# CS 450: Numerical Anlaysis<sup>1</sup> Numerical Integration and Differentiation

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>These slides have been drafted by Edgar Solomonik as lecture templates and supplementary material for the book "Scientific Computing: An Introductory Survey" by Michael T. Heath (slides).

# Integrability and Sensitivity

• Seek to compute  $\mathcal{I}(f) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ :

#### > The condition number of integration is bounded by the distance b - a:

#### **Quadrature Rules**

Approximate the integral  $\mathcal{I}(f)$  by a weighted sum of function values:

► For a fixed set of n nodes, polynomial interpolation followed by integration give (n − 1)-degree quadrature rule:

### **Determining Weights for Quadrature Rules**

A quadrature rule provides x and w so as to approximate

Method of undetermined coefficients obtains y from moment equations, which insure the quadrature rule is exact for all monomials of degree n - 1:

#### **Demo:** Newton-Cotes weight finder

#### Newton-Cotes Quadrature

▶ *Newton-Cotes* quadrature rules are defined by equispaced nodes on [*a*, *b*]:

• The *midpoint rule* is the n = 1 open Newton-Cotes rule:

• The *trapezoid rule* is the n = 2 closed Newton-Cotes rule:

Simpson's rule is the n = 3 closed Newton-Cotes rule:

#### Error in Newton-Cotes Quadrature

- ▶ By our analysis of polynomial quadrature, Newton-cotes rules are exact for polynomials of degree n − 1, however (1) some, notably the midpoint and Simpson's rule are exact also for degree n, and (2) we also want to understand the error scaling with respect to b − a
- Consider the Taylor expansion of f about the midpoint of the integration interval m = (a + b)/2:

Integrating the Taylor approximation of f, we note that the odd terms drop:

#### **Error Estimation**

► The trapezoid rule is also just degree 1, since via the prior expansion,  $f(m) = f(x) - f'(m)(x - m) - \dots$ , so using x = a, b, we get

The above derivation allows us to obtain an error approximation via a difference of midpoint and trapezoidal rules:

# Error in Polynomial Quadrature Rules

We can bound the error for a an arbitrary polynomial quadrature rule by applying our error analysis of interpolation,

# Conditioning of Newton-Cotes Quadrature

• We can ascertain stability of quadrature rules, by considering the amplification of a perturbation  $\hat{f} = f + \delta f$ :

▶ Newton-Cotes quadrature rules have at least one negative weight for any n ≥ 11:

#### **Clenshaw-Curtis Quadrature**

To obtain a more stable quadrature rule, we need to ensure the integrated interpolant is well-behaved as n increases:

# Gaussian Quadrature

So far, we have only considered quadrature rules based on a fixed set of nodes, but we may also be able to choose nodes to maximize accuracy:

The unique n-point Gaussian quadrature rule is defined by the solution of the nonlinear form of the moment equations in terms of both x and w:

#### Using Gaussian Quadrature Rules

Gaussian quadrature rules are hard to compute, but can be enumerated for a fixed interval, e.g. a = 0, b = 1, so it suffices to transform the integral to [0, 1]

Gaussian quadrature rules are accurate and stable but not progressive (nodes cannot be reused to obtain higher-degree approximation):

#### Progressive Gaussian-like Quadrature Rules

▶ *Kronod* quadrature rules construct (2n + 1)-point (3n + 1)-degree quadrature  $K_{2n+1}$  that is progressive with respect to Gaussian quadrature rule  $G_n$ :

- ▶ *Patterson* quadrature rules use 2n + 2 more points to extend (2n + 1)-point Kronod rule to degree 6n + 4, while reusing all 2n + 1 points.
- Gaussian quadrature rules are in general open, but Gauss-Radau and Gauss-Lobatto rules permit including end-points:

# Composite and Adaptive Quadrature

Composite quadrature rules are obtained by integrating a piecewise interpolant of f:

Composite quadrature can be done with adaptive refinement:

# More Complicated Integration Problems

To handle improper integrals can either transform integral to get rid of infinite limit or use appropriate open quadrature rules.

Double integrals can simply be computed by successive 1-D integration.

► High-dimensional integration is often effectively done by *Monte Carlo*:

# **Integral Equations**

Rather than evaluating an integral, in solving an *integral equation* we seek to compute the integrand. A typical linear integral equation has the form

$$\int_{a}^{b} K(s,t)u(t)dt = f(s), \text{ where } K \text{ and } f \text{ are known}.$$

• Using a quadrature rule with weights  $w_1, \ldots, w_n$  and nodes  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  obtain

# Numerical Differentiation

Demo: Taking Derivatives with Vandermonde Matrices

Automatic (symbolic) differentiation is a surprisingly viable option:

Numerical differentiation can be done by interpolation or finite differencing:

# Accuracy of Finite Differences

**Demo:** Finite Differences vs Noise **Demo:** Floating point vs Finite Differences

Forward and backward differencing provide first-order accuracy:

Centered differencing provides second-order accuracy.

# **Extrapolation Techniques**

Given a sequence of approximations to the result of a smooth function, a more accurate approximation may be obtained by *extrapolating* this series.

In particular, given two guesses, *Richardson extrapolation* eliminates the leading order error term.

### **High-Order Extrapolation**

► Given a series of k composite-quadrature approximations, *Romberg integration* applies (k − 1)-levels of Richardson extrapolation.

 Extrapolation can be used within an iterative procedure at each step: For example, Steffensen's method for finding roots of nonlinear equations,

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \frac{f(x_n)}{1 - f(x_n + f(x_n))/f(x_n)},$$

derived from Aitken's delta-squared extrapolation process: