

Solving PDEs Numerically on Manifolds with Arbitrary Spatial Topology

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Workshop on Geometrical Numerical Methods for PDEs
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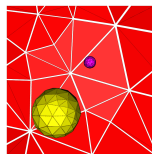
- Representations of arbitrary 3-manifolds.
- Boundary conditions for elliptic and hyperbolic PDEs.
- Mapping tensor fields across computational boundaries.
- Numerical methods.
- Numerical tests for solutions of simple PDEs.

Representations of Arbitrary 3-Manifolds

- **Goal:** Develop numerical methods that are easily adapted to solving elliptic PDEs on 3-manifolds Σ with arbitrary topology, and hyperbolic PDEs on manifolds with topology $R \times \Sigma$.

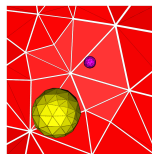
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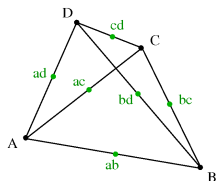
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- Cubes make more convenient computational domains for finite difference and spectral numerical methods.
- Can arbitrary 3-manifolds be “cubed”, i.e. represented as a set of cubes plus a list of rules for gluing their faces together?

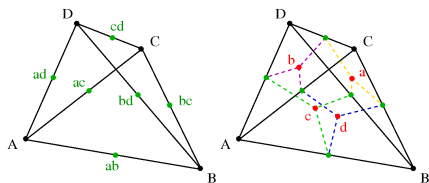
“Cubed” Representations of Arbitrary 3-Manifolds

- Every triangulation can be refined to a “cubed” representation: divide each tetrahedron into four “distorted” cubes.



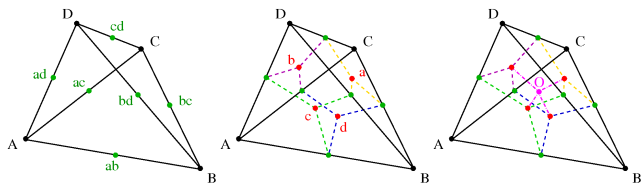
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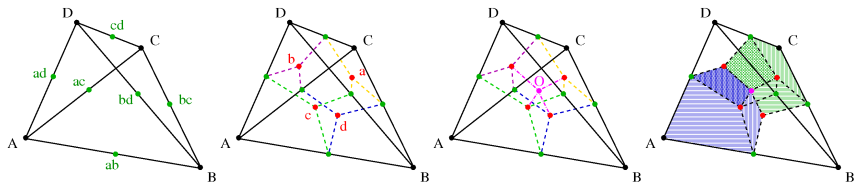
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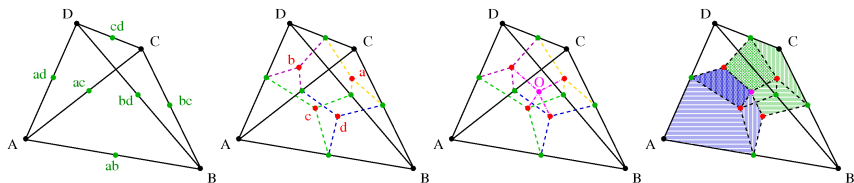
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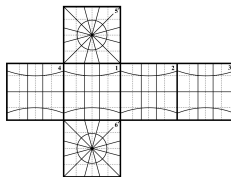
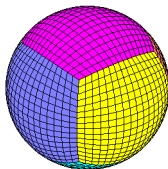
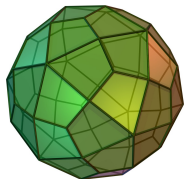


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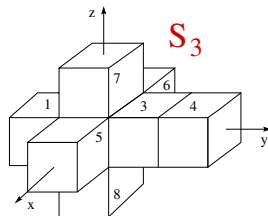
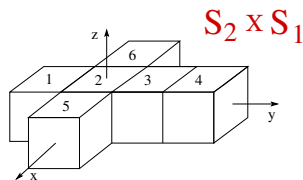
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- Every 3-manifold can therefore be represented as a set of cubes, plus maps that identify their faces in the appropriate way.

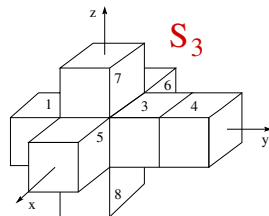
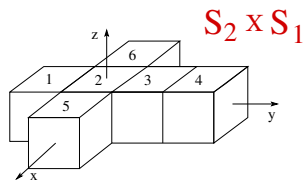


Solving PDEs on Cubed Manifolds



- Solve PDEs in each cubic block region separately.
- Use boundary conditions on cube faces to select the correct smooth global solution.

