

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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(Name) (Degree) (Major)

Date thesis is presented July 7, 1963

Title STABILITY OF NUMERICAL INTEGRATION OF ORDINARY  
DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

Abstract approved Redacted for privacy  
(Major professor)

The thesis discusses stability of procedures based on linear computing formulas for numerical integration of an ordinary first-order differential equation. The theorems are proved: (1) If the procedure is asymptotically stable it is stable for small positive step size if the Lipschitz number is negative; (2) Relative stability always exists if asymptotic stability does; (3) If the Lipschitz constant is positive, there is an integration procedure based on a linear computing formula of order one, which is, however, not asymptotically stable. An algorithm for the general case is included, written in the Algol 60 language.

STABILITY OF NUMERICAL INTEGRATION OF ORDINARY  
DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

by

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A THESIS

submitted to

OREGON STATE UNIVERSITY

in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the  
degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

June 1963

APPROVED:

Redacted for privacy

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Professor of Mathematics

In Charge of Major

Redacted for privacy

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Redacted for privacy

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Dean of Graduate School

Date thesis is presented

May 7, 1963

Typed by Carol Baker

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I	RESTRAINTS ON THE METHOD AND STABILITY	1
II	LIMITATIONS OF STABILITY	4
III	RELATIVE STABILITY	8
IV	SOME FURTHER POSSIBILITIES	12
V	AN ALGORITHM FOR SOLVING ORDINARY DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS	18
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	22

# STABILITY OF NUMERICAL INTEGRATION OF ORDINARY DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

## CHAPTER I

### RESTRICTIONS ON THE METHOD AND STABILITY

A common method of solving numerically an ordinary differential equation of the form

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

$$B) \quad y(x_0) = y_0,$$

is to calculate the approximate values of the function by a procedure based on the formula

$$y_{n+1} = \sum_{i=0}^P a_i y_{n-i} + h \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i y'_{n-i} + E,$$

where

$$y_k = y(x_0 + k \cdot h)$$

$$y'_k = y'(x_0 + k \cdot h)$$

and  $E$  is the error. The order of the formula is the highest degree polynomial for which  $E$  is zero in the formula. In the following I have attempted to show that under the normal stability requirements there is no formula that is stable for all differential equations, but if the Lipschitz constant of the function  $f(x, y)$  is negative at each  $x$  then a formula can be determined to give a stable solution.

The formula

$$1) \quad y_{n+1} = \sum_{i=0}^P a_i y_{n-i} + h \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i y'_{n-i}$$

is usually required to be exact for polynomials of degree "0" and

"1", which gives the following two conditions on the coefficients:

$$2) \quad \sum_{i=0}^P a_i = 1$$

$$3) \quad 1 + n - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i (n-i) = \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i$$

The stability of this method of solution requires that the zeros of the polynomial

$$4a) \quad G(\beta) = \beta^{n+1} - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i \beta^{n-i} - Lh \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i \beta^{n-i},$$

where  $L =$  Lipschitz constant of  $f(x, y)$ , lie in the unit circle

$|\beta| < 1$  with the exception of a zero of multiplicity no greater than 1 at  $\beta = 1$ .

To insure the latter we may require that

$$4b) \quad \left. \frac{dG}{d\beta} \right|_{\beta=1} \neq 0.$$

Now

$$5) \quad \frac{dG}{d\beta} = (n+1)\beta^n - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i (n-i)\beta^{n-1-i} - hL \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i (n-i)\beta^{n-1-i}$$

and

$$5a) \quad \frac{dG}{d\beta} \Big|_{\beta=1} = (n+1) - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i (n-i) - hL \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i (n-i).$$

Since we are concerned with solutions near  $h = 0$  and we have continuity of (4a) in a neighborhood of  $h = 0$ , then (4b) and (5a) give us, setting  $h = 0$ ,

$$5b) \quad n + 1 - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i (n-i) \neq 0.$$

And from (3) this is equivalent to

$$6) \quad \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i \neq 0.$$

## CHAPTER II

## LIMITATIONS OF STABILITY

If we have a method of solution which satisfies the stability criteria at  $h = 0$  with one zero at  $\beta = 1$  and all the remaining zeros lying within the unit circle, we need a guarantee that the zero at  $\beta = 1$  does not move outside the unit circle as  $h$  increases from  $h = 0$ .

