Computational Modeling of Multicomponent Diffusion
Using Fortran

by Michael Vincent Pasquariello

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Computational Modeling of Multicomponent Diffusion Using Fortran

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Computational Modeling of Multicomponent Diffusion Using Fortran

The objective of this thesis was to develop a Fortran software package, using three modules, in order to extract diffusion data from concentration profiles and to predict future concentration profiles. The first module will be a finite difference code that uses the multicomponent form of Fick’s First Law, and the time evolution of concentration will be calculated using the implicit Crank-Nicholson method. The second module will take into account movements of boundaries between regions in the interdiffusion zone, via equations that assume local equilibrium, and take into account that mass must be conserved. The first and second module will be used to predict how measured concentration profiles will change with time. The purpose of the third module will be to extract diffusivity data from measured concentration profiles. This module will use a matrix inversion method to calculate the diffusivities. In conclusion, the original objective of this project was not met to its full completion. Several factors contributed to this shortcoming, but the primary obstacle was the correlation between the software and the input data. While the software ran successfully with many different known solutions, it did not perform well using actual concentration profile data from the U.S. Army Research Laboratory. Most likely, this is due to the limited amount of species data, the accuracy of the data itself, and the spacing between each data point. All efforts should be taken to obtain more accurate, smoother input data which will allow the software to run with fewer obstacles and, in turn, produce cleaner output data. Once the input data is appropriate, the programmer should return to “fine tune” the individual software programs to allow them to work with the new data. This may require using a filtering subroutine in order to accept only worthy data from the input stream.
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1. Introduction

1.1 Background
The U.S. Army Research Laboratory (ARL) in Aberdeen, MD, has expressed a need for a computer software package that can analyze ion-implantation data, extract diffusion coefficients from this data, and predict concentration profiles. Their current implantation data is used to study the effects of carbon diffusion in gun-tube barrels. A comprehensive software package such as this would save a tremendous amount of experimentation time and money for ARL and would therefore be very beneficial.

1.2 Problem Statement
The objective of this thesis was to develop a Fortran software package in order to extract diffusion data from concentration profiles and to predict future concentration profiles. This package needed to be stand-alone, user friendly, and have the ability to interface with ARL’s existing computer code.

1.3 Approach
The approach to this problem began with an in-depth literature survey. This allowed the gathering of necessary equations and solution methods to solve the mathematical portion of the thesis. Using this newly acquired knowledge, a Fortran code was written in order to satisfy the requirements of ARL and to perform the necessary functions. This code was tested and compared against existing code and mathematical solutions to validate its effectiveness.

The thesis then covered various experiments to demonstrate the sensitivity of the code. The purpose of this step was to aid the reader in visualizing the adverse effects of altering parameters such as number of data points, time increments, and induced noise.

The thesis concluded with a discussion on the limitations of the software itself and possible recommendations that can be made in the future to improve the software package.

2. Literature Survey

2.1 Diffusion Equations for Predicting Concentration Profiles

2.1.1 Binary Systems
2.1.1.1 Constant Diffusivity. In reality, most cases of diffusion are transient or non steady-state ones. This applies, for example, to those cases in which the interstitial concentration $C$ varies with time which results in a net accumulation or depletion of the diffusing species. In order to
model this situation, it is necessary to use the partial differential equation known as the diffusion equation which is given by (1)

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( D \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} \right).$$

For cases in which $D$ is independent of composition, or where the range of composition is small, equation 1 reduces to (1)

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2},$$

which is known as Fick’s second law. Figure 1 shows an example of transient diffusion in a binary system in which the diffusivity is constant with respect to composition.

![Figure 1. Transient diffusion with constant diffusivity.](image)

If one were to apply Fick’s second law to a semi-infinite solid and held the surface concentration constant, a common error function solution would be obtained (2). In order to obtain such a solution, the following assumptions can be made:

1. Before diffusion, the diffusing solute atoms in the solid are uniformly distributed with concentration of $C_0$.
2. The concentration at the surface, $x = 0$, is a constant value, $C_s$.

These boundary conditions can be stated as follows:

For $t = 0$, $C = C_0$ at $0 \leq x \leq \infty$,

For $t > 0$, $C = C_s$ at $x = 0$, \quad and \quad $C = C_0$ at $x = \infty$. 

2
If these boundary conditions are applied to equation 2, the following solution is obtained:

$$\frac{C_x - C_o}{C_s - C_o} = 1 - \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{x}{2\sqrt{D}t} \right),$$

(3)

where $C_x$ represents the concentration at depth $x$ after time $t$. The expression $\operatorname{erf}(x/2\sqrt{D}t)$ is the Gaussian error function, values of which are given in mathematical tables for various $x/2\sqrt{D}t$ values. Equation 3 demonstrates the relationship between concentration, position, and time, namely, that $C_x$, being a function of the dimensionless parameter $x/\sqrt{D}t$, may be determined at any time and position if the parameters $C_o$, $C_s$, and $D$ are known.

Another solution to Fick’s second law is known as the thin-film solution. Taking an infinite plane as the geometry, the total amount of substance $M$ diffusing in the cylinder and unit cross section is given by (I)

$$M = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} C \, dx.$$  

(4)

After differentiating equation 4 and applying the appropriate derivation, equation 5 is given as (I)

$$C = \frac{M}{2\sqrt{\piDt}} \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{4Dt}\right).$$  

(5)

Therefore, this is the solution which describes the spreading by diffusion of an amount of substance $M$ deposited at time $t = 0$ in the plane $x = 0$. Figure 2 shows typical distributions at six successive times.

![Figure 2. Concentration-distance curves for an instantaneous plane source.](Image)
For the thin-film solution, we can consider the solution for negative $x$ to be reflected in the plane $x = 0$ and superimposed on the original distribution in the region $x > 0$. Since the original solution was symmetrical about $x = 0$ the concentration distribution for the semi-infinite plane is given by

$$C = \frac{M}{\sqrt{\pi Dt}} \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{4Dt}\right).$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

A typical concentration distribution for the thin film solution is demonstrated in figure 3.

A third solution to Fick’s second law is based on a trigonometric solution. In this solution, it is assumed that the time and spatial variables are separable, that is

$$C_B = \xi (x) \cdot \tau(t),$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

where $\xi$ and $\tau$ are functions, as yet unknown, of $x$ and $t$ respectively. Substituting for $C_B$ in Fick’s second law gives

$$\xi \frac{d \tau}{dt} = D_B \frac{d^2 \xi}{dx^2},$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

and

$$\frac{1}{D_B \tau} \frac{d \tau}{dt} = \frac{1}{\xi} \frac{d^2 \xi}{dx^2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)
where we now have only total differentials of our unknown functions. Since one side of the equation depends only on \( t \) and the other only on \( x \), the equation can only hold for all \( x \) and \( t \) if both are equal to some constant, say \(-k^2(t)\).

\[
\frac{d\tau}{dt} = -k^2 D_B \tau . 
\] (10)

\[
\frac{d\xi}{dx} = -k^2 \xi .
\] (11)

These differential equations can now be solved to give the functions \( \xi \) and \( \tau \) (1).

\[
\tau = \exp(-k^2 D_B t) .
\] (12)

\[
\xi = A_1 \sin(kx) + A_2 \cos(kx) .
\] (13)

The time-dependent concentration function \( C_B \) is therefore a sinusoidal composition fluctuation which decays exponentially with time. This is seen more clearly by taking \( C_B = C_0 \) at \( x = 0 \) at all times, and substituting for the wavelength of the sinusoidal variation \( \lambda \) :

\[
C_B(x,t) = C_0 + \Delta C \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{\lambda}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{4\pi^2 D_B}{\lambda^2} t\right) 
= C_0 + \Delta C \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{\lambda}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{t}{t_r}\right),
\] (14)

where

\[
t_r = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi^2 D_B}
\] (15)

is the relaxation time, which is the time taken for a sinusoidal variation of wavelength \( \lambda \) to drop to 37% of its original amplitude.

2.1.1.2 Variable Diffusivity. When the diffusion coefficient \( D \) is a function of concentration \( C \), the equation for one-dimensional (1-D) diffusion is (3)

\[
\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial }{\partial x} \left(D \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} \right).
\] (16)

Differentiation of equation 16 yields (3)

\[
\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial D}{\partial x} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}.
\] (17)

Second-order-correct approximations to the partial derivations in equation 17 are (3):
\[
\frac{\partial C_{i+1/2}^n}{\partial t} \approx \frac{C_{i+1}^n - C_i^n}{\Delta t}. \tag{18}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial^2 C_{i+1/2}^n}{\partial x_i^2} \approx \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{C_{i+1}^n - 2C_i^n + C_{i-1}^n}{(\Delta x)^2} + \frac{C_{i+1}^n - 2C_i^n + C_{i-1}^n}{(\Delta x)^2} \right]. \tag{19}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial D^n}{\partial x_i} \approx \frac{D_{i+1}^n - D_{i-1}^n}{2\Delta x}. \tag{20}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial C_{i+1/2}^n}{\partial x_i} \approx \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{C_{i+1}^n - C_{i-1}^n}{2\Delta x} + \frac{C_{i+1}^n - C_{i-1}^n}{2\Delta x} \right]. \tag{21}
\]

The superscripts refer to the time dimension and subscripts denote the space dimension. Note that \( \frac{\partial D}{\partial x} \) is evaluated at \( n \) rather than \( n+1/2 \), because the composition-dependent coefficient \( D \) cannot be calculated at the next time step \( n+1 \) before the concentrations at \( n+1 \) have been evaluated. Substituting the approximations, equations 18–21 into equation 17 yields (3)

\[
C_{i+1}^{n+1} \left[ -4D_i^n + D_{i+1}^n - D_{i-1}^n \right] + C_i^{n+1} \left[ \frac{8(\Delta x)^2}{\Delta t} + 8D_i^n \right] + C_{i+1}^{n+1} \left[ -4D_i^n - D_{i+1}^n - D_{i-1}^n \right]
+ C_{i+1}^n \left[ 4D_i^n - D_{i+1}^n + D_{i-1}^n \right] + C_i^n \left[ \frac{8(\Delta x)^2}{\Delta t} - 8D_i^n \right]
+ C_{i+1}^n \left[ 4D_i^n + D_{i+1}^n - D_{i-1}^n \right], \tag{22}
\]

which has been arranged so that all the concentrations at the current time step (\( n \)) are on the right and the concentrations to be computed at the next time step (\( n+1 \)) are on the left.

### 2.1.2 Multicomponent Systems With One Fast Diffuser

The basis for modeling multicomponent systems with one fast diffuser comes from the following equation:

\[
\frac{\partial c_i^{total}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\text{total } J)^{total}. \tag{23}
\]

in which \( x \) represents distance and \( J^{total} \) is the total flux (4). Assuming the precipitate volume fraction is negligible, the multicomponent flux can be written as
\[ J_1 = -\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} D_{1j} \frac{\partial c_j}{\partial x}, \]  
\hfill (24)

in which component 1 is a fast diffuser (i.e., an interstitial atom) and components 2 through n-1 refer to slower moving alloying elements (i.e., substitutional atoms) (5).

Equation 24 can be rewritten in terms of an effective diffusivity described by the equation:

\[ J_1 = -D_1^{\text{eff}} \frac{\partial c_1^m}{\partial x}. \]  
\hfill (25)

Joining equations 24 and 25 yields (6)

\[ D_1^{\text{eff}} = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} D_{1j} \frac{\partial c_j^m}{\partial x}. \]  
\hfill (26)

By assuming local equilibrium and no long-range diffusion by substitutional atoms, equation 26 can be simplified to

\[ D_1^{\text{eff}} = D_{11} + \sum_{j=2}^{n-1} D_{1j} \frac{\partial c_j^m}{\partial c_1^m} \bigg|_{c_1^m}. \]  
\hfill (27)

Equation 27 represents only one independent concentration variable with only one degree of freedom.

Combining equations 23 and 25 and then differentiating \( c_1^\text{tot} \) gives

\[ \frac{\partial c_1^\text{tot}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} D_1^{\text{eff}} \frac{\partial c_1^m}{\partial c_1^\text{tot}} \frac{\partial c_1^\text{tot}}{\partial x}. \]  
\hfill (28)

Equation 28 is the one used to predict concentration profiles for multicomponent systems with one fast diffuser.

2.2 Finite-Difference Methods for Predicting Concentration Profiles

The objective of a finite-difference method for solving an ordinary differential equation (ODE) is to transform a calculus problem into an algebra problem by:

1. Discretizing the continuous physical domain into a discrete finite difference grid,

2. Approximating the exact derivatives in the initial-value ODE by algebraic finite difference approximations (FDAs),
3. Substituting the FDAs into the ODE to obtain an algebraic finite difference equation (FDE), and

4. Solving the resulting algebraic FDE.

2.2.1 Explicit Forward-Difference Method (Euler Method)

Consider the general nonlinear first-order ODE (7):

\[ y' = f(t, y) \]

Choose point \( n \) as the base point and develop a finite difference approximation of equation 29 at that point. The finite-difference grid is illustrated in figure 4, where the \( x \) symbol denotes the base point for the finite difference approximation of equation 29.

![Finite difference grid for the explicit Euler method.](image)

The first-order forward-difference, finite-difference approximation of \( y' \) is given by (7):

\[
\bar{y}'_n = \frac{y_{n+1} - y_n}{\Delta t} - \frac{1}{2} y''(\tau_n) \Delta t.
\] (30)

Substituting equation 30 into equation 29 and evaluating \( f(t, y) \) at point \( n \) yields (7)

\[
\frac{y_{n+1} - y_n}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2} y''(\tau_n) \Delta t = f(t_n, y_n) = f_n.
\] (31)

Solving equation 31 for \( y_{n+1} \) gives (7)

\[
y_{n+1} = y_n + \Delta t f_n + \frac{1}{2} y''(\tau_n) \Delta t^2 = y_n + \Delta t f_n + 0(\Delta t^2).
\] (32)

Truncating the remainder term, which is \( 0(\Delta t^2) \), and solving for \( y_{n+1} \) yields the explicit Euler finite difference equation (FDE) (7):

\[
y_{n+1} = y_n + \Delta t f_n + 0(\Delta t^2),
\] (33)

where the \( 0(\Delta t^2) \) term is included as a reminder of the order of the local truncation error.

Several features of equation 33:

1. The FDE is explicit, since \( f_n \) does not depend on \( y_{n+1} \).
2. The FDE requires only one known point. Hence, it is a single-point method.

