

## LECTURE: EULER'S METHOD (II)

### 1. ERROR

Euler's method generally gives you a *good* approximation to your solution  $y$ . What does “good” mean in this context? For this, we have to talk about the **error**

**Notice:** There are two quantities at play here:

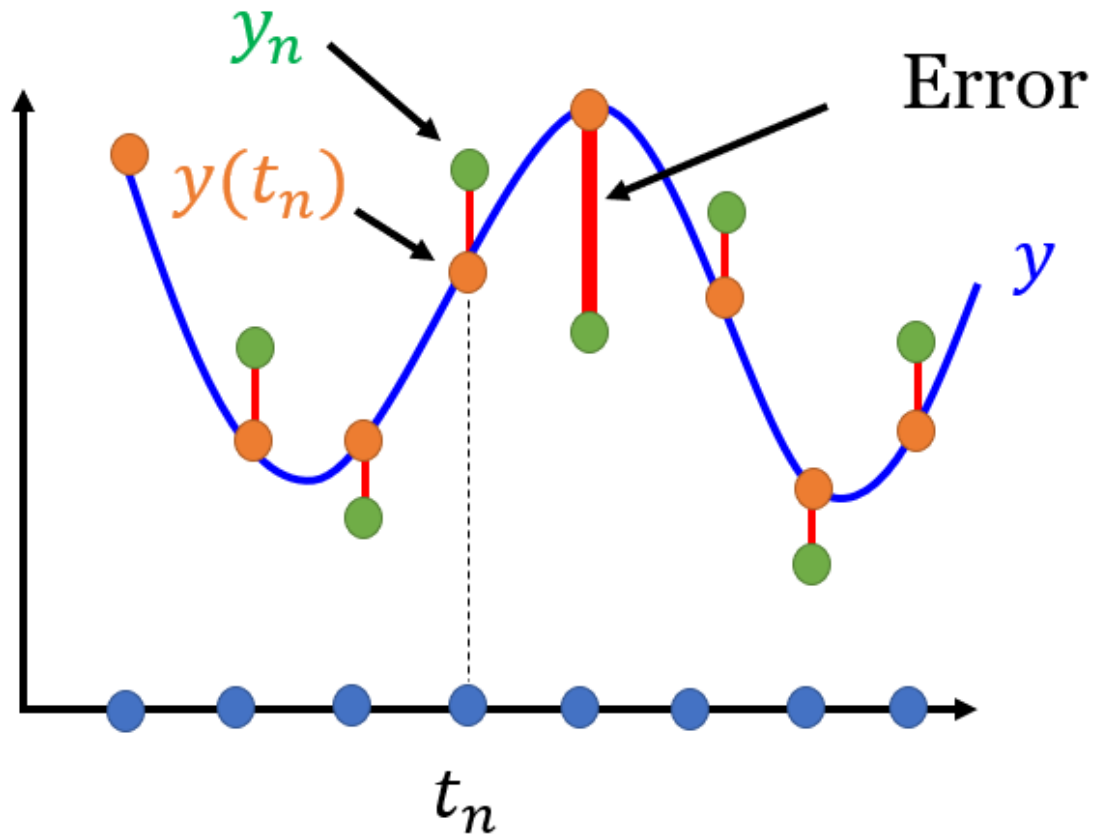
- (1) Our approximations

$$y_0 \quad y_1 \quad y_2 \quad y_N$$

- (2) The values of the actual solution  $y$

$$y(t_0) \quad y(t_1) \quad y(t_2) \quad y(t_N)$$

It makes sense to compare the two:



### Definition: Error

$$E(h) = \max \{|y_1 - y(t_1)|, |y_2 - y(t_2)|, \dots, |y_N - y(t_N)|\}$$

Think of the error as the “worst possible scenario” If just one of the  $y_k$  is far from  $y(t_k)$  then  $|y_k - y(t_k)|$  is big, so the error is big Conversely, if the error is small, then *all* the  $y_k$  are close to  $y(t_k)$

In the picture above, the error is the length of the thick red line. Also, we don't include  $y_0$  because  $y(t_0) = y_0$  anyway

**Ideally:** we want the error to be small if  $h$  is small, that is:

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} E(h) = 0$$

And in fact this is true with Euler's method:

**Fact:**

For Euler's method, there is a constant  $C > 0$  such that for all  $h$

$$|E(h)| \leq Ch$$

In particular this implies  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} E(h) = 0$ , which is what we want

