

PY410 / 505  
Computational Physics 1

**Salvatore Rappoccio**

# Partial Differential Equations

- Start looking at PDE's
  - [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Partial\\_differential\\_equation](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Partial_differential_equation)
- Just like ODE's, only harder! (Kidding)
- You should be familiar with the mathematics of PDE's
  - Poisson equation
  - Diffusion equation
  - Wave equation
- The general strategy is to look at finite derivatives (just like we did in ODE's), but now we have to look in multiple dimensions at once!

# Partial Differential Equations

- First example : Elliptic PDEs
- Given an electric charge distribution  $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ , Poisson's equation is :

$$\nabla^2 V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial z^2} = -\frac{\rho(\mathbf{r})}{\epsilon_0}$$

- This determines the potential  $V(\mathbf{r})$  at each point  $\mathbf{r}$ , provided boundary values are specified
  - Dirichlet :  $V(\mathbf{r})$  specified on boundary
  - Neumann : normal component  $\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \nabla V$  specified on boundary
    - For electrostatics, this specifies normal component of E-field in a conductor
  - Periodic :  $V(\mathbf{r}) = V(\mathbf{r} + d\mathbf{r})$  for some  $d\mathbf{r}$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Why “elliptic”?
- Consider 2-d and let

$$V(x, y) \sim e^{ik_x x + ik_y y} .$$

- Then :

$$-\nabla^2 V(x, y) = (k_x^2 + k_y^2) V(x, y) .$$

- The  $k_x, k_y$  values in  $k$ -space of a given eigenvalue satisfy

$$(k_x^2 + k_y^2) = \text{constant}$$

- This is (of course) a circle, which is an ellipse
- We’ll continue this “conic section” terminology, as you probably have done in your other courses

# Partial Differential Equations

- Second case : parabolic PDEs
- Given a source  $S(\mathbf{r},t)$  and a diffusion coefficient  $D(\mathbf{r})$ , the diffusion equation is :

$$\frac{\partial n(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} - \nabla \cdot (D(\mathbf{r}) \nabla n(\mathbf{r}, t)) = S(\mathbf{r}, t)$$

- This determines the concentration “n” in a closed space
  - Now need both initial conditions ( $t=t_0$ ) AND boundary conditions (Dirichlet, Neumann, periodic)

# Partial Differential Equations

- Why “parabolic” ?
- Consider one spatial dimension, and a constant  $D$ , with

$$n(x, t) \sim e^{-\omega t + i k x},$$

- The differential operator on the LHS has the eigenvalue

$$-\omega + Dk^2 = \text{constant}$$

- which is a parabola in omega-k space

# Partial Differential Equations

- The time-dependent Schroedinger equation is also a parabolic PDE :

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) + V(\mathbf{r}) \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \mathcal{H} \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$$

- This can be viewed as a diffusion equation with imaginary diffusion constant  $D = i\hbar/(2m)$ , or mathematically as a diffusion equation in imaginary time with real diffusion constant  $D = \hbar/(2m)$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Third case : hyperbolic PDE's
- The wave equation is :

$$\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 u(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 u(\mathbf{r}, t) = R(\mathbf{r}, t)$$

- this is hyperbolic because the eigenvalues of the differential operator are :

$$-\frac{1}{c^2} \omega^2 + \mathbf{k}^2 = \text{constant}$$

- These are hyperboloid surfaces in omega-k space
- Again need initial conditions ( $t=t_0$ ) and boundary conditions (Dirichlet, Neumann, Periodic)



# Elliptic PDES

# Partial Differential Equations

- Let's first take a look at the solution to the elliptic equation for Poisson's equation (solving Gauss's law for electrostatics)

- We have Gauss's law :  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho(x, y, z)}{\epsilon_0}$  ,

- The static electric field can be written as :

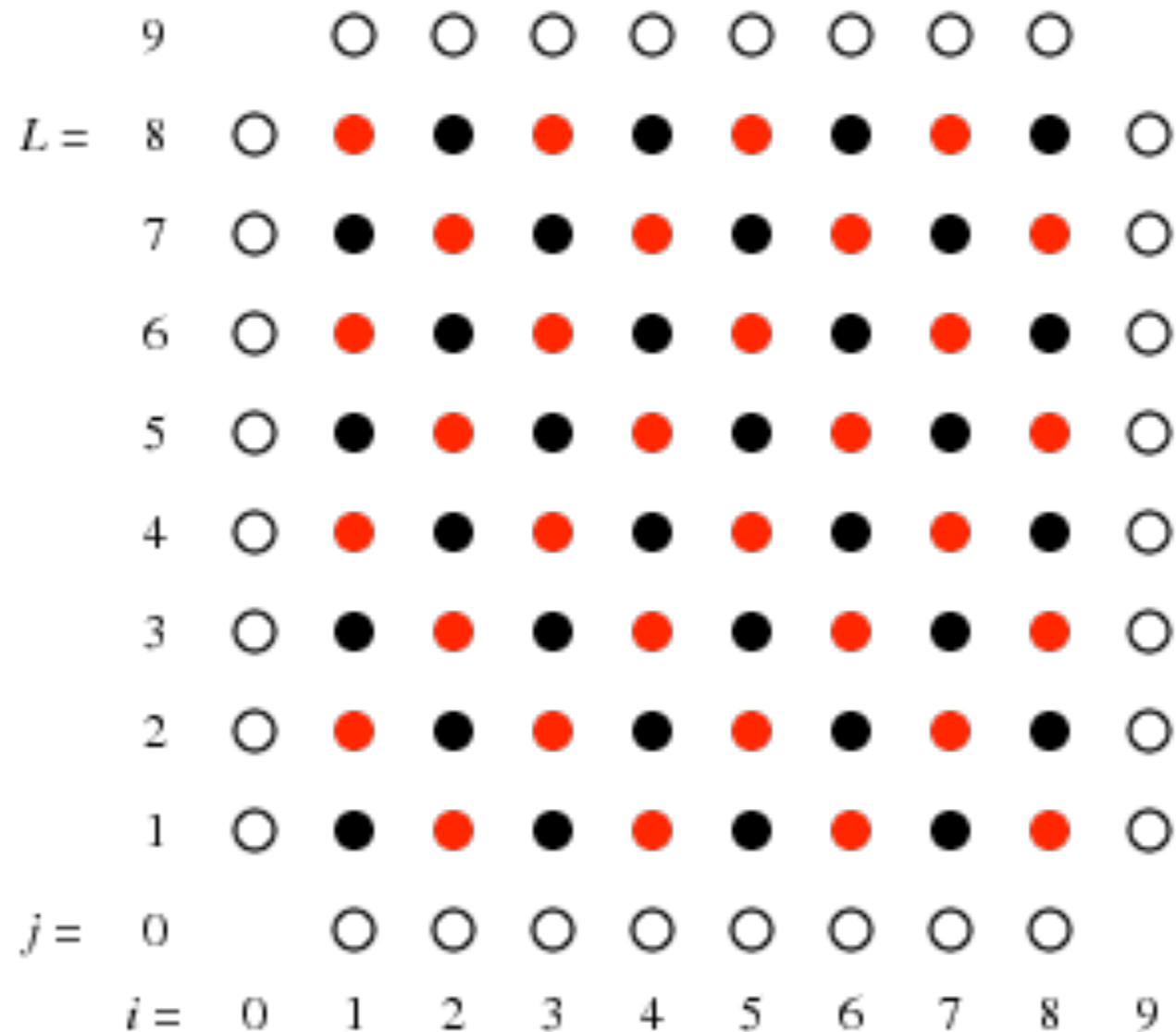
$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V ,$$

- And  $V(\mathbf{r})$  satisfies Poisson's equation:

$$\nabla^2 V = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) V = -\frac{\rho(x, y, z)}{\epsilon_0} .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Now, we need to discretize the entire space
- Consider a 2-d space and discretize in 10x10 blocks:



# Partial Differential Equations

- The 2-d Poisson's equation is :

$$\left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) V(x, y) = -\rho(x, y) ,$$

- Let's work in units with  $\epsilon_0 = 1$ , and solve in the region of a square with length  $A=1.0$

- The grid is :

$$x_i = ih , \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, L, L+1 , \quad y_j = jh , \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, L, L+1 .$$

- The lattice spacing is  $h = 1/(L+1)$

- Let  $V(x_i, y_j) = V_{ij}$ ,  $\rho(x_i, y_j) = \rho_{ij}$

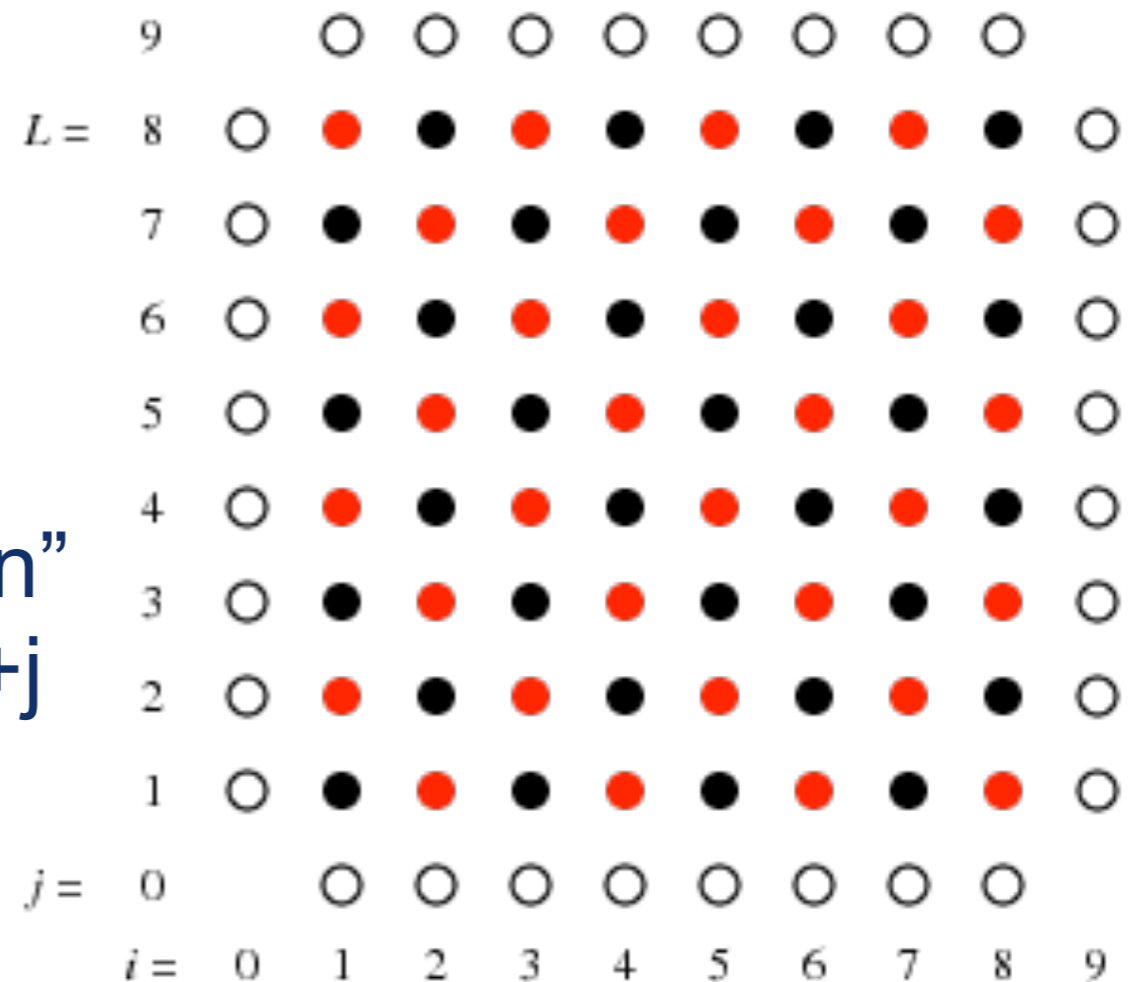
- Now we need to discretize this

# Partial Differential Equations

- The discretization is to look at an equivalent of Euler's formula, but now we have to do it in two dimensions:

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}\right) V(x_i, y_j) \simeq \frac{1}{h^2} [V_{i+1,j} + V_{i-1,j} + V_{i,j+1} + V_{i,j-1} - 4V_{i,j}] = -\rho_{i,j} .$$

- Note the following :
  - The lattice is only connected to its four nearest neighbors
  - We will define "odd" and "even" sites depending on whether  $i+j$  is odd or even (red/black)
  - The boundaries are indicated with open circles



# Partial Differential Equations

- First attempt : Jacobi's iterative method
- Suppose we have a solution of the discretized equation
- At each lattice site :

$$V_{i,j} = \frac{1}{4} [V_{i+1,j} + V_{i-1,j} + V_{i,j+1} + V_{i,j-1} + h^2 \rho_{i,j}] .$$

- If we knew the RHS, then we could compute the LHS
- But, the RHS pieces all have their own equations similar to this one!
- They all need to be solved simultaneously
- Instead of that, we try for a guess at each point, and then iteratively solve :

$$V_{i,j}^{n+1} = \frac{1}{4} [V_{i+1,j}^n + V_{i-1,j}^n + V_{i,j+1}^n + V_{i,j-1}^n + h^2 \rho_{i,j}] , \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- This should remind you a bit of the relaxation method for our ODE's
  - We guess, then iterate until our boundary is solved and the equations are satisfied at the points
- But, all we know for sure are the boundary points
- Can instead iterate until our solution stops changing very much
- Usually “relaxes” to the right solution, but there are of course pathologies that can occur

# Partial Differential Equations

- Next example : use the Gauss-Seidel method
- This is almost the same as the Jacobi method, but uses the updated neighbor sites
  - Remember the red/black? Red only talks to black, and vice versa
- Then we have :

$$V_{i,j}^{n+1} = \frac{1}{4} [V_{i+1,j}^n + V_{i-1,j}^{n+1} + V_{i,j+1}^n + V_{i,j-1}^{n+1} + h^2 \rho_{i,j}]$$

- This converges faster than the Jacobi method



# Partial Differential Equations

- Finally, consider the Successive Over-Relaxation (SOR) method
- Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel do not use  $V_{ij}$  at the same lattice point in updating  $V_{ij}$
- If we use a linear combination of the old and new solutions, we can get better convergence :

$$V_{i,j}^{n+1} = (1 - \omega)V_{i,j}^n + \frac{\omega}{4} [V_{i+1,j}^n + V_{i-1,j}^{n+1} + V_{i,j+1}^n + V_{i,j-1}^{n+1} + h^2 \rho_{i,j}]$$

- Omega is called the “over-relaxation” parameter
  - Can be tuned for performance

# Partial Differential Equations

- A few notes :
  - Converges only if  $0 < \omega < 2$
  - Faster than Gauss-Seidel only if  $1 < \omega < 2$
  - It converges fastest on a square lattice if

$$\omega \simeq \frac{2}{1 + \frac{\pi}{L}},$$

- Here,  $L$  is the number of lattice points

# Partial Differential Equations

- For our strategy, we will use the red/black splitting to solve the equations faster :
  - First update the even sites, then update the odd sites
  - Can use the SOR method (or the others) with faster convergence in this case
- In Numerical Recipes 19.5, the iterations required to reduce the overall error by a factor of  $10^{-p}$  for Laplace's equation is :

$$r \simeq \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}pL^2 & \text{for Jacobi's method} \\ \frac{1}{4}pL^2 & \text{for the Gauss-Seidel method} \\ \frac{1}{3}pL & \text{for SOR with } \omega \simeq 2/(1 + \pi/L) \end{cases} .$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \times 3 \times 50^2 = 3,750 \\ \frac{1}{4} \times 3 \times 50^2 = 1,875 \\ \frac{1}{3} \times 3 \times 50 = 50 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- To solve for the convergence rates, let's look at the Poisson equation again:

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial y^2} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho ,$$

- In matrix form, this is :

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} ,$$

Discrete Poisson operator  $\rightarrow$   $\mathbf{A}$

$V_{ij}$   $\rightarrow$   $\mathbf{x}$

Charge density  $\rightarrow$   $\mathbf{b}$

- Can break  $\mathbf{A}$  into lower triangular, diagonal and upper triangular bits :

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} + \mathbf{D} + \mathbf{U} ,$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Then, at each step, the Jacobi iteration is

$$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{x}^{(n)} = -(\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{U})\mathbf{x}^{(n-1)} + \mathbf{b} ,$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(n)} = -\mathbf{D}^{-1}(\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{U})\mathbf{x}^{(n-1)} + \mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{b} .$$

- The matrix :

$$-\mathbf{D}^{-1}(\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{U})$$

- This is the “iteration matrix”, and the magnitude of the largest eigenvalue is the “spectral radius” for the relaxation problem

# Partial Differential Equations

- Spectral radius “ $\rho_s$ ” should satisfy :
  - $0 < \rho_s < 1$  for the method to be stable
  - depends on the boundary conditions and the lattice spacing
  - approaches 1.0 as the number of lattice points increases
- For  $L \times L$  square lattice with Dirichlet boundary conditions :

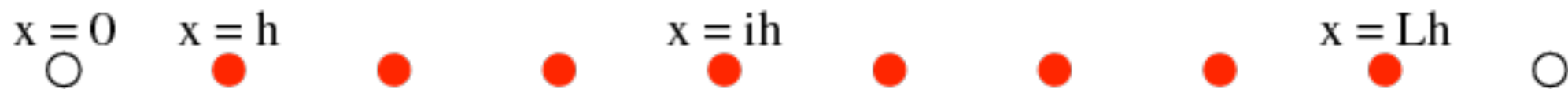
$$\rho_s \simeq 1 - \frac{\pi^2}{2L^2} .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- How to derive spectral radius  $\rho_s$  ?
- Let's just do it in 1-d
- The 1-d Laplace equation is :

$$\frac{d^2 V}{dx^2} = 0 .$$

- This can be discretized as :



$$\frac{V_{i+1} + V_{i-1} - 2V_i}{h^2} = 0 .$$

- The Jacobi iteration is :  $V_i^{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} (V_{i+1}^n + V_{i-1}^n) .$

- With Dirichlet BC's  $V(0)=V(L+1)=0$ , we see the eigenvectors are:  $u_i^{(k)} = \sin\left(\frac{\pi k i}{L+1}\right) , \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, L .$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Eigenvalues are determined by plugging in:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{2} \left( u_{i+1}^{(k)} + u_{i-1}^{(k)} \right) &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \sin \left( \frac{\pi k(i+1)}{L+1} \right) + \sin \left( \frac{\pi k(i-1)}{L+1} \right) \right] \\ &= \cos \left( \frac{\pi k}{L+1} \right) u_i^{(k)}.\end{aligned}$$

- The spectral radius is given by the largest eigenvalue:

$$\rho_s = \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{L+1} \right) \simeq 1 - \frac{\pi^2}{2L^2}, \quad (\text{for large } L)$$

- Similar analysis in 2-D gets the Numerical Recipes version for 2<sup>D</sup>

$$\rho_s = \frac{h_y^2 \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{L_x+1} \right) + h_x^2 \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{L_y+1} \right)}{h_x^2 + h_y^2}$$



# Partial Differential Equations

- How many iterations does it take for the solution to be damped by a factor of  $10^{-p}$ ?
- Determined by the spectral radius!

$$10^{-p} = \rho_s^n \quad \Rightarrow \quad n = \frac{p \ln 10}{(-\ln \rho_s)} \simeq \frac{2pL^2 \ln 10}{\pi^2} \simeq \frac{1}{2}pL^2 .$$

- Jacobi method is not very efficient!
- If  $L = 1000$ , then  $n = 1\text{M}$  to improve to 1% of current value

# Partial Differential Equations

- Gauss-Seidel does a little better
- Iteration matrix is

$$-(\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{D})^{-1}\mathbf{U} ,$$

- Then the spectral radius for the  $L \times L$  Dirichlet lattice is :

$$\rho_s \simeq 1 - \frac{\pi^2}{L^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad n \simeq \frac{1}{4}pL^2 .$$

- Only about twice as fast as Jacobi!

# Partial Differential Equations

- What about SOR?
- Much better here, we have :

$$\rho_s \simeq 1 - \frac{2\pi}{L} \quad \Rightarrow \quad n \simeq \frac{1}{3}pL .$$

- So, if  $L=1000$ , need only  $n=667$  iterations to improve to 1% of current value

# Partial Differential Equations

- What about computational complexity?
- Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel update all interior lattice points per iteration
- So, for  $L \times L$  2-D lattice, we would have  $\mathcal{O}(L^4)$
- For SOR, we would have  $\mathcal{O}(L^3)$
- Neither of these are wonderful for very large  $L$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Can also use spectral analysis to solve our PDE's, just like you do in your math classes

- Here, “spectral analysis” is the FFT.

–In 1D:  $\frac{d^2V}{dx^2} = \rho(x)$  .

- Then we express f and rho in terms of their Fourier transforms :

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int g(k) e^{ikx} dk , \quad \rho(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int \sigma(k) e^{ikx} dk .$$

- This is diagonalized in k-space :

$$-k^2 g(k) = \sigma(k) \quad \Rightarrow \quad g(k) = -\frac{\sigma(k)}{k^2} .$$

- The solution is then the inverse FFT:

$$f(x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int \frac{\sigma(k)}{k^2} e^{ikx} dk .$$

- Two problems : 1. boundary conditions, 2. singularity at  $k=0$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Boundary conditions dictate the type of Fourier transform you want to use
  - Sometimes sine transforms are best, sometimes cosine, sometimes exponential

- Consider 1-D lattice  $0 < x < L$  with  $N$  points

$$x_n = nL/N, n = 0, \dots, N - 1$$

- The complex FFT coefficients of  $f(x)$  are

$$g_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W^{kn} f_n, \quad W = e^{2i\pi/N}.$$

- The inverse will be periodic in  $x_n$  with period  $L$ :

$$f_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} W^{-nk} g_k,$$

- So, if periodic conditions : use the complex FFT

# Partial Differential Equations

- For Dirichlet conditions  $f(0) = f(L) = 0$ , then sine Fourier transform is best:

$$f_n = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \sin\left(\frac{\pi nk}{N}\right) g_k .$$

- For Neumann conditions use cosine Fourier transform:

$$f_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2N}} [g_0 + (-1)^n g_N] + \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \cos\left(\frac{\pi nk}{N}\right) g_k .$$

- Note : These are not just the real and imaginary parts of the complex exponential transform!
  - Sine, Cosine, and  $\exp(ikx)$  are all complete sets with different boundary conditions
  - Sine/Cosine are real, so also require 2x as many points

# Partial Differential Equations

- Let's go back to Poisson's equation in 2d:

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) V(x, y) \\ \simeq \frac{1}{h^2} [V_{j+1,k} + V_{j-1,k} + V_{j,k+1} + V_{j,k-1} - 4V_{j,k}] \\ = -\rho_{j,k} \end{aligned}$$

- Let's take an NxN grid in region  $0 < x, y < 1$
- Presume there is a point charge at the center
- Impose periodic BCs so we use the exponential FFT
- Since the FFT is linear, we can do it separately in the x and y directions, and it doesn't matter which order!



# Partial Differential Equations

- The 2-D FFT coefficients are

$$\tilde{V}_{m,n} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} W^{mj+nk} V_{j,k} , \quad \tilde{\rho}_{m,n} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} W^{mj+nk} \rho_{j,k} .$$

- The inverse transforms are :

$$V_{j,k} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W^{-jm-kn} \tilde{V}_{m,n} , \quad \rho_{j,k} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W^{-jm-kn} \tilde{\rho}_{m,n} .$$

- So, if we plug these into our discretized equation and equating coefficients of  $W^{-mj-nk}$  we get :

$$\frac{1}{h^2} [W^m + W^{-m} + W^n + W^{-n} - 4] \tilde{V}_{m,n} = -\tilde{\rho}_{m,n} ,$$

- IFFT gives the potential! 
$$\tilde{V}_{m,n} = \frac{h^2 \tilde{\rho}_{m,n}}{4 - W^m - W^{-m} - W^n - W^{-n}} .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- In some sense, this is even easier than relaxation methods
- Take FFT of rows of rho
- Take FFT of columns of rho

$$\tilde{V}_{m,n} = \frac{h^2 \tilde{\rho}_{m,n}}{4 - W^m - W^{-m} - W^n - W^{-n}}$$

- Solve equation in Fourier domain

```
# Solve equation in Fourier space
V = cpt.Matrix(N, N)
W = cmath.exp(1.0j * 2 * math.pi / N)
Wm = Wn = 1.0 + 0.0j
for m in range(N):
    for n in range(N):
        denom = 4.0 - Wm - 1 / Wm - Wn - 1 / Wn
        if abs(denom) != 0.0:
            V[m][n] = rho[m][n] * h**2 / denom
        Wn *= W
    Wm *= W
```

- Take IFFT of rows of rho
- Take IFFT of columns of rho

# Partial Differential Equations

- Since PDE's are done in higher dimensions, it is oftentimes beneficial to use “multigrid methods”
- General gist : start at a coarse scale, get close to the answer, then go to a finer scale
  - Similar to adaptive RK4 in philosophy
- For this, need an estimate of the error at each stage
- Described in Chapter 19 Section 6 of Numerical Recipes

# Partial Differential Equations

- So let's again consider Poisson's equation in 2 D:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = -f(x, y) ,$$

- Again let's impose this on a grid with units 0-1 and impose Dirichlet boundary conditions
- As before, the solution obeys :

$$u_{i,j} = \frac{1}{4} [u_{i+1,j} + u_{i-1,j} + u_{i,j+1} + u_{i,j-1} + h^2 f_{i,j}] .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Then here is where things get different
- This uses a succession of  $\ell$  lattices / grids
- This is the “multigrid”!
- Here’s the trick : define the interior lattice points as a power of 2 so that :

$$L = 2^\ell + 2$$

- Thus the lattice spacing is
- $$h = 1/(L - 1)$$
- There are then sequentially coarser lattices with number of interior points as :

$$2^{\ell-1} \rightarrow 2^{\ell-2} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow 2^0 = 1$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Now to compute the error, we define the solution at any stage in the calculation as  $u(x, y)$
- Also define the exact solution  $u_{\text{exact}}(x, y)$
- The correction is

$$v = u_{\text{exact}} - u$$

- The “residual” or “defect” is defined as

$$r = \nabla^2 u + f .$$

- The correction and the residual are related by :

$$\nabla^2 v = [\nabla^2 u_{\text{exact}} + f] - [\nabla^2 u + f] = -r .$$

- So interestingly, this has the same form as Poisson’s equation with  $v$  as the function  $u$ , and  $r$  being a known source function!

