MA 214: Numerical Analysis Notes

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Disclaimer

This is just a collection of formulae/algorithms compiled together.
In the case of algorithms, I explain the procedure concisely. However, do not take this as a substitute for lecture slides as I don't go into the theory at all.
Also, I've modified some things compared to the lecture slides wherever I felt it was an error. So, be warned.

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1 Interpolation

1. **Lagrange Polynomials**
   Let $x_0,\ x_1,\ \ldots,\ x_n$ be $n+1$ distinct points in $[a, b]$. Let $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function whose value is known at those aforementioned points.
   We want to construct a polynomial $p(x)$ of degree $\leq n$ such that $p(x_i) = f(x_i)$ for all $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$.
   Towards this end, we define the polynomials $I_k(x)$ for $k \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$ in the following manner:

$$I_k(x) := \prod_{i=0, i\neq k}^{n} \frac{x - x_i}{x_k - x_i}.$$

   (Intuitive understanding: I_k is a degree n polynomial such that $I_k(x_j) = 0$ if $k \neq j$ and $I_k(x_k) = 1$.)
   Now, define $p(x)$ as follows:

$$p(x) := \sum_{i=0}^{n} f(x_i) I_i(x)$$

2. **Newton's form**
   Let $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n$ be $n+1$ distinct points in $[a, b]$. Let $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function whose value is known at those aforementioned points.
   We want to construct a polynomial $P_n(x)$ of degree $\leq n$ such that $p(x_i) = f(x_i)$ for all $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$.

   We define the divided differences (recursively) as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} f[x_0] &:= f(x_0) \\ f[x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_k] &:= \frac{f[x_1, \ldots, x_k] - f[x_0, \ldots, x_{k-1}]}{x_k - x_0} \qquad \text{for all } 1 < k \leq n \end{aligned}$$

   With this in place, the desired polynomial $P_n(x)$ is (not so) simply:

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) := f[x_0] &+ f[x_0, x_1](x - x_0) \\ &+ f[x_0, x_1, x_2](x - x_0)(x - x_1) \\ &+ \ldots \\ &\ \vdots \\ &+ f[x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n](x - x_0)(x - x_1)\cdots(x - x_{n-1}) \end{aligned}$$

   Remarks. Note that $x - x_n$ does not appear in the last term.
   Note that given $P_n(x)$, it is simple to construct $P_{n+1}(x)$.

3. **Osculatory Interpolation**
   This is essentially the same as the previous case.

I'll state the problem in the form I think is the simplest. (Any other form can be reduced to this.)
Suppose we are given $k+1$ distinct points $x_0, \ldots, x_k$ in $[a, b]$ and a function $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ which is sufficiently differentiable.
Suppose we are given the following values:

$$\begin{gathered} f^{(0)}(x_0), f^{(1)}(x_0), \ldots, f^{(m_1-1)}(x_0) \\ f^{(0)}(x_1), f^{(1)}(x_1), \ldots, f^{(m_2-1)}(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ f^{(0)}(x_k), f^{(1)}(x_k), \ldots, f^{(m_k-1)}(x_k) \end{gathered}$$

(Notation: $f^{(0)}(x) = f(x)$ and $f^{(n)}(x)$ is the n^{th} derivative.)
Thus, we are given $m_1 + m_2 + \cdots m_k =: n+1$ data. As usual, we now want to compute a polynomial $P_n(x)$ that agrees with f at all the data. (That is, all the given derivatives must also be same.) As it goes without saying, $P_n(x)$ must have degree $\leq n$.

To do this, we list the above points as follows:

$$\underbrace{x_0, x_0, \ldots x_0}_{m_1}, \underbrace{x_1, x_1, \ldots, x_1}_{m_2}, \ldots, \underbrace{x_k, x_k, \ldots, x_k}_{m_k}.$$

Now, we just apply the above (Newton's) formula with the following modification in the definition of the divided difference:

$$f[\underbrace{x_i, x_i, \ldots, x_i}_{p+1 \text{ times}}] := \frac{f^{(p)}(x_i)}{p!}.$$

4. **Richardson Extrapolation**
Suppose that for sufficiently small $h \neq 0$, we have the formula:

$$M = N_1(h) + k_1 h + k_2 h^2 + k_3 h^3 + \cdots,$$

for some constants $k_1, k_2, k_3, \ldots$.
Define the following:

$$N_j(h) := N_{j-1}(h/2) + \frac{N_{j-1}(h/2) - N_{j-1}(h)}{2^{j-1} - 1} \qquad \text{for } j \geq 2.$$

