

On Solution of Special Case of Two Point Second Order Boundary Value Problems By using Semi-Analytic Method

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Abstract

In this paper a new method is proposed for the solution of special case of two-point second order boundary-value problems(TPBVP) ,that is we concerned with constructing polynomial solutions to two point second order boundary value problems for ordinary differential equation.

A semi-analytic technique using two-point osculatory interpolation with the fit equal numbers of derivatives at the end points of an interval $[0,1]$ is compared with conventional methods via a series of examples and is shown to be that seems to converge faster and more accurately than the conventional methods and generally superior, particularly for Variations on a problems .

Also we introduce some general observations about control of a residual and control of the true error and we prove, there is a more useful connection between scaled residual and true error.

1. introduction

The most general form of the problem to be considered is:

$$y'' = f(x, y, y'), \quad x \in [a, b],$$

with boundary conditions : $y(a) = A$, $y(b) = B$

there is no loss of generality in taking $a = 0$ and $b = 1$, and we will sometimes employ this slight simplification. We view f as a generally nonlinear function of y and y' , but for the present, we will take $f = f(x)$ only. For such a problem to have a solution it is generally necessary either that $f(x) \neq 0$ hold, or that $A \neq 0$ at one or both ends of the interval. When $f(x) \equiv 0$, and $A = 0$, $B=0$ the BVP is said to be homogeneous and will in general have only the trivial solution, $y(x) \equiv 0, [1]$. In this chapter we introduce a new technique for the qualitative and quantitative analysis of non homogeneous TPBVP using two-point polynomial interpolation .

2. Approximation Theory

The primary aim of a general approximation is to represent non-arithmetic quantities by arithmetic quantities so that the accuracy can be ascertained to a desired degree. Secondly, we are also concerned with the amount of computation required to achieve this accuracy. A complicated function $f(x)$ usually is approximated by an easier function of the form $\varphi(x; a_0, \dots, a_n)$ where a_0, \dots, a_n are parameters to be determined so as to characterize the best approximation of f .

In this paper, we shall consider only the interpolatory approximation. From Weierstrass Approximation Theorem, it follows that one can always find a polynomial that is arbitrarily close to a given function on some finite interval. This means that the approximation error is bounded and can be reduced by the choice of the adequate polynomial. Unfortunately, Weierstrass Approximation Theorem is not a constructive one, i.e. it does not present a way how to obtain such a polynomial. i.e. the interpolation problem can also be formulated in another way, viz. as the answer to the following question: How to find a .good. representative of a function that is not known explicitly, but only at some points of the domain of interest. In this paper we use Osculatory Interpolation since has high order with the same given points in this domain.

2.1. Osculatory Interpolation [2]

Given $\{x_i\}$, $i = 1, \dots, k$ and values $f_i^{(0)}, \dots, f_i^{(r_i)}$, where r_i are nonnegative integers and $f_i = f(x_i)$. We want to construct a polynomial $P(x)$ such that

$$P^{(j)}(x_i) = f_i^{(j)} \quad \dots \dots \dots \quad (1)$$

for $i = 1, \dots, k$ and $j = 0, \dots, r_i$. Such a polynomial is said to be an Osculatory interpolating polynomial of a function f .

Remark

The degree of $P(x)$ is at most $\sum_{i=1}^k (r_i + 1) - 1$

In this paper we use two-point osculatory interpolation [2]. Essentially this is a generalization of interpolation using Taylor polynomials and for that reason osculatory interpolation is sometimes referred to as two-point Taylor interpolation. The idea is to approximate a function $y(x)$ by a polynomial $P(x)$ in which values of $y(x)$ and any number of its derivatives at given points are fitted by the corresponding function values and derivatives of $P(x)$.

