

High Performance Technical Computing

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Abstract

A one-space dimensional problem is considered, to examine the application of distributed memory parallel programming techniques for the numerical solution of the heat conduction equation.

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Listings

Nomenclature

T_i^n	. . . Temperature at space i and time n
D Diffusivity of the wall
L Total length of the wall
T Total time of the study
Δx	. . . Space step
Δt	. . . Time step
δx partial derivative according to space
δt partial derivative according to time
n_{space}	. . . number of iterations over space
n_{pes}	. . . number of processors

1 Introduction

A PDE (Partial Differential Equation) is an equation which includes derivatives of an unknown function, with at least 2 variables. PDEs can describe the behavior of lot of engineering phenomena [1], that's why it is important to know how to resolve them computationally. One way to resolve PDEs is to discretize the problem into a mesh. Applying finites differences on some points of the mesh, we can find a function which is more or less the same than the unknown function described by the PDE.

To find the unknown function, applying differences on a mesh work differently according to the difference chosen, but also according to the chosen mesh. For a one-dimensional problem, time steps and space steps can impact the accuracy of the result found. Also, the chosen differences affect the result. A discretisation scheme is the way we choose to apply finites differences.

In this study we are going to see how the accuracy of known schemes are evolving for a one-dimensional problem, and how the meshing impact the accuracy of those schemes.

2 Methods

Our study results are to be stored in matrixes. Several schemes are used :

- FTCS simple explicit (forward time, central space, explicit)
- Laasonen simple implicit (forward time, central space, implicit)
- Crank-Nicholson (Trapezoidal)

For all of the used schemes, the initialization of the result matrix is run the same way. First the study grid must be chosen. The initials conditions are:

- T_{int} of 100°F
- T_{sur} of 300°F
- $D = 0.1 \text{ ft}^2/\text{hr}$

For each methods two sets of step size are to be used:

1. $\Delta x = 0.5$ and $\Delta t = 0.1$
2. $\Delta x = 0.005$ and $\Delta t = 0.001$

so that the result matrix could be initialized. We set:

$$n_{space} = \frac{L}{\Delta x} + 1 \quad (1)$$

$$n_{time} = \frac{T}{\Delta t} \quad (2)$$

n_{space} is the number of iterations over the grid, according to the coordinate x .
 n_{time} is the number of iterations over the grid, according to the time t .

$$\begin{pmatrix} i=0 & i=1 & \cdots & n_{space}-1 & n_{space} \\ T_{ext} & T_{int} & \cdots & T_{int} & T_{ext} \\ T_{ext} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & T_{ext} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ T_{ext} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & T_{ext} \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} j=0 \\ j=1 \\ \vdots \\ n_{time} \end{matrix}$$

This is how the matrix is initialized, according to initial conditions.

2.1 FTCS simple explicit

In order to perform the parallelization, we assume that the number of space steps can be divided by the number of processors. The number of space steps divided by the number of processors defines the new space step for each processor:

$$n'_{space} = \frac{n_{space}}{n_{pes}} \quad (3)$$

The stencil for FTCS explicit scheme is the following:

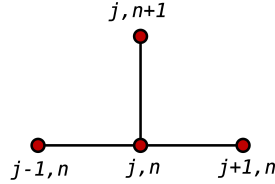


Figure 1: Stencil for FTCS explicit scheme

That means that to calculate a temperature for a time step and a space step, we need some previous values in time : the value in space, which we can access easily, and the previous and next values in space. That was the main problem for parallelizing this problem. The way we managed it is the following.

For each processor, a vector of size $[n'_{space} + 2]$ is created. The size is incremented by 2 because each vector will contain 2 "ghost" values (will be explained later). The first vector will be our boundary values vector, so we fill this vector with T_{int} .

For the first and last processor respectively, the first and last value of the vector are replaced by T_{ext} .

