

Numerical Analysis - Part II

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Lecture 9

Partial differential equations of evolution

Solving the diffusion equation

We consider the solution of the *diffusion equation*

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1, \quad t \geq 0,$$

with *initial conditions* $u(x, 0) = u_0(x)$ for $t = 0$ and *Dirichlet boundary conditions* $u(0, t) = \phi_0(t)$ at $x = 0$ and $u(1, t) = \phi_1(t)$ at $x = 1$.

What if $-\infty < x < \infty$?

Fourier analysis of stability

Let us now assume a recurrence of the form

$$\sum_{k=r}^s a_k u_{m+k}^{n+1} = \sum_{k=r}^s b_k u_{m+k}^n, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \quad (1)$$

where m ranges over \mathbb{Z} . (Within our framework of discretizing PDEs of evolution, this corresponds to $-\infty < x < \infty$ in the underlying PDE and so there are no explicit boundary conditions, but the initial condition must be square-integrable in $(-\infty, \infty)$: this is known as a *Cauchy problem*.)

The coefficients a_k and b_k are independent of m, n , but typically depend upon μ . We investigate stability by *Fourier analysis*. [Note that it doesn't matter what is the underlying PDE: numerical stability is a feature of algebraic recurrences, not of PDEs!]

Fourier analysis of stability

Let $\mathbf{v} = (v_m)_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} \in \ell_2[\mathbb{Z}]$. Its *Fourier transform* is the function

$$\widehat{v}(\theta) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-im\theta} v_m, \quad -\pi \leq \theta \leq \pi.$$

We equip sequences and functions with the norms

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \left\{ \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} |v_m|^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \|\widehat{v}\|_* = \left\{ \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |\widehat{v}(\theta)|^2 d\theta \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Amplification factor

For $\theta \in [-\pi, \pi]$, let $\hat{u}^n(\theta) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-im\theta} u_m^n$ be the Fourier transform of the sequence $\mathbf{u}^n \in \ell_2[\mathbb{Z}]$. We multiply the discretized equations (1) by $e^{-im\theta}$ and sum up for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus, the left-hand side yields

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-im\theta} \sum_{k=r}^s a_k u_{m+k}^{n+1} &= \sum_{k=r}^s a_k \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-im\theta} u_{m+k}^{n+1} \\ &= \sum_{k=r}^s a_k \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i(m-k)\theta} u_m^{n+1} = \left(\sum_{k=r}^s a_k e^{ik\theta} \right) \hat{u}^{n+1}(\theta). \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Similarly manipulating the right-hand side, we deduce that

$$\hat{u}^{n+1}(\theta) = H(\theta) \hat{u}^n(\theta), \quad \text{where} \quad H(\theta) = \frac{\sum_{k=r}^s b_k e^{ik\theta}}{\sum_{k=r}^s a_k e^{ik\theta}}. \quad (3)$$

The function H is sometimes called the *amplification factor* of the recurrence (1)

Theorem 1

The method (1) is stable $\Leftrightarrow |H(\theta)| \leq 1$ for all $\theta \in [-\pi, \pi]$.

The advection and wave equations

The advection equation

Problem 2 (The advection equation)

A useful paradigm for hyperbolic PDEs is the *advection equation*

$$u_t = u_x, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1, \quad t \geq 0, \quad (4)$$

where $u = u(x, t)$. It is given with the initial condition $u(x, 0) = \varphi(x)$, $x \in [0, 1]$ and (for simplicity) the boundary condition $u(1, t) = \varphi(t + 1)$. The exact solution of (4) is simply $u(x, t) = \varphi(x + t)$, a unilateral shift leftwards. This, however, does not mean that its numerical modelling is easy.

