Study guide: Generalizations of exponential decay models

Hans Petter Langtangen 1,2

Center for Biomedical Computing, Simula Research Laboratory¹

Department of Informatics, University of Oslo²

Extension to a variable coefficient; Forward and Backward Euler

$$u'(t) = -a(t)u(t), \quad t \in (0, T], \quad u(0) = I$$
 (1)

The Forward Euler scheme:

$$\frac{u^{n+1}-u^n}{\Delta t}=-a(t_n)u^n \tag{2}$$

The Backward Euler scheme:

$$\frac{u^n - u^{n-1}}{\Delta t} = -a(t_n)u^n \tag{3}$$

Extension to a variable coefficient; Crank-Nicolson

Evaluting $a(t_{n+\frac{1}{2}})$ and using an average for u:

$$\frac{u^{n+1} - u^n}{\Delta t} = -a(t_{n+\frac{1}{2}})\frac{1}{2}(u^n + u^{n+1}) \tag{4}$$

Using an average for a and u:

$$\frac{u^{n+1}-u^n}{\Delta t}=-\frac{1}{2}(a(t_n)u^n+a(t_{n+1})u^{n+1})$$
 (5)

Extension to a variable coefficient; θ -rule

The θ -rule unifies the three mentioned schemes,

$$\frac{u^{n+1}-u^n}{\Delta t} = -a((1-\theta)t_n + \theta t_{n+1})((1-\theta)u^n + \theta u^{n+1})$$
 (6)

or

$$\frac{u^{n+1} - u^n}{\Delta t} = -(1 - \theta)a(t_n)u^n - \theta a(t_{n+1})u^{n+1}$$
 (7)

Extension to a variable coefficient; operator notation

$$[D_t^+ u = -au]^n,$$

$$[D_t^- u = -au]^n,$$

$$[D_t u = -a\overline{u}^t]^{n+\frac{1}{2}},$$

$$[D_t u = -\overline{a}\overline{u}^t]^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$$

Extension to a source term

$$u'(t) = -a(t)u(t) + b(t), \quad t \in (0, T], \quad u(0) = l$$
 (8)

$$[D_t^+ u = -au + b]^n,$$

$$[D_t^- u = -au + b]^n,$$

$$[D_t u = -a\overline{u}^t + b]^{n+\frac{1}{2}},$$

$$[D_t u = \overline{-au + b}^t]^{n+\frac{1}{2}},$$

Implementation of the generalized model problem $u^{n+1} = ((1-\Delta t(1-\theta)a^n)u^n + \Delta t(\theta b^{n+1} + (1-\theta)b^n))(1+\Delta t\theta a^{n+1})^{-1} \tag{9}$ Implementation where a(t) and b(t) are given as Python functions (see file decay_vc.py): $\begin{aligned} &\text{def solver}(1, \ a, \ b, \ T, \ dt, \ theta): \\ &\text{solve } u^* - a(t)^*u + b(t), \ u(0) = I, \\ &\text{for } t \text{ in } (0, T) \text{ with steps of } dt. \\ &\text{a } \text{ and } b \text{ are } Python \text{ functions of } t. \end{aligned}$ $\begin{aligned} &\text{dt} &= \text{float}(\text{dt}) &\text{f } n \text{ of } t \text{ time } \text{ step } \text{ of } t \text{ in } t \text{ constant } t \text{ to } t \text{ time } \text{ step } \text{ dt} \end{aligned}$ $&\text{u} &= \text{intervals} \\ &\text{T} &= \text{Nt} \text{ val} &\text{f } \text{ adjust } T \text{ to } \text{ fit } \text{ time } \text{ step } \text{ dt} \end{aligned}$ $&\text{u} &= \text{zeros}(\text{Nt} + 1) &\text{f } \text{ time } \text{mesh} \end{aligned}$ $&\text{u} &[0] &= \text{I} &\text{f } \text{ sassign initial condition } \\ &\text{for n in range}(0, \text{Nt}): &\text{f } \text{neo}(1, \dots, \text{Nt} - 1) \\ &\text{u} &\text{In} + 1 &\text{dt} \text{ time } \text{theta} + \text{stant}(\text{In} + 1)) \times (1 + \text{theta}) \times \text{bt}(\text{In}]))) / \land \end{aligned}$

Implementations of variable coefficients; classes

Better implementation: class with the parameters a0, tp, and k as attributes and a *special method* __call__ for evaluating a(t):

```
class A:
    def __init__(self, a0=1, k=2):
        self.a0, self.k = a0, k

    def __call__(self, t):
        return self.a0 if t < self.tp else self.k*self.a0
a = A(a0=2, k=1)  # a behaves as a function a(t)</pre>
```

Implementations of variable coefficients; functions

Plain functions:

```
def a(t):
    return a_0 if t < tp else k*a_0

def b(t):
    return 1</pre>
```

Implementations of variable coefficients; lambda function

```
Quick writing: a one-liner lambda function

a = lambda t: a_0 if t < tp else k*a_0

In general,

f = lambda arg1, arg2, ...: expressin

is equivalent to

def f(arg1, arg2, ...):
    return expression

One can use lambda functions directly in calls:
    u, t = solver(1, lambda t: 1, lambda t: 1, T, dt, theta)

for a problem u' = -u + 1, u(0) = 1.

A lambda function can appear anywhere where a variable can
```

Verification via trivial solutions

- Start debugging of a new code with trying a problem where $u={\rm const} \neq 0$.
- Choose u=C (a constant). Choose any a(t) and set b=a(t)C and I=C.
- "All" numerical methods will reproduce $u =_{const}$ exactly (machine precision).
- Often u = C eases debugging.
- In this example: any error in the formula for u^{n+1} make $u \neq C$!

Verification via trivial solutions; test function

appear.

```
def test_constant_solution():
    """
    Test problem where u=u_const is the exact solution, to be
    reproduced (to machine precision) by any relevant method.
    """
    def exact_solution(t):
        return u_const

def a(t):
        return 2.5*(1+t**3)  # can be arbitrary

def b(t):
        return a(t)*u_const

u_const = 2.15
    theta = 0.4; I = u_const; dt = 4
    Nt = 4  # enough with a few steps
    u, t = solver(I=I, a=a, b=b, T=Nt**dt, dt=dt, theta=theta)
    print u
    u_e = exact_solution(t)
    difference = abs(u_e - u) max()  # max deviation
    tol = 1E-14
    assert difference < tol
</pre>
```

Verification via manufactured solutions

- Choose any formula for u(t).
- Fit I, a(t), and b(t) in u' = -au + b, u(0) = I, to make the chosen formula a solution of the ODE problem.
- Then we can always have an analytical solution (!).
- Ideal for verification: testing convergence rates.
- Called the method of manufactured solutions (MMS)
- Special case: u linear in t, because all sound numerical methods will reproduce a linear u exactly (machine precision).
- u(t) = ct + d. u(0) = 0 means d = 1.
- ODE implies c = -a(t)u + b(t).
- Choose a(t) and c, and set b(t) = c + a(t)(ct + l).
- Any error in the formula for u^{n+1} makes $u \neq ct + 1$!

Linear manufactured solution

 $u^n = ct_n + I$ fulfills the discrete equations!

$$[D_t^+ t]^n = \frac{t_{n+1} - t_n}{\Delta t} = 1, \tag{10}$$

$$[D_t^- t]^n = \frac{t_n - t_{n-1}}{\Delta t} = 1, \tag{11}$$

$$[D_t^+ t]^n = \frac{t_{n+1} - t_n}{\Delta t} = 1,$$

$$[D_t^- t]^n = \frac{t_{n-1} - t_{n-1}}{\Delta t} = 1,$$

$$[D_t t]^n = \frac{t_{n-1} + \frac{1}{2} - t_{n-\frac{1}{2}}}{\Delta t} = \frac{(n + \frac{1}{2})\Delta t - (n - \frac{1}{2})\Delta t}{\Delta t} = 1$$

$$(10)$$

Forward Euler:

$$[D^+ u = -au + b]^n$$

$$a^n = a(t_n), b^n = c + a(t_n)(ct_n + l),$$
 and $u^n = ct_n + l$ results in

$$c = -a(t_n)(ct_n + 1) + c + a(t_n)(ct_n + 1) = c$$

Test function for linear manufactured solution

```
def test_linear_solution():
```

Test problem where u=c*t+I is the exact solution, to be reproduced (to machine precision) by any relevant method.

def a(t): return t**0.5 # can be arbitrary

def b(t): return c + a(t)*exact_solution(t)

T = 4

Nt = int(T/dt) # no of steps
u, t = solver(I=I, a-a, b-b, T=Nt*dt, dt=dt, theta=theta)
u_e = exact_solution(t)
difference = abs(u_e - u).max() # max deviation
print difference
tol = 1E-14 # depends on c!
assert difference < tol

Extension to systems of ODEs

Sample system

$$u' = au + bv \tag{13}$$

$$v' = cu + dv \tag{14}$$

The Forward Euler method

$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \Delta t(au^n + bv^n) \tag{15}$$

$$v^{n+1} = u^n + \Delta t(cu^n + dv^n)$$
 (16)

The Backward Euler method gives a system of algebraic equations

The Backward Euler scheme:

$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \Delta t(au^{n+1} + bv^{n+1})$$
 (17)

$$v^{n+1} = v^n + \Delta t(cu^{n+1} + dv^{n+1})$$
 (18)

which is a 2×2 linear system:

$$(1 - \Delta ta)u^{n+1} + bv^{n+1} = u^n \tag{19}$$

$$cu^{n+1} + (1 - \Delta td)v^{n+1} = v^n \tag{20}$$

Crank-Nicolson also gives a 2×2 linear system.

Generic form

The standard form for ODEs:

$$u' = f(u, t), \quad u(0) = I$$
 (21)

u and f: scalar or vector.

Vectors in case of ODE systems:

$$u(t) = (u^{(0)}(t), u^{(1)}(t), \dots, u^{(m-1)}(t))$$

$$f(u,t) = (f^{(0)}(u^{(0)}, \dots, u^{(m-1)})$$
$$f^{(1)}(u^{(0)}, \dots, u^{(m-1)}),$$

$$f^{(m-1)}(u^{(0)}(t),\ldots,u^{(m-1)}(t)))$$

The θ -rule

$$\frac{u^{n+1}-u^n}{\Delta t} = \theta f(u^{n+1}, t_{n+1}) + (1-\theta)f(u^n, t_n)$$
 (22)

Bringing the unknown u^{n+1} to the left-hand side and the known terms on the right-hand side gives

$$u^{n+1} - \Delta t \theta f(u^{n+1}, t_{n+1}) = u^n + \Delta t (1 - \theta) f(u^n, t_n)$$
 (23)

This is a *nonlinear* equation in u^{n+1} (unless f is linear in u)!

Implicit 2-step backward scheme

$$u'(t_{n+1}) \approx \frac{3 u^{n+1} - 4 u^n + u^{n-1}}{2 \Delta t}$$

Sch em e:

$$u^{n+1} = \frac{4}{3}u^n - \frac{1}{3}u^{n-1} + \frac{2}{3}\Delta tf(u^{n+1}, t_{n+1})$$

Nonlinear equation for u^{n+1} .

The Leapfrog scheme

$$u'(t_n) \approx \frac{u^{n+1} - u^{n-1}}{2\Delta t} = [D_{2t}u]^n$$
 (24)

Scheme:

$$[D_{2t} u = f(u,t)]^n$$

or written out,

$$u^{n+1} = u^{n-1} + \Delta t f(u^n, t_n)$$
 (25)

- Some other scheme must be used as starter (u^1) .
- Explicit scheme a nonlinear f (in u) is trivial to handle.
- Downside: Leapfrog is always unstable after some time.

The filtered Leapfrog scheme

After computing u^{n+1} , stabilize Leapfrog by

$$u^n \leftarrow u^n + \gamma(u^{n-1} - 2u^n + u^{n+1})$$
 (26)

2nd-order Runge-Kutta scheme

Forward-Euler + approximate Crank-Nicolson:

$$u^* = u^n + \Delta t f(u^n, t_n), \tag{27}$$

$$u^* = u^n + \Delta t f(u^n, t_n), \qquad (27)$$

$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \Delta t \frac{1}{2} (f(u^n, t_n) + f(u^*, t_{n+1})) \qquad (28)$$

4th-order Runge-Kutta scheme

- The most famous and widely used ODE method
- 4 evaluations of f per time step
- Its derivation is a very good illustration of numerical thinking!

2nd-order Adams-Bashforth scheme

$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t \left(3f(u^n, t_n) - f(u^{n-1}, t_{n-1})\right)$$
 (29)

3rd-order Adams-Bashforth scheme

$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \frac{1}{12} \left(23f(u^n, t_n) - 16f(u^{n-1}, t_{n-1}) + 5f(u^{n-2}, t_{n-2}) \right)$$
(30)

The Odespy software

Odespy features simple Python implementations of the most fundamental schemes as well as Python interfaces to several famous packages for solving ODEs: ODEPACK, Vode, rkc.f, rkf45.f, Radau5, as well as the ODE solvers in SciPy, SymPy, and odelab.

Typical usage:

```
# Define right-hand side of ODE
def f(u, t):
    return -a*u

import odespy
import numpy as np

# Set parameters and time mesh
I = 1; a = 2; T = 6; dt = 1.0
Nt = int(round(T/dt))
t_mesh = np.linspace(0, T, Nt+1)

# Use a 4th-order Runge-Kutta method
solver = odespy.RK4(f)
solver.set_initial_condition(I)
```

u, t = solver.solve(t_mesh)

Example: Runge-Kutta methods



