Algorithms and Data Structures

Quadrature Newton-Côtes

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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

$$
(x_0=a,x_1,\ldots,\ldots,x_m=b)
$$

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 $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$).

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:

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

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POLYNOMIAL INTERPOLATION /3

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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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 $h = \frac{b-a}{m}$ $\frac{-a}{m}$, the formula can be further simplified.

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

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

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

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

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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

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

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]:

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

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

$$
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\times \\
\hline\n\end{array}
$$

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**.

<https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trapezregel>

Approximation of the integral of *f* on $[a, b]$ using polynomials of degree $m = 1$

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

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WEIGHTS OF THE NEWTON CÔTES

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

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

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

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

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

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In addition, many Newton-Côtes formulas have negative weights for degree > 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**.

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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*).

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