

# Numerical Fractional Calculus Using Methods Based on Non-Uniform Step Sizes

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# Cooperation partners

- Neville J. Ford (University of Chester, UK)
- Alan D. Freed (Saginaw Valley State University)

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- 1 Basic Problem
- 2 Algorithmic Solution Strategies
- 3 Parallelization

# Mathematical Fundamentals

**Problem:** Find a numerical solution to the fractional order IVP

$$\begin{aligned} D_{*0}^{\alpha} y(t) &= f(t, y(t)) \\ y^{(k)}(0) &= y_0^{(k)} \quad (k = 0, 1, \dots, [\alpha] - 1) \end{aligned}$$

for

$$t \in [0, T]$$

where

$D_{*0}^{\alpha}$  = Caputo differential operator of order  $\alpha$ .

In this talk:  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$

(generalization to  $\alpha > 1$  usually no problem)

# Classical Approach

- Use uniform mesh

$$t_j = j \cdot h$$

where

$$h = \frac{T}{N}$$

with some suitably chosen parameter  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

- discretize the fractional operators,
- solve the resulting discrete problem

(Oldham & Spanier 1974, Lubich 1983ff., ...)

# Disadvantage

- Fractional differential operators are not local:

$$D_{*0}^{\alpha}y(t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(n-\alpha)} \int_0^t (t-s)^{n-\alpha-1} D^n y(s) ds$$

where  $n = \lceil \alpha \rceil$

- Treatment of process history increases computational complexity
- Standard solution approach has  $O(N^2)$  operation count
- Integer-order equations: operation count is only  $O(N)$

# Example: Adams-Bashforth-Moulton Method

Method of  $P(EC)^mE$  type (Di., Ford & Freed 1999ff.),  $m = \lceil 1/\alpha \rceil$

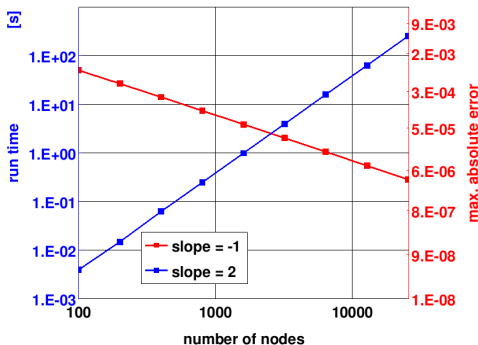
Case 1: Smooth solution

$$D_{*0}^{0.4} y(t) = -y(t) + t^2 - t + \frac{2t^{1.6}}{\Gamma(2.6)} - \frac{t^{0.6}}{\Gamma(1.6)}$$

$$y(0) = 0$$

exact solution:

$$y(t) = t^2 - t$$



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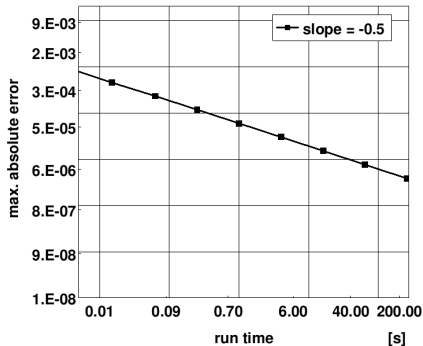
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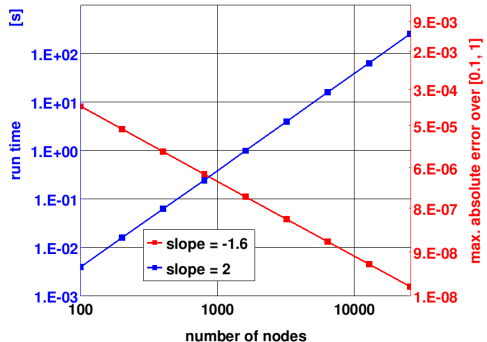
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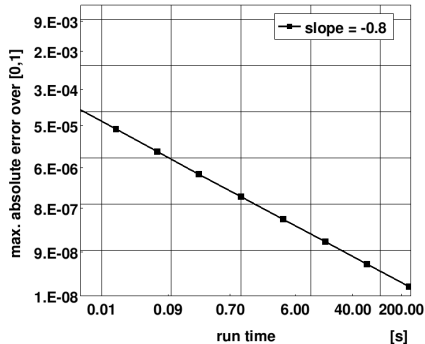
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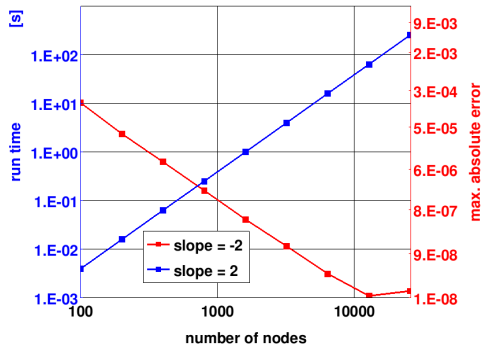
Case 2: Equation with smooth fractional derivative of solution

