Basic Discretization Methods in Astrophysical Fluid Dynamics

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- **1.** Fundamental Equations and Motivations;
- **2.** Discretization Methods for Hyperbolic PDE:
 - *a.* Finite difference and finite volume methods
 - b. Scalar advection equation
 - c. Systems of linear equations
 - d. Nonlinear equation
 - *e.* Extension to the Euler equations and MHD
 - *f.* High-order spatial and temporal accuracy;

1. INTRODUCTION

Plasma Description

> Most theoretical models are based on a fluid description (L » λ_{mfp}) requiring the solution of highly nonlinear hyperbolic / parabolic P.D.E.,

e.g.

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho v) = 0$$
Euler equations

$$\frac{\partial (\rho v)}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho v v^{T}) + \nabla p = \rho a + \nabla \cdot \Pi$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [(E + p) v] = \rho v \cdot a + \nabla \cdot (v \cdot \Pi) + \nabla \cdot F_{c}$$

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [\rho v v^{T} - BB^{T}] + \nabla \left(p + \frac{B^{2}}{2}\right) = \rho a + \nabla \cdot \Pi$$

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} - \nabla \times (v \times B) = -\nabla \times (\eta J)$$

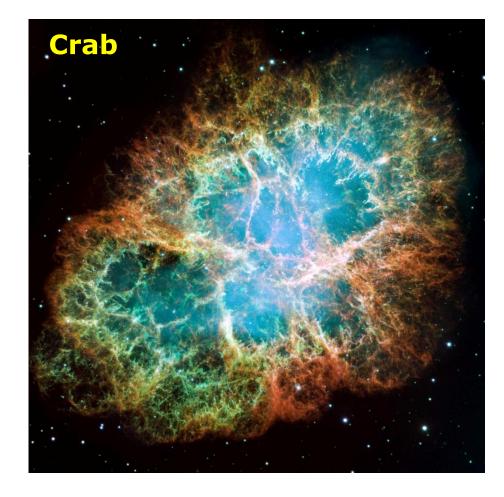
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [(E + p_{T}) v - (B \cdot v) B] = \rho v \cdot a - \nabla \cdot (\eta J \times B) + \nabla \cdot (v \cdot \Pi) + \nabla \cdot F_{c}$$

Why Numerical Simulations ?

- Exact solutions possible under very restrictive assumptions, e.g. stationarity (∂/∂t = 0), self-similarity, spherically symmetry or similar.
- Nonlinear, time-dependent systems can be studied only by means of numerical simulations.
- Grid-Based fluid approach via Finite Volume/Difference:
 - Fluid variables are discretized on a spatial grid (static or adaptive) and evolved in time.
 - Numerical solution of hyperbolic PDE in presence of discontinuous waves
 - Shock-Capturing (or Godunov-type) schemes.

Problem:

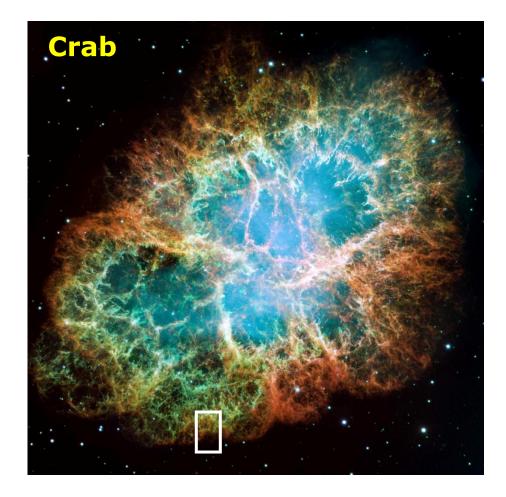
Supernova remnants morphology & Rayleigh Taylor Instability



Problem:

Supernova remnants morphology & Rayleigh Taylor Instability

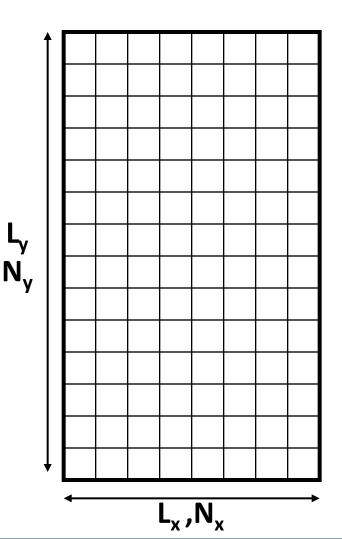
Choose computational domain



Problem:

Supernova remnants morphology & Rayleigh Taylor Instability

- Choose computational domain
- Set the number of zones

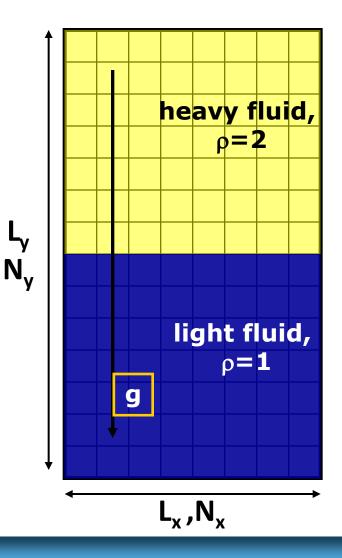


Problem:

Supernova remnants morphology & Rayleigh Taylor Instability

- Choose computational domain
- Set the number of zones
- Set initial conditions:

$$\rho = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{for } y > 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } y < 0 \end{cases} \quad p = \frac{1}{\gamma} - \rho g y, \quad v_x = 0, \quad v_y = \epsilon R \left[1 + \cos\left(\frac{2\pi y}{L_y}\right) \right]$$



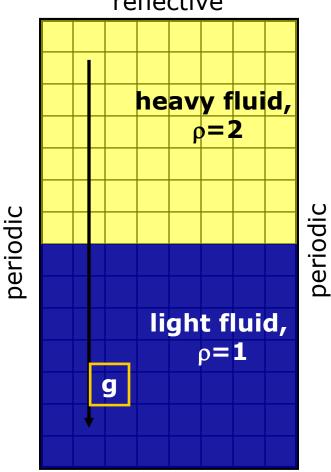
Problem:

Supernova remnants morphology & **Rayleigh Taylor Instability**

- Choose computational domain
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$$p = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{for } y > 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } y < 0 \end{cases} \quad p = \frac{1}{\gamma} - \rho gy, \quad v_x = 0, \quad v_y = \epsilon R \left[1 + \cos\left(\frac{2\pi y}{L_y}\right) \right] \end{cases}$$

Set boundary conditions



reflective

reflective

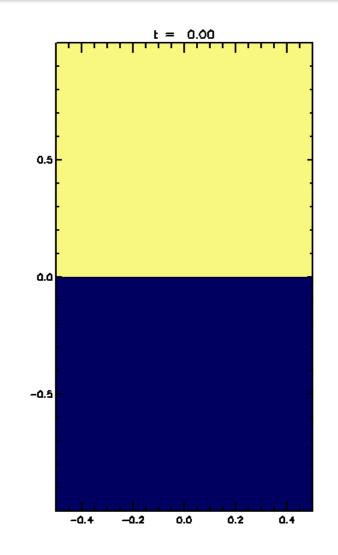
Problem:

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- Choose computational domain
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- Set boundary conditions
- Set final integration time & Run!



2a. BASIC DISCRETIZATION METHODS FOR HYPERBOLIC PDE

FINITE DIFFERENCE AND FINITE VOLUME METHODS

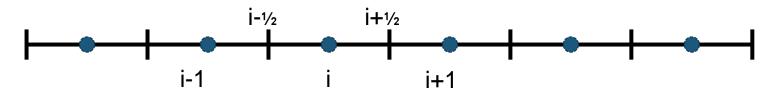
Numerical Discretizations

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + a \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} = 0$$

- Two popular methods for performing discretization:
 - Finite Differences (FD);
 - Finite Volume (FV);
- For some problems, the resulting discretizations look identical, but they are distinct approaches;
- We begin using finite-difference as it will allow to quickly learn some important concepts.

Finite Difference Approach

A finite-difference method stores the solution at specific points in space and time;



Associated with each grid point is a function value,

 $q_i^n = q(x_i, t^n)$

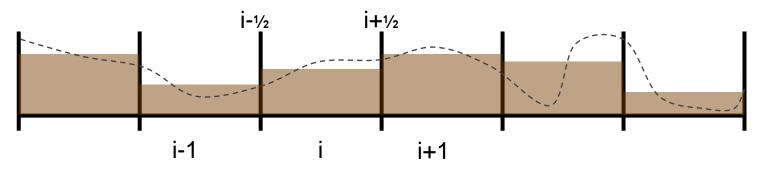
We replace the derivatives in our PDE with differences between neighbor points

Finite Volume Approach

In a finite volume discretization, the unknowns are the spatial averages of the function itself:

$$\langle \boldsymbol{q} \rangle_i = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \int_{x_{i-\frac{1}{2}}}^{x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}} \boldsymbol{q}(x,t) \, dx$$

where $x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}$ and $x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}$ denote the location of the cell interfaces.



