

Problem 1. The quadrature formula

$$\int_0^2 f(x) dx = c_0 f(0) + c_1 f(1) + c_2 f(2)$$

is exact for all polynomials of degree less than or equal to 2. Determine c_0 , c_1 , and c_2 .

Problem 2. Kendra defined a family of polynomials D_0, D_1, D_2, \dots satisfying the following conditions:

- (i) the polynomial D_k is of degree k ;
- (ii) the coefficient of x^k in D_k is equal to 1 (such polynomials are called *monic* – see the definition on page 222 of the book);
- (iii) the polynomials $D_0, D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n$ form an orthogonal basis in the space of polynomials $V_n(0, \infty; w(x) = e^{-x})$.

Recall that $V_n(a, b; w(x))$ stands for the linear space of polynomials of degree no greater than n endowed with the inner product

$$(P, Q) = \int_a^b P(x) Q(x) w(x) dx .$$

In the solution of this problem the following identity will be handy:

$$\int_0^{\infty} x^k e^{-x} dx = k!$$

(where, by definition, $0! = 1$).

- (a) Clearly, $D_0(x) = 1$ for each $x \in [0, \infty)$. Find the only monic polynomial D_1 of degree 1 that is orthogonal to D_0 .
- (b) Find the only monic quadratic polynomial D_2 that is orthogonal to both D_0 and D_1 .
- (c) Show that the polynomial $P(x) = x^2 + 3$ can be represented as a linear combination of the polynomials D_0, D_1 and D_2 as follows: $P = D_2 + 4D_1 + 5D_0$.
- (d) Show by direct integration that $(D_0, D_0) = 1$, $(D_1, D_1) = 1$, $(D_2, D_2) = 4$.

- (e) Find the orthogonal projection, $\text{proj}_{D_0+2D_1}P$, of the polynomial $P(x) = x^2 + 3$ onto the “straight line”

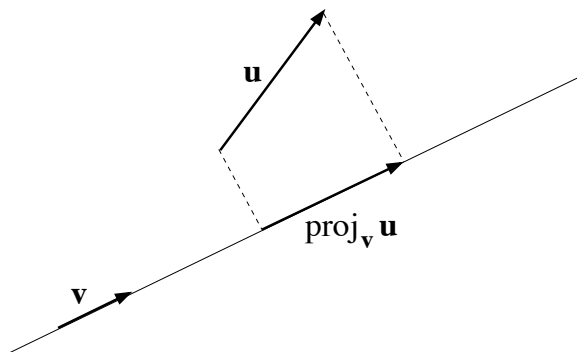
$$\ell := \{t(D_0 + 2D_1) \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

in the 3-dimensional inner product linear space $V_2(0, \infty; e^{-x})$. If you have solved part (c), then finding this orthogonal projection should be easy.

Hint: If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are vectors in the inner product linear space V , then the orthogonal projection of the vector \mathbf{u} onto the straight line in the direction of \mathbf{v} is the vector

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{u} = \frac{(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})}{(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v})} \mathbf{v}$$

– see the picture below.



- (f) Finally, let $\tilde{D}_k := \mu_k D_k$, where $\mu_k > 0$ is a constant (depending on k) such that the norm,

$$\|\tilde{D}_k\| := \sqrt{(\tilde{D}_k, \tilde{D}_k)},$$

of the polynomial \tilde{D}_k is 1. Find the explicit expressions for $\tilde{D}_0(x)$, $\tilde{D}_1(x)$, and $\tilde{D}_2(x)$.

Problem 3. The Legendre polynomials are a family of monic orthogonal polynomials

$$P_0(x) = 1, \quad P_1(x) = x, \quad P_2(x) = x^2 - \frac{1}{3}, \quad P_3(x) = x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x, \dots,$$

such that P_0, P_1, \dots, P_n form an orthogonal basis of the linear space $V_n(-1, 1; w(x) \equiv 1)$ (i.e., the vector space of all polynomials of degree $\leq n$ endowed with the weight function $w(x) = 1$ for all $x \in [-1, 1]$).

The goal of this problem is to find a Gaussian quadrature formula with degree of precision 5 based on the general formalism developed in class. The notations used are the same as in the handout “Theoretical foundations of Gaussian quadrature”.

- (a) Find the roots x_1, x_2 , and x_3 , of the polynomial P_3 . Order them in such a way that $x_1 < x_2 < x_3$.

Remark: Recall that the general theory (Lemma 1 on page 7 of the handout) guarantees that P_3 has three *real* roots, all of them in the interval $(-1, 1)$.

(b) Write down the polynomials L_1, L_2, L_3 .

Hint: Here is what I obtained for L_2 : $L_2(x) = -\frac{5}{3}x^2 + 1$ (but you have to derive this).

(c) Find the weights w_1, w_2, w_3 .

Hint: I obtained $w_3 = \frac{5}{9}$.

(d) Write down the quadrature formula coming from parts (a), (b), (c).

(e) Show that the quadrature formula obtained in (d) is *exact* for all monomials x^k if k is an odd positive integer.

Hint: This is *very* easy!!!

(f) Show that the quadrature formula obtained in (d) is exact for the polynomial $f(x) = 1$.

(g) Show that the quadrature formula obtained in (d) is exact for the polynomial $f(x) = x^2$.

(h) Show that the quadrature formula obtained in (d) is exact for the polynomial $f(x) = x^4$.

(i) Show that the quadrature formula obtained in (d) is *not* exact for the polynomial $f(x) = x^6$. Does this agree with the theoretical prediction about the degree of precision of the method you developed?

(j) Now let us apply the beautiful quadrature formula you derived in (d) to a concrete problem. The so-called *error function* is defined as

$$\operatorname{erf}(z) := \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^z e^{-x^2} dx .$$

It is important for engineering applications; it is related to the c.d.f. $\Phi(z)$ of the standard normal distribution by $\operatorname{erf}(z) = 2\Phi(\sqrt{2}z) - 1$. (To solve this problem, you do not need to know what these words mean.)

You have to find the value of $\operatorname{erf}(1)$. Since the limits of the integral in the definition of $\operatorname{erf}(1)$ are 0 and 1 but in the quadrature formula the integral was from -1 to 1, first find an appropriate *linear* change of variables $y = \eta(x)$ such that

$$\eta(0) = -1 \quad \text{and} \quad \eta(1) = 1 .$$

Change the integration variable from x to $y = \eta(x)$.

Remark: You can also find infinitely many nonlinear changes of variables that satisfy these two conditions, but why make things more complicated?

(k) Apply the Gaussian quadrature formula found in (d) to compute the numerical value of $\operatorname{erf}(1)$. Find the absolute and the relative error if you know that the exact value of $\operatorname{erf}(1)$ is

$$\operatorname{erf}(1)_{\text{exact}} = 0.8427007929497148693412206350826092592960669979663029084599 \dots .$$