## Numerical Differentiation and Integration

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## Quotes of the Day

Trust has to be earned, and should come only after the passage of time. - Arthur Ashe

Trust cannot be commanded; and yet it is also correct that the only one who earns trust is the one who is prepared to grant trust.

- Gustav Heinemann


## Numerical Integration

- We know
- Definite integrals arise in many different areas, and
- Fundamental Theorem of Calculus is a powerful tool for evaluating definite integrals
- However $\rightarrow$ it cannot always be applied
- There are some functions which do not have an antiderivative, which can be expressed in terms of familiar functions such as polynomials, exponentials and trigonometric functions.
- Ex: $\exp \left(-x^{2}\right)$ is an important function since it is the probability density function for the normal distribution


## Numerical Integration

- Allows approximate integration of functions that are analytically defined or given in tabulated form
- Idea is to fit a polynomial to functional data points and integrate it
- The most straightforward numerical integration technique uses the Newton-Cotes rules (also called quadrature formulas), which approximate a function at evenly spaced data points by various degree polynomials
- If the endpoints are tabulated, then the 2-point formula is called the Trapezoidal rule and the 3 -point formula is called the


## simpson's rule

- Trapezoidal rule (linear)
- Simpson's rule (parabolic)
- The 5-point formula is called Boole's rule
- A generalization of the trapezoidal rule is Romberg integration, which can yield accurate results for many fewer function evaluations


## Trapezoidal Rule

- Numerical integration method based on integrating the linear interpolation formula

$$
I=\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x
$$

Approximating $f(x)$ by linear interpolation gives:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g(x)=\frac{b-x}{b-a} f(a)+\frac{x-a}{b-a} f(b) \\
& I=\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x \approx \int_{a}^{b} g(x) d x=\frac{b-a}{2}(f(a)+f(b)) \\
& I=\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=\frac{(b-a)}{2}(f(a)+f(b))+E
\end{aligned}
$$

E is the truncation error given by: $E \approx-\frac{1}{12}(b-a)^{3} f^{\prime \prime}$

## Trapezoidal Rule

- Numerical integration method based on approximating the area under the graph $y=f(x)$ by the trapezoid formed below:
$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=(b-a) f(a)+\frac{1}{2}(b-a)[f(b)-f(a)]$

$$
=(b-a)\left[f(a)+\frac{1}{2} f(b)-\frac{1}{2} f(a)\right]
$$

$$
=\frac{1}{2}(b-a)(f(a)+f(b))
$$



This alone is not a good approximation, therefore ...

## Extended Trapezoidal Rule

... break the region [a,b] into n equal smaller pieces and apply the approximation on each piece. On the smaller pieces, the graph looks more and more like a straight line so the approximation should improve:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { let } h=\frac{b-a}{n}, \text { and } y_{i}=f\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right) \\
& \begin{aligned}
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x & \approx \frac{h}{2}\left(y_{0}+y_{1}\right)+\frac{h}{2}\left(y_{1}+y_{2}\right)+\ldots+\frac{h}{2}\left(y_{n-1}+y_{n}\right) \\
& =\frac{h}{2}\left(y_{0}+y_{1}+y_{1}+y_{2}+\ldots+y_{n-1}+y_{n-1}+y_{n}\right) \\
& =\frac{h}{2}\left(y_{0}+2 y_{1}+2 y_{2}+2 y_{3}+\ldots+2 y_{n-1}+y_{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
\end{aligned}
$$



## Extended Trapezoidal Rule

... the error E becomes
$E \approx-\frac{b-a}{12} h^{2} \overline{f^{\prime \prime}}$ or equivalently $E \approx-\frac{(b-a)^{3}}{12 n^{2}} \overline{f^{\prime \prime}}$
where $\overline{f^{\prime \prime}}$ is the average of $f^{\prime \prime}(\mathrm{x})$ in $a<x<b$.
$f^{\prime \prime}$ is the second derivative of $f(x)$ |y

## Extended Trapezoidal Rule in MATLAB®

... the extended trapezoidal rule can be written in MATLAB® as:
$\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{h} *\left(\operatorname{sum}(\mathrm{f})-0.5^{*}(\mathrm{f}(1)+\mathrm{f}(\right.$ length(f))$))$
where
$f$ is an array of $f_{i}$ for equispaced abscissa points with interval size h


## Ex: Extended Trapezoidal Rule in MATLAB®

$\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{h} *(\operatorname{sum}(\mathrm{f})-0.5 *(f(1)+f($ length(f))))
An automobile of mass $\mathrm{M}=2000 \mathrm{~kg}$ is cruising at a speed of 30 $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}$. The engine is suddenly disengaged at $\mathrm{t}=0 \mathrm{~s}$. How far does the car travel before the speed reduces to $15 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ ?

The force equation for cruising after $\mathrm{t}=0$ is given by:
Acceleration force $=$ Aerodynamic resistance + Rolling resistance $2000 \mathrm{u}(\mathrm{du} / \mathrm{dx})=-8.1 \mathrm{u}^{2}-1200$
where
u: velocity of car,
x : linear distance travelled after $\mathrm{t}=\mathbf{0}$
(Ref: Nakamura, 2nd ed., pg.208)

## Ex: Extended Trapezoidal Rule in MATLAB®

Acceleration force $=$ Aerodynamic resistance + Rolling resistance 2000u(du/dx)=-8.1 u²-1200

Rewriting this equation gives:

$$
\frac{2000 \cdot u \cdot d u}{-8.1 u^{2}-1200}=d x
$$

$$
\text { Integrating gives: } \int_{30}^{15} \frac{2000 \cdot u \cdot d u}{-8.1 u^{2}-1200}=\int_{15}^{30} \frac{2000 \cdot u \cdot d u}{8.1 u^{2}+1200}=\int_{0}^{x} d x=x
$$

Using 16 data points or 15 intervals to evaluate the LHS: $i=1,2, \ldots, 16$

$$
\Delta u=\frac{30-15}{i-1}=\frac{15}{15}=1, \quad u_{i}=15+(i-1) \Delta u, \quad \frac{d u}{d x}=f_{i}=\frac{2000 u_{i}}{8.1 u_{i}^{2}+1200}
$$

Using trapezoidal rule:

$$
x \approx \Delta u\left[\sum_{1}^{16} f_{i}-0.5\left(f_{1}+f_{16}\right)\right]
$$

## Ex: Extended Trapezoidal Rule in MATLAB®

## Acceleration force $=$ Aerodynamic resistance + Rolling resistance 2000u(du/dx)=-8.1 $\mathbf{u}^{2-1200}$

\%Adopted from Nakamura, 2nd ed., pg. 209 clear, npoints=16; $\mathrm{i}=1$ :npoints;
$\mathrm{h}=(30-15) /($ npoints -1$)$;
$\mathrm{u}=15+(\mathrm{i}-1) * \mathrm{~h}$;
$\mathrm{f}=2000^{*} \mathrm{u} . /\left(8.1^{*} \mathrm{u} . \wedge 2+1200\right)$;
$\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{h} *\left(\operatorname{sum}(\mathrm{f})-0.5^{*}(\mathrm{f}(1)+\mathrm{f}(\right.$ length $\left.(\mathrm{f})))\right)$

## $I=1.275040414919126 e+002$

## Trapezoidal Rule

Trapezoidal Rule provides a reasonable approximation to a definite integral if large number of steps are taken
The error in the approximation originates in the fact that general graphs are curved and Trapezoidal rule approximates them by straight lines
An approximation, which takes into account the curvature of the graph, can also be formed: the result is a more efficient approximation called Simpson's Rule.

## Simpson's Rule

- Simpson's Rule is formed by approximating a general curve by a parabola
- In this picture, the red graph is a parabola which approximates the yellow graph
- Remember: A parabola is the graph of a quadratic function
$y=a x^{2}+b x+c$
To find $a, b$ and $c$
Three points on the function
$\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right),\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$ need to be used to fix the parabola



## Simpson's Rule

Approximating the function to be integrated by a quadratic polynomial gives the Basic Simpson's rule For $y=a x^{2}+b x+c$ and $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right),\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { let } h=\frac{b-a}{2}, \text { and } \\
& \mathrm{x}_{0}=a, \mathrm{x}_{1}=\mathrm{x}_{0}+h=\frac{b+a}{2}, \mathrm{x}_{2}=b, \\
& y_{i}=f\left(x_{i}\right) \\
& \int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x \\
& =\frac{h}{3}\left(y_{0}+4 y_{1}+y_{2}\right) \\
& \\
& =\frac{b-a}{6}\left[f(a)+4 f\left(\frac{b+a}{2}\right)+f(b)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

## Composite Simpson's Rule

## Apply the idea of subdivision of intervals into $n$ even number of intervals

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x & =\int_{a}^{x_{2}} f(x) d x+\int_{x_{2}}^{b} f(x) d x \\
& \approx \frac{h}{3}\left[f(a)+4 f\left(x_{1}\right)+f\left(x_{2}\right)\right]+\frac{h}{3}\left[f\left(x_{2}\right)+4 f\left(x_{3}\right)+f(b)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

or

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x \approx \frac{h}{3}\left[f(a)+4 f\left(x_{1}\right)+2 f\left(x_{2}\right)+4 f\left(x_{3}\right)+f(b)\right]
$$

In general, for n even, $\mathrm{h}=(\mathrm{b}-\mathrm{a}) / \mathrm{n}$ and Simpson's rule is given by:

