

Numerical methods

Lectures 1 and 2: Explicit methods for numerically solving ODEs

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Solving ODEs numerically: first-order

Out in industry, most (non-trivial) ODEs are solved numerically. This is relatively easy to do provided the ODE is *nice* (said to be *non-stiff*).

Computers are inherently discrete devices (being digital), thus numerical solutions are *discrete approximations* to the actual solution.

- What does this actually mean?
- Have the solution at particular data points *not* continuously*

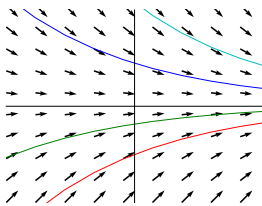
Solution will only be an *approximation*. Key question: how good is the approximation?

Simplest method of solving ODEs: *Euler's method*

- Also least accurate method available

General solutions and initial conditions

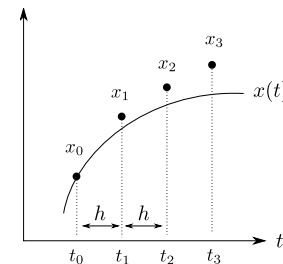
Consider $\frac{dx}{dt} = -x$ which has solutions $x = x_0 e^{-t}$. Analytically we find the general solution and use initial conditions to find the constants.



Numerically we must *begin* with an initial condition.

Numerical solutions are discrete

We represent the continuous solutions $x(t)$ using a discrete set of values x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots which are estimates of the true solution at discrete times t_1, t_2, \dots

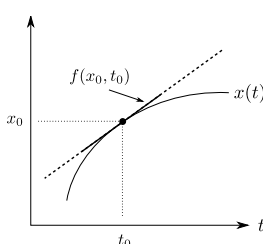


Hopefully x_n will be close to $x(t_n)$...

Initial value problem

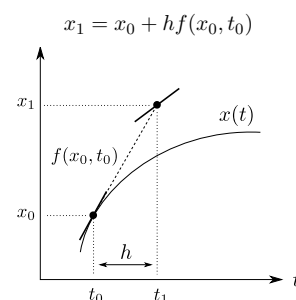
We want to solve

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, t), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$



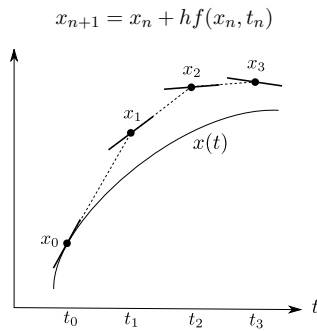
We have the first point (x_0, t_0) so how do we find x_1 ?

Euler's method in pictures



Assume the solution continues in a straight line with the same gradient that it must have at t_0 .

Euler's method in pictures



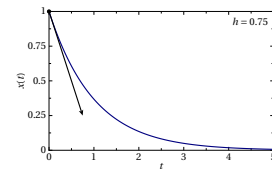
Solving ODEs numerically: first-order

Consider the general first-order ODE

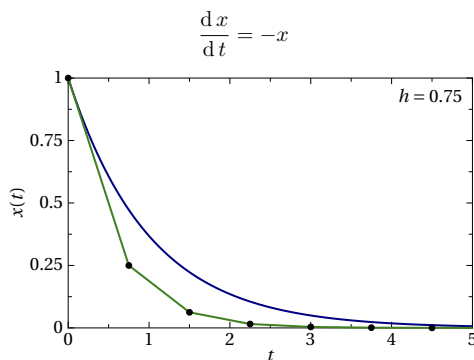
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, t)$$

Formally, we can write Euler's method as generating a *sequence* of data points $\{x_n\}$ such that

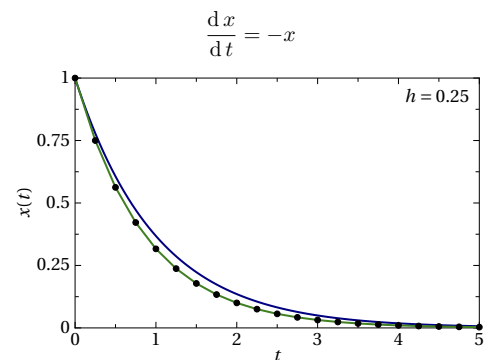
$$x_{n+1} = x_n + h \frac{dx}{dt} = x_n + hf(x_n, t_n)$$



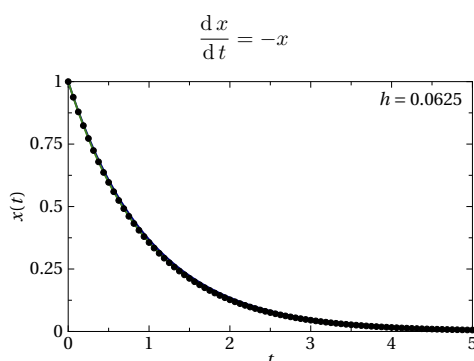
Solving ODEs numerically: first-order



Solving ODEs numerically: first-order



Solving ODEs numerically: first-order



Solving ODEs numerically: first-order

Euler's method

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + h \frac{dx}{dt} = x_n + hf(x_n, t_n)$$

Key idea

As $h \rightarrow 0$ the error between the *numerical approximation* and the *true solution* goes to zero.

Solving ODEs numerically: first-order

Example

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -x = f(x, t)$$

Starting from the point $x(0) = x_0 = 1$ with $h = 0.5$

$$x_1 = \underbrace{1}_{x_0} + \underbrace{0.5}_h \times f(\underbrace{1}_{x_0}, \underbrace{0}_{t_0}) = 1 - 0.5 = 0.5$$

$$x_2 = 0.5 + 0.5 \times f(0.5, 0.5) = 0.5 - 0.25 = 0.25$$

$$x_3 = 0.25 + 0.5 \times f(0.25, 1) = 0.25 - 0.125 = 0.125$$

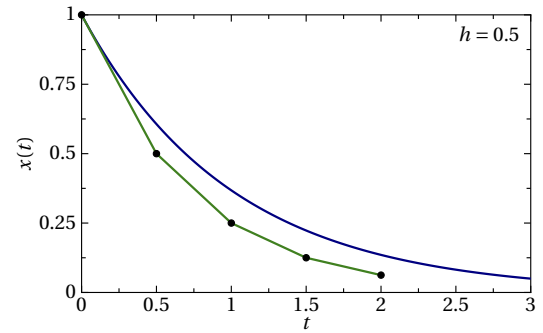
$$x_4 = 0.125 + 0.5 \times f(0.125, 1.5) = 0.125 - 0.0625 = 0.0625$$

Thus we have a *discrete approximation* of the solution to the ODE above

$$x \approx \{\{0, x_0\}, \{0.5, x_1\}, \{1, x_2\}, \{1.5, x_3\}, \{2, x_4\}\}$$

$$= \{\{0, 1\}, \{0.5, 0.5\}, \{1, 0.25\}, \{1.5, 0.125\}, \{2, 0.0625\}\}$$

Solving ODEs numerically: first-order



Solving ODEs numerically: higher-order

Euler's method also works for higher-order ODEs in *state-space form*!

$$\frac{d\vec{y}}{dt} = \vec{f}(\vec{y}, t) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + h\vec{f}(\vec{y}_n, t_n)$$

Example

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 0.1\frac{dx}{dt} + x = \sin(t) \quad \text{with} \quad x(0) = 1, \dot{x}(0) = 0$$

Rewrite in *state-space form*; $y_0 = x$ and $y_1 = \frac{dx}{dt}$

$$\frac{dy_0}{dt} = y_1$$

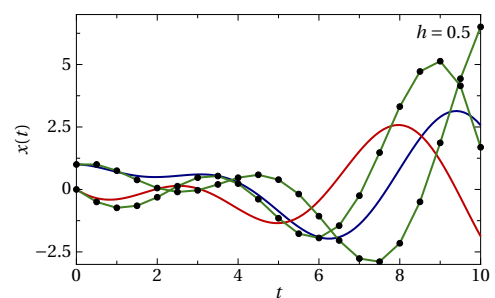
$$\frac{dy_1}{dt} = -0.1y_1 - y_0 + \sin(t)$$

Applying Euler's method yields

$$y_{0,n+1} = y_{0,n} + hy_{1,n}, \quad y_{1,n+1} = y_{1,n} + h(-0.1y_{1,n} - y_{0,n} + \sin(t_n))$$

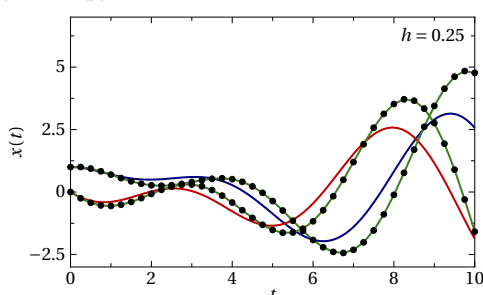
Solving ODEs numerically: higher-order

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 0.1\frac{dx}{dt} + x = \sin(t) \quad \text{with} \quad x(0) = 1, \dot{x}(0) = 0$$



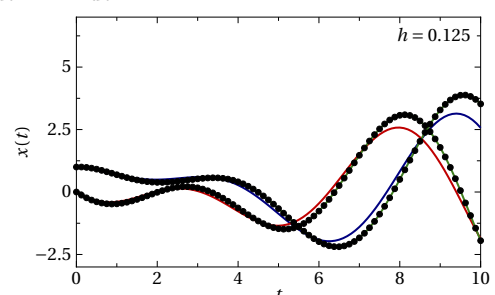
Solving ODEs numerically: higher-order

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 0.1\frac{dx}{dt} + x = \sin(t) \quad \text{with} \quad x(0) = 1, \dot{x}(0) = 0$$



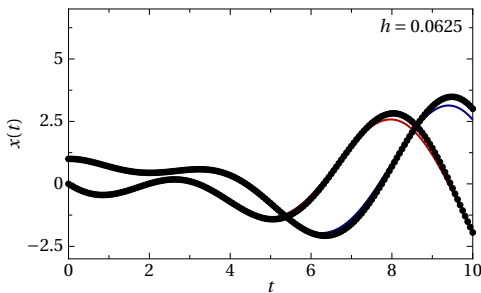
Solving ODEs numerically: higher-order

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 0.1\frac{dx}{dt} + x = \sin(t) \quad \text{with} \quad x(0) = 1, \dot{x}(0) = 0$$



Solving ODEs numerically: higher-order

$$\frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} + 0.1 \frac{dx}{dt} + x = \sin(t) \quad \text{with} \quad x(0) = 1, \dot{x}(0) = 0$$



Solving ODEs numerically: errors

A question you should *always* ask of any numerical method is “*how large are the errors?*” — there is always a difference between the *true solution* and the *approximate numerical solution*

“If you don’t care about the error, then the answer is 42”

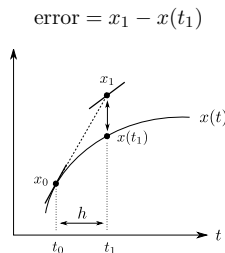
Generally it is difficult to give precise estimates without knowing the true solution...

Instead we use *asymptotic estimates*

- Try to capture the behaviour of the method as $h \rightarrow 0$
- Typically uses big-O notation

Local error

Local error:



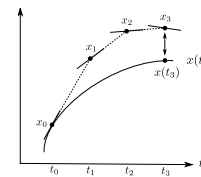
The error is the difference between our estimate and the true solution. The *local error* is the error after *one step*.

The error gets smaller as the stepsize h gets smaller.

Global error

Global error after n steps.

$$\text{error} = x_n - x(t_n)$$



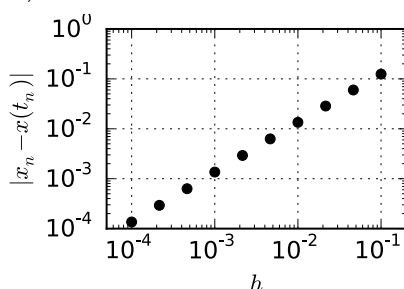
The global error after n steps is the difference between our estimate x_n and the true solution $x(t_n)$.

Hopefully the global error gets smaller when the local error gets smaller - but this is not always the case (e.g. for stiff problems).

Global error using Euler’s method to solve for $x(1)$ given

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = x, \quad x(0) = 1$$

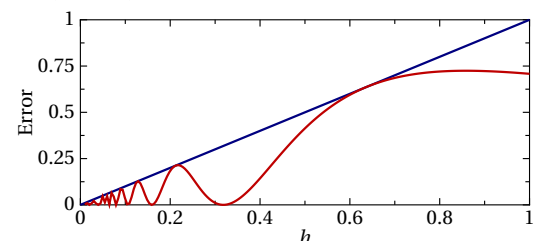
(True answer is e .)



Solving ODEs numerically: big-O notation

Big-O notation tells us how fast the error decays; generally the faster it decays the more accurate the method.

For Euler’s method the (global) error decays at a rate $O(h)$. This means that, at worst, it decays linearly.

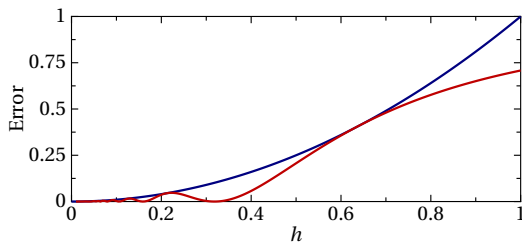


Roughly speaking, $O(h)$ error means that *halving* the step size h will *halve* the error

Solving ODEs numerically: big-O notation

Better numerical methods for solving ODEs have higher convergence rates for the error.

For example, the *explicit midpoint rule* for integrating ODEs is $O(h^2)$ accurate.



Roughly speaking, $O(h^2)$ error means that *halving* the step size h will *quarter* the error

Solving ODEs numerically: high-order explicit methods

We can carry on to generate higher-order explicit methods in a similar manner.

The most common one is *Runge-Kutta*

$$\begin{aligned} k_1 &= hf(x_n, t_n) \\ k_2 &= hf(x_n + k_1/2, t_n + h/2) \\ k_3 &= hf(x_n + k_2/2, t_n + h/2) \\ k_4 &= hf(x_n + k_3, t_n + h) \\ x_{n+1} &= x_n + \frac{1}{6}(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4) \end{aligned}$$

which is $O(h^4)$ accurate. This method is the one you should try first!

Solving ODEs numerically: big-O notation

Formally, if we have a function f which represents the error,

$$f(h) = O(g(h)) \quad \text{as } h \rightarrow 0$$

if and only if there exists a constant M such that

$$|f(h)| \leq M|g(h)| \quad \text{for all } h < \delta$$

for any (arbitrary) choice of δ .

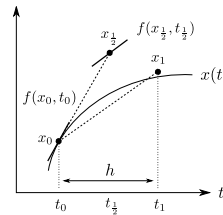
The function g can be any function which tends to zero as $h \rightarrow 0$:

- ✗ $g(h) = h$ — Euler's method
- ✗ $g(h) = h^2$ — Trapezium rule
- ✗ $g(h) = h^4$ — Runge-Kutta

Most of the time we use *Runge-Kutta*!

Explicit midpoint method

$$x_{n+\frac{1}{2}} = x_n + f(x_n, t_n) \frac{h}{2}, \quad x_{n+1} = x_n + f(x_{n+\frac{1}{2}}, t_{n+\frac{1}{2}})h$$

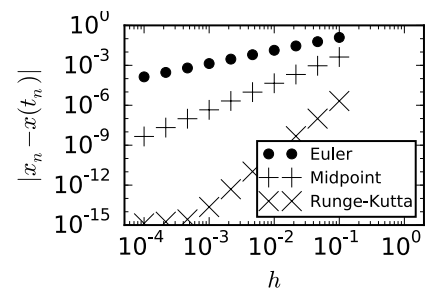


Estimate the midpoint (using a half-size Euler step) and then calculate the gradient $f(x_{n+\frac{1}{2}}, t_{n+\frac{1}{2}})$ at the midpoint and use that to step from x_n to x_{n+1} .

Global error using different methods to solve for $x(1)$ given

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = x, \quad x(0) = 1$$

(True answer is e .)



Solving ODEs numerically: error analysis

Euler's method is written as

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + h \frac{dx}{dt}$$

We can calculate the error by comparing this with an exact expression for $x(t+h)$; we get an exact expression from a Taylor series

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + h \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{h^2}{2!} \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \frac{h^3}{3!} \frac{d^3x}{dt^3} + O(h^4)$$

The error at each step is the difference between these two expressions; thus the error is

$$\text{error at each step} = \frac{h^2}{2!} \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \frac{h^3}{3!} \frac{d^3x}{dt^3} + O(h^4)$$

As h gets *smaller*, the largest term will be the quadratic term h^2 , thus the error at each step decays $O(h^2)$.

Solving ODEs numerically: error analysis

The error rate that is typically quoted is the *global error*, which is the total error in getting to a particular point in time.

To find the *global error*, consider integrating the equations until $t = T$.

With a step size of h , it takes T/h steps to get to time $t = T$. If the error in each step is $O(h^2)$ after T/h steps the error will be $O(h)$.

Thus, the *global error* for Euler's method is $O(h)$.