Instability and the advection equation

We commence by semidiscretizing $\frac{\partial u_m(t)}{\partial x} \approx \frac{1}{2h} [u_{m+1}(t) - u_{m-1}(t)]$, so coming to the ODE $u'_m(t) = \frac{1}{2h} [u_{m+1}(t) - u_{m-1}(t)]$. For the Euler method, the outcome is

$$u_m^{n+1} = u_m^n + \frac{1}{2}\mu(u_{m+1}^n - u_{m-1}^n), \quad m = 0 \dots M, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}_+,$$

with $u_0^n = 0$ for all n . In matrix form this reads

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}^n, \quad \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2}\mu & & & \\ -\frac{1}{2}\mu & 1 & \ddots & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \frac{1}{2}\mu & \\ & & & -\frac{1}{2}\mu & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The matrix \mathbf{A} is normal, with the eigenvalues $\lambda_\ell = 1 + i\mu \cos \ell\pi h$ (see Example 2.15), so that $\|\mathbf{A}\|^2 = 1 + \mu^2$, hence instability for any μ .

The wave equation

Consider the wave equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}, \quad x \in [0, 1], \quad t \geq 0,$$

given with initial (for u and u_t) and boundary conditions. The usual approximation looks as follows

$$u_m^{n+1} - 2u_m^n + u_m^{n-1} = \mu(u_{m+1}^n - 2u_m^n + u_{m-1}^n),$$

with the Courant number being now $\mu = k^2/h^2$.

Discretising the wave equation

To advance in time we have to pick up the numbers $u_m^1 = u(x_m, k)$ (of course they should depend on the initial derivative $u_t(x, 0)$).

Euler's method provides the obvious choice

$u(x_m, k) = u(x_m, 0) + ku_t(x_m, 0)$, but the following technique enjoys better accuracy. Specifically, we set u_m^1 to the right-hand side of the formula

$$\begin{aligned}u(x_m, k) &\approx u(x_m, 0) + ku_t(x_m, 0) + \frac{1}{2}k^2 u_{tt}(x_m, 0) \\ &= u(x_m, 0) + ku_t(x_m, 0) + \frac{1}{2}k^2 u_{xx}(x_m, 0) \\ &\approx u_m^0 + \frac{1}{2}\mu(u_{m-1}^0 - 2u_m^0 + u_{m+1}^0) + ku_t(x_m, 0).\end{aligned}$$

Stability using Fourier analysis

The Fourier analysis (for Cauchy problem) provides

$$\hat{u}^{n+1}(\theta) - 2\hat{u}^n(\theta) + \hat{u}^{n-1}(\theta) = -4\mu \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} \hat{u}^n(\theta),$$

with the characteristic equation $\lambda^2 - 2(1 - 2\mu \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2})\lambda + 1 = 0$. The product of the roots is one, therefore stability (that requires the moduli of both λ to be at most one) is equivalent to the roots being complex conjugate, so we require

$$(1 - 2\mu \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2})^2 \leq 1.$$

This condition is achieved if and only if $\mu = k^2/h^2 \leq 1$.

*The diffusion equation in two space
dimensions*

The diffusion equation in two space dimensions

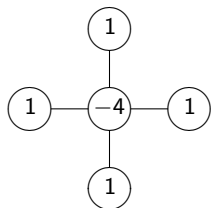
We are solving

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \nabla^2 u, \quad 0 \leq x, y \leq 1, \quad t \geq 0, \quad (5)$$

where $u = u(x, y, t)$, together with initial conditions at $t = 0$ and Dirichlet boundary conditions at $\partial\Omega$, where $\Omega = [0, 1]^2 \times [0, \infty)$. It is straightforward to generalize our derivation of numerical algorithms, e.g. by the method of lines.

Recall the five point formula

We have the *five-point method*



$$u_{i,j} = u_{i-1,j} + u_{i+1,j} + u_{i,j-1} + u_{i,j+1} - 4u_{i,j},$$

discretising the two dimensional Laplacian.

