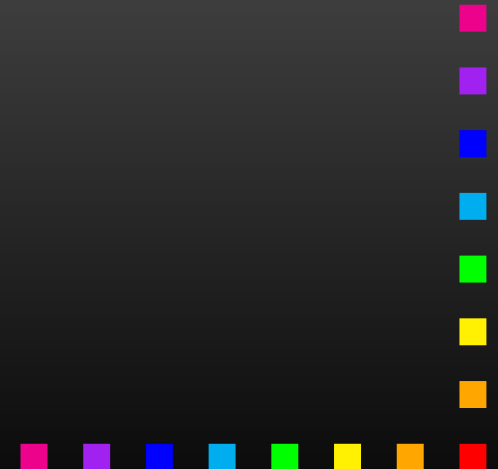


# Thoughts on Numerical Integration

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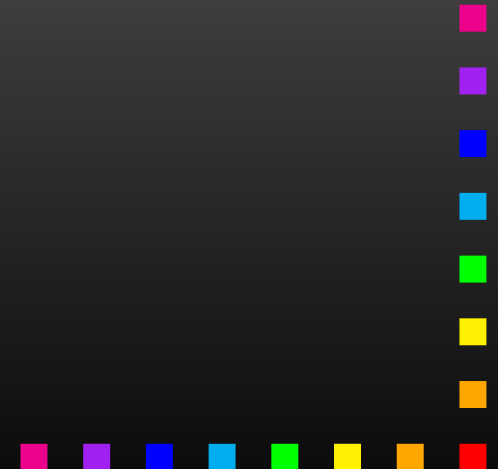


# Restrictions

Integration is a wide field. We will concentrate here on Riemann integrals of the form

$$I f := \int_0^1 d^d x f(\vec{x}) w(\vec{x}).$$

The **Weight Function**  $w(\vec{x})$  is generally known analytically and is used to **absorb characteristics of the integrand** which are difficult to treat otherwise, e.g. peaks or oscillatory behaviour.



# Quadrature Formulas

Task: Find a **Quadrature Formula**

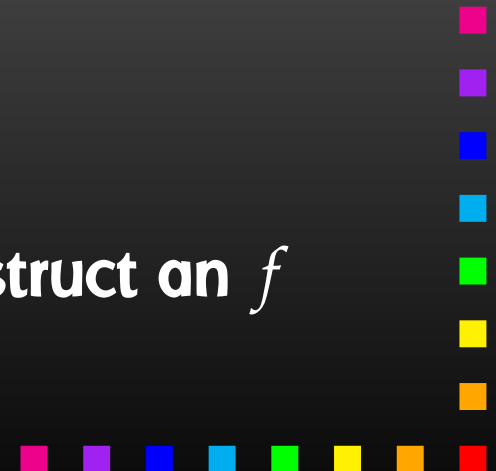
$$Q_n f := \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f(\vec{x}_i)$$

with **Nodes** (sampling points)  $\vec{x}_i$  and **Weights**  $w_i$ .

$Q_n f$  should approximate  $I f$  for a large class of functions with as small an **Error**  $E_n f$  as possible:

$$I f = Q_n f + E_n f, \quad E_n f \text{ "small."}$$

**But: For a given  $Q_n$ , it is always possible to construct an  $f$  such that  $E_n f$  becomes arbitrarily large!**



# Interpolatory Formulas (1D)

Idea: **Approximate**  $f$  by a polynomial  $p^{(n-1)}$  and integrate the latter. Works as far as  $f$  is well approximated by polynomials.

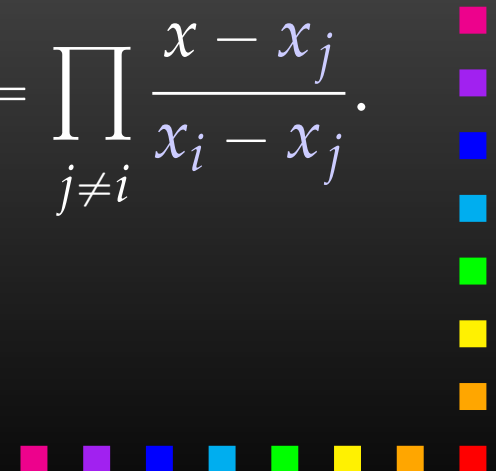
We impose that  $p^{(n-1)}$  **interpolates**  $f$  at  $n$  given points  $x_i$ :

$$p^{(n-1)}(x_i) \stackrel{!}{=} f(x_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

The polynomial thus specified is unique and can explicitly be given in terms of **Lagrange Polynomials**  $\ell_{n-1,i}$ :

$$p^{(n-1)}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \ell_i^{(n-1)}(x), \quad \text{where} \quad \ell_i^{(n-1)}(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}.$$

By construction,  $\ell_i^{(n-1)}(x_j) = \delta_{ij}$ .



# Interpolatory Formulas (1D)

Weights:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{I} p^{(n-1)} &= \int_0^1 dx w(x) p^{(n-1)}(x) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \underbrace{\int_0^1 dx w(x) \ell_i^{(n-1)}(x)}_{w_i}. \end{aligned}$$

From the practical point of view, the weight function  $w(x)$  must be chosen such that these integrals can be computed.

