



General error propagation in the RKrGLm method

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ABSTRACT

The RKrGLm method is a numerical method for solving initial value problems in ordinary differential equations of the form $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})$ and is based on a combination of a Runge–Kutta method of order r and m -point Gauss–Legendre quadrature. In this paper we describe the propagation of local errors in this method, and we give an inductive proof of the form of the global error in RKrGLm. We show that, for a suitable choice of r and m , the global order of RKrGLm is expected to be $r + 1$, one better than the underlying Runge–Kutta method. We show that this gain in order is due to a reduction or “quenching” of the accumulated local error at every $(m + 1)$ th node. We also show how a Hermite interpolating polynomial of degree $2m + 1$ may be employed to estimate $\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})$ if the nodes to be used for the Gauss–Legendre quadrature component are not suitably placed.

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1. Introduction

One-step methods, such as Runge–Kutta (RK) methods, are popular methods for solving initial value problems in ordinary differential equations of the form $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})$ numerically. Of interest in such methods is the propagation of approximation error, and the cumulative effect of this propagation. In an RK method, the accumulation of $O(h^{r+1})$ local errors results in a global error of $O(h^r)$, where h is the stepsize. In other words, the global order of an RK method is one less than its local order. We have developed a method [6], designated RKrGLm, which is a combination of an RK method of global order r , and m -point Gauss–Legendre (GL) quadrature, that has the interesting property that if the underlying RK method is $O(h^{r+1})$ in its local error, then the associated RKrGLm method is $O(h^{r+1})$ in its global error, i.e. the global error in RKrGLm has the same order as the local RK error (for the benefit of the reader, a brief description of RKrGLm will be given in the next section). In this paper we add to the results of our previous work by means of the following: (a) we describe in detail the propagation of error in the RKrGLm method, (b) we show how the global error of RKrGLm achieves $O(h^{r+1})$ by considering the accumulation of local error, (c) we give an inductive proof of the general structure of the global error, and (d) we clearly demonstrate by means of numerical examples how the GL component slows the accumulation of error (an effect we refer to as *error quenching*). We also consider the use of a Hermite interpolating polynomial for estimating the derivative $\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})$ if the RK nodes are not suitably placed for GL quadrature. Furthermore, our discussion is general, in the sense that we consider the application of RKrGLm to *systems* of differential equations, unlike our previous work where we considered only the scalar case.

2. Terminology and relevant concepts

In this section we describe notation, terminology and concepts relevant to the rest of the paper. Note that, throughout this paper, boldface type, as in \mathbf{v} , indicates a $q \times 1$ vector, and boldface type with caret, as in $\mathbf{\hat{M}}$, denotes a $q \times q$ matrix.

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2.1. Explicit Runge–Kutta methods

We denote an explicit RK method for solving the q -dimensional system

$$\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y}) \quad \mathbf{y}(x_0) = \mathbf{y}_0 \quad a \leq x \leq b \quad (1)$$

by

$$\mathbf{w}_{i+1} = \mathbf{w}_i + h_i \mathbf{F}(x_i, \mathbf{w}_i)$$

where $h_i \doteq x_{i+1} - x_i$ is a stepsize, \mathbf{w}_i denotes the numerical approximation to $\mathbf{y}(x_i)$ and $\mathbf{F}(x, \mathbf{y})$ is a function associated with the particular RK method. Here and throughout the symbol \doteq is used to indicate a definition.

2.2. Local and global errors

We define the global error in a numerical solution at x_i by

$$\Delta_i \doteq \mathbf{w}_i - \mathbf{y}_i,$$

and the local error at x_i by

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{i+1} \doteq [\mathbf{y}_i + h_i \mathbf{F}(x_i, \mathbf{y}_i)] - \mathbf{y}_{i+1}. \quad (2)$$

In the above, \mathbf{y}_i denotes the true solution $\mathbf{y}(x_i)$. Note the use of the exact value \mathbf{y}_i in the bracketed term in (2).

2.3. Error propagation in a Runge–Kutta method

We describe a known result that is useful in our later discussion. For the sake of generality we will assume an error Δ_0 exists in the initial value, although in most practical cases $\Delta_0 = \mathbf{0}$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{w}_1 &= \mathbf{y}_0 + \Delta_0 + h_0 \mathbf{F}(x_0, \mathbf{y}_0 + \Delta_0) \\ \Rightarrow \Delta_1 &= [\mathbf{y}_0 + h_0 \mathbf{F}(x_0, \mathbf{y}_0) - \mathbf{y}_1] + [\hat{\mathbf{I}} + h_0 \hat{\mathbf{F}}_y(x_0, \xi_0)] \Delta_0 \\ &= \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_1 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_0 \Delta_0 \end{aligned}$$

where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_0$ has been implicitly defined. In the above we use the symbol ξ_0 in $\hat{\mathbf{F}}_y(x_0, \xi_0) \Delta_0$ simply to denote an appropriate set of constants such that $\hat{\mathbf{F}}_y(x_0, \xi_0) \Delta_0$ is the residual term in the first-order Taylor expansion of $\mathbf{F}(x_0, \mathbf{y}_0 + \Delta_0)$. Moreover, $\hat{\mathbf{F}}_y$ is the Jacobian

$$\hat{\mathbf{F}}_y = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial y_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial y_q} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial F_q}{\partial y_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial F_q}{\partial y_q} \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

where $\{F_1, F_2, \dots, F_q\}$ are the components of \mathbf{F} . The matrix $\hat{\mathbf{I}}$ is the identity matrix. For Δ_2 we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{w}_2 &= \mathbf{w}_1 + h_1 \mathbf{F}(x_1, \mathbf{w}_1) \\ \Rightarrow \mathbf{y}_2 + \Delta_2 &= [\mathbf{y}_1 + \Delta_1] + h_1 \mathbf{F}(x_1, \mathbf{y}_1 + \Delta_1) \\ &= [\mathbf{y}_1 + \Delta_1] + h_1 \mathbf{F}(x_1, \mathbf{y}_1) + h_1 \hat{\mathbf{F}}_y(x_1, \xi_1) \Delta_1 \\ \Rightarrow \Delta_2 &= [\mathbf{y}_1 + h_1 \mathbf{F}(x_1, \mathbf{y}_1) - \mathbf{y}_2] + [\hat{\mathbf{I}} + h_1 \hat{\mathbf{F}}_y(x_1, \xi_1)] \Delta_1 \\ &= \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_2 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_1 \Delta_1 \\ &= \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_2 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_1 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_1 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_1 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_0 \Delta_0. \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to show that

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_3 &= \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_3 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_2 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_2 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_2 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_1 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_1 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_2 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_1 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_0 \Delta_0 \\ \Delta_4 &= \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_4 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_3 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_3 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_3 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_2 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_2 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_3 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_2 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_1 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_1 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_3 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_2 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_1 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_0 \Delta_0 \end{aligned}$$

and, in general,

$$\Delta_n = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_n + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_{n-1} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{n-1} + \cdots + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_{n-1} \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_{n-2} \cdots \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_2 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_1 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_1 + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_{n-1} \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_{n-2} \cdots \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_2 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_1 \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_0 \Delta_0$$

where

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_k = \hat{\mathbf{I}} + h_k \hat{\mathbf{F}}_y(x_k, \xi_k) \quad (4)$$

in which, for each k , ξ_k is an appropriate set of constants (as explained above).

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