

SE301:Numerical Methods

Topic 8

Solution of ODE



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Term 053

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(072)

Ordinary Differential Equations

Taylor Series Method



- Ordinary Differential Equations
- Taylor Series Method to solve ODE

Ordinary Differential Equations

Differential Equations involves one or more derivatives of unknown functions

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} - x(t) = e^t$$

$$\frac{d^2x(t)}{dt^2} - 5\frac{dx(t)}{dt} + 2x(t) = \cos(t)$$

A solution to a differential equations is a function that satisfies the equations.

Ordinary Differential Equations

$$x(t) = \cos(2t)$$

is a solution to the ODE Is it unique?

$$\frac{d^2 x(t)}{dt^2} + 4x(t) = 0$$

All functions of the form $x(t) = \cos(2t + c)$
(where c is a real constant) are solutions

Uniqueness of a solution

In order to uniquely specify a solution to an n th order differential equation we need n initial conditions.

$$\frac{d^2 y(x)}{dt^2} + 4y(x) = 0$$

$$y(0) = a$$

$$\dot{y}(0) = b$$

Taylor Series Method

$$\text{Given } \frac{dy(x)}{dx} = f(y, x), \quad y(a) = y_a$$

Taylor Series expansion of $y(x)$

$$y(a+h) = y(a) + h \frac{dy}{dx} + h.o.t \approx y(a) + h f(y(a), a)$$

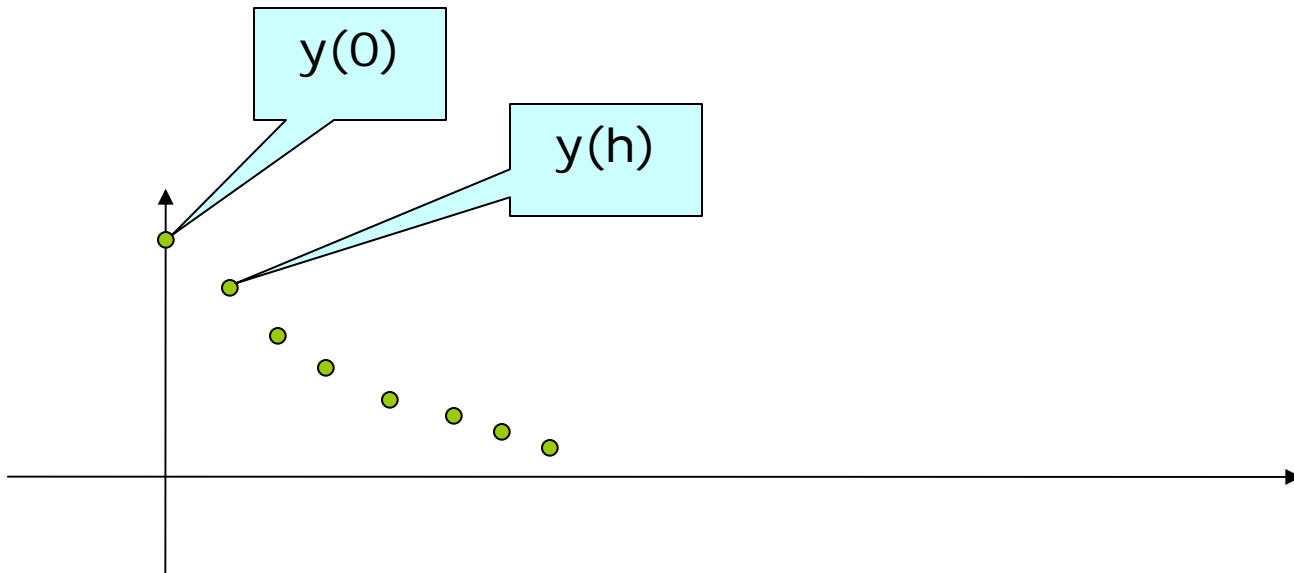
Similarly

$$y(a+2h) \approx y(a+h) + h f(y(a+h), a+h)$$

We use similar formulas to compute $y(a+3h)$, $y(a+4h)$,....

Example

$$\text{Solve } \frac{dy}{dx} = f(y, x), \quad y(0) = y_a \quad \text{use } h = 0.01$$



Example

$$\text{Solve } \frac{dy}{dx} = 1 + x^2, y(1) = -4 \quad \text{use } h = 0.01$$

$$y(a + h) = y(a) + h f(y(a), a)$$

$$y(1) = -4$$

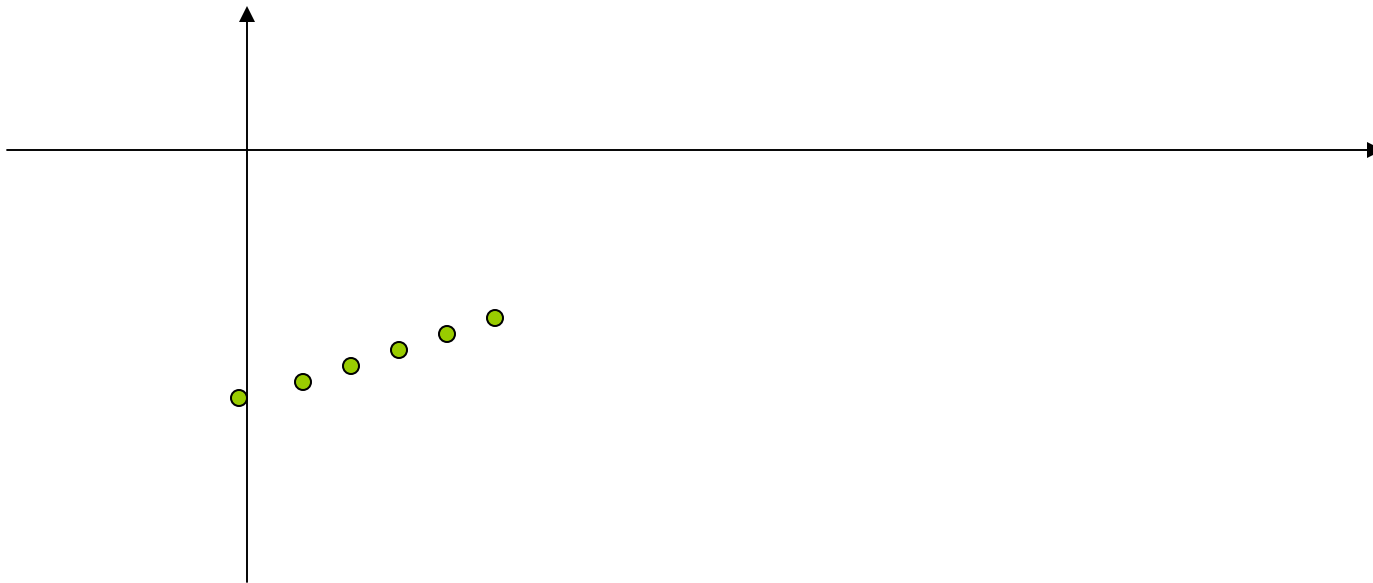
$$y(1.01) = -4 + 0.01(1 + (1)^2) = -3.98$$

$$y(1.02) = -3.98 + 0.01(1 + (1.01)^2) = -3.9598$$

$$y(1.03) = -3.9598 + 0.01(1 + (1.02)^2) = -3.9394$$

Example

$$\text{Solve } \frac{dx(t)}{dt} = 1 + t^2, x(1) = -4 \quad \text{use } h = 0.01$$



Euler Method

The Euler Method == First order Taylor series method

$$\text{Given } \frac{dy(x)}{dx} = f(y, x), \quad y(a) = y_a$$

Solution :

$$y(a + h) = y(a) + h f(y(a), a)$$

$$y(a + 2h) = y(a + h) + h f(y(a + h), a + h)$$

$$y(a + 3h) = y(a + 2h) + h f(y(a + h), a + 2h)$$

Types of Errors

Types of Errors:

- **Local truncation error:**
error due to the use of truncated Taylor series to compute $x(t+h)$.
- **Round off error:**
error due to finite number of bits used in representation of numbers. This error could be accumulated and magnified in succeeding steps.

Example 2

$$\text{Solve } \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + 2x(t) = 1, \quad x(0) = 1 \quad \text{use } h = 0.01$$

$$x(a+h) = x(a) + h f(a, x(a))$$

$$f(x) = ?$$

$$x(0.0) = ?$$

$$x(0.01) = ?$$

$$x(0.02) = ?$$

$$x(0.03) = ?$$

Example 2

$$\text{Solve } \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + 2x(t) = 1, x(0) = 1 \quad \text{use } h = 0.01$$