Choose some h *sufficiently small* (whatever that means). Then, $N_j(h)$ keeps becoming a better approximation of M as j increases.
We create a table of h and $N_j(h)$ as follows:

h	$N_1(h)$	$N_2(h)$	$N_3(h)$	$N_4(h)$
h	$N_1(h)$			
$h/2$	$N_1(h/2)$	$N_2(h)$		
$h/4$	$N_1(h/4)$	$N_2(h/2)$	$N_3(h)$	
$h/8$	$N_1(h/8)$	$N_2(h/4)$	$N_3(h/2)$	$N_4(h)$

$N_4(h)$ will be a good approximation, then.
(Look at slide 15 of Lecture 7 for an example.)

Special case
Sometimes, we may have the following scenario:

$$M = N_1(h) + k_2 h^2 + k_4 h^4 + \cdots.$$

In this case, we define:

$$N_j(h) := N_{j-1}(h/2) + \frac{N_{j-1}(h/2) - N_{j-1}(h)}{4^{j-1} - 1} \qquad \text{for } j \geq 2.$$

Then, we do the remaining stuff as before.

2 Numerical Integration

$$I = \int_a^b f(x)\mathrm{d}x$$

1. **Rectangle Rule**

$$I \approx (b-a)f(a)$$

$$E^R = f'(\eta)\frac{(b-a)^2}{2}, \text{ for some } \eta \in [a,b]$$

2. **Midpoint Rule**

$$I \approx (b-a)f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)$$

$$E^M = \frac{f''(\eta)}{2}\frac{(b-a)^3}{24}, \text{ for some } \eta \in [a,b]$$

3. **Trapezoidal Rule**

$$I \approx \frac{1}{2}(b-a)[f(a)+f(b)]$$

$$E^T = -f''(\eta)\frac{(b-a)^3}{12}, \text{ for some } \eta \in [a,b]$$

4. **Corrected Trapezoidal**

$$I \approx \frac{1}{2}(b-a)[f(a)+f(b)] + \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}(f'(a)-f'(b))$$

$$E^{CT} = f^{(4)}(\eta)\frac{(b-a)^5}{720}, \text{ for some } \eta \in [a,b]$$

5. **Composite Trapezoidal**

$$I \approx \frac{h}{2}[f(x_0) + 2\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} f(x_i) + f(x_N)]$$

$$E_C^T = -f''(\xi)\frac{h^2(b-a)}{12}, \text{ for some } \xi \in [a,b]$$

Here, $Nh = b-a$.

6. **Simpson's Rule**

$$I \approx \frac{b-a}{6}\left\{f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b)\right\}$$

$$E^S = -\frac{1}{90}f^{(4)}(\eta)\left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)^5, \text{ for some } \eta \in [a,b]$$

7. **Composite Simpson's**

$$I \approx \frac{h}{6}[f(x_0) + 2\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} f(x_i) + 4\sum_{i=1}^{N} f\left(x_{i-1} + \frac{h}{2}\right) + f(x_N)]$$

$$E_C^S = -f^{(4)}(\xi)\frac{(h/2)^4(b-a)}{180}, \text{ for some } \xi \in [a,b]$$

Here, $Nh = b-a$.

8. **Gaussian Quadrature**
   Let $Q_{n+1}(x)$ denote the $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$ Legendre polynomial.
   Let $r_0, \ldots, r_{n+1}$ be its roots. (These will be distinct, symmetric about the origin and will lie in the interval $[-1, 1]$.)
   For each $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$, we define c_i as follows:

$$c_i := \int_{-1}^{1} \left(\prod_{k=0, k\neq i}^{n} \frac{x - x_k}{x_i - x_k} \right) \mathrm{d}x.$$

   Then, we have

$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(x)\mathrm{d}x \approx \sum_{i=0}^{n} f(r_i)c_i.$$

   Moreover, if f is a polynomial of degree $\leq 2n+1$, then the above is "approximation" is exact.

   Standard values:
   $n = 0 : Q_1(x) = x$ and $x_0 = 0$. $c_0 = 2$.
   $n = 1 : Q_2(x) = x^2 - \frac{1}{3}$ and $x_0 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}},\ x_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$. $c_0 = c_1 = 1$.
   $n = 2 : Q_3(x) = x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x$ and $x_0 = -\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}},\ x_1 = 0,\ x_2 = \sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}$. $c_0 = c_2 = 5/9,\ c_1 = 8/9$.

