

# Function Approximation

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# Objective

- Obtain an approximation for  $f(x)$  by another function  $\hat{f}(x)$
- **Two cases:**
  - $f(x)$  is known in all its domain, but it is very expensive to calculate it.
  - $f(x)$  is known only in a finite set of points: Interpolation.

# Outline

## 1 Approximation theory

- 1 Weierstrass approximation theorem
- 2 Minimax approximation
- 3 Orthogonal polynomials and least squares
- 4 Near minimax approximation

## 2 Interpolation

- 1 The interpolation problem
- 2 Different representations for the interpolating polynomial
- 3 The error term
- 4 Minimizing the error term with Chebyshev nodes
- 5 Discrete least squares again
- 6 Piecewise polynomial interpolation: splines

# Approximation methods

- We want to approximate  $f(x) : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by a linear combination of polynomials

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

where

- $x \in [a, b]$
- $n$  : Degree of interpolation
- $c_j$  : Basis coefficients
- $\varphi_j(x)$  : Basis functions which are polynomials of degree  $\leq n$ .

# Approximation methods: Introduction

- When trying to approximate  $f(x) : C \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $f(x) \approx \sum_{j=1}^n c_j \varphi_j(x)$
- We need to rely on a **concept of distance** between  $f(x)$  and  $\sum_{j=1}^n c_j \varphi_j(x)$  at the points we choose to make the approximation.
- We are dealing with normed vector spaces of functions which can be finite or infinite dimensional.
  - The space of continuous functions in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the space of infinite sequences  $l^p$ , the space of measurable functions  $L^p$  and so on

# Approximation methods: Introduction

- If we define an inner product in this spaces then we have the induced norm  $L^2$  :

$$\|f(x)\|_{L^2} = \left( \int_a^b f(x)^2 w(x) dx \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

it is usefull for least squares approximation.

- Approximation theory, is based on uniform convergence of  $f(x)$  to  $\sum_{j=1}^n c_j \varphi_j(x)$  . In this case, we use the supreme norm

$$\|f(x)\|_{\infty} = \max_{x \in [a,b]} |f(x)|$$

# Approximation methods: Local vs Global

- Local approximations are based on the **Taylor approximation theorem**.
- Global approximations are based on the **Weierstrass approximation theorem**.

# Approximation methods: Weierstrass approximation theorem

## Theorem

*Let  $f(x)$  be a continuous function on  $[a, b]$  (i.e.,  $f \in C[a, b]$ ), then for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a sequence of polynomials  $p_n(x)$  of degree  $\leq n$  that converges uniformly to  $f(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ . That is,  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  and polynomials  $p_n(x)$  such that*

$$\forall n \geq N, \forall x \in [a, b] \text{ then } \|f(x) - p_n(x)\|_{\infty} \leq \epsilon$$

- Where  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$  is the sup norm or  $L^{\infty}$  norm:

$$\|f(x) - p_n(x)\|_{\infty} = \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x) - p_n(x)|$$

- In other words,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n(x) = f(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in [a, b]$$



# Approximation methods: Weierstrass approximation theorem

## ■ Another version

### Theorem

*if  $f \in C[a, b]$ , then for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a polynomial  $p(x)$  such that*

$$\|f(x) - p_n(x)\|_{\infty} \leq \epsilon \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$$

- This theorem tells us that any continuous function on a compact interval can be approximated arbitrarily well by polynomials of any degree.

# Approximation methods: Weierstrass approximation theorem

- A constructive proof of the theorem is based on the Bernstein polynomials defined on  $[0, 1]$

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \left[ \binom{n}{k} x^k (1-x)^{n-k} \right]$$

such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n(x) = f(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in [0, 1]$$

uniformly.

- **Weierstrass theorem is conceptually valuable but it is not practical.** From a computational point perspective it is not efficient to work with Bernstein polynomials.
  - Bernstein polynomials converge very slowly!

# Approximation methods: Minimax approximation

- Also called **the Best polynomial approximation**
- We want to find the polynomial  $p_n(x)$  of degree  $\leq n$  that best approximates a function  $f(x)$  uniformly with  $f(x) \in C[a, b]$  :
  - For this, we are going to look for **the infimum of the distance between  $f$  and all possible degree  $\leq n$  polynomial approximations**
  - Recall that the uniform error term (i.e., using the  $L^\infty$  norm) is

$$\|f(x) - p_n(x)\|_\infty = \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x) - p_n(x)|$$

- Define  $d_n(x)$  as **the infimum of the distance between  $f$  and all possible  $p_n(x)$  approximations of  $f$**

$$\begin{aligned} d_n(f) &= \inf_{p_n} \|f - p_n\|_\infty \\ &= \inf_{p_n} \left( \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x) - p_n(x)| \right) \end{aligned}$$

# Approximation methods: Minimax approximation

- Let  $p_n^*(x)$  be the polynomial for which the infimum is obtained

$$d_n(f) = \|f - p_n^*\|_\infty$$

- It can be shown that  $p_n^*$  **exists, it is unique** and it is characterized by a property called the **equioscillation property**.
  - Algorithms to compute  $p_n^*$  are difficult/complex/not efficient.
  - Example: Remez algorithm.
- **Standard solution: Chebyshev least squares polynomial approximation closely approximate the minmax or best polynomial.**
  - This strategy is called: **Near minmax approximation.**

# Approximation methods: Minimax approximation

- Existence and uniqueness of the minimax polynomial:

## Theorem

*Let  $f \in C[a, b]$ . Then for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists a unique  $p_n^*(x)$  that minimizes  $\|f - p_n\|_\infty$  among all polynomials of degree  $\leq n$ .*

- Sadly, the proof is not constructive so we have to rely on an algorithm that help us compute  $p_n^*(x)$ .

# Approximation methods: Minimax approximation

- But we can **characterize** the error generated by the minmax polynomial,  $p_n^*(x)$  in terms of its **oscillation property**:

## Theorem

*Let  $f \in C[a, b]$ . The polynomial  $p_n^*(x)$  is the minimax polynomial of degree  $n$  that approximates  $f(x)$  in  $[a, b]$ , if and only if, the error  $f(x) - p_n^*(x)$ , assumes the values  $\pm \|f - p_n^*\|_\infty$  with an alternating change of sign in at least  $n + 2$  points in  $[a, b]$ . That is, in  $a \leq x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_{n+1} \leq b$  we have the following*

$$f(x) - p_n^*(x) = (-1)^j \|f - p_n^*\|_\infty \quad \text{for } j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n+1$$

# Approximation methods: Minimax approximation

- The theorem give us the desired shape of the error when we want  $L^\infty$  approximation (the best approximation).
- For example it says that the maximum error of a cubic approximation should be achieved at least five times and that the sign of the error should alternate between these points.

# Approximation methods: Minimax approximation

- **Example 1:** Consider the function  $f(x) = x^2$  in the interval  $[0, 2]$ . Find the minimax linear approximation ( $n = 1$ ) of  $f(x)$ .
- Consider the approximating polynomial  $p_1(x) = ax + b$  and the errors

$$e(x) = |x^2 - ax - b|$$

- Notice that the function  $e(x) = x^2 - ax - b$  has a maximum when  $2x - a = 0$ , that is when  $x = \frac{a}{2}$ .
  - $x = \frac{a}{2}$  belongs to the interval  $[0, 2]$  when  $0 \leq a \leq 4$ .
- Evaluating  $e\left(\frac{a}{2}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{2}\right)^2 - a\left(\frac{a}{2}\right) - b = \frac{a^2}{4} - \frac{a^2}{2} - b = -\frac{a^2}{4} - b$
- According to the oscillation property we need **two more extremun points:**
  - Let's take  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$ . Thus  $e(2) = 4 - 2a - b$  and  $e(0) = -b$ .



# Approximation methods: Minimax approximation

- **Example 1 (cont.):**

- According to the oscillation property we must have  $h(0) = -h(\frac{a}{2}) = h(2)$  which implies that

$$h(0) = h(2)$$

$$-b = 4 - 2a - b$$

$$a = 2$$

and

$$h(0) = -h\left(\frac{a}{2}\right)$$

$$-b = \frac{a^2}{4} + b$$

but we already know that  $a = 2$  thus

$$b = -\frac{1}{2}$$

# Approximation methods: Minimax approximation

- **Example 1 (cont.):**

- Then , the approximating polynomial is

$$p_1^*(x) = 2x - \frac{1}{2}$$

and the maximum error

$$\max_{[0,2]} \left| x^2 - 2x + \frac{1}{2} \right| = \frac{1}{2}$$

- If you try to find the quadratic minimax approximation to  $f(x) = x^2$ , you will notice that things start to get complicated.
- **There is no general characterization-based algorithm to compute the minimax polynomial approximation.**
- **The Remez algorithm is based on known optimal approximation for certain  $f(x)$ .**

# Approximation methods: Minimax approximation

- **Example 1 (cont.):** Oscillating property of the error for a minmax approximation  $e(x) = x^2 - 2x - \frac{1}{2}$  for  $x \in [0, 2]$

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# Approximation methods: Least squares

## ■ Some basic concepts:

- Weighting function:  $w(x)$  on  $[a, b]$  is any function that is positive

and has a finite integral over  $[a, b]$ , that is  $\int_a^b w(x) dx < \infty$

- Inner product relative to  $w(x)$ : Let  $f, g \in \mathbb{C}[a, b]$  then the inner product is

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

- The inner product induces a norm given by:

$$\|f(x)\|_{L^2} = \left( \int_a^b f(x)^2 w(x) dx \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- Assume a **general family of polynomials**  $\{\varphi_j(x)\}_{j=0}^n$  that constitute a basis for  $C(X)$ .
- Assume that  $f(x)$  is defined on  $[a, b]$ . We want to approximate  $f$  by a linear combination of polynomials:  $p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j \varphi_j(x)$
- Define the error as

$$E(x) = f(x) - p_n(x)$$

- The **least squares approximation problem is to find the polynomial of degree  $\leq n$**  that is closest to  $f(x)$  in the  $L^2$ -norm among all the polynomials of degree  $\leq n$ .

$$\min_{\hat{f}} \|E(x)\|_{L^2} = \min_{\hat{f}} \left( \int_a^b E(x)^2 w(x) dx \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- Notice that minimizing the  $L^2$ -distance between  $f$  and  $p_n(x)$  (i.e.,  $\|E(x)\|_{L^2}$ ) is equivalent to minimizing the square of the  $L^2$ -distance, given by  $\|E(x)\|_{L^2}^2$  :

$$\begin{aligned}\min_{\hat{f}} \|E(x)\|_{L^2}^2 &= \min_{\hat{f}} \int_a^b E(x)^2 w(x) dx \\ &= \min_{\hat{f}} \int_a^b (f(x) - p_n(x))^2 w(x) dx\end{aligned}$$

- The above problem is the continuous least square problem

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- Since  $p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j \varphi_j(x)$  then solve the following problem

$$\min_{\{c_j\}_{j=0}^n} \int_a^b w(x) \left( f(x) - \sum_{j=0}^n c_j \varphi_j(x) \right)^2 dx$$

- FOC's w.r.t  $c_k$  :

$$2 \int_a^b w(x) \left( f(x) - \sum_{j=0}^n c_j \varphi_j(x) \right) \varphi_k(x) dx = 0 \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- The normal equations are given by

$$\sum_{j=0}^n c_j \int_a^b \varphi_k(x) \varphi_j(x) w(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) \varphi_k(x) w(x) dx \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- Or in terms of inner product

$$\sum_{j=0}^n c_j \langle \varphi_k, \varphi_j \rangle = \langle f, \varphi_k \rangle \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$



# Approximation methods: Least squares

- More explicitly, the normal equations are a system of  $n$  linear equations in  $n$  unknowns:

$$c_0 \langle \varphi_0, \varphi_0 \rangle + c_1 \langle \varphi_0, \varphi_1 \rangle + c_2 \langle \varphi_0, \varphi_1 \rangle + \dots + c_n \langle \varphi_0, \varphi_n \rangle = \langle f, \varphi_0 \rangle$$

$$c_0 \langle \varphi_1, \varphi_0 \rangle + c_1 \langle \varphi_1, \varphi_1 \rangle + c_2 \langle \varphi_1, \varphi_2 \rangle + \dots + c_n \langle \varphi_1, \varphi_n \rangle = \langle f, \varphi_1 \rangle$$

...

$$c_0 \langle \varphi_n, \varphi_0 \rangle + c_1 \langle \varphi_n, \varphi_1 \rangle + c_2 \langle \varphi_n, \varphi_1 \rangle + \dots + c_n \langle \varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle = \langle f, \varphi_n \rangle$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- In matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle \varphi_0, \varphi_0 \rangle & \langle \varphi_0, \varphi_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle \varphi_0, \varphi_n \rangle \\ \langle \varphi_1, \varphi_0 \rangle & \langle \varphi_1, \varphi_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle \varphi_1, \varphi_n \rangle \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \langle \varphi_n, \varphi_0 \rangle & \langle \varphi_n, \varphi_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle \varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ \dots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle f, \varphi_0 \rangle \\ \langle f, \varphi_1 \rangle \\ \dots \\ \langle f, \varphi_n \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

- In more compact form

$$Hc = b$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- **Candidates for  $\varphi_j(x)$  :**
- **Monomials** constitute a basis for  $\mathbb{C}(X)$  :

$$1, x, x^2, x^3, \dots, x^n$$

- **Orthogonal polynomials** relative to  $w(x)$ :

$$\int_a^b \varphi_k(x) \varphi_j(x) w(x) dx = 0 \quad \text{for } k \neq j$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- If we use **Monomials** the approximation for  $f(x)$  can be written as

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j x^j$$

- The least squares problem is

$$\min_{\{c_j\}_{j=0}^n} \int_a^b \left( f(x) - \sum_{j=0}^n c_j x^j \right)^2 dx$$

