

**Mathematics III**  
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**Lecture - 3**  
**Approximate Solution of an Initial Value Problem**

Dear viewers, the title of my lecture is Approximate Solution of an Initial Value Problem. So far the differential equations considered by us had a general solution, in the case of an initial value problem, we obtained a unique solution by using the initial condition by at  $x$  naught equal to  $y$  naught in the general solution.

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**EXISTENCE AND UNIQUENESS OF SOLUTIONS**

An initial value problem ( IVP ) of the form  
$$y' = f(x, y), y(x_0) = y_0 \quad (1)$$
may have none, precisely one or more than one solution. For example, the IVP  
$$|y'| + |y| = 0, y(0) = 1$$
has no solution because  $y = 0$  is the only solution of this differential equation.

This is just one of the three possibilities that might occur in the general case, in the general case an initial value problem  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$  where  $y(x_0) = y_0$ , may have no solution, precisely one solution or more than one solution. For example, let us consider the initial value problem  $|y'| + |y| = 0$ , where  $y(0)$  is given to be equal to 1.

Now, this differential equation  $|y'| + |y| = 0$  has only one solution that is  $y = 0$ , because the left hand side of this differential equation with the sum of two non negative real valued functions. So, their sum is 0 means  $y$  is equal to 0 for all  $x$ , but this does not satisfy the initial condition, because the initial condition is  $y(0) = 1$ , so this initial value problem does not have any solution.

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The IVP  $y' = x, y(0) = 1$   
has precisely one solution e.g.  
$$y = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 1$$
  
while the IVP  $xy' = y-1, y(0) = 1$   
has infinitely many solutions e.g.  
 $y = 1 + c x$  where  $c$  is an arbitrary constant.  
Thus, there arise the following two  
fundamental questions.

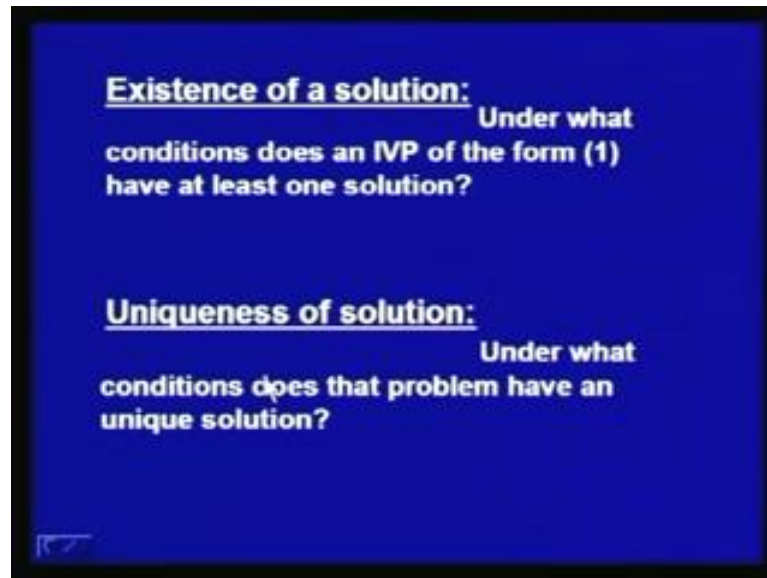
Next, let us consider the initial value problem  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x$ , where we are given that  $y$  at  $x$  equal to 0 is 1. Now, this differential equation  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x$ , we can solve by using the method of separation of variables, we may write it as  $dy = x dx$ , then integrate both sides we will have  $y$  equal to half of  $x$  square plus  $c$ , using the initial condition  $y$  at  $x$  equal to 0 is equal to 1. We get the value of the constant  $c$  as 1 and so this initial value problem has only one solution, which is  $y$  equal to half of  $x$  square plus 1.

If, we consider the initial value problem  $xy' = y - 1$ , where we are given  $y(0) = 1$ , then we can see that it has infinitely many solutions, you see if you take  $x$  equal to 0. Then  $y$  is equal to 1 follows from the differential equation  $xy' = y - 1$  directly. So, let us take  $x$  naught equal to 0 divide by  $x$ , this differential equation and then write  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y-1}{x}$ , we can write it as a linear differential equation of first order.

And then find the integrating factor itself it will turn out that the integrating factor here is  $\frac{1}{x}$ . We can multiply this equation by the integrating factor  $\frac{1}{x}$  and integrate with respect to  $x$ , we shall see that the solution is  $y$  equal to  $1 + c x$  for all  $x$  naught equal to 0, but  $y$  equal to  $1 + c x$ , also satisfy the condition  $y(0) = 1$ . So, we can say that  $y$  equal to  $1 + c x$  is the solution of the given initial value problem for all values of  $x$ , where  $c$  is an arbitrary constant.

Now, since  $c$  is an arbitrary constant, so the given initial value problem has infinitely many solutions and thus there arise the following two fundamental questions.

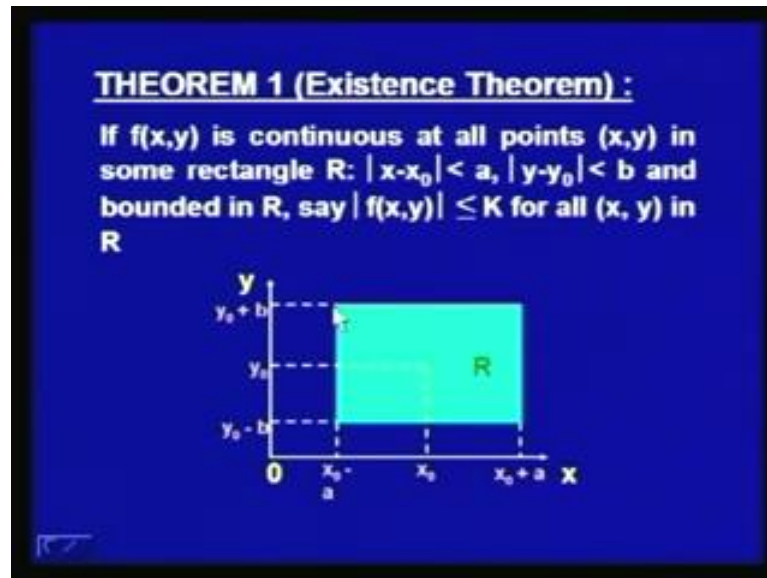
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Existence of a solution under what conditions does an initial value problem of the form 1, that is  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$ ,  $y(x_0) = y_0$  have at least one solution. Number 2, uniqueness of the solution under what conditions does the initial value problem have an unique solution was the theorems that answers these two questions, that is existence of the solution and uniqueness of solution are known as existence and uniqueness theorems.

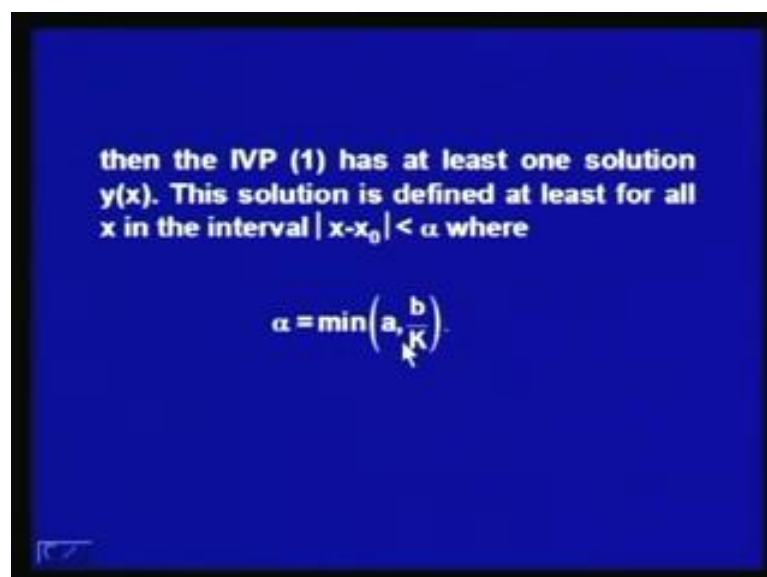
The examples considered by us above of the initial value problems were, so simple that we could find the answers to the existence and uniqueness of the solutions just by looking at them or just by doing some simple calculations. But in the case of complicated differential equations that is the once, which cannot be solved by the elementary methods studied by us so far. The existence and uniqueness theorems, which we are going to study now will be of great practical importance.

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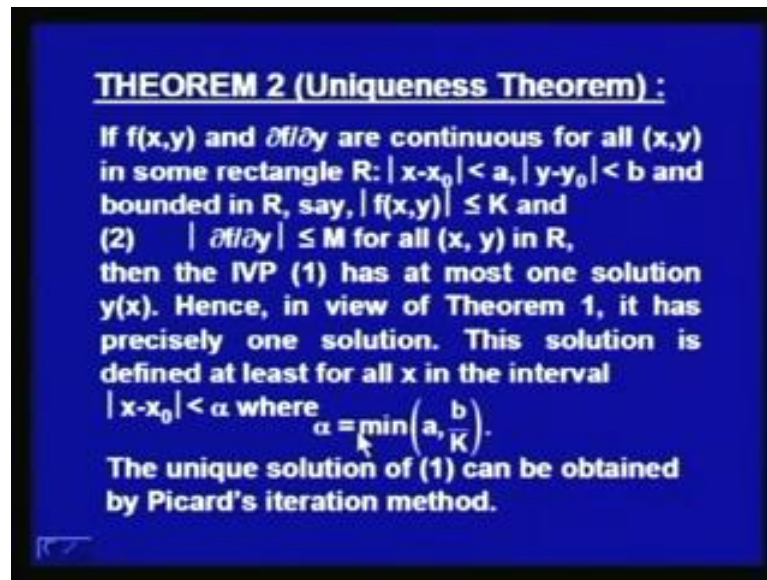
Let us look at the existence theorem first, If  $f(x,y)$  is continuous at all points  $(x,y)$  in some rectangle  $R$  of the  $x-y$  plane given by  $|x-x_0| < a, |y-y_0| < b$  and bounded in  $R$ . That is to say  $|f(x,y)| \leq K$  for all  $(x,y)$  in  $R$ , you can see in this picture, this is the region  $R$  in the  $x-y$  plane bounded by  $x = x_0 - a$  and  $x = x_0 + a$  and  $y = y_0 - b$  and  $y = y_0 + b$ .

