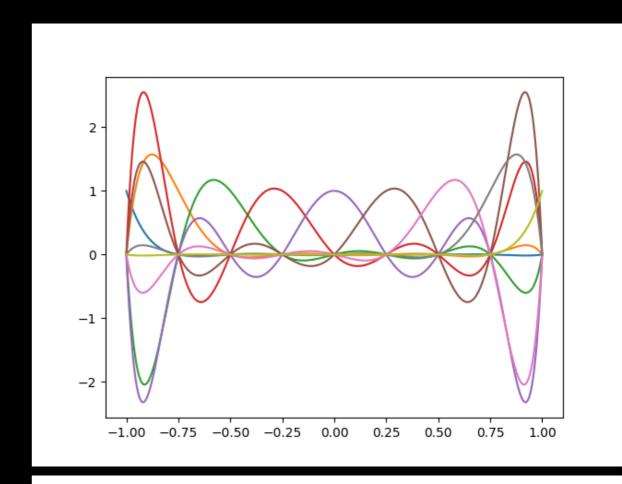
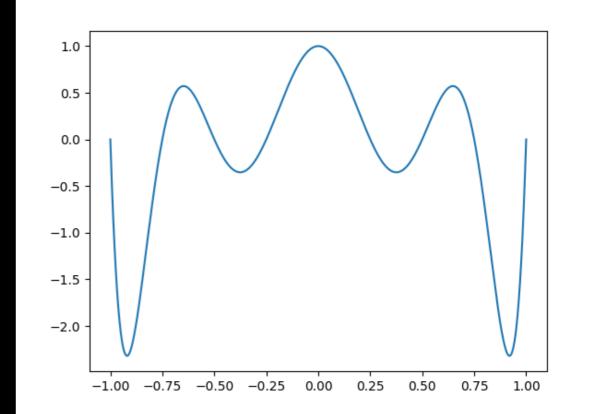
Phys 512 Lecture 3 Integration

Reminder - poly interpolation

```
ord=8
x=np.linspace(-1,1,ord+1)
xx=np.linspace(x[0],x[-1],1001)
plt.clf()
for i in range(len(x)):
    x_use=np.append(x[:i],x[i+1:])
    x0=x[i]
    mynorm=np.prod(x0-x_use)
    p0=1.0
    for xi in x_use:
        p0=p0*(xi-xx)
    p0=p0/mynorm
    plt.plot(xx,p0)
    if i==4:
        bad_p0=p0.copy()
plt.savefig('delta_polys_out.png')
plt.clf()
plt.plot(xx,bad_p0)
plt.savefig('delta_polys_one.png')
```

• This should make you nervous. At high order, polys could jiggle quite a bit between points. OK iff your function is smooth, in the sense that $(\operatorname{ord}^* dx)^n f^{(n)}/n!$ is converging.



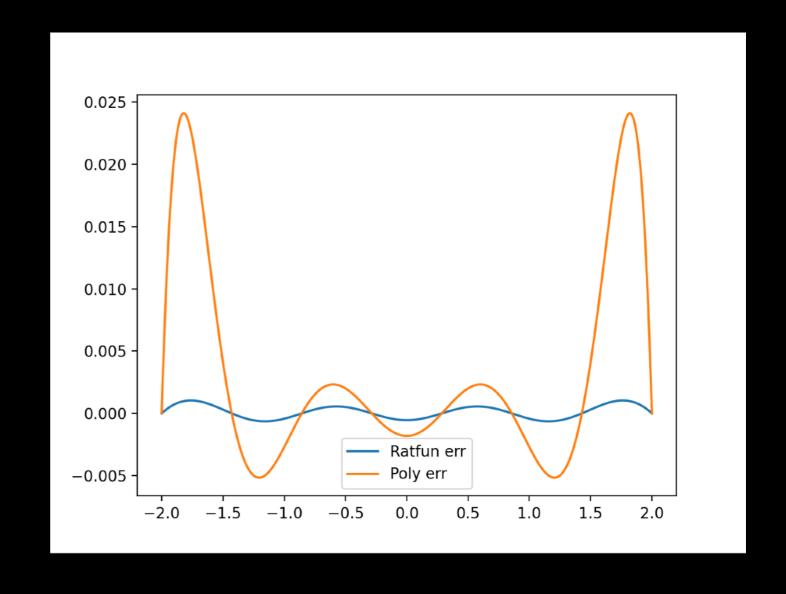


```
def rat_eval(p,q,x):
    top=0
    for i in range(len(p)):
        top=top+p[i]*x**i
    bot=1
    for i in range(len(q)):
        bot=bot+q[i]*x**(i+1)
    return top/bot
def rat_fit(x,y,n,m):
    assert(len(x)==n+m-1)
    assert(len(y)==len(x))
    mat=np.zeros([n+m-1,n+m-1])
    for i in range(n):
        mat[:,i]=x**i
    for i in range(1,m):
        mat[:,i-1+n]=-y*x**i
    pars=np.dot(np.linalg.inv(mat),y)
    p=pars[:n]
    q=pars[n:]
    return p,q
```

```
n=4
m=5
x=np.linspace(-2,2,n+m-1)
y=np.exp(-0.5*x**2)
p,q=rat_fit(x,y,n,m)
pred=rat_eval(p,q,x)

xx=np.linspace(-2,2,1001)
yy=np.exp(-0.5*xx**2)
yy_interp=rat_eval(p,q,xx)
plt.ion()
plt.clf()
plt.plot(xx,yy_interp-yy)
```

```
#we can use numpy's polynomial fitter to see how that does
pp=np.polyfit(x,y,n+m) #use same number of terms
yy_poly=np.polyval(pp,xx)
plt.plot(xx,yy_poly-yy)
plt.savefig('ratfit_vs_poly.png')
```



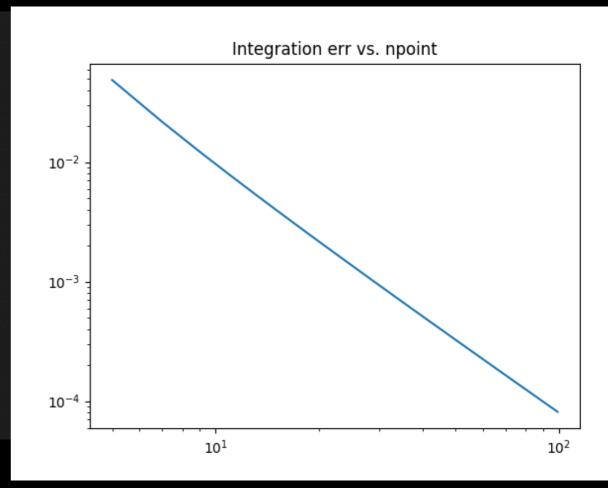
Integration

- Frequently need to numerically integrate functions
- Interpolation & numerical integration are closely coupled
- Interpolation schemes are often easy to integrate analytically.
- Usually end up as a set of coefficients times function values, where coefficients are set by scheme.
- Can think of this as finding the "average" value in a region, based on some interpolation scheme.

Integration with Linear

- Break function into series of regions, draw a line between points.
- What is the average value of y if it is based on a line between y_i and y_{i+1} ? just $0.5(y_{i+1}y_{i+1})$.
- If points are dx apart, then area/dx=0.5(y_0+y_1)+0.5(y_1+y_2)... +0.5($y_{n-2}+y_{n-1}$)=0.5(y_0+y_{n-1})+ $\sum y_i$, i=1..n-2.
- How should error scale with # of points?

```
x0=-1
x1=1
nn=np.arange(5,101,2)
errs=np.zeros(nn.size)
for i,npt in enumerate(nn):
    x=np.linspace(x0,x1,npt)
    y=np.exp(x)
    dx=np.median(np.diff(x))
    myint=0.5*(y[0]+y[-1])+np.sum(y[1:-1])
    myint=myint*dx
    targ=np.exp(x1)-np.exp(x0)
    errs[i]=np.abs(myint-targ)
plt.loglog(nn,errs)
plt.title('Integration err vs. npoint')
plt.savefig('linear_integral_errs.png')
pp=np.polyfit(np.log10(nn),np.log10(errs),1)
print('error is scaling as step size to the power ' + repr(pp[0]))
```



Scaling is going as step size squared, as expected.

