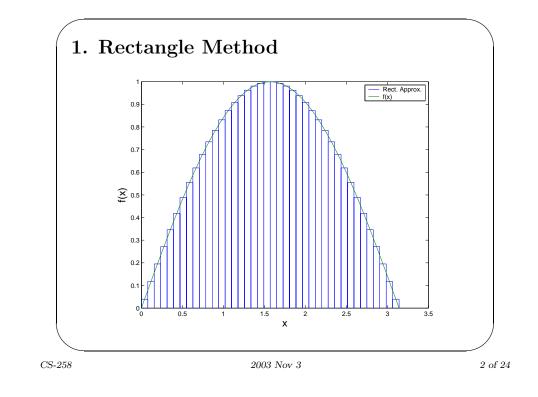
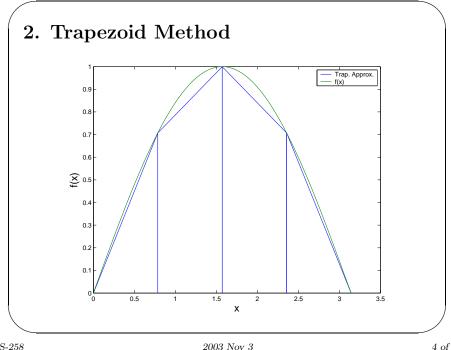


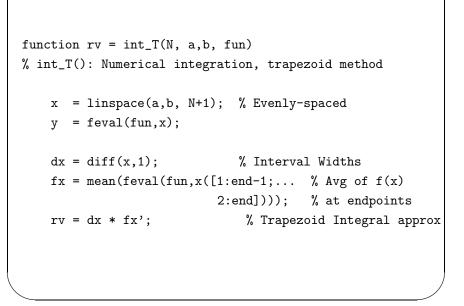
dx = diff(x,1);	% Interval Widths
mx = x(1:end-1)+dx/2;	% Interval Midpoints
<pre>fx = feval(fun,mx);</pre>	% F(x) at midpoints

rv = dx * fx';% Rectangle Integral approx





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$$I(0, \pi/2, \sin) = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin(x) dx$$

= $-\cos(\pi/2) + \cos(0)$
= 1
$$N = 2 \quad 4 \quad 6 \quad 8 \quad 10$$
$$R(N, 0, \pi/2, \sin) = 1.0262 \quad 1.0065 \quad 1.0029 \quad 1.0016 \quad 1.0010$$
$$T(N, 0, \pi/2, \sin) = 0.9481 \quad 0.9871 \quad 0.9943 \quad 0.9481 \quad 0.9979$$

Evidently the Rectangle method is about twice as accurate. Let's see why.

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Consequences of Taylor's Theorem Look at the integral with N = 1 on a short interval $[-\epsilon, \epsilon]$: $f(x) = f(0) + xf'(0) + \frac{1}{2}x^2f''(0) + \frac{1}{6}x^3f'''(0) + O(x^4)$ $f(\pm \epsilon) = f(0) \pm \epsilon f'(0) + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon^2 f''(0) \pm \frac{1}{6}\epsilon^3 f'''(0) + O(\epsilon^4)$ $\int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} f(x) = 2\epsilon f(0) + 0 + \frac{\epsilon^3}{3}f''(0) + 0 + O(\epsilon^5)$ $R(1, f) = 2\epsilon f(0) = 2\epsilon f(0) + O(\epsilon^5)$ $= I(f) - \frac{\epsilon^3}{3}f''(0) + O(\epsilon^5)$ $T(1, f) = \epsilon[f(-\epsilon) + f(\epsilon)] = 2\epsilon f(0) + \epsilon^3 f''(0) + O(\epsilon^5)$ $= I(f) + \frac{2\epsilon^3}{3}f''(0) + O(\epsilon^5)$

Thus R(f) is about twice as good. What if N > 1?

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Simpson's Clever Idea

$$\begin{aligned} R(N,f) &= I(f) - \frac{\epsilon^2}{6} \int_a^b f''(x) \, dx + O(\epsilon^4) \\ T(N,f) &= I(f) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{3} \int_a^b f''(x) \, dx + O(\epsilon^4) \end{aligned}$$

Simpson had the good idea to look at the weighted average $S(N, f) \equiv [2 R(N, f) + T(N, f)]/3$:

$$S(N,f) = I(f) + O(\epsilon^4)$$

How much does it matter whether the error is $O(\epsilon^2)$ or $O(\epsilon^4)$?

