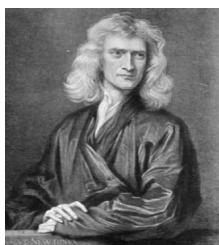


Chapter 12-b

Integral Calculus - Extra



Isaac Newton



Thomas Simpson

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BONUS

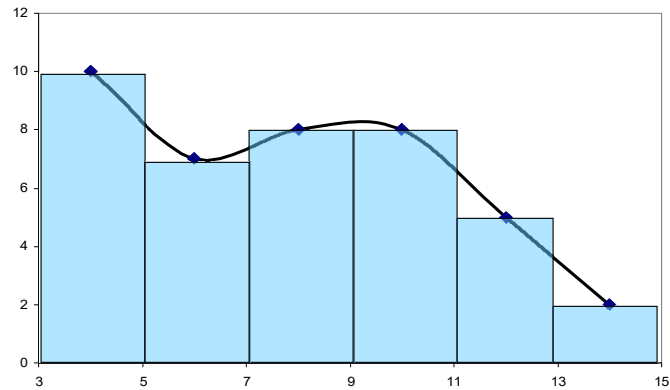
Introduction to Numerical Integration

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Numerical Integration

Idea: Do an integral in small parts, like the way we presented integration; i.e., a *summation*.

Numerical methods just try to make it faster and more accurate.

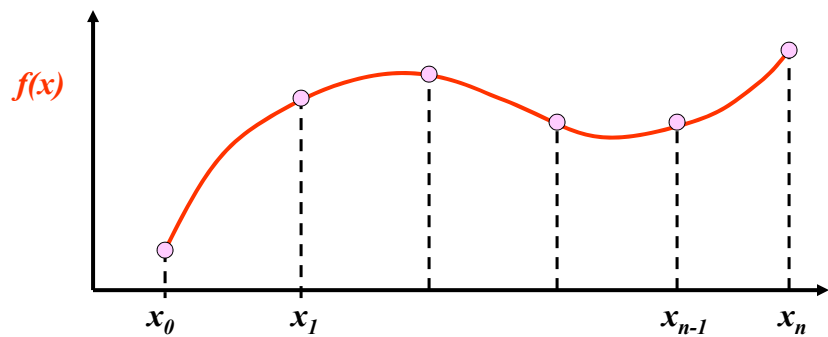


Basic Numerical Integration

- Idea: Weighted sum of function values to approximate integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n c_i f(x_i)$$

$$= c_0 f(x_0) + c_1 f(x_1) + \dots + c_n f(x_n)$$



- Task: Find appropriate c_i 's (weights) and the x_i 's (nodes).

Basic Numerical Integration

• We want to find integration of functions of various forms of the equation known as the *Newton-Cotes* integration formulas (“rules”).

• Newton-Cotes formula

Assume the value of $f(x)$ defined on $[a, b]$ is known at equally spaced points x_i ($i = 0, 1, \dots, n$), where $x_0 = a$, and $x_n = b$. Then,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i),$$

where $x_i = h i + x_0$, with h (“step size”) = $(x_n - x_0)/n = (b - a)/n$.

The c_i 's are called *weights*. The x_i 's are called *nodes*. The precision of the approximation depends on n .

Note: The N-C rules use nodes **equally spaced**. But, they do not have to be –unequally spaced nodes are OK too.

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Basic Numerical Integration

• Weights

In the N-C formulae, they are derived from an approximation required to be equal for a polynomial of order lower or equal to the degree of the polynomials used to approximate the function. In other methods, weights and nodes can be derived jointly.

• Error analysis

The error of the approximation is the difference between the value of the integral and the numerical result:

$$\text{error} = \varepsilon = \int_a^b f(x) dx - \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i)$$

The errors are frequently approximated using Taylor series for $f(x)$. The error analysis gives a strict upper bound on the error, if the derivatives of f are available.

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Newton-Cotes Formula

- The weights are derived from the Lagrange polynomials $L_i(x)$. The weight, $L_i(x)$, depend only on the x_i 's (no two x_i 's are the same); not on the function f .

$$L_i(x) = \prod_{0 \leq j \leq n, j \neq i} \frac{(x - x_j)}{(x_i - x_j)} = \frac{(x - x_0) \dots (x - x_{i-1})(x - x_{i+1}) \dots (x - x_n)}{(x_i - x_0) \dots (x_i - x_{i-1})(x_i - x_{i+1}) \dots (x_i - x_n)}$$

Recall that $L(x)$ is used for polynomial interpolation of a function $f(x)$, given a set of points $(x_i, f(x_i))$.

Example: Interpolate $f(x) = 2x^3$ over $[2, 4]$, with 3 points: $(2, 3, 4)$. The interpolating Lagrange is:

$$\begin{aligned} L(x) &= 16 \frac{(x-3)}{2-3} * \frac{(x-4)}{2-4} + 54 \frac{(x-2)}{3-2} * \frac{(x-4)}{3-4} + 128 \frac{(x-2)}{4-2} * \frac{(x-3)}{4-3} \\ &= 18x^2 - 52x + 48 \end{aligned}$$

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Newton-Cotes Formula

- Different methods use different polynomials to get the c_i 's.
- Newton-Cotes Closed Formulae – Use both end points
 - Trapezoidal Rule : Linear
 - Simpson's 1/3-Rule : Quadratic
 - Simpson's 3/8-Rule : Cubic
 - Boole's Rule : Fourth-order
- Newton-Cotes Open Formulae – Use only interior points
 - midpoint rule

