## Deriving the Gaussian Quadrature

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

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

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

$$
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ x_1 & \cdots & x_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_1^{n-1} & \cdots & x_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b-a \\ \frac{b^2-a^2}{2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{b^n-a^n}{n} \end{bmatrix} . \tag{1}
$$

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

- $\triangleright$  On the other hand, we can construct an interpolating polynomial of degree  $n-1$  using the same nodes  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ .
- $\triangleright$  This polynomial results in a quadrature formula  $\sum_{n=1}^n$  $i=1$  $\beta_i f(x_i)$ which has degree of precision at least  $n - 1$ .
- $\triangleright$  By setting  $E_n(x^k) = 0$  for  $k = 0, \ldots, n-1$  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
	- $\triangleright$  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)

- $\rhd$  Not only  $E_n(x^k) = 0$  for  $k = 0, \ldots, n-1$ , but we further would like to require  $E_n(x^k) = 0$  for  $k = n, \ldots, n + \nu$ , and for  $\nu$  as large as possible.
- $\Diamond \text{ If } f(t) = t^{n+\nu}, \nu \geq 0, \text{ then the } n \text{-th divided difference } f[x_1, \ldots, x_n, t]$ is a polynomial of degree at most  $\nu$ .
	- > When  $n = 1$ , we find  $f[x_1, t] = \frac{f(x_1) f(t)}{x_1 t} = \frac{x_1^{1+\nu} t^{1+\nu}}{x_1 t}$  $\frac{-t^{-1}}{x_1-t}$  is obviously a polynomial of degree  $\nu$ .
	- $\triangleright$  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

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

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  $\omega(t) = \prod_{i=1}^{n}$  $i+1$  $(t - x_i)$  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.