

1 Preliminaries

For population $N(t)$, and max supported pop N^* . Let $n = \frac{N}{N^*}$.

Logistic model:

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = rn(1-n) \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{General} \\ \text{Solution} \end{array} : n(t) = \frac{ce^{rt}}{1+ce^{rt}} \right.$$

Logistic model (with predation): $\frac{dn}{dt} = rn(1 - \frac{n}{s}) - \frac{n^2}{1-n^2}$

Lotka-Volterra predator-prey model: n = prey population, p = predator population:

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = rn(1-p), \quad \frac{dp}{dt} = p(1-n)$$

Converting non-autonomous systems to autonomous:

For non-autonomous system of d equations:

$$\frac{dy_1}{dt} = f_1(t, y_1, \dots, y_d),$$

$$\frac{dy_2}{dt} = f_2(t, y_1, \dots, y_d),$$

\vdots

$$\frac{dy_d}{dt} = f_d(t, y_1, \dots, y_d).$$

We can make it into an autonomous one by introducing the variable $y_{d+1} \equiv t$ in place of t , (thus creating an autonomous system of $d+1$ variables) and introduce new indep var s such that $ds/dt = 1$:

$$\frac{dy_1}{ds} = f_1(t, y_1, \dots, y_{d+1}),$$

$$\frac{dy_2}{ds} = f_2(t, y_1, \dots, y_{d+1}),$$

\vdots

$$\frac{dy_d}{ds} = f_d(t, y_1, \dots, y_{d+1}),$$

$$\frac{dy_{d+1}}{ds} = 1.$$

Picard's Thm: let the function $f(\cdot, \cdot)$ be a continuous function of its arguments in a region of the plane containing the rectangle $D = \{(t, y) : t_0 \leq t \leq T, |y - y_0| \leq K\}$, $T, K > 0$. Suppose $\exists L$ (Lipschitz constant) such that $|f(t, u) - f(t, v)| \leq L|u - v|$ whenever $(t, u), (t, v) \in D$. Since D closed & bounded, $\exists M_f > 0$ such that $M_f = \max\{|f(t, u)| : (t, u) \in D\}$. Assume $M_f(T - t_0) \leq K$. Then there exists a unique continuously differentiable function $t \mapsto y(t)$, defined on $[t_0, T]$, such that $\frac{dy}{dt} = f(t, y), y(t_0) = y_0$.

Note: $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ being continuous \Rightarrow existence of a Lipschitz constant,

We can take $L = \sup_D \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right]$.

Thm 1.3.2 (Local Existence / Uniqueness of Solutions for ODE Systems): Suppose $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d$ is continuous and has continuous partial derivatives w.r.t. all components of the dependant var y in a neighbourhood of the point (t_0, y_0) . Then there is an interval $I = (t_0 - \delta, t_0 + \delta)$ containing a unique function y (continuously differentiable on I) that satisfies $\frac{dy}{dt} = f(t, y), y(t_0) = y_0$.

2 Euler's Method and Taylor Series Methods

Euler's Method: for finding approximate solutions to $\frac{dy}{dt} = f(t, y)$ in time interval $t \in [a, b]$.

Let $t_m = a + mh$, $h \in \mathbb{R}$ small. Start with $y_0 = y(t_0) = y(a)$ and use iteration function $y_{n+1} = y_n + hf(t_n, y_n)$. $y_i \approx y(t_i)$.

Backward (implicit) Euler's Method: use iteration function $y_{n+1} = y_n + hf(t_{n+1}, y_{n+1})$.

Error: $e_n = |y_n - y(t_n)|$.

Lemma 2.6.1: Suppose a given sequence of non-negative numbers (v_n) satisfies $v_{n+1} \leq Av_n + B$, $A > 1, B > 0$. Then for

$$n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad v_n \leq A^n v_0 + \frac{A^n - 1}{A - 1} B.$$

Bound on error: $|e_n| \leq e^{(b-a)L} \frac{M}{2L} h = Dh$ where h is the

timestep, M bounds $|y''(t)|$, and L bounds $\frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$.

