

Review of integration using Lagrange interpolating polynomials:

Goal: Approximate

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

Select nodes  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n \in [a, b]$ .

Lagrange interpolating polynomials of degree  $n$ :

$$l_i(x) = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}, \quad 0 \leq i \leq n.$$

Cool idea: The polynomial of degree  $n$  that "best approximates"  $f$  is

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) l_i(x),$$

so  $p(x_j) = f(x_j)$  for all  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \int_a^b p(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \underbrace{\int_a^b l_i(x) dx}_{A_i}.$$

So,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^n A_i f(x_i) \quad (\otimes)$$

with

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

So given the nodes  $x_i$ , the weights  $A_i$  are determined.

If  $f$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$  then

$$p(x) = f(x), \quad x \in [a, b]$$

and so  $(*)$  is exact. To improve the accuracy of the integral, all you can do, *assuming equally spaced nodes*, is to increase the number of nodes.

### Section 7.3: Gaussian quadrature

Idea: To improve the accuracy of numerically approximating

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

we could both increase the degree of the polynomials used in interpolation and carefully choose both nodes  $x_i$  and weights  $A_i$  in the formula.

In fact, we compute

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

where  $w$  is a *weight function* with

- $w \geq 0$  on  $[a, b]$
- $w$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ .

Notice the  $A_i$ 's have nothing to do a priori with  $w$  even though both are called weights.

We want to approximate

$$\int_a^b w(x) f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f(x_i)$$

and we want the formula to be exact as high a degree polynomial as possible.

Intuition: Since  $x_i$  and  $A_i$  will be chosen independently, (we have  $2^n$  #) we should be able to get the formula to be exact for degree  $2n-1$  polynomials.

Let

$$\mathcal{E}_n(f) = \int_a^b f(x) w(x) dx - \sum_{i=0}^n w_i(x) f(x_i)$$

of  $S$   
Only need linearity here

be the error in our approximation. Since  $\mathcal{E}_n$  is linear

$$\mathcal{E}_n\left(\sum_{k=0}^m a_k x^k\right) = \sum_{k=0}^m a_k \mathcal{E}_n(x^k).$$

To make  $\mathcal{E}_n(f) = 0$  for all polynomial  $f$  of degree  $m$  we just need

$$\mathcal{E}_n(x^k) = 0, \quad k \leq m.$$

Use these equations to determine nodes and weights.

Solve for  $w_1, x_1$  in

$$\int_a^b f(x) w(x) dx \approx w_1 f(x_1).$$

From now on, choose  $[a, b] = [-1, 1]$ .

(But we can always rescale any  $[a, b]$  into  $[-1, 1]$ ).

We want **(\*\*)** exact for degree 1 polynomials.

So need to use

$$\varepsilon_1(x^0) = 0, \text{ and } \varepsilon_1(x^1) = 0$$

to get  $x_1, w_1$ .

①  $f(x) = x^0 = 1$ :

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 1 dx = 2$$

$$w_1 f(x_1) = w_1 \cdot 1 = w_1$$

So,

$$0 = \varepsilon_1(x^0) \Rightarrow w_1 = 2.$$

②  $f(x) = x^1$ :

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 x dx = 0$$

$$w_1 f(x_1) = w_1 x_1^1 = 2x_1.$$

So

$$\varepsilon_1(x^1) = 0 \Rightarrow 2x_1 = 0 \\ x_1 = 0.$$

Thus our quadrature formula is

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx \approx 2f(0)$$

$$\Delta x = 2$$

midpoint rule with  
one subinterval

Case  $n=2, \omega \equiv 1$ :

4 parameters:  $\omega_1, \omega_2, x_1, x_2$ .

Need 4 equations

$$\varepsilon_2(x^i) = 0 = \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx - (\omega_1 x_1^i + \omega_2 x_2^i), \quad i=0,1,2,3.$$

$i=0$ :

$$\int_{-1}^1 1 dx - (\omega_1 + \omega_2) = 0$$

$$\omega_1 + \omega_2 = 2$$

$i=1$ :

$$\int_{-1}^1 x dx - (\omega_1 x_1 + \omega_2 x_2) = 0$$

$$\omega_1 x_1 + \omega_2 x_2 = 0$$

$i=2$ :

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx - (\omega_1 x_1^2 + \omega_2 x_2^2) = 0$$

$$\omega_1 x_1^2 + \omega_2 x_2^2 = \frac{2}{3}$$

$i=3$ :

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx - (\omega_1 x_1^3 + \omega_2 x_2^3) = 0$$

$$\omega_1 x_1^3 + \omega_2 x_2^3 = 0$$

Particular choice:  $\omega_1 = \omega_2 = 1$ .

$i=1$  gives

$$x_2 = -x_1.$$

$i=2$  gives

$$2x_1^2 = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$x_1 = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$$

Pick

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad x_2 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}.$$

Formula is

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx \approx f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right).$$

So need 2 function evaluations to get integral exact for a cubic polynomial.

Whereas for Simpson's rule, we need 3 function evaluations to get exactness for cubic polynomial.

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Notation:  $\Pi_n$  is the space of degree  $\leq n$ .

Theorem: Let  $w$  be a positive weight function on  $[a, b]$ . Let  $q$  be a non-zero polynomial of degree  $n+1$  that is  $w$  orthogonal to  $\Pi_n$ , i.e.

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

Let  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  be the  $n+1$  zeroes of  $q$ . Then the quadrature formula

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

is exact for all  $f \in \Pi_{2n+1}$ .

In words, gaussian quadrature allows us to exactly integrate polynomials of degree  $\leq 2n+1$  using  $n+1$  node points. Moreover if  $f$  is well approximated by a degree  $\leq 2n+1$  polynomial and we can calculate  $f$  at any  $x$ , then we can approximate

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

using  $n+1$  function evaluations.

For previous methods, this only works when  $f$  is well approximated by a degree  $\leq n$  polynomial.

Proof: Let  $f \in \Pi_{2n+1}$ . Write

$$f = pq + r, \quad p, r \in \Pi_n.$$

Since the nodes  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  satisfy

$$q(x_i) = 0, \quad i = 0, \dots, n$$

we have

$$\underbrace{f(x_i)}_{\text{degree } 2n+1} = q(x_i) p(x_i) + r(x_i) = \underbrace{r(x_i)}_{\text{degree } n}. \quad (1)$$

So

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \underbrace{\int_a^b q(x) p(x) w(x) dx}_{(1)} + \int_a^b r(x) w(x) dx$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b r(x) w(x) dx.$$

$\perp$   
 $q$  is  $w \perp \pi_n$

We also know from "last time" that

$$\int_a^b r(x) w(x) dx = \sum_{i=0}^n A_i r(x_i), \quad r \in \pi_n$$

is exact with

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

So by ①

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

holds.  $f = qp + r \in \pi_{2n+1}$ .  $\square$

Main remaining issues:

① How to find  $q$ ?

② How to calculate zeroes of  $q$ ?

Notice these tasks are independent of  $f$ .

(They do depend on  $w(x)$ ).

Next time: See that  $x_i$  are the roots of the Legendre polynomials.



Example:

$$I = \int_0^{\pi} e^x \cos x dx$$

True answer is  $I \approx -12.0703463164$ .

$n = \# \text{ nodes}$	$I_n^{\text{Trap}}$	error	$I_n^{\text{Simp}}$	error
2	-17.89259	5.32	-11.592840	$-4.78 \cdot 10^{-1}$
4	-13.336023	1.27		$-8.54 \cdot 10^{-2}$
8	-12.382162	$3.12 \cdot 10^{-1}$		$-6.14 \cdot 10^{-3}$
16	-12.148004	$7.77 \cdot 10^{-2}$		$-3.95 \cdot 10^{-4}$
32	-12.089742	$1.94 \cdot 10^{-2}$		$-2.49 \cdot 10^{-5}$
64	-12.075194	$4.85 \cdot 10^{-3}$		$-1.56 \cdot 10^{-6}$
128	-12.071558	$1.21 \cdot 10^{-3}$		$-9.73 \cdot 10^{-8}$

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$n = \# \text{ nodes}$	$I_n^{\text{GQ}}$	Error
2	-12.336210	$2.66 \cdot 10^{-1}$
3	-12.127420	$5.71 \cdot 10^{-2}$
4	-12.070189	$-1.57 \cdot 10^{-4}$
5	-12.0703285	$-1.78 \cdot 10^{-5}$
6	-12.070346	$1.47 \cdot 10^{-8}$

So GQ is superior in this example.