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## Chapter 14: Numerical Differentiation

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Slides for the book

**A First Course in Numerical Methods** (published by SIAM, 2011)

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# Why Numerical Differentiation?

- Simply for mathematical modeling.
- Obtaining derivatives of complicated functions by hand may be prone to errors.
- The function may not be known explicitly.

# Why numerical differentiation?

- Numerical differentiation is a major tool in deriving methods for differential equations (see Chapter 16).
- Approximating derivatives is ubiquitous in continuous optimization and nonlinear equations (see Chapters 3 and 9).
- The need to estimate derivatives from discrete data often arises in applications.

# What is numerical differentiation

- Given a function  $f(x)$  that is differentiable in the vicinity of a point  $x_0$ , it is often necessary to estimate the derivative  $f'(x)$  and higher derivatives using nearby values of  $f$ .
- Example 1.2 in Chapter 1 provides a simple instance of numerical differentiation. Here we consider the more complete picture. For instance, we ask
  - how to achieve more, higher order difference formulas in an easy and orderly fashion?
  - how to control or altogether avoid the strong cancellation error effect demonstrated in Example 1.3?

These and several other questions are considered here.

# Outline

- Deriving formulas using Taylor series
- Richardson extrapolation
- Deriving formulas using polynomial interpolation
- Roundoff and data errors
- ~~\*Differentiation matrices~~

\*advanced

# Deriving Formulas Using Taylor Series

From calculus, the derivative of a function  $f$  at  $x_0$  is defined by

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

This uses values of  $f$  near the point of differentiation,  $x_0$ . To obtain a formula approximating a first derivative, we therefore typically choose equally spaced points nearby (e.g.,  $x_0 - h, x_0, x_0 + h, \dots$ , for a small, positive  $h$ ) and construct an approximation from values of the function  $f(x)$  at these points.

# Deriving Formulas Using Taylor Series

The resulting **discretization error**, also called **truncation error**, shrinks as  $h$  shrinks, provided that the function  $f(x)$  is *sufficiently smooth*. Throughout this section, indeed throughout this chapter and others, we obtain estimates for truncation errors which depend on some higher derivatives of  $f(x)$ . We will assume, unless specifically noted otherwise, that such **high derivatives of  $f$  exist and are bounded**: this is what we mean by “sufficiently smooth.”

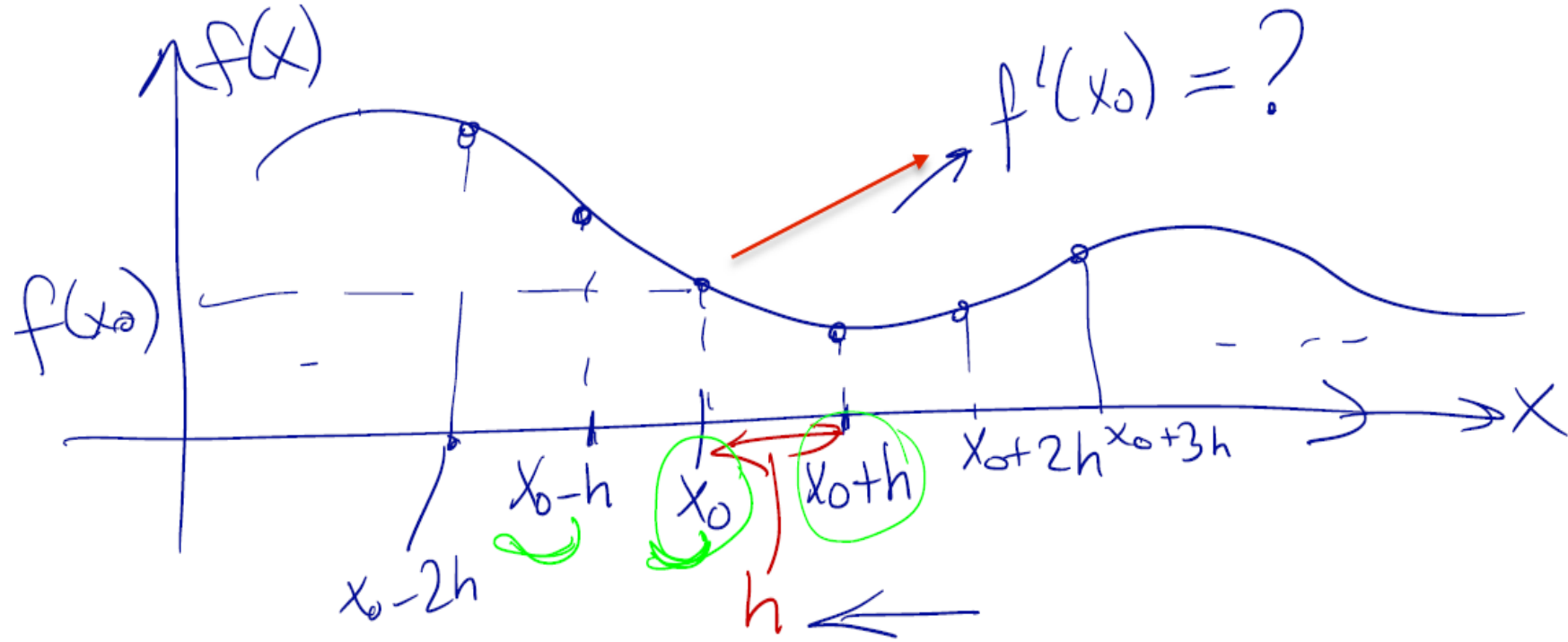
What determines an actual value for  $h$  depends on the specific application.