The solution to the conservation law involves computing fluxes through the boundary of the control volumes

Finite Volume Formulation

The conservative form of the equations provides the link between the differential form of the equation,

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{q}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{F}}{\partial x} = 0$$

and the *integral* form, obtained by integrating the equations over a time interval $\Delta t = t^{n+1} - t^n$ and cell size $\Delta x = x_{i+1/2} - x_{i-1/2}$

$$\int_{t^n}^{t^{n+1}} \int_{x_{i-\frac{1}{2}}}^{x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}} \left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{q}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{F}}{\partial x}\right) dt \, dx$$

Finite Volume Formulation

Performing the spatial integration yields

$$\int_{t^n}^{t^{n+1}} \left[\Delta x \frac{d}{dt} \langle \boldsymbol{q} \rangle_i + \left(\boldsymbol{F}_{i+\frac{1}{2}} - \boldsymbol{F}_{i-\frac{1}{2}} \right) \right] dt = 0$$

with $\langle \boldsymbol{q} \rangle_i = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \int_{x_{i-\frac{1}{2}}}^{x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}} \boldsymbol{q}(x,t) dx$ being a spatial average.

A second integration in time gives

$$\Delta x \left(\left\langle \boldsymbol{q} \right\rangle_{i}^{n+1} - \left\langle \boldsymbol{q} \right\rangle_{i}^{n} \right) + \Delta t \left(\tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i+\frac{1}{2}}^{n} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i-\frac{1}{2}}^{n} \right) = 0$$

where $\tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i\pm\frac{1}{2}}^{n} = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{t^{n}}^{t^{n+1}} \boldsymbol{F}\left(\boldsymbol{q}(x_{i\pm\frac{1}{2}},t)\right) dt$ is a temporal average

Finite Volume Formulation

Rearranging terms yields

$$\langle \boldsymbol{q} \rangle_{i}^{n+1} = \langle \boldsymbol{q} \rangle_{i}^{n} - \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} \left(\tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i+\frac{1}{2}}^{n} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i-\frac{1}{2}}^{n} \right)$$
Integral form

with spatial and temporal averages given by

$$\langle \boldsymbol{q} \rangle_{i} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \int_{x_{i-\frac{1}{2}}}^{x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}} \boldsymbol{q}(x,t) \, dx \qquad \tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i\pm\frac{1}{2}}^{n} = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{t^{n}}^{t^{n+1}} \boldsymbol{F}\left(\boldsymbol{q}(x_{i\pm\frac{1}{2}},t)\right) \, dt$$

> This is an <u>EXACT</u> evolutionary equation for the spatial averages of q.

- This relation provides an *integral* representation of the original differential equation.
- > The integral form does not make use of partial derivatives!

The Riemann Problem

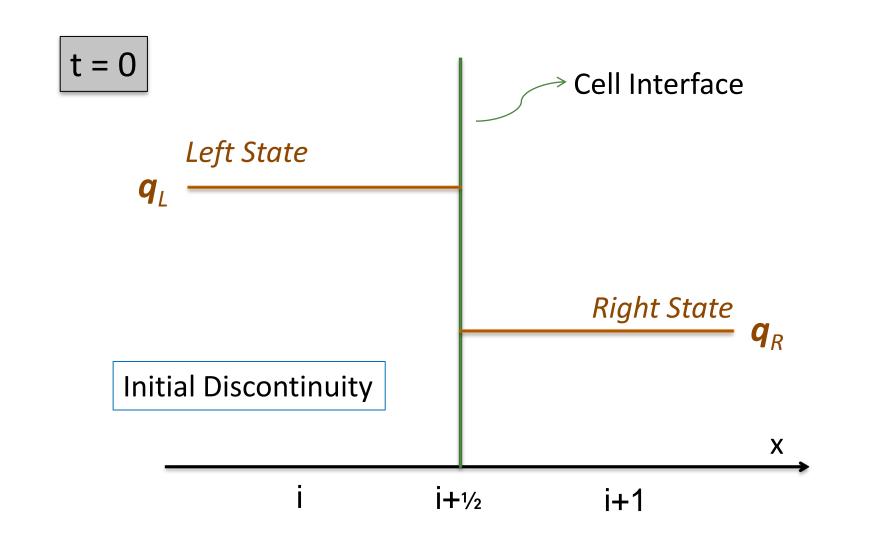
- > The previous relations are exact.
- However, since the solution is known only at tⁿ, some kind of approximation is required in order to evaluate the flux through the boundary:

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i\pm\frac{1}{2}}^{n} = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{t^{n}}^{t^{n+1}} \boldsymbol{F}\left(\boldsymbol{q}(x_{i\pm\frac{1}{2}},t)\right) dt$$

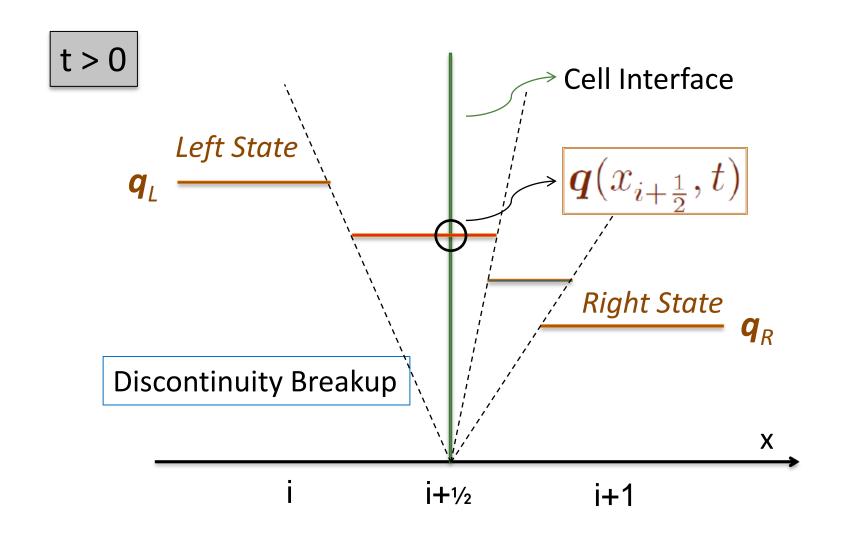
This achieved by solving the so-called "*Riemann Problem*", i.e., the evolution of an inital discontinuity separating two <u>constant</u> states. The Riemann problem is defined by the initial condition:

$$\boldsymbol{q}(x,0) = \begin{cases} \boldsymbol{q}_L & \text{for} \quad x < x_{i+\frac{1}{2}} \\ \boldsymbol{q}_R & \text{for} \quad x > x_{i+\frac{1}{2}} \end{cases} \implies \boldsymbol{q}(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}},t) = ??$$

The Riemann Problem



The Riemann Problem



2b. BASIC DISCRETIZATION METHODS FOR HYPERBOLIC PDE

THE LINEAR SCALAR ADVECTION EQUATION

The Advection Equation: Theory

First order partial differential equation (PDE) in (x,t):

$$\frac{\partial q(x,t)}{\partial t} + a \frac{\partial q(x,t)}{\partial x} = 0$$

➤ Hyperbolic PDE: information propagates across domain at finite speed → method of characteristics

Characteristic curves are the solutions of the equation

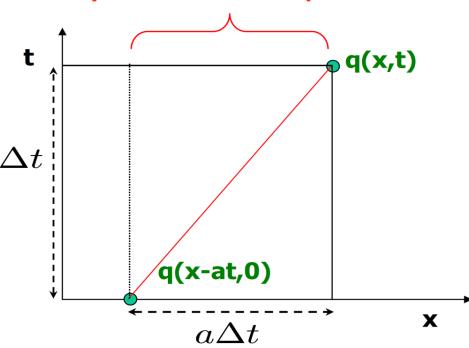
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = a$$

So that, along each characteristic, the solution satisfies

$$\frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + \frac{dx}{dt}\frac{\partial q}{\partial x} = 0$$

The Advection Equation: Theory

The solution is constant along the characteristic curves. At any point (x,t) we trace the characteristic back to the initial position.



Physical domain of dependence

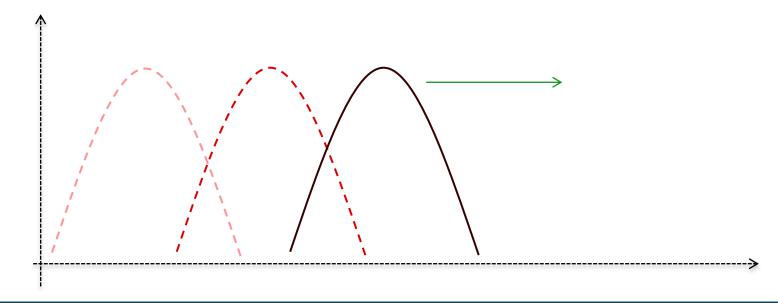
This defines the physical domain of dependence.

The Advection Equation: Theory

For constant a: the characteristics are straight parallel lines and the solution to the PDE is a uniform shift of the initial profile:

$$q(x,t) = \phi(x-at)$$

 \blacktriangleright Here $\phi(x) = q(x, 0)$ is the initial condition



Discretization: the FTCS Scheme

> We need to approximate the derivatives in our PDE

$$\frac{\partial q(x,t)}{\partial t} + a \frac{\partial q(x,t)}{\partial x} = 0$$

In time, use forward derivative, since we want to use information from the previous time level:

$$\frac{\partial q(x,t)}{\partial t} \approx \frac{q_i^{n+1} - q_i^n}{\Delta t} + O(\Delta t)$$

> In space, we use centered derivatives, since it is more accurate:

$$\frac{\partial q(x,t)}{\partial x} \approx \frac{q_{i+1}^n - q_{i-1}^n}{2\Delta x} + O(\Delta x^2)$$

The FTCS Scheme

> Putting all together: $\frac{q_i^{n+1} - q_i^n}{\Delta t} + a\left(\frac{q_{i+1}^n - q_{i-1}^n}{2\Delta x}\right) = 0$

 \succ and solving with respect to q_i^{n+1} gives

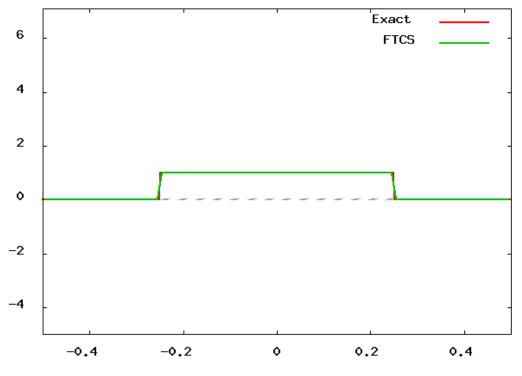
$$q_i^{n+1} = q_i^n - \frac{C}{2} \left(q_{i+1}^n - q_{i-1}^n \right)$$

where $C = a \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x}$ is the Courant-Friedrichs-Lewy (CFL) number.