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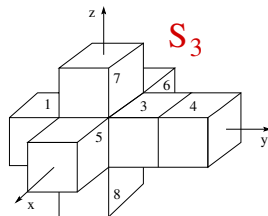
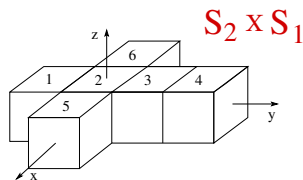


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$$U_A = U_B$$

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- For second-order strongly elliptic systems: enforce continuity on one face and continuity of normal derivatives on neighboring face,

$$U_A = U_B \quad \nabla_{n_B} U_B = -\nabla_{n_A} U_A.$$

- For first-order symmetric hyperbolic systems: set incoming characteristic fields with outgoing characteristics from neighbor,

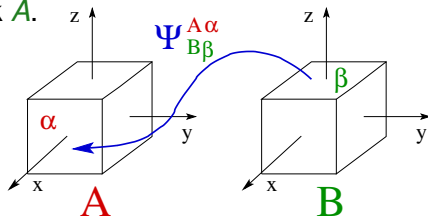
$$\tilde{u}_A^- = \tilde{u}_B^+ \quad \tilde{u}_B^- = \tilde{u}_A^+.$$

Mapping Boundary Data: Scalars

- Choose the cubic-block coordinate patches to have uniform (coordinate) size and orientation.
- Maps $\Psi_{B\beta}^{A\alpha}$ between boundary faces are linear:

$$x_A^i = c_{A\alpha}^i + C_{B\beta k}^{A\alpha i} (x_B^k - c_{B\beta}^k),$$

where $C_{B\beta k}^{A\alpha i}$ is a rotation-reflection matrix, and $c_{A\alpha}^i$ is the center of the α face of block A .

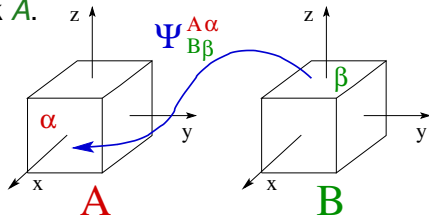


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- This map provides the needed boundary transformation law for scalar fields: $\bar{u}_A(x_A^i) \equiv u_B(x_B^k)$, where x_A^i and x_B^k are related by the coordinate boundary map.

Mapping Boundary Data: Tensors

- Jacobian of the boundary coordinate map gives the appropriate transformation law for vectors tangent to the boundary surface:

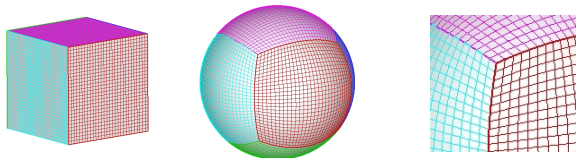
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- In general the normal coordinate basis vector $\partial_{A\sigma}$ is not the smooth extension of $\partial_{B\sigma}$, so a more complicated transformation law is needed for generic vectors.

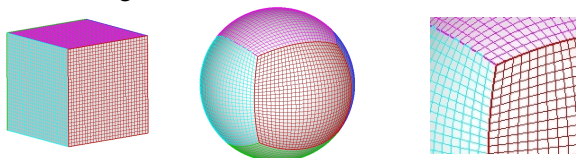


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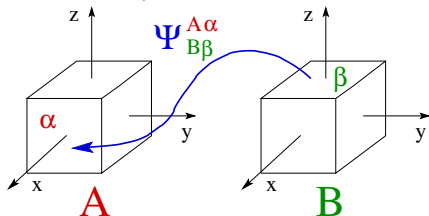
- Additional information must be specified to fix the relationship between the normal coordinate basis vectors, to ensure that smooth functions have smooth derivatives across the block boundaries.

Mapping Boundary Data: Tensors II

- One way to specify the required differentiable structure at the boundaries is to require a global smooth metric g_{ab} be provided.

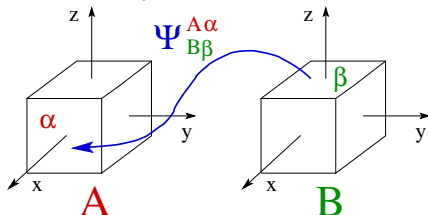
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- Use the metric g_{ab} to construct the outward directed unit normals n_{Aa} and n_{Ba} on each boundary face.



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- Use the metric g_{ab} to construct the outward directed unit normals n_{Aa} and n_{Ba} on each boundary face.