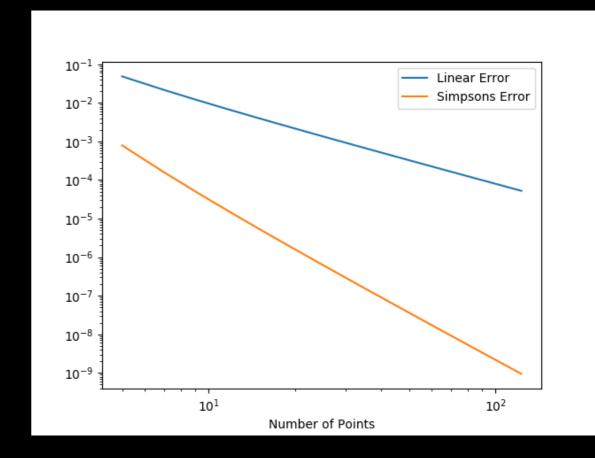
But Wait!

- If error is going like dx^2 , can I use that for fun and profit?
- $f(dx)=f_{true}+adx^2+...$ $f(2dx)=f_{true}+a(2dx)^2+...$
- $4f(dx)-f(2dx)=4f_{true}-f_{true}+...=3f_{true}+...$ or ftrue=(4f(dx)-f(2dx))/3
- 3 points:f(dx)=(y₀+2y₁+y₂)dx/2. f(2dx)=(y₀+y₂)dx (NB dx went to 2 dx, cancelling usual factor of 2)
- $4f(dx)-f(2dx)=(2y_0+4y_1+2y_2-y_0-y_2)dx/3=(y_0+4y_1+y_2)dx/3$
- We have cancelled 2nd order error term. Should be more accurate.

Equivalent

- We could also fit a parabola to 3 points. For simplicity take x=-1,0,1. There's a trapezoid going through y₀ and y₂, with a parabola that goes through y₁ minus (y₀+y₂)/2.
- Parabola is $(y_1-(y_0+y_2)/2)(1-x^2)$. Integral is $(x-x^3/3)$, evaluates to 4/3 over 2dx, so average is 2/3. Leaves $(y_0+y_2)/2*(2dx)+2/3(y_1-(y_0+y_2)/2)/2$ 2)2dx=dx $(y_0+4y_1+y_2)/3$.
- This is exactly what we had before! Cancelling 2nd order error term is identical to fitting quadratic & integrating.
- This second-order scheme is called Simpson's rule.
- How should error scale? Hint what is the average value of x³?

```
nn=np.arange(5,125,2)
x0 = -1
x1=1
ints_lin=np.zeros(len(nn))
ints_quad=np.zeros(len(nn))
for i,npt in enumerate(nn):
    x=np.linspace(x0,x1,npt)
    y=np.exp(x)
    dx=np.median(np.diff(x))
    ints_lin[i]=dx*(0.5*y[0]+0.5*y[-1]+np.sum(y[1:-1]))
    ints_quad[i]=dx/3.0*(y[0]+y[-1]+4*np.sum(y[1::2])+2*np.sum(y[2:-1:2]))
targ=np.exp(x1)-np.exp(x0)
plt.clf();
errs lin=np.abs(ints lin-targ)
errs_quad=np.abs(ints_quad-targ)
pp=np.polyfit(np.log(nn),np.log(errs_quad),1)
print('Simpsons scaling is ' + repr(pp[0]))
plt.loglog(nn,errs_lin)
plt.loglog(nn,errs_quad)
plt.xlabel('Number of Points')
plt.legend(['Linear Error', 'Simpsons Error'])
plt.savefig('simpson_errs.png')
```

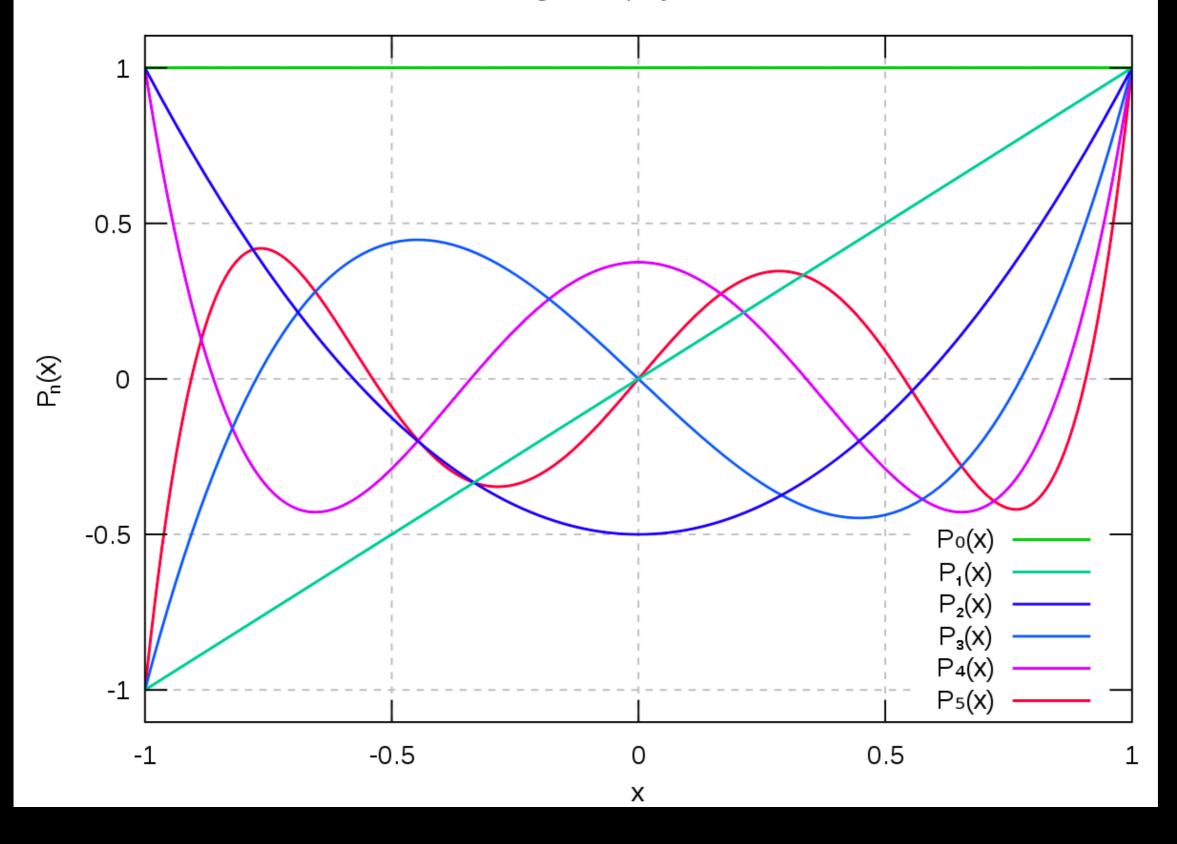


- Simpsons is far more accurate than trapezoid.
- Error goes like dx⁴, since x³ term integrates to zero.
- I didn't have to make any more function calls, just used the ones I had more cleverly.
- NB would this work with an even number of y_i?

Can We Turn it up to 11?

- Yes! Regular polynomials (x,x²,x³...) are not what we want, though.
- Legendre polynomials are an important class. They arise in separation of variables in spherical coordinates.
- We could think of regular polynomials as defined by a recurrence relation. $F_{n+1}=xF_n$.
- Legendre polynomials best generated with a different recurrence relation. $(n+1)P_{n+1}=(2n+1)xP_n-nP_{n-1}$. $P_0=1$, $P_1=x$.
- NB be careful about definition of 'dx'. In analysis, natural to think
 of it as with of high-order region, but in practice we think of it as
 spacing between points. They are not the same.

legendre polynomials



Legendre ctd.

- They have the important property that they are orthogonal on the interval (-1,1). $\int P_n P_m \propto \delta_{nm}$
- Given this, what is ∫Pndx from -1 to 1?
- 2 for P₀, and zero for everything else.
- I can fit Legendre polynomials to a set of data, and integral will just be P₀ coefficient(!).
- How do I get this?

Legendre Fitting

- $y_i = \sum c_j P_j(x_i)$. If I can figure out the c_j then I'm in business.
- But this is just a matrix equation! y=Pc. If we have as many polynomials as we have points, then the matrix P is square, and we can just get c=P⁻¹y. Pull c₀, and then we're done.
- But, c_0 is just $\sum P^{-1}_{0,k}y_k$, so I can just take the first column of P^{-1} . This gives me my weights.
- Now I can integrate to whatever order I want (making sure I have a suitable number of y_i for my chosen order).

Code to Make Coeffs

```
def legendre_mat(npt):
    #Make a square legendre polynomial matrix of desired dimension
    x=np.linspace(-1,1,npt)
    mat=np.zeros([npt,npt])
   mat[:,0]=1.0
   mat[:,1]=x
    if npt>2:
        for i in range(1,npt-1):
            mat[:,i+1]=((2.0*i+1)*x*mat[:,i]-i*mat[:,i-1])/(i+1.0)
    return mat
def integration_coeffs_legendre(npt):
    #Find integration coefficients using
    #square legendre polynomial matrix
    mat=legendre_mat(npt)
    mat_inv=np.linalg.inv(mat)
    coeffs=mat_inv[0,:]
    coeffs=coeffs/coeffs.sum()*(npt-1.0)
    return coeffs
```

Code to Integrate Stuff

```
def integrate(fun, xmin, xmax, dx_targ, ord=2, verbose=False):
    coeffs=legendre.integration_coeffs_legendre(ord+1)
    if verbose: #should be zero
        print("fractional difference between first/last coefficients is "+repr(coeffs[0]/coeffs[-1]-1))
    npt=np.int((xmax-xmin)/dx_targ)+1
    nn=(npt-1)%(ord)
    if nn>0:
        npt=npt+(ord-nn)
    assert(npt%(ord)==1)
    x=np.linspace(xmin,xmax,npt)
    dx=np.median(np.diff(x))
    dat=fun(x)
    #we could have a loop here, but note that we can also reshape our data, then som along columns, and only then
    #apply coefficients. Some care is required with the first and last points because they only show up once.
   mat=np.reshape(dat[:-1],[(npt-1)/(ord),ord]).copy()
   mat[0,0]=mat[0,0]+dat[-1] #as a hack, we can add the last point to the first
   mat[1:,0]=2*mat[1:,0] #double everythin in the first column, since each element appears as the last element in the previous row
    vec=np.sum(mat,axis=0)
    tot=np.sum(vec*coeffs[:-1])*dx
    return tot
```

Code to Call it +Output

```
if True:
                                          def lorentz(x):
    print("Integrating sin")
    fun=np.sin
                                                return 1.0/(1.0+x**2)
    xmin=0
    xmax=np.pi
    targ=2.0
    dx_targ=0.1
else:
    print("Integrating Lorentzian")
    fun=lorentz
    xmin=-5
    xmax=5
    targ=np.arctan(xmax)-np.arctan(xmin)
    dx targ=0.5
for ord in range(2,16,2):
    val=integrate(fun,xmin,xmax,dx_targ,ord)
    print('For order ' + repr(ord) + ' error is ' + repr(np.abs(val-targ)))
```

```
Integrating sin
For order 2 error is 1.0333694131503535e-06
For order 4 error is 3.809155213474469e-09
For order 6 error is 7.276845792603126e-12
For order 8 error is 1.0769163338864018e-13
For order 10 error is 0.0
For order 12 error is 1.9984014443252818e-15
For order 14 error is 2.6645352591003757e-15
```

```
Integrating Lorentzian
For order 2 error is 0.0038935163714279852
For order 4 error is 0.01097767769723701
For order 6 error is 0.002621273236311783
For order 8 error is 0.01837703807845159
For order 10 error is 0.005032084054994446
For order 12 error is 0.001118349714313016
For order 14 error is 0.0003964865376655524
```

What Happened?