The **Degree of  $Q_n$**  is the degree of the highest polynomial integrated exactly by  $Q_n$ .



# Newton-Cotes (Rectangle) Rules (1D)

The simplest case: **take equidistant**  $x_i$ .

For  $w(x) = 1$  the lowest-order rules are:

**Open rules:**  $x_i = \frac{i}{n+1}$ , e.g.

$$Q_1 f = f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right),$$

$$Q_2 f = \frac{1}{2}\left(f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) + f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)\right),$$

$$Q_3 f = \frac{1}{3}\left(2f\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) - f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + 2f\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)\right).$$

**Closed rules:**  $x_i = \frac{i-1}{n-1}$ , e.g.

$$Q_2 f = \frac{1}{2}\left(f(0) + f(1)\right),$$

$$Q_3 f = \frac{1}{6}\left(f(0) + 4f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + f(1)\right),$$

$$Q_4 f = \frac{1}{8}\left(f(0) + 3f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) + 3f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) + f(1)\right).$$

By construction,  $\deg Q_n \geq n - 1$ , but cannot generally be expected to be larger than  $n - 1$  because the  $x_i$  are prescribed and only the  $n$   $w_i$  have been determined.

The Newton-Cotes rules are not as powerful as the Gauss rules, but can be **compounded** easily, e.g. in **Romberg Rules**.

Also, **extrapolation algorithms** exist.



# Gauss Rules (1D)

Choose the  $x_i$  such that  $Q_n$  has the **highest possible degree**.  
With  $2n$  degrees of freedom ( $n x_i$  and  $n w_i$ ), we ought to achieve  $\deg Q_n = 2n - 1$ .

By Euclid's GCD algorithm we write

$$p^{(2n-1)} = q^{(n)} r^{(n-1)} + s^{(n-1)}, \quad q^{(n)}(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n (x - x_i)$$

$$\mathbf{I} p^{(2n-1)} = \boxed{\int q^{(n)} r^{(n-1)}} + \int s^{(n-1)}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \underbrace{q^{(n)}(x_i)}_{=0} r^{(n-1)}(x_i) + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i s^{(n-1)}(x_i) + \mathbf{E}_n p^{(2n-1)}$$

**If the boxed term were zero, the error term would vanish!**



# Gauss Rules (1D)

$$\int q^{(n)} r^{(n-1)} = \langle q^{(n)} | r^{(n-1)} \rangle = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad q^{(n)} \perp r^{(n-1)}$$

[Functional scalar product:  $\langle a | b \rangle = \int_0^1 dx w(x) a(x) b(x)$ .]

Choose **Orthogonal Polynomials** for the  $q^{(n)}$ , then

$$r^{(n-1)} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \langle q^{(i)} | r^{(n-1)} \rangle q^{(i)} \quad \text{and} \quad \langle q^{(n)} | r^{(n-1)} \rangle = 0$$

because  $\langle q^{(n)} | q^{(i < n)} \rangle = 0$ .

Since  $q^{(n)}(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n (x - x_i)$ , the  $x_i$  are just the **zeros of the orthogonal polynomials  $q^{(n)}$ !**





# Gauss Rules (1D)

Gauss rules for particular weight functions have special names, hinting at the orthogonal polynomials used:

$$w(x) = 1$$

**Gauss-Legendre Rules**

$$w(x) = 1/\sqrt{1-x^2}$$

**Gauss-Chebyshev Rules**

$$w(x) = x^\alpha e^{-x}$$

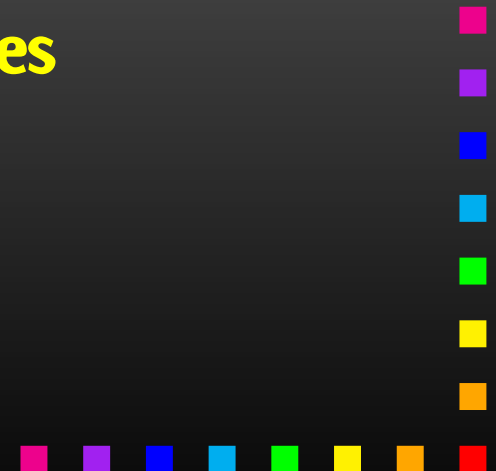
**Gauss-Laguerre Rules**

$$w(x) = e^{-x^2}$$

**Gauss-Hermite Rules**

$$w(x) = (1-x)^\alpha (1+x)^\beta$$

**Gauss-Jacobi Rules**



# Error Estimate and Embedded Rules (1D)

So far we have **no error estimate** for our integration rule.

Idea: **Compare the results** of two rules,  $Q_n$  and  $Q_{n+m}$ .

Use **Embedded Rules** with  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n \subset \{x_i\}_{i=1}^{n+m}$  for economy.

But: e.g. Gauss rules of different  $n$  have no common  $x_i$ .