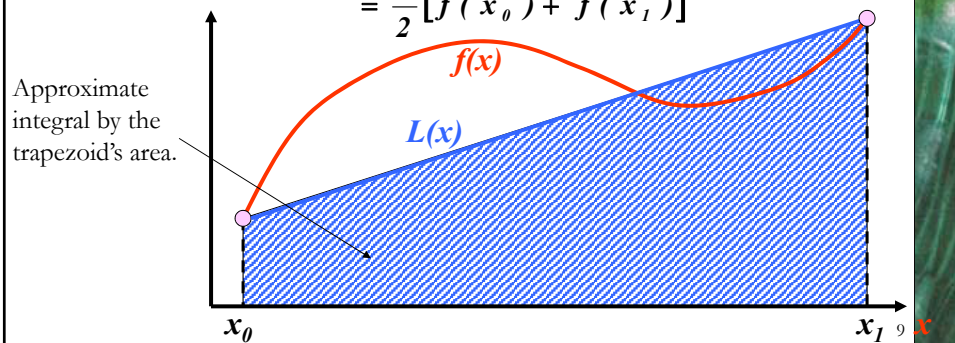
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Trapezoid Rule

- Straight-line approximation

The trapezoid rule approximates the region under the graph of the function $f(x)$ as a trapezoid and calculating its area.

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b f(x) dx &\approx \sum_{i=0}^1 c_i f(x_i) = c_0 f(x_0) + c_1 f(x_1) \\ &= \frac{h}{2} [f(x_0) + f(x_1)]\end{aligned}$$



Trapezoid Rule – Derivation

- We use a Lagrange approximation (a polynomial) for $f(x)$ over the interval $(x_n - x_0)$ (*Lagrange interpolation*), given by

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0)L_0(x) + f(x_1)L_1(x) + \dots + f(x_n)L_n(x)$$

- For the case, $n = 2$, with the interval $(x_1 - x_0)$:

$$L(x) = \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} f(x_0) + \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} f(x_1)$$

$$\text{let } a = x_0, b = x_1, \xi = \frac{x - a}{b - a}, d\xi = \frac{dx}{h}; h = b - a$$

$$\begin{cases} x = a & \Rightarrow \xi = 0 \\ x = b & \Rightarrow \xi = 1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow L(\xi) = (1 - \xi)f(a) + (\xi)f(b)$$

- Then, we integrate the Lagrange polynomial to obtain the trapezoid rule

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Trapezoid Rule – Derivation

- Integrating:
$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b f(x)dx &\approx \int_a^b L(x)dx = h \int_0^1 L(\xi)d\xi \\ &= f(a)h \int_0^1 (1-\xi)d\xi + f(b)h \int_0^1 \xi d\xi \\ &= f(a)h \left(\xi - \frac{\xi^2}{2} \right) \Big|_0^1 + f(b)h \left(\frac{\xi^2}{2} \right) \Big|_0^1 = \frac{h}{2} [f(a) + f(b)]\end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow The weights depend only on h !

- This approximation may be poor. The approximation error is:

$$\begin{aligned}\varepsilon &= \int_a^b f(x) dx - \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i) \\ &= -(b-a)^3/(12) f''(\eta), \quad \eta \in [a, b].\end{aligned}$$

- Thus, if the integrand is convex –i.e., positive second derivative–, the error is negative. That is, the trapezoidal rule overestimates the true value of the integral.

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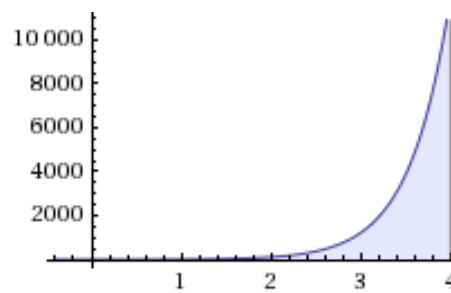
Trapezoid Rule – Example

Evaluate the integral $\int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx$

- Exact solution

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx &= \left[\frac{x}{2} e^{2x} - \frac{1}{4} e^{2x} \right]_0^4 \\ &= \frac{1}{4} e^{2x} (2x - 1) \Big|_0^4 = 5216.926477\end{aligned}$$

- Graph



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Trapezoid Rule – Example

Evaluate the integral $\int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx$

- Trapezoidal Rule: Approximation Error

$$\varepsilon = -(b-a)^3/(12) f''(\eta), (\eta \text{ is a number between } a \text{ and } b).$$

Let's take $\eta = 2$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\varepsilon &= -4^3/12 * [2*\exp(2*2) + 2*\exp(2*2) + 4*(2)*\exp(2*2)] \\ &= -3494.282\end{aligned}$$

- Trapezoidal Rule

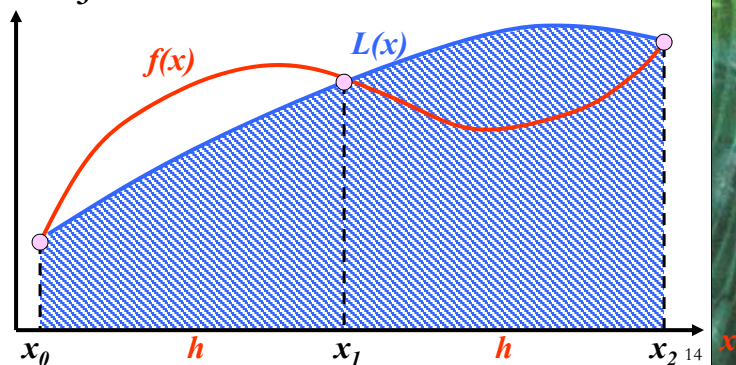
$$\begin{aligned}I = \int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx &\approx \frac{4-0}{2} [f(0) + f(4)] = 2(0 + 4e^8) = 23847.66 \\ \varepsilon &= \frac{5216.926 - 23847.66}{5216.926} = -357.12\%\end{aligned}$$

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Simpson's 1/3-Rule (Kepler's Rule)

- Approximate the function by a parabola

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b f(x) dx &\approx \sum_{i=0}^2 c_i f(x_i) = c_0 f(x_0) + c_1 f(x_1) + c_2 f(x_2) \\ &= \frac{h}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)]\end{aligned}$$



