<u>Lecture – 16</u> **Review of Numerical Methods**

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Linear Equations: Solution Technique

$$AX = b$$
A is nonsingular, $b \neq 0$ Problem: $X = ?$

Motivation:

 $\dot{X} = AX + BU$

where
$$X = \left[\frac{X_c}{X_N}\right]$$

 X_C : controlled state X_N : uncontrolled state $\dim(X_C) = \dim(U) = m$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{X}_{C} \\ \dot{X}_{N} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1} \\ A_{2} \end{bmatrix} X + \begin{bmatrix} B_{1} \\ B_{2} \end{bmatrix} U$$



$$\dot{X}_{c} = A_{1}X + B_{1}U$$

Which gives

 $U = -B_1^{-1}(A_1X)$

Note: B_1 is square

This will be the controller necessary to maintain X_c at steady state

Solution Technique: Direct Inversion of **A** $X = A^{-1}b$

- Computation of A^{-1} Involves too many computations, roughly $n^2 \times n!$ number of operations (very inefficient for large *n*).
- This approach also suffers from the problem of sensitivity (ill-conditioning), when $|A| \rightarrow 0$
- Round off errors may lead to large inaccuracies

Solution Technique: Gauss Elimination

- Do row operations to reduce the A matrix to a upper 0 triangular form
- Solve the variable from down to top 0

Example:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ X_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

solution steps.

Step-I: Multiply row-1 with -1/2 and add to the row-2. row-3 keep unchanged, since $a_{31}=0$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3/2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution Technique: Gauss Elimination

Step-II: Multiply row-2 with -2/3 and add to row-3

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3/2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Upper Triangle Matrix

Final Solution
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Gauss Elimination

- The total number of operations needed is $(2/3)n^3$ which is far lesser than computing $A^{-1} = \frac{adj(A)}{|A|}$ (which requires $n^2 \times n!$ operations)
- The Gauss elimination method will encounter potential problems when the pivot elements i.e.. diagonal elements become zero, or very close to zero at any stage of elimination.
- In such cases the order of equations can be changed by exchanging rows and the procedure can be continued

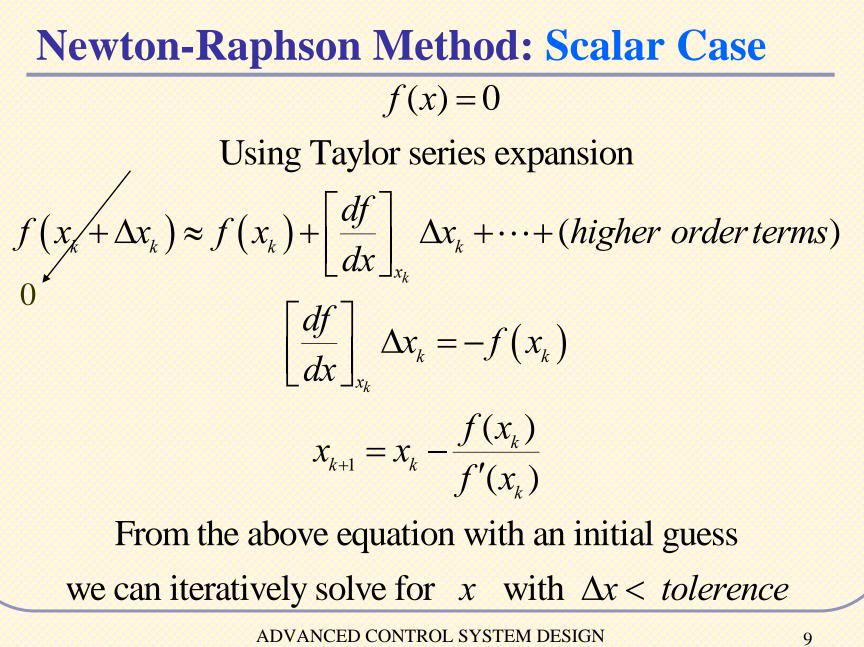
Nonlinear Algebraic Equations

Problem:
$$F(X) = 0$$
 $X = ?$

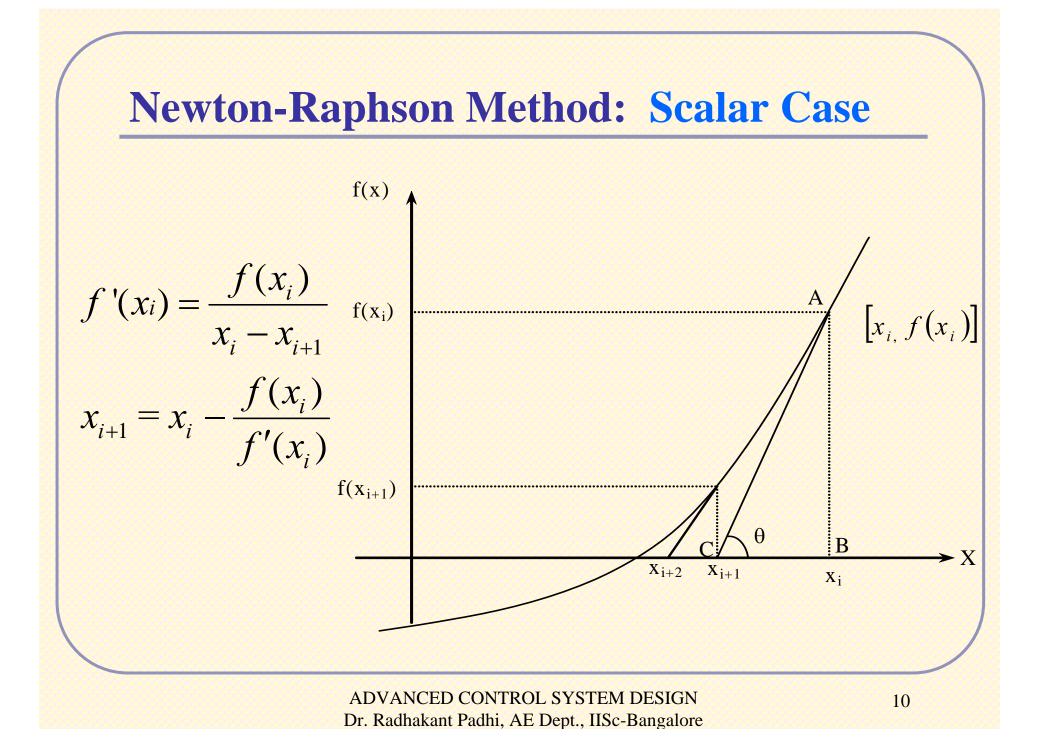
Motivation: Finding the forced equilibrium condition for a nonlinear system to get an appropriate operating point for linearization

$$\dot{X} = f(X,U)$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{X}_{C} \\ X_{N} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_{C}(X,U) \\ f_{N}(X,U) \end{bmatrix} \dim(X_{C}) = \dim(f_{C}) = \dim(U)$$
$$\dot{X}_{C} = f_{C}(X_{0},U_{0})$$

Solve for U_0 from $f_c(U) = 0$



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$$F(X) = 0$$

$$F(X_{k} + \Delta X_{k}) \approx F(X_{k}) + \left[\frac{\partial F}{\partial X}\right]_{k} \Delta X_{k}$$

$$A_{k} \Delta X_{k} = -F(X_{k})$$
Solve for $\Delta X_{k} = -A_{k}^{-1}F(X_{k})$

$$Update \qquad X_{k+1} = X_{k} + \Delta X_{k}$$

Newton-Raphson Method: Algorithm

- Start with guess value x_1
- Solve for Δx_k
- Update $x_{k+1} = x_k + \Delta x_k$ (k = 1, 2, ...)
- Continue until convergence

Convergence Condition

1. Relative Error

$$\in_{a_k} \triangleq \left| \left(x_{k_{i+1}} - x_{k_i} \right) / x_{k_{i+1}} \right| < \text{tol}, \quad \forall k$$

2. Absolute Error

$$\left\|f\left(x_{k}\right)\right\| < \operatorname{tol}$$

Example: N-R Method

Question: Find a root of the following equation $f(x) = x^3 - 0.165x^2 + 3.993x10^{-4} = 0$ **Solution :** $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 0.33x$. Let $x_0 = 0.02$. Then $x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)} = 0.02 - \frac{3.413 \times 10^{-4}}{-5.4 \times 10^{-3}} = 0.08320$ $x_2 = x_1 - \frac{f(x_1)}{f'(x_1)} = 0.08320 - \frac{-1.670 \times 10^{-4}}{-6.689 \times 10^{-3}} = 0.05824$ $x_3 = x_2 - \frac{f(x_2)}{f'(x_2)} = 0.05284 - \frac{3.717 \times 10^{-5}}{-9.043 \times 10^{-3}} = 0.06235$

Newton-Raphson Method: Advantages

 If it converges, it converges fast! It has "<u>Quadratic convergence</u>" property, i.e.