At a zero of  $G(\beta)$  we have

$$\beta^{n+1} - \sum_{i=0}^R (a_i + hLb_i)\beta^{n-i} = 0$$

where  $R = \max(P, Q)$ .

Assuming  $a_i, b_i, L$  to be fixed, consider  $\beta$  as a function of  $h$ .

Then, differentiating once with respect to  $h$  we get

$$(n+1)\beta^n \frac{d\beta}{dh} = \sum_{i=0}^R (a_i + hLb_i)(n-i)\beta^{n-i-1} \frac{d\beta}{dh} + \sum_{i=0}^R Lb_i\beta^{n-i}$$

or

$$\frac{d\beta}{dh} \left[ (n+1)\beta^n - \sum_{i=0}^R (a_i + hLb_i)(n-i)\beta^{n-1-i} \right] = L \sum_{i=0}^R b_i\beta^{n-i}$$

Under the assumption that

$$(n+1)\beta^n - \sum_{i=0}^R (a_i + hLb_i)(n-i)\beta^{n-1-i} \neq 0$$



we have

$$7) \quad \frac{d\beta}{dh} = \frac{L \cdot \sum_{i=0}^R b_i \beta^{n-i}}{(n+1)\beta^n - \sum_{i=0}^R (a_i + hLb_i)(n-i)\beta^{n-1-i}}.$$

And we have seen that  $(n+1)\beta^n - \sum_{i=0}^R (a_i + hLb_i)(n-i)\beta^{n-1-i} = 0$  at  $h = 0$

only when we have a double zero of the polynomial  $G(\beta)$ . So we have the existence of  $\frac{d\beta}{dh}$  in a neighborhood of  $h = 0$ ,  $\beta = 1$ , and so we have

$$\left. \frac{d\beta}{dh} \right|_{\substack{h=0 \\ \beta=1}} = L \cdot \frac{\sum b_i}{(n+1) - \sum_{i=0}^R a_i (n-i)},$$

which from (3) reduces to

$$8) \quad \left. \frac{d\beta}{dh} \right|_{\substack{h=0 \\ \beta=1}} = L.$$

Therefore the zero at  $\beta = 1$  moves inside the unit circle only if the Lipschitz constant  $L$  is negative, and if it is positive the zero moves outside the unit circle giving an unstable solution.

If we have  $L < 0$  the question arises; what happens to the other zeros as  $h$  increases from zero? If  $\beta$  is a continuous function of  $h$ , we can make a slight increase in  $h$  without moving these

points outside the unit circle. From (7) we see that  $\frac{d\beta}{dh}$  exists at  $h=0$  if

$$(n+1)\beta^n - \sum_{i=0}^R (a_i + hLb_i)(n-i)\beta^{n-1-i} \neq 0.$$

And this happens if  $G(\beta)$  has no multiple zeros. So we need only require that there be no multiple zeros of  $G(\beta)$  other than  $\beta=0$  since we can see from (4) that the zeros at  $\beta=0$  are not affected by a change in  $h$ .

These results can be stated in a theorem as follows:

**Theorem 1:** A procedure for solving the equation (A) with initial conditions (B) based on the equation

$$y_n = \sum_{i=0}^P a_i y_{n-i} + h \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i y'_{n-i},$$

where

$$\sum_{i=0}^P a_i = 1, \quad 1+n - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i(n-i) = \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i,$$

and such that the polynomial

$$G(\beta) = \beta^{n+1} - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i \beta^{n-i} = 0$$

has no multiple roots other than  $\beta=0$  and all the roots lie in the unit circle with the exception of one root at  $\beta=1$ , is stable for sufficiently small  $h>0$  if and only if the Lipschitz constant of  $f(x, y)$  is negative.

