# Computing special functions using integral representations 

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## Introduction

Numerical integration is a classical and powerful technique for computing special functions like

$$
\Gamma(s, z)=\int_{z}^{\infty} t^{s-1} e^{-t} d t
$$

Requirements:

- I want rigorous error bounds
- Parameters may be inexact $\left(s=\left[0.3 \pm 10^{-13}\right]\right)$
- I want to easily obtain, say, 10 - 10,000 digits
- I want robust code, suitable for general-purpose math software

In this talk, I will discuss general principles and describe where and how integration is currently used in the Arb library.

## Why use integration?

Two ways to compute functions defined by integrals:

1. Use numerical integration (quadrature)
2. Use series expansions derived from integral representations

$$
\int f(t) d t=f\left(t_{0}\right) \cdot\left[C_{0}+C_{1}+\ldots\right]
$$

Usually (2) leads to faster algorithms (for example, the terms have nice recurrence relations).

However, (1) may be much more straightforward, considering error bounds, cancellation, divergence, branch cuts, ...

## Example: one of Carlson's elliptic integrals

$$
R_{J}(a, b, c, d)=\frac{3}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{a+t} \sqrt{b+t} \sqrt{c+t}(d+t)}
$$

Expansion algorithm: defining $\lambda=\sqrt{a} \sqrt{b}+\sqrt{b} \sqrt{c}+\sqrt{a} \sqrt{c}$, iterate

$$
R_{J}(a, b, c, d)=\frac{1}{4} R_{J}\left(\frac{a+\lambda}{4}, \frac{b+\lambda}{4}, \frac{c+\lambda}{4}, \frac{d+\lambda}{4}\right)+\text { arctangent }
$$

until $a \approx b \approx c \approx d$. Then $R_{J}(a, a+\varepsilon, \ldots)=$ hypergeometric series.

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until $a \approx b \approx c \approx d$. Then $R_{J}(a, a+\varepsilon, \ldots)=$ hypergeometric series.
This is only valid for certain parameters.
For example, it is sufficient that $\operatorname{Re}(a), \operatorname{Re}(b), \operatorname{Re}(c), \operatorname{Re}(d)>0$.
Arb 2.17 (always using the above algorithm):
$R_{J}(-1-0.5 i,-10-6 i,-10-3 i,-5+10 i) \approx 0.345986+0.399031 i$
Arb 2.18 (using integration when the preconditions do not hold): $R_{J}(-1-0.5 i,-10-6 i,-10-3 i,-5+10 i) \approx 0.128471+0.102176 i$

## Example: incomplete beta function with large parameters

A user reported that Arb struggles to evaluate
$I_{x}(a, b)=\frac{1}{B(a, b)} \int_{0}^{x} t^{a-1}(1-t)^{b-1}, \quad x=\frac{4999}{10000}, a=b=10^{5}$.
Arb 2.21 (only using series expansions):

```
prec = 64: [+/- inf]
prec = 128: [+/- inf]
prec = 256: [+/- inf]
prec = 65536: [+/- inf]
prec = 131072: [+/- inf]
prec = 262144: [0.46436508135202051998898147610...]
```

Arb 2.22 (using numerical integration in appropriate cases):

```
prec = 64: [0.4643650813520 +/- 4.92e-14]
prec = 128: [0.46436508135202051998898147610644 +/- 3.74e-33]
```


## General principles

Choice of integral and path:

- Handling singularities
- Avoiding cancellation / oscillation

Choice of integration algorithm:

- Gaussian quadrature
- Trapezoidal and double exponential quadrature
- Taylor series

Implementation issues:

- Error bounds, stability, efficiency, code complexity


## Gauss-Legendre quadrature

If $f$ is analytic with $|f(z)| \leq M$ on an ellipse $E$ with foci $-1,1$ and semi-axes $X, Y$ with $\rho=X+Y>1$, then

$$
\left|\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) d x-\sum_{k=1}^{n} w_{k} f\left(x_{k}\right)\right| \leq \frac{M}{\rho^{2 n}} \cdot \frac{4.27}{1-\rho^{-1}} .
$$

$$
X=1.25, Y=0.75, \rho=2.00 \quad X=2.00, Y=1.73, \rho=3.73
$$

There is a rigorous, arbitrary-precision, adaptive implementation in Arb since 2017, accepting "black box" integrands $f$.

## Implementation in Arb: bounds and adaptivity

- To bound $|f(z)|$ on $E$, we may evaluate $f$ on a rectangle $R$. This can be done in low-precision interval arithmetic.

- Note: it suffices to bound $|f(z)|$ on the contour $C$.
- The integrand must check " $f(z)$ is analytic on $R$ ".
- Arb tests a set of semi-axes $X \sim 2^{k}|b-a|$ and degrees $n=1,2,4,6,8, \ldots \sim 2^{\ell / 2}$, choosing the smallest $n$ such that $\left|I_{n}-I\right|<\varepsilon_{\text {tol }}$. If no $\operatorname{good}(X, n)$ is found, $[a, b]$ is bisected.


## Adaptive subdivision

$$
\int_{0}^{1} \operatorname{sech}^{2}(10(x-0.2))+\operatorname{sech}^{4}(100(x-0.4))+\operatorname{sech}^{6}(1000(x-0.6)) d x
$$

Arb chooses 31 subintervals, narrowest is $2^{-11}$


Complex ellipses used for bounds
Red dots $=$ poles


## Magnitude bound gotchas

## Wrapping and dependency problems

- Evaluating expressions like $f(z)=g(z) / h(z)$ or $g(z)-h(z)$ naively in interval arithmetic can give extremely poor upper bounds, resulting in slow convergence
- Solution: when the input $z$ is given by a wide interval, use a short Taylor expansion or rewrite symbolically
- Use $\exp (-z)$ instead of $1 / \exp (z)$


## Troublesome branch cuts



- Near $(-\infty, 0)$, replace $\log (z) \rightarrow \log (-z)-\pi i$, etc.


## Tails and endpoint singularities

If $|a|,|b|$ or $|f| \rightarrow \infty$, we can no longer get automatic error bounds out of Gauss-Legendre quadrature + interval arithmetic.

Solutions:

- Truncation $\int_{0}^{\infty} f(x) d x \approx \int_{\varepsilon}^{N} f(x) d x$


Exponential decay


Algebraic blow-up/decay

- Gauss-Jacobi, Gauss-Laguerre, etc.

Either way, manual or symbolic preprocessing is needed.

## Gauss's main competitor: the trapezoidal rule



$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\int_{|z|=1} f(t) d t \approx \frac{2 \pi}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} f\left(e^{2 \pi i k / N}\right) & \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) d t \approx h \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f(h k) \\
\left|I_{N}-I\right| \leq \frac{4 \pi M}{r^{N}-1} & \left|I_{h}-I\right| \leq \frac{2 M}{e^{2 \pi a / h}-1} \\
M=\max _{1 / r<|z|<r}|f(z)| & M=\max _{|y| \leq a} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty}|f(x+i y)| d x
\end{array}
$$

For other contours and bounds, see:

- Trefethen and Weideman, The exponentially convergent trapezoidal rule, 2014
- P. Molin, L'intégration numérique par la méthode double-exponentielle, 2016


## Double exponential (tanh-sinh) quadrature

What is the optimal rate of decay for using the trapezoidal rule to compute $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) d t$ ? Under certain assumptions,

$$
\begin{aligned}
|f(t)|<\exp (-|t|) & \Longrightarrow\left|I_{N}-I\right|<\exp \left(-c N^{1 / 2}\right) \\
|f(t)|<\exp (-\exp (|t|)) & \Longrightarrow\left|I_{N}-I\right|<\exp (-c N / \log (N))
\end{aligned}
$$

This leads, for example, to the "tanh-sinh rule"

$$
\int_{-1}^{1} f(t) d t=\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w_{k} f\left(x_{k}\right), \quad x_{k}=\tanh \left(\frac{\pi}{2} \sinh (k h)\right)
$$

This method is remarkably robust for functions with endpoint singularities, e.g. $f(t)=(1-t)^{\alpha}(1+t)^{\beta} g(t)$.

## Disadvantages of double exponential quadrature

- Less efficient than Gauss-Legendre on compact intervals.
- Not locally adaptive: efficiency deteriorates with singularities close to the path.
- Can be tricky to find a suitable variable transformation (passing through saddle points, avoiding singularities, etc.).
- Can be tricky to bound the error.

For these reasons, I am not using the double exponential method anywhere in Arb. However, there are certainly situations where it would be useful (some examples later).

## Implementation example: hypergeometric functions

Arb uses numerical integration in some cases to compute hypergeometric functions via the representations

$$
\begin{gathered}
{ }_{1} F_{1}(a, b, z)=\frac{\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a) \Gamma(b-a)} \int_{0}^{1} e^{z t} t^{a-1}(1-t)^{b-a-1} d t \\
U(a, b, z)=\frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-z t} t^{a-1}(1+t)^{b-a-1} d t \\
{ }_{2} F_{1}(a, b, c, z)=\frac{\Gamma(a)}{\Gamma(b) \Gamma(c-b)} \int_{0}^{1} t^{b-1}(1-t)^{c-b-1}(1-z t)^{-a} d t .
\end{gathered}
$$

By extension: modified Bessel functions $I_{\nu}(x), K_{\nu}(x)$ and incomplete gamma and beta functions $\Gamma(s, x), \gamma(s, x), I_{x}(a, b)$.

Currently only real parameters are considered.

## Practical issue: finding a good tolerance

Consider the ${ }_{1} F_{1}$ integral: $I=\int_{0}^{1} \exp (g(t)) d t$ where

$$
\begin{gathered}
g(t)=z t+(a-1) \log (t)+(b-a-1) \log (1-t) \\
g^{\prime}(t)=t+\frac{a-1}{t}-\frac{b-a-1}{1-t}
\end{gathered}
$$



Figure: $g(t), \quad a=100, \quad b=1000, \quad z=10$

If the peak is narrow, numerical integration with a relative tolerance becomes inefficient. We can use $I \approx \exp \left(g\left(t_{\text {max }}\right)\right)$ to find an accurate absolute tolerance.

## Practical issue: local error bounds



Evaluating $g(R)$ naively gives poor bounds. Ditto for $g(m)+g^{\prime}(R)(R-m)$ and $\ldots+\frac{1}{2} g^{\prime \prime}(m)(R-m)^{2}$.

What I found to work is first-order Taylor expansions on $C$, using

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Re}(g(u+v i))=h(u, v) \\
\frac{d}{d u} h(u, v)=z+\frac{u(a-1)}{u^{2}+v^{2}}+\frac{(u-1)(b-a-1)}{v^{2}+(1-u)^{2}}, \text { etc. }
\end{gathered}
$$

Using machine-precision interval arithmetic + a few subdivisions, this works well up to $a, b, z \approx 10^{15}$.

## Implementation example: Laurent coefficients of $\zeta(s)$

$$
\gamma_{n}=-\frac{\pi}{2(n+1)} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\left(\log \left(\frac{1}{2}+i x\right)\right)^{n+1}}{\cosh ^{2}(\pi x)} d x
$$

$\gamma_{10^{100}} \approx 3.187 \cdot 10^{23463942922772540809493678383990911609034476898698373852057}$


Figure: The integrand with $n=500$

Piecewise linear path through the saddle point + integrand bounds of the type $\exp (g(m \pm r)) \leq \exp (g(m)) \exp \left(g^{\prime}(m) r+C r^{2}\right)$.

## What about something more complex? Bessel functions?

For $\operatorname{Re}(z)>0$,

$$
J_{\nu}(z)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{-\infty-i \pi}^{-\infty+i \pi} \exp (g(t)) d t, \quad g(t)=-z \sinh (t)+\nu t .
$$



Figure: $\operatorname{sgn}(g(t))$ on $t \in[-20,20]+[-10,10] i ; \quad \nu=200+100 i, z=50-20 i$
All cases of $J_{\nu}(z), Y_{\nu}(z), I_{\nu}(z), K_{\nu}(z), H_{\nu}^{(1)}(z), H_{\nu}^{(2)}(z)$ can be expressed using similar integrals.

## What about something more complex? Bessel functions?

There is a lot of literature on asymptotic expansions, but it seems difficult to cover all (large, complex) combinations of $\nu, z$.

In principle, it should be possible to cover all cases using numerical integration with an approximate steepest-descent contour.

There is a sketch of an algorithm in Jentschura and Lötstedt (2012), but it appears to be buggy.

Counterexample: $\nu=200+100 i, z=50-20 i$. Here J \& L seemingly want to go through both saddle points

- $t_{+} \approx+2.12+0.86 i, \quad\left|\exp \left(g\left(t_{+}\right)\right)\right| \approx 6.47 \cdot 10^{+60}$
- $t_{-} \approx-2.12-0.86 i, \quad\left|\exp \left(g\left(t_{-}\right)\right)\right| \approx 1.55 \cdot 10^{-61}$
but $J_{\nu}(z) \approx 1.33 \cdot 10^{-63}+3.89 \cdot 10^{-63} i$.


## What about something more complex? Bessel functions?

The integrand already has double exponential decay, so the trapezoidal rule is useful at least in some cases, e.g.

$$
K_{\nu}(x)=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x \cosh (t)} \cosh (\nu t) d t
$$

## Implementation example: the Lerch transcendent

$$
\Phi(z, s, a)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{n}}{(n+a)^{s}}, \quad|z|<1
$$

$\zeta(s)=\Phi(1, s, 1), \quad \zeta(s, a)=\Phi(1, s, a), \quad \mathrm{Li}_{s}(z)=z \Phi(z, s, 1)$


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Phi(z, 1+3 i, 2-i) \text { on } \\
& s \in[-5,5]+[-5,5] i
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\Phi(-0.75 i, s, 1-0.5 i) \text { on }
$$

$$
s \in[-20,20]+[-20,20] i
$$

New function in Arb 2.23. Algorithms for $\zeta(s)$ etc. can be generalized to $\Phi(z, s, a)$, but this would have been a lot of work.

## Analytically continuing $\Phi(z, s, a)$

For $\operatorname{Re}(a)>0$ and $z \notin[1, \infty)$ (Laplace integral):

$$
\Phi(z, s, a)=\frac{1}{\Gamma(s)} \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{t^{s-1} e^{-a t}}{1-z e^{-t}} d t, \quad s \in\{1,2,3, \ldots\}
$$

Hankel integral:

$$
\Phi(z, s, a)=-\frac{\Gamma(1-s)}{2 \pi i} \int_{H} \frac{(-t)^{s-1} e^{-a t}}{1-z e^{-t}} d t, \quad s \notin\{1,2,3, \ldots\}
$$

To remove the restriction on $a$, we can use

$$
\Phi(z, s, a)=z^{n} \Phi(z, s, a+n)+\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{z^{k}}{(k+a)^{s}} .
$$

To remove the restriction on $z$, we can change the path.

## Avoiding poles: the Laplace integral



The integrand has poles at $t=\log (z)+2 \pi i k$.

## Avoiding poles: the Hankel integral



The integrand has poles at $\log (z)+2 \pi i k$ and a singularity at $t=0$. Note: to avoid the branch cut for $(-t)^{s-1}$ in the Gauss-Legendre bounds, we use $t^{s-1}$ for $\operatorname{Re}(t)>0$ and $(-t)^{s-1}$ for $\operatorname{Re}(t)<0$

## Avoiding poles: the Hankel integral



If a pole is too close to the real axis (yellow dot in the figure), integrate around it and subtract the residue.

## Large parameters: the Riemann-Siegel formula

I have made no attempt to optimize $\Phi(z, s, a)$ for large parameters. In general, this looks complicated.

The most interesting case is when $\operatorname{Im}(s) \rightarrow \infty$. Here, we could use (various versions of) the Riemann-Siegel formula. For the classical case of $\zeta(s)$ it involves the following:

$$
\zeta_{R S}(s)=\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{n^{s}}+\int_{N \swarrow N+1} \frac{z^{-s} e^{\pi i z^{2}}}{e^{\pi i z}-e^{-\pi i z}} d z, \quad N=\lfloor\sqrt{\operatorname{lm}(s) /(2 \pi)}\rfloor
$$



## Large parameters: the Riemann-Siegel formula

Usually one derives an asymptotic series for the integral. There is an implementation for $\zeta(s)$ in Arb, but the terms and error bounds are quite messy (Arias de Reyna, 2011).

Recently, Sandeep Tyagi has found ${ }^{1}$ an effective way to apply double exponential quadrature directly to the integral.

This method allows computing $\zeta(s), L(s, \chi), \Phi(z, s, a)$ etc. with arbitrary precision and is remarkably simple and efficient. It remains to work out complete, rigorous error bounds.

[^0]
## Taylor series and the bit-burst algorithm

Using high-order Taylor expansions to integrate $\int_{a}^{b} f(t) d t$ is most useful for holonomic integrands $f$, where the "bit-burst algorithm" can be applied to compute $D$ digits in time $D^{1+o(1)}$.

Arb uses the bit-burst algorithm for the following functions:

- Elementary functions
- $\operatorname{erf}(z)=(2 / \sqrt{\pi}) \int_{0}^{z} e^{-t^{2}} \mathrm{~d} t, \operatorname{erfc}(z), \operatorname{erfi}(z)$
- $\Gamma(s, z)$ in some cases
- The dilogarithm $\operatorname{Li}_{2}(z)=-\int_{0}^{z} \log (1-t) / t d t$
- Indirectly, Dirichlet $L$-functions for special values

For general holonomic functions, see Marc Mezzarobba's implementation in ore_algebra.

## Wishlist

- Optimizations for "low" precision (around machine precision).
- Automatic code generation, symbolic precomputation.
- Double exponential quadrature with semi-automatic error bounds.
- Robust implementations of standard integrals (e.g. Bessel functions) for large complex parameters.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sandeep Tyagi (2022), Double Exponential method for Riemann Zeta, Lerch and Dirichlet L-functions, https://arxiv.org/abs/2203.02509

