

Project 5 - Partial Differential Equation

Solveig Andrea Devold Fjeld and Sarah Rastad

December 29, 2016

Abstract

1 Introduction

MEG FØR DU SKRIVER VIKTIG! RING MEG FØR DU SKRIVER VIKTIG!
RING MEG FØR DU SKRIVER VIKTIG! RING MEG FØR DU SKRIVER
VIKTIG! RING MEG FØR DU SKRIVER VIKTIG! RING MEG FØR DU
SKRIVER VIKTIG! RING MEG FØR DU SKRIVER VIKTIG! RING MEG
FØR DU SKRIVER VIKTIG!

SKAL EN TUR TIL PSYKOLOGEN SÅ SKAL JEG SKRIVE _____
 !!!

2 Theory

LEGG TIL TEORI PÅ 3D PDE OG BRUK LABEL eq:partDIFF3D VET IKKE HVOR JEG SKAL SETTE LIGNINGEN

$$u_{xx} \approx \frac{u(x_i + \Delta x, t_j) - 2u(x_i, t_j) + u(x_i - \Delta x, t_j)}{\Delta x^2}. \quad (1)$$

2.1 Equation

In this project we are solving the partial differential equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial t}, t > 0, x \in [0, 1] \quad (2)$$

We have the initial condition:

$$u(x, 0) = 0 \quad (3)$$

And boundary conditions when $t > 0$:

$$u(0, t) = 0, u(L, t) = 1 \quad (4)$$

Here $L = 1$.

The steady state solution can be found easily by solving the laplace equation wich are the harmonic solution. So we have to write our problem on a form that is easier to solve. So we introduce:

$$w(x, t) = u(x, t) - v(x) \quad (5)$$

Where $v(x)$ is the steady state solution.

So this gives us:

$$w(0, t) = 0 - 0 = 0 \quad (6)$$

$$w(L, t) = u(L, t) - v(L) = 1 - 1 = 0 \quad (7)$$

$$w(x, 0) = u(x, 0) - v(x) = 0 - x = -x \quad (8)$$

So then we can solve the equation:

$$w_{xx} = w_t \quad (9)$$

This partial differential equation can be seen as the temperature gradient in a rod of length L . This equation can be seen as being dimensionless since there are no constant multiplied to the equation and x goes from zero to one.

To solve this equation we are looking for a solution by separating the variables:

$$w(x, t) = X(x)T(t) \quad (10)$$

If we take the partial derivatives of this expression we get:

$$w_{xx} = X''(x)T(t), \text{ and } w_t = X(x)T'(t) \quad (11)$$

So if we set put this in the equation (9) we get:

$$\frac{T'(t)}{T(t)} = \frac{X''(x)}{X(x)} = \text{constant} = -\lambda \quad (12)$$

We see that this must be equal to a constant and we see that this is an eigenvalue problem. We put a minus sign in front of the eigenvalue because of convention.

This gives us the equations:

$$w(0, t) = X(0)T(t) = 0, w(1, t) = X(1)T(t) = 0 \quad (13)$$

If we let $T(t) = 0$ we get the trivial solution, which we are not interested in.

In two dimensions we only look for at the steady state solution with the boundary conditions: In two dimensions the same initial conditions require

$$u(0, 0, t) = X(0)Y(0)T(t) = 0, u(1, 0, t) = X(1)Y(0)T(t) = 0, u(0, 1, t) = X(0)Y(1)T(t) = 0, u(1, 1, t) = X(1)Y(1)T(t) = 0 \quad (14)$$

2.2 Algorithms

For solving PDE's we have two different kinds of algorithms: we have explicit and implicit. An example of an explicit algorithm is Forward Euler. What defines an explicit algorithm is that it takes basis in the forward timestep when differentiating and is therefore straightforward to program. While the implicit scheme we calculate the differential by using the previous timestep so it becomes a series of matrix equations which can be solved using for example Gaussian elimination or LU-decomposition. Examples of implicit schemes are backward Euler and Crank-Nicolson.

