

Ordinary Differential Equations

Computational Methods, Oct. 2017, Kenji Doya

A differential equation is an equation that includes a derivative $df(x)/dx$ of a function $f(x)$. If the independent variable x is single, such as time, it is called an *ordinary differential equation (ODE)*.

If there are multiple independent variables, such as space and time, the equation includes *partial derivatives* and called a *partial differential equation (PDE)*.

Here we consider ODEs of the form

$$dy/dt = f(y, t)$$

which describes the temporal dynamics of a variable y over time t . It is also called a continuous-time *dynamical system*.

Finding the variable as an explicit function of time $y(t)$ is called *solving* or *integrating* the ODE. When it is done numerically, it is also called *simulating*.

References:

- Stephen Wiggins: Introduction to Applied Nonlinear Dynamical Systems and Chaos, 2nd ed., Springer (2003).
- Scipy Lecture Notes: Section 5.8 Numerical Integration

Analytic Solutions

Solving a differential equation is an inverse problem of differentiation, for which analytic solution may not be available.

The simplest case where analytic solutions are available is *linear* differential equations

$$dy/dt = Ay$$

where y is a real variable or a real vector, and A is a constant coefficient or matrix.

Linear ODEs

In general, a differential equation can have multiple solutions. For example, for a scalar linear ODE

$$dy/dt = ay,$$

the solution is given by

$$y(t) = Ce^{at},$$

where C can be any real value.

- Verify that $y(t)$ satisfies the ODE above.

When the value of y at a certain time is specified, the solution becomes unique.

For example, by specifying $y(0) = 3$, from $e^{a0} = e^0 = 1$, we have $C = 3$ and a particular solution $y(t) = 3e^{at}$.

Another example is a second-order linear ODE

$$d^2y/dt^2 = -a^2y.$$

In this case, the solution is given by

$$y(t) = C_1 \sin at + C_2 \cos at$$

where C_1 and C_2 are determined by specifying y and dy/dt at certain time.

- Also verify above.

Analytically solvable ODEs

Other cases where analytic solutions are well known are:

- Time-varying linear: $dy/dt = g(t)y + h(t)$
- Separable: $dy/dt = g(t)/h(y(t))$
- Other cases that can be reduced to above by change of variables, etc.

You can use `dsolve()` function of `sympy` to find some analytic solutions. See Scipy Tutorial, Chapter 16 if you are interested.

Euler Method

The most basic way of solving an ODE numerically is *Euler Method*.

For an ODE

$$dy/dt = f(y, t)$$

with an initial condition $y(0) = y_0$, the solution is iteratively approximated by

$$y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + f(y, t)\Delta t$$

with a small time step Δt .

```
In [1]: import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
%matplotlib inline
```

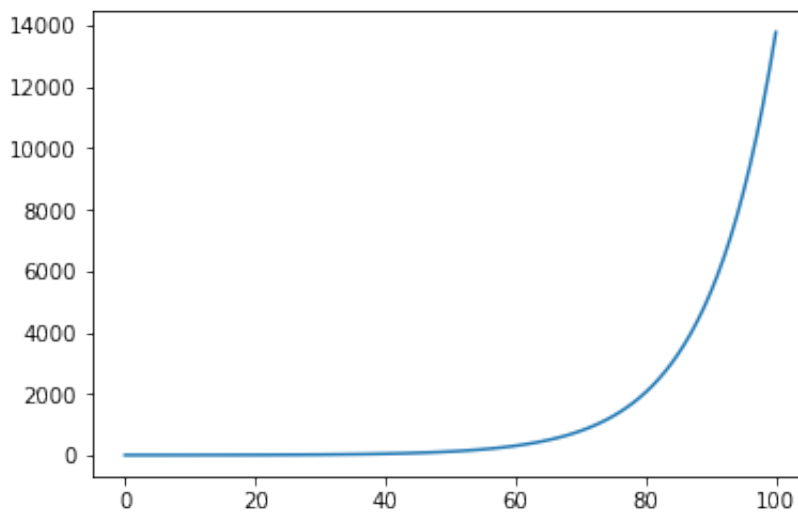
```
In [2]: def euler(f, y0, dt, n, *args):
        """f: righthand side of ODE dy/dt=f(y,t)
           y0: initial condition y(0)=y0
           dt: time step
           n: iteratons
           args: parameter for f(y,t,*args)"""
        d = np.array([y0]).size  ## state dimension
        y = np.zeros((n+1, d))
        y[0] = y0
        t = 0
        for k in range(n):
            y[k+1] = y[k] + f(y[k], t, *args)*dt
            t = t + dt
        return(y)
```

Let us test this with a first-order linear ODE.

```
In [3]: def first(y, t, a):
        """first-order linear ODE dy/dt = a*y"""
        return(a*y)
```

```
In [4]: y = euler(first, 1, 0.1, 100, 1)
        plt.plot(y)
```

Out[4]: [



A second-order ODE

$$d^2y/dt^2 = a_2 dy/dt + a_1 y + a_0$$

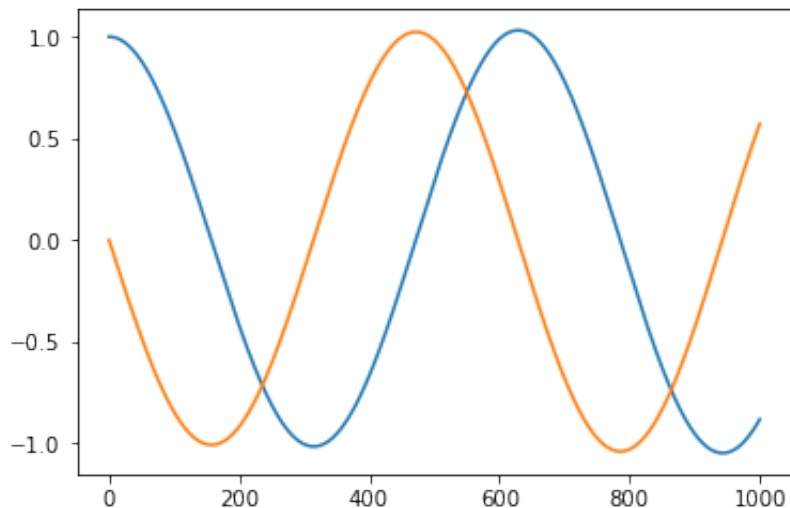
can be converted to a first-order ODE with a 2-dimensional state vector $(y_1, y_2) = (y, dy/dt)$ as

$$\begin{aligned} dy_1/dt &= y_2 \\ dy_2/dt &= a_2 y_2 + a_1 y_1 + a_0 \end{aligned}$$

```
In [5]: def second(y, t, a):
        """second-order linear ODE """
        y1, y2 = y
        return(np.array([y2, a[2]*y2 + a[1]*y1 + a[0]]))
```

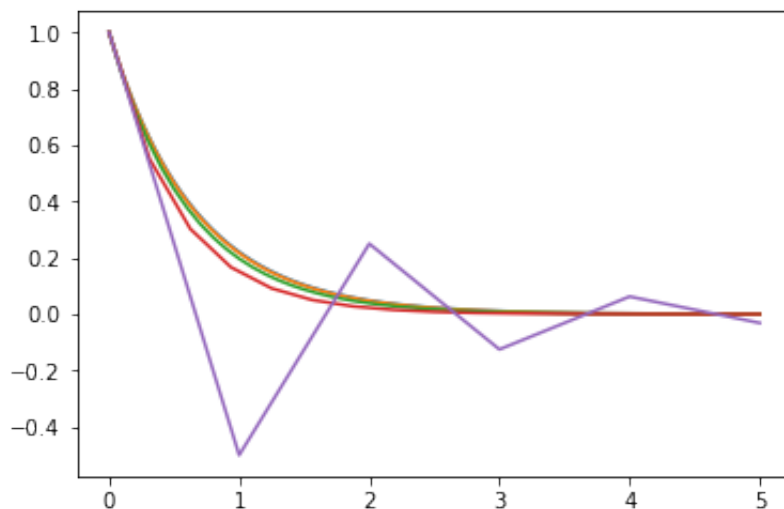
```
In [6]: y = euler(second, [1, 0], 0.01, 1000, [0, -1, 0])
        plt.plot(y)
```

```
Out[6]: [<matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0x10875eb38>,
         <matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0x10875ecf8>]
```



Let us see how the time step affects the accuracy of the solution.

```
In [7]: steps = [0.01, 0.03, 0.1, 0.3, 1]
        tend = 5
        a = -1.5
        for dt in steps:
            y = euler(first, 1, dt, int(tend/dt), a)
            plt.plot(np.linspace(0, tend, len(y)), y)
```



```
In [ ]:
```

Scipy's Integrate package

To avoid numerical instability and to improve accuracy and efficiency, there are advanced methods for ODE solutions.

- Backward Euler method: solve

$$y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + f(y(t + \Delta t))\Delta t$$

- Mixture of forward and backward (Crank-Nicolson):

$$y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + 1/2f(y(t)) + f(y(t + \Delta t))\Delta t$$

- Runge-Kutta method: minimize higher-order errors by Taylor expansion

$$y(t + \Delta t) = y(t) + f(y(t))\Delta t + 1/2df(y(t))/dt\Delta t^2 + \dots$$

- Adaptive time step: adjust Δt depending on the scale of $df(y(t))/dt$.

The implementation and choice of these methods require a good expertise, but fortunately `scipy` includes `integrate` package which has been well tested and optimized. `odeint()` implements automatic method switching and time step adaptation. `ode()` is a class interface for multiple methods.

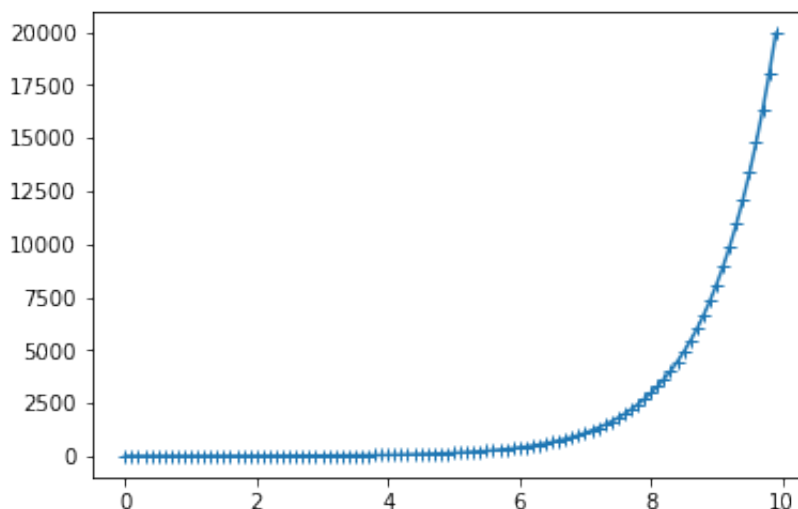
```
In [8]: from scipy.integrate import odeint
```

```
In [9]: odeint?
```

`odeint()` internally uses adaptive time steps, and returns values of `y` for time points specified in `t` by interpolation.

```
In [10]: t = np.arange(0, 10, 0.1) # time points
y = odeint(first, 1, t, args=(1,))
plt.plot(t, y, '+-')
```

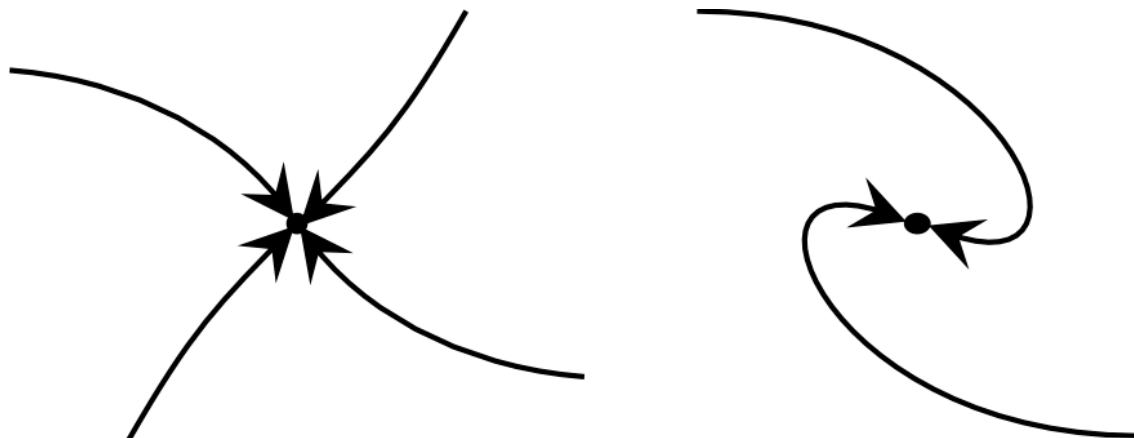
```
Out[10]: [<matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0x150fe71d68>]
```



