

Compact finite-difference schemes

- What are they?

Implicit, high-resolution finite-difference schemes. Also interpolation, filtering --

- What are they meant for?

Improved resolution w.r.t. explicit finite-difference schemes, while maintaining a limited "stencil". Mainly used for DNS or LES of turbulent flows in simple geometries.

- Fake claims:

"CDSs are more suited than spectral methods to deal with complex geometries and arbitrary boundary conditions".

- Derivatives from CDSs: compact finite-volume schemes.

Approximation of first derivative.

- Explicit second- and fourth-order central differences yield an approximation f'_i to $\frac{df}{dx}(x_i)$ using the function values at nodes near x_i , namely (f_{i-1}, f_{i+1}) for the second-order and $(f_{i-2}, f_{i-1}, f_{i+1}, f_{i+2})$ for the fourth-order approximations.

In the spectral methods, the value of f'_i depends on all values of f at nodes.

Compact difference schemes are a sort of compromise between these two extremes.

- Consider an approximation of the form:

$$\begin{aligned} 1) \quad & \beta f'_{i-2} + \alpha f'_{i-1} + f'_i + \alpha f'_{i+1} + \beta f'_{i+2} \\ &= c \frac{f_{i+3} - f_{i-3}}{6h} + b \frac{f_{i+2} - f_{i-2}}{4h} + a \frac{f_{i+1} - f_{i-1}}{2h} \end{aligned}$$

The coefficients α, β, a, b, c are derived by matching the Taylor series coefficients of various orders. The first un-matched coefficient determines the formal truncation order of the approximation.

The constraints are:

$$a + b + c = 1 + 2\alpha + 2\beta \quad (2^{\text{nd}} \text{ order})$$

$$a + 2^2 b + 3^2 c = 2 \frac{3!}{2!} (\alpha + 2^2 \beta) \quad (4^{\text{th}} \text{ "})$$

$$a + 2^4 b + 3^4 c = 2 \frac{5!}{4!} (\alpha + 2^4 \beta) \quad (6^{\text{th}} \text{ "})$$

$$a + 2^6 b + 3^6 c = 2 \frac{7!}{6!} (\alpha + 2^6 \beta) \quad (8^{\text{th}} \text{ "})$$

$$a + 2^8 b + 3^8 c = 2 \frac{9!}{8!} (\alpha + 2^8 \beta) \quad (10^{\text{th}} \text{ "})$$

Some of the coefficients may be left "free", therefore resulting in families of compact difference schemes of given order.

For instance, consider $\beta=0$, $c=0$ and let α free. A family of 4th-order schemes is obtained.

$$\beta=0, a=\frac{2}{3}(\alpha+2), b=\frac{1}{4}(4\alpha-1), c=0$$

The widest stencil needed within this class of schemes spans three nodes on the left-hand side of i and five nodes on the right-hand side.

Special representatives of this family are:

$\alpha=0 \Rightarrow$ fourth-order, explicit scheme

$\alpha=1/4 \Rightarrow$ classical 4th-order, Runge-Kutta scheme

$\alpha=1/3 \Rightarrow$ 6th-order accurate scheme.

With $\beta = 0$ and $c \neq 0$, a two-parameter family of fourth-order schemes is obtained or, alternatively, a one-parameter family of 6th-order schemes:

$$\beta = 0 \quad a = \frac{1}{6}(\alpha + 9)$$

$$b = \frac{1}{15}(32\alpha - 9) \quad c = \frac{1}{10}(-3\alpha + 1)$$

Choosing $\alpha = \frac{3}{8}$ yields the 8th-order representative of the 6th-order family. This is the tri-diagonal scheme with the highest formal accuracy within (1).

Choosing $\beta \neq 0$, we end up with:

- a 3-parameter (α, β, c) 4th-order family
- * a 2-parameter (α, β) 6th-order family
- * a 1-parameter (α) 8th-order family
- a single 10th-order scheme.

The coefficients for the 10th-order scheme are:

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \quad \beta = \frac{1}{20} \quad \alpha = \frac{17}{12} \quad b = \frac{101}{150} \quad c = \frac{1}{100}$$

Approximation of second derivative

$$(D2) \int \beta f_{i-2}'' + \alpha f_{i-1}'' + f_i'' + \alpha f_{i+1}'' + \beta f_{i+2}'' =$$

$$= c \frac{f_{i+3} - 2f_i + f_{i-3}}{9h^2} + b \frac{f_{i+2} - 2f_i + f_{i-2}}{4h^2}$$

$$+ \alpha \frac{f_{i+1} - 2f_i + f_{i-1}}{h^2}$$

The constraints arising from Taylor expansion and truncation error reduction are:

~~$\alpha + \beta + c = 1$~~

$$\alpha + 2^{2k}b + 3^{2k}c = \frac{(2k)!}{(2k-2)!} (\alpha + 2^{2k}\beta), \text{ order}$$

$$k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$$

We consider only some special families and representatives of this broad class of schemes.

* 1-parameter family of 4th-order schemes:

$$\beta = 0, \rho = 0, \alpha = \frac{4}{3}(1-\alpha), b = \frac{1}{3}(-1+10\alpha)$$

$\alpha = \frac{1}{10}$ yields the classical Pade scheme ($b=0$).

* $\alpha = \frac{2}{11}$ yields a 6th-order, tridiagonal scheme ($\beta=0, \alpha = \frac{12}{11}, b = \frac{3}{11}, \rho=0$).

* 1-parameter 8th-order family:

$$\beta = \frac{38\alpha - 8}{214} \quad \alpha = \frac{696 - 1191\alpha}{428}$$

$$b = \frac{2454\alpha - 294}{535} \quad \rho = \frac{1179\alpha - 344}{2140}$$

* 10th-order scheme:

$$\beta = \frac{43}{1798} \quad \alpha = \frac{334}{899} \quad \rho = \frac{1065}{1798}$$

$$b = \frac{1038}{899} \quad \rho = \frac{79}{1798}$$

Fourier analysis of errors ("resolution")

For the purpose of Fourier analysis the dependent variables are assumed to be periodic over the domain $[0, L]$ of the independent variable, i.e., $f_1 = f_{N+1}$ and $h = L/N$. The dependent variables may be decomposed into their Fourier coefficients:

$$(1') \quad f(x) = \sum_{k=-N/2}^{N/2} \hat{f}_k e^{\frac{2\pi i k x}{L}}$$

Since $f(x)$ is a real-valued function, then

$$(2) \quad \hat{f}_k = \hat{f}_{-k}^*, \quad 1 \leq k \leq N/2$$

and

$$\hat{f}_0 = \hat{f}_0^*$$

It is convenient to introduce a "scaled" or "modified" wavenumber ω , defined as

$$\omega \equiv \frac{2\pi k h}{L} = \frac{2\pi k}{N}$$

ω ranges from $-\pi$ to $+\pi$ but, due to the complex-conjugate correspondence (2), only the range $[0, \pi]$ is of interest.

Exact differentiation of (1') yields:

$$f'(x) = \sum_{-N/2}^{N/2} \hat{f}_k e^{2\pi i \frac{kx}{L}} \cdot \frac{2\pi i k}{L}$$

$$= \sum_{-N/2}^{N/2} i\omega \hat{f}_k e^{i\omega x}$$

where $\omega = x/h$. Thus, the Fourier coefficients

of $f'(x)$ are $\hat{f}'_k = i\omega \hat{f}_k$. scheme

The differencing error of the first derivative may be assessed by comparing the Fourier coefficients of the derivative obtained from the differencing scheme $(\hat{f}'_k)_{fd}$ with the exact Fourier coefficients \hat{f}'_k .

The compact difference schemes for the first derivative presented above yield a modified wavenumber ω' as:

$$(\hat{f}'_k)_{fd} = i\omega' \hat{f}_k$$

$$\omega'(\omega) = \frac{a \sin(\omega) + (b/2) \sin(2\omega) + (c/3) \sin(3\omega)}{1 + z\alpha \cos(\omega) + z^2 \beta \cos(2\omega)}$$

Different schemes can be compared in terms of "resolving efficiency", i.e., the region of ω within which $\frac{|\omega' - \omega|}{\omega} \leq \epsilon$, where ϵ is a pre-set tolerance.

An alternative view of dispersive wave characteristics

Let's consider the transport equation:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$t > 0$$

A generic solution is $f(x - t)$, corresponding to a "waveform" shifting towards $+x$ with velocity c .

Considering a Fourier mode, $f = \sigma e^{i k x}$, we end up with:

$$0 = \sigma_0 i k \Rightarrow \sigma(t) = \sigma_0 e^{-i k c t}$$

or

$$f(x,t) = \sigma_0 e^{ik(x-ct)} \\ = \sigma_0 e^{i\omega(x - ct/v)}$$

~~As for a finite-difference representation of the transport equation, the solution at nodes turns out to be: can be expressed in general form as:~~

$$\cancel{f(x_j, t) = \sigma_0}$$

A finite-difference approximation of the transport equation yields:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\sigma e^{ikx} + c i k' e^{ikx} \sigma = 0$$

$$\dot{\sigma} = -i c k' \sigma$$

$$\sigma(t) = \sigma_0 e^{-i c k' t}$$

$$\tilde{f}(x,t) = \sigma_0 e^{ik(x - c k'/k t)} \\ = \sigma_0 e^{i\omega(x - k'/k ct/v)}$$