2.2.1 Forward Euler

In forward euler we are approximating the time derivative by:

$$u_t \approx \frac{u(x, t + \Delta t) - u(x, t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{u(x_i, t_j + \Delta t) - u(x_i, t_j)}{\Delta t} \quad (15)$$

This is an explicit scheme because it finds the current time step by looking at the (LES MER PÅ FORSKJELLEN AV IMPLICIT OG EXPLICIT)

We are also using a centered difference in space with the approximation as you can see in equation (1). So setting these to equations equal to each other gives:

$$\frac{u_{i,j+1} - u_{i,j}}{\Delta t} = \frac{u_{i+1,j} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i-1,j}}{\Delta x^2} \quad (16)$$

$$\Rightarrow u_{i,j+1} = \alpha u_{i-1,j} + (1 - 2\alpha)u_{i,j} + \alpha u_{i+1,j} \quad (17)$$

And this is the form we choose for solving this. By looking at this equation we also see that stability requires (eq. (18))

$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x^2} < 0.5 \quad (18)$$

Else the second term vanishes, and our solution for the new time step is wrong.

We can implement this as a algorithm just by looping over the timesteps, for so to loop over the x values where $x \in [0, 1]$.

2.2.2 Backward Euler

This is an implicit scheme where we approximating the time derivative by:

$$u_t \approx \frac{u(x, t) - u(x, t - \Delta t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{u(x_i, t_j) - u(x_i, t_j - \Delta t)}{\Delta t} \quad (19)$$

And by setting $u_t = u_x x$ we get the equation:

$$u_{i,j-1} = \alpha u_{i-1,j} + (1 - 2\alpha)u_{i,j} - \alpha u_{i+1,j} \quad (20)$$

We then introduce the matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1+2\alpha & -\alpha & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ -\alpha & 1+2\alpha & -\alpha & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & -\alpha & 1+2\alpha & -\alpha & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & & 1+2\alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

Then we see that we can formulate this as a matrix multiplication problem:

$$\hat{A}V_j = V_{j-1} \quad (21)$$

Which means we can rewrite our differential equation problem to:

$$V_j = \hat{A}^{-1}V_{j-1} = \hat{A}^{-1}(\hat{A}^{-1}V_{j-2}) = \dots = \hat{A}^{-j}V_0 \quad (22)$$

To solve this matrix equation we utilize the Gaussian elimination for tridiagonal matrixes which we solved in project 1.

2.2.3 Crank Nicolson

In Crank-Nicolson we use a time centered scheme where

$$u(x_i, t_{j+1/2}) \approx \quad (23)$$

This gives us the equation :

$$\frac{u_{i,j+1} - u_{i,j}}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{u_{i+1,j+1} - 2u_{i,j+1} + u_{i-1,j+1}}{(\Delta x)^2} + \frac{u_{i+1,j} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i-1,j}}{(\Delta x)^2} \right) \quad (24)$$

This we can write as:

$$-\alpha u_{i+1,j+1} + (1+2\alpha)u_{i,j+1} - \alpha u_{i-1,j+1} = \alpha u_{i+1,j} + (1-2\alpha)u_{i,j} + \alpha u_{i-1,j} \quad (25)$$

This we can write as an matrix equation:

$$\hat{A}V_{j+1} = \hat{B}V_j \quad (26)$$

Dette kan vi skrive som :

$$\hat{A}V_{j+1} = b_j \quad (27)$$

Where we find V_{j+1} by using forward euler and then solve the matrix equation as in backward euler by using Gaussian elimination.

2.3 Jakobi

For an explicit solution to the 2-dimensional problem, $U_x x$ and $U_y y$ are given by eq(17). Combining this results in the Jakobi-algorithm (eq.SETT INN)

$$u(i, j, t+dt) = u(i, j, t) + \alpha * (u(i+1, j, t) + u(i-1, j, t) - 4 * u(i, j, t) + u(i, j+1, t) + u(i, j-1, t)); \quad (28)$$

3 Execution

3.0.1 Forward Euler

For the forward Euler algorithm we start by solving $U(x,0)$, hereby referenced as U_0 , and define α as given by eq(17) with $dx=0.1$ and $dt=dx*dx*0.25$, as dictated by the restrictions for the explicit scheme (eq(18)). We then call the forward step method (see below) for a given number of timesteps, each run increasing the total time T by dt .

```
vec forward_step(double n, double alpha, vec u, vec unew) {
    for (int i=1; i<n; i++) {
        unew(i) = alpha*u(i-1) + (1-2*alpha) * u(i) + alpha*u(i+1);
    }
    return unew;
}
```

3.0.2 Backward Euler

In the implicit Backward Euler scheme we use Gaussian elimination to advance in space and time, implemented in code below. Here, as eq (20) shows, b -value is defined as $1+2\alpha$, and $a=c=-\alpha$, v being the solution given at a previous timestep, with the same initial condition as for the forward Euler scheme. We run the Gaussian elimination for each timestep dt until $T(i) = \text{final } T$.

Forward Substitution

```
double m;
for (int k=2; k<=n; k++) {
    m = a/b(k-1);
    b(k) = b_value - m*c;
    v(k) -= m*v(k-1);
}
```

Backward Substitution

```
u(n)= v(n)/b(n);
for (int k= n-1; k>0; k--) {
    u(k) = (1.0/b(k))*(v(k) - c*u(k+1));
}

u(0) = 0;
u(n) = 0;
```

3.0.3 Crank-Nicolson

Crank-Nicolson, being a combination of the explicit and implicit schemes, first runs forward step and then uses this updated solution v in the gaussian elimination for each timestep $T(i)$.

3.1 Jacobi

Implementing the jacobi-algorithm is quite straight forward using the

```
void jakobi_solver (double dx, double dt) {
    double n = 1.0/dx;
    double t_steps = 1000;
    mat A_old = zeros<mat>(n+1,n+1);
    for (int i=1;i<n;i++) {
        for (int j=1;j<n;j++) {
            A_old(i,j) = func(dx,i,j);
        }
    }

    double alpha = dt/(dx*dx);
    mat A_new = zeros<mat>(n+1,n+1);
    for (int t=1;t<=t_steps;t++) {
        for (int i=1;i<n;i++) {
            for (int j=1;j<n;j++) {
                A_new(i,j) = A_old(i,j) + alpha*(A_old(i+1,j)
```

```

        + A_old(i-1,j) - 4*A_old(i,j) + A_old(i,j+1) + A_old(i,j-1));
    }
}
A_old = A_new;
if((t%100==0)||(t==1)) {
    double time = t*dt;
    printtofile(time, A_new,n);
}
}
}

```

4 Results

4.1 Closed form solutions

4.1.1 Solution to the 1D heat equation

To solve the equation (2) we need to look for seperable solutions on the form:

$$w(x, t) = X(x)T(t) \quad (29)$$

If we set this in in the equation (2) we get:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(X(x)T(t)) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}(X(x)T(t)) \quad (30)$$

To simplify the notation we write:

$$T'(t)X(x) = T(t)X''(x) \quad (31)$$

Which we can write:

$$\frac{T'(t)}{T(t)} = \frac{X''(x)}{X(x)} \quad (32)$$

We see that each side depends on a different variable R.H.S depends on x and L.H.S depends on t , so therefor this mus be equal to a constant. This is because if we change one and keep the other fixed the value must be the same. This constant we set to $-\lambda$ by convention so the equations to solve becomes:

$$X''(x) + \lambda X(x) = 0 \quad (33)$$

$$T'(t) + \lambda T(t) = 0 \quad (34)$$

With the boundary conditions:

$$w(0, t) = X(0)T(t) = 0 \quad (35)$$

$$w(1, t) = X(1)T(t) = 0 \quad (36)$$

From these boundary conditions we see that it must be $X(0) = X(1) = 0$ because if $T(t) = 0$ we would only get the triviall solutions which we are not interested in.

