

# The Finite Difference Method

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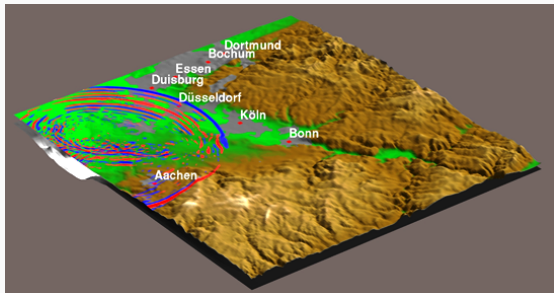
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# Introduction

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# Motivation



## General

- Simple concept
- Robust
- Easy to parallelize
- Regular grids
- Explicit method

# History

- **Pioneers** of solving PDEs with finite-difference method (Lewis Fry Richardson, Richard Southwell, Richard Courant, Kurt Friedrichs, Hans Lewy, Peter Lax and John von Neumann)
- First application to **elastic wave propagation** (Alterman and Karal, 1968)
- Simulation of **Love waves**, first **snapshots** of seismic wave fields (Boore, 1970)
- Concept of **staggered-grids** by solving the problem of rupture propagation (Madariaga, 1976 and Virieux and Madariaga, 1982)

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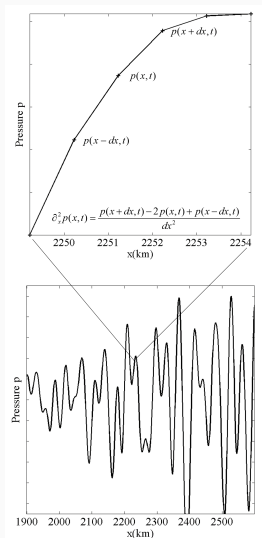
- Extension to 3D for **parallel computations** (Frankel and Vidale, 1992; Olsen and Archuleta, 1996; etc.)
- Application to **spherical geometry** by Igel and Weber, 1995; Chaljub and Tarantola, 1997 and 3D spherical sections by Igel et al., 2002
- Incorporation in the first **full waveform inversion** schemes initially in 2D, e.g. (Crase et al., 1990) and later in 3D (Chen et al., 2007)



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# Finite Differences in a Nutshell



- Snapshot in space of the pressure field  $p$
- Zoom into the wave field with grid points indicated by +
- Differencing using Taylor series

# Scalar wave equation

## 1D acoustic wave equation

$$\ddot{p}(x, t) = c(x)^2 \partial_x^2 p(x, t) + s(x, t)$$

- p pressure
- c acoustic velocity
- s source term

## Approximation with a difference formula

$$\ddot{p}(x, t) \approx \frac{p(x, t + dt) - 2p(x, t) + p(x, t - dt)}{dt^2}$$

and equivalently for the space derivative

# Finite Differences and Taylor Series

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# Finite Differences

## Forward derivative

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

## Centered derivative

$$d_x f(x) = \lim_{dx \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + dx) - f(x - dx)}{2dx}$$

## Backward derivative

$$d_x f(x) = \lim_{dx \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(x - dx)}{dx}$$

# Finite Differences

## Forward derivative

$$d_x f^+ \approx \frac{f(x + dx) - f(x)}{dx}$$

## Centered derivative

$$d_x f^c \approx \frac{f(x + dx) - f(x - dx)}{2dx}$$

## Backward derivative

$$d_x f^- \approx \frac{f(x) - f(x - dx)}{dx}$$

## Finite Differences and Taylor Series

The approximate sign is important here as the derivatives at point  $x$  are not exact. Understanding the accuracy by looking at the definition of Taylor Series:

$$f(x + dx) = f(x) + f'(x) dx + \frac{1}{2!} f''(x) dx^2 + O(dx^3)$$

Subtraction with  $f(x)$  and division by  $dx$  leads to the definition of the forward derivative:

$$\frac{f(x+dx)-f(x)}{dx} = f'(x) + \frac{1}{2!} f''(x) dx + O(dx^2)$$



## Finite Differences and Taylor Series

Using the same approach - adding the Taylor Series for  $f(x + dx)$  and  $f(x - dx)$  and dividing by  $2dx$  leads to:

$$\frac{f(x+dx) - f(x-dx)}{2dx} = f'(x) + O(dx^2)$$

This implies a centered finite-difference scheme more rapidly converges to the correct derivative on a regular grid

