Chapter 3: Approximation

Interpolation

- functions in chapter 1:
 - evaluation of function values f(x) and Ax
 - approximation of real numbers and arithmetic expressions
- functions in chapter 2:
 - computing zeros x^* of functions, i.e., solution of equations Ax = b and f(x) = 0
 - using functions F(x) for iterative methods $x^{(k+1)} = F(x^{(k)})$
 - approximation of zeros x*
- chapter 3:
 - ▶ approximation of functions u(x) by simpler functions, in particular polynomials

Functions in scientific computing

- functions are not only arithmetic expressions
- they may solve complicated equations and usually are not known explicitely
 - they need to be approximated
 - these approximations are then used for predictions, diagnosis and decisions
- some functions are univariate, and for example depend on time
 - average temperature, blood pressure
- other functions vary spatially
 - hyper-spectrum of pasture or forest
 - flow speeds of water in ocean
- many functions also depend on various parameters
 - flow through soil and rocks depends on density and other paramters
- some functions are random

- fundamentally, a function is a mapping $u: X \to Y$ with domain X and range Y
- ▶ here we will mostly consider $X = \mathbb{R}^d$ and $Y = \mathbb{R}$
- there are now a variety of ways on how to determine a function.
 - they may be specified by a formula like $u(x) = \exp(-2x)$.
 - they may be defined implicitely, as the solution of some partial differential equation like $\Delta u = f$
 - one may only have partial and indirect information (measurements) of a function
- some functions satisfy equations with unknown parameters which may be determined from observations

Functions in Python

one-liners using lambda

```
u = lambda x : x*x
```

Python procedures

```
def u(x):
    y = x*x
    return y
```

imported from Python modulesfrom math import exp

Polynomial evaluation

Polynomials, their representation and evaluation

mathematical form of polynomial

$$p_n(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n$$

simple python code

```
def pn(x,a):
    y = 0.0
    n = a.shape[0]
    for k in range(n):
        y += a[k]*x**k
    return y
```

```
# timing polynomial evaluation
def pn(x,a):
    y = 0.0
    n = a.shape[0]
    for k in range(n):
        y += a[k]*x**k
    return y
%%timeit
from numpy.random import random, seed;
n= 200; x = random(); a = random(n)
y = pn(x,a) # timing polynomial
1000 loops, best of 3: 423 µs per loop
```

Using Cython to be faster

```
%%cython
import cython
cimport cython
# timing polynomial evaluation
def pc0(x,a):
    y = 0.0
    n = a.shape[0]
    for k in range(n):
        y += a[k]*x**k
    return y
%%timeit
from numpy.random import random, seed;
n = 200; x = random(); a = random(n)
y = pc0(x,a) # timing polynomial
1000 loops, best of 3: 336 µs per loop
```

Typing

- Python uses dynamic typing, where the type of each object is determined at run time
- C uses static typing, the type of each object needs to be specified explicitely
- Cython can do both but dynamic typing may prevent code optimisation
 - for efficient code, type all objects explicitely except where one actually requires dynamically typed objects

```
%%cython
cimport numpy as np
def pnc(np.float64 t x,\)
        np.ndarray[np.float64 t, ndim=1] a):
    cdef int k
    cdef int n = a.shape[0]
    cdef np.float64_t y = 0
    for k in range(n):
        v += a[k]*x**k
    return v
%%timeit
from numpy.random import random; n= 200;\
      x = random(): a = random(n)
y = pnc(x,a) # timing polynomial
10000 loops, best of 3: 62.8 µs per loop
```

how to get faster code

- computational hardware costs substantially reduced in recent years
- code transformations used by compilers to get faster code
- faster code often by exploiting the distributive law

