

Numerical Integration of Partial Differential Equations (PDEs)

- Introduction to PDEs.
 - Semi-analytic methods to solve PDEs.
 - Introduction to Finite Differences.
 - Stationary Problems, Elliptic PDEs.
 - Time dependent Problems.
 - Complex Problems in Solar System Research.

Introduction to PDEs.

- Definition of Partial Differential Equations.
- Second Order PDEs.
 - Elliptic
 - Parabolic
 - Hyperbolic
- Linear, nonlinear and quasi-linear PDEs.
- What is a well posed problem?
- Boundary value Problems (stationary).
- Initial value problems (time dependent).

Differential Equations

- A differential equation is an equation for an unknown function of one or several variables that relates the values of the function itself and of its derivatives of various orders.
- Ordinary Differential Equation:
Function has 1 independent variable.
- Partial Differential Equation:
At least 2 independent variables.

Physical systems are often described by coupled Partial Differential Equations (PDEs)

- Maxwell equations
- Navier-Stokes and Euler equations
in fluid dynamics.
- MHD-equations in plasma physics
- Einstein-equations for general relativity
- ...
- ...

PDEs definitions

- General (implicit) form for one function $u(x,y)$:

$$F \left(x, y, u(x, y), \frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial y}, \dots, \frac{\partial^2 u(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y}, \dots \right) = 0,$$

- Highest derivative defines order of PDE
- Explicit PDE \Rightarrow We can resolve the equation to the highest derivative of u .
- Linear PDE \Rightarrow PDE is linear in $u(x,y)$ and for all derivatives of $u(x,y)$
- Semi-linear PDEs are nonlinear PDEs, which are linear in the highest order derivative.

Linear PDEs of 2. Order

$$a(x, y) \frac{\partial^2 u(x, y)}{\partial x^2} + b(x, y) \frac{\partial^2 u(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y} + c(x, y) \frac{\partial^2 u(x, y)}{\partial y^2} + d(x, y) \frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial x} + e(x, y) \frac{\partial u(x, y)}{\partial y} + f(u, x, y) = 0$$

- $a(x, y)c(x, y) - b(x, y)^2 / 4 > 0$ Elliptic
- $a(x, y)c(x, y) - b(x, y)^2 / 4 = 0$ Parabolic
- $a(x, y)c(x, y) - b(x, y)^2 / 4 < 0$ Hyperbolic

Quasi-linear: coefficients depend on u and/or first derivative of u , but NOT on second derivatives.

PDEs and Quadratic Equations

- Quadratic equations in the form

$$Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0$$

describe cone sections.

- $a(x,y)c(x,y) - b(x,y)^2 / 4 > 0$ Ellipse
- $a(x,y)c(x,y) - b(x,y)^2 / 4 = 0$ Parabola
- $a(x,y)c(x,y) - b(x,y)^2 / 4 < 0$ Hyperbola

With coordinate transformations these equations can be written in the standard forms:

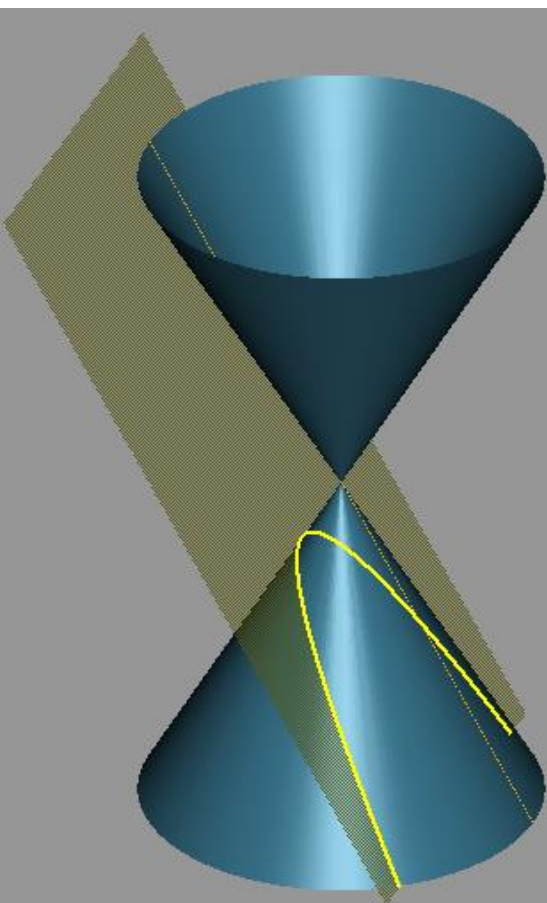
Ellipse: $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$

Parabola: $y^2 = 4ax$

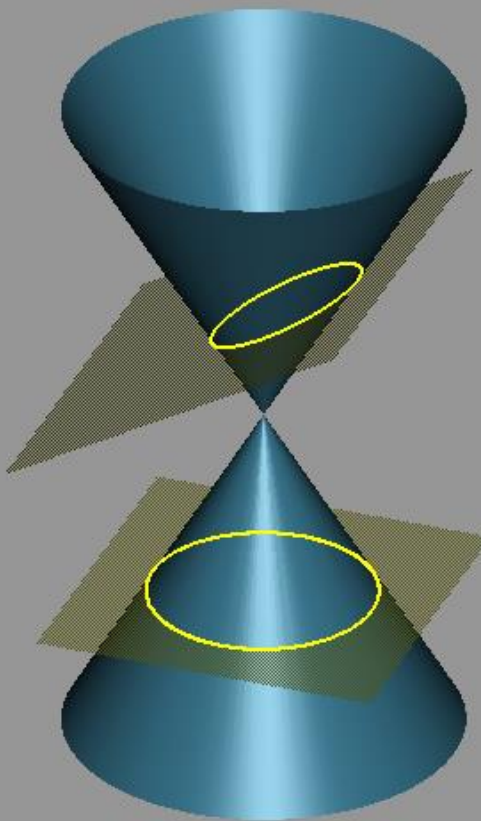
Hyperbola: $\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$

Coordinate transformations can be also applied to get rid of the mixed derivatives in PDEs.

