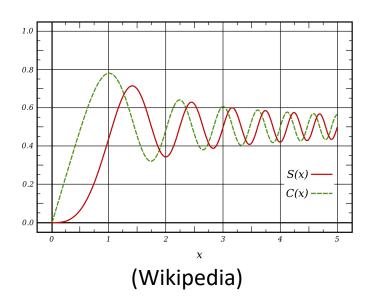
PHY604 Lecture 5

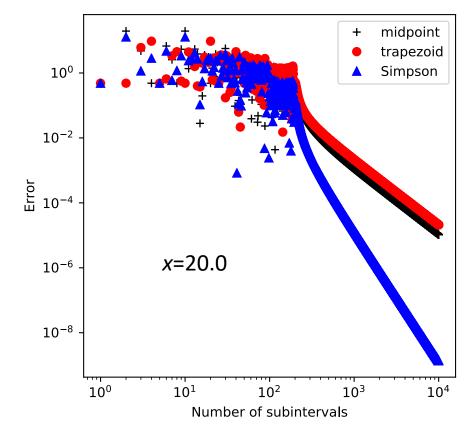
September 7, 2021

Review: Evaluating the Fresnel integral

- Fresnel functions are used in optics to describe near-field diffraction
- They can be written as an integral (or infinite sum):

$$S(x) = \int_0^x \sin(\pi t^2/2) dt$$





Review: Adaptive integration

- If we do not know f(x), we can still estimate the error:
 - 1. Perform the integration with N_1 and $N_2=N_1$ subintervals
 - 2. For, e.g., the trapezoid rule, the error using N_1 will be four times that using N_2
 - 3. The "exact" result, I is: $I=I_1+c\Delta x_1^2=I_2+c\Delta x_2^2$
 - 4. Then the error on the second estimate is:

$$\epsilon_2 = c\Delta x_2^2 = \frac{1}{3}(I_2 - I_1)$$

- We can use this approach to decide when our integral is converged to our satisfaction
 - Keep doubling the number of subintervals until the error is small enough
 - Can use the results from previous function evaluations (See Newman Sec. 5.3 and 5.4 or Garcia Sec. 10.2)

Review: Gaussian Quadrature

- As an extra degree of freedom, lets vary the space between integration points
- We must first determine integration rules for unequal spacing
 - How do we determine weights?

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \simeq w_{1}f(x_{1}) + \dots + w_{N}f(x_{N})$$

• Then, we choose a particular optimal choice of nonuniform points

Many types of Gaussian quadrature

Review: Choosing an integration method

(Newman Sec. 5.7)

Trapezoid method:

- Trivial to program
- Equally spaced points, often true of experimental data
- Good choice for poorly behaved data (noisy, singularities)
- Adaptive method gives guaranteed accuracy level
- Not very accurate for given number of points

Romberg integration:

- Equally spaced points, often true of experimental data
- Guaranteed accuracy level
- Potentially high accuracy for small number of points
- Will not work well for noisy of pathological data/integrands

Gaussian Quadrature

- Potentially high accuracy for small number of points
- Simple to program (weights and roots tabulated)
- Will not work well for noisy of pathological data/integrands
- Need to have data on specific, unequally-spaced grid

Review: 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: $l_i(x) = \prod_{j=0, i \neq j}^{n-1} \frac{x-x_j}{x_i-x_j}$
 - Note basis function I_i is 0 at all x_i except for x_i (where it is one)
 - Function value at \mathbf{x} is: $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} l_i(x) f_i$

Today's lecture:

- Continue discussing interpolation
 - Lagrange Interpolation
 - Cubic splines
- Begin discussing finding roots of functions
 - Bisection method
 - Newton Raphson method
 - Secant method

Example: Quadratic Lagrange polynomial

- Three points: (x_0,f_0) , (x_1,f_1) , (x_2,f_2)
- Three basis functions:

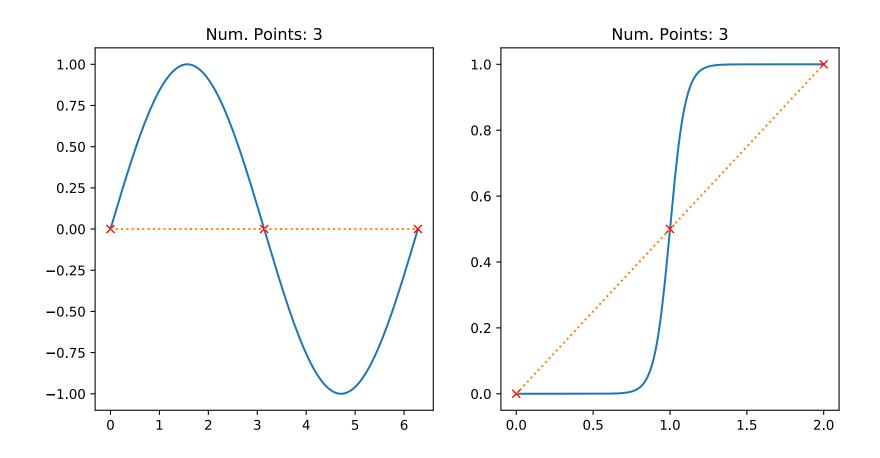
$$l_0 = \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} \frac{x - x_2}{x_0 - x_2} = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{2\Delta x^2}$$

