

# PHY604 Lecture 8

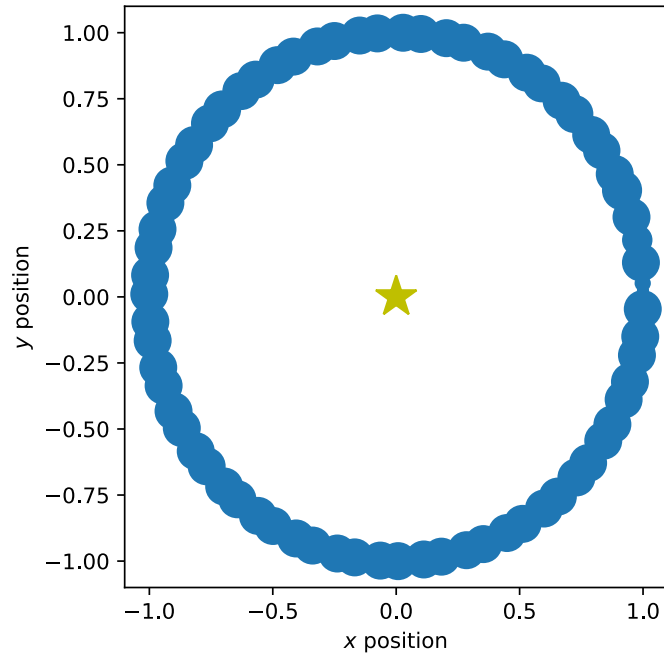
September 16, 2021

# Review: Elliptical orbit with adaptive 4<sup>th</sup>-order RK

Circular:

$x_0 = 1$  AU

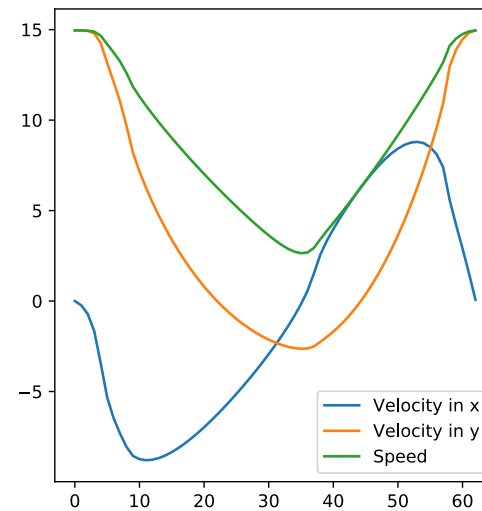
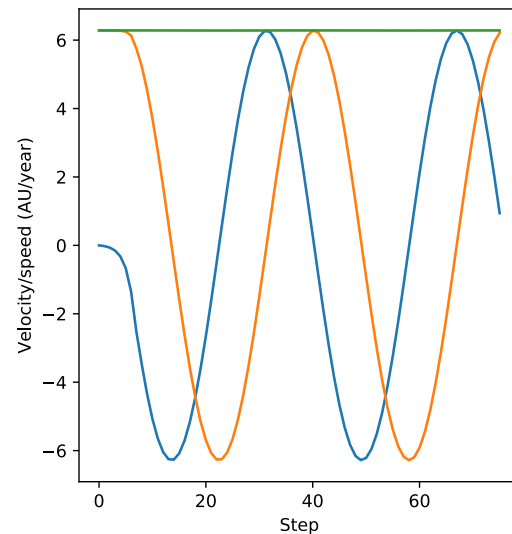
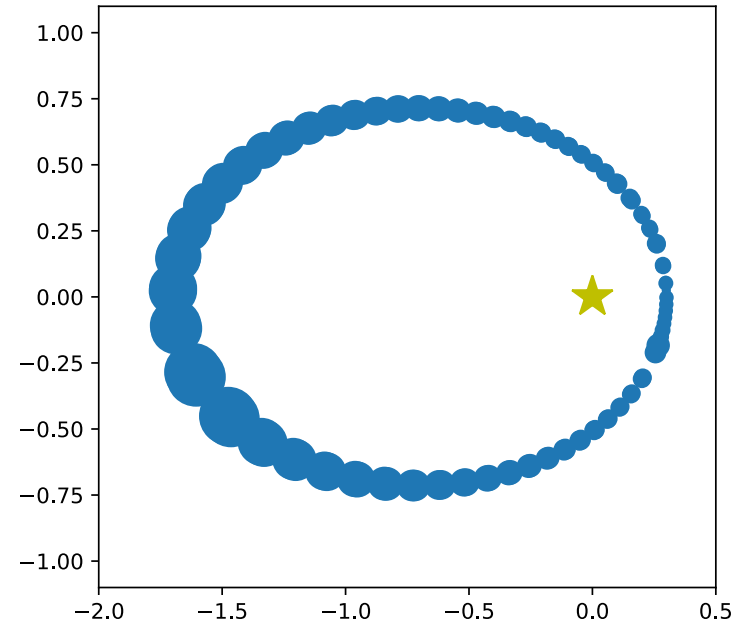
$v_{y0} = 6.283185$  AU/year



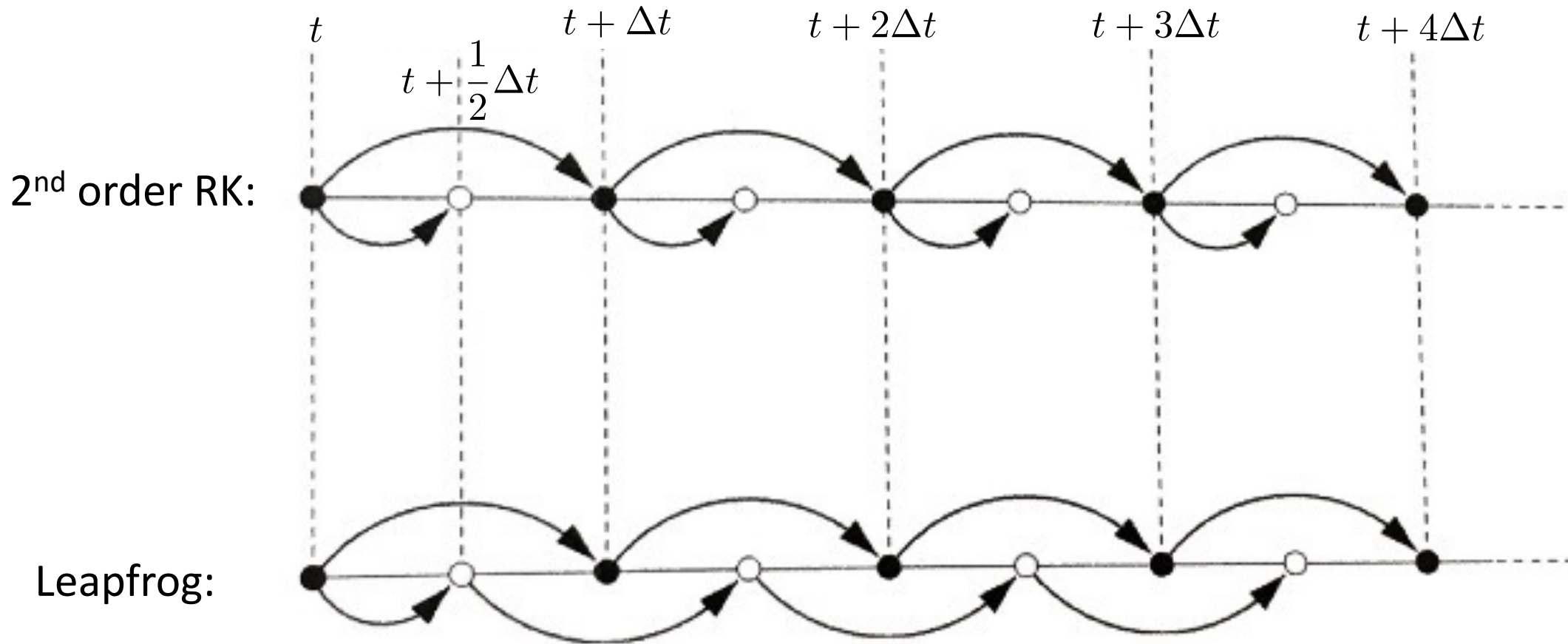
Elliptical:

$x_0 = 0.3$  AU

$v_{y0} = 14.955378$  AU/year



# Review: Leapfrog method versus 2<sup>nd</sup> order RK



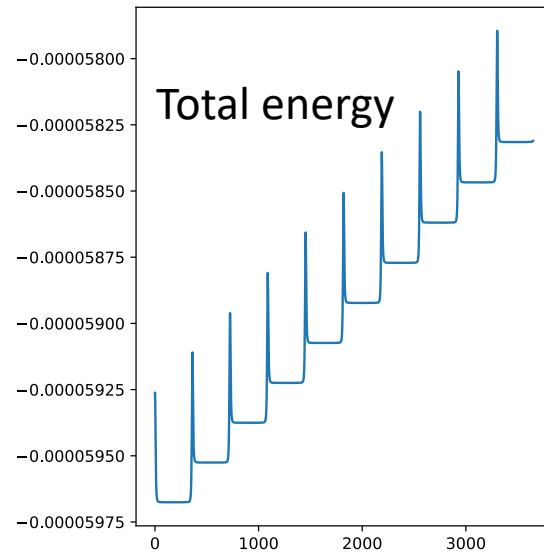
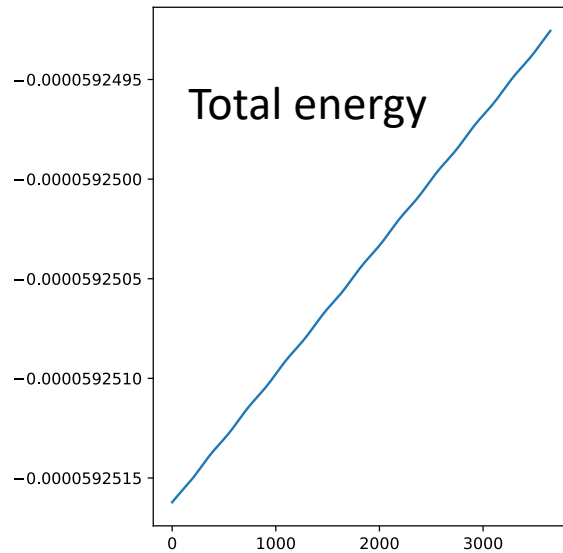
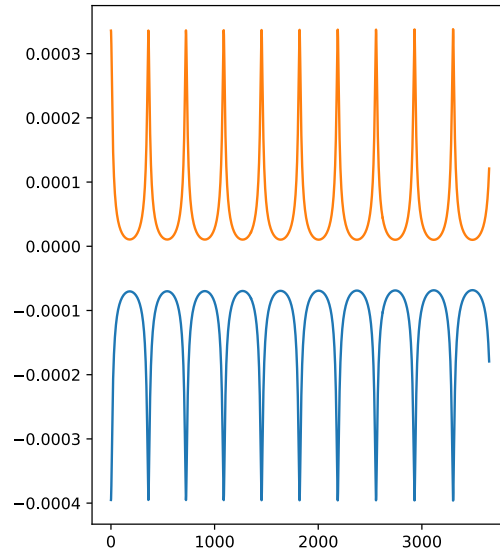
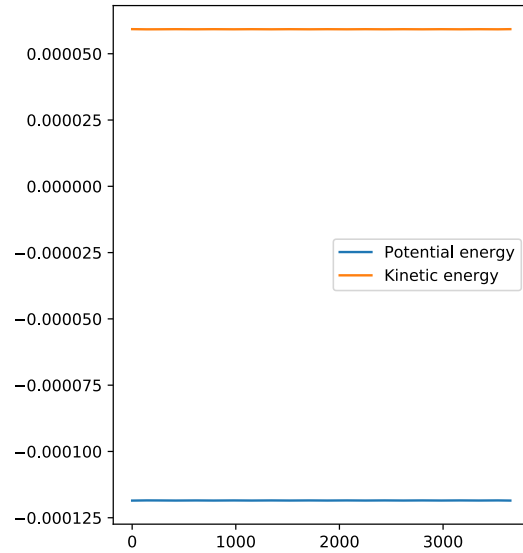
(Newman)

# Review: Time-reversal symmetry and energy conservation!

2<sup>nd</sup> order RK

Circular

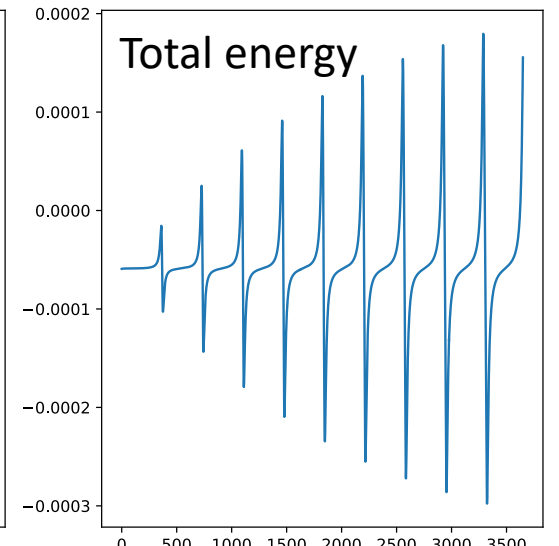
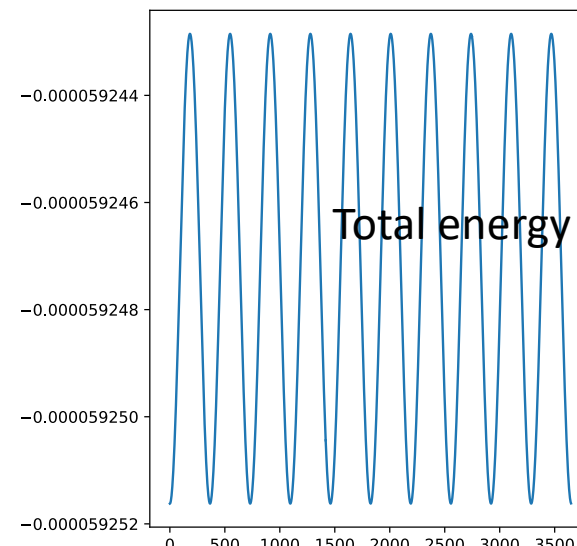
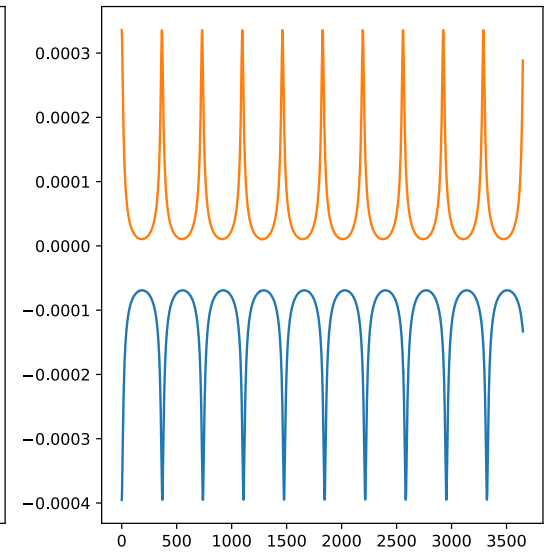
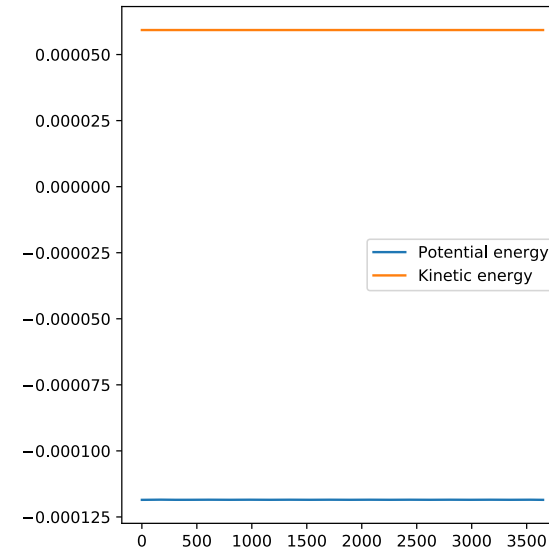
Elliptical



Leapfrog

Circular

Elliptical



# Today's lecture: ODEs and Linear Algebra

- Beyond RK: Other methods for ODEs
  - Bulirsch-Stoer Method
- Boundary Value problems
- Eigenvalue problems
- Begin discussing linear algebra

# Bulirsch-Stoer Method

- Why do we care about the modified midpoint method and even-powered errors? They are the basis of the **Bulirsch-Stoer Method**
- This method combines the modified midpoint method with Richardson extrapolation (e.g., the Romberg method for integrals)

# Simple example of Bulirsch-Stoer: First order ODE with one variable

- Equation:  $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, t)$
- We would like to solve from  $t$  to  $t_f$ , with  $x(t)$  given
- Start by using the modified midpoint method with a single step  $\Delta t_1 = t_f$ 
  - More specifically, two half steps
  - Call this estimate  $R_{1,1}$
- Now perform the calculation for  $\Delta t_2 = 1/2 t_f$  to get  $R_{2,1}$

# Performing Richardson extrapolation

- We can write the “exact” expressions since we know the form of the errors (using  $\Delta t_1 = 2\Delta t_2$ )

$$x(t + t_f) = R_{2,1} + c_1 \Delta t_2^2 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t_2^4)$$

$$x(t + t_f) = R_{1,1} + c_1 \Delta t_1^2 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t_1^4) = R_{1,1} + 4c_1 \Delta t_2^2 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t_2^4)$$

- So: 
$$c_1 \Delta t_2^2 = \frac{1}{3}(R_{2,1} - R_{1,1})$$

- And:

$$x(t + t_f) = \underbrace{R_{2,1} + \frac{1}{3}(R_{2,1} - R_{1,1})}_{R_{2,2}} + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t_2^4)$$

New estimate accurate to fourth order!  
↓



# Performing Richardson extrapolation, cont.

- Let's do another step: Calculate  $R_{3,1}$  with  $\Delta t_3 = 1/3 t_f$
- Following the same steps as before:

$$R_{3,2} = R_{3,1} + \frac{4}{5}(R_{3,1} - R_{2,1})$$

- Then we can write the “exact” result:

$$x(t + t_f) = R_{3,2} + c_2 \Delta t_3^4 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t_3^6)$$

- From what we had previously:

$$x(t + t_f) = R_{2,2} + c_2 \Delta t_2^4 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t_2^6) = R_{2,2} + \frac{81}{16} c_2 \Delta t_3^4 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t_3^6)$$

- Equating these gives:  $c_2 \Delta t_3^4 = \frac{16}{65}(R_{3,2} - R_{2,2})$

# Performing Richardson extrapolation, cont.

• So, we have:  $x(t + t_f) = \underbrace{R_{3,2} + \frac{16}{65}(R_{3,2} - R_{2,2})}_{R_{3,3}} + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t_3^6)$

↑  
New estimate  
accurate to sixth  
order!

• Where:  $R_{3,3} = R_{3,2} + \frac{16}{65}(R_{3,2} - R_{2,2})$

- Three modified midpoint steps, and already have a sixth-order error
  - Gain two orders of accuracy with each step

# General Richardson extrapolation

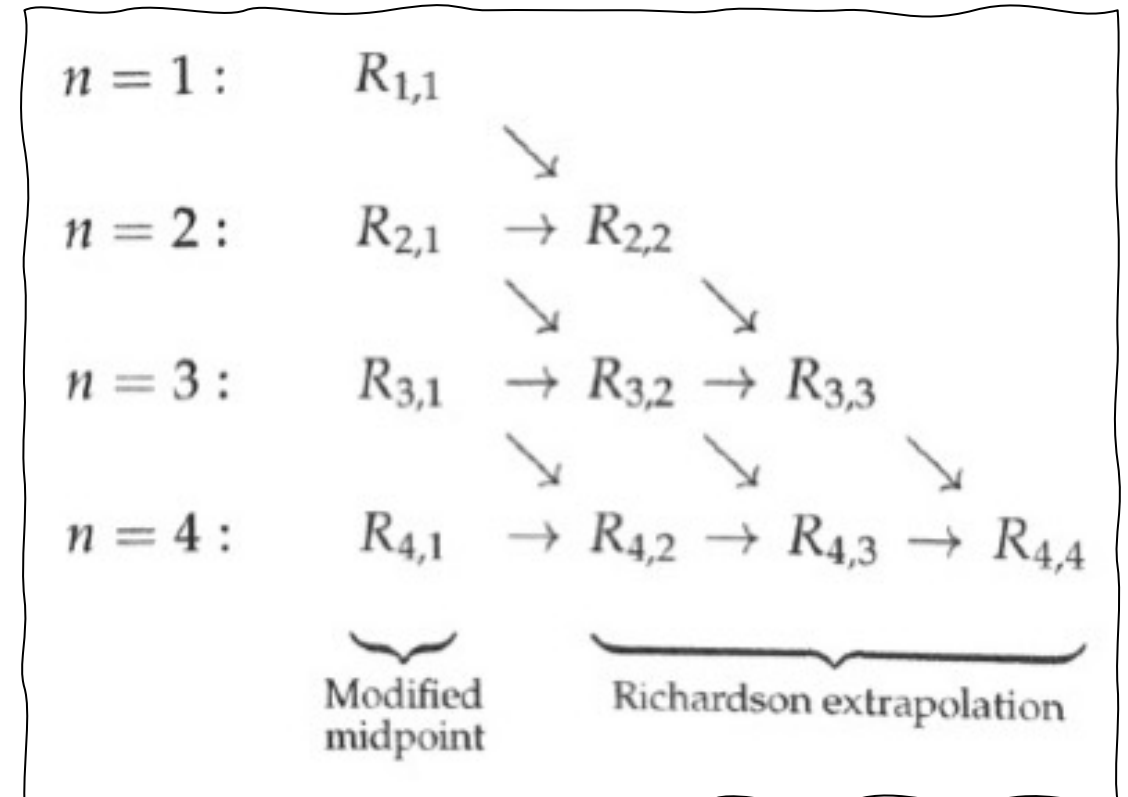
- $n$  is the number of modified midpoint steps, which gives us  $R_{n,1}$ 
  - Can obtain  $R_{n,m}$  for  $m < n$

$$R_{n,m+1} = R_{n,m} + \frac{R_{n,m} - R_{n-1,m}}{[n/(n-1)]^{2m} - 1}$$

- See Newman Sec. 8.5

- Which gives an estimate of the result:

$$x(t + t_f) = R_{n,m+1} + \mathcal{O}(\Delta_n^{2m+2})$$



(Newman)

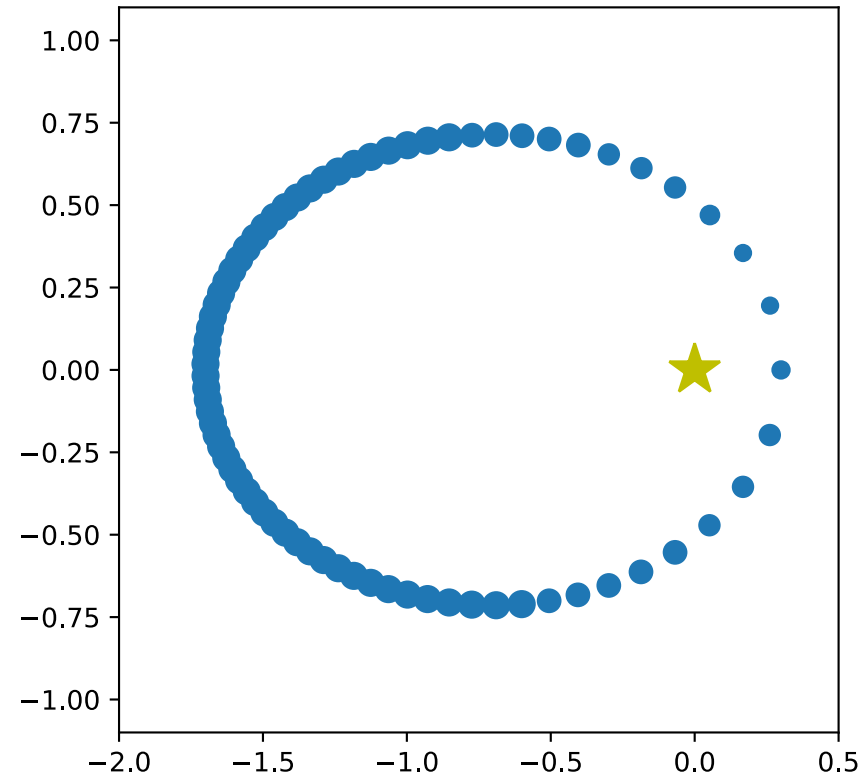
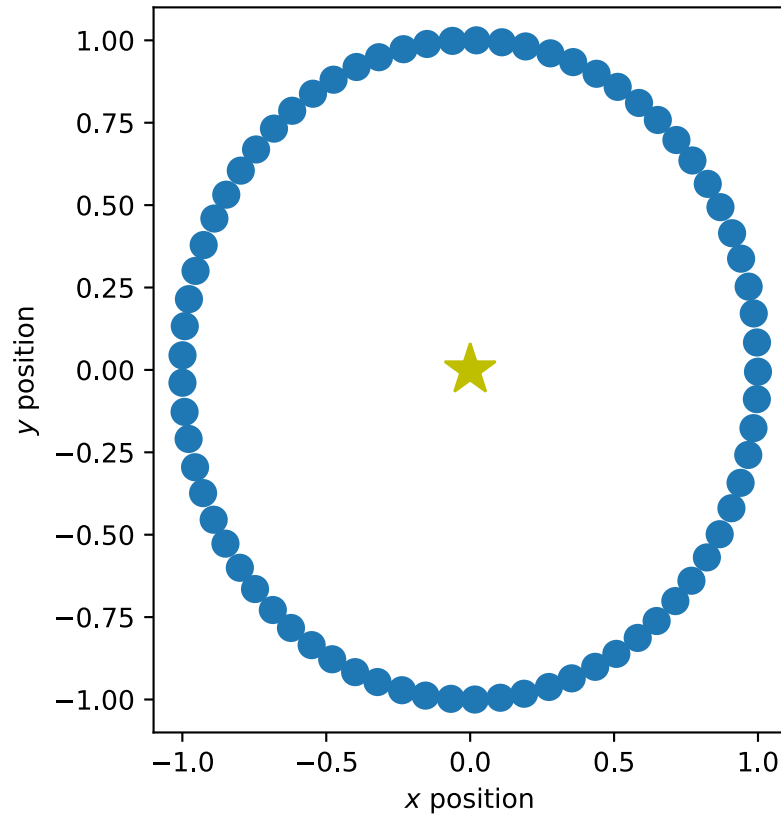
# Comments about Bulirsch-Stoer

- Adaptive method: Provides error and estimate
  - Continue until error is below a given accuracy
- Similar approach to Romberg integration with some key differences
  - Increase number of intervals by one in BS instead of doubling in Romberg
  - Not possible to “reuse” previous points like in Romberg
- Only provides accurate estimate for final result  $x(t+t_f)$ 
  - At intermediate points, we just get raw midpoint method estimates (accurate to  $\Delta t^2$ )
  - Not well suited if we need many (100's or 1000's) steps, so only for rather small regions, where we can get accuracy with  $< 8$  steps
- Can divide larger intervals into smaller ones and apply the BS method
- Can give better accuracy with less work than RK, especially for relatively smooth functions
  - RK should be used for ODEs with pathological behavior, large fluctuations, divergences, etc.

# Bulirsch-Stoer Method: Summary

- Say we would like to solve an ODE from  $t$  to  $t_f$  up to accuracy  $\delta$  per step
- First, divide the total range into  $N$  equal intervals of length  $t_H$ . Then do the following steps for each interval:
  - 1. **Perform a modified midpoint step** with one interval from  $t$  to  $t_H$  to get  $R_{1,1}$
  - 2. **Increase the number of intervals** by one to  $n$  and calculate  $R_{n,1}$  with the modified midpoint method
  - 3. Calculate the “row” via **Richardson extrapolation**, i.e.,  $R_{n,2} \dots R_{n,n}$
  - 4. **Compare the error** to the target accuracy  $\delta t_H$ . If it is larger than the target accuracy, return to step 2. If it is less than the target accuracy, go to the next interval.

# Example: Orbits with the Bulirsch-Stoer method



# Today's lecture: ODEs and Linear Algebra

- Beyond RK: Other methods for ODEs
  - Bulirsch-Stoer Method
- Boundary Value problems
- Eigenvalue problems
- Begin discussing linear algebra

# Boundary value problems

- The orbital example we have been studying is an **initial value problem**: Solving ODEs given some initial value
- **Boundary value problems**: Conditions needed to specify the solution given at some different (or additional) points to the initial point
  - E.g.: Find a solution for the EOM such that the trajectory passes through a specific point in the future
- Boundary value problems are more difficult to solve
  - Two methods: Shooting method and relaxation method (we will discuss the latter in terms of PDEs later)

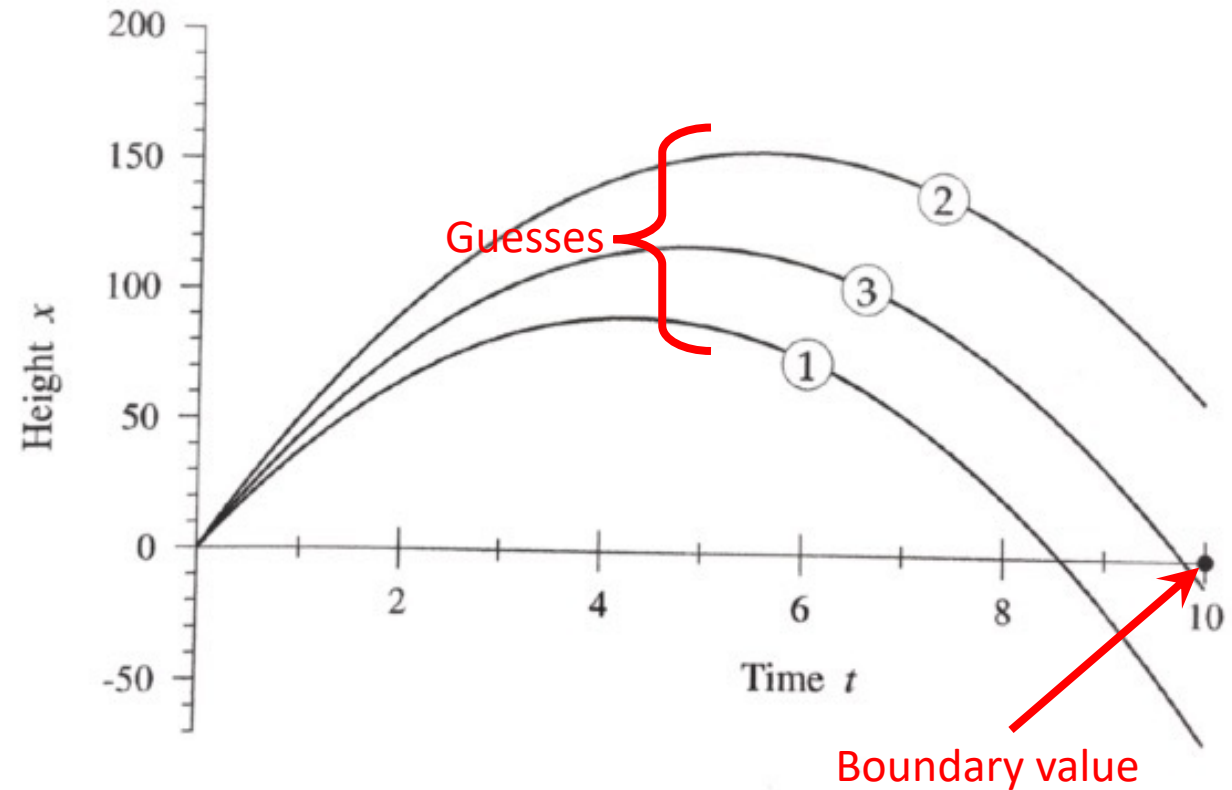


# Shooting method example: Ball thrown in the air

- “Trial-and-error” method: Searches for correct values of initial conditions that match a given set of boundary conditions
- Example (from Newman Sec. 8.6): Height of a ball thrown in the air

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -G$$

- Guess initial conditions (initial vertical velocity) for which the ball will return to the ground at a given time  $t$



# How do we modify initial conditions between guesses?

- Write the height of the ball at the boundary  $t_1$  as  $x = f(v)$  where  $v$  is the initial velocity
- If we want the ball to be at  $x = 0$  at  $t_1$ , we need to solve  $f(v) = 0$
- So, we have reformulated the problem as finding a root of a function
  - We can use, e.g., the bisection method, Newton-Raphson method, secant method
- The function is “evaluated” by solving the differential equation
  - We can use any method discussed previously, e.g., Runge-Kutta, Bulirsch-Stoer, etc.

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# Eigenvalue problems

- Special type of boundary value problem: Linear and homogeneous
  - Every term is linear in the dependent variable
- E.g.: Schrodinger equation:

$$-\frac{\hbar}{2m} \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + V(x)\psi(x) = E\psi(x)$$

- Consider the Schrodinger equation in a 1D square well with infinite walls:

