## Deriving the Gaussian Quadrature

- We are interested in deriving quadratures with higher degrees of precision. Toward this end, observe the following three facts:
  - ◇ If A quadrature formula using n distinct abscissas degree of precision  $\ge n - 1$ , then it must result from the integration of an interpolation polynomial.
    - ▷ Suppose the quadrature rule is  $Q_n(f) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i f(x_i).$

$$\triangleright \text{ Then } \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i^k = \frac{b^{k+1} - a^{k+1}}{k+1} \text{ for } k = 0, \dots, n-1.$$

 $\triangleright\,$  We may rewrite this system of equations as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ x_1 & \dots & x_n \\ \vdots & & \\ x_1^{n-1} & \dots & x_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b-a \\ \frac{b^2-a^2}{2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{b^n-a^n}{n} \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (1)

The coefficient matrix is the Vandermonde matrix. Thus THE system (??) has a unique solution for  $\alpha_i$ ), i = 1, ..., n.

- ▷ On the other hand, we can construct an interpolating polynomial of degree n-1 using the same nodes  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ .
- ▷ This polynomial results in a quadrature formula  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_i f(x_i)$  which has degree of precision at least n-1.
- ▷ By setting  $E_n(x^k) = 0$  for k = 0, ..., n-1 in the new quadrature, we end up with the same linear system (??).
- $\triangleright$  By uniqueness, it must be that  $\alpha_i = \beta_i$ .

- $\diamond\,$  Since the Gaussian quadrature is expected to have degree of precision higher than n, we conclude that
  - ▷ It may be thought of as the integration of a certain polynomial that interpolates f(x) at a certain set of nodes  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ .
  - $\triangleright$  It must remain true that

$$E_n(f) = \int_a^b f[x_1, \dots, x_n, t] \prod_{i=1}^n (t - x_i) dt.$$
 (2)

- ▷ Not only  $E_n(x^k) = 0$  for k = 0, ..., n 1, but we further would like to require  $E_n(x^k) = 0$  for  $k = n, ..., n + \nu$ , and for  $\nu$  as large as possible.
- ◇ If  $f(t) = t^{n+\nu}, \nu \ge 0$ , then the n-th divided difference  $f[x_1, \ldots, x_n, t]$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $\nu$ .
  - $\triangleright \text{ When } n = 1, \text{ we find } f[x_1, t] = \frac{f(x_1) f(t)}{x_1 t} = \frac{x_1^{1+\nu} t^{1+\nu}}{x_1 t} \text{ is obviously a polynomial of degree } \nu.$
  - ▷ Suppose the assertion is true for n = k. Consider  $f(t) = t^{k+1+\nu}$ . (We are preparing to use the Induction Principle on n.)
  - $\triangleright$  Regard  $f(t) = t^{k+(1+\nu)}$ . Then, by induction hypothesis, the difference quotient  $f[x_2, \ldots, x_{k+1}, t]$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $\nu + 1$ .
  - $\triangleright$  Observe that

$$f[x_1, \dots, x_{k+1}, t] = \frac{f[x_1, \dots, x_{k+1}] - f[x_2, \dots, x_{k+1}, t]}{x_1 - t}.$$

Note that the numerator has a zero at  $t = x_1$ . After cancelation,  $f[x_1, \ldots, x_{k+1}, t]$  is a polynomial of degree of most  $\nu$ .

- $\triangleright\,$  The assertion now follows from the induction.
- With all said, if we choose the nodes  $x_i$  so that  $\omega(t) = \prod_{i+1}^{n} (t x_i)$  is perpendicular to all lower degree polynomials, then the error  $E(x^{n+\nu})$ would be zero for  $\nu = 0, 1, \ldots n - 1$ . The theory of orthogonal polynomials now kicks in.