

CONFERENTIE VAN NUMERIEK WISKUNDIGEN

12, 13 en 14 oktober 1981

CONFERENTIEOORD WOUDSCHOTEN
ZEIST



Werkgemeenschap Numerieke Wiskunde

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ZESDE CONFERENTIE NUMERIEKE WISKUNDE

Uitgave verzorgd door het
MATHEMATISCH CENTRUM
AMSTERDAM

DOEL VAN DE CONFERENTIE

De Conferentie Numerieke Wiskunde wordt eenmaal per jaar gehouden onder auspiciën van de Werkgemeenschap Numerieke Wiskunde. Het doel van de conferentie is om kennis te nemen van recente ontwikkelingen binnen de numerieke wiskunde. Hiertoe worden jaarlijks twee thema's vastgesteld. Lezingen over deze thema's worden normaliter verzorgd door uitgenodigde buitenlandse deskundigen.

THEMA

De thema's zijn:

- Stabiliteitstheorie voor stijve beginwaardeproblemen.
- Aspecten van de eindige-elementenmethode.

ORGANISATIE

De organisatie is in handen van de voorbereidingscommissie bestaande uit de heren Wesseling (THD), van der Houwen (MC), Veltkamp (THE) en Verwer (MC), en van het Mathematisch Centrum.

UITGENODIGDE SPREKERS

R. JELTSCH, RWTH Aken, BRD

W. LINIGER, IBM Yorktown Heights, USA.

J. MEINGUET, Université Catholique de Louvain, België.

K.W. MORTON, University of Reading, UK.

P.A. RAVIART, CNRS - Université Pierre en Marie Curie, Paris, France.

G. WANNER, Université de Genève, Zwitserland.

Drie deelnemers hebben zich bereid verklaard in een korte bijdrage een schets van hun onderzoek op het gebied van één van de conferentiethema's te geven, t.w.

F. CROWET, Philips Research Laboratory, Brussel.

C. DIERIECK, Philips Research Laboratory, Brussel.

W.H. HUNSDORFER, Rijks Universiteit Leiden.

PROGRAMMA

Maandag 12 oktober

10.00-11.15	aankomst en koffie	15.15-15.45	thee
11.15-12.30	opening, Wanner	15.45-16.45	Liniger
12.45	lunch	16.50-17.20	Crowet
14.15-15.15	Morton	17.25-17.55	Dierieck
		18.00	diner

dinsdag 13 oktober

8.00	ontbijt	12.45	lunch
9.00-10.00	Raviart	14.45-15.15	Hunsdorfer
10.00-10.30	koffie	15.15-15.45	thee
10.30-11.30	Jeltsch	15.45-16.45	Wanner
11.35-12.35	Meinguet	16.50-17.50	Morton
		18.00	diner

woensdag 14 oktober

8.00	ontbijt	12.45	lunch
9.00-10.00	Liniger	13.45-14.45	Meinguet
10.00-10.30	koffie	14.45	sluizing, thee
10.30-11.30	Raviart		vertrek
11.35-12.35	Jeltsch		

TITELS EN SAMENVATTINGEN VOORDRACHTEN

Maandag 12 oktober

11.15 opening

G. Wanner: *Introduction to A-stability theory for stiff differential equations.*

14.15 K.W. Morton: *Optimal finite-element methods for diffusion-convection problems.*

15.45 W. Liniger: *Stability and contractivity theory for multistep and one-leg methods with uniform steps.*

16.20 F. Crowet: *Streamfunction representation of an incompressible plane flow.*

17.25 C. Dierieck: *The stream function formulation of the 2-d Stokes problem.*

Dinsdag 13 oktober

9.00 P.A. Raviart: *Finite element approximation of nonsingular solutions of nonlinear problems.*

10.30 R. Jeltsch: *A technique to compare stability regions of general linear methods with special applications to semi-discretizations of hyperbolic problems.*

11.35 J. Meinguet: *A practical method for obtaining a priori error bounds in approximations of finite element type.*

14.45 W.H. Hundsdorfer: *Nonlinear stability analysis for a simple Rosenbrock method.*

15.45 G. Wanner: *Introduction to B-stability theory.*

16.50 K.W. Morton: *Optimal finite-element methods for diffusion-convection problems.*

Woensdag 14 oktober

9.00 W. Liniger: *The A-contractive methods: Stable methods with arbitrary variable integration steps for non-linear and variable coefficient problems.*

10.30 P.A. Raviart: *Approximation of bifurcation points.*

11.35 R. Jeltsch: *Dahlquist's second barrier cannot be broken.*

13.45 J. Meinguet: *A practical method for obtaining a priori error bounds in approximations of finite element type.*

STREAMFUNCTION REPRESENTATION OF AN INCOMPRESSIBLE PLANE FLOW

F. Crowet, C. Dierieck, Philips Research Laboratory, Brussels, Belgium.

To describe 2-dimensional flows of incompressible fluids constrained to some cavity, it is convenient to express the velocity field in terms of a streamfunction. Indeed, since the fluid is supposed to be incompressible, the corresponding velocity field is divergence free. This difficult constraint can be automatically satisfied by introducing some streamfunction ψ whose derivatives are linked up to the components of the velocity by the relation:

$$v_1 = \partial_2 \psi \quad , \quad v_2 = -\partial_1 \psi.$$

The object of our work is to examine the functional relation between vector-fields and streamfunctions.

The correspondence between a velocity field \vec{v} and a streamfunction ψ is notoriously associated with a Poisson equation $(-\Delta\psi = \text{curl } \vec{v})$. However the boundary conditions are not explicitly stated. Indeed, one usually mentions boundary conditions of the Dirichlet type whenever the velocity field has a vanishing normal component at the boundary, i.e. the streamfunction should be constant on every connected component of the boundary, but these constants are unknown. In all other cases, exact boundary conditions are never specified.

Our original approach consists in having studied first the basic relation between equivalence classes of streamfunctions and velocity field, which was shown to be an isomorphism. As main result, we obtained a weak formulation of this isomorphism which enables the practical determination of a streamfunction associated with a velocity field. A decisive advantage of this variational approach is that one precisely knows for which velocity fields the streamfunction can be determined by a Dirichlet problem, a Neumann problem or a second order problem of a mixed type. Moreover if a Dirichlet problem is preferred to determine the streamfunction, then it is even possible to explicitly calculate the constants which the streamfunction should attain on each connected component of the streamfunction.

We should further point out that the variational formulation is well suited for numerical determination of some approximate of the streamfunction, using e.g. finite element methods.

THE STREAM FUNCTION FORMULATION OF THE 2-d STOKES PROBLEM

F. Crowet, C. Dierieck, Philips Research Laboratory, Brussels, Belgium.

Velocity fields describing 2-dimensional flows past several objects are determined by the Stokes problem. This paper deals with the problem of determining completely the associated stream function, either as solution of some variational problem or as solution of a biharmonic problem, including the exact boundary conditions.

NONLINEAR STABILITY ANALYSIS FOR A SIMPLE ROSENBROCK METHOD

W.H. Hundsdorfer, Rijks Universiteit Leiden.

Abstract. We consider the initial value problem

$$U'(t) = f(U(t)) \quad (t \geq 0), \quad U(0) = u_0$$

with $f: \mathbb{R}^S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^S$ ($S \geq 1$) and $u_0 \in \mathbb{R}^S$ known. It will be assumed that f satisfies

$$\langle f(\tilde{x}) - f(x), \tilde{x} - x \rangle \leq \beta |\tilde{x} - x|^2 \quad (\text{for all } \tilde{x}, x \in \mathbb{R}^S)$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes an inner product on \mathbb{R}^S , $|\cdot|$ stands for the corresponding norm, and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ is a given number.

In recent years, Burrage and Butcher have studied the propagation of a perturbation in the initial value, when certain implicit Runge-Kutta methods are applied to this class of nonlinear differential equations.

In this talk such an analysis will be presented for the case that the following Rosenbrock method (M) is used.

$$(M) \quad u_n = u_{n-1} + h(I - h\theta f'(u_{n-1}))^{-1} f(u_{n-1}) \quad (n \geq 1).$$

Here $h > 0$ stands for the stepsize, $\theta > 0$ is a parameter and $u_n \approx U(nh)$ ($n \geq 1$).

A TECHNIQUE TO COMPARE STABILITY REGIONS OF GENERAL LINEAR METHODS WITH SPECIAL APPLICATIONS TO SEMIDISCRETIZATIONS OF HYPERBOLIC PROBLEMS

Rolf Jeltsch and Olavi Nevanlinna

1. The comparison technique

Here we consider general "linear" methods, i. e. methods which, when applied to the test equation $y' = \lambda y$, $y(0) = 1$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, yield a characteristic polynomial

$$(1) \quad \Phi(\zeta, \mu) = \sum_{i=0}^k \sum_{j=0}^m a_{ij} \mu^j \zeta^i, \quad a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \sum_{j=0}^m |a_{kj}| > 0.$$

The corresponding method will be referred to as a k -step, m -stage method. This class includes e. g. Runge-Kutta methods ($k = 1$), linear multistep methods ($m = 1$), linear k -step methods using m derivatives, predictor-corrector methods, cyclic methods. A method is represented by (1) and/or the algebraic function $P(\mu)$ defined by $\Phi(P(\mu), \mu) = 0$. The stability region S consists of all μ for which the roots of $\Phi(\zeta, \mu)$ do not exceed 1 and those of modulus 1 are simple. For a convergent method $P(\mu)$ has exactly one branch $P_1(\mu)$ which approximates e^μ in the sense $P_1(\mu) \approx e^\mu - c_{p+1} \mu^{p+1}$ for $|\mu|$ small. p is called the order and c_{p+1} the error constant of the method. For some methods, e. g. Runge-Kutta methods, this order exceeds the usual order but for linear k -step multiderivative methods these notions are identical with the usual definitions.