In this paper we are particularly concerned with fitting function values and derivatives at the two end points of a finite interval, say $[0,1]$, wherein a useful and succinct way of writing an osculatory interpolant $P_{2n+1}(x)$ of degree $2n + 1$ was given for example by Phillips [3] as:

$$P_{2n+1}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \{y^{(j)}(0) q_j(x) + (-1)^j y^{(j)}(1) q_j(1-x)\} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

$$q_j(x) = (x^j / j!)(1-x)^{n+1} \sum_{s=0}^{n-j} \binom{n+s}{s} x^s = Q_j(x) / j! \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

so that (2) with (3) satisfies

$$y^{(r)}(0) = P_{2n+1}^{(r)}(0), \quad y^{(r)}(1) = P_{2n+1}^{(r)}(1), \quad r=0,1,2,\dots,n.$$

implying that $P_{2n+1}(x)$ agrees with the appropriately truncated Taylor series for $y(x)$ about $x = 0$ and $x = 1$. The error on $[0, 1]$ is given by

$$R_{2n+1} = y(x) - P_{2n+1}(x) = \frac{(-1)^{n+1} x^{(n+1)} (1-x)^{n+1} y^{(2n+2)}(\xi)}{(2n+2)!} \quad \text{where } 0 < \xi < 1 \text{ and } y^{(2n+2)} \text{ is}$$

assumed to be continuous.

The osculatory interpolant for $P_{2n+1}(x)$ may converge to $y(x)$ in $[0,1]$ irrespective of whether the intervals of convergence of the constituent series intersect or are disjoint. The important consideration here is whether $R_{2n+1} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for all x in $[0,1]$. In the application to the boundary value problems in this thesis such convergence with n is always confirmed numerically. We observe that (2) fits an equal number of derivatives at each end point but it is possible and indeed sometimes desirable to use polynomials which fit different numbers of derivatives at the end points of an interval. As an example of a two-point osculatory interpolant we may take $n = 2$ so that (2) with (3) becomes the quintic

$$P_5(x) = (1-x)^3 (1+3x+6x^2) y(0) + x^3 (10-15x+6x^2) y(1) + x(1-x)^3 (1+3x) y'(0) - x^3 (1-x) (4-3x) y'(1) + 1/2x^2 (1-x)^3 y''(0) + 1/2x^3 (1-x)^2 y''(1)$$

Satisfying :

$$P_5(0) = y(0), \quad P_5'(0) = y'(0), \quad P_5''(0) = y''(0).$$

$$P_5(1) = y(1), \quad P_5'(1) = y'(1), \quad P_5''(1) = y''(1).$$

Finally we observe that (2) can be written directly in terms of the Taylor coefficients a_i and b_i about $x = 0$ and $x = 1$ respectively, as

$$P_{2n+1}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \{ a_j Q_j(x) + (-1)^j b_j Q_j(1-x) \} \dots \dots \dots (4).$$

Solution Of Two Point Second-Order Boundary Value Problems

We consider the boundary value problem

$$y'' + f(x, y, y') = 0 \quad \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

$$g_i(y(0), y(1), y'(0), y'(1)) = 0, \quad i=1, 2 \quad \dots\dots (6)$$

where f, g_1, g_2 are in general nonlinear functions of their arguments and g_1 and g_2 are given in three kinds [4]:

- 1- $y(0)=a_0, y(1)=b_0 \dots\dots(6a)$, and we call this kind Dirichlet condition (value specified).
- 2- $y'(0) = a_1, y'(1) = b_1 \dots\dots(6b)$, and we call this kind Neumann condition (Derivative specified).
- 3- $c_0y'(0)+c_1y(0)=a, d_0y'(1)+d_1y(1)= b \dots\dots(6c)$, where c_0, c_1, d_0, d_1 are all positive constants not all are zero but c_1, d_0 are equal to zero or c_0, d_1 are equal to zero and we call this kind Mixed condition (Gradient & value).

