

The Lecture Contains:

- Introduction
- The associated difference operator; Order and error constant

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Introduction:

Most of the methods discussed earlier (particularly for 1st order equation) can be considered as a special case of the formula

$$\alpha_K y_{n+K} + \alpha_{K-1} y_{n+K-1} + \cdots + \alpha_0 y_n = h \{ \beta_K f_{n+K} + \beta_{K-1} f_{n+K-1} + \cdots + \beta_0 f_n \}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (8.1)$$

where K is a fixed integer,

$$f_m = f(t_m, y_m) \quad (m = 0, 1, 2, \dots), \text{ and where } \alpha_\mu \text{ and } \beta_\mu \quad (\mu = 0, 1, 2, \dots, K)$$

denote real constants which do not depend on n . We shall always assume that $\alpha_K \neq 0$, $|\alpha_0| + |\beta_0| > 0$. Equation (8.1) is said to define the General linear K -step method. The method is called linear because the values f_m enter linearly in (8.1); it is not assumed that f is a linear function of y .

One way in which we were able to derive the coefficients of Adams method was by requiring that they are exact for polynomials of degree $\leq q$. There are $2K + 2$ unknowns in (8.1). There is an arbitrary normalizing factor so we set $\alpha_0 = -1$, leaving $2K + 1$ unknowns.

Consequently, we expect to be able to choose the α and β so that this method is exact for polynomials of degree upto $2K$. This is possible. However, it has been observed that such methods are never useful for $K > 2$, and only marginally useful when $K = 2$. If we were only concerned with local truncation error and the problem had well-behaved derivatives, we would be tempted to use K -step methods of maximal order $2K$. But it is known that for $K > 2$ such methods cause the small truncation errors committed in one step to be unacceptably amplified in later steps due to instability. However, there are stable K -step methods of order $K + 1$ (the Adams-Moulton method, for example) and order $K + 2$ if K is even.

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The associated difference operator; Order and error constant:

The condition of stability has the purpose of preventing a small initial error in the computation from growing at such a rate that convergence is jeopardized. It is clear, however, that stability alone does not guarantee convergence. A further condition must be added which ensures that the difference equation (8.1) is a good approximation to the differential equation $y' = f(t, y)$.

When considering the problem of measuring the accuracy of a One-step method, we looked at the expression

$y(t+h) - y(t) - h \psi(t, y(t), h)$ where $y(t)$ is a solution of the given differential equation. The smaller this quantity as a function of h , the higher was the accuracy of the method. Similarly, if (8.1) is to define a good method, we expect the discrepancy between the two sides of (8.1) to be small if h is small and if the values y_m are replaced by $y(t_m)$, where $y(t)$ is an exact solution of the given differential equation. In order to measure this discrepancy, we associate with (8.1) the difference operator.

$$L[y(t); h] = \alpha_K y(t+Kh) + \alpha_{K-1} y(t+(K-1)h) + \dots + \alpha_0 y(t) - h \{ \beta_K y'(t+Kh) + \beta_{K-1} y'(t+(K-1)h) + \dots + \beta_0 y'(t) \} \quad (8.2)$$

This may be regarded as a linear operator that acts on any differentiable function $y(t)$. For the time being, however, we shall apply the operator L only to functions which have continuous derivatives of sufficiently high order. We then may expand $L[y(t); h]$ in powers of h , and the expansion can be pushed as far as we please. In view of the formulas

$$y(t+mh) = y(t) + mh y'(t) + \frac{1}{2} m^2 h^2 y''(t) + \dots$$

$$h y'(t+mh) = h y'(t) + m h^2 y''(t) + \dots$$

it turns out that

$$L[y(t); h] = C_0 y(t) + C_1 h y'(t) + \dots + C_q h^q y^{(q)}(t) + \dots$$

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where the coefficients C_q ($q = 0, 1, \dots$) are constants which do not depend on the choice of the function $y(t)$:

$$C_0 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_K$$

$$C_1 = \alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 + \dots + K\alpha_K - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \dots + \beta_K)$$

$$C_q = \frac{1}{q!} (\alpha_1 + 2^q \alpha_2 + \dots + K^q \alpha_K) - \frac{1}{(q-1)!} (\beta_1 + 2^{q-1} \beta_2 + \dots + K^{q-1} \beta_K); \quad q = 2, 3, \dots$$