Seek to add new points  $x_{n+1}, \dots, x_{n+m}$  such that  $Q_{n+m}$  is exact for polynomial of maximum degree expectable from #df,  $p^{(n+2m-1)}$ . This leads to

$$\int_0^1 dx w(x) v^{(n)}(x) q^{(m)}(x) r^{(m-1)}(x) = 0$$

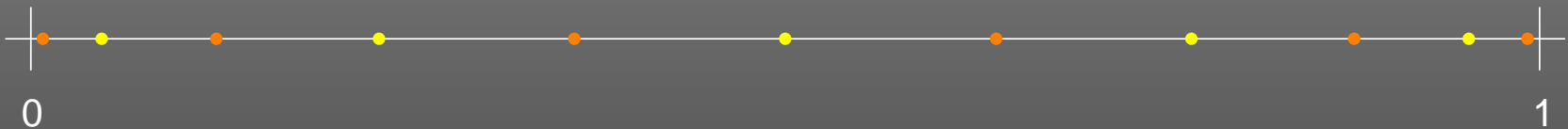
with  $v^{(n)}(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n (x - x_i)$ ,  $q^{(m)}(x) = \prod_{i=1}^m (x - x_{n+i})$ .

**Not all  $w(x)$  have solutions since a scalar product with weight function  $w(x) v^{(n)}(x)$  cannot in general be defined.**

# Embedded Rules and Null Rules

Some common **Embedded Rules** in  $d = 1$  are:

- **Gauss-Kronrod Rules** add one point between every two points of a Gauss rule  $R_n$  so that  $R_n \subset R_{n+n+1}$ , e.g.



- **Patterson Rules** add points on top of the Gauss-Kronrod rules, e.g. there exists a set of rules

$$R_1 \subset R_3 \subset R_5 \subset R_7 \subset R_{15} \subset R_{31} \subset R_{63} \subset R_{127} \subset R_{255}.$$

A **Null Rule**  $N_m$  is associated with an integration rule  $Q_n$  (usually  $m < n$ ) and is engineered to give **zero for all functions that are integrated exactly** by  $Q_n$ .

$N_m$  measures the “higher terms” of the integrand that are not exactly integrated by  $Q_n$  and is also used for error estimation.



# Adaptive Algorithms

With an error estimate available, adaptiveness can easily be implemented:

- **Integrate the entire region:**  $I_{\text{tot}} \pm E_{\text{tot}}$ .
- **while**  $E_{\text{tot}} > \max(\varepsilon_{\text{rel}} I_{\text{tot}}, \varepsilon_{\text{abs}})$
- **Find the region  $r$  with the largest error.**
- **Bisect (or otherwise cut up)  $r$ .**
- **Integrate each subregion of  $r$  separately.**
- $I_{\text{tot}} = \sum I_i, E_{\text{tot}} = \sqrt{\sum E_i^2}$ .
- **end while**

**Examples: QUADPACK's QAG, CUBA's Cuhre, Suave.**



# Extrapolation

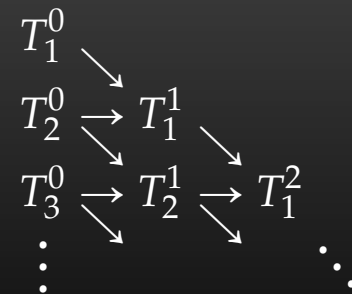
**Extrapolation** can be used to **accelerate convergence** if the functional behaviour of the error term is known.

Example: for the Newton-Cotes formulas the error can be shown to vary with the spacing  $h$  of the nodes as

$$Q_n f - I f = c_2 h^2 + c_4 h^4 + \dots, \quad h = \frac{1}{n}.$$

Idea: Compute  $Q_n f$  for different  $h$  and extrapolate to  $h = 0$ . Use **Richardson's Extrapolation** to eliminate  $k$  powers of  $h$ :

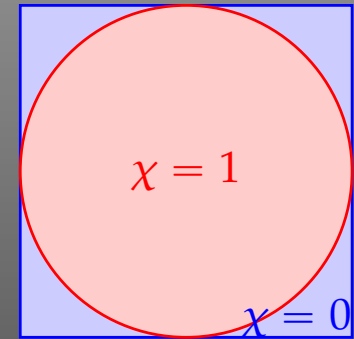
$$T_m^k := \frac{4^k T_{m+1}^{k-1} - T_m^{k-1}}{4^k - 1}, \quad T_m^0 := Q_{2^{m-1}} f.$$



These are known as **Romberg Formulas**.

# Curse of Dimension

Imagine computing the volume of the  $d$ -dim. sphere  $S_d$  by integrating its characteristic function  $\chi = \theta(1 - \|x\|_2)$  inside the surrounding hypercube  $C_d = [-1, 1]^d$ .



The following table gives the ratio of the volumes:

$d$	2	5	10	50	100
$\frac{\text{Vol } S_d}{\text{Vol } C_d}$	.785	.164	.0025	$1.5 \times 10^{-28}$	$1.9 \times 10^{-70}$

This ratio can in a sense be thought of as the **chance that a general-purpose integrator will find the sphere at all!**



# Product Formulas

Easiest method: **Iterate one-dimensional rules**, e.g.

$$\int_0^1 d^3x f(\vec{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_x} \sum_{j=1}^{n_y} \sum_{k=1}^{n_z} w_i^{(x)} w_j^{(y)} w_k^{(z)} f(x_i^{(x)}, x_j^{(y)}, x_k^{(z)}).$$

But: the **number of samples increases as**  $N = \prod_{i=1}^d n_i \sim n^d$ .

