MATH 1426 IMS, Shanghai Tech

# **Numerical Integration**

Problem Formulation

Lagrange Quadrature

Gauss Quadrature

Boris Houska 7-1

#### Contents

Problem Formulation

Lagrange Quadrature

Gauss Quadrature

#### **Problem Formulation**

We are interested in computing integrals of the form

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

for given functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ .

In this lecture, we assume (for simplicity) that f is sufficiently ofter differentiable.

#### **Problem Formulation**

We are interested in computing integrals of the form

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

for given functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ .

In this lecture, we assume (for simplicity) that f is sufficiently often differentiable.

#### **Integration of Polynomials**

For the special case that the function f is polynomial, the integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = \int_a^b \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i \, \mathrm{d}x$$

can be computed explicitly. We find

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_{i} x^{i} dx = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{c_{i}}{i+1} \left( b^{i+1} - a^{i+1} \right) ,$$

which can be evaluated with Horner's algorithm

#### **Integration of Polynomials**

For the special case that the function f is polynomial, the integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = \int_a^b \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i \, \mathrm{d}x$$

can be computed explicitly. We find

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_{i} x^{i} dx = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{c_{i}}{i+1} \left( b^{i+1} - a^{i+1} \right) ,$$

which can be evaluated with Horner's algorithm.

#### Contents

Problem Formulation

Lagrange Quadrature

Gauss Quadrature

### Integration using Lagrange Interpolation

Since we know how to integrate polynomials, one strategy to approximate the general integral

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

is to first approximate f by a polynomial and then use the integral over this polynomial as an approximation for the integral over f.

One way to do this is by Lagrange interpolation. For this aim, we choose points  $x_0, \ldots, x_n \in [a, b]$  and compute

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f(x_i) L_i(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f(x_i) \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}.$$

#### **Integration using Lagrange Interpolation**

Since we know how to integrate polynomials, one strategy to approximate the general integral

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

is to first approximate f by a polynomial and then use the integral over this polynomial as an approximation for the integral over f.

One way to do this is by Lagrange interpolation. For this aim, we choose points  $x_0, \ldots, x_n \in [a, b]$  and compute

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f(x_i) L_i(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f(x_i) \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}.$$

An important special case of Lagrange interpolation is obtained for equidistant points:

Closed Newton-Cotes methods choose:

$$x_i = a + i * H$$
,  $i = 0, \dots, n$ , with  $H = \frac{b-a}{n}$ .

Open Newton-Cotes methods choose:

$$x_i = a + (i+1) * H, i = 0, ..., n, \text{ with } H = \frac{b-a}{n+2}.$$

Using the coordinate transformation x=a+tH with  $t\in [0,n]$  we can compute the Lagrange polynomials

$$L_{i}(t) = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{n} \frac{x - x_{j}}{x_{i} - x_{j}} = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{n} \frac{t - j}{i - j}$$

The so-called Newton-Cotes coefficients

$$\alpha_i = \int_0^n \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^n \frac{t-j}{i-j} \, \mathrm{d}t$$

can be computed "once and forever". The integral approximation is then given by

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^{n} H\alpha_{i} f(x_{i}) .$$

Using the coordinate transformation x=a+tH with  $t\in [0,n]$  we can compute the Lagrange polynomials

$$L_i(t) = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{n} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j} = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{n} \frac{t - j}{i - j}$$

The so-called Newton-Cotes coefficients

$$\alpha_i = \int_0^n \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^n \frac{t-j}{i-j} \, \mathrm{d}t$$

can be computed "once and forever". The integral approximation is then given by

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^{n} H\alpha_{i} f(x_{i}) .$$

Using the coordinate transformation x=a+tH with  $t\in [0,n]$  we can compute the Lagrange polynomials

$$L_i(t) = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{n} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j} = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{n} \frac{t - j}{i - j}$$

The so-called Newton-Cotes coefficients

$$\alpha_i = \int_0^n \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^n \frac{t-j}{i-j} \, \mathrm{d}t$$

can be computed "once and forever". The integral approximation is then given by

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^{n} H\alpha_{i} f(x_{i}) .$$

For n=2 the coefficients of the closed Newton-Cotes methods are

$$\bullet \ \alpha_0 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-1}{0-1} \frac{t-2}{0-2} \, \mathrm{d}t = \frac{1}{3}.$$

$$\alpha_1 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-0}{1-0} \frac{t-2}{1-2} \, \mathrm{d}t = \frac{4}{3}$$

• 
$$\alpha_2 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-0}{2-0} \frac{t-1}{2-1} dt = \frac{1}{3}$$
.