Simpson's 1/3-Rule – Derivation

- Use a quadratic Lagrange interpolation:

$$L(x) = \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_0-x_1)(x_0-x_2)} f(x_0) + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)} f(x_1) + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)} f(x_2)$$

$$\text{let } x_0 = a, x_2 = b, x_1 = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

$$h = \frac{b-a}{2}, \xi = \frac{x-x_1}{h}, d\xi = \frac{dx}{h}$$

$$\begin{cases} x = x_0 \Rightarrow \xi = -1 \\ x = x_1 \Rightarrow \xi = 0 \\ x = x_2 \Rightarrow \xi = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$L(\xi) = \frac{\xi(\xi-1)}{2} f(x_0) + (1-\xi^2) f(x_1) + \frac{\xi(\xi+1)}{2} f(x_2)$$

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Simpson's 1/3-Rule – Derivation

- Integrate the Lagrange interpolation

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx &\approx h \int_{-1}^1 L(\xi) d\xi = f(x_0) \frac{h}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \xi(\xi-1) d\xi \\ &\quad + f(x_1) h \int_{-1}^1 (1-\xi^2) d\xi + f(x_2) \frac{h}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \xi(\xi+1) d\xi \\ &= f(x_0) \frac{h}{2} \left(\frac{\xi^3}{3} - \frac{\xi^2}{2} \right) \Big|_{-1}^1 + f(x_1) h \left(\xi - \frac{\xi^3}{3} \right) \Big|_{-1}^1 \\ &\quad + f(x_2) \frac{h}{2} \left(\frac{\xi^3}{3} + \frac{\xi^2}{2} \right) \Big|_{-1}^1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{h}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)]$$

- Again, the weights depend only on h !

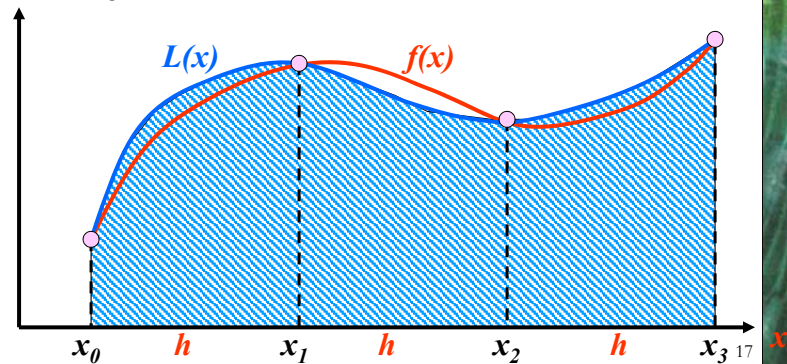
Thomas Simpson (1710 – 1761, England)



Simpson's 3/8-Rule

- Approximate by a cubic polynomial

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b f(x) dx &\approx \sum_{i=0}^3 c_i f(x_i) = c_0 f(x_0) + c_1 f(x_1) + c_2 f(x_2) + c_3 f(x_3) \\ &= \frac{3h}{8} [f(x_0) + 3f(x_1) + 3f(x_2) + f(x_3)]\end{aligned}$$



Simpson's 3/8-Rule

- Lagrange interpolation

$$\begin{aligned}L(x) &= \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)(x-x_3)}{(x_0-x_1)(x_0-x_2)(x_0-x_3)} f(x_0) \\ &\quad + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)(x-x_3)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)(x_1-x_3)} f(x_1) \\ &\quad + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)(x-x_3)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)(x_2-x_3)} f(x_2) \\ &\quad + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_3-x_0)(x_3-x_1)(x_3-x_2)} f(x_3)\end{aligned}$$

- Integrate to obtain the rule

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b f(x) dx &\approx \int_a^b L(x) dx \quad ; \quad h = \frac{b-a}{3} \\ &= \frac{3h}{8} [f(x_0) + 3f(x_1) + 3f(x_2) + f(x_3)]\end{aligned}$$

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Simpson's Rule: Example

Evaluate the integral $\int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx$

- Simpson's 1/3-Rule: Approximation Error

$$\varepsilon = -(b-a)^5 / (2880) f^{(4)}(\eta) \quad (\eta \in [a, b]).$$

Since $f^{(4)}(\eta) > 0$, the error is negative (overshooting).

Let's take $\eta=2.5$. Then,

$$\varepsilon = -4^5 / (2880) [\exp(2 \cdot 2.5) * [16 \cdot (2.5) + 32]] = -3799.3769$$

- Simpson's 1/3-Rule

$$I = \int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx \approx \frac{h}{3} [f(0) + 4f(2) + f(4)]$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} [0 + 4(2e^4) + 4e^8] = 8240.411$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{5216.926 - 8240.411}{5216.926} = -57.96\%$$

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Simpson's Rule: Example

Evaluate the integral $\int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx$

- Simpson's 3/8-Rule

$$I = \int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx \approx \frac{3h}{8} \left[f(0) + 3f\left(\frac{4}{3}\right) + 3f\left(\frac{8}{3}\right) + f(4) \right]$$

$$= \frac{3(4/3)}{8} [0 + 3(19.18922) + 3(552.33933) + 11923.832] = 6819.209$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{5216.926 - 6819.209}{5216.926} = -30.71\%$$

- Simpson's 3/8-Rule: Approximation Error

$$\varepsilon = -(b-a)^5 / (6480) f^{(4)}(\eta) \quad (\eta \in [a, b]).$$

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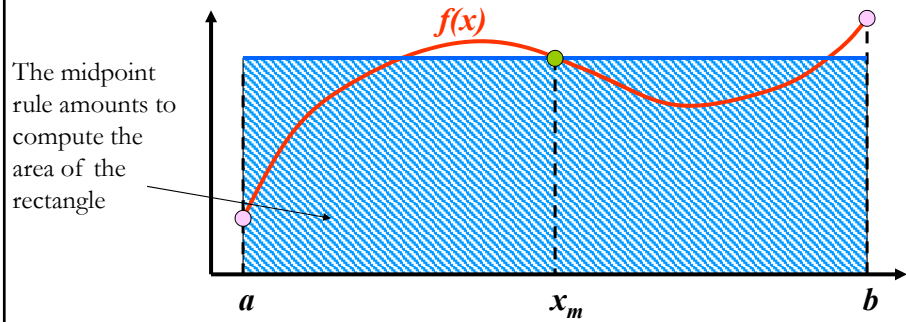
Midpoint Rule

- Newton-Cotes Open Formula

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx (b-a) f(x_m)$$

$$= (b-a) f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + \frac{(b-a)^3}{24} f''(\eta)$$

where $\eta \in [a, b]$.



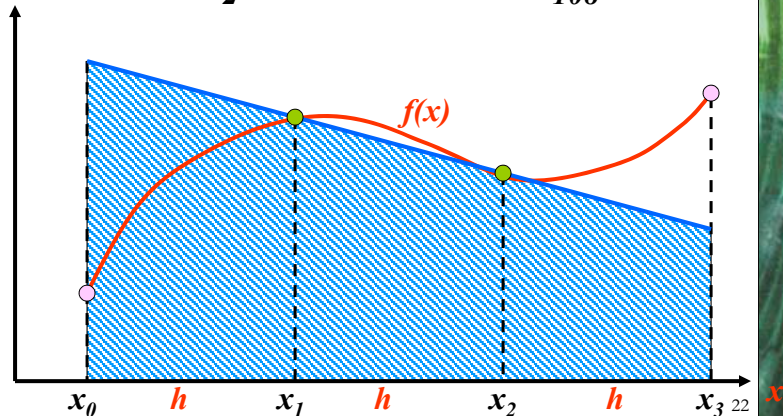
- Note: This rule does not make any use of the end points.

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Two-point Newton-Cotes Open Formula

- Approximate by a straight line

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{b-a}{2} [f(x_1) + f(x_2)] + \frac{(b-a)^3}{108} f''(\eta)$$

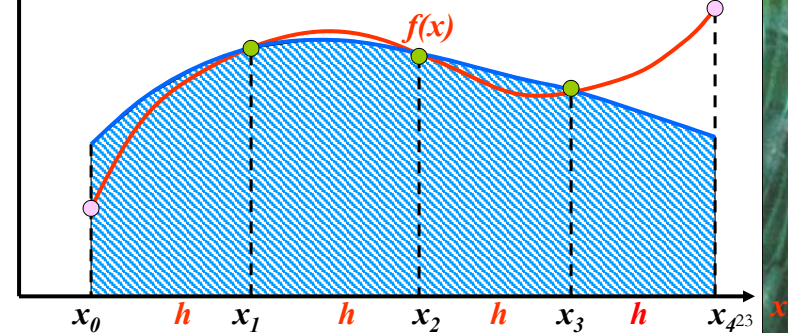


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Three-point Newton-Cotes Open Formula

- Approximate by a parabola

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{b-a}{3} [2f(x_1) - f(x_2) + 2f(x_3)] + \frac{7(b-a)^5}{23040} f'''(\eta)$$



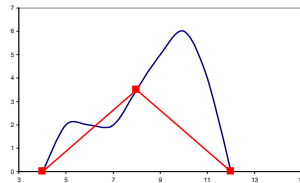
Better Numerical Integration

- Composite integration
 - Composite Trapezoidal Rule
 - Composite Simpson's Rule
- Richardson Extrapolation
- Romberg integration

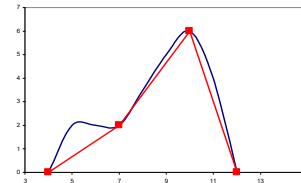
Composite Trapezoid Rule

To improve the Trapezoid Rule, first splits the interval of integration $[a, b]$ into N smaller, uniform subintervals, and then applies the trapezoidal rule on each of them.

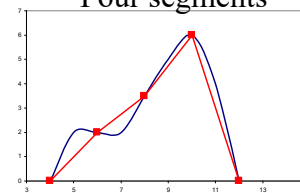
Two segments



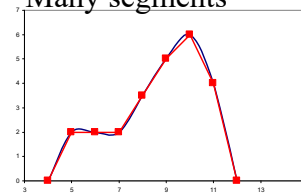
Three segments



Four segments



Many segments

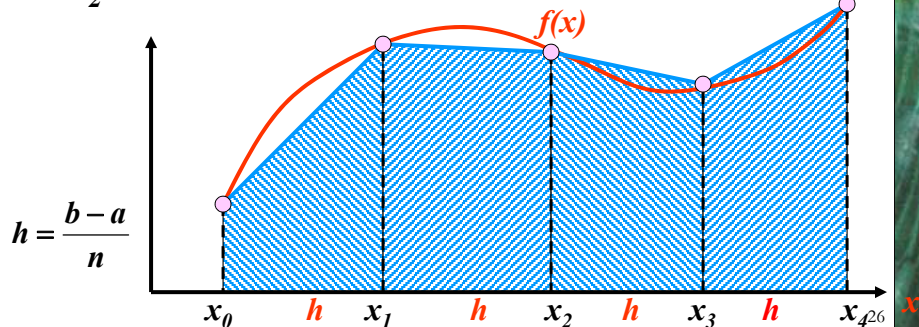


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Composite Trapezoid Rule

- Use the Trapezoid Rule in n intervals. Then, add them together.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \int_{x_0}^{x_1} f(x) dx + \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x) dx + \cdots + \int_{x_{n-1}}^{x_n} f(x) dx \\ &= \frac{h}{2} [f(x_0) + f(x_1)] + \frac{h}{2} [f(x_1) + f(x_2)] + \cdots + \frac{h}{2} [f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)] \\ &= \frac{h}{2} [f(x_0) + 2f(x_1) + \cdots + 2f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)] \end{aligned}$$



