

Introduction to Computational Thinking and Programming for CFD

Module 13251

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4 Elementary Numerical Methods: Differentiation

4.1 Preliminary remarks on numerical errors

Number representation

- For CFD we need **numeric data types** i.e. int, float, double.
- Any real number 'x' can be represented as a **binary number sequence**

$$x = \pm (a_n \cdot 2^n + a_{n-1} \cdot 2^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 \cdot 2^0 + a_{-1} \cdot 2^{-1} + \dots)$$

where each a_i is either 0 or 1, i.e. $a_i \in \{0, 1\} \ \forall i$.

Integer (whole) numbers

- For **whole numbers** (integers: type int) one usually uses 32 bits (4 bytes) int, of which 1 bit is reserved for the sign. With this one can represent all numbers between -2^{31} and $2^{31} - 1 \approx 2 \cdot 10^9$.
- **Arithmetic operations** are always exact for integers.
- However, **overflows** can occur due to too large/small results.

Fixed point numbers

- Alternative concepts are **fixed point numbers**, where n_1 binary digits are stored before the decimal point and n_2 digits after the decimal point.
- Again, the arithmetics is exact.
- Such numbers are suitable for accounting calculations but are too inflexible for the requirements of CFD.

Floating point numbers

- In most cases, we use **floating point numbers** (*floats*: type float & double). These are commonly stored as **64-bit (8 bytes) double precision** numbers.
- Each floating-point number x is divided into three sections

$$x = (-1)^{\text{Sign}} \cdot \text{Mantissa} \cdot 2^{\text{Exponent}}$$

- The size (memory allocation) for any such number is specified in the **IEEE-754 standard**:
 - The sign needs 1 bit in memory.
 - 52 bits are reserved for the mantissa. This means that there are only about **15-16 significant digits** ($2^{52} \approx 5 \times 10^{15}$). Further digits are cut off, which leads to **rounding errors**.
 - A floating point number is said to be normalized if the first digit of the mantissa is not zero.
 - The exponent is in the last 11 bits. Because $2^{11} = 2048$, the exponent is restricted to the range between -1022 and 1024 . Because $2^{1024} \approx 10^{308}$, the representable numbers are between 10^{-308} and 10^{308} surplus the corresponding negative values and zero.

Rounding error: annihilation

- The arithmetics of floating point numbers is not exact due to the limited length of the mantissa and carry-over to the exponent upon mathematical operations.
- For example, **numbers that are too small disappear when added**

$$1 + x = 1 \text{ for } 0 \leq x < 2.22 \cdot 10^{-16}$$

- Such inaccuracies lead to astonishing results that must be taken into account when creating algorithms.

$$\text{Example: } (1 + x_1) - (1 + x_2) \neq x_1 - x_2 \text{ for small } x_1, x_2 \ll 1$$

Rounding error: cast type

- Another inaccuracy comes from **converting from decimal inputs**:

Example: $x = 0.6$

- The representation, i.e., the output to 16 digits with `print('%1.16f' % x)` gives:

0.599 999 999 999 999 98

- The missing portion of $2 \cdot 10^{-17}$ must be cut off when converting 0.6 to a floating point double!
- A practical problem arises when an interval $[a, b]$ is to be divided into N subintervals (\rightarrow exercise: grid generation). The range limit b has a rounding error after `numpy.linspace(a, b, N)` was called.

Summary of numerical errors

1. Rounding errors are unavoidable with **floating point numbers**. However, suitable data types help to keep the error small.

Example: *double* instead of *single* precision floats

2. **Discretization errors** result from the numerical approximation of differential equations or numerical integration. These usually dominate and must be quantified and controlled.

Example: *suitable grids*

3. There are also **model errors**. First of all, these have nothing to do with numerics but are due to the mathematical or physical simplification of a problem. For example:

- Assumption of an incompressible flow
- Using a reduced chemical mechanism in a reactive flow

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4.2 Interlude/Reminder: Structured grids

