

# Numerical Approaches to the Heat Equation

Andrew Shea

April 14, 2025

# Introduction

The heat equation is a fundamental partial differential equation (PDE) that describes how heat diffuses through a medium over time.

It appears in a wide range of fields:

- Physics (e.g., heat conduction, diffusion processes)
- Engineering (e.g., thermal analysis)
- Finance (e.g., Black-Scholes equation)

# What We'll Cover

- Introduction to the problem and methods
- An analytical solution to our problem
- Derivation of Numerical Method
- Physics Informed Neural Networks (PINNs)
- Implementation of each method
- Results Comparisons
- Conclusions and insight from data

# The 1D Heat Equation

The classical 1D heat equation (On a rod of length  $L$ ):

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = k \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}, \quad x \in [0, L], \quad t \geq 0$$

**Where:**

- $u(x, t)$  is the temperature at position  $x$  and time  $t$
- $k$  is the thermal diffusivity constant

**Initial Condition (IC):**

$$u(x, 0) = f(x) \quad (\text{initial temperature distribution})$$

**Boundary Conditions (BCs):**

$$u(0, t) = T_1, \quad u(L, t) = T_2 \quad (\text{Dirichlet BCs – fixed temperature at ends})$$

# Obtaining the 1D Analytical Solution

We will now solve the 1D heat equation under the following conditions:

$$\frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial t} = k \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial x^2}$$

## Initial Condition (IC):

- $u(x, 0) = \sin(\pi x)$
- The sine function was chosen as the initial condition because it will give a clear initial temperature distribution across our domain, satisfying our boundary conditions

## Boundary Conditions (BCs):

- $u(0, t) = 0$  and  $u(1, t) = 0$
- These are homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions, meaning the temperature at the ends of our domain are fixed at 0

# Obtaining the 1D analytical solution

To solve the heat equation, we will use the method of **separation of variables**.

We assume the solution has the form:

$$u(x, t) = \phi(x)G(t)$$

Where  $\phi(x)$  is a function of  $x$  and  $G(t)$  is a function of  $t$ .

We can substitute this into our heat equation to get the following:

$$\phi(x) \frac{dG(t)}{dt} = kG(t) \frac{d^2\phi(x)}{dx^2}$$

# Obtaining the 1D analytical solution

Dividing both sides by  $\phi(x)G(t)$  to separate the variables:

$$\frac{1}{kG(t)} \frac{dG(t)}{dt} = \frac{1}{\phi(x)} \frac{d^2\phi(x)}{dx^2}$$

Both sides are equal to a constant, which we denote as  $-\lambda$ .

This results in two ordinary differential equations (ODEs):

$$\frac{d^2\phi(x)}{dx^2} + \lambda\phi(x) = 0$$

$$\frac{dG(t)}{dt} = -k\lambda G(t)$$

# Obtaining the 1D analytical solution

We begin with the ODE for  $\phi(x)$ :

$$\frac{d^2\phi(x)}{dx^2} + \lambda\phi(x) = 0$$

This standard 2nd Order ODE has the general solution:

$$\phi(x) = A \sin(\sqrt{\lambda}x) + B \cos(\sqrt{\lambda}x)$$

Applying the boundary conditions:  $\phi(0) = 0$  and  $\phi(1) = 0$  gives  $\sin(\sqrt{\lambda}) = 0$

Thus,  $\sqrt{\lambda} = n\pi$  where  $n$  is a positive integer.

So, the eigenvalues are:

$$\lambda_n = (n\pi)^2$$

And the corresponding eigenfunctions are:

$$\phi_n(x) = A_n \sin(n\pi x)$$



# Obtaining the 1D analytical solution

We now solve the ODE for  $G(t)$ :

$$\frac{dG(t)}{dt} = -k\lambda G(t)$$

This is a simple first-order linear differential equation. The solution is of the form:

$$G(t) = Ce^{-k\lambda t}$$

Now, we substitute the eigenvalue  $\lambda_n = (n\pi)^2$  into this equation:

$$G_n(t) = C_n e^{-k(n\pi)^2 t}$$

So, the time-dependent part of the solution for each  $n$  is:

$$G_n(t) = C_n e^{-kn^2\pi^2 t}$$

# Obtaining the 1D analytical Solution

Now that we've solved both ODEs, the full solution is:

$$u(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \sin(n\pi x) e^{-k(n\pi)^2 t}$$

The constants  $A_n$  are determined using the initial condition:

$$u(x, 0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \sin(n\pi x) = \sin(\pi x)$$

This is a Fourier sine series, giving the following  $A$  values:

$$A_1 = 1, \quad A_n = 0 \text{ for } n \neq 1$$

# Final Analytical Solution

Since only  $A_1 = 1$  and all other  $A_n = 0$ , the infinite sum reduces to a single term.

The final solution is:

$$u(x, t) = \sin(\pi x) e^{-k\pi^2 t}$$

This function satisfies:

- The heat equation
- The boundary conditions:  $u(0, t) = u(1, t) = 0$
- The initial condition:  $u(x, 0) = \sin(\pi x)$

# Numerical Approach: Crank-Nicolson Method

We now turn to a numerical method for solving the 1D heat equation:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = k \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

We will use the **Crank-Nicolson method**, which is:

- Second-order accurate in both time and space.
- Unconditionally stable for linear problems.

It works by averaging the Forward Euler and Backward Euler methods, making it a balanced, more accurate approach

# Crank-Nicolson Scheme Derivation

We start by discretizing the domain into a spacial grid and a time grid:

*Space Grid* :  $x_i = i\Delta x$ , for  $i = 0, 1, 2, 3 \dots$

*Time Grid* :  $t^n = n\Delta t$ , for  $n = 0, 1, 2, 3 \dots$

*This gives* :  $u_i^n \approx u(x_i, t^n)$

# Crank-Nicolson Scheme Derivation

Next, we discretize the time derivative

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(x_i, t^{n+\frac{1}{2}}) \approx \frac{u_i^{n+1} - u_i^n}{\Delta t}$$

And then we average the central difference for space at time step  $n$  and  $n+1$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}(x_i, t^{n+\frac{1}{2}}) \approx \frac{1}{2} \frac{u_{i+1}^n - 2u_i^n + u_{i-1}^n}{(\Delta x)^2} + \frac{u_{i+1}^{n+1} - 2u_i^{n+1} + u_{i-1}^{n+1}}{(\Delta x)^2}$$

# Crank-Nicolson Scheme Derivation

Now we can plug each of our approximations into the heat equation:

$$\frac{u_i^{n+1} - u_i^n}{\Delta t} = k \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{u_{i+1}^n - 2u_i^n + u_{i-1}^n}{(\Delta x)^2} + \frac{u_{i+1}^{n+1} - 2u_i^{n+1} + u_{i-1}^{n+1}}{(\Delta x)^2} \right)$$

Next we multiply by  $\Delta t$  and factor  $(\Delta x)^2$

$$u_i^{n+1} - u_i^n = \frac{k \Delta t}{2(\Delta x)^2} (u_{i+1}^n - 2u_i^n + u_{i-1}^n + u_{i+1}^{n+1} - 2u_i^{n+1} + u_{i-1}^{n+1})$$

# Crank-Nicolson Scheme Derivation

To simplify things we will let  $s = \frac{k\Delta t}{(\Delta x)^2}$  to give us this:

$$u_i^{n+1} - u_i^n = \frac{s}{2} (u_{i+1}^n - 2u_i^n + u_{i-1}^n + u_{i+1}^{n+1} - 2u_i^{n+1} + u_{i-1}^{n+1})$$

And lastly, we can rearrange and simplify our equation with all of our  $n + 1$  terms on the left.

$$(1 + s)u_i^{n+1} - 2s u_{i+1}^{n+1} - 2s u_{i-1}^{n+1} = (1 - s)u_i^n + 2s u_{i+1}^n + 2s u_{i-1}^n$$



