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**Thème**

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**Comparaison entre Runge-Kutta et méthode de Simpson Modifiée Pour  
un Problème Initiale**

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## المخلص

في هذا العمل، قمنا بحل المعادلة التفاضلية الخطية من الدرجة الاولى ذات القيم الابتدائية باستعمال طريقة رونج كيتا، ثم نقوم بتحويل المعادلة التفاضلية الى معادلة تكاملية من النوع فولتيرا لنقوم بحلها بطريقة سيمبسون المعادلة لنجد ان الطريقتين تؤديان الى نفس النتائج.

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# Dedications

This work is specially dedicated to my parents and all my extended family who have provided me with their encouragment, love and patience .

To all my freinds.To every soul that has been a source of inspiration to me.

I didicate this work.

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# Introduction

Many problems of mathematical physics can be started in the form of initial and boundary value problems associated with the ordinary and partial differential equations. These equations also occur as reformulations of other mathematical problems such as integral equations can be cast into the Volterra integral equations.

This introduction contains a brief description of the objective, approach, and organization of the thesis. The objective of this work is to explain the most numerical methods. For example, Runge-Kutta .

The current study tends to investigate the numerical solutions of the differential equation and some linear integral equations with continuous kernel. This thesis is divided into three chapters:

In The first Chapter: is a discussion of the notions and a reminder on compact operators.

In The second Chapter: is devoted to the Existence and Uniqueness theorem of the first order differential equation, in which I try to apply the numerical method of Runge\_Kutta for solving differential equation to approximate the exact solution by programming. Moreover, I use the preferred language in numerical analysis in Matlab. The chapter deals also with the way by which we can transform a first order differential equation to Integral equation.

In The third Chapter: I explain the concept of Volterra Integral equation accordingly with the Simpson method. Moreover, I try to solve the first order Volterra integral equation by the Simpson method to obtain approximate solution of the linear integral equation.

# Chapter 1

## operator compact

### 1.1 compact linear operators

(see [1])

A linear operator  $A$  defined from a normed space  $E$  into normed space  $F$  is called a linear compact operator or completely continuous linear operator if for every bounded subset  $G$  of  $E$ , the image  $A(G)$  is relatively compact in  $F$ . In other words, the closure  $\overline{A(G)}$  is compact.

**Theorem 1.1.1** (*Compactness criterion*)

A linear operator  $A$  defined from a normed space  $E$  into a normed space  $F$  is called a linear compact operator or completely continuous linear operator if and only if for every bounded sequence  $\varphi_n$  in  $E$ , the sequence  $A\varphi_n$  in  $F$  has a convergent subsequence.

Let  $\varphi_n$  be a bounded sequence in  $E$ , since the operator  $A$  is compact, then the set  $\{A\varphi_n\}$  is relatively compact in  $F$  where this property shows that  $A\varphi_n$  contains a convergent subsequence.

Conversely, let us consider any bounded subset  $G$  in  $E$  and let  $\psi_n$  be any sequence in  $A\varphi_n$ . Then there exists a bounded sequence  $\varphi_n$  in  $G$ , such that

$$\psi_n = A\varphi_n$$

By assumption,  $A\varphi_n = \psi_n$  contains a convergent subsequence  $\psi_{n_k}$  in  $F$ . Thus  $A(G)$  is relatively compact, because for any bounded sequence  $\psi_n$  in  $A(G)$  there exists a convergent

subsequence  $\psi_{n_k}$  in  $F$ . In other words, for all bounded set  $G \subset E$ , the set  $A(G)$  is relatively compact in  $F$ . Hence  $A$  is compact.

The linear combination  $A = \alpha A_1 + \beta A_2$  of compact operators  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  is a compact operator, for every scalars  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

Let  $\varphi_n$  be a bounded sequence in  $F$  and let  $A\varphi_n$  be a sequence in  $F$ , then

$$A\varphi_n(x) = \alpha A_1\varphi_n(x) + \beta A_2\varphi_n(x), \quad \text{with } \varphi_n \in E, n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

The operators  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are compact, one can extract from  $A_1\varphi_n$  and  $A_2\varphi_n$  two convergent subsequences which give by their sum a convergent subsequence of  $A\varphi_n$ . Hence  $A$  is compact.

The product  $AB$  of two bounded operators  $A$  and  $B$  is compact if either of operators  $A$  or  $B$  is compact.

Let  $\varphi_n$  be a bounded sequence in  $E$ , then if we consider  $B\varphi_n$  as a bounded, and from the compactness of the operator  $A$  gives a convergent subsequence  $A(B\varphi_{n(k)}(x))$  of  $A(B\varphi_n(x))$ .

Hence the operator  $AB$  is compact.

On the other hand, if we consider  $B$  as a compact, one can extract from a convergent subsequence  $B\varphi_{n(k)}(x)$ , and from boundedness of the operator  $A$  gives the convergence of the sequence  $A(B\varphi_{n(k)}(x))$ . Hence the operator  $AB$  is compact.

A sequence  $A_n$  of compact operators defined from a normed space  $E$  into a Banach space  $F$  converges uniformly to an operator  $A$ , say,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|A_n - A\| = 0$$

Then the limit operator  $A$  is compact.