$$(a+b)c = ac + bc$$

application to polynomial evaluation: Horner's rule

$$p_n(x) = a_0 + x(a_1 + x(a_2 + x(a_3 + \cdots)))$$

fast polynomial evaluation with Horner's method

```
def pnh(x,a):
    n = a.shape[0]
    y = 0.0
    for k in range(n):
        y = x*y + a[n-k-1]
    return y
%%timeit
from numpy.random import random, seed;
n=200; x = random(); a = random(n)
y = pnh(x,a)
1000 loops, best of 3: 184 µs per loop
```

```
%%cython
import numpy as np
cimport numpy as np
# two versions: pnc for scalar x and png for vector xq
def pnc(np.float64_t x, np.ndarray[np.float64_t, ndim=1] a
    cdef int k
    cdef int n = a.shape[0]
    cdef np.float64 t y = 0
    for k in range(n):
        y = x*y + a[n-k-1]
    return y
```

```
%%cython
import numpy as np
cimport numpy as np
from __main__ import pnc
def png(np.ndarray[np.float64_t, ndim=1] xg, np.ndarray[np
    cdef int k
    cdef int ng = xg.shape[0]
    cdef int n = a.shape[0]
    cdef np.ndarray[np.float64_t, ndim=1] yg = np.zeros(ng)
    for i in range(ng):
        for k in range(n):
            vg[i] = xg[i]*vg[i] + a[n-k-1]
    return yg
```

```
# testing
from numpy.random import random
n=200; x = random(); a = random(n)
print(pnc(x,a)-pnh(x,a))
0.0
%%timeit
from numpy.random import random;
n=200; x = random(); a = random(n)
y = pnc(x,a) # timing polynomial
10000 loops, best of 3: 32.3 µs per loop
```

Polynomial approximation and the Taylor polynomial

Weierstrass' theorem

Every continuous function over a finite interval can be approximated arbitrarily well by a polynomial of sufficiently high degree.

- we do not know in advance how high the degree has to be
- polynomial approximation works well for very smooth functions
- no quantitative error bound
- several proofs, including one using probability theory!

Taylor remainder theorem If u(x) is n+1 times continuously differentiable in [a,b] then for all $x \in [a,b]$ there exists a $\xi \in [a,b]$ such that

$$u(x) = u(a) + u'(a)(x - a) + \frac{u''(a)}{2}(x - a)^{2} + \dots + \frac{u^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x - a)^{n} + \frac{u^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}(x - a)^{n+1}$$

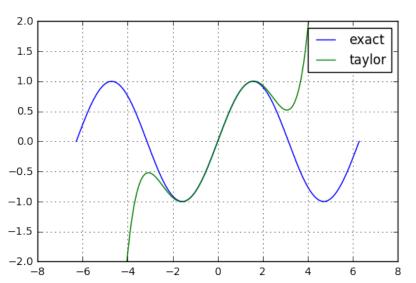
▶ if $|u^{(n+1)}(x)| \le C$ for all $x \in [a, b]$ then error of Taylor polynomial is bounded by

$$C\frac{(b-a)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

```
# Taylor series y = sin(x) around x=0
from math import pi
n = 6
# compute taylor coefficients
taycoeff = np.ones(n)
taycoeff[::2] = 0
taycoeff[3::4] *= -1
taycoeff[1:] /= np.cumprod(np.arange(1,n))
uex = np.sin
ut = lambda x, a=taycoeff, p = png: p(x, a) # taylor approx
xg = np.linspace(-2*pi,2*pi,128)
yg = np.sin(xg)
print('time for evaluation:')
\%timeit -r 1 ygt = ut(xg)
ygt = ut(xg)
time for evaluation:
```

The slowest run took 12.68 times longer than the fastes test is

```
plt.grid('on'); plt.axis(ymin = -2, ymax = 2)
plt.plot(xg,yg, label="exact"); plt.plot(xg, ygt, label="ta");
```



Polynomial Interpolation

Collocation

Proposition

There is exactly one polynomial p_n of degree n which satisfies the interpolation conditions

$$p_n(x_k) = y_k, \quad k = 0, \ldots, n$$

if all x_k are distinct

Proof by construction, will give 3 different approaches below which choose three different sets of basis functions for the linear space of polynomials of degree n

Approach 1: power basis x^k

• if $p_n(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n$, then the interpolation conditions lead to a linear system of equations for the a_k :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \cdots & x_0^n \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & \cdots & x_n^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ the matrix X of this system is a Vandermonde matrix
- **Proposition:** if no two x_k are the same then X is invertible

Example: linear interpolation

Example

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

i	0	1	2
X_i	0	0.5	2
Уi	0.2	0.6	-1.0

• system of equations for a_k :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0.5 & 0.25 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 \\ 0.6 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ solution $a_0 = 1/5$, $a_1 = 19/15$ and $a_2 = -14/15$
- interpolating polynomial