The corresponding approximation formula

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \approx \frac{H}{3} \left( f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right)$$

with  $H = \frac{b-a}{2}$  is called Simpson's rule.

For n=2 the coefficients of the closed Newton-Cotes methods are

$$\bullet \ \alpha_0 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-1}{0-1} \frac{t-2}{0-2} \, \mathrm{d}t = \frac{1}{3}.$$

$$\bullet \ \alpha_1 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-0}{1-0} \frac{t-2}{1-2} \, \mathrm{d}t = \frac{4}{3}.$$

• 
$$\alpha_2 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-0}{2-0} \frac{t-1}{2-1} dt = \frac{1}{3}$$
.

The corresponding approximation formula

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \approx \frac{H}{3} \left( f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right)$$

with  $H = \frac{b-a}{2}$  is called Simpson's rule.

For n=2 the coefficients of the closed Newton-Cotes methods are

$$\alpha_0 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-1}{0-1} \frac{t-2}{0-2} \, \mathrm{d}t = \frac{1}{3}.$$

$$\bullet \ \alpha_1 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-0}{1-0} \frac{t-2}{1-2} \, \mathrm{d}t = \frac{4}{3}.$$

$$\bullet \ \alpha_2 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-0}{2-0} \frac{t-1}{2-1} \, \mathrm{d}t = \frac{1}{3}.$$

The corresponding approximation formula

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \approx \frac{H}{3} \left( f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right)$$

with  $H = \frac{b-a}{2}$  is called Simpson's rule

For n=2 the coefficients of the closed Newton-Cotes methods are

$$\bullet \ \alpha_0 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-1}{0-1} \frac{t-2}{0-2} \, \mathrm{d}t = \frac{1}{3}.$$

$$\bullet \ \alpha_1 = \int_0^2 \frac{t-0}{1-0} \frac{t-2}{1-2} \, \mathrm{d}t = \frac{4}{3}.$$

• The corresponding approximation formula

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \approx \frac{H}{3} \left( f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right)$$

with  $H = \frac{b-a}{2}$  is called Simpson's rule.

#### **Integration Error**

We use the divided difference notation

$$\begin{array}{rcl} f[x_i] & = & f(x_i) \\ \\ f[x_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{i+k}] & = & \frac{f[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \ldots, x_{i+k}] - f[x_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_{i+k-1}]}{x_{i+k} - x_i} \ , \end{array}$$

which is defined recursively. If  $x_{i+k} = x_i$ , replace the divided difference by the corresponding derivative of f, see Hermite interpolation.

The integration error is now given by

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx - \left(\frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) \alpha_i\right) = \int_a^b f[x_0, \dots, x_n, x] \prod_{j=0}^n (x - x_j) dx$$

### **Integration Error**

We use the divided difference notation

$$f[x_i] = f(x_i)$$
 
$$f[x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+k}] = \frac{f[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_{i+k}] - f[x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+k-1}]}{x_{i+k} - x_i},$$

which is defined recursively. If  $x_{i+k}=x_i$ , replace the divided difference by the corresponding derivative of f, see Hermite interpolation. The integration error is now given by

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx - \left(\frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) \alpha_i\right) = \int_a^b f[x_0, \dots, x_n, x] \prod_{j=0}^n (x - x_j) dx$$

#### **Example**

The error of Simpson's formula is bounded by

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

$$= \int_{a}^{b} \frac{f\left[a, \frac{a+b}{2}, b, x\right] - f\left[a, \frac{a+b}{2}, b, \frac{a+b}{2}\right]}{x - \frac{a+b}{2}} \underbrace{\left(x-a\right) \left(x - \frac{a+b}{2}\right)^{2} (x-b)}_{\leq 0} dx$$

$$+ f\left[a, \frac{a+b}{2}, b, \frac{a+b}{2}\right] \underbrace{\int_{a}^{b} (x-a) \left(x - \frac{a+b}{2}\right) (x-b) dx}_{=0}$$

$$\leq \frac{\max_{x \in [a,b]} |f^{(4)}(x)|}{4!} \underbrace{\left[\int_{a}^{b} (x-a) \left(x - \frac{a+b}{2}\right)^{2} (x-b) dx\right]}_{=\frac{(b-a)^{5}}{120}}$$

#### Example

Summary: the numerical error of Simpson's formula is bounded by

$$\frac{\max_{x \in [a,b]} |f^{(4)}(x)|}{4!} \frac{(b-a)^5}{120} = \frac{(b-a)^5}{2880} \max_{x \in [a,b]} |f^{(4)}(x)|$$

The error bounds for other Newton-Cotes methods can be worked out analogously.

