

# Math 6620: Analysis of Numerical Methods, II

## Finite difference methods for time-dependent problems, Part II

See LeVeque 2007, Chapter 9,  
Langtangen and Linge 2017, Chapter 3,  
Kreiss, Oliger, and Gustafsson 2013, Chapters 1, 3, 6

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We've considered the problem and FD discretization,

$$u_t = u_{xx}, \quad u(x, 0) = u_0(x)$$

$$D^+ u_j^n = D_- D_+ u_j^n,$$

with periodic boundary conditions, and

- Equidistant discretization for  $x$  and  $t$
- $x_j = \frac{2\pi j}{M}$ ,  $j \in [M]$ . Periodic BC's: we identify  $x_M \leftrightarrow x_0$ .  
 $h = \Delta x = x_{j+1} - x_j$
- $t_n = nk$ ,  $k > 0$  for  $n = 0, 1, \dots$   
 $k = \Delta t = t_{k+1} - t_k$
- $u_j^n \approx u(x_j, t_n)$ ,  $\mathbf{u}^n = (u_0^n, \dots, u_{M-1}^n)^T$

Up next: Stability, accuracy, convergence, etc.

$$D^+ u_j^n = D_- D_+ u_j^n,$$

The scheme above is **fully discrete**.

A more transparent understanding of algorithmic behavior can be gained from investigating the **semi-discrete** scheme:

$$u_t = u_{xx} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{Discretize space}} \quad \frac{d}{dt} \mathbf{u}(t) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{u}(t), \quad \mathbf{u} = (u_1(t), \dots, u_M(t))^T$$

With periodic boundary conditions, then  $\mathbf{A}$  is the matrix,

$$h^2 \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & & & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 & -2 \\ 1 & & & & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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This reduction of a *partial* differential equation, to a system of *ordinary* ones through discretization, is called the **method of lines**.

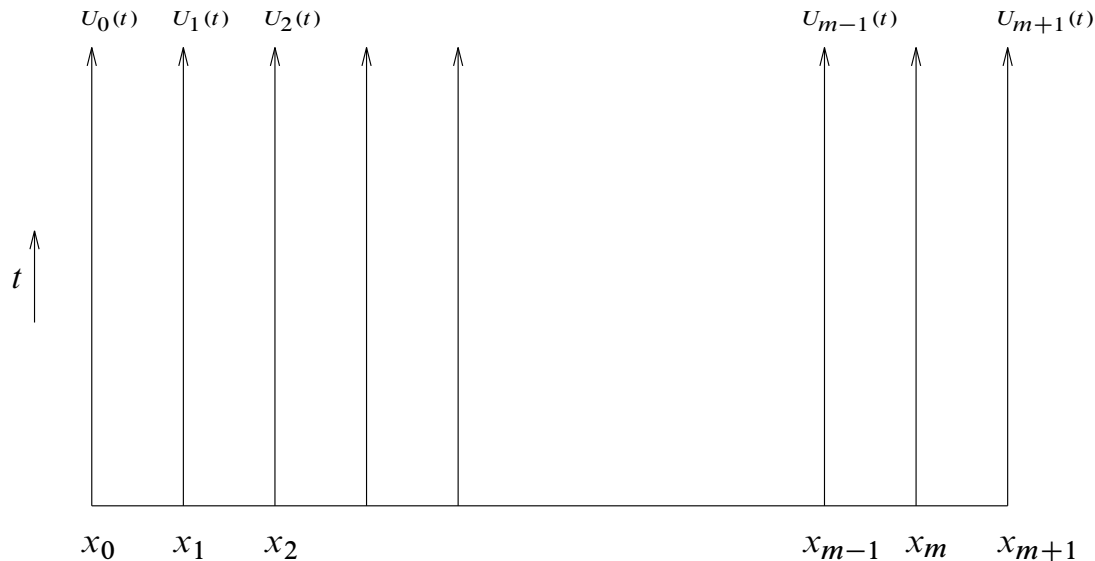


Figure: Method of lines visualization. LeVeque 2007, Figure 9.2

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The semi-discrete form is useful in *decoupling* space and time.

In particular, it's something we know how to understand from a time-integration point of view:

- Stability ( $A$ -stability, 0-stability)
- Accuracy (time discretization)
- Convergence (conditioned on a fixed spatial discretization)

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Convergence to the solution of the original *PDE solution* does require some interaction of space and time.

