

Quadrature \equiv Numerical Integration

Approximate a definite integral $I(f) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

Integration is "continuous summation", $I(f) = \text{total amount of } f \text{ in } [a, b]$,

$$\text{Average of } f \text{ on } [a, b] = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

In Calculus we learn to compute $I(f)$ via the Fundamental Thm of Calculus:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) \text{ where } F \text{ is an antiderivative of } f: F' = f$$

so it relies on figuring out F (via tricks...). Only certain elementary integrals

can be evaluated this way, most cannot, because finding antiderivatives is

non-trivial and may not even exist:

e.g. $\int e^{-x^2} dx$ is not an elementary function! $\text{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-s^2} ds = \text{area under bell curve}$

However, $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \text{area under the graph of } y=f(x) \text{ over } [a, b]$

which suggests various methods, and definition of Riemann integral

Basic approach (for Newton-Cotes rules): Given f on $[a, b]$ (by formula or discrete values)

1. discretize $[a, b]$ into M subintervals: $a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_M = b$
2. approximate $f(x)$ by an interpolating polynomial on $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$, $P_N(x)$
3. integrate the polynomial $P_N(x)$ exactly (by Calculus)
4. add up the pieces

Basic fact: Quadrature is a well-conditioned process, so can be done accurately in contrast to num. differentiation!

	exact	numerical
differentiation	easy (thanks to Chain Rule)	hard (ill-conditioned)
integration	hard / impossible	easy (well-conditioned)

General form of Quadrature Rules: $I \approx I_N(f) = \sum_{i=0}^N w_i f(x_i)$, x_i : nodes
 w_i : weights

Characterizations: order of accuracy is k if $|I(f) - I_N(f)| \leq C \cdot h^k$ as $h \rightarrow 0$ $h = \Delta x$
 error = $O(h^k)$

precision is p if rule is exact for polynomials of degree $\leq p$

i.e. if $I_N(x^n) = I(x^n)$ for $n=0, 1, \dots, p$ but not for $p+1$

Most important quadrature rules:

A. Newton-Cotes type rules: predetermined/specified nodes $\{x_i\}$
 weights chosen for certain precision

Rectangle Rule, Trapezoidal Rule, Simpson Rule, Romberg

A'. Open Newton-Cotes rules: versions that avoid evaluation at end points a, b
 Midpoint Rule, ...

B. Adaptive methods: choose nodes for max accuracy

C. Gaussian rules: choose both node and weights for max precision

Gauss-Legendre, Gauss-Chebyshev, Gauss-Laguerre, Gauss-Hermite,
 Gauss-Kronrod

Basic Quadrature schemes for $I(f) = \int_a^b f(x) dx \approx Q_N(f) = \sum_{i=0}^N w_i f(x_i)$

Newton-Cotes type: we choose nodes x_i , rule specifies the weights w_i .

Knowing $f(x)$ at the nodes $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_i < \dots < x_N = b$ (N subintervals)

1. interpolate $f(x)$ over $[x_i, x_{i+k}]$ by an interp. polynomial $P_k(x)$ for some k

2. integrate $P_k(x)$ exactly to obtain quadrature rule $Q_N(f)$

$$\text{so } \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+k}} f(x) dx = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+k}} P_k(x) dx + \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+k}} \frac{f^{(k+1)}(\xi)}{(k+1)!} \prod_{j=0}^k (x-x_j) dx = Q(f) + \text{local error}$$

quad. rule + error

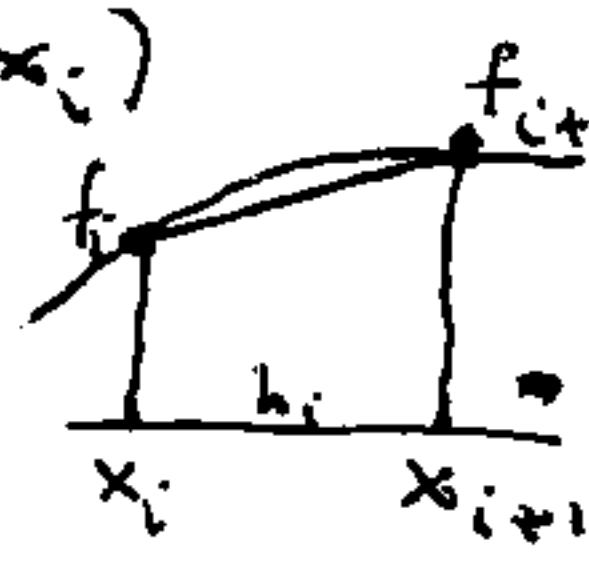
3. Composite rule: add them up:

$$I(f) \approx Q_N(f) \text{ with error } O(h^k)$$

Basic Rules:

1. Rectangle Rule: piecewise const. interpolant: $\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x) dx \approx f_i \cdot \Delta x_i$, local error = $O(h^2)$
 composite: $I(f) \approx \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f_i \cdot h_i$, error = $O(h)$; 1st order accurate, precision 0

2. Trapezoidal Rule: piecewise linear interpolant $P_1(x) = f_i + \frac{f_{i+1} - f_i}{x_{i+1} - x_i} (x - x_i)$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x) dx \approx \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} P_1(x) dx = f_i \cdot h_i + \frac{f_{i+1} - f_i}{h_i} \left. \frac{(x - x_i)^2}{2} \right|_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}}$$


$$= f_i \cdot h_i + \frac{f_{i+1} - f_i}{2} \cdot h_i = \frac{h_i}{2} (f_i + f_{i+1}) = \text{area of trapezoid}$$

$$\text{local error} = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} \frac{f''(\xi)}{2!} (x - x_i)(x - x_{i+1}) dx \stackrel{\text{MVT}}{=} \frac{f''(\eta_i)}{2} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} (x - x_i)(x - x_{i+1}) dx$$

$$= -\frac{f''(\eta_i)}{12} \cdot h_i^3$$

$$\text{Composite: } I(f) = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{h_i}{2} (f_i + f_{i+1}) = T_N(f)$$

For equispaced nodes: $h_i \equiv h = \Delta x = \frac{b-a}{N}$, $x_i = a + i \cdot h$, $i=0:N$

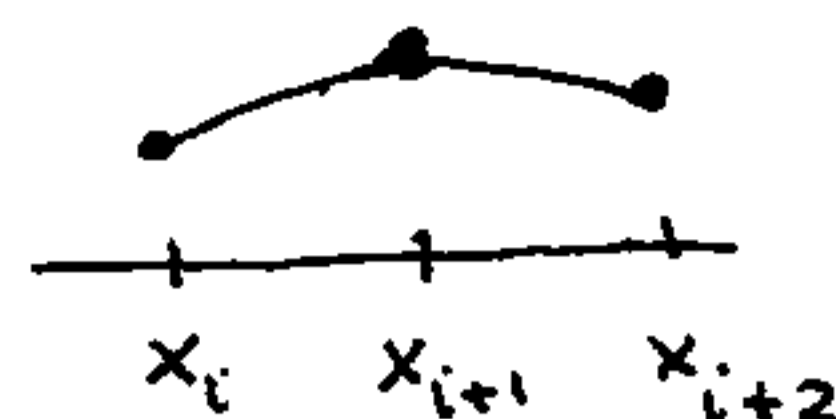
$$T_N(f) = \frac{h}{2} \left[f(a) + 2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} f_i + f(b) \right]$$

$$|\text{error}| \leq \frac{\|f''\|_{\infty}}{12} \cdot h^3 \cdot N = \frac{\|f''\|_{\infty}}{12} (b-a) \cdot h^2 = O(h^2)$$

Trapezoidal rule is 2nd order accurate and of precision 1 (exact for 1st deg polys)

Extremely useful, Not very accurate on polynomials, but "exponentially" accurate on trig. polynomials! (on periodic functions)

3. Simpson Rule: quadratic interpolant over $P_2(x)$



$$\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+2}} f(x) dx \approx \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+2}} P_2(x) dx \quad \text{with local error } \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+2}} (\text{error of } P_2 \text{ interpolation}) dx$$

For equispaced nodes: $S_2(f) = \frac{h}{3} [f_i + 4f_{i+1} + f_{i+2}]$

expected to be exact for quadratics, but a miracle happens and turns out to be exact also for cubics! $S_2(x^3) \equiv I(x^3)$

so Simpson has precision 3 (instead of the expected precision 2)

so we could use cubic interpolant and thus obtain local error $O(h^3)$
global error $O(h^4)$

Composite Simpson Rule for even number of subintervals $N = 2M$

$$I(f) \approx \frac{h}{3} [f_0 + 4f_1 + 2f_2 + 4f_3 + \dots + 4f_{N-1} + f_N]$$

$$\text{with } |\text{error}| \leq \frac{\|f^{(4)}\|_{\infty}}{180} \cdot (b-a) \cdot h^4 = O(h^4)$$

Simpson Rule has precision 3, order 4 (one better than expected)

so it achieves better accuracy with smaller N .

provided f is C^4 -smooth (degrades if not).

But it requires $N = \text{even}$, inconvenient some times...

Example (Epperson p.260): $I = \int_0^1 e^x dx$, for $|\text{error}| \leq 10^{-6}$

Trapezoidal needs $h \approx 0.002 \Rightarrow N \approx 500$ subintervals
but Simpson needs $h \approx 0.09 \Rightarrow N \approx 12$