

FUNDAMENTALS OF NUMERICAL ANALYSIS

The Equivalence Theorem

- Consider a linear partial differential equation

$$\mathcal{L}(\tilde{u}) = 0.$$

- Let L be the discrete version of the operator \mathcal{L} .
- Let \widehat{u}_j be the exact solution of the difference equation

$$L(\widehat{u}_j) = 0.$$

- The actual numerical solution of the difference equation is $u_j \neq \widehat{u}_j$.

The Equivalence Theorem

- Under which conditions the exact solution of the difference equation \widehat{u}_j is a good approximation of the exact solution of the PDE, \tilde{u} ?
If $\widehat{u}_j \rightarrow \tilde{u}$ as $\Delta t, \Delta x \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow$ Approximation is *consistent*.
- Under which conditions the actual solution of the difference equation u_j is a good approximation of \widehat{u}_j ?
 $\|u_j - \widehat{u}_j\| < \infty$ as $\Delta t, \Delta x \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow$ Approximation is *stable*.
- Under which conditions u_j is a good approximation of \tilde{u} ?
 $u_j \rightarrow \tilde{u}$ as $\Delta t, \Delta x \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow$ Approximation is *convergent*.
- How many grid points are required for the error to be small?
 \Rightarrow Approximation is *accurate*.

Lax's Equivalence Theorem

If a numerical approximation of a well-posed linear initial value problem is both *consistent* and *stable*, its solution is also *convergent* to that of the initial value problem.

- To prove convergence of a numerical scheme applied to the solution of a given initial value problem, it is only necessary to prove the *consistency* and *stability*.

Model equations

- *Model equations* are linear equations that contain the important physical features of the governing equations of fluid flows.
- The hyperbolic model equation represents wave-like phenomena.

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0; \quad u(x, 0) = g(x) \quad u(0, t) = u_o(t)$$

- The parabolic model equation represents dissipative phenomena.

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \nu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}; \quad u(x, 0) = g(x), \quad u(0, t) = u(L, t) = 0$$

- The elliptic model equation

$$A \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$

Consistency of finite difference schemes

- Consider the generic partial differential equation $\mathcal{L}(\tilde{u}) = 0$.
- Consider its finite-difference approximation $L(u) = 0$.
- One can write

$$L(u) = \mathcal{L}(\tilde{u}) + \text{Truncation error}.$$

- A finite difference scheme is said to be *consistent* if the truncation error approaches zero as Δt and Δx approach zero.

Consistency of finite difference schemes

- Consider the following finite difference approximation of the hyperbolic model equation:

$$L(u) = \frac{u_j^{n+1} - u_j^n}{\Delta t} + c \frac{u_{j+1}^n - u_{j-1}^n}{2\Delta x} = 0. \quad (1)$$

- The truncation error can be found by Taylor series expansion:

$$\begin{cases} u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n + \Delta t \frac{\partial u_j^n}{\partial t} + \frac{\Delta t^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 u_j^n}{\partial t^2} + \frac{\Delta t^3}{3!} \frac{\partial^3 u_j^n}{\partial t^3} + o(\Delta t^4) \\ u_{j+1}^n = u_j^n + \Delta x \frac{\partial u_j^n}{\partial x} + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 u_j^n}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\Delta x^3}{3!} \frac{\partial^3 u_j^n}{\partial x^3} + o(\Delta x^4) \\ u_{j-1}^n = u_j^n - \Delta x \frac{\partial u_j^n}{\partial x} + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 u_j^n}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\Delta x^3}{3!} \frac{\partial^3 u_j^n}{\partial x^3} + o(\Delta x^4). \end{cases}$$

Consistency of finite difference schemes

- Substituting into (1) yields

$$\begin{aligned} L(u_j^n) &= \frac{\partial u_j^n}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial u_j^n}{\partial x} + \frac{\Delta t}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 u_j^n}{\partial t^2} + c \frac{\Delta x^2}{3} \frac{\partial^3 u_j^n}{\partial x^3} + o(\Delta t^2, \Delta x^4) \\ &= \mathcal{L}(\tilde{u}_j^n) + \frac{\Delta t}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 u_j^n}{\partial t^2} + c \frac{\Delta x^2}{3} \frac{\partial^3 u_j^n}{\partial x^3} + o(\Delta t^2, \Delta x^4). \end{aligned}$$

- The truncation error is, therefore:

$$TE = \frac{\Delta t}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 u_j^n}{\partial t^2} + c \frac{\Delta x^2}{3} \frac{\partial^3 u_j^n}{\partial x^3} + o(\Delta t^2, \Delta x^4).$$

and approaches zero as Δt and Δx approach zero. The approximation (1) is, therefore, consistent with the hyperbolic model equation.

Consistency of finite difference schemes

- Consider the Dufort-Frankel scheme applied to the parabolic model equation.
- Write $\partial^2 u / \partial x^2 = (u_{j+1}^n - 2u_j^n + u_{j-1}^n) / \Delta x^2$ and then apply the approximation $u_j^n = (u_j^{n+1} + u_j^{n-1}) / 2$:

$$L(u_j^n) = \frac{u_j^{n+1} - u_j^{n-1}}{2\Delta t} - \nu \frac{u_{j+1}^n - u_j^{n+1} - u_j^{n-1} + u_{j-1}^n}{\Delta x^2}. \quad (2)$$

- Taylor series expansions give

$$u_{j+1}^n + u_{j-1}^n = 2u_j^n + 2\frac{\Delta x^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 u_j^n}{\partial x^2} + 2\frac{\Delta x^4}{4!} \frac{\partial^4 u_j^n}{\partial x^4} + o(\Delta x^6),$$

$$u_j^{n+1} + u_j^{n-1} = 2u_j^n + 2\frac{\Delta t^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 u_j^n}{\partial t^2} + 2\frac{\Delta t^4}{4!} \frac{\partial^4 u_j^n}{\partial t^4} + o(\Delta t^6),$$

$$u_j^{n+1} - u_j^{n-1} = 2\Delta t \frac{\partial u_j^n}{\partial t} + \frac{\Delta t^3}{3!} \frac{\partial^3 u_j^n}{\partial t^3} + o(\Delta t^5).$$

Consistency of finite difference schemes

- These can be substituted into (2) yields

$$L(u_j^n) = \mathcal{L}(\tilde{u}_j^n) + \frac{\Delta t^2}{6} \frac{\partial^3 u_j^n}{\partial t^3} - \nu \frac{\Delta t^2}{\Delta x^2} \frac{\partial^2 u_j^n}{\partial t^2} + o(\Delta t^4 / \Delta x^2, \Delta x^2, \dots).$$

- If Δt and Δx approach zero in such a way that their ratio remains constant, the truncation error does not vanish.
- The Dufort-Frankel scheme, therefore, is inconsistent with the parabolic model equation.

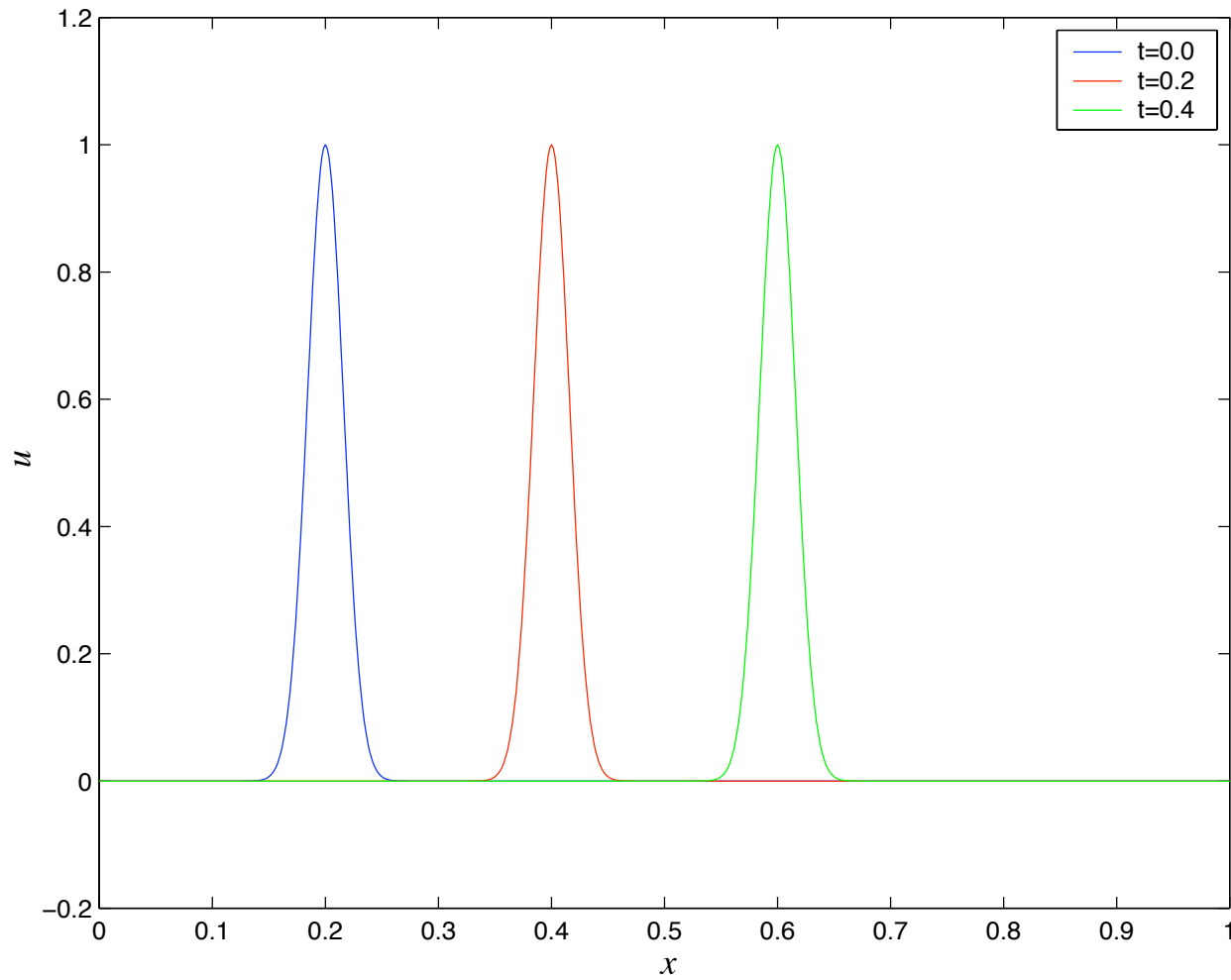
Equations in wave space

- Consider the inhomogeneous hyperbolic model equation

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{u}}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial \tilde{u}}{\partial x} = f,$$

where $\tilde{u} = \tilde{u}(x, t)$, with homogeneous boundary conditions $\tilde{u}(0, t) = \tilde{u}(L, t) = 0$.

Equations in wave space



Solution of the hyperbolic model equation, $c > 0$.

Equations in wave space

- Define now a new dependent variable, $u_j(t)$, continuous in time but discrete in space [i.e., $u_j(t) = \tilde{u}(x_j, t) = \tilde{u}(j\Delta x, t)$, and $\Delta x = L/(M + 1)$. $j = 1, \dots, M$ correspond to the inner points only].

Equations in wave space

- Replace then the spatial derivative with a finite-difference approximation

$$\frac{du_j}{dt} = -\frac{c}{2\Delta x} (u_{j+1} - u_{j-1}) + f_j \quad \text{for } j = 1, 2, \dots, M.$$

- Inhomogeneous boundary conditions for the form $u(0, t) = a$, $u(L, t) = b$ can easily be cast in this form by modifying the right-hand side vector \mathbf{f} .

Equations in wave space

- This coupled set of ordinary differential equations (ODEs) can be expressed in matrix form as

$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = A\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{f}, \quad (3)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u} &= (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m, \dots, u_M)^T \\ A &= -\frac{c}{2\Delta x} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & & \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & -1 & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \mathbf{f} &= (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m, \dots, f_M)^T. \end{aligned}$$

Equations in wave space

- Such a procedure can be applied to any model equation, set of boundary conditions, differencing scheme.
- For the hyperbolic model equation:

$$A = -\frac{c}{2\Delta x} \begin{bmatrix} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & 1 & 0 \\ & & -1 & \\ & 0 & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Central, Dirichlet

$$A = -\frac{c}{\Delta x} \begin{bmatrix} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & 1 & 0 \\ & & -1 & \\ & 0 & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Backwards, Dirichlet

$$A = -\frac{c}{2\Delta x} \begin{bmatrix} & & & -1 \\ & & & \\ & & 1 & 0 \\ & & -1 & \\ & 0 & & \\ 1 & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Central, Periodic

- For the parabolic model equation:

$$A = \frac{v}{\Delta x^2} \begin{bmatrix} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & 1 & 0 \\ & & 1 & -2 \\ & 0 & & -2 \\ & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Central, Dirichlet

$$A = \frac{v}{\Delta x^2} \begin{bmatrix} & & & 1 \\ & & & \\ & & 1 & 0 \\ & & 1 & -2 \\ & 0 & & -2 \\ 1 & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Central, Periodic

$$A = \frac{v}{\Delta x^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & & & \\ & & 1 & 0 \\ & & 1 & -2 \\ & 0 & & -2 \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Central, Neuman

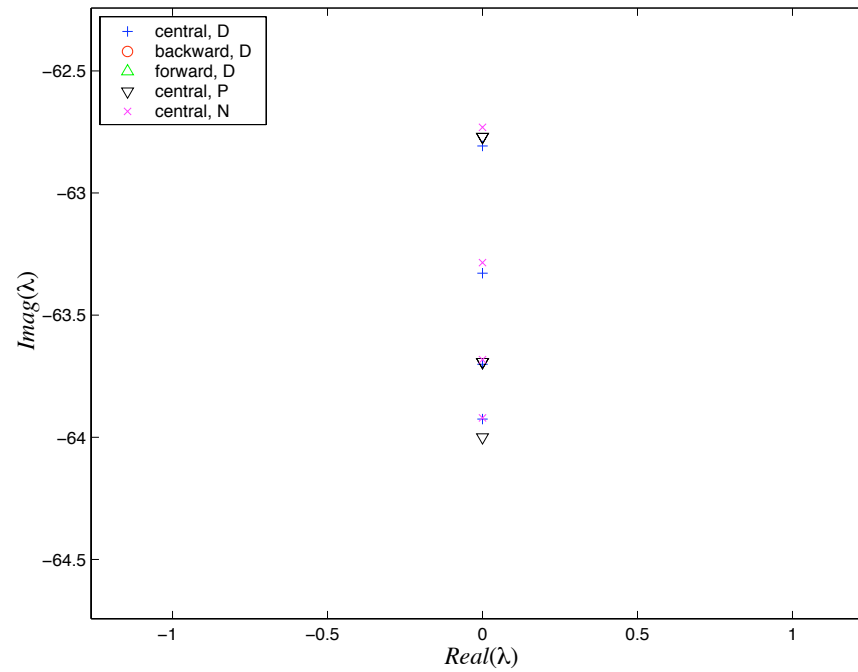
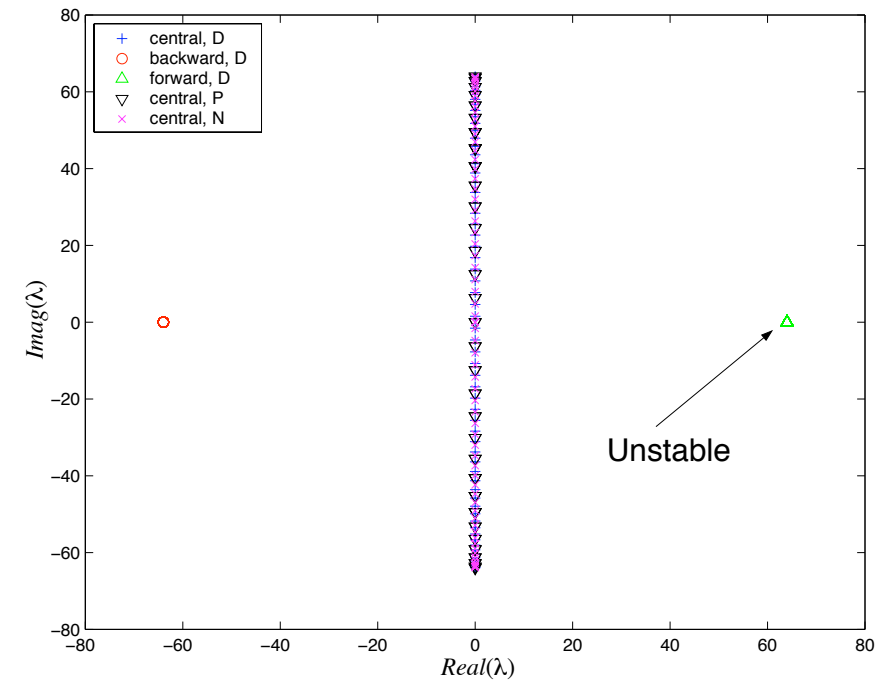
Equations in wave space

- Assuming that A is non-singular with a set of distinct eigenvalues and linearly independent eigenvectors, let \mathbf{x}_m be the eigenvector associated with the m -th eigenvalue of the matrix A , λ_m :

$$A\mathbf{x}_m = \lambda_m\mathbf{x}_m.$$

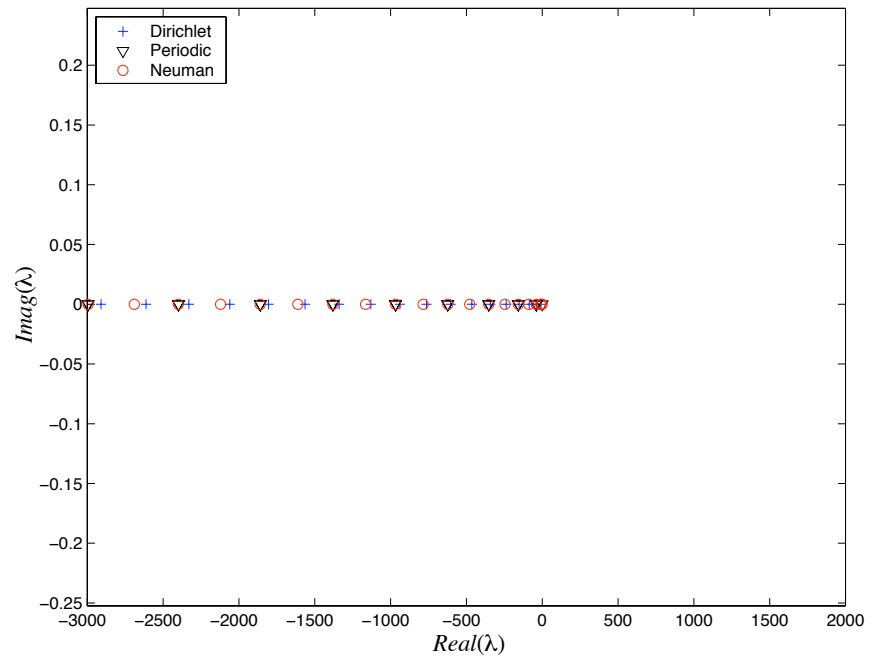
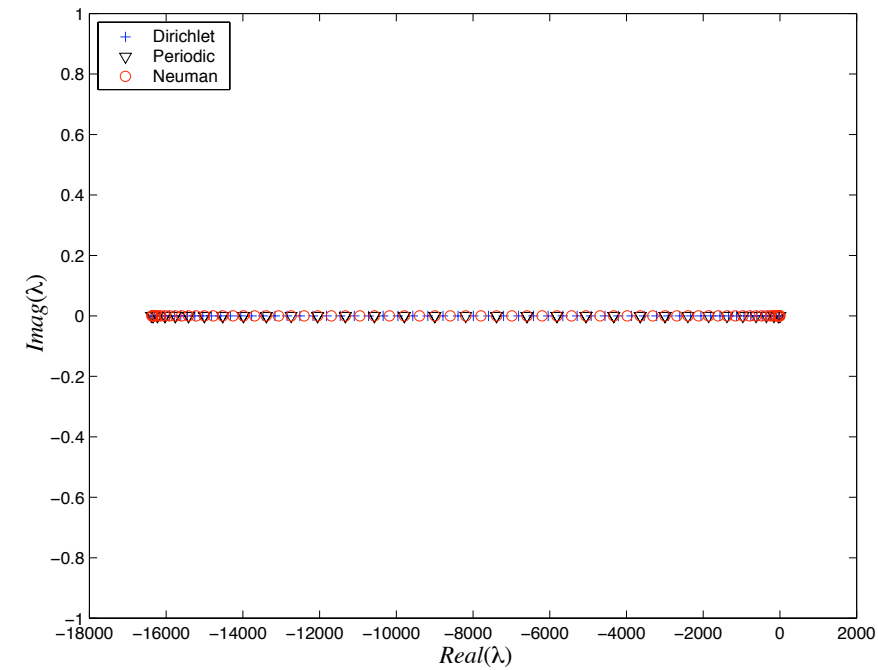
- The system (3) is said to be *stable* if $Re(\lambda_m) \leq 0$ for all m .
 \Rightarrow the model ODE has non-singular solutions.

Equations in wave space



Eigenvalues of matrix A . Hyperbolic model equation.

Equations in wave space



Eigenvalues of matrix A . Parabolic model equation.

Equations in wave space

- Let X be the right-handed eigenvector matrix:

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_m & \dots & \mathbf{x}_M \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}.$$

- By definition, $X^{-1}AX = \Lambda$, where Λ is a matrix whose diagonal elements are the eigenvalues and the off-diagonal elements are zero.

Equations in wave space

- Multiplying (3) by X^{-1} we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}X^{-1} \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} &= X^{-1} A \mathbf{u} + X^{-1} \mathbf{f}, \\ \frac{d}{dt}(X^{-1} \mathbf{u}) &= X^{-1} A X (X^{-1} \mathbf{u}) + X^{-1} \mathbf{f}, \\ \frac{d\mathbf{w}}{dt} &= \Lambda \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{g},\end{aligned}\tag{4}$$

with $\mathbf{w} = X^{-1} \mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{g} = X^{-1} \mathbf{f}$.

- The two systems (3) and (4) are equivalent, but the latter is completely decoupled.

Equations in wave space

- The equation

$$\frac{d\mathbf{w}}{dt} = \Lambda \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{g}$$

can be written as a set of ODEs

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{lcl} dw_1/dt & = & \lambda_1 w_1 + g_1 \\ dw_2/dt & = & \lambda_2 w_2 + g_2 \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ dw_m/dt & = & \lambda_m w_m + g_m \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ dw_M/dt & = & \lambda_M w_M + g_M, \end{array} \right.$$

each of which can be solved separately to yield

$$w_j = C_j e^{\lambda_j t} + PS_j,$$

where PS is a particular solution that depends on \mathbf{g} .

Equations in wave space

- The solution for u_i can then be reconstructed:

$$u_i = \sum_{j=1}^M x_{ij} w_j = \sum_{j=1}^M x_{ij} (C_j e^{\lambda_j t} + P S_j).$$

- If the ODEs are stable ($\lambda_j \leq 0$), the first term corresponds to a **transient** that vanishes with time, while the particular solution represents the steady-state condition of the system.
- The system of equations above is referred to as the *system of ODEs in wave space*.

The isolation theorem

- Applying any standard numerical scheme to each equation in a coupled set of ODEs with constant coefficients is mathematically equivalent to:
 1. Uncoupling the set (including the forcing term).
 2. Integrating each equation in the uncoupled set.
 3. Recoupling the result to form the final solution.
- Studying a time advancement method for any model equation can be reduced to studying the same time advancement method for a single ODE:

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \lambda u + ae^{\mu t}$$

(λ, μ are complex scalars).

The isolation theorem

- Equation

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \lambda u + ae^{\mu t}$$

has an exact solution of the form

$$u(t) = \underbrace{C_1 e^{\lambda t}}_{\text{Homogeneous soln}} + \underbrace{\frac{ae^{\mu t}}{\mu - \lambda}}_{\text{Particular soln}}.$$

- Since

$$\begin{aligned} e^{\lambda t} &= e^{\lambda n \Delta t} = (e^{\lambda \Delta t})^n \\ &= \left[1 + \lambda \Delta t + \frac{1}{2}(\lambda \Delta t)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(\lambda \Delta t)^3 + \dots \right]^n, \end{aligned}$$

the solution can be recast in the form

$$u(t) = C_1 \left[1 + \lambda \Delta t + \frac{1}{2}(\lambda \Delta t)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(\lambda \Delta t)^3 + \dots \right]^n + \frac{ae^{\mu t}}{\mu - \lambda}.$$

Accuracy of time-advancement schemes

The σ roots

- Applying a time-advancement scheme to

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \lambda u$$

results in a homogeneous difference equation:

$$\sum_{k=P}^Q A_{n+k} u^{n+k} = A_{n+P} u^{n+P} + \dots + A_{n+Q} u^{n+Q} = 0.$$

where $u^n = u(n\Delta t)$ (n is the time-index).

- Introduce the operator E such that $E^k u^n = u^{n+k}$.
- The difference equation can then be rewritten as

$$\sum_{k=P}^Q A_{n+k} E^k u^n = [A_{n+P} E^P + \dots + A_{n+Q} E^Q] u^n = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow P(E) u^n = 0$$

The σ roots

- The exact solution of $\sum_{k=P}^Q A_{n+k} E^k u^n = 0$ is

$$u^n = \sum_{k=1}^{Q-P} C_k (\sigma_k)^n,$$

where σ_k are the roots of the characteristic polynomial $P(\sigma) = 0$.

- The roots of the characteristic equation are called the σ -roots; For every eigenvalue λ there will be *at least* one σ -root.
- The σ -root that forms the approximation

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma \simeq e^{\lambda \Delta t} &= 1 + \lambda \Delta t + (\lambda \Delta t)^2 / 2! + (\lambda \Delta t)^3 / 3! + \dots \\ &\quad + (\lambda \Delta t)^k / k! + \Delta t \, o(\Delta t^k) \end{aligned}$$

is called the **principal root**; the others are the **spurious roots**.

The σ roots

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \lambda u + ae^{\mu t} \quad \rightarrow \quad P(E)u^n = Q(E)ab^n,$$

$$\underbrace{u(t) = C_1 e^{\lambda t} + \frac{ae^{\mu t}}{\mu - \lambda}}_{\text{Exact solution}} \quad \rightarrow \quad \underbrace{u^n = \sum_{k=1}^{Q-P} C_k (\sigma_k)^n + ab^n \frac{Q(b)}{P(b)}}_{\text{Numerical solution}}.$$

- The error in the evaluation of the homogeneous and particular solutions is

$$\epsilon_\lambda = e^{\lambda \Delta t} - \sigma_1. \quad \epsilon_\mu = \Delta t(\mu - \lambda) \left[\frac{PS_{num}}{PS_{ex}} - 1 \right].$$

- The order of accuracy of a given time-advancement method is equal to the smallest order of the two errors defined above.

The σ roots – Explicit Euler example, part 1

- Apply the explicit Euler scheme to solve the homogeneous ODE

$$u' = \frac{du}{dt} = \lambda u.$$

- The explicit Euler scheme approximates the time derivative by a forward difference: $u'^n = (u^{n+1} - u^n)/\Delta t$.
- This gives

$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \lambda \Delta t u^n.$$

- Introduce the displacement operator E ,

$$\underbrace{(E - 1 - \lambda \Delta t)}_{P(E)} u^n = 0.$$

The σ roots – Explicit Euler example, part 2

- Setting

$$P(\sigma) = \sigma - 1 - \lambda\Delta t = 0$$

we obtain the single root $\sigma = 1 + \lambda\Delta t$.

- Since

$$e^{\lambda\Delta t} = 1 + \lambda\Delta t + \Delta t \, o(\Delta t),$$

the error in the transient solution, ϵ_λ , is

$$\epsilon_\lambda = e^{\lambda\Delta t} - \sigma = \Delta t \, o(\Delta t).$$

The σ roots – MacCormack scheme (1)

- Consider a two-step scheme, MacCormack's predictor-corrector scheme:

$$\begin{cases} u^{n+1*} &= u^n + \Delta t u'^n \\ u^{n+1} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[u^n + u^{n+1*} + \Delta t (u^{n+1*})' \right]. \end{cases}$$

- Introduce the representative equation:

$$\begin{cases} u^{n+1*} &= u^n + \lambda \Delta t u^n + \Delta t a e^{\mu n \Delta t} \\ u^{n+1} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[u^n + u^{n+1*} + \lambda \Delta t u^{n+1*} + \Delta t a e^{\mu(n+1) \Delta t} \right]; \end{cases}$$

- Use the displacement operator E and collect terms

$$\begin{cases} Eu^{n*} & - (1 + \lambda \Delta t) u^n &= \Delta t a e^{\mu n \Delta t} \\ -\frac{1}{2}(1 + \lambda \Delta t) Eu^{n*} & + \left(E - \frac{1}{2}\right) u^n &= \frac{1}{2} E \Delta t a e^{\mu n \Delta t}. \end{cases}$$

The σ roots – MacCormack scheme (2)

- The characteristic polynomial is

$$\begin{aligned} P(E) &= \det \begin{bmatrix} E & -(1 + \lambda\Delta t) \\ -(1 + \lambda\Delta t)E/2 & E - 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= E \left[E - 1 - \lambda\Delta t - (\lambda\Delta t)^2/2 \right]. \end{aligned}$$

- $Q(E)$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} Q(E) &= \det \begin{bmatrix} E & \Delta t \\ -(1 + \lambda\Delta t)E/2 & \frac{1}{2}\Delta t E \end{bmatrix} \\ &= E [E + 1 + \lambda\Delta t] \Delta t/2. \end{aligned}$$

- The σ -roots are:

$$\sigma_1 = 1 + \lambda\Delta t + (\lambda\Delta t)^2/2 \quad ; \quad \sigma_2 = 0.$$

- The first root is the principal one, while the second one is trivial.

The σ roots – MacCormack scheme (3)

- The particular solution is

$$PS = ae^{\mu n \Delta t} \frac{\Delta t (e^{\mu \Delta t} + 1 + \lambda \Delta t) / 2}{e^{\mu \Delta t} - 1 - \lambda \Delta t - (\lambda \Delta t)^2 / 2}$$

- The errors are respectively

$$\epsilon_\lambda = (\lambda \Delta t)^3 / 6 = \Delta t \, o(\Delta t^2); \quad \epsilon_\mu = (\mu - \lambda) \mu^2 \Delta t^3 = \Delta t \, o(\Delta t^2).$$

- The scheme is a one-root method of order Δt^2 .

The σ roots – Leapfrog scheme (1)

- The leapfrog scheme is:

$$u^{n+1} = u^{n-1} + 2\Delta t u'^n.$$

- Introduce the displacement operator and the representative equation:

$$\left(E - \frac{1}{E} - 2\lambda\Delta t\right) u^n = 2\Delta t a \left(e^{\mu\Delta t}\right)^n,$$
$$P(E) = E^2 - 2\lambda\Delta t E - 1; \quad Q(E) = 2\Delta t E.$$

- The roots of the characteristic polynomial are

$$\sigma = \lambda\Delta t \pm \sqrt{1 + (\lambda\Delta t)^2}.$$

- The principal and spurious roots can be found by expanding $[1 + (\lambda\Delta t)^2]^{1/2}$ in Taylor series:

$$\sigma = \lambda\Delta t \pm \left[1 + (\lambda\Delta t)^2/2 - (\lambda\Delta t)^4/8 + \dots\right].$$

The σ roots – Leapfrog scheme (2)

- The σ -roots of the leapfrog scheme are given by

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1 &= 1 + \lambda\Delta t + (\lambda\Delta t)^2/2 - (\lambda\Delta t)^4/8 + \dots, \\ \sigma_2 &= -1 + \lambda\Delta t - (\lambda\Delta t)^2/2 + (\lambda\Delta t)^4/8 + \dots\end{aligned}$$

- The leapfrog scheme is a two-root method.
- The principal root, σ_1 , determines the order of accuracy of the scheme (second order).
- The spurious root does not affect the accuracy of the method, but only its stability.
- Schemes with multiple roots are not self-starting, and a different scheme is required to advance the solution for the first m steps, where m is the number of spurious roots.

Stability of time-advancement schemes

- Definitions:
 - An ODE is stable if $Re(\lambda_m) \leq 0$ for all m .
 - A numerical approximation is stable if the solution of the difference equations remains finite with time (i.e., if the error norm $||u(t) - u^n|| < \infty$).
- This requirement is satisfied if $|\sigma| \leq 1$ for all σ .
- σ depends on the eigenvalues of the spatial discretization matrix λ .
- To determine the stability of a numerical scheme one must consider the spatial discretization, the time advancement and the boundary conditions.