The simple idea behind the use of two-point polynomials is to replace $y(x)$ in problem (5)–(6), or an alternative formulation of it, by a P_{2n+1} which enables any unknown boundary values or derivatives of $y(x)$ to be computed. The first step therefore is to construct the P_{2n+1} . To do this we need the Taylor coefficients of $y(x)$ at $x = 0$:

$$y = a_0 + a_1x + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} a_i x^i \quad \dots\dots\dots(7a)$$

into (5) and equate coefficients of powers of x . The resulting system of equations can be solved to obtain a_i (a_0, a_1) for all $i \geq 2$. Also we need the Taylor coefficients of $y(x)$ at $x = 1$. Using MATLAB throughout we simply insert the series forms:

$$y = b_0 + b_1(x-1) + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} b_i (x-1)^i \quad \dots\dots\dots(7b)$$

into (5) and equate coefficients of powers of $(x-1)$. The resulting system of equations can be solved to obtain b_i (b_0, b_1) for all $i \geq 2$. The notation implies that the coefficients depend only on the indicated unknowns a_0, a_1, b_0, b_1 . The algebraic manipulations needed for this process. We are now in a position to construct a $P_{2n+1}(x)$ from (7) of the form (2) and use it as a replacement in the problem (5)–(6). Since we have only the four unknowns to compute for any n we only need to generate two equations from this procedure as two equations are already supplied by the boundary conditions (6). An obvious way to do this would be to satisfy the

equation (5) itself at two selected points $x = c_1, x = c_2$ in $[0,1]$ so that the two required equations become

$$P''_{2n+1}(c_i) + f\{P_{2n+1}(c_i), P'_{2n+1}(c_i), c_i\} = 0, \quad i=1,2. \quad \dots\dots\dots(8)$$

An alternative approach is to recast the problem in an integral form before doing the replacement. Extensive computations have shown that this generally provides a more accurate polynomial representation for a given n . We therefore use this alternative formulation throughout this thesis although we should keep in mind that the procedure based on (8) is a viable option and shares many common features with the approach outlined below. Of the many ways we could provide an integral formulation we adopt the following. We first integrate (5) to obtain

$$y'(x) - a_1 + \int_0^x f(y(s), y'(s), s) ds = 0 \quad \dots\dots\dots(9)$$

and again to find

$$y(x) - a_0 - x a_1 + \int_0^x (x-s) f(y(s), y'(s), s) ds = 0 \quad \dots\dots\dots(10)$$

where $a_0 = y(0)$ and $a_1 = y'(0)$. Putting $x = 1$ in (2.5) and (2.6) then gives

$$b_1 - a_1 + \int_0^1 f(y(s), y'(s), s) ds = 0 \quad \dots\dots\dots(11)$$

and

$$b_0 - a_0 - a_1 + \int_0^1 (1-s) f(y(s), y'(s), s) ds = 0 \quad \dots\dots\dots(12)$$

where $b_0 = y(1)$ and $b_1 = y'(1)$.

The precise way we make the replacement of $y(x)$ with a $P_{2n+1}(x)$ in (11) and (12) depends on the nature of $f(y, y', x)$ and will be explained in the examples which follow. In any event the important point to note is that once this replacement has been made, the equations (6), (11) and (12) constitute the four equations we require to determine the set $\{a_0, b_0, a_1, b_1\}$. As we shall see the fact that the number of unknowns is independent of the number of derivatives fitted represents perhaps the most important feature of the method.

We make the following points at this stage :

- (i) In the majority of cases where the boundary conditions are simple enough the system of algebraic equations may be reduced a priori to a system in two unknowns, since the boundary condition can be substituted directly into the integral formulations

(11) and (12), which MATLAB can be utilized to solve. That is, if we have the BC(6a), then we have only the unknown pair $\{a_1, b_1\}$ and is known the required polynomial can be constructed. For the benefit of the reader the entire procedure for Examples in section 4. And if, we have the BC(6b), then we have only the unknown pair $\{a_0, b_0\}$ and is known the required polynomial can be constructed. Also if, we have the BC(6c), then we have only the unknown pair $\{a_0, b_1\}$ or $\{a_1, b_0\}$ and is known the required polynomial can be constructed.

(ii) The method offers a certain amount of flexibility. For example we could choose to satisfy (9) and (10) at two internal points or we could use alternative integral formulations. The fact remains that whatever strategy we adopt produces a quickly convergent sequence of values of the set $\{a_0, a_1, b_0, b_1\}$ as n increases.

