

## Second Differences by a Second Route

The point of Problem 8 (Section 1.2) is that we do not want to “square” the centered first difference, because the result stretches from  $x - 2\Delta x$  to  $x + 2\Delta x$ . The first difference is  $(u_{j+1} - u_{j-1})/2h$ , and once more produces  $(u_{j+2} - 2u_j + u_{j-2})/(2h)^2$ . Involving  $u_{j-2}$  and  $u_{j+2}$  is not necessary and not convenient, when second order accuracy is our goal.

*New point* This squaring will succeed when we start with  $\Delta u_j = (u_{j+\frac{1}{2}} - u_{j-\frac{1}{2}})/h$ . Repeating that centered first difference gives the second difference we want, and the half steps disappear. Now  $\Delta^2 u_j$  reaches only to  $u_{j+1}$  and  $u_{j-1}$ :

$$\Delta(\Delta u_j) = \frac{1}{h}[(u_{j+1} - u_j)/h - (u_j - u_{j-1})/h] = (u_{j+1} - 2u_j + u_{j-1})/h^2.$$

*Second point* A good way to see the algebra is to apply these differences to exponential functions  $e^{ikx}$ . Then  $u_j = e^{ikjh}$ . The first difference is:

$$\frac{1}{h} \left[ e^{ik(j+\frac{1}{2})h} - e^{ik(j-\frac{1}{2})h} \right] = \frac{e^{ikh/2} - e^{-ikh/2}}{h} e^{ikjh} = \lambda e^{ikjh}.$$

So the exponentials  $e^{ikx}$  are eigenfunctions of the first difference  $\Delta$ , and of the first derivative. The eigenvalues are different! The derivative gives  $ike^{ikx}$  with eigenvalue  $ik$ . The difference has  $\lambda$  close to  $ik$  when  $k$  is small:

$$\lambda = \frac{e^{ikh/2} - e^{-ikh/2}}{h} = ik \left( \frac{\sin kh/2}{kh/2} \right) \approx ik. \quad (1)$$

Squaring  $d/dx$  will give the eigenvalue  $(ik)^2 = -k^2$ . The eigenfunction is still  $e^{ikx}$ . Squaring  $\Delta$  will give the combination  $2 - 2\cos kh$  that we see over and over in the book:

$$\lambda^2 = \left( \frac{e^{ikh/2} - e^{-ikh/2}}{h} \right)^2 = \frac{e^{ikh} - 2 + e^{-ikh}}{h^2} = -\frac{2 - 2\cos kh}{h^2}. \quad (2)$$

The middle expression shows the 1, -2, 1 coefficients that come from a second difference.

*Final step* Compare these eigenvalues with the exact  $ik$  and  $(ik)^2$ . One way is to look at the differences  $\lambda - ik$  and  $\lambda^2 - (ik)^2$ . This will show the second order accuracy of  $\Delta$  and  $\Delta^2$ :

$$ik - ik \left( \frac{\sin kh/2}{kh/2} \right) \approx \frac{ik}{6} (kh/2)^2 \quad (3)$$

In that step,  $\sin \theta = \theta - \theta^3/6 + \dots$  gives  $(\sin \theta)/\theta = \text{sinc } \theta \approx 1 - \theta^2/6$ .

Squaring (for the second difference) gives  $\text{sinc}^2 \theta \approx 1 - \theta^2/3$ . Then the error term for second differences is  $(ik)^2$  times  $(kh/2)^2/3$ .

A better comparison is to divide instead of subtract. The ratio  $\lambda/ik$  is approximate/exact:

$$\frac{\lambda}{ik} = \frac{\sin kh/2}{kh/2} = \text{sinc}\left(\frac{kh}{2}\right). \quad (4)$$

For small  $k$  this ratio is near 1. Notice that the sinc function is normalized in signal processing (not here!) to be defined as  $\sin(\pi x)/\pi x$ . The crucial dimensionless quantity is clearly seen to be  $kh$ .

To double the range of frequency resolution,  $h$  must be cut in half. In other words we need a fixed number of meshpoints per wavelength, to maintain a specified accuracy. In practical wave problems, that fixed number of meshpoints in the shortest wavelength is about 10.