Thm 2.6.1 Consider the IVP $\frac{dy}{dt} = f(t, y), y(a) = y_0$. Suppose \exists unique, twice-differentiable function f , continuous everywhere with continuous, bounded partial derivative $\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right| < L$ with $L > 0$. Then for $n = 0, 1, \dots, N$, and some $D > 0$, the solution y_n given by Euler's method at t_n satisfies $e_n = |y_n - y(t_n)| \leq Dh$ where $h = (b - a)/N, t_n = a + hn$.

Big O (Landau) notation: If method is $O(h^p)$ then the error decays at least as quickly as h^p (for small h).

$$(\exists h_0, C > 0) : (\forall 0 < h < h_0), |z| \leq Ch^p \Rightarrow z = O(h^p)$$

Say z is of order p .

The Flow Map: Consider IVP $\frac{dy}{dt} = f(t, y), y(a) = y_0$ with unique solution in $t \in [a, b]$. Starting at arbitrary $t_0 \in [a, b], y_0$ we may see where $y(t)$ ends up, denoted $y(t; t_0, y_0)$.

Fix t_0 and look at the **flow map** $\Phi_{t_0, h}(y_0) = y(t_0 + h; t_0, y_0)$. (actually a family of maps parameterised by h).

Numerical methods approximate flow maps: Euler's method approximates flow map with $\hat{\Phi}_{t, h}(y) = y + hf(t, y)$.

One-step methods: approximate the solution through the iteration of an approximated flow map.

Constructing Taylor series methods:

Start with Taylor series:

$$y(t_0 + h) = y(t_0) + y'(t_0)h + \frac{1}{2}y''(t_0)h^2 + \frac{1}{6}y'''(t_0)h^3 + \dots$$

Also $y'(t) = f(t, y) \Rightarrow$

$$y'' = \frac{d}{dt} f(t, y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} f(t, y) \frac{dt}{dt} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(t, y) \frac{dy}{dt}$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} f(t, y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(t, y) y' = f_t + f_y f. \quad (\text{By chain rule})$$

$$\Phi_{t, h}(y) = y + hf(t, y) + \frac{1}{2}h^2(f_t(t, y) + f_y(t, y)f(t, y)) + \frac{1}{6}y'''h^3 + \dots$$

Which we can truncate to get the 2nd order Taylor series method

$$\hat{\Phi}_{t, h}(y) = y + hf(t, y) + \frac{1}{2}h^2(f_t(t, y) + f_y(t, y)f(t, y)).$$

3 Convergence of One-Step Methods

Def 3.1.2 (Convergence): A method is said to be **convergent** iff for any T ,

$$\lim_{\substack{h \rightarrow 0 \\ h=T/N}} \max_{n=0,1,\dots,N} \|e_n\| = 0.$$

Def 3.2.1 (Local Error): The **local error** of a one-step method is the difference between the flow map Φ_h and it's discrete approximation Ψ_h

$$le(y, h) = \Psi_h(y) - \Phi_h(y).$$

It measures how much error is introduced in a single timestep of size h .

Def 3.2.2 (Consistency): Suppose the local error for our method satisfies

$$\|le(y, h)\| \leq Ch^{p+1}$$

where C is a constant that depends on $y(t)$ and it's derivatives, and $p \geq 1$. Then the method is **consistent** at order p .

Def 3.2.3 (Stability): Suppose that a method satisfies an h -independent Lipschitz condition on D (spatial domain)

$$\|\Psi_h(u) - \Psi_h(v)\| \leq (1 + h\hat{L})\|u - v\| \quad \forall u, v \in D.$$

Then the method is **stable**. *Note \hat{L} need not be the same Lipschitz constant as for the vector field.*

Thm 3.2.1 (Convergence of One-Step Methods): Given a differential equation and a one-step method Ψ_h which is **consistent** and **stable**. Then the method is **convergent**.

Interpolating Polynomials: Given s distinct *abscissa points* c_0, \dots, c_s and *data points* g_0, \dots, g_s , there exists a unique interpolating polynomial $P(x) \in \mathbb{P}_{s-1}$ passing through all points (c_i, g_i) .

Lagrange Polynomials: For a set of abscissae c_0, \dots, c_s , the Lagrange polynomials ℓ_i , $i = 1, \dots, s$ are defined by

$$\ell_i(x) = \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^s \frac{x - c_j}{c_i - c_j}.$$

The Lagrange polynomial ℓ_i is the interpolating polynomial through the data $g_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = i \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq i \end{cases}$. $\{\ell_i\}$ form a basis for \mathbb{P}_{s-1} , and any polynomial $Q(x)$ has the simple form

$$Q(x) = \sum_{i=1}^s Q(c_i) \ell_i(x) = \sum_{i=1}^s g_i \ell_i(x).$$

Numerical Quadrature: Given a smooth function $g(x) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and s **quadrature points** $0 \leq c_1 < \dots < c_s \leq 1$ we can estimate $\int_0^1 g(x) dx$ by integrating the corresponding interpolating polynomial $P(x) \in \mathbb{P}_{s-1}$. Define the weights

$$b_i = \int_0^1 \ell_i(x) dx.$$

Then our approximate integral is

$$\int_0^1 g(x) dx \approx \int P(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^s g(c_i) \int_0^1 \ell_i(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^s b_i g(c_i)$$

Therefore for interval $[t_0, t_0 + h]$ we have

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_0+h} g(x) dx \approx \int_{t_0}^{t_0+h} P(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^s b_i g(t_0 + hc_i).$$

A quadrature rule has **order** p if it integrates any polynomial $\in \mathbb{P}_{p-1}$ exactly. We always have $p \geq s$, and for optimal choice of c_i we have $p = 2s$.

One-Step Collocation: Given an ODE we wish to construct the **collocation polynomial** $u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ that satisfies

$$u(t_0) = y_0 u'(t_0 + c_i h) = f(u(t_0 + c_i h)).$$

In particular, it agrees with our solut at t_0 , and it's derivative matches that of the solution at each c_1, \dots, c_s . We can use such a polynomial to approximate a numerical solution to our ODE by decomposing its derivative u' into Lagrange polynomial components, and then integrating over $[t_0, t_0 + h]$ to get $u(t_0 + h) = u(t_1)$.

Let $F_i = u'(t_0 + hc_i)$ be the value of the derivative of the polynomial at node c_i . Then

$$F_i = f(y_0 + h \sum_{j=1}^s a_{ij} F_j), \quad (\text{A})$$

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + h \sum_{i=1}^s b_i F_i. \quad (\text{B})$$

where

$$a_{ij} = \int_0^{c_i} \ell_j(x) dx, \\ b_i = \int_0^1 \ell_i(x) dx.$$

First solve the sd -dimensional system of non-linear equations given by (A), and plug into (B).

Rem 3.6.1 (Continuous Approximations): Collocation provides a continuous approximation $u(t)$ of the solution $y(t)$ on each interval $[t_n, t_{n+1}]$.

Rem 3.6.2 (Optimal Node Placement): For optimal order of accuracy, use **Gauss-Legendre** collocation methods. This means placing nodes at roots of shifted Legendre polynomials. For $s = 1, 2, 3$, the optimal nodes are

$$c_1 = \frac{1}{2}, \quad p = 2, \\ c_1 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}, \quad c_2 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}, \quad p = 4, \\ c_1 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{15}}{10}, \quad c_2 = \frac{1}{2}, \quad c_3 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{15}}{10}, \quad p = 6.$$