A given difference operator of the form (8.2) is said to be of order p if $C_0 = C_1 = \dots = C_p = 0$, but $C_{p+1} \neq 0$. As in the case of one-step methods, the order may be considered as a first crude measure of the accuracy of the method.

From the practical point of view the difference equation (8.1) is completely equivalent to the equation

$$\alpha_K y_{n+l+K} + \dots + \alpha_0 y_{n+l} = h \{ \beta_K f_{n+l+K} + \dots + \beta_0 f_{n+l} \} \quad (8.3)$$

where l is any fixed (positive or negative) integer. Proceeding as above,

we may associate with (8.3) the difference operator

$$L_1 [y(t); h] = \alpha_K y(t + (l+K)h) + \dots + \alpha_0 y(t+lh) - h \{ \beta_K y'(t + (l+K)h) + \dots + \beta_0 y'(t+lh) \} \quad (8.4)$$

and define its order as the order of the first non-vanishing term in its Taylor expansion in powers of h minus 1. It is an important fact that the order p as well as the constant C_{p+1} do not depend on l . For, expanding (8.4) in powers of h is equivalent to expanding (8.2) in powers of h , where $y(t)$ is replaced by $y(t+lh)$. We thus find, if L is of the order p ,

$$L_1 [y(t); h] = L [y(t+lh); h] = C_{p+1} h^{p+1} y^{(p+1)}(t+lh) + O(h^{p+2})$$

Since $y(t)$ was assumed sufficiently differentiable,

$$y^{(p+1)}(t+lh) = y^{(p+1)}(t) + O(h)$$

and thus

$$L_1 [y(t); h] = C_{p+1} h^{p+1} y^{(p+1)}(t) + O(h^{p+2})$$



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This proves the assertion, even without making use of the assumption that l was an integer.

As an example, consider the mid-point rule [Nystrom's method with $q = 0$], which in the standardized form (8.1) appears as follows:

$$y_{n+2} - y_n = h \cdot 2 f_{n+1}$$

The corresponding operator (8.2) is given by

$$\begin{aligned} L[y(t); h] &= y(t+2h) - y(t) - 2h y'(t+h) \\ &= 2h y' + \frac{(2h)^2}{2} y'' + \frac{(2h)^3}{6} y''' + \frac{(2h)^4}{24} y^{(4)} + \dots - 2h y' - 2h^2 y'' - 2 \frac{h^3}{2} y''' - 2 \frac{h^4}{6} y^{(4)} - \dots \end{aligned}$$

We readily find $C_0 = C_1 = C_2 = 0$, $C_3 = \frac{1}{3}$, $C_4 = \frac{1}{3}$ and thus $p = 2$.

Alternatively, by choosing $l = -1$, we may consider the operator

$$\begin{aligned} L_{-1}[y(t); h] &= y(t+h) - y(t-h) - 2h y'(t) \\ &= 2h y' + 2 \frac{h^3}{6} y''' + 2 \frac{h^5}{120} y^{(5)} + \dots - 2h y' \end{aligned}$$

Again $C_0 = C_1 = C_2 = 0$, $C_3 = \frac{1}{3}$ and hence $p = 2$ but now $C_4 = 0$. This indicates that the constants C_{p+2} , C_{p+3} , ... depend, in general, on l . From the point of view of practical computation, the second method of calculating p and C_{p+1} is clearly preferable, since in the Taylor's expansion only terms of odd order occur.

The error constant of the method defined by (8.1) is

$$C = \frac{C_{p+1}}{\beta_0 + \beta_1 + \dots + \beta_k}$$