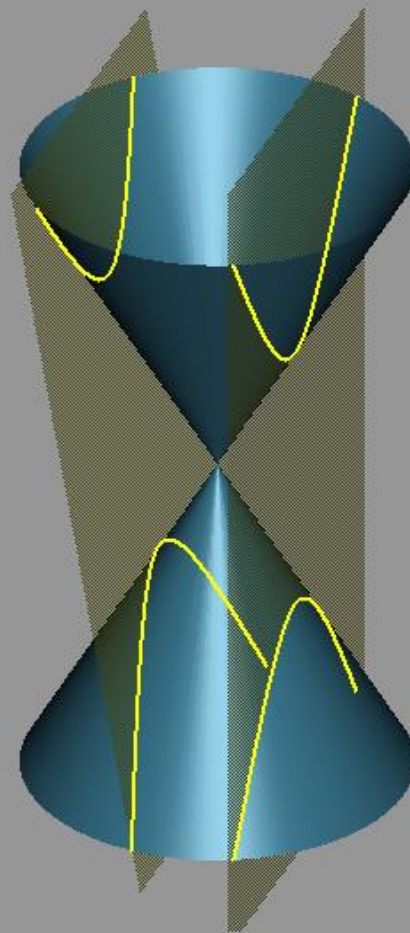
(For space dependent coefficients this is only possible locally, not globally)



Parabola- cutting plane
parallel to side of cone.



Circle and Ellipse



Hyperbolas

Linear PDEs of 2. Order

$$a(x,y)\frac{\partial^2 u(x,y)}{\partial x^2} + b(x,y)\frac{\partial^2 u(x,y)}{\partial x \partial y} + c(x,y)\frac{\partial^2 u(x,y)}{\partial y^2} + d(x,y)\frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial x} + e(x,y)\frac{\partial u(x,y)}{\partial y} + f(u,x,y) = 0$$

- Please note: We still speak of linear PDEs, even if the coefficients $a(x,y) \dots e(x,y)$ might be nonlinear in x and y .
- Linearity is required only in the unknown function u and all derivatives of u .
- Further simplification are:
 - constant coefficients a - e ,
 - vanishing mixed derivatives ($b=0$)
 - no lower order derivatives ($d=e=0$)
 - a vanishing function $f=0$.

Second Order PDEs with more than 2 independent variables

$$Lu = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_{i,j} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \quad \text{plus lower order terms} = 0.$$

Classification by eigenvalues of the coefficient matrix:

- **Elliptic:** All eigenvalues have the same sign. [Laplace-Eq.]
- **Parabolic:** One eigenvalue is zero. [Diffusion-Eq.]
- **Hyperbolic:** One eigenvalue has opposite sign. [Wave-Eq.]
- **Ultrahyperbolic:** More than one positive and negative eigenvalue.

Mixed types are possible for non-constant coefficients, appear frequently in science and are often difficult to solve.

Elliptic Equations

- Occurs mainly for stationary problems.
- Solved as boundary value problem.
- Solution is smooth if boundary conditions allow.

Example: Poisson and Laplace-Equation ($f=0$)

$$\nabla^2 \Phi = f$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i^2} \Phi(x) = f(x)$$

Parabolic Equations

- The vanishing eigenvalue often related to time derivative.
- Describes non-stationary processes.
- Solved as Initial- and Boundary-value problem.
- Discontinuities / sharp gradients smooth out during temporal evolution.

Example: Diffusion-Equation, Heat-conduction

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u(x, t) = a \cdot \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}u(x, t) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial t}u(\vec{r}, t) = a \cdot \Delta u(\vec{r}, t)$$

Hyperbolic Equations

- The opposite sign eigenvalue is often related to the time derivative.
- Initial- and Boundary value problem.
- Discontinuities / sharp gradients in initial state remain during temporal evolution.
- A typical example is the Wave equation.

$$c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} \quad \left(\Delta - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) u = 0$$

- With nonlinear terms involved sharp gradients can form during the evolution => Shocks

Well posed problems

(as defined by Hadamard 1902)

A problem is well posed if:

- A solution exists.
- The solution is unique.
- The solution depends continuously on the data (boundary and/or initial conditions).



Problems which do not fulfill these criteria are **ill-posed**.

Well posed problems have a good chance to be solved numerically with a stable algorithm.

Ill-posed problems

- Ill-posed problems play an important role in some areas, for example for inverse problems like tomography.
- Problem needs to be reformulated for numerical treatment.
- \Rightarrow Add additional constraints, for example smoothness of the solution.
- Input data need to be regularized / preprocessed.