⇒ It matters which of the approximate formula one chooses

⇒ It does not imply that one or the other finite-difference approximation is always the better one

# Higher Derivatives

The partial differential equations have often 2nd (seldom higher) derivatives  
Developing from first derivatives by mixing a forward and a backward definition yields

$$\partial_x^2 f \approx \frac{\frac{f(x+dx)-f(x)}{dx} - \frac{f(x)-f(x-dx)}{dx}}{dx} = \frac{f(x+dx) - 2f(x) + f(x-dx)}{dx^2}$$

## Higher Derivatives - Alternative derivation

Determining the weights with which the function values have to be multiplied to obtain derivative approximations ...

$$a f(x + dx) = a \left[ f(x) + f'(x) dx + \frac{1}{2!} f''(x) dx^2 + \dots \right]$$

$$b f(x) = b [f(x)]$$

$$c f(x - dx) = c \left[ f(x) - f'(x) dx + \frac{1}{2!} f''(x) dx^2 - \dots \right]$$

## Higher Derivatives - Alternative derivation

How to determine a, b, and c?

$$\begin{aligned} &af(x+dx) + bf(x) + cf(x-dx) \approx \\ &\quad f(x)[a + b + c] \\ &\quad + dx f' [a - c] \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2!} dx^2 f'' [a + c] \end{aligned}$$

## Higher Derivatives - Alternative derivation

To obtain a 2nd derivative we require

$$a + b + c = 0$$

$$a \quad - c = 0$$

$$a \quad + c = \frac{2!}{dx^2}$$

## Higher Derivatives - Alternative derivation

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{2!}{dx} \end{pmatrix}$$

**A**                      **w**      =      **s**

with solution

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{s}$$

$$a = \frac{1}{dx^2}$$

$$b = -\frac{2}{dx^2}$$

$$c = \frac{1}{dx^2}$$

# Finite-Difference Approximation of Wave Equations

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# Acoustic waves in 1D

To solve the wave equation, we start with the simplest wave equation:

The constant density acoustic wave equation in 1D

$$\ddot{p} = c^2 \partial_x^2 p + s$$

imposing pressure-free conditions at the two boundaries  
as

$$p(x) \big|_{x=0,L} = 0$$



## Acoustic waves in 1D

The following dependencies apply:

$p \rightarrow p(\mathbf{x}, t)$	pressure
$c \rightarrow c(\mathbf{x})$	P-velocity
$s \rightarrow s(\mathbf{x}, t)$	source term

As a first step we need to discretize space and time and we do that with a constant increment that we denote  $dx$  and  $dt$ .

$$\begin{aligned}x_j &= jdx, & j &= 0, j_{max} \\t_n &= ndt, & n &= 0, n_{max}\end{aligned}$$

## Acoustic waves in 1D

Starting from the continuous description of the partial differential equation to a discrete description. The upper index will correspond to the time discretization, the lower index will correspond to the spatial discretization

$$p_j^{n+1} \rightarrow p(x_j, t_n + dt)$$

$$p_j^n \rightarrow p(x_j, t_n)$$

$$p_j^{n-1} \rightarrow p(x_j, t_n - dt)$$

$$p_{j+1}^n \rightarrow p(x_j + dx, t_n)$$

$$p_j^n \rightarrow p(x_j, t_n)$$

$$p_{j-1}^n \rightarrow p(x_j - dx, t_n)$$

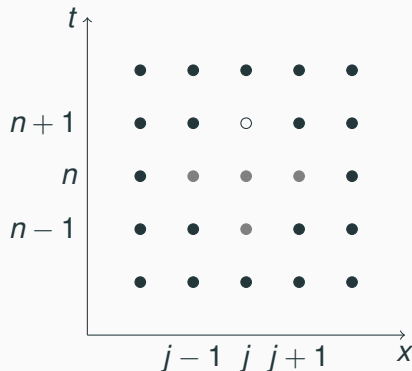
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## Acoustic waves in 1D

$$\frac{p_j^{n+1} - 2p_j^n + p_j^{n-1}}{\Delta t^2} = c_j^2 \left[ \frac{p_{j+1}^n - 2p_j^n + p_{j-1}^n}{\Delta x^2} \right] + s_j^n.$$

the r.h.s. is defined at same time level  $n$

the l.h.s. requires information from three different time levels



## Acoustic waves in 1D

Assuming that information at time level  $n$  (the presence) and  $n - 1$  (the past) is known, we can solve for the unknown field  $p_j^{n+1}$ :

$$p_j^{n+1} = c_j^2 \frac{dt^2}{dx^2} [p_{j+1}^n - 2p_j^n + p_{j-1}^n] + 2p_j^n - p_j^{n-1} + dt^2 s_j^n$$