In the context of **deriving formulas** for use in the numerical solution of differential equations, **an interval  $[a,b]$  of a fixed size has to be traversed**. This **requires  $(b-a)/h$  such  $h$ -steps**, so the **smaller** the step size  $h$  the **more computational effort** is necessary. Thus, **efficiency** considerations would limit us from taking  $h > 0$  to be incredibly small.

# Deriving Formulas Using Taylor Series

## Formula derivation

1. Two-point formulas
2. Three-point formulas
3. Five-point formulas
4. Three-point formulas for the second derivative





# Deriving Formulas Using Taylor Series

- This is the most convenient, ad hoc approach.
- Start from Taylor's expansion, generally written for a small  $h > 0$  as

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_0 \pm h) &= f(x_0) \pm hf'(x_0) + \frac{h^2}{2}f''(x_0) \pm \frac{h^3}{6}f'''(x_0) + \\ &+ \frac{h^4}{24}f^{(iv)}(x_0) \pm \frac{h^5}{120}f^{(v)}(x_0) + \frac{h^6}{720}f^{(vi)}(x_0) + \mathcal{O}(h^7). \end{aligned}$$

- Truncate this as needed and derive an expression for  $f'(x_0)$ .
- Simplest example is the **forward difference** of Example 1.2. Likewise, **backward difference** is obtained by writing  $f(x_0 - h) = f(x_0) - hf'(x_0) + \frac{h^2}{2}f''(\xi)$ , hence  $f'(x_0)$  is approximated by  $\frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - h)}{h}$  with **truncation error**  $\frac{h}{2}f''(\xi)$  for some  $x_0 - h \leq \xi \leq x_0$ .
- The forward and backward formulas are **one-sided**, **two-point** formulas with truncation error  $\mathcal{O}(h)$ , i.e., they are 1st order methods.

# Deriving Formulas Using Taylor Series

## Higher order formulas

- We can easily derive 2nd order, three-point formulas.

- **Centered**: subtract expressions for  $f(x_0 + h)$  and  $f(x_0 - h)$ :

$$f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h) = 2hf'(x_0) + \frac{2h^3}{6}f'''(x_0) + \frac{2h^5}{120}f^{(5)}(x_0) + \mathcal{O}(h^7)$$

Thus,  $f'(x_0)$  is approximated by  $\frac{f(x_0+h)-f(x_0-h)}{2h}$  with truncation error  $-\frac{h^2}{6}f'''(\xi)$ .

- **One-sided**: Please verify that the approximation

$\frac{1}{2h}(-3f(x_0) + 4f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 + 2h))$  has truncation error  $\frac{h^2}{3}f'''(\xi)$  where  $\xi \in [x_0, x_0 + 2h]$ .

- Using five points we can derive 4th order formulas, e.g., the formula

$$f'(x_0) \approx \frac{1}{12h} (f(x_0 - 2h) - 8f(x_0 - h) + 8f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 + 2h)),$$

has the truncation error  $e(h) = \frac{h^4}{30}f^{(5)}(\xi)$ .

- A similar approach may be used to eliminate for the 2nd derivative. For instance, the famous **centred, three-point, 2nd order** formula is

$$f''(x_0) = \frac{1}{h^2} (f(x_0 - h) - 2f(x_0) + f(x_0 + h)) - \frac{h^2}{12}f^{(4)}(\xi).$$

# Deriving Formulas Using Taylor Series

Ex 14.1:

Example

Approximate  $f'(0)$  for  $f(x) = e^x$  using methods of order 1, 2 and 4. Record and plot errors for  $h = 10^{-k}$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, 5$ .

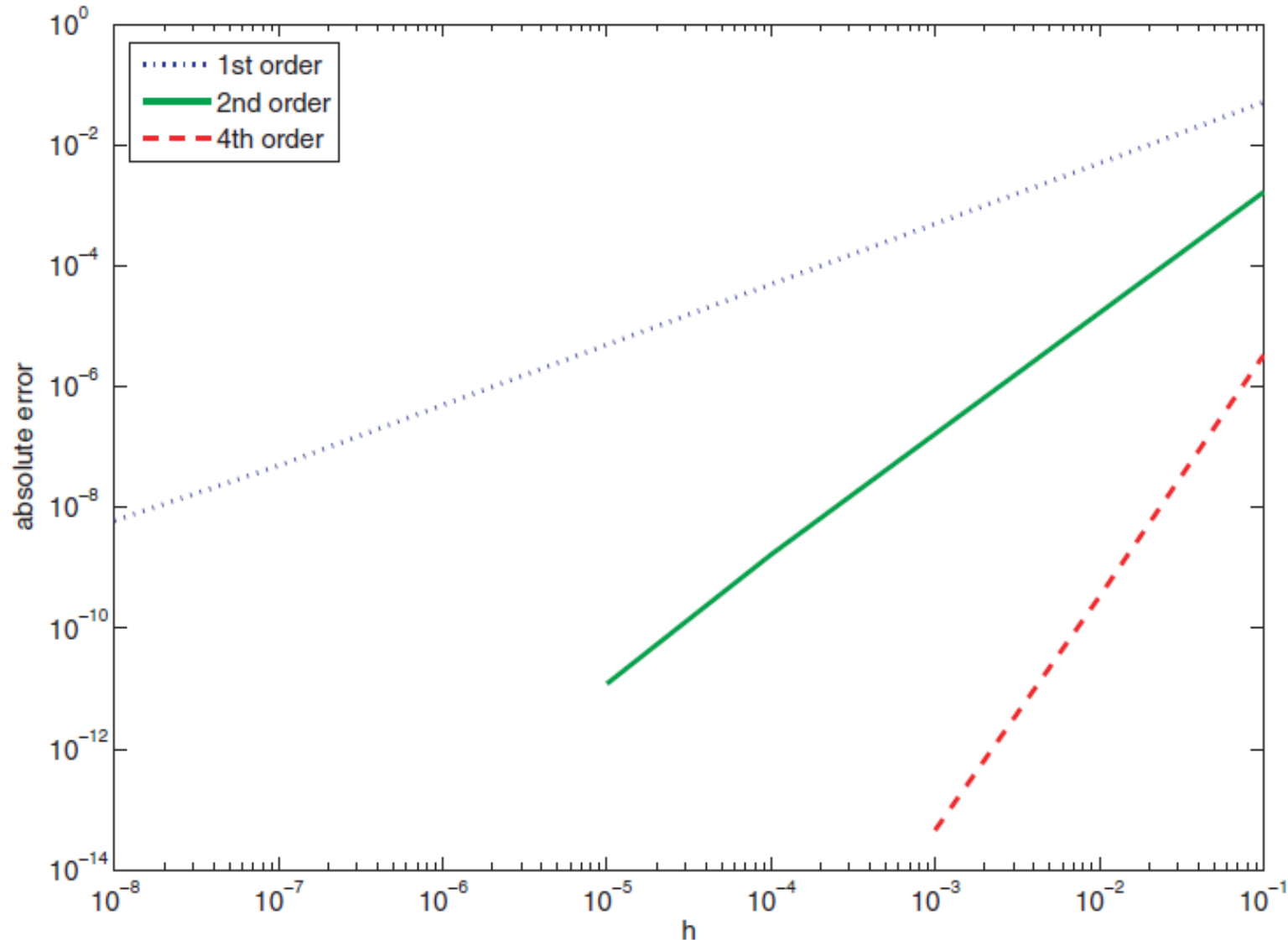
$f(x_0+h) - f(x_0)$  →

$h$	$\frac{e^h - 1}{h} - 1$	$\frac{e^h - e^{-h}}{2h} - 1$	$\frac{-e^{2h} + 8e^h - 8e^{-h} + e^{-2h}}{12h} - 1$
0.1	5.17e-2	1.67e-3	3.33e-6
0.01	5.02e-3	1.67e-5	3.33e-10
0.001	5.0e-4	1.67e-7	-4.54e-14
0.0001	5.0e-5	1.67e-9	-2.60e-13
0.00001	5.0e-6	1.21e-11	-3.63e-12

# Deriving Formulas Using Taylor Series

Figure displays the errors for values  $h = 10^{-k}$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, 8$ . On the log-log scale of the figure, different orders of accuracy appear as different slopes of straight lines. Where the straight lines terminate (going from right to left in  $h$ ) is where roundoff error takes over.