#### Contents

Problem Formulation

Lagrange Quadrature

Gauss Quadrature

### **Order of Integration Formulas**

Let f be a smooth function and  $I(f) = \int_a^b f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$ . We say that an integration formula of the form

$$I_n(f) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \alpha_i f(x_i)$$

has order  $q \in \mathbb{N}$  if there exists a constant  $C < \infty$  such that

$$|I(f) - I_n(f)| \le C \max_{\xi \in [a,b]} |f^{(q)}(\xi)| |b - a|^q$$

for any q-times differentiable function f.

What is the maximum "order" of integration formulas of the form

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

Can we choose the points  $x_0, \ldots, x_n \in [a, b]$  in a smart way?

An answer to this question was given by Gauss: the best order we can achieve is

$$|I(f) - I_n(f)| \le \mathbf{O}\left((b-a)^{2n+2}\right).$$

What is the maximum "order" of integration formulas of the form

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

Can we choose the points  $x_0, \ldots, x_n \in [a, b]$  in a smart way?

An answer to this question was given by Gauss: the best order we can achieve is

$$|I(f) - I_n(f)| \le \mathbf{O}\left((b-a)^{2n+2}\right) .$$

Let us first show that m=2n+2 is an upper bound on the order. For this aim, we consider the polynomial

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i)^2.$$

If we had a interpolation formula with order larger than 2n+2 it would be exact for p(x), i.e.,

$$0 = I_n(p) = I(p) = \underbrace{\int_a^b p(x) \, dx}_{\mathbf{O}((b-a)^{2n+2})} > 0$$

This is a contradiction! Thus, m = 2n + 2 is an upper bound.

Let us first show that m=2n+2 is an upper bound on the order. For this aim, we consider the polynomial

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i)^2.$$

If we had a interpolation formula with order larger than 2n+2 it would be exact for p(x), i.e.,

$$0 = I_n(p) = I(p) = \underbrace{\int_a^b p(x) \, \mathrm{d}x}_{\mathbf{O}((b-a)^{2n+2})} > 0.$$

This is a contradiction! Thus, m = 2n + 2 is an upper bound.

#### How can we construct an interpolation formula with order 2n + 2?

In the following, we use the devided difference notation

$$f[x_0, \dots, x_n] = \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^n \frac{1}{x_i - x_j}.$$

The interpolation based integration formula for 2n + 2 points,

 $x_0,\ldots,x_n,x_{n+1},\ldots,x_{2n+1}$  can now be written as

$$I_{2n+1}(f) = \sum_{i=0}^{2n+1} f[x_0, \dots, x_i] \int_a^b \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (x - x_j) dx$$
$$= I_n(f) + \sum_{i=n+1}^{2n+1} f[x_0, \dots, x_i] \int_a^b \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (x - x_j) dx$$

How can we construct an interpolation formula with order 2n+2? In the following, we use the devided difference notation

$$f[x_0, \dots, x_n] = \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^n \frac{1}{x_i - x_j}.$$

The interpolation based integration formula for 2n + 2 points,

 $x_0, \ldots, x_n, x_{n+1}, \ldots, x_{2n+1}$  can now be written as

$$I_{2n+1}(f) = \sum_{i=0}^{2n+1} f[x_0, \dots, x_i] \int_a^b \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (x - x_j) dx$$
$$= I_n(f) + \sum_{i=n+1}^{2n+1} f[x_0, \dots, x_i] \int_a^b \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (x - x_j) dx$$

The integral term in the equation

$$I_{2n+1}(f) = I_n(f) + \sum_{i=n+1}^{2n+1} f[x_0, \dots, x_i] \int_a^b \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (x - x_j) dx$$

can be written in the form

$$\int_{a}^{b} \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (x - x_{j}) dx = \int_{a}^{b} \underbrace{\prod_{j=0}^{n} (x - x_{j})}_{\in P_{n+1}} \underbrace{\prod_{j=n+1}^{i-1} (x - x_{j})}_{\in P_{n}} dx.$$

Thus, if we succeed in choosing  $x_0, \ldots, x_n$  such that

$$\int_a^b \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i) q(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = 0 \quad \text{for all } q \in P_n \;,$$

we would have  $I_{2n+1}(f) = I_n(f)$ 

The integral term in the equation

$$I_{2n+1}(f) = I_n(f) + \sum_{i=n+1}^{2n+1} f[x_0, \dots, x_i] \int_a^b \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (x - x_j) dx$$

can be written in the form

$$\int_{a}^{b} \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (x - x_j) dx = \int_{a}^{b} \underbrace{\prod_{j=0}^{n} (x - x_j)}_{\in P_{n+1}} \underbrace{\prod_{j=n+1}^{i-1} (x - x_j)}_{j=n+1} dx.$$

Thus, if we succeed in choosing  $x_0, \ldots, x_n$  such that

$$\int_a^b \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i) q(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = 0 \quad \text{for all } q \in P_n \;,$$

we would have  $I_{2n+1}(f) = I_n(f)$ .

