

Elementary Numerical Analysis
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Lecture No # 14
Convergence of Gaussian Integration

Last time we have considered Gaussian quadrature with two points. So, we had found interpolation points which are the zeros of a Legendre polynomial of degree 2. When we interpolate at these two points by a linear function and integrate the linear function, we get a formula for approximate quadrature and that formula is exact for cubic polynomials. So, we first found the points on the interval minus 1 to 1. So, the Gauss points in the interval minus 1 to 1; those are $-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$.

Next, we looked at a map from the interval minus 1 to 1 onto a general interval, and then, using this map, we defined Gauss formula with two points for the interval a to b . We obtained an error formula for this numerical Quadrature, and then, next, we looked at composite Gaussian quadrature with two points. So, our interval a to b was subdivided into small intervals of length $\frac{b-a}{n}$. On each of this interval, we applied our basic Gauss formula with two points, and then we obtained a composite Gaussian quadrature, and error is of the order of h^4 . So, it is same as the composite Simpson's rule with the assumption that our function should be four times differentiable.

Today, what we are going to do is - we are going to define a general Gauss formula. So, now, we had considered only two points. Now, we will first define what we mean by $n+1$ Gauss points or $n+1$ Gauss point. The two points $-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$, they were obtained by looking at three functions - 1 , x and x^2 and Orthonormalize it.

So, same idea we will use and we will look at say 1 , x , x^2 , x^3 and so on. To these functions, we will Orthonormalize these and then get orthonormal polynomials.

And zeros of orthonormal polynomials, they are going to be our Gauss points; they will have similar property, that if you look at $n + 1$ Gauss points, if you fit a polynomial of degree less than or equal to n and integrate, then we are going to get a formula for numerical quadrature of the type summation $w_i f(x_i)$; i goes from 0 to n .

Now, this formula, we expected to be exact for polynomials of degree less than or equal to n , but we will see that it is going to be exact for polynomials of degree less than or equal to $2n - 1$.

(Refer Slide Time: 04:34)


Legendre Polynomials

$X = C[a, b]$, $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx$, $\|f\|_2 = \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle}$
 $f_0(x) = 1$, $f_1(x) = x$, \dots , $f_n(x) = x^n$, \dots

Gram-Schmidt Orthonormalization

$g_0(x) = \frac{f_0}{\|f_0\|}$ $\text{span}\{f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n\} = \text{span}\{g_0, \dots, g_n\}$
 for $n = 1, 2, \dots$

$r_n = f_n - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \langle f_n, g_j \rangle g_j$, $g_n = \frac{r_n}{\|r_n\|_2}$: poly. of degree n



So, let us first define the Legendre polynomials and then define the Gaussian Quadrature. So, our setting is x is equal to c a b . We have got our inner product; inner product of f and g is going to be integral a to b $f(x)g(x)dx$. Look at the functions $f_0(x)$ is equal to 1 ; $f_1(x)$ is x is equal to x ; $f_n(x)$ is equal to x raised to n and so on.

Norm f is going to be the induced norm. So, we denoted by norm f_2 square root of inner product off with itself positive square root. Then the gram Schmidt Orthonormalization is $g_0(x)$ is going to be equal to f_0 upon norm f_0 .

Then for n is equal to $1, 2$ and so on. Our function r_n is function f_n minus summation j goes from 0 to $n - 1$ inner product of f_n with g_j multiplied by g_j . So, we have come up to the stage $n - 1$; so, we have calculated g_0, g_1, \dots, g_{n-1} . We subtract this term from f_n . Now, by vary definition if I look at inner product of r_n with g_k -

where k varies from 0 to $n - 1$, that inner product is going to be 0, and this is normalization; so, g_n is r_n divided by $\text{norm } r_n$ to norm. The functions which we obtained or the polynomials which we obtained g_0, g_1, g_2 and so on, they have this property that when you consider span of f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n , that means look at all the linear combinations of f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n .

A linear combination of f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n is going to be a polynomial a_0 plus $a_1 x$ plus $a_n x^n$ raised to n . So, this span is same as span of g_0, g_1 up to g_n . Now, look at our function r_n . In r_n , we have got this function f_n , which is $f_n x^n$ is equal to x^n and then we are subtracting something.

Now each g_j , when you consider j going from 0 to $n - 1$, it is going to be a polynomial of degree less than or equal to $n - 1$. So, f_n is x^n ; we are subtracting a polynomial of degree less than or equal to $n - 1$. So, r_n is going to be a polynomial of degree n and we are dividing by a constant. So, g_n is going to be a polynomial of degree n . So, these g_0, g_1, g_2 up to g_n , these are known as Legendre polynomials.

