



UNIVERSITY OF LUXEMBOURG
Physics and Materials Science
Research Unit (PHYMS)

02 – Numerical Differentiation

Almaz Khabibrakhmanov, Mario Galante, Alexandre Tkatchenko

AA 2021/2022 Computational Methods for MSc in Physics

Theory:

- Short reminder of basic Calculus
- Numerical recipes to calculates derivatives
- Estimate of errors

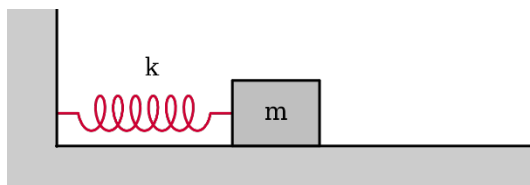
Hands-on session:

- Implementing studied numerical schemes
- Learning basics of coding and plotting in Python
- Analyzing obtained results

Why Should We Care?

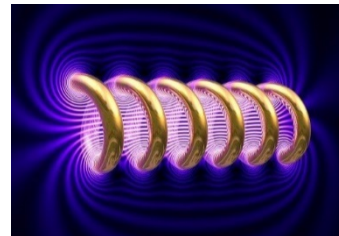
- Differentiation is the basic mathematical operation with a wide range of applications in many areas of Physics

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = F$$



$$\text{div } \mathbf{D} = 4\pi\rho$$

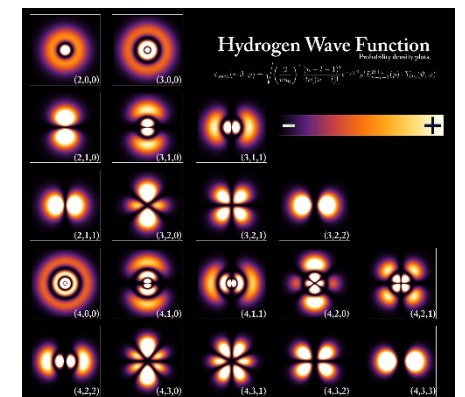
$$\text{div } \mathbf{B} = 0$$



$$\text{rot } \mathbf{E} = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\text{rot } \mathbf{H} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}$$

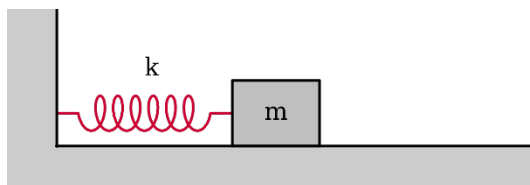
$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = \hat{H}\Psi$$



Why Should We Care?

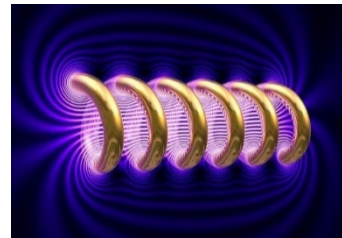
- Differentiation is the basic mathematical operation with a wide range of applications in many areas of Physics

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = F$$



$$\text{div } \mathbf{D} = 4\pi\rho$$

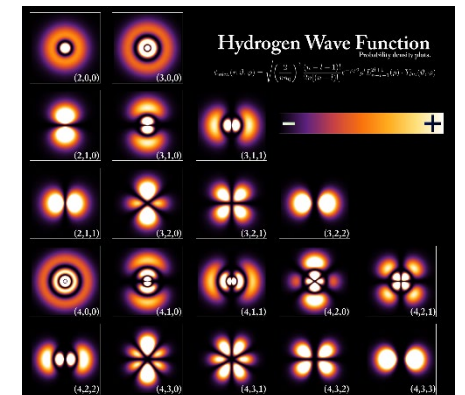
$$\text{div } \mathbf{B} = 0$$



$$\text{rot } \mathbf{E} = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\text{rot } \mathbf{H} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = \hat{H}\Psi$$

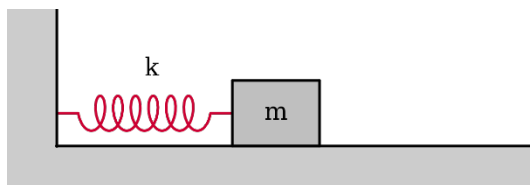


- Derivatives of most of the functions can be computed analytically using rules you studied at school and university
- However, very often in practical applications a function is only known at a few points, and most of the times differential equations cannot be solved analytically.

Why Should We Care?

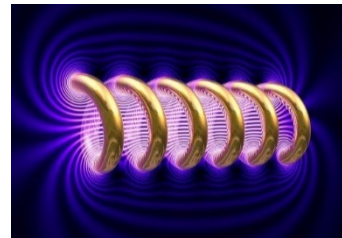
- Differentiation is the basic mathematical operation with a wide range of applications in many areas of Physics

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = F$$



$$\text{div } \mathbf{D} = 4\pi\rho$$

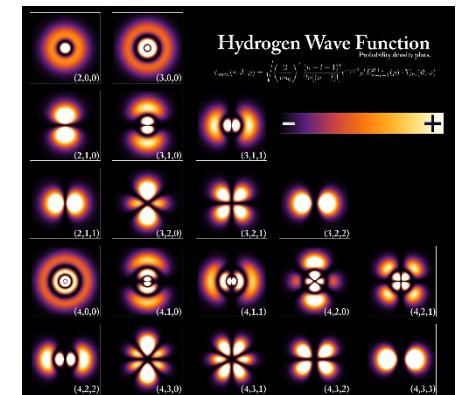
$$\text{div } \mathbf{B} = 0$$



$$\text{rot } \mathbf{E} = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\text{rot } \mathbf{H} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}$$

