Numerical Integration — Rigid Assemblages

Step-by-step Numerical Procedures
Introduction to Complex Systems

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Outline

Piecewise exact method

- We use the exact solution of the equation of motion for a system excited by a linearly varying force, so the source of all errors lies in the piecewise linearisation of the force function and in the approximation due to a local linear model.

Piecewise exact method

- We use the exact solution of the equation of motion for a system excited by a linearly varying force, so the source of all errors lies in the piecewise linearisation of the force function and in the approximation due to a local linear model.
- We will see that an appropriate time step can be decided in terms of the number of points required to accurately describe either the force or the response function.

Piecewise exact method

For a generic time step of duration h, consider

- $\{x_0, \dot{x}_0\}$ the initial state vector,
- p_0 and p_1, the values of $p(t)$ at the start and the end of the integration step,
- the linearised force

$$p(\tau) = p_0 + \alpha\tau,\ 0 \leqslant \tau \leqslant h,\ \alpha = (p(h) - p(0))/h,$$

- the forced response

$$x = e^{-\zeta\omega\tau}(A\cos(\omega_D\tau) + B\sin(\omega_D\tau)) + (\alpha k\tau + kp_0 - \alpha c)/k^2,$$

where k and c are the stiffness and damping of the SDOF system.

Piecewise exact method

Evaluating the response x and the velocity $\dot{x}$ for $\tau = 0$ and equating to $\{x_0, \dot{x}_0\}$, writing $\Delta_{st} = p(0)/k$ and $\delta(\Delta_{st}) = (p(h) - p(0))/k$, one can find A and B

$$A = \left(\dot{x}_0 + \zeta\omega B - \frac{\delta(\Delta_{st})}{h}\right)\frac{1}{\omega_D}$$

$$B = x_0 + \frac{2\zeta}{\omega}\frac{\delta(\Delta_{st})}{h} - \Delta_{st}$$

substituting and evaluating for $\tau = h$ one finds the state vector at the end of the step.

Piecewise exact method

With

$$\mathcal{S}_{\zeta,h} = \sin(\omega_D h)\exp(-\zeta\omega h) \text{ and } \mathcal{C}_{\zeta,h} = \cos(\omega_D h)\exp(-\zeta\omega h)$$

and the previous definitions of Δ_{st} and $\delta(\Delta_{st})$, finally we can write

$$x(h) = A\,\mathcal{S}_{\zeta,h} + B\,\mathcal{C}_{\zeta,h} + (\Delta_{st} + \delta(\Delta_{st})) - \frac{2\zeta}{\omega}\frac{\delta(\Delta_{st})}{h}$$

$$\dot{x}(h) = A(\omega_D\mathcal{C}_{\zeta,h} - \zeta\omega\mathcal{S}_{\zeta,h}) - B(\zeta\omega\mathcal{C}_{\zeta,h} + \omega_D\mathcal{S}_{\zeta,h}) + \frac{\delta(\Delta_{st})}{h}$$

where

$$B = x_0 + \frac{2\zeta}{\omega}\frac{\delta(\Delta_{st})}{h} - \Delta_{st}, \quad A = \left(\dot{x}_0 + \zeta\omega B - \frac{\delta(\Delta_{st})}{h}\right)\frac{1}{\omega_D}.$$

Example

We have a damped system that is excited by a load in resonance with the system, we know the exact response and we want to compute a step-by-step approximation using different step lengths.

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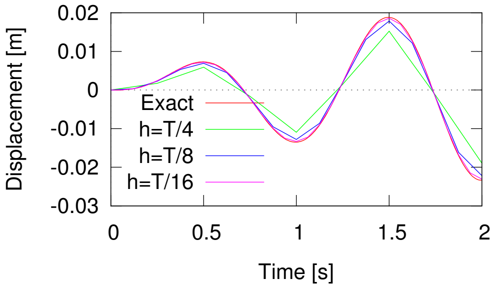
$m=1000$kg,

$k=4\pi^2\,1000$N/m,

$\omega=2\pi$,

$\zeta=0.05$,

$p(t) = 4\pi^2 5\,\text{N}\,\sin(2\pi\,t)$



It is apparent that you have a very good approximation when the linearised loading is a very good approximation of the input function, let's say $h \leqslant T/10$.