So now, g_n is a polynomial of degree n ; it is going to have n roots, but what is important is those n roots, they are going to be distinct. I am not going to prove that part but that is property of Legendre polynomial.

So, g_n it has got n roots, those n roots are distinct and those are known as our Gauss point. So, we will look at the $n + 1$ Gauss points, fit a polynomial of degree less than or equal to n , integrate it, and then, we will get the formula for Gaussian integration. Orthonormality property of our Legendre polynomials g_j - it tells us that if you look at in the product of g_i with g_j , that will be equal to 1 if i is equal to j and 0, if i not equal to j . So, in particular, if you look at g_{n+1} , this g_{n+1} will be perpendicular to function g_0, g_1 up to g_n . It will also be perpendicular to g_{n+2} , but that part we do not need. Now, our g_{n+1} is perpendicular to g_0, g_1 up to g_n .

(Refer Slide Time: 09:28)

$g_0, g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n, \dots$: Legendre Polynomials
 g_n : polynomial of degree n ,
 $\langle g_i, g_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$
 $\langle g_{n+1}, g_j \rangle = 0$ for $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$
 $\text{span} \{g_0, \dots, g_n\} = \text{span} \{1, x, \dots, x^n\}$
 $\langle g_{n+1}, a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n \rangle = 0$

Span of $g_0, g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n$ that was polynomial space of degree less than or equal to n , and hence, our g_{n+1} is going to be perpendicular to any polynomial of degree less than or equal to n . So, we have $\langle g_{n+1}, g_j \rangle = 0$ for $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$. Span of g_0, g_1, \dots, g_n is equal to span of $1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n$, and hence, inner product of g_{n+1} with a polynomial $a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$ is equal to 0.

(Refer Slide Time: 09:59)

g_{n+1} has $n+1$ distinct zeros, say, x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n
 Gauss Points
 $g_{n+1}(x) = \alpha_{n+1} (x-x_0)(x-x_1) \dots (x-x_n)$
 $\langle g_{n+1}, a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n \rangle = 0$
 $\int_a^b (x-x_0)(x-x_1) \dots (x-x_n) x^j dx = 0$
 for $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$

For any value of a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n these are the coefficients. They are going to be real numbers. Now, g_{n+1} it has got $n+1$ distinct zeroes.

So, let me denote those zeros by x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n ; g_{n+1} is a polynomial of degree $n+1$, let us factorize it. These are zeroes of g_{n+1} . So, you will have factor $(x - x_0)(x - x_1)\dots(x - x_n)$. So, we have got in all $n+1$ brackets; so, that means that is going to contribute x raised to $n+1$ terms and then the lower order terms, because g_{n+1} is a polynomial of degree $n+1$.

Here the coefficient is going to be a constant; it cannot be a function of x , because if it a function of x , then it will be a polynomial of degree bigger than $n+1$, but g_{n+1} is a polynomial of exact degree $n+1$ and it is perpendicular to $1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n$ for any values of a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n , and hence, we can conclude that $(x - x_0)(x - x_1)\dots(x - x_n)$. This is going to be perpendicular to x^j for j is equal to $0, 1, \dots, n$.

You substitute here once a_0 is equal to 1, remaining coefficients to be 0. Then a_1 is equal to 1, remaining coefficients to be 0. \dots it is a constant, so, it comes out of the integration sign, so, we have got this, and this $(x - x_0)(x - x_1)\dots(x - x_n)$ this we denote by $w(x)$.

So, this is a crucial property of our Gauss point. So, g_{n+1} is Legendre polynomial of degree $n+1$ obtained by Orthonormalizing functions $1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{n+1}$. This g_{n+1} it has got $n+1$ zeroes. Those zeroes are distinct; so, we denote them by x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n , and then, if you look at $w(x)$ which is $(x - x_0)(x - x_1)\dots(x - x_n)$, its inner product with x^j is going to be 0 for j is equal to $0, 1, \dots, n$. So, using this property, we will show that our Gaussian quadrature is going to be exact for more than a polynomial of degree n .

So now, let us look at the interpolating polynomial; look at the Lagrange form. So, $p_n(x)$ will be given by summation $f(x_i) l_i(x)$ i goes from 0 to n . We have fix now our interpolation point x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n ; we are fitting a polynomial; we are integrating, and then, we get the formula of the type w_i into $f(x_i)$; i goes from 0 to n the summation, and then, we are going to look at the error part. So, the error part - it is integral a to b and then 2 functions.

One function is our divided difference of f based on x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n and x , and we have multiplied by $w(x)$ into $d(x)$ and then that integral. If instead of the divided difference based on a $.x$, if we had a divided difference based on some fixed point, then I could

have taken it out of the integration sign and use the fact that integral a to b w x d x is equal to 0, because we have got integral w x x raised to j is equal to 0 if j is equal to 0 1 up to n.

So, a particular case, when we have got j is equal to 0, then that means integral a to b w x d x is equal to 0. This property we can use by replacing our divided difference x 0 x 1 x n x by a divided difference based on say x 0 repeated twice x 1 x 2 x n plus there is going to be a one more term and that is obtained by using the recurrence formula for divided differences.

(Refer Slide Time: 15:27)

Let $f \in C[a, b]$ and $p_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) l_i(x)$.


$p_n(x_j) = f(x_j), j = 0, 1, \dots, n$.

We have

$$f(x) - p_n(x) = f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n, x] w(x),$$


where $w(x) = (x-x_0) \dots (x-x_n)$.

$$\int_a^b w(x) x^j = 0, j = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b p_n(x) dx = \int_a^b f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n, x] w(x) dx$$


We have used this method earlier; so, we are going to use it now for this Gaussian integration. So, we have f x minus p n x to be error f x 0 x 1 x n x into w x - where w x is product of x minus x 0 up to x minus x n integral a to b w x x raised to j is equal to 0, integrate both the sides. So, you have integral a to b f x d x minus integral a to b p n x d x is equal to this error term consisting of two parts - one divided difference another function w x.

(Refer Slide Time: 16:03)

$$\begin{aligned}
 f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n, x] &= f[x_0, x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] \\
 &\quad + f[x_0, x_0, x_1, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n](x-x_0) \\
 &\quad + f[x_0, x_0, x_1, x_1, x_2, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n](x-x_0)(x-x_1) \\
 &\quad + \dots + f[x_0, x_0, \dots, x_n, x_n, x](x-x_0)\dots(x-x_{n-1}) \\
 &\quad \int_a^b \omega(x) x^j = 0, j=0, 1, \dots, n \\
 &\quad \int_a^b f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n, x] \omega(x) dx \\
 &= \int_a^b f[x_0, x_0, \dots, x_n, x_n, x] \omega(x)^2 dx
 \end{aligned}$$


Now, look at the divided difference based on $x_0 \times 1 \times n \times x$. This using recurrence relation repeatedly we can write this to be equal to f . Its divided difference based on x_0 repeated twice $x_1 \times 2 \times n$ plus the next is divided difference based on x_0 repeated twice x_1 repeated twice and $x_2 \times 3$ up to x_n appearing only once multiplied by x minus x_0 . In the next term, x_2 also will be repeated twice and we will have x minus $x_0 \times x$ minus x_1 and one continuous, and what one gets is divided difference based on x_0 repeated twice x_1 repeated twice x_n repeated twice.

So, all the interpolation points are repeated twice, and then, x multiplied by now x minus $x_0 \times x$ minus $x_1 \times x$ minus x_n , that is nothing but our $w(x)$ and a property of $w(x)$ is integral a to b $w(x) x^j$ is equal to 0 for j is equal to 0 1 up to n . So, now, you integrate this; so, you integrate this multiplied by $w(x)$. So, I look at this integral; that is our error in the numerical Quadrature.

When I do that, the first term is a constant; so, it is comes out of the integration sign integral $w(x) dx$ at 0. So, there is no contribution from this term. Then the next again the divided difference is constant, it is not depending on x and we are going to have $w(x)$ multiplied by x minus $x_0 dx$; $w(x)$ is perpendicular to constant function one and function x . So, there will be no contribution from this term and like that for all the terms except this last term. So, our integral a to b f of $x_0 \times 1 \times n \times x \times w(x) dx$ becomes equal to integral a

to b $f(x)$ 0 repeated twice x_1 repeated twice x_n repeated twice x $w(x)$ 1 $w(x)$ from here 1 $w(x)$ from here, so, we have got $w(x)$ square.

(Refer Slide Time: 19:52)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \int_a^b \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) l_i(x) dx + \int_a^b f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n, x] w(x) dx \\
 &= \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) \int_a^b l_i(x) dx + \int_a^b f[x_0, x_0, \dots, x_n, x_n, x] w(x)^2 dx \\
 &= \sum_{i=0}^n w_i f(x_i) + f[x_0, x_0, \dots, x_n, x_n, x] \int_a^b w(x)^2 dx \\
 &= \sum_{i=0}^n w_i f(x_i) + \frac{f^{(2n+2)}(c)}{(2n+2)!} \int_a^b (x-x_0)^2 \dots (x-x_n)^2 dx
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, our error, it has got integration of two functions - one function is continuous. We assume f to be sufficiently differentiable; so, we have got divided difference based on x_0 repeated twice x_1 repeated twice x_n repeated twice. So, these are going to be total $2n$ plus two points, and then, we have got point x multiplied by $w(x)$ square; $w(x)$ square will always be bigger than or equal to 0 , and hence, the mean value theorem for integration is applicable. So, using this mean value theorem for integration, we can take out the divided difference term out of integration as f of x_0 repeated twice x_1 repeated twice x_n repeated twice and some point c and multiplied by integral a to b $w(x)$ square dx , and then, this term will be equal to, as I said, we have got x_0 repeated twice x_1 repeated twice x_n repeated twice; so, those are $2n$ plus 2 point and this point x . So, here, this point x , it should be equal to point c because we are taking it out of the integration.

This is some fix point and that is going to be equal to $2n$ plus second derivative of f evaluated at some point c up on $2n$ plus 2 factorial, and then, integral a to b $(x-x_0)^2 \dots (x-x_n)^2 dx$. So, we have a formula integral a to b $f(x) dx$ is equal to summation $w_i f(x_i)$, i goes from 0 to n . So, it is based on n plus 1 points. The error is it contains $2n$ plus second derivative of our function.

Which will mean that if our function f is a polynomial of degree $2n + 1$, then the error is going to be equal to 0. We have consider the case n is equal to 1, we have got x_0 and x_1 . In that case, there will be no error provided f is a polynomial of degree $2n + 1$. So, n is equal to 1; that means cubic polynomial. So, this result, it can be generalized and we have got a way. You choose our interpolation points such that you are interpolating the given function at $n + 1$ points; so, that means you are fitting a polynomial of degree n , but the error is 0 for polynomials of degree less than or equal to $2n + 1$.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:14)

The image shows a handwritten derivation on lined paper titled "Integration at Gauss points". The first line is the Gaussian quadrature formula: $\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=0}^n w_i f(x_i)$. A note next to it says "exact for polys. of degree $\leq 2n+1$ ". The second line shows the error term: $= \frac{f^{(2n+2)}(c)}{(2n+2)!} \int_a^b (x-x_0)^2 \dots (x-x_n)^2 dx$. The third line shows the error bound: $|\int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b p_n(x) dx| \leq C \|f^{(2n+2)}\|_{\infty} (b-a)^{2n+3}$. At the bottom left, there is a logo for NIPTEL.

Now, this integration at Gauss points, so, it comes out to be equal to modulus of the error is less than or equal to there will be norm of f $2n + 2$ infinity norm, then you will have integration of this. So, the integration, it will definitely have a term $b - a$ raised to $2n + 3$. Each of this I can dominate by $b - a$; so, I will have $b - a$ raised to $2n + 2$ and then integral a to b . So, that is how you get $b - a$ raised to $2n + 3$ and some constant. Now, one can find a more precise bound by integrating this like not dominating it by $b - a$ but you can integrate. That is what we have been do it. So, you integrate, but anyway, the error for the Gaussian integration is going to be less than or equal to this.

So now, we have defined Gaussian quadrature for a general case like looking at the $n + 1$ point. Now, the question comes - whether this is going to converge for all continuous functions? So, that means you look at our set of points, they are going to be

always Gauss point. We have looked at already Gauss 2 points, so, those where our two points in the interval a, b . Now, you look at three Gauss points; so, they will be something different. So, like that if you choose your Gauss points as interpolation points, fit a polynomial obtain an approximate formula for integration whether it will converge $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ as n tends to infinity.

Please note that we are not looking at composite rule. Now, we are increasing the degree of the polynomial. We already know that our polynomial $p_n(x)$, no matter how you choose your rules, there always exist a continuous function for which the interpolating polynomial does not converge to f in the maximum norm. Now, the convergence of p_n to f that is a sufficient condition for convergence of numerical quadrature formula. It can happen that even though the polynomial does not converge to f .

For all continuous functions, our numerical integral can converge to $\int_a^b f(x) dx$. Now, this is what happens in the Gaussian quadrature rule and it does not happen for the Newton Cotes formula. When you are looking at our set of points to be the equidistant points in the interval a, b in the interval a, b , we want to look at $n + 1$ points. So, in case of Newton Cotes formula, we look at those points to be equidistant points, and in case of Gaussian Quadrature, we will take them as the Gauss points, which are the zeroes of the Legendre polynomial.

Now, to prove the convergence of numerical quadrature to $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, there are going to be two term, two facts crucial - one is we are going to show that our weights in the Gaussian integration; they are always bigger than 0. So, this is the first one, and the second one is the Weierstrass theorem that any continuous function can be approximated by polynomials in the maximum norm. So, using these two results, we are going to show that Gaussian quadrature converges to $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ as n tends to infinity - where $n + 1$ are our interpolation point. So, let us show that the points or the weights in the Gaussian integration, they are always bigger than 0.

Now, so far when we were writing a numerical quadrature formula, we were writing summation $w_i f(x_i)$ goes from 0 to n . So, as such our w_i and x_i 's, they depend on n ; like look at equidistant points, in the case of equidistant points, we had got first two points which are the two end points a and b . Then the next case was a, b and $a + b$ by 2, but the case after that when we want to consider four points, our points will be a, b and

then two points which are at a distance b minus a by 3. So, if we want to be specific, we should have written our x_i 's to be depending on n and our weights also depending on n . In that case, so far what we have been doing is we have been fixing the degree of the polynomial. So, that is why in order to not to have notation to be cumbersome, we wrote w_i and x_i with dependence on n understood or it is implicit.

(Refer Slide Time: 28:37)

Note that $w_i = \int_a^b l_i(x) dx$

Since $\sum_{j=0}^n l_j(x) = 1$, $w_i = \int_a^b l_i(x) \left(\sum_{j=0}^n l_j(x) \right) dx$.

Thus

$$w_i = \int_a^b l_i^2(x) dx + \sum_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \int_a^b l_i(x) l_j(x) dx.$$

Now, we are going to change n . So, let us be more precise with our notations and then let us write this as w_i depending on n and x_i 's depending on n . Now, w_i 's the weights, they are $\int_a^b l_i(x) dx$ - where l_i is the Lagrange polynomial. Here, still I have not written the dependence on n , but afterwards, when we are going to look at convergence that time, we will write it explicitly. So, at present, I am writing w_i with understanding that it dependence on n . How do we obtain w_i 's? We look at the interpolating polynomial p_n ; look at their Lagrange form. So, that is summation $f(x_i) l_i(x)$, i goes from 0 to n . Integrate it, $f(x_i)$'s are constants. So, they come out of the integration sign and $\int_a^b l_i(x) dx$ is that is our w_i these Lagrange polynomials. They have property that summation j goes from 0 to n $l_j(x)$ is equal to 1. This was one of our tutorial problem that the Lagrange polynomials when you add them up, then they are equal to 1, and hence, I write w_i as $\int_a^b l_i(x) dx$ multiplied by 1 so that I am writing it as a summation j goes from 0 to n $l_j(x) dx$.

Let us split this sum as when j is equal to i and the remaining terms when j is not equal to i . So, w_i is integral a to b l_i 's square $x^d x$ plus summation j goes from 0 to n j not equal to i integral a to b $l_i x l_j x dx$. What we are going to show is this term is equal to 0 . If we can show that this term is equal to 0 , then w_i will be strictly bigger than 0 because it will be integral a to b l_i square $x dx$. So, that is the idea, and in order to show that integral a to b $l_i x l_j x dx$ is equal to 0 , we will use the fact that our interpolation points those are not any points in the interval $a b$ but those are some special points.

(Refer Slide Time: 31:31)

Consider for $i \neq j$,

$$l_i(x) l_j(x) = \prod_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq i}}^n \frac{(x-x_k)}{(x_i-x_k)} \prod_{\substack{l=0 \\ l \neq j}}^n \frac{(x-x_l)}{(x_j-x_l)}$$

$$= \frac{(x-x_0) \dots (x-x_n)}{\left[\prod_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq i}}^n (x_i-x_k) \right] (x_j-x_i)} \frac{\prod_{\substack{l=0 \\ l \neq j}}^n (x-x_l)}{(x_j-x_l)}$$

$$= \frac{w(x)}{c} q_{n-1}(x), \quad q_{n-1}: \text{polynomial of degree } n-1$$

They have the property that when you look at $w(x)$ which is $(x-x_0)(x-x_1)\dots(x-x_n)$, this $w(x)$ is perpendicular to two functions x^j going from 0 to n . So, using this property, let us show that integral a to b $l_i x l_j x dx$ is equal to 0 if i not equal to j . So, we look at the case when i not equal to j $l_i x l_j x$. So, the definition of $l_i x$ is product k goes from 0 to n k not equal to i $(x-x_k)$ divided by (x_i-x_k) . Similarly, $l_j x$ will be product say l goes from 0 to n l not equal to j $(x-x_l)$ divided by (x_j-x_l) . If you do not write like the same notation l , it can be p ; it is just a domain x . So, this is product of $l_i x$ into $l_j x$.

