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# Evaluation of Numerical Methods for Elliptic Partial Differential Equations

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# EVALUATION OF NUMERICAL METHODS FOR ELLIPTIC PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

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#### CSD TR 204 October, 1976

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#### ABSTRACT

We systematically evaluate four methods for solving two-dimensional, linear elliptic partial differential equations on general domains. The four methods are: standard finite differences; collocation, Galerkin and leastsquares using Hermite cubic piecewise polynomials. Our test set of 17 problems ranges from simple to moderately complex. The principal conclusion is that collocation is the most efficient method for general use. Standard finite differences is sometimes more efficient for very crude accuracy (where efficiency is not important anyway) but it is also sometimes enormously less efficient even for very modest accuracy. The accuracy of the Galerkin and least-squares methods is sometimes better than collocation, but the extra cost always negates this advantage for our problems.

#### EVALUATION OF NUMERICAL METHODS FOR ELLIPTIC PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

#### I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND PROCEDURES, CONCLUSIONS.

Our approach to evaluating numerical methods for partial differential equations has already been outlined in Houstis, et al [1975]. This approach is a specific instance of the general framework presented by Rice [1976a]. Briefly this approach is to first choose a sample set of problems from the domain of interest. The domain here is linear, second order elliptic partial differential equations which are somewhat "general". That is, they have various complications (variable coefficients, curved domains, reentrant corners, etc.) that are typical in applications and which prevent the straightforward use of specialized methods or theories. One next selects some solution methods (four in this paper) and criteria of performance (accuracy achieved, execution time and memory used) and finally one applies the methods to the sample set of problems while measuring the performance criteria.

The cost of solving partial differential equations forces a small sample set (17 problems here) and thus the reliability of the evaluations is not as high as we would like. Nevertheless, most of the phenomena observed here are quite consistent over the problem set which suggests that the probability of this being the result of chance is quite low.

One key to validity of an evaluation such as this is the precise definition of the problems, methods and measures of performance. The sample problem set is presented in the next section. The numerical methods are briefly discussed in Sections II and III and a more detailed synopsis of them is given in Appendix 2.

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A common weakness of previous efforts of this type is the lack of precision and information about the numerical methods. It is well known that it is insufficient to simply state "Method X was used". Variations in the implementation of Method X affect the performance measures by factors of 2, 10 or 1000. We believe that we have implemented all the numerical methods used in a way that gives close to maximum performance. We have particularly striven to be "fair" to each method and have not used special techniques (e.g. assembly language code) for one in order to enhance its performance relative to the others.

We summarize our procedure and conclusions as follows:

- <u>Problem Class</u>: Second order linear elliptic partial differential equations of general nature i.e. some complication present in coefficients, domain or solution.
- Solution Requirements: Moderate accuracy (I to 3 digits correct) achievable "in core" (60,000 words or less of memory needed).
- <u>4 Numerical Methods</u>: Standard Finite Differences; Collocation, Galerkin and Least Squares using piecewise cubic polynomials (Hermite cubics).
- <u>Criteria of performance (efficiency)</u>: Execution time for a given accuracy. Accuracy is the maximum error divided by the size of the solution and is usually measured in decimal digits.

#### Conclusions:

 There is normally a "cross-over point" at low accuracy beyond which Collocation is more efficient than Standard Finite Differences. Even when finite differences is more efficient, it is by a small amount while Collocation is sometimes dramatically more efficient than finite differences. 2. There is practically no difference at all between Galerkin and Least Squares in performance. They tend to be slightly more accurate than Collocation but are very much less efficient because of the increased work to compute the coefficients in the matrix problem to be solved.

#### II. COMPARISON OF STANDARD FINITE DIFFERENCES AND COLLOCATION WITH HERMITE CUBICS.

II.1 <u>The Numerical Methods and Problem Set</u>. The first comparison made in this paper is between the standard finite difference method (5-point star) and collocation with Hermite cubics. See Appendix 2, Fix and Strang [1973] and Collatz [1966] for detailed information on these methods. Simply stated, in collocation the coefficients of the approximate solution are chosen to satisfy <u>exactly</u> the partial differential equation and boundary conditions at selected points.

In simple situations with a uniform mesh length of h, the finite difference method is second order,  $0(h^2)$  and collocation is fourth order,  $0(h^4)$ . Thus, asymptotically in these situations, as the accuracy increases, collocation becomes more efficient than standard finite differences. This suggests the existence of a <u>cross-over point</u> in the performance where collocation becomes more efficient. One of our objectives is to ascertain whether simple collocation applies to more general problems and to determine the expected location of the cross-over point. The operators, domains, boundary conditions and true solutions for the 17 problems we used are given in Table 1. The first 8 were previously considered by us in Houstis et al, [1975]. We give additional information about some of them:

<u>Prob. 2/3</u>. Torsion in a bimetal shaft, Ely and Zienkiewicz [1960]. The shear modulus G is a step function with  $G_1/G_2 = 3$  (see Figure 1a). We have replaced the step by a short interval (length = 0.001) where a cubic polynomial blends the two values of G smoothly. We measure accuracy



e geometry and boundary conditions for problems 2, 3, 14 and 17. blem 16 uses the geometry of (c) with the boundary condition u = gprywhere.

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Table 1. The 17 problem space sample used in this paper. The letters f and g denote functions whose values are determined to make the problem have the specified true solution. The references are to papers where the problem or a closely related one has been considered.

l l		1	1	1	1
<u>Problem</u>	Partial Differential Equation Operator True Solution	Size of Solution	Domain	Boundary Conditions	References
1	$(e^{xy}u_x)_x + (e^{-xy}u_y)_y - \frac{u}{1+x+y} = f$	1.3	Unit Square	u=0	[9]
	$u = e^{xy} \sin(\pi x) \sin(\pi y)$ ,				
2/3	$\left(\frac{1}{G}u_x\right)_x + \left(\frac{1}{G}u_y\right)_y = f$ with $f = -20$ or 0	0.87 or 0.8	See Fig. la	See Fig. la	[7] [9]
	u is unknown ,				
4	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = f$	7.6	Ellipse	u=g	[9]
	$u = (e^{X} + e^{y})/(1 + xy)$ ,				
<sup>¬</sup> 5	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$	2.6	Circle	u <sub>N</sub> =g	[9]
	$u = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$ ,				
6	$u_{xx} + (1+y^2)u_{yy} - u_x - (1+y^2)u_y = f$	7.4	Unit Square	u-u <sub>N</sub> =0	[9]
	$u = e^{x+y} + (x^2 - x)^2 \log(1+y^2)$ ,				
7	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = -6xye^{x}e^{y} (xy + x + y - 3)$	0.58	Unit Square	u=0	[9] [14]
	$u = 3e^{x}e^{y}(x - x^{2})(y - y^{2})$ ,				
8	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = f$	0.1	Unit Square	u=0	[9]
	$u = x^{5/2}y^{5/2} - xy^{5/2} - x^{5/2}y + xy ,$				
		1			

'roblem	Partial Differential Equation Operator True Solution	Size of Solution	Domain	Boundary Conditions	References
9	$4u_{xx} + u_{yy} - 64 u = f$	2.0	Unit Square	u=0	
	$u = 4(x^2-x)(\cos(2\pi y) - 1),$				
10	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} - [100 + \cos(3\pi x) + \sin(2\pi y)]u = f$	3.2	Unit Square	u=0	[10]
	$u = [5.4 - \cos(4\pi x)] \sin(\pi x) (y^{2} - y) [5.4 - \cos(4\pi y)] * [1/(1+\phi^{4}) - 1/2] \phi = 4(x5)^{2} + 4(y5)^{2} ,$		, ,		
1/12	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} - 100u = (\mu^2 - 100) \cosh y / \cosh \mu$ with $\mu = 10$ or 20	2.0	Unit Square	u=g	
	u = cosh 10x/cosh10 + cosh μy/cosh μ ,				
13	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = f$	1.0	Unit Square	u≃g	
v	$u = \phi(x) * \phi(y)$ , see text ,				
14	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = f$	2.0	See Fig. lb	See Fig. lb	[6]
	$u = y[(x-2)^{2}+y^{2}-1]e^{0625x(x-4)(y-2)}/[(3+(x-2)^{2})(3+y^{2})],$				
15	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = f$	0.6	Unit Square	u=0	
	$u = 10 \phi(x) * \phi(y)$ , $\phi(x) = e^{-100(x5)^2} (x^2-x)$ ,				
16	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 2e^{x+y}$	4.9	See Fig. lc	u=g	[17]
	$u = e^{x+y}$				
17	$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = f$	100.0	See Fig. lc	See Fig. 1c	[17]
	see text and Appendix 4				
		1	1		

Table 1 Continued

here by comparing with a numerical solution we have computed which we believe is much more accurate than the ones considered in this paper.

<u>Prob. 4</u>. The ellipse is centered at (0,0) with major and minor axes of 2 and 1. By symmetry only a quarter of the elliptical region was used in the computation.

<u>Prob. 5</u>. The circle has radius 0.5 and center at (0.5, 0.5). The solution is uniquely determined by imposing the additional condition u(0, 0.5)=0.

<u>Prob. 8</u>. The true solution has a discontinuity in the "2.5" derivative.

<u>Prob. 10</u>. This is a version of a problem from stratospheric physics, see McDonald et al [1974].

<u>Prob. 11/12</u>. These problems are of boundary layer type; the square is centered at the origin and has side 2. Symmetry was not used.

<u>Prob. 13</u>. The product solution  $\phi(x) \phi(y)$  has a steep slope (or wave front) along a right angle at the center of the domain. We have

$$\phi(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \leq .35 \\ p(x) & .35 \leq x \leq .65 \\ 0 & .65 \leq x \end{cases}$$

where p(x) is a quintic polynomial determined so that  $\phi(x)$  has two continuous derivatives.

<u>Prob. 14</u>. This problem is similar to that of steady flow past a sphere, Desai and Abel [1972]. The true solution satisfies the same boundary conditions and has the same shape as the solution of the physical problem.

<u>Prob. 15</u>. The solution has a sharp peak at the center of the square and it is very small for  $(x-.5)^2+(y-.5) > .01$ .

<u>Prob. 16/17</u>. This problem is derived from that of heat flow in the concrete shield of a nuclear reactor, see Zienkiewicz and Cheung [1965].

Problem 16 only has the geometry and operator of the real problem. The true solution of Problem 17 (see Appendix 4) is a complicated function which exhibits the same shape (including small singularities at the three reentrant corners) and satisfies the same boundary conditions (except along x=0 and y=0) as the solution of the physical problem.

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Problems 1, 7, 8, 9, 13 and 15 are separable and all the operators except for Prob. 6 are formally self-adjoint.

<u>II.2 Results of the Comparisons</u>. The data obtained are presented in two forms. In Appendix 1 we give a set of 17 graphs of the accuracy achieved versus computer time used. For <u>both</u> methods the error is measured only at the nodes of the grid used. For most problems we have also measured the error at many more points in the domain and this sometimes gives a considerably different result. This is discussed in more detail in Section IV. We used a CDC 6500 whose long word length gives ample insulation from round-off errors in these calculations.

In Table 2 we tabulate the cross-over points for all 17 problems. This is expressed both in terms of accuracy measured in digits as log(max error/ solution size) and the number N of subdivisions in each variable. For the non-rectangular regions we give an approximate "equivalent" value of N which would give about the same number of unknowns, if the region were rectangular.

We see from Table 2 that the cross-over points range from 0 to 4 digits with 2 as a median value. One of the high cross-over points comes from Problem 16 where high accuracy is obtained by very coarse meshes. Let  $N_F$  and  $N_C$  denote the values of N at the cross over point for finite differences and collocation, respectively. There is a fairly consistent pattern in the relationship of the values of  $N_F$  and  $N_C$ , namely  $\sqrt{N_F}/N_C$  is about 1. The value of  $N_C$  is small (from 1 to 6 with 3 as median) for all cases.

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Problem	Digits = log(max error/solution size)	N <sub>F</sub> Finite Difference	N <sub>C</sub> Collocation	$\frac{\sqrt{N_F}}{N_C}$
1	1.8	5	2	1.12
2	3.0	13	4	0.90
3	1.5	12	3	1.15
4	3.0	12	4	0.87
5	1.9	6	2	1.22
6	0	1	1	1.00
7	1.8	5	1	2.23
8	4.0	5	2	1.12
9	3.0	9	4	0.75
10	1.1	8	3	0.94
11	2.2	13	6	0.60
12	1.3	9	4	0.75
13	1.3	15	5	0.77
14	3.6	17	5	0.82
15	1.2	15	4	0.97
16	4.1	16	4	1.00
17	1.8	20	6	0.75

Table 2. Tabulation of the cross-over points for 17 problems. The accuracy (in digits) and numbers  $N_F$  and  $N_C$  of grid lines is given for the comparison of Standard Finite Difference and Collocation with Hermite Cubics.

Our results here differ in some cases from those published earlier, Houstis et al [1975]. The efficiency of both programs has been improved but their relative efficiency has not changed much. In our earlier paper we measured the error at many points over the entire domain (bilinear interpolation was used to extend the finite difference solutions). The few noticeable differences from the earlier data are due to this change in error measurement. We also previously gave data on memory usage as well as execution time. We have omitted memory data here as the cross-over points for memory are somewhat the same as for execution time (this is true also for the new problems introduced in this paper).

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We timed separately the formation and the solution of the linear equations. Both finite differences and collocation are very similar in the breakdown of execution time as seen in Table 3.

<u>Table 3</u>. Sample data on the breakdown of execution time between formation and solution of the linear equations.

		Time for li	near system	Ratio of	
		Formation	Solution	Formation/Total	
Prob. 1.	Collocation, N=4	0.25 sec	0.46 sec	. 54	
	Finite Differences, N=10	0.25	0.56	.50	
	Collocation, N=8	1.0	4.5	. 22	
	Finite Differences, N=17	0.9	3.6	.20	
Prob. 10	Collocation, N=8	1.4	4.4	.24	
	Finite Differences, N=17	1.2	3.4	. 26	

The solution of the matrix equation was always by Gauss elimination (frontal or profile version) and it is possible that iterative methods or nested dissection would be significantly more efficient. Indeed, this is known to be true for certain simple problems and finite differences. However, we are concerned with problems with some complexity (even though we included some simple examples in our sample) and there the theoretical relationship between iterative methods and Gauss elimination is unknown. Iterative methods also normally involve choosing one or more parameters and that could be very delicate for complex problems. Thus we must leave the question of the impact of using iterative methods on these problems as an open question for future research. The few comparisons that we are aware of have various defects that leaves the situation inconclusive in our minds. II.3 Conclusions. A study of Table 2 and the graphs in Appendix 1 shows that collocation becomes more efficient than standard finite differences at rather low accuracies and/or small values for N. Furthermore, when finite differences are more efficient, it is by a small margin whereas collocation

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is often dramatically more efficient than finite differences. These results cover a reasonably broad range of two-dimensional linear elliptic problems and show that there is no reason from the point of view of efficiency to use the standard finite difference methods for this class of problems.

It is also relevant to note that in practical problems one must almost always compute solutions to higher accuracy than actually required. That is to say, the only reliable ways to be certain that one has an error of, say, 5% (or less) involve computing a solution accurate to 1% or better. This is especially the case for low accuracy requirements (e.g. 1-10% error).

#### III. COMPARISON OF COLLOCATION, GALERKIN AND LEAST SQUARES.

III.1 <u>The Methods</u>. In all three of these methods we use Hermite cubic polynomials as approximations. More specific details are given in Appendix 2 but there are two facts worth noting here. First, both the Galerkin and Least Squares methods involve the evaluation of integrals and these have been estimated by using 9 point quadrature in each grid rectangle based on the tensor product of the 3 point Gauss rule. All the information from the equation must be evaluated at 9 points, this compares with 4 points needed for collocation in each element (grid rectangle).

Second, the Galerkin and Least Squares methods were implemented only for the case where the boundary conditions can be exactly satisfied by chosing the Hermite cubic basis appropriately. This restriction makes them intrinsically less flexible and should give them an advantage over collocation whenever they are applicable. To offset this advantage we used the same Hermite cubic basis for collocation on those problems where all three methods are compared. In complex problems it can be very difficult (and tedious) to modify the original problem into one where the boundary conditions can be satisfied exactly by piecewise cubic polynomials.

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There are only six problems (1, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 15) where Galerkin and Least squares could be applied, but the results are so consistent that this number seems sufficient to draw general conclusions. <u>III.2 Results of the Comparisons</u>. The graphs given in Appendix 1 for these six problems show the data for all three methods. An examination of these graphs shows that there is rarely a significant difference between the Galerkin and Least Squares method. Table 4 gives a sample of some additional typical data for comparing the collocation and Galerkin methods.

One sees from Table 4 that collocation is always faster for equal accuracy. The advantage decreases as N increases and an operations count shows that eventually the Galerkin method is faster. This is because eventually most of the time is spent in solving the linear system and the Galerkin system is symmetric and hence can be solved twice as fast as the nonsymmetric collocation system. The timing data given in Table 4 is compatible with an operations count analysis for these two methods. One also sees for a fixed set of elements (grid) that collocation is sometimes much less accurate than Galerkin and never more accurate. However, the graphs show that the accuracy advantage of Galerkin never compensates for its speed disadvantage in these cases. One may compare accuracy from the graphs by noting that the last point plotted for each method has the same number of elements.

Note that Problem 10 involves fairly complicated functions in the differential operator and that this has a large negative effect for the Galerkin and Least Squares methods.

III.3 <u>Conclusions</u>. We see that collocation is a more general method and that it is also more efficient than Galerkin or Least Squares. Collocation is more delicate to apply because the boundary collocation points must be selected carefully for complicated regions. See Appendix 3. Thus collocation is the method of choice among these three for the class of problems represented here.

Table 4. Selected data comparing collocation and Galerkin for six problems. Times are given in seconds.

Speed Advantage   Accuracy Advantage   Colloc Matrix   Matri Matri     Prob No   for Coll.   for Galer.   N Formation   Sol.     1   4 to 12   2 to 3   3   .137   .203     7   3 to 6   2   4   .159   .477     8   2.5 to 8   2.5 to 4   3   .081   .213	cation Galerkin
Advantage for Coll.   Advantage for Galer.   Matrix N Formation   Matri Sol.     1   4 to 12   2 to 3   3   .137   .203     7   3 to 6   2   4   .159   .477     8   2.5 to 8   2.5 to 4   3   .081   .213	ix Matrix Matrix
1 4 to 12 2 to 3 3 .137 .203   7 3 to 6 2 4 .159 .477   8 2.5 to 8 2.5 to 4 3 .081 .213	, Error Formation Sol. Error
7 3 to 6 2 4 .159 .477 8 .645 4.45 8 2.5 to 8 2.5 to 4 3 .081 .213	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
8 2.5 to 8 2.5 to 4 3 .081 .213	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
8 .633 4.33	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
9 3 to 7 1 to 4 2 .034 .053 7 .489 2.88	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
10 6 to 15 1 to 2 2 .052 .055 9 1.71 6.66	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
15 5 to 10 1 to 7 4 .239 .482 8 .95 4.39	2

#### IV. THREE OBSERVATIONS.

IV.1 <u>Unequal Mesh Spacing for Collocation</u>. There are two disadvantages to collocation compared to standard finite differences: (1) It is not well known, (2) Its implementation is more complicated. The extra complexity (which is not great) of collocation partially stems from its greater flexibility. One manifestation of this is that unequal mesh spacings can be used with no extra difficulty, no loss in accuracy and a negligible increase in computation. By no loss of accuracy we mean that collocation remains a fourth order method as contrasted to standard finitie differences where unequal mesh spacing reduces the order from second to first.

In fact, unequal mesh spacing can dramatically increase the accuracy of collocation solutions and often one can see (with little trouble) a reasonable mesh to use. Several examples of this occur among the 17 problems considered here, including Prob. 13 (wave front on a right angle) and Prob. 15 (sharp peak at center). We solved both of these problems with unequally spaced meshes and the resulting improvements are tabulated in Table 5. The unequally spaced meshes for these examples were chosen in what seemed a plausible way, but no systematic attempt was made to optimize the mesh.

	ERROR				
Case	Equally Spaced Mesh	Unequally Spaced Mesh	<b></b>		
Prob 13 , N=6	1.5*10 <sup>-2</sup>	1.8*10 <sup>-3</sup>			
N=8	7 <b>*</b> 10 <sup>-2</sup>	4.1*10 <sup>-4</sup>			
Prob 15 N=3	.57	. 29			
N=6	.16	.06			
N=8	.08	.026			

<u>Table 5.</u> Illustration of the possible improvement in accuracy of the collocation method by using an unequally spaced mesh.

IV.2 Additional Accuracy at the Mesh Nodes for Collocation. For general collocation there is a phenomenon called super convergence, see deBoor and Swartz [1974] where the order of accuracy at the mesh nodes is higher than elsewhere. However, in theory this phenomenon does not occur when using cubic polynomials. Nevertheless, we observed substantially improved accuracy at the nodes for some problems while there was none for some others. For two problems there was a constant increase in the accuracy at the nodes: a factor of 4 for Prob 7 and 15 for Prob 4. In some other problems (e.g. 8, 10, 11, and 13) there was a more erratic factor of increase, but it exceeded 4 in some case of each of these problems. No such phenomenon occured for

the Least Squares or Galerkin methods.

There is a plausible explanation of this as follows: The nature of the theoretical error term for collocation is different at the mesh nodes than that at other points, but the use of cubic polynomials results in the same order of accuracy for both cases. However, for some problems the coefficient of the principal error term at the nodes might be significantly smaller than that of the general error term. This could account for the phenomenon that we observe.

IV.3 Dependence of Accuracy on the Nature of the Operator as well as the Solution. It is obvious that the difficulty of obtaining a numerical solution of a partial differential equation depends on the nature of the differential operator as well as the nature of its solution. This fact may be overlooked as the theory plans heavy emphasis on the nature of the solution. The effect of the operator, however, can be quite significant. For example, compare the widely varying results that are obtained for Problems 6, 7 and 16 whose solutions are nearly the same. On the other hand, Problems 1, 7 and 9 have very similar results as one would guess from the fact that the differential operators and boundary conditions are similar in nature and all three have very well-behaved solutions. We have considered several sets of different problems which all have the same solution and have seen a very wide range of difficulty in obtaining the same function from problems with different operators.

#### V. COMPARISON WITH PREVIOUS WORK.

There has been little effort on systematic comparisons of different methods for solving partial differential equations; our previous paper [Houstis et al, 1975] was one of the first. There have been a number of abstract comparisons based on asymptotic rates of convergence and asymptotic operation counts for the solution of linear systems of equations. See [Rice, 1976] and [Birkhoff and Fix,1971] for a large number of examples of this analysis and references to earlier work. Experience has shown that operation counts are reliable for estimating the efficiency of solving linear systems of equations. For iterative methods one must take extreme care to <u>terminate the iteration at a level compatible with the discretization</u> <u>error of the method.</u> This point is commonly overlooked and invalidates some otherwise interesting comparison studies.

