Preliminaries

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

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

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:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy_1}{ds} &= f_1(t, y_1, ... y_{d+1}), \\ \frac{dy_2}{ds} &= f_2(t, y_1, ... y_{d+1}), \\ \vdots \\ \frac{dy_d}{ds} &= f_d(t, y_1, ... y_{d+1}), \\ \frac{dy_{d+1}}{ds} &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

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 $D = \{(t, y) : t_0 \le t \le T, |y - y_0| \le K\}, T, K > 0$. Suppose $\exists L \text{ (Lipschitz constant) such that } |f(t,u)-f(t,v)| \leq L|u-v|$ whenever $(t, u), (t, v) \in D$. Since D closed & bounded, $\exists M_f > 0 \text{ such that } M_f = \max\{|f(t,u)| : (t,u) \in D\}.$ 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 $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d$ 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 $\frac{dy}{dt} = f(t, y), y(t_0) = y_0.$

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 $y_{n+1} = y_n + hf(t_n, y_n)$. $y_i \approx y(t_i)$.

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

Bound on error: $|e_n| \le e^{(b-a)L} \frac{M}{2L} h = Dh$ 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 $\left|\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}\right| < L$ with L > 0. Then for n = 0, 1, ..., N, and some D > 0, the solution y_n given by Euler's method at t_n satisfies $|e_n| = |y_n - y(t_n)| \le Dh$ 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).

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

$$\begin{split} y(t_0+h) &= y(t_0) + y'(t_0)h + \frac{1}{2}y''(t_0)h^2 + \frac{1}{6}y'''(t_0)h^3 + \dots \\ \text{Also } y'(t) &= f(t,y) \Rightarrow \\ y'' &= \frac{d}{dt}f(t,y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}f(t,y)\frac{dt}{dt} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}f(t,y)\frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t}f(t,y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}f(t,y)y' = f_t + f_yf. \text{ (By chain rule)} \\ \Phi_{t,h}(y) &= y + hf(t,y) + \frac{1}{2}h^2(f_t(t,y) + f_y(t,y)f(t,y)) + \frac{1}{6}y'''h^3 + \dots \\ \text{Which we can truncate to get the 2nd order Taylor series method} \\ &\hat{\Phi}_{t,h}(y) = y + hf(t,y) + \frac{1}{2}h^2(f_t(t,y) + f_y(t,y)f(t,y)) \end{aligned}.$$

3 Convergence of One-Step Methods

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

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

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 descrete 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

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

where C is a constant that depends on y(t) and it's derivatives, and $p \ge 1$. 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)

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

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 $c_0,...c_s$ and data points $g_0,...,g_s$, 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 $c_0,...c_s$, the Lagrange polynomials $\ell_i,\ i=1,...,s$ are defined by $\ell_i(x)=\prod_{\substack{i=1\\i\neq j}}\frac{x-c_j}{c_i-c_j}.$

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

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 $g(x): \mathbb{R} \to$

 \mathbb{R} , and s quadrature points $0 \le c_1 < ... < c_s \le 1$ 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

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

$$b_i = \int_0^1 \ell_i(x) \, dx.$$
 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 $c_1, ..., c_s$. We can use such a polynomial to approximate a numerical solution to our ODE by decomposing it's 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

$$F_{i} = f(y_{0} + h \sum_{j=1}^{s} a_{ij}F_{j}), \text{ (A)}$$
$$y_{n+1} = y_{n} + h \sum_{j=1}^{s} b_{i}F_{i}. \text{ (B)}$$

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 (Autonymous 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

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

 $y_{n+1} = y_n + h \sum_{j=1}^{s} b_j f(Y_j).$

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):

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

Order Conditions for RK Methods:

Consider an RK method with $b = (b_i)$, $A = (a_{ij})$. 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 $f(y^*) = 0$. Soluion 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 $\forall t > 0$

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

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

$$\lim_{t\to\infty}\|y(t;y_0)-y^*\|=0;$$
 unstable if it is not stable.

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

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

 $\frac{dy}{dt} = By + F(y)$ subject to initial condition $y(0) = y_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$. $B \in \operatorname{Mat}(d,\mathbb{R})$ 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 $f \in \mathbb{C}^2$ 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 $\Psi: \mathbb{R} \to R$ 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 $\forall t > 0$

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

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

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

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

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

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