

A COLLOCATION METHOD FOR THE SEQUENTIAL TESTING OF A GAMMA PROCESS

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Supplementary Material

A Technical proofs of the results in Section 2

A.1 Proof of Proposition 2.1

The expressions (2.13)-(2.15) can be obtained by applying the results of Buonaguidi and Muliere (2013, Sec. 5.2) or can be derived by using Ito's formula and (2.12):

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(\pi_t) &= f(\pi) + \int_0^t f'(\pi_{s-}) d\pi_s + \sum_{0 \leq s \leq t} (\Delta f(\pi_s) - f'(\pi_{s-}) \Delta \pi_s) \\
 &= f(\pi) - \int_0^t \log\left(\frac{\alpha_0}{\alpha_1}\right) f'(\pi_{s-}) \pi_{s-} (1 - \pi_{s-}) ds + \int_0^t \int_0^1 [f(\pi_{s-} + z) - f(\pi_{s-})] \mu^\pi(dz, ds) \\
 &= f(\pi) - \int_0^t \log\left(\frac{\alpha_0}{\alpha_1}\right) f'(\pi_{s-}) \pi_{s-} (1 - \pi_{s-}) ds + \int_0^t \int_0^1 [f(\pi_{s-} + z) - f(\pi_{s-})] v^\pi(dz) ds \\
 &\quad + \int_0^t \int_0^1 [f(\pi_{s-} + z) - f(\pi_{s-})] (\mu^\pi(dz, ds) - v^\pi(dz) ds), \tag{A.1}
 \end{aligned}$$

where μ^π and v^π are the jumping measure and the associated compensator of $(\pi_t)_{t \geq 0}$. From (2.12) one may notice that the magnitude of its jumps is

$$\Delta \pi_t = \frac{\pi_{t-} (1 - \pi_{t-}) (e^{(\alpha_0 - \alpha_1)x} - 1)}{1 + \pi_{t-} (e^{(\alpha_0 - \alpha_1)x} - 1)}, \tag{A.2}$$

so that

$$\pi_{t-} + \Delta \pi_t = \frac{\pi_{t-} e^{-\alpha_1 x}}{(1 - \pi_{t-}) e^{-\alpha_0 x} + \pi_{t-} e^{-\alpha_1 x}}. \tag{A.3}$$

Hence, the replacement in (A.1) of $(\pi_{s-} + z)$ with (A.3) and the integration over $(0, \infty)$ with respect to μ^X and its compensator $(1 - \pi)v_0 + \pi v_1$, being $v_i(dx) = x^{-1} e^{-\alpha_i x} \mathbf{1}_{(0, \infty)}(dx)$, $i = 0, 1$, complete the proof.

A.2 Proof of Proposition 2.2

Let $\pi_1, \pi_2 \in [0, 1]$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$. From (2.3), it is immediate to notice that $P_{\lambda\pi_1+(1-\lambda)\pi_2} = \lambda P_{\pi_1} + (1-\lambda)P_{\pi_2}$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} V(\lambda\pi_1 + (1-\lambda)\pi_2) &= \inf_{\tau} E_{\lambda\pi_1+(1-\lambda)\pi_2} [\tau + g_{a,b}(\pi_{\tau})] \\ &= \inf_{\tau} \left\{ \lambda E_{\pi_1} [\tau + g_{a,b}(\pi_{\tau})] + (1-\lambda) E_{\pi_2} [\tau + g_{a,b}(\pi_{\tau})] \right\} \\ &\geq \lambda \inf_{\tau} E_{\pi_1} [\tau + g_{a,b}(\pi_{\tau})] + (1-\lambda) \inf_{\tau} E_{\pi_2} [\tau + g_{a,b}(\pi_{\tau})] \\ &= \lambda V(\pi_1) + (1-\lambda)V(\pi_2). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.4})$$

A.3 Proof of Proposition 2.3

Since on (A, B) we have $V(\pi) < g_{a,b}(\pi)$, for any $\epsilon > 0$ such that $A + \epsilon < c$, it results

$$\frac{V(A + \epsilon) - V(A)}{\epsilon} \leq \frac{a(A + \epsilon) - aA}{\epsilon} = a, \quad (\text{A.5})$$

so that $V'(A+) \leq a$, where the right-hand derivative exists because of the concavity of $\pi \mapsto V(\pi)$.

