euler methods and stiff equations

Recall that in Euler's method x(t+h) = x(t) + h f(x,t)

For
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -15x$$
, we have $x_{n+1} = x_n - 15hx_n = (1 - 15h)x_n = (1 - 15h)^n x_0$, $x_n \equiv x(t + nh)$

If |1 - 15h| > 1, i.e. h > 2/15, the Euler method diverges!

Solution: implicit methods

Implicit Euler method: x(t+h) = x(t) + hf[x(t+h), t+h]

Our stiff equation:
$$x_{n+1} = x_n - 15hx_{n+1}$$
 thus $x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n}{1+15h} = \frac{x_0}{(1+15h)^n} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$ for all $h > 0$.

- Implicit methods are more stable than explicit methods
- But require solving non-linear equation for x(t+h) at each step
- Semi-implicit methods: use one iteration of Newton's method to solve for x(t+h)

Other implicit methods: trapezoidal rule, family of implicit Runge-Kutta methods

Systems of Ordinary Differential Equations

System of N first-order ODE

$$\frac{dx_1}{dt} = f_1(x_1, \dots, x_N, t),$$

$$\frac{dx_2}{dt} = f_2(x_1, \dots, x_N, t),$$

$$\dots$$

$$\frac{dx_N}{dt} = f_N(x_1, \dots, x_N, t).$$

Vector notation:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, t).$$

- all the methods we covered have the same structure when applied for systems of ODEs
- simply apply component by component

Systems of Ordinary Differential Equations

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, t).$$

Euler method

• RK4

$$\mathbf{x}(t+h) = \mathbf{x}(t) + h\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t), t]$$

$$\mathbf{k_1} = h\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t), t]$$

$$\mathbf{k_2} = h\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{k_1}/2, t + h/2]$$

$$\mathbf{x}(t+h) = \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{k_2}$$

$$\mathbf{k_1} = h\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t), t]$$

$$\mathbf{k_2} = h\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t), t]$$

$$\mathbf{k_3} = h\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{k_1}/2, t + h/2]$$

$$\mathbf{k_3} = h\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{k_2}/2, t + h/2]$$

$$\mathbf{k_4} = h\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{k_3}, t + h]$$

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

Systems of Ordinary Differential Equations

```
def ode_euler_multi(f, x0, t0, h, nsteps):
    """Multi-dimensional version of the Euler method.
    """

    t = np.zeros(nsteps + 1)
    x = np.zeros((len(t), len(x0)))
    t[0] = t0
    x[0,:] = x0
    for i in range(0, nsteps):
        t[i + 1] = t[i] + h
        x[i + 1,:] = ode_euler_step(f, x[i], t[i], h)
    return t,x
```

```
def ode_rk2_multi(f, x0, t0, h, nsteps):
    """Multi-dimensional version of the RK2 method.
    """

    t = np.zeros(nsteps + 1)
    x = np.zeros((len(t), len(x0)))
    t[0] = t0
    x[0,:] = x0
    for i in range(0, nsteps):
        t[i + 1] = t[i] + h
        x[i + 1] = ode_rk2_step(f, x[i], t[i], h)
    return t,x
```

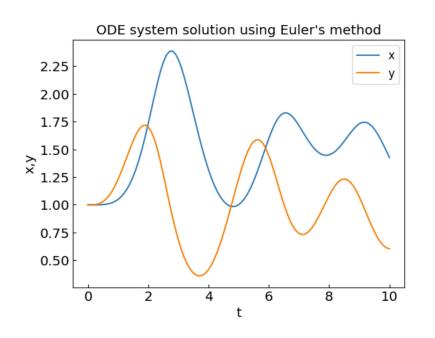
```
def ode_rk4_multi(f, x0, t0, h, nsteps):
    """Multi-dimensional version of the RK4 method.
    """

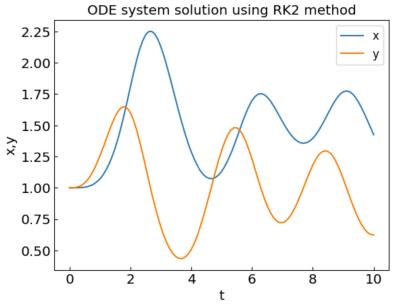
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    t[0] = t0
    x[0,:] = x0
    for i in range(0, nsteps):
        t[i + 1] = t[i] + h
        x[i + 1] = ode_rk4_step(f, x[i], t[i], h)
    return t,x
```