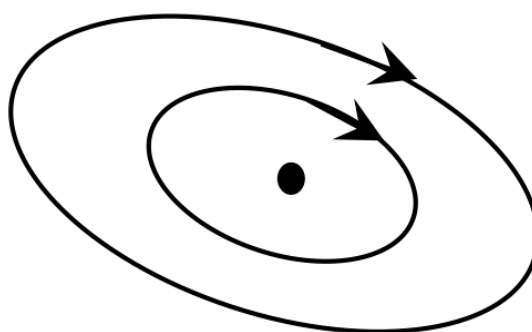
A point y where $dy/dt = f(y) = 0$ is called a *fixed point*.

A fixed point is characterized by its *stability*:

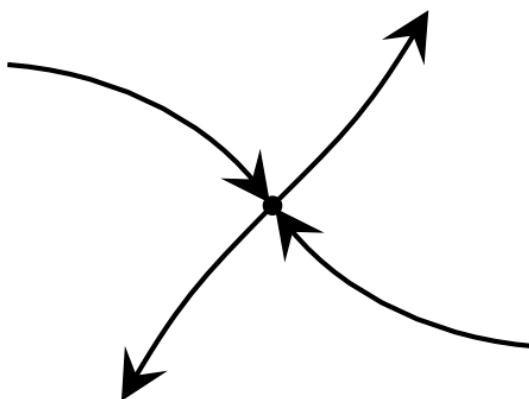
- Stable
 - Attractor



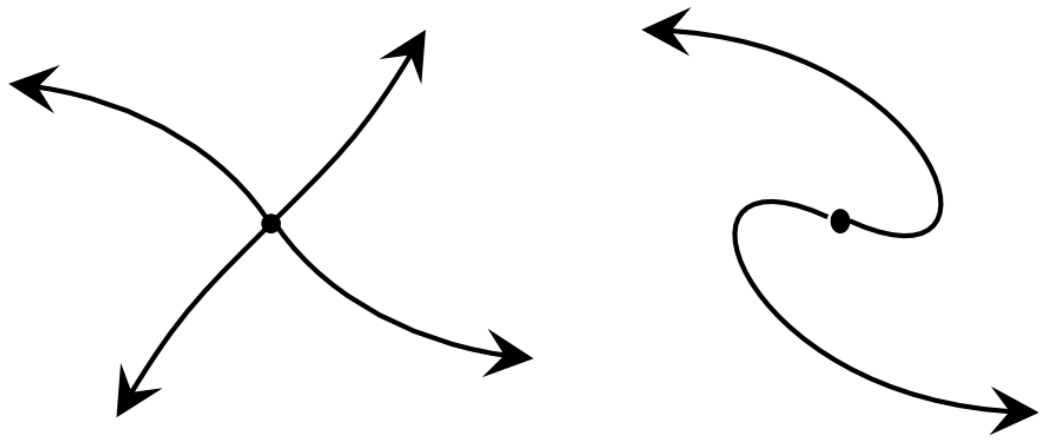
- Neutrally stable



- Unstable
 - Saddle



- Repellor



For a linear dynamical system

$$dy/dt = Ay$$

where y is an n dimensional vector and A is an $n \times n$ matrix, the origin $y = 0$ is a fixed point. Its stability is determined by the eigenvalues of A .

In []:

Linear differential equation system

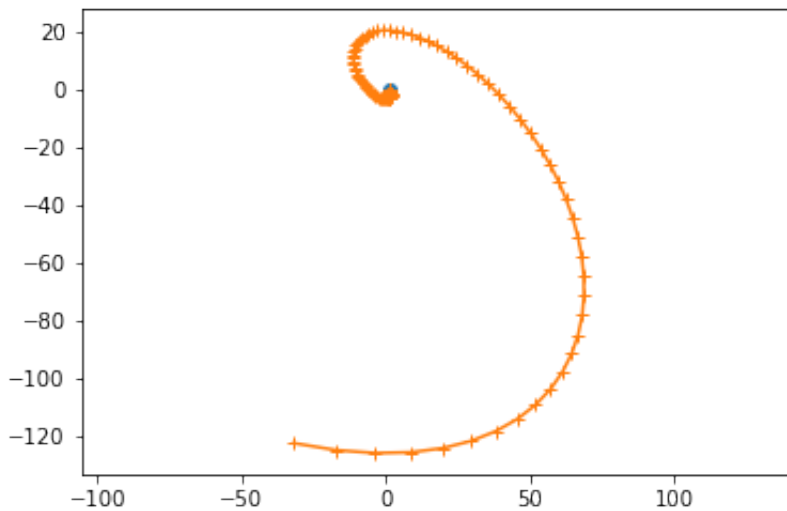
```
In [13]: def linear(y, t, A):  
    """Linear dynamical system dy/dt = Ay  
    y: n-dimensional state vector  
    t: time (not used, for compatibility with odeint())  
    A: n*n matrix"""  
    # y is an array (row vector), A is a matrix  
    return(np.dot(A, y))
```

```
In [14]: A = np.array([[1, 1], [-1, 0]])
```



```
In [15]: y0 = np.array([1, -0.001])
t = np.arange(0, 10, 0.1)
y = odeint(linear, y0, t, args=(A,))
plt.plot(y[0,0], y[0,1], 'o') # starting point
plt.plot(y[:,0], y[:,1], '+-') # trajectory
plt.axis('equal')
np.linalg.eig(A)
```

```
Out[15]: (array([ 0.5+0.8660254j,  0.5-0.8660254j]),
array([[ 0.35355339+0.61237244j,  0.35355339-0.61237244j],
       [-0.70710678+0.j          , -0.70710678-0.j          ]]))
```



Try different settings of A.

```
In [16]: A = np.array([[ -1,  1], [ -1,  0]])
```

```
In [17]: A = np.array([[ 1,  1], [ -1,  0]])
```

```
In [18]: A = np.array([[ -1,  0], [  0,  1]])
```

```
In [ ]:
```

Nonlinear ODEs

While the dynamics of a linear ODE can show only convergence, divergence, or neutrally stable oscillations, nonlinear ODEs can show limit-cycle oscillation and chaos.

Van der Pol oscillator

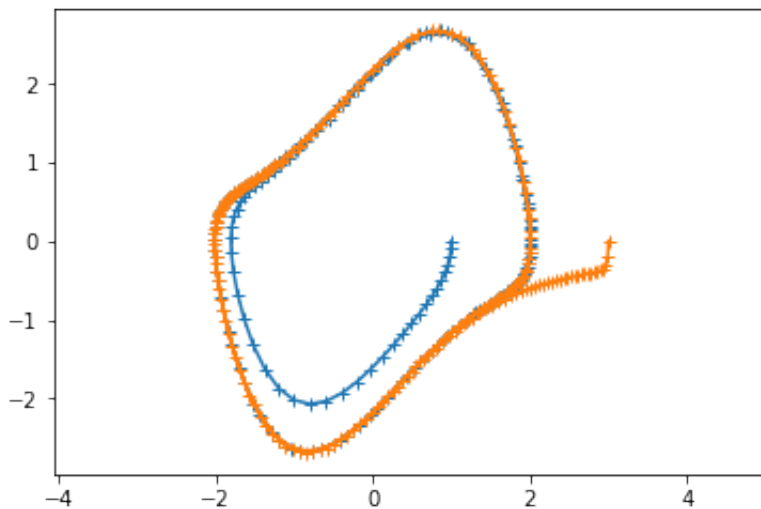
This is a classic equation describing an oscillator circuit with a vacuum tube:

$$dy^2/dt^2 - \mu(1 - y^2)dy/dt + y = 0$$

```
In [19]: def vdp(y, t, mu):  
    """Van der Pol equation"""  
    y1, y2 = y  
    return(np.array([y2, mu*(1 - y1**2)*y2 - y1]))
```

```
In [20]: yinit = np.array([[1, 0], [3, 0]])  
t = np.arange(0, 20, 0.1)  
for y0 in yinit:  
    y = odeint(vdp, y0, t, args=(1,))  
    plt.plot(y[:,0], y[:,1], '+-') # trajectory  
plt.axis('equal')
```

```
Out[20]: (-2.263390116298972,  
3.2506376245856652,  
-2.9617599782357917,  
2.946892226839148)
```



```
In [ ]:
```

Periodic orbit and Limit cycle

If a trajectory comes back to itself $y(t + T) = y(t)$ after some period T , it is called a *periodic orbit*.

If trajectories around it converges to a periodic orbit, it is called a *limit cycle*.

Poincaré-Bendixon theorem: In a continuous 2D dynamical system, if a solution stay within a closed set with no fixed point, it converges to a periodic orbit.