Runge-Kutta Methods (Autonomous Case): Generalisation of collocation methods, since they don't have coefficients that rely on integrals of Lagrange polynomials, they can have any coefficients. A **Runge-Kutta** method is any method of form

$$Y_i = y_n + h \sum_{j=1}^s a_{ij} f(Y_j), \quad i = 1, \dots, s, \\ y_{n+1} = y_n + h \sum_{i=1}^s b_i f(Y_i).$$

where s is the **number of stages**, b_i are the **weights**, and a_{ij} are the **internal coefficients**. Such a method generates the discrete flow-map

$$\Psi_h(y) = y + h \sum_{i=1}^s b_i f(Y_i(y, h)).$$

Butcher Tables: Store coefficients of Runge-Kutta methods in form

$$\begin{array}{c|c} c & A \\ \hline & b^T \end{array}$$

where $c = (c_i)$, $b = (b_j)$, $A = (a_{ij})$. If A is lower triangular (with 0s on diag) then the method is **explicit**, otherwise **implicit**.

Butcher Table Examples:

Euler Method (Explicit):

$$\begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 0 \\ \hline & 1 \end{array}.$$

Trapezoidal (Implicit):

$$\begin{array}{c|cc} 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \hline 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array}.$$

Order Conditions for RK Methods:

Consider an RK method with $b = (b_j)$, $A = (a_{ij})$. For the order to be p , the following conditions must be satisfied (as well as any conditions for it to be $< p$):

$$p = 1 \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^s b_i = 1,$$

$$p = 2 \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^s b_i c_i = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \text{That is } b^T c = \frac{1}{2},$$

$$p = 3 \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^s b_i c_i^2 = \frac{1}{3} \text{ And } \sum_{i=1}^s \sum_{j=1}^s b_i a_{ij} c_j = \frac{1}{6}.$$

There is no explicit RK method of order greater than 4. For best order, use Gauss-Legendre methods, which have order $p = 2s$.

Def 4.1.1 (Fixed Point): A point y^* is a fixed point of $f(y)$ if $f(y^*) = 0$. Solution passing through a fixed point will be $y(t) \equiv y^*$, constant in time. Denote set of all fixed points of an ode system as $\mathcal{F} = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^d : \Phi(y) = y\}$

Def 4.2.1 (Fixed Point of Numerical Method): Consider a one-step numerical method with described by the map $\Psi_h(y)$. Then a point y^* is a **fixed point** if $\Psi_h(y^*) = y^*$, and therefore produces the constant in time approximate solution $y_n \equiv y^*$. Denote the set of all fixed points of Ψ_h by $\mathcal{F}_h = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^d : \Psi_h(y) = y\}$.

For the Euler method $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_h$.

Fixed points in \mathcal{F}_h that are not fixed points of \mathcal{F} are called **spurious fixed points**.

Thm 4.2.1: For Runge-Kutta methods, $\mathcal{F}_h \supseteq \mathcal{F}$.

Generally spurious fixed points of RK methods move depending on h , and usually tend to ∞ .

Def 4.3.1 (Stability and Asymptotic Stability): y^* is: **stable** for the given ODE if $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ (sufficiently small) $\exists \delta > 0$ such that $\forall t > 0$

$$\|y_0 - y^*\| < \delta \Rightarrow \|y(t; y_0) - y^*\| < \varepsilon;$$

asymptotically stable if it is **stable** and $\exists \gamma > 0$ such that for any initial condition such that $\|y - 0\| < \gamma$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|y(t; y_0) - y^*\| = 0;$$

unstable if it is not **stable**.

Thm 4.3.1 (Linearisation Thm): Consider the equation in \mathbb{R}^d

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = By + F(y)$$

subject to initial condition $y(0) = y_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Assume $B \in \text{Mat}(d, \mathbb{R})$ has all eigenvalues with negative real parts, and $F(y) \in C^1$ in a neighbourhood of $y = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$, with $F(0) = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $F'(0) = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, where $F'(y)$ is the jacobian of F . Then $y = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is an **asymptotically stable** critical point. If B has any eigenvalues with positive real part, then $y = 0$ is **unstable**.