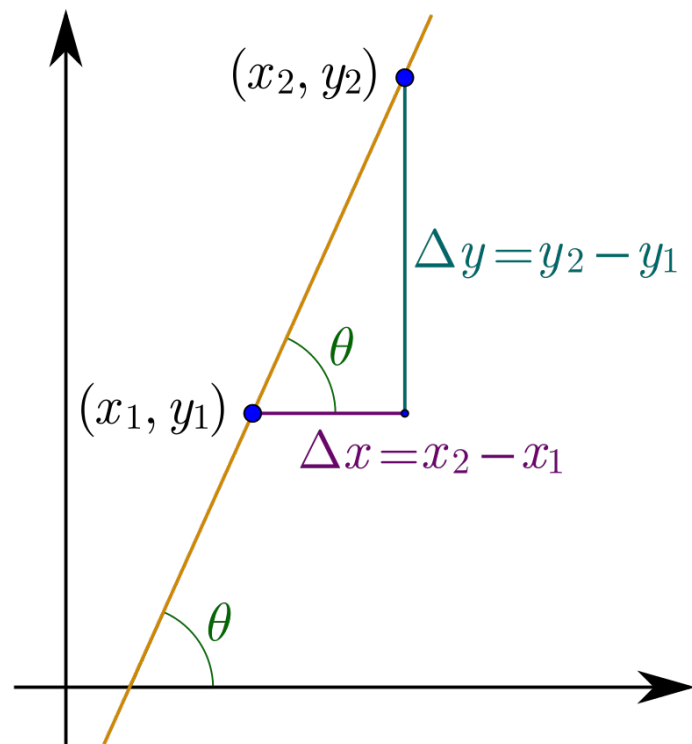
$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = \hat{H}\Psi$$



- Derivatives of most of the functions can be computed analytically using rules you studied at school and university
- However, very often in practical applications a function is only known at a few points, and most of the times differential equations cannot be solved analytically.

We have to use approximate numerical methods

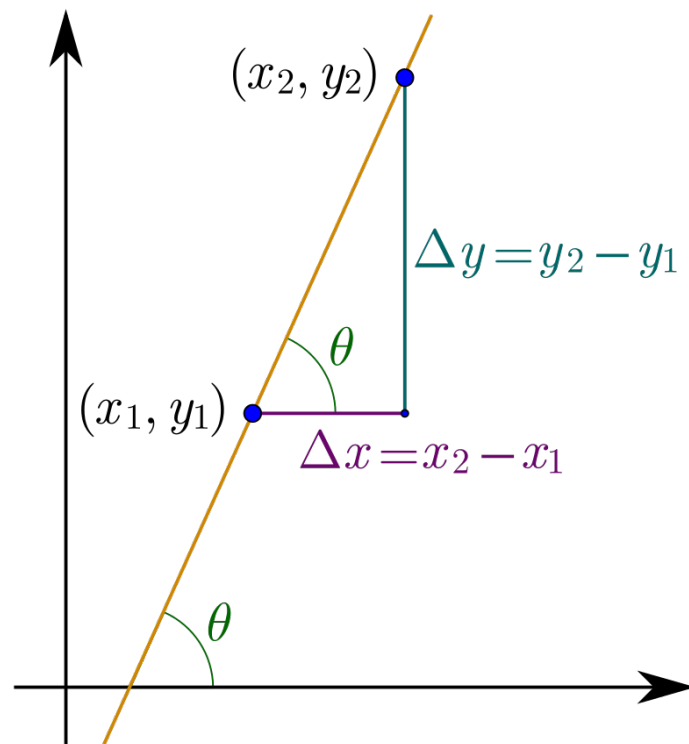
Derivative and Its Meaning



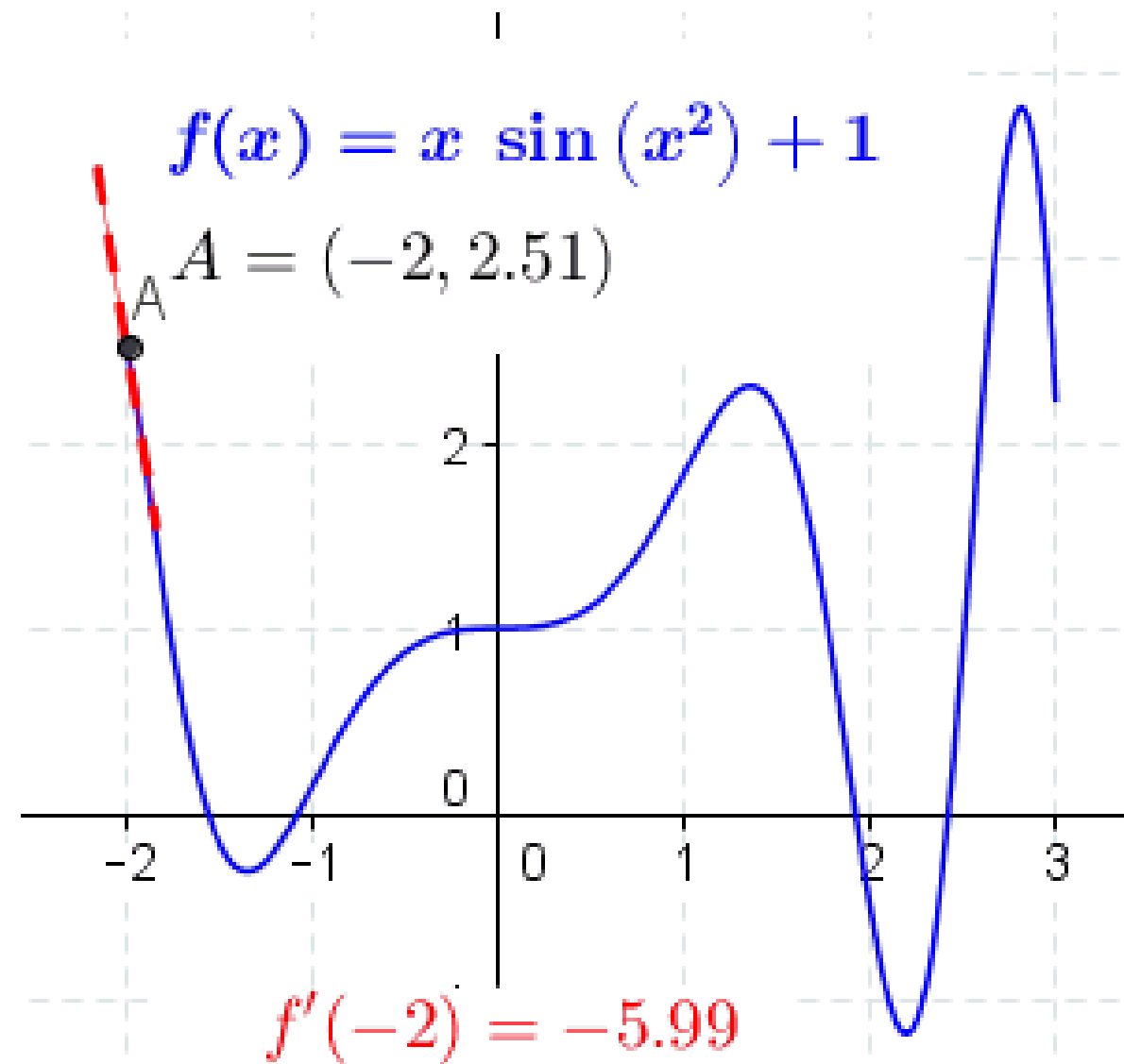
$$y'(x) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \tan \theta$$