- The FOC w.r.t  $c_k$ :

$$-2 \int_a^b f(x) x^k dx + 2 \int_a^b \left( \sum_{j=0}^n c_j x^j \right) x^k dx = 0 \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- FOC's are expressed as

$$\int_a^b \left( \sum_{j=0}^n c_j x^{j+k} \right) dx = \int_a^b f(x) x^k dx \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- Where  $\int_a^b \left( \sum_{j=0}^n c_j x^{j+k} \right) dx = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j \int_a^b x^{j+k} dx$  and

$$\int_a^b x^{j+k} dx = \left| \frac{x^{j+k+1}}{j+k+1} \right|_a^b = \frac{b^{j+k+1} - a^{j+k+1}}{j+k+1} \text{ thus,}$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^n \left( \frac{b^{j+k+1} - a^{j+k+1}}{j+k+1} \right) c_j = \int_a^b f(x) x^k dx \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- The above is a linear system of equations with  $n + 1$  unknowns  $(\{c_j\}_{j=0}^n)$  and  $n + 1$  equations.
- If we assume that  $[a, b] = [0, 1]$  then the system of equations to determine each of the  $\{c_j\}_{j=0}^n$  becomes

$$\sum_{j=0}^n \left( \frac{1}{j+k+1} \right) c_j = \int_0^1 f(x) x^k dx \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- Explicitly the system is given by

$$\left(\frac{1}{k+1}\right) c_0 + \left(\frac{1}{k+2}\right) c_1 + \left(\frac{1}{k+3}\right) c_3 + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{k+n+1}\right) c_n \\ = \int_0^1 f(x) x^k dx \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

for  $k = 0$

$$c_0 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) c_1 + \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) c_3 + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{n+1}\right) c_n = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$$

for  $k = 1$

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) c_0 + \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) c_1 + \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) c_3 + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{n+2}\right) c_n = \int_0^1 f(x) x dx$$

for  $k = 2$

$$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) c_0 + \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) c_1 + \left(\frac{1}{5}\right) c_3 + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{n+3}\right) c_n = \int_0^1 f(x) x^2 dx$$

for  $k = n$

$$\left(\frac{1}{n+1}\right) c_0 + \left(\frac{1}{n+2}\right) c_1 + \left(\frac{1}{n+3}\right) c_3 + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{n+n+1}\right) c_n = \int_0^1 f(x) x^n dx$$



# Approximation methods: Least squares

- In matrix form, the system can be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n+1} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n+2} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n+3} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{n+1} & \frac{1}{n+2} & \frac{1}{n+3} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n+n+1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \int_0^1 f(x) dx \\ \int_0^1 f(x) x dx \\ \int_0^1 f(x) x^2 dx \\ \vdots \\ \int_0^1 f(x) x^n dx \end{bmatrix}$$

or

$$Hc = b$$

- $H$  is a **HILBERT MATRIX**

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- Problems with linear systems of equations with Hilbert Matrices:  
 $Hc = b$ 
  - $H$  is an ill-conditioned matrix: Increasing rounding errors as we increase  $n$ .
  - Condition number increases as  $n$  increases.

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- If the polynomial family  $\{\varphi_j(x)\}_{j=0}^n$  is orthogonal, that is  $\langle \varphi_n, \varphi_m \rangle = 0$  for  $n \neq m$  then the system becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle \varphi_0, \varphi_0 \rangle & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \langle \varphi_1, \varphi_1 \rangle & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \langle \varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ \dots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle f, \varphi_0 \rangle \\ \langle f, \varphi_1 \rangle \\ \dots \\ \langle f, \varphi_n \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

- In this case, the coefficients are given by

$$c_k = \frac{\langle f, \varphi_k \rangle}{\langle \varphi_k, \varphi_k \rangle} \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- Thus

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{\langle f, \varphi_j \rangle}{\langle \varphi_j, \varphi_j \rangle} \varphi_j(x)$$

# Approximation methods: Least squares

- Computations for finding the coefficients  $\{c_k\}_{k=0}^n$  are easy to perform when using a family of orthogonal polynomials to approximate a function.
- A family of orthogonal polynomials  $\{\varphi_j(x)\}_{j=0}^n$  have always a recursive representation which make computations even faster.

# Orthogonal polynomials: Most common families

- There are many families of orthogonal polynomials that are basis for function spaces:

- Chebyshev: For  $x \in [-1, 1]$

$$T_n(x) = \cos(n \arccos x)$$

- Legendre: For  $x \in [-1, 1]$

$$P_n(x) = \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} [(1-x^2)^n]$$

- Laguerre: For  $x \in [0, \infty]$

$$L_n(x) = \frac{e^x}{n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (x^n e^{-x})$$

- Hermite: For  $x \in [-\infty, \infty]$

$$H_n(x) = (-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} (e^{-x^2})$$

- Most of these polynomials come from the solution of "important" difference equations.

# Orthogonal polynomials: Most common families

go to inneficient matlab script!  
orthogonal\_families.m

# Orthogonal polynomials: Recursive representation

## Theorem

Let  $\{\varphi_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be an orthogonal family of monic polynomials on  $[a, b]$  relative to an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ ,  
 $\varphi_0(x) = 1, \varphi_1(x) = x - \frac{\langle x\varphi_0(x), \varphi_0(x) \rangle}{\langle \varphi_0(x), \varphi_0(x) \rangle}$ . Then  $\{\varphi_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  satisfies the recursive scheme

$$\varphi_{n+1}(x) = (x - \delta_n) \varphi_n(x) - \gamma_n \varphi_{n-1}(x)$$

where

$$\delta_n = \frac{\langle x\varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle}{\langle \varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle} \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_n = \frac{\langle \varphi_n, \varphi_n \rangle}{\langle \varphi_{n-1}, \varphi_{n-1} \rangle}$$

- The above theorem is the so called Gram-Schmidt process to find an orthogonal family of **monic** polynomials.

# Orthogonal polynomials: Recursive representation

- A Chebyshev polynomial is given by

$$T_i(x) = \cos(i \arccos x) \quad \text{for } i : 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

and it is defined for  $x \in [-1, 1]$ .

- Chebyshev polynomials have the following **recursive representation**:

$$T_0(x) = 1$$

$$T_1(x) = x$$

$$T_{i+1}(x) = 2xT_i(x) - T_{i-1}(x) \quad \text{for } i = 2, 3, \dots, n$$



# Orthogonal polynomials: Recursive representation

- **Recursive representation of Chebyshev polynomials:**  $T_i(x)$  can be written as

$$T_i(x) = \cos(i\theta) \quad \text{for } i : 1, 2, \dots, n$$

where  $\theta = \arccos x$ .

- Using trigonometric identities we have

$$T_{i+1}(x) = \cos((i+1)\theta) = \cos(i\theta)\cos(\theta) - \sin(i\theta)\sin(\theta)$$

$$T_{i-1}(x) = \cos((i-1)\theta) = \cos(i\theta)\cos(\theta) + \sin(i\theta)\sin(\theta)$$

thus

$$\begin{aligned} T_{i+1}(x) &= \cos(i\theta)\cos(\theta) - T_{i-1}(x) + \cos(i\theta)\cos(\theta) \\ &= 2(\cos(i\theta)\cos(\theta)) - T_{i-1}(x) \end{aligned}$$

- Notice that  $\cos(\theta) = \cos(\arccos x) \implies \cos(\theta) = x$  and that  $\cos(i\theta) = T_i(x)$ . Therefore

$$T_{i+1}(x) = 2xT_i(x) - T_{i-1}(x) \quad \text{for } i = 2, 3, \dots, n$$

# Orthogonal polynomials: Recursive representation

- **Recursive representation of Chebyshev polynomials (cont.):**

- The first five Chebyshev polynomials are

$$T_0(x) = 1$$

$$T_1(x) = x$$

$$T_2(x) = 2xT_1(x) - T_0(x) = 2x^2 - 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} T_3(x) &= 2xT_2(x) - T_1(x) = 2x(2x^2 - 1) - x \\ &= 4x^3 - 3x \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T_4(x) &= 2xT_3(x) - T_2(x) = 2x(4x^3 - 3x) - (2x^2 - 1) \\ &= 8x^4 - 8x^2 + 1 \end{aligned}$$

