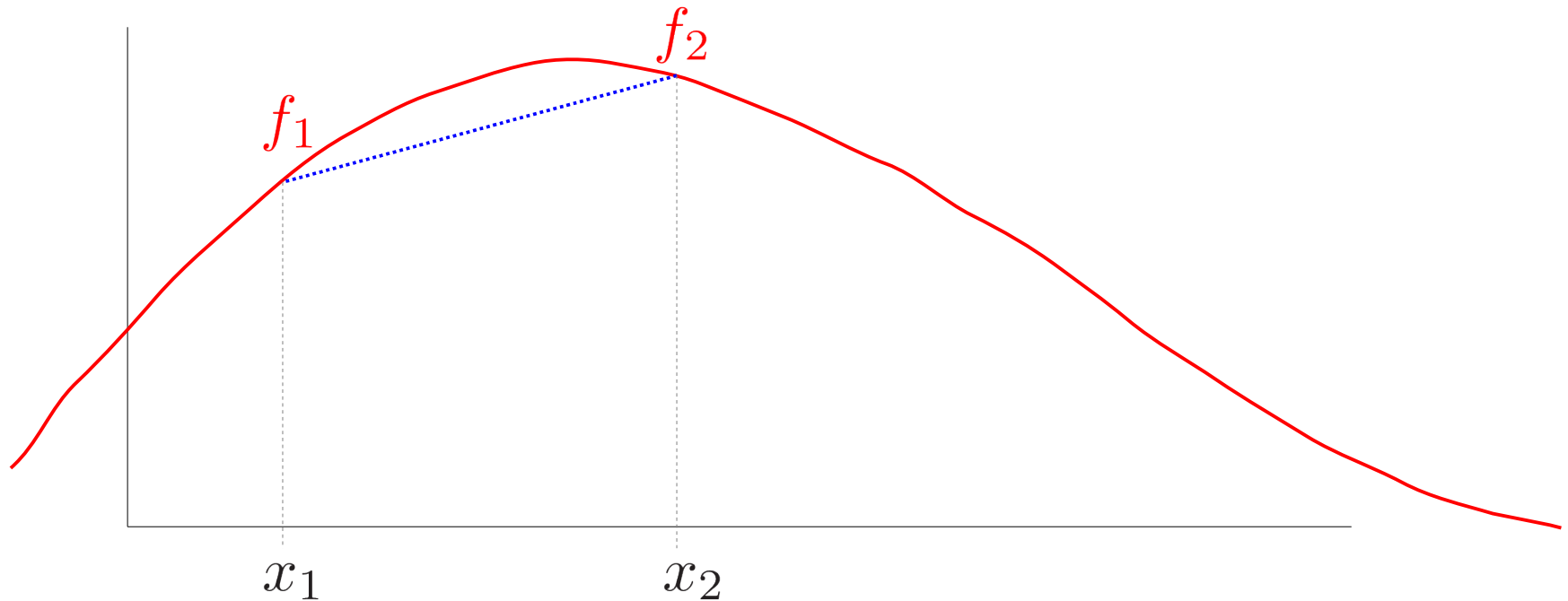


Interpolation

- As we've seen, we frequently have data only at a discrete number of points
 - Interpolation fills in the gaps by making an assumption about the behavior of the functional form of the data
- Many different types of interpolation exist
 - Some ensure no new extrema are introduced
 - Some match derivatives at end points
 - ...
- Generally speaking: larger number of points used to build the interpolant, the higher the accuracy
 - Pathological cases exist
 - You may want to enforce some other property on the form of the interpolant
- We'll follow the discussion from Pang

Linear Interpolation

- Simplest idea—draw a line between two points



$$f(x) = \frac{f_2 - f_1}{x_2 - x_1}(x - x_1) + f_1$$

- Exactly recovers the function values at the end points

Linear Interpolation

- Actual $f(x)$ is given by

$$f(x) = f_i + \underbrace{\frac{x - x_i}{\Delta x} (f_{i+1} - f_i)}_{\text{Linear interpolant}} + \Delta f(x)$$

- Want to know the error at a point $x = a$ in $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$
- We can fit a quadratic to x_i, a, x_{i+1}
- Error can be shown (**through lots of algebra...**) to be

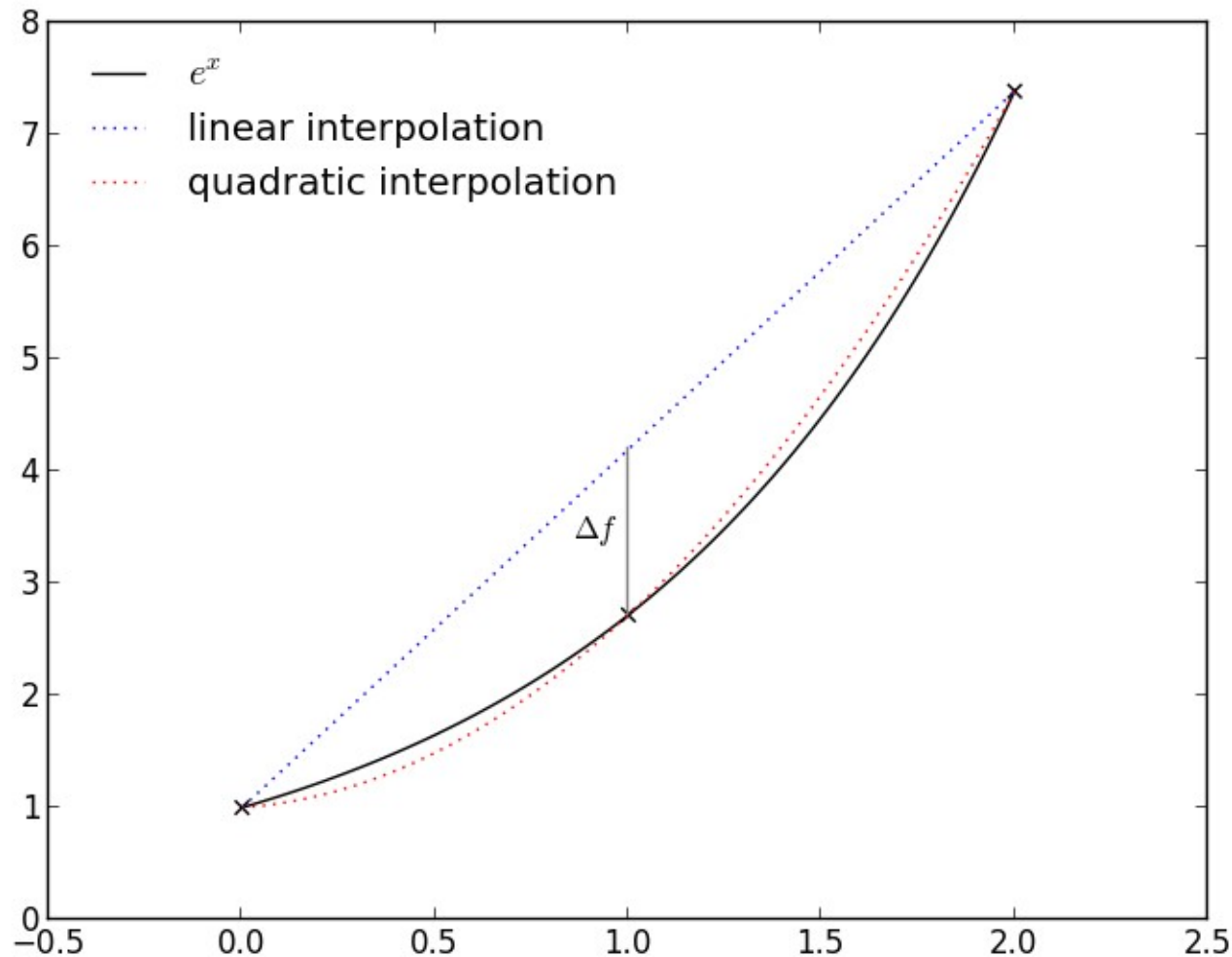
$$\Delta f(x) = \frac{f''(x)}{2} (x - x_i)(x - x_{i+1}) \Big|_{x=a}$$

(at that point)

- This means error in linear interpolation $\sim O(\Delta x^2)$

Linear Interpolation

- Error estimate graphically



Quadratic Interpolation

- Fit a parabola—requires 3 points
 - Already saw this with Simpson's rule
- Note: can fall out of the range of f_1 , f_2 , or f_3

Example: Mass Fractions

- Higher-order is not always better.
- Practical example
 - In hydrodynamics codes, you often carry around mass fractions, X_k with

$$\sum_k X_k = 1$$

- If you have these defined at two points: a and b and need them in-between, then:

$$X_k(x) = (X_k)_a + \frac{(X_k)_b - (X_k)_a}{\Delta x} (x - a)$$

sums to 1 for all x

- Higher-order interpolation can violate this constraint

Lagrange Interpolation

- General method for building a single polynomial that goes through all the points (alternate formulations exist)
- Given n points: x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} , with associated function values: f_0, f_1, \dots, f_{n-1}
 - construct basis functions:

$$l_i(x) = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^{n-1} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}$$

- Basis function l_i is 0 at all x_j except for x_i (where it is 1)
- Function value at x is:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} l_i f_i$$

Lagrange Interpolation

- Consider a quadratic
 - Three points: $(x_0, f_0), (x_1, f_1), (x_2, f_2)$
 - Three basis functions:

$$l_0 = \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} \cdot \frac{x - x_2}{x_0 - x_2} = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{2\Delta x^2}$$

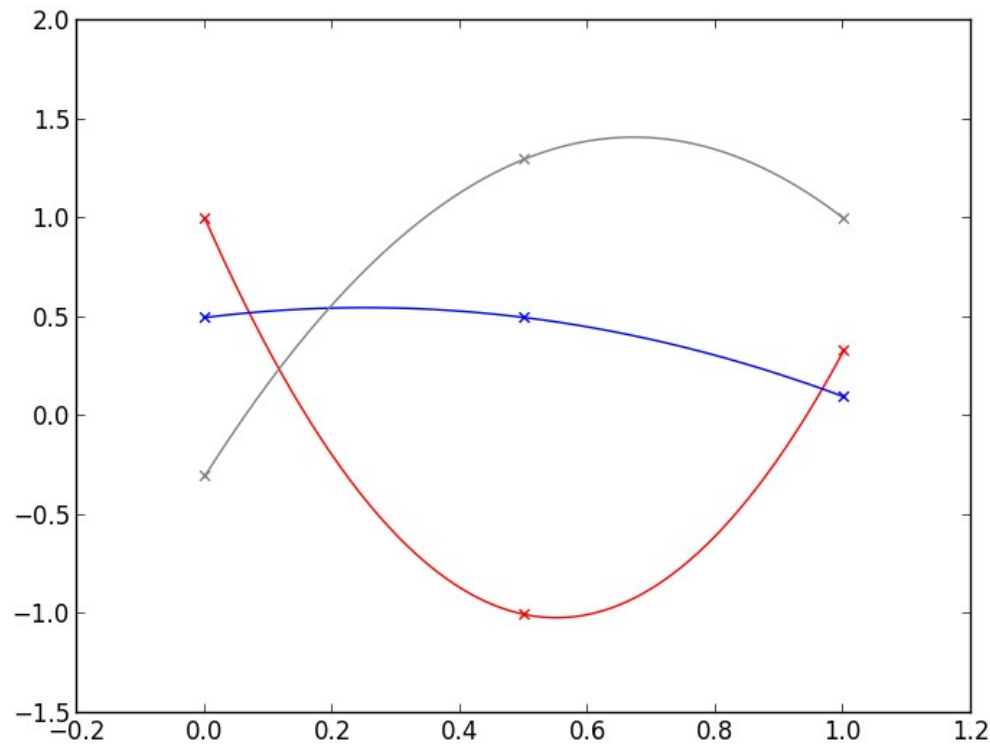
$$l_1 = \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} \cdot \frac{x - x_2}{x_1 - x_2} = -\frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{\Delta x^2}$$

$$l_2 = \frac{x - x_0}{x_2 - x_0} \cdot \frac{x - x_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{2\Delta x^2}$$

Lagrange Interpolation

- Quadratic Lagrange polynomial:

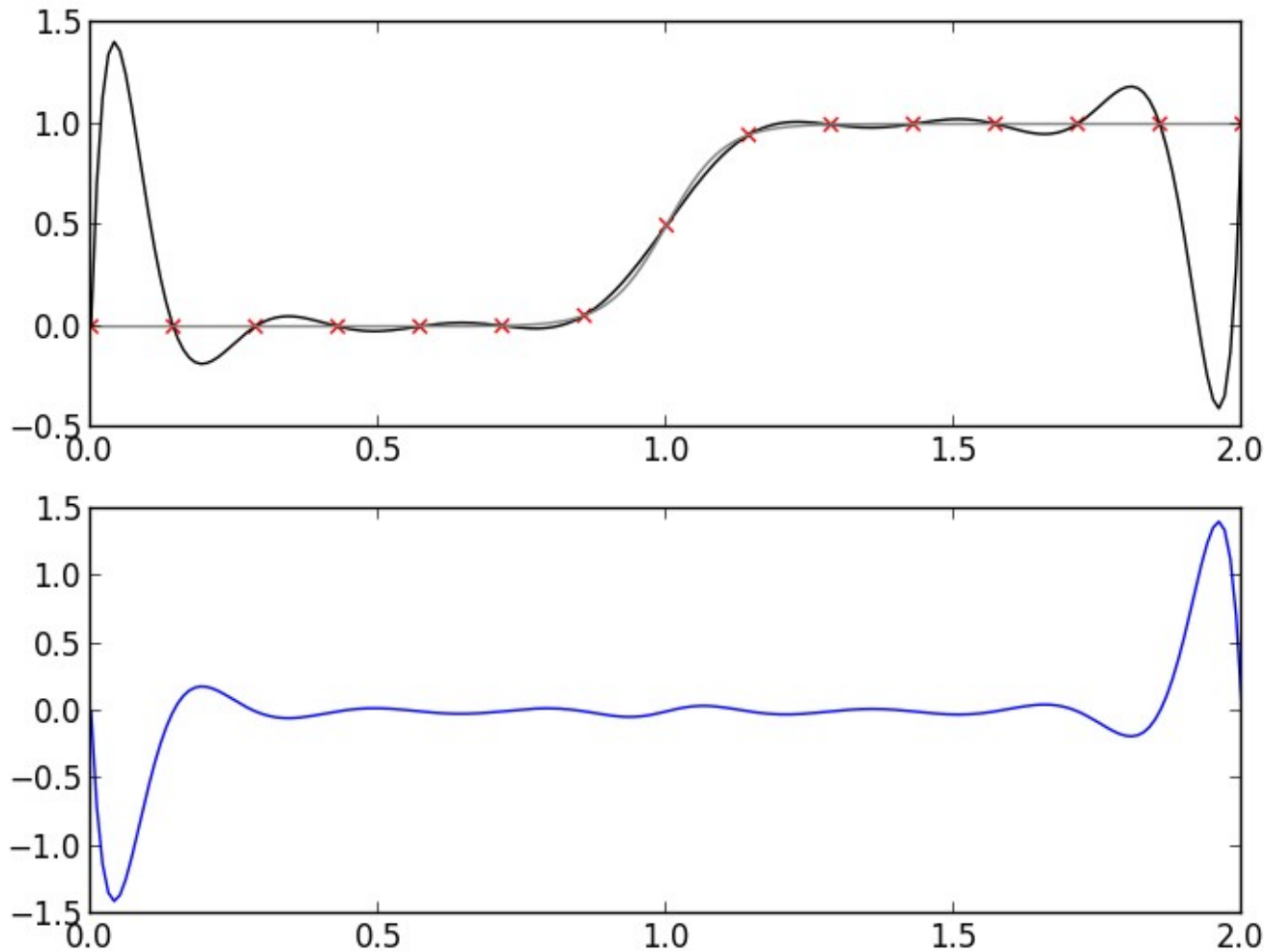
$$f(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{2\Delta x^2} f_0 - \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{\Delta x^2} f_1 + \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{2\Delta x^2} f_2$$



Lagrange Interpolation

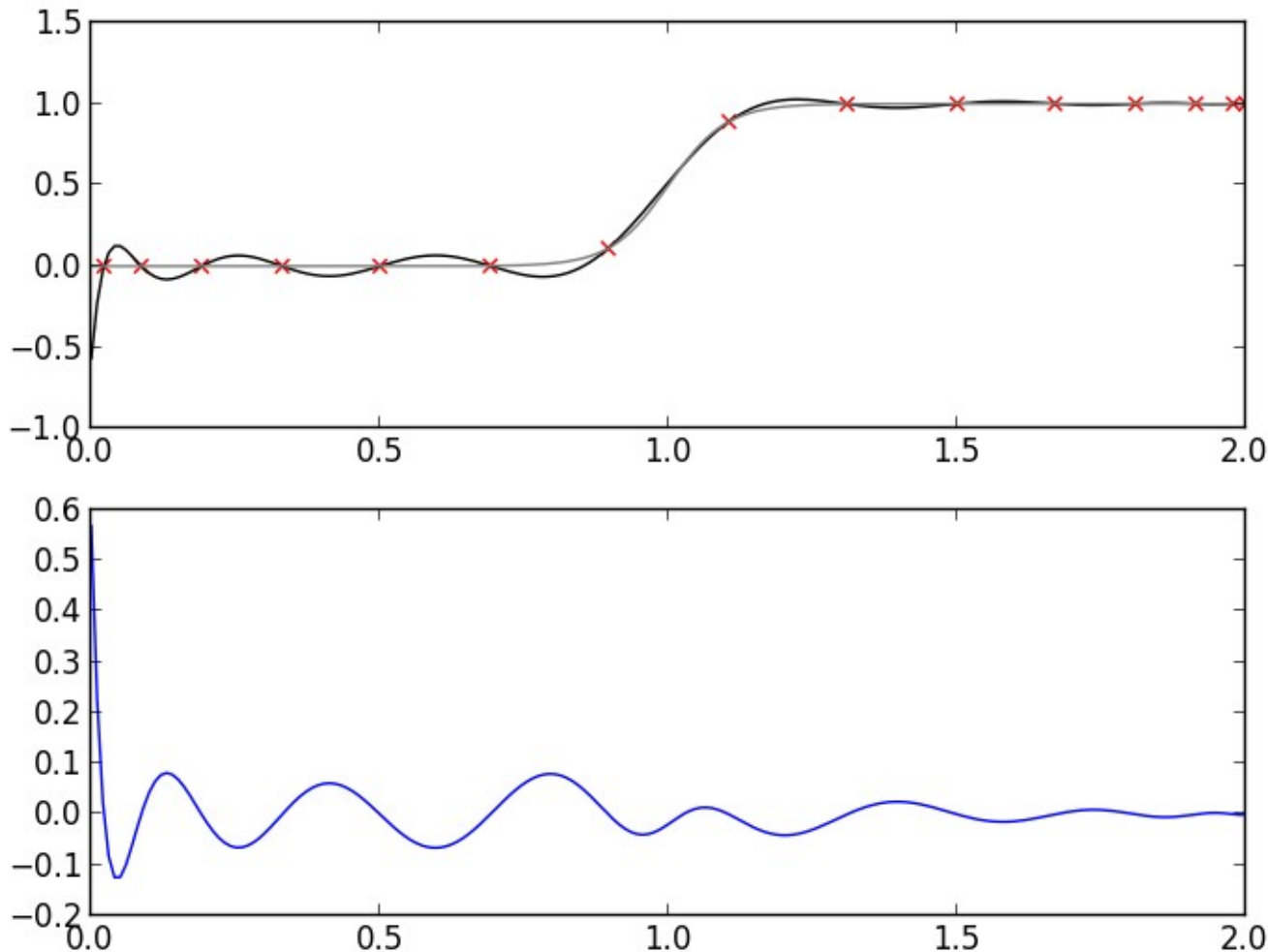
- Form is easy to remember
- Not the most efficient form to compute the polynomial
 - All other forms for n -degree polynomials that pass through the specified $n+1$ points are equivalent
 - High-order polynomials can suffer from round-off error

Lagrange Interpolation



Interpolation through 15 points sampled uniformly from $\tanh()$. The error is shown below.