The initial condition of our wave simulation problem is such that everything is at rest at time  $t = 0$ :

$$p(x, t)|_{t=0} = 0, \quad \dot{p}(x, t)|_{t=0} = 0.$$

## Acoustic waves in 1D

Waves begin to radiate as soon as the source term  $s(x, t)$  starts to act

For simplicity: the source acts directly at a grid point with index  $j_s$

Temporal behaviour of the source can be calculated by Green's function

$$s(x, t) = \delta(x - x_s) \delta(t - t_s)$$

where  $x_s$  and  $t_s$  are source location and source time and  $\delta()$  corresponds to the delta function

A delta function contains all frequencies and we cannot expect that our numerical algorithm is capable of providing accurate solutions. Operating with a band-limited source-time function:

$$s(x, t) = \delta(x - x_s) f(t)$$

where the temporal behaviour  $f(t)$  is chosen according to our specific physical problem

## Example

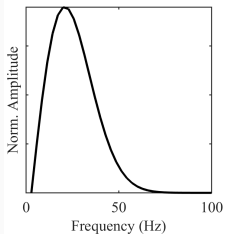
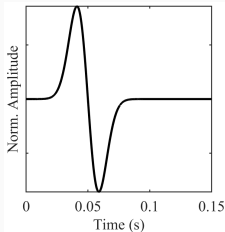
Simulating acoustic wave propagation in a 10km column (e.g. the atmosphere) and assume an air sound speed of  $c = 0.343m/s$ . We would like to *hear* the sound wave so it would need a dominant frequency of at least 20 Hz. For the purpose of this exercise we initialize the source time function  $f(t)$  using the first derivative of a Gauss function.

$$f(t) = -8 f_0 (t - t_0) e^{-\frac{1}{(4f_0)^2} (t-t_0)^2}$$

where  $t_0$  corresponds to the time of the zero-crossing,  $f_0$  is the dominant frequency



## Example



- What is the minimum spatial wavelength that propagates inside the medium?
- What is the maximum velocity inside the medium?
- What is the propagation distance of the wavefield (e.g., in dominant wavelengths)?

## Example

Sufficient to look at the relation between frequency and wavenumber:

$$c = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{\lambda}{T} = \lambda f$$

where  $c$  is velocity,  $T$  is period,  $\lambda$  is wavelength,  $f$  is frequency, and  $\omega = 2\pi f$  is angular frequency

dominant wavelength of  $f_0 = 20\text{Hz}$

substantial amount of energy in the wavelet is at frequencies above 20 Hz

$\implies \lambda = 17\text{m}$  and  $\lambda = 7\text{m}$  for frequencies 20Hz and 50Hz, respectively

## Python code fragment

```
# 1D Wave Propagation (Finite Difference Solution)
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# Loop over time
for it in range(nt):

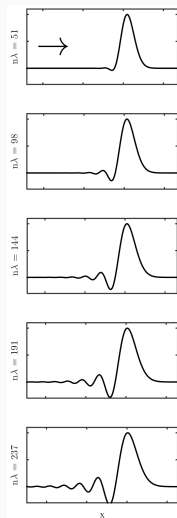
    # 2nd derivative in space
    for i in range(1, nx - 1):
        d2px[i] = (p[i + 1] - 2 * p[i] + p[i - 1]) / dx ** 2

    # Time Extrapolation
    # -----
    pnew = 2 * p - pold + c ** 2 * dt ** 2 * d2px

    # Add Source Term at isrc
    # -----
    # Absolute pressure w.r.t analytical solution
    pnew[isrc] = pnew[isrc] + src[it] / (dx) * dt ** 2

    # Remap Time Levels
    # -----
    pold, p = p, pnew
```

# Result



Choosing a grid increment of  $dx = 0.5m \rightarrow$   
about 24 points per spatial wavelength for the  
dominant frequency

Setting time increment  $dt = 0.0012 \rightarrow$  around  
40 points per dominant period

# Summary

- Replacing the partial derivatives by finite differences allows partial differential equations such as the wave equation to be solved directly for (in principle) arbitrarily heterogeneous media
- The accuracy of finite-difference operators can be improved by using information from more grid points (i.e., longer operators). The weights for the grid points can be obtained using Taylor series