Before roundoff error dominates, the higher order methods perform very well.



# Deriving Formulas Using Taylor Series

## Difference formulas

Notation:  $f_j = f(x_0 + jh)$ ,  $j = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$

Derivative	points	type	order	formula
$hf'(x_0)$	2	forward	1	$f_1 - f_0$
	2	backward	1	$f_0 - f_{-1}$
$2hf'(x_0)$	3	centred	2	$f_1 - f_{-1}$
	3	forward	2	$-3f_0 + 4f_1 - f_2$
$12hf'(x_0)$	5	centred	4	$f_{-2} - 8f_{-1} + 8f_1 - f_2$
$h^2 f''(x_0)$	3	centred	2	$f_{-1} - 2f_0 + f_1$
$12h^2 f''(x_0)$	5	centred	4	$-f_{-2} + 16f_{-1} - 30f_0 + 16f_1 - f_2$

# Deriving Formulas Using Taylor Series

## Taylor series approach assessment

- Simple and natural to use.
- Directly obtain both formula and its truncation error estimate.
- However, this approach is ad hoc and does not automatically generalize:
  - Sometimes we need to approximate with a **non-uniform** step size, e.g., approximate  $f'(x_0)$  using  $f(x_0)$ ,  $f(x_0 + h)$ ,  $f(x_0 - h/3)$ . This would require an individual treatment.
  - Tedious work (and increased chances for human error) may be required for deriving high order formulas.



# Richardson Extrapolation

- This is a straightforward, favourite technique based on a simple yet general principle for deriving higher order formulas from lower order ones.
- More limited than the general Taylor series approach, but methodical and easily applied.
- Can be applied repeatedly for generating methods of higher and higher order.
- Used in classical methods for numerical integration and differential equations (Chapters 15, 16).
- **Basic idea:** use lower order formula with more than one step size, and combine to eliminate the leading term of the truncation error.