For example, for $n_{space} = 12$ and $n_{pes} = 4$, at $t = 0h$ we have :

P0			P1			P2			P3		
Text	Tint	Tint	Tint	Tint	Tint	Tint	Tint	Tint	Tint	Tint	Text

Figure 2: Separation of values per processors at t=0h

At each time step, each processor perform 4 MPI actions:

- it sends its first value to the previous processor (MPI_Send())
- it receives the first value of the next processor (MPI_Receive())
- it sends its last value to the next processor (MPI_Send())
- it receives the first value of the previous processor (MPI_Receive())

N-B : In the previous explanation, ghost values are not considered : they are only used to store the values received from neighbour processors.

In Figure 3, we can see which values are exchanged at the boundaries, in order to calculate the next boundary value. This pattern is due to the stencil : to continue with the example of the Figure 3, in order to calculate the value of $h[1]$ at time step $t + \Delta t$, the processor needs the $h[0]$ value, which comes from the previous processor.

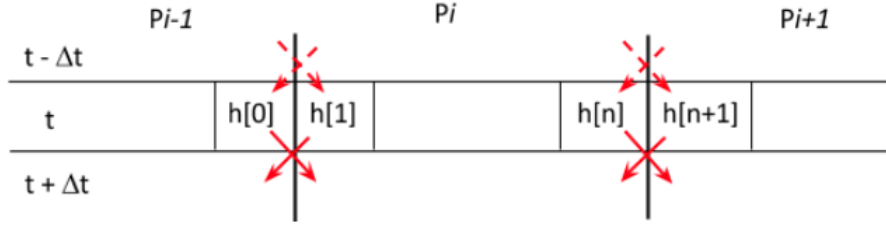


Figure 3: Exchanges between processors at each time step

Calculated values are gathered (MPI_Gather()) in the final result matrix, which is stored and printed in root processor.

2.2 Implicit schemes

For both implicit schemes, the vector solution is given by a matrix equation. A LU factorization is used once, before a for-loop, to resolve the system for each space step.

2.2.1 Laasonen

We have :

$$\frac{T_j^{n+1} - T_j^n}{\Delta t} = D \frac{T_{j+1}^{n+1} - 2T_j^{n+1} + T_{j-1}^{n+1}}{\Delta x^2} \quad (4)$$

Written in a matrical way, the solution at space step $n + 1$ is given by :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1+2C & -C & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -C & 1+2C & -C & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & -C & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 1+2C & -C \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & -C & 1+2C \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} T_1 \\ T_2 \\ \vdots \\ T_i \\ \vdots \\ T_{ntime} \end{bmatrix}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} T_1 + CT_0 \\ T_2 \\ \vdots \\ T_i \\ \vdots \\ T_{ntime} + CT_f \end{bmatrix}_n \quad (5)$$

with

$$C = \frac{D\Delta t}{\Delta x^2}$$

The first vector at space n is our boundaries conditions vector, so it is known. In this scheme we must be aware that the right-term vector is actually bigger than the other, of 2 values, which corresponds to the exterior temperatures, which stays the same all the time.

In serial, we apply Thomas algorithm for each space step, at the reduced vector, and add the $n + 1$ vector to our result matrix. The new right term vector is the one found with the Thomas algorithm.

There was several ways to parallelize this study. The one I chose is to parallelize Thomas algorithm.

2.2.2 Crank-Nicholson

We have :

$$\frac{T_j^{n+1} - T_j^n}{\Delta t} = D \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{T_{j+1}^{n+1} - 2T_j^{n+1} + T_{j-1}^{n+1}}{\Delta x^2} + \frac{T_{j+1}^n - 2T_j^n + T_{j-1}^n}{\Delta x^2} \right) \quad (6)$$

Written in a matrical way, the solution at space step $n + 1$ is given by :

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} 1+C & -C/2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ -C/2 & 1+C & -C/2 & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & -C/2 & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 1+C & -C/2 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & -C/2 & 1+C \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} T_1 \\ T_2 \\ \vdots \\ T_i \\ \vdots \\ T_{ntime} \end{bmatrix}_{n+1} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1-C & C/2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ C/2 & 1-C & C/2 & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & C/2 & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 1-C & C/2 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & C/2 & 1-C \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} T_1 + CT_0 \\ T_2 \\ \vdots \\ T_i \\ \vdots \\ T_{ntime} + CT_f \end{bmatrix}_n \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

with

$$C = \frac{D\Delta t}{\Delta x^2}$$

The method is the same as Laasonen scheme, except that the left term vector found with the LU solve algorithm is multiplied by the right term matrix before the next space step.