The following theorem gives the possibility to compare stability regions and accuracy of two methods [17], [23].

Theorem 1 $\Phi(\zeta, \mu)$, $\Psi(\zeta, \mu)$ represent two methods. Let P , Q denote the algebraic functions, S_P , S_Q the stability regions and p_P , p_Q the error order. Assume that

- a) $P(\mu)$ has at most s poles, which are not poles of $Q(\mu)$,
- b) $q = \min \{p_P, p_Q\} \geq 2s + 1$,
- c) Ψ is not a factor of Φ ,
- d) $Q(\mu)$ has Property C.

Then $S_Q \not\subset \bar{S}_P$.

If b) is replaced by b') $p_P \geq p_Q \geq 2s - 1$, $\text{sign } c_Q = (-1)^s$ then one has either $S_Q \not\subset \bar{S}_P$ or $p_P = p_Q$ and $|c_P| \geq |c_Q|$. c_P, c_Q are the error constants. \square

One can only compare a method with one which has Property C. The property basically insures, that outside the stability region S_Q exactly one branch, namely $Q_1(\mu)$, has a modulus exceeding one. Thus one can apply the order star technique in $\bar{\mathbb{C}} \setminus \bar{S}_Q$ using the quotient $P(\mu)/Q_1(\mu)$, [24].

A test to determine whether a method has Property C or not is given. It is based on the oriented root locus $\Gamma = \{\mu \in \bar{\mathbb{C}} \mid \Psi(e^{it}, \mu) = 0 \text{ for } t \in [0, 2\pi]\}$. Roughly speaking a method has Property C if and only if $\bar{\mathbb{C}} \setminus \Gamma$ can be two colored, green and red say, such that red is always to the right and $(0, \epsilon)$, $\epsilon > 0$, is red. The proof makes use of an extension of Dahlquist's right hand rule: Assume some part γ of Γ is covered s-times in the same direction, when plotting the roots of $\Psi(e^{it}, \mu)$ for t from 0 to 2π . Then the number of branches of $Q(\mu)$ of modulus exceeding 1 decreases by s , when moving from the right to left of γ . The red components of $\bar{\mathbb{C}} \setminus \Gamma$ will be the exterior of the stability region.

A method represented by (1) is called explicit if $a_{kj} = 0$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$. Hence if $P(\mu)$ belongs to an explicit m-stage method, $P(\mu)$ has a pole of order m at infinity. For explicit methods one obtains therefore the comparison theorem [16].

Theorem 2 $\Phi(\zeta, \mu)$, $\Psi(\zeta, \mu)$ represent two explicit m-stage, n-stage methods.

Assumptions c) d) remain as before but a) b) have to be replaced by

$\hat{a}) \ m \geq n$ $\hat{b}) \ q \geq 1$.

Then

(2) $S_Q \not\subset \bar{S}_P$. \square

For explicit m-stage methods m is a good measure for the work needed to perform one integration step. Thus, characteristics like S_P , p_P , c_P of a m-stage method described by $P(\mu)$ should be defined relative to m . To do this imagine a hypothetical one-stage method $\tilde{P}(\mu)$ which is used m times with stepsize $h = H/m$ where H is the stepsize used by the P method. Thus we want that $\tilde{P}^m(\mu/m)$ has the same characteristics as $P(\mu)$. One easily finds the scaled

characteristics

$$(3) \quad \tilde{S}_P := \frac{1}{m} S_P, \quad \tilde{P}_P := P_P, \quad \tilde{C}_P := c_P m^{P_P}.$$

Theorem 3 [16] Φ, Ψ as in Theorem 2 but assumption $\hat{a})$ is no longer needed.
Then

$$(4) \quad \frac{1}{n} S_Q =: \tilde{S}_Q \not\subset \tilde{S}_P := \frac{1}{m} \bar{S}_P \quad \text{if} \quad Q_1^m \left(\frac{\mu}{m}\right) \not\subset P_1^n \left(\frac{\mu}{n}\right). \quad \square$$

Hence, if one has two different, convergent explicit methods characterized by $P(\mu)$ and $Q(\mu)$ both having Property C then $\tilde{S}_Q \not\subset \tilde{S}_P$ and $\tilde{S}_P \not\subset \tilde{S}_Q$. Thus there exist two initial value problems such that one method performs better on one problem while the other one is better on the other problem. Therefore methods have always been designed to solve special classes of problems. In [16], [17] the size of stability regions for three different purposes is investigated:

1. For "general" nonlinear ordinary differential equations. Here one wants a disk $D_r := \{\mu \mid |\mu + r| \leq r\}$ in the stability region S with r as large as possible.
2. Problems which arise from semidiscretization of parabolic differential equation where one wants intervals $[-a, 0]$ in S with a as large as possible.
3. Hyperbolic problems, where stability intervals $I_r = \{iy \mid y \in (-r, r)\}$ should be in S with r as large as possible.

The comparison technique is used in the following way:

One guesses the "optimal" method with Property C and proves with the comparison theorem that the guess was right. Since for methods with Property C one has $\partial S \sim \text{imaginary axis}$ for $|\mu|$ small this technique is not suited to answer questions on stability interval on the negative real axis. It is however well suited for analyzing stability of methods for solving general nonlinear or hyperbolic problems.

2. Application to semidiscretizations of hyperbolic problems

2.1 First Order Systems

Consider for example the initial value problem $u_t + u_x = 0$ in $(0,1) \times (0,T]$, $u(x,0) = u_0$ given where $u_0(\cdot)$, $u(\cdot, t)$ are periodic functions of period 1. If one discretizes first the space variable x one is lead to a system of first order differential equations $v' = Av$, where A is a skew symmetric matrix, [1], [6], p. 205. Thus the eigenvalues of A are purely imaginary and thus one is interested in having a long interval I_r in S . Let us first consider explicit methods. Van der Houwen [22] has shown that for m -stage Runge-Kutta methods one has $r \leq 2[m/2]$ and that equality can be attained if m is odd. In [16] the following general result is given.

Theorem 4 $\phi(\zeta, \mu)$ belongs to a convergent, explicit m -stage method. Then either $I_m \not\subset \bar{S}$ or $\bar{I}_m = \bar{S}$ and ϕ has a factor $\psi_m(\zeta, \mu)$ of the form

$$(5) \quad \psi_m(\zeta, \mu) = \zeta^2 - 2i^m T_m(-i\mu/m) \zeta + (-1)^m,$$

where T_m is the m -th degree Tchebycheff polynomial. \square

This is proved by comparing ϕ with ψ_1 using Theorem 2. In the scaled sense ψ_1 , which represents the mid point rule $y_{n+1} - y_{n-1} = 2hy'_n$, has the longest stability interval, namely I_1 . Unfortunately the order is only 2. For any $r < 1$, $k \in \{2, 3, 4\}$ there are explicit linear k -step methods with $I_r \subset S$ and $p = k$. However for $k \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ an explicit linear k -step method with $p = k$ has no nontrivial interval of stability on the imaginary axis, [16].

If we want $I_\infty \subset S$ the method has to be implicit. In [14] it was shown for linear multistep methods that if $I_\infty \subset S$ then $p \leq 2$ and among all those methods with $I_\infty \subset S$ and $p = 2$ the trapezoidal rule has the smallest error constant. In [25] this result is extended.

Theorem 5 [25] Let ϕ represent a m -stage method with $I_\infty \subset S$. Then $p \leq 2m$. Among all methods of order $p = 2m$ with $I_\infty \subset S$ the methods characterized by

$$(6) \quad \Pi_m(Q, \mu) = N_m(\mu) - QN_m(-\mu)$$

have the smallest error constant

$$c_{II_m} = (-1)^m \frac{(m!)^2}{(2m)! (2m+1)!} .$$

Here

$$N_m(\mu) = 1 + \frac{m}{2m} \mu + \frac{m(m-1)}{(2m)(2m-1)} \frac{\mu^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{m(m-1)\dots 1}{(2m)\dots(m+1)} \frac{\mu^m}{m!}$$

and $N_m(\mu)/N_m(-\mu)$ is the m -th diagonal Padé-approximation to $\exp(\mu)$. \square

Using Theorem 1 and a further comparison theorem the following is shown.

Theorem 6 [17] For a m -stage method, $m = 1$ or 2 , with $p > 2m$ and $I_r \subset S$ one has

$$(7) \quad r \leq r_{m,opt} = \begin{cases} \sqrt{3} & m = 1 \\ \sqrt{15} & m = 2 \end{cases} .$$

If $p = 2m$ and $I_r \subset S$ with $r > r_{m,opt}$, then

$$|c_p| \geq \begin{cases} \frac{1}{12} \left(1 - \frac{3}{r^2}\right) , & m = 1 \\ \frac{1}{720} \left(1 - \frac{15}{r^2}\right) , & m = 2 \end{cases} .$$

For $m = 2$ one never has equality in (7). However if for $m = 1$ one has equality in (7) and ϕ is irreducible then it must be Milne-Simpson where

$$\phi(\zeta, \mu) = \zeta^2 - 1 + \mu(\zeta^2 + 4\zeta + 1)/3 . \quad \square$$

The comparison technique fails for $m > 2$ for there are too many branch points. The result for $m = 1$ has also been proved in [5] using a totally different approach. Milne-Simpson has only order 4. However for any $r < r_{1,opt} = \sqrt{3}$ there exists a linear 4-step method of order 6 such that $I_r \subset S$, see also [6].