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Then, the initial value problem has at least one solution  $y(x)$  and this solution is defined at least for all values of  $x$  in the interval  $|x - x_0| < \alpha$ , where  $\alpha$  is the minimum of  $a$  and  $b$  by  $k$ .

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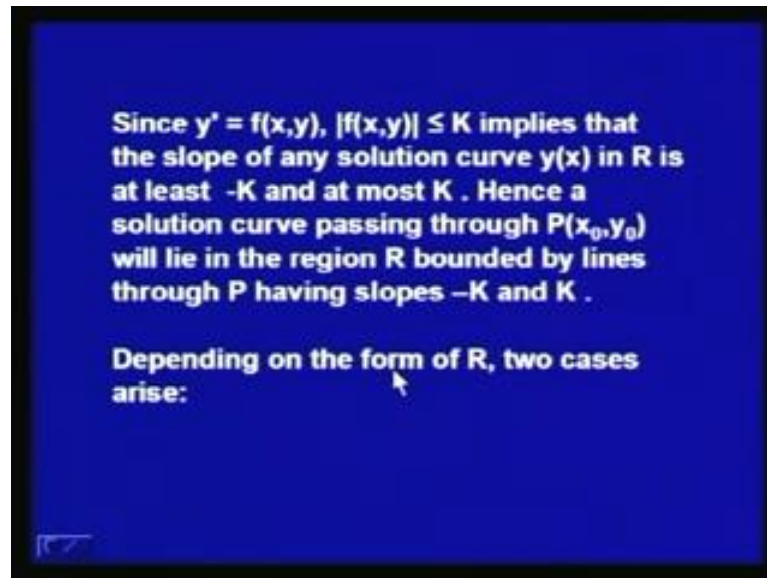
So, that is to say, we can say that if the function  $f(x,y)$  in the initial value problem is continuous in some region of the  $x-y$  plane containing the point  $x_0, y_0$ , then the initial value problem has at least one solution. So, let us now talk about the uniqueness of the solution, the uniqueness theorem gives us the conditions, the subs and conditions which  $f(x,y)$  has to satisfy in order that the initial value problem has precisely one solution.

So, if  $f(x,y)$  and its first order partial derivative with respect to  $y$ , that is  $\partial f/\partial y$  are continuous for all  $x,y$  in some rectangle  $R$ . That is  $|x - x_0| < a$ ,  $|y - y_0| < b$  and bounded in  $R$ , that is to say  $|f(x,y)| \leq K$  and  $|\partial f/\partial y| \leq M$  for all  $x,y$  in  $R$ . Then the initial value problem  $dy/dx = f(x,y)$ , where  $y(x_0) = y_0$  has at most one solution  $y(x)$ .

Now, in view of the existence theorem that is theorem number 1, it follows that the initial value problem will then have precisely one solution. This solution is defined at least for all  $x$  in the interval  $|x - x_0| < \alpha$ , where  $\alpha$  is the minimum of  $a$  and  $b$  by  $k$ . The uniqueness solution of the unique solution of the initial

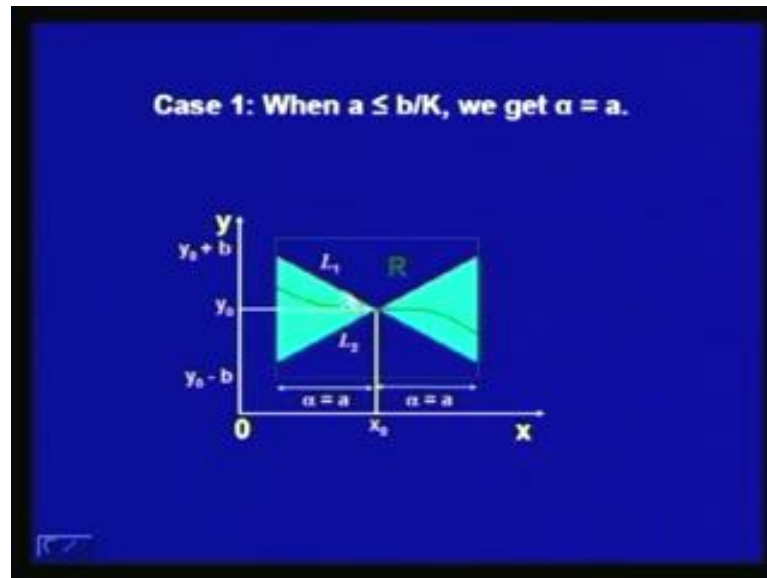
value problem can be obtained by using the Picard's iteration method, which we shall study little later.

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Now, since  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  is equal to  $f(x,y)$ , so  $\text{mod of } f(x,y) \leq K$  implies that  $\text{mod of } \frac{dy}{dx}$  is less than or equal to  $K$ , that is to say that the slope of any solution curve  $y(x)$  in the region  $r$  is at least minus  $K$  and at most plus  $K$ . And hence, a solution curve passing through the point  $P$  that is  $x_0, y_0$  will lie in the region  $R$  bounded by the lines through  $P$  having slopes minus  $K$  plus  $K$ , now depending on the form of the region  $R$  there arise two cases.

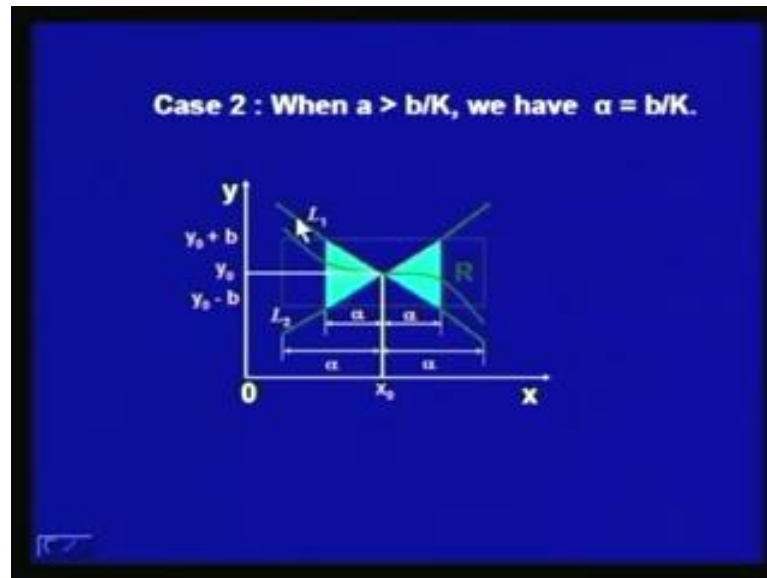
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In the case 1, when  $a$  is less than or equal to  $b$  by  $K$ , we will have  $\alpha$  is equal to  $a$  because,  $\alpha$  is the minimum of  $a$  and  $b$  by  $K$ . So, when  $\alpha$  is equal to  $a$ , in this figure you can see that this is your solution curve, the solution curve lies in the region  $R$  bounded by these two lines having slopes  $K$  and minus  $K$ ,  $L_2$  has slope of  $K$ . While,  $L_1$  has minus  $K$  and their both pass through the point  $x$  naught  $y$  naught, the solution curve also passes through the point  $x$  naught  $y$  naught.

So here, when  $\alpha$  is equal to  $a$  a solution exist for all values of  $x$  in the interval  $x$  naught minus  $a$ ,  $x$  naught plus  $a$ . And, its slope is at least minus  $K$  and at most plus  $K$  as because, it lies in the region the shaded region, which is bounded by the two lines having slopes minus  $K$  and plus  $K$ .

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In the case 2, when  $a$  is greater than  $b$  by  $K$ ,  $\alpha$  being the minimum of  $a$  and  $b$  by  $K$ , will imply that  $\alpha$  is equal to  $b$  by  $K$ . So, here  $\text{mod } x - x_0 < \alpha$  gives the solution curve lies in the region shaded region, which is from  $x_0 - \alpha$  to  $x_0 + \alpha$  that is  $x_0 - b/K$  to  $x_0 + b/K$ . And, the slope of the solution curve is at least  $-K$  and at most  $+K$ ,  $L_1$  has slope  $-K$  while  $L_2$  has slope  $+K$  and the solution curve is passing through the point  $x_0, y_0$ .

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**REMARK 1.** The condition (2) i.e.  $|\partial f/\partial y| \leq M$  for all  $(x, y)$  in  $R$ , can be replaced by the weaker condition

(3)  $|f(x, y_2) - f(x, y_1)| \leq M' |y_2 - y_1|$

where  $(x, y_2)$  and  $(x, y_1)$  belong to  $R$ .

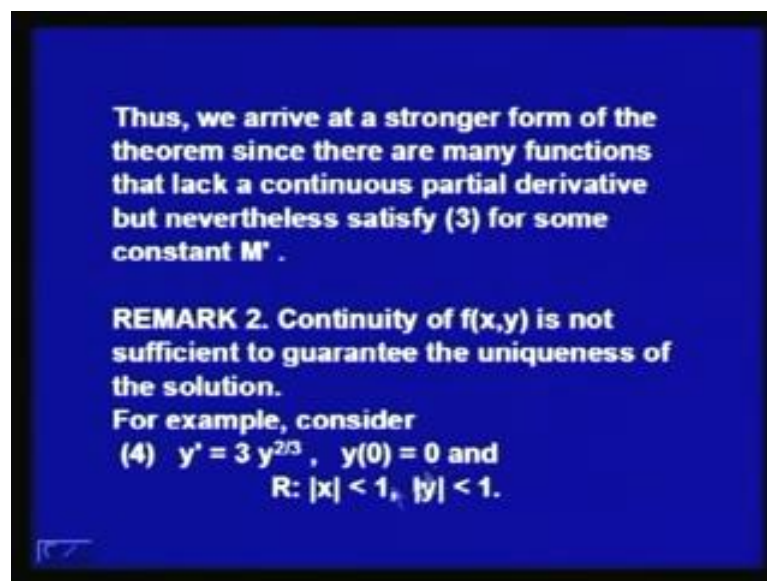
The condition (3) is known as a Lipschitz condition.



Now, let us study remark 1, the condition 2 that is  $\text{mod of } \Delta f \text{ over } \Delta y \text{ less than or equal to } 1$  for all  $x, y$  in  $R$  in the uniqueness theorem can be replaced by the weaker condition.  $\text{Mod of } f(x, y_2) - f(x, y_1) \text{ less than or equal to } M \Delta y$  where  $(x, y_2)$  and  $(x, y_1)$  are any 2 points belonging to the region  $R$ , but this condition 3 is known as a Lipschitz condition.

If a function  $f(x, y)$  is such that  $\text{mod of } \Delta f \text{ over } \Delta y$  is less than or equal to  $m$ , then it will always satisfy the Lipschitz condition. Because, by the mean value theorem we can write that  $\text{mod of } f(x, y_2) - f(x, y_1)$  is less than or equal to some constant  $m \Delta y$  times  $\text{mod of } y_2 - y_1$ . So, thus we arrive at a stronger form of the uniqueness theorem, because there are many functions which do not possess a continuous partial derivative, but satisfy the Lipschitz condition for some constant  $m$ . Let us study the mod 2. If the function  $f(x, y)$  is continuous, it is not sufficient to guarantee the uniqueness of the solution.

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For example, let us consider  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 3y^{2/3}$ , where we are given that  $y$  at  $x = 0$  is 0 and the region  $R$  is given by  $|x| < 1, |y| < 1$ .

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Then,  $f(x,y)$  is continuous in  $R$  and  $y_1(x) = x^3$  and  $y_2(x) = 0$  are two different solutions for all  $x$  in  $R$ . Thus (4) does not have a unique solution. This is because  $f(x,y)$  does not satisfy the Lipschitz condition in  $R$  since

$$\frac{f(0,y) - f(0,0)}{y - 0} = \frac{3}{y^{1/3}}$$

is unbounded in every neighborhood of the origin.

We can see here that  $f(x,y)$  which is equal to  $3$  times  $y$  to the power  $2/3$  is continuous in the given region  $R$  and  $y_1(x) = x^3$  and  $y_2(x) = 0$  are two different solutions of the differential equation for all values of  $x$  in  $R$ . Thus the differential equation  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 3y^{2/3}$  does not have a unique solution.

And, this is because the function  $f(x,y)$  which is  $3$  times  $y$  to the power  $2/3$  does not satisfy the Lipschitz condition in the region  $R$ . Since,  $f(0,y) - f(0,0)$  which will be equal to  $3$  times  $y$  to the power  $2/3$  divided by  $y - 0$  will be equal to  $3$  over  $y$  to the power  $1/3$ , which is unbounded in every neighborhood of the origin. And origin is a point, which lies in the region  $R$ , therefore the function  $f(x,y)$  does not satisfy the Lipschitz condition.

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**Picard's iteration method:**

This method gives a sequence of approximate solutions of the IVP (1) which converges to the unique solution  $y(x)$  of (1). The practical value of Picard's method is limited because it involves integrations which may be complicated.

We note that, by integration, (1) may be written as

$$(5) \quad y(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y(t)) dt.$$

Equation(5) is known as an integral equation.

Now, let us study the Picard's iteration method to obtain a unique solution of the initial value problem. This method gives us a sequence of approximate solutions of the initial value problem 1, which converges to the uniqueness solution unique solution  $y(x)$  of 1, by the Picard's theorem which we shall state later on. The practical value of the Picard's method is limited, because it involves integrations which may be complicated to obtain.

We note that by integration the initial value problem  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$ , where  $y(x_0) = y_0$  may be written as  $y(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y(t)) dt$ . Now, here the variable  $t$  in the integrand has been used, because  $x$  occurs as an upper limit of the integral here. Since, the unknown function  $y(t)$  occurs in the integrand on the right side of equation 5, equation 5 is known as an integral equation.

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Then, a first approximation  $y_1$  to the solution  $y(x)$  is given by

$$y_1(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_0) dt .$$

A second approximation  $y_2$  is given by

$$y_2(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_1(t)) dt$$

and so on. The  $n^{\text{th}}$  approximation  $y_n$  is, then, given by

$$(6) \quad y_n(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_{n-1}(t)) dt .$$

Then, a first approximation  $y_1$  to the solution  $y(x)$  is given by  $y_1(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_0) dt$ . So, the unknown function  $y(t)$  in the equation 5 on the right hand side in the integrand is replaced by the known value of  $y$  that is  $y_0$ . And, we determine the first approximation  $y_1(x)$  to the solution  $y(x)$  of the initial value problem.

Second approximation  $y_2$  is then obtained from  $y_2(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_1(t)) dt$ . So, we use the value of  $y_1(x)$  to determine the next approximation  $y_2(x)$  and so on, we continue the  $n^{\text{th}}$  approximation  $y_n$  is then given by  $y_n(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_{n-1}(t)) dt$ .

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In this way we obtain a sequence of approximations  
(7)  $y_1(x), y_2(x), \dots, y_n(x), \dots$   
which converges to the solution  $y(x)$  of (1)  
in view of the following theorem:

**THEOREM 3 (Picard's Theorem):** Under the conditions of Theorems 1 and 2, the sequence (7) of functions (6) converges to the solution  $y(x)$  of the IVP(1).

In this way, we will obtain a sequence of approximations  $y_1(x), y_2(x), y_3(x)$  and so on,  $y_n(x)$  and so on, which converges to the solution  $y(x)$  of the initial value problem 1 in view of the following theorem of Picard. Picard's theorem states that under the conditions of theorems 1 and 2, the sequence  $y_1(x), y_2(x), y_n(x)$  and so on of functions  $y(x)$  given by equation 6 converges to the solution  $y(x)$  of the initial value problem.

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**EXAMPLE:**  
Solve  $y' = 1 + y^2, y(0) = 0$  by Picard's method.  
**SOLUTION:**  
Here  $f(x, y) = 1 + y^2, x_0 = 0$  and  $y_0 = 0$ . Hence  $f(t, y_0) = 1$ . Therefore  
$$y_1(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_0) dt = \int_0^x 1 dt = x.$$
  
Now,  
$$y_2(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_1(t)) dt = \int_0^x (1 + t^2) dt$$

Let us solve an initial value problem using Picard's method we are given  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  equal to 1 plus  $y$  square where  $y$  at  $x$  equal to 0 is 0. So, if you compare this differential

equation  $y' = 1 + y^2$  is the standard form  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$ , you find that  $f(x, y) = 1 + x^2$ , the initial condition  $y(0) = 0$  gives us  $x_0 = 0$  and  $y_0 = 0$ .

And hence,  $f(x, y)$  the value of  $f(x, y)$  is equal to  $1 + x^2$ , therefore  $y_1(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_0) dt$  which will be equal to  $\int_0^x 1 dt$  and after integration we then have  $y_1(x) = x$ . So, first approximation to the solution of  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 1 + y^2$  where  $y(0) = 0$  is  $x$ . The next solution, next approximation  $y_2(x) = y_1(x) + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_1(t)) dt$  is equal to  $y_1(x) + \int_0^x (1 + t^2) dt$ , so  $f(t, y_1(t))$  will be equal to  $1 + t^2$ .

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The slide contains the following mathematical expressions:

$$y_3(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_2(t)) dt$$

$$= \int_0^x \left( 1 + \left( t + \frac{t^3}{3} \right)^2 \right) dt.$$

Hence, we obtain

$$(8) \quad y_3(x) = x + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{2}{15}x^5 + \frac{1}{63}x^7 \text{ etc.}$$

And therefore,  $y_2(x)$  is the integral of  $0$  to  $x$  of  $1 + t^2$   $dt$  which will give us  $x + \frac{x^3}{3}$ , so second approximation to the solution  $y(x)$  of the initial value problem is  $x + \frac{x^3}{3}$ . Next, we find  $y_3(x)$   $y_3(x)$  is then  $y_2(x) + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_2(t)) dt$  making use of the value of  $y_2(t) = t + \frac{t^3}{3}$ , we have  $y_3(x)$  as  $\int_0^x (1 + t + \frac{2}{3}t^2 + \frac{2}{3}t^3 + \frac{2}{3}t^4 + \frac{2}{3}t^5) dt$ . After integration, we get the value of the third approximation  $y_3(x)$  as  $x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2}{15}x^5 + \frac{1}{63}x^7$ , etcetera.

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The exact solution of our problem is

$$(9) \quad y = \tan x = x + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{2}{15}x^5 + \frac{17}{315}x^7 + \dots, \quad |x| < \frac{\pi}{2}$$

Comparing (8) and (9), we find that the first three terms of  $y_3(x)$  and the series in (9) are the same. The series in (9) converges for  $|x| < \pi/2$  and so we may expect that our sequence  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  converges to a function which is the solution of our problem for  $|x| < \pi/2$ .

If the find exact solution of our initial value problem, it tells out that the exact solution of our initial value problem is  $y$  equal to  $\tan x$ , see our initial value problem is  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 1 + y^2$ . So, we can use the method of separation of variables and write the differential equation as  $\frac{dy}{1 + y^2} = dx$  integrate and use the initial condition  $y$  at  $0$  equal to  $0$ .

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The exact solution of our problem is

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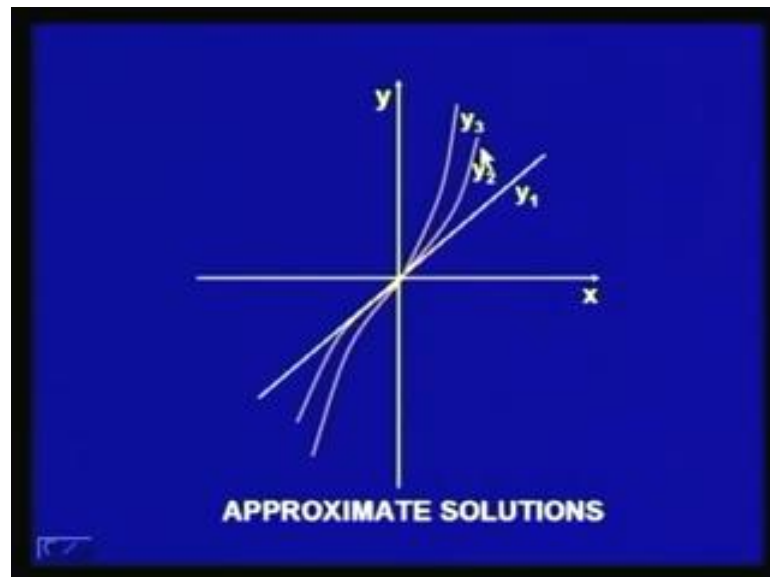
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We can see that  $y$  equal to  $\tan x$  is the exact solution of our problem and we know that the McLaren's series expansion of  $\tan x$  is  $x$  plus  $x$  cube by  $3$  plus  $2$  by  $15$   $x$  to the power

$5 + 17 + 315x + \dots$  and so on which is valid in the region  $-\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$ . That is the series converges in the interval  $-\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$ .

Now, we compare the third approximation  $y_3(x)$  with the series that occurs in 9, we find that first 3 terms of  $y_3(x)$  and the series in 9 are the same. The series in 9 converges for  $-\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$  and so we may expect that our sequence of approximations  $y_1, y_2$  and so on converges to a function which is the solution of our problem for  $-\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$ .

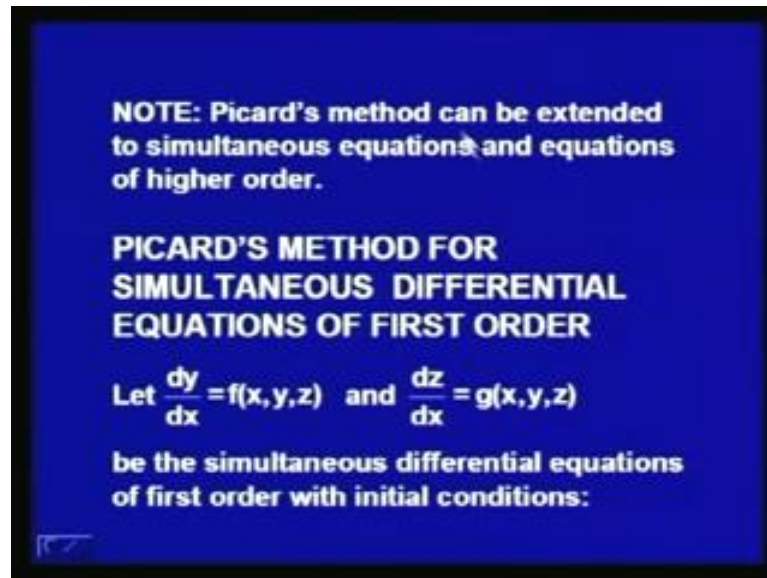
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These are the approximate solutions of our initial value problem  $y_1(x) = x$ , so we have this curve  $y_1(x) = x$ ,  $y_2(x) = x + x^3$ , and then we curve for  $y_3(x)$ . So, these are approximate solutions of our initial value problem, which converge to the exact solution  $y = \tan x$  of our initial value problem.



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**NOTE: Picard's method can be extended to simultaneous equations and equations of higher order.**

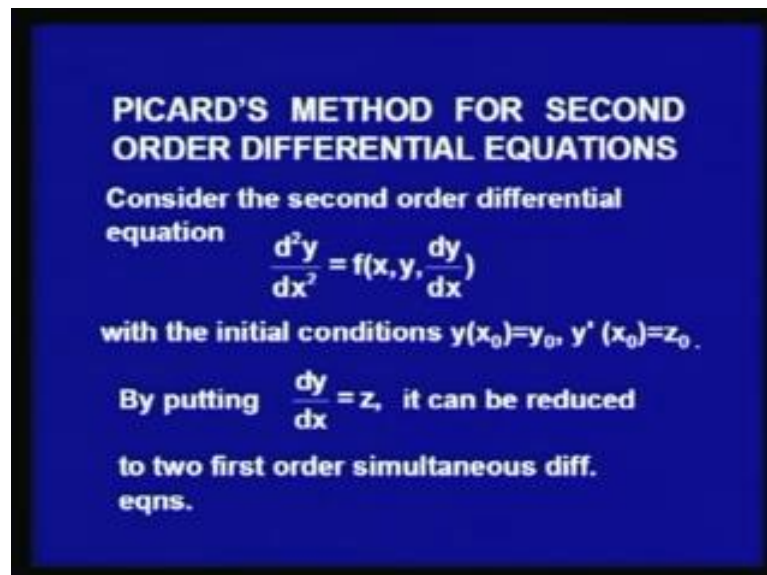
**PICARD'S METHOD FOR SIMULTANEOUS DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS OF FIRST ORDER**

Let  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y, z)$  and  $\frac{dz}{dx} = g(x, y, z)$

be the simultaneous differential equations of first order with initial conditions:

Picard's method can be extended to simultaneous equations and equations of higher order, let us first discuss Picard's method for simultaneous differential equations of first order. Let us consider the two differential equations of first order  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y, z)$  and  $\frac{dz}{dx} = g(x, y, z)$ .

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**PICARD'S METHOD FOR SECOND ORDER DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS**

Consider the second order differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f(x, y, \frac{dy}{dx})$$

with the initial conditions  $y(x_0) = y_0, y'(x_0) = z_0$ .

By putting  $\frac{dy}{dx} = z$ , it can be reduced to two first order simultaneous diff. eqns.

Next, we discuss Picard's method for second order differential equations, let us consider the second order differential equation  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f(x, y, \frac{dy}{dx})$  with the initial conditions  $y(x_0) = y_0$  and  $\frac{dy}{dx}(x_0) = z_0$ .

equal to  $z$  naught. Now, if we put  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  equal to  $z$  then the second order differential equation  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$  equal to  $f(x, y, z)$  gives rise to two first order simultaneous differential equations.

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$$\frac{dy}{dx} = z, \quad \frac{dz}{dx} = f(x, y, z)$$

with the initial conditions  $y(x_0) = y_0$  and  $z(x_0) = z_0$ . This system can then be solved as explained earlier.

**EXAMPLE:** Use Picard's method to find an approximate value of  $y$  at  $x = 0.1$  given that

$y'' + 2xy' + y = 0$       and  
 $y(0) = 0.5, \quad y'(0) = 0.1.$

They are  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  equal to  $z$  and  $\frac{dz}{dx}$  equal to  $f(x, y, z)$  the initial conditions will be  $y$  at  $x$  naught equal to  $y$  naught and  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  at  $x$  naught equal to  $z$  naught gives us then  $\frac{dz}{dx}$  at  $x$  naught equal to  $z$  naught. For this system of simultaneous differential equations of first order now can be solved as by the method which we have done explained earlier. Let us take an example on this method let us use Picard's method to find an approximate value of  $y$  at  $x$  equal to  $0.1$ , where we are given that  $y'' + 2xy' + y$  is equal to  $0$  and  $y$  at  $x$  equal to  $0$  is  $0.5$   $y'$  at  $x$  equal to  $0$  is  $0.1$ .

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**SOLUTION.** Let  $\frac{dy}{dx} = z$  so that  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{dz}{dx}$ .

Thus, the given equation reduces to

$$\frac{dz}{dx} + 2xz + y = 0, \quad y(0) = 0.5, \quad z(0) = 0.1.$$

Hence, the problem is to solve

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = z \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{dz}{dx} = -(2xz + y)$$

with the conditions  $y_0 = 0.5, z_0 = 0.1$  at  $x_0 = 0$ .

So, let us now discuss the solution of this problem, let us take  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  equal to  $z$ , so that  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$  is equal to  $\frac{dz}{dx}$  and thus the given equation reduces to  $\frac{dz}{dx} + 2xz + y = 0$ , where  $y$  at  $x = 0$  is  $0.5$  and  $z$  at  $x = 0$  is equal to  $0.1$ . And thus, we have the problem to solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = z$  and  $\frac{dz}{dx} = -(2xz + y)$ , with the initial conditions  $y_0 = 0.5, z_0 = 0.1$  at  $x_0 = 0$ .

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$$y = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(x, y, z) dx = 0.5 + \int_0^x z dx$$
$$z = z_0 + \int_{x_0}^x g(x, y, z) dx = 0.1 - \int_0^x (2xz + y) dx.$$

**First approximation**

$$y_1 = 0.5 + \int_0^x z_0 dx = 0.5 + \int_0^x (0.1) dx = 0.5 + (0.1)x$$
$$z_1 = 0.1 - \int_0^x (2xz_0 + y_0) dx = 0.1 - \int_0^x (0.2x + 0.5) dx$$
$$= 0.1 - 0.5x - (0.1)x^2.$$

Now, by the Picard's theorem, we have  $y$  equal to  $y$  naught plus integral  $x$  naught to  $x$   $f(x, y, z)$   $dx$  which is equal to  $0.5$  plus integral  $0$  to  $x$   $z$   $dx$   $f(x, y, z)$  by  $z$  is equal to  $z$  here. And  $z$  is equal to  $z$  naught plus integral  $x$  naught to  $x$   $g(x, y, z)$   $dx$   $z$  naught is equal to  $0.1$  minus integral  $0$  to  $x$   $2xz + y$  because the value of  $g(x, y, z)$  is minus of  $2xz + y$   $dx$ .