# Richardson Extrapolation

## Example of method derivation

**Goal:** Derive a centred, 4<sup>th</sup> order formula for the 2<sup>nd</sup> derivative.

- Write the centred 3-point formula for  $f_0$  once for  $h$  and once for  $2h$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}f''(x_0) &= \frac{1}{h^2} (f_{-1} - 2f_0 + f_1) - \frac{h^2}{12} f^{(iv)}(x_0) + \mathcal{O}(h^4) \\&= \frac{1}{(2h)^2} (f_{-2} - 2f_0 + f_2) - \frac{(2h)^2}{12} f^{(iv)}(x_0) + \mathcal{O}(h^4).\end{aligned}$$

- The leading term of the truncation error in the second line is 4 times larger than in the first. So multiply the first line by 4 and subtract the 2<sup>nd</sup> line:

$$3f''(x_0) = \frac{4}{h^2} (f_{-1} - 2f_0 + f_1) - \frac{1}{(2h)^2} (f_{-2} - 2f_0 + f_2) + \mathcal{O}(h^4).$$

- Rearrange:

$$f''(x_0) = \frac{1}{12h^2} (-f_{-2} + 16f_{-1} - 30f_0 + 16f_1 - f_2) + \mathcal{O}(h^4).$$



# Richardson Extrapolation

## Error Estimation

It is often **desirable to obtain a practical estimate for the error** committed in a numerical differentiation formula **without resorting to precise knowledge of the higher derivatives of  $f(x)$ .**

**Example 14.3.** Instead of combining the two second order expressions in Example 14.2 to obtain a higher order formula, we could use them to obtain an *error estimate*. Thus, subtracting one from the other and ignoring  $\mathcal{O}(h^4)$  terms, we clearly obtain an expression for  $-\frac{3h^2}{12} f^{(iv)}(x_0)$  in terms of computable values of  $f$  at  $x_0$ ,  $x_0 \pm h$ , and  $x_0 \pm 2h$ . Dividing by 3, this yields the computable error estimate

$$e(h) \approx \frac{1}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{4h^2} (f(x_0 - 2h) - 2f(x_0) + f(x_0 + 2h)) - \frac{1}{h^2} (f(x_0 - h) - 2f(x_0) + f(x_0 + h)) \right],$$

applicable for the classical three-point formula.

# Richardson Extrapolation

## Advantages

- Simplicity
- Generality

## Disadvantages

- Resulting formulas are typically **noncompact**: they use more neighboring points involving a wider spacing than perhaps necessary.
- The explicit reliance on the **existence of higher** and higher *nicely bounded* derivatives of  $f$ , so that neglecting higher order error terms is enabled, **exposes vulnerability** when this **assumption is violated**.

# Deriving Formulas Using Lagrange Polynomial Interpolation

In some cases, **Taylor series** can become **difficult to apply**. Reasons are

- when desired **order is high**
- when the **points** used are **not equally spaced**

Thus, the **complication** of **using Taylor expansions quickly increases**, especially if a high order method is desired in such a case.

A ***general approach*** for deriving approximate differentiation formulas at some point  $x_0$  is to **choose a few nearby points, interpolate by a polynomial, and then differentiate the interpolant.**

# Deriving Formulas Using Lagrange Polynomial Interpolation

Consider the derivation of a formula involving the points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ , not ordered in any particular fashion. The interpolating polynomial of degree at most  $n$  is

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) L_j(x),$$

$$L_j(x) = \frac{(x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_{j-1})(x - x_{j+1}) \cdots (x - x_n)}{(x_j - x_0) \cdots (x_j - x_{j-1})(x_j - x_{j+1}) \cdots (x_j - x_n)}.$$

Lagrange polynomials

Taking the derivative of  $p(x)$  and substituting  $x = x_0$  yields the *general formula for numerical differentiation*

$$p'(x_0) = \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) L'_j(x_0).$$

This formula does not require the points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  to be equidistant!

# Deriving Formulas Using Lagrange Polynomial Interpolation

## Differentiation Using Equidistant Points

To obtain cleaner expressions, let us next assume equidistant spacing. We will get to the more general case later. Thus, assume that the points  $x_i$  are distributed around  $x_0$  and given as  $x_0 - lh, x_0 - (l-1)h, \dots, x_0 - h, x_0, x_0 + h, \dots, x_0 + uh$ , where  $l$  and  $u$  are nonnegative integers and  $n = l + u$ . There is an obvious shift in index involved, from 0 to  $-l$ , because we want to emphasize that the points  $x_i = x_0 + ih$  are generally on both sides of  $x_0$ , where we seek to approximate  $f'(x_0)$ .

Evaluating the weights of the formula, we get

$$L'_0(x_0) = \sum_{\substack{k=-l \\ k \neq 0}}^u \frac{1}{x_0 - x_k} = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{\substack{k=-l \\ k \neq 0}}^u \left( \frac{1}{-k} \right),$$

$$L'_j(x_0) = \frac{1}{x_j - x_0} \prod_{\substack{k=-l \\ k \neq 0 \\ k \neq j}}^u \frac{x_0 - x_k}{x_j - x_k} = \frac{1}{jh} \prod_{\substack{k=-l \\ k \neq 0 \\ k \neq j}}^u \left( \frac{-k}{j-k} \right) \quad \text{for } j \neq 0.$$

# Deriving Formulas Using Lagrange Polynomial Interpolation

## Differentiation Using Equidistant Points

$$p'(x_0) = h^{-1} \sum_{j=-l}^u a_j f(x_j), \quad \text{where} \quad a_j = h L'_j(x_0), \quad j = -l, \dots, u,$$

# Deriving Formulas Using Lagrange Polynomial Interpolation

## Differentiation Using Equidistant Points

### Interpolation Error

$$f(x) - p_n(x) = f[x_{-l}, x_{-l+1}, \dots, x_u, x] \prod_{k=-l}^u (x - x_k).$$

$$f'(x_0) - p'_n(x_0) = \left[ \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} l! u! \right] h^n \quad \text{for some } \xi, x_{-l} \leq \xi \leq x_u.$$

# Deriving Formulas Using Lagrange Polynomial Interpolation

## Differentiation Using Equidistant Points

### **Numerical Differentiation.**

Based on the points  $x_i = x_0 + ih$ ,  $i = -l, \dots, u$ , where  $l + u = n$ , an  $n$ th order formula approximating  $f'(x_0)$  is given by

$$f'(x_0) \approx \frac{1}{h} \sum_{j=-l}^u a_j f(x_j),$$

where

$$a_j = \begin{cases} -\sum_{\substack{k=-l \\ k \neq 0}}^u \left( \frac{1}{k} \right), & j = 0, \\ \frac{1}{j} \prod_{\substack{k=-l \\ k \neq 0 \\ k \neq j}}^u \left( \frac{k}{k-j} \right), & j \neq 0. \end{cases}$$



# Deriving Formulas Using Lagrange Polynomial Interpolation

## Nonuniformly Spaced Points

Recall a major **advantage** of the current more general **but complicated** approach, in that the **points need not be equally spaced**.

**Example 14.6.** Suppose that the points  $x_{-1}$ ,  $x_0 = x_{-1} + h_0$ , and  $x_1 = x_0 + h_1$  are to be used to derive a second order formula for  $f'(x_0)$  which holds even when  $h_0 \neq h_1$ . Such a setup arises often in practice.

$$f'(x_0) \approx \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_{-1})}{h_0 + h_1},$$

Instead, consider  $p_2'(x_0) = \sum_{j=-1}^1 f(x_j)L_j'(x_0)$ , where  $p_2$  is the interpolating polynomial in Lagrange form. We have

$$f'(x_0) \approx \frac{h_1 - h_0}{h_0 h_1} f(x_0) + \frac{1}{h_0 + h_1} \left( \frac{h_0}{h_1} f(x_1) - \frac{h_1}{h_0} f(x_{-1}) \right)$$

# Deriving Formulas Using Lagrange Polynomial Interpolation

## Nonuniformly Spaced Points

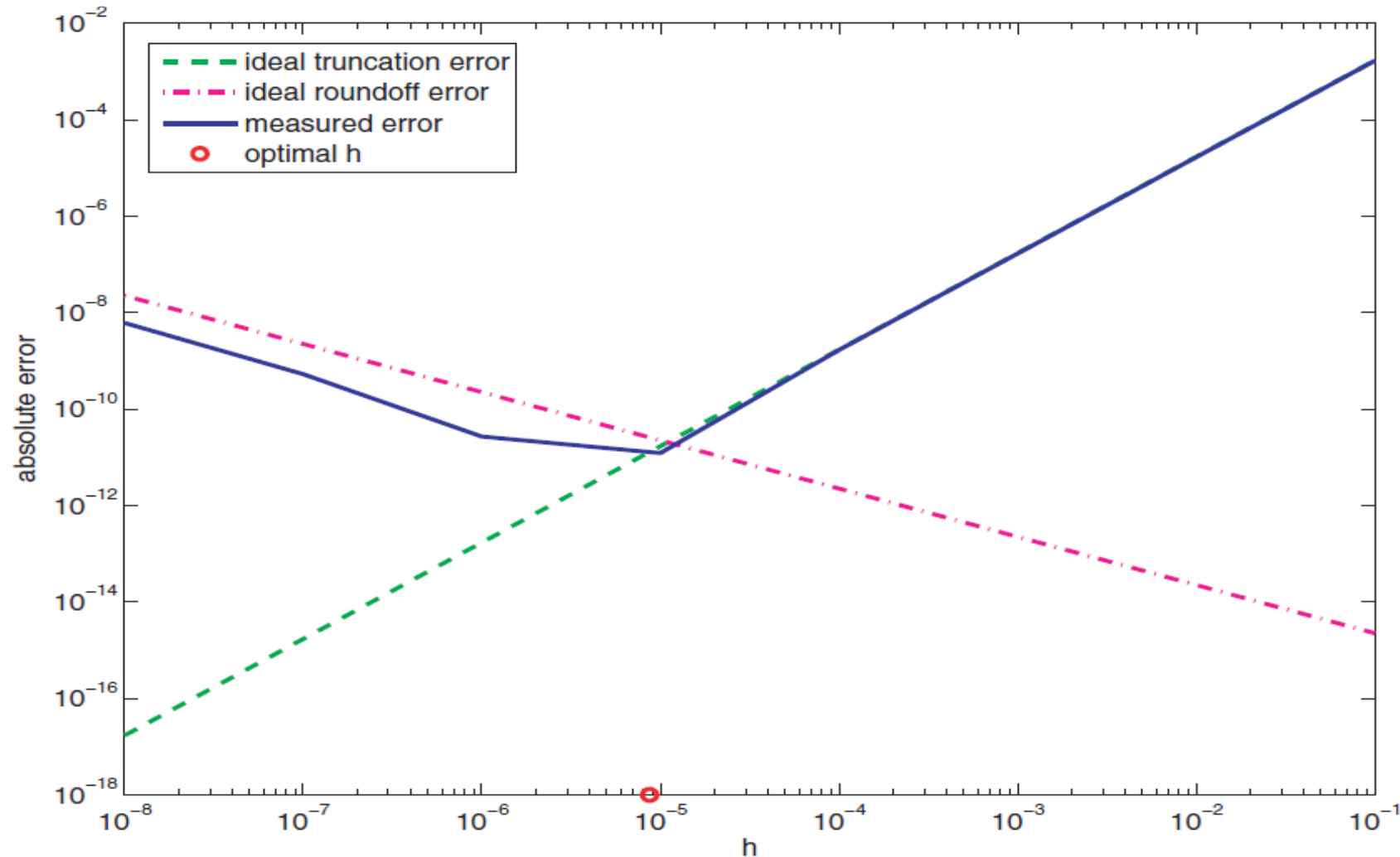
**Table 14.2.** *Errors in the numerical differentiation of  $f(x) = e^x$  at  $x = 0$  using three-point methods on a nonuniform mesh, Example 14.6. The error  $e_g$  in the more elaborate method is second order, whereas the simpler method yields first order accuracy  $e_s$ . The error value 0 at the bottom of the second column is a lucky break.*