Let  $\varphi_n$  be bounded sequence in  $E$ , the operators  $A_1$  is compact, then one can extract from the sequence  $A_1\varphi_n$  a convergent subsequence, say  $\varphi_n^1$  a subsequence from  $\varphi_n$  such that  $A_1\varphi_n^1$  converges.

In the same way, we can extract from the sequence  $A_2\varphi_n^1$  a convergent subsequence, say  $\varphi_n^2$  a subsequence from  $\varphi_n^1$  such that  $A_2\varphi_n^2$  converges.

Noting that, we obtain from the bounded sequence  $\varphi_n$  a subsequence  $\varphi_n^2$  such that  $A_1\varphi_n^2$  and  $A_2\varphi_n^2$  both converge.

Continuing in this way, we see that, for the compact operators  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_p$  there exists a nested subsequences

$$\varphi_n^p \subset \dots \varphi_n^2 \subset \varphi_n^1 \subset \varphi_n$$

such that, the sequence  $A_k \varphi_n^p$  converge for all  $k = 1, 2, \dots, p$

In order to show the compactness of the operator limit  $A$ , we must use the completeness of the space  $F$  and showing that the sequence  $A \varphi_n^p$  is Cauchy sequence.

Noting that the sequence  $\varphi_n$  is bounded, say  $\|\varphi_n\| \leq M$  for all  $n$ . Hence  $\|\varphi_n^p\| \leq M$  for each  $n$  and  $p$ . choose  $n = p$  so that

$$\|A_n - A\| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}.$$

Hence we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \|A \varphi_n^p - A \varphi_n^q\| &= \|A \varphi_n^p - A_n \varphi_n^p + A_n \varphi_n^p - A_n \varphi_n^q + A_n \varphi_n^q - A \varphi_n^q\| \\ &\leq \|A \varphi_n^p - A_n \varphi_n^p\| + \|A_n \varphi_n^p - A_n \varphi_n^q\| + \|A_n \varphi_n^q - A \varphi_n^q\| \\ &\leq \|A_n - A\| \|\varphi_n^p\| + \|A_n \varphi_n^p - A_n \varphi_n^q\| + \|A_n - A\| \|\varphi_n^q\| \\ &\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3M} M + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3M} M = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Remembering that, due to the completeness of the space  $F$ , the Cauchy sequence  $A \varphi_n^p$  converges as a subsequence of  $A \varphi_n$  where  $\varphi_n^p$  is a subsequence of an arbitrary bounded sequence  $\varphi_n$ . Hence the compactness of the operator  $A$ .

**Theorem 1.1.2** (*finite dimensional range*)

Let  $A$  be a bounded operators defined from  $E$  into  $F$  with the range  $A(E)$  has a finite dimension  $\dim A(E) < \infty$ , then the operator  $A$  is compact.

Indeed, for all bounded set  $G$  in  $E$ , the range  $A(G)$  is a bounded set in finite dimensional space  $A(E)$ . Hence  $A(G)$  is relatively compact, is follows that  $A$  is a compact operator.

**Theorem 1.1.3** (*finite dimensional domain*)

Let  $A$  be a bounded operator defined from  $E$  into  $F$  with the domain  $E$  has a finite dimension  $\dim E < \infty$ , then the operator  $A$  is compact .

Indeed, the space  $E$  has a finite dimension  $\dim E < \infty$  implies the finite dimensional range  $A(E)$ , say

$$\dim A(E) \leq \dim E$$

it follows that  $A$  is compact operator.

Let  $G$  be a closed subspace in the normed space  $E$  such that,  $G \neq E$  then there exists an element  $\varphi \in E$  with  $\|\varphi\| = 1$  such that, for all  $\psi \in G$ , we have

$$\|\varphi - \psi\| \geq \alpha, \quad \text{with } 0 < \alpha < 1$$

Indeed, let  $f$  be an element of  $E$  such that  $f \notin G$  then, we get

$$\inf_{h \in G} \|f - h\| = \beta > 0,$$

choosing an element  $g$  belongs to  $G$  such that,

$$\beta \leq \|f - g\| \leq \frac{\beta}{\alpha}.$$

Define the vector  $\varphi$  by

$$\varphi = \frac{f - g}{\|f - g\|},$$

this vector  $\varphi$  has a unit norm  $\|\varphi\| = 1$ , besides, for all  $\psi \in G$  we get

$$\begin{aligned} \|\varphi - \psi\| &= \left\| \frac{f - g}{\|f - g\|} - \psi \right\| \\ &= \frac{1}{\|f - g\|} \|f - [g + (\|f - g\| \psi)]\| \\ &\geq \frac{\beta}{\|f - g\|} \geq \alpha. \end{aligned}$$

The identity operator  $I$  defined from a normed space  $E$  into  $E$  is compact if and only if the space  $E$  has a finite dimension let  $\varphi_1$  be an element of  $E$ , such that  $\|\varphi_1\| = 1$ , then the set of finite dimension  $G_1 = \text{span}\{\varphi_1\}$  represents a closed subspace of  $E$ . So there exists an element  $\varphi_2 \in E$ , such that  $\|\varphi_2\| = 1$  and  $\|\varphi_1 - \varphi_2\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$ . By the same way we take a closed subspace  $G_2 = \text{span}\{\varphi_1, \varphi_2\}$  and finding an element  $\varphi_3 \in E$  such that  $\|\varphi_3\| = 1$  with  $\|\varphi_2 - \varphi_3\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$ . One repeat the same procedure until the obtaining of sequence  $\varphi_n$  verifying  $\|\varphi_n\| = 1$  and  $\|\varphi_m - \varphi_n\| \geq \frac{1}{2}$ , for all  $m \neq n$ .