Structured Grids

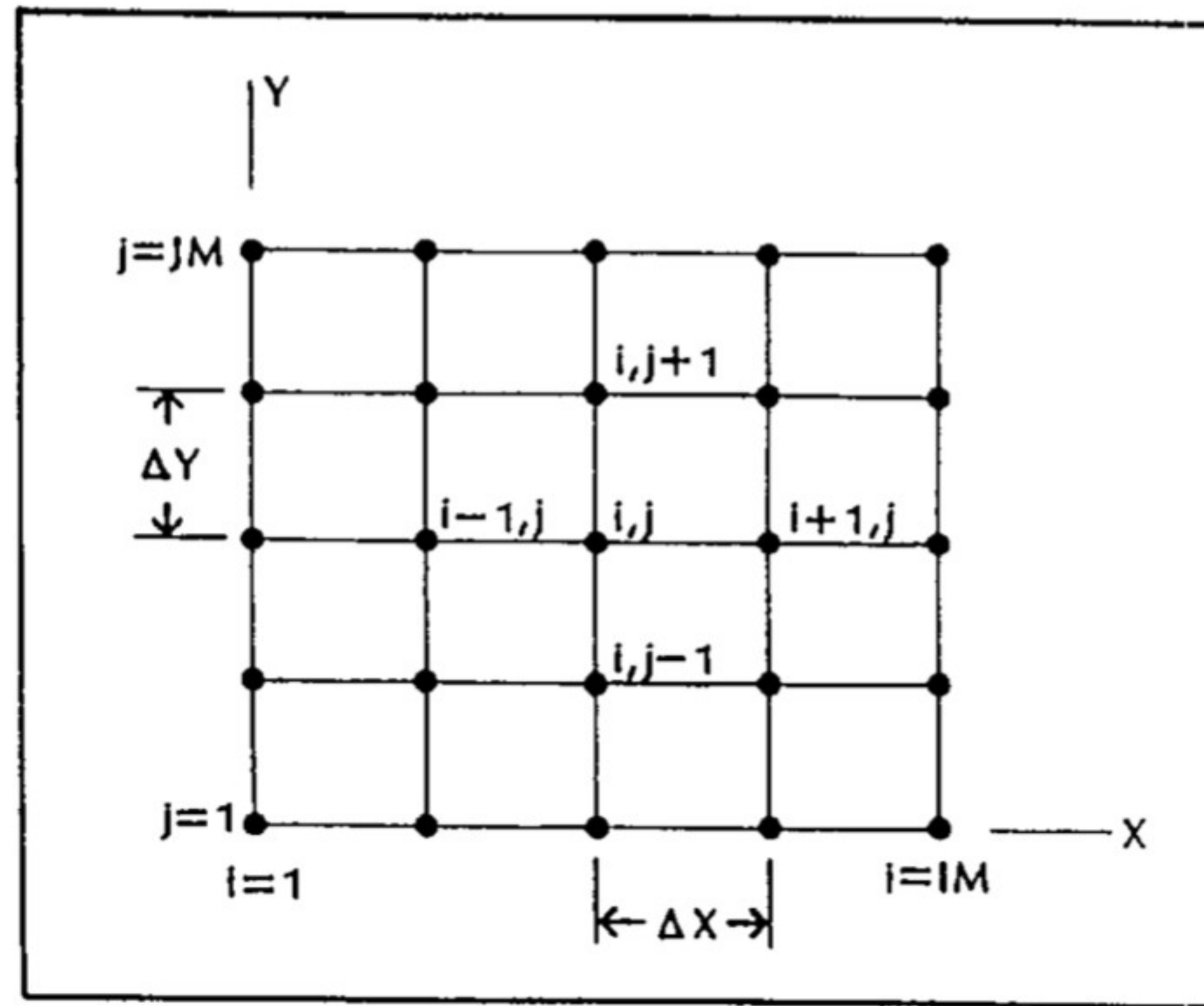


Figure 1-6. Sketch illustrating the nomenclature of computational space.

Aus: K.A. Hoffmann & S.T. Chiang, *Computational Fluid Dynamics: Volume I*, Engineering Education System, 2000.

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4.3 Discretization of the derivative

Problem and simplification

- The following derivations occur in the basic equations:
 - temporal: $\partial \rho / \partial t$
 - spatial: $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i}$ oder $\nabla^2 T = \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}$
- These terms need to be evaluated numerically in CFD.
- The **basic problem** can be formulated as follows:
 - A function $f(x)$ is known.
 - For this function, we seek the derivative $f'(x)$.
- $f(x)$ is usually not known in detail. Instead, only discrete nodal values $y_i = f(x_i)$ are given at the nodal points x_i of the grid.
- So we are looking for ways to calculate $f'(x)$ **approximately** using the given nodal values (array elements) y_i and grid points (vertex coordinate values) x_i .

Discretization: grid and nodal values I

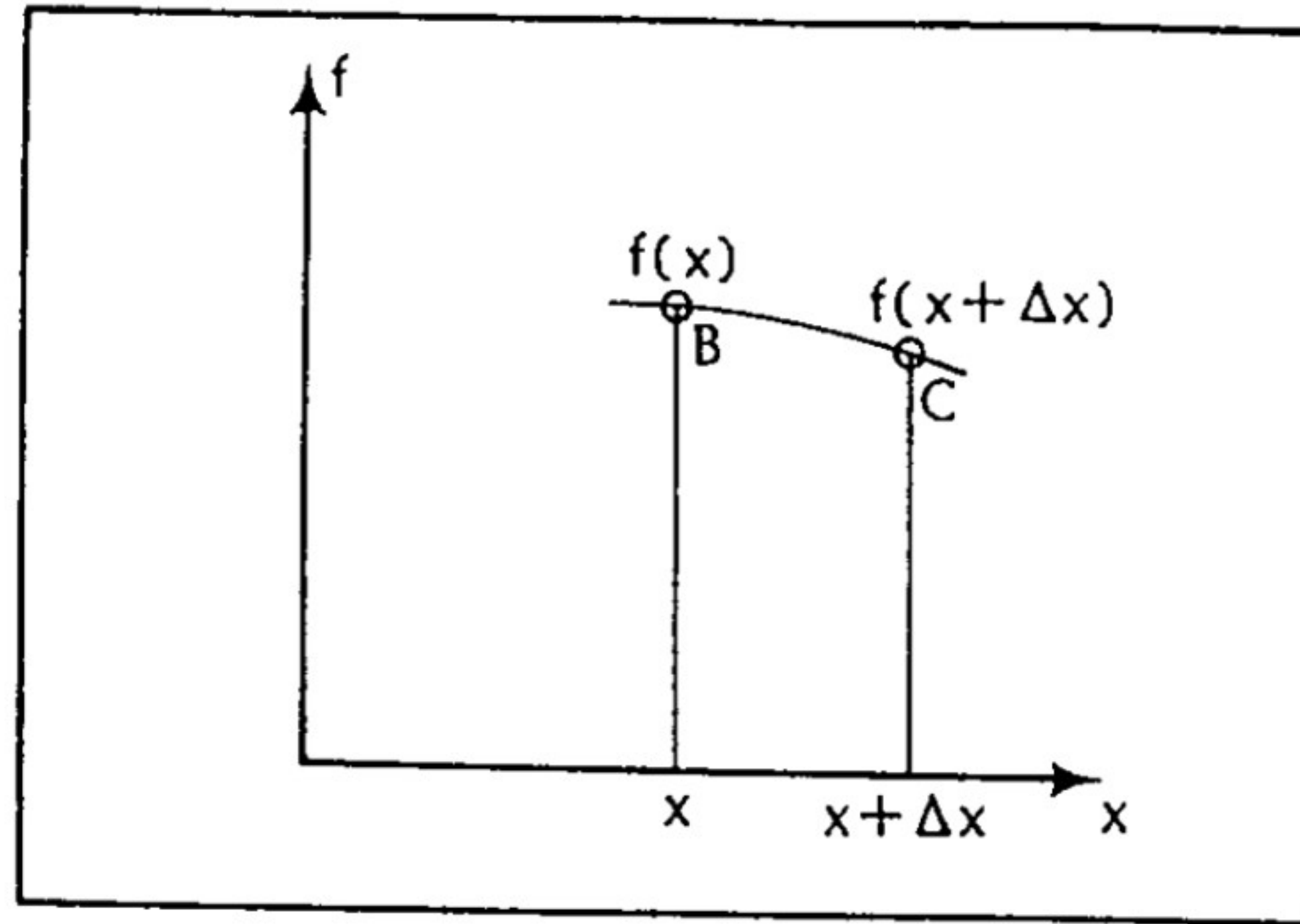


Figure 2-1. Illustration of grid points used in Equation (2-3).

From: K.A. Hoffmann & S.T. Chiang, Computational Fluid Dynamics: Volume I, Engineering Education System, 2000.