2.2 Second Order System

Consider for example the initial value problem $u_{tt} = u_{xx}$ in $[0,1] \times (0,T]$, $u(x,0)$, $u_t(x,0)$, $x \in [0,1]$ and $u(0,t)$, $u(1,t)$, $t \in [0,T]$ given.

If one discretizes first the space variable one is lead to a system of second order differential equations

$$(8) \quad v'' = Av, \quad$$

where A is a symmetric negative definite matrix, [8], [20] p. 260.

In the following a stability analysis of numerical methods for $y'' = g(t, y)$ is presented, [11], [17]. To keep the notation consistent with the previous sections we consider the test equation $y'' = \lambda^2 y$, $\lambda \in I_\infty = i\mathbb{R}$. Again we consider "linear" methods, i. e. methods which, when applied to the test equation yield a characteristic polynomial

$$(9a) \quad \Psi(\zeta, \mu) = \sum_{i=0}^k \sum_{j=0}^{2m} a_{ij} \mu^j \zeta^i, \quad a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \sum_{j=0}^{2m} |a_{kj}| > 0,$$

$$k > 1, \quad \mu := h\lambda$$

with

$$(9b) \quad \Psi(\zeta, -\mu) = \Psi(\zeta, \mu), \quad \text{i. e. } a_{ij} = 0 \text{ for } j \text{ odd.}$$

Again we call the corresponding method a k -step, m -stage method. This class of methods includes e. g. linear k -step methods ($m = 1$), [12] p. 289, [15]

linear k -step $2m$ -derivative methods $\sum_{i=0}^k \sum_{j=0}^{2m} a_{ij} h^j y_{n+i}^{(j)} = 0$, Nyström-, hybrid methods [11].

We consider convergent methods only, i. e. the roots of $\Psi(\cdot, 0)$ do not exceed 1 in modulus and the ones of modulus 1 are at most double roots. The error order and error constant c_p is defined in exactly the same way as in the first section. Observe that for linear k -step methods $c_p = C/2$ where C is the error constant introduced in Henrici [12]. The exact solutions of the test equation are bounded for $\lambda \in I_\infty \setminus \{0\}$. One is therefore interested in having a long interval $I_\infty \setminus \{0\}$ on the imaginary axis inside the stability region S . In order to investigate whether one should solve (8) directly or transform it to a system of first order we introduce the following map Σ .

If $\Phi(\zeta, \mu)$ has form (1) and characterizes a m -stage method for solving $y' = f(t, y)$ then

$$(10) \quad \Sigma \Phi := \Phi(\zeta, \mu) \Phi(\zeta, -\mu)$$

characterizes a m -stage method for solving $y'' = g(t, y)$.

Observe that using our definitions the error order and error constant are invariant under the map Σ . Moreover if I_r is the longest stability interval of ϕ then $I_r \subset \bar{S}_{\Sigma\phi}$ and r cannot be enlarged. In addition for multistep m -derivative methods the computational work to solve (8) by $\Sigma\phi$ is the same as solving the corresponding first order system by ϕ . Let us first consider explicit methods, i. e. $a_{kj} = 0$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, 2m$. Theorem 4 gives immediately the result.

Theorem 7 $\Psi(\zeta, \mu)$ given by (9) belongs to a convergent, explicit m -stage method. Then either $I_{2m} \not\subset \bar{S}$ or $I_{2m} = \bar{S}$ and Ψ has a factor Ψ_{2m} given by (5). \square

Hence if we scale by m as before then Ψ_2 , which represents Störmer's formula $y_{n+1} - 2y_n + y_{n-1} = h^2 y_n''$, has the longest scaled stability interval. Observe that $\Sigma\Psi_1|_{(\sqrt{\zeta}, \mu/2)} = \Psi_2(\zeta, \mu)$. If we want $I_\infty \subset \bar{S}$ then the method has to be implicit. In [4] it was shown for linear multistep methods that if $I_\infty \subset \bar{S}$ then $p \leq 2$ and among all those methods with $I_\infty \subset \bar{S}$ and $p = 2$ the method

$$(11) \quad y_{n+1} - 2y_n + y_{n-1} = \frac{h^2}{4} (y_{n+1}'' + 2y_n'' + y_{n-1}'')$$

has the smallest error constant. In general one finds using order star theory the following result.

Theorem 8 [11]. Let Ψ given by (9) represent a m -stage method with $I_\infty \subset \bar{S}$. Then $p \leq 2m$. Among all methods of order $p = 2m$ with $I_\infty \subset \bar{S}$, the methods characterized by $\Sigma\Pi_m$ have the smallest error constant. \square

Clearly (11) is represented by $\Sigma\Pi_1$ where Π_1 characterizes the trapezoidal rule. (11) has long been known, see e. g. [20] p. 263. In order to prove a result corresponding to Theorem 6 one has to extend the comparison theorems and make use of the fact (9b).

Theorem 9 [17] For a linear multistep method ($m = 1$) with $p > 2$ and $I_r \setminus \{0\} \subset S$ one has $r \leq \sqrt{6}$. Equality occurs only for Cowell's method given by

$$(12) \quad y_{n+1} - 2y_n + y_{n-1} = h^2(y''_{n+1} + 10y''_n + y''_{n-1})/12$$

or trivial modifications of it.

If $p = 2$ and $I_r \setminus \{0\} \subset S$ with $r > \sqrt{6}$, then

$$(13) \quad |c_p| \geq \frac{1}{12} \left(1 - \frac{6}{r^2}\right) \quad . \quad \square$$

In (13) equality occurs for a certain method given in [17] and, when applied to the wave equation is listed in [1] p. 200. Method (12) has order 4 only. However for $r < \sqrt{6}$ there exist linear 4-step methods of order $p = 6$ with $S = I_r \setminus \{0\}$, [6], [15], [19].

DAHLQUIST'S SECOND BARRIER CANNOT BE BROKEN

In this paper we consider linear multistep methods

$$(1) \quad \sum_{i=0}^k \alpha_i y_{n+i} = h \sum_{i=0}^k \beta_i f(t_{n+i}, y_{n+i}) \quad , \quad \alpha_i, \beta_i \in \mathbb{R} \quad , \quad h > 0 \quad ,$$

for solving initial value problems $y' = f(t, y)$, $y(0)$ given. Here h is the stepsize and y_n an approximation to the exact solution $y(t_n)$, where $t_n = nh$. The characteristic polynomial, see [18], is $\phi(\zeta, \mu) = \rho(\zeta) - \mu\sigma(\zeta)$, where

$$(2) \quad \rho(\zeta) = \sum_{i=0}^k \alpha_i \zeta^i \quad , \quad \sigma(\zeta) = \sum_{i=0}^k \beta_i \zeta^i \quad .$$

We use the normalization $\sigma(1) = 1$. The stability region S is defined as in [18]. The error order p and the error constant c_{p+1} given in [18] describe the local error

$$(3) \quad [L_h y](t) := \sum_{i=0}^k (\alpha_i y(t + ih) - \beta_i y'(t + ih))$$

for small h ; for one has

$$(4) \quad [L_h y](t) := c_{p+1} h^{p+1} y^{(p+1)}(t) + c_{p+2} h^{p+2} y^{(p+2)}(t) + O(h^{p+3}) \quad ,$$

$$c_{p+1} \neq 0 \quad ,$$

for sufficiently smooth $y(t)$.

When solving stiff initial value problems where one has large differences in time constants one is interested in methods where the stability region S contains as much of the left half plane $\mathbb{C}^- = \{\mu \mid \operatorname{Re} \mu \leq 0\}$ as possible. If $\mathbb{C}^- \subset S$ then a method is called A-stable. Dahlquist [3] has shown, that the order p of an A-stable linear multistep method cannot exceed 2 and among the ones with $p = 2$ the trapezoidal rule has the smallest error constant.

There are two ways to "break" this second Dahlquist barrier.

Either one can change, enlarge the class of methods under consideration or one can replace this strong concept of A-stability by a somewhat weaker stability condition. In this presentation we shall consider the second approach and replace A-stability by $A(\alpha)$ -stability [26], A_0 -stability [2] and stiff stability [7], respectively. For all these stability concepts one has found high order almost A-stable methods [2], [10], [13], [17], [21]. In [17] a general principal how such methods can be constructed is given in the proof of the following

Theorem 1 Let ρ, σ represent a linear k -step method of order p with $D_R := \{\mu \mid |\mu + R| \leq R\} \subset S$ for some $R > 0$. Then to any $K \in \mathbb{N}$, $r < R$ and any closed set $\Omega \subset \operatorname{Int} S \subset \overline{\mathbb{C}}$ there exists a linear $k+K$ -step method $\tilde{\rho}, \tilde{\sigma}$ of order $p + K$ with $D_r \subset \tilde{S}$ and $\Omega \subset \operatorname{Int} \tilde{S}$. Moreover if ρ, σ is an explicit method then $\tilde{\rho}, \tilde{\sigma}$ can be chosen to be explicit too. \square

Applying this theorem to the θ method with $\theta > 1/2$ and $1/(2\theta - 1) < \epsilon$ yields the

Corollary [17]. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $R > 0$ and $\epsilon > 0$. Then there exist linear multistep methods with order $p = k$, $D_R \subset S$ and $\overline{\mathbb{C}} \setminus S \subset \{\mu \mid |\mu| < \epsilon\}$. \square

This Corollary contains as special examples the results in [10] and [13].

