



# Analysis and verification of numerical methods outside the *asymptotic* range

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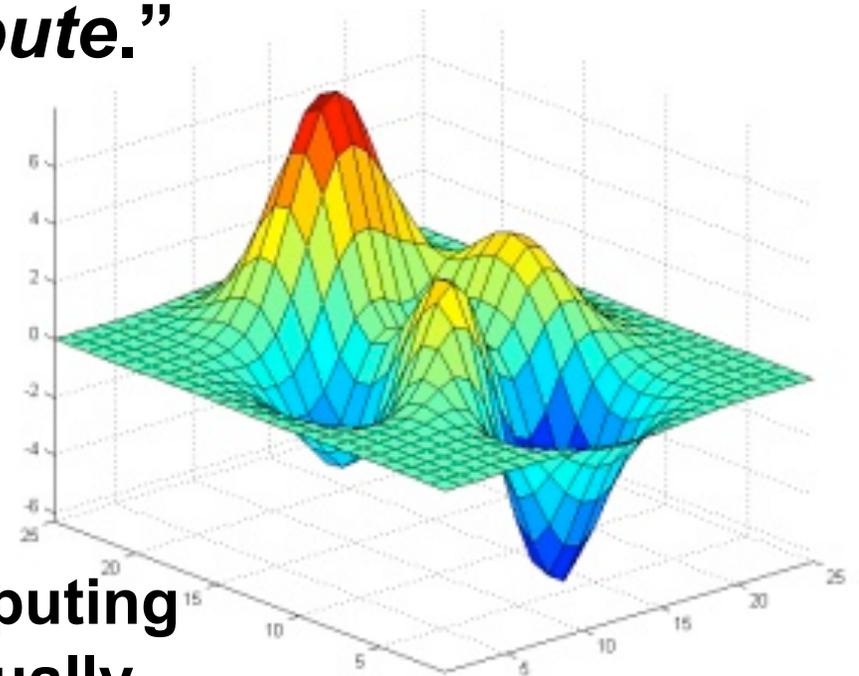


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# What verification means in numerical analysis!

**“For the numerical analyst there are two kinds of truth; the truth you can prove *and the truth you see when you compute.*”**

**– Ami Harten**



**Corollary: when proof and computing provide the same truth, you actually have something!**





# Outline

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- **Defining Verification**
- **Why do verification and issues associated with conducting it**
- **The connection of verification and numerical analysis**
- **Standard verification using standard numerical analysis**
- **New methods for numerical analysis of under-resolved calculations**





# Let's define verification first to make sure we are on the same page. \*

- **Verification is used to do a couple of things:**
  - ◆ Provide evidence that the code is correct and correctly implemented
  - ◆ Produce an estimate of numerical error, and proof that the mesh is adequate.
- **Two types of verification are relevant here:**
  - ◆ ***Code verification***: the proof that the code is correctly implemented
  - ◆ ***Calculation (solution) verification***: the estimate of numerical error and implicitly, discretization adequacy.
  - ◆ Software verification is important, but off topic.

\*I am adopting the common separation of verification and validation, i.e., ***Validation*** is comparison with experimental data.





## Verification and numerical analysis are intimately and completely linked.

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- The results that verification must produce are defined by the formal analysis of the methods being verified.
- The numerical analysis results are typically (always) defined in the asymptotic range of convergence for a method.
  - ◆ This range is reached as the discretization parameter (i.e., mesh, time step, angle, etc.) becomes “small” i.e., asymptotically “*close to zero*”.
- Practically, the asymptotic range is rarely achieved by verification practitioners or simulations.
- Hence verification is not generally practiced where it is formally valid!

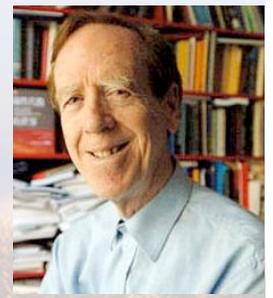
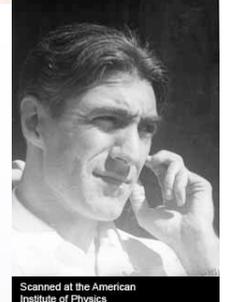


# One theorem is absolutely essential to the conduct of verification.

- The fundamental theorem of numerical analysis defined by Lax and Richtmyer (similar theorem by Dahlquist for ODEs, but it applies to nonlienar equations!),

***A numerical method for a linear differential equation will converge if that method is consistent and stable. Comm. Pure. Appl. Math. 1954***

***Restated by Strang - The fundamental theorem of numerical analysis, The combination of consistency and stability is equivalent to convergence.***





## Continuing the discussion of this fundamental mathematical concept.

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**Consistency** - means that the method is at least 1st order accurate – means it approximates the correct PDE.

**Stable** - the method produces bounded approximations

In the practice of verification *stability* is generally assumed by the presence of a solution, convergence is sought as evidence of *consistency*.

This means verification is not completely rigorous with regard to the Lax-Richtmyer theorem.





# There are a number of typical numerical analysis techniques

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- Method are analyzed through methods providing stability and accuracy information.
- These techniques include Fourier (von Neumann), modified equations, and energy methods.
- These methods provide information about the discrete stability, accuracy, and error structure for methods typically limited to linear problems.
- Order of convergence is discussed in the limit where the discretization parameter becomes small.
- I will demonstrate the basic analysis on a simple method





## In practice, one encounters problems when conducting verification

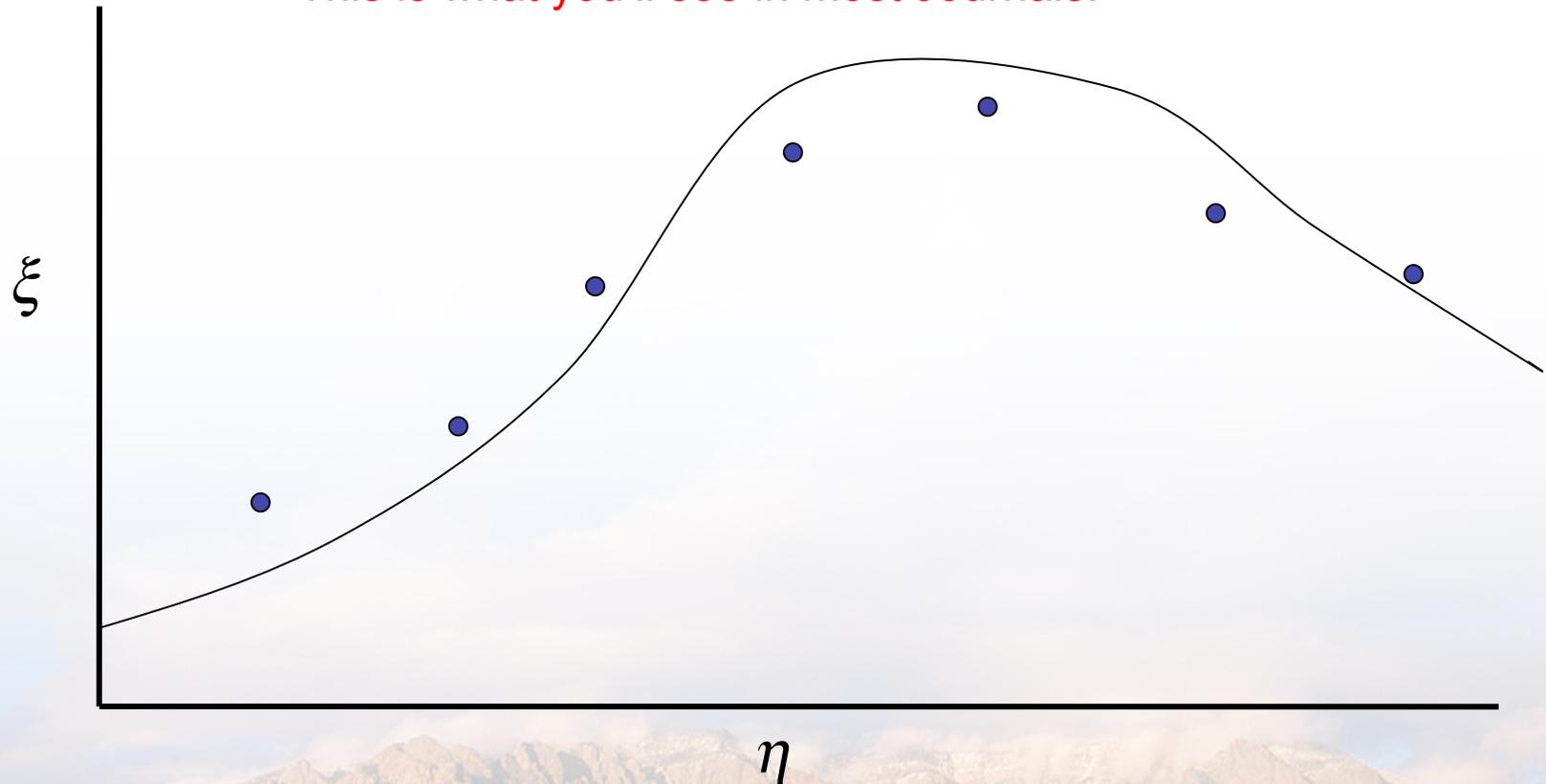
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- **The convergence rates are (almost) never equal to the theoretical values.**
  - ◆ If the value is larger than the theoretical value, practitioners are usually comforted.
  - ◆ If the values are smaller, the practitioners will become increasingly nervous, e.g. a second order method produces a rate of 1.95 or 1.87, or 1.71, or 1.55, 1.13...
  - ◆ Sometimes the rate is too large, 2.14, 2.56, 3.12, 4.67, ...
  - ◆ Where is it viewed as being incorrect? When should one worry about the result?
- **Sometimes the method will diverge, or oscillate.**
- **The asymptotic range is usually unreasonable to compute especially for applied problems.**