3. The FDE requires only one derivative function evaluation (i.e., f(t,y)) per step.

4. The error in calculating $y_{n+1}$ for a single step, the local truncation error, is $O(\Delta t^2)$.

5. The global (i.e., total) error accumulated after $N$ steps is $O(\Delta t^2)$.

The explicit Euler method only has first-order accuracy and it is very unstable, therefore, it is impractical to use.

2.2.2 Crank-Nicolson Method

The Crank Nicolson method is a more widely used finite difference method for solving partial differential equations and is set up using the following grid (figure 5).

![Figure 5. The Crank-Nicolson method stencil.](image)

Crank and Nicolson in 1947 proposed approximating the partial derivative $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}$ at grid point $(i,n+1/2)$ by the second-order centered-time approximation obtained by combining Taylor series for $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}$ and $f_i^n$. Thus, (7)

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} |_{i,n+1/2} = \frac{f_i^{n+1} - f_i^n}{\Delta t}$$

Crank and Nicolson in 1947 proposed approximating the partial derivative $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}$ at grid point $(i,n+1/2)$ by the second-order centered-time approximation obtained by combining Taylor series for $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}$ and $f_i^n$. Thus, (7)

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} |_{i,n+1/2} = \frac{f_i^{n+1} - f_i^n}{\Delta t}$$

Subtracting these two equations and solving for $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} |_{i,n+1/2}$ gives

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} |_{i,n+1/2} = \frac{f_i^{n+1} - f_i^n}{\Delta t}$$
where \( t^n \leq t \leq t^{n+1} \) [7]. Truncating the remainder term in equation 36 yields the second-order centered-time approximation of \( f_i \) (7):

\[
f_i^{n+1/2} = \frac{f_i^{n+1} - f_i^n}{\Delta t}.
\]  (37)

The partial derivative \( f_{xx} \) at grid point \((i,n+1/2)\) is approximated by (7)

\[
\left. f_{xx} \right|_{i}^{n+1/2} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \left. f_{xx} \right|_{i}^{n} + \left. f_{xx} \right|_{i}^{n+1} \right).
\]  (38)

The order of the FDE obtained using equations 37 and 38 is expected to be \( O(\Delta t)^2 + O(\Delta x)^2 \), but that must be proven from the MDE. The partial derivative \( f_{xx} \) at time levels \( n \) and \( n+1 \) are approximated by the second-order centered-difference approximation

\[
\left. f_{xx} \right|_{i}^{n} = \frac{f_{i+1}^{n} - 2f_{i}^{n} + f_{i-1}^{n}}{\Delta x^2},
\]  (39)

applied at time levels \( n \) and \( n+1 \), respectively (7). The resulting finite-difference approximation of the 1-D diffusion equation is (7)

\[
\frac{f_i^{n+1} - f_i^n}{\Delta t} = \alpha \left( \frac{f_{i+1}^{n+1} - 2f_{i}^{n+1} + f_{i-1}^{n+1}}{\Delta x^2} + \frac{f_i^{n+1} - 2f_{i}^{n+1} + f_{i-1}^{n}}{\Delta x^2} \right).
\]  (40)

Rearranging equation 40 yields the Crank-Nicolson finite-difference equation:

\[
-d_{i-1}^{n+1} + 2(1 + d)f_i^{n+1} - df_{i+1}^{n+1} = df_{i-1}^{n} + 2(1 - d)f_i^{n} + df_{i+1}^{n},
\]  (41)

where \( d = \alpha \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x^2} \) is the diffusion number (7).

The Crank-Nicolson method is unconditionally stable and accurate on a second order level. The solution at a given time level can be reached with much less computational effort by taking larger time steps. The time step is limited only by accuracy requirements.

### 2.2.3 Thomas Algorithm to Solve a Tridiagonal System of Equations

When a large system of linear algebraic equations has a special pattern, such as a tridiagonal pattern as in the Crank-Nicolson equation, it is usually worthwhile to develop special methods for that unique pattern. These methods are generally very efficient in computer time and storage. One algorithm that deserves special attention is the algorithm for tridiagonal matrices, often referred to as the Thomas algorithm.
To derive the Thomas algorithm, the Gauss elimination procedure is applied to a tridiagonal matrix \( T \), modifying the procedure to eliminate all unnecessary computations involving zeros.

Consider the matrix equation:

\[
Tx = b,
\]

where \( T \) is a tridiagonal matrix \((7)\). Thus, \((7)\)

\[
T = \begin{bmatrix}
    a_{11} & a_{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
    a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & 0 & a_{43} & a_{44} & a_{45} & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
    \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
    0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{n-1,n-2} & a_{n-1,n-1} & a_{n-1,n} \\
    0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{n,n-1} & a_{n,n}
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

(43)

Since all the elements of column 1 below row 2 are already zero, the only element to be eliminated in row 2 is \( a_{21} \). Thus, replace row 2 by

\[
R_2 - \left( \frac{a_{21}}{a_{11}} \right) R_1.
\]

Row 2 becomes

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
    0 & a_{22} - \left( \frac{a_{21}}{a_{11}} \right) a_{12} & a_{23} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

(44)

Similarly, only \( a_{32} \) in column 2 must be eliminated from row 3, only \( a_{43} \) in column 3 must be eliminated from row 4, etc. The eliminated element itself does not need to be calculated. In fact, storing the elimination multipliers, \( em = \left( \frac{a_{21}}{a_{11}} \right) \), etc., in place of the eliminated elements allows this procedure to be used as an LU factorization method. Only the diagonal element in each row is affected by the elimination. Elimination in rows 2 to \( n \) is accomplished as follows \((7)\):

\[
a_{i,i} = a_{i,i} - \left( a_{i,i-1} / a_{i-1,i-1} \right) a_{i-1,i} \quad (i = 2, \ldots, n)
\]

Thus, the elimination step involves only \( 2n \) multiplicative operations to place \( T \) in upper triangular form.

The elements of the \( b \) vector are also affected by the elimination process. The first element \( b_1 \) is unchanged. The second element \( b_2 \) becomes \((7)\)

\[
b_2 = b_2 - \left( \frac{a_{21}}{a_{11}} \right) b_1.
\]

(46)
Subsequent elements of the $b$ vector are changes in a similar manner. Processing the $b$ vector requires only one multiplicative operation, since the elimination multiplier, $em = \frac{a_{21}}{a_{11}}$, is already calculated. Thus, the total process of elimination, including the operation on the $b$ vector, requires only $3n$ multiplicative operations.