$$x(a + h) = x(a) + h f(a, x(a))$$

$$f(t, x) = 1 - 2x(t)$$

$$x(0.01) = 1 + .01(1 - 2(1)) = 1 - .01 = .99$$

$$x(0.02) = 0.99 + 0.01(1 - 2(0.99)) = 0.9802$$

$$x(0.03) = 0.9706$$

$$x(0.04) = 0.9612$$

Lecture 29

Modified Euler Methods



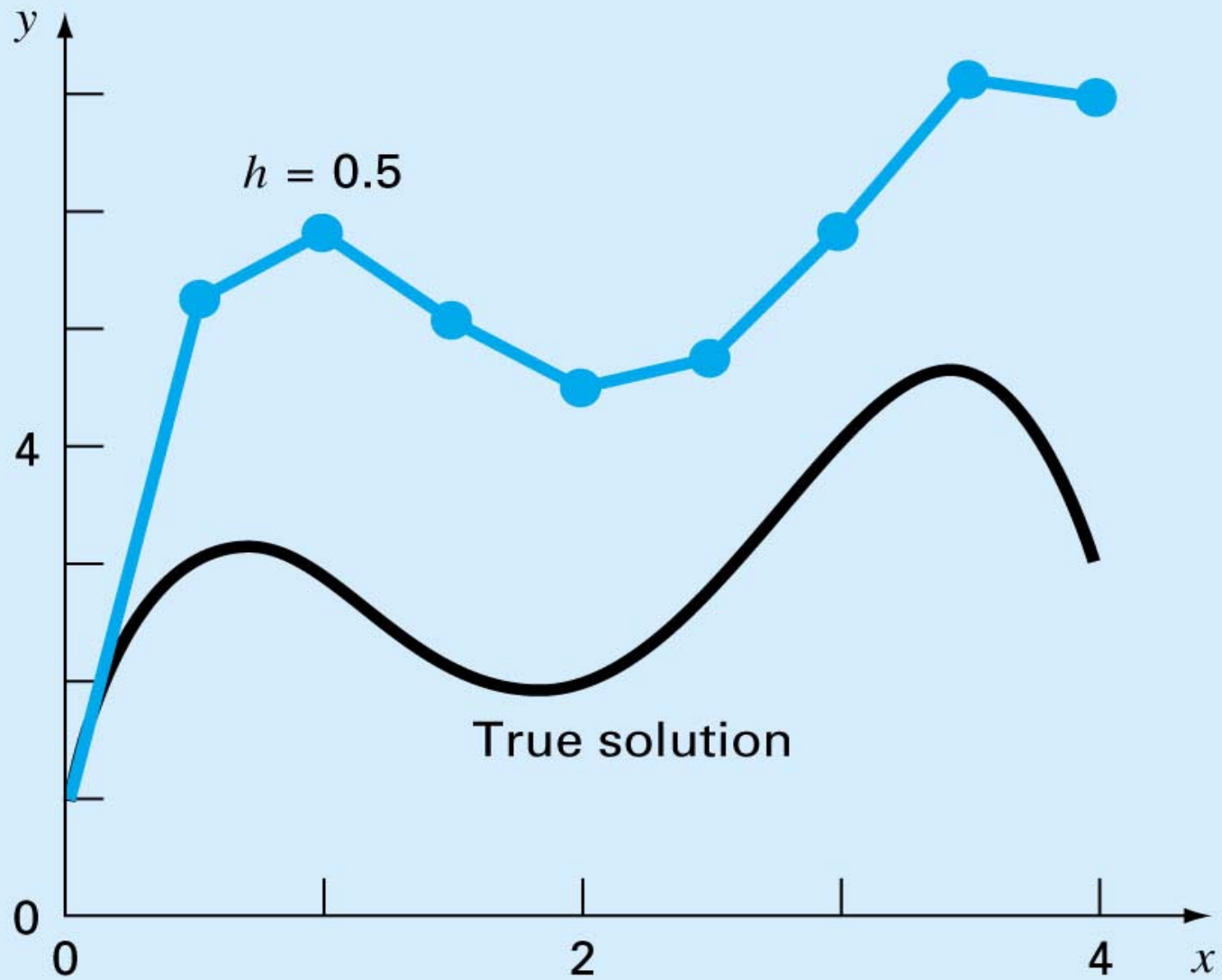
Review Euler Method

Heun's Method

Midpoint method

Runge-Kutta method

Figure 25.3



Error Analysis for Euler's Method/

Numerical solutions of ODEs involves two types of •
error:

Truncation error –

Local truncation error •

$$E_a = \frac{f'(x_i, y_i)}{2!} h^2$$

$$E_a = O(h^2)$$

Propagated truncation error •

The sum of the two is the *total or global truncation error* –

Round-off errors –

The Taylor series provides a means of •
quantifying the error in Euler's method.

However;

The Taylor series provides only an estimate of the –
local truncation error-that is, the error created
during a single step of the method.

In actual problems, the functions are more –
complicated than simple polynomials.

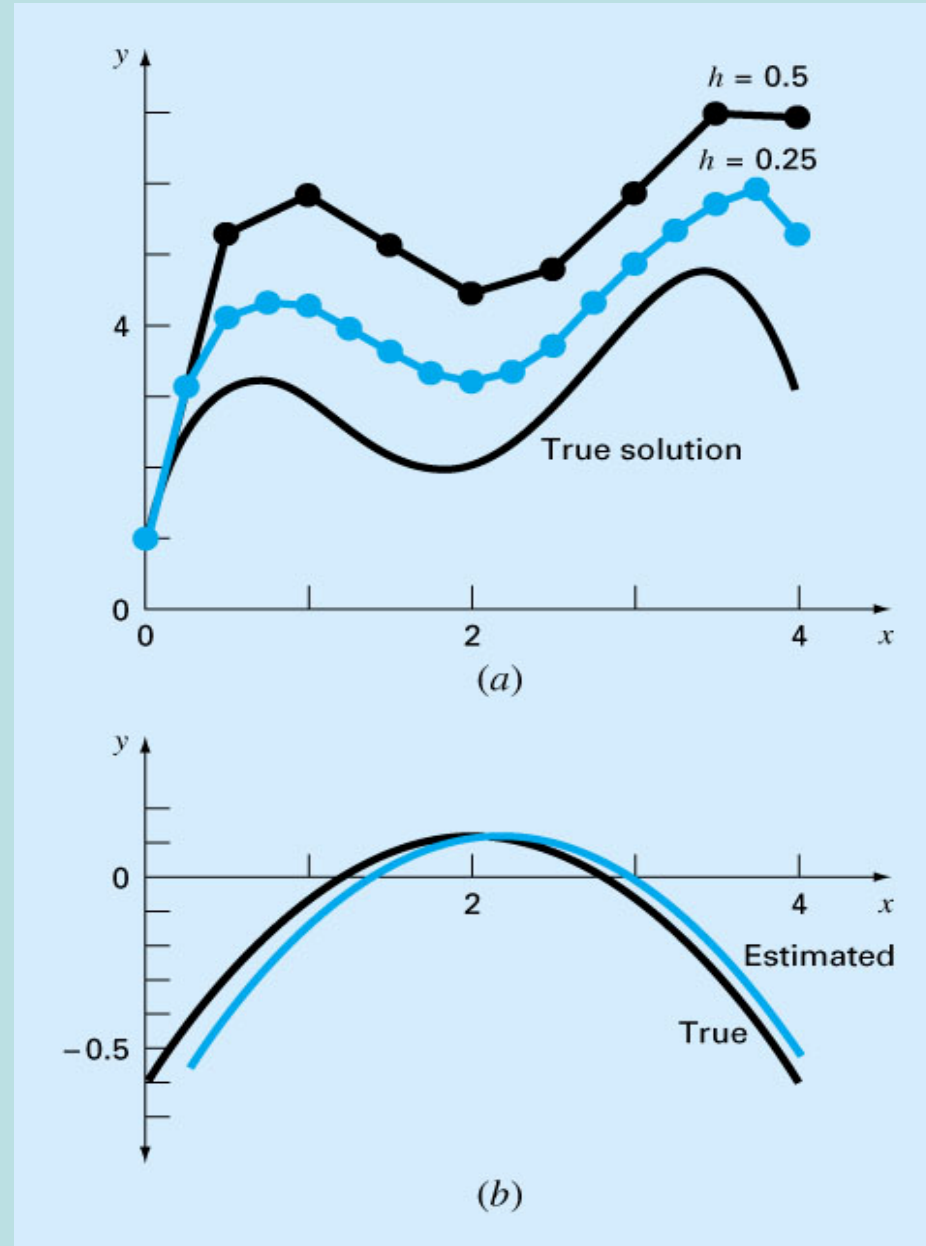
Consequently, the derivatives needed to evaluate
the Taylor series expansion would not always be
easy to obtain.

In conclusion, •

the error can be reduced by reducing the step size –

If the solution to the differential equation is linear, –

Figure 25.4



Improvements of Euler's method

A fundamental source of error in Euler's method is that the derivative at the beginning of the interval is assumed to apply across the entire interval. •

Two simple modifications are available to circumvent this shortcoming: •

Heun's Method –

The Midpoint (or Improved Polygon) Method –

Outlines

- Euler Method
- Heun's Predictor Corrector
- Midpoint method
- Comparison

Euler Method

Problem

$$\dot{y}(x) = f(x, y)$$

$$y(x_0) = y_0$$

Euler Method

$$y_0 = y(x_0)$$

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h f(x_i, y_i)$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots$

Local Truncation Error $O(h^2)$

Global Truncation Error $O(h)$

Heun's Predictor Corrector Method

Problem

$$\dot{y}(x) = f(x, y)$$

$$y(x_0) = y_0$$

Heun's Method

$$y_0 = y(x_0)$$

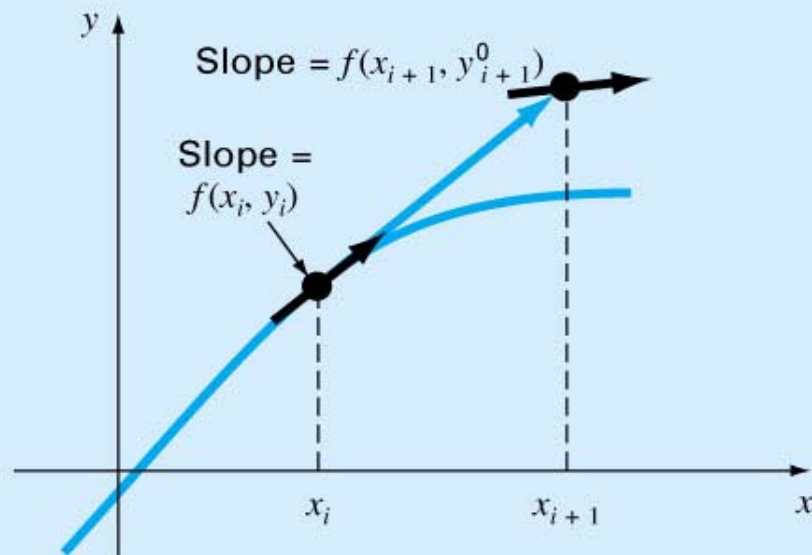
$$\text{Predictor: } y_{i+1}^0 = y_i + h f(x_i, y_i)$$

$$\text{Corrector: } y_{i+1}^{k+1} = y_i + \frac{h}{2} (f(x_i, y_i) + f(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}^k))$$

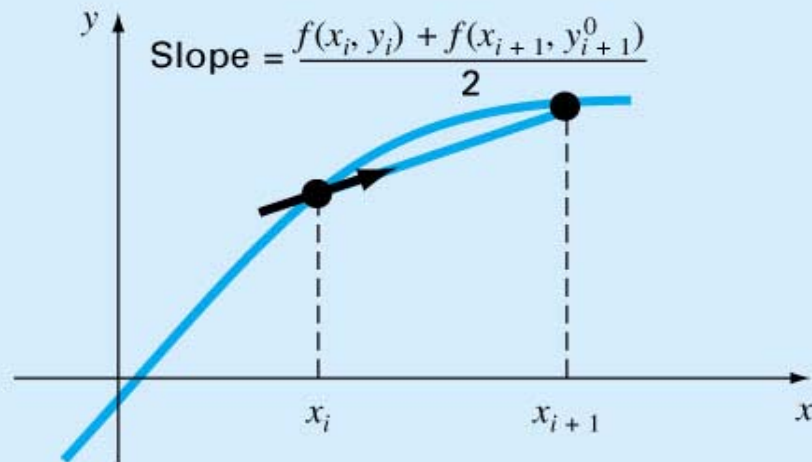
Local Truncation Error $O(h^3)$

Global Truncation Error $O(h^2)$

Figure 25.9



(a)



