

# Numerical Integration of ordinary D.E.'s

3.2.1

I'll continue to use  $\underline{x}$  as dependent variable and  $t$  as independent variable.

STATE SPACE FORM:  $\dot{\underline{x}} = \underline{f}(\underline{x}, t)$        $\underline{x}$   $n$ -vector, fcn. of  $t$

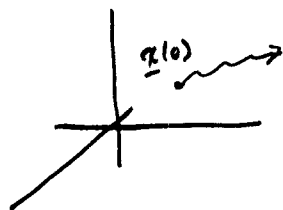
or write

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{dx_1}{dt} = f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n, t) \\ \frac{dx_2}{dt} = f_2(x_1, \dots, x_n, t) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{dx_n}{dt} = f_n(x_1, \dots, x_n, t) \end{array} \right.$$

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Boundary Conditions can be very complicated  
two simple cases cover most practical situations

initial-values given  $x_1(0), x_2(0), \dots, x_n(0)$



two-point values given usually some at  $t=0$ , some at  $t=T_{\text{final}}$ .  
(harder)

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we'll stick to initial-value problems.

Often these arise from situation like

$$\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + \alpha(t) \frac{dy}{dt} + \beta(t)y = 0$$

& initial conditions  $y(0)$  and  $y'(0)$

(equivalent to  $x_1(0)$  and  $x_2(0)$  when converted to state-space)

We'll look at following general methods

3.2.2

- 1) Euler's Method (simple-minded, basis of many other methods, not good by itself)
- 2) predictor-corrector methods (can be excellent for reasonable problems)
- 3) Runge-Kutta (good workhorse - will be good enough for assignment 3, but not state-of-the-art) (usually implies 4th order)

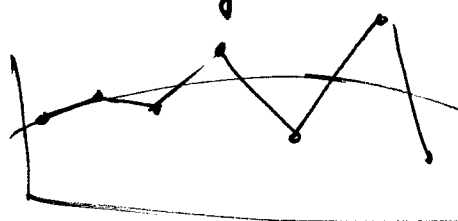
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See Nom. Recipes & refs therein for more sophisticated methods, like Richardson extrapolation. Integrating ODE's numerically is a grown-up problem!

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Three criteria enter into evaluating a numerical integration method: (besides complexity of coding, of course)

- 1) accuracy
  - estimated using standard Taylor series arguments,  $O(h^2)$ ,  $O(h^3)$ ... etc.
  - plus empirical evidence
- 2) efficiency
  - running time can be difficult to predict, since we usually don't know  $h = \Delta t$  in advance, and it may be chosen adaptively in practice during run-time
- 3) stability
  - Some methods diverge on some problems



## Euler's Method ("point-slope")

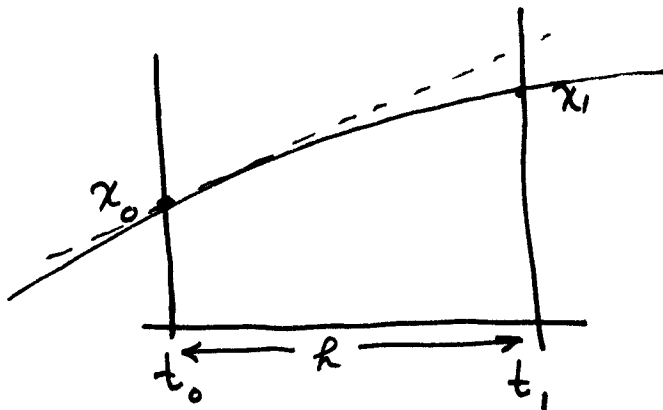
Simplest, basis of others, but just a start

[Euler, Institutiones Calculi Integralis, 1768]

Starting point

$$\dot{x} = f(x)$$

remember that  $x$  &  $f$  are  $n$ -vectors, but that doesn't affect our results



$$\dot{x}_0 = f(x_0) \approx \frac{x_1 - x_0}{h} \Rightarrow x_1 \approx x_0 + h f(x_0)$$

this is the iteration:

$$x_1 := x_0 + h f(x_0)$$

### Local (Single-Step) Error

Taylor's series again,

$$x_1 = x_0 + h f(x_0) + \frac{h^2}{2} f'(\xi) \quad \text{some } \xi \in [t_0, t_1]$$

$$\therefore E_{\text{single-step}} = x_1 - [x_0 + h f(x_0)] = O(h^2) \quad \text{as } h \rightarrow 0$$

### Global (Accumulated) Error

integrating from  $t=0$  to  $T$ , we have  $T/h$  Steps

Heuristically,

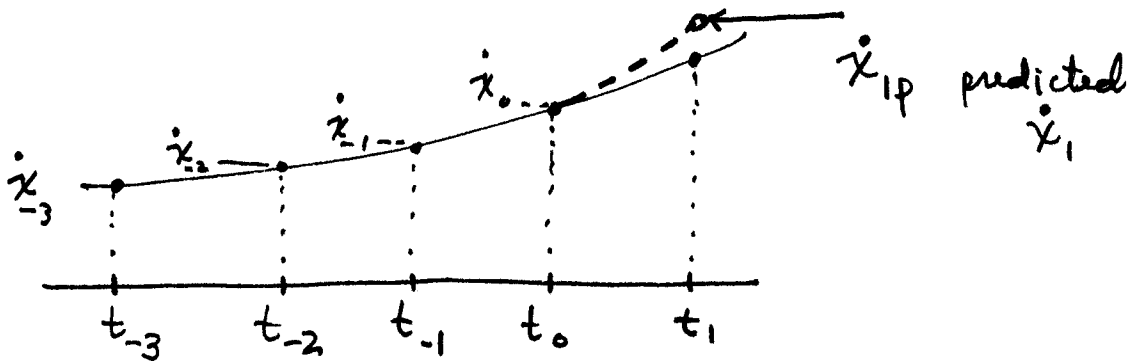
$$E_{\text{global}} = O(h)$$

(can be made rigorous, see J.R. Rice, Numerical Methods, Software, and Analysis, IMSL Reference Edition, McGraw-Hill, 1983)

## Outline of Predictor-Corrector Idea

See [Acton70] for details

- 1) use past values to predict  $\dot{x}_1$  from  $\dot{x}_{-3}, \dot{x}_{-2}, \dot{x}_{-1}, \dot{x}_0$  (say):



- 2) integrate under fitted curve of  $\dot{x}$  to estimate predicted  $x_{1p}$  at  $t_1$
- 3) correct derivative at  $t_1$  via original equation:

$$\dot{x}_{1c} = f(x_{1p})$$

Can be iterated to correct more  
has many variations

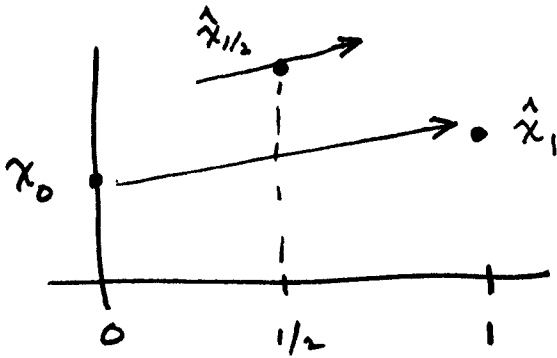
Numerical Recipes reports this has been superseded by Richardson extrapolation - in particular, Bulirsch-Stoer methods, which extrapolate to zero  $h$ . state-of-the-art?

will describe traditional, safe and easy to explain and program - Runge-Kutta.

## Second-Order Runge-Kutta (Midpoint) Method

32.5

Idea:



- ① Use Euler with  $h/2$  to find  $\hat{x}_{1/2}$
- ② Use derivative  $f(\hat{x}_{1/2})$  for a full step from  $x_0$

Local Error:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{x}_1 &= x_0 + h f(\hat{x}_{1/2}) \\ &= x_0 + h \left[ f(x_0) + \frac{h}{2} \dot{f}(x_0) + o(h^2) \right] \\ &= x_0 + h f(x_0) + \frac{h^2}{2} \dot{f}(x_0) + o(h^3)\end{aligned}$$