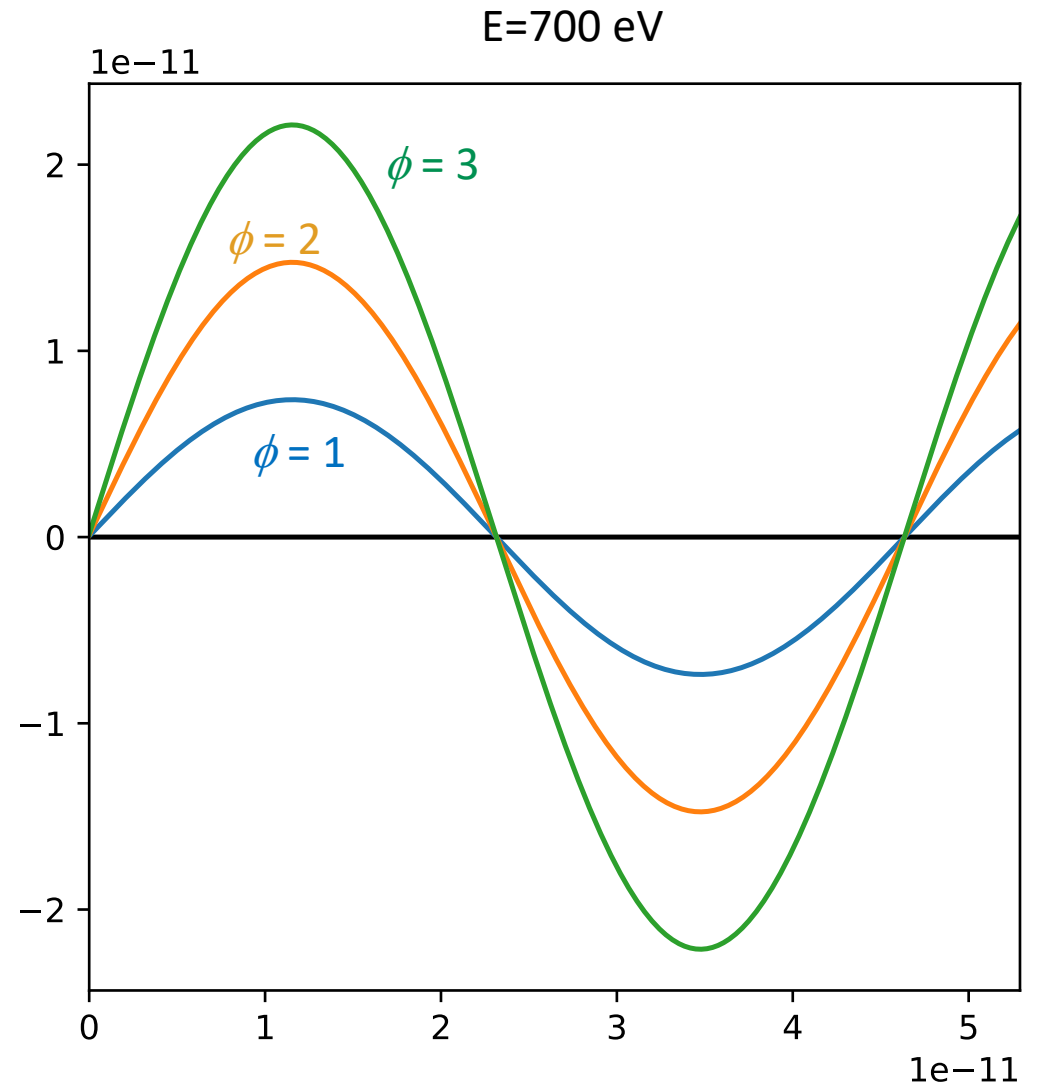
$$V(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } 0 < x < L \\ \infty, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

# Schrodinger equation in 1D well

- As usual, make into system of 1D ODEs:

$$\frac{d\psi}{dx} = \phi, \quad \frac{d\phi}{dx} = \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} [V(x) - E]\psi$$

- Know that  $\psi = 0$  at  $x = 0$  and  $x = L$ , but don't know  $\phi$
- Let's choose a value of  $E$  and solve using some choices for  $\phi$ :
- Since the equation is linear, scaling the initial conditions exactly scales the  $\psi(x)$
- **No matter what  $\phi$ , we will never get a valid solution!** (only affects overall magnitude, not shape)



# Only specific $E$ has a valid solution

- Solutions only exist for eigenvalues
- Need to vary  $E$ ,  $\phi$  can be fixed via normalization
- Same strategy, Find the  $E$  such that  $\psi(L) = 0$

# Today's lecture: ODEs and Linear Algebra

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- **Begin discussing linear algebra**

# Numerical linear algebra (Garcia Ch. 4)

- Basic problem to solve:  $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$
- We have already seen many cases where we need to solve linear systems of equations
  - E.g., ODE integration, cubic spline interpolation
- More that we will come across:
  - Solving the diffusion PDE
  - Multivariable root-finding
  - Curve fitting
- We will explore some key methods to understand what they do
  - Mostly, efficient and robust libraries exist, so no need to reprogram
- Often it is illustrative to compare between how we would solve linear algebra by hand and (efficiently) on the computer



# Review of matrices: Multiplication

- Matrix-vector multiplication:

- $\mathbf{A}$  is  $m \times n$  matrix
- $\mathbf{x}$  is  $n \times 1$  (column) vector
- Result:  $\mathbf{b}$  is  $m \times 1$  (column vector)
- Simple scaling:  $O(N^2)$  operations

$$b_i = (Ax)_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij}x_j$$

- Matrix-matrix multiplication

- $\mathbf{A}$  is  $m \times n$  matrix
- $\mathbf{B}$  is  $n \times p$  matrix
- Result:  $\mathbf{AB}$  is  $m \times p$  matrix
- Direct multiplication:  $O(N^3)$  operations
  - Some faster algorithms exist (make use of organization of sub-matrices for simplification)

$$(AB)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{ik}B_{kj}$$

# Review of matrices: Determinant

- Encodes some information about a square matrix
  - Used in some linear systems algorithms
  - Solution to linear systems only exists if determinant is nonzero
- Simple algorithm for obtaining determinant is **Laplace expansion**
- For simple matrices, can be done by hand:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{vmatrix} = a \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} - b \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{vmatrix}$$

- What about big matrices?

# Review of matrices: Determinant

- Encodes some information about a square matrix
  - Used in some linear systems algorithms
  - Solution to linear systems only exists if determinant is nonzero
- **By hand:** Simple algorithm for obtaining determinant is Laplace expansion
- For simple matrices, can be done by hand:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{vmatrix} = a \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} - b \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{vmatrix}$$

- What about big matrices? **Will need a more efficient implementation!**

# Review of matrices: Inverse

- $\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1}=\mathbf{I}$
- Formally, the solution to a linear system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{b}$  is  $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ 
  - Usually less expensive to get the solution without computing the inverse first
- Non-invertible (i.e., singular) if determinant is 0

# By hand: Cramer's rule

- One simple way to solve  $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is:

$$x_i = \frac{|\mathbf{A}_i|}{|\mathbf{A}|}$$

- Where  $\mathbf{A}_i$  is  $\mathbf{A}$  with the  $i$ th column replaced by  $\mathbf{b}$
- Comparable speed to calculating the inverse

# By hand: Gaussian elimination

- Main general technique for solving  $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ 
  - Does not involve matrix inversion
  - For “special” matrices, faster techniques may apply
- Involves **forward-elimination** and **back-substitution**
- Consider a simple example (from Garcia Ch. 4):