The diffusion equation in two space dimensions

Thus, let $u_{\ell,m}(t) \approx u(\ell h, mh, t)$, where $h = \Delta x = \Delta y$, and let $u'_{\ell,m} \approx u_{\ell,m}(nk)$ where $k = \Delta t$. The five-point formula results in

$$u'_{\ell,m} = \frac{1}{h^2} (u_{\ell-1,m} + u_{\ell+1,m} + u_{\ell,m-1} + u_{\ell,m+1} - 4u_{\ell,m}),$$

or in the matrix form

$$\mathbf{u}' = \frac{1}{h^2} A_* \mathbf{u}, \quad \mathbf{u} = (u_{\ell,m}) \in \mathbb{R}^N, \quad (6)$$

where A_* is the block TST matrix of the five-point scheme:

$$A_* = \begin{bmatrix} H & I & & & \\ & I & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & I \\ & & & & I & H \end{bmatrix}, \quad H = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 1 & & & \\ & 1 & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The diffusion equation in two space dimensions

Thus, the Euler method yields

$$u_{\ell,m}^{n+1} = u_{\ell,m}^n + \mu(u_{\ell-1,m}^n + u_{\ell+1,m}^n + u_{\ell,m-1}^n + u_{\ell,m+1}^n - 4u_{\ell,m}^n), \quad (7)$$

or in the matrix form

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = A\mathbf{u}^n, \quad A = I + \mu A_*$$

where, as before, $\mu = \frac{k}{h^2} = \frac{\Delta t}{(\Delta x)^2}$. The local error is

$\eta = \mathcal{O}(k^2 + kh^2) = \mathcal{O}(h^4)$. To analyse stability, we notice that A is symmetric, hence normal, and its eigenvalues are related to those of A_* by the rule

$$\lambda_{k,\ell}(A) = 1 + \mu\lambda_{k,\ell}(A_*) \stackrel{\text{Prop. 1.12}}{=} 1 - 4\mu \left(\sin^2 \frac{\pi kh}{2} + \sin^2 \frac{\pi \ell h}{2} \right).$$

Consequently,

$$\sup_{h>0} \rho(A) = \max\{1, |1 - 8\mu|\}, \quad \text{hence} \quad \mu \leq \frac{1}{4} \Leftrightarrow \text{stability.}$$

Fourier analysis in 2D

Fourier analysis generalizes to two dimensions: of course, we now need to extend the range of (x, y) in (5) from $0 \leq x, y \leq 1$ to $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. A 2D Fourier transform reads

$$\widehat{u}(\theta, \psi) = \sum_{\ell, m \in \mathbb{Z}} u_{\ell, m} e^{-i(\ell\theta + m\psi)}$$

and all our results readily generalize.

Fourier analysis in 2D

In particular, the Fourier transform is an isometry from $\ell_2[\mathbb{Z}^2]$ to $L_2([-\pi, \pi]^2)$, i.e.

$$\left(\sum_{\ell, m \in \mathbb{Z}} |u_{\ell, m}|^2 \right)^{1/2} =: \|\mathbf{u}\| = \|\widehat{\mathbf{u}}\|_* := \left(\frac{1}{4\pi^2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |\widehat{u}(\theta, \psi)|^2 d\theta d\psi \right)^{1/2},$$

and the method is stable iff $|H(\theta, \psi)| \leq 1$ for all $\theta, \psi \in [-\pi, \pi]$. The proofs are an easy elaboration on the one-dimensional theory.

Insofar as the Euler method (7) is concerned,

$$H(\theta, \psi) = 1 + \mu (e^{-i\theta} + e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\psi} + e^{i\psi} - 4) = 1 - 4\mu \left(\sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} + \sin^2 \frac{\psi}{2} \right),$$

and we again deduce stability if and only if $\mu \leq \frac{1}{4}$.

Parseval's identity

Lemma 3 (Parseval's identity)

For any $\mathbf{v} \in \ell_2[\mathbb{Z}]$, we have $\|\mathbf{v}\| = \|\widehat{\mathbf{v}}\|_*$.

Proof. By definition,

$$\begin{aligned}\|\widehat{\mathbf{v}}\|_*^2 &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left| \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-im\theta} v_m \right|^2 d\theta = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} v_m \bar{v}_k e^{-i(m-k)\theta} d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} v_m \bar{v}_k \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{-i(m-k)\theta} d\theta \stackrel{(*)}{=} \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} v_m \bar{v}_k \delta_{m-k} = \|\mathbf{v}\|^2,\end{aligned}$$

where equality (*) is due to the fact that

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{-i\ell\theta} d\theta = \begin{cases} 2\pi, & \ell = 0, \\ 0, & \ell \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}, \end{cases}$$

□

The implication of the lemma is that the Fourier transform is an *isometry* of the Euclidean norm. This is an important reason underlying its many applications in mathematics and beyond.

Crank-Nicolson for 2D

Applying the trapezoidal rule to our semi-discretization (6) we obtain the two-dimensional Crank-Nicolson method:

$$(I - \frac{1}{2}\mu A_*) \mathbf{u}^{n+1} = (I + \frac{1}{2}\mu A_*) \mathbf{u}^n, \quad (8)$$

in which we move from the n -th to the $(n+1)$ -st level by solving the system of linear equations $B\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = C\mathbf{u}^n$, or $\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = B^{-1}C\mathbf{u}^n$. For stability, similarly to the one-dimensional case, the eigenvalue analysis implies that $A = B^{-1}C$ is normal and shares the same eigenvectors with B and C , hence

$$\lambda(A) = \frac{\lambda(C)}{\lambda(B)} = \frac{1 + \frac{1}{2}\mu\lambda(A_*)}{1 - \frac{1}{2}\mu\lambda(A_*)} \Rightarrow |\lambda(A)| < 1 \text{ as } \lambda(A_*) < 0$$

and the method is stable for all μ . The same result can be obtained through the Fourier analysis.

We would like to find a fast solver to the system (8). The matrix $B = I - \frac{1}{2}\mu A_*$ has a structure similar to that of A_* , where

$$A_* = \begin{bmatrix} H & I & & & \\ & I & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & I \\ & & & & I & H \end{bmatrix}, \quad H = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 1 & & & \\ & 1 & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

so we may apply the Hockney method.

Special structure of 5-point equations

Observation 4 (Special structure of 5-point equations)

We wish to motivate and introduce a family of efficient solution methods for the 5-point equations: the *fast Poisson solvers*. Thus, suppose that we are solving $\nabla^2 u = f$ in a square $m \times m$ grid with the 5-point formula (all this can be generalized a great deal, e.g. to the nine-point formula). Let the grid be enumerated in *natural ordering*, i.e. by columns. Thus, the linear system $Au = b$ can be written explicitly in the block form

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} B & I & & & \\ I & B & \ddots & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & I & B \end{bmatrix}}_A \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 \\ \mathbf{u}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \mathbf{b}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_m \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 1 & & & \\ & 1 & -4 & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times m},$$

where $\mathbf{u}_k, \mathbf{b}_k \in \mathbb{R}^m$ are portions of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{b} , respectively, and B is a TST-matrix which means *tridiagonal*, *symmetric* and *Toeplitz* (i.e., constant along diagonals).

Special structure of 5-point equations

Observation 5 (Special structure of 5-point equations)

By Exercise 4, its eigenvalues and orthonormal eigenvectors are given as

$$B\mathbf{q}_\ell = \lambda_\ell \mathbf{q}_\ell, \quad \lambda_\ell = -4 + 2 \cos \frac{\ell\pi}{m+1},$$

$$\mathbf{q}_\ell = \gamma_m \left(\sin \frac{j\ell\pi}{m+1} \right)_{j=1}^m, \quad \ell = 1..m,$$

where $\gamma_m = \sqrt{\frac{2}{m+1}}$ is the normalization factor. Hence

$B = QDQ^{-1} = QDQ$, where $D = \text{diag}(\lambda_\ell)$ and $Q = Q^T = (q_{j\ell})$.

Note that all $m \times m$ TST matrices share the same full set of eigenvectors, hence they all commute!

The Hockney method

Set $\mathbf{v}_k = Q\mathbf{u}_k$, $\mathbf{c}_k = Q\mathbf{b}_k$, therefore our system becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} D & I & & & \\ I & D & \ddots & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & I & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \mathbf{v}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_1 \\ \mathbf{c}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{c}_m \end{bmatrix} .$$

Let us by this stage reorder the grid *by rows, instead of by columns*.. In other words, we permute $\mathbf{v} \mapsto \hat{\mathbf{v}} = P\mathbf{v}$, $\mathbf{c} \mapsto \hat{\mathbf{c}} = P\mathbf{c}$, so that the portion $\hat{\mathbf{c}}_1$ is made out of the first components of the portions $\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_m$, the portion $\hat{\mathbf{c}}_2$ out of the second components and so on.

The Hockney method

This results in new system

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_1 & & & \\ & \Lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \Lambda_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{v}}_1 \\ \hat{\mathbf{v}}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\mathbf{v}}_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{c}}_1 \\ \hat{\mathbf{c}}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\mathbf{c}}_m \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Lambda_k = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_k & 1 & & & \\ & 1 & \lambda_k & 1 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & 1 & \lambda_k \end{bmatrix}_{m \times m},$$

where $k = 1 \dots m$.

The Hockney method

These are m *uncoupled* systems, $\Lambda_k \hat{\mathbf{v}}_k = \hat{\mathbf{c}}_k$ for $k = 1 \dots m$. Being *tridiagonal*, each such system can be solved fast, at the cost of $\mathcal{O}(m)$. Thus, the steps of the algorithm and their computational cost are as follows.

1. Form the products $\mathbf{c}_k = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{b}_k$, $k = 1 \dots m$ $\mathcal{O}(m^3)$
2. Solve $m \times m$ tridiagonal systems $\Lambda_k \hat{\mathbf{v}}_k = \hat{\mathbf{c}}_k$, $k = 1 \dots m$ $\mathcal{O}(m^2)$
3. Form the products $\mathbf{u}_k = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{v}_k$, $k = 1 \dots m$ $\mathcal{O}(m^3)$

However, since the method (8) has a local truncation error $\mathcal{O}(k^3 + kh^2)$, we don't need an exact solution of the system: it would be enough to have one within the error.

Let us employ the notation

$$\Delta_x^2 u_{\ell,m} = u_{\ell-1,m} - 2u_{\ell,m} + u_{\ell+1,m}, \quad \Delta_y^2 u_{\ell,m} = u_{\ell,m-1} - 2u_{\ell,m} + u_{\ell,m+1}.$$

Then the Crank-Nicolson method calculates \mathbf{u}^{n+1} by solving the system

$$\left[I - \frac{1}{2}\mu(\Delta_x^2 + \Delta_y^2) \right] \mathbf{u}_{\ell,m}^{n+1} = \left[I + \frac{1}{2}\mu(\Delta_x^2 + \Delta_y^2) \right] \mathbf{u}_{\ell,m}^n, \quad \ell, m = 1 \dots M. \quad (9)$$

The local error is however preserved if we replace this formula by the difference equation

$$\left[I - \frac{1}{2}\mu\Delta_x^2 \right] \left[I - \frac{1}{2}\mu\Delta_y^2 \right] u_{\ell,m}^{n+1} = \left[I + \frac{1}{2}\mu\Delta_x^2 \right] \left[I + \frac{1}{2}\mu\Delta_y^2 \right] u_{\ell,m}^n, \quad (10)$$

which is called the split version of Crank-Nicolson. Indeed, the difference between two schemes is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{4}\mu^2\Delta_x^2\Delta_y^2(u_{\ell,m}^{n+1} - u_{\ell,m}^n) &= \frac{k^2}{4}\frac{1}{h^2}\Delta_x^2\frac{1}{h^2}\Delta_y^2\left(k\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u_{\ell,m}^n + \mathcal{O}(k^2)\right) \\ &= \frac{k^3}{4}\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial t}u_{\ell,m}^n + \mathcal{O}(k+h^2)\right) = \mathcal{O}(k^3 + kh^2), \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

the same magnitude as of the local error.

