

# MA579H Scientific Computing

## Numerical Integration II

Rafikul Alam  
Department of Mathematics  
IIT Guwahati

# Lecture outline

- Degree of exactness
- Method of undetermined coefficients
- Gaussian quadrature formula
- Orthogonal polynomials and Gauss quadrature

## Degree of exactness

The error  $E(f) = -\frac{1}{90} \left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)^5 f^{(4)}(\theta)$  shows that Simpson's rule  $S(f)$  is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 3$ , which is one degree more than Newton-Cotes quadrature formula of order 2 (i.e.,  $n = 2$ ) can guarantee.

## Degree of exactness

The error  $E(f) = -\frac{1}{90} \left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)^5 f^{(4)}(\theta)$  shows that Simpson's rule  $S(f)$  is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 3$ , which is one degree more than Newton-Cotes quadrature formula of order 2 (i.e.,  $n = 2$ ) can guarantee.

The midpoint rule  $M(f)$  is a Newton-Cotes quadrature formula of order 0 (i.e.,  $n = 0$ ) and is exact for polynomial of degree  $\leq 1$ . Again this is one degree more than a 1-point Newton-Cotes formula can guarantee.

## Degree of exactness

The error  $E(f) = -\frac{1}{90} \left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)^5 f^{(4)}(\theta)$  shows that Simpson's rule  $S(f)$  is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 3$ , which is one degree more than Newton-Cotes quadrature formula of order 2 (i.e.,  $n = 2$ ) can guarantee.

The midpoint rule  $M(f)$  is a Newton-Cotes quadrature formula of order 0 (i.e.,  $n = 0$ ) and is exact for polynomial of degree  $\leq 1$ . Again this is one degree more than a 1-point Newton-Cotes formula can guarantee.

For example,  $\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx f(1/2)$  is exact for  $f(x) = 1$  and  $f(x) = x$ .

## Degree of exactness

The error  $E(f) = -\frac{1}{90} \left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)^5 f^{(4)}(\theta)$  shows that Simpson's rule  $S(f)$  is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 3$ , which is one degree more than Newton-Cotes quadrature formula of order 2 (i.e.,  $n = 2$ ) can guarantee.

The midpoint rule  $M(f)$  is a Newton-Cotes quadrature formula of order 0 (i.e.,  $n = 0$ ) and is exact for polynomial of degree  $\leq 1$ . Again this is one degree more than a 1-point Newton-Cotes formula can guarantee.

For example,  $\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx f(1/2)$  is exact for  $f(x) = 1$  and  $f(x) = x$ .

**Fact:** The degree of exactness of a Newton-Cotes rule of order  $m$  is  $m + 1$  if  $m$  is even or zero. But the degree of exactness is  $m$  if  $m$  is odd.

# Method of undetermined coefficients

The weights in the Simpson's rule

$$S(f) = \left[ w_0 f(a) + w_1 f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + w_2 f(b) \right] \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

can be determined by utilizing the fact that  $S(f)$  is exact for  $f(x) = 1, f(x) = x$ , and  $f(x) = x^2$ .

# Method of undetermined coefficients

The weights in the Simpson's rule

$$S(f) = \left[ w_0 f(a) + w_1 f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + w_2 f(b) \right] \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

can be determined by utilizing the fact that  $S(f)$  is exact for  $f(x) = 1, f(x) = x$ , and  $f(x) = x^2$ . Hence

$$w_0 + w_1 + w_2 = \int_a^b dx = b - a$$

# Method of undetermined coefficients

The weights in the Simpson's rule

$$S(f) = \left[ w_0 f(a) + w_1 f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + w_2 f(b) \right] \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

can be determined by utilizing the fact that  $S(f)$  is exact for  $f(x) = 1, f(x) = x$ , and  $f(x) = x^2$ . Hence

$$w_0 + w_1 + w_2 = \int_a^b dx = b - a$$

$$w_0 a + w_1 \left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + w_2 b = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{(b^2 - a^2)}{2}$$

# Method of undetermined coefficients

The weights in the Simpson's rule

$$S(f) = \left[ w_0 f(a) + w_1 f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + w_2 f(b) \right] \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

can be determined by utilizing the fact that  $S(f)$  is exact for  $f(x) = 1, f(x) = x$ , and  $f(x) = x^2$ . Hence

$$w_0 + w_1 + w_2 = \int_a^b dx = b - a$$

$$w_0 a + w_1 \left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + w_2 b = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{(b^2 - a^2)}{2}$$

$$w_0 a^2 + w_1 \left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 + w_2 b^2 = \int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{(b^3 - a^3)}{3}$$

# Method of undetermined coefficients

Solving the Vandermonde system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ a & \frac{a+b}{2} & b \\ a^2 & \frac{(a+b)^2}{4} & b^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b-a \\ \frac{b^2-a^2}{2} \\ \frac{b^3-a^3}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

we obtain  $w_0 = (b-a)/6 = w_2$  and  $w_1 = 2(b-a)/3$ .

# Method of undetermined coefficients

Solving the Vandermonde system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ a & \frac{a+b}{2} & b \\ a^2 & \frac{(a+b)^2}{4} & b^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b-a \\ \frac{b^2-a^2}{2} \\ \frac{b^3-a^3}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

we obtain  $w_0 = (b-a)/6 = w_2$  and  $w_1 = 2(b-a)/3$ .

Now consider an  $(n+1)$ -point quadrature rule

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \sum_{j=0}^n w_j f(x_j).$$

# Method of undetermined coefficients

Solving the Vandermonde system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ a & \frac{a+b}{2} & b \\ a^2 & \frac{(a+b)^2}{4} & b^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b-a \\ \frac{b^2-a^2}{2} \\ \frac{b^3-a^3}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

we obtain  $w_0 = (b-a)/6 = w_2$  and  $w_1 = 2(b-a)/3$ .

Now consider an  $(n+1)$ -point quadrature rule

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \sum_{j=0}^n w_j f(x_j).$$

If the quadrature rule is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq n$ , then the weights can be determined by solving the Vandermonde system

# Method of undetermined coefficients

Solving the Vandermonde system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ a & \frac{a+b}{2} & b \\ a^2 & \frac{(a+b)^2}{4} & b^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b-a \\ \frac{b^2-a^2}{2} \\ \frac{b^3-a^3}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

we obtain  $w_0 = (b-a)/6 = w_2$  and  $w_1 = 2(b-a)/3$ .

Now consider an  $(n+1)$ -point quadrature rule

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \sum_{j=0}^n w_j f(x_j).$$

If the quadrature rule is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq n$ , then the weights can be determined by solving the Vandermonde system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ x_0 & x_1 & \cdots & x_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ x_0^n & x_1^n & \cdots & x_n^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b-a \\ \frac{b^2-a^2}{2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{b^{n+1}-a^{n+1}}{n+1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

## Example

Once again consider the Simpson rule

$$\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(0) + w_1 f(1/2) + w_2 f(1).$$

Since Simpson's rule is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 2$ ,

## Example

Once again consider the Simpson rule

$$\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(0) + w_1 f(1/2) + w_2 f(1).$$

Since Simpson's rule is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 2$ , the Vandermonde system is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}.$$

## Example

Once again consider the Simpson rule

$$\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(0) + w_1 f(1/2) + w_2 f(1).$$

Since Simpson's rule is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 2$ , the Vandermonde system is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solving the system, we have  $w_0 = 1/6 = w_2$  and  $w_1 = 2/3$ . Hence the Simpson's rule is given by

$$\int_0^1 f(x)dx \approx \frac{1}{6}[f(0) + 4f(1/2) + f(1)].$$

# Approximation of weighted definite integrals

Newton-Cotes formulas can be used to approximate integral of the form

$$\int_a^b f(x)\mu(x)dx \approx \sum_{j=0}^n w_j f(x_j),$$

where  $\mu \in C[a, b]$  is such that  $\mu(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . The function  $\mu$  is called a weight function.

# Approximation of weighted definite integrals

Newton-Cotes formulas can be used to approximate integral of the form

$$\int_a^b f(x)\mu(x)dx \approx \sum_{j=0}^n w_j f(x_j),$$

where  $\mu \in C[a, b]$  is such that  $\mu(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . The function  $\mu$  is called a weight function.

In this case, the weights  $w_0, \dots, w_n$  are given by

$$w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x)\mu(x)dx, \quad j = 0 : n.$$

# Gaussian quadrature rules

Consider the quadrature rule

$$Q_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n) \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

If  $Q_n(f)$  is interpolatory, that is,  $w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, j = 0 : n$ , then the degree of exactness  $Q_n(f)$  is at least  $n$ .

# Gaussian quadrature rules

Consider the quadrature rule

$$Q_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n) \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

If  $Q_n(f)$  is interpolatory, that is,  $w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, j = 0 : n$ , then the degree of exactness  $Q_n(f)$  is at least  $n$ .

**Question:** How to choose nodes  $x_j$  and weights  $w_j$  that **maximize the degree of exactness of  $Q_n(f)$ ?**

## Gaussian quadrature rules

Consider the quadrature rule

$$Q_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n) \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

If  $Q_n(f)$  is interpolatory, that is,  $w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, j = 0 : n$ , then the degree of exactness  $Q_n(f)$  is at least  $n$ .

**Question:** How to choose nodes  $x_j$  and weights  $w_j$  that maximize the degree of exactness of  $Q_n(f)$ ?

A quadrature rule  $Q_n(f)$  in which nodes  $x_j$  and weights  $w_j$  are chosen in such a way that maximize the degree of exactness of  $Q_n(f)$  is called the Gaussian quadrature rule.

# Gaussian quadrature rules

Consider the quadrature rule

$$Q_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n) \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

If  $Q_n(f)$  is interpolatory, that is,  $w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, j = 0 : n$ , then the degree of exactness  $Q_n(f)$  is at least  $n$ .

**Question:** How to choose nodes  $x_j$  and weights  $w_j$  that **maximize the degree of exactness of  $Q_n(f)$** ?

A quadrature rule  $Q_n(f)$  in which nodes  $x_j$  and weights  $w_j$  are chosen in such a way that **maximize the degree of exactness of  $Q_n(f)$**  is called the Gaussian quadrature rule.

An  $(n + 1)$ -point Gaussian quadrature rule is referred to as **Gaussian quadrature of order  $n$**  and is denoted by  $G_n(f)$ .

## Gaussian quadrature rules

Consider the quadrature rule

$$Q_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n) \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

If  $Q_n(f)$  is interpolatory, that is,  $w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, j = 0 : n$ , then the degree of exactness  $Q_n(f)$  is at least  $n$ .

**Question:** How to choose nodes  $x_j$  and weights  $w_j$  that **maximize the degree of exactness of  $Q_n(f)$** ?

A quadrature rule  $Q_n(f)$  in which nodes  $x_j$  and weights  $w_j$  are chosen in such a way that **maximize the degree of exactness of  $Q_n(f)$**  is called the Gaussian quadrature rule.

An  $(n + 1)$ -point Gaussian quadrature rule is referred to as **Gaussian quadrature of order  $n$**  and is denoted by  $G_n(f)$ .

Gaussian quadrature rules are based on polynomial interpolation, but nodes as well as weights are chosen to maximize the degree of exactness.

## One-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Gaussian quadrature rules can be derived by method of undetermined coefficients, but the resulting system of equations that determines nodes and weights is nonlinear.

## One-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Gaussian quadrature rules can be derived by method of undetermined coefficients, but the resulting system of equations that determines nodes and weights is nonlinear.

Consider the case  $n = 0$  so that  $G_0(f) = w_0 f(x_0)$ . Then the exactness of constant polynomial 1 yields

$$w_0 = G_0(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a.$$

## One-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Gaussian quadrature rules can be derived by method of undetermined coefficients, but the resulting system of equations that determines nodes and weights is nonlinear.

Consider the case  $n = 0$  so that  $G_0(f) = w_0 f(x_0)$ . Then the exactness of constant polynomial 1 yields

$$w_0 = G_0(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a.$$

Next, the exactness of the polynomial  $x$  yields

$$x_0 w_0 = G_0(x) = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2} \Rightarrow x_0 = \frac{a + b}{2}.$$

## One-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Gaussian quadrature rules can be derived by method of undetermined coefficients, but the resulting system of equations that determines nodes and weights is nonlinear.

Consider the case  $n = 0$  so that  $G_0(f) = w_0 f(x_0)$ . Then the exactness of constant polynomial 1 yields

$$w_0 = G_0(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a.$$

Next, the exactness of the polynomial  $x$  yields

$$x_0 w_0 = G_0(x) = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2} \Rightarrow x_0 = \frac{a + b}{2}.$$

Hence  $G_0(f) = (b - a)f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) = M(f)$ .

## One-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Gaussian quadrature rules can be derived by method of undetermined coefficients, but the resulting system of equations that determines nodes and weights is nonlinear.

Consider the case  $n = 0$  so that  $G_0(f) = w_0 f(x_0)$ . Then the exactness of constant polynomial 1 yields

$$w_0 = G_0(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a.$$

Next, the exactness of the polynomial  $x$  yields

$$x_0 w_0 = G_0(x) = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2} \Rightarrow x_0 = \frac{a + b}{2}.$$

Hence  $G_0(f) = (b - a)f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) = M(f)$ . Note that

$$\int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3} \neq (b - a) \left(\frac{a + b}{2}\right)^2.$$

## One-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Gaussian quadrature rules can be derived by method of undetermined coefficients, but the resulting system of equations that determines nodes and weights is nonlinear.

Consider the case  $n = 0$  so that  $G_0(f) = w_0 f(x_0)$ . Then the exactness of constant polynomial 1 yields

$$w_0 = G_0(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a.$$

Next, the exactness of the polynomial  $x$  yields

$$x_0 w_0 = G_0(x) = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2} \Rightarrow x_0 = \frac{a + b}{2}.$$

Hence  $G_0(f) = (b - a)f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) = M(f)$ . Note that

$$\int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3} \neq (b - a) \left(\frac{a + b}{2}\right)^2.$$

Thus the degree of exactness of 1-point Gaussian quadrature rule is 1.

## Two-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Now consider the case  $n = 1$  so that  $G_1(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ . Then the exactness of  $G_1(f)$  for polynomial of degree  $\leq 2$  yields

## Two-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Now consider the case  $n = 1$  so that  $G_1(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ . Then the exactness of  $G_1(f)$  for polynomial of degree  $\leq 2$  yields

$$w_0 + w_1 = G_1(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a$$

## Two-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Now consider the case  $n = 1$  so that  $G_1(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ . Then the exactness of  $G_1(f)$  for polynomial of degree  $\leq 2$  yields

$$\begin{aligned}w_0 + w_1 &= G_1(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a \\w_0 x_0 + w_1 x_1 &= G_1(x) = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}\end{aligned}$$

## Two-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Now consider the case  $n = 1$  so that  $G_1(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ . Then the exactness of  $G_1(f)$  for polynomial of degree  $\leq 2$  yields

$$w_0 + w_1 = G_1(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a$$

$$w_0 x_0 + w_1 x_1 = G_1(x) = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}$$

$$w_0 x_0^2 + w_1 x_1^2 = G_1(x^2) = \int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3}.$$

## Two-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Now consider the case  $n = 1$  so that  $G_1(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ . Then the exactness of  $G_1(f)$  for polynomial of degree  $\leq 2$  yields

$$w_0 + w_1 = G_1(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a$$

$$w_0 x_0 + w_1 x_1 = G_1(x) = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}$$

$$w_0 x_0^2 + w_1 x_1^2 = G_1(x^2) = \int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3}.$$

Thus we have 3 nonlinear equations in 4 unknowns  $x_0, x_1, w_0, w_1$ .

## Two-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Now consider the case  $n = 1$  so that  $G_1(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ . Then the exactness of  $G_1(f)$  for polynomial of degree  $\leq 2$  yields

$$w_0 + w_1 = G_1(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a$$

$$w_0 x_0 + w_1 x_1 = G_1(x) = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}$$

$$w_0 x_0^2 + w_1 x_1^2 = G_1(x^2) = \int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3}.$$

Thus we have 3 nonlinear equations in 4 unknowns  $x_0, x_1, w_0, w_1$ .

It is difficult to know whether this system has a solution, or how many, if any, additional equations can be added.

## Two-point Gaussian quadrature rule

Now consider the case  $n = 1$  so that  $G_1(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ . Then the exactness of  $G_1(f)$  for polynomial of degree  $\leq 2$  yields

$$w_0 + w_1 = G_1(1) = \int_a^b 1 \cdot dx = b - a$$

$$w_0 x_0 + w_1 x_1 = G_1(x) = \int_a^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}$$

$$w_0 x_0^2 + w_1 x_1^2 = G_1(x^2) = \int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3}.$$

Thus we have 3 nonlinear equations in 4 unknowns  $x_0, x_1, w_0, w_1$ .

It is difficult to know whether this system has a solution, or how many, if any, additional equations can be added.

We shall see that a Gaussian quadrature rule of order  $m$  is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 2m + 1$ .

# Orthogonal functions

**Definition:** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be integrable functions on an interval  $[a, b]$ . Then  $f$  and  $g$  are said to be **orthogonal on  $[a, b]$**  if

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = 0.$$

# Orthogonal functions

**Definition:** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be integrable functions on an interval  $[a, b]$ . Then  $f$  and  $g$  are said to be **orthogonal on  $[a, b]$**  if

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = 0.$$

**Example:**  $x^2 - \frac{1}{3}$  is orthogonal to 1 and  $x$  on  $[-1, 1]$  as

$$\int_{-1}^1 1.(x^2 - \frac{1}{3})dx = \int_{-1}^1 x(x^2 - \frac{1}{3})dx = 0.$$

# Orthogonal functions

**Definition:** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be integrable functions on an interval  $[a, b]$ . Then  $f$  and  $g$  are said to be **orthogonal on  $[a, b]$**  if

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = 0.$$

**Example:**  $x^2 - \frac{1}{3}$  is orthogonal to 1 and  $x$  on  $[-1, 1]$  as

$$\int_{-1}^1 1.(x^2 - \frac{1}{3})dx = \int_{-1}^1 x(x^2 - \frac{1}{3})dx = 0.$$

**Definition:** Let  $\mathcal{S}$  be a set of integrable functions on  $[a, b]$ . If  $f$  is an integrable function on  $[a, b]$  then  $f$  is said to be orthogonal to  $\mathcal{S}$  on  $[a, b]$  and denoted by  $f \perp \mathcal{S}$  if  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = 0$  for all  $g \in \mathcal{S}$ .