$$p_2(x) = 1/5 + 19/15x + -14/15x^2$$

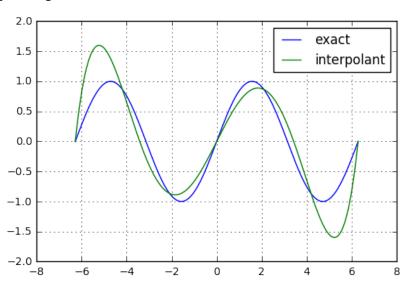
```
# polynomial interpolant

n = 6

xpts = np.linspace(-2*pi,2*pi,n+1)
ypts = uex(xpts)
# Collocation matrix
A = []
for i in range(n+1):
    A.append(xpts**i)
A = np.array(A).T
```

```
# solve problem
print('time for computing polynomial coefficients:')
%timeit -r 1 coeffs = nla.solve(A,ypts)
coeffs = nla.solve(A,vpts)
# interpolant: ui
ui = lambda x, a=coeffs, p = png, n=n : p(x, a, n)
xg = np.linspace(-2*pi, 2*pi, 128); yg = np.sin(xg);
print('time for evaluation:')
%timeit -r 1 ygi = ui(xg)
ygi = ui(xg)
time for computing polynomial coefficients:
The slowest run took 158.51 times longer than the fastest.
10000 loops, best of 1: 66.3 µs per loop
time for evaluation:
10000 loops, best of 1: 29.3 µs per loop
```

```
plt.grid('on'); plt.axis(ymin = -2, ymax = 2)
plt.plot(xg,yg, label="exact"); plt.plot(xg, ygi, label="in")
plt.legend();
```



Approach 2: cardinal basis l_j

basis functions

$$I_j(x) = \prod_{k \neq j} \frac{x - x_k}{x_j - x_k}$$

- ▶ this forms a basis of the linear space of polynomials of degree n if the x_k are all distinct
- collocation matrix is identity
- basis functions satisfy

$$I_j(x_k) = \delta_{j,k}$$

where $\delta_{i,k}$ is Kronecker delta

- thus they are the solution of a special interpolation problem
- interpolation polynomial

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

- no need to solve any equations!
- also called the Lagrange form of the interpolation polynomial

Derivation of the Lagrangian (or cardinal) functions $l_i(x)$

- ▶ aim: compute $l_j(x)$, a polynomial of degree n which satisfies $l_j(x_k) = \delta_{j,k}$
- ▶ property: $l_i(x)$ is zero for all $x = x_k$ except $x = x_i$
- consequence:

$$I_j(x) = c_j \prod_{k \neq j} (x - x_k)$$

where the product is to be taken over all k = 0, ..., n excluding k = j

property:

$$I_j(x_j) = c_j \prod_{k \neq j} (x_j - x_k) = 1$$

consequence:

$$c_j = \left(\prod_{k \neq j} (x_j - x_k)\right)^{-1}$$

Example: linear interpolation

Example - cardinal functions

for the data points

the cardinal functions are

$$I_0(x) = \frac{(x-0.5)(x-2)}{(0-0.5)(0-2)} = (x-0.5)(x-2),$$

$$I_1(x) = \frac{(x-0)(x-2)}{(0.5-0)(0.5-2)} = -\frac{4}{3}x(x-2),$$

$$I_2(x) = \frac{(x-0)(x-0.5)}{(2-0)(2-0.5)} = \frac{1}{3}x(x-0.5).$$

Example – Lagrangian interpolant

$$p_2(x) = 0.2 * l_0(x) + 0.6 * l_1(x) - l_2(x)$$

- verification:
 - 1. $p_2(x)$ has degree at most 2
 - 2. satisfies interpolation conditions

$$p_{n}(x_{j}) = y_{0}l_{0}(x_{j}) + \dots + y_{j}l_{j}(x_{j}) + \dots + y_{n}l_{n}(x_{j})$$

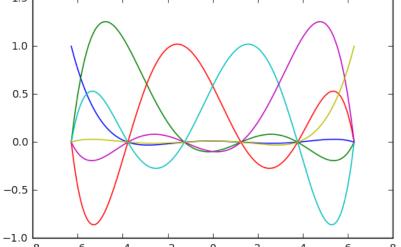
$$= y_{0} \cdot 0 + \dots + y_{j} \cdot 1 + \dots + y_{n} \cdot 0$$

$$= y_{j}$$

- uniqueness of this interpolant:
 - ▶ suppose p(x) and q(x) both satisfy collocation equations
 - ▶ then r(x) = p(x) q(x) is a polynomial of degree at most n
 - ▶ and r(x) has n+1 roots $x_0 \ldots x_n$
 - thus r(x) must be identically zero, and so p = q