Splitting

In the matrix form, (10) is equivalent to splitting the matrix A_* into the sum of two matrices A_x and A_y as

$$A_* = A_x + A_y,$$

$$A_x = \begin{bmatrix} -2I & I & & & \\ & I & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & I & \\ & & & & -2I \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_y = \begin{bmatrix} H & & & & \\ & H & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & H \end{bmatrix}, \quad H = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & & & \\ & 1 & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & 1 & \\ & & & & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and solving the uncoupled system

$$\left[I - \frac{1}{2}\mu A_x \right] \left[I - \frac{1}{2}\mu A_y \right] \mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \left[I + \frac{1}{2}\mu A_x \right] \left[I + \frac{1}{2}\mu A_y \right] \mathbf{u}^n.$$

as

$$B_x \mathbf{u}^{n+1/2} = C_x C_y \mathbf{u}^n, \quad B_y \mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \mathbf{u}^{n+1/2}.$$

The matrix

$$B_y = I - \frac{1}{2}\mu A_y$$

is block diagonal, and solving $B_y \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$ is just solving one and the same tridiagonal system $B \mathbf{u}_i = \mathbf{v}_i$ with different right-hand sides. Matrix $B_x = I - \frac{1}{2}\mu A_x$ is of the same form up to a permutation (reordering of the grid), so solving $B_x \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{b}$ is again a fast procedure.

The general diffusion equation

Consider the general diffusion equation

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} &= \nabla^\top (a(x, y) \nabla u) + f(x, y) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(a(x, y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(a(x, y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) + f(x, y),\end{aligned}\tag{12}$$

where $a(x, y) > \alpha > 0$ and $f(x, y)$ are given, together with initial conditions on $[0, 1]^2$ and Dirichlet boundary conditions along $\partial[0, 1]^2 \times [0, \infty)$. Replace each space derivative by *central differences* at midpoints,

$$\frac{dg(\xi)}{d\xi} \approx \frac{g(\xi + \frac{1}{2}h) - g(\xi - \frac{1}{2}h)}{h},$$

resulting in the ODE system

$$\begin{aligned}u'_{\ell, m} &= \frac{1}{h^2} \left[a_{\ell-\frac{1}{2}, m} u_{\ell-1, m} + a_{\ell+\frac{1}{2}, m} u_{\ell+1, m} + a_{\ell, m-\frac{1}{2}} u_{\ell, m-1} + a_{\ell, m+\frac{1}{2}} u_{\ell, m+1} \right. \\ &\quad \left. - (a_{\ell-\frac{1}{2}, m} + a_{\ell+\frac{1}{2}, m} + a_{\ell, m-\frac{1}{2}} + a_{\ell, m+\frac{1}{2}}) u_{\ell, m} \right] + f_{\ell, m}.\end{aligned}\tag{13}$$

The general diffusion equation

Assuming zero boundary conditions and $f \equiv 0$, we have a system $\mathbf{u}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}$, and we may solve it again by Crank–Nicolson, and apply the split

$$A = A_x + A_y.$$

Here, A_x and A_y are again constructed from the contribution of discretizations in the x - and y -directions respectively, namely A_x includes all the $a_{\ell \pm \frac{1}{2}, m}$ terms, and A_y consists of the remaining $a_{\ell, m \pm \frac{1}{2}}$ components. Arguments similar to what we used in moving from (9) to (10) justify the use of the split version in this general case as well.