# Orthogonal functions

**Definition:** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be integrable functions on an interval  $[a, b]$ . Then  $f$  and  $g$  are said to be **orthogonal on  $[a, b]$**  if

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = 0.$$

**Example:**  $x^2 - \frac{1}{3}$  is orthogonal to 1 and  $x$  on  $[-1, 1]$  as

$$\int_{-1}^1 1.(x^2 - \frac{1}{3})dx = \int_{-1}^1 x(x^2 - \frac{1}{3})dx = 0.$$

**Definition:** Let  $\mathcal{S}$  be a set of integrable functions on  $[a, b]$ . If  $f$  is an integrable function on  $[a, b]$  then  $f$  is said to be orthogonal to  $\mathcal{S}$  on  $[a, b]$  and denoted by  $f \perp \mathcal{S}$  if  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = 0$  for all  $g \in \mathcal{S}$ .

**Example:**  $(x^2 - \frac{1}{3}) \perp \text{span}\{1, x\}$  on  $[-1, 1]$ .

# Orthogonal functions

**Definition:** A set of integrable functions  $\{f_0, \dots, f_n\}$  on  $[a, b]$  is said to be an **orthogonal set on  $[a, b]$**  if

$$\int_a^b f_j(x) f_k(x) dx = 0 \text{ for } j \neq k.$$

If, in addition,  $\int_a^b (f_k(x))^2 dx = 1$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , then  $\{f_0, \dots, f_n\}$  is said to be an **orthonormal set on  $[a, b]$** .

# Orthogonal functions

**Definition:** A set of integrable functions  $\{f_0, \dots, f_n\}$  on  $[a, b]$  is said to be an **orthogonal set on  $[a, b]$**  if

$$\int_a^b f_j(x) f_k(x) dx = 0 \text{ for } j \neq k.$$

If, in addition,  $\int_a^b (f_k(x))^2 dx = 1$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , then  $\{f_0, \dots, f_n\}$  is said to be an **orthonormal set on  $[a, b]$** .

**Example:** The Legendre polynomials  $\{1, x, \frac{3x^2-1}{2}, \frac{5x^3-3x}{2}, \dots, p_n(x)\}$  generated by

$$p_i(x) := \frac{1}{2^i i!} \frac{d^i}{dx^i} [(x^2 - 1)]^i, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots \quad [\text{Rodrigues Formula}]$$

form an orthonormal set of polynomials on  $[-1, 1]$ .

# Orthonormal functions

Let  $\mu \in C[a, b]$  such that  $\mu(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

A set of functions  $\{f_0, \dots, f_n\}$  on  $[a, b]$  is said to be an **orthogonal set on  $[a, b]$**  with respect to the *weight function*  $\mu$  if

$$\int_a^b f_j(x) f_k(x) \mu(x) dx = 0 \text{ for } j \neq k.$$

# Orthonormal functions

Let  $\mu \in C[a, b]$  such that  $\mu(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

A set of functions  $\{f_0, \dots, f_n\}$  on  $[a, b]$  is said to be an **orthogonal set on  $[a, b]$**  with respect to the *weight function*  $\mu$  if

$$\int_a^b f_j(x) f_k(x) \mu(x) dx = 0 \text{ for } j \neq k.$$

If, in addition,  $\int_a^b (f_k(x))^2 \mu(x) dx = 1$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , then  $\{f_0, \dots, f_n\}$  is said to be an **orthonormal set on  $[a, b]$**  with respect to  $\mu$ .

# Orthonormal functions

Let  $\mu \in C[a, b]$  such that  $\mu(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

A set of functions  $\{f_0, \dots, f_n\}$  on  $[a, b]$  is said to be an **orthogonal set on  $[a, b]$  with respect to the weight function  $\mu$**  if

$$\int_a^b f_j(x) f_k(x) \mu(x) dx = 0 \text{ for } j \neq k.$$

If, in addition,  $\int_a^b (f_k(x))^2 \mu(x) dx = 1$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , then  $\{f_0, \dots, f_n\}$  is said to be an **orthonormal set on  $[a, b]$  with respect to  $\mu$** .

**Example:** For  $\mu(x) := 1/\sqrt{1 - x^2}$ , the **Chebyshev polynomials**  $T_n(x) := \cos(n \cos^{-1} x)$ ,  $n = 0, 1, \dots, k$  are a set of orthogonal polynomials on  $[-1, 1]$ .

# Roots of orthogonal polynomials

**Theorem** An orthonormal set of polynomials  $\{p_0, \dots, p_n\}$  on an interval  $[a, b]$  (with or without weight function) satisfying  $\deg p_i = i$  is a basis of  $\mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[a, b]$ .

# Roots of orthogonal polynomials

**Theorem** An orthonormal set of polynomials  $\{p_0, \dots, p_n\}$  on an interval  $[a, b]$  (with or without weight function) satisfying  $\deg p_i = i$  is a basis of  $\mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[a, b]$ .

**Theorem:** Let  $p(x)$  be a polynomial of degree  $n + 1$ . If  $p \perp \mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[a, b]$  then  $p(x)$  has  $n + 1$  distinct roots in  $[a, b]$ .

# Roots of orthogonal polynomials

**Theorem** An orthonormal set of polynomials  $\{p_0, \dots, p_n\}$  on an interval  $[a, b]$  (with or without weight function) satisfying  $\deg p_i = i$  is a basis of  $\mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[a, b]$ .

**Theorem:** Let  $p(x)$  be a polynomial of degree  $n + 1$ . If  $p \perp \mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[a, b]$  then  $p(x)$  has  $n + 1$  distinct roots in  $[a, b]$ .

In particular, if  $\{p_0(x), \dots, p_n(x)\}$  is an orthonormal set of polynomials on  $[a, b]$  with  $\deg(p_\ell(x)) = \ell$  then  $p_\ell(x)$  has  $\ell$  distinct roots on  $[a, b]$ .

## Nodes for Gaussian quadrature rules

Suppose that  $G_n(f) = w_0f(x_0) + \cdots + w_nf(x_n)$  is interpolatory. Then

$$G_n(f) = \int_a^b p_n(x)dx \text{ and } w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x)dx, \quad j = 0 : n,$$

where  $p_n(x)$  is the interpolating polynomial of degree  $n$  that interpolates the data  $(x_0, f(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))$ .

## Nodes for Gaussian quadrature rules

Suppose that  $G_n(f) = w_0f(x_0) + \cdots + w_nf(x_n)$  is interpolatory. Then

$$G_n(f) = \int_a^b p_n(x)dx \text{ and } w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x)dx, \quad j = 0 : n,$$

where  $p_n(x)$  is the interpolating polynomial of degree  $n$  that interpolates the data  $(x_0, f(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))$ .

We now use orthogonal polynomials to determine the nodes.

## Nodes for Gaussian quadrature rules

Suppose that  $G_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n)$  is interpolatory. Then

$$G_n(f) = \int_a^b p_n(x) dx \text{ and } w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, \quad j = 0 : n,$$

where  $p_n(x)$  is the interpolating polynomial of degree  $n$  that interpolates the data  $(x_0, f(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))$ .

We now use orthogonal polynomials to determine the nodes. Recall that

$$f(x) = p_n(x) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\theta_x)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_n).$$

## Nodes for Gaussian quadrature rules

Suppose that  $G_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n)$  is interpolatory. Then

$$G_n(f) = \int_a^b p_n(x) dx \quad \text{and} \quad w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, \quad j = 0 : n,$$

where  $p_n(x)$  is the interpolating polynomial of degree  $n$  that interpolates the data  $(x_0, f(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))$ .

We now use orthogonal polynomials to determine the nodes. Recall that

$$f(x) = p_n(x) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\theta_x)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_n).$$

Set  $w(x) := (x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_n)$ . Then

## Nodes for Gaussian quadrature rules

Suppose that  $G_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n)$  is interpolatory. Then

$$G_n(f) = \int_a^b p_n(x) dx \quad \text{and} \quad w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, \quad j = 0 : n,$$

where  $p_n(x)$  is the interpolating polynomial of degree  $n$  that interpolates the data  $(x_0, f(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))$ .

We now use orthogonal polynomials to determine the nodes. Recall that

$$f(x) = p_n(x) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\theta_x)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_n).$$

Set  $w(x) := (x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_n)$ . Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b p_n(x) dx = \int_a^b \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\theta_x)}{(n+1)!} w(x) dx = 0$$

when  $f \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1} \iff w(x) \perp \mathcal{P}_n$ . [Note that  $f(x) - p_n(x) = q(x)w(x)$  for some  $q \in \mathcal{P}_n$  when  $f \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1}$ .]

# Nodes for Gaussian quadrature rules

**Theorem:** Consider the  $(n + 1)$ -point quadrature rule

$$G_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n).$$

## Nodes for Gaussian quadrature rules

**Theorem:** Consider the  $(n + 1)$ -point quadrature rule

$$G_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n).$$

Let  $p(x)$  be a polynomial of degree  $n + 1$  such that  $p \perp \mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[a, b]$ . If  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  are the zeros of  $p$  and  $w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, j = 0 : n$ , then  $G_n(f)$  is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 2n + 1$ .

**Proof:** Let  $f \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1}$ . Then  $f = qp + r$  for some  $q, r \in \mathcal{P}_n$ .

# Nodes for Gaussian quadrature rules

**Theorem:** Consider the  $(n + 1)$ -point quadrature rule

$$G_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n).$$

Let  $p(x)$  be a polynomial of degree  $n + 1$  such that  $p \perp \mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[a, b]$ . If  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  are the zeros of  $p$  and  $w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, j = 0 : n$ , then  $G_n(f)$  is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 2n + 1$ .

**Proof:** Let  $f \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1}$ . Then  $f = qp + r$  for some  $q, r \in \mathcal{P}_n$ . Hence  $f(x_j) = r(x_j), j = 0 : n$ .

# Nodes for Gaussian quadrature rules

**Theorem:** Consider the  $(n + 1)$ -point quadrature rule

$$G_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n).$$

Let  $p(x)$  be a polynomial of degree  $n + 1$  such that  $p \perp \mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[a, b]$ . If  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  are the zeros of  $p$  and  $w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, j = 0 : n$ , then  $G_n(f)$  is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 2n + 1$ .

**Proof:** Let  $f \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1}$ . Then  $f = qp + r$  for some  $q, r \in \mathcal{P}_n$ . Hence  $f(x_j) = r(x_j), j = 0 : n$ . Since  $\langle p, q \rangle = \int_a^b p(x)q(x) dx = 0$ , we have

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b r(x) dx = G_n(r) = \sum_{j=0}^n w_j r(x_j) = \sum_{j=0}^n w_j f(x_j) = G_n(f).$$

## Nodes for Gaussian quadrature rules

**Theorem:** Consider the  $(n + 1)$ -point quadrature rule

$$G_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n).$$

Let  $p(x)$  be a polynomial of degree  $n + 1$  such that  $p \perp \mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[a, b]$ . If  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  are the zeros of  $p$  and  $w_j = \int_a^b \ell_j(x) dx, j = 0 : n$ , then  $G_n(f)$  is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leq 2n + 1$ .

**Proof:** Let  $f \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1}$ . Then  $f = qp + r$  for some  $q, r \in \mathcal{P}_n$ . Hence  $f(x_j) = r(x_j), j = 0 : n$ . Since  $\langle p, q \rangle = \int_a^b p(x)q(x) dx = 0$ , we have

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b r(x) dx = G_n(r) = \sum_{j=0}^n w_j r(x_j) = \sum_{j=0}^n w_j f(x_j) = G_n(f).$$

**Note:** Having determined the nodes  $x_j$ , the weights  $w_j$  can be determined by method of undetermined coefficients.

## Example of Gaussian Quadrature

Consider the Gaussian quadrature  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ .

## Example of Gaussian Quadrature

Consider the Gaussian quadrature  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ .  
The Legendre polynomial  $p(x) = x^2 - 1/3$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$ . The nodes  $x_0, x_1$  are the roots  $\pm 1/\sqrt{3}$  of  $p(x)$ .

## Example of Gaussian Quadrature

Consider the Gaussian quadrature  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ .  
The Legendre polynomial  $p(x) = x^2 - 1/3$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$ . The nodes  $x_0, x_1$  are the roots  $\pm 1/\sqrt{3}$  of  $p(x)$ . Hence

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + w_1 f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right).$$

## Example of Gaussian Quadrature

Consider the Gaussian quadrature  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ .  
The Legendre polynomial  $p(x) = x^2 - 1/3$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$ . The nodes  $x_0, x_1$  are the roots  $\pm 1/\sqrt{3}$  of  $p(x)$ . Hence

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + w_1 f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right).$$

$$\text{Now } w_0 + w_1 = \int_{-1}^1 dx = 2$$

## Example of Gaussian Quadrature

Consider the Gaussian quadrature  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ .  
The Legendre polynomial  $p(x) = x^2 - 1/3$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$ . The nodes  $x_0, x_1$  are the roots  $\pm 1/\sqrt{3}$  of  $p(x)$ . Hence

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + w_1 f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right).$$

Now  $w_0 + w_1 = \int_{-1}^1 dx = 2$  and  $(-w_0 + w_1)/\sqrt{3} = \int_{-1}^1 xdx = 0$  yield  $w_0 = w_1 = 1$ .

## Example of Gaussian Quadrature

Consider the Gaussian quadrature  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ . The Legendre polynomial  $p(x) = x^2 - 1/3$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$ . The nodes  $x_0, x_1$  are the roots  $\pm 1/\sqrt{3}$  of  $p(x)$ . Hence

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + w_1 f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right).$$

Now  $w_0 + w_1 = \int_{-1}^1 dx = 2$  and  $(-w_0 + w_1)/\sqrt{3} = \int_{-1}^1 xdx = 0$  yield  $w_0 = w_1 = 1$ . Note that

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3} = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^2$$

## Example of Gaussian Quadrature

Consider the Gaussian quadrature  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ . The Legendre polynomial  $p(x) = x^2 - 1/3$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$ . The nodes  $x_0, x_1$  are the roots  $\pm 1/\sqrt{3}$  of  $p(x)$ . Hence

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + w_1 f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right).$$

Now  $w_0 + w_1 = \int_{-1}^1 dx = 2$  and  $(-w_0 + w_1)/\sqrt{3} = \int_{-1}^1 xdx = 0$  yield  $w_0 = w_1 = 1$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx &= \frac{2}{3} = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^2 \\ \int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx &= 0 = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^3\end{aligned}$$

## Example of Gaussian Quadrature

Consider the Gaussian quadrature  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1)$ . The Legendre polynomial  $p(x) = x^2 - 1/3$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$ . The nodes  $x_0, x_1$  are the roots  $\pm 1/\sqrt{3}$  of  $p(x)$ . Hence

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)dx \approx w_0 f\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + w_1 f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right).$$

Now  $w_0 + w_1 = \int_{-1}^1 dx = 2$  and  $(-w_0 + w_1)/\sqrt{3} = \int_{-1}^1 xdx = 0$  yield  $w_0 = w_1 = 1$ . Note that

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3} = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^2$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx = 0 = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^3$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^4 dx = \frac{2}{5} \neq \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^4 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^4.$$

## Example of Gauss quadrature with Legendre points

The Legendre nodes in  $[-1, 1]$  can be used to approximate an integral over  $[a, b]$  by change of interval:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_{-1}^1 f\left(\frac{b+a}{2} + \frac{(b-a)}{2}t\right) \frac{(b-a)}{2} dt.$$

## Example of Gauss quadrature with Legendre points

The Legendre nodes in  $[-1, 1]$  can be used to approximate an integral over  $[a, b]$  by change of interval:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_{-1}^1 f\left(\frac{b+a}{2} + \frac{(b-a)}{2}t\right) \frac{(b-a)}{2} dt.$$

**Example:** We have

$$\int_1^2 \log(x)dx = \int_{-1}^1 \log\left(\frac{t+3}{2}\right) \frac{1}{2} dt.$$

## Example of Gauss quadrature with Legendre points

The Legendre nodes in  $[-1, 1]$  can be used to approximate an integral over  $[a, b]$  by change of interval:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_{-1}^1 f\left(\frac{b+a}{2} + \frac{(b-a)}{2}t\right) \frac{(b-a)}{2} dt.$$

**Example:** We have

$$\int_1^2 \log(x)dx = \int_{-1}^1 \log\left(\frac{t+3}{2}\right) \frac{1}{2} dt.$$

For  $n = 4$  and  $f(x) := \log(x)$ , we have  $G_n(f) = 0.38629449693871$  whereas  $\int_1^2 \log(x)dx = 2 \log(2) - 1 \approx 0.38629436111989$ .

# Summary of Gauss quadrature with Legendre nodes

To compute  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  via Gauss quadrature:

Step 1. Convert  $\int_a^b f(x)dx \rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 g(t)dt$ .

Step 2. Compute the nodes  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  as the roots of the Legendre polynomial  $p_{n+1}(x) \perp \mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[-1, 1]$ .

Step 3. Compute the weights  $w_0, \dots, w_n$  by the method of undetermined coefficients on the interval  $[-1, 1]$ .

Step 4. Compute  $G_n(g) = \sum_{j=0}^n w_j g(x_j)$ .

# Summary of Gauss quadrature with Legendre nodes

To compute  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  via Gauss quadrature:

Step 1. Convert  $\int_a^b f(x)dx \rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 g(t)dt$ .

Step 2. Compute the nodes  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  as the roots of the Legendre polynomial  $p_{n+1}(x) \perp \mathcal{P}_n$  on  $[-1, 1]$ .

Step 3. Compute the weights  $w_0, \dots, w_n$  by the method of undetermined coefficients on the interval  $[-1, 1]$ .

Step 4. Compute  $G_n(g) = \sum_{j=0}^n w_j g(x_j)$ .

**Remark:** Steps 2 and 3 are independent of  $f$  and hence can be performed in advance and stored.

## Example of weighted Gaussian quadrature

Consider the 2-point weighted Gaussian quadrature

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)(1-x^2)^{-1/2} dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1).$$

## Example of weighted Gaussian quadrature

Consider the 2-point weighted Gaussian quadrature

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)(1-x^2)^{-1/2} dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1).$$

The Chebyshev polynomial  $T_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$  on  $[-1, 1]$  with respect to weight function  $(1-x^2)^{-1/2}$ .

## Example of weighted Gaussian quadrature

Consider the 2-point weighted Gaussian quadrature

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)(1-x^2)^{-1/2} dx \approx w_0 f(x_0) + w_1 f(x_1).$$

The Chebyshev polynomial  $T_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$  on  $[-1, 1]$  with respect to weight function  $(1-x^2)^{-1/2}$ . The nodes  $x_0, x_1$  are the roots  $\pm 1/\sqrt{2}$  of  $T_2(x)$ .

## Example of weighted Gaussian quadrature

Consider the 2-point weighted Gaussian quadrature

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)(1-x^2)^{-1/2}dx \approx w_0f(x_0) + w_1f(x_1).$$

The Chebyshev polynomial  $T_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$  on  $[-1, 1]$  with respect to weight function  $(1-x^2)^{-1/2}$ . The nodes  $x_0, x_1$  are the roots  $\pm 1/\sqrt{2}$  of  $T_2(x)$ . Hence

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)(1-x^2)^{-1/2}dx \approx w_0f\left(-1/\sqrt{2}\right) + w_1f\left(1/\sqrt{2}\right).$$

## Example of weighted Gaussian quadrature

Consider the 2-point weighted Gaussian quadrature

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)(1-x^2)^{-1/2}dx \approx w_0f(x_0) + w_1f(x_1).$$

The Chebyshev polynomial  $T_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1$  is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{P}_1$  on  $[-1, 1]$  with respect to weight function  $(1-x^2)^{-1/2}$ . The nodes  $x_0, x_1$  are the roots  $\pm 1/\sqrt{2}$  of  $T_2(x)$ . Hence

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x)(1-x^2)^{-1/2}dx \approx w_0f\left(-1/\sqrt{2}\right) + w_1f\left(1/\sqrt{2}\right).$$

Note that

$$w_0 + w_1 = \int_{-1}^1 (1-x^2)^{-1/2}dx = \pi$$

and

$$(-w_0 + w_1)/\sqrt{2} = \int_{-1}^1 x(1-x^2)^{-1/2}dx = 0$$

yield  $w_0 = w_1 = \pi/2$ .

## Example of weighted Gaussian quadrature

Now

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^2(1-x^2)^{-1/2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 \right]$$

## Example of weighted Gaussian quadrature

Now

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^2(1-x^2)^{-1/2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 \right]$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^3(1-x^2)^{-1/2} dx = 0 = \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^3 \right]$$

## Example of weighted Gaussian quadrature

Now

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-1}^1 x^2(1-x^2)^{-1/2} dx &= \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 \right] \\ \int_{-1}^1 x^3(1-x^2)^{-1/2} dx &= 0 = \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^3 \right] \\ \int_{-1}^1 x^4(1-x^2)^{-1/2} dx &= \frac{3\pi}{8} \neq \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^4 + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^4 \right].\end{aligned}$$

# Properties of Gaussian quadrature

Consider the Gaussian quadrature

$$G_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n) \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

Then:

- All the nodes  $x_j$  are real, distinct, and contained in  $(a, b)$ .
- All the weights  $w_j$  are positive. Indeed, for  $j = 0 : n$ , we have

$$0 < \int_a^b \ell_j(x)^2 dx = \sum_{k=0}^n w_k \ell_j(x_k)^2 = w_j.$$

## Properties of Gaussian quadrature

Consider the Gaussian quadrature

$$G_n(f) = w_0 f(x_0) + \cdots + w_n f(x_n) \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

Then:

- All the nodes  $x_j$  are real, distinct, and contained in  $(a, b)$ .
- All the weights  $w_j$  are positive. Indeed, for  $j = 0 : n$ , we have

$$0 < \int_a^b \ell_j(x)^2 dx = \sum_{k=0}^n w_k \ell_j(x_k)^2 = w_j.$$

**Theorem:** Let  $f \in C[a, b]$  and

$$E_n(f) := \|f - \hat{p}\|_\infty = \min\{\|f - p\|_\infty : p \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1}\}.$$

Then

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - G_n(f) \right| \leq 2(b-a) E_n(f) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

# Properties of Gaussian quadrature

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b f(x)dx - G_n(f) \right| &= \left| \int_a^b f(x)dx - G_n(\hat{p}) + G_n(\hat{p}) - G_n(f) \right| \\ &\leq \left| \int_a^b f(x)dx - G_n(\hat{p}) \right| + |G_n(\hat{p}) - G_n(f)| \end{aligned}$$

# Properties of Gaussian quadrature

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b f(x)dx - G_n(f) \right| &= \left| \int_a^b f(x)dx - G_n(\hat{p}) + G_n(\hat{p}) - G_n(f) \right| \\ &\leq \left| \int_a^b f(x)dx - G_n(\hat{p}) \right| + |G_n(\hat{p}) - G_n(f)| \\ &\leq \left| \int_a^b (f(x) - \hat{p}(x))dx \right| + \sum_{j=0}^n w_j |f(x_j) - \hat{p}(x_j)| \\ &\leq \max_{x \in [a,b]} |f(x) - \hat{p}_n(x)| \left( \int_a^b dx + \sum_{j=0}^n w_j \right) \\ &\leq E_n(f) \left( (b-a) + \sum_{j=0}^n w_j \right) = 2(b-a)E_n(f). \end{aligned}$$

# Properties of Gaussian quadrature

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b f(x)dx - G_n(f) \right| &= \left| \int_a^b f(x)dx - G_n(\hat{p}) + G_n(\hat{p}) - G_n(f) \right| \\ &\leq \left| \int_a^b f(x)dx - G_n(\hat{p}) \right| + |G_n(\hat{p}) - G_n(f)| \\ &\leq \left| \int_a^b (f(x) - \hat{p}(x))dx \right| + \sum_{j=0}^n w_j |f(x_j) - \hat{p}(x_j)| \\ &\leq \max_{x \in [a,b]} |f(x) - \hat{p}_n(x)| \left( \int_a^b dx + \sum_{j=0}^n w_j \right) \\ &\leq E_n(f) \left( (b-a) + \sum_{j=0}^n w_j \right) = 2(b-a)E_n(f). \end{aligned}$$

By Weierstrass theorem,  $E_n(f) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . ■

# Adaptive quadrature

**Adaptive Trapezoid:** Let  $T(a, b) := \frac{b-a}{2}[f(a) + f(b)] \approx \int_a^b f(x)dx$ .  
Then

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = T(a, b) - \frac{h^3}{12}f''(c_0)$$

where  $h := b - a$  and  $a < c_0 < b$ . Let  $c = (a + b)/2$ .

