

Scientific Computing 1

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October 15, 2023

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Introduction

- Tuesday 10:15 - 12:00
- Thursday: 08:25 - 10:00
- Orga infos and literature on ecampus

1 Partial differential equations

1.1 Laplace equation

Problem: How to model soap membrane spanned by a wire sling?

Notation:

- $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ a bounded domain (open and connected set)
- $\Gamma = \partial\Omega$
- $g : \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ describing the wire sling
- $u : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ describing the soap membrane

Question: Given Ω and g , how can we characterize the soap membrane?

u has minimal surface area.

$$\min_u \int_{u(\Omega)} 1 d\sigma = \int_{\Omega} \|\vec{u}_x \times \vec{u}_y\|_2 dx dy = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ u_x(x, y) \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ u_y(x, y) \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2 = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} -u_x(x, y) \\ u_y(x, y) \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2 = \sqrt{1 + u_x(x, y)^2 + u_y(x, y)^2}$$

Observation: $\sqrt{1+z} = 1 + z + O(z^2)$, $z \rightarrow 0$.

\Rightarrow Alternate minimization problem:

$$\min_u \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} (u_x(x, y)^2 + u_y(x, y)^2) dx dy}_{F(u)} = \min_u F(u)$$

Assume: We have a minimizer $u \in C^2(\Omega) \cap C(\overline{\Omega})$ with $u|_{\Gamma} = g$

For $v \in C^1(\Omega) \cap C(\overline{\Omega})$ with $v|_{\Gamma} = 0$, we obtain

$$0 = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(u + \epsilon) - F(u)}{\epsilon} \tag{1}$$

$$= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \int_{\Omega} ((u_x + \epsilon v_x)^2 + (u_y + \epsilon v_y)^2 - (u_x^2 + u_y^2)) dy dx = (\star) \tag{2}$$

$$= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \int_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\Omega} (2\epsilon u_x v_x + \epsilon^2 v_x^2 + 2\epsilon u_y v_y + \epsilon^2 v_y^2) dx dy \tag{3}$$

$$= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} (2u_x v_x + \epsilon v^2 + 2u_y v_y + \epsilon v_y^2) dx dy \tag{4}$$

$$= \int_{\Omega} (u_x v_x + u_y v_y) dx dy \tag{5}$$

$$= \int_{\Omega} \langle \nabla u, \nabla v \rangle dx dy \tag{6}$$

Observation: A similar term as (1.1) also appears in the Gauss theorem, i.e.

$$\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} \vec{f} \vec{x} = \int_{\Gamma} \langle \vec{f}, \vec{n} \rangle d\sigma$$

where \vec{n} is the outward pointing normal to Γ , and $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$. If $f = \nabla(u)v$ we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div}(\nabla u)v dx + \int_{\Omega} \langle \nabla u, \nabla v \rangle dx \\ &= \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} f dx \\ &= \int_{\Gamma} \langle f, n \rangle d\sigma \\ &= \int_{\Gamma} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} \underbrace{v}_{=0} d\sigma = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Summarizing, u needs to satisfy

$$\int_{\Omega} \underbrace{\operatorname{div}(\nabla u)}_{=\Delta u} v dx = 0$$

for all $v \in C^1(\Omega) \cap C(\overline{\Omega})$

By the fundamental lemma of calculus of variations, u must satisfy

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u(x) = 0 & x \in \Omega \\ u(x) = g(x) & x \in \Gamma \end{cases}$$

This equation is called the **Laplace equation** or a **potential equation**.

1.2 Heat equation

Problem: How to model temperature in a fixed volume over time?

Notation:

- $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ a bounded domain, $d \in \mathbb{N}_+$
- $\Gamma = \partial\Omega$
- $u : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- $u(0, x) = u_0(x), x \in \Omega$
- $u(t, x) = g(t, x) \ (t, x) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \Omega$.
- $f(t, x)$ heat source in $\Omega \ (t, x) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \Omega$.

Question: Given Ω, u_0, f, g how can we characterize u ?

First law of thermodynamics:

For any given $V \subset \Omega$ it must hold

$$\underbrace{\int_V \frac{\partial}{\partial t} u(t, x) dx}_{\text{Change of temperature in } V} = - \underbrace{\int_{\partial V} \langle q(t, x), n \rangle d\sigma}_{\text{heat flow through } V} + \int_V f(t, x) dx$$

with the material law

$$q(t, x) = c(x \nabla u(t, x)), c(x) \geq c_0 > 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \implies \int_{\partial V} \langle q(t, x), u \rangle d\sigma &= \int_V \operatorname{div}(q(t, x)) dx \\ &= \int_V \operatorname{div}(c(x) \nabla u(t, x)) dx \\ \implies \int_V \frac{\partial}{\partial t} U(t, x) - \operatorname{div}_x((c(x) \nabla u(t, x))) dx &= \int_V f(t, x) dx \end{aligned}$$

