# The Projection Method

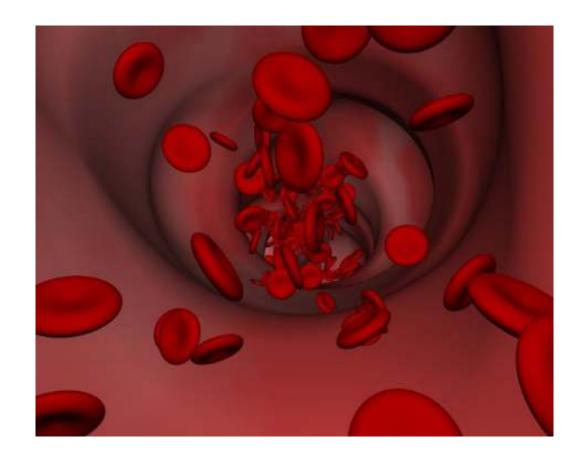
A High Performance Algorithm for Numerically Solving Stokes Flow

### Contents

- I. Motivation
- II. Method Derivation
- III. Results

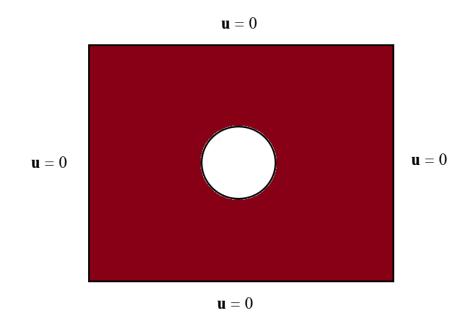
### Fluid Dynamics of Red Blood Cells

- Organisms that can fill their cells with a sugar, increasing viscosity to stop cell metabolism (hibernation).
- Can this method be applied to red blood cells to replace cryopreservation?
- Biologists will greatly benefit from having a model to simulate the fluid dynamics.



### Assumptions for Regime Selection

- The fluid is Newtonian and incompressible.
- Red blood cells are modeled as vesicles (cell wall only).
- Modeled in two dimensions.



### Incompressible Navier Stokes Equation

Non-dimensionalize the full Incompressible Navier Stokes Equation:

$$Re(\mathbf{u}_t + \nabla \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}) = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^T)) + \mathbf{f}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

- Re is the Reynolds Number.
- $\rho$  is the density,  $\mu$  is the viscosity coefficient,  ${\bf u}$  is the flow velocity, p is the pressure, and  ${\bf f}$  is the body force.

### Reynolds Number

 The Reynolds Number is the ratio of the inertial forces to the viscous forces:

$$Re = \frac{\tilde{\rho}\tilde{u}}{\frac{\tilde{\mu}}{\tilde{L}}}$$

- $\tilde{u}$  is velocity of the blood flow
- $\tilde{\mu}$  is the viscosity of the blood
- $\tilde{L}$  is the radius of the blood cell
- Thus,  $\tilde{L} << 1 \Rightarrow \frac{\tilde{\rho}\tilde{u}}{\frac{\tilde{\mu}}{\tilde{L}}} = Re \to 0$

### Stokes Equation

$$Re(\mathbf{u}_t + \nabla \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}) = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^T)) + \mathbf{f}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

Becomes:

$$0 = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^T)) + \mathbf{f}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

### Decoupling Method

- If  $\mu$  is spatially constant, solve for p, u, and v by decoupling the variables into separate vectors.
- Take the divergence of both sides of the Stokes Equation.
- Rearrange the mixed partial derivatives and group the terms.
- Apply the divergence-free condition.

$$0 = \nabla \cdot (-\nabla p + \mu \Delta \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{f})$$

$$0 = \nabla \cdot \left(-\begin{bmatrix} p_x \\ p_y \end{bmatrix} + \mu \begin{bmatrix} u_{xx} + u_{yy} \\ v_{xx} + v_{yy} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} f1 \\ f2 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

$$0 = -(p_{xx} + p_{yy}) + \mu(u_{xxx} + u_{yyx} + v_{xxy} + v_{yyy}) + f1_x + f2_y$$

$$\Delta p = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{f}$$

### Decoupling Method (Continued)

 The addition of this independent equation for p makes the other two equations for u and v fully determined, allowing them all to be solved independently using the following system:

1.

$$p_{xx} + p_{yy} = f1_x + f2_y$$

2.

