RATIONAL APPROXIMATIONS TO THE SOLUTION OF THE SECOND ORDER RICATTI EQUATION

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## TECHNICAL REPORT

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MIDWEST RESEARCH INSTITUTE
by

Wyman Fair
Yudell Luke

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MRI
MIDWEST RESEARCH INSTITUTE 425 VOLKER BOULEVARD/KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI 64110/AC 816 LO 1-O202

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Approved for:

MIDWEST RESEARCH INSTITUTE


Sheldon L. Levy, Director Mathematics and Physics Division

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## I. INTRODUCTION

In a previous work Merkes and Scott [I] constructed continued fraction solutions to the first order Ricatti equation by using a sequence of linear fractional transformations. Fair [2] utilized the $\tau$-method, see the paper by Iuke [3], to develop main diagonal Padé approximations to the solution of the first order Ricatti equation with rational coefficients. Rational approximations are advantageous to study the behavior of the solutions in a global sense. That is, they are useful for evaluation of functional values in the complex plane including zeros and poles.

In this report we develop continued fraction (and hence rational) approximations to the solution of a second order nonlinear equation which includes as special cases the equations treated in $[1]$ and $[2]$. These approximations are obtained by using a sequence of linear transformations which leave the dirferential equation invariant, see Davis [1], and are presented in Section II. For an application, in Section III, the algorithm is applied to obtain approximations to Painleve's first and second transcendents.

## II. DEVELOFMENT OF THE RATIONAL APPROXIMATIONS

Consider the generalized second order Ricatti equation

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(A_{o}+B_{O} y\right) y^{\prime \prime}+\left(C_{o}+D_{o} y\right) y^{\prime}-2 B_{o}\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{2}+E_{o}+F_{o} y+G_{O} y^{2}+H_{o} y^{3}=0 \\
& \quad y(0)=\alpha_{0} \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

where the coefficients in (1) have Taylor's series expansions of the form

$$
\begin{align*}
& A_{0}=x^{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{k} x^{k}, B_{0}=x^{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_{k} x^{k}, C_{o}=x \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{k^{\prime}} x^{k}, \\
& D_{0}=x \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} d_{k} x^{k}, E_{0}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e_{k} x^{k} e_{o} \neq 0, F_{o}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_{k} x^{k} f_{o} \neq 0, \\
& G_{0}=x \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g_{k} x^{k} \text { and } H_{0}=x \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} h_{k} x^{k} . \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

We further assume that the solution of (I) has a power series expansion of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{y}=\alpha_{0}+\sum_{\mathrm{k}=1}^{\infty} \beta_{\mathrm{k}^{x^{k}}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that (2) and (3) together with (1) uniquely determine $\alpha_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$. We also require that the coefficients in (3) have the property that

$$
\Delta_{p}=\left|\begin{array}{llll}
\alpha_{0} & \beta_{1} \ldots \ldots \ldots \beta_{p} \\
\beta_{1} & \beta_{2} \ldots \ldots \ldots \beta_{p+1} \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot & \dot{\beta}_{p+1} & \cdot & \beta_{2 p}
\end{array}\right| \neq 0, p=0,1,2 \ldots
$$

and

$$
\Gamma_{2 p+1}=\left|\begin{array}{lll}
\beta_{1} & \beta_{2} \ldots \ldots . \beta_{p+1}  \tag{4}\\
\beta_{2} & \beta_{3} \ldots \ldots . & \beta_{p+2} \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot \beta_{p+1} & \dot{\beta}_{p+2} & \\
\hline & \beta_{2 p+1}
\end{array}\right| \neq 0, p=0,1,2 \ldots
$$

Then (4) insures that $y$ has a continued fraction expansion of the form

$$
\mathrm{y}=\frac{\alpha_{0}}{1+\frac{\alpha_{1} \mathrm{x}}{1+\frac{\alpha_{2} \mathrm{x}}{1+\ldots}}}
$$

.

A transformation of the type

$$
y=\frac{m(x)+n(x) y^{*}}{p(x)+q(x) y^{*}}
$$

where $m, n, p$ and $q$ are polynomials in $x$ may be necessary to bring the differential equation into the required form. We suppose that this has already been done. See [4] for the results of applying transformations of this type to (1). We give an example in Section III.

The even approximants of (5) are the main diagonal Pade approximations to $y$ which have the following properties. Iet

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{n}=\frac{P_{n}}{Q_{n}}=\frac{\sum_{k=0}^{n} p_{n, k^{x^{k}}}}{\sum_{k=0}^{n} q_{n, k} x^{k}} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

be the $n^{\text {th }}$ order main diagonal Fade approximation to $y$. If $Q_{n}$ is formally divided into $P_{n}$, the resulting power series agrees with the power series representation of $y$ for the first $(2 n+1)$ terms. The polynomials $P_{n}$ and $Q_{n}$ both satisfy the recurrence relation

$$
\begin{align*}
& P_{n}=\left[1+\left(\alpha_{2 n-1}+\alpha_{2 n}\right) x\right] P_{n-1}-\alpha_{2 n-1} \alpha_{2 n-2} x^{2} P_{n-2} \\
& P_{0}=\alpha_{0}, P_{1}=\alpha_{0}\left(1+\alpha_{2} x\right), Q_{0}=1 \text { and } Q_{1}=1+\left(\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}\right) x \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, rational approximations to the solution of (1) are immediately forthcoming if the values $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2} \ldots$ can be computed. These values can be obtained by utilizing a sequence of linear fractional transformations. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=y_{0}, y_{n}=\alpha_{n}\left(1+x y_{n+1}\right)^{-1}, n \geq 0 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Repeated application of (8) to (1) and division by $\alpha_{n} x$ at each step yields

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(A_{n+1}+B_{n+1} y_{n+1}\right) y_{n+1}^{\prime \prime}+\left(C_{n+1}+D_{n+1} y_{n+1}\right) y_{n+1}^{\prime}-2 B_{n+1}\left(y_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)^{2} \\
& \quad+E_{n+1}+F_{n+1} y_{n+1}+G_{n+1} y_{n+1}^{2}+H_{n+1} y_{n+1}^{3}=0, \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& A_{n+1}=-A_{n}-\alpha_{n} B_{n}, \\
& B_{n+1}=-x A_{n}, \\
& C_{n+1}=-2 x^{-1}\left(A_{n}+\alpha_{n} B_{n}\right)-C_{n}-\alpha_{n} D_{n}, \\
& D_{n+1}=2 A_{n}-x C_{n}, \\
& E_{n+1}=x^{-1}\left(\alpha_{n}^{-1} E_{n}+F_{n}+\alpha_{n} G_{n}+\alpha_{n}^{2} H_{n}\right),  \tag{10}\\
& F_{n+1}=-x^{-1}\left(C_{n}+\alpha_{n} D_{n}\right)+3 \alpha_{n}^{-1} E_{n}+2 F_{n}+\alpha_{n} G_{n}, \\
& G_{n+1}=2 x^{-1} A_{n}-C_{n}+3 \alpha_{n}^{-1} x E_{n}+x F_{n},
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{n}+1}=\alpha_{\mathrm{n}}^{-1} \mathrm{x}^{2} \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{n}}, \quad \mathrm{n}=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

It is easily shown that

$$
A_{n+1}(0)=B_{n+1}(0)=C_{n+1}(0)=D_{n+1}(0)=G_{n+1}(0)=H_{n+1}(0)=0
$$

$E_{n+1}$ and $F_{n+1}$ are defined at $x=0$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{n+1}(0)=\alpha_{n+1}=-\frac{E_{n+1}(0)}{F_{n+1}(0)}, \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the values $\alpha_{k}$ appearing in (5) can be computed recursively.

Proof of the convergence of the approxinants in (6) in the general case seems elusive especially since the values of $\alpha_{k}$ are not in general know in closed form. However, in the special case of the first order Ricatti equation, some convergence proofs are available, see [1] and [2]. Heuristically one can imply convergence of the approximants in (6) by comparing the values of the $n^{\text {th }}$ and $(n+1)^{\text {st }}$ approximations. In practice this works very well, and in the cases investigated the actual error of the $n$th approximant is the same order of magnitude as the difference, $y_{n+1}(x)-y_{n}(x)$.

## III. EXAMPIES

We consider two examples which exhibit the utility of these approximations when used to approximate both the function and its poles.

Painleve's first and second transcendents are defined by the differential equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\prime \prime}-6 u^{2}-\lambda x=0, u(0)=1, u^{\prime}(0)=0, \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
v^{\prime \prime}-2 v^{3}-x v-\mu=0, v(0)=1, v^{\prime}(0)=0 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

respectively. In what follows, $\lambda=u=1.0$.
To cast (12) and (13) into the required form of (1), we set $u=1+3 x^{2} \bar{u}$ and $v=1+1.5 x^{2} \bar{v}$ in which case (12) and (13) become

$$
\begin{equation*}
3 x^{2} \bar{u}^{\prime \prime}+12 x \bar{u}^{\prime}+\left(6-36 x^{2}\right) \bar{u}-54 x^{4} \bar{u}^{2}-(6+x)=0, \bar{u}(0)=1 \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
& 3 x^{2} \bar{v}^{\prime \prime}+10 x \bar{v}^{\prime}+\left(5-18 x^{2}-6 x^{3}\right) \bar{v}-27 x^{4} \bar{v}^{2}-13.5 x^{6} \bar{v}^{3} \\
& -(5+4 x)=0, \bar{v}(0)=1 . \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

- Now $u$ has a pole of the second order at $x=1.2067$ and $v$ has a simple pole at $x=1.1577$. This behavior manifests itself in Tables I and II below in which $\bar{u}_{6}$ and $\bar{v}_{6}$ are the sixth order main diagonal Fade approximations to $\bar{u}$ and $\bar{v}$ obtained using the algorithm of Section II. We have

$$
u_{6}=1+3 x^{2} \bar{u}_{6} \text { and } v_{6}=1+1.5 x^{2} \bar{v}_{6} .
$$

TABLE I

| x | $u(x)$ | $u_{6}(x)$ | x | $v(x)$ | $\mathrm{v}_{6}(\mathrm{x})$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0.0 | 1.0000 | 1.0000 | 0.0 | 1.0000 | 1.0000 |
| 0.1 | 1.0305 | 1.0305 | 0.1 | 1.0152 | 1.0152 |
| 0.2 | 1.1264 | 1.1264 | 0.2 | 1.0626 | 1.0626 |
| 0.3 | 1.3015 | 1.3015 | 0.3 | 1.1464 | 1.1464 |
| 0.4 | 1.5831 | 1.5831 | 0.4 | 1.2742 | 1.2742 |
| 0.5 | 2.0228 | 2.0228 | 0.5 | 1.4592 | 1.4592 |
| 0.6 | 2.7212 | 2.7212 | 0.6 | 1.7254 | 1.7254 |
| 0.7 | 3.8909 | 3.8909 | 0.7 | 2.1184 | 2.1184 |
| 0.8 | 6.0383 | 6.0383 | 0.8 | 2.7369 | 2.7369 |
| 0.9 | 10.6226 | 10.6223 | 0.9 | 3.8344 | 3.8343 |
| 1.0 | 23.3936 | 23.3860 | 1.0 | 6.3110 | 6.3104 |
| 1.1 | 87.7732 | 87.3769 |  |  |  |

The values of $u(x)$ and $v(x)$ were taken from a paper by Simon [5] who used (12) and (13) as examples in a study of a numerical integration technique for the solution of initial value problems in ordinary differential equations.

The poles of smallest magnitude of $u_{6}$ and $v_{6}$ are $1.2058 \pm i .0134$ and 1.1578 , respectively, so that one would expect that the poles or $u$ and $v$ could be computed to any desired degree of accuracy using higher order approximations. Indeed this is the case when the approximations converge.

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