

# Numerical Methods

## DS288 and UMC201

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# Polynomial Least Squares

- Given a set of data  $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^m$ , to approximate it with an algebraic polynomial of degree  $n < m - 1$

$$P_n(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

- Choose the constants  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$  to minimize the least squares error  $E = E(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)$ , where

$$\begin{aligned} E &= \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - P_n(x_i))^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m y_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^m P_n(x_i) y_i + \sum_{i=1}^m (P_n(x_i))^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m y_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^m \left( \sum_{j=0}^n a_j x_i^j \right) y_i + \sum_{i=1}^m \left( \sum_{j=0}^n a_j x_i^j \right)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m y_i^2 - 2 \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \left( \sum_{i=1}^m y_i x_i^j \right) + \sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{k=0}^n a_j a_k \left( \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^{j+k} \right) \end{aligned}$$

# Polynomial Least Squares

- For  $E$  to be minimized,  $\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j} = 0$ , for each  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . Thus,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^m y_i x_i^j + 2 \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^{j+k} = 0$$

- We have  $n+1$  normal equations

$$\sum_{k=0}^n a_k \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^{j+k} = \sum_{i=1}^m y_i x_i^j, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

# Polynomial Least Squares

- The  $n + 1$  normal equations can be written as

$$a_0 \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^0 + a_1 \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^1 + a_2 \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^2 + \cdots + a_n \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^n = \sum_{i=1}^m y_i x_i^0$$

$$a_0 \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^1 + a_1 \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^2 + a_2 \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^3 + \cdots + a_n \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^{n+1} = \sum_{i=1}^m y_i x_i^1$$

⋮

$$a_0 \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^n + a_1 \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^{n+1} + a_2 \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^{n+2} + \cdots + a_n \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^{2n} = \sum_{i=1}^m y_i x_i^n.$$

which have a unique solution provided that  $x_i$  are distinct.

# Example

## Example

Fit the following data with a discrete least square polynomial of degree at most 2

$i$	1	2	3	4	5
$x$	0	0.25	0.50	0.75	1.00
$f(x)$	1.00	1.2840	1.6487	2.1170	2.7183

**Ans:**  $P_2(x) = 1.0051 + 0.86468x + 0.84316x^2$

# Polynomial Least Squares

- Assume that the data are exponentially related, i.e.,  $y = be^{ax}$ .
- The least squares error is

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - be^{ax_i})^2.$$

- And the respective normal equations

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial b} = -2e^{ax_i} \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - be^{ax_i}) = 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial a} = -2bx_i e^{ax_i} \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - bx_i^a) = 0.$$

- In general, exact solutions for the two equations may not get.
- The commonly used method is taking the logarithm of the approximating equation as  $\ln y = \ln b + ax$ .



## Section-8.2

# Orthogonal Polynomials and Least Squares Approximation

# Least Squares Approximation of functions

- Let  $f \in C[a, b]$ , and a polynomial  $P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k$  of degree at most  $n$  is required to minimize the error

$$E = \int_a^b [f(x) - P_n(x)]^2 dx$$

$$\text{Thus, } E = E(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) = \int_a^b \left( f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k \right)^2 dx$$

- A necessary condition to find real coefficients  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$ , that minimizes  $E$  is

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j} = 0, \text{ for each } j = 0, 1, \dots, n$$



# Least Squares Approximation of functions

- The least squares error is

$$E = \int_a^b [f(x)]^2 dx - 2 \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \int_a^b x^k f(x) dx + \int_a^b \left( \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k \right)^2 dx$$

Such that,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j} = -2 \int_a^b x^j f(x) dx + 2 \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \int_a^b x^{j+k} dx = 0$$

- To solve the following  $n+1$  linear normal equations to find  $P_n(x)$

$$\sum_{k=0}^n a_k \int_a^b x^{j+k} dx = \int_a^b x^j f(x) dx, \text{ for each } j = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

- A unique solution exists provided that  $f \in C[a, b]$ .