And the first approximations to  $y$  and  $z$  are then given by  $y_1$  equal to  $0.5$  plus integral  $0$  to  $x$   $z$  naught  $dx$ . We replace  $z$  by  $z$  naught here which is equal to  $0.5$  plus integral  $0$  to  $x$  the value of  $z$  naught is  $0.1$ , so  $0.1 dx$  this will give you  $y_1$  equal to  $0.5$  plus  $0.1$  in to  $x$ . And,  $z_1$  will be equal to  $0.1$  minus integral  $0$  to  $x$   $2xz$  plus  $y$  will become  $2xz$   $z$  naught plus  $y$  naught  $dx$ . So, this will be equal to  $0.1$  minus integral  $0$  to  $x$   $0.2$  in to  $x$  because  $z$  naught is  $0.1$ . So,  $0.2$  in to  $x$   $y$  naught is  $0.5$ . So, we have the integral of  $0.2$  in to  $x$  plus  $0.5 dx$  and after integration we will get the value of  $z_1$  as  $0.1$  minus  $0.5$  in to  $x$  minus  $0.1$  in to  $x$  square.

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**Second approximation**

$$y_2 = 0.5 + \int_0^x z_1 dx = 0.5 + \int_0^x (0.1 - 0.5x - (0.1)x^2) dx$$

$$= 0.5 + (0.1)x - \frac{0.5x^2}{2} - \frac{0.1x^3}{3}$$

$$z_2 = 0.1 - \int_0^x (2xz_1 + y_1) dx$$

$$= 0.1 - \int_0^x [2x(0.1 - 0.5x - (0.1)x^2) + (0.5 + (0.1)x)] dx$$

$$= 0.1 - 0.5x - \frac{0.3x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{0.2x^4}{4}$$

Second approximations are  $y_2$  equal to  $0.5$  plus integral  $0$  to  $x$   $z_1 dx$  which is equal to  $0.5$  plus integral  $0$  to  $x$ . The value of  $z_1$  came out to be  $0.1$  minus  $0.5x$  minus  $0.1x$  square in to  $dx$ , which is equal to  $0.5$  plus  $0.1$  in to  $x$  minus  $0.5$  in to  $x$  square by  $2$  minus  $0.1$  in to  $x$  cube by  $3$ .

$Z_2$  is equal to  $0.1$  minus integral  $0$  to  $x$   $2xz_1$  plus  $y_1 dx$  substituting the value of  $z_1$  and the value of  $y_1$  and integration. After integration, we shall have the value of  $z_2$  as

0.1 minus 0.5 in to x minus 0.3 in to x square by 2 plus x cube by 3 plus 0.2 in to x to the power 4 by 4.

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**Third approximation**

$$y_3 = 0.5 + \int_0^x z_2 dx$$

$$= 0.5 + 0.1x - \frac{0.5x^2}{2} - \frac{0.1x^3}{2} + \frac{x^4}{12} + \frac{0.1x^5}{10}$$

$$z_3 = 0.1 - \int_0^x (2xz_2 + y_2) dx$$

$$= 0.1 - 0.5x - \frac{0.3x^2}{2} + \frac{2.5x^3}{6} + \frac{1}{12}x^4 - \frac{2x^5}{15} - \frac{0.1x^6}{6}$$

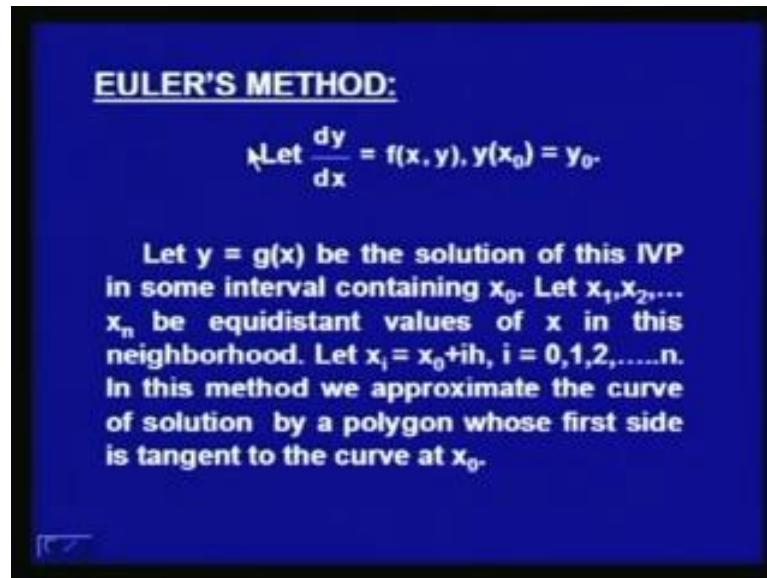
Hence at  $x = 0.1$ ,  $y_1 = 0.51$ ,  $y_2 = 0.50746667$ ,  
 $y_3 = 0.50745933$ .

Thus  $y(0.1) = 0.5075$  correct to 4 decimals.

Similarly, we can find third approximations  $y_3$  and  $y z_3$ ,  $y_3$  is equal to  $0.5 + \int_0^x z_2 dx$  substituting the value of  $z_2$  and integrating with respect to  $x$ . We will give us the value of  $y_3$  as  $.5 + .1x - 0.5x^2/2 - 0.1x^3/2 + x^4/12 + 0.1x^5/10$ .

And  $z_3$  as  $0.1 - \int_0^x (2xz_2 + y_2) dx$  substituting the values of  $z_2$  and  $y_2$  here. We will get after integration  $0.1 - 0.5x - 0.3x^2/2 + 2.5x^3/6 + 1/12x^4 - 2x^5/15 - 0.1x^6/6$ . And hence at  $x = 0.1$  the values of  $y_1$ ,  $y_2$  and  $y_3$  are  $y_1 = 0.51$ ,  $y_2 = 0.50746667$ ,  $y_3 = 0.50745933$  and thus  $y$  at  $0.1$  is equal to  $0.5075$  correct up to 4 decimal places.

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Now, we will discuss some numerical methods to find an approximate solution of an initial value problem. The differential equations that occur in the practical problems are so complicated that the methods which we have discussed earlier may not be applied to them or they are if even, if we find solutions of those differential equations by the known methods are the elementary methods. The formulae are so complicated that one often prefers to find numerical solutions of the differential equation.

So, we will be discussing the two methods numerical methods for finding an approximate solution of the given initial value problem given initial value problem. We shall assume that the initial value problem has a unique solution in an interval containing the point  $x$  naught. Let  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$  at  $x$  naught equal to  $y$  naught the methods that we are going to discuss that is Euler's method and the improved Euler's method are known as step by step methods.

We start with an initial value of  $y$ , that is  $y$  naught at  $x$  equal to  $x$  naught and then find an approximate value of  $y$ , that is  $y_1$  at  $x$  equal to  $x$  naught plus  $h$  that is  $x_1$ . In the second step, we find an approximate value of  $y$  that is  $y_2$  at  $x$  equal to  $x_2$ , which is  $x$  naught plus  $2h$ ,  $h$  is the step size and at each step we use the same formula to determine an approximate value of  $y$ , so these methods are called step by step methods.

Let us say  $y$  equal to  $g(x)$  be the solution of this initial value problem, in some interval containing  $x$  naught and let us say  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be equidistant values of  $x$  in this

neighborhood. Let us take  $x_i$  equal to  $x_0 + ih$ , so these values are equally spaced with step size  $h$ , then in this method we approximate the curve of solution of the initial value problem by a polygon, whose first side is tangent to the curve at  $x$  equal to  $x_0$ .

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By the Taylor's series

$$y(x+h) = y(x) + hy'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2!}y''(x) + \dots$$

$$(10) \quad = y(x) + hf(x,y) + \frac{h^2}{2!} \frac{d}{dx} f(x,y) + \dots$$

When  $h$  is small, neglecting the terms containing  $h^2$  and higher powers of  $h$ , we get

$$y(x+h) \approx y(x) + hf(x,y)$$

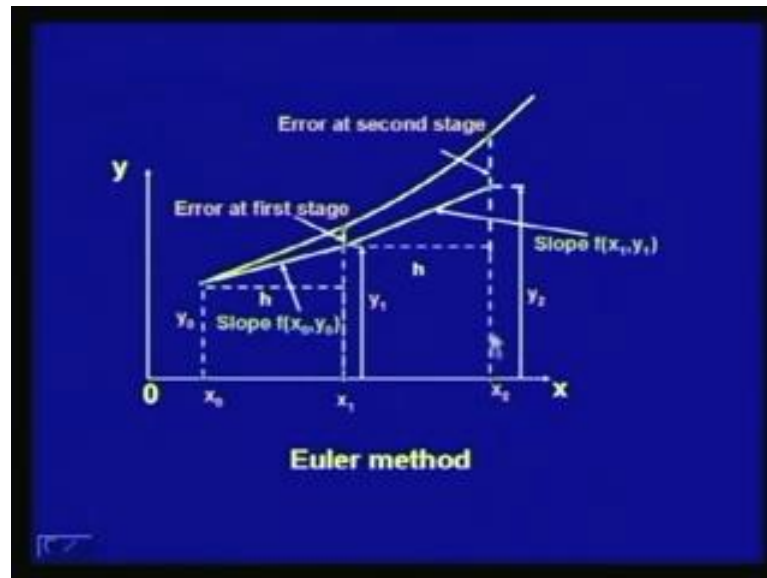
First, we compute  $y_1 = y_0 + h f(x_0, y_0)$  which approximates  $y(x_1) = y(x_0+h)$ .  
 Next, we compute  $y_2 = y_1 + h f(x_1, y_1)$  which approximates  $y(x_2) = y(x_1+h)$ .

By the Taylor's series  $y$  at  $x$  plus  $h$  is equal to  $y$  at  $x$  plus  $h$  times  $y'$  at  $x$  plus  $h^2$  by  $2$  factorial,  $y''$  at  $x$  plus and so on, which can be written as  $y(x+h) \approx y(x) + hf(x,y)$ . Because,  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  is equal to  $f(x,y)$  and so we have  $h$  times  $f(x,y)$  plus  $h^2$  by  $2$  factorial  $y''$  at  $x$  plus  $h^3$  by  $3$  factorial  $y'''$  at  $x$  plus and so on.