➤ We call this method *FTCS* for forward in time, centered in space.
 ➤ The value at the new time level depends only on quantities at the previous time steps → *explicit* method.

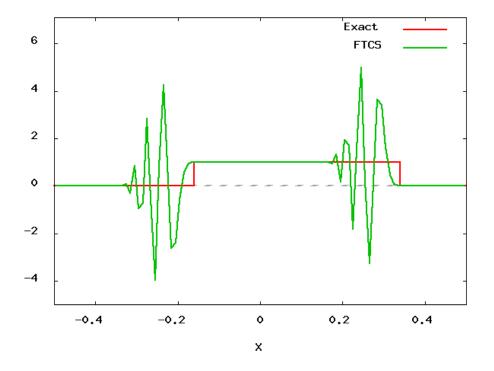
The FTCS Scheme

At t=0, the <u>initial condition</u> is a square pulse with periodic boundary conditions:



The FTCS Scheme

> After some time, the solution looks like this:



Something isn't right... why ?

von Neumann Stability Analysis

- Let's perform an analysis of FTCS by expressing the solution as a Fourier series.
- Since the equation is linear, we only examine the behavior of a single mode. Consider a trial solution of the form

$$q_i^n = A^n e^{Ii\theta} \,, \quad \theta = k\Delta x$$

This is a spatial Fourier expansion. Plugging in the difference formula:

$$q_i^{n+1} = q_i^n - \frac{C}{2} \left(q_{i+1}^n - q_{i-1}^n \right) \implies A^{n+1} = A^n - \frac{C}{2} A^n \left(e^{I\theta} - e^{-I\theta} \right)$$

von Neumann Stability Analysis

> Defining the amplification factor $\frac{A^{n+1}}{A^n}$ one obtains

$$\frac{A^{n+1}}{A^n} = 1 - \frac{C}{2} \left(e^{I\theta} - e^{-I\theta} \right) = 1 - IC \sin\theta$$

> a method is well-behaved or <u>stable</u> when

$$\left|\frac{A^{n+1}}{A^n}\right| \le 1$$

however, for FTCS, one gets

$$\left|\frac{A^{n+1}}{A^n}\right|^2 = 1 + C^2 \sin^2 \theta \ge 1$$

- Indipendently of the CFL number, all Fourier modes increase in magnitude as time advances
- This method is <u>unconditionally unstable</u>!

Forward in Time, Backward in Space

Let's try a difference approach. Consider the backward formula for the spatial derivative:

$$\frac{\partial q(x,t)}{\partial x} \approx \frac{q_i^n - q_{i-1}^n}{\Delta x} + O(\Delta x)$$

Apply von Neumann stability analysis on the resulting discretized equation:

$$\frac{q_i^{n+1} - q_i^n}{\Delta t} + a\left(\frac{q_i^n - q_{i-1}^n}{\Delta x}\right) = 0$$

Solving for the amplification factor gives

$$\left|\frac{A^{n+1}}{A^n}\right|^2 = 1 - 2C(1-C)(1-\cos\theta)$$

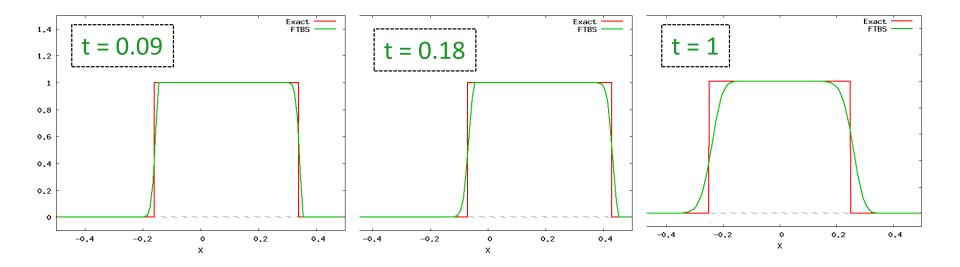
Forward in Time, Backward in Space

The method is <u>stable</u> when

$$\left|\frac{A^{n+1}}{A^n}\right| \le 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 2C(1-C) \ge 0$$

for a < 0 the method is <u>unstable</u>, but
for a > 0 the method is <u>stable</u> when

$$0 \le a \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} \le 1$$



Forward in Time, Forward in Space

> Repeating the same argument for the forward derivative

$$\frac{q_i^{n+1} - q_i^n}{\Delta t} + a\left(\frac{q_{i+1}^n - q_i^n}{\Delta x}\right) = 0$$

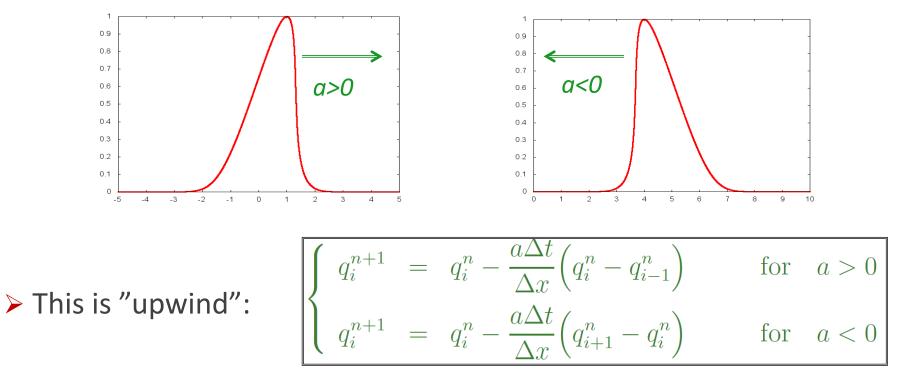
> Gives
$$\left|\frac{A^{n+1}}{A^n}\right|^2 = 1 + 2C(1+C)(1-\cos\theta)$$

 \succ If a > 0 the method will always be <u>unstable</u>

> However, if
$$-1 \le a \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} \le 0$$
, then this method is stable;

The 1st Order Godunov Method

Summarizing: the stable discretization makes use of the grid point where information is coming from:



This is also called the first-order Godunov method;

Conservative Form

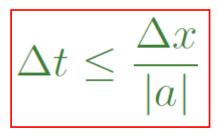
> We define the "flux" function $F_{i+\frac{1}{2}}^n = \frac{a}{2} \left(q_{i+1}^n + q_i^n \right) - \frac{|a|}{2} \left(q_{i+1}^n - q_i^n \right)$ so that Godunov method can be cast in *conservative* form

$$\begin{aligned} q_i^{n+1} &= q_i^n - \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} \left(F_{i+\frac{1}{2}}^n - F_{i-\frac{1}{2}}^n \right) \\ \hline \\ q_i^{n+1} &= q_i^n - \frac{a\Delta t}{\Delta x} \left(q_i^n - q_{i-1}^n \right) \\ \hline \\ q_i^{n+1} &= q_i^n - \frac{a\Delta t}{\Delta x} \left(q_i^n - q_{i-1}^n \right) \end{aligned}$$

The conservative form ensures a correct description of <u>discontinuities</u> in nonlinear systems, ensures global conservation properties and is the main building block in the development of high-order finite volume schemes.

The CFL Condition

➤ Since the advection speed a is a parameter of the equation, Δx is fixed from the grid, the previous inequality is a stability constraint on the time step



- ➤ Δt cannot be arbitrarily large but, rather, less than the time taken to travel one grid cell (CFL) condition.
- In the case of nonlinear equations, the speed can vary in the domain and the maximum of a should be considered instead.

Code Example

- File name: advection.c
- Purpose: solve the linear advection equation using the 1st-order Godunov method.

► Usage:

- > gcc -O advection.c -o advection
- > ./advection
- <u>Output</u>: two-column ascii data file.

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adve	ction.c	
1	<pre>#include <stdio.h></stdio.h></pre>	
2	<pre>#include <stdarg.h></stdarg.h></pre>	
3	<pre>#include <string.h></string.h></pre>	
4	<pre>#include <math.h></math.h></pre>	
5	<pre>#include <stdlib.h></stdlib.h></pre>	
6		
7	<pre>double Initial_Condition (double x);</pre>	
8	<pre>void Integrate (double *u0, double *u1, double dtdx, int ibeg, int iend);</pre>	
9		
10	#define PI 3.14159265358979	
11	#define NGHOST 2	
12	#define NX 100	
13	#define a 1.0	
14	<pre>#define FTCS 1 /* forward in time, centered in space */</pre>	
15	<pre>#define UPWIND 2 /* choose depending on the sign of a */</pre>	
16		
17		
18		
19	#define METHOD UPWIND /* either UPWIND or FTCS */	
20		
21	/* ************************************	
22	int main()	
	₽/*	
24	*	
25	* Solve the linear advection equation with a first-order	
26	* method.	
27	*	
28 29	* Last Modified 14 Nov 2011 by A. Mignone (mignone@ph.unito.it)	

2c. BASIC DISCRETIZATION METHODS FOR HYPERBOLIC PDE:

SYSTEM OF LINEAR EQUATIONS

> We turn our attention to the system of equations (PDE)

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{q}}{\partial t} + A \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{q}}{\partial x} = 0$$

where $\mathbf{q} = \{q_1, q_2, ..., q_m\}$ is the vector of unknowns. A is a $m \times m$ constant matrix.

For example, for m=3, one has

$$\frac{\partial q_1}{\partial t} + A_{11} \frac{\partial q_1}{\partial x} + A_{12} \frac{\partial q_2}{\partial x} + A_{13} \frac{\partial q_3}{\partial x} = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial q_2}{\partial t} + A_{21} \frac{\partial q_1}{\partial x} + A_{22} \frac{\partial q_2}{\partial x} + A_{23} \frac{\partial q_3}{\partial x} = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial q_3}{\partial t} + A_{31} \frac{\partial q_1}{\partial x} + A_{32} \frac{\partial q_2}{\partial x} + A_{33} \frac{\partial q_3}{\partial x} = 0$$

► The system is hyperbolic if A has real eigenvalues, $\lambda^1 \leq ... \leq \lambda^m$ and a complete set of linearly independent right and left eigenvectors r^k and l^k $(r^j \cdot l^k = \delta_{jk})$ such that

$$\begin{cases} A \cdot \boldsymbol{r}^{k} = \lambda^{k} \boldsymbol{r}^{k} \\ \boldsymbol{l}^{k} \cdot A = \boldsymbol{l}^{k} \lambda^{k} \end{cases} \quad \text{for} \quad k = 1, ..., m$$

> For convenience we define the matrices $\Lambda = diag(\lambda^k)$, and

$$R = \left(\mathbf{r^1} | \mathbf{r^2} | \dots | \mathbf{r^m}\right), \quad L = R^{-1} = \left(\frac{\frac{\mathbf{l^1}}{\mathbf{l^2}}}{\frac{\mathbf{l}}{\mathbf{l^m}}}\right)$$

So that $A \cdot R = R \cdot \Lambda$, $L \cdot A = \Lambda \cdot L$, $L \cdot R = R \cdot L = I$, $L \cdot A \cdot R = \Lambda$.

- The linear system can be reduced to a set of decoupled linear advection equations.
- > Multiply the original system of PDE's by *L* on the left:

$$L \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{q}}{\partial t} + A \cdot \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{q}}{\partial x}\right) = L \cdot \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{q}}{\partial t} + L \cdot A \cdot R \cdot L \cdot \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{q}}{\partial x} = 0$$

Define the <u>characteristic variables</u> w=L·q so that

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}{\partial t} + \Lambda \cdot \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}{\partial x} = 0$$

 \succ Since Λ is diagonal, these equations are not coupled anymore.

In this form, the system decouples into m independent advection equations for the characteristic variables:

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}{\partial t} + \Lambda \cdot \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}{\partial x} = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{\partial w^k}{\partial t} + \lambda^k \cdot \frac{\partial w^k}{\partial x} = 0$$

where $w^k = \mathbf{l}^k \cdot \mathbf{q}$ (k=1,2,...,m) is a characteristic variable.

When m=3 one has, for instance:

$$\frac{\partial w^{1}}{\partial t} + \lambda^{1} \frac{\partial w^{1}}{\partial x} = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial w^{2}}{\partial t} + \lambda^{2} \frac{\partial w^{2}}{\partial x} = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial w^{3}}{\partial t} + \lambda^{3} \frac{\partial w^{3}}{\partial x} = 0$$

- The *m* advection equations can be solved independently by applying the standard solution techniques developed for the scalar equation.
- In particular, one can write the <u>exact analytical solution</u> for the <u>k</u>-th characteristic field as

$$w^k(x,t) = w^k(x - \lambda^k t, 0)$$

i.e., the initial profile of w^k shifts with uniform velocity λ^k , and

$$w^{k}(x - \lambda^{k}t, 0) = \mathbf{l}^{k} \cdot \mathbf{q}(x - \lambda^{k}t, 0)$$

is the initial profile.

> The characteristics are thus constant along the curves $dx/dt = \lambda^k$

System of Equations: Exact Solution

Once the solution in characteristic space is known, we can solve the original system via the inverse transformation

$$\mathbf{q}(x,t) = R \cdot \mathbf{w}(x,t) = \sum_{k=1}^{k=m} w^k(x,t) \mathbf{r}^k = \sum_{k=1}^{k=m} w^k(x-\lambda^k t,0) \mathbf{r}^k$$

- The characteristic variables are thus the coefficients of the right eigenvector expansion of q.
- > The solution to the linear system reduces to a linear combination of m linear waves traveling with velocities λ^k .
- \succ Expressing everything in terms of the original variables q,

$$\mathbf{q}(x,t) = \sum_{k=1}^{k=m} \mathbf{l}^k \cdot \mathbf{q}(x - \lambda^k t, 0) \mathbf{r}^k$$

Riemann Problem for Discontinuous Data

If q is initially discontinuous, one or more characteristic variables will also have a discontinuity. Indeed, at t = 0,

$$w^{k}(x,0) = \boldsymbol{l}^{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{q}(x,0) = \begin{cases} w_{L}^{k} = \boldsymbol{l}^{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{q}_{L} & \text{if} \quad x < x_{i+\frac{1}{2}} \\ w_{R}^{k} = \boldsymbol{l}^{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{q}_{R} & \text{if} \quad x > x_{i+\frac{1}{2}} \end{cases}$$

➤ In other words, the initial jump q_R - q_L is decomposed in several waves each propagating at the constant speed λ^k and corresponding to the eigenvectors of the Jacobian A:

$$\boldsymbol{q}_R - \boldsymbol{q}_L = \alpha^1 \boldsymbol{r}^1 + \alpha^2 \boldsymbol{r}^2 + \dots + \alpha^m \boldsymbol{r}^m$$

where $\alpha^k = \boldsymbol{l}^k \cdot (\boldsymbol{q}_R - \boldsymbol{q}_L)$ are the <u>wave strengths</u>

Riemann Problem for Discontinuous Data

For the linear case, the <u>exact</u> solution for each wave at the cell interface is:

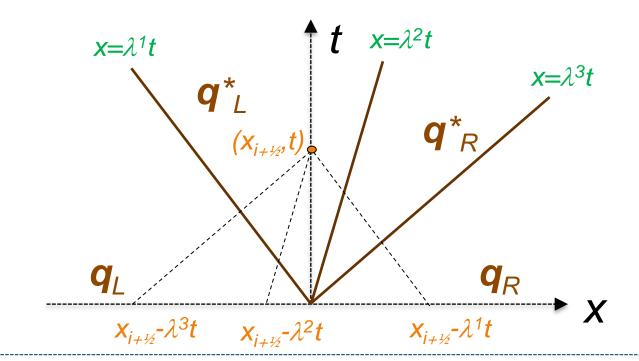
$$w^{k}\left(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}},t\right) = w^{k}\left(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}} - \lambda^{k}t,0\right) = \begin{cases} w_{L}^{k} & \text{if} \quad \lambda^{k} > 0\\ w_{R}^{k} & \text{if} \quad \lambda^{k} < 0 \end{cases}$$

> The complete solution is found by adding all wave contributions:

$$\boldsymbol{q}\left(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}},t\right) = \sum_{k:\lambda_k>0} w_L^k \boldsymbol{r}^k + \sum_{k:\lambda_k<0} w_R^k \boldsymbol{r}^k$$

> and the flux is finally computed as $\tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{i+\frac{1}{2}} = A \cdot \boldsymbol{q}\left(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}},t\right)$

The Riemann Problem



Point (X₀,T) falls to the right of the λ^1 characteristic emanating from the initial jump, but to the left of the other 2, so the solution is:

$$\boldsymbol{q}\left(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}},t\right) = w_R^1 \boldsymbol{r}^1 + w_L^2 \boldsymbol{r}^2 + w_L^3 \boldsymbol{r}^3$$

System of Equations: Numerics

- We suppose the solution at time level n is known as qⁿ and we wish to compute the solution qⁿ⁺¹ at the next time level n+1.
- Our numerical scheme can be derived by working in the characteristic space and then transforming back:

$$\boldsymbol{q}_{i}^{n+1} = \sum_{k} w_{i}^{k,n+1} \boldsymbol{r}^{k} = \boldsymbol{q}_{i}^{n} - \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} \left(\boldsymbol{F}_{i+\frac{1}{2}}^{n} - \boldsymbol{F}_{i-\frac{1}{2}}^{n} \right)$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{F}_{i+\frac{1}{2}}^{n} = A \cdot \frac{\boldsymbol{q}_{i+1}^{n} + \boldsymbol{q}_{i}^{n}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k} |\lambda^{k}| \boldsymbol{l}^{k} \cdot (\boldsymbol{q}_{i+1}^{n} - \boldsymbol{q}_{i}^{n}) \boldsymbol{r}^{k}$$

is the Godunov flux for a linear system of advection equations.

2d. BASIC DISCRETIZATION METHODS FOR HYPERBOLIC PDE:

NONLINEAR SCALAR EQUATION

> We turn our attention to the scalar conservation law

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f(u)}{\partial x} = 0$$

> Where f(u) is, in general, a nonlinear function of u.

To gain some insights on the role played by nonlinear effects, we start by considering the inviscid Burger's equation:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{u^2}{2}\right) = 0$$

> We can write Burger's equation also as

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

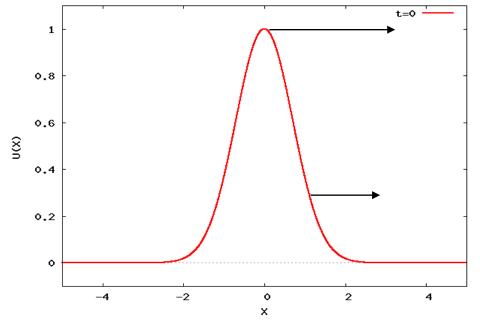
- In this form, Burger's equation resembles the linear advection equation, except that the velocity is no longer constant but it is equal to the solution itself.
- The characteristic curve for this equation is

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = u(x,t) \implies \frac{du}{dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} = 0$$

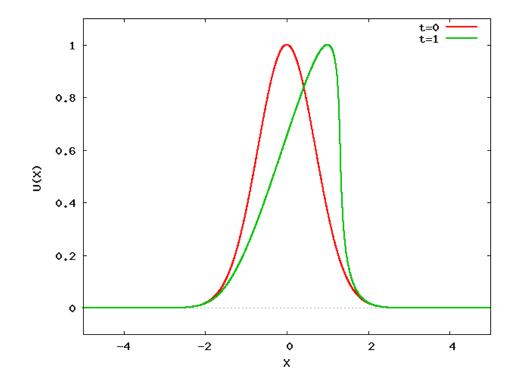
> → u is constant along the curve dx/dt=u(x,t) → characteristics are again straight lines: values of u associated with some fluid element do not change as that element moves.

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

one can predict that, higher values of *u* will propagate faster than lower values: this leads to a wave steepening, since upstream values will advances faster than downstream values.

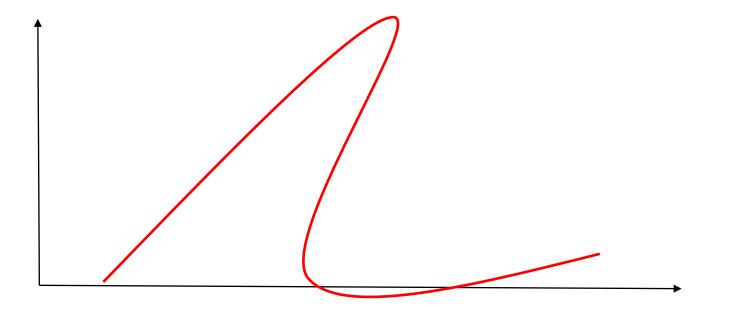


Indeed, at t=1 the wave profile will look like:



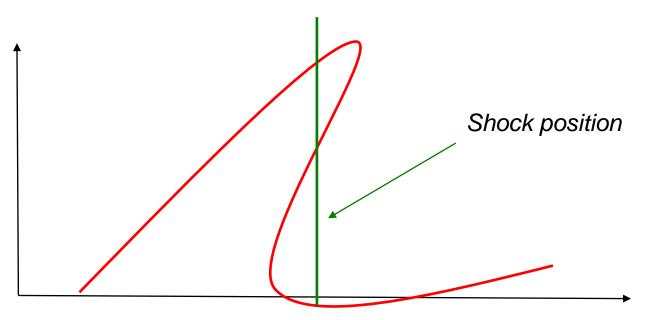
> the wave steepens...

If we wait more, we should get something like this:



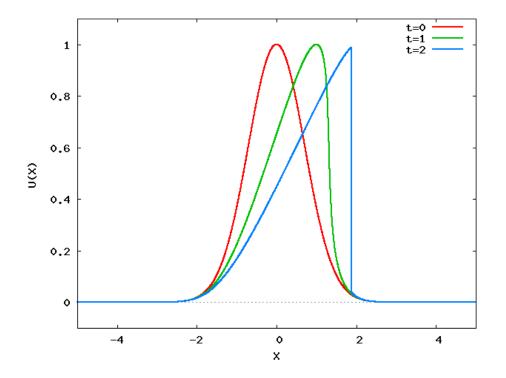
> A multi-value functions $?! \rightarrow$ Clearly <u>NOT</u> physical !

The correct physical solution is to place a discontinuity there: a <u>shock wave</u>.



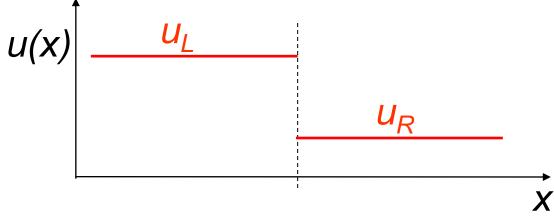
Since the solution is no longer smooth, the differential form is not valid anymore and we need to consider the *integral form*.

> This is how the solution should look like:



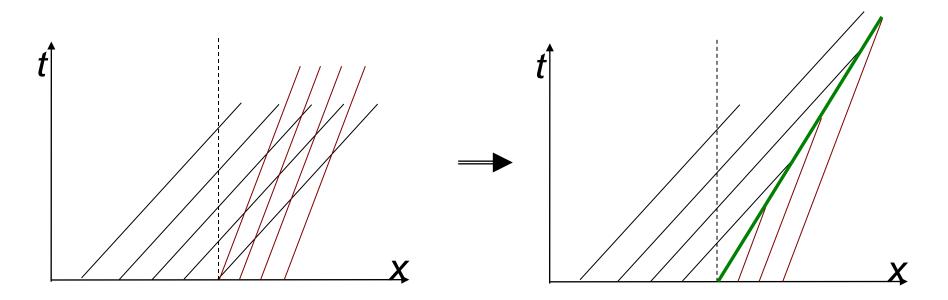
> Such solutions to the PDE are called *weak solutions*.

- Let's try to understand what happens by looking at the characteristics.
- Consider two states initially separated by a jump at an interface:



Here, the characteristic velocities on the left are greater than those on the right.

> The characteristic will intersect, creating a *shock wave*:



> The shock speed is such that $\lambda(u_L) > S > \lambda(u_R)$. This is called the <u>entropy condition</u>.

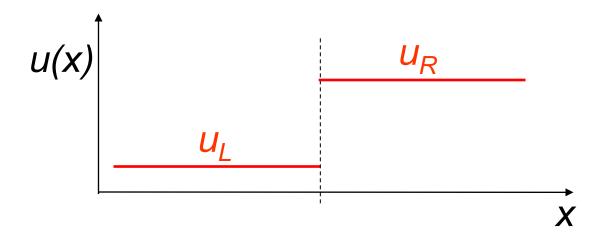
The shock speed S can be found using the Rankine-Hugoniot jump conditions, obtained from the integral form of the equation:

$$f(u_R) - f(u_L) = S(u_R - u_L)$$

> For Burger's equation $f(u) = u^2/2$, one finds the shock speed as

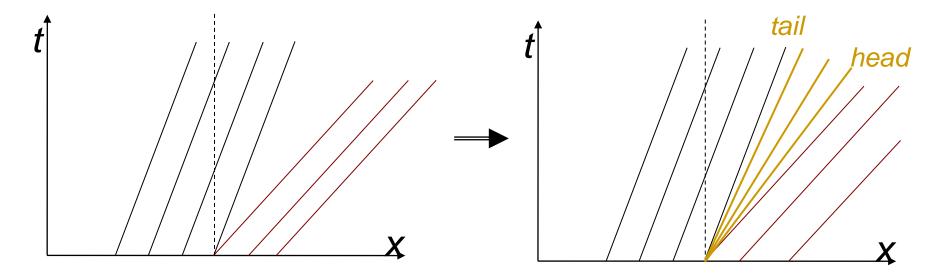
$$S = \frac{u_L + u_R}{2}$$

> Let's consider the opposite situation:



Here, the characteristic velocities on the left are smaller than those on the right.

Now the characteristics will diverge:



Putting a shock wave between the two states would be incorrect, since it would violate the entropy condition. Instead, the proper solution is a <u>rarefaction wave</u>.

- A rarefaction wave is a nonlinear wave that smoothly connects the left and the right state. It is an expansion wave.
- > The solution between the states can only be self-similar and takes on the range of values between u_L and u_R
- > The head of the rarefaction moves at the speed $\lambda(u_R)$, whereas the tail moves at the speed $\lambda(u_L)$.
- > The general condition for a rarefaction wave is $\lambda(u_L) < \lambda(u_R)$
- Both rarefactions and shocks are present in the solutions to the Euler equation. Both waves are nonlinear.

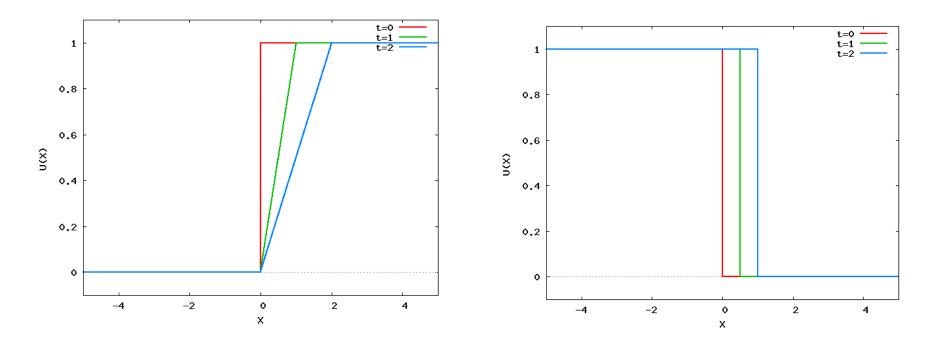
- These results can be used to write the general solution to the Riemann problem for Burger's equation:
 - > If $u_L > u_R$ the solution is a discontinuity (*shock wave*). In this case

$$u(x,t) = \begin{cases} u_L & \text{if } x - St < 0\\ u_R & \text{if } x - St > 0 \end{cases}, \qquad S = \frac{u_L + u_R}{2}$$

> If $u_L < u_R$ the solution is a <u>rarefaction wave</u>. In this case

$$u(x,t) = \begin{cases} u_L & \text{if } x/t \le u_L \\ x/t & \text{if } u_L < x/t < u_R \\ u_R & \text{if } x/t > u_R \end{cases}$$

Solutions look like



for a rarefaction and a shock, respectively.

Code Example

- File name: burger.c
- Purpose: solve Burger's equation using 1st-order Godunov method.

▶ Usage:

- > gcc -0 burger.c -o burger
- > ./burger
- Output: two-column ascii data files "data.nnnn.out"

C:\cy	gwin\home\Andrea\Presentations\Copenhagen.2013\Codes\Burger\burger.c - Notepad++	X
	lit Search View Encoding Language Settings Macro Run Plugins Window ?	
	⊟ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$	
📄 adve	ction.c 🔚 burger.c	
1	<pre>#include <stdio.h></stdio.h></pre>	-
2	<pre>#include <stdarg.h></stdarg.h></pre>	
3	<pre>#include <string.h></string.h></pre>	:
4	<pre>#include <math.h></math.h></pre>	
5	<pre>#include <stdlib.h></stdlib.h></pre>	
6		
7	<pre>double Initial_Condition (double x);</pre>	
8	<pre>void Integrate (double *u0, double *u1, double dtdx, int ibeg, int iend);</pre>	
9		
10	#define PI 3.14159265358979	
11	#define NGHOST 2	
12	#define NX 4000 /* *********************************	
13	· · · ·	
14 15	int main()	
15	·// *	
17	*	
18	*	
19	***************************************	
	₽{	
21	int i, nstep, out_freg;	
22	int ibeg, iend;	
23	double xbeg, xend;	
24	<pre>double x [NX + 2*NGHOST], dx;</pre>	
25	<pre>double u0[NX + 2*NGHOST], u1[NX + 2*NGHOST];</pre>	
26	double t, tstop, dt, cfl, dtdx;	
27	double umax;	
28		
29	/* default values */	
c source	file length: 3495 lines: 171 Ln: 1 Col: 1 Sel: 0 UNIX ANSI	INS

2e. BASIC DISCRETIZATION METHODS FOR HYPERBOLIC PDE:

NONLINEAR SYSTEMS

Nonlinear Systems

- Much of what is known about the numerical solution of hyperbolic systems of nonlinear equations comes from the results obtained in the linear case or simple nonlinear scalar equations.
- The key idea is to exploit the conservative form and assume the system can be locally "frozen" at each grid interface.
- However, this still requires the solution of the Riemann problem, which becomes increasingly difficult for complicated set of hyperbolic P.D.E.

Euler Equations

System of conservation laws describing conservation of mass, momentum and energy:

 $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0 \qquad (\text{mass})$ $\frac{\partial (\rho \mathbf{v})}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [\rho \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{I}p] = 0 \qquad (\text{momentum})$ $\frac{\partial E}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [(E+p) \mathbf{v}] = 0 \qquad (\text{energy})$

Total energy density E is the sum of thermal + Kinetic terms:

$$E = \rho \epsilon + \rho \frac{\mathbf{v}^2}{2}$$

 $\rho \epsilon = \frac{p}{\Gamma - 1}$

Closure requires an Equation of State (EoS).
For an ideal gas one has

Euler Equations: Characteristic Structure

The equations of gasdynamics can also be written in "quasi-linear" or primitive form. In 1D:

/

Υ.

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{V}}{\partial t} + A \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{V}}{\partial x} = 0, \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} v_x & \rho & 0\\ 0 & v_x & 1/\rho\\ 0 & \rho c_s^2 & v_x \end{pmatrix}$$

where $V = [\rho, v_x, p]$ is a vector of primitive variable, $c_s = (\gamma p / \rho)^{1/2}$ is the adiabatic speed of sound.

It is called "quasi-linear" since, differently from the linear case where we had A=const, here A = A(V).

Euler Equations: Characteristic Structure

The quasi-linear form can be used to find the eigenvector decomposition of the matrix A:

$$\mathbf{r}^{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -c_{s}/\rho \\ c_{s}^{2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{r}^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{r}^{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ c_{s}/\rho \\ c_{s}^{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Associated to the eigenvalues:

$$\lambda^1 = v_x - c_s \,, \quad \lambda^2 = v_x \,, \quad \lambda^3 = v_x + c_s$$

These are the characteristic speeds of the system, i.e., the speeds at which information propagates. They tell us a lot about the structure of the solution.

Euler Equations: Riemann Problem

> By looking at the expressions for the right eigenvectors,

$$\mathbf{r}^{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -c_{s}/\rho \\ c_{s}^{2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{r}^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{r}^{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ c_{s}/\rho \\ c_{s}^{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

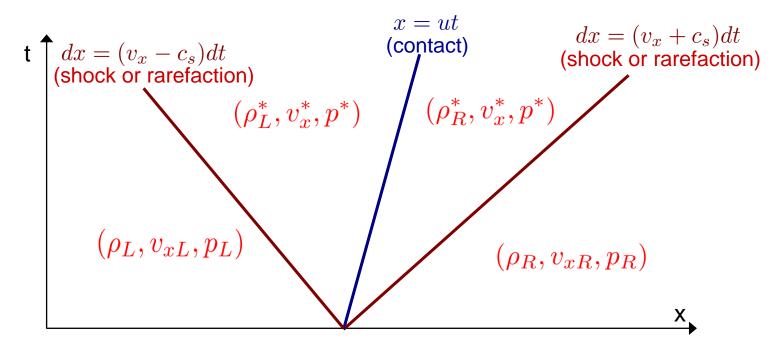
we see that across waves 1 and 3, all variables jump. These are nonlinear waves, either shocks or rarefactions waves.

Across wave 2, only density jumps. Velocity and pressure are constant. This defines the <u>contact discontinuity</u>.

The characteristic curve associated with this linear wave is dx/dt = u, and it is a straight line. Since v_x is constant across this wave, the flow is neither converging or diverging.

Euler Equations: Riemann Problem

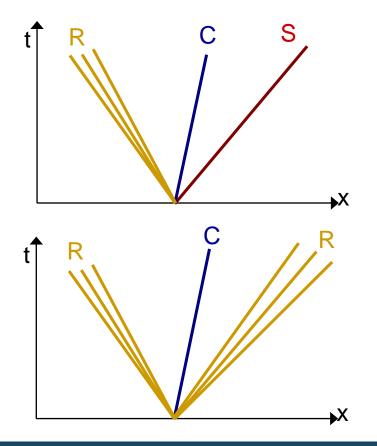
> The solution to the Riemann problem looks like

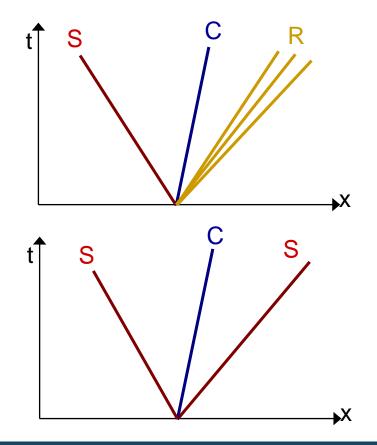


- The outer waves can be either shocks or rarefactions.
- > The middle wave is always a contact discontinuity.
- > In total one has 4 unknowns: $\rho_L^*, \rho_R^*, v_x^*, p^*$ since only density jumps across the contact discontinuity.

Euler Equations: Riemann Problem

Depending on the initial discontinuity, a total of 4 patterns can emerge from the solution:



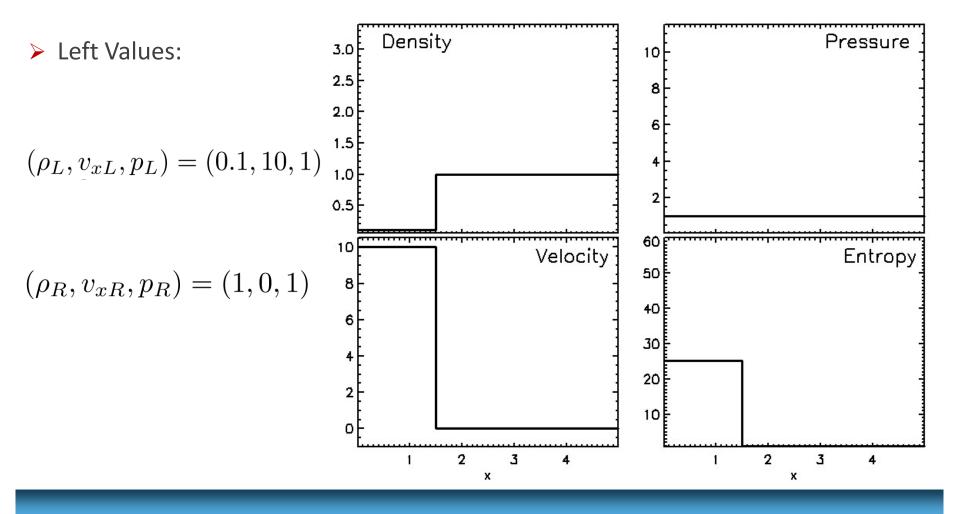


Euler Equations: Shock Tube Problem

The decay of the discontinuity defines what is usually called the "shock tube" problem", 1.0 1.0 Density Pressure 0.8 0.8 > Left Values: 0.6 0.6 $(\rho_L, v_{xL}, p_L) = (1, 0, 1)$ 0.4 0.4 0.2 0.2 > Right Values: 1.0 2.0 0.8 Velocity Entropy $(\rho_R, v_{xR}, p_R) = \left(\frac{1}{8}, 0, \frac{1}{10}\right)$ 1.8 0.6 1.6 1.4 0.4 1.2 0.2 1.0 0.0 0.8 0.2 0.4 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 0.6 0.8 х х

Euler Equations: Shock Tube Problem

> The one dimensional jet problem reduces to a shock-tube with a S-C-S structure:



Code Example

- File name: euler.f
- Purpose: solve 1D Euler's equation using a 1st-order

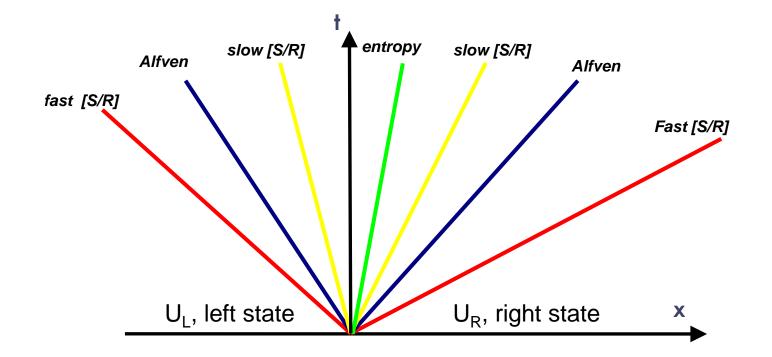
Lax-Friedrichs method.

► Usage:

- > gfortran -0 euler.f -o euler
- > ./euler
- <u>Output</u>: 4-column ascii data files "data.out"

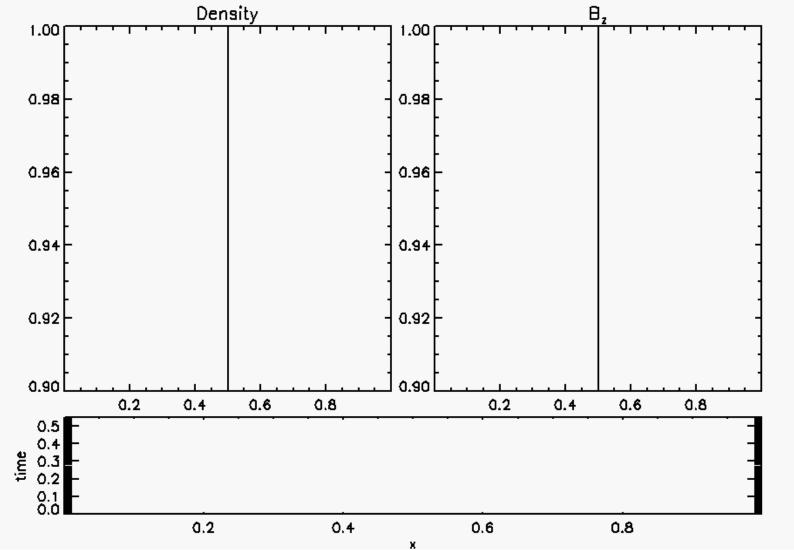
🧉 C:\cy	gwin\home\Andrea\Presentations\Copenhagen.2013\Codes\Euler\euler.f - Notepad++	X
File Ed	it Search View Encoding Language Settings Macro Run Plugins Window ?	Х
	= • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
: 📒 advec	tion.c 📑 burger.c 😑 euler.f	
1	program euler	-
2		=
3	include 'common.h'	Ξ
4		
5	integer i, nt, nv	
6	integer ibeg, iend	
7	<pre>real*8 u(nvar, nx),v(nvar, nx), flux(nvar, nx)</pre>	
8	real*8 x(nx)	
9	<pre>real*8 t, dt, cmax, cfl, tstop</pre>	
10	real*8 tfreq, df, dx	
11		
12	c ** generate grid **	
13		
14	call grid (x, dx)	
15	<pre>ibeg = nghost + 1</pre>	
16	iend = nx - nghost	
17		
18	call init (v, x)	
19	<pre>call primtocon (v, u, ibeg, iend)</pre>	
20	dt = 1.d-4	
21	cfl = 0.8d0	
23	tstop = 0.2	
24	t = 0.d0	
25		
26	c ** begin computation **	
27		
28	do nt = 1, 9999	
29		-
, Fortran s	ource file length : 6022 lines : 271 Ln : 1 Col : 1 Sel : 0 UNIX ANSI	INS

Riemann Problem in MHD



7 wave pattern, λ^(κ) (U_L^(κ) - U_R^(κ)) = F (U_L^(κ)) - F (U_R^(κ))
 across the contact wave, for B_n≠0, only density has a jump;
 across Alfven waves, [ρ]=[p_{gas}]=[v_x]=0

An example



Solving the Riemann Problem

- The full analytical solution to the Riemann problem for the Euler equation can be found, but this is a rather complicated task (see the book by Toro).
- In general, approximate methods of solution are preferred.
- The advantage of using approximate solvers is the reduced computational costs and the ease of implementation.
- The degree of approximation reflects on the ability to "capture" and spread discontinuities over few or more computational zones.

Solving the Riemann Problem

<u>Exact</u> Riemann solvers (nonlinear)

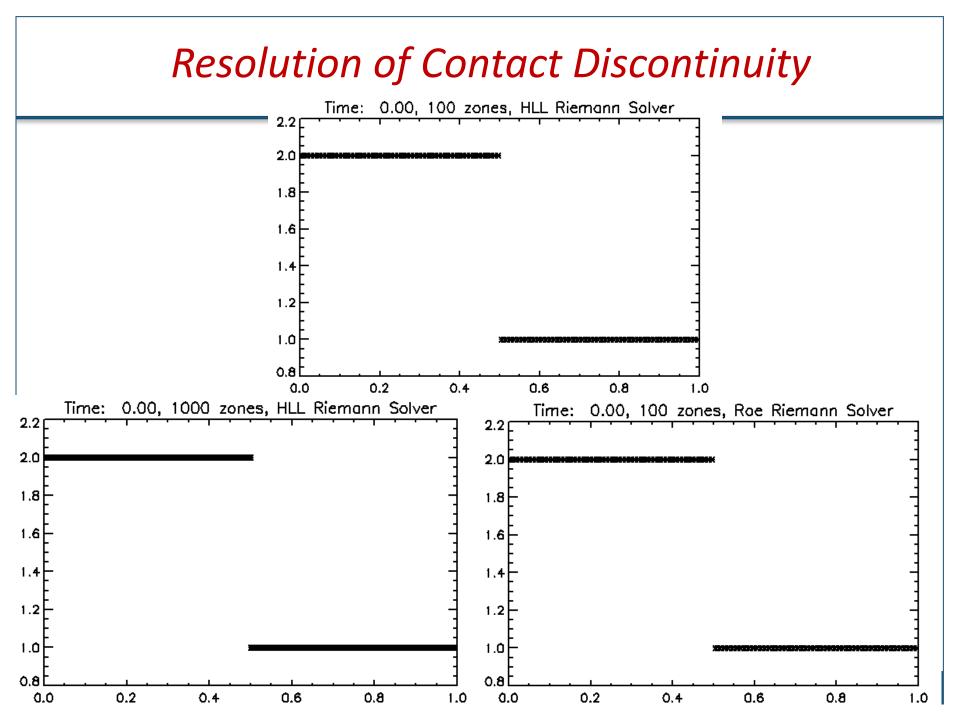
- Full nonlinear solution:
- > Expensive / impracticable for heavily usage in upwind codes;

Linearized Riemann solvers (Roe type)

- require characteristic decomposition in eigenvectors
- may be prone to numerical pathologies

HLL-type Riemann solvers (guess-based)

- based on guess to the signal speeds and on the integral average of the solution over the Riemann Fan;
- Fewer waves are considered in the solution;
- preserve positivity;



2f. BASIC DISCRETIZATION METHODS FOR HYPERBOLIC PDE:

HIGH-ORDER SCHEMES

High Order Integration in Time

A simple and effective way to achieve 2nd or 3rd order accuracy in time is to treat the PDE in semi-discrete form:

$$\int \left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{q}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{F}\right) dV = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{d\bar{\boldsymbol{q}}}{dt} = -\oint \tilde{\boldsymbol{F}} \cdot d\boldsymbol{S}$$

In such a way the PDE becomes a regular ordinary differential equation (ODE) in time;

$$\frac{d\bar{\boldsymbol{q}}}{dt} = \boldsymbol{R}(\boldsymbol{q},t) = \boldsymbol{R} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \bar{\boldsymbol{q}}^{n+1} - \bar{\boldsymbol{q}}^n = \int_n^{n+1} \boldsymbol{R} \, dt$$

Standard integration based on predictor/corrector schemes can then be used to solve ODEs.

Second-Order Runge-Kutta

Using the trapezoidal method, the solution of our ODE writes:

$$\bar{\boldsymbol{q}}^{n+1} = \bar{\boldsymbol{q}}^n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \left(\boldsymbol{R}^n + \boldsymbol{R}^{n+1} \right) + O(\Delta t^3)$$

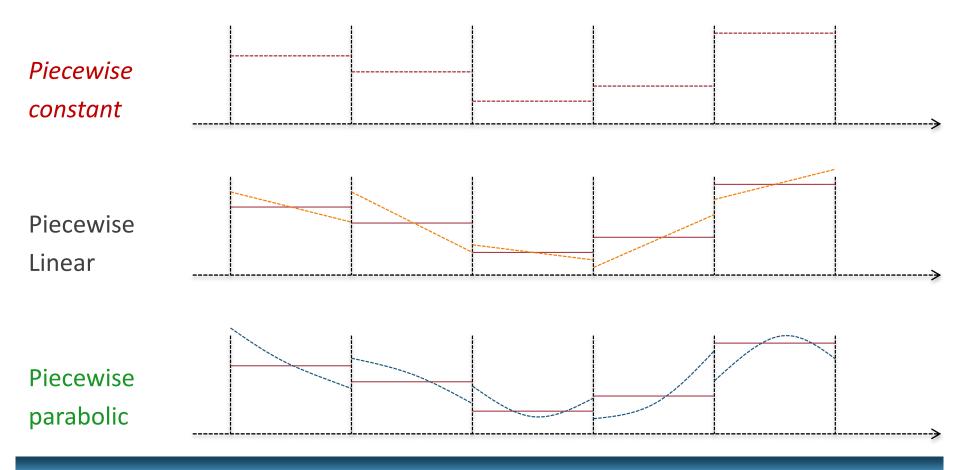
Problem: the unknown \$\bar{\mathbf{q}}^{n+1}\$ appears on both side of the equation!!!
 Solution: use an estimate (predictor) for \$\mathbf{R}^{n+1}\$ with Euler method:

$$\bar{\boldsymbol{q}}^* = \bar{\boldsymbol{q}}^n + \Delta t \boldsymbol{R}^n + O(\Delta t^2)$$
$$\bar{\boldsymbol{q}}^{n+1} = \bar{\boldsymbol{q}}^n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \left(\boldsymbol{R}^n + \boldsymbol{R}^* \right) + O(\Delta t^3)$$

This is the second-order explicit Runge-Kutta method (or Heun's method) It is 2nd order accurate.

Improving spatial accuracy

High order reconstruction can be carried inside each cell by suitable oscillation-free polynomial interpolation:



Reconstruction Constraints

Must be consistent with data representation

$$\frac{1}{\Delta x_i} \int_{x_{i-\frac{1}{2}}}^{x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}} P_i(x) dx = \overline{u}_i$$

Satisfy monotonicity constraints:

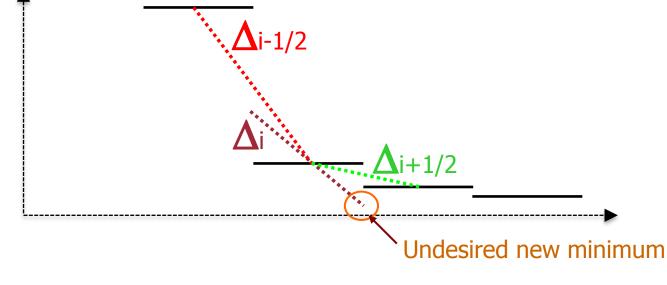
$$\min(P_i(x)) \ge \min\left(\bar{u}_{i-1}, \bar{u}_i, \bar{u}_{i+1}\right)$$
$$\max(P_i(x)) \le \max\left(\bar{u}_{i-1}, \bar{u}_i, \bar{u}_{i+1}\right)$$

no new extrema allowed (Total Variation Diminishing (TVD) schemes)
 Oscillation free solution

Example: 2nd order linear reconstruction

For 2nd-order interpolant, we use





Use slope limiters to avoid introducing new extrema:

Example

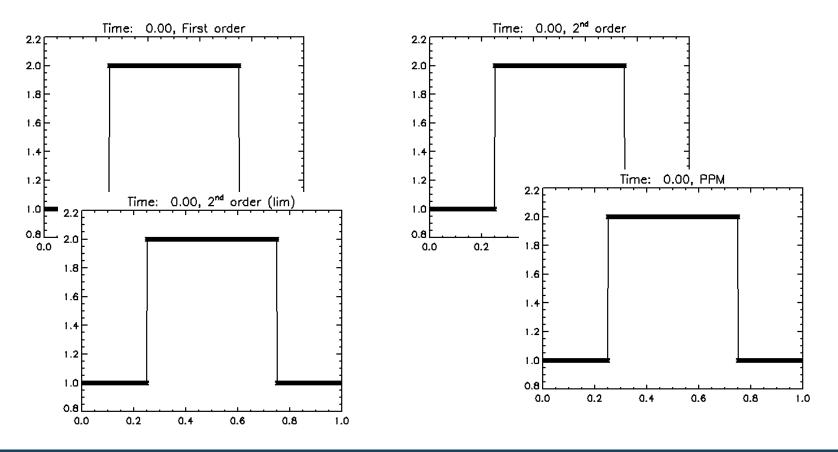
 \succ

 $\delta V_i = \lim \left(\Delta_{i-1/2}, \Delta_{i+1/2} \right)$

$$minmod(x,y) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } |x| < |y|, xy > 0\\ y & \text{if } |y| < |x|, xy > 0\\ 0 & \text{if } xy < 0 \end{cases}$$

Comparison

Improving reconstruction decreases the amount of numerical dissipation:



Equivalent Advection/Diffusion Equation

A discretized PDE gives the exact solution to an equivalent equation with a diffusion term;

• Consider
$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + a \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} = 0$$
, $a > 0$

Use upwind discretization:

$$\frac{q_i^{n+1} - q_i^n}{\Delta t} + a \frac{q_i^n - q_{i-1}^n}{\Delta x} = 0$$

- > Do Taylor expansion on q_i^{n+1} and q_{i-1}^n
- The solution to the discretized equation satisfies <u>exactly</u>

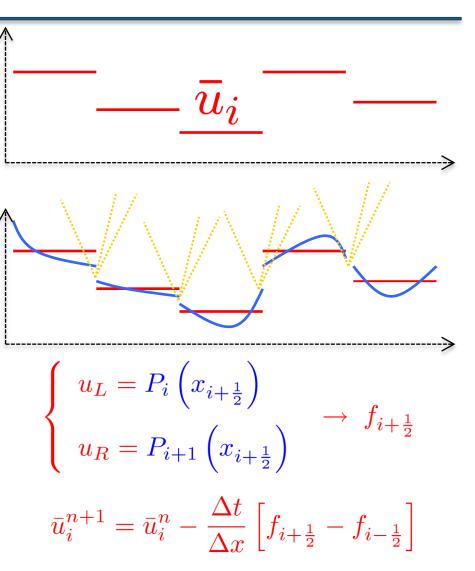
$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + a \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} = \frac{a \Delta x}{2} \left(1 - a \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} \right) \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial x^2} + H.O.T.$$

Algorithm Summary: Reconstruct-Solve-Average (RSA)

- Start from zone averages, break the problem into 3 pieces:
- 1. Piecewise polynomial reconstruction

 $u_i(x) = P_i(x)$, for $x_{i-\frac{1}{2}} < x < x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}$

- 2. Solve Riemann problem between left and right states
- 3. Form new averages (evolve)



Multi Dimensional Integration

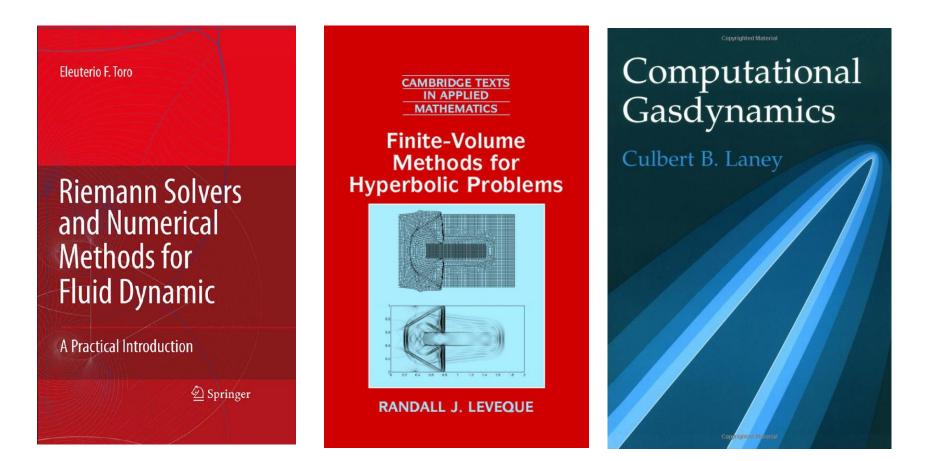
- Integration in more than one dimensions can be achieved using two distinct approaches:
 - Dimensionally Split schemes: solve the PDE as a sequence of 1-D subproblems.

$$\mathbf{q}^* = \mathbf{q}^n - \Delta t \mathcal{L}_x(\mathbf{q}^n) \qquad \mathbf{q}^{n+1} = \mathbf{q}^* - \Delta t \mathcal{L}_y(\mathbf{q}^*)$$

Dimensionally Unsplit schemes: solve the full problem:

$$\mathbf{q}^{n+1} = \mathbf{q}^n - \Delta t \mathcal{L}_x(\mathbf{q}^n) - \Delta t \mathcal{L}_y(\mathbf{q}^n)$$

Useful Books



The End