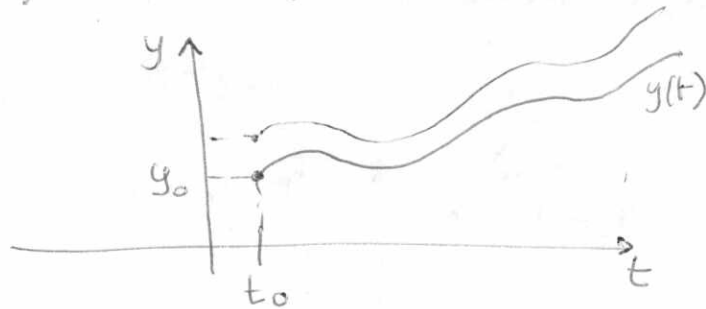


$I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ interval, $f: I \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$t_0 \in I$ & $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$

? $y: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ solution of the 1st order Cauchy problem

$$(1) \begin{cases} y'(t) = f(t, y(t)) & t > t_0, t \in I \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \end{cases}$$



Theorem: f continuous w.r.t. both t and y ,
 f Lipschitz on the second argument, uniformly w.r.t.
 t , i.e. $\exists L > 0: \forall y_1, y_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$|f(t, y_1) - f(t, y_2)| \leq L |y_1 - y_2| \quad \forall t \in I$$

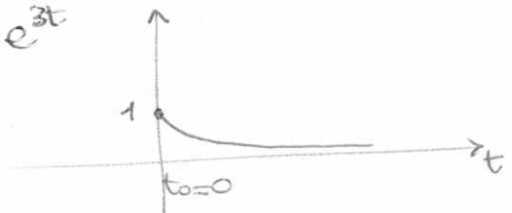
$\Rightarrow \exists! y: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, y \in C^1(I)$ solution of (1)

From the numerical point of view we are not interested in looking for the ~~the~~ mathematical expression of $y(t)$.

Ex:
$$\begin{cases} y'(t) = 3y(t) \\ y(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

the exact solution is

$$y(t) = e^{3t}$$



We are interested in approximating the exact solution in some points in $(t_0, T]$.

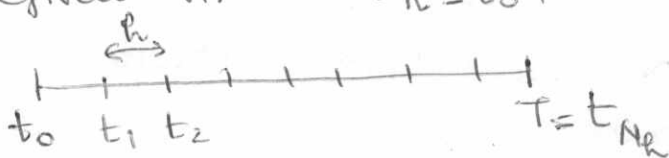
① We discretize $(t_0, T]$ (the time interval).

Given $h > 0: t_n = t_0 + n \cdot h$

$n = 0, \dots, N_R:$

$t_{N_R} = T.$

$t_{n+1} = t_n + h$

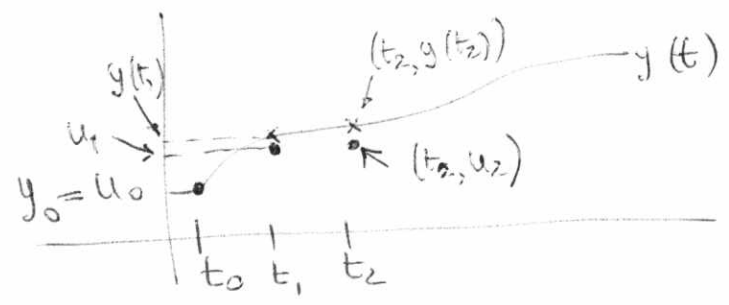


? $\{u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{N_h}\}$: $u_n \approx y(t_n)$

↑
approx sol.

↑
exact sol

We set $u_0 = y_0$ then we compute u_1 by approx y'
 Once u_1 is known, we compute u_2 , and so on



How to build $\{u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{N_h}\}$?
 There are ~~now~~ a lot of possibility depending on the way
 the derivative is approximated by -

For example if $y'(t_n) \approx \frac{y_n - y_{n-1}}{h}$ backward finite difference

from the Cauchy problem: $(y_n = y(t_n))$

$$y'(t) = f(t, y(t)) \quad \forall t \in (t_0, T)$$

$$\Rightarrow y'(t_n) = f(t_n, y_n) \quad (\text{since } t_n \in (t_0, T))$$

$$\approx \frac{y_n - y_{n-1}}{h} \Rightarrow \frac{y_n - y_{n-1}}{h} \approx f(t_n, y_n)$$

↑
this is not =

We define $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{N_h}\}$ the real numbers
 that satisfy the equality $\frac{u_n - u_{n-1}}{h} = f(t_n, u_n)$

We explicitate u_n : $\begin{cases} u_n = u_{n-1} + h f(t_n, u_n) & n \geq 1 \\ u_0 = y_0 \end{cases}$

$\begin{cases} u_0 = y_0 \\ u_{n+1} = u_n + h f(t_{n+1}, u_{n+1}) & n \geq 0 \end{cases}$ Backward Euler method

If we approximate $y'(t_n) \approx \frac{y_{n+1} - y_n}{h}$
 FORWARD FINITE DIFF

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} y'(t_n) = f(t_n, y_n) \\ \approx \frac{y_{n+1} - y_n}{h} \end{cases} \quad \frac{y_{n+1} - y_n}{h} \approx f(t_n, y_n)$$

$$\frac{u_{n+1} - u_n}{h} = f(t_n, u_n)$$

$$\begin{cases} u_{n+1} = u_n + h f(t_n, u_n) & n \geq 0 \\ u_0 = y_0 \end{cases} \quad \text{FORWARD EULER.}$$

Another approach:

by the fundamental theorem of integral calculus

$$\begin{cases} y'(t) = f(t, y(t)) & t \in (t_0, T] \\ y(t_0) = y_0 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow y(t) = y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t f(s, y(s)) ds$$

differential form

integral form

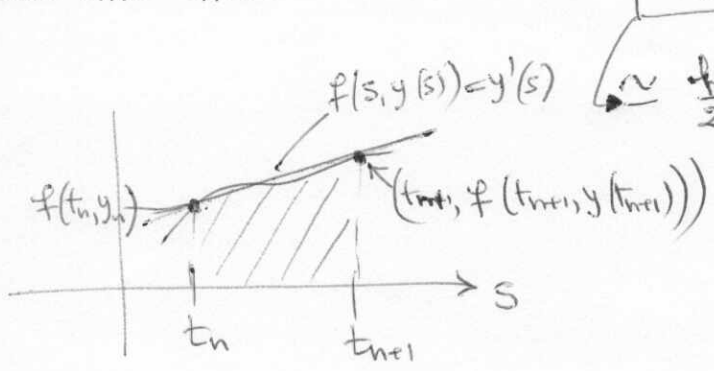
Here we approximate y'

here we approximate \int

the CRANK-NICOLSON Method:

$$\forall t_n \in (t_0, T] \quad y(t_{n+1}) = y(t_n) + \int_{t_n}^{t_{n+1}} f(s, y(s)) ds$$

and $t_{n+1} = t_n + h$



$$\approx \frac{h}{2} [f(t_n, y(t_n)) + f(t_{n+1}, y(t_{n+1}))]$$

the \int is approximated by the area of the trapezoid

$$\Rightarrow y_{n+1} \approx y_n + \frac{h}{2} (f(t_n, y_n) + f(t_{n+1}, y_{n+1}))$$

we define $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{NR}\}$ the set of real numbers

$$\text{s.t. } \begin{cases} u_{n+1} = u_n + \frac{h}{2} [f(t_n, u_n) + f(t_{n+1}, u_{n+1})] & n \geq 0 \\ u_0 = y_0 \end{cases}$$

CRANK NICOLSON METHOD -

Each of these 3 methods yields u_{n+1} once u_n is known.

To compute u_{n+1} only the previous value u_n is needed. ~~more precisely the last value u_n .~~

We say that all these methods are ONE-STEP methods since only the last known step is required to compute u_{n+1} .

For example the scheme

$$u_{n+1} = u_n + \frac{h}{2} [3f(t_n, u_n) - f(t_{n-1}, u_{n-1})]$$

is a TWO-STEP method since

2 previous steps are needed to compute u_n .

BE and CN are implicit methods, while FE is explicit.

As a matter of fact in FE, u_{n+1} is explicit while in ^{both} BE and CN u_{n+1} depends on itself through $f(t_{n+1}, u_{n+1})$.

Explicit methods are cheaper implicit methods are very expensive since to pass from u_n to u_{n+1} we need to solve a non-linear system of equations (which is equivalent to about 6-10 linear systems)

Each method is characterized by:

- 1- n^o of steps
- 2- explicit or implicit type
- 3- order of convergence
- 4- stability properties.

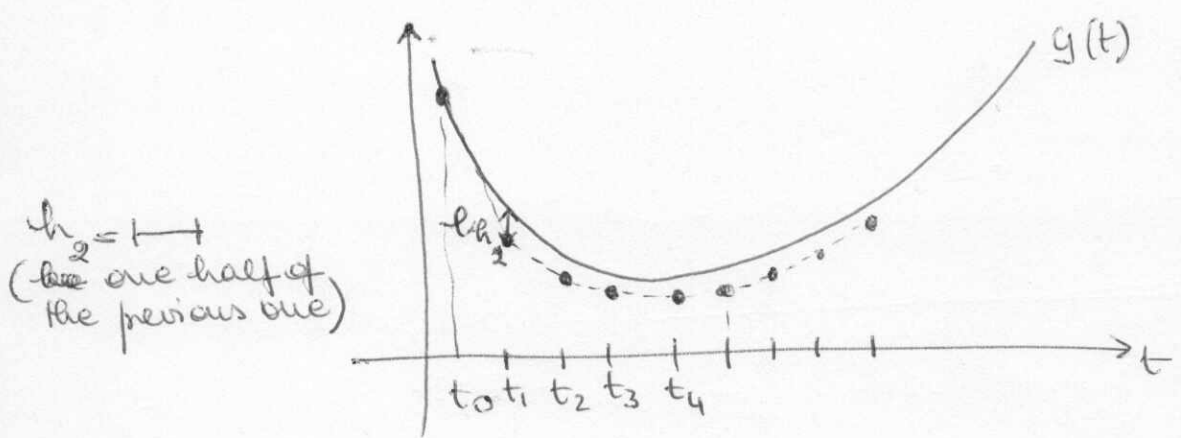
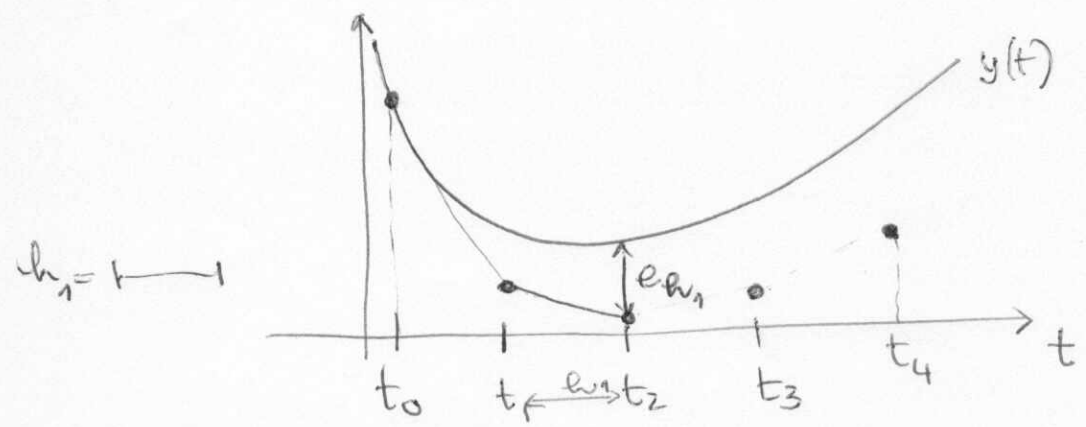
CONVERGENCE

Def A numerical scheme for approximating the solution of an ODE is CONVERGENT if

\exists a function $C=C(h) : \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} C(h) = 0$ s.t.

$$e_h = \max_{0 \leq m \leq N} |y(t_m) - u_m| \leq C(h)$$

moreover, if $\exists p \in \mathbb{N} : C(h) \approx h^p$ when $h \rightarrow 0$
 \Rightarrow the scheme has order of convergence = p .