(b)

Midpoint Method

Problem

$$\dot{y}(x) = f(x, y)$$

$$y(x_0) = y_0$$

Midpoint Method

$$y_0 = y(x_0)$$

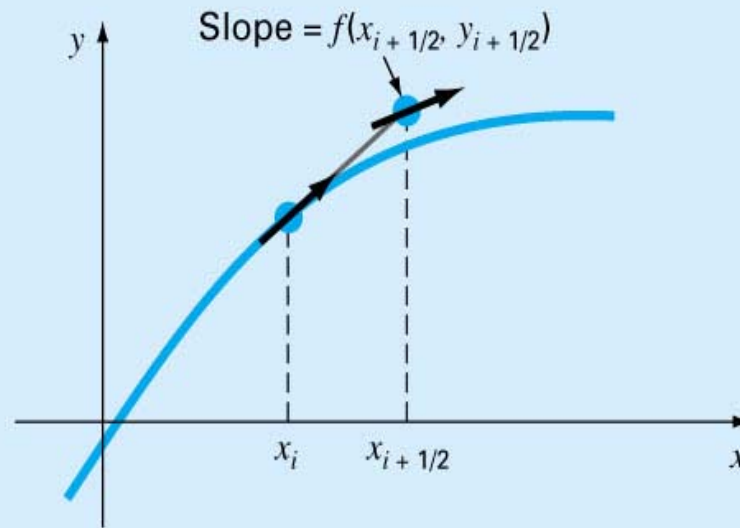
$$y_{i+\frac{1}{2}} = y_i + \frac{h}{2} f(x_i, y_i)$$

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h f\left(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}, y_{i+\frac{1}{2}}\right)$$

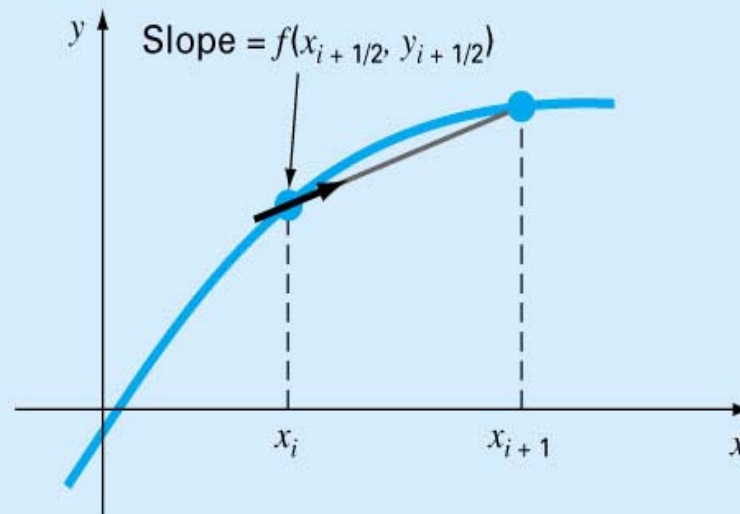
Local Truncation Error $O(h^3)$

Global Truncation Error $O(h^2)$

Figure 25.12



(a)



(b)

Lecture 28.

Runge-Kutta Methods



28. Runge-Kutta Methods

Runge-Kutta Methods

- These techniques were developed around 1900 by the German mathematicians C. Runge and M.W. Kutta.

Runge-Kutta Methods (RK)

- Runge-Kutta methods achieve the accuracy of a Taylor series approach without requiring the calculation of higher derivatives.

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \phi(x_i, y_i, h)h$$

$$\phi = a_1k_1 + a_2k_2 + \cdots + a_nk_n \quad \textit{Increment function}$$

a 's = constants

$$k_1 = f(x_i, y_i)$$

$$k_2 = f(x_i + p_1h, y_i + q_{11}k_1h) \quad \textit{p's and q's are constants}$$

$$k_3 = f(x_i + p_3h, y_i + q_{21}k_1h + q_{22}k_2h)$$

⋮

$$k_n = f(x_i + p_{n-1}h, y_i + q_{n-1,1}k_1h + q_{n-1,2}k_2h + \cdots + q_{n-1,n-1}k_{n-1}h)$$

-
- k 's are recurrence functions. Because each k is a functional evaluation, this recurrence makes RK methods efficient for computer calculations.
 - Various types of RK methods can be devised by employing different number of terms in the increment function as specified by n .
 - First order RK method with $n=1$ is in fact Euler's method.
 - Once n is chosen, values of a 's, p 's, and q 's are evaluated by setting general equation equal to terms in a Taylor series expansion.

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + (a_1 k_1 + a_2 k_2)h$$

$$k_1 = f(x_i, y_i)$$

$$k_2 = f(x_i + p_1 h, y_i + q_{11} k_1 h)$$

-
- Values of a_1 , a_2 , p_1 , and q_{11} are evaluated by setting the second order equation to Taylor series expansion to the second order term. Three equations to evaluate four unknowns constants are derived.

$$a_1 + a_2 = 1$$

$$a_2 p_1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$a_2 q_{11} = \frac{1}{2}$$

A value is assumed for one of the unknowns to solve for the other three.

-
- Because we can choose an infinite number of values for a_2 , there are an infinite number of second-order RK methods.
 - Every version would yield exactly the same results if the solution to ODE were quadratic, linear, or a constant.
 - However, they yield different results if the solution is more complicated (typically the case).
 - Three of the most commonly used methods are:
 - Huen Method with a Single Corrector ($a_2=1/2$)
 - The Midpoint Method ($a_2=1$)
 - Raltson's Method ($a_2=2/3$)

Lecture

Taylor Series in Two Variables

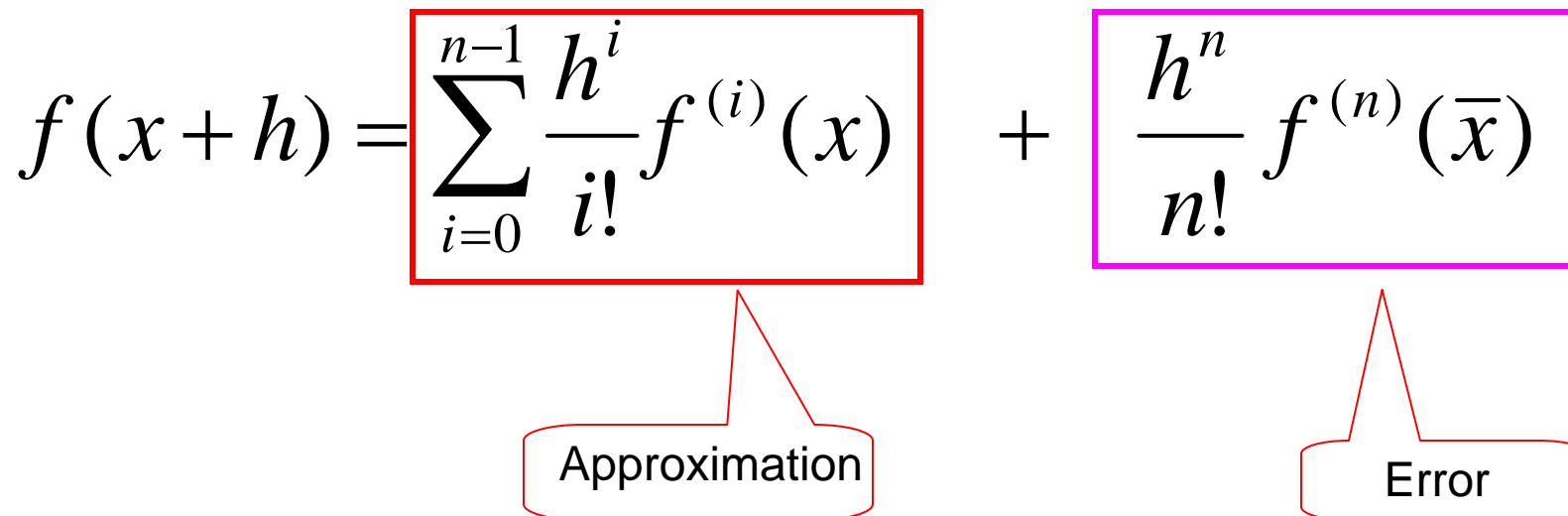
The Taylor Series discussed in Chapter 4 is extended to the 2-independent variable case.

This is used to prove RK formula

Taylor Series in One Variable

The Taylor Series expansion of $f(x)$

$$f(x+h) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{h^i}{i!} f^{(i)}(x) + \frac{h^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(\bar{x})$$



where \bar{x} is between x and $x+h$

Taylor Series in One Variable

another look

Define

$$\left(h \frac{d}{dx} \right)^i f(x) = h^i \frac{d^i f(x)}{dx^i} = f^{(i)}(x) h^i$$

The Taylor Series expansion of $f(x)$

$$f(x+h) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i!} \left(h \frac{d}{dx} \right)^i f(x) + \frac{1}{n!} \left(h \frac{d}{dx} \right)^n f(\bar{x})$$

\bar{x} is between x and $x+h$

Definitions

Define

$$\left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)^i f(x, y) = h^i \frac{\partial^i f}{\partial x^i}$$

$$\left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^0 f(x, y) = f(x, y)$$

$$\left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^1 f(x, y) = h \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y}$$

$$\left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^2 f(x, y) = h^2 \frac{\partial^2 f(x, y)}{\partial x^2} + 2hk \frac{\partial^2 f(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y} + k^2 \frac{\partial^2 f(x, y)}{\partial y^2}$$

Taylor Series in Two Variables

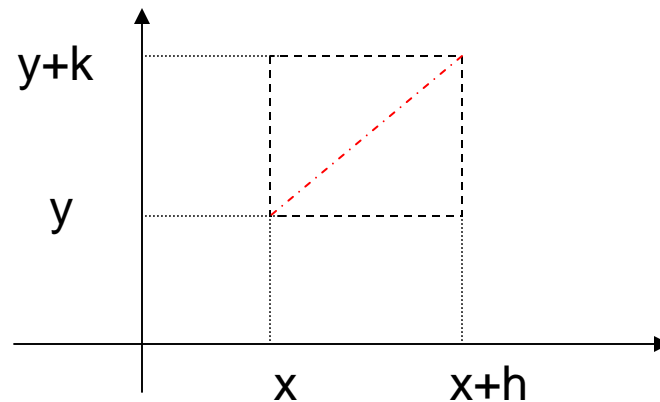
The Taylor Series expansion of $f(x, y)$

$$f(x+h, y+k) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i!} \left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^i f(x, y) + \frac{1}{n!} \left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^n f(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$$

approximation

error

(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) is on the line joining between (x, y) and $(x+h, y+k)$



Taylor Series Expansion

$$f(x, y) = (x + 1)(x + y + 2)^2$$

Taylor Series Expansion Center of expansion (0,0)

$$\left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^0 f(x, y) \Big|_{(0,0)} = 4$$

$$\left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^1 f(x, y) \Big|_{(0,0)} = h f_x + k f_y \Big|_{(0,0)}$$

Runge-Kutta Method

Second Order Runge Kutta

$$K_1 = h f(t, x)$$

$$K_2 = h f(t + \alpha h, x + \beta K_1)$$

$$x(t + h) = x(t) + w_1 K_1 + w_2 K_2$$

Problem :

Find α, β, w_1, w_2

such that $x(t + h)$ is as accurate as possible.