Discretization: grid and nodal values II

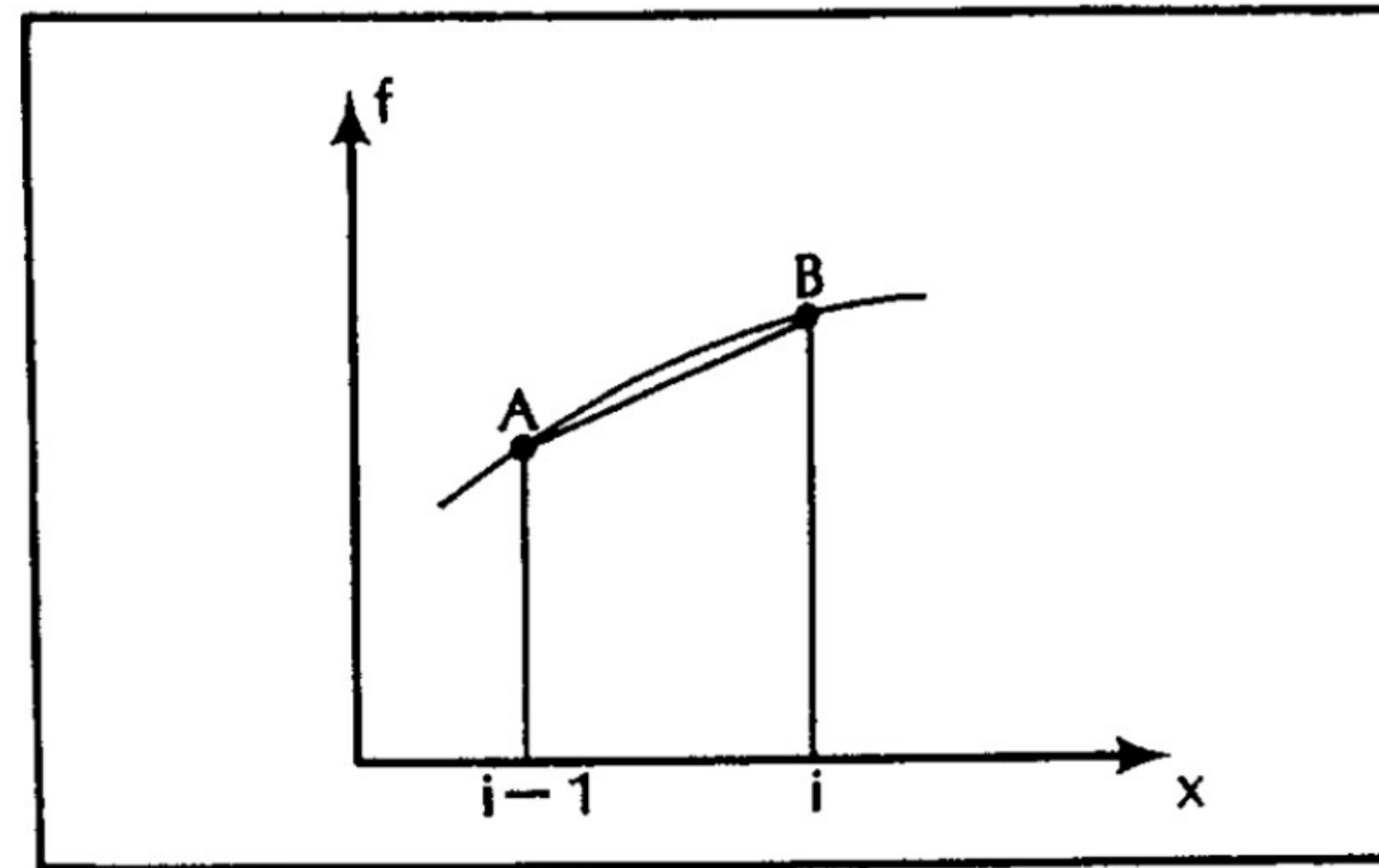


Figure 2-2. Illustration of grid points used in Equation (2-6).

From: K.A. Hoffmann & S.T. Chiang, Computational Fluid Dynamics: Volume I, Engineering Education System, 2000.

Definition of the derivative

- **Limit of the difference = differential**, the **quotient** is the **derivative**

$$f'(x) = \frac{df}{dx} \stackrel{!}{=} \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

- Geometrically, $f'(x)$ corresponds to the slope of the tangent to the graph of the function f at point x .
- **Question:** How can $f'(x)$ be approximated?

Approximations of the derivative: Finite difference stencils

- Finite Difference Method (FDM): ~~$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0}$~~

Terminate the limit value process at a finite but "*small*" Δx !