- Chebyshev polynomials are polynomials with leading coefficient of  $2^{n-1}$

# Orthogonal polynomials: Recursive representation

- **Recursive representation of Chebyshev monic polynomials (cont.):**
- The monic Chebyshev polynomial is defined as

$$\tilde{T}_n(x) = \frac{\cos(n \arccos x)}{2^{n-1}} \quad \text{for } n > 1$$

- Using the general recursive formula for orthogonal monic polynomials we obtain the recursion scheme for the monic Chebyshev polynomial

$$\tilde{T}_0(x) = 0$$

$$\tilde{T}_1(x) = x$$

$$\tilde{T}_2(x) = x\tilde{T}_1(x) - \frac{1}{2}\tilde{T}_0(x)$$

and

$$\tilde{T}_{n+1}(x) = x\tilde{T}_n(x) - \frac{1}{4}\tilde{T}_{n-1}(x) \quad \text{for } n \geq 2$$

# Orthogonal polynomials: Recursive representation

- **Going from the monic recursive representation to the original Chebyshev representation:**

$$\frac{2^n}{2^n} \tilde{T}_{n+1}(x) = x \frac{2^{n-1}}{2^{n-1}} \tilde{T}_n(x) - \frac{1}{4} \frac{2^{n-2}}{2^{n-2}} \tilde{T}_{n-1}(x) \quad \text{for } n \geq 2$$

$$\frac{1}{2^n} T_{n+1}(x) = x \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} T_n(x) - \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{2^{n-2}} T_{n-1}(x)$$

$$\begin{aligned} T_{n+1}(x) &= x \frac{2^n}{2^{n-1}} T_n(x) - \frac{1}{4} \frac{2^n}{2^{n-2}} T_{n-1}(x) \\ &= 2x T_n(x) - \frac{1}{4} 2^2 T_{n-1}(x) \\ &= 2x T_n(x) - T_{n-1}(x) \end{aligned}$$

# Orthogonal polynomials

- **The weighing function** for a Chebyshev polynomial must satisfy the orthogonality condition

$$\int_{-1}^1 T_i(x) T_j(x) w(x) dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } i \neq j \\ C_j & \text{for } i = j \end{cases}$$

where  $C_j$  is a constant

- Integrating by substitution and solving for  $w(x)$  yields

$$w(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

# Orthogonal polynomials

- **Orthogonality property of Chebyshev polynomials:**

$$\int_{-1}^1 T_i(x) T_j(x) w(x) dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } i \neq j \\ \frac{\pi}{2} & \text{for } i = j \neq 0 \\ \pi & \text{for } i = j = 0 \end{cases}$$

# Orthogonal polynomials: Chebyshev least squares

- Approximate  $f \in \mathbb{C}([-1, 1])$  with Chebyshev polynomials.
- Coefficients of the continuous least squares are given by

$$\begin{aligned} c_k &= \frac{\langle f, T_k \rangle}{\langle T_k, T_k \rangle} \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n \\ &= \frac{\int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x) T_k(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx}{\int_{-1}^1 \frac{T_k(x)^2}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx} \end{aligned}$$

where  $T_k(x) = \cos(k \arccos x)$  or it is given by its recursive version.

- Notice that the denominator has two cases: For  $k = 0 \rightarrow$   
 $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{T_0(x)^2}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \pi$  and for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n \rightarrow \int_{-1}^1 \frac{T_k(x)^2}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \frac{\pi}{2}.$

# Orthogonal polynomials: Chebyshev least squares

- Therefore

$$c_0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$$

and

$$c_k = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x) T_k(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \quad \forall k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- The Chebyshev polynomial approximation is

$$T_n(x) = c_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n c_k T_k(x)$$



# Orthogonal polynomials: Chebyshev least squares

- Near minimax property of Chebyshev least squares:

## Theorem

*Let  $p_n^*(x)$  be the minmax polynomial approximation to  $f \in C[-1, 1]$ . If  $T_n^*(x)$  is the  $n$ th degree Chebyshev least square approximation to  $f \in C[-1, 1]$  then*

$$\|f - p_n^*\|_\infty \leq \|f - T_n^*\|_\infty \leq \left(4 + \frac{4}{\pi^2} \ln n\right) \|f - p_n^*\|_\infty$$

*and*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f - T_n^*\|_\infty = 0 \quad \text{uniformly}$$

- Chebyshev least squares approximation is nearly the same as the minmax polynomial approximation and that as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $T_n^*$  converges to  $f$  uniformly.

# Orthogonal polynomials: Chebyshev least squares

- **Chebyshev least squares (cont.):EXAMPLE**
- Approximate  $f(x) = \exp(x)$  for  $x \in [-1, 1]$
- **First order polynomial** approximation of  $\exp(x)$  is

$$\exp(x) \approx c_0 T_0(x) + c_1 T_1(x)$$

where

$$T_0(x) = \cos((0)(\arccos x)) = 1$$

$$T_1(x) = \cos(\arccos x) = x$$

and

$$c_0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\exp(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = 1.2661$$

$$c_1 = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\exp(x) x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = 1.1303$$

# Orthogonal polynomials: Chebyshev least squares

- **Chebyshev least squares (cont.):EXAMPLE**
- Second order polynomial approximation of  $\exp(x)$  is

$$\exp(x) \approx c_0 T_0(x) + c_1 T_1(x) + c_2 T_2(x)$$

where  $c_0, c_1, T_0$  and  $T_1$  are the same as before and

$$T_2(x) = \cos(2 \arccos x)$$

and

$$c_2 = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\exp(x) T_2(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = 0.2715$$

# Orthogonal polynomials: Chebyshev least squares

- **Chebyshev least squares (cont.):EXAMPLE**

go to inneficient matlab script!

`cheby_least_squares.m`

- Type CC for each marix of coefficients....

# Interpolation: Basics

- Usually we don't have the value of  $f(x)$  for all its domain.
- We only have the value of  $f(x)$  at some finite set of points:

$$(x_0, f(x_0)), (x_1, f(x_1)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))$$

- Interpolation nodes or points:  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$
- **Interpolation problem:** Find the degree  $\leq n$  polynomial  $p_n(x)$  that passes through these points:

$$f(x_i) = p_n(x_i) \quad \forall i : 0, \dots, n$$

# Interpolation: Basics

- Existence and uniqueness of the interpolating polynomial

## Theorem

*If  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  are distinct, then for any  $f(x_0), \dots, f(x_n)$  there exists a unique polynomial  $p_n(x_i)$  of degree  $\leq n$  such that the interpolation conditions*

$$f(x_i) = p_n(x_i) \quad \forall i : 0 \leq i \leq n$$

*are satisfied.*

# Linear interpolation

- The simplest case is **linear interpolation** (i.e.,  $n = 1$ ) with two data points

$$(x_0, f(x_0)), (x_1, f(x_1))$$

- The interpolation conditions are:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_0) &= p_1(x_0) \\ &= a_0 + a_1 x_0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1) &= p_1(x_1) \\ &= a_0 + a_1 x_1 \end{aligned}$$

# Linear interpolation

- Solving the above system yields

$$a_0 = f(x_0) - \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} \right) x_0$$

$$a_1 = \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0}$$

- Thus, the interpolating polynomial is

$$p_1(x) = \left( f(x_0) - \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} \right) x_0 \right) + \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} \right) x$$



# Linear interpolation

- Notice that the interpolating polynomial can be written as

- **Power form**

$$p_1(x) = \left( f(x_0) - \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} \right) x_0 \right) + \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} \right) x$$

- **Newton form**

$$p_1(x) = f(x_0) + \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} \right) (x - x_0)$$

- **Lagrange form**

$$p_1(x) = \left( \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} \right) f(x_0) + \left( \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} \right) f(x_1)$$

- We have the same interpolating polynomial  $p_1(x)$  written in two different forms.

# Quadratic interpolation

- If we assume  $n = 2$  and three data points

$$(x_0, f(x_0)), (x_1, f(x_1)), (x_2, f(x_2))$$

# Quadratic interpolation

- The interpolation conditions are

$$f(x_0) = p_2(x_0) = a_0 + a_1x_0 + a_2x_0^2$$

$$f(x_1) = p_2(x_1) = a_0 + a_1x_1 + a_2x_1^2$$

$$f(x_2) = p_2(x_2) = a_0 + a_1x_2 + a_2x_2^2$$

# Quadratic interpolation

- In matrix form the interpolation conditions are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f(x_0) \\ f(x_1) \\ f(x_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

or in more compact form

$$Va = b$$

- Notice that  $V$  is a **Vandermonde** matrix which is ill-conditioned.
  - The condition number of  $V$  is large so it is better to compute the  $a$ 's by using another form of writing the interpolating polynomial.

# Quadratic interpolation

- But we can still do it by hand since this is a 3by3 matrix!
- Solving the above system yields

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x_1 x_2}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} & \frac{-x_0 x_2}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_1 - x_2)} & \frac{x_0 x_1}{(x_0 - x_2)(x_1 - x_2)} \\ \frac{-(x_1 + x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} & \frac{x_0 + x_2}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_1 - x_2)} & \frac{-(x_0 + x_1)}{(x_0 - x_2)(x_1 - x_2)} \\ \frac{1}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} & \frac{-1}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_1 - x_2)} & \frac{1}{(x_0 - x_2)(x_1 - x_2)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f(x_0) \\ f(x_1) \\ f(x_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

# Quadratic interpolation

- Or by using the *Matlab* symbolic toolbox

```
>> syms a b c
>> A = [1 a a^2; 1 b b^2; 1 c c^2];
>> inv(A)
ans =
[ (b*c)/((a - b)*(a - c)), -(a*c)/((a - b)*(b - c)),
(a*b)/((a - c)*(b - c))]
[ -(b + c)/((a - b)*(a - c)), (a + c)/((a - b)*(b - c)),
-(a + b)/((a - c)*(b - c))]
[ 1/((a - b)*(a - c)), -1/((a - b)*(b - c)), 1/((a - c)*(b
- c))]
```

# Quadratic interpolation

- Solving the above system yields the coefficients:

$$a_0 = \left( \frac{x_1 x_2}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} \right) f(x_0) + \left( \frac{-x_0 x_2}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_1 - x_2)} \right) f(x_1) \\ + \left( \frac{x_0 x_1}{(x_0 - x_2)(x_1 - x_2)} \right) f(x_2)$$

$$a_1 = \left( \frac{-(x_1 + x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} \right) f(x_0) + \left( \frac{x_0 + x_2}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_1 - x_2)} \right) f(x_1) \\ + \left( \frac{-(x_0 + x_1)}{(x_0 - x_2)(x_1 - x_2)} \right) f(x_2)$$

$$a_2 = \left( \frac{1}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} \right) f(x_0) + \left( \frac{-1}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_1 - x_2)} \right) f(x_1) \\ + \left( \frac{1}{(x_0 - x_2)(x_1 - x_2)} \right) f(x_2)$$

# Quadratic interpolation

- The approximating second order polynomial in "power" form is

$$p_2(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2$$

where  $a_0$ ,  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are defined above.

- Notice that  $p_2(x)$  is a linear combination of  $n + 1 = 3$  monomials each of degree 0, 1, 2.



# Quadratic interpolation

- After "some" algebra we can write  $p_2(x)$  in different forms:
- **Lagrange form**

$$p_2(x) = f(x_0) \left( \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} \right) + f(x_1) \left( \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)} \right) \\ + f(x_2) \left( \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)} \right)$$

- The above is a linear combination of  $n + 1 = 3$  polynomials of degree  $n = 2$ . The coefficients are the interpolated values  $f(x_0)$ ,  $f(x_1)$  and  $f(x_2)$ .

# Quadratic interpolation

- By doing "some" algebra we can write  $p_2(x)$  in different forms:
- **Newton form**

$$p_2(x) = f(x_0) + \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} \right) (x - x_0) \\ + \left( \frac{\left( \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} \right) - \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} \right)}{(x_2 - x_0)} \right) (x - x_0)(x - x_1)$$

- The above is a linear combination of  $n + 1 = 3$  polynomials each of degree 0, 1, 2. The coefficients are the called **divided differences**.

# Interpolation: The general case

- The interpolation conditions when we have  $n + 1$  data points:  
 $\{(x_0, f(x_0)), (x_1, f(x_1)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))\}$

$$f(x_i) = p_n(x_i) \quad \forall i : 0, \dots, n$$

- $p_n(x_i)$  written in "power" form is

$$p_n(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j x^j$$

# Interpolation: The general case

- The interpolation conditions can be written as

$$f(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j x_i^j \quad \forall i : 0, \dots, n$$

or

$$f(x_0) = a_0 + a_1 x_0 + \dots + a_n x_0^n$$

$$f(x_1) = a_0 + a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_1^n$$

...

$$f(x_n) = a_0 + a_1 x_n + \dots + a_n x_n^n$$

# Interpolation: The general case

- In matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & \dots & x_0^n \\ 1 & x_1 & \dots & x_1^n \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & x_n & \dots & x_n^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \dots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f(x_0) \\ f(x_1) \\ \dots \\ f(x_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

- The matrix to be inverted is a Vandermonde matrix: Also an ill-conditioned matrix.

# Interpolation: The general case

- We can also generalize the **lagrange form** of the interpolating polynomial:

$$p_n(x) = f(x_0) l_{n,0}(x) + f(x_1) l_{n,1}(x) + \dots + f(x_n) l_{n,n}(x)$$

where  $\{l_{n,j}(x)\}_{j=0}^n$  are a family of  $n+1$  polynomials of degree  $n$  given by

$$l_{n,j}(x) = \frac{(x-x_0) \dots (x-x_{j-1})(x-x_{j+1}) \dots (x-x_n)}{(x_j-x_0) \dots (x_j-x_{j-1})(x_j-x_{j+1}) \dots (x_j-x_n)} \quad \forall 0 \leq j \leq n$$

- More compactly

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) l_{n,j}(x)$$

# Interpolation: The general case

- For  $j = 0$

$$l_{n,0}(x) = \frac{(x - x_1) \dots (x - x_n)}{(x_0 - x_1) \dots (x_0 - x_n)} = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq 0}}^n \frac{x - x_j}{x_0 - x_j}$$

- For  $j = 1$

$$l_{n,1}(x) = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2) \dots (x - x_n)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2) \dots (x_1 - x_n)} = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq 1}}^n \frac{x - x_j}{x_1 - x_j}$$

- For  $j = n$

$$l_{n,n}(x) = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2) \dots (x - x_{n-1})}{(x_n - x_0)(x_n - x_2) \dots (x_n - x_{n-1})} = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq n}}^n \frac{x - x_j}{x_n - x_j}$$

# Interpolation: The general case

- For any  $\forall 0 \leq j \leq n$

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

- The lagrange form of the interpolating polynomial is

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) l_{n,j}(x)$$

with  $l_{n,j}(x)$  defined above.

- It turns out that computing the lagrange polynomial is more efficient than solving the vandermonde matrix!



# Interpolation: The general case

- We can also generalize the newton form of the interpolating polynomial

$$p_n(x) = c_0 + c_1(x - x_0) + c_2(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \dots + c_n(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \dots$$

where the coefficients  $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_n$  are called the divided difference and are denoted by

$$c_0 = d(x_0)$$

$$c_1 = d(x_1, x_0)$$

$$c_2 = d(x_2, x_1, x_0)$$

...

$$c_n = d(x_n, \dots, x_1, x_0)$$

# Interpolation: The general case

- The divided differences are defined as

$$d(x_0) = f(x_0)$$

$$d(x_1, x_0) = \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0}$$

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_2, x_1, x_0) &= \frac{d(x_2, x_1) - d(x_1, x_0)}{x_2 - x_0} \\ &= \frac{\left( \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} \right) - \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} \right)}{x_2 - x_0} \end{aligned}$$

# Interpolation: The general case

- The divided differences are defined as (Cont.)

$$\begin{aligned}d(x_3, x_2, x_1, x_0) &= \frac{d(x_3, x_2, x_1) - d(x_2, x_1, x_0)}{x_3 - x_0} \\&= \frac{\left( \frac{\left( \frac{f(x_3) - f(x_2)}{x_3 - x_2} \right) - \left( \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} \right)}{x_3 - x_2} \right) - \left( \frac{\left( \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} \right) - \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} \right)}{x_2 - x_0} \right)}{x_3 - x_0}\end{aligned}$$

$$d(x_n, \dots, x_1, x_0) = \frac{d(x_n, \dots, x_1, x_0) - d(x_{n-1}, \dots, x_1, x_0)}{x_n - x_0}$$

# Interpolation: The general case

- The generalization of the Newton form of the interpolating polynomial is

$$p_n(x) = d(x_0) + d(x_1, x_0)(x - x_0) + d(x_2, x_1, x_0)(x - x_0)(x - x_1) + \dots \\ + d(x_n, \dots, x_1, x_0)(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \dots (x - x_{n-1})$$

or

$$p_n(x) = d(x_0) + \sum_{j=1}^n d(x_j, \dots, x_1, x_0) \prod_{k=0}^{j-1} (x - x_k)$$

# Interpolation: The interpolation error

## Theorem

Let  $f(x) \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1}[a, b]$ . Let  $p_n(x)$  a polynomial of degree  $\leq n$  such that it interpolates  $f(x)$  at the  $n+1$  **distinct** nodes  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ . Then  $\forall x \in [a, b]$ , there exists a  $\xi_n \in (a, b)$  such that

$$f(x) - p_n(x) = \frac{1}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(\xi_n) \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k)$$

## Fact

The error term for the  $n$ th Taylor approximation around the point  $x_0$  is

$$\frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi_n)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{n+1}$$

# Interpolation: The interpolation error

- Notice that applying the supremum norm to the interpolation error yields

$$\|f(x) - p_n(x)\|_\infty \leq \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \|f^{(n+1)}(\xi_n)\|_\infty \left\| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right\|_\infty$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{x \in [a,b]} |f(x) - p_n(x)| \\ & \leq \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \left( \max_{\xi_n \in [a,b]} |f^{(n+1)}(\xi_n)| \right) \left( \max_{x \in [a,b]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right| \right) \end{aligned}$$

- The R.H.S is an **upper bound for the interpolation error**.

# Interpolation: The interpolation error

- We would like to have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \left( \max_{\xi_n \in [a,b]} |f^{(n+1)}(\xi_n)| \right) \left( \max_{x \in [a,b]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right| \right) \right\} = 0$$

thus

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(x) - p_n(x)) = 0$$

- But nothing guarantees convergence (neither point or uniform convergence).

# Interpolation: The interpolation error

- The maximum error depends on the interpolation nodes

$\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  through the term  $\left( \max_{x \in [a, b]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right| \right)$ .

- Notice that no other term depends on the interpolating nodes once we look for the **maximum error**.
- We can choose the nodes in order to **minimize the interpolation error**:

$$\min_{\{x_0, \dots, x_n\}} \left\{ \max_{x \in [a, b]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right| \right\}$$



# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- What happens if we work with uniformly spaced nodes?, that is with nodes such that

$$x_i = a + \left( \frac{i-1}{n-1} \right) (b-a) \quad \text{for } i : 1, \dots, n$$

- Recall that:
  - We want to interpolate a function  $f(x) : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
  - $n$  is the degree of the interpolating polynomial:  $p_n(x)$
  - The interpolation conditions are

$$f(x_i) = p_n(x_i) \dots \text{for } i : 0, \dots, n$$

so, if  $n = 10$ , we need  $n + 1 = 11$  data points.

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- **Runge's example:** Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$  defined on the interval  $[-5, 5]$ .
- Find the lagrange polynomial approximation for  $n = 11$ .

go to inneficient matlab script!

runge\_example\_lagrange\_interpolation\_UN.m

- Play increasing the degree of interpolation and see that there is no convergence.
- The graph replicates figure 6.6 of Judd's book.

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- But we can choose the nodes in order to obtain the smallest value for

$$\left\| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right\|_{\infty} = \max_{x \in [a, b]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right|$$

- **Chebyshev polynomials one more time:** Recall the monic Chebyshev polynomial is

$$\tilde{T}_j(x) = \frac{\cos(j \arccos x)}{2^{j-1}}$$

with  $x \in [-1, 1]$  and  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$

- Then, the zeros of  $\tilde{T}_n(x)$  are given by the solution to

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{T}_n(x) &= 0 \\ \cos(n \arccos x) &= 0 \\ \cos(n\theta) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

where  $\theta = \arccos x$ . Thus  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$ .

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- Zeros occur when  $\cos(n\theta) = 0$ , that is

$$n\theta = \left(\frac{2k-1}{2}\right)\pi \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} & \cos\left(\frac{2k-1}{2}\pi\right) \\ &= \cos\left(k\pi - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\ &= \cos(k\pi) \underbrace{\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)}_{=0} - \underbrace{\sin(k\pi)}_{=0} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- The equation  $\tilde{T}_n(x) = 0$  has  $n$  different roots given by

$$n\theta = \left(k - \frac{1}{2}\right) \pi \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- This means that

- For  $k = 1$

$$\theta_1 = \frac{\pi}{2n}$$

- For  $k = 2$

$$\theta_2 = \left(\frac{3}{2}\right) \frac{\pi}{n}$$

- For  $k = n$

$$\theta_n = \left(\frac{2n-1}{2}\right) \frac{\pi}{n}$$

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- Roots for  $\cos(n\theta)$  where  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$  :

	$n = 1$	$n = 2$	$n = 3$	...	$n$
$k = 1$	$\frac{\pi}{2}$	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	$\frac{\pi}{6}$		$\frac{\pi}{2n}$
$k = 2$		$\frac{3}{4}\pi$	$\frac{5}{6}\pi$		$\frac{3}{2n}\pi$
$k = 3$			$\frac{5}{6}\pi$		$\frac{5}{2n}\pi$
...					
$k = n$					$\left(\frac{2n-1}{2n}\right)\pi$

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- Plotting  $\cos(j\theta)$  for  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$  and  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$

go to inefficient matlab script!

`cheby_nodes.m`

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- We want the roots of the monic chebyshev and we have the roots of the cosine function:

$$n\theta = \left(k - \frac{1}{2}\right) \pi \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- but  $\theta = \arccos x$ , thus

$$\arccos x = \left(\frac{2k-1}{2n}\right) \pi \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

then the roots of the chebyshev polynomials are

$$x_k = \cos \left( \left( \frac{2k-1}{2n} \right) \pi \right) \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- Notice that the roots of  $\tilde{T}_n(x)$  are the same as the roots of  $T_n(x)$ .



# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- Plotting chebyshev nodes

go to inneficient matlab script!

`cheby_nodes.m`

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- The following theorem summarizes some characteristics of chebyshev polynomials

## Theorem

*The Chebyshev polynomial  $T_n(x)$  of degree  $n \geq 1$  has  $n$  zeros in  $[-1, 1]$  at*

$$x_k = \cos \left( \left( \frac{2k-1}{2n} \right) \pi \right) \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

*Moreover,  $T_n(x)$  assumes its extremum at*

$$x_k^* = \cos \left( \frac{k\pi}{n} \right) \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

*with*

$$T_n(x_k^*) = (-1)^k \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

## Corollary

*The monic Chebyshev polynomial  $\tilde{T}_n(x)$  has the same zeros and extremum points as  $T_n(x)$  but with extremum values given by*

$$\tilde{T}_n(x_k^*) = \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{n-1}} \text{ for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- Extrema of Chebyshev polynomials:

$$T_n(x) = \cos(n \arccos x)$$

then

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dT_n(x)}{dx} &= T'_n(x) \\ &= -\sin(n \arccos x) \left( -\frac{n}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \right) \\ &= \frac{n \sin(n \arccos x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}\end{aligned}$$

- Notice that  $T'_n(x)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n-1$  with zeros given by

$$T'_n(x) = 0$$

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- Excluding the endpoints of the domain,  $x = -1$  or  $x = 1$ , then, extremum points occurs when

$$\sin(n \arccos x) = 0$$

or when

$$\sin(n\theta) = 0$$

for  $\theta \in (0, \pi)$ . Thus

$$n\theta_k = k\pi \quad \text{for all } k = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$$

- Solving for  $x$  yields

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &= \arccos x = \frac{k\pi}{n} \\ \implies x_k^* &= \cos\left(\frac{k\pi}{n}\right) \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n-1 \end{aligned}$$

- Obviously, extrema also occur at the **endpoints** of the domain (i.e.,  $x = -1$  or  $x = 1$ ), that is when  $k = 0$  or when  $k = n$ .

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- The extremum values of  $T_n(x)$  occurs when

$$\begin{aligned}T_n(x^*) &= \cos(n \arccos x^*) \\&= \cos\left(n \arccos\left(\cos\left(\frac{k\pi}{n}\right)\right)\right) \\&= \cos\left(n \frac{k\pi}{n}\right) \\&= \cos(k\pi) \\&= (-1)^k \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n\end{aligned}$$

Notice that we are including the endpoints of the domain.

- The above result implies

$$\max_{x \in [-1, 1]} |T_n(x)| = 1$$

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- Extrema for monic Chebyshev polynomials are characterized by the same points since

$$\tilde{T}_n(x) = \frac{T_n(x)}{2^{n-1}}$$

thus

$$\tilde{T}'_n(x_k^*) = T'_n(x_k^*) = 0 \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

- But the extremum values of  $\tilde{T}_n(x)$  are given by

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{T}_n(x_k^*) &= \frac{T_n(x_k^*)}{2^{n-1}} \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n \\ &= \frac{(-1)^k}{2^{n-1}} \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n\end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\max_{x \in [-1, 1]} |\tilde{T}_n(x)| = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$$

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- An important property of monic Chebyshev polynomials is given by the following theorem

## Theorem

If  $\tilde{p}_n(x)$  is a monic polynomial of degree  $n$  defined on  $[-1, 1]$ , then

$$\max_{x \in [-1, 1]} |\tilde{T}_n(x)| = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \leq \max_{x \in [-1, 1]} |\tilde{p}_n(x)|$$

for all monic polynomials of degree  $n$ .



# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- Recall that we want to choose the interpolation nodes  $\{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$  in order to solve

$$\min_{\{x_0, \dots, x_n\}} \left\{ \max_{x \in [a, b]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right| \right\}$$

- Choosing the interpolation nodes is the same as choosing the zeros of  $\prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k)$ .
- Notice that  $\prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k)$  is a monic polynomial of degree  $n + 1$ .  
Therefore it must be the case that

$$\max_{x \in [-1, 1]} \left| \tilde{T}_{n+1}(x) \right| = \frac{1}{2^n} \leq \max_{x \in [-1, 1]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right|$$

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- The smallest value that  $\max_{x \in [-1,1]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right|$  can take is  $\frac{1}{2^n}$ .

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{x \in [-1,1]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right| &= \frac{1}{2^n} \\ &= \max_{x \in [-1,1]} \left| \tilde{T}_{n+1}(x) \right| \end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$\prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) = \tilde{T}_{n+1}(x)$$

- Therefore the zeros of  $\prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k)$  must be the zeros of  $\tilde{T}_{n+1}(x)$

which are given by

$$x_k = \cos \left( \left( \frac{2k+1}{2(n+1)} \right) \pi \right) \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n+1$$

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- Since  $\max_{x \in [-1,1]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right| = \frac{1}{2^n}$  then the maximum interpolation error becomes

$$\max_{x \in [a,b]} |f(x) - p_n(x)| \leq \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \left( \max_{\xi_n \in [a,b]} |f^{(n+1)}(\xi_n)| \right) \left( \max_{x \in [a,b]} \left| \prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right| \right)$$

$$\max_{x \in [a,b]} |f(x) - p_n(x)| \leq \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \left( \max_{\xi_n \in [a,b]} |f^{(n+1)}(\xi_n)| \right) \left( \frac{1}{2^n} \right)$$

- Chebyshev nodes eliminate violent oscillations for the error term compared to uniform spaced nodes.
- Interpolation with Chebyshev nodes has better convergence properties.
- It is possible to show that  $p_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  uniformly. This is not guaranteed under uniform spaced nodes.

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- **Runge's example with chebyshev nodes**

`runge_example_cheby_nodes.m`

# Interpolation: Choosing the nodes

- Figure 6.2 of Miranda and Flecker book:
- Comparing the interpolation errors of  $f(x) = \exp(-x)$  defined in  $x \in [-5, 5]$  with 10-node polynomial approximation

`example_miranda_cheby_nodes`

# Interpolation through regression

- The interpolation conditions require to have the same number of data points (interpolation data) and unknown coefficients in order to proceed.
- But we can also have the case, where the data points exceed the number of unknown coefficients.
- For this case, we can use **discrete least squares**: Use  $m$  interpolation points to find  $n < m$  coefficients.
  - The omitted terms are high degree polynomials that may produce undesirable oscillations.
  - The result is a smoother function that approximates the data.

# Interpolation through regression

- **Objective:** Construct a degree  $n$  polynomial,  $\hat{f}(x)$ , that approximates the function  $f$  for  $x \in [a, b]$  using  $m > n$  interpolation nodes.

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j T_j(x_k)$$

# Interpolation through regression

- **Algorithm:**

- **Step 1: Compute the  $m$  Chebyshev interpolation nodes on  $[-1, 1]$ :**

$$z_k = \cos \left( \left( \frac{2k-1}{2m} \right) \pi \right) \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, m$$

- As if we want an  $m$ -degree Chebyshev interpolation.

- **Step 2: Adjust the nodes to the interval  $[a, b]$  :**

$$x_k = (z_k + 1) \left( \frac{b-a}{2} \right) + a \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, m$$

- **Step 3: Evaluate  $f$  at the nodes:**

$$y_k = f(x_k) \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, m$$



# Interpolation through regression

- **Algorithm (Cont.):**
- **Step 4: Compute the Chebyshev least squares coefficients**
  - The coefficients that solve the discrete LS problem

$$\min \sum_{k=1}^m \left[ y_k - \sum_{j=0}^n c_j T_j(z_k) \right]^2$$

are given by

$$c_j = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m y_k T_j(z_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^m (T_j(z_k))^2} \quad \text{for } j = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

where  $z_k$  is the inverse transformation of  $x_k$  :

$$z_k = \frac{2x_k - (a + b)}{b - a}$$

# Interpolation through regression

- Finally, the LS Chebyshev approximating polynomial is given by

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j T_j(z)$$

where  $z \in [-1, 1]$  and it is given by

$$z = \frac{2x - (a + b)}{b - a}$$

and the  $c_j$  are estimated using the LS coefficients

$$c_j = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m y_k T_j(z_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^m (T_j(z_k))^2} \quad \text{for } j = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

# Piecewise linear approximation

- If we have interpolation data given by  $\{(x_0, f(x_0)), (x_1, f(x_1)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))\}$
- We can divide the interpolation nodes in subintervals of the form

$$[x_i, x_{i+1}] \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$$

- Then we can perform linear interpolation in each subinterval:
  - Interpolation conditions for each subinterval:

$$f(x_i) = a_0 + a_1 x_i$$

$$f(x_{i+1}) = a_0 + a_1 x_{i+1}$$

# Piecewise linear approximation

- Linear interpolation in each subinterval yields  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ :
  - The interpolating coefficients:

$$a_0 = f(x_i) - \left( \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)}{x_{i+1} - x_i} \right) x_i$$

$$a_1 = \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)}{x_{i+1} - x_i}$$

- Piecewise linear interpoland:

$$p_i(x) = f(x_i) + \left( \frac{x - x_i}{x_{i+1} - x_i} \right) (f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i))$$

# Piecewise linear approximation

## Piecewise polynomial approximation: Splines

- Example:  $(x_0, f(x_0)), (x_1, f(x_1)), (x_2, f(x_2))$
- Then we have two subintervals

$$[x_0, x_1] \quad \text{and} \quad [x_1, x_2]$$

- The interpolating function is given by:

$$\hat{f}(x) = \begin{cases} f(x_0) + \left(\frac{x-x_0}{x_1-x_0}\right)(f(x_1) - f(x_0)) & \text{for } x \in [x_0, x_1] \\ f(x_1) + \left(\frac{x-x_1}{x_2-x_1}\right)(f(x_2) - f(x_1)) & \text{for } x \in [x_1, x_2] \end{cases}$$

# Piecewise polynomial approximation: Splines

- A spline is any smooth function that is piecewise polynomial but also smooth where the polynomial pieces connect.
- Assume that the interpolation data is given by  $\{(x_0, f(x_0)), (x_1, f(x_1)), \dots, (x_m, f(x_m))\}$ .
- A function  $s(x)$  defined on  $[a, b]$  is a spline of order  $n$  if:
  - $s$  is  $C^{n-2}$  on  $[a, b]$
  - $s(x)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n - 1$  on each subinterval  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, m - 1$
- Notice that an order 2-spline is the piecewise linear interpolant equation.

# Piecewise polynomial approximation: Splines

- A cubic spline is a spline of order 4:

- $s$  is  $C^2$  on  $[a, b]$

- $s(x)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n - 1 = 3$  on each subinterval  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, m - 1$

$$s(x) = a_i + b_i x + c_i x^2 + d_i x^3 \quad \text{for } x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}], i = 0, 1, \dots, m - 1$$

# Piecewise polynomial approximation: Splines

- Example of cubic spline: Assume that we have the following 3 data points:  $(x_0, f(x_0)), (x_1, f(x_1)), (x_2, f(x_2))$
- There are two subintervals:  $[x_0, x_1]$  and  $[x_1, x_2]$ .
- A cubic spline is a function  $s$  such that
  - $s$  is  $C^2$  on  $[a, b]$
  - $s(x)$  is a polynomial of degree 3 on each subinterval:

$$s(x) = \begin{cases} s_0(x) = a_0 + b_0x + c_0x^2 + d_0x^3 & \text{for } x \in [x_0, x_1] \\ s_1(x) = a_1 + b_1x + c_1x^2 + d_1x^3 & \text{for } x \in [x_1, x_2] \end{cases}$$

- Notice that in this case we have 8 unknowns:  
 $a_0, a_1, b_0, b_1, c_0, c_1, d_0, d_1$



# Piecewise polynomial approximation: Splines

- Example (Cont.): We need 8 conditions
  - Interpolation and continuity at interior nodes conditions

$$y_0 = s_0(x_0) = a_0 + b_0x_0 + c_0x_0^2 + d_0x_0^3$$

$$y_1 = s_0(x_1) = a_0 + b_0x_1 + c_0x_1^2 + d_0x_1^3$$

$$y_1 = s_1(x_1) = a_1 + b_1x_1 + c_1x_1^2 + d_1x_1^3$$

$$y_2 = s_1(x_2) = a_1 + b_1x_2 + c_1x_2^2 + d_1x_2^3$$

# Piecewise polynomial approximation: Splines

- Example (Cont.): We need 8 conditions
  - First and second derivatives must agree at the interior nodes

$$s'_0(x_1) = s'_1(x_1)$$

$$b_0 + 2c_0x_1 + 3d_0x_1^2 = b_1 + 2c_1x_1 + 3d_1x_1^2$$

$$s''_0(x_1) = s''_1(x_1)$$

$$2c_0 + 6d_0x_1 = 2c_1 + 6d_1x_1$$

# Piecewise polynomial approximation: Splines

- Up to now we have 6 conditions, we need two more conditions
- 3 ways to obtain the additional conditions:
  - **Natural spline:**  $s'(x_0) = s'(x_2) = 0$
  - **Hermite spline:** If we have information on the slope of the original function at the end points:

$$f'(x_0) = s'(x_0)$$

$$f'(x_2) = s'(x_2)$$

- **Secant Hermite spline:** use the secant to estimate the slope at the end points

$$s'(x_0) = \frac{s(x_1) - s(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0}$$

$$s'(x_2) = \frac{s(x_2) - s(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1}$$

# Piecewise polynomial approximation: Splines

- Generalization of cubic splines:

See Judd's book!!!