The proofs are constructive in the sense that the methods are explicitly given. However from the construction of these methods one observes that one cannot hope to really get more accurate methods. For example in [13] to any $D > 0$ stiffly stable methods with $\{\mu \in \mathbb{C} \mid \operatorname{Re} \mu \leq -D\} \subset S$, and $p = k$ have been constructed. But since $c_{k+1} = O(D^{-k})$ as $D \rightarrow 0$ these methods are not accurate. This may indicate that in addition to a high error order one should request that the

error constant is kept small too. This can indeed be done when $p = k = 3$. Genin [9] has given a two parameter family of stiffly stable methods where

$$(5) \quad D = \frac{1}{-36c_4 (b_2 - 144c_4^2)} .$$

Here b_2 is a positive parameter and the error constant c_4 is a negative parameter. Thus for any $c_4 < 0$ and $D > 0$ there exists a linear 3-step method of order 3 with the prescribed error constant c_4 and stiff stability parameter D . Hence this third order method can be made almost A-stable and the error constant can be made as small as one wishes. These methods are however bad since one can show $c_{p+2} = c_5 = O(D^{-1})$ as D tend to 0. These results indicate that it is not enough to describe the accuracy of a method by just considering the order and the error constant. Moreover these classical notions of order and error constant measure only the first term of the asymptotic expansion of the error as h tends to 0. Hence these are concepts for small values of h . If one applies methods with "large" stability regions to the above mentioned stiff systems stability allows to use a stepsize h for which the asymptotic error expansion is no longer adequate. In this case the concepts of error order and error constant are no longer appropriate. Therefore in [17] the accuracy for fixed positive h is measured by the L_1 -norm of the Peano-kernel of the local error (3). For $y(t) \in C^q$, $q \leq p+1$ one has by the Peano-kernel theorem

$$(6) \quad [L_h y](t) = h^q \int_{-k}^0 K_q(s) y^{(q)}(t - hs) ds$$

where the Peano-kernel is given by

$$K_q(s) = L_1 \frac{s_+^{q-1}}{(q-1)!} ,$$

$$s_+ = \begin{cases} s & \text{for } s > 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } s \leq 0 \end{cases} .$$

Let M be the smallest constant such that for all $y \in C^q$ one has

$$(7) \quad |[L_h y](t)| \leq h^q M \sup_{s \in [t, t+kh]} |y^{(q)}(s)| .$$

By (6) we see that

$$M = \int_{-k}^0 K_q(s) ds =: \|K_q\|_1 .$$

The estimate (7) for the local error is the best possible which is valid for all functions in C^q . Hence it will be realistic for some functions, but rather pessimistic for very smooth ones. Observe that the estimate (7) consists of three factors. M depends on the method only. In particular it is independent of the stepsize h . The last factor measures the smoothness of the solution of the underlying problem and is almost independent on h and the method. Observe that

$$c_{p+1} = \int_{-k}^0 K_{p+1}(s) ds$$

and thus

$$\|K_{p+1}\|_1 = |c_{p+1}|$$

if and only if $K_{p+1}(s)$ does not change sign. In [17] the following lower bounds for $\|K_q\|_1$ are proved.

Theorem 2 Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$. There exists a constant C_k such that the following holds. If $D_R \subset S$ and $q \leq p+1$ then

$$\|K_q\|_1 \geq C_k \left(\frac{R}{3}\right)^{p-2}.$$

C_k can be specified more precisely if $q = p+1$ for one has

Theorem 3 Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k+1 \leq p \leq \max\{k, 2\}$. Assume that

$$\begin{aligned} D_R \subset S & \quad \text{if } p = k+1 \\ D_R \cup \{\infty\} \subset S & \quad \text{if } p = k. \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$(8) \quad -c_{p+1} \geq \frac{1}{12} \left(\frac{R}{6}\right)^{p-2}.$$

Observe that $c_{p+1} > 0$ if $p \leq k$. These results show clearly that A-stability cannot be approximated with "accurate" methods of order $p > 2$. Applying (8) to Genin's example we see that even so one can make D in (5) as small as one wishes for any fixed $c_4 < 0$, the radius R will remain bounded by $-72c_4$.

In Jeltsch, Nevanlinna [17] similar results for explicit methods are given. In addition results of the same flavor are given where the size of the Peano-kernel is related to stability intervals on the real axis.

The following result which is proved using the comparison technique indicates again that there are no accurate high order almost A-stable linear multistep methods. Let $H_\delta := \{\mu \mid |\mu| \leq \delta, \operatorname{Re} \mu \leq 0\}$.

Theorem 4 [17]. There is a constant C such that for a linear multistep method with $p \geq 3$ and $D_R \cup H_\delta \subset S$ one has

$$\delta^2 R < C. \quad \square$$

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1. Stability and Contractivity Theory for Multistep and One-leg Methods with Uniform Steps.

During the past few years, considerable progress was made in the stability analysis of numerical methods for ordinary differential equations. Stability and contractivity results were obtained for linear multistep and one-leg methods as applied to certain classes of linear and nonlinear equations. Families of novel integration formulas (representing proper subsets of, say, the A_0 -stable or A -stable formulas) were identified by these theories which possess much stronger stability properties than many of the popular ones (say, the backward differentiation formulas). These developments will be surveyed for the case of uniform grids.

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2. The A -Contractive Methods: Stable Methods with Arbitrary Variable Integration Steps for Nonlinear and Variable Coefficient Problems.

1. The linear multistep formula

$$\sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j \ddot{x}_{n-k+j} - h \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j \dot{x}_{n-k+j} = 0 \quad (1)$$

is said to be contractive [1] at a location q in the complex plane if for all $(k+1)$ -tuples $\{y_0, y_1, \dots, y_k\}$ satisfying $\sum_{j=0}^k (\alpha_j - q\beta_j)y_j = 0$ we have $\|Y_k\| \leq \|Y_{k-1}\|$ in some given norm $\|\cdot\|$, where $Y_m = (y_{m-k+1}, \dots, y_m)$, $m = k-1, k$. If not stated otherwise, the results given in this paper are valid in the ℓ_∞ -norm. If (1) is applied to $\dot{x} = \lambda x$, λ constant, complex, then contractivity at $q = h\lambda$ implies $\|X_n\| \leq \|X_{n-1}\|$, $n = k, k+1, \dots$, where $X_n = (x_{n-k+1}, x_{n-k+2}, \dots, x_n)$, and thus contractivity at q implies stability at q . The formula (1) is said to be A -contractive [1] if it is contractive at all q , $\text{Re } q \leq 0$. A -contractivity implies A -stability and thus A -contractive formulas are of order of accuracy $p \leq 2$.

In [1] we identified the one-parameter family of all A -contractive $p = k = 2$ -formulas with uniform steps. This result was generalized to variable steps in [2] as follows: For steps (h_{n-1}, h_n) of arbitrary ratio $0 < r_n = h_n/h_{n-1} < +\infty$, we derived the one-parameter family of all $p = k = 2$ -formulas which are both A -contractive with respect to the ℓ_∞ -norm and contractive for all dissipative non-linear systems in inner product norms (G -stable). Here we give, for any $k \geq 1$ and for arbitrary non-uniform grids, the $(k-1)$ -parameter family of all A -contractive k -step second-order formulas. These formulas have very strong stability properties. For example, stability can be guaranteed for *arbitrary* step sequences if at each step *any one* of the A -contractive formulas is implemented as a one-leg method and applied to the variable coefficient test problem $\dot{x} = \lambda(t)x$ with *any* $\lambda(t)$, $\text{Re } \lambda(t) \leq 0$. By contrast, the variable-step version

of the two-step backward differentiation formula, which for uniform steps is A -stable but which is not A -contractive in the ℓ_∞ -norm, can be destabilized by certain combinations of variable steps and variable coefficients [2, 3].

2. For variable steps $h_n = t_n - t_{n-1}$, > 0 , $n = 1, 2, \dots$, the multistep formula can be written as

$$\sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_{j,n} x_{n-k+j} - h_n \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_{j,n} \dot{x}_{n-k+j} = 0. \quad (2)$$

Let

$$\Theta_{j,n} = (t_{n-k+j} - t_{n-k}) / h_n, \quad j = 0, \dots, k. \quad (3)$$

We assume that $\Theta_{j,n} > \Theta_{\ell,n}$ whenever $j > \ell$ to assure that the grid $\{t_n\}$ is monotone increasing. For uniform steps, $\Theta_{j,n} = j$. The definition (3) implies that $\Theta_{0,n} = 0$ and $\Theta_{k,n} = \Theta_{k-1,n} + 1$ for all n and the $k-1$ independent quantities $\Theta_{1,n}, \dots, \Theta_{k-1,n}$ can be used to describe the variability of the grid. If we define the m^{th} weighted moments of the $\alpha_{j,n}$ and $\beta_{j,n}$ by

$$A_{m,n} = \sum_{j=0}^k \Theta_{j,n}^m \alpha_{j,n}, \quad B_{m,n} = \sum_{j=0}^k \Theta_{j,n}^m \beta_{j,n} \quad (4)$$

and normalize the formula (2) by

$$B_{0,n} = \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_{j,n} = 1, \quad (5)$$

then (2) is consistent iff $A_{0,n} = 0$ and $A_{1,n} = B_{0,n} = 1$, i.e. iff

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_{k,n} &= 1 - \sum_{j=0}^{k-2} (\Theta_{k-1,n} - \Theta_{j,n}) u_{j,n}, \\ \alpha_{k-1,n} &= -1 + \sum_{j=0}^{k-2} (\Theta_{k,n} - \Theta_{j,n}) u_{j,n},\end{aligned}\tag{6}$$

where

$$u_{j,n} := -\alpha_{j,n}, \quad j = 0, \dots, k-2\tag{7}$$

for $k \geq 2$. Note that $\alpha_{k,n} = -\alpha_{k-1,n} + \sum_{j=0}^{k-2} u_{j,n}$. We now state the result of this paper; the proof will be given elsewhere.

Theorem:

For any $k \geq 1$, the set of all A -contractive k -step second-order formulas for arbitrary variable steps is the $(k-1)$ -parameter family defined by (6),

$$\beta_{j,n} = (\Theta_{j,n} - \frac{1}{2}A_{2,n})\alpha_{j,n}, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, k,\tag{8}$$

and (for $k \geq 2$) by (7) and

$$\begin{aligned}u_{j,n} &\geq 0, \quad j = 0, \dots, k-2, \\ \sum_{j=0}^{k-2} (\Theta_{k,n} - \Theta_{j,n}) u_{j,n} &\leq 1,\end{aligned}\tag{9}$$

where $\Theta_{j,n}$ and $A_{2,n}$ are defined by (3) and (4), respectively.

□

Note that a) for $k = 1$, the only A -contractive (A -stable) formula with $p = 2$ is the Trapezoidal Rule; b) relations (6) - (9) imply (5) and the second-order accuracy

condition $A_{2,n} = 2B_{1,n}$; c) the condition (9) is necessary and sufficient for contractivity at $q = 0$; d) for $k \geq 2$, the A -contractive second-order k -step formulas are in one-to-one correspondence with the points of the $(k-1)$ -dimensional simplex S defined by (9). The vertices of S , i.e. the intercepts $\{u_{j,n} = (\Theta_{k,n} - \Theta_{j,n})^{-1}, u_{\ell,n} = 0$ for $\ell \neq k, j = 0, 1, \dots, k-2\}$ of the $u_{j,n}$ -axes with the plane of equality (9b), and the origin, represent the $(k-j)$ -step Trapezoidal Rules

$$\frac{1}{\Theta_{k,n} - \Theta_{j,n}}(x_n - x_{n-k+j}) - \frac{h_n}{2}(\dot{x}_n + \dot{x}_{n-k+j}) = 0, j = 0, \dots, k-1, \quad (10)$$

respectively, normalized by (5). The edge $\{u_{j,n} = 0, 0 \leq j \leq k-3; 0 \leq u_{k-2,n} \leq (\Theta_{k,n} - \Theta_{k-2,n})^{-1}\}$ of S represents the A -contractive $p = k = 2$ -formulas derived earlier.

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A PRACTICAL METHOD FOR OBTAINING A PRIORI ERROR BOUNDS IN APPROXIMATIONS OF FINITE ELEMENT TYPE - J. Meinguet, Univ. Catholique de Louvain, Belgium.

Error *estimates* (as opposed to *bounds*) often involve unknown constants, in which case they are naturally ill-suited to *quantitative* studies. The present lectures are based essentially on some fairly recent research work whose primary purpose was precisely to cover this shortcoming of such estimates by devising a *method of practical value* for obtaining *realistic a priori upper bounds of approximation errors* in a *wide variety of situations*. As explained in detail in [13, 14, 15, 22], such a method can be elaborated from a *structural analysis of error coefficients*, which evolves quite naturally in the setting of operator theory in normed linear spaces while referring to such classical tools as the *Peano kernel theorem* and its *qualitative* generalization known as the *Bramble-Hilbert lemma*. As exemplified in the above references and also in [1, 11], that method can yield at *reasonable cost* explicit upper bounds for certain *generic constants* which tend to pervade the modern literature on error estimation (typically in spline analysis, in connection with the rate of convergence of the finite element method, see e.g. [6] and [7], Theorems 2, 4, 5, 6).

We will review and summarize here some of the significant results obtained so far in matter of *quantitative estimation* of interpolation and (more generally) approximation errors. Two wide classes of (multivariate) applications need to be considered in the first instance, namely : (a) *pointwise or uniform approximation in $C^m(\bar{\Omega})$* and (b) *pointwise and mean-square approximation in $H^m(\Omega)$* . Our approach basically amounts to manipulating (most carefully !) suitable *explicit representations* of any given function f as a polynomial Pf (where P denotes a linear projector) plus a remainder term (expressed in integral form, in terms of generalized partial derivatives of f), in order to get *key estimates* of the general form

$$|f - Pf|_I \leq C |f|_{II},$$

where $|\cdot|_I$ and $|\cdot|_{II}$ denote seminorms involving appropriately related subsets of generalized partial derivatives of f and C , the so-called *error coefficient*, is a numerical constant depending on Ω . Needless to

say, such inequalities are formally related to *variations of the well known Bramble-Hilbert lemma* (see e.g. [4,5]) and could be proved quite similarly, that is in a strictly nonconstructive way, by making use of Morrey-like results (see [23], pp. 85-86) and generalizations thereof. Our proof, which is somewhat reminiscent of Sobolev's approach to imbedding theorems (see e.g. [28], pp. 50-56), is completely different; essentially constructive throughout, it can yield directly (i.e., without passing through the analysis of "change of scale" effects) realistic upper bounds for the best possible error coefficient C_0 ; of course, these results depend on the specific representation formula at hand: the (truncated) *Taylor series* (see e.g. [13, 14, 22]), the *Kowalewski-Ciarlet-Wagschal formula* (see e.g. [1,8]), the *averaged Taylor series* [14, 15] and more generally the *Sobolev representation formula* (see [28] and [9,10]), etc. It should be noted that a systematic, constructive approach to the important topic of (multivariate) *representation formulas* can be found in the recent papers [16,17,18,19,20,21] whose main concern is different from the present one, however; it is shown there, in particular, how easily *convolutions* (or *Fourier transforms*) can be used, together with *basic integral inequalities* (see e.g. [3] and [12]) to find in a unified way "appropriate" expressions of distributions (or functions) in terms of a prescribed subset of generalized partial derivatives; such representation formulas can provide appropriate substitutes for the truncated Taylor series and for its integral remainder term, such as requested for extending the Peano kernel theorem to the representation of errors in intrinsically multivariate situations.

We will also mention here the somewhat surprising fact that *optimal error coefficients* C_0 can often be characterized (see e.g. [20], where this interesting possibility is illustrated in connection with two famous integral inequalities in Sobolev spaces due to Friedrichs and to Poincaré). It occasionally happens that such *characterizations* can be treated further, to yield bounds (see e.g. [2],[25],[26] and specially [27]) but there are apparently simple situations (see e.g. [24]) for which such characterizations are uninteresting. As regards *lower bounds* for C_0 , they can usually be obtained more economically *than* upper bounds (see e.g. [13] for the class (a), [24] for the class (b), and [29] for more general techniques).

By way of *concrete applications* of the above material, we will consider two specific, non-trivial examples, namely *multivariate numerical integration with nonnegative weights* and *bivariate Lagrange interpolation over a triangulated domain*.

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OPTIMAL FINITE-ELEMENT METHODS FOR DIFFUSION-CONVECTION PROBLEMS

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Abstract

The success of finite element methods with elliptic problems $Lu = f$ stems largely from their optimality properties in the self-adjoint case. Of all members of a trial space S^h , the approximation obtained through the Galerkin formulation is the closest in the energy norm to the true solution. Several valuable consequences follow from this fact: the coarsest possible mesh may be used with confidence; superconvergence phenomena allow more accurate and detailed information about the solution to be recovered; and localised mesh refinement can be given a sound basis.

However lack of self-adjointness in the operator L erodes these properties and the Galerkin approximation eventually becomes a very poor one. An important class of practical problems of this type are the diffusion-convection problems governed by

$$\nabla \cdot (a \nabla u - \underline{b}u) + f = 0,$$

where a is a diffusion coefficient and \underline{b} a given convection velocity field. Sharp boundary layers may occur when b/a is large and result in violently oscillatory approximations.

These problems and developments in finite element methods to solve them successfully will be the subject of the two lectures. Similar difficulties arising from oscillatory solutions were encountered with centred difference approximations, and upwind schemes of various kinds introduced to overcome them. In the first lecture we will consider some of this background and the development of similarly designated upwind finite element schemes. These are based on the use of the Petrov-Galerkin method in which a space of test function T^h , distinct from the trial space S^h , is introduced. Another approach, involving the intro-

duction of an artificial diffusion tensor, will also be described. In both cases the methods can be related to exponential fitting methods used with finite differences and also to seeking optimality with respect to the diffusion operator norm.

In the second lecture we will concentrate on an alternative approach based on approximately symmetrizing the problem. This introduces an energy norm of the form

$$\int \{ \rho a^2 |\underline{v}|^2 + [\rho |\underline{b}|^2 + \underline{v} \cdot (\rho \underline{a} \underline{b})] v^2 \} d\Omega,$$

where ρ is a weighting function, with respect to which a near optimal approximation is constructed. For problems in one dimension rigorous error estimates can be derived to demonstrate the near optimality. In two dimensions a formulation will be presented in which solution of a convection problem for the flux $\underline{v} = \underline{b}u - a\nabla u$ is alternated with a self-adjoint problem for u .

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FINITE ELEMENT APPROXIMATION OF NONLINEAR PROBLEMS

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A large class of boundary-value problems for nonlinear elliptic partial differential equations may be put into the following abstract framework. We are given three Banach spaces V , W and X such that

$$W \subset X \text{ with compact imbedding.}$$

We introduce a linear operator $T \in \mathcal{L}(X;V)$ and C^p mapping ($p \geq 2$) $G : (\lambda, u) \in \mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow G(\lambda, u) \in X$ such that

$$D_u G(\lambda, u) \in \mathcal{L}(V;W)$$

We set :

$$F(\lambda, u) = u + TG(\lambda, u).$$

Thus F is a C^p mapping from $\mathbb{R} \times V$ into V such that $D_u F(\lambda, u) = I + T D_u G(\lambda, u)$ is a compact perturbation of the identity.

Now, we consider the nonlinear problem : Given λ in \mathbb{R} , find $u \in V$ solution of

$$(1) \quad F(\lambda, u) = 0.$$

In order to be more specific, let us show for instance that the Navier-Stokes equations for an incompressible viscous flow fit into the above framework

$$(2) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} -\frac{1}{R} \Delta \underline{u} + (\underline{u} \cdot \nabla) \underline{u} + \nabla p = \underline{f} \quad \text{in } \Omega, \\ \nabla \cdot \underline{u} = 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega, \\ \underline{u} = \underline{0} \quad \text{on } \Gamma, \end{array} \right.$$

where Ω is a bounded domain of \mathbb{R}^N ($N = 2, 3$) with boundary Γ and R stands for the Reynolds number. We set in that case :

$$V = H_0^1(\Omega)^N \times L_0^2(\Omega) \quad , \quad X = H^{-1}(\Omega)^N \quad ,$$

where

$$H_0^1(\Omega) = \{ \varphi \in L^2(\Omega) ; \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x_i} \in L^2(\Omega) \quad , \quad 1 \leq i \leq N , \varphi|_{\Gamma} = 0 \} ,$$

$$H^{-1}(\Omega) = \text{dual space of } H_0^1(\Omega) \quad ,$$

$$L_0^2(\Omega) = \{ \varphi \in L^2(\Omega) \quad , \quad \int_{\Omega} \varphi \, dx = 0 \} \quad .$$

Next, we define the linear operator T as follows : with any $\underline{g} \in H^{-1}(\Omega)^N$, we associate the solution $(\underline{v}, q) = T\underline{g} \in H_0^1(\Omega)^N \times L_0^2(\Omega)$ of the Stokes problem :

$$(3) \quad \begin{cases} -\Delta \underline{v} + \nabla q = \underline{g} & \text{in } \Omega, \\ \nabla \cdot \underline{v} = 0 & \text{in } \Omega, \\ \underline{v} = \underline{0} & \text{on } \Gamma . \end{cases}$$

Finally, G is the C^∞ mapping

$$(\lambda, \underline{u} = (\underline{u}, p)) \in \mathbb{R} \times (H_0^1(\Omega)^N \times L_0^2(\Omega)) \rightarrow G(\lambda, \underline{u}) = \lambda \{ (\underline{u} \cdot \nabla) \underline{u} - f \} \in H^{-1}(\Omega)^N .$$

Note that for $\underline{v} = (\underline{v}, q) \in V$, we have

$$D_{\underline{u}} G(\lambda, \underline{u}) = \lambda \{ (\underline{u} \cdot \nabla) \underline{v} + (\underline{v} \cdot \nabla) \underline{u} \}$$

so that $D_{\underline{u}} G(\lambda, \underline{u}) \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ where $W = L^{\frac{4}{3}}(\Omega)^N$ for instance .

Now, the pair $(\underline{u}, p) \in V$ is a solution of the Navier-Stokes equations (2) if and only if $\underline{u} = (\underline{u}, R p)$ is a solution of (1) where $\lambda = R$.

Note that many other examples of practical importance also fit into this framework such as the nonlinear diffusion equations, the Von Karman equations for a plate ...

Let us now describe a general method of approximation of Problem (1). For each value of a discretization parameter $h > 0$, we are given a finite dimensional subspace V_h of the space V and an operator $T_h \in \mathcal{L}(X; V_h)$. We define the C^p mapping $F_h : (\lambda, u) \in \mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow F_h(\lambda, u) \in V_h$ by

$$F_h(\lambda, u) = u + T_h G(\lambda, u).$$

Thus, the approximate problem consists in finding $u_h \in V_h$ solution of

$$(4) \quad F_h(\lambda, u_h) = 0.$$

If we go back to the example of the Navier-Stokes equations, we thus associate with each finite element approximation of the Stokes problem (3) a finite element method for the Navier-Stokes equations.

Now, the natural question arises to deduce the existence, uniqueness and convergence of the solutions u_h of Problem (4) from the approximation properties of the operator T_h . We then have to distinguish several cases.

In the first lecture, we shall consider the case of a branch $\{(\lambda, u(\lambda)) ; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ of nonsingular solutions of (1) where Λ is a compact interval of \mathbb{R} . This means that :

$$(5) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \lambda \rightarrow u(\lambda) \text{ is a continuous function from } \Lambda \text{ into } V ; \\ F(\lambda, u(\lambda)) = 0 \quad \forall \lambda \in \Lambda ; \\ D_u F(\lambda, u(\lambda)) \text{ is an isomorphism of } V \text{ for all } \lambda \in \Lambda. \end{array} \right.$$

Using the implicit function theorem, we find that $\lambda \rightarrow u(\lambda)$ is C^p function from Λ into V .

THEOREM. Assume that the p -th derivative $D^p G$ is bounded on all bounded subsets of $\Lambda \times V$ and $\{(\lambda, u(\lambda)) ; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ is a branch of nonsingular solution of (1). Assume in addition that

$$(6) \quad \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \| (T_h - T)f \|_V = 0 \quad \forall f \in X.$$

Then, there exists a neighborhood \mathcal{O} of the origin in V and for $h \leq h_0$ small enough, a unique C^p function $\lambda \in \Lambda \rightarrow u_h(\lambda) \in V_h$ such that for all $\lambda \in \Lambda$

$$F_h(\lambda, u_h(\lambda)) = 0, \quad u_h(\lambda) - u(\lambda) \in \mathcal{O}$$

Furthermore, we have for all integer m with $0 \leq m \leq p-1$

$$\left\| \frac{d^m}{d\lambda^m} (u_h(\lambda) - u(\lambda)) \right\|_V \leq C_m \sum_{\ell=0}^m \| (T_h - T) \frac{d^\ell}{d\lambda^\ell} G(\lambda, u(\lambda)) \|_V$$

where C_m is a constant independent of h and λ .

This result enables us to prove that in a number of finite element approximation of nonlinear problems, we obtain the same orders of convergence as in the linear case.

In the second lecture, we shall be concerned with the approximation of the solution of (1) in the neighborhood of a simple singular-point (λ_0, u_0) of F , i.e. a point $(\lambda_0, u_0) \in R \times V$ which satisfies the following properties:

$$F(\lambda_0, u_0) = 0 ;$$

$$D_u F(\lambda_0, u_0) = I + TD_u G(\lambda_0, u_0) \text{ is singular and } -1 \text{ is}$$

an eigenvalue of the compact operator $TD_u G(\lambda_0, u_0)$ with algebraic multiplicity 1.

We shall consider in particular the case of a simple bifurcation point for which the solutions of (1) consist exactly of two branches which intersect transversally at (λ_0, u_0) . We shall discuss the form of the solutions of the approximate problem in the neighborhood of (λ_0, u_0) and give practical sufficient conditions ensuring that Problem (4) does have a bifurcation point near (λ_0, u_0) .

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INTRODUCTION TO A-STABILITY THEORY FOR STIFF DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

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First Lecture.

1. The Beginnings.

"Stiff" differential equations are ordinary differential equations

$$(1.1) \quad y' = f(y(t)), \quad y(t_0) = y_0$$

which produce very bad numerical results for very many numerical methods. Such equations arise very frequently in the applications, e.g. in network analysis, chemical kinetics, control theory, initial value problems in parabolic and hyperbolic equations after finite element or finite difference discretizations in space dimensions etc. An example of such a bad behavior is presented in Fig. 1.

This phenomenon has been discovered around 1951 independently by G. Dahlquist [1], H. Rutishauser and Curtiss-Hirschfelder. In order to explain it, we analyze the effect of the method (the "explicit mid-point rule", or "leap-frog method")

$$(1.2) \quad y_{n+1} = y_{n-1} + 2h f(y_n)$$

to small perturbations of the numerical solution. Let therefore

$$(1.2') \quad z_{n+1} = z_{n-1} + 2h f(z_n)$$

be a second sequence of (perturbed) computed solutions (Fig. 2). We are interested in the development of the errors $w_n = y_n - z_n$. If we subtract (1.2) and (1.2') we obtain

$$(1.3) \quad w_{n+1} = w_{n-1} + 2h f'(y_n) \cdot w_n + \dots$$

Denoting now $hf'(y_n) = z$, this relation is approximated by

$$(1.4) \quad w_{n+1} = w_{n-1} + 2z \cdot w_n$$

Difference equations of this type are solved by putting $w_n = R^n$ which leads to

$$(1.5) \quad R^2 = 1 + 2z \cdot R$$

Our method will produce stable behavior, if both roots of this

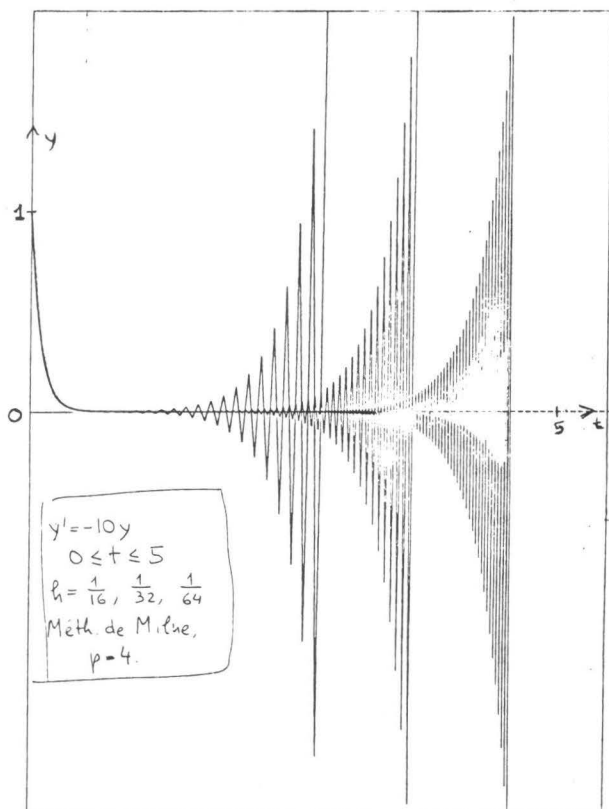


Fig. 1.

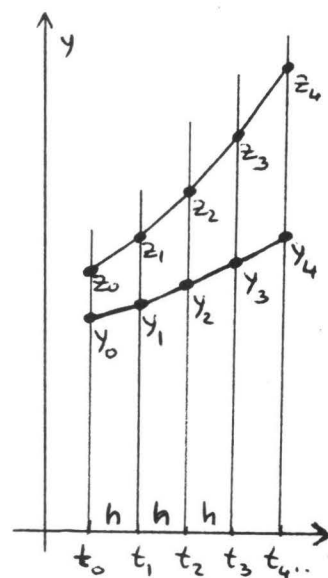


Fig. 2.

"characteristic equation" (1.5) are smaller than one in modulus.
We call the set of all admissible z -values

$$S = \{z \mid \text{all roots of the charact. equation are } < 1\}$$

the stability domain of the method (Dahlquist Nov. 1963).

As can be seen from (1.5) (the product of the two roots is -1 and their sum is $2z$), the stability domain for this method is a small interval on the imaginary axis, sketched in Fig. 3. Since for the example of Fig. 1 the values of $z=hf'(y_n)$ are $-10/16$, $-10/32$, and $-10/64$, $1y$ outside of S , we have explained the bad behavior of the method.

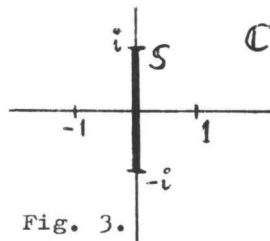


Fig. 3.

All this analysis is, of course, also valid in the case of a system of equations. In this case, y_n , $f(y_n)$, z_n , w_n represent vectors and $f'(y_n)$ in (1.3) is the Jacobian matrix of all partial derivatives. It is then transformed to diagonal form and we are led to (1.4) where $z=h\lambda$ and λ represents the eigenvalues of $f'(y_n)$.

Let us now examine a simple explicit Runge Kutta method such as

$$(1.6) \quad \begin{cases} g_n = y_n + \frac{h}{2} f(y_n) \\ y_{n+1} = y_n + h f(g_n) \end{cases}.$$

The same analysis as above gives us in this case the following:

$$(1.7) \quad w_{n+1} = R(z)w_n \quad \text{where} \quad R(z) = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2}.$$

The stability domain for this method

$$S = \{ z \mid |R(z)| \leq 1 \}$$

is plotted in Fig. 3a.

We see that this method produces stable results for the problem of Fig. 1, however only if $h < \frac{2}{10}$.

On the other hand, if we apply

method (1.6) to an oscillatory equation of the type $y'' + k^2 y = 0$, we are led to a linear system with eigenvalues $\pm ik$, so that here method (1.6) is always unstable and method (1.2) is stable for $h < 1/k$.

Let us finally look at the BDF formula of order 2 ("method of Gear")

$$(1.10) \quad y_{n+2} - \frac{4}{3} y_{n+1} + \frac{1}{3} y_n = \frac{2}{3} h f(y_{n+2}).$$

This is an implicit equation for the computation of y_{n+2} and has the characteristic equation

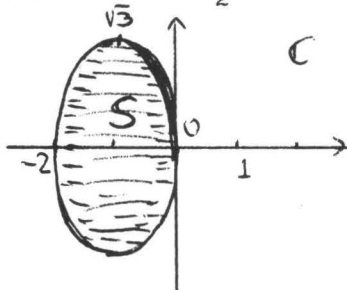


Fig. 3a.

$$(1.11) \quad \left(1 - \frac{2}{3}z\right)R^2 - \frac{4}{3}R + \frac{1}{3} = 0.$$

The modules of the two roots $R_1(z)$ and $R_2(z)$ of this equation are plotted in Fig. 4. The stability domain of this method, i.e., the set of all z for which both roots lie below sea level $|R|=1$, is shown in Fig. 5. It can be seen, that there is no more problem of stability, as long as z remains in the negative half plane. Methods, which satisfy this property are called A-stable. (Dahlquist 1963).

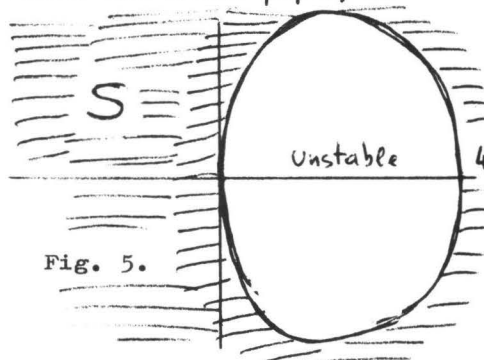


Fig. 5.

2. The Order Star Theory

We now look again to Fig. 4. We see that the two roots possess a branching point at $z=-1/2$. If this point is surrounded, the two roots are interchanged. We thus consider naturally $R(z)$ as being defined on a Riemann surface M having the same property. Further, if z approaches the point $3/2$, the leading term $(1 - \frac{2}{3}z)$ in (1.11) becomes zero, so one of the two roots tends to infinity, while the remaining root converges to the root of the remaining equation $-\frac{4}{3}R + \frac{1}{3} = 0$. So the function $R(z)$ possesses on M exactly one pole. We now consider the set

$$(2.1) \quad A = \left\{ z \in M \mid \left| \frac{R(z)}{e^z} \right| > 1 \right\} = \left\{ z \in M \mid |S(z)| > 1 \right\}$$

where $S(z) = R(z)/e^z$. This set is called order star and is shaded in Fig. 4.

A consequence of the fact that the method (1.10) is of order 2, i.e., that the local error behaves like $C.h^3$, is that $R_1(z)$ approaches the exact solution of $y'=zy$ also of order 2 for $z \rightarrow 0$:

$$(2.2) \quad e^z - R_1(z) = C z^3 + O(z^4) \quad \text{for } z \rightarrow 0.$$

Lemma 1. Whenever for $z \rightarrow 0$

$$(2.3) \quad e^z - R_1(z) = C z^{p+1} + \dots,$$

the set A is "starlike" in the neighbourhood of $z=0$ with $p+1$ fingers. A consists of regularly distributed $p+1$ sectors of angle $\pi/(p+1)$.

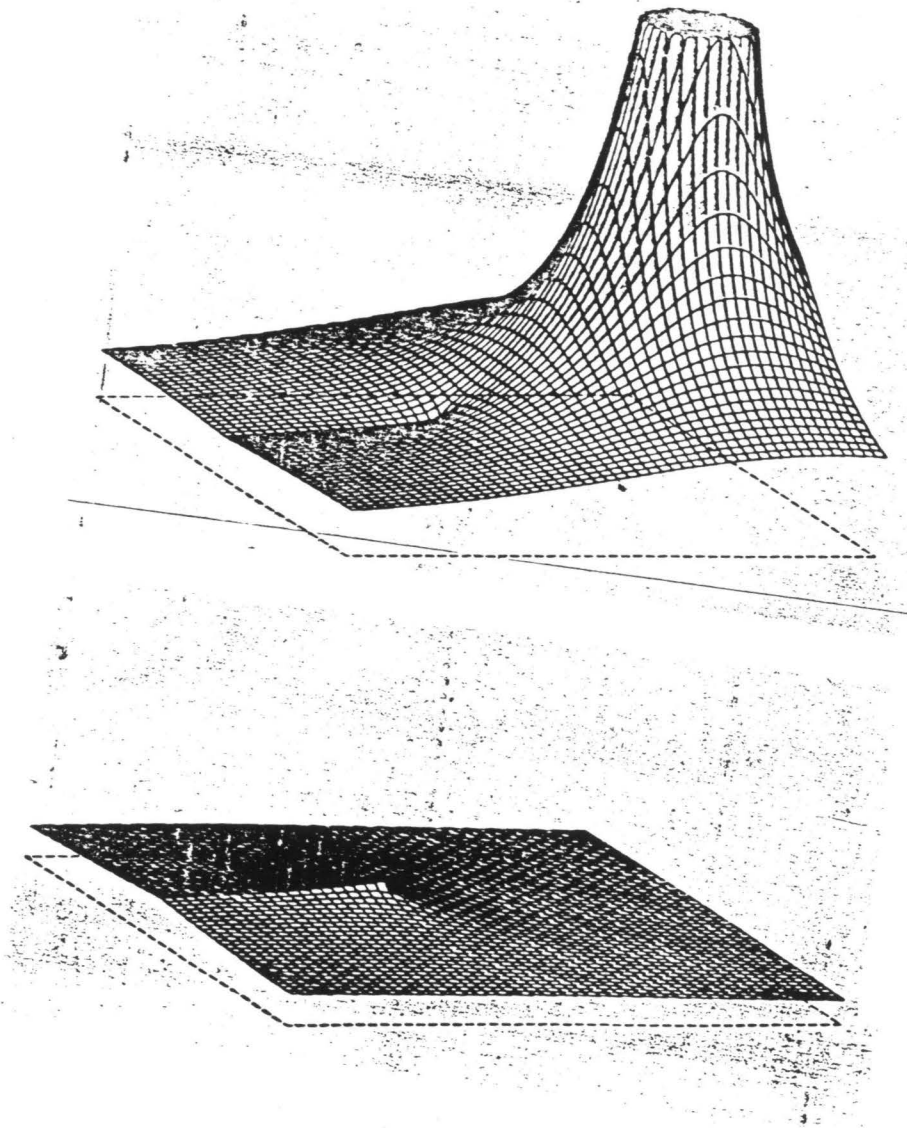


Fig. 4. Stability function and order star for second order backward difference formula.

Example: For $p=3$, the order star in the neighbourhood of the origin is sketched in Fig. 5.

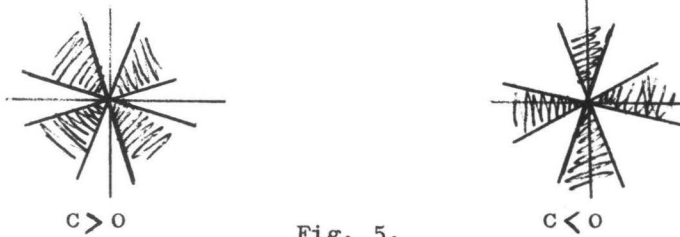


Fig. 5.

The proof of Lemma 1 is by simple complex analysis. One divides (2.3) by e^z and obtains for small z that

$$z \in A \iff \operatorname{Re}(Cz^{p+1}) < 0.$$

[Lemma 2. Let $F \subset A$ be such that $\partial F \subset \partial A$, with F bounded. Then:
 F contains m poles of $R \iff \partial F$ contains m points with $R(z)=e^z$.
 The same is true if we replace " $A \mapsto CA$ ", and "poles \mapsto zeros".

The proof of this is a consequence of the fact that, along the boundary of A , the $\arg(S)$ always turns in the negative sense. The total number of rotations is therefore equal to the points where $\arg(S)=0$, i.e., where $R(z)=e^z$.

[Lemma 3. The method is A-stable if and only if
 i) all poles of $R(z)$ are in the positive half plane, and
 ii) the order star A has no intersection with the imaginary axis.

Proof. This is a consequence of $|e^{iy}|=1$, so that on the imaginary axis the factor e^z in the definition of A can be left away, and the maximum modulus principle.

[Theorem ("the second Dahlquist barrier"). If a linear multistep method is A-stable, then its order cannot exceed 2. If $p=2$, the error constant cannot be smaller than $1/12$, which is the error constant of the trapezoidal rule.

Proof. This famous theorem of Dahlquist (1963) is simply obtained by applying Lemma 2 to the set $F = A \cap \mathbb{C}^+$. If p is greater than 2, we need two fingers in \mathbb{C}^+ , therefore the origin is twice on the boundary of F , we therefore need two poles of R , which is not possible for linear multistep methods. As to the second assertion, one has to replace in the definition of A the exponential function by $(1 + \frac{z}{2})/(1 - \frac{z}{2})$. More about this idea will be presented in the talk of R. Jeltsch.

Theorem 2. Padé Approximations to e^z with q poles and r zeros produce A -stable methods if and only if

$$q \geq r \geq q-2.$$

This theorem can be seen by looking at the order stars for these approximations, which due to the high order of approximation at the origin, must necessarily have the structure as shown in Fig. 6.

More similar results of this type are easily obtainable by similar reasoning and will be presented in the lecture or can be found in the literature.

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Introduction to B-stability Theory

Second lecture in Zeist.

For a long time, people have been unsatisfied by the A-stability analysis, due to the neglects made between equations (1.3) and (1.4) above and the hypothesis that $f'(y_n)$ remains constant for the whole problem, until a new break-through has been made by G. Dahlquist with his G-stability theory for one-leg methods [1].

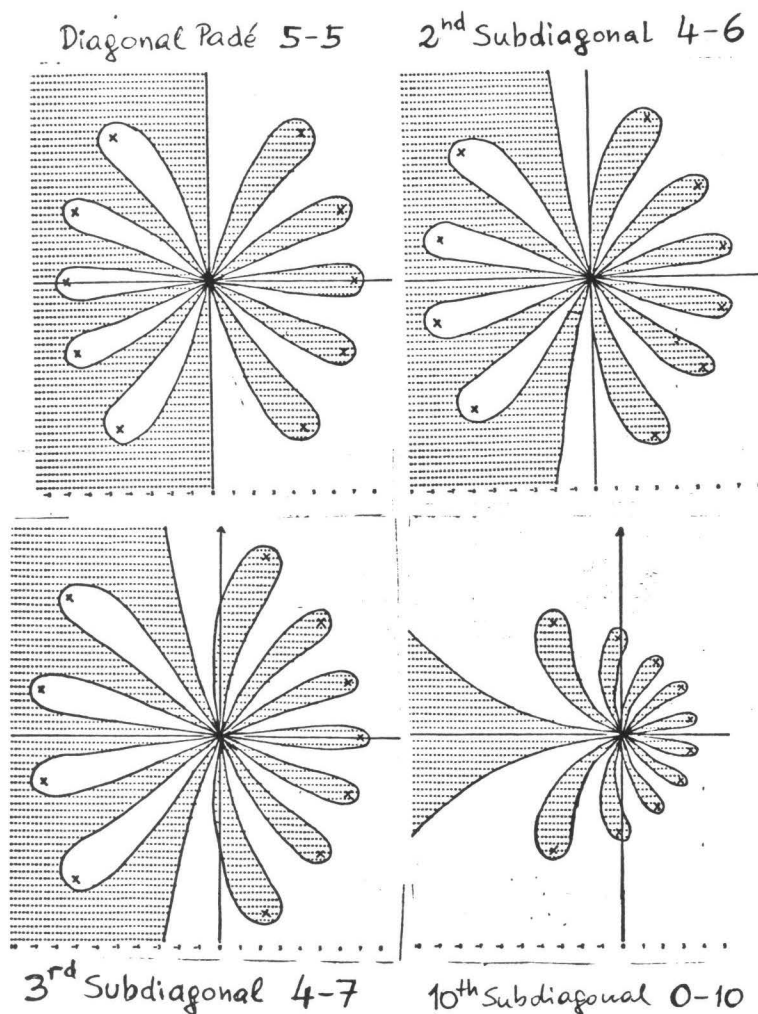


Fig. 6.

Order stars for Padé approximations of the exponential function.

For an arbitrarily nonlinear differential equation (1.1), two theoretical solutions $y(t)$ and $z(t)$ approach in the euclidean norm if and only if

$$(3.1) \quad \operatorname{Re} \langle f(y) - f(z), y - z \rangle \leq 0.$$

We call a Runge-Kutta method B-stable, if this condition also implies contractivity

$$\|y_{n+1} - z_{n+1}\| \leq \|y_n - z_n\|$$

for two different numerical solutions /2/.

A very satisfactory theory of this type of stability is possible for implicit Runge-Kutta methods /3/, and all B-stable Runge-Kutta methods can be given explicitly /4,5/.

This theory has also an surprising application to A-stability, since with its motivation all A-stable rational approximations can be obtained /6/.

A big conjecture, stating that "B-stability is equivalent to A-stability", in the sense that every A-stable algebraic approximation can be realized as a B-stable (or G-stable) method, is only partially proved (Dahlquist 1978, Hairer-Wanner /4/, /6/).

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