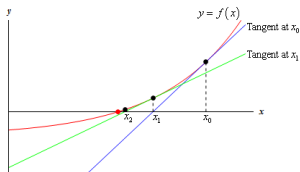


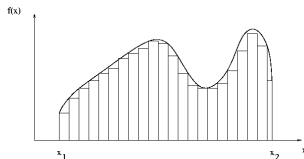
# Lecture 5

## Root finding & numerical integration



Root finding. Credit: [Paul](#)

[Dawkins](#)



Numerical integration. Credit

[Michael Richmond \(Tuffs\)](#)

## Mathematical problem

Common problems in computational physics include *root finding* and *numerical integration*

- ▶ Root-finding: Find a (the) value('s)  $x$ , for which

$$f(x) = 0.$$

usually within a range  $x \in [a, b]$

- ▶ Numerical integration: evaluate

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

for a given function  $f(x)$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are given

Both problems can occur in more than one dimension

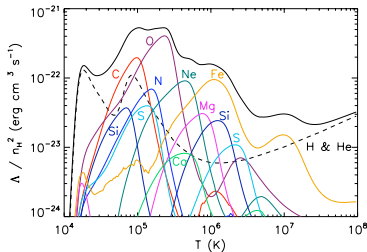
which significantly complicates matters

Here we only discuss the one-dimensional case.

## Example: root finding

- Cooling in cosmological simulations:  $\rho \frac{dT}{dt} = -\Lambda(T) \rho^2$   
solved numerically (implicitly) as  $T$  is temperature,  $t$  is time,  $\rho$  is density,  $\Lambda$   
is cooling rate

$$\frac{T(t + \Delta t) - T(t)}{\Delta t} = -\Lambda(T + \Delta t)\rho$$

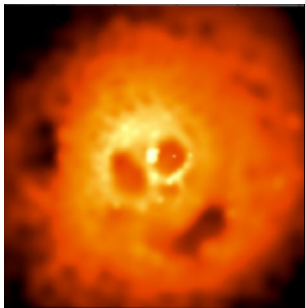


Cosmological gas cooling function  $\Lambda(T)$ , different colours refer to different chemical elements. Credit: Wiersma et al., 2009

## Example: numerical integration

- ▶ The energy radiated by cosmic gas during an interval  $\Delta t$

$$\Delta E = \int_t^{t+\Delta t} \Lambda(T) \rho^2 dt$$



X-ray image of the Perseus cluster, a massive cluster of galaxies. Credit: Nasa

# Root finding method 1: Newton-Raphson

Find value  $X$  for a given function  $f(x)$ , so that  $f(X) = 0$

- ▶ Assume  $x_i$  starting point for root, develop  $f$  as a Taylor series expansion close to  $x_i$

$$f(x_i) + f'(x_i)(X - x_i) + \dots \approx f(X) = 0,$$

and solve for  $X$

$$X = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)} \equiv x_{i+1}.$$

$x_{i+1}$  is improved estimate for root

- ▶ **Newton-Raphson** is the iterative scheme

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)}.$$

## Root finding method 1: Newton-Raphson

- ▶  $x_{i+1} = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)}$
- ▶ Termination criterion for the iteration:  $|x_{i+1} - x_i|$  is 'small enough'
- ▶ Method requires that  $f'$  be calculable
- ▶ Method needs a guess for start of iteration
- ▶ Which root is found if there is more than one?

## Root finding method 1: Convergence of Newton-Raphson

- ▶ To estimate the error rewrite  $x_{i+1} = X + \Delta x_{i+1}$  as

$$X + \Delta x_{i+1} = X + \Delta x_i - \frac{f(X + \Delta x_i)}{f'(X + \Delta x_i)}$$

- ▶ Solve for  $\Delta x_{i+1}$  & expand last term in a Taylor series:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta x_{i+1} &= \Delta x_i - \frac{f(X) + \Delta x_i f'(X) + \frac{1}{2}(\Delta x_i)^2 f''(X) + \dots}{f'(X) + \Delta x_i f''(X) + \dots} \\ &= \frac{f''(X)}{2f'(X)}(\Delta x_i)^2 + \mathcal{O}[(\Delta x_i)^3].\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Error term is quadratic in  $\Delta x \rightarrow$  decreases quickly  
convergence rate depends on  $f'$  and  $f''$

