

- Exact Integration.
- Simple numerical methods.
- Advanced numerical methods.

- Standard techniques of integration – substitution, integration by parts or using identities etc.

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- Computer Algebra Systems (CAS).

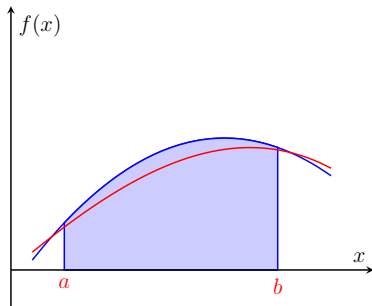
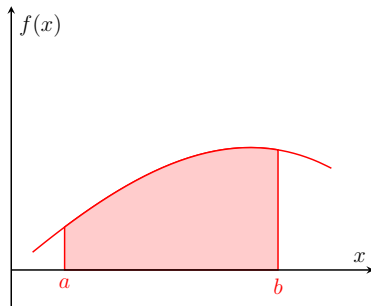
- Mathematica
- Matlab
- Sympy
- Magma
- Sagemath
- etc.

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- The data that we have collected and need to integrate is discrete data – ie is only known at some points (we may or maynot know the functional form).

Numerical integration can be based on fitting approximating functions (polynomials) to discrete data and integrating approximating functions.

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





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- This procedure is based on the idea that one can fit the data by a direct fit polynomial and integrate that polynomial:

$$f(x) \approx P_n(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots$$



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- This procedure can be applied to data ( $f(x)$ ) which is available for  $x$  that are equally spaced or unequally spaced.

- If  $f(x)$  is a continuous function defined for  $a \leq x \leq b$  and one divides the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals of equal width,  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$  then the definite integral

$$I = \int_a^b f(x)dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x$$

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- The Riemann integral can be interpreted as the area under the curve  $y = f(x)$  from  $a$  to  $b$ .

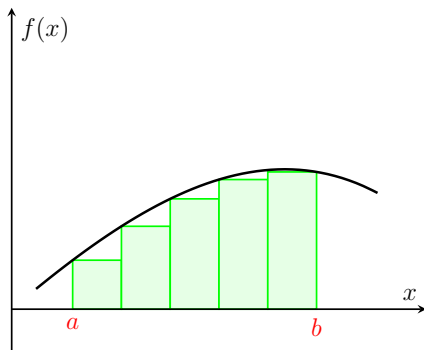
Left end-point Riemann sum

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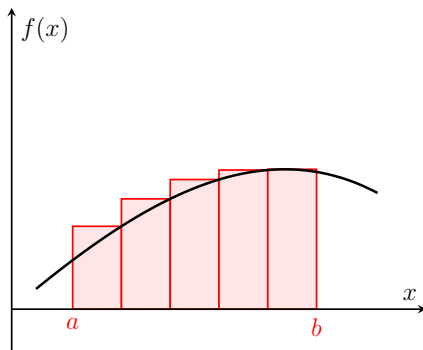


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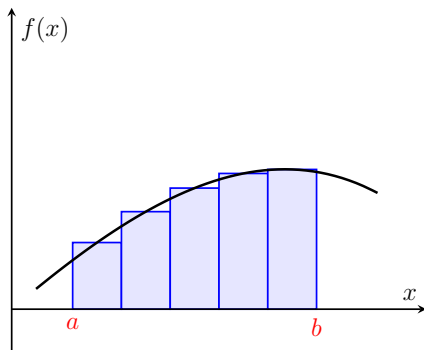
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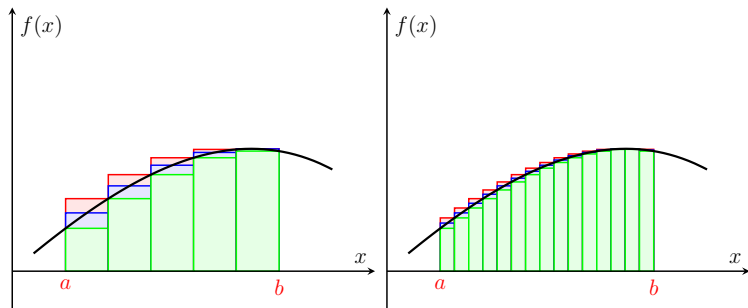
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# Comparison of left, right and mid point



In principle, all three of the methods will converge to the same result – albeit very slowly!

## Better method: Trapezoidal approximation

The area of the trapezoid that lies above the  $i^{th}$  subinterval:

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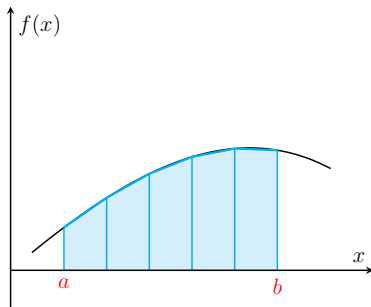
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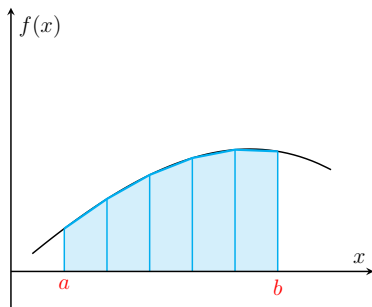
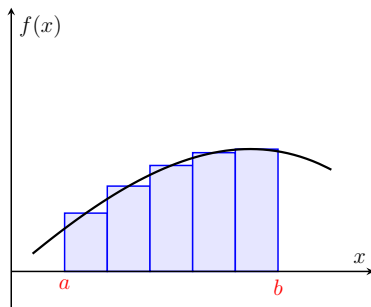
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# Comparison of mid point and trapezoidal



First order interpolation for the  $i^{th}$  subinterval:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f(x_{i-1}) + f'(x_{i-1})x + \textit{higher order terms} \\ &= f(x_{i-1}) + \frac{f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})}{\Delta x}x + \textit{higher order terms}. \end{aligned}$$

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Trapezoidal approximation is the application of first order interpolation for each subinterval.

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Number of  $n$  intervals should be even – if not then the last interval should be treated in some other way!



- Lagrange interpolation.
- Newton forward difference polynomials.
- Trapezoidal rule (revisited).
- Simpson's rule (revisited).
- Simpson's  $3/8$  rule.
- Integration error.

Let us assume a set of numbers  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  and the corresponding function's ( $f(x)$ ) values  $f_0, \dots, f_n$ .

# Lagrange Interpolation

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$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &= \sum_{i=0}^n C_i x^i \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \prod_{i \neq j} (x - x_j) \end{aligned}$$

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This polynomial is the Lagrange interpolation polynomial whose expression is given by :

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &= \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{\prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j)}{\prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)} f_i. \\ &= \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i) \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{f_i}{(x - x_i) \prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)}. \end{aligned}$$

Lagrange method is mostly a theoretical tool used for proving theorems. Not only it is not very efficient when a new point is added (which requires computing the polynomial again, from scratch), it is also numerically unstable.

# Newton's divided differences Interpolation

If one writes the Lagrange interpolation polynomial slightly different basis functions, one obtains the Newton's interpolation formula given by:

$$P_n(x) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(x - x_0) + \alpha_2(x - x_1)(x - x_0) + \dots \\ + \alpha_n(x - x_{n-1}) \dots (x - x_1)(x - x_0)$$



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For  $i = 1$ :

$$f_1 = P_n(x_1) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(x_1 - x_0) \\ \alpha_1 = \frac{f_1 - f_0}{x_1 - x_0}$$

# Newton's divided differences Interpolation

For  $i = 2$ :

$$f_2 = P_n(x_2) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(x_2 - x_0) + \alpha_2(x_2 - x_1)(x_2 - x_0)$$

$$\alpha_2 = \frac{(f_2 - f_1)/(x_2 - x_1) - (f_1 - f_0)/(x_1 - x_0)}{x_2 - x_0}$$

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Similarly we can find  $\alpha_3, \dots, \alpha_{n-1}$ .

To express  $\alpha_i, i = 0, \dots, n-1$  in a compact manner let us first define the following notation called divided differences:

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

With this notation:

$$\alpha_0 = f[x_0]$$

$$\alpha_1 = f[x_0, x_1]$$

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Now the polynomial can be rewritten as:

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f[x_0, \dots, x_k] \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} (x - x_i)$$

This is called as Newton's Divided Difference interpolation polynomial.

Sometimes in practice the data points  $x_i$  are equally spaced points:

$$x_i = x_0 + i \cdot h, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

where  $x_0$  is the starting point and  $h$  is the step size.

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These simple differences can be forward differences ( $\Delta f_i$ ) or backward differences ( $\nabla f_i$ ). We will first look at forward differences and the interpolation polynomial based on forward differences.

The first order forward difference  $\Delta f_i$  is defined as

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The  $k^{th}$  order forward difference  $\Delta^k f_i$  is defined as

$$\Delta^k f_i = \Delta^{k-1} f_{i+1} - \Delta^{k-1} f_i$$

# Newton's divided differences Interpolation

Then the first divided difference  $f[x_0, x_1]$ ,

$$f[x_0, x_1] = \frac{f_1 - f_0}{h} = \frac{\Delta f_0}{h}$$

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By the definition of second order forward difference  $\Delta^2 f_0$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta^2 f_0 &= \Delta f_1 - \Delta f_0 \\ &= h\{f[x_1, x_2] - f[x_0, x_1]\} \\ &= h * 2h\{(f[x_1, x_2] - f[x_0, x_1])/(x_2 - x_0)\} \\ &= 2h^2 f[x_0, x_1, x_2]\end{aligned}$$

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In general,

$$\Delta^k f_i = k! h^k f[x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2} \dots x_{i+k}]$$

The Newton forward difference interpolation polynomial may be written as follows:

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\Delta^k f_0}{k! h^k} \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} (x - x_i)$$



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We can rewrite the above in a simpler way:

$$x = x_0 + sh, \quad p_n(s) = P_n(x)$$

$$x_k = x_0 + kh$$

$$x - x_k = (s - k)h$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} p_n(s) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\Delta^k f_0}{k! h^k} \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} (s - i)h \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\Delta^k f_0}{k! h^k} [s(s-1)\dots(s-k+1)]h^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{s}{k} \Delta^k f_0 \end{aligned}$$

When interpolating a given function  $f$  by a polynomial of degree  $n$  at the nodes  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  we get the error

$$f(x) - P_n(x) = f[x_0, \dots, x_n, x] \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i)$$

If  $f$  is  $n + 1$  times continuously differentiable then for each  $x$  in the interval there exists  $\xi$  in that interval such that

$$f(x) - p_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i)$$

# The Trapezoidal Rule (revisited)

A first degree polynomial for a single interval (two points):

$$\Delta I = h \int_0^1 (f_0 + s\Delta f_0) ds = h \left[ sf_0 + \frac{s^2}{2} \Delta f_0 \right]_0^1$$

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Applying over all intervals:

$$I = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \Delta I_i = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{h}{2}(f_i + f_{i+1}) = \frac{h}{2}(f_0 + 2f_1 + \dots + 2f_{n-1} + f_n)$$

# The Trapezoidal Rule (revisited)

The error estimation can be done by integrating the error term. For a single interval:

$$E = h \int_0^1 \frac{s(s-1)}{2} h^2 f''(\xi) ds = -\frac{1}{12} h^3 f''(\xi) \sim \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

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Total error:

$$E_T = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E_i = -\frac{1}{12} (x_n - x_0) h^2 f''(\xi) \sim \mathcal{O}(h^2)$$

where  $x_0 \leq \xi \leq x_n$ .



# The Simpson's Rule (revisited)

A second degree polynomial for two intervals (three points):

$$\Delta I = h \int_0^2 \left( f_0 + s\Delta f_0 + \frac{s(s-1)}{2} \Delta^2 f_0 \right) ds$$

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Applying over all intervals:

$$I = \frac{h}{3}(f_0 + 4f_1 + 2f_2 + 4f_3 + \dots + 4f_{n-1} + f_n)$$

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The error estimation can be done by integrating the error term. For an interval:

$$E = h \int_0^2 \frac{s(s-1)(s-2)}{6} h^3 f'''(\xi) ds = 0$$

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Total error:

$$E_T \sim \mathcal{O}(h^4)$$

# The Simpson's 3/8 Rule

A third degree polynomial for three intervals (four points):

$$\Delta I = h \int_0^3 \left( f_0 + s \Delta f_0 + \frac{s(s-1)}{2} \Delta^2 f_0 + \frac{s(s-1)(s-2)}{6} \Delta^3 f_0 \right) ds$$

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Applying over all intervals:

$$I = \frac{3h}{8} (f_0 + 3f_1 + 3f_2 + 2f_3 + \dots + 3f_{n-1} + f_n)$$

# The Simpson's 3/8 Rule

The error estimation can be done by integrating the error term. For an interval:

$$E = h \int_0^3 \frac{s(s-1)(s-2)(s-3)}{24} h^4 f''''(\xi) ds = -\frac{3}{80} h^5 f''''(\xi)$$

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$$E = h \int_0^3 \frac{s(s-1)(s-2)(s-3)}{24} h^4 f''''(\xi) ds = -\frac{3}{80} h^5 f''''(\xi)$$

Total error:

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Same order as Simpson's 1/3 rule!

Quadrature is a weighted sum of finite number of sample values of the integrand.

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)w_i$$

| name      | degree | Weights                                  |
|-----------|--------|--|
| Trapezoid | 1      | (h/2, h/2)                               |
| Simpson's | 2      | (h/3, 4h/3, h/3)                         |
| 3/8       | 3      | (3h/8, 9h/8, 9h/8, 3h/8)                 |
| Milne     | 4      | (14h/45, 64h/45, 24h/45, 64h/45, 14h/45) |

- The best numerical evaluation of an integral can be done with relatively small number of sub-intervals ( $n \sim 1000 - 10000$ ).
- It is possible to get errors close to machine precision with Simpson's rule and other higher order methods.