

Finite Differences for Parabolic PDEs

A. DONEV, COURANT

Today we consider time-evolving $u(x,t)$ for linear parabolic PDEs

$$u_t = -\underbrace{\mathcal{L}u}_{\text{elliptic operator}} + f(x,t) + \text{BCs} + \text{ICs} \dots (*)$$

BCs are the same as for elliptic PDEs, e.g., Dirichlet or Neumann if \mathcal{L} is second order (∇^2) , on the whole boundary.

①

Parabolic PDEs are smoothing
(inherited from elliptic regularity)
and dissipative (all eigenvalues
of $-\mathcal{L}$ are real and non-positive,
since \mathcal{L} is an elliptic operator).

$$u(x, t \rightarrow \infty) \rightarrow u_{\text{ell}}(x)$$

where $u_{\text{ell}}(x)$ solves the
elliptic PDE, assuming $f = \text{const}$,

$$\mathcal{L} u_{\text{ell}} = f + \text{BCs} \dots (**)$$

i.e., the initial conditions are
forgotten / dissipated / erased.

(2)

Let a finite-difference (FD) discretization of the elliptic (***) be

$$\overleftrightarrow{A} \vec{u} = \vec{f} \quad (t = \text{const})$$

Then, the corresponding **method of lines (MOL)** discretization of the parabolic (*) is:

$$\frac{d\vec{u}}{dt} = -\overleftrightarrow{A} \vec{u} + \vec{f}(t), \quad \vec{u}(0) = \vec{u}_0$$

which is a simple system of linear ODEs! If $f=0$, then

$$u(t) = \exp(-At) \vec{u}_0$$

(3)

We are thus back to solving ODEs. But, the # of variables in the ODE is very large (e.g., 10^6 for 3D) and grows as the grid spacing h is reduced.

In the limit $h \rightarrow 0$, we get an infinite dimensional system of ODEs, which is troubling! This is what makes parabolic PDEs much more challenging than (low dimensional) systems of ODEs.

④

Let's focus for now on
(up to) second order accuracy.
We could try:

① Forward Euler (explicit)

$$u \frac{u^{n+1} - u^n}{\tau} = -A u^n + f(t^n)$$

$$\Rightarrow u^{n+1} = (\mathbf{I} - A\tau) u^n + \tau f(t^n)$$

Key advantage of this is
that method is explicit so no
linear systems need to be solved.

⑤

② **Implicit midpoint**, also called (in physics) **Crank-Nicolson**

$$\frac{u^{n+1} - u^n}{\tau} = -A \left(\frac{u^{n+1} + u^n}{2} \right) + f(t^{n+1/2})$$

$$\left(I + \frac{A\tau}{2} \right) u^{n+1} = \left(I - \frac{A\tau}{2} \right) u^n + f^{n+1/2}$$

which we need to solve every timestep

$$u^{n+1} = \left(I + \frac{A\tau}{2} \right)^{-1} \left[\left(I - \frac{A\tau}{2} \right) u^n + f^{n+1/2} \right]$$

⑥

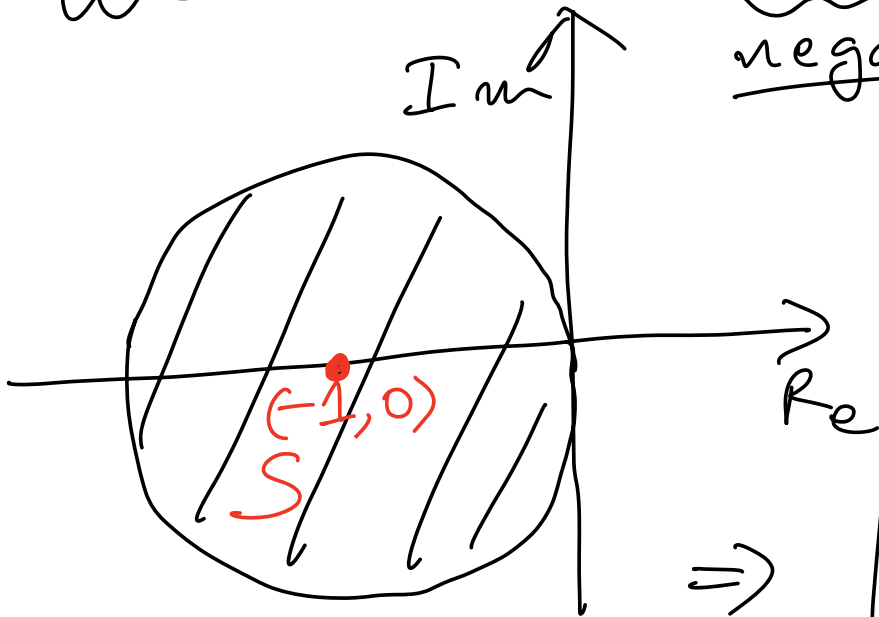
Stability

The key question is, how big can Δt be?

Euler

We want

$$\underbrace{-\lambda_p \bar{\tau}}_{\text{negative}} \in S \quad \forall p \Rightarrow$$



$$0 \leq \lambda_p \bar{\tau} < 2$$

for stability

$$\Rightarrow |\lambda_{\min} \bar{\tau}| < 2$$

(7)

For example, consider on $[0, 1]$:

$$u_t = k u_{xx} + f(x, t) + \text{Dirichlet BCs}$$

$$A = k \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & & & \\ & 1 & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_p = \frac{2k}{h^2} (\cos(p\pi h) - 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_{\min} = \lambda_{p=1} = \frac{1}{h} \approx -\frac{4k}{h^2}$$

Ⓟ

⇒

$$\frac{k \bar{\tau}}{h^2} = \nu \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

(stability)
condition

Courant - Friedrichs - Lewy (number)

CFL condition & number

Physics: In time $\bar{\tau}$, diffusion spreads the solution over an average or typical distance $\sqrt{k \bar{\tau}}$, and we want $\sqrt{k \bar{\tau}} \sim h$ for stability

⑨

For explicit methods, stability

requires

$$\Delta t \leq O(1) \frac{h^2}{k}$$

i.e.

$$\nu \leq O(1), \text{ where}$$

the $O(1)$ constant depends on the specific explicit temporal integrator used.

For forward Euler:

$$\nu \leq \frac{1}{2d} \text{ for stability}$$

← dimension

(10)

Aside: the physics of the CFL condition
$$v \leq \frac{1}{2d}$$
 where $d = \text{Dimension}$

The diffusion equation comes from random walks. Here is how. Imagine having many many "particles" / points jumping from one grid cell to one of the neighboring $2d$ cells (left / right, up / down in 2D). Imagine that a given cell / node has N particles at time t . Then, the number of particles

$$(N_1^+, N_1^-, N_2^+, N_2^-, \dots, N_d^+, N_d^-, N_0)$$

10.A

that jump from the given grid cell/node to one of the $2d$ neighboring cells/nodes, and the number N_0 that stay in the same cell after a time τ is given by the

multinomial distribution

with parameters

$$N = N_0 + \sum_{\alpha=1}^d (N_{\alpha}^{+} + N_{\alpha}^{-}),$$

$k = 2d + 1$, and

probabilities

$$\left(\underbrace{\nu, \nu, \dots, \nu}_{2d \text{ } \nu\text{'s}}, 1 - 2d\nu \right)$$

Since probabilities are positive,

$$1 - 2d\nu \geq 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\boxed{\nu \leq \frac{1}{2d}}$$

CFL condition

(10.B)

Another physical interpretation of the diffusive CFL limit (but not a derivation per se) is to ask that the mean square displacement ² of a diffusing particle should be $\leq h$:

$$\text{MSD} = \underbrace{2d k \bar{\tau}} \leq h^2$$

Einstein's formula

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\tau} \leq \frac{h^2}{2d k}$$

\Rightarrow

$$\boxed{\nu \leq \frac{1}{2d}}$$

as before

10.c

How about accuracy? Let's examine the truncation error:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}(x,t) &= \frac{u(x, t+\tau) - u(x, t)}{\tau} \\ &\quad - \frac{k}{h^2} \left[u(x-h, t) - 2u(x, t) + u(x+h, t) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \tau u_{tt} + O(\tau^2) \leftarrow \text{temporal discretization error} \\ &\quad - \frac{k h^2}{12} u_{xxxx} + O(h^4) \leftarrow \text{spatial discretization error} \end{aligned}$$

where we assumed $\tau = 0$

(11)

MOL error = spatial + temporal

$$u_t = k u_{xx} \Rightarrow$$

$$u_{tt} = k (u_{xx})_t = k (u_t)_{xx} \Rightarrow$$

$$u_{tt} = k^2 u_{xxxx} \Rightarrow$$

$$\text{LTE } \mathcal{E} = k \left(\frac{k\tau}{2} - \frac{h^2}{12} \right) u_{xxxx} + O(\tau^2, h^4)$$

$$\mathcal{E} = \left(\frac{\tau}{2} - \frac{1}{12} \right) kh^2 u_{xxxx} \dots (A)$$

(12)

Since $\nu \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for stability,
we see that for forward Euler,
 $\nu = 1/6$ makes the spatial and
temporal discretization/truncation
errors (approximately) equal
in magnitude