$f'$  small and/or  $f''$  large  $\rightarrow$  convergence is slow

## Root finding method 2: Secant method

- ▶ If  $f'$  is not known, we can't apply Newton-Raphson scheme
- ▶ Instead use **Secant method: compute  $f'$  numerically**  
from actual and previous guesses

$$f'(x_i) \approx \frac{f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})}{x_i - x_{i-1}} + \mathcal{O}[(x_i - x_{i-1})^2].$$

- ▶ Use this estimate in Newton-Raphson method

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - f(x_i) \frac{x_i - x_{i-1}}{f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})}.$$

requires that we have two guesses to start iteration,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$

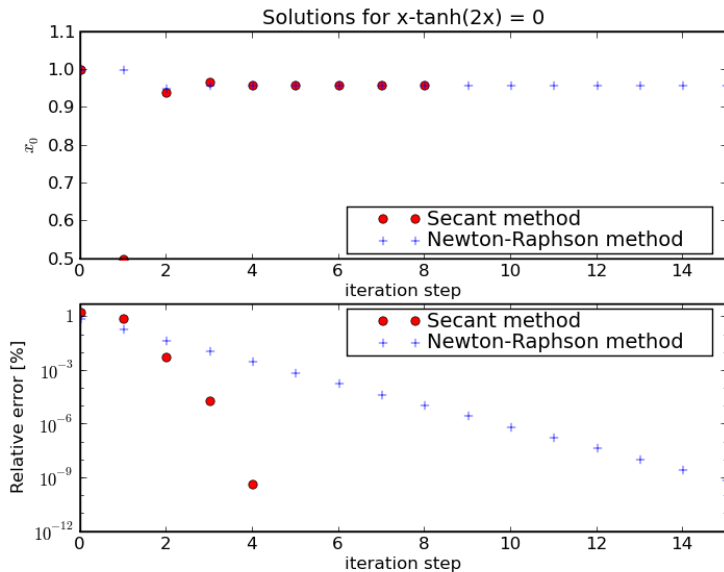
- ▶ Depending on smoothness of  $f$ , secant method may converge faster than Newton-Raphson. Asymptotically,

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} |\Delta x_{i+1}| \approx |\Delta x_i|^{1.618}$$

$\Delta x_i = X - x_i$ . Exponent is called the 'golden ratio',  $(\sqrt{5} + 1)/2 \approx 1.618$



# Root finding: Newton-Raphson vs. Secant method



# Root finding method 3: Bisection

Robust method that relies on subdividing intervals

- ▶ Use:  $f(x_0) \cdot f(x_1) < 0 \implies \exists X \in [x_0, x_1] : f(X) = 0$ .

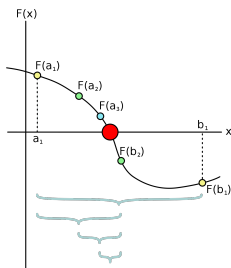
Provided  $f$  is continuous

- ▶ Find interval  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$  with  $f(x_i)f(x_{i+1}) < 0$

for example  $f(x_i) < 0$  but  $f(x_{i+1}) > 0$

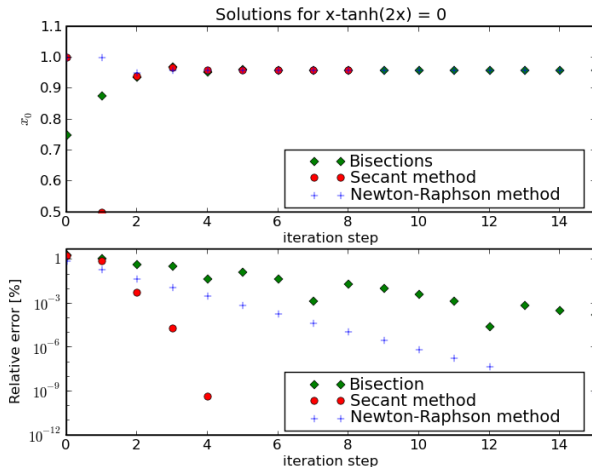
- ▶ Bisection: divide interval at  $x_{i+2} = \frac{x_i + x_{i+1}}{2}$ . Replace either  $x_i$  or  $x_{i+1}$

with  $x_{i+2}$  such that for new interval limits still one function value above and one below zero.



