

Mat1062: Computational Methods for PDE

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1 Ownership

These notes are built upon those of Rob Almgren who taught an analogous course in 2003. Whatever you learn of value from them is due to him. All mistakes and sources of confusion are to be blamed on me.

2 Diffusion equation in higher dimensions

Now let's talk about the diffusion equation in two and three dimensions:

$$u_t = D \Delta u$$

where $\Delta u = \nabla^2 u = \operatorname{div}(\nabla u) = u_{xx} + u_{yy}$ or $u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz}$. It is to be solved on some domain Ω , with initial data $u_0(x)$ and some mixture of Dirichlet or Neumann boundary conditions on the boundary $\partial\Omega$.

3 Properties of Equation

Conservation For a fixed domain V ,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V u(x, t) dV = \int_V u_t(x, t) dV = \int_V D \operatorname{div}(\nabla u) dV = \int_{\partial V} D \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} dA.$$

where dV is volume element inside V , and dA is surface area element on the boundary ∂V . As before, nothing is created or destroyed inside; changes happen only across the boundary. It tells you that if D is not constant, then the equation should (barring some special effects) be written *not* as $u_t = D(x, t, u)\Delta u$ but as $u_t = \operatorname{div}(D(x, t, u)\nabla u)$, in order to preserve conservation, and that this structure should be preserved in the discretization.

Maximum principle At a local maximum of u , all second derivatives are nonpositive, and hence $\Delta u \leq 0$, so $u_t \leq 0$ and the maximum cannot increase. Thus (unless forced by the boundary conditions) the maximum and minimum values of u at later times are bounded by the maximum and minimum of the initial data. In particular, if the solution is initially nonnegative it cannot become negative at later times, and this property should be preserved by the discretization. Since the maximum principle also applies to derivatives of u , the solution gets smoother as time evolves.

And we again have the same two special solutions.

Green's function In d dimensions (with D constant), we look for a radially symmetric similarity solution of the form

$$u(x, t) = \frac{1}{(Dt)^{d/2}} U\left(\frac{r}{\sqrt{Dt}}\right)$$

in which the prefactor must have this form by conservation: the length scale of $U(r/\sqrt{Dt})$ is \sqrt{Dt} , so mass spreads over a volume $(Dt)^{d/2}$ in d dimensions.

Then we write the PDE in d -dimensional spherical coordinates as

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{D}{r^{d-1}} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^{d-1} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \right) = D \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial r^2} + \frac{d-1}{r} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \right) \quad (1)$$

which gives the ODE in terms of the similarity variable $\rho = r/\sqrt{Dt}$

$$U''(\rho) + \left(\frac{d-1}{\rho} + \frac{\rho}{2} \right) U'(\rho) + \frac{d}{2} U(\rho) = 0.$$

By inspection, we see that a solution is

$$U(\rho) = C e^{-\rho^2/4}$$

and we determine C by integration. We require

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} u(r, t) dV = \int_0^\infty u(r, t) dV(r) = \int_0^\infty U(\rho) dV(\rho) \\ &= C \int_0^\infty e^{-\rho^2/4} dV(\rho) = C \left(\int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-x^2/4} dx \right)^d = C(2\sqrt{\pi})^d \end{aligned}$$

where $dV = dx_1 \cdots dx_d$ and $dV(r) = d\omega_d r^{d-1}$ where ω_d is the volume of the d -dimensional unit sphere. Hence $C = 1/(\sqrt{4\pi})^d$ and the final Green's function is

$$G(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{1}{(4\pi Dt)^{d/2}} e^{-r^2/4Dt}$$

Fourier modes The other class of special solutions are the Fourier modes, with spatial structure $\sin(\xi_1 x_1) \cdots \sin(\xi_d x_d)$. Plugging in the PDE gives

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) = e^{-\sigma t} \sin(\xi_1 x_1) \cdots \sin(\xi_d x_d), \quad \sigma = D\xi^2 = D(\xi_1^2 + \cdots + \xi_d^2).$$

The same function could be written in terms of cosines. In fact, to see the spatial structure it is much easier to write it as complex exponentials:

$$u(\mathbf{x}, t) = \exp(-\sigma t + i(\xi_1 x_1 + \cdots + \xi_d x_d)) = \exp(-\sigma t + i\xi \cdot \mathbf{x}),$$

where $\xi = (\xi_1, \dots, \xi_d)$ is the *wave vector*. These are plane waves with normal vector $\xi/|\xi|$, and of wavelength $2\pi/|\xi|$. Except for the rotational degree of freedom, the dispersion relation is the same as in one dimension.

4 Discretization

The simplest case is a rectangular box. To simplify the notation, let's write everything in just two dimensions. The box is $[0, L_x] \times [0, L_y]$, with either Dirichlet or Neumann boundary conditions on each wall or segment of wall independently.