The usefulness of asymptotic rates of convergence as guides to the efficiency of numerical methods for elliptic problems is still open to question. Specifically, it is not known how reliable these rates are as guides for the moderate accuracy requirements of typical applications. Discussions of this question is given in the last section of Strang and Fix [1973] (there asymptotic rates are reliable guides for 3 example problems), in Birkhoff and Fix [1974] and in Swartz [1974] where several different order methods are compared.

Roache [1972] has a section entitled "Remarks on Evaluating Methods" (pp. 109-112) and he strongly favors simple, low order methods and describes the performance of higher order methods as "disappointing". He supports the conclusions with citations of 12 papers, half of which have no relevant material on the question of the performance or comparison of methods. Most of those papers which involve shock wave and turbulence computations suggest that low order methods are the best of the methods used. However, we (and some of the authors) interpret these papers' results on smoother problems differently than Roache. One paper explicitly states that first order methods compare poorly and a third order method gives "striking" improvement in accuracy with no more computation for some shock wave problems [Burstein and Mirin, 1970]. A comparison of methods for weather prediction by [Grammeltvedt, 1969] suggests to us that fourth order methods may be superior, but Roache states the opposite. None of these papers attempts a controlled comparison of methods and thus no definitive conclusions can be reached from them.

Eason [1976] has a bibliography of 241 items relevant to the least squares method for partial differential equations. He tabulates the references in various ways including Table III. Comparisons where leastsquares methods are superior in accuracy, convenience or computing speed and Table IV. Comparisons where least-squares methods produce equivalent or comparable results. Eason is a strong advocate of the least squares method which may explain why a table where least squares does worse is not included. For example, Table III has 26 entries for collocation and 14 for Galerkin. We have examined most of these references and they are, in general, one of two types. First, someone attempts to solve a problem, say, with collocation using 12 polynomial terms and with least squares using 8 trigonometric polynomial terms. The problem has an unknown solution so the actual accuracy is unknown. The author reports his subjective evaluation of the quality of the results obtained. Usually there is insufficient data about the calculation to attempt to reproduce the results. Note that the differences observed are primarily due to using polynomials versus trigonometric polynomials rather than using collocation versus least squares. The second type of paper is more systematic, but involves trivial problems in one way or another (i.e. either the problem is trivial or the method used

is trivial). For example, one sees solutions of three fairly simple problems by five methods which compute a quadratic polynomial approximation. Then general conclusions are stated. We did not locate any systematic and realistic evaluation of methods among these 40 references. Most papers do not even give conclusive evidence in the particular context of the problem they consider.

If there is any consistent pattern in the results, it would be that authors find that the collocation of boundary conditions is delicate. Many find that least squares approximations to the boundary conditions give better results, primarily because they do not use good boundary collocation points. This does suggest that collocation of the differential equation combined with least squares for the boundary conditions would give a more robust numerical method with little or no penalty in efficiency.

Leissa et al [1969] present a systematic study of the value of 9 methods for two plate bending problems: a simply supported elliptic plate and a square plate supported a 4 "random" points. In both cases the "exact" solution is a series expansion truncated at 48 terms, but the authors do not view this as just another numerical method which might give worse results than some of the other methods they apply. The nine methods are compared on the basis of 11 criteria e.g. "suitability for programming", "applicability to general regions", "ease in learning". Efficiency and accuracy were not included directly as criteria and apparently were not systematically measured. It is important to note that all of the 9 methods considered were of limited flexibility and none could be applied to all 17 problems included in this study.

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#### APPENDIX ONE

GRAPHS OF THE COMPARISON DATA FOR 17 PROBLEMS

The data for the comparison of methods is plotted on log-log paper with accuracy achieved versus execution time. The accuracy is plotted as the actual error at the location of the maximum error. The execution time is in seconds on a CDC 6500. A consistent scheme of plotting is used for the four methods: solid for collocation, dots for finite differences, dashes for Galerkin and dotdash for Least Squares. Occasionally, some extra curves are plotted which are identified by a special label.

One may crudely estimate the "time order"  $\alpha$  of these methods by measuring the slopes of the curves of error vs. time when plotted on log-log paper. The order  $\alpha$  estimated is for the relationship

Error 
$$\approx 0$$
(Time  $^{-\alpha}$ )

If one assumes that most of the computer time is spent in solving the linear systems, then one would have

$$\text{Error} = 0(N^{-4\alpha})$$

This assumption is clearly not satisfied here. In Table Al we present our estimates of  $\alpha$  and  $4\alpha$ . We see that there is some correlation with the simple model which gives  $4\alpha = 2$  for finite differences and  $4\alpha = 4$  for the Hermite cubic method. There are also some very wide deviations from this.

<u>Table Al</u>. Measured slopes  $\alpha$  to estimate the order of the methods from their actual performance.

	Finite	Diff.	Colloc	ation	Galerkin	1	Finite	Diff.	Colloc	ation	Galerkin
Problem	α	4α	α.	4α	α 4α	Problem	α	4α.	α	4α	α 4α
1	0.65	2.6	1.44	5.8	1.9 7.6	9	0.58	2.3	1.5	6.0	1.4 5.7
2	1.13	4.5	2.4	9.6		10	0.53	2.1	1.15	4.6	?
3	0.94	3.8	1.7	6.8	—	11	0.54	2.2	1.06	4.2	1 —
4	0.59	2.4	1.37	5.5	<u> </u>	12	0.38	1.5	0.68	2.7	
5	0.47	1.9	4.0	16.0		13	0.67	2.7	?		
6	0.55	2.2	1.46	5.8		14	0.73	2.9	1.5	6.0	
7	0.61	2.4	1.39	5.6	2.0 6.2	15	0.85	3.4	1.19	4.8	1.2 4.8
8	. 0.58	2.3	0.67	2.7	1.5 6.1	16	1.44	5.8	2.34	9.4	— —
						17	1.05	4.2	1.05	4.2	
						21					

Figure A1. The data for Problems 1 to 4. Galerkin and Least Squares data is given for Problem 1. For Problem 4 we also plot the maximum error over the whole region to compare with that at the nodes.

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Figure A2. The data for Problems 5 to 8. The solution to Problem 8 has a mild singularity, which seems to affect the collocation solution more than Galerkin or Least Squares.

Figure A3. The data for Problems 9 to 12. Galerkin and Least Squares show erratic behavior for Problem 10. The "boundary layer" of Problem 12 adversely affects both methods of solution.

Figure A4. The data for Problems 13 to 15. The effect of collocation with a non-uniform mesh for the wave front on a right angle (Problem 13) and for an isolated sharp peak (Problem 15) is seen. The erratic behavior of collocation with a uniform mesh for Problem 13 seems to be due to the chance relationship between the mesh and the wave front.

Figure A5. The data for Problems 16 and 17 with the complicated geometry of Figure 1(c). The complex geometry does not adversely affect Problem 16 where surprising accuracy is obtained. The singularities and complex geometry also do not seem to adversely affect Problem 17 (recall that the true solution is of size 100.) where the geometry forced non-uniform meshes for both collocation and finite differences.





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## APPENDIX TWO

#### SYNOPSIS OF THE NUMERICAL METHODS

Standard Finite Differences. This method has the following components.

 (a) Grid: A rectangular grid is placed over the domain and all points in the domain or on its boundary are used. The grid is uniformly spaced except for Problems 16, 17 where the geometry made that undesirable.
 (b) Approximation to the operator: The derivatives in differential equation are replaced by simple central, 3-point finite difference approximations involving the grid points.

(c) Approximation to the boundary conditions: Derivatives in Neumann or mixed boundary conditions are approximated as indicated by the diagram



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x-derivative at P estimated from value at P and the 2 x-points. y-derivative at P estimated from value at P and the 2 y-points. The values at the y-points are found by linear interpolation from the 0-points.

(d) Equation Solution: The linear system is solved by Gauss-elimination taking into account the zeros in the system (profile or frontal method).

2. Collocation. This method has the following components.

(a) Elements: A rectangular grid is placed over the domain. Rectangular elements whose center is not inside the domain are discarded. The grid is uniform unless noted except for Problems 16, 17.

(b) Approximation space: the Hermite bicubics defined at the end of this appendix.(c) Approximation to the operator: The approximate solution satisfies the differential equation exactly at the four Gauss point of a rectangular element.For non-rectangular elements near the boundary the four Gauss points are

projected inside the element as indicated by the diagram.



x = differential equation collocation points

(d) Approximation to the boundary conditions: The boundary conditions are interpolated at a selected set of boundary points for either Dirichlet, Neumann or Mixed boundary conditions. If the domain is a rectangle and the problem has Dirichlet conditions = 0 (Problems 1, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 15) then the Hermite bicubics are selected so as to automatically satisfy the boundary conditions and no boundary approximation equations are used. This is the same procedure as for the Galerkin and Least Squares methods. See Appendix 3 for details on how the boundary collocation points are selected.

(e) Equation Solution: Same as for standard finite differences.

- 3. Ritz-Galerkin and Least Squares. The components of these methods are:
  - (a) Elements: same as for collocation.
  - (b) Approximation space: same as for collocation.

(c) Approximation to the operator: In each element E of the partition we have the Galerkin equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} \alpha_{i} \int \{p D_{x} B_{i} D_{x} B_{j} + q D_{y} B_{i} D_{y} B_{j} + r B_{i} B_{j}\} dx dy = \int f f B_{j} dx dy$$

$$i=1 \quad E \quad E$$

where the operator L and the true solution  $U^*$  are defined by

$$LU^* \neq (p U_x^*)_x + (q U_y^*)_y + rU^* = f$$

and

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 $D_x, D_y$  = differentiation operators

 $B_i(x,y)$ ,  $B_j(x,y)$  = the i and j elements of the Hermite bicubic basis  $\alpha_i$  = coefficient of  $B_i$  in the approximate solution (the index i refers to one element only)

The Least Squares equation in each element is

$$\begin{array}{c} 16 \\ \Sigma \alpha_{i} \quad \int \int L(B_{i}) \cdot L(B_{j}) dx dy = \int \int \int L(B_{j}) dx dy \\ i=1 \quad E \quad F \end{array}$$

The integrals in these equations are approximated by the 9-point Gauss quadrature rule for rectangles (only rectangular domains were used with these methods).

(d) Approximation to the boundary conditions: the boundary condition were exactly satisfied by the Hermite cubic basis for all problems (1, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 15) attempted with these methods.

(e) Equation solution: The local equations are assembled (by the direct stiffness method) to form the global matrix. This equation is solved by Gauss elimination for positive definite matrices.

# 4. The Rectangular Bicubic Hermite Element. The situation is shown in the diagram



s = x/a and  $0 \le s \le 1$ t = y/b and  $0 \le t \le 1$ The numerical labels on the corners are used later to index the points.

We use 8 one dimensional functions to construct the 16 basis functions for the rectangle:

$$B_{x1} = 1 - 3s^{2} + 2s^{3}$$

$$B_{y1} = 1 - 3t^{2} + 2t^{3}$$

$$B_{x2} = s^{2}(3 - 2s)$$

$$B_{x3} = as(s - 1)^{2}$$

$$B_{x4} = as^{2}(s - 1)$$

$$B_{y4} = bt^{2}(t - 1)$$

Then  $u^{*}(x,y)$  is approximated in each rectangle by

$$u(x,y) = B_{x1} B_{y1} U_{1} + B_{x2} B_{y1} U_{2} + B_{x2} B_{y2} U_{3} + B_{x1} B_{y2} U_{4}$$

$$+ B_{x3} B_{y1} \sigma_{x1} + B_{x4} B_{y1} \sigma_{x2} + B_{x4} B_{y2} \sigma_{x3} + B_{x3} B_{y2} \sigma_{x4}$$

$$+ B_{x1} B_{y3} \sigma_{y1} + B_{x2} B_{y3} \sigma_{y2} + B_{x2} B_{y4} \sigma_{y3} + B_{x1} B_{y4} \sigma_{y4}$$

$$+ B_{x3} B_{y3} \tau_{xy1} + B_{x4} B_{y3} \tau_{xy2} + B_{x4} B_{y4} \tau_{xy3} + B_{x3} B_{y4} \tau_{xy4}$$

where  $u_i = value at the point i$ 

 $\sigma_{xi}$ ,  $\sigma_{yi}$  = x and y derivatives at the point i  $\tau_{xyi}$  = xy (cross) derivative at the point i.

