$\begin{array}{c} {\rm MATH/CS~5466~NUMERICAL~ANALYSIS} \\ {\rm Homework~6} \end{array}$

Luan Cong Doan luandoan@vt.edu **Problem 1.** Consider the differential equation $x'(t) = \lambda x(t)$ with $x(0) = x_0$.

1. Show that when applied to this equation, Heun's method yields:

$$x_{k+1} = (1 + h\lambda + \frac{1}{2}h^2\lambda^2)x_k$$
 For Heun's method: $x_{k+1} = x_k + \frac{h}{2}(K_1 + K_2)$ with:
$$K_1 = K_1(t,x) = f(t_k,x_k) = \lambda x_k$$

$$K_2 = K_2(t,x;h) = f(t_k + h,x_k + hK_1) = \lambda(x_k + \lambda hx_k)$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{k+1} = x_k + \frac{h}{2}(\lambda x_k + \lambda x_k + \lambda^2 hx_k) = x_k + \lambda hx_k + \frac{h^2}{2}\lambda^2 x_k = \left(1 + h\lambda + \frac{1}{2}h^2\lambda^2\right)x_k$$

2. Develop and analogue of the formula for x_{k+1} in part (a), but now using the four-stage Runge-Kutta method.

The classical 4th-order Runge-Kutta method is: $x_{k+1} = x_k + \frac{1}{6}h(K_1 + 2K_2 + 2K_3 + K_4)$ In our case:

$$K_{1} = f(t_{k}, x_{k}) = \lambda x_{k}$$

$$K_{2} = f(t_{k} + \frac{1}{2}h, x_{k} + \frac{1}{2}hK_{1}) = \lambda(x_{k} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda hx_{k}) = \lambda x_{k} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{2}hx_{k}$$

$$K_{3} = f(t_{k} + \frac{1}{2}h, x_{k} + \frac{1}{2}hK_{2}) = \lambda(x_{k} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda hx_{k} + \frac{1}{4}\lambda^{2}h^{2}x_{k}) = \lambda x_{k} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{2}hx_{k} + \frac{1}{4}\lambda^{3}h^{2}x_{k}$$

$$K_{4} = f(t_{k} + h, x_{k} + hK_{3}) = \lambda(x_{k} + \lambda hx_{k} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{2}h^{2}x_{k} + \frac{1}{4}\lambda^{3}h^{3}x_{k})$$

$$= \lambda x_{k} + \lambda^{2}hx_{k} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{3}h^{2}x_{k} + \frac{1}{4}\lambda^{4}h^{3}x_{k}$$
Therefore: $x_{k+1} = x_{k} + \frac{1}{6}h\left[\lambda x_{k} + 2(\lambda x_{k} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{2}hx_{k}) + 2(\lambda x_{k} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{2}hx_{k} + \frac{1}{4}\lambda^{3}h^{2}x_{k})\right]$

$$+ \frac{1}{6}h\left(\lambda x_{k} + \lambda^{2}hx_{k} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{3}h^{2}x_{k} + \frac{1}{4}\lambda^{4}h^{3}x_{k}\right)$$

$$= x_{k} + \frac{1}{6}h\left[6\lambda x_{k} + 3\lambda^{2}hx_{k} + \lambda^{3}h^{2}x_{k} + \frac{1}{4}\lambda^{4}h^{3}x_{k}\right]$$

$$= \left[1 + (\lambda h) + \frac{1}{2}(\lambda h)^{2} + \frac{1}{6}(\lambda h)^{3} + \frac{1}{24}(\lambda h)^{4}\right]x_{k}$$

3. Compare your answers from (a) and (b) to the Taylor series for $x(t_{k+1})$ (that is, the exact solution at t_{k+1}), expanded about the point $t = t_k$.

The exact solution: $x_{k+1} = e^{\lambda t_{k+1}} = e^{\lambda x_k} e^{\lambda h} = e^{\lambda h} x(t_k)$

Applying Taylor expansion about the point $t = t_k$ we have:

$$\begin{split} x(t_{k+1}) &= x(t_k) + x'(t_k)(t_{k+1} - t_k) + \frac{x''(t_k)}{2}(t_{k+1} - t_k)^2 + \frac{x'''(t_k)}{3!}(t_{k+1} - t_k)^3 + \frac{x^{(4)}(t_k)}{4!}(t_{k+1} - t_k)^3 + \frac{x^{(4)}(t_k)}{4!}(t_k)^4 + \dots$$