Derivative and Its Meaning

The derivative shows the rate of function change at a point



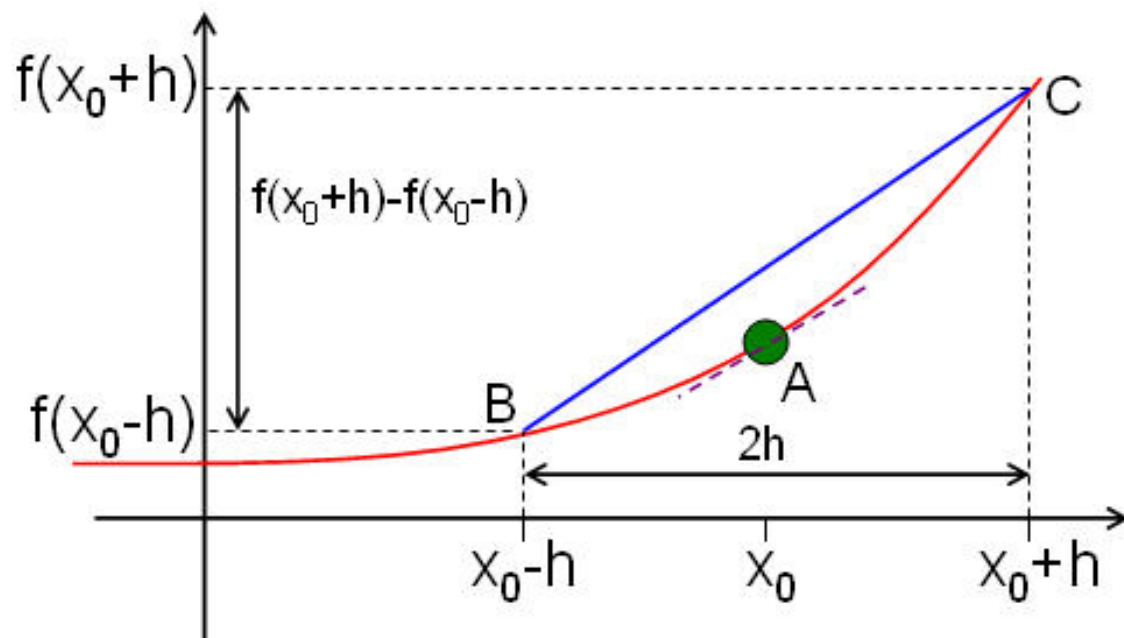
$$y'(x) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \tan \theta$$



Another interpretation: The derivative is the best LINEAR approximation at a given point of a curve.

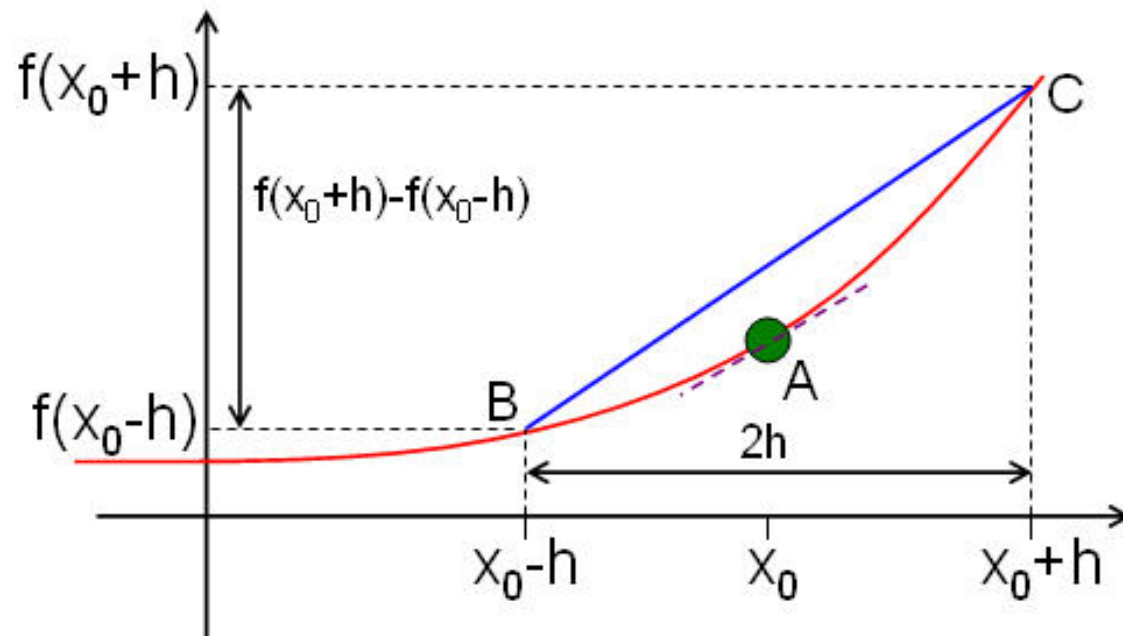
$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0)}{\Delta x}$$

Let's apply some geometrical intuition:

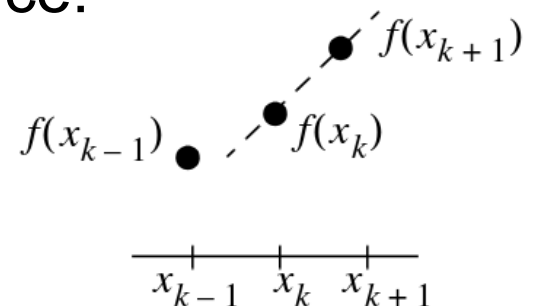


$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0)}{\Delta x}$$

Let's apply some geometrical intuition:

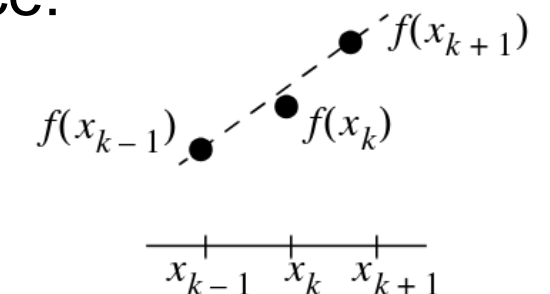


1. Forward difference:

$$f'(x_k) \approx \frac{f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)}{x_{k+1} - x_k}$$


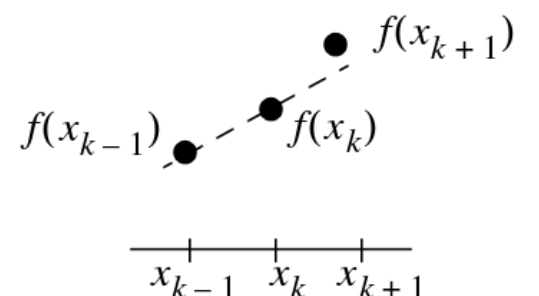
A diagram showing three points on a curve: $f(x_{k-1})$, $f(x_k)$, and $f(x_{k+1})$. A secant line connects $f(x_k)$ and $f(x_{k+1})$. The x-axis is marked with x_{k-1} , x_k , and x_{k+1} .

2. Central difference:

$$f'(x_k) \approx \frac{f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_{k-1}))}{x_{k+1} - x_{k-1}}$$


A diagram showing three points on a curve: $f(x_{k-1})$, $f(x_k)$, and $f(x_{k+1})$. A secant line connects $f(x_{k-1})$ and $f(x_{k+1})$. The x-axis is marked with x_{k-1} , x_k , and x_{k+1} .

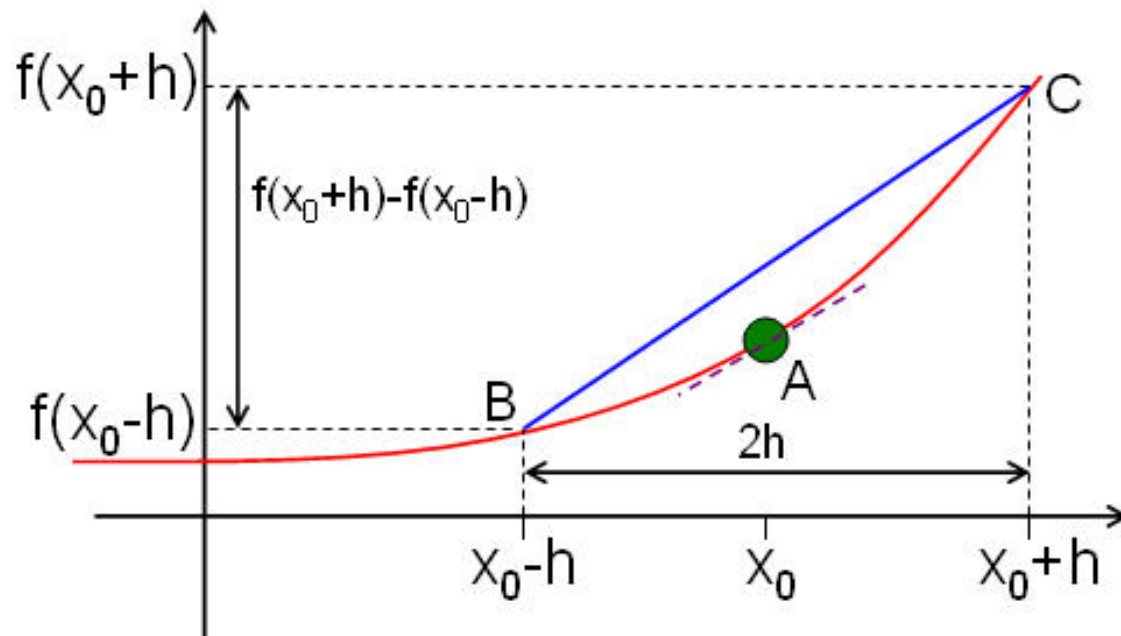
3. Backward difference:

$$f'(x_k) \approx \frac{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1}))}{x_k - x_{k-1}}$$


A diagram showing three points on a curve: $f(x_{k-1})$, $f(x_k)$, and $f(x_{k+1})$. A secant line connects $f(x_{k-1})$ and $f(x_k)$. The x-axis is marked with x_{k-1} , x_k , and x_{k+1} .

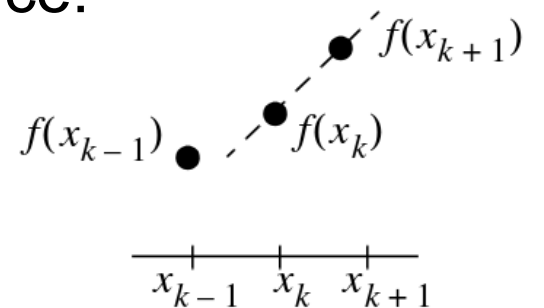
$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0)}{\Delta x}$$

Let's apply some geometrical intuition:



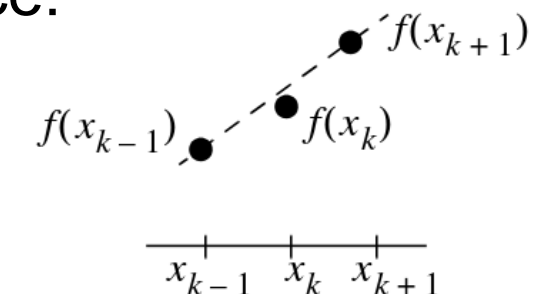
What is the difference between the results obtained via these formulae?