# Partial Differential Equations

- Now define the “Simple V-Cycle Algorithm”
- Define two grids (coarse and fine) with points:

$$L = 2^\ell + 2 \quad L = 2^{\ell-1} + 2$$

- Need to move from one grid to another
- Given any function on the lattice, we need to :
  - restrict the function from fine to coarse
  - interpolate the function from coarse to fine

# Partial Differential Equations

- If we have those, the multigrid V-cycle can be defined recursively :

- $\ell = 0$  , there is only one interior point, so solve exactly:

$$u_{1,1} = (u_{0,1} + u_{2,1} + u_{1,0} + u_{1,2} + h^2 f_{1,1})/4 .$$

- Otherwise, calculate current  $L = 2^\ell + 2$

- Perform pre-smoothing iterations with a local algorithm (Gauss-Seidel, etc). This will damp out the short wavelength errors in the solution

- Estimate correction  $v = u_{\text{exact}} - u$  as :

- Compute residual

$$r_{i,j} = \frac{1}{h^2} [u_{i+1,j} + u_{i-1,j} + u_{i,j+1} + u_{i,j-1} - 4u_{i,j}] + f_{i,j} .$$

- Restrict residual  $r \rightarrow R$  to the coarser grid
- Set the coarser grid correction  $V = 0$  and improve it recursively
- Prolongate the correction  $V \rightarrow v$  onto the finer grid

- Correct  $u \rightarrow u + v$

- Perform post-smoothing Gauss-Seidel iterations and return improved  $u$



# Partial Differential Equations

- Is this worth it? What's the scaling with  $L$ ?
- Recall that Jacobi / Gauss-Seidel iterations are the most time-consuming parts of the calculation.
  - Single step:  $\mathcal{O}(L^2)$

- Now this gets performed on the sequence of grids with :

$$2^\ell \rightarrow 2^{\ell-1} \rightarrow 2^{\ell-2} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow 2^0 = 1$$

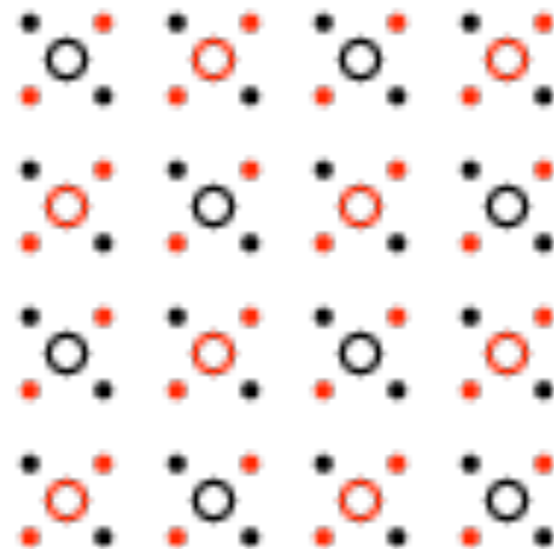
- So the total number is of order:

$$L^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\ell} \frac{1}{2^{2n}} \leq L^2 \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{4}} .$$

- So in this, the TOTAL is  $\mathcal{O}(L^2)$  !!!!

# Partial Differential Equations

- Details of restricting residual to coarser lattice:
- Define the coarser lattice  $H = 2h$
- Set the value to the average of the values on the four corners:



$$R_{I,J} = \frac{1}{4} [r_{i,j} + r_{i+1,j} + r_{i,j+1} + r_{i+1,j+1}] , \quad i = 2I - 1 , \quad j = 2J - 1 .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Details to prolong the correction to the finer lattice :
- Need to solve the equation

$$\nabla^2 V = -R(x, y) ,$$

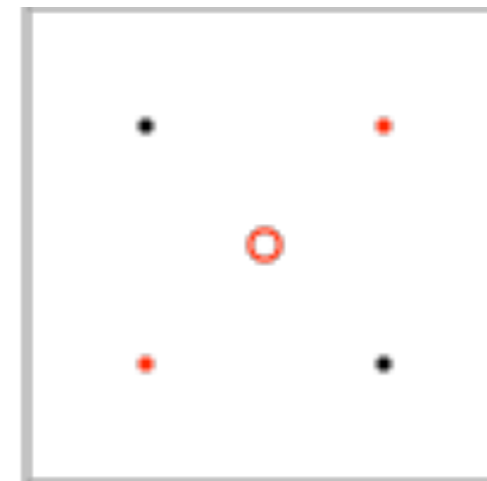
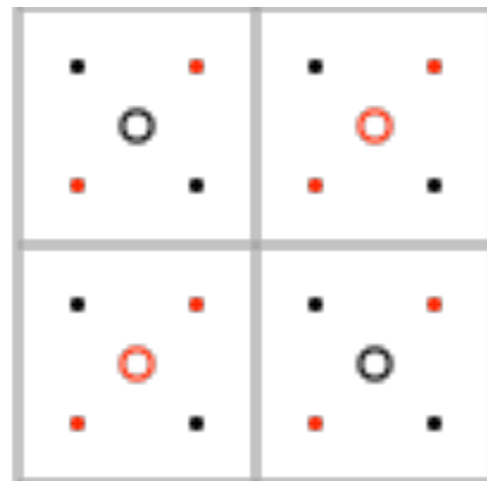
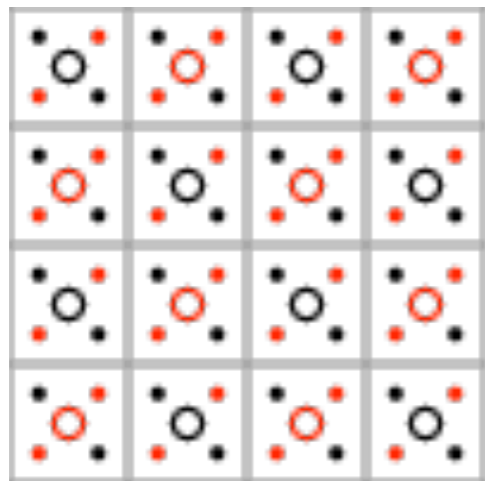
- In the code this will be called “twoGrid”
- Then we copy the value of  $V(I, J)$  into the four neighboring points on the finer lattice  $v(i, j)$  :

$$v_{i,j} = v_{i+1,j} = v_{i,j+1} = v_{i+1,j+1} = V_{I,J} , \quad i = 2I - 1 , \quad j = 2J - 1 .$$

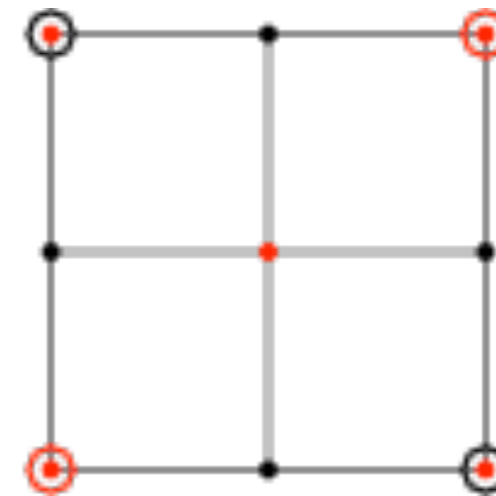
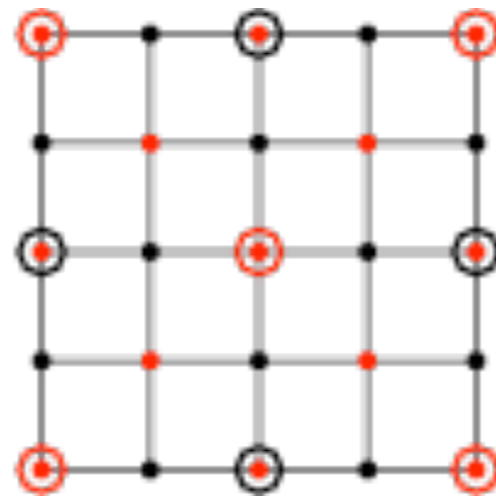
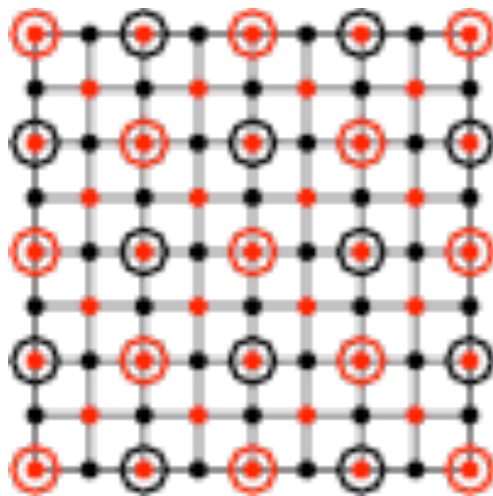
# Partial Differential Equations

- Two possibilities :

–Cell centered :  $2^3 = 8 \rightarrow 2^2 = 4 \rightarrow 2^1 = 2 \rightarrow 2^0 = 1$  .



–Grid centered :  $2^3 + 1 = 9 \rightarrow 2^2 + 1 = 5 \rightarrow 2^1 + 1 = 3$  .



