

where  $\xi(x)$  is in  $[a, b]$  for each  $x$  and

$$a_i = \int_a^b L_i(x) dx, \quad \text{for each } i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

The quadrature formula is, therefore,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n a_i f(x_i),$$

with error given by

$$E(f) = \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \int_a^b \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i) f^{(n+1)}(\xi(x)) dx.$$

Before discussing the general situation of quadrature formulas, let us consider formulas produced by using first and second Lagrange polynomials with equally spaced nodes. This gives the **Trapezoidal rule** and **Simpson's rule**, which are commonly introduced in calculus courses.

### The Trapezoidal Rule

To derive the Trapezoidal rule for approximating  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ , let  $x_0 = a$ ,  $x_1 = b$ ,  $h = b - a$  and use the linear Lagrange polynomial:

$$P_1(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)}{(x_0 - x_1)} f(x_0) + \frac{(x - x_0)}{(x_1 - x_0)} f(x_1).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \int_{x_0}^{x_1} \left[ \frac{(x - x_1)}{(x_0 - x_1)} f(x_0) + \frac{(x - x_0)}{(x_1 - x_0)} f(x_1) \right] dx \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \int_{x_0}^{x_1} f''(\xi(x)) (x - x_0)(x - x_1) dx. \end{aligned} \quad (4.23)$$

The product  $(x - x_0)(x - x_1)$  does not change sign on  $[x_0, x_1]$ , so the Weighted Mean Value Theorem for Integrals 1.13 can be applied to the error term to give, for some  $\xi$  in  $(x_0, x_1)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{x_0}^{x_1} f''(\xi(x)) (x - x_0)(x - x_1) dx &= f''(\xi) \int_{x_0}^{x_1} (x - x_0)(x - x_1) dx \\ &= f''(\xi) \left[ \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{(x_1 + x_0)}{2} x^2 + x_0 x_1 x \right]_{x_0}^{x_1} \\ &= -\frac{h^3}{6} f''(\xi). \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, Eq. (4.23) implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \left[ \frac{(x - x_1)^2}{2(x_0 - x_1)} f(x_0) + \frac{(x - x_0)^2}{2(x_1 - x_0)} f(x_1) \right]_{x_0}^{x_1} - \frac{h^3}{12} f''(\xi) \\ &= \frac{(x_1 - x_0)}{2} [f(x_0) + f(x_1)] - \frac{h^3}{12} f''(\xi). \end{aligned}$$

When we use the term *trapezoid*, we mean a four-sided figure that has at least two of its sides parallel. The European term for this figure is *trapezium*. To further confuse the issue, the European word *trapezoidal* refers to a four-sided figure with no sides equal, and the American word for this type of figure is *trapezium*.

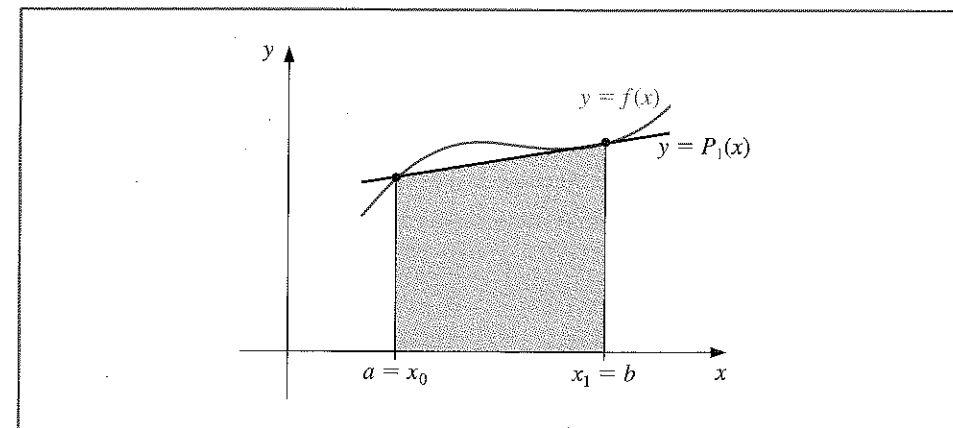
Using the notation  $h = x_1 - x_0$  gives the following rule:

**Trapezoidal Rule:**

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{h}{2} [f(x_0) + f(x_1)] - \frac{h^3}{12} f''(\xi).$$

This is called the Trapezoidal rule because when  $f$  is a function with positive values,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is approximated by the area in a trapezoid, as shown in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3

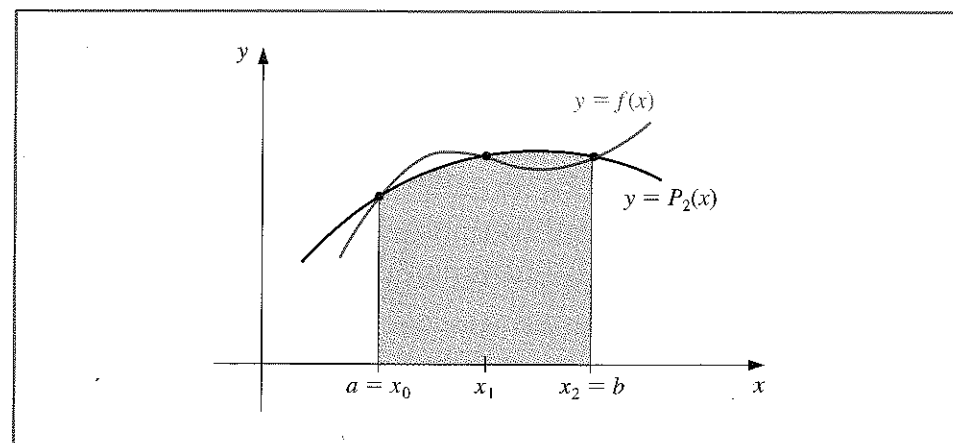


The error term for the Trapezoidal rule involves  $f''$ , so the rule gives the exact result when applied to any function whose second derivative is identically zero, that is, any polynomial of degree one or less.

### Simpson's Rule

Simpson's rule results from integrating over  $[a, b]$  the second Lagrange polynomial with equally spaced nodes  $x_0 = a$ ,  $x_2 = b$ , and  $x_1 = a + h$ , where  $h = (b - a)/2$ . (See Figure 4.4.)

Figure 4.4



Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \int_{x_0}^{x_2} \left[ \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} f(x_0) + \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)} f(x_1) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)} f(x_2) \right] dx \\ &\quad + \int_{x_0}^{x_2} \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{6} f^{(3)}(\xi(x)) dx. \end{aligned}$$

Deriving Simpson's rule in this manner, however, provides only an  $O(h^4)$  error term involving  $f^{(3)}$ . By approaching the problem in another way, a higher-order term involving  $f^{(4)}$  can be derived.

To illustrate this alternative method, suppose that  $f$  is expanded in the third Taylor polynomial about  $x_1$ . Then, for each  $x$  in  $[x_0, x_2]$ , a number  $\xi(x)$  in  $(x_0, x_2)$  exists with

$$f(x) = f(x_1) + f'(x_1)(x - x_1) + \frac{f''(x_1)}{2}(x - x_1)^2 + \frac{f'''(x_1)}{6}(x - x_1)^3 + \frac{f^{(4)}(\xi(x))}{24}(x - x_1)^4$$

and

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_2} f(x) dx = \left[ f(x_1)(x - x_1) + \frac{f'(x_1)}{2}(x - x_1)^2 + \frac{f''(x_1)}{6}(x - x_1)^3 + \frac{f'''(x_1)}{24}(x - x_1)^4 \right]_{x_0}^{x_2} + \frac{1}{24} \int_{x_0}^{x_2} f^{(4)}(\xi(x))(x - x_1)^4 dx. \quad (4.24)$$

Because  $(x - x_1)^4$  is never negative on  $[x_0, x_2]$ , the Weighted Mean Value Theorem for Integrals 1.13 implies that

$$\frac{1}{24} \int_{x_0}^{x_2} f^{(4)}(\xi(x))(x - x_1)^4 dx = \frac{f^{(4)}(\xi_1)}{24} \int_{x_0}^{x_2} (x - x_1)^4 dx = \frac{f^{(4)}(\xi_1)}{120} (x - x_1)^5 \Big|_{x_0}^{x_2},$$

for some number  $\xi_1$  in  $(x_0, x_2)$ .

However,  $h = x_2 - x_1 = x_1 - x_0$ , so

$$(x_2 - x_1)^2 - (x_0 - x_1)^2 = (x_2 - x_1)^4 - (x_0 - x_1)^4 = 0,$$

whereas

$$(x_2 - x_1)^3 - (x_0 - x_1)^3 = 2h^3 \quad \text{and} \quad (x_2 - x_1)^5 - (x_0 - x_1)^5 = 2h^5.$$

Consequently, Eq. (4.24) can be rewritten as

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_2} f(x) dx = 2hf(x_1) + \frac{h^3}{3}f''(x_1) + \frac{f^{(4)}(\xi_1)}{60}h^5.$$

If we now replace  $f''(x_1)$  by the approximation given in Eq. (4.9) of Section 4.1, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{x_0}^{x_2} f(x) dx &= 2hf(x_1) + \frac{h^3}{3} \left\{ \frac{1}{h^2} [f(x_0) - 2f(x_1) + f(x_2)] - \frac{h^2}{12} f^{(4)}(\xi_2) \right\} + \frac{f^{(4)}(\xi_1)}{60} h^5 \\ &= \frac{h}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)] - \frac{h^5}{12} \left[ \frac{1}{3} f^{(4)}(\xi_2) - \frac{1}{5} f^{(4)}(\xi_1) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

It can be shown by alternative methods (see Exercise 26) that the values  $\xi_1$  and  $\xi_2$  in this expression can be replaced by a common value  $\xi$  in  $(x_0, x_2)$ . This gives Simpson's rule.

**Simpson's Rule:**

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_2} f(x) dx = \frac{h}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)] - \frac{h^5}{90} f^{(4)}(\xi).$$

The error term in Simpson's rule involves the fourth derivative of  $f$ , so it gives exact results when applied to any polynomial of degree three or less.

Thomas Simpson (1710–1761) was a self-taught mathematician who supported himself during his early years as a weaver. His primary interest was probability theory, although in 1750 he published a two-volume calculus book titled *The Doctrine and Application of Fluxions*.

**Example 1** Compare the Trapezoidal rule and Simpson's rule approximations to  $\int_0^2 f(x) dx$  when  $f(x)$  is

- |                    |              |                  |
|--------------------|--------------|------------------|
| (a) $x^2$          | (b) $x^4$    | (c) $(x+1)^{-1}$ |
| (d) $\sqrt{1+x^2}$ | (e) $\sin x$ | (f) $e^x$        |

**Solution** On  $[0, 2]$ , the Trapezoidal and Simpson's rules have the forms

$$\text{Trapezoidal: } \int_0^2 f(x) dx \approx f(0) + f(2) \quad \text{and}$$

$$\text{Simpson's: } \int_0^2 f(x) dx \approx \frac{1}{3} [f(0) + 4f(1) + f(2)].$$

When  $f(x) = x^2$ , they give

$$\text{Trapezoidal: } \int_0^2 f(x) dx \approx 0^2 + 2^2 = 4 \quad \text{and}$$

$$\text{Simpson's: } \int_0^2 f(x) dx \approx \frac{1}{3} [0^2 + 4 \cdot 1^2 + 2^2] = \frac{8}{3}.$$

The approximation from Simpson's rule is exact because its truncation error involves  $f^{(4)}$ , which is identically 0 when  $f(x) = x^2$ .