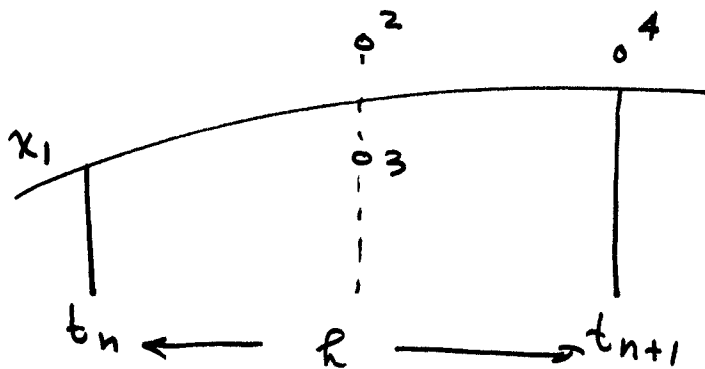
first 3 terms of Taylor's series correct

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore E_{\text{local}} &= O(h^3) \\ E_{\text{global}} &= O(h^2)\end{aligned}$$

4th Order Runge-Kutta - Dependable Workhorse

- Classical
- Easy to program

$f()$  evaluated four times per step



$$\boxed{\dot{x} = f(t, x)}$$

$$k_1 = h f(t_n, x_n)$$

$$k_2 = h f\left(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, x_n + \frac{k_1}{2}\right)$$

$$k_3 = h f\left(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, x_n + \frac{k_2}{2}\right)$$

$$k_4 = h f(t_n + h, x_n + k_3)$$

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \frac{k_1}{6} + \frac{k_2}{3} + \frac{k_3}{3} + \frac{k_4}{6} + O(h^5)$$

$$\begin{cases} \text{local error } O(h^5) \\ \text{global error } O(h^4) \end{cases}$$

See Num. Recipes also for adaptive step size methods plus more sophisticated stuff. This will do for Assgn. 3.

# Stability

3.2.7

Simple example:

$$\dot{x} = -cx \quad \text{one-dimensional}$$

Apply Euler's Method:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + h \dot{x}_n = x_n - hc x_n$$

$$x_{n+1} = (1 - ch) x_n$$

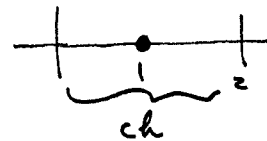
actual solution is  $x_{n+1} = x_n e^{-ct} = x_n e^{-ch}$

converges if  $ch \ll 1$ ,  $h \ll 1/c$

In general will be stable if

$$|1 - ch| < 1$$

otherwise diverges.



$$\boxed{h > 2/c}$$

In general, for explicit forward methods like Euler, Runge-Kutta, we require

$$h \ll 1/\lambda_{\max}, \quad \text{where } \lambda_{\max} = \text{largest eigenvalue}$$

Especially troublesome for "stiff" systems:

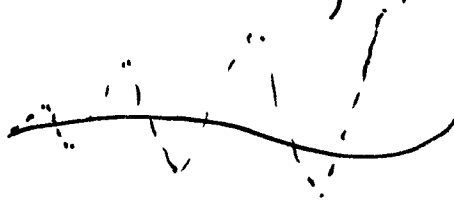
Say

$$x = e^{-t} + e^{-1000t} \quad \leftarrow \text{solution}$$

$\lambda_{\max} = 1000$ , so we need  $h \ll 1/1000$  for stability.

But after a short time, the  $e^{-1000t}$  term is negligible.

Easily leads to



Implicit Methods:

Simple example again

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + h \dot{x}_{n+1} \quad \leftarrow \text{use derivative at right end}$$

"Backward Euler"

$$= x_n + h(-c x_{n+1})$$

Solve:

$$x_{n+1} = \left( \frac{1}{1+ch} \right) x_n$$

$$|x_{n+1}| = \left| \frac{1}{1+ch} \right| |x_n| \leq |x_n|$$

In this simple case,  $c > 0$  corresponds to stable first order system, & this is always stable!

also unconditionally stable for stable, linear, constant-coefficient eqns. of any order.

But these are only the simplest cases!

In nonlinear cases, solving the implicit eqn. is hard, and there is no guarantee of stability.

But these techniques are often a big improvement for "stiff" systems — see Num. Recipes for refinements of Runge-Kutta, etc. to implicit.



