

MA5233 Computational Mathematics

Lecture 15: Quadrature

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Quadrature

Def: Quadrature

Computing an approximation $Q \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx$ given a finite number of point-values $f(x_k)$.

Def: Quadrature rule (quadrule)

Formula for computing Q as a linear function of the point values $f(x_k)$,

$$Q := \sum_{k=1}^n w_k f(x_k)$$

- ▶ x_k are called *quadrature points/nodes*.
- ▶ w_k are called *quadrature weights*.

Quadrature

Discussion

Given n , we of course want to choose x_k, w_k such that the error

$$E(f, n) := \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \sum_{k=1}^n w_k f(x_k) \right|$$

becomes as small as possible.

However, this is not a reasonable question:

- For any f , there exists an exact $n = 1$ quadrule, namely

$$w_1 = \frac{1}{f(x_1)} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

- For any quadrule, there exists a sequence f_k such that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} E(f_k, n) = \infty.$$

Alternative: choose a finite-dimensional space of functions V and demand that quadrule is exact for all $f \in V$.

In practice, we almost always choose $V = \mathcal{P}_d$ for some d .

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Def: Polynomial degree of exactness

A quadrule $(x_k, w_k)_{k=1}^n$ is said to be exact on \mathcal{P}_d if for all $p \in \mathcal{P}_d$ it holds

$$\sum_{k=1}^n w_k p(x_k) = \int_a^b p(x) dx.$$

Thm: Quadrules exact on \mathcal{P}_{n-1}

Given distinct points $(x_k)_{k=1}^n$, there exist weights $(w_k)_{k=1}^n$ such that the resulting quadrature rule is exact on \mathcal{P}_{n-1} .

Proof. Recall Lagrange polynomials $\ell_k(x) = \prod_{j \neq k} \frac{x - x_j}{x_k - x_j}$ from lecture on polynomial approximation. We observe that

$$\int_a^b p(x) dx = \int_a^b \sum_{k=1}^n \ell_k(x) p(x_k) dx = \sum_{k=1}^n w_k p(x_k)$$

if we set

$$w_k := \int_a^b \ell_k(x) dx.$$

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Thm: Quadrature error estimate

Assume the quadrature rule $(x_k, w_k)_{k=1}^n$ is exact on \mathcal{P}_{n-1} .

Denote by $p \in \mathcal{P}_{n-1}$ the polynomial interpolant to f on x_k . Then,

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \sum_{k=1}^n w_k f(x_k) \right| \leq (b-a) \|f - p\|_{[a,b]}.$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \sum_{k=1}^n w_k f(x_k) \right| &= \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b p(x) dx \right| \\ &\leq \int_a^b |f(x) - p(x)| dx \leq \|f - p\|_{[a,b]} \int_a^b 1 dx. \end{aligned}$$

Corollary

Convergence theory for quadrature follows immediately from theory for polynomial interpolation.

Quadrature

Special quadrature rules

- ▶ Newton-Cotes rules: choose x_k as equispaced points.
- ▶ Clenshaw-Curtis rules: choose x_k as Chebyshev points.

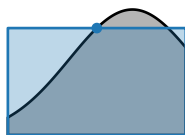
Recall from lecture on polynomial approximation that interpolation in equispaced points is ill-conditioned and may diverge for $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Hence Newton-Cotes rules are bad for large n , but they are fine for $n \lesssim 5$.

Special Newton-Cotes rules ($m := \frac{a+b}{2}$)

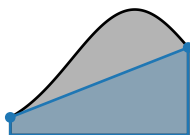
Midpoint

$$(b-a)f(m)$$



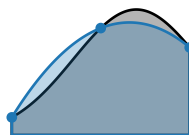
Trapezoidal

$$\frac{b-a}{2} (f(a) + f(b))$$



Simpson

$$\frac{b-a}{6} (f(a) + 4f(m) + f(b))$$



Quadrature

Discussion

We have seen that for every set of distinct points $(x_k)_{k=1}^n$, there exist weights $(w_k)_{k=1}^n$ such that the resulting quadrature rule is exact on \mathcal{P}_{n-1} .

Question: can we increase degree of exactness by choosing x_k cleverly?

The answer is yes, but seeing how requires some preparation.

Inner product for functions

The function

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx$$

is an inner product on the space of all functions $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for which the integral exists.

Proof. Check that $\langle f, g \rangle$ satisfies all the properties of an inner product.

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Legendre polynomials

Sequence of polynomials $(L_k \in \mathcal{P}_k)_{k=0}^{\infty}$ such that $L_k(1) = 1$ and

$$k' \neq k \iff \langle L_{k'}, L_k \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 L_{k'}(x) L_k(x) dx = 0.$$

Determining the Legendre polynomials

Main challenge is to establish orthogonality: once $\tilde{L}_k(x)$ such that $\langle \tilde{L}_{k'}, \tilde{L}_k \rangle = 0$ have been determined, the correct scaling can be achieved by setting $L_k(x) := \tilde{L}_k(x)/\tilde{L}_k(1)$.