In order to show that the reverse inequality holds, fix $\epsilon > 0$ so that $A + \epsilon < c$ and consider the stopping time $\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*$, that, according to the arguments of Subsection 2.1, is optimal for $V(A + \epsilon)$. We recall that $\tau_{\pi+\epsilon}^*$ is the first exit time from (A, B) of the process $(\pi_t)_{t \geq 0}$, starting at $\pi_0 = \pi + \epsilon$. Then, from (2.3) and similarly to Gapeev and Peskir (2004), we have

$$\begin{aligned} V(A + \epsilon) - V(A) &\geq E_{A+\epsilon} [\tau_{A+\epsilon}^* + g_{a,b}(\pi_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*})] - E_A [\tau_{A+\epsilon}^* + g_{a,b}(\pi_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*})] = \sum_{i=0}^1 E_i [S_i(A + \epsilon) - S_i(A)], \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.6})$$

where

$$S_i(\pi) = \frac{1 + (-1)^i(1 - 2\pi)}{2} \left(\tau_{A+\epsilon}^* + a \frac{\pi e^{Y_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*}}}{1 + \pi(e^{Y_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*}} - 1)} \wedge b \frac{1 - \pi}{1 + \pi(e^{Y_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*}} - 1)} \right). \quad (\text{A.7})$$

Then, according to the mean value theorem, there exist $\xi_i \in (A, A + \epsilon)$, $i = 0, 1$, such that

$$\sum_{i=0}^1 E_i [S_i(A + \epsilon) - S_i(A)] = \epsilon \sum_{i=0}^1 E_i [S'_i(\xi_i)], \quad (\text{A.8})$$

being

$$\begin{aligned} S'_i(\pi) &= (-1)^{i-1} \left(\tau_{A+\epsilon}^* + a \frac{\pi e^{Y_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*}}}{1 + \pi(e^{Y_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*}} - 1)} \wedge b \frac{1 - \pi}{1 + \pi(e^{Y_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*}} - 1)} \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{1 + (-1)^i(1 - 2\pi)}{2} \left(a \mathbf{1}_{\{\pi_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*} < c\}} - b \mathbf{1}_{\{\pi_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*} > c\}} \right) \frac{e^{Y_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*}}}{[1 + \pi(e^{Y_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*}} - 1)]^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.9})$$

From the definition of $\tau_{\pi+\epsilon}^*$ and simple calculations, one has

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_{A+\epsilon}^* &= \inf\{t \geq 0 : \pi_t \notin (A, B), \pi_0 = A + \epsilon\} \\ &\leq \inf\left\{t \geq 0 : Y_t \leq \log\left(\frac{A}{1-A} \frac{1-(A+\epsilon)}{A+\epsilon}\right)\right\} =: \gamma_\epsilon. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.10})$$

According to Sato (1999, Th. 43.20, p. 323),

$$P_i \left[\lim_{t \downarrow 0} t^{-1} Y_t = -\log\left(\frac{\alpha_0}{\alpha_1}\right) \right] = 1, \quad i = 0, 1, \quad (\text{A.11})$$

meaning that the starting point 0 of $Y = (Y_t)_{t \geq 0}$ is regular for $(-\infty, 0)$ (that is, with probability 1, Y , starting at 0, enters $(-\infty, 0)$ immediately). From (A.10) and (A.11), it results $\gamma_\epsilon \downarrow 0$ P_i -a.s. as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$, $i = 0, 1$. Therefore, $\tau_{A+\epsilon}^* \downarrow 0$ and $Y_{\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*} \rightarrow 0$ as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ P_i -a.s., $i = 0, 1$. Hence, from (A.9)

$$S'_i(\xi_i) \rightarrow (-1)^{i-1} a A + \frac{1 + (-1)^i (1 - 2A)}{2} a, \quad P_i\text{-a.s.}, \quad i = 0, 1, \quad \text{as } \epsilon \downarrow 0. \quad (\text{A.12})$$

