## MA5233 Computational Mathematics

Lecture 14: Polynomial Approximation

Simon Etter



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### Polynomial approximation

Given  $f: [-1,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ , find polynomial  $p \in \mathcal{P}_n$  minimising

$$||f-p||_{[-1,1]} := \sup_{x \in [-1,1]} |f(x)-p(x)|.$$

### Why polynomial approximation?

### Applications:

- Practical algorithm for evaluating "complicated" functions. Example: Krylov methods replace  $A^{-1}b$  with p(A)b.
- Numerical integration. Hard:  $\int f(x) dx$ . Easy:  $\int p(x) dx$ .
- ▶ Basis in which to represent unknown functions.
  Example: finite element method for partial differential equations.

Key features of polynomials which make the above possible:

- ► Simple: polynomials require only addition and multiplication.
- Complete (Weierstrass approximation theorem): every continuous function can be uniformly approximated by polynomials.

### Remarks on polynomial approximation problem

Approximation on [-1,1] is equivalent to approximation in any interval [a,b]:

$$\begin{split} \arg\min_{\tilde{p}\in\mathcal{P}_n} \|f(\tilde{x}) - \tilde{p}(\tilde{x})\|_{[a,b]} &= \arg\min_{\tilde{p}\in\mathcal{P}_n} \left\|f\left(\phi(x)\right) - \tilde{p}\left(\phi(x)\right)\right\|_{[-1,1]} \\ &= \arg\min_{p\in\mathcal{P}_n} \left\|f\left(\phi(x)\right) - p(x)\right\|_{[-1,1]} \end{split}$$
 with 
$$\phi: [-1,1] \to [a,b], \quad x \mapsto \frac{a+b}{2} + \frac{b-a}{2} \, x.$$

► Supremum norm is often not exactly the error that you want to minimise, but it provides an upper bound on the desired error.

Example: Consider 
$$||f||_{p,[-1,1]}:=\left(\int_{-1}^{1}|f(x)|^{p}~dx\right)^{1/p}$$
. We have  $||f||_{p,[-1,1]}\leq ||f||_{[-1,1]}.$ 

### Methods of approximation

- ▶ Best approximation:  $p = \arg\min \|f p\|_{[-1,1]}$ Rarely used in practice because hard to compute.
- Interpolation:  $p(x_k) = f(x_k)$  for some  $x_0, \dots, x_n \in [-1, 1]$ . Very easy to compute and "almost optimal" (precise statement will follow).
- ▶  $L^2$ -projection:  $\int_{-1}^1 (f(x) p(x)) x^k dx = 0$  for  $k \in \{0, ..., n\}$ . Useful for theory. Sometimes useful in practice.

## Existence and uniqueness of best approximation [Tre13, Thm 10.1]

Given  $f: [-1,1] \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the minimiser

$$p^{\star} := \arg\min_{p \in \mathcal{P}_n} \|f - p\|_{[-1,1]}$$

exists and is unique.

## Equioscillation theorem [Tre13, Thm 10.1]

A polynomial  $p \in \mathcal{P}_n$  is equal to  $p^*$  if and only if there are n+2 points

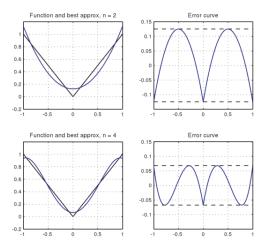
$$-1 \le x_0 < x_1 < \ldots < x_n < x_{n+1} \le 1$$

and  $s \in \{-1, +1\}$  such that

$$f(x_k) - p(x_k) = s(-1)^k ||f - p^*||_{[-1,1]}.$$

See next slide for illustration.

### Equioscillation theorem, illustrated



Observation:  $f(x) - p^*(x)$  equioscillates in n+3 points in both examples.

Figure copied from Trefethen's ATAP. See reference at the end.