Ill-conditioned problems

- Even well posed problems can be **ill-conditioned**.
- \Rightarrow Small changes (errors, noise) in data lead to large errors in the solution.
- Can occur if continuous problems are solved approximately on a numerical grid.
PDE \Rightarrow algebraic equation in form $Ax = b$
- **Condition number** of matrix A :

$$\kappa(A) = \left| \frac{\lambda_{\max}(A)}{\lambda_{\min}(A)} \right|$$

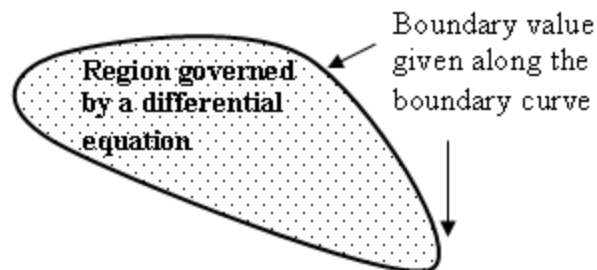
$\lambda_{\max}(A)$, $\lambda_{\min}(A)$ are maximal and minimal eigenvalues of A .

- Well conditioned problems have a **low condition number**.

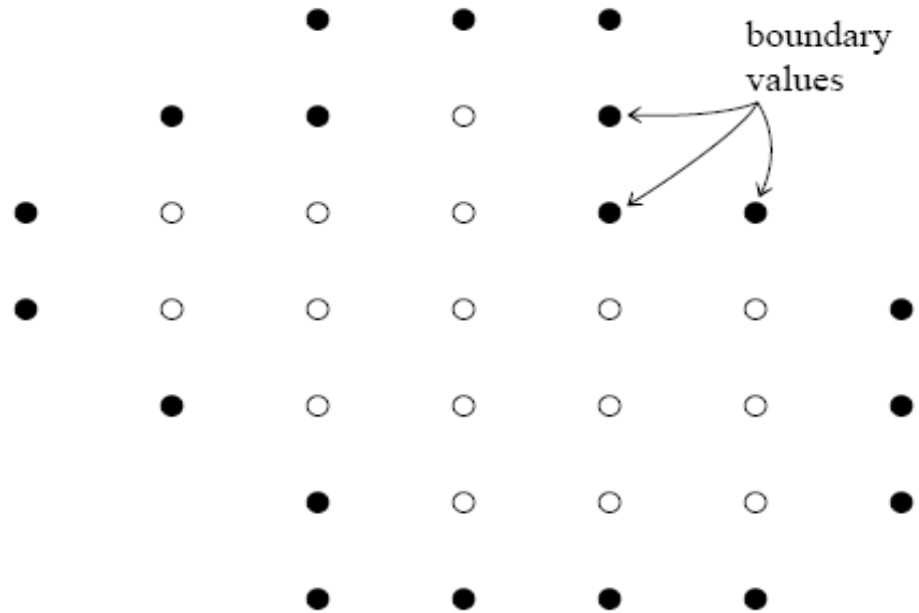
How to solve PDEs?

- PDEs are solved together with appropriate **Boundary Conditions** and/or **Initial Conditions**.
- **Boundary value problem**
 - Dirichlet B.C.:** Specify $u(x,y,...)$ on boundaries (say at $x=0$, $x=L_x$, $y=0$, $y=L_y$ in a rectangular box)
 - von Neumann B.C.:** Specify normal gradient of $u(x,y,...)$ on boundaries.

In principle boundary can be arbitrary shaped.
(but difficult to implement in computer codes)