Consider e.g. the Newton-Cotes rules, where the error term is  $\mathcal{O}(h^2) = \mathcal{O}(n^{-2})$ . Convergence is thus:

$$Q_n f - I f = \mathcal{O}(N^{-2/d}).$$

Even for moderate dimensions (say  $d \gtrsim 5$ ), this convergence rate is usually **too slow to be useful**.



# Construction of Polynomial Rules

Select **orthogonal basis of functions**  $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$  (usually monomials) with which most  $f$  can (hopefully) be approximated sufficiently and impose that **each  $b_i$  be integrated exactly by  $Q_n$** :

$$\mathbb{I} b_i \stackrel{!}{=} Q_n b_i \iff \sum_{k=1}^n w_k b_i(\vec{x}_k) = \int_0^1 d^d x w(\vec{x}) b_i(\vec{x}).$$

These are  $m$  **Moment Equations** for  $nd + n$  unknowns  $\vec{x}_i, w_i$ , and a formidable, in general nonlinear, system of equations.

Additional assumptions (e.g. **Symmetries**) are often necessary to solve this system. If a unique solution exists,  $Q_n$  is an **Interpolatory Rule**.

**Example: the Genz-Malik rules used in CUBA's Cuhre.**





# Monte Carlo Methods

Idea: Interpret  $f$  as a **Random Variable** and estimate  $\mathbf{I}f$  by the **Statistical Average** over independent, identically distributed samples  $\vec{x}_i \in [0, 1]^d$

$$\mathbf{I}f \approx \mathbf{M}_n f = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\vec{x}_i) \quad (w(\vec{x}) = 1 \text{ here}).$$

The **Standard Deviation** is a probabilistic estimate of the integration error:

$$\sigma(\mathbf{M}_n f) = \sqrt{\mathbf{M}_n(f^2) - (\mathbf{M}_n f)^2}.$$

From  $\sigma(\mathbf{M}_n f) = \frac{\sigma(f)}{\sqrt{n}}$ , convergence is  $\mathbf{M}_n f - \mathbf{I}f = \mathcal{O}(n^{-1/2})$ .

**Not particularly fast, but *independent* of the dimension  $d$ !**



# Variance Reduction

**Variance Reduction** = Methods for accelerating convergence.

In **Importance Sampling** one introduces a weight function:

$$\mathbb{I}f = \int_0^1 d^d x w(\vec{x}) \frac{f(\vec{x})}{w(\vec{x})}, \quad w(\vec{x}) > 0, \quad \mathbb{I}w = 1.$$

- One must be able to sample from the distribution  $w(\vec{x})$ ,
- $f/w$  should be “smooth,” such that  $\sigma_w(f/w) < \sigma(f)$ ,  
e.g.  $w$  and  $f$  should have the same peak structure.

The ideal choice is  $w(\vec{x}) = |f(\vec{x})|/\mathbb{I}f$  which has  $\sigma_w(f/w) = 0$ .

**Example: Vegas uses a piecewise constant weight function which is successively refined, thus coming closer to  $|f(\vec{x})|/\mathbb{I}f$ .**



# Variance Reduction

**Stratified Sampling** works by sampling subregions. Consider:

	$n$ samples in total region $r_a + r_b$	$n_a = n/2$ samples in $r_a$ , $n_b = n/2$ samples in $r_b$
<b>Integral</b>	$\mathbf{I}f \approx \mathbf{M}_n f$	$\mathbf{I}f \approx \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{M}_{n/2}^a f + \mathbf{M}_{n/2}^b f)$
<b>Variance</b>	$\frac{\sigma^2 f}{n}$  $= \frac{1}{2n}(\sigma_a^2 f + \sigma_b^2 f) + \frac{1}{4n}(\mathbf{I}_a f - \mathbf{I}_b f)^2$	$\frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\sigma_a^2 f}{n/2} + \frac{\sigma_b^2 f}{n/2} \right)$  $= \frac{1}{2n}(\sigma_a^2 f + \sigma_b^2 f)$

The optimal reduction of variance is for  $n_a/n_b = \sigma_a f / \sigma_b f$ .

But: splitting each dimension causes a  $2^d$  increase in regions!

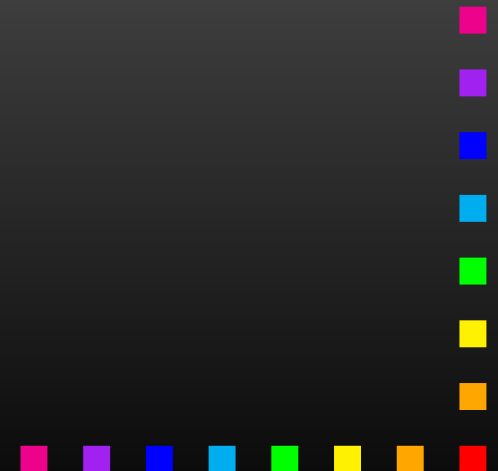
Example: Miser uses Recursive Stratified Sampling.