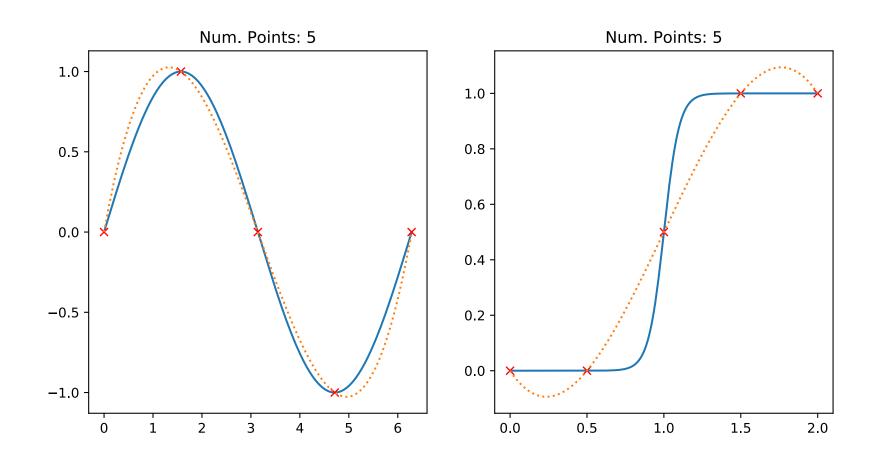
$$l_1 = \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} \frac{x - x_2}{x_1 - x_2} = -\frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{\Delta x^2}$$

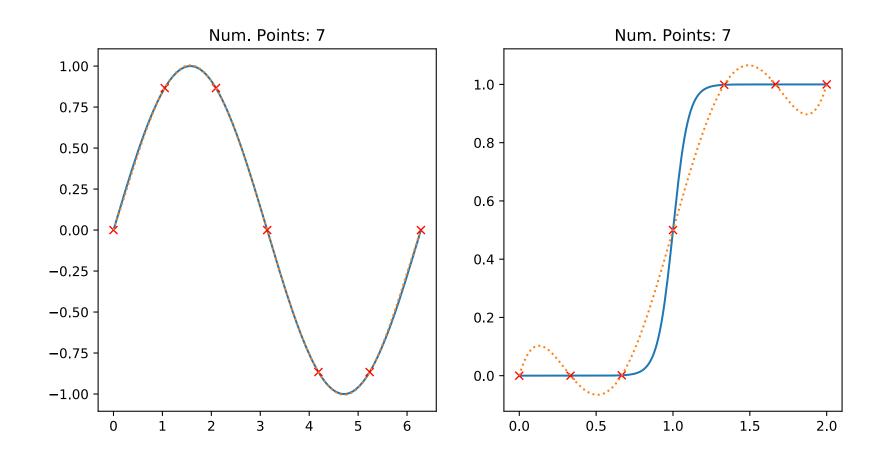
$$l_2 = \frac{x - x_0}{x_2 - x_0} \frac{x - x_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{2\Delta x^2}$$

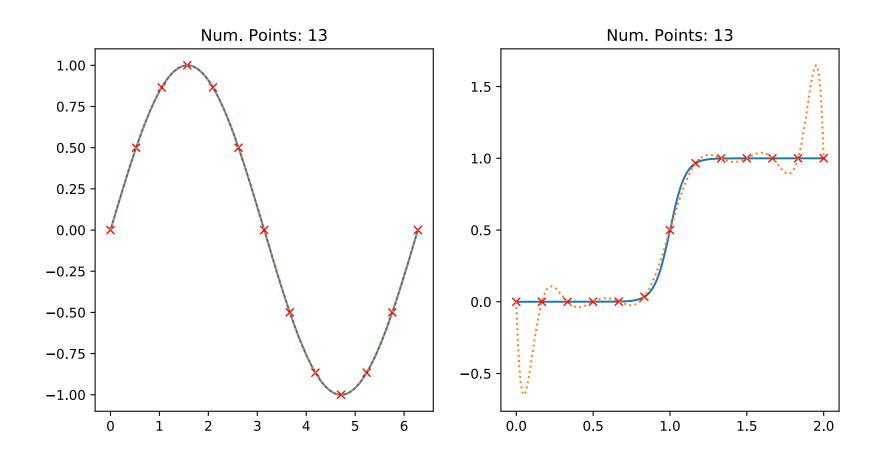
• Polynomial:

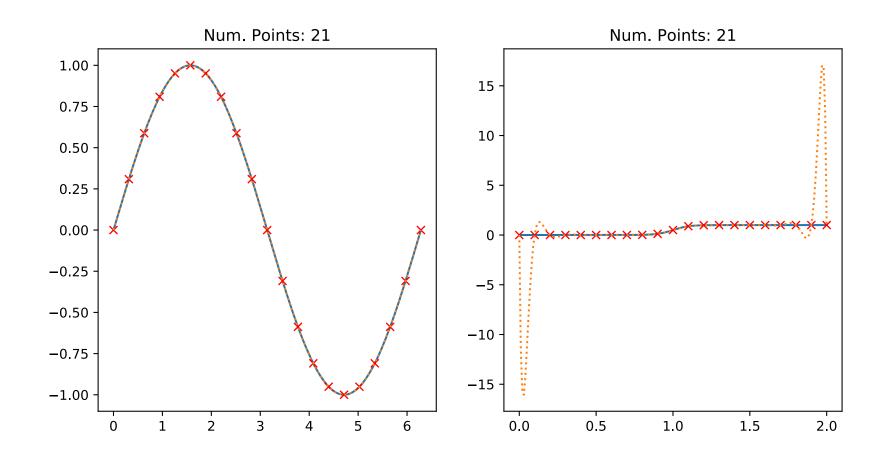
$$f(x) = f_0 \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{2\Delta x^2} - f_1 \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{\Delta x^2} + f_2 \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{2\Delta x^2}$$