1. Forward difference:

$$f'(x_k) \approx \frac{f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)}{x_{k+1} - x_k}$$


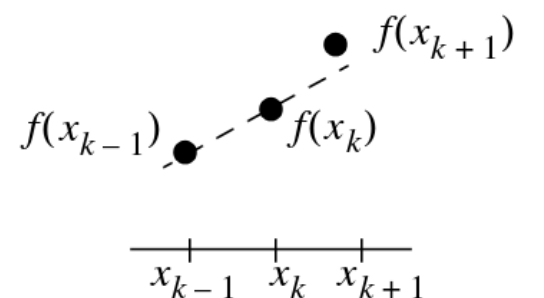
A diagram showing a function $f(x)$ and its derivative $f'(x)$ at point x_k . The derivative is approximated by the slope of the secant line between $(x_{k-1}, f(x_{k-1}))$ and $(x_{k+1}, f(x_{k+1}))$. The x-axis is marked with x_{k-1} , x_k , and x_{k+1} .

2. Central difference:

$$f'(x_k) \approx \frac{f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_{k-1}))}{x_{k+1} - x_{k-1}}$$


A diagram showing a function $f(x)$ and its derivative $f'(x)$ at point x_k . The derivative is approximated by the slope of the secant line between $(x_{k-1}, f(x_{k-1}))$ and $(x_{k+1}, f(x_{k+1}))$. The x-axis is marked with x_{k-1} , x_k , and x_{k+1} .

3. Backward difference:

$$f'(x_k) \approx \frac{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1}))}{x_k - x_{k-1}}$$


A diagram showing a function $f(x)$ and its derivative $f'(x)$ at point x_k . The derivative is approximated by the slope of the secant line between $(x_{k-1}, f(x_{k-1}))$ and $(x_k, f(x_k))$. The x-axis is marked with x_{k-1} , x_k , and x_{k+1} .

Any function $f(x)$ which is “smooth enough” in the vicinity of point x_0 can be represented in that vicinity by its **Taylor expansion**:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + \frac{f'(x_0)}{1!} (x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2!} (x - x_0)^2 + o((x - x_0)^2), \quad x \rightarrow x_0 \quad (1)$$

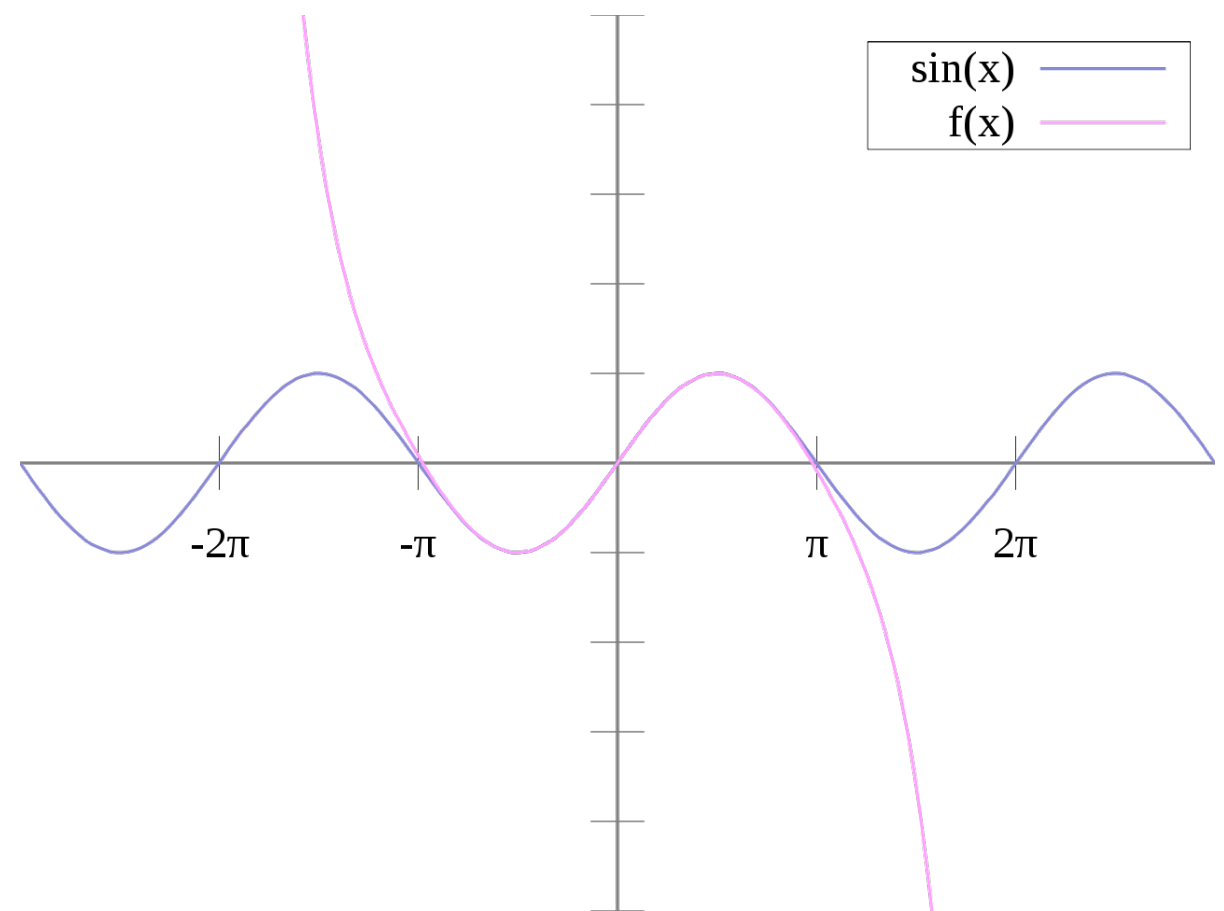
Any function $f(x)$ which is “smooth enough” in the vicinity of point x_0 can be represented in that vicinity by its **Taylor expansion**:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + \frac{f'(x_0)}{1!} (x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2!} (x - x_0)^2 + o((x - x_0)^2), \quad x \rightarrow x_0 \quad (1)$$

Example:

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + o(x^9), \quad x \rightarrow 0$$

The error of approximation of \sin by this polynomial is no more than $\frac{|x|^9}{9!}$, i.e. less than 3×10^{-6} for $-1 < x < 1$



