

# Lecture 5: Lagrange Basis

#### Today:

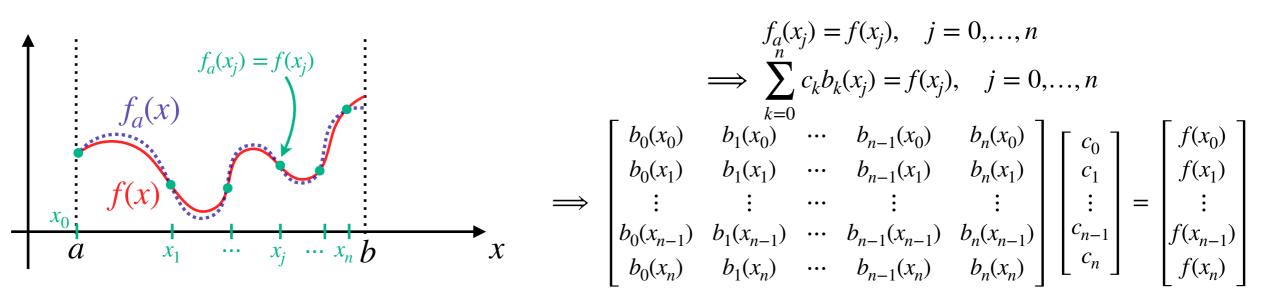
- A useful choice of interpolation points Chebyshev points
- Lagrange basis for (global) polynomial interpolation

### Reminder from last week: Where are we with approximating functions?

#### We obtained a protocol for function interpolation...

$$f_a(x) = c_0 b_0(x) + c_1 b_1(x) + \dots + c_n b_n(x)$$

- (A) Pick a vector space,  $f(x) \in \mathcal{V}$ , and a subspace,  $f_a(x) \in \mathcal{W}$ .
- (B) Pick a basis for that subspace,  $\mathcal{B} = \{b_0(x), b_1(x), ..., b_n(x)\}.$
- (C) Break domain [a, b] into n + 1 interpolation points
- (D) Require:  $f_a(x_j) = f(x_j)$  at the interpolation points  $x_j$  n+1 equations and n+1 unknowns



- (E) Solve linear system for the coefficients  $c_0, ..., c_n$
- (F) We now have our interpolant,  $f_a(x)$ !

## Write as $\mathbf{Ac} = \mathbf{f}$

#### Questions for today:

- What interpolation points should we use?
- What basis should we use?



## Interpolation points

# Choice of interpolation points

The intuitive choice: we might naturally want to use equispaced points

$$x_j = a + j \frac{(b-a)}{n}, \quad j = 0, ..., n$$

This choice works OK for small n

Can lead to *catastrophic failures* for high n (HW 1)

A much better choice: Chebyshev point distribution

$$x_j = \frac{1}{2}(a+b) + \frac{1}{2}(b-a)\cos\left(\frac{j\pi}{n}\right), \quad j = 0,...,n$$

Rationale for why this point distribution is better: subtle, not covered in class

**But,** we will see that it is better in HW 1



## Lagrange Basis

### What basis to use for *polynomial* interpolation

We motivated polynomial interpolation using the **monomial basis**  $\mathcal{B}_m = \{1, x, x^2, ..., x^n\}$ We will find in HW 1 that this basis is not well suited to numerical computations

A better basis is the **Lagrange basis**,  $\mathcal{B}_l = \{L_0(x), L_1(x), ..., L_n(x)\}$ , where

$$\prod_{j=0}^{n} (x - x_j)$$

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

$$j \neq i$$

That's a mouthful! Let's look at a concrete example...

Take n = 2 and i = 0. Then we have

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)}$$

## Activity: Lagrange basis functions

$$L_i(x) = \frac{\prod_{j=0}^n (x - x_j)}{\prod_{j=0}^n (x_i - x_j)}$$

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)}$$

$$i \neq i$$

(A) How many Lagrange basis polynomials are there for n=2? Write them out.

There are three basis polynomials. The basis for  $\mathscr{P}^2[a,b]$  is  $\mathscr{B}=\{L_0(x),L_1(x),L_2(x)\}$ 

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)}, L_1(x) = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)}, L_2(x) = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)}$$

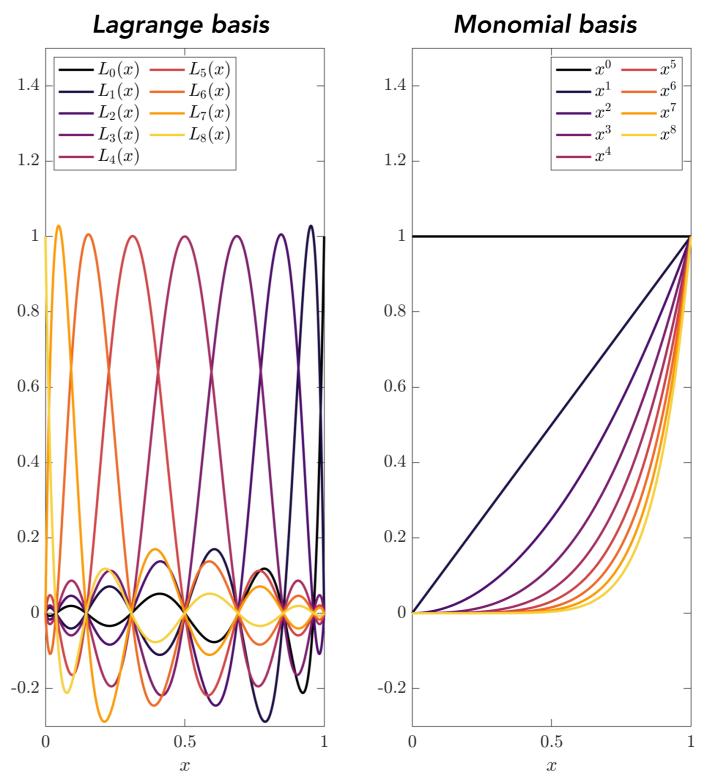
(B) What type of polynomial is each  $L_i(x)$ ?

Each polynomial is a degree 2 polynomial. (More generally, for  $\mathcal{P}^n[a,b]$ , each  $L_i(x)$  is a degree-n polynomial)

#### Why is the Lagrange basis superior to the monomial basis?

**Activity**. Consider the images containing the first nine monomial and Lagrange basis functions. From these images, hypothesize why you think the Lagrange basis is superior

for doing computations.

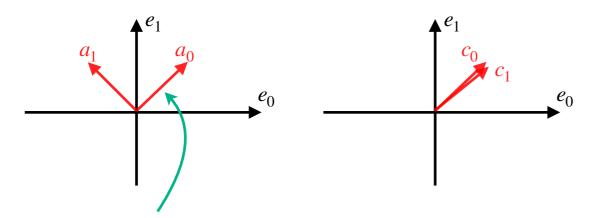


#### Discussion about superiority of Lagrange basis

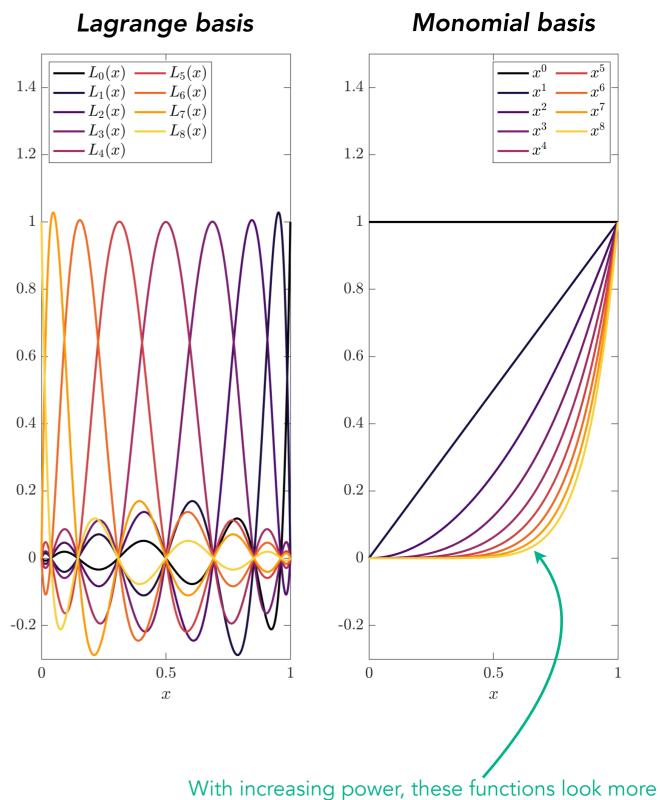
The Lagrange basis functions are *more* linearly independent than the monomials.

⇒ better for numerical computation

This is a perfect analogy to basis vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ 



This is a better basis to work with!



With increasing power, these functions look more and more similar!

### Using Lagrange basis functions in interpolation

We have defined Lagrange basis functions and given intuition for why they are a good basis to use.

But how do we construct our approximation  $f_a(x)$  using this basis?

The procedure is the same as before!

- (A) Pick a vector space,  $\mathcal{V} = C[a, b]$ , and a subspace,  $\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{P}^n[a, b]$ .
- (B) Pick a basis for that subspace,  $\mathcal{B}_{l} = \{L_{0}(x), L_{1}(x), ..., L_{n}(x)\}.$
- (C) Break domain [a, b] into n + 1 interpolation points
- (D) Require:  $f_a(x_i) = f(x_i)$  at the interpolation points  $x_i$

We can say more about these entries in A!

### How to interpolate with the Lagrange basis

So to interpolate with the Lagrange basis we need to solve for the coefficients from

$$\begin{bmatrix} L_{0}(x_{0}) & L_{1}(x_{0}) & \cdots & L_{n-1}(x_{0}) & L_{n}(x_{0}) \\ L_{0}(x_{1}) & L_{1}(x_{1}) & \cdots & L_{n-1}(x_{1}) & L_{n}(x_{1}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ L_{0}(x_{n-1}) & L_{1}(x_{n-1}) & \cdots & L_{n-1}(x_{n-1}) & L_{n}(x_{n-1}) \\ L_{0}(x_{n}) & L_{1}(x_{n}) & \cdots & L_{n-1}(x_{n}) & L_{n}(x_{n}) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_{0} \\ c_{1} \\ \vdots \\ c_{n-1} \\ c_{n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f(x_{0}) \\ f(x_{1}) \\ \vdots \\ f(x_{n-1}) \\ f(x_{n}) \end{bmatrix}$$

But the entries in the matrix are just  $L_i(x_i)$  where i is the column and j is the row

Magic: 
$$L_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & else \end{cases}$$

We can build intuition for this being true by returning to the case where n=2 and i=1. Then we have  $= 0 \text{ when } x = x_1, x = x_2$ 

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)}$$

Identity matrix

$$\implies \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \implies \mathbf{A}\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{f} \implies c = \mathbf{f} \implies c_j = f(x_j)$$

# Important distinction!

There are two **separate** issues that we addressed today that affect accuracy of polynomial interpolation. The accuracy of our **polynomial interpolant**,  $f_a(x)$ , is influenced by:

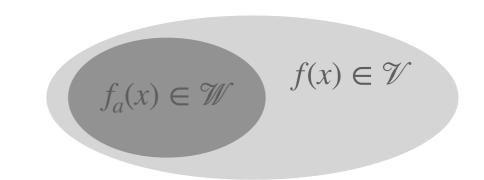
- (A) The choice of point distribution. This deals with the accuracy of the polynomial interpolant itself. If a uniform distribution is used, the interpolant will (often) be an inaccurate approximation of the true f(x).
- (B) The choice of basis. This does not, in principle, change the polynomial interpolant. In infinite precision, we would get exactly the same interpolant irrespective of the basis used! The issue is that to compute the interpolant we solve the system  $\mathbf{Ac} = \mathbf{f}$  on a computer.
  - ullet Certain bases (like the monomial basis) lead to an  $lack{A}$  that is nearly not invertible, so that when a computer rounds off its answers, there are *large* errors in the computed coefficients.
  - ullet Other bases (like the Lagrange basis) lead to an lack A that is trivially invertible so that the coefficients can. Be computed to very high accuracy!

### Summary of function approximation concepts

#### Function approximation concepts...

**Vector space** — used to represent f(x)

**Subspace** — used to restrict representation of  $f_a(x)$ 



Inner product — used to define a norm — used to measure approximation error **Basis functions** — used to represent  $f_a(x)$  such that we can solve for coefficients



$$||e|| = \sqrt{(e,e)}$$

$$||e|| = \sqrt{(e,e)}$$
  $f_a(x) = c_0 b_0(x) + c_1 b_1(x) + \dots + c_n b_n(x)$ 

Interpolation

**Function approximation methods...** How do we choose  $b_0(x), b_1(x), ..., b_n(x)$ and solve for  $c_0, c_1, ..., c_n$ ? n+1 equations and

n + 1 unknowns

Polynomial interpolation,  $f_a(x) \in \mathcal{P}^n[a,b]$ 

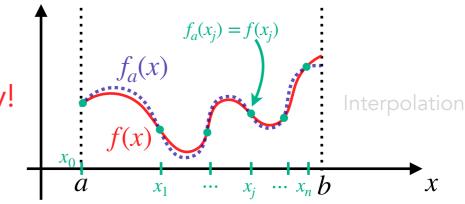
Global: monomial basi Lagrange basis

Local: cubic spline

Today!

Trigonometric interpolation,  $f_a(x) \in \mathcal{T}^n[a,b]$ 

**Least Squares** 



$$f(x) \in C[a,b]$$
  $f_a(x) \in \mathcal{P}^n[a,b]$ 

$$f_a(x) = c_0 L_0(x) + c_1 L_1(x) + \dots + c_n L_n(x)$$