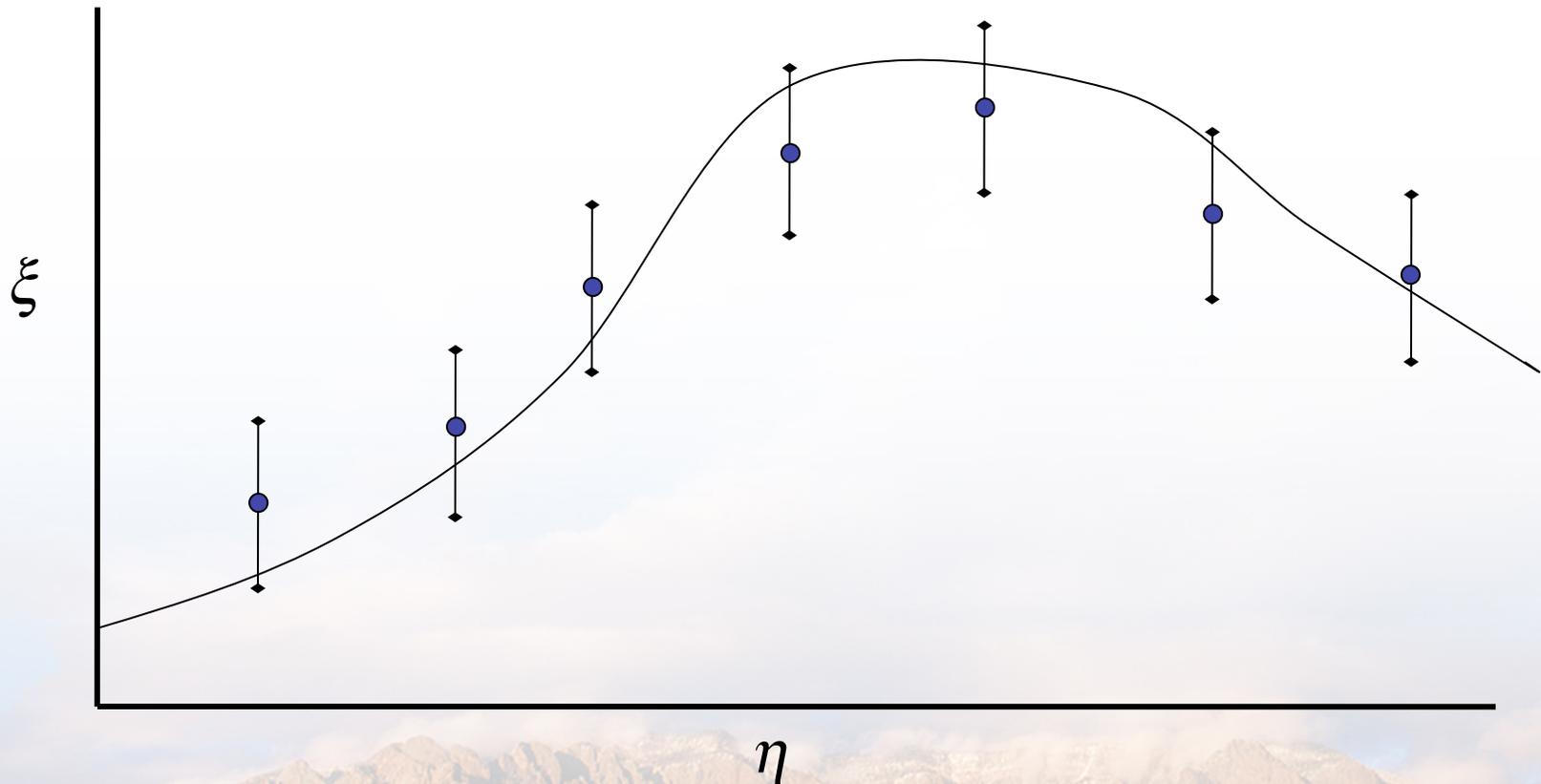
**This is the way validation is typically presented.**

This is what you'll see in most Journals.



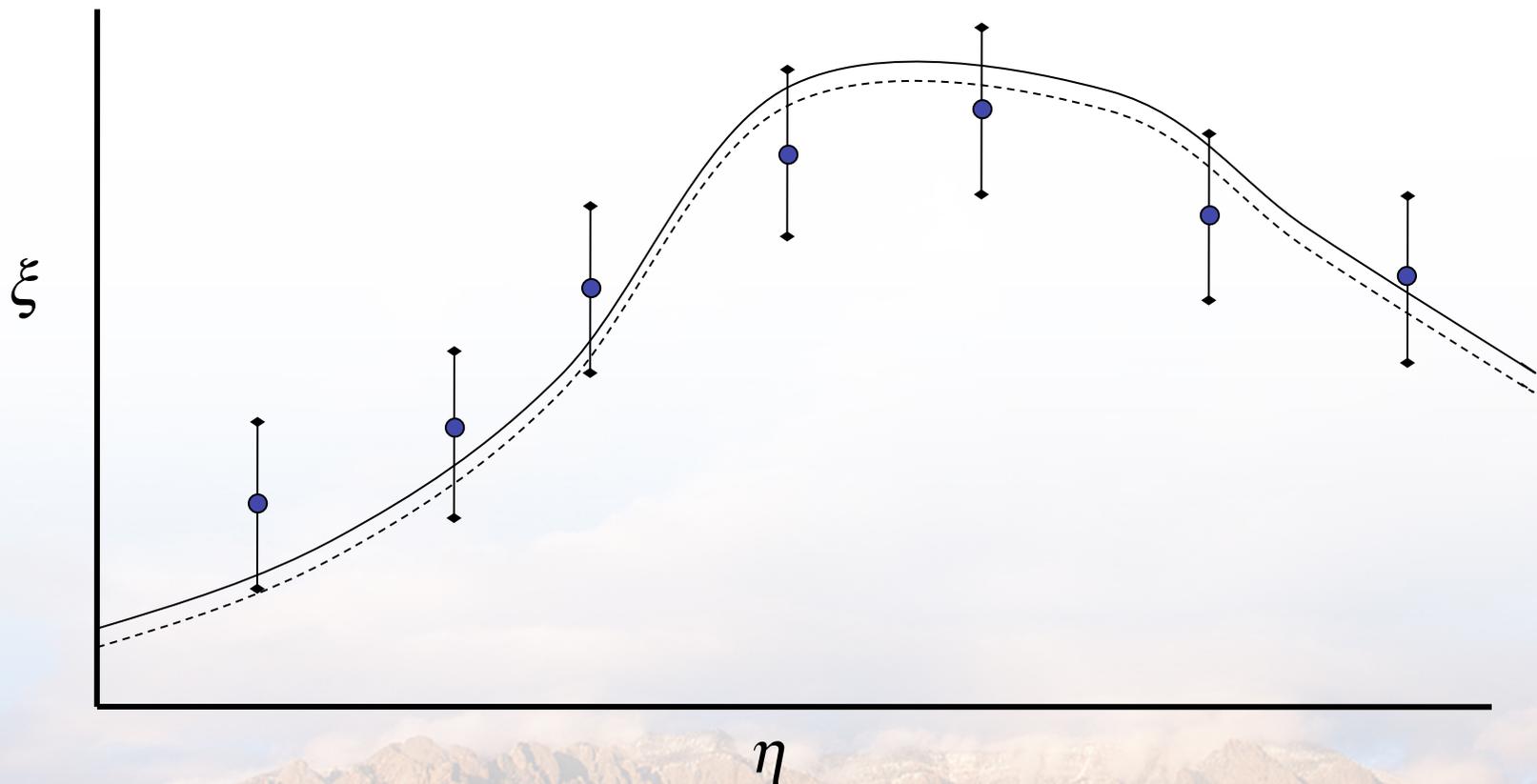
This presentation is an improvement because experimental error is shown.

