

MA 322: Scientific Computing

Lecture - 10



Outline

- Quadrature formula

Outline

- Quadrature formula
- Newton-Cotes formula

Outline

- Quadrature formula
- Newton-Cotes formula
- Gaussian quadrature formula

Quadrature

Integrals such as

$$\int_0^2 e^{-x^2} dx, \int_0^\pi \cos(3 \sin(\log(1+x))) dx, \int_0^1 x^2 e^{\tan(\sin(x))} dx$$

are not amenable to exact evaluation. The only option is to approximate such integrals numerically.

Quadrature

Integrals such as

$$\int_0^2 e^{-x^2} dx, \int_0^\pi \cos(3 \sin(\log(1+x))) dx, \int_0^1 x^2 e^{\tan(\sin(x))} dx$$

are not amenable to exact evaluation. The only option is to approximate such integrals numerically.

Problem: Let $f \in C[a, b]$. Compute the integral $I(f) := \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

Quadrature

Integrals such as

$$\int_0^2 e^{-x^2} dx, \int_0^\pi \cos(3 \sin(\log(1+x))) dx, \int_0^1 x^2 e^{\tan(\sin(x))} dx$$

are not amenable to exact evaluation. The only option is to approximate such integrals numerically.

Problem: Let $f \in C[a, b]$. Compute the integral $I(f) := \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

Strategy: Integration via polynomial interpolation.

Quadrature

Integrals such as

$$\int_0^2 e^{-x^2} dx, \int_0^\pi \cos(3 \sin(\log(1+x))) dx, \int_0^1 x^2 e^{\tan(\sin(x))} dx$$

are not amenable to exact evaluation. The only option is to approximate such integrals numerically.

Problem: Let $f \in C[a, b]$. Compute the integral $I(f) := \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

Strategy: Integration via polynomial interpolation.

- Approximate f using an **interpolating polynomial** $p_n(x)$.

Quadrature

Integrals such as

$$\int_0^2 e^{-x^2} dx, \int_0^\pi \cos(3 \sin(\log(1+x))) dx, \int_0^1 x^2 e^{\tan(\sin(x))} dx$$

are not amenable to exact evaluation. The only option is to approximate such integrals numerically.

Problem: Let $f \in C[a, b]$. Compute the integral $I(f) := \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

Strategy: Integration via polynomial interpolation.

- Approximate f using an **interpolating polynomial** $p_n(x)$.
- Evaluate $Q_n(f) := \int_a^b p_n(x) dx$, since it is easy to evaluate integral of a polynomial.

Quadrature

Integrals such as

$$\int_0^2 e^{-x^2} dx, \int_0^\pi \cos(3 \sin(\log(1+x))) dx, \int_0^1 x^2 e^{\tan(\sin(x))} dx$$

are not amenable to exact evaluation. The only option is to approximate such integrals numerically.

Problem: Let $f \in C[a, b]$. Compute the integral $I(f) := \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

Strategy: Integration via polynomial interpolation.

- Approximate f using an **interpolating polynomial** $p_n(x)$.
- Evaluate $Q_n(f) := \int_a^b p_n(x) dx$, since it is easy to evaluate integral of a polynomial. We expect that $Q_n(f) \approx I(f)$.

Quadrature

Integrals such as

$$\int_0^2 e^{-x^2} dx, \int_0^\pi \cos(3 \sin(\log(1+x))) dx, \int_0^1 x^2 e^{\tan(\sin(x))} dx$$

are not amenable to exact evaluation. The only option is to approximate such integrals numerically.

Problem: Let $f \in C[a, b]$. Compute the integral $I(f) := \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

Strategy: Integration via polynomial interpolation.

- Approximate f using an **interpolating polynomial** $p_n(x)$.
- Evaluate $Q_n(f) := \int_a^b p_n(x) dx$, since it is easy to evaluate integral of a polynomial. We expect that $Q_n(f) \approx I(f)$.

