

# Chapter 10

## Parabolic Problems

### 10.1 Parabolic equations

**Definition 10.1.** A second-order, constant-coefficient, linear partial differential equation (PDE) of the form

$$Au_{xx} + Bu_{xy} + Cu_{yy} + Du_x + Eu_y + F = 0 \quad (10.1)$$

is called a *parabolic PDE* if its coefficients satisfy

$$B^2 - 4AC = 0. \quad (10.2)$$

**Definition 10.2.** The *one-dimensional heat equation* is a parabolic PDE of the form

$$u_t = \nu u_{xx} \text{ in } \Omega := (0, 1) \times (0, T), \quad (10.3)$$

where  $x \in (0, 1)$  is the spatial location,  $t \in (0, T)$  the time and  $\nu > 0$  the dynamic viscosity; the equation has to be supplemented with an *initial condition*

$$u(x, 0) = \eta(x), \text{ on } (0, 1) \times \{0\} \quad (10.4)$$

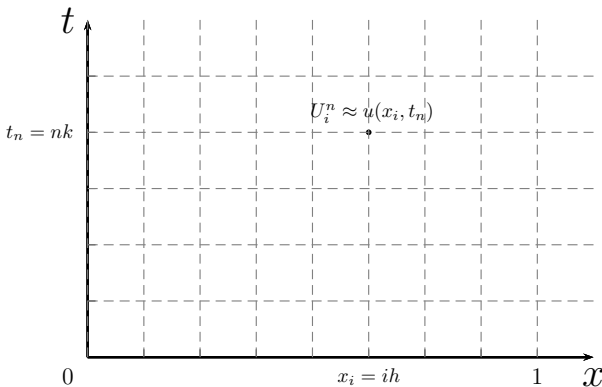
and appropriate boundary conditions at  $\{0, 1\} \times (0, T)$ .

### 10.2 Method of lines (MOL)

**Notation 11.** The space-time domain of the PDE (10.3) can be discretized by the rectangular grids

$$x_i = ih, \quad t_n = nk, \quad (10.5)$$

$h = \frac{1}{m+1}$  is the uniform mesh spacing and  $k = \Delta t$  is the uniform time-step size. The unknowns  $U_i^n$  are located at nodes  $(x_i, t_n)$ .



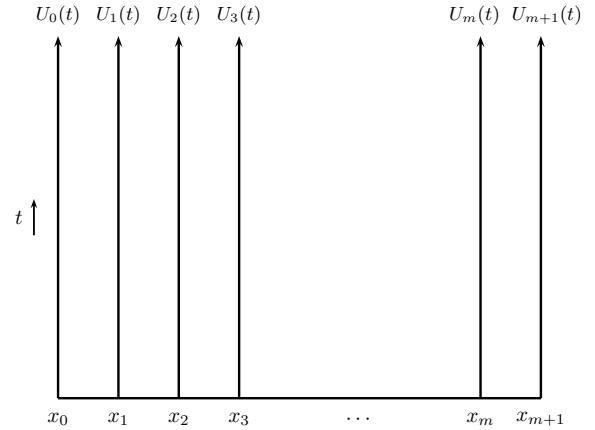
**Definition 10.3.** The *method of lines* (MOL) is a technique for solving PDEs via

- (a) discretizing the spatial derivatives while leaving the time variable continuous;
- (b) solving the resulting ODEs with a numerical method designed for IVPs.

**Example 10.4.** Discretize the heat equation (10.3) in space at grid point  $x_i$  by

$$U_i'(t) = \frac{\nu}{h^2} (U_{i-1}(t) - 2U_i(t) + U_{i+1}(t)), \quad (10.6)$$

where  $U_i(t) \approx u(x_i, t)$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .



For Dirichlet conditions

$$\begin{cases} u(0, t) = g_0(t), & \text{on } \{0\} \times (0, T); \\ u(1, t) = g_1(t), & \text{on } \{1\} \times (0, T), \end{cases} \quad (10.7)$$

this semi-discrete system (10.6) can be written as

$$\mathbf{U}'(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{U}(t) + \mathbf{g}(t), \quad (10.8)$$

where

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{\nu}{h^2} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & +1 & & & \\ +1 & -2 & +1 & & \\ & +1 & -2 & +1 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & +1 & -2 & +1 \\ & & & & +1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (10.9)$$

$$\mathbf{U}(t) := \begin{bmatrix} U_1(t) \\ U_2(t) \\ U_3(t) \\ \vdots \\ U_{m-1}(t) \\ U_m(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad g(t) = \frac{\nu}{h^2} \begin{bmatrix} g_0(t) \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ g_1(t) \end{bmatrix}. \quad (10.10)$$

**Definition 10.5.** The *FTCS (forward in time, centered in space) method* solves the heat equation (10.3) by

$$\frac{U_i^{n+1} - U_i^n}{k} = \frac{\nu}{h^2} (U_{i-1}^n - 2U_i^n + U_{i+1}^n), \quad (10.11)$$

or, equivalently

$$U_i^{n+1} = U_i^n + 2r(U_{i-1}^n - 2U_i^n + U_{i+1}^n), \quad (10.12)$$

where  $r := \frac{k\nu}{2h^2}$ .

**Example 10.6.** For homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions, the FTCS method can be written as

$$\mathbf{U}^{n+1} = (I + kA)\mathbf{U}^n, \quad (10.13)$$

where  $A$  is the matrix in (10.9) and

$$\mathbf{U}^n := \begin{bmatrix} U_1^n \\ U_2^n \\ \vdots \\ U_m^n \end{bmatrix}. \quad (10.14)$$

**Definition 10.7.** The *Crank-Nicolson method* solves the heat equation (10.3) by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{U_i^{n+1} - U_i^n}{k} &= \frac{1}{2} \left( f(U^n, t_n) + f(U^{n+1}, t_{n+1}) \right) \\ &= \frac{\nu}{2h^2} (U_{i-1}^n - 2U_i^n + U_{i+1}^n + U_{i-1}^{n+1} - 2U_i^{n+1} + U_{i+1}^{n+1}), \end{aligned} \quad (10.15)$$

or, equivalently

$$\begin{aligned} &-rU_{i-1}^{n+1} + (1 + 2r)U_i^{n+1} - rU_{i+1}^{n+1} \\ &= rU_{i-1}^n + (1 - 2r)U_i^n + rU_{i+1}^n. \end{aligned} \quad (10.16)$$

**Exercise 10.8.** Show that the matrix form of the Crank-Nicolson method for solving the heat equation (10.3) with Dirichlet conditions is

$$\left( I - \frac{k}{2}A \right) \mathbf{U}^{n+1} = \left( I + \frac{k}{2}A \right) \mathbf{U}^n + \mathbf{b}^n, \quad (10.17)$$

where  $r = \frac{k\nu}{2h^2}$  and

$$\mathbf{b}^n = r \begin{bmatrix} g_0(t_n) + g_0(t_{n+1}) \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ g_1(t_n) + g_1(t_{n+1}) \end{bmatrix}.$$

## 10.3 Accuracy and Consistency

**Definition 10.9.** The *local truncation error (LTE)* of an MOL for solving a PDE is the error caused by replacing continuous derivatives with finite difference formulas.

**Example 10.10.** The LTE of the FTCS method in Definition 10.5 is

$$\begin{aligned} \tau(x, t) &= \frac{u(x, t+k) - u(x, t)}{k} \\ &\quad - \frac{\nu}{h^2} \left( u(x-h, t) - 2u(x, t) + u(x+h, t) \right) \\ &= \left( u_t + \frac{1}{2}ku_{tt} + \frac{1}{6}k^2u_{ttt} + \cdots \right) \\ &\quad - \nu \left( u_{xx} + \frac{1}{12}h^2u_{xxxx} + \cdots \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{2}k - \frac{\nu}{12}h^2 \right) u_{xxx} + O(k^2 + h^4), \end{aligned}$$

where the first step follows from the Definition 10.9, the second from Taylor expansions and the last from  $u_t = \nu u_{xx}$  and  $u_{tt} = \nu u_{xxt} = \nu u_{txx} = \nu u_{xxx}$ . Due to  $\tau(x, t) = O(k + h^2)$ , this method is said to be second order accurate in space and first order accurate in time.

**Exercise 10.11.** Show that the Crank-Nicolson method in Definition 10.7 is second order accurate in both space and time by calculating the LTE as

$$\tau(x, t) = O(k^2 + h^2).$$

**Definition 10.12.** An MOL is said to be *consistent* if

$$\lim_{k, h \rightarrow 0} \tau(x, t) = 0. \quad (10.18)$$

**Definition 10.13.** The *solution error* of an MOL is

$$E_i^n = U_i^n - u(x_i, t_n), \quad (10.19)$$

where  $u(x_i, t_n)$  is the exact solution of the PDE at the grid point  $(x_i, t_n)$ .

## 10.4 Stability

**Lemma 10.14.** The eigenvalues  $\lambda_p$  and eigenvectors  $\mathbf{w}^p$  of  $A$  in (10.9) are

$$\lambda_p = -\frac{4\nu}{h^2} \sin^2 \left( \frac{p\pi h}{2} \right), \quad (10.20)$$

$$\mathbf{w}_j^p = \sin(p\pi jh), \quad (10.21)$$

where  $p, j = 1, 2, \dots, m$  and  $h = \frac{1}{m+1}$ .