So we solve the $X(x)$ equation first.

This is a equation which we have solved nmany times before. First we have the case $\lambda < 0$ which gives the solution:

$$X(x) = Ae^{\sqrt{k}x} + Be^{-\sqrt{k}x}, \lambda = -k \quad (37)$$

if we set in the boundary conditions we get that $X(0) = A + B$ and then $X(1) = Ae^{\sqrt{k}} - Ae^{-\sqrt{k}} = A(e^{2\sqrt{k}} - 1)$ and since k must be positive this gives that $A = B = 0$ which is the trivial solution which we are not interested in.

When $\lambda = 0$ this gives $A = B = 0$ which also is the trivial solutions.

The last possibility is the harmonic equation which is:

$$X(x) = A\cos(\sqrt{\lambda}x) + B\sin(\sqrt{\lambda}x) \quad (38)$$

And with our boundary conditions it gives $X(0) = A = 0$ and $X(1) = B\sin(\sqrt{\lambda}) = 0$ This means that $\sin = 0$ This gives us the eigenvalue $\lambda = (n\pi)^2$ for any positive integer. This gives the solution:

$$X(x) = b_n \sin(n\pi x) \quad (39)$$

The solution for $T(t)$ is then given by:

$$T'(t) = -n^2 * \pi^2 T(t) \quad (40)$$

Which is well known as

$$T(t) = c_n e^{-(n\pi)^2 t} \quad (41)$$

So the the solution becomes:

$$w(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n * \sin(n * \pi x) e^{-(n^2 \pi^2 t)} \quad (42)$$

With the initial condition

$$w(x, 0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n * \sin(n * \pi x) \quad (43)$$

multiply with $\sin(m\pi x)$ on both sides and use the orthogonality of $\sin(m\pi x)$ and $\sin(n\pi x)$

And this gives:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \int_0^1 \sin(n\pi x) \sin(m\pi x) dx = \frac{1}{2} b_n = - \int_0^1 \sin(m\pi x) x dx \quad (44)$$

This gives the integral

$$b_n = -2 \int_0^1 x \sin(m\pi x) \quad (45)$$

solving this by using partial integration and writing it to an easier form:

$$b_n = (-1)^m \left(-\frac{1}{m\pi} \right), m = 1, 2, \dots \quad (46)$$

Setting this into the steady state solution

So setting this into the whole solution from equation (5) we get:

$$u(x, t) = v(x) + w(x, t) = x + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left(\frac{2}{n\pi} \right) \sin(n\pi x) e^{-(n\pi)^2 t} \quad (47)$$

4.2 3D- Heat equation

4.2.1 Analytical Solution

Here we have the equation (??) which we solve as the 2D equation by separable solutions:

$$u(x, y, t) = X(x)Y(y)T(t) \quad (48)$$

With the boundary conditions $u(0, y, t) = u(1, y, t) = 0$ and $u(x, 0, t) = u(x, 1, t) = 0$ So when we set this in the equation we get:

$$\frac{X''(x)}{X(x)} + \frac{Y''(y)}{Y(y)} = \frac{T'(t)}{T(t)} \quad (49)$$

So by the same logic as for 2D this becomes:

$$\frac{X''(x)}{X(x)} + \frac{Y''(y)}{Y(y)} = -\lambda \quad (50)$$

If we first keep y constant and varies x we get the equation:

$$X''(x) + \left(\lambda + \frac{Y''(y)}{Y(y)} \right) X(x) = 0 \Rightarrow X''(x) + (\lambda + \mu) X(x) = 0 \quad (51)$$