# Transition from Single Equation to System of Equations

In the Crank-Nicolson scheme, we have a single equation for each grid point in the spatial domain. We can apply this equation at every grid point in the domain, resulting in a set of equations, one for each spatial point. Thus, the system of equations becomes:

$$u(x_1, t + \Delta t) = \text{function of known values at time } t$$

$$u(x_2, t + \Delta t) = \text{function of known values at time } t$$

$$\vdots$$

$$u(x_N, t + \Delta t) = \text{function of known values at time } t$$

This forms a linear system for all unknowns at  $t + \Delta t$ .

# Solving each system of equations

Each time step involves solving a linear system to find the values of  $u(x, t)$  at every spatial point  $x$  for that specific time.

- The size of each system corresponds to the number of spatial points  $N_x$  in the discretized domain.
- At each time step  $t_n$ , the linear system has  $N_x$  unknowns, representing the values of  $u(x, t_n)$  for each  $x$ .
- The system is solved for each  $t_n$ , yielding a vector  $\mathbf{u}^n$  of length  $N_x$ .

Once the system is solved at each time step, the solutions are pieced together:

$$\mathbf{u}(x, t_0), \mathbf{u}(x, t_1), \dots, \mathbf{u}(x, t_{N_t})$$

In this way, the numerical solution is built layer by layer, starting from the initial condition and iterating forward in time.

# Introduction to PINNs

**Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINNs)** are a type of machine learning approach to solving equations.

- PINNs utilize neural networks and governing (PDEs) by embedding the physics directly into the network's training process.
- PINNs learn continuous solutions that satisfy the PDE, boundary, and initial conditions.

# Introduction to PINNs

**Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINNs)** are a type of machine learning approach to solving equations.

- PINNs utilize neural networks and governing (PDEs) by embedding the physics directly into the network's training process.
- PINNs learn continuous solutions that satisfy the PDE, boundary, and initial conditions.

## Key Components of PINNs:

- **Neural Network:** A feed-forward neural network that takes space and time coordinates as inputs, then outputs the solution
- **Loss Function:** A combination of:
  - **Physics-based loss:** Penalizes the network for not satisfying the PDE.
  - **Boundary/Initial Condition loss:** Ensures the network adheres to the boundary or initial conditions.

# Introduction to PINNs

**Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINNs)** are a type of machine learning approach to solving equations.

- PINNs utilize neural networks and governing (PDEs) by embedding the physics directly into the network's training process.
- PINNs learn continuous solutions that satisfy the PDE, boundary, and initial conditions.

## Key Components of PINNs:

- **Neural Network:** A feed-forward neural network that takes space and time coordinates as inputs, then outputs the solution
- **Loss Function:** A combination of:
  - **Physics-based loss:** Penalizes the network for not satisfying the PDE.
  - **Boundary/Initial Condition loss:** Ensures the network adheres to the boundary or initial conditions.

## Why PINNs?

- They can solve complex PDEs without discretizing the domain.
- They handle higher dimensions better
- They can work inversely

# Neural Network Architecture in PINNs

The PINN uses a neural network with 3 parts to learn the solution

- **Input Layer:** The network receives spatial ( $x$ ) and temporal ( $t$ ) coordinates as input. These represent the points in the domain of the PDE.

# Neural Network Architecture in PINNs

The PINN uses a neural network with 3 parts to learn the solution

- **Input Layer:** The network receives spatial ( $x$ ) and temporal ( $t$ ) coordinates as input. These represent the points in the domain of the PDE.
- **Hidden Layers:** The network has one or more hidden layers made of nodes (neurons) that process the information. This is where the learning and adjustments of the NN are done.

