

Quadrature

A quadrature is a set of nodes  $x_j$  and weights  $w_j$  used for approximating an integral, for example:

$$C_n = \int_{-1}^1 f(x) \varphi_n(x) dx$$

so that  $f(x) \approx \sum_{n=1}^P C_n \varphi_n(x)$

The approximation then takes the form

$$C_n = \int_{-1}^1 f(x) \varphi_n(x) dx \approx \sum_{j=1}^M f(x_j) \varphi_n(x_j) w_j$$

↑  
may be = under certain circumstances.

There are lots of integrals in prob & stats:

- posterior distributions
- CDFs
- ...

From a practical point of view, you only need two quadrature rules for smooth functions:

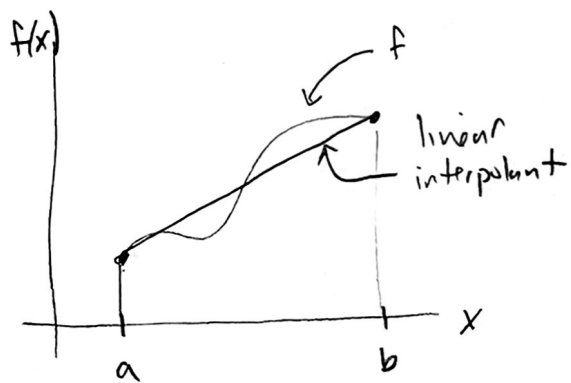
- trapezoidal rule
- Gaussian quadrature.

# Trapezoidal Quadrature

One special case of what are known as Newton-Cotes

Formulas:

interpolate the function, integrate the interpolant



$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx T[f] = \frac{b-a}{2} (f(a) + f(b))$$

This idea can be done to arbitrarily high order (interpolation, that is)

What is the error?

Write  $f(x) = f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f'\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)\left(x - \frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f''\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)\left(x - \frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 + \dots$

$$\int f = \int \left( f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + \dots \right)$$

$$\left[ \frac{1}{3} \left( x - \frac{a+b}{2} \right)^3 \right]_a^b = \frac{1}{3} \left[ \left( \frac{b-a}{2} \right)^3 - \left( \frac{a-b}{2} \right)^3 \right] = \frac{(b-a)^3}{3}$$

$$T[f] = T \left[ \left( f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + \dots \right) \right]$$

$$\int \left( f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + \dots \right) - T \left[ \left( f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + \dots \right) \right] = f''\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) \int_a^b \left( x - \frac{a+b}{2} \right)^2 dx + f^{(3)}\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) \int \left( x - \frac{a+b}{2} \right)^3 dx$$

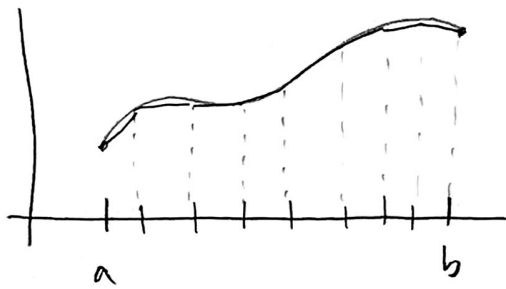
$$- f''\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) \frac{b-a}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{a-b}{2} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{b-a}{2} \right)^2 \right] + \dots$$

$$\approx f''\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) \left( \frac{(b-a)^3}{3} - \frac{(b-a)^3}{4} \right)$$

$$\approx \boxed{f''\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) \frac{(b-a)^3}{12}}$$

This error is not great,  $h-a$  has to be very small...

Obvious choice: split  $[a, b]$  into many intervals of size  $h = \frac{b-a}{n}$ : Composite Trapezoidal rule



Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx T_n[f] \\ = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{(b-a)}{n} \left( \frac{f(x_i) + f(x_{i+1})}{2} \right)$$

where  $x_i = a + hi$

Simplifying, we get

$$T_n[f] = h \left( \frac{f(x_0) + f(x_1)}{2} + \frac{f(x_1) + f(x_2)}{2} + \dots + \frac{f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)}{2} \right)$$

$$= h \left( \frac{f(a)}{2} + f(x_1) + \dots + f(x_{n-1}) + \frac{f(b)}{2} \right)$$

$$= h \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) - \left( \frac{f(a)}{2} + \frac{f(b)}{2} \right)$$

The error on each subinterval is  $O(h^3) = O(\frac{1}{n^3})$  and since there are  $O(n)$  intervals, the overall error of  $T_n[f]$  is  $O(\frac{1}{n^2}) = O(h^2)$ .

There is a theorem that completely characterizes this error:

## The Euler-Maclaurin Expansion

Theorem: Let  $f \in C^{2k}[a,b]$ , and  $[a,b]$  be divided into  $n$  equal subintervals,  $[x_{j-1}, x_j]$ , with  $x_j = a + jh$ .

Then,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx - T_n f$

$$I - T_n f = \sum_{r=1}^k c_r h^{2r} (f^{(2r-1)}(b) - f^{(2r-1)}(a)) - d_{2k} \left(\frac{h}{2}\right)^{2k}$$

$$= \frac{h^2}{12} (f'(b) - f'(a)) - \frac{h^4}{720} (f^{(3)}(b) - f^{(3)}(a)) + \dots + (-1)^{k-1} \frac{B_{2k}}{(2k)!} h^{2k} f^{(2k)}\left(\frac{s}{2}\right)$$

These coefficients are given by:

$$c_r = -\frac{B_{2r}}{(2r)!}, \quad B_{2r} \text{ is a Bernoulli number:}$$

$$\frac{x}{2} \coth\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_{2r}}{(2r)!} x^{2r}.$$

The calculation of  $B_{2r}$  was the output of arguably the first "computer program" written by Ada Lovelace and Charles Babbage.

## Implications of Euler-Maclaurin

If  $f \in C^\infty[a,b]$  and periodic with  $f^{(j)}(a) = f^{(j)}(b)$  (think Fourier Series, or  $\cos mx$ ,  $\sin mx$ , etc.) then this error  $|I - T_n f|$  decays superalgebraically as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Def:  $\epsilon_n \rightarrow 0$  superalgebraically if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\epsilon_n}{h^p} = 0 \quad \text{for any } p > 0.$$

This means that  $\epsilon_n \rightarrow 0$  faster than any power of  $h$ .

For this reason, the trapezoidal rule is very important in various numerical methods.

Ex:  $J_0(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi e^{ix \cos \theta} d\theta.$

$e^{ix \cos \theta}$  is not periodic on  $[0, \pi]$ , but it is on  $[0, 2\pi]$ .

It can be shown that

$$J_0(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi e^{ix \cos \theta} d\theta = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{ix \cos \theta} d\theta}_{\text{See mybessel.m for computing this via the trapezoidal rule.}}$$

The composite trapezoidal rule cannot be beat for integrating smooth periodic functions. What is a "high-order" alternative for non-periodic functions?

## Gaussian Quadrature

Suppose we want to numerically compute  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx$ .

Let  $x_i$  be the  $i$ th root of the degree  $n$

Legendre polynomial  $P_n$ . Compute the corresponding weights  $w_i$

such that

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^j dx = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i^j \quad \text{is exact if } j=0, \dots, n-1.$$

The collection of  $\{x_i, w_i\}$  is known as a Gaussian Quadrature

and is in fact exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 2n-1$ .

Proof Let  $f$  be a polynomial of degree  $\leq 2n-1$ . Then

divide  $f$  by  $P_n$ .

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = \underbrace{q(x)}_{\deg \leq n-1} \underbrace{P_n(x)}_{\deg n} + \underbrace{r(x)}_{\deg \leq n-1} \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{polynomial remainder} \\ \text{thm} \end{array} \right)$$

$$\text{Then } \int f(x) dx = \int (qP_n + r) = (q, P_n) + \int r = 0 + \int r$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{And } G_n[f] &= \sum_{i=1}^n (q(x_i) P_n(x_i) + r(x_i)) w_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n w_i r(x_i) = \int r(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

Exact,

(Mention error...)

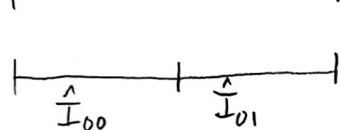
## Adaptive Quadrature

While composite Gaussian quadrature is useful, more efficient "adaptive" methods are quite practical.

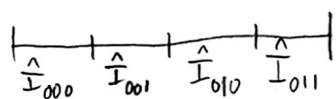
Goal: Compute  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = I$  to precision  $\epsilon$  using

Gaussian quad. Call  $\hat{I}$  our approximation to  $I$ : <sup>want</sup>  $|\hat{I} - I| < \epsilon$ .

Idea: Split intervals and check values:



$$\text{check error: } |\hat{I}_0 - (\hat{I}_{00} + \hat{I}_{01})|$$

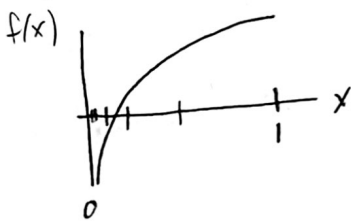


$$\text{check each sub-interval: } |\hat{I}_{00} - (\hat{I}_{000} + \hat{I}_{001})|$$

$$|\hat{I}_{01} - (\hat{I}_{010} + \hat{I}_{011})|$$

Only subdivide intervals on which requested precision has not been achieved (Mention possible accumulation of error.)

Behavior for singular integration:



$$f(x) = \log x$$

Algorithm will subdivide near the singularity.

(Briefly discuss error... complicated estimates.)