**Example 10.15.** For the FTCS method (10.11) to be absolutely stable, we must have  $|1 + k\lambda| \leq 1$  for each eigenvalue in (10.20), which implies  $-2 \leq -4\nu k/h^2 \leq 0$  and thus limits the time-step size to

$$k \leq \frac{h^2}{2\nu}. \quad (10.22)$$

**Definition 10.16.** An MOL is said to be *unconditionally stable* for a PDE if in solving the semi-discrete system of the PDE its ODE solver is absolutely stable for any  $k > 0$ .

**Lemma 10.17.** Suppose the ODE solver of the MOL is  $A(\alpha)$ -stable for the semi-discrete system that results from spatially discretizing the heat equation. Then the MOL is unconditionally stable for the heat equation.

**Corollary 10.18.** The Crank-Nicolson method (10.16) is unconditionally stable for the heat equation.

**Definition 10.19.** A linear MOL of the form

$$\mathbf{U}^{n+1} = B(k)\mathbf{U}^n + b^n(k). \quad (10.23)$$

is *Lax-Richtmyer stable* if

$$\forall T > 0, \exists C_T > 0, \forall k > 0, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \text{ satisfying } nk \leq T, \\ \|B(k)^n\| \leq C_T. \quad (10.24)$$

**Definition 10.20.** A linear MOL (10.23) is said to have *strong stability* if

$$\|B\|_2 \leq 1. \quad (10.25)$$

**Corollary 10.21.** The Crank-Nicolson method has strong stability with

$$B = \left(I - \frac{k}{2}A\right)^{-1} \left(I + \frac{k}{2}A\right). \quad (10.26)$$

## 10.5 Convergence

**Theorem 10.22** (Lax Equivalence Theorem). A consistent linear MOL (10.23) is convergent if and only if it is Lax-Richtmyer stable.

**Corollary 10.23.** The Crank-Nicolson method is convergent for any  $k > 0$ .

**Example 10.24.** For the FTCS method, (10.13) implies

$$B = I + kA \quad (10.27)$$

and thus the convergence depends on

$$\rho(B) \leq 1 + O(k),$$

which is a form of Lax-Richtmyer stability.

**Exercise 10.25.** Prove the necessity part of Theorem 10.22.

## 10.6 Fourier transforms

**Definition 10.26.** The  $L^2$ -norm of a Lebesgue measurable function  $u : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is the nonnegative or infinite real number

$$\|u\| = \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |u(x)|^2 dx \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (10.28)$$

**Notation 12.** The symbol  $L^2$  denotes the set of all functions for which (10.28) is finite:

$$L^2 = \{u : \|u\| < \infty\}. \quad (10.29)$$

Similarly,  $L^1$  and  $L^\infty$  are the sets of functions with finite  $L^1$  and  $L^\infty$ -norms,

$$\|u\|_1 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |u(x)| dx, \\ \|u\|_\infty = \sup_{-\infty < x < +\infty} |u(x)|. \quad (10.30)$$

**Definition 10.27.** The *convolution* of two functions  $u, v$  is the function  $u * v$  given by

$$(u * v)(x) := \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} u(x-y)v(y)dy. \quad (10.31)$$

**Definition 10.28.** The *Fourier transform* of  $v(x) \in L^2$  is

$$\hat{v}(\xi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-i\xi x} v(x) dx, \quad (10.32)$$

where  $\xi$  is called the *wave number*.

**Definition 10.29.** The *inverse Fourier transform* of  $\hat{v}(\xi) \in L^2$  is

$$v(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{i\xi x} \hat{v}(\xi) d\xi. \quad (10.33)$$

**Lemma 10.30** (Parseval's relation). For any  $v(x) \in L^2$ , the function  $\hat{v}(\xi)$  is also in  $L^2$  and it has exactly the same 2-norm as  $v(x)$ ,

$$\|\hat{v}\|_2 = \|v\|_2. \quad (10.34)$$

**Definition 10.31** (Discrete Fourier transform). Let  $V_j$  ( $j = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ ) denotes the values of a continuous function  $v(x)$  at  $x_i = ih$ , the *discrete Fourier transform* is defined by

$$\hat{V}(\xi) = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-ijh\xi} V_j. \quad (10.35)$$

**Definition 10.32.** The *inverse discrete Fourier transform* of  $\hat{V}(\xi)$  is

$$V_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{ijh\xi} \hat{V}(\xi) d\xi. \quad (10.36)$$

**Lemma 10.33.** The Parseval's relation is also valid for discrete Fourier transforms, i.e.,

$$\|V\|_2 = \|\hat{V}\|_2, \quad (10.37)$$

where

$$\|V\|_2 = \left( h \sum_{j=-\infty}^{+\infty} |V_j|^2 \right)^{1/2},$$

and

$$\|\hat{V}\|_2 = \left( \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} |\hat{V}(\xi)|^2 d\xi \right)^{1/2}.$$

## 10.7 Von Neumann analysis

**Theorem 10.34.** The exact solution to the heat equation (10.3) with Dirichlet conditions  $g_0(t) = g_1(t) = 0$  is

$$u(x, t) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \hat{u}_j(t) \sin(\pi j x), \quad (10.38)$$

where

$$\hat{u}_j(t) = \exp(-j^2 \pi^2 \nu t) \hat{u}_j(0), \quad (10.39)$$

and  $\hat{u}_j(0)$  is determined as the Fourier coefficients of the initial data  $\eta(x)$ .

**Example 10.35.** Consider the FTCS method. To apply von Neumann analysis we consider how this method works on a single wave number  $\xi$ , i.e., we set

$$U_j^n = e^{ijh\xi}. \quad (10.40)$$

Then we expect that

$$U_j^{n+1} = g(\xi) U_j^n, \quad (10.41)$$

where  $g(\xi)$  is the amplification factor for this wave number. Inserting these expressions into (10.12) gives

$$g(\xi) U_j^n = \left[ 1 + \frac{\nu k}{h^2} \left( e^{-i\xi h} - 2 + e^{i\xi h} \right) \right] U_j^n,$$

i.e.,

$$g(\xi) = 1 - \frac{4\nu k}{h^2} \sin^2 \left( \frac{\xi h}{2} \right).$$

To guarantee  $|g(\xi)| \leq 1$ , we take

$$1 - \frac{4\nu k}{h^2} \geq -1,$$

which implies (10.22), i.e.  $k \leq \frac{h^2}{2\nu}$ .

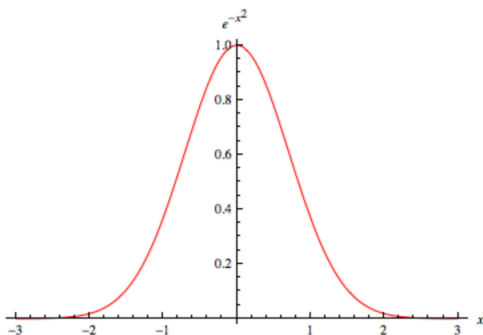
**Exercise 10.36.** For the Crank-Nicolson method, show that the modulus of its amplification factor is never greater than 1 for any choice of  $k, h > 0$ .

## 10.8 Green's function of the heat equation in $(-\infty, +\infty)$

**Definition 10.37.** A Gaussian function, often simply referred to as a *Gaussian*, is a function of the form

$$f(x) = ae^{-\frac{(x-b)^2}{2c^2}}, \quad (10.42)$$

for arbitrary real constants  $a, b$  and non-zero  $c$ .



**Lemma 10.38.**

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} ae^{-\frac{(x-b)^2}{2c^2}} dx = ac\sqrt{2\pi}. \quad (10.43)$$

**Lemma 10.39.** The Fourier transform of a Gaussian is another Gaussian.

**Lemma 10.40.** For any  $u \in L^2$  satisfying

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} u^{(n)}(x) = 0, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, \quad (10.44)$$

we have

$$\widehat{\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}} = -\xi^2 \hat{u}. \quad (10.45)$$

**Theorem 10.41.** The solution to the heat equation

$$u_t = \nu u_{xx} \text{ on } (-\infty, +\infty) \quad (10.46)$$

with the initial condition  $\eta(x) = e^{-\beta x^2}$  is

$$u(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\beta\nu t + 1}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4\nu t + 1/\beta}}. \quad (10.47)$$

**Corollary 10.42.** A translation of the initial condition

$$\eta(x) = e^{-\beta(x-\bar{x})^2} \quad (10.48)$$

of the heat equation (10.46) leads to a translation of the solution, i.e.,

$$u(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\beta\nu t + 1}} e^{-\frac{(x-\bar{x})^2}{4\nu t + 1/\beta}}. \quad (10.49)$$

**Corollary 10.43.** For the heat equation (10.46) with the initial condition as

$$\omega_\beta(x, 0; \bar{x}) = \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{\pi}} e^{-\beta(x-\bar{x})^2}, \quad (10.50)$$

its solution is

$$\omega_\beta(x, t; \bar{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi\nu t + \pi/\beta}} e^{-\frac{(x-\bar{x})^2}{4\nu t + 1/\beta}}. \quad (10.51)$$

**Definition 10.44.** The *Green's function*

$$G(x, t; \bar{x}) := \lim_{\beta \rightarrow +\infty} \omega_\beta(x, t; \bar{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi\nu t}} e^{-\frac{(x-\bar{x})^2}{4\nu t}} \quad (10.52)$$

is the solution of the heat equation (10.46) with its initial condition as the delta function

$$\delta(x - \bar{x}) := \lim_{\beta \rightarrow +\infty} \omega_\beta(x, 0; \bar{x}). \quad (10.53)$$