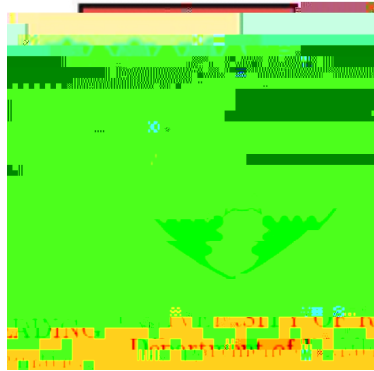




The University of Reading
The Department of Mathematics and Statistics
MSc Dissertation

SELF - CONSISTENT FIELD CALCULATIONS ON A VARIABLE RESOLUTION GRID

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Declaration

I confirm that this is my own work and the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

Signed

Abstract

The Self-Consistent Field Theory, otherwise known as Mean Field Theory, represents interactions by two static fields acting on two polymer segments (A, B). The model corresponds to a melt of AB diblock copolymers subject to a local incompressibility constraint. Exploiting the simplest classical microstructure (Lamellar) the density distributions of the copolymer blocks are computed by applying the Crank-Nicolson algorithm on a uniform mesh. The aim of this dissertation is to increase the numerical efficiency of the calculations by employing an adaptive mesh using subdivision. The dissertation contains a study of the effectiveness of using the refinement technique on the computation of the copolymer propagators with the equation $\frac{\partial}{\partial s} q(r; s) = \frac{a^2 N}{6} \nabla^2 q(r; s) - w(r; s) q(r; s)$. Preliminary studies are carried out using a uniform mesh method and globally refining the mesh before subdividing the mesh in areas of interest. Numerical results of the total partition function and the segment concentration distributions are compared and conclusions drawn on the space size step and local refinement factors.

Acknowledgements

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represents interactions by two static fields acting on A,B segments. The model corresponds to a melt of AB diblock copolymers subject to a local incompressibility constraint. It uses the applicability of the Gaussian model and develops the necessary statistical mechanics for a single chain which is subject to an external field, $w(r)$. According to the Gaussian model, diblock copolymers are treated as microscopic elastic threads [14].

We should define the following notation that will be used in our model:

$r_i = i^{th}$ monomer

$r(s)$ = a function explaining the coarse-grained trajectory of the polymer

s = a parameter indicating the interval of the chain (segment) and is defined within $0 \leq s \leq 1$

subscript is used to label different molecules

N total number of segments

When discretising the partial differential equation 1.2, s is treated similarly to a time variable and r as the space variable.

Each molecule is parametrised by a variable s that increases from 0 to 1 along the length. The partition function Q for a single copolymer experiencing chemical potentials q and q that exerts forces, respectively, on the A and B blocks is given by

$$Q = \int_0^1 q(r;s)q(r;s)dr \quad (1.1)$$

where the copolymer propagator satisfies

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s} q(r;s) = \frac{a^2 N}{6} r^2 q(r;s) - w(r;s)q(r;s) \quad (1.2)$$

and can be evaluated starting from $q(r;0) = 1$. Similarly for $q(r;s)$ the differential

(1

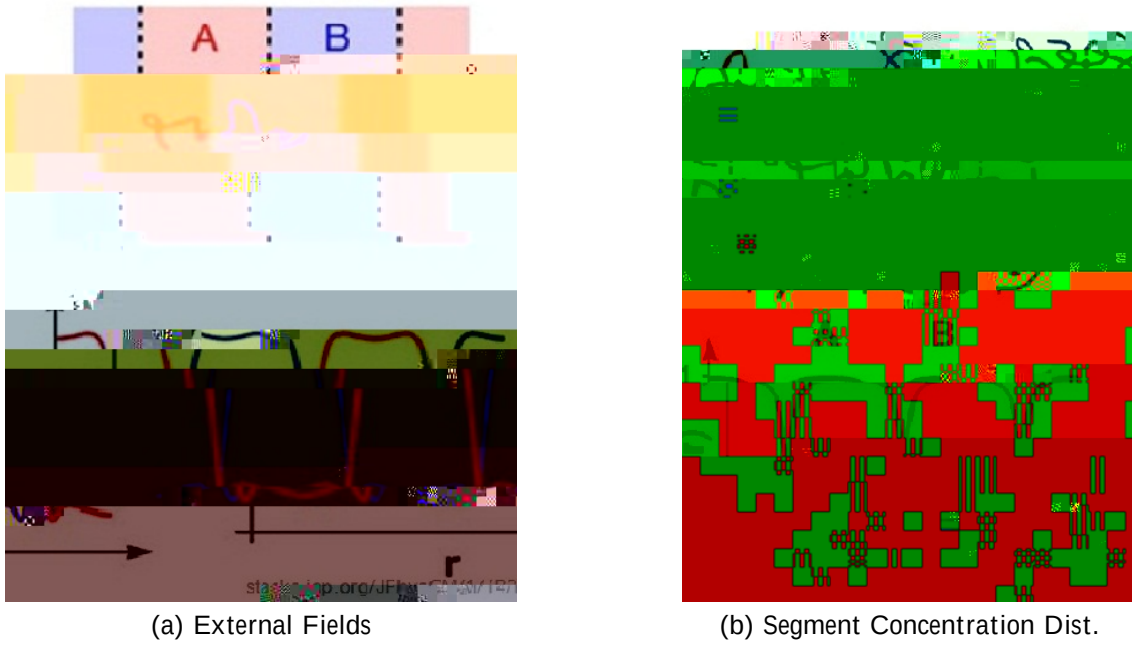


Figure 1.2: [8]

and starting from $q(r; 1) = 1$. The function $w(r; s)$ is given by

$$w(r; s) = \begin{pmatrix} w_A(r); & 0 & s & f \\ w_B(r); & f & s & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.4)$$

For our case, a symmetric diblock copolymer melt, $f = \frac{1}{2}$, the model exhibits a microphase phase separation into a lamellar phase for segregation strengths N , where N is the Flory parameter that quantifies the repulsive interaction of the chemical units. The boundary conditions for this problem can either be periodic or reflective Neumann conditions [1].

$\phi_A(r)$ and $\phi_B(r)$ correspond to ensemble-averaged segment concentration distributions and from the schematic diagram in Figure 1.2b we can see the concentrations of A and B segments at different points r .

The incompressibility assumption is then given by $\phi_A + \phi_B = 1$. The segment concentrations are defined as follows:

$$\phi_A(r) = \frac{V}{Q} \int_0^{Z^f} q(r; s) q(r; s) ds \quad \phi_B(r) = \frac{V}{Q} \int_f^{Z^1} q(r; s) q(r; s) ds \quad (1.5)$$

"Refining indicators" are often used to identify portions of the domain in need of additional resolution [10].

This dissertation will centre around the use of the local grid refinement. The aim of the h type adaptive procedure is to achieve a higher rate of convergence and thus reach the desired accuracy with minimal cost. Given that we have sufficient information describing where best to refine the mesh, then there are several ways of approach. Using h -refinement, we obtain a new mesh by simply subdividing the intervals.

Using this method we can break the mesh into smaller pieces when necessary and even coarsen the mesh where the solution is very smooth. However, large jumps in

Chapter 2

Preliminary Stage

We are interested in obtaining the solution to the Self-Consistent Field equations in which the normalised density distributions, $\rho(r)$ reflect a lamellar morphology. In this symmetry, $\rho(r)$ varies only along one axis, and exhibits a periodic variation.

$\rho(r)$ can thus be reduced to a function of only one co-ordinate, r , and be periodic.

The finite differences method will be used to approximate the solution of the diffusion equation 2.1. The basic idea of the finite difference method of solving PDEs is to replace spatial and time derivatives by suitable approximations, then to numerically solve the resulting difference equations. Specifically instead of solving $q(r;s)$ with r continuous, we solve $q_{i;j} = q(r_i;s_j)$ where $r_i = i \Delta x$ and $s_j = j \Delta s$. We will have a grid similar to Figure 2.1

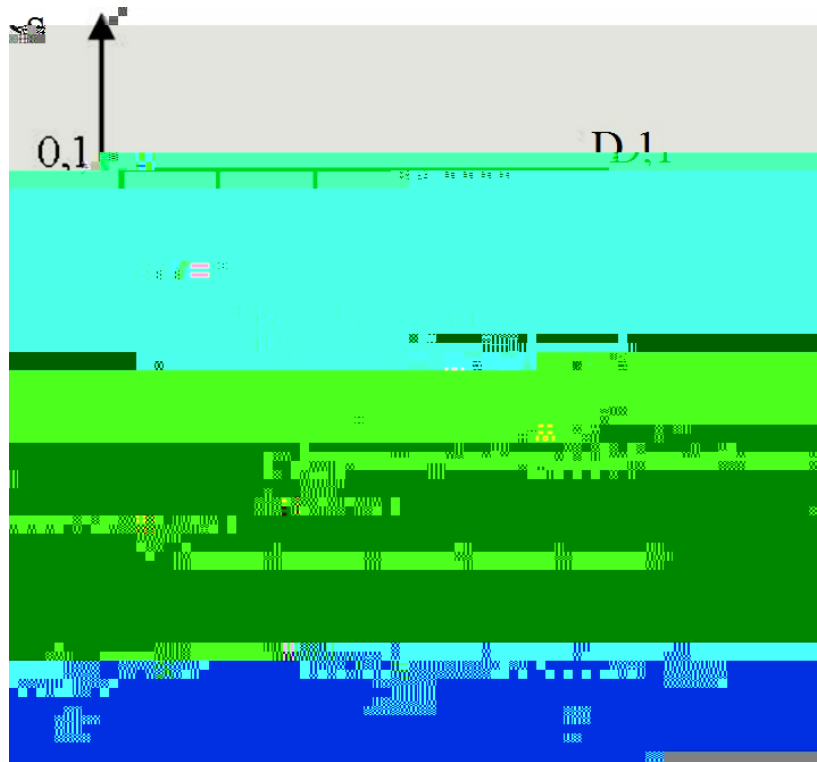


Figure 2.1: Grid

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial r} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{q}{r} \quad (2.3)$$

the derivatives evaluated at the grid points $(r; s) = (r_i; s_j)$ can be approximated in many different ways, the simplest being the following:

and dr the size of the space step

D will denote the total length of space, $0 \leq s \leq D$

t_{max} the total length of time and as previously mentioned, the segments s behave similarly to the time variable so $t_{max} = 1$

N_t the total number of time steps and ds the size of time step

nally $r(i) = (i - 1) \cdot dr$ where $dr = \frac{D}{N}$

approaches zero in the limit that $\Delta s \rightarrow 0$ and $\Delta r \rightarrow 0$. The scheme is found to be "consistent", first order in time and second order in space.

In order to guarantee that the scheme will give a good approximation to the true solution of the diffusion equation, when the discretised equation approaches the exact solution then the numerical scheme is termed convergent.

For a linear solution such as the diffusion equation, convergence is dependent on the stability of the numerical scheme, it is termed stable if the amplification factor remains bounded during calculations. According to the *Lax Equivalence theorem* schemes that are convergent are those that are consistent and stable [7].

Therefore, for a properly posed initial value problem for a linear PDE and a consistent finite difference approximation, stability is the necessary and sufficient condition of convergence. The explicit scheme 2.12 is stable and therefore convergent when

$$\frac{\Delta s}{(\Delta r)^2} \leq \frac{1}{2} \quad (2.13)$$

The main advantage of the explicit scheme is that it's easy to solve numerically. However, the stability condition raises issues as we are bound by the physical problem on having total space length $D = 2.336784$ and total time variable $t_{max} = 1$ and thus restricting us on the choice of total number of space and time steps N_x, N_t . We can therefore conclude that the stability condition and the scheme's first order in time truncation error restrict the accuracy of our numerical result.

