

Homework #2

1.) From the Lagrange interpolation formula we obtain the formula of the quadratic that interpolates $(x_k, f(x_k))$, $(x_{k-1}, f(x_{k-1}))$, and $(x_{k-2}, f(x_{k-2}))$ as

$$q_k(x) = f(x_{k-2}) \frac{(x-x_{k-1})(x-x_k)}{(x_{k-2}-x_{k-1})(x_{k-2}-x_k)} + f(x_{k-1}) \frac{(x-x_{k-2})(x-x_k)}{(x_{k-1}-x_{k-2})(x_{k-1}-x_k)} + f(x_k) \frac{(x-x_{k-2})(x-x_{k-1})}{(x_k-x_{k-2})(x_k-x_{k-1})}$$

If $f(x) = x^3 - 2$, $x_0 = 0$, $x_1 = 1$, and $x_2 = 2$, then $f(x_0) = -2$, $f(x_1) = -1$, and $f(x_2) = 6$. The root of $q_2(x)$ closest to x_2 will give us x_3 .

$$\begin{aligned} q_2(x) &= f(x_0) \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_0-x_1)(x_0-x_2)} + f(x_1) \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)} + f(x_2) \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)} \\ &= (-2) \frac{(x-1)(x-2)}{(0-1)(0-2)} + (-1) \frac{(x-0)(x-2)}{(1-0)(1-2)} + (6) \frac{(x-0)(x-1)}{(2-0)(2-1)} \\ &= -(x-1)(x-2) + x(x-2) + 3x(x-1) \\ &= -(x^2 - 3x + 2) + x^2 - 2x + 3x^2 - 3x = -x^2 + 3x - 2 + 4x^2 - 5x \\ &= 3x^2 - 2x - 2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow 3x^2 - 2x - 2 = 0 \Rightarrow x = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 4(3)(-2)}}{6} = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{28}}{6} = \frac{2 \pm 2\sqrt{7}}{6} = \frac{1}{3} \pm \frac{\sqrt{7}}{3}$$

Now we will find which root is closest to $x_2 = 2$

$$|2 - (\frac{1}{3} + \frac{\sqrt{7}}{3})| = |2 - \frac{1}{3} - \frac{\sqrt{7}}{3}| = |\frac{5}{3} - \frac{\sqrt{7}}{3}|$$

$$|2 - (\frac{1}{3} - \frac{\sqrt{7}}{3})| = |2 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{\sqrt{7}}{3}| = |\frac{5}{3} + \frac{\sqrt{7}}{3}|$$

Clearly $x = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{\sqrt{7}}{3}$ is closest to $x_2 = 2$, so $x_3 = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{\sqrt{7}}{3}$.

2.) We are looking for l that maps $[-1, 1]$ to $[a, b]$, so $l(-1) = a$ and $l(1) = b$. Let $x \in [-1, 1]$. We see that $l(x) \in [a, b]$, so we will first stretch $[-1, 1]$ to be the same width as $[a, b]$ by multiplying x by $(\frac{b-a}{2})$. This gives $(\frac{b-a}{2})x$. Now we will shift x to start at a by adding $(\frac{b+a}{2})$. This gives $(\frac{b-a}{2})x + (\frac{b+a}{2})$. Define $l: [-1, 1] \rightarrow [a, b]$ by $l(x) = (\frac{b-a}{2})x + (\frac{b+a}{2})$. Then we see that

$$l(-1) = (\frac{b-a}{2})(-1) + (\frac{b+a}{2}) = -\frac{b-a}{2} + \frac{b+a}{2} = a$$

$$l(1) = (\frac{b-a}{2})(1) + (\frac{b+a}{2}) = \frac{b-a}{2} + \frac{b+a}{2} = b.$$

Thus l maps $[-1, 1]$ linearly onto $[a, b]$.

To find the interpolation points to use for $[a, b]$ we simply apply l to all of the Chebyshev interpolation points $x_j = \cos(\frac{j\pi}{n})$ since $x_j \in [-1, 1]$. This gives the points

$$x_i = (\frac{b-a}{2})\cos(\frac{i\pi}{n}) + (\frac{b+a}{2}).$$

3.) (see plots)

4.) In the plot of $\lambda_n(x)$ for part a we see that as n increases that the maximum value of $\lambda_n(x)$ grows extremely rapidly. Equation (2.59) in the text shows us that Λ_n gives us an upper bound for the error $\|f - p_n(f; \cdot)\|_\infty$ and $\Lambda_n = \|\lambda_n(x)\|_\infty$, so in this case Λ_n corresponds to the maximum value of $\lambda_n(x)$ on $[-1, 1]$. The points for part a are evenly spaced, which may not be the best choice if we would like p_n to closely resemble f on this interval. If we instead choose points like in part b that are more concentrated near the ends of the interval, we notice that the maximum value of $\lambda_n(x)$ grows much more slowly. This means that Λ_n also grows much slower than in part a, so our error bound is much smaller. This means we achieve a much better approximation of f . Intuitively, we see that in our plot of $\lambda_n(x)$ for part a that the largest values of $\lambda_n(x)$ lie close to the endpoints -1 and 1 , so by clustering more points around this area we greatly improve our approximation.

5) Proof: Show that the power x^n on the interval $-1 \leq x \leq 1$ can be uniformly approximated by a linear combination of powers $1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{n-1}$ with error $\leq 2^{-(n-1)}$. We know that the Chebyshev polynomials $T_n(x)$ have leading coefficient 2^{n-1} , so let

$$T_n(x) = 2^{n-1} x^n - p_{n-1}(x) \text{ for some } p_{n-1} \in P_{n-1}.$$

Then we see that

$$\frac{1}{2^{n-1}} T_n(x) = x^n - \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} p_{n-1}(x).$$

Define $q_{n-1} \in P_{n-1}$ such that $q_{n-1}(x) = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} p_{n-1}(x)$. Then we have

$$2^{-(n-1)} T_n(x) = x^n - q_{n-1}(x).$$

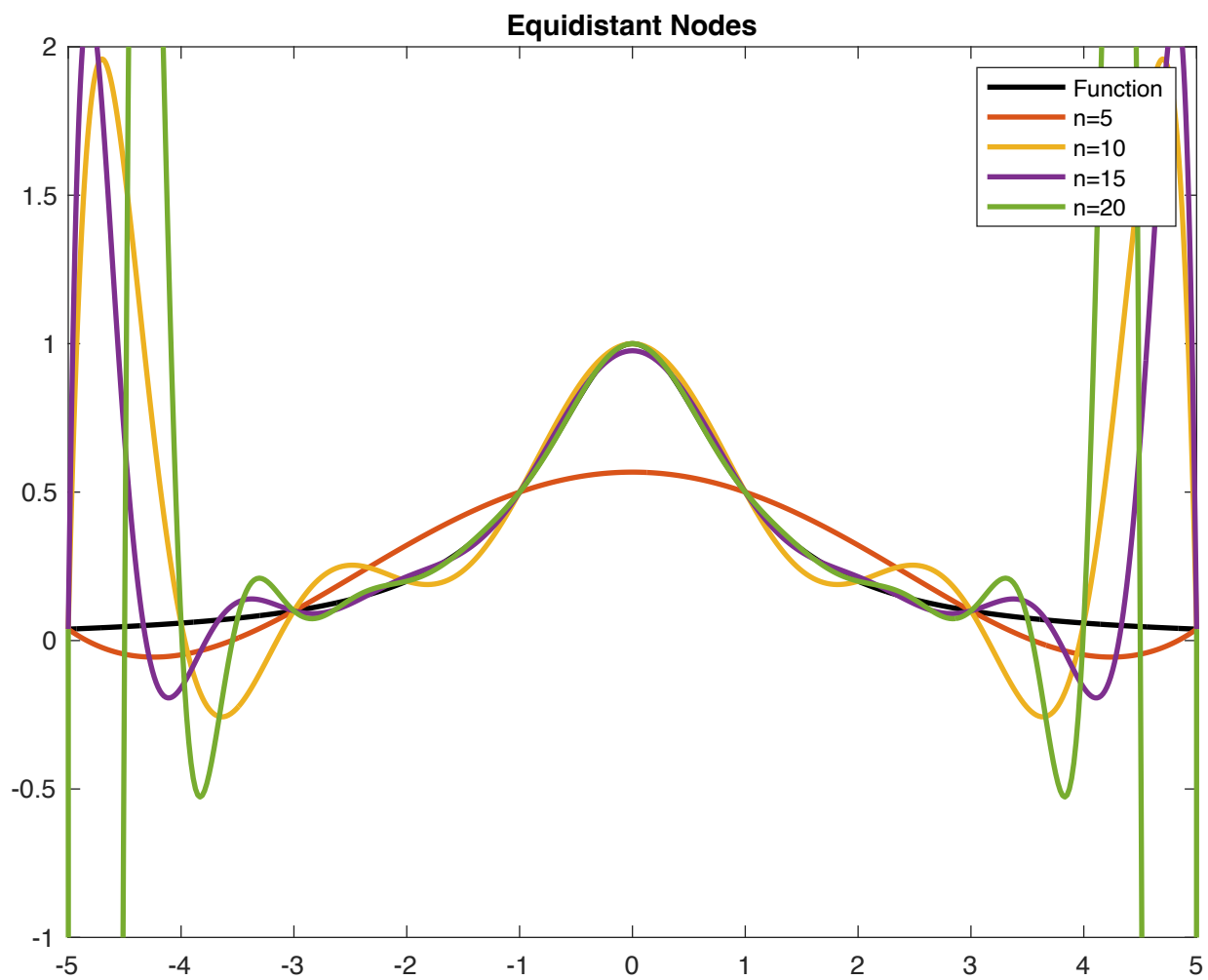
We know that $T_n(x) = \cos(n \cdot \cos^{-1} x)$ as well, so this means