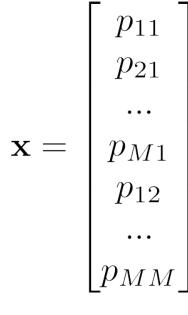
$$\mu(u_{xx} + u_{yy}) = p_x - f1$$

3.

$$\mu(v_{xx} + v_{yy}) = p_y - f2$$

### Decoupling Method (Continued)

- Descretize p, u, and v each into grids of size  $M \times M$  .
- Stack the  ${\cal M}^2$  discretized points into a column vector for each variable.



$p_{11}$	$p_{12}$	<i>p</i> <sub>13</sub>	$p_{14}$
$p_{21}$	$p_{22}$	$p_{23}$	$p_{24}$
$p_{31}$	$p_{32}$	p <sub>33</sub>	<i>p</i> <sub>34</sub>
$p_{41}$	$p_{42}$	$p_{43}$	$p_{44}$

### Decoupling Method (Continued)

- Construct an  $M^2 \times M^2$  matrix **A** and a right hand side vector **b** that consists of the normal second order finite difference approximations.
- Solve Ax = b once for each variable for three total solves, using the Matlab "\" operator.
- This algorithm is only possible if  $\mu$  is spatially constant, otherwise the divergence operator will generate extra terms and the pressure will not be successfully decoupled.

### Saddle-Point Method

- Traditional way of solving the system when  $\mu$  is spatially variant.
- Discretize u, v, and p into a grid of size  $M \times M$ .
- Stack u, v, and p into a single column vector.

### Saddle-Point Method (Continued)

• If  $\mu$  is spatially constant,  $\nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^T)) = \mu \Delta \mathbf{u}$ , and the system becomes:

$$0 = -\nabla p + \mu \Delta \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{f}.$$

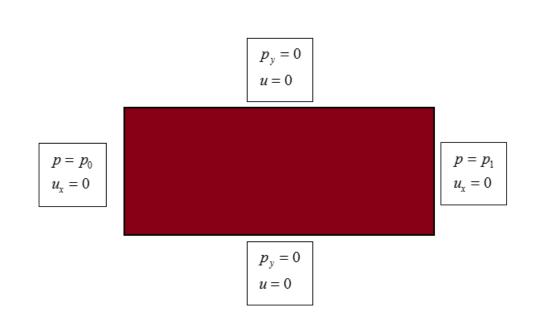
$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

• Construct the system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  and use the Matlab "\" operator to solve:  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ 

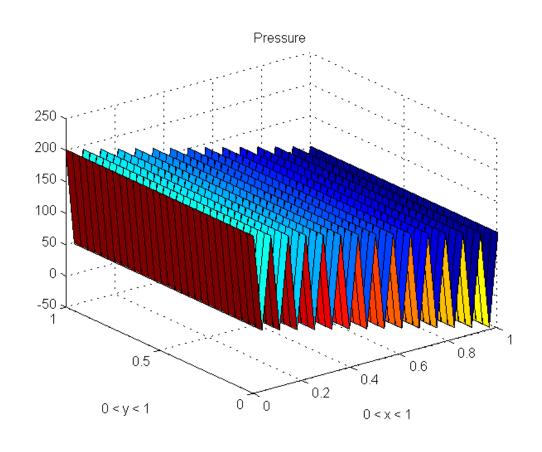
$$\begin{bmatrix} -\nabla & \mu \Delta \\ 0 & \nabla \cdot \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p \\ \mathbf{u} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\mathbf{f} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Fluid in a Pipe

- As a demonstration of concept, the Saddle-Point Method is applied to a fluid in a pipe problem.
- No-Slip top and bottom for u.
- Dirichlet conditions on the left and right to create a pressure gradient.
- Neumann for u on the left and right sides.
- Neumann for p on the top and bottom.



- Incorrect solution:
   "Checkerboard" Pattern.
- Caused by the first derivative finite difference formula for p.
- Uses the two neighboring pressure cells, but not the actual pressure cell being described.
- Information ends up skipping every other cell.



- To address this issue, create a staggered grid.
- In the staggered grid, The p nodes are a distance of  $\frac{\Delta x}{2}$  and  $\frac{\Delta y}{2}$  away from the u and v nodes.

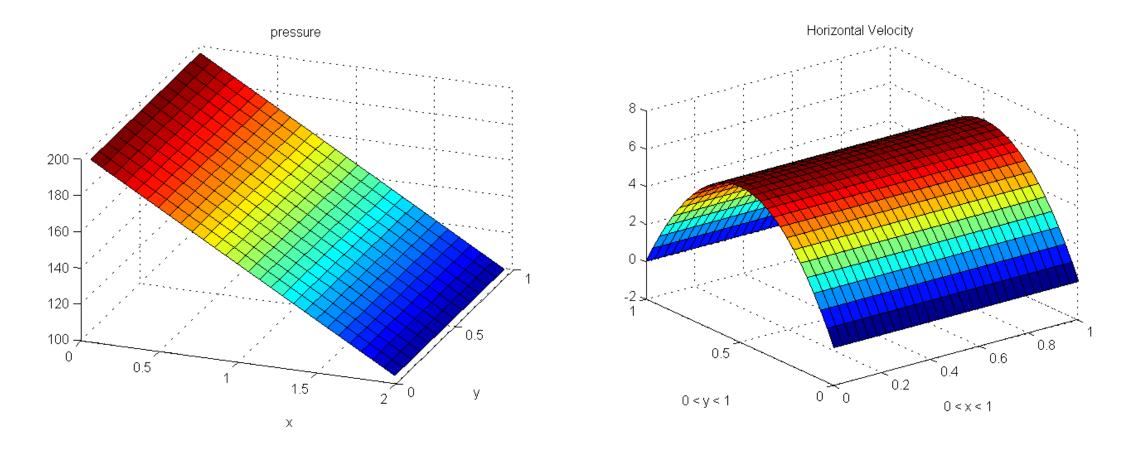
$p_{11}$	<i>u</i> <sub>11</sub>	$p_{12}$	<i>u</i> <sub>12</sub>	$p_{13}$	$u_{13}$	<i>p</i> <sub>14</sub>	$u_{14}$	$p_{15}$
$v_{11}$		v <sub>12</sub>		v <sub>13</sub>		v <sub>14</sub>		$v_{15}$
$p_{21}$	<i>u</i> <sub>21</sub>	P <sub>22</sub>	<i>u</i> <sub>22</sub>	P <sub>23</sub>	<i>u</i> <sub>23</sub>	P <sub>24</sub>	<i>u</i> <sub>24</sub>	p <sub>25</sub>
v <sub>21</sub>		v <sub>22</sub>		v <sub>23</sub>		v <sub>14</sub>		v <sub>45</sub>
$p_{31}$	<i>u</i> <sub>31</sub>	$p_{32}$	<i>u</i> <sub>32</sub>	$p_{33}$	<i>u</i> <sub>33</sub>	$p_{34}$	<i>u</i> <sub>34</sub>	p <sub>35</sub>
v <sub>31</sub>		v <sub>32</sub>		$v_{33}$		v <sub>34</sub>		v <sub>35</sub>
$p_{41}$	$u_{41}$	$p_{42}$	<i>u</i> <sub>42</sub>	$p_{43}$	<i>u</i> <sub>43</sub>	$p_{44}$	<i>u</i> <sub>44</sub>	P <sub>45</sub>
$v_{41}$		v <sub>42</sub>		v <sub>43</sub>		v <sub>44</sub>		$v_{45}$
<i>p</i> <sub>51</sub>	<i>u</i> <sub>51</sub>	p <sub>52</sub>	<i>u</i> <sub>52</sub>	<i>p</i> <sub>53</sub>	<i>u</i> <sub>53</sub>	<i>p</i> <sub>54</sub>	<i>u</i> <sub>54</sub>	<i>p</i> <sub>55</sub>

- A consists of the normal second order finite difference approximations, with the exception of  $\nabla p$ .
- Creating a Taylor Expansion about the u and v nodes yields a modified second order difference formula for  $p_x$  and  $p_y$ :

$$p_x = \frac{p_{i+1,j} - p_{i,j}}{\Delta x}$$

$$p_y = \frac{p_{i,j+1} - p_{i,j}}{\Delta y}$$

Pressure and horizontal velocity solution with the staggered grid:



### Time Analysis

- As a worst-case scenario, assume the "\" operator will use Gaussian Elimination to solve Ax = b.
- The number of multiplications and additions to convert **A** to Reduced Row Echelon form will be a sum of squares.
- This will require  $O(n^3)$  Floating Point Operations (FLOPS), where n is the number of rows in **A.**

# Time Analysis (Continued)

#### Decoupling Method

- For each solve, **A** has  $M^2$  rows, because **x** is a column vector containing each value for u, v, or p on the  $M \times M$  discretized grid.
- The number of FLOPS is  $3 \cdot O(n^3) = 3 \cdot O(M^6)$  , where  $n = M^2$  .

#### Saddle-Point Method

- A has  $3M^2$  rows because **x** is a stacked vector containing u, v, and p for each value on the  $M\times M$  discretized grid.
- Since n is three times as large as it is in the Decoupling Method, this will require  $O(n^3) = O(27M^6)\,$  FLOPS.

### The Need for a New Algorithm

- The Saddle-Point Method is slow, scaling very badly as M increases.
- The Decoupling Method can only be used when  $\mu$  is spatially constant.
- Construct a new method that decouples u, v, and p yet can still solve a system with spatially varying viscosity.

### Contents

- I. Motivation
- II. Method Derivation
- III. Results

### Projection Method

Helmholtz-Hodge Decomposition Theorem:

A vector field  $\Psi$  defined on a simply connected domain can be uniquely decomposed into a divergence-free component,  $\Gamma$ , and a curl-free component,  $\nabla \Phi$ :

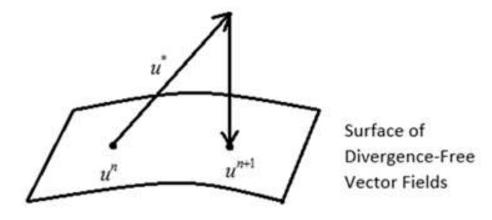
$$\Psi = \Gamma + \nabla \Phi$$

Align the Navier Stokes Equation:

$$\nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^T)) - Re(\nabla \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}) + \mathbf{f} = Re(\mathbf{u}_t) + \nabla p$$

#### General Strategy:

- Advance  $\mathbf{u}^n$  forward in time using an iterative approximation.
- The errors in this approximation will take  ${\bf u}^{n+1}$  off of the divergence-free solution space where it belongs.
- ullet Assign this solution to a temporary vector  ${f u}^*$ .
- Project  $\mathbf{u}^*$  back onto the divergence-free solution space to find the correct value of  $\mathbf{u}^{n+1}$ .



$$Re\mathbf{u}_{t} = RHS$$

$$Re\frac{\mathbf{u}^{n+1} - \mathbf{u}^{n}}{\Delta t} \approx RHS^{n}$$

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} \approx \mathbf{u}^{n} + \frac{\Delta t}{Re}RHS^{n}$$

$$\mathbf{u}^{*} = \mathbf{u}^{n} + \frac{\Delta t}{Re}RHS^{n}$$

 Define the projection operator, P(a) as the projection of vector a onto the divergence-free solution space:

$$P(\mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{a} - \frac{\langle \mathbf{a}, \nabla p \rangle}{\langle \nabla p, \nabla p \rangle} \nabla p.$$

• It can be shown that the Dirichlet boundary conditions  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \hat{n} = 0$  are sufficient to cause the following properties to hold:

$$P(\mathbf{u}_t) = \mathbf{u}_t$$
$$P(\nabla p) = 0$$

- Apply the P operator to both sides of the Navier Stokes Equation.
- Use the properties of the P operator to eliminate  $\nabla p$  .
- For reasons that will become clear later, Add and subtract  $\frac{1}{\Delta t}\mathbf{u}_t$  on the inside and the outside of the P operator.
- These steps result in:

$$Re(\mathbf{u}_t) = P\left(-Re(\nabla \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}) + \nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^T)) + \mathbf{f} + \frac{1}{\Delta t}\mathbf{u}\right) - \frac{1}{\Delta t}\mathbf{u}.$$

- Integrate both sides with respect to t.
- Apply a left hand rectangular approximation to the first integral, and a right hand approximation to the second integral to create a relationship between  $\mathbf{u}^n$  and  $\mathbf{u}^{n+1}$ :

$$Re(\mathbf{u}^{n} - \mathbf{u}^{n+1}) = \int_{t_{n}}^{t_{n+1}} P\left(-Re(\nabla \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}) + \nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^{T})) + \mathbf{f} + \frac{1}{\Delta t}\mathbf{u}\right) - \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{t_{n}}^{t_{n+1}} \mathbf{u}$$

$$Re(\mathbf{u}^{n} - \mathbf{u}^{n+1}) = P\left(-Re(\nabla \mathbf{u}^{n} \cdot \mathbf{u}) + \nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u}^{n} + \nabla(\mathbf{u}^{n})^{T})) + \mathbf{f}^{n} + \frac{1}{\Delta t}\mathbf{u}^{n}\right) \Delta t - \frac{1}{\Delta t}\mathbf{u}^{n+1}\Delta t.$$

• Apply the small Reynolds Number, Re o 0 , and solve for  $\mathbf{u}^{n+1}$ :

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = P(\nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u}^n + \nabla (\mathbf{u}^n)^T))\Delta t + \Delta t \mathbf{f}^n + \mathbf{u}^n)$$

• It is now apparent how to define  $\mathbf{u}^*$ :

$$\mathbf{u}^* = \mathbf{u}^n + \Delta t(\nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u}^n + \nabla (\mathbf{u}^n)^T)) + \mathbf{f}^n)$$

• This simplifies the equation to:

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = P(\mathbf{u}^*)$$

Expanding the projection operator:

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \mathbf{u}^* - \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}^*, \nabla p^n \rangle}{\langle \nabla p^n, \nabla p^n \rangle} \nabla p^n$$

- It can be shown that:  $\frac{\langle \mathbf{u}^*, \nabla p^n \rangle}{\langle \nabla p^n, \nabla p^n \rangle} = \Delta t$ .
- Thus,  $\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \mathbf{u}^* \Delta t \nabla p^n$ .
- To find an equation for p, rearrange the above equation and take the divergence of both sides:

$$\nabla p^{n} = \frac{\mathbf{u}^{*} - \mathbf{u}^{n+1}}{\Delta t}$$

$$\Delta p^{n} = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{u}^{*} - \mathbf{u}^{n+1})$$

$$\Delta p^{n} = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^{*}$$

• The algorithm is complete:

1.

$$\mathbf{u}^* = \mathbf{u}^n + \Delta t(\nabla \cdot (\mu(\nabla \mathbf{u}^n + \nabla (\mathbf{u}^n)^T)) + \mathbf{f}^n)$$

2.

$$\Delta p^n = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^*$$

3.

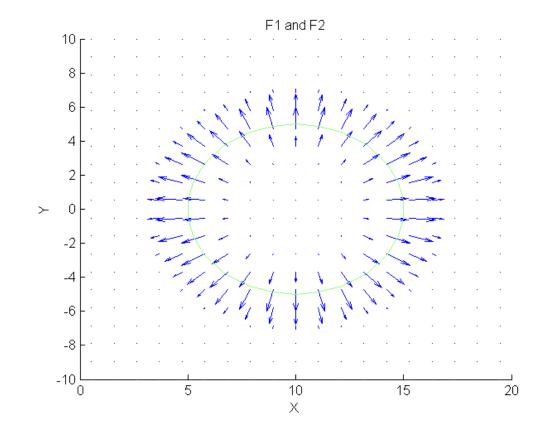
$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \mathbf{u}^* - \Delta t \nabla p^n$$

- This system is decoupled and can still be solved with a spatially varying viscosity.
- The Saddle-Point Method can solve with spatially varying viscosity, but it is slow.
- The Decoupling Method is faster, but it cannot solve with spatially varying viscosity.
- The Projection Method gets the best of both worlds: It is decoupled and fast, and can solve a system with spatially varying viscosity.
- If the viscosity is spatially constant, the Projection Method can still be used, and step 1 becomes:

$$\mathbf{u}^* = \mathbf{u}^n + \Delta t(\mu \Delta \mathbf{u}^n + \mathbf{f}^n)$$

### The Vesicle Force Problem

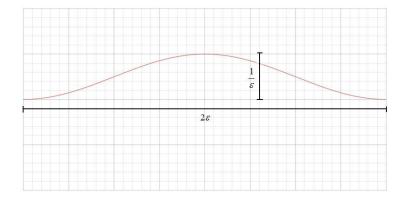
- This model will be solved by all three algorithms to verify convergence and measure execution times.
- Model the reactionary force of a vesicle membrane in non-moving incompressible fluid
- The cell wall resists bending and compression from the fluid by applying an outward force



### The Vesicle Force Problem (continued)

- Define z as the distance from the membrane.
- Implement a smoothed Dirac Delta function at the membrane:

$$\delta(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{1 + \cos(\frac{\pi z}{\epsilon})}{2\epsilon} & \text{if } -\epsilon \le z \le \epsilon \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



### The Vesicle Force Problem (continued)

Define the force as follows:

$$\mathbf{f} = \frac{1}{R}\delta(z)\hat{\mathbf{n}}$$

- $\frac{1}{R}$  is the curvature.
- The more compressed the cell wall is, the harder it will push back against the fluid.
- $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$  is the outward pointing normal vector.

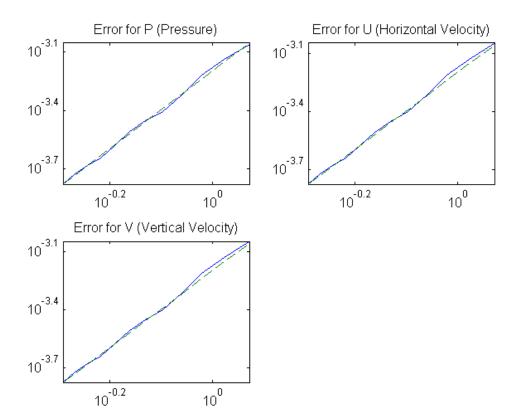
### The Vesicle Force Problem (continued)

- The force is radially symmetric
- The analytic solution can be obtained by converting to polar
- Make the ansatz that  $\mathbf{u}=0$  and solve  $\mu\mathbf{u}=0=\nabla p-f$  in polar.
- The result:

$$p = \begin{cases} \frac{-1}{2R} \left( 1 - \frac{z}{\epsilon} - \frac{1}{\pi} sin\left(\pi \frac{z}{\epsilon}\right) \right) & \text{if } -\epsilon \le z \le \epsilon \\ -\frac{1}{R} & \text{if } z < -\epsilon \\ 0 & \text{if } z > \epsilon \end{cases}$$

### Convergence Testing

- Projection Method solution vs. the analytic solution to the vesicle force problem, one time step.
- L2 Norm of the Error graphed against varying values of  $\Delta x$ , log-log scale.
- Reference line of slope 2
- Note: The graph is the same across indefinite time steps.

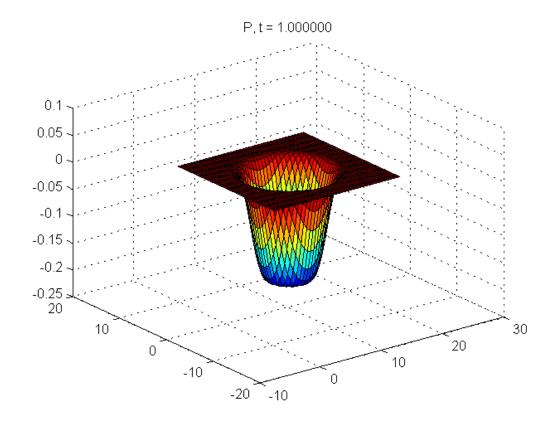


#### Contents

- I. Motivation
- II. Method Derivation
- III. Results

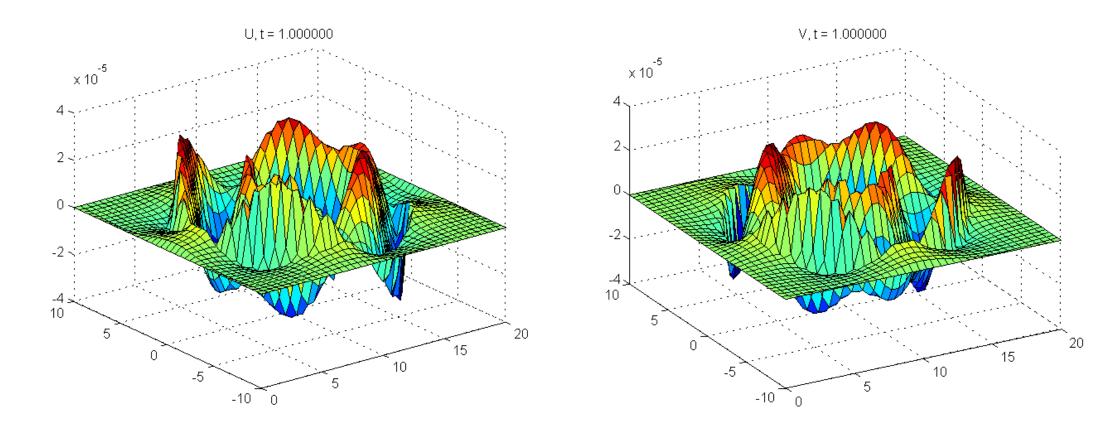
#### Surface Plots

• The following plots are from the Projection Method solution:



# Surface Plots (continued)

• The following plots are from the Projection Method solution:



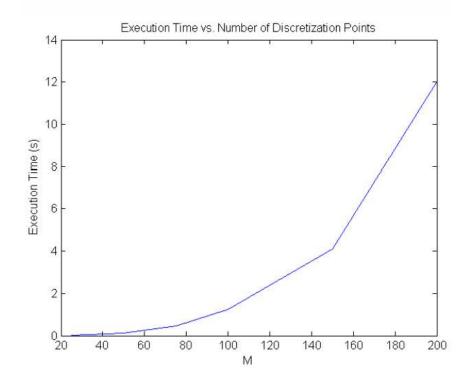
#### Time Analysis of the Projection Method

- Step 1: O(n) assignments for each of the  $n=M^2$  discretized points.
- Step 2: matrix solve for the  $M^2$  values of p.
- The size of **A** is  $M^2 \times M^2$ . Thus, step 2 requires  $O(n^3)$  flops, where the size of n is  $n = M^2$ .
- Step 3: Same as step 1.
- Neglecting the linear assignments, the total complexity is  $O(M^6)$ .
- This should result in an increase in performance over the Decoupling Method, which is  $3 \cdot O(M^6)$ , and a substantial increase over the Saddle-Point Method, which is  $O(27M^6)$ .

# Execution Times (Decoupling Method)

Discretization Points (M)	Execution Time (s)
25	0.0184
50	0.1301
75	0.4659
100	1.2452
150	4.1129
200	12.0575

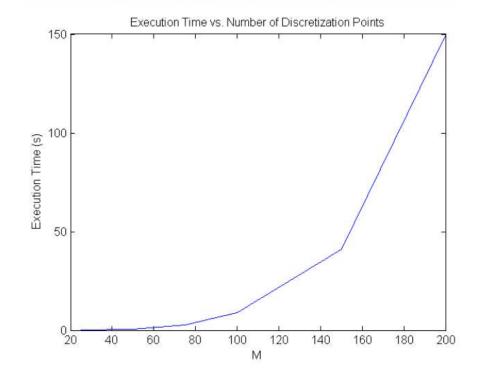
Table 1: Run Times for the Decoupling Method



## Execution Times (Saddle-Point Method)

Discretization Points (M)	Execution Time (s)
25	0.0519
50	0.5195
75	2.6204
100	9.0459
150	40.9595
200	149.6981

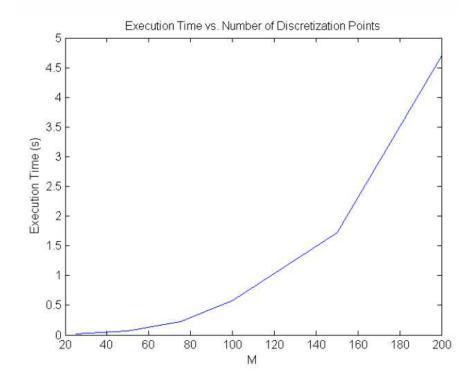
Table 2: Run Times for the Saddle-Point Method



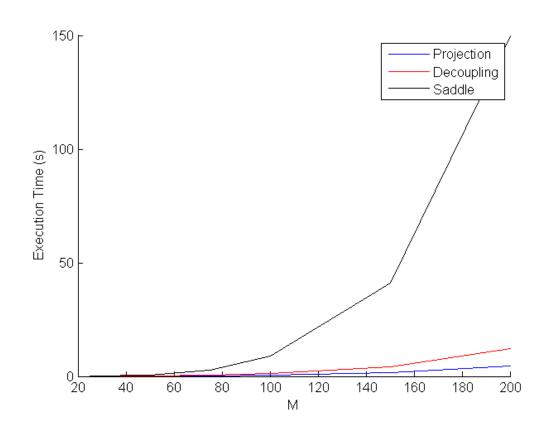
# Execution Times (Projection Method)

