FYS3150/4150 Computational Physics Project 1

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1 Introduction

A great deal of differential equations in the natural sciences can be written as a linear second-order differential equation on the form

$$\frac{d^y}{dx^2} + k^2(x)y = f(x)$$
 (1.1)

Some examples include

I Schrödinger's equation

II Airy function

III Economics?

IV Poisson's equation

V Laplace's equation (Poisson's with f=0)

So being able to solve such equations optimally with respect to accuracy and efficiency is undoubtedly important. This report will compare different algorithms for solving them.

KSK: More specific info on which algorithms to be investigated.

1.1 A closer look at an example from Electromagnetism

In electrostatics Maxwells equations reduces to

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \tag{1.2}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \tag{1.3}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0 \tag{1.4}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = 0 \tag{1.5}$$

As the curl of the electric field is zero, the field is conservative and can be written on the form

$$\nabla \Phi = -\mathbf{E} \tag{1.6}$$

This gives Poisson's equation

$$\nabla^2 \Phi = -\frac{\rho(\mathbf{r})}{\epsilon_0} \tag{1.7}$$

Letting ρ be spherically symmetric leads to a symmetric Φ . This gives with a substitution $\Phi(r) = \phi(r)/r$

$$\frac{d^2\phi}{dr^2} = -\frac{r\rho(r)}{\epsilon_0} \tag{1.8}$$

Which is on the form of (1.1).

2 Method

The specific differential equation, with boundary values, being discussed in this report is:

$$-u''(x) = f(x), \quad x \in (0,1), \quad u(0) = u(1) = 0.$$
 (2.1)

This boundary value problem can be discretized and written as a system of linear equations.

Letting the domain $x \in [0,1]$ be discretized into n+1 pieces,

$$x_0, x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_{n+1}$$
 (2.2)

where

$$h = \frac{x_{n+1} - x_0}{n+1} = \frac{x_{n+1}}{n+1} \tag{2.3}$$

$$x_i = x_0 + ih = ih (2.4)$$

an then sampling the solution at the mesh points so that $u(x_i) \simeq v_i$.

And using the three-point formula from the symmetric Taylor-expansion for the second derivative of v,

$$\frac{d^2v}{dx^2} \simeq \frac{v_{i-1} + v_{i+1} - 2v_i}{h^2} \tag{2.5}$$

The discretized form of equation (2.1) can then be written as

$$\frac{v_{i-1} + v_{i+1} - 2v_i}{h^2} = \tilde{f}_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$
(2.6)

with $\tilde{f}_i = f(r_i)h^2$.

With boundary conditions

$$v_0 = v_{N-1} = 0 (2.7)$$

This can now be written as a system of linear equations on the form

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \tilde{\mathbf{b}},\tag{2.8}$$

Multipling the discretized equation (2.6) by h^2 we get:

$$-v_{i-1} + 2v_i - v_{i+1} = h^2 f_i$$
 for $i = 1, \dots, n$

Filling in for i and choosing $\tilde{b_i} = h^2 f_i$ we obtain the following set of equations:

$$2v_{1} - v_{2} = \tilde{b_{1}}$$

$$-v_{1} + 2v_{2} - v_{3} = \tilde{b_{2}}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$-v_{i-1} + 2v_{i} - v_{i+1} = \tilde{b_{i}}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$-v_{n-1} + 2v_{n} = \tilde{b_{n}}$$

Now one can easily see that this system of linear equations can written on the form of (2.8)

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & \dots \\ & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & \dots & & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & \dots & & 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \dots \\ \dots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{b}} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{b}_1 \\ \tilde{b}_2 \\ \dots \\ \dots \\ \tilde{b}_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Having a complete set of linear equations we move on to how to solve them.

2.1 A tridiagonal matrix algorithm

We start by looking at the system of equations:

$$b_1 v_1 + c_1 v_2 = \tilde{b_1} \tag{2.9}$$

$$a_2v_1 + b_2v_2 + c_3v_3 = \tilde{b_2} (2.10)$$

$$a_3v_2 + b_3v_3 + c_3v_4 = \tilde{b_3} \tag{2.11}$$

:

$$a_n v_{n-1} + b_n v_n = \tilde{b_n} (2.12)$$

If we solve (2.9) for v_1 and insert it into (2.10) we obtain the following "modified second equation":

$$(b_1b_2 - a_2c_1)v_2 + b_1c_2v_3 = b_1\tilde{b_2} - a_2\tilde{b_1}$$

Now having successfully removed v_1 from the second equation we can go on and solve it for v_2 and insert it into the third equation obtaining:

$$(b_3(b_1b_2 - a_2c_1) - a_3b_1c_2)v_3 + c_3(b_1b_2 - a_2c_1)v_4 = (b_1b_2 - a_2c_1)\tilde{b_3} - a_3b_1\tilde{b_2} + a_2a_3\tilde{b_1}$$

The two modified equations may be written as

$$\begin{aligned} v_2 &= \frac{b_1 \tilde{b_2} - a_2 \tilde{b_1}}{b_1 b_2 - a_2 c_1} - \frac{b_1 c_2}{b_1 b_2 - a_2 c_1} v_3 = \beta_2 + \gamma_2 v_3 \\ v_3 &= \frac{(b_1 b_2 - a_2 c_1) \tilde{b_3} - a_3 (b_1 \tilde{b_2} - a_2 \tilde{b_1})}{b_3 (b_1 b_2 - a_2 c_1) - a_3 b_1 c_2} - \frac{c_3 (b_1 b_2 - a_2 c_1)}{b_3 (b_1 b_2 - a_2 c_1) - a_3 b_1 c_2} v_4 \\ &= \frac{\tilde{b_3} - a_3 \beta_2}{a_3 \gamma_2 + b_3} + \frac{-c_3}{a_3 \gamma_2 + b_3} v_4 = \beta_3 + \gamma_3 v_4 \end{aligned}$$

This prossess can be repeated up untill the last equation. This is the forward substitution step. From the last equation we compute v_n and get all we need to compute v_{n-1} , then v_{n-2} , and so on. This is the backward substitution part of the algorithm. A shrewd reader might see that the coefficients, β and γ , take a recursive form

$$\beta_i = \frac{\tilde{b}_i - a_i \beta_{i-1}}{a_i \gamma_{i-1} + b_i}, \quad \gamma_i = \frac{-c_i}{a_i \gamma_{i-1} + b_i},$$

and the equation for v_{i-1} reads:

$$v_{i-1} = \beta_{i-1} + \gamma_{i-1}v_i \tag{2.13}$$

It follows from (2.9) that $\beta_1 = \frac{\tilde{b_1}}{b_1}$ and $\gamma_1 = \frac{-c_1}{b_1}$. From combining (2.12) and (2.13) we get

$$v_n = \frac{\tilde{b_n} - a_n \beta_{n-1}}{a_n \gamma_{n-1} + b_n} = \beta_n.$$

Having all the nessecary ingredients the algorithm reads as follows.

Algorithm I

$$a_{i} = c_{i} = -1, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, ..., n$$

$$b_{i} = 2, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, ..., n$$

$$\tilde{b}_{i} = h^{2} f_{i} \quad i = 1, 2, 3, ..., n$$

$$\beta_{1} = \frac{\tilde{b}_{1}}{b_{1}}$$

$$\gamma_{1} = \frac{-c_{1}}{b_{1}}$$
for $i = 2, 3, ..., n$

$$\beta_{i} = \frac{b_{i-1} - a_{i-1}\beta_{i-1}}{a_{i-1}\gamma_{i-1} + b_{i-1}}, \quad \gamma_{i} = \frac{-c_{i-1}}{a_{i-1}\gamma_{i-1} + b_{i-1}}$$

$$v_{n} = \beta_{n}$$
for $i = n, n - 1, ..., 2$

$$v_{i-1} = \beta_{i-1} + \gamma_{i-1}v_{i}$$

This is often referred to as *Thomas Algorithm*, an algorithm for solving tridiagonal systems of linear equations.

KSK: More on implementation needed?

2.2 Standard Gaussian Elimination

The Gaussian elimination is solving the system (2.8) by using row operations and getting a row echelon form and then backsubstituting.

MU: Reducing matrix

The backsubstitution is simple when a row reduced matrix is achieved.

Let us look at the matrix equation Ux = y

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & \dots & & & \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} & \dots & & \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & & & \\ \dots & 0 & a_{(n-1)(n-1)} & a_{(n-1)n} \\ \dots & 0 & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_{n-1} \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \dots \\ y_{n-1} \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$
 (2.14)

$$x_n = \frac{y_n}{a_{nn}} \tag{2.15}$$

$$x_n = \frac{y_n}{a_{nn}}$$

$$x_{n-1} = \frac{y_{n-1} - a_{(n-1)n}x_n}{a_{(n-1)(n-1)}}$$
(2.15)

Where x_i is found from a recursive method.

2.3 LU decomposition

When the matrix equation (2.8) is solved, this is modified into an upper triangular and lower triangular matrix. The lower matrix (L) diagonal has elements with the value 1, and is invertible if A is non-singular.

The LU decomposition allows one to find the sets of linear equations,

$$Ax = LUx = w (2.17)$$

Is then solved for x by using a the inverse of L (which exist due to its construction),

$$Ux = L^{-1}w = y (2.18)$$

Since U is an upper triangular matrix the solution is found from backsubstitution of the elements as described in the Gaussian Elimination.

2.4 Method using sparse

To prevent saving a very sparse matrix in memory a sparse method can be employed. This saves the non-zero matrix elements and location instead of the entire matrix. This saves memory and computational speed, as only these elements are manipulated.

3 Results

3.1 Speed/Efficiency

Thomas alg.		Gaussian el.		Sparse		LU decomp.	
N	Time	N	Time	N	Time	N	Time
10	Insert	10	Insert	10	Insert	10	Insert
100	Insert	100	Insert	100	Insert	100	Insert
1000	Insert	1000	Insert	1000	Insert	1000	Insert
10000	Insert	10000	Insert	10000	Insert	10000	Insert

3.2 Accuracy/Error

Thomas alg.		Gaussian el.		Sparse		LU decomp.	
N	LMRE.	N	LMRE.	N	LMRE.	N	LMRE.
10	Insert	10	Insert	10	Insert	10	Insert
100	Insert	100	Insert	100	Insert	100	Insert
1000	Insert	1000	Insert	1000	Insert	1000	Insert
10000	Insert	10000	Insert	10000	Insert	10000	Insert

3.3 FLOPS

The number of floating point operations (FLOPS) per algorithm gives a useful metric of the scalability. The more FLOPS required the more time is required for larger systems.

3.3.1 Thomas algorithm

This algorithm requires nine operations for each row for the forward substitution, and two backwards. This requires 11 FLOPS for each row to solve the system, and the algorithm has a complexity of $\mathcal{O}(N)$.

3.3.2 Gaussian decomposition

The most general algorithm has a complexity of $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$.

3.3.3 LU decomposition

The decomposition into the LU-matrix requires $\mathcal{O}\left(N^{3}\right)$ FLOPS, but has the advantage that backwards substitution just requires $\mathcal{O}\left(N^{2}\right)$ FLOPS to

compute. This decomposition is also highly reusable if (2.8) is to be solved for more than one \mathbf{x} , or the determinant is to be found.

4 Discussion

Can solve the equation (2.8) directly by LU-decomposition. The matrix A is then transformed into one upper triagonal matrix and one lower diagonal matrix. By doing this on a matrix this results in an easier way to solve several Ax = y for different y.

Direct solver by arma::solve(A, y) is used to compare with the LU-method. This is ordinary quicker, since armadillo is a high-level wrapper around lapack etc.

4.1 FLOPS

The standard is $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ complexity

5 Implementation

5.1 Thomas algorithm

The algorithm in section 2.1 is implemented in C++. This requires three arrays to be created, which holds β_i , γ_i and \tilde{f}_i . These arrays are zero-indexed, and the implementation follows this.

5.2 Matrix

The matrix solvers are used from the Armadillo library¹. The solvers implementation is unknown for us, and we will assume it follows $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$. Calling of this function is

$$x = solve(A, \tilde{f}) \tag{5.1}$$

5.3 Sparse matrix

The matrix solution above is very ineffective in both FLOPS and memory usage. This is improved by using sparse matrices, which saves the position

¹http://arma.sourceforge.net/

and the value, and assumes everything else is zero, which saves a lot of space in the memory for our purpose $((N-3)^2$ memory space saved).

6 Concluding remarks

We see that the algorithm developed in section 2.1 is well suited for this problem.