- **Forward difference**

$$f'_V(x) = \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

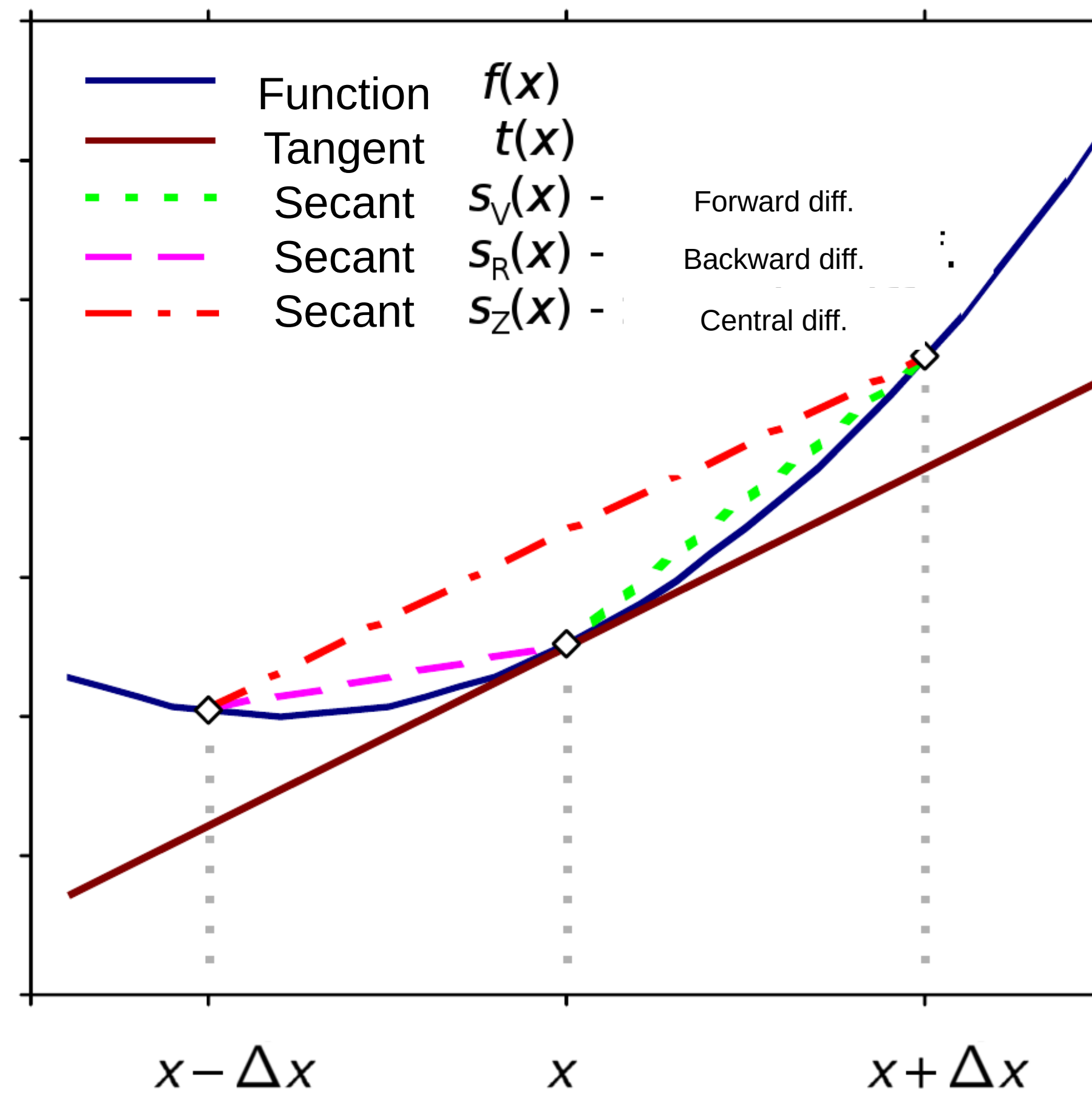
- **Backward difference**

$$f'_R(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x - \Delta x)}{\Delta x}$$

- **Central difference** ('symmetric' difference)

$$f'_Z(x) = \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$

Graphical interpretation



After: S. M. Holzer, Institute for Mathematics and Building Informatics, University of the Federal Armed Forces Munich, 2002.

Wait!

- Apparently, we have

$$f'(x) \approx f'_V(x) \approx f'_R(x) \approx f'_Z(x)$$

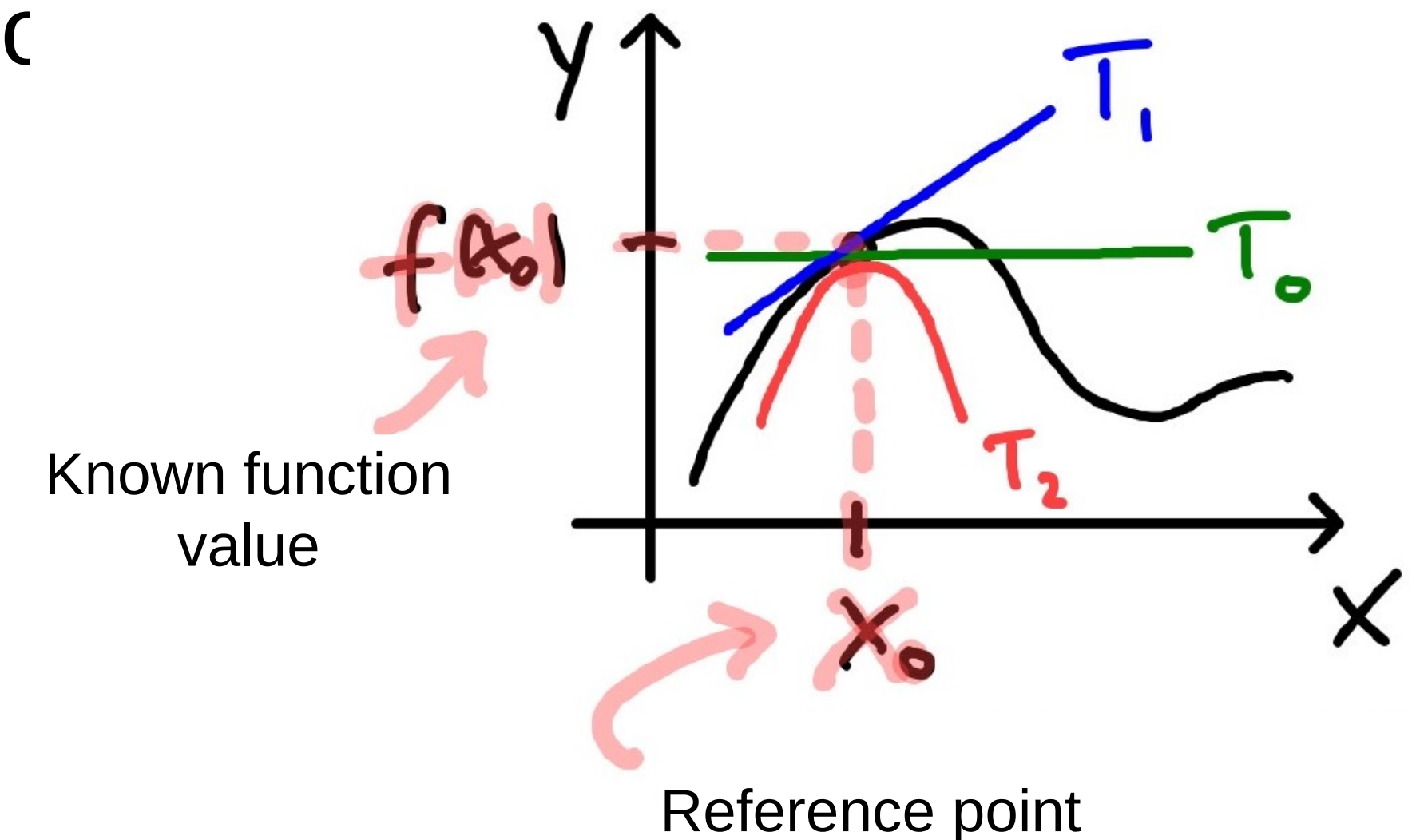
- **But,**
 - Does that always apply? How 'good' are these approximations?
 - How large is the error?
 - What is the impact of rounding and discretization errors? Is there an 'optimal' step size Δx ?