- These outward directed geometrical normals, $n_A^a = g_A^{ab} n_{Ab}$ and $n_B^a = g_B^{ab} n_{Bb}$, can be used to define the natural transformation law for smooth vectors across the boundaries:

$$\bar{v}_A^a(x_A^i) \equiv J_{B\beta b}^{A\alpha a} v_B^b(x_B^k),$$

$$\text{with } J_{B\beta b}^{A\alpha a} = C_{B\beta c}^{A\alpha a} (\delta_b^c - n_B^c n_{Bb}) - n_A^a n_{Bb}.$$

Numerical Methods

- Represent each component of each tensor function as a (finite) sum of spectral basis functions, $\mathbf{u} = \sum_{ijk} \mathbf{u}_{ijk} T_i(x) T_j(y) T_k(z)$, in each cubic block region.

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- Evaluate the PDEs and BCs on a set of collocation points, $\{x_i, y_j, z_k\}$, chosen so that $\mathbf{u}(x_i, y_j, z_k)$ can be mapped efficiently onto the spectral coefficients \mathbf{u}_{ijk} . Derivatives become linear combinations of the fields: $\partial_x \mathbf{u}(x_i, y_j, z_k) = \sum_{\ell} D_i^{\ell} \mathbf{u}(x_{\ell}, y_j, z_k)$.

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- For elliptic systems, these pseudo-spectral equations become a system of algebraic equations for $\mathbf{u}(x_i, y_j, z_k)$. Solve these algebraic equations using standard numerical methods.
- For hyperbolic systems these equations become a system of ordinary differential equations for $\mathbf{u}(x_i, y_j, z_k, t)$. Solve these equations by the method of lines using standard ode integrators.

Testing the Elliptic PDE Solver

- Solve the elliptic PDE, $\nabla^i \nabla_i \psi - c^2 \psi = f$ where c^2 is a constant, and f is a given function.

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- Use the co-variant derivative ∇_i for the round metric on $S^2 \times S^1$:

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= R_1^2 d\chi^2 + R_2^2 \left(d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 \right), \\ &= \left(\frac{2\pi R_1}{L} \right)^2 dz^2 + \left(\frac{\pi R_2}{2L} \right)^2 \frac{(1 + X_A^2)(1 + Y_A^2)}{(1 + X_A^2 + Y_A^2)^2} \\ &\quad \times \left[(1 + X_A^2) dx^2 - 2X_A Y_A dx dy + (1 + Y_A^2) dy^2 \right]. \end{aligned}$$

where $X_A = \tan [\pi(x - c_A^x)/2L]$ and $Y_A = \tan [\pi(y - c_A^y)/2L]$ are “local” Cartesian coordinates in each cubic-block.

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- The unique, exact, analytical solution to this problem is $\psi = \psi_A$, when $\omega^2 = \ell(\ell + 1)/R_2^2 + k^2/R_1^2$.

Testing the Elliptic PDE Solver II

- Measure the accuracy of the numerical solution ψ_N as a function of numerical resolution N (grid points per dimension) in two ways:
 - First, with the residual $R_N \equiv \nabla^i \nabla_i \psi_N - c^2 \psi_N - f$, and its norm:

$$\mathcal{E}_R = \sqrt{\frac{\int R_N^2 \sqrt{g} d^3x}{\int f^2 \sqrt{g} d^3x}}.$$

- Second, with the solution error, $\Delta\psi = \psi_N - \psi_A$, and its norm:

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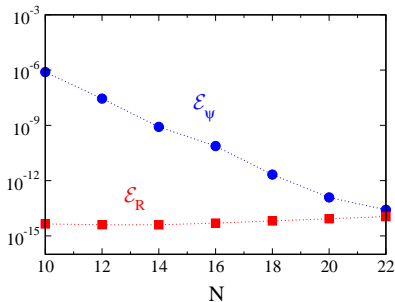
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- All these numerical tests were performed by implementing the ideas described here into the Spectral Einstein Code (SpEC) developed originally by the Caltech/Cornell numerical relativity collaboration.

Testing the Hyperbolic PDE Solver

- Solve the equation $\partial_t^2 \psi = \nabla_i \nabla^i \psi$ with given initial data.
- Convert the second-order equation into an equivalent first-order system: $\partial_t \psi = -\Pi$, $\partial_t \Pi = -\nabla^i \Phi_i$ and $\partial_t \Phi_i = -\nabla_i \Pi$ with constraint $\mathcal{C}_i = \nabla_i \psi - \Phi_i$.

