Lecture 4: Numerical solution of ordinary differential equations

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- General explicit one-step method:
 - Consistency;
 - Stability;
 - Convergence.
- High-order methods:
 - Taylor methods;
 - Integral equation method;
 - Runge-Kutta methods.
- Multi-step methods.

- Stiff equations and systems.
- Perturbation theories for differential equations:
 - Regular perturbation theory;
 - Singular perturbation theory.

- Consistency, stability and convergence
- Consider

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t} = f(t,x), & t \in [0,T], \\ x(0) = x_0, & x_0 \in \mathbb{R}. \end{cases}$$

- $f \in C^0([0, t] \times \mathbb{R})$: Lipschitz condition.
- Start at the initial time t = 0;
- Introduce successive discretization points

$$t_0 = 0 < t_1 < t_2 < \dots$$

continuing on until we reach the final time T.

• Uniform step size:

$$\Delta t := t_{k+1} - t_k > 0.$$

does not dependent on k and assumed to be relatively small, with $t_k = k\Delta t$.

• Suppose that $K = T/(\Delta t)$: an integer.

• General explicit one-step method:

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \Delta t \, \Phi(t_k, x^k, \Delta t),$$

for some continuous function $\Phi(t, x, h)$.

- Taking in succession k = 0, 1, ..., K − 1, one-step at a time ⇒ the approximate values x^k of x at t_k: obtained.
- Explicit scheme: x^{k+1} obtained from x^k ; x^{k+1} appears only on the left-hand side.

• Truncation error of the numerical scheme:

$$\mathcal{T}_k(\Delta t) = rac{\mathsf{x}(t_{k+1}) - \mathsf{x}(t_k)}{\Delta t} - \Phi(t_k, \mathsf{x}(t_k), \Delta t).$$

• As $\Delta t \to 0$, $k \to +\infty$, $k\Delta t = t$,

$$T_k(\Delta t) o rac{dx}{dt} - \Phi(t, x, 0).$$

- DEFINITION: Consistency
 - Numerical scheme consistent with the ODE if

$$\Phi(t,x,0) = f(t,x)$$
 for all $t \in [0,T]$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

- DEFINITION: Stability
 - Numerical scheme stable if Φ : Lipschitz continuous in x, i.e., there exist positive constants C_{Φ} and h_0 s.t.

$$|\Phi(t,x,h) - \Phi(t,y,h)| \le C_{\Phi}|x-y|, \ t \in [0,T], h \in [0,h_0], x,y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

• Global error of the numerical scheme:

$$e_k = x^k - x(t_k).$$

- DEFINITION: Convergence
 - Numerical scheme: convergent if

$$|e_k| \to 0$$
 as $\Delta t \to 0$, $k \to +\infty$, $k\Delta t = t \in [0, T]$.



- THEOREM: Dahlquist-Lax equivalence theorem
 - Numerical scheme: convergent iff consistent and stable.

PROOF:

•

$$x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k) = \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} f(s, x(s)) ds;$$

• =

$$x(t_{k+1})-x(t_k)=(\Delta t)f(t_k,x(t_k))+\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}}\left[f(s,x(s))-f(t_k,x(t_k))\right]ds.$$

$$egin{aligned} \left| x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k) - (\Delta t) f(t_k, x(t_k))
ight| \ &= \left| \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \left[f(s, x(s)) - f(t_k, x(t_k)) \right] \, ds
ight| \leq (\Delta t) \, \omega_1(\Delta t). \end{aligned}$$

• $\omega_1(\Delta t)$:

$$\omega_1(\Delta t) := \sup\big\{|f(t,x(t)) - f(s,x(s))|, 0 \le s, t \le T, |t-s| \le \Delta t\big\}.$$

- $\omega_1(\Delta t) \to 0$ as $\Delta t \to 0$.
- If f: Lipschitz in t, then $\omega_1(\Delta t) = O(\Delta t)$.

From

$$e_{k+1} - e_k = x^{k+1} - x^k - (x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k)),$$

• ⇒

$$e_{k+1} - e_k = \Delta t \Phi(t_k, x^k, \Delta t) - (x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k)).$$

• Or equivalently,

$$e_{k+1} - e_k = \Delta t \left[\Phi(t_k, x^k, \Delta t) - f(t_k, x(t_k)) \right] - \left[x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k) - \Delta t f(t_k, x(t_k)) \right].$$

Write

$$e_{k+1} - e_k = \Delta t \left[\Phi(t_k, x^k, \Delta t) - \Phi(t_k, x(t_k), \Delta t) + \Phi(t_k, x(t_k), \Delta t) - f(t_k, x(t_k)) \right] - \left[x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k) - \Delta t f(t_k, x(t_k)) \right].$$

• Let

$$\omega_2(\Delta t) := \sup\big\{|\Phi(t,x,h) - f(t,x)|, t \in [0,T], x \in \mathbb{R}, 0 < h \le (\Delta t)\big\}.$$

Consistency ⇒

$$\left|\Phi(t_k,x(t_k),\Delta t)-f(t_k,x(t_k))
ight|\leq \omega_2(\Delta t) o 0 ext{ as } \Delta t o 0.$$

Stability condition ⇒

$$\left|\Phi(t_k,x^k,\Delta t)-\Phi(t_k,x(t_k),\Delta t)
ight|\leq C_{\Phi}|e_k|.$$

- $\Rightarrow |e_{k+1}| \leq (1 + C_{\Phi} \Delta t) |e_k| + \Delta t \omega_3(\Delta t), \quad 0 \leq k \leq K 1;$
- $K = T/(\Delta t)$ and $\omega_3(\Delta t) := \omega_1(\Delta t) + \omega_2(\Delta t) \to 0$ as $\Delta t \to 0$.

• By induction,

$$|e_{k+1}| \leq (1+C_{\Phi}\Delta t)^k |e_0| + (\Delta t) \omega_3(\Delta t) \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} (1+C_{\Phi}\Delta t)^l, \quad 0 \leq k \leq K.$$

•

$$\sum_{l=0}^{k-1} (1+C_{\Phi}\Delta t)^l = rac{(1+C_{\Phi}\Delta t)^k-1}{C_{\Phi}\Delta t},$$

and

$$(1+C_{\Phi}\Delta t)^{\kappa}\leq (1+C_{\Phi}\frac{T}{\kappa})^{\kappa}\leq e^{C_{\Phi}T}.$$

• ⇒

$$|e_k| \leq e^{C_{\Phi}T}|e_0| + \frac{e^{C_{\Phi}T}-1}{C_{\Phi}}\omega_3(\Delta t).$$

• If $e_0=0$, then as $\Delta t \to 0, k \to +\infty$ s.t. $k\Delta t=t \in [0,T]$

$$\lim_{k\to+\infty} |e_k| = 0.$$

DEFINITION:

 An explicit one-step method: order p if there exist positive constants h₀ and C s.t.

$$|T_k(\Delta t)| \leq C(\Delta t)^p$$
, $0 < \Delta t \leq h_0, k = 0, \ldots, K-1$;

 $T_k(\Delta t)$: truncation error.