Since $S'_i(\xi_i) + (-1)^i \tau_{A+\epsilon}^*$ is obviously bounded, for $i = 0, 1$, from (A.6), (A.8), (A.12), $E_i[\tau_{A+\epsilon}^*] \rightarrow 0$ as $\epsilon \downarrow 0$, $i = 0, 1$, and the bounded convergence theorem we have

$$V'(A+) = \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{V(A+\epsilon) - V(A)}{\epsilon} \geq \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \sum_{i=0}^1 E_i[S'_i(\xi_i)] = a, \quad (\text{A.13})$$

which, combined with (A.5), completes the proof.

A.4 Proof of Proposition 2.4

Define $f(y) = V(\pi; B)$, with $\pi = e^y/(1+e^y)$; it is not difficult to show that f solves

$$\begin{aligned} f'(y) &= -\frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{b}{\lambda} \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{1+e^y} \int_{B^o} \frac{e^{-\gamma z}}{z-y} dz + f(y) \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{(1+e^y)\lambda} \int_{B^o} \frac{(1+e^z)e^{-\gamma z}}{z-y} dz \\ &\quad - \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{(1+e^y)\lambda} \int_y^{B^o} [f(z) - f(y)] \frac{(1+e^z)e^{-\gamma z}}{z-y} dz, \quad y^* \leq y < B^o, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.14})$$

$$f(B^o) = \frac{b}{1+e^{B^o}}, \quad (\text{A.15})$$

where y^* is any arbitrary finite number smaller than B^o , $B^o = \log(B/(1-B))$, $\gamma = \alpha_0/(\alpha_0 - \alpha_1)$ and $\lambda = \log(\alpha_1/\alpha_0)$. The representation (A.14)-(A.15) is equivalent to (2.24)-(2.25), but has the advantage of directly appearing as a linear Volterra integro-differential equation of the second kind (meaning that one limit of integration is variable and the unknown function f also occurs outside the integral). We observe that (A.14) seems to be outside the scope of any existing theory on integro-differential equations, because one has to consider the difference $f(z) - f(y)$ in the last integral (and not just $f(z)$ like in the canonical representation (B.1)), in order to make it finite. This is caused by the lack of integrability of the map $z \mapsto (1+e^z)e^{-\gamma z}/(z-y)$ on (y, B^o) , which, in turn, is a consequence of the Lévy measure of a gamma process. Then, we proceed as follows: first we analyze “regular versions” of (A.14)-(A.15), for which the

existence and uniqueness of solutions can be proved by resorting to standard theory; then, we verify that the limit of these solutions is indeed a solution of (A.14)-(A.15).

Let $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$ and denote by $f_\epsilon(y)$ the function solving the following ‘‘regular’’ problem:

$$f'_\epsilon(y) = g(y) + h_\epsilon(y)f_\epsilon(y) + \int_y^{B^o} k_\epsilon(y, z)f_\epsilon(z) dz, \quad y^* \leq y < B^o, \quad (\text{A.16})$$

$$f_\epsilon(B^o) = \frac{b}{1 + e^{B^o}}, \quad (\text{A.17})$$

where

$$g(y) = -\frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{b}{\lambda} \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{1 + e^y} \int_{B^o}^\infty \frac{e^{-\gamma z}}{z - y} dz, \quad (\text{A.18})$$

$$h_\epsilon(y) = \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{(1 + e^y)\lambda} \left[\int_y^{B^o} \frac{(1 + e^z)e^{-\gamma z}}{(z - y)^{1-\epsilon}} dz + \int_{B^o}^\infty \frac{(1 + e^z)e^{-\gamma z}}{z - y} dz \right], \quad (\text{A.19})$$

$$k_\epsilon(y, z) = -\frac{e^{\gamma y}}{(1 + e^y)\lambda} \frac{(1 + e^z)e^{-\gamma z}}{(z - y)^{1-\epsilon}}. \quad (\text{A.20})$$