The results to three places for the functions are summarized in Table 4.7. Notice that in each instance, Simpson's rule is significantly superior. ■

**Table 4.7**

	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)
$f(x)$	$x^2$	$x^4$	$(x+1)^{-1}$	$\sqrt{1+x^2}$	$\sin x$	$e^x$
Exact value	2.667	6.400	1.099	2.958	1.416	6.389
Trapezoidal	4.000	16.000	1.333	3.326	0.909	8.389
Simpson's	2.667	6.667	1.111	2.964	1.425	6.421

### Measuring Precision

The standard derivation of quadrature error formulas is based on determining the class of polynomials for which these formulas produce exact results. The next definition is used to facilitate the discussion of this derivation.

**Definition 4.1** The **degree of accuracy**, or **precision**, of a quadrature formula is the largest positive integer  $n$  such that the formula is exact for  $x^k$ , for each  $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$ .

Definition 4.1 implies that the Trapezoidal and Simpson's rules have degrees of precision one and three, respectively.

Integration and summation are linear operations; that is,

$$\int_a^b (\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)) dx = \alpha \int_a^b f(x) dx + \beta \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

and

$$\sum_{i=0}^n (\alpha f(x_i) + \beta g(x_i)) = \alpha \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) + \beta \sum_{i=0}^n g(x_i),$$

for each pair of integrable functions  $f$  and  $g$  and each pair of real constants  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . This implies (see Exercise 25) that

The improved accuracy of Simpson's rule over the Trapezoidal rule is intuitively explained by the fact that Simpson's rule includes a midpoint evaluation that provides better balance to the approximation.



The open and closed terminology for methods implies that the open methods use as nodes only points in the open interval,  $(a, b)$  to approximate  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ . The closed methods include the points  $a$  and  $b$  of the closed interval  $[a, b]$  as nodes.

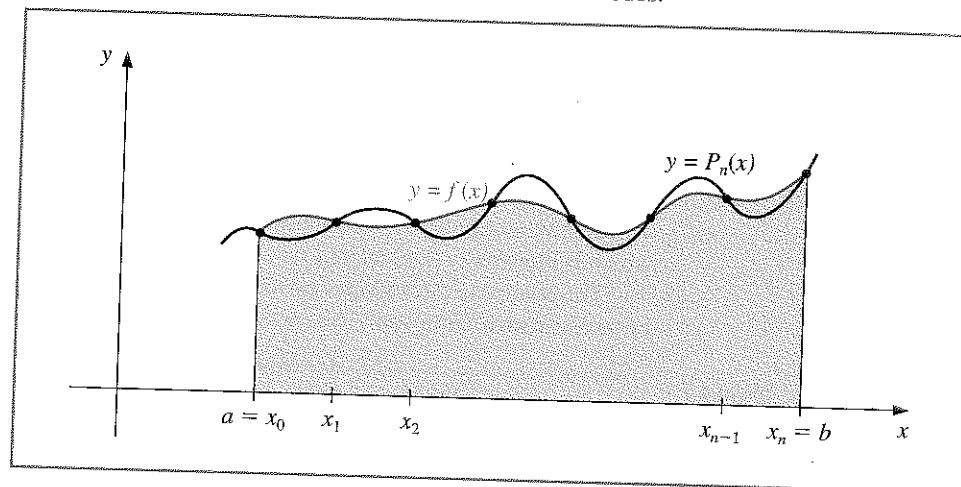
- the degree of precision of a quadrature formula is  $n$  if and only if the error is zero for all polynomials of degree  $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$ , but is not zero for some polynomial of degree  $n + 1$ .

The Trapezoidal and Simpson's rules are examples of a class of methods known as Newton-Cotes formulas. There are two types of Newton-Cotes formulas: open and closed.

### Closed Newton-Cotes Formulas

The  $(n+1)$ -point closed Newton-Cotes formula uses nodes  $x_i = x_0 + ih$ , for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ , where  $x_0 = a$ ,  $x_n = b$  and  $h = (b - a)/n$ . (See Figure 4.5.) It is called closed because the endpoints of the closed interval  $[a, b]$  are included as nodes.