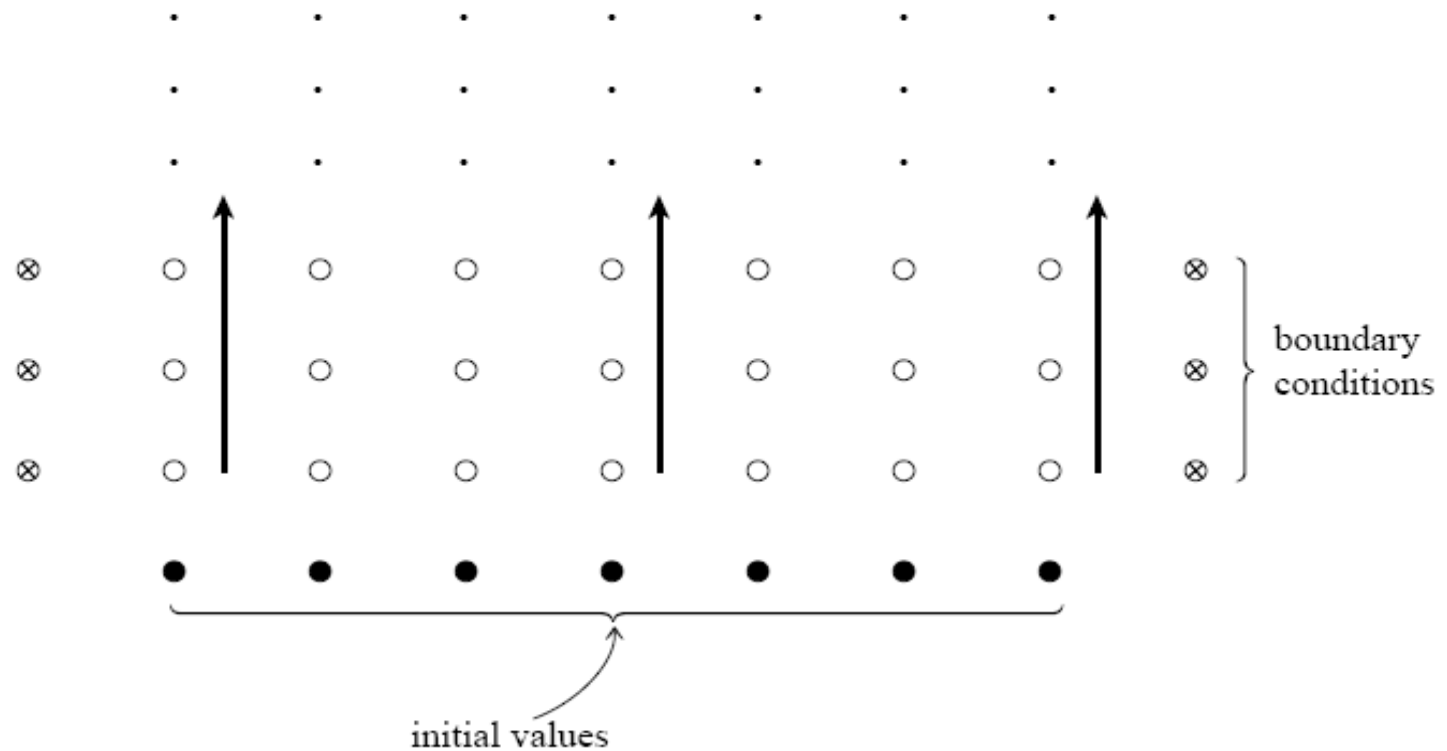


Boundary value problem



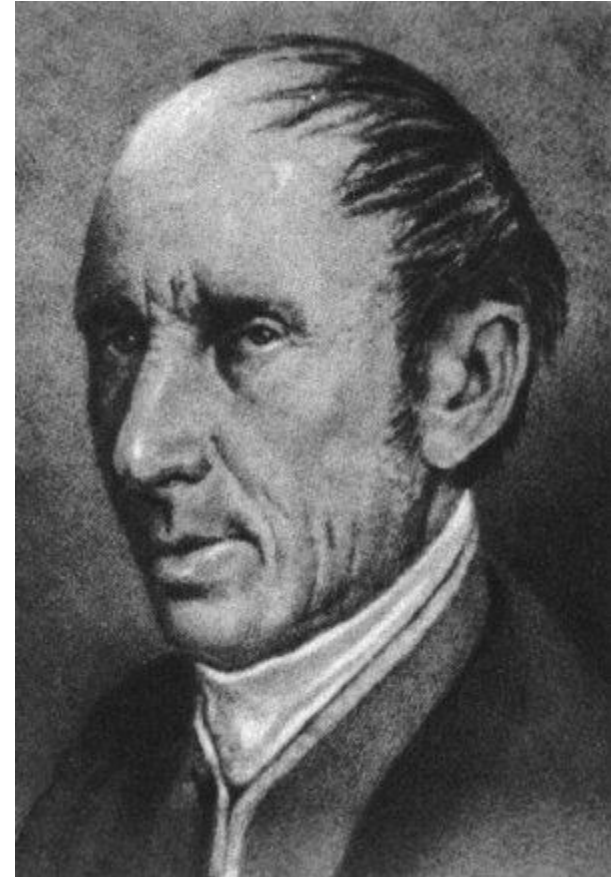
- **Initial value problem**
- Boundary values are usually specified on all boundaries of the computational domain.
- Initial conditions are specified in the entire computational (spatial) domain, but only for the initial time $t=0$.
- Initial conditions as a Cauchy problem:
 - Specify initial distribution $u(x,y,...,t=0)$
[for parabolic problems like the Heat equation]
 - Specify u and du/dt for $t=0$
[for hyperbolic problems like wave equation.]

Initial value problem



Cauchy Boundary conditions

- Cauchy B.C. impose both Dirichlet and Von Neumann B.C. on part of the boundary (for PDEs of 2. order).
- More general: For PDEs of order n the Cauchy problem specifies u and all derivatives of u , up to the order $n-1$ on parts of the boundary.
- In physics the Cauchy problem is often related to temporal evolution problems (initial conditions specified for $t=0$)



Augustin Louis Cauchy
1789-1857



Introduction to PDEs

Summary

- What is a well posed problem? Solution **exists**, is **unique**, **continuous** on boundary conditions.
- **Elliptic** (Poisson), **Parabolic** (Diffusion) and **Hyperbolic** (Wave) PDEs.
- PDEs are solved with **boundary conditions** and **initial conditions**.
- What are **Dirichlet** and von **Neumann** boundary conditions?

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Semi-analytic methods to solve PDEs.

- From systems of coupled first order PDEs (which are difficult to solve) to uncoupled PDEs of second order.
- Example: From Maxwell equations to wave equation.
- (Semi) analytic methods to solve the wave equation by separation of variables.
- Exercise: Solve Diffusion equation by separation of variables.

How to obtain uncoupled 2. order PDEs from physical laws?

- Example: From Maxwell equations to wave equations.
- Maxwell equations are a coupled system of first order vector PDEs.
- Can we reformulate this equations to a more simple form?
- Here we use the electromagnetic potentials, vectorpotential and scalar potential.

Maxwell equations

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{j} + \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho$$



James C. Maxwell
1831-1879

Maxwell Equations:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \times \mathbf{B} &= \mu_0 \mathbf{j} + \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \\ \nabla \times \mathbf{E} &= -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} &= 0 \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho\end{aligned}$$

We use the electromagnetic potentials

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{B} &= \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{E} &= -\nabla \Phi - \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t}\end{aligned}$$

together with the Lorenz Gauge condition (after Ludvig Lorenz 1829-1891). Lorenz Gauge is often wrongly referred to as Lorentz Gauge (after Hendrik Lorentz, who made many discoveries in electro dynamics, but has nothing to do with the Lorenz Gauge.)