For negative  $L$  we could then calculate for a particular method of solution a minimum value of  $h \cdot L$  for which we would have a stable solution. This value,  $A$ , could be used in actual computing to limit the size of the successive integration steps and keep the solution stable.

## CHAPTER III

## RELATIVE STABILITY

The preceding results make the prospects of solving a differential equation with a positive Lipschitz constant ( $L > 0$ ) look pretty dim. However, we should investigate what happens when a root of  $G(\beta) = 0$  tends outside the unit circle. The actual error at any one step is

$$9) \quad \epsilon_n = \sum_{i=0}^R A_i (\beta_i)^n,$$

where  $\beta_i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  non-zero root of  $G(\beta) = 0$  and the coefficients  $A_i$  depend on the original errors. Now if  $n$  is not too large, i. e., if the calculation does not require many steps, then a root just outside the unit circle will not cause a very large error. For example consider  $\beta = 1.001$ ,  $n \leq 20$ , in this case  $\beta^n \leq 1.020$ . And so for small positive  $L$  and a sufficiently small step size  $h$  we would be able to integrate the differential equation for a short distance without losing much accuracy.

Another consideration might be the growth of the true solution  $y_n$  as compared with the growth of the error. Hamming claims (1, p. 198) that the solution of the differential equation tends to grow as

$$10) \quad y_n = C \cdot e^{Lhn}.$$

If this were true we could require that the error growth be less than the growth of the true solution and our numerical solution would not be affected by the error.

Unfortunately, this is not necessarily true, for consider the differential equation with initial condition,

$$y' = x - y, \quad y(1) = 0, \quad x \geq 1.$$

In this case  $L = -1$  and the true solution is  $y = x - 1$  which obviously does not tend to grow as  $y_n = C e^{-hn}$ .

However, in the special case of  $y' = Ay$ ,  $A$  an arbitrary constant, the solution is  $y = y_0 e^{A(x-x_0)}$ , and in many cases the solution is dominated by the exponential. So it is not totally unwarranted to require for "relative stability" that

$$11a) \quad |\beta| \leq e^{Lhn}, \quad \text{for all } n.$$

This can also be written

$$|\beta \cdot e^{-Lh}| \leq 1$$

or

$$11) \quad |\beta \cdot e^{-Lh}| \leq 1.$$

At  $h = 0$  the root  $\beta = 1$  satisfies this and for real  $\beta$  we can write

$$-1 \leq \beta e^{-Lh} \leq 1.$$

Taking the derivative of  $\beta \cdot e^{-Lh}$  with respect to  $h$  we get

$$12) \quad \frac{d}{dh} [\beta \cdot e^{-Lh}] = \frac{d\beta}{dh} \cdot e^{-Lh} - L\beta e^{-Lh}$$

and at  $h = 0$ ,  $\beta = 1$ , since  $\frac{d\beta}{dh} = L$  we have

$$\left. \frac{d}{dh} [\beta \cdot e^{-Lh}] \right|_{\substack{h=0 \\ \beta=1}} = L \cdot 1 - L \cdot 1 = 0$$

So although we do not have absolute stability for all  $L$ , we may have relative stability for all  $L$ . To consider the growth of  $\beta \cdot e^{-Lh}$  for the other roots  $\beta$  we can rewrite (12) as

$$\frac{d}{dh} [\beta \cdot e^{-Lh}] = e^{-Lh} \left[ \frac{d\beta}{dh} - L\beta \right]$$

and using (7), (assuming no multiple roots)

$$\frac{d}{dh} [\beta \cdot e^{-Lh}] = L \cdot e^{-Lh} \left[ \frac{\sum b_i \beta^{n-i} - (n+1)\beta^{n+1} + \sum (a_i + hLb_i)(n-i)\beta^{n-i}}{(n+1)\beta^n - \sum (a_i + hLb_i)(n-i)\beta^{n-1-i}} \right]$$

and at  $h = 0$

$$13) \quad \frac{d}{dh} [\beta \cdot e^{-Lh}] = L \cdot \left[ \frac{-(n+1)\beta^{n+1} + \sum a_i (n-1)\beta^{n-i} + \sum b_i \beta^{n-i}}{(n+1)\beta^n - \sum a_i (n-i)\beta^{n-1-i}} \right].$$

And so if we can require that the real part in (13) be small, we can allow a slight increase in  $h$  without losing our relative stability since

for the roots  $|\beta| < 1$  (11) is satisfied with a strict inequality at

$h = 0$ . This can be stated in the following theorem.

Theorem 2: A procedure based on the equation

$$y_n = \sum_{i=0}^P a_i y_{n-i} + h \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i y'_{n-i}$$

where

$$\sum_{i=0}^P a_i = 1, \quad 1+n - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i(n-i) = \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i$$

and such that the polynomial

$$\beta^{n+1} - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i \beta^{n-i} = 0$$

has no multiple roots except at  $\beta=0$  and all the roots lie in the unit circle with the exception of one root at  $\beta=1$ , is "relatively stable" for sufficiently small  $h > 0$  for any differential equation, and the error will not grow faster than the true solution for any differential equation whose solution is of the order  $e^{Lhn}$ .

## CHAPTER IV

## SOME FURTHER POSSIBILITIES

We can get an interesting result if we ignore condition (4b) and require that the polynomial (4a) have a zero at  $\beta=1$  for any value of  $h$ . This is equivalent to requiring that

$$G(\beta) = (\beta - 1) \Phi(\beta).$$

Dividing (4a) by  $(\beta - 1)$  we get

$$14) \quad \frac{G(\beta)}{\beta - 1} = \beta^n - (a_0 + b_0 hL - 1)\beta^{n-1} - (a_0 + a_1 + hLb_0 + hLb_1 - 1)\beta^{n-2} + \\ + \dots + \sum_{i=0}^R \frac{(a_i + hLb_i) - 1}{\beta - 1}.$$

And for divisibility we require that

$$\sum_{i=0}^P a_i + hL \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i - 1 = 0 \text{ for all } h, L \text{ which gives, since}$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^P a_i = 1 \text{ from (2)}$$

$$hL \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i = 0 \text{ for all } h, L \text{ or } \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i = 0.$$



This means that we have a root of multiplicity at least 2 at  $\beta=1$  when  $h=0$ . Suppose we require our first order method to have only two roots at  $\beta=1$  for  $h=0$ . This would require that

$$\frac{d^2}{d\beta^2} G(\beta) \neq 0 \text{ at } \beta=1, h=0.$$

From (5) we have

$$\frac{d}{d\beta} G(\beta) = (n+1)\beta^n - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i (n-i)\beta^{n-1-i} - hL \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i (n-i)\beta^{n-1-i}.$$

Differentiating once more with respect to  $\beta$  we get

$$15a) \quad \frac{d^2}{d\beta^2} G(\beta) = (n+1)n\beta^{n-1} - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i (n-i)(n-1-i)\beta^{n-2-i} - hL \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i (n-i)(n-1-i)\beta^{n-2-i}$$

and

$$15) \quad \left. \frac{d^2}{d\beta^2} G(\beta) \right|_{\substack{\beta=1 \\ h=0}} = (n+1)n - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i (n-i)(n-1-i).$$

Thus we require that

$$16) \quad (n+1)n - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i (n-i)(n-1-i) \neq 0.$$

We have seen that one root remains at  $\beta=1$  for all values of  $h$ , so we can investigate the behavior of the root at  $\beta=1$  for  $h=0$  in the polynomial

$$17) \quad \frac{G(\beta)}{\beta-1} = \beta^n - \sum_{i=0}^R \left( \sum_{j=0}^i a_j + hL \sum_{j=0}^i b_j - 1 \right) \beta^{n-1-i} = 0$$

with the requirements on the coefficients that

$$17a) \quad \sum_{i=0}^P a_i = 1,$$

$$17b) \quad 1 + n - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i (n-i) = \sum_{i=0}^Q b_i = 0,$$

and

$$17c) \quad (n+1)n - \sum_{i=0}^P a_i (n-i)(n-1-i) \neq 0.$$

At a solution of (17) we have

$$\beta^n - \sum_{i=0}^R \left( \sum_{j=0}^i a_j \right) \beta^{n-1-i} - hL \sum_{i=0}^R \left( \sum_{j=0}^i b_j \right) \beta^{n-1-i} + \sum_{i=0}^R \beta^{n-i-1} = 0.$$