Central differences

To derive the Central Differences Method, we write the eq. of motion at time $\tau = 0$ and find the initial acceleration,

$$m\ddot{x}_0 + c\dot{x}_0 + kx_0 = p_0 \Rightarrow \ddot{x}_0 = \frac{1}{m}(p_0 - c\dot{x}_0 - kx_0)$$

On the other hand, the initial acceleration can be expressed in terms of finite differences,

$$\ddot{x}_0 = \frac{x_1 - 2x_0 + x_{-1}}{h^2} = \frac{1}{m}(p_0 - c\dot{x}_0 - kx_0)$$

solving for x_1

$$x_1 = 2x_0 - x_{-1} + \frac{h^2}{m}(p_0 - c\dot{x}_0 - kx_0)$$

Central differences

We have an expression for x_1, the displacement at the end of the step,

$$x_1 = 2x_0 - x_{-1} + \frac{h^2}{m}(p_0 - c\dot{x}_0 - kx_0),$$

but we have an additional unknown, x_{-1}... if we write the finite differences approximation to $\dot{x}_0$ we can find an approximation to x_{-1} in terms of the initial velocity $\dot{x}_0$ and the unknown x_1

$$\dot{x}_0 = \frac{x_1 - x_{-1}}{2h} \Rightarrow x_{-1} = x_1 - 2h\dot{x}_0$$

Substituting in the previous equation

$$x_1 = 2x_0 - x_1 + 2h\dot{x}_0 + \frac{h^2}{m}(p_0 - c\dot{x}_0 - kx_0),$$

and solving for x_1

$$x_1 = x_0 + h\dot{x}_0 + \frac{h^2}{2m}(p_0 - c\dot{x}_0 - kx_0)$$

Central differences

$$x_1 = x_0 + h\dot{x}_0 + \frac{h^2}{2m}(p_0 - c\dot{x}_0 - kx_0)$$

To start a new step, we need the value of $\dot{x}_1$, but we may approximate the mean velocity, again, by finite differences

$$\frac{\dot{x}_0 + \dot{x}_1}{2} = \frac{x_1 - x_0}{h} \Rightarrow \dot{x}_1 = \frac{2(x_1 - x_0)}{h} - \dot{x}_0$$

The method is very simple, but it is *conditionally stable*. The stability condition is defined with respect to the natural frequency, or the natural period, of the SDOF oscillator,

$$\omega_n h \leqslant 2 \Rightarrow h \leqslant \frac{T_n}{\pi} \approx 0.32 T_n$$

For a SDOF this is not relevant because, as we have seen in our previous example, we need more points for response cycle to correctly represent the response.

Methods based on Integration

We will make use of an *hypothesis* on the variation of the acceleration during the time step and of analytical integration of acceleration and velocity to step forward from the initial to the final condition for each time step.

In general, these methods are based on the two equations

$$\dot{x}_1 = \dot{x}_0 + \int_0^h \ddot{x}(\tau)\, d\tau,$$

$$x_1 = x_0 + \int_0^h \dot{x}(\tau)\, d\tau,$$

which express the final velocity and the final displacement in terms of the initial values x_0 and $\dot{x}_0$ and some definite integrals that depend on the *assumed* variation of the acceleration during the time step.

Integration Methods

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- the constant acceleration method,
- the linear acceleration method,
- the family of methods known as *Newmark Beta Methods*, that comprises the previous methods as particular cases.

Constant Acceleration

Here we assume that the acceleration is constant during each time step, equal to the mean value of the initial and final values:

$$\ddot{x}(\tau) = \ddot{x}_0 + \Delta\ddot{x}/2,$$

where $\Delta\ddot{x} = \ddot{x}_1 - \ddot{x}_0$, hence

$$\begin{aligned}
\dot{x}_1 &= \dot{x}_0 + \int_0^h (\ddot{x}_0 + \Delta\ddot{x}/2)\,d\tau \\
&\Rightarrow \Delta\dot{x} = \ddot{x}_0 h + \Delta\ddot{x} h/2 \\
x_1 &= x_0 + \int_0^h (\dot{x}_0 + (\ddot{x}_0 + \Delta\ddot{x}/2)\tau) d\tau \\
&\Rightarrow \Delta x = \dot{x}_0 h + (\ddot{x}_0) h^2/2 + \Delta\ddot{x} h^2/4
\end{aligned}$$

Constant acceleration

Taking into account the two equations on the right of the previous slide, and solving for $\Delta\dot{x}$ and $\Delta\ddot{x}$ in terms of Δx, we have

$$\Delta\dot{x} = \frac{2\Delta x - 2h\dot{x}_0}{h}, \quad \Delta\ddot{x} = \frac{4\Delta x - 4h\dot{x}_0 - 2\ddot{x}_0 h^2}{h^2}.$$

We have two equations and three unknowns... Assuming that the system characteristics are constant during a single step, we can write the equation of motion at times $\tau = h$ and $\tau = 0$, subtract member by member and write the *incremental equation of motion*

$$m\Delta\ddot{x} + c\Delta\dot{x} + k\Delta x = \Delta p,$$

that is a third equation that relates our unknowns.

Constant acceleration

Substituting the above expressions for $\Delta\dot{x}$ and $\Delta\ddot{x}$ in the incremental eq. of motion and solving for Δx gives, finally,

$$\Delta x = \frac{\tilde{p}}{\tilde{k}}, \qquad \Delta\dot{x} = \frac{2\Delta x - 2h\dot{x}_0}{h}$$

where

$$\tilde{k} = k + \frac{2c}{h} + \frac{4m}{h^2}$$

$$\tilde{p} = \Delta p + 2c\dot{x}_0 + m(2\ddot{x}_0 + \frac{4}{h}\dot{x}_0)$$

While it is possible to compute the final acceleration in terms of Δx, to achieve a better accuracy it is usually computed solving the equation of equilibrium written at the end of the time step.

Constant Acceleration

Two further remarks

1. The method is *unconditionally stable*
2. The effective stiffness, disregarding damping, is $\tilde{k} \approx k + 4m/h^2$.

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Dividing both members of the above equation by k it is

$$\frac{\tilde{k}}{k} = 1 + \frac{4}{\omega_n^2\, h^2} = 1 + \frac{4}{(2\pi/T_n)^2\, h^2} = \frac{T_n^2}{\pi^2 h^2},$$

The number n_T of time steps in a period T_n is related to the time step duration, $n_T = T_n/h$, solving for h and substituting in our last equation, we have

$$\frac{\tilde{k}}{k} \approx 1 + \frac{n_T^2}{\pi^2}$$

For, e.g., $n_T = 2\pi$ it is $\tilde{k}/k \approx 1 + 4$, the mass contribution to the effective stiffness is four times the elastic stiffness and the 80% of the total.

Linear Acceleration

We assume that the acceleration is linear, i.e.

$$\ddot{x}(t) = \ddot{x}_0 + \Delta\ddot{x}\frac{\tau}{h}$$

hence

$$\Delta\dot{x} = \ddot{x}_0 h + \Delta\ddot{x} h/2, \quad \Delta x = \dot{x}_0 h + \ddot{x}_0 h^2/2 + \Delta\ddot{x} h^2/6$$

Following a derivation similar to what we have seen in the case of constant acceleration, we can write, again,

$$\Delta x = \left(k + 3\frac{c}{h} + 6\frac{m}{h^2}\right)^{-1} \left[\Delta p + c(\ddot{x}_0\frac{h}{2} + 3\dot{x}_0) + m(3\ddot{x}_0 + 6\frac{\dot{x}_0}{h})\right]$$

$$\Delta\dot{x} = \Delta x\frac{3}{h} - 3\dot{x}_0 - \ddot{x}_0\frac{h}{2}$$

Linear Acceleration

The linear acceleration method is *conditionally stable*, the stability condition being

$$\frac{h}{T} \leqslant \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\pi} \approx 0.55$$

When dealing with SDOF systems, this condition is never of concern, as we need a shorter step to accurately describe the response of the oscillator, let's say $h \leqslant 0.12T$...

When stability is not a concern, the accuracy of the linear acceleration method is far superior to the accuracy of the constant acceleration method, so that this is the method of choice for the analysis of SDOF systems.

Newmark Beta Methods

The constant and linear acceleration methods are just two members of the family of Newmark Beta methods, where we write

$$\Delta\dot{x} = (1-\gamma)h\ddot{x}_0 + \gamma h\ddot{x}_1$$
$$\Delta x = h\dot{x}_0 + (\frac{1}{2}-\beta)h^2\ddot{x}_0 + \beta h^2\ddot{x}_1$$

The factor γ weights the influence of the initial and final accelerations on the velocity increment, while β has a similar role with respect to the displacement increment.

Newmark Beta Methods

Using $\gamma \neq 1/2$ leads to numerical damping, so when analysing SDOF systems, one uses $\gamma = 1/2$ (numerical damping may be desirable when dealing with MDOF systems).
Using $\beta = \frac{1}{4}$ leads to the constant acceleration method, while $\beta = \frac{1}{6}$ leads to the linear acceleration method. In the context of MDOF analysis, it's worth knowing what is the minimum β that leads to an unconditionally stable behaviour.

Newmark Beta Methods

The general format for the solution of the incremental equation of motion using the Newmark Beta Method can be written as follows:

$$\Delta x = \frac{\Delta \tilde{p}}{\tilde{k}}$$

$$\Delta v = \frac{\gamma}{\beta}\frac{\Delta x}{h} - \frac{\gamma}{\beta}v_0 + h\left(1 - \frac{\gamma}{2\beta}\right)a_0$$

with

$$\tilde{k} = k + \frac{\gamma}{\beta}\frac{c}{h} + \frac{1}{\beta}\frac{m}{h^2}$$

$$\Delta\tilde{p} = \Delta p + \left(h\left(\frac{\gamma}{2\beta} - 1\right)c + \frac{1}{2\beta}m\right)a_0 + \left(\frac{\gamma}{\beta}c + \frac{1}{\beta}\frac{m}{h}\right)v_0$$