Composite Trapezoid Rule

- Evaluate the integral $I = \int_0^4 xe^{2x} dx$

$$n = 1, h = 4 \Rightarrow I = \frac{h}{2} [f(0) + f(4)] = 23847.66 \quad \varepsilon = -357.12\%$$

$$n = 2, h = 2 \Rightarrow I = \frac{h}{2} [f(0) + 2f(2) + f(4)] = 12142.23 \quad \varepsilon = -132.75\%$$

$$n = 4, h = 1 \Rightarrow I = \frac{h}{2} [f(0) + 2f(1) + 2f(2) + 2f(3) + f(4)] = 7288.79 \quad \varepsilon = -39.71\%$$

$$n = 8, h = 0.5 \Rightarrow I = \frac{h}{2} [f(0) + 2f(0.5) + 2f(1) + 2f(1.5) + 2f(2) + 2f(2.5) + 2f(3) + 2f(3.5) + f(4)] = 5764.76 \quad \varepsilon = -10.50\%$$

$$n = 16, h = 0.25 \Rightarrow I = \frac{h}{2} [f(0) + 2f(0.25) + 2f(0.5) + \dots + 2f(3.5) + 2f(3.75) + f(4)] = 5355.95 \quad \varepsilon = -2.66\% \quad 27$$

Composite Trapezoid Rule: Unequal Segments

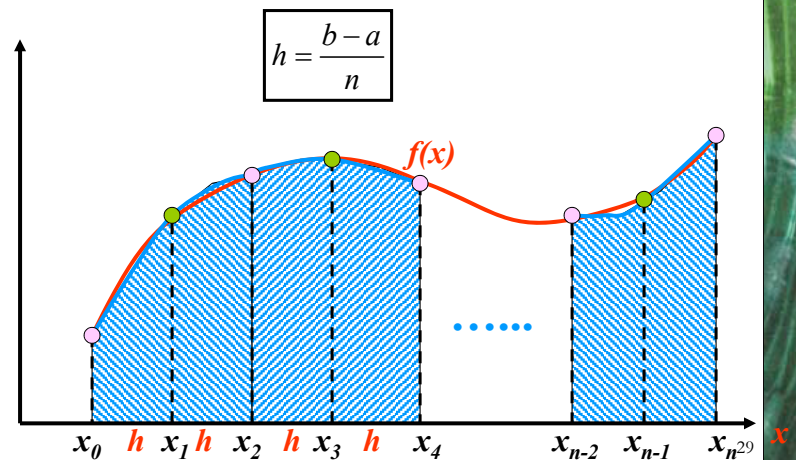
- Evaluate the integral $I = \int_0^4 xe^{2x} dx$
Use the following h_i 's: $\{h_1=2, h_2=1, h_3=0.5, h_4=0.5\}$

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_0^2 f(x) dx + \int_2^3 f(x) dx + \int_3^{3.5} f(x) dx + \int_{3.5}^4 f(x) dx \\ &= \frac{h_1}{2} [f(0) + f(2)] + \frac{h_2}{2} [f(2) + f(3)] \\ &\quad + \frac{h_3}{2} [f(3) + f(3.5)] + \frac{h_4}{2} [f(3.5) + f(4)] \\ &= \frac{2}{2} [0 + 2e^4] + \frac{1}{2} [2e^4 + 3e^6] + \frac{0.5}{2} [3e^6 + 3.5e^7] \\ &\quad + \frac{0.5}{2} [3.5e^7 + 4e^8] = 5971.58 \quad \Rightarrow \varepsilon = -14.45\% \end{aligned}$$

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Composite Simpson's Rule

- Piecewise Quadratic approximations



Composite Simpson's Rule

- Evaluate the integral $I = \int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx$
- Using $n = 2$, $h = 2$

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \frac{h}{3} [f(0) + 4f(2) + f(4)] \\
 &= \frac{2}{3} [0 + 4(2e^4) + 4e^8] = 8240.411 \Rightarrow \varepsilon = -57.96\%
 \end{aligned}$$

- Using $n = 4$, $h = 1$

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \frac{h}{3} [f(0) + 4f(1) + 2f(2) + 4f(3) + f(4)] \\
 &= \frac{1}{3} [0 + 4(e^2) + 2(2e^4) + 4(3e^6) + 4e^8] \\
 &= 5670.975 \Rightarrow \varepsilon = -8.70\%
 \end{aligned}$$

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Composite Simpson's Rule: Unequal Segments

- Evaluate the integral $I = \int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx$

Using $h_1 = 1.5, h_2 = 0.5$

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \int_0^3 f(x) dx + \int_3^4 f(x) dx \\
 &= \frac{h_1}{3} [f(0) + 4f(1.5) + f(3)] \\
 &\quad + \frac{h_2}{3} [f(3) + 4f(3.5) + f(4)] \\
 &= \frac{1.5}{3} [0 + 4(1.5e^3) + 3e^6] + \frac{0.5}{3} [3e^6 + 4(3.5e^7) + 4e^8] \\
 &= 5413.23 \Rightarrow \varepsilon = -3.76\%
 \end{aligned}$$

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Gaussian Quadratures

- Newton-Cotes Formulae

- Nodes (x_i 's): Use evenly-spaced functional values
- Weights (c_i 's): Derived from an approximation required to be equal for a polynomial of order lower or equal to the degree of the polynomials used to approximate the function. Given nodes, best!
- Problem: Can explode for large n (Runge's phenomenon)

- Q: Can we use more efficient weights and nodes? Yes!

- Gaussian Quadratures

- Gaussian quadrature rules set the nodes and the weights in such a way that the approximation is exact when $f(\cdot)$ is a low order polynomial. Best choice for both, nodes and weights!

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Gaussian Quadratures

- Gaussian quadrature computes an approximation to the integral:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i),$$

c_i 's are weights, x_i 's are the *quadrature nodes*, also called *cusps*. These values are not predetermined, but unknowns to be determined in some “optimal” fashion.

Optimal Goal: Get an exact answer if f is a $(2n - 1)^{th}$ -order polynomial. With $n=2$, we get an exact answer if f is a 3^{th} -order polynomial. (With $n = 5$, we get an exact answer if f is a 9^{th} -order polynomial).

Note: A Gauss quadrature rule with 3 points yields exact value of an integral for a polynomial of degree $2 \times 3 - 1 = 5$. Simpson's 1/3 rule³³ also uses 3 points, but the order of accuracy is 3.

Gaussian Quadratures – Features

- Gaussian Quadratures Features
 - Select functional values at non-uniformly distributed points. The values are not predetermined, but unknowns determined by Legendre polynomials and integrating over a Lagrange interpolation.
 - Several Gauss quadrature rules; we cover the Gauss-Legendre rules, which integrate from $[-1, 1]$.
 - A change of variables is needed:

$$t = \frac{b-a}{2}x + \frac{a+b}{2} \Rightarrow \text{the interval of integration is } [-1, 1].$$
 - Gauss-Legendre formulae for nodes and weights can be easily found online up to order $n=100$.
 - With n nodes, delivers exact answer if f is $(2n - 1)^{th}$ -order polynomial.
 - Gauss-Legendre quadrature rule is not typically used for integrable functions with endpoint singularities.

Gaussian Quadratures – Nodes and Weights

Example: For $n = 2$, we choose (c_1, c_2, x_1, x_2) such that the method yields “exact integral” for $f(x) = x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3$.

$$\begin{cases} f = 1 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 1 dx = 2 = c_1 + c_2 \\ f = x \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x dx = 0 = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 \\ f = x^2 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3} = c_1 x_1^2 + c_2 x_2^2 \\ f = x^3 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx = 0 = c_1 x_1^3 + c_2 x_2^3 \end{cases}$$

We solve this 4x4 system of equations to get (c_1, c_2, x_1, x_2) .

- By construction we get right answer for

$f(x) = 1$ ($j = 0$), $f(x) = x$ ($j = 1$), ..., $f(x) = x^j$ ($j = 2n - 1$),
 \Rightarrow enough to get the right answer for any polynomial of order $2n-1$.³⁵

Gaussian Quadratures – Nodes and Weights

Example (continuation): $n = 2 \Rightarrow$ Solve the 4x4 system:

$$\begin{cases} f = 1 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 1 dx = 2 = c_1 + c_2 \\ f = x \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x dx = 0 = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 \\ f = x^2 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3} = c_1 x_1^2 + c_2 x_2^2 \\ f = x^3 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx = 0 = c_1 x_1^3 + c_2 x_2^3 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} c_1 = 1 \\ c_2 = 1 \\ x_1 = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ x_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{cases}$$

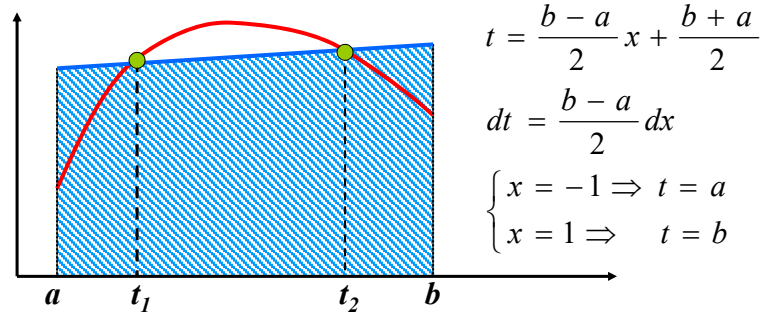
Note: This is not how it is done in practice:

- x_i 's are chosen to be zeros of the degree- n Legendre polynomials $P_n(x)$ (not trivial to compute, but, they are tabulated).
- Then, find the Lagrange polynomial that interpolates the integral $f(x)$ at the selected x_i 's and integrate to get c_i 's.³⁶

Gaussian Quadratures – Change of interval

- Coordinate transformation from $[a, b]$ to $[-1, 1]$.

This can be done by an affine transformation on t and a change of variables.



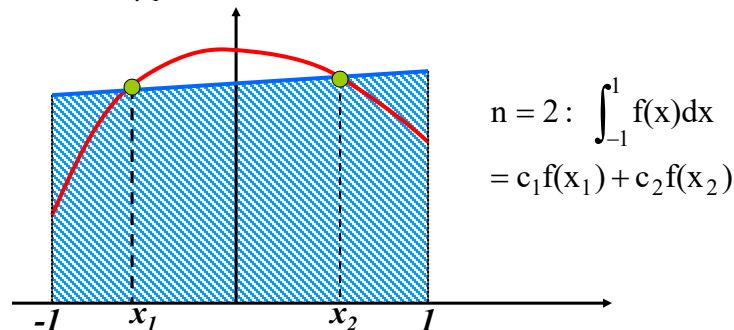
$$\int_a^b f(t)dt = \int_{-1}^1 f\left(\frac{b-a}{2}x + \frac{b+a}{2}\right) \left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)dx \approx \frac{b-a}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i)$$

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Gaussian Quadrature on $[-1, 1]$: $n = 2$

- Gauss Quadrature General formulation:

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^n c_i f(x_i) = c_1 f(x_1) + c_2 f(x_2) + \dots + c_n f(x_n)$$



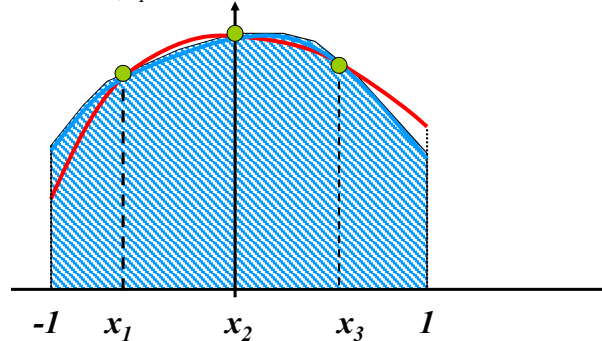
- For $n = 2$, we have four unknowns: (c_1, c_2, x_1, x_2)
- We have already solved this problem:

$$c_1 = 1; c_2 = 1; x_1 = -1/\sqrt{3}; \& x_2 = 1/\sqrt{3}.$$

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Gaussian Quadrature on $[-1, 1]$: $n = 3$

Case $n = 3$: $\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx = c_1 f(x_1) + c_2 f(x_2) + c_3 f(x_3)$



As for the $n = 2$ case, we choose $(c_1, c_2, c_3, x_1, x_2, x_3)$ such that the method yields “exact integral” for $f(x) = x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3, x^4, x^5$.

(Again, $(c_1, c_2, c_3, x_1, x_2, x_3)$ are calculated by assuming the formula gives exact expressions for integrating a 5th order polynomial).³⁹

Gaussian Quadrature on $[-1, 1]$: $n = 3$

$$f = 1 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 1 dx = 2 = c_1 + c_2 + c_3$$

$$f = x \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x dx = 0 = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + c_3 x_3$$

$$f = x^2 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3} = c_1 x_1^2 + c_2 x_2^2 + c_3 x_3^2$$

$$f = x^3 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx = 0 = c_1 x_1^3 + c_2 x_2^3 + c_3 x_3^3$$

$$f = x^4 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^4 dx = \frac{2}{5} = c_1 x_1^4 + c_2 x_2^4 + c_3 x_3^4$$

$$f = x^5 \Rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 x^5 dx = 0 = c_1 x_1^5 + c_2 x_2^5 + c_3 x_3^5$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} c_1 = 5/9 \\ c_2 = 8/9 \\ c_3 = 5/9 \\ x_1 = -\sqrt{3/5} \\ x_2 = 0 \\ x_3 = \sqrt{3/5} \end{cases}$$

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Gaussian Quadrature on $[-1, 1]$: $n = 2$ & $n = 3$

- Approximation formula for $n = 2$:

$$I = \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)$$

- Approximation formula for $n = 3$

$$I = \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = \frac{5}{9} f\left(-\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}\right) + \frac{8}{9} f(0) + \frac{5}{9} f\left(\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}\right)$$

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Gaussian Quadratures: Example

Evaluate $I = \int_0^4 te^{2t} dt = 5216.926477$

First, a coordinate transformation

$$t = \frac{b-a}{2}x + \frac{b+a}{2} = 2x + 2; \quad dt = 2dx$$

$$I = \int_0^4 te^{2t} dt = \int_{-1}^1 (4x + 4)e^{4x+4} dx = \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx$$

- Two-point formula ($n = 2$)

$$I = \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = f\left(\frac{-1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) = \left(4 - \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}}\right)e^{4 - \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}}} + \left(4 + \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}}\right)e^{4 + \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}}}$$

$$= 9.167657324 + 3468.376279 = 3477.543936 \quad (\varepsilon = 33.34\%)$$

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Gaussian Quadratures: Example

- Three-point formula ($n = 3$)

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx = \frac{5}{9}f(-\sqrt{0.6}) + \frac{8}{9}f(0) + \frac{5}{9}f(\sqrt{0.6}) \\
 &= \frac{5}{9}(4 - 4\sqrt{0.6})e^{4-\sqrt{0.6}} + \frac{8}{9}(4)e^4 + \frac{5}{9}(4 + 4\sqrt{0.6})e^{4+\sqrt{0.6}} \\
 &= \frac{5}{9}(2.221191545) + \frac{8}{9}(218.3926001) + \frac{5}{9}(8589.142689) \\
 &= 4967.106689 \quad (\varepsilon = 4.79\%)
 \end{aligned}$$

- Four-point formula ($n = 4$)

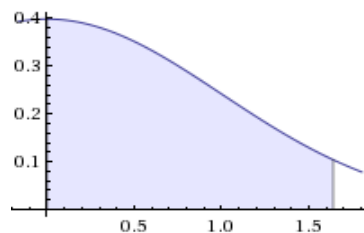
$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx = 0.34785[f(-0.861136) + f(0.861136)] \\
 &\quad + 0.652145[f(-0.339981) + f(0.339981)] \\
 &= 5197.54375 \quad (\varepsilon = 0.37\%)
 \end{aligned}$$

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Gaussian Quadratures: Normal Curve

Evaluate

$$I = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{1.64} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx = .44949742$$



First, a coordinate transformation:

$$t = \frac{b-a}{2}x + \frac{b+a}{2} = .82x + .82 = .82(1+x); \quad dt = .82dx$$

$$I = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{1.64} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt = \frac{.82}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-1}^1 e^{-\frac{1}{2}(.82(1+x))^2} dx = \frac{.82}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx$$

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Gaussian Quadratures: Normal Curve

- Two-point formula ($n = 2$)

$$I = \frac{.82}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = \frac{.82}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(f\left(\frac{-1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \right) = \frac{.82}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \right]^2} + e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left[-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \right]^2} \right)$$

$$= 0.32713267 * (0.94171147 + 0.43323413) = .44978962 \quad (\varepsilon = 0.065\%)$$