Now, when  $h$  is the step size  $h$  is small, we can neglect the terms containing  $h^2$  and higher powers of  $h$  and we thus get an approximate value of  $y$  at  $x$  plus  $h$  as  $y(x) + hf(x,y)$ . So, using this approximate formula, we can compute the first approximate value of  $y$  at  $x_0 + h$  that is  $x_1$ .

We compute the approximate value  $y_1$ ,  $y_1 = y_0 + hf(x_0, y_0)$ , which approximates  $y$  at  $x_1$  that is  $y(x_0 + h)$ . Next, we compute  $y$  at  $x_0 + 2h$ , that is we compute  $y_2$  from  $y_1 + hf(x_1, y_1)$  which approximates  $y$  at  $x_2$ , that is  $y(x_1 + h)$  or you can say  $y$  at  $x_0 + 2h$ .

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Now, this is geometrical interpretation of this method, you can see here that this is solution curve of the given initial value problem at the point  $x$   $y$   $x_0$   $y_0$  this is the tangent to the curve, whose slope is given by  $f(x_0, y_0)$ . We have  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$ , so the slope of the tangent is at  $x_0$  is  $f(x_0, y_0)$  and this is your step size  $h$  at the point  $x = x_0 + h$ , that is  $x_1$  the value of  $y_1$  is given by this  $y_1$  and the actual value of  $y$  at  $x = x_1$  is this  $y_1^*$ .

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Continuing in this manner, we obtain

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

This is called Euler method or Euler-Cauchy method. Since, in (10) we consider only the constant term and the term containing the first power of  $h$ , this method is called a first order method.

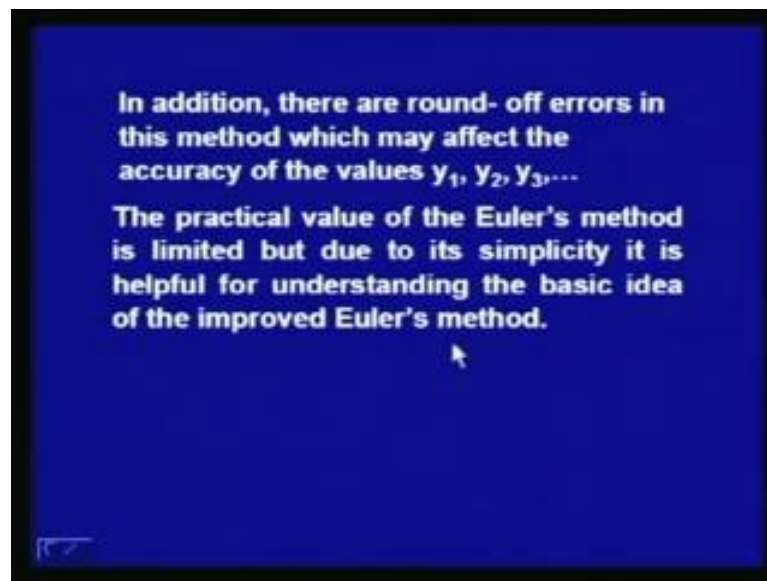
The error in this method is quite significant unless  $h$  is small. The truncation error in this method at each step is of  $O(h^2)$ .



So, there is an error here, this is the error at the first stage  $y$  at  $x$  naught plus  $h$  minus  $y_1$  that is the error here. And then in the next step  $x_2$  we then continue along the straight line which passes through the point  $x_1, y_1$  and has slope  $f, x_1, y_1$ . So, then when we compute  $y_2$  from  $y_1$  plus  $h$  times  $f, x_1, y_1$ , this is our  $y_2$  by the actual value of  $y$  at  $x$  equal to  $x_2$  is this, so there is an error here origin this is the error in the next stage.

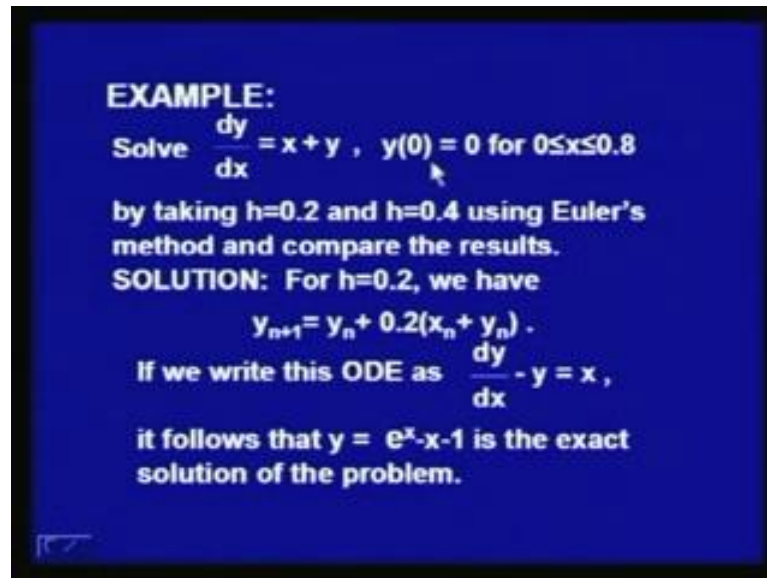
Continuing in this manner, we then obtain  $y_n$  equal to  $y_{n-1}$  plus  $h f, x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}$ , where  $n$  is equal to 1 2 3 and so on, this is called Euler method or Euler-Cauchy method. Now in the Taylor series which occurs in 10, we consider only the constant term and the term containing the first power of  $h$ , because we have neglected all the terms which contain  $h$  square and higher powers of  $h$ , so this method is called a first order method. The error in this method is quite significant unless  $h$  is small, since we have neglected all terms containing  $h$  square and higher powers of  $h$ , the truncation error in this method is at each step is of order capital order  $h$  square.

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Now, in addition to this truncation error, there are round of errors as well in this method which may affect the accuracy of the values  $y_1, y_2, y_3$  and so on. The practical value of the Euler's method is limited, but due to its simplicity, it is helpful for understanding the basic idea of the improved Euler's method, which we shall be discussing now.

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**EXAMPLE:**  
Solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y$ ,  $y(0) = 0$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 0.8$   
by taking  $h=0.2$  and  $h=0.4$  using Euler's method and compare the results.  
**SOLUTION:** For  $h=0.2$ , we have  
$$y_{n+1} = y_n + 0.2(x_n + y_n).$$
  
If we write this ODE as  $\frac{dy}{dx} - y = x$ ,  
it follows that  $y = e^x - x - 1$  is the exact solution of the problem.

Let us, before we discuss improved Euler's method, let us take an example on Euler's method, say let us solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y$ , where  $y(0) = 0$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 0.8$ . By taking  $h = 0.2$  and  $h = 0.4$  using Euler's formula method and let us compare the results, for  $h = 0.2$ . We have the formula Euler's formula  $y_{n+1} = y_n + 0.2(x_n + y_n)$ , that is the value of  $f(x_n, y_n)$ ,  $f(x, y)$  here is  $x + y$ , so  $f(x_n, y_n)$  is  $x_n + y_n$ .

Now, if you write this ordinary differential equation as  $\frac{dy}{dx} - y = x$ , you can see that this is the first order linear differential equation. And, we can then find its integrating factor and multiply this by the integrating factor and integrate with respect to  $x$ . It follows that  $y = e^x - x - 1$  is the exact solution of this problem making use of the initial condition  $y(0) = 0$ .

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Table 1				
$x_n$	$y_n$	$0.4(x_n + y_n)$	$y_n$ in Table 2	Difference
0.0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
0.4	0.000	0.160	0.040	0.040
0.8	0.160		0.274	0.114

Table 2					
n	$x_n$	$y_n$	$0.2(x_n + y_n)$	Exact Values	Error
0	0.0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
1	0.2	0.000	0.040	0.021	0.021
2	0.4	0.040	0.088	0.092	0.052
3	0.6	0.128	0.146	0.222	0.094
4	0.8	0.274	0.215	0.426	0.152

Now, here we are tabulated the values of  $y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4$  for  $x$  equal to 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, when we take  $h$  equal to 0.2. And then we have also tabulated the values of  $y$  for  $x$  equal to 0.4 and 0.8, where we have taken  $h$  to be 0.4 and then we have compared the errors in the two cases.

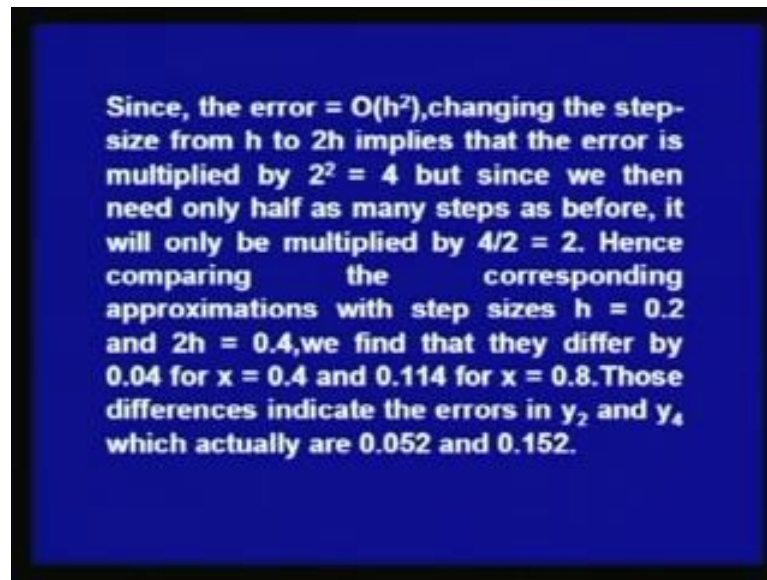
Now, you can see that when  $x$ , when  $n$  is 0 that is we have  $x_n$  equal to 0.0  $y_n$  is equal to 0.00 and the value of  $0.2$  into  $x_n + y_n$  is this and then we get using the Euler's formula the value of  $y$  at  $x$  equal to 0.2 as 0.000. Next, we can calculate  $0.2$  into  $x_1 + y_1$ , which is 0.040 we can get the value of  $y_2$  that is  $y$  at 0.4 as 0.040.

Similarly,  $y_3$  that is  $y$  at 0.6 we get as 0.128 and  $y$  at 0.8, we get as 0.274 and when we calculate the exact values of  $y$ , from the exact solution of the initial value problem  $y$  equal to  $e$  to the power  $x$  minus 1. We see that  $y$  at  $x$  equal to 0 is given by 0.000  $y$  at 0.2 is 0.021  $y$  at 0.4 is 0.092  $y$  at 0.6 is 0.222 and  $y$  at 0.8 is 0.426.

These are the errors in which occur, when we compute the values of  $y$  by using the Euler's formula taking  $h$  equal to .2. So, at  $x$  equal to 0 the error is 0 at  $x$  equal to 0.2, the error between the approximate value and the actual value is 0.021, the error in  $y_2$  is 0.052, the error in  $y_3$  is 0.094. The error in  $y_4$  is 0.152 and when we take  $h$  equal to 0.4 we see that  $y$  at 0.4 comes out to be 0, while  $y$  at 0.8 comes out to be .160.

These are the values of  $y$  which we have found for  $y$  at 0.4 from the table 2,  $y$  at 0.4 is 0.040 and  $y$  at 0.8 is 0.274 and the errors the difference between the two values of  $y$  here, the value of  $y$  at 0.4 is 0 here it is 0.040. So, the difference is 0.040 and here will be difference in the values of  $y$  is  $0.274 - 0.160$  that is 0.114.

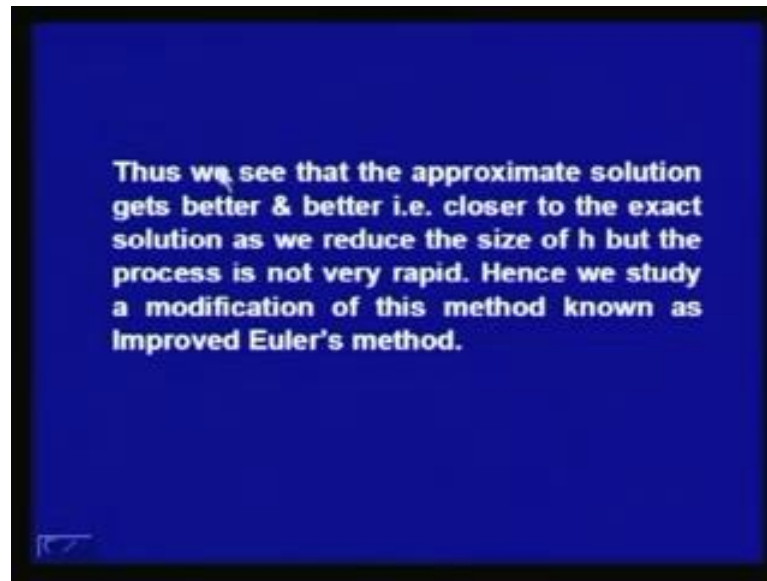
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Since, the error =  $O(h^2)$ , changing the step-size from  $h$  to  $2h$  implies that the error is multiplied by  $2^2 = 4$  but since we then need only half as many steps as before, it will only be multiplied by  $4/2 = 2$ . Hence comparing the corresponding approximations with step sizes  $h = 0.2$  and  $2h = 0.4$ , we find that they differ by 0.04 for  $x = 0.4$  and 0.114 for  $x = 0.8$ . Those differences indicate the errors in  $y_2$  and  $y_4$  which actually are 0.052 and 0.152.

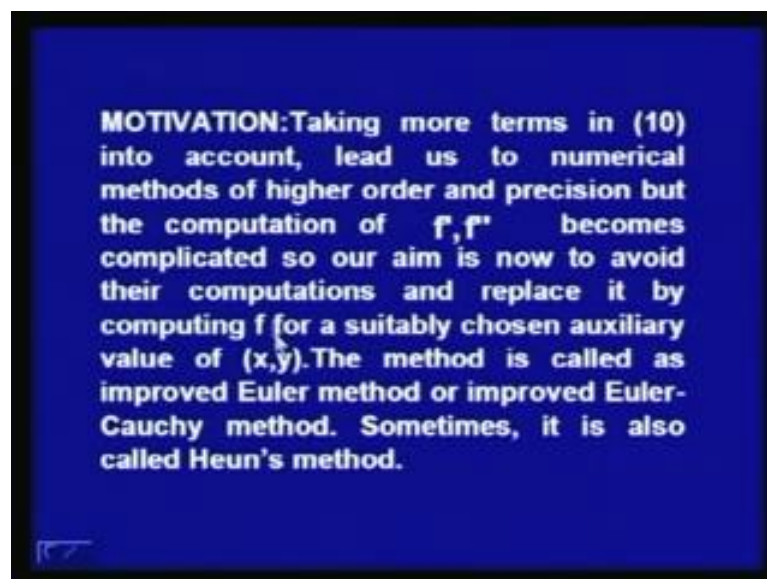
Now, since the error is equal to capital order  $h$  square, in this method changing the step size from  $h$  to  $2h$ , implies that the error is multiplied by 2 square that is 4, see here we have taken first  $h$  equal to 0.2 and then we have taken  $h$  equal to 0.4. So, we have change the step size from  $h$  to  $2h$ , now changing the step size from  $h$  to  $2h$  means that the error is multiplied by 2 square that is 4. But, since when we take the step size  $2h$ , we need only half of the steps that when we take the step size as  $h$ . The error when only be multiplied by 4 by 2 that is 2 and hence comparing the corresponding approximations with step size as  $h$  equal to 0.2 and  $2h$  equal to 0.4, we find that they differ by 0.04 for  $x$  equal 0.4 and 0.114 for  $x$  equal to 0.8. While the errors in  $y_2$  and  $y_4$ , actually are 0.052 and 0.152.

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And thus, we see that the approximate solution gets better and better that is closer to the exact solution as we reduce the size of  $h$ , but the process is not very rapid. And hence, we study a modification of this method known as improved Euler's method.

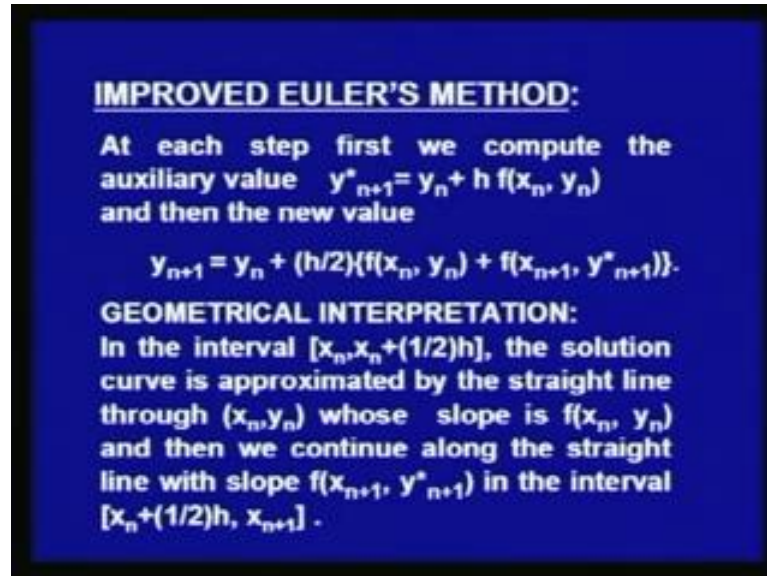
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Now, if we take more terms in the Taylor series in the equation number 10 in to account, it lead us to numerical methods of higher order and precision, but the computation of  $f'$  and  $f''$  becomes complicated. So, our aim is now to avoid their computations and replace it by computing  $f$  for a suitable chosen auxiliary value of  $x, y$ ,

the method is called as improved Euler method or improved Euler-Cauchy method sometimes it is also called as Heun's method.

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**IMPROVED EULER'S METHOD:**

At each step first we compute the auxiliary value  $y_{n+1}^* = y_n + h f(x_n, y_n)$  and then the new value

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + (h/2)\{f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}^*)\}.$$

**GEOMETRICAL INTERPRETATION:**

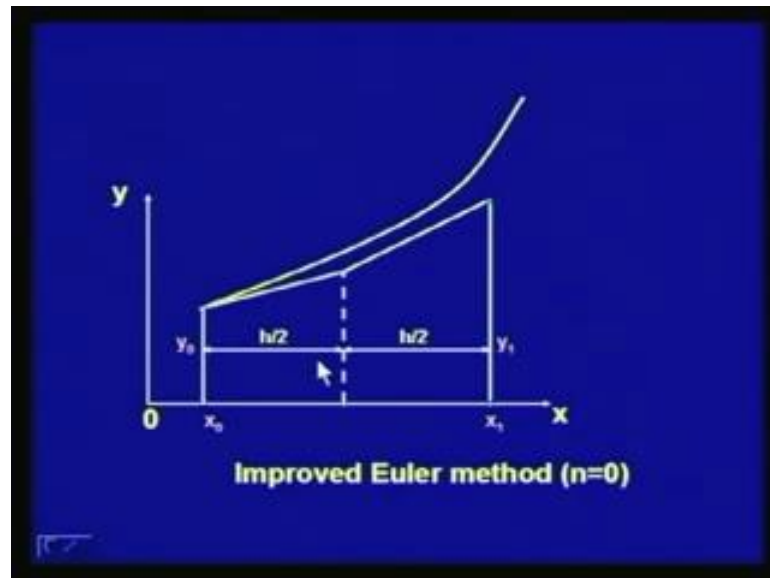
In the interval  $[x_n, x_n + (1/2)h]$ , the solution curve is approximated by the straight line through  $(x_n, y_n)$  whose slope is  $f(x_n, y_n)$  and then we continue along the straight line with slope  $f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}^*)$  in the interval  $[x_n + (1/2)h, x_{n+1}]$ .

So, now let us study improved Euler's method, in this method at each step first we compute the auxiliary value  $y_{n+1}^* = y_n + h f(x_n, y_n)$ . And then we determine the new value of  $y$  that is  $y_{n+1}$  the formula  $y_{n+1} = y_n + h/2 [f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}^*)]$ , now let us study geometrical interpretation of this method.

In the interval  $x_n$  to  $x_n + \text{half } h$ , the solution curve is approximated by the straight line through  $x_n, y_n$  whose slope is  $f(x_n, y_n)$  and then we continue along the straight line with slope  $f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}^*)$  in the interval  $x_n + \text{half } h$  to  $x_n + h$ . You can see that in this formula  $y_{n+1} = y_n + h/2 [f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}^*)]$ , we can direct it in to 2 parts,  $y_n + h/2 f(x_n, y_n)$ .

So, that is the value which we get by taking this straight line through  $x_n, y_n$  whose slope is  $f(x_n, y_n)$  in the interval  $x_n$  to  $x_n + \text{half } h$  at  $x_n + \text{half } h$ . The value of  $y$  will be from this stated line will come out to be  $y_n + h/2 f(x_n, y_n)$  and then we continue along the straight line, whose slope is  $f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}^*)$  in the interval  $x_n + \text{half } h$  to  $x_n + h$  and that will give us the value of  $y_{n+1}$ .

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Let us, see this figure for  $n$  equal to 0, this is the solution curve of the initial value problem and this is the point  $x$  naught  $y$  naught. This is the tangent to the curve at the point  $x$  naught  $y$  naught because the slope of the tangent to the curve at the point  $x$  naught  $y$  naught is  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  at  $x$  equal to  $x$  naught which is  $f(x$  naught  $y$  naught).

So, in the interval  $x$  naught to  $x$  naught plus  $\frac{h}{2}$ , we get the value of  $y_1^*$  from here this is  $y_1^*$  and then we continue along the straight line this one, whose slope is at  $f(x_1, y_1^*)$ . In the interval  $x$  naught plus  $\frac{h}{2}$  to  $x$  naught plus  $h$  that is  $x_1$  and then at  $x$  equal to  $x_1$  this gives us the value of  $y$  that is  $y_1$ . So, there is an error in the improved Euler's method in computing the value of  $y$  at  $x$  equal to  $x$  naught plus  $h$ .

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In this method, the equation  $y_{n+1}^* = y_n + h f(x_n, y_n)$  is called the predictor while the equation

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + (h/2)\{f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}^*)\}.$$

is called the corrector of  $y_{n+1}$ .

So, it is called a predictor-corrector method.

In this method the equation  $y_{n+1}^* = y_n + h f(x_n, y_n)$  is called the predictor while the equation  $y_{n+1} = y_n + h/2 [f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}^*)]$  is called the corrector of  $y_{n+1}$ . So, it is called a predictor-corrector method.

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**EXAMPLE:**  
Using improved Euler's method, solve

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y, \quad y(0) = 0$$

for  $0 \leq x \leq 1$  by taking  $h=0.2$ .

**Solution.** Taking  $h = 0.2$ , we have

$$y_{n+1}^* = y_n + 0.2(x_n + y_n)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} y_{n+1} &= y_n + (.2/2)\{(x_n + y_n) + (x_{n+1} + y_{n+1}^*)\}. \\ &= y_n + (.1)\{(1.2)(x_n + y_n) + x_{n+1} + y_n\} \\ &= y_n + (0.22)(x_n + y_n) + 0.02 \end{aligned}$$

Let us consider an example on this method using improved Euler's method solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y$ ,  $y(0) = 0$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 1$  by taking  $h$  equal to  $0.2$ . Taking  $h$  equal to  $0.2$  we will have  $y_{n+1}^* = y_n + 0.2(x_n + y_n)$



$x_n$  plus  $y_n$  here  $f(x, y)$  is  $x + y$ . So,  $f(x_n, y_n)$  is  $x_n + y_n$  and  $y_{n+1}$  will be  $y_n$  plus  $h$  by 2 that is  $.2$  by 2,  $f(x_n, y_n)$  that is  $x_n + y_n$ ,  $f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1})$  that is  $x_{n+1} + y_{n+1}$ .

And then we have  $y_{n+1}$  and then  $x_{n+1}$ ,  $y_{n+1}$  is star is  $y_n + 0.2(x_n + y_n)$ . So, we put that value here and we see that we have  $1.2$  in to  $x_n + y_n$  and then  $x_{n+1} + y_{n+1}$ ,  $x_{n+1}$  is  $x_n + h$  that is  $x_n + .2$ . So, we get  $y_{n+1}$  as  $y_n + 0.22$  in to  $x_n + y_n + 0.02$ .

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$n$	$x_n$	$y_n$	$0.22(x_n + y_n) + 0.02$	Exact Values	Error
0	0.0	0.000	0.0200	0.000	0.000
1	0.2	0.0200	0.0684	0.0214	0.014
2	0.4	0.0884	0.1274	0.0918	0.0034
3	0.6	0.2158	0.1995	0.2221	0.0063
4	0.8	0.4153	0.2874	0.4255	0.0102
5	1.0	0.7027		0.7183	0.0156

This table gives us the values of  $y$  corresponding to the values of  $x$  with the step size  $h$  equal to  $0.2$ . When  $n$  is  $0$   $x_0$  is  $0$   $y_0$  is  $0$  and we compute the value of  $.22x_n + y_n + 0.02$  as  $0.0200$ . We then get the value of  $y$  at  $x$  equal to  $0.2$  as  $0.0200$ ,  $y$  at  $0.4$  comes out to be  $0.0884$ ,  $y$  at  $0.6$  comes out to be  $0.2158$   $y$  at  $0.8$  comes out to be  $0.4153$  and  $y$  at  $1.0$  comes out to be  $0.7027$ .

The actual values of  $y$  are  $0.214$ ,  $0.918$ ,  $0.2221$ ,  $0.4255$ ,  $0.7183$ , the error that occurs in computing the values of  $y$  using this method are  $0$  here this is  $0.014$ ,  $0.0034$ ,  $0.0063$ ,  $0.0102$ ,  $0.0156$ . So, you can see from the error that occurs here in computing the values of  $y$  that this method is better than the Euler's method that we have discussed earlier.

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**ERROR:** The local error in the improved Euler's method is of order  $h^3$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\bar{f}_n = f(x_n, y(x_n))$ . Using the Taylor expansion, we have

$$(11) \quad y(x_n + h) - y(x_n) = h\bar{f}_n + \frac{1}{2}h^2\bar{f}'_n + \frac{1}{6}h^3\bar{f}''_n + \dots$$

Approximating the expression in the brackets in

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + (h/2)\{f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1})\}.$$

Now, let us discuss the error in this method, the local error in the improved Euler's method is of order  $h^3$  to prove this let us say  $\bar{f}_n$  is equal to  $f(x_n, y(x_n))$ . If we use the Taylor's expansion, we will find that  $y(x_n + h) - y(x_n)$  is equal to  $h\bar{f}_n + \frac{1}{2}h^2\bar{f}'_n + \frac{1}{6}h^3\bar{f}''_n + \dots$  because  $h \frac{d}{dx} y(x_n) = h f(x_n, y(x_n))$ . So, we will have  $\bar{f}_n$  here plus half  $h^2 \bar{f}'_n$  plus  $\frac{1}{6}h^3 \bar{f}''_n$  and so on.

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by  $\bar{f}_n + \bar{f}_{n+1}$  and again using the Taylor expansion, we obtain

$$y_{n+1} - y_n \approx \frac{1}{2}h[\bar{f}_n + \bar{f}_{n+1}]$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}h\left[\bar{f}_n + \left(\bar{f}_n + h\bar{f}'_n + \frac{1}{2}h^2\bar{f}''_n + \dots\right)\right]$$
$$(12) \quad = h\bar{f}_n + \frac{1}{2}h^2\bar{f}'_n + \frac{1}{4}h^3\bar{f}''_n + \dots$$

Subtracting (12) from (11) we get

Approximating, the expression in the brackets in  $y_{n+1}$  equal to  $y_n + h$  by 2,  $f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1})$ . If, we approximate this expression inside the brackets by  $f_n$  and  $f_{n+1}$  and again using the Taylor expansion, we find that  $y_{n+1} - y_n$  is approximately half of  $h$  into  $f_n$  and  $f_{n+1}$ . And when we use Taylor's expansion here we will get  $\frac{1}{2} h f_n + \frac{1}{2} h f_{n+1} + \frac{1}{6} h^2 f_n'' + \dots$  and so on, which will be equal to  $h f_n + \frac{1}{2} h^2 f_n'' + \dots$  and so on.

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the error as

$$\frac{h^3}{6} f_n'' - \frac{h^3}{4} f_n'' + \dots = -\frac{h^3}{12} f_n'' + \dots$$

Since  $x_n = x_0 + nh$ , the number of steps over the interval  $[x_0, x_n]$  is proportional to  $1/h$ , the global error is of order  $h^3/h = h^2$ . Hence the Improved Euler's method is called a second order method.

Now, we subtract this equation 12 from the equation 11 we will get the error as  $\frac{1}{6} h^3 f_n'' - \frac{1}{4} h^3 f_n'' + \dots$ , which is equal to  $-\frac{1}{12} h^3 f_n'' + \dots$ . So, this is the error here is of the order of  $h$  to the power 3. Now, we have  $x_n = x_0 + nh$  and thus the number of the steps over the interval  $x_0$  to  $x_n$ , which is  $n$  is proportional to  $1/h$ . And therefore the global error in this method is of order  $h^3/h$  that is  $h^2$  and. So, the improved Euler's method is called a second order method.

Now, in our lecture today we have discussed the numerical solution of an initial value problem, we discussed two methods here Euler's method, improved Euler's method in our next lecture. We shall discuss power series method for finding the solution of a homogeneous differential equation and then we will discuss the particular cases there that of the Linder's equation and the Vermin's equation that is all.

Thank you.