Expressing (A.16)-(A.17) as a system of integral equations

$$w_\epsilon(y) = g(y) + h_\epsilon(y)f_\epsilon(y) + \int_y^{B^o} k_\epsilon(y, z)f_\epsilon(z) dz, \quad (\text{A.21})$$

$$f_\epsilon(y) = \frac{b}{1 + e^{B^o}} - \int_y^{B^o} w_\epsilon(z) dz, \quad (\text{A.22})$$

or, more compactly,

$$F_\epsilon(y) = G_\epsilon(y) + \int_y^{B^o} K_\epsilon(y, z)F_\epsilon(z) dz, \quad (\text{A.23})$$

where

$$F_\epsilon(y) = \begin{bmatrix} w_\epsilon(y) \\ f_\epsilon(y) \end{bmatrix}, \quad G_\epsilon(y) = \begin{bmatrix} g(y) + h_\epsilon(y)b/(1 + e^{B^o}) \\ b/(1 + e^{B^o}) \end{bmatrix}, \quad K_\epsilon(y, z) = \begin{bmatrix} -h_\epsilon(y) & k_\epsilon(y, z) \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (\text{A.24})$$

and using the matrix norm $\|K_\epsilon(y, z)\| = \max\{h_\epsilon(y) + |k_\epsilon(y, z)|, 1\}$, the following facts are easily verified: i) $G_\epsilon(y)$ is a continuous function of y , in the sense that its components are all continuous; ii) for every continuous vector function s and all $y \leq n_1 \leq n_2 \leq B^o$, $\int_{n_1}^{n_2} K_\epsilon(y, z)s(z) dz$ is a continuous function of y ; iii) every component of $K_\epsilon(y, z)$ is absolutely integrable with respect to z , for $y^* \leq y < B^o$; iv) $\exists y^* = y_0 < y_1 < \dots < y_n = B^o$ such that, for all $i = 0, \dots, n - 1$, $\int_{y_i}^{\min\{y, y_{i+1}\}} \|K_\epsilon(y, z)\| dz \leq p < 1$, where p is independent of y and i ; v) for $y^* \leq y \leq B^o$, $\lim_{\delta \downarrow 0} \int_{y-\delta}^y \|K_\epsilon(y - \delta, z)\| dz = 0$. Then, according to Linz (1985, Th. 3.2, p. 32), we can conclude that for any $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$, there exists only one continuous solution $F_\epsilon(y)$ to (A.23), that is, the integro-differential equation (A.16)-(A.17) has a unique continuously differentiable solution f_ϵ .

A direct analysis based on the existence and uniqueness of f_ϵ , $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$, shows that $\{f_\epsilon\}$ and $\{f'_\epsilon\}$ are Cauchy sequences and therefore are uniform convergent on $[y^*, B^o]$. Then

$$f(y) := \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} f_\epsilon(y), \quad f'(y) := \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} f'_\epsilon(y), \quad y^* \leq y \leq B^o, \quad (\text{A.25})$$

exist and we have that f is continuously differentiable with derivative f' . Further, since

$$\lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{f_\epsilon(z) - f_\epsilon(y)}{(z-y)^{1-\epsilon}} = \frac{f(z) - f(y)}{(z-y)} \quad \text{and} \quad \left| \frac{f_\epsilon(z) - f_\epsilon(y)}{(z-y)^{1-\epsilon}} \right| \leq C_y \quad (\text{A.26})$$

for any $z \in [y, B^o]$ and $0 < \epsilon \leq 1$, where C_y is a constant depending on y , from the bounded convergence theorem we get

$$\begin{aligned} f'(y) &= \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} f'_\epsilon(y) = -\frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{b}{\lambda} \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{1+e^y} \int_{B^o}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\gamma z}}{z-y} dz + \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} f_\epsilon(y) \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{(1+e^y)\lambda} \int_{B^o}^{\infty} \frac{(1+e^z)e^{-\gamma z}}{z-y} dz \\ &\quad - \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{(1+e^y)\lambda} \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \int_y^{B^o} [f_\epsilon(z) - f_\epsilon(y)] \frac{(1+e^z)e^{-\gamma z}}{(z-y)^{1-\epsilon}} dz \\ &= -\frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{b}{\lambda} \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{1+e^y} \int_{B^o}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\gamma z}}{z-y} dz + f(y) \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{(1+e^y)\lambda} \int_{B^o}^{\infty} \frac{(1+e^z)e^{-\gamma z}}{z-y} dz \\ &\quad - \frac{e^{\gamma y}}{(1+e^y)\lambda} \int_y^{B^o} [f(z) - f(y)] \frac{(1+e^z)e^{-\gamma z}}{z-y} dz, \quad y^* \leq y < B^o. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.27})$$