It implies that there is no chaos in a continuous 2D dynamic system.

Lorenz attractor

Edward Lorenz derived a simplified equation describing the convection of atmosphere and found that it shows non-periodic oscillation.

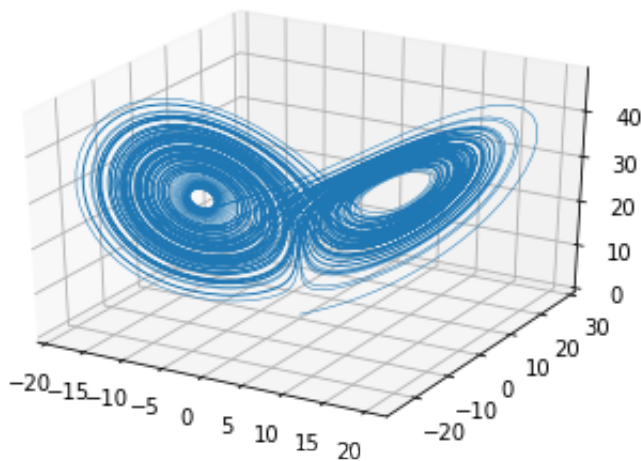
$$\begin{aligned}dx/dt &= p(y - x) \\ dy/dt &= -xz + rx - y \\ dz/dt &= xy - bz\end{aligned}$$

```
In [21]: def lorenz(xyz, t, p=10., r=28., b=8./3):  
        """Lorenz equation"""  
        x, y, z = xyz  
        dxdt = p*(y - x)  
        dydt = -x*z + r*x - y  
        dzdt = x*y - b*z  
        return(np.array([dxdt, dydt, dzdt]))
```

```
In [22]: from mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import Axes3D
```

```
In [23]: y0 = np.array([0.1, 0, 0])  
        t = np.arange(0, 100, 0.01)  
        y = odeint(lorenz, y0, t, args=(10., 28., 8./3))  
        # Plot in 3D  
        fig = plt.figure()  
        ax = fig.add_subplot(111, projection='3d')  
        ax.plot(y[:,0], y[:,1], y[:,2], lw=0.5)
```

```
Out[23]: [<mpl_toolkits.mplot3d.art3d.Line3D at 0x15103338d0>]
```



```
In [ ]:
```

Exercise

1. Linear ODEs

Like the exponential of a real number x is given by

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}x^k,$$

the exponential of a matrix X

$$e^X = I + X + \frac{1}{2}X^2 + \frac{1}{6}X^3 + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}X^k.$$

For one dimensional linear ODE

$$dy/dt = ay$$

the solution is given by

$$y(t) = e^{at}y(0),$$

where $y(0)$ is the initial state.

For an n dimensional linear ODE

$$dy/dt = Ay$$

where A is an $n \times n$ matrix, the solution is given by the matrix exponential

$$y(t) = e^{At}y(0),$$

where $y(0)$ is an n -dimensional initial state.

- Verify this by expanding e^{At} according to the definition and differentiating each term by t .

In []:

Remember the *eigendecomposition*

$$A = V\Lambda V^{-1}$$

where $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ is a diagonal matrix of eigenvalues of A and $V = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ is a matrix made of corresponding eigenvectors of A in the columns.

The matrix exponential of At can be simplified as

$$e^{At} = Ve^{\Lambda t}V^{-1} = V\text{diag}(e^{\lambda_1 t}, \dots, e^{\lambda_n t})V^{-1}.$$

Then the solution is given by

$$y(t) = V\text{diag}(e^{\lambda_1 t}, \dots, e^{\lambda_n t})V^{-1}y(0),$$

where $V^{-1}y(0)$ determines the amplitudes of exponential components and $V = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ represents the directions of the components in the state space.

Let us visualize solutions for different eigenvalues.

