

Problem 1. Didem 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”

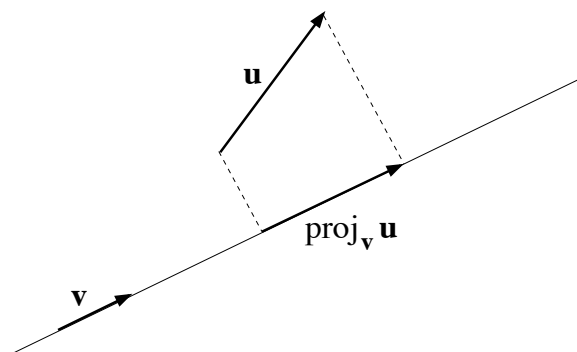
$$\ell := \{t(D_0 + 2D_1) \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

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 2. 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

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