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} = 0$$

With these definitions we get:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \times \nabla \times \mathbf{A} &= \mu_0 \mathbf{j} + \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(-\nabla \Phi - \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \right) \\ \nabla \times \left(-\nabla \Phi - \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \right) &= -\frac{\partial \nabla \times \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \quad \checkmark \\ \nabla \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{A} &= 0 \quad \checkmark \\ \nabla \cdot \left(-\nabla \Phi - \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \right) &= \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho\end{aligned}$$

We use the vector identity $\nabla \times \nabla \times \mathbf{A} = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) - \Delta \mathbf{A}$
and the definition $\epsilon_0 \mu_0 = \frac{1}{c^2}$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) - \Delta \mathbf{A} &= \mu_0 \mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(-\nabla \Phi - \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \right) \\ -\Delta \Phi - \frac{\partial(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A})}{\partial t} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho\end{aligned}$$

After reordering the terms in the first equation:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \left(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} \right) - \Delta \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{A}}{\partial t^2} &= \mu_0 \mathbf{j} \\ -\Delta \Phi - \frac{\partial(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A})}{\partial t} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho\end{aligned}$$

Finally we use the Lorenz Gauge and derive Wave equations:

$$\begin{aligned}-\Delta \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{A}}{\partial t^2} &= \mu_0 \mathbf{j} \\ -\Delta \Phi + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial t^2} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho\end{aligned}$$

What do we win with wave equations?

- Inhomogenous coupled system of Maxwell reduces to wave equations.
- We get 2. order scalar PDEs for components of electric and magnetic potentials.
- Equation are not coupled and have same form.
- Well known methods exist to solve these wave equations.

Wave equation

- Electric charges and currents on right side of wave-equation can be computed from other sources:
- Moments of electron and ion-distribution in space-plasma.
- The particle-distributions can be derived from numerical simulations, e.g. by solving the Vlasov equation for each species.
- Here we study the wave equation in vacuum for simplicity.

Wave equation in vacuum

$$-\Delta \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{A}}{\partial t^2} = 0$$

$$-\Delta \Phi + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial t^2} = 0$$

(Semi-) analytic methods

- Example: Homogenous wave equation

$$-\Delta \Phi + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial t^2} = 0$$

- Can be solved by any analytic function $f(x-ct)$ and $g(x+ct)$.
- As the homogenous wave equation is a linear equation any linear combination of f and g is also a solution of the PDE.
- This property can be used to specify boundary and initial conditions. The appropriate coefficients have to be found often numerically.

Semi-analytic method: Variable separation

$$c^2 \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial t^2}$$

We define: $\frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial x^2} \equiv \Phi''$, $\frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial t^2} \equiv \ddot{\Phi}$

Solve PDE by separation of variables:

$$\Phi(x, t) = \Phi_1(t) \cdot \Phi_2(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow c^2 \Phi_1 \cdot \Phi_2'' = \ddot{\Phi}_1 \Phi_2 \quad \text{Devide by } c^2 \Phi_1 \Phi_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Phi_2''}{\Phi_2} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\ddot{\Phi}_1}{\Phi_1} = -k^2 \quad \text{Arbitrary constant } k.$$

Left side is only function of x and right only of t .

$$\Phi_2'' = -k^2 \Phi_2, \quad \ddot{\Phi}_1 = -k^2 c^2 \Phi_1$$

The ODEs have the solutions:

$$\Phi_2 = \exp(\pm i k x), \quad \Phi_1 = \exp(\pm i k c t)$$

Or if you do not like complex functions:

$$\Phi_2 = \sin(kx), \cos(kx), \quad \Phi_1 = \sin(kct), \cos(kct)$$

Any combination (4 possibilities) is a solution of our PDE!

We normalize k with the box length L_x by $\hat{k} = \frac{2\pi}{L_x} k$

Let's talk about Boundary Conditions. For example:

$$\Phi(0, t) = \Phi(L_x, t) = 0 \Rightarrow \cos(kx) \text{ terms eliminated.}$$

Semi-analytic method: Variable separation

Now lets apply initial conditions for Φ and $\dot{\Phi}$

$$\Phi(x, 0) = \rho(x) \text{ (arbitrary) and } \dot{\Phi}(x, 0) = 0$$

$$\dot{\Phi}(x, 0) = 0 \Rightarrow \sin(kc t) \text{ terms eliminated.}$$

A particular solution of the PDE is:

$$\Phi_k(x, t) = \sin\left(\frac{k\pi}{L_x} x\right) \cdot \cos\left(\frac{kc\pi}{L_x} t\right)$$

Our PDE is linear \Rightarrow

Superposition of particular solutions is also a solution:

$$\Phi(x, t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \cdot \sin\left(\frac{k\pi}{L_x} x\right) \cdot \cos\left(\frac{kc\pi}{L_x} t\right)$$

Semi-analytic method: Variable separation

How to apply the initial condition $\Phi(x, 0) = \rho(x)$?

Fourier series: $\Phi(x, 0) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \cdot \sin(\frac{k\pi}{L_x} x)$

with $a_k = \frac{2}{L_x} \int_0^{L_x} \sin(\frac{k\pi}{L_x} x) \cdot \rho(x) dx$

Provides us the required initial conditions and fixes the coefficients a_k . Usually we have to evaluate the integral for a_k numerically. (That's why we call the method semi-analytic). For practical computations we do not use an infinity number of modes k , but maximal the number of grid points n_x in the x -direction.

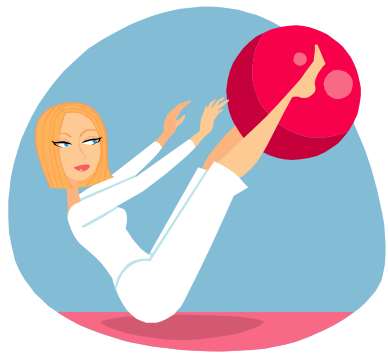
$$\Phi(x, t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n_x} a_k \cdot \sin(\frac{k\pi}{L_x} x) \cdot \cos(\frac{kc\pi}{L_x} t)$$

Semi-analytic method: Variable separation

Show: `demo_wave_sep.pro`



This is an IDL-program to
animate the wave-equation



Exercise:

1D diffusion equation

`lecture_diffusion_draft.pro`

This is a draft IDL-program to solve the diffusion equation by separation of variables.

Task: Find separable solutions for Dirichlet and von Neumann boundary conditions and implement them.



Semi-analytic methods

Summary

- Some (mostly) linear PDEs with constant coefficients can be solved analytically.
- One possibility is the method ‘**Separation of variables**’, which leads to ordinary differential equations.
- For **linear** PDEs.: **Superposition** of different solutions is also a solution of the PDE.

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Introduction to Finite Differences.

- Remember the definition of the differential quotient.
- How to compute the differential quotient with a finite number of grid points?
- First order and higher order approximations.
- Central and one-sided finite differences.
- Accuracy of methods for smooth and not smooth functions.
- Higher order derivatives.

Numerical methods

- Most PDEs cannot be solved analytically.
- Variable separation works only for some simple cases and in particular usually not for inhomogenous and/or nonlinear PDEs.
- Numerical methods require that the PDE become discretized on a grid.
- **Finite difference methods** are popular/ most commonly used in science. They replace differential equation by difference equations)
- Engineers (and a growing number of scientists too) often use **Finite Elements**.

Finite differences

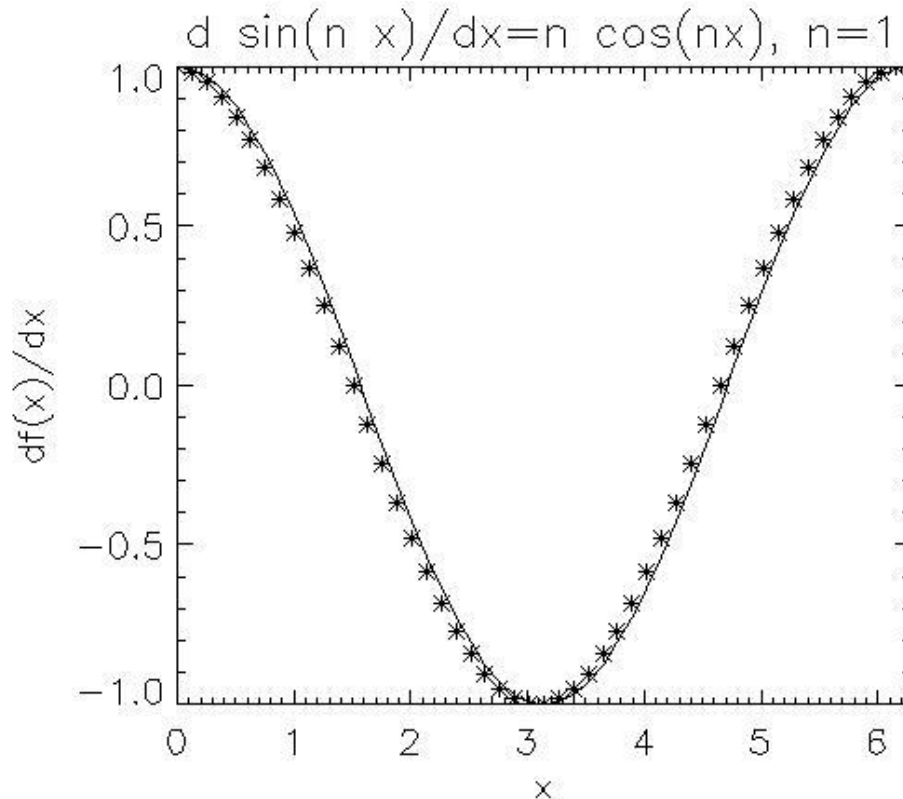
Remember the definition of differential quotient:

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

- How to compute differential quotient numerically?
- Just apply the formular above for a finite **h**.
- For simplicity we use an equidistant grid in $x=[0,h,2h,3h,\dots,(n-1)h]$ and evaluate $f(x)$ on the corresponding grid points x_i .
- Grid resolution h must be sufficient high.
Depends strongly on function $f(x)$!