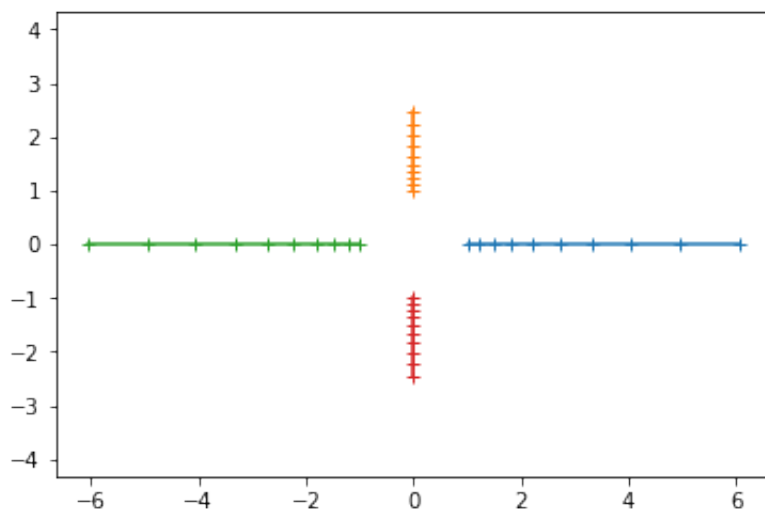
```
In [24]: def linear(y, t, A):
    """Linear dynamical system dy/dt = Ay
    y: n-dimensional state vector
    t: time (not used, for compatibility with odeint())
    A: n*n matrix"""
    # y is an array (row vector), A is a matrix
    return(np.dot(A, y))
```

```
In [25]: def linear2D(A, yinit=np.array([[1,0], [0,1],[-1,0],[0,-1]]), t=np.arange(0, 1, 0.1)):
    """Visualizing linear 2D dynamical system"""
    for y0 in yinit:
        y = odeint(linear, y0, t, args=(A,))
        #plt.plot(y[0,0], y[0,1], 'o') # starting point
        plt.plot(y[:,0], y[:,1], '+-') # trajectory
    plt.axis('equal')
    print(np.linalg.eig(A))
```

1) Real eigenvalues $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > 0$

```
In [26]: A = np.array([[2, 0], [0, 1]]) # modifit this!
linear2D(A, t=np.arange(0, 1, 0.1))
```

```
(array([ 2.,  1.]), array([[ 1.,  0.],
 [ 0.,  1.])))
```



2) Real eigenvalues $\lambda_1 > 0 > \lambda_2$

In []:

3) Real eigenvalues $0 > \lambda_1 > \lambda_2$

In []:

4) Complex eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = a + ib$ and $\lambda_2 = a - ib$ with $a > 0$

In []:

5) Complex eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = a + ib$ and $\lambda_2 = a - ib$ with $a < 0$

In []:

Option) Make a 3D version of the function to visualize the trajectories and see how they depend on the three eigen values.

```
In [27]: from mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import Axes3D
```

```
In [28]: def linear3D(A, yinit=...):
```

```
File "<ipython-input-28-02b364656895>", line 1
    def linear3D(A, yinit=...):
        ^
```

```
SyntaxError: unexpected EOF while parsing
```

In []:

2. Nonlinear ODEs

1) Implement a nonlinear system, such as a pendulum with friction μ :

$$\begin{aligned}d\theta/dt &= \omega \\ ml^2 d\omega/dt &= -\mu\omega - mgl \sin \theta\end{aligned}$$

```
In [ ]: def pendulum(y, t, args):
```

In []:

2) Run a simulation by `odeint()` and show the trajectory as $(t, y(t))$

In []:

3) Show the trajectory in the 2D state space (θ, ω)

In []:

Option) Implement a nonlinear system with time-dependent input, such as a forced pendulum:

$$\begin{aligned}d\theta/dt &= \omega \\ ml^2 d\omega/dt &= -\mu\omega - mgl \sin \theta + a \sin bt\end{aligned}$$

and see how the behavior changes with the input.

In []:

In []:

3. Bifurcation

FitzHugh-Nagumo model is an extension of Van der Pol model to approximate spiking behaviors of neurons.

$$\begin{aligned}dv/dt &= v - \frac{v^3}{3} - w + I \\ dw/dt &= \phi(v + a - bw)\end{aligned}$$

1) Implement a function and see how the behaviors at different input current I .

```
In [ ]: def fhn(y, t, I=0, a=0.7, b=0.8, phi=0.08):  
        """FitzHugh-Nagumo model"""  
        v, w = y
```

```
In [ ]: y0 = np.array([0, 0])  
        t = np.arange(0, 100, 0.1)  
        y = odeint(fhn, y0, t, args=(0.5,))  
        plt.plot(t, y, '-.') # trajectory
```

```
In [ ]: plt.plot(y[:,0], y[:,1], '+-') # phase plot
```

In []:

In []: