Gauss quadrature

introduction

here we consider integrals of the form

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) \, dx$$

quadrature rule

$$Q(f) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} w_k f(z_k)$$

with quadrature points z_k and weights w_k

compute weights and quadrature points such that for all polynomials p(x) of degree (2n+1) the quadrature is exact, i.e.,

$$Q(p) = \int_{-1}^{1} p(x) dx$$

▶ the Gaussian rules require thus the determination of 2n + 2 parameters z_k , w_k for k = 0, ..., n

method of unknown coefficients

• determine rule which is exact for all monomials $p(x) = x^j$ for j = 0, ..., 2n + 1

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} w_{k} z_{k}^{j} = \int_{-1}^{1} x^{j} dx = \frac{2}{j+1}$$

- \triangleright this is a polynomial system of equations for w_k, z_k
- solution of polynomial systems of equations is a topic of algebraic geometry.
- general approach: Gröbner bases which use a combination of the Euclid and Gauss algorithms
- here we use a method based on orthogonal polynomials

example n = 0 – midpoint rule

general form

$$Q(f)=w_0f(z_0)$$

▶ method exact for p(x) = 1 and p(x) = x leads to two equations

$$w_0 = 2$$

$$w_0 z_0 = 0$$

 $\int x dx = 0$

▶ solution $w_0 = 2$ and $z_0 = 0$ which leads to rule

$$Q(f)=2f(0)$$

example n=1



general form

$$Q(f) = w_0 f(z_0) + w_1 f(z_1)$$

▶ method exact for polynomials $p(x) = 1, x, x^2, x^3$ leads to

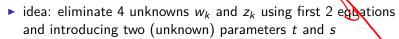
$$w_0 + w_1 = 2$$

$$w_0 z_0 + w_1 z_1 = 0$$

$$w_0 z_0^2 + w_1 z_1^2 = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$w_0 z_0^3 + w_1 z_1^3 = 0$$

solving the equations



• solution of $w_0 + w_1 = 2$

$$w_0 = 1 + t, \ w_1 = 1 - t$$

▶ solution of $w_0z_0 + w_1z_1 = 0$ (orthogonality of w and z)

$$z_0 = -sw_1 = -s(1-t), \ z_1 = sw_0 = s(1+t)$$

▶ substituting w_k and z_k in third equation $w_0 z_0^2 + w_1 z_1^2 = \frac{2}{3}$

$$w_0 z_0^2 + w_1 z_1^2 = 2 \underline{s^2 (1 - t^2)} = \frac{2}{3}$$

thus $s \neq 0$ and $t^2 \neq 1$

▶ substituting w_k, z_k in fourth equation $w_0 z_0^3 + w_1 z_1^3 = 0$

$$w_0 z_0^3 + w_1 z_1^3 = 4s^3 (1-t^2)t = 0$$

thus (t = 0)

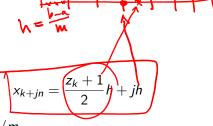
- substitute t=0 into third equation to get $s=1/\sqrt{3}$
- solution

$$w_0 = w_1 = 1, \ z_0 = -1/\sqrt{3}, \ z_1 = 1/\sqrt{3}$$

composite Gauss rules

n=7

quadrature points



where h = (b - a)/m

• use Gauss weights w_k for the interval [-1,1]

$$Q(f) = \frac{h}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{m} \sum_{k=0}^{n} w_k f(x_{k+jn})$$

```
f = lambda x : np.exp(-x) # integrand
for m in (1,2,4,8,16):
    h = 1.0/m
    Q = 0.0;
    for j in range(m):
        Q += h/2*(f(h*((-1.0/math.sqrt(3)+1)/2 + j)) \setminus
                  + f(h*((1.0/math.sqrt(3)+1)/2 +j)))
    print("m = {:2d}, Q = {:7.6e}, Error = {:4.2e}"
          .format(m,Q,Q-1 + 1.0/np.e))
m = 1, Q = 6.319788e-01, Error = -1.42e-04
m = 2, Q = 6.321115e-01, Error = -9.07e-06
m = 4, Q = 6.321200e-01, Error = -5.70e-07
m = 8, Q = 6.321205e-01, Error = -3.57e-08
m = 16, Q = 6.321206e-01, Error = -2.23e-09
```

computing n+1 quadrature points and weights for larger n

- for larger n one could use
 - Newton's method
 - algebraic approaches

but these approaches typically take a long time and/or are complicated to implement

▶ in the following we discuss an approach based on Legendre polynomials p(x) defined on [-1,1]

orthogonality and polynomials



- recall that two vectors are orthogonal, if their scalar product is zero
- example: v = [1, 2] and u = [-2, 1] are orthogonal
- we can define orthogonality for polynomials if we have a scalar product

Definition (scalar product for real polynomials):

$$(p,q) = \int_{-1}^{1} p(x)q(x) dx$$

Definition (orthogonality for polynomials):

p and q are orthogonal if their scalar product (p,q)=0

• example: p(x) = x and $q(x) = x^2$ are orthogonal as

$$\int_{-1}^{1} p(x)q(x) dx = \int_{-1}^{1} x \cdot x^{2} dx = 0$$

Legendre polynomials

ightharpoonup Legendre polynomials q_k are of the form

$$q_k(x) = x^k + c_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \dots + c_0$$

ightharpoonup they are pairwise orthogonal, i.e., if $k \neq j$ one has

$$\int_{-1}^{1} q_k(x) q_j(x) dx = 0 \qquad \text{gr } \perp \text{g}$$

• the first four Legendre polynomials q_k

$$q_0(x) = 1$$
, $q_1(x) = x$, $q_2(x) = x^2 - \frac{1}{3}$, $q_3(x) = x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x$

zeros of Legendre polynomials

Proposition:

The Legendre polynomial q_n of degree n has exactly n real zeros z_k satisfying

$$-1 < z_0 < z_1 < \cdots < z_n < 1$$

Proof.

- ▶ as degree of q_n equals n, q_n has $\leq n$ real zeros \checkmark
- ▶ as q_n orthogonal to all q_k with k < n, q_n orthogonal to any polynomial of degree k < n
- ▶ assume $x_0, ..., x_k$ are the zeros (excluding the ones without sign change)
- ▶ then the following integral is either positive or negative:

$$\int_{-1}^{1} \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} (x - x_i) q_n(x) dx$$

it cannot be zero

▶ thus q_n is not orthogonal to $\prod_{i=0}^k (x - x_i)$ contrary to assumption

Proposition:

No quadrature formula with n + 1 quadrature points z_k can be exact for all polynomials of degree 2n + 2.

Proof

- consider $p(x) = \prod_{k=0}^{n} (x z_k)^2$
- ▶ then

$$Q(f) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} w_k p(x_k) = 0$$

▶ but

$$\int_{-1}^{1} p(x) dx > 0$$

Gauss quadrature rules

$$Q(f) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \underline{w_k} f(z_k)$$

- ▶ let n + 1 quadrature points z_k to be the zeros of the Legendre polynomial q_{n+1}
- select the quadrature weights w_k such that for all polynomials p of degree up to n

$$Q(p) = \int_{-1}^{1} p(x) \, dx$$

 compute the weights using either the Lagrange interpolation formula or the method of unknown coefficients

accuracy of Gauss quadrature

Proposition:

Gauss quadrature with n+1 points is exact for all polynomials p(x) of degree up to 2n+1, i.e.,

$$Q(p) = \int_{-1}^{1} p(x) \, dx$$

Proof

- \triangleright by construction Q(p) is exact for all polynomials up to degree n
- ▶ for p of degree (at most) 2n + 1 there exist q, r of degree n s.t.

$$p(x) = q(x)q_{n+1}(x) + r(x)$$

K

by linearity and choice of the quadrature points and weights

$$Q(p) = Q(r) = \int_{-1}^{1} r(x) dx$$

▶ as q is orthogonal to q_{n+1} one has

$$\int_{-1}^{1} p(x) dx = \int_{-1}^{1} r(x) dx$$

construction of Legendre polynomial q_{n+1}

- do this recursively, starting with $q_0(x) = 1$
- multiply $q_k(x)$ with x and Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation

$$q_{k+1}(x) = \underbrace{xq_k(x)}_{j=0} - \sum_{j=0}^k c_j q_j$$

where

$$c_{j} = \frac{\int_{-1}^{1} x q_{k}(x) q_{j}(x) dx}{\int_{-1}^{1} q_{j}(x)^{2} dx}$$

▶ the q_k are either even or odd, in any case

$$\int_{-1}^{1} x q_k(x)^2 \, dx = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad C_k = C$$

▶ if j < k - 1 then the degree of $xq_j(x)$ is less than k and thus

$$\int_{-1}^{1} x q_k(x) q_j(x) dx = 0$$

$$(j = 0) \quad \text{for } j \leq k - 1$$

it follows that

$$q_{k+1}(x) = xq_k(x) - c_{k-1}q_{k-1}(x)$$

where

$$c_{k-1} = \frac{\int_{-1}^{1} x q_k(x) q_{k-1}(x) dx}{\int_{-1}^{1} q_{k-1}^{2} dx}$$

```
# computing Legendre polynomials qk(x)
  n = 4
  x = sy.Symbol('x')
  qkm1 = 1
  qk = x
  for k in range(n):
      qkp1 = sy.simplify(x*qk sy.integrate(x*qk*qkm1,
         (x,-1,1))/sy.integrate(qkm1**2,(x,-1,1))*qkm1
      qkm1 = sy.expand(qk)
      qk = qkp1
      print("q{:1d}(x) = {}".format(k+1,qkm1))
q2(x) = x**2 - 1/3
q3(x) = x**3 - 3*x/5
q4(x) = x**4 - 6*x**2/7 + 3/35
                                                                19 / 25
```

computing the quadrature points

```
# compute the Gauss quadrature points
c = sy.Poly(qkm1).all_coeffs() # Legendre coefficients
z = np.roots(c) # zeros Legendre fct = quad. pts
z.sort() # sort by size
```

computing the quadrature weights

```
# use Lagrange polynomials and sympy
n = z.shape[0]-1
w = np.zeros(n+1)
x = sy.Symbol('x')
print("\n n = {}:".format(n))
for j in range(n+1):
   1i = 1
   for k in range(n+1):
        if (k!=j): lj *= (x-z[k])/(z[j]-z[k])
   w[j] = float(sy.integrate(lj,(x,-1,1)))
   print("w{} = {:4.4f}".format(j,w[j]),end='
n = 3:
w0 = 0.3479 w1 = 0.6521 w2 = 0.6521 w3 = 0.3479
```

example n = 3

```
f = lambda x : np.exp(-x) # integrand
print("n = {}".format(n))
for m in (1,2,4,8,16):
   h = 1.0/m
   Q = 0.0;
   for j in range(m):
       for k in range(n+1):
           Q += h/2*w[k]*(f(h*((z[k]+1)/2 + j)))
   print("m = {:2d}, Q = {:7.6e}, Error = {:4.2e}"
          .format(m,Q,Q-1 + 1.0/np.e))
n = 3
m = 1, Q = 6.321206e-01, Error = -3.43e-10
m = 2, Q = 6.321206e-01, Error = -1.38e-12
m = 4, Q = 6.321206e-01, Error = -5.33e-15
m = 8, Q = 6.321206e-01, Error = 1.11e-16
m = 16, Q = 6.321206e-01, Error = 2.22e-16
```

sign of Gauss weights



Proposition:

All Gauss weights w_k are positive.

Proof

- ▶ let $p_i(x) = \prod_{k \neq i} (x z_k)^2$, a polynomial of degree 2n 1
- ▶ Gauss quadrature with points z_k is exact for p_i

$$\int_{-1}^{1} p_i(x) dx = Q(p_i) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} w_k p_i(z_k) = w_i p(z_i)$$

▶ the integral and $p(z_i)$ are positive and one gets $w_i > 0$

see Wikipedia [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gaussian_quadrature]

performance of Gauss rules

Theorem: Q(f) converges to the exact integral for $n \to \infty$ and any continuous function f.

- Gauss quadrature rules are very reliable and highly accurate
- composite rules using Gauss weights may be more convenient and, in the case of less smooth functions, may require fewer function evaluations

convergence rate for Gaussian Quadrature

The basis for the convergence rate is the error formula for any Gaussian quadrature formula:

The error in Gaussian Quadrature is given by:

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx - \sum_{i=0}^{n} A_{i}f(x_{i}) = \frac{f^{(2n+2)}(\xi)}{(2n+2)!} \int_{a}^{b} w(x)dx$$

where ξ is some point in the domain of integration and

$$w(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i)^2$$

- **composite rules** have error $O(h^{2n+2})$ in this case
- for n = 9 doubling m
 - doubles the computational effort
 - $\,\blacktriangleright\,$ reduces error by factor $2^{20}\approx 10^6$