Runge-Kutta Method

Problem : Find α, β, w_1, w_2

to match as many terms as possible.

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hx'(t) + \frac{h^2}{2} x''(t) + \frac{h^3}{6} x'''(t) + \dots$$

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + w_1 h f(t, x) + w_2 f(t + \alpha h, x + \beta h f(t, x))$$

$$f(t + \alpha h, x + \beta h f) = f + \alpha h f_t + \beta h f_x + \frac{1}{2} \left(\alpha h \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \beta h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)^2 f(\bar{t}, \bar{x})$$

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + (w_1 + w_2) h f(t, x) + \alpha w_2 h^2 f_t + \beta w_2 h^2 f f_t + O(h^3)$$

Runge-Kutta Method

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + hx'(t) + \frac{h^2}{2}x''(t) + \frac{h^3}{6}x'''(t) + \dots$$

$$x(t+h) = x(t) + (w_1 + w_2)h f(t, x) + \alpha w_2 h^2 f_t + \beta w_2 h^2 f f_t + O(h^3)$$

$$\Rightarrow w_1 + w_2 = 1, \quad \alpha w_2 = 0.5, \quad \beta w_2 = 0.5$$

One possible solution

$$w_1 = 0.5, \quad w_2 = 0.5, \quad \alpha = 1, \quad \beta = 1$$

Runge-Kutta Method

Second Order Runge Kutta

$$K_1 = f(t, x)$$

$$K_2 = f(t + h, x + K_1 h)$$

$$x(t + h) = x(t) + \frac{1}{2}(K_1 + K_2)h$$

Runge-Kutta Method

Alternative Formula

Second Order Runge Kutta

$$F_1 = f(t, x)$$

$$F_2 = f(t + h, x + hF_1)$$

$$x(t + h) = x(t) + \frac{h}{2}(F_1 + F_2)$$

Runge-Kutta Method

Alternative Formula

$$\Rightarrow w_1 + w_2 = 1, \quad \alpha w_2 = 0.5, \quad \beta w_2 = 0.5$$

another solution

Pick α any non-zero number

$$\beta = \alpha, \quad w_1 = 1 - \frac{1}{2\alpha}, \quad w_2 = \frac{1}{2\alpha}$$

Second Order Runge Kutta Formulas (select $\alpha \neq 0$)

$$K_1 = h f(t, x)$$

$$K_2 = h f(t + \alpha h, x + \alpha K_1)$$

$$x(t + h) = x(t) + \left(1 - \frac{1}{2\alpha}\right) F_1 + \frac{1}{2\alpha} F_2$$

Runge-Kutta Method

Fourth Order Runge Kutta

$$K_1 = f(t, x)$$

$$K_2 = f\left(t + \frac{1}{2}h, x + \frac{1}{2}K_1h\right)$$

$$K_3 = f\left(t + \frac{1}{2}h, x + \frac{1}{2}K_2h\right)$$

$$K_4 = f(t + h, x + K_3h)$$

$$x(t + h) = x(t) + \frac{1}{6}(K_1 + 2K_2 + 2K_3 + K_4)h$$

Second order Runge-Kutta Method

Example

Solve the following system to find $x(1.02)$ using RK2

$$\dot{x}(t) = 1 + x^2(t) + t^3, \quad x(1) = -4, h = 0.01$$

STEP 1:

$$K_1 = h f(t, x) = 0.01(1 + x^2 + t^3) = 0.18$$

$$K_2 = h f(t + h, x + K_1) = 0.01(1 + (x + 0.18)^2 + (t + .01)^3) = 0.1692$$

$$x(1 + 0.01) = x(1) + \frac{1}{2}(K_1 + K_2) = -4 + \frac{1}{2}(0.18 + 0.1692) = -3.8254$$

Second order Runge-Kutta Method

Example

STEP 2

$$K_1 = h f(t, x) = 0.01(1 + x^2 + t^3) = 0.1666$$

$$K_2 = h f(t + h, x + K_1) = 0.01(1 + (x + 0.1666)^2 + (t + .01)^3) = 0.1545$$

$$x(1.01 + 0.01) = x(1.01) + \frac{1}{2}(K_1 + K_2)$$

$$= -3.8254 + \frac{1}{2}(0.1666 + 0.1545) = -3.6648$$

Runge-Kutta Method

Fourth Order Runge Kutta

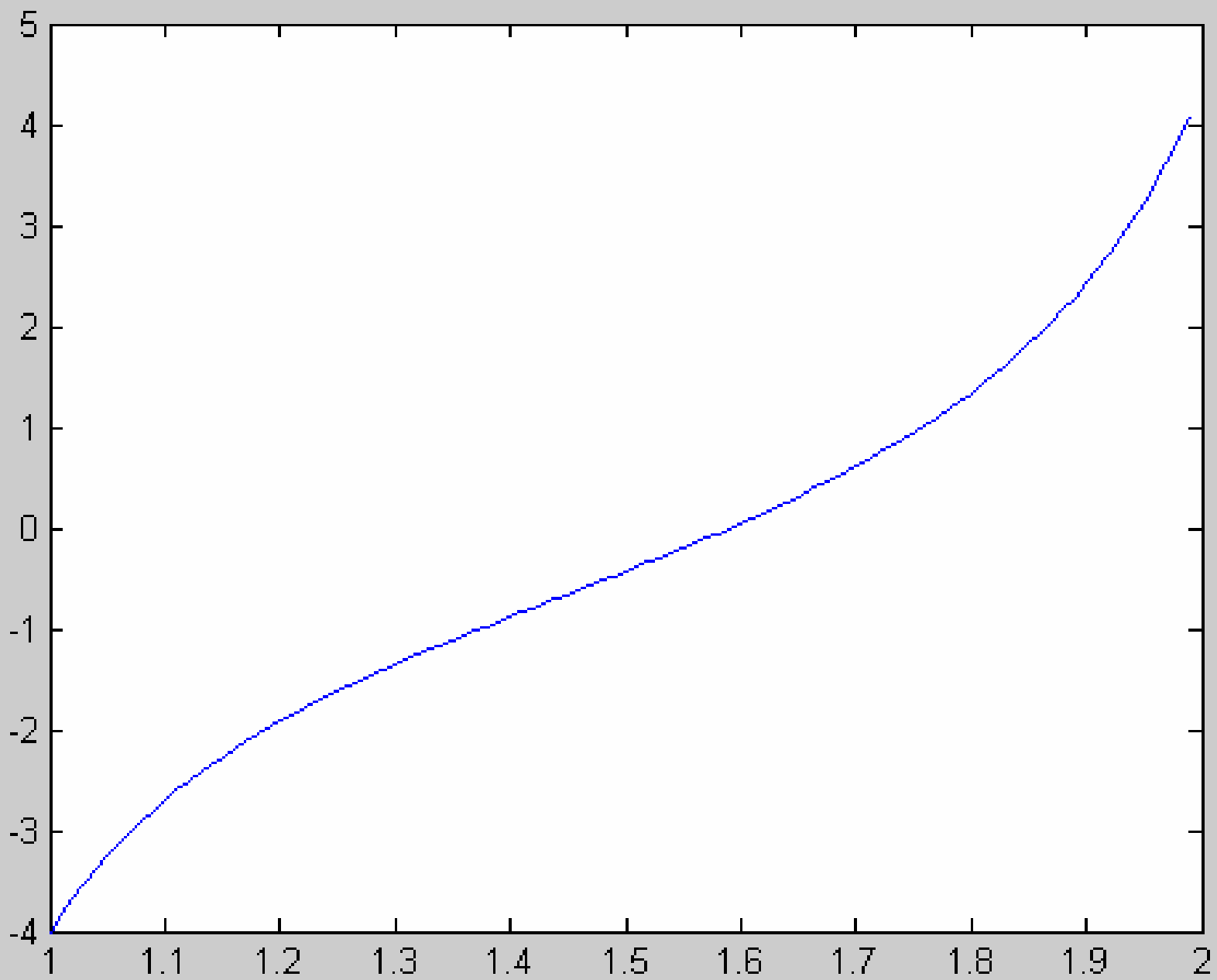
$$K_1 = f(t, x)$$

$$K_2 = f\left(t + \frac{1}{2}h, x + \frac{1}{2}K_1h\right)$$

$$K_3 = f\left(t + \frac{1}{2}h, x + \frac{1}{2}K_2h\right)$$

$$K_4 = f(t + h, x + K_3h)$$

$$x(t + h) = x(t) + \frac{1}{6}(K_1 + 2K_2 + 2K_3 + K_4)h$$



Example

4-order Runge-Kutta Method

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 1 + y - x^2$$

$$y(0) = 0.5$$

$$h = 0.2$$

Compute $y(0.2)$ and $y(0.4)$

Example

4-order Runge-Kutta Method

Iteration 1 of the RK4 ($x = 0, y = 0.5$)

$$K_1 = h f(x, y) = 0.3000$$

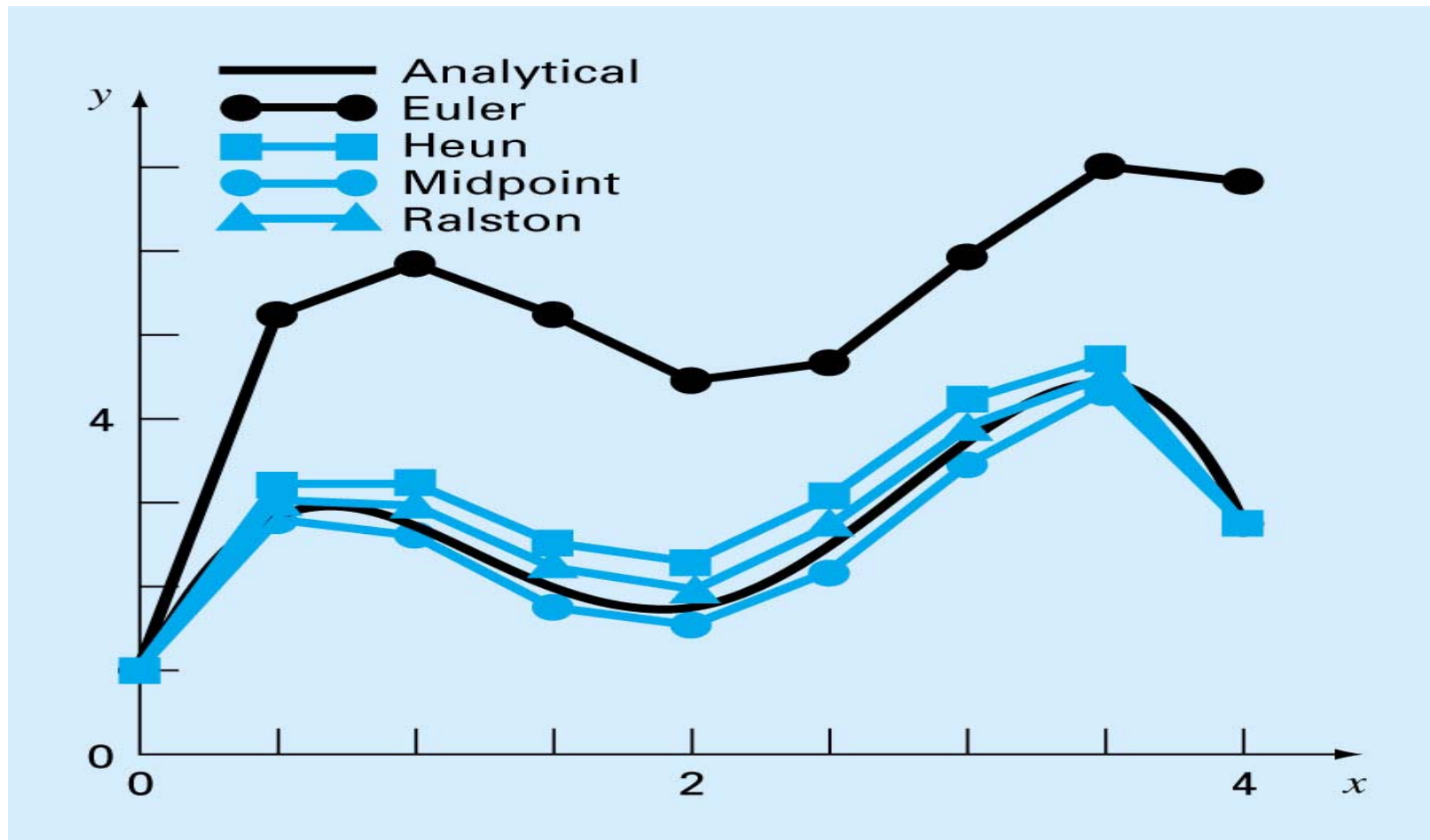
$$K_2 = h f\left(x + \frac{1}{2}h, y + \frac{1}{2}K_1\right) = 0.3280$$

$$K_3 = h f\left(x + \frac{1}{2}h, y + \frac{1}{2}K_2\right) = 0.3308$$

$$K_4 = h f(x + h, y + K_3) = 0.3482$$

$$y(x + h) = y(x) + \frac{1}{6}(K_1 + 2K_2 + 2K_3 + K_4) = 0.8276$$

Figure 25.14



High Order ODE



- High order ODE
- Systems of High order ODE
- Procedure
- Examples

High Order ODE

- Methods discussed earlier such as Euler ,Runge-Kutta,...are used for first order ordinary differential equations
- How do solve second order, or higher ODE?

-
- The approach: Convert the high order differential equation into a system of first order Differential equation

$$\dot{X}(t) = F(t, X)$$

Example of converting High order ODE to first order ODEs

Convert

$$\ddot{x} + 3\dot{x} + 6x = 1$$

$$\dot{x}(0) = 1; \quad x(0) = 4$$

to a system of first order ODE

1. Select a new set of variable

$$z_1 = x$$

$$z_2 = \dot{x}$$

One degree less than the highest order derivative

Example of converting High order ODE to first order ODEs

old name	new name	Initial cond.	Equation
x	z_1	4	$\dot{z}_1 = z_2$
\dot{x}	z_2	1	$\dot{z}_2 = 1 - 3z_2 - 6z_1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{z}_1 \\ \dot{z}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z_2 \\ 1 - 3z_2 - 6z_1 \end{bmatrix}, Z(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example of converting High order ODE to first order ODEs

Convert

$$\ddot{x} + 2\dot{x} + 7x = 0$$

$$\ddot{x}(0) = 9, \dot{x}(0) = 1; \quad x(0) = 4$$

1. Select a new set of variable

$$z_1 = x$$

$$z_2 = \dot{x}$$

$$z_3 = \ddot{x}$$

One degree less than the highest order derivative

Example of converting High order ODE to first order ODEs

old name	new name	Initial cond.	Equation
x	z_1	4	$\dot{z}_1 = z_2$
\dot{x}	z_2	1	$\dot{z}_2 = z_3$
\ddot{x}	z_3	9	$\dot{z}_3 = -2z_3 - 7z_2 - 8z_1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{z}_1 \\ \dot{z}_2 \\ \dot{z}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z_2 \\ z_3 \\ -2z_3 - 7z_2 - 8z_1 \end{bmatrix}, Z(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example of converting High order ODE to first order ODEs

Convert

$$\ddot{x} + 5\dot{x} + 2x + 8y = 0$$

$$\ddot{y} + 2xy + \dot{x} = 2$$

$$x(0) = 4; \dot{x}(0) = 2; \ddot{x}(0) = 9; y(0) = 1; \dot{y}(0) = -3$$

1. Select a new set of variable

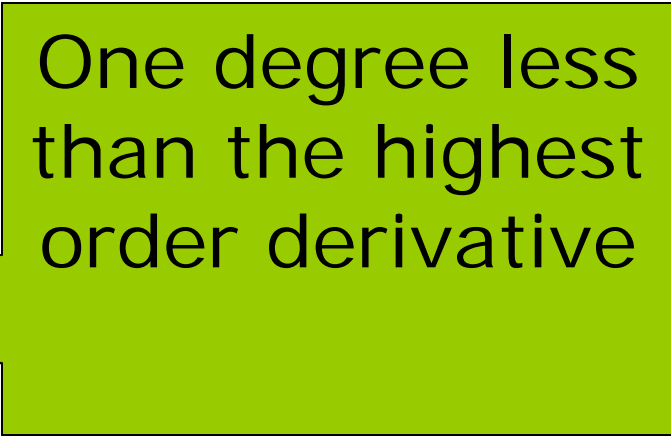
$$z_1 = x$$

$$z_2 = \dot{x}$$

$$z_3 = \ddot{x}$$

$$z_4 = y$$

$$z_5 = \dot{y}$$



One degree less than the highest order derivative

Example of converting High order ODE to first order ODEs

old name	new name	Initial cond.	Equation
x	z_1	4	$\dot{z}_1 = z_2$
\dot{x}	z_2	2	$\dot{z}_2 = z_3$
\ddot{x}	z_3	9	$\dot{z}_3 = -5z_3 - 2z_2 - 8z_4$
y	z_4	1	$\dot{z}_4 = z_5$
\dot{y}	z_5	-3	$\dot{z}_5 = 2 - z_2 - 2z_1z_4$

Solution of a second order ODE

- Solve the equation using Euler method. Use $h=0.1$

$$\ddot{x} + 2\dot{x} + 8x = 2$$

$$x(0) = 1; \dot{x}(0) = -2$$

Select a new set of variable $z_1 = x, z_2 = \dot{x}$

The second order equation is expressed as

$$\dot{Z} = F(Z) = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{z}_1 \\ \dot{z}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z_2 \\ 2 - 2z_2 - 8z_1 \end{bmatrix}, Z(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution of a second order ODE

$$F(Z) = \begin{bmatrix} z_2 \\ 2 - 2z_2 - 8z_1 \end{bmatrix}, Z(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, h = 0.1$$

$$Z(0 + 0.1) = Z(0) + hF(Z(0))$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} + 0.1 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 - 2(-2) - 8(1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 \\ -2.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Z(0.2) = Z(0.1) + hF(Z(0.1))$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 \\ -2.2 \end{bmatrix} + 0.1 \begin{bmatrix} -2.2 \\ 2 - 2(-2.2) - 8(0.8) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.58 \\ -2.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Systems of Equations

- Many practical problems in engineering and science require the solution of a system of simultaneous ordinary differential equations rather than a single equation:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dy_1}{dx} &= f_1(x, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \\ \frac{dy_2}{dx} &= f_2(x, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \\ &\vdots \\ \frac{dy_n}{dx} &= f_n(x, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)\end{aligned}$$

- Solution requires that n initial conditions be known at the starting value of x .