Differentiating once with respect to  $h$  we get

$$18a) \quad n\beta^{n-1} \frac{d\beta}{dh} - \sum_{i=0}^R \left( \sum_{j=0}^i a_j \right) (n-i-1) \beta^{n-i-2} \frac{d\beta}{dh} - L \sum_{i=0}^R \left( \sum_{j=0}^i b_j \right) \beta^{n-i-1} \\ - hL \sum_{i=0}^R \left( \sum_{j=0}^i b_j \right) (n-i-1) \beta^{n-i-2} \frac{d\beta}{dh} + \sum_{i=0}^R (n-i-1) \beta^{n-i-2} \frac{d\beta}{dh} = 0,$$

or

$$\begin{aligned}
 18b) \quad \frac{d\beta}{dh} \left[ n\beta^{n-1} + \sum_{i=0}^R (n-i-1)\beta^{n-i-2} - \sum_{i=0}^R \left( \sum_{j=0}^i a_j \right) (n-i-1)\beta^{n-i-2} \right. \\
 \left. - hL \sum_{i=0}^R \left( \sum_{j=0}^i b_j \right) (n-i-1)\beta^{n-i-2} \right] = L \sum_{i=0}^R \left( \sum_{j=0}^i b_j \right) \beta^{n-i-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

The polynomial multiplying  $\frac{d\beta}{dh}$  in (18b) is continuous and at  $h=0$ ,  $\beta=1$  it reduces to

$$19a) \quad n + \sum_{i=0}^R (n-i-1) - \sum_{i=0}^R \left( \sum_{j=0}^i a_j \right) (n-i-1)$$

which equals

$$\begin{aligned}
 19b) \quad n + \frac{n(n-1)}{2} - \frac{(n-R-1)(n-R-2)}{2} - \sum_{i=0}^R a_i \left[ \frac{(n-i)(n-i-1)}{2} \right. \\
 \left. - \frac{(n-R-1)(n-R-2)}{2} \right],
 \end{aligned}$$

and since  $\sum_{i=0}^R a_i = 1$  the  $\frac{(n-R-1)(n-R-2)}{2}$  terms drop out and we

have

$$19c) \quad \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^R a_i (n-i)(n-i-1)$$

which (16) guarantees is not equal to zero. So we have at  $h=0$  and

$$\beta = 1$$

$$L \cdot \sum_{i=0}^R \sum_{j=0}^i b_j$$

$$20a) \quad \frac{d\beta}{dh} = \frac{R}{\frac{1}{2} [n(n+1) - \sum_{i=0}^R a_i (n-i)(n-i-1)]} .$$

$$\text{Now} \quad \sum_{i=0}^R \sum_{j=0}^i b_j = (R+1)b_0 + Rb_1 + (R-1)b_2 + \dots + b_R$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^R (R+1-i)b_i = (R+1) \sum_{i=0}^R b_i - \sum_{i=0}^R ib_i ,$$

and since by (17b)  $\sum b_i = 0$  we have

$$\sum_{i=0}^R \sum_{j=0}^i b_j = - \sum_{i=0}^R ib_i .$$

So from (20a) we can get

$$20b) \quad \frac{d\beta}{dh} = - \frac{2L \cdot \sum_{i=0}^R i b_i}{R [n(n+1) - \sum_{i=0}^R a_i (n-i)(n-i-1)]} ,$$

and for positive  $L$  we need only require that

$$21) \quad \text{sgn} \left[ \sum_{i=0}^R i \cdot b_i \right] = \text{sgn} \left[ n(n+1) - \sum_{i=0}^R a_i (n-i)(n-i-1) \right] .$$