- 4. Use MATLAB to plot the set of all $h\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ for which $|x_k| \to 0$ as $k \to \infty$ for Heun's method and the four Runge-Kutta method.
 - For Heun's method: $|x_k| \to 0$ as $k \to \infty$ means that: $\left| 1 + h\lambda + \frac{1}{2}h^2\lambda^2 \right| < 1$

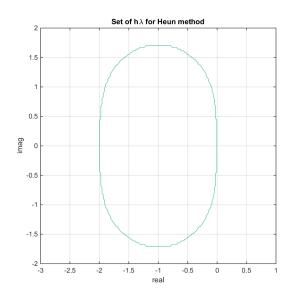


Figure 1: Set of $h\lambda$ for Heun's method

- For Runge-Kutta's method:
$$|x_k| \to 0$$
 as $k \to \infty \Leftrightarrow \left| 1 + h\lambda + \frac{1}{2}h^2\lambda^2 + \frac{1}{6}(\lambda h)^3 + \frac{1}{24}(\lambda h)^4 \right| < \infty$

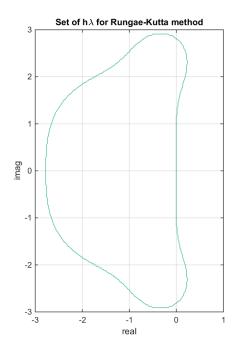


Figure 2: Set of $h\lambda$ for Runge-Kutta's method

```
close all; clear all; clc;
npts = 200;
                            % the larger the number, the nicer
[Zr,Zi] = meshgrid(z_real,z_imag); % matrix of real, imag parts
hLambda = Zr+1i*Zi;
                             % matrix of complex h*Lambda value
figure; clf;
contour(z_real,z_imag,abs(1+hLambda + (hLambda.^2)/2 )<1,[1 1]);</pre>
axis equal; grid on;
axis([min(z_real) max(z_real) min(z_imag) max(z_imag)]);
figure; clf;
contour(z_real,z_imag,abs(1+hLambda + (hLambda.^2)/2 + (hLambda.^3)/6
axis equal; grid on;
axis([min(z_real) max(z_real) min(z_imag) max(z_imag)]);
```

Problem 2. Consider 2-step linear multistep methods of the form:

$$x_{k+2} + Ax_{k+1} + Bx_k = hCf_{k+1}$$

for the initial value problem $x'(t) = f(t, x(t)), x(t_0) = x_0$, where A, B and C are constants. For 2-step linear multistep we have:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2} \alpha_j x_{k+j} = h \sum_{j=0}^{2} \beta_j f_{k+j}$$

we have: $\alpha_0 = B, \alpha_1 = A, \alpha_2 = 1; \beta_0 = 0, \beta_1 = C, \beta_2 = 0$

1. Determine all choices of A, B and C for which this method is consistent.

This mothod is consistent if

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{j=0}^{2} \alpha_j = 0 \\ \sum_{j=0}^{2} j\alpha_j = \sum_{j=0}^{2} \beta_j \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} 1 + A + B = 0 \\ 0.B + 1.A + 2.1 = C \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} A + B = -1 \\ A = C - 2 \end{cases}$$

2. Determine a choice A, B and C that gives $O(h^2)$ truncation error.

The truncation error is $0(h^2)$ if for l=1,2:

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{j=0}^{2} \alpha_{j} = 0 \\ \sum_{j=0}^{2} \frac{j^{l}}{l!} \alpha_{j} = \sum_{j=0}^{2} \frac{j^{l-1}}{(l-1)!} \beta_{j} \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \sum_{j=0}^{2} \alpha_{j} = 0 \\ \sum_{j=0}^{2} j \alpha_{j} = \sum_{j=0}^{2} \beta_{j} \\ \sum_{j=0}^{2} \frac{j^{2}}{2} \alpha_{j} = \sum_{j=0}^{2} j \beta_{j} \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} 1 + A + B = 0 \\ 0.B + 1.A + 2.1 = C \\ \frac{0}{2}B + \frac{1}{2}A + \frac{2^{2}}{2}.1 = C \end{cases}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} A + B = -1 \\ A = C - 2 \\ A = 2C - 4 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} A = 0 \\ B = -1 \\ C = 2 \end{cases}$$

3. Access the zero-stability of the method found in part (b).

We have characteristic polynomial of the LMM is:

$$p(\gamma) = \sum_{j=0}^{2} \alpha_j \gamma^j = -1 + \gamma^2 = (\gamma - 1)(\gamma + 1)$$

Characteristic polynomial have 2 roots: $\gamma = 1$ and $\gamma = -1 \Rightarrow$ zero-stable.