2.2.1 Applying the Explicit Scheme

Since the explicit Scheme is relatively easy to solve numerically, we will use a FORTRAN program that will numerically solve the partial differential equation 2.1 that defines the copolymer propagators.

Using the finite difference method as shown in the previous section we can obtain the discretised equation of 2.1,

$$q_{i,j+1} = q_{i,j} + \frac{1}{6} \frac{ds}{(dr)^2} (q_{i+1,j} - 2q_{i,j} + q_{i-1,j}) - w_j q_{i,j} \quad (2.14)$$

For the q the PDE is identical to 2.1 but with the right hand side multiplied by -1. Therefore the discretised form is very similar but with a small difference as shown below,

$$q_{i,j-1} = q_{i,j} + \frac{1}{6} \frac{ds}{(dr)^2} (q_{i+1,j} - 2q_{i,j} + q_{i-1,j}) - w_j q_{i,j} \quad (2.15)$$

In both cases, equations 2.14 and 2.15, we use reflective boundary conditions

which are defined in the program as, $q_{0;j} = q_{2;j}$ and $q_{N_x+1;j} = q_{N_x-1;j}$. They are defined similarly for q which is denoted as q_1 in the program. The initial data for the q propagator is $q(r; 0) = 1$ and for the q is $q(r; N_t) = 1$.

The function w_j , the ev5.619 4.338 Td [(e Td [1(similarly)-hrly)-h4vd,.842 0 Tdd [1(gi4vd,1)28

In Figure 2.4 the blue line denotes w_A and the green line w_B . The external fields have been computed using 15 space steps and 80 time steps for $0 \leq r \leq 2.336784$ and $0 \leq s \leq 1$ and because there are only 15 space steps the plot is not smooth nor is it accurate enough. We therefore try plotting it using $N_x = 100$ and $N_t = 3592$,



Figure 2.5: Program - Stability condition notification

The numerical solution of q when choosing 15 space steps and 80 time steps has been plotted in MATLAB and is shown in Figure 2.6. The results could also be plotted on a logarithmic scale so that the plots show more details in all the domain and the propagator's behaviour, however the propagator plots are only shown for reference. The aim is to compute the segment concentrations with great accuracy and to meet the incompressibility condition

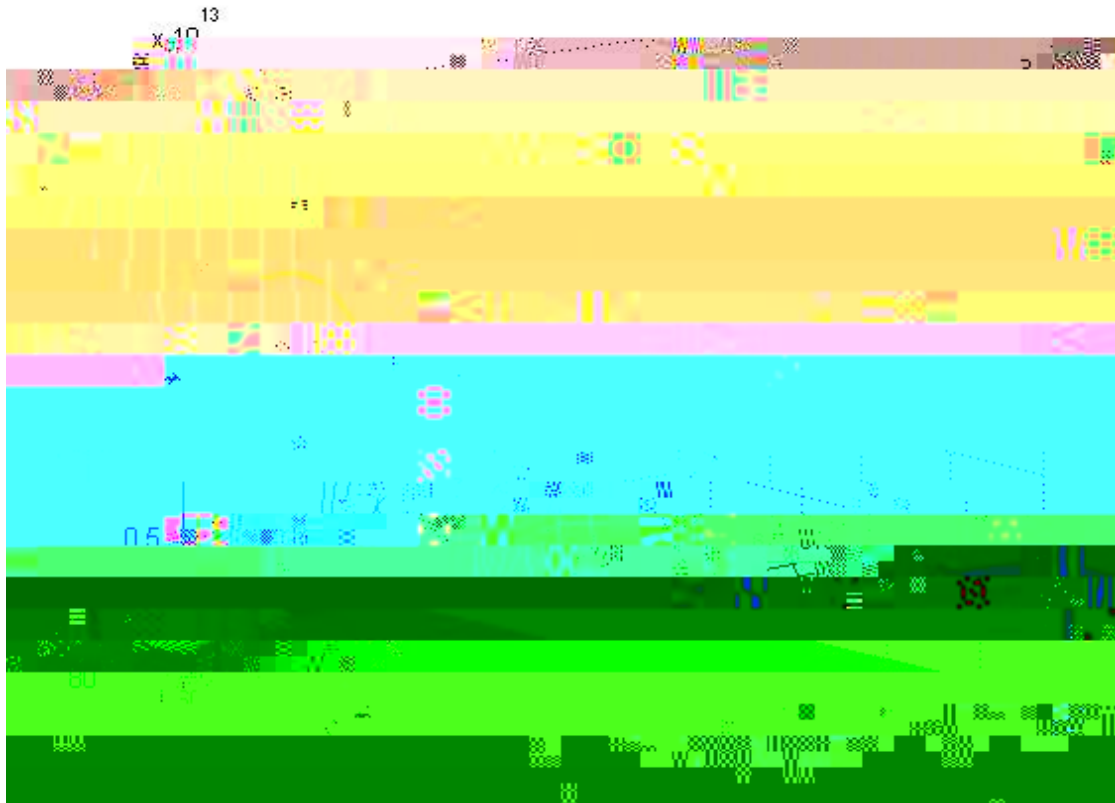


Figure 2.6: q propagator - explicit scheme - $N_x = 15$, $N_t = 80$

In order to check the correctness of the plot, a small test we could perform is to remove the $w_{;i}$ function, the external fields, from the partial differential equation 2.14. This would transform our PDE in a pure diffusion equation and in fact we would be solving the Heat Equation $\frac{\partial q}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial r^2}$, of which the expected result is known. The discretised form of our PDE would then look like equation 2.18. The fact that our initial data is equal to 1 throughout the whole domain including the boundary points, would lead us to expect a constant value of 1 as a solution and a flat plot 2.7

$$q_{i,j+1} = q_{i,j} + \frac{1}{6} \frac{ds}{(dr)^2} (q_{i+1,j} - 2q_{i,j} + q_{i-1,j}) \quad (2.18)$$

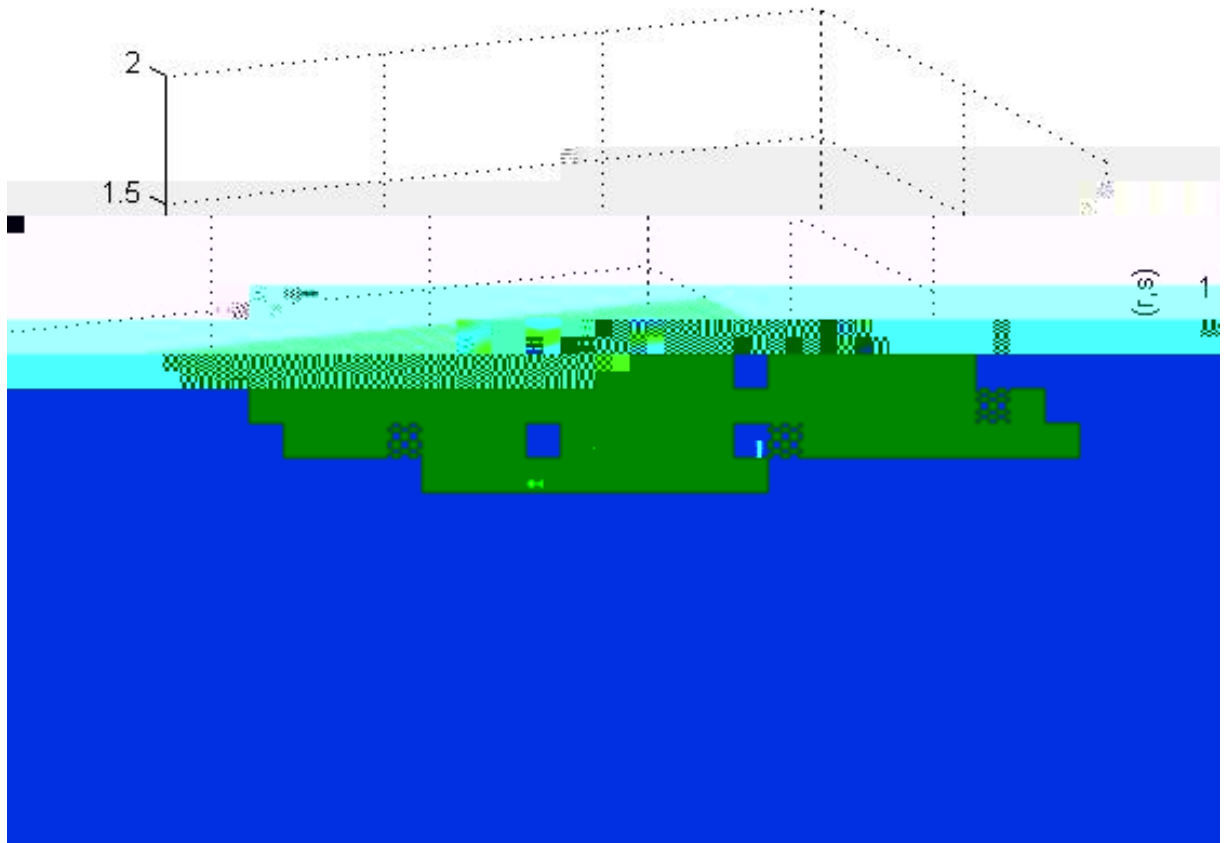


Figure 2.7: q propagator - removing external fields

Now that we have validated that the explicit scheme works correctly, another test run could be to plot the results of the PDE with segregation strength $N = 1$ instead of 100. This would help us understand how the $w_{;i}$ function affects our results and the overall cost

and from a different angle in figure 2.9.