$$D_{*0}^{0.4} y(t) = -(y(t))^{3/2} + \frac{40320}{\Gamma(8.6)} t^{7.6} - 3 \frac{\Gamma(5.2)}{\Gamma(4.8)} t^{3.8} + \frac{9}{4} \Gamma(1.4) + \left( \frac{3}{2} t^{0.2} - t^4 \right)^3$$

$$y(0) = 0$$

exact solution:

$$y(t) = t^8 - 3t^{4.2} + \frac{9}{4} t^{0.4}$$



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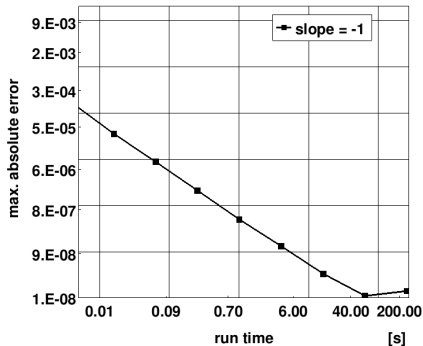
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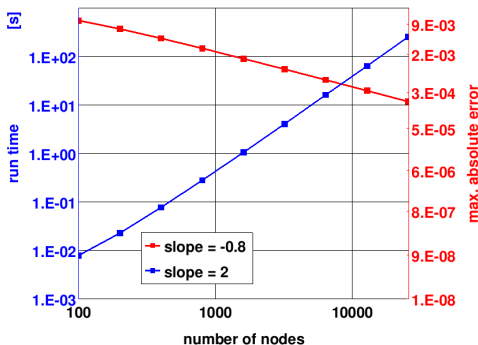
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Case 3: Smooth right-hand side (nonsmooth solution)

$$\begin{aligned} D_{*0}^{0.4} y(t) &= -2y(t) \\ y(0) &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

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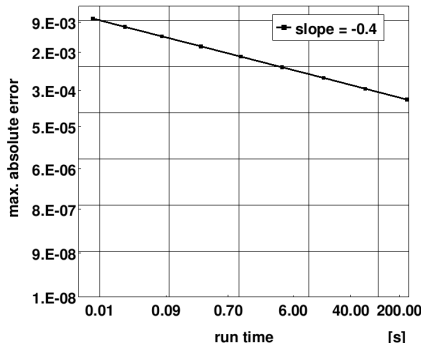
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# High Order Methods

(Lubich 1983 ff.)

Basic idea:

Construct algorithm such that

$$\text{Error} = O(N^{-p}), \quad p \text{ large}$$

⇒ High accuracy can be obtained with small  $N$

⇒  $O(N^2)$  computational cost becomes acceptable

Main tool: Set of *starting weights* added to numerical method.



# High Order Methods

Important observation (Di., Ford, Ford, Weilbeer 2006):

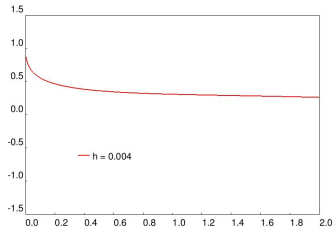
- 1 **Starting weights** are given as solutions to linear system of equations
- 2 Coefficient matrix is of generalized Vandermonde form
- 3 Depending on  $\alpha$ , system may be mildly ( $\alpha = 0.5$ ) or very strongly ( $\alpha = 0.4999$ ) ill conditioned
- 4 Effective computation of starting weights is potentially subject to high inaccuracies
- 5 Numerical results are very good in theory but possibly very poor in practice

# High Order Methods

Example: Fractional form of BDF5

$$D_{*0}^{\alpha} y(t) = -2y(t) + 0.2 \sin t, \quad y(0) = 1$$

$$\alpha = 1/2$$

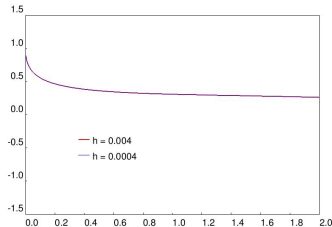


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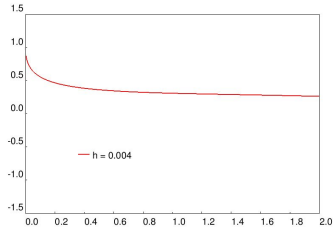
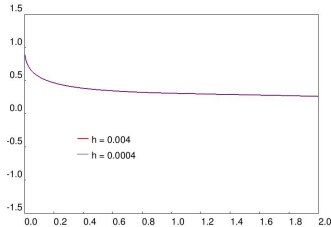
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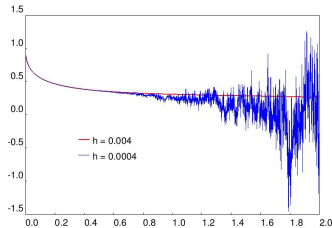
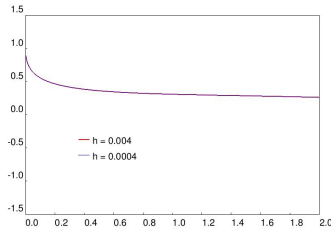
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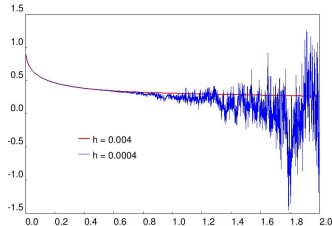
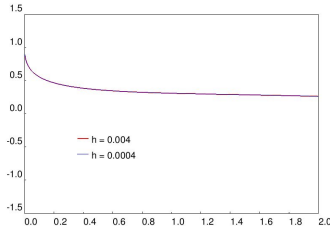
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**Conclusion:** Methods works for some, but not all,  $\alpha$

# Fixed Memory

(Podlubny 1999)

Rewrite given IVP in Volterra form,

$$y(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{[\alpha]-1} y^{(k)}(0) \frac{t^k}{k!} + \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^t (t-s)^{\alpha-1} f(s, y(s)) ds,$$

introduce parameter  $\tau > 0$  (fixed memory length),

replace Volterra equation for  $t > \tau$  by

$$y(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{[\alpha]-1} y^{(k)}(0) \frac{t^k}{k!} + \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_{t-\tau}^t (t-s)^{\alpha-1} f(s, y(s)) ds.$$

# Fixed Memory

Solve modified equation (with fixed memory) via numerical scheme with  $O(N^{-p})$  error bound:

- Computational complexity is reduced to  $O(N)$  for sufficiently small  $\tau$  (Podlubny 1999)
- Solution of original equation can be approximated with  $O(N^{-p})$  accuracy **only if**  $\tau \approx T$  (Ford & Simpson 2001)

Approach can only yield **either** low computational cost **or** satisfactory accuracy, but not both.



# Graded Meshes

(Brunner 1985; Pedas, Tamme, Vainikko, ...)

