
Numerical exponential integrators for dynamical systems

Isabela Miki Suzuki

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- Title:

Numerical exponential integrators for dynamical systems

- Researcher in charge:

André Salles Carvalho, Prof. Dr.

- Beneficiary:

Isabela Miki Suzuki

- Host institution:

Instituto de Matemática e Estatística at the Universidade de São Paulo

- Research team:

Isabela Miki Suzuki

Pedro S. Peixoto, Prof. Dr.

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- *1. Summary of the proposed project*
- *2. Summary of the activities*
- *3. Project execution*
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1. SUMMARY OF THE PROPOSED PROJECT

This is a scientific initiation project that proposes the deep study of some of the main methods of exponential integration for problems in dynamic systems, with emphasis on the paper []. Here, the undergraduate will study the construction, analysis, implementation and application of them and at the end, it is expected that she is familiar with modern techniques of numerical methods.

Keywords: exponential integrator, numerical methods, dynamical systems.

2. SUMMARY OF THE ACTIVITIES

To be done.

3. PROJECT EXECUTION

3.1 Motivation - Stiffness

The reason for studying exponential methods is that those are good with **stiff differential equations** in terms of precision and how small the time step is required to be to achieve good accuracy.

3.1.1 Cauchy problem

A **Cauchy problem** is a ordinary differential equation (ODE) with initial conditions. Being its standard scalar form:

$$\begin{cases} y'(t) = f(y(t), t), t \in (t_0, T) \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \in \mathbb{K}, \end{cases}$$

with \mathbb{K} a field, f function with image in \mathbb{K} and $t_0, T \in \mathbb{R}$.

Sometimes, it is convenient to separate the linear part of f as indicated below:

$$f(y(t), t) = g(y(t), t) - \lambda y(t),$$

with $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$ or $\mathcal{M}_{N \times N}(\mathbb{K})$.

So the system is:

$$\begin{cases} y'(t) + \lambda y(t) = g(y(t), t), t \in (t_0, T) \\ y(0) = y_0. \end{cases}$$

In this project, the stiff ones were those addressed.

Notation as in [1].

3.1.2 Stiffness

The error of the approximation given by a method trying to estimate the solution of a Cauchy problem is always given by a term multiplied by a higher derivative of the exact solution, because of the Taylor expansion with Lagrange form of the remainder. In that way, if that is enough information about this derivative, the error can be estimated.

If the norm of the derivative increases with the time, but the exact solution doesn't, that is possible that the error dominates the approximation and the precision is lost. Those problems are called **stiff equations**.

Between them, there are the **stiff differential equations**, that have exact solution given by the sum of a *transient solution* with a *steady state solution*.

The **transient solution** is of the form:

$$e^{-ct}, \text{ with } c \gg 1,$$

which is known to go to zero really fast as t increases. But its n th derivative

$$\mp c^n e^{-ct}$$

doesn't go as quickly and may increase in magnitude.

The **steady state solution**, however, as its name implies, have small changes as time passes, with higher derivative being almost constant zero.

In a system of ODE's, these characteristics are most common in problems in which the solution of the initial value problem is of the form

$$e^A$$

being A a matrix such that λ_{min} and λ_{max} are the eigenvalue with minimum and maximum value in modulus and $\lambda_{min} \ll \lambda_{max}$. On the bigger magnitude eigenvalue direction, the behaviour is very similar to the transient solution, having drastic changes over time and on the smaller one, comparing to that, changes almost nothing as times passes, like the steady state solution.

Work around these problems and being able to accurately approximate these so contrasting parts of the solutions requires more robust methods than the more classic and common one-step methods addressed at the beginning of the study of numerical methods for Cauchy problems. For the systems, it is also required that that is a precise way to calculate the exponential of a matrix.

In this project, we studied the **exponential methods**, their capabilities to deal with these problems and the comparison with other simpler methods.

Definition from [2].

3.2 Chapter 2: Classical methods

In order to show that the exponential methods improve in dealing with Stiff problems, that is necessary to know how the previous methods deal with them, so a review on the theory of the classical methods is made in this chapter. In particular there will be focus on the one step methods. All the information is from [3].

3.2.1 One step methods for ODE

In order to find a approximation for the solution of the problem $\begin{cases} y'(t) = f(t, y(t)), t \in [t_0, T] \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \end{cases}$

they are of the form: $y_{k+1} = y_k + h\phi(t_k, y_k, t_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, h)$,

with $k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1; N \in \mathbb{N}; h = \frac{T-t_0}{N}$;

$\{t_i = t_0 + ih : i = 0, 1, \dots, N\}$;

$y_n \approx y(t_n)$.

To analyse the method, there is a model problem $\begin{cases} y'(t) = -\lambda y(t) \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \end{cases}$

whose solution is $y(t) = y_0 e^{-\lambda(t-t_0)}$ with $\lambda > 0$.

If that is possible to manipulate the method so that, for this problem, can be written as $y_{k+1} = \zeta(\lambda, h)y_k$, then $\zeta(\lambda, h)$ is called **amplification factor** of the method.

By induction, it gives $y_{k+1} = \zeta(\lambda, h)^{k+1} y_0$.

It is well known that this expression only converges as k goes to infinity if $|\zeta(\lambda, h)| < 1$ and then converges to zero.

When it occurs, i.e., $k \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow y_k \rightarrow 0$ such as the exact solution $y(t) = y_0 e^{-\lambda(t-t_0)}$, it is said that there is **stability**.

The inequation gives a interval for which values of λh , $|\zeta(\lambda, h)| < 1$, called **interval of stability**.

And if the interval of stability contains all the points z such that $Re(z) < 0$, the method is said **A-stable**.

The reason for taking this specific problem is that it models the behaviour of the difference between the approximation and the solution on a small neighbourhood of any Cauchy problem:

Taking
$$\begin{cases} y'(t) = f(y(t), t), t \in (t_0, T) \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \in \mathbb{K} \end{cases}$$

and a approximation z of the solution y , doing
$$\sigma(t) = z(t) - y(t) \rightarrow$$

$$\dot{\sigma}(t) = \dot{z}(t) - \dot{y}(t) = f(z(t), t) - f(y(t), t) \rightarrow$$

$$\dot{\sigma}(t) + \dot{y}(t) = \dot{z}(t) = f(z(t), t) = f(y(t) + \sigma(t), t) = f(y(t), t) + \sigma(t) \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} + O(\sigma^2(t)),$$

so
$$\begin{cases} \dot{\sigma}(t) \approx \sigma(t) \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(y(t), t) \\ \sigma(t_k) = \sigma_k. \end{cases}$$

Other important definitions are:

Local truncation error: Is the difference between the exact expression and its numerical approximation in a certain point and with a certain domain discretization. If the domain is equally spaced by h is often denoted by $\tau(h, t_0)$ being t_0 the point.

Order of the local truncation error: the local truncation error (which depends on the h spacing of the discretized domain) $\tau(h)$ has order $n \in \mathbb{N}$ if $\tau(h) = O(h^n)$, i.e., if there is constant $M \in \mathbb{R}$ and $h_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\tau(h) \leq Mh^n$, $\forall h \leq h_0$.

Global error: Is the difference between the approximation given by the method for the solution of the problem on a certain point and the exact one (unlike the local truncation error, here we take the solution we got, not the expression used to find the approximation).

Consistency: The method is said consistent if $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \tau(h, x_0) = 0$.

Obs.: For consistency, we usually only analyse for the linear part of the Cauchy problem, since this is the part that most influences in the consistency.

Order of consistency: is the smallest order (varying the points at which the local error is calculated) of the local truncation error.

Convergence: A numerical method is convergent if, and only if, for any well-posed Cauchy problem and for every $t \in (t_0, T)$, $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} e_k = 0$ with $t - t_0 = kh$ fixed and k denoting the global error on t_k (following the past notation).

Theorem: A one-step explicit method given by $y_0 = y(t_0)$

$y_{k+1} = y_k + h\phi(t_k, y_k, h)$ such that ϕ is Lipschitzian in y , continuous in their arguments, and consistent for any well-posed Cauchy problem is convergent. Besides that, the convergence order is greater or equal to the consistency order.

Prove: [3] pág 29-31.

3.2.2 Examples

Euler method:

$$\phi(t_k, y_k, h) = f(t_k, y_k)$$

Modified Euler method:

$$\phi(t_k, y_k, h) = \frac{1}{2} \left[f(t_k, y_k) + f(t_{k+1}, y_k) + h f(t_k, y_k) \right]$$

Midpoint method:

$$\phi(t_k, y_k, h) = f(t_k + \frac{h}{2}, y_k + \frac{h}{2} f(t_k, y_k))$$

Classic Runge-Kutta (RK 4-4):

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(t_k, y_k, h) = & \frac{1}{6} (\kappa_1 + 2\kappa_2 + 2\kappa_3 + \kappa_4), \\ \text{with } & \kappa_1 = f(t_k, y_k), \kappa_2 = f(t_k + \frac{h}{2}, y_k + \frac{h}{2} \kappa_1), \\ & \kappa_3 = f(t_k + \frac{h}{2}, y_k + \frac{h}{2} \kappa_2), \kappa_4 = f(t_k + h, y_k + h \kappa_3) \end{aligned}$$

3.2.3 Euler method

Further detailing this explicit one-step method of

$$\phi(t_k, y_k, h) = f(t_k, y_k)$$

an analysis on stability, convergence and order of convergence is done.

Stability

For the problem $y'(t) = -\lambda y(t)$; $t \in [t_0, T]$ $y(t_0) = y_0$,

with known solution

$$y(t) = y_0 e^{-\lambda(t-t_0)},$$

the method turn into:

$$\begin{aligned} y_0 &= y(t_0) \\ \text{for } k &= 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1 : \\ y_{k+1} &= y_k + h\lambda y_k \\ t_{k+1} &= t_k + h. \end{aligned}$$

Then the amplification factor is: $(1 - h\lambda)^N$. If $|1 - h\lambda| > 1$, for fixed N , it will be a divergent series ($k \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow y_k \rightarrow \infty$), so, since the computer has a limitant number that can represent, even if the number of steps is not small enough, it might have sufficient steps to reach the maximum number represented by the machine.

However, if $|1 - h\lambda| < 1$ and N is fixed, it converges to zero ($k \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow y_k \rightarrow 0$).

Besides that, $|1 - h\lambda| < 1$ is the same as $0 < h\lambda < 2$. So the interval of stability is (0,2). That's why the method suddenly converged, it was when h got small enough to $h\lambda$ be in the interval of stability, i.e., $h < 2/\lambda$.

It is worth mentioning here that if $-1 < 1 - h\lambda < 0$, the error will converge oscillating since it takes positive values with even exponents and negative with odd ones.

Convergence

Since $\lim_{m \rightarrow +\infty} (1 + \frac{x}{m})^m = e^x$, and $h = \frac{T-t_0}{N}$, for y_N we have $\lim_{N \rightarrow +\infty} y_N = \lim_{N \rightarrow +\infty} (1 - h\lambda)^N y_0 = \lim_{N \rightarrow +\infty} (1 - \frac{(T-t_0)\lambda}{N})^N y_0$. It is reasonable to take $\lambda = -(T-t_0)$ and conclude that the last point estimated by the method will converge to $y_0 e^{-\lambda(T-t_0)}$. Which is precisely $y(T)$ and proves the convergence.

Order of convergence

Being $\tau(h, t_k)$ the local truncation error.

$$\begin{equation*} y(t_{k+1}) = y(t_k) + h f(y(t_k), t_k) + O(h^2), \end{equation*}$$

we have $\begin{equation*} h \tau(h, t_k) \doteq \frac{y(t_{k+1}) - y(t_k) - h f(t_k, y(t_k))}{h} = O(h^2), \end{equation*}$

so $\begin{equation*} \tau(h, t_k) = O(h). \end{equation*}$

Since for one step methods the order of convergence is the order of the local truncation error, the order is of $O(h)$, order 1.

3.3 Chapter 3: important concepts for the study of exponential methods

In this chapter, a review on the theory of matrix exponential and in ϕ functions is done because of its need when applying exponential methods in systems of ODE with initial value. Besides that, the format of the treated problem is shown.

3.3.1 Matrix exponential

Based on the Maclaurin series of the exponential function $\begin{equation*} e^x = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^i}{i!}, \end{equation*}$

the **exponential of a square complex matrix** A is defined as $\begin{equation*} e^A \doteq \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^i}{i!}. \end{equation*}$

This is well defined because it has been proven that the sequence p_k with, $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$: $\begin{equation*} p_k = \sum_{i=0}^k \frac{A^i}{i!}, \end{equation*}$ $\forall A$ as described above, is a Cauchy sequence, and therefore converge to a limit matrix which was denoted e^A , since the set of the square complex matrix with fixed length with the norm $\|A\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|$ is a Banach space.

Exponential of a zeros matrix

$$\text{If } A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\begin{equation*} e^A \doteq \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^i}{i!} = I + A + \frac{A^2}{2!} + \dots = I + 0 + 0 + \dots = I. \end{equation*}$$

Exponential of a diagonal matrix

$$\text{If } A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_N \end{bmatrix} = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \dots, \lambda_N),$$

it is easy to note that

$$A^2 = \text{diag}(\lambda_1^2, \lambda_2^2, \lambda_3^2, \dots, \lambda_N^2)$$

$$A^3 = \text{diag}(\lambda_1^3, \lambda_2^3, \lambda_3^3, \dots, \lambda_N^3)$$

⋮

$$A^j = \text{diag}(\lambda_1^j, \lambda_2^j, \lambda_3^j, \dots, \lambda_N^j), \quad \text{for all } j \in \mathbb{N}$$

⋮

$$\text{so } e^A = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^i}{i!} = \text{diag}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_1^i}{i!}, \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_2^i}{i!}, \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_3^i}{i!}, \dots, \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_N^i}{i!}\right) = \text{diag}(e^{\lambda_1}, e^{\lambda_2}, e^{\lambda_3}, \dots, e^{\lambda_N}).$$

In the same way, if B is a diagonal by blocks matrix:

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & B_2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & B_3 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & B_N \end{bmatrix} = \text{diag}(B_1, B_2, B_3, \dots, B_N),$$

then

$$e^B = \text{diag}(e^{B_1}, e^{B_2}, e^{B_3}, \dots, e^{B_N}).$$

Exponential of a matrix of ones above the diagonal

$$\text{If } A = A_{N \times N} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & 0 & \ddots \\ & & & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\text{one can calculate } A^2 = A \cdot A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & 0 & \ddots \\ & & & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & 0 & \ddots \\ & & & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & 0 & 0 & \ddots \\ & & & & 0 & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & & \ddots & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & & & \ddots & 0 & 0 \\ & & & & & & & \ddots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$A^3 = A \cdot A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & & 0 & \ddots \\ & & & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & & & \ddots & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & & & & \ddots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & 0 & 0 & \ddots \\ & & & & 0 & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & & \ddots & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & & & \ddots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & & \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \\ & & 0 & 0 & 0 & \ddots \\ & & & 0 & 0 & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & 0 & \ddots & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & & \ddots & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & & & \ddots & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\vdots$$

$$A^{N-2} = \begin{bmatrix} & & & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ & & & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & & 0 \\ & & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$A^{N-1} = \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & & 1 \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \end{bmatrix},$$

$$A^N = 0.$$

And then, with $t \in \mathbb{R}$

$$e^{tA} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(tA)^i}{i!} = \text{Id} + tA + \frac{t^2 A^2}{2!} + \frac{t^3 A^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{t^{N-2} A^{N-2}}{(N-2)!} + \frac{t^{N-1} A^{N-1}}{(N-1)!} + 0 + 0 + \dots + 0$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & & \\ & 1 & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & \\ & & & 1 & & \\ & & & & 1 & \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & t & & & & \\ & 0 & t & & & \\ & & 0 & t & & \\ & & & 0 & t & \\ & & & & 0 & \ddots \\ & & & & & \ddots & t \\ & & & & & & \ddots & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \frac{t^2}{2} & & & \\ & 0 & 0 & \frac{t^2}{2} & & \\ & & 0 & 0 & \frac{t^2}{2} & \\ & & & 0 & 0 & \ddots \\ & & & & 0 & \ddots & \frac{t^2}{2} \\ & & & & & \ddots & 0 & \frac{t^2}{2} \\ & & & & & & \ddots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \dots + \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & & \frac{t^{N-1}}{(N-1)!} \\ & & & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & & & \frac{t^4}{4!} \\ & & & & & & \frac{t^3}{3!} \\ & & & & & & \frac{t^2}{2} \\ & & & & & & t \\ & & & & & & & t \end{bmatrix}.$$

Exponential of a Jordan block

Proposition: $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{M}_{N \times N}(\mathbb{C})$. If $A_1 \cdot A_2 = A_2 \cdot A_1$, then $e^{A_1+A_2} = e^{A_1} \cdot e^{A_2}$.

$$\text{A Jordan block is of the form: } J = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_i & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_i & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_i & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_i & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix} +$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} = D + N,$$

$$\text{and } \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_i & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_i & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \lambda_i & & & \\ & 0 & \lambda_i & & \\ & & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & \lambda_i \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_i & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_i & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\text{so } e^{tJ} = e^{tD+tN} = e^{tD} \cdot e^{tN} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{t\lambda_i} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & e^{t\lambda_i} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{t\lambda_i} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & e^{t\lambda_i} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t & \frac{t^2}{2} & \cdots & \frac{t^{N-1}}{(N-1)!} \\ & 1 & t & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & 1 & \ddots & \frac{t^2}{2} \\ & & & \ddots & t \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} e^{t\lambda_i} & e^{t\lambda_i}t & \frac{e^{t\lambda_i}t^2}{2} & \cdots & \frac{e^{t\lambda_i}t^{N-1}}{(N-1)!} \\ & e^{t\lambda_i} & e^{t\lambda_i}t & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & e^{t\lambda_i} & \ddots & \frac{e^{t\lambda_i}t^2}{2} \\ & & & \ddots & e^{t\lambda_i}t \\ & & & & e^{t\lambda_i} \end{bmatrix}, t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Exponential of any matrix

Proposition: $\forall A \in \mathcal{M}_{N \times N}(\mathbb{C}), \exists M \in \mathcal{M}_{N \times N}(\mathbb{C})$ invertible, such that $A = MJM^{-1}$, with $J =$

$$\begin{bmatrix} J_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & J_2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & J_3 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & J_N \end{bmatrix} \text{ and each } J_i, i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N \text{ being a Jordan block, i.e., } J_i = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_i & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_i & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix}$$

for some $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{C}$.

Note that $(MJM^{-1})^k = MJM^{-1}MJM^{-1}MJM^{-1} \cdots MJM^{-1} = MJJJJM^{-1} \cdots MJM^{-1} = MJJJ \cdots JM^{-1} = MJ^kM^{-1}$.

Because of the formula of the series that defines the expansion, it implicates in $e^{MJM^{-1}} = Me^J M^{-1}$.

And then, using the same notation from the last proposition, $e^{tA} = e^{tMJM^{-1}} = e^{tMJ}M^{-1} = Me^{tJ}M^{-1} = M \left[\begin{array}{cccc} e^{tJ_1} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & e^{tJ_2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{tJ_3} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & e^{tJ_N} \end{array} \right]$

$\& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& e^{tJ_3} \& \dots \& 0 \& \dots \& \dots \& \dots \& \dots \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& \dots \& e^{tJ_N} \backslash \\ \end{array} \}$ right] M^{-1} , $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $\end{align*}$ with each block as the section above indicates.

3.3.2 Linear problem

The linear problem is, following with the used notation: $\begin{cases} y'(t) + \lambda y(t) = g(y(t), t), t \in (t_0, T) \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \end{cases}$ the one with $g \equiv 0$.

So, generally, it is of the form: $\begin{cases} y'(t) = A y(t), t \in (t_0, T) \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \end{cases}$ with $A \in \mathcal{M}_{N \times N}(\mathbb{C})$, $N \in \mathbb{N}$ (remembering that a matrix 1×1 is simply a number).

Because $Ay(t)$ is a C^1 function in y , continuous in t and $t \in (t_0, T)$, a limited interval, by the existence and uniqueness theorem, there is a single solution of the problem.

Since $\begin{equation*} \frac{d}{dt} y_0 e^{A(t-t_0)} \stackrel{\text{doteq}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{y_0 e^{A(t-t_0+h)} - y_0 e^{A(t-t_0)}}{h} = y_0 e^{A(t-t_0)} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{Ah} - I}{h} = y_0 e^{A(t-t_0)} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{Ah} - 1}{h} = y_0 e^{A(t-t_0)} \frac{e^{A0} - 1}{0} = y_0 e^{A(t-t_0)} A \quad \end{equation*}$

using L'Hôpital's rule on the second equality and noting that $A(t-t_0+h) = A(t-t_0) + Ah$ and $A(t-t_0) \cdot Ah = (t-t_0)hAA = Ah \cdot A(t-t_0)$, so it was possible to apply the last proposition and make $e^{A(t-t_0+h)} = e^{A(t-t_0)} \cdot e^{Ah}$,

taking $\begin{equation*} y(t) = y_0 e^{A(t-t_0)}, \end{equation*}$

$\begin{equation*} y'(t) = A y_0 e^{A(t-t_0)} = A y(t) \quad \text{and} \quad y(t_0) = y_0 e^{A(t_0-t_0)} = y_0 I = y_0. \end{equation*}$

So, the solution for the general linear problem is $y(t) = y_0 e^{A(t-t_0)}$.

All information about matrix exponential is from [4].

3.3.3 General problem

Returning to the general case

$\begin{cases} y'(t) + \lambda y(t) = g(y(t), t), t \in (t_0, T) \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \end{cases}$

there is the variation of constants formula: $\begin{equation*} y(t) = e^{-\lambda(t-t_0)} y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t e^{-\lambda(t-\tau)} g(y(\tau), \tau) d\tau. \end{equation*}$ This well known implicit function, gives a solution of the problem.

If the integral part can be solved, there is a explicit solution, and if the problem satisfies the hypothesis of the Piccard problem, being Lipschitz in t , this is the only solution.

This formula is the basis of all the exponential methods.

3.3.4 ϕ functions

Before introducing exponential methods, it is useful to present the ϕ functions.

They are $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ functions defined as:

$\begin{equation*} \phi_0(z) = e^z; \end{equation*}$

$\begin{equation*} \phi_n(z) = \int_0^1 e^{(1-\tau)z} \frac{\tau^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} d\tau, n \geq 1. \end{equation*}$

By integration by parts,

$\begin{gather*} \phi_{n+1}(z) = \int_0^1 e^{(1-\tau)z} \frac{\tau^n}{n!} d\tau = - \frac{e^{(1-\tau)z}}{z} \Big|_0^1 + \frac{e^{(1-\tau)z}}{z} \Big|_0^1 - \int_0^1 e^{(1-\tau)z} \frac{\tau^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} d\tau = - \frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{z} \int_0^1 e^{(1-\tau)z} \frac{\tau^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} d\tau. \end{gather*}$

Since $\phi_n(0) = \int_0^1 e^{(1-\tau)z} \frac{\tau^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} d\tau = \int_0^1 \frac{\tau^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} d\tau = \frac{1^n}{n!} - 0 = \frac{1}{n!}$,

$$\phi_{n+1}(z) = \frac{\phi_n(z) - \phi_n(0)}{z}, \quad \text{the recursive characterization.}$$

By the properties of integral [5], if $h \in \mathbb{R}^*$, $t_k \in \mathbb{R}$, $t_k + h = t_{k+1}$,

$$\phi_n(z) = \int_0^1 e^{(1-\tau)z} \frac{\tau^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} d\tau = \frac{1}{h} \int_0^h e^{\frac{(h-\tau)z}{h}} \frac{\tau^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} d\tau = \frac{1}{h} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} e^{\frac{(h-\tau)z}{h}} \frac{(\tau - t_k)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} d\tau,$$

$$\phi_n(z) = \frac{1}{h^n} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} e^{\frac{(h-\tau)z}{h}} (\tau - t_k)^{n-1} d\tau.$$

Information from [1].

3.4 Chapter 2: Exponential methods

In this chapter, exponential methods are introduced, with further analysis of some of them, being tested and compared to more classical equivalents.

All the functions coded are in the following environment.

```
from math import *
import numpy as np
from collections import deque
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from scipy.linalg import expm
from scipy import linalg

stab_lim = 1000.0

def classic_euler(t0, tf, n, x0, A, g):
    '''(float, float, int, np.array, np.matrix, function) -> np.matrix'''
    h = (tf-t0)/n
    x = np.zeros((x0.size,n), dtype=np.complex_)
    x[:,0]=x0
    t = t0
    for i in range(1, n):
        x[:,i] = x[:,i-1] + h*(np.matmul(-A,x[:,i-1]) + g(x[:,i-1],t))
        t = t0 + i*h
        if np.any(x[:,i].real > stab_lim):
            x[:,i] = np.nan
    return x

def exponential_euler(t0, tf, n, x0, A, g):
    '''(float, float, int, np.array, np.matrix, function) -> np.matrix'''
    h = (tf-t0)/n
    x = np.zeros((x0.size,n), dtype=np.complex_)
    x[:,0] = x0
    t = t0
    exponential_matrix = expm(-h*A)
    hphi1 = calculate_hphi1(h, A)
    for i in range(1, n):
        x[:,i] = np.matmul(exponential_matrix, x[:,i-1]) + np.matmul(hphi1,g(x[:,i-1],
        t))
```

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```

        t = t0 + i*h
    return x

def calculate_hphi1(h, A):
    '''(float, np.matrix) -> np.matrix'''
    hphi1 = np.matmul(1-expm(-h*A), linalg.inv(A))
    return hphi1

def calculate_hphi2(h, A, hphi1):
    #IT IS NOT H2PHI2
    '''(float, np.matrix, np.matrix) -> np.matrix'''
    hphi2 = np.matmul(1-hphi1/h, linalg.inv(A))
    return hphi2

def etd2(t0, tf, n, x0, A, g, derivate_of_g):
    '''(float, float, int, np.array, np.matrix, function, function) -> np.matrix'''
    h = (tf-t0)/n
    x = np.zeros((x0.size,n), dtype=np.complex_)
    x[:,0] = x0
    t = t0
    exponential_matrix = expm(-h*A)
    hphi1 = calculate_hphi1(h, A)
    hphi2 = calculate_hphi2(h, A, hphi1)
    for i in range(1, n):
        x[:,i] = np.matmul(exponential_matrix, x[:,i-1]) + np.matmul(hphi1,g(x[:,i-1],
    ←t)) + h*np.matmul(hphi2,derivate_of_g(x[:,i-1],t))
        t = t0 + i*h
    return x

def etd2rk_cox_and_matthews(t0, tf, n, x0, A, g):
    '''(float, float, int, np.array, np.matrix, function) -> np.matrix'''
    h = (tf-t0)/n
    x = np.zeros((x0.size,n), dtype=np.complex_)
    x[:,0]=x0
    t = t0
    exponential_matrix = expm(-h*A)
    hphi1 = calculate_hphi1(h, A)
    hphi2 = calculate_hphi2(h, A, hphi1)
    for i in range(1, n):
        a = np.matmul(exponential_matrix, x[:,i-1]) + np.matmul(hphi1,g(x[:,i-1],t))
        x[:,i] = np.matmul(exponential_matrix, x[:,i-1]) + np.matmul(hphi1,g(x[:,i-1],
    ←t)) + np.matmul(hphi2,g(a, t0 + i*h)-g(x[:,i-1],t))
        t = t0 + i*h
    return x

def etd2rk_cox_and_matthews_midpoint_rule(t0, tf, n, x0, A, g):
    '''(float, float, int, np.array, np.matrix, function) -> np.matrix'''
    h = (tf-t0)/n
    x = np.zeros((x0.size,n), dtype=np.complex_)
    x[:,0]=x0
    t = t0
    exponential_matrix = expm(-h*A)
    exponential_matrix_2 = expm(-h/2*A)
    h_2phi1_2 = calculate_hphi1(h/2, A)
    hphi1 = calculate_hphi1(h, A)
    hphi2 = calculate_hphi2(h, A, hphi1)

```

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```

    for i in range(1, n):
        b = np.matmul(exponential_matrix_2, x[:,i-1]) + np.matmul(h_2phi1_2,g(x[:,i-
        1],t))
        x[:,i] = np.matmul(exponential_matrix, x[:,i-1]) + np.matmul(hphi1,g(x[:,i-1],
        t)) + 2*np.matmul(hphi2,g(b, t + h/2)-g(x[:,i-1],t))
        t = t0 + i*h
    return x

def etd2rk_trapezoidal_rule(t0, tf, n, x0, A, g):
    '''(float, float, int, np.array, np.matrix, function) -> np.matrix'''
    h = (tf-t0)/n
    x = np.zeros((x0.size,n), dtype=np.complex_)
    x[:,0]=x0
    t = t0
    exponential_matrix = expm(-h*A)
    hphi1 = calculate_hphi1(h, A)
    for i in range(1, n):
        a = np.matmul(exponential_matrix, x[:,i-1]) + np.matmul(hphi1,g(x[:,i-1],t))
        x[:,i] = np.matmul(exponential_matrix, x[:,i-1]) + .5 * h * (np.
        matmul(exponential_matrix, g(x[:,i-1],t)) + g(a, t0 + i*h))
        t = t0 + i*h
    return x

def etd2rk_midpoint_rule(t0, tf, n, x0, A, g):
    '''(float, float, int, np.array, np.matrix, function, np.matrix) -> np.matrix'''
    h = (tf-t0)/n
    x = np.zeros((x0.size,n), dtype=np.complex_)
    x[:,0]=x0
    t = t0
    exponential_matrix = expm(-h*A)
    exponential_matrix_2 = expm(-h/2*A)
    h_2phi1_2 = calculate_hphi1(h/2, A)
    for i in range(1, n):
        b = np.matmul(exponential_matrix_2, x[:,i-1]) + np.matmul(h_2phi1_2,g(x[:,i-
        1],t))
        x[:,i] = np.matmul(exponential_matrix, x[:,i-1]) + h * np.matmul(exponential_
        matrix_2, g(b, t+h/2))
        t = t0 + i*h
    return x

def vectorize_sol(t0, t1, n, sol):
    '''
    (float, float, int, function) -> np.vector
    n is the number of steps
    '''
    x = np.zeros(n, dtype=np.complex_)
    h = (t1-t0)/n
    for i in range(n):
        x[i] = sol(t0+i*h)
    return x

def error_2(x_approx, x_exact):
    ''' (np.vector, np.vector) -> float '''
    #make sure that x_approx and x_exact have the same lenght
    v = (x_approx - x_exact)*(x_approx - x_exact).conjugate()
    #^certainly pure real

```

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```

    return np.sqrt(float(np.sum(v)/x_approx.size)) #normalized

def error_sup(x_approx, x_exact):
    ''' (np.vector, np.vector) -> float '''
    #make sure that x_approx and x_exact have the same lenght
    v = abs(x_approx - x_exact)
    return np.amax(v)

def g( x, t ):
    ''' (np.array, float) -> float
        (x, t) -> g(x, t)
    '''
    g = np.array([np.sin(t)])
    return g

def g_linear_deprec( x, t ):
    ''' (float, float) -> float
        (x, t) -> g(x, t)
    '''
    g = 0
    return g

def g_linear( x, t ):
    ''' (np.array, float) -> np.array
        (x, t) -> g(x, t)
    '''
    g = np.zeros(x.size)
    return g

def g_cm1 (x, t):
    ''' (np.array, float) -> np.array
        (x, t) -> g(x, t)
    '''
    lamb = .5
    c = 100
    r_2 = x[0]**2 + x[1]**2
    g = np.array([(lamb*x[1]-c*x[0])*r_2, -(lamb*x[0]+c*x[1])*r_2])
    return g

def sol( t ):
    ''' (float, float) -> float
    RECEIVES the initial value and a real (t).
    APPLIES the cauchy problem solution to this initial value at this point.
    RETURNS a real value.
    '''
    lmba = 100
    sol = np.exp(-lmba*t)+(np.exp(-lmba*t)+lmba*np.sin(t)-np.cos(t))/(1+lmba*lmba)
    return sol

def sol_100_linear( t ):
    ''' (float, float) -> float
    RECEIVES the initial value and a real (t).
    APPLIES the cauchy problem solution to this initial value at this point.
    RETURNS a real value.
    '''
    sol = exp(-100*t) #u0=1
    
```

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```

    return sol

def sol_1j_linear( t ):
    ''' (float, float) -> float
    RECEIVES the initial value and a real (t).
    APPLIES the cauchy problem solution to this initial value at this point.
    RETURNS a real value.
    '''
    return np.exp(1j*t)

def sol_non_linear_sin( t ):
    ''' (float, float) -> float
    RECEIVES the initial value and a real (t).
    APPLIES the cauchy problem solution to this initial value at this point.
    RETURNS a real value.
    '''
    sol = 2-cos(t) #u0=1
    return sol

def errors_array(n0, nf, method, t0, tf, x0, lmba, g, sol, vectorize_sol, error):
    '''
    This function will RETURN 2 arrays.
    The first one has the errors of the approximations given by the method with
    number of steps n = n0, n0+1, n0+2, ..., nf-1.
    The second is [n0, n0+1, n0+2, ..., nf-1]

    RECEIVES:
    n0 is the first number of steps. (int)
    nf is the last one plus 1. (int)
    method have arguments (t0, tf, n, x0, lmba, g) and return a
    np.vector of length n (0, 1, 2, ..., n-1), n is the number of steps. (function)
    t0 is the initial point of the approximation. (float)
    tf is the last one. (float)
    x0 is the initial value of the Cauchy problem. (float)
    lmabda is the coefficient os the linear part of the ploblem. (float)
    g is a function (float, float) -> (float). (function)
    sol is a function (float) -> (float). (function)
    vectorize_sol is a function that "transforms sol in a vector" (function)
    (float, float, int, function) -> (np.array)
    (t0, tf, n, sol) -> np.array([sol[t0], sol[t0+h], sol[t0+2h], ..., sol[tf-1]])
    error is a function (np.array, np.array) -> (float) (function)
    '''
    v = np.zeros(nf-n0)
    domain = np.zeros(nf-n0)
    for n in range(n0, nf):
        domain[n-n0] = n
        m = method(t0, tf, n, x0, lmba, g)
        exact = vectorize_sol(t0, tf, n, sol)
        if np.max(np.abs(m))>1000:
            v[n-n0]=np.nan
        else:
            v[n-n0] = error(m, exact)
    return v, domain

def graphic_2D(domain, matrix, names, labelx, labely, title, key1, key2):
    '''

```

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```

domain is a list of np.arrays [[length n1], [length n2], ..., [length nk]]
k = 1, 2, ..., 5 lines. (list)
matrix is a list of np.arrays [[length n1], [length n2], ..., [length nk]]
k = 1, 2, ..., 5 lines - same length that domain. (list)
names is a list of the labels for the graphs, must have the same length that
the number of lines in matrix. (list of Strings)
labelx is the name of the x coordinate. (String)
labeledy is the name of the y coordinate. (String)
title is the title of the graph. (String)
key1 is a boolean that indicates if the last graph must be black. (bool)
key2 is a boolean that indicates if it should use the log scale. (bool)
'''
fig, ax = plt.subplots()

colors = ['blue', 'green', 'red', 'cyan', 'magenta', 'yellow']
for i in range(len(names)-1):
    ax.plot(domain[i], matrix[i], color=colors[i], label=names[i])
if key1:
    ax.plot(domain[len(names)-1], matrix[len(names)-1], color='black',
label=names[len(names)-1])
else:
    ax.plot(domain[len(names)-1], matrix[len(names)-1], color=colors[len(names)-1],
label=names[len(names)-1])
if key2:
    plt.yscale('log')
ax.legend()
ax.set_xlabel(labelx)
ax.set_ylabel(labeledy)
ax.set_title(title)
return fig, ax

def graphic_3D(domain, matrix1, matrix2, names, labelx, labeledy, labelz, title, key1,
key2):
    '''
    domain is a list of np.arrays [[length n1], [length n2], ..., [length nk]]
    k = 1, 2, ..., 5 lines. (list)
    matrix1 and matrix2 are lists of np.arrays [[length n1], [length n2], ..., [length
nk]]
    k = 1, 2, ..., 5 lines - same length that domain. (list)
    names is a list of the labels for the graphs, must have the same length that
    the number of lines in matrix. (list of Strings)
    labelx is the name of the x coordinate. (String)
    labeledy is the name of the y coordinate. (String)
    labelz is the name of the z coordinate. (String)
    title is the title of the graph. (String)
    key1 is a boolean that indicates if the last graph must be black. (bool)
    key2 is a boolean that indicates if it should use the log scale. (bool)
    '''
    fig = plt.figure()
    ax = plt.figure().add_subplot(projection='3d')

    colors = ['blue', 'green', 'red', 'cyan', 'magenta', 'yellow']
    for i in range(len(names)-1):
        ax.plot(domain[i], matrix1[i], matrix2[i], color=colors[i], label=names[i])
    if key1:
        ax.plot(domain[len(names)-1], matrix1[len(names)-1], matrix2[len(names)-1], color=
'black', label=names[len(names)-1])
    
```

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```

else:
    ax.plot(domain[len(names)-1], matrix1[len(names)-1], matrix2[len(names)-1],
    color=colors[len(names)-1], label=names[len(names)-1])
    if key2:
        plt.yscale('log')
    ax.legend()
    ax.set_xlabel(labelx)
    ax.set_ylabel(labely)
    ax.set_zlabel(labelz)
    ax.set_title(title)
    return fig, ax

def errors_2x(n0, k, method, t0, tf, x0, lmba, g, sol, vectorize_sol, error):
    '''
    This function will RETURN a np.array with the errors of the approximations given
    by the method with number of steps n = n0, 2*n0, 2**2*n0, ..., 2**(k-1)*n0.

    RECEIVES:
    n0 is the first number of steps. (int)
    k is the number of errors in the final array. (int)
    method have arguments (t0, tf, n, x0, lmba, g) and return a
    np.vector of length n (0, 1, 2, ..., n-1), n is the number of steps. (function)
    t0 is the initial point of the approximation. (float)
    tf is the last one. (float)
    x0 is the initial value of the Cauchy problem. (float)
    lmbda is the coefficient os the linear part of the pproblem. (float)
    g is a function (float, float) -> (float). (function)
    sol is a function (float) -> (float). (function)
    vectorize_sol is a function that "transforms sol in a vector" (function)
    (float, float, int, function) -> (np.array)
    (t0, tf, n, sol) -> np.array([sol[t0], sol[t0+h], sol[t0+2h], ..., sol[tf-1]])
    error is a function (np.array, np.array) -> (float) (function)
    '''
    v = np.zeros(k)
    for i in range(k):
        m = method(t0, tf, n0*2**i, x0, lmba, g)
        exact = vectorize_sol(t0, tf, n0*2**i, sol)
        v[i] = error(m, exact)
    return v

def convergence_table(errors_2x, n0, k, t0, tf):
    '''
    RECEIVES:
    errors_2x is a array with the errors of the approximations given
    by a method with number of steps n = n0, 2*n0, 2**2*n0, ..., 2**(k-1)*n0. (np.array)
    n0 is the first number of steps. (int)
    k is the number of errors in the final array. (int)
    t0 is the initial point of the approximation. (float)
    tf is the last one. (float)
    '''
    n = n0
    print(n, (tf-t0)/n, errors_2x[0], "-", sep=" & ", end=" \\ \\ \\ \n")
    for k in range(1, 4):
        n = n0 * 2 ** k
        h = (tf-t0)/n
        q = errors_2x[k-1]/errors_2x[k] #q=erro(h)/erro(h)
    
```

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```
r = ((tf-t0)/(n/2))/((tf-t0)/n)
print(n, h, errors_2x[k], log(q,2)/log(r,2), sep=" & ", end=" \\ \\ \\ \\ \n")
```

3.4.1 Exponential Euler method

For $y'(t) + \lambda y(t) = g(y(t), t)$, $t \in (t_0, T)$ $y(0) = y_0$

the domain is evenly discretized:

$N \in \mathbb{N}$; $h = \frac{T-t_0}{N}$; $\text{Domain: } \{t_k = t_0 + k h : k = 0, 1, \dots\}$.

The discretization of the ODE takes the exact solution of the Cauchy problem, given by the variation of constants formula $y(t) = e^{-(t-t_0)\lambda} y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t [e^{-\lambda(t-\tau)} g(y(\tau), \tau)] d\tau$

and, by Taylor expansion on g :

$\tau \in (t_k, t_{k+1})$ $g(y(\tau), \tau) = g(y(t_k), t_k) + (\tau - t_k) \frac{dg}{dt}(y(\theta_k), \theta_k)$ for $\theta_k \in (t_k, t_{k+1})$,

$y(t_{k+1}) = e^{-(t_{k+1}-t_k)\lambda} y(t_k) + \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} [e^{-\lambda(t_{k+1}-\tau)} g(y(\tau), \tau)] d\tau$

$= e^{-h\lambda} y(t_k) + \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} e^{-\lambda(t_{k+1}-\tau)} \left(g(y(t_k), t_k) + (\tau - t_k) \frac{dg}{dt}(y(\theta_k), \theta_k) \right) d\tau$

$= e^{-h\lambda} y(t_k) + g(y(t_k), t_k) \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} e^{-\lambda(t_{k+1}-\tau)} d\tau + \frac{dg}{dt}(y(\theta_k), \theta_k) \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} (\tau - t_k) e^{-\lambda(t_{k+1}-\tau)} d\tau$.

Since

$\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} e^{-\lambda(t_{k+1}-\tau)} d\tau = h \phi_1(-\lambda h) = \frac{1 - e^{-h\lambda}}{\lambda}$

and, by the Taylor expansion of $e^{-\lambda h}$ in the point zero

$e^{-\lambda h} = 1 - \lambda h + \frac{1}{2} \lambda^2 h^2 - \frac{1}{6} \lambda^3 h^3 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} (-\lambda h)^n + \dots$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} (\tau - t_k) e^{-\lambda(t_{k+1}-\tau)} d\tau = h^2 \phi_2(-\lambda h) = h \phi_1(0) - \phi_1(-\lambda h) = \frac{h}{\lambda} - \frac{1 - e^{-h\lambda}}{\lambda^2} = \frac{h}{\lambda} - \frac{1 - (1 - \lambda h + \frac{1}{2} \lambda^2 h^2 - \frac{1}{6} \lambda^3 h^3 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} (-\lambda h)^n + \dots)}{\lambda^2} = \frac{h^2}{2} - \frac{h^3}{6} \lambda + \dots + \frac{h^n}{n!} (-\lambda)^{n-2} + \dots = O(h^2)$,

$y(t_{k+1}) = e^{-h\lambda} y(t_k) + g(y(t_k), t_k) \frac{1 - e^{-h\lambda}}{\lambda} + \frac{dg}{dt}(y(\theta_k), \theta_k) O(h^2)$

$y(t_{k+1}) = e^{-h\lambda} y(t_k) + g(y(t_k), t_k) \frac{1 - e^{-h\lambda}}{\lambda} + O(h^2)$.

That inspires the **Exponential Euler method** : $y_0 = y(t_0)$

for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1$:

$$y_{k+1} = e^{-h\lambda} y_k + g(y_k, t_k) \frac{1 - e^{-h\lambda}}{\lambda}$$

$t_{k+1} = t_k + h$ with $y_k \approx y(t_k)$.

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**DESCRIPTION AND EVALUATION OF INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT
RECEIVED IN THE PERIOD**

To be done.

**PARTICIPATION IN SCIENTIFIC EVENT, LIST OF PUBLICATIONS
AND LIST OF PAPERS PREPARED OR SUBMITTED**

To be done.