

THEOREM. 0.1 (Taylor's) Let  $f, f', \dots, f^{(r)}$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $f^{(r+1)}$  is continuous on  $(a, b)$  then for all  $x \in [a, b]$

$$f(x) - \left( f(\alpha) + f'(\alpha)(x - \alpha) + \dots + f^{(r)}(\alpha) \frac{(x - \alpha)^r}{r!} \right) = \frac{(x - \alpha)^{r+1} f^{(r+1)}(\xi)}{(r+1)!}$$

where  $\xi$  is between  $\alpha$  and  $x$ .

THEOREM. 0.2 Weierstrass approximation. Given  $f \in C[a, b]$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $n = n(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $p_n \in \mathcal{P}_n := \{\text{polynomials of degree less than or equal to } n\}$  such that

$$|f(x) - p_n(x)| < \varepsilon \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

## 1 Chebyshev Polynomials

### Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind

The Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind on  $[-1, 1]$  satisfy

$$T_n(x) := \cos n\theta \quad \text{where } \theta = \cos^{-1} x \quad (1.1)$$

satisfies  $T_0(x) = 1$ ,  $T_1(x) = x$  and the following three term recurrence relation

$$T_{n+1}(x) = 2xT_n(x) - T_{n-1}(x) \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

from which it follows that  $T_n(x) = 2^{n-1}x^n + \dots$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  and  $|T_n(x)| \leq 1$ .

Note that at the points  $x_i = \cos\left(\frac{(2i+1)\pi}{2n}\right)$  we have  $T_n(x_i) = 0$  and at  $y_i = \cos(i\pi/n)$ , between consecutive  $x_i$ 's,  $T_n(y_i) = (-1)^i$ .

THEOREM. 1.1 Let  $w_n(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1}(x - x_i) \in \mathcal{P}_n$ . Among all possible choices for distinct  $x_i$ ,  $\max |w_n(x)|$  is minimised if  $w_n(x) = 2^{1-n}T_n(x)$ .

PROOF. Firstly note that  $w_n(x) = 2^{1-n}T_n(x) \in \mathcal{P}_n$  is a monic polynomial with distinct roots. Also  $w_n(y_i) = 2^{1-n}(-1)^i$ ,  $0 < i < n$ , where  $y_i = \cos(i\pi/(n+1))$ .

Now assume that there is another polynomial  $v_n(x) \in \mathcal{P}_n$ , with leading coefficient 1 such that  $\max |v_n(x)| < \max |w_n(x)|$ . Then, in particular, if  $i$  is even  $v_n(y_i) < w_n(y_i)$  and if  $i$  is odd  $v_n(y_i) > w_n(y_i)$ . This implies that  $p_{n-1}(x) = v_n(x) - w_n(x) \in \mathcal{P}_{n-1}$  changes sign  $n$  times and therefore has  $n$  roots. But  $p_{n-1}(x) \in \mathcal{P}_{n-1}$  and therefore  $p_{n-1}(x) \equiv 0$ .  $\square$

We can replace the interval  $[-1, 1]$  by  $[a, b]$  and Chebyshev polynomial of degree  $n$  becomes  $T_n\left(\frac{2x-(a+b)}{b-a}\right)$ .

### Chebyshev Economization of power series

The Taylor series of  $f$  about  $\alpha = 0$  is

$$f(x) \sim \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} d_j x^j$$

where  $d_j = f^{(j)}(0)$ . Similar to a Fourier expansion, for  $x \in [-1, 1]$  consider writing a continuous function  $f$  as a Chebyshev series

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}c_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_j T_j(x) \quad \text{where} \quad c_j = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(x)T_j(x)}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx.$$

Unfortunately in all but the simplest of cases it is difficult to calculate this integral. One way to approximate  $f(x)$  by a polynomial of degree  $n$  is to “chop” the Chebyshev series

$$f(x) - \left( \frac{1}{2}c_0 + \sum_{j=1}^n c_j T_j(x) \right) = \sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty} c_j T_j(x) \approx c_{n+1} T_{n+1}(x)$$

if the coefficients  $c_j$  decrease rapidly (noting  $|T_j(x)| \leq 1$ ). Thus, as we have seen, the error is as small as possible and uniformly spread across  $[-1, 1]$ , unlike the Taylor polynomial.

*Chebyshev economization* Given an interval  $[a, b]$  and a function  $f(x)$ . Compute the Taylor polynomial of degree  $n$ ,  $p_n$ , about  $\alpha = 0$  and bound the remainder term in Taylor's theorem. Now compute  $q_{j-1}(x) = q_j(x) - \alpha_j T_j(x)$  where  $q_n(x) = p_n(x)$ ,  $T_j$  is the appropriate Chebyshev polynomial for the interval  $[a, b]$  and  $\alpha_j$  is chosen so that  $q_{j-1} \in \mathcal{P}_{j-1}$ .

The Chebyshev polynomials of the second kind satisfy

$$U_n(x) := \frac{\sin((n+1)\theta)}{\sin \theta} \quad \text{where } \theta = \cos^{-1} x, \quad (1.2)$$

$U_0(x) = 1$ ,  $U_1(x) = 2x$  and the following three term recurrence relation

