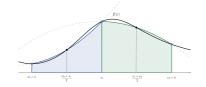
Algorithms and Data Structures

Quadrature Newton-Côtes



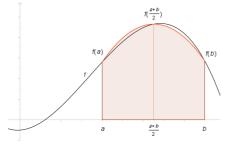


Learning goals

- Polynomial interpolation
- Newton-Côtes
- Composite rule

QUADRATURE WITH POLYNOMIALS

Idea: Approximate f in [a, b] by polynomial interpolation of degree m



https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Simpsonregel Approximation of the integral of f in [a,b] using a polynomial of degree m=2. Three

grid points are needed.



POLYNOMIAL INTERPOLATION

- **Find**: Polynomial interpolation $p_m(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i$ of degree m
- **Required**: Evaluation at m + 1 data points $(x_0 = a, x_1, ..., x_m = b)$
- At these data points the function values of the polynomial and the function f must be identical, i.e. $p_m(x_k) = f(x_k)$ for k = 0, 1, ..., m or equivalently using the **Vandermonde** matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_0 & \dots & x_0^m \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m & \dots & x_m^m \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ \vdots \\ a_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f(x_0) \\ \vdots \\ f(x_m) \end{pmatrix}$$

• Existence and uniqueness: If the matrix is regular, the system of equations can be solved **uniquely**. The matrix is regular if the grid points x_k , k = 1, ..., m are pairwise distinct.



POLYNOMIAL INTERPOLATION / 2

The polynomial interpolation can be determined by the solution of the equation system above. However, the effort is high (solution of the LES is $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$).

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The polynomial interpolation can also be defined by using **Lagrange polynomials**:

$$L_{im}(x) = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{m} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}, \quad i = 0, 1, ..., m$$

The polynomial interpolation is:

$$p_m(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m L_{im}(x) f(x_i)$$

POLYNOMIAL INTERPOLATION / 3

$$L_{im}(x_k) = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{m} \frac{x_k - x_j}{x_i - x_j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = i \\ 0 & \text{if } k \neq i \end{cases}$$

Example: Let m = 3 and we calculate L_{i3} for i = 2

$$L_{23}(x_k) = \prod_{i=0, i\neq 2}^{3} \frac{x_k - x_j}{x_2 - x_j} = \frac{x_k - x_0}{x_2 - x_0} \cdot \frac{x_k - x_1}{x_2 - x_1} \cdot \frac{x_k - x_3}{x_2 - x_3}$$

For k = i = 2 all factors are 1

$$L_{23}(x_2) = \frac{x_2 - x_0}{x_2 - x_0} \cdot \frac{x_2 - x_1}{x_2 - x_1} \cdot \frac{x_2 - x_3}{x_2 - x_3} = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 = 1$$

and for $k \neq 2$, e.g. k = 1, one factor is 0 and thus the whole product will be 0

$$L_{23}(x_1) = \underbrace{\frac{x_1 - x_0}{x_2 - x_0}}_{} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{x_1 - x_1}{x_2 - x_1}}_{=0} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{x_1 - x_3}{x_2 - x_3}}_{} = 0$$

So the polynomial is actually the polynomial interpolation through $(x_k, f(x_k))$

$$p_m(x_k) = \sum_{i=0}^m L_{im}(x_k) f(x_i) = f(x_k)$$
 for k = 0, 1, ..., m



Instead of f we now integrate the polynomial p_m :

$$I(p_m) = \int_a^b p_m(x) dx = \int_a^b \sum_{i=0}^m L_{im}(x) f(x_i) dx$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^m f(x_i) \underbrace{\int_a^b L_{im}(x) dx}_{:=W_{im}}$$

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So the integral of p_m on [a, b] is defined by

$$I(p_m) = \sum_{i=0}^m w_{im} f(x_i)$$

with weights $w_{im} = \int_a^b L_{im}(x) dx$.

Using equidistant grid points, i.e. $x_i = a + i \cdot h$, i = 0, 1, ..., m with $h = \frac{b-a}{m}$, the formula can be further simplified.

When calculating the weights, we use integration by substitution $\int_{\varphi(0)}^{\varphi(m)} L_{im}(x) dx = \int_{0}^{m} L_{im}(\varphi(x)) \cdot \varphi'(x) dx$ with $\varphi(x) = x \cdot h + a$. Since $\varphi(0) = a$ and $\varphi(m) = b$, the following holds

$$w_{im} = \int_{\varphi(0)}^{\varphi(m)} L_{im}(x) \, dx = \int_{0}^{m} L_{im}(x \cdot h + a) \cdot h \, dx = \int_{0}^{m} \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{m} \frac{x - j}{i - j} \cdot \frac{b - a}{m} \, dx$$

In the last step the fact that $x_i = i \cdot h + a$ was exploited

$$L_{im}(x \cdot h + a) = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{m} \frac{x \cdot h + a - x_{j}}{x_{i} - x_{j}} = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{m} \frac{x \cdot h + a - (j \cdot h + a)}{i \cdot h + a - (j \cdot h + a)} = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{m} \frac{x - j}{i - j}$$



The Newton-Côtes formula for equidistant grid points is given by

$$Q_m(f) = \int_a^b p_m(x) dx = (b-a) \sum_{i=0}^m w_{im} f(x_i),$$

with weights

$$w_{im} = \frac{1}{m} \int_0^m \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^m \frac{x-j}{i-j} dx, \quad \text{for} \quad 0 \le i \le m.$$

For a given polynomial of degree m the weights have to be calculated (or looked up) only once, and the formula can be generalized to all possible intervals [a, b].



Example: For m = 1, two grid points are needed $\rightarrow x_0 = a$, $x_1 = b$.

Calculation of the weights for the integral [0, 1]:

$$w_{01} = \int_0^1 \left(\frac{x-1}{0-1}\right) dx = \int_0^1 (1-x) dx = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$w_{11} = \int_0^1 \left(\frac{x-0}{1-0}\right) dx = \int_0^1 x dx = \frac{1}{2}$$

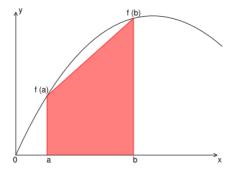
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So the formula is given by

$$I(f) \approx I(p_1) = (b-a) \cdot (w_{01} \cdot f(x_0) + w_{11} \cdot f(x_1))$$

= $(b-a) \cdot \frac{f(a) + f(b)}{2}$

The approach is also called trapezoidal rule.





OPEN VS. CLOSED NEWTON-CÔTES

We distinguish between:

- **Closed** Newton-Côtes formulas: interval margins a and b are used as grid points for the polynomial interpolation. Usually equidistant nodes are used as grid points, $x_i = a + i \cdot h$, i = 0, ..., m with $h = \frac{b-a}{m}$
- **Open** Newton-Côtes formulas: interval margins a and b are **not** used as grid points for the polynomial interpolation. Usually equidistant nodes $x_i = a + i \cdot h$, i = 1, ..., m + 1, $h = \frac{b-a}{m+2}$ are used.



WEIGHTS OF THE NEWTON CÔTES

m	type	sampling points (*)	$\omega_{\it im}$	
0 1 2 3 4	open closed closed closed closed	$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ 0, 1 \\ 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1 \\ 0, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, 1 \\ 0, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{2}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, 1 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6} \\ \frac{1}{8}, \frac{3}{8}, \frac{3}{8}, \frac{1}{8} \\ \frac{3}{90}, \frac{32}{90}, \frac{12}{90}, \frac{32}{90}, \frac{7}{90} \end{array}$	Riemann sum trapezoidal rule Simpson's rule 3/8-rule Milne rule
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^(*) The grid points are only valid for integration on [0, 1]. For general integration limits the grid points are $a + x_i \cdot (b - a)$.

NEWTON-CÔTES: QUADRATURE ERROR

The interpolation error can generally be represented by

$$f(x) - p_m(x) = \frac{1}{(m+1)!} f^{(m+1)}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \cdot \prod_{i=0}^{m} (x - x_i),$$

for an intermediate point $\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in [a, b]$. With this, the quadrature error can be generally derived by

$$E(f) = \int_a^b p_m(x) - f(x) \ dx = -\frac{1}{(m+1)!} f^{(m+1)}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \int_a^b \prod_{i=0}^m (x - x_i) \ dx$$

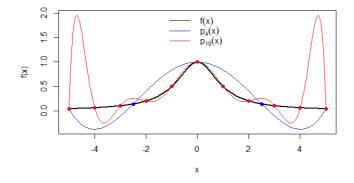
Example: Trapezoidal rule

$$E(f) = \int_{a}^{b} p_{m}(x) - f(x) dx = -\int_{a}^{b} \frac{1}{2!} f^{(2)}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})(x - a)(x - b) dx$$
$$= -\frac{f^{(2)}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})}{2} \int_{a}^{b} (x - a)(x - b) dx = \frac{1}{12} (b - a)^{3} \cdot f^{(2)}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$



Interpolation with a polynomial of higher degree allows for more flexibility. However, the polynomial function **oscillates** stronger near the interval boundaries (Runge's phenomenon).





In addition, many Newton-Côtes formulas have negative weights for degree \geq 8, which entails the risk of cancellation.

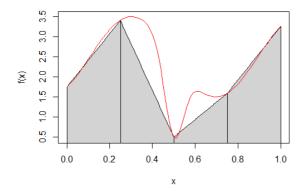
Therefore, it is common to divide larger integration intervals [a, b] into n sub-intervals and apply the Newton-Côtes formula with a lower polynomial degree on each of these sub-intervals. Then, the individual results for the sub-intervals are added up.

In numerical integration this is known as the **composite rule**.



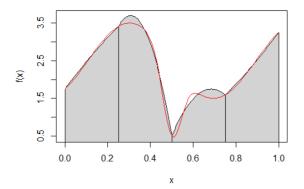
Degree m = 1: f is approximated in the intervals $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ by linear functions (trapezoidal rule)



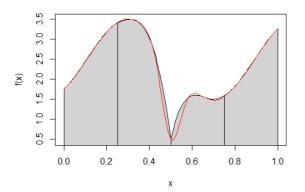


Degree m = 2: f is approximated in the intervals $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ by quadratic functions (Simpson's rule)



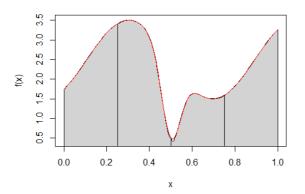


Degree m = 3: f is approximated in the intervals $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ by polynomials of degree 3





Degree m = 4: f is approximated in the intervals $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ by polynomials of degree 4





CONCLUSION: NUMERICAL INTEGRATION

- In practice, adaptive procedures are often used: the number of sub-intervals to which the Newton-Côtes formulas are applied is adaptively fine-tuned.
- The composite Simpson's rule no longer really corresponds to the state-of-the-art, but is certainly performant.
- There are better methods such as Gaussian quadrature or Gauss–Kronrod quadrature formula (not further discussed here).
- Impressive convergence rates of some procedures (in 1D), if *f* is sufficiently smooth, otherwise possibly problematic.
- In principle, the procedures discussed so far can also be generalized to higher dimensions.
- But: Computing effort increases exponentially with dimension d (curse of dimensionality).