In particular: obtaining a very numerically accurate solution to  $\mathbf{u}(t)$  in isolation does not reveal accuracy relative to the exact PDE solution. (The latter is what we really care about.)

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{u}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}(t), \quad \mathbf{u} = (u_1(t), \dots, u_M(t))^T$$

We understand how to generate reasonable schemes for this: any 0-stable method could suffice.

To fix some details, one typically initially considers the simplest scheme to understand the system: Forward Euler.

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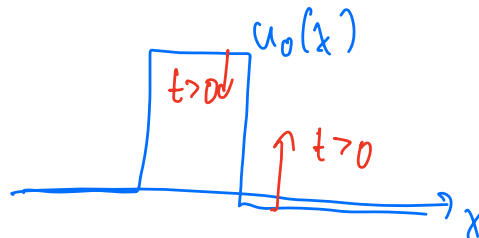
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$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \mathbf{u}^n + k \mathbf{A} \mathbf{u}^n.$$

This is a *linear* ODE, and so one simple concept to explore is absolute stability.

Is it reasonable to expect behavior of the discrete solution corresponding to absolute stability?

$$u_t = u_{xx} \rightarrow \text{diffusive}$$





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Is it reasonable to expect behavior of the discrete solution corresponding to absolute stability?

To determine stability, the eigenvalues/vectors of  $\mathbf{A}$  are explicitly computable:

$$\lambda_j(\mathbf{A}) = -\frac{4}{h^2} \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi\tilde{j}}{2M}\right), \quad \tilde{j} := \begin{cases} j-1, & j \text{ odd} \\ j, & j \text{ even} \end{cases} \quad j \in [M]$$

Note that the eigenvalues all have negative real parts ... as we hope for.

$$u'' = \lambda u, \quad u(0) = u(2\pi), \quad u'(0) = u'(2\pi)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \mathbf{u}(t) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{u}(t),$$

$$\mathbf{u} = (u_1(t), \dots, u_M(t))^T$$

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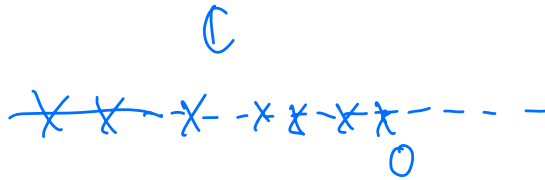
$$\tilde{j} := \begin{cases} j-1, & j \text{ odd} \\ j, & j \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

$$j \in [M]$$

All these eigenvalues lie in the left half-plane, on the real axis. In particular,

$$\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A}) = -\frac{4}{h^2} \sim -4M^2$$

$$\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A}) \sim -1$$



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$$\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A}) = -\frac{4}{h^2} \sim -4M^2 \quad \lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A}) \sim 1$$

Therefore, there are some parts of the solution that vary slowly (small  $|\lambda|$ ) and other parts of the solution that vary quickly (large  $|\lambda|$ ).

This is a classic sign of stiffness of an ODE – since even moderate  $M$  causes large values of  $\lambda_{\min}/\lambda_{\max}$ , this is a stiff system for those values of  $M$ .

The punch line: Although we have attempted to separate space and time, our choice of spatial discretization will impact our time discretization.

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{u}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}(t), \quad \mathbf{u} = (u_1(t), \dots, u_M(t))^T$$

What does  $A$ -stability tell us about the time discretization? For Forward Euler, recall that the region of stability is defined by,

$$|z + 1| \leq 1, \quad z = \lambda k,$$

with  $\lambda$  being the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

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Since  $z = \lambda k$  is real-valued (and negative in this case), we really have the condition,

$$z \geq -2 \quad \implies \quad k|\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A})| \leq 2 \quad \implies \quad k \leq \frac{h^2}{2}$$

Note that this is a rather disappointing stability requirement. (Consider, say,  $h = 0.01$ )

$$u^{n+1} = u^n + kA u^n$$

$$u^{n+1} = (I - kA)^{-1} u^n$$

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For this PDE, violating this notion of stability is bad: this PDE dissipates energy. Violating stability causes energy to grow.

Note that changing the type of explicit time-stepping scheme (RK, multi-step, etc) does not really change this stability condition, up to some  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  constants.

The only real remedy is an  $A$ -stable (implicit) scheme.

$$\begin{aligned}u_t &= u_{xx}, & u(x, 0) &= u_0(x) \\ D^+ u_j^n &= D_- D_+ u_j^n,\end{aligned}$$

For computing the local truncation error, considering the semi-discrete scheme does not provide much benefit.

The LTE is the scheme residual when the exact (smooth) solution is inserted:

$$\text{LTE}^n = D^+ u(x_j, t_n) - D_- D_+ u(x_j, t_n) \sim \mathcal{O}(h^2 + k).$$

As before, we say a scheme is consistent if  $\lim_{k, h \downarrow 0} \text{LTE}^n = 0$ .

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Naturally, the temporal order of convergence  $k^p$  would change depending on the LTE of the time-stepping scheme.

Without directly considering cost of space vs time discretization, one would logically want to balance the LTE by choosing  $k \sim h^2$ , which is similar to the stability condition.

However, we've already seen that this is not really an attractive strategy for choosing  $k$ , motivating that this scheme is not really a very good one.



As usual, the holy grail is convergence. The idea for how to proceed is similar to what we've seen before:

The numerical solution satisfies the scheme exactly:

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}^n + \mathbf{f}^n,$$

where

- $\mathbf{B}$  is a matrix such  $(I + kA)$   ~~$k\mathbf{A}$~~  for the Forward Euler method
- $\mathbf{f}^n$  is any inhomogeneity in the equation (e.g., the term  $f$  in  $u_t = u_{xx} + f(x, t)$ )

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The exact solution  $u(x, t)$  at the grids points  $\mathbf{U}(t)$  satisfies the scheme with an LTE correction  $\tau_n$ :

$$\mathbf{U}(t_{n+1}) = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{U}(t_n) + \mathbf{f}^n + k\tau_n,$$

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$$\mathbf{U}(t_{n+1}) = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{U}(t_n) + \mathbf{f}^n + k\tau_n,$$

Subtracting these two, the error  $\mathbf{e}_n := \mathbf{U}(t_n) - \mathbf{u}^n$  satisfies,

$$\mathbf{e}_{n+1} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{e}_n + k\tau_n,$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u}^{n+1} &= \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}^n + \mathbf{f}^n, \\ U(t_{n+1}) &= \mathbf{B}U(t_n) + \mathbf{f}^n + k\tau_n, \\ \mathbf{e}_{n+1} &= \mathbf{B}\mathbf{e}_n + k\tau_n,\end{aligned}$$

Iterating the error equation, we conclude,

$$\mathbf{e}_n = \mathbf{B}^n \mathbf{e}_0 + k \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{B}^{n-j} \tau^{j-1},$$

where  $\tau$  bounds  $\tau_n$  for all  $n$ .

NB: the superscripts  $n$  and  $n - j$  on  $\mathbf{B}$  are exponents.

Therefore,

$$\|e_n\| = \|B^n\| \|e_0\| + k \sum_{j=1}^n \|B^{n-j}\| \|\tau^{j-1}\|$$

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This reveals that we need to control  $B^n$ , motivating a new definition.

### Definition

A numerical scheme of the form  $u^{n+1} = Bu^n + f^n$  for computing a solution up to terminal time  $T$  is **Lax-Richtmyer stable** if

$$\|B^n\| \leq C(T),$$

$$FE: B = I + kA$$

for all  $k$  sufficiently small and all time indices  $n$  satisfying  $nk \leq T$ .

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In practice, showing  $\|B\| \leq 1 + Ck$  for some constant  $C$  independent of  $k$  is enough.

$$\|B\|^n \sim \left(1 + \frac{C}{n}\right)^n \sim e^C$$

Convergence of the scheme, under consistency and (Lax-Richtmyer) stability follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \|e_n\| &= \|B^n\| \|e_0\| + k \sum_{j=1}^n \|B^{n-j}\| \|\tau^{j-1}\| \\ &\stackrel{\text{stability}}{\leq} C(T) \left[ \|e_0\| + kn \max_{j \in [n]} \|\tau^{j-1}\| \right], \\ &\leq C(T) \left[ \|e_0\| + T \max_{j \in [n]} \|\tau^{j-1}\| \right], \\ &\xrightarrow{k, h \downarrow 0+ \text{ consistency}} 0, \end{aligned}$$

where we additionally need  $\underline{e_0} \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \downarrow 0$ .



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We have just shown part of the following result:

### Theorem (Lax-Richtmyer Equivalence)

*A linear scheme is convergent if and only if it is consistent and (Lax-Richtmyer) stable.*

i.e.,

$$\text{Stability} + \text{Consistency} = \text{Convergence}$$

# Achieving stability

D11-S14(a)

How would we achieve (Lax-Richtmyer) stability? The general form is,

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}^n + \mathbf{f}^n,$$

and our Forward Euler in time, central difference in space approximation is,

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \mathbf{u}^n + k\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}^n = (\mathbf{I} + k\mathbf{A})\mathbf{u}^n, \quad (\text{assume } \mathbf{f}^n = 0)$$

so for stability, say in the 2-norm, we require,

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# Achieving stability

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Since all eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  are real and negative, this is ensured via,

$$k|\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A})| \leq 2 \quad \implies \quad k \leq \frac{h^2}{2}$$

which is *exactly* the same requirement we obtained from absolute stability.

A handwritten diagram in blue ink showing a vector  $u^n$  enclosed in a large blue circle. The vector is represented as a column of elements:  $u_0^n$  at the top, followed by  $u_1^n$ , a vertical ellipsis  $\vdots$ ,  $u_M^n$ , and  $u_{M+1}^n$  at the bottom. The  $u_{M+1}^n$  term has a small arrow pointing to the right.

Thus, we have that

$$u_t = u_{xx} \quad \longrightarrow \quad D^+ u_j^n = D_+ D_- u_j^n$$

has an LTE and stability criterion:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LTE}_n &= \mathcal{O}(k^2 + h) \\ k &\leq \frac{h^2}{2} \end{aligned}$$

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- How would we numerically verify  $h$  convergence? We'd need to
  - ▶ Pick a smallest  $h$ , say  $h_{\min}$
  - ▶ Fix  $k \leq h_{\min}^2/2$
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- How would we numerically verify  $k$  convergence?
  - ▶  $k \gg h^2$  is not possible,  $k \ll h^2$  is not possible.
  - ▶ When refining  $k$ , must correspondingly refine  $h$  to satisfy,  $h \sim \sqrt{2k}$ .



## Higher-order schemes?

D11-S16(a)

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If we alternatively use Crank-Nicholson:

- Stability is unconditional ( $\|\mathbf{B}^n\| \leq 1$  is automatic)
- The LTE is  $k^2 + h^2$ .
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An alternative notion, [Von Neumann stability](#), is a much easier necessary (not sufficient) stability requirement.

Von Neumann stability proceeds by ignoring boundary conditions, and realizing that for linear differential equations, *complex exponentials* are eigenfunctions.

E.g.,

$$(e^{i\omega x})_{xx} = C(\omega)e^{i\omega x}.$$

A similar computation is true for reasonable spatial discretizations of derivatives.

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But in even slightly more complicated scenarios, a similar analysis is quite difficult.

An alternative notion, [Von Neumann stability](#), is a much easier necessary (not sufficient) stability requirement.

Von Neumann stability proceeds by ignoring boundary conditions, and realizing that for linear differential equations, *complex exponentials* are eigenfunctions.

E.g.,

$$(e^{i\omega x})_{xx} = C(\omega)e^{i\omega x}.$$

A similar computation is true for reasonable spatial discretizations of derivatives.

Then a reasonable (somewhat empirical) notion of (Von Neumann) stability for a scheme would assert that the scheme does *not amplify* eigenfunctions in time.

The general strategy for von Neumann stability on linear problems is to consider the scheme,

$$u_j^{n+1} = B(u^n)$$

for a linear operator  $B$  acting on the degrees of freedom at time step  $j$ .<sup>1</sup> If we make the ansatz,

$$\mathbf{u}^n = e^{i\omega x} \quad \longrightarrow \quad u_j^n = e^{i\omega x_j} = e^{i\omega j h},$$

then we expect that plugging this into the scheme will yield the expression,

$$u_j^{n+1} = g(\omega) e^{i\omega j h},$$

for some constant  $g(\omega)$ .<sup>1</sup>

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for some constant  $g(\omega)$ .<sup>1</sup>

The function  $g$  is called the (Von Neumann) *amplification factor* of the scheme.

The scheme will be (Von Neumann) stable if  $|g(\omega)| \leq 1$ .<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>In principle  $g$  can depend on  $j$ , but it will not if the discretization is spatially homogeneous.

<sup>2</sup>Like for Lax-Richtmyer stability, we'll actually just need  $|g(\omega)| \leq 1 + Ck$ .



## Example

Compute the Von Neumann stability condition for

$$D^+ u_j^n = D_+ D_- u_j^n$$

Setting  $u_j^n = e^{i\omega jh}$ , and  $u_j^{n+1} = g(\omega)e^{i\omega jh}$ , then we have,

$$u_j^{n+1} = u_j^n + \frac{k}{h^2} [u_{j+1}^n - 2u_j^n + u_{j-1}^n]$$

↓

$$g(\omega)e^{i\omega jh} = e^{i\omega jh} + \frac{k}{h^2} e^{i\omega jh} [e^{i\omega h} - 2 + e^{-i\omega h}],$$

i.e.,

$$g(\omega) = 1 + \frac{2k}{h^2} (\cos \omega h - 1). \quad \omega: \text{arbitrary, } h > 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \omega h \in [-1, 1] &\Rightarrow (\cos \omega h - 1) \in [-2, 0] \\ &\Rightarrow 2k/h^2 \leq 1 \rightarrow |g(\omega)| \leq 1 \end{aligned} \quad \rightarrow k \leq h^2/2$$

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i.e.,

$$g(\omega) = 1 + \frac{2k}{h^2} (\cos \omega h - 1).$$

Since  $-2 \leq (\cos \omega h - 1) \leq 0$ , then  $|g(\omega)| \leq 1$  if

$$\frac{2k}{h^2} \leq 1 \quad \implies \quad k \leq \frac{h^2}{2}$$

## Example

Compute the Von Neumann stability condition for

$$D^+ u_j^n = D_+ D_- u_j^n$$

## Example

Compute the Von Neumann stability condition for

$$D^+ u_j^n = \frac{1}{2} D_+ D_- u_j^n + \frac{1}{2} D_+ D_- u_j^{n+1}$$

$$u_j^{n+1} = g(\omega) e^{i\omega j h}, \quad u_j^n = e^{i\omega j h}$$

$$\frac{u_j^{n+1} - u_j^n}{\tau} = \frac{1}{2h^2} (u_{j-1}^n - 2u_j^n + u_{j+1}^n) + \frac{1}{2h^2} (u_{j-1}^{n+1} - 2u_j^{n+1} + u_{j+1}^{n+1})$$

$$\frac{g(w) \cancel{e^{i\omega h}} - \cancel{e^{i\omega h}}}{k} = \frac{1}{2h^2} (2 \cos \omega h - 2) \cancel{e^{i\omega h}} + \frac{1}{2h^2} (2 \cos \omega h - 2) \cancel{e^{i\omega h}} g(w)$$

$$g(w) - 1 = \frac{k}{h^2} \underbrace{(\cos \omega h - 1)}_{z \leq 0} + \frac{k}{h^2} \underbrace{(\cos \omega h - 1)}_z g(w)$$

$$g(w) \left(1 - \frac{k}{h^2} z\right) = 1 + \frac{k}{h^2} z$$

$$g(w) = \frac{1 + \frac{k}{h^2} z}{1 - \frac{k}{h^2} z} \quad (z \leq 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow |g(w)| \leq 1 \quad (\text{"unconditionally stable"})$$

## Example

Compute the Von Neumann stability condition for

$$D^+ u_j^n = D_+ D_- u_j^n$$

## Example

Compute the Von Neumann stability condition for

$$D^+ u_j^n = \frac{1}{2} D_+ D_- u_j^n + \frac{1}{2} D_+ D_- u_j^{n+1}$$

## Example

Compute the Von Neumann stability condition for

$$D^+ u_j^n = D_0 u_j^n$$

$$u_j^{n+1} = g(\omega) e^{i\omega j h} \quad y_j^n = e^{i\omega j h}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{g(\omega) - 1}{k} &= \frac{1}{2h} (e^{+i\omega h} - e^{-i\omega h}) \\ &= \frac{i}{h} \sin \omega h \end{aligned}$$

$$g(\omega) = 1 + i \frac{k}{h} \sin(\omega h)$$





$$|g(\omega)|^2 = 1 + \frac{k^2}{h^2} \sin^2(\omega h)$$

→ unconditionally unstable.

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$$D^+ u_j^n = D_0 D_0 u_j^n$$

$$D^+ u_j^n = D_+ D_+ u_j^n$$

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