Interlude: Taylor series

- The **Taylor series** $T_N(x; x_0)$ denotes the expansion of a function $f(x)$ around a point x_0 into an order N polynomial.

$$T_N(x; x_0) = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{1}{n!} \cdot f^{(n)}(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0)^n$$

- Note:** If $f(x)$ is sufficiently smooth, the sum converges quickly. The smallest $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ then make the largest contribution.



Discretization error: Forward and backward difference

- **The idea for analyzing FDM-approximations**
 - Insert the Taylor series around x for $y_{i\pm1} = f(x \pm \Delta x)$
 - Error of the derivation: $\varepsilon = f'_{\text{FDM}}(x) - f'(x)$

- **Forward difference** (backward difference is analogous)

$$\begin{aligned}\varepsilon_V &= f'_V(x) - f'(x) \\ &= \frac{\cancel{f(x)} + \Delta x \cdot f'(x) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Delta x^2 \cdot f''(x) + \dots - \cancel{f(x)}}{\Delta x} - f'(x) \\ &= \cancel{f'(x)} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Delta x^1 \cdot f''(x) + \dots - \cancel{f'(x)} = O(\Delta x)\end{aligned}$$

- **Forward (and backward) differencing is first-order accurate $O(\Delta x)$.**
- The error of the derivative decreases linearly with Δx . Double mesh size means factor 2 larger error.

Discretization error of central difference

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varepsilon_Z &= f'_Z(x) - f'(x) \\
 &= \frac{\cancel{f(x)} + \Delta x \cdot f'(x) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Delta x^2 \cdot \cancel{f''(x)} + \frac{1}{6} \cdot \Delta x^3 \cdot f'''(x) + \dots}{2\Delta x} \\
 &\quad - \frac{\cancel{f(x)} - \Delta x \cdot f'(x) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Delta x^2 \cdot \cancel{f''(x)} - \frac{1}{6} \cdot \Delta x^3 \cdot f'''(x) + \dots}{2\Delta x} - f'(x) \\
 &= \cancel{f'(x)} + \frac{1}{6} \cdot \Delta x^2 \cdot f'''(x) + \dots - \cancel{f'(x)} = O(\Delta x^2)
 \end{aligned}$$

The central difference is of second order accuracy $O(\Delta x^2)$.

- The error of the derivation thus decreases quadratically with Δx . Half mesh size means $\frac{1}{4}$ of the error.
- The central difference is more accurate than the forward or backward difference, but at the expanse of a larger stencil.
- **But:** It depends on the behavior of the higher derivatives: $f''(x)$ for $f'_{V/R}$ $f'''(x)$ for f'_Z .

Consistency

- The **consistency** of the listed FDM approximations follows from the definition of the derivative, yielding the leading order error $\varepsilon = O(\Delta x^p)$, with $p > 0$: **The error must vanish in the limit of small meshes.**

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} f'_{\text{FDM}}(x) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \left[f'(x) + \underbrace{O(\Delta x^p)}_{\rightarrow 0} \right] \stackrel{!}{=} f'(x)$$

Minimum error and optimal step size

Q: Which method allows to achieve a relative error of the order of 10^{-16} (double precision)?

- Based on $O(\Delta x^p)$ One would perhaps naively expect that . . .
 - $\Delta x \leq 10^{-8}$ for the **central difference** and
 - $\Delta x \leq 10^{-16}$ applies to the **forward & backward difference**.
- For these small numbers, however, the *round-off error due to the division by Δx* must be taken into account. It is of the order $10^{-16}/\Delta x$. i.e., the loss of digits in the mantissa due to carry-over to the exponent.
- The actual error results from the sum of the **discretization error** and the **round-off error**.
- The “optimal” Δx , i.e. the Δx for which the **total error is minimal**, is approximately reached when both error contributions are of the same magnitude.

