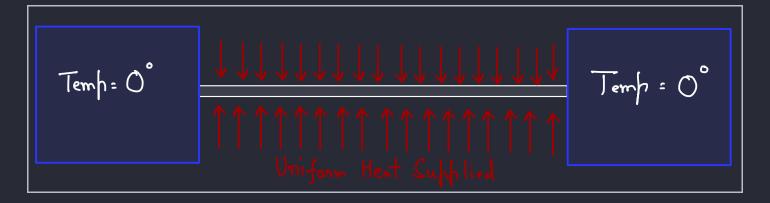
Lecture 2: Differential and Difference Equations

Introduction

Consider a scenario where a thin bar is put on an infinite block of ice at both ends and there a blowtorch heating it along it's length. The task is to find the temperature at several locations along the bar when it reaches steady state (i.e. after a very very long time of heating).



The differential equation (with boundary conditions) explaining this phenomenon is given as

$$-rac{d^2u}{dx^2} = f(x) = 1; \qquad \quad u(0) = 0, u(1) = 0$$
 (1)

where u(x) is the temperature at location $x \in [0,1]$ and the "ice at the ends" mean the temperature at u(0) = u(1) = 0 always! The heat from blowtorch is represented using the function f(x) and it's set to a constant because it's uniform.

Let's look at this differential equation analytically. What we need is some function u(x) that satisfies $-\frac{d^2u}{dx^2}=1$. In other words, the second derivative of u(x) should be -1. A function $u(x)=-\frac{1}{2}x^2$ satisfies this differential equation. So does another function $u(x)=-\frac{1}{2}x^2+Cx+D$, where C and D can be any constants! This is where Boundary

Conditions come in and fix C and D values! This way we get an exact solution as $u(x)=-\frac{1}{2}x^2+\frac{1}{2}x$

Boundary Conditions enables a unique solution to the PDE! Hence they are very important in solving PDEs.

Difference Equations

In order to solve the differential equation numerically, we have to represent it as a difference equation where the derivatives are defined or approximated numerically.

$$-\frac{u_{i+1}-2u_i+u_{i-1}}{(\Delta x)^2}=f(x_i)=1 \hspace{1.5cm} (2)$$

The above mentioned approximation to the derivative is defined using Finite Differences.

Let's take a look at a few finite difference formulae approximating the 1st order derivative:

Forward Difference

$$\Delta_F u = rac{u(x+h)-u(x)}{h} pprox u' + \mathcal{O}(h)$$
 (3)

Backward Difference

$$\Delta_B u = rac{u(x) - u(x-h)}{h} pprox u' + \mathcal{O}(h)$$

Centered Difference

$$\Delta_C u = rac{u(x+h) - u(x-h)}{2h} pprox u' + \mathcal{O}(h^2)$$
 (5)

These finite difference formulae are derived using Taylor Series, which says that

$$u(x+h) = u(x) + hu'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2!}u''(x) + \frac{h^3}{3!}u'''(x) + \cdots$$
 (6)

$$u(x-h) = u(x) - hu'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2!}u''(x) - \frac{h^3}{3!}u'''(x) + \cdots$$
 (7)

Rearranging Equation (6), we can get the Forward Difference approximation to the 1st order derivative:

$$rac{u(x+h)-u(x)}{h} = u'(x) + rac{h}{2!}u''(x) + rac{h^2}{3!}u'''(x) + \cdots \ = u'(x) + \mathcal{O}(h)$$
 (8)

Similarly using Equation (7), we can get the Backward Difference approximation:

$$rac{u(x) - u(x - h)}{h} = u'(x) - rac{h}{2!}u''(x) + rac{h^2}{3!}u'''(x) + \cdots \ = u'(x) + \mathcal{O}(h)$$
 (9)

Finally, subtracting (6) from (7), we get Centered Difference approximation:

$$rac{u(x+h)-u(x-h)}{2h} = u'(x) + rac{2h^2}{3!}u'''(x) + \cdots \ = u'(x) + \mathcal{O}(h^2)$$
 (10)

Notice how we get 1st and 2nd order accuracy depending on the terms left after moving them around.

Now we can get 2nd order derivatives in three ways:

- $lacksquare \Delta_F \Delta_B$
- lacksquare $\Delta_B\Delta_F$
- $\Delta_C\Delta_C$: This would be a weird choice because it will stretch too far on the stencil in a way that we get coefficients as $1 \quad 0 \quad -2 \quad 0 \quad 1$.

This might sound unfamiliar, but I've discussed discretisation and stencil in the next section.

Apart from this, we can also get $\Delta_F \Delta_B$ or $\Delta_B \Delta_F$ by adding (6) and (7) together:

$$rac{u(x+h)-2u(x)+u(x-h)}{h^2} = u''(x) + rac{2h^2}{4!} u''''(x) + \cdots \ = u''(x) + \mathcal{O}(h^2)$$

Numerical Discretisation and Solution

The very first step to solving a differential equation numerically is discretisation of the domain. Consider the PDE in Equation (1), where the domain lies between 0 and 1. What discretisation does is instead of using a continuous domain, it uses a set of finite points on the domain to represent it (shown in diagram below). In this example, we will discretise this into 5 equispaced points with $\Delta x = 0.25$ as the distance between two consecutive points. Also, each point is indexed using the small letter i = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

Using 5 points to discretise any practical problem might be a bad idea, but for understanding it's better to keep n small.

The problem now is to find u_0, u_1, u_2, u_3 and u_4 , as these 5 values will essentially represent the function describing u. This is where we turn our attention to Equation (2), and start setting different values to subscript i and form a set of equations.

• When i=1

$$-u_2 + 2u_1 - u_0 = (0.25)^2 (12)$$

• When i=2

$$-u_3 + 2u_2 - u_1 = (0.25)^2 (13)$$

• When i=3

$$-u_4 + 2u_3 - u_2 = (0.25)^2 (14)$$

We now have 3 equations and 3 unknowns (u_1, u_2, u_3) . Remember that we already know the boundary conditions which states that $u_0 = u_4 = 0$.

The above defined set of equations can also be rewritten in terms of matrix vector multiplication,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} (0.25)^2 \\ (0.25)^2 \\ (0.25)^2 \end{pmatrix}$$
(15)

If you remember from Lecture 1, the left side 3×3 matrix is K_3 and it's invertible! For now, let's just use some computer program to solve this $A\mathbf{u}=b$ and get the vector \mathbf{u} .

```
# Total internal points excluding boundaries
n = 3

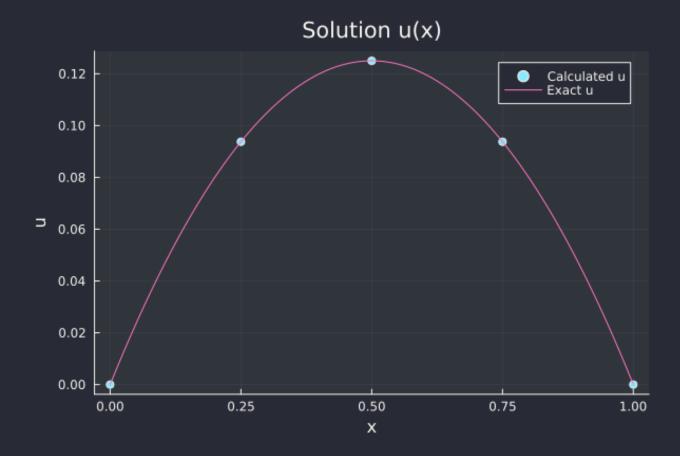
# x values
x = range(0, 1, n+2)
# i indices
i = range(0, n-1, n+2);

# dx

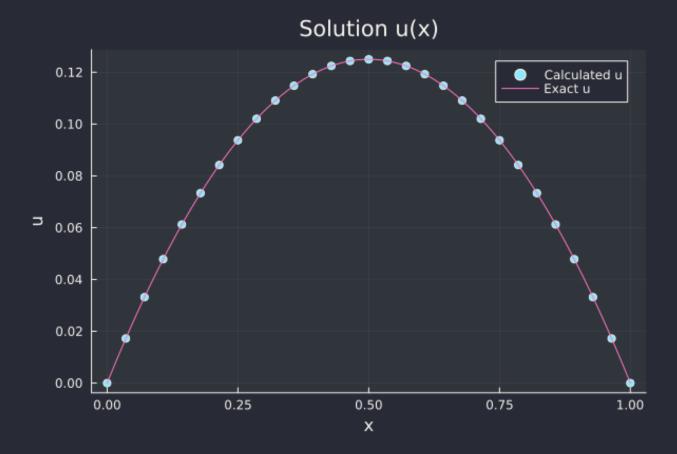
Δx = x[2] - x[1];

# Function define matrix A
function coefficient(n::Int)
```

```
A = zeros(n, n)
    for i=1:n
        A[i,i] = 2
        if i ≠ 1
            A[i, i-1] = -1
        end
        if i ≠ n
            A[i, i+1] = -1
        end
    end
    return A
end
A = coefficient(n)
b = ones(n) * (\Delta x^2)
# Solve
u = A b
println("Solution u: ", u)
pushfirst!(u, 0);
push!(u, 0);
scatter(x, u, label="u", xlabel="x", ylabel="u", title="Solution u(x)")
```



We can now increase the number of points n to get more accurate solution, for example if n=30.



Changing the Boundary Conditions

Let's change something with the problem setup and remove the ice block at x=0! What this means is that we now have a PDE with different boundary conditions

$$-rac{d^2u}{dx^2}=f(x)=1; \qquad \left.rac{\partial u}{\partial x}
ight|_{x=0}=0, u(1)=0 \qquad \qquad (16)$$

Remember that the problem is of steady state, hence the change in temperature at x=0 is set to 0!

Again setting n=5, the problem now is to find u_0,u_1,u_2,u_3 and u_4 . In this case we know that, $u_4=0$ which leaves 4 unknown variables. Again using the approximations to convert differential equation to difference equation and also approximating the boundary condition at x=0 using Equation (8) we get a set of equations as follows

Boundary Condition Approximation

$$u_1 - u_0 = 0 (17)$$

• When i=1, we can use the fact that $u_1=u_0$ and reduce the unknown variables to 3!

$$-u_2 + 2u_1 - u_0 = (0.25)^2$$
 or (18) $-u_2 + u_1 = (0.25)^2$

• When i=2

$$-u_3 + 2u_2 - u_1 = (0.25)^2 (19)$$

• When i=3

$$-u_4 + 2u_3 - u_2 = (0.25)^2 (20)$$

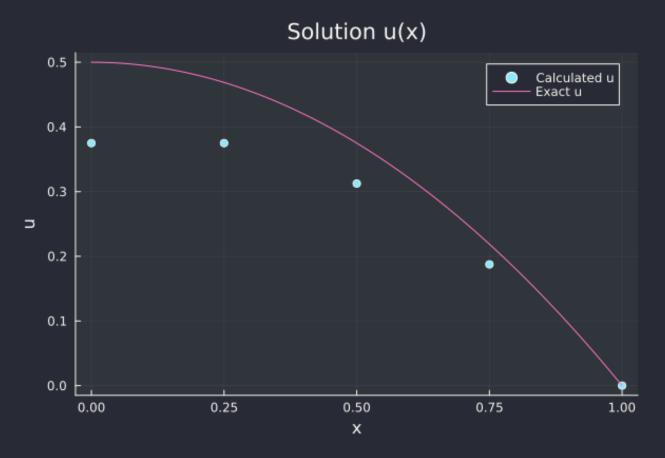
Now, we have 3 equations and 3 variables, which can again be represented as a matrix vector multiplication

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} (0.25)^2 \\ (0.25)^2 \\ (0.25)^2 \end{pmatrix}$$
(21)

Again from Lecture 1, the left side 3×3 matrix is T_3 and it's invertible! Let's again use the inbuilt matrix solver to solve this $A\mathbf{u}=b$ and get the vector \mathbf{u} .

```
function coefficient_T(n::Int)
    # A matrix
A = zeros(n, n)
for i=1:n
    # Diagonal Elements
    if i == 1
        A[i,i] = 1
    else
        A[i,i] = 2
```

```
end
    if i ≠ 1
        # Lower Diagonal
        A[i, i-1] = -1
    end
    if i ≠ n
        # Upper diagonal
        A[i, i+1] = -1
    end
    end
    return A
end
```



Similarly, if we increase the number of points, we get a more accurate solution!