And this we can solve as we did in 2D the same for when we keep x constant:

$$Y''(y) + (\lambda + \mu) Y(y) = 0 \quad (52)$$

These two equations becomes:

$$X(x) = b_n \sin(n\pi x) \quad (53)$$

$$Y(y) = c_m \sin(m\pi y) \quad (54)$$

And the time equation then becomes:

$$T(t) = d_{n,m} e^{-(m^2 \pi^2 + n^2 \pi^2) t} \quad (55)$$

So the equation becomes with $m = n = 1$ and $b_n c_n d_{n,m} = 1$

$$u(x, y, t) = \sin(\pi x) \sin(\pi y) e^{-2\pi^2 t} \quad (56)$$

4.2.2 Error Analysis

To calculate the error we use Taylor expansion which are defined:

$$u_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(b)}{n!} \quad (57)$$

So to calculate the error in the forward difference for $u'(t)$ we make a Taylor expansion around t_n :

$$u(t_{n+1}) = u(t_n) + u'(t_n)\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}u''(t_n)\Delta t^2 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^3) \quad (58)$$

This gives the error:

$$R = \frac{1}{2}u''(t_n)\Delta t + \mathcal{O}\Delta t^2 \quad (59)$$

This means that the forward Euler has an error in time in the first order. For backwards Euler we Taylor expand $u(t_{n-1})$ and get:

$$R = \frac{1}{2}u''(t_n)\Delta t + \mathcal{O}\Delta t^2 \quad (60)$$

So the same as in the Forward Euler scheme

In Crank-Nicolson we use a time centered scheme so we have to Taylor expand $u_{n+1/2}$ and $u_{n-1/2}$ and combine these.

$$u(t_{n+1/2}) = u(t_n) + \frac{1}{2}u'(t_n)\Delta t + \frac{1}{4}u''(t_n)\Delta t^2 + \frac{1}{12}u'''(t_n)\Delta t^3 + \frac{1}{48}u^{(4)}(t_n)\Delta t^4 + \frac{1}{240}u^{(5)}(t_n)\Delta t^5 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^6) \quad (61)$$

and

$$u(t_{n-1/2}) = u(t_n) - \frac{1}{2}u'(t_n)\Delta t + \frac{1}{4}u''(t_n)\Delta t^2 - \frac{1}{12}u'''(t_n)\Delta t^3 + \frac{1}{48}u^{(4)}(t_n)\Delta t^4 - \frac{1}{240}u^{(5)}(t_n)\Delta t^5 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^6) \quad (62)$$

If we subtract the last from the first we get the error:

$$R = \frac{1}{24}u'''(t_{n+1/2})\Delta t^2 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^4) \quad (63)$$

But to get the full error we have to take in consideration the standard arithmetic mean which is:

$$\frac{1}{2}(u(t_{n+1/2}) + u(t_{n-1/2})) \quad (64)$$

This have the error term:

$$R = \frac{1}{8}u''(t_{n+1/2})\Delta + \frac{1}{384}u''''(t_n)\Delta t^4 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^6) \quad (65)$$

If we add these to we get the total error in the time as:

$$R = (\frac{1}{24}u'''(t_{n+1/2}) + \frac{1}{8}u''(t_n))\Delta t^2 + \mathcal{O}\Delta t^4 \quad (66)$$