Hence, f from (A.25) is a continuously differentiable solution of (A.14)-(A.15), that is, (2.24)-(2.25) admits a continuously differentiable solution $V(\pi; B)$, $\pi \in I_B$. The probabilistic argument provided at the end of the proof of Theorem 2.1 below finally shows that $V(\pi; B)$ is unique.

A.5 Proof of Proposition 2.5

The existence and uniqueness of the map $\pi \mapsto V(\pi; B)$, $\pi \in I_B$, $c < B < 1$, has been previously stated. The necessity and sufficiency of (2.27) for having a unique pair A^* and B^* solving (2.29), and therefore a unique solution of the free-boundary problem (2.17)-(2.22), arise from the following reasoning.

A direct verification based on the arguments of Section 3 (or the more formal proof given by Peskir and Shiryaev (2000, Remark 2.2, p. 850)) shows that the maps $\pi \mapsto V(\pi; B')$ and $\pi \mapsto V(\pi; B'')$, $B' < B''$, do not intersect on the interval $(0, B']$ (see Figure 3). Condition (2.27) guarantees that for $B > c$, close enough to c , $\pi \mapsto V(\pi; B)$ crosses $\pi \mapsto a\pi$ at some $\pi < c$. Then moving B from c to 1, it is easily seen that there exists a unique pair A^* and B^* satisfying (2.29). In other words, there exists a unique pair A^* and B^* at which V , provided by (2.28), is consistent with (2.20)-(2.22).

A.6 Proof of Theorem 2.1

The second statement of the theorem is obvious and more arguments can be found in Peskir and Shiryaev (2000, pp. 849-850). According to Buonaguidi and Muliere (2013, Th 5.1, p. 58), for proving the first part of the theorem we only need to check that $(\mathbb{L}V)(\pi) \geq -1$, for $\pi \in [0, 1]$, where \mathbb{L} is given in (2.14). By construction, this condition is satisfied on the interval (A^*, B^*) . For $\pi \in (B^*, 1]$, on which $V(\pi) = b(1-\pi)$, a simple application of the Frullani's integral (2.8) shows that $(\mathbb{L}V)(\pi) = 0$. When $\pi = A^*$, the smooth and continuous fit conditions (2.20) and (2.21) imply $(\mathbb{L}V)(A^*) = -1$. Finally, one can easily show that $(\mathbb{L}V)(A^*-) = -1$ that, along with $\partial(\mathbb{L}V)(\pi)/\partial\pi \leq 0$ for $\pi \in [0, A^*)$, completes the proof.

We remark that the following probabilistic argument can be used to prove that for any $B > c$ the map $\pi \mapsto V(\pi; B)$, $\pi \in I_B$, solving (2.24)-(2.25), is unique. Let $g(\pi) = (m\pi + q) \wedge b(1-\pi)$, where $\pi \mapsto m\pi + q$ is the line hitting smoothly $\pi \mapsto V(\pi, B)$ at some $Z < B$. Consider now the optimal stopping problem (2.6)

with $g(\pi)$ in place of $g_{a,b}(\pi)$ and denote by $V(\pi)$ the correspondent value function. Define $V^*(\pi) = V(\pi; B)$, for $\pi \in (Z, B)$, being $V(\pi; B)$ a solution to (2.24)-(2.25), and $V^*(\pi) = g(\pi)$, for $\pi \in [0, Z] \cup [B, 1]$. Then, the same arguments of Theorem 2.1 imply that $V(\pi) = V^*(\pi)$, for $\pi \in [0, 1]$. Since Z is arbitrary, the claim is verified.

B Preliminaries on the collocation method

In Section 3 a numerical scheme, aiming at computing the solution of the free-boundary problem characterizing the sequential testing of a gamma process, is described. Here, we introduce the basic elements on the collocation method and Chebyshev polynomials which our algorithm relies on.

B.1 Collocation method for a linear Volterra integro-differential Equation

Let \mathbb{T} be a linear Volterra integro-differential operator acting on a function f belonging to its domain of definition as

$$(\mathbb{T}f)(x) = f'(x) - g(x) - h(x)f(x) - \int_A^x k(x, z)f(z) dz, \quad x \in I = [A, B] \subset \mathbb{R}, \quad (\text{B.1})$$

where $g(x)$, $h(x)$ and $k(x, z)$, $x \in I$ and $A \leq z \leq x$, are known functions. Consider now the functional equation

$$(\mathbb{T}f)(x) = 0, \quad (\text{B.2})$$

along with the boundary condition

$$f(A) = p, \quad (\text{B.3})$$

where p is a fixed number. It is assumed that the boundary value problem (B.2)-(B.3) admits a unique solution f on I that we want to determine. Often this task cannot be analytically accomplished, so that we need numerical techniques allowing us to approximate f as accurately as desired: one of them is the so called collocation method (see, for example, Brunner (2004) or Kress (1998, Sec. 12.4)).

Let us briefly explain its main idea. Let $\Phi = \{\phi_i\}_{i \geq 0}$ be a known basis for f and denote by f_n an approximation of f obtained as linear combination of the first $n + 1$ basis functions:

$$f(x) \approx f_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n w_i \phi_i(x), \quad x \in I, \quad (\text{B.4})$$

so that

$$f'(x) \approx f'_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n w_i \phi'_i(x), \quad x \in I. \quad (\text{B.5})$$

Choosing n points, known as collocation nodes, $x_i \in I$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, the problem (B.2)-(B.3) boils down to computing the coefficients w_i by solving the following system of $n + 1$ linear equations:

$$(\mathbb{T}f_n)(x_i) = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad (\text{B.6})$$

$$f_n(A) = p. \quad (\text{B.7})$$

Two problems naturally arise: the choice of an appropriate basis for f and of the truncation limit n .

B.2 The Chebyshev polynomials

In addition to the uniqueness of f for the problem (B.2)-(B.3), assume that f is continuous on I . Then, according to the Weierstrass approximation theorem, f can be uniformly approximated on I by polynomials. One could be tempted to use as Φ the family $\{x^i\}_{i \geq 0}$: its drawback is the lack of the orthogonality property.

Let us recall that a family of functions $\{\psi_i\}_{i \geq 0}$ is said to be orthogonal on I with respect to the weighting function $\eta(x)$ if

$$\int_I \psi_i(x)\psi_j(x)\eta(x) dx = \begin{cases} 0, & i \neq j \\ \lambda_j, & i = j \end{cases}. \quad (\text{B.8})$$

The idea is that the information set of an element of a family of orthogonal functions does not overlap with the one expressed by another member of the family. Therefore, if we choose as basis for f a family of orthogonal polynomials, the performances in the numerical approximation of f are improved, due to a better identification of the coefficients w_i in (B.4).

A well known family of orthogonal polynomials is the family of Chebyshev polynomials: their detailed description can be found in Hamming (1986, Sec. 2.28 and 2.29) and Lanczos (1988, Chap. 7); here, we illustrate their main properties, which explain why they represent one of the most important family of polynomials (and, maybe, the most important one) in approximation theory.

The Chebyshev polynomials $\{T_i\}_{i \geq 0}$ are defined by

$$T_n(x) = \cos[n(\arccos(x))], \quad n \geq 0, \quad x \in [-1, 1]. \quad (\text{B.9})$$

The trigonometric identity

$$\cos(n+1)\theta + \cos(n-1)\theta = 2 \cos \theta \cos n\theta \quad (\text{B.10})$$

and the substitution $\theta = \arccos(x)$ in (B.10) lead to the recurrence relationship

$$T_n(x) = 2xT_{n-1}(x) - T_{n-2}(x), \quad n \geq 2. \quad (\text{B.11})$$

Since $T_0(x) = 1$ and $T_1(x) = x$, $x \in [-1, 1]$, from (B.11) it is easily seen that $\{T_i\}_{i \geq 0}$ is a family of polynomials. It presents some remarkable features: 1) Chebyshev polynomials are orthogonal on $[-1, 1]$ with respect to the weighting function $\eta(x) = (1-x^2)^{-1/2}$:

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{T_m(x)T_n(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \int_0^\pi \cos m\theta \cos n\theta d\theta = \begin{cases} 0, & m \neq n \\ \frac{\pi}{2}, & m = n \neq 0 \\ \pi, & m = n = 0 \end{cases}; \quad (\text{B.12})$$

2) the zeros of the n -th degree polynomial T_n are given by

$$x_j = \cos \left(\left(j - \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{\pi}{n} \right), \quad j = 1, \dots, n; \quad (\text{B.13})$$

3) for $n \geq 0$, derivatives are easy to compute; for instance:

$$T'_n(x) = \frac{n \sin[n \arccos(x)]}{\sin[\arccos(x)]}, \quad T''_n(x) = \frac{nx \sin[n \arccos(x)]}{(\sin[\arccos(x)])^3} - \frac{n^2 T_n(x)}{(\sin[\arccos(x)])^2}; \quad (\text{B.14})$$

4) the shifted Chebyshev polynomials on the interval $I = [A, B]$, $\{T_i^I\}_{i \geq 0}$, along with their first and second derivatives, $\{T_i'^I\}_{i \geq 0}$ and $\{T_i''^I\}_{i \geq 0}$, are given, for $n \geq 0$ and $x \in I$, by

$$T_n^I(x) = T_n \left(2 \frac{x-A}{B-A} - 1 \right), \quad (\text{B.15})$$

$$T_n'^I(x) = \frac{2}{B-A} T_n' \left(2 \frac{x-A}{B-A} - 1 \right), \quad T_n''^I(x) = \frac{4}{(B-A)^2} T_n'' \left(2 \frac{x-A}{B-A} - 1 \right); \quad (\text{B.16})$$

5) Chebyshev expansions are usually one of the most rapidly convergent expansions for functions (see, e.g., Boyd and Petchek (2014)).

Properties 1-5 appropriately justify the use of Chebyshev polynomials as basis for f ; in particular, according to the fifth property, which does not hold only in isolated cases, “low degree” polynomials often lead to satisfactory approximations; in turn, this reflects in a saving of time during numerical computations.

B.3 Accuracy of the Solution

Once a basis for the function f in the problem (B.2)-(B.3) has been chosen, we should determine the length n of the expansion in (B.4).

The truncated series (B.4), whose coefficients are obtained as solution of (B.6)-(B.7), approximately solves (B.2), in the sense that if we replace (B.4) and (B.5) in (B.2), then $(\mathbb{T}f_n)(x) \approx 0$, $x \in I$. This suggests we could increase n until

$$\sup_{x \in I} |(\mathbb{T}f_n)(x)| < \epsilon \quad (\text{B.17})$$

for a fixed $\epsilon > 0$. Of course, since it is not practically possible to evaluate $(\mathbb{T}f_n)(x)$ for any $x \in I$, we can consider a set of equally spaced nodes in I (not the collocation nodes, where $(\mathbb{T}f_n)(x)$ is almost exactly zero) to assess the quality of the computed solution. Alternatively, defining

$$\delta_n = \sup_{x \in I} |f_n(x) - f_{n-1}(x)|, \quad n \geq 1, \quad (\text{B.18})$$

we might increase n until $\delta_n < \delta$, for a specified $\delta > 0$.

We recall that when f is approximated by $f_n = \sum_{i=0}^n w_i T_i^I$, the distance $\sup_{x \in I} |f(x) - f_n(x)|$ is minimized if the collocation nodes are the zeros of T_n^I given by

$$x_j^I = \frac{(B-A)(x_j + 1)}{2} + A, \quad j = 1, \dots, n, \quad (\text{B.19})$$

where x_j is given in (B.13). We observe that the zeros of T_n^I can be used as collocation nodes only if I is known: this does not occur in free-boundary problems, where A and B must be determined. This problem is handled in Section 3.