SE301:Numerical Methods



29. Adam-Moulton Multi-step Predictor-Corrector Methods

Multi-step Method

□ Single Step Methods

- Euler, Runge-Kutta are single step methods
- Information about $x(t)$ is used to estimate $x(t+h)$

□ Multistep Methods

- Adam-Moulton method is a multi-step method
- To estimate $x(t+h)$ information about $x(t), x(t-h), x(t-2h)...$ are used

Heun's Predictor Corrector method

Original Heun's predictor corrector method is not a multi-step method, but the non-self starting method is a multi-step method

Multistep Methods

The Non-Self-Starting Heun Method/

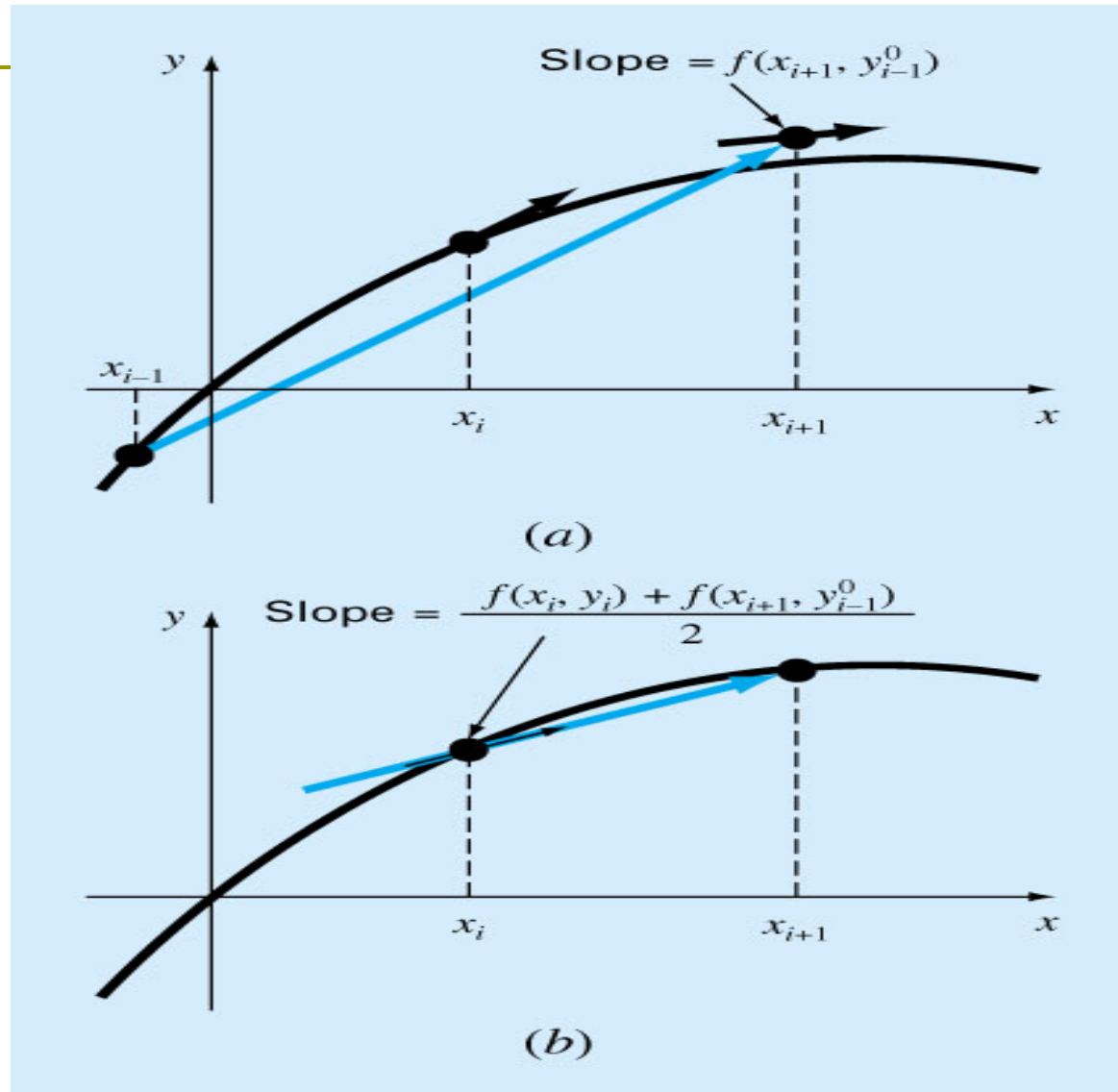
- ❑ Heun method uses *Euler's method* as a *predictor* and *trapezoidal rule* as a *corrector*.
- ❑ Predictor is the weak link in the method because it has the greatest error, $O(h^2)$.
- ❑ One way to improve Heun's method is to develop a predictor that has a local error of $O(h^3)$.

$$y_{i+1}^0 = y_{i-1}^m + f(x_i, y_i^m)2h$$

$$y_{i+1}^j = y_i^m + \frac{f(x_i, y_i^m) + f(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}^{j+1})}{2}h$$

$$\text{for } j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

Figure 26.4



Error Analysis

- Both the predictor and corrector local error are of order $O(h^3)$
- Error estimate for the corrector:

$$E_c = -\frac{y_{i+1}^0 - y_{i+1}^m}{5}$$

- Modifiers:

$$y_{i+1}^m \leftarrow y_{i+1}^m - \frac{y_{i+1}^0 - y_{i+1}^m}{5}$$

$$y_{i+1}^0 \leftarrow y_{i+1}^0 + \frac{4}{5}(y_i^m - y_i^0)$$

Step-Size Control/

□ *Constant Step Size.*

- A value for h must be chosen prior to computation.
- It must be small enough to yield a sufficiently small truncation error.
- It should also be as large as possible to minimize run time cost and round-off error.

□ *Variable Step Size.*

- If the corrector error is greater than some specified error, the step size is decreased.
- A step size is chosen so that the convergence criterion of the corrector is satisfied in two iterations.
- A more efficient strategy is to increase and decrease by doubling and halving the step size.

Integration Formulas/

Newton-Cotes Formulas.

Open Formulas.

$$y_{i+1} = y_{i-n} + \int_{x_{i-n}}^{x_{i+1}} f_n(x) dx$$

$f_n(x)$ is an n^{th} order interpolating polynomial.

Closed Formulas.

$$y_{i+1} = y_{i-n+1} + \int_{x_{i-n+1}}^{x_{i+1}} f_n(x) dx$$

Adams Formulas (Adams-Bashforth).

Open Formulas.

- The Adams formulas can be derived in a variety of ways. One way is to write a forward Taylor series expansion around x_i . A second order open Adams formula:

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h \left(\frac{3}{2} f_i - \frac{1}{2} f_{i-1} \right) + \frac{5}{12} h^3 f_i'' + O(h^4)$$

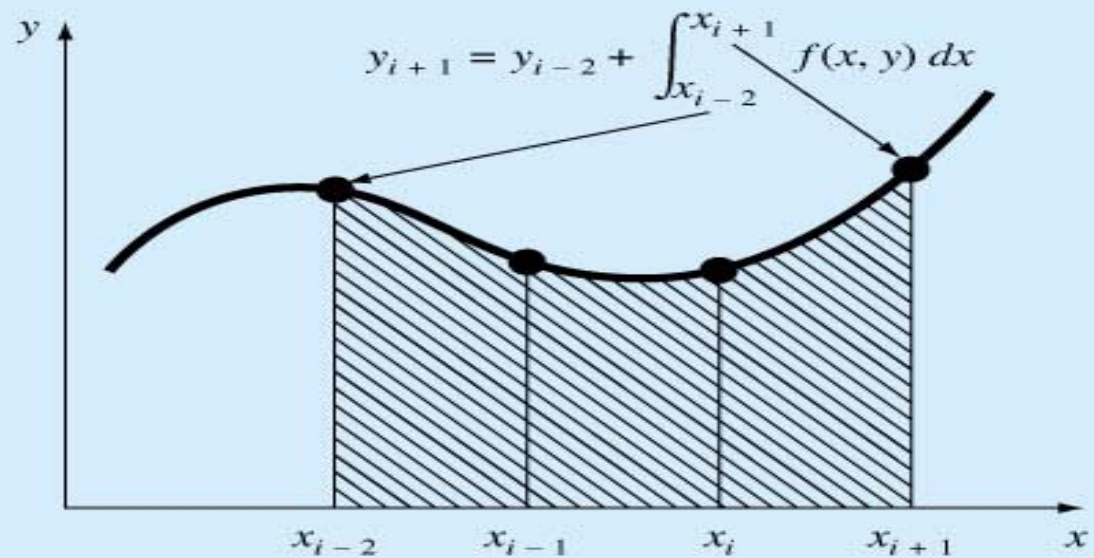
□

written:

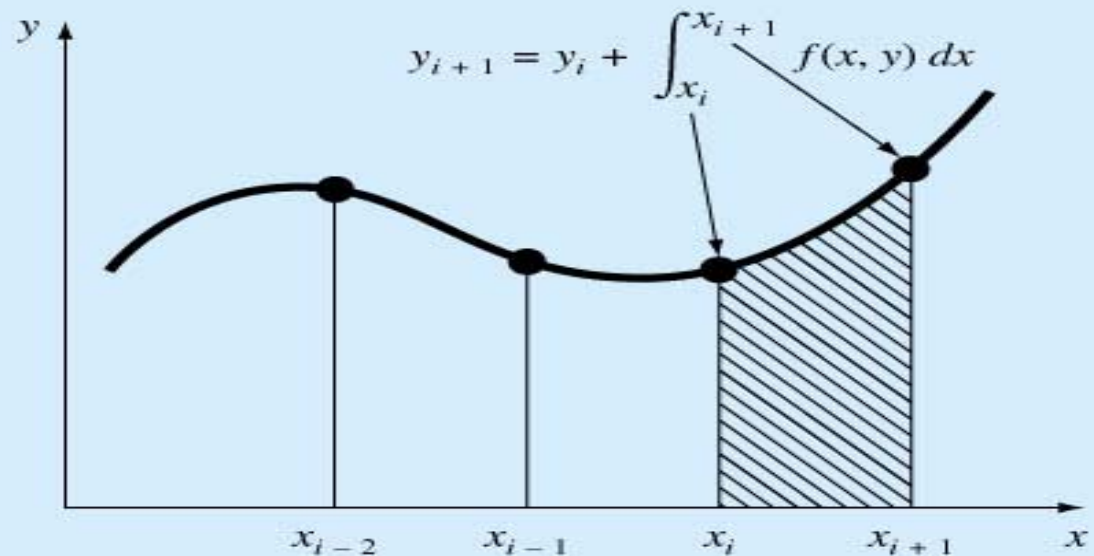
$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \beta_k f_{i+1-k} + O(h^{n+1})$$

Listed in Table 26.2

Figures 26.7



(a)



(b)

Higher-Order multistep Methods/

Milne's Method.

- Uses the three point Newton-Cotes open formula as a predictor and three point Newton-Cotes closed formula as a corrector.

Fourth-Order Adams Method.

- Based on the Adams integration formulas. Uses the fourth-order Adams-Bashforth formula as the predictor and fourth-order Adams-Moulton formula as the corrector.