Accuracy of finite differences

We approximate the derivative of $f(x)=\sin(n x)$ on a grid $x=0 \dots 2 \text{ Pi}$ with 50 (and 500) grid points by $\mathbf{df/dx=(f(x+h)-f(x))/h}$ and compare with the exact solution $df/dx= n \cos(n x)$



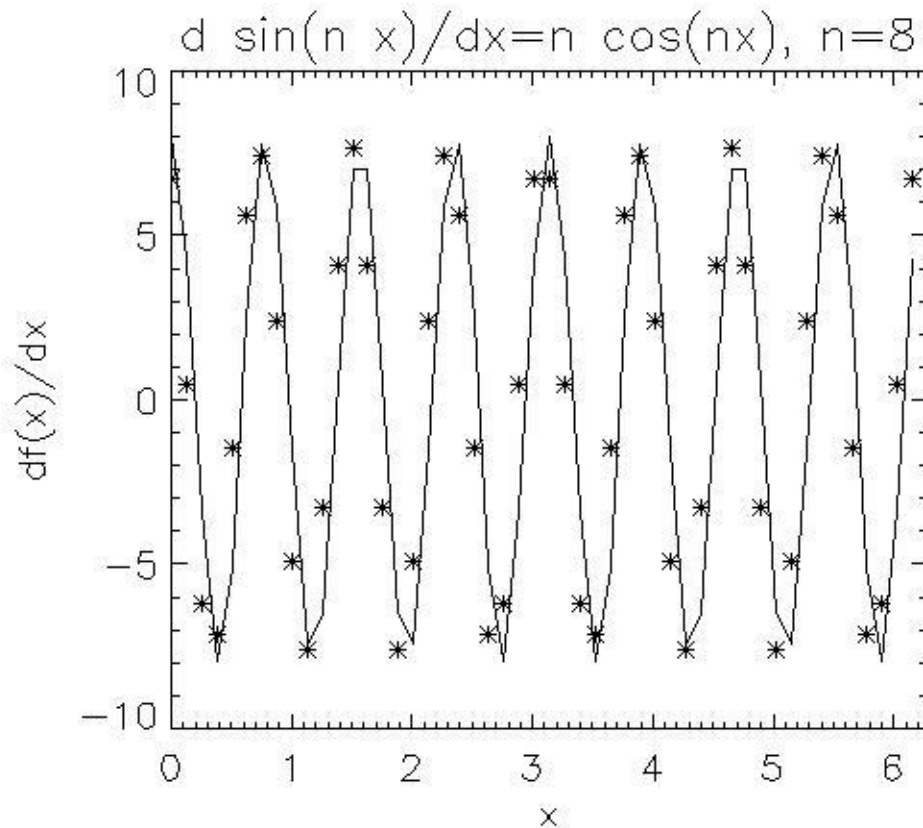
Average error done by discretisation:

50 grid points: 0.040

500 grid points: 0.004

Accuracy of finite differences

We approximate the derivative of $f(x)=\sin(n x)$ on a grid $x=0 \dots 2 \text{ Pi}$ with 50 (and 500) grid points by $\mathbf{df/dx=(f(x+h)-f(x))/h}$ and compare with the exact solution $df/dx= n \cos(n x)$

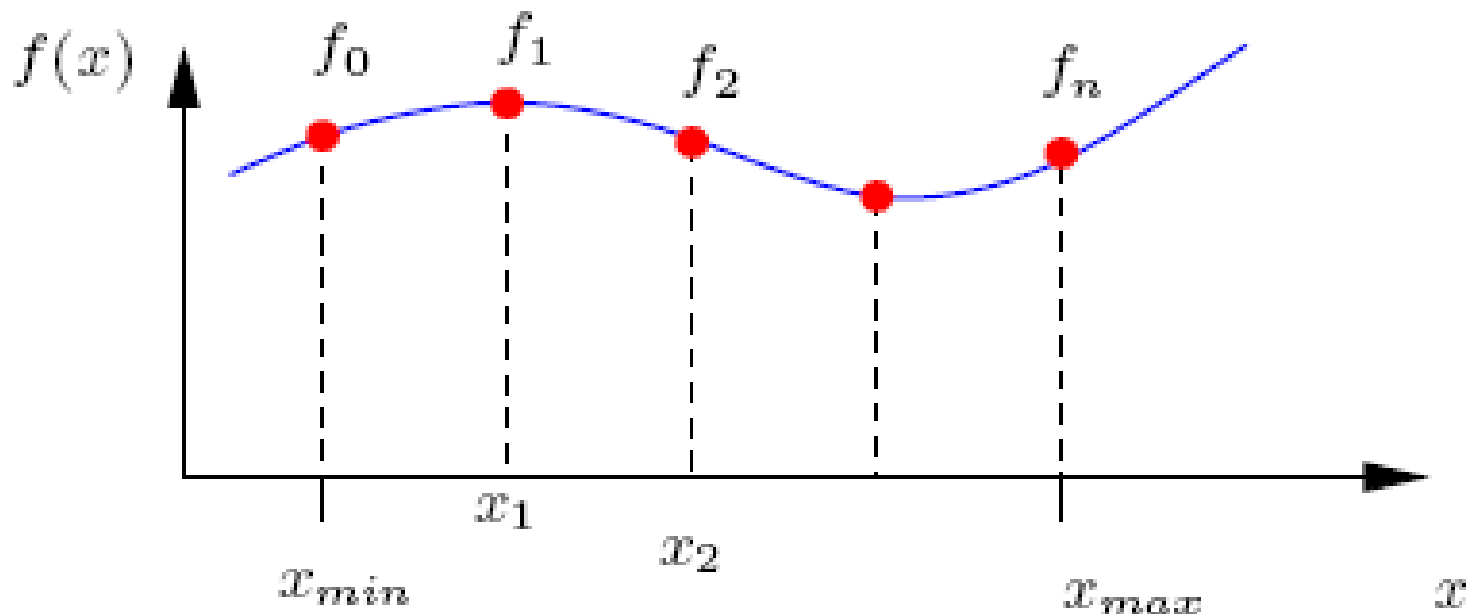


Average error done by discretisation:

50 grid points: 2.49

500 grid points: 0.256

Higher accuracy methods



Can we use more points for higher accuracy?