- If the explicit one-step method: stable ⇒ global error: bounded by the truncation error.
- PROPOSITION:
 - Consider the explicit one-step scheme with Φ satisfying the stability condition.
 - Suppose that $e_0 = 0$.
 - Then

$$|e_{k+1}| \leq \frac{\left(e^{C_{\Phi}T}-1\right)}{C_{\Phi}} \max_{0 \leq l \leq k} |T_l(\Delta t)| \quad \text{for } k=0,\ldots,K-1;$$

• T_I : truncation error and e_k : global error.

PROOF:

•

$$e_{k+1}-e_k = -(\Delta t)T_k(\Delta t)+(\Delta t)\left[\Phi(t_k,x^k,\Delta t)-\Phi(t_k,x(t_k),\Delta t)\right].$$

 $\bullet \Rightarrow$

$$|e_{k+1}| \leq (1 + C_{\Phi}(\Delta t))|e_k| + (\Delta t)|T_k(\Delta t)|$$

$$\leq (1 + C_{\Phi}(\Delta t))|e_k| + (\Delta t) \max_{0 \leq l \leq k} |T_l(\Delta t)|.$$

- Explicit Euler's method
 - $\Phi(t,x,h) = f(t,x)$.
 - Explicit Euler scheme:

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + (\Delta t)f(t, x^k).$$

• THEOREM:

- Suppose that *f* satisfies the Lipschitz condition;
- Suppose that *f*: Lipschitz with respect to *t*.
- Then the explicit Euler scheme: convergent and the global error e_k : of order Δt .
- If $f \in \mathcal{C}^1$, then the scheme: of order one.

PROOF:

- f satisfies the Lipschitz condition \Rightarrow numerical scheme with $\Phi(t,x,h) = f(t,x)$: stable.
- $\Phi(t,x,0) = f(t,x)$ for all $t \in [0,T]$ and $x \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow$ numerical scheme: consistent.
- ⇒ convergence.
- f: Lipschitz in $t \Rightarrow \omega_1(\Delta t) = O(\Delta t)$.
- $\omega_2(\Delta t) = 0 \Rightarrow \omega_3(\Delta t) = O(\Delta t)$.
- $\Rightarrow |e_k| = O(\Delta t)$ for $1 \le k \le K$.

- $f \in \mathcal{C}^1 \Rightarrow x \in \mathcal{C}^2$.
- Mean-value theorem ⇒

$$\begin{split} & \mathcal{T}_k(\Delta t) = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \bigg(x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k) \bigg) - f(t_k, x(t_k)) \\ & = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \bigg(x(t_k) + (\Delta t) \frac{dx}{dt}(t_k) + \frac{(\Delta t)^2}{2} \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}(\tau) - x(t_k) \bigg) - f(t_k, x(t_k)) \\ & = \frac{\Delta t}{2} \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}(\tau), \end{split}$$

for some $\tau \in [t_k, t_{k+1}]$.

• ⇒ Scheme: first order.

• High-order methods:

- In general, the order of a numerical solution method governs both the accuracy of its approximations and the speed of convergence to the true solution as the step size Δt → 0.
- Explicit Euler method: only a first order scheme;
- Devise simple numerical methods that enjoy a higher order of accuracy.
- The higher the order, the more accurate the numerical scheme, and hence the larger the step size that can be used to produce the solution to a desired accuracy.
- However, this should be balanced with the fact that higher order methods inevitably require more computational effort at each step.

- High-order methods:
 - · Taylor methods;
 - Integral equation method;
 - Runge-Kutta methods.

- Taylor methods
- Explicit Euler scheme: based on a first order Taylor approximation to the solution.
- Taylor expansion of the solution x(t) at the discretization points t_{k+1} :

$$x(t_{k+1}) = x(t_k) + (\Delta t) \frac{dx}{dt}(t_k) + \frac{(\Delta t)^2}{2} \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}(t_k) + \frac{(\Delta t)^3}{6} \frac{d^3x}{dt^3}(t_k) + \dots$$

• Evaluate the first derivative term by using the differential equation

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

 Second derivative can be found by differentiating the equation with respect to t:

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = \frac{d}{dt}f(t,x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t,x) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(t,x)\frac{dx}{dt}.$$

• Second order Taylor method

(*)
$$x^{k+1} = x^k + (\Delta t)f(t_k, x^k) + \frac{(\Delta t)^2}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t_k, x^k) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(t_k, x^k)f(t_k, x^k) \right).$$

- Proposition:
 - Suppose that $f \in C^2$.
 - Then (*): of second order.

• Proof:

- $f \in \mathcal{C}^2 \Rightarrow x \in \mathcal{C}^3$.
- \Rightarrow truncation error T_k given by

$$T_k(\Delta t) = \frac{(\Delta t)^2}{6} \frac{d^3 x}{dt^3} (\tau),$$

for some $\tau \in [t_k, t_{k+1}]$ and so, (*): of second order.

- Drawbacks of higher order Taylor methods:
 - (i) Owing to their dependence upon the partial derivatives of *f*, *f* needs to be smooth;
 - (ii) Efficient evaluation of the terms in the Taylor approximation and avoidance of round off errors.

- Integral equation method
- Avoid the complications inherent in a direct Taylor expansion.
- x(t) coincides with the solution to the **integral equation**

$$x(t) = x_0 + \int_0^t f(s, x(s)) ds, \quad t \in [0, T].$$

Starting at the discretization point t_k instead of 0, and integrating until time $t=t_{k+1}$ gives

(**)
$$x(t_{k+1}) = x(t_k) + \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} f(s, x(s)) ds.$$

 Implicitly computes the value of the solution at the subsequent discretization point.

Compare formula (**) with the explicit Euler method

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + (\Delta t) f(t_k, x^k).$$

ullet \Rightarrow Approximation of the integral by

$$\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} f(s, x(s)) ds \approx (\Delta t) f(t_k, x(t_k)).$$

• Left endpoint rule for numerical integration.

• Left endpoint rule for numerical integration:

- Left endpoint rule: not an especially accurate method of numerical integration.
- Better methods include the Trapezoid rule:

- Numerical integration formulas for continuous functions.
 - (i) Trapezoidal rule:

$$\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} g(s) ds \approx \frac{\Delta t}{2} \bigg(g(t_{k+1}) + g(t_k) \bigg);$$

(ii) Simpson's rule:

$$\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} g(s) ds \approx \frac{\Delta t}{6} \left(g(t_{k+1}) + 4g(\frac{t_k + t_{k+1}}{2}) + g(t_k) \right);$$

(iii) Trapezoidal rule: **exact for polynomials of order one**; Simpson's rule: **exact for polynomials of second order**.

• Use the more accurate Trapezoidal approximation

$$\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} f(s,x(s)) ds \approx \frac{(\Delta t)}{2} \left[f(t_k,x(t_k)) + f(t_{k+1},x(t_{k+1})) \right].$$

• Trapezoidal scheme:

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \frac{(\Delta t)}{2} \left[f(t_k, x^k) + f(t_{k+1}, x^{k+1}) \right].$$

Trapezoidal scheme: implicit numerical method.

- Proposition:
 - Suppose that $f \in \mathcal{C}^2$ and

$$(***) \quad \frac{(\Delta t)C_f}{2} < 1;$$

 C_f : Lipschitz constant for f in x.

• Trapezoidal scheme: convergent and of second order.

- Proof:
 - Consistency:

$$\Phi(t,x,\Delta t) := \frac{1}{2} \left[f(t,x) + f(t+\Delta t, x+(\Delta t)\Phi(t,x,\Delta t)) \right].$$

• $\Delta t = 0$.

• Stability:

•

$$ig|\Phi(t,x,\Delta t) - \Phi(t,y,\Delta t)ig| \le C_f|x-y|$$

 $+ rac{\Delta t}{2}C_f|\Phi(t,x,\Delta t) - \Phi(t,y,\Delta t)ig|.$

⇒

$$\left(1-\frac{(\Delta t)C_f}{2}\right)\left|\Phi(t,x,\Delta t)-\Phi(t,y,\Delta t)\right|\leq C_f|x-y|.$$

• ⇒ Stability holds with

$$C_{\Phi} = \frac{C_f}{1 - \frac{(\Delta t)C_f}{2}},$$

provided that Δt satisfies (* * *).

- Second order scheme:
 - By the mean-value theorem,

$$T_{k}(\Delta t) = \frac{x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_{k})}{\Delta t}$$
$$-\frac{1}{2} \left[f(t_{k}, x(t_{k})) + f(t_{k+1}, x(t_{k+1})) \right]$$
$$= -\frac{1}{12} (\Delta t)^{2} \frac{d^{3}x}{dt^{3}} (\tau),$$

for some $\tau \in [t_k, t_{k+1}] \Rightarrow$ second order scheme, provided that $f \in \mathcal{C}^2$ (and consequently $x \in \mathcal{C}^3$).

- An alternative scheme: replace x^{k+1} by $x^k + (\Delta t)f(t_k, x^k)$.
- ⇒ Improved Euler scheme:

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \frac{(\Delta t)}{2} \left[f(t_k, x^k) + f(t_{k+1}, \mathbf{x}^k + (\Delta t) f(\mathbf{t}_k, \mathbf{x}^k)) \right].$$

- Proposition: Improved Euler scheme: convergent and of second order.
- Improved Euler scheme: performs comparably to the Trapezoidal scheme, and significantly better than the Euler scheme.
- Alternative numerical approximations to the integral equation ⇒ a range of numerical solution schemes.

• Midpoint rule:

$$\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} f(s, x(s)) ds \approx (\Delta t) f(t_k + \frac{\Delta t}{2}, x(t_k + \frac{\Delta t}{2})).$$

- Midpoint rule: same order of accuracy as the trapezoid rule.
- Midpoint scheme: approximate $x(t_k + \frac{\Delta t}{2})$ by $x^k + \frac{\Delta t}{2}f(t_k, x^k)$,

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + (\Delta t)f(t_k + \frac{\Delta t}{2}, x^k + \frac{\Delta t}{2}f(t_k, x^k)).$$

• Midpoint scheme: of second order.

- Example of linear systems
- Consider the linear system of ODEs

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{dt} = Ax(t), & t \in [0, +\infty[, \\ x(0) = x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d. \end{cases}$$

- $A \in \mathbb{M}_d(\mathbb{C})$: independent of t.
- DEFINITION:
 - A one-step numerical scheme for solving the linear system of ODEs: stable if there exists a positive constant C₀ s.t.

$$|x^{k+1}| \le C_0|x^0|$$
 for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

- Consider the following schemes:
 - (i) Explicit Euler's scheme:

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + (\Delta t)Ax^k;$$

(ii) Implicit Euler's scheme:

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + (\Delta t)Ax^{k+1};$$

(iii) Trapezoidal scheme:

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \frac{(\Delta t)}{2} \left[Ax^k + Ax^{k+1} \right],$$

with $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and $x^0 = x_0$.

• Proposition:

Suppose that $\Re \lambda_j < 0$ for all j. The following results hold:

- (i) Explicit Euler scheme: stable for Δt small enough;
- (ii) Implicit Euler scheme: unconditionally stable;
- (iii) Trapezoidal scheme: unconditionally stable.

• Proof:

• Consider the explicit Euler scheme. By a change of basis,

$$\widetilde{x}^{k+1} = (I + \Delta t(D + N))^k \widetilde{x}^0,$$

where $\tilde{x}^k = Cx^k$.

• If $\widetilde{x}^0 \in E_i$, then

$$\widetilde{x}^k = \sum_{l=0}^{\min\{k,d\}} C_k^l (1 + \Delta t \lambda_j)^{k-l} (\Delta t)^l N^l \widetilde{x}^0,$$

 C_{k}^{I} : binomial coefficient.

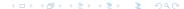
- If $|1 + (\Delta t)\lambda_i| < 1$, then \widetilde{x}^k : bounded.
- If $|1 + (\Delta t)\lambda_j| > 1$, then one can find \widetilde{x}^0 s.t. $|\widetilde{x}^k| \to +\infty$ (exponentially) as $k \to +\infty$.
- If $|1 + (\Delta t)\lambda_j| = 1$ and $N \neq 0$, then for all \widetilde{x}^0 s.t. $N\widetilde{x}^0 \neq 0$, $N^2\widetilde{x}^0 = 0$, $\widetilde{x}^k = (1 + (\Delta t)\lambda_i)^k\widetilde{x}^0 + (1 + (\Delta t)\lambda_i)^{k-1}k\Delta tN\widetilde{x}^0$

goes to infinity as
$$k \to +\infty$$
.

• Stability condition $|1+(\Delta t)\lambda_i|<1$ \Leftrightarrow

$$\Delta t < -2 \frac{\Re \lambda_j}{|\lambda_j|^2},$$

holds for Δt small enough.



Implicit Euler scheme:

$$\widetilde{x}^{k+1} = (I - \Delta t(D+N))^{-k}\widetilde{x}^{0}.$$

- All the eigenvalues of the matrix $(I \Delta t(D + N))^{-1}$: of modulus strictly smaller than 1.
- • Implicit Euler scheme: unconditionally stable.
- Trapezoidal scheme:

$$\widetilde{x}^{k+1} = (I - \frac{(\Delta t)}{2}(D+N))^{-k}(I + \frac{(\Delta t)}{2}(D+N))^k \widetilde{x}^0.$$

• Stability condition:

$$|1+rac{(\Delta t)}{2}\lambda_j|<|1-rac{(\Delta t)}{2}\lambda_j|,$$

holds for all $\Delta t > 0$ since $\Re \lambda_i < 0$.



 REMARK: Explicit and implicit Euler schemes: of order one; Trapezoidal scheme: of order two.

• Runge-Kutta methods:

- By far the most popular and powerful general-purpose numerical methods for integrating ODEs.
- Idea behind: evaluate f at carefully chosen values of its arguments, t and x, in order to create an accurate approximation (as accurate as a higher-order Taylor expansion) of $x(t + \Delta t)$ without evaluating derivatives of f.

- Runge-Kutta schemes: derived by matching multivariable Taylor series expansions of f(t,x) with the Taylor series expansion of $x(t+\Delta t)$.
- To find the right values of t and x at which to evaluate f:
 - Take a Taylor expansion of f evaluated at these (unknown) values:
 - Match the resulting numerical scheme to a Taylor series expansion of $x(t + \Delta t)$ around t.

- Generalization of Taylor's theorem to functions of two variables: THEOREM:
 - $f(t,x) \in C^{n+1}([0,T] \times \mathbb{R})$. Let $(t_0,x_0) \in [0,T] \times \mathbb{R}$.
 - There exist $t_0 \le \tau \le t$, $x_0 \le \xi \le x$, s.t.

$$f(t,x) = P_n(t,x) + R_n(t,x),$$

- $P_n(t,x)$: nth Taylor polynomial of f around (t_0,x_0) ;
- $R_n(t,x)$: remainder term associated with $P_n(t,x)$.

•

$$P_{n}(t,x) = f(t_{0},x_{0}) + \left[(t-t_{0}) \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t_{0},x_{0}) + (x-x_{0}) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(t_{0},x_{0}) \right]$$

$$+ \left[\frac{(t-t_{0})^{2}}{2} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial t^{2}}(t_{0},x_{0}) + (t-t_{0})(x-x_{0}) \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial t \partial x}(t_{0},x_{0}) \right]$$

$$+ \frac{(x-x_{0})^{2}}{2} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x^{2}}(t_{0},x_{0})$$

$$\dots + \left[\frac{1}{n!} \sum_{i=0}^{n} C_{j}^{n}(t-t_{0})^{n-j}(x-x_{0})^{j} \frac{\partial^{n} f}{\partial t^{n-j}\partial x^{j}}(t_{0},x_{0}) \right];$$

•

$$R_n(t,x) = \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} C_j^{n+1} (t-t_0)^{n+1-j} (x-x_0)^j \frac{\partial^{n+1} f}{\partial t^{n+1-j} \partial x^j} (\tau,\xi).$$

- Illustration: obtain a second-order accurate method (truncation error O((Δt)²)).
- Match

$$x + \Delta t f(t,x) + \frac{(\Delta t)^2}{2} \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t,x) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(t,x) f(t,x) \right] + \frac{(\Delta t)^3}{6} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} [f(\tau,x)]$$

to

$$x + (\Delta t)f(t + \alpha_1, x + \beta_1),$$

 $\tau \in [t, t + \Delta t]$ and α_1 and β_1 : to be found.

Match

$$f(t,x) + \frac{(\Delta t)}{2} \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t,x) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(t,x) f(t,x) \right] + \frac{(\Delta t)^2}{6} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} [f(t,x)]$$

with $f(t + \alpha_1, x + \beta_1)$ at least up to terms of the order of $O(\Delta t)$.



• Multivariable version of Taylor's theorem to f,

$$\begin{split} f(t+\alpha_1,x+\beta_1) &= f(t,x) + \alpha_1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t,x) + \beta_1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(t,x) + \frac{\alpha_1^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2}(\tau,\xi) \\ &+ \alpha_1 \beta_1 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t \partial x}(\tau,\xi) + \frac{\beta_1^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(\tau,\xi), \\ t &\leq \tau \leq t + \alpha_1 \text{ and } x \leq \xi \leq x + \beta_1. \end{split}$$

• ⇒

$$\alpha_1 = \frac{\Delta t}{2}$$
 and $\beta_1 = \frac{\Delta t}{2} f(t, x)$.

- Resulting numerical scheme: explicit midpoint method: the simplest example of a Runge-Kutta method of second order.
- Improved Euler method: also another often-used Runge-Kutta method.

General Runge-Kutta method:

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \Delta t \sum_{i=1}^m c_i f(t_{i,k}, x_{i,k}),$$

m: number of terms in the method.

- Each $t_{i,k}$ denotes a point in $[t_k, t_{k+1}]$.
- Second argument $x_{i,k} \approx x(t_{i,k})$ can be viewed as an approximation to the solution at the point $t_{i,k}$.
- To construct an *n*th order Runge-Kutta method, we need to take at least $m \ge n$ terms.

 Best-known Runge-Kutta method: fourth-order Runge-Kutta method, which uses four evaluations of f during each step.

$$\begin{cases} \kappa_1 := f(t_k, x^k), \\ \kappa_2 := f(t_k + \frac{\Delta t}{2}, x^k + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \kappa_1), \\ \kappa_3 := f(t_k + \frac{\Delta t}{2}, x^k + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \kappa_2), \\ \kappa_4 := f(t_{k+1}, x^k + \Delta t \kappa_3), \\ x^{k+1} = x^k + \frac{(\Delta t)}{6} (\kappa_1 + 2\kappa_2 + 2\kappa_3 + \kappa_4). \end{cases}$$

• Values of f at the midpoint in time: given four times as much weight as values at the endpoints t_k and t_{k+1} (similar to Simpson's rule from numerical integration).

- Construction of Runge-Kutta methods:
 - Construct Runge-Kutta methods by generalizing collocation methods.
 - Discuss their consistency, stability, and order.

- Collocation methods:
- \mathcal{P}_m : space of real polynomials of degree $\leq m$.
- Interpolating polynomial:
 - Given a set of m distinct quadrature points $c_1 < c_2 < \ldots < c_m$ in \mathbb{R} , and corresponding data g_1, \ldots, g_m ;
 - There exists a unique polynomial, $P(t) \in \mathcal{P}_{m-1}$ s.t.

$$P(c_i)=g_i, i=1,\ldots,m.$$

- DEFINITION:
 - Define the *i*th Lagrange interpolating polynomial $l_i(t)$, i = 1, ..., m, for the set of quadrature points $\{c_j\}$ by

$$I_i(t) := \prod_{j \neq i, j=1}^m \frac{t - c_j}{c_i - c_j}.$$

- Set of Lagrange interpolating polynomials: form a basis of \mathcal{P}_{m-1} ;
- Interpolating polynomial P corresponding to the data $\{g_j\}$ given by

$$P(t) := \sum_{i=1}^m g_i I_i(t).$$

- Consider a smooth function g on [0, 1].
- Approximate the integral of g on [0,1] by exactly integrating the Lagrange interpolating polynomial of order m-1 based on m quadrature points $0 \le c_1 < c_2 < \ldots < c_m \le 1$.
- Data: values of g at the quadrature points $g_i = g(c_i)$, i = 1, ..., m.

• Define the weights

$$b_i = \int_0^1 I_i(s) \, ds.$$

• Quadrature formula:

$$\int_0^1 g(s) \, ds \approx \int_0^1 \sum_{i=1}^m g_i l_i(s) \, ds = \sum_{i=1}^m b_i g(c_i).$$

- f: smooth function on [0, T]; t_k = kΔt for k = 0,..., K = T/(Δt): discretization points in [0, T].
- $\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} f(s) ds$ can be approximated by

$$\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} f(s) ds = (\Delta t) \int_0^1 f(t_k + \Delta t \tau) d\tau \approx (\Delta t) \sum_{i=1}^m b_i f(t_k + (\Delta t) c_i).$$

• x: polynomial of degree m satisfying

$$\begin{cases} x(0) = x_0, \\ \frac{dx}{dt}(c_i \Delta t) = F_i, \end{cases}$$

 $F_i \in \mathbb{R}, i = 1, \ldots, m$.

Lagrange interpolation formula ⇒ for t in the first time-step interval [0, ∆t],

$$\frac{dx}{dt}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} F_i I_i(\frac{t}{\Delta t}).$$

• Integrating over the intervals $[0, c_i \Delta t] \Rightarrow$

$$x(c_i \Delta t) = x_0 + (\Delta t) \sum_{j=1}^m F_j \int_0^{c_i} I_j(s) ds = x_0 + (\Delta t) \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} F_j,$$

for $i = 1, \ldots, m$, with

$$a_{ij}:=\int_0^{c_i}l_j(s)\,ds.$$

• Integrating over $[0, \Delta t] \Rightarrow$

$$x(\Delta t) = x_0 + (\Delta t) \sum_{i=1}^m F_i \int_0^1 l_i(s) ds = x_0 + (\Delta t) \sum_{i=1}^m b_i F_i.$$

• Writing $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x(t))$, on the first time step interval $[0, \Delta t]$,

$$\left\{egin{aligned} F_i = f(x_0 + (\Delta t) \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} F_j), & i = 1, \ldots, m, \ & x(\Delta t) = x_0 + (\Delta t) \sum_{i=1}^m b_i F_i. \end{aligned}
ight.$$

• Similarly, we have on $[t_k, t_{k+1}]$

$$\left\{egin{aligned} F_{i,k} &= f(\mathsf{x}(t_k) + (\Delta t) \sum_{j=1}^m \mathsf{a}_{ij} \mathsf{F}_{j,k}), \quad i = 1, \ldots, m, \ & \mathsf{x}(t_{k+1}) = \mathsf{x}(t_k) + (\Delta t) \sum_{i=1}^m b_i \mathsf{F}_{i,k}. \end{aligned}
ight.$$

• In the **collocation method**: one first solves the coupled nonlinear system to obtain $F_{i,k}$, i = 1, ..., m, and then computes $x(t_{k+1})$ from $x(t_k)$.

• REMARK:

•

$$t^{l-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} c_i^{l-1} l_i(t), \quad t \in [0,1], l = 1, \ldots, m,$$

• **⇒**

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i c_i^{l-1} = \frac{1}{l}, \quad l = 1, \dots, m,$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{ij} c_{j}^{l-1} = \frac{c_{i}^{l}}{l}, \quad i, l = 1, \dots, m.$$

- Runge-Kutta methods as generalized collocation methods
 - In the collocation method, the coefficients b_i and a_{ij}: defined by certain integrals of the Lagrange interpolating polynomials associated with a chosen set of quadrature nodes c_i, i = 1,..., m.
 - Natural generalization of collocation methods: obtained by allowing the coefficients c_i, b_i, and a_{ij} to take arbitrary values, not necessary related to quadrature formulas.

- No longer assume the c_i to be distinct.
- However, assume that

$$c_i = \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m.$$

 ◆ Class of Runge-Kutta methods for solving the ODE,

$$\begin{cases} F_{i,k} = f(t_{i,k}, x^k + (\Delta t) \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} F_{j,k}), \\ x^{k+1} = x^k + (\Delta t) \sum_{i=1}^m b_i F_{i,k}, \end{cases}$$

 $t_{i,k} = t_k + c_i \Delta t$, or equivalently,

$$\begin{cases} x_{i,k} = x^k + (\Delta t) \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} f(t_{j,k}, x_{j,k}), \\ x^{k+1} = x^k + (\Delta t) \sum_{i=1}^m b_i f(t_{i,k}, x_{i,k}). \end{cases}$$

• Let

$$\kappa_j := f(t + c_j \Delta t, x_j);$$

$$\left\{egin{array}{l} x_i=x+(\Delta t)\sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij}\kappa_j, \ \Phi(t,x,\Delta t)=\sum_{i=1}^m b_if(t+c_i\Delta t,x_i). \end{array}
ight.$$

- ⇒ One step method.
- If $a_{ii} = 0$ for $i > i \Rightarrow$ scheme: explicit.

- FXAMPLES:
 - Explicit Euler's method and Trapezoidal scheme: Runge-Kutta methods.
 - Explicit Euler's method: $m = 1, b_1 = 1, a_{11} = 0$.

• Trapezoidal scheme:

$$m = 2$$
, $b_1 = b_2 = 1/2$, $a_{11} = a_{12} = 0$, $a_{21} = a_{22} = 1/2$.

• Fourth-order Runge-Kutta method: m=4, $c_1=0$, $c_2=c_3=1/2$, $c_4=1$, $b_1=1/6$, $b_2=b_3=1/3$, $b_4=1/6$, $a_{21}=a_{32}=1/2$, $a_{43}=1$, and all the other a_{ij} entries are zero.

- Consistency, stability, convergence, and order of Runge-Kutta methods
- Runge-Kutta scheme: consistent iff

$$\sum_{j=1}^m b_j = 1.$$

- Stability:
 - $|A| = (|a_{ij}|)_{i,i=1}^m$.
 - Spectral radius $\rho(|A|)$ of the matrix |A|:

$$\rho(|A|) := \max\{|\lambda_j|, \lambda_j : \text{eigenvalue of } |A|\}.$$

- THEOREM:
 - C_f : Lipschitz constant for f.
 - Suppose

$$(\Delta t)C_f\rho(|A|)<1.$$

• Then the Runge-Kutta method: stable.

PROOF:

•

$$\Phi(t,x,\Delta t) - \Phi(t,y,\Delta t) = \sum_{i=1}^m b_i \left[f(t+c_i\Delta t,x_i) - f(t+c_i\Delta t,y_i) \right],$$

with

$$x_i = x + (\Delta t) \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} f(t + c_j \Delta t, x_j),$$

and

$$y_i = y + (\Delta t) \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} f(t + c_j \Delta t, y_j).$$

• ⇒

$$x_i - y_i = x - y + (\Delta t) \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} \left[f(t + c_j \Delta t, x_j) - f(t + c_j \Delta t, y_j) \right].$$

• \Rightarrow For $i = 1, \ldots, m$,

$$|x_i - y_i| \le |x - y| + (\Delta t)C_f \sum_{j=1}^m |a_{ij}||x_j - y_j|.$$

• X and Y:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} |x_1 - y_1| \\ \vdots \\ |x_m - y_m| \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $Y = \begin{bmatrix} |x - y| \\ \vdots \\ |x - y| \end{bmatrix}$.

• $X \leq Y + (\Delta t)C_f|A|X$, \Rightarrow

$$X \leq (I - (\Delta t)C_f|A|)^{-1}Y,$$

provided that $(\Delta t)C_f\rho(|A|) < 1$.

• \Rightarrow stability of the Runge-Kutta scheme.

• Dahlquist-Lax equivalence theorem \Rightarrow Runge-Kutta scheme: convergent provided that $\sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j = 1$ and $(\Delta t) C_f \rho(|A|) < 1$ hold.

• Order of the Runge-Kutta scheme: compute the order as $\Delta t \to 0$ of the truncation error

$$T_k(\Delta t) = rac{x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k)}{\Delta t} - \Phi(t_k, x(t_k), \Delta t).$$

Write

$$T_k(\Delta t) = rac{\mathsf{x}(t_{k+1}) - \mathsf{x}(t_k)}{\Delta t} - \sum_{i=1}^m b_i f(t_k + c_i \Delta t, \mathsf{x}(t_k) + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} \kappa_j).$$

Suppose that f: smooth enough ⇒

$$egin{aligned} fig(t_k+c_i\Delta t,xig(t_kig)+\Delta t\sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij}\kappa_jig) \ &=fig(t_k,xig(t_kig))+\Delta tigg[c_irac{\partial f}{\partial t}ig(t_k,xig(t_kig))+ig(\sum_{j=1}a_{ij}\kappa_jig)rac{\partial f}{\partial x}ig(t_k,xig(t_kig))igg] \ &+Oig((\Delta t)^2ig). \end{aligned}$$

•

$$\sum_{j=1} a_{ij} \kappa_j = (\sum_{j=1} a_{ij}) f(t_k, x(t_k)) + O(\Delta t) = c_i f(t_k, x(t_k)) + O(\Delta t).$$

 $egin{aligned} & fig(t_k+c_i\Delta t,x(t_k)+\Delta t\sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij}\kappa_jig) \ & = fig(t_k,x(t_k)ig)+\Delta tc_iigg[rac{\partial f}{\partial t}ig(t_k,x(t_k)ig)+rac{\partial f}{\partial x}ig(t_k,x(t_k)ig)fig(t_k,x(t_k)ig)igg] \ & +O((\Delta t)^2). \end{aligned}$

THFORFM:

- Assume that f: smooth enough.
- Then the Runge-Kutta scheme: of order 2 provided that the conditions

$$\sum_{j=1}^m b_j = 1$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^m b_i c_i = \frac{1}{2}$$

hold.

- Higher-order Taylor expansions ⇒
- THEOREM:
 - Assume that f: smooth enough.
 - Then the Runge-Kutta scheme: of order 3 provided that the conditions

$$\sum_{j=1}^m b_j = 1,$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^m b_i c_i = \frac{1}{2},$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i c_i^2 = \frac{1}{3}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i a_{ij} c_j = \frac{1}{6}$$

hold.



• Of Order 4 provided that in addition

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i c_i^3 = \frac{1}{4}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_i c_i a_{ij} c_j = \frac{1}{8}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_i c_i a_{ij} c_j^2 = \frac{1}{12},$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{l=1}^{m} b_i a_{ij} a_{jl} c_l = \frac{1}{24}$$

hold.

• The (fourth-order) Runge-Kutta scheme: of order 4.

- Multi-step methods
- Runge-Kutta methods: improvement over Euler's methods in terms of accuracy, but achieved by investing additional computational effort.
- The fourth-order Runge-Kutta method involves four function evaluations per step.

• For comparison, by considering three consecutive points t_{k-1} , t_k , t_{k+1} , integrating the differential equation between t_{k-1} and t_{k+1} , and applying **Simpson's rule** to approximate the resulting integral yields

$$x(t_{k+1}) = x(t_{k-1}) + \int_{t_{k-1}}^{t_{k+1}} f(s, x(s)) ds$$

$$\approx x(t_{k-1}) + \frac{(\Delta t)}{3} \left[f(t_{k-1}, x(t_{k-1})) + 4f(t_k, x(t_k)) + f(t_{k+1}, x(t_{k+1})) \right],$$

$$\Rightarrow$$

$$x^{k+1} = x^{k-1} + \frac{(\Delta t)}{3} \left[f(t_{k-1}, x^{k-1}) + 4f(t_k, x^k) + f(t_{k+1}, x^{k+1}) \right].$$

- Need two preceding values, x^k and x^{k-1} in order to calculate x^{k+1} : **two-step method**.
- In contrast with the one-step methods: only a single value of x^k required to compute the next approximation x^{k+1} .

• General *n*-step method:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n} \alpha_j x^{k+j} = (\Delta t) \sum_{j=0}^{n} \beta_j f(t_{k+j}, x^{k+j}),$$

 α_j and β_j : real constants and $\alpha_n \neq 0$.

If β_n = 0, then x^{k+n}: obtained explicitly from previous values of x^j and f(t_j, x^j) ⇒ n-step method: explicit. Otherwise, the n-step method: implicit.

• EXAMPLE:

(i) Two-step Adams-Bashforth method: explicit two-step method

$$x^{k+2} = x^{k+1} + \frac{(\Delta t)}{2} \left[3f(t_{k+1}, x^{k+1}) - f(t_k, x^k) \right];$$

(ii) Three-step Adams-Bashforth method: explicit three-step method

$$x^{k+3} = x^{k+2} + \frac{(\Delta t)}{12} \left[23f(t_{k+2}, x^{k+2}) - 16f(t_{k+1}, x^{k+1}) + f(t_k, x^k) \right];$$

(iii) Four-step Adams-Bashforth method: explicit four-step method

$$x^{k+4} = x^{k+3} + \frac{(\Delta t)}{24} \left[55f(t_{k+3}, x^{k+3}) - 59f(t_{k+2}, x^{k+2}) + 37f(t_{k+1}, x^{k+1}) - 9f(t_k, x^k) \right];$$

(iv) Two-step Adams-Moulton method: implicit two-step method

$$x^{k+2} = x^{k+1} + \frac{(\Delta t)}{12} \left[5f(t_{k+2}, x^{k+2}) + 8f(t_{k+1}, x^{k+1}) + f(t_k, x^k) \right];$$

(v) Three-step Adams-Moulton method: implicit three-step method

$$x^{k+3} = x^{k+2} + \frac{(\Delta t)}{24} \left[9f(t_{k+3}, x^{k+3}) + 19f(t_{k+2}, x^{k+2}) - 5f(t_{k+1}, x^{k+1}) - 9f(t_k, x^k) \right].$$

- Construction of linear multi-step methods
- Suppose that $x^k, k \in \mathbb{N}$: sequence of real numbers.
- Shift operator E, forward difference operator Δ₊ and backward difference operator Δ₋:

$$E: x^k \mapsto x^{k+1}, \quad \Delta_+: x^k \mapsto x^{k+1} - x^k, \quad \Delta_-: x^k \mapsto x^k - x^{k-1}.$$

• $\Delta_+ = E - I$ and $\Delta_- = I - E^{-1} \Rightarrow$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$(E-I)^n = \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^j C_j^n E^{n-j}$$

and

$$(I - E^{-1})^n = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^j C_i^n E^{-j}.$$



and

$$\Delta_{+}^{n} x^{k} = \sum_{j=0}^{n} (-1)^{j} C_{j}^{n} x^{k+n-j}$$

$$\Delta_{-}^{n} x^{k} = \sum_{j=0}^{n} (-1)^{j} C_{j}^{n} x^{k-j}.$$

- $y(t) \in \mathcal{C}^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}); t_k = k\Delta t, \Delta t > 0.$
- Taylor series \Rightarrow for any $s \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$E^{s}y(t_{k})=y(t_{k}+s\Delta t)=\bigg(\sum_{l=0}^{+\infty}\frac{1}{l!}(s\Delta t\frac{\partial}{\partial t})^{l}y\bigg)(t_{k})=\big(e^{s(\Delta t)\frac{\partial}{\partial t}}y\big)(t_{k}),$$

⇒

$$E^s = e^{s(\Delta t)\frac{\partial}{\partial t}}$$
.

• Formally,

$$(\Delta t)\frac{\partial}{\partial t} = \ln E = -\ln(I - \Delta_-) = \Delta_- + \frac{1}{2}\Delta_-^2 + \frac{1}{3}\Delta_-^3 + \dots$$

• x(t): solution of ODE:

$$(\Delta t)f(t_k,x(t_k))=\left(\Delta_-+\frac{1}{2}\Delta_-^2+\frac{1}{3}\Delta_-^3+\ldots\right)x(t_k).$$

Successive truncation of the infinite series ⇒

$$x^{k} - x^{k-1} = (\Delta t)f(t_{k}, x^{k}),$$

$$\frac{3}{2}x^{k} - 2x^{k-1} + \frac{1}{2}x^{k-2} = (\Delta t)f(t_{k}, x^{k}),$$

$$\frac{11}{6}x^{k} - 3x^{k-1} + \frac{3}{2}x^{k-2} - \frac{1}{3}x^{k-3} = (\Delta t)f(t_{k}, x^{k}),$$

and so on.

• Class of implicit multi-step methods: backward differentiation formulas.

Similarly,

$$E^{-1}((\Delta t)\frac{\partial}{\partial t}) = (\Delta t)\frac{\partial}{\partial t}E^{-1} = -(I - \Delta_{-})\ln(I - \Delta_{-}).$$

• =

$$((\Delta t)\frac{\partial}{\partial t}) = -E(I - \Delta_{-})\ln(I - \Delta_{-}) = -(I - \Delta_{-})\ln(I - \Delta_{-})E.$$

$$\bullet \Rightarrow (\Delta t) f(t_k, x(t_k)) = \left(\Delta_- - \frac{1}{2}\Delta_-^2 - \frac{1}{6}\Delta_-^3 + \dots\right) x(t_{k+1}).$$

Successive truncation of the infinite series ⇒ explicit numerical schemes:

$$x^{k+1} - x^{k} = (\Delta t)f(t_{k}, x^{k}),$$

$$\frac{1}{2}x^{k+1} - \frac{1}{2}x^{k-1} = (\Delta t)f(t_{k}, x^{k}),$$

$$\frac{1}{3}x^{k+1} + \frac{1}{2}x^{k} - x^{k-1} + \frac{1}{6}x^{k-2} = (\Delta t)f(t_{k}, x^{k}),$$

$$\vdots$$

 The first of these numerical scheme: explicit Euler method, while the second: explicit mid-point method.

- Construct further classes of multi-step methods:
- For $y \in \mathcal{C}^{\infty}$,

$$D^{-1}y(t_k) = y(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^{t_k} y(s) \, ds,$$

and

$$(E-I)D^{-1}y(t_k) = \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} y(s) ds.$$

•

$$(E-I)D^{-1} = \Delta_+D^{-1} = E\Delta_-D^{-1} = (\Delta t)E\Delta_-((\Delta t)D)^{-1},$$

$$(E-I)D^{-1} = -(\Delta t)E\Delta_{-}\left(\ln(I-\Delta_{-})\right)^{-1}.$$

•

$$(E-I)D^{-1} = E\Delta_-D^{-1} = \Delta_-ED^{-1} = \Delta_-(DE^{-1})^{-1} = (\Delta t)\Delta_-((\Delta t)DE^{-1})^{-1}.$$

● ⇒

$$(E-I)D^{-1} = -(\Delta t)\Delta_{-}\left((I-\Delta_{-})\ln(I-\Delta_{-})\right)^{-1}.$$



•
$$x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k) = \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} f(s, x(s)) ds = (E - I)D^{-1}f(t_k, x(t_k)),$$

• ⇒

$$x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k) = \begin{cases} -(\Delta t)\Delta_{-}((I - \Delta_{-})\ln(I - \Delta_{-}))^{-1}f(t_k, x(t_k)) \\ -(\Delta t)E\Delta_{-}(\ln(I - \Delta_{-}))^{-1}f(t_k, x(t_k)). \end{cases}$$

• Expand $ln(I - \Delta_-)$ into a Taylor series on the right-hand side \Rightarrow

$$x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k) = (\Delta t) \left[I + \frac{1}{2} \Delta_- + \frac{5}{12} \Delta_-^2 + \frac{3}{8} \Delta_-^3 + \dots \right] f(t_k, x(t_k))$$

and

$$x(t_{k+1})-x(t_k)=(\Delta t)\left[I-\frac{1}{2}\Delta_--\frac{1}{12}\Delta_-^2-\frac{1}{24}\Delta_-^3+\ldots\right]f(t_{k+1},x(t_{k+1})).$$

 Successive truncations ⇒ families of (explicit) Adams-Bashforth methods and of (implicit) Adams-Moulton methods.

- Consistency, stability, and convergence
- Introduce the concepts of consistency, stability, and convergence for analyzing linear multi-step methods.

- DEFINITION: Consistency
 - The *n*-step method: **consistent** with the ODE if the truncation error defined by

$$T_k = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^{n} \left[\alpha_j x(t_{k+j}) - (\Delta t) \beta_j \frac{dx}{dt}(t_{k+j}) \right]}{(\Delta t) \sum_{j=0}^{n} \beta_j}$$

is s.t. for any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists h_0 for which

$$|T_k| \le \epsilon$$
 for $0 < \Delta t \le h_0$

and any (n+1) points $((t_j, x(t_j)), \dots, (t_{j+n}, x(t_{j+n})))$ on any solution x(t).

• DEFINITION: Stability

• The *n*-step method: stable if there exists a constant C s.t., for any two sequences (x^k) and (\widetilde{x}^k) which have been generated by the same formulas but different initial data $x^0, x^1, \ldots, x^{k-1}$ and $\widetilde{x}^0, \widetilde{x}^1, \ldots, \widetilde{x}^{k-1}$, respectively,

$$|x^k-\widetilde{x}^k|\leq C\max\{|x^0-\widetilde{x}^0|,|x^1-\widetilde{x}^1|,\ldots,|x^{k-1}-\widetilde{x}^{k-1}|\}$$
 as $\Delta t o 0$.

- THEOREM: Convergence
 - Suppose that the *n*-step method: consistent with the ODE.
 - Stability condition: necessary and sufficient for the convergence.
 - If $x \in \mathcal{C}^{p+1}$ and the truncation error $O((\Delta t)^p)$, then the global error $e_k = x(t_k) x^k$: $O((\Delta t)^p)$.

- Stiff equations and systems:
- Let $\epsilon > 0$: small parameter. Consider the initial value problem

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\mathrm{d}x(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon}x(t), & t \in [0, T], \\ x(0) = 1, \end{cases}$$

- Exponential solution $x(t) = e^{-t/\epsilon}$.
- Explicit Euler method with step size Δt :

$$x^{k+1} = (1 - \frac{\Delta t}{\epsilon})x^k, \quad x^0 = 1,$$

with solution

$$x^k = (1 - \frac{\Delta t}{\epsilon})^k.$$

- $\epsilon > 0 \Rightarrow$ exact solution: exponentially decaying and positive.
- If $1 \frac{\Delta t}{\epsilon} < -1$, then the iterates grow exponentially fast in magnitude, with alternating signs.
- Numerical solution: nowhere close to the true solution.
- If $-1 < 1 \frac{\Delta t}{\epsilon} < 0$, then the numerical solution decays in magnitude, but continue to alternate between positive and negative values.
- To correctly model the qualitative features of the solution and obtain a numerically accurate solution: choose the step size Δt so as to ensure that $1-\frac{\Delta t}{\epsilon}>0$, and hence $\Delta t<\epsilon$.
- stiff differential equation.

- In general, an equation or system: stiff if it has one or more very rapidly decaying solutions.
- In the case of the autonomous constant coefficient linear system: stiffness occurs whenever the coefficient matrix A has an eigenvalues λ_{j_0} with large negative real part: $\Re \lambda_{j_0} \ll 0$, resulting in a very rapidly decaying eigensolution.
- It only takes one such eigensolution to render the equation stiff, and ruin the numerical computation of even well behaved solutions.
- Even though the component of the actual solution corresponding to λ_{j_0} : almost irrelevant, its presence continues to render the numerical solution to the system very difficult.
- Most of the numerical methods: suffer from instability due to stiffness for sufficiently small positive ε.
- Stiff equations require more sophisticated numerical schemes to integrate.

- Perturbation theories for differential equations
 - Regular perturbation theory;
 - Singular perturbation theory.

- Regular perturbation theory:
- $\epsilon > 0$: small parameter and consider

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t} = f(t, x, \epsilon), & t \in [0, T], \\ x(0) = x_0, & x_0 \in \mathbb{R}. \end{cases}$$

- $f \in \mathcal{C}^1 \Rightarrow$ regular perturbation problem.
- Taylor expansion of $x(t, \epsilon) \in \mathcal{C}^1$:

$$x(t,\epsilon) = x^{(0)}(t) + \epsilon x^{(1)}(t) + o(\epsilon)$$

with respect to ϵ in a neighborhood of 0.

• $x^{(0)}$: $\begin{cases}
\frac{\mathrm{d}x^{(0)}}{\mathrm{d}t} = f_0(t, x^{(0)}), & t \in [0, T], \\
x^{(0)}(0) = x_0, & x_0 \in \mathbb{R},
\end{cases}$ $f_0(t, x) := f(t, x, 0).$ • $x^{(1)}(t) = \frac{\partial x}{\partial \epsilon}(t, 0):$ $\begin{cases}
\frac{\mathrm{d}x^{(1)}}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(t, x^{(0)}, 0)x^{(1)} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \epsilon}(t, x^{(0)}, 0), & t \in [0, T], \\
x^{(1)}(0) = 0
\end{cases}$

• Compute numerically $x^{(0)}$ and $x^{(1)}$.



- Singular perturbation theory:
- Consider

$$\begin{cases} \epsilon \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = f(t, x, \frac{dx}{dt}), & t \in [0, T], \\ x(0) = x_0, & x(T) = x_1. \end{cases}$$

• Singular perturbation problem: order reduction when $\epsilon = 0$.

• Consider the linear, scalar and of second-order ODE:

$$\begin{cases} \epsilon \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 2\frac{dx}{dt} + x = 0, & t \in [0, 1], \\ x(0) = 0, & x(1) = 1. \end{cases}$$

•

$$lpha(\epsilon) := rac{1-\sqrt{1-\epsilon}}{\epsilon} \quad ext{ and } \quad eta(\epsilon) := 1+\sqrt{1-\epsilon}.$$

•

$$x(t,\epsilon) = \frac{e^{-\alpha t} - e^{-\beta t/\epsilon}}{e^{-\alpha} - e^{-\beta/\epsilon}}, \quad t \in [0,1].$$

• $x(t, \epsilon)$: involves two terms which vary on widely different length-scales.

- Behavior of $x(t, \epsilon)$ as $\epsilon \to 0^+$.
- Asymptotic behavior: nonuniform;
- There are two cases → matching outer and inner solutions.

(i) Outer limit: t > 0 fixed and $\epsilon \to 0^+$. Then $x(t, \epsilon) \to x^{(0)}(t)$,

$$x^{(0)}(t) := e^{(1-t)/2}.$$

- Leading-order outer solution satisfies the boundary condition at t=1 but not the boundary condition at t=0. Indeed, $x^{(0)}(0)=e^{1/2}$.
- (ii) Inner limit: $t/\epsilon = \tau$ fixed and $\epsilon \to 0^+$. Then $x(\epsilon \tau, \epsilon) \to X^{(0)}(\tau) := e^{1/2}(1 e^{-2\tau})$.
 - Leading-order inner solution satisfies the boundary condition at t=0 but not the one at t=1, which corresponds to $\tau=1/\epsilon$. Indeed, $\lim_{\tau\to+\infty}X^{(0)}(\tau)=e^{1/2}$.
- (iii) Matching: Both the inner and outer expansions: valid in the region $\epsilon \ll t \ll 1$, corresponding to $t \to 0$ and $\tau \to +\infty$ as $\epsilon \to 0^+$. They satisfy the matching condition

$$\lim_{t \to 0^+} x^{(0)}(t) = \lim_{\tau \to +\infty} X^{(0)}(\tau).$$



- Construct an asymptotic solution without relying on the fact that we can solve it exactly.
- Outer solution:

$$x(t,\epsilon) = x^{(0)}(t) + \epsilon x^{(1)}(t) + O(\epsilon^2).$$

- Use this expansion and equate the coefficients of the leading-order terms to zero.
- ⇒

$$\begin{cases} 2\frac{dx^{(0)}}{dt} + x^{(0)} = 0, \quad t \in [0, 1], \\ x^{(0)}(1) = 1. \end{cases}$$

- Inner solution.
- Suppose that there is a boundary layer at t=0 of width $\delta(\epsilon)$, and introduce a stretched variable $\tau=t/\delta$.
- Look for an inner solution $X(\tau, \epsilon) = x(t, \epsilon)$.

•

$$\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{d}{d\tau},$$

 $\Rightarrow X$ satisfies

$$\frac{\epsilon}{\delta^2} \frac{d^2 X}{d\tau^2} + \frac{2}{\delta} \frac{dX}{d\tau} + X = 0.$$

- Two possible dominant balances:
 - (i) $\delta = 1$, leading to the outer solution;
 - (ii) $\delta = \epsilon$, leading to the inner solution.
- \Rightarrow Boundary layer thickness: of the order of ϵ , and the appropriate inner variable: $\tau = t/\epsilon$.

• Equation for X:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d^2X}{d\tau^2} + 2\frac{dX}{d\tau} + \epsilon X = 0, \\ X(0, \epsilon) = 0. \end{cases}$$

- Impose only the boundary condition at $\tau = 0$, since we do not expect the inner expansion to be valid outside the boundary layer where $t = O(\epsilon)$.
- Seek an inner expansion

$$X(\tau,\epsilon) = X^{(0)}(\tau) + \epsilon X^{(1)}(\tau) + O(\epsilon^2)$$

and find that

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d^2 X^{(0)}}{d\tau^2} + 2 \frac{d X^{(0)}}{d\tau} = 0, \\ X^{(0)}(0) = 0. \end{cases}$$

• General solution:

$$X^{(0)}(\tau) = c(1 - e^{-2\tau}),$$

c: arbitrary constant of integration.

- Determine the unknown constant c by requiring that the inner solution matches with the outer solution.
- Matching condition:

$$\lim_{t \to 0^+} x^{(0)}(t) = \lim_{\tau \to +\infty} X^{(0)}(\tau),$$

$$\Rightarrow c = e^{1/2}$$
.

• Asymptotic solution as $\epsilon \to 0^+$:

$$x(t,\epsilon) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} e^{1/2}(1-e^{-2 au}) & ext{as }\epsilon o 0^+ ext{ with } t/\epsilon ext{ fixed,} \ e^{(1-t)/2} & ext{as }\epsilon o 0^+ ext{ with } t ext{ fixed.} \end{array}
ight.$$