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What about d dimensions?

It takes $N \approx \left(\frac{b-a}{dx}\right)^2$ points to fill the square $[a,b]^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ with a grid of points spaced dx apart— so, if we try to approximate the two-dimensional integral

$$I(f) = \int_{a}^{b} \left(\int_{a}^{b} f(x, y) \, dx \right) \, dy$$
$$\approx R \Big(M, a, b, R(M, a, b, f) \Big)$$

by iterating the Rectangle (or Trapezoid) method it will take $N=M^2$ function evaluations to achieve an accuracy of $\delta \propto M^{-1/2}=N^{-1}$, so errors fall off only as 1/N and it takes about $N \approx c \, \delta^{-1}$ evaluations to achieve accuracy δ .

How many evals do we need?

Since $R(N, f) = I(f) + O(\epsilon^2)$ and $T(N, f) = I(f) + O(\epsilon^2)$, with either method we need order $N > \delta^{-1/2}$ function evaluations for the error to be smaller than δ ; for an accuracy of m digits, so that $\delta = 10^{-m}$, the number of evaluations needed (and hence the time to evaluate the integral) grows like $N \approx c \, 10^{m/2}$.

With Simpson's method, $S(N, f) = I(f) + O(\epsilon^4)$ so we need only $N \approx c \, 10^{m/4}$. Look what a difference it makes:

	$\delta =$	0.1	0.01	0.001	10^{-4}	10^{-6}
$R(N,0,\pi/2,\sin)$:	N =	2	4	10	33	321
$T(N,0,\pi/2,\sin)$:	N =	2	5	14	46	454
$S(N,0,\pi/2,\sin)$:	N =	1	1	2	3	7

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Integration in d dimensions

Iterating Simpson's rule

$$\begin{split} I(f) &= \int_{a}^{b} \left(\int_{a}^{b} f(x,y) \, dx \right) \, dy \\ &\approx \quad S \Big(M, a, b, S(M, a, b, f) \Big) \end{split}$$

errors fall off at rate $1/N^2$ so it takes about $N\approx c\,10^{-m/2}$ evaluations to achieve m decimals of precision in 2 dimensions.

In d dimensions it will take $N = M^d$ evaluations to achieve $\delta \propto M^{-4} = N^{-4/d}$ for Simpson's method, so $N \approx 10^{-dm/4}$ evaluations are needed to achieve m decimals of precision. For dimensions d > 5 or 10 this is simply impractical.

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Monte Carlo Integration

If X_i are independent random variables from the uniform $\mathsf{Un}(a,b)$ distribution, then

$$\mathsf{E}[f(X_i)] = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

= $I(f)/(b-a);$

by the Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN),

$$= \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(X_i)$$

Thus we can approximate $I(f) \approx (b-a)\overline{f(X_i)}$; how good is this approximation?

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Stochastic vs. Quadrature

A mazingly, this holds in any number d of dimensions; thus the approximate error

$$|I(f) - (b-a)^d \overline{f(X_i)}| \approx (b-a)^d \sigma / \sqrt{N}$$

falls off like $N^{-1/2}$. This is faster than Simpson's method if $N^{-1/4} \leq N^{-2/d}$, *i.e.*, d > 7, and is faster than the Rectangle or Trapezoid method if d > 3.

Central Limit Theorem

The random variables $Y_i = f(X_i)$ are independent with means and variances

$$\mu = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \frac{I(f)}{b-a};$$

$$\sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_{a}^{b} (f(x) - \mu)^{2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{b-a} \int_{a}^{b} f(x)^{2} dx - \mu^{2} = \frac{I(f^{2})}{b-a} - \frac{I(f)^{2}}{(b-a)^{2}}.$$

By the Central Limit Theorem (CLT),

$$\overline{f(X_i)} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(X_i) \approx \operatorname{No}(\mu, \sigma^2/N).$$

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Free lunch?

Does this *really* work in *any* number *d* of dimensions? Statisticians must integrate functions in **hundreds** of dimensions; does Monte Carlo make this practical?

"Not yet" is a good answer... the constant σ in the error bound

$$|I(f) - (b-a)^d \overline{f(X_i)}| \approx \sigma (b-a)^d N^{-1/2}$$

can be huge.