The 16 functions in the above equation are the ones denoted by  $B_i(x,y)$ earlier in the Galerkin and Least Squares equations, e.g.  $B_1(x,y) = B_{x1} B_{y1}$ .

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## APPENDIX THREE

## THE INTERPOLATION OF BOUNDARY CONDITIONS FOR COLLOCATION

The most sensitive aspect of collocation is the placement of the boundary collocation points for non-rectangular domains. First, one must take care that these points are reasonably separated from the points in the interior where one collocates with the differential operator. This is not difficult to do even in an automatic way, but the penalty for overlooking this point is an ill-conditioned computation with large errors.

One first overlays the region with a rectangular grid and discards the elements which intersect the domain slightly or not at all. Let  $S_b$ be the number of boundary sides of the resulting rectangular partition. Then the number of boundary collocation points required is  $2S_b + 4$ . We use two basic schemes for distributing the boundary collocation points as illustrated by the diagrams below for a simple rectangle:



Figure A6. Two schemes for distributing boundary collocation points. The x's are the systematic collocation points and the 0's are the four extra ones.

A theoretical analysis shows that the 2-point scheme is superior for rectangular regions provided the two points are taken to be the Gauss points for each boundary segment. We compared using the Gauss points with equally spaced points and found the equally spaced points give slightly better accuracy and they are slightly easier to use. We made numerous numerical experiments which confirmed that the 2-point scheme is superior for rectangular regions.

The extension of these two schemes to curved domains is illustrated in Figure A7.



Figure A7. The two schemes for a simple curved domain. The lines show how the collocation points are placed on the edge of the rectangular partition and then mapped onto the portions of the boundary intersecting each rectangular element.

The theoretical advantage of the 2-point scheme no longer holds for curved boundaries and our experiments confirm that it has no advantage over the midpoint scheme in this case. In fact it is, on the average, slightly less accurate. Furthermore, the midpoint scheme automatically gives collocation of the boundary conditions at any extremities of the domain (for example, for a piecewise rectangular boundary such as in Problems 16 and 17, see Figure 1). It is often essential that collocation of the boundary conditions be made at all exterior corners of the domain.

Our procedure is to use the 2-point scheme for boundaries which are straight (or nearly so) and parallel to a coordinate axis and to use the midpoint scheme otherwise. The two schemes may be used together for a domain such as shown above and we do this as shown in Figure A8.



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Figure A8. The combination of the two schemes for a partially rectangular region. The mapping from the point on the rectangular edges to the curved boundary is indicated.

There seems to be no particularly advantageous method to distribute the 4 extra collocation points beyond putting them in elements with exterior corners and spreading them somewhat evenly around the boundary. We always map the midpoint type collocation points to segments of the curved boundary which are interior to the rectangular partition. The points are placed uniformly on each such segment. At times this may leave rather large segments of a curved boundary "unused", but we have not found a reliable method to place collocation points on the intermediate segments. We do place collocation outside the rectangular partition for the 2-point scheme. An example is shown in Figure A9 which illustrates these procedures.



Figure A9. Example which illustrates boundary collocation points for the 2-point scheme which are outside the rectangular partition and collocation for the midpoint scheme are inside. Collocation is not done on two large boundary segments.

#### APPENDIX FOUR

THE SOLUTION OF PROBLEM 17 AND FUNCTIONS INVOLVED IN THE OTHER PROBLEMS

We describe the exact solution u of Problem 17 for the reactor heat shields  $\nabla^2 u = f$ .

We set

 $u(x,y) = 100 g(x,y,\theta,0,0) / g(x,y,a,b,c)$ 

where, by construction, the numerator on the right is zero on the stair-step outer boundary of the domain (see Figure 1). The numerator is the product of (x-1), (y-1), and three factor of the form  $r_i^{2/3} \sin(3(\theta_i + \pi/2)/2)$ where  $r_i$  is the distance between (x,y) and the reentrant corner  $(x_i, y_i)$ , i = 1,2,3. The denominator is a modification of the numerator which is positive in a region containing the boundary of the heat shield and which is equal to the numerator along the circular part of the boundary. Note that this function has the correct singularities at the reentrant corners. Specifically:

$$g(x,y,a,b,c) = [(x-1)(y-1) + a C(x,y)] \prod_{i=1}^{3} T(x,y,x_{i},y_{i},b,c)$$

$$C(x,y) = (x^{2} + y^{2} - .64)^{2}$$

$$T(x,y, x_{i}, y_{i}, b, c) = R(x,y, x_{i}, y_{i}, b) S(x,y, x_{i}, y_{i}, c)$$

$$R(x,y, x_{i}, y_{i}, b) = [(x-s_{i})^{2} + (y-y_{i})^{2} + b C(x,y)]^{1/3}$$

$$S(x,y, X_{i}, y_{i}, c) = sin(2[arc tan([y-y_{i}]/[x-x_{i}]) + \pi/2]/3) + c C(x,y)$$
with branch cut along y-y<sub>i</sub> = x-x<sub>i</sub>, x<sub>i</sub> < x

After some experimentation, we found that a = -.5, b = .1, c = 7. gives a solution u which is similar to that one expects for the temperature in the heat shield. <u>Remark</u> about the evaluation of u and  $f = \nabla^2 u$ : In our first attempt at the construction of a suitable u, we used a somewhat simplier function [which later proved to be unsuitable because it had zeros in the interior of the region]. A Fortran program was written for the evaluation of u and it was processed by a symbolic differentiator to obtain function subroutines to evaluate  $u_{xx}$  and  $u_{yy}$ . The resulting programs for u,  $u_{xx}$ ,  $u_{yy}$  were more complicated and much longer than the one we eventually wrote for our more complicated function. We note that u,  $u_{xx}$ ,  $u_{yy}$  can each be evaluated by successive calls to a number of very simple subroutines. Each of these evaluates V,  $V_{xx}$ ,  $V_{yy}$ where V is a product V = WZ. Schematically the program is:

	W	=	
	WX	=	
	WXX	=	
	Z	=	•••
	ZX	5	
	ZXX	=	•••
	v	=	W*2
:	VX	=	WX*Z + W*ZX
	vxx	=	WXX*Z + 2.*WX*ZX + W*ZXX

and similarly for the y-derivatives.

The values of V, VX, VXX, VY, VYY are stored in a common block for use by subsequent routines. In most cases, statements like the first six above:  $W = \dots, \dots ZXX = \dots$ , do not appear since the values are already computed by previously called subroutines. The program is quickly written and debugged.

<b>XXX</b>	** PRDBLEM 1 DATA #####
	FUNCTION COEF(X;Y;J)
	2 = EXP(X*Y)
	RZ = 1.7Z
	$\underline{GD} \underline{TD} (101, 102, 103, 104, 105), J$
101	
4.40	REJURN
102	
1.03	
103	ULER = T ~ Z BCTHDW
1.04	KETUKN MTEF Y ¥ R7
104	BET PN
1.05	CDEF = -1.7(1. + X + Y)
	RETURN
	FUNCTION F(X,Y,J)
	GD TD (101,102) , J
101	PI = 3.14159265358979
	Z = EXP(X*Y)
	RZ = 1. / Z
	PIX = PIAX
	SINX = SINYFIX
	STAL STARTA
	YTRUE = Y#TRUE
	FX = PIZ*COS(PIX)*SINY
	FY = PIZ*COS(PIY)*SINX
	DXTR = YTRUE + FX
	BYTR = XTRUE + FY
	DDXTR = Y*YTRUE - TEMP + 2, Y*FX
	DDYTR = X*XTRUE - TEMP + 2. #X*FY
	$F = Z^{*}DDXTR+RZ^{*}DDYTR+Y^{*}Z^{*}DXTR-X^{*}RZ^{*}DYTR-TROE^{1}+X^{+}T$
	RETURN
102	t = U. Defiley
	CHARTION TOUCCES
	PT = 3, 14159265358979
	TRUE = FXP(XWY)*SIN(PI*X)*SIN(PI*Y)
	RETURN
	FUNCTION BCDEF(X,Y,J)
	GD TD <101,102,103),J
101	BCOEF = 1.
	RETURN
102	BCOEF = 0.
1.00	

BCDEF = 0. RETURN END 1 03

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 WHERE
 PROBLEM
 2
 DATA
 WHERE

 FUNCTION
 F(X;Y;J)
 GO
 GO
 TO
 (101;102);J

 01
 F
 0.
 RETURN
 RETURN
 FCO
 1
 FCO
 FCO 101 IF(X.EQ.0..OR.X.EQ.1.) GD TD 1 IF(Y.EQ.0..OR.Y.EQ..5) GD TO 1 F = 1. 102 RETURN F = 0.1 RETURN END FUNCTION COEF(X,Y,J) GD TD (1,2,3,4,5),J GD TD (1,2,3,4,5),J CDEF = G(X,Y) RETURN CDEF = G(X,Y) RETURN CDEF = 0. PETURN 1 5 Э RETURN 4 CDEF = 0.RETURN CDEF = 0. RETURN END 5 END FUNCTION G(X;Y) E = .00001 X1 = .5-E X2 = .5 + E DX = X2 - X1 IF( X .LE. X1 > GO TO 1 IF( X .GE. X2 > GO TO 2 FOL = 3.-6.\*(X-X1)\*\*2/(DX\*DX)+4.\*(X-X1)\*\*3/(DX\*\*3) G = 1./PDL RETURN RETURN G = 1./3. RETURN 1 2 G = i. ۲ RETURN END FUNCTION BCDEF(X,Y,J) FUNCTION BEDEF(X,Y,3) GD TD (101,102,103),J IF(X .GT. 0.,AND. X .LT. .25) GD TD 1 IF(X .GT. .75 .AND. X .LT. 1.) GD TD 1 BEDEF = 1. RETURN IF(Y .EQ. 0.) GD TD 2 BEDEF = 1. RETURN 101 1 BCDEF = 1. RETURN BCDEF = 0. RETURN BCDEF = 0. RETURN IF(X.GT.0. AND. X.LT.,25)G0 TO 11 IF(X.GT..75 AND. X.LT.1.) GO TO 11 BCDEF = 0. PETURN 2 102 103 . BCDEF = 0. RETURN IF(Y .EQ. 0.) GD TO 22 BCDEF = 0. RETURN BCDEF = 1. RETURN END 11 22 ÷

