

§ 10.3

Gauss Quadrature.

①

Idea: Find approximation for  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  by using both suitable  $x_i$ 's and  $A_i$ 's in the formula  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n A_i f(x_i)$ . By "suitable" we mean "finding the parameters s.t. this formula is exact for as high-degree polynomials as possible. (Named after Carl Friedrich Gauss, 1777-1855.)

Consider  $n=0$ :  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx A_0 f(x_0)$  (\*)

Want (\*) to be "exact for constants (polynomials of degree 0):

$$\int_a^b 1 dx = b-a = A_0$$

Also let (\*) be exact for polynomials of deg. 1:

$$\int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2}{2} - \frac{a^2}{2} = \underbrace{A_0}_{b-a} \underbrace{x_0}_{b+a} \Rightarrow \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2} = (b-a)x_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{x_0 = \frac{b+a}{2}} \text{ . If } A_0, x_0 \text{ are chosen in this}$$

way, then

$$\int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3} \neq \underbrace{(b-a)}_{A_0} \underbrace{\left(\frac{b+a}{2}\right)^2}_{x_0^2} \Rightarrow$$

(\*) is not exact for polynomials of degree 2.

Thus, (\*) is exact for polynomials of degree 0 and 1 (also called one-pt quadrature formula).

Now if  $n=1$  :  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx A_0 f(x_0) + A_1 f(x_1)$  (2)

We require:

$$\int_a^b 1 dx = b-a = A_0 + A_1$$

$$\int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2} = A_0 x_0 + A_1 x_1$$

$$\int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3} = A_0 x_0^2 + A_1 x_1^2$$

⋮

system of non-linear equations!

Difficult to solve and to know how many equations are needed.

Gauss used a different approach.

### § 10.3.1 Orthogonal Polynomials.

Def. Polynomials  $p$  and  $q$  are orthogonal on  $[a, b]$  if  $\langle p, q \rangle = \int_a^b p(x)q(x) dx = 0$

and orthonormal if, in addition,  $\langle p, p \rangle = \langle q, q \rangle = 1$ .

Note:  $\|p\| = \sqrt{\langle p, p \rangle} = \sqrt{\int_a^b p^2(x) dx}$

$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is the dot product,  $\|\cdot\|$  is the norm.

### Gram-Schmidt algorithm for vectors:

Given linearly independent vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ , find orthonormal set  $q_1, \dots, q_n$

by:  $q_1 = \frac{v_1}{\|v_1\|}$ ,  $q_j = \frac{\tilde{q}_j}{\|\tilde{q}_j\|}$ , where

$$\tilde{q}_j = v_j - \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \langle v_j, q_i \rangle q_i, \quad j \geq 1.$$

see § 7.6.2,

also

pp. 424-425

Now: given linearly independent set of polynomials  $1, x, x^2, \dots$ , construct an orthonormal set  $q_0, q_1, q_2, \dots$  using Gram-Schmidt alg,  $\underbrace{\text{deg } 0 \text{ deg } 1 \text{ deg } 2}$  using namely:

$$q_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\int_a^b 1^2 dx}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{b-a}}, \text{ Then:}$$

$$\text{set } \tilde{q}_1(x) = xq_0 - \langle x, q_0 \rangle q_0 = \frac{x}{\sqrt{b-a}} - \left( \int_a^b \frac{x}{\sqrt{b-a}} dx \right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{b-a}}$$

$$\text{then } q_1(x) = \frac{\tilde{q}_1(x)}{\|\tilde{q}_1(x)\|}$$

$$\text{For } j \geq 1, \tilde{q}_j(x) = xq_{j-1}(x) - \sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \langle xq_{j-1}(x), q_i(x) \rangle q_i(x)$$

$$\& q_j(x) = \frac{\tilde{q}_j(x)}{\|\tilde{q}_j(x)\|} = \frac{\tilde{q}_j(x)}{\left[ \int_a^b (\tilde{q}_j(x))^2 dx \right]^{1/2}} \quad \int_a^b xq_{j-1}(x)q_i(x) dx$$

Note: since  $q_{j-1} \perp$  all polynomials of deg.  $j-2$  or less  $\Rightarrow \langle xq_{j-1}(x), q_i(x) \rangle = \langle q_{j-1}(x), xq_i(x) \rangle$   
 $= 0! \Rightarrow$   $i \leq j-3$   $\text{deg.} \leq j-2$

$$\tilde{q}_j(x) = xq_{j-1}(x) - \langle xq_{j-1}(x), q_{j-2}(x) \rangle q_{j-2}(x) - \langle xq_{j-1}(x), q_{j-1}(x) \rangle q_{j-1}(x)$$

So,  $\tilde{q}_j(x)$  depends on  $q_{j-1}$  &  $q_{j-2}$  ( $\Rightarrow$  3-term recurrence)  $\Rightarrow q_j$  is obtained from  $q_{j-1}$  &  $q_{j-2}$ .

Once we get  $q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{n+1}, \dots$ , let us discuss the following

# Theorem (10.3.1)

(4)

If  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  are zeros of  $q_{n+1}(x)$ , the  $(n+1)$ st orthonormal polynomial on  $[a, b]$ , then the formula  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n A_i f(x_i)$  where  $A_i = \int_a^b \underbrace{\prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{x-x_j}{x_i-x_j}}_{\varphi_i(x)} dx$ , is exact for polynomials of degree  $2n+1$  or less.

Proof: let  $f$  be a polyn. of deg  $2n+1$  (or less). If we divide  $f$  by  $q_{n+1}$ , then:

$$f = \underbrace{q_{n+1}}_{(2n+1)} \underbrace{p_n}_{(n+1)} + \underbrace{r_n}_{(n)}$$

Since  $q_{n+1}(x_i) = 0 \Rightarrow f(x_i) = r_n(x_i) \rightarrow$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \underbrace{\int_a^b q_{n+1}(x) p_n(x) dx}_0 + \int_a^b r_n(x) dx = \int_a^b r_n(x) dx$$

" 0 since

If  $A_i = \int_a^b \underbrace{\prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{x-x_j}{x_i-x_j}}_{\text{deg } q_{n+1} \perp p_n} dx$  then  $\int_a^b r_n(x) dx \stackrel{f(x_i)}{=} \sum_{i=0}^n A_i \underbrace{r_n(x_i)}_{"}$

(since  $r_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n r_n(x_i) \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{x-x_j}{x_i-x_j}$ )  
Lagrange form

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b r_n(x) dx = \sum_{i=0}^n A_i f(x_i) \Rightarrow \text{formula exact for any polyn. of deg } 2n+1 \text{ (or less). } \square$$

Note: When finding  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ , roots of  $q_{n+1}$ , we do not need to normalize  $q_0, \dots, q_{n+1}$  since the roots of  $\tilde{q}_i$  will be the roots of  $q_i$ . This is easier!

Consider the following formulas for

$[a, b] = [-1, 1]$ ,  $n=1$  ( $\Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx = A_0 f(x_0) + A_1 f(x_1)$ )  
is exact for polynomials of  $\deg \leq n+1 = 3$  or less):

$$\tilde{q}_0(x) = \boxed{1},$$

$$\tilde{q}_1(x) = x - \frac{\langle x, \tilde{q}_0 \rangle}{\langle \tilde{q}_0, \tilde{q}_0 \rangle} \tilde{q}_0(x) = x - \frac{\int_{-1}^1 x dx}{\int_{-1}^1 1 dx} \cdot 1 = \boxed{x},$$

$$\tilde{q}_2(x) = x^2 - \frac{\langle x^2, \tilde{q}_0 \rangle}{\langle \tilde{q}_0, \tilde{q}_0 \rangle} \tilde{q}_0(x) - \frac{\langle x^2, \tilde{q}_1 \rangle}{\langle \tilde{q}_1, \tilde{q}_1 \rangle} \tilde{q}_1(x) =$$

$$= x^2 - \frac{\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx}{\int_{-1}^1 1 dx} \cdot 1 - \frac{\int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx}{\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx} \cdot x$$

$$= x^2 - \frac{1 + \frac{1}{3}}{2} - 0 = \boxed{x^2 - \frac{1}{3}}.$$

Since  $x_0 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ ,  $x_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$  are roots of  $\tilde{q}_2$ , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx A_0 \cdot f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + A_1 \cdot f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)$$

We can find  $A_0, A_1$  using the method of undetermined coefficients:

$$\int_{-1}^1 1 dx = 2 = A_0 + A_1$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 x dx = 0 = A_0 \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + A_1 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{cases} A_0 = 1 \\ A_1 = 1 \end{cases}$$

(or use the formulas for  $A_0, A_1$  from Thm. 10.3.1)

Thus,  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx \approx f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)$  and it is exact for polynomials of deg 3 or less.

(Check:  $\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3} = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^2 \checkmark$   
 $\int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx = 0 = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^3 \checkmark$ , but  $\int_{-1}^1 x^4 dx = \frac{2}{5} \neq \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^4 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^4 = \frac{2}{9}$ )

Note:  $\forall n, \tilde{q}_n(x) = x^n - \frac{\langle x^n, \tilde{q}_0 \rangle}{\langle \tilde{q}_0, \tilde{q}_0 \rangle} \tilde{q}_0(x) - \dots - \frac{\langle x^n, \tilde{q}_{n-1} \rangle}{\langle \tilde{q}_{n-1}, \tilde{q}_{n-1} \rangle} \tilde{q}_{n-1}(x)$

( $\tilde{q}_0, \tilde{q}_1, \dots$  found on  $[-1, 1]$ )

are called the Legendre polynomials.