Bisection method. Credit: [wikipedia](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bisection_method)

# Root finding: comparison of convergence



## Root finding: summary

- ▶ We discussed *Iterative procedures* - must provide guess, and stop iteration when accuracy goal is reached. Typical condition (example):

$$\left| \frac{x_{i+1} - x_i}{x_{i+1} + x_i} \right| \leq p.$$

can be absolute criterion as well,  $|x_{i+1} - x_i| < q$

- ▶ Complications cases with several roots, extrema and saddle points, etc..
- ▶ Newton-Raphson: fastest convergence requires calculation of  $f'$
- ▶ Secant method: fast compute  $f'$  numerically
- ▶ Bisections: slowest convergence but very robust
- ▶ In more than one dimension: very tricky business, would use gradient. Estimating convergence also tricky.

# Numerical integration

- Evaluate

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

for given integration limits  $a$  and  $b$ , and a given function  $f$

- Example: period of non-linear pendulum.

$$T = \sqrt{\frac{8l}{g}} \int_0^{\theta_{\max}} \frac{d\theta}{\sqrt{\cos \theta - \cos \theta_{\max}}}$$

Elliptic integral, closed form analytic solution not known

# Numerical integration: Newton-Cotes method



$$I = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

- ▶ Newton-Cotes: divide interval  $[a, b]$  in  $N$  subintervals of size  $\Delta x = (b - a)/N$  and approximate integral by a sum:

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f(x_i) \Delta x = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f(a + i\Delta x) \Delta x.$$

- ▶ Replace integration by sum over rectangular segments

approximate  $f$  as being piece-wise constant when segments are 'small enough'

## Numerical integration: convergence of Newton-Cotes method

- ▶ The Euler-Maclaurin summation formula is:

sum over integers, requires that **all** derivatives of  $F$  exist

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} F(i) = \int_0^N F(u) \, du - \frac{1}{2} [F(0) + F(N)] \\ + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{B_{2k}}{(2k)!} [F^{(2k-1)}(N) - F^{(2k-1)}(0)] \right\}.$$

$F^{(n)}(u)$  =  $n^{\text{th}}$  derivative of  $F$

$B_{2k}$  are the **Bernoulli numbers** e.g.  $B_2 = 1/6$ ,  $B_4 = -1/30$

## Numerical integration: convergence of Newton-Cotes

- ▶ Setting  $u = \frac{x-a}{\Delta x}$ ,  $F(u) = f(x)$  E-M summation formula becomes

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} f(x_i) = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx - \frac{1}{2} [f(a) + f(b)] \\ + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{B_{2k}}{(2k)!} [f^{(2k-1)}(b) - f^{(2k-1)}(a)] (\Delta x)^{2k-1} \right\}.$$

- ▶ Rearrange and adjust the summation index:

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f(x_i) \Delta x + \frac{\Delta x}{2} [f(b) - f(a)] \\ - \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{12} [f'(b) - f'(a)] + \mathcal{O}[(\Delta x)^4].$$



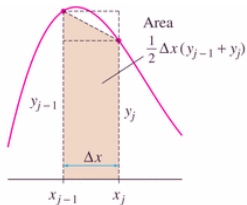
## Numerical integration: trapezoidal rule

- ▶ Improve convergence of N-C by including the term  $[f(b) - f(a)]/2$  that appears in the Euler-MacLaurin formula:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f(x_i) \Delta x + \frac{\Delta x}{2} [f(b) - f(a)] + \dots$$

- ▶ Trapezoidal rule accurate up to second order in  $\Delta x$  -  
Newton-Cotes accurate to first order in  $\Delta x$ .

## Numerical integration: trapezoidal rule



**FIGURE 3** The area of a trapezoid is equal to the average of the areas of the left- and right-endpoint rectangles.

Illustration of trapezoidal rule. Credit: [Andy Long](#)

## Numerical integration: Simpson's rule

- ▶ Use higher-order interpolation rather than linear interpolation of trapezoidal rule
- ▶ **Simpson's rule: Fit parabolic segments** through the top edges of two neighbouring segments. If  $A_i$  is the area of the segment between  $x_i$  and  $x_{i+1}$  in the parabolic fit, then

$$A_i + A_{i+1} = \frac{\Delta x}{3} [f(x_i) + 4f(x_{i+1}) + f(x_{i+2})] .$$

- ▶ This can be seen by using

$$A_i + A_{i+1} = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+2}} (ax^2 + bx + c) \, dx$$

and the parabolic fit

$$f(x_{j=i,i+1,i+2}) = ax_j^2 + bx_j + c .$$

## Numerical integration: Simpson's rule

- ▶ From the area  $A_i + A_{i+1}$  of two neighbouring segments in the parabolic fit we have

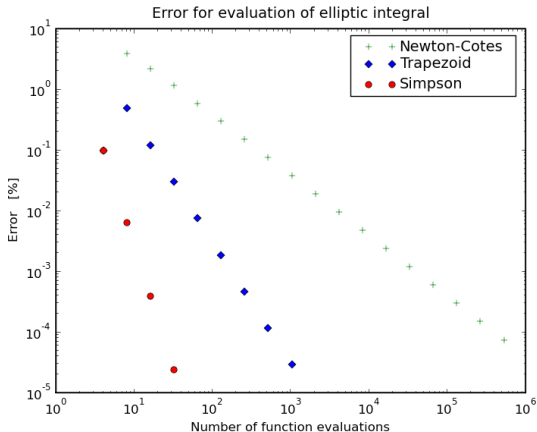
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{\Delta x}{3} \left[ f(a) + 4f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + 4f(x_3) + \dots \right. \\ \left. + \dots + 2f(x_{N-2}) + 4f(x_{N-1}) + f(b) \right]$$

- ▶ Convergence of Simpson's rule:  $\propto (\Delta x)^4$ .

# Numerical integration: comparison of methods

- Trivial test: Elliptic integral

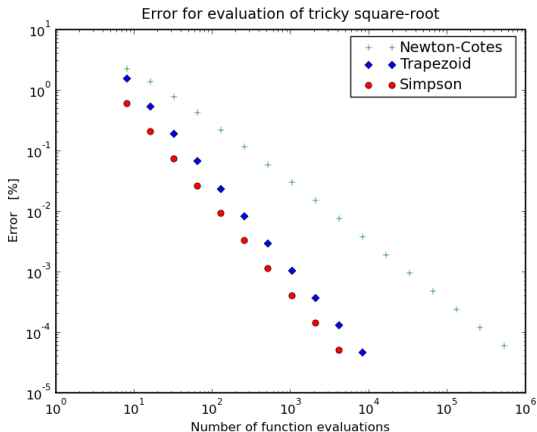
$$I = \int_0^{\pi/2} (1 - k^2 \sin^2 \theta)^{1/2} d\theta \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow 1} 1$$



# Numerical integration: comparison of methods

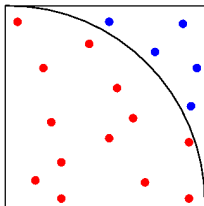
- ▶ Harder test - function with diverging derivative at  $x = 2$ :

$$I = \int_0^2 (4 - x^2)^{1/2} dx = \pi$$



## Numerical integration: Monte Carlo integration

- ▶ Example: calculating  $\pi$ . Compare surface area of sphere ( $S = \pi r^2$ ) to that of a square with length  $2r$  ( $S = 4r^2$ )
- ▶ Use pseudo-random number generator



$$\frac{\text{Hits}}{\text{Misses} + \text{Hits}} \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{4}$$

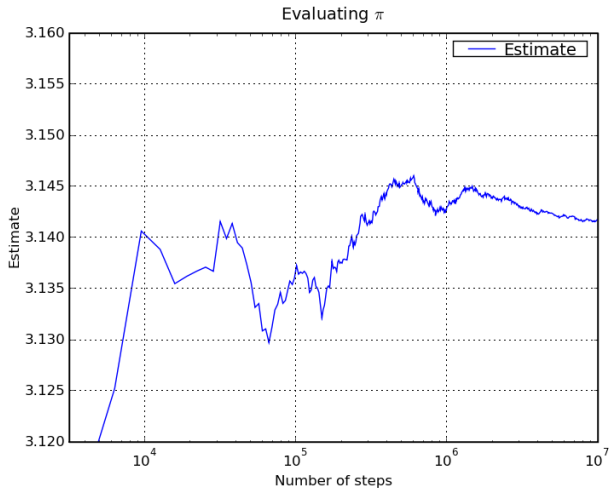
Throw random points  $(x,y)$ ,  
with  $x, y$  in  $[0,1]$

For hits:  $(x^2 + y^2) < r^2 = 1$

Ratio of surface of quarter circle ( $S = \pi r^2/4$ ) over that of square ( $S = r^2$ ) is fraction of points that land inside the circle

# Numerical integration: Monte Carlo integration

calculating  $\pi$





## Monte Carlo integration: convergence

- ▶ MC integration: Estimate integral by  $N$  probes

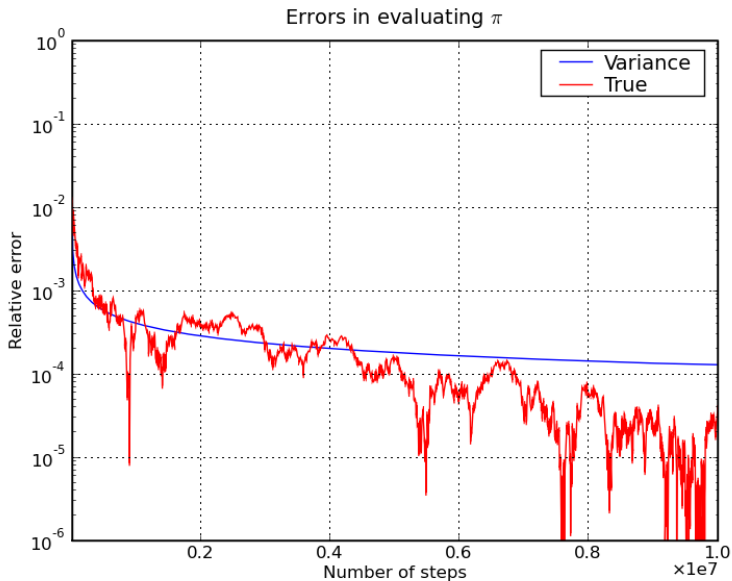
$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx \longrightarrow \langle I \rangle = \frac{b-a}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i) = \langle f \rangle_{a,b},$$

where  $x_i$  are random numbers homogeneously distributed in  $[a, b]$

- ▶ Basic idea for error estimate: statistical sample  
 $\implies$  use standard deviation as error estimate

$$\langle E_f(N) \rangle = \sigma = \left[ \frac{\langle f^2 \rangle_{a,b} - \langle f \rangle_{a,b}^2}{N} \right]^{1/2}$$

# Monte Carlo integration: convergence



## Comparing convergence rates in numerical integration

- ▶ Interesting question: How do error estimates scale with the number of function calls?
- ▶ May become crucial, if function calls “expensive”
- ▶ Trapezium:  $\sim N^{-2/d}$ , Simpson:  $\sim N^{-4/d}$ , MC:  $\sim N^{-1/2}$  for  $d$  dimensions.
- ▶ Therefore: For  $d \geq 8$  dimensions MC wins!
- ▶ Method of choice for high-dimensional integration.

## Numerical integration: summary

- ▶ When to favour higher-order over lower-order and vice versa?
  - ▶ Integral needed only once: **knowing accuracy important**  
convergence
  - ▶ Integral needs evaluating many times  
e.g. with small changes of integration limits  
in general: smooth function → use higher-order method  
non-smooth function → use low-order method  
for best accuracy with minimum computational cost  
similar to Lecture 2: (non)-smooth functions: use (lower)higher-order
- ▶ Very smooth function: use **Gaussian integration** not discussed here

## Numerical integration application: Hyperspheres

Hypersphere is a sphere in  $d > 3$  dimensions

- ▶ Volume in spherical coordinates:

$$V_d = \int_0^R r^{d-1} dr \int d\Omega_n = \frac{R^d}{d} \int d\Omega_n$$

$R$  is radius of the sphere,  $\int d\Omega_n$  is the 'angular bit'