Figure 4.5



The formula assumes the form

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n a_i f(x_i),$$

where

$$a_i = \int_{x_0}^{x_n} L_i(x) dx = \int_{x_0}^{x_n} \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{(x - x_j)}{(x_i - x_j)} dx.$$

The following theorem details the error analysis associated with the closed Newton-Cotes formulas. For a proof of this theorem, see [IK], p. 313.

**Theorem 4.2** Suppose that  $\sum_{i=0}^n a_i f(x_i)$  denotes the  $(n+1)$ -point closed Newton-Cotes formula with  $x_0 = a$ ,  $x_n = b$ , and  $h = (b - a)/n$ . There exists  $\xi \in (a, b)$  for which

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i f(x_i) + \frac{h^{n+3} f^{(n+2)}(\xi)}{(n+2)!} \int_0^n t^2(t-1) \cdots (t-n) dt,$$

if  $n$  is even and  $f \in C^{n+2}[a, b]$ , and

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i f(x_i) + \frac{h^{n+2} f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \int_0^n t(t-1) \cdots (t-n) dt,$$

if  $n$  is odd and  $f \in C^{n+1}[a, b]$ .

Roger Cotes (1682–1716) rose from a modest background to become, in 1704, the first Plumian Professor at Cambridge University. He made advances in numerous mathematical areas, including numerical methods for interpolation and integration. Newton is reputed to have said of Cotes, "If he had lived we might have known something."

Note that when  $n$  is an even integer, the degree of precision is  $n + 1$ , although the interpolation polynomial is of degree at most  $n$ . When  $n$  is odd, the degree of precision is only  $n$ .

Some of the common closed Newton-Cotes formulas with their error terms are listed. Note that in each case the unknown value  $\xi$  lies in  $(a, b)$ .

$n = 1$ : Trapezoidal rule

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_1} f(x) dx = \frac{h}{2} [f(x_0) + f(x_1)] - \frac{h^3}{12} f''(\xi), \quad \text{where } x_0 < \xi < x_1. \quad (4.25)$$

$n = 2$ : Simpson's rule

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_2} f(x) dx = \frac{h}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)] - \frac{h^5}{90} f^{(4)}(\xi), \quad \text{where } x_0 < \xi < x_2. \quad (4.26)$$

$n = 3$ : Simpson's Three-Eighths rule

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_3} f(x) dx = \frac{3h}{8} [f(x_0) + 3f(x_1) + 3f(x_2) + f(x_3)] - \frac{3h^5}{80} f^{(4)}(\xi), \quad (4.27)$$

where  $x_0 < \xi < x_3$ .

$n = 4$ :

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_4} f(x) dx = \frac{2h}{45} [7f(x_0) + 32f(x_1) + 12f(x_2) + 32f(x_3) + 7f(x_4)] - \frac{8h^7}{945} f^{(6)}(\xi), \quad (4.28)$$

where  $x_0 < \xi < x_4$ .

### Open Newton-Cotes Formulas

The open Newton-Cotes formulas do not include the endpoints of  $[a, b]$  as nodes. They use the nodes  $x_i = x_0 + ih$ , for each  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ , where  $h = (b - a)/(n + 2)$  and  $x_0 = a + h$ . This implies that  $x_n = b - h$ , so we label the endpoints by setting  $x_{-1} = a$  and  $x_{n+1} = b$ , as shown in Figure 4.6. Open formulas contain all the nodes used for the approximation within the open interval  $(a, b)$ . The formulas become

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{x_{-1}}^{x_{n+1}} f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n a_i f(x_i),$$

where  $a_i = \int_a^b L_i(x) dx$ .

- Discuss using open formulas to integrate a function from 0 to 1 that has a singularity at 0. For example,  $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$ .
- Select one of the functions in Example 1 of Section 4.3 and create a spreadsheet that will approximate the integral from 0 to 2 using the Trapezoidal rule. Compare your approximation to the result obtained in Table 4.7.
- Select one of the functions in Example 1 of Section 4.3 and create a spreadsheet that will approximate the integral from 0 to 2 using Simpson's rule. Compare your approximation to the result obtained in Table 4.7.