Higher accuracy: Central differences

- $df/dx=(f(x+h)-f(x))/h$ computes the derivative at $x+h/2$ and not exactly at x .
- The alternative formula $df/dx=(f(x)-f(x-h))/h$ has the same shortcomings.
- We introduce **central differences**:
 $df/dx=(f(x+h)-f(x-h))/(2 h)$ which provides the derivative at x .
- Central differences are of 2. order accuracy instead of 1. order for the simpler methods above.

How to find higher order formulas?

For sufficient smooth functions we describe the function $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ locally by polynomial of \mathbf{n} th order. To do so $\mathbf{n}+1$ grid points are required. \mathbf{n} defines the **order** of the scheme.

Make a Taylor expansion (Definition $x_{i+1} = x_i + \Delta x$):

$$\begin{aligned}f_{i+1} &= f_i + \Delta x f'(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} f''(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^3}{6} f'''(x_i) + O(\Delta x^4) \\f_{i-1} &= f_i - \Delta x f'(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} f''(x_i) - \frac{\Delta x^3}{6} f'''(x_i) + O(\Delta x^4) \\f_{i+2} &= f_i + 2\Delta x f'(x_i) + 2\Delta x^2 f''(x_i) + \frac{4\Delta x^3}{3} f'''(x_i) + O(\Delta x^4)\end{aligned}$$

How to find higher order formulars?

And by linear combination we get the central difference:

$$f'(x_i) = \frac{f_{i+1} - f_{i-1}}{2\Delta x} + O(\Delta x^2)$$

At boundary points central differences might not be possible (because the point $i-1$ does not exist at the boundary $i=0$), but we can still find schemes of the same order by **one-sited** (here **right-sited**) derivative:

$$f'(x_i) = \frac{4f_{i+1} - f_{i+2} - 3f_i}{2\Delta x} + O(\Delta x^2)$$

Alternatives to one sited derivatives are periodic boundary conditions or to introduce ghost-cells.

Higher derivatives

How to derive higher derivatives?

From the Taylor expansion

$$f_{i+1} = f_i + \Delta x f'(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} f''(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^3}{6} f'''(x_i) + O(\Delta x^4)$$

$$f_{i-1} = f_i - \Delta x f'(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} f''(x_i) - \frac{\Delta x^3}{6} f'''(x_i) + O(\Delta x^4)$$

we derive by a linear combination:

$$f''(x_i) = \frac{f_{i+1} - 2f_i + f_{i-1}}{\Delta x^2} + O(\Delta x^2)$$

Basic formular used to discretise
2.order Partial Differencial Equations

Higher order methods

By using more points (higher order polynomials) to approximate $f(x)$ locally we can get higher orders, e.g. by an appropriate combination of

$$f_{i+1} = f_i + \Delta x f'(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} f''(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^3}{6} f'''(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^4}{24} f^{(4)}(x_i) + O(\Delta x^5)$$

$$f_{i+2} = f_i + 2\Delta x f'(x_i) + 2\Delta x^2 f''(x_i) + \frac{4\Delta x^3}{3} f'''(x_i) + \frac{2\Delta x^4}{3} f^{(4)}(x_i) + O(\Delta x^5)$$

$$f_{i-1} = f_i - \Delta x f'(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} f''(x_i) - \frac{\Delta x^3}{6} f'''(x_i) + \frac{\Delta x^4}{24} f^{(4)}(x_i) + O(\Delta x^5)$$

$$f_{i-2} = f_i - 2\Delta x f'(x_i) + 2\Delta x^2 f''(x_i) - \frac{4\Delta x^3}{3} f'''(x_i) + \frac{2\Delta x^4}{3} f^{(4)}(x_i) + O(\Delta x^5)$$

we get 4th order central differences:

$$f'(x_i) = \frac{-f_{i+2} + 8f_{i+1} - 8f_{i-1} + f_{i-2}}{12\Delta x} + O(\Delta x^4)$$

Accuracy of finite differences

We approximate the derivative of $f(x)=\sin(n x)$ on a grid $x=0 \dots 2 \text{ Pi}$ with 50 (and 500) grid points with 1th, 2th and 4th order schemes:

	1th order	2th order	4th order
n=1, 50 pixel	0.04	0.0017	$5.4 \cdot 10^{-6}$
n=1, 500 pixel	0.004	$1.7 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$4.9 \cdot 10^{-6}$
n=8, 50 pixel	2.49	0.82	0.15
n=8, 500 pixel	0.26	0.0086	$4.5 \cdot 10^{-5}$
n=20, 50 pixel	13.5	9.9	8.1
n=20, 500 pix.	1.60	0.13	0.0017

What scheme to use?

- Higher order schemes give significant better results only for problems which are smooth with respect to the used grid resolution.
- Implementation of high order schemes makes more effort and take longer computing time, in particular for solving PDEs.
- Popular and a kind of standard are **second order methods**.
- If we want to feed our PDE-solver with (usually unsmooth) observed data higher order schemes can cause additional problems.



Finite differences

Summary

- **Differential quotient** is approximated by **finite differences** on a discrete numerical grid.
- Popular are in particular **central differences**, which are second order accurate.
- The **grid resolution** should be high enough, so that the discretized **functions appear smooth**.
=> Physical gradients should be on larger scales as the grid resolution.