

Review: differentiation

- We discussed 2 basic methods:
 - **Finite-differencing**: based on Taylor-series expansions. High-order methods (errors $O(h^2)$) and/or double precision should be used.
 - **Interpolation-based** methods: differentiate the interpolant to approximate the derivative. Best done on cubic splines.
 - **Richardson extrapolation**: a simple method to derive more precise approximations by eliminating the leading-order term in the errors (under certain assumptions).

Numerical integration

For most integrals there is no exact analytical result.

Example: the “error function” $\text{erf}(x)$:

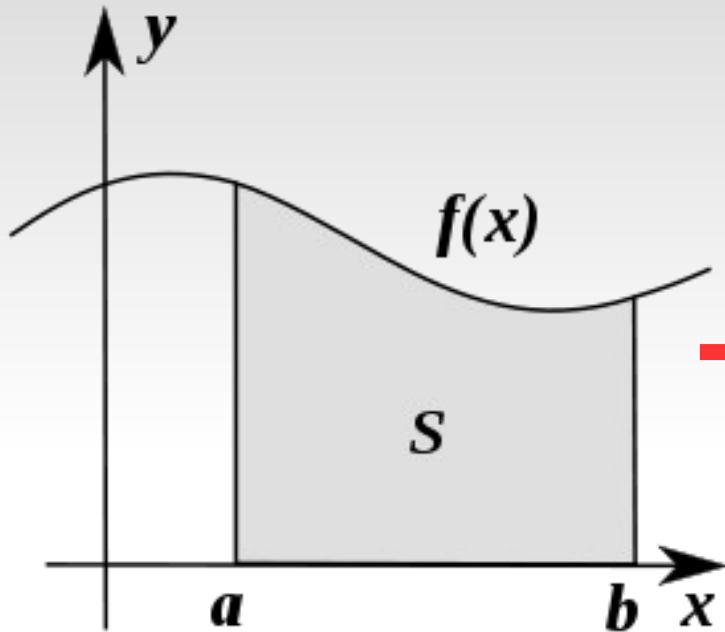
$$\text{erf}(x) \equiv \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

Use: the probability for finding an event within n standard deviations from the mean is $\text{erf}(n/\sqrt{2})$ for a normally distributed random variable.

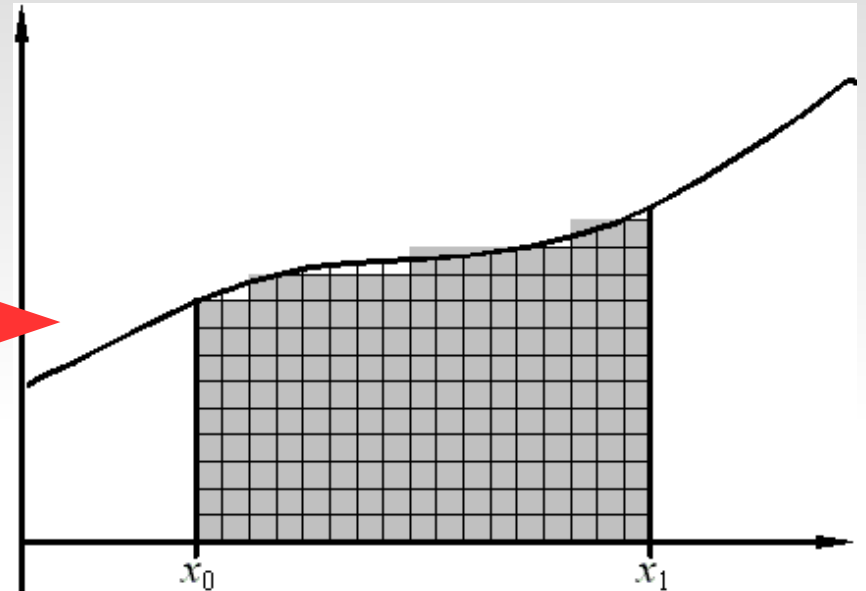
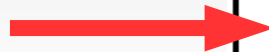
This integral is an important special function, but it cannot be expressed in terms of elementary functions.

How can we evaluate integrals **numerically**, instead?

Numerical Integration



- Geometrical meaning - area under the curve $f(x)$



'Manual' method for calculation

Figure source: Stuart Dalziel
<http://www.damtp.cam.ac.uk/>

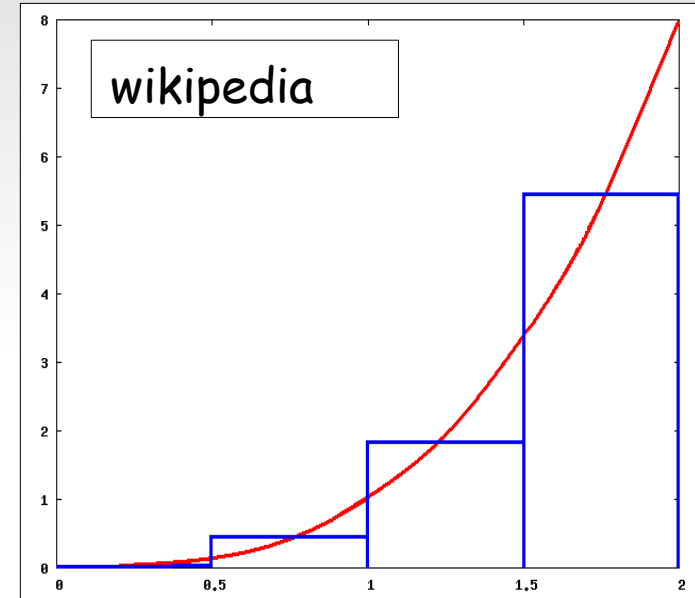
Can we figure a better way
to calculate the area?

Calculating integrals

To start, remember the **Riemann sums** which approximate the integral by step functions:

Idea: write integral as a weighted sum

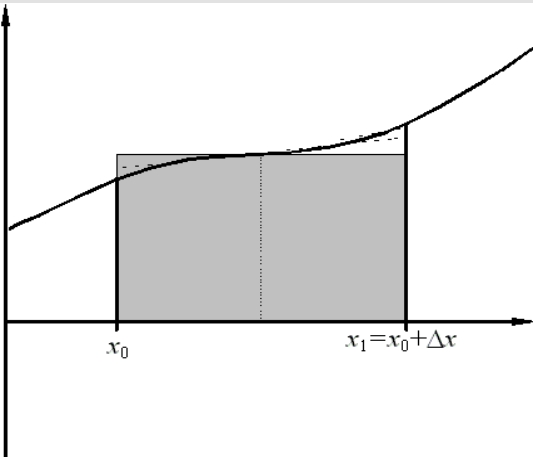
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{k=0}^N c_k f(x_k)$$



choosing weights c_k in some (ideally) optimal way, e.g. from integrating the interpolating polynomial (we certainly can integrate polynomials exactly) → **Newton-Cotes formulae**.

We could further improve result by choosing nodes x_k better
→ **Gaussian quadrature**.

Midpoint rule



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

The Taylor expansion (in $h=b-a$) yields the error :

$$\left[\int_a^b f(x) dx \right] - \left[(b-a) f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) \right] = \frac{(b-a)h^2}{24} f''(\xi_M)$$

degree 1

Degree of precision

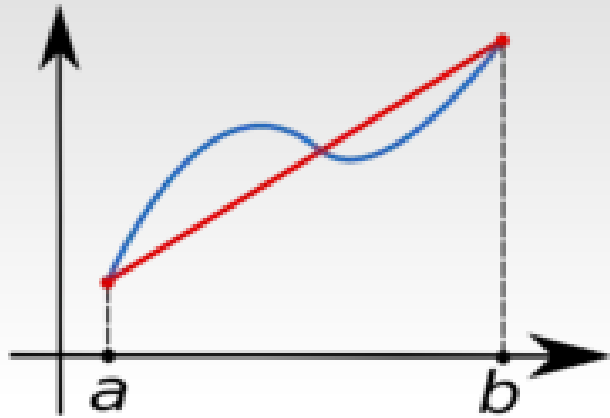
A numerical integration scheme has a **degree of precision** **N** if it gives exact results for all polynomials of degree **m** or less, but not for degree **N+1**.

The degree of precision can sometimes be higher than is naively expected.

We expect that for a method of degree **N** the error scales like **h^{N+1}** , for subdivision size $h=x-x_0$ (Taylor's exp.):

$$f(x) - p(x) = \frac{(x - x_0)^{N+1}}{(N + 1)!} f^{N+1}(\xi)$$

Trapezoidal rule



Let $I = c_0 f(x_0) + c_1 f(x_1)$ (here $x_0 = a$, $x_1 = b$)
assume this is exact for $f=1$ and $f=x$:
 $x_1 - x_0 = c_0 + c_1 \longrightarrow c_1 = c_0 = (x_1 - x_0)/2$
 $(x_1^2 - x_0^2)/2 = c_0 x_0 + c_1 x_1$ (see book for slightly different derivation)

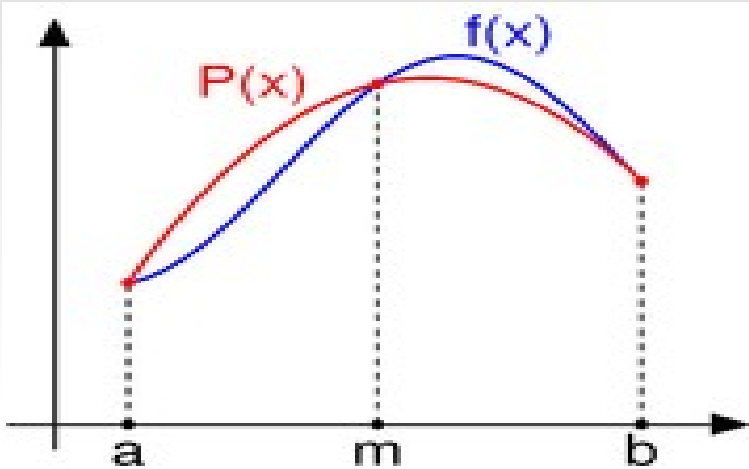
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{(b-a)}{2} (f(a) + f(b))$$

error:

degree 1

$$\left[\int_a^b f(x) dx \right] - \left[\frac{(b-a)}{2} (f(a) + f(b)) \right] = \frac{(b-a)h^2}{12} f''(\xi_T)$$

Simpsons rule



Derivation – same as trapezoidal rule, but now requiring formula to be exact for 1, x and x^2 (somewhat tedious derivation)

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \frac{(b-a)}{6} (f(a) + 4f(m) + f(b)) \quad m = (a+b)/2$$

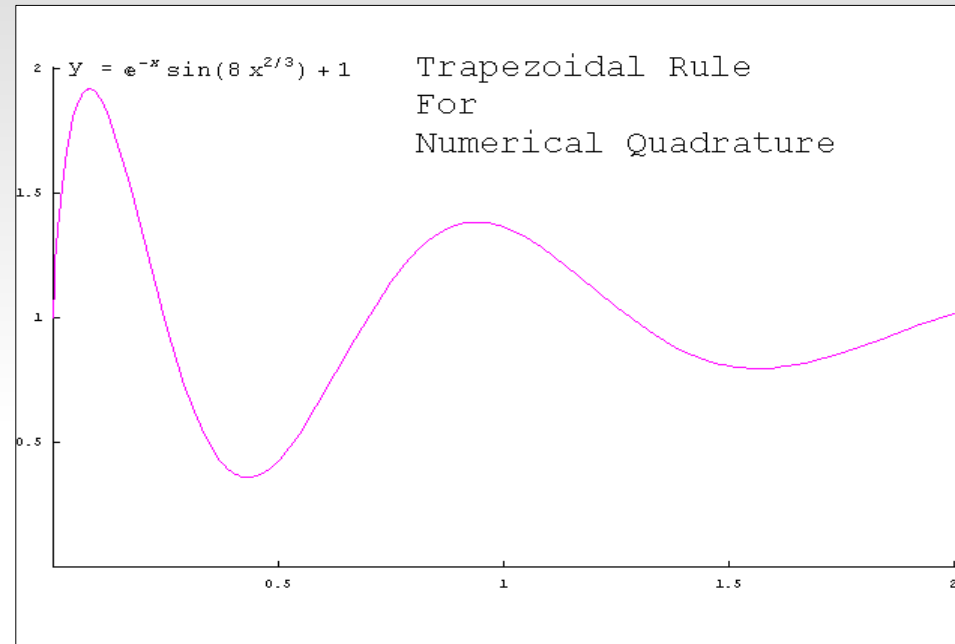
error:

degree 3

$$\left[\int_a^b f(x)dx \right] - \left[\frac{(b-a)}{6} (f(a) + 4f(m) + f(b)) \right] = -\frac{(b-a)h^4}{180} f^{(4)}(\xi_S)$$

