Introduction to PDEs

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Basic notions and notations

- A partial differential equation (PDE) is an equation that
 - Has an unknown function depending on at least two variables
 - Contains some partial derivatives of the unknown function
- The following notation will be used in this talk:
- t,x,y,z are independent variables including time and space coordinates.
- u=u(t,x,...) are dependent variables (unknown functions) whose partial derivatives are denoted

$$u_t = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}$$
 $u_{tt} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$ $u_{xy} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y}$

Methods and techniques for solving PDEs

- Separation of variables
- Integral transforms
- Change of coordinates
- Transformation of the dependent variable
- Numerical Methods. A PDE is changed into a system of difference equations that can be solved by iterative techniques (Finite Difference Methods). Solutions can also be approximated using polynomial functions (e.g. Finite Element Methods).
- Perturbation Methods
- Impulse-response technique
- Integral equations
- Variational methods
- Eigenfunction expansion

Well-posed and ill-posed problems

- An initial-boundary-value problem is well-posed if:
 - a solution exists
 - the solution is unique
 - the solution depends continuously on the data (boundary and/or initial conditions). Small changes in the data should cause only small changes in the solution.
- Problems which do not fulfill these criteria are illposed.
- Well posed problems have a good chance of being solved numerically by a stable algorithm.
 - Unavoidable small errors in initial and boundary data produce only slight errors in the computed solution leading to useful results.

• Order of the PDE. The order of a PDE is the order of the highest partial derivative in the equation.

– First order:
$$u_t = u_x$$

- Second order: $u_t = u_{xx}$ $u_{xy} = 0$
- Third order: $u_t + u u_{xxx} = sin(x)$
- Fourth order: $u_{tt} = u_{xxxx}$

- Order of the PDE. The order of a PDE is the order of the highest partial derivative in the equation.
- Number of variables. PDEs may be classified by the number of their independent variables, that is, the number of variables the unknown function depends on.
 - PDE in two variables: $u_t = u_{xx}$ (u = u(t, x))
 - PDE in three variables: $u_t = u_{rr} + \frac{1}{r}u_r + \frac{1}{r^2}u_{\theta\theta}$ $(u = u(t, r, \theta))$
 - PDE in four variables: $u_t = u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz}$ (u = u(t, x, y, z))

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- Linearity. A PDE is linear if the dependent variable and all its derivatives appear in a linear fashion.

- linear:
$$u_{tt} + exp(-t)u_{xx} = sin(t)$$
 $xu_{xx} + yu_{yy} = 0$

- nonlinear: $uu_{xx} + u_t = 0$ $u_x + u_y + u^2 = 0$

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- Linearity. A PDE is linear if the dependent variable and all its derivatives appear in a linear fashion.
- Coefficients. PDEs can contain constant or variable coefficients (i.e. if at least one of the coefficients is a function of some independent variable)
 - constant coefficients:

$$u_{tt} + 5u_{xx} - 3u_{xy} = 0$$

- variable coefficients: $u_t + exp(-t)u_{xx} = 0$

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- Linearity. A PDE is linear if the dependent variable and all its derivatives appear in a linear fashion.
- Coefficients. PDEs can contain constant or variable coefficients (i.e. if at least one of the coefficients is a function of some independent variable)
- Homogeneity. A PDE is homogenous if the free term (right-hand side) is zero.

(homogenous) $u_{tt} - u_{xx} = 0$ (non-homogenous) $u_{tt} - u_{xx} = x^2 sin(t)$

Types of second-order linear PDEs

 A second-order linear PDE in two variables can be written in the following general form:

$$Au_{xx} + Bu_{xy} + Cu_{yy} + Du_x + Eu_y + Fu = G$$

where A,B,C,D,E,F are coefficients and G is a non-homogenous term.

- These PDEs are classified into three types whose mathematical solutions are quite different:
 - Hyperbolic: $B^2 4AC > 0 \ (e.g. \ u_{tt} u_{xx} = 0)$
 - Parabolic: $B^2 4AC = 0 \ (e.g. \ u_t u_{xx} = 0)$
 - Elliptic: $B^2 4AC < 0 \ (e.g. \ u_{xx} u_{yy} = 0)$

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- These PDEs are classified into three types whose mathematical solutions are quite different.
- The three major classifications of linear PDEs describe physical problems into three basic types:
 - Vibrating systems and wave propagation (hyperbolic)
 - Heat flow and diffusion processes (parabolic)
 - Stead-state phenomena (elliptic)

Some Basic PDEs

The heat equation (parabolic)

$$u_t = c u_{xx}$$

The wave equation (hyperbolic)

$$u_{tt} = c^2 u_{xx}$$

The Poisson equation (elliptic)

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

Solving PDEs: Recipe List

- A PDE
- Solution domain (regular, irregular)
- Boundary conditions
 - Dirichlet B.C. Specify u(x,y,...) on boundaries
 - Neumann B.C. Specify normal gradient of u(x,y,...) on boundaries.
- Initial values
- Stable and convergent numerical algorithm

Numerical Derivatives: Finite Differences

Introduce finite difference





Heat Equation Recipe

- The PDE: $u_t = c u_{xx}$
- The domain: 1-d rod
- Boundary conditions (dirichlet) and initial values.
- Numerical algorithm (tbd)