The $n \times n$ tridiagonal matrix $T$ can be stored as an $n \times 3$ matrix $A'$ since there is no need to store the zeros. The first column of matrix $A'$, elements $a'_{i,1}$, corresponds to the sub-diagonal of matrix $T$, elements $a_{i,i-1}$. The second column of matrix $A'$, elements $a'_{i,2}$, corresponds to the diagonal elements of matrix $T$, elements $a_{i,i}$. The third column of matrix $A'$, elements $a'_{i,3}$, corresponds to the super-diagonal of matrix $T$, elements $a_{i,i+1}$. The elements $a'_{i,1}$ and $a'_{n,3}$ do not exist. Thus, (7)

$$A' = \begin{bmatrix} -a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} \\ a'_{2,1} & a'_{2,2} & a'_{2,3} \\ a'_{3,1} & a'_{3,2} & a'_{3,3} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a'_{n-1,1} & a'_{n-1,2} & a'_{n-1,3} \\ a'_{n,1} & a'_{n,2} & - \end{bmatrix}.$$  

(47)

When the elements of column 1 of matrix $A'$ are eliminated, that is, the elements $a'_{i,1}$, the elements of column 2 of matrix $A'$ become (7)

$$a'_{i,2} = a'_{1,2}$$  

(48)

$$a'_{i,2} = a'_{i,2} - \left( \frac{a'_{i,1}}{a'_{i-1,2}} \right) a'_{i-1,3} \quad (i = 2, 3, \ldots, n)$$  

(49)

The $b$ vector is modified as follows: (7)

$$b_1 = b_1$$  

(50)

$$b_i = b_i - \left( \frac{a'_{i,1}}{a'_{i-1,2}} \right) b_{i-1} \quad (i = 2, 3, \ldots, n)$$  

(51)

After $a'_{i,2} (i = 2, 3, \ldots, n)$ and $b$ are evaluated, the back substitution step is as follows: (7)

$$x_n = \frac{b_n}{a'_{n,2}}.$$  

(52)

$$x_i = \frac{(b_i - a'_{i,3}x_{i+1})}{a'_{i,2}}.$$  

(53)
Pivoting destroys the tridiagonality of the system of linear algebraic equations, and thus cannot be used with the Thomas algorithm. Most large tridiagonal systems that represent real physical problems are diagonally dominant, so pivoting is not necessary. The Thomas algorithm, in a format suitable for programming for a computer, is summarized as follows:

1. Store the \( n \times n \) tridiagonal matrix \( T \) in the \( n \times 3 \) matrix \( A' \). The right-side vector \( b \) is an \( n \times 1 \) column vector.

2. Compute the \( a'_{i,2} \) terms from equations 48 and 49. Store the elimination multipliers, 
   \[ em = a'_{i,1} / a'_{i-1,2} \]
   in place of \( a'_{i,1} \).

3. Compute the \( b_i \) terms from equations 50 and 51.

4. Solve for \( x_i \) by back substitution using equations 52 and 53.

2.3 Inverse Methods Used to Calculate Transport Properties

2.3.1 Extracting Thermal Conductivity Values From Temperature Profiles

Inverse determination of the thermal conductivity from measured temperature profiles has been the topic of research by many investigators (3). Most of these studies assume that the thermal conductivity is only a function of the spatial coordinate. However, thermal conductivities are temperature-dependent quantities in most practical engineering applications. Yeung developed a second-order finite-difference procedure for the inverse determination of the thermal conductivity in a one-dimensional heat conduction domain. In this case, the thermal conductivity of the material is reconstructed by using the available temperature data at discrete grid points. The numerical procedure is validated by comparing it to known examples. It is proven that, using this technique, \( a \text{ priori} \) knowledge of the functional form for thermal conductivity is not required.

2.3.2 Extracting Diffusion Coefficients From Concentration Profiles

Since the governing equations for heat conduction and diffusion are similar, it is only natural to use the same procedure to investigate the diffusion coefficient in a concentration profile.

As stated earlier, in a 1-D formulation with the diffusing substance moving in the direction normal to a sheet of thickness \( 2a \), the diffusion equation can be written as

\[
\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} \quad (0 < x < a, \ t > 0),
\]

(54)

where \( C \) is the concentration of the diffusing substance, \( t \) is the time, \( D \) is the diffusion coefficient, and \( x \) is the distance coordinate measured from the center of the sheet (3).

Let the initial condition be (3)
$C = C_0(0 < x < a, \ t = 0)$, \hspace{1cm} (55)

where $C_0$ is a constant concentration in the medium, and let the boundary conditions be

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = 0 \hspace{1cm} (x = 0, \ t \geq 0) \hspace{1cm} (56)$$

$$D \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = S(C_e - C)(x \approx a, \ t > 0), \hspace{1cm} (57)$$

where $S$ is the surface emission coefficient and $C_e$ is the equilibrium concentration (3).

The first step in the inverse method is to present a finite-difference procedure for the calculation of the diffusion coefficient at discrete grid points. Let half of the medium thickness, $a$, be discretized with mesh width $\Delta x$ in distance (thickness direction) and $\Delta t$ in the time direction with grid points $x_j = j \cdot \Delta x$ (where $j = 0, 1, \ldots, n$) and $t_i = i \cdot \Delta t$ (where $i = 0, 1, 2 \ldots$). The present procedure will assume that $C(x,t)$ is known at grid points $(x_j, t_i)$. Equation 54 can then be discretized as follows:

1. At the surface grid point with $j = 0$ and $i > 0$:

Applying forward difference to the time derivative of equation 54, we have (3)

$$\left(\frac{\partial C}{\partial t}\right)_0^i = \frac{C_{0}^{i+1} - C_0^i}{\Delta t}. \hspace{1cm} (58)$$

Applying the central difference to the distance derivative, we obtain

$$\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(D \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}\right)\right]_0^i = \frac{\left(\frac{D_1^i + D_0^i}{2}, \frac{C_1^i - C_0^i}{\Delta x} - D_0^i \alpha \frac{C_1^i - C_0^i}{\Delta x}\right)}{\Delta x^2} \hspace{1cm} (59)$$

where the following has been set in equation 57:

$$\left(\frac{D \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}}{\partial x}\right)_0^i D_0^i \alpha \frac{C_1^i - C_0^i}{\Delta x}, \hspace{1cm} (60)$$

by introducing an appropriate constant $a$ to compensate the use of forward difference in the equation, which involves different errors than central difference (3). This also permits the avoidance of using the unknown surface emission coefficient $S$.

Equating equations 58 and 59 gives (3)

$$\frac{(\Delta x)^2}{\Delta t}(C_0^{i+1} - C_0^i) = D_1^i (2\alpha - 1) (C_0^i - C_1^i) + D_1^i (C_1^i - C_0^i). \hspace{1cm} (61)$$
2. At an internal grid point with $0 < j < n$ and $i > 0$:

Here we have (3)

$$\left( \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} \right)_j = \frac{C_{i+1}^j - C_j^i}{\Delta t} \quad (62)$$

and

$$\left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( D \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} \right) \right]_j = \frac{\left( \frac{D_{i+1}^j + D_j^i}{2} \frac{C_{i+1}^j - C_j^i}{\Delta x} - \frac{D_j^i + D_{j-1}^i}{2} \frac{C_j^i - C_{j-1}^i}{\Delta x} \right)}{\Delta x} \quad (63)$$

Equating equations 62 and 63 yields (3)

$$\frac{2(\Delta x)^2}{\Delta t} (C_{i+1}^j - C_j^i) = D_{j-1}^i (C_{j-1}^i - C_j^i) + D_j^i (C_{j+1}^i - 2C_j^i + C_{j-1}^i) + D_{j+1}^i (C_{j+1}^i - C_j^i) \quad (64)$$

3. At the center grid point with $j = n$ and $i \geq 0$:

Due to symmetry, we can set $C_{j-1}^i = C_j^i$, $D_{j-1}^i = D_j^i$, and $j = n$ in equation 64 to obtain (3)

$$\frac{(\Delta x)^2}{\Delta t} (C_{i+1}^n - C_n^i) = D_{n-1}^i (C_{n-1}^i - C_n^i) + D_n^i (C_{n+1}^i - C_n^i) \quad (65)$$

The next step in the inverse method occurs if $C(x, \tilde{t})$ and $C(x, \tilde{t} + \Delta t)$ are known at evenly spaced grid points where $\tilde{t}$ is the specified time and $\Delta t$ is the time increment, and we are interested in finding the diffusion coefficient values at the grid points. From equations 63, 64, and 65, we can create the following system of linear equations:

$$A d = b, \quad (66)$$

where $A$ is an $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ matrix and $d$ and $b$ are $(n+1)$ vectors (3). $A$, $d$, and $b$ are subscripted from 0 to $n$ as shown by the following:
The elements of $d$ are the unknown diffusion coefficient values at the grid points, and the elements of $A$ and $b$ are expressed as follows:

1. At the surface grid point with $x = x_0$ and $t = \tilde{t}$: (3)
   \[
a_{0,0} = (2\alpha - 1)[C(x_0, \tilde{t}) - C(x_1, \tilde{t})],
   \]
   \[
a_{0,1} = C(x_1, \tilde{t}) - C(x_0, \tilde{t}),
   \]
   \[
b_0 = \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{\Delta t} [C(x_0, \tilde{t} + \Delta t) - C(x_0, \tilde{t})].
   \]

2. At an internal grid point with $x = x_j$ (0 < j < n) and $t = \tilde{t}$: (3)
   \[
a_{j,j-1} = C(x_{j-1}, \tilde{t}) - C(x_j, \tilde{t}).
   \]
   \[
a_{j,j} = C(x_{j+1}, \tilde{t}) - 2C(x_j, \tilde{t}) + C(x_{j-1}, \tilde{t}).
   \]
   \[
a_{j,j+1} = C(x_{j+1}, \tilde{t}) - C(x_j, \tilde{t}).
   \]
\[ b_j = 2 \left( \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \right)^2 \left[ C(x_j, \bar{t} + \Delta t) - C(x_j, \bar{t}) \right]. \] (74)

3. At the center grid point with \( x = x_n \) and \( t = \bar{t} \): \textsuperscript{[3]}

\[ a_{n,n-1} = C(x_{n-1}, \bar{t}) - C(x_n, \bar{t}). \] (75)
\[ a_{n,n} = C(x_{n-1}, \bar{t}) - C(x_n, \bar{t}). \] (76)
\[ b_n = \left( \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \right)^2 \left[ C(x_n, \bar{t} + \Delta t) - C(x_n, \bar{t}) \right]. \] (77)

This system consists of a tridiagonal system of linear algebraic equations. The solution vector \( d \) is the diffusion coefficient vector. This system can be solved using the Thomas algorithm as previously mentioned.

### 3. Fortran Software Development

#### 3.1 Concentration Profile Predictor

**Constant Diffusivity**

This program was written to predict future concentration profiles from an initial concentration profile and constant diffusivity value. The program begins by asking the user for the initial concentration profile file in .txt format. After storing this array, the program requests the constant diffusivity value from the user. The final request from the software is the time at which the user would like the concentration profile to be predicted. The software’s output is both on screen and in a .txt file located in the same location as the initial concentration profile. The user can then easily import this file into Excel to see the new concentration profile. The user can also edit the position and time increments within the code itself to tailor the output to their liking.

As discussed in section 2.1.1.1, one solution to Fick’s second law is the error function solution. One way to test the validity of this program is to compare it against this known solution, demonstrated by

\[ \frac{C_x - C_o}{C_x - C_o} = 1 - \text{erf} \left( \frac{x}{2\sqrt{Dt}} \right). \] (78)

This is accomplished by using an initial concentration profile based on equation 78 and setting a constant diffusivity. This diffusivity value is used both in equation 78 and in the program itself. Equal times were chosen as well. The result of this comparison is shown in figure 6.
Figure 6. Graph showing the error function solution compared with the Fortran code solution.

One can see that the results match to four significant figures, thereby verifying the correct operation of the Fortran program.

Another solution known as the thin-film solution was discussed in section 2.1.1.1 as well. This research compares this solution to the Fortran program as well to further validate its functional use. The thin-film solution was given in equation 6, which is shown again here:

\[
\Delta C = \frac{M}{\sqrt{\pi D t}} \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{4Dt}\right). \tag{79}
\]

In order to compare the program to the thin-film solution, an initial concentration profile based on equation 79 was used as well as a predetermined constant diffusivity. This diffusivity value was used both in equation 79 and in the program itself. Equal time increments were chosen as well. The result of this comparison is shown in figure 7.

One can see that the results match to four significant figures, thereby verifying the correct operation of the Fortran program.

A third solution of Fick’s law is based on a trigonometric solution and is mentioned in section 2.1.1.1. This solution is based on the following:

\[
C_{\theta}(x, t) = C_0 + \Delta C \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{\lambda}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{t}{t_r}\right). \tag{80}
\]
In order to compare the program to the trigonometric solution, an initial concentration profile based on equation 80 was used as well as a predetermined constant diffusivity. This diffusivity value was used both in equation 80 and in the program itself. Equal time increments were chosen as well. The result of this comparison is shown below in figure 8.

One can see that the results match to four significant figures, thereby verifying the correct operation of the Fortran program.

3.2 **Diffusivity Extractor**

**Constant Diffusivity**

This program was written to extract diffusivity values from two concentration profiles. This matrix of diffusivity values can then be used to predict future concentration profiles with respect to both time and temperature. The program begins by asking the user for the two concentration profiles file in .txt format. The array size, time step, and time duration are then inputted. The software’s output is both on screen and in a .txt file located in the same location as the concentration profiles. The user can then easily import this file into excel to see the graph of the diffusivity matrix.
In order to test this portion of the software, the thin-film solution was used again. A time of 0.005 s was inputted into equation 79 in order to generate one concentration profile. A second profile was generated using a time of 0.00503 s demonstrating a time step of 0.00003 s. In this case, the diffusivity was set as a constant value of 1 to generate both of these curves. In order for the program to be operational, it would need to extract a diffusivity matrix with the value 1 in each location. The resulting extraction is shown in graphical form in figure 9.

As one can see, the diffusivity values oscillate at first and finally converge to a value of 1.06, which leaves a 5% error since 1 is the true value. Since this is within the acceptable tolerance, this portion of the program is deemed operational.

4. Software Limitations

The Fortran programs written for this research project depend solely on input and output external files. These files are currently in .txt format which rely on exact formatting and data placement specifications. Slight alterations in either of these variables will inherently affect the operation of the main program. If these files are converted to spreadsheet files (i.e., Excel), data manipulation and representation will become more efficient. The programmer will need to write an SQL subroutine to allow standard Fortran output to be inserted into a spreadsheet.
Throughout this research, many different programs were written to solve different aspects of the problem such as binary_effd, inverse-rewrite, and ternary_separate and can be seen in appendices A, B, and C respectively.

4.1 Binary_effd

This program was written to act as a concentration profile predictor for use with constant diffusivity. It uses the condensed form of Fick’s second law when ‘D’ is not a function of concentration. The program uses the Crank-Nicholson finite-difference method to iterate to future unknown time steps to predict concentration profiles for any given initial binary diffusion data set.

