

LINMA2171 Numerical Analysis

SIMON DESMIDT

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Introduction

1.1 General Framework

- Data:
 - $\chi \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ (here, d = 1 often).
 - $f: \chi \to \mathbb{R}$, with $f \in \mathfrak{f}$.
- Design:
 - $\hat{\mathfrak{f}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{\hat{\chi}}$ is the set of admissible function, and is a subset of all function from $\hat{\chi}$ to \mathbb{R} .
 - $\mathcal{L}:\hat{\mathfrak{f}}\times\mathfrak{f}\to\mathbb{R}$ is the loss function.
 - $\mathcal{R}:\hat{\mathfrak{f}}\to\mathbb{R}$ is the regularizer.
- Optimisation problem :

$$\arg_{\hat{f} \in \hat{f}} \min \quad \mathcal{L}(\hat{f}, f) + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\hat{f})$$

— Optimisation algorithm.

Polynomials

 \mathcal{P}_n is the set of all real polynomials of degree at most n.

— The Runge phenomenon is the explosion of the polynomial near the boundary of the domain when the interpolation points are chosen to be equidistant. A solution to that is to put more points near the boundary and less in the middle of the domain, e.g. Chebyshev points.

2.1 Lagrange interpolation

Let $x_0, ..., x_n$ be distinct real numbers. The Lagrange polynomial L_k of degree n is such that it is equal to 0 for all x_i , $i \neq k$ and 1 for x_k . This serves as a base for the next interpolations. The general formula for the Lagrange polynomial is

$$L_k(x) = \prod_{i=0}^n \frac{x - x_i}{x_k - x_i} \qquad k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$
 (2.1)

— N.B.: we usually denote $L_k(x; x_0, ..., x_n)$ or let $\chi = (x_0, ..., x_n)$ and $L_k(x; \chi)$.

2.2 Hermite interpolation

Let $x_0, ..., x_n$ be distinct real numbers. Then, given two sets of real numbers $(y_0, ..., y_n)$ and $(z_0, ..., z_n)$, there is a unique polynomial $p_{2n+1} \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1}$ such that

$$p_{2n+1}(x_i) = y_i$$
 $p'_{2n+1}(x_i) = z_i$ $i = 0, ..., n$ (2.2)

The polynomial p_{2n+1} is termed the Hermite interpolation polynomial of degree at most 2n + 1 for the data points $(x_0, y_0, z_0), \ldots, (x_n, y_n, z_n)$. The expression is

$$p_{2n+1}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (H_k(x)y_k + K_k(x)z_k) \qquad \begin{cases} H_k(x) = (L_k(x))^2 (1 - 2L'_k(x_k)(x - x_k)) \\ K_k(x) = (L_k(x))^2 (x - x_k) \end{cases}$$
(2.3)

where $L_k(x)$ is the Lagrange polynomial.

— The $H_k(x)$ are such that their derivative is zero for all x_i , and their value is zero for all x_i except x_k , where it is 1.

$$H_k(x_i) = \delta_{ik}$$
 $H'_k(x_i) = 0$ $\forall i$

— The $K_k(x)$ are such that their derivative is zero for all x_i except x_k where it is one, and their value is zero for all x_i .

$$K_k(x_i) = 0$$
 $K'_k(x_i) = \delta_{ik}$ $\forall i$

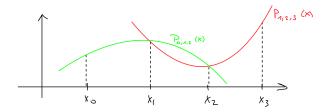
2.3 Neville's algorithm

Let us assume we are given a set of support points (x_i, y_i) , i = 0, 1, ..., n, and p_n is their Lagrange interpolation polynomial. Let us now define the notation $P_{i_0i_1...i_k} \in \mathcal{P}_k$, the polynomial for which $P_{i_0i_1...i_k}(x_{i_j} = y_{i_j} \text{ for all } j = 0, 1, ..., k$. We work by recursion, with the following formula :

$$\begin{cases}
P_i(x) = y_i \\
P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k} = \frac{(x - x_{i_0}) P_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_k}(x) - (x - x_{i_k}) P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_{k-1}}(x)}{x_{i_k} - x_{i_0}}
\end{cases}$$
(2.4)

Example:

Let us have four points $(x_0, y_0), \dots (x_3, y_3)$. We want the polynomial interpolating all of them, using Neville's algorithm.



Here,

$$P_{0123}(x) = \frac{x - x_0}{x_3 - x_0} P_{123}(x) + \frac{x_3 - x}{x_3 - x_0} P_{012}(x)$$
 (2.5)

2.4 Newton's interpolation formula

Newton's interpolation formula is used to evaluate polynomials with a computer, as it only needs to compute each operation $(x - x_i)$ one time. We write it like :

$$p_n(x) = \left(\left(\dots \left(y_{0\dots n}(x - x_n) + y_{0\dots n-1} \right) (x - x_{n-1}) + y_{0\dots n-2} \right) (x - x_{n-2}) + \dots \right) + y_0 \tag{2.6}$$

And the recursive formula is

$$P_{i_0i_1...i_k} = P_{i_0i_1...i_{k-1}}(x) + y_{i_0i_1...i_k}(x - x_{i_0})(x - x_{i_1}) \dots (x - x_{i_{k-1}})$$
(2.7)

2.5 Linear algebra approach

Let $(\phi_0, ..., \phi_n)$ ba a basis of \mathcal{P}_n , which is known to be an (n+1)-dimensional linear space. The interpolation polynomial can thus be expressed in a unique way in the basis :

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i \phi_i(x)$$
 (2.8)

and the coefficient are obtained by solving the linear system

$$\begin{bmatrix} \phi_0(x_0) & \phi_1(x_0) & \dots & \phi_n(x_0) \\ \phi_0(x_1) & \phi_1(x_1) & \dots & \phi_n(x_1) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi_0(x_n) & \phi_1(x_n) & \dots & \phi_n(x_n) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.9)

This is called a Vandermonde matrix, and its determinant is

$$\det(V) = \prod_{0 \le i < j \le n} (x_j - x_i)$$
 (2.10)

which is always non zero, as the x_i are disinct, and the system has one unique solution.

 \rightarrow N.B.: the condition number ¹ of such a matrix grows exponentially with *n*.

2.6 Barycentric interpolation formula

This formula is interesting, because it is numerically stable, contrary to the linear algebra method described before. We use the following notation, called the nodal polynomial:

$$\pi_{n+1}(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i)$$
 (2.11)

We now define

$$\lambda_j = \frac{1}{\prod_{k \neq j} (x_j - x_k)} \tag{2.12}$$

The modified Lagrange formula is then

$$p_n(x) = \pi_{n+1}(x) \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{\lambda_j}{x - x_j} y_i$$
 (2.13)

For the polynomial $p_n(x) = 1$, we have the following expression :

$$1 = \pi_{n+1}(x) \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{\lambda_j}{x - x_j}$$

and thus we generally prefer to use the equivalent formula for equation (2.13):

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{\lambda_j y_j}{x - x_j} / \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{\lambda_j}{x - x_j}$$
 (2.14)

for all $x \notin \{x_n, \ldots, x_n\}$.

2.7 Trigonometric interpolation

Let us consider the evenly spaced points $x_j = \frac{2\pi j}{N}$, j = 0,...,N, on the interval $[0,2\pi]$, and the interpolation values $f_0,...,f_N \in \mathbb{C}$, with $f_0 = f_N$. The trigonometric interpolation problem consists of finding β_k such that

$$p(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \beta_k e^{ikx} \text{ such that } p(x_j) = f_j \qquad j = 0, \dots, N-1$$
 (2.15)

^{1.} It is a measure of the reaction of the system to a small perturbation

 \rightarrow N.B.: the bound is N-1 because the last condition $p(x_N) = f_N$ is satisfied when the others are (periodicity).

This is equivalent to the generalization to \mathbb{C} of the polynomial interpolation problem : if we denote $\omega := e^{ix}$, the complex polynomial is

$$P(\omega) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \beta_k \omega^k \tag{2.16}$$

The Vandermonde matrix in the complex case is defined as in the real case. We denote it *W*.

Theorem : $W^*W = NI$ for a complex Vandermonde matrix in an interpolation problem.

From this, the solution to the interpolation problem is solved by multiplying both sides by W^* . We get

$$\beta = \frac{1}{N} W^* f \Longrightarrow \beta_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f_j e^{-i2\pi k j/N} \qquad k = 0, \dots, N-1$$
 (2.17)

And that is the discrete Fourier transform (DFT)

2.8 Rational interpolation

Let the interpolation points be $x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_{\sigma}$, with the values $y_0, \ldots, y_{\sigma} \in \mathbb{R}$. We define the polynomial

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{p_{\mu}(x)}{q_{\nu}(x)} \qquad p_{\mu} \in \mathcal{P}_{\mu}, q_{\nu} \in \mathcal{P}_{\nu}$$
 (2.18)

such that
$$\Phi(x_i) = y_i$$
 $i = 0, \dots, \sigma$ (2.19)

The interpolation polynomial can be written

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{\mu} a_k x^k}{\sum_{k=0}^{\nu} b_k x^k} = \frac{\lambda p_{\mu}(x)}{q \nu(x)}$$
 (2.20)

The number of constraints, i.e. points needed for the interpolation is then $\sigma = \mu + \nu$. This implies that

If Φ is a solution to the equation (2.18), then p_u , q_v are solutions of

$$p_{\mu}(x_i) - y_i q_{\nu}(x_i) = 0$$
 $i = 0, ..., \mu + \nu$ (2.21)

$$\left(\sum_{k=0}^{\mu} a_k x_i^k\right) - y_i \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\nu} b_k x_i^k\right) = 0$$
 (2.22)

The theorem of existence states that the equation (2.21) always has a non trivial solution, i.e. $(p_u, q_v) \neq (0, 0)$.

The theorem of uniqueness states that if Φ_1 and Φ_2 are non trivial solutions of (2.21), then they are equivalent, i.e. they differ only by a common polynomial factor in the numerator and denominator.

— p_{μ} , q_{ν} are relatively prime if they do not have zeros in common.

Given $\Phi = \frac{p_{\mu}}{q_{\nu}}$, let $\tilde{\Phi} = \frac{\tilde{p}\mu}{\tilde{q}_{\nu}}$ be the equivalent expression for which \tilde{p}_{μ} and \tilde{q}_{ν} are relatively prime. Φ is the solution of (2.18) $\iff \tilde{p}_{\mu}(x_i) - y_i\tilde{q}_{\nu}(x_i) = 0$, $i = 0, \ldots, \mu + \nu$.