

**Lecture 15**  
Numerical Approximations for IVP  
**MA 322: Scientific Computing**



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# 1 Some View Points on Euler Method

## 1.1 A Geometric View Point

Let  $y$  be the exact solution for the IVP

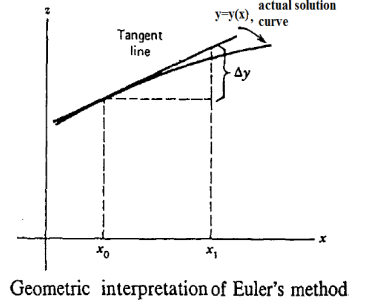
$$y' = f(x, y(x)), \quad y(x_0) = y_0. \quad (1)$$

Consider the graph of the solution  $y = y(x)$ , as shown in the figure. Form the tangent line to the graph of  $y = y(x)$  at  $x_0$ , and use this line as an approximation to the curve for  $x_0 \leq x \leq x_1$ . Then

$$y(x_1) \approx y(x_0) + \Delta y \quad \& \quad \frac{\Delta y}{h} = \tan \theta = y'(x_0) = f(x_0, y(x_0)) = f(x_0, y_0).$$

Combining above equations, we obtain

$$y(x_1) \approx y(x_0) + hf(x_0, y_0) = y_1 \quad (\text{say}).$$



**Remark:** By repeating this argument on  $[x_1, x_2], [x_2, x_3], \dots$ , we obtain the general formula

$$y(x_{n+1}) \approx y_{n+1} = y_n + hf(x_n, y_n). \quad (2)$$

Note that  $y(x_n)$  denotes the actual value of the true solution at  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  is the approximation of  $y(x_n)$  at  $x_n$ . For this, we have used the notation  $y(x_n) \approx y_n$ . Here, the points  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots$ , with  $x_{i+1} = x_i + h$ , are known as grid points and the collection  $\{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots\}$  are known as mesh and  $h > 0$  is called the mesh parameter. Since the grid points are equally spaced, so the mesh  $\{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots\}$  is called uniform mesh. Otherwise it is known as non-uniform mesh.

## 1.2 Taylor Series

Expanding  $y(x_{n+1})$  about  $x_n$ , we have

$$y(x_{n+1}) = y(x_n + h) = y(x_n) + hy'(x_n) + \frac{h^2}{2}y''(\xi_n), \quad x_n \leq \xi_n \leq x_{n+1}. \quad (3)$$

Note, that for twice continuously differential solution  $y$ , we have

$$\frac{h^2}{2}y''(\xi_n) \leq \frac{h^2}{2}\|y''\|_\infty = Ch^2,$$

where  $C = \|y''\|_\infty > 0$ . For the simplicity of the presentation, we call the remainder term  $\frac{h^2}{2}y''(\xi_n)$  of order  $h^2$  and it is denoted by

$$\frac{h^2}{2}y''(\xi_n) = O(h^2). \quad (4)$$

**Remark:** In general, a term  $T$  is called of order  $h^k$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , if there exists a positive constant  $C$ , independent of mesh parameter  $h$ , such that

$$T \leq Ch^k.$$

In that case, we write  $T = O(h^k)$ . This definition will be frequently used when we discuss the finite difference methods for partial differential equations.

Using (4) in (3), we obtain

$$y(x_{n+1}) = y(x_n + h) = y(x_n) + hf(x_n, y(x_n)) + O(h^2). \quad (5)$$

By dropping the last term and using the notation  $y(x_n) \approx y_n$ , we obtain

$$y(x_{n+1}) \approx y_n + hf(x_n, y_n) = y_{n+1}. \quad (6)$$

### 1.3 Numerical Differentiation

Consider the slope of the tangent at  $(x_n, y_n)$ , that is  $y'(x_n)$ , and which is given by

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{y(x_n + h) - y(x_n)}{h} = y'(x_n) \quad \text{Or}$$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{y(x_{n+1}) - y(x_n)}{h} = y'(x_n),$$

which implies

$$y'(x_n) = \frac{y(x_{n+1}) - y(x_n)}{h} + r(h), \quad (7)$$

where  $r(h) \rightarrow 0$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$ . Therefore,  $y'(x_n)$  can be approximated by

$$\frac{y(x_{n+1}) - y(x_n)}{h}.$$

More precisely,

$$\frac{y(x_{n+1}) - y(x_n)}{h} \approx y'(x_n) = f(x_n, y(x_n)) \approx f(x_n, y_n). \quad (8)$$

Here, we have used the fact that  $y(x_n) \approx y_n$ . Thus, finally, we arrive at

$$y(x_{n+1}) \approx y_n + hf(x_n, y_n) = y_{n+1}. \quad (9)$$

### 1.4 Numerical Integration

Integrate  $y' = f(x, y(x))$  over  $[x_n, x_{n+1}]$  to have

$$y(x_{n+1}) = y(x_n) + \int_{x_n}^{x_{n+1}} f(t, y(t)) dt = y(x_n) + \int_{x_n}^{x_{n+1}} g(t) dt. \quad (10)$$

Then consider the simple numerical quadrature rule

$$\int_{x_n}^{x_{n+1}} g(t) dt \approx hg(x_n), \quad (11)$$

which is known as *left-hand rectangular rule*. Applying (11) in the equation (10), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} y(x_{n+1}) &= y(x_n) + \int_{x_n}^{x_{n+1}} f(t, y(t)) dt = y(x_n) + \int_{x_n}^{x_{n+1}} g(t) dt \\ &= y(x_n) + hf(x_n, y(x_n)) \\ &\approx y_n + hf(x_n, y_n). \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

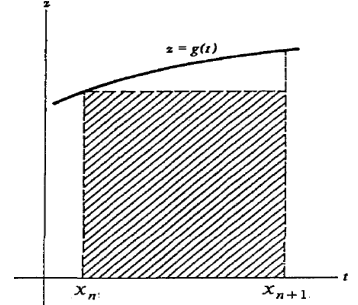
Remark:

- Consider the Euler method

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + hf(x_n, y_n), \quad (13)$$

where  $y_n \approx y(x_n)$ . Therefore, approximation at  $n + 1$ th step depends only on the information of  $n$ th step. Such methods are known as single-step method. Otherwise it is called multi-step method.

- Of the three analytical derivations method in Sections 1.2-1.4, both methods in Section 1.2 and Section 1.4 are the simplest cases of a set of increasingly accurate methods. Approach in Section 1.2 leads to the single-step methods, particularly the Runge-Kutta formulas. Approach describe in Section 1.4 leads to multistep methods, especially the predictor-corrector methods. Perhaps surprisingly, method describe in Section 1.3 often does not lead to other successful methods.



## 2 Convergence of Euler Method

### 2.1 Example

Before analyzing the convergence of Euler method, we give some numerical examples. They also serve as illustrations for the convergence and demonstrates the efficiency of the Euler method.

**Example:** Consider the equation  $y' = y$ ,  $y(0) = 1$ . Its true solution is  $y(x) = e^x$ . Numerical results are given in the following table for several values of  $h$  (Source: An Introduction to Numerical Analysis, by Atkinson). For given mesh parameter  $h$ , let  $y_n^h(x)$  be the approximation of  $y(x)$ . Then the error at  $x$  is given by  $y(x) - y_n^h(x)$ .

For the calculation of  $y_n^h(x)$ , for given  $h$ , we first fix  $n$  such that  $x = x_{n+1} = x_n + h$ . For the present example, suppose we wish to evaluate the approximate solution at  $x = .40$  for  $h = 0.2$ . Now, calculate the grid points with  $h = .20$  and  $x_0 = 0$ . The grid points are

$$x_0 = 0, \quad x_1 = x_0 + h = 0.2, \quad x_2 = x_1 + h = 0.4, \dots \quad (14)$$

Thus, we need to calculate  $y_2$ , which is given by

$$y_2 = y_1 + hf(x_1, y_1) = y_1 + hy_1, \quad y_1 = y_0 + hf(x_0, y_0) = 1 + .2 \times y_0 = 1.2,$$

which gives

$$y_2 = 1.2 + .2 \times 1.2 = 1.44.$$

Similarly, for a given  $h$ , we can calculate the approximation at any  $x$ .

<b>Euler's method, example (1)</b>				
	$x$	$y_h(x)$	$\mathcal{V}(x)$	$\mathcal{V}(x) - y_h(x)$
$h = .2$	.40	1.44000	1.49182	.05182
	.80	2.07360	2.22554	.15194
	1.20	2.98598	3.32012	.33413
	1.60	4.29982	4.95303	.65321
	2.00	6.19174	7.38906	1.19732
$h = .1$	.40	1.46410	1.49182	.02772
	.80	2.14359	2.22554	.08195
	1.20	3.13843	3.32012	.18169
	1.60	4.59497	4.95303	.35806
	2.00	6.72750	7.38906	.66156
$h = .05$	.40	1.47746	1.49182	.01437
	.80	2.18287	2.22554	.04267
	1.20	3.22510	3.32012	.09502
	1.60	4.76494	4.95303	.18809
	2.00	7.03999	7.38906	.34907

Remark:

- Note that the error at each point  $x$  decreases by about half when  $h$  is halved. For example, see the errors at  $x = .40$  for different  $h$ .

<b>Error at x=.40</b>				
	$x$	$y_h(x)$	$\mathcal{V}(x)$	$\mathcal{V}(x) - y_h(x)$
$h = .2$	.40	1.44000	1.49182	.05182
$h = .1$	.40	1.46410	1.49182	.02772
$h = .05$	.40	1.47746	1.49182	.01437

- Our next objective is to justify why the error at each point  $x$  decreases by about half when  $h$  is halved. This is done by convergence analysis.