- Three-point formula ($n = 3$)

$$I = \frac{.82}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = \frac{.82}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{5}{9} f(-\sqrt{0.6}) + \frac{8}{9} f(0) + \frac{5}{9} f(\sqrt{0.6}) \right)$$

$$= \frac{.82}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{5}{9} e^{-\frac{1}{2} [\frac{1}{\sqrt{0.6}}]^2} + \frac{8}{9} e^{-\frac{1}{2} [0]^2} + \frac{5}{9} e^{-\frac{1}{2} [\frac{1}{\sqrt{0.6}}]^2} \right)$$

$$= .32713267 * (0.54614659 + 0.63509351 + 0.19271450)$$

$$= 0.44946544 \quad (\varepsilon = 0.007\%)$$

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Gaussian Quadratures: Normal Curve

- Compare with Integration of Taylor series approximation ($n = 6$)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{8} - \frac{x^6}{48} \right)$$

- Integrating Taylor approximation:

$$I = \int_0^{1.64} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx \approx \int_0^{1.64} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{8} - \frac{x^6}{48} \right) dx$$

$$I \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3*2} + \frac{x^5}{5*8} - \frac{x^7}{7*48} \right) + C \Big|_0^{1.64}$$

$$I \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(1.64 - \frac{1.64^3}{3*2} + \frac{1.64^5}{5*8} - \frac{1.64^7}{7*48} \right) = .4414171 \quad (\varepsilon=0.0179\%)$$

Not as accurate as Gaussian quadrature with $n = 2$ (& more computations.

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Monte Carlo Integration

- In our motivation of integrals, we evaluated a one-dimensional integral by a sum of rectangles, using the end points of each interval to measure the height. Some of these rectangles overestimated the area, some underestimated the area.
- Let's focus on one of those rectangles, say with base $[a, b]$. We can also use as the height a *randomly* selected interior point, $x_i \in [a, b]$ and estimate the integral, say $I(x_i)$. Of course, it may over- or underestimate the area.
- But, we can *randomly* select N interior points and get N estimations of the area. Some points will under-estimate, some points will over-estimate, but, statistical intuition suggests that the average may work.
- In fact, as N increases, the average of the integral converges to the integral.

Monte Carlo Integration – Example 1

- **Example 1:** We want to do MC integration for (exact integral = 5,216.92):

$$\int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx$$

```
> M <- 200
> x <- runif(M,0,4)
> All_I <- matrix(0,M,1)
> a <- 0
> b <- 4
> m <- 1
> while (m <= M) {
+ Int <- (b-a)*(x[m] * exp(2*x[m]))
+ m <- m+ 1
+ All_I[m] <- Int
+ }
> IN <- sum(All_I)/M
> IN
[1] 5489.388
```

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Monte Carlo Integration – Example 2

- MC Integration can be applied to any area, like the area of a circle.
- **Example 2:** We want to estimate the area of a circle with radius, $r=2$ (exact area = $\pi * r^2 = \pi * 4 = 12.56637$):

```
> M <- 100
> x <- runif(M,-2,2)
> y <- runif(M,-2,2)
> #box is area 16.
> distance.from.0 <- sqrt(x*x + y*y)
> inside.circle <- (distance.from.0 < 2)
> area <- 16*sum(inside.circle)/M
> area
[1] 12.48
```

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Monte Carlo Integration – Properties

- We formalize this idea with: $F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I(x_i)$
- This is our basic *Monte Carlo* (MC) estimator. Very simple.
- It can be shown it has good properties: unbiased, consistent (LLN applies), asymptotic normal (CLT applies).
- This results is very general and applies to many situations, for example, the trapezoid rule. Above, we selected two points to evaluate the integral (a and b). It produced a big over estimation.

We can also randomly select two points between $[a, b]$, say \mathbf{x}_1 and calculate the integral, say $I(\mathbf{x}_1)$. We repeat this evaluation of the integral at N randomly selected two points $\in [a, b]$: as N increases, the average of the integral converges to the integral.

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Monte Carlo Integration – Example 3

- **Example 3:** Back to the trapezoid example, where we wanted to integrate the following function:

$$\int_0^4 x e^{2x} dx$$

```
> M <- 1000
> All_I <- matrix(0,M,1)
> x <- runif(M,0,4)
> y <- runif(M,0,4)
> a <- 0
> b <- 4
> m <- 1
> while (m <= M) {
+ Int <- ((b-a)/2)* (x[m] * exp(2*x[m]) + y[m] * exp(2*y[m]))
+ m <- m+ 1
+ All_I[m] <- Int
+ }
> IN <- sum(All_I)/M
> IN
[1] 5134.759
```

Note: The exact integral is 5,216.93.

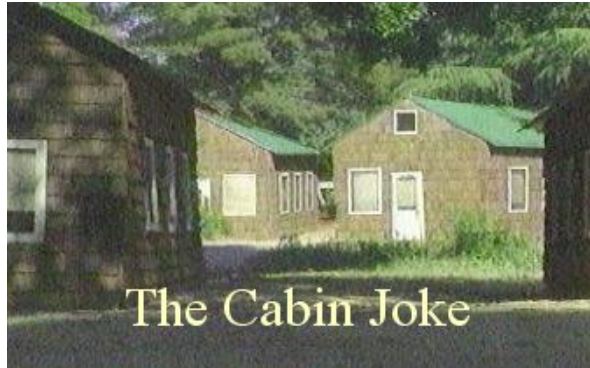
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Monte Carlo Integration & Multiple Integrals

- Q: Why use the MC estimator instead of the also very simple determinist quadrature rules?
- Quadrature rules do not extend very well to higher dimension. An approach is to rewrite the problem in terms of one-dimensional integrals. For two or three dimension it may work well, but for more than four dimensions it becomes imprecise.
- These rules suffer from the *curse of dimensionality*.
- Monte Carlo integration extends well to many dimensions. IT is based on repeated function evaluations, not repeated integrations using one-dimensional methods.

Popular MC algorithm: Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC), which include the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm and Gibbs sampling.

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Q: What's the integral of $(1/\text{cabin})d(\text{cabin})$?

A: A natural log cabin!

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