This is *not* what you'll see in most Journals, but you should.



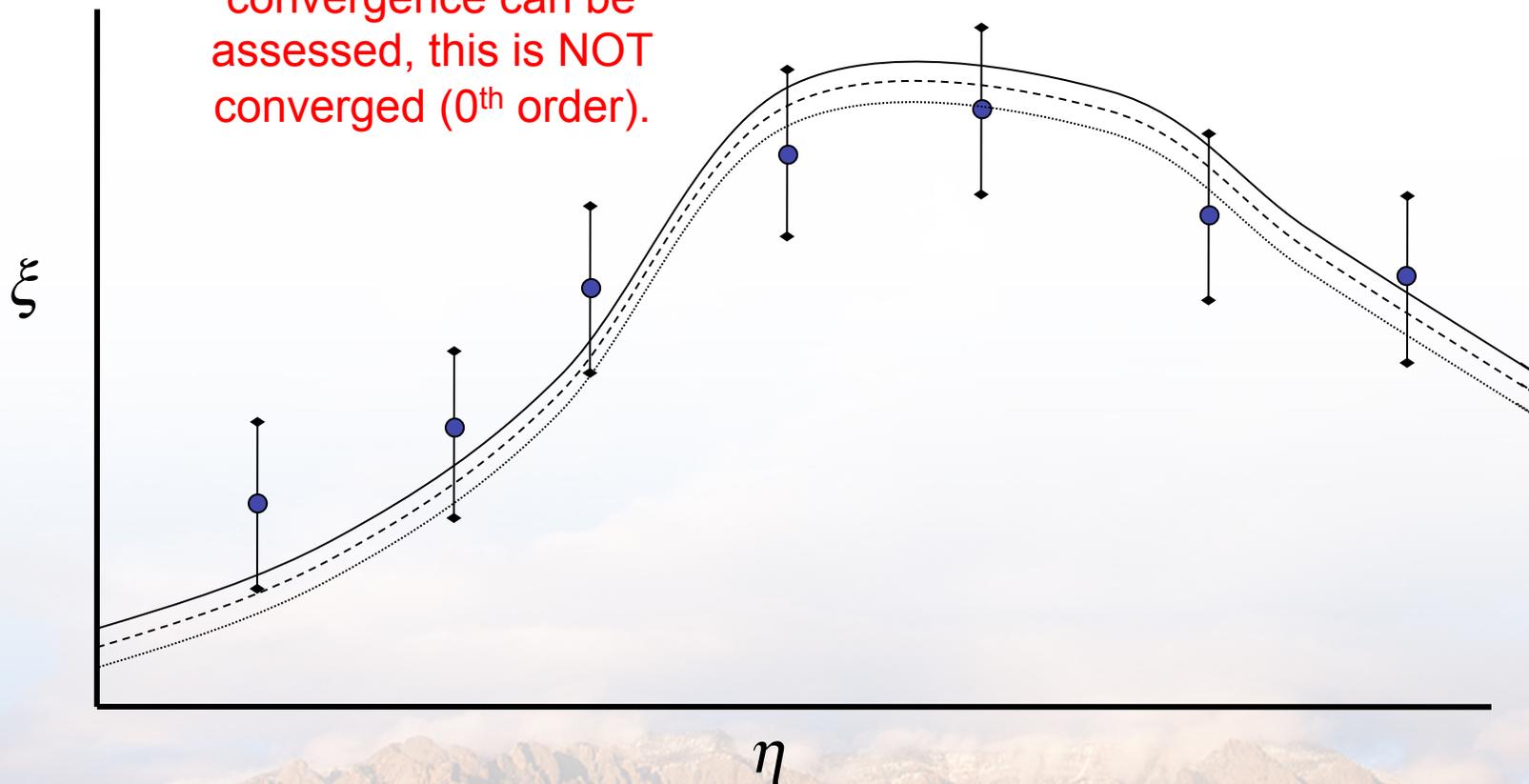
# Here is a notion of how a “converged” solution might be described.

You might see this although rarely depicted in this manner.



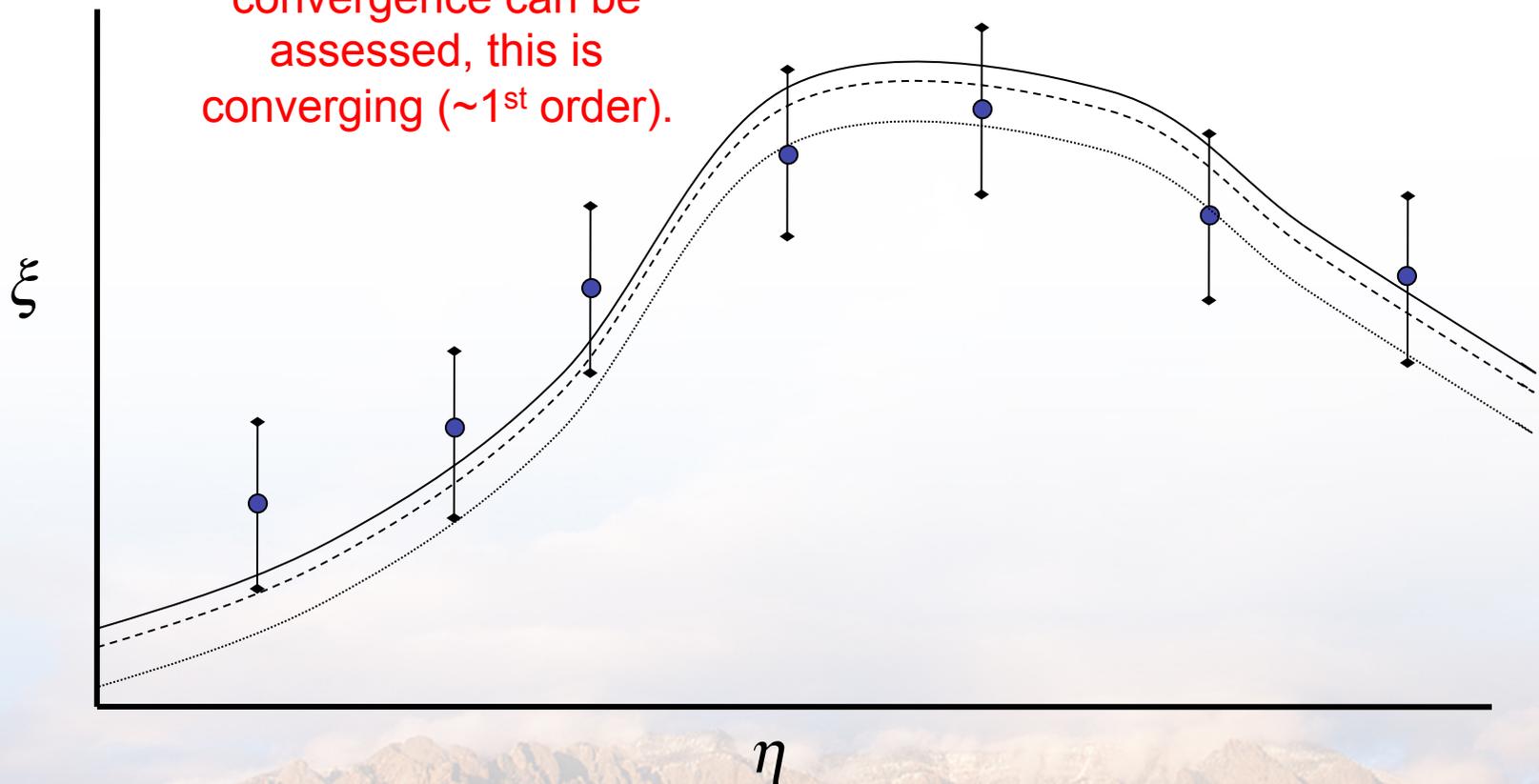
# Here is a notion of how a “converged” solution might be described.