## Review of best approximation

#### Good:

► There are iterative algorithms for computing best approximations. Search for "Remez algorithm" if you want to know more.

#### Bad:

- ▶ These algorithms are expensive and may fail to converge.
- ▶ Theory presented so far does not provide convergence rates.

#### Conclusion:

▶ We need other approximation algorithms to overcome these issues.

### Existence and uniqueness of interpolant

Given  $f:[-1,1]\to\mathbb{R}$  and n+1 distinct points  $x_0,\ldots,x_n\in[-1,1]$ , there exists a unique  $p\in\mathcal{P}_n$  such that

$$p(x_k) = f(x_k)$$
 for  $k \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$ .

*Proof:* existence. The interpolant p(x) is given by

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} f(x_j) \ell_j(x)$$

with  $\ell_j(x)$  the Lagrange polynomials introduced on the next slide.

*Proof:* uniqueness. Assume  $p, q \in \mathcal{P}_n$  are two interpolants to f. It follows from

$$p(x)-q(x)\in \mathcal{P}_n$$
 and  $p(x_k)-q(x_k)=0$  for  $k\in\{0,\ldots,n\}$  that  $p(x)-q(x)=0$ .

### Lagrange polynomials

Consider n+1 distinct points  $x_0, \ldots, x_n \in [-1, 1]$ . The Lagrange polynomials  $\ell_i(x)$  with  $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$  are given by

$$\ell_j(x) := \prod_{i \neq j} \frac{x - x_i}{x_j - x_i}.$$

These polynomials satisfy

$$\ell_j(x_k) = \prod_{i \neq j} \frac{x_k - x_i}{x_j - x_i} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = j, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

### Example

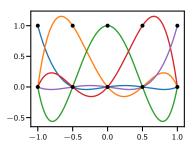
Consider the five points

$$x_0 = -1$$
,  $x_1 = -0.5$ ,  $x_2 = 0$ ,  $x_3 = 0.5$ ,  $x_4 = 1$ .

The Lagrange polynomial  $\ell_2(x)$  is given by

$$\ell_2(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)}{(x_2-x_0)} \frac{(x-x_1)}{(x_2-x_1)} \frac{(x-x_3)}{(x_2-x_3)} \frac{(x-x_4)}{(x_2-x_4)}.$$

It is shown in green in the plot below (the other lines show other  $\ell_j$ ).



## Interpolation error estimate [SM03, Thm 6.2]

Assume  $f:[-1,1]\to\mathbb{R}$  has n+1 continuous derivatives. Let p be the interpolant to f in the n+1 points  $x_0,\ldots,x_n\in[-1,1]$ . For every  $x\in[-1,1]$ , there exists a  $\xi\in[-1,1]$  such that

$$f(x) - p(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i).$$

### Interpretation

Polynomial interpolant p(x) approximates f(x) well if both of the following conditions are satisfied:

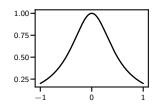
- f(x) has many derivatives and these derivatives are small. Such functions are called smooth.
- ▶ The node polyomial  $\ell(x) := \prod_{i=0}^{n} (x x_i)$  is small throughout [-1, 1].

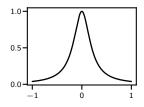
### Example

Consider equispaced points  $\left(x_i = \frac{2i-n}{n}\right)_{i=0}^n$  and the two functions

$$f_1(x) = \frac{1}{1+4x^2},$$

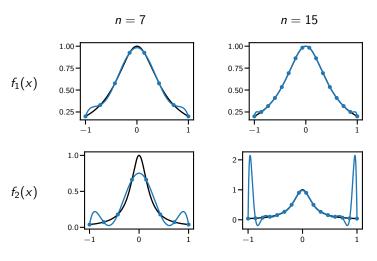
$$f_2(x) = \frac{1}{1 + 25x^2}.$$





Note that  $f_1(x)$  is smoother than  $f_2(x)$ .

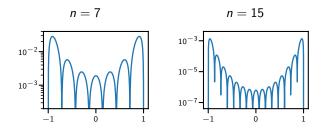
Interpolants in n+1 equispaced points  $\left(x_i = \frac{2i-n}{n}\right)_{i=0}^n$ 



Observation: interpolant to  $f_1$  converges while interpolant to  $f_2$  diverges!

### **Explanation**

Consider node polynomial  $\ell(x) := \prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i)$ :



Observation:  $\ell(x)$  is much larger for  $x = \pm 1$  than for  $x \approx 0$ .

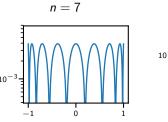
Previous slide suggests that the limits of  $\left|f^{(n+1)}(\xi)\right|\left|\ell(x)\right|$  for  $n\to\infty$  are:

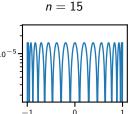
	$x \approx 0$	$x \approx \pm 1$
$f_1(x)$	0	0
$f_2(x)$	0	$\infty$

### Conclusion from interpolation error estimate

Uniform accuracy is achieved if we choose the interpolation points  $x_i$  such that  $\ell(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i)$  equioscillates on [-1, 1].

Put differently,  $\ell(x)$  should look like this:





We determine such points by reversing the problem:

- ▶ Find equioscillating polynomial  $T_{n+1} \in \mathcal{P}_{n+1}$ .
- ▶ Choose  $x_i$  as the n+1 roots of  $T_{n+1}(x)$ .

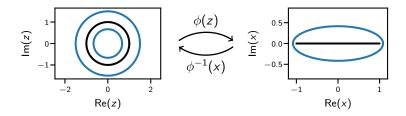
The polynomials  $T_k(x)$  are known as *Chebyshev polynomials*. Introducing them requires some preparation.

## Joukowsky map

$$\phi(z) := \frac{z + z^{-1}}{2}, \qquad \phi_{\pm}^{-1}(x) := x \pm \sqrt{x^2 - 1}.$$

### Properties:

- 1.  $\phi(z)$  maps the unit circle  $\{|z|=1\}$  to [-1,1].
- 2.  $\phi_+^{-1}(z) = (\phi_-^{-1}(z))^{-1}$



Proof of inverse.

$$\frac{z+z^{-1}}{2} = x \iff z^2 - 2zx + 1 = 0 \iff z = x \pm \sqrt{x^2 - 1}.$$

*Proof of Property 1.* We have  $z^{-1} = \frac{\overline{z}}{|z|}$ ; hence for |z| = 1 we obtain

$$\phi(z) = \frac{z+z}{2} = \text{Re}(z) \in [-1,1].$$

*Proof of Property 2.* Immediate consequence of  $\phi(z) = \phi(z^{-1})$ .

### Chebyshev polynomials

$$T_n(x) := \frac{\phi^{-1}(x)^n + (\phi^{-1}(x))^{-n}}{2}$$

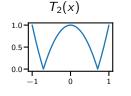
Note: definition is independent of choice of branch of  $\phi_+^{-1}(x)$ .

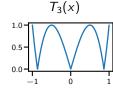
### Properties:

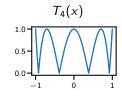
1.  $T_n(x)$  is indeed a polynomial and satisfies the recurrence relation

$$T_0(x) = 1,$$
  $T_1(x) = x,$   $T_{n+1}(x) = 2xT_n(x) - T_{n-1}(x).$ 

- 2.  $|T_n(x_i)| = ||T_n|| = 1$  for  $x_i = \cos(\pi \frac{i}{n})$  and  $i \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ .
- 3.  $T_n(x_i) = 0$  for  $x_i = \cos(\pi \frac{2i+1}{2n+2})$  and  $i \in \{0, \dots n\}$ .







### Proof of Property 1.

- ▶  $T_k(x) \in \mathcal{P}_k$  follows from recurrence relation.
- ▶ Formulae for  $T_0(x)$  and  $T_1(x)$  are obvious.
- ▶ To show recurrence formula, set  $x = \phi(z)$  and compute

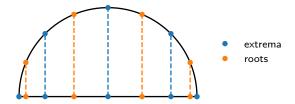
$$2xT_k(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left( z + z^{-1} \right) \left( z^k + z^{-k} \right)$$
$$= \frac{z^{k+1} + z^{-k-1}}{2} + \frac{z^{k-1} + z^{-k+1}}{2}$$
$$= T_{k+1}(x) + T_{k-1}(x).$$

*Proof of Property 2.* We know that  $|\phi^{-1}(x)| = 1$  for  $x \in [-1,1]$ ; hence  $||T_k(x)|| \le 1$ . Since  $T_n(x) = \text{Re}(\phi^{-1}(x))$  for  $x \in [-1,1]$ , this upper bound is attained for

$$\phi^{-1}(x_i)^n = \pm 1 \iff \phi^{-1}(x_i) = \exp(\pi \iota \frac{i}{n}) \iff x_i = \cos(\pi \frac{i}{n}).$$

Proof of Property 3. Since  $|\phi^{-1}(x)| = 1$  and  $T_k(x) = \text{Re}(\phi^{-1}(x))$  for  $x \in [-1, 1]$ , the roots are given by

$$\phi(x_i)^n = \pm \iota \iff \phi^{-1}(x_i) = \exp(\pi \iota \frac{2i+1}{2n+2}) \iff x_i = \cos(\pi \frac{2i+1}{2n+2}).$$



### Chebyshev points

Choosing the roots  $x_i = \cos\left(\pi \frac{2i+1}{2n+2}\right)$  of  $T_n(x)$  as interpolation points leads to equioscillating node polynomial  $\ell(x) \propto T_n(x)$ .

While not exactly equioscillating, the extrema  $x_i = \cos\left(\pi \frac{i}{n}\right)$  are also good interpolation points and are frequently used in practice.

Both sets of points are called *Chebyshev points*, and all of the following statements hold for either choice of Chebyshev points.

## Convergence theory for approximation in Chebyshev points

Our starting point for deriving the Chebyshev points was the estimate

$$f(x) - p(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i).$$

This estimate is somewhat unsatisfying as it only applies if  $k \ge n + 1$  with k the number of derivatives of f.

For interpolation in Chebyshev points, the estimate can be extended to the regime k < n + 1 as shown on next slide.

## Chebyshev interpolation error [Tre13, Thm 7.2]

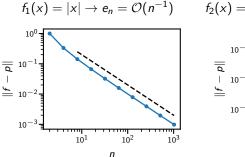
Assume f(x) is k-1 times continuously differentiable and  $f^{(k)}$  is bounded and continuous except at a finite number of discontinuities.

Let  $p \in \mathcal{P}_n$  be the interpolant to f in n+1 Chebyshev points.

Then, there exists a C > 0 independent of n and f such that

$$e_n = \|f - p\|_{[-1,1]} \le C \|f^{(k)}\|_{[-1,1]} n^{-k}.$$

### **Examples**



$$f_2(x) = |\sin(4\pi x)|^3 \to e_n = \mathcal{O}(n^{-3})$$

$$= \frac{10^{-1}}{10^{-3}}$$

$$= \frac{10^{-1}}{10^{-5}}$$

$$= \frac{10^{-5}}{10^{-5}}$$

$$= \frac{10^{-1}}{10^{1}}$$

$$= \frac{10^{-1}}{10^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{10^{-1}}{10^{3}}$$

Additional observation for  $f_2$ :

We first need to resolve oscillations of sin(x) before we see convergence.

### Infinitely differentiable functions

Previous theorem: f has k derivatives  $\rightarrow e_n = \mathcal{O}(n^{-k})$ . What if  $k = \infty$ ?

We distinguish two cases depending on whether for every point  $x_0 \in [-1, 1]$ , there exists an  $\epsilon > 0$  such that the Taylor series

Taylor[
$$f, x_0$$
]( $x$ ) :=  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k$ 

converges to f(x) for all x such that  $|x - x_0| \le \varepsilon$ .

- ▶ If yes: f(x) is called *analytic*. Polynomial approximation converges exponentially (theorem will follow).
- ▶ If no: polynomial approximation converges superalgebraically but subexponentially.

### **Terminology**

- ▶ Algebraic convergence:  $e_n = \mathcal{O}(n^{-k})$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- **E**xponential convergence:  $e_n = \mathcal{O}(a^n)$  for some a < 1.

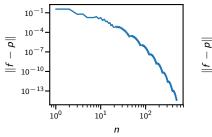
## Example: convergence for infinitely differentiable functions

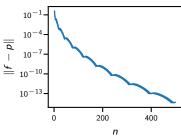
Consider  $f(x) := \exp(-\frac{1}{|x|})$ .

f(x) has infinitely many continuous derivatives, but it is not analytic:

Taylor
$$[f, 0](x) = 0$$
 while  $f(x) \neq 0$  for  $x \neq 0$ .

Convergence of Chebyshev interpolation is better than algebraic but worse than exponential:





### **Analytic functions**

#### Definitions:

- ▶ An infinitely differentiable function f(x) is called *analytic at a point*  $x_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  if there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that Taylor $[f, x_0](x) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $|x x_0| < \varepsilon$ .
- ▶ f(x) is called *analytic on a set*  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$  if it is analytic at every  $x_0 \in \Omega$ .

### Properties of analytic functions:

- ightharpoonup f(x), g(x) analytic at  $x_0 \implies f(x) + g(x)$  analytic at  $x_0$ .
- ightharpoonup f(x), g(x) analytic at  $x_0 \implies f(x)g(x)$  analytic at  $x_0$ .
- ightharpoonup g(x) anal. at  $x_0$ , f(x) anal. at  $g(x_0) \implies f(g(x))$  analytic at  $x_0$ .

### Examples of analytic functions:

- Analytic everywhere:  $\exp(x)$ ,  $\sin(x)$ ,  $\cos(x)$ .
- ► Analytic except at 0:  $\frac{1}{x}$ ,  $\sqrt{x}$ ,  $\log(x)$ .

### Interpolation error for analytic functions [Tre13, Thm 8.2]

Assume f(x) is analytic and bounded on the Bernstein ellipse

$$E(r) := \{ x \in \mathbb{C} \mid \frac{1}{r} < |\phi_{\pm}^{-1}(x)| < r \}, \qquad r \ge 1.$$

Let  $p \in \mathcal{P}_n$  be the interpolant to f in n+1 Chebyshev points. Then, there exists a C > 0 independent of f and n such that

$$||f-p||_{[-1,1]} \le C ||f||_{E(r)} r^{-n}.$$

#### Remark

Usually f(x) is unbounded on  $E(r^*)$  with  $r^* := \sup\{r \text{ as above}\}$ . In this case  $\|f\|_{E(r)} \to \infty$  as  $r \to r^*$ , i.e.  $\|f - p\|$  converges exponentially with any rate  $r < r^*$  but not with rate  $r^*$ .

However, this technical subtlety is usually of no practical relevance.

### Example

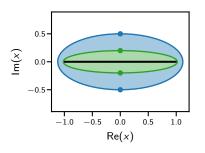
Recall the two functions  $f_1(x) = \frac{1}{1 + 4x^2}$ ,  $f_2(x) \frac{1}{1 + 25x^2}$ .

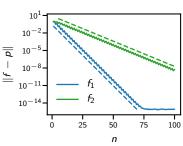
$$f_1(x)$$
 is analytic except at  $x^{(1)}_{\pm}:=\pm rac{\iota}{2}.$ 

$$f_2(x)$$
 is analytic except at  $x_{\pm}^{(2)}:=\pm \frac{\iota}{5}.$ 

According to theorem, interpolation in Chebyshev points converges and rate of convergence is given by  $r_k = \left|\phi_\pm^{-1}(x_\pm^{(k)})\right|$ .

Choice of signs in formula for  $r_k$  doesn't matter due to properties of  $\phi$ .





### Review of polynomial interpolation

- Interpolant exists, is unique and can be easily evaluated.
- Accuracy of interpolant depends on smoothness of f and distribution of interpolation points.
- Bad: equispaced points. Good: Chebyshev points (either type).
- ► Algebraic convergence for *f* with finitely many derivatives. Exponential convergence for analytic *f*.

#### To be discussed next

- ► Conditioning of interpolation problem.
- ▶ How much worse is interpolation compared to best approximation?

#### Notation

- $\|f\|:=\|f\|_{[-1,1]}$ , i.e. I drop the subscript [-1,1] for brevity.
- $ightharpoonup \mathcal{B}$ : space of bounded functions  $[-1,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ .
- ▶  $p^*$ : best approximation to  $f \in \mathcal{B}$ .
- ▶  $P: \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{P}_n$ : interpolation operator for the points  $x_0, \ldots, x_n$ .

#### Observation

*P* is a linear operator: for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $f, g \in \mathcal{B}$  we have that

$$P(\alpha f) = \alpha Pf$$
,  $P(f+g) = Pf + Pg$ .

**Lebesgue constant** (supremum norm of *P*)

$$||P|| = \sup_{f \in \mathcal{B}} \frac{||Pf||}{||f||}$$

||P|| measures conditioning of polynomial interpolation:

$$||P(f + \Delta f) - Pf|| = ||P\Delta f|| \le ||P|| ||\Delta f||$$

### Application of Lebesgue constant

$$||f - Pf|| \le (1 + ||P||) ||f - p^*||.$$

*Proof.* We obtain using  $p^* = Pp^*$  that

$$||f - Pf|| \le ||f - p^*|| + ||p^* - Pf||$$

$$= ||f - p^*|| + ||P(p^* - f)||$$

$$\le (1 + ||P||) ||f - p^*||.$$

#### Conclusion

Interpolation problem is well-conditioned and interpolant close to optimal if and only if  $\|P\|$  is small.

### Formula for Lebesgue constant

$$||P|| = ||\lambda|| = \sup_{x \in [-1,1]} \lambda(x)$$
 where  $\lambda(x) := \sum_{i=0}^{n} |\ell_i(x)|$ .

Proof. Using Lagrange's interpolation formula, we get

$$||Pf|| = \sup_{x \in [-1,1]} \left| \sum_{j=0}^{n} f(x_j) \ell_j(x) \right|$$

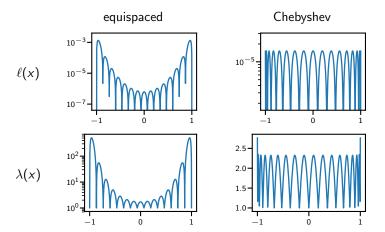
$$\leq \sup_{x \in [-1,1]} \sum_{j=0}^{n} |f(x_j)| |\ell_j(x)|$$

$$\leq ||f|| \sup_{x \in [-1,1]} \lambda(x)$$

and hence

$$\|P\|=\sup_{f\in\mathcal{B}}\frac{\|Pf\|}{\|f\|}=\sup_{x\in[-1,1]}\lambda(x).$$

### Lebesgue constant in practice



#### Observation:

- $\blacktriangleright$   $\lambda(x)$  behaves similarly to  $\ell(x)$ .
- $ightharpoonup \|P\|$  is small for Chebyshev points and large for equispaced points.

### Lebesgue constant in practice

One can show the following bounds [Tre13, Thm 15.2]:

- Equispaced points:  $||P|| = ||\lambda|| > \frac{2^{n-2}}{n^2}$ .
- ► Chebyshev points:  $||P|| \le 1 + \frac{2}{\pi} \log(n+1)$ .

### Conclusion

- ▶ Chebyshev interpolation is well-conditioned and close to optimal.
- Interpolation in equispaced points is neither.

### Interpolation algorithms

When proving existence of interpolants, we used the formulae

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f(x_i) \ell_j(x), \qquad \ell_j(x) = \prod_{i \neq j} \frac{x - x_i}{x_j - x_i}.$$

Good: one can show that this formula is backward-stable.

Bad: every evaluation of formula takes  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  FLOP.

Each  $\ell_j(x)$  requires  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  FLOP. Need to evaluate n such functions.

See homework sheet for a more efficient algorithm.

### Convergence of Krylov subspace methods

In lecture on Krylov subspace methods, we have seen the statement

$$\min_{q_n \in \mathcal{P}_n} \max_{\mathbf{x} \in [1,\kappa]} \frac{|q_n(\mathbf{x})|}{|q_n(0)|} \le 2 \left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa} + 1}\right)^n. \tag{1}$$

We now have the tools necessary to prove this claim.

*Proof of* (1). Choose  $q_n$  as the shifted Chebyshev polynomial

$$q_n(x) := T_n(L(x)), \qquad L(x) := 1 - \frac{2}{\kappa - 1}(x - 1).$$

Since  $L([1, \kappa]) = [-1, 1]$ , we have

$$\max_{x \in [1,\kappa]} \frac{|q_n(x)|}{|q_n(0)|} = \frac{1}{|q_n(0)|}$$

and it remains to show

$$|q_n(0)| = T_n\left(1 + \frac{2}{\kappa - 1}\right) = T_n\left(\frac{\kappa + 1}{\kappa - 1}\right) \ge \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa} + 1}{\sqrt{\kappa} - 1}\right)^n.$$

Proof of (1), continued. Recall the formulae

$$T_n(x) := \frac{\phi^{-1}(x)^n + (\phi^{-1}(x))^{-n}}{2}, \qquad \phi^{-1}(x) := x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}.$$

We compute

$$\begin{split} \phi^{-1}\big(\frac{\kappa+1}{\kappa-1}\big) &= \frac{\kappa+1}{\kappa-1} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\kappa+1}{\kappa-1}\right)^2 - 1} = \frac{\kappa+1+\sqrt{(\kappa+1)^2-(\kappa-1)^2}}{\kappa-1} \\ &= \frac{\kappa+2\sqrt{\kappa}+1}{\kappa-1} = \frac{\left(\sqrt{\kappa}+1\right)^2}{\left(\sqrt{\kappa}+1\right)\left(\sqrt{\kappa}-1\right)} = \frac{\sqrt{\kappa}+1}{\sqrt{\kappa}-1}. \end{split}$$

Hence,

$$T_n\big(\tfrac{\kappa+1}{\kappa-1}\big) = \tfrac{1}{2} \bigg( \big(\tfrac{\sqrt{\kappa}+1}{\sqrt{\kappa}-1}\big)^n + \big(\tfrac{\sqrt{\kappa}+1}{\sqrt{\kappa}-1}\big)^{-n} \bigg) \ge \tfrac{1}{2} \left( \tfrac{\sqrt{\kappa}+1}{\sqrt{\kappa}-1} \right)^n.$$

### References and further reading

- L. N. Trefethen. Approximation Theory and Approximation Practice.
   Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics (2013),
   Extensive discussion of Chebyshev polynomials, and very readable.
- ► E. Suli and D. F. Mayers. *An Introduction to Numerical Analysis*. Cambridge University Press (2003), doi:10.1017/CB09780511801181

  Can be accessed online for free via the library website!