LECTURE 21

Runge-Kutta Methods

In the preceding lecture we discussed the Euler method; a fairly simple iterative algorithm for determining the solution of an initial value problem

(21.1)
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = F(t, x) , \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

The key idea was to interpret the F(x,t) as the slope m of the best straight line fit to the graph of a solution at the point (t,x). Knowing the slope of the solution curve at (t_0, x_0) we could get to another (approximate) point on the solution curve by following the best straight-line-fit to a point $(t_1, x_1) =$ $(t_0 + \Delta t, x_0 + m_0 \Delta t)$, where $m_0 = F(t_0, x_0)$. And then we could repeat this process to find a third point $(t_2, x_2) = (t_1 + \Delta t, x_1 + m_1 \Delta t)$, and so on. Iterating this process n times gives us a set of n + 1 values $x_i = x(t_i)$ for an approximate solution on the interval $[t_0, t_0 + n\Delta t]$.

Now recall from our discussion of the numerical procedures for calculating derivatives that the formal definition

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{x(t+h) - x(t)}{h}$$

does actually provide the most accurate numerical procedure for computing derivatives. For

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

but a more accurate formula would be

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{4}{3h} \left(x(t+h/2) - x(t-h/2) \right) - \frac{1}{6h} \left(x(t+h) - x(t) \right) + \mathcal{O} \left(h^4 \right)$$

and even more accurate formulas were possible using Richardson Extrapolations of higher order.

In a similar vein, we shall now seek to improve on the Euler method. Let us begin with the Taylor series for x(t+h):

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hx'(t) + \frac{h^2}{2}x''(t) + \frac{h^3}{6}x'''(t) + \mathcal{O}(h^4)$$

From the differential equation we have

$$\begin{aligned} x'(t) &= F \\ x''(t) &= F_t + F_x F \\ x'''(t) &= F_{tt} + F_{tx} F + (F_{xt} + F_{xx} F) F + (F_t + F_x F) F_x \end{aligned}$$

And so the Taylor series for x(t+h) can be written

(21.2)
$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hF(t,x) + \frac{h^2}{2}(F_t(t,x) + F_x(t,x)F(t,x)) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

(21.3)
$$= x(t) + \frac{1}{2}hF(t,x) + \frac{1}{2}h(F(t,x) + hF_t(t,x) + hF(t,x)F_x(t,h)) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

Now

$$F(t+h, x+hF(t,h)) = F(t,x) + hF_t(t,x) + F_x(t,h) (hF(t,h)) + \mathcal{O}(h^2)$$

and so we can rewrite (??) as

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + \frac{h}{2}F(t,x) + \frac{h}{2}F(t+h,x+hF(t,x)) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

 \mathbf{or}

(21.4)
$$x(t+h) = x(t) + \frac{1}{2}(F_1 + F_2)$$

where

$$(21.5) F_1 = hF(t, x)$$

(21.6) $F_2 = hF(t+h, x+F_1)$

We thus arrive at the following algorithm for computing a solution to the initial value problem (21.1):

1. Partition the solution interval [a, b] into n subintervals:

$$\Delta t = \frac{b-a}{n}$$
$$t_k = a+k\Delta t$$

2. Set x_0 equal to x(a) and then for k from 0 to n-1 calculate

$$F_{1,k} = \Delta t F(t_k, x_k) F_{2,k} = \Delta t F(t_k + \Delta t, x_k + \Delta t F_{1,k}) x_{k+1} = x_k + \frac{1}{2} (F_{1,k} + F_{2,k})$$

This method is known as Heun's method or the second order Runge-Kutta method.

Higher order Runge-Kutta methods are also possible; however, they are very tedius to derive. Here is the formula for the classical fourth-order Runge-Kutta method:

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + \frac{1}{6} \left(F_1 + 2F_2 + 2F_3 + F_4\right)$$

where

$$F_{1} = hF(t, x)$$

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

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

$$F_{4} = hF(t + h, x + F_{3})$$

Below is a Maple program that implements the fourth order Runge-Kutta method to solve

(21.7)
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -\frac{x^2 + t^2}{2xt} \quad , \quad x(1) = 1$$

on the interval [1, 2].

The exact solution to (21.7) is

$$x(t) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{4}{t} - t^3\right)}$$

1. Error Analysis for the Runge-Kutta Method

Recall from the preceding lecture the formula underlying the fourth order Runge-Kutta Method: if x(t) is a solution to

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

then

$$x(t_0 + h) = x(t_0) + \frac{1}{6} \left(F_1 + 2F_2 + 2F_3 + F_4 \right) + \mathcal{O}(h^5)$$

where

$$F_{1} = hf(t_{0}, x_{0})$$

$$F_{2} = hf\left(t_{0} + \frac{1}{2}h, x_{0} + \frac{1}{2}F_{1}\right)$$

$$F_{3} = hf\left(t_{0} + \frac{1}{2}h, x_{0} + \frac{1}{2}F_{2}\right)$$

$$F_{4} = hf(t_{0} + h, x_{0} + F_{3})$$

Thus, the local truncation error (the error induced for each successive stage of the iterated algorithm) will behave like

$$err = Ch^5$$

for some constant C. Here C is a number independent of h, but dependent on t_0 and the fourth derivative of the exact solution $\tilde{x}(t)$ at t_0 (the constant factor in the error term corresponding to truncating the Taylor series for $x(t_0 + h)$ about t_0 at order h^4 . To estimate Ch^5 we shall assume that the constant C does not change much as t varies from t_0 to $t_0 + h$.

Let u be the approximate solution to $\tilde{x}(t)$ at $t_0 + h$ obtained by carrying out a one-step fourth order Runge-Kutta approximation:

$$\tilde{x}(t) = u + Ch^5$$

Let v be the approximate solution to $\tilde{x}(t)$ at $t_0 + h$ obtained by carrying out a two-step fourth order Runge-Kutta approximation (with step sizes of $\frac{1}{2}h$)

$$\tilde{x}(t) = v + 2C \left(\frac{h}{2}\right)^5$$

Substracting these two equations we obtain

$$0 = u - v + C (1 - 2^{-4}) h^5$$

 \mathbf{or}

local truncation error
$$= Ch^5 = \frac{u-v}{1-h^{-4}} \approx u-v$$

In a computer program that uses a Runge-Kutta method, this local truncation error can be easily monitored, by occasionally computing |u - v| as the program runs through its iterative loop. Indeed, if this error rises above a given threshold, one can readjust the step size h on the fly to restore a tolerable degree of accuracy. Programs that uses algorithms of this type are known as **adaptive Runge-Kutta methods**.