

## GENERALIZATIONS OF MIDPOINT RULES

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**ABSTRACT.** A midpoint rule proposed by Jagermann and improved upon by Stetter is generalized to Hermite-type quadrature rules and to first degree cubature rules. Remainder terms are included in both cases.

**1. Introduction.** This note contains two types of generalizations of a midpoint rule proposed by Jagermann [1] and improved upon by Stetter [3]. The first generalization involves a Hermite type of midpoint rule and is discussed in §2. The second generalization concerns cubature rules for a function of two variables and is in §3. In both cases, error terms are included, from which asymptotic estimates can be derived.

**2. Hermite-type midpoint rules.** The integral to be approximated is  $\int_a^b p(x)f(x)dx$ , where  $p(x) \geq 0$ ,  $p(x)$  does not vanish identically on any subinterval of  $[a, b]$ , and  $\int_a^b p(x)dx = 1$ , Stetter [3] has proved the following:

Let  $N \geq 1$  and

$$S_N(f) \equiv \int_a^b p(x)f(x)dx - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f(a_i),$$

where  $a_i = N \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} tp(t)dt$ ,  $i = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$ , and the  $x_i$ ,  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_N = b$ , are chosen so that  $1/N = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)dx$ . Then  $S_N(f) = \frac{1}{2} S_N(x^2)f''(\epsilon)$ ,  $a < \epsilon < b$ .

We generalize this theorem as follows:

**THEOREM 1.** *Let*

$$R_N^{(1)}(f) \equiv \int_a^b p(x)f(x)dx - \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f(a_i) + \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} E_i(x)f'(a_i) \right],$$

where  $p(x)$  is as above,

$$E_i(x) = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} xp(x)dx - a_i/N$$

and the  $a_i$  are chosen so that

$$\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)(x - a_i)^2 dx = 0.$$

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Then

$$R_N^{(1)}(f) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x) f^{(3)}(\epsilon_i(x)) (x - a_i)^{(3)} dx,$$

where  $x_i < \epsilon_i(x) < x_{i+1}$  and  $(x - a_i)^{(k)} \equiv (x - a_i)^k/k!$ ,  $k$  a positive integer.

PROOF. First,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f(a_i) + f'(a_i)(x - a_i) + f''(a_i)(x - a_i)^{(2)} \\ &\quad + f^{(3)}(\epsilon_i(x))(x - a_i)^{(3)} \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x) f(x) dx &= \frac{f(a_i)}{N} + f'(a_i) \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)(x - a_i) dx \\ &\quad + \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x) f^{(3)}(\epsilon_i(x))(x - a_i)^{(3)} dx. \end{aligned}$$

A summation of the last equation on  $i$  from 0 to  $N - 1$  completes the proof. Q.E.D.

We remark that Stetter's choice of the  $a_i$  was made so that

$$\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)(x - a_i) dx = 0.$$

His definition of the  $x_i$  was the same as the above.

The definition of  $a_i$  given above is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} a_i &= \left[ \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} xp(x) dx \pm \left\{ \left[ \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} xp(x) dx \right]^2 \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. - \left[ \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x) dx \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} x^2 p(x) dx \right] \right\}^{1/2} \right] / \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

and it follows that the two possible values of  $a_i$  are both complex numbers. Either possible value may be used, but the function  $f$  must now be analytic at the  $a_i$ .

The remainder term  $R_N^{(1)}$  cannot in general be simplified because the factor  $(x - a_i)^{(3)}$  can be of variable sign. However this can be remedied as follows:

**THEOREM 2.** *Let*

$$R_N^{(2)}(f) \equiv \int_a^b p(x)f(x)dx - \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \left[ \frac{f(a_i)}{N} + A_i f'(a_i) + B_i f''(a_i) \right],$$

where the  $x_i$  are as before and the  $a_i$  are chosen so that

$$\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)(x - a_i)^3 dx = 0, \quad A_i = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)(x - a_i) dx,$$

and

$$B_i = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)(x - a_i)^{(2)} dx.$$

Then  $R_N^{(2)}(f) = f^{(4)}(\epsilon)R_N^{(2)}(x^{(4)})$ ,  $a < \epsilon < b$ .

**PROOF.** Now

$$f(x) = f(a_i) + f'(a_i)(x - a_i) + f''(a_i)(x - a_i)^{(2)} + f^{(3)}(a_i)(x - a_i)^{(3)} + f^{(4)}(\epsilon_i(x))(x - a_i)^{(4)}.$$

Multiplication of this equation by  $p(x)$ , integration from  $x_i$  to  $x_{i+1}$ , and summation on  $i$  from 0 to  $N - 1$  yields the desired quadrature sum. The remainder term is

$$\begin{aligned} R_N^{(2)}(f) &= \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)f^{(4)}(\epsilon_i(x))(x - a_i)^{(4)} dx \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f^{(4)}(\epsilon_i) \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)(x - a_i)^{(4)} dx \\ &= f^{(4)}(\epsilon) \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)(x - a_i)^{(4)} dx \end{aligned}$$

by the application of the two mean value theorems. Finally, if  $R_N^{(2)}(f) = f^{(4)}(\epsilon)C_N$ ,  $C_N$  a constant, then  $C_N = R_N^{(2)}(x^{(4)})$  by inspection. Q.E.D.

The deeper reason that  $R_N^{(2)}(f)$  has a simpler form than  $R_N^{(1)}(f)$  is that the Peano kernel is of one sign for  $R_N^{(2)}(f)$ .

Since  $a_i$  in Theorem 2 must satisfy a cubic equation, there are three possible choices for  $a_i$ . At least one of these is real and it must be in  $(x_i, x_{i+1})$  since, if not, the conditions on  $p$  imply that  $\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x)(x - a_i)^3 dx = 0$  is impossible. Although Theorem 2 is

true for all three choices, the real root is the one that should be used. The fact that there is a real root for  $a_i$  makes Theorem 2 an improvement over Theorem 1. Also  $f$  need only be in  $C^4[a, b]$  for Theorem 2 rather than analytic as in Theorem 1.

We remark that Theorems 1 and 2 can, of course, be generalized to higher-order rules.

**3. Cubature midpoint rules.** We discuss two cubatures to approximate the integral  $\int_a^b \int_c^d p(x, y) f(x, y) dy dx$ ,  $p(x, y) \cong 0$  and  $> 0$  except on a set of measure zero. The triangular Taylor's expansion is the following [2]:

$$(1) \quad \begin{aligned} f(x, y) = & f(a_i, b_j) + f_{1,0}(a_i, b_j)(x - a_i) + f_{0,1}(a_i, b_j)(y - b_j) \\ & + \frac{1}{2} [f_{2,0}(\epsilon, \eta)(x - a_i)^2 + 2f_{1,1}(\epsilon, \eta)(x - a_i)(y - b_j) \\ & + f_{0,2}(\epsilon, \eta)(y - b_j)^2], \end{aligned}$$

$\epsilon$  between  $x$  and  $a_i$  and  $\eta$  dually. We must assume that there exist  $x_i$  and  $y_j$  such that

$$(2) \quad \frac{1}{MN} = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} \int_{y_j}^{y_{j+1}} p(x, y) dy dx.$$

(In the case of functions of one variable,  $\{x_i\}$  such that  $1/M = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x) dx$  exist because the positivity of  $p(x)$  ensures the existence of the appropriate inverse function. Cf. [3].) A special case in which the above always holds is if  $p(x, y) = p_1(x)p_2(y)$  where  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  are both  $\cong 0$  and  $> 0$  except on a set of measure zero. However, there are examples in which equation (2) holds and  $p(x, y)$  is not of the form  $p_1(x)p_2(y)$ . Such an example can be constructed as follows: On each subrectangle  $[x_i, x_{i+1}] \times [y_j, y_{j+1}]$ , let  $p(x, y)$  be a pyramid that is zero on the boundary of the subrectangle and has positive height  $h_{ij}$  such that (2) obtains. Specifically, for the rectangle  $[-1, 1] \times [-1, 1]$ ,  $p(x, y)$  is defined in the figure below.

Thus (2) is equivalent to the following:

$$1/MN = [(x_{i+1} - x_i)(y_{j+1} - y_j)h_{ij}]/3,$$

so that

$$h_{ij} = 3/[MN(x_{i+1} - x_i)(y_{j+1} - y_j)].$$

Now we multiply equation (1) by  $p(x, y)$  and integrate from  $x_i$  to  $x_{i+1}$  and  $y_j$  to  $y_{j+1}$ . Since

$$\frac{1}{MN} = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} \int_{y_j}^{y_{j+1}} p(x, y) dy dx$$

the cubature sum

$$\frac{1}{MN} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f(a_i, b_j)$$

is exact for constant functions. Let the  $a_i$  and  $b_j$  be so chosen that

$$\int_{y_j}^{y_{j+1}} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x, y)(x - a_i) dx dy = 0$$

and

$$\int_{y_j}^{y_{j+1}} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x, y)(y - b_j) dx dy = 0,$$

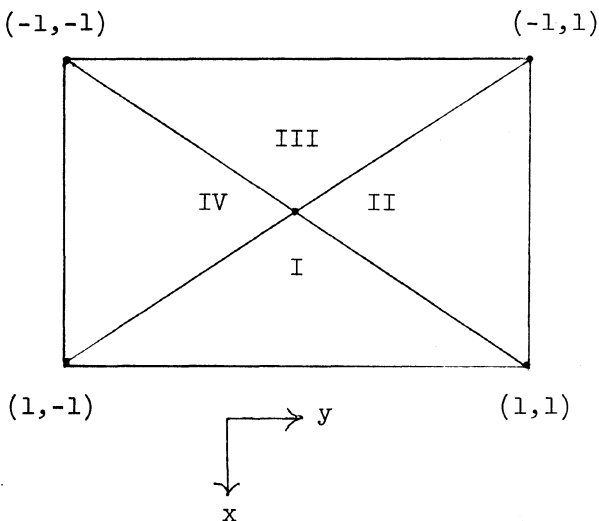
i.e., if

$$I_{ij}(g) \equiv \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} \int_{y_j}^{y_{j+1}} p(x, y)g(x, y) dy dx,$$

then

$$(3) \quad a_i = \frac{\int_{y_j}^{y_{j+1}} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x, y)x dx dy}{\iint p(x, y) dx dy} \equiv \frac{I_{ij}(x)}{I_{ij}(1)} \quad \text{and} \quad b_j = \frac{I_{ij}(y)}{I_{ij}(1)}.$$

$$p(x, y) = \begin{array}{ll} h(1-x) & \text{on I} \\ h(1-y) & \text{on II} \\ h(1+x) & \text{on III} \\ h(1+y) & \text{on IV} \end{array}$$



THEOREM 3. *Let*

$$R_{MN}(f) = \int_a^b \int_c^d p(x, y)f(x, y)dydx - \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f(a_i, b_j),$$

where  $p(x, y)$  is as above, the  $a_i$  and  $b_j$  are as in equation (3) and the  $x_i$  and  $y_j$  as in (2). Then  $R_{MN}(f)$  has the following representations:

$$(4) \quad R_{MN}(f) = f_{2,0}(\bar{\epsilon}, \bar{\eta})R_{MN}(x^{(2)}) + f_{0,2}(\gamma, \delta)R_{MN}(y^{(2)}) \\ + \sum_{i,j} \int_{y_j}^{y_{j+1}} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x, y)f_{1,1}(\epsilon_i(x), \eta_j(y))(x - a_i)(y - b_j)dx dy,$$

$a < \bar{\epsilon}, \gamma < b$  and  $\bar{\eta}, \delta$  dually.

$$(5) \quad R_{MN}(f) = \sum_{i,j} f_{1,1}(a_i, b_j) \\ \cdot \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} \int_{y_j}^{y_{j+1}} p(x, y)(x - a_i)(y - b_j)dy dx \\ + f_{2,0}(\alpha_1, \beta_1)R_{MN}(x^{(2)}) + f_{0,2}(\alpha_2, \beta_2)R_{MN}(y^{(2)}) \\ - f_{2,2}(\alpha_3, \beta_3)R_{MN}(x^{(2)}y^{(2)}),$$

$a < \alpha_i < b, i = 1, 2, 3$  and the  $\beta_i$  dually.

PROOF. 1. Equation (4) follows from (1), since

$$R_{MN}(f) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \left[ \iint p(x, y)f_{2,0}(\epsilon, \eta)(x - a_i)^2 dx dy \right. \\ \left. + 2 \iint p(x, y)f_{1,1}(\epsilon, \eta)(x - a_i)(y - b_j) dx dy \right. \\ \left. + \iint p(x, y)f_{0,2}(\epsilon, \eta)(y - b_j)^2 dx dy \right],$$

where the integrals are over  $[x_i, x_{i+1}] \times [y_j, y_{j+1}]$  and  $\epsilon = \epsilon_i(x)$ ,  $\eta = \eta_j(y)$ . The two mean value theorems can be used on the first and third integrals, but not on the second one. E.g., the first sum becomes  $f_{2,0}(\bar{\epsilon}, \bar{\eta}) \sum_{i,j} I_{ij}[(x - a_i)^{(2)}]$  and this equals  $f_{2,0}(\bar{\epsilon}, \bar{\eta})R_{MN}(x^{(2)})$ , as can be seen by applying  $R_{MN}$  to  $x^{(2)}$ .

2. We could consider the  $f_{1,1}$  terms in (4) as part of the cubature sum, analogous to §2. If not, then it is desirable to get  $f_{1,1}$  outside the integral and this is the motivation for (5).

