Simple time-stepping

Our previous examples were all stationary problems. However, many practical simulations describe processes that change over time. In this part we want to start looking a bit closer onto time-domain partial differential equations and their efficient implementation.

Finite Difference Approximation for the timederivative

We want to approximate the time derivative $\frac{du}{dt}$. Remember that

$$rac{du}{dt}pprox rac{u(x+h)-u(x)}{h}$$

for sufficiently small h.

There are three standard approximations for the time-derivative:

• The forward difference:

$$rac{du}{dt}pproxrac{u(x+h)-u(x)}{h}.$$

• The backward difference:

$$\frac{du}{dt} pprox \frac{u(x) - u(x-h)}{h}$$
.

• The centered difference:

$$rac{du}{dt}pproxrac{u(x+h)-u(x-h)}{2h}.$$

To understand the error of these schemes we can use Tayler expansions to obtain

$$rac{u(x+h)-u(x)}{h}=u'(x)+rac{1}{2}hu''(x)+\ldots$$

$$rac{u(x)-u(x-h)}{h}=u'(x)-rac{1}{2}hu''(x)+\ldots$$

$$rac{u(x+h)-u(x-h)}{2h} = u'(x) + rac{1}{6}h^2u'''(x) + \dots$$

Hence, the error of the first two schemes decreases linearly with h and the error in the centred scheme decreases quadratically with h.

The 3-point stencil for the second derivative

For simplicity we denote $u_i:=u(x), u_{i+1}:=u(x+h), u_{i-1}:=u(x-h)$. We want to approximate

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{du}{dx} \right].$$

The trick is to use an approximation around half-steps for the outer derivative, resulting in

$$rac{d}{dx}iggl[rac{du}{dx}iggr]pproxrac{1}{h}iggl[u'_{i+rac{1}{2}}-u'_{i-rac{1}{2}}iggr]\,.$$

The derivatives at the half-steps are now again approximated by centered differences, resulting in

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$$egin{split} rac{d}{dx}iggl[rac{du}{dx}iggr] &pprox rac{1}{h}iggl[rac{u_{i+1}-u_i}{h}-rac{u_i-u_{i-1}}{h}iggr] \ &=rac{u_{i+1}-2u_i-u_{i-1}}{h^2} \ &=u''(x)+\mathcal{O}(h^2) \end{split}$$

This is the famous second order finite difference operator that we have already used before. Its error is quadratically small in h.

Application to time-dependent problems

We now want to solve

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = f(U, t)$$

$$U(0) = U_0,$$

where $U(t): \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is some vector valued function.

The idea is replace $\frac{dU}{dt}$ by a finite difference approximation.

• Forward Euler Method

$$rac{U_{n+1}-U_n}{\Delta t}=f(U_n,t_n)$$

Backward Euler Method

$$rac{U_{n+1}-U_n}{\Delta t}=f(U_{n+1},t_{n+1})$$

The forward Euler method is an explicit method. We have that

$$U_{n+1} = U_n + \Delta t f(U_n, t_n).$$

and the right-hand side only has known values.

In contrast to this is the backward Euler Method, which is an implicit method since

$$U_{n+1} = U_n + \Delta t f(U_{n+1}, t_{n+1}).$$

We hence need to solve a linear or nonlinear system of equations to compute U_{n+1} .

Stability of forward Euler

We consider the model problem

$$u' = \alpha u$$

for $\alpha<0$. Note that the explicit solution of this problem is $u(t)=u_0e^{\alpha t}$. For $t\to\infty$ we have $u(t)\to0$ if $\alpha<0$

The forward Euler method can now be written as

$$U_{n+1} = (1 + \alpha \Delta t)U_n$$

= $(1 + \alpha \Delta t)^n U_0$.

Hence, in order for the solution to decay we need that $|1+lpha\Delta t|<1$ or equivalently

$$-1 < 1 + \alpha \Delta t < 1,$$

from which we obtain $|lpha\Delta t|<2$ (if lpha negative). Now consider the problem $\$rac{dU}{dt}=AU\$$

with $A\in\mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$ diagonalizable. For any eigenpair (λ,\hat{U}) of A satisfying $A\hat{U}=\lambda\hat{U}$ the function $U(t)=e^{\lambda t}\hat{U}$ is a solution for this problem. Therefore, for forward Euler to converge we require that

$$\Delta t < rac{2}{|\lambda_{max}(A)|},$$

where λ_{max} is the largest eigenvalue by magnitude.

As example let us take a look at the problem $\$\frac{\partial u(x,t)}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 u(x,t)}{\partial x^2} with u(x,0) = u_0(x), u(0,t) = u(1,t) = 0\$$. We can discretise the right-hand side using our usual second order finite dfference scheme. For the left-hand side, we use the forward Euler method. This gives us the recurrence equation

$$U_{n+1} = U_n + \Delta t A U_n$$

with
$$A=rac{1}{h^2}\mathrm{tridiag}(1,-2,1).$$

The eigenvalues of A are given explicitly as

$$\lambda_k = -rac{1}{h^2} 4 \sin^2rac{k\pi}{2(n+1)}$$

We therefore have that $|\lambda_{max}| \sim rac{4}{h^2}$. Hence, for forward Euler to be stable we require that

$$rac{\Delta t}{h^2}\lesssim rac{1}{2}.$$

Hence, we need that $\Delta t \sim h^2$, meaning that the number of required time steps grows qudratically with the discretisation accuracy.

Stability of backward Euler

For backward Euler we obtain

$$egin{aligned} U_{n+1} &= (1 - lpha \Delta t)^{-1} U_n \ &= (1 - lpha \Delta t)^{-n} U_0. \end{aligned}$$

We now require that $|(1-\alpha\Delta t)^{-1}|<1$. But for $\alpha>0$ this is always true. Hence, the backward Euler method is unconditionally stable.

Implicit vs explicit methods

This analysis is very typical. In computational sciences we always have to make a choice between implicit and explicit methods. The advantage of implicit methods are the very good stability properties, allowing us for the backward Euler method to choose the time-discretisation independent of the spatial discretisation. For explicit methods we have to be much more careful and in the case of Euler we have the quadratic dependency between time-steps and spatial discretisation. However, a single time-step is much cheaper for explicit Euler as we do not need to solve a linear or nonlinear system of equations in each step. The right choice of solver depends on a huge number of factors and is very application dependent.

Time-Stepping Methods in Software

In practice we do not necesarily use explicit or implicit Euler. There are many better methods out there. The Scipy library provides a number of time-stepping algorithms. For PDE problems PETSc has an excellent infrastructure of time-stepping methods built in to support the solution of time-dependent PDEs.

By Timo Betcke

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