# Example

## Example

Find the least squares approximating polynomial of degree 2 for the function  $f(x) = \sin \pi x$  on the interval  $[0, 1]$ .

- Let  $f(x) = \sin \pi x$ ,  $x \in [0, 1]$ . We have to find the least squares approximating polynomial of degree 2
- Normal equations for  $P_2(x) = a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0$  are

$$a_0 \int_0^1 1 dx + a_1 \int_0^1 x dx + a_2 \int_0^1 x^2 dx = \int_0^1 \sin \pi x dx,$$

$$a_0 \int_0^1 x dx + a_1 \int_0^1 x^2 dx + a_2 \int_0^1 x^3 dx = \int_0^1 x \sin \pi x dx,$$

$$a_0 \int_0^1 x^2 dx + a_1 \int_0^1 x^3 dx + a_2 \int_0^1 x^4 dx = \int_0^1 x^2 \sin \pi x dx.$$



## Example

- The above three equations can be simplified to

$$a_0 + \frac{1}{2}a_1 + \frac{1}{3}a_2 = \frac{2}{\pi},$$

$$\frac{1}{2}a_0 + \frac{1}{3}a_1 + \frac{1}{4}a_2 = \frac{1}{\pi},$$

$$\frac{1}{3}a_0 + \frac{1}{4}a_1 + \frac{1}{5}a_2 = \frac{\pi^2 - 4}{\pi^3}.$$

- The solutions are

$$a_0 = \frac{12\pi^2 - 120}{\pi^3} \approx -0.050465, \text{ and } a_1 = -a_2 = \frac{720 - 60\pi^2}{\pi^3}$$
$$\approx 4.12251$$

- Hence, the least square approximating polynomial of degree 2 for  $f(x) = \sin \pi x, x \in [0, 1]$  is

$$P_2(x) = -4.12251x^2 + 4.12251x - 0.050465.$$

# Linearly Independent Function

## Definition

The set of functions  $\{\phi_0, \dots, \phi_n\}$  is said to be linearly independent on  $[a, b]$  if, whenever

$$c_0\phi_0 + c_1\phi_1 + \dots + c_n\phi_n = 0, \quad \text{for all } x \in [a, b]$$

Otherwise, the set of functions is said to be linearly dependent.

## Theorem

Suppose that for each  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ,  $\phi_j(x)$  is a polynomial of degree  $j$ . Then  $\{\phi_0, \dots, \phi_n\}$  is linearly independent on any interval  $[a, b]$ .



## Example

Let  $\phi_0(x) = 2$ ,  $\phi_1(x) = x - 3$ , and  $\phi_2(x) = x^2 + 2x + 7$ , and  $Q(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2$ . Show that there exist constants  $c_0$ ,  $c_1$ , and  $c_2$  such that  $Q(x) = c_0\phi_0(x) + c_1\phi_1(x) + c_2\phi_2(x)$ .

Here  $\{\phi_0, \phi_1, \phi_2\}$  is linearly independent on any interval  $[a, b]$ . First note that

$$1 = \frac{1}{2}\phi_0(x), \quad x = \phi_1(x) + 3 = \phi_1(x) + \frac{3}{2}\phi_0(x), \text{ and}$$

$$x^2 = \phi_2(x) - 2x - 7 = \phi_2(x) - 2\left[\phi_1(x) + \frac{3}{2}\phi_0(x)\right] - 7\left[\frac{1}{2}\phi_0(x)\right] \quad (1)$$