Heat Equation: Explicit Method

 Use forward difference for time derivative and second-order central difference for space derivative:

i+1,n



- Iterate equation: $u_j^{n+1} = (1-2r)u_j^n + ru_{j-1}^n + ru_{j+1}^n$ where $r = k/h^2$.
 - Knowing values at time step n allows you to compute values at time step n+1
- This method is numerically stable and convergent when $r \le 1/2$ with numerical errors proportional to $\Delta u = O(k) + O(h^2)$

Heat Equation: Implicit Method

 Use backward difference at time n+1 and a secondorder central difference for space derivative:



- Solve linear eqs: $(1+2r)u_j^{n+1} ru_{j-1}^{n+1} ru_{j+1}^{n+1} = u_j^n$ where $r = k/h^2$.
 - Solving linear system of equations at each step is more numerically intensive than explicit methods.
- This method is <u>always</u> numerically stable and convergent with numerical errors proportional to $\Delta u = O(k) + O(h^2)$

Heat Equation: Crank-Nicolson Method

 Use central difference at time n+1 and a secondorder central difference for space derivative:

 $\frac{u_{j}^{n+1} - u_{j}^{n}}{k} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{u_{j+1}^{n+1} - 2u_{j}^{n+1} + u_{j-1}^{n+1}}{h^{2}} + \frac{u_{j+1}^{n} - 2u_{j}^{n} + u_{j-1}^{n}}{h^{2}} \right).$

- Solve linear eqs: $(2+2r)u_j^{n+1} ru_{j-1}^{n+1} ru_{j+1}^{n+1} = (2-2r)u_j^n + ru_{j-1}^n + ru_{j+1}^n$ where $r = k/h^2$.
 - Solving linear system of equations at each step is more numerically intensive than explicit methods but more accurate.
- This method is <u>always</u> numerically stable and convergent with numerical errors proportional to

$$\Delta u = O(k^2) + O(h^2).$$

Heat Equation: Example Solution



Numerical Derivatives: Spectral Methods

In space

$$\hat{u}(x) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} u_k e^{ikx}$$

In time

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$$\hat{u}(x,t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} u_k(t) e^{ikx}$$

$$\frac{\partial^n u}{\partial x^n} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} (ik)^n \hat{u}(x)$$

$$\frac{\partial^n u}{\partial t^n} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d^n u_k}{dt^n} e^{ikx}$$

n	(ik)^n	Feature
1	ik	Propagation (no dispersion)
2	- k^2	Decay
3	- ik^3	Propagation (dispersion)
4	k^4	Growth

Poisson: Spectral Method

Apply the fourier transform to both sides of the equation

$$abla^2 u = f(x, y) - (k_x^2 + k_y^2)\hat{u}(x, y) = \hat{f}(x, y)$$

- Take the inverse Fourier transform of $\hat{u}(x,y) = rac{\hat{f}(x,y)}{-(k_x^2+k_y^2)}$



Sample solution for:

$$f(x,y) = \sin(\pi x) + \sin(\pi y)$$

Reaction Diffusion Equations: Laplacian

$$\partial_t \mathbf{w} = F(\mathbf{w}) = D\nabla^2 \mathbf{w} + g(\mathbf{w})$$

Finite Difference 5-point

 fast

$$\nabla^2 V_{i,j} \approx \frac{1}{dx^2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Finite Difference 9-point

 preserves symmetry
 ¹

Spectral

$$\nabla^2 V_{i,j} \approx \frac{1}{dx^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1/6 & 2/3 & 1/6 \\ 2/3 & -10/3 & 2/3 \\ 1/6 & 2/3 & 1/6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\nabla^2 V = FFT^{-1}(-(k_x^2 + k_y^2)\hat{V})$$

Reaction Diffusion Equations: Time Integration

$$\partial_t \mathbf{w} = F(\mathbf{w}) = D\nabla^2 \mathbf{w} + g(\mathbf{w})$$

- Lots of time integrators available to solve the PDE
- One family of integrators involve Runge-Kutta (1,2,4) methods
 - For example the Euler (RK1):

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \Delta t F(\mathbf{w})$$

 RK 2,4 are multi-step and therefore more computationally expensive but more accurate.

Reaction Diffusion Equation: Putting it all together

- The PDE (choose your cardiac cell model)
- Solution domain: regular, irregular (phase field)
- Boundary conditions are Neumann: no flux or periodic

Initial values

Stable and convergent numerical algorithm. Your pick!

Questions?



EXTRA: Crank-Nicolson

• Consider the PDE:
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = F\left(u, x, t, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}\right)$$

 The CN method is a combination of the forward Euler method at time step n and backward Euler method at step n+1:

$$\frac{u_i^{n+1} - u_i^n}{\Delta t} = F_i^n \left(u, x, t, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right) \qquad \text{(forward Euler)}$$

$$\frac{u_i^{n+1} - u_i^n}{\Delta t} = F_i^{n+1} \left(u, x, t, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right) \qquad \text{(backward Euler)}$$

$$u_i^{n+1} - u_i^n = F_i^{n+1} \left(u, x, t, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right) \qquad \text{(backward Euler)}$$

 $\frac{u_i^{n+1} - u_i^n}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2} \left[F_i^{n+1} \left(u, x, t, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right) + F_i^n \left(u, x, t, \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right) \right]$ (Crank–Nicolson).