

Numerical Mathematics (Practical)

Solution of Basic ODE / PDE

PDE's are defined by $u = u(x, y, z)$, $v = v(x, y, z)$, $w = w(x, y, z)$

u, v, w = dependent variable, x, y, z = independent variable. So

in general, $F(x, y, z, u, v, w, u_x, v_x, w_x, u_{xx}, \dots, u_{xy}, \dots) = 0$

Order \rightarrow Highest order derivative \rightarrow $\begin{cases} u_x - bu_y = 0 & (1^{\text{st}} \text{ order}) \\ u_{xx} + u_y = 0 & (2^{\text{nd}} \text{ order}) \\ u_{xxxx} + u_{yyyy} = 0 & (4^{\text{th}} \text{ order}) \end{cases}$

If several independent PDE, then combination to single equation gives the order.

$$u_x + v_y = u_z, \quad u = w_x, \quad v = w_y \Rightarrow w_{xx} + w_{yy} = w_{zz} \quad (2^{\text{nd}} \text{ order})$$

Linearity \rightarrow Important to find solution of PDE. For example, consider

$$a(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) u_x + b(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) u_y = c(x, y, u, u_x, u_y).$$

If $\begin{cases} a(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = a(x, y) \text{ only} \\ b(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = b(x, y) \text{ only} \\ c(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = c(x, y) \text{ only} \end{cases}$ (linear) $\rightarrow u_x + bu_y = 0.$

If $\begin{cases} a(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = a(x, y, u) \text{ only} \\ b(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = b(x, y, u) \text{ only} \\ c(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = c(x, y, u) \text{ only} \end{cases}$ (quasi-linear) $\rightarrow u_x + uu_y = x^2$

If $\begin{cases} a(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = a(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) \\ b(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = b(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) \\ c(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) = c(x, y, u, u_x, u_y) \end{cases}$ (nonlinear) $\rightarrow u_x + (u_y)x(u_y) = 0$

General form 1^{st} order ODE $\frac{du}{dx} = f(x, u)$. Given x, u , $\frac{du}{dx}$ is

uniquely known, while for PDE, given x, y, u gives connection between u_x, u_y but not $u_x = ?$, $u_y = ?$. For 2^{nd} order ODE, point & tangent line on a plane defines the solution while curve, 3D-space & tangent plane defines PDE.

Linear 2nd order PDE

$$au_{xx} + 2bu_{xy} + cu_{yy} + du_x + eu_y + fu + g = h \quad (\text{source}) \quad \text{①}$$

$= 0$

where a, b, c, d, e, f, g are linear constant coefficients. Every linear 2nd order PDE are of canonical forms parabolic, hyperbolic and elliptic.

If $b^2 - ac > 0$, PDE is hyperbolic; $u_{tt} = u_{xx}$; $b^2 - ac = 0 + 1 \cdot 1 = 1$
(wave equation)

If $b^2 - ac = 0$, PDE is parabolic; $u_t = u_{xx}$; $b^2 - ac = 0 \cdot 1 \cdot 0 = 0$
(heat equation)

If $b^2 - ac < 0$, PDE is elliptic; $u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$; $b^2 - ac = 0 - 1 \cdot 1 = -1$
(Laplace equation)

Tricomi's equation $yu_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$, elliptic for $y > 0$
hyperbolic for $y < 0$

Solutions of Elliptic equation (e.g. Laplace eqⁿ) can support large gradients as a source/sink term h (in eqⁿ ①). Numerics of linear algebra of diagonally dominant linear equation solvers are a good choice. Parabolic equations (e.g. heat eqⁿ) generally have smooth solutions, but often exhibit solutions with evolving regions of high gradients. Matrix factorization with dynamic gridding algorithm (ADI methods) are good. Hyperbolic equations are the most-hardest as they exhibit spurious oscillations at sharp boundary as well as artificial effects. As shown using Octave code in class, artificial diffusion occurs to simulate a wave that can be solved only using 3rd order upwind scheme.

Boundary condition

Dirichlet B.C.

Neumann B.C.

Cauchy B.C.

$\beta = 0$, (Value Specified)

$\alpha = 0$ (Slope specified)

2 equations

$\alpha = 0$ in one
 $\beta = 0$ in other

(Both slope & value specified)

Robbin B.C. $\alpha \neq \beta \neq 0$ (homogeneous form)

- (a) Hyperbolic equations are associated with Cauchy conditions (open region)
(wave equation) (2 initial, 2 B.C.)
- (b) Parabolic equations are associated with Dirichlet/Neumann B.C. (open region)
(heat equation) (1 initial, 2 B.C.)
- (c) Elliptic equations are associated with Dirichlet/Neumann B.C. (closed region)
(Laplace equation) (1 B.C.)