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- Choose initial data with $\psi_{t=0} = \Re[Y_{k\ell m}(\chi, \theta, \varphi)]$,
 $\Pi_{t=0} = -\Re[i\omega Y_{k\ell m}(\chi, \theta, \varphi)]$ and $\Phi_{i t=0} = \Re[\nabla_i Y_{k\ell m}(\chi, \theta, \varphi)]$
where $\omega^2 = k(k+2)/R_3^2$.

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- Use the co-variant derivative ∇_i for the round metric on S^3 :

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= R_3^2 \left[d\chi^2 + \sin^2 \chi \left(d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 \right) \right], \\ &= \left(\frac{\pi R_3}{2L} \right)^2 \frac{(1 + X_A^2)(1 + Y_A^2)(1 + Z_A^2)}{(1 + X_A^2 + Y_A^2 + Z_A^2)^2} \left[\frac{(1 + X_A^2)(1 + Y_A^2 + Z_A^2)}{(1 + Y_A^2)(1 + Z_A^2)} dx^2 + \frac{(1 + Y_A^2)(1 + X_A^2 + Z_A^2)}{(1 + X_A^2)(1 + Z_A^2)} dy^2 \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{(1 + Z_A^2)(1 + X_A^2 + Y_A^2)}{(1 + X_A^2)(1 + Y_A^2)} dz^2 - \frac{2X_A Y_A}{1 + Z_A^2} dx dy - \frac{2X_A Z_A}{1 + Y_A^2} dx dz - \frac{2Y_A Z_A}{1 + X_A^2} dy dz \right]. \end{aligned}$$

- Choose initial data with $\psi_{t=0} = \Re[Y_{k\ell m}(\chi, \theta, \varphi)]$, $\Pi_{t=0} = -\Re[i\omega Y_{k\ell m}(\chi, \theta, \varphi)]$ and $\Phi_{i t=0} = \Re[\nabla_i Y_{k\ell m}(\chi, \theta, \varphi)]$ where $\omega^2 = k(k+2)/R_3^2$.
- The unique, exact, analytical solution to this problem is $\psi = \psi_A = \Re[e^{i\omega t} Y_{k\ell m}(\chi, \theta, \varphi)]$, $\Pi = -\partial_t \psi_A$, and $\Phi_i = \nabla_i \psi_A$.

Testing the Hyperbolic PDE Solver II

- Measure the accuracy of the numerical solution ψ_N as a function of numerical resolution N (grid points per dimension) in two ways:
 - First, with the solution error, $\Delta\psi = \psi_N - \psi_A$, and its norm:

$$\mathcal{E}_\psi = \sqrt{\frac{\int \Delta\psi^2 \sqrt{g} d^3x}{\int \psi^2 \sqrt{g} d^3x}}.$$

- Second, with the constraint error, $\mathcal{C}_i = \Phi_i - \nabla_i\psi$, and its norm:

$$\mathcal{E}_\mathcal{C} = \sqrt{\frac{\int g^{ij} \mathcal{C}_i \mathcal{C}_j \sqrt{g} d^3x}{\int g^{ij} (\Phi_i \Phi_j + \nabla_i \psi \nabla_j \psi) \sqrt{g} d^3x}}.$$

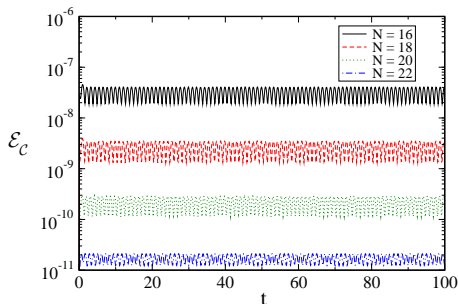
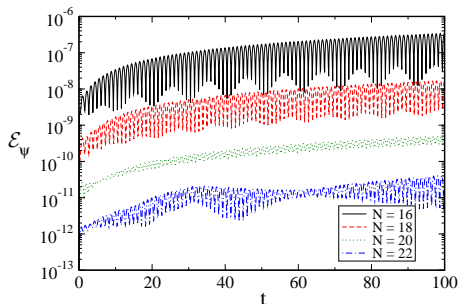
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- Second, with the constraint error, $\mathcal{C}_i = \Phi_i - \nabla_i\psi$, and its norm:

$$\mathcal{E}_c = \sqrt{\frac{\int g^{ij} \mathcal{C}_i \mathcal{C}_j \sqrt{g} d^3x}{\int g^{ij} (\Phi_i \Phi_j + \nabla_i \psi \nabla_j \psi) \sqrt{g} d^3x}}.$$



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- These methods have been tested by solving simple elliptic and hyperbolic equations on several compact manifolds.
- These methods have also been tested by finding simple solutions to Einstein's equation on several compact manifolds.