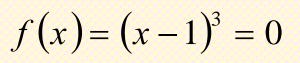
$$e_{k+1} = c e_k^2$$
, where $e_k \triangleq (x^* - x_k)$
c is a constant

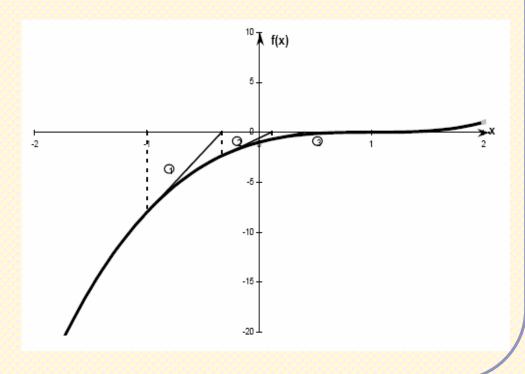
 x^* is the actual root

• Problem: It requires good initial guess in general to converge to the right solution.

Non-convergence at Inflection points

For a function f(x) the points where the concavity changes from up-to-down or downto-up are called *inflection points*.



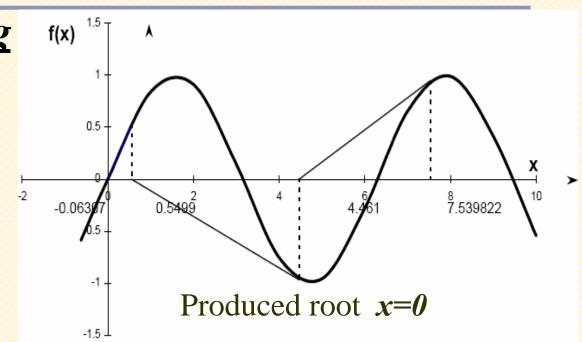


<u>Root Jumping</u>

Cases where *f* (*x*) is oscillating and has a number of roots

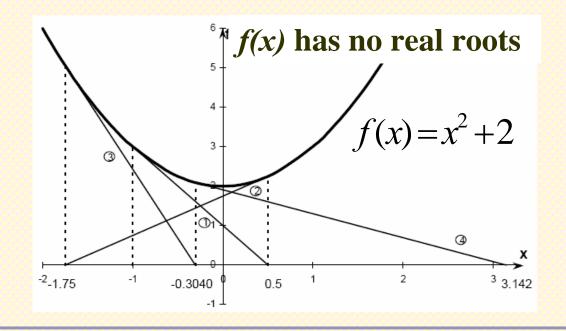
Initial Guess near to one root may produce another root

Example: $f(x) = \sin(x) = 0$



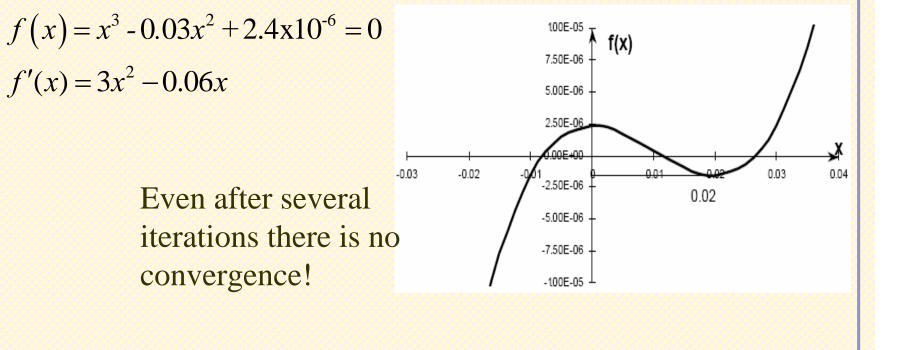
Oscillations around local minima or maxima

Results may oscillate about the local maximum or minimum without converging on a root but converging on the local maximum or minimum. Eventually, it may lead to division to a number close to zero and may diverge.



Division by zero

If $f'(x_i) \approx 0$ at some $x_{i, x_{i+1}}$ becomes very large value



N-R Method Drawbacks

•f'(x*) is unbounded

If the derivative of f(x) is unbounded at the root then Newton-Raphson method will not converge.

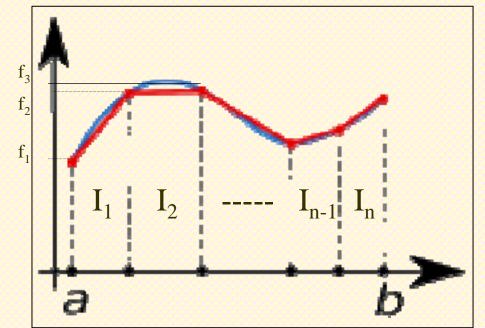
Exercise: Verify for $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$

Numerical Differentiation $\left(\frac{df}{dx}\right)$

Technique Name	Definition	Numerical Approximation	Error
Forward difference	$\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \left[\frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} \right]$	$\frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0)}{\Delta x}$	$O(\Delta x)$
Backward difference	$\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \left[\frac{f(x) - f(x - \Delta x)}{\Delta x} \right]$	$\frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - \Delta x)}{\Delta x}$	$O(\Delta x)$
Central difference	$\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \left[\frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x} \right]$	$\frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0 - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$	$O(\Delta x^2)$

Numerical Integration

Trapezoidal Rule:



Note: Numerical Differentiation is "Error Amplifying". where as Numerical Integration is "Error Smoothing".

Numerical Integration

Trapezoidal Rule: 0 $I \approx I_1 + I_2 + \dots + I_{n-1} + I_n$ $=\frac{1}{2}\Delta x(f_{0}+f_{1})+\frac{1}{2}\Delta x(f_{1}+f_{2})+\cdots$ $+\frac{1}{2}\Delta x (f_{n-2} + f_{n-1}) + \frac{1}{2}\Delta x (f_{n-1} + f_n)$ $=\frac{\Delta x}{2} \left[f_0 + 2f_1 + 2f_2 + \dots + 2f_{n-1} + f_n \right]$ $\mathbf{I} \approx \left(\frac{f_0}{2} + f_1 + \dots + f_{n-1} + \frac{f_n}{2}\right) \Delta x$

Ordinary Differential Equation (ODE)

- f (x, dx(t)/dt, d²x(t)/dt², ... dⁿx(t)/dtⁿ) = 0
 Ordinary: only one independent variable
 Differential Equation: unknown functions enter into the equation through its derivatives
- Order: highest derivative in f
- **Degree**: exponent of the highest derivative

$$Example: \left(\frac{d^{3}x(t)}{dt^{3}}\right)^{4} - x(t) = 0$$

degree = 4; order = 3

What Is Solution of ODE ??

• A problem involving ODE is not completely specified by its equation

ODE has to be supplemented with **boundary conditions.**

• Initial value problem: x is given at some starting value t_i , and it is desired to find at some final points t_f or at some discrete list of points.

• Two point boundary value problem: Boundary conditions are specified at more than one t; typically some of the conditions will be specified at t_i and some at t_f .

Numerical Solution to Initial Value Problem

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = f(t, x(t)); \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

• A numerical solution to this problem generates sequence of values for the independent variable $t_1, t_2, ..., t_n$ and a corresponding sequence of values of the dependent variable $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ so that each x_n approximates solution at t_n

$$x_n \approx x(t_n) \quad n=0,1,2...n.$$

Basic Concepts of Numerical Methods to Solve ODEs

$$\frac{x_{n+1} - x_n}{\Delta t} \approx \text{ slope of tangent}$$

We can calculate the **tangent slope** at any point. In fact the differential equation

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = f(t, x(t)) \text{ defines the}$$

tangent slope = $f(t, x(t))$

Euler's Method
• Solve
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(t, x)$$
 with $x(0) = b$
• At start of time step
 $\frac{x_{n+1} - x_n}{\Delta t} \approx f(t_n, x_n)$ Forward difference
Rearranging
 $x_{n+1} = x_n + \Delta t f_n$
Start with initial conditions $t_0 = 0$; $x_0 = b$



• Euler integration has error of the order of $(\Delta t)^2$

• Small step size Δt may be needed for good accuracy. This is in conflict with the computational load advantage.

• Lesser computational load

Runge-Kutta Fourth Order Method

$$x_{i+1} = x_i + \frac{\Delta t}{6} \left(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4 \right)$$

where

$$k_{1} = J\left(t_{i}, x_{i}\right)$$

$$k_{1} = f\left(t_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t_{i} + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t_{i}\right)$$

 $c(\cdot)$

$$k_2 = f\left(t_i + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t, x_i + \frac{1}{2}k_1\Delta t\right)$$

$$k_3 = f\left(t_i + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t, x_i + \frac{1}{2}k_2\Delta t\right)$$

In each step the derivative is calculated at four points, once at the initial point, twice at trial mid points and once at trial end point

$$k_4 = f\left(t_i + \Delta t, x_i + k_3 \Delta t\right)$$



• Error $\theta(\{\Delta t\}^5)$

 The method uses a 4th order power series approximation to come up with this algorithm. Hence, the algorithm is called RK-4 method

