Numerical Methods II

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Numerical Integration

The fundamental problem of numerical integration is the following: Given the function f continuous on [a, b], approximate

$$I(f) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx$$

Recall that exact integration can be performed using the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus:

If F is an antiderivative of f, that is F'(x) = f(x), then

$$I(f) = \int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

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Most numerical integration formulas, also known as **quadrature formulas**, are of the form

$$I(f) \approx I_n(f) = \sum_{i=0}^n w_i f(x_i)$$

where x_i are the **quadrature points** or **abscissas**, and the w_i are called the **quadrature weights**.

There are two types of quadrature formulas:

Newton-Cotes Quadrature: the quadrature points x_i are fixed and then the weights are obtained by fitting a function to the $f(x_i)$ data;

Gaussian Quadrature: given the number of data points, the weights and quadrature points are selected for maximum accuracy.

Newton-Cotes Quadrature Formulas

The basic procedure is the following:

- Fix the abscissas $x_0, x_1, x_2 ... x_n$ in [a, b];
- ② Interpolate the function f at these points by the polynomial $P_n(x)$;
- Integrate the interpolating polynomial to get

$$I(f) \approx I_n(f) \equiv I(P_n)$$

We use the Lagrange interpolating polynomial

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n L_{n,i}(x) f(x_i)$$

so the Newton-Cotes quadrature formula is

$$I_n(f) = \sum_{i=0}^n w_i f(x_i)$$
 where $w_i = \int_a^b L_{n,i}(x) dx$.

Lagrange interpolating polynomials

Let $x_0, x_1, x_2, ... x_n$ be n+1 points and $f_i = f(x_i)$ the function values at these points. An interpolating polynomial P_n is a polynomial of degree at most n such that $P_n(x_i) = f_i$.

The Lagrange Form of the Interpolating polynomial is

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n L_{n,i}(x) f_i \quad \text{where} \quad L_{n,i}(x) = \prod_{k=0 \atop k \neq i}^n \frac{x - x_k}{x_i - x_k}$$

Examples (for n = 1 and n = 2):

$$P_1(x) = \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} f_0 + \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} f_1$$

$$P_2(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} f_0 + \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)} f_1 + \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)} f_2$$

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Closed Newton-Cotes formulas

In this case, the abscissas x_i include the endpoints of the interval, a and b. We let Δx denote the length of the (equal) intervals between abscissas and then

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$$
 and $x_i = a + i\Delta x$

If n = 1 then $x_0 = a$ and $x_1 = b$ and the Lagrange polynomials are

$$L_{1,0}(x) = \frac{b-x}{b-a}, \qquad L_{1,1}(x) = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$$

The closed Newton-Cotes formula for n = 1 is

$$I(f) \approx I_1(f) = \frac{\Delta x}{2} [f(a) + f(b)] = \frac{b-a}{2} [f(a) + f(b)]$$

This is known as the trapezoidal rule.

If n=2 then $x_0=a$, $x_1=a+\Delta x=\frac{a+b}{2}$ and $x_2=b$. The quadrature formula for n=2

$$I(f) \approx I_2(f) = \frac{b-a}{6} \left[f(a) + 4f(\frac{a+b}{2}) + f(b) \right]$$

is known as Simpson's Rule.

Exercise: Prove the quadrature formulas for n = 3 and n = 4

$$I_3(f) = \frac{b-a}{8} [f(a) + 3f(a+\Delta x) + 3f(a+2\Delta x) + f(b)]$$

(The "three-eights rule")

$$I_4(f) = \frac{b-a}{90} \left[7f(a) + 32f(a+\Delta x) + 12f(a+2\Delta x) + 32f(a+3\Delta x) + 7f(b) \right]$$
(Boole's rule)

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Open Newton-Cotes Formulas

Open formulas **do not** include the endpoints of the integration interval among abscissas. We have

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n+2}$$
 and $x_i = a + (i+1)\Delta x, i = 1, n$

If n = 0, $\Delta x = (b - a)/2$ and $x_0 = (a + b)/2$. The open Newton-Cotes quadrature formula is

$$I(f) \approx I_0(f) = (b-a)f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)$$
 (The midpoint rule)

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If n = 1, $\Delta x = (b - a)/3$ and the points are $x_0 = a + \Delta x$ and $x_1 = a + 2\Delta x$. The open Newton-Cotes quadrature formula is

$$I(f) \approx I_1(f) = \frac{(b-a)}{2} \left[f(a+\Delta x) + f(a+2\Delta x) \right].$$

Exercise: Derive the open Newton-Cotes formulas for n = 2 and n = 3.

Exercise: Approximate the value of the integral

$$I = \int_1^2 \frac{1}{x} \, dx$$

using some of the previous quadrature formulas. Compare the results with the exact value of the integral, I = ln(2) = 0.6931...

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Accuracy of quadrature formulas

The degree of precision (or accuracy) of a quadrature rule $I_n(f)$ is the positive integer m such that

- $I(p) = I_n(p)$ for every polynomial p of degree $\leq m$
- $I(p) \neq I_n(p)$ for some polynomial p of degree m+1

In other words, the degree of precision is given by the largest integer m such that all polynomials of degree less than m are exactly integrated by the rule.

Note: In practice, we only need to check whether a rule integrates the powers of x exactly. So, if a rule integrates 1, x and x^2 exactly but fails to integrate x^3 exactly, the degree of precision is 2.

Examples

- The trapezoidal rule integrates 1 and x exactly but fails to integrate x^2 exactly, hence the degree of precision is 1.
- 2 Verify that Simpson's rule has degree of precision equal to 3.

The following result (given without proof) gives a formula for the error term associated with each Newton-Cotes quadrature rule. This allows for the degree of precision to be calculated.

Error terms

Let $I_n(f)$ denote a Newton-Cotes quadrature rule (open or closed) with n+1 abscissas.

• If n is even then there exists a constant c_e and a number ξ_e between a and b such that

$$I(f) = I_n(f) - c_e(b-a)^{n+3} f^{(n+2)}(\xi_e)$$

Hence the degree of precision of $I_n(f)$ is n+1.

• If n is odd, then there exists a constant c_o and a number ξ_o between a and b such that

$$I(f) = I_n(f) - c_o(b-a)^{n+2} f^{(n+1)}(\xi_o)$$

Hence the degree of precision of $I_n(f)$ is n.

Composite Newton-Cotes quadrature

A composite Newton-Cotes quadrature rule consists of subdividing the integration interval [a,b] into subintervals and then applying low-order Newton-Cotes quadrature formulas on each of the subintervals.

Example: The trapezoidal rule can be written as

$$I(f) = I_1(f) + \text{error} = \frac{b-a}{2} [f(a) + f(b)] - c(b-a)^3 f''(\xi)$$

We split the integration interval [a, b] into n subintervals

$$a = x_0 \le x_1 \le x_2 \le \cdots x_{n-1} \le x_n = b$$

where $x_i = a + ih$ for all $0 \le i \le n$, and h = (b - a)/n.

Apply trapezoidal rule on each interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$:

$$I(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} f(x) dx$$

= $\frac{h}{2} \left[f(a) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(x_i) + f(b) \right] - c(b-a)h^2 f''(\xi)$

where ξ is a number between a and b.

This is the formula for the composite trapezoidal rule.

Rates of convergence

Note that $T_h(f)$, the composite trapezoidal rule approximation to the integral I(f) with subintervals of length h, forms a sequence which converges to I(f) as $h \to 0$.

Recall that, if a sequence x_n converges to a limit L such that

$$|x_n - L| \le C|y_n|$$
, for all sufficiently large n

where C is a constant and y_n is a sequence which converges to 0 then we say that x_n converges to L with rate of convergence $O(y_n)$.

Easy to see that the rate of convergence for the composite trapezoidal rule is $O(h^2)$.

Exercises

Derive the composite Simpson's Rule:

$$I(f) = \frac{h}{3} \left[f(a) + 4 \sum_{i=1}^{m} f(x_{2i-1} + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} f(2x_i) + f(b)) \right] - c(b-a)h^4 f^{(4)}(\xi),$$

where n = 2m. Show that its rate of convergence is $O(h^4)$.

Consider the integral

$$I(f) = \int_0^{\pi} \sin(x) \, dx$$

Compute a sequence of approximations $T_h(f)$ (composite trapezoidal rule) and $S_h(f)$ (composite Simpson's rule) which shows clearly the convergence to I(f) and the rates of convergence in each case.

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Composite Simpson's Rule

Divide the interval of integration [a,b] into an even number of subintervals, n=2m. Then

$$h = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{b-a}{2m}$$
 and $x_i = a+ih$, $(0 \le i \le 2m)$

Apply Simpson's rule m times on each interval of the form $[x_{2j-2}, x_{2j}]$ for j between 1 and m.

$$I(f) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \int_{x_{2j-2}}^{x_{2j}} f(x) dx$$

$$= \frac{h}{3} \left[f(x_0) + 4 \sum_{j=1}^{m} f(x_{2j-1}) + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} f(x_{2j}) + f(x_{2m}) \right] - c(b-a)h^4 f^{(4)}(\xi)$$

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Numerical verification of rate of convergence

We verified numerically, using the integral

$$I(f) = \int_0^{\pi} \sin(x) \, dx = 2,$$

that the composite trapezoidal rule has rate of convergence $O(h^2)$ and and the composite Simpson's rule has rate of convergence $O(h^4)$.

This was achieved by showing that $\frac{e_{2h}}{e_h} \to 4$ as $h \to 0$, for the trapezoidal rule and $\frac{e_{2h}}{e_h} \to 16$ as $h \to 0$ for Simpson's rule.

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If the exact value of the integral I(f) is not known then the rates of convergence can be verified by showing that

$$rac{T_h(f) - T_{h/2}(f)}{T_{h/2}(f) - T_{h/4}(f)} o 4$$
 as $h \to 0$

for the composite trapezoidal rule, and

$$rac{S_h(f) - S_{h/2}(f)}{S_{h/2}(f) - S_{h/4}(f)} o 16$$
 as $h o 0$

for the composite Simpson's rule.

Example:

Using the integral

$$I(f) = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + x^3} \, dx$$

verify numerically that the composite trapezoidal rule has rate of convergence $O(h^2)$.

Application: Using error terms

It can be shown that the error term for the composite trapezoidal rule can be more accurately expressed as

$$e_h = \frac{(b-a)h^2}{12}f''(\xi) = \frac{(b-a)^3}{12n^2}f''(\xi), \qquad a \le \xi \le b,$$

while the error term for the composite Simpson's rule is

$$e_h = \frac{(b-a)h^4}{180}f''(\xi) = \frac{(b-a)^5}{180n^4}f''(\xi), \qquad a \le \xi \le b,$$

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Example

Using the integral

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

determine the number of subintervals needed for the composite trapezoidal rule and the composite Simpson's rule in order to approximate π to four decimal places.

We must have

$$e_h = |I(f) - T_h(f)| < 1.25 \times 10^{-5}$$

and we can show that, if $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ then

$$\max_{x \in [0,1]} |f''(x)| = 2$$
 and $\max_{x \in [0,1]} |f^{(4)}(x)| = 24$

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For the trapezoidal rule we must select *n* so that

$$e_h = \frac{(1-0)^3}{12n^2} \cdot 2 < 1.25 \times 10^{-5}$$

so $n \ge 116$.

For Simpson's rule we must select n so that

$$e_h = \frac{(1-0)^5}{180n^4} \cdot 24 < 1.25 \times 10^{-5}$$

so $n \ge 12$.

Gaussian quadrature

Recall that Newton-Cotes formulae are based on equally spaced quadrature points of the form $x_i = a + ih$, where h = (b - a)/n. By contrast, Gaussian quadrature rules make an adaptive choice of nodes that minimizes the approximation error and therefore has maximum possible degree of precision for any rule using n points.

To develop such rule, we use the **method of undetermined coefficents**: We need to find the numbers $x_1, x_2, ... x_n$ (the abscissas) and $w_1, w_2, ... w_n$ (the weights) such that the approximation

$$I(f) = \int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n w_i f(x_i)$$

has degree of precision 2n-1, in other words it integrates the polynomials 1, x, x^2 , ..., x^{2n-1} exactly.

One-point Gaussian quadrature rule

The approximation formula

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = w_1 f(x_1)$$

has degree of precision equal to 1 if it integrates 1 and x exactly, that is

$$b-a = w_1$$
 and $\frac{1}{2}(b^2 - a^2) = w_1 x_1$

We get $w_1 = b - a$ and $x_1 = (a + b)/2$ so the quadrature rule is the midpoint rule:

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = (b-a) f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)$$

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Two-point Gaussian quadrature rule

First convert the integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ into an integral over [-1,1].

The change of variables

$$x = \frac{b-a}{2}t + \frac{a+b}{2}$$

gives

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} f(\frac{b-a}{2}t + \frac{a+b}{2}) dt$$

The two-point quadrature rule

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(t) dt \approx w_1 f(t_1) + w_2 f(t_2)$$

has degree of precision $2 \cdot 2 - 1 = 3$ if the following equations hold:

$$w_1 + w_2 = 2$$

$$w_1 t_1 + w_2 t_2 = 0$$

$$w_1 t_1^2 + w_2 t_2^2 = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$w_1 t_1^3 + w_2 t_2^3 = 0$$

The two-point quadrature rule becomes

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(t) dt \approx f\left(-\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}\right) + f\left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}\right)$$

The error term can be shown to be equal to

$$\frac{1}{135}f^{(4)}(\xi)$$
, where $-1 < \xi < 1$.

Converting back to the original interval we get

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{2} \left[f\left(\frac{a+b}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \frac{b-a}{2}\right) + f\left(\frac{a+b}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \frac{b-a}{2}\right) \right] + \frac{(b-a)^{5}}{4320} f^{(4)}(\hat{\xi}), \quad \text{where} \quad a < \hat{\xi} < b$$

Example: Consider the integral

$$I = \int_{-1}^{1} e^{x} \sin(\pi x) dx = \frac{\pi(e^{2} - 1)}{e(\pi^{2} + 1)} \approx 0.679326$$

Compare the errors obtained when approximating this integral with Simpson's rule and the two-point Gaussian rule above.

Example: Using the two-point Gaussian quadrature formula, approximate the integrals

(i)
$$\int_{-1}^{1} e^{-x} dx$$
; (ii) $\int_{0}^{\pi} \sin(x) dx$

and find the absolute error in each case.

Composite two-point Gaussian rule

Let h = (b-a)/n and $x_i = a = ih$ for i = 1, ... n. Applying the basic Gaussian rule on each interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ show that the composite Gaussian quadrature rule is

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \frac{h}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[f\left(x_{i} - \frac{h}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \frac{h}{2}\right) + f\left(x_{i} - \frac{h}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \frac{h}{2}\right) \right] + \frac{(b-a)h^{4}}{4320} f^{(4)}(\xi)$$

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Three-point Gaussian rule

Derive the three-point Gaussian rule:

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dx \approx \frac{5}{9} f\left(-\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}\right) + \frac{8}{9} f(0) + \frac{5}{9} f\left(\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}\right)$$

and convert this formula to the general integration interval [a, b].

Example: Using the three-point Gaussian quadrature formula, approximate the integrals

(i)
$$\int_{-1}^{1} e^{-x} dx$$
; (ii) $\int_{0}^{\pi} \sin(x) dx$

and find the absolute error in each case.