So, look at the first product. The first product contains all $(x-x_k)$ except k not equal to i . In the second one, we have got $(x-x_l)$ all the terms except when l not equal to j , because we are assuming that i not equal to j , the term $(x-x_i)$ will be there. So, I take the term $(x-x_i)$ and join with this. So, what I will have will be $(x-x_0)(x-x_1)\dots(x-x_n)$.

minus x^n including the term x^i divided by the product k goes from 0 to n x^i minus x^k upon n for k not equal to i . From here, I am taking the term x^i divided by x^i minus x^1 . So, that term will be x^i is absorbed here.

So here, this term should be equal to x^j minus x^i because we are putting l is equal to i . Now, from this product, the term l is equal to i we are associating here. So, this product becomes l goes from 0 to n l not equal to j l not equal to i and then x^i minus x^l x^j minus x^i . The numerator x^0 x^i minus x^n is going to be our function $w(x)$. The denominator is a constant. Now, look at this term. This has got $n-1$ brackets because total there are $n+1$ brackets and two brackets are not there; so, it is going to be $n-1$ brackets. So, it is going to be a polynomial of degree $n-1$. So, we have got our $l_i(x)$ into $l_j(x)$ to be $w(x)$ divided by some constant and multiplied by a polynomial of degree $n-1$.


(Refer Slide Time: 34:38)

Thus for $i \neq j$,

$$\int_a^b l_i(x)l_j(x) dx = \frac{1}{c} \int_a^b w(x)q_{n-1}(x) dx = 0,$$

Since x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n are Gauss points.

As $l_i(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n ,

$$\int_a^b l_i^2(x) dx > 0. \quad \text{Hence } w_i > 0.$$


We are interested in showing that integral a to b $l_i(x)l_j(x)$ is equal to 0 for i not equal to j . So, let us look at integral a to b $l_i(x)l_j(x) dx$ that will be equal integral a to b $w(x)$ by some constant c multiplied by q_{n-1} and use the fact that w is perpendicular to q_{n-1} . So, since x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n are Gauss points $w(x)$ into $q_{n-1}(x) dx$ is going to be 0 and $l_i(x)$ is a polynomial of degree n . So, it cannot be identically 0. So, integral a to b $l_i^2(x) dx$ is bigger than 0, and hence, our w_i 's they are going to be bigger than 0. So, it is a

very important property of Gaussian integration that the weights are always bigger than 0.

And using this property, we are now going to show the convergence of Gaussian integration when we are considering the interpolating polynomial based on these Gauss points. Our proof it is going to be based on the weights are bigger than 0. Then the Weierstrass approximation theory property, and the third property is that in the Gaussian integration, there is no error provided your function is a polynomial of degree less than or equal to $2n + 1$.

(Refer Slide Time: 35:58)

Convergence of Gaussian Integration


Let $f \in C[a, b]$.

Denote $I_n(f) = \sum_{i=0}^n w_i^{(n)} f(x_i^{(n)})$: Gaussian Integration.

$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sum_{i=0}^n w_i^{(n)} f(x_i^{(n)})$ if f is a polynomial of degree $\leq 2n+1$.

In particular, $\sum_{i=0}^n w_i^{(n)} = b-a$.

Claim: $I_n(f) \rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.




So, look at the function f to be continuous function. Let us introduce the notation $I_n(f)$ to be summation i goes from 0 to n $w_i^{(n)} f(x_i^{(n)})$. Now, I am denoting the dependence on n , and there is no error or the integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is same as $I_n(f)$ provided f is a polynomial of degree less than or equal to $2n + 1$. So, as a special case, if I take $f(x)$ to be equal to 1, then integral $\int_a^b 1 dx$ is going to be equal to $b - a$ and I_n for that function will be summation i goes from 0 to n $w_i^{(n)}$ is equal to $b - a$.

(Refer Slide Time: 36:59)

Fix $\epsilon > 0$. Since $f \in C[a, b]$, by the Weierstrass theorem, there exists a polynomial of degree $\leq m$ such that $\|f - q_m\|_\infty < \epsilon$.

$$\int_a^b q_m(x) dx = \sum_{j=0}^n \omega_j^{(n)} q_m(x_j^{(n)}) = I_n(q_m)$$

for $n \geq \frac{m-1}{2}$.



Now, our claim is that $I_n f$ converges to $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ as n tends to infinity. So, the first thing is Weierstrass theorem. What we want to show is $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ minus $I_n f$ is less than ϵ or constant times ϵ if your n is big enough. So, I am fixing a ϵ greater than 0, and then, by the Weierstrass approximation theorem, there exists a polynomial say q_m of degree less than or equal to m such that $\|f - q_m\|_\infty$ is less than ϵ . $\int_a^b q_m(x) dx$ is going to be equal to $I_n q_m$ - where $I_n q_m$ is this approximate Quadrature.


(Refer Slide Time: 38:29)

Consider

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - I_n(f) \right|$$
$$= \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b q_m(x) dx + I_n(q_m) - I_n(f) \right|$$
$$\leq \int_a^b |f(x) - q_m(x)| dx + \sum_{j=0}^n \omega_j^{(n)} |q_m(x_j^{(n)}) - f(x_j^{(n)})|$$
$$\leq \|f - q_m\|_\infty (b-a) + \|f - q_m\|_\infty (b-a) < 2\epsilon (b-a)$$

for $n \geq \frac{m-1}{2}$

Thus $I_n(f) \rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx$



Provided your n is bigger than or equal to $m - 1$. When you look at q_m to be a polynomial of degree less than or equal to m , and here, you are looking at i_n . So, we have got n points. When we have got n points, the formula is exact for polynomials of degree less than or equal to $2n + 1$. So, that is how I get that if n is bigger than or equal to $m - 1$, then $\int_a^b q_m(x) dx$ is equal to $i_n(q_m)$. This is our first step. In the next step, we want to show that modulus of $\int_a^b f(x) dx - i_n(f)$ it is going to be less than ϵ or constant times ϵ . So, we have fix ϵ bigger than 0. We have found a q_m such that $\|f - q_m\|_\infty$ is less than ϵ . If n is bigger than or equal to $m - 1$, then $\int_a^b q_m(x) dx$ is same as $i_n(q_m)$. So, I add and subtract that, and then, I get this. Now, this will be less than or equal to $\int_a^b |f(x) - q_m(x)| dx + \int_a^b q_m(x) dx - i_n(q_m)$, so, that is $\sum_{j=0}^n w_j \|f - q_m\|_\infty$ and $\sum_{j=0}^n w_j$.

Now, since our w_j 's are bigger than 0, I do not have to write modulus here; otherwise, we have to write the modulus. So, we have got this. $\int_a^b |f(x) - q_m(x)| dx$, it is going to be less than or equal to $\|f - q_m\|_\infty \int_a^b dx = (b - a) \|f - q_m\|_\infty$, and $\int_a^b q_m(x) dx - i_n(q_m)$ this is also going to be less than or equal to $\|q_m - i_n(q_m)\|_\infty \sum_{j=0}^n w_j$, because infinity norm means maximum of $|f(x) - q_m(x)|$ belonging to a, b . So, what is left is $\sum_{j=0}^n w_j$ and that is equal to $b - a$. So, you get these to be less than 2ϵ into $b - a$.

So, for a fix ϵ , we have found n such that if n is begin up, $i_n(f)$ is going to converge to $\int_a^b f(x) dx$. So, this is convergence in Gaussian Quadrature. So now, what goes wrong with the Newton Cotes formula? Why cannot I use the same argument? Like I start with f belonging to $C[a, b]$, and then, in case of Newton Cotes formula, I am going to have $n + 1$ interpolation points it is going to be exact for polynomials of degree less than or equal to n .

So, this is a difference that for the Gaussian Quadrature, we had exactitude for polynomials of degree less than or equal to $2n + 1$, but that should not matter, because anyway I want that modulus of $\int_a^b f(x) dx - i_n(f)$ should be less than ϵ when n is begin up. So, may be in Newton Cotes formula, I will have to choose n bigger than in the Gaussian Quadrature, and for convergence, that does not matter. What we want is given ϵ for n large enough modulus of $\int_a^b f(x) dx - i_n(f)$ should be less than ϵ .

(Refer Slide Time: 42:08)

Newton-Cotes formulae .


x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n : equidistant points .
 $h = \frac{b-a}{n}$, $x_i = a + ih$, $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$: $x_0 = a$, $x_n = b$.

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i^{(n)}) l_i^{(n)}(x)$$

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

$$= \sum_{i=0}^n w_i^{(n)} f(x_i^{(n)}) : \text{exact for polys. of degree } \leq n$$

$\int_n(f)$




(Refer Slide Time: 42:20)

Let $f \in C[a, b]$. Fix $\epsilon > 0$.

By the Weierstrass Theorem, there exists a polynomial q_m of degree $\leq m$ such that

$$\|f - q_m\|_\infty < \epsilon .$$


$$\int_a^b q_m(x) dx = I_n(q_m) \text{ for } n \geq m .$$

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - I_n(f) \right| \leq \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b q_m(x) dx \right| + \left| I_n(q_m) - I_n(f) \right|$$


So, let us see where our proof breaks down. So, we have equidistant points, and then, our quadrature rule is going to be exact for polynomials of degree less than or equal to n . So, our fix our function f and let us calculate or let us find a q_m . So, by the Weierstrass theorem, I will have q_m such that norm of f minus q_m infinity norm is less than epsilon. So, integral a to b q_m x d x will be equal to i n q_m provided n bigger than or equal to m . In case of Gaussian Quadrature, we had n bigger than or equal to m minus 1 by 2. So, I have only for n bigger than or equal to m .

(Refer Slide Time: 43:06)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b q_m(x) dx \right| &\leq \int_a^b |f(x) - q_m(x)| dx \\
 &\leq \|f - q_m\|_{\infty} (b-a) \\
 &= \epsilon (b-a) \\
 |I_n(f) - I_n(q_m)| &= \left| \sum_{j=0}^n w_j^{(n)} f(x_j^{(n)}) - \sum_{j=0}^n w_j^{(n)} q_m(x_j^{(n)}) \right| \\
 &\leq \sum_{j=0}^n |w_j^{(n)}| |f(x_j^{(n)}) - q_m(x_j^{(n)})| \\
 &\leq \epsilon \left(\sum_{j=0}^n |w_j^{(n)}| \right) \rightarrow \text{not bounded.}
 \end{aligned}$$



I look at modulus of integral a to b f x d x minus i n f i add integral a to b q m x d x add and subtract; so, I will get this. Then modulus of integral a to b f x d x minus integral a to b q m x d x this will be less than or equal to integral a to b mod of f x minus q m x d x this can be dominated by norm of f minus q m infinity into b minus a. So, we have got this term to be less than epsilon into b minus a. Then look at the term I n f minus I n q m. This will be summation j goes from 0 to n w j n f of x j n minus summation j goes from 0 to n w j n q m x j n. So, by triangle inequality, this is going to be less than or equal to summation j goes from 0 to n mod w j n and modulus of f x j n minus q m x j n. This term will be less than or equal to epsilon and you have left with summation j goes from 0 to n mod w j n. So, here is the crucial difference. For Gaussian Quadrature, this modulus of w j n was same as w j n. So, we had here summation j goes from 0 to n w j n and that is equal to b minus a.

In the Newton Cotes formula also summation w j n is going to be equal to be minus a; that fact still remain, but in our error formula, what is coming into picture is summation mod w j n, and in case of Newton Cotes formula, the, our weights they are going to be of mixed signs; that means they can be both positive and negative and that is why the there is no convergence if you choose your points to be equidistant points, and hence, we went to the composite a numerical quadrature in case of equidistant point or the Newton Cotes formulae, we had special cases as trapezoidal rule, then Simpson's rule, and then we can write higher degree, where as, for the Gaussian Quadrature, we have got convergence.

We have a choice; we can increase the degree of the polynomial. So, instead of considering the composite rules, we can look at the higher degree polynomials and then get a numerical quadrature formula. So, if your function f is sufficiently smooth, then it is worthwhile to apply Gaussian integration of higher order than composite say trapezoidal or composite Simpson's rule, because the speed of convergence is going to be very high for Gaussian integration.

So, if your function f is sufficiently smooth, then one should use the Gaussian integration of higher order. Now, let us look at what are the disadvantages of Gaussian integration. Gauss two points in the interval minus 1 to 1 which we obtained, they were minus 1 by root 3 and 1 by root 3.

Similarly, the higher order Gauss points, they are going to be irrational. So, that seems to be a stumbling block that one prefers a simple Simpson's rule, but then when you are writing a program, that should not be a stopping thing because the Gauss points and Gauss weights for higher degree polynomials or for general case, the tables are available. So, initially may be while writing the program, it is a bit more problem but afterwards it pays off.

Now, another drawback here is that suppose I have got Gauss two points, so, I get minus 1 by root 3 and 1 by root 3 in the interval minus 1 to 1, I calculate. Now, I find that the accuracy is not good enough; so, I go to 3. When I look at 3 Gauss points, then whatever work we have done for 2 Gauss points that is lost. That is one of the disadvantage of the Gauss point, but as I said that if your function is sufficiently differentiable, then in Gaussian quadrature we are going to get a very fast convergence. So, in our next lecture, we will consider Romberg integration and then we will solve some problems. So, thank you.