Estimation of minimum error and optimal step size

- **Forward difference** (backward difference analogous)

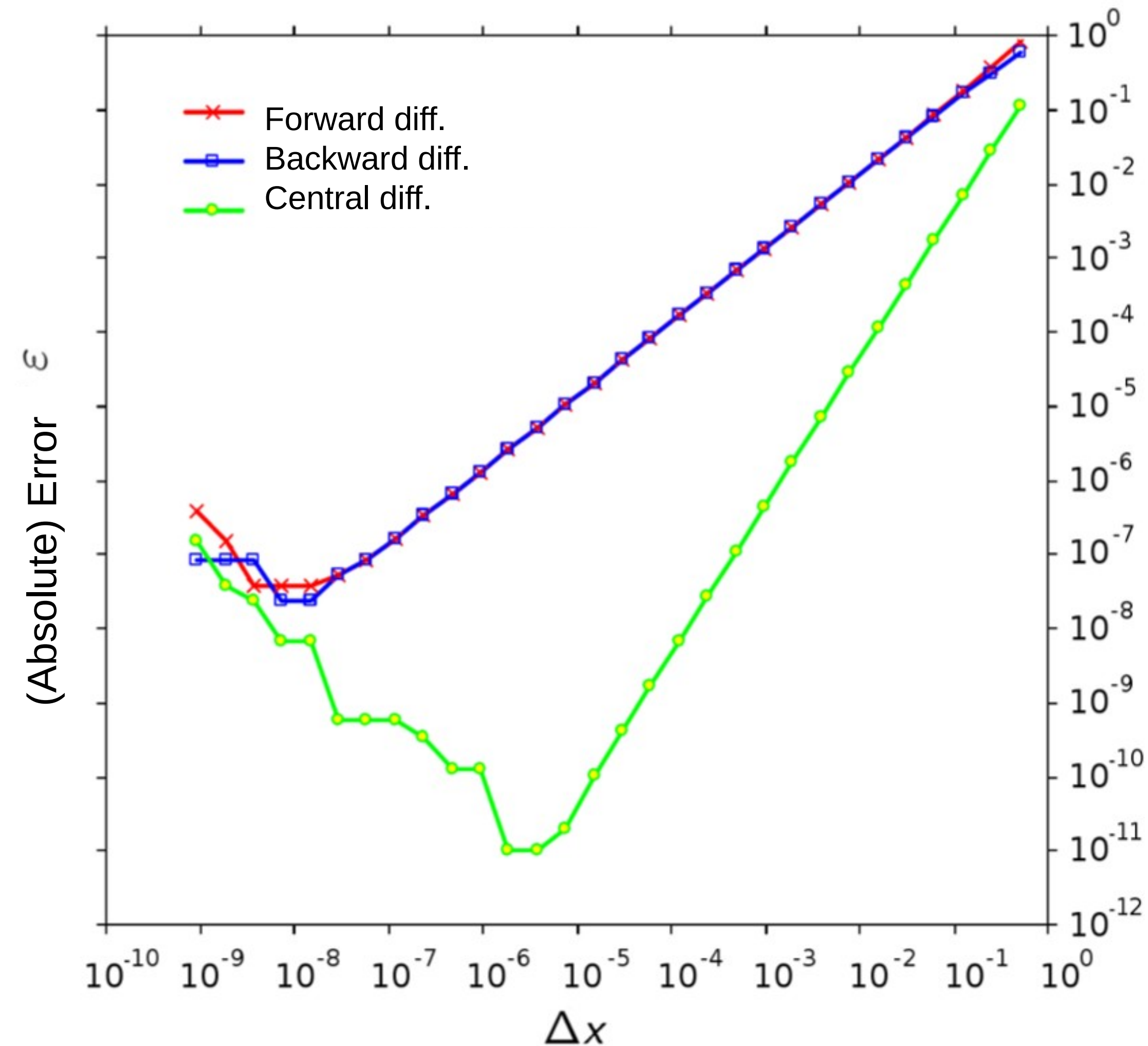
$$\frac{10^{-16}}{\Delta x_{\min}} \stackrel{!}{\simeq} \Delta x_{\min} \Rightarrow \Delta x_{\min} \simeq 10^{-8}, \quad \varepsilon_{V,\min} \simeq 10^{-8}$$

- **Central difference**

$$\frac{10^{-16}}{\Delta x_{\min}} \stackrel{!}{\simeq} \Delta x_{\min}^2 \Rightarrow \Delta x_{\min} \approx 10^{-5}, \quad \varepsilon_{Z,\min} \simeq 10^{-10}$$

- **Note:**
 - The minimum error is limited.
 - A numerical method with *higher-order accuracy* achieves a smaller error with a larger step size.

