Numerical Solution of Differential Equations I

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Mathematical Institute University of Oxford 2019

Lecture 5



Carl David Tolmé Runge (30 August 1856 – 3 January 1927) Martin Wilhelm Kutta (3 November 1867 – 25 December 1944)

It is instructive to consider the model problem

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with $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{<0}$. The analytical solution to this initial value problem,

$$y(x) = y_0 \exp(\lambda x),$$

converges to 0 at an exponential rate as $x \to +\infty$.

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Exercise: Show that if λ is a complex number with negative real part then the solution $y(x) \equiv 0$ of the above initial value problem, corresponding to $y_0 = 0$, is asymptotically stable (cf. Lecture 1).

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Question: Under what conditions on the step size *h* does a Runge–Kutta method reproduce this behaviour?

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Question: Under what conditions on the step size *h* does a Runge–Kutta method reproduce this behaviour?

For simplicity we restrict ourselves to the case of *R*-stage methods of order of accuracy *R*, with $1 \le R \le 4$.

The only explicit one-stage first-order accurate Runge–Kutta method is Euler's explicit method.

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$$y_{n+1}=(1+\bar{h})y_n, \quad n\geq 0,$$

where $\bar{h} := \lambda h$. Thus,

 $y_n = (1+\bar{h})^n y_0.$

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The sequence $\{y_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ will converge to 0 if, and only if,

$$|1+ar{h}| < 1,$$
 yielding $ar{h} \in (-2,0).$

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For such *h* the explicit Euler method is said to be **absolutely** stable and the interval (-2, 0) is referred to as the interval of absolute stability of the method.

This corresponds to two-stage second-order Runge-Kutta methods:

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + h(c_1k_1 + c_2k_2),$$

where

$$k_1 = f(x_n, y_n),$$
 $k_2 = f(x_n + a_2h, y_n + b_{21}hk_1)$

with

$$c_1 + c_2 = 1,$$
 $a_2c_2 = b_{21}c_2 = \frac{1}{2}.$

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Applying this to (1) yields,

$$y_{n+1} = \left(1 + \overline{h} + \frac{1}{2}\overline{h}^2\right)y_n, \qquad n \ge 0,$$

and therefore

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Hence the method is absolutely stable if, and only if,

$$|1 + \bar{h} + \frac{1}{2}\bar{h}^2| < 1$$
, i.e. when $\bar{h} \in (-2, 0)$.

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An analogous argument shows that

$$y_{n+1} = \left(1 + \bar{h} + \frac{1}{2}\bar{h}^2 + \frac{1}{6}\bar{h}^3\right)y_n.$$

Demanding that

$$\left|1+ar{h}+rac{1}{2}ar{h}^2+rac{1}{6}ar{h}^3
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then yields the interval of absolute stability: $\bar{h} \in (-2.51, 0)$.

We have that

$$y_{n+1} = \left(1 + \bar{h} + \frac{1}{2}\bar{h}^2 + \frac{1}{6}\bar{h}^3 + \frac{1}{24}\bar{h}^4\right)y_n,$$

and the associated interval of absolute stability is $\bar{h} \in (-2.78, 0)$.

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$R \ge 5$

By applying the Runge–Kutta method to the model problem (1) still results in a recursion of the form

$$y_{n+1} = A_R(\bar{h})y_n, \qquad n \ge 0.$$

However, unlike the case when R = 1, 2, 3, 4, in addition to \bar{h} now $A_R(\bar{h})$ also depends on the coefficients of the Runge–Kutta method.

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By a convenient choice of the free parameters the associated interval of absolute stability may be maximised.

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Remark. The analysis above can be extended to the case when $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\operatorname{Re}(\lambda) < 0$.

Regions of absolute stability of RK methods plotted in the complex plane Consider $y' = \lambda y$, $y(0) = y_0 (\neq 0)$, with $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, $\operatorname{Re}(\lambda) < 0$.

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Example

RK4 involves 4 function evaluations per step. For comparison, by considering three consecutive points x_{n-1} , $x_n = x_{n-1} + h$, $x_{n+1} = x_{n-1} + 2h$, integrating the ODE between x_{n-1} and x_{n+1} ,

$$y(x_{n+1}) = y(x_{n-1}) + \int_{x_{n-1}}^{x_{n+1}} f(x, y(x)) dx$$

$$\approx y(x_{n-1}) + \frac{1}{3}h[f(x_{n-1}, y(x_{n-1})) + 4f(x_n, y(x_n)) + f(x_{n+1}, y(x_{n+1}))]$$

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thanks to Simpson's rule. This leads to the method

$$y_{n+1} = y_{n-1} + \frac{1}{3}h[f(x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}) + 4f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1})].$$

In contrast with one-step methods, where only a single value y_n was needed to compute the next approximation y_{n+1} , here we need *two* preceding values, y_n and y_{n-1} to be able to calculate y_{n+1} , and therefore the method in the last example is not a one-step method.

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This is an example of a linear multi-step method.

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k} \alpha_{j} y_{n+j} = h \sum_{j=0}^{k} \beta_{j} f(x_{n+j}, y_{n+j}),$$
(2)

where the coefficients $\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_k$ and β_0, \ldots, β_k are real constants.

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where the coefficients $\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_k$ and β_0, \ldots, β_k are real constants. In order to avoid degenerate cases, we shall assume that $\alpha_k \neq 0$ and that α_0 and β_0 are not both equal to zero.

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If $\beta_k = 0$ then y_{n+k} is obtained explicitly from previous values of y_j and $f(x_j, y_j)$, and the *k*-step method is then said to be **explicit**.

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If $\beta_k \neq 0$ then y_{n+k} appears on both sides; because of this implicit dependence on y_{n+k} the method is then called **implicit**.

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The numerical method (2) is called *linear* because it involves only linear combinations of the $\{y_n\}$ and the $\{f(x_n, y_n)\}$; for simplicity, we shall write f_n instead of $f(x_n, y_n)$.

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b) The trapezium method

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{1}{2}h[f_{n+1} + f_n]$$

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is also an implicit linear one-step method.

a) Euler's method is a trivial case: it is an explicit linear one-step method. The **implicit Euler method**

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + hf(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1})$$

is an implicit linear one-step method.

b) The trapezium method

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{1}{2}h[f_{n+1} + f_n]$$

is also an implicit linear one-step method.

c) The four-step Adams-Bashforth method

$$y_{n+4} = y_{n+3} + \frac{1}{24}h[55f_{n+3} - 59f_{n+2} + 37f_{n+1} - 9f_n]$$

is an explicit linear four-step method.