# Neural Network Architecture in PINNs

The PINN uses a neural network with 3 parts to learn the solution

- **Input Layer:** The network receives spatial ( $x$ ) and temporal ( $t$ ) coordinates as input. These represent the points in the domain of the PDE.
- **Hidden Layers:** The network has one or more hidden layers made of nodes (neurons) that process the information. This is where the learning and adjustments of the NN are done.
- **Output Layer:** The final layer of the network outputs the solution to the PDE at the given coordinates  $x$  and  $t$ .

The goal of the network is to approximate the solution of the PDE without explicitly solving it through traditional methods.



# Loss Function in PINNs

In a PINN, a **loss function** is used to train and penalize the neural network

- **What is Loss?** The loss is a measure of error. It tells us how far the network's predicted solution is from the true solution.

# Loss Function in PINNs

In a PINN, a **loss function** is used to train and penalize the neural network

- **What is Loss?** The loss is a measure of error. It tells us how far the network's predicted solution is from the true solution.
- **PDE Loss:** This part of the loss function ensures that the network's output satisfies the governing equation (PDE).

# Loss Function in PINNs

In a PINN, a **loss function** is used to train and penalize the neural network

- **What is Loss?** The loss is a measure of error. It tells us how far the network's predicted solution is from the true solution.
- **PDE Loss:** This part of the loss function ensures that the network's output satisfies the governing equation (PDE).
- **Boundary Condition Loss:** This ensures that the network respects the boundary conditions (values at the edges of the domain).

# Loss Function in PINNs

In a PINN, a **loss function** is used to train and penalize the neural network

- **What is Loss?** The loss is a measure of error. It tells us how far the network's predicted solution is from the true solution.
- **PDE Loss:** This part of the loss function ensures that the network's output satisfies the governing equation (PDE).
- **Boundary Condition Loss:** This ensures that the network respects the boundary conditions (values at the edges of the domain).
- **Initial Condition Loss:** The network is also penalized if it doesn't match the initial condition (the solution at the start of the process).

# Training the PINN (Data Generation & Loss Function)

The PINN is trained by optimizing the loss function.

- **Step 1: Data Generation**

- The input data consists of random samples for spatial  $x$  and temporal  $t$  values.
- These points are fed into the network to generate predictions for the solution  $u(x, t)$ .

- **Step 2: Loss Function Calculation**

- The loss function combines multiple components, each weighted differently:
  - **Physics-based loss:** Ensures the network satisfies the PDE by penalizing deviations from the PDE.
  - **Boundary Condition loss:** Enforces the correct values at the boundaries of the spatial domain.
  - **Initial Condition loss:** Ensures the solution is correct at  $t = 0$ .

# Training the PINN (Backpropagation & Repetition)

- **Step 3: Backpropagation and Optimization**

- Using the computed loss, backpropagation is performed to penalize the neural network
- The optimizer adjusts the weights and biases of the network to minimize the total loss.

- **Step 4: Repeat**

- This process is repeated over multiple training iterations, or "epochs" to improve the model's accuracy.

# Crank-Nicolson Implementation Details

## Simulation Parameters

- Domain:  $x \in [0, 1]$ ,  $t \in [0, 1]$
- Diffusivity coefficient:  $k = 0.1$
- Initial condition:  $u(x, 0) = \sin(\pi x)$
- Boundary conditions:  $u(0, t) = u(1, t) = 0$

## Discretization Details

- Spatial steps:  $N_x = 400$  ( $\Delta x = 0.0025$ )
- Time steps:  $N_t = 20000$  ( $\Delta t = 0.00005$ )
- Total Points: 8,000,000
- Central difference in space, trapezoidal rule in time

## Computational Methods

- Solved for every interior point iteratively, then graphed
- Utilized the structure of matrices produced from CN scheme to speed up computation

