

Numerical Analysis – Lecture 10¹

Definition We say that the ODE $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{f}(t, \mathbf{y})$ is *stiff* if (for some methods) we need to depress h to maintain *stability* well beyond requirements of accuracy. An important example of stiff systems occurs when an equation is linear, $\operatorname{Re} \lambda_l < 0$, $l = 1, 2, \dots, N$, and the quotient $\max |\lambda_k| / \min |\lambda_k|$ is large: a ratio of 10^{20} is not unusual in real-life problems!

Stiff equations, mostly nonlinear, occur throughout applications, whenever we have two (or more) different timescales in the ODE. A typical example are equations of *chemical kinetics*, where each timescale is determined by the speed of reaction between two compounds: such speeds can differ by many orders of magnitude.

Definition Suppose that a numerical method, applied to $y' = \lambda y$, $y(0) = 1$, with constant h , produces the solution sequence $\{y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+}$. We call the set

$$\mathcal{D} = \{h\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = 0\}$$

the *linear stability domain* of the method. Noting that the set of $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ for which $y(t) \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow \infty} 0$ is the left half-plane $\mathbb{C}^- = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re} z < 0\}$, we say that the method is *A-stable* if $\mathbb{C}^- \subseteq \mathcal{D}$.

Example We have already seen that for Euler's method $y_n \rightarrow 0$ iff $|1 + h\lambda| < 1$, therefore $\mathcal{D} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |1 + z| < 1\}$. Moreover, solving $y' = \lambda y$ with the *trapezoidal rule*, we obtain $y_{n+1} = [(1 + \frac{1}{2}h\lambda)/(1 - \frac{1}{2}h\lambda)]y_n$ thus, by induction, $y_n = [(1 + \frac{1}{2}h\lambda)/(1 - \frac{1}{2}h\lambda)]^n y_0$. Therefore

$$z \in \mathcal{D} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \left| \frac{1 + \frac{1}{2}z}{1 - \frac{1}{2}z} \right| < 1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \operatorname{Re} z < 0$$

and we deduce that $\mathcal{D} = \mathbb{C}^-$. Hence, the method is A-stable.

It can be proved by similar means that for *backward Euler* it is true that $\mathcal{D} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |1 - z| > 1\}$, hence that the method is also A-stable.

Note that A-stability does not mean that *any* step size will do! We need to choose h small enough to ensure the right accuracy, but we don't want to depress it much further to prevent instability.

Discussion A-stability analysis of multistep methods is considerably more complicated. However, according to the *second Dahlquist barrier*, no multistep method of order $p \geq 3$ may be A-stable. Note that the $p = 2$ barrier for A-stability is attained by the trapezoidal rule.

The Dahlquist barrier implies that, in our quest for higher-order methods with good stability properties, we need to pursue one of the following strategies:

- either relax the definition of A-stability
- or consider other methods in place of multistep.

The two courses of action will be considered next.

Stiffness and BDF methods Inasmuch as no multistep method of order $p \geq 3$ may be A-stable, stability properties of BDF, say, are satisfactory for most stiff equations. The point is that in many stiff linear systems in applications the eigenvalues are not just in \mathbb{C}^- but also well away from $i\mathbb{R}$. [*Analysis of nonlinear stiff equations is difficult and well outside the scope of this course.*] All BDF methods of order $p \leq 6$ (i.e., all convergent BDF methods) share the feature that the linear stability domain \mathcal{D} includes a wedge about $(-\infty, 0)$: such methods are said to be *A₀-stable*.

Stiffness and Runge–Kutta Unlike multistep methods, implicit high-order RK may be A-stable. For example, recall the 3rd-order method

$$\mathbf{k}_1 = \mathbf{f}\left(t_n, \mathbf{y}_n + \frac{1}{4}h(\mathbf{k}_1 - \mathbf{k}_2)\right),$$

¹Corrections and suggestions to these notes should be emailed to A.Iserles@damtp.cam.ac.uk. All handouts are available on the WWW at the URL <http://www.damtp.cam.ac.uk/user/na/PartIB/Handouts.html>.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{k}_2 &= \mathbf{f}\left(t_n + \frac{2}{3}h, \mathbf{y}_n + \frac{1}{12}h(3\mathbf{k}_1 + 5\mathbf{k}_2)\right), \\ \mathbf{y}_{n+1} &= \mathbf{y}_n + \frac{1}{4}h(\mathbf{k}_1 + 3\mathbf{k}_2).\end{aligned}$$

from the last lecture. Applying it to $y' = \lambda y$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}hk_1 &= h\lambda\left(y_n + \frac{1}{4}hk_1 - \frac{1}{4}hk_2\right), \\ hk_2 &= h\lambda\left(y_n + \frac{1}{4}hk_1 + \frac{5}{12}hk_2\right).\end{aligned}$$