## 4.4 Composite Numerical Integration

The Newton-Cotes formulas are generally unsuitable for use over large integration intervals. High-degree formulas would be required, and the values of the coefficients in these formulas are difficult to obtain. Also, the Newton-Cotes formulas are based on interpolatory polynomials that use equally spaced nodes, a procedure that is inaccurate over large intervals because of the oscillatory nature of high-degree polynomials.

In this section, we discuss a *piecewise* approach to numerical integration that uses the low-order Newton-Cotes formulas. These are the techniques most often applied.

Piecewise approximation is often effective. Recall that this was used for spline interpolation.

**Example 1** Use Simpson's rule to approximate  $\int_0^4 e^x dx$  and compare this to the results obtained by adding the Simpson's rule approximations for  $\int_0^2 e^x dx$  and  $\int_2^4 e^x dx$  and adding those for  $\int_0^1 e^x dx$ ,  $\int_1^2 e^x dx$ ,  $\int_2^3 e^x dx$ , and  $\int_3^4 e^x dx$ .

**Solution** Simpson's rule on  $[0, 4]$  uses  $h = 2$  and gives

$$\int_0^4 e^x dx \approx \frac{2}{3}(e^0 + 4e^2 + e^4) = 56.76958.$$

The exact answer in this case is  $e^4 - e^0 = 53.59815$ , and the error  $-3.17143$  is far larger than we would normally accept.

Applying Simpson's rule on each of the intervals  $[0, 2]$  and  $[2, 4]$  uses  $h = 1$  and gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^4 e^x dx &= \int_0^2 e^x dx + \int_2^4 e^x dx \\ &\approx \frac{1}{3}(e^0 + 4e + e^2) + \frac{1}{3}(e^2 + 4e^3 + e^4) \\ &= \frac{1}{3}(e^0 + 4e + 2e^2 + 4e^3 + e^4) \\ &= 53.86385. \end{aligned}$$

The error has been reduced to  $-0.26570$ .

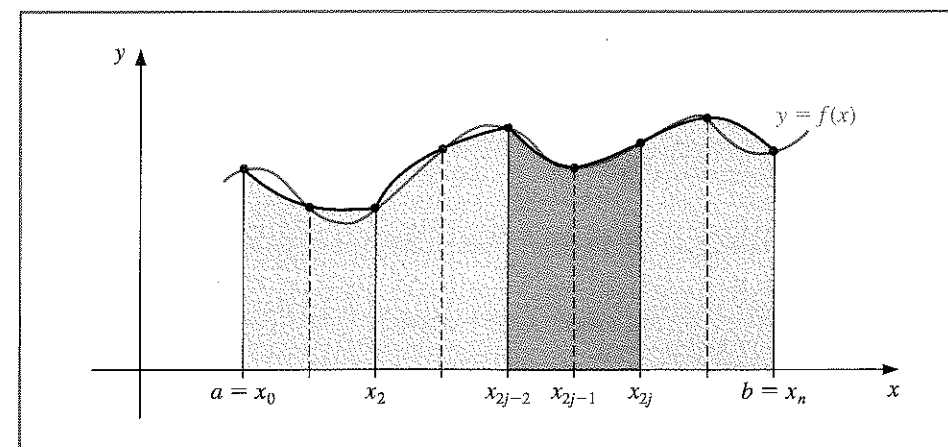
For the integrals on  $[0, 1]$ ,  $[1, 2]$ ,  $[2, 3]$ , and  $[3, 4]$ , we use Simpson's rule four times with  $h = \frac{1}{2}$  giving

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^4 e^x dx &= \int_0^1 e^x dx + \int_1^2 e^x dx + \int_2^3 e^x dx + \int_3^4 e^x dx \\ &\approx \frac{1}{6}(e_0 + 4e^{1/2} + e) + \frac{1}{6}(e + 4e^{3/2} + e^2) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{6}(e^2 + 4e^{5/2} + e^3) + \frac{1}{6}(e^3 + 4e^{7/2} + e^4) \\ &= \frac{1}{6}(e^0 + 4e^{1/2} + 2e + 4e^{3/2} + 2e^2 + 4e^{5/2} + 2e^3 + 4e^{7/2} + e^4) \\ &= 53.61622. \end{aligned}$$

The error for this approximation has been reduced to  $-0.01807$ .