(iii) Throughout we assess the accuracy of the procedure by examining the convergence with n . Using a symbolic computational facility such as MATLAB, computing the required convergent is not an issue. Where possible we can also run checks on our solutions using shooting with MATLAB codes.

(iv) We compare our method with the other method. We now consider a number of examples designed to illustrate the convergence, accuracy, implementation and utility of the method. In what follows the use of bold digits in the tables is intended to give a rough visual indication of the convergence.

Remark

- 1- All computations in the following examples were performed in the MATLAB environment, Version 7, running on a Microsoft Windows 2003 Professional operating system .
- 2- In the following examples when analytical solutions are known so that we can measure the error of a solution. When analytical solutions are not known, we compare our results to values computed by other methods .

4. EXAMPLES

In this section we introduce some examples illustrates suggested method:

Linear boundary value problems (BVPs) can be used to model several physical phenomena. For example, a common problem in civil engineering concerns the deflection of a beam of rectangular cross section subject to uniform loading, while the ends of the beam are supported so that they undergo no deflection. This problem is

linear second-order TPBVP[5] .Now, we give many other examples, Variations on a theme

Example

Consider the problem :

$$y'' + \sin(y) = e^x, \text{ With BC [6]: } y(0) = 1 \text{ and } y(1) = 2.$$

The difficulty with this example is that is not in general possible to perform the integration involving $\sin(P_{2n+1}(x))$ when using (11) and (12). We could of course. Consider using alternative strategies along the line of (8). However we choose to continue with the integral form and replace $\sin(P_{2n+1}(x))$ itself by a two-point polynomial $q_{2n+1}(x)$ in (11) and (12) . Thus using (7) we can write

$$\sin(y(x)) = \sum_{j=0}^M A_j(a_0, a_1) x^j$$

$$\sin(y(x)) = \sum_{j=0}^M B_j(b_0, b_1) (x-1)^j$$

for which we can construct the $q_{2n+1}(x)$. Hence (11) and (12) become :

$$b_1 - a_1 - e + 1 + \int_0^1 q_n(s) ds = 0$$

$$3 - a_1 - e + \int_0^1 (1-s) q_n(s) ds = 0$$

The results are presented in Table 1 where the numerical check is the provided by MATLAB boundary value code.

Table 1 : The result of the methods for $n = 2, 3, 4$ of example

	P5	P7	P9
a1	0.9546437343	0.9546437343	0.9546437343
b1	1.5735564725	1.5735564725	1.5735564725
X	P5	P7	P9
0	1.0000000000	1.0000000000	1.0000000000
0.1	1.0951021206	1.0959577424	1.0962205749
0.2	1.1863425778	1.1900752412	1.1921006431
0.3	1.2719410499	1.2779504855	1.2821805540

0.4	1.3532887708	1.3586317374	1.3628107603
0.5	1.4340372818	1.4359763691	1.4373206211
0.6	1.5191871847	1.5172753788	1.5153798274
0.7	1.6141768941	1.6104660681	1.6075745287
0.8	1.7239713898	1.7212553665	1.7196810207
0.9	1.8521509691	1.8514762874	1.8512586115
1	2.0000000000	2.0000000000	2.0000000000

Then from table 1 and the relation (2) and (3) in the previous chapter we have :

$$P_5 = -.759373 X^5 + 2.08085 X^4 - 1.35539 X^3 + .792645e-1 X^2 + .954644 X + 1.$$

$$P_7 = 2.62398 X^7 - 9.30802 X^6 + 11.4208 X^5 - 4.85139 X^4 + .807006e-1 X^3 + .792645e-1 X^2 + .954644 X + 1.$$

$$P_9 = -9.15463 X^9 + 41.5400 X^8 - 71.9896 X^7 + 56.8392 X^6 - 17.4196 X^5 + .700507e-1 X^4 + .807006e-1 X^3 + .792645e-1 X^2 + .954644 X + 1.$$

