# PHYS 410 Finite Difference Methods October 19 2000 Expected Behaviour of Finite-Difference Approximations (Convergence and Accuracy)

We have already seen that the basic "control parameter" of a typical FDA (finite-difference approximation) is the mesh-spacing, h. Fundamentally, for sensibly constructed FDA's, we expect the error in the approximation to go to 0 as h goes to 0.

### Notation and Definitions

Let

$$L u = f \tag{1}$$

denote a general differential system. For simplicity and concreteness, you can think of u = u(x) as a single function of one variable, but the following discussion also applies to cases in multiple independent variables  $(u(x,t), u(x,y,t), \cdots$  etc.), as well as multiple dependent variables  $(u = \mathbf{u} = [u_1, u_2, \cdots, u_n])$ .

In (1), L is some differential operator ( $L = d^2/dx^2$  in the BVP example we've studied previously), and f is some specified function. We will generically denote an FDA of (1) by

$$\hat{L}\hat{u} = \hat{f} \tag{2}$$

where  $\hat{u}$  is the discrete solution,  $\hat{f}$  is the specified function evaluated on the finite-difference mesh, and  $\hat{L}$  is the finite-difference approximation to L.

**Truncation Error:** The truncation error,  $\hat{\tau}$ , of an FDA is defined by

$$\hat{\tau} \equiv \hat{L}u - \hat{f} \tag{3}$$

where u satisfies the continuum system (1). We note that the *form* of the truncation error can always be computed (typically using Taylor series expansions) from the finite difference approximation and the differential equations—we will see an example shortly.

Order of a Finite-Difference Approximation: Assuming that the FDA is characterized by a *single* discretization scale, h, we say that the FDA is p-th order accurate or simply p-th order if

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \hat{\tau} = O(h^p) \qquad \text{for some integer } p \tag{4}$$

**Solution Error:** The solution error,  $\hat{e}$ , associated with an FDA is defined by

$$\hat{e} \equiv u - \hat{u} \tag{5}$$

### Relation Between Truncation Error and Solution Error

Is is common to tacitly assume that

$$\hat{\tau} = O(h^p)$$
 implies  $\hat{e} = O(h^p)$ 

This assumption is often warranted but it is extremely instructive to consider why it is warranted and to investigate in some detail the *nature* of the solution error,  $\hat{e}$ , for a simple yet representative example.

## Example

Consider one of the simplest possible differential systems:

$$L u(x) \equiv \left(\frac{d}{dx} - 1\right) u(x) = 0$$
 on  $0 \le x \le 1$  with  $u(0) = 1$  (6)

Clearly, the unique solution of this DE is

$$u(x) = e^x$$
.

We introduce a uniform finite-difference mesh,  $x_j$ ,

$$x_j = jh, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$$
 where  $h = \frac{1}{n-1}$ 

and consider the following difference operators:

$$\Delta_{+}^{x} u_{j} \equiv h^{-1} \left( u_{j+1} - u_{j} \right) \tag{7}$$

$$\mu_+^x u_j \equiv \frac{1}{2} \left( u_{j+1} + u_j \right) \tag{8}$$

Now consider Taylor series expansions of  $\boldsymbol{u}_j$  and  $\boldsymbol{u}_{j+1}$  about

$$u_{j+\frac{1}{2}} \equiv u(x_{j+\frac{1}{2}}) \equiv u\left(\frac{1}{2}\left(x_j + x_{j+1}\right)\right) \equiv \bar{u}$$

We have

$$u_{j+1} = \bar{u} + \left(\frac{1}{2}h\right)\bar{u}' + \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{2}h\right)^2\bar{u}'' + \frac{1}{6}\left(\frac{1}{2}h\right)^3\bar{u}''' + \frac{1}{24}\left(\frac{1}{2}h\right)^4\bar{u}'''' + O(h^5)$$

$$u_{j} = \bar{u} - \left(\frac{1}{2}h\right)\bar{u}' + \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{2}h\right)^2\bar{u}'' - \frac{1}{6}\left(\frac{1}{2}h\right)^3\bar{u}''' + \frac{1}{24}\left(\frac{1}{2}h\right)^4\bar{u}'''' + O(h^5)$$