If  $n=2$  then  $\tilde{q}_2(x) = x^3 - \frac{\langle x^3, 1 \rangle}{\langle 1, 1 \rangle} (1) - \frac{\langle x^3, x \rangle}{\langle x, x \rangle} \cdot x - \frac{\langle x^3, x^2 - 1/3 \rangle}{\langle x^2 - 1/3, x^2 - 1/3 \rangle} (x^2 - 1/3) = x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x \Rightarrow$  roots are

$x_0 = -\sqrt{3/5}, x_1 = 0, x_2 = \sqrt{3/5}$ . One can show that

$A_0 = A_2 = 0.5555556, A_1 = 0.8888889 \Rightarrow$

$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = A_0 f\left(-\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}\right) + A_1 f(0) + A_2 f\left(\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}\right)$  - exact

for polynomials of degree  $2 \cdot 2 + 1 = 5$  or less.

If we require for the Legendre polynomials <sup>(7)</sup> to satisfy  $\tilde{q}_i(1) = 1$ , then these are normalized (or standardized) polynomials:

$$p_0(x) = 1, \quad p_1(x) = x, \quad p_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(3x^2 - 1), \\ p_3(x) = \frac{1}{2}(5x^3 - 3x), \dots, \quad p_n(x) = \frac{1}{2^n \cdot n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} ((x^2 - 1)^n)$$

• Weighted Orthogonal Polynomials.

Let  $w(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, b]$ . Then

$$\langle p, q \rangle_w = \int_a^b p(x) q(x) w(x) dx$$

weighted dot product.

If  $\langle p, q \rangle_w = 0 \Rightarrow p \perp q$  w.r.t. w.

If one wants to approximate  $\int_a^b f(x) w(x) dx$ , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) w(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n A_i f(x_i) \quad \text{where}$$

$$A_i = \int_a^b \varphi_i(x) w(x) dx, \quad \varphi_i(x) = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}$$

and  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  are zeros of  $(n+1)$  st  $w$ -orthogonal polynomial on  $[a, b]$  (Thm. 10.3.2)

(exact for polyn. of deg.  $2n+1$  or less) so-called weighted Gauss quadrature formula

Example:  $[a, b] = [-1, 1]$ ,  $w(x) = (1 - x^2)^{-1/2}$ ,  $n = 1$ .

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) w(x) dx \approx A_0 f(x_0) + A_1 f(x_1)$$

$\rightarrow$  must be exact for polyn. of deg 3 or less

Need:  $\tilde{q}_0, \tilde{q}_1, \tilde{q}_2$ ,  $w$ -orthogonal on  $[-1, 1]$ . (8)

$$\text{So, if } \tilde{q}_0 = 1, \text{ then } \tilde{q}_1 = x - \frac{\langle x, 1 \rangle_w}{\langle 1, 1 \rangle_w} \cdot 1 \\ = x - \frac{\int_{-1}^1 x / \sqrt{1-x^2} dx}{\int_{-1}^1 1 / \sqrt{1-x^2} dx} = x,$$

$$\tilde{q}_2 = x^2 - \frac{\langle x^2, 1 \rangle_w}{\langle 1, 1 \rangle_w} \cdot 1 - \frac{\langle x^2, x \rangle_w}{\langle x, x \rangle_w} \cdot x = x^2 - \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow$$

$$x_0 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, x_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \Rightarrow$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \approx A_0 f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + A_1 f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

By the method of undetermined coeff's,  
 $A_0 = A_1 = \frac{\pi}{2}$  (Try it!)

$$\text{Thus, } \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \approx \frac{\pi}{2} f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + \frac{\pi}{2} f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \quad (**)$$

(Check if (\*\*)) exact for  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $x^3$ , but not for  $x^4$ .)

Note: these  $\tilde{q}_0, \tilde{q}_1, \tilde{q}_2, \dots$ ,  $w$ -orthogonal on  $[-1, 1]$ , are called Chebyshev (or Tschebyscheff) polynomials. Standardization  $\tilde{q}_i(1) = 1$

$$\text{gives } \begin{aligned} \tilde{q}_0 &\rightarrow T_0(x) = 1 \\ \tilde{q}_1 &\rightarrow T_1(x) = x \\ \tilde{q}_2 &\rightarrow T_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1 \end{aligned}$$

(In general,  $T_j(x) = \cos(j \arccos x)$ ,  $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ )