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Tables for the Step-by-Step Integration of Ordinary Differential Equations of the First Order

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Abstract. A study is made of the step-by-step integration of ordinary differential equations of the first order by means of formulas obtained from the Gregory-Newton backward interpolating formula. Tables of relevant constants are presented.

Consider the ordinary differential equation of the first order

$$y' = f(y, x) \tag{1}$$

which is to be integrated step by step over x = a(h)b. A natural method for accomplishing this integration is a predictor-corrector process based upon a suitable finite difference interpolating formula.

Let x_0 be a tabular point within (a, b) and assume that y is known at the points $x_{-j} = x_0 - yh$ $(j = 0, 1, \dots, (x_0 - a)/h)$. One can then write for y' the approximation to it which is provided by the Gregory-Newton backward interpolating formula

$$y' = \sum_{j=0}^{J} \frac{1}{j!} (u+j-1)^{[j]} \Delta^{j} \int_{-j} + h^{J+1} \frac{1}{(J+1)!} (u+J)^{[J+1]} f^{(J+1)}(\xi)$$
 (2)

where $u = (x - x_0)/h$, $\Delta^j f_{-j}$ is the jth forward difference of y' about $x_{-j}, x_{-j} \leq \xi \leq x_0$, and $(u - l)^{(j)}$ is the factorial polynomial

$$(u-l)^{(j)} = (u-l)(u-l-1)\cdots(u-l-j+1)$$
 (3)

which possesses the expansion

$$(u-l)^{[j]} = \sum_{k=0}^{j} \iota S_k^{\ j} u^{j-k} \tag{3'}$$

where the $_{l}S_{k}^{j}$ are the generalized Stirling numbers of the first kind [1]. The formula (2) can be integrated in two fashions. In the first it is assumed that y_{0} , y_{-1} , ..., y_{-J} are accurately known and that a *prediction* of $y_{1} = y(x_{1})$ is desired:

$$y(x_1) = y_0 + h \sum_{j=0}^{J} \beta_j \Delta^j f_{-j} + E_J$$
 PREDICTOR (4)

where the error E_J is given by

$$|E_{J}| \le h^{J+2} \beta_{J+1} |f^{(J+1)}|_{\max}$$
 (5)

and

$$\beta_{j} = \frac{1}{j!} \int_{0}^{1} (u + j - 1)^{(j)} du$$
 (6a)

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$$=\frac{1}{j!}\sum_{p=0}^{j}\frac{1}{j+1-p}{}_{-(j-1)}S_{p}{}^{j} \tag{6b}$$

$$=\frac{\aleph_i}{L(j)j!} \tag{6e}$$

where L(j) is the least common denominator of 1/1, 1/2, \cdots , 1/(j + 1). In the second method it is assumed that y_{-1}, \cdots, y_{-J} are accurately known, that y_0 is approximately known, and that a corrected value of y_0 is desired:

$$y(x_0) = y_{-1} + \sum_{j=0}^{J} \beta_j^* \Delta^j f_{-j} + E_J^*$$
 Corrector (7)

where the error E_J^* is given by

$$|E_{J}^{*}| \le h^{J+2} |\beta_{J+1}^{*}| |f^{(J+1)}|_{\max}$$
 (8)

and

$$\beta_{j}^{*} = \frac{1}{j!} \int_{-1}^{0} (u + j - 1)^{(j)} du$$
 (9a)

$$=\frac{1}{j!}\sum_{p=0}^{j}\frac{(-1)^{j-p}}{j+1-p}{}^{-(j-1)}S_{p}^{j} \tag{9b}$$

$$=\frac{\aleph_{j}^{*}}{L(j)j!}.$$
(9e)

This corrected value of y_0 can itself be used in (7) to obtain what is presumably a still better value of y_0 , and this process can be repeated indefinitely until it converges to a final value or, in bad cases, is seen to be divergent. The use of (4) to obtain an initial estimate and the repeated use of (7) to improve this value constitutes a well-known predictor-corrector process.

The quantities β_j and β_j^* , as defined by (6a) and (9a), respectively, have been described by Collatz [2] and tabulated by him for j = 0(1)6. The increasing use of digital machines—often in double precision—for the integration of differential equations has made a somewhat extended table of these coefficients desirable and the existence now [1] of extensive tables of the iS_k^j has made possible the simple computation from (6b) and (9b). Table I presents the results of such an extension; the table entries were checked using the recursion relation [2],

$$\beta_{j+1} = \beta_j + \beta_{j+1}^* \,. \tag{10}$$

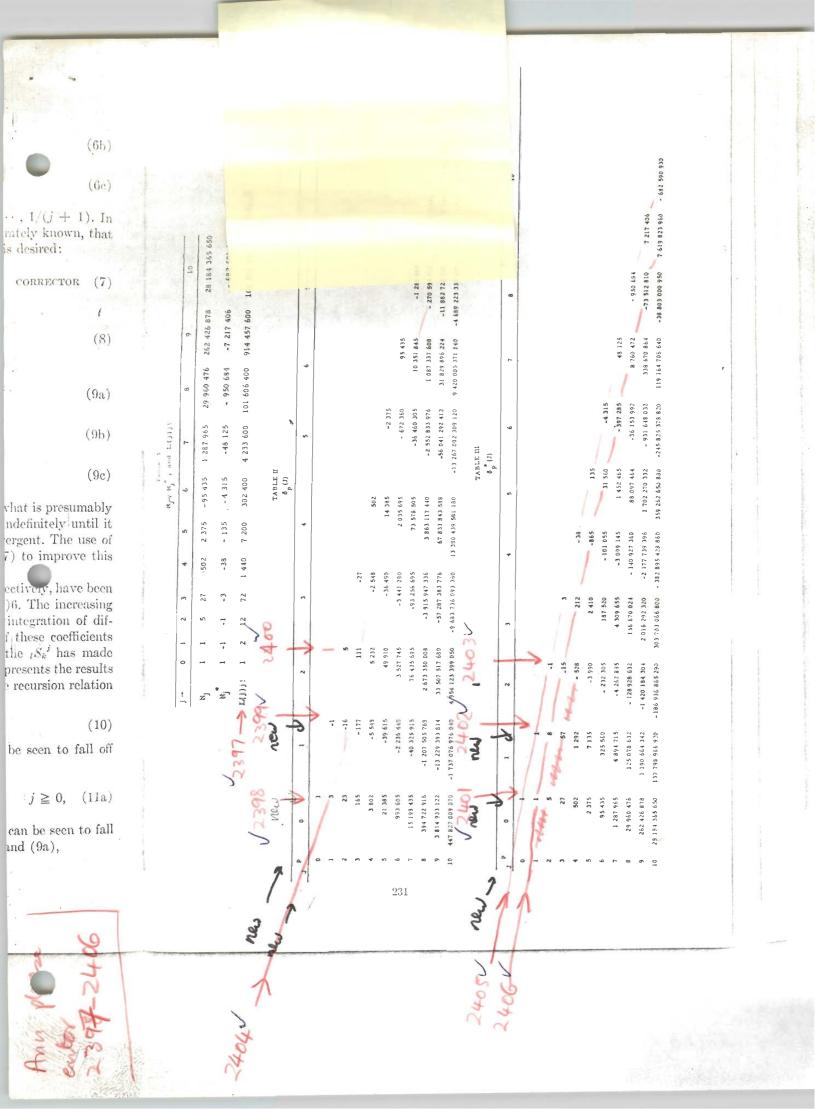
Figure 1 presents a graph of these coefficients. The β_i can be seen to fall off slowly and can be shown, from (6a), to satisfy the inequality

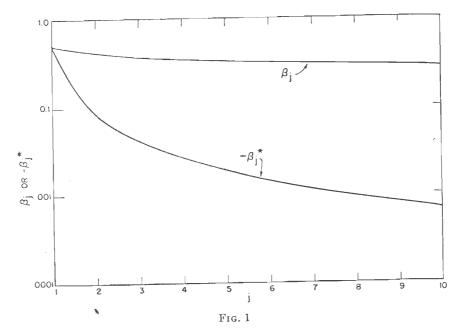
$$\frac{j}{j+1} \le \frac{\beta_{j+1}}{\beta_j} < 1, \qquad j \ge 0, \quad (11a)$$

which implies that their decline is very slow indeed. The β_i^* can be seen to fall off somewhat faster; this is to be expected since, from (6a) and (9a),

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$$|\beta_j^*| < \frac{\beta_j}{j-1}, \qquad j \ge 2. \quad (11b)$$

These data point up the intrinsic superiorities of corrector formulas over predictor formulas: (i) that, since $|\beta_i^*| < |\beta_i|$ the series (7) converges faster than the series (4), and (ii) that, since the β_j^* decay much faster than the β_j , the buildup of computational error in the taking of successive differences will, for a given number of terms in the interpolating series, have much less effect on the final answer when a corrector formula is used.

In actual practice the calculation of the several differences is often not carried out. Instead, the differences are expanded as

$$\Delta^{j} f_{-j} = \sum_{p=0}^{j} \gamma_{pj} f_{-p} \tag{12}$$

and (4) rewritten as

$$y(x_1) = y_0 + h \sum_{j=0}^{J} \sum_{p=0}^{j} \gamma_{pj} \beta_j f_{-p} + E_J$$
 (13a)

$$= y_0 + h \sum_{n=0}^{J} \alpha_p(J) f_{-p} + E_J$$
 (13b)

$$= y_0 + \frac{h}{L(J)J!} \sum_{p=0}^{J} \delta_p(J) f_{-p} + E_J$$
 (13c)

while (7) can be rewritten as

$$y(x_0) = y_{-1} + h \sum_{j=0}^{J} \sum_{p=0}^{j} \gamma_{pj} \beta_j^* \mathcal{J}_{-p} + E_J^*$$
 (14a)

The calculation (13c) or (14c) nated. Tables of p = 0(1)J and considerable exte The values of δ_1

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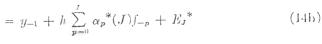
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$$= y_{-1} + \frac{h}{L(J)J!} \sum_{p=0}^{J} \delta_p^*(J) J_{-p} + E_J^*.$$
 (14e)

The calculation of the next value of y can then be accomplished directly from (13c) or (14c) and the labor of maintaining a difference table thereby eliminated. Tables of $\delta_p(J)$ and $\delta_p^*(J)$ have been computed for J=0(1)10 and $\rho=0(1)J$ and are given in Tables II and III, respectively; they represent a considerable extension over the existing tables [2, 3] which go at most to J=5.1 The values of $\delta_p(J)$ and $\delta_p^*(J)$ were checked by the relations [2],

$$1 = \sum_{p=0}^{J} \alpha_p(J), \qquad 1 = \sum_{p=0}^{J} \alpha_p^*(J), \qquad (15a, b)$$

and by having key portions of the computations individually repeated.

The selection of a predictor-corrector pair for a specific problem is by no means simple, it being necessary to choose J and h with care to minimize the effects of roundoff and truncation error. However, for modern digital machines operated in double precision, J=10 will probably be as large as is profitable since by this point the computing error generated in calculating the $\Delta^i f_{-j}$ will be growing much faster than the β_j^* will be decreasing, and the total error due to this cause will normally be at least as important as the truncation error E_J^* . Finally, for suitable f(y, x), it may be desirable to suspend the common practice of using a low-order predictor to obtain an estimate of the next point which can then be improved using a high-order corrector; the existence of high-order predictors makes the initial use of a high-order predictor formula and the suspension of corrector iterations seem attractive where the superior roundoff suppressing properties of a corrector formula are not essential.

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- 3. HENRICI, P. Discrete Variable Methods in Ordinary Differential Equations. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1962.

 $j \ge 2. \quad (11b)$

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¹ The values of $\alpha_p(5)$ given in [3] are believed to be in error.