# CS412: Lecture \#23 

Mridul Aanjaneya

April 16, 2015

## Initial value problems for 1st order ordinary differential equations

In this last part of our class, we will turn our attention to differential equation problems, of the form: find the function $y(t):\left[t_{0}, \infty\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies the ordinary differential equation (ODE):

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{\prime}(t)=f(t, y(t)) \quad \text { for a certain function } f \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $y\left(t_{0}\right)=y_{0}$. This is called an initial value problem (IVP), because the value of $y$ for $t>t_{0}$ are completely determined from the initial value $y_{0}$ and equation (1).

Example \#1: The velocity of a vehicle over the time interval $[0,5]$ satisfies $v(t)=t(t+1)$. At time $t=0$, the vehicle starts from position $x(0)=5$. What is $x(t), t \in[0,5]$ ?

Answer: The problem is given by the IVP:

$$
x^{\prime}(t)=t(t+1), \quad x(0)=5 \quad \text { since } v(t)=x^{\prime}(t)
$$

Example \#2: The concentration $y(t)$ of a chemical species is given by:

$$
y^{\prime}(t)=y(t)\left(t^{2}+1\right), \quad y(0)=1 \quad \text { here } f(t, y)=y(t)\left(t^{2}+1\right)
$$

Of course, in certain cases we can solve this differential equation exactly, for e.g., in the last example:

$$
y^{\prime}(t)=y(t)\left(t^{2}+1\right) \Rightarrow \frac{y^{\prime}}{y}=t^{2}+1
$$

Integrating both sides gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{t_{0}=0}^{t} \frac{y^{\prime}}{y} d \tau & =\int_{t_{0}=0}^{t}\left(\tau^{2}+1\right) d \tau \Rightarrow|\ln y|_{t_{0}=0}^{t}=\left|\frac{\tau^{3}}{3}+\tau\right|_{0}^{t} \\
& \Rightarrow \ln y(t)-\underbrace{\ln y(0)}_{=0}
\end{aligned}
$$

However, we do not want to depend on our ability to solve the ODE exactly, since:

- An exact solution may not be analytically expressible in closed form.
- The exact solution may be too complicated and,
- (more importantly) the function $f(t, y)$ may not be available as a formula; e.g., it could result from a black box computer program.

Solution: Approximate the solution to the differential equation. General methodology ("1-step methods"):

- Consider discrete points in time

$$
t_{0}<t_{1}<t_{2}<\ldots<t_{n}<\ldots
$$

If we set $\Delta t_{k}=t_{k+1}-t_{k}$ and $\Delta t_{k}=\Delta t=$ constant, then $t_{k}=t_{0}+k \Delta t$.

- Use the notation $y_{k}=y\left(t_{k}\right)$.
- Use the values $t_{k}, y_{k}$ and the $\operatorname{ODE} y^{\prime}(t)=f(t, y)$ to approximate $y_{k+1}$.


## Method:

$$
\begin{aligned}
y^{\prime}(t) & =f(t, y) \\
\Rightarrow \int_{t_{k}}^{t_{k+1}} y^{\prime}(\tau) d \tau & =\int_{t_{k}}^{t_{k+1}} f(\tau, y) d \tau \\
\Rightarrow \underbrace{y\left(t_{k+1}\right)}_{=y_{k+1}}-\underbrace{y\left(t_{k}\right)}_{=y_{k}} & =
\end{aligned}
$$

Approximate using an integration rule!
Thus,

$$
\left.\left.\left.\left.\begin{array}{c}
y_{0} \\
t_{0}
\end{array}\right\} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c}
y_{1} \\
t_{1}
\end{array}\right\} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c}
y_{2} \\
t_{2}
\end{array}\right\} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c}
y_{3} \\
t_{3}
\end{array}\right\} \rightarrow \ldots
$$

For example, approximating this integral with the rectangle rule $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x \approx$ $f(a)(b-a)$ gives
$y_{k+1}-y_{k}=\int_{t_{k}}^{t_{k+1}} f(\tau, y) d \tau \approx f\left(t_{k}, y_{k}\right)\left(t_{k+1}-t_{k}\right) \Rightarrow y_{k+1}=y_{k}+\Delta t f\left(t_{k}, y_{k}\right)$
This method is called the Forward Euler method, or Euler's method, or Explicit Euler's method. It is easy to evaluate, plug in $t_{k}, y_{k}$ and obtain $y_{k+1}$.
Now, if we had used the "right-sided" rectangle rule $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x \approx f(b)(b-a)$, we would obtain:
$y_{k+1}-y_{k}=\int_{t_{k}}^{t_{k+1}} f(\tau, y) d \tau \approx f\left(t_{k+1}, y_{k+1}\right) \Delta t \Rightarrow y_{k+1}=y_{k}+\Delta t f\left(t_{k+1}, y_{k+1}\right)$
This method is called the Backward Euler method, or Implicit Euler method.
Note: We need to solve a (possibly nonlinear) equation to obtain $y_{k+1}\left(y_{k+1}\right.$ is not isolated in this equation).

One more variant: trapezoidal rule $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=\frac{f(a)+f(b)}{2}(b-a)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{k+1}-y_{k} & =\int_{t_{k}}^{t_{k+1}} f(\tau, y) d \tau \approx \frac{f\left(t_{k}, y_{k}\right)+f\left(t_{k+1}, y_{k+1}\right)}{2} \Delta t \\
& \Rightarrow y_{k+1}=y_{k}+\frac{\Delta t}{2}\left\{f\left(t_{k}, y_{k}\right)+f\left(t_{k+1}, y_{k+1}\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Example: $y^{\prime}(t)=-t y^{2}$ using trapezoidal rule

$$
y_{k+1}=y_{k}+\frac{\Delta t}{2}\left\{-t_{k} y_{k}^{2}-t_{k+1} y_{k+1}^{2}\right\}
$$

Let: $t_{k}=0.9, y_{k}=1$, and $\Delta t=0.1$

$$
\begin{array}{r}
y_{k+1}=1+0.05\left\{-0.9-1 \cdot y_{k+1}^{2}\right\} \\
\Rightarrow 0.05 y_{k+1}^{2}+y_{k+1}+1.045=0 \Rightarrow \text { solve quadratic to get } y_{k+1}
\end{array}
$$

## Another example:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
y^{\prime}(t)=-2 y(t) \\
y(0)=1
\end{array}\right\} \text { exact solution } y(t)=e^{-2 t}
$$

Using Forward Euler:

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{k+1} & =y_{k}+\Delta t f\left(t_{k}, y_{k}\right) \\
& =y_{k}-2 \Delta t y_{k}=(1-2 \Delta t) y_{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
y_{1} & =(1-2 \Delta t) y_{0} \\
y_{2} & =(1-2 \Delta t) y_{1}=(1-2 \Delta t)^{2} y_{0} \\
& \vdots \\
y_{k} & =(1-2 \Delta t)^{k} y_{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

How does this behave when $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ ?

$$
(1-2 \Delta t)^{k}=\left[\left(1+\frac{1}{-\frac{1}{2 \Delta t}}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2 \Delta t}}\right]^{-2 k \Delta t}
$$

Using $\lim \left(1+\frac{1}{x}\right)^{x}=e$,

$$
\Rightarrow \lim _{\Delta t \rightarrow 0}(1-2 \Delta t)^{k}=e^{-2 k \Delta t}=e^{-2 t_{k}}
$$

Thus, when $\Delta t \rightarrow 0, y_{k} \rightarrow e^{-2 t_{k}}$ (compare with exact solution $y(t)=e^{-2 t}$ ).