Noting that, the sequence  $\varphi_n$  is bounded but does not contain any convergent subsequence. Hence the operator  $I\varphi_n = \varphi_n$  is not compact .

The closed unit ball  $B(0,1)$  in the normed space  $E$  of infinitely dimensional is not compact .

Indeed,  $B(0,1)$  is bounded but cannot be compact ;thus

$$I(B(0,1) = B(0,1) = \overline{B(0,1)})$$

is not relatively compact.

A bounded operator  $A$  in a normed space  $E$  is not generally a compact operator.

Indeed, see the identity operator  $A = I$  in the infinitely dimensional normed space  $E$  .

The integral operator  $A$  defined from  $C(G)$  into  $C(G)$

$$A\varphi(x) = \int_x k(x,y)\varphi(y)dy, \quad x,y \in G$$

With continuous kernel  $k(x,y)$  is a compact operator .

Let  $E$  be a bounded set of  $C(G)$  then, for each  $\varphi \in E$  , we have

$$\| \varphi \| \leq M,$$

besides, for all  $x \in G$  and  $\varphi \in E$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} | A\varphi(x) | &= \left| \int_G k(x,y)\varphi(y)dy \right| \\ &\leq M | G | \max_{x,y \in G} | k(x,y) | . \end{aligned}$$

It follows that  $A(E)$  is bounded .

By assumption, the kernel  $k(x,y)$  is continuous over the compact  $G \times G$ , thus it is uniformly continuous and therefore

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, \forall x, y, z \in \Omega, | x - y | < \delta \implies | k(x,z) - k(y,z) | < \frac{\varepsilon}{M \text{mes}(\Omega)}$$

Hence, for each  $\varphi \in G$  and  $x, y \in \Omega$ , with  $| x - y | < \delta$

$$\begin{aligned} | A\varphi(x) - A\varphi(y) | &= \left| \int_{\Omega} (k(x,z) - k(y,z))\varphi(z)dz \right| \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{M \text{mes}(\Omega)} M \text{mes}(\Omega) = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

this relation expresses that  $A(G)$  is equicontinuous. Hence  $A(G)$  is relatively compact, so by *Arzela-Ascoli's* theorem  $A$  is compact .

Weakly singular kernel

The kernel  $k(x, y)$  is said to be weakly singular if it is defined continuous on  $\Omega \times \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$  for all  $x \neq y$  and there exist a positive constants  $M$  and  $\alpha \in ]0, n]$  such that

$$|k(x, y)| < \frac{M}{|x - y|^{n-\alpha}}, \quad x, y \in \Omega, \quad x \neq y.$$

In other words,

$$\forall x, y \in \Omega, x \neq y, \exists M > 0, |k(x, y)| < \frac{M}{|x - y|^{n-\alpha}}, \quad 0 < \alpha \leq n$$

The integral operator  $A$  defined from  $C(\Omega)$  into  $C(\Omega)$  with weakly continuous kernel is a compact operator.

Noting that, the integral operator

$$A\varphi(x) = \int_G k(x, y)\varphi(y)dy, \quad x, y \in \Omega$$

exists as an improper integral, due to the weakly continuous kernel

$$|k(x, y)| |\varphi(y)| \leq M \|\varphi\| |x - y|^{n-\alpha},$$

further,

$$\int_G |x - y|^{n-\alpha} dy \leq w_n \int_0^d \rho^{\alpha-n} \rho^{n-1} d\rho = \frac{w_n}{\alpha} d^\alpha,$$

where  $w_n$  designates the surface area of the unit sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $d$  the diameter of the set  $G$ .

Let us construct a sequence of compact operators  $A_p$ , which converges to the integral operator  $A$ , such that

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|A_p - A\| = 0.$$

choosing now a linear continuous function  $h$  defined on  $[0, \infty[$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ , by

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ 2t - 1 & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \leq t \leq 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } 1 \leq t < \infty \end{cases}$$

The function  $k_p(x, y)$  defined on  $G \times G$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ , by

$$k_p(x, y) = \begin{cases} h(p | x - y |)k(x, y) & \text{if } x \neq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y \end{cases}$$

is a continuous kernel for each  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence the integral operators  $A_p$  such that

$$A_p\varphi(x) = \int_G k_p(x, y)\varphi(y)dy, \quad x, y \in G.$$

are compact.

Besides, for all  $x \in G$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} & | A_p\varphi(x) - A\varphi(x) | = \left| \int_G [k_p(x, y) - k(x, y)]\varphi(y)dy \right| \\ & = \left| \int_{G \cap |x-y| < \frac{1}{p}} \{h(p | x - y |)\}k(x, y)\varphi(y)dy \right| \\ & \leq M \|\varphi\| w_n \int_0^{\frac{1}{p}} \rho^{\alpha-n} \rho^{n-1} d\rho \\ & \leq M \|\varphi\| \frac{w_n}{\alpha\rho^\alpha}. \end{aligned}$$

It is simple to see that the convergence  $A_p\varphi$  to  $A\varphi$  is uniform, so it follows that,

$$\|A - A_p\| \leq M \frac{w_n}{\alpha\rho^\alpha} \rightarrow 0, \quad \text{when } p \rightarrow \infty,$$

and thus  $A$  is compact operator.

