

## Numerical Differentiation and Integration

If the values of a function are given at a few points, say  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ , can that information be used to estimate a derivative  $f'(c)$  or an integral  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ ? The answer is a qualified Yes.

A general approach to numerical differentiation and integration can be based on polynomial interpolation.

**♣ Numerical Differentiation.** Numerical differentiation formulae find their most important application in the numerical solution of differential equations.

To numerically calculate the derivative of  $f(x)$ , begin by recalling the definition of the derivative:

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

This justifies using

$$f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \equiv D_h f(x)$$

for small values of  $h$ .  $D_h f(x)$  is called a *numerical derivative* of  $f(x)$  with stepsize  $h$ .

If both  $f(x+h)$  and  $f(x-h)$  are defined, then a superior formula is

$$f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x+h) - f(x-h)}{2h}$$

This is derived from two cases of Taylor's Theorem, namely

$$\begin{aligned} f(x+h) &= f(x) = f(x) + hf'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2}f''(x) + \frac{h^3}{6}f^{(3)}(\xi_1) \\ f(x-h) &= f(x) = f(x) - hf'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2}f''(x) - \frac{h^3}{6}f^{(3)}(\xi_2) \end{aligned}$$

On subtracting one of these from the other, we obtain

$$f'(x) = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x-h)}{2h} - \frac{h^2}{12} [f^{(3)}(\xi_1) + f^{(3)}(\xi_2)]$$

This is a more favorable result, because of the  $h^2$  term in the error. Notice, however, the presence of  $f^{(3)}$  in the error. This error term is applicable if  $f^{(3)}$  exists.

Using the Taylor series of higher order for  $f(x+h)$  and  $f(x-h)$ , we obtain

$$f''(x) = \frac{f(x+h) - 2f(x) + f(x-h)}{h^2} - \frac{h^2}{12} [f^{(4)}(\xi)]$$

This formula is often used in the numerical solution of second-order differential equations.

**♡ Differentiation Using Interpolation.** Let  $P_n(x)$  denote the degree  $n$  polynomial that interpolates  $f(x)$  at  $n+1$  node points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ . To calculate  $f(x)$  at some point  $x=c$ , use  $f'(c) \approx p'_n(c)$ . The error for this formula can be obtained from the interpolation error formula. The main result is given in the following theorem:

**Theorem 1.** Assume  $f(x)$  has  $n + 2$  continuous derivatives on an interval  $[a, b]$ . Let  $P_n(x)$  denote the degree  $n$  polynomial that interpolates  $f(x)$  at  $n + 1$  node points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  in  $[a, b]$ , and let  $c$  be an arbitrary given point in  $[a, b]$ . Then

$$f'(c) - P'_n(c) = \Phi_n(c) \frac{f^{(n+2)}(\xi_1)}{(n+2)!} + \Phi'_n(c) \frac{f^{(n+2)}(\xi_2)}{(n+2)!}$$

with

$$\Phi_n(c) = (c - x_0)(c - x_1) \cdots (c - x_n)$$

The constants  $\xi_1$  and  $\xi_2$  are unknown points of  $[a, b]$ .

♣ **Richardson's Extrapolation.** A procedure known as Richardson's Extrapolation is frequently employed to coax more accuracy out of some numerical formulas.

To examine the extrapolation technique, suppose  $N_1(h)$  is a numerical formula that produces approximations of order  $O(h^2)$  to an unknown value  $M$ . In addition, assume that the error form for the approximation of  $N(h)$  to  $M$  can be expressed as

$$M = N(h) + K_1 h^2 + O(h^4), \tag{1}$$

where  $K_1$  is a constant. Replacing  $N(h)$  by  $N_1(h)$  and  $h$  by  $h/2$  in (1) gives a new, and presumably more accurate, approximation  $N_1(h/2)$  that satisfies

$$M = N_1\left(\frac{h}{2}\right) + K_1 \frac{h^2}{4} + [O\left(\frac{h^4}{2}\right)]. \tag{2}$$

Multiplying (1) by  $4/3$  and subtracting  $1/3$  of (2) gives

$$M = \frac{4N_1\left(\frac{h}{2}\right) - N_1(h)}{3} + O(h^4), \tag{3}$$

so

$$N_2(h) = \frac{4N_1\left(\frac{h}{2}\right) - N_1(h)}{3}. \tag{4}$$

Using this notation, the approximations to  $M$  shown in the following table can be generated.