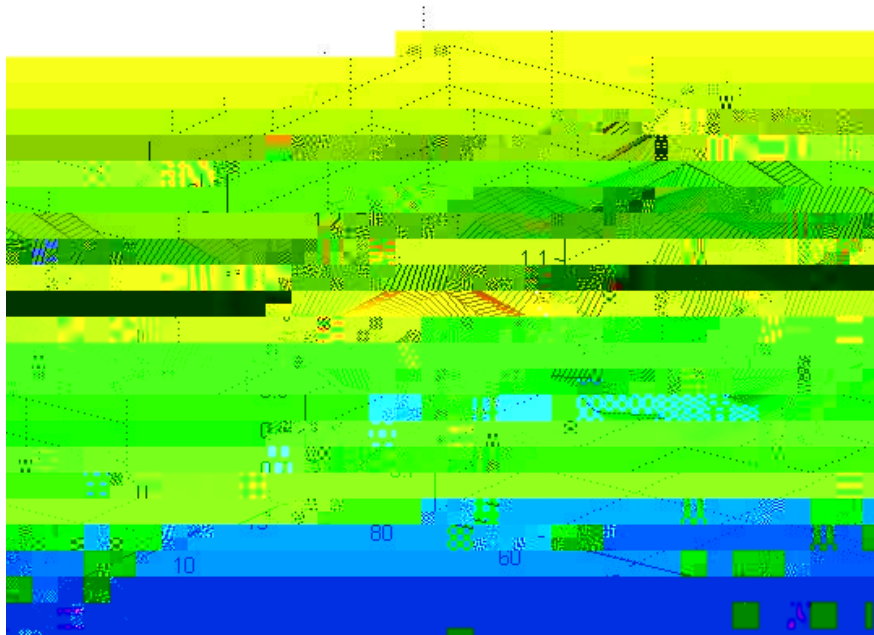


Figure 2.8: q propagator - $N = 1$

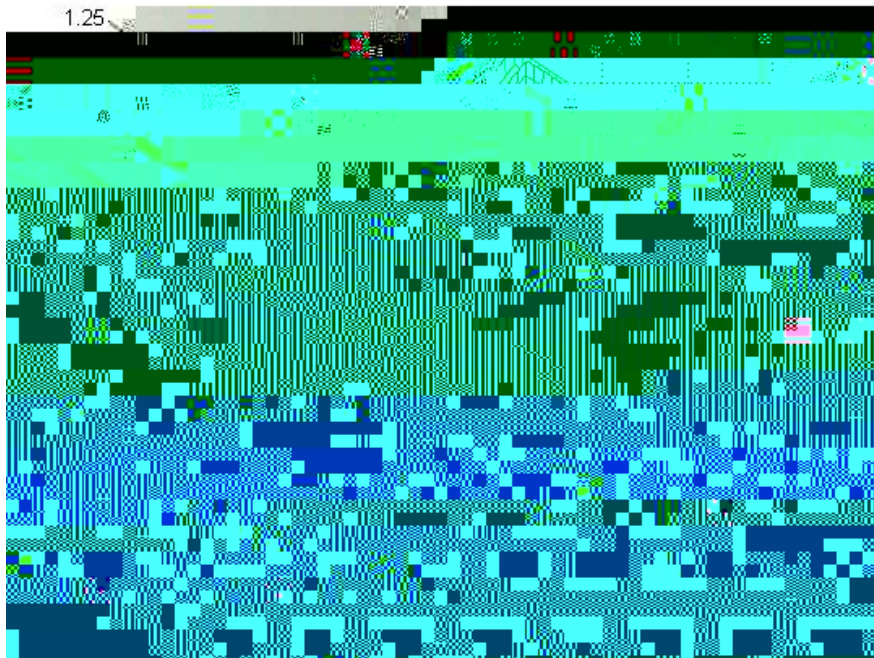


Figure 2.9: q propagator - $N = 1$ - different angle

Looking at the results we could see how the w_{ij} function changes the plot from Figure 2.7 to Figure 2.9 and then Figure 2.6. We could therefore conclude that the

larger the values of $w_{;i}$, the larger the values of q will be. An exponential growth appears in the values of q . This could not have been caused by the diffusion part of the equation as all the research concludes that diffusion satisfies the solution which appears in Figure 2.7. We therefore refer to the analytic solution of $\frac{\partial q}{\partial s} = w_{;i}q$

remaining diffusion equation produces the same result as the q propagator under the same conditions. The discretised equation without the external fields is now,

$$q_{i,j-1} = q_{i,j} + \frac{1}{6} \frac{ds}{(dr)^2} (q_{i+1,j} - 2q_{i,j} + q_{i-1,j}) \quad (2.19)$$

and the results satisfy our expectations, as shown in Figure 2.11.

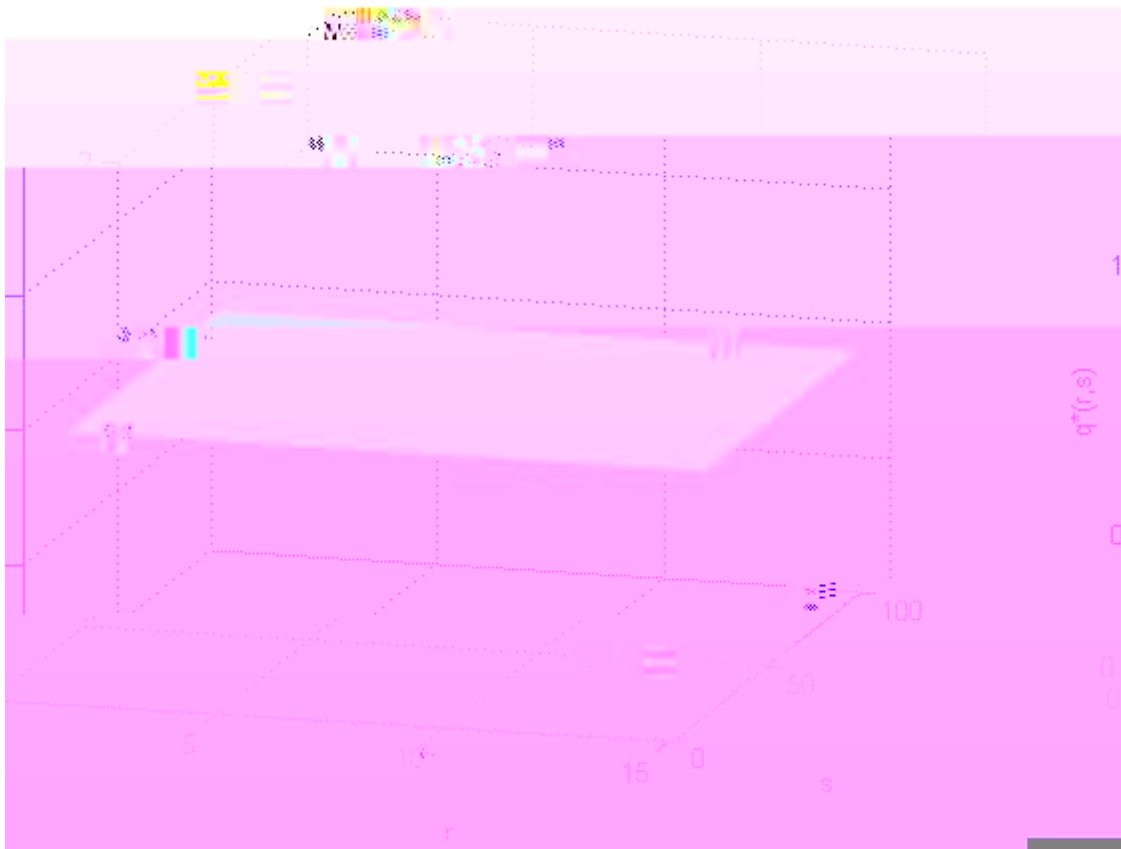


Figure 2.11: q propagator - external fields removed

Plotting the results of the PDE with segregation strength $N = 1$ instead of 100 for q as well, allow us to make better comparisons between the two propagators. That is because the w_{ij} function will be weaker and thus it will have less effect on the PDE and will not experience such great exponential growth. The outcome is shown in Figure 2.12 and from a different angle in figure 2.13.

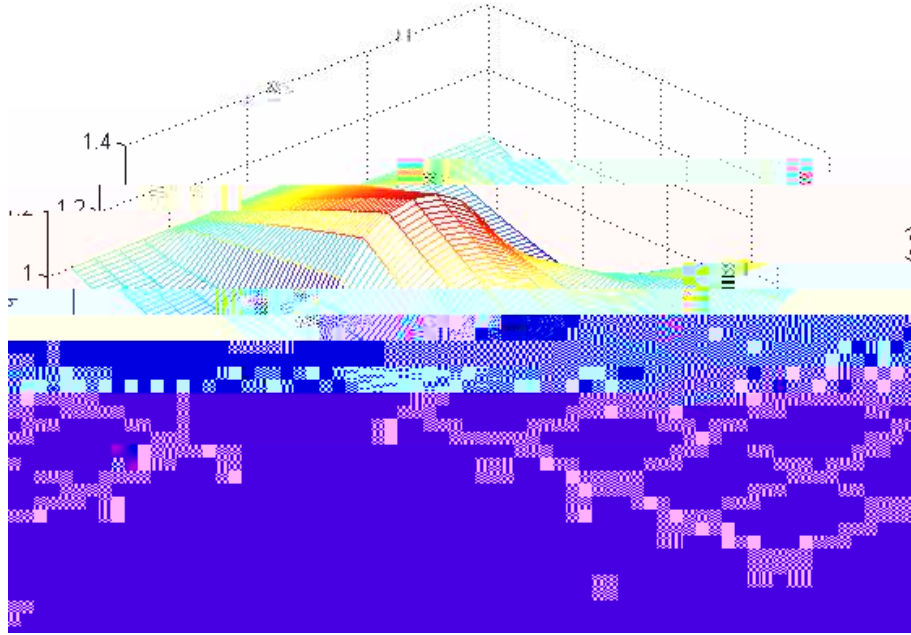


Figure 2.12: q propagator - $N = 1$



Figure 2.13: q propagator - $N = 1$ - different angle

Comparing Figure 2.12 of the q copolymer propagator to Figure 2.8 of copolymer propagator q , we can notice two relatively similar plots, with the first starting from 1 in the last time step, $N_t = 80$, and the second one starting from 1 at the initial time step $j=0$. They are both relatively symmetrical and q being almost

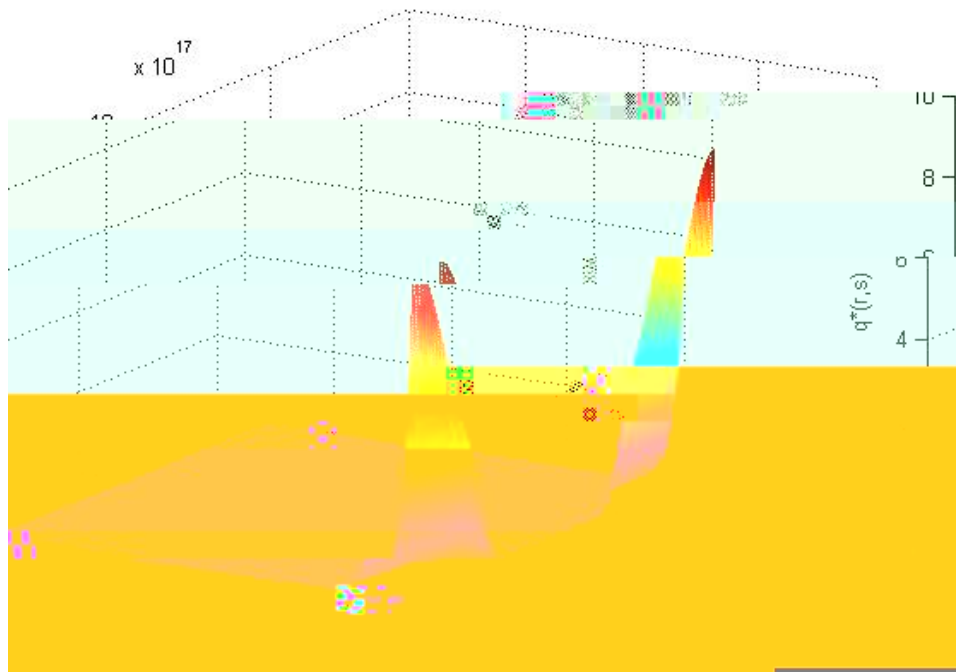


Figure 2.15: q propagator - $N_x = 100$, $N_t = 3592$

2.3 Numerical Integration

Once $q(r;s)$ and $q^*(r;s)$ have been calculated using the numerical scheme, we must solve equations 2.20 and 2.21.

$$Q = \int_0^Z q(r;s) q^*(r;s) dr \quad (2.20)$$

$$A(r) = \frac{V}{Q} \int_0^Z g(r;s) q^*(r;s) ds \quad B(r) = \frac{V}{Q} \int_f^Z q(r;s) q^*(r;s) ds \quad (2.21)$$

Equation 2.20 indicates the partition function and 2.21 the ensemble-averaged segment concentration distributions and their results should resemble Figure 1.2b. Both equations involve integrating the product of $q(r;s)$ and $q^*(r;s)$, ($X = q(r;s):q^*(r;s)$). There are several methods of numerical integration of varying accuracy and ease

of trapezoids. A trapezoid is a four-sided region with two opposite sides parallel. The area of a trapezoid is the average length of the parallel sides, times the distance between them.

Given the partition $[0,D]$ we can define the associated trapezoid sum to correspond to the area under the X-line.

The FORTRAN program will read all the numerical results of

Although the trapezoidal rule is generally only second-order the error is O

approximation of the true result and in fact the numerical solution when plotted in MATLAB is very inaccurate and disappointing, Figure 2.17.

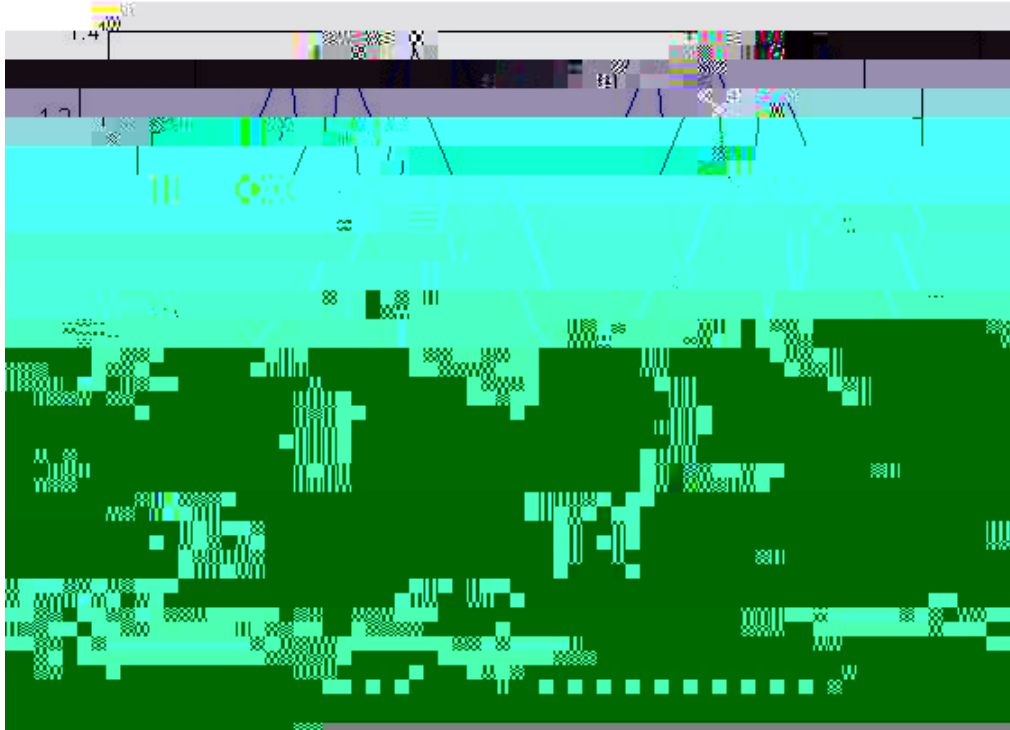


Figure 2.17: Segment Concentration Dist. - $N_x = 15$, $N_t = 80$

Another attempt to improve the accuracy and get more realistic results for the segment concentrations $c_A(r)$, is to allocate more space steps, e.g $N_x = 100$ and corresponding time steps to meet the stability condition, $N_t = 3592$.

We should point out that an even greater number of space steps is preferred, however by choosing e.g $N_x = 1000$ we would require $N_t = 365533$ and therefore we would need a stronger processing unit. This problem is another reason why the explicit scheme is not efficient for our problem.

The results for both Q and $c_A(r)$, equations 2.22 and 2.23 with $N_x = 100$ and $N_t = 3592$ can be observed in Figure 2.18 and 2.19, accordingly. However we can notice that the concentrations are still lacking accuracy and a small error in the last few digits has caused Q not to be a straight line but in fact include a jump of magnitude 113900032 which is still small compare to the values we are handling. The relative difference is quite small.

All together the explicit scheme is not appropriate for all the reasons mentioned so far, but gives us the background required to use a less unstable scheme and compare

its results.

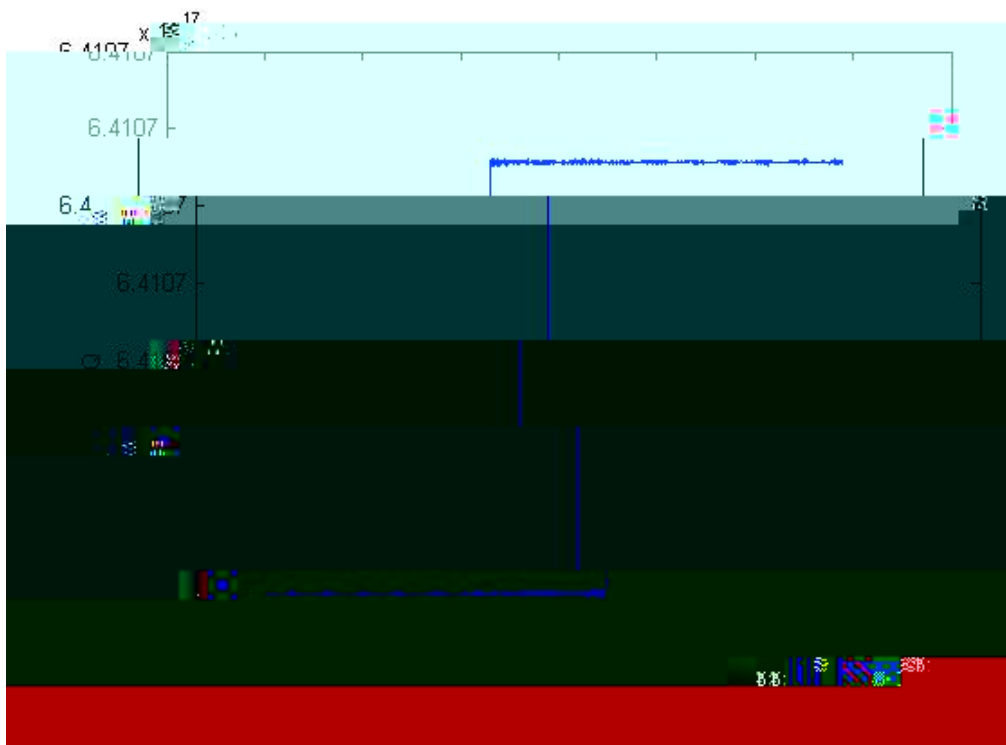


Figure 2.18: Total Partition Function - $N_{100} = 100$, $N_t = 3592$

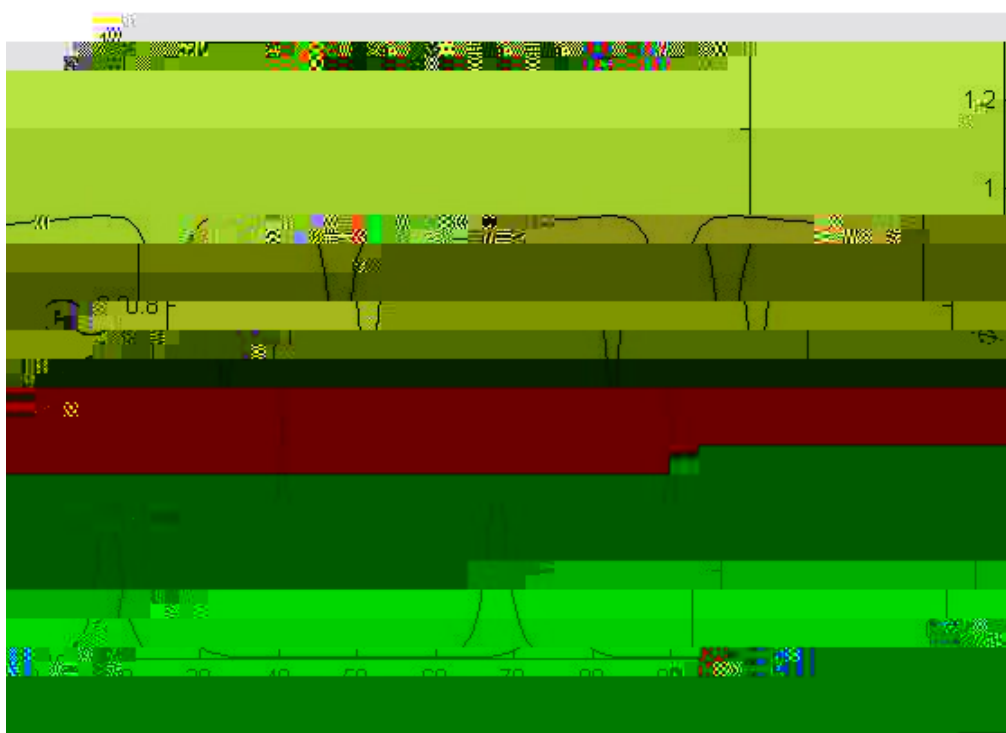


Figure 2.19: Segment Concentration Dist. - $N_{100} = 100$, $N_t = 3592$

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial s} j_{r_i; s_{j+1}} = \frac{q_{i;j+1} - q_{i;j}}{s} + O(s) \quad (3.1)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial r^2} j_{r_i} = \frac{q_{i-1;j} - 2q_{i;j} + q_{i+1;j}}{r^2} + O(r^2) \quad (3.2)$$

Substituting 3.1 and 3.2 into 2.1 and collecting the truncation errors we obtain

$$\frac{q_{i;j+1} - q_{i;j}}{s} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{6} \frac{q_{i-1;j} - 2q_{i;j} + q_{i+1;j}}{r^2} + \frac{1}{6} \frac{q_{i-1;j+1} - 2q_{i;j+1} + q_{i+1;j+1}}{r^2} \right) + w_{i;j} \frac{q_{i;j} + q_{i;j+1}}{2} + O(s^2) + O(r^2)$$

We can notice that the values of q in the above equation from time step j and time step $j+1$ appear on the right hand side. This equation is used to predict values of q at time $j+1$ so all values of q at j are assumed to be known. The propagator q is equal to 1 at the first time step as imposed by the initial data.

Rearranging the above equation so that values of q at time $j+1$ are on the left (L) and values of q at time j are on the right (R) and dropping the truncation error terms we obtain $L = R$ as follows:

$$L = 1:0 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{s w_{i;j}}{2} q_{i;j+1} - \frac{1}{6} q_{i-1;j+1} - \frac{1}{6} q_{i+1;j+1} \quad (3.3)$$

$$R = 1:0 - \frac{1}{3} - \frac{s w_{i;j}}{2} q_{i;j} + \frac{1}{6} q_{i-1;j} + \frac{1}{6} q_{i+1;j} \quad (3.4)$$

where $w_{i;j} = \frac{s}{2r^2}$.

This equation cannot be rearranged like the explicit equation scheme to obtain a simple algebraic formula for computing for $q_{i;j+1}^j$ in terms of neighbors like $q_{i+1;j}$; $q_{i-1;j}$ and $q_{i;j}$.

This equation is one equation in a system of equations for the values of q at the internal nodes of the spatial mesh ($i=2,3,\dots,N-1$).

The system of equations can be represented in matrix form, the left hand side 3.3 is presented by matrix 3.6. The matrix is tridiagonal and efficient algorithms exist to invert the matrix.

When we perform a von Neumann stability analysis to the scheme by substituting $q_{i;j} = j e^{ikj} r$ into the differential scheme, it yields an amplification factor:

$$= \frac{1 - 2m(\sin(\frac{k \cdot r}{2}))^2}{1 + 2m(\sin(\frac{k \cdot r}{2}))^2} \tag{3.5}$$

where $\alpha = \frac{k \cdot s}{(r)^2}$ and

analysed but with opposite signs. However, since the initial data of q is at the last time step $j=N_t$, we need to work backwards to time step $j=1$ and thus we use the same discretised equations with the same signs, for the right hand side, 3.4, 3.7 and 3.8 and for the left hand side the tridiagonal matrix solver for matrix 3.6.

The external field defined by the function $w_{\pm,i}$ and equation 2.16 is computed in the same way as explained in the explicit scheme section 2.2.1 . Once more, for propagator q the first half of the time steps use $w_{A,i}$ and the remaining steps $w_{B,i}$ and for propagator $\bar{q}$ vice versa. The plotted results should look similar to Figure 2.4.

We will test run the program of the Crank Nicolson scheme with a uniform mesh to compare the results with that of the explicit scheme. Starting with the propagator q and choosing 15 space steps and 80 time steps, the results should look

partial differential equation. This would transform our PDE into a pure diffusion equation of which the discretised form is equation 3.9 and the result should look similar to Figure 2.7 of the explicit scheme.

$$q_{i,j}$$

to validate that the Crank Nicolson scheme works correctly for the computation of q by removing the $w_{;i}$ function and thus solve an ordinary diffusion equation but backwards as the initial data is at the last time step. The solution is 1 throughout the domain and Figure 3.5 presents the results.

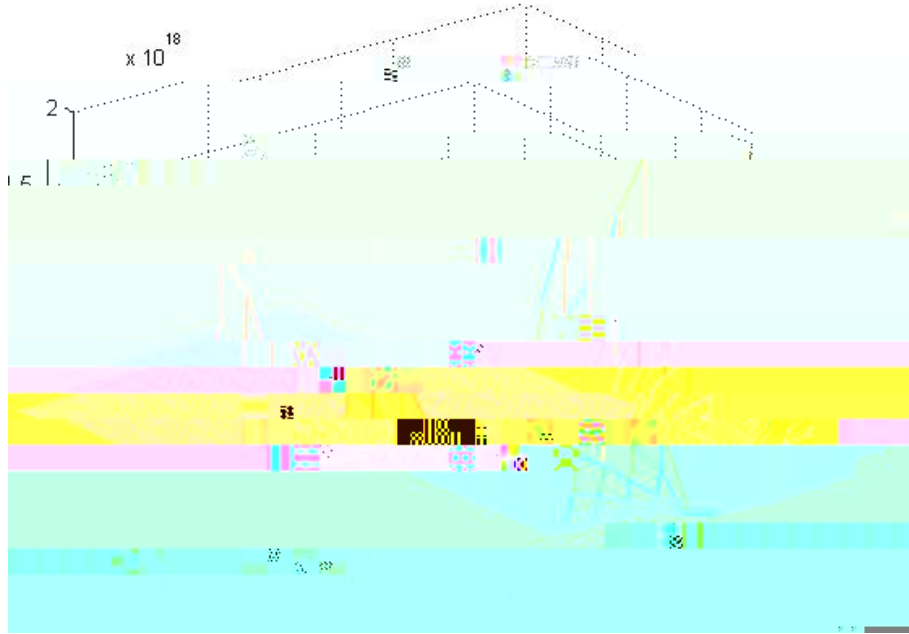


Figure 3.4: q propagator - $N_x = 15$, $N_t = 80$

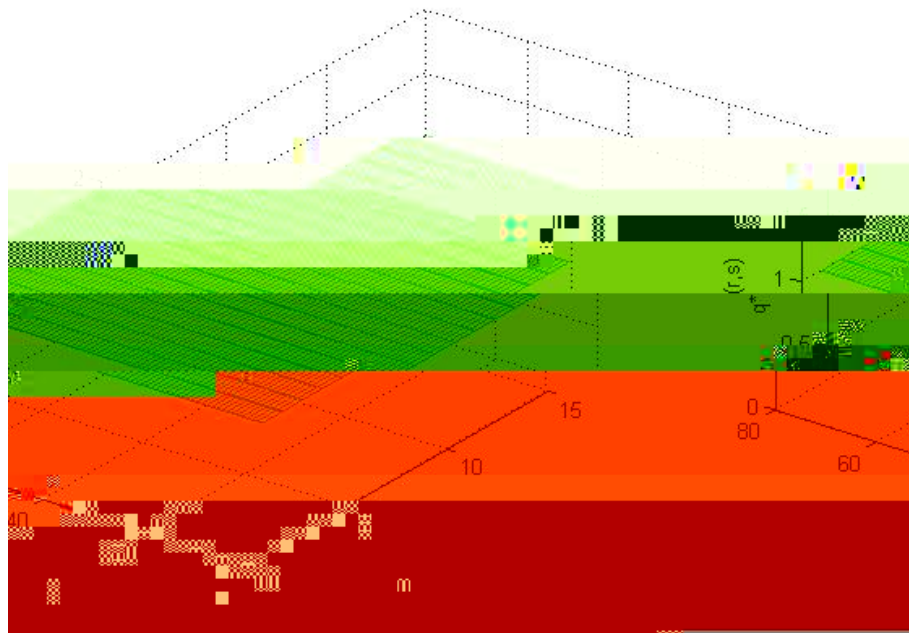


Figure 3.5: q propagator - excluding external fields

Unlike the explicit scheme, there is no stability condition that needs to be satisfied, therefore we can choose a larger number of space steps without having to select a huge number of time steps. We now test run the program on a number of space steps that was difficult to run using the explicit scheme. Figures 3.6 and 3.7 show the results of the q and q propagators for space steps $N_x = 1000$ and time steps $N_t = 100$.

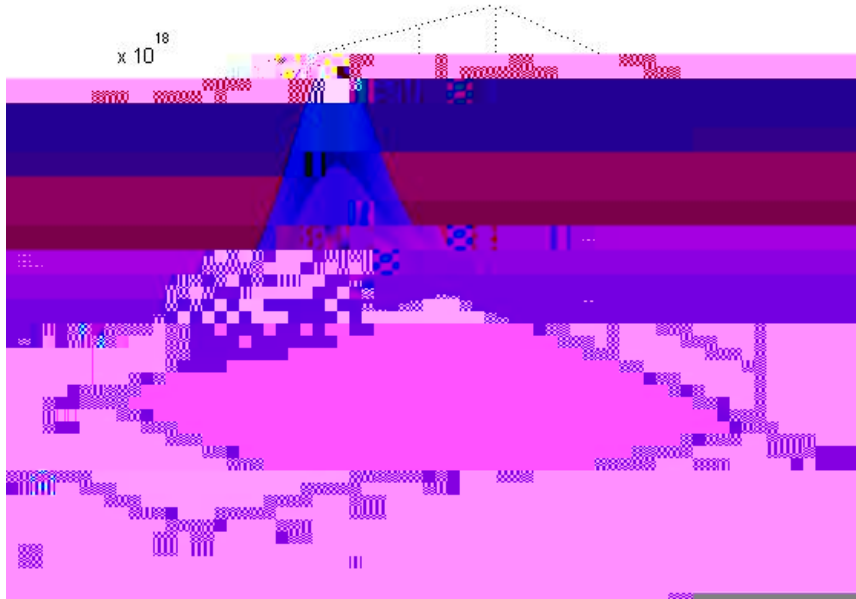


Figure 3.6: q propagator - $N_x = 1000$, $N_t = 100$

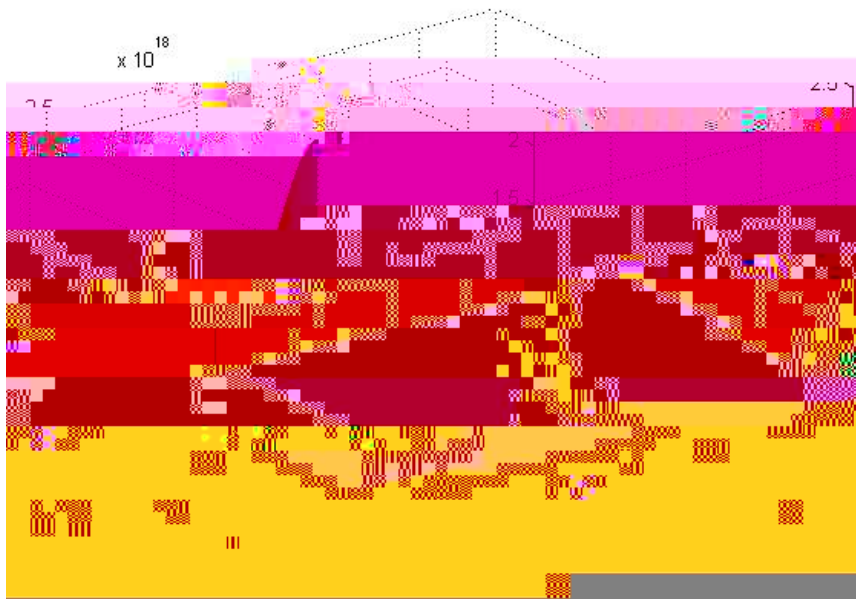


Figure 3.7: q propagator - $N_x = 1000$, $N_t = 100$

We repeat the process and select $N_x = 6000$ and $N_t = 1000$. The results of both q and q propagators are in Figures 3.8 and 3.9. The increase of resolution is noticeable and we only have to refer to the integral equations of Q and $\mathbf{r}$ to check if the numerical solutions converges to the expected results.

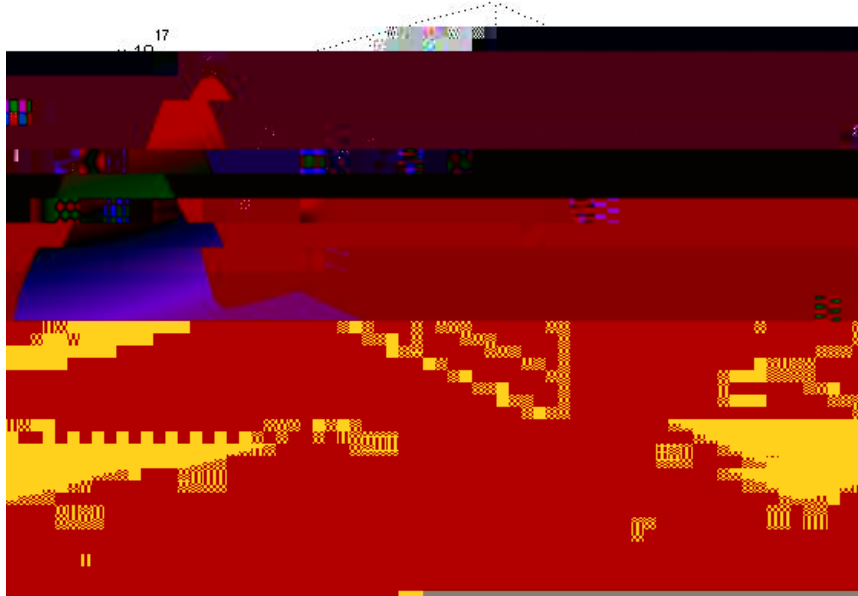


Figure 3.8: q propagator - $N_x = 6000$, $N_t = 1000$

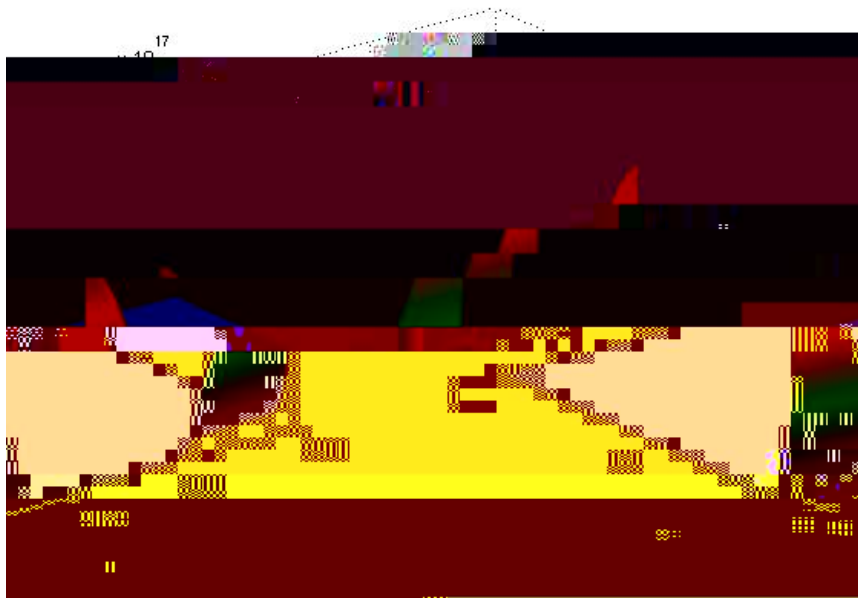


Figure 3.9: q propagator - $N_x = 6000$, $N_t = 1000$

Applying the trapezoidal rule to the integral equations for the total partition

function and the segment concentrations, we should observe similar but more accurate results from the explicit scheme. As we explained at an earlier stage, the numerical solution of Q over all time steps (s points) should be constant and therefore

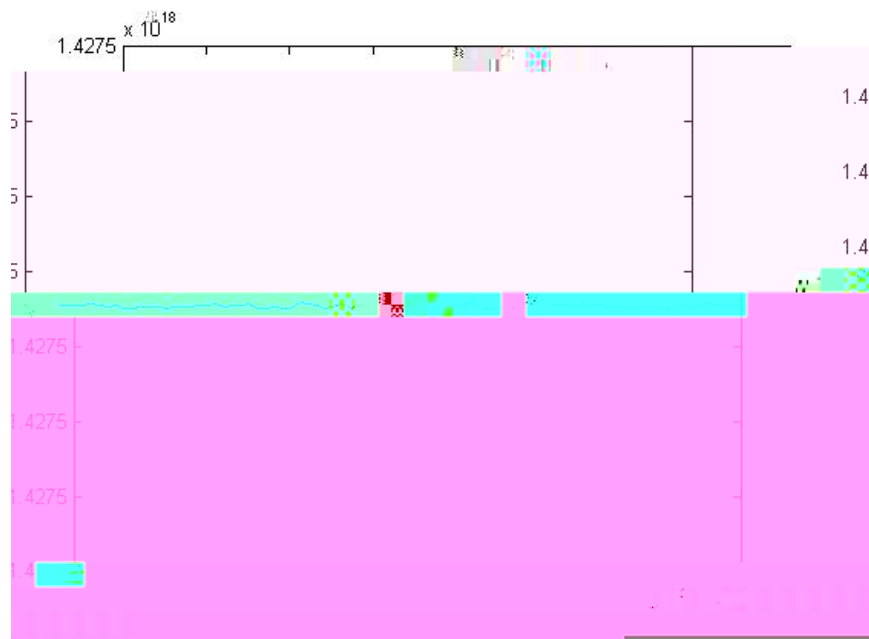


Figure 3.11: Total Partition Function - $N_x = 15$, $N_t = 80$

Further on are the results for $N_x = 1000$ and $N_t = 100$. We can observe an improvement in the (r

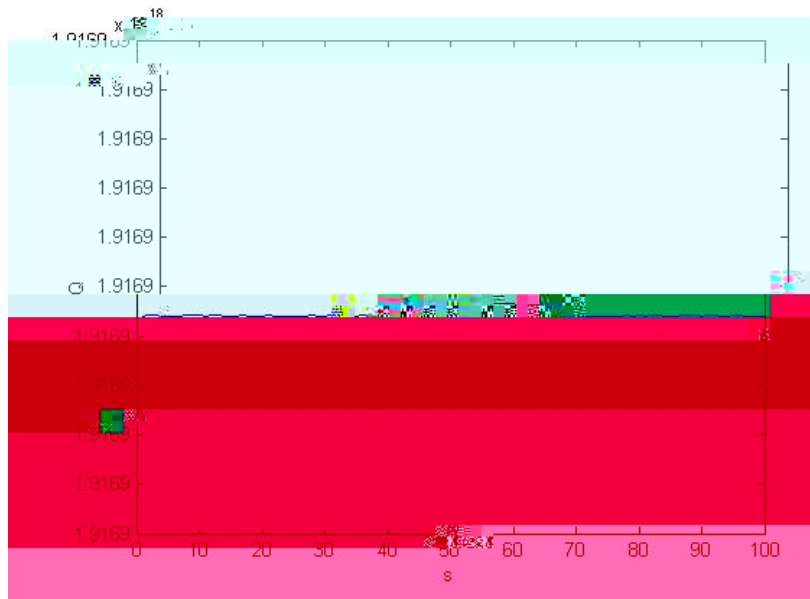


Figure 3.13: Total Partition Function - $N_x = 1000$, $N_t = 100$

Finally, we have the results of $N_x = 6000$ and $N_t = 1000$. This number of points would be impossible using the explicit scheme with the current processing units available. However as we can see Figure 3.14 resembles the expected results shown in Figure 1.2b and Q is almost a straight line. The magnitude of the greatest oscillation has further decreased to 300032. We must note that the values of Q are very large and this difference between them is relatively small.

Chapter 4

Grid Refinement

Now that we have created a program that uses the Crank Nicolson scheme and numerically solves our equations on a uniform mesh we would like to increase the level of accuracy at the interface points between the two fields. Having a high level of accuracy at those points is important in order to understand the nature of interactions between the two fields and to manipulate and exploit them in the different industrial and commercial applications. In addition, a uniform grid may be disadvantageous when solutions possess large local gradients. In Chapter 1, we have talked about adaptive methods and specifically about *h refinement*. Using this method we can break the mesh into smaller pieces when necessary and coarsen the mesh where the solution is very smooth if desired [3].

The basic idea of local uniform grid refinement is to cover the spatial domain, D , with nested, finer and finer, locally uniform subgrids so as to accurately resolve steep spatial transitions. This was done to balance the improvement in model accuracy in the area of interest while trying to minimize errors of the refined model and reduce processing time. When very large refinement ratios are used, errors in the model solution in the coarse section might increase. To avoid that phenomenon, the refinement was done in two stages to achieve a cell size suitable for interactions between the two fields for a single molecule. In addition downsizing to an intermediate scale model made the process more computationally efficient [16].

Stage 1 involves recognising the regions that require refining and applying the scheme with a new discretised equation and stage 2 aims to smooth the transition between step size as to avoid big "jumps", but to change step size gradually around the areas of interest. A common approach is the *h-refinement*, to provide refinement in an area of interest. We achieve this by using a finite-difference grid with variable spacing such that the grid spacing is small where needed and larger away from it.

(4.5)

The system of equations is represented in a matrix form and in fact a tridiagonal matrix, is represented by matrix 4.6,

(4.6)

$$a = \frac{s}{6} \frac{1}{(r_i - r_{i-1})(r_{i+1} - r_{i-1})}$$

$$C = \frac{s}{6} \frac{1}{(r_{i+1} - r_i)(r_{i+1} - r_{i-1})}$$

c_{N_y} is also multiplied by 2

44

step, 4.7 and 4.8 respectively.

$$R(1) = 1:0 \quad \frac{1}{3} \quad -\frac{S W_{,1}}{2} q_{1;j+1} + \frac{1}{3} q_{2;j+1} \quad (4.7)$$

$$R(N_x) = 1:0 \quad \frac{1}{3} \quad -\frac{S W_{,1}}{2} q_{1;j+1} + \frac{1}{3} q_{N_x-1;j+1} \quad (4.8)$$

where $= \frac{k s}{(r)^2}$

As for the q propagator the equations are identical but are solved using backward steps, starting from the last space step at $j =$

As we can see from Figure 4.1 the areas of interest are between $200 \leq r \leq 400$ and $600 \leq r \leq 800$, since those are the regions where the fields intersect. These regions correspond to $N_x = 1000$ steps, we can therefore generalise them for any N_x steps as follows:

$$\frac{N_x}{5} \leq r \leq \frac{2N_x}{5}$$

$$\frac{3N_x}{5} \leq r \leq \frac{4N_x}{5}$$

Using these inequalities we can specify the areas where we need a finer grid and a coarser grid in the rest of the domain.

The program subdivides the elements in those regions in any even number we choose. As an initial test run we choose to double the points within areas of interest, the space step therefore is divided by a factor of 2, ($\frac{dr}{2}$). Such a grid should be more accurate than a uniform grid calculation. As an example, if we choose $N_x = 1000$ and $N_t = 100$, the total points the adaptive Crank Nicolson program will calculate are $N_x = 1400$ and the results are shown in the feedback table the program produces as shown in Figure 4.2

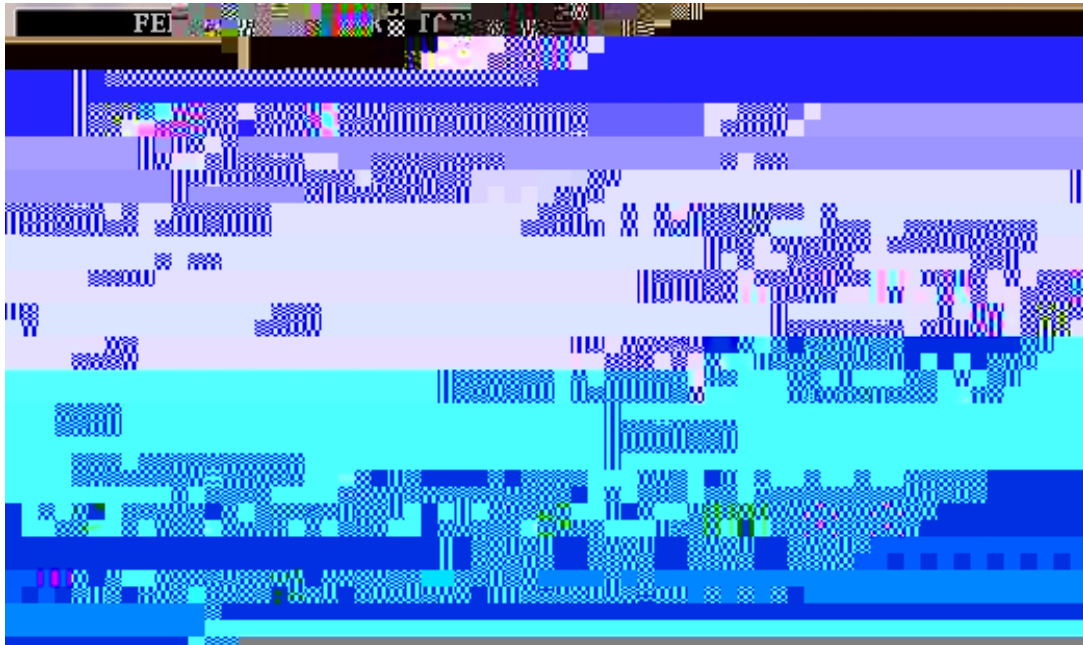


Figure 4.2: Feedback table - Version 6

The propagators q and q that are computed from this program are shown in Figures 4.3 and 4.4, respectively.

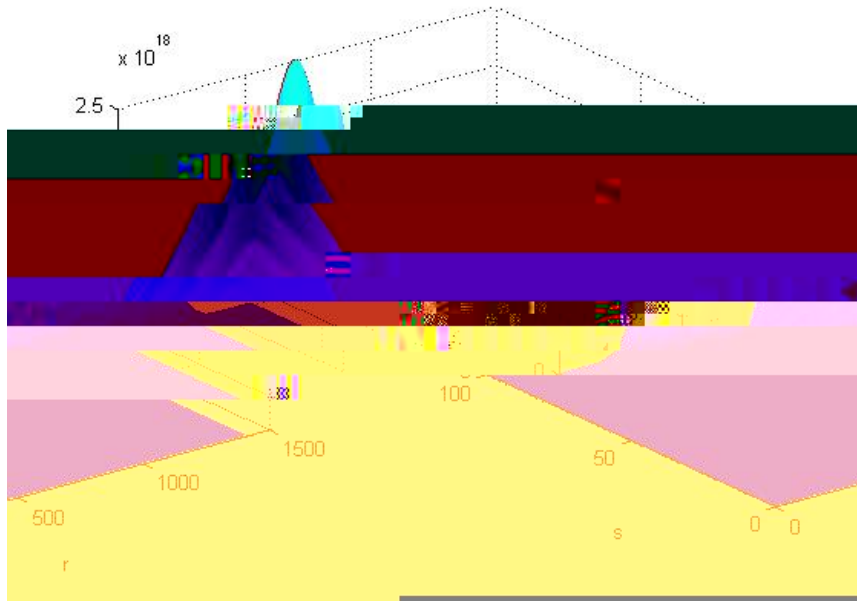


Figure 4.3: q propagator - Version 6 - $N_x = 1400$, $N_t = 100$



Figure 4.4: q propagator - Version 6 - $N_x = 1400$, $N_t = 100$

Finally the trapezoidal rule is used to solve the total partition function Q and the segment concentration distributions (r) are presented in Figures 4.5 and 4.6 accordingly.

a staggering 2.5130×10^{11} . This might be attributed to the sudden change in size steps from coarser to finer regions.

stages. We can select to subdivide the grid by any even factor, obviously the greater the number (k) the finer the grid becomes. As an example if $k=2$ and there are 200 points in the coarse regions 1, 3 and 5, the fine regions 2 and 4 will have 400 points and step size half ($\frac{dr}{2}$) of that of in the coarse regions. The advantages of this adaptive mesh is that less physical memory will be required for a large number of total space steps, N_x , less processing time and power and therefore less costs imposed compared to having a uniform mesh and using the step size $\frac{dr}{2}$ throughout the whole domain. We will explore and compare the time and accuracy differences between the uniform mesh and different versions of the program in more detail in the next Chapter.

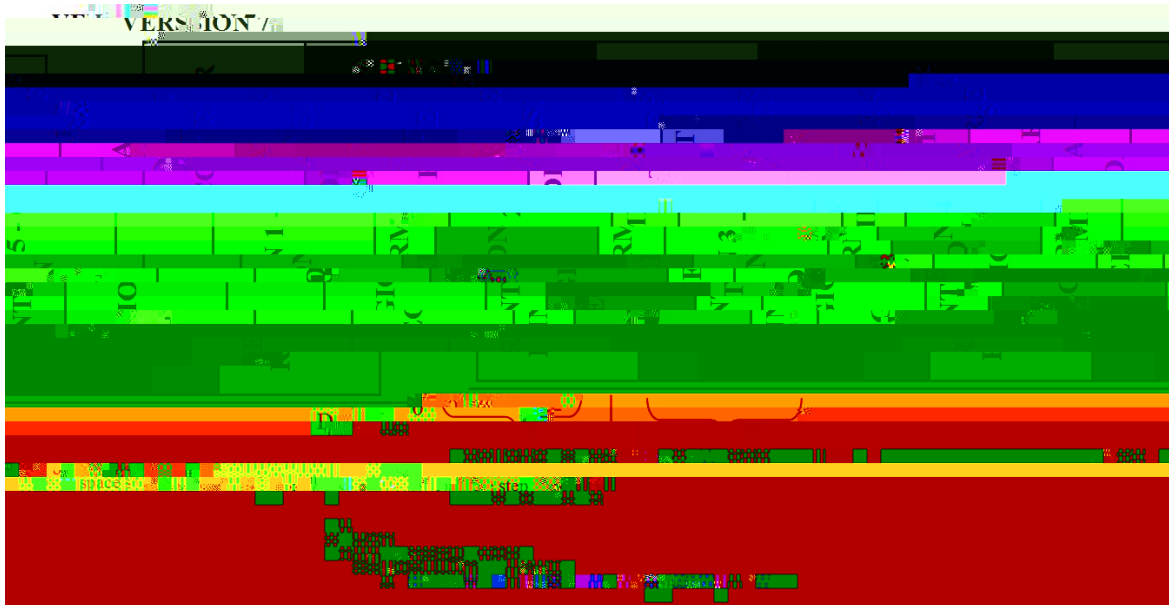


Figure 4.8: Version 7 - Diagram

Program Version 6 is expected to be relatively better than the uniform mesh program, as long as the step size between coarse and fine regions does not differ a lot. The finer the grid in the areas of interest, the greater the accuracy of our results at those points. However, the bigger the "jumps", the greater chances of errors in N .

the step size is $\underline{dr}$

The propagators q and q that are computed from this program are shown in Figures 4.10 and 4.11, respectively.

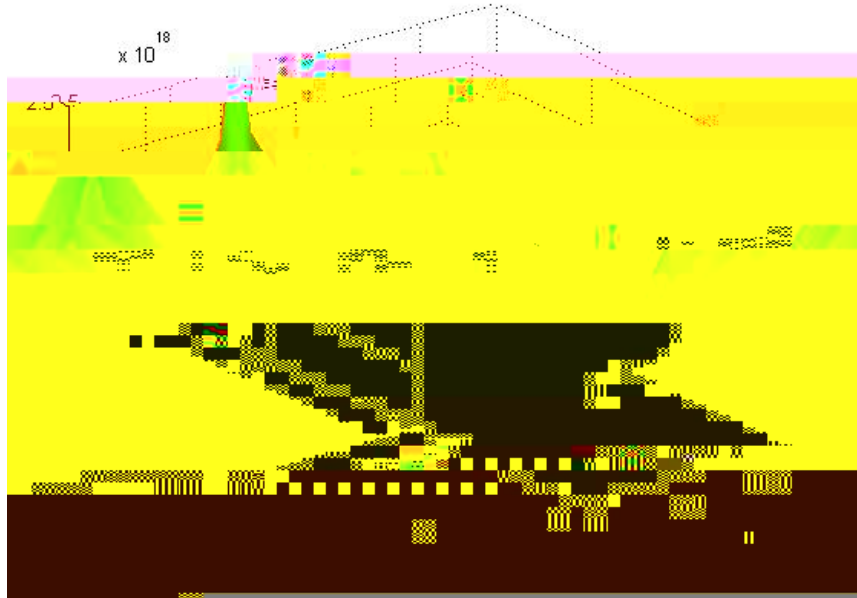


Figure 4.10: q propagator - Version 7

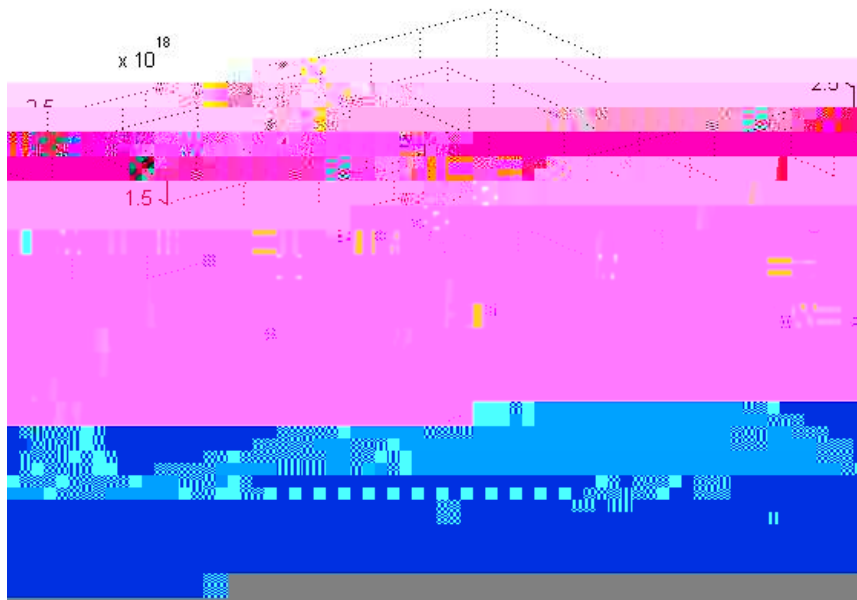


Figure 4.11: q propagator - Version 7

We numerically integrate using the trapezoidal rule to find the total partition function Q and the segment concentration distributions $\phi(r)$. The solutions are presented in Figures 4.12 and 4.13 accordingly.

Chapter 5

Computational Efficiency

In order for a local refinement to make sense, refined calculations need to show some computational savings. Using a fine grid over the entire domain (referred to as global refinement) can be computationally intensive, both in terms of CPU time and memory requirements. We will be investigating which method is more efficient in terms of accuracy, CPU time and memory requirements. The program using a uniform mesh referred to as Version 5, the program Version 6 that uses a locally refined grid and Version 7 that introduces the concept of a variably spaced grid, were run on the same processing unit, under the same conditions and using a constant total time step, $N_t = 100$ throughout all the tests. Results are shown for refinement ratios of 2, 4 and 8 in Version 6 and compared to the uniform grid. In each case calculations were performed with a refined grid and a uniform grid. Version 7 is still under construction and therefore results can only be compared for the refinement ratio of 4. The uniform grid cell size corresponded with the finest cells in the refined grid. Each calculation was run to the same simulation time and the CPU times were calculated. The CPU times are recorded on the tables below. Our experience has been that the CPU time per iteration does not vary much during a calculation so these timings should be representative.

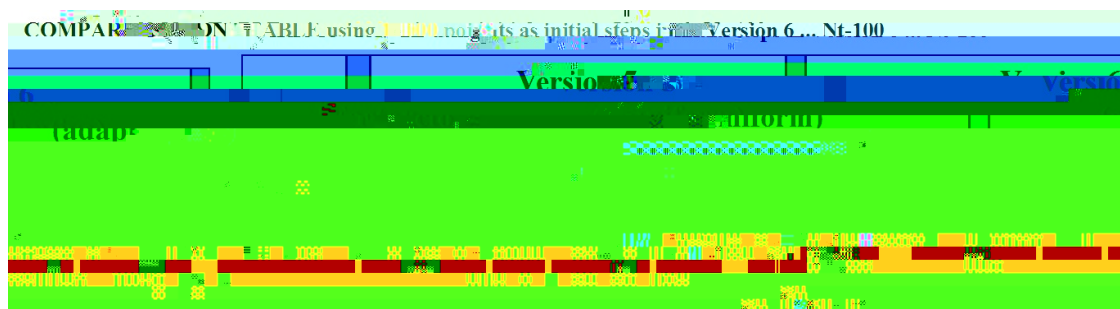
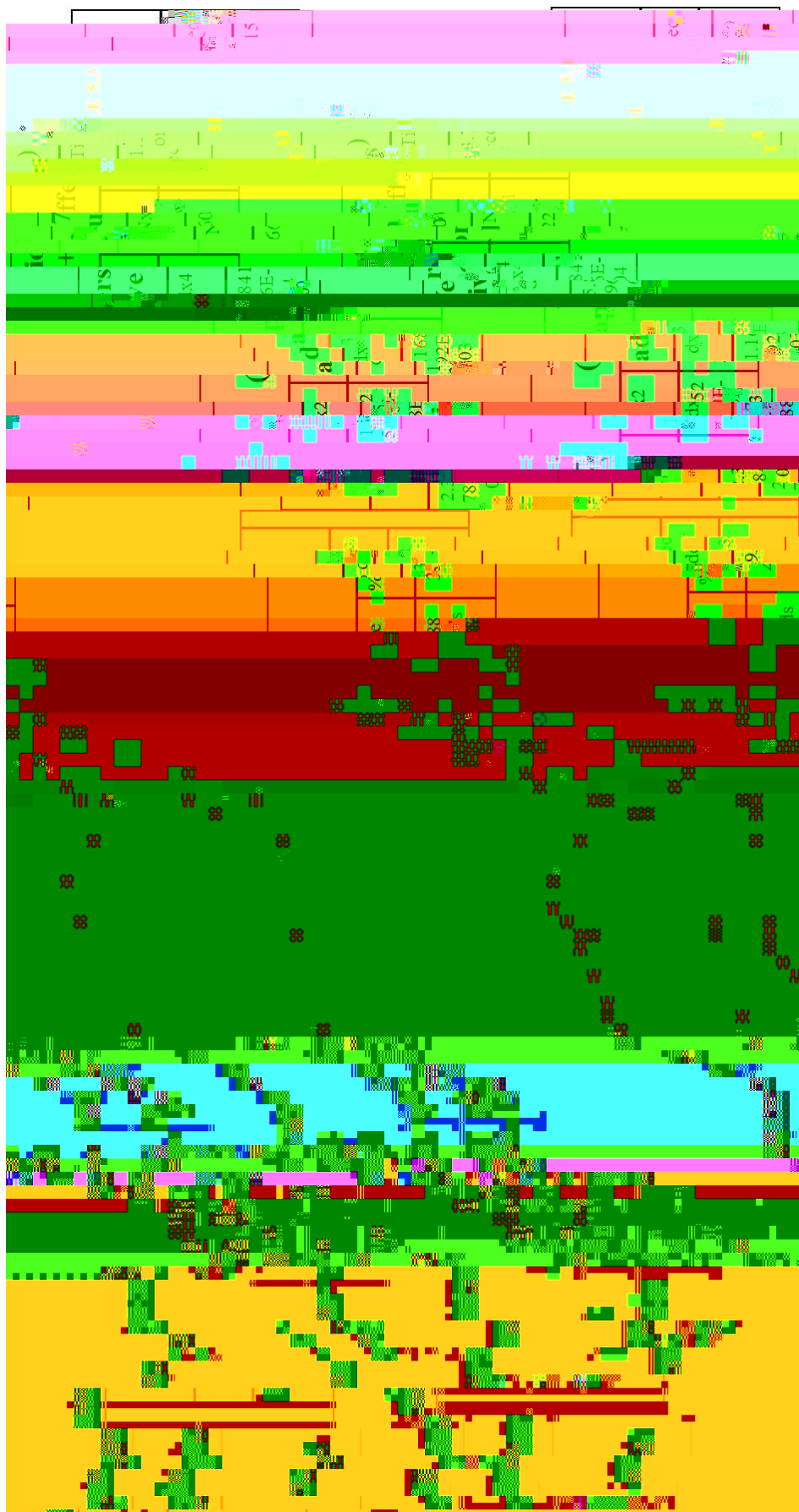


Figure 5.1

As we can see from Table 5.1, by refining the grid at the areas of interest by only a factor of 2, the total CPU time used by the program is decreased by 16.4%. We selected an initial total number of space steps $N_x = 1000$ in Version 6 of the program. The refinement at the areas around the interface of the external fields were double the points at the rest of the domain and the total points became $N_x = 1400$. On the other hand by attempting a global refinement using Version 5, points had to be selected as $N_x = 2000$ so that the size of the space step dr became equal to the step size at the fine regions in Version 6.

Table 5.3 (on the next page) compares all 3 versions of the program. The fine regions of the domain have 4 times the number of points in the coarse regions. However, the difference between Versions 6 and 7 are the extra points. Version 7



Great savings can be made by gradually refining the grid as to the solution approaches the interface points as in Version 7. Variably spaced grids are still being investigated since we have noticed that the more we refine the domain covered by the fine cells, the more time the calculations require. Currently the number of cells at the fine regions, in both Version 6 and Version 7, is rather large compared to the coarser levels. A more accurate analysis of the external fields is required so more precise areas of interest are selected.

5.1 Refinement Errors

Applying the local refinement method, by either using a variably spaced grid or by simply splitting the domain in coarser and finer regions, emphasis is given to specific areas of interest where a finer grid is used. This approach could create errors in calculations of our segment concentration distributions, especially in the parts where a coarser mesh is used. We therefore want to distinguish the size of the overall error between the results of a globally refined mesh using the uniform mesh program (Version 5) with small size steps and that of a locally refined mesh that has similar size steps only at the finer regions.

As an initial test for error calculations we find the mean sum of $\phi_A(r)$ and $\phi_B(r)$. The incompressibility condition states that $\phi_A(r) + \phi_B(r) = 1$. Using numerical schemes such as the Crank Nicolson and the trapezoidal rule lead us to expect a small variance of the solution to this sum. We therefore calculate the mean sum of the segment concentrations across the whole domain using equation 5.1

$$\text{Mean Sum} = \frac{1}{N_x} \sum_{r=1}^{N_x} (\phi_A(r) + \phi_B(r)) \quad (5.1)$$

The results of this sum are shown in the table below, 5.3. N_t remained constant across all programs and equal to 100. The refinement at the finer regions is done using a factor $k = 4$.

Figure 5.3: Table

From the table above, we can conclude that the more we refine the grid the greater the error and that can probably be attributed to the coarser areas where less attention is given. However the averages differ only very slightly and the size of the error is not clear and probably not very accurate with this method of measure. We therefore use the error,

$$Error = \sqrt{\frac{1}{D} \int_0^{Z^D} (\phi_{AB1}(r) - \phi_{AB2}(r))^2 dr} \quad (5.2)$$

where $\phi_{AB1}(r)$ is the sum of $\phi_A(r) + \phi_B(r)$ of the global refinement program which produces the more accurate results throughout the whole domain, since the step size is equal to that of the finer regions in Version 7. $\phi_{AB2}(r)$ is the sum of the segment concentrations as a result of Version 7 that focuses on specific regions of the domain.

The issue with computing the error using equation 5.2 is that each program makes calculations at different points in the domain and the global refinement has a lot more points than the local refinement and we need to use this equation only at the common points. Since we are more interested in the local refinement program, we use its space points as reference where to apply the error equation. However, there might not be an equivalent point in the global refinement program as different size steps are used. We therefore use linear interpolation to find the equivalent $\phi_{AB2}(r)$ at that specific point.

Once we have a $\phi_{AB2}(r)$ equivalent to $\phi_{AB1}(r)$ at each point that the local refinement program produced, we can then apply equation 5.2. The error equation also includes integrating the difference over the two totals over the whole domain. We use the trapezoidal rule to numerically solve this integration in the same way as we did for calculating the total partition function and the segment concentration equations.

We will now compare Version 7, a variably spaced grid that refines the fine re-

gions by a factor of 4 against Version 5, using a globally refined grid that has equal space steps, to that of the fine regions of the locally refined grid. We will select $N_t = 100$ in both programs and the results are shown in Table 5.4

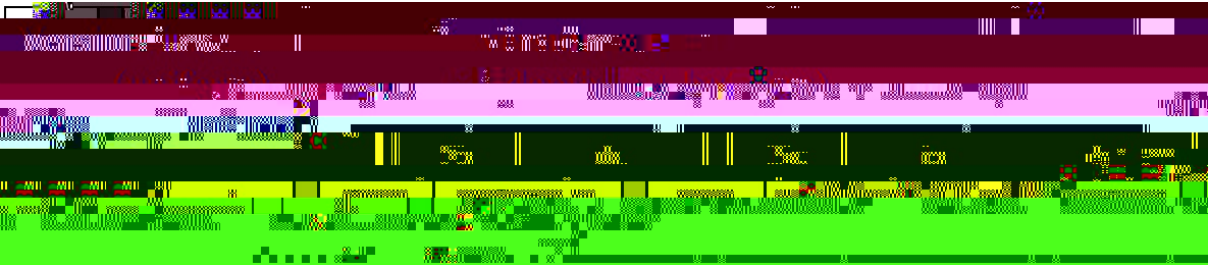


Figure 5.4: error table

The results show that the difference between the result of globally refining the grid and using a variably spaced grid is only 2.191146698777E-02. This error is located around the coarser regions of the domain where the locally refined grid program uses bigger space steps.

Table 5.5 performs global refinement on our domain by using smaller and smaller steps. Part 1 of the table increases the total number of space steps from 12000 to 20000 and then 40000 while maintaining the time steps constant. We can observe a negative correlation between processing time and error. As the processing time increases as a consequence of the extra steps and calculations the error decreases. But it's the change in the error that is surprisingly small. The change appears in the seventh significant figure. We therefore perform a different test, as shown in Part 2. Space steps are kept at 6000, while we run the program with 1000, 2000, 4000 and 6000 total time steps. The processing time does increase similarly to Part 1, however the error decreases at each stage to almost half the size of the previous test run. Thus having a sufficient number of total time steps is important. Part 3 shows a change in total time steps but with a smaller number of space steps. The error increases as expected but very slightly. What is even more surprising is that using 6000 total space steps and 1000 time steps does not affect the error as much as using 1000 space steps and 6000 time steps. The error is almost double in the first case. From table 5.5 we can conclude that using 6000 time steps gives ta45 t9We can oy o 6

step size is equal between the two tables at only the fine regions of the domain. The coarser regions in the local refinement process have greater step sizes and are in fact 4 times bigger. We therefore see a big change in the processing time and total space steps required. The error in each test is bigger than the equivalent one using a global refinement but by only a slight variation. The 3 different parts lead us to the same observations and conclusions as in Table 5.5. Therefore, the local refinement method reduces the processing time with a cost of a slight increase in the error but maintains all assumptions and conclusions of the more accurate but more demanding in processing power and memory, global refinement approach.





These comparisons show that using a globally refined grid produces more accurate results, which should be more efficient for analysis and applications. However, the error is very small and is attributed to the coarser regions which are not our areas of interest in the domain. The aim of local refinement is to maintain the accuracy at specific areas and thus increase the processing speed. In addition the memory requirements are much less severe for refined grids, provided that the finest levels do not make up a large fraction of the domain. Referring to Table 5.2 the

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