Note that $Q_n : C[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a **linear functional**, that is, $Q_n(\alpha f + g) = \alpha Q_n(f) + Q_n(g)$ for $f, g \in C[a, b]$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

Quadrature

Integrals such as

$$\int_0^2 e^{-x^2} dx, \int_0^\pi \cos(3 \sin(\log(1+x))) dx, \int_0^1 x^2 e^{\tan(\sin(x))} dx$$

are not amenable to exact evaluation. The only option is to approximate such integrals numerically.

Problem: Let $f \in C[a, b]$. Compute the integral $I(f) := \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

Strategy: Integration via polynomial interpolation.

- Approximate f using an **interpolating polynomial** $p_n(x)$.
- Evaluate $Q_n(f) := \int_a^b p_n(x) dx$, since it is easy to evaluate integral of a polynomial. We expect that $Q_n(f) \approx I(f)$.

Note that $Q_n : C[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a **linear functional**, that is, $Q_n(\alpha f + g) = \alpha Q_n(f) + Q_n(g)$ for $f, g \in C[a, b]$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

The **functional** $Q_n(f)$ is called a **quadrature formula** or a **quadrature rule**.

Quadrature

Consider the nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ in $[a, b]$. Consider the Lagrange interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ given by

$p_n(x) := f(x_0)\ell_0(x) + \dots + f(x_n)\ell_n(x)$, where

Quadrature

Consider the nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ in $[a, b]$. Consider the Lagrange interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ given by

$p_n(x) := f(x_0)\ell_0(x) + \dots + f(x_n)\ell_n(x)$, where

$$\ell_j(x) := \frac{w(x)}{(x - x_j)w'(x_j)} = \prod_{i \neq j} \frac{(x - x_i)}{(x_j - x_i)}, \quad j = 0 : n,$$

and $w(x) := (x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_n)$. Then

Quadrature

Consider the nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ in $[a, b]$. Consider the Lagrange interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ given by

$p_n(x) := f(x_0)\ell_0(x) + \dots + f(x_n)\ell_n(x)$, where

$$\ell_j(x) := \frac{w(x)}{(x - x_j)w'(x_j)} = \prod_{i \neq j} \frac{(x - x_i)}{(x_j - x_i)}, \quad j = 0 : n,$$

and $w(x) := (x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_n)$. Then

$$Q_n(f) = \int_a^b p_n(x) dx = \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx = \sum_{j=0}^n w_j f(x_j),$$

where $w_j := \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx$ is called the j -th quadrature weight.

Quadrature

Consider the nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ in $[a, b]$. Consider the Lagrange interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ given by

$p_n(x) := f(x_0)\ell_0(x) + \dots + f(x_n)\ell_n(x)$, where

$$\ell_j(x) := \frac{w(x)}{(x - x_j)w'(x_j)} = \prod_{i \neq j} \frac{(x - x_i)}{(x_j - x_i)}, \quad j = 0 : n,$$

and $w(x) := (x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_n)$. Then

$$Q_n(f) = \int_a^b p_n(x) dx = \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx = \sum_{j=0}^n w_j f(x_j),$$

where $w_j := \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx$ is called the j -th quadrature weight.

Note that the quadrature weights do not depend on the function $f(x)$ and hence can be computed independently of $f(x)$ and stored.

Newton-Cotes quadrature

A quadrature rule based on an interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ at $n + 1$ equally spaced nodes in $[a, b]$ is called **Newton-Cotes formula** of order n .

Newton-Cotes quadrature

A quadrature rule based on an interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ at $n + 1$ equally spaced nodes in $[a, b]$ is called **Newton-Cotes formula** of order n .

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

Newton-Cotes quadrature

A quadrature rule based on an interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ at $n + 1$ equally spaced nodes in $[a, b]$ is called **Newton-Cotes formula** of order n .

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

Since for equally spaced nodes $w(x) := (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)$ oscillates near the end nodes, it follows from

Newton-Cotes quadrature

A quadrature rule based on an interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ at $n + 1$ equally spaced nodes in $[a, b]$ is called **Newton-Cotes formula** of order n .

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

Since for equally spaced nodes $w(x) := (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)$ oscillates near the end nodes, it follows from

$$|E_n(f)| \leq \frac{\|f^{(n+1)}\|_\infty}{(n+1)!} \int_a^b |(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)| dx$$

that $Q_n(f)$ is susceptible to **Runge's phenomenon**.

Newton-Cotes quadrature

A quadrature rule based on an interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ at $n + 1$ equally spaced nodes in $[a, b]$ is called **Newton-Cotes formula** of order n .

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

Since for equally spaced nodes $w(x) := (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)$ oscillates near the end nodes, it follows from

$$|E_n(f)| \leq \frac{\|f^{(n+1)}\|_\infty}{(n+1)!} \int_a^b |(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)| dx$$

that $Q_n(f)$ is susceptible to **Runge's phenomenon**.

Newton-Cotes is not useful for large n .

Newton-Cotes quadrature

A quadrature rule based on an interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ at $n + 1$ equally spaced nodes in $[a, b]$ is called **Newton-Cotes formula** of order n .

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

Since for equally spaced nodes $w(x) := (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)$ oscillates near the end nodes, it follows from

$$|E_n(f)| \leq \frac{\|f^{(n+1)}\|_\infty}{(n+1)!} \int_a^b |(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)| dx$$

that $Q_n(f)$ is susceptible to **Runge's phenomenon**.

Newton-Cotes is not useful for large n . There are two natural ways to ensure $Q_n(f) \rightarrow I(f)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

Newton-Cotes quadrature

A quadrature rule based on an interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ at $n + 1$ equally spaced nodes in $[a, b]$ is called **Newton-Cotes formula** of order n .

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

Since for equally spaced nodes $w(x) := (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)$ oscillates near the end nodes, it follows from

$$|E_n(f)| \leq \frac{\|f^{(n+1)}\|_\infty}{(n+1)!} \int_a^b |(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)| dx$$

that $Q_n(f)$ is susceptible to **Runge's phenomenon**.

Newton-Cotes is not useful for large n . There are two natural ways to ensure $Q_n(f) \rightarrow I(f)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

- Don't use equally spaced nodes.

Newton-Cotes quadrature

A quadrature rule based on an interpolating polynomial $p_n(x)$ at $n + 1$ equally spaced nodes in $[a, b]$ is called **Newton-Cotes formula** of order n .

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

Since for equally spaced nodes $w(x) := (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)$ oscillates near the end nodes, it follows from

$$|E_n(f)| \leq \frac{\|f^{(n+1)}\|_\infty}{(n+1)!} \int_a^b |(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)| dx$$

that $Q_n(f)$ is susceptible to **Runge's phenomenon**.

Newton-Cotes is not useful for large n . There are two natural ways to ensure $Q_n(f) \rightarrow I(f)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

- Don't use equally spaced nodes.
- Integrate piecewise polynomial interpolant.

Trapezoid rule

The quadrature $Q_n(f)$ is called Trapezoid rule when $n = 1$. Then nodes are $x_0 = a$ and $x_1 = b$, and $\ell_0(x) = \frac{x-b}{a-b}$ and $\ell_1(x) = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$.

Trapezoid rule

The quadrature $Q_n(f)$ is called Trapezoid rule when $n = 1$. Then nodes are $x_0 = a$ and $x_1 = b$, and $\ell_0(x) = \frac{x-b}{a-b}$ and $\ell_1(x) = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$.

The weights are given by

$$w_0 = \int_a^b \ell_0(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{2} = \int_a^b \ell_1(x) dx = w_1.$$

Trapezoid rule

The quadrature $Q_n(f)$ is called Trapezoid rule when $n = 1$. Then nodes are $x_0 = a$ and $x_1 = b$, and $\ell_0(x) = \frac{x-b}{a-b}$ and $\ell_1(x) = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$.