SO

$$\Delta_{+}^{x}u_{j} \equiv h^{-1}\left(u_{j+1} - u_{j}\right) = \bar{u}' + \frac{1}{24}h^{2}\bar{u}''' + O(h^{4}) \tag{9}$$

$$\mu_{+}^{x}u_{j} \equiv \frac{1}{2}\left(u_{j+1} + u_{j}\right) = \bar{u} + \frac{1}{8}h^{2}\bar{u}'' + O(h^{4}) \tag{10}$$

Thus, we can identify the difference operators,  $\Delta_{+}^{x}$  and  $\mu_{+}^{x}$ , with (formal) power series (in h) of differential operators:

$$\Delta_{+}^{x} \equiv \frac{d}{dx} + \frac{1}{24}h^{2}\frac{d^{3}}{dx^{3}} + O(h^{4}) \tag{11}$$

$$\mu_{+}^{x} \equiv 1 + \frac{1}{8}h^{2}\frac{d^{2}}{dx^{2}} + O(h^{4}) \tag{12}$$

We now write down our FDA of (6):

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} - 1\right) u(x) = 0 \longrightarrow (\Delta_+^x - \mu_+^x) u_j = 0 \tag{13}$$

(i.e.  $\hat{L} = \Delta_+^x - \mu_+^x$ ). Explicitly, we have

$$\frac{u_{j+1} - u_j}{h} = \frac{u_{j+1} + u_j}{2} \qquad j = 0, 1, \dots, n-2 \qquad \text{with} \quad u_0 = u(0) = 1 \quad (14)$$

Let us first consider the  $truncation\ error$  associated with (13,14):

$$\hat{\tau} \equiv \hat{L}u - \hat{f} = \hat{L}u = (\Delta_{+}^{x} - \mu_{+}^{x}) u$$

$$= \left(\frac{d}{dx} + \frac{1}{24}h^{2}\frac{d^{3}}{dx^{3}} - 1 - \frac{1}{8}h^{2}\frac{d^{2}}{dx^{2}} + O(h^{4})\right)\bar{u}$$

$$= \left(\frac{d}{dx} - 1\right)\bar{u} + h^{2}\left(\frac{1}{24}\frac{d^{3}}{dx^{3}} - \frac{1}{8}\frac{d^{2}}{dx^{2}}\right)\bar{u} + O(h^{4}) = O(h^{2})$$

where we have used the original differential equation (6) in the form

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} - 1\right) \, \bar{u} = 0.$$

Thus, since  $\hat{\tau} = O(h^2)$ , our FDA is second order. Note, however, that we had to be careful about choosing the x value about which we performed our Taylor series expansions—in general we must choose the expansion point which gives the highest-order truncation error or, intuitively, the point about which the scheme is naturally "centred".

The FDA (14) is sufficiently simple (and linear) that we can solve it explicitly:

$$\frac{u_{j+1} - u_j}{h} = \frac{u_{j+1} + u_j}{2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad u_{j+1} = \left(\frac{h^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}}{h^{-1} - \frac{1}{2}}\right) \; u_j = \left(\frac{1 + \frac{h}{2}}{1 - \frac{h}{2}}\right) \; u_j \equiv \rho \, u_j$$

where

$$\rho \equiv \frac{1 + \frac{h}{2}}{1 - \frac{h}{2}}$$

Thus we have

$$u_j = \rho^j u_0 = \rho^j \tag{15}$$

where  $\rho^j$  denotes the j-th power of  $\rho$  and we have used the initial condition  $u_0 = 1$ . Now, we can write  $\rho^j$  as follows:

$$\rho^{j} = \exp\left(j\ln\rho\right) = \exp\left(j\left(\ln\left(1 + \frac{h}{2}\right) - \ln\left(1 - \frac{h}{2}\right)\right)\right).$$

Then, using the Taylor series expansion

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + O(x^4)$$

we have

$$\ln\left(1 + \frac{h}{2}\right) - \ln\left(1 - \frac{h}{2}\right) = h + \frac{1}{12}h^3 + O(h^5)$$

so that

$$\rho^{j} = \exp\left(jh + (jh)\frac{1}{12}h^{2} + O(h^{4})\right) = \exp\left(jh\right)\exp\left(jh\frac{h^{2}}{12} + O(h^{4})\right)$$
$$= e^{x_{j}}\left(1 + \frac{h^{2}}{12}x_{j} + O(h^{4})\right)$$
$$= e^{x_{j}}\left(1 + \frac{1}{12}h^{2}x_{j} + O(h^{4})\right)$$

Thus, the *solution error*,  $\hat{e}$  is given by

$$\hat{e} = u - \hat{u} = -\frac{1}{12}h^2xe^x + O(h^4) = O(h^2)$$
(16)

Note in particular, the form of the solution error; to leading order it is

$$h^2 \times -\frac{1}{12}xe^x = -h^2 \times e_2(x)$$

where  $e_2(x)$  is a function  $(\frac{1}{12}xe^x)$  with smoothness (i.e. magnitude of derivatives) comparable to the continuum solution,  $u(x) = e^x$ .

There is another way to derive (16) which clearly illustrates the fundamental lesson concerning the errors in finite difference approximations.

Let us assume that u and  $\hat{u}$  are related by the asymptotic  $(h \to 0)$  expansion,

$$\hat{u} = u + h^2 e_2 + h^4 e_4 + \cdots {17}$$

which we call a *Richardson expansion* (after L.F. Richardson, who studied such matters in the early part of this century).

We start with the FDA

$$\hat{L}\,\hat{u} = 0 \quad \longrightarrow \quad (\Delta_+^x - \mu_+^x)\,\,\hat{u} = 0$$

and replace both  $\hat{L}$  and  $\hat{u}$  by their "continuum expansions" (11,12,17):

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} - 1 + h^2 \left(\frac{1}{24} \frac{d^3}{dx^3} - \frac{1}{8} \frac{d^2}{dx^2}\right) + O(h^4)\right) \left(u + h^2 e_2 + O(h^4)\right) = 0$$

We now demand that this equation vanish, order by order, in h. For the O(1) and  $O(h^2)$  cases we have

$$O(1):$$
  $\left(\frac{d}{dx}-1\right)u=0 \longrightarrow u=e^x \quad (consistency \text{ of FDA})$ 

$$O(h^2):$$
  $\left(\frac{d}{dx} - 1\right) e_2 = \left(\frac{1}{8}\frac{d^2}{dx^2} - \frac{1}{24}\frac{d^3}{dx^3}\right) u$ 

Thus, we see that the error function,  $e_2$ , itself satisfies a differential equation which is very similar in form to the original DE. Moreover, given that we know  $u(x) = e^x$ , we can solve this DE for  $e_2$ . Specifically, we have

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} - 1\right) e_2 = \frac{1}{12} e^x \longrightarrow e_2 = \frac{1}{12} x e^x \tag{18}$$

and since our original assumption (17) was

$$\hat{u} = u + h^2 e_2 + O(h^4) = u + \frac{1}{12}h^2 x e^x + O(h^4)$$

we get

$$\hat{e} \equiv u - \hat{u} = -\frac{1}{12}h^2xe^x + O(h^4)$$

as previously.

### Comments

Even in cases where we don't know the continuum solution (this clearly includes most of the interesting instances where we are likely to apply finite-difference techniques), it is still very useful to think of difference operators and difference solutions in terms of asymptotic expansions in powers of the mesh spacing, h:

$$\hat{L} = L + h^2 L_2 + h^4 L_4 + O(h^6)$$

$$\hat{u} = u + h^2 e_2 + h^4 e_4 + O(h^6)$$

so that

$$\hat{L}\,\hat{u} = \hat{f}$$

actually represents an (infinite) hierarchy of differential systems

$$Lu = f$$

$$L e_2 = -L_2 u$$

.

.

In other words, in FDA's of continuum systems, the error is not "random"—rather, in principle, it is no less computable than the fundamental solution itself.