With a third resolution convergence can be assessed, this is NOT converged (0<sup>th</sup> order).



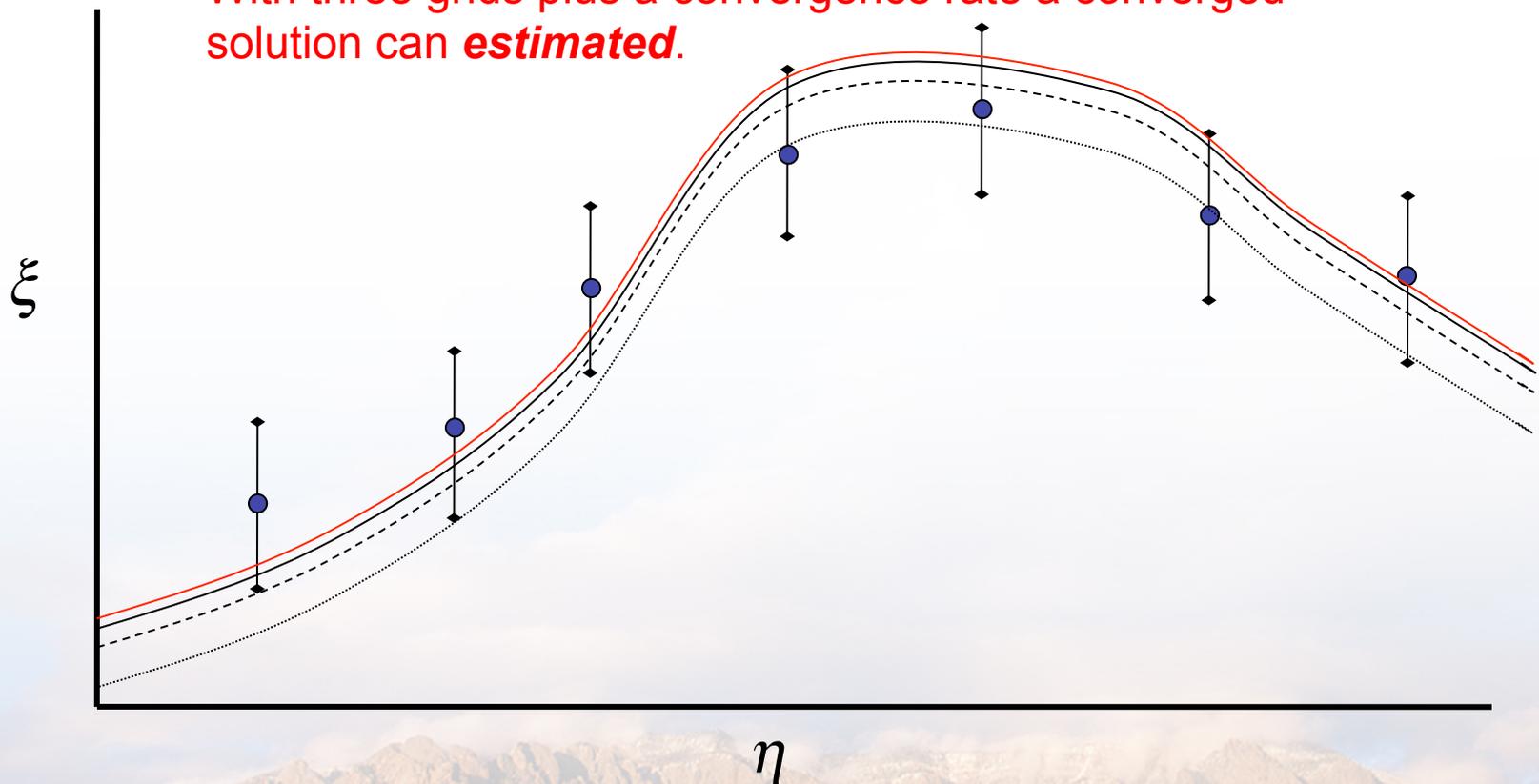
# Here is a notion of how a “converged” solution should be described.

With a third resolution convergence can be assessed, this is converging ( $\sim 1^{\text{st}}$  order).



Even better, a sequence of meshes can be used to extrapolate the solution.

With three grids plus a convergence rate a converged solution can *estimated*.



# Roache's Grid Convergence Index (GCI)\* uses a fixed safety factor for numerical uncertainty.

- The standard power error ansatz,  $S = A + Ch^p$

$$S = A_k + Ch_k^p; \text{ unknowns } S, C, p$$

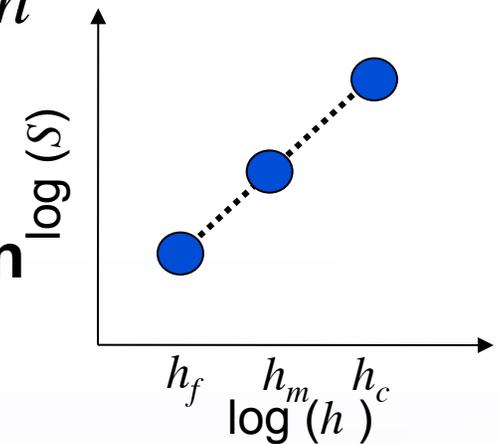
gives an estimate of numerical error based on extrapolation

$$\delta = \frac{\Delta_{mf}}{r_{mf}^p - 1}; \Delta_{mf} = S_f - S_m, r_{mf} = \frac{h_m}{h_f}$$

- A safety factor gives the uncertainty estimate:

$$U_{num} = F_s \delta; F_s = 1.25$$

- This safety factor is described as giving a 95% confidence interval (the consequence of CFD experience).



\*P. Roache, *Verification and Validation in Computational Science and Engineering*, Hermosa(1996).

## Another uncertainty Estimate has a variable “safety factor” or asymptotic correction.

- The estimate developed by Stern uses the same basic framework, but with a key difference...
- The safety factor is not constant, but depends on two pieces of information,

- ◆ The observed order of convergence  $p_{ob}$
- ◆ The theoretical order of convergence  $p_{th}$

$$F_s = \frac{r^{p_{ob}} - 1}{r^{p_{th}} - 1}$$

- *This potentially makes it attractive when the computation is not in the asymptotic range*
- I am going to describe a way to extend this approach.



# We can start by showing how convergence rates are usually analyzed (forward Euler method, here).

- Starting with an ODE we can analyze stability and accuracy using the standard methodology.
- Analysis of ODE's are primal for anything else, start with the simplest ODE and discretization,  $\dot{u} = \lambda u \rightarrow u^{n+1} = u^n + h\lambda u^n$
- The analysis includes the analytical solution and the Taylor series analysis of each

$$\dot{u} = \lambda u \xrightarrow{h \rightarrow 0} u(0) \left( 1 + \lambda h + \frac{1}{2}(\lambda h)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(\lambda h)^3 + O(h^4) \right)$$

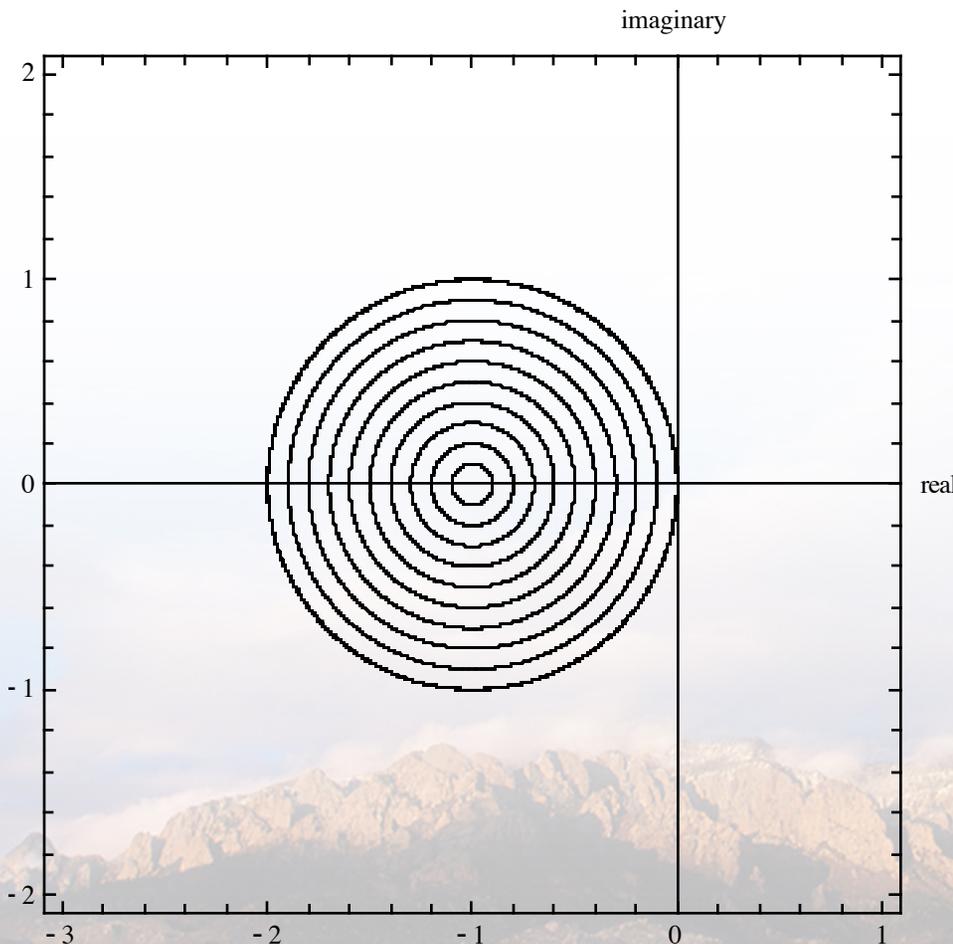
$$\dot{u} = \lambda u \rightarrow u(0) + h\lambda u(0)$$

- Error is the difference  $\text{Error} \approx u(0) \left( \frac{1}{2}(\lambda h)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(\lambda h)^3 + O(h^4) \right)$
- The stability can be studied via an energy method by using an expansion of the ODE,  $\lambda = a + bi$



# Here, we examine the usual stability analysis techniques.

- The magnitude of the amplification factor is plotted to display the stability region where it is less than one,



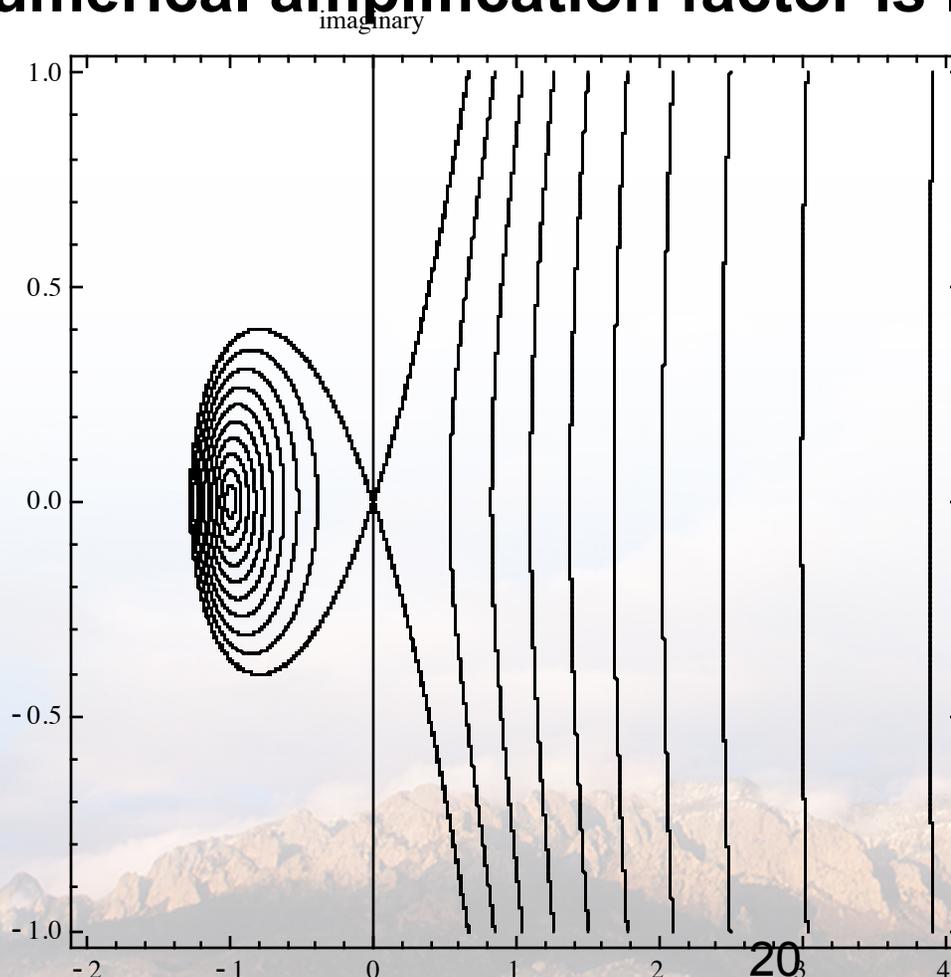
$$A = \sqrt{(1 + ha)^2 + (hb)^2}$$

The method can be safely used inside the region plotted



# Here, we examine the usual stability analysis techniques (continued).

- Another interesting view are the “order stars” where the numerical amplification factor is less than the analytical



$$\frac{\sqrt{(1+ha)^2 + (hb)^2}}{\text{Exp}[a-b]} \leq 1$$

The method can be safely used inside the region plotted because the solution is damped more than the analytical solution



# With this foundation, we can augment these techniques to provide extended results.

- The key is to realize that the error can be computed everywhere,  $\text{Error}(h) = |A(h) - \exp(\lambda h)|$

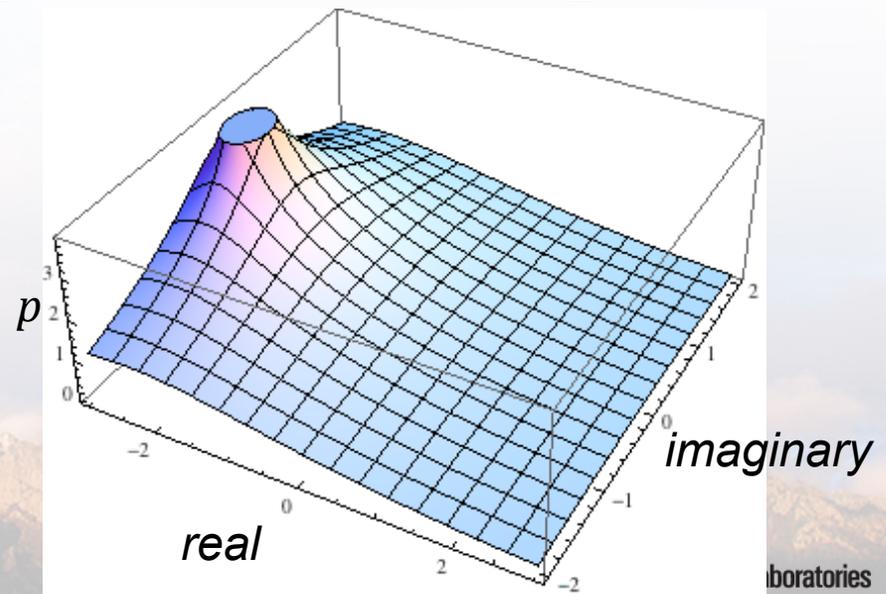
- ◆ Compute the error with a refined step size ( $h/2$ ),

$$\text{Error}(h/2) = \left| \left( A(h/2)^2 - \exp(\lambda h) \right) \right|$$

- ◆ The convergence rate can then be easily computed using the standard form,  $p = \log[\text{Error}(h) / \text{Error}(h/2)] / \log(2)$

- ◆ This convergences to the asymptotic limit of 1 as  $h$  goes to zero.

