MAS 565 Numerical Analysis HW4

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3.3 Recall Theorem 2.1.4.1 which implies that, for any given $a \in [a,b]$ there exists $\xi(a) \in [a,b]$ such that

$$f(a) - \rho_{0,1}(a) = \frac{f''(\xi(a))}{2} (a-a)(a-b).$$
 (4)

For 1/2 and 1/2 reviting the abuse as

$$f''(\xi(x)) = \frac{2(f(x) - P_{0.1}(x))}{(x-a)(x-b)} \tag{**}$$

we observe that f''(R(x)) is continuous on the open suterval (a,b).

For the case when $x \in \{a,b\}$, equation (x) allows us to define f''(R(x)) to be any number. Since $f(a) - p_{x_1}(a) = 0$ and $x \mapsto f(x) - p_{x_1}(x)$ is continuously differentiable everywhere, the function $\frac{f(x) - p_{x_1}(x)}{x + a}$

converges as $s \to a$, and furthermore it converges to $f'(a) - p_{s,1}(a)$.

This implies that, with the help of expressing $f''(\xi(a))$ in the form of (x+1), we can assign a value for $f''(\xi(a))$ so that $f''(\xi(a))$ is continuous at x=a. By symmetry, we can also assign a value for $f''(\xi(b))$ so that $f''(\xi(b))$ is continuous an whole [a,b].

As E(a) & [a, b] for de(a, b), we have

 $\{f''(\xi\omega)\}: a\in\{a,b\}\} \subseteq \{f''(t): t\in[a,b]\}.$

But the right hand side set is compact being a continuous image of a compact interval. Therefore, the limits $f''(\xi(a))$ and $f''(\xi(b))$ are also contained in that compact set. Heree

{f"(((+)): d∈ (a, b] } ⊆ {f"(+): t∈(a, b]}.

Let $m = \min_{t \in [a,b]} f''(t)$ and $M = \max_{t \in [a,b]} f''(t)$ so that now (*) implies

 $\frac{M}{2}(\gamma-\alpha)(\gamma-1) \leq f(\alpha) - p_{\alpha,1}(\alpha) \leq \frac{M}{2}(\gamma-\alpha)(\gamma-1) \qquad \qquad -\cdots (\frac{1}{2})$

Integrate all sides over the interval [a,b]. As $\int_{a}^{b} (\pi - a)(\pi - b) d\pi = -\frac{(b-a)^{3}}{6}$, we get $-\frac{M}{12}(b-a)^{3} \leq \int_{a}^{b} f(a) - p_{0,1}(\pi) d\pi \leq -\frac{M}{12}(b-a)^{3}$

and hencefurth

 $m \leq \frac{(2}{(b-a)^2} \int_a^b P_{0,1}(a) - f(a) da \leq M$.

By Intermediate Value Theorem, there exists $\tilde{a} \in [a,b]$ such that $f''(\tilde{a}) = \frac{12}{(b-a)^3} \int_a^b p_{0,1}(a) - f(a) da$

Its required from the problem, we also should show that it is possible to choose $\widetilde{\mathcal{A}}$ from the open interval (a,b). Without boxs of generality, suppose that $\widetilde{\mathcal{A}}=a$ and no other point $t\in(a,b]$ satisfies f''(a)=f''(t). But if so, by the continuity of f'' and the Intermediate Value Theorem, it must be the case where $f'(t) \geq f'(a) \ \forall t \in (a,b]$, or $f'(t) \leq f'(a)$, $\forall t \in (a,b]$. Then f''(a) is either in or M, respectively, so the corresponding side in the inequality G''(a) is attained. This implies that f''(a) is a quadratic function, so f'''(a) must be constant, contraditing our assumption.

We now have a stronger result: there exists $\widetilde{\alpha} \in (a,b)$ such that $f''(\widetilde{\alpha}) = \frac{12}{(b-\alpha)^3} \int_a^b p_{0,1}(a) - f(a) da.$

Writing down $\beta_{11}(x)$ explicitly as $\beta_{011}(x) = \frac{f(h) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a) + f(a)$, we have

$$\int_{a}^{b} p_{0,1}(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \cdot (x - a) + f(a) dx$$

$$= \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \times \frac{(b - a)^{2}}{2} + f(a) (b - a)$$

$$= \frac{b - a}{2} (f(a) + f(b)).$$

In conclusion, there exists & E(a,b) such that

$$\frac{b-a}{2}(f(a)+f(b))-\int_a^bf(a)\,da=\frac{(b-a)^3}{12}\,f''(\widetilde{\chi})\,.$$

- 3.14. We have to show that, under the assumptions (a) and (b). We so polynomial, then $\int_a^b \omega(a) s(a) da = 0 \Rightarrow s \equiv 0 \iff \int_a^b \omega(a) da > 0$.
 - (\$\Rightarrow\$) Consider the constant physical $s(x) \equiv 1$. Then by assumption, $\int_a^b \omega(x) dx = \int_a^b \omega(x) s(x) dx > 0$

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(\Leftarrow) If $s\equiv 0$ then there is nothing to show. Hence assume that $s(h)\neq 0$ for some α . Our first goal is to find an interval [y, 2] such that $\int_y^2 \omega(a) da > 0$ while s(h) > 0 for all $a \in [y, 2]$. If s(a) > 0 for all $\alpha \in [a, b]$ then put $[y, \pm] = [a, b]$ and we are done. So we may assume that $s(\alpha) = 0$ for some $\alpha \in [a, b]$ but not all $\alpha \in [a, b]$.

Consider the set

[a ∈ [a, b] : s(a) = 0 } U {a, b}

which is finite since s is a polynomial. Enumerate the set above as 70, 71, ..., 71, in increasing order. Then by subdividing [a,b] into subintervals $[a_{i-1},a_{i}]$ for i=1,...,N, we have the property that on each $[a_{i-1},a_{i}]$ the value of s(a) is positive possibly except at the boundary points. From $\sum_{n=1}^{N} \int_{A_{i-1}}^{A_{i}} \omega(n) dn = \int_{A_{i-1}}^{b} \omega(n) dn > 0$

while $\omega(x) \ge 0$ here $\int_{A_{21}}^{A_{22}} \omega(x) dx \ge 0$, there should exist $j \in \{1, --, N\}$ such that $\int_{A_{21}}^{A_{22}} \omega(x) dx > 0$.

Now there are three possibilities, for in each such cases we define sequences landness and Ibrilinear as:

- i) $co < a_{j-1} < a_{j} < + co$: $a_{n} = a_{j-1} + \frac{1}{n}$, $b_{n} = a_{j} \frac{1}{n}$
- ii) $-\infty < a_{j-1} < a_{j} = +\infty$: $a_{i} = a_{j-1} + \frac{1}{n}$, $b_{n} = n$
- (ii) $-\infty = a_{j-1} < a_{j} < +\infty$ $a_{1} = -n, b_{1} = a_{j} \frac{1}{n}$.

Then the intervals $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$, with the convention that if anylon then $I_n = \emptyset$, satisfy $I_1 \subset I_2 \subset \cdots$ and $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n = [a_{j-1}, a_{j}]$. Hence $\{\omega(a) 1_{I_n}(a)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a monotonedy increasing sequence of functions pointwise converging to $\omega(a)$, so by Manotone Convergence Theorem we have

$$0 < \int_{a_{j-1}}^{a_{j}} \omega(a) da = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{a_{j-1}}^{a_{j}} \omega(a) A_{I_{n}}(a) da = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{a_{n}}^{b_{n}} \omega(a) da.$$

Note that, this implies the existence of noEN such that San wished >0

for all n > no. By choosing n sufficiently large, we can also have $a_{j-1} < a_1 < b_1 < a_2 < b_2 < a_3 < b_4 > 0$. For such an n, recall that $s(a_1) > 0$ for $a \in (a_{j-1}, a_j)$, so $s(a_1) > 0$ on $[a_n, b_n]$. Put $y = a_1$ and $z = b_1$ then we are done, i.e. $\int_y^z \omega(a_1) da_1 > 0$ and $s(a_1) > 0$ over the interval $[y_1 z]$.

Summarizing what we have got up to this paints we have an interval [y, z] such that s(x) > 0 over that interval and $\int_{y}^{z} \omega(x) dx > 0$.

Whether the interval [y, z] is infinite or finite, since s(x) is a nonnegative phynomial, it attains its minimum over [y, z]. But $m := \min_{x \in [y, z]} s(x)$, then m > 0, s > 0

 $0 < m \int_{y}^{z} \omega(a) \, da \le \int_{y}^{z} \omega(a) s(a) \, da \le \int_{a}^{b} \omega(a) s(a) \, da.$ Therefore, if there exists $a \in [a,b]$ such that s(a) > 0 then $\int_{c}^{b} \omega(a) s(a) \, da > 0$. It follows that, if $\int_{a}^{b} \omega(a) s(a) \, da = 0$ then s = 0, completing the proof.

3.18. (a) Define $\tilde{T}_n(\alpha) = \cos(n\cos^{-1}\alpha)$. First we doin that $T_n(\alpha) = \tilde{T}_n(\alpha)$, on the domain [-1,1]. It is clear that $\tilde{T}_0(\alpha) = 1 = T_0(\alpha)$ and $\tilde{T}_1(\alpha) = \alpha = T_1(\alpha)$. So it remains to show that $\tilde{T}_{n+1}(\alpha) = 2\alpha \tilde{T}_n(\alpha) - \tilde{T}_{n-1}(\alpha)$, for $n=1,2,\cdots$. Put $\theta = \cos^{-1}\alpha$, then

$$\tilde{T}_{n+1}(\alpha) = \cos((n+1)\theta) = \cosh\cos\theta - \sin n\theta \sin\theta$$

$$\tilde{T}_{n-1}(\alpha) = \cos((n+1)\theta) = \cosh\theta \cos\theta + \sin\theta\theta \sin\theta.$$

Adding these equations side by side we get $\widetilde{T}_{n-1}(x) + \widetilde{T}_{n-1}(x) = 2 \cos n\theta \cos \theta = 2a \, \widetilde{T}_n(a)$

so we are done.

From the observation in the previous paragraph we may put $T_n(x) = cos(ncos^{-1}x)$. It is straightforward to see that T_j is a polynomial of degree j with leading coefficient $2^{\frac{1}{2}}$ by induction on j: indeed, $2nT_j(n)$ is a degree j+1 polynomial with leading coefficient $2\cdot 2^{\frac{1}{2}} = 2^{\frac{1}{2}+1}$ and $T_{j-1}(n)$ is a degree j-1 polynomial by induction hypothesis, so $T_{j+1}(n)$ is a degree j+1 polynomial with leading coefficient $2^{\frac{1}{2}+1} = 2^{\frac{1}{2}+1}$ and $T_{j-1}(n)$ is a degree j+1 polynomial with leading coefficient $2^{\frac{1}{2}+1}$.

To construct a callection of monic polynomials, let $p_0(x)=1$ and $p_1(x)=\frac{1}{2^{j-1}}T_j(x)$ for $j\geq 1$. It remains to show that $\{p_j(x)\}_{j\geq 0}^q$ are orthogonal polynomials with respect to weight $\omega(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$. Again let $\theta=\cos^-x$ then $d\theta=-\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}dx$, so for two positive integers m,n we have

$$(p_{m}, p_{\Lambda}) = \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\chi^{2}}} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{m-1}} \cos(m\cos^{2}\chi) \cdot \frac{1}{2^{m-1}} \cos(n\cos^{2}\chi) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{mm-2}} \int_{0}^{\pi} \cos m\theta \cos n\theta d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{mn-2}} \int_{0}^{\pi} \frac{\cos(m\pi)\theta + \cos(m-n)\theta}{2} d\theta$$

$$= \int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{2^{mn-1}} \left[\frac{1}{m+n} \sin(n\pi)\theta + \frac{1}{m-n} \sin(m-n)\theta \right]_{0=0}^{0=\pi} \text{ if } m\neq n$$

$$= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m\neq n \\ \frac{\pi}{2^{mn-1}} & \text{if } m\neq n \end{cases}$$

and also since n+0,

$$(p_0, p_n) = \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \cos(n\cos^{-1}x) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \int_{0}^{\pi} \cos n\theta d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \sin n\theta \Big|_{0}^{\pi}$$

$$= 0.$$

Therefore indeed polynomials with respect to weight $\omega(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-n^2}}$.

Now for j≥2, it holds that

$$\rho_{j+1}(A) = \frac{1}{2^{j}} T_{j+1}(A) = \frac{1}{2^{j}} \left(2aT_{j}(A) - T_{j-1}(A) \right) \\
= A \cdot \frac{1}{2^{j-1}} T_{j}(A) - \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{j-2}} T_{j-1}(A) \\
= A \rho_{j}(A) - \frac{1}{4} \rho_{j-1}(A)$$

and $p_2(A) = A^2 - \frac{1}{2} = Ap_1(A) - \frac{1}{2}p_0(A)$. Therefore, following the notation of (3.6.6), we have $\delta_{i+1} = 0$ for all $j \ge 1$, while $A_2^2 = \frac{1}{2}$ and $A_{i+1}^2 = \frac{1}{4}$ for $j \ge 2$. The tridiagonal matrix (3.6.19) in this case is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda} \\ & \frac{1}{\lambda} & 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda} \\ & & \frac{1}{\lambda} & 0 \\ & & & \frac{1}{\lambda} & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(6) Thankfully it is given in the problem that $p_3(x)=x^3-\frac{3}{4}x$. Hence the rists of $p_3(x)$ are $x_1=-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$, $x_2=0$, and $x_3=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$. Also it is given that $p_3(x)=1$, $p_1(x)=x$, and $p_2(x)=x^2-\frac{1}{2}$. Note that

Simple substitutions and calculations lead (3.6.13) into

$$\begin{cases} w_1 + w_2 + v_3 = \pi \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}w_1 + 0 \cdot w_2 + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}w_3 = 0 \\ \frac{1}{4}w_1 - \frac{1}{2}w_2 + \frac{1}{4}w_3 = 0 \end{cases}.$$

The second equation asserts that $w_1=w_3$, thus the third equation asserts that $2w_2=w_1+w_3 \Rightarrow w_1=w_2=w_3$. Therefore, with the first equation, we conclude that $w_1=w_2=w_3=\frac{\pi}{3}$.