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Marian Problem 3 Data Marian			
	FUNCTION F(X,Y,J)		
	GD TD (101,102),J		
101	F = -20. DETUDN		
102	F = 0		
	RETURN		
	END		
	FUNCTION COEF(X,Y,J)		
	GD TD (1,2,3,4,5),J		
1	CLEF = G(X)Y)		
2	$CDFF = 5(X_{*}Y)$		
-	RETURN		
3	CDEF = 0.		
	RETURN		
4	CUEF = 0.		
5	CDFF = 0.		
•	RETURN		
	END		
	FUNCTION G(X,Y)		
	E = .00001		
	$x_1 = .5 + F$		
	DX = X2 - X1		
	IF( X .LE. X1 ) GO TO 1		
	IF(X.GE. X2) GD TD 2		
	FBL ≥ 36.*(X-X1)**2/(DX#DX)+4.*(X-X1)**3/(DX#*3)		
	G = 1.77UL RETURN		
1	G = 1.73		
-	RETURN		
2	$G \simeq 1$ .		
	RETURN		
	EUNCTION BODEF(X,Y,D)		
	GO TO (101,102,103), J		
101	IF(X .GT. 0AND. X .LT25) GO TO 1		
	IF(X .GT75 .AND. X .LT. 1.) GD TO 1		
	BULLET 1.		
1	IF(Y .EQ. 0.) 60 TO 2		
-	BCDEF = 1,		
_	RETURN		
2	BCDEF = 0.		
109	KEIUKN BEDEE - 0		
	RETURN		
103	IF(X.GT.0AND. X.LT25)GD TO 11		
	IF(X.GT75 .AND. X.LT.1.) GO TO 11		
	BCDEF = 0.		
11	KETUKA 1577 SO A N GU TA 22		
	BCDEF = 0.		
	RETURN		
22	BCDEF = 1.		
	RETURN		
	FUN		

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WHEATH PROBLEM 4 DATA WHEATH FUNCTION TRUE(X,Y) TRUE = (EXP(X) + EXP(Y))/(1. + XWY) RETURN END FUNCTION DXTRUE(X,Y) Z = 1./(1.+XWY) DXTRUE = EXP(X)#Z-TRUE(X,Y)#Y#Z RETURN RETURN END FUNCTION DYTRUE(X,Y) Z = 1./(1.+X\*Y) DYTRUE = EXP(Y)\*Z -TRUE(X,Y)\*X\*Z STUDN RETURN END FUNCTION DXYTR(X)Y) Z = 1./(1.+X\*Y) DXYTR = -(EXP(X)\*X+EXP(Y)\*Y)\*Z\*Z \$ -TRUE(X)Y)\*Z+2.\*TRUE(X)Y)\*X\*Y\*Z\*\*2 RETURN END END END FUNCTION F(X,Y,J) EX = EXP(X) EY = EXP(Y) Z = 1./(1. + XMY) GD TD (1,2) , J F = (EX + EY - 2.\*Z\*(Y\*EX+X\*EY-Z\*(EX+EY)\*(X\*X+Y\*Y)))\*Z RETURN F = (EX+EY)\*Z RETURN FND 1 2 RETURN END FUNCTION COEF(X,Y,J) GD TD (1,2,3,4,5),J CDEF = 1. RETURN CDEF = 1. RETURN CDEF = 0. RETURN CDEF = 0. 1 З з COEF = 0. RETURN COEF = 0. RETURN 4 5 END END FUNCTION BCOEF(X,Y,J) GD TD (1,2,3),J BCOEF = 1. RETURN BCOEF = 0. RETURN BCOEF = 0. RETURN END END ۱ 1 г з ENB

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FUNCTION TRUE(X,Y)
TRUE = ATAN(Y/X) + 1.
RETURN
END
                 FUNCTION F(X,Y,J)
GO TQ (101,102), J
F = 0.
RETURN
101
                 F = -(Y - X)/(X + Y - .25)
RETURN
102
                  F = -1.
RETURN
1
                 END
FUNCTION CDEF(X,Y,J)
GD TO (101,102,103,104,105),J
CDEF = 1.
RETURN
CDEF = 1
101
               CDEF = 1.

RETURN

CDEF = 1.

RETURN

CDEF = 0.

RETURN

CDEF = 0.

RETURN

CDEF = 0.

RETURN

END

FUNCTION BCDEF(X,Y,J)

GD TO (1,2,3),J

IF(X,EQ..5.AND. Y.EQ.0.) GDTO 11

BCDEF = 0.

RETURN

BCDEF = -1.

RETURN

IF(X,EQ..5.AND. Y.EQ.0.) GD TO 22

BCDEF = Y/.5 - 1.

RETURN

IF(X.EQ..5.AND. Y.EQ.0.) GD TO 33

BCDEF = X/.5 - 1.

RETURN

BCDEF = 0.

RETURN

BCDEF = 0.

RETURN

BCDEF = 0.
102
103
104
105
1
11
2
3
33
                  END
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氣減運	** PRIBLEM 6 DATA MANNE
	FUNCTION COFF(X,Y,J)
	60 T0 (101 102 103 104 105) 1
101	CDEE = 1.
•••	RETURN
102	CDEE ≏ 1.+Y*Y
	RETURN
103	CDEF = −1.
	RETURN
104	CDEF = -(1.+Y = Y)
	RETURN
105	CDEF = 0.
	RETURN
	END
	FUNCTION F(X,Y,J)
	GO TO (101,102) , J
101	F = (-4.%X*X*X+18.*X*X-14.*X+2.)*ALOG(1.+Y*Y).
\$	2.*((X*X=X)#*2)*(Y#Y+Y*#3+Y-1.)/(1.+Y#Y)
	RETURN
102	IF(X.EQ.0OR. Y.EQ.0.) GO TO 1
	F = (ALOG(2.)-1.)*(X#X-X)**2
	RETURN
1	F = 2. <b>XEXP(X+Y)</b>
	RETURN
	END
	FUNCTION TRUE(X)Y)
	TRUE = EXP(X+Y)+((X=X-X)**2)*ALDG(1.+Y*Y)
	RETURN
	FUNCTION BUDEF (X) TYJJ
1.04	00 TE (101,102,103/)J
101	BUULF = 1.
100	
102	
	$\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) = 0$
	BCUEF - U.
•	
1	DCULF - J. DCTHEN
2	
L	
103	IE(Y, EQ. 0.) GO TO 11
100	IF(Y, FR. 1.) 60 TO 12
	BCDEF = 0.
	RETURN
11	BCOEF = 1.
	RETURN
12	BCDEF = -1.
	RETÜRN
	END:

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78.8	A DHIH A DHIH WARA
	FUNCTION COEF(X,Y,J)
	GD TD (101,102,103,104,105),J
101	COEF = 1.
	RETURN
102	CDEF = 1.
	RETURN
103	CIFE = 0.
	RETURN
1.04	
	RETURN
1.05	$CDFF \approx 0.$
100	PETIIRN
	CUNCTION FOR Y. D
	GD TD (101-102) • .1
101	$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F} \left\{ \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{Y} \\$
101	
1.02	$\mathbf{F} = 0$
A OL	PFTIRN
	FND
	FUNCTION TRUE (X,Y)
	TEVIE = 3 EVENEVE(Y) = (Y) =
	ENTI
	FUNCTION BODEF(X,Y,D)
1.01	BCDFF = 1
	RETIRN
1.02	BCOFF = 0.
	RETURN
£ 0.3	BCDFF = 0.
1.00	RETIRN
	ENTI

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***	** PROBLEM 8 DATA *****
	FUNCTION COEF(X,Y,J)
	GD TD (101,102,103,104,105),J
101	CDEF = 1.
4	RETURN
102	CDEF = 1.
	RETURN
103	CDEF = 0
	RETURN
1 04	COFF = 0.
	RETURN
1.05	
6.01	
101	$\rho_{\rm N} = 2001/02$
	IC - 3 75 % / VD % / D % / V%Y _ V%Y _ VD % V _ V % VD \
1.02	
IVE	
	TOTE - ADBARAAAAAAAAA - AAAABAAAA - ADBABABA + ABA
1.01	BODE = 1
101	BETINN
102	
102	
103	BORF = A.
103	DETINN

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REEM 9 DATA REXX	
FUNCTION TRUE(X,Y)	
PI = 3.14159265358979	
TRUE = $4.4(X*X-X)*(COS(2,*PI*Y)-$	4.)
RETURN	
FND	
FUNCTION F(X,Y,D)	
GD TD (101.102). /	
101  PI  = 2 (4)59255259279	
$[01 F1 = 3.1413263336377 = 5.200 \pm 7.200 \pm 7$	HUNNE.
DETUDN	•
10C F - U.	
FUNCTION COEF (X) Y) J)	
GD TD (101,102,103,104,105),J	
101  CDEF = 4.	
RETURN	
102  CDEF = 1.	
RETURN	
103 CDEF = 0.	
RETURN	
104 COEF = Q.	
RETURN	
105 CDEF = -64.	
RETURN	
END	
FUNCTION BODEF(X,Y,J)	
GO TO (101,102,103),J	
101 BCDEF = 1.	
RETURN	
102  BCEEF = 0.	
RETURN	
103  BCDEF = 0.	
RETURN	
END	

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HWWWW PROBLEM 10 DATA HWWWW FUNCTION TRUE(X,Y) PI=3.141592653589793 FOURP=4,WPI FUUKP=4, #P; FPX=FUURP#X FPY=FUURP#Y CX=CDS(FPX) CY=CDS(FPX) F1=-CX+5.4 F2=-CY+5.4 F3= (X-.5)\*(X-.5)+(Y-.5)\*(Y-.5) F32=16.\*F3\*F3 F34=F32\*F32 Z=1./(1.+F34) F4=Z-.5 SPX=SIN(PI\*X) GDFY=Y#Y-Y TRUE=F1#SPX#GDFY#F2#F4 RETURN END FUNCTION F(X,Y,J) GO TO (101,102),J 101 PI=3,141592653589793 FBURP=4.\*PI FDURP=4.\*P1 FPX=FDURP\*X FPY=FDURP\*Y SXTPSQ=FDURP\*FDURP SX=SIN(FPX) SY=SIN(FPX) CX=CDS(FPX) CY=CDS(FPX) CY=COS(FPY) F1=-CX+5.4 F2=-CY+5.4 DXF1=F0URP#SX DYF2=F0URP#SY DDXF1=SXTPSQ\*CX DDYF2=SXTPSQ\*CY F3= (X-.5)\*(X-.5)+(Y-.5)\*(Y-.5) F32=16.\*F3#F3 F34=F32#F32 F34=F32#F32 Z=1./(1.+F34) F4=Z-.5 DXF3= 2.\*(X-.5) DYF3= 2.\*(Y-.5) DYF3=2.\*(Y-.5) DDF3=2. ZZ=Z\*Z W=F32\*ZZ W32=F33\*ZZ DDXF1=SXTPSQ\*CX W32=F33#ZZ W32=F33WZZ W6=W32#F33WZ DF4=-16.\*W32 DXF4=DF4\*DXF3 DYF4=DF4\*DYF3 A1=-192.\*W A2=-16.\*W32\*DDF3 A3=512.\*W6 DXF3S=DXF3\*DXF3 DYF3S=DYF3\*DYF3 DTXF4=(A1+A3)\*DXF3 DDXF4=(A1+A3)\*DXF3S+A2 DDYF4=(A1+A3)\*DYF3S+A2 SPX=SIN(PI\*X) PICPX=FI\*CDS(PI\*X) GDFY=Y\*Y-Y DGDFY=2\*Y-1. UXX=DDXFI\*SPX\*GDFY\*F2\*F4 \*+DXF1\*PICPX\*GDFY\*F2\*F4 \*+DXF1\*PICPX\*GDFY\*F2\*F4 \*-F1\*PICPX\*GDFY\*F2\*F4 \*-F1\*PICPX\*GDFY\*F2\*DXF4 #+DXF1\*SPX\*GDFY\*F2\*DXF4 #+F1\*PICPX\*GDFY\*F2\*DXF4 #+F1\*PICPX\*GDFY\*F2\*DXF4 SPX=SIN(PI#X)

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	<pre>#+F1#SPX#GGFY#F2#DDXF4 UYY=F1#SPX#DGGFY#DYF2#F4 #+F1#SPX#DGGFY#DYF2#F4 #+F1#SPX#DGGFY#DYF2#F4 #+F1#SPX#GGFY#DYF2#DYF4 #+F1#SPX#DGGFY#DYF2#DYF4 #+F1#SPX#DGGFY#DYF2#DYF4</pre>
	*+F1*SPX*GOFY*DYF2*DYF4
	*+F1*SPX*GDFY*F2*DDYF4
	A=100.+COS(2.≭PI#X)+SIN(3.≇PI#Y)
	$\mathbf{A} = -\mathbf{A}$
	}=UXX+UYY+H=U
109	
TOF	r∽U. Detiidn
	FND
	FUNCTION COEF(X)Y)J)
	GD TD (101,102,103,104,105),J
101	CDEF=1.
	RETURN
102	COEF=1.
	RETURN
103	ÇOEF≅0.
	RETURN
104	CUER = V.
1.05	NETURN DI-3 141592653589793
103	COFF=100.4COS(2.#PI#X)+SIN(3.#PI#Y)
	CDEF = -CDEF
	RETURN
	END
	FUNCTION BODEF(X,Y,J)
	GO TO (1,2,3),J
1	BCDEF=1.
_	RETURN
2	
3	
~	RETURN
	END

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WHWWW PROBLEM 11 DATA WWWWW		
	FUNCTION COEF(X:Y:J)	
	GO TO (101,102,103,104,105),J	
101	CDEF = 1.	
	RETURN	
1 02	COEF = 1.	
	RETURN	
103	COEF = 0.	
	RETURN	
104	COEF = 0.	
	RETURN	
105	CDEF = -100.	
	RETURN	
	END	
	FUNCTION F(X,Y,J)	
	GO TO (101,102) , J	
101	F = 0.	
	RETURN	
102	F = TRUE(X,Y)	
	RETURN	
	END	
	FUNCTION TRUE(X,Y)	
	TRUE = (CDSH(10,*X)+CDSH(10,*Y))/CDSH(10,)	
	RETURN	
	END	
	FUNCTION COSH(X)	
	COSH = (EXP(X)+EXP(-X))/2.	
	RETURN	
	END	
	FUNCTION BCDEF(X,Y,J)	
	GO TO (101,102,103),J	
101	BCDEF = 1.	
	RETURN	
102	BCDEF = 0.	
	RETURN	
103	BCDEF = 0.	
	RETURN	
	END	

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MINANA PROBLEM 12 DATA WANNE			
	FUNCTION COEF(X,Y,J)		
	GD TO (101,102,103,104,105),J		
101	COEF = 1.		
	RETURN		
102	CÓEF = 1.		
	RETURN		
103	CDEF = 0.		
	RETURN		
104	CDEF = 0.		
	RETURN		
105	COEF = -100		
100	RETURN		
	FNI		
	FUNCTION F(X,Y,J)		
1.01	F = 300  WCDSH(20, WY)/CDSH(20, )		
	RETURN		
1.02	F = TRUF(X,Y)		
	RÉTURN		
	FND		
	FUNCTION TRUE (X.Y)		
	$TRUE = COSH(10, \frac{1}{2})/COSH(10, )+COSH(20, \frac{1}{2})/COSH(20, )$		
	RETIRN		
	<b>FND</b>		
	FUNCTION COSH(X)		
	$C\Pi SH = (F X P (X) + F X P (-X))/2.$		
	SETIRN		
	FND		
	FUNCTION BODEF(X+Y+1)		
	GD TD (101,102,103).3		
t 01	BCDFF = 1		
•••	RETURN		
102	$BCDEF \neq 0$ .		
	RETURN		
103	BCDEF = 0.		
	RETURN		
	END		

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REMARK PROBLEM 13 DATA MAMMA FUNCTION COEF(X,Y)J) Gei Tei (101,102,103,104,105))J D1 COEF = 1. 101 RETURN 102 CDEF = 1.RETURN CDEF = 0. RETURN 103 104 CDEF = 0.RETURN COEF = 0. RETURN 105 END FUNCTION F(X;Y;J) GO TO (101;102); J F = D2P(X)=P(Y) + P(X)=D2P(Y) 101 RETURN F = TRUE (X, Y) RETURN 102 END FUNCTION TRUE(X;Y) TRUE ~ P(X)\*P(Y) RETURN END FUNCTION BCOEF(X,Y,J) GD TD (101,102,103),J BCDEF = 1. 101 RETURN BCOEF = 0.RETURN BCOEF = 0.102 103 RETURN END FUNCTION P(X) A = 1. B = 0. E = .15 X1 = .5 - E X2 = .5 + E IF(X .LT. X1) GD TD 1 IF(X .GT. X2) GD TD 2 DPHI = B - A DX = X2 - X1 P = A + DPHI\*(X-X1)\*\*3\*(JX\*\*3)-3.\*DPHI\*(X-X1)\*\*3\*(X-X2) \$ /DX\*\*4 + 6.\*DPHI\*(X-X1)\*\*3\*(X-X2)\*\*2/DX\*\*5 RETURN P = A RETURN A = 1.1 RETURN P = B RETURN 2 END FUNL. A = 1. B = 0. E = .15 X1 = .5 - E X2 = .5 + E IF(X .LT. X1) GD TD 1 IF(X .GT. X2) GD TD 1 DPHI = B - A DX = X2 - X1 C3 = DPHI/DX##3 C4 = -3.WDPHI/DX##4 C5 = 6.WDPHI/DX##5 D2P = 6.WC3#(X-X1)+6.WC4#(X-X1)W(X-X2)+ \$ 6.WC4#(X-X1)##2+6.WC5#(X-X1)W(X-X2)##2+ \$ 12.\*C5\*(X-X1)##2\*(X-X2) + 2.\*C5\*(X-X1)##3 FUNCTION D2P(X) 1

END

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WHEEK PROBLEM 14 DATA REFER
             ## PRUBLEM 14 DATA #####
FUNCTION TRUE(T;S)
E = .0625
X = 4.#T
Y = 4.#S
T1 = 7.#Y#((X-2.)##2+Y#Y-1.)
T2 = EXP(-E#(Y-2.)#X#(X-4.))
T3 = ((X-2.)##2+3.)#(Y#Y+3.)
TBUE = T1#T2/T3
              TRUE = T1#T2/T3
              RETURN
                END
              FUNCTION F(T,S,J)
             E = .0625
GD TD(101,102),J
101
             X = 4. HT
Y = 4. HS
             F1=7.*Y
             F2=(X-2,)##2+Y#Y-1.
F2=(X-2,)##2+Y#Y-1.
F3=EXP(~E#(Y-2,)#X#(X-4.))
F4=1./(Y#Y+3.)
F5=1./(Y#Y+3.)
             DXF1=0.
DXF2=2.*(X-2.)
DXF3=(Y-2.)*(X-4.)*F3+(Y-2.)*X#F3
DXF3 = _£* DXF3
              DXF4=-2.W(X-2.)/((X-2.)W#2+3.)##2
              DXF5=0.
             DX2F1=0.
             DX2F2=2.
             DX2F3=(Y-2,)#F3+(Y-2,)#(X-4,)#DXF3+(Y-2,)#F3+(Y-2,)#K#DXF3
DX2F3 = -E# DX2F3
DX2F4=6.#((X-2,)##2-1,)/((X-2,)##2+3,)##3
              DX2F5=0.
             DYF1 = 7.
             DYF2=2.≭Y
             DYF3=-EXXX(X-4.)#F3
             DYF4=0.
             DYF5=-2.*Y/(Y*Y+3.)**2
             DY2F1=0.
             DY2F2=2.
             DY2F3=EWEWXWXW(X-4.)WW2WF3
             DY2F4=0.
             DY2F4=0.
DY2F5=6. #(Y#Y-1.)/(Y#Y+3.)##3.
T1=F1#DX2F2#F3#F4#F5+F1#DXF2#DXF3#F4#F5+
F1#DXF2#DXF3#F4#F5+F1#F2#DXF3#DXF4#F5+
F1#DXF2#F3#DXF4#F5+F1#F2#DXF3#DXF4#F5+
F1#C2#F3#DXF4#F5+F1#F2#DXF3#DXF4#F5+
F1#C2#F3#DXF4#F5
         $
         Ś
         $
                    F1*F2*F3*DX2F4*F5
         $
            F1%F2%F3%DX2F4%F5
DYF1%DYF2%F3%DYF4%F5+DYF1%F2%DYF3%F4%F5+
DYF1%F2%F3%DYF4%F5+DYF1%F2%F3%F4%DYF5
T3=DYF1%DYF2%F3%F4%F5+F1%DYF2%F3%F4%DYF5
T4=DYF1%F2%DYF3%F4%F5+F1%DYF2%DYF3%F4%DYF5
T5=DYF1%F2%F3%F4%DYF5+F1%F2%F3%F4%DYF5
F1%F2%DYF3%F4%DYF5+F1%F2%F3%F4%DYF5
F1%F2%DYF3%F4%DYF5+F1%F2%F3%F4%DYF5
F1%F2%DYF3%F4%DYF5+F1%F2%F3%F4%DYF5
F1%F2%DYF3%F4%DYF5+F1%F2%F3%F4%DYF5
F1%F2%DYF3%F4%DYF5+F1%F2%F3%F4%DYF5
         $
         $
         $
         $
             F=(T1+T2+T3+T4+T5)#16.
             RETURN
102
             F=TRUE(T+S>
             RETURN
             END
             FUNCTION COEF(X,Y,J)
GO_TO_(1,2,3,4,5),J
1
             COEF=1.
             RETURN
2
             CDEF=1.
             RETURN
3
             CDEF=0.
             RETURN
4
             ĈΟEF=O.
             RETURN
5
             CDEF=0.
                                                                                                                64
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RETURN END FUNCTION BCOEF(X,Y,J) GO TO (1,2,3),J 1 BCOEF=1. RETURN 2 BCOEF=0. RETURN 3 BCOEF=0. RETURN END

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<u>س</u>	**** PROBLEM 15 DATA *****
	FUNCTION COEF (X, Y, J)
	GO TO (101,102,103,104,105),J
101	COEF = 1.
	RETURN
102	CDEF = 1.
	RETURN
103	CDEF = 0.
	RETURN
104	COEF = 0.
	RETURN
105	CDEF = 0.
	RETURN
	END
	FUNCTION F(X,Y,J)
	P = .1
	GO TO (101,102) , J
101	TEMP = -((X5)##2+(Y5)##2)/P##2
	F1 = EXP(TEMP)
	DXU = _2,#(X5)*TRUE(X,Y)/P**2 +
	\$ F1*(2.*X-1.)*(Y-1.)*Y/P
	DX2U = -2.*(TRUE(X,Y)+(X5)*DXU)/P**2
	\$-2.*(X5)*F1*(2.*X-1.)*(Y-1.)*Y/P**3 +
	\$ 2.%F1#(Y-1.)*Y/P
	DYU = -2.*(Y5)*TRUE(X,Y)/P##2 +
	\$ F1*(2.*Y-1.)*(X-1.)*X/P
	DY2U = -2. #(TRUE(X,Y)+(Y5) # DYU)/P # # 2
	\$-2.*(Y5)#F1#(2.#Y-1.)#(X-1.)#X/P##3 +
	\$ 2.*F1*(X-1.)*X/P
	F = (DX2U+DY2U)
	RETURN
102	$F = Q_{\bullet}$
	RE I URM
	$\mathbf{P} = 1$
	EMP ≈ -((X5)**2+(Y5)**2)/P##2 TOUE - EUD/TEMD/#29 / \#0#20 / \#0.00
	TRUE ≈ EXP(TEMP)*(X-1.)*X*(Y-1.)*Y/P
	RETURN
1.04	60 TB (101;102;103);J 20055 - 4
101	BUUL? = 1. '
1.00	
102	BUULT TO U.
4.00	
103	$\mathcal{B} C L E r = V L$