**Why?** This really just follows from Taylor expansion:

**Recall: Taylor Expansion**

$$f(x + h) = f(x) + hf'(x) + O(h^2)$$

**Note:**  $O(h^2)$  here just means  $h^2$  terms, such as  $\frac{h^2}{2}f''(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} y(t_1) &= y(t_0 + h) = y(t_0) + hy'(t_0) + O(h^2) \\ &\stackrel{\text{ODE}}{=} y(t_0) + hf(y(t_0), t_0) + O(h^2) \\ &= \underbrace{y_0 + hf(y_0, t_0)}_{y_1} + O(h^2) \\ &= y_1 + O(h^2) \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $y(t_1) - y_1 = O(h^2) \Rightarrow |y(t_1) - y_1| \leq Ch^2$

**Note:** Here we get  $Ch^2$ , but that's also because we had  $y(t_0) = y_0$ . In general we need to repeat this  $N$  times for all the terms  $y(t_k)$  which, instead of  $Ch^2$ , gives  $NCh^2 = \left(\frac{b-a}{h}\right)Ch^2 = \underbrace{C(b-a)}_C h = Ch$

## 2. PROBLEMS WITH EULER

Welcome to the dark side of Euler! What could *possibly* go wrong?

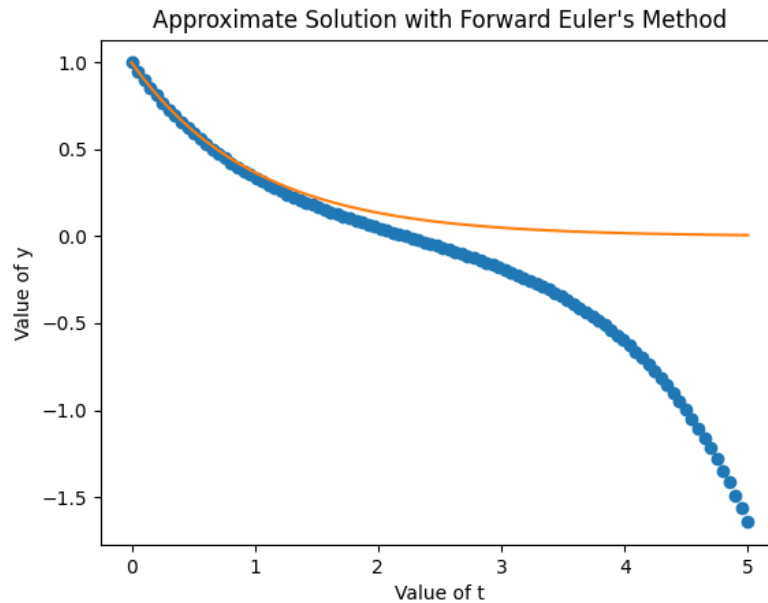
### Issue 1: Sensitivity to Initial Conditions

#### Example 1:

$$\begin{cases} y' = y - 2e^{-t} \\ y(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

The solution is  $y = e^{-t}$  (using integrating factors)

If you use Euler's method, then you'll see that the true solutions and your approximations start deviating after a while!



**What went wrong?** The reason is that the general solution of the ODE (without initial conditions) is

$$y = e^{-t} + Ce^t$$

If you use *exactly*  $y(0) = 1$  then  $C = 0$  and you get  $y = e^{-t}$ . But the problem is that computers don't use exact values, but approximate values, like  $y(0) = 0.999$

Even a tiny rounding error like that will cause  $C \neq 0$ , and in the end we end up getting an extra  $e^t$  term. So the approximate solution might look like  $e^{-t} + 0.02e^t$  which blows up for large  $t$ .

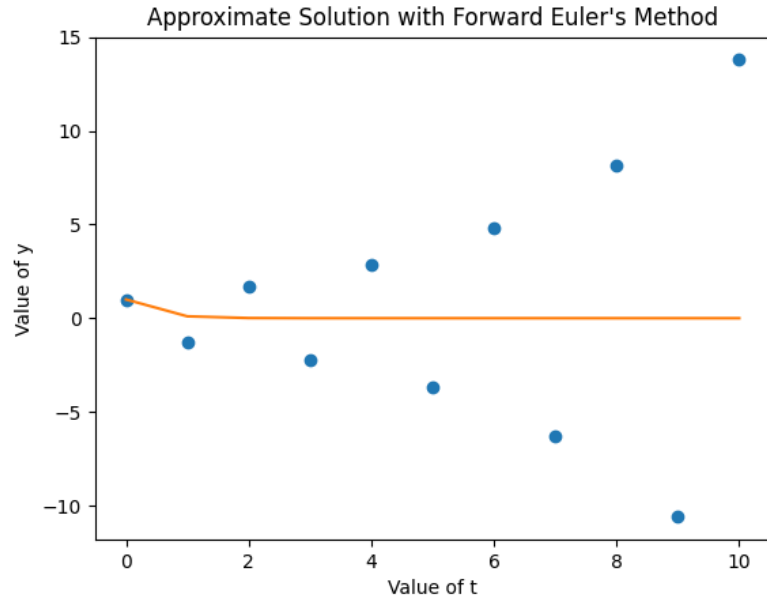
### Issue 2: Instability

Sometimes the solutions can oscillate, like the following:

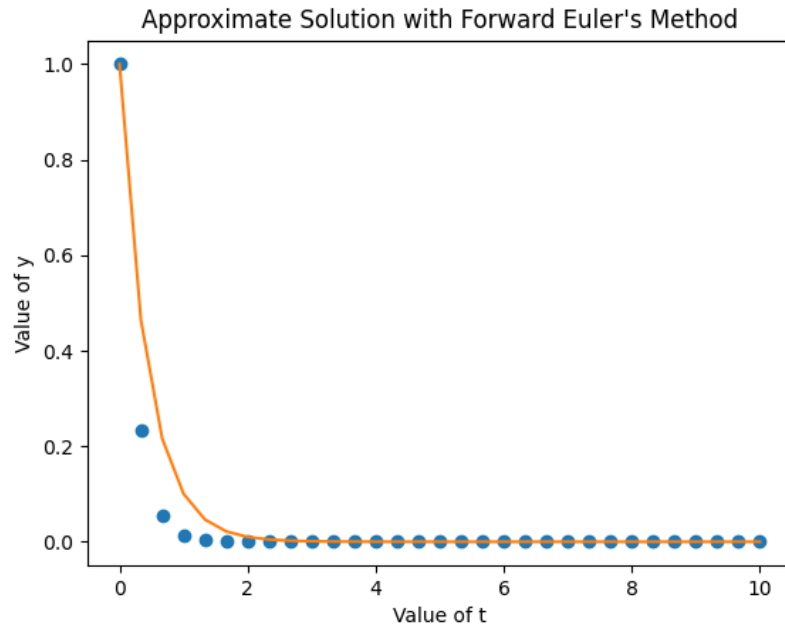
#### Example 2:

$$\begin{cases} y' = -2.3y \\ y(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

The exact solution is  $y = e^{-2.3t}$ , but if you apply Euler with  $h = 1$ , then the solution oscillates and is *not* close to the exact solution.



If you apply Euler with a relatively smaller value of  $h$  like  $h = 0.3$  here, or any  $h$  with  $(2.3)h < 1$  then the solution decays to 0



Here the behavior is heavily dependent on the value of  $h$  you use; sometimes you need to make  $h$  *really* small to make this work, which is called **instability**.

### 3. VARIATIONS OF EULER

To get around this, applied mathematicians sometimes use variations of Euler's method, such as

#### Backward Euler:

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + hf(t_{n+1}, y_{n+1})$$

This is an *implicit* method, because we first have to solve for  $y_{n+1}$  first before we can apply it

#### Multistep Method:

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{3}{2}hf(t_n, y_n) - \frac{1}{2}hf(t_{n-1}, y_{n-1})$$

*Multistep* because it uses both present  $y_n$  and past  $y_{n-1}$  values here

#### Runge-Kutta Methods:

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + hf\left(t_n + \frac{h}{2}, y_n + \frac{h}{2}f(t_n, y_n)\right)$$

The idea is to evaluate  $f$  here at several points.

Although more complicated, the methods achieve a higher accuracy and resolve some of the problems discussed.

#### 4. DSOLVE APP

Here is a cool program in Python that solves ODE symbolically.

#### Example 3:

$$t^2y' + 2ty = \cos(t)$$

Notice this is the same as  $t^2y' + 2ty - \cos(t) = 0$

```
from sympy import *
t=symbols('t')
y=Function('y')

deq=t**2*diff(y(t),t)+2*t*y(t)-cos(t)
ysoln=dsolve(deq,y(t))
print(ysoln)
```

#### Remarks:

- deq is the ODE, make sure to write it in the form = 0
- \*\* means “square”
- dsolve is the program that solves our differential equation. It has two inputs: The first one is the differential equation, the second one is our unknown
- Print prints out the solution
- To write things like  $e^{2t}$ , use `exp(2 * t)`



What this says here is that the solution is  $y(t) = \frac{C + \sin(t)}{t^2}$

#### Example 4:

$$\begin{cases} ty' + (t + 1)y = 2te^{-t} \\ y(1) = 2 \end{cases}$$

To specify initial conditions, you need to add `ics = {y(1) : 2}` as a third input in your `dsolve` command

```
from sympy import *
t=symbols('t')
y=Function('y')

deq=t*difff(y(t),t)+(t+1)*y(t)-2*t*exp(-t)
ysoln=dsolve(deq,y(t),ics={y(1):2})
print(ysoln)
```

So here the solution is  $y = (t^2 - 1 + 2e) \frac{e^{-t}}{t}$

#### Example 5:

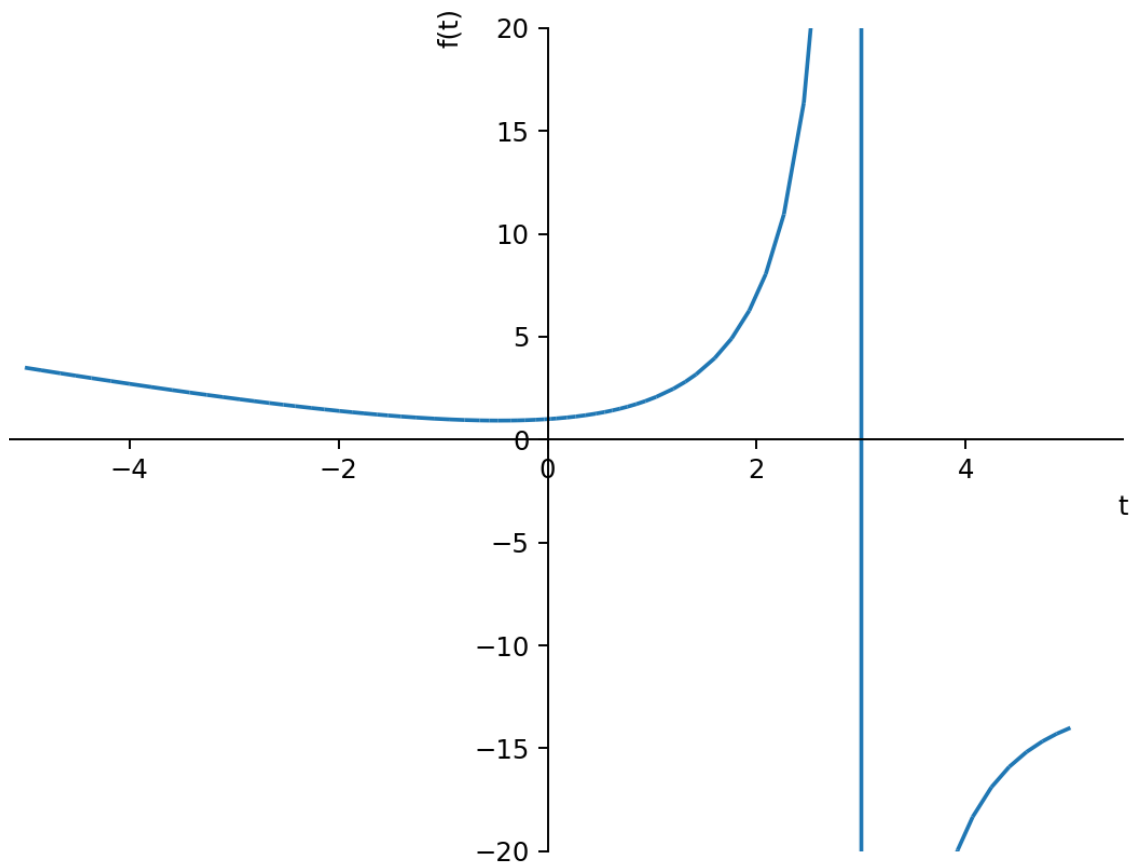
Plot the solution of

$$\begin{cases} (-y^2 - 2ty) + (3 + t^2) y' = 0 \\ y(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

**Warning:** Do not forget about the `.rhs` in your plot command!

```
from sympy import *
from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
```

```
t=symbols('t')
y=Function('y')
deq=(-y(t)**2-2*t*y(t)) + (3+t**2)*diff(y(t),t)
ysoln=dsolve(deq,y(t),ics={y(0):1})
print(ysoln)
plot(ysoln.rhs,(t,-5,5),ylim=[-20,20])
```



## 5. SECOND-ORDER ODE

Welcome to the magical world of second-order ODE! Those are equations involving  $y''$  instead of just  $y'$

**Existence-Uniqueness:** The theorem is the same as for first-order ODE, the only difference is that now we need to specify an initial position  $y(0)$  **and** an initial velocity  $y'(0)$

### Example 6:

$$\begin{cases} y'' = 2y' + t(y^2) \\ y(0) = 2 \\ y'(0) = 3 \quad \text{NEW} \end{cases}$$

### Theorem:

Consider the ODE

$$\begin{cases} y'' = f(y, y', t) \\ y(0) = y_0 \\ y'(0) = v_0 \end{cases}$$

Where  $y_0$  and  $v_0$  are given

If  $f$  and its partial derivatives are continuous, then there is a unique solution  $y = y(t)$  for  $t$  near 0

**Fun Application:** A nice visualization of this is the game Angry Birds, where you determine the initial position and the initial velocity of a bird and try to find a trajectory that goes through a pig. Non-existence would mean the bird blows up, and non-uniqueness would

mean that one bird splits into two birds (two trajectories).



**Application:** Second-order ODE are used to study harmonic oscillators in physics; there will be a whole lecture dedicated to them.