# Variance Reduction

Importance Sampling and Stratified Sampling are complementary:

- **Importance Sampling** puts most points where the magnitude of the integrand  $|f|$  is largest,
- **Stratified Sampling** puts most points where the variance of  $f$  is largest.



# Number-Theoretic Methods

The basis for the number-theoretical formulas is the **Koksma-Hlawka Inequality**:

The error of every  $Q_n f = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\vec{x}_i)$  is bounded by

$$|Q_n f - I f| \leq V(f) D^*(\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_n).$$

where  $V$  is the **“Variation in the sense of Hardy and Krause”** and  $D^*$  is the **Discrepancy** of the sequence  $\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_n$ ,

$$D^*(\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_n) = \sup_{r \in [0,1]^d} \left| \frac{\nu(r)}{n} - \text{Vol } r \right|,$$

where  $\nu(r)$  counts the  $\vec{x}_i$  that fall into  $r$ . For an **Equidistributed Sequence**,  $\nu(r)$  should be proportional to  $\text{Vol } r$ .



# Low-Discrepancy Sequences and Quasi-Monte Carlo

Cannot do much about  $V(f)$ , but can sample with **Low-Discrepancy Sequences** a.k.a. **Quasi-Random Numbers** which have discrepancies significantly below the pseudo-random numbers used in ordinary Monte Carlo, e.g.

- **Halton Sequences,**
- **Sobol Sequences,**
- **Faure Sequences.**

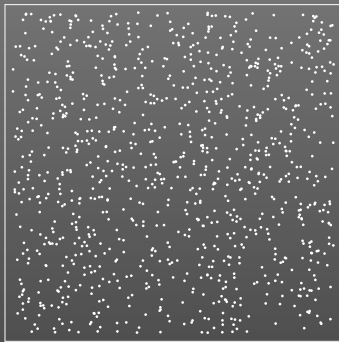
These **Quasi-Monte Carlo Methods** typically achieve convergence rates of  $\mathcal{O}(\log^{d-1} n/n)$  which are much better than the  $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{n})$  of **ordinary Monte Carlo**.

**Example: CUBA's Vegas and Suave use Sobol sequences.**

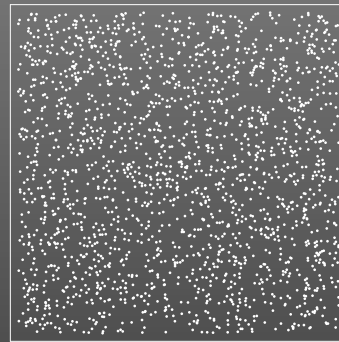


# Comparison of Sequences

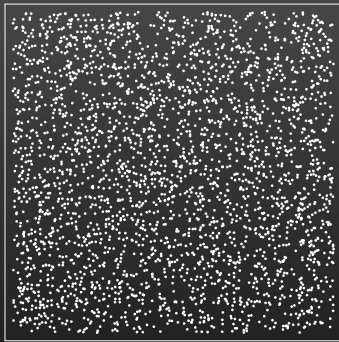
## Mersenne Twister Pseudo-Random Numbers



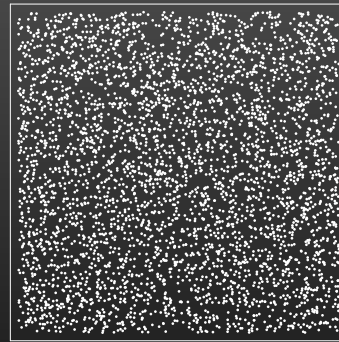
n = 1000



n = 2000



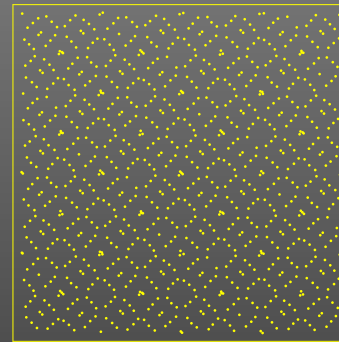
n = 3000



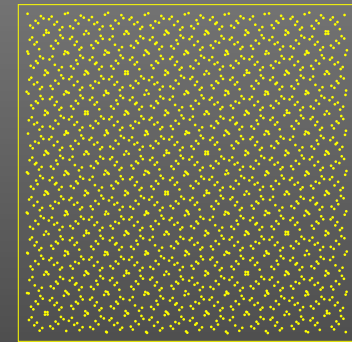
n = 4000

$$\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{n})$$

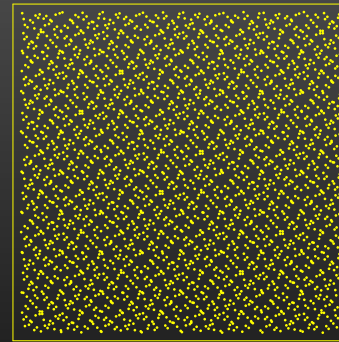
## Sobol Quasi-Random Numbers



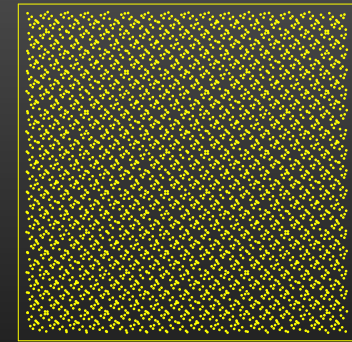
n = 1000



n = 2000

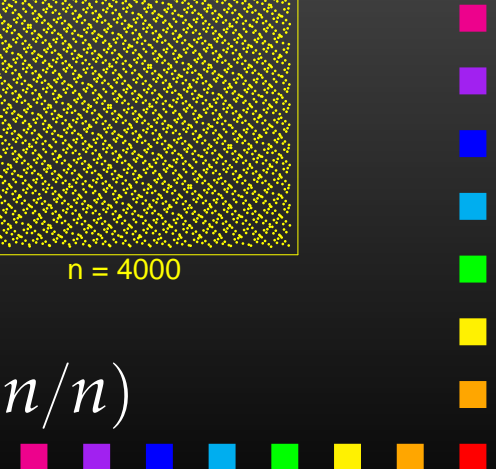


n = 3000



n = 4000

$$\mathcal{O}(\log^{d-1} n/n)$$



# Lattice Methods

**Lattice Methods** require a **periodic integrand**, usually obtained by applying a **Periodizing Transformation** (e.g.  $x \rightarrow 3x^2 - 2x^3$ ). Sampling is done on an **Integration Lattice**  $L$  spanned by a carefully selected integer vector  $\vec{z}$ :

$$Q_n f = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f\left(\left\{\frac{i}{n}\vec{z}\right\}\right), \quad \{x\} = \text{fractional part of } x.$$

Construction principle for  $\vec{z}$ : knock out as many low-order **“Bragg reflections”** as possible in the error term:

$$Q_n f - \mathbf{I}f = \sum_{\vec{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^d} \tilde{f}(\vec{k}) Q_n e^{2\pi i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} - \tilde{f}(\vec{0}) = \sum_{\vec{k} \in L^\perp, \vec{k} \neq \vec{0}} \tilde{f}(\vec{k}),$$

where  $L^\perp = \{\vec{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^d : \vec{k} \cdot \vec{z} = 0 \pmod{n}\}$  is the **Reciprocal Lattice**. Method: extensive computer searches.



# Machine Learning Methods

From arXiv:1707.00028:

Algorithm	# of Func. Evals	$\sigma_w / \langle w \rangle$	$\sigma_I / I$ (2e6 add. evts)
VEGAS	300,000	2.820	$\pm 2.0 \times 10^{-3}$
Foam	3,855,289	0.319	$\pm 2.3 \times 10^{-4}$
Generative BDT	300,000	0.082	$\pm 5.8 \times 10^{-5}$
Generative BDT (staged)	300,000	0.077	$\pm 5.4 \times 10^{-5}$
Generative DNN	294,912	0.083	$\pm 5.9 \times 10^{-5}$
Generative DNN (staged)	294,912	0.030	$\pm 2.1 \times 10^{-5}$

- gains impressive, but: only one integrand, maximally unsuited for Vegas,
- speedup only for variance reduction.



<rant> “Machine Learning” = ignorantly applying a black box (preferably named TensorFlow) to one’s problem in the hope of getting a solution without really understanding how. </rant>

# Routines in the CUBA Library

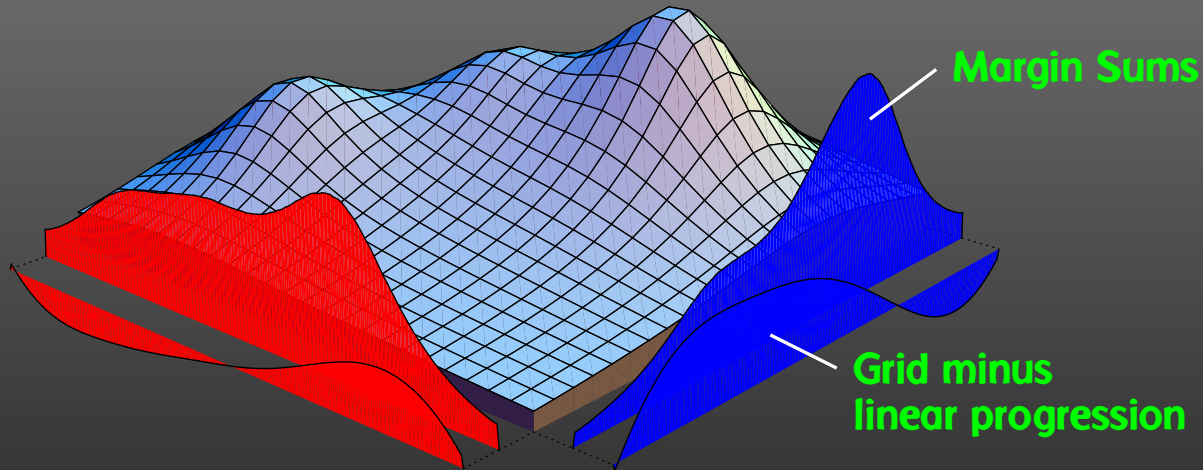
Routine	Basic method	Type	Variance reduction
Vegas	Sobol sample	Monte Carlo	importance sampling
Suave	Sobol sample	Monte Carlo	globally adaptive subdivision
Divonne	Korobov sample or Sobol sample or cubature rules	Monte Carlo Monte Carlo deterministic	stratified sampling, aided by methods from numerical optimization
Cuhre	cubature rules	deterministic	globally adaptive subdivision