However under these conditions we cannot have a 2nd order method of solution, for the 2nd order method would require that

$$22) \quad (1+n)^2 - \sum_{i=0}^R a_i (n-i)^2 = 2 \sum_{i=0}^R b_i (n-i)$$

which can be rewritten as

$$n \cdot (1+n) + (1+n) - \sum a_i (n-i)(n-i-1) - \sum a_i (n-i) = 2n \sum b_i - 2 \sum i b_i,$$

but by condition (17b) this is equivalent to

$$23) \quad n \cdot (1+n) - \sum a_i (n-1)(n-i-1) = -2 \sum b_i \cdot i.$$

But from (20b) this would mean  $\frac{d\beta}{dh} = L$  and this is not consistent with (21).

A possible solution to the problem of higher orders of accuracy may be to allow more roots at  $\beta=1$ .

## CHAPTER V

AN ALGORITHM FOR SOLVING AN ORDINARY  
DIFFERENTIAL EQUATION

procedure asode (start, deriv, solu, othersolu, N, A, hmin,  
hmax, xstart, ystart, xout, output, c1)

value hmin, hmax, xstart, ystart, xout, N, A;

procedure start, output;

real procedure deriv, solu, othersoly;

real hmin, hmax, xstart, ystart, xout, A;

integer N, c1;

comment asode solves the differential equation with initial conditions  $y' = \text{deriv}(x, y)$ ,  $y(x_{\text{start}}) = y_{\text{start}}$ . The input requires the following procedures: start which finds the necessary starting values for the integration, deriv which calculates the derivative at any point  $(x, y)$ , solu the procedure for the actual integration which is stable for negative L, othersolu which carries out the integration when solu is not stable, and output which transfers control to some outside process. Also input are the following parameters: N - the number of back points needed by the two integrating procedures, A - a number associated with the solu such that solu is stable if  $h \leq \frac{A}{L}$ , hmin and hmax - the minimum and maximum desired for stepsize, xstart and

`ystart` - the initial conditions for the differential equation,  
`xout` - the point at which control is desired to be transferred  
to output, and `c1` to inform whether the back values of the  
solution are available `c1=2` if they are and `c1=1` if they are  
not;

```
begin integer n, sn, i;
```

```
  real L, probh, h, ypr1, ypr2, del;
```

```
  real array x, y, yprime [0:10];
```

comment the dimension of the arrays is arbitrary, 0 to 10 was  
used in this case because it is usually more than enough;

```
  x(0):=xstart
```

```
  y(0):=ystart;
```

```
  h:=hmax;
```

```
Test 1: sn:= 1
```

comment This section finds the largest stable stepsize between  
`hmin` and `hmax`. If this can't be done, `sn` is set equal  
to 2 and method `othersolu` is used. In the case `L` is  
positive `othersolu` should make use of the discussion  
in Chapter IV;

```
  ypr1:= derive (x(0), y(0));
```

```
  del:= hmax·ypr1/2.;
```

```
  ypr2:= deriv(x(0), y(0) + del);
```

```

L:= (ypr2-ypr1)/del;

probh:= A/L

if probh > h then h:=h

    else if probh > hmin then

        begin h:= probh; xstart:=x(0);

            ystart:= y(0); cl:=1;

            go to initial end

        else begin h:= hmax; sn:=2 end

initial: if cl=2 then go to integrate

        else start (xstart, ystart, deriv, x, y, yprime, h, N);

comment If they are needed we use procedure start to find the

        first N values;

    go to Test 2;

integrate: for i=N step -1 until 1 do

    begin x(i):= x(i-1);

        y(i):= y(i-1);

        yprime(i):= yprime(i-1) end

x(0):= x(1) +h

if sn=1 then y(0):= solu (x, y, yprime)

    else y(0):= othersolu(x, y, yprime);

    yprime(0):= deriv(x(0), y(0));

```



```
Test 2: if x(0) > xout then output (x, y, yprime)
        else go to Test 1;
        end asode
```

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