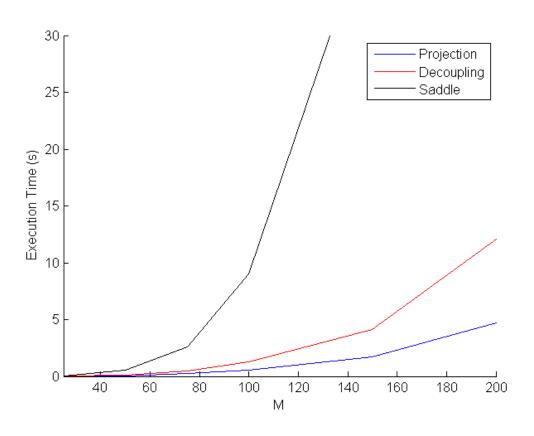
Discretization Points (M)	Execution Time (s)
25	0.0124
50	0.0715
75	0.2266
100	0.5742
150	1.7194
200	4.7079

Table 3: Run Times for the Projection Method

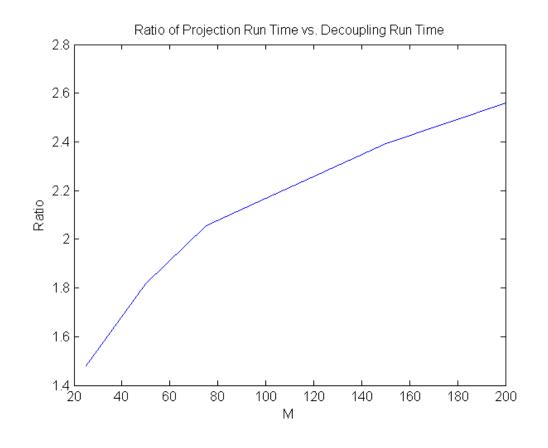


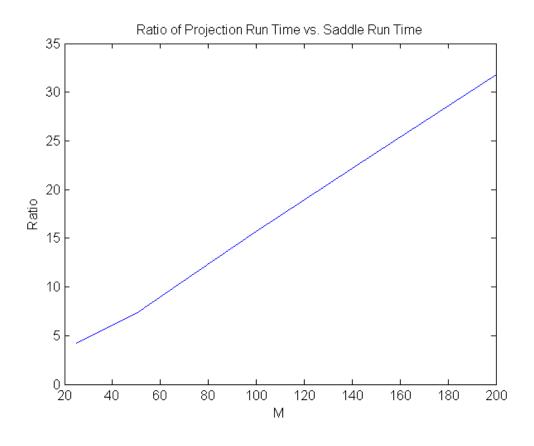
# Excecution Times (All)





#### Ratios of Execution Times





#### Conclusions

- The Projection Method is much faster than the Saddle-Point Method.
- It is also faster than the Decoupling Method.
- The larger M is, the more of an advantage it gains.
- It is difficult to tell exactly how much faster
  - Overhead from other operations in the code
  - Matlab "\" operator is best case O(n) and worst case  $O(n^3)$
- Projection Method gains the best of both worlds: Decoupled and fast, but can solve with spatially varying viscosity.
- Modeling of red blood cells will need to simulate the changing viscosity.

#### Future Steps

- Add an initial fluid flow to the vesicle force problem
- Add a time dependent force
- Add a spatially varying viscosity

#### Bitbucket Repositories

- Saddle-Point Method Code:
- https://rhermle@bitbucket.org/rhermle/saddle-point-vesicle.git
- Decoupling Method Code:
- https://rhermle@bitbucket.org/rhermle/decouplingmethod.git
- Projection Method Code:
- <a href="https://rhermle@bitbucket.org/rhermle/2d-stokes-predictor-corrector.git">https://rhermle@bitbucket.org/rhermle/2d-stokes-predictor-corrector.git</a>

## Acknowledgements

- Professor Vogl
- Awesome professors and staff at UW

## Questions?