03 BCDEF = RETURN END

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	ini he incinc	# PROBLEM 16 DATA WWWW
		FUNCTION COEF(X,Y,J)
		GD TD (101,102,103,104,105),J
1	01	CDEF = 1.
		RETURN
1	02	CDEF = 1.
		RETURN
1	03	COEF = 0.
		RETURN
1	04	COEF = 0.
		RETURN
1	05	CDEF = 0.
		RETURN
		END
		FUNCTION F(X,Y,J)
		GB TB(101,102),J
1	01	F = 2. TRUE(X,Y)
		RETURN
1	02	F = TRUE(X,Y)
		RETURN
		END
		FUNCTION TRUE(X,Y)
		TRUE = EXP(X+Y)
		RETURN
		END
		FUNCTION BODEF(X,Y,J)
		GO TO (101,102,103),J
1	01	BCOEF = 1.
		RETURN
í	02	BCDEF = 0.
		RETURN
ł	03	$BCDEF \neq 0.$
		RETURN
		END

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FUNCTION F(X,Y,J)

F COMPUTES EITHER THE TRUE SOLUTION OF PROBLEM 17 OR THE LAPLACIAN UXX + UYY . LOGICAL NODERV IF J .EQ. is THEN EVALUATE THE LAPLACIAN ELSE EVALUATE THE TRUE SOLUTION NODERV = .TRUE. IF( J .EG. 1 > NODERV = .FALSE. CALL EVLATEKX, Y, NODERV, Q, QX, QY, QXX, QYY, IFLAG > A IF( NODERV ) F = QIF( NOT, NODERV .AND, IFLAG .EQ. 0 > F = QXX + QYYRETURN END SUBROUTINE EVLATEKXX; YY; NODIM; A QV; QVX; QVX; QVXX; QVYY; IFLAG) A INPUT XX, YY, NODIN, DNLYNM, BUGALL, BUGGVAL LOCAL VARIABLES X, Y, NODERV FOR XX, YY, NODIN DUTPUT QV, QVX, QVY, QVXX, QVYY, IFLAG IFLAG SET TO 0 IF SUCCESSFUL, SET TO 1 IF NOT WHEN UNSUCCESSFUL, QV SET TO ZERO AND QVX,QVY,QVXX,QVYY ARE SET TO INDEFINITE, THIS OCCURS AT REENTRANT BOUNDARY CORMERS EVALUATES QV, QVX, QVY, QVXX, QVYY GV = SIZE\*QVAL SIZE IS CONSTANT SET IN DATA GVAL = GVAL(0,0,0)/GVAL(A,B,C) A,B,C, ARE CONSTANT SET IN DATA GVAL = GVAL(0,0,0)/GVAL(A,B,C) BVAL = (X - 1)\*(Y - 1) + A\*CIR2 CIR2 = X\*\*2 + V\*\*2 - RHOSOR RHOSOR IS CONSTANT SET IN DATA FVAL(I) = RDVAL(I)\*THVAL(I) RDVAL(I) = RDVAL(I)\*THVAL(I) RDVAL(I) = ( ( X - XPT(I) )\*\*2 + ( Y - YPT(I) )\*\*2 + B\*CIR2 )\*\*(1/3) XPT(I),XPT(I) IS 1-TH REENTRANT CORNER POINT THVAL = SNVAL + C\*CIR2 SNVAL(I) = SIN( 2\*ANVAL(I)/3 ) ANVAL(I) = ARCTAN( (Y-YPT(I))/(X-XPT(I)) ) + PI AAVAL(I) = ARCTANC (Y-YPT(I))/(X-XPT(I)) ) - PI/2 Y-AXIS ī I ľ I 4 3 I I I Ţ 5 1 I INTERIOR ł 1 7 1ï Ĩ 1 -I- X-AXIS Ξ

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COMMON A PIDE,
A PI, PIDE,
B TWTH, TWTHSQ,
C RD, YD,
D X , Y
D SIZE , A
L RHD , RHOSOR
E ANVAL , ANVALX
G BVAL(2) , BVALX(2)
H CIR , CIRX
, CIR2X
       COMMON /SUBCOM/
                                                         PID4,
DNETHR,
                                                                                  TWOPI,
                                                                                                           THPID2,
                                                                                                          NODERV,
                                                                                  FRTH
                                                         XDSGR,
                                                                                    YDSQR+
                                                                                                               RDSQR,
                                                        , XSGR
                                                                                  YSGR

    ANGLE

                                                       , B
, XP1(3)
                                                                                 , C
                                                                                                               а.
                                                                                     YPT(3)
                                                                                                               > JUNK(50)
                                                                                  ,

ANVALXX
BVALXX(2)
CIRXX
CIRXX
CIR2XX
CIXX(2)

                                                           ANVALY
BVALY(2)
CIRY
                                                                                                              ANVALYYBYALYY(2)
                                                       ,
                                                       ,

    CIRYY
    CIR2YY
    CIR2YY(2)

                                                        3
                                                           CIR2Y
                                                       ,
     Ĵ
        67(2)
                             > CTX(2)
                                                       , CTY(2)
   K FVAL(2,3), FVALX(2,3), FVALY(2,3), FVALXX(2,3), FVALY(2,3),
L GVAL(2) , SVALX(2) , GVALY(2) , GVALXX(2) , GVALYY(2) ,
M RDVAL(2) , RDVALX(2) , RDVALY(2) , RDVALXX(2) , RDVALYY(2) ,
N SNVAL , J DSNVAL , DDSNVAL , TUDALYY(2) , TUDALYY(2) ,
N SNVAL , JUNALY(2) , TUDALYY(2) , TUDALYY(2) , TUDALYY(2) ,
    N SRVAL ( ) DENVAL ( DDENVAL )
F THVAL(2) , THVALX(2) , THVALY(2) , THVALXX(2) , THVALY(2)
      Idimension ctall(2,5), CR2ALL(5)
EQUIVALENCE (CTALL(1,1), Ct(1)), (CR2ALL(1), CIR2)
      DATA CTALL / 10×0.0 /
      LDGICAL MODERY, MODIN, ONLYNM, BUGALL, BUGGYL
      REAL INDER
       DATA INDEF / 177780000000000000000 /
      DATA FI, PID2, FID4, THOPI, THPID2, THTH, THTHSQ, DNETHR, FRTH /
3.14159265358979, 1.57079632679490, .78539816339745,
3.6.28318530717959, 4.71238898038468, .6666666666666667,
    R
    B
               .33333333333333333
                                                                                                          1.333333333333333
      DATA SIZE: A, B, C, RHO, RHOSQR / 100., -.5, .1, 7., .8, .64 /
      DATA XPT / .65 , .85 , .95 /
DATA YPT / .7 , .5 , .3 /
                                                                                                                                                   1
      MAKE XX+YY+NODIN LOCAL IN /SUBCOM/
                    = XX
= YY
      X
Y
      NODERV = NODIN
      XSOR = XXX
YSOR = YXY
CALL CIRCLE
      CALL BYALS
     DO 20 I = 1 , 3

\times D = \times - \times PT(I)

\forall D = \forall - \forall PT(I)

\forall DSOR = \times D* \times D

\forall DSOR = \forall D* \forall D

\& BSOR = \forall DSOR + \forall DSOR

IF( RDSGR .GT. 1.E-8 )

THEN TOD CLOSE TO I-TH BOUNDARY CORNER

IFLAG = 1

\partial Y = 0.
                                                                                                                                  GO TO 10
                  \begin{array}{l} \text{IFERG} = 1\\ \text{QV} = 0,\\ \text{QVX} = \text{IHDEF}\\ \text{QVY} = \text{IHDEF}\\ \text{QVXX} = \text{IHDEF}\\ \text{QVYY} = \text{IHDEF} \end{array}
                                                                                                                                EXIT
                                                                                                                                GD TU 30
10
               CONTINUE
              ELSE CAN EVALUATE
CALL ANVALS
CALL SNVALS
CALL RDVALS
                                                                                              69
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CALL THVALS
J = I
                                                                           1
         CALL FYPLS(FVAL(1,J),FVALX(1,J),FVALY(1,J),
FVALXX(1,J),FVALY(1,J))
IF( BUGALL ) CALL DEBUG(1)
CONTINUE
   A
20
    CALL GVALS
    CELL QUALS(QV,QVX,QVY,QVXX,QVYY)
    QV = SI2E≭QV
    IFLAG = 0
30 CONTINUE
                                                                                    RETURN
                                                                                    END
    SUBRBUTINE CIRCLE
    FORM CIR = X**2 + Y**2 - RHOSOR
CIR2 = CIR**2
AND DERIVATIVES
    COMMON /SUBCOM/ *** REPEAT VARIABLES HERE ***
    DIMENSION CTALL(2,5), CR2ALL(5)
EQUIVALENCE (CTALL(1,1), CT(1)), (CR2ALL(1), CIR2)
                                                   2
    LOGICAL NODERY
    CIR = XSQR + YSQR - RHOSQR
CIR2 = CIR**2
                                . .
    CIRZ = CIR**2
IF( NODERV )
CIRX = 2.*X
CIRX = 2.*Y
CIRXX = 2.
CIRYY = 2.
                                                                                    GO TO 10
      CIR2X = 2.*CIR*CIRX
CIR2Y = 2.*CIR*CIRY
CIR2X = 4.*(3.*XSQR + YSQR ~ RHDSQR )
CIR2YY = 4.*( XSQR + 3.*YSQR ~ RHDSQR )
    CONTINUE
10
                                                                                    RETURN
                                                                                    END
    SUBROUTINE BVALS
    FORM BVAL = (X-1 + A*CIR2)*(Y-1 + A*CIR2)
AND DERIVATIVES
    COMMON /SUBCOM/ *** REPEAT VARIABLES HERE ***
    DIMENCION CTALL(2,5), CREALL(5)
EQUIVALENCE (CTALL(1,1), CT(1)), (CREALL(1), CIRE)
    LOGICAL NODERV
   BVAL(2) = XFACT#YFACT
    IFK NODERV >
                                                                                  GO TO 10
      PVALX(1) = YM1

PVALY(1) = XM1

PVALXX(1) = 0.