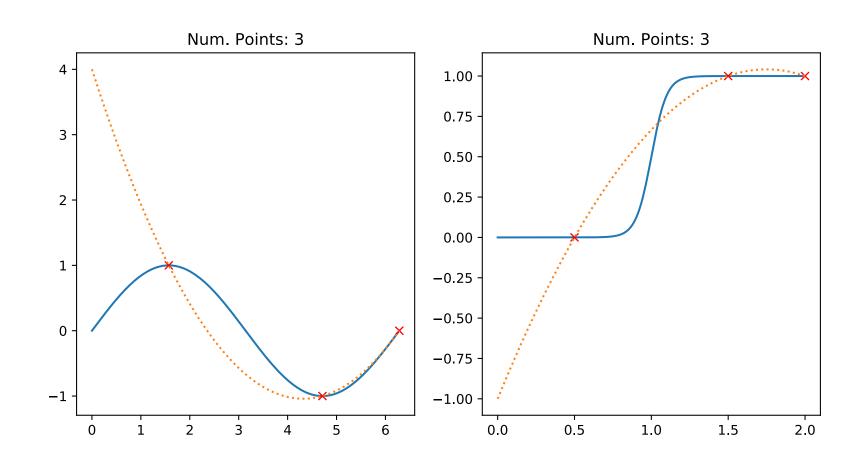


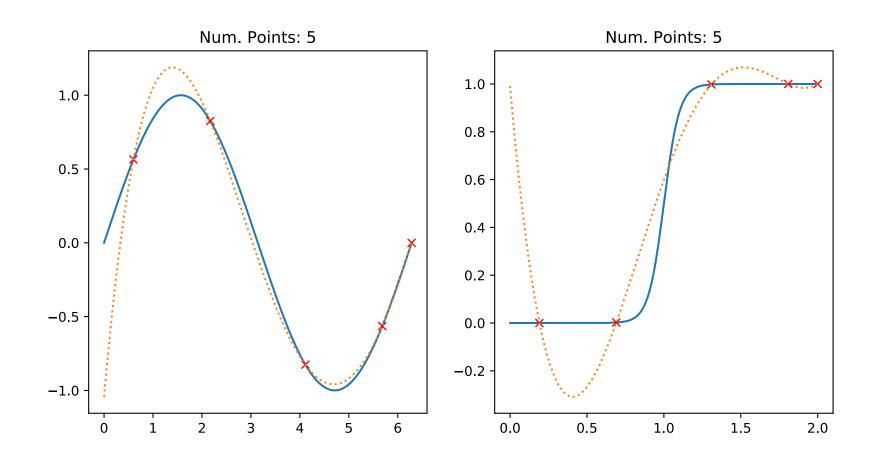


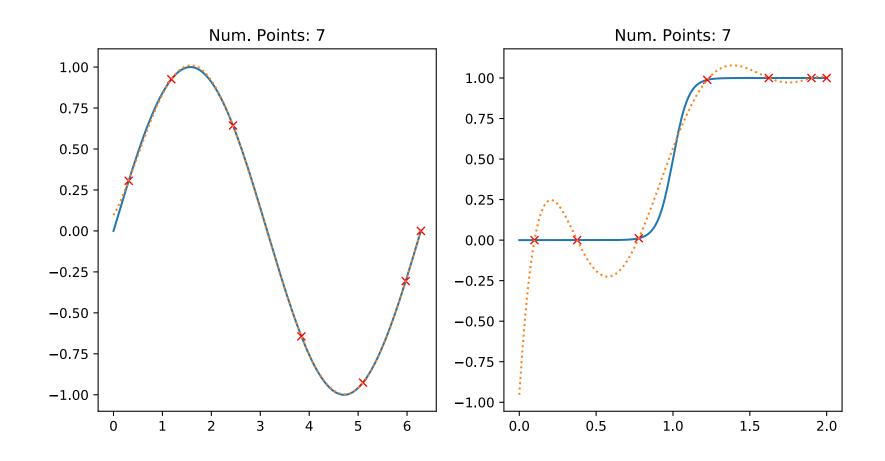


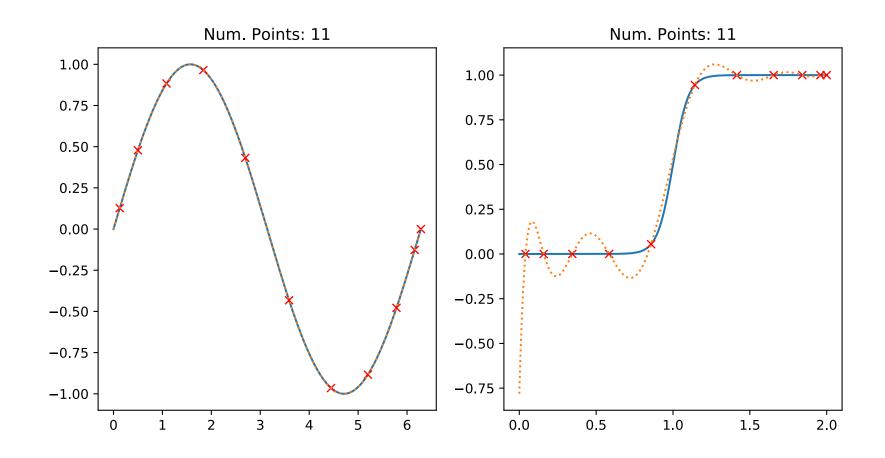
- For the hyperbolic tangent case, increasing the number of points beyond a certain limit increases the error
 - Runge phenomena: Oscillations at the edges of the interval
 - Increasing the number of points causes a divergence in the error
- Can do better by varying the spacing of the interpolating points
 - e.g., Chebyshev polynomial roots are concentrated toward the end of the interval
 - Chebyshev polynomial spacing is usually (almost always) convergent with the number of interpolating points