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x \approx \frac{h}{3}\left[f(a)+4 f\left(x_{1}\right)+2 f\left(x_{2}\right)+4 f\left(x_{3}\right)+2 f\left(x_{4}\right)+\ldots+2 f\left(x_{n-2}\right)+4 f\left(x_{n-1}\right)+f(b)\right]
$$

## Ex: Approximating Pi/4

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Approximating } \pi / 4: \quad \int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{1+\mathrm{x}^{2}} d x=\arctan (1)=\frac{\pi}{4} \\
& f(x)=\frac{1}{1+\mathrm{x}^{2}}, \quad a=0, \quad \mathrm{~b}=1, \quad \mathrm{~h}=1 / 2 \\
& \int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{1+\mathrm{x}^{2}} d x \approx \frac{1}{6}\left[f(0)+4 f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)+f(1)\right]=\frac{1}{6}\left[\frac{1}{1}+(4) \frac{4}{5}+\frac{1}{2}\right]=\frac{47}{60} \approx 0.78333
\end{aligned}
$$

The exact solution for Pi/4 gives 0.78539816339745

## Ex: Approximating Pi/4, Trapezoid

>> I=funtrapezoid(inline('(1+x^2)^-1'), $0,1,4$ )
$I=0.78279411764706$
function $\mathrm{I}=$ funtrapezoid (f,a,b,n)
\%Finds integral of a function $f$ on the interval $[a, b]$ \%with n subintervals
\%Adopted from Fausett 2nd Ed., pg. 418 h=(b-a)/n; $\quad S=f(a)$;
for $\mathrm{i}=1$ : $\mathrm{n}-1$,

$$
x(i)=a+h * i ; \quad S=S+2 * f(x(i)) ;
$$

end

$$
\mathrm{S}=\mathrm{S}+\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{~b}) ; \quad \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{h} * \mathrm{~S} / 2 ;
$$

## Ex: Approximating Pi/4, Composite Simpson

$\gg \mathrm{I}=$ funsimpson(inline('(1+x^2)^-1'), $0,1,4$ )
$I=0.78539215686274$
function I=funsimpson(f,a,b,n)
\%Finds integral of a function $f$ on the interval $[a, b]$ \%with $n$ subintervals ( n must be even)
\%Adopted from Fausett 2nd Ed., pg. 418
$\mathrm{h}=(\mathrm{b}-\mathrm{a}) / \mathrm{n} ; \quad \mathrm{S}=\mathrm{feval}(\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{a})$;
for $\mathrm{i}=1: 2: n-1, \quad x(i)=a+h * i ; \quad S=S+4 *$ feval $(f, x(i))$; end
for $\mathrm{i}=2: 2: \mathrm{n}-2, \quad \mathrm{x}(\mathrm{i})=\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{h} * \mathrm{i} ; \quad \mathrm{S}=\mathrm{S}+2 *$ feval(f, $\mathrm{x}(\mathrm{i}))$; end
$\mathrm{S}=\mathrm{S}+\mathrm{feval}(\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{b}) ; \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{h} * \mathrm{~S} / 3$;

## Newton-Cotes Open Formulas

Simplest examples of Newton-Cotes closed formulas $\rightarrow$ Trapezoid and Simpson rules: Use function evaluations at the end points of the interval of integration

The Midpoint Rule
$\rightarrow$ If we use function evaluations at points within the interval, say $x_{m}=(a+b) / 2$, then we get the midpoint rule:

Assuming that $f$ is twice continuously differentiable, the midpoint rule with error is given as: $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=(b-a) f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)+\frac{(b-a)^{3}}{24} f^{\prime \prime}(\eta), \quad$ for some $\eta \in[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}]$

## Ex: The Midpoint rule

Using the midpoint rule to to approximate the integral: $S=\int_{0}^{\pi} \frac{\sin (x)}{x} d x$ gives:

$$
\int_{0}^{\pi} \frac{\sin (x)}{x} d x \approx \pi \frac{\sin (\pi / 2)}{\pi / 2}=\pi \frac{1}{\pi / 2}=2
$$



## Derivatives

Numerical differentiation: Finding estimates for the derivative (slope) of a function by evaluating the function at only a set of discrete points
Simplest difference formulas to approximate the derivative of a function are based on using a straight line to interpolate the given data (i.e. using two data-points)
First derivative, forward difference formula $f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) \approx \frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-f\left(x_{i}\right)}{x_{i+1}-x_{i}}$
First derivative, backward difference formula $f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) \approx \frac{f\left(x_{i}\right)-f\left(x_{i-1}\right)}{x_{i}-x_{i-1}}$
First derivative, central difference formula $f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)=\frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-f\left(x_{i-1}\right)}{x_{i+1}-x_{i-1}}$
Second derivative, central difference formula $f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{i}\right)=\frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-2 f\left(x_{i}\right)+f\left(x_{i-1}\right)}{h^{2}}$ $h=x_{i}-x_{i-1}$

## Numerical Differentiation

Numerical differentiation is more difficult than numerical integration: Why?
$\rightarrow$ Small changes in a function can create large changes in its slope

If data to be differentiated are obtained experimentally, the best approach is to:
Find a least-squares fit to the data $\rightarrow$ Use MATLAB®'s function polyfit $(x, y, n)$ to find the coefficients of the polynomial of degree $n$ that best fits the data in the leastsquares sense

- Then differentiate the approximating function


## MATLAB® Commands: Differentiation

P=polyfit( $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{n}$ )
\%Finds the coefficients of the polynomial of degree $n$ that best fits the data in the least squares sense
polyval( $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{x}$ )
\%evaluates the polynomial P at x
polyder(P)
\%differentiates polynomial P
diff(x)
\%forward or backward difference approximation to dy/dx

## MATLAB® Commands: Integration

## trapz( $\mathbf{x}, \mathrm{y}$ )

\%uses composite trapezoid rule for the data points given in vectors $x$ and $y$ (with unit spacing)
To compute the integral for spacing other than one, multiply $Z$ by the spacing increment
Input $Y$ can be complex

- If $Y$ is a vector, trapz $(Y)$ is the integral of $Y$.
- If $Y$ is a matrix, trapz $(Y)$ is a row vector with the integral over each column.
- If $Y$ is a multidimensional array, trapz(Y) works across the first nonsingleton dimension.


## Ex: trapz

On a uniformly spaced grid:
>> X1 = 0:pi/100:pi; Y1 = sin(X1);
>> Z1=trapz(X1,Y1), Z2= pi/100*trapz(Y1)
Z1 = 1.99983550388744
$Z 2=1.99983550388744$

Creating a nonuniformly spaced grid:
$\gg X=\operatorname{sort}(r a n d(1,101) * \mathrm{pi}) ; \quad Y=\sin (X)$;
>> Z = trapz(X,Y);
$Z=1.99806848802083$
The result is not as accurate as the uniformly spaced grid

## MATLAB® Commands: Integration

quad Use adaptive Simpson quadrature quadl Use adaptive Lobatto quadrature quadv Vectorized quadrature dblquad Numerically evaluate double integral triplequad Numerically evaluate triple integral

## MATLAB® Commands: Integration

$\mathrm{Q}=\mathrm{quad}\left(\mathrm{'}^{\prime} \mathrm{f}^{\prime}, \mathrm{xmin}, \mathrm{xmax}\right)$
$\mathrm{Q}=\mathrm{quadl}\left(\mathrm{'}^{\prime}, \mathrm{xmin}, x m a x\right.$ )
\%evaluate function $f$ at whatever points are necessary to achieve accurate results
' $f$ ' is a string containing the name of the function

## Ex: Quad

\% using quad or quadl to
\% compute the length of a curve $\mathrm{t}=0: 0.1: 3 * \mathrm{pi}$;
\% plot of the parameterizing
\% equations gives:
plot3 $(\sin (2 * t), \cos (\mathrm{t}), \mathrm{t})$
\% The arc length formula says the
\% length of the curve is the integral
$\%$ of the norm of the derivatives of

\% the parameterized equations
$\mathrm{f}=$ inline('sqrt( $\left.\left.4^{*} \cos (2 * \mathrm{t}) . \wedge 2+\sin (\mathrm{t}) . \wedge 2+1\right)^{\prime}\right)$;
\% Integrating this function with
\% a call to quad
len $=$ quad $(f, 0,3 *$ pi)

## len $=17.22203188956838$

## MATLAB® Commands: Double Integration

$\mathrm{q}=\mathrm{dblquad}($ fun, xm min,xmax,ymin,ymax)
$\mathrm{q}=\mathrm{dblquad}($ fun, $x$ min, xmax,ymin,ymax,tol)
$\mathrm{q}=\mathrm{dblquad}($ fun,xmin,xmax,ymin,ymax,tol,method)

- calls the quad function to evaluate the double integral fun $(x, y)$ over the rectangle $x$ min $<=x<=$ xmax, ymin <= y <= ymax
- fun is a function handle
- method specifies the quadrature function, instead of the default quad. Valid values for method are @quadl or the function handle of a user-defined quadrature method that has the same calling sequence as quad and quadl


## MATLAB® Commands: Double Integration

>>dblquad(@(x,y)sqrt(1-
(x.^2+y.^2)).*(x.^2+y.^2<=1),-1,1,-1,1)
ans $=2.0944$
$\gg F=@(x, y) y^{*} \sin (x)+x^{*} \cos (y) ;$
$\gg \mathrm{Q}=$ dblquad(F,pi,2*pi,0,pi)
$\mathrm{Q}=-9.8696$