Use a rectangular Taylor's expansion [2] as follows:

$$f(x, y) = f(a_i, b_j) + f_{1,0}(a_i, b_j)(x - a_i) + f_{0,1}(a_i, b_j)(y - b_j) + f_{1,1}(a_i, b_j)(x - a_i)(y - b_j) + R(f),$$

where

$$R(f) = (x - a_i)^{(2)}f_{2,0}(\epsilon, y) + (y - b_j)^{(2)}f_{0,2}(x, \eta) - (x - a_i)^{(2)}(y - b_j)^{(2)}f_{2,2}(\epsilon, \eta).$$

Multiply by  $p(x, y)$ , integrate over  $[x_i, x_{i+1}] \times [y_j, y_{j+1}]$  and sum on  $i$  and  $j$  to obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \iint pR(f) &= \iint p(x, y)(x - a_i)^{(2)}f_{2,0}(\epsilon(x), y)dx dy \\ &+ \iint p(x, y)(y - b_j)^{(2)}f_{0,2}(x, \eta(y))dx dy \\ &- \iint p(x, y)(x - a_i)^{(2)}(y - b_j)^{(2)}f_{2,2}(\epsilon(x), \eta(y))dx dy. \end{aligned}$$

The application of the two mean value theorems yields the conclusion. Q.E.D.

We remark that the idea used for one variable of using the  $a_i$  to move out further in the Taylor's expansion (e.g., to include  $f'$  terms in the quadrature sum) is not effective for two variables because of the binomial effect inherent in two-dimensional Taylor's expansions.

4. **Example.** Let  $p(x, y) \equiv 1$ ,  $[a, b] = [c, d] = [0, 1]$ . We consider Theorems 1-3 for this case. In Theorem 1,  $x_i = i/N$ ,  $i = 0, \dots, N$ , and

$$a_i = \frac{x_{i+1} + x_i}{2} \pm \frac{x_{i+1} - x_i}{2 \cdot 3^{1/2}} (-1)^{i/2}, \quad i = 0, \dots, N - 1.$$

I.e.,

$$a_i = \frac{2i + 1}{2N} \pm \frac{(-1)^{i/2}}{2 \cdot 3^{1/2} N}.$$

In Theorem 2, the equation for  $a_i$  is the following:

$$\begin{aligned} a_i^3 - 3a_i^2(x_{i+1} + x_i)/2 + a_i(x_{i+1}^2 + x_{i+1}x_i + x_i^2) \\ - (x_{i+1}^3 + x_{i+1}^2 x_i + x_{i+1}x_i^2 + x_i^3) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

If  $N = 1$ , then  $a_0 = 1/2$ , for example.

In Theorem 3, equation (3) can be simplified. In fact, if  $p(x, y) = p_1(x)p_2(y)$ , then  $a_i$  is the same as in [3], i.e.,

$$a_i = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p_1(x) x dx \Big/ \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p_1(x) dx.$$

Then the cubature rule in Theorem 3 is a cross-product rule.

Recalling the notation of §2, we note that, for the above case, Stetter showed that

$$S_N(x^2) = 1/12N^2.$$

The remainder terms in Theorems 1-3 permit us to determine analogous results for the integration rules concerned. Noting the above equation for  $a_i$  in Theorem 1, we see that

$$R_N^{(2)}(f) = O(N^{-3} \|f^{(3)}\|),$$

where norm on  $f^{(3)}$  is the sup norm on  $[0, 1]$ . Similarly, in Theorem 2,

$$R_N^{(2)}(x^{(4)}) = O(N^{-4}),$$

so that

$$R_N^{(2)}(f) = O(N^{-4} \|f^{(4)}\|).$$

In Theorem 3, by the quadrature results, equation (4) yields

$$\begin{aligned} R_{MN}(f) &= O\left(\frac{1}{M^2} \|f_{2,0}\|\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{N^2} \|f_{0,2}\|\right) \\ &\quad + O\left(\frac{1}{MN} \|f_{1,1}\|\right), \end{aligned}$$

where the norm is the sup norm on  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ . Equation (5) yields

$$\begin{aligned} R_{MN}(f) &= O\left(\frac{1}{MN} \|f_{1,1}\|\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{M^2} \|f_{2,0}\|\right) \\ &\quad + O\left(\frac{1}{N^2} \|f_{0,2}\|\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{M^2 N^2} \|f_{2,2}\|\right). \end{aligned}$$

These asymptotic estimates illustrate the idea motivating Theorems 1 and 2, as well as showing a connection between the cubature and quadrature results.

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