$N_1(h)$	
$N_1\left(\frac{h}{2}\right)$	$N_2(h)$
$N_1\left(\frac{h}{4}\right)$	$N_2\left(\frac{h}{2}\right)$
$N_1\left(\frac{h}{8}\right)$	$N_2\left(\frac{h}{4}\right)$

If, in addition, a number  $K_2$  exists so that (1) can be expressed as

$$M = N(h) + K_1 h^2 + K_2 h^4 + O(h^6). \tag{5}$$

Then we may increase the accuracy by defining

$$N_3(h) = \frac{4^2 N_2\left(\frac{h}{2}\right) - N_2(h)}{4^2 - 1} = \frac{16 N_2\left(\frac{h}{2}\right) - N_2(h)}{15}.$$

This process can be extended to  $m$  such columns provided that the error form for the approximation of  $N(h)$  can be expressed as

$$M = N(h) + \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} K_j h^{2j} + O(h^{2m})$$

for some collection of constant  $K_j$ . The  $O(h^{2j})$  approximations are generated recursively by the formula:

$$N_j(h) = \frac{4^{j-1}N_j(\frac{h}{2}) - N_{j-1}(h)}{4^{j-1} - 1}$$

for  $j = 2, 3, \dots, m$ .

**Example.** According to the Taylor's Theorem, if  $f(x)$  is continuously differentiable, then

$$f'(x_0) = \frac{1}{2h}[f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h)] - \frac{h^2}{6}f^{(3)}(x_0) - \frac{h^4}{120}f^{(5)}(x_0) + O(h^6).$$

Let  $f(x) = xe^x$ ,  $x_0 = 2$  and  $h = 0.2$ . Then using the notation in the preceding discussion, we have

$$M = f'(2), \quad N(0.2) = \frac{1}{0.4}[f(2.2) - f(1.8)], \quad K_1 = \frac{0.2^2}{6}f^{(3)}(2) \quad \text{and} \quad K_2 = \frac{0.2^4}{120}f^{(5)}(2).$$

The exact value of  $f'(x) = xe^x + e^x$  at  $x_0 = 2$  is 22.167168. We construct an extrapolation table for  $f(x)$ , shown in the next table.

$N_1(0.2) = 22.41416$			
$N_1(0.1) = 22.22878$	$N_2(0.2) = \frac{4N_1(0.1) - N_1(0.2)}{3} = 22.16699$		
$N_1(0.05) = 22.18256$	$N_2(0.1) = \frac{4N_1(0.05) - N_1(0.1)}{3} = 22.16715$	$N_3(0.2) = \frac{16N_2(0.1) - N_2(0.2)}{15} = 22.16716$	

♣ **Integration.** The definite integral

$$I(f) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

is defined in the calculus as a limit of what are called *Riemann Sums*. It is known that

$$I(f) = F(b) - F(a),$$

where  $F(x)$  is any antiderivative of  $f(x)$ ; this is the *Fundamental Theorem of Calculus*. Many integrals can be evaluated using this formula; nonetheless, some integrands  $f(x)$  do not have antiderivatives expressible in terms of elementary functions. Examples of such integrals are

$$\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx, \quad \int_0^\pi \frac{\sin x}{x} dx.$$

Other methods such as power series expansion or numerical integration are needed for evaluating such integrals.

A *Composite Rule* is one obtained by applying an integration formula for a single interval to each subinterval of a partitioned interval.

♡ **Integration Using Interpolation.** Suppose we want to evaluate the integral

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx.$$

We can select nodes  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  in  $[a, b]$  and set up a Lagrange interpolation process. For  $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$ , define

$$L_{n,k} = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq k}}^n \frac{x - x_j}{x_k - x_j}$$

The Lagrange polynomial

$$L_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f(x_k)L_{n,k}(x)$$

interpolate  $f(x)$  at the nodes. Then

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \int_a^b L_n(x)dx = \sum_{k=0}^n A_k f(x_k), \quad (6)$$

where

$$A_k = \int_a^b L_{n,k}dx.$$

A formula in the form (6) is called a *Newton-Cotes Formula*, if the nodes are equally spaced.

♠ **Trapezoid Rule.** The simplest case of the Lagrange polynomial results if  $n = 1$  and the nodes are  $a = x_0, x_1 = b$ . The polynomials are

$$L_{1,0} = \frac{b-x}{b-a} \quad L_{1,1} = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$$

Consequently,

$$A_0 = \int_a^b L_{1,0}(x)dx = \frac{1}{2}(b-a) = \int_a^b L_{1,1}(x)dx = A_1$$

The corresponding quadrature formula is

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

This is known as the *Trapezoid Rule*. Its error term is

$$-\frac{1}{12}(b-a)^3 f''(\xi)$$

where  $\xi \in (a, b)$ . This can be determined by integrating the error term in the polynomial approximation

$$f(x) - L_1(x) = \frac{1}{2}f''(\xi_x)(b-a)(x-b),$$

and employing the Mean-Value Theorem for Integrals.

The *Composite Trapezoid Rule* with uniform spacing (i.e.,  $h = (b - a)/n$  and  $x_j = a + jh$ ) takes the form

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \frac{h}{2} \left[ f(a) + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} f(a + jh) + f(b) \right]$$

The error term for the composite trapezoid rule is

$$-\frac{1}{2}(b - a)h^2 f''(\xi)$$

where  $\xi \in (a, b)$ .

♠ **Simpson's Rule.** The *Simpson's Rule* is resulted from interpolating  $f(x)$  with the Lagrange polynomial  $L_2(x)$  and choosing  $n = 2$  and  $a = x_0$ ,  $x_1 = (a + b)/2$  and  $x_2 = b$ . The formula is

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \frac{b - a}{2} \left[ f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a + b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right]$$

The error term is

$$-\frac{1}{90}(b - a)^5 f^{(4)}(\xi)$$

where  $\xi \in (a, b)$ . The *Composite Simpson's Rule* with even number of subintervals and uniform spacing (i.e.,  $n = 2k$ ,  $h = (b - a)/n$  and  $x_j = a + jh$ ) takes the form

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \frac{h}{3} \left[ f(a) + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{[n/2]} f(x_{2j}) + 4 \sum_{j=1}^{[n/2]} f(x_{2j-1}) + f(b) \right]$$

The error term for the composite Simpson's rule is

$$-\frac{1}{180}(b - a)h^4 f^{(4)}(\xi)$$

where  $\xi \in (a, b)$ .

♠ **Romberg Integration.** Although the trapezoid rule is the easiest Newton-Cotes formula to apply, but it lacks the degree of accuracy generally required. *Romberg integration* is a method that uses the trapezoid rule to give preliminary approximation, and then applies the Richardson's Extrapolation process to obtain improvements of the approximations.

**Note.** The second column of the Romberg table may be obtained by using the *Composite Simpson's Rule*.

**Example.** The Romberg integration scheme

$$R_{i,j} = \frac{4^{j-1}R_{i,j-1} - R_{i-1,j-1}}{4^{j-1} - 1}$$

for approximating  $\int_0^\pi \sin x dx$  with  $n = 6$  leads to:

$R_{1,1} = 0.00000$									
$R_{2,1} = 1.57079$	$R_{2,2} = 2.09439$								
$R_{3,1} = 1.89611$	$R_{3,2} = 2.00455$	$R_{3,3} = 1.99857$							
$R_{4,1} = 1.97423$	$R_{4,2} = 2.00026$	$R_{4,3} = 1.99998$	$R_{4,4} = 2.00000$						
$R_{5,1} = 1.99357$	$R_{5,2} = 2.000016$	$R_{5,3} = 1.99999$	$R_{5,4} = 2.00000$	$R_{5,5} = 2.00000$					
$R_{6,1} = 1.99839$	$R_{6,2} = 2.000010$	$R_{6,3} = 1.99857$	$R_{6,5} = 2.00000$	$R_{6,5} = 2.00000$	$R_{6,6} = 2.00000$				

### Romberg Integration Algorithm

INPUT Endpoints  $a, b$ ; integer  $n$ .

OUTPUT An array  $R$  ( $R_{n,n}$  is the approximation to  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ . Computed by rows; only 2 rows saved in storage.)

STEP1 Set  $h = b - a$  and  $R_{1,1} = h[f(a) + f(b)]/2$ ;

STEP2 OUTPUT ( $R_{1,1}$ ).

STEP3 For  $i = 2, \dots, n$  do STEP4-8.

STEP4 (Approximation from Trapezoid Rule).

$$\text{Set } R_{2,1} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ R_{1,1} + h \sum_{k=1}^{2^i-2} f(a + (k - 0.5)h) \right].$$

STEP5 For  $i = 2, \dots, i$  (use Richardson's Extrapolation formula)

$$\text{Set } R_{i,j} = \frac{4^{j-1}R_{i,j-1} - R_{i-1,j-1}}{4^{j-1} - 1}.$$

STEP6 OUTPUT ( $R_{2,j}$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, i$  do STEP4-8.

STEP7 Set  $h = h/2$ .

STEP8 For  $j = 1, 2, \dots, i$  set  $R_{1,j} = R_{2,j}$ . (Update row 1 of  $R$ .)