- Compute the error as a function of discrete integration steps



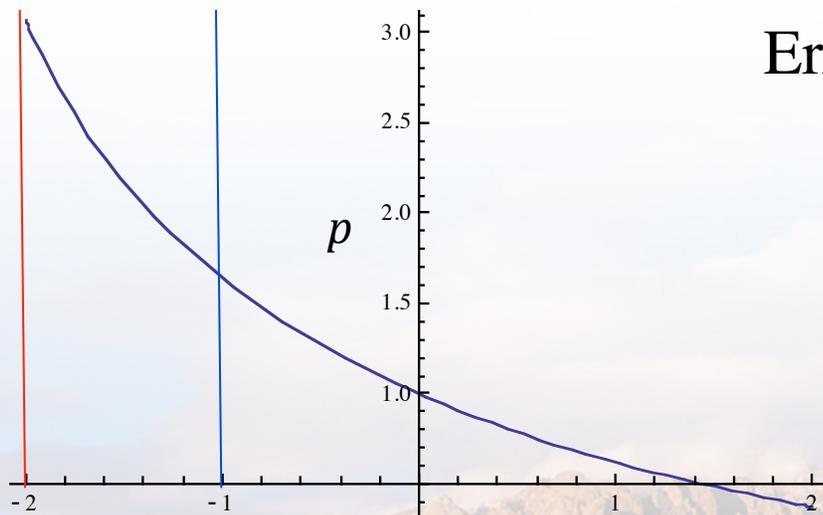
# This is the error and convergence for a single step, but multiple steps are used.

- The results change a bit under two conditions:

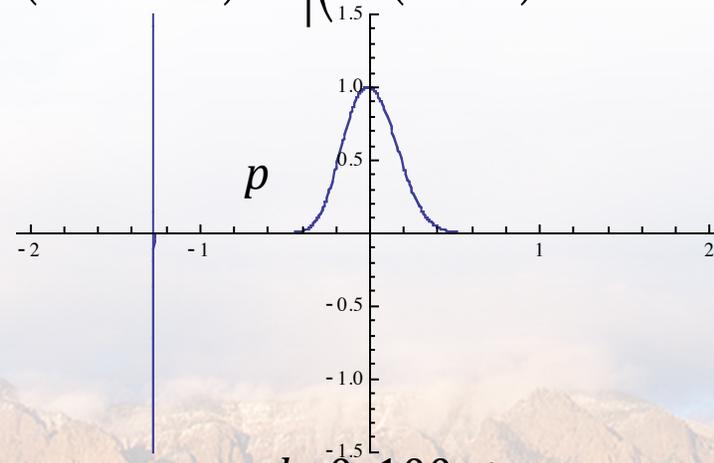
- ◆ The method is applied in the region of strong stability
- ◆ As the step size becomes small, the result becomes less sensitive to the number of steps taken

- The form can be extended to give

$$\text{Error}(h/2, m) = \left| \left( A(h/2)^{2m} - \exp(m\lambda h) \right) \right|$$



$a, b=0$ , single step



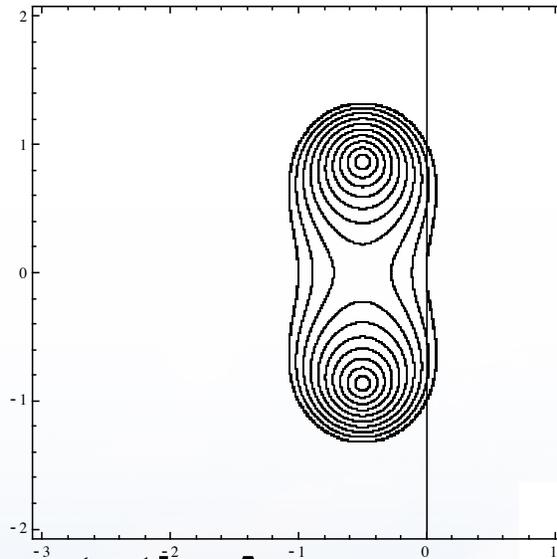
$a, b=0$ , 100 steps



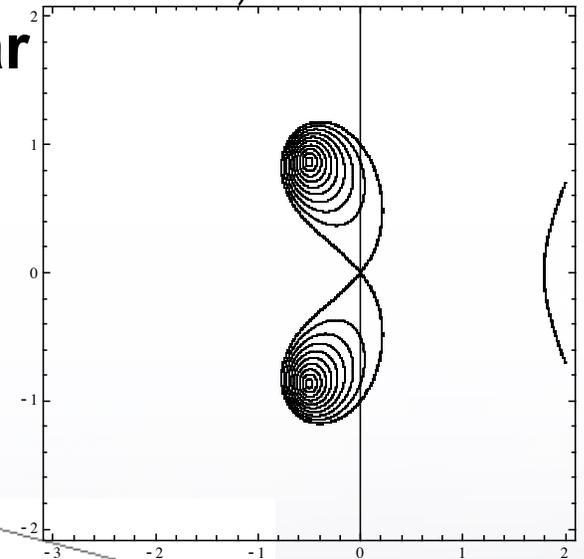
# We can analyze the second-order modified Euler method similarly

■ **Asymptotic accuracy** Error  $\approx u(0) \left( \frac{1}{6} (\lambda h)^3 + O(h^4) \right)$

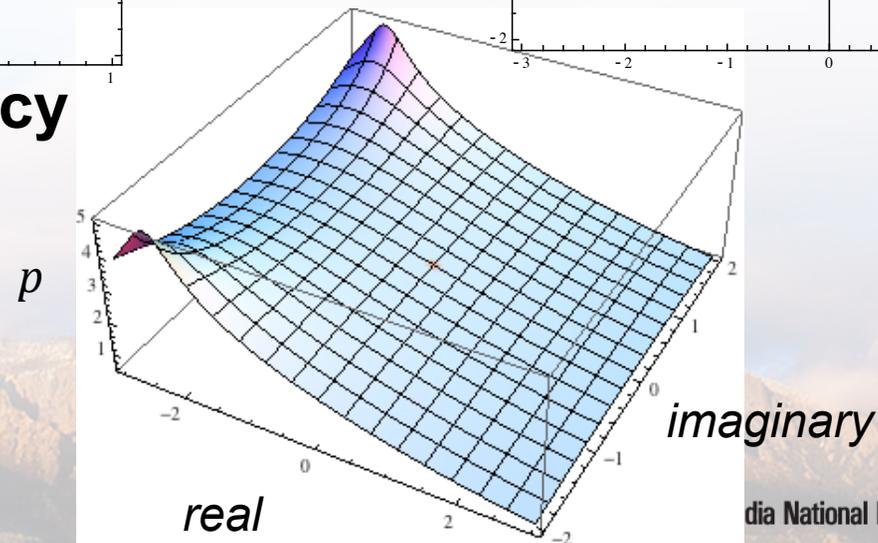
■ **Stability**



**Order star**

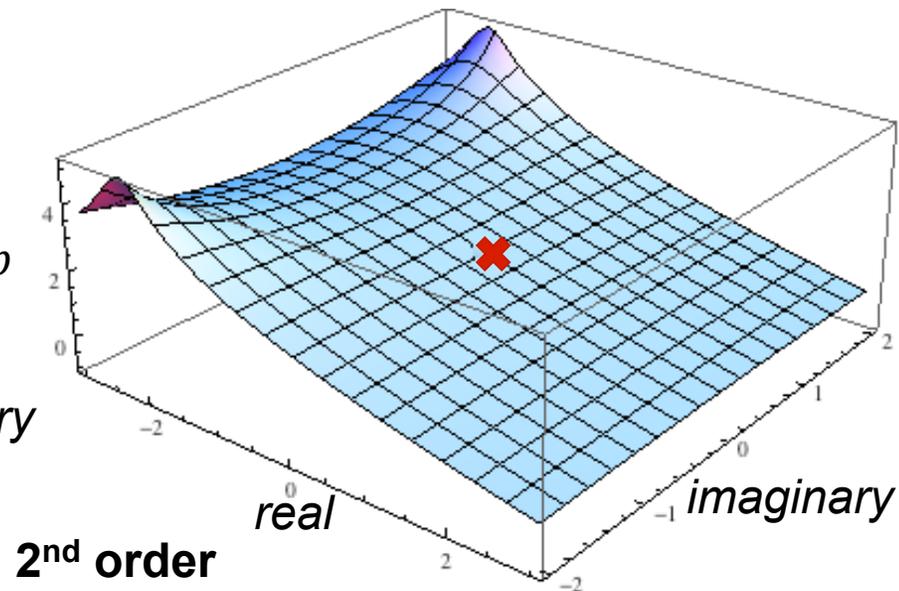
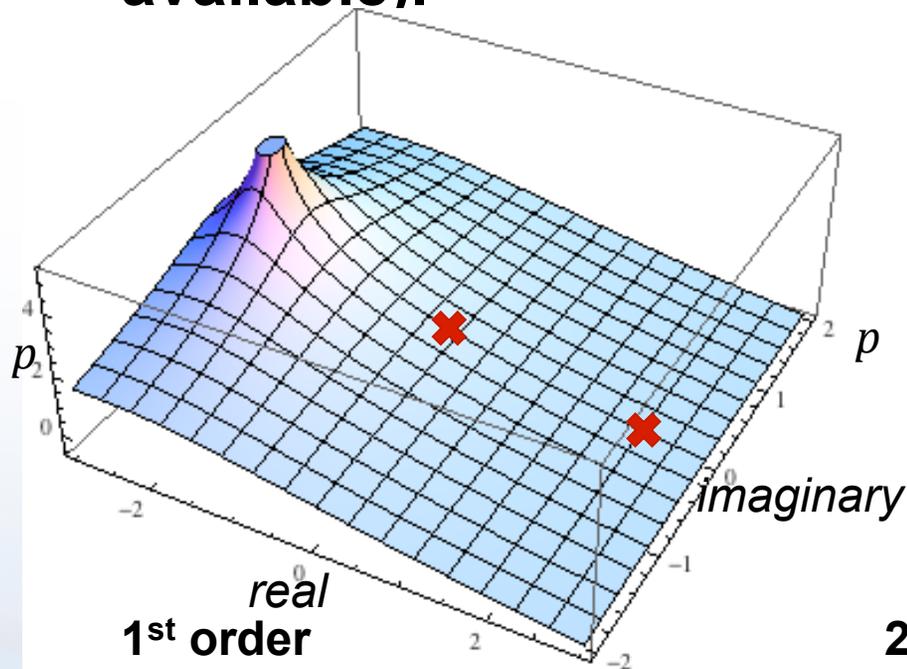


■ **Non-asymptotic Accuracy**



# We can apply the same methodology to calculation verification (no exact sol'n).

- The calculation verification has some subtle differences from code verification (where an exact solution is available).



- There is no reason we have to use a factor of two step size change (not enough time to go into this!).



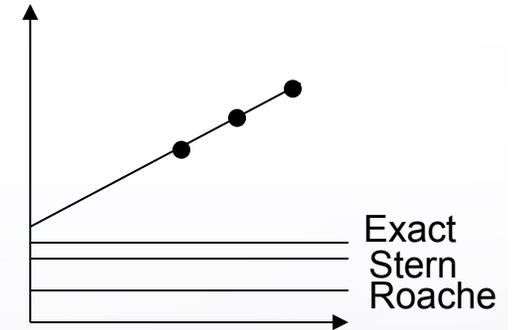
# Results for linear ODE can be used to produce “verification” of the analysis

- We’ll start with the simplest thing possible,

$$\dot{u} = \lambda u \rightarrow u(t) = u(0) \exp(-\lambda t)$$

- ◆ Use a first-order forward Euler method

$$\begin{array}{lll}
 p_T = 1 & \Delta_{cm} = 0.027 & F_{\text{Roache}} = 1.25 \\
 p = 1.13 & \Delta_{mf} = 0.012 & F_{\text{Stern}} = 1.18 \\
 & \delta = 0.015 & F_{\text{Exact}} = 1.12
 \end{array}$$



New analysis gives the right rate  $p_T = 1.13$

- ◆ Compare with a second-order modified Euler

$$\begin{array}{lll}
 p_T = 2 & \Delta_{cm} = 0.0036 & F_{\text{Roache}} = 1.25 \\
 p = 2.16 & \Delta_{mf} = 0.0008 & F_{\text{Stern}} = 1.16 \\
 & \delta = 0.0002 & F_{\text{Exact}} = 1.09
 \end{array}$$

Actually, the answers are correct to four digits!

New analysis gives the right rate  $p_T = 2.16$



## Results for linear ODE with a bad choice for time step size further test the methodology.

- We'll continue with the simplest thing possible and forward Euler,  $\dot{u} = \lambda u \rightarrow u(t) = u(0) \exp(-\lambda t)$
- Study a “growing” case

$$\begin{array}{lll} p_T = 1 & \Delta_{cm} = -29.07 & F_{Roache} = 1.25 \\ p = 0.167 & \Delta_{cm} = -24.46 & F_{Stern} = 5.31 \\ \lambda = -1 & \delta = -129.9 & F_{Exact} = 3.49 \end{array}$$

New analysis gives  **$p_T = 0.167$**

- In each of these three cases, the new analysis gives quite precise estimates of the observed convergence rate.



# Applying the same methodology to other PDEs

- Exact solutions in Fourier space are available for a broad class of PDEs, 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> order operators, etc...
- For example 1<sup>st</sup> order hyperbolic operators analyzed with Von Neumann analysis can be accomplished here for donor differencing of ,  $u_j^n = \exp(ij\theta) \Rightarrow u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n - c(u_j^n - u_{j-1}^n) \Rightarrow$

$$A \exp(ij\theta) = \exp(ij\theta) - C \left( \exp(ij\theta) - \exp(i(j-1)\theta) \right)$$

$$A = 1 - C \left( 1 - \cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta) \right)$$

$$\text{amp} = \sqrt{\left[ 1 - C \left( 1 + \cos(\theta) \right) \right]^2 + \left( -C \sin(\theta) \right)^2} \quad \text{phase} = \arctan \left( \frac{-C \sin(\theta)}{\left[ 1 - C \left( 1 + \cos(\theta) \right) \right]} \right) / (-c\theta)$$



# Standard Fourier analysis for PDEs (continued)

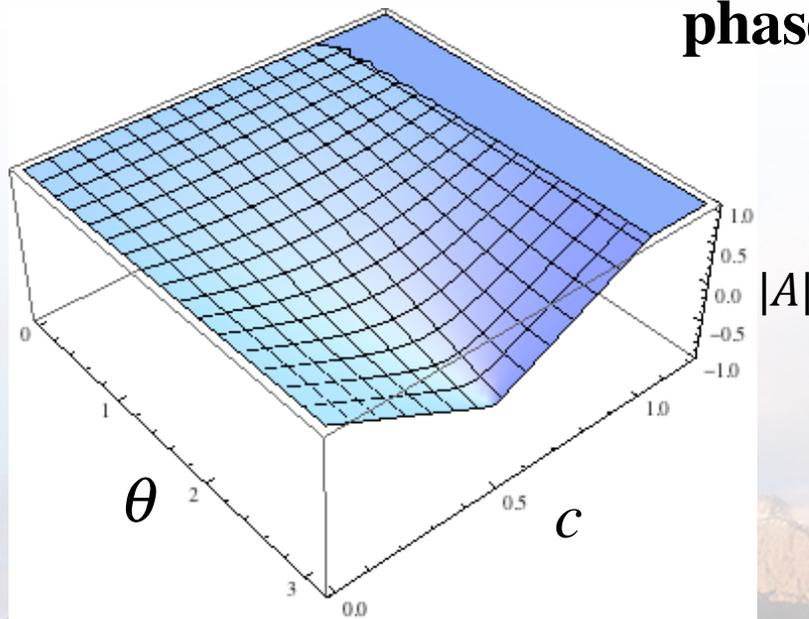
- Take an expansion to find the asymptotic error relations,

- ◆ Amplitude error even order errors

$$\text{amp} \approx 1 + \left( -\frac{c}{2} + \frac{c^2}{2} \right) \theta^2 + O(\theta^4)$$

- ◆ Phase error odd order (divide by the angle!)

$$\text{phase} \approx 1 + \left( -\frac{1}{6} + \frac{c}{2} - \frac{c^2}{3} \right) \theta^2 + O(\theta^4)$$



# What does the convergence analysis look like? First, some preliminaries...

- We can converge in either space, time or both.
- For some hyperbolic integrators, space & time are linked, and time only refinement is not convergent, but calculation verification is.

- ◆ These methods are based on the “Lax-Wendroff” procedure where time accuracy is achieved with spatial derivatives.

$$u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n - v \left( u_{j+1/2}^{n+1/2} - u_{j-1/2}^{n+1/2} \right); u_{j+1/2}^{n+1/2} = u_j^n + \frac{1}{2} (1 - v) (u_j^n - u_{j-1}^n)$$

- ◆ Other methods are based on the “method of lines” and do converge independently in space and time

- ◆ This is because time and space are discretized

$$\text{independently. } u_j^{n+1/2} = u_j^n - \frac{v}{2} \left( u_{j+1/2}^n - u_{j-1/2}^n \right); u_{j+1/2}^n = u_j^n + \frac{1}{2} \left( u_j^n - u_{j-1}^n \right)$$

$$u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n - v \left( u_{j+1/2}^{n+1/2} - u_{j-1/2}^{n+1/2} \right); u_{j+1/2}^{n+1/2} = u_j^{n+1/2} + \frac{1}{2} \left( u_j^{n+1/2} - u_{j-1}^{n+1/2} \right)$$



# We worked on a verification exercise that resulted in some seemingly mysterious results.

- Does the analysis of the methods explain the convergence rates? Its all calculation verification

Cells	$L^1$ error	$L^1$ rate	$L^2$ error	$L^2$ rate
100	$2.80 \times 10^{-1}$	—	$3.75 \times 10^{-1}$	—
200	$7.06 \times 10^{-2}$	1.99	$9.53 \times 10^{-2}$	1.98

CFL	$L^1$ error	$L^1$ rate	$L^2$ error	$L^2$ rate
0.10	$2.01 \times 10^{-2}$	—	$2.62 \times 10^{-2}$	—
0.05	$1.08 \times 10^{-2}$	0.96	$1.35 \times 10^{-2}$	0.96

CFL	$L^1$ error	$L^1$ rate	$L^2$ error	$L^2$ rate
0.10	$1.40 \times 10^{-3}$	—	$1.87 \times 10^{-3}$	—
0.05	$3.51 \times 10^{-4}$	1.99	$4.70 \times 10^{-4}$	1.99

- Combined space-time

- LW time only

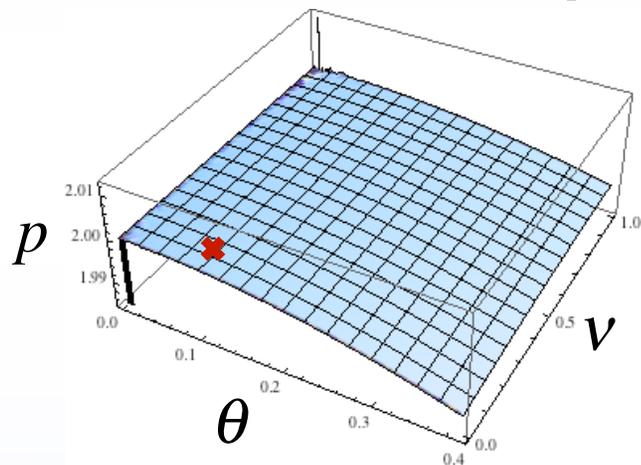
- MOL time only



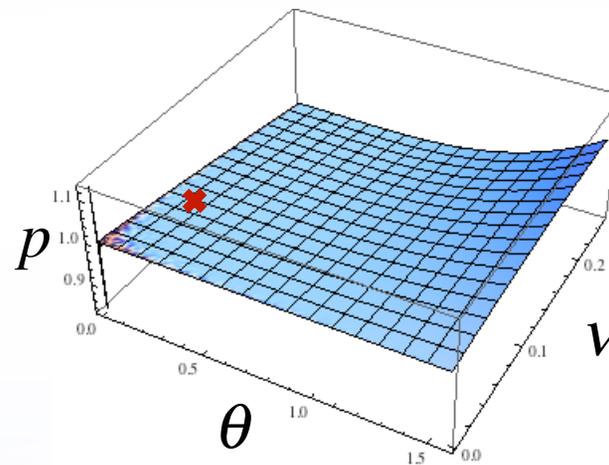
# What does the convergence analysis tell us for each case?

## ■ L-W scheme

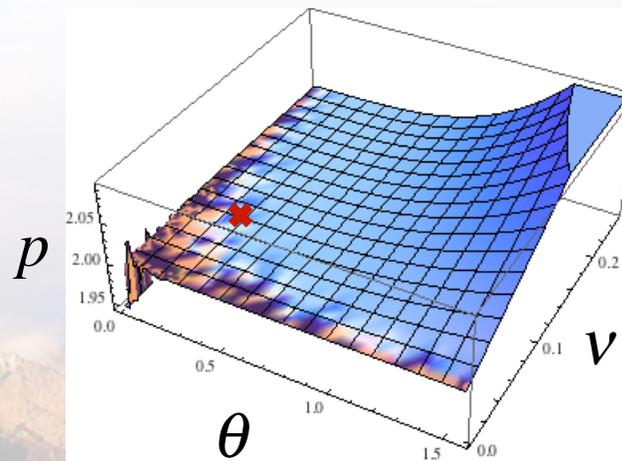
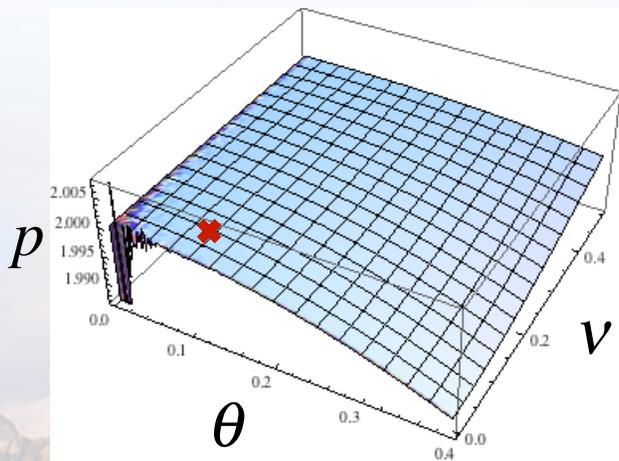
time-space



time only

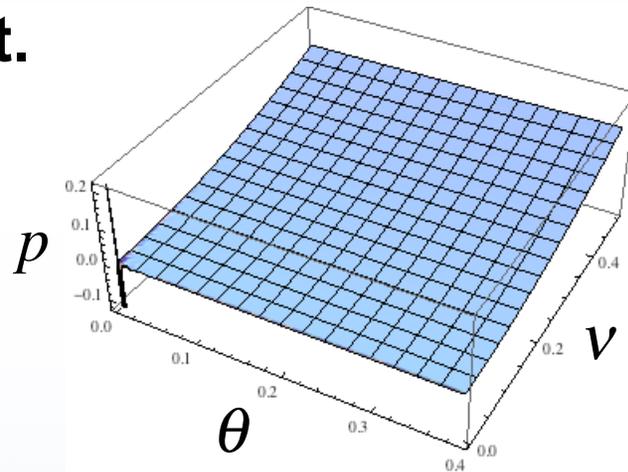


## ■ MOL scheme

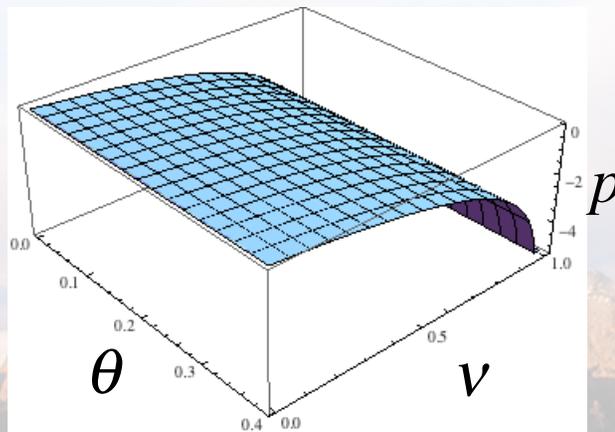


# The schemes show distinct difference in convergence toward the exact solution.

- **MOL: very poorly convergent under time only refinement.**



- **L-W: divergent under time only refinement!**





Since we are advecting a Gaussian, we need to find the effective wave number.

- The function is the following:

$$u(x) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} \exp\left[-30\left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2\right]$$

- ◆ Solved on a grid of 100 cells.
- Convert this to an effective wave number for the function through an integration of the second derivative of the Gaussian over the domain  $[0,1]$  and finding the effective trigonometric function.
  - ◆ This leads to an effective wave number of  $\theta \approx 0.0911$
  - ◆ Estimated  $L_2$  convergence rates
    - *L-W space time: 1.98 (observed 1.98)*
    - *L-W time only: 0.96 (observed 0.96)*
    - *MOL time only: 2.00 (observed 1.99)*





## Summary of results

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- **Verification is usually applied where it is formally invalid, i.e., outside the asymptotic range of convergence, so the theoretical convergence rate is not observed.**
- **This problem can be addressed by developing analysis methods that can analyze methods without taking the limit of vanishing discretization parameters.**
- **Several examples have been shown to demonstrate this technique, and the potential accuracy of the predicted convergence rates.**
- **The work is rather preliminary and further extensions and demonstrations are needed.**



# “Dilbert isn’t a comic strip, it’s a documentary” – Paul Dubois



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