

Picard's Iteration Method

This method is used to find successive approximations to the unknown solution of a first order initial value problem.

Consider the IVP :

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) ; y(x_0) = y_0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

This is equivalent to the following integral equation :

$$y(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y(t)) dt \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

(1) \Rightarrow (2) by integrating.

$$(2) \Rightarrow y(x_0) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^{x_0} f(t, y(t)) dt = y_0$$

Also, diff. (2), we get

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

Since $y(t)$ is unknown, we can use that in the integral to evaluate.

So, we use $y(t) = y_0$ in the integral to get a function $y_1(t)$.

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

Then we use $y(t) = y_1(t)$ in the integral to get the next approx.

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

In general,

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

$y_1(t), y_2(t), \dots, y_n(t), \dots$
are called the Picard's iterations.

Note that all $y_n(x)$ satisfy the initial condition $y_n(x_0) = y_0$. But none of them may satisfy the ODE.

However, under some conditions on $f(x, y)$, $y_n(x)$ converges to the unique solution $y(x)$ to the IVP.

Example: $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y$; $y(0) = 0$

Note that this can be solved easily to get $y(x) = e^x - x - 1$.

Let's find the Picard's iterations.

Here, $f(x, y) = x + y$ & $x_0 = 0, y_0 = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} y_1(x) &= y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_0) dt \\ &= 0 + \int_0^x f(t, 0) dt \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore y_1(x) = \int_0^x t dt = \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} y_2(x) &= y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(t, y_1(t)) dt \\ &= 0 + \int_0^x (t + y_1(t)) dt \\ &= \int_0^x \left(t + \frac{t^2}{2} \right) dt = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} y_3(x) &= 0 + \int_0^x f(t, y_2(t)) dt \\ &= \int_0^x \left(t + \frac{t^2}{2} + \frac{t^3}{6} \right) dt \\ &= \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^4}{24} \end{aligned}$$

By induction,

$$y_n(x) = \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}, \quad n \geq 1$$

$$= \left[1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \right] - 1 - x$$

$\rightarrow e^x - 1 - x$, which is the solution.

In practice, we can use $y_n(n)$ for large enough n to approximate the solution $y(n)$ to the given IVP (when we are not able find the actual solution).

Existence and uniqueness of first order IVP

Some examples:

① $|y'| + |y| = 0$; $y(0) = 1$ has no solutions.

(because $|y'| + |y| = 0 \Rightarrow |y| = 0$
 $\Rightarrow y \equiv 0$
 $\Rightarrow y(0) = 0 \neq 1$)

② $y' = 2x$; $y(0) = 1$
has a unique soln. $y = x^2 + 1$

③ $x y' = y - 1$; $y(0) = 1$
 $y = 1 + cx$ is a solution
 for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

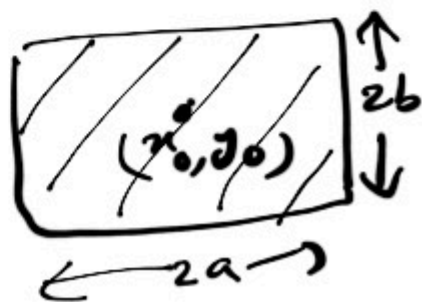
Hence, an IVP may have
 no solns., a unique or more
 than one soln.

Theorem 1 (Sufficient conditions for
 existence of solns.)

Consider the IVP: $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$; $y(x_0) = y_0$

Suppose the function $f(x, y)$ is
 continuous on a rectangle
 $R = \{ (x, y) : |x - x_0| \leq a, |y - y_0| \leq b \}$

Assume $|f(x, y)| \leq K$
 $\forall (x, y) \in R$
 for some constant K .



Then the IVP has at least one solution $y(x)$. Also, the solution must be defined for $x \in (x_0 - \alpha, x_0 + \alpha)$, where $\alpha = \min\{a, \frac{b}{K}\}$

Remark: ① The proof is nontrivial and we will not discuss it.

② The α that we get in the theorem need not be the maximum possible for a given IVP.

e.g. Consider $\frac{dy}{dx} = 1 + y^2$; $y(0) = 0$.

Let's find the maximum possible α given by Theorem 1.

Here, $f(x, y) = 1 + y^2$ is continuous everywhere. So, we can take a and b to be as large as we want.

If $R = \{(x, y) : |x| \leq a, |y| \leq b\}$,

then $|f(x, y)| = 1 + y^2 \leq 1 + b^2$
 $\forall (x, y) \in R$.

So, $K = 1 + b^2$

Then $\frac{b}{K} = \frac{b}{1+b^2} \leq \frac{1}{2}$

$$\left(\because 1+b^2-2b=(b-1)^2 \geq 0 \right. \\ \left. \Rightarrow 1+b^2 \geq 2b \right)$$

$\therefore \alpha = \min\{a, \frac{b}{K}\} \leq \frac{b}{K} \leq \frac{1}{2}$

So, the max. value α that we get using existence thm. is $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$.

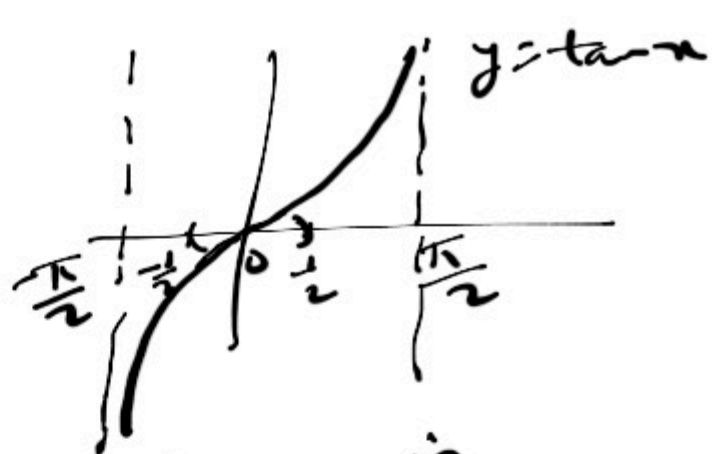
\therefore Soln. $y(x)$ must be defined in the interval $(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$.

But, we can solve the IVP as follows

$$\int \frac{dy}{1+y^2} = \int dx \Rightarrow \tan^{-1}(y) = x + c$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \tan(x+c)$$

$$y(0) = 0 \Rightarrow c = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{y = \tan x}$$



The solution $y = \tan x$ is defined on $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ which is bigger than $(-\infty, \infty)$.

Next question is about the uniqueness of solution.

We'll see under an additional condition we can guarantee the uniqueness & existence of solution to the IVP.

We'll discuss this in the next class.