Let us write down Taylor expansions for $f(x_0 + h)$ and $f(x_0 - h)$:

$$f(x_0 + h) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)h^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)h^3 + \dots$$

$$f(x_0 - h) = f(x_0) - f'(x_0)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)h^2 - \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)h^3 + \dots$$

Let us write down Taylor expansions for $f(x_0 + h)$ and $f(x_0 - h)$:

$$f(x_0 + h) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)h^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)h^3 + \dots$$

$$f(x_0 - h) = f(x_0) - f'(x_0)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)h^2 - \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)h^3 + \dots$$

$$f'(x_0) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - h)}{h} + \frac{h}{2}f''(x_0) + \dots & \text{forward difference} \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h)}{2h} - \frac{h^2}{12}f'''(x_0) + \dots & \text{central difference} \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} - \frac{h}{2}f''(x_0) + \dots & \text{backward difference} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - h)}{h} + O(h) \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h)}{2h} + O(h^2) \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} + O(h) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Let us write down Taylor expansions for $f(x_0 + h)$ and $f(x_0 - h)$:

$$f(x_0 + h) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)h^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)h^3 + \dots$$

$$f(x_0 - h) = f(x_0) - f'(x_0)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)h^2 - \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)h^3 + \dots$$

$$f'(x_0) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - h)}{h} + \frac{h}{2}f''(x_0) + \dots & \text{forward difference} \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h)}{2h} - \frac{h^2}{12}f'''(x_0) + \dots & \text{central difference} \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} - \frac{h}{2}f''(x_0) + \dots & \text{backward difference} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - h)}{h} + O(h) \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h)}{2h} + O(h^2) \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} + O(h) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

The lowest power of h in the remainder of Taylor formula determines the *order of the method*

$O(h)$ – method of the 1st order
 $O(h^2)$ – method of the 2nd order

Let us write down Taylor expansions for $f(x_0 + h)$ and $f(x_0 - h)$:

$$f(x_0 + h) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)h^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)h^3 + \dots$$

$$f(x_0 - h) = f(x_0) - f'(x_0)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)h^2 - \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)h^3 + \dots$$

$$f'(x_0) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - h)}{h} + \frac{h}{2}f''(x_0) + \dots & \text{forward difference} \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h)}{2h} - \frac{h^2}{12}f'''(x_0) + \dots & \text{central difference} \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} - \frac{h}{2}f''(x_0) + \dots & \text{backward difference} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - h)}{h} + O(h) \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h)}{2h} + O(h^2) \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} + O(h) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

The lowest power of h in the remainder of Taylor formula determines the *order of the method*

$O(h)$ – method of the 1st order
 $O(h^2)$ – method of the 2nd order

Analogously, one can obtain the numerical differentiation scheme of the 4th order:

$$f'(x_0) = \frac{f(x_0 - 2h) - 8f(x_0 - h) + 8f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 + 2h)}{12h} + O(h^4) \quad (3)$$

Let us write down Taylor expansions for $f(x_0 + h)$ and $f(x_0 - h)$:

$$f(x_0 + h) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)h^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)h^3 + \dots$$

$$f(x_0 - h) = f(x_0) - f'(x_0)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)h^2 - \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)h^3 + \dots$$

$$f'(x_0) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - h)}{h} + \frac{h}{2}f''(x_0) + \dots & \text{forward difference} \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h)}{2h} - \frac{h^2}{12}f'''(x_0) + \dots & \text{central difference} \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} - \frac{h}{2}f''(x_0) + \dots & \text{backward difference} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - h)}{h} + O(h) \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h)}{2h} + O(h^2) \\ \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} + O(h) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

The lowest power of h in the remainder of Taylor formula determines the *order of the method*

$O(h)$ – method of the 1st order

$O(h^2)$ – method of the 2nd order

Analogously, one can obtain the numerical differentiation scheme of the 4th order:

$$f'(x_0) = \frac{f(x_0 - 2h) - 8f(x_0 - h) + 8f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 + 2h)}{12h} + O(h^4) \quad (3)$$

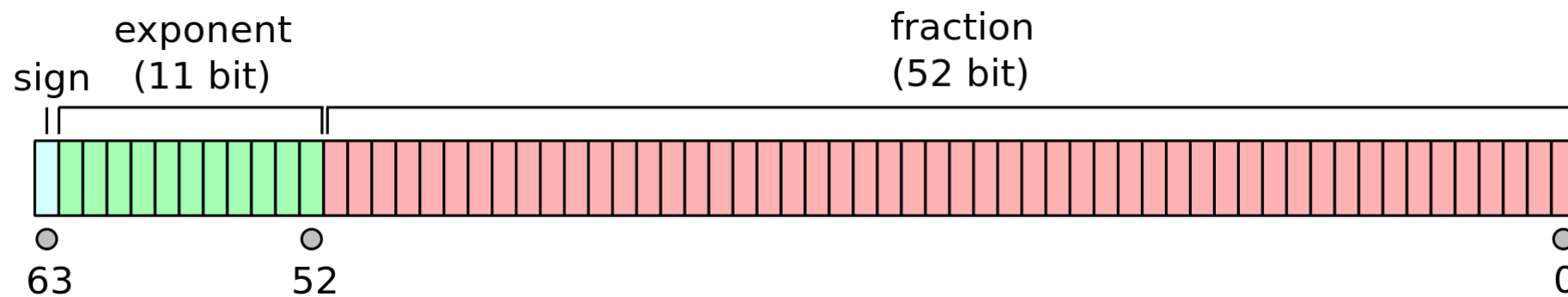
Or the scheme for second derivative:

$$f''(x_0) = \frac{f(x_0 - h) - 2f(x_0) + f(x_0 + h)}{h^2} + O(h^2) \quad (4)$$

- Choosing the differentiation scheme of order N is equivalent to the truncation of Taylor series at $(N+1)$ -th term. In fact, we substitute the function by a polynomial as its approximation and then calculate the derivative of this polynomial.
- The error raising due to this truncation is called **truncation error**. This is a *fundamental* mathematical limitation restricting the accuracy of numerical differentiation methods.
- However, this is not the only source of errors, since the numbers in computer memory can be represented only with a *finite* precision. This fact leads to **round-off errors**.