By taking $h_3 < h_2$ we obtain $e_{h_3} < e_{h_2}$
 and when $h \rightarrow 0$ $e_h \rightarrow 0$. All the values $\{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$ come close to the exact $y(t)$.

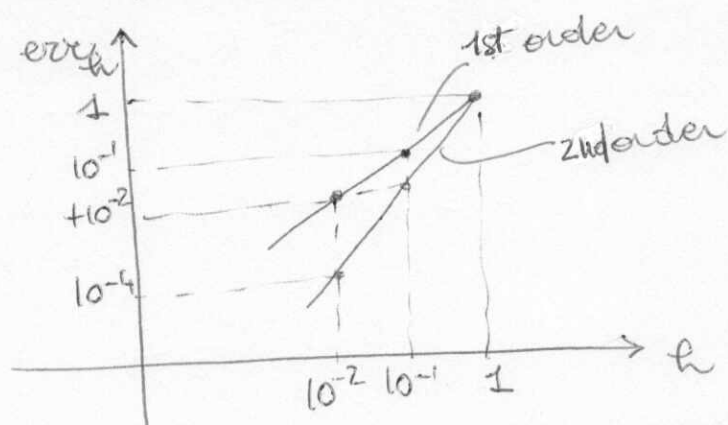
BE and FE are convergent methods with order $p=1$

(6)

CN is convergent with order $p=2$.

the higher the order is and ^{the} more appealing the method is.

By fixing h , the second-order method will provide a more accurate (precise) solution than the first-order method does.



1st order method: by reducing h of one order (from 1 to 10^{-1})

the error reduces of one order

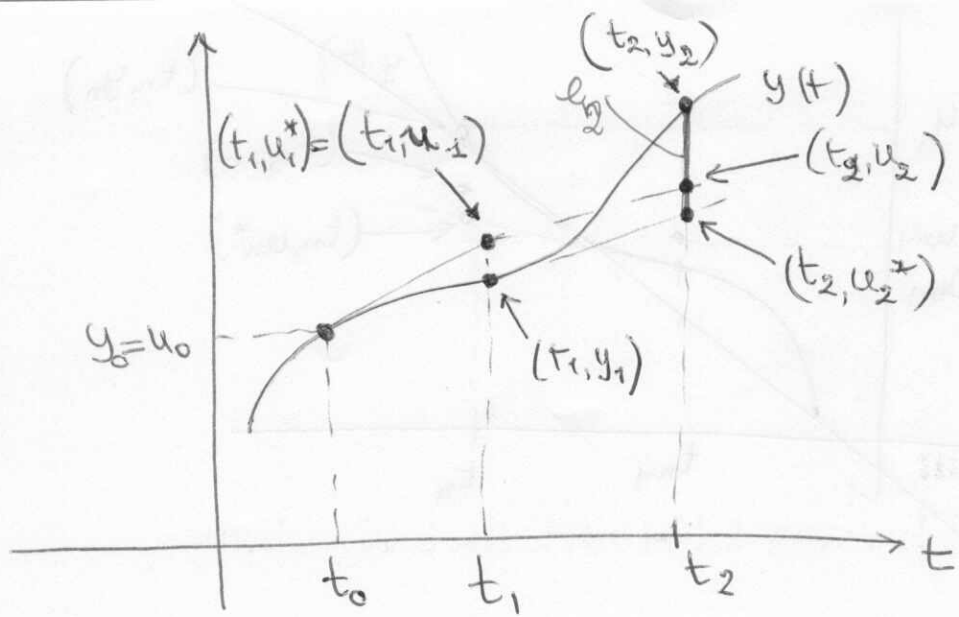
2nd-order method: by reducing h of one order the error reduces of two orders.