Composite formulas

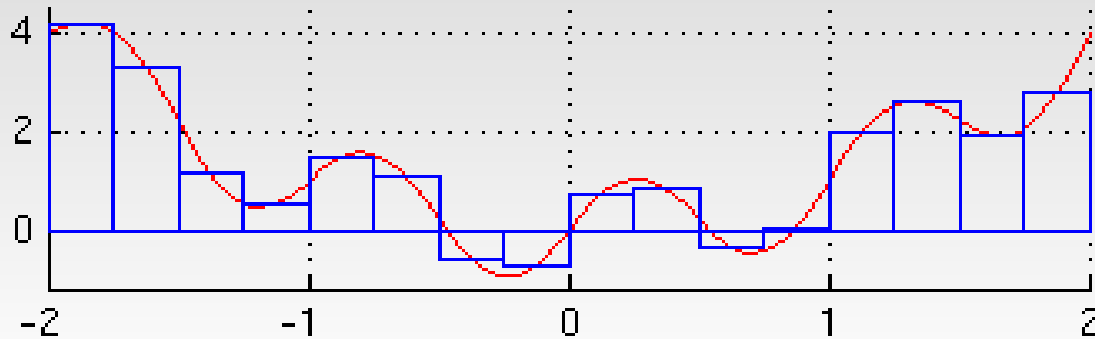
Instead of just applying each rule over the whole interval, we divide the interval into subintervals and sum over them → scaling with **h** determines how quickly the error shrinks e.g. for trapezoid rule:



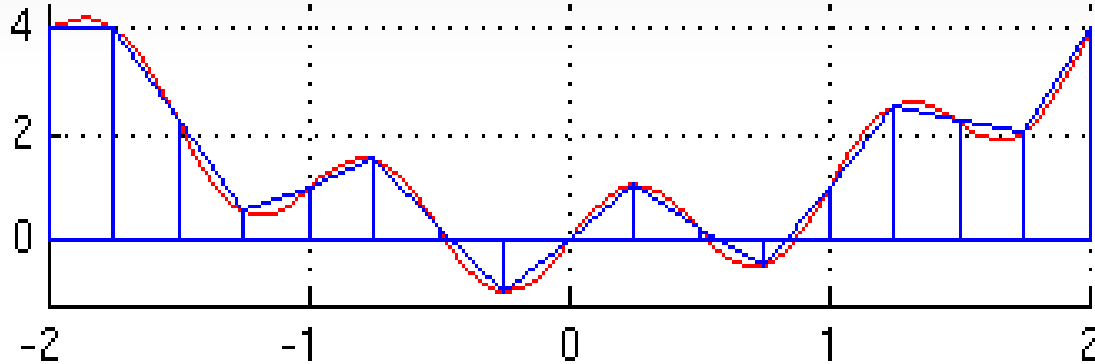
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{h}{2} [f(a) + f(m)] + \frac{h}{2} [f(m) + f(b)]$$

$$= \frac{h}{2} [f(a) + 2f(m) + f(b)]$$

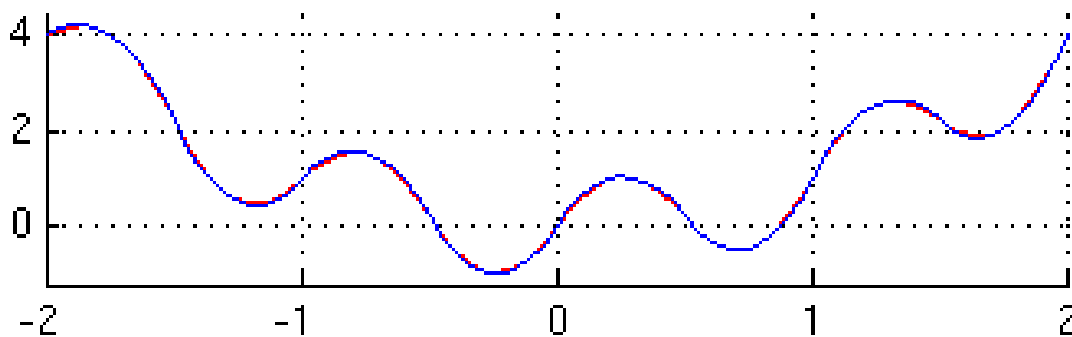
Composite rules: illustrations



Midpoint



Trapezoidal



Simpson

Composite trapezoid rule

for N subdivisions:

$$h = (b-a)/N$$

and for fixed [a, b]
the error scales
like $h^2 = 1/N^2$

```
## module trapezoid
''' Inew = trapezoid(f,a,b,Iold,k).
Recursive trapezoidal rule:
Iold = Integral of f(x) from x = a to b computed by
trapezoidal rule with 2^(k-1) panels.
Inew = Same integral computed with 2^k panels.
'''
def trapezoid(f,a,b,Iold,k):
    if k == 1: Inew = (f(a) + f(b))*(b - a)/2.0
    else:
        n = 2**(k - 2)      # Number of new points
        h = (b - a)/n       # Spacing of new points
        x = a + h/2.0
        sum = 0.0
        for i in range(n):
            sum = sum + f(x)
            x = x + h
        Inew = (Iold + h*sum)/2.0
    return Inew
```

$$\int_a^b f(x) \approx T_N = \frac{h}{2} \left[f(a) + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} f(a + kh) + f(b) \right]$$

Composite Simpson rule

The trapezoid rule uses $x_k = a + k \cdot h$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, N-1$ (& a, b) the mid-point rule we use the points in between the x_k 's:

$$y_k = (x_{k-1} + x_k)/2 = a + (k-1/2) \cdot h, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

the Simpson rule uses all these points, with weight 4 for the y_k and weight 2 for the (doubled) points x_k .

setting $h = (b-a)/(2N)$ and adjusting the points accordingly:
 $x_k = a + 2 \cdot k \cdot h$, $y_k = a + (2 \cdot k - 1) \cdot h$, we find:

$$S_{2N} = \frac{h}{3} \left[f(a) + 4 \sum_{k=1}^N f(y_k) + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} f(x_k) + f(b) \right] = \frac{T_N + 2M_N}{3}$$

There are better, more modern methods, however ...



“Functional programming combines the flexibility and power of abstract mathematics with the intuitive clarity of abstract mathematics.”

Romberg integration

Trapezoid method with N sub-divisions: error on $T_N \sim 1/N^2$

So error on T_N is about 4x error T_{2N} (Richardson extrapolation)

$$4(I - T_{2N}) \approx (I - T_N) \longrightarrow I \approx (4T_{2N} - T_N)/3$$

The latter should be a more accurate estimate (recall our discussion of Richardson's extrapolation – this eliminates the leading error term). What formula is this?

$$T_1 = \frac{(b-a)}{2} [f(a) + f(b)]; \quad T_2 = \frac{(b-a)}{4} [f(a) + 2f(m) + f(b)]$$
$$\frac{4T_2 - T_1}{3} = \frac{(b-a)}{6} [f(a) + 4f(m) + f(b)] = S_2$$

This is Simpsons rule! \longrightarrow a third order method

Romberg integration

Similarly, for Simpsons rule with N subdivisions: $\text{error} \sim 1/N^4$, thus we can apply Richardson's extrapolation again, to eliminate the h^4 order of the error:

$$16(I - S_{2N}) \approx (I - S_N) \longrightarrow I \approx (16S_{2N} - S_N)/15$$

surprise: it's the 5-node rule, $\text{error} \sim 1/N^6$

This can then be repeated! \rightarrow **Romberg integration**

Notation: $R_{n,1} = T_{2N-1}$, $R_{n,2} = S_{2N-1}$

$$4^k(I - R_{n,k}) \approx (I - R_{n-1,k}) \Rightarrow R_{n,k+1} = \frac{(4^k R_{n,k} - R_{n-1,k})}{4^k - 1}$$

build higher $R_{n,k}$ recursively from $R_{n-1,k}$
and $R_{n,k-1}$, starting always from $R_{n,1} \rightarrow$
lower triangular matrix (see book).

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_{1,1} & & & \\ R_{2,1} & R_{2,2} & & \\ R_{3,1} & R_{3,2} & R_{3,3} & \\ R_{4,1} & R_{4,2} & R_{4,3} & R_{4,4} \end{bmatrix}$$

Romberg integration: example

Example: evaluate the integral:

$$\int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} 2x^2 \cos x^2$$

This method is **far more efficient** than any of the previously discussed ones.

```
#!/usr/bin/python
## example6_7
from math import cos,sqrt,pi
from romberg import *

def f(x): return 2.0*(x**2)*cos(x**2)

I,n = romberg(f,trapezoid,0,sqrt(pi))
print ''Integral='',I
print ''nPanels='',n
raw_input('\nPress return to exit')
```

The results of running the program are:

```
Integral = -0.894831469504
nPanels = 64
```


Python in-build methods

Integration methods are contained in `scipy.integrate`, e.g.:

`scipy.integrate.quad(fcn,a,b)`: uses various methods, with default absolute and relative tolerances of $1.49\text{e-}8$ (can be chosen as optional arguments, see help). One or both ends of the interval could be infinite.

`scipy.integrate.newton_cotes(rn)`: returns weights and error coefficient for Newton-Cotes integration.

`scipy.integrate.romberg(fcn,a,b)`: Romberg method with default absolute and relative tolerances of $1.49\text{e-}8$ (can be chosen as optional arguments, see help).

`dblquad`, `tplquad` : evaluate a double or triple integral, resp.

As usual, check the help for details: `'help(command)'`

Quad usage example: the error function

```
import scipy as sci
from scipy import integrate
import numpy as np
import math

def f(t):
    return 2.0/math.sqrt(math.pi)*math.exp(-t**2/2)

h,errh=sci.integrate.quad(f,0,inf)
print h,errh
→ 1.41421356237 1.43941363721e-08
```

Comments

Limits $\rightarrow \infty$: either bound tail or re-map range (quad handles infinities directly), e.g.

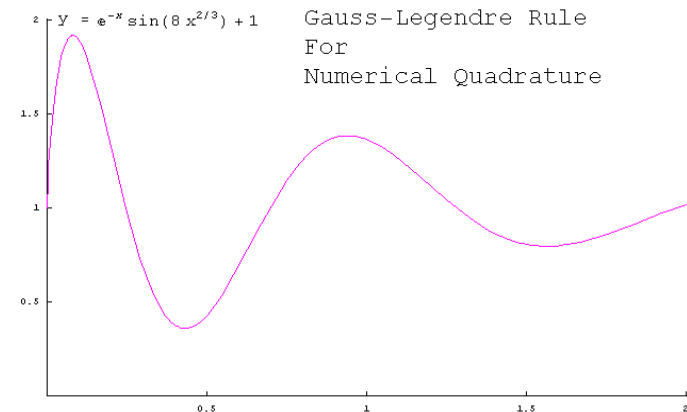
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{1/b}^{1/a} \frac{1}{t^2} f\left(\frac{1}{t}\right) dt \quad ab > 0$$

multi-dimension integrals: very hard! N^m for m dimensions

simplify analytically when possible, then do 1D integrations over dimensions

Monte-Carlo approaches

Gaussian quadrature \rightarrow choosing knot locations, or integrate $f(x) \cdot W(x)$ exactly for f polynomial, W known.



More comments

adaptive subdivision: divide initial interval into smaller intervals in region where integral has large error; useful e.g. for step-functions, strongly peaked integrands, etc.

integration vs differential equations: → can compute an integral also via a differential equation: $dy/dx=f(x)$, $f(a)=0 \rightarrow I=y(b)$

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

→ may be better for sharply peak integrands, as adaptive step-size control is easier for differential equations (our next topic)

beware also of spurious convergence, e.g. for under-sampled oscillations (→ know your integrand!), program robustly, add tests, etc, as always!