Table 2: A Comparison between P_9 and other methods of example

x_i	(p_9, q_9) by using Osculatory interpolation	Chebyshev polynomial	Numerical solution
0.2	1.1921006431	1.153932	1.153931
0.5	1.4373206211	1.410936	1.410870
0.8	1.7196810207	1.728972	1.728983

Summarize thus far we have shown how we can use two-point osculatory interpolation to construct polynomial solutions to two-point boundary value problem .In general the method appears to be superior to other method in terms of accuracy and the ability to consistently identify multiple solutions of nonlinear problems where even numerical methods are problematical . Where feasible we have checked our results with those obtained from MATLAB boundary value or initial value code .

5. Error Estimation And Control

In this section we begin with some general observation about control of a residual and control of the true error and we prove that if the scaled residual is less than a given tolerance, then the true error is also less than the tolerance. And if the BVP is well- conditioned, a small residual implies a small true error, but this need not be true if the BVP is ill-conditioned [7]. A practical distinction is that the method we consider approximate $r(x)$ (residual) to a lower order than $e(x)$ (true error). Furthermore, the solution $y(x)$ is the natural weight when controlling a norm of $e(x)$ and $y'(x)$ is the natural weight when controlling a norm of $r(x)$. We describe a new BVP solver that controls a residual and the true error. We consider method suggested in this thesis that approximate the solution of $y(x)$ of (5) - (6) on a mesh $0 = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_{N+1} = 1$ by a function $P(x)$ that is smooth on subinterval $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$. The mesh spacing $h_i = x_{i+1} - x_i$ and convergence is considered as $\max_i h_i$ tended to zero. We assume that the true error $e(x) = P(x) - y(x)$ and a natural measure of error is the residual in the differential equations [8] :

$$r(x) = P''(x) - f(x, P(x), P'(x)) \dots \dots \dots (13)$$

This can be interpolated as saying that $P(x)$ is the exact solution of the problem (5)- (6) with in data $f(x, y, y')$ and $g(y(a), y(b))$ perturbed by residual, e.g,

$$P''(x) = f(x, P(x), P'(x)) + r(x)$$

5.1. Residual

In this subsection we introduce some details about how controls the size of the residual. The residual is scaled so that it has same order of convergence as the true error [9]. Residual control has important virtues: residual are well-defined no matter how bad the approximate solution, and residuals can be evaluated any where simple by evaluating:

$$f(x, P(x), P'(x)) \text{ or } g(P(0), P(1)).$$

Now the approximate solution $P(x)$ is smooth on subintervals $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$, so the size of the residual on the subinterval is measured by using a weighted norm $|r(x)|$ at each x and defining $\|r(x)\|_i = \text{Max}_{x_i \leq x \leq x_{i+1}} |r(x)|$. For a given tolerance ϵ , the aims to produce solution for which $\max_i \|r(x)\| \leq \epsilon$.

In this constructs a mesh that approximately equidistributes the residual. It might seem that controlling the scaled residual, $h_i \|r(x)\|_i$, is obviously less demanding than controlling the residual, $\|r(x)\|_i$, because of the small factor h_i , but this neglects the role of the norm. Now, subtracting (5) from (13) lead to:

$$r(x) = P''(x) - y''(x) - [f(x, P(x), P'(x)) - f(x, y(x), y'(x))] \dots\dots(14)$$

With the usual assumption that f satisfies a Lipschitz condition,

$$| f(x, P(x), P'(x)) - f(x, y(x), y'(x)) | \leq L | P(x) - y(x) | .$$

We assume that $e(x) = P(x) - y(x)$ is $O(h^{n+1})$ and $P'(x) - y'(x)$ is $O(h^n)$, so $P''(x) - y''(x)$ is $O(h^{n-1})$, hence the last term in (14) is $O(h^{n+1})$, so to leading order the residual is equal to the error in the 2nd derivative. This implies that the scaled residual is $O(h^{n+1})$, the same as the true error. Now, if the residuals are uniformly small, $P(x)$ is a good solution in the sense that it is the exact solution of a problem close to the one supplied to the solver. Further, for reasonable well-conditioned problems, small residuals imply that $P(x)$ is close to $y(x)$, even when h is not small enough [10] that the $(n+1)$ order convergence is evident.

We prove now, that there is a more useful connection between scaled residual and true error. To investigate the relationship between scaled residual and true error, we begin by integrating (14) over a subinterval of $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$, where $x_i < x \leq x_{i+1}$

$$\int_{x_i}^x r(x) dx = e'(x) - e'(x_i) - \int_{x_i}^x [f(x, P(x), P'(x)) - f(x, y(x), y'(x))] dx$$

$$\text{where : } e' = P' - y'$$

Again integrate over $[x_i, \beta]$, where $\beta \in (x_i, x_{i+1}]$, we get :

$$\int_{x_i}^{\beta} (x-s)r(s)ds = e(\beta) - e(x_i) - e'(x_i)(\beta - x_i) - \int_{x_i}^{\beta} (x-s)[f(s, P(s), P'(s)) - f(s, y(s), y'(s))] ds \dots(15)$$

Suppose now that the method of order n is super convergent at mesh point, meaning that if the method is of order n , a norm of the error at mesh points is at least $O(h^{n+1})$ [9], so that $e(x_i)$ is $O(h^{n+1})$ and $e'(x_i) = P'(x_i) - y'(x_i)$ is $O(h^n)$ and $|e(\beta)| = \|e(x)\|_i$. As argued earlier, the integrand on the right hand side of (15) is $O(h^{n+1})$ and the interval is of length no bigger than h_i , so

$$\int_{x_i}^{\beta} \| (x-s) r(s) ds \| = \| e(x) \|_i + O(h^{n+1})$$

$$\text{Then we have the inequality } \int_{x_i}^{\beta} \| (x-s) r(s) ds \| \leq h_i \| r(s) \|_i.$$

Then the size of the scaled residual is an upper bound on the size of the true error. Now, if we require that $\max_i h_i \|r(s)\|_i \leq \epsilon$, for a tolerance ϵ , then we have $\max_i \|e(x)\|_i \leq \epsilon$, this is a strong argument for controlling the size of the residual.

5.2 . Error Estimates

The error on [0,1] is given by :

$$e_n = P_n(x) - y(x) = \frac{(-1)^{n+1} x^{(n+1)} (1-x)^{n+1} y^{(2n+2)}(\xi)}{(2n+1)!}$$

where $0 < \zeta < 1$ and $y^{(2n+2)}$ is assumed to be continuous .The Osculator interpolant for $P_n(x)$ may converge to $y(x)$ in $[0 , 1]$ irrespective of whether the intervals of convergence of the constituent series intersect or are disjoint. The important consideration her is whether $e_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for all x in $[0 , 1]$.In the application to the B.V.Ps in this thesis such convergence with n is always confirmed numerically .

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حول حل حالة خاصة من مسائل القيم الحدودية الخطية من الرتبة الثانية ذات نقطتين باستخدام الطريقة شبه التحليلية

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المستخلص

يتضمن البحث طريقة جديدة لحل حالة خاصة من مسائل القيم الحدودية الخطية ذات نقطتين ذات الرتبة الثانية (TPBVP) , حيث نقترح الحل كمتعددة حدود لحل مسائل القيم الحدودية الخطية بنقطتين ذات الرتبة الثانية (TPBVP) للمعادلات التفاضلية الاعتيادية.

استخدمنا الإستراتيجية شبه التحليلية باستخدام نوع من الاندراج (two-point osculatory interpolation) لعدد من مشتقات نقطتي نهاية الفترة $[0, 1]$ وقورنت النتائج مع الحل باستخدام الطرق التقليدية الأخرى وأثبتنا من خلال الأمثلة بان الطريقة المقترحة هي الأسرع والأدق . أيضا قدمنا بعض الملاحظات العامة حول السيطرة على الباقي والسيطرة على الخطاء الحقيقي وأثبتنا وجود علاقة وثيقة جدا بين الباقي والخطاء الحقيقي .