While this program runs successfully using known diffusion examples, the largest error seems to come from boundary condition determination. The program began with Dirichlet boundary conditions in which specify the value of the function at the surface and the finite difference only takes place between them (i.e., \( i = 2 \ldots n-1 \)).

\[
T = f(r, t).
\]  \hspace{1cm} (81)

This scenario did not work with Fortran so the boundary conditions were changed to Neumann boundary conditions which specify the normal derivative of the function on the surface.

\[
\frac{\partial T}{\partial n} = \hat{n} \cdot \nabla T = f(r, t).
\]  \hspace{1cm} (82)
The Neumann scenario proved effective when comparing the programs’ output to known solutions. This program successfully uses the Thomas algorithm to solve for the concentration values at future unknown time steps using the previous known concentration values.

### 4.2 Inverse_rewrite

This program is designed to act as a diffusivity extractor which would extract the composition-dependent interdiffusion coefficients from the concentration profiles in a single diffusion couple. The procedure is based on the minimization of the difference between the profiles calculated by a finite difference scheme and the experimental profiles given by ARL. This program works flawlessly when modeled after the thin-film solution as seen in figure 10.

![Figure 10. Thin film approximation using program.](image)

This program does not perform as well when using actual data from ARL’s test matrix. Unfortunately, due to the variation in the input data, the output does not converge on a specific value as seen in figure 11.
Some effort was made to computationally induce noise to simulate experimental concentration scatter. A Gaussian noise with a standard deviation of 0.65% was applied to the raw data of ARL. Unfortunately, this caused the program’s output to fluctuate even more. The inter-diffusion coefficient values were meant to be obtained along the entire diffusion path, instead of only at the intersection point of independent paths (Boltzmann-Matano; BZMA) (8) or instead of mean coefficient values (Krishtal; KMAZ) (9).

The researcher believes the error in this program focuses on the initial values that are introduced. It is assumed that a genetic algorithm would need to be developed to apply to the first iterative step. This algorithm would aid in the location of a true minimum and not a local one as seen in the current program. It is also alleged that the stopping criterion for this program was not developed properly. This criterion should allow a point at when it is reached, a test would be performed on the different terms to ensure they are of the same order of magnitude. In order to maintain this criterion constant during the while profile treatment, and in order to limit calculation time, a variable increment would need to be implemented. This increment could be used as follows: if the relative variation of the concentration exceeds 10%, the increment is

![Figure 11. Program output using ARL input data.](image-url)
decreased so that the relative variation is no more than 1%. In that case, for the next iteration, it is necessary to employ the previously discussed genetic algorithm to determine the interdiffusion coefficients. This may explain the wide fluctuations seen in figure 11.

The researcher hypothesizes that a smoothing subcode would need to be applied on the raw ARL date before using the Fortran program on it. An appropriate smoothing function is described in equation 83.

\[
C_i(x) = A_{i0} + \sum_{j=1}^{q} \frac{A_{ij}}{1 + (1 - B_j \cdot m_{ij}) \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{x - p_{ij}}{r_{ij}}\right) + B_{ij} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{n_{ij} \cdot (x - p_{ij})}{r_{ij}}\right)}
\]  

(83)

In order to use the smoothing procedure efficiently, an adequate number of functions (q) must be used. In this case, five should be sufficient. The average relative error on the concentration associated with the smoothing procedure amounts to 0.02%, and the maximum relative error, generally observed at extrema, never exceeds 0.5%.

Inverse solutions are known to be sensitive to changes in input data resulting from measurement and modeling errors. Hence, they may not be unique. Mathematically, the inverse problems belong to the class of ill-posed or ill-conditioned problems; that is, their solutions do not satisfy the general requirements of existence, uniqueness, and stability under small changes to the input data (10).

4.3 Ternary_separate

This program was written to scale the previous programs into ternary and multicomponent diffusion with constant and variable diffusivity. In the ternary program, Fortran would not recognize the second element array no matter how it was represented. A third element is not needed in the program as the third element is always determined by the balance of the other two to total 100%. It is here that a two-dimensional (2-D) array written in C++ would be easier to code and debug. Fortran’s limitations make it difficult for the program to access a 2-D matrix and perform the necessary calculations while keeping track of each data point within the matrix. When forming the three-dimensional array known as ‘C’, Fortran continually disallowed a non-integer in the ‘countreal’ slot. This variable began as an integer but somehow was converted to a non-integer within the program itself.

Versions of the Crank-Nicholson method and the Thomas algorithm were again used in this program with adjustments made to account for the additional variables used in multicomponent diffusion. The finite-difference nomenclature is the same as that used for the binary diffusion case. This program had difficulty interpreting the bi-tridiagonal matrix that is generated from attempting to solve multicomponent diffusion. Only a single tridiagonal matrix is generated when solving a binary diffusion problem.
5. Conclusions

In conclusion, the original objective of this project was not met to its completion. Several factors contributed to this shortcoming, but the primary obstacle was the correlation between the software and the input data. While the software ran successfully with many different known solutions, it did not perform well using actual concentration profile data from ARL. Most likely, this is due to the limited amount of species data, the accuracy of the data itself, and the spacing between each data point. As with all software, the closer the data points and the less intense the noise is, the more accurate the solution will be. This is especially true when using a method such as the finite difference method, which is based solely on iteration.

In order to make this program successful, careful analysis of the input data must be made. All efforts should be taken to obtain more accurate, smoother input data which will allow the software to run with fewer obstacles and, in turn, produce cleaner output data. Once the input data is appropriate, the programmer should return to “fine tune” the individual software programs to allow them to work with the new data. This may require using a filtering subroutine in order to accept only worthy data from the input stream. There should be a minimum number of data points that the program can run on and still produce acceptable results. It is imperative that this number is determined so the program can be modified to run on a sufficient amount of data points. This part of the code would terminate the program if there were fewer data points than the program needed.

Finally, the concentration profile predictor should also be expanded to account for variable diffusivity.
6. References


Appendix A. Binary_effd

Binary_effd

module setup_info

    real :: time, dt, dx, t
    real :: alpha, xpos, conc
    integer :: i
    real :: j

    data dt,dx,time /0.00005,0.01,.01/

end module setup_info

program binary_effd

    use setup_info
    implicit none
    interface

    subroutine fill_a(C,a,nx,effd)
        integer :: nx
        real, dimension(0:nx) :: C
        real, dimension(0:nx,4) :: a
        real, dimension(0:nx) :: effd
    end subroutine fill_a

    subroutine tridiag(C,a,nx)
        integer :: nx
        real, dimension(0:nx) :: C
        real, dimension(0:nx,4) :: a
    end subroutine tridiag

    end interface

    integer, parameter :: NSEG = 40

    real, dimension (0:NSEG) :: effd !This is the efective D array
    real, dimension (0:NSEG,4) :: a

This appendix appears in its original form, without editorial change.
real, dimension (0:NSEG) :: C     !Initial condition
real, dimension (0:NSEG) :: xpos, conca
integer :: count
!character (len=1) :: tab = char(9)
***Enter data and info

open (unit=10, file='conc.txt', status='old') !Opening the initial concentration profile
open (unit=13, file='ds.txt', status='old') !Opening the effective D array file
open (unit=100, file='binaryoutputtrig.txt', status='unknown')

!dx=1/NSEG
!print*, 'dx is',dx
alpha=dt/(dx*dx)
!write(*,*)dx,dt,'   alpha is', alpha

count=-1;
5 read (10,*,END=15) xpos, conc
    count=count+1;
    xposa(count)=xpos;
    conca(count)=conc;
    go to 5

15 if (count.EQ.0) then
    print*, 'No data in file'
    else
    end if

C=conca;
!print*,C

*Input effective D's into 'effd' array
count=-1;
6 read (13,*,END=16) effd
    count=count+1;
    go to 6