So the error in the Crank-Nicolson scheme is Δt^2

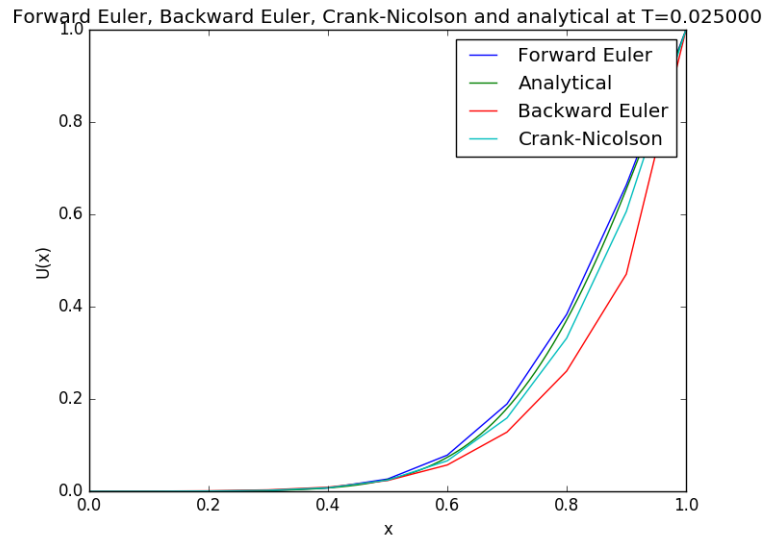


Figure 1: The three schemes with the analytical solution for when $T = 0.025$ and $dt = 0.0025$

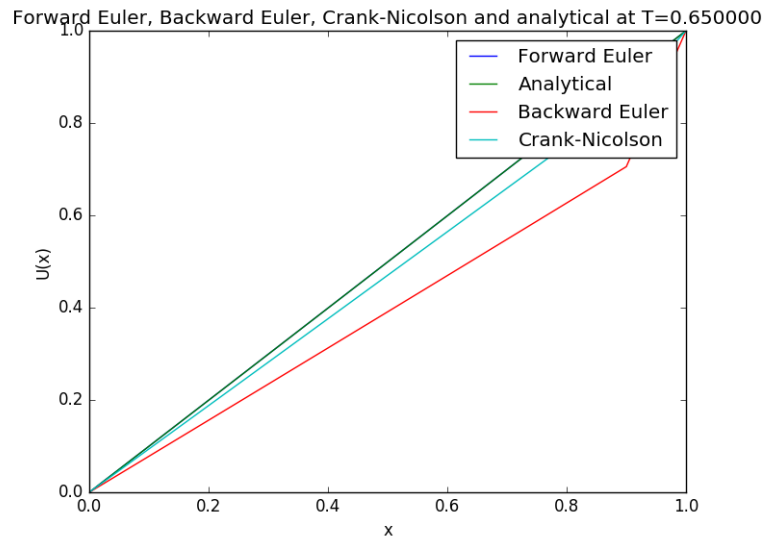


Figure 2: The three schemes with the analytical solution for when $T = 0.025$ and $dt = 0.65$

And the error in spatial differential for all three is equal to by using Taylor expansion:

$$R_x = \frac{1}{12}u''''(x_n)\Delta x^2 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta x^4) \quad (67)$$

So the error on the x is of the second order.

In figure (2) and (3) we see the numerical calculations against the analytical for two times $t_1 = 0.025$ and $t_2 = 0.65$. And in table (1) we see the relative error at the different time points. Where the relative error is calculated with the max value and $\epsilon = |1 - u_{num}/u_{analytical}|$.

4.3 2D PDE

5 Discussion

5.1 2D

We see in figure (2) that all the solutions are very correct which is not strange since it has only calculated around 10 timesteps. But in figure (3) we see that the one that is most correct is Forward Euler, followed by Crank Nicolson and lastly Backward Euler. You can see the relative errors in the table (1), for these plots we have used as stated before the timestep: $\Delta t = 0.0025$. So the truncation error in Forward and Backward Euler is both $\epsilon = 0.0025$ and in Crank Nicolson it is $\epsilon = 6.25 * 10^{-6}$. Since the truncation error is the error committed by one step of the method, and it assumes the earlier step is the exact solution it will be an accumulated error. But in our plot (figure (3)) we see that the Forward Euler method is incredibly correct. This is because of the initial values are

6 Conclusion