This is a good choice for ν !

$$\tau \sim \frac{h^2}{[4-6]k} \Rightarrow \text{LTE} \sim (ku_{xxxx}) h^2$$

(13)

$$\bar{\tau} = O(h^2) \Rightarrow LTE = O(h^2) \text{ for Euler}$$

so the method is second-order accurate in the grid spacing h !
Even though we used a first order temporal integrator, we (expect to) get 2nd order in space-time. Since $\bar{\tau} \sim h^2$, we say that the error is 2nd order under space-time refinement.
(or 2nd order in space-time) (14)

CRANK-NICOLSON (implicit)

We know that implicit midpoint is A-stable, so the method is unconditionally stable.

But of course τ cannot be arbitrarily large for accuracy.

For CN, we have

$$LTE = \underbrace{O(h^2)}_{\text{spatial}} + \underbrace{O(\tau^2)}_{\text{temporal}}$$

We want $|spatial| \approx |temporal|$

$$\tau = O(h) \Rightarrow \text{LTE} = O(h^2) \text{ for CN}$$

As $h \rightarrow 0$, $O(h^2) \ll O(h)$,
so CN can take a much
larger time step size than
Euler for fine grids (high
accuracy)! But, each time step
is more expensive because we
need to solve. Order of
accuracy is the same, so the
choice of method is dictated
by computational cost!

To compare computational cost, however, we need to estimate:

- ① The constant C in $\bar{\tau} = Ch/k$
- ② How expensive it is to solve the linear system in CN.

Let's start with the easier question #2, solving

$$\left(I + \frac{A\bar{\tau}}{2} \right) u^{n+1} = \left(I - \frac{A\bar{\tau}}{2} \right) u^n + f^{n+1/2}$$

What types of solvers might we use?

①⑦

What if we used an iterative solver like (P) CG?

Condition number:

$$\kappa_2 \left(I + \frac{\tau A}{2} \right) = \left| \frac{1 + \tau/2 \lambda_{\max}^{(A)}}{1 - \tau/2 \lambda_{\min}^{(A)}} \right|$$

$$\approx \frac{1 + \frac{8k\tau}{2h^2}}{1 + \frac{\pi^2 k\tau}{2L^2}} \approx 1 + 4\tau$$

$$1 + \frac{\pi^2 k\tau}{2L^2} \approx 1$$

↑
length of domain

(18)

$$k_2 \approx 1 + \frac{4k\tau}{h^2} = 1 + \frac{4C}{h}$$

As $h \rightarrow 0$, $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ for CN,
 so for small h we have

$$\boxed{k_2 \approx 4\nu} > 1$$

The number of iterations required to reach a certain tolerance in CG is $\sim \sqrt{K}$

$$\# \text{ iterations} \sim 2\sqrt{\nu} = 2\sqrt{\frac{k_2}{h^2}} = 2\sqrt{\frac{C}{h}} \quad (19)$$

Each iteration of CG costs the same as a step of forward Euler (roughly), so

CN step $\Leftrightarrow \sqrt{\frac{C}{h}}$ Euler steps

So we are back to question #1, how large can C be? This is a little bit of a tricky question. We will answer it using physical intuition instead of (tedious) math 😊 (20)

Let us denote the smallest relevant length scale in the specific physical problem of interest with $l < L$. This is problem specific and one must use physical understanding instead of trying to derive some sort of universal or a priori error estimate (this is again why PDEs are different / harder than ODEs!)

The time step size should resolve the dynamics at scale l , and the grid should resolve the scale l . So at the coarsest sensible grid,

$$h \sim \frac{l}{r}, \quad \tau = \frac{1}{r} \frac{l^2}{k}$$

where the resolution factor $r \sim [2-8]$ or so.

$$\bar{v} = \frac{Ch}{k} = \frac{c\cancel{k}}{r\cancel{k}} = \frac{c^2}{rk}$$

$$\Rightarrow c \approx l \quad \Rightarrow \boxed{\bar{v} \sim \frac{lh}{k}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{CN step} \approx \sqrt{\frac{l}{h}} \text{ Euler steps}$$

To reach time T , we need Euler steps

$$\frac{T}{\bar{v}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{6Tk}{h^2} \\ \frac{Tk}{lh} \end{array} \right. \text{ CN steps}$$

Total computational cost:

$$\frac{6Tk}{h^2} \cdot (\text{FD apply}) \text{ for Euler}$$

$$\frac{Tk}{lh} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{l}{h}} \cdot (\text{FD apply}) \text{ for CN}$$

$$\frac{\text{CPU}_{\text{Euler}}}{\text{CPU}_{\text{CN}}} = \frac{\frac{6Tk}{h^2}}{\frac{Tk}{h\sqrt{lh}}} = 6\sqrt{\frac{l}{h}} > 1$$

often $\gg 1$

So CN always beats Euler,

(24)

and really beats Euler if $h \ll \ell$ (well-resolved simulation).

Sometimes, however, our simulations may be under-resolved, and then $h \sim \ell$ and CN is not more efficient but is a lot more work to implement (e.g., linear solver + BCs is hard in 3D!). So both methods have their place. But most codes use CN.

Convergence of FD methods

For a linear PDE any one-step method will take the form

$$U^{n+1} = B(\bar{\tau}) U^n + b^n(\bar{\tau})$$

e.g.

$$B = \begin{cases} \left(I + \frac{\bar{\tau} A}{2} \right)^{-1} \left(I - \frac{\bar{\tau} A}{2} \right) & \text{CN} \\ \left(I - \bar{\tau} A \right) & \text{FE} \\ \left(I + \bar{\tau} A \right)^{-1} & \text{BE} \end{cases}$$

Def: A method is **Lax-Richtmyer stable** if

$\forall T > 0, \exists C_T > 0$ s.t.

$$\boxed{\|B^n(\bar{\tau})\| \leq C_T} \quad \forall n \leq \frac{T}{\bar{\tau}}$$
$$\forall \bar{\tau} > 0$$

A fundamental result (obtained at Courant) is the **Lax equivalence thm**:

A consistent method is convergent iff it is (Lax-Richtmyer) stable
consistency + stability (\Rightarrow) convergence

(27)

Proof sketch:

$$\text{Error } E^n = U^n - \hat{U}^n \quad \leftarrow \text{true solution}$$

$$E^{n+1} = B E^n - \tau * (LTE)^n$$

$$\Rightarrow \|E^N\| \leq TC_T \max_n \|(LTE)^n\|$$

So if $LTE = O(h^p) \Rightarrow$

$$\|E^N\| \leq TC_T \cdot O(h^p)$$

and the method is p -th order accurate

(28)

The weakest possible condition for L-R stability is

$$\|B(\tau)\| \leq 1 + \alpha \bar{\tau}$$

$$\Rightarrow \|B^n\| \leq (1 + \alpha T)^{T/\bar{\tau}} \leq e^{\alpha T} = C_T$$

But often we prefer methods that satisfy **strong stability**

$$\|B\| \leq 1$$

For example, absolutely stable methods are strongly stable.

But, interestingly, absolute stability is not required per se for convergence. We will see an example for hyperbolic eqs. with forward Euler soon.

Zero stability is not meaningful for PDEs, we seek instead absolute (strong) stability.

$\bar{\tau} \sim h^q$, eigenvalues of ODE depend on h , so not guaranteed that $\bar{\tau} \lambda_{\max} \rightarrow 0$ as $h \rightarrow 0$!
(30)

This is in contrast with
ODEs, where $\tau \lambda_{\max} \rightarrow 0$ as $\tau \rightarrow 0$,
so one-step methods always converge.

Furthermore, there are very few
cases where convergence can be
proven / guaranteed for nonlinear
PDEs, but this can be done for
general (low-dimensional) ODEs.

von Neumann stability analysis

As a first step when analyzing FD methods, we consider periodic BCs and use a Fourier transform, to obtain the trivial ODEs:

$$\frac{d \hat{U}_k}{dt} = - \lambda_k \hat{U}_k + f_k(t)$$

Symbol of FD
elliptic operator

Any scheme will give ($\tau=0$):

$$\hat{U}_k^{n+1} = g(k; \tau) \hat{U}_k^n, \quad k \in [0, \frac{\pi}{h})$$

amplification factor

L.-R. stability requires

$$|g(k; \tau)| \leq 1 + \alpha \tau$$

which is a very general result that is not limited to MOL methods or to parabolic PDEs (e.g., it applies to space-time methods for hyperbolic PDEs)

For example, for $u_t = K u_{xx}$
 in 1D we get

$$\hat{L}_k = \frac{1}{h^2} (e^{ikh} - 2 + e^{-ikh})$$

$$= \frac{2}{h^2} (\cos(kh) - 1), \quad |k| < \frac{\pi}{h}$$

$$|g_k| = |1 + \tau \hat{L}_k| \leq 1 \quad \text{for strong stability}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| 1 - \frac{4K\tau}{h^2} \right| \leq 1 \Rightarrow \tau \leq \frac{h^2}{2K}$$

At home: Find stability limit
 on τ in 2D for 5 pt Laplacian