Lecture 12 Numerical Differentiation and Integration Numerical Integration-The Trapezoidal Rule

Ceng375 Numerical Computations at January 06, 2011

Dr. Cem Özdoğan Computer Engineering Department Çankaya University

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• If we are working with experimental data that are displayed in a table of $[x, f(x)]$ pairs emulation of calculus is **impossible**.

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- We must **approximate** the function behind the data in some way.

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	- Employs the interpolating polynomials to derive formulas for getting derivatives.

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- If we are working with experimental data that are displayed in a table of $[x, f(x)]$ pairs emulation of calculus is **impossible**.
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- **Differentiation with a Computer:**
	- Employs the interpolating polynomials to derive formulas for getting derivatives.
	- These can be applied to functions known explicitly as well as those whose values are found in a table.
- **Numerical Integration-The Trapezoidal Rule:**
	- Approximates, the integrand function with a *linear* interpolating polynomial to derive a very simple but important formula for numerically integrating functions between given limits.

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• We continue to exploit the useful properties of polynomials to develop methods for a computer to do **integrations** and to find **derivatives**.

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- When the function is explicitly known, we can emulate the methods of calculus.

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- We continue to exploit the useful properties of polynomials to develop methods for a computer to do **integrations** and to find **derivatives**.
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- But doing so in getting derivatives requires the *subtraction* of quantities that are nearly equal and that runs into **round-off** error.

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- However, integration involves only addition, so round-off is not problem.

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- But doing so in getting derivatives requires the *subtraction* of quantities that are nearly equal and that runs into **round-off** error.
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- We cannot often find the true answer numerically because the analytical value is the limit of the sum of an infinite number of terms.

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- We continue to exploit the useful properties of polynomials to develop methods for a computer to do **integrations** and to find **derivatives**.
- When the function is explicitly known, we can emulate the methods of calculus.
- But doing so in getting derivatives requires the *subtraction* of quantities that are nearly equal and that runs into **round-off** error.
- However, integration involves only addition, so round-off is not problem.
- We cannot often find the true answer numerically because the analytical value is the limit of the sum of an infinite number of terms.
- We must be satisfied with approximations for both derivatives and integrals but, for most applications, the **numerical answer is adequate**.

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• The derivative of a function, $f(x)$ at $x = a$, is defined as

$$
\frac{df}{dx}|_{x=a} = lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(a + \Delta x) - f(a)}{\Delta x}
$$

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• This is called a **forward-difference** approximation.

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- The limit could be approached from the opposite direction, giving a **backward-difference** approximation.

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- **Forward-difference** approximation. A computer can calculate an approximation to the derivative, if a very small value is used for ∆x.

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• Recalculating with smaller and smaller values of x starting from an initial value.

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- Recalculating with smaller and smaller values of x starting from an initial value.
- What happens if the value is not small enough?

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• Because round-off errors in the numerator will become great as x approaches zero.

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- We should expect to find an **optimal value** for x.
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- When we try this for

 $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$

at $x = 1.9$. The analytical answer is 4.1653826.

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• Starting with $\Delta x = 0.05$ and halving Δx each time. Table [1](#page-26-0) gives the results.

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- Starting with $\Delta x = 0.05$ and halving Δx each time. Table [1](#page-26-0) gives the results.
- We find that the errors of the approximation decrease as Δx is reduced until about $\Delta x = 0.05/128$.

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Table: Forward-difference approximations for $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$.

• Notice that each successive error is about 1/2 of the

which time round off affects the ratio.

previous error as ∆x is halved until ∆x gets quite small, **at**

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- Notice that each successive error is about 1/2 of the previous error as ∆x is halved until ∆x gets quite small, **at which time round off affects the ratio**.
- At values for ∆x smaller than 0.05/128, the error of the approximation increases due to round off.

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- At values for ∆x smaller than 0.05/128, the error of the approximation increases due to round off.
- In effect, the best value for ∆x is **when the effects of round-off and truncation errors are balanced**.

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- If a backward-difference approximation is used; similar results are obtained.

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- In effect, the best value for ∆x is **when the effects of round-off and truncation errors are balanced**.
- If a backward-difference approximation is used; similar results are obtained.
- **Backward-difference** approximation.

$$
\frac{df}{dx}|_{x=a} = \frac{f(a) - f(a - \Delta x)}{\Delta x}
$$

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With MATLAB. **Analytical answer** to the function of Table [1.](#page-26-0)

```
format long;
syms x;
f='exp(x)*sin(x);
df = diff(f, x)\texttt{exactvalue} = \texttt{subs}(\texttt{df}, 1.9, 'x')
```
With MATLAB. **Numerical answer** to the function of Table [1.](#page-26-0)

```
%%%Forward-Difference%%%%%
disp('Step
                        Numerical
                                                  Error<sup>7</sup>)
               T = 1Error
disp('Batio')
                        Derivative
x=1.9:
delini=1error(1)=1;for i=1:30de1 = de1in1/2:
xplus=x+del;
f = exp(x) . sin(x);
fplus=exp(xplus).*sin(xplus);
num = fplus - f;
deriv=num/del;error(i+1)=deriv-exactvalue;
[D]=sprintf('%2d %1.15f %12.10f %12.10f %f ', i, del, deriv, error(i),
                                          error(i)/error(i+1));
disp(D);delini=del;
end
```
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• It is not by chance that the errors are about **halved each time**.

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- It is not by chance that the errors are about **halved each time**.
- Look at this Taylor series where we have used h for Δx :

 $f(x+h) = f(x) + f'(x) * h + f''(\xi) * h^2/2$

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f(x + h) = f(x) + f'(x) * h + f''(\xi) * h^2/2
$$

• Where the last term is the error term. The value of ξ is at some point between x and $x + h$.

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f(x + h) = f(x) + f'(x) * h + f''(\xi) * h^2/2
$$

- Where the last term is the error term. The value of ξ is at some point between x and $x + h$.
- If we solve this equation for $f'(x)$, we get

$$
f'(x) = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} - f''(\xi) * \frac{h}{2}
$$

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(1)

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- Where the last term is the error term. The value of ξ is at some point between x and $x + h$.
- If we solve this equation for $f'(x)$, we get

$$
f'(x) = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} - f''(\xi) * \frac{h}{2}
$$
 (1)

• Which shows that the errors should be about proportional to h, precisely what Table [1](#page-26-0) shows.

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 (1)

- Which shows that the errors should be about proportional to h, precisely what Table [1](#page-26-0) shows.
- If we repeat this but begin with the Taylor series for $f(x - h)$, it turns out that

$$
f'(x)=\frac{f(x)-f(x-h)}{h}+f''(\zeta)*\frac{h}{2}
$$

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(2)

- It is not by chance that the errors are about **halved each time**.
- Look at this Taylor series where we have used h for Δx :

$$
f(x + h) = f(x) + f'(x) * h + f''(\xi) * h^2/2
$$

- Where the last term is the error term. The value of ξ is at some point between x and $x + h$.
- If we solve this equation for $f'(x)$, we get

$$
f'(x) = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} - f''(\xi) * \frac{h}{2}
$$
 (1)

- Which shows that the errors should be about proportional to h, precisely what Table [1](#page-26-0) shows.
- If we repeat this but begin with the Taylor series for $f(x - h)$, it turns out that

$$
f'(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x - h)}{h} + f''(\zeta) * \frac{h}{2}
$$
 (2)

• Where ζ is between x and $x - h$.

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• The two error terms of Eqs. 1 and 2 are not identical though both are $O(h)$.

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- The two error terms of Eqs. 1 and 2 are not identical though both are $O(h)$.
- If we add Eqs. 1 and 2, then divide by 2, we get the **central-difference** approximation to the derivative:

$$
f'(x) = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x-h)}{2h} - f'''(\xi) * \frac{h^2}{6}
$$

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(3)

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• We had to extend the two Taylor series by an additional term to get the error **because the** f ′′(x) **terms cancel**.

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$$
 (3)

$$
\frac{F^{(1)}(x-n)}{h} - f'''(\xi) * \frac{F^{(2)}(x-n)}{6}
$$

- We had to extend the two Taylor series by an additional term to get the error **because the** f ′′(x) **terms cancel**.
- This shows that using a central-difference approximation is a much preferred way to estimate the derivative.