Let us assume a=-1 and b=1. The main idea is to choose the points  $x_0,x_1,\ldots,x_n$  such that we have

$$L_{n+1}(x_i) = 0$$

with  $L_{n+1}$  being the (n+1)-th Legendre polynomial we must have

$$\int_{-1}^{1} \underbrace{\prod_{j=0}^{n} (x - x_j) q(x) dx}_{\sim L_{n+1}(x)} = 0 \quad \text{for all } q \in P_n ,$$

since  $L_{n+1}$  is by construction orthogonal on  $P_n$ .

# Roots of the Legendre Polynomials

#### Theorem:

The Legendre polynomial  $L_{n+1}$  has n+1 distinct real roots on the interval [-1,1].

**Proof:** We define the set

$$S = \{\lambda \in (-1,1) \mid \lambda \text{ is a real root of } L_{n+1} \text{ with odd multiplicity}\}$$

and the polynomial  $q(x) = \prod_{\lambda \in S} (x - \lambda)$ . Now, the polynomial  $q(x) \cdot L_{n+1}(x)$  must be either positive or negative; that is,

$$\langle q, L_{n+1} \rangle \neq 0$$
.

For |S| < n+1 this is a contradiction to  $q \perp L_{n+1}$ 

# Roots of the Legendre Polynomials

#### Theorem:

The Legendre polynomial  $L_{n+1}$  has n+1 distinct real roots on the interval [-1,1].

Proof: We define the set

$$S = \{\lambda \in (-1,1) \mid \lambda \text{ is a real root of } L_{n+1} \text{ with odd multiplicity}\}$$

and the polynomial  $q(x) = \prod_{\lambda \in S} (x - \lambda)$ . Now, the polynomial  $q(x) \cdot L_{n+1}(x)$  must be either positive or negative; that is,

$$\langle q, L_{n+1} \rangle \neq 0$$
.

For |S| < n+1 this is a contradiction to  $q \perp L_{n+1}$ 

# **Roots of the Legendre Polynomials**

#### Theorem:

The Legendre polynomial  $L_{n+1}$  has n+1 distinct real roots on the interval [-1,1].

Proof: We define the set

$$S = \{\lambda \in (-1,1) \mid \lambda \text{ is a real root of } L_{n+1} \text{ with odd multiplicity}\}$$

and the polynomial  $q(x)=\prod_{\lambda\in S}(x-\lambda)$ . Now, the polynomial  $q(x)\cdot L_{n+1}(x)$  must be either positive or negative; that is,

$$\langle q, L_{n+1} \rangle \neq 0$$
.

For |S| < n+1 this is a contradiction to  $q \perp L_{n+1}$ .

#### **Gauss Quadrature**

If  $x_0, \ldots, x_n$  are the n+1 roots of the Legendre polynomial  $L_{n+1}$  on the interval [a,b], then the corresponding quadrature formula

$$I_n(f) = \sum_{i=0}^n \alpha_i f_i(x_i)$$

with  $\alpha_i = \int_a^b \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^n \frac{x-x_j}{x_i-x_j} dt$  has order 2n+2, i.e.,

$$|I(f) - I_n(f)| \le \mathbf{O}\left((a-b)^{2n+2}\right) .$$

### Example

For the case n=1, the Legendre polynomial  $L_2(x)=\frac{1}{2}(3x^2-1)$  has the roots

$$x_{1,2} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$$

Thus, the first Gauss quadrature formula is given by

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

which is exact for polynomials of order less or equal than 2n + 1 = 3.

### Summary

- The main idea of numerical integration is to first approximate the function f with a polynomial p and then integrate the polynomial.
- For equidistant interpolation points, we obtain the so-called Newton Codes formulas. The coefficients  $\alpha_i = \int_0^n \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^n \frac{t-j}{i-j} \, \mathrm{d}t$  can be worked out "once and forever".
- The maximum order of polynomial interpolation based integration schemes is 2n+2 (for n+1 evaluation points). This order can be achieved by using Gauss quadrature rules.