4.1 Space discretization

We pick grid sizes N_x, N_y , giving spacings $h_x = L_x/N_x$ and $h_y = L_y/N_y$. We discretize a smooth function $u(x, y, t)$ in space by the $(N_x + 1)(N_y + 1)$ grid values

$$u_{i,j}(t) \approx u(ih_x, jh_y, t), \quad i = 0, \dots, N_x, j = 0, \dots, N_y.$$

We suppose the boundary values are stored, even though this is not strictly necessary for Dirichlet boundaries. We will reserve k for the time step, so in three dimensions we would either have to introduce indices i_1, i_2, i_3 or change k to τ and use i, j, k .

Straightforward expansion in each dimension separately shows that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{h_x^2}(u_{i-1,j} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i+1,j}) &= u_{xx} + \frac{1}{12}h_x^2 u_{xxxx} + \dots \\ \frac{1}{h_y^2}(u_{i,j-1} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i,j+1}) &= u_{yy} + \frac{1}{12}h_y^2 u_{yyyy} + \dots\end{aligned}$$

Simplifying the most common case of a square grid on which $h_x = h_y$ (obtained by choosing $N_x/N_y = L_x/L_y$), we have the 5-point approximation

$$\begin{aligned}(Lu)_{i,j} &= \frac{1}{h^2}(u_{i-1,j} + u_{i+1,j} + u_{i,j-1} + u_{i,j+1} - 4u_{i,j}) \\ &\sim \Delta u + \frac{1}{12}h^2(u_{xxxx} + u_{yyyy}) + \dots\end{aligned}$$

We thus get the system of ODEs

$$\frac{d}{dt} u_{i,j}(t) = \frac{D}{h^2}(u_{i-1,j} + u_{i+1,j} + u_{i,j-1} + u_{i,j+1} - 4u_{i,j}).$$

In three dimensions the obvious extension gives the 7-point Laplacian.

The five-point stencil used the nearest neighbors of $u_{i,j}$ — it used $u_{i,j+1}$, $u_{i,j-1}$, $u_{i-1,j}$, and $u_{i+1,j}$. A more appealing formula can be constructed by using the next-nearest neighbors as well:

$$\begin{aligned}(Lu)_{i,j} &= \frac{1}{6h^2}(u_{i+1,j+1} + u_{i-1,j+1} + u_{i-1,j-1} + u_{i+1,j+1}) \\ &\quad + \frac{2}{3h^2}(u_{i,j+1} + u_{i,j-1} + u_{i-1,j} + u_{i+1,j}) - \frac{10}{3h^2}u_{i,j} \\ &\sim \Delta u + \frac{1}{12}h^2\Delta\Delta u + \dots\end{aligned}$$

Note that even though though the truncation error is of precisely the same size (h^2) it has the form $\Delta\Delta u$ which is more isotropic, meaning independent of grid orientation—in some problems this makes a difference. It is consistent with the interpretation of the Laplacian as average value around a small circle minus value at the center: including the corner points rather than just the edge points gives a fuller approximation. Stability properties are slightly improved as well. This can be generalized to three dimensions, resulting in a 27-point stencil.

In three dimensions, the situation is even worse: there are two diagonals a distance N_x away, as here, and in addition two more a distance $N_x N_y$ corresponding to the neighbors above and below. Thus in two and three dimensions, inverting the matrix for the linear system is a highly nontrivial problem. There is no way to rearrange the point ordering to make the situation substantially better.

Postponing discussion of the linear algebra, let us analyse consistency and stability. In fact, we analysed the truncation error above: the total error is $\mathcal{O}(h^2, k)$ if $\theta \neq \frac{1}{2}$, and $\mathcal{O}(h^2, k^2)$ if $\theta = \frac{1}{2}$, just as in one dimension.

4.3 Stability

We now do the von Neumann analysis of the stability. As before, we ignore boundaries and consider how the time-stepping scheme would perform given initial data on $h\mathbb{Z} \times h\mathbb{Z}$. (How to modify things for $h_x\mathbb{Z} \times h_y\mathbb{Z}$ follows naturally.)

In one dimension, given $\{u_m\}$ defined on $h\mathbb{Z}$ we used it to define $\hat{u}(\xi)$ where $\xi \in [-\pi/h, \pi/h]$. In two dimensions, given $\{u_{i,j}\}$ defined on $h\mathbb{Z} \times h\mathbb{Z}$, we define $\hat{u}(\xi, \eta)$ for $\xi, \eta \in [-\pi/h, \pi/h]$. Proceeding exactly as before, the discrete scheme

$$u_{i,j}^{n+1} = u_{i,j}^n + \lambda (u_{i-1,j} + u_{i+1,j} + u_{i,j-1} + u_{i,j+1} - 4u_{i,j}),$$

transforms into

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{u}^{n+1}(\xi, \eta) &= (1 - 4\lambda)\hat{u}^n(\xi, \eta) + \lambda e^{h\xi\sqrt{-1}}\hat{u}^n(\xi, \eta) + \lambda e^{-h\xi\sqrt{-1}}\hat{u}^n(\xi, \eta) \\ &\quad + \lambda e^{h\eta\sqrt{-1}}\hat{u}^n(\xi, \eta) + \lambda e^{-h\eta\sqrt{-1}}\hat{u}^n(\xi, \eta) \\ &= (1 - 4\lambda + 2\cos(h\xi) + 2\cos(h\eta)) \hat{u}^n(\xi, \eta) \end{aligned}$$