- Note : grid-centered needs to one more point in each dimension

# Partial Differential Equations

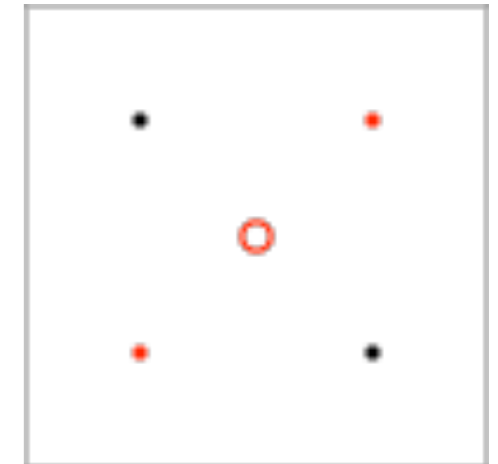
- The boundary points are specified as follows :
  - Cell-centered : Boundary points move in space toward the center of the region at each coarsening (so care must be taken here)
  - Vertex-centered : Boundary points do not move when lattice is coarsened
- A little more convenient to use vertex-centered

# Partial Differential Equations

- What about restriction (fine->coarse) and prolongation (coarse->fine) operations?

- Cell-centered :

- Prolongation : Set the values on the fine to the value from the coarse
- Restriction : Average fine points to get coarse points



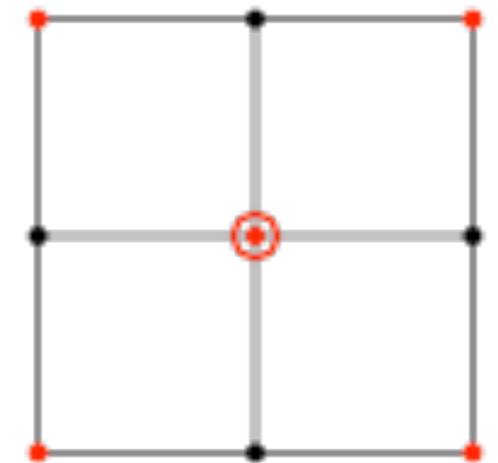
- Vertex-centered :

- Prolongation : use bilinear interpolation at which value at F at a coarse grid point is copied to 9 neighboring fine-grid points with weights :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \end{bmatrix} \cdot$$

- Restriction : Adjoint of the prolongation

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{16} & \frac{1}{8} & \frac{1}{16} \\ \frac{1}{8} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{8} \\ \frac{1}{16} & \frac{1}{8} & \frac{1}{16} \end{bmatrix} \cdot$$



# Partial Differential Equations

- Improvements are to use more than one cycle
  - Repeat the two-grid iteration more than once
  - Full multigrid starts with coarsest grid, then proceeds to finer grids
  - Numerical Recipes Chapter 19 Section 6 goes over this
  - Can look into them at your leisure

# Parabolic PDES



# Partial Differential Equations

- Let's now turn to parabolic differential equations
  - Includes diffusion and time-dependent Schroedinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi(x, t) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi + V(x) \psi .$$

- Formal solution is:

$$\psi(x, t) = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \mathcal{H} t} \psi(x, 0) , \quad \mathcal{H} \equiv -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x) = \mathcal{H}^\dagger ,$$

- where  $\mathcal{H}$  is the hermitian Hamiltonian operator

# Partial Differential Equations

- Two separate strategies:
  - “Marching” in time
    - Similar to ODE technology, but now must account for derivatives in spatial dimension too!
  - Spectral analysis
    - Just like in your classes, we can also solve the PDE in the Fourier domain, and it is often more convenient

**Will examine both solutions**

# Partial Differential Equations

- First: Marching

# Partial Differential Equations

- The time-evolution is unitary, so the total probability is conserved :

$$\left(e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar}\mathcal{H}t}\right)^\dagger = \left(e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar}\mathcal{H}t}\right)^{-1}, \quad \int |\psi(x, t)|^2 dx = \int |\psi(x, 0)|^2 dx .$$

- Diffusion equations, on the other hand, are NOT unitary

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} n(x, t) = D \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} n(x, t) + C n(x, t) .$$

- This leads to the characteristic damping
- Schroedinger's equation is mathematically equivalent to diffusion with an imaginary diffusion constant (or a real one, in imaginary time):

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial(it)} = \frac{\hbar}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{\hbar} V(x) \psi .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- We will look at a free particle as an instructive case:

$$\psi(x, t) \sim e^{i(px - Et)/\hbar}$$

- where the momentum is  $p = \pm\sqrt{2mE}$
- Of course, the plane wave is not localized in space
  - Probability is not =1 over all space, so not a “real” particle solution
- Can instead construct a Gaussian state:

$$\phi(x) = \left( \frac{1}{\pi\sigma^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} e^{-(x-x_0)^2/(2\sigma^2)}$$

–But, this is stationary :

$$\langle p \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \phi^*(x) \left( \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx} \right) \phi(x) = 0 .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- To get this to move, multiply by a phase factor:

$$\psi(x) = \phi(x)e^{ikx}$$

- then we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \psi | p | \psi \rangle &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \phi^*(x) e^{-ikx} \left( \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx} \right) e^{ikx} \phi(x) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx [\hbar k |\phi(x)|^2 - i\hbar \phi(x) \phi'(x)] \\ &= \hbar k .\end{aligned}$$

- Expectation value of the energy is:

$$\left\langle \psi \left| \frac{p^2}{2m} \right| \psi \right\rangle = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left( k^2 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \right) ,$$

- This is close to the classical result if the packet isn't too narrow

# Partial Differential Equations

- Our wavepacket is :

$$\psi(x, 0) = \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} e^{ik_0 x - \frac{(x-x_0)^2}{4\sigma^2}}$$

- Moves to the right with speed  $\hbar k_0 / m$
- $\psi$  is approximated on a lattice by an N-component complex vector
- If potential is a function of space alone, can precompute the quantity

$$e^{-i\mathcal{V}(\xi)\delta t / (2\hbar)}$$

- which can be used to speed up computational times

# Partial Differential Equations

- Also examine finite difference methods
- Start with a forward time-centered scheme (FTCS) :
  - Discretized equation :

$$i\hbar \frac{\psi_j^{n+1} - \psi_j^n}{\delta_t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\psi_{j+1}^n + \psi_{j-1}^n - 2\psi_j^n}{\delta_x^2} + V_j \psi_j^n ,$$

- This can be solved explicitly for the solution at the next time step :

$$\psi_j^{n+1} = \psi_j^n - \frac{i\delta_t}{\hbar} \left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\psi_{j+1}^n + \psi_{j-1}^n - 2\psi_j^n}{\delta_x^2} + V_j \psi_j^n \right] .$$

- If we introduce the column vector of values :
$$\Psi^n \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1^n \\ \psi_2^n \\ \vdots \\ \psi_N^n \end{pmatrix} ,$$

- Then the equation is (in matrix form):

$$\Psi^{n+1} = \left( \mathbf{I} - \frac{i\delta_t}{\hbar} \mathbf{H} \right) \Psi^n .$$



# Partial Differential Equations

- Problem with this simplest scheme : always unstable
- For instance, for an eigenvector we have:

$$\mathbf{H}\Psi^1 = E\Psi^1 ,$$

- Then we'd compute:

$$\Psi^{n+1} = \left(1 - \frac{i\delta_t E}{\hbar}\right) \Psi^n = \left(1 - \frac{i\delta_t E}{\hbar}\right)^2 \Psi^{n-1} = \dots = \left(1 - \frac{i\delta_t E}{\hbar}\right)^n \Psi^1 ,$$

- The magnitude of this is :

$$|\Psi^{n+1}| = \left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{\delta_t^2 E^2}{\hbar^2}}\right)^n |\Psi^1| \longrightarrow \infty , \quad \text{as } n \longrightarrow \infty .$$

- Boooooo.

# Partial Differential Equations

- What about backward time space centered (BTCS) implicit differencing?

$$i\hbar \frac{\psi_j^{n+1} - \psi_j^n}{\delta_t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\psi_{j+1}^{n+1} + \psi_{j-1}^{n+1} - 2\psi_j^{n+1}}{\delta_x^2} + V_j \psi_j^{n+1},$$

- Can't be solved exactly.
- Three unknown quantities on the LHS of

$$\psi_j^{n+1} + \frac{i\delta_t}{\hbar} \left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\psi_{j+1}^{n+1} + \psi_{j-1}^{n+1} - 2\psi_j^{n+1}}{\delta_x^2} + V_j \psi_j^{n+1} \right] = \psi_j^n.$$

- If we solve all N equations at the same time, we get a matrix form:

$$\left( \mathbf{I} + \frac{i\delta_t}{\hbar} \mathbf{H} \right) \Psi^{n+1} = \Psi^n,$$

- with steps :  $\Psi^{n+1} = \left( \mathbf{I} + \frac{i\delta_t}{\hbar} \mathbf{H} \right)^{-1} \Psi^n.$

# Partial Differential Equations

- This one, on the other hand, is “stable”, but still wrong:

$$\begin{aligned}\Psi^{n+1} &= \left(1 + \frac{i\delta_t E}{\hbar}\right)^{-1} \Psi^n = \left(1 + \frac{i\delta_t E}{\hbar}\right)^{-2} \Psi^{n-1} \\ &= \dots = \left(1 + \frac{i\delta_t E}{\hbar}\right)^{-n} \Psi^1 ,\end{aligned}$$

- Magnitude will be :

$$|\Psi^{n+1}| = \left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{\delta_t^2 E^2}{\hbar^2}}\right)^{-n} |\Psi^1| \longrightarrow 0 , \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty .$$

- No probability conservation, still booooo.

# Partial Differential Equations

- Symmetric time space centered (STCS) differencing does the trick (Crank-Nicolson):

$$\Psi^{n+1} = \Psi^n - \frac{i\delta_t}{2\hbar} \mathbf{H} (\Psi^n + \Psi^{n+1}) ,$$

- Matrix solution :  $\Psi^{n+1} = \left( \mathbf{I} + \frac{i\delta_t}{2\hbar} \mathbf{H} \right)^{-1} \left( \mathbf{I} - \frac{i\delta_t}{2\hbar} \mathbf{H} \right) \Psi^n .$

- This is unitary :

$$\Psi^{n+1} = \left[ \frac{1 - \frac{i\delta_t E}{2\hbar}}{1 + \frac{i\delta_t E}{2\hbar}} \right]^n \Psi^1 ,$$

- And conserves probability at each step :

$$|\Psi^{n+1}| = |\Psi^1| .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- As you'd naively guess, this is also more accurate than the forward and backward only versions (by an order of magnitude)
- To show explicitly, write the exact evolution operator for one time step:

$$e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \mathcal{H} \delta t} \equiv e^{-z} = 1 - z + \frac{z^2}{2} - \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots,$$

- Here, we have  $z = \mathcal{O}(\delta t)$

- Backward scheme :  $\frac{1}{1+z} = 1 - z + z^2 - z^3 + \dots = e^{-z} + \mathcal{O}(\delta t^2)$ ,

- Crank-Nicolson scheme:  
$$\frac{1}{1 + \frac{z}{2}} \left(1 - \frac{z}{2}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{z}{2} + \frac{z^2}{4} - \frac{z^3}{8} + \dots\right) \left(1 - \frac{z}{2}\right)$$
$$= 1 - z + \frac{z^2}{2} - \frac{z^3}{4} + \dots = e^{-z} + \mathcal{O}(\delta t^3).$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- We have the Schroedinger equation :

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi(x, t) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi + V(x) \psi .$$

- Solved using Crank-Nicolson algorithm :

$$\Psi^{n+1} = \left( \mathbf{I} + \frac{i\delta_t}{2\hbar} \mathbf{H} \right)^{-1} \left( \mathbf{I} - \frac{i\delta_t}{2\hbar} \mathbf{H} \right) \Psi^n .$$

- And this is basically a matrix inversion problem!
- Is it tractable?
  - Incidentally, yes! It's a sparse matrix!

# Partial Differential Equations

- For instance, impose Dirichlet BC's , and we get :

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}\right)_j^n = \frac{1}{\delta_x^2} \begin{cases} \psi_2^n - 2\psi_1^n, & \text{for } j = 1 \\ \psi_{j-1}^n + \psi_{j+1}^n - 2\psi_j^n, & \text{for } 1 < j < N \\ \psi_{N-1}^n - 2\psi_N^n, & \text{for } j = N \end{cases} .$$

- if N=5 then we get :

$$\mathbf{H}_{\text{Dirichlet}} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m\delta_x^2} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} V_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & V_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & V_3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & V_4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & V_5 \end{pmatrix} .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Imposing periodic BC's we get:

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}\right)_j^n = \frac{1}{\delta_x^2} \begin{cases} \psi_N^n + \psi_2^n - 2\psi_1^n, & \text{for } j = 1 \\ \psi_{j-1}^n + \psi_{j+1}^n - 2\psi_j^n, & \text{for } 1 < j < N \\ \psi_{N-1}^n + \psi_1^n - 2\psi_N^n, & \text{for } j = N \end{cases} .$$

- if  $N=5$  then we get :

$$\mathbf{H}_{\text{Periodic}} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m\delta_x^2} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} V_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & V_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & V_3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & V_4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & V_5 \end{pmatrix} .$$



# Partial Differential Equations

- So both of these are tridiagonal, so we can use our Matrix Methods from earlier in the semester to solve this very quickly

- Explicitly :

- Note that 
$$\left( \mathbf{I} + \frac{i\delta_t}{2\hbar} \mathbf{H} \right)^{-1} \left( \mathbf{I} - \frac{i\delta_t}{2\hbar} \mathbf{H} \right) = \mathbf{Q}^{-1} - \mathbf{I} ,$$

- where : 
$$\mathbf{Q} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \mathbf{I} + \frac{i\delta_t}{2\hbar} \mathbf{H} \right)$$

- So, we solve the linear equation:

$$\mathbf{Q}\chi = \Psi^n , \quad \chi = \mathbf{Q}^{-1} \Psi^n ,$$

- We get an intermediate “chi”, which we can use to solve:

$$\Psi^{n+1} = \chi - \Psi^n .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Second : spectral analysis

# Partial Differential Equations

- To solve this 'exactly', can look at the exact solution in the Fourier domain (and keep in mind that we're going to do the FFT later)

- Write the S.E. as

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2} + V(x)\psi(x, t) \equiv (\mathcal{T} + \mathcal{V})\psi(x, t) ,$$

- Here,  $\mathcal{T}$  is a differential operator and  $\mathcal{V}$  is a multiplicative operator in position space

- In Fourier domain :

$$\tilde{\psi}(p, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-ipx/\hbar} \psi(x, t) ,$$

- then we'd have:

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \tilde{\psi}(p, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{p^2}{2m} \tilde{\psi}(p, t) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dq \tilde{V}(p - q) \tilde{\psi}(q, t) .$$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Here, the kinetic operator  $T$  is multiplicative, while the potential operator  $V$  is a convolution
  - So, this is an integral equation in the Fourier domain

- Formal solution :

$$\psi(x, t) = e^{-i(\mathcal{T} + \mathcal{V})(t - t_0)/\hbar} \psi(x, t_0) ,$$

- Where :

$$e^{\mathcal{A}} \equiv 1 + \mathcal{A} + \frac{1}{2!} \mathcal{A}\mathcal{A} + \frac{1}{3!} \mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}\mathcal{A} + \dots$$

- $T$  and  $V$  do not commute here, so exponential is not amenable to numerical evaluation

# Partial Differential Equations

- To make the discrete time approximation, we use a small time step  $\delta t$  :

$$\psi(t + \delta t) = e^{-i(\mathcal{T} + \mathcal{V})\delta t/\hbar} \psi(x, t)$$

- In this case,  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{V}$  can be disentangled (linear approximation  $\implies$  they commute)

- Can use Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formula :

– [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff\\_formula](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff_formula)

– This states that :  $e^{\mathcal{A}} e^{\mathcal{B}} = e^{\mathcal{C}}$

– if and only if :  $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{A} + \mathcal{B} + \frac{1}{2}[\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}] + \dots$

# Partial Differential Equations

- Commutator is :

$$[\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{V}] = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[ \frac{d^2}{dx^2}, V(x) \right] = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} V''(x) - \frac{\hbar^2}{m} V'(x) \frac{d}{dx} \neq 0 .$$

- So, the simplest factorization has an error of  $\mathcal{O}(\delta_t^2)$  :

$$e^{-i(\mathcal{T} + \mathcal{V})\delta_t/\hbar} \approx e^{-i\mathcal{T}\delta_t/\hbar} e^{-i\mathcal{V}\delta_t/\hbar} ,$$

- The symmetric factorization, however, has an error  $\mathcal{O}(\delta_t^3)$ :

$$e^{-i(\mathcal{T} + \mathcal{V})\delta_t/\hbar} \approx e^{-i\mathcal{V}\delta_t/(2\hbar)} e^{-i\mathcal{T}\delta_t/\hbar} e^{-i\mathcal{V}\delta_t/(2\hbar)}$$

- In addition, this is unitary so preserves the normalization of the wavefunction

# Partial Differential Equations

- Split the time evolution operator into a symmetric factorization

- Evolve by :

– Multiply by first half-step :  $\psi(x, t) \rightarrow \psi_1(x) = e^{-iV(x)\delta t/(2\hbar)} \psi(x, t)$  .  
(diagonal in position space)

– Fourier transform to p-space :  $\tilde{\psi}_1(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-ipx/\hbar} \psi_1(x)$  .

– Multiply by kinetic evolution  
(diagonal in momentum space)  $\tilde{\psi}_1(p) \rightarrow \tilde{\psi}_2(p) = e^{-ip^2\delta t/(2m\hbar)} \tilde{\psi}_1(p)$  .

– Fourier transform back to x-space :  $\psi_2(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{ipx/\hbar} \tilde{\psi}_2(p)$  .

– Multiply by the second half step  
evolution operator  
(diagonal in position space)

$$\psi(x, t + \delta t) = e^{-iV(x)\delta t/(2\hbar)} \psi_2(x) .$$

# Hyperbolic PDES



# Partial differential equations

- We now turn to the final chapter in our investigation of PDE's : hyperbolic waves
- This class covers a wide range of physical phenomena :
  - Light waves
  - Sound waves
  - Water waves
  - etc
- The wave equation is

$$\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 u(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 u(\mathbf{r}, t) = R(\mathbf{r}, t) ,$$

Wave speed  $\nearrow$   $c^2$   $\nwarrow$  Hyperbolic (+dt<sup>2</sup> - dx<sup>2</sup>)  $\nearrow$   $\nabla^2$   $\nwarrow$  Source term  $\nearrow$   $R(\mathbf{r}, t)$

# Partial differential equations

- There is a unique solution if
  - the initial values of  $u(\mathbf{r}, t_0)$  and  $\partial u(\mathbf{r}, t)/\partial t|_{t=t_0}$  are specified
  - the boundary values are specified on a closed region
- So examine the 1-d equation with no source term:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} ,$$

- This factorizes into simpler first-order equations:

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - c^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - c \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) .$$

# Partial differential equations

- Solutions to this equation are given by a superposition of left- and right-moving waves:

$$u(x, t) = g(x + ct) + f(x - ct) ,$$

$$\left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - c \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) g(x + ct) = 0 , \quad \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) f(x - ct) = 0 ,$$

- Here,  $g$  and  $f$  are determined from initial conditions

# Partial differential equations

- Examine one of the equations (“right-moving” one):

$$\frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial t} = -c \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} ,$$

- The analytical solution here is :

$$u(x, t) = f_0(x - ct) ,$$

- where  $f_0(x)$  is the initial condition at  $t=0$
- This basically means the initial shape simply propagates with a velocity  $c$ 
  - This is called “advection”
- Contrast with cases where the wave shape depends on position
  - This is “convection” (hot fluid rising, colder fluid sinking, for instance)

# Partial differential equations

- In the advective case, the flux is conserved:

$$\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} = - \frac{\partial \vec{F}(\vec{u})}{\partial x} ,$$

- Here,  $u(x,t)$  is a vector of functions, and the vector  $F$  is the conserved flux of  $u$
- Now, suppose that  $u(x,t)$  is the density at point  $x$  and time  $t$
- Total amount (mass) of fluid in a boundary is:

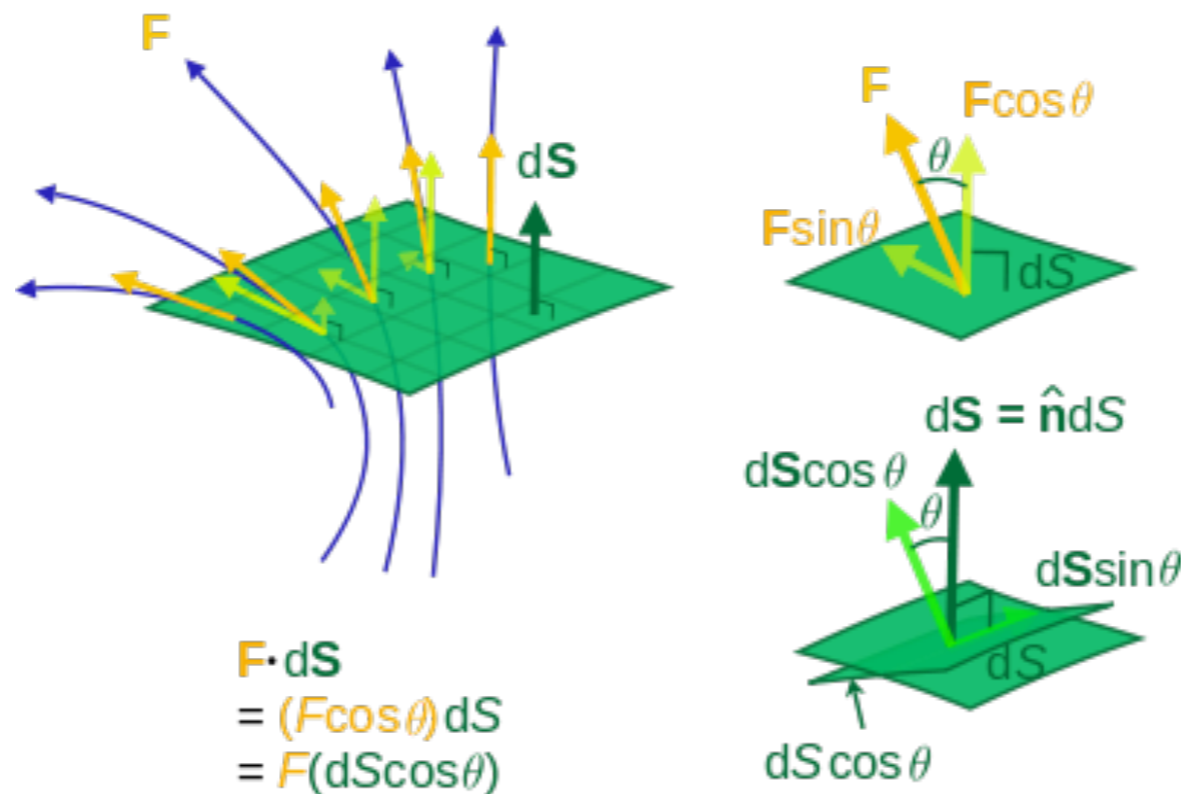
$$M(t) = \int_{x_L}^{x_R} u(x, t) dx .$$

- The rate of change of fluid in the region is:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} M(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} \int_{x_L}^{x_R} u(x, t) dx = \int_{x_L}^{x_R} \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial t} dx \\ &= - \int_{x_L}^{x_R} \frac{\partial F(u(x, t))}{\partial x} dx = F(u(x_L, t)) - F(u(x_R, t)) , \end{aligned}$$

# Partial differential equations

- This should remind you of your vector calculus (Stoke's theorem, etc)
  - <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flux>
  - [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stokes'\\_theorem](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stokes'_theorem)



# Partial differential equations

- In 1-d, should be clear how we may discretize this
- Again can try the forward time-centered solution as we did last lecture (generalized Euler's method!)

$$u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n - \frac{c\delta_t}{2\delta_x} (u_{j+1}^n - u_{j-1}^n) .$$

- So we try the FTCS :

$$u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n - \frac{c\delta_t}{2\delta_x} (u_{j+1}^n - u_{j-1}^n) .$$

- The spatial derivative was approximated by a symmetric difference :

$$\frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} \simeq \frac{u_{j+1}^n - u_{j-1}^n}{2\delta_x} .$$

- As we saw last class, the “bare bones” Euler-step-like solution is unconditionally unstable

$$e^{ikj\delta_x} - \frac{c\delta_t}{2\delta_x} \left( e^{ik(j+1)\delta_x} - e^{ik(j-1)\delta_x} \right)$$

- If  $u_j^n \sim e^{ikj\delta_x}$  : modes amplified by:  $= \left( 1 - i \frac{c\delta_t}{\delta_x} \sin(k\delta_x) \right) e^{ikj\delta_x} \equiv \xi e^{ikj\delta_x}$  .

# Partial differential equations

- Instead, try the “Lax” method:

$$u_j^{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} (u_{j+1}^n + u_{j-1}^n) - \frac{c\delta_t}{2\delta_x} (u_{j+1}^n - u_{j-1}^n) .$$

- The mode amplification factor in this case is:

$$\xi = \frac{1}{2} (e^{ik\delta_x} + e^{-ik\delta_x}) - \frac{c\delta_t}{2\delta_x} (e^{ik\delta_x} - e^{-ik\delta_x}) ,$$

$$|\xi|^2 = \cos^2(k\delta_x) + \left( \frac{c\delta_t}{\delta_x} \right)^2 \sin^2(k\delta_x) .$$

- If we choose  $\delta_t = \delta_x / c$  then flux is exactly conserved
- Any other choice of delta t will make this either decay or grow without bound

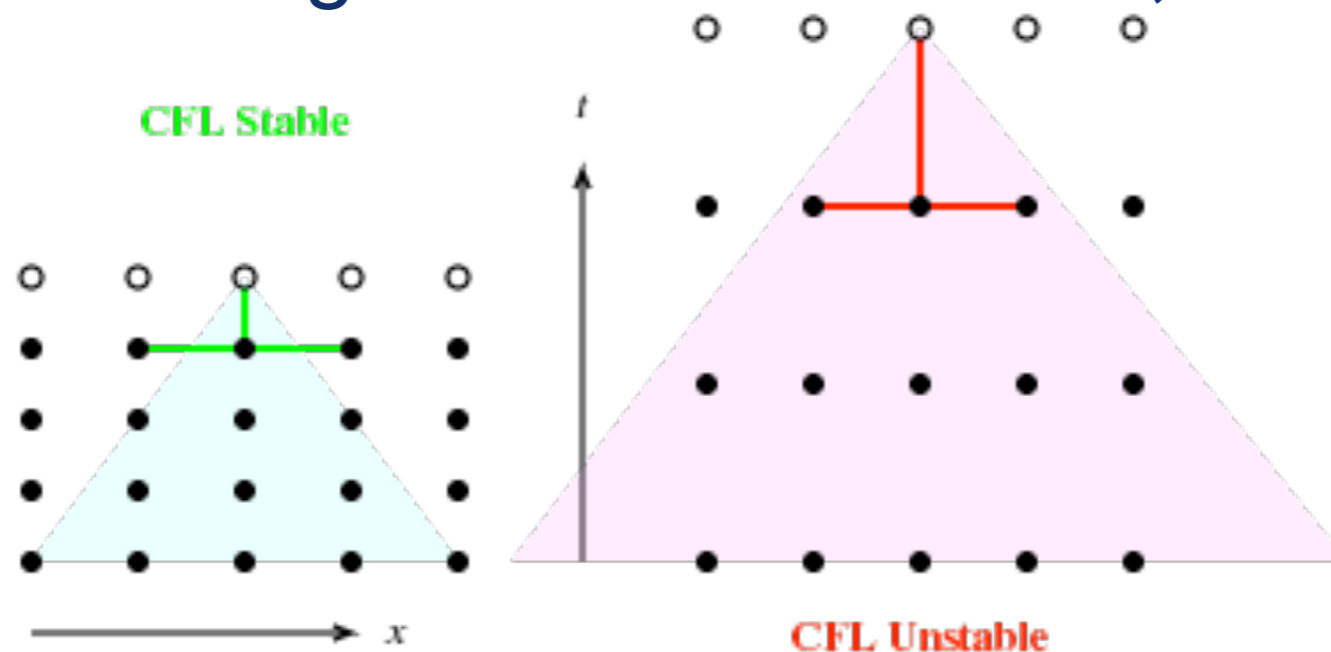


# Partial differential equations

- This is the Courant-Freidrichs-Lewy condition:

$$\frac{c\delta_t}{\delta_x} \leq 1 \quad (\text{CFL number})$$

- Consider the domain of dependency
- For any differencing scheme, the domain consists of the set of points in the “past cone”
- If the differencing domain is wider in x than the domain of dependency, then this is stable
- If the differencing domain is narrower, then unstable



# Partial differential equations

- Can also add terms of order  $\delta_t^2$  in the discretization
- Using  $\partial u / \partial t = -c \partial u / \partial x$  then we get:

$$u(x, t + \delta_t) = u(x, t) + \delta_t \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\delta_t^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} + \dots$$

$$\simeq u(x, t) - c \delta_t \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{c^2 \delta_t^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2},$$

$$u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n - \frac{c \delta_t}{2 \delta_x} (u_{j+1}^n - u_{j-1}^n) + \frac{c^2 \delta_t^2}{2 \delta_x^2} (u_{j+1}^n + u_{j-1}^n - 2u_j^n).$$

- This is the “Lax-Wendroff” method
- The stability is the same CFL condition as before in the Lax method
- Note that the added term is a discretized diffusive term

$$\frac{\partial n(x, t)}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 n(x, t)}{\partial x^2}, \quad n_i^{n+1} = n_i^n + \frac{D \delta_t}{\delta_x^2} (n_{i+1}^n + n_{i-1}^n - 2n_i^n).$$

- General feature : diffusive terms in recurrence formulae have damping effects on the amplitude

# Partial differential equations

- Can also consider nonlinear wave equations
  - Don't preserve shape in general
  - Linear wave equation has linear dispersion!
- Dispersion is the relation between wave number and frequency.

– Plane wave :  $u(x, t) \sim e^{i(kx - \omega t)} \Rightarrow (-i\omega - ick)(-i\omega + ick) = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow \omega = \pm ck .$

- Here, all the modes move with the same velocity  $c$
- Wave velocity is  $\omega / k$
- What if the velocity depends on the wave number?

– Example:  $\frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial t} = -c \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} - d \frac{\partial^3 u(x, t)}{\partial x^3} .$

– Plugging in  $e^{ikx - i\omega t}$  (plane wave), we get a dispersion:

$\omega = ck - dk^3 .$  Wave velocity depends on  $k$ !

# Partial differential equations

- Now let's go back to advection equation and add a diffusive term

$$\frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial t} = -c \frac{\partial u(x, t)}{\partial x} + D \frac{\partial^2 u(x, t)}{\partial x^2} ,$$

- From plane wave, we get the dispersion relation:

$$\omega = ck - iDk^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad e^{ik(x-ct) - Dk^2 t} ,$$

# Partial differential equations

- Some nonlinear equations can have traveling waves
- Example is Burgers' equation:
  - [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Burgers'\\_equation](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Burgers'_equation)

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -\alpha \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \beta u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x},$$

- The last term is nonlinear in the wave amplitude
- Can solve by calculating partial derivatives:

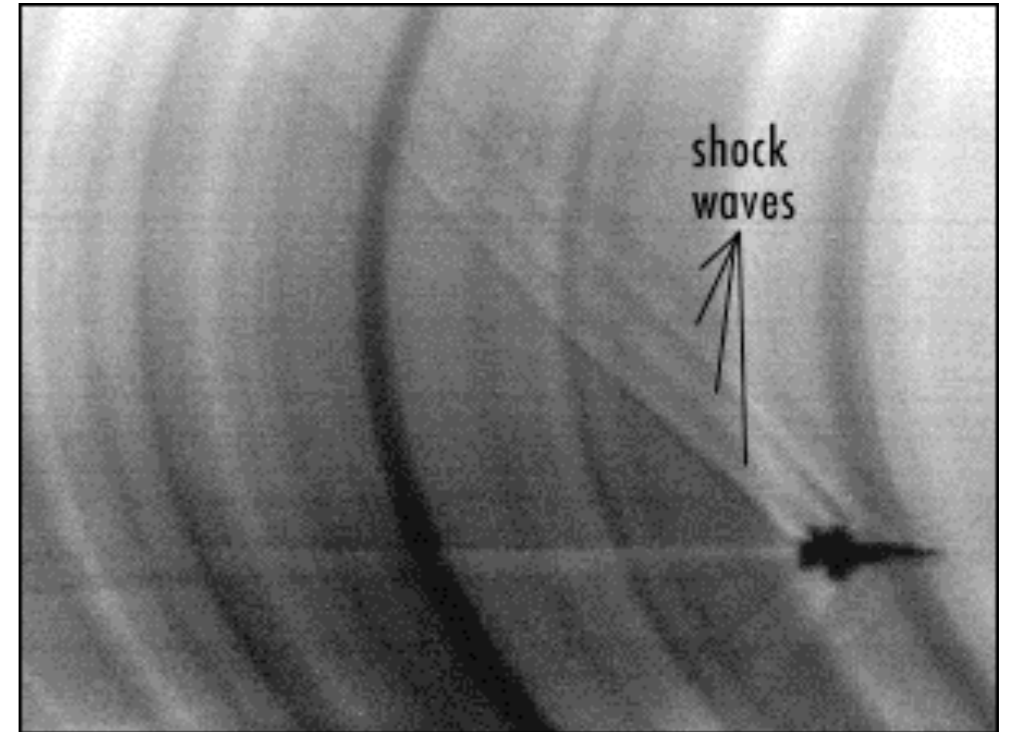
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -(\alpha + \beta u) f' - \beta f' t \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -(\alpha + \beta u) f' / (1 + \beta f' t),$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = f' - \beta f' t \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = f' / (1 + \beta f' t).$$

- This is solved if we have a right-moving wave with function  $u(x, t) = f(x - (\alpha + \beta u)t)$ ,
- This wave moves with velocity  $c = \alpha + \beta u(x, t)$

# Partial differential equations

- Here, the velocity depends on the density of the wave!
- This leads to breaking and shock fronts:





# Partial differential equations

- The Burgers' equation was introduced in 1948 as a simple model of shock propagation

J.M. Burgers, Adv. Appl. Mech. 1, 171 (1948)

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \nu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} ,$$

- First, set  $\nu = 0$  and we get

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0 .$$

- Compare to the linear wave equation:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0 ,$$

- Schematically the speed is equal to “u”!
- Peaks travel faster than troughs in the wave
- Eventually we get breaking, which we cannot represent as a function since it is multi-valued
- Passes through a shock front (solution is discontinuous)

# Partial differential equations

- This kind of PDE was studied by Godunov in 1959

S.K. Godunov, Mat. Sb. 47, 271 (1959)

- This is a class of “Riemann problem”
  - IVP for a PDE which has a piecewise constant initial value function, with a discontinuity (like a step function)
- Need to find an exact or approximate algorithm for this
  - called a “Riemann solver”

$$u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n - \frac{\tau}{h} \left[ F_{j+\frac{1}{2}} - F_{j-\frac{1}{2}} \right] + \frac{\nu\tau}{h^2} [u_{j+1} + u_{j-1} - 2u_j] ,$$

- Here,  $F_{j\pm\frac{1}{2}}$  is the average flux on the cells to the left and right of the lattice point  $j$ , respectively
- Solve these from Riemann problems in the cells to the right and left of  $j$  using “upwind” initial data:

$$u_j^{(+)} = \begin{cases} u_j & \text{if } u_j > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad u_j^{(-)} = \begin{cases} u_j & \text{if } u_j < 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



# Partial differential equations

- The solution in the left cell is :

$$F_{j-\frac{1}{2}} = \max \left\{ \frac{1}{2} (u_{j-1}^{(+)})^2, \frac{1}{2} (u_j^{(-)})^2 \right\} ,$$

- and on the right it is :

$$F_{j+\frac{1}{2}} = \max \left\{ \frac{1}{2} (u_j^{(+)})^2, \frac{1}{2} (u_{j+1}^{(-)})^2 \right\} .$$