$$= \phi_2(x) - 2\phi_1(x) - \frac{13}{2}\phi_0(x). \quad (2)$$

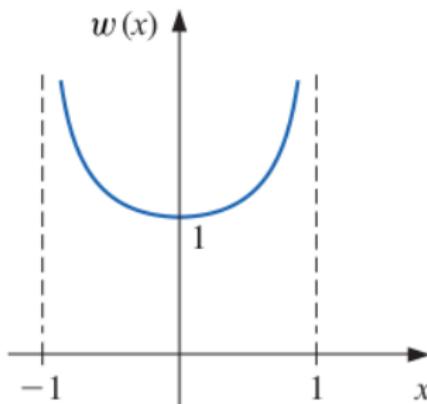
$$Q(x) = a_0\left[\frac{1}{2}\phi_0(x)\right] + a_1\left[\phi_1(x) + \frac{3}{2}\phi_0(x)\right] + a_2\left[\phi_2(x) - 2\phi_1(x) - \frac{13}{2}\phi_0(x)\right] \quad (3)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{2}a_0 + \frac{3}{2}a_1 - \frac{13}{2}a_2\right)\phi_0(x) + [a_1 - 2a_2]\phi_1(x) + a_2\phi_2(x).$$

# Orthogonal Functions

**Definition:** An integrable function  $w$  is called a **weight function** on the interval  $I$ , if  $w(x) \geq 0$ , for all  $x \in I$ , but  $w(x) \neq 0$  on any subinterval of  $I$ .

- Purpose is to assign varying degrees of importance to approximations on certain portions of the interval.
- **Example:**  $w(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$  places less emphasis near the center of the interval  $(-1, 1)$ , and more when  $|x|$  is near 1



# Orthogonal Functions

## Definition

$\{\phi_0, \phi_1, \dots, \phi_n\}$  is an **orthogonal set of functions** for the interval  $[a, b]$  with respect to the weight function  $w$  if

$$\int_a^b w(x) \phi_k(x) \phi_j(x) dx = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{when } j \neq k, \\ \alpha_j > 0, & \text{when } j = k \end{cases}.$$

If in addition,  $\alpha_j = 1$ , the set is said to be **orthonormal**.

- Let  $\{\phi_0, \phi_1, \dots, \phi_n\}$  is a set of LI functions on  $[a, b]$ .
- $w$  is a weight function for  $[a, b]$
- Given  $f \in C[a, b]$ , we need to find a linear combination

$$P(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \phi_k(x) \quad \text{to minimize the error}$$

# Orthogonal Functions

- Let  $E = E(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) = \int_a^b w(x) \left[ f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \phi_k(x) \right]^2 dx$
- The necessary condition is

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j} = 2 \int_a^b w(x) \left[ f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \phi_k(x) \right] \phi_j(x) dx = 0$$

- The system of normal equations for  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$  is

$$\int_a^b w(x) f(x) \phi_j(x) dx = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \int_a^b w(x) \phi_k(x) \phi_j(x) dx$$

- Choose the functions  $\phi_j(x)$ , such that

$$\int_a^b w(x) \phi_k(x) \phi_j(x) dx = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{when } j \neq k \\ \alpha_j > 0, & \text{when } j = k \end{cases}$$

# Orthogonal Functions

- The above chosen  $\phi_j(x), j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ , the normal equations reduce to

$$\int_a^b w(x)f(x)\phi_j(x)dx = a_j \int_a^b w(x)[\phi_j(x)]^2 dx = a_j \alpha_j$$

- Solving the above equations, we get

$$a_j = \frac{1}{\alpha_j} \int_a^b w(x)f(x)\phi_j(x)dx$$

# Least Squares Approximation

- If functions whose values are given at  $n + 1$  points  $x_0, \dots, x_n$

$$E = E(a_0, \dots, a_n) = \sum_{k=0}^n w(x_k) \left[ f(x_k) - \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \phi_k(x_k) \right]^2 dx \text{ minimum}$$

- If functions are continuous on  $[a, b]$  then

$$E = E(a_0, \dots, a_n) = \int_a^b w(x) \left[ f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \phi_k(x) \right]^2 dx \text{ minimum}$$

## Example

- Find a linear polynomial approximation to  $f(x) = x^3$  on the interval  $[0, 1]$  using the least squares approximation with  $w(x) = 1$ .
- Find the least squares approximation of second degree for the descrete data

$x$	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	15	1	1	3	19

# Chapter-4

## Numerical Differentiation and Integration



# Numerical Differentiation

- The derivative represents the rate of change of a dependent variable with respect to an independent variable.
- Integration is the inverse of differentiation
- Looking for ways to approximate function derivatives with combinations of function evaluations at discrete points.