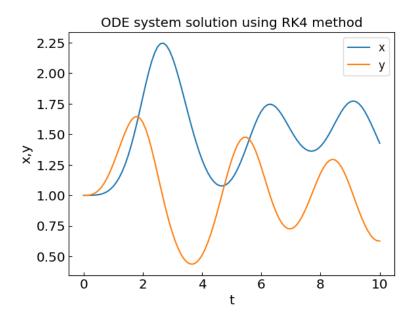
Systems of Ordinary Differential Equations: Example

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = xy - x,$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = y - xy + (\sin t)^{2}$$







Systems of 2nd-order ODEs

Newton/Lagrange equations of motion are 2nd order systems of ODE

$$m_i \frac{d^2 x_i}{dt^2} = F_i(\{x_j\}, \{dx_j/dt\}, t)$$

A system of *N* second-order ODEs

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

can be written as a system of 2N first-order ODEs by denoting $\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{v}$

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{v},$$

$$\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}, t),$$

and can be solved for $\mathbf{x}(t)$ and $\mathbf{v}(t)$ using standard methods

Example: Simple pendulum

The equation of motion for a simple pendulum reads

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

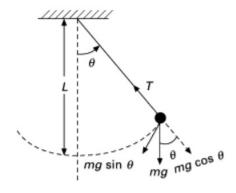
denote $\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \omega$ and write a system of two first-order ODE

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \omega,$$

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

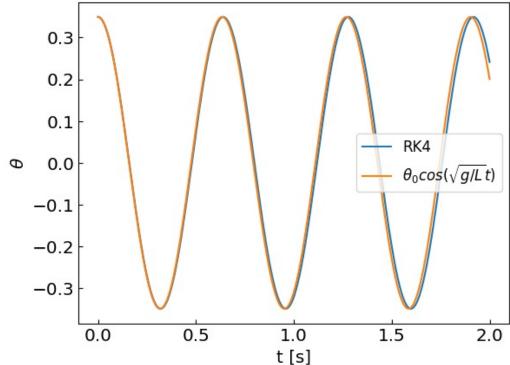
For small angles $\sin\theta \approx \theta$, an analytic solution exists

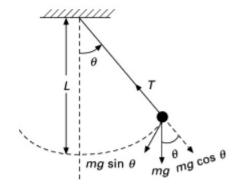
$$\theta(t) \approx \theta_0 \cos\left(\sqrt{\frac{g}{L}}t + \phi\right)$$



Example: Simple pendulum

Initially at rest at angle $\theta_0 = 20^{\circ} \approx 0.111\pi$ L=0.1 m, g=9.81 m/s^2



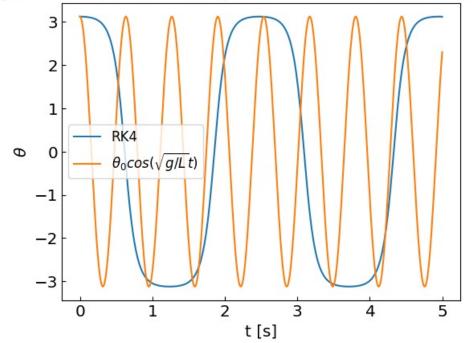


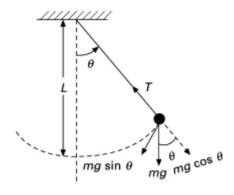
Linear regime at small angles

Example: Simple pendulum

Initially at rest at angle $\theta_0 = 179^{\circ} \approx 0.994\pi$ L=0.1 m, g=9.81 m/s^2







Non-linear regime at large angles, approximate analytic solution fails