4. What does your answer to part (c) imply about the behavior of the linear multistep method as $h \to 0$ for such value A, B and C?

we have the exact solution for: $x'(t) = \lambda x(t)$ is $x(t) = e^{\lambda t} x(0)$ with $\lambda = \gamma + \delta i$

based on part (c) result: $\gamma = \pm 1$ and $\delta = 0$ so:

+ for
$$\gamma = 1$$
: $x(t) = e^t x(0) \Rightarrow$ for $t \to \infty : x(t) \to \infty$

+ for
$$\gamma = -1$$
: $x(t) = e^{-t}x(0) \Rightarrow$ for $t \to \infty$: $x(t) \to 0$

5. For the method found in part (b), calculate those values of λh for which $x_k \to 0$ as $k \to \infty$ when applied to the differential equation $x' = \lambda x$.

As
$$A = 0, B = -1, C = 2$$
 and $x' = \lambda x$, we have: $x_{k+2} - x_k = 2h\lambda x_{k+1}$

For $x_k = \gamma^k$, the stability polynomial is: $p(\gamma) - h\lambda\sigma(\gamma) = 0$

$$p(\gamma) - h\lambda\sigma(\gamma) = \sum_{j=0}^{2} \alpha_j \gamma^j - h\lambda \sum_{j=0}^{2} \beta_j \gamma^j = -1 + \gamma^2 - h\lambda(2\gamma) = 0$$

$$\Delta = 4h^2\lambda^2 + 4 \Rightarrow \gamma = \frac{2h\lambda \pm \sqrt{4h^2\lambda^2 + 4}}{2} = h\lambda \pm \sqrt{h^2\lambda^2 + 1}$$

Stability condition:
$$|\gamma| = |h\lambda \pm \sqrt{h^2\lambda^2 + 1}| < 1$$

With two different values of γ we have two set of $h\lambda$ respectively:

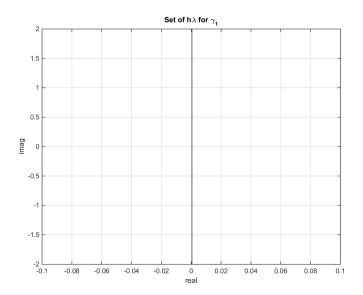


Figure 3: Set of $h\lambda$ for $\gamma_1 = h\lambda - \sqrt{h^2\lambda^2 + 1}$

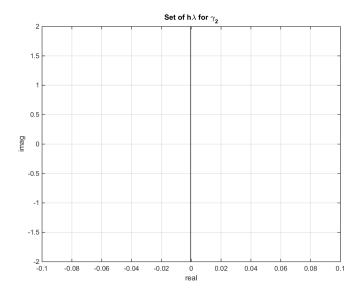


Figure 4: Set of $h\lambda$ for $\gamma_2 = h\lambda + \sqrt{h^2\lambda^2 + 1}$

```
npts = 200;
z_real = linspace(-0.1,0.1,npts);
z_imag = linspace(-2,2,npts);
[Zr,Zi] = meshgrid(z_real,z_imag);
hLambda = Zr+1i*Zi;
figure; clf;
```

```
contour(z_real,z_imag,abs(hLambda - sqrt(hLambda.^2 +1) )<1,[1 1],'k');
grid on; xlabel('real'); ylabel('imag');
title('Set of h\lambda for \gamma_1'); print('hw6_2e1','-dpng');
figure; clf;
contour(z_real,z_imag,abs(hLambda + sqrt(hLambda.^2 +1) )<1,[1 1],'k');
grid on; xlabel('real'); ylabel('imag');
axis([min(z_real) max(z_real) min(z_imag) max(z_imag)])
title('Set of h\lambda for \gamma_2'); print('hw6_2e2','-dpng');</pre>
```

Problem 3. Convection-diffusion equation play an important role in fluid dynamics. In one dimension, the simplest such equation takes the form: $-\varepsilon u''(x) + u'(x) = 0$; u(0) = a, u(1) = b

(The second derivative term, Λu in higher dimensions, gives diffusion; the first derivative term, $\mathbf{w}^T u$ in higher dimensions, gives convection in the direction of the 'wind', \mathbf{w}). Note that this convection-diffusion equation is a boundary value problem, rather than an initial value problem. As stated, it is easy enough to solve by hand, but it will be useful to develop a numerical method that we could also apply to more difficult problems. The shooting method is one option:

- Write this second-order ODE as a system of two first-order ODEs: $\begin{cases} u_1'(x) = u_2(x) \\ u_2'(x) = \varepsilon^{-1}u_2(x) \end{cases}$
- Guess some value for u'(0). Integrate this system (e.g., using a Runge-Kutta method) for $x \in [0,1]$ with the initial values $u_1(0) = u(0) = a$ (given by the problem) and $u_2 = u'(0)$ (guessed).
- Unless you are lucky, the solution you obtain will not match the boundary condition u(1) = b, because the guessed value for u'(0) is not correct. One can use a nonlinear root finding algorithm (e.g., bisection, regular falsi the secant method, or Newton's method to adjust the guess u'(0) until the integrated value at x = 1 agrees with the desired u(1) = b. That is, one seeks a zero of the objective function: $f(\xi) = b (u(1) \text{ computed with } u'(0) = \xi)$ The following figure shows a schematic view of the shooting method (for a differential equation). The solid line is the solution to the ODE with the correct value u(0) = a, but the incorrect u'(0). Since this initial slope is incorrect, the corresponding value for u(1) is also wrong. The dashed line shows the true solution, which satisfies u(1) = b. The challenge

is to adjust the guessed value for u'(0) so that the computed u(1) satisfies the boundary condition u(1) = b.

Your task is to solve the convection-diffusion equation.

1. Implement the shooting method to solve the above convection-diffusion boundary value problem with $\varepsilon = 1/10$, u(0) = 0, and u(1) = 1. Please use MATLAB's built-in ODE integrator, ode45; you may use any root-finding algorithm you like, but please implement it yourself or use the codes on the class website. If you use the bisection or regula falsi algorithm, use u'(0) = 0 and u'(0) = 1 to obtain your initial bracket. If you use the secant method of Newton's method, try u'(0) = 0 as an initial guess.

Please present your code, a pilot of u(x) for $x \in [0, 1]$, and the value of u'(0) that gives u(1) = 1.

We have:
$$u'(x) = u_1(x), u''(x) = \varepsilon^{-1}u_2(x) = 10u_2(x)$$
. So:
$$\begin{bmatrix} u'_1(x) \\ u'_2(x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1(x) \\ u_2(x) \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow u'(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 10 \end{bmatrix} u(x)$$

Apply ode45 function in MATLAB

```
close all; clear all;
[t,x] = ode45(@(t,x) [0 1;0 10]*x, [0 1], [0;0.00045395]);
figure; plot(t,x(:,1),'r'); grid on;
xlabel('x'); ylabel('u(x)');
title('Approximation for u(x) utilizing ode45, \epsilon = 10');
print('hw6_3a','-dpng');
```

2. Repeat the same experiment for $\varepsilon = 1/50$ The exact solution demonstrates a boundary layer near x = 1.

```
close all; clear all;
[t,x] = ode45(@(t,x) [0 1;0 50]*x, [0 1], [0;0.50395e-19]);
figure; plot(t,x(:,1),'r'); grid on;
xlabel('x'); ylabel('u(x)');
title('Approximation for u(x) utilizing ode45, \epsilon = 50');
print('hw6_3b','-dpng');
```

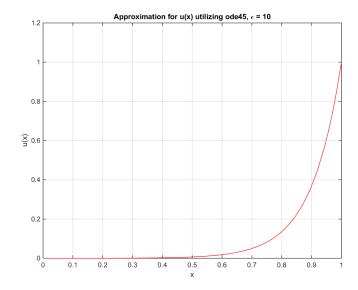


Figure 5: Approximation of u(x) for convection-diffusion problem with $\varepsilon = 10$

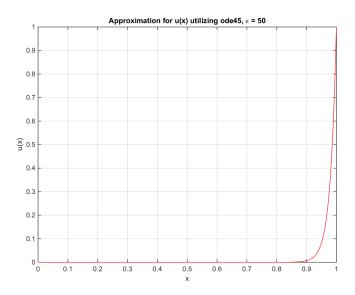


Figure 6: Approximation of u(x) for convection-diffusion problem with $\varepsilon = 10$

3. Derive the exact solution for this convection-diffusion problem. In particular, what are the exact values for u'(0) in part (a) and (b)? How do these values of u'(0) compare to those you computed in (a) and (b)?

Assume one possible solution for u(x) is: $u(x) = e^{\lambda x}$, so: $u'(x) = \lambda e^{\lambda x}$, $u''(x) = \lambda^2 e^{\lambda x}$ Replace into convection-diffusion problem we have:

$$-\varepsilon\lambda^2e^{\lambda x} + \lambda e^{\lambda x} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lambda(1-\varepsilon\lambda)e^{\lambda x} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \lambda_1 = 0\\ \lambda_2 = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \end{cases}$$
 We have the general solution: $u(x) = c_1e^{\lambda_1 x} + c_2e^{\lambda_2 x} = c_1e^{0.x} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}x} = c_1 + c_2e^{x/\varepsilon}$

For initial condition:
$$u(0) = 0$$
 and $u(1) = 1$:
$$\begin{cases} u(0) = c_1 + c_2 = 0 \\ u(1) = c_1 + c_2 e^{1/\varepsilon} = 1 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} c_1 = -\frac{1}{e^{1/\varepsilon} - 1} \\ c_2 = \frac{1}{e^{1/\varepsilon} - 1} \end{cases}$$
 Exact solution for convection-diffusion problem: $u(x) = -\frac{1}{e^{1/\varepsilon} - 1} + \frac{1}{e^{1/\varepsilon} - 1} e^{x/\varepsilon}$ $\Rightarrow u'(x) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon(e^{1/\varepsilon} - 1)} e^{x/\varepsilon}$ For part (a): $\varepsilon = 1/10 \Rightarrow u(x) = -\frac{1}{e^{10} - 1} + \frac{1}{e^{10} - 1} e^{10x}$ $u'(x) = \frac{1}{10(e^{10} - 1)} e^{10x} \Rightarrow u'(0) = \frac{1}{10(e^{10} - 1)} e^0 = 4.5402 \times 10^{-6}$ For part (a): $\varepsilon = 1/50 \Rightarrow u(x) = -\frac{1}{e^{50} - 1} + \frac{1}{e^{50} - 1} e^{50x}$ $u'(x) = \frac{1}{50(e^{50} - 1)} e^{50x} \Rightarrow u'(0) = \frac{1}{50(e^{50} - 1)} e^0 = 3.8575 \times 10^{-24}$ The guessed value for $u'(0)$ in both part (a) and (b) are bigger than the real values:

The guessed value for u'(0) in both part (a) and (b) are bigger than the real values:

 $0.00045395 > 4.5402 \times 10^{-6}$ and $0.50395e - 19 > 3.8575 \times 10^{-24}$

Problem 4. Method of Lines. Many physical models give rise to time-dependent partial differential equations. General techniques to solve such problems are beyond the scope of this course. However, many such problems can be attacked using standard OED integrators via a technique known as the method of lines. In this problem, you will solve the first-order wave equation: $u_t(t,x) = u_x(t,x)$

Here u(t,x) is a scalar function of two real variables, u_t denotes the time derivative, and u_x denotes the space derivative. The problem is posed on the temporal domain $t \geq 0$ and spatial domain $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$. The initial data will be: $u(0, x) = \sin(2\pi x)$.

which gives the exact solution: $u(t,x) = \sin(2\pi(x+t))$

The method of the lines approximates the solution to a partial differential equation by first discretizing the domain on the x-direction into points $x_j = j\Delta x$, where $\Delta x = 1/n$ for some fixed n. Since the initial data is periodic, we only need to discretize from $x_1 = \Delta x$ through $x_n = n\Delta x = 1$, and then assign $x_0 = x_n$ by periodicity.

Now approximate the spatial (x) derivative by the simple finite difference approximation:

$$u_x(t, x_j) \approx \frac{u(t, x_{j+1}) - u(t, x_j)}{\Delta x};$$

we have previously observed that this approximation incurs an $0(\Delta x)$ error. The method of lines approximates the partial differential equation $u_t = u_x$ with an ordinary differential equation by replacing u_x with the finite differential approximation, giving:

$$u_t(t, x_j) = \frac{u(t, x_{j+1}) - u(t, x_j)}{\Delta x}$$

Exploiting periodicity (which implies that $u(t,x_n)=u(t,x_0)$), this reduces the partial differential equation to a system of n ordinary differential equations. Using the notation.

$$\mathbf{u}(t) = \begin{vmatrix} u(t, x_1) \\ u(t, x_2) \\ \dots \\ u(t, x_n) \end{vmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

this system of differential equation can be written as: $\mathbf{u}_t(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}(t)$

1. What is the matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$? (Be careful not to neglect the entry that arises because of periodicity)

We have: $x_{n+1} = (n+1)\Delta x = 1 + \Delta x$

As definition of u(t, x):

$$u(t, x_{n+1}) = \sin(2\pi(t+x_{n+1})) = \sin(2\pi(t+1+\Delta x)) = \sin(t+\Delta x) = \sin(t+x_1) = u(t, x_1)$$
So: $u_t(t, x_n) = \frac{u(t, x_{n+1}) - u(t, x_n)}{\Delta x} = \frac{u(t, x_1) - u(t, x_n)}{\Delta x}$
and: $u_t(t, x_j) = \frac{u(t, x_{j+1}) - u(t, x_j)}{\Delta x}$ for $j = 1, ..., n - 1$

We come up with:
$$\mathbf{u}_t(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}(t) = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ & \dots & & \dots & & \dots & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u(t, x_1) \\ u(t, x_2) \\ \dots \\ u(t, x_n) \end{bmatrix}$$
 So we have $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$: $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & \frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & \frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & \frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & \frac{1}{\Delta x} \\ \frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} \end{bmatrix}$

2. Verify (by proving analytically, or by simply computing a numerical example for n = 7, whichever you prefer) that A has the n eigenvalues and associated eigenvectors.

$$\lambda_j = (e^{i\theta_j} - 1)/\Delta x, \quad \mathbf{v}_j = (e^{i\theta_j}, e^{2i\theta_j}, ..., e^{ni\theta_j})^T \quad \text{ for } \theta_j = 2\pi j/n \text{ for } j = 1, ..., n$$

For n = 7 we will have the eigenvalues of matrix **A** is defined by:

$$\det[\lambda \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}] = \det\begin{bmatrix} \lambda + \frac{1}{\Delta x} & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda + \frac{1}{\Delta x} & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda + \frac{1}{\Delta x} & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda + \frac{1}{\Delta x} & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda + \frac{1}{\Delta x} & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda + \frac{1}{\Delta x} & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda + \frac{1}{\Delta x} & -\frac{1}{\Delta x} \\ -\frac{1}{\Delta x} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda + \frac{1}{\Delta x} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \left(\lambda + \frac{1}{\Delta x}\right)^7 + \left(\frac{-1}{\Delta x}\right)^7$$

with
$$\lambda = \frac{e^{i\theta_j} - 1}{\Delta x}$$
: $\det[\lambda \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}] = \left(\frac{e^{i\theta_j} - 1}{\Delta x} + \frac{1}{\Delta x}\right)^7 + \left(\frac{-1}{\Delta x}\right)^7 = \frac{1}{(\Delta x)^7}(e^{7i\theta_j} - 1)$
 $e^{7i\theta_j} + 1 = \cos\left(7 * \frac{2\pi j}{7}\right) + i\sin\left(7 * \frac{2\pi j}{7}\right) - 1 = \cos(2\pi j) + i\sin(2\pi j) + 1 = 1 + i * 0 - 1 = 0$
 $\Rightarrow \det[\lambda \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}] = 0$ for $n = 7$ and $j = 1, 2, ..., 7$
 $\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{e^{i\theta_j} - 1}{\Delta x}$ are eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} (with $j = 1, 2, ..., 7$)

For eigenvalues and eigenvectors of matrix **A** we will have: $\lambda_i v_i = \mathbf{A} v_i$:

$$\lambda_{j}v_{j} = \frac{e^{i\theta_{j}}}{\Delta x} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{2i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{3i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{4i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{5i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{6i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{7i\theta_{j}} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta_{j}}(e^{i\theta_{j}} - 1) \\ e^{2i\theta_{j}}(e^{i\theta_{j}} - 1) \\ e^{3i\theta_{j}}(e^{i\theta_{j}} - 1) \\ e^{4i\theta_{j}}(e^{i\theta_{j}} - 1) \\ e^{5i\theta_{j}}(e^{i\theta_{j}} - 1) \\ e^{6i\theta_{j}}(e^{i\theta_{j}} - 1) \\ e^{7i\theta_{j}}(e^{i\theta_{j}} - 1) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \begin{bmatrix} -e^{i\theta_{j}} + e^{2i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{2i\theta_{j}} + e^{3i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{3i\theta_{j}} + e^{4i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{3i\theta_{j}} + e^{5i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{5i\theta_{j}} + e^{6i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{6i\theta_{j}} + e^{7i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{7i\theta_{j}} + e^{8i\theta_{j}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}_{j} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{2i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{3i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{4i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{5i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{6i\theta_{j}} \\ e^{7i\theta_{j}} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \begin{bmatrix} -e^{i\theta_{j}} + e^{2i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{2i\theta_{j}} + e^{3i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{3i\theta_{j}} + e^{5i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{5i\theta_{j}} + e^{6i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{6i\theta_{j}} + e^{7i\theta_{j}} \\ -e^{6i\theta_{j}} + e^{7i\theta_{j}} \end{bmatrix}$$

We have:
$$e^{8i\theta_j} = \cos(8\theta_j) + i\sin(8\theta_j) = \cos\left(8 * \frac{2\pi j}{7}\right) + i\sin\left(8 * \frac{2\pi j}{7}\right)$$

$$= \cos\left(2\pi j + \frac{2\pi j}{7}\right) + i\sin\left(2\pi j + \frac{2\pi j}{7}\right)$$

$$= \cos\left(\frac{2\pi j}{7}\right) + i\sin\cos\left(\frac{2\pi j}{7}\right) = e^{i\theta_j} \quad (*)$$

$$\Rightarrow -e^{7i\theta_j} + e^{8i\theta_j} = -e^{7i\theta_j} + e^{i\theta_j} \Leftrightarrow \lambda_j v_j = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}_j \quad \text{for } j = 1, 2, ..., 7$$

(*) is right for n < 8 or maximum value of n is 7 or \mathbf{A} has n = 7 eigenpairs: λ_j and v_j .

Finally, the method of lines solves $\mathbf{u}_t = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}$ using an ODE integrator. For simplicity, use the forward Euler method: $\mathbf{u}_{k+1} = \mathbf{u}_k + \Delta t \mathbf{A} \mathbf{u}_k$

3. Consider the eigenvalues from part (b), together with the theory of absolute stability for the forward Euler method, to determine a sharp condition on Δt that ensures there are no exponentially growing solutions for a fixed value of Δx .

$$\mathbf{u}_{k+1} = \mathbf{u}_k + \Delta t \mathbf{A} \mathbf{u}_k \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{u}_{k+1} = (I + \Delta t \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{u}_k \Rightarrow \gamma = I + \Delta t \mathbf{A}$$

As above result with λ_j, v_j are eigenpairs of **A**: $\mathbf{A} = V\Lambda V^{-1}$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta_1} & e^{i\theta_2} & \dots & e^{i\theta_n} \\ e^{2i\theta_1} & e^{2i\theta_2} & \dots & e^{2i\theta_n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ e^{ni\theta_1} & e^{ni\theta_2} & \dots & e^{ni\theta_n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{e^{i\theta_1} - 1}{\Delta x} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{e^{i\theta_2} - 1}{\Delta x} & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \frac{e^{i\theta_n} - 1}{\Delta x} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta_1} & e^{i\theta_2} & \dots & e^{i\theta_n} \\ e^{2i\theta_1} & e^{2i\theta_2} & \dots & e^{2i\theta_n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ e^{ni\theta_1} & e^{ni\theta_2} & \dots & e^{ni\theta_n} \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

Iterating from initial condition: $x_1 = (I + \Delta t \mathbf{A})x_0$

$$x_2 = (I + \Delta t \mathbf{A})x_1 = (I + \Delta t \mathbf{A})^2 x_0 \dots$$

or in general: $x_k = (I + \Delta t \mathbf{A})^k x_0$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 the stable condition is: $|\gamma| = |I + \Delta t \mathbf{A}| < 1$ (***)

The above condition will be satisfied if all the eigenvalues of $[\mathbf{I} + \Delta t \mathbf{A}]$ are less than 1.

Due to spectral mapping theorem: if (λ_j, v_j) is an eigenpairs of $\mathbf{A} \to (1 + \Delta t \lambda_j, \mathbf{v}_j)$ is an eigenpair of $[\mathbf{I} + \Delta t \mathbf{A}]$, then:

$$[\mathbf{I} + \Delta t \mathbf{A}] \mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{v}_j + \Delta t \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}_j = (1 + \Delta t \lambda_j) \mathbf{v}_j$$

 $\Rightarrow x_k$ will decay to 0 if $|1 + \Delta t \lambda_j| < 1$ for all λ_j

This condition is equivalent with: $|1 + \Delta t \lambda_j| < 1 \Leftrightarrow -2 < \Delta t \lambda_j < 0$

We have:
$$\Delta t \lambda_j = \Delta t \frac{e^{i\theta_j} - 1}{\Delta x} = \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} (\cos \theta_j + i \sin \theta_j - 1)$$

So: $|1 + \Delta t \lambda_j| < 1 \Leftrightarrow -2 < \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} (\cos \theta_j + i \sin \theta_j - 1) < 0$ (****)

Besides, the set of $(\cos \theta_j + i \sin \theta_j - 1)$ is a circle in complex space with center at -1 and radius is 1, mean that $-2 < (\cos \theta_j + i \sin \theta_j - 1) < 0$

In order to get (****) is true will all j: $\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} < 1$

4. Implement your algorithm in MATLAB to confirm that your answer to (c) is correct. In particular, take $\Delta x = 1/50$, (n = 50) and give solutions when Δt is (1) twice the maximum and (2) equal to the maximum allowed by the stability requirement from (c). You may show this data in several ways: You can plot the solution at time t = 2 in two dimensions (u(2, x) versus x), or in three dimensions for $t \in [0, 2]$. For the later, the following MATLAB commands may prove useful: surf, mesh, waterfall, pcolor, shading interp.

The solution for this equation is: $x_k = (\mathbf{I} + \Delta t \mathbf{A})^k x_0$

Due to above result, the maximum value of Δt is $\Delta t = \Delta x$, so:

- When Δt is twice the maximum: $\Delta t = 2\Delta x = 2*1/50 = 1/25$

For t=2, the step needed is $k=t/\Delta t=2/(1/25)=50$

- When Δt is equal to the maximum: $\Delta t = \Delta x = 1/50$

For t = 2, the step needed is $k = t/\Delta t = 2/(1/50) = 100$

$$n = 50$$
; $Dx = 1/n$; $x = 0:Dx:1$; $x(1) = []$; $A = -1*eye(n) + [zeros(n-1,1), eye(n-1); zeros(1,n)]$; $A(n,1) = 1$; $A = A/Dx$;

% For Dt is twice time than the maximum value of Dx

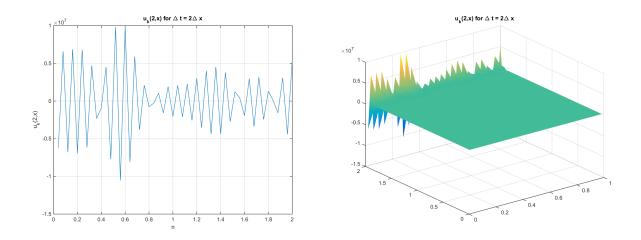


Figure 7: $u_k(2, x)$ for $\Delta t = 2\Delta x$

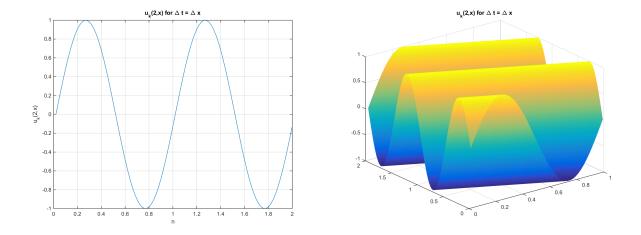


Figure 8: $u_k(2, x)$ for $\Delta t = \Delta x$

```
u1(:,1) = sin(2*pi*x);
Dt1 = 2*Dx; t1 = 0:Dt1:2; t1(1) = []; k1 = 2/Dt1;
[T1,X1] = meshgrid(t1,x);
for i =1:k1
    u1(:,i+1) = u1(:,i) + Dt1*A*u1(:,i);
end
u1(:,end) = [];
figure; plot(t1,u1(:,end)); grid on;
xlabel('n'); ylabel('u_k(2,x)');
title('u_k(2,x) for \Delta t = 2\Delta x');
print('hw6_4d1','-dpng');
figure; surf(X1,T1,u1); shading interp;
title('u_k(2,x) for \Delta t = 2\Delta x');
print('hw6_4d2','-dpng');
\% For Dt is equal to the maximum value of Dx
u2(:,1) = sin(2*pi*x);
Dt2 = Dx; t2 = 0:Dt2:2; t2(1) = []; k2 = 2/Dt2;
[T2,X2] = meshgrid(t2,x);
for j = 1:k2
u2(:,j+1) = u2(:,j) + Dt2*A*u2(:,j);
end
u2(:,k2+1) = [];
figure; plot(t2,u2(end,:)); grid on;
xlabel('n'); ylabel('u_k(2,x)');
title('u_k(2,x) for \Delta t = \Delta x');
print('hw6_4d3','-dpng');
figure; surf(X2,T2,u2); shading interp;
title('u_k(2,x) for \Delta t = \Delta x');
print('hw6_4d4','-dpng');
```