Finite Difference & Boundary value Problem (BVP)

$$f''(x) = \frac{f(x+h) - 2f(x) + f(x-h)}{h^2} + O(h^2). \text{ Consider a simple BVP}$$

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = 12x^2 \text{ with } y(0) = 0, y(1) = 0 \text{ (Dirichlet B.C.)}$$

Exact solution $y(x) = x^4 - x$. We divide the 1D interval $[0, 1]$ into L subintervals with step size $dx = \frac{1}{L}$ & the points

$$x_i = (i-1)dx \text{ with } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, L+1.$$

$$\text{So in FD form, } y_{i+1} - 2y_i + y_{i-1} = 12x_i^2 dx^2, \quad y_1 = 0 = y_{L+1}$$

So we have $L+1$ equations with $L+1$ unknowns

$$\begin{cases} y_1 = 0 \\ y_1 - 2y_2 + y_3 = 12x_2^2 dx^2 \\ y_2 - 2y_3 + y_4 = 12x_3^2 dx^2 \\ \vdots \\ y_{L-1} - 2y_L + y_{L+1} = 12x_L^2 dx^2 \\ y_{L+1} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_L \\ y_{L+1} \end{bmatrix}}_y = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 12x_2^2 dx^2 \\ 12x_3^2 dx^2 \\ \vdots \\ 12x_L^2 dx^2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_b$$

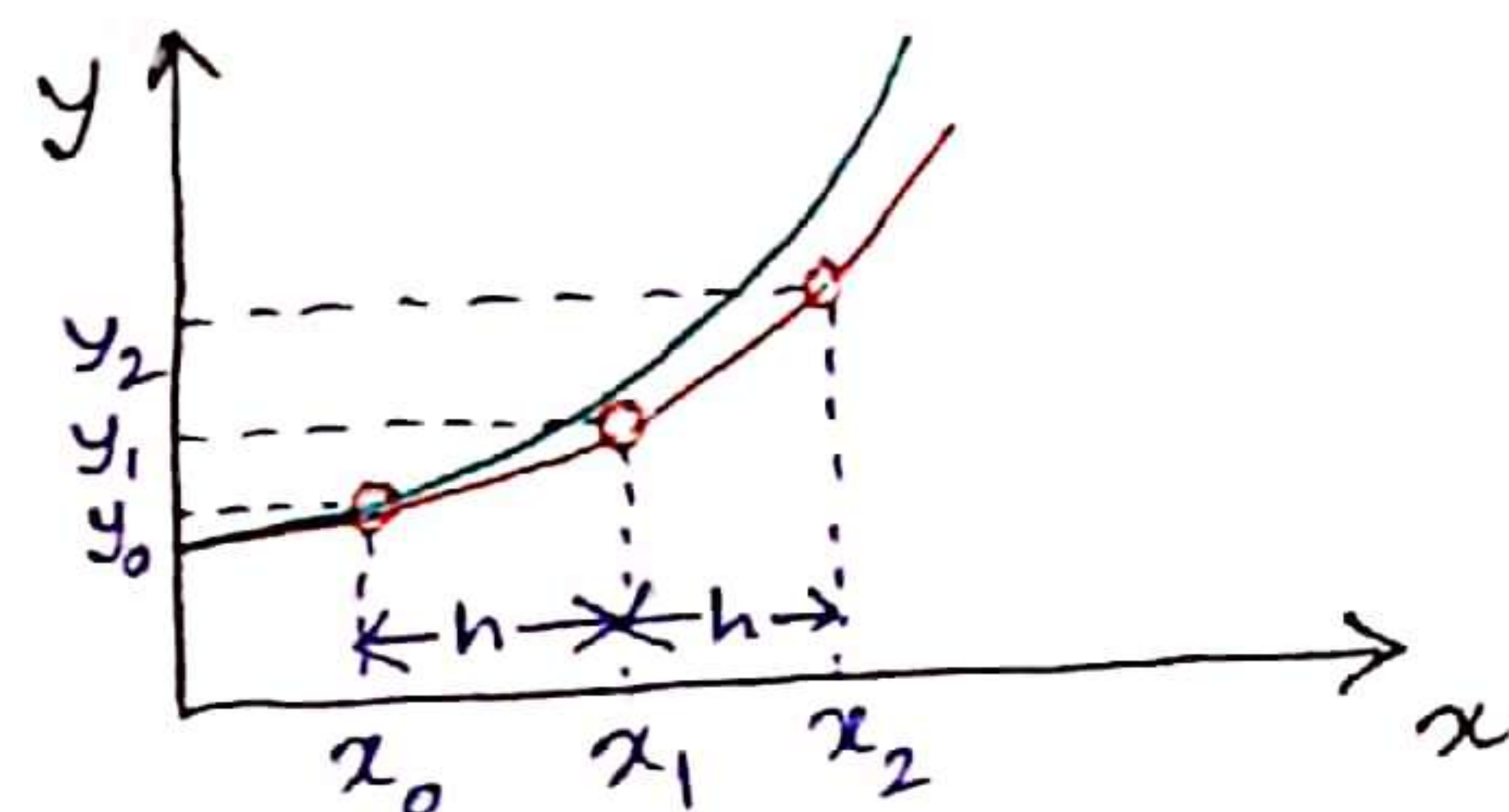
whose solution is $y = A^{-1}b$.

Solution of ODE: Euler, RK2 & RK4 (Explicit-Method)

Euler Method Divide the region of interest (a, b) into discrete values of $x = nh$, $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1$. spaced at interval $h = \frac{b-a}{N}$. Use the forward difference approximation for the differential coefficient

$$f(x_n, y_n) = \frac{dy_n}{dx} = y_n' \approx \frac{y_{n+1} - y_n}{h}$$

$$\therefore y_{n+1} \approx y_n + hf(x_n, y_n).$$



Accuracy Expanding in Taylor series,

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + hy_n' + \frac{h^2}{2!} y_n'' + \dots = y_n + hf_n + \frac{h^2}{2} y'' + \dots \approx y_n + hf_n.$$

\therefore Error per step is $O(h^2)$ and as there are $\frac{b-a}{h}$ steps in the interval, so global error is $O(h)$.

Stability Consider the linear test equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = \lambda y(x)$. The equation is stable if $\text{Real}(\lambda) \leq 0$, so that the solution is exponentially decaying $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} y(x) = 0$. Discretizing of this equation

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h\lambda y_i = (1 + h\lambda)y_i = (1 + h\lambda)^2 y_{i-1} = \dots = (1 + h\lambda)^{i+1} y_0$$

The solution is decaying (stable) if $|1 + h\lambda| \leq 1$.

Modified-Euler / Midpoint / Heun / Predictor-Corrector's Method

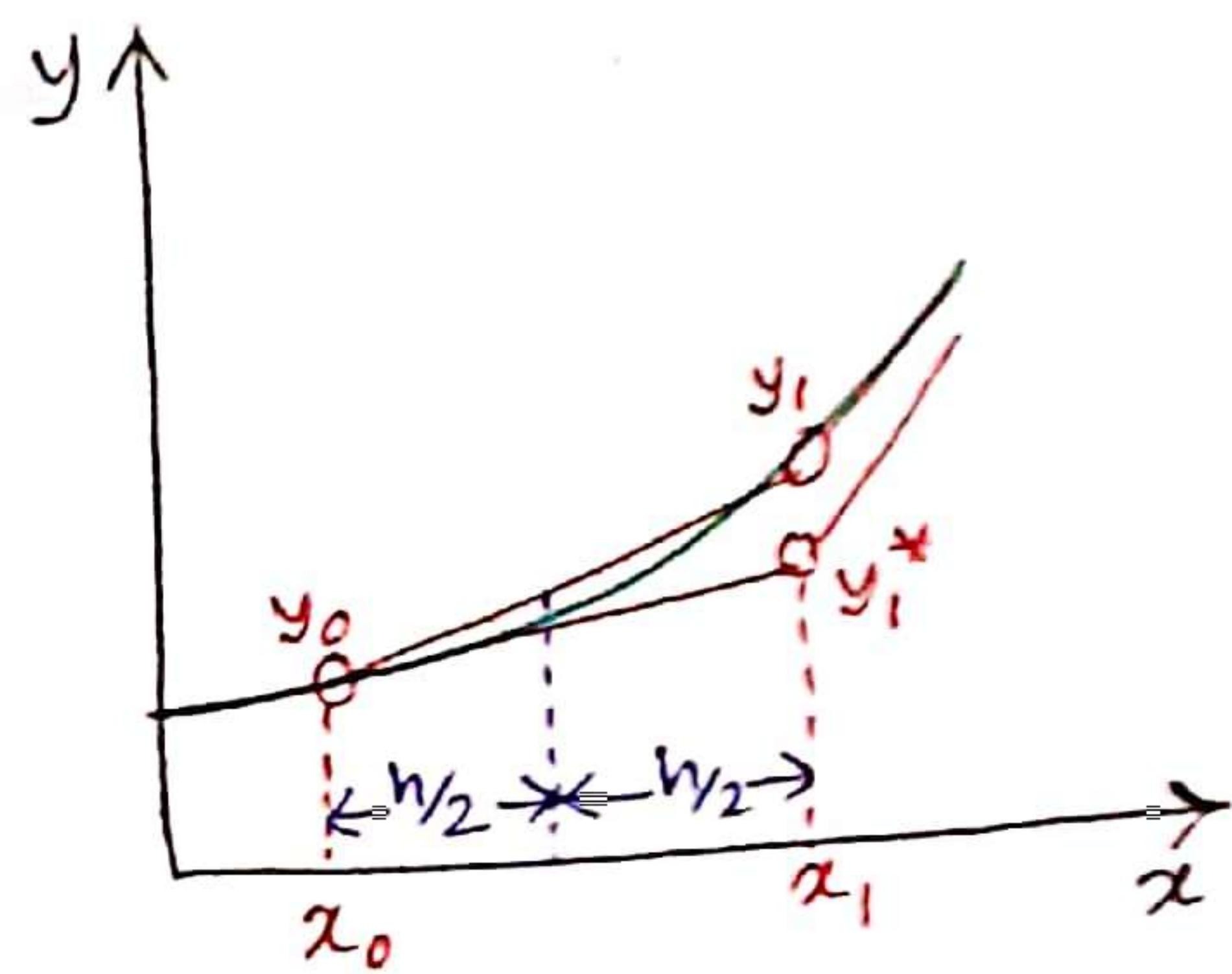
A better way of estimating the slope from (x_n, y_n) to (x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}) would be $y_{n+1} \approx y_n + \frac{h}{2} [f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1})]$

However we can estimate it by using Euler's method to give a 2-stage predictor-corrector scheme.

(a) Predictor step : $y_{n+1}^* = y_n + hf(x_n, y_n)$

(b) Corrector step : $y_{n+1} \approx y_n + \frac{h}{2} [f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}^*)]$

So the predictor step estimates the slope y' at x_n to predict a guess y_{n+1}^* . The corrector steps correct the value.



Accuracy Expanding f_{n+1}^* in Taylor series

$$f_{n+1}^* = f(x_n + h, y_n + hf_n) \\ = f(x_n, y_n) + h \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x} + hf_n \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial y} + O(h^2)$$

$$\text{So } y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{h}{2} (f_n + f_{n+1}^*) = y_n + \frac{h}{2} \left(f_n + f_n + h \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x} + hf_n \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial y} + O(h^2) \right) \\ = y_n + hf_n + \frac{h^2}{2} \left(\frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x} + f_n \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial y} \right) + O(h^3)$$

So local error per step is $O(h^3)$ and the global error is $O(h^2)$.

Runge Kutta 4 The fourth order RK uses several predictive steps and it's locally $O(h^5)$ and globally $O(h^4)$.

$$\text{RK4 steps: } \left. \begin{aligned} a &= hf(x_n, y_n) \\ b &= hf(x_n + \frac{h}{2}, y_n + \frac{a}{2}) \\ c &= hf(x_n + \frac{h}{2}, y_n + \frac{b}{2}) \\ d &= hf(x_n + h, y_n + c) \end{aligned} \right\} y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{1}{6} (a + 2b + 2c + d)$$

There are implicit integrators (e.g. Backward Euler, Crank-Nicholson, ADI etc), for which one can take larger h because stiff equations are hard to solve using explicit integrator, because of very small h , they become useless. The downside is implicit integrators are hard to code.

CFL condition Courant-Friedrichs-Lewy condition is a necessary condition for convergence when solving hyperbolic PDEs using explicit integrators. If a wave is moving across a grid & we want to compute its amplitude at discrete timesteps of equal duration then this duration must be less than the time for the wave to travel to

next grid point. In 1D, $c = \frac{u \Delta t}{\Delta x} = \text{Courant number}$

$$\text{In 2D, } c = \frac{u_x \Delta t}{\Delta x} + \frac{u_y \Delta t}{\Delta y}$$