$h$	$e_g$	$e_s$
0.1	8.44e-4	2.63e-2
0.01	8.34e-6	2.51e-3
0.001	8.33e-8	2.50e-4
0.0001	8.35e-10	2.50e-5
0.00001	0	2.50e-6

# Roundoff and Data Errors

- Recall Example 1.3: for very small  $h$  and smooth  $f$  we may encounter severe cancellation error amplified by  $h^{-1}$  when approximating the derivative  $f'$ . Then, roundoff error takes over, and it grows as  $h$  decreases.
- Clearly, this problem happens with all numerical differentiation methods we have seen thus far (e.g. see our table of difference formulas).
- In fact, for higher order methods roundoff error dominates sooner (i.e. for larger  $h$ ) because truncation error decreases faster.

# Roundoff and Data Errors



**Figure 14.2.** The measured error roughly equals truncation error plus roundoff error. The former decreases but the latter grows as  $h$  decreases. The “ideal roundoff error” is just  $\eta/h$ . Note the log-log scale of the plot. A red circle marks the “optimal  $h$ ” value for Example 14.1.

# Roundoff and Data Errors

## Example

Consider the 2nd order method  $f'(x_0) \simeq D_h = \frac{f(x_0+h) - f(x_0-h)}{2h}$ .

- Denote  $\text{fl}(f(x)) \equiv \bar{f}(x) = f(x) + e_r(x)$ ,  $|e_r(x)| \leq \epsilon$ , where  $\epsilon$  depends on the **rounding unit**. Assuming exact arithmetic for simplicity,

$$\bar{D}_h = \frac{\bar{f}(x_0+h) - \bar{f}(x_0-h)}{2h}.$$

- Obtain

$$\begin{aligned} |\bar{D}_h - D_h| &= \left| \frac{\bar{f}(x_0+h) - \bar{f}(x_0-h)}{2h} - \frac{f(x_0+h) - f(x_0-h)}{2h} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{e_r(x_0+h) - e_r(x_0-h)}{2h} \right| \\ &\leq \left| \frac{e_r(x_0+h)}{2h} \right| + \left| \frac{e_r(x_0-h)}{2h} \right| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{h}. \end{aligned}$$

- So, if  $|f'''(\xi)| \leq M$  then

$$\begin{aligned} |f'(x_0) - \bar{D}_h| &= |(f'(x_0) - D_h) + (D_h - \bar{D}_h)| \\ &\leq |f'(x_0) - D_h| + |D_h - \bar{D}_h| \leq \frac{h^2 M}{6} + \frac{\epsilon}{h}. \end{aligned}$$

- “Theoretically optimal”  $h$  is where this bound is minimized:  $h_* = (3\epsilon/M)^{1/3}$ .

# Roundoff and Data Errors

**How bad can this problem be, and what can we do?**

- The answer highly depends on the application!
- For discretization of differential equations, can usually keep  $h \gg \epsilon$  using IEEE standard “double precision” word (but not “single precision”); see Chapter 2.
- For calculating gradient and Hessian in a more controlled optimization context (also, constrained multibody simulations), it is usually fine to use  $h$  “not too small”. An alternative is automatic differentiation methods, not covered here, which do not suffer from roundoff error problems.
- For applications involving numerical differentiation of measured data which may contain noise, it is easy to get stuck! A possible remedy is to smooth the data (i.e., approximate the data by a smooth function), and only then differentiate.

The main lesson from this analysis is not to take  $h$  too close to the rounding unit  $\eta$ .

# Roundoff and Data Errors

## Example: differentiating noisy data

We create a function  $f(x)$  to be differentiated by first sampling  $\sin(x)$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$  with  $h = .01$ , and then adding 1% Gaussian noise to these  $200\pi$  values. The result is in the left panel below.

Next, numerical differentiation approximately gives  $\cos(x)$  plus the noise magnified by  $1/h = 100$ . The (unacceptable) result is depicted in the right panel below.