Basic idea:

Improve ratio  $\frac{\text{error}}{\text{run time}}$

- by reducing the error
- without changing the run time and
- without changing the underlying approximation operator
- thus avoiding problems introduced via high order operators

# Graded Meshes

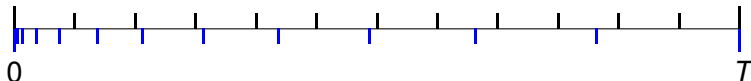
Fundamental approach:

- Reason for low convergence order:  
Poor smoothness properties of solution near the origin
- Remedy: Adapt structure of mesh to behaviour of solution
- Precise form:

Graded mesh 
$$t_j = \left(\frac{j}{N}\right)^{(m/\alpha)} T, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, N$$

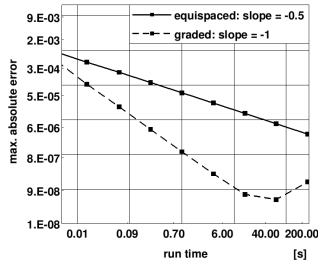
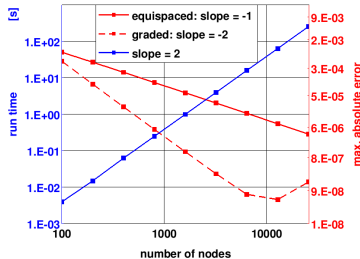
- Finer node spacing where required

Example: uniform mesh, **graded mesh** ( $m = 2, \alpha = 0.8$ )



# Graded Meshes

Example: Smooth solution (case 1 above)

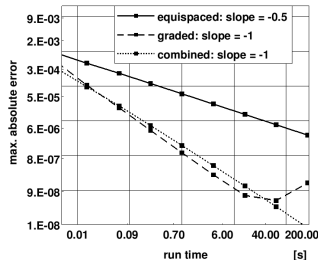
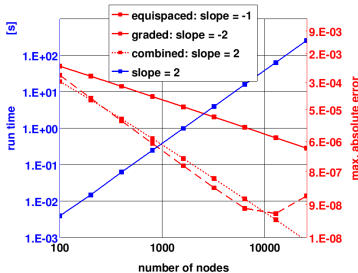


- Expected improvements achieved if  $N$  is not too large
- Performance deteriorates as  $N$  is increased further
- Same behaviour for other examples
- Reason: Computation of quadrature weights becomes numerically unstable (significant cancellation of digits)

# Graded Meshes

Possible improvement:

- Subdivide interval as  $[0, T] = [0, \tilde{T}] \cup [\tilde{T}, T]$
  - Use graded mesh as above with  $cN$  subintervals on  $[0, \tilde{T}]$ , where  $c \ll 1$
  - Use uniform mesh with  $(1 - c)N$  subintervals on  $[\tilde{T}, T]$
- ⇒ Problem occurs only for much larger values of  $N$



# Automatic Stepsize Control

General idea:

- Mesh not defined a priori
  - Start with certain step size
  - Find approximation and estimate its error
  - If error estimate too large then reject step and retry with smaller step size
  - If error estimate very small then increase step size (reduction of computational cost)
  - Otherwise continue working with present step size
- ⇒ Fine mesh used only where required by properties of solution

Open question:

- Reliable and computationally cheap estimation of error?

# A General Observation

- **Two types of meshes** exist in numerical scheme:
  - Find approximate solution on **primary mesh**  $\{t_0, t_1, \dots, t_N\}$
  - For each  $j$ , discretize the integral

$$\int_0^{t_j} (t_j - s)^{\alpha-1} f(s, y(s)) ds$$

in Volterra form of IVP on **secondary mesh**  $\{\tau_{j,\mu} : 0 \leq \mu \leq N_j\}$

- Overall complexity =  $\sum_{j=1}^N N_j$
- Traditional methods require that both meshes coincide:

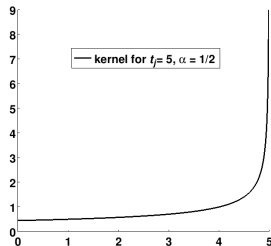
$$N_j = j \text{ and } \tau_{j,\mu} = t_\mu \quad (\mu = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N_j)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{complexity} = \sum_{j=1}^N j \approx \frac{1}{2} N^2$$

- Potential improvement: use  $\{\tau_{j,\mu}\}$  with much smaller  $N_j$  without increasing order of associated error

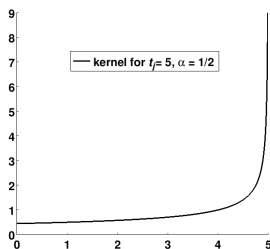
# Logarithmic Memory I

Kernel of integral operator at grid point  $t_j$  is  $(t_j - s)^{\alpha-1}$



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near  $t_j$ :

kernel is large



precise approximation  
of integrand  
necessary



fine secondary mesh  
in this region



# Logarithmic Memory I

Kernel of integral operator at grid point  $t_j$  is  $(t_j - s)^{\alpha-1}$

away from  $t_j$ :

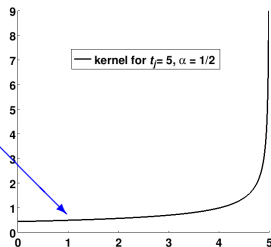
kernel is small



less accurate but  
cheap approximation  
of integrand suffices



coarse secondary  
mesh in this region



near  $t_j$ :

kernel is large



precise approximation  
of integrand  
necessary



fine secondary mesh  
in this region

# Logarithmic Memory I

Given step size  $h$  of primary mesh,

- select “characteristic time”  $M > 0$  (should be  $M = kh$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ) and  $w \in \{2, 3, 4, \dots\}$  (scaling parameter)
- for each primary mesh point  $t_j$ 
  - find smallest integer  $m$  such that  $t_j < w^{m+1}M$
  - decompose
$$[0, t_j] = [0, t_j - w^m M] \cup [t_j - w^m M, t_j - w^{m-1} M] \\ \cup \dots \cup [t_j - w^1 M, t_j - w^0 M] \cup [t_j - M, t_j]$$
  - define secondary mesh on each subinterval, starting from right:  
step size  $h$  on **first** and second subintervals,  
step size  $wh$  on third subinterval,  
step size  $w^2 h$  on fourth subinterval,  $\dots$ ,  
step size  $w^{m-1} h$  on penultimate subinterval,  
suitable combination of above step sizes on **last** subinterval

(Ford & Simpson 2001)

# Logarithmic Memory I

Consequence:  $N_j = O(\ln j)$

Example:  $t_j = 21$ ,  $h = 1/10$ ,  $w = 2$  and  $M = 1$



- Total number of nodes for uniform mesh: 211

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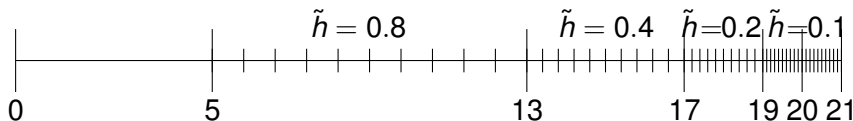


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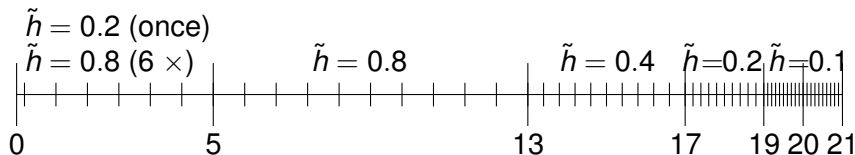
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- Total number of nodes for uniform mesh: 211
- Total number of nodes for logarithmic mesh: 58

# Logarithmic Memory I

Overall error bound:

- Traditional approach (full secondary mesh):

$$ch^p \text{ with some } p > 0,$$

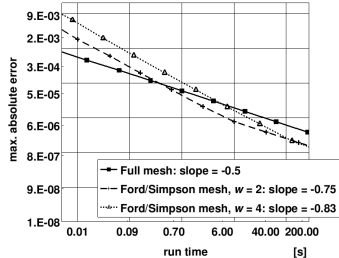
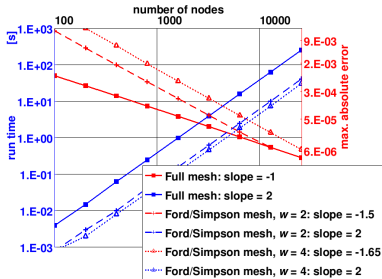
- Ford-Simpson logarithmic secondary mesh:

$$c \left( \frac{T}{Mw} h \right)^p = c' h^p \text{ with same } p$$

⇒ unchanged order of magnitude of error  
but significantly reduced computational cost

# Logarithmic Memory I

Example: Smooth solution (case 1 above)



Similar results for other examples

## Logarithmic Memory II

Modification of Ford/Simpson idea (Di. & Freed 2006):

Given step size  $h$  of primary mesh,

- select “characteristic time”  $M = kh$  with fixed  $k \in \{4, 5, \dots\}$  and  $w \in \{2, 3, 4, \dots\}$  (scaling parameter)
- for each primary mesh point  $t_j$ 
  - find smallest integer  $m$  such that  $t_j < w^{m+1}M$
  - decompose
$$[0, t_j] \subset [t_j - w^{m+1}M, t_j - w^mM] \cup [t_j - w^mM, t_j - w^{m-1}M] \\ \cup \dots \cup [t_j - w^2M, t_j - wM] \cup [t_j - wM, t_j]$$
and set integrand  $:= 0$  to the left of 0
  - define secondary mesh on each subinterval, starting from right:
    - step size  $h$  on first subinterval,
    - step size  $wh$  on second subinterval,  $\dots$ ,
    - step size  $w^{m-1}h$  on penultimate subinterval,
    - step size  $w^mh$  on **modified last subinterval**

# Logarithmic Memory II

Properties:

- $N_j = O(\ln j)$
- Very efficient memory management possible
- Closely related to panel clustering (McLean 2012)

# Shishkin Meshes

Equations with singular perturbations

Example:

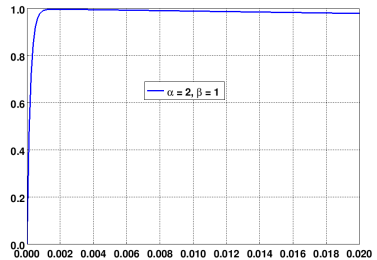
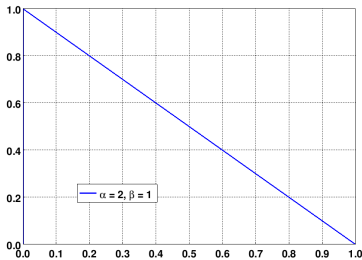
$$\begin{aligned} -\epsilon D_{*0}^{\alpha} y(t) - b(t) D_{*0}^{\beta} y(t) + c(t) y(t) &= f(t) \\ y(0) = y(1) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$(0 < \beta \leq 1 < \alpha \leq 2; \quad \inf_{0 \leq t \leq 1} b(t) > 0, \quad c(t) \geq 0)$$

⇒ Solution exhibits boundary layer

# Shishkin Meshes

Classical case ( $\beta = 1$ ,  $\alpha = 2$ ):



# Shishkin Meshes

Classical case ( $\beta = 1$ ,  $\alpha = 2$ ):

Use Shishkin mesh with  $N$  subintervals ( $\epsilon \ll N^{-1}$ ), i.e.

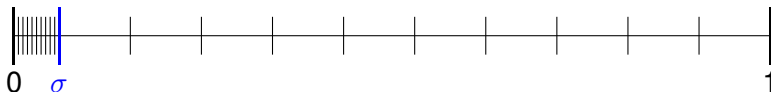
- introduce transition parameter  $\sigma \in (0, 1)$   
(depending on  $N$  and  $\epsilon$ ; typically  $\sigma = 2(\inf_t b(t))^{-1} \epsilon \ln N$ )
- use  $N/2$  equally large subintervals on  $(0, \sigma)$ ,
- use  $N/2$  equally large subintervals on  $(\sigma, 1)$ ,
- apply (upwind) finite difference formula with this mesh.

(Roos, Stynes & Tobiska 2008; Linß 2010)



# Shishkin Meshes

Example:  $\epsilon = 10^{-2}$ ,  $N = 20$ ,  $b(t) \equiv 1 \Rightarrow \sigma = 0.06$



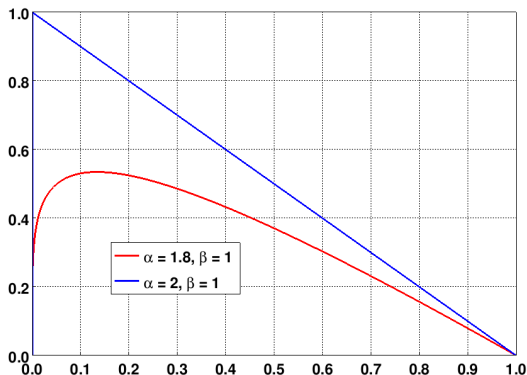
$\Rightarrow$  Fine (computationally expensive) mesh is used only where necessary.

# Shishkin Meshes

Example: Initial value problem

$$-10^{-4} D_{*0}^{1.8} y(t) - D_{*0}^1 y(t) = -1, \quad y(0) = 0, y'(0) = 9199.08$$

Solution with uniform mesh:

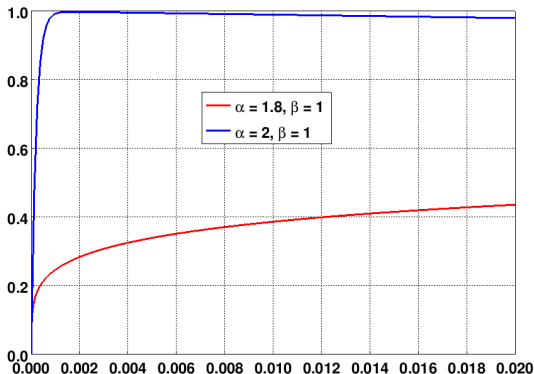


# Shishkin Meshes

Example: Initial value problem

$$-10^{-4} D_{*0}^{1.8} y(t) - D_{*0}^1 y(t) = -1, \quad y(0) = 0, y'(0) = 9199.08$$

Solution with uniform mesh:

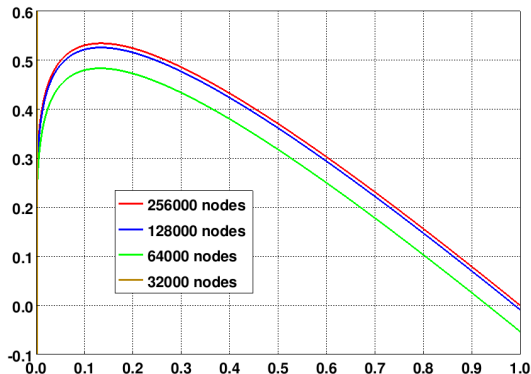


# Shishkin Meshes

Example: Initial value problem

$$-10^{-4} D_{*0}^{1.8} y(t) - D_{*0}^1 y(t) = -1, \quad y(0) = 0, y'(0) = 9199.08$$

Solution with uniform mesh:



# Shishkin Meshes

Open questions in fractional case ( $\alpha < 2$  or  $\beta < 1$ ):

- Width of boundary layer
- Influence of changes of sign of coefficients  
(broken symmetry properties)
- Influence of memory on boundary layer  
(dependence of boundary layer on  $\alpha, \beta$ )
- Suitable choices for mesh  
(in particular: value of mesh transition parameter)

# Table of Contents

- 1 Basic Problem
- 2 Algorithmic Solution Strategies
- 3 Parallelization

## Shared Memory Approach (OpenMP)

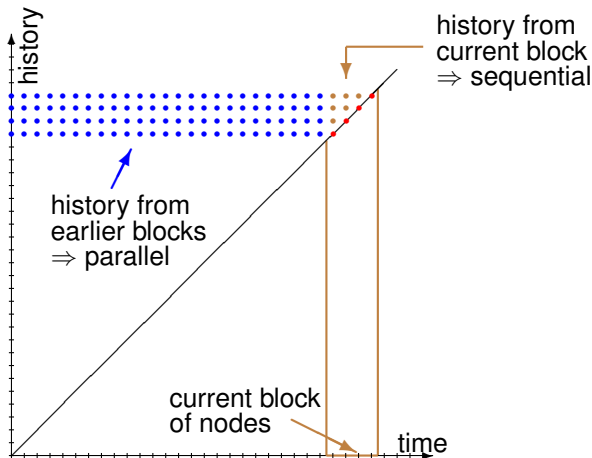
Basic idea for hardware platform with  $P$  cores:

- Divide set of nodes into blocks of  $P$  successive nodes each
- Handle blocks in parallel (one core per node of block):
  - Each node of block needs to take history into account (all previous nodes)
  - Split up history into **nodes from earlier blocks** and **earlier nodes of current block**
  - Compute **first part of history in parallel** for all nodes of current block  
(no interaction required; ideal scalability; main part of work except for the first few blocks)
  - Compute **remainder of history sequentially**  
(each node needs to wait for results of predecessors; small part of work only)

(Di. 2011)

# Shared Memory Approach (OpenMP)

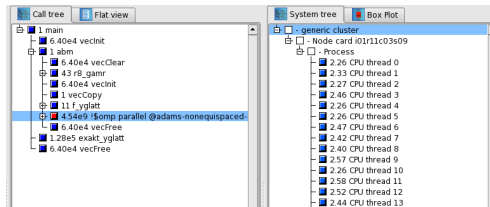
Graphical representation of strategy:





# Shared Memory Approach (OpenMP)

Performance analysis using Score-P measurement system  
([www.score-p.org](http://www.score-p.org))

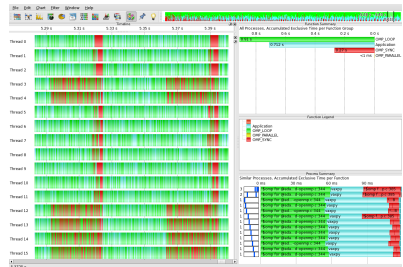
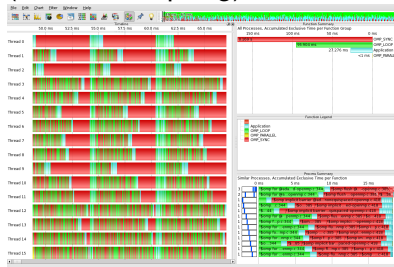


Profiling shows

- very good load balancing,
- very small sequential part

# Shared Memory Approach (OpenMP)

Performance analysis using Score-P measurement system  
([www.score-p.org](http://www.score-p.org))

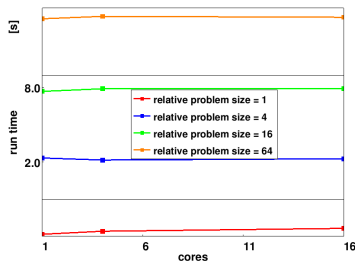
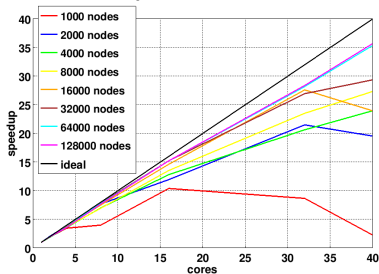


Tracing shows

- rather poor efficiency (much waiting time) only in very early part of simulation (left)
- very high efficiency (almost no waiting time) in later parts of simulation (right)

# Shared Memory Approach (OpenMP)

Observed performance:



- Very good strong (left) and weak (right) scaling
- Can be used for full memory or logarithmic memory
- Can be used for uniform or non-uniform primary meshes
- Same behaviour for corresponding approach on distributed memory systems (using MPI)



**Thank you for your attention!**

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