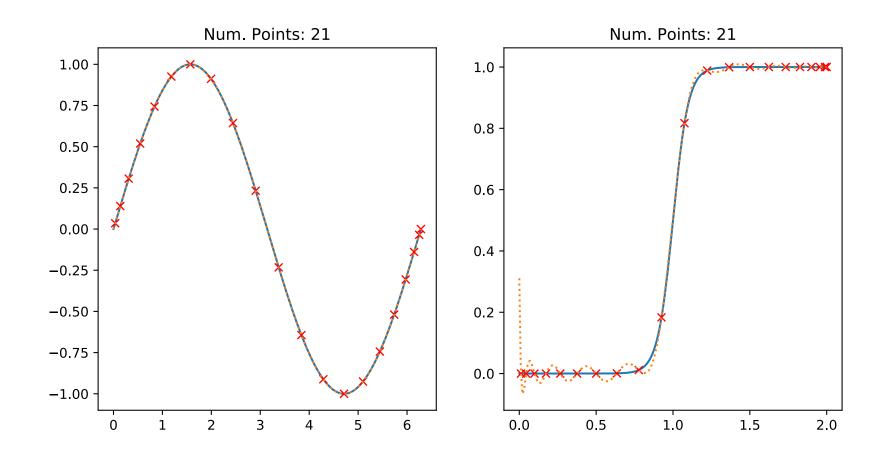
$$x_k = \frac{1}{2}(a+b) + \frac{1}{2}(b-a)\cos\left(\frac{2k-1}{2n}\pi\right), \quad k = 1, ..., n$$

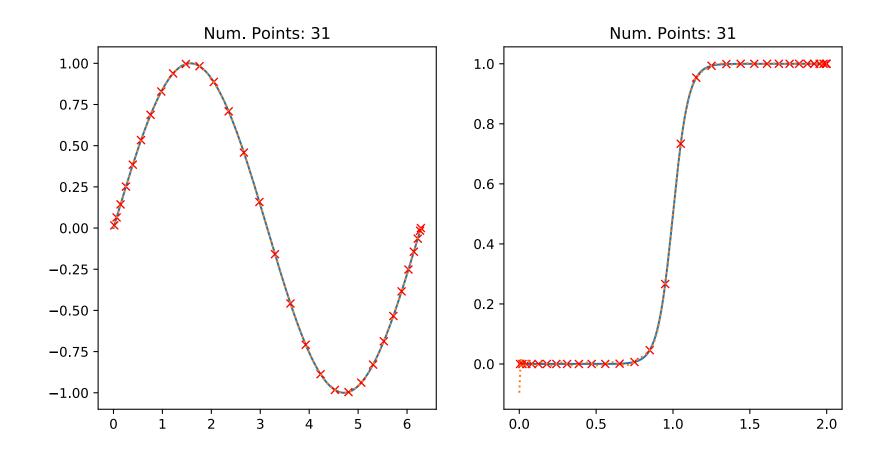


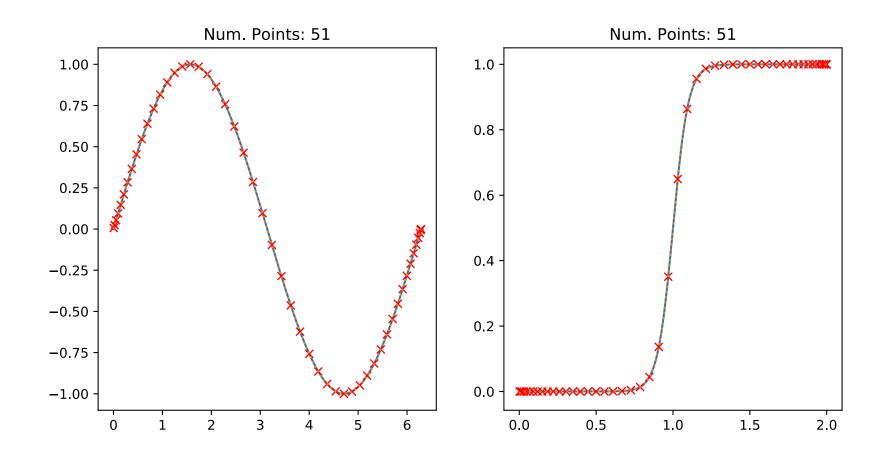












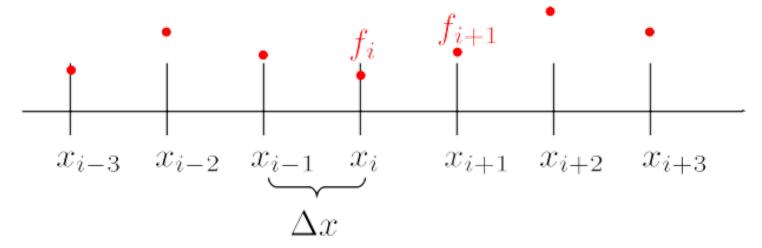
Today's lecture:

- Continue discussing interpolation
 - Lagrange Interpolation
 - Cubic splines
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 - Bisection method
 - Newton Raphson method
 - Secant method

Splines (Pang Sec. 2.4)

- 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 regular-spaced discrete data: $f_i = x(x_i)$ at $x_0, x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$
- m-th order polynomial to approximate f(x) for x in $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$:

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

• Coefficients chosen so $p_i(x_i)=f_i$ and from smoothness condition: all derivatives (*I*) match at the endpoints

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

Except for points on the boundary of the curve

Splines: Determining the coefficients

• There are *n* intervals; in each interval: *m*+1 coefficients for the polynomial

- Total: (m+1)n coefficients:
 - Smoothness condition on interior points: (m)(n-1) equations
 - Curve passing through interior points: (*n*-1) equations
 - Remaining m+1 equations from imposing conditions on derivatives at end points
 - Natural spline: Setting highest-order derivative to zero at both endpoints

Most popular: Cubic splines, m = 3

Easy to implement

Produce a curve that appears to be seamless

Avoids distortions near the edges

Only piecewise continuous, third derivatives are discontinuous

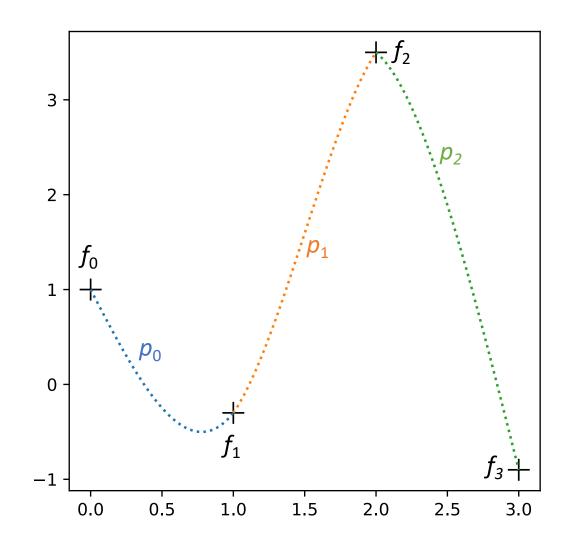
Cubic spline example: 3 intervals

• Order: m=3, intervals: n=3, points: x=0, 1, 2, 3

• Constraints: (m+1)n = 12

• Interior point 1: $p_0(x_1) = f_1$ $p_1(x_1) = f_1$ $p_0'(x_1) = p_1'(x_1)$ $p_0''(x_1) = p_1''(x_1)$

• Interior point 2: $p_1(x_2) = f_2$ $p_2(x_2) = f_2$ $p_1'(x_2) = p_2'(x_2)$ $p_1''(x_2) = p_2''(x_2)$



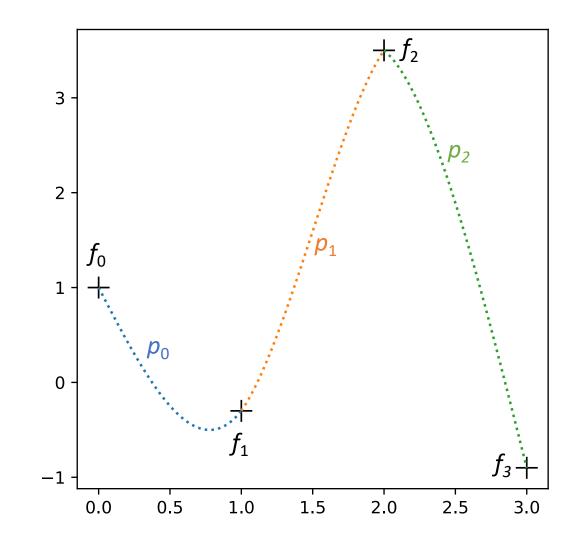
Cubic spline example: 3 intervals

• At the boundaries:

$$p_0(x_0) = f_0$$
$$p_2(x_3) = f_3$$

• Natural spline, second derivatives at the boundary set to zero

$$p_0''(x_0) = 0$$
$$p_2''(x_3) = 0$$



Now solve for the coefficients:

• Linearly interpolate the second derivative:

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

Integrate twice:

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

• Impose constraints: $p_i(x) = fi, p(x_{i+1}) = f_{i+1}$

Now solve for the coefficients:

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

Results:

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

For now, in terms of second derivative

To get second derivative, use continuity condition

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

Now solve for the coefficients:

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

- Applies to all interior points
- Natural boundary conditions:

$$p_0'' = 0, \ p_n'' = 0$$

Results in a system of linear equations

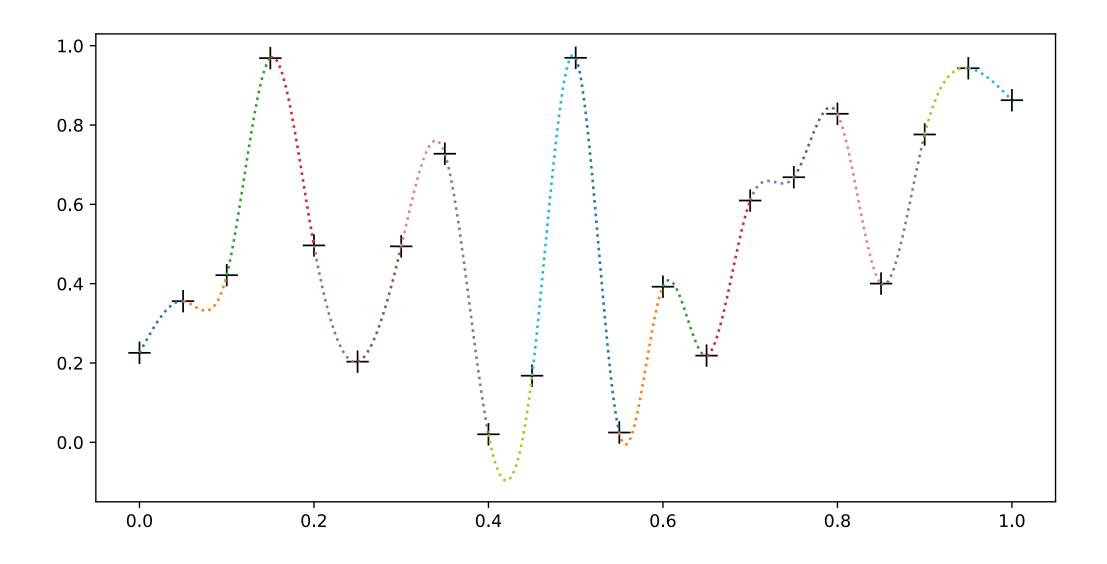
Results in system of linear equations

Can be written as a tridiagonal matrix:

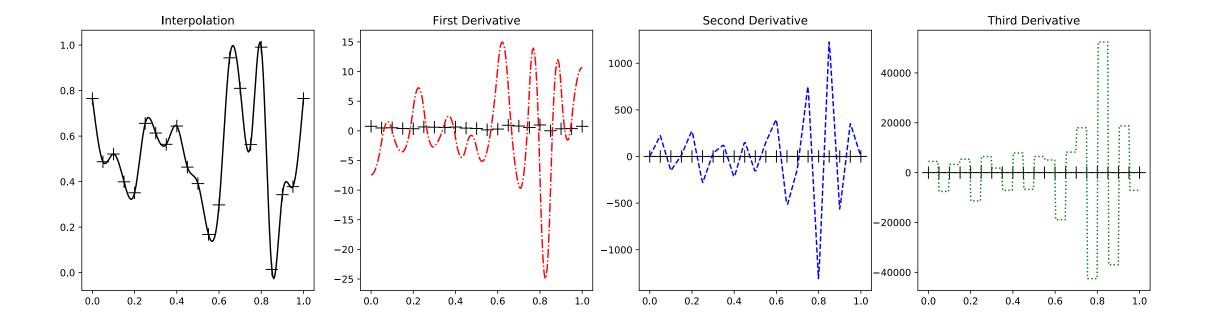
$$\begin{pmatrix} 4\Delta x & \Delta x & & & & \\ \Delta x & 4\Delta x & \Delta x & & & \\ & \Delta x & 4\Delta x & \Delta x & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \Delta x & 4\Delta x & \Delta x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1'' \\ p_2'' \\ p_3'' \\ \vdots \\ p_{n-2}'' \\ p_{n-1}'' \end{pmatrix}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

We will discuss linear algebra in a later class

Example: Cubic spline for random numbers



Example: Derivatives of cubic splines



Today's lecture:

- Continue discussing interpolation
 - Lagrange Interpolation
 - Cubic splines
- Begin discussing finding roots of functions
 - Bisection method
 - Newton Raphson method
 - Secant method

Purpose: Find the root of a function

- Root of a function f(x) is x_r such that: $f(x_r) = 0$
- Why? We can cast more general solutions in the form of finding roots.
 - Example: Suppose I have the following equation for velocity of a free-falling mass m with a coefficient of drag c_d :

$$v(t) = \sqrt{\frac{gm}{c_d}} \tanh\left(\sqrt{\frac{gc_d}{m}}t\right)$$

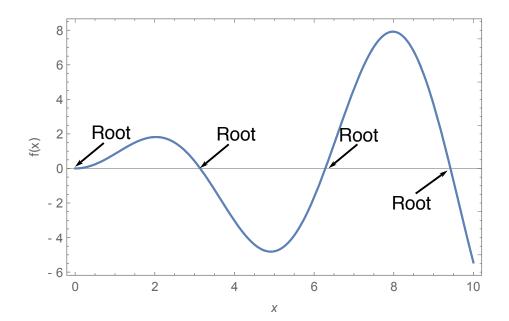
• I would like to find the mass that would give me a velocity of 36 m/s after 4s of free fall. We can do this by rewriting the equation as:

$$f(m) = \sqrt{\frac{gm}{c_d}} \tanh\left(\sqrt{\frac{gc_d}{m}}t\right) - v(t)$$

• And finding the root of f(m) for t = 4s and v = 36 m/s

Purpose: Find the root of a function

- For very simple functions, we can find the root analytically
 - For more complicated functions, we must do this numerically
- First rule of root finding: If possible, plot the function to get an idea of where roots are, how many, etc.:



Bisection method

- 1. Choose two initial guesses for the root, a lower (x_i) and upper (x_u)
 - Chosen such that the function evaluated at x_i and x_{ij} have different signs
 - This can be checking by ensuring that: $f(x_i) f(x_u) < 0$
- 2. An estimate for the root is determined as the midpoint between the guesses $x_r = \frac{x_l + x_u}{2}$
- 3. Make the following evaluations to determine in which subinterval the root lies, and thus obtain a refined guess:
 - If $f(x_l) f(x_r) < 0$, set $x_u = x_r$, return to step 2
 - If $f(x_i) f(x_r) > 0$, set $x_i = x_r$, return to step 2
 - If $f(x_l) f(x_r) = 0$ to some tolerance, x_r is the root and the calculation is complete