Predictor-Corrector

Two - step

$$\text{Predictor} : y_{i+1} = y_i + h \left(\frac{3}{2} f(y_i) - \frac{1}{2} f(y_{i-1}) \right)$$

$$\text{Corrector} : y_{i+1} = y_i + h \left(\frac{1}{2} f(y_{i+1}) + \frac{1}{2} f(y_i) \right)$$

Three - Step

$$\text{Predictor} : y_{i+1} = y_i + h \left(\frac{23}{12} f(y_i) + \frac{-16}{12} f(y_{i-1}) + \frac{5}{12} f(y_{i-2}) \right)$$

$$\text{Corrector} : y_{i+1} = y_i + h \left(\frac{5}{12} f(y_{i+1}) + \frac{8}{12} f(y_i) + \frac{-1}{12} f(y_{i-1}) \right)$$

See pages 744 (predictor), 746 (corrector) formulas

4-Step Adams-Moulton Predictor-Corrector

Predictor : (Adams - Bashforth Predictor)

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{h}{24} (55f(y_i) - 59f(y_{i-1}) + 37f(y_{i-2}) - 9f(y_{i-3}))$$

Corrector : (Adams - Moulton Corrector)

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{h}{24} (9f(y_{i+1}) + 19f(y_i) + -5f(y_{i-1}) + f(y_{i-2}))$$

See pages 744(predictor), 746(corrector) formulas

4-Step Adams-Moulton Predictor-Corrector

Predictor : (Adams - Bashforth Predictor)

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{h}{24} (55f(y_i) - 59f(y_{i-1}) + 37f(y_{i-2}) - 9f(y_{i-3}))$$

Corrector : (Adams - Moulton Corrector)

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{h}{24} (9f(y_{i+1}) + 19f(y_i) + -5f(y_{i-1}) + f(y_{i-2}))$$

See pages 744(predictor), 746(corrector) formulas

Example

Solve

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x + y^2x \quad y(0) = 2$$

$h = 0.1$, Use 2-step Predictor corrector Method

compute $y(0.4)$

We need two initial conditions to use the

2-step Predictor corrector Method

We will first use use RK2 to estimate $y(0.1)$

Example

We need two initial conditions

*Use RK2 to compute $y(0.1)$ then we can use
the Predictor corrector Method*

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x + y^2 x \quad y(0) = 2, \quad h = 0.1,$$

$$K1 = 0.1(0) = 0$$

$$K2 = 0.1(0.2 + 0.4) = 0.06$$

$$y(0.1) = 2 + 0.5(0.06) = 2.03$$

Example

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x + y^2 \quad y_{i-1} = y(0) = 2, y_i = y(0.1) = 2.03, \quad h = 0.1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Predictor: } y_{i+1} &= y_i + h \left(\frac{3}{2} f(y_i) - \frac{1}{2} f(y_{i-1}) \right) \\ &= 2.03 + 0.1 \left(\frac{3}{2} (2(0.1) + 2.03^2(0.1)) - \frac{1}{2} (0 + 0) \right) = \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Corrector: } y_{i+1} &= y_i + h \left(\frac{1}{2} f(y_{i+1}) + \frac{1}{2} f(y_i) \right) \\ &= 2.03 + 0.1 \left(\frac{1}{2} f(y_{i+1}) + \frac{1}{2} (2(0.1) + 2.03^2(0.1)) \right) \end{aligned}$$

of steps

- at each iteration one prediction step is done and as many correction steps as needed.
- Usually few corrections steps are done (1 to 3)
- It is usually better (in terms of accuracy) to use smaller steps size than corrections beyond few steps.

SE301:Numerical Methods



31. Finite Difference methods for solving Boundary Value problems

Outlines

- Boundary Value Problem
- Shooting Method
- Finite Difference Method

Boundary-Value and Initial value Problems

Boundary-Value Problems

- The auxiliary conditions are not at one point of time
- More difficult to solve than initial value problem

$$\ddot{x} + 2\dot{x} + x = e^{-2t}$$

$$x(0) = 1, \quad x(2) = 1.5$$

Initial-Value Problems

- The auxiliary conditions are at **one point of time**

$$\ddot{x} + 2\dot{x} + x = e^{-2t}$$

$$x(0) = 1, \quad \dot{x}(0) = 2.5$$

Solution of Boundary-Value Problems

Shooting method

Methods for Boundary-Value Problems

1. Shooting method:

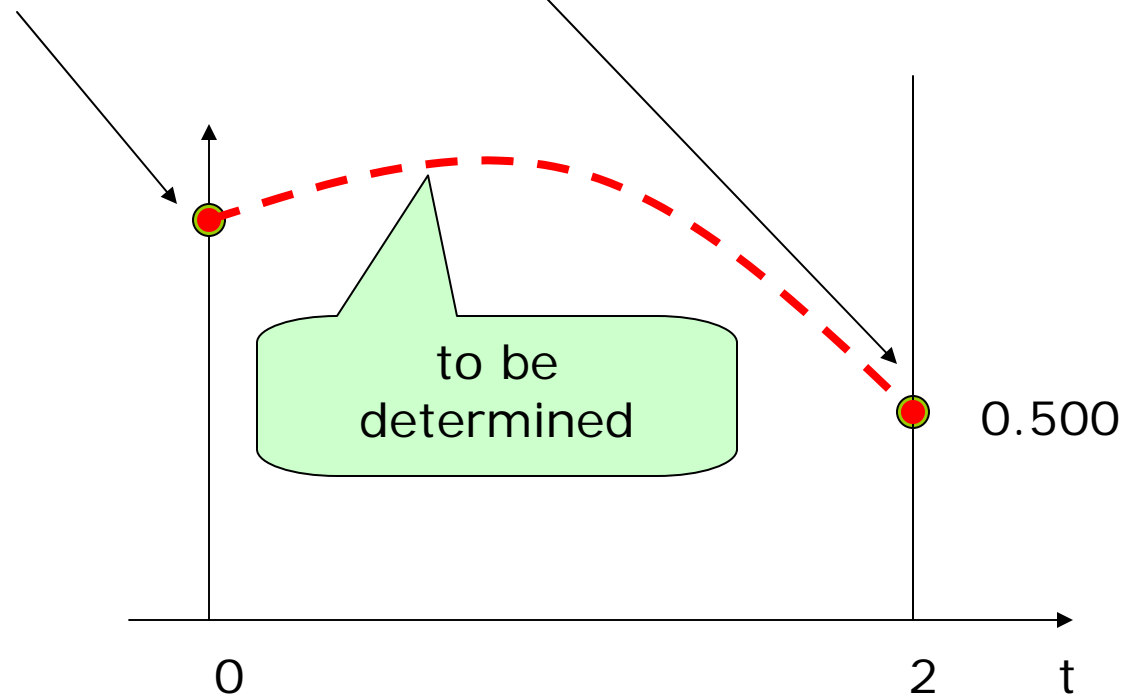
- Guess a values for The auxiliary conditions at one point of time
- Solve the initial value problem using Euler, Runge-Kutta, ...
- Check if the boundary conditions is satisfied otherwise modify the guess and resolve the problem.
- Use interpolation in updating the guess
- It is an iterative procedure and can be efficient in solving the BVP

Shooting method

Example

$$\ddot{x} + 2\dot{x} + x = e^{-2t}$$

$$x(0) = 1, \quad x(2) = 0.5$$



Shooting method

□ Example

Example

$$\ddot{x} + 2\dot{x} + x = e^{-2t}$$
$$x(0) = 1, \quad x(2) = 0.5$$

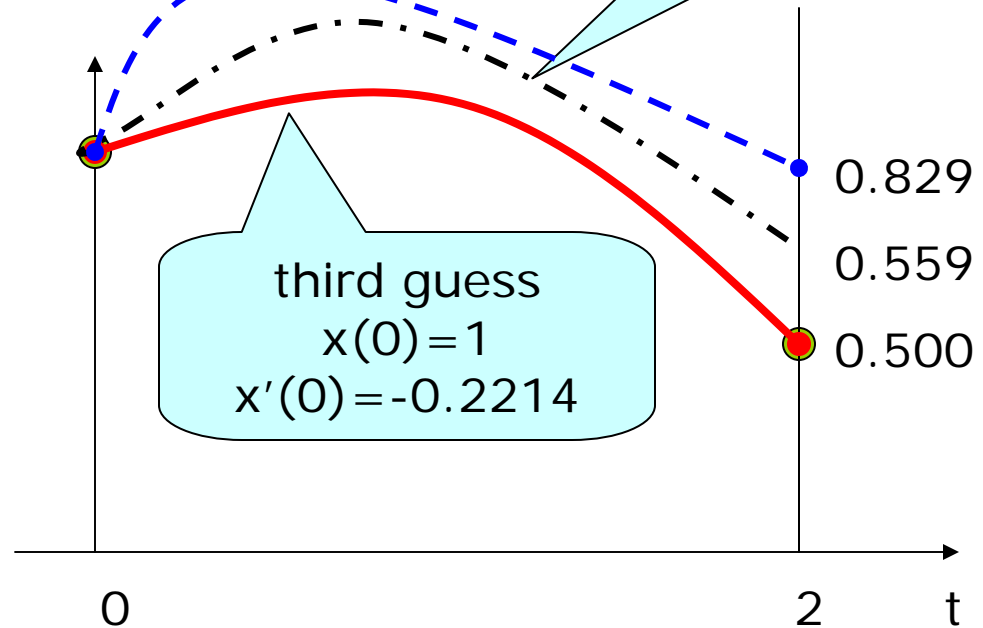
Using linear interpolation of first and second guesses

$$x'(0) = -0.2214$$

first guess
 $x(0) = 1$
 $x'(0) = 1$

Second guess
 $x(0) = 1$
 $x'(0) = 0$

third guess
 $x(0) = 1$
 $x'(0) = -0.2214$



Solution of Boundary-Value Problems

Finite Difference Method

Methods for Boundary-Value Problems

2. Finite Difference Method :

- Divide the interval into n intervals
- The solution of the BVP is converted to the problem of determining the value of function at the base points.
- Use finite approximations to replace the derivatives
- This approximation results in a set of algebraic equations.
- Solve the equations to obtain the solution of the BVP