16 if (count.EQ.0) then
    !print*, 'No data in file'
    else
    end if

!print*, effd(0)

***Crank Nicholson Method
t=100.0
count=0
do  j=0,time,0.005
   !if (t>time) exit
   !count=count+1
   !t=count*dt
   call fill_a(C,a,NSEG,effd)
call tridiag(C,a,NSEG) !Update C(i) to new time step
end do

print*, C
write (100,99) C;
99 format (1X, F10.4);
close (unit=100)
end program binary_effd

!************Subroutine Fill_a ************

subroutine fill_a(C,a,nx,effd)
use setup_info
integer :: nx
real, dimension(0:nx) :: C
real, dimension(0:nx,4) :: a
real, dimension(0:nx) :: effd

   do i=1,nx-1
      a(i,1) = -alpha/2.*effd(i)
a(i,2) = 1. + (alpha*effd(i))
a(i,3) = a(i,1)
a(i,4) = C(i)*(1.-(alpha*effd(i))) + ((C(i-1)+C(i+1))*alpha/2.*effd(i))
   end do

!print*, a(:,4);
!This is for i=0
a(0,1) = 0.*effd(0)
\[ a(0,2) = 1. + (\alpha \cdot \text{effd}(0)) \]
\[ a(0,3) = -\alpha \cdot \text{effd}(3) \]
\[ a(0,4) = C(0) \cdot (1. - (\alpha \cdot \text{effd}(0))) + (C(1) \cdot \alpha \cdot \text{effd}(0)) \n\]

!This is for \( i = \text{NSEG} \)
\[ a(nx,1) = -\alpha \cdot \text{effd}(nx) \]
\[ a(nx,2) = 1. + \alpha \cdot \text{effd}(nx) \]
\[ a(nx,3) = 0. \cdot \text{effd}(nx) \]
\[ a(nx,4) = C(nx) \cdot (1. - (\alpha \cdot \text{effd}(nx))) + (C(nx-1) \cdot \alpha \cdot \text{effd}(nx)) \]

!print*, a(nx,4);
end subroutine fill_a

!**********Tridiagonal matrix ************

subroutine tridiag(C,a,nx)
real, dimension(0:nx) :: C
real, dimension(0:nx,4) :: a
integer :: nx
real :: denom
integer :: j
C(0)=a(0,4)/a(0,2)
a(0,3)=a(0,3)/a(0,2)
do j=1,nx
   denom = a(j,2) - a(j,1)*a(j-1,3)
   C(j) = (a(j,4) - a(j,1)*C(j-1))/denom
   a(j,3) = a(j,3)/denom
end do

!a(nx,3) is 0
do j=nx-1,0,-1
   C(j) = C(j) - a(j,3)*C(j+1)
end do
end subroutine tridiag
Appendix B. Inverse_rewrite

module setup_info

    real :: time, dt, dx, t
    real :: alpha, xpos, conc, xpos2, conc2
    integer :: i
    real :: j

    data dt,dx,time /0.00005,0.01,10/

end module setup_info

program inverse_rewrite

    use setup_info
    implicit none
    interface

        subroutine fill_a(a,b,c,r,nx,yimp,y150)
            integer :: nx
            !real, dimension(0:nx) :: C
            real, dimension(0:nx) :: a,b,c,r,h
            !real, dimension(0:nx,0:nx) :: a
            real, dimension(0:nx) :: yimp,y150
        end subroutine fill_a

        subroutine tridiag(nx,a,b,c,r,h)
            integer :: nx
            !real, dimension(0:nx) :: h,a,b,c,r
            !real, dimension(0:nx,0:nx) :: a
        end subroutine tridiag

    end interface

    integer, parameter :: NSEG = 67

This appendix appears in its original form, without editorial change.
!real, dimension (0:NSEG,0:NSEG) :: a
real, dimension (0:NSEG) :: h,a,b,c,r
real, dimension (0:NSEG) :: xpos,yimp,xpos2a,y150
integer :: count
!character (len=1) :: tab = char(9)

!***Enter data and info

open (unit=10, file='delta1.txt', status='old')
open (unit=13, file='delta2.txt', status='old')
open (unit=100, file='output.txt', status='unknown')

!dx=1/NSEG
!print*, 'nx is',NSEG
alpha=(dx*dx)/dt
!write(*,*)dx,dt,' alpha is', alpha

count=-1;
5 read (10,*,END=15) conc
  count=count+1;
  !xposa(count)=xpos;
  yimp(count)=conc;
  go to 5

15 if (count.EQ.0) then
   print*, 'No data in file'
else
   end if
!print*,yimp

count=-1;
6 read (13,*,END=16) conc2
  count=count+1;
  !xpos2a(count)=xpos2;
  y150(count)=conc2;
  go to 6

16 if (count.EQ.0) then
   print*, 'No data in file'
else
end if

!print*, y150

***Crank Nicholson Method

t=100.0
count=0

!do j=0,time,0.5
  !if (t>time) exit
  !count=count+1
  !t=count*dt
  call fill_a(a,b,c,r,NSEG,yimp,y150)
  call tridiag(NSEG,a,b,c,r,h)

!print*,'hnx is',h(NSEG)

!end do

print*, h
write (100,99) h;
99 format (1X, F10.4);

close (unit=100)
end program inverse_rewrite

Subroutine Fill_a

subroutine fill_a(a,b,c,r,nx,yimp,y150)
  use setup_info
  integer :: nx
  real, dimension(0:nx) :: a,b,c,r
  !real, dimension(0:nx,0:nx) :: a
  real, dimension(0:nx) :: yimp,y150

  !This is for i=0

  !a(1)=0!!!

  b(0) = 2.0*yimp(0)-3.0*yimp(1)+yimp(2)
  !print*,b(0)
c(0) = -yimp(0)+yimp(1)
!print*,c(0)

r(0) = alpha*(y150(0)-yimp(0))
!print*,'y150(0) is',y150(0)
!print*,'alpha is',alpha
!print*,r(0)

!*****This is for 0<i<NSEG********

do i=1,nx-1
  a(i) = yimp(i-1)-yimp(i+1)
  b(i) = 4*(yimp(i+1)-2*yimp(i)+yimp(i-1))
  c(i) = yimp(i+1)-yimp(i-1)
  r(i) = 4*alpha*(y150(i)-yimp(i))
end do

!print*, 'yimp(0) is', yimp(0)
!print*, 'yimp(1) is', yimp(1)
!print*, 'yimp(2) is', yimp(2)

!print*, a(1);
!print*, b(1);

!*****This is for i=NSEG********

!a(nx,1) = 0
b(nx) = 2*(yimp(nx-1)-yimp(nx))
!a(nx,3) = 0
r(nx) = alpha*(y150(nx)-yimp(nx))

!print*, a(nx,4);
end subroutine fill_a

!************Tridiagonal matrix ************

subroutine tridiag(nx,a,b,c,r,h)

!real, dimension (0:nx,0:nx) :: a
real, dimension(0:nx) :: a,b,c,r,h
real bet
real gam(100)
integer j

if(b(0).eq.0) pause 'tridiag:rewrite equations'

bet=b(0)
!print*, 'bet is',bet

h(0)=r(0)/bet
h(nx)=1.0
!print*, 'h(0) is',h(0)

 !***Decomposition and forward substitution
do 2 j=1,nx
   gam(j)=c(j-1)/bet
   !print*, gam(1)
   bet=b(j)-a(j)*gam(j)
   !print*, bet
   if (bet.eq.0) pause 'tridiag failed' !Algorithm fails
   h(j)=(r(j)-a(j)*h(j-1))/bet
2 continue

 !***Backsubstitution**
do 3 j=nx-1,0,-1
   h(j)=h(j)-gam(j+1)*h(j+1)
3 continue

return
end subroutine tridiag
INTENTIONALLY LEFT BLANK.
Appendix C.  Ternary_separate

module setup_info

    real :: time, dt, dx, t
!Xpos is the array of positions in the initial profile
!Conc is the array of concentrations in the initial profile
real :: alpha, xpos1, conc1, xpos2, conc2,dtt
integer :: i,k,z
real :: j

    data dt,dx,time /0.5,0.01,50/

end module setup_info

program ternary_separate

    use setup_info

    implicit none

    interface

    !The following subroutine is designed to make arrays that
    !follow the Crank Nicholson Finite Difference method. 'A' will
    !have four columns, representing the four coefficients in the
    !finite difference equation mentioned earlier which come before
    !C(i-1,j+1), C(i,j+1), C(i+1,j+1), and C(*,j)
    !'nx' is the maximum position of x
    !The 'Conc' array represents the known values of the concentrations
    !at the current time step

    subroutine fill_a(Conc,a,nx)
        integer :: nx
        real, dimension(0:nx) :: Conc
        real, dimension(0:nx,4) :: a
        ! real :: dtt2,j
        !end subroutine fill_a

        !The following subroutine is designed to solve the tridiagonal matrix
        !that was formed using the Crank Nicholson method

This appendix appears in its original form, without editorial change.
! It uses the same variables as in subroutine 'fill_a'
! This routine returns the concentration values at the next time step
subroutine tridiag(Con,a,nx)
    integer :: nx
    real, dimension(0:nx) :: Con
    real, dimension(0:nx,4) :: a
end subroutine tridiag
end interface

! This parameter defines the number of steps in the x direction
! For example, if the profile goes from -20 to 20, then NSEG=40
integer, parameter :: NSEG = 40
real, parameter :: timestep = 1000
! real, parameter :: dt=0.5
real, dimension (0:NSEG,4) :: a !Coefficient array
real, dimension (0:NSEG,timestep) :: C !Initial condition
real, dimension (0:NSEG) :: xposa,conca,xposb,concb,conarray
integer :: count
real :: countreal
! character (len=1) :: tab = char(9)

! *** Enter data and info

! This statement opens the text files containing the
two initial concentration profiles
open (unit=10, file='trig.txt', status='old')
open (unit=11, file='trig2.txt', status='old')
! This statement opens the output file so the new concentration
profile at the current time step can be written
open (unit=100, file='binaryoutputtrig.txt', status='unknown')

! dx=1/NSEG
! print*, 'dx is', dx
alpha=dt/(dx*dx)
! write(*,*)dx,dt,' alpha is', alpha

! This loop will take only the proper number of x positions and
concentrations, storing them into 'xposa' and 'conca',
! leaving off the trailing zeros
count=-1;
5 read (10,*,END=15) xpos1,conc1
   count=count+1;
   xposa(count)=xpos1;
   conca(count)=conc1;
   go to 5

15 if (count.EQ.0) then
   print*, 'No data in file'
   else
   endif

!Same for second profile
count=-1;
6 read (11,*,END=16) xpos2,conc2
   count=count+1;
   xposb(count)=xpos2;
   concb(count)=conc2;
   go to 6

16 if (count.EQ.0) then
   print*, 'No data in file'
   else
   endif

!Define the initial concentration array at time=0 for both elements

!******************************************************************************
******
C(:,0)=concb; !****change a to b to a to change elements

!******************************************************************************
******
!C(:,2,0)=concb;
!print*, C(:,2,0)
!Begin the loop to solve over the entire time, incrementing !by 0.5

\[ \begin{align*}
t &= 0.0; \\
countreal &= 0.0; \\
dtt &= \text{time} / 0.5; & \text{Gives how large the time column is in the array} \\
\end{align*} \]

!print*, dtt

!print*, C(:,2,0)

!*****This is the set up for only one component*****

\[ \text{do j} = 0, 15, 0.5 \]

!if (t>time) exit

\[ \begin{align*}
  \text{countreal} &= \text{countreal} + 1 & \text{monitor j increments} \\
  t &= \text{countreal} \times dt \\
\end{align*} \]

!Store one column of 3D array into 1D array 'conarray'
!This is done because the subroutine 'fill_a' only needs the !concentrations and not the position and time subscripts
\[ \text{conarray} = \text{C(:,j)} \]

!print*, z
!print*, conarray
!print*, C(:,1,0)

\[ \text{call fill}_a(\text{conarray}, a, NSEG) \]

!Fill in the coefficients for the current time step

\[ \begin{align*}
  \text{call tridiag(} & \text{conarray}, a, \text{NSEG}) \quad \text{!Update C(i) to new time step} \\
\end{align*} \]

!This loop will move the new concentration profile back into !the 3D array with the appropriate position and time subscripts
\[ \text{do k} = 0, \text{NSEG} \]
CONARRAYS(200,nx) = 0. 

end do

end subroutine fill_a

end program ternary_separate

!************Subroutine Fill_a **********

subroutine fill_a(Conc,a,nx)
use setup_info
integer :: nx
!real :: dtt2,z
real, dimension(0:nx) :: Conc
real, dimension(0:nx,4) :: a

!print*,Conc

!Loop to enter the four coefficients of the finite difference equation
do i=1,nx-1
   a(i,1) = -alpha/2.
   a(i,2) = 1. + alpha
   a(i,3) = a(i,1)
   a(i,4) = Conc(i)*(1.-alpha) + (Conc(i-1)+Conc(i+1))*alpha/2.
end do

!print*, a(:,4);

!These next two sets are different because there is no previous
! Point for i=0 and there is no future point for i=NSEG

! This is for i=0
a(0,1) = 0.
a(0,2) = 1. + alpha
a(0,3) = -alpha
a(0,4) = Conc(0)*(1.-alpha) + Conc(1)*alpha

! This is for i=NSEG
a(nx,1) = -alpha
a(nx,2) = 1. + alpha
a(nx,3) = 0.
a(nx,4) = Conc(nx)*(1.-alpha) + Conc(nx-1)*alpha

print*, Conc
! print*, a(nx,4);
end subroutine fill_a

!********** Tridiagonal matrix ************

subroutine tridiag(Con,a,nx)

real, dimension(0:nx) :: Con
real, dimension(0:nx,4) :: a
integer :: nx
real :: denom ! Represents denominator after calculation
integer :: j

! Initial values
Con(0)=a(0,4)/a(0,2)
a(0,3)=a(0,3)/a(0,2)

! This loop sets all of the known information to variables
do j=1,nx
   denom = a(j,2) - a(j,1)*a(j-1,3)
   Con(j) = (a(j,4) - a(j,1)*Con(j-1))/denom
   a(j,3) = a(j,3)/denom
end do

! This loop decides the next concentration at the next time step
! a(nx,3) is 0
do j=nx-1,0,-1
   Con(j) = Con(j) - a(j,3)*Con(j+1)
   ! print*, Con(2)
end do

end subroutine tridiag
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