



Gaussian quadrature:

Theorem:

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

where

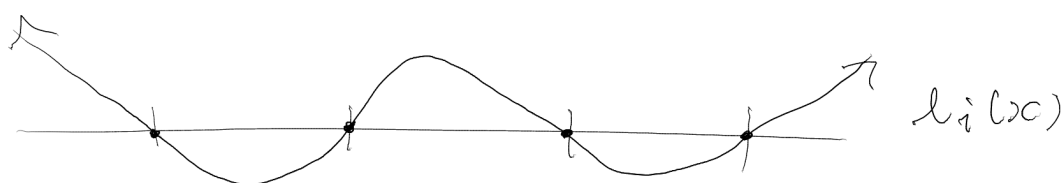
$$A_i = \int_a^b w(x) l_i(x) dx$$

with

$$l_i(x) = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j} \quad (\text{Lagrange polynomial})$$

and x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n are the roots of q which is w -orthogonal to π_{n+1} , i.e.

$$\int_a^b q(x) p(x) w(x) dx = 0, \quad p \in \pi_{n+1}.$$



The formula (*) is exact for $f \in \pi_{2n+1}$.

How do we calculate the q 's? $q = q_{n+1}$

We need 2 properties.

① q_{n+1} is monic of degree is $n+1$

$$\textcircled{2} \int q_{n+1}(x) p(x) w(x) dx = 0, \quad p \in \Pi_n$$

Let's look at the case where $w(x) \equiv 1$ on $[-1, 1]$.

Need:

$$q_0(x) = 1$$

$$q_1(x) = x$$

check:

$$\int_{-1}^1 x \cdot 1 dx = 0 \quad \text{by symmetry.}$$

Then earlier we had a recursion formula:

If $n \geq 2$

$$q_n(x) = (x - a_n) q_{n-1}(x) - b_n q_{n-2}(x)$$

with

$$a_n = \frac{\langle x q_{n-1}, q_{n-1} \rangle}{\langle q_{n-1}, q_{n-1} \rangle}, \quad \text{and} \quad b_n = \frac{\langle x q_{n-1}, q_{n-2} \rangle}{\langle q_{n-2}, q_{n-2} \rangle}.$$

Idea: You can check if q_{n-1}, q_{n-2} satisfy ① and ② then so does q_n .

$$q_2(x) = (x - a_2)x - b_2 \cdot 1 \text{ where}$$

$$a_2 = \frac{\langle x q_1, q_1 \rangle}{\langle q_1, q_1 \rangle} = \frac{\int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx}{\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx} = 0.$$

$$b_2 = \frac{\langle x q_1, q_0 \rangle}{\langle q_0, q_0 \rangle} = \frac{\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx}{\int_{-1}^1 1 dx} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

So,

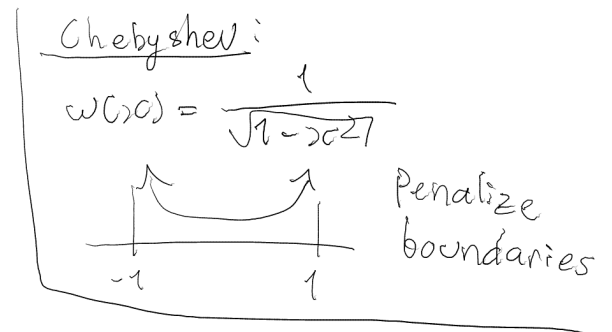
$$q_2(x) = x^2 - \frac{1}{3}.$$

Similarly,

$$q_3(x) = x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x.$$

We have

q_n = Legendre polynomials of degree n .



Lemma:

$$\textcircled{1} A_i > 0, \quad \forall i$$

$$\textcircled{2} \sum_{i=0}^n A_i = \int_a^b w(x) dx$$

Proof: We have some q with

$$\int_a^b q(x) p(x) w(x) dx = 0, \quad p \in \Pi_n.$$

Choose p in the formula above to be

$$p(x) = \frac{q(x)}{x - x_j}, \quad (\text{recall } q(x_j) = 0).$$

So p is of degree n . So p^2 is of degree $2n$.

So the GQ formula is exact for p^2 . Thus

$$0 < \int_a^b p^2(x) w(x) dx = \sum_{i=0}^n A_i p^2(x_i)$$

\uparrow
($w > 0$)

Then

$$p(x_i) = \frac{q(x_i)}{x - x_j} = 0 \quad \text{if } i \neq j$$

$$p(x_j) = \text{whatever} \neq 0$$

\uparrow
roots of q are distinct

(Divide by $(x - x_j)^2$ if x_j higher multiplicity).

So $A_j > 0$. For ②, in general

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

Pick $f(x) \equiv 1 \in \pi_0 \subset \pi_{2n+1}$. So the formula is exact and gives ②. \square

Theorem: (on convergence of GC)

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^n A_i^{(n)} f(x_i^{(n)}) = \int_a^b f(x) w(x) dx.$$

Proof: Let $\varepsilon > 0$. By the Weierstrass approximation theorem, there exists a polynomial p (of some indeterminate degree), such that

$$|f(x) - p(x)| < \varepsilon, \quad x \in [a, b].$$

Let degree of $p = N(\varepsilon) = N$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \int_a^b f(x) w(x) dx - \sum_{i=0}^N A_i^{(N)} f(x_i^{(N)}) \right| \leq \\ & \leq \left| \int_a^b f(x) w(x) dx - \int_a^b p(x) w(x) dx \right| + \\ & \quad \left| \int_a^b p(x) w(x) dx - \sum_{i=0}^N A_i^{(N)} p(x_i^{(N)}) \right| + \\ & \quad + \left| \sum_{i=0}^N A_i^{(N)} [p(x_i^{(N)}) - f(x_i^{(N)})] \right| \leq \end{aligned}$$

$$\leq \int_a^b |f(x) - p(x)| w(x) dx + \overset{\substack{\text{GC exact for } p \\ \downarrow}}{0} + \sum_{i=0}^N |A_i^{(N)}| |p(x_i^{(N)}) - f(x_i^{(N)})|$$

$$\leq \varepsilon \int_a^b w(x) dx + \varepsilon \sum_{i=0}^N |A_i^{(N)}|$$

$|A_i^{(N)}| = A_i^{(N)}$ by part ① in lemma.

$$= 2\varepsilon \int_a^b w(x) dx,$$

by lemma part ②

So take $\hat{\varepsilon} = 2\varepsilon \int_a^b w(x) dx$ so. \square

Adaptive quadrature:

An **automatic** numerical integration program
(e.g. `quad` integral function in MATLAB)

calculates an approximation to

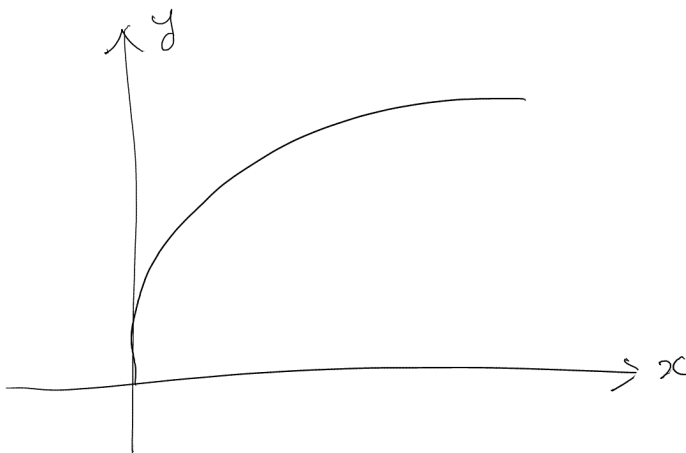
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

to within a user-specified accuracy.

In an **adaptive** integration method, the nodes are chosen "on the fly" to reflect the varying local behavior of the function f .

Example:

$$I = \int_0^1 \sqrt{x} dx.$$



So the slope of $y = \sqrt{x} \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow 0$.

So we would need small Δx near 0.


But for x near 1, f does not vary as much.

So there is no point in having lots of nodes near $x=1$. With Simpson's rule, for example, we have equally spaced nodes.

So we would need lots of nodes across $[0, 1]$ to get required accuracy near $x=0$.

Instead, put nodes where most need them.

Example: Consider applying Simpson's rule as follows.


$$S(a, b) = \frac{b-a}{6} \left[f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right]$$

with error

$$S(a, b) - \int_a^b f(x) dx = + \frac{1}{90} \left[\frac{b-a}{2} \right]^5 f^{(4)}(\xi)$$

with $\xi \in [a, b]$.

Idea: If the interval $[a, b]$ is such that $f^{(4)}$

is big on $[a, b]$ then to get small error need short interval $((b-a)^5 \leq \epsilon)$.

In more generality,

$$I(f) = \sum_{j=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} \int_{x_{2j-2}}^{x_{2j}} f(x) dx \approx$$

$$\approx I_n(f) = \sum_{j=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} \left[\frac{x_{2j} - x_{2j-2}}{6} \right] \left[f_{2j-2} + 4f_{2j-1} + f_{2j} \right]$$

and the total error is

$$I(f) - I_n(f) = -\frac{1}{90} \frac{1}{32} \sum_{j=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} (x_{2j} - x_{2j-2})^5 f^{(4)}(\xi_j)$$

with $x_{2j-2} \leq \xi_j \leq x_{2j}$.

If $f^{(4)}$ varies a lot, you would want to vary

$$|x_{2j} - x_{2j-2}|$$

a lot to compensate and keep error per subinterval approximately constant.

Notation:

$$I_{\alpha, \beta} = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(x) dx, \quad \begin{array}{c} | \text{-----} | \\ \alpha \qquad \gamma \qquad \beta \end{array}$$

Pick $\gamma = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}$.

First approximation to $I_{\alpha, \beta}$ is

$$I_{\alpha, \beta}^1 = \frac{h}{3} [f(\alpha) + 4f(\gamma) + f(\beta)]$$

with

$$\gamma = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2} \quad (\text{midpoint}), \text{ and}$$

$$h = \frac{\beta - \alpha}{2}.$$

Then set

$$I_{\alpha, \beta}^2 = I_{\alpha, \gamma}^1 + I_{\gamma, \beta}^1.$$

Suppose we are given a tolerance $\varepsilon > 0$ and want

$$|I^{\text{true}} - I^{\text{approx}}| < \varepsilon.$$

Here is an algorithm to almost ensure this.

(Recall we want $\int_a^b f(x) dx$).

Choose $\alpha = a$, $\beta = b$.

① Compute $I_{\alpha, \beta}^1$, $I_{\alpha, \beta}^2$.

② If $|I_{\alpha, \beta}^2 - I_{\alpha, \beta}^1| < \varepsilon$ then

accept $I_{\alpha, \beta}^2$ as your approximation I^{approx} and stop.

③ Otherwise set $\varepsilon = \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Let

$$I_{\alpha, \beta} = I_{\alpha, \gamma} + I_{\gamma, \beta}.$$

Repeat the 2 steps on RHS with new tolerance.