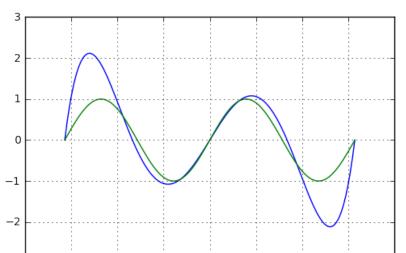
```
%%cvthon
import numpy as np
cimport numpy as np
def eval_lj(np.ndarray[np.float64_t,ndim=1] xpts, \
            np.ndarray[np.float64_t,ndim=1] xg):
    cdef int ng = xg.shape[0]
    cdef int npts = xpts.shape[0]
    cdef np.ndarray[np.float64 t,ndim=2] \
                    lj = np.ones((ng,npts))
    cdef int i
    cdef int j
    cdef int k
    for i in range(npts):
        for j in range(npts):
            if (i != j):
                for k in range(ng):
                    lj[k,i] *= (xg[k]-xpts[j])
                               /(xpts[i]-xpts[j])
    return li
```

```
# Lagrangian or cardinal polynomials lj(x)
npts = 6; xpts = np.linspace(-2*pi,2*pi,npts)
ypts = uex(xpts); ng = 128; xg = np.linspace(-2*pi,2*pi,ng)
ljg = eval_lj(xpts,xg);
for j in range(npts): plt.plot(xg,ljg[:,j])
  1.5
  1.0
```



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```
print('time for polynomial evaluation:')
%timeit -r 1 yg = np.dot(eval_lj(xpts,xg),ypts.T)
plt.plot(xg, np.dot(eval_lj(xpts,xg),ypts.T),xg,uex(xg)); ]
time for polynomial evaluation:
10000 loops, best of 1: 150 µs per loop
```



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Approach 3: Newton's basis $n_j(x)$

▶ basis functions $n_0(x) = 1$ and

$$n_{j+1}(x) = \prod_{k=0}^{j} (x - x_k)$$

- collocation matrix is triangular
- ▶ interpolant for points $(x_0, y_0), \ldots, (x_k, y_k)$:

$$p_k(x) = \sum_{j=0}^k c_j n_j(x)$$

NB: the c_i are independent of k!

- first polynomial $p_0(x) = y_0$
- recursion

$$p_{k+1}(x) = p_k(x) + c_{k+1}n_{k+1}(x)$$

• substituting $x = x_{k+1}$ to get

$$c_{k+1} = \frac{y_{k+1} - p_k(x_{k+1})}{n_{k+1}(x_{k+1})}$$

Example: linear interpolant

Example Polynomial Interpolation

same interpolation points

i	0	1	2
x _i	0	0.5	2
Уi	0.2	0.6	-1.0

Newton's functions are

$$n_0(x) = 1,$$

 $n_1(x) = x,$
 $n_2(x) = x(x - 0.5)$

and so

$$p_0(x) = 0.2,$$

 $p_1(x) = 0.2 + 0.8x,$
 $p_2(x) = 0.2 + 0.8x - \frac{14}{15}x(x - 0.5)$

Evaluation of Newton polynomial with Horner-like method

```
def pnh(x,a,xk,n):
    y = a[-1]
    for k in range(n-2,-1,-1):
        y = (x-xk[k])*y + a[k]
    return y
%%timeit
from numpy.random import random; n= 200; x = random(); \
               a = random(n); xk = np.linspace(0,1,n)
y = pnh(x,a,xk, n) # timing polynomial
1000 loops, best of 3: 327 µs per loop
```

```
%%cython
# fast Newton polynomial evaluation with Horner's method
cimport numpy as np
import numpy as np
def pnhc(np.float64_t x,
         np.ndarray[np.float64_t, ndim=1] a,
         np.ndarray[np.float64_t, ndim=1] xk):
    cdef np.float64_t y = 0.0
    n = a.shape[0]
    for k in range(n-1,-1,-1):
        y = (x-xk[k])*y + a[k]
    return y
```

```
%%cython
# fast Newton polynomial evaluation with Horner's method
cimport numpy as np
import numpy as np
def pnhg(np.ndarray[np.float64 t, ndim=1] xg, \
         np.ndarray[np.float64 t,ndim=1] a,
         np.ndarray[np.float64 t,ndim=1] xk):
    cdef int k
    cdef int ng = xg.shape[0]
    cdef int n = a.shape[0]
    cdef np.ndarray[np.float64_t, ndim=1] \
                        yg = np.zeros(ng)
    for i in range(ng):
        for k in range(n-1,-1,-1):
            yg[i] = (xg[i]-xk[k])*yg[i] + a[k]
    return yg
```

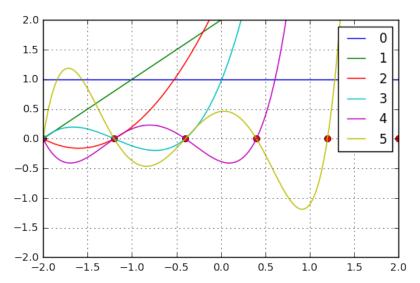
```
%%timeit
from numpy.random import random; n= 200; x = random(); \
    a = random(n); xk = np.linspace(0,1,n)
y = pnhc(x,a,xk) # timing polynomial

1000 loops, best of 3: 398 µs per loop
```

```
%%cvthon
import numpy as np
cimport numpy as np
# compute the values of the Newton functions on some grid
def eval nj(np.ndarray[np.float64 t,ndim=1] xpts, \
            np.ndarray[np.float64 t,ndim=1] xg):
    cdef int i, j, k
    cdef int ng = xg.shape[0]
    cdef int npts = xpts.shape[0]
    cdef np.ndarray[np.float64_t,ndim=2] \
                     nj = np.ones((ng,npts))
    for i in range(npts):
        for j in range(0,i):
            for k in range(ng):
                nj[k,i] *= (xg[k]-xpts[j])
    return nj
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```

```
# Newton polynomials lj(x)
s = 2
h = s
npts = 6
xpts = np.linspace(-s,s,npts)
ypts = uex(xpts)
ng = 129
xg = np.linspace(-s,s,ng)
njg = eval_nj(xpts,xg)
```

```
plt.plot(xpts,np.zeros(npts),'ro')
for j in range(npts): plt.plot(xg,njg[:,j],label=j)
plt.legend();plt.grid('on');plt.axis(ymin=-h,ymax=h);
```



```
%%cython
import numpy as np
cimport numpy as np
from __main__ import pnhc
def ncoeffs(np.ndarray[np.float64_t,ndim=1] xpts, \
            np.ndarray[np.float64_t,ndim=1] ypts):
    cdef int n = xpts.shape[0]
    cdef np.ndarray[np.float64_t, ndim=1] c = np.zeros(n)
    cdef int k
    c[0] = ypts[0]
    for k in range(n):
        c[k] = (ypts[k] - pnhc(xpts[k],c[:k],xpts[:k])) \setminus
                         / np.prod(xpts[k]-xpts[:k])
    return c
```

```
%%timeit
from numpy.random import random; n= 200; \
    xpts = np.linspace(0,1,n); ypts = random(n)
c = ncoeffs(xpts, ypts)

10 loops, best of 3: 32.9 ms per loop
```

```
%%cvthon
import numpy as np
cimport numpy as np
def ncoeffs2(np.ndarray[np.float64_t,ndim=1] xpts, \
              np.ndarray[np.float64_t,ndim=1] ypts):
    cdef int k, i
    cdef np.float64 t qk, yi
    cdef int n = xpts.shape[0]
    cdef np.ndarray[np.float64 t,ndim=1] c = np.zeros(n)
    c[0] = ypts[0]
    for k in range(n):
        qk = 1.0
        for i in range(k):
            qk *= (xpts[k]-xpts[i])
        vi = 0.0
        for i in range(k-1,-1,-1):
            yi = (xpts[k]-xpts[i])*yi + c[i]
        c[k] = (ypts[k] - yi)/qk
    return c
```

```
%%timeit
from numpy.random import random; n= 200; \
    xpts = np.linspace(0,1,n); ypts = random(n)
c = ncoeffs2(xpts, ypts)
```

The slowest run took 346.33 times longer than the fastest. 1000 loops, best of 3: 246 μs per loop

```
# computing the interpolant with Newton
# first we compute the coefficients
npts = 6
xpts = np.linspace(-2*pi, 2*pi, npts)
vpts = uex(xpts)
ng = 127
xg = np.linspace(-2*pi, 2*pi, ng)
yg = uex(xg)
#plt.plot(xq, yq)
%timeit c = ncoeffs2(xpts,ypts)
c = ncoeffs2(xpts,ypts)
%timeit yig = pnhg(xg, c, xpts)
yig = pnhg(xg, c, xpts)
# plt.plot(xq, yiq);
100000 loops, best of 3: 12 µs per loop
```

Another example

- another illustration of how the same polynomial is represented in three different forms
- ► Consider the polynomial $p_3(x) = 4x^3 + 35x^2 84x 954$
- Show that the four points with coordinates (5,1), (-7,-23), (-6,-54) and (0,-954) are on the graph of p_3

Example - Newton's Form

the Newton functions are then

$$n_0(x) = 1$$
, $n_1(x) = x - 5$, $n_2(x) = (x - 5)(x + 7)$, $n_3(x) = (x - 5)(x + 7)(x + 6)$

An application of Newton's interpolation method gives then

$$p_3(x) = n_0(x) + 2n_1(x) + 3n_2(x) + 4n_3(x)$$