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 (

$$
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- We had to extend the two Taylor series by an additional term to get the error **because the** f ′′(x) **terms cancel**.
- This shows that using a central-difference approximation is a much preferred way to estimate the derivative.
- Even though we use the same number of computations of the function at each step,
- we approach the answer **much more rapidly**.

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With MATLAB,

```
%%%Central-Difference%%%
disp('Step
                   n-1Numerical
                                                 Error
                                                              Error<sup>7</sup>)
disp('Derivative
                                                              Ratio')
                                                                              Numerical
disp('-----Differentiation and
x=1.9:
                                                                              Integration with a
delini=0.1Computer
                                                                               Differentiation with a
error(1)=1;
                                                                               Computer
for i=1:20Numerical Integration - The
                                                                               Trapezoidal Rule
 del = delini/2;The Trapezoidal Rule
 xplus=x+del;
                                                                                The Composite
 xminus=x-del;
                                                                                Trapezoidal Rule
 fplus=exp(xplus).*sin(xplus);
 fminus=exp(xminus).*sin(xminus);
 num=fplus-fminus;
 deriv=num/(2*del);error(i+1)=<i>deriv-exactvalue</i>[D]=sprintf('%2d %1.15f %12.10f %12.10f %f ', i, del, deriv, error(i),
                                                    error(i)/error(i+1));
 disp(D);delini=del;
end
```
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Table [2](#page-48-0) illustrates this, showing that errors decrease about four fold when ∆x is halved (as Eq. 3 predicts) and that a more accurate value is obtained.

Table: Central-difference approximations for $f(x) = e^x \sin(x)$.

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• Given the function, f(x), the **antiderivative** is a function $F(x)$ such that $F'(x) = f(x)$.

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- Given the function, f(x), the **antiderivative** is a function $F(x)$ such that $F'(x) = f(x)$.
- The definite integral

$$
\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)
$$

can be evaluated from the antiderivative.

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$$

can be evaluated from the antiderivative.

• Still, there are functions that do not have an antiderivative expressible in terms of ordinary functions.

```
>> syms x
\gg int (exp(x)/log(x))
Warning: Explicit integral could not be found.
> In sym.int at 58
ans = int(exp(x)/log(x),x)
```
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```
• Is there any way that the definite integral can be found when the antiderivative is unknown?

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• We can do it numerically by using the **composite trapezoidal rule**

```
>> fx(i)=exp(x(i))/log(x(i))
>> x = 1inspace (2, 3, 10);
>> for i=1:10fx(i) = exp(x(i)) / log(x(i));end\gg result=fx(1)+fx(10);
>> for i=2:9result = result + 2 * fx(i);end
>> result=(((3-2)/(10-1))/2)*result
%%%result=(0.1111/2)*result
result = 13.6904
```
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and the x-axis.

• The definite integral is the area between the curve of $f(x)$

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- The definite integral is the area between the curve of $f(x)$ and the x-axis.
- That is the principle behind all numerical integration;

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[The Trapezoidal Rule](#page-58-0)

- The definite integral is the area between the curve of $f(x)$ and the x-axis.
- That is the principle behind all numerical integration;
- We divide the distance from $x = a$ to $x = b$ into **vertical strips** and add the areas of these strips.

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- That is the principle behind all numerical integration;
- We divide the distance from $x = a$ to $x = b$ into **vertical strips** and add the areas of these strips.
- The strips are often made equal in widths but that is not always required.

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Figure: The trapezoidal rule.

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• Approximate the curve with a sequence of straight lines.

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- Approximate the curve with a sequence of straight lines.
- In effect, we slope the top of the strips to match with the curve as best we can.

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- Approximate the curve with a sequence of straight lines.
- In effect, we slope the top of the strips to match with the curve as best we can.
- We are approximating the curve with interpolating polynomials of degree-1.

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- $\bullet\,$ It is clear that the area of the strip from x_i to x_{i+1} gives an approximation to the area under the curve:

$$
\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x) dx \approx \frac{f_i + f_{i+1}}{2} (x_{i+1} - x_i)
$$

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• We will usually write $h = (x_{i+1} - x_i)$ for the width of the interval.

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- We will usually write $h = (x_{i+1} x_i)$ for the width of the interval.
- Error term for the trapezoidal integration is

 $Error = -(1/12)h^3f''(\xi) = O(h^3)$

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• What happens, if we are getting the integral of a known function over a larger span of x-values, say, from $x = a$ to $x = h$?

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• We subdivide [a,b] into *n* smaller intervals with $\Delta x = h$, apply the rule to each subinterval, and add.

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$$
\int_a^b \approx \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{h}{2}(f_i + f_{i+1}) = \frac{h}{2}(f_0 + 2f_1 + 2f_2 + \ldots + 2f_{n-1} + f_n)
$$

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• The error is not the local error $O(h^3)$ but the global error, the sum of n local errors:

Global error = $(-1/12)h^3[f''(\xi_1) + f''(\xi_2) + ... + f''(\xi_n)]$

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- In this equation, each of the ξ_i is somewhere within each subinterval.
- If $f''(x)$ is continuous in [a, b], there is some point within [a,b] at which the sum of the $f''(\xi_i)$ is equal to $nf''(\xi)$, where ξ in [a, b].

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- If $f''(x)$ is continuous in [a, b], there is some point within [a,b] at which the sum of the $f''(\xi_i)$ is equal to $nf''(\xi)$, where ξ in [a, b].
- We then see that, because $nh = (b a)$,

Global error =
$$
(-1/12)h^3 n f''(\xi) = \frac{-(b-a)}{12}h^2 f''(\xi) = O(h^2)
$$

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• **Example:** Given the values for x and $f(x)$ in Tabl[e3.](#page-73-0)

Table: Example for the trapezoidal rule.

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• Example: Given the values for x and $f(x)$ in Tabl[e3.](#page-73-0)

Table: Example for the trapezoidal rule.

• Use the trapezoidal rule to estimate the integral from $x = 1.8$ to $x = 3.4$.

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• Example: Given the values for x and $f(x)$ in Tabl[e3.](#page-73-0)

Table: Example for the trapezoidal rule.

- Use the trapezoidal rule to estimate the integral from $x = 1.8$ to $x = 3.4$.
- Applying the trapezoidal rule:

 $\int_{1.8}^{3.4} f(x) dx \approx \frac{0.2}{2} [6.050 + 2(7.389) + 2(9.025) + 2(11.023)$ $+2(13.464) + 2(16.445) + 2(20.086) + 2(24.533)$ $+29.964$] = 23.9944

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• The data in Table [3](#page-73-0) are for $f(x) = e^x$ and the true value is $e^{3.4} - e^{1.8} = 23.9144.$

$$
Error = -\frac{1}{12}h^3 n f''(\xi), 1.8 \le \xi \le 3.4
$$

= -\frac{1}{12}(0.2)^3(8) * \begin{cases} e^{1.8} (max) \\ e^{3.4} (min) \end{cases} = \begin{cases} -0.0323 (max) \\ -0.1598 (min) \end{cases}

Alternatively,

$$
Error = -\frac{1}{12}(0.2)^2(3.4 - 1.8) * \begin{cases} e^{1.8} & (max) \\ e^{3.4} & (min) \end{cases} = \begin{cases} -0.0323 & (max) \\ -0.1598 & (min) \end{cases}
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- The data in Table [3](#page-73-0) are for $f(x) = e^x$ and the true value is $e^{3.4} - e^{1.8} = 23.9144.$
- The trapezoidal rule value is off by 0.08; there are three digits of accuracy.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}\n\text{Error} &= -\frac{1}{12} h^3 n f''(\xi), \ 1.8 \le \xi \le 3.4 \\
&= -\frac{1}{12} (0.2)^3 (8) * \left\{ \begin{array}{l} e^{1.8} \quad (max) \\ e^{3.4} \quad (min) \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} -0.0323 \quad (max) \\ -0.1598 \quad (min) \end{array} \right.\n\end{array}
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- How does this compare to the estimated error?

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$$

• The actual error was −0.080. It is reasonable since the value is in the error bounds.

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Last Words

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Thanks for attending and listening.