The weights are given by

$$w_0 = \int_a^b \ell_0(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{2} = \int_a^b \ell_1(x) dx = w_1.$$

Hence the Trapezoid rule is given by

$$T(f) = \frac{(b-a)}{2} [f(a) + f(b)].$$

Trapezoid rule

The quadrature $Q_n(f)$ is called Trapezoid rule when $n = 1$. Then nodes are $x_0 = a$ and $x_1 = b$, and $\ell_0(x) = \frac{x-b}{a-b}$ and $\ell_1(x) = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$.

The weights are given by

$$w_0 = \int_a^b \ell_0(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{2} = \int_a^b \ell_1(x) dx = w_1.$$

Hence the Trapezoid rule is given by

$$T(f) = \frac{(b-a)}{2} [f(a) + f(b)].$$

Set $E_1(f) := I(f) - T(f)$. If $f \in C^2[a, b]$ then there exists $\theta \in [a, b]$ such that

$$E_1(f) = -\frac{f''(\theta)}{12} (b-a)^3.$$

Trapezoid rule

The quadrature $Q_n(f)$ is called Trapezoid rule when $n = 1$. Then nodes are $x_0 = a$ and $x_1 = b$, and $\ell_0(x) = \frac{x-b}{a-b}$ and $\ell_1(x) = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$.

The weights are given by

$$w_0 = \int_a^b \ell_0(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{2} = \int_a^b \ell_1(x) dx = w_1.$$

Hence the Trapezoid rule is given by

$$T(f) = \frac{(b-a)}{2} [f(a) + f(b)].$$

Set $E_1(f) := I(f) - T(f)$. If $f \in C^2[a, b]$ then there exists $\theta \in [a, b]$ such that

$$E_1(f) = -\frac{f''(\theta)}{12}(b-a)^3.$$

Proof: $E_1(f) = \int_a^b \frac{f''(\xi_x)}{2}(x-a)(x-b)dx = \frac{f''(\theta)}{2} \int_a^b (x-a)(x-b)dx = -\frac{f''(\theta)}{12}(b-a)^3.$

Composite trapezoid rule

Integration of piecewise polynomial interpolant yields **composite quadrature rule**.

Composite trapezoid rule

Integration of piecewise polynomial interpolant yields **composite quadrature rule**.

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

Composite trapezoid rule

Integration of piecewise polynomial interpolant yields **composite quadrature rule**.

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

By trapezoid rule, $\int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x)dx \approx \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)]$. Hence

Composite trapezoid rule

Integration of piecewise polynomial interpolant yields **composite quadrature rule**.

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

By trapezoid rule, $\int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x)dx \approx \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)]$. Hence

$$I(f) = \int_a^b f(x)dx = \sum_{j=1}^n \int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x)dx \approx \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)].$$

Composite trapezoid rule

Integration of piecewise polynomial interpolant yields **composite quadrature rule**.

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

By trapezoid rule, $\int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x)dx \approx \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)]$. Hence

$$I(f) = \int_a^b f(x)dx = \sum_{j=1}^n \int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x)dx \approx \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)].$$

Defining

$$T_n(f) := \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)]$$

Composite trapezoid rule

Integration of piecewise polynomial interpolant yields **composite quadrature rule**.

Consider the equally spaced nodes $[x_0, \dots, x_n]$ and the Lagrange interpolant $p_n(x)$, where $x_j = a + jh$, $j = 0 : n$, and $h := (b - a)/n$.

By trapezoid rule, $\int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x)dx \approx \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)]$. Hence

$$I(f) = \int_a^b f(x)dx = \sum_{j=1}^n \int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x)dx \approx \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)].$$

Defining

$$\begin{aligned} T_n(f) &:= \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)] \\ &= h \left[\frac{f(x_0)}{2} + f(x_2) + \dots + f(x_{n-1}) + \frac{f(x_n)}{2} \right] \end{aligned}$$

we obtain **composite trapezoid rule**.