# Briefly, Two-point Boundary Value Problems

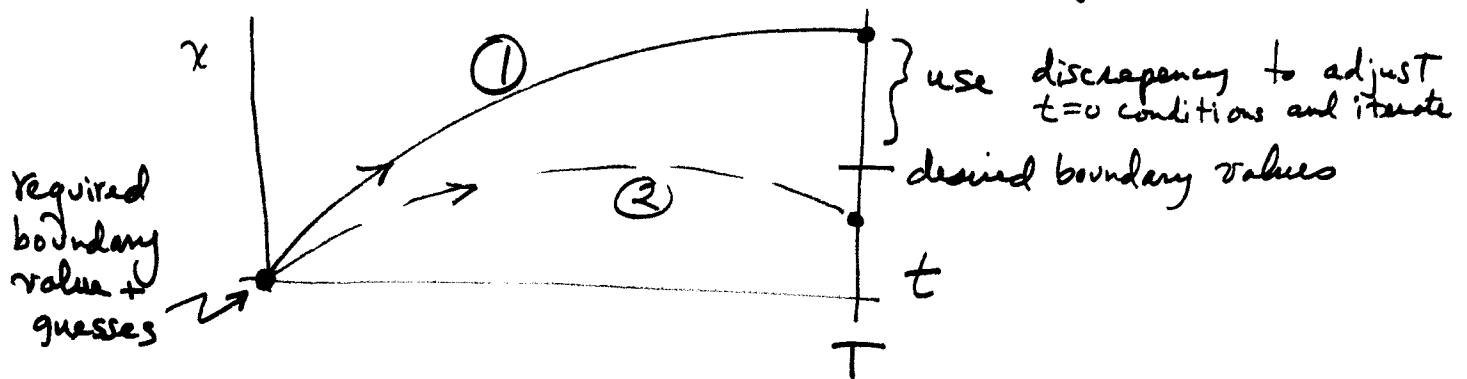
3.2.9

Suppose we are given some conditions at  $t=0$  and others at  $t=T$  (final). What do we do?

A common approach is the

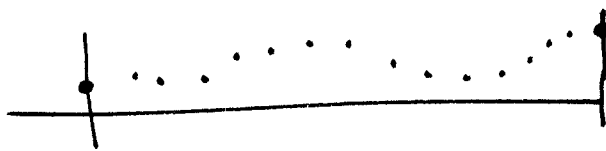
## Shooting Method:

guess all conditions at  $t=0$  and integrate:



Another method:

Relaxation: Start with (hopefully good) guess <sup>everywhere</sup> on grid:



adjust all values simultaneously  
sounds ridiculous, but can be good.

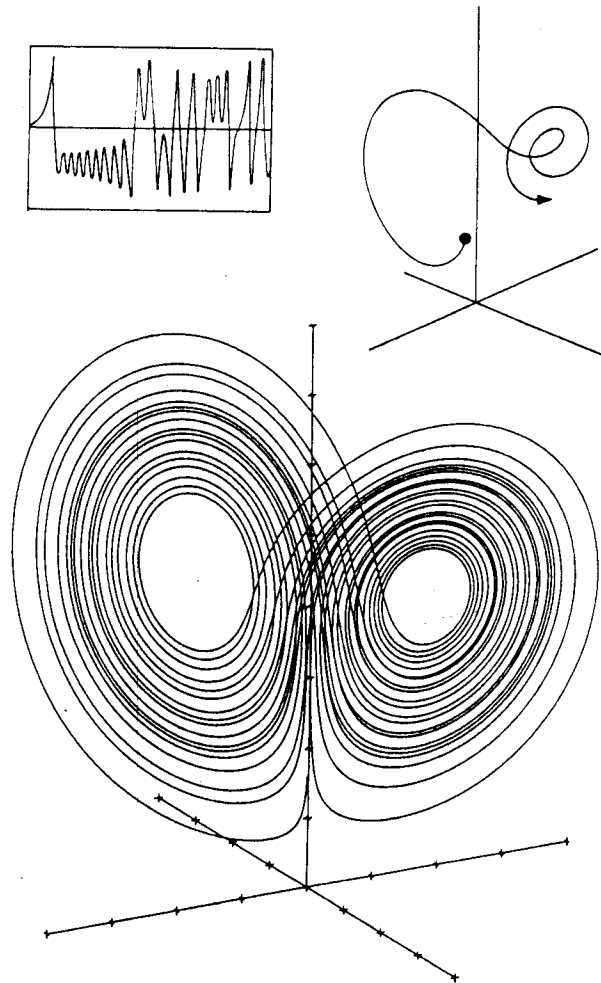
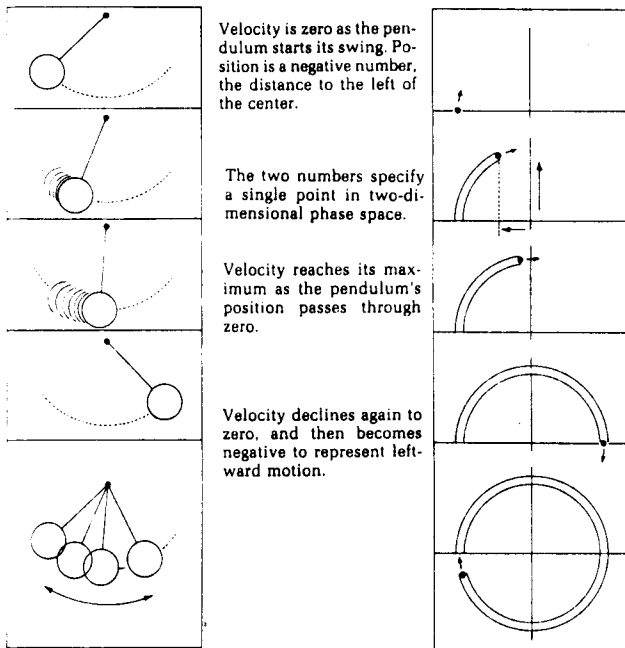
In summary, remember that solving differential equations is an Art as well as a science.

We have only touched the surface.

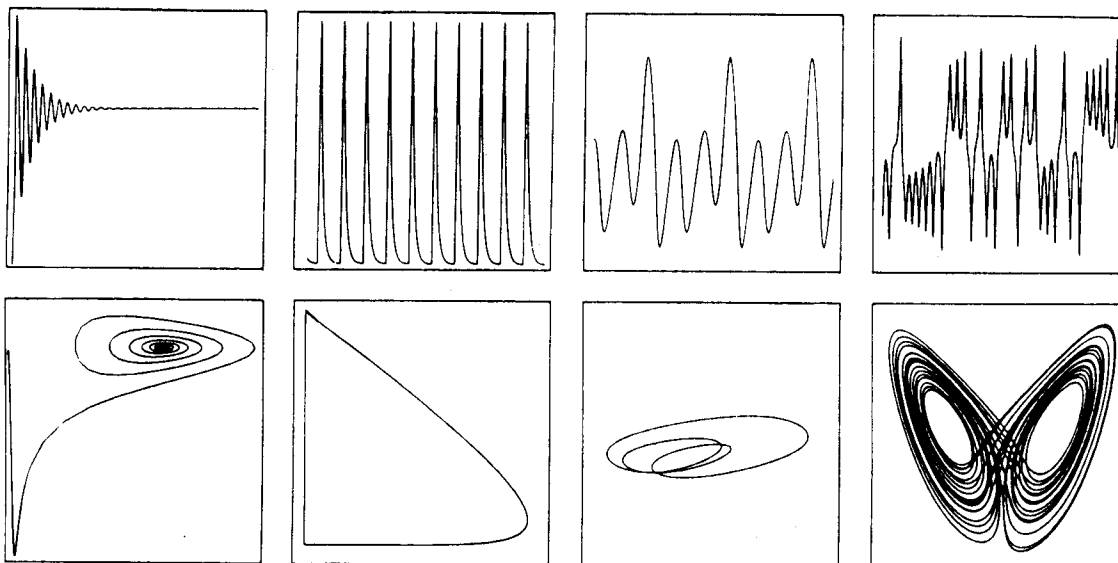
# Phase-space Picture Gallery

[Gleick 87]

3.2.10



ANOTHER WAY TO SEE A PENDULUM. One point in phase space (right) contains all the information about the state of a dynamical system at any instant (left). For a simple pendulum, two numbers—velocity and position—are all you need to know.



**MAKING PORTRAITS IN PHASE SPACE.** Traditional time series (above) and trajectories in phase space (below) are two ways of displaying the same data and gaining a picture of a system's long-term behavior. The first system (left) converges on a steady state—a point in phase space. The second repeats itself periodically, forming a cyclical orbit. The third repeats itself in a more complex waltz rhythm, a cycle with "period three." The fourth is chaotic.