

April 9, 2020

Numerical Analysis

Last time: Constructive Formula for polynomial interpolation:

Lagrange Interpolating Formula.

For data $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$, the polynomial interpolant is a degree n polynomial that passes through the points.

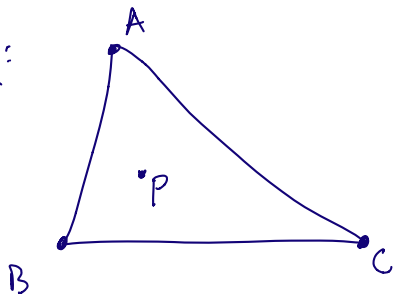
In some cases, the Lagrange form of the polynomial interpolant can be numerically unstable: has a large condition number, large round-off error, etc.

Barycentric Form(s) of Interpolation

The numerical stability of evaluating an interpolating polynomial can be fixed by rearranging its terms — this does not change what the actual interpolant is.

As motivation: Examine the barycentric coordinates on a triangle.

Ex:



The barycentric coordinates of a point P inside a triangle with vertices A, B, C are given by:

$$P = \alpha A + \beta B + \gamma C \quad (\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \text{ coordinates}$$

with $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 1$, $\alpha \geq 0$, $\beta \geq 0$, $\gamma \geq 0$.

The center of mass of the triangle is the given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Idea: Replace A, B, C with functions that sum to 1.

Start with the Lagrange Form: (and rewrite)

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \underbrace{\left(\prod_{j \neq k} \frac{(x-x_j)}{(x_k-x_j)} \right)}_{L_k(x)} y_k$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n \underbrace{\left(\prod_{j=0}^n \frac{(x-x_j)}{(x_k-x_j)} \right)}_{\text{does not depend on } k} \frac{1}{x-x_k} \left(\prod_{j \neq k} \frac{1}{(x_k-x_j)} \right) y_k$$

$$= \underbrace{\left(\prod_{j=0}^n (x-x_j) \right)}_{\varphi(x)} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{x-x_k} \underbrace{\left(\prod_{j \neq k} \frac{1}{x_k-x_j} \right)}_{w_k} y_k$$

$$= \varphi(x) \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{w_k}{x-x_k} y_k \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(Modified Lagrange Form)} \\ \text{First Barycentric Formula} \end{array}$$

We can even further simplify this form by "dividing by 1".

The polynomial interpolant of the function 1 at the same nodes x_j is simply:

$$\underline{1} = \varphi(x) \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{w_k}{x-x_k} \quad (\text{since } y_k = 1).$$

$$\text{Then } p_n(x) = \frac{\cancel{\varphi(x)} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{w_k}{x-x_k} y_k}{\cancel{\varphi(x)} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{w_k}{x-x_k}} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^n w_k / (x-x_k) \cdot y_k}{\sum_{k=0}^n w_k / (x-x_k)}$$

Second Barycentric Formula.

□

This form is "stable" for any reasonable choice of x_j (2004, Higham).

One should always use this form to do polynomial interpolation.

Convergence of Polynomial Interpolation

Let's examine the question of what happens as $n \rightarrow \infty$, i.e.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max_x |f(x) - p_n(x)| = ?$$

this is the ∞ -norm.

The pointwise error is approximately:

$$\max_s \frac{|f^{(n+1)}(s)|}{(n+1)!} \cdot \max_x \prod_{j=0}^n |x - x_j|$$

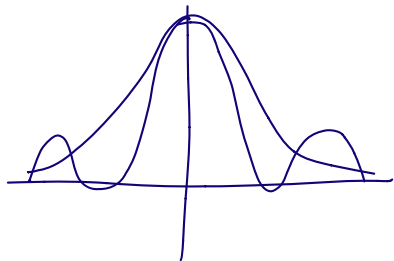
It's not obvious if this increases or decreases as $n \rightarrow \infty$...