Lagrange Interpolation

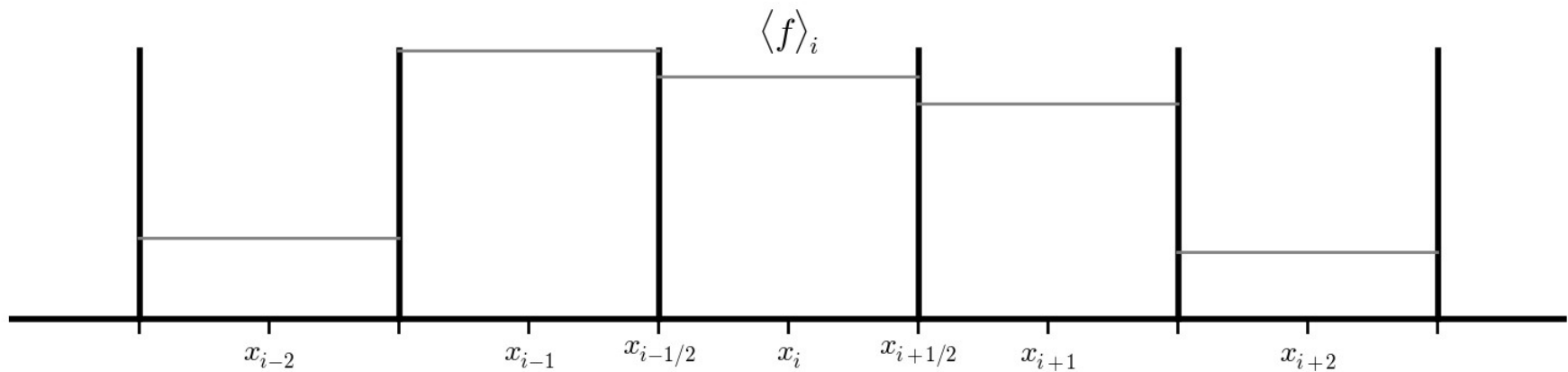


Again: interpolation through 15 points sampled from $\tanh()$, but now with non-uniform spacing (this choice is the Chebyshev nodes).

The error is shown below.

Conservative Interpolation

- Imagine that instead of having $f(x)$ at discrete points, we instead knew the average of f in some interval
 - Finite-volume discretization



$$\langle f \rangle_i = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \int_{x_{i-1/2}}^{x_{i+1/2}} f(x) dx$$

- We want an interpolant that respects these averages
 - Conservative interpolant

Conservative Interpolation

- Quadratic interpolation

- We are given the average of f in each zone
- Constraints:

$$\langle f \rangle_{i-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \int_{x_{i-3/2}}^{x_{i-1/2}} f(x) dx$$

$$\langle f \rangle_i = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \int_{x_{i-1/2}}^{x_{i+1/2}} f(x) dx$$

$$\langle f \rangle_{i+1} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \int_{x_{i+1/2}}^{x_{i+3/2}} f(x) dx$$

- Reconstruction polynomial

$$f(x) = a(x - x_i)^2 + b(x - x_i) + c$$

- Three equations and three unknowns

Conservative Interpolation

- Solve for unknowns:

$$f(x) = \frac{\langle f \rangle_{i-1} - 2 \langle f \rangle_i + \langle f \rangle_{i+1}}{2\Delta x^2} (x - x_i)^2 + \frac{\langle f \rangle_{i+1} - \langle f \rangle_{i-1}}{2\Delta x} (x - x_i) + \frac{-\langle f \rangle_{i-1} + 26 \langle f \rangle_i - \langle f \rangle_{i+1}}{24}$$

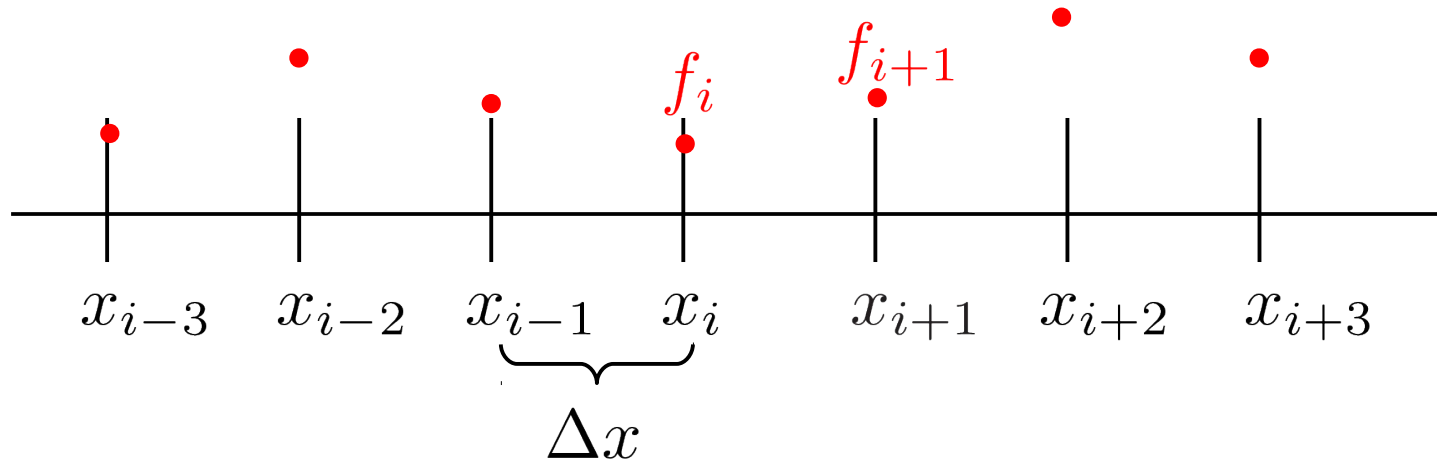
- This recovers the proper averages in each interval
- Usually termed: reconstruction
- We'll see this when we talk about finite-volume methods for advection.

Splines

- So far, we've only worried about going through the specified points
- Large number of points → two distinct options:
 - Use a single high-order polynomial that passes through them all
 - Fit a (somewhat) high order polynomial to *each interval* and match all derivatives at each point—this is a spline
- Splines match the derivatives at end points of intervals
 - Piecewise splines can give a high-degree of accuracy
- Cubic spline is the most popular
 - Matches first and second derivative at each data point
 - Results in a smooth appearance
 - Avoids severe oscillations of higher-order polynomial

Splines

- We have a set of discrete data: $f_i = f(x_i)$ at $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$
 - We'll assume regular spacing here



- m-th order polynomial in $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$

$$p_i(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m c_{i,k} x^k$$

- Smoothness requirement: all derivatives match at endpoints

$$p_i^{(l)}(x_{i+1}) = p_{i+1}^{(l)}(x_{i+1}) \quad l = 0, 1, \dots, m-1$$

Splines

- We have $(m+1)n$ coefficients
 - Smoothness operates on the $n-1$ interior points
 - End point values provide 2 more constraints
 - Remaining constraints come from imposing conditions on the second derivatives at end points
- You are solving for the coefficients of all piecewise polynomial interpolants together, in a coupled fashion.

Cubic Splines

- Cubic splines: 3rd order polynomial
 - 1. Start by linearly interpolating second derivatives

$$p_i''(x) = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \left[(x - x_i)p_{i+1}'' - (x - x_{i+1})p_i'' \right]$$

- 2. Integrate twice:

$$p_i''(x) = \frac{1}{6\Delta x} \left[(x - x_i)^3 p_{i+1}'' - (x - x_{i+1})^3 p_i'' \right] + A(x - x_i) + B(x - x_{i+1})$$

(note we wrote the integration constants in a convenient form)

- 3. Impose constraints: $p(x_i) = f_i$ and $p(x_{i+1}) = f_{i+1}$

Note: different texts use different forms of the cubic—the ideas are all the same though. This form also seems to be what NR chooses.

Cubic Splines

- Result (after a bunch of algebra):

$$p_i(x) = \alpha_i(x - x_i)^3 + \beta_i(x - x_{i+1})^3 + \gamma_i(x - x_i) + \eta_i(x - x_{i+1})$$

$$\alpha_i = \frac{p''_{i+1}}{6\Delta x} \quad \beta_i = -\frac{p''_i}{6\Delta x} \quad \gamma_i = \frac{-\frac{1}{6}p''_{i+1}\Delta x^2 + f_{i+1}}{\Delta x} \quad \eta_i = \frac{\frac{1}{6}p''_i\Delta x^2 - f_i}{\Delta x}$$

- Note that all the coefficients in the cubic are in terms of the second derivative at the data points.
 - We need to solve for all second derivatives
- Final continuity constraint:

$$p'_{i-1}(x_i) = p'_i(x_i)$$

Cubic Splines

- After lots of algebra, we arrive at:

$$p''_{i-1}\Delta x + 4p''_i\Delta x + p''_{i+1}\Delta x = \frac{6}{\Delta x} (f_{i-1} - 2f_i + f_{i+1})$$

- This is a linear system
- Applies to all interior points, $i = 1, \dots, n-1$ to give p''_i
- Natural boundary conditions:

$$p''_0 = p''_n = 0$$

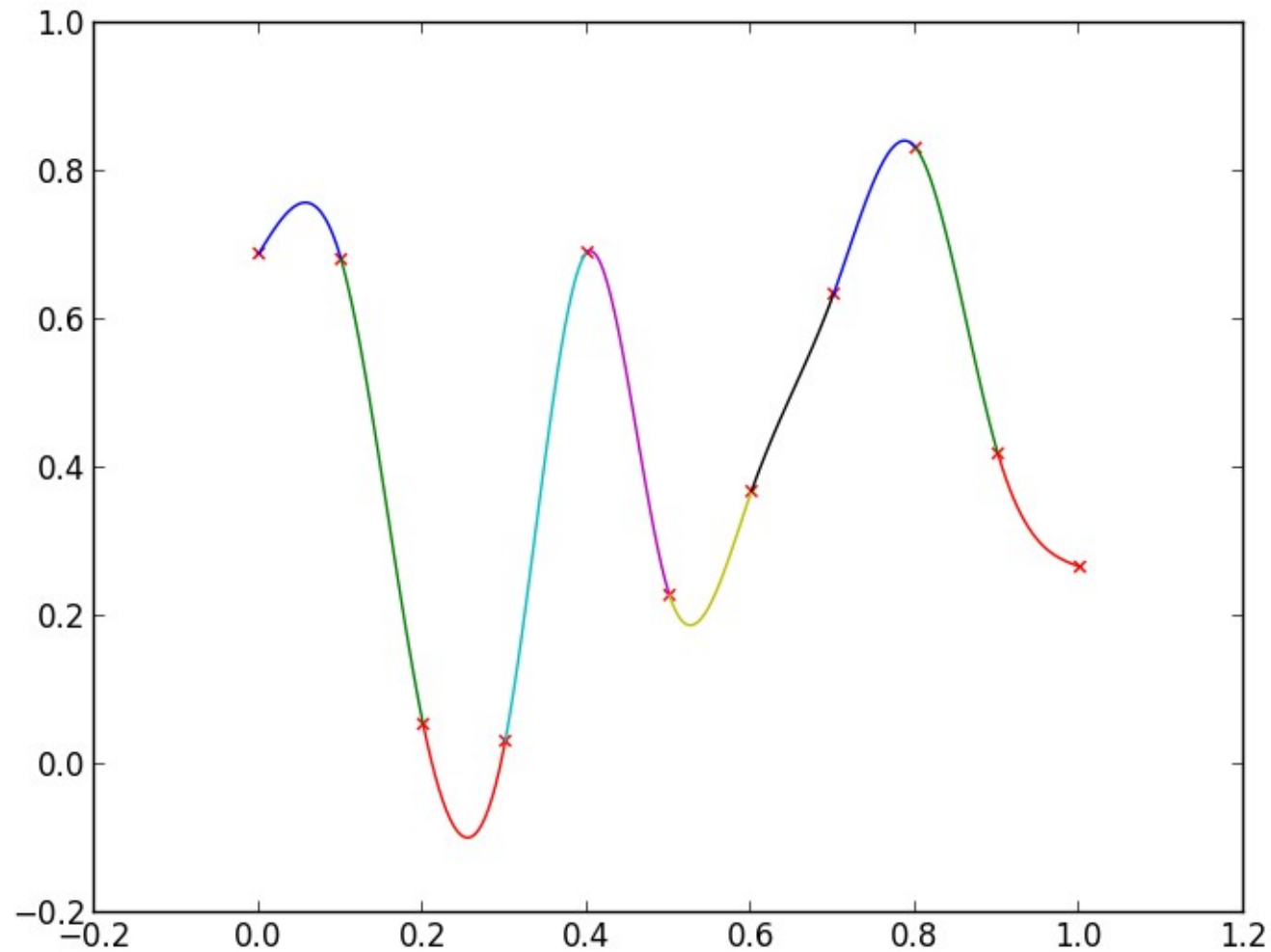
Cubic Splines

- Matrix form:

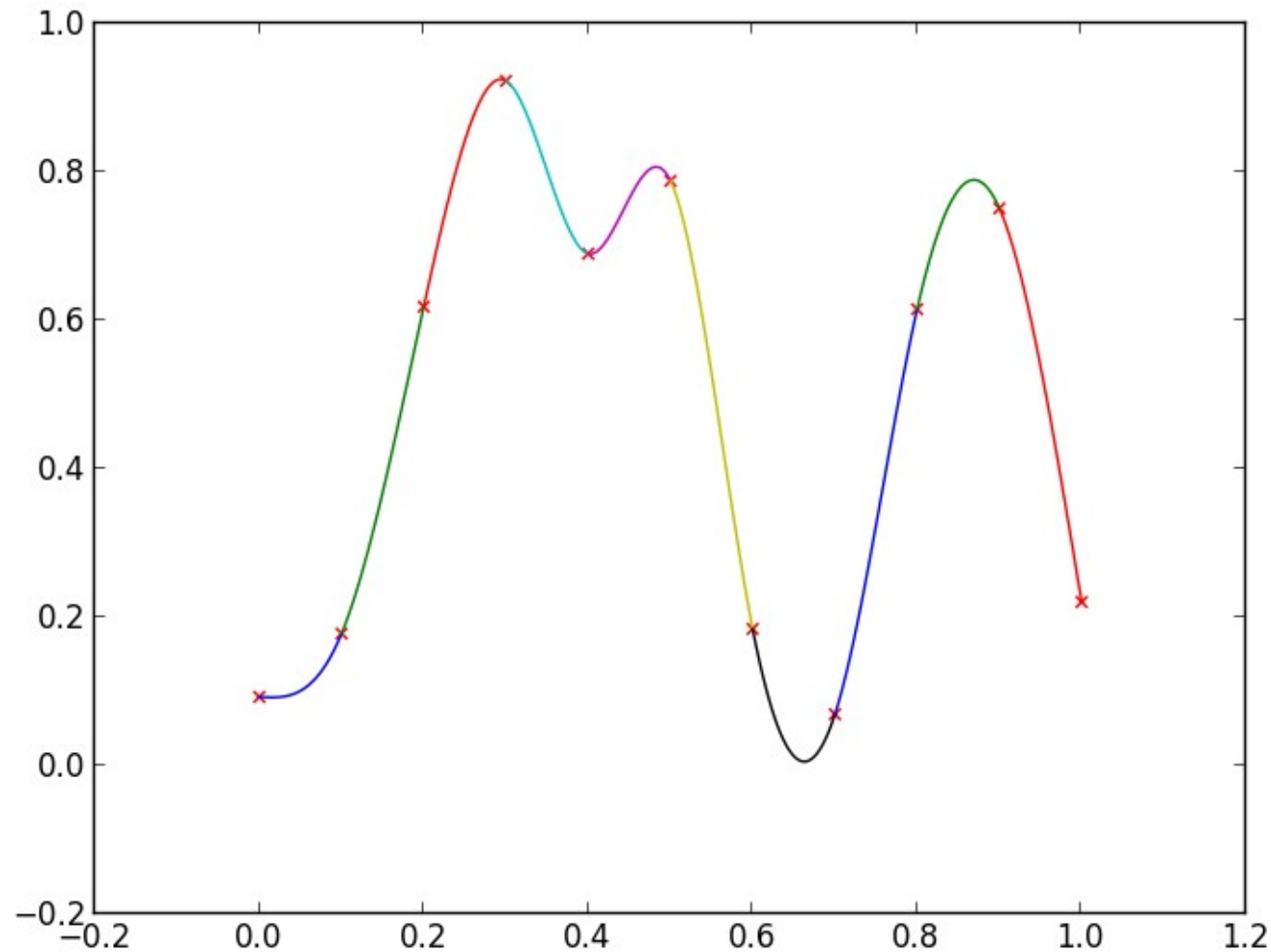
$$\begin{pmatrix} 4\Delta x & \Delta x & & & \\ \Delta x & 4\Delta x & \Delta x & & \\ & \Delta x & 4\Delta x & \Delta x & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & \Delta x & 4\Delta x & \Delta x \\ & & & & & \Delta x & 4\Delta x \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_1'' \\ p_2'' \\ p_3'' \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ p_{n-2}'' \\ p_{n-1}'' \end{pmatrix} = \frac{6}{\Delta x} \begin{pmatrix} f_0 - 2f_1 + f_2 \\ f_1 - 2f_2 + f_3 \\ f_2 - 2f_3 + f_4 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ f_{n-3} - 2f_{n-2} + f_{n-1} \\ f_{n-2} - 2f_{n-1} + f_n \end{pmatrix}$$

- This is a **tridiagonal matrix**
- We'll look at linear algebra later—for now we can use a “canned” solver
- **Example code...**

Cubic Splines



Cubic Splines



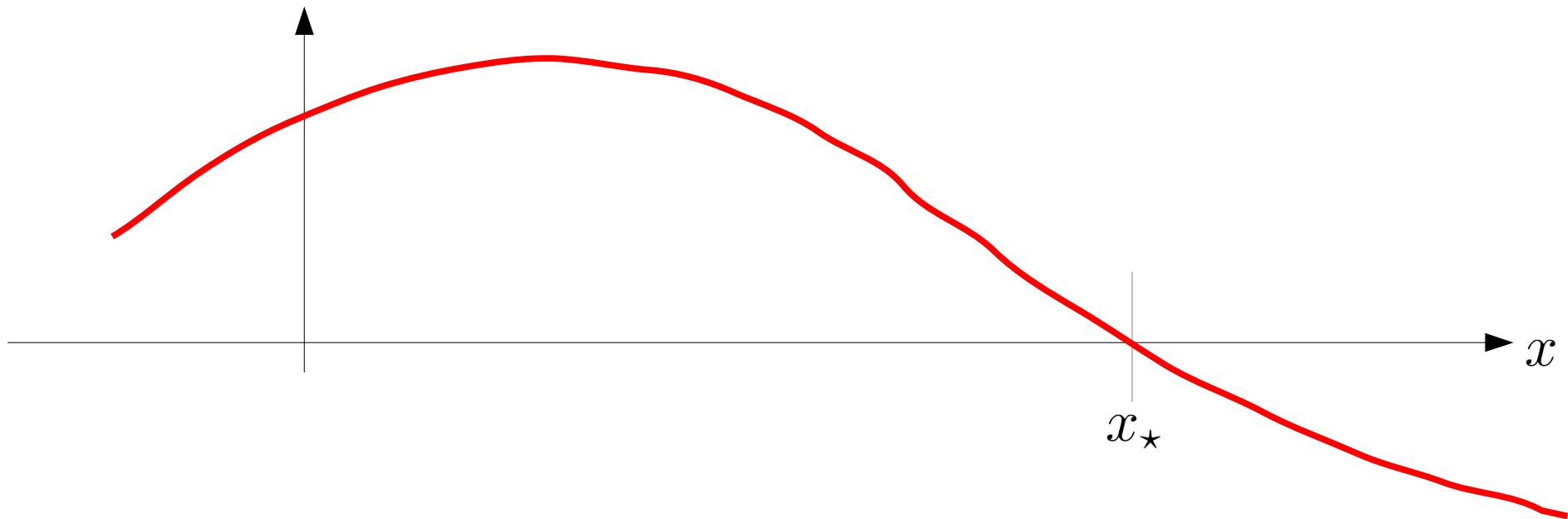
Note that the splines can overshoot the original data values