Error in composite trapezoid rule

By trapezoid rule,
$$\int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x) dx - \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)] = -\frac{f''(\theta_j)}{12}h^3.$$

Error in composite trapezoid rule

By trapezoid rule, $\int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x)dx - \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)] = -\frac{f''(\theta_j)}{12}h^3.$

Consequently, there exists $\theta \in [a, b]$ such that

$$E_{1,h}(f) := I(f) - T_n(f) = -\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{f''(\theta_j)}{12}h^3$$

Error in composite trapezoid rule

By trapezoid rule, $\int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x)dx - \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)] = -\frac{f''(\theta_j)}{12}h^3$.

Consequently, there exists $\theta \in [a, b]$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} E_{1,h}(f) &:= I(f) - T_n(f) = -\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{f''(\theta_j)}{12} h^3 \\ &= -n \frac{f''(\theta)}{12} h^3 = -\frac{h^2}{12}(b-a)f''(\theta). \end{aligned}$$

Error in composite trapezoid rule

By trapezoid rule, $\int_{x_{j-1}}^{x_j} f(x) dx - \frac{h}{2}[f(x_{j-1}) + f(x_j)] = -\frac{f''(\theta_j)}{12}h^3$.

Consequently, there exists $\theta \in [a, b]$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} E_{1,h}(f) &:= I(f) - T_n(f) = -\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{f''(\theta_j)}{12} h^3 \\ &= -n \frac{f''(\theta)}{12} h^3 = -\frac{h^2}{12}(b-a)f''(\theta). \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have $|E_{1,h}(f)| \leq \frac{h^2}{12}(b-a)\|f''\|_{\infty}$.

Simpson's rule

The Newton-Cotes quadrature $Q_n(f)$ is called **Simpson's rule** when $n = 2$. The nodes are $x_0 = a$, $x_1 = (a + b)/2$ and $x_2 = b$.

Simpson's rule

The Newton-Cotes quadrature $Q_n(f)$ is called **Simpson's rule** when $n = 2$. The nodes are $x_0 = a$, $x_1 = (a + b)/2$ and $x_2 = b$. Then the **Simpson's rule** is given by

$$S(f) = \left[w_0 f(a) + w_1 f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + w_2 f(b) \right] \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx,$$

where $w_i := \int_a^b \ell_i(x) dx$, $i = 0, 1, 2$.

Simpson's rule

The Newton-Cotes quadrature $Q_n(f)$ is called **Simpson's rule** when $n = 2$. The nodes are $x_0 = a$, $x_1 = (a + b)/2$ and $x_2 = b$. Then the **Simpson's rule** is given by

$$S(f) = \left[w_0 f(a) + w_1 f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + w_2 f(b) \right] \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx,$$

where $w_i := \int_a^b \ell_i(x) dx$, $i = 0, 1, 2$.

A messy calculation shows that $w_0 = w_2 = (b - a)/6$ and $w_1 = 2(b - a)/3$. Hence

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

Simpson's rule

The Newton-Cotes quadrature $Q_n(f)$ is called **Simpson's rule** when $n = 2$. The nodes are $x_0 = a$, $x_1 = (a + b)/2$ and $x_2 = b$. Then the **Simpson's rule** is given by

$$S(f) = \left[w_0 f(a) + w_1 f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + w_2 f(b) \right] \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx,$$

where $w_i := \int_a^b \ell_i(x) dx$, $i = 0, 1, 2$.

A messy calculation shows that $w_0 = w_2 = (b - a)/6$ and $w_1 = 2(b - a)/3$. Hence

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

Observe that $S(f) = \frac{1}{3}T(f) + \frac{2}{3}M(f)$,

Simpson's rule

The Newton-Cotes quadrature $Q_n(f)$ is called **Simpson's rule** when $n = 2$. The nodes are $x_0 = a$, $x_1 = (a + b)/2$ and $x_2 = b$. Then the **Simpson's rule** is given by

$$S(f) = \left[w_0 f(a) + w_1 f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + w_2 f(b) \right] \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx,$$

where $w_i := \int_a^b \ell_i(x) dx$, $i = 0, 1, 2$.

A messy calculation shows that $w_0 = w_2 = (b - a)/6$ and $w_1 = 2(b - a)/3$. Hence

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

Observe that $S(f) = \frac{1}{3}T(f) + \frac{2}{3}M(f)$, where $T(f)$ is the trapezoid rule and $M(f) = (b - a)f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)$ is the midpoint rule.