2.3 Analytical solution

The analytical solution of the problem considered will be used to compare our results and to calculate the errors. The result of the analytical solution for a

time t and a position x is given by :

$$T = T_{ext} + 2(T_{int} - T_{ext}) \sum_{m=1}^{m=\infty} e^{-D(m\pi/L)^2 t} \frac{1 - (-1)^m}{m\pi} \sin\left(\frac{m\pi x}{L}\right) \quad (8)$$

3 Results

3.1 Schemes study

Note that results from Richardson scheme are not displayed on the following plots, due to its instability [2]: the incorrect values polluted our charts.

Figure 4: Results with different schemes at $t = 0,1h$

We can see that except for the Richardson scheme, the results are quite the same. The errors had been calculated to evaluate the accuracy of each method.

Table 1: Errors for different schemes at $t = 0,1h$

Errors	Dufort-Frankel	Laasonen	Crank-Nicholson
1-norm	0,56%	1,72%	1,26%

We observe that Dufort-Frankel method is the most accurate, followed by the Crank-Nicholson method then by the Laasonen method. Let see the evolution of the error while we advance in time. (see appendix for plots)

Table 2: Errors for different schemes at different times

Errors	Dufort frankel	Laasonen	Crank-Nicholson
t=0,2h	0,37%	1,05%	0,80%
t=0,3h	0,27%	0,77%	0,60%
t=0,4h	0,22%	0,64%	0,49%
t=0,5h	0,18%	0,55%	0,42%

We observe that the error is globally decreasing as time increase. The most accurate method appears to be the Dufort-Frankel method, then the Crank-Nicholson method, then the Laasonen method.

3.2 Laasonen method : effect of the step time

Figure 5: Analytical results at different times

Figure 6: Laasonen scheme with $\Delta t = 0,01$

We can see that the shape of the results is more accurate as Δt is little. It may be assumed that increasing Δt gives less accurate results. Let's calculate the error between these values and the analytical values. (See appendix for plots)

Table 3: Laasonen - effect of time step increasing

Errors	t = 0,1h	t = 0,2h	t = 0,3h	t = 0,4h	t = 0,5h
$\Delta t=0,01$	1,72%	1,05%	2,83%	0,64%	0,55%
$\Delta t=0,025$	4,53%	2,76%	0,81%	1,69%	1,45%
$\Delta t=0,05$	9,75%	5,84%	4,95%	3,50%	2,98%
$\Delta t=0,1$	53,96%	12,80%	16,30%	7,35%	6,19%

We observe that as time grows, the error decrease. Also, as time step grows, the error is increasing. Previous assumption is correct, according to the error calculation.

4 Discussion

4.1 Analytical solution

First thing that should be considered is that the analytical solution should not be considered as the perfect exact solution, because of several factors.

First, the analytical solution is calculated by the computer, so there may be some numerical error.

Secondly, we have to consider the calculation of the sum inside equation (8). Indeed, as m should be infinite, the biggest it is is the best. However, as I choose to calculate all the results for each time step, increasing m also increase run time. I choosed a compromise where values of the analytical solution at $t = 0$ were as correct as possible, with an m not too big, to reduce run time.

Though, it may have been a good idea to calculate the analytical solutions only at studied times : it would have reduced the memory usage, and we could have afforded to increase the value of m . This would have given us better values for our errors calculation.

4.2 Computational study

4.2.1 LU factorization and solving

LU factorization and solving is used in the C++ code. However, Thomas algorithm could have been used for several reasons.

First, our matrix is tridiagonal, which is a condition to use Thomas algorithm. Secondly, Thomas algorithm has a smaller complexity ($O(n)$) than LU solving ($O(n^3)$), it is also faster.

This way, we would have reduced the total complexity of our code and the computational time.

4.2.2 Vectors

Another way to reduce the complexity of our code and the used memory would have been to use vectors instead of matrixes in equations (5) and (7). Indeed, for the implicit methods, most of our matrixes are filled up with zeros, and every line is the same, only the position of the values change. We could have used only one vector of size 3 instead of a quite big matrix. It is quite all right for this study because we are working with only two dimensions, and with a quite reduced space. By moving in a more complex problem, delays would have appeared.

4.3 Schemes study

4.3.1 Richardson scheme

We saw that Richardson scheme was unstable [2]. Also, when we change the T_i^n term in (??) by the average $\frac{(T_i^{n+1}+T_i^{n-1})}{2}$, we obtain the following :

$$T_i^{n+1} = T_i^{n-1} + \frac{2D\delta t}{\delta x^2} [T_{i+1}^n - (T_i^{n+1} + T_i^{n-1}) + T_{i-1}^n] \quad (9)$$

Which is equivalent as (??), the Dufort-Frankel scheme, which is a stable scheme [3].

So we can see that by replacing the T_i^n term in an unstable scheme by its average in time, we obtain a stable scheme. This is a good thing to know as majority of explicit schemes are unstable. However, they are easy to test, so that we can easily find some way to make them stable if they are not.

4.3.2 Dufort-Frankel versus other schemes

It appears that Dufort-Frankel scheme is the most accurate of the studied schemes. One explanation to those results is that with this method, accurate solutions are obtained if $\Delta t \ll \Delta x$ [3], which is our case. The two other schemes, Laasonen and Crank Nicholson seem to have the same accuracy.

Crank Nicholson scheme needs a low D coefficient for numerical accuracy [4], which is our case. That's why we have a quite good accuracy (less than 1%) in our results.

4.4 Laasonen method : effect of the step time

As we see on Table 3, for a fixed Δt , the error tends to decrease as time grows. However, for a fixed time, we can see that increasing the time step make the error bigger. We can assume that we need a quite small time step to have good results with this scheme. This can be explained by the fact that Laasonen has a good error response, however it has the disadvantage of a poor accuracy [5].

5 Future work

Our future work would be based on three major axes : memory, runtime and interface optimization. It would be interesting to take a smaller time step, and to try to test our program with a parallel programming model, and run it on an HPC, as we have the opportunity to work on one here at Cranfield University.

5.1 Memory optimization

As said previously, memory use could be improved by at least two manners :

- Calculate only the values which will be used in the study
- For implicit schemes, replace the tridiagonal matrix by one vector

5.2 Runtime optimization

As said before, since we have a small study scale, it is not crucial to have a good runtime optimization. However, we still could optimize the runtime, particularly by using Thomas algorithm instead of LU algorithm.

5.3 Interface optimization

We also could improve the way the results are printed : here we write them brutally in our main function, or in a CSV file, which is used in a spreadsheet application in order to print graphics.

Maybe a little interface more user-friendly could be developped, using QT or something else, with the possibility for the user to input data, initial conditions, the chosen scheme, and with the printing of graphics and errors value.

6 Conclusion

For a one dimensional problem, PDE can be resolved using discretisation schemes. In this study we saw that several schemes can fit for this kind of problem. However, some schemes appears to be more accurate.

The accuracy of all the schemes seems to be impacted by common causes:

- Error grows as time step grows : the smallest time step must be used, while complying with the computational ressources that are at our disposal (indeed, numerical computational error could appear)
- Error tends to decrease as the time study grows

However, there is some factors which gives each scheme particular accuracy.

Resolving PDE with computational methods also introduce numerical errors, due to the computers way of calculating. Depending on the power of the computer we use, we must try to be as precise as possible by setting a study mesh with a grid as small as possible. Some other study with different computational ressource could teach us about the effect of a very small grid, i.e. the effect of a lot more calculations.

7 References

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