Convergence



← error of $f'(x)$

using:

$$f(x) = e^x$$

evaluated at:

$$x = 2$$

According to: S. M. Holzer, Institute for Mathematics and Building Informatics, University of the Federal Armed Forces Munich, 2002.

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4.4. Excursion: Second Derivative

Second derivative I

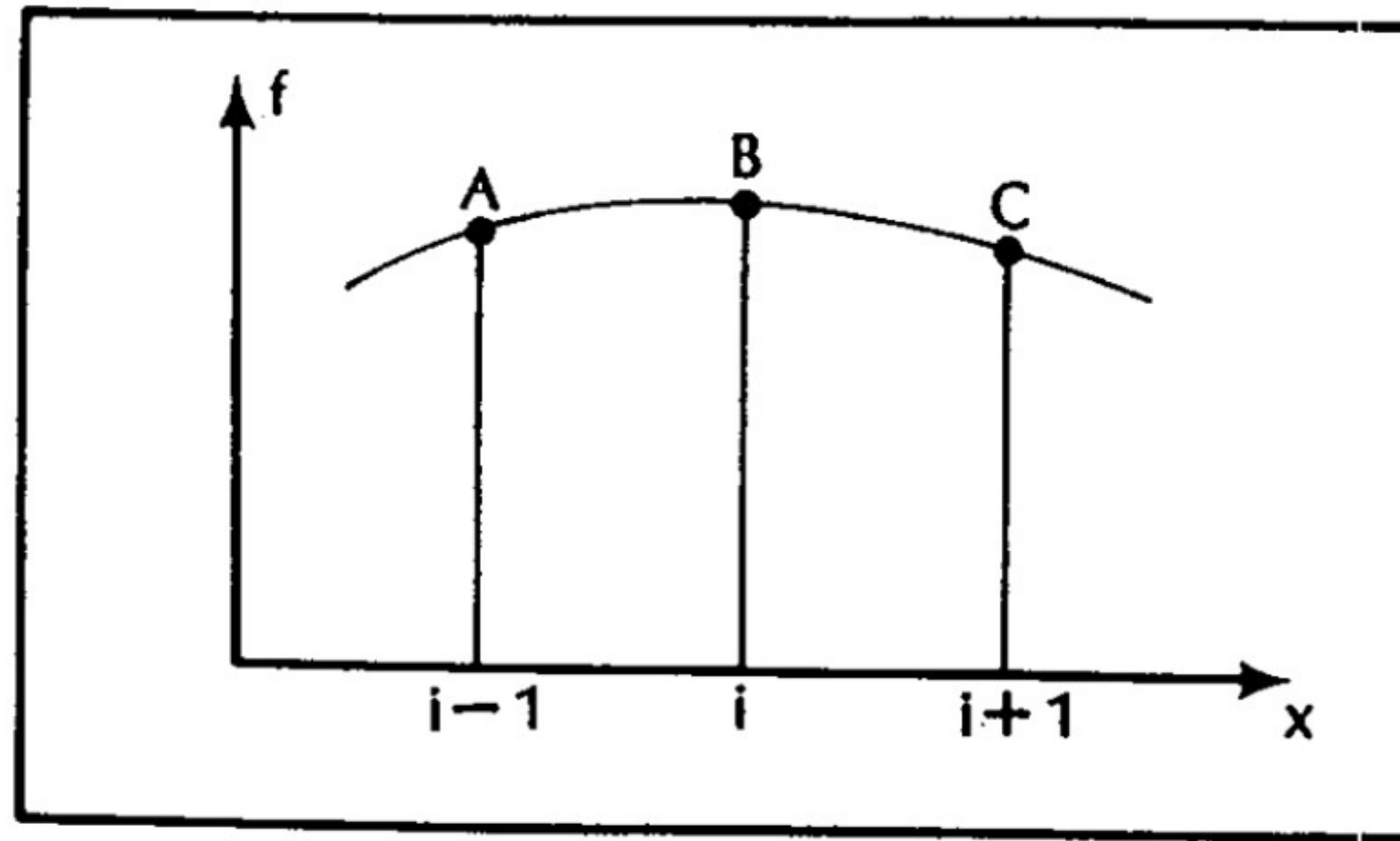


Figure 2-3. Illustration of grid points used in Equation (2-10).

Aus: K.A. Hoffmann & S.T. Chiang, *Computational Fluid Dynamics: Volume I*, Engineering Education System, 2000.

Second derivative II

- **3-point difference stencil** approximates the second derivative

$$f''(x) \approx f_Z''(x) = \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - 2f(x) + f(x - \Delta x)}{\Delta x^2}$$

- This scheme is of **second order** accuracy

$$\varepsilon_{Z,2} = f_Z''(x) - f''(x) = O(\Delta x^2) \quad \text{(without derivation)}$$

Keywords

- Definition of the derivative
- Finite Difference Method (FDM)
- difference stencil
- Taylor series
- Numerical errors