# Adaptive quadrature

**Adaptive Trapezoid:** Let  $T(a, b) := \frac{b-a}{2}[f(a) + f(b)] \approx \int_a^b f(x)dx$ .  
Then

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = T(a, b) - \frac{h^3}{12}f''(c_0)$$

where  $h := b - a$  and  $a < c_0 < b$ . Let  $c = (a + b)/2$ . Then  
 $T(a, c) + T(c, b) \approx \int_a^b f(x)dx$  and

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b f(x)dx &= T(a, c) - \frac{h^3}{8} \frac{f''(c_1)}{12} + T(c, b) - \frac{h^3}{8} \frac{f''(c_2)}{12} \\ &= T(a, c) + T(c, b) - \frac{h^3}{4} \frac{f''(c_3)}{12}\end{aligned}$$

where  $c_1, c_2, c_3 \in (a, b)$  and the last equality follows from intermediate value theorem.

# Adaptive quadrature

Assuming  $f''(c_0) \approx f''(c_3)$ , we have

$$T(a, b) - T(a, c) - T(c, b) = \frac{h^3}{12} f''(c_3) - \frac{h^3}{4} \frac{f''(c_0)}{12} \approx \frac{3}{4} \frac{h^3}{12} f''(c_3).$$

# Adaptive quadrature

Assuming  $f''(c_0) \approx f''(c_3)$ , we have

$$T(a, b) - T(a, c) - T(c, b) = \frac{h^3}{12} f''(c_3) - \frac{h^3}{4} \frac{f''(c_0)}{12} \approx \frac{3}{4} \frac{h^3}{12} f''(c_3).$$

Thus

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - T(a, c) - T(c, b) \right| \approx |T(a, b) - T(a, c) - T(c, b)| / 3.$$

# Adaptive quadrature

Assuming  $f''(c_0) \approx f''(c_3)$ , we have

$$T(a, b) - T(a, c) - T(c, b) = \frac{h^3}{12} f''(c_3) - \frac{h^3}{4} \frac{f''(c_0)}{12} \approx \frac{3}{4} \frac{h^3}{12} f''(c_3).$$

Thus

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - T(a, c) - T(c, b) \right| \approx |T(a, b) - T(a, c) - T(c, b)| / 3.$$

This shows that if  $|T(a, b) - T(a, c) - T(c, b)| < 3 * \text{TOL}$  then

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - T(a, c) - T(c, b) \right| < \text{TOL}.$$

## Adaptive quadrature

Assuming  $f''(c_0) \approx f''(c_3)$ , we have

$$T(a, b) - T(a, c) - T(c, b) = \frac{h^3}{12} f''(c_3) - \frac{h^3}{4} \frac{f''(c_0)}{12} \approx \frac{3}{4} \frac{h^3}{12} f''(c_3).$$

Thus

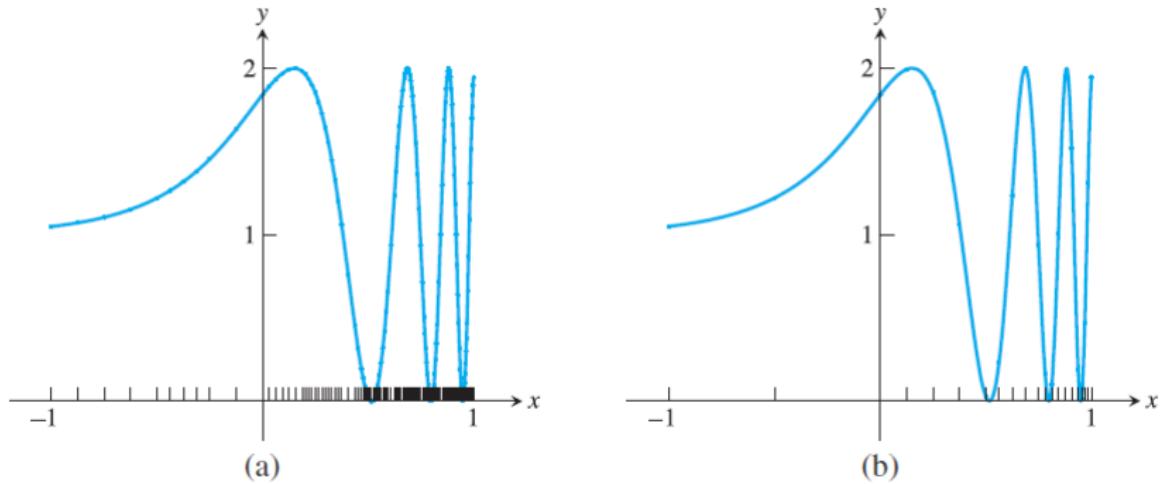
$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - T(a, c) - T(c, b) \right| \approx |T(a, b) - T(a, c) - T(c, b)| / 3.$$

This shows that if  $|T(a, b) - T(a, c) - T(c, b)| < 3 * \text{TOL}$  then

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - T(a, c) - T(c, b) \right| < \text{TOL}.$$

If this is not satisfied, then intervals  $[a, c]$  and  $[c, b]$  are further broken in halves and the above check for the error is applied to each of the halves and the process is repeated till the tolerance is met.

# Adaptive quadrature



**Figure :** Adaptive quadrature for  $\int_{-1}^1 (1 + \sin e^{3x}) dx$  with TOL = 0.0012 via (a) Trapezoid rule (needing 140 subintervals) and (b) Simpson's rule (needing 15 subintervals)