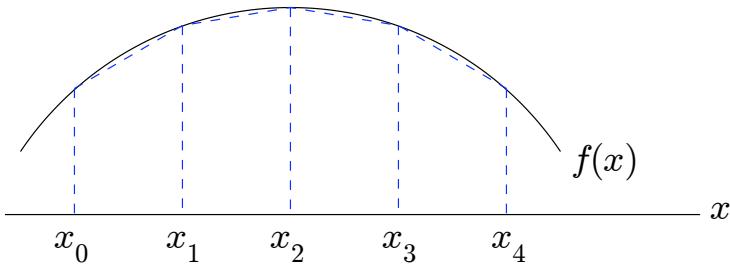


chapter 6 : numerical integration

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i)$$

For now, assume $x_i = a + ih$, $h = \frac{b-a}{n}$, $i = 0, \dots, n$: uniform points.

trapezoid rule



$$\begin{aligned} T(h) &= h \cdot \frac{1}{2}(f(x_0) + f(x_1)) + h \cdot \frac{1}{2}(f(x_1) + f(x_2)) + \dots + h \cdot \frac{1}{2}(f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)) \\ &= h \left(\frac{1}{2}f(x_0) + f(x_1) + \dots + f(x_{n-1}) + \frac{1}{2}f(x_n) \right) \end{aligned}$$

note : The trapezoid rule computes the area under the piecewise linear interpolant to $f(x)$.

ex : $\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx = 0.746824\dots$

h	$T(h)$	error	error/h^2
1	0.683940	0.062884	0.062884
0.5	0.731370	0.015454	0.061816
0.25	0.742984	0.003840	0.061440
0.125	0.745866	0.000958	0.061312

Hence the trapezoid rule is 2nd order accurate. Let's prove it analytically.

local error

$$\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x)dx = h \cdot \frac{1}{2}(f(x_i) + f(x_{i+1})) - \frac{1}{12}f''(\zeta)h^3$$

pf

$p_1(x) = f[x_i] + f[x_i, x_{i+1}](x - x_i)$: linear interpolating polynomial

$f(x) = p_1(x) + \frac{1}{2}f''(\zeta)(x - x_i)(x - x_{i+1})$: error in polynomial interpolation

$$\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x)dx = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p_1(x)dx + \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} \frac{1}{2}f''(\zeta)(x - x_i)(x - x_{i+1})dx$$

$$\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p_1(x) dx = hf[x_i] + f[x_i, x_{i+1}] \frac{(x - x_i)^2}{2} \Big|_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} = hf(x_i) + \left(\frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)}{h} \right) \frac{h^2}{2}$$

$$= h \cdot \frac{1}{2}(f(x_i) + f(x_{i+1})) \text{ : trapezoid rule}$$

$$\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} \frac{1}{2} f''(\zeta)(x - x_i)(x - x_{i+1}) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} f''(\hat{\zeta}) \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} (x - x_i)(x - x_{i+1}) dx \text{ : generalized Mean Value Theorem}$$

change variables : $s = \frac{x - x_i}{h}$, $\frac{x - x_{i+1}}{h} = \frac{x - (x_i + h)}{h} = s - 1$, $ds = \frac{dx}{h}$

$$= \frac{1}{2} f''(\hat{\zeta}) \int_0^1 hs \cdot h(s - 1) \cdot h ds = \frac{1}{2} f''(\hat{\zeta}) h^3 \int_0^1 (s^2 - s) ds$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} f''(\hat{\zeta}) h^3 \left(\frac{1}{3}s^3 - \frac{1}{2}s^2 \right) \Big|_0^1 = -\frac{1}{12} f''(\hat{\zeta}) h^3 \quad \text{ok}$$

global error

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = T(h) - \frac{1}{12}(b - a)f''(\zeta)h^2 \text{ : 2nd order accurate}$$

pf

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x) dx$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^n \left(h \cdot \frac{1}{2}(f(x_i) + f(x_{i+1})) - \frac{1}{12} f''(\zeta_i) h^3 \right) \text{ : local error}$$

$$= T(h) - \frac{1}{12} \sum_{i=0}^n f''(\zeta_i) h^3 = T(h) - \frac{1}{12} n \cdot f''(\zeta) h^3 \quad \text{ok}$$

question : how can we get more accurate results?

1. piecewise quadratic interpolant (Simpson's rule)
2. cubic spline interpolant
3. non-uniform points

asymptotic expansion

$$T(h) = \int_a^b f(x) dx + c_2 h^2 + c_4 h^4 + c_6 h^6 + \dots, \text{ where } c_i \text{ are independent of } h$$

Richardson extrapolation (Romberg's method)

$$T(2h) = \int_a^b f(x) dx + c_2(2h)^2 + c_4(2h)^4 + c_6(2h)^6 + \dots$$

$$= \int_a^b f(x) dx + 4c_2 h^2 + 16c_4 h^4 + 64c_6 h^6 + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{4T(h) - T(2h)}{3} = \int_a^b f(x)dx - 4c_4h^4 - 20c_6h^6 + \dots$$

define $R_0(h) = T(h)$: 2nd order accurate

$$\text{define } R_1(h) = R_0(h) + \frac{R_0(h) - R_0(2h)}{3} : \text{ 4th order accurate}$$