PVALYY(1) = 0.
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         XFACTXX =
                                    A*CIR2XX
         YFACTYY = A*C XFACTYY = YFACTYY
                                    A*CIREYY
         YFACIXX = XFACTXX
         BVALX(2) = XFACTX#YFACT + XFACT#YFACTX
BVPLY(2) = XFACTY#YFACT; + XFACT#YFACTY
BVPLY(2) = XFACTX#YFACT + 2.#XFACTX#YFACTX + XFACT#YFACTXX
BVALYY(2) = XFACTYY#YFACT + 2.#XFACTY#YFACTY + XFACT#YFACTYY
CONTINUE
10
         CONTINUE
                                                                                                      RETURN
                                                    .
                                                                                                      END
      SUBROUTINE ANVALS
     FORM ANVAL = ARCTANK YD/XD > - PI/2 AND DERIVATIVES
     DCARGTAK(U/V))/DU = V/(V*V + U*U)
     ANGLE MEASURED COUNTER-CLUCKWISE FROM XD-AXIS
ANVAL MEASURED COUNTER-CLUCKWISE FROM YD-AXIS
BRANCH PLINT AT XD = YD = 0.
BRANCH CUT ALGNG ANGLE = PI/4, ANVAL = -PI/4
       I
                                                                I ANVAL = 0
       2 Y-AXIS
                                                                I YD-AXIS
I ANGLE = PI/2
       1
       I
                                                                I
       .
                                                                I
       7
                                                                I
                                                                                    ANGLE = 0
       1
                                                                                    XD-AXIS
ANGLE = 2PI
ANVAL = 3PI/2
       2
       I
       1
       ī
                                                                             •
                            . (X, Y)
                                                                             .
                                (XD, YD)
       I
                                                                             1
                                                                             ;
       ĭ
                                                            ---- X-AXIS
       I –
     COMMON /SUBCOM/ *** REPEAT VARIABLES HERE ***
     DIMENSION CTALL(2,5), CR2ALL(5)
EQUIVALENCE (CTALL(1,1), CT(1)), (CR2ALL(1), CIR2)
     LEGICAL NEBERV
     IF < NODERV >
                                                                                                     GO TØ 10
      IF ( NUDERV )
COMPUTE DERIVATIVES
ANVALX = -YDZRDSQR
ANVALY = XDZRDSQR
ANVALYX= -2.*XD*ANVALXZRDSQR
ANVALYY= -2.*YD*ANVALYZRDSQR
CONTINUE
10
     IF(ABS(YD).GT.ABS(XD))

THEN ANGLE BETWEEN U AND PI/4 UR 3PI/4 AND 5PI/4

UR 7PI/4 AND 2PI

ANGLE = ATANK YD/XD)

JF(XD.LT.O.) ANGLE = PI + ANGLE
                                                                                                     GO TO 20
                                                                           71
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IF ( ANGLE .LT. 0. > ANGLE = TWOPI + ANGLE
                                                                          GO TO 30
20
       CENTINUE
       ELSE ANGLE BETWEEN PI/4 AND 3PI/4 OR 5PI/4 AND 7PI/4
      ANGLE = PID2 - ATAN( XD/YD )
IF( YD .LT. 0. ) ANGLE = PI + ANGLE
CONTINUE
30
    SUBTRACT PIZE TO MAKE ANVAL BETHEEN D AND 3PIZE
                                 • ;
    ANVAL = ANGLE - PID2
    ADJUST FOR BRANCH CUT
    IFK ANVAL .LT. -PID4 > ANVAL = TWOPI + ANVAL
                                                                          RETURN
                                                                          END
    SUBROUTINE SHVALS
                                    N.
    FDRM SNVAL - SINC 2*ANVAL/3 ), DSNVAL, DDSNVAL
    COMMON /SUBCOM/ *** REPEAT VARIABLES HERE ***
    DIMENSION CTALL(2,5), CREALL(5)
EQUIVALENCE (CTALL(1,1), CT(1)), (CREALL(1), CIRE)
    LOGICAL NODERV
   ARG = THTH*ANVAL
SNVAL = SINK ARG >
    IF ( HODERV )
                                                                          GD TO 10
      COMPUTE DERIVATIVES
         DSNVAL = THTH*COS(ARG)
         DDSNVAL = -TRTHSQ#SNVAL
     CONTINUE
19
                                                                          RETURN
                                                                          END
    SUBROUTINE THYALS
    FORM THVAL = SHVAL + C*CIR2 AND DERIVATIVES
      C = 9. FOR NUMERATOR
   COMMON /SUBCOM/ *** REPEAT VARIABLES HERE ***
    DIMENSION CTALL(2,5), CREALL(5)
    EQUIVALENCE (CTALL(1,1), CT(1)), (CREALL(1), CIRE)
    LOGICAL NODERV
    THVAL(1) = SNVAL
    THVAL(2) = THVAL(1) + C*CIR2
    IF ( NODERV )
                                                                          GO TO 10
      THYDEX (1) = DSNVAL#ANVALX
THYDEX (1) = DSNVAL#ANVALY
THYDEXX(1) = DSNVAL#ANVALY
THYDEXX(1) = DDSNVAL#(ANVALX##2) + DSNVAL#ANVALXX
THYDELYY(1) = DDSNVAL#(ANVALY##2) + DSNVAL#ANVALYY
      Theorem (2) = Theorem (1) + C*CIR2X
TSVALY (2) = Theorem (1) + C*CIR2Y
THeorem (2) = Theorem (1) + C*CIR2Y
THeorem (2) = Theorem (2) + C*CIR2X
      THVE_{C}YY/22 = THVALYY(1) + C#CIR2YY
     CBN 1805
10
                                                                         RETURN
                                                                          ENB
    SUBREWTING ROVALS
                            ۰.
    FURM ROVAL = (RDSOR + B*CIR2)**(1/3) AND DERIVATIVES
             \dot{z} = 0. FOR NUMERATOR
    COMMON VOUSCOMV *** REPEAT VARIABLES HERE ***
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DIMENSION CTALL(2,5), CR2ALL(5)
۰.
         EQUIVALENCE (CTALL(1,1), CT(1)), (CR2ALL(1), CIR2)
         LOGICAL NODERV
         SET CIRCLE-TEMP FUR DENOMINATOR (NUMERATOR SET TO ZERO IN DATA)
         DO 10 IDERV = 1, 5
CTALL(2:IDERV) = B*CR2ALL(IDERV)
     10
           CONTINUE
         EVALUATE FOR NUMERATOR AND DENOMINATOR (NUM = 1, DEN = 2)
         DD 30 NMDN = 1; 2
RVALUE = RDSQR + CT(NMDN)
RDVAL(NMDN) = RVALUE**ONETHR
           IF ( NODERV >
                                                                            GD TO 20
              COMPUTE DERIVATIVES
                11
T2
                                    DNETHR#RDVAL(NMDN)/RVALUE
                                 = -TWTH#T1/RVALUE
                50
              CUNTINUE
     30
           CONTINUE
                                                                            RETURN
                                                                            END
         SUBREUTINE FVALS(FV) FVX+FVY) FVX+FVYY)
         FDRMS FV = ( RSQ##(1/3) )#SIN( 2#ANVAL/3 )
         COMMON /SUBCOM/ *** REPEAT VARIABLES HERE ***
         DIMENSION CTALL(2,5), CR2ALL(5)
EQUIVALENCE (CTALL(1,1), CT(1)), (CR2ALL(1), CIR2)
         LOGICAL NODERY
         DIMENSION FV(2), FVX(2), FVY(2), FVXX(2), FVYY(2)
         FOR NUMERATOR (1) AND DENOMINATOR (2)
        \frac{\text{DE } 20 \text{ N} = 1}{\text{FV(N)} = \text{REVAL(N)}}
           IF ( NODERV )
                                                                            GD TQ 10
              COMPUTE DERIVATIVES
                FVX(N) = RDVALX(N)*THVAL(N) + RDVAL(N)*THVALX(N)
FVY(N) = RDVALY(N)*THVAL(N) + RDVAL(N)*THVALY(N)
FVX(N) = RDVALXX(N)*THVAL(N) + 2.*RDVALX(N)*THVALX(N)
+RDVAL(N)*THVALXX(N)
       A
                FVYY(N) = RDVALYY(N)*THVAL(N) + 2.*RDVALY(N)*THVALY(N) + RDVAL(N)*THVALYY(N)
       8
              CONTINUE
     đŬ
           CONTINUE
                                                                            RETURN
                                            ì
        SUBROUTINE GVALS
        FORM GVAL' = BVAL*F3*F5*F7 AND DERIVATIVES
         COMMON ASUBCOMA *** REPEAT VARIABLES HERE ***
        DIMENSION CTALL(2:5); CR2ALL(5)
EQUIVALENCE (CTALL(1:1); CT(1)); (CR2ALL(1); CIR2)
         LOGICAL NODERY
         D: MENSION F357(2), F357X(2), F357XX(2), F357Y(2), F357Y(2),
        Ĥ
                    F57(2), F57X(2), F57XX(2), F57Y(2), F57YY(2)
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COMPUTE NUMERATORS (1) AND, DENOMINATORS (2)
     DD 20 N = 1, 2
F57(N) = F5(N)*F7(N)
F357(N) = F3(N)*F57(N)
         GVAL (N) = BVAL (N) #F357(N)
         IF( NODERV )
                                                                                                    · GO TO 10
            COMPUTE DERIVATIVES
F57X(N) = F5X(N)
F57Y(N) = F5Y(N)
                                 = F5X(N)*F7(N) + F5(N)*F7X(N)
= F5Y(N)*F7(N) + F5(N)*F7Y(N)
                F357X(N) = F3X(N)#F57(N) + F3(N)#F57X(N)
F357Y(N) = F3Y(N)#F57(N) + F3(N)#F57Y(N)
                GVALX(N) = BVALX(N) \times F357(N) + BVAL(N) \times F357X(N)

GVALY(N) = BVALY(N) \times F357(N) + BVAL(N) \times F357Y(N)
                F57XX(N) = F5XX(N)*F7(N) + 2, =F5X(N)*F7X(N)
   A
                                   +F5(N)#F7XX(N)
                F37YY(N)
                                 = F5YY(N)*F7(N) + 2.*F5Y(N)*F7Y(N)
   Ĥ
                                    +F5(N)*F7YY(N)
                \begin{array}{rll} F357XX(N) &=& F3XX(N) \# F57(N) + 2. \# F3X(N) \# F57X(N) \\ &+ F3(N) \# F57XX(N) \\ F357YY(N) &=& F3YY(N) \# F57X(N) + 2. \# F3Y(N) \# F57Y(N) \end{array}
   A
                                    +F3(N)*F57YY(N)
   Ŕ
                GVALXX(N) = BVALXX(N)*F357(N) + 2.*BVALX(N)*F357X(N)
                +BVAL(N)*F357XX(N)
GVALYY(N) = BVALYY(N)#F357(N) + 2,#BVALY(N)#F357Y(N)
   A
   A
                                     +BYAL(N)*F357YY(N)
                CONTINUE
10
        CONTINUE
20
                                                                                                       RETURN
                                                                                                       END
     SUBROUTINE QVALS(QV,QVX,QVY,QVXX,QVYY)
     FORM QV = SIZE*GVAL(1)/GVAL(2)
        AND DERIVATIVES
     COMMON /SUBCOM/ *** REPEAT VARIABLES HERE ***
     DIMENSION CTALL(2,5), CR2ALL(5)
EQUIVALENCE (CTALL(1,1), CT(1)), (CR2ALL(1), CIR2)
                                                ۰.
     LOGICAL NODERY
                                                      1
    QV ≈ GVAL(1)/GVAL(2)
IF( NDDERV )
                                                                                                       GO TO 10
        COMPUTE DERIVATIVES.
            FACT = 1./GVAL(2)
           FACTSQ = FACT#FACT

FACTSQ = FACT#FACT

FACTX = -GVALX(2)#FACTSQ

FACTY = -GVALY(2)#FACTSQ

FACTYX = (2.#(GVALX(2)##2)#FACT - GVALXX(2))#FACTSQ

FACTYY = (2.#(GVALY(2)##2)#FACT - GVALXX(2))#FACTSQ

FACTYY = (2.#(GVALY(2)##2)#FACT - GVALXX(2))#FACTSQ
                       = GVALX(1)*FACT + GVAL(1)*FACTX
= GVALY(1)*FACT + GVAL(1)*FACTX
= GVALX(1)*FACT + GVAL(1)*FACTY
= GVALXX(1)*FACT + 2.#GVALX(1)*FACTX + GVAL(1)*FACTXX
= GVALYY(1)*FACT + 2.*GVALY(1)*FACTY + GVAL(1)*FACTYY
            QVX
             \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}
            QVXX.
            RYYY
        CONTINUE
10
     RETURN
                                                                           74
     END
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