To generalize this procedure for an arbitrary integral  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ , choose an even integer  $n$ . Subdivide the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals and apply Simpson's rule on each consecutive pair of subintervals. (See Figure 4.7.)

Figure 4.7



With  $h = (b - a)/n$  and  $x_j = a + jh$ , for each  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \int_{x_{2j-2}}^{x_{2j}} f(x) dx \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \left\{ \frac{h}{3} [f(x_{2j-2}) + 4f(x_{2j-1}) + f(x_{2j})] - \frac{h^5}{90} f^{(4)}(\xi_j) \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

for some  $\xi_j$  with  $x_{2j-2} < \xi_j < x_{2j}$ , provided that  $f \in C^4[a, b]$ . Using the fact that for each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, (n/2) - 1$  we have  $f(x_{2j})$  appearing in the term corresponding to the interval  $[x_{2j-2}, x_{2j}]$  and also in the term corresponding to the interval  $[x_{2j}, x_{2j+2}]$ , we can reduce this sum to

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{h}{3} \left[ f(x_0) + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{(n/2)-1} f(x_{2j}) + 4 \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} f(x_{2j-1}) + f(x_n) \right] - \frac{h^5}{90} \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} f^{(4)}(\xi_j).$$



The error associated with this approximation is

$$E(f) = -\frac{h^5}{90} \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} f^{(4)}(\xi_j),$$

where  $x_{2j-2} < \xi_j < x_{2j}$ , for each  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n/2$ .

If  $f \in C^4[a, b]$ , the Extreme Value Theorem 1.9 implies that  $f^{(4)}$  assumes its maximum and minimum in  $[a, b]$ . Since

$$\min_{x \in [a, b]} f^{(4)}(x) \leq f^{(4)}(\xi_j) \leq \max_{x \in [a, b]} f^{(4)}(x),$$

we have

$$\frac{n}{2} \min_{x \in [a, b]} f^{(4)}(x) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} f^{(4)}(\xi_j) \leq \frac{n}{2} \max_{x \in [a, b]} f^{(4)}(x)$$

and

$$\min_{x \in [a, b]} f^{(4)}(x) \leq \frac{2}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} f^{(4)}(\xi_j) \leq \max_{x \in [a, b]} f^{(4)}(x).$$

By the Intermediate Value Theorem 1.11, there is a  $\mu \in (a, b)$  such that

$$f^{(4)}(\mu) = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} f^{(4)}(\xi_j).$$

Thus,

$$E(f) = -\frac{h^5}{90} \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} f^{(4)}(\xi_j) = -\frac{h^5}{180} n f^{(4)}(\mu),$$

or, since  $h = (b - a)/n$ ,

$$E(f) = -\frac{(b - a)}{180} h^4 f^{(4)}(\mu).$$

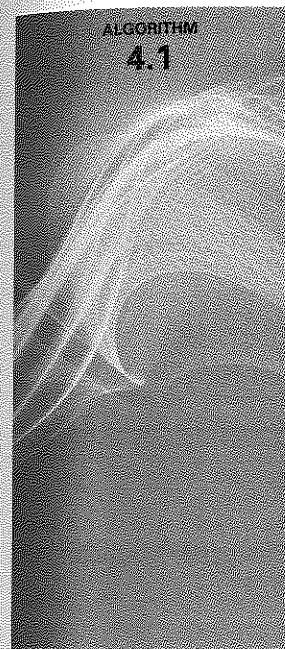
These observations produce the following result.

**Theorem 4.4** Let  $f \in C^4[a, b]$ ,  $n$  be even,  $h = (b - a)/n$ , and  $x_j = a + jh$ , for each  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . There exists a  $\mu \in (a, b)$  for which the **Composite Simpson's rule** for  $n$  subintervals can be written with its error term as

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{h}{3} \left[ f(a) + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{(n/2)-1} f(x_{2j}) + 4 \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} f(x_{2j-1}) + f(b) \right] - \frac{b-a}{180} h^4 f^{(4)}(\mu).$$

Notice that the error term for the Composite Simpson's rule is  $O(h^4)$ , whereas it was  $O(h^5)$  for the standard Simpson's rule. However, these rates are not comparable because for the standard Simpson's rule, we have  $h$  fixed at  $h = (b - a)/2$ , but for the Composite Simpson's rule, we have  $h = (b - a)/n$ , for  $n$  an even integer. This permits us to considerably reduce the value of  $h$ .

Algorithm 4.1 uses the Composite Simpson's rule on  $n$  subintervals. This is the most frequently used general-purpose quadrature algorithm.



### Composite Simpson's Rule

To approximate the integral  $I = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ :

**INPUT** endpoints  $a, b$ ; even positive integer  $n$ .

**OUTPUT** approximation  $XI$  to  $I$ .

**Step 1** Set  $h = (b - a)/n$ .

**Step 2** Set  $XI0 = f(a) + f(b)$ ;  
 $XI1 = 0$ ; (Summation of  $f(x_{2i-1})$ .)  
 $XI2 = 0$ . (Summation of  $f(x_{2i})$ .)

**Step 3** For  $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$  do Steps 4 and 5.

**Step 4** Set  $X = a + ih$ .

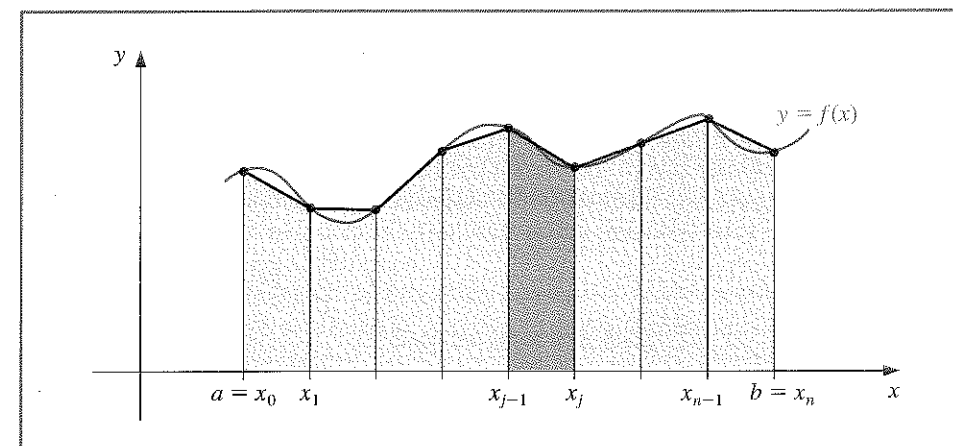
**Step 5** If  $i$  is even then set  $XI2 = XI2 + f(X)$   
 else set  $XI1 = XI1 + f(X)$ .

**Step 6** Set  $XI = h(XI0 + 2 \cdot XI2 + 4 \cdot XI1)/3$ .

**Step 7** **OUTPUT** ( $XI$ );  
**STOP**.

The subdivision approach can be applied to any of the Newton-Cotes formulas. The extensions of the Trapezoidal (see Figure 4.8) and Midpoint rules are given without proof. The Trapezoidal rule requires only one interval for each application, so the integer  $n$  can be either odd or even.

Figure 4.8



**Theorem 4.5** Let  $f \in C^2[a, b]$ ,  $h = (b - a)/n$ , and  $x_j = a + jh$ , for each  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . There exists a  $\mu \in (a, b)$  for which the **Composite Trapezoidal rule** for  $n$  subintervals can be written with its error term as

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{h}{2} \left[ f(a) + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} f(x_j) + f(b) \right] - \frac{b-a}{12} h^2 f''(\mu).$$

For the **Composite Midpoint rule**,  $n$  must again be even. (See Figure 4.9.)