# Computing special functions using integral representations

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# Introduction

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

$$\Gamma(s,z)=\int_z^\infty t^{s-1}\,e^{-t}\,dt.$$

Requirements:

- I want rigorous error bounds
- Parameters may be inexact ( $s = [0.3 \pm 10^{-13}]$ )
- 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

$$\int f(t)dt = f(t_0) \cdot [C_0 + C_1 + \ldots]$$

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

$$R_J(a,b,c,d) = \frac{3}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{dt}{\sqrt{a+t}\sqrt{b+t}\sqrt{c+t}(d+t)}$$

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

$$R_J(a, b, c, d) = \frac{1}{4}R_J(\frac{a+\lambda}{4}, \frac{b+\lambda}{4}, \frac{c+\lambda}{4}, \frac{d+\lambda}{4}) + ext{arctangent}$$

until  $a \approx b \approx c \approx d$ . Then  $R_J(a, a + \varepsilon, ...) =$  hypergeometric series.

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#### This is only valid for certain parameters. For example, it is sufficient that Re(a), Re(b), Re(c), Re(d) > 0.

Arb 2.17 (always using the above algorithm):  $R_J(-1 - 0.5i, -10 - 6i, -10 - 3i, -5 + 10i) \approx 0.345986 + 0.399031i$ 

Arb 2.18 (using integration when the preconditions do not hold):  $R_J(-1 - 0.5i, -10 - 6i, -10 - 3i, -5 + 10i) \approx 0.128471 + 0.102176i$ 

## Example: incomplete beta function with large parameters

A user reported that Arb struggles to evaluate  $I_x(a,b) = \frac{1}{B(a,b)} \int_0^x t^{a-1} (1-t)^{b-1}$ ,  $x = \frac{4999}{10000}$ ,  $a = b = 10^5$ .

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

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

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

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  $|I_n I| < \varepsilon_{\text{tol}}$ . If no good (X, n) is found, [a, b] is bisected.

# Adaptive subdivision

$$\int_0^1 \operatorname{sech}^2(10(x-0.2)) + \operatorname{sech}^4(100(x-0.4)) + \operatorname{sech}^6(1000(x-0.6)) \, dx$$



# 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



# Tails and endpoint singularities

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

Solutions:



► Gauss-Jacobi, Gauss-Laguerre, etc.

Either way, manual or symbolic preprocessing is needed.

Gauss's main competitor: the trapezoidal rule



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  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) dt$ ? Under certain assumptions,

$$|f(t)| < \exp(-|t|) \implies |I_N - I| < \exp(-cN^{1/2})$$

$$|f(t)| < \exp(-\exp(|t|)) \implies |I_N - I| < \exp(-cN/\log(N))$$

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

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(t)dt = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w_k f(x_k), \quad x_k = \tanh(\frac{\pi}{2}\sinh(kh)).$$

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

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

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  $_1F_1$  integral:  $I = \int_0^1 \exp(g(t)) dt$  where

$$g(t) = zt + (a - 1)\log(t) + (b - a - 1)\log(1 - t)$$
$$g'(t) = t + \frac{a - 1}{t} - \frac{b - a - 1}{1 - t}$$



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

#### Practical issue: local error bounds



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

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

$$Re(g(u + vi)) = h(u, v),$$
$$\frac{d}{du}h(u, v) = z + \frac{u(a-1)}{u^2 + v^2} + \frac{(u-1)(b-a-1)}{v^2 + (1-u)^2}, etc.$$

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

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

$$\gamma_n = -\frac{\pi}{2(n+1)} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\left(\log\left(\frac{1}{2} + ix\right)\right)^{n+1}}{\cosh^2(\pi x)} dx$$

 $\gamma_{10^{100}} \approx 3.187 \cdot 10^{234639429227725408094936783839909116090344768986983738520577}$ 



Figure: The integrand with n = 500

Piecewise linear path through the saddle point + integrand bounds of the type  $\exp(g(m \pm r)) \leq \exp(g(m)) \exp(g'(m)r + Cr^2)$ .

# What about something more complex? Bessel functions? For Re(z) > 0,

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



Figure: sgn(g(t)) on  $t \in [-20, 20] + [-10, 10]i$ ;  $\nu = 200 + 100i, z = 50 - 20i$ 

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

►  $t_+ \approx +2.12 + 0.86i$ ,  $|\exp(g(t_+))| \approx 6.47 \cdot 10^{+60}$ ►  $t_- \approx -2.12 - 0.86i$ ,  $|\exp(g(t_-))| \approx 1.55 \cdot 10^{-61}$ 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.

$$K_{\nu}(x) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x\cosh(t)}\cosh(\nu t)dt$$

Implementation example: the Lerch transcendent

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

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



 $\Phi(z, 1 + 3i, 2 - i)$  on  $s \in [-5, 5] + [-5, 5]i$ 



 $\Phi(-0.75i, s, 1-0.5i)$  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):

$$\Phi(z, s, a) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(s)} \int_0^\infty \frac{t^{s-1} e^{-at}}{1 - z e^{-t}} dt, \quad s \in \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$$

Hankel integral:

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

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  $\log(z) + 2\pi ik$  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  $\text{Im}(s) \to \infty$ . Here, we could use (various versions of) the *Riemann-Siegel formula*. For the classical case of  $\zeta(s)$  it involves the following:

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

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<sup>1</sup> 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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Sandeep Tyagi (2022), Double Exponential method for Riemann Zeta, Lerch and Dirichlet L-functions, https://arxiv.org/abs/2203.02509

# Taylor series and the bit-burst algorithm

Using high-order Taylor expansions to integrate  $\int_a^b f(t)dt$  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
- $\operatorname{erf}(z) = (2/\sqrt{\pi}) \int_0^z e^{-t^2} dt$ ,  $\operatorname{erfc}(z)$ ,  $\operatorname{erfi}(z)$
- $\blacktriangleright$   $\Gamma(s, z)$  in some cases
- The dilogarithm  $Li_2(z) = -\int_0^z \log(1-t)/t \, dt$
- 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.