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 + x_2 + x_3 &= 6 \\-x_1 + 2x_2 &= 3 \\2x_1 + x_3 &= 5\end{aligned}$$

# By hand: Forward elimination

- 1. **Eliminate  $x_1$  from second and third equation.** Add first equation to the second and subtract twice the first equation from the third:

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 6$$

$$3x_2 + x_3 = 9$$

$$-2x_2 - x_3 = -7$$

- 2. **Eliminate  $x_2$  from third equation.** Multiply the second equation by  $(-2/3)$  and subtract it from the third

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 6$$

$$3x_2 + x_3 = 9$$

$$-\frac{1}{3}x_3 = -1$$

# By hand: Back substitution

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 6$$

$$3x_2 + x_3 = 9$$

$$-\frac{1}{3}x_3 = -1$$

- 3. Solve for  $x_3 = 3$ .
- 4. Substitute  $x_3$  into the second equation to get  $x_2 = 2$
- 5. Substitute  $x_3$  and  $x_2$  into the first equation to get  $x_1 = 1$
- In general, for  $N$  variables and  $N$  equations:
  - Use forward elimination make the last equation provide the solution for  $x_N$
  - Back substitute from the  $N$ th equation to the first
  - Scales like  $N^3$  (can do better for “sparse” equations)



# Pitfalls of Gaussian substitution: Roundoff errors

- Consider a different example (also from Garcia):

$$\epsilon x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 5$$

$$x_1 + x_2 = 3$$

$$x_1 + \quad + x_3 = 4$$

- First, let's take  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$  and solve:

Subtract second from third:

$$x_2 + x_3 = 5$$

$$x_1 + x_2 = 3$$

$$-x_2 + x_3 = 1$$

Add first to third:

$$x_2 + x_3 = 5$$

$$x_1 + x_2 = 3$$

$$2x_3 = 6$$

Back substitute:

$$x_2 = 2$$

$$x_1 = 1$$

$$x_3 = 3$$

# Roundoff error example: Now solve with $\varepsilon$

- Forward elimination starts by multiplying first equation by  $1/\varepsilon$  and subtracting it from second and third:

$$\varepsilon x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 5$$

$$(1 - 1/\varepsilon)x_2 - (1/\varepsilon)x_3 = 3 - 5/\varepsilon$$

$$- (1/\varepsilon)x_2 + (1 - 1/\varepsilon)x_3 = 4 - 5/\varepsilon$$

- Clearly have an issue if  $\varepsilon$  is near zero, e.g., if  $C - 1/\varepsilon \rightarrow -1/\varepsilon$  for C order unity:

$$\varepsilon x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 5$$

$$- (1/\varepsilon)x_2 - (1/\varepsilon)x_3 = -5/\varepsilon$$

$$- (1/\varepsilon)x_2 - (1/\varepsilon)x_3 = -5/\varepsilon$$

Cannot solve,  
now have two  
equations, three  
unknowns

# Simple fix: Pivoting

- Interchange the order of the equations before performing the forward elimination

$$x_1 + x_2 = 3$$

$$\epsilon x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 5$$

$$x_1 + \quad + x_3 = 4$$

- Now the first step of forward elimination gives us:

$$x_1 + x_2 = 3$$

$$(1 - \epsilon)x_1 + x_3 = 5 - 3\epsilon$$

$$-x_2 + x_3 = 1$$

- Now we round off:

$$x_1 + x_2 = 3$$

$$x_1 + x_3 = 5$$

$$-x_2 + x_3 = 1$$

Same as when we initially took  $\epsilon$  to 0.

# Gaussian elimination with pivoting

- Partial-pivoting:
  - Interchange of rows to move the one with the largest element in the current column to the top
  - (Full pivoting would allow for row and column swaps—more complicated)
- Scaled pivoting
  - Consider largest element relative to all entries in its row
  - Further reduces roundoff when elements vary in magnitude greatly
- Row echelon form: This is the form that the matrix is in after forward elimination

# Matrix determinants with Gaussian elimination

- Once we have done forward substitution and obtained a row echelon matrix it is trivial to calculate the determinant:

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = (-1)^{N_{\text{pivot}}} \prod_{i=1}^N A_{ii}^{\text{row-echelon}}$$

- Every time we pivoted in the forward substitution, we change the sign

# Matrix inverse with Gaussian elimination

- We can also use Gaussian elimination to find the inverse of a matrix
- We would like to find  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$
- We can use Gaussian elimination to solve:  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{e}_i$ 
  - $\mathbf{e}_i$  is a column of the identity:

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{e}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}, \dots, \quad \mathbf{e}_N = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\mathbf{x}_i$  is a column of the inverse:

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = [\mathbf{x}_1 \quad \mathbf{x}_2 \quad \mathbf{x}_3 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{x}_N]$$

# Singular matrix

- If a matrix has a vanishing determinant, then the system is not solvable
- Common way for this to enter, one equation in the system is a linear combination of some others
- Not always easy to detect from the start

# Singular and close to singular matrices

- Condition number: Measures how close to singular we are
  - How much  $\mathbf{x}$  would change with a small change in  $\mathbf{b}$

$$\text{cond}(\mathbf{A}) = \|\mathbf{A}\| \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\|$$

- Requires defining a norm of  $\mathbf{A}$ 
  - [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Matrix\\_norm](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Matrix_norm)
- See, e.g., numpy implementation:
  - <https://numpy.org/doc/stable/reference/generated/numpy.linalg.cond.html>

- Rule of thumb:  $\frac{\|\mathbf{x}^{\text{exact}} - \mathbf{x}^{\text{calc}}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}^{\text{exact}}\|} \simeq \text{cond}(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \epsilon^{\text{machine}}$



# After class tasks

- Homework 1 due Today by 11pm
  - Note the email about problem 4, your program just needs to work for  $a > 1$
  - Office hours today 11:05am to 1:00pm
- Readings:
  - Newman Ch. 8
  - Garcia Ch. 4