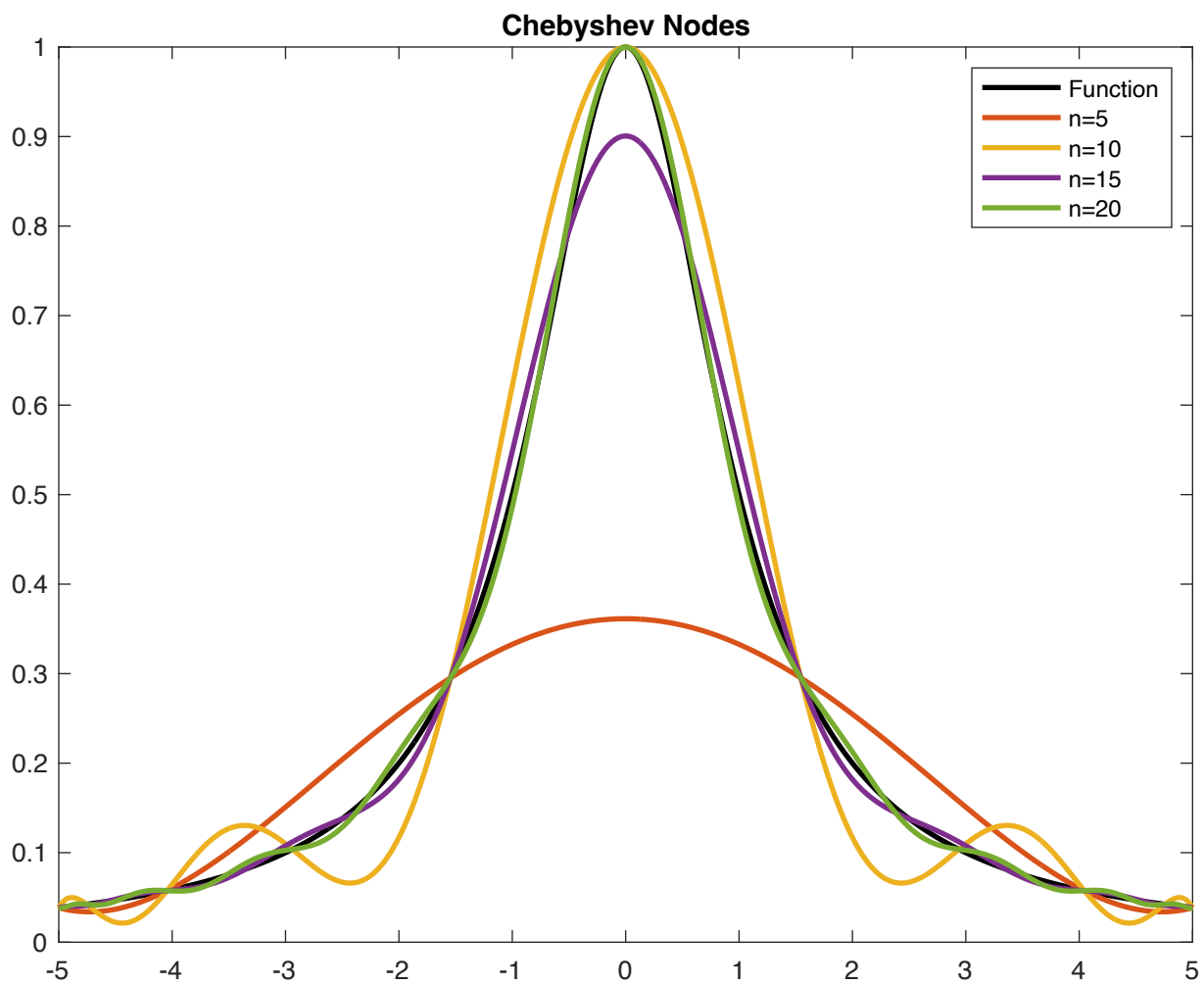
$$|T_n(x)| = |\cos(n \cdot \cos^{-1} x)| \leq 1.$$

Thus we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} |x^n - q_{n-1}(x)| &= |2^{-(n-1)} T_n(x)| = 2^{-(n-1)} |T_n(x)| = 2^{-(n-1)} |\cos(n \cdot \cos^{-1} x)| \\ &\leq 2^{-(n-1)} \cdot 1 = 2^{-(n-1)}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore there exists a linear combination of powers $1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{n-1}$ ($q_{n-1}(x)$) that uniformly approximates x^n on $-1 \leq x \leq 1$ with error $\leq 2^{-(n-1)}$. \square





Plot of the Difference $f(x) - p_{20}(x)$