Cubic Splines

- Note: cubic splines are not necessarily the most accurate interpolation scheme (and sometimes far from...)
- But, for plotting/graphics applications, they look right

Root Finding

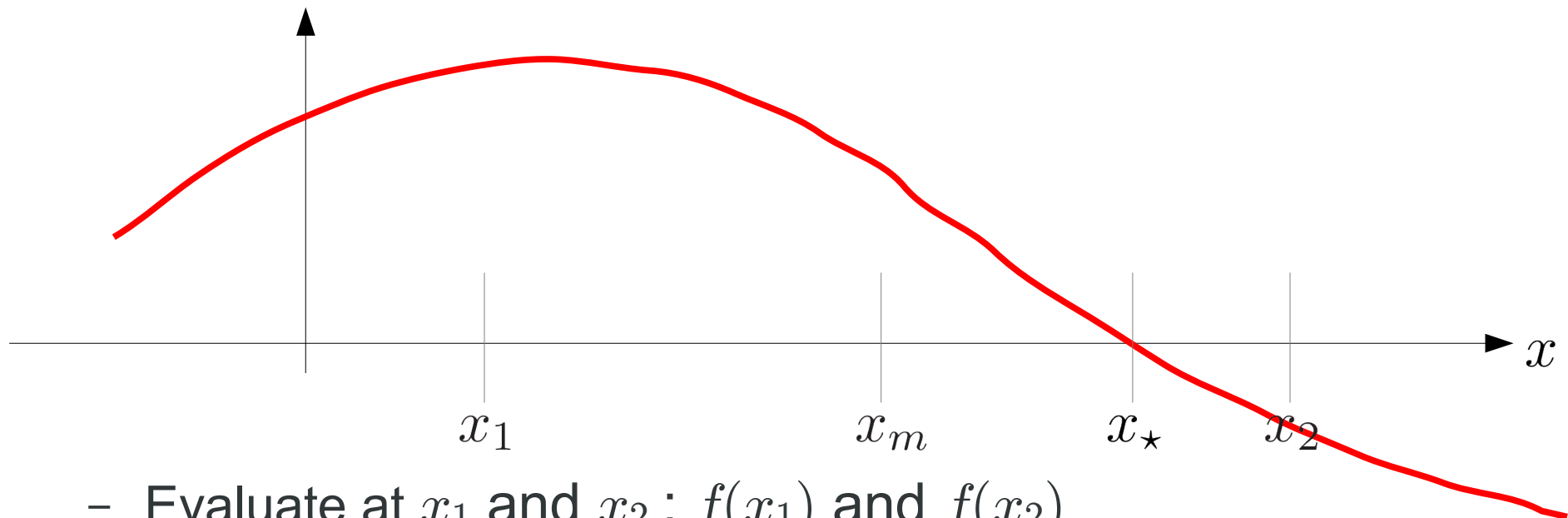
- Basic methods can be understood by looking at the function graphically



- Function $f(x)$ has a zero at x_{\star}
- Note the sign of $f(x)$ changes at the root

Bisection

- Simplest method: **bisection**



- Evaluate at x_1 and x_2 : $f(x_1)$ and $f(x_2)$
- If these are different signs, then the root lies between them
- Evaluate at the midpoint: $x_m = (x_1 + x_2)/2$ getting $f(x_m)$
- The root lies in one of the two intervals—repeat the process

Bisection

- Need two initial points (guesses) that you believe bound the root
 - If there are two roots in-between, then you are in trouble
 - Some pathological cases: e.g. $f(x) = x^2$
- Convergence can be slow—each iteration reduces the error by a factor of 2

Bisection



Newton-Raphson

- If we know df/dx we can do better
 - Start with an initial guess, x_0 , that is “close” to the root
 - Taylor expansion:

$$f(x_0 + \delta) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)\delta + \dots$$

- If we are close, then

$$f(x_0 + \delta) \approx 0 \longrightarrow \delta = -\frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}$$

- Update

$$x_1 = x_0 + \delta$$

- We can continue, iterating again and again, until the change in the root $< \varepsilon$
- Converges fast: usually only a few iterations are needed

Newton-Raphson



Newton-Raphson

- Requirements for good convergence:
 - Derivative must exist and be non-zero in the interval near the root
 - Second derivative must be finite
 - x_0 must be close to the root
- Can be used with systems (we'll see this later)
- Multiple roots?
 - Generally: try to start with a good estimate^{*}

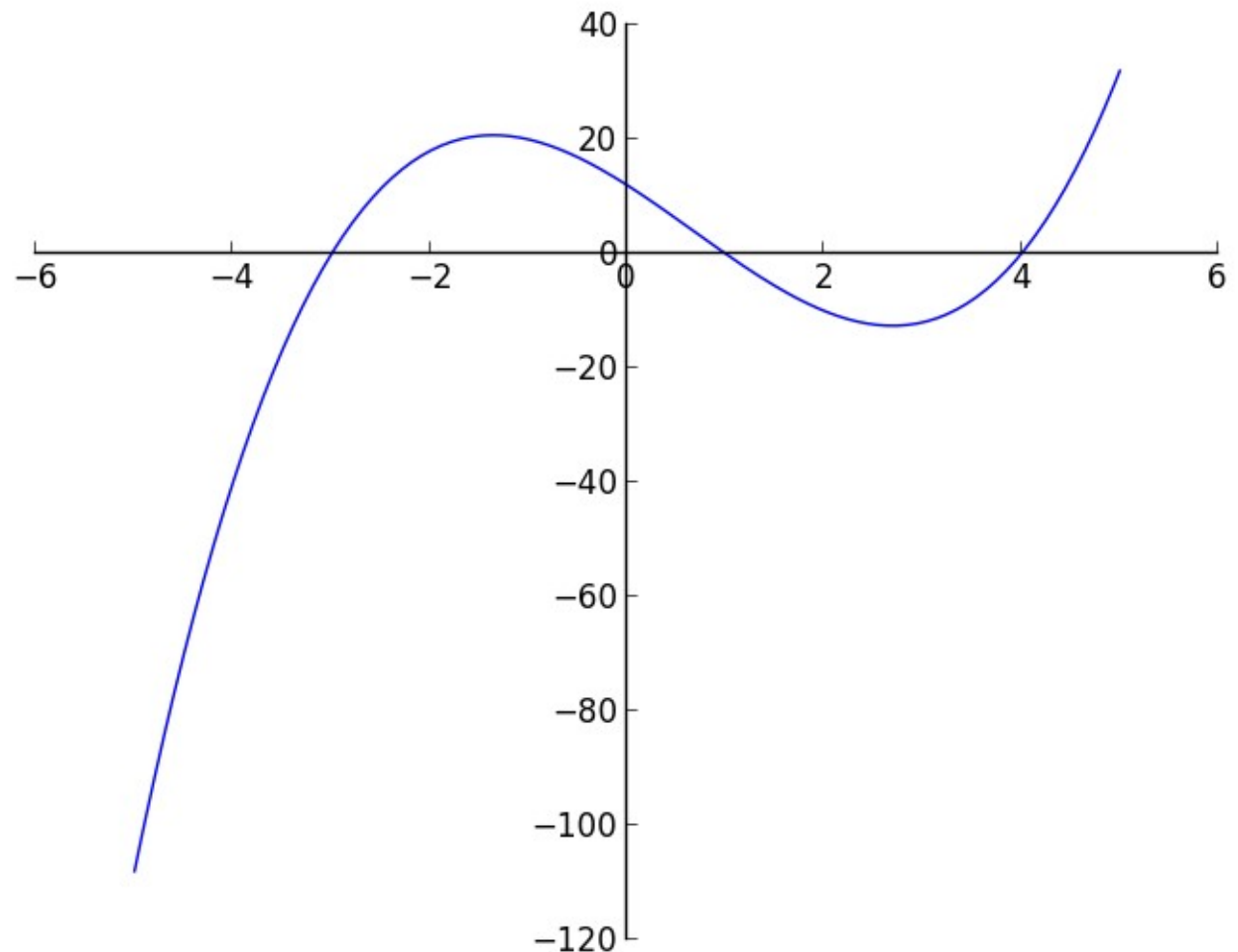
^{*}not a guarantee

Newton-Raphson

- Basins

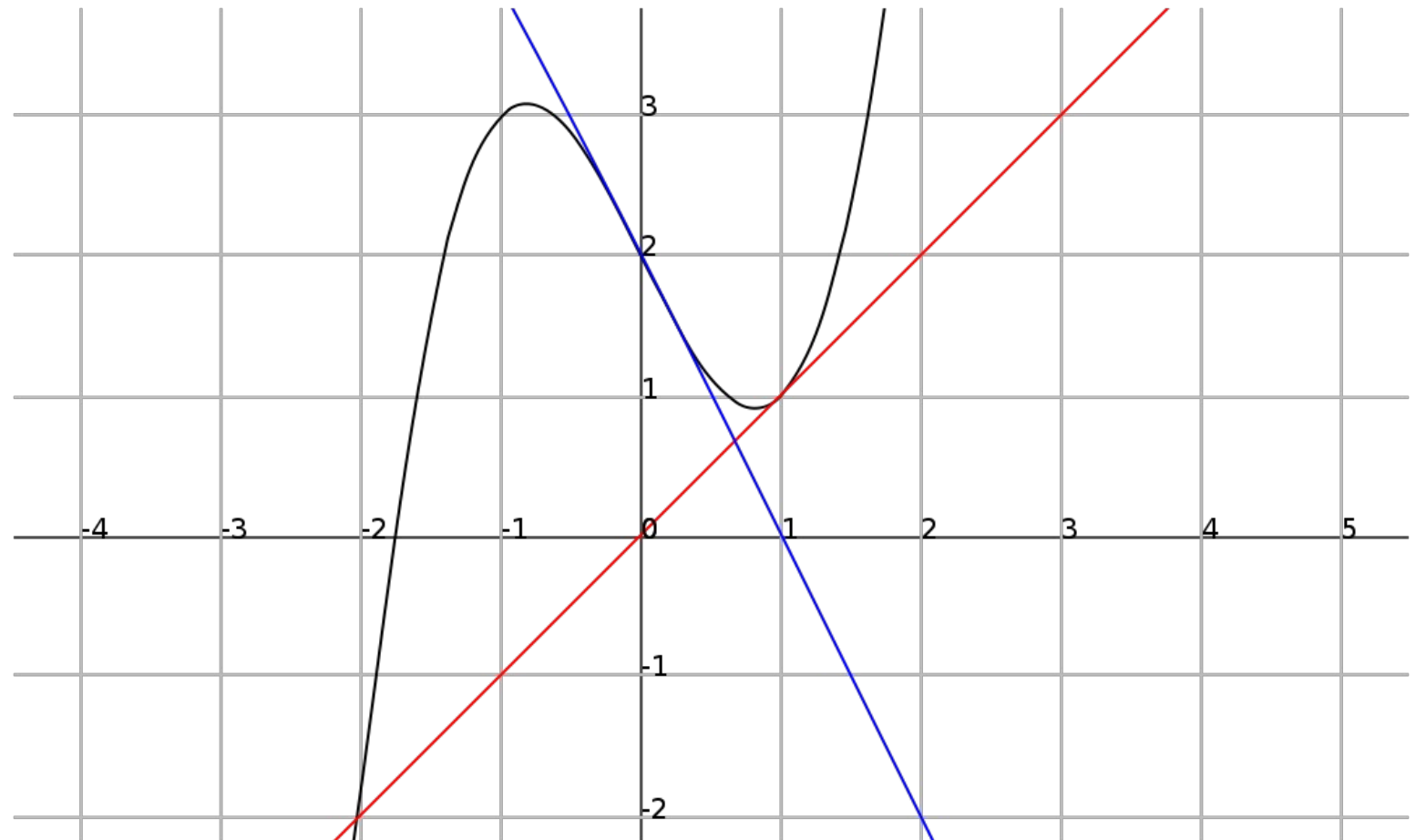
- Consider $q(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 - 11x + 12$ (example from Wikipedia / Dence, T. 1997)

x0	root
2.35287527	4.0
2.35284172	-3.0
2.35283735	4.0
2.352836327	-3.0
2.352836323	1.0



Newton-Raphson

- Consider $f(x) = x^3 - 2x + 2$
 - Start with $0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 0 \dots$
 - Cycle



Secant Method

- If we don't know df/dx , we can still use the same ideas
 - We need two initial guesses: x_{-1} and x_0
 - Use approximate derivative

$$x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{[f(x_0) - f(x_{-1})]/(x_0 - x_{-1})}$$

- Used when an analytic derivative is unavailable, or too expensive to compute (e.g. EOS)

Practical Notes

- N-R is used successfully with equations of state
 - Function takes ρ , T and we want to come in with P , ρ
 - Requires well-behaved derivatives and an initial guess
- Secant method is used, for example, in Riemann solvers in hydrodynamics, where EOS evaluations can be expensive or the derivative may not be known