- Very similar invocation (easily interchangeable)
- Fortran, C/C++, Mathematica interface provided
- Can integrate vector integrands



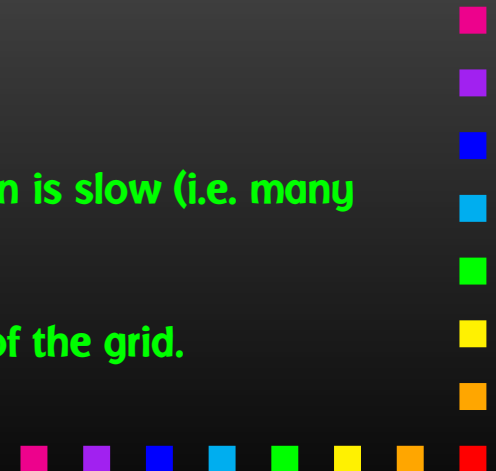
# Vegas Overview

- Monte Carlo algorithm.
  - **Variance reduction: importance sampling.**
- ▷ Iteratively build up a piecewise constant weight function on a rectangular grid.



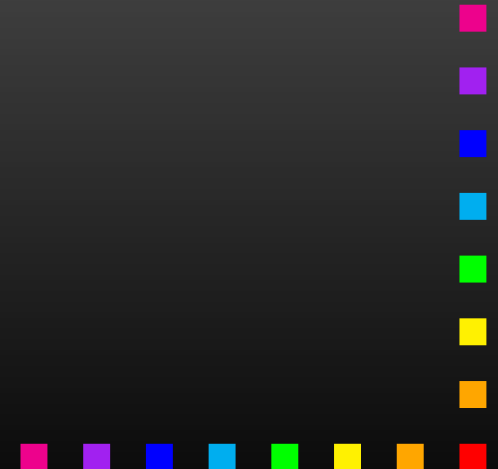
The grid shows the progression along the respective axis. Progression is slow (i.e. many points are sampled) where the grid's value is small.

- ▷ Each iteration consists of a sampling step followed by a refinement of the grid.



# Suave Overview

- Monte Carlo algorithm.
- Variance reduction: Vegas-style importance sampling combined with globally adaptive subdivision.
  - ▷ Until the requested accuracy is reached, bisect the region with the largest error along the axis in which the fluctuations of the integrand are reduced most.
  - ▷ Prorate the number of new samples in each half for its fluctuation.



# Divonne Overview

- Monte Carlo algorithm (+ cubature rules for comparison).
- **Variance reduction: Stratified sampling.**

## ▷ PHASE 1 - Partitioning

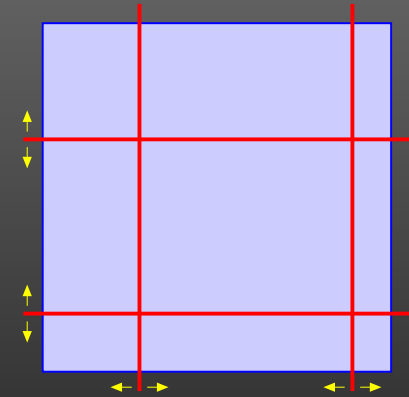
▷ For each subregion, 'actively' determine  $\sup f$  and  $\inf f$  using methods from numerical optimization.

- Move 'dividers' around until all subregions have approximately equal spread, defined as

$$\text{Spread}(r) = \frac{1}{2} \text{Vol}(r) \left( \sup_{\vec{x} \in r} f(\vec{x}) - \inf_{\vec{x} \in r} f(\vec{x}) \right).$$

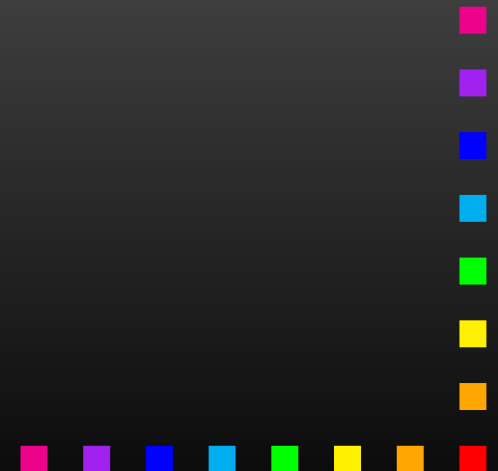
▷ PHASE 2 - Sampling: Sample the subregions independently with the same number of points each. The latter is extrapolated from the results of Phase 1.

