

Mathematical Tripos Part IB: Lent 2020

Numerical Analysis – Lecture 5¹

We commence our construction of *Gaussian quadrature* by choosing pairwise-distinct nodes $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_\nu \in [a, b]$ and define the *interpolatory weights*

$$b_k := \int_a^b w(x) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^{\nu} \frac{x - c_j}{c_k - c_j} dx, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, \nu.$$

Theorem The quadrature formula with the above choice is exact for all $f \in \mathbb{P}_{\nu-1}[x]$. Moreover, if c_1, c_2, \dots, c_ν are the zeros of p_ν then it is exact for all $f \in \mathbb{P}_{2\nu-1}[x]$.

Proof. Every $f \in \mathbb{P}_{\nu-1}[x]$ is its own interpolating polynomial, hence by Lagrange's formula

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\nu} f(c_k) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^{\nu} \frac{x - c_j}{c_k - c_j}. \quad (2.7)$$

The quadrature is exact for all $f \in \mathbb{P}_{\nu-1}[x]$ if $\int_a^b w(x)f(x) dx = \sum_{k=1}^{\nu} b_k f(c_k)$, and this, in tandem with the interpolating-polynomial representation, yields the stipulated form of b_1, \dots, b_ν .

Let c_1, \dots, c_ν be the zeros of p_ν . Given any $f \in \mathbb{P}_{2\nu-1}[x]$, we can represent it uniquely as $f = qp_\nu + r$, where $q, r \in \mathbb{P}_{\nu-1}[x]$. Thus, by orthogonality,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b w(x)f(x) dx &= \int_a^b w(x)[q(x)p_\nu(x) + r(x)] dx = \langle q, p_\nu \rangle + \int_a^b w(x)r(x) dx \\ &= \int_a^b w(x)r(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, the choice of quadrature knots gives

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\nu} b_k f(c_k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\nu} b_k [q(c_k)p_\nu(c_k) + r(c_k)] = \sum_{k=1}^{\nu} b_k r(c_k).$$

Hence the integral and its approximation coincide, because $r \in \mathbb{P}_{\nu-1}[x]$ and the quadrature is exact for all polynomials in $\mathbb{P}_{\nu-1}[x]$. \square

Example Let $[a, b] = [-1, 1]$, $w(x) \equiv 1$. Then the underlying orthogonal polynomials are the *Legendre polynomials*: $P_0 \equiv 1$, $P_1(x) = x$, $P_2(x) = \frac{3}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}$, $P_3(x) = \frac{5}{2}x^3 - \frac{3}{2}x$, $P_4(x) = \frac{35}{8}x^4 - \frac{15}{4}x^2 + \frac{3}{8}$ (it is customary to use this, non-monic, normalisation). The nodes of Gaussian quadrature are

$\nu = 1$: $c_1 = 0$;

$\nu = 2$: $c_1 = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$, $c_2 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$;

$\nu = 3$: $c_1 = -\frac{\sqrt{15}}{5}$, $c_2 = 0$, $c_3 = \frac{\sqrt{15}}{5}$;

$\nu = 4$: $c_1 = -\sqrt{\frac{3}{7} + \frac{2}{35}\sqrt{30}}$, $c_2 = -\sqrt{\frac{3}{7} - \frac{2}{35}\sqrt{30}}$, $c_3 = \sqrt{\frac{3}{7} - \frac{2}{35}\sqrt{30}}$, $c_4 = \sqrt{\frac{3}{7} + \frac{2}{35}\sqrt{30}}$.

3 The Peano kernel theorem

In the previous section we looked at quadrature formulae that are exact for polynomials up to certain degree n . The aim of this section is to present a tool that allows us to bound the error if we use the quadrature formula for functions f that are not in $\mathbb{P}_n[x]$. The result we will state is actually quite general, and is not

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restricted to quadrature formulae, however we will use quadrature formulae as a running example for the sake of motivation. The error function for a quadrature formula is

$$L(f) = \int_a^b w(x)f(x)dx - \sum_{k=1}^{\nu} b_k f(c_k).$$

Assume that $f \in C^{n+1}[a, b]$ and consider Taylor's formula with integral remainder:

$$f(x) = \underbrace{f(a) + (x-a)f'(a) + \frac{(x-a)^2}{2!}f''(a) + \cdots + \frac{(x-a)^n}{n!}f^{(n)}(a)}_{g(x)} + \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x (x-\theta)^n f^{(n+1)}(\theta) d\theta. \quad (3.1)$$

Since g is a polynomial of degree n , and since our quadrature formula is exact for polynomials up to degree n we have $L(g) = 0$. It thus follows, since L is linear that

$$L(f) = L \left\{ x \mapsto \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x (x-\theta)^n f^{(n+1)}(\theta) d\theta \right\}.$$

To make the range of integration independent of x , we introduce the notation

$$(x-\theta)_+^n := \begin{cases} (x-\theta)^n, & x \geq \theta, \\ 0, & x \leq \theta, \end{cases} \quad \text{whence} \quad L(f) = \frac{1}{n!} L \left\{ x \mapsto \int_a^b (x-\theta)_+^n f^{(n+1)}(\theta) d\theta \right\}.$$

Let $K(\theta) := L[x \mapsto (x-\theta)_+^n]$ for $x \in [a, b]$. [Note: K is independent of f .] The function K is called the *Peano kernel* of L . **Suppose that it is allowed to exchange the order of action of \int and L .** Because of the linearity of L , we then have

$$L(f) = \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^b K(\theta) f^{(n+1)}(\theta) d\theta. \quad (3.2)$$

The Peano kernel theorem Let L be a linear functional such that $L(f) = 0$ for all $f \in \mathbb{P}_n[x]$. Provided that $f \in C^{n+1}[a, b]$ and the above exchange of L with the integration sign is valid, the formula (3.2) is true. \square

Example Consider Simpson's rule $\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx \approx \frac{1}{3}(f(-1) + 4f(0) + f(1))$. One can verify that the Simpson rule is exact for polynomials up to degree 2 (in fact it is also true for polynomials up to degree 3). Let $L(f) = \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx - \frac{1}{3}(f(-1) + 4f(0) + f(1))$. Peano kernel theorem tells us that for any $f \in C^3[-1, 1]$ we have

$$L(f) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 K(\theta) f'''(\theta) d\theta,$$

where $K(\theta) = L(x \mapsto (x-\theta)_+^2)$. Since $\int_{-1}^1 (x-\theta)_+^2 dx = \frac{(1-\theta)^3}{3}$ we can verify that

$$\begin{aligned} K(\theta) &= \begin{cases} \frac{(1-\theta)^3}{3} - \frac{1}{3}(0 + 4\theta^2 + (1-\theta)^2) & -1 \leq \theta \leq 0 \\ \frac{(1-\theta)^3}{3} - \frac{1}{3}(0 + 4 \cdot 0 + (1-\theta)^2) & 0 \leq \theta \leq 1 \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} -\frac{1}{3}\theta(1+\theta)^2 & -1 \leq \theta \leq 0 \\ -\frac{1}{3}\theta(1-\theta)^2 & 0 \leq \theta \leq 1. \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (3.3)$$

This allows us to bound the approximation error for Simpson's rule. Indeed for any $f \in C^3[-1, 1]$ we get

$$|L(f)| \leq \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 |K(\theta)| |f'''(\theta)| d\theta \leq \frac{1}{36} \|f'''\|_{\infty}$$

where $\|f'''\|_{\infty} := \max_{x \in [-1, 1]} |f'''(\theta)|$ and where we used the fact $\int_{-1}^1 |K(\theta)| d\theta = \frac{1}{18}$ which can be easily verified from (3.3).