- ▶ Here: want to have fun - calculate volume numerically

# Hypersphere volume: analytical calculation

difficult way: using  $d$ -dimensional polar coordinates

- Transform to  $d$ -dimensional polar coordinates

$$x_1 = r \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 \dots \sin \theta_{d-3} \sin \theta_{d-2} \sin \theta_{d-1}$$

$$x_2 = r \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 \dots \sin \theta_{d-3} \sin \theta_{d-2} \cos \theta_{d-1}$$

$$x_3 = r \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 \dots \sin \theta_{d-3} \cos \theta_{d-2}$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$x_{d-1} = r \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_1$$

$$x_d = r \cos \theta_1$$

- Volume element:

$$dV_d = \int_0^R r^{d-1} dr \left[ \prod_{i=1}^{d-2} \int_0^\pi \sin^{d-1-i} \theta_i d\theta_i \right] \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta_{d-1}$$

## Hypersphere volume: analytical calculation

- For integral above, use (with  $\beta = -1/2$ )

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin^{2\alpha+1}(x) \cos^{2\beta+1}(x) dx = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+1)\Gamma(\beta+1)}{\Gamma(2+\alpha+\beta)}$$

- Therefore volume of  $d$ -dimension hypersphere

$$V_d = \frac{\pi^{d/2} R^d}{\Gamma(1 + \frac{d}{2})}.$$

# Hypersphere volume: analytical calculation

the clever way: use integration of Gaussians

- ▶ Remember Gaussian integral:  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-x^2) dx = \pi^{1/2}$
- ▶ Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-x^2) dx \right)^n &= \pi^{n/2} \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} r^{n-1} \exp(-r^2) dr \int d\Omega_n \end{aligned}$$

use  $n$ -dimensional spherical coordinates

- ▶ But  $\int_0^{\infty} r^{n-1} \exp(-r^2) dr = \Gamma(n/2)/2$
- ▶ Therefore

$$\int d\Omega_n = \frac{2\pi^{n/2}}{\Gamma(n/2)}$$



# The $\Gamma$ -function

- ▶ Properties:

- ▶  $\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$ , for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :  $\Gamma(n+1) = n!$
- ▶  $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$ ,  $\Gamma(1+n/2) = \sqrt{\pi/2^{n+1}} n!!$

- ▶ Integral representation:

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt = \int_0^1 \left( \ln \frac{1}{u} \right)^{z-1} du$$

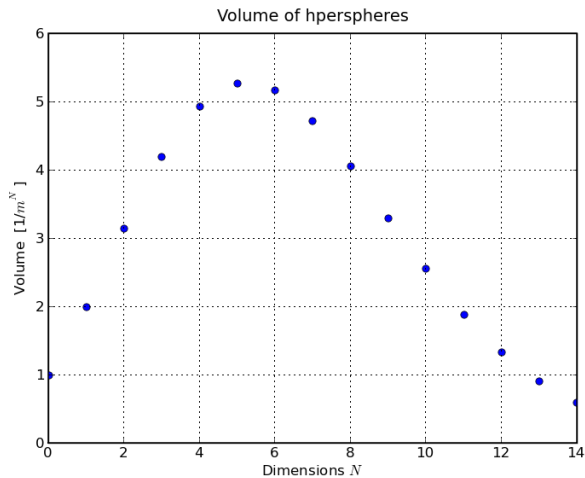
- ▶ First derivative:

$$\Gamma'(z) = \Gamma(z)\psi^{(0)}(z) = \Gamma(z) \left[ \int_0^1 dt \frac{1-t^{z-1}}{1-t} - \gamma_E \right],$$

where Euler-Mascheroni number  $\gamma_E = 0.577215665$ .

# Volume of unit hyperspheres

'unit' means radius = 1



## Summary

- ▶ Discussed different methods for root-finding,  
i.e. for solving  $f(x) = 0$ :  
Newton-Raphson, secant and bisection method
- ▶ Methods for numerical integration, based on segments:  
Newton-Cotes, trapezium and Simpson's rule.
- ▶ Another method, based on random numbers: Monte Carlo  
alternative way for error estimate through statistics