At each step t_n the error between the exact and the numerical solution $e_n = y(t_n) - u_n$ can be decomposed in the sum of two terms:

- the first one is the error introduced at step n when the exact derivative is approximated;

- the second one is due to the accumulation of the errors introduced at the previous steps.

Both of them have to be infinitesimal to guarantee the convergence.



Analysis for FE $u_{n+1} = u_n + h f(t_n, u_n)$

t_0 : $y_0 - u_0 = 0$

t_1 : $y_1 - u_1 = ch^2$ (c: constant > 0)

$$(y(t_{n+1}) = y(t_n) + h y'(t_n) + \frac{h^2}{2} y''(\xi_n))$$

Taylor expansion

t_2 : $y_2 - u_2 = (y_2 - u_2^*) + (u_2^* - u_2)$

where u_2^* would be the ^{numerical} solution if we start from the exact value y_1

(u_2^* is a fictitious variable)

($y_2 - u_2^*$) is due to the approx error introduced at step 2 when we approx the derivative

($u_2^* - u_2$) is due to the accumulation of previous errors -

(8)

Def $\forall m \quad \tau_m(h) = \frac{y_m - u_m^*}{h}$ is called LOCAL TRUNCATION ERROR

and it is the error that would be generated by forcing the exact solution to satisfy the numerical scheme

EX: FE
$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \underbrace{h y'(t_n)}_{f(t_n, y(t_n))} + \frac{h^2}{2} y''(\xi_n) \quad (\text{Taylor})$$

$$u_{n+1} = u_n + h f(t_n, u_n)$$

When we force y_{n+1} to satisfy FE we neglect the remainder of the Taylor expansion

$$\left(\frac{h^2}{2} y''(\xi_n) \right) \Rightarrow \tau_n(h) = \frac{y_n - u_n^*}{h} = \frac{1 \cdot h^2}{h^2} y''(\xi_n) = h \frac{y''(\xi_n)}{2}$$

If y'' is bounded $\Rightarrow \tau_n(h) \approx C_n h$ and it is infinitesimal when $h \rightarrow 0$

Def $\tau(h) = \max_n \tau_n(h)$ GLOBAL TRUNCATION ERROR

Def A numerical scheme for approximating ODE is CONSISTENT if $\tau(h)$ is infinitesimal when $h \rightarrow 0$.

EX: FE: $\tau(h) = Ch$; BE: $\tau(h) = Ch$

CN: $\tau(h) = Ch^2$

All these schemes are consistent.

Let us examine $(u_n^* - u_n)$, it is due to the propagation / accumulation of previous local truncation errors.

Local truncation errors can be interpreted as perturbations or the data introduced at each step.

~~the~~ ZERO STABILITY

Roughly speaking, we say that a scheme is zero-stable for the ^{numerical} solution of the Cauchy problem on a bounded interval if

small perturbations on the data yield small perturbations on the solution when $h \rightarrow 0$.

More precisely if

$$\exists C > 0, \exists h_0 > 0, \exists \epsilon_0 > 0:$$

$$\forall h \in (0, h_0], \forall \epsilon \in (0, \epsilon_0]$$

$$|z_n - u_n| \leq C \epsilon \quad \forall n = 0, \dots, N_h$$

where: C is a const indep of h, n, ϵ

(it can depend on the interval (t_0, T))

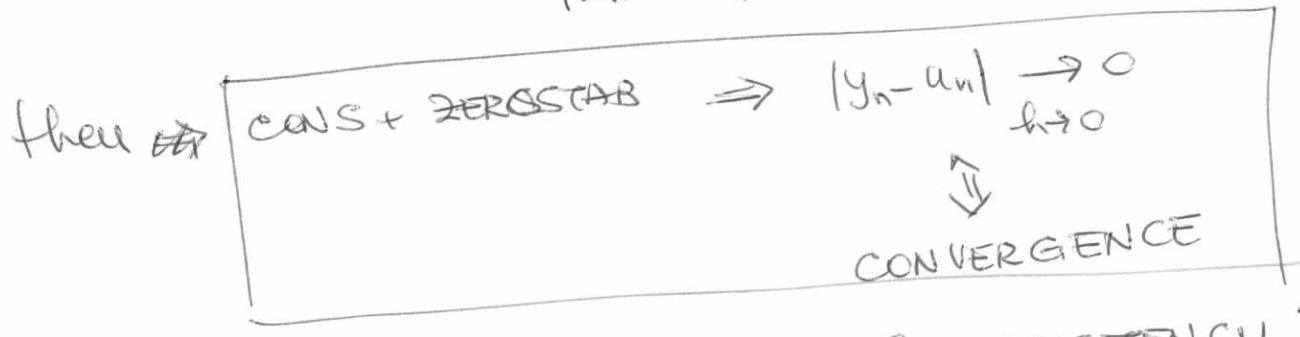
- ϵ is the maximum size of the perturbations
 - u_n is the unperturbed solution
 - z_n is the perturbed solution
-

therefore, if our errors on the data are $\mathcal{O}_n(\epsilon)$ (which are infinitesimal) and the scheme is

zero-stable $\Rightarrow |u_n - u_n^*| \leq C \cdot \underbrace{\mathcal{O}_n(h)}$

that depends on $\mathcal{O}_n(h)$ and is infinitesimal when $h \rightarrow 0$.

Finally: consistency guarantees that $\mathcal{O}_n(h) \rightarrow 0$ when $h \rightarrow 0$
and $|y_n - u_n^*| \rightarrow 0$ when $h \rightarrow 0$
zero-stab guarantees that $|u_n^* - u_n| \rightarrow 0$ when $h \rightarrow 0$



Actually $\text{CONVERGENCE} \Leftrightarrow (\text{CONSISTENCY} + \text{ZERO STABILITY})$

BE, FE, CN are zero-stab, then are convergent.

When the integration interval (t_0, T) is unbounded the constant $C \rightarrow +\infty$ and the zero-stab is insufficient to guarantee convergence, we have to control ~~something~~ a stronger concept of stability: the ABSOLUTE STABILITY.

ABSOLUTE STABILITY

(10)

We study this property on a very simple problem but the concept can be extended to every ODE.

let us consider the linear model Cauchy prob

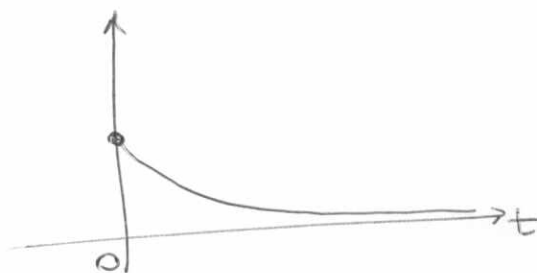
$$(1) \begin{cases} y' = \lambda y \\ y(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

$t > 0$

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \text{Re}(\lambda) < 0$

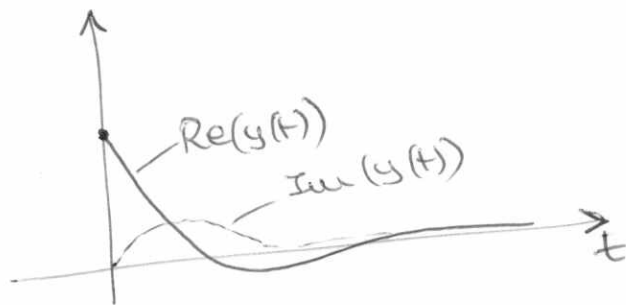
If $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^- \Rightarrow y(t) = e^{\lambda t}$

and $y(t) \rightarrow 0, t \rightarrow \infty$



If $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \Rightarrow y(t) = e^{\lambda t} = e^{\text{Re}(\lambda)t} \cdot (\cos(\text{Im}(\lambda)t) + i \sin(\text{Im}(\lambda)t))$

and, since $\text{Re}(\lambda) < 0 \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} \text{Re}(y(t)) \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow \infty} 0 \\ \text{Im}(y(t)) \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow \infty} 0 \end{matrix}$



We say that a numerical scheme is absolute stable if the numerical sol (approximating the solution of (1)) $u_n \rightarrow 0$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$, that is it behaves like the exact sol when $t \rightarrow \infty$.

