

# PRACTICE 5

## 1 Continuous and Discrete Approximation

### (1) Discrete Approximation - Data Fitting

- **Data:** A finite set of points  $(x_i, y_i)$ , where  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .
- **Representation:** The data are considered as vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .
- **Inner Product:** The canonical inner product in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is used:

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m u_i v_i$$

- **Objective:** Find a function  $f(x)$  that minimizes the error between the observed values  $y_i$  and the predicted values  $f(x_i)$ , typically using the least squares method.

### (2) Continuous Approximation

- **Data:** Instead of a finite set of points, there is a function  $g(x)$  defined on an interval  $[a, b]$ .
- **Representation:** The data are considered as functions belonging to a continuous function space, typically  $C([a, b])$ .
- **Inner Product:** An inner product defined on functions is used, for example:

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx$$

- **Objective:** Find a function  $f(x)$  that approximates  $g(x)$  over the entire interval, minimizing the error in an appropriate norm, such as the  $L^2$  norm.

### 1.1 Discrete Approximation - Data fitting

Given the data set  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_m, y_m)$ , the objective consists of adjusting the parameters of a model function  $y = f(x)$  to best fit a data set, that is if we approximate  $y_i \approx f(x_i)$  we obtain the least possible error.

**Model Definition:**

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \varphi_j(x)$$

where:

- $a_j$  are the parameters (coefficients) to be determined.
- $\varphi_j(x)$  are the basis functions that describe the data, such as polynomials, trigonometric functions (Fourier basis), exponential functions, etc.
- $n$  is the number of basis functions used in the model.

To fit the model to the observed data, we construct a linear system:

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

where:

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is the matrix of basis functions evaluated at the data points:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_1(x_1) & \varphi_2(x_1) & \cdots & \varphi_n(x_1) \\ \varphi_1(x_2) & \varphi_2(x_2) & \cdots & \varphi_n(x_2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \varphi_1(x_m) & \varphi_2(x_m) & \cdots & \varphi_n(x_m) \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\mathbf{x} = [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]^T$  is the vector of parameters to be determined.
- $\mathbf{b} = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m]^T$  is the vector of observed data.

### Solution Approach:

The parameters  $\mathbf{x}$  are typically found by solving the system in the least squares sense, minimizing the residual:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \|A\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|^2$$

that is minimizing the sum of squared residuals  $\sum_{i=1}^m [y_i - f(x_i)]^2$ .

This leads to the normal equations:

$$A^T A \mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b}$$

And the least squares solution is:

$$\mathbf{x}_L S = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{b}$$

If the model that we want to use is a polynomials of degree  $k$ , we obtain the *polynomial curve fitting of degree  $k$* :

$$p = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_k x^k$$

The basis functions in this case are:

$$\varphi_1(x) = 1, \quad \varphi_2(x) = x, \quad \varphi_3(x) = x^2, \quad \dots, \quad \varphi_{k+1}(x) = x^k$$

Substituting the data points  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_m, y_m)$  in the model, we obtain:

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_1^2 + \cdots + \alpha_k x_1^k = y_1 \\ \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_2 + \alpha_2 x_2^2 + \cdots + \alpha_k x_2^k = y_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_m + \alpha_2 x_m^2 + \cdots + \alpha_k x_m^k = y_m \end{cases}$$

Or in matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^k \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_2^k \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m & x_m^2 & \cdots & x_m^k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Which is the linear system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ , with:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^k \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_2^k \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m & x_m^2 & \cdots & x_m^k \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_k \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$$

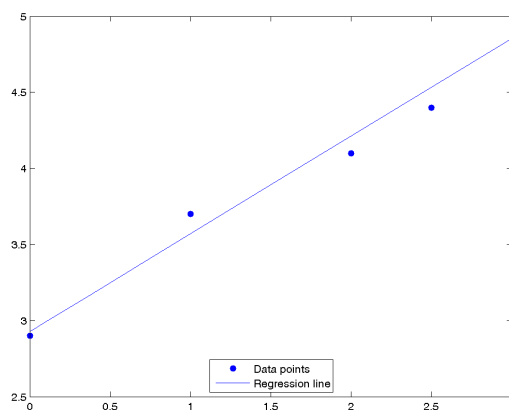
In **MATLAB** we have the command:

`polyfit(x,y,k)`: finds the coefficients  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k$  of a polynomial  $p(x)$  of degree  $k$  that fits the data,  $p(x(i))$  to  $y(i)$ , in a least squares sense. The output argument  $p$  is a row vector of length  $k + 1$  containing the polynomial coefficients in descending powers.

**Example 1.1** *Fit, using the regression line, the data:*

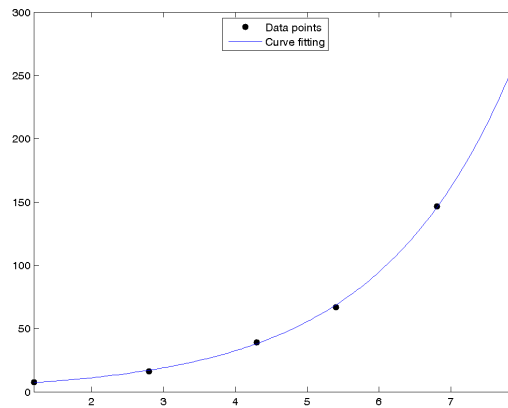
$x$	0	1	2	2.5	3
$y$	2.9	3.7	4.1	4.4	5

Compare the results given by `polyfit` and those obtained by using the first degree polynomial model.



**Example 1.2** *Determine the parameters  $a$  and  $b$  of the function  $y = ae^{bx}$  (exponential model), to fit the data points:*

$x$	1.2	2.8	4.3	5.4	6.8	7.9
$y$	7.5	16.1	38.9	67	146.6	266.2



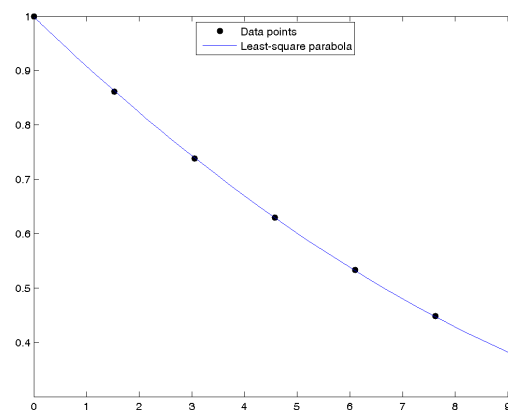
**Example 1.3** Determine the parameters  $a_0$  and  $a_1$  of the function  $y = a_0 t^{a_1}$  (potential model), to fit the data points:

$t$	1.5	2.7	3.9	5.2	6.6	7.8
$y$	5.2	10.9	21.4	36.1	60.3	85.7

**Example 1.4** The relative density  $d$  of air depends on the height  $h$ , the following measurements were obtained:

$h$ (in km)	0	1.525	3.05	4.575	6.1	7.625	9.15
$d$ (in $\text{kg/m}^3$ )	1	0.8617	0.7385	0.6292	0.5328	0.4481	0.3741

Fit these data points to the least-square parabola and approximate the density of the air to the height of 5 kilometers.



Note: The interpolating polynomial of a set of  $n$  data points coincides with the best fitting polynomial of degree  $n - 1$  (because this polynomial passes through all the data points and then, the square residuals are all zero) so, we can use the `polyfit` command to find the interpolating polynomial.

```
>> x=0:5; y=[1.1 1.5 2.4 2 3 1];
>> L=lagerange(x);
>> p=y*L; % interpolation polynomial
```

We obtain the same with:

```
>> q=polyfit(x,y,5)
```

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## 2 Continuous Approximation

In the continuous approximation problem, we aim to approximate a function  $f(x)$  defined on an interval  $[a, b]$  using a combination of basis functions. The approximation  $\hat{f}(x)$  is given by:

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \varphi_j(x)$$

where:

- $\alpha_j$  are the coefficients to be determined.
- $\varphi_j(x)$  are the basis functions, such as orthogonal polynomials (e.g., Legendre polynomials) or trigonometric functions (e.g., Fourier series).

**Objective:** Minimize the approximation error in the  $L^2$  norm:

$$\min_{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n} \left\| f(x) - \hat{f}(x) \right\|_{L^2}^2 = \min_{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n} \int_a^b \left( f(x) - \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \varphi_j(x) \right)^2 dx$$

If the basis functions  $\{\varphi_j(x)\}$  are orthogonal with respect to the inner product:

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx, \quad (1)$$


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**Example 2.1** Approximate the function  $f(x) = \sin(\pi x)$  on the interval  $[-1, 1]$  using a polynomial of degree 3.

Find the approximation  $\hat{f}(x)$  which in this case is the 3<sup>rd</sup> degree polynomial of  $f(x) = \sin(\pi x)$ :

$$\hat{f}(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3.$$

If we use orthogonal polynomials or directly solve the normal equations from the least squares method, we can compute the coefficients explicitly.

**MATLAB Implementation:**

```

f = @(x) sin(pi * x);

% Generate data points for least squares fitting
n_points = 100;
x_data = linspace(-1, 1, n_points)';
y_data = f(x_data);

% Construct the A matrix (Ax=b)
A = [ones(n_points, 1), x_data, x_data.^2, x_data.^3];
b = y_data;

% Solve the least squares problem
coeffs = A \ b;

% Evaluate the polynomial approximation and the function
t=linspace(-1,1,1000);
f_approx = coeffs(1) + coeffs(2) * t + coeffs(3) * t.^2 + coeffs(4) * t.^3;
f_vals=f(t);

% Plot the original function and approximation
plot(x_vals, f_vals, 'b-', 'LineWidth', 2), hold on
plot(x_vals, f_approx, 'r--', 'LineWidth', 2)

```

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### 2.0.1 Approximation with Fourier Series

If  $f(x)$  is a periodic function with period  $T$ , the approximation using a basis of trigonometric functions is highly effective. We use the previously defined dot product:

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_{\lambda}^{\lambda+T} f(x)g(x) dx \quad (2)$$

where the integration interval covers a full period.

The basis functions are the set of trigonometric functions:

$$\left\{ 1, \cos\left(\frac{2\pi x}{T}\right), \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{T}\right), \cos\left(\frac{4\pi x}{T}\right), \sin\left(\frac{4\pi x}{T}\right), \dots, \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{T}\right), \sin\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{T}\right) \right\} \quad (3)$$

that forms an **orthogonal basis** under the dot product defined in equation (2).

Using this basis functions, we solve the linear problem  $Ax = b$ , with  $A$  diagonal, containing

$$\dots \int_{\lambda}^{\lambda+T} \sin^2\left(k\frac{2\pi x}{T}\right) dx \quad , \quad \int_{\lambda}^{\lambda+T} \cos^2\left(k\frac{2\pi x}{T}\right) dx, \dots$$

on the main diagonal.

$$b = \begin{pmatrix} \int_{\lambda}^{\lambda+T} f(x) dx \\ \int_{\lambda}^{\lambda+T} f(x) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi x}{T}\right) dx \\ \int_{\lambda}^{\lambda+T} f(x) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{T}\right) dx \\ \vdots \\ \int_{\lambda}^{\lambda+T} f(x) \cos\left(\frac{n2\pi x}{T}\right) dx \\ \int_{\lambda}^{\lambda+T} f(x) \sin\left(\frac{n2\pi x}{T}\right) dx \end{pmatrix}$$

**Example 2.2 (Discrete Case)** *In this example, we model the temperature variations in Alaska using a trigonometric interpolation based on Fourier series. The temperature data (in Fahrenheit) is measured every 28 days, covering an entire year. Our goal is to fit the data using a Fourier series expansion with up to 6 harmonics.*

**Temperature Data** *The recorded temperature values are given as:*

$$T = [-14, -8, 2, 15, 35, 52, 62, 63, 58, 50, 34, 12, -5]$$

*where each value corresponds to a measurement taken every 28 days.*

We use the following set of basis functions for the trigonometric interpolation:

$$\phi_1(x) = 1, \quad \phi_2(x) = \sin(x), \quad \phi_3(x) = \cos(x), \dots, \phi_{12}(x) = \sin(6x), \quad \phi_{13}(x) = \cos(6x)$$

Using these **basis functions**, we seek to represent the temperature function  $T(x)$  as:

$$T(x) \approx c_1 + c_2 \sin(x) + c_3 \cos(x) + c_4 \sin(2x) + c_5 \cos(2x) + \dots + c_{13} \cos(6x)$$

where the coefficients  $c_i$  are determined by fitting the model to the given data points.

This Fourier-based approach provides a smooth, continuous approximation of temperature variations, effectively capturing periodic seasonal trends. The method can be extended with additional harmonics for improved accuracy.

**Example 2.3** *Approximate by the fifth-order Fourier series for the function*

$$f(x) = x, \quad \text{for } x \in [0, 3]$$

*considering the period  $T = 3$ .*

**Solution:**

$$f(x) \approx a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^5 \left( a_k \cos\left(\frac{2\pi kx}{T}\right) + b_k \sin\left(\frac{2\pi kx}{T}\right) \right)$$

where the Fourier coefficients are computed as:

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(x) dx, \quad \dots, a_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T f(x) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi nx}{T}\right) dx, \quad b_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T f(x) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi nx}{T}\right) dx.$$

**Example 2.4** *Do the same for the function  $f(x) = (x - \pi)^2$ , in  $[0, 2\pi]$ , with the period  $T = 2\pi$ , using the sixth order Fourier series.*