▷ PHASE 3 - Refinement: Further subdivide or sample again if results from Phase 1 and 2 do not agree within their error.



# Cuhre Overview

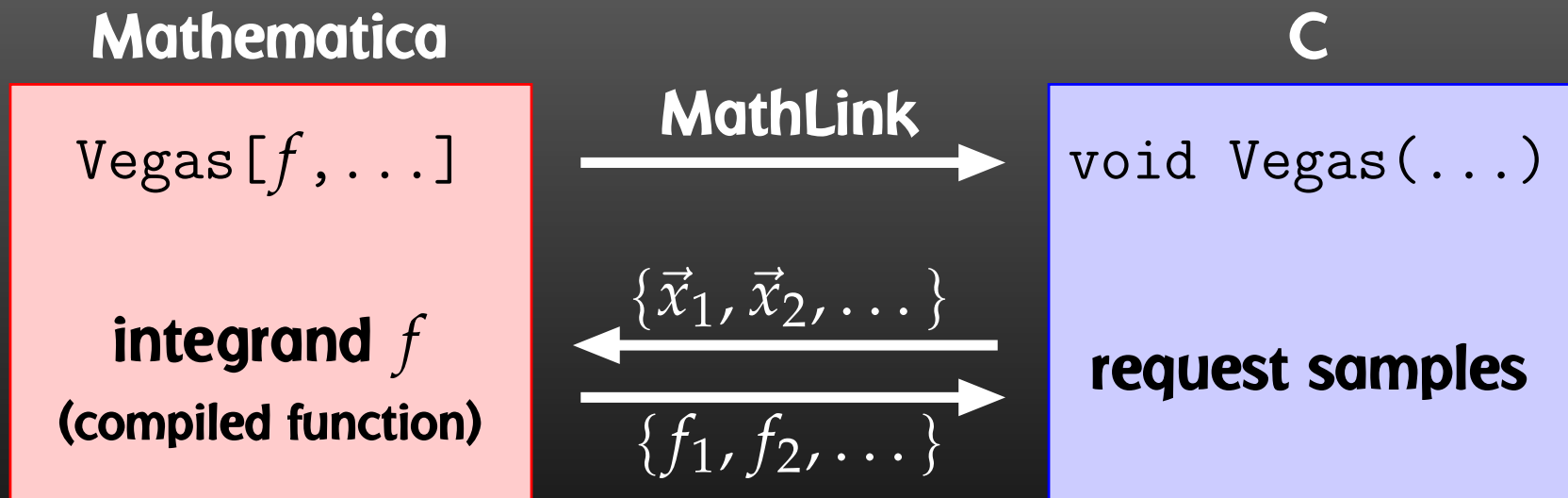
- Deterministic algorithm (uses cubature rules of polynomial degree).
  - **Variance reduction: Globally adaptive subdivision.**
- ▷ Until the requested accuracy is reached, bisect the region with the largest error along the axis with the largest fourth difference.



# Mathematica Interface

- Used almost like `NIntegrate`.
- The integrand is evaluated completely in Mathematica.  
Can do things like

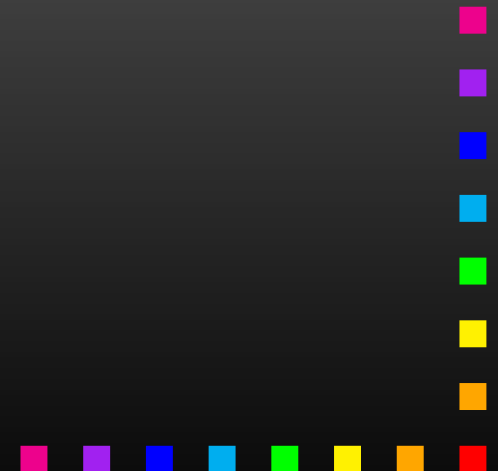
```
Cuhre[Zeta[x y], {x,2,3}, {y,4,5}]
```



# Brainstorming (in lieu of a summary)

## 1. Physics

- How high is “high precision”?
- Need in **final result?** Need in **subtractions?**
- Perhaps try different **subtraction scheme** (N-jettiness?).





# Brainstorming (in lieu of a summary)

## 2. Methodology

- Maybe **only one** (or few) dimensions of integration **'hard'**:  
Try to do those by 1D methods, e.g.
  - Weight function absorbs main characteristics (Gauss-XY rules).
  - Extrapolation methods.
  - Special algorithms for e.g. oscillatory integrands.
- **Point out extremal points** of the integrand, e.g. in Divonne.
- **Combine methods**, e.g. Lattice Rules “on top of” other methods.
- Explore **machine-learning methods** further.



# Brainstorming (in lieu of a summary)

## 3. Technology

- **Parallelize/distribute** (CPU, GPU, clusters).
- Gauge precision based on (estimate of) central value of each Feynman diagram, i.e. **do not waste time on unimportant parts.**
- Eventually **compute a grid** to be used in actual calculations (Monte Carlos etc.).