**Recall:** Secant Method and Taylor series

➤ Secant Method

$$f'(x_n) = \frac{f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})}{x_n - x_{n-1}}$$

➤ Expand  $f(x)$  about  $x_j$ , the point where derivative is needed

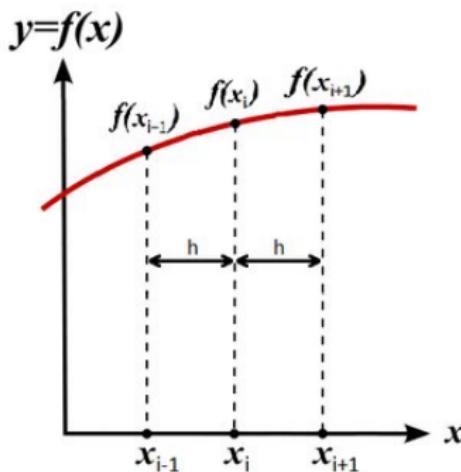
$$f(x) = f(x_j) + f'(x_j)(x - x_j) + \frac{f''(x_j)}{2!}(x - x_j)^2 + \dots \quad (5)$$

# Numerical Differentiation

- Define  $h = x_{j+1} - x_j$ , use notation  $f_j = f(x_j)$
- Let  $x = x_{j+1}$  in the above equation (5)

$$f(x_{j+1}) = f(x_j) + f'(x_j)(x_{j+1} - x_j) + \frac{f''(x_j)}{2!}(x_{j+1} - x_j)^2 + \dots$$

$$f_{j+1} = f_j + hf'_j + h^2 \frac{f''(x_j)}{2!} + h^3 \frac{f'''(x_j)}{3!} + \dots$$



# Numerical Differentiation

- If  $h$  is small, then higher order terms ( $f_j'', f_j''' \dots$ ) will diminish faster.
- $f'_j = \frac{f_{j+1} - f_j}{h} + O(h)$ , where  $O(h)$  error term
- Indeed,  $f'_j = \frac{f_{j+1} - f_j}{h} - \frac{hf''(\zeta)}{2!}$ , where  $\zeta \in [x_j, x_{j+1}]$
- Define:  $\Delta f_j = f_{j+1} - f_j$  (First Forward Difference)

## Backward

- Use  $x = x_{j-1}$  for the equation (5) and  $h = x_j - x_{j-1}$
- $f'_j = \frac{f_j - f_{j-1}}{h} - \frac{hf''(\zeta)}{2!}$ , where  $\zeta \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]$
- Define:  $\nabla f_j = f_{j-1} - f_j$  (First Backward Difference)

Thus we can write  $f'_j = \frac{\Delta f_j}{h}$  and  $f'_j = \frac{\nabla f_j}{h}$

# Central Difference

- The quadratic term in the Taylor series.

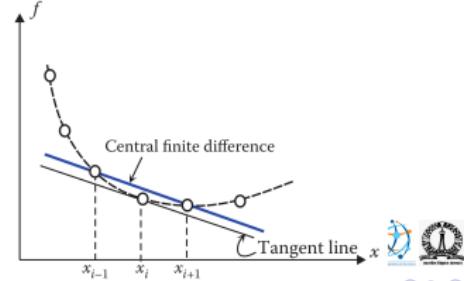
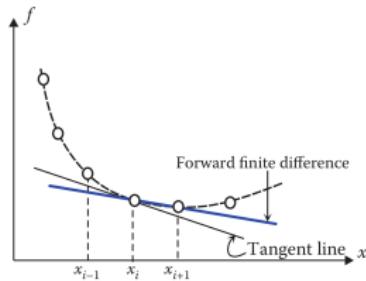
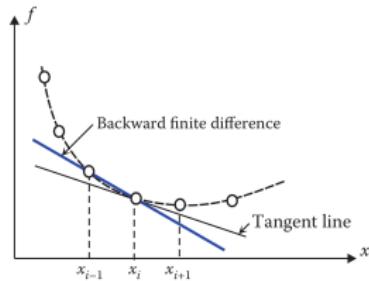
$$f_{j-1} = f_j - hf'_j + h^2 \frac{f''}{2!} - h^3 \frac{f'''(\zeta)}{3!} \quad \text{where } \zeta \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]$$