Finite Difference Method

Example

$$\ddot{y} + 2\dot{y} + y = x^2$$

$$y(0) = 0.2, \quad y(1) = 0.8$$

Divide the interval
[0,1] into $n = 4$
intervals

Base points are

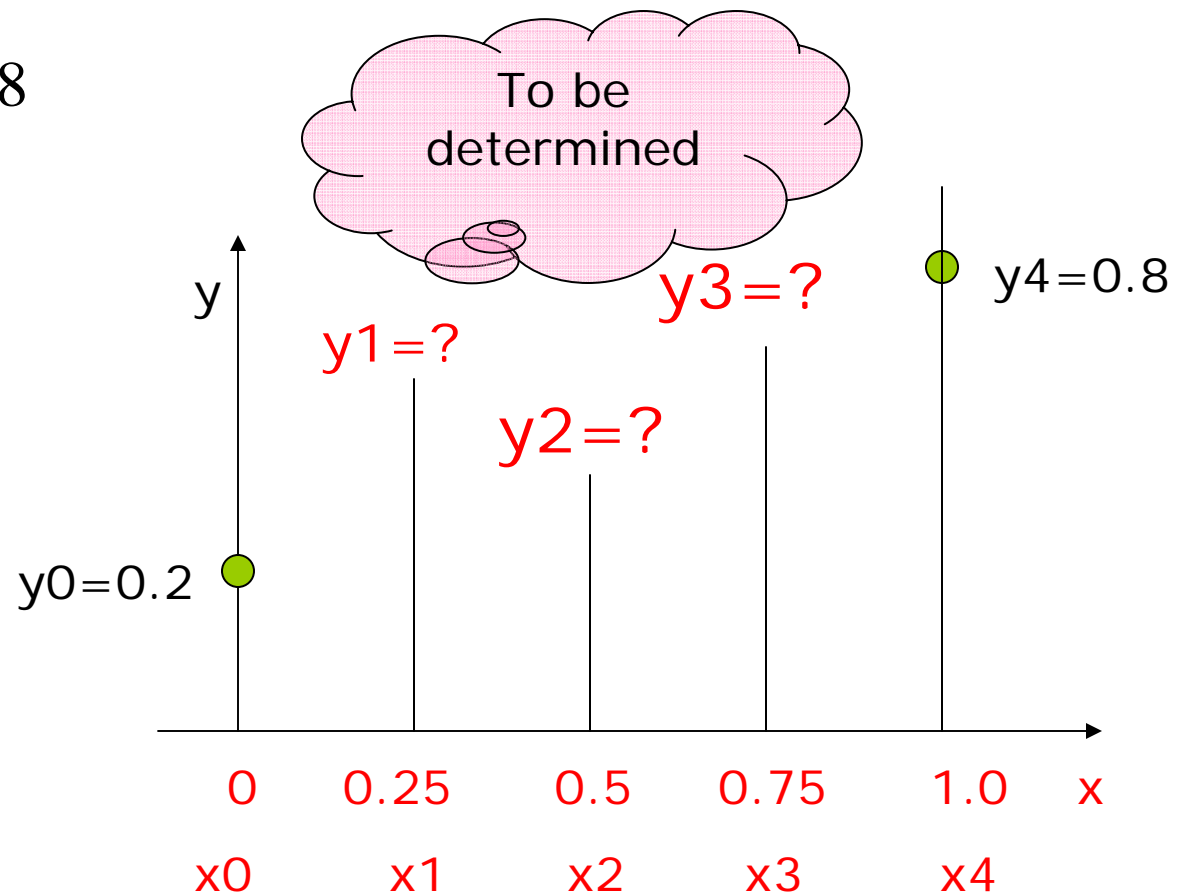
$$x_0 = 0$$

$$x_1 = 0.25$$

$$x_2 = .5$$

$$x_3 = 0.75$$

$$x_4 = 1.0$$



Finite Difference Method

Example

$$\ddot{y} + 2\dot{y} + y = x^2$$

$$y(0) = 0.2, \quad y(1) = 0.8$$

Divide the interval
[0,1] into $n = 4$
intervals

Base points are

$$x_0 = 0$$

$$x_1 = 0.25$$

$$x_2 = .5$$

$$x_3 = 0.75$$

$$x_4 = 1.0$$

Replace

$$\ddot{y} = \frac{y_{i+1} - 2y_i + y_{i-1}}{h^2}$$

central difference formula

$$\dot{y} = \frac{y_{i+1} - y_{i-1}}{2h}$$

central difference formula

$$\ddot{y} + 2\dot{y} + y = x^2$$

Becomes

$$\frac{y_{i+1} - 2y_i + y_{i-1}}{h^2} + 2\frac{y_{i+1} - y_{i-1}}{2h} + y_i = x_i^2$$

Second Order BVP

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} + y = x^2 \quad \text{with } y(0) = 0.2, \quad y(1) = 0.8$$

Let $h = 0.25$

Base Points

$$x_0 = 0, x_1 = 0.25, x_2 = 0.5, x_3 = 0.75, x_4 = 1$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} \approx \frac{y(x+h) - y(x)}{h} = \frac{y_{i+1} - y_i}{h}$$

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} \approx \frac{y(x+h) - 2y(x) + y(x-h)}{h^2} = \frac{y_{i+1} - 2y_i + y_{i-1}}{h^2}$$

Second Order BVP

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} + y = x^2$$

$$\frac{y_{i+1} - 2y_i + y_{i-1}}{h^2} + 2 \frac{y_{i+1} - y_i}{h} + y_i = x_i^2 \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

$$x_0 = 0, x_1 = 0.25, x_2 = 0.5, x_3 = 0.75, x_4 = 1$$

$$y_0 = 0.2, y_1 = ?, y_2 = ?, y_3 = ?, y_4 = 0.8$$

$$16(y_{i+1} - 2y_i + y_{i-1}) + 8(y_{i+1} - y_i) + y_i = x_i^2$$

$$24y_{i+1} - 39y_i + 16y_{i-1} = x_i^2$$

Second Order BVP

$$24y_{i+1} - 39y_i + 16y_{i-1} = x_i^2$$

$$i = 1 \quad 24y_2 - 39y_1 + 16y_0 = x_1^2$$

$$i = 2 \quad 24y_3 - 39y_2 + 16y_1 = x_2^2$$

$$i = 3 \quad 24y_4 - 39y_3 + 16y_2 = x_3^2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -39 & 24 & \\ 16 & -39 & 24 \\ & 16 & -39 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.25^2 - 16(0.2) \\ 0.5^2 \\ 0.75^2 - 24(0.8) \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution $y_1 = 0.4791, y_2 = 0.6477, y_3 = 0.7436$

Second Order BVP

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} + y = x^2$$

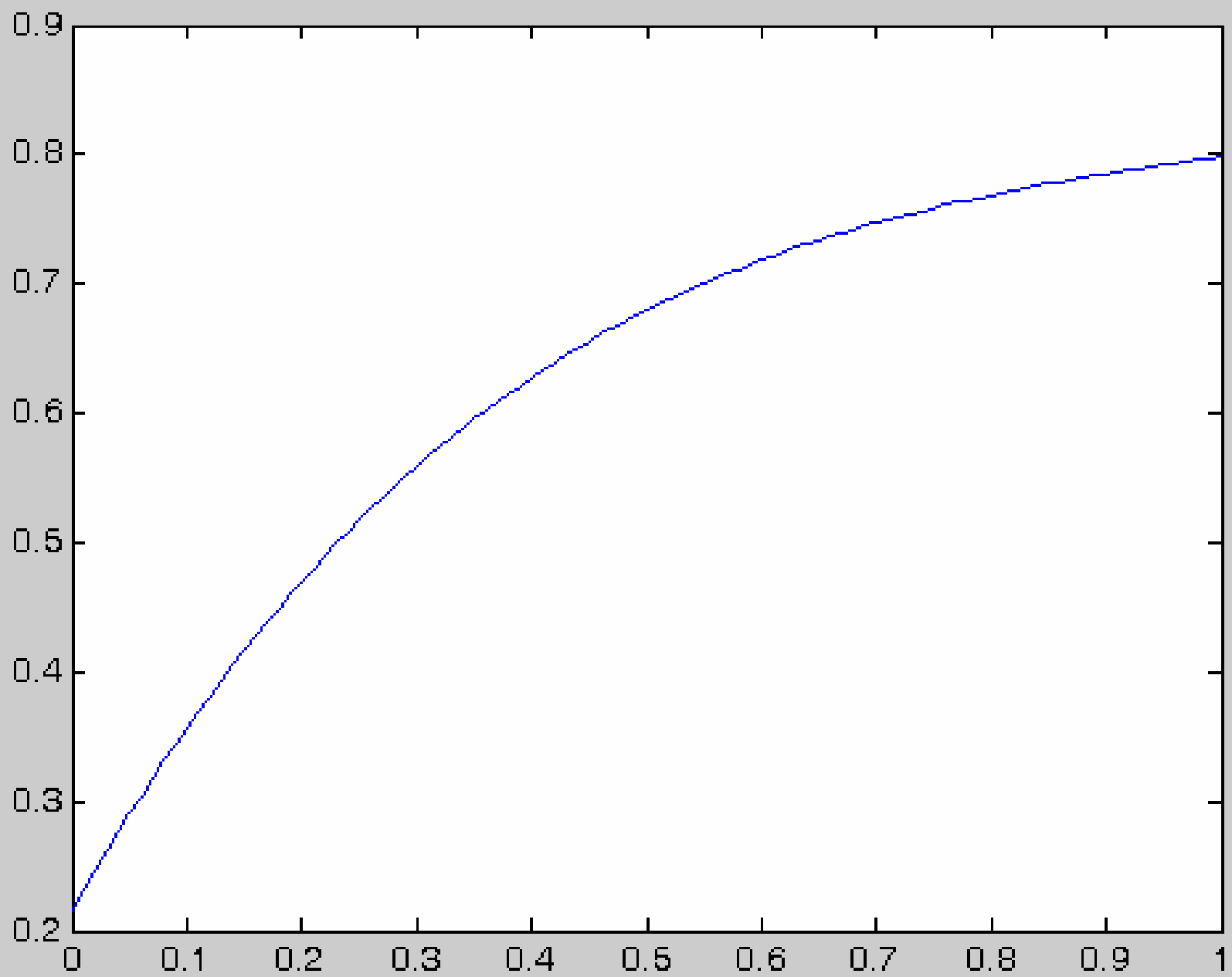
$$\frac{y_{i+1} - 2y_i + y_{i-1}}{h^2} + 2 \frac{y_{i+1} - y_i}{h} + y_i = x_i^2 \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, 100$$

$$x_0 = 0, x_1 = 0.01, x_2 = 0.02, x_{99} = 0.99, x_{100} = 1$$

$$y_0 = 0.2, y_1 = ?, y_2 = ?, y_3 = ?, y_{100} = 0.8$$

$$10000(y_{i+1} - 2y_i + y_{i-1}) + 200(y_{i+1} - y_i) + y_i = x_i^2$$

$$10200y_{i+1} - 20199y_i + 10000y_{i-1} = x_i^2$$



Solution of Boundary-Value Problems

Finite Difference Method

Finite Difference Method :

- Other formulas can be used for approximating the derivatives
- For some linear cases this reduces to tri-diagonal system.