The integral operator  $A$  defined from the normed space  $C(\partial G)$  into  $C(\partial G)$  with continuous or weakly continuous kernel is a compact operator, where under  $\partial G$  we designate a regular boundary of the set  $G$ .

# Chapter 2

## The resolution of the initial value problems

### 2.1 First-order linear differential equations

(see [2])

is an equation of the form

$$a(x)y' + b(x)y = c(x) \quad (2.1.1)$$

where  $a(x), b(x)$  and  $c(x)$  are given continuous functions of  $x$  on same interval.  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  and we ask  $\forall x \in I; a(x) \neq 0$ , we divide both sides of equation (2.1.1) by the leading coefficient  $a(x)$  to reduce it to a more useful form, usually called the standard form of a linear equation:

$$y' + b_1(x)y = c_1(x) \quad (2.1.2)$$

where  $b_1(x) = \frac{b(x)}{a(x)}$ ,  $c_1(x) = \frac{c(x)}{a(x)}$ .

### 2.2 Existence and uniqueness of solutions

(see [3])

In this section we formulate results regarding the existence and uniqueness of solution  $y' = f(x, y)$ . We begin with the classical *Peano* existence theorem for the system

$$\begin{cases} y' = f(x, y) \\ y(x_0) = \alpha \end{cases} \quad (2.2.1)$$

which assumes only that the function  $f$  is continuous in the same domain.

**Theorem 2.2.1** (*Existence and uniqueness*):

A first order differential equation is an equation of the form

$$y' = f(x, y) \quad (2.2.2)$$

Assume that the function  $f(x, y)$  is continuous in the domain

$$D = \{(x, y) : |x - x_0| \leq a, \|y - y_0\| \leq b\} \quad (2.2.3)$$

and that there exists a constant  $M$  such that  $\|f(x, y)\| \leq M$  for  $(x, y) \in D$ . then system (2.2.1) has at least one solution  $y = \varphi(x)$  defined for

$$|x - x_0| \leq a_1 := \min\{a, b/M\}$$

and passing through the point  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

A function  $f(x, y)$  satisfies a *Lipschitz* condition in  $D$  with a *Lipschitz* constant  $L$  if

$$\|f(x, y_1) - f(x, y_2)\| \leq L \|y_1 - y_2\| \quad (2.2.4)$$

for all  $(x, y_1), (x, y_2) \in D$ .

**Lemma 2.2.1**

Assume that the function  $f(x, y)$  is continuous and satisfies a *Lipschitz* condition (2.2.4) in the domain  $D$  defined by (2.2.3) set

$$M = \max\{\|f(x, y)\| : (x, y) \in D\}$$

the function  $f(x, y)$  through by  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

**Proof.** (existence)

First consider the interval  $[x_0, x_0 + a_1]$ , the proof for the interval  $[x_0 - a_1, x_0]$  is analogous. Define the integral operator

$$\varphi(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(s, \varphi(s)) ds \quad (2.2.5)$$

$x \in [x_0, x_0 + a_1]$ , put  $Y = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : \|y - y_0\| \leq b\}$  and denote by  $C([x_0, x_0 + a_1], Y)$  the space of continuous functions from  $[x_0, x_0 + a_1]$  into  $Y$  with a uniform norm. Observe that if  $y \in C([x_0, x_0 + a_1], Y)$ , then

$$\|\varphi(x) - y_0\| \leq \int_{x_0}^x \|f(s, \varphi(s))\| ds \leq M a_1 \leq M \frac{b}{M} = b.$$

and it follows that the operator  $\phi$  takes the function from  $C([x_0, x_0 + a_1], Y)$  into  $C([x_0, x_0 + a_1], Y)$  :

$$\phi : C([x_0, x_0 + a_1], Y) \rightarrow C([x_0, x_0 + a_1], Y)$$

define the sequence of function  $\varphi_i(x) \in C([x_0, x_0 + a_1], Y)$  by the formula

$$\varphi_{i+1}(x) = \phi(\varphi_i(x)) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(s, \varphi_i(s)) ds,$$

$i=0,1,\dots$  where  $\varphi_0(x) = y_0, x \in [x_0, x_0 + a_1]$  then we have the bound

$$\|\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i-1}(x)\| \leq \frac{ML^{i-1}(x - x_0)^i}{i!} \quad (2.2.6)$$

we prove (2.2.6) by induction with the respect to  $i$ . Since

$$\|\varphi_1(x) - \varphi_0(x)\| \leq \int_{x_0}^x \|f(s, \varphi_0(s))\| ds \leq M(x - x_0)$$

this bound is true for  $i = 1$ . Assuming now that (2.2.6) is true for  $i$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|\varphi_{i+1}(x) - \varphi_i(x)\| &\leq \int_{x_0}^x \|f(s, \varphi_i(s)) - f(s, \varphi_{i-1}(s))\| ds. \\ &\leq L \int_{x_0}^x \|\varphi_i(s) - \varphi_{i-1}(s)\| ds. \\ &\leq L \int_{x_0}^x \frac{ML^{i-1}(s - x_0)^i}{i!} ds = \frac{ML^i(x - x_0)^{i+1}}{(i+1)!}. \end{aligned}$$

which is equivalent to (2.2.6) with  $i$  replaced by  $i + 1$ . By replacing (2.2.6) we have

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \|\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_{i-1}(x)\| \leq \frac{M}{L} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{(L(x - x_0))^i}{i!}$$

and since the serie on the right -hand side is uniformly convergent  $Me^{L(x-x_0)-1}/L$ .

where  $i$  the partial sum is equal to  $\varphi_i(x)$  it is also uniformly convergent on the interval  $[x_0, x_0 + a_1]$ . Denoted by  $\bar{\varphi}(x)$  the limit of the sequence  $\varphi_i(x)$ . Since

$$\| f(s, \varphi_m(s)) - f(s, \varphi_n(s)) \| \leq \| \varphi_m(s) - \varphi_n(s) \| .$$

the integral  $\int_{x_0}^x f(s, \varphi_n(s))ds$  is uniformly convergent for  $x \in [x_0, x_0 + a_1]$  passing to the limit in (1.3.6) as  $i \rightarrow \infty$  it follows that  $\bar{\varphi}(x)$  satisfies the integral equation

$$\bar{\varphi}(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(s, \bar{\varphi}(s))ds,$$

$x \in [x_0, x_0 + a_1]$ . Hence,  $\bar{\varphi}(x)$  also satisfies the equivalent initial value problem (2.2.1).

Uniqueness:

to prove uniqueness, we assume that there are two solutions  $\psi(x)$  and  $\varphi(x)$  to (1.1.2).

We define a norm  $\| \cdot \|_\alpha$  in the space  $C([x_0, x_0 + a_1], Y)$  by the formula

$$\| \varphi \|_\alpha := \sup \{ e^{-\alpha(x-x_0)} \| \varphi(x) \| : x \in [x_0, x_0 + a_1] \},$$

where  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\| \cdot \|$  is any norm in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . Subtracting the integral equations for  $\psi(x)$  and  $\varphi(x)$  equivalent to (2.2.1), we obtain

$$\psi(x) - \varphi(x) = \int_{x_0}^x (f(s, \psi(s)) - f(s, \varphi(s)))ds.$$

and it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \| \psi(x) - \varphi(x) \| &\leq L \int_{x_0}^x e^{\alpha(s-x_0)} e^{-\alpha(s-x_0)} \| \psi(s) - \varphi(s) \| ds. \\ &\leq L \| \psi - \varphi \|_\alpha \int_{x_0}^x e^{\alpha(s-x_0)} ds = L \| \psi - \varphi \|_\alpha \frac{e^{\alpha(x-x_0)} - 1}{\alpha} \\ &\leq \frac{L}{\alpha} \| \psi - \varphi \|_\alpha e^{\alpha(x-x_0)}. \end{aligned}$$

this leads to

$$e^{-\alpha(x-x_0)} \| \psi(x) - \varphi(x) \| \leq \frac{L}{\alpha} \| \psi - \varphi \|_\alpha .$$

and since the right-hand side of this inequality is independent of  $x$ , we obtain

$$\| \psi - \varphi \|_\alpha \leq \frac{L}{\alpha} \| \psi - \varphi \|_\alpha .$$

choosing  $\alpha$  such that  $\frac{L}{\alpha} < 1$ , we obtain

$$\| \psi - \varphi \|_\alpha = 0 \text{ or } \psi(x) = \varphi(x), x \in [x_0, x_0 + a_1]. \blacksquare$$

---

## 2.3 Numerical Methods of IVP for a first-order:

(see [4])

Analysis the initial value problem to find the solution of ordinary differential equation

$$\begin{aligned}y'(x) &= f(x, y(x)) \\y(x_0) &= y_0\end{aligned}$$

over the interval,  $x \in [a, b]$ .

we divide the interval  $a \leq x \leq b$  into  $N$  segments of length  $h$ , called the step size .thus the step size is  $h = \frac{b-a}{N}$ . This defines a set of equally spaced discrete points  $a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_n = b$ , where  $x_{i+1} = x_i + h$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$  .

## 2.4 The Runge-Kutta methods

"(see [5])"

the general form of Runge-kutta method is

$$\begin{aligned}y_{i+1} &= y_i + hF(x_i, y_i; h), \quad i = 0, \dots, i - 1 \\ &= y_i + h \sum_{i=1}^s k_i\end{aligned}$$

where  $F(x_i, y_i; h)$  is called an increment function on the interval  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$  .It can be defined in general form as

$$F(x_i, y_i; h) = k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_i$$

where  $k_n$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
k_1 &= f(x_i, y_i) \\
k_2 &= f(x_i + h, y_i + k_1 h) \\
k_3 &= f(x_i + h, y_i + (k_1 + k_2)h) \\
&\cdot \\
&\cdot \\
&\cdot \\
k_s &= f(x_i + h, y_i + (k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_{s-1})h)
\end{aligned}$$

### 2.4.1 Fourth order Runge-Kutta method

(see [6])

the most popular method of the fourth order Runge-Kutta method is obtained as

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{h}{6}(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
k_1 &= f(x_i, y_i) \\
k_2 &= f(x_i + h, y_i + k_1 h) \\
k_3 &= f(x_i + h, y_i + k_2 h) \\
k_4 &= f(x_i + h, y_i + k_3 h)
\end{aligned}$$

Fourth order Runge-Kutta method is the most well-known sample of all Runge-Kutta methods.

**Example 2.4.1** solve the following equation:

$$\begin{cases} y'(x) = \exp(-2x) - (y + y^2); \\ y(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

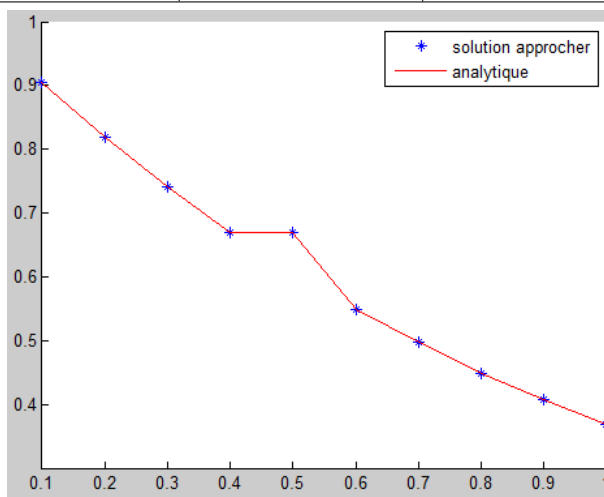
knowing that the exact solution is:

$$\phi(x) = \exp(-x);$$

we have  $N = 10, a = 0, b = 1, t = a : h : b - h$

such as  $h = (b - a)/N + 1$ .

values of X	exact solution	approx solution	error
1.000000e-001	9.048374e-001	9.048390e-001	1.601954e-006
2.000000e-001	8.187308e-001	8.187331e-001	2.392933e-006
3.000000e-001	7.408182e-001	7.408209e-001	2.718255e-006
4.000000e-001	6.703200e-001	6.703228e-001	2.780293e-006
5.000000e-001	6.703200e-001	6.065334e-001	2.698167e-006
6.000000e-001	5.488116e-001	5.488142e-001	2.541963e-006
7.000000e-001	4.965853e-001	4.965877e-001	2.352640e-006
8.000000e-001	4.493290e-001	4.493311e-001	2.153763e-006
9.000000e-001	4.065697e-001	4.065716e-001	1.958489e-006
1.000000e-000	3.678794e-001	3.678812e-001	1.773763e-006



approximation of method Runge – Kutta

**Example 2.4.2** solve the following equation :

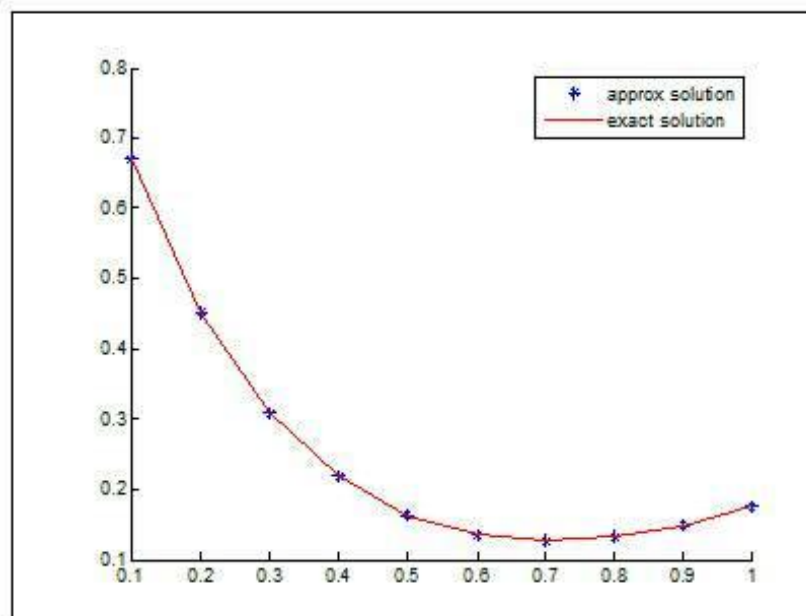
$$\begin{cases} y'(x) = x^2 - 4y \\ y(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

the exact solution of initial problem is known by

$$phi = \frac{31}{32} \exp(-4x) + \frac{1}{4}x^2 - \frac{1}{8}x + \frac{1}{32};$$

we have  $N = 10, a = 0, b = 1$ . such that  $h = (b - a)/N + 1$ .

values of X	exact solution	approx solution	error
1.000000e-001	6.706225e-001	6.707033e-001	8.078874e-005
2.000000e-001	4.515374e-001	4.516468e-001	1.094140e-004
3.000000e-001	3.080319e-001	3.081434e-001	1.114874e-004
4.000000e-001	2.168373e-001	2.169387e-001	1.014036e-004
5.000000e-001	1.623561e-001	1.624430e-001	8.695231e-005
6.000000e-001	1.341330e-001	1.342051e-001	7.210861e-005
7.000000e-001	1.251597e-001	1.252184e-001	5.870154e-005
8.000000e-001	1.307384e-001	1.307858e-001	4.739691e-005
9.000000e-001	1.477199e-001	1.477581e-001	3.826548e-005
1.000000e-000	1.739933e-001	1.740244e-001	3.110288e-005



*approximation of method Runge – Kutta*

# Chapter 3

## Numerical Solution of Volterra Integral Equations

### 3.1 Volterra Integral Equations

(see [7])

volterra integral equations are in the following form :

$$\varphi(x) = f(x) + \int_{x_0}^x k(x, y)\varphi(y)dy \quad a \leq x \leq b \quad (3.1.1)$$

where the function  $f(x)$  and the regular kernel  $k(x, y)$  are given, and  $\varphi(x)$  is the unknown function to be determined.

### 3.2 Transformation of the initial value problem into Volterra integral equation first kind

First order : we transform differential equation to volterra integral equation, It becomes as follow:

$$\begin{cases} y' = f(x, y) \\ y(x_0) = \alpha \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{x_0}^x y'(x)dx &= \int_{x_0}^x f(x, y)dx \\ y(x) - y(x_0) &= \int_{x_0}^x f(x, y)dx \\ y(x) &= \alpha + \int_{x_0}^x f(x, y)dx\end{aligned}$$

### 3.3 Development of the Method

(see [8])

considering a volterra integral equation given by

$$\varphi(x) = f(x) + \int_{x_0}^x k(x, y)\varphi(y)dy \quad a \leq x \leq b \quad (3.3.1)$$

Let the interval  $[a, b]$  be finite and partitioned by  $2n$  equally spaced points

$$x_0 = a < x_1 < \dots < x_{2j-1} < x_{2j} < \dots < x_{2n}.$$

we solve the problem by marching in time. The approximation of (3.1.1) in even nodes ( $x_{2j}$ ) is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(x_{2j}) &= f(x_{2j}) + \int_a^{x_{2j}} k(x_{2j}, y)\varphi(y)dy \\ &= f(x_{2j}) + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \int_a^{t_{2i+2}} k(x_{2j}, y)\varphi(y)dy.\end{aligned}$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\varphi_{2j} = f(x_{2j}) + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \int_a^{t_{2i+2}} k(x_{2j}, y)\varphi(y)dy.$$

Using Simpson's quadratic formula, the above discrete equation becomes

$$\varphi_{2j} = f(x_{2j}) + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \frac{h}{3} (k_{2j,2i}\varphi_{2i} + 4k_{2j,2i}\varphi_{2i+1} + k_{2j,2i}\varphi_{2i+2}).$$

For a smaller step  $h$ , an approximation to  $\varphi_{2j}$  can then be computed by replacing  $\varphi_{2i+1}$  by the average  $\frac{\varphi_{2i} + \varphi_{2i+2}}{2}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_{2j} &= f_{2j} + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \frac{h}{3} \left[ (k_{2j,2i} \varphi_{2i} + 4k_{2j,2i} \frac{\varphi_{2i} + \varphi_{2i+2}}{2} + k_{2j,2i} \varphi_{2i+2}) \right] \\ &= f_{2j} + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \frac{h}{3} \left[ (k_{2j,2i} + 2k_{2j,2i+1}) \varphi_{2i} + (2k_{2j,2i+1} + k_{2j,2i+2}) \varphi_{2i+2} \right] \\ &= f_{2j} + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \frac{h}{3} (k_{2j,2i} + 2k_{2j,2i+1}) \varphi_{2i} + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} (k_{2j,2i+1} + 2k_{2j,2i+2}) \varphi_{2i+2} \\ &= f_{2j} + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \frac{h}{3} (k_{2j,2i} + 2k_{2j,2i+1}) \varphi_{2i} + \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \frac{h}{3} (2k_{2j,2i+1} + k_{2j,2i}) \varphi_{2i},\end{aligned}$$

$$\varphi_{2j} = f_{2j} + \frac{h}{3} (k_{2j,0} + 2k_{2j,1}) \varphi_0 + \frac{h}{3} (2k_{2j,2j-1} + k_{2j,2j}) \varphi_{2i} + \frac{2h}{3} \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} (k_{2j,2i-1} + k_{2j,2i} + k_{2j,2i+1}) \varphi_{2i}$$

In general, for  $j=1,2,\dots,n$

$$\varphi_{2j} \left( 1 - \frac{h}{3} (2k_{2j,2j-1} + k_{2j,2j}) \right) = f_{2j} + \frac{h}{3} (k_{2j,0} + 2k_{2j,1}) \varphi_0 + \frac{2h}{3} \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} (k_{2j,2i-1} + k_{2j,2i} + k_{2j,2i+1}) \varphi_{2i}.$$

clearly from (3.1.1) the value of  $\varphi(0)$  is  $f(0)$ ,  $\varphi_0 = f_0$ .

### 3.3.1 Numerical Experiments

volterra integral equation IVP for a first-order

**Example 3.3.1** solve the initial value problem

$$y'(x) = \exp(-2x) - (y + y^2) ; \quad y(0) = 1$$

On the other hand, the transformation of the initial value problem into Volterra integral equation gives the best approximation solution using the modified Simpson method

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^x y'(x)dx &= \int_0^x \exp(-2x) - (y + y^2)dx; \\ y(x) - y(0) &= \int_0^x \exp(-2x)dx - \int_0^x (y + y^2)dx \\ y(x) &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \exp(-2x) - \int_0^x (y + y^2)dx \\ y(x) &= \frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \exp(-2x) - \int_0^x (y + y^2)dx\end{aligned}$$

**Example 3.3.2** solve the initial value problem

$$y'(x) = x^2 - 4y ; \quad y(0) = 1$$

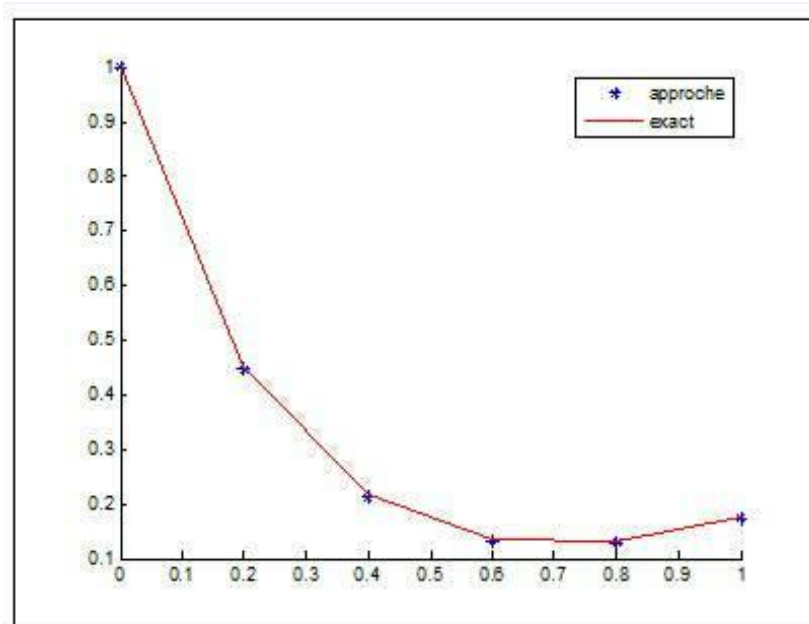
On the other hand, the transformation of the initial value problem into Volterra integral equation gives the best approximation solution using the modified Simpson method

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^x y'(x)dx &= \int_0^x (x^2 - 4y)dx \\ y(x) + y(0) &= \int_0^x x^2 dx - \int_0^x 4y(x)dx \\ y(x) &= \int_0^x -4y(x)dx + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 1.\end{aligned}$$

which is computed

values of x	Exact solution	Approx solution	Error
0.000e+000	1.000000e+000	1.000000e+000	0.000000e+000
2.000e-001	4.515374e-001	4.465741e-001	4.963360e-003
4.000e-001	2.168373e-001	2.122737e-001	4.563589e-003
6.000e-001	1.341330e-001	1.309179e-001	3.215093e-003
8.000e-001	1.307384e-001	1.286487e-001	2.089678e-003
1.000e+000	1.739933e-001	1.726402e-001	1.353109e-003

Table of approximation by modified Simpson method



*The solution with the modied Simpson method*

## Conclusion

The current study was intended to compare between the solution differential equation and the Integral solution, accordingly we remark that all initial value problem can be transformed into first order Volterra integral equation, where the numerical solution of those equations using the modified Simpson method is better than the Runge-Kutta method, moreover it is concluded that both methods used in the research are reliable, and reveal the same results.

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## Résume :

Dans ce travail, Nous avons résolu l'équation différentielle du premier ordre avec des valeurs initiales en utilisant la méthode Runge-Kutta, puis nous convertissons l'équation différentielle en équations intégrales de volterra pour la résoudre dans une méthode du Simpson Modifiée premier degré pour trouver que les deux méthodes sont améliorées, en d'autres termes elles donnent les mêmes résultats.

## **Mots clé :**

Equation différentielle linéaire du premier ordre, méthode de Runge-Kutta d'ordre quatre, Equation intégrale linéaire de volterra, méthode de Simpson Modifiée.

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## Abstract :

In this study, I have solved the first order differential equation using Runge-kutta method. Moreover the differential equation was transformed to an integral equation of volterra, to be solved by the Simpson Modifiée methode of the first order. therefore, the findings revealed that both methods used in the research lead to the same results.

## **Key Words :**

First-order linear differential equation, Runge-Kutta method the fourth order, Linear integral equation of Volterra, Simpson Modifiée method.

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## ملخص:

في هذا العمل, قمنا بحل المعادلة التفاضلية من الدرجة الاولى ذات القيم الابتدائية باستعمال طريقة رانج كيتا. ثم نقوم بتحويل المعادلة التفاضلية الى معادلة تكاملية من نوع فولتيرا لنقوم بحلها بطريقة سيمبسون المعدلة لنجد ان الطريقتين تؤديان الى نفس النتائج

### **الكلمات المفتاحية**

المعادلة التفاضلية الخطية من الدرجة الاولى, طريقة رونج كوتا من الرتبة الرابعة, المعادلة التكاملية الخطية من النوع فولتيرا, طريقة سيمبسون المعدلة.