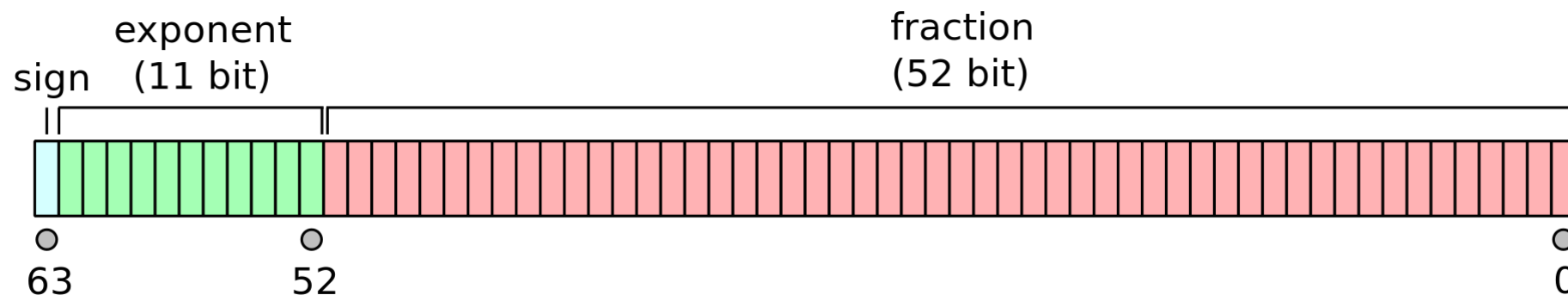
Real Numbers in Computer Memory

The IEEE Standard for Floating-Point Arithmetic was established in 1985.



Any decimal number a can be represented as: $a = b \times 10^c$, e.g. $175 = 1.75 \times 10^2$

The IEEE Standard for Floating-Point Arithmetic was established in 1985.



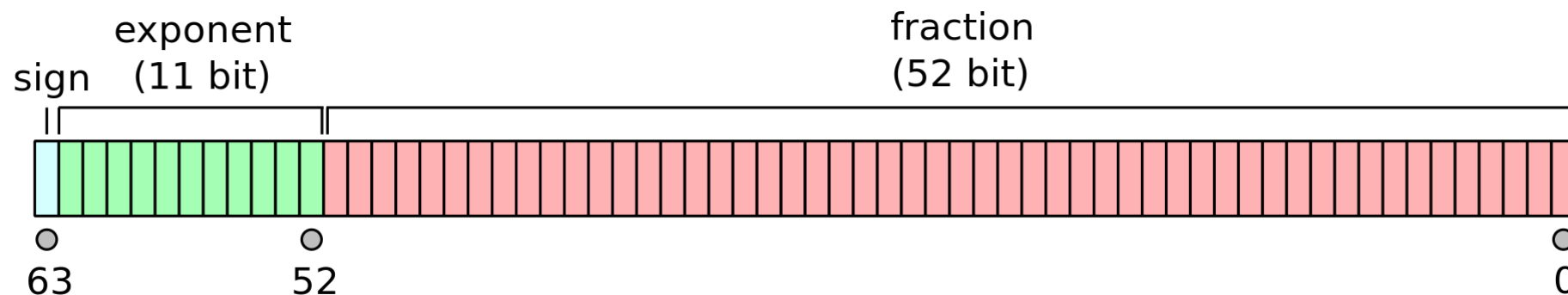
Any decimal number a can be represented as: $a = b \times 10^c$, e.g. $175 = 1.75 \times 10^2$

Machine epsilon ε_m is the largest number for which the following equation holds true in machine arithmetic:

$$1 + \varepsilon_m = 1$$

For 64-bit float-point numbers, $\varepsilon_m = 1/2 \cdot 2^{-52} \approx \mathbf{10^{-16}}$ (5)

The IEEE Standard for Floating-Point Arithmetic was established in 1985.



Any decimal number a can be represented as: $a = b \times 10^c$, e.g. $175 = 1.75 \times 10^2$

Machine epsilon ε_m is the largest number for which the following equation holds true in machine arithmetic:

$$1 + \varepsilon_m = 1$$

For 64-bit float-point numbers, $\varepsilon_m = 1/2 \cdot 2^{-52} \approx \mathbf{10^{-16}}$ (5)

Basically, this means that any number smaller than ε_m will be considered as zero by a machine when adding/subtracting it

Error of Numerical Differentiation

Let us denote the real value of function as $f(x_0)$, and the corresponding number in a computer memory as $\overline{f(x_0)}$. Then, we can write:

$$\overline{f(x_0)} = f(x_0)(1 + \varepsilon_1), \quad \overline{f(x_0 + h)} = f(x_0 + h)(1 + \varepsilon_2), \quad |\varepsilon_{1,2}| \leq \varepsilon_m$$

Let us denote the real value of function as $f(x_0)$, and the corresponding number in a computer memory as $\overline{f(x_0)}$. Then, we can write:

$$\overline{f(x_0)} = f(x_0)(1 + \varepsilon_1), \quad \overline{f(x_0 + h)} = f(x_0 + h)(1 + \varepsilon_2), \quad |\varepsilon_{1,2}| \leq \varepsilon_m$$

Using Taylor formula in the Lagrange form, we also know that:

$$\left| f'(x_0) - \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} \right| = \frac{h}{2} |f''(\xi)|$$

Let us denote the real value of function as $f(x_0)$, and the corresponding number in a computer memory as $\overline{f(x_0)}$. Then, we can write:

$$\overline{f(x_0)} = f(x_0)(1 + \varepsilon_1), \quad \overline{f(x_0 + h)} = f(x_0 + h)(1 + \varepsilon_2), \quad |\varepsilon_{1,2}| \leq \varepsilon_m$$

Using Taylor formula in the Lagrange form, we also know that:

$$\left| f'(x_0) - \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} \right| = \frac{h}{2} |f''(\xi)|$$

Therefore, for the total error of numerical differentiation $p(h)$ we obtain:

$$p(h) = \left| f'(x_0) - \frac{\overline{f(x_0 + h)} - \overline{f(x_0)}}{h} \right| \leq \frac{h}{2} M_1 + \frac{2\varepsilon_m}{h} M_2$$

$$M_1 = \max_{x \in [x_0, x_0 + h]} |f''(x)|, \quad M_2 = \max_{x \in [x_0, x_0 + h]} |f(x)|$$

Function $p(h)$ describing the error is not monotonous, so it could be minimized:

$$p(h) \approx \frac{h}{2} |f''(x_0)| + \frac{2\varepsilon_m}{h} |f(x_0)| \quad (6)$$

$$p'(h) \approx \frac{|f''(x_0)|}{2} - \frac{2\varepsilon_m}{h^2} |f(x_0)| = 0$$

Function $p(h)$ describing the error is not monotonous, so it could be minimized:

$$p(h) \approx \frac{h}{2} |f''(x_0)| + \frac{2\varepsilon_m}{h} |f(x_0)| \quad (6)$$

$$p'(h) \approx \frac{|f''(x_0)|}{2} - \frac{2\varepsilon_m}{h^2} |f(x_0)| = 0$$

Solving the last equation, we obtain the approximate optimal value h^* :

$$h^* \approx 2 \frac{\sqrt{\varepsilon_m |f(x_0)|}}{\sqrt{|f''(x_0)|}}$$

Function $p(h)$ describing the error is not monotonous, so it could be minimized:

$$p(h) \approx \frac{h}{2} |f''(x_0)| + \frac{2\varepsilon_m}{h} |f(x_0)| \quad (6)$$

$$p'(h) \approx \frac{|f''(x_0)|}{2} - \frac{2\varepsilon_m}{h^2} |f(x_0)| = 0$$

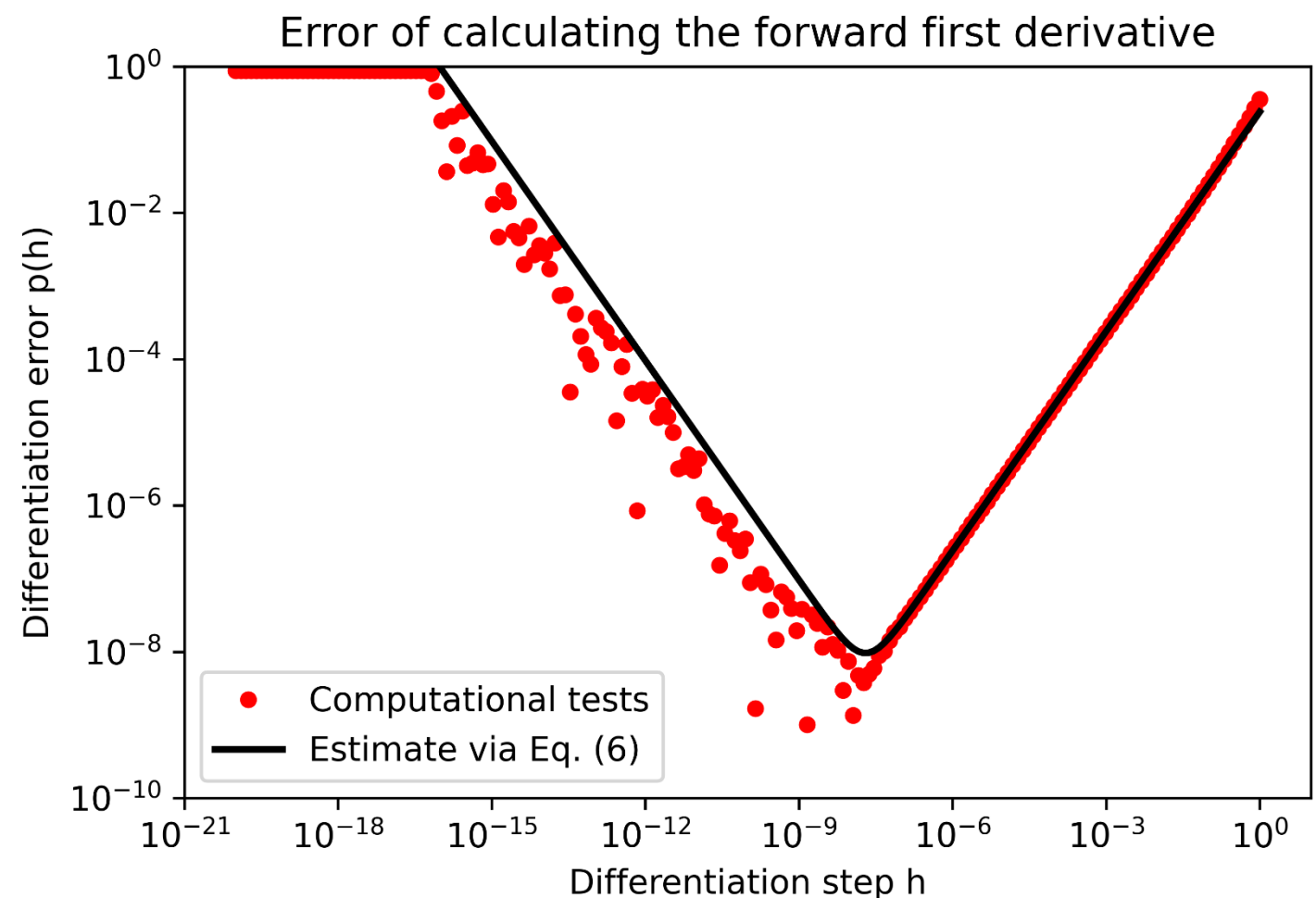
Solving the last equation, we obtain the approximate optimal value h^* :

$$h^* \approx 2 \frac{\sqrt{\varepsilon_m |f(x_0)|}}{\sqrt{|f''(x_0)|}}$$

Example:

$f(x) = \sin x$ and $x_0 = 0.5$ gives:

$$h^* \approx 2\sqrt{\varepsilon_m} \approx 2 \times 10^{-8}$$



Hands-on session

- The idea of numerical differentiation is based on the Taylor formula
- The higher is the order of differentiation method, the quicker is the convergence with changing step h
- Numerical differentiation is susceptible to round-off errors
- The higher is the derivative order, the stronger is effect of round-off errors
- Mathematically, numerical differentiation is not a *well-posed problem*, since the total error may increase despite $h \rightarrow 0$