$$f_{j+1} = f_j + hf'_j + h^2 \frac{f''}{2!} + h^3 \frac{f'''(\eta)}{3!} \quad \text{where } \zeta \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]$$

- Subtracting the first equation from the second

$$f_{j+1} - f_{j-1} = 2hf'_j + \frac{1}{3!}h^3[f'''(\zeta) + f'''(\eta)]$$

- Solving for  $f'_j$  gives:  $f'_j = \frac{f_{j+1} - f_{j-1}}{2h} + O(h^2)$



# Second Derivatives

- Consider  $x = x_{j+2}$

$$f_{j+1} = f_j + hf'_j + h^2 \frac{f''}{2!} + h^3 \frac{f'''(\eta)}{3!} \quad \text{where } \zeta \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]$$

$$f_{j+2} = f_j + 2hf'_j + (2h)^2 \frac{f''}{2!} + (2h)^3 \frac{f'''(\zeta)}{3!}, \quad \text{here } x_{j+2} - x_j = 2h$$

- Solve for  $f''_j$ , we get

$$f_{j+2} - f_{j+1} = -f_j + h^2 f''_j + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow f''_j = \frac{f_{j+2} - 2f_{j+1} + f_j}{h^2} + O(h) \quad \text{where } \zeta \in [x_j, x_{j+2}]$$

- On the other hand

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta^2 f_j &= \Delta(\Delta f_j) = \Delta(f_{j+1} - f_j) = \Delta(f_{j+1}) - \Delta(f_j) \\ &= f_{j+2} - f_{j+1} - (f_{j+1} - f_j) = f_{j+2} - 2f_{j+1} + f_j\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $f''_j = \frac{\Delta^2 f_j}{h^2}$



# Second Derivatives

- Similarly, backward approximation  $f_j'' = \frac{\nabla^2 f_j}{h^2}$
- Further, we need 3 term Taylor expansions to evaluate  $f_j'''$

$$f_j''' = \frac{f_{j+3} - 3f_{j+2} + 3f_{j+1} - f_j}{h^3} + O(h)$$

- In general, one can construct approximation to  $n^{th}$  order derivative of  $f$  at  $x_j$ .
- To accuracy  $O(h)$  using the weighted sum of  $n$  Taylor expansions requiring  $n + 1$  function evaluations to  $O(h)$  [true for both forward and backward.]
- We can conclude the higher order  $h$  means higher accuracy

# Higher Order Accuracy

- The three-point forward difference formula approximates the first derivative at  $x_i$  by using the values at the points  $x_i$ ,  $x_{i+1}$ , and  $x_{i+2}$

$$f'_j = \frac{-3f_j + 4f_{i+1} - f_{i+2}}{2h} + O(h^2)$$

## Example

Consider the data generated by the function  $f(x) = e^{-x} \sin(x/2)$  at  $x = 1.2, 1.4, 1.6, 1.8..$ . Calculate approximate  $f'(1.4)$  using the backward, forward, and central difference formula and their relative error.

Difference Formula	Approximate $f'(1.4)$	% Relative Error
Two-point backward	$\frac{f(1.4) - f(1.2)}{0.2} = -0.0560$	13.22
Two-point forward	$\frac{f(1.6) - f(1.4)}{0.2} = -0.0702$	8.66
Two-point central	$\frac{f(1.6) - f(1.2)}{2(0.2)} = -0.0631$	2.28
Three-point forward	$\frac{-3f(1.4) + 4f(1.6) - f(1.8)}{2(0.2)} = -0.0669$	3.56

**ANY  
QUESTIONS?**