Bad way of determining $\tilde{L}_k(x)$

Apply Gram-Schmidt to the sequence $1, x, x^2, x^3, \dots$, i.e.

$$\tilde{L}_0(x) = 1, \quad \tilde{L}_1(x) = x - \frac{\langle 1, x \rangle}{\langle 1, 1 \rangle} 1, \quad \tilde{L}_2(x) = x^2 - \frac{\langle 1, x^2 \rangle}{\langle 1, 1 \rangle} 1 - \frac{\langle x, x^2 \rangle}{\langle x, x \rangle} x, \quad \dots$$

This is numerically unstable and unnecessarily costly.
See next slide for better algorithm.

Quadrature

Good way of determining $\tilde{L}_k(x)$

Use Arnoldi with “matrix” $(Af)(x) := x f(x)$ and “vector” $b(x) = 1$, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{L}_0(x) &= 1, & \tilde{L}_1(x) &= x \tilde{L}_0(x) - \frac{\langle \tilde{L}_0, x \tilde{L}_0(x) \rangle}{\langle \tilde{L}_0, \tilde{L}_0 \rangle} \tilde{L}_0(x), \\ \tilde{L}_2(x) &= x \tilde{L}_1(x) - \frac{\langle \tilde{L}_0, x \tilde{L}_1(x) \rangle}{\langle \tilde{L}_0, \tilde{L}_0 \rangle} \tilde{L}_0(x) - \frac{\langle \tilde{L}_1, x \tilde{L}_1(x) \rangle}{\langle \tilde{L}_1, \tilde{L}_1 \rangle} \tilde{L}_1(x), \quad \dots\end{aligned}$$

This approach is numerically stable. Furthermore, Arnoldi simplifies to Lanczos iteration since the “matrix” A is symmetric with respect to the inner product $\langle f, g \rangle$,

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

Lanczos iter. can be adapted to directly produce $L_k(x)$ rather than $\tilde{L}_k(x)$.

This leads to the three-term recurrence relation

$$\begin{aligned}L_0(x) &= 1, & L_1(x) &= x, \\ (k+1) L_{k+1}(x) &= (2k+1) x L_k(x) - k L_{k-1}(x).\end{aligned}$$

Quadrature

Thm: Gauss quadrature

A quadrature rule $(x_k, w_k)_{k=1}^n$ exact on \mathcal{P}_{2n-1} is obtained if we choose

- ▶ x_k as the roots of the Legendre polynomial $L_n(x)$, and
- ▶ w_k such that (x_k, w_k) is exact on \mathcal{P}_{n-1} .

Proof. Consider $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2n-1}$. By polynomial division with remainder, there exist $p_1, p_2 \in \mathcal{P}_{n-1}$ such that $p(x) = p_1(x) L_n(x) + p_2(x)$.

Using orthogonality of $L_n(x)$ and choice of x_k for the first integral and exactness on \mathcal{P}_{n-1} for second integral, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-1}^1 p(x) dx &= \int_{-1}^1 p_1(x) L_n(x) dx + \int_{-1}^1 p_2(x) dx \\ &= 0 + \sum_{k=1}^n w_k p_2(x_k) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n w_k p_1(x_k) L_n(x_k) + \sum_{k=1}^n w_k p_2(x_k) = \sum_{k=1}^n w_k p(x_k).\end{aligned}$$

Quadrature

Remarks on Gauss quadrature

One can show:

- ▶ $L_n(x)$ has n distinct roots in $[-1, 1]$. (Gauss quadrature is well defined.)
- ▶ Gauss quadrature rules are unique.

Thm: Gauss quadrature error estimate

Let $(x_k, w_k)_{k=1}^n$ be a Gauss quadrature rule.

Denote by $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2n-1}$ the polynomial interpolant to f on x_k plus $n - 1$ arbitrary additional interpolation points. Then,

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \sum_{k=1}^n w_k f(x_k) \right| \leq (b - a) \|f - p\|_{[a,b]}.$$

Proof. Analogous to previous result.

Discussion

One can show that the interpolation error described above behaves similarly as the error for interpolation in $2n - 1$ Chebyshev points.

Conclusion: Gauss converges twice as fast as Clenshaw-Curtis.

At least in theory. In practice, CC often performs better than theoretical upper bound.

Quadrature

Thm: Optimality of Gauss quadrature

No quadrature rule $(x_k, w_k)_{k=1}^n$ is exact on \mathcal{P}_{2n} .

Proof. By contradiction. Assume $(x_k, w_k)_{k=1}^n$ is exact on \mathcal{P}_{2n} , and consider $p(x) := \prod_{k=1}^n (x - x_k)^2 \in \mathcal{P}_{2n}$. Then,

$$\int_a^b p(x) dx > 0 \text{ since } p(x) \geq 0, \quad \text{but} \quad \sum_{k=1}^n w_k p(x_k) = 0.$$

Remark

Heuristic for degree of exactness of Gauss quadrules:

$(x_k, w_k)_{k=1}^n$ introduces $2n$ “unknowns”, \mathcal{P}_{2n-1} is $2n$ dimensional.

Gauss quadrature in practice

Quite a bit of code is required for computing the Gauss quadrature points, i.e. the roots of the Legendre polynomials.

Advice: use package to compute Gauss quadrules whenever possible.

In Julia, use `FastGaussQuadrature.jl`.

Quadrature

Mapping of integrals

Recall integration by substitution:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{\varphi^{-1}(a)}^{\varphi^{-1}(b)} f(\varphi(\hat{x})) \varphi'(\hat{x}) d\hat{x}.$$

In the context of quadrature, this formula has (at least) two applications:

- Assume we have a quadrule $(\hat{x}_k, \hat{w}_k)_{k=1}^n$ for integration on $[0, 1]$.
We can then approximate integrals on arbitrary intervals $[a, b]$ using

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \int_0^1 f(a + (b - a) \hat{x}) (b - a) d\hat{x} \\ &\approx \sum_{k=1}^n (b - a) \hat{w}_k f(a + (b - a) \hat{x}_k). \end{aligned}$$

Quadrature

Mapping of integrals

Recall integration by substitution:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{\varphi^{-1}(a)}^{\varphi^{-1}(b)} f(\varphi(\hat{x})) \varphi'(\hat{x}) d\hat{x}.$$

In the context of quadrature, this formula has (at least) two applications:

- Consider the substitution $x = \sin(\theta)$ applied to

$$\int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx = \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1-\sin(\theta)^2} \cos(\theta) d\theta = \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \cos(\theta)^2 d\theta.$$

Derivative of original integrand blows up at $x = 1$, which leads to algebraic convergence of quadrature. Integrand on the right is analytic everywhere, hence quadrature converges superexponentially.

Quadrature

Def: Composite quadrature rules

Consider interval $[a, b]$ with partition $a = y_0 < y_1 < \dots < y_m = b$.

Composite quadrules compute $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ by writing

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{\ell=1}^m \int_{y_{\ell-1}}^{y_{\ell}} f(x) dx$$

and applying a nested quadrule to each of the terms on the right.

Examples

- Composite midpoint rule:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{\ell=1}^m (y_{\ell} - y_{\ell-1}) f\left(\frac{y_{\ell-1} + y_{\ell}}{2}\right).$$

- Composite trapezoidal rule:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{\ell=1}^m \frac{y_{\ell} - y_{\ell-1}}{2} (f(y_{\ell-1}) + f(y_{\ell})).$$

Quadrature

Reasons for considering composite quadrules

- ▶ Function is defined piecewise (cf. finite element method).
- ▶ Quadrules for large n are tedious to construct.
- ▶ Adaptive quadrature: refine partition in regions where integrand lacks smoothness.

Error estimate for composite quadrules

Assume

- ▶ equispaced partition $y_\ell := a(1 - \frac{\ell}{m}) + b \frac{\ell}{m}$ with $\ell \in \{0, \dots, m\}$,
- ▶ local quadrule is exact on \mathcal{P}_d , and
- ▶ $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has $d + 1$ continuous derivatives.

Then, the composite quadrature error e_m satisfies

$$e_m = \mathcal{O}(m^{-d-1}) \quad \text{for } m \rightarrow \infty.$$

Proof on next slide.

Quadrature

Proof. We have seen that local quadrature exact on \mathcal{P}_d implies that the local quadrature error is bounded by

$$\left| \int_{y_{\ell-1}}^{y_{\ell}} f(x) dx - Q_{\ell} \right| \leq (y_{\ell} - y_{\ell-1}) \|f - p\|_{[y_{\ell-1}, y_{\ell}]}$$

where p is the interpolant to f in $d + 1$ distinct points $x_k \in [y_{\ell-1}, y_{\ell}]$. Recall from previous lecture the interpolation error estimate

$$f(x) - p(x) = \frac{f^{(d+1)}(\xi)}{(d+1)!} \prod_{k=0}^d (x - x_k).$$

Since $x, x_k \in [y_{\ell-1}, y_{\ell}]$, we have $|x - x_k| \leq y_{\ell} - y_{\ell-1}$ and hence

$$\left| \int_{y_{\ell-1}}^{y_{\ell}} f(x) dx - Q_{\ell} \right| \leq C (y_{\ell} - y_{\ell-1})^{(d+2)} = \mathcal{O}(m^{-d-2}).$$

Global error estimate follows by summing local error estimate over m intervals.

Quadrature

Error estimates for special quadrature rules

- ▶ Midpoint ($n = 1$): $e_m = \mathcal{O}(m^{-2})$.
- ▶ Trapezoidal ($n = 2$): $e_m = \mathcal{O}(m^{-2})$.
- ▶ Simpson ($n = 3$): $e_m = \mathcal{O}(m^{-4})$.

Note that midpoint and Simpson rules (and in general any Newton-Cotes rule with odd n) achieve $e_m = \mathcal{O}(m^{-n-1})$ rather than $e_m = \mathcal{O}(m^{-n})$ because they are exact on \mathcal{P}_n rather than \mathcal{P}_{n-1} .

References and further reading

- ▶ E. Suli and D. F. Mayers. *An Introduction to Numerical Analysis*. Cambridge University Press (2003),
doi:10.1017/CB09780511801181
Can be accessed online for free via the library website!