(see Matlab demo for interpolation of

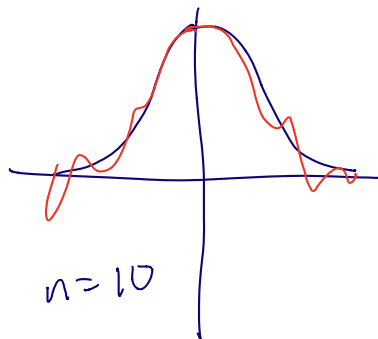
Runge's Function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + (3x)^2}$$

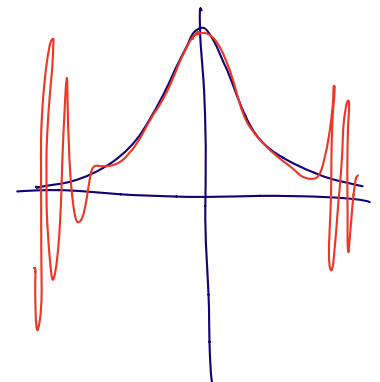
The Runge Effect



$n=4$



$n=10$



This behavior is related to the fact that the

function $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ has a singularity at $x = \pm i$ in the complex plane. $f(i) = \frac{1}{1+i \cdot i} = \frac{1}{1-1} = \frac{1}{0} = \infty$.

This dictates the radius of convergence of its Taylor series:

$$f(x) = 1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + x^8 - x^{10} + \dots$$

(can be fixed, we'll see later on)

Function approximation

Polynomial interpolation mainly has applications in function approximation, with respect to some norm:

For functions, some example norms are:

$$\|f\|_{\infty} = \max_{x \in [a,b]} |f(x)|$$

$$\|f\|_2 = \sqrt{\int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx}$$

$$\|f\|_1 = \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$$

} Just like for
n-dimensional vectors.

Norms of functions satisfy the same properties as those in the finite dimensional vector case:

① $\|f\| \geq 0$, $\|f\| = 0$ iff $f = 0$

② $\|c f\| = |c| \|f\|$

③ $\|f+g\| \leq \|f\| + \|g\|$

Ex: The 2-norm of a function can be generalized

by introducing a "weight" function $w > 0$:

$$\|f\|_{2,w} = \sqrt{\int_a^b |f(x)|^2 w(x) dx}$$

So: the polynomial p_n of degree n that best approximates a function f in the ∞ -norm is

$$\min_{p_n \in P_n} \|p_n - f\|_{\infty}$$

maximum pointwise error.

Do not think of p_n as a polynomial interpolant of f .

From analysis class, we know that continuous functions f on some finite interval can be approximated arbitrarily well by a polynomial of "some" degree: this result is known as the Weierstrass Approximation Theorem.

I.e. For any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a polynomial p such that $\|f - p\|_\infty < \epsilon$, $\|f - p\|_2 < \infty$.

Unfortunately, this is a completely useless theorem for numerical approximation.

It doesn't tell you how to find p !

The question of restricting $p \in P_n$ is much more interesting, and actually useful.

To pose the problem:

For $n > 0$, find $p_n \in P_n$ such that

$$\|f - p_n\|_\infty = \min_{q \in P_n} \|f - q\|_\infty.$$

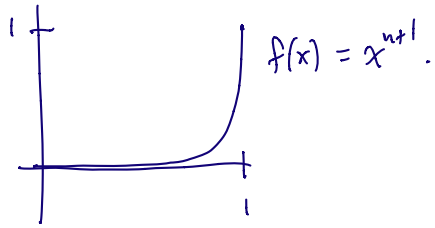
Theorem: Such a p_n exists, and is unique.

(The proof does not tell us how to find p_n .)

In general, one cannot write down the minimax polynomial, i.e. the polynomial p_n such that

$$\|f - p_n\|_\infty = \min_{q \in P_n} \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x) - q(x)|$$

However, we can explicitly write down the minimax polynomial approximation to the monomial $f(x) = x^{n+1}$ on $[0, 1]$



Theorem Let $n \geq 0$, then $\|p_n - f\|_\infty$, with $f(x) = x^{n+1}$, is minimized when $p_n(x) = \underbrace{x^{n+1} - \frac{1}{2^n} \cos((n+1) \arccos x)}_{\text{polynomial of degree } n}$.

The function $T_n(x) = \cos(n \arccos x)$ is known as the Chebyshev polynomial of degree n . These functions play a very important role in numerical analysis.