Solution u(x) O.5 O.4 O.2 O.0 O.00 O.25 O.50 O.75 O.75 O.75

An interesting observation is that for the previous case where the boundary conditions were fixed, we got accurate solution even when n=3, but that is not the case here. It's just a matter of getting lucky where the equispaced points and the constant force term matched up such that it ended up as a perfect scenario. Rest be assured, if you change anything like variable forcing term, it'll give less accurate solution for smaller n values but that will still be $\mathcal{O}(h^2)$ accurate.

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However, in this case we approximated the left boundary using the backward difference formula which is $\mathcal{O}(h)$ accurate. Hence, we'll get the final solution which is also $\mathcal{O}(h)$ accurate (error propagates!).

For this simple problem, we can actually get a $\mathcal{O}(h^2)$ accuracy! Let's do that...

Now, we have an idea that the solution should be parabolic (this can be confirmed using the exact solution). What we can do is use this fact which will give that $u_{-1}=u_1$, and instead of using forward difference we can use centered difference

$$\left. \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right|_{x=0} = \frac{u_1 - u_{-1}}{2\Delta x} = 0 \tag{22}$$

By using this, we again increase the unknown variables to 4, i.e. we need to find x_0, x_1, x_2 and x_3 .

lacktriangle When i=0, we can use the fact that $u_1=u_{-1}$

$$-u_1 + 2u_0 - u_{-1} = (0.25)^2$$
 or (23) $2u_0 - 2u_1 = (0.25)^2$

lacksquare When i=1

$$-u_2 + 2u_1 - u_0 = (0.25)^2 (24)$$

lacksquare When i=2

$$-u_3 + 2u_2 - u_1 = (0.25)^2 (25)$$

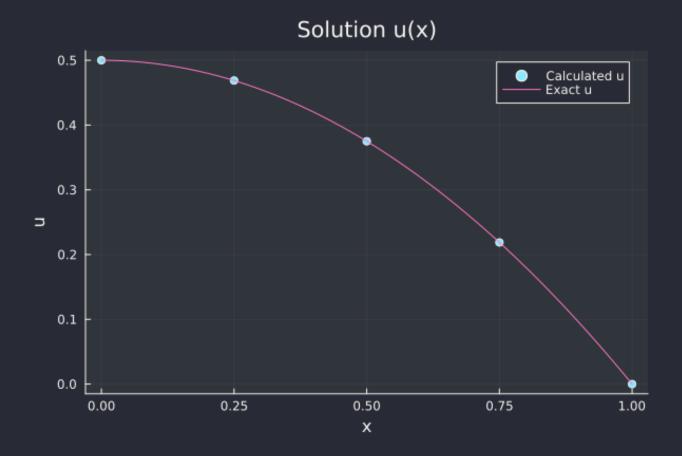
lacksquare When i=3

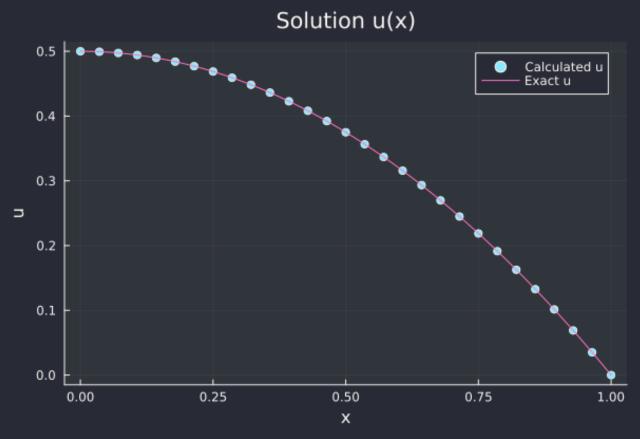
$$-u_4 + 2u_3 - u_2 = (0.25)^2 (26)$$

Now, we have 4 equations and 4 variables, which can again be represented as a matrix vector multiplication

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_0 \\ u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{(0.25)^2}{2} \\ (0.25)^2 \\ (0.25)^2 \\ (0.25)^2 \end{pmatrix}$$
(21)

Solving this system of equation, we get the following solutions...





This is $\mathcal{O}(h^2)$ accurate!