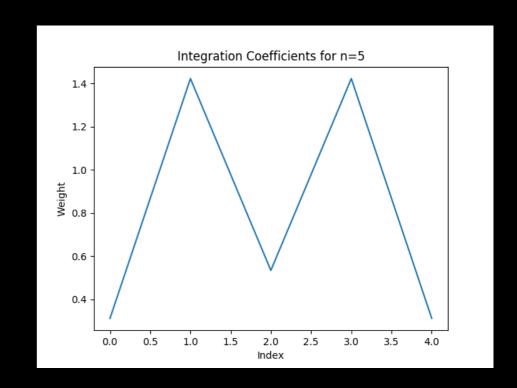
- In all cases, we used roughly the same number of function evaluations.
- Sin is a smooth function. Its error rapidly went to zero as we increased the order. If you know you're integrating a sin, crank away!
- Lorentzian is not a smooth function since it has poles at +/-i. Its power series expanded at zero does not converge for |x| >1. Integral is less accurate, and does not improve very rapidly as we increase order.
- Lorentzian sometimes gets worse at higher order!

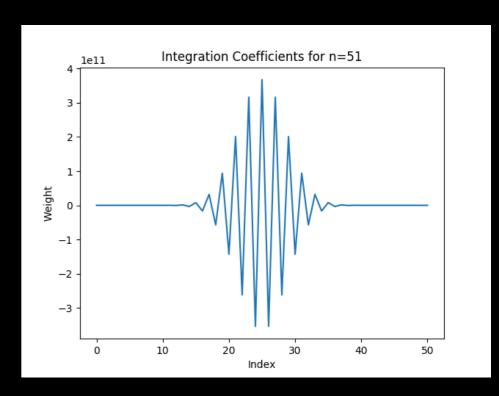
Error Estimate

- Usual scheme is to pick an order, then vary step size until accuracy is good.
- How do I know accuracy? If I'm in happy Taylor regime, errors predictable. Compare f(4dx) & f(2dx) against f(2dx) & f(dx). Did differences shrink as expected? If not, try smaller step size.
- If you beat hard enough, eventually Taylor wins out.

Interpolation Coefficients to High Order

- Top: 5th order polynomial integration weights.
- Bottom: 51st order polynomial integration weights.
- Do you want to go to (very) high order this way?





Romberg Integration

- Another way to get to high order.
- If I integrate from -a to a, only even terms survive in integral.
- If I have n estimates of area with varying dx, I could kill off n terms in even error series, giving accuracy of dx²ⁿ.
- More stable than high order polynomial weights.

Scipy Romberg

In scipy.integrate have 2 options:
 scipy.integrate.romb = integral from pre-evaluated points
 scipy.integrate.romberg = integral from function

for k=1 and 3 function calls, error is 0.011651369255893052 for k=2 and 5 function calls, error is 6.851628176995916e-05 for k=3 and 9 function calls, error is 1.0674648986963575e-07 for k=4 and 17 function calls, error is 4.2089887131169235e-11 for k=5 and 33 function calls, error is 4.440892098500626e-15

```
for k=6 and 65 function calls, error is 8.881784197001252e-16
                                        for k=7 and 129 function calls, error is 4.440892098500626e-16
                                        for k=8 and 257 function calls, error is 0.0
                                        for k=9 and 513 function calls, error is 0.0
import numpy as np
                                        Romberg integration of <function vfunc at 0x11b243140> from [-1, 1]
from scipy import integrate
                                         Steps StepSize
                                                        Results
                                             1 2.000000 3.086161
a = -1
                                             2 1.000000 2.543081 2.362054
b=1
                                             4 0.500000 2.399166 2.351195 2.350471
for k in range(1,10):
                                             8 0.250000 2.362631 2.350453 2.350404 2.350402
                                            16 0.125000 2.353462 2.350406 2.350402 2.350402 2.350402
    n=1+2**k
                                            32 0.062500 2.351167 2.350403 2.350402 2.350402 2.350402 2.350402
    dx=(b-a)/(n-1.0)
    x=np.linspace(a,b,n)
                                        The final result is 2.350402387287607 after 33 function evaluations.
    y=np.exp(x)
    pred=np.exp(b)-np.exp(a)
    f=dx*integrate.romb(y)
    print('for k=' + repr(k) + ' and ' + repr(n) + ' function calls, error is ' + repr(np.abs(f-pred)
f=integrate.romberg(np.exp,a,b,show=True)
```

Indefinite Integrals

- Handy trick: $\int_{a^b} f(x) dx = \int_{1/b^{1/a}} f(1/t) t^{-2} dt$ for t = 1/x
- Can now set e.g. b to ∞, and take integral happily since 1/ b=0.
- Happily, as long as function falls off quickly enough.

scipy quad

- Quad is the general purpose routine for integrating.
- Supports indefinite integrals, integrals against integrable singularities:

Variable Step Size

- For Lorentzian, areas well away from poles should integrate nicely. Only around |x| < 1 is problematic.
- If I keep track, I will be able to see that away from the origin I converge, but less well at origin.
- I can find regions that behave, and not shrink dx when their errors are small.
- Regions that do not behave: shrink dx by a factor of 2, and try again.
- Life experience: Bad functions are usually bad in a small piece.
- Variable step size integration can easily save factors of ~hundred.
- Let's write one.

Side Note: Recursion

- A recursive function calls itself.
- In this case, we'll evaluate function across interval. If error small enough, we're done.
- Otherwise integral is integral of left half + integral of right half. Just call ourselves twice.
- If you don't have good stopping point, recursion can run away on you, easily crash computer.
- Good practice to think how stopping might go wrong.

Let's play with our integrator

- Throw out some functions where you know the analytic integral. How do we do?
- If we shrink the input tolerance, does our error get more accurate?
- What's a (finite, integrable function) with a spike? Does our integrator do lots of work around the spike and little elsewhere?

Cautionary Tale

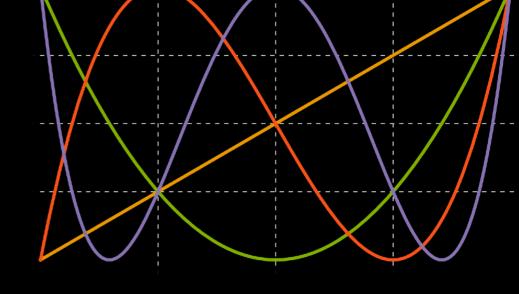
- Let's integrate f(x)=1+exp(-0.5*(x/0.1)²) from a (<<0) to b (>>0).
- What should the answer be?
- What do we get from (-20,20)?
- Does using scipy's quad help us here?
- How can we fix things?

Gaussian Quadrature

- We were on the right track with high order and orthogonal polynomials.
- Problem: polynomials not quite orthogonal on evenly spaced points.
- Gaussian quadrature: if we can pick x positions (instead of evenly spaced), can also cancel higher order terms, keep polynomials orthogonal. Weights depend on positions.
- Unexpected bonus this works well for integrating w(x)f(x) for fixed w.
 One way to integrate over singularities.
- Example: integrate f(x)/sqrt(x) we calculate quadrature positions, weights for w=1/sqrt(x), then use that to integrate f(x).
- Many weight function have already been generated if you need this, have a look.

Chebyshev Polynomials

- $T_n = cos(nacos(x)), -1 \le x \le 1$
- $T_0=1, T_1=x$.
- Recurrence relation: T_{n+1}=2xT_n-T_{n-1}.



- Bounded by +/-1
- Orthogonal under weight: $\int T_n T_m/(1-x^2)^{1/2} dx=0$ (i \neq j), π (i=j=0) or $\pi/2$ (i=j>0).
- Make a natural way of doing Gaussian quadrature (Gauss-Chebyshev quadrature) of f(x)/(1-x²)¹/².

Chebyshev Series

- Let's say we want to make a polynomial expansion for some function with the smallest maximum errors.
- Common case when, say, trying to write code for evaluating functions.
- For smooth functions, Chebyshev coefficients tend to drop smoothly.
- Because T_n are bounded, max error is \sum of cut coefficients.
- If you want to have fast functions at possibly relaxed precision over possibly restricted range, T_n are very useful.

How This Looks

- Look at cheb_expand.py
- Fits chebyshev and least-squares to same order.