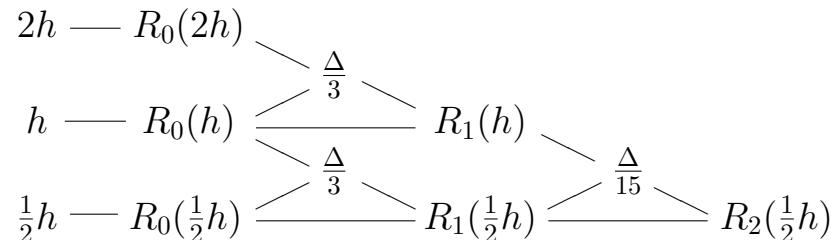
$$R_1(h) = \int_a^b f(x)dx + \tilde{c}_4h^4 + \tilde{c}_6h^6 + \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_1(2h) &= \int_a^b f(x)dx + \tilde{c}_4(2h)^4 + \tilde{c}_6(2h)^6 + \dots \\ &= \int_a^b f(x)dx + 16\tilde{c}_4h^4 + 64\tilde{c}_6h^6 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{16R_1(h) - R_1(2h)}{15} = \int_a^b f(x)dx - \frac{16}{5}\tilde{c}_6h^6 + \dots$$

$$\text{define } R_2(h) = R_1(h) + \frac{R_1(h) - R_1(2h)}{15} : \text{ 6th order accurate}$$

table



$$\text{ex : } \int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx = 0.74682413\dots$$

h	$R_0(h)$	$R_1(h)$	$R_2(h)$	$R_3(h)$
1.0	0.683940			
0.5	0.731370	0.747180		
0.25	0.742984	0.7468553	0.7468336	
0.125	0.745866	0.7468266	0.7468246	0.7468244

note

1. The last column $R_3(h)$ uses $\frac{\Delta}{63}$.
2. down a column : decreasing h , fixed order of accuracy
across a row : fixed h , increasing order of accuracy

orthogonal polynomials

recall : inner product of two vectors in n -dimensional space

$$\mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

define : inner product of two functions on the interval $[-1, 1]$

$$f(x), g(x) \Rightarrow \langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 f(x)g(x)dx$$

properties

1. $\langle f, f \rangle \geq 0$, $\langle f, f \rangle^{1/2} = \|f\|$: norm of f , $\|f\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow f = 0$
2. $\langle f, \alpha g + h \rangle = \alpha \langle f, g \rangle + \langle f, h \rangle$

def : We say that f and g are orthogonal if $\langle f, g \rangle = 0$.

ex

$$\langle \sin \pi x, \cos \pi x \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 \sin \pi x \cos \pi x dx = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sin^2 \pi x \Big|_{-1}^1 = 0 \text{ : orthogonal}$$

$$\langle 1, x \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 1 \cdot x dx = 0 \text{ : orthogonal}$$

$$\langle 1, x^2 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 1 \cdot x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3} \text{ : not orthogonal}$$

note

Given the functions $\{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$, the Gram-Schmidt process produces a set of orthogonal polynomials $\{P_0(x), P_1(x), P_2(x), \dots\}$ called the Legendre polynomials.

$$P_0(x) = 1$$

$$P_1(x) = x - \frac{\langle x, P_0 \rangle}{\|P_0\|^2} P_0 = x$$

$$P_2(x) = x^2 - \frac{\langle x^2, P_0 \rangle}{\|P_0\|^2} P_0 - \frac{\langle x^2, P_1 \rangle}{\|P_1\|^2} P_1 = x^2 - \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\langle x^2, P_0 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3}, \quad \|P_0\|^2 = \int_{-1}^1 dx = 2, \quad \langle x^2, P_1 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx = 0$$

$$\text{check : } \langle P_2, P_0 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 (x^2 - \frac{1}{3}) dx = 0, \quad \langle P_2, P_1 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 (x^2 - \frac{1}{3}) x dx = 0 \quad \text{ok}$$

$$P_3(x) = x^3 - \frac{\langle x^3, P_0 \rangle}{\|P_0\|^2} P_0 - \frac{\langle x^3, P_1 \rangle}{\|P_1\|^2} P_1 - \frac{\langle x^3, P_2 \rangle}{\|P_2\|^2} P_2 = x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x$$

$$\langle x^3, P_0 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx = 0$$

$$\langle x^3, P_1 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 x^3 \cdot x dx = \frac{2}{5}, \quad \|P_1\|^2 = \int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\langle x^3, P_2 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 x^3 (x^2 - \frac{1}{3}) dx = 0$$

note

1. $P_n(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n .
2. Any polynomial $q(x)$ of degree $\leq n$ can be written $q(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i P_i(x)$,
i.e. $\{P_0, \dots, P_n\}$ form a basis for the vector space of polynomials of degree $\leq n$.

Gaussian quadrature

1. $P_n(x)$ has n distinct roots in $(-1, 1)$, call them x_1, \dots, x_n
2. There exist constants c_1, \dots, c_n such that the integration rule

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i) \text{ is } \underline{\text{exact}} \text{ for polynomials of degree } \leq 2n-1 \text{ (for } n \geq 1).$$

$$\text{ex : } \int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx = \int_{-1}^1 e^{-(\frac{1}{2}(t+1))^2} \frac{1}{2} dt = 0.746824, \quad \begin{array}{c|c} n & G_n \\ \hline 2 & 0.746595 \\ 3 & 0.746816 \\ 4 & 0.746824 \end{array}$$

$$t = 2x - 1, \quad x = \frac{1}{2}(t + 1)$$

recall : $T(0.125) = 0.745866$, so Gaussian quadrature is more accurate than the trapezoid rule.

pf of 1 : omit

Assume $n \geq 1$.

Then $0 = \langle P_n, P_0 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 P_n(x) dx$, so P_n changes sign at least once in $(-1, 1)$.

Let x_1, \dots, x_j be the points in $(-1, 1)$ at which P_n changes sign, so $1 \leq j \leq n$.

Let $q(x) = (x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_j)$ and note that q also changes sign at x_1, \dots, x_j and $\text{degree}(q) = j$.

Now consider the intervals $(-1, x_1), (x_1, x_2), \dots, (x_j, 1)$, and note that P_n and q always have the same sign or always have the opposite sign on each interval.

In either case, $\langle P_n, q \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 P_n(x) q(x) dx \neq 0$.

But then $\text{degree}(q) \geq n$, because $\text{degree}(q) < n \Rightarrow \langle P_n, q \rangle = 0$.

Hence $j \geq n, j \leq n \Rightarrow j = n$. ok

pf of 2 : omit

Let $f(x)$ be a polynomial of degree $\leq 2n - 1$.

case 1 : $\text{degree}(f) \leq n - 1$

$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)L_i(x)$: Lagrange interpolating polynomial at x_1, \dots, x_n

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \int_{-1}^1 L_i(x)dx = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i), \text{ where } c_i = \int_{-1}^1 L_i(x)dx \quad \text{ok}$$

case 2 : $\text{degree}(f) \leq 2n - 1$

$$f = qP_n + r, \text{ where } q : \text{quotient}, \text{ degree}(q) \leq n - 1$$

$$r : \text{remainder}, \text{ degree}(r) \leq n - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_i) = q(x_i)P_n(x_i) + r(x_i) = r(x_i)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx &= \int_{-1}^1 q(x)P_n(x)dx + \int_{-1}^1 r(x)dx = \langle q, P_n \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^n c_i r(x_i) : \text{ by case 1} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i) \quad \text{ok} \end{aligned}$$

ex : 3-point Gaussian quadrature

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx c_1 f(x_1) + c_2 f(x_2) + c_3 f(x_3)$$

$$P_3(x) = x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x = x(x^2 - \frac{3}{5}), x_1 = -\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}, x_2 = 0, x_3 = \sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}$$

$c_i = \int_{-1}^1 L_i(x)dx$: could be computed, but we'll use an alternative method

$$f(x) = 1 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 dx = 2 = c_1 + c_2 + c_3$$

$$f(x) = x \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 xdx = 0 = c_1 \cdot -\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}} + c_2 \cdot 0 + c_3 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}$$

$$f(x) = x^2 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^2dx = \frac{2}{3} = c_1 \cdot \frac{3}{5} + c_2 \cdot 0 + c_3 \cdot \frac{3}{5}$$

$$c_1 = c_3 = \frac{5}{9}, c_2 = \frac{8}{9}$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx \frac{5}{9}f(-\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}) + \frac{8}{9}f(0) + \frac{5}{9}f(\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}) : \text{exact for polynomials of degree} \leq 5$$

$$f(x) = x^3 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^3dx = 0 : \text{ok}, \text{ also } x^5$$

$$f(x) = x^4 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^2dx = \frac{2}{5} = \frac{5}{9} \cdot \frac{9}{25} \cdot 2 : \text{ok}$$

Gauss-Laguerre quadrature

$$\int_0^\infty f(x)e^{-x}dx$$

method 1 : truncate the domain

method 2 : map $[0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, 1)$

method 3 : define a new inner product : $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^\infty f(x)g(x)e^{-x}dx$

The Laguerre polynomials are orthogonal with respect to this inner product and they are obtained by applying Gram-Schmidt to $\{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$.

$$\mathcal{L}_0(x) = 1$$

$$\mathcal{L}_1(x) = x - 1$$

$$\mathcal{L}_2(x) = x^2 - 4x + 2$$

Let x_1, \dots, x_n be the roots of $L_n(x)$ and set $c_i = \int_0^\infty L_i(x)e^{-x}dx$.

Then $\int_0^\infty f(x)e^{-x}dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i)$ is exact for polynomials of degree $\leq 2n - 1$.

ex : 2-point Gauss-Laguerre rule

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty f(x)e^{-x}dx &\approx \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}+1}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)f(2-\sqrt{2}) + \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)f(2+\sqrt{2}) \\ &\approx 0.854 \cdot f(0.586) + 0.146 \cdot f(3.414) \end{aligned}$$