This is a linear system, whose solution is

$$\begin{bmatrix} hk_1 \\ hk_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{1}{4}h\lambda & \frac{1}{4}h\lambda \\ -\frac{1}{4}h\lambda & 1 - \frac{5}{12}h\lambda \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} h\lambda y_n \\ h\lambda y_n \end{bmatrix} = \frac{h\lambda y_n}{1 - \frac{2}{3}h\lambda + \frac{1}{6}(h\lambda)^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{2}{3}h\lambda \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

therefore

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{1}{4}hk_1 + \frac{3}{4}hk_2 = \frac{1 + \frac{1}{3}h\lambda}{1 - \frac{2}{3}h\lambda + \frac{1}{6}h^2\lambda^2} y_n.$$

Let

$$r(z) = \frac{1 + \frac{1}{3}z}{1 - \frac{2}{3}z + \frac{1}{6}z^2}.$$

Then $y_{n+1} = r(h\lambda)y_n$, therefore, by induction, $y_n = [r(h\lambda)]^n y_0$ and we deduce that

$$\mathcal{D} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |r(z)| < 1\}$$

We wish to prove that $|r(z)| < 1$ for every $z \in \mathbb{C}^-$, since this is equivalent to A-stability. This will be done by a technique that can be applied to other RK methods. According to the *maximum modulus principle* from Complex Methods, if g is analytic in the closed complex domain \mathcal{V} then $|g|$ attains its maximum on $\partial\mathcal{V}$. We let $g = r$. This is a rational function, hence its only singularities are the poles $2 \pm i\sqrt{2}$ and g is analytic in $\mathcal{V} = \text{cl } \mathbb{C}^- = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \text{Re } z \leq 0\}$. Therefore it attains its maximum on $\partial\mathcal{V} = i\mathbb{R}$ and

$$\text{A-stability} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad |r(z)| < 1, \quad z \in \mathbb{C}^- \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad |r(it)| \leq 1, \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

In turn,

$$|r(it)|^2 \leq 1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad |1 - \frac{2}{3}it - \frac{1}{6}t^2|^2 - |1 + \frac{1}{3}it|^2 \geq 0.$$

But $|1 - \frac{2}{3}it - \frac{1}{6}t^2|^2 - |1 + \frac{1}{3}it|^2 = \frac{1}{36}t^4 \geq 0$ and it follows that the method is A-stable.

Example It is possible to prove that the 2-stage *Gauss–Legendre method*

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{k}_1 &= \mathbf{f}\left(t_n + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}\right)h, \mathbf{y}_n + \frac{1}{4}h\mathbf{k}_1 + \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}\right)h\mathbf{k}_2\right), \\ \mathbf{k}_2 &= \mathbf{f}\left(t_n + \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}\right)h, \mathbf{y}_n + \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}\right)h\mathbf{k}_1 + \frac{1}{4}h\mathbf{k}_2\right), \\ \mathbf{y}_{n+1} &= \mathbf{y}_n + \frac{1}{2}h(\mathbf{k}_1 + \mathbf{k}_2)\end{aligned}$$

is of order 4. [You can do this for $y' = f(y)$ by expansion, but it becomes messy for $\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{f}(t, \mathbf{y})$.] It can be easily verified that for $y' = \lambda y$ we have $y_n = [r(h\lambda)]^n y_0$, where $r(z) = (1 + \frac{1}{2}z + \frac{1}{12}z^2)/(1 - \frac{1}{2}z + \frac{1}{12}z^2)$. Since the poles of r reside at $3 \pm i\sqrt{3}$ and $|r(it)| \equiv 1$, we can again use the maximum modulus principle to argue that $\mathcal{D} = \mathbb{C}^-$ and the Gauss–Legendre method is A-stable.

4.5 Implementation of ODE methods

The step size h is not some preordained quantity: it is a parameter of the method (in reality, many parameters, since we may vary it from step to step). The basic input of a well-written computer package for ODEs is not the step size but the *error tolerance*: the level of precision, as required by the user. The choice of $h > 0$ is an important tool at our disposal to keep a local estimate of the error beneath the required tolerance in the solution interval. In other words, we need not just a *time-stepping algorithm*, but also mechanisms for *error control* and for amending the step size.