The scheme is stable if the prefactor $1 - 4\lambda + 2\cos(h\xi) + 2\cos(h\eta)$ has magnitude less than or equal to 1 for all $\xi, \eta \in [-\pi/h, \pi/h]$. As before, we can study this prefactor using calculus and we find that its most negative values occur when $\xi = \pm\pi/h$ and $\eta = \pm\pi/h$. For these values to be greater than or equal to -1 we find that $\lambda \leq 1/4$.

Here is a fully equivalent, somewhat less cumbersome, way of doing the same stability analysis. We look for special solutions having the form

$$u_{i,j}^n = \omega_1^i \omega_2^j \eta^n,$$

where ω_1 and ω_2 are two complex numbers of unit magnitude (superscripts on ω_1 , ω_2 , and η indicate exponentiation). The discretization formula gives us η in terms of ω_1, ω_2 ; the scheme is stable if $|\eta| \leq 1$ for all such ω_1, ω_2 .

We begin by calculating the effect of the discrete Laplacian operator applied to such a system.

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{Lu})_{i,j}^n &= \frac{1}{h^2} \left(\frac{1}{\omega_1} + \omega_1 + \frac{1}{\omega_2} + \omega_2 - 4 \right) \omega_1^i \omega_2^j \eta^n \\ &= \frac{1}{h^2} \left[2 \operatorname{Re} \omega_1 + 2 \operatorname{Re} \omega_2 - 4 \right] \omega_1^i \omega_2^j \eta^n \\ &= -\frac{2}{h^2} \left[(1 - \operatorname{Re} \omega_1) + (1 - \operatorname{Re} \omega_2) \right] \omega_1^i \omega_2^j \eta^n \end{aligned}$$

We now use that $\omega_1^i \omega_2^j \eta^n$ is a solution of the discrete scheme:

$$\omega_1^i \omega_2^j \eta^{n+1} = \omega_1^i \omega_2^j \eta^n + \text{Dk}(\text{Lu})_{i,j}^n$$

which then implies

$$\eta = 1 - 2\lambda \left[(1 - \operatorname{Re} \omega_1) + (1 - \operatorname{Re} \omega_2) \right].$$

For stability, η must lie in the unit ball of radius 1 centered at $(0,0)$ in the complex plane. That is,

$$0 \leq 2\lambda \left[(1 - \operatorname{Re} \omega_1) + (1 - \operatorname{Re} \omega_2) \right] \leq 2$$

Note that ω_1 and ω_2 are *arbitrary* complex numbers of magnitude 1. As a result the quantity in square brackets is a real number whose value may be anywhere in the interval $[0, 4]$.

$$\max_{\omega_1, \omega_2} 2\lambda \left[(1 - \operatorname{Re} \omega_1) + (1 - \operatorname{Re} \omega_2) \right] = 8\lambda \leq 2 \implies \lambda \leq \frac{1}{4}.$$

In higher dimensions, we keep adding more terms $1 - \operatorname{Re} \omega$, each of which has maximum value 2. Thus in d dimensions, the stability constraint for explicit Euler timestepping is

$$\lambda \leq \frac{1}{2d} \quad \text{in } d \text{ dimensions.}$$

As before, the implicit methods with $\frac{1}{2} \leq \theta \leq 1$ are stable for all λ .

The maximum growth rate is achieved when $\omega_1 = \omega_2 = -1$, so the spatial pattern is $(-1)^i (-1)^j$, a checkerboard.

Despite the $1/d$ effects described above, as you go to more dimensions, explicit methods become relatively more favored, for two reasons:

- The linear systems corresponding to the implicit methods become harder to solve. Explicit methods are just about as easy in three dimensions as in one, but implicit methods are much harder.
- It is not possible to take h small in high dimensions, because of the “curse of dimensionality:” the sheer numbers of grid points involved. If you can afford to put a million grid points in a domain whose edge length is size 10, then in 1-D you can have $h = 10^{-5}$, in 2-D you can have a 1000×1000 grid with $h = 10^{-2}$, and in 3-D you can have only $100 \times 100 \times 100$ for $h = 10^{-1} = 0.1$. Since the stability restriction depends only on the value of h , it becomes much less stringent.

The situation changes if you implement some sort of adaptive mesh method, which is able to achieve small grid steps h without requiring astronomical numbers of points. Unfortunately, in that case solving the linear system becomes even harder because it is ill-conditioned, but those problems are beyond the scope of a beginning course.