Newton-Raphson method

• Let x_r be a root of f(x). Expand f(x) in a Taylor series about around a different point x_0 that is close to x_r :

$$f(x) \simeq f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

• Then:

$$f(x_r) = 0 \simeq f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x_r - x_0)$$

• So:

$$x_r \simeq x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}$$

• Of course, this is only accurate if x_0 is close to x_r , but we can use this relation to refine the guess for the root

Newton-Raphson method procedure

- 1. Make an initial guess for the root: x_0
- 2. Use the Taylor series expansion to find a better estimate of the root:

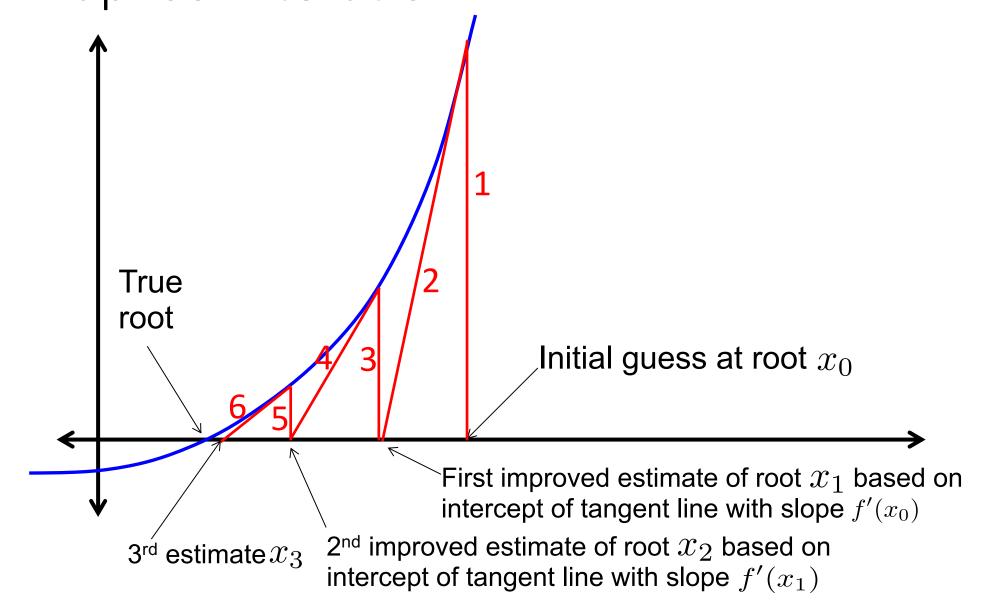
$$x_1 \simeq x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}$$

• 3. Use x_1 as an improved estimate at the root and employ the Taylor series expansion again to get a better estimate x_2

• Repeat process until the answer is accurate enough at the *n*th estimate:

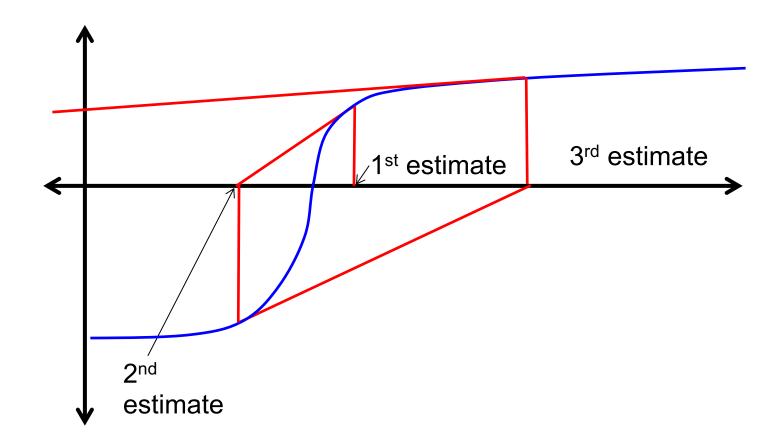
$$x_n \simeq x_{n-1} - \frac{f(x_{n-1})}{f'(x_{n-1})}$$

Geometrical Interpretation of Newton-Raphson Iteration



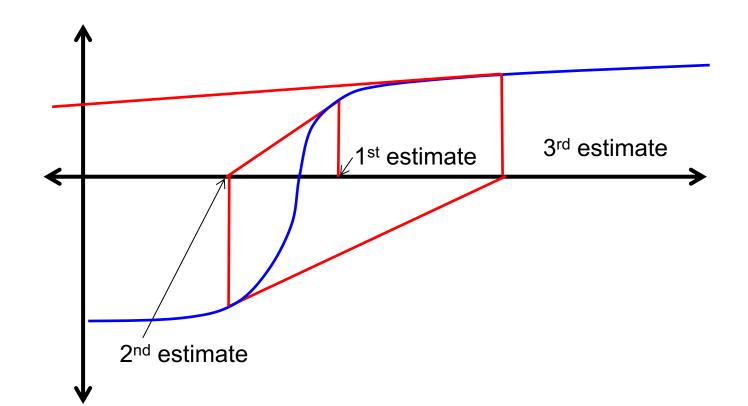
Failure of Newton-Raphson

• Example of a simple function that will defeat Newton-Raphson Iteration:



 Each estimate gets further from the true root. Estimates are diverging not converging

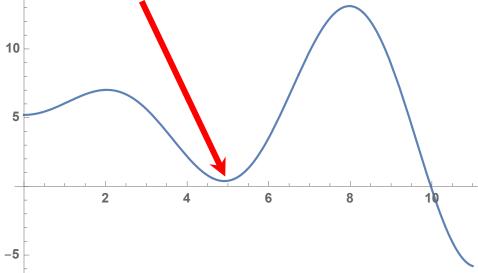
- Could stop when we reach some maximum number of iterations
 - Estimate may be no where near the root
 - We can consider this case a failure of the method and warn user about it.



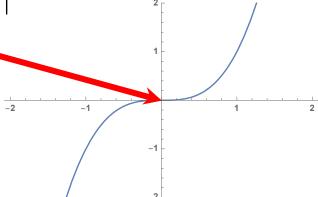
- Could stop when we reach some maximum number of iterations
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 - We can consider this case a failure of the method and warn user about it.
- Could stop when value of the function evaluated at the nth estimate less than small number : $|f(x_n)| < \epsilon$

• But this can be deceptive; final estimate may not be near the root, might just be

close to zero



- Could stop when we reach some maximum number of iterations
 - Estimate may be no where near the root
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- Could stop when value of the function evaluated at the nth estimate less than small number : $|f(x_n)| < \epsilon$
 - But this can be deceptive; final estimate may not be near the root, might just be close to zero
- Could stop when change between estimates becomes small relative to the current (nth) estimate: $|x_{n+1} x_n| < \epsilon |x_n|$
 - Better, but still fails when root is located at zero



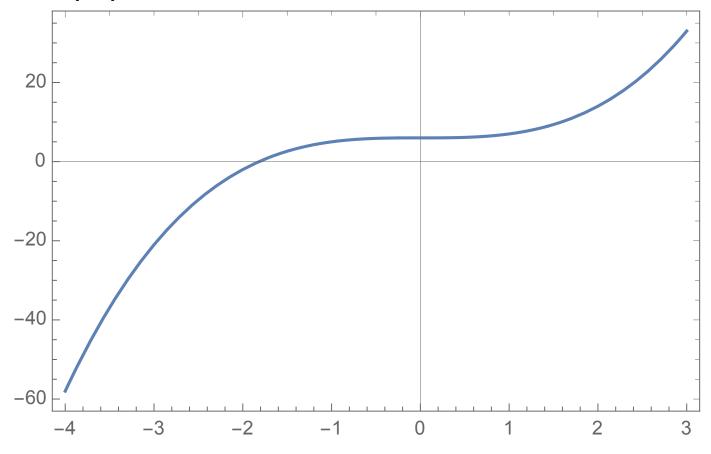
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- Could stop when value of the function evaluated at the nth estimate less than small number : $|f(x_n)| < \epsilon$
 - But this can be deceptive; final estimate may not be near the root, might just be close to zero
- Could stop when change between estimates becomes small relative to the current (nth) estimate: $|x_{n+1} x_n| < \epsilon |x_n|$
 - Better, but still fails when root is located at zero
- So let's use: $|x_{n+1}-x_n|<\begin{cases} \epsilon|x_n|, & \text{when } |x_n|\neq 0\\ \epsilon, & \text{when } |x_n|=0 \end{cases}$

Pseudocode of Newton-Raphson Algorithm

- 1. Choose initial guess at the root (x_0) , and the convergence tolerance (ε) .
- 2. Loop through n up to a maximum number N_{max} (exit and tell the user that the root finding has failed if it reaches N_{max})
- 3. Make sure $f'(x) \neq 0$
- 4. Compute new estimate of root: $x_n \simeq x_{n-1} \frac{f(x_{n-1})}{f'(x_{n-1})}$
- 5. Check convergence criteria:

$$|x_{n+1} - x_n| < \begin{cases} \epsilon |x_n|, & \text{when } |x_n| \neq 0 \\ \epsilon, & \text{when } |x_n| = 0 \end{cases}$$

Example: $f(x) = x^{3} + 6$



• See NR_root.f08

Secant method

- Similar to the Newton-Raphson method, but does not require calculating the derivative of the function
- Start with two initial guesses, x_{i-1} and x_i
- Use finite difference derivative to get a new guess x_{i+1}

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)(x_{i-1} - x_i)}{f(x_{i-1}) - f(x_i)}$$

Proceed in the same way as the Newton-Raphson method

Summary of root-finding methods

• Bisection:

- Robust (with appropriate initial guesses)
- Slow, each iteration reduces error by a factor of two
- Need to make sure root is within initial guesses

Newton-Raphson:

- Fast: often only takes a few iterations
- Need to know derivative of function, and they must exist
- Can diverge, e.g., in cases with small second derivatives

Secant method

- Similar convergence speed as NR method
- Don't need analytical derivatives
- Same divergence properties as NR method
- Numerical derivatives may be noisy

After class tasks

- Homework 1 has been posted
 - Let me know if you have HW questions or questions/issues on github classroom
 - Office hours: Mondays, 3:00pm to 4:00pm; Thursdays, 11:05am to 1:00pm
 - Feel free to send me an email, and remember, if you push your changes, I should be able to see them

Readings:

- Pang Section 2.1 and 3.3
- Wikipedia article on Chebyshev nodes
- Myths about polynomial interpolation
- Wikipedia page on root finding