Stability of time-advancement schemes

Explicit Euler scheme

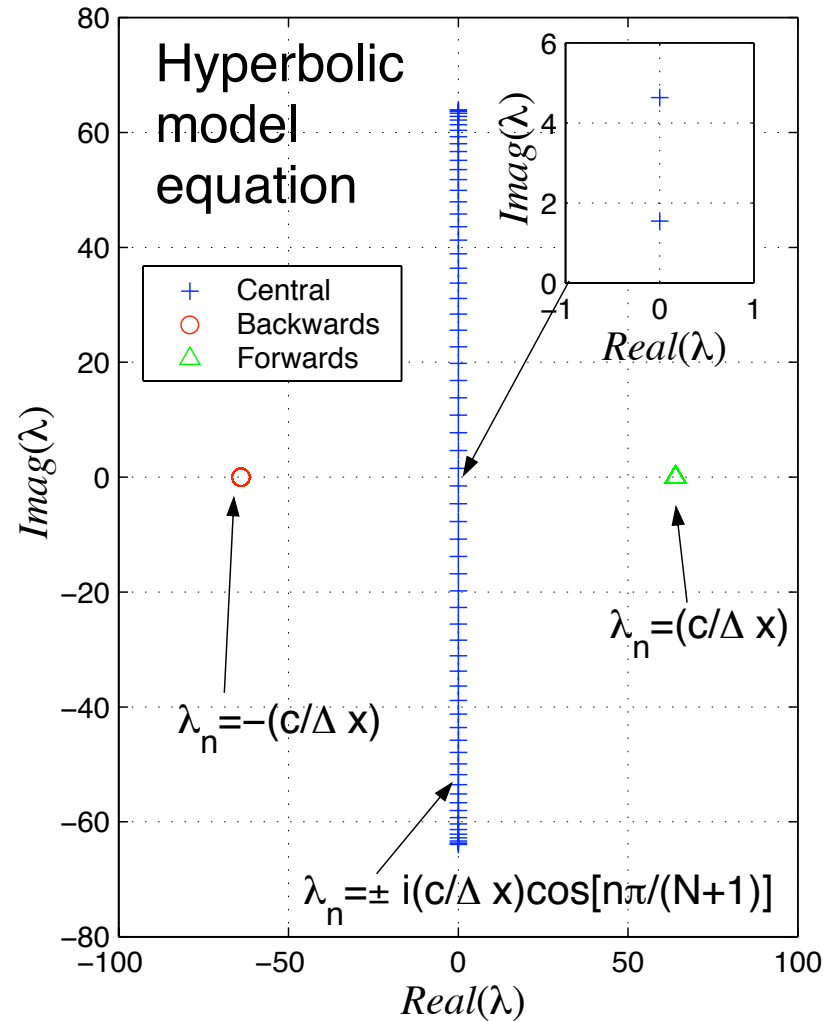
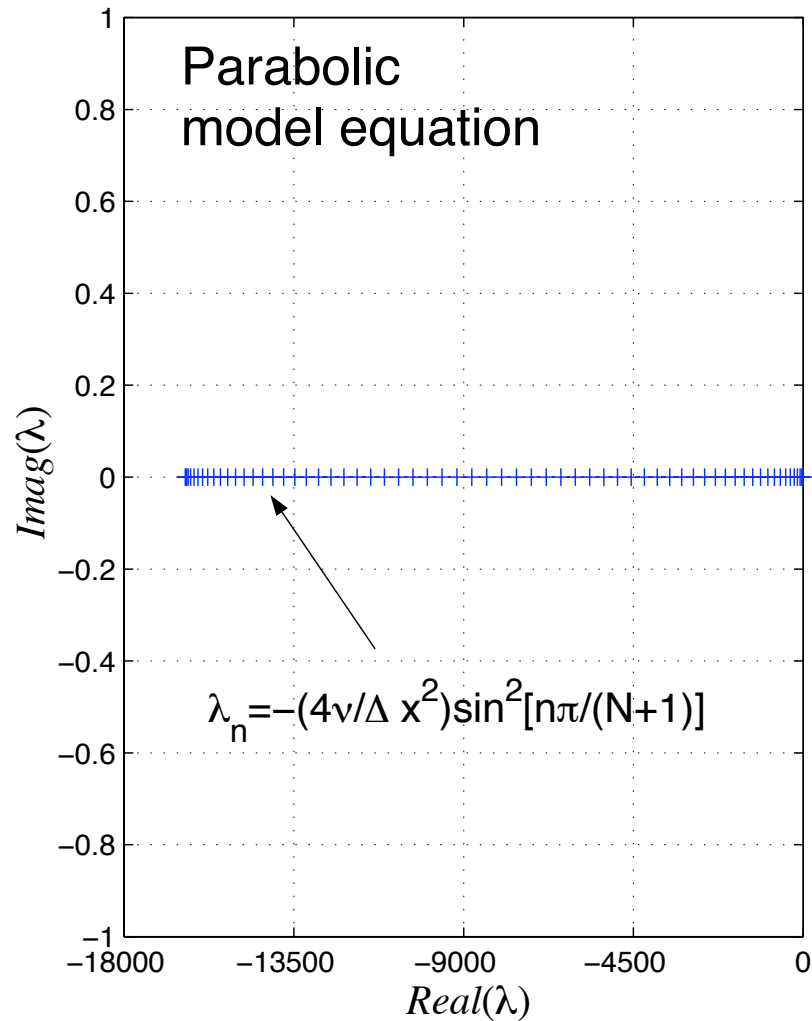
- The explicit Euler scheme is

$$\frac{u^{n+1} - u^n}{\Delta t} = \lambda u^n.$$

- Assume Homogeneous Dirichlet bcs.
- The σ root is $\sigma = 1 + \lambda\Delta t$.
- The scheme is stable if $|1 + \lambda\Delta t| \leq 1 \Rightarrow -1 \leq 1 + \lambda\Delta t \leq 1$

Stability of time-advancement schemes

Explicit Euler scheme



Stability of time-advancement schemes

Explicit Euler scheme

- Parabolic model equation:

- For central differences the eigenvalues are all real and negative. They are given by

$$\lambda_m = -\frac{4\nu}{\Delta x^2} \sin^2 \left[\frac{m\pi}{2(M+1)} \right].$$

- $|1 + \lambda\Delta t| \leq 1$ implies

$$-1 \leq 1 + \lambda_m \Delta t \leq 1 \quad \text{for } m = 1, 2, \dots, M.$$

- The inequality on the right is satisfied trivially; the one on the left is satisfied if $|\lambda\Delta t| \leq 2$.
- Since $\max(\sin x) \simeq 1$,

$$\Rightarrow \text{the scheme is stable if } \frac{\nu\Delta t}{\Delta x^2} \leq \frac{1}{2}.$$

Stability of time-advancement schemes

Explicit Euler scheme

- Hyperbolic model equation:
 - For central differences the eigenvalues are pure imaginary. They are given by

$$\lambda_m = \pm i \frac{c}{\Delta x} \cos \left[\frac{m\pi}{M+1} \right].$$

The σ -root becomes

$$|\sigma| = |1 + \lambda \Delta t| = |1 + i \omega \Delta t| = \left[1 + (\omega \Delta t)^2 \right]^{1/2} > 1.$$

The scheme is unstable.

- For forward differences, the eigenvalues are real and positive: $\lambda_m = c/\Delta x \Rightarrow |1 + \lambda \Delta t| > 1$. The scheme is unstable.
- For backward differences, the eigenvalues are real and negative: $\lambda_m = -c/\Delta x \Rightarrow |1 + \lambda \Delta t| = |1 - c\Delta t/\Delta x|$. The scheme is stable if $\underbrace{c\Delta t/\Delta x}_{\text{CFL No.}} \leq 2$.

Explicit Euler scheme – Parabolic equation

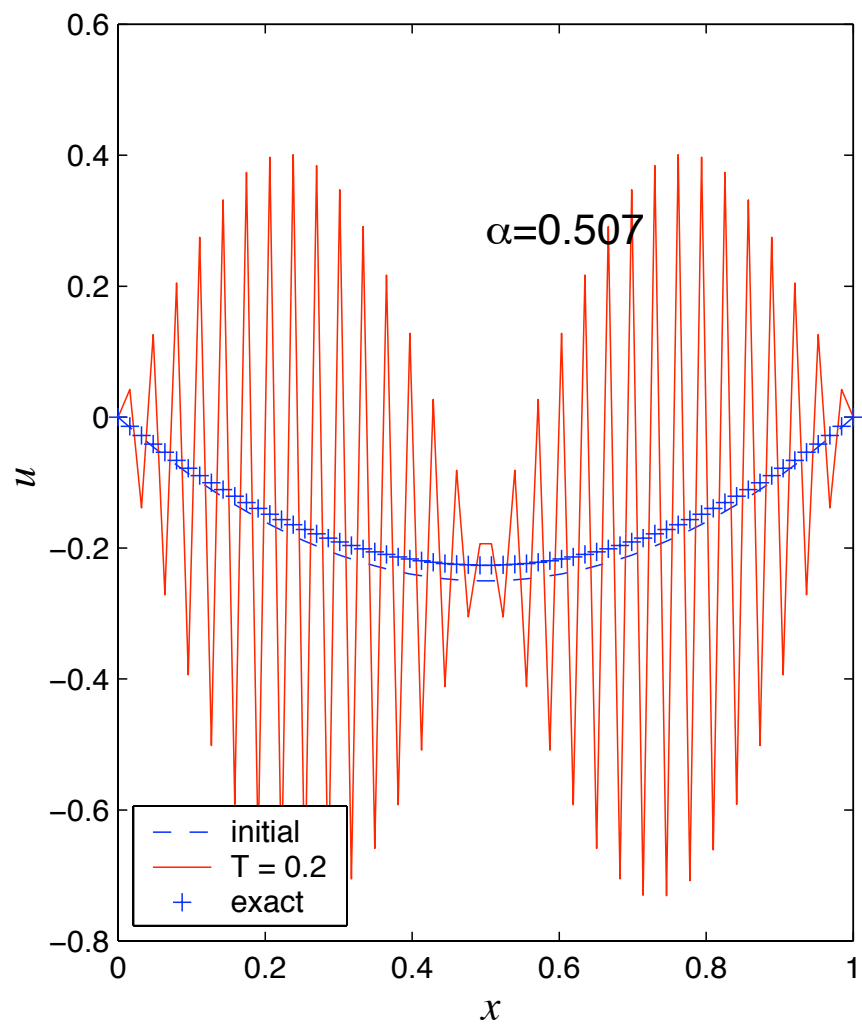
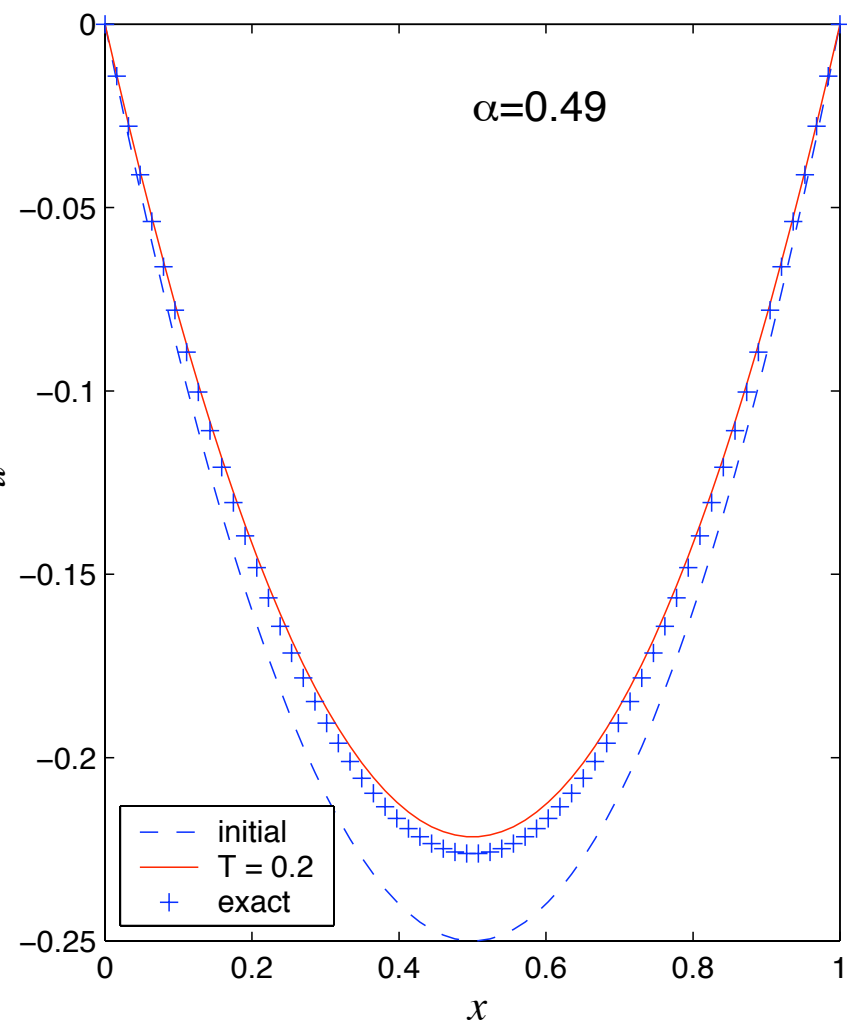
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \nu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + (-x^2 + x - 2)$$
$$u(0, t) = u(1, t) = 0; \quad u(x, 0) = x(1 - x).$$

- Exact solution: $u_{ex}(x, t) = x(1 - x)e^{-t}$.
- Choose $\nu = 0.001$, $J = 100$, $\Delta x = 1./J$.
- Discretized equation:

$$u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n - \nu \Delta t \frac{u_{j+1}^n - 2u_j^n + u_{j-1}^n}{\Delta x^2} + (-x_j^2 + x_j - 2)$$

- Choose $\nu \Delta t / \Delta x^2 = \alpha$, with $\alpha = 0.49$ (stable) and 0.507 (unstable).

Explicit Euler scheme – Parabolic equation



Explicit Euler scheme – Hyperbolic equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$u(0, t) = e^{-A(-x_o - ct)^2}; \quad u(x, 0) = e^{-A(x - x_o)^2}.$$

- Exact solution: $u_{ex}(x, t) = e^{-A(x - x_o - ct)^2}$.
- Choose $x_o = 0.2$, $A = 2000$, $c = 1$.
- Discretized equation:

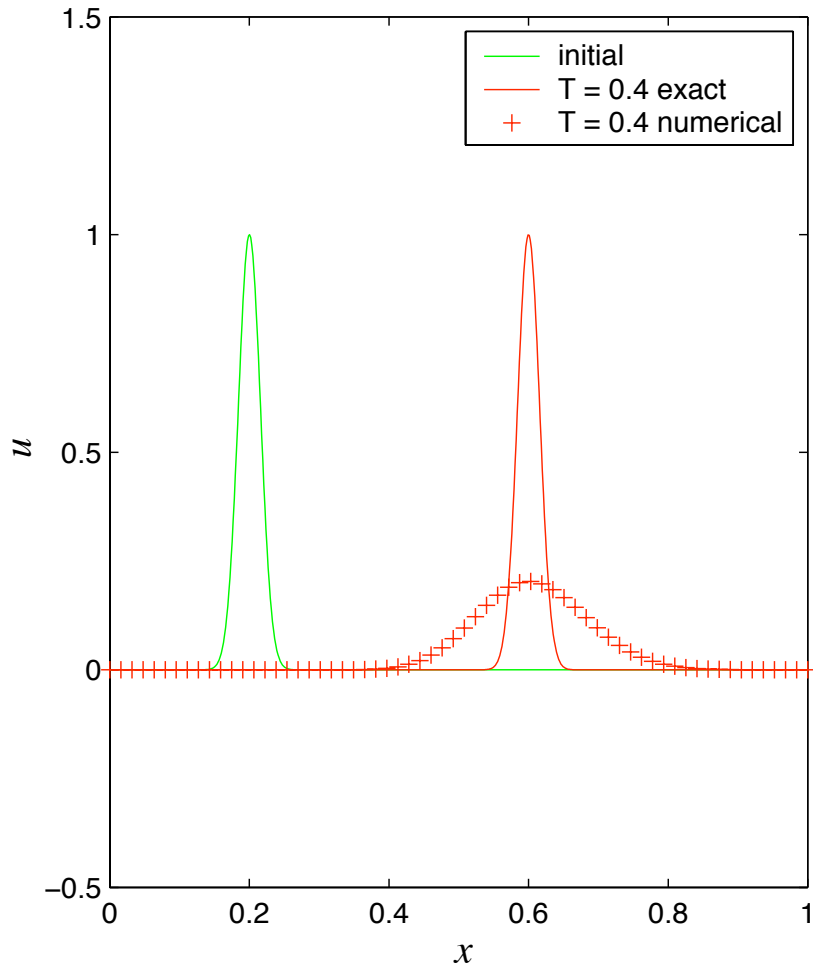
$$u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n - \Delta t \frac{u_{j+1}^n - u_{j-1}^n}{2\Delta x} \quad \text{central}$$

$$u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n - \Delta t \frac{u_j^n - u_{j-1}^n}{\Delta x} \quad \text{upwind}$$

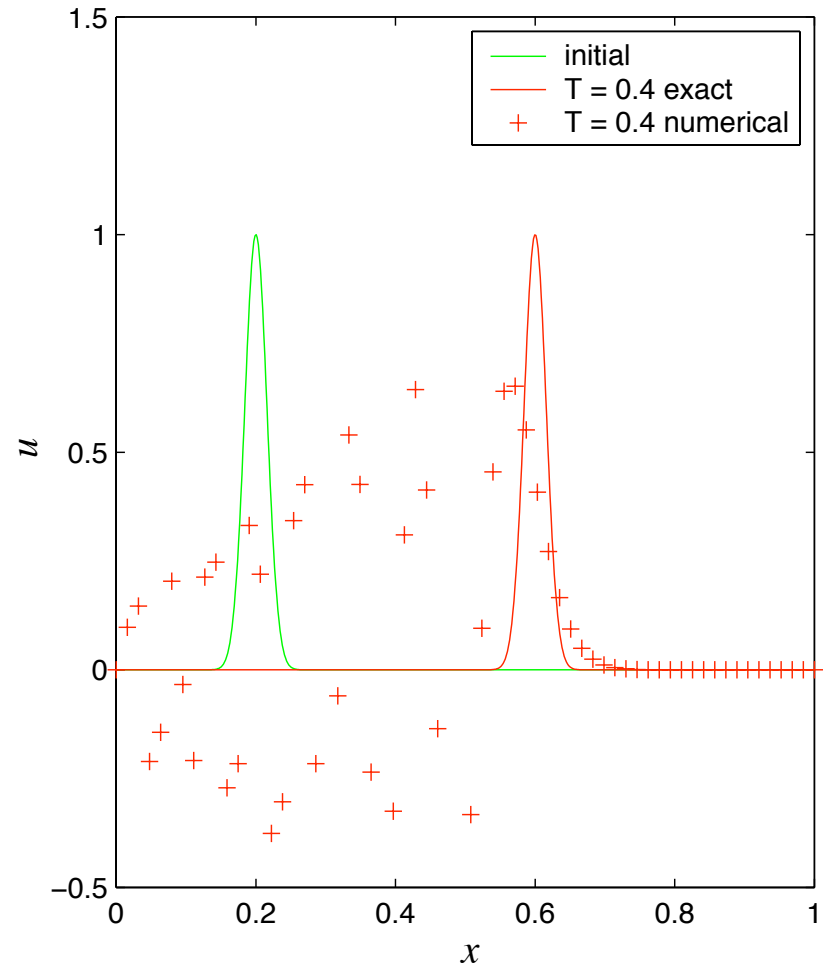
- Choose $\Delta t = \alpha \Delta x$ (since $cu = 1$), with $\alpha = 1$.

Explicit Euler scheme – Hyperbolic equation

Upwind differences, $\alpha=0.1$



Central differences, $\alpha=0.1$



Stability of time-advancement schemes

- The same analysis can be applied to any numerical scheme, for any discretization and set of boundary conditions.

Stability of time-advancement schemes

Explicit and implicit schemes

- Explicit schemes are those in which the right-hand-side of the model equation is evaluated at previous times only (n , $n - 1$ etc.)
- It can be shown that explicit schemes can at most be **conditionally stable**.
- In implicit schemes the RHS is also a function of u^{n+1} , and some form of matrix must be inverted to obtain the new solution.
- Implicit schemes of second-order accuracy or less can be **unconditionally stable**.

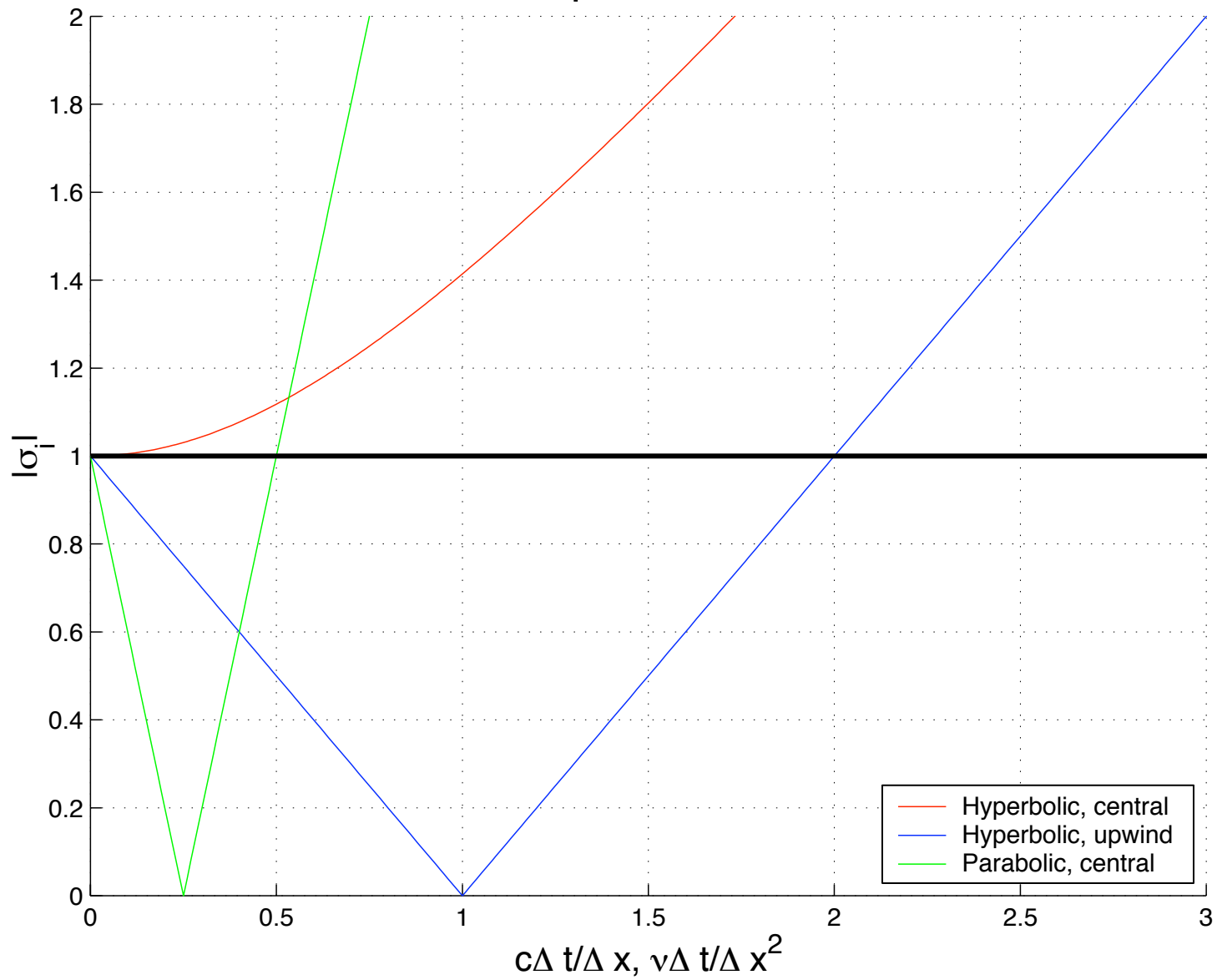
Explicit Euler

- Explicit scheme given by

$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \Delta t u'^n, \quad \text{where } u' = \lambda u$$

- The σ -root is $\sigma = 1 + \lambda \Delta t$.
- First-order accurate.
- Parabolic equation: stable for $\nu \Delta t / \Delta x^2 = 1/2$.
- Hyperbolic, central: unstable.
- Hyperbolic, upwind: stable for $c \Delta t / \Delta x \leq 2$.

Explicit Euler



McCormack scheme

- Explicit predictor-corrector scheme given by

$$\begin{cases} u^* &= u^n + \Delta t u'^n \\ u^{n+1} &= u^n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} [u'^* + u'^n] . \end{cases}$$

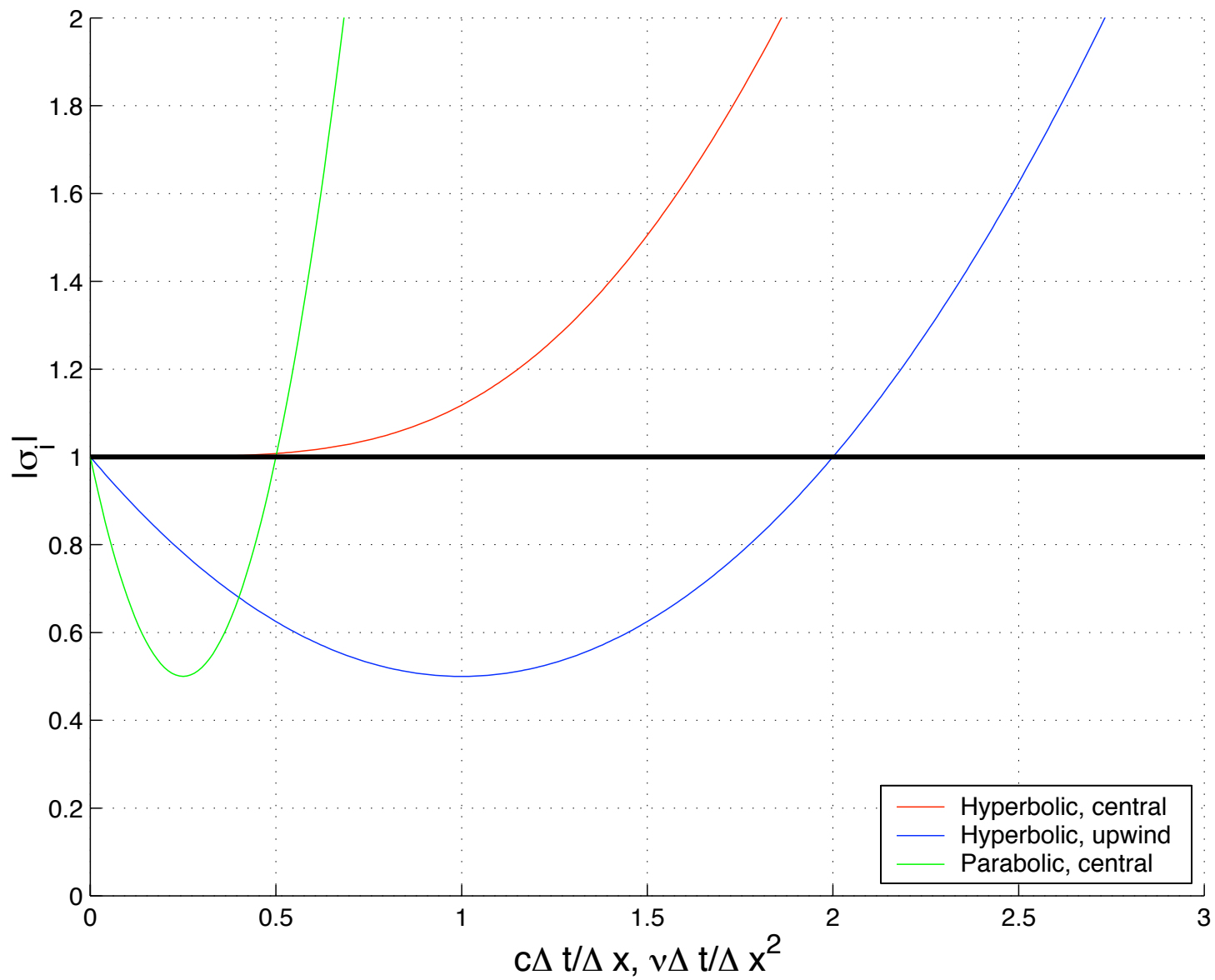
where again $u' = \lambda u$.

- The σ -root is

$$\sigma = 1 + \lambda \Delta t + \frac{(\lambda \Delta t)^2}{2}.$$

- Second-order accurate.
- Parabolic equation: stable for $\nu \Delta t / \Delta x^2 = 1/2$.
- Hyperbolic, central: weakly unstable for $c \Delta t / \Delta x \leq 0.6$.
- Hyperbolic, upwind: stable for $c \Delta t / \Delta x \leq 2$.

McCormack



Adams-Bashforth scheme

- Explicit scheme given by

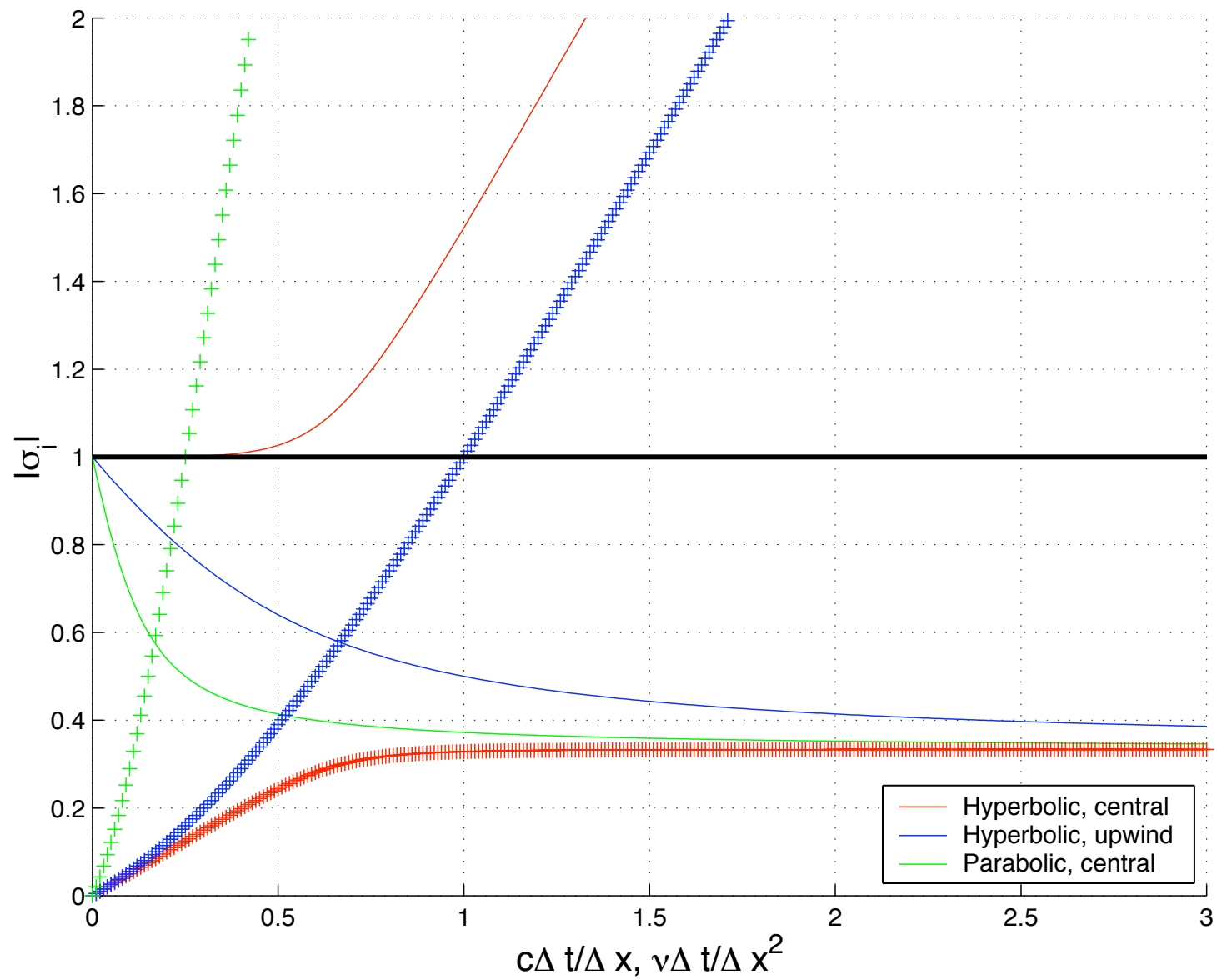
$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} (3u'^n - u'^{n-1}). \quad \text{where } u' = \lambda u$$

- The σ -roots are

$$\sigma_{1,2} = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \frac{3}{2} \lambda \Delta t \pm \sqrt{1 + \lambda \Delta t + \frac{9}{4} (\lambda \Delta t)^2} \right].$$

- Second-order accurate; requires special starting procedure (Euler explicit).
- Parabolic equation: stable for $\nu \Delta t / \Delta x^2 = 1/4$.
- Hyperbolic, central: weakly unstable for $c \Delta t / \Delta x \leq 0.5$.
- Hyperbolic, upwind: stable for $c \Delta t / \Delta x \leq 1$.

Adams–Bashforth



Runge-Kutta schemes

- Runge-Kutta (RK) schemes are a class of multi-step methods.
- They are one-root schemes whose σ -root is given by a truncation of Taylor's expansion of $\exp(\lambda\Delta t)$ to the order of the scheme.
- The explicit Euler scheme is the first-order Runge-Kutta scheme (RK1) and $\sigma = 1 + \lambda\Delta t$.
- MacCormack's predictor-corrector is RK2 and $\sigma = 1 + \lambda\Delta t + (\lambda\Delta t)^2/2$.

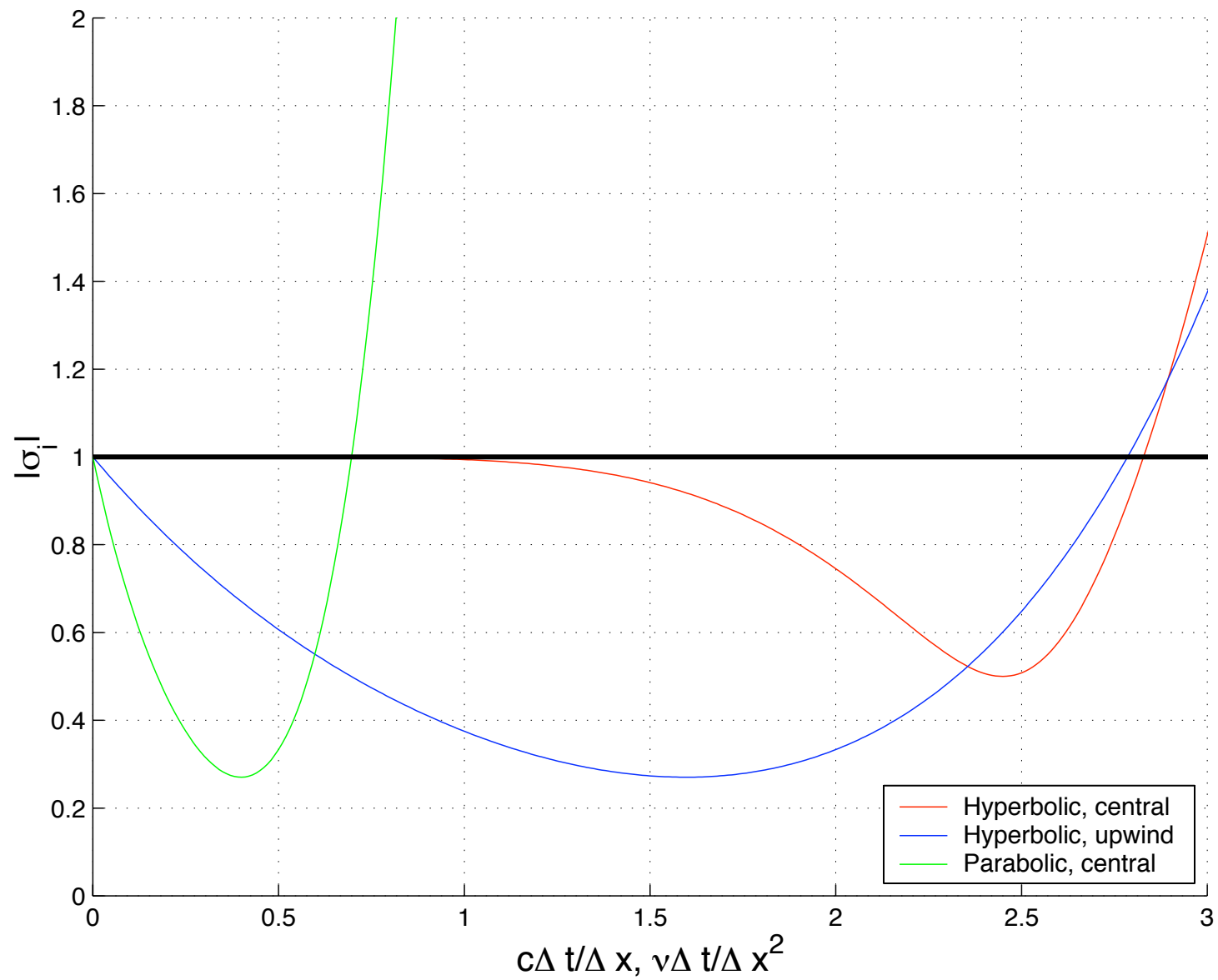
RK4 scheme

- The fourth-order accurate RK for an ODE of the form $du/dt = F(u, t)$ can be written as

$$\begin{cases} u^* &= u^n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} F(u^n, t_n) \\ u^{**} &= u^n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} F(u^*, t_n + \Delta t/2) \\ u^{***} &= u^n + \Delta t F(u^{**}, t_n + \Delta t) \\ u^{n+1} &= u^n + \frac{\Delta t}{6} [F(u^{***}, t_n + \Delta t) + 2F(u^{**}, t_n + \Delta t) \\ &\quad + 2F(u^*, t_n + \Delta t/2) + F(u^n, t_n)], \end{cases}$$

- Fourth-order accurate.
- Parabolic equation: stable for $\nu \Delta t / \Delta x^2 = 0.69$.
- Hyperbolic, central: weakly unstable for $c \Delta t / \Delta x \leq 2.83$.
- Hyperbolic, upwind: stable for $c \Delta t / \Delta x \leq 2.8$.

RK4



RK4 scheme

- The RK4 scheme written above requires 4 variables per point $(u^n, u^*, u^{**}, u^{***})$.
- An alternative formulation requires only 3 variables per point:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{lll} U = u^n; & G = U; & P = F(U, t_n) \\ U = U + \frac{\Delta t}{2}P; & G = P; & P = F(U, t_n + \Delta t/2) \\ U = U + \frac{\Delta t}{2}(P - G); & G = G/6; & P = F(U, t_n + \Delta t/2) \\ U = U + \Delta t P; & G = G - P; & P = F(U, t_n + \Delta t) \\ & & + 2P \\ u^{n+1} = U + \Delta t(G + P/6). \end{array} \right.$$

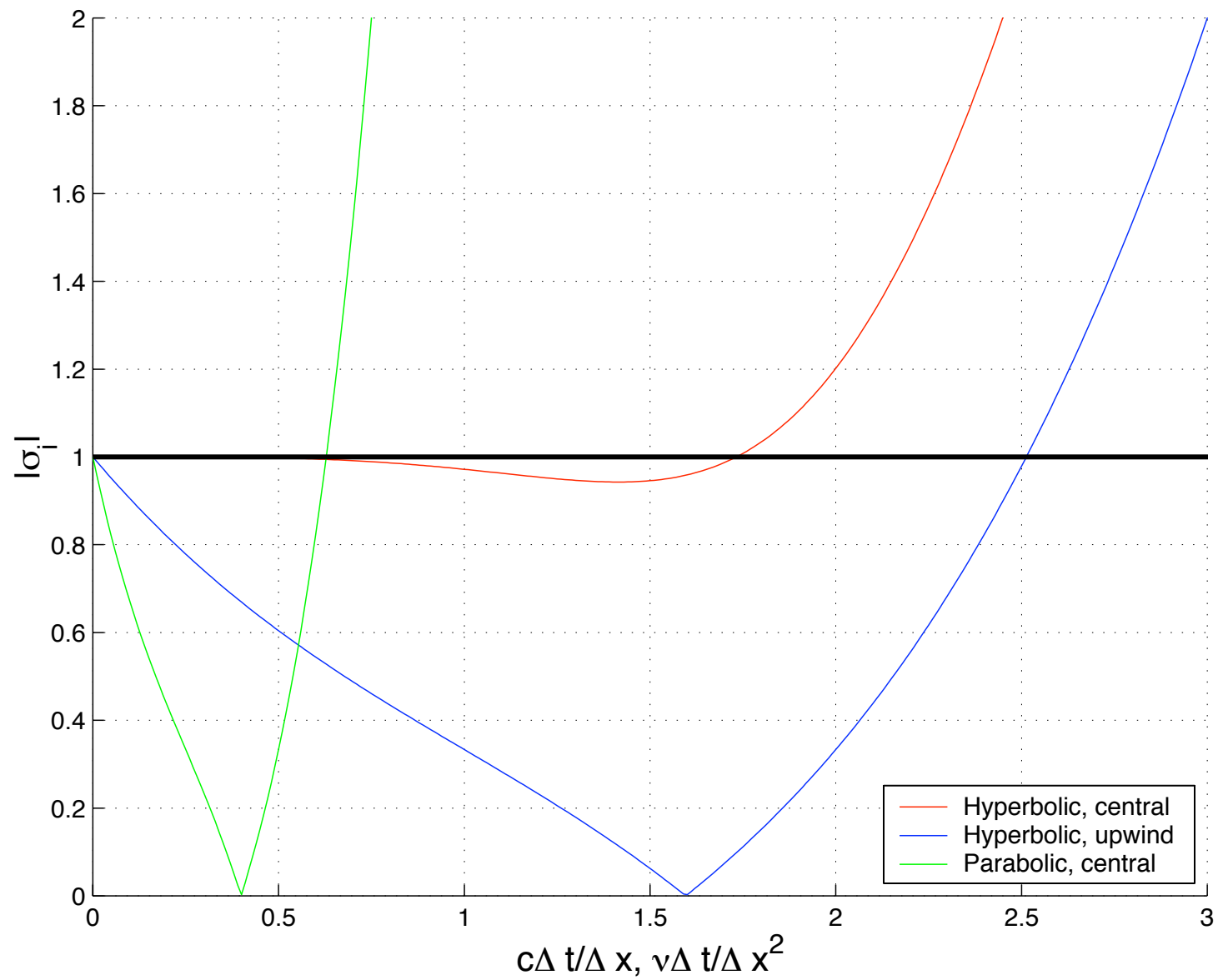
RK3 scheme

- The low-storage, third-order accurate RK scheme can be written as

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} U = u_n; & G = F(U, t_n) \\ U = U + \frac{\Delta t}{3}G; & G = -\frac{5}{9}G + F(U, t_n + \Delta t/3) \\ U = U + \frac{15\Delta t}{16}G; & G = -\frac{153}{128}G + F(U, t_n + 3\Delta t/4) \\ u_{n+1} = U + \frac{8\Delta t}{15}G. \end{array} \right.$$

- Third-order accurate.
- Parabolic equation: stable for $\nu\Delta t/\Delta x^2 \leq 0.62$.
- Hyperbolic, central: stable for $c\Delta t/\Delta x \leq 1.73$.
- Hyperbolic, upwind: stable for $c\Delta t/\Delta x \leq 2.51$.

RK3



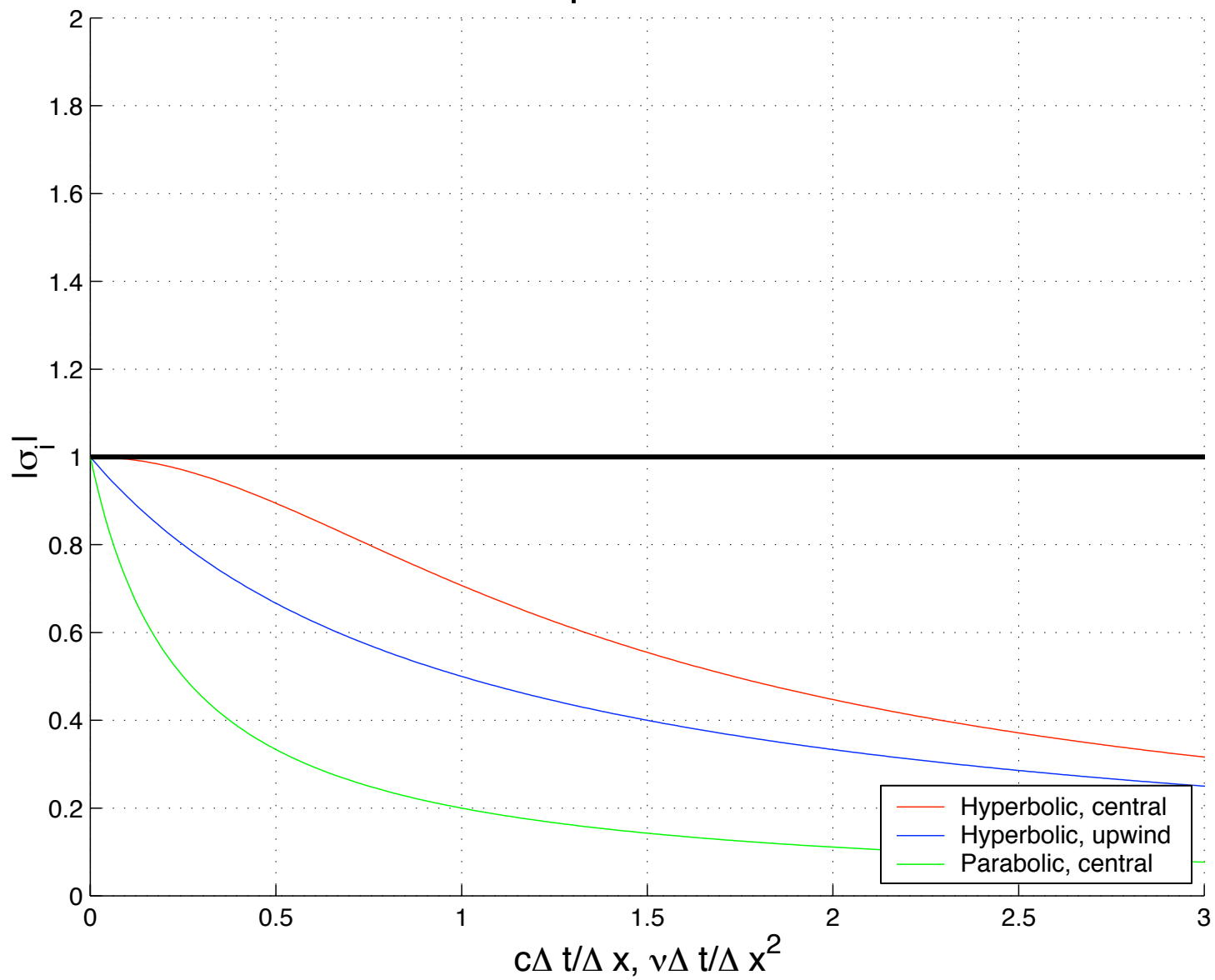
Implicit Euler scheme

- Implicit schemes evaluate the derivative (the RHS of the equation) at $n + 1$.
- The simplest is the implicit Euler scheme, which uses a backwards difference (rather than the forwards difference used by the explicit Euler).

$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \Delta t u'^{n+1}.$$

- The σ -root is $1/(1 - \lambda\Delta t) \simeq 1 + \lambda\Delta t + (\lambda\Delta t)^2$.
- First-order accurate.
- Stable if $Re(\lambda\Delta t) \leq 0$.

Implicit Euler



Crank-Nicolson scheme

- Implicit scheme that evaluates the derivative (the RHS of the equation) at $n + 1/2$ as the average of the values at n and $n + 1$:

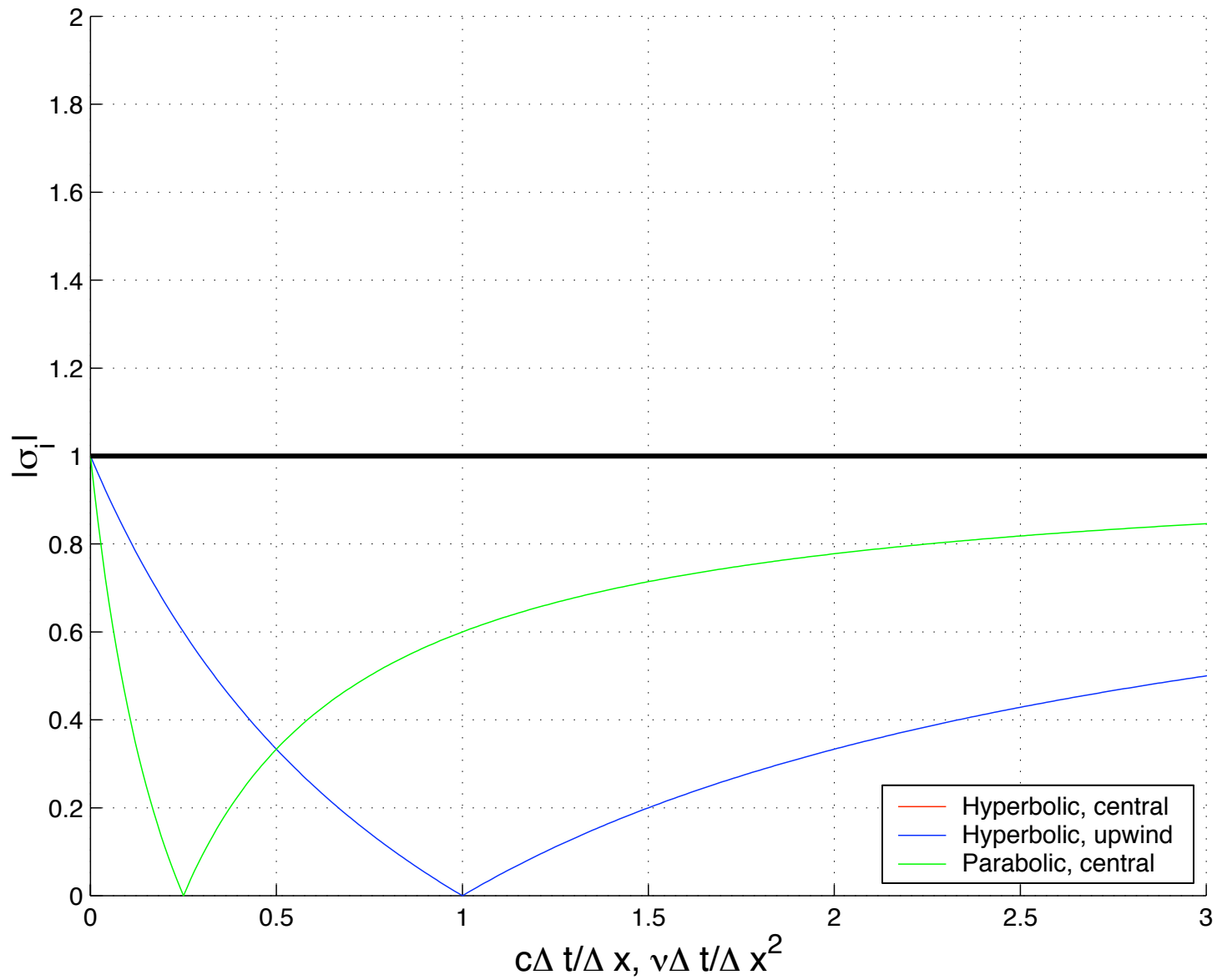
$$u^{n+1} = u^n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \left(u'^{n+1} + u'^n \right).$$

- The σ -root is

$$\sigma = \frac{1 + \lambda \Delta t / 2}{1 - \lambda \Delta t / 2} \simeq 1 + \lambda \Delta t + \frac{1}{2}(\lambda \Delta t)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\lambda \Delta t)^3.$$

- Second-order accurate.
- Stable if $Re(\lambda \Delta t) \leq 0$.

Crank–Nicolson



Stability of time-advancement schemes

Summary

Method	Parabolic Central	Hyperbolic Central	Hyperbolic Upwind
Explicit Euler	$\frac{\nu \Delta t}{\Delta x^2} \leq 0.5$	Unstable	$\frac{c \Delta t}{\Delta x} \leq 2$
MacCormack	$\frac{\nu \Delta t}{\Delta x^2} \leq 0.5$	Weakly unstable	$\frac{c \Delta t}{\Delta x} \leq 2$
Adams-Bashforth	$\frac{\nu \Delta t}{\Delta x^2} \leq 0.25$	Weakly unstable	$\frac{c \Delta t}{\Delta x} \leq 1$
RK3	$\frac{\nu \Delta t}{\Delta x^2} \leq 0.62$	$\frac{c \Delta t}{\Delta x} \leq 1.73$	$\frac{c \Delta t}{\Delta x} \leq 2.51$
RK4	$\frac{\nu \Delta t}{\Delta x^2} \leq 0.69$	$\frac{c \Delta t}{\Delta x} \leq 2.82$	$\frac{c \Delta t}{\Delta x} \leq 2.80$
Implicit Euler	Stable	Stable	Stable
Crank-Nicolson	Stable	Stable	Stable