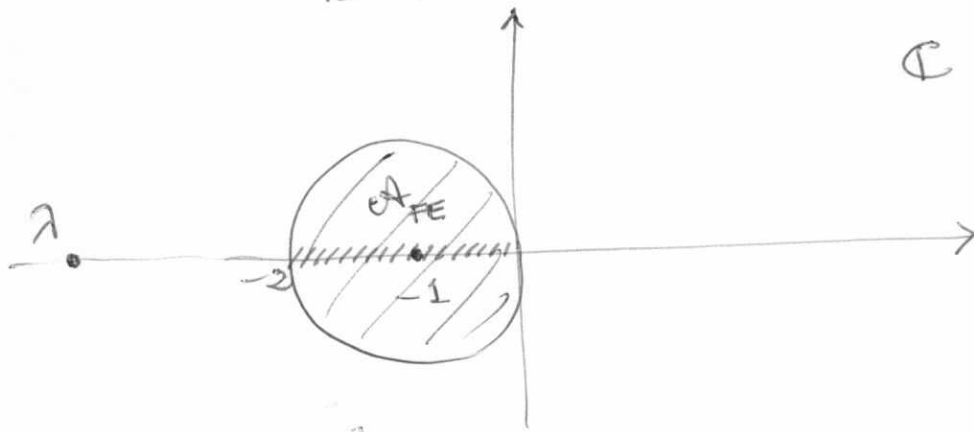
Some schemes are absolute stable $\forall h > 0$, others only for $h \in A \subset \mathbb{R}^+$

Def $\mathcal{A} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z = h\lambda \text{ s.t. } u_n \rightarrow 0, t_n \rightarrow \infty\}$

is called absolute stability region.

Given λ (it is a problem datum), ~~we~~ \mathcal{A} says us which values of h guarantee abs. stab.

EX: FE $\mathcal{A}_{FE} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |1+z| < 1\}$



EX 1 $\begin{cases} y' = -3y \\ y(0) = 1 \end{cases} \quad \lambda = -3$

h has to be chosen so that $h\lambda \in \mathcal{A}$.

$z = h\lambda$ ~~must~~ belong to the straight line passing from $(0,0)$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$

\hookrightarrow It's up to h to fetch λ and lead: $h\lambda \in \mathcal{A}$.

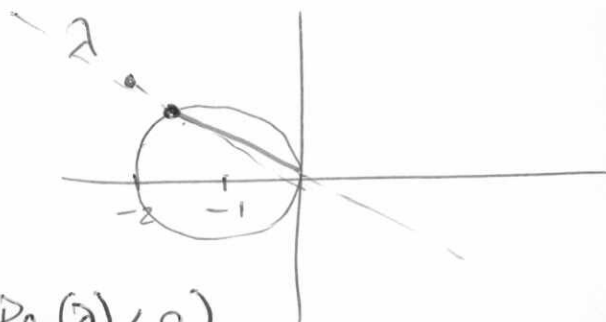
FE is abs stab if $-2 < -3 \cdot h < 0 \Rightarrow 0 < h < \frac{2}{3}$

EX 2 $y' = (-2+i)y \quad \lambda = -2+i$

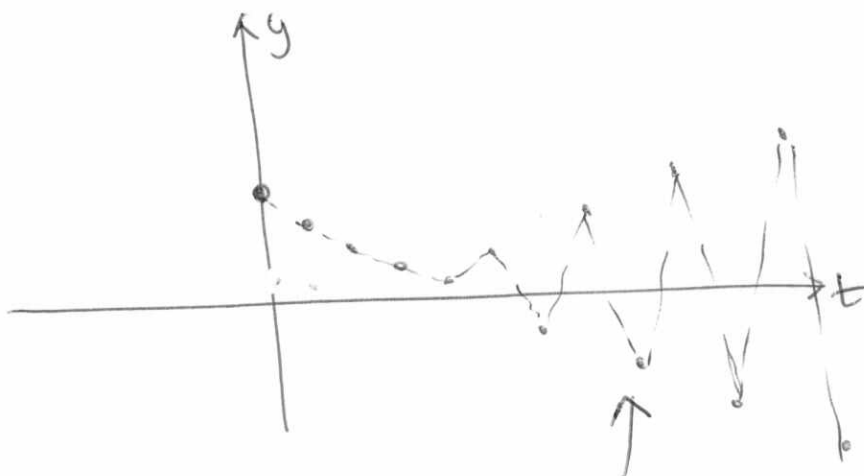
$h\lambda \in \mathcal{A}_{FE}$

iff $0 < h < \frac{-2 \operatorname{Re}(\lambda)}{|\lambda|^2}$

(recall that $\operatorname{Re}(\lambda) < 0$)



When $h\lambda \notin \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow$ oscillations arise



unstable solution.

Both BE and CN are absolutely stable $\forall h > 0$.

$$\mathcal{A}_{BE} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z-1| > 1\}$$

$$\mathcal{A}_{CN} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re} z < 0\}$$

If a scheme is absolutely stable \Rightarrow
it is zero-stable, too

Absolute stability is stronger than zero-stab.

Systems of ODE

and ODE of order $p > 1$.

? $x = x(t)$

Ex 1:

$$3x'' - 5x' + 6x = \cos t$$

order $p=2$

(P)

$$x(0) = 1$$

$t_0 = 0$

$$x'(0) = 3$$

Rem 1 we need p initial conditions on $x, x', \dots, x^{(p-1)}$ in t_0 .

We convert the second-order equation in a system of first-order eqs:

$$\underline{y}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t) \\ y_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

with

$$y_1(t) = x(t)$$

$$y_2(t) = x'(t) = y_1'(t)$$

$$\Rightarrow x''(t) = y_2'(t)$$

and problem (P) becomes

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 3y_2'(t) - 5y_2(t) + 6y_1(t) = \cos t \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} y_1'(t) = y_2(t) \end{array} \right.$$

$$y_1(0) = 1$$

$$y_2(0) = 3$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} y_1'(t) = y_2(t) \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} y_2'(t) = -2y_1(t) + \frac{5}{3}y_2(t) + \frac{1}{3}\cos t \end{array} \right.$$

$$y_1(0) = 1$$

$$y_2(0) = 3$$

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} \underline{y}'(t) &= \underline{F}(t, \underline{y}(t)) = \begin{bmatrix} y_2(t) \\ -2y_1(t) + \frac{5}{3}y_2(t) + \cos t \end{bmatrix} \\ \underline{y}(0) &= \underline{y}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned} \right.$$

We can apply BE, FE, CN to the vectorial problem

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} \underline{y}'(t) &= \underline{F}(t, \underline{y}(t)) & t > t_0 \\ \underline{y}(t_0) &= \underline{y}_0 \end{aligned} \right.$$

FE: $\underline{u}_{n+1} = \underline{u}_n + h \underline{F}(t_n, \underline{u}_n)$

BE: $\underline{u}_{n+1} = \underline{u}_n + h \underline{F}(t_n, \underline{u}_{n+1})$

CN: $\underline{u}_{n+1} = \underline{u}_n + \frac{h}{2} \left[\underline{F}(t_n, \underline{u}_n) + \underline{F}(t_{n+1}, \underline{u}_{n+1}) \right]$

the vectorial counterpart of $y' = \lambda y$ is $\underline{y}' = A \cdot \underline{y}$ and $\lambda_i(A)$ eigenvalues of A play the role of λ in the study of abs stab.

In order to guarantee abs stab, the conditions ~~are~~ $h \lambda_i(A) \in \mathcal{A}$ have to be satisfied $\forall i=1, \dots, p$ ($p =$ dimension of the system).