Thm 4.3.2 (Linearisation Thm II): Suppose that our derivative $f \in C^2$ has a fixed point y^* . If the eigenvalues of

$$J = f'(y)$$

lie strictly in the left half plane of \mathbb{C} , then y^* is **asymptotically stable**. If J has any eigenvalues in the right half plane of \mathbb{C} , then y^* is **unstable**.

Def 4.4.1 (Stability and Asymptotic Stability of Maps): Consider a general map $\Psi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and fixed point y^* of Ψ such that $\Psi(y^*) = y^*$. Define $y^n(y_0)$ to be n applications of Ψ to y_0 , so $y^2(y_0) = \Psi(\Psi(y_0))$. We say that y^* is:

stable for the given ODE if $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ (sufficiently small) $\exists \delta > 0$ such that $\forall t > 0$

$$\|y_0 - y^*\| < \delta \Rightarrow \|y^n(y_0) - y^*\| < \varepsilon;$$

asymptotically stable if it is **stable** and $\exists \gamma > 0$ such that for any initial condition such that $\|y - 0\| < \gamma$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|y^n(y_0) - y^*\| = 0;$$

unstable if it is not **stable**.

spectral radius: Let K be a matrix. Then $\rho(K)$ denotes the **spectral radius** of K , the radius of the smallest circle centered at the origin enclosing all eigenvalues of K .

Thm 4.4.1 (Spectral Radius and Stability):

Let $z_n = \|K^n y_0\|$.

Then $z_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for all y_0 , iff $\rho(K) < 1$.

Moreover, $z_n \rightarrow \infty$ for some y_0 iff $\rho(K) > 1$.

Finally, if $\rho(K) = 1$ then z_n remains bounded as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Thm 4.4.2 (Stability and Asymptotic Stability of Iteration Maps):

Let Ψ be a smooth (C^2) map.

Then the fixed point y^* is **asymptotically stable** for the iteration $y_{n+1} = \Psi(y_n)$ if

$$\rho(\Psi'(y^*)) < 1.$$

The fixed point y^* is **unstable** if $\rho(\Psi'(y^*)) > 1$.

The marginal case $\rho(\Psi'(y^*)) = 1$ is delicate and must be considered on a case-by-case basis.

Stability Function: Consider an RK method with $y_{n+1} = R(h\lambda)y_n$ (for scalar ODEs). Then $R(h\lambda)$ is a rational function,

and if the method is **explicit** then $R(h\lambda)$ is a polynomial. Call $R(h\lambda)$ the **stability function** of our method.

Matrix Representation of RK Method (Scalar):

An RK method for a scalar ODE $y' = \mu y$ with internal stages

$$Y_i = y_n + \mu \sum_{j=1}^s a_{ij} Y_j, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, s$$

can be written in matrix form as

$$Y = y_n \mathbf{1} + \mu AY$$

$$Y = y_n (I - \mu A)^{-1} \mathbf{1}$$

where $\mathbf{1} = (1, \dots, 1)^T \in \mathbb{R}^s$. Then

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \mu \sum_{j=1}^s b_j Y_j$$

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \mu b^T Y$$

and so

$$y_{n+1} = R(\mu)y_n, \quad R(\mu) = 1 + \mu b^T (I - \mu A)^{-1} \mathbf{1}.$$

Matrix Representation of RK Method (Vector):

Consider an ODE $y' = By$, $y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and RK method define by

$$Y_i = y_n + h \sum_{j=1}^s a_{ij} B Y_j$$

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + h \sum_{j=1}^s b_i B Y_i.$$

Expand y_n, y_{n+1}, Y_i in the eigenbasis of B , and let U be the matrix with eigenvectors of B as columns. Write $B = U\Lambda U^{-1}$ where Λ is diagonal matrix of eigenvalues. Define z_n, Z_i by

$$y_n = U z_n, \quad Y_i = U Z_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, s,$$

and then rewrite our RK method as

$$Z_i = y_n + h \sum_{j=1}^s a_{ij} \Lambda Z_j$$

$$z_{n+1} = z_n + h \sum_{j=1}^s b_i \Lambda Z_j.$$

and so, since Λ is diagonal, our system decouples into d independent scalar iterations, which we know how to deal with.

Thm 4.5.1: Given the ODE $y' = By$, where $y \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and B has a basis of eigenvectors and the eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d$, consider applying a given RK method. The RK method has an (asymptotically) stable fixed point at the origin when applied to

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = By$$

iff the same method has an (asymptotically) stable fixed point at the origin when applied to each of the scalar differential equations

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \lambda_i y.$$

Cor 4.5.1: Consider a linear ODE $\frac{dy}{dt} = By$ with diagonalizable matrix B . Let an RK method be given with stability function R . The origin is stable for this RK method to $\frac{dy}{dt} = By$ (at stepsize h) iff

$$|R(h\lambda)| < 1$$

for all eigenvalues $\lambda \in \sigma(B)$. (The origin is unstable if $|R(h\lambda)| > 1$ for any eigenvalue λ).

Stability Region: The **stability region** of a numerical method is the set of all points such that $\hat{R}(\mu) = |R(\mu)| < 1$.

RK4 has the stability function

$$R(\mu) = 1 + \mu + \frac{1}{2}\mu^2 + \frac{1}{6}\mu^3 + \frac{1}{24}\mu^4.$$

The boundary of the stability region is the set of all values such that $R(\mu) = e^{i\theta}$, that is $R(\mu)$ lies on the unit circle.

A-Stability: A numerical method is **A-stable** if its stabil-

ity region contains the entire left half-plane. In this case, the method will be stable independent of h .

4 Linear Multistep Methods

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Def 5.0.1 (k-step LMM): A **k-step linear multistep method** (LMM) is a numerical method of form

$$\sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j y_{n+j} = h \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j f(y_{n+j})$$

where $\alpha_k \neq 0$ and either $\alpha_0 \neq 0$ or $\beta_0 \neq 0$. Usually normalize coefficients so that $\alpha_k = 1$ or $\sum_j \beta_j = 1$. If $\beta_k \neq 0$ then the method is **implicit**, otherwise it is **explicit**.

Adams-Bashford Methods: Explicit methods derived by finding interpolating polynomial $\Pi_k^f(t)$ passing through y'_n, \dots, y'_{n+k-1} and integrate it to next timestep so

$$y_{n+k} = y_{n+k-1} + \int_{t_{n+k-1}}^{t_{n+k}} \Pi_k^f(t) dt.$$

Note the 1-step Adams-Bashford method is the Euler rule.

Adams-Moulton Methods: Implicit methods derived by finding interpolating polynomial $\tilde{\Pi}_k^f(t)$ passing through y'_n, \dots, y'_{n+k} (where y_{n+k} is not yet known) and integrate it to next timestep so

$$y_{n+k} = y_{n+k-1} + \int_{t_{n+k-1}}^{t_{n+k}} \tilde{\Pi}_k^f(t) dt.$$

Note the 1-step Adams-Moulton method is the Trapezoidal rule.

Algebra of Operators: Operators are generalisations of functions, that take functions as inputs. Let $g(t) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Here are some Operators:

Operator	Definition
Identity	$1g(t) = g(t)$
Shift	$E_s g(t) = g(t + s)$
Forward Difference	$\Delta_h g(t) = g(t + h) - g(t) = (E_h - 1)g(t)$
Backward Difference	$\nabla_h g(t) = g(t) - g(t - h) = (1 - E_h^{-1})g(t)$
Differential	$Dg(t) = g'(t)$

Differential Operator Identities:

$$E_h = e^{hD} \quad (TS \text{ expansion similar to exp power series})$$

$$D = \frac{1}{h} \ln [1 + \Delta_h]$$

$$D = \frac{1}{h} \left[\nabla_h + \frac{1}{2} \nabla_h^2 + \frac{1}{2} \nabla_h^3 + \dots \right]$$