9. **Improper integrals using Taylor series method**
   Suppose we have $f(x) = \frac{g(x)}{(x-a)^p}$ for some $0 < p < 1$ and are asked to calculate $I = \displaystyle\int_a^b f(x)\mathrm{d}x$.
   For the sake of simplicity, I assume $a = 0$ and $b = 1$.
   Let $P_4(x)$ denote the fourth Taylor polynomial of g around a. (In this case 0.)
   Now, compute $I_1 = \displaystyle\int_0^1 \frac{P_4(x)}{x^p}\mathrm{d}x$. This can be integrated exactly. (Why?)
   Now, we approximate $I - I_1$.
   Define

$$G(x) := \begin{cases} \frac{g(x)-P_4(x)}{x^p} & \text{if } 0 < x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

   Then, approximate $I_2 = \displaystyle\int_0^1 G(x)\mathrm{d}x$ using the composite Simpson's rule.
   Then, $I = I_1 + I_2$.

   For the case of $a = 0,\ b = 1$ and $N = 2$ for the composite Simpson's part, we get that
   $I_2 \approx \frac{1}{12}[2G(0.5) + 4G(0.25) + 4G(0.75) + G(1)]$.

   That is, finally:

$$I \approx \int_0^1 \frac{P_4(x)}{x^p}\mathrm{d}x + \frac{1}{12}[2G(0.5) + 4G(0.25) + 4G(0.75) + G(1)].$$

10. **Adaptive Quadrature**
    Let $I = \displaystyle\int_a^b f(x)\mathrm{d}x$ be the integral that we want to approximate.
    Suppose that ϵ is the accuracy to which we want I. That is, we want a number P such that $|P - I| < \epsilon$.
    Here is what you do:
    Subdivide $[a, b]$ into N intervals: $[x_0, x_1],\ [x_1, x_2],\ \ldots,\ [x_{n-1}, x_n]$. (Naturally, $a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq \ldots \leq x_n = b$.)
    Now, for each subinterval, compute the following values:

$$S_i = \frac{h}{6}\left(f(x_i) + 4f\left(x + \frac{h}{2}\right) + f(x_{i+1}) \right), \text{ and}$$

$$\overline{S_i} = \frac{h}{12}\left(f(x_i) + 4f\left(x_i + \frac{h}{2}\right) + 2f\left(x_i + \frac{h}{2}\right) + 4f(x_i + \frac{3h}{4}) + f(x_{i+1}) \right).$$

    Now, calculate $E_i = \frac{1}{15}|\overline{S_i} - S_i|$.

    Now, if $E_i \leq \frac{x_i - x_{i-1}}{b-a}\epsilon$, then move on to the next interval.

Otherwise, subdivide again to better approximate $\displaystyle\int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} f(x)\mathrm{d}x$.

Finally, sum up all the $\overline{S_i}$s and that's the answer. That is,

$$I \approx P = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \overline{S_i}.$$

11. **Romberg Integration**
Essentially the baby of composite Trapezoidal rule and Romberg integration.
Suppose we want to calculate $\displaystyle\int_a^b f(x)\mathrm{d}x$.
Let N be a power of 2.
$T_N := \frac{h}{2}\left[f(x_0) + 2\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} f(a+ih) + f(x_N)\right]$, where $Nh = b - a$.
Note that T_N can be computed using $T_{N/2}$ (assuming $N \neq 2^0$) as:

$$T_N = \frac{T_{N/2}}{2} + h\sum_{i=1}^{N/2} f\left(a + (2i-1)h\right).$$

Now for $m \geq 1$, we define:

$$T_N^m = T_N^{m-1} + \frac{T_N^{m-1} - T_{N/2}^{m-1}}{4^m - 1}.$$

(Where T_N^0 is just T_N.)
(Also, for some reason, T'_N has been used instead of T_N^1.)
Note that $\frac{N}{2^m}$ must be an integer for T_N^m to be defined. We create a table as follows:

N	T_N	T'_N	T_N^2	T_N^3
1	T_1			
2	T_2	T_2^1		
4	T_4	T_4^1	T_4^2	
8	T_8	T_8^1	T_8^2	T_8^3

T_8^3 will be a good approximation, then.
(Look at slide 25 of Lecture 7 for an example.)

Remark. It can be shown that $I = T_N + c_2h^2 + c_4h^4 + \cdots$. This is why we used the special case formula of 1. 4.