## Simulation Parameters

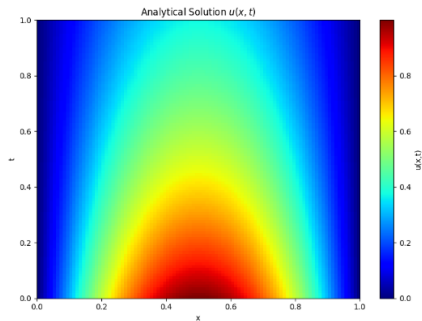
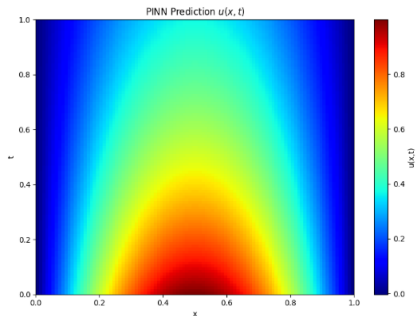
- Domain:  $x \in [0, 1]$ ,  $t \in [0, 1]$
- Diffusivity coefficient:  $k = 0.1$
- Initial condition:  $u(x, 0) = \sin(\pi x)$
- Boundary conditions:  $u(0, t) = u(1, t) = 0$

## Training Parameters

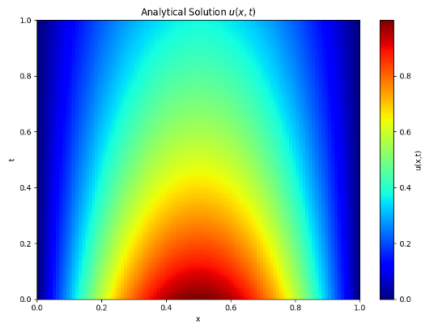
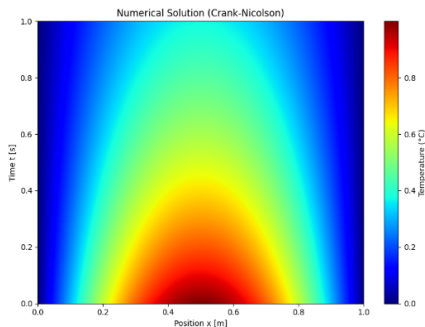
- **Number of Training Points:** 2000 randomly sampled points within the spatial and temporal domains
- **Epochs:** 15000 epochs for training
- **Weights:** PDE = 10, IC = 1, BC = 1
- **Learning Rate:** .001



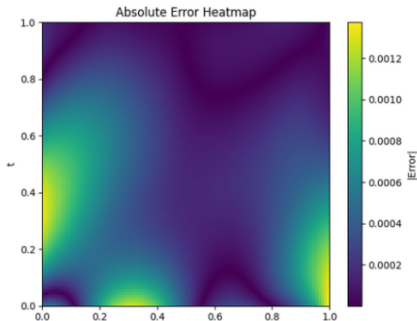
# PINN vs Analytical Solution



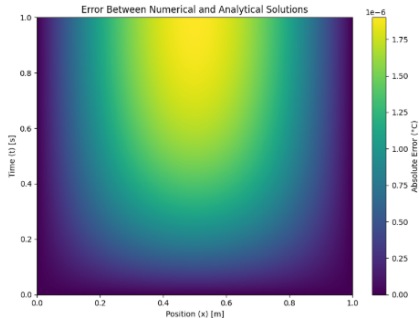
# Crank-Nicolson vs Analytical Solution



# PINN Error vs Crank Nicolson Error



```
-----PINN Metrics-----  
Maximum Absolute Error (Max Error): 0.001374  
Mean Squared Error (MSE): 0.000000  
Mean Absolute Error (MAE): 0.000333
```



```
-----Crank Nicolson Metrics-----  
Max Error: 0.000002  $^{\circ}\text{C}$   
Mean Squared Error (MSE): 0.000000  $^{\circ}\text{C}^2$   
Mean Absolute Error (MAE): 0.000001  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ 
```

# Conclusions

- Both the PINN and Numerical Method did an exceptional job at approximating the solution
- Overall, the numerical methods error metrics were better than the PINNs
- The numerical method was implemented more efficiently, and both were ran on the CPU
- The error maps show clear patterns for the numerical method, and unpredictable patterns for the PINN
- The PINN graphed better than the numerical method because of discretization