Simpson's rule

Example: Consider $\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0f(0) + w_1f(1/2) + w_2f(1)$.

Simpson's rule

Example: Consider $\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0f(0) + w_1f(1/2) + w_2f(1)$. Then nodes are 0, 1/2, and 1.

Simpson's rule

Example: Consider $\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0f(0) + w_1f(1/2) + w_2f(1)$. Then nodes are 0, 1/2, and 1. The Lagrange basis is given by

$$\ell_0(x) = 2 \left(x - \frac{1}{2} \right) (x - 1), \quad \ell_1(x) = -4x(x - 1), \quad \ell_2(x) = 2x \left(x - \frac{1}{2} \right).$$

Simpson's rule

Example: Consider $\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(0) + w_1 f(1/2) + w_2 f(1)$. Then nodes are 0, 1/2, and 1. The Lagrange basis is given by

$$\ell_0(x) = 2 \left(x - \frac{1}{2} \right) (x - 1), \quad \ell_1(x) = -4x(x - 1), \quad \ell_2(x) = 2x \left(x - \frac{1}{2} \right).$$

$$\text{Then } w_0 = \int_0^1 \ell_0(x) = \frac{1}{6} = \int_0^1 \ell_2(x) = w_2 \quad \text{and} \quad w_1 = \int_0^1 \ell_1(x) = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Simpson's rule

Example: Consider $\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(0) + w_1 f(1/2) + w_2 f(1)$. Then nodes are 0, 1/2, and 1. The Lagrange basis is given by

$$\ell_0(x) = 2 \left(x - \frac{1}{2} \right) (x - 1), \quad \ell_1(x) = -4x(x - 1), \quad \ell_2(x) = 2x \left(x - \frac{1}{2} \right).$$

$$\text{Then } w_0 = \int_0^1 \ell_0(x) = \frac{1}{6} = \int_0^1 \ell_2(x) = w_2 \quad \text{and} \quad w_1 = \int_0^1 \ell_1(x) = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Hence

$$S(f) = \frac{1}{6} \left[f(0) + 4f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + f(1) \right].$$

Simpson's rule

Example: Consider $\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(0) + w_1 f(1/2) + w_2 f(1)$. Then nodes are 0, 1/2, and 1. The Lagrange basis is given by

$$\ell_0(x) = 2 \left(x - \frac{1}{2} \right) (x - 1), \quad \ell_1(x) = -4x(x - 1), \quad \ell_2(x) = 2x \left(x - \frac{1}{2} \right).$$

$$\text{Then } w_0 = \int_0^1 \ell_0(x) = \frac{1}{6} = \int_0^1 \ell_2(x) = w_2 \quad \text{and} \quad w_1 = \int_0^1 \ell_1(x) = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Hence

$$S(f) = \frac{1}{6} \left[f(0) + 4f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + f(1) \right].$$

Observe that for the present example, $S(f)$ is **exact for polynomial of degree ≤ 3** .

Simpson's rule

Example: Consider $\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(0) + w_1 f(1/2) + w_2 f(1)$. Then nodes are 0, 1/2, and 1. The Lagrange basis is given by

$$\ell_0(x) = 2 \left(x - \frac{1}{2} \right) (x - 1), \quad \ell_1(x) = -4x(x - 1), \quad \ell_2(x) = 2x \left(x - \frac{1}{2} \right).$$

$$\text{Then } w_0 = \int_0^1 \ell_0(x) = \frac{1}{6} = \int_0^1 \ell_2(x) = w_2 \quad \text{and} \quad w_1 = \int_0^1 \ell_1(x) = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Hence

$$S(f) = \frac{1}{6} \left[f(0) + 4f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + f(1) \right].$$

Observe that for the present example, $S(f)$ is **exact for polynomial of degree ≤ 3** . As per the error analysis of quadrature rule, $S(f)$ is expected to be exact for polynomials of degree ≤ 2 .