By a variation of the fundamental lemma of calculus of variations we obtain the heat equation

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} u(t, x) - \operatorname{div}(c(x) \nabla u(t, x)) = f(t, x) & (x, t \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \Omega) \\ u(0, x) = u_0(x) & x \in \Omega \\ u(t, x) = g(t, x) & (t, x) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \Gamma \end{cases}$$

For $c(x) = 1$ and f, g time independent, the temperature will tend towards an equilibrium for $t \rightarrow \infty$. Then $\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = 0$ and we obtain the poisson equation

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta u(x) = f(x) & x \in \Omega \\ u(x) = g(x) & x \in \Gamma \end{cases}$$

1.3 Wave equation

Problem: How can we model waves in an ideal gas?

Notation:

- $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ a bounded domain, $d \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$
- $\Gamma = \partial\Omega$
- velocity $v : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ of particles
- density $\rho = \rho_0 + \rho_1 : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, ρ_0 is constant with $|\rho_1| \ll \rho_0$
- pressure $p : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of gas
- $p(0, x) = p_0(x), t = 0$
- $g(t, x)$ pressure at boundary Γ , at $t > 0$

Question: Given Ω, v, ρ, p_0, g can we characterize p ?

1. Continuity Equation: (mass conservation) in any $V \subset \mathbb{R}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \underbrace{\int_V \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho(t, x) dx}_{\text{Change of mass}} &= - \underbrace{\int_{\partial V} \rho(t, x) \langle v(t, x), n \rangle d\sigma}_{\text{flux through } \partial V} \\ &= \kappa - \rho_0 \int_{\partial V} \langle v(t, x), n \rangle d\sigma \\ &= -\rho_0 \int_V \operatorname{div}_x(v(t, x)) dx \end{aligned}$$

As before \implies

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho(t, x) \approx -\rho_0 \operatorname{div}_x(v(t, x))$$

2. Newton's law:

$$-\nabla_x p(t, x) = \rho(t, x) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} v(t, x) \approx \rho_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} v(t, x)$$

3. Equation of state:

$$p(t, x) = c^2 \rho(t, x)$$

Combining these 3 laws:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} p(t, x) &= c^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \rho(t, x) \\ &= -c^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \operatorname{div}_x(\rho_0 v(t, x)) = (\star) \\ &= -c^2 \operatorname{div}_x(\rho_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} v(t, x)) \\ &= c^2 \operatorname{div}_x(\nabla p(t, x)) \\ &= c^2 \Delta p(t, x) \end{aligned}$$

This yields the wave equation

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} p(t, x) - \Delta p(t, x) = 0 & (t, x) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \Omega \\ p(t, x) = g(t, x) & (t, x) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \Gamma \\ p(0, x) = p_0(x) & x \in \Omega \end{cases}$$

End of lecture 1 (10.10.2023)

Start of lecture 2 (12.10.2023)

1.4 Helmholtz equation

Observation: Waves are quite often time-periodic, i.e.

$$p(t, x) = e^{\pm i\omega t} \hat{p}(x), \omega > 0$$

Substituting into the wave equation:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= -\omega^2 p(t, x) - c^2 \Delta_x p(t, x) \\ &= e^{i\omega t} (-\omega^2 \hat{p}(x) - c^2 \Delta_x \hat{p}(x)) \\ \Rightarrow -\Delta_x \hat{p}(x) - \underbrace{\frac{\omega^2}{c^2}}_{=k^2} \hat{p}(x) &= 0, x \in \Omega \end{aligned}$$

If the boundary data are time periodic as well, $g(t, x) = e^{i\omega t} g(x)$, we obtain the Helmholtz equation:

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta \hat{p}(x) - k^2 \hat{p}(x) = 0 & x \in \Omega \\ \hat{p}(x) = \hat{g}(x) & x \in \Gamma \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Advantage: We have gotten rid of the time-dimension.

1.5 Characterization of partial differential equations

Question: Can we find some structure in the partial differential equations above?

Observation: Given a sufficiently smooth function $u : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, all of the above PDE can be written in terms of a general partial differential operator

$$(Lu)(x) = - \sum_{i,j=1}^d a_{i,j}(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} u(x) + \sum_{i=1}^d b_i(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} u(x) + c(x) \cdot u(x) \quad (8)$$

where

$$A(x) = [a_{i,j}(x)]_{i,j}^d \in C(\overline{\Omega})^{d \times d}$$

$$b(x) = [b_i(x)]_{i=1}^d \in C(\overline{\Omega})^d$$

$$c(x) \in C(\overline{\Omega})$$

Observation: For $u \in C^2(\Omega)$ we have

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} u = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} u$$

\implies w.l.o.g. we can assume that $A(x)$ is symmetric. $\implies A(x)$ has real eigenvalues.

definition 1.1. We call $-\sum_{i,j=1}^d a_{i,j}(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} u(x)$ the principle part of the operator. Partial differential operators are called

- elliptic in $x \in \Omega$ if all eigenvalues of $A(x)$ are positive
- parabolic in $x \in \Omega$ if $d-1$ eigenvalues of A are positive, one eigenvalue vanishes and

$$\text{rank}(A(x) \quad b(x)) = d$$

- hyperbolic in $x \in \Omega$ if $d-1$ eigenvalues of $A(x)$ are positive and one eigenvalue is negative.

A partial differential operator is called elliptic, parabolic, hyperbolic if it is so for all $x \in \Omega$

example 1.2. • Laplace and Poisson equations are elliptic

- The heat equation is parabolic
- The wave equation is hyperbolic
- The Helmholtz equation is elliptic

These three classes have fundamentally different properties.

- Elliptic PDE are (mostly) similar to Laplace or Poisson equations. For $f \in C(\Omega), g \in C(\Omega)$, look for $u \in C^2(\Omega) \cap C(\overline{\Omega})$ s.t.

$$\begin{cases} \mathcal{L}u = f & \text{in } \Omega \\ u = g & \text{on } \partial\Omega \end{cases}$$

These boundary conditions are called **Dirichlet** boundary conditions. They can be replaced by **Neumann boundary conditions** $\frac{\partial u}{\partial n} = g$ or others.

- Parabolic PDE: The coordinate direction from the vanishing eigenvalue is usually taken as time derivative, while the rest of the differential operator is elliptic, call it \mathcal{L} . Write

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} u + \mathcal{L}u = f$$

- Hyperbolic PDE: Take the coordinate direction with the negative eigenvalue as time. Write

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} u + \mathcal{L}u = f$$

Observation: We need to look at elliptic differential operators.

Question: When is it reasonable to look at solutions to PDE?

definition 1.3. A problem is well-posed if there exists a solution, the solution is unique and it depends continuously on the data.

Question: Are the PDE above well posed?

1.6 Maximum principle

Simplification: Consider a bounded domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and

$$(\mathcal{L}u)(x) = - \sum_{i,j=1}^d a_{i,j}(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} u(x) \quad (9)$$

which is elliptic.

theorem 1.4 (Maximum principle). Let $u \in C^2(\Omega) \cap C(\bar{\Omega})$ a solution to $\mathcal{L}(u) = f \leq 0$. Then u attains its maximum on the boundary, i.e.

$$\max_{x \in \bar{\Omega}} u(x) = \max_{x \in \partial\Omega} u(x)$$

Proof. Case 1: $f < 0$ Assume there is $y \in \Omega$ with $u(y) = \max_{x \in \bar{\Omega}} u(x) > \max_{x \in \Gamma} u(x)$.

Observation: $A(x)$ is symmetric, \mathcal{L} is elliptic.

$\Rightarrow A(y)$ is symmetric and has positive, real eigenvalues.

\Rightarrow there is $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ such that

$$QA(y)Q^t$$

is diagonal and has positive entries.

Observation: Rotating the coordinate system on Ω by Q , i.e., setting $\zeta = Qx$ changes the differential operator to our advantage.

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathcal{L}u)(\zeta) &\stackrel{\text{exercise}}{=} - \sum_{i,j=1}^d (QA(\zeta)Q^t)_{ij} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \zeta_i \partial \zeta_j} u(\zeta) \\ \Rightarrow (\mathcal{L}u)(y) &= - \sum_{i,j=1}^d \underbrace{(QA(y)Q^t)_{ij}}_{=0 \text{ if } i \neq j} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \zeta_i \partial \zeta_j} u(\zeta) \\ &= - \sum_{i=1}^d \underbrace{(QA(y)Q^t)_{ii}}_{>0} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \zeta_i^2} u(\zeta) \end{aligned}$$

Observation: y is an extremal point of u

$$\Rightarrow \partial_{\zeta_i} u(y) = 0, \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \zeta_i^2} u(y) \leq 0$$

$$f(y) = (\mathcal{L}u)(y) = - \sum_{i=1}^d (QA(y)Q^t)_{ii} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \zeta_i^2} u(y) \geq 0$$

Contradiction to $f < 0$.

Case: $f \leq 0$

Assumption: As before assume there is $y \in \Omega$, s.t. $u(y) = \max_{x \in \bar{\Omega}} u(x) > \max_{x \in \Gamma} u(x)$.

Observation: Setting

$$h(x) = \|x - y\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^d |x_i - y_i|^2$$

and $\delta > 0$ small enough and set $w = \delta h$.

For δ small enough, w has its maximum in Ω .

□

End of lecture 2 (12.10.2023)