

# ***Richardson Extrapolation***

**Use trapezoidal rule as an example**

– subintervals:  $n = 2^j = 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, \dots$

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \frac{h}{2} [f(x_0) + 2f(x_1) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)] + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_j h^{2j}$$

$j$	$n$	Formula
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0	1	$I_0 = \frac{h}{2} [f(a) + f(b)]$
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1	2	$I_1 = \frac{h}{4} [f(a) + 2f(x_1) + f(b)]$
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2	4	$I_2 = \frac{h}{8} [f(a) + 2f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + 2f(x_3) + f(b)]$
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3	8	$I_3 = \frac{h}{16} [f(a) + 2f(x_1) + \dots + 2f(x_7) + f(b)]$
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$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$
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$j$	$2^j$	$I_j = \frac{h}{2^j} [f(a) + 2f(x_1) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-1}) + f(b)]$
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# ***Richardson Extrapolation***

**For trapezoidal rule**

$$A = \int_a^b f(x) dx = A(h) + c_1 h^2 + \dots$$

$$\begin{cases} A = A(h) + c_1 h^2 + c_2 h^4 \dots \\ A = A(\frac{h}{2}) + c_1 (\frac{h}{2})^2 + c_2 (\frac{h}{2})^4 + \dots \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \frac{1}{3} \left[ 4A(\frac{h}{2}) - A(h) \right] - \frac{c_2}{4} h^4 + \dots = B(h) + b_2 h^4 + \dots$$

$$\begin{cases} A = B(h) + b_2 h^4 \dots \\ A = B(\frac{h}{2}) + b_2 (\frac{h}{2})^4 + \dots \end{cases} \Rightarrow C(h) = \frac{1}{15} \left[ 16B(\frac{h}{2}) - B(h) \right]$$

–  $k^{th}$  level of extrapolation

$$D(h) = \frac{4^k C(h/2) - C(h)}{4^k - 1}$$

# Romberg Integration

## Accelerated Trapezoid Rule

$$I_{j,k} = \frac{4^k I_{j+1,k} - I_{j,k}}{4^k - 1}; \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

*Trapezoid*

*Simpson's*

*Boole's*

$k = 0$

$k = 1$

$k = 2$

$k = 3$

$k = 4$

$O(h^2)$

$O(h^4)$

$O(h^6)$

$O(h^8)$

$O(h^{10})$

$h$	$I_{0,0}$	$I_{0,1}$	$I_{0,2}$	$I_{0,3}$	$I_{0,4}$
$h/2$	$I_{1,0}$	$I_{1,1}$	$I_{1,2}$	$I_{1,3}$	
$h/4$	$I_{2,0}$	$I_{2,1}$	$I_{2,2}$		
$h/8$	$I_{3,0}$	$I_{3,1}$			
$h/16$	$I_{4,0}$				
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	$\frac{4I_{j+1,0} - I_{j,0}}{3}$		$\frac{16I_{j+1,1} - I_{j,1}}{15}$		$\frac{64I_{j+1,2} - I_{j,2}}{63}$
					$\frac{256I_{j+1,3} - I_{j,3}}{255}$

# *Romberg Integration*

## Accelerated Trapezoid Rule

$$I = \int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx = 5216.926477$$

	<i>Trapezoid</i>	<i>Simpson's</i>	<i>Boole's</i>		
	$k = 0$	$k = 1$	$k = 2$	$k = 3$	$k = 4$
	$O(h^2)$	$O(h^4)$	$O(h^6)$	$O(h^8)$	$O(h^{10})$
$h = 4$	23847.7	8240.41	5499.68	5224.84	5216.95
$h = 2$	12142.2	5670.98	5229.14	5217.01	
$h = 1$	7288.79	5256.75	5217.20		
$h = 0.5$	5764.76	5219.68			
$h = 0.25$	5355.95				
$\varepsilon =$	- 2.66%	- 0.0527%	- 0.0053%	- 0.00168%	- 0.00050%

# ODE Integration

- Okay, how do we solve ODEs?
- As with quadrature, most methods are based on polynomial approximations!
- The simplest method is just the Euler method.
- We examine the Taylor Series expansion:
$$y(t+h) = y(t) + h y'(t) + \frac{1}{2} h^2 y''(\xi)$$
- Recall that  $y'(t) = f(t, y(t))$

# ODE Integration

- Thus,

$$y(t+h) = y(t) + h f(t, y(t)) + \frac{1}{2} h^2 y''(\xi)$$

- In the Euler method we truncate after the linear term!
- Let  $y_k$  be the estimate at  $y(t_k)$  and thus:

$$y_{k+1}^{\text{EM}} = y_k + h f(t_k, y_k)$$

- As we stated before, this rule is explicit, because  $y_{k+1}$  can be written as an explicit function of known quantities ( $t_k$  and  $y_k$ ).

# ODE Integration

- What is the error? Just subtract off the Taylor series!

$$y_{k+1}^{\text{EM}} - y(t_{k+1}) = y_k^{\text{EM}} - y(t_k) + h_k[f(t_k, y_k) - f(t_k, y(t_k))] - \frac{1}{2} h_k^2 y''(\xi)$$

- The  $\Delta f$  term survives because there is some error from previous terms.
- Let's look at the term in brackets...

# ODE Integration

$$\begin{aligned} & [f(t_k, y_k) - f(t_k, y(t_k))] \\ &= [f(t_k, y(t_k)) + (y_k - y(t_k)) \frac{df}{dy} - f(t_k, y(t_k))] \end{aligned}$$

← Expansion for f at  $y_k$  →

Jacobian

$$= (y_k - y(t_k)) \frac{df}{dy}$$

- Thus, the error at step  $k+1$  is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} y_{k+1}^{\text{EM}} - y(t_{k+1}) &= (y_k^{\text{EM}} - y(t_k))(1 + h_k J) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2} h_k^2 y''(\xi) \end{aligned}$$

- The term  $\frac{1}{2} h_k^2 y''(\xi)$  is the local error at each step.



# ODE Integration

- The quantity  $(1+hJ)$  is the amplification factor. Note that for all unstable ODEs this factor is greater than 1.
- The key result is that if  $J$  is very negative, then Euler's method may be unstable as well!
- If  $hJ < -2$  then  $|1+hJ| > 1$  and our method is numerically unstable.
- Equations for which  $J \ll -1$  are termed stiff.

# ODE Integration

- The interval of stability is given by:

$$-2 < hJ < 0$$

- If you have a stiff equation, your step size had better not be too large!
- For systems of equations, the Euler method will be stable if:

$$|1+h\lambda| < 1$$

for all eigenvalues. This is a bit more complex since  $\lambda$  may have an imaginary part. Thus the interval of stability is now a region. The method will be stable if all  $h\lambda$  lie within a circle of radius 1 centered about  $z=-1$  in the complex plane.

# ODE Integration

- How do we deal with stiff problems?
- We use implicit methods. The simplest is the Backward Euler Method.

$$y_{k+1}^{\text{BE}} = y_k + h_k f(t_{k+1}, y_{k+1})$$

(note implicit dependence)

- A method is called implicit if the equation for  $y_{k+1}$  depends on a function of  $y_{k+1}$ .
- Okay what does error propagation look like in this case? We determine it the same way...

# ODE Integration

- Rearranging we get:

$$y_{k+1}^{BE} - y(t_k+1) = (1/(1-hJ))(y_k - y(t_k)) + 0.5h^2 y''(\xi)$$

- In this case the amplification factor is less than 1 in magnitude for all  $J < 0$ , no matter how large  $h$  is!
- Thus, the interval of stability is:

$$hJ < 0$$

- Note that if  $J > 0$  the problem is still unstable.
- Implicit methods are very useful for stiff equations, but they do require the solution to a potentially nonlinear equation at every step!

# Runge-Kutta Integration

- Thus far we have looked at explicit and implicit methods where the local error is  $O(h^2 y'')$ . We can take larger step sizes if we use higher order algorithms.
- First, let's look at explicit methods.
- The most common higher order methods are the Runge-Kutta techniques.
- Recall that we have the Taylor series expansion...

# Runge-Kutta Integration

$$y(t_{k+1}) = y(t_k) + y'(t_k)h_k + 0.5h_k^2y''(t_k) + y'''(\xi)h_k^3/6$$

- Before in the Euler method we truncated after the linear term and had a local error which was  $O(h^2)$ .
- If we estimate  $y''$ , we can cause the local error to be  $O(h^3)$ ! How can we do this?
- One approach is the 2-stage Runge-Kutta technique.

# Runge-Kutta Integration

- Let:

$$K_1 = hf(t_n, y_n) \sim h y'(t_n)$$

$$K_2 = hf(t_n+h, y_n+K_1) \sim h y'(t_{n+1})$$

- Thus,  $(K_2 - K_1)/h^2 \sim y''(t_n)$

is an estimate of the second derivative.

Plugging this back into the Taylor series leads to the formula:

$$y(t_n+h) = y(t_n) + h y'(t_n) + 0.5h^2 y''(t_n) + O(h^3 y''')$$

# Runge-Kutta Integration

- So,  $y(t_{n+1}) = y_n + K_1 + 0.5(K_2 - K_1) + O(h^3 y''')$   
 $= y_n + 0.5(K_1 - K_2) + O(h^3 y''')$

  
2-stage R-K formula

(it's called 2-stage because there are 2  
function evaluations)

- The local error is  $O(h^3)$  the number of steps is  $n \sim (b-a)/h$ , thus this rule is second order.
- The Runge-Kutta rule is more accurate than the Euler method, but it is still explicit. It will run into trouble for very stiff equations.



# Runge-Kutta Integration

- Usually codes don't use 2-stage R-K rules, but rather 4-stage rules:

$$K_1 = h f(t_n, y_n)$$

$$K_2 = h f(t_n + 0.5h, y_n + 0.5K_1)$$

$$K_3 = h f(t_n + 0.5h, y_n + 0.5K_2)$$

$$K_4 = h f(t_n + h, y_n + K_3)$$

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + (1/6)(K_1 + 2K_2 + 2K_3 + K_4)$$

- The local error is  $O(h^5)$  and the overall rule is fourth order in the step size!

# Runge-Kutta Integration

- It is interesting to note that the R-K rules are not unique!
- In particular, Fehlberg came up with a 6-stage R-K technique which had an error that was 5<sup>th</sup> order and then shows that 4 of these could be recombined to get a 4<sup>th</sup> order rule.
- This is very useful because the difference between the two estimates gives an error estimate which can be used in adaptive step size control.
- This Fehlberg R-K technique is implemented in the Matlab routine “ode45.m”

**Q1: Which one of the three ODE problems is NONLINEAR?**

**A**

$$\frac{d^3 y}{dt^3} = \frac{dy}{dt} + xy^2,$$

**B**

$$e^t \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + 3 \frac{dy}{dt} + t^3 \sin t + ty = 0.$$

**C**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dt} &= 3y + z + 1, \\ \frac{dz}{dt} &= 4z + 3, \end{aligned}$$

**Q2: Which finite difference approx is called FORWARD difference?**

**A**

$$f'(x_i) \cong \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)}{h},$$

**B**

$$f'(x_i) \cong \frac{f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})}{h}.$$

**C**

$$f'(x_i) \cong \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_{i-1}))}{2h}.$$

**Q3: Which finite difference approx is EXPLICIT?**

**A**

$$f'(x_i) \cong \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)}{h},$$

**B**

$$f'(x_i) \cong \frac{f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1}))}{h}.$$

**C**

$$f'(x_i) \cong \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_{i-1}))}{2h}.$$

**Q4: Which finite difference approx is MOST ACCURATE?**

**A**

$$f'(x_i) \cong \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)}{h},$$

**B**

$$f'(x_i) \cong \frac{f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1}))}{h}.$$

**C**

$$f'(x_i) \cong \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_{i-1}))}{2h}.$$