BDF Methods: Use the truncated backwards difference operator expansion of the differential operator D to approximate $f(t, y(t))$. Below we derive the first BDF method (*same as backwards Euler*).

$$\frac{1}{h} \left[\nabla_h + \frac{1}{2} \nabla_h^2 + \frac{1}{2} \nabla_h^3 + \dots \right] y(t) = Dy(t) = f(t, y(t))$$

$$\frac{1}{h} \nabla_h y(t) \approx f(t, y(t))$$

$$y(t) - y(t - h) \approx hf(t, y(t))$$

$$y_n - y_{n-1} = hf(t, y(t)).$$

Characteristic Polynomials: Associated with an LMM are the polynomials

$$\rho(\zeta) = \sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j \zeta^j, \quad \sigma(\zeta) = \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j \zeta^j$$

called the **first characteristic polynomial** and **second characteristic polynomial** respectively.

Residual: The **residual** of a linear multistep method at time t_{n+k} is

$$r_n = \sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j y(t_{n+j}) - h \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j y'(t_{n+j}).$$

(this is actually the residual accumulated in the $n + k - 1$ step). An

LMM has **order of consistency** p if

$$r_n = O(h^{p+1}).$$

for all sufficiently smooth f .

Checking consistency (5.11): For a multistep method to have **order of consistency** $p \geq 1$ we must satisfy conditions

$$\sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j = 0, \quad \sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j j^i = i \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j j^{i-1} \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, p.$$

Consistency Conditions: The following conditions are equivalent for an LMM having **order of consistency** $p \geq 1$.

- $\rho(e^z) - z\sigma(e^z) = O(z^{p+1});$
- $\frac{\rho(z)}{\log z} - \sigma(z) = O((z - 1)^p).$

Def 5.4.1 (The Root Condition): An LMM is said to satisfy the **root condition** if all roots ζ of

$$\rho(\zeta)$$

lie in the unit disk ($|\zeta| \leq 1$), and any root on the unit circle ($|\zeta| = 1$) has multiplicity 1.

Thm 5.4.1 (Convergence Thm): For a well-behaved ODE (f has continuous, bounded partial derivatives), suppose an LMM is equipped with a procedure satisfying $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} y_j = y(t_0 + jh)$ for $j = 1, \dots, k - 1$. Then the method is guaranteed to converge to the exact solution on a fixed interval as $h \rightarrow 0$ iff it has order of consistency $p \geq 1$ and satisfies the **root condition**.

Summarise as consistency + root condition = convergence.

Thm 5.4.2 (Maximum Order): the maximum order of a k -step method satisfying the root condition is $p = k$ for explicit methods and, for implicit methods, $p = k + 1$ for odd k and $p = k + 2$ for even k .

Stability Regions: The **stability region** \mathcal{S} of an LMM is the set of all points $z \in \mathbb{C}$ such that all roots ζ of the polynomial

$$\rho(\zeta) - z\sigma(\zeta) = 0$$

satisfy $|\zeta| < 1$.

Boundary of Stability Region:

$$\partial \mathcal{S} = \left\{ z = \frac{\rho(e^{i\theta})}{\sigma(e^{i\theta})} : \theta \in [0, 2\pi] \right\}$$

A-Stability: A method is **A-stable** (**unconditionally stable**) if the left half plane $\subset \mathbb{C}$ is contained in \mathcal{S} . In this case the method is stable for any choice of stepsize h .

Thm 5.5.1 (Max Order of A-Stable Methods): An A-Stable LMM has order $p \leq 2$.

A(α)-Stability: A method is **A(α)-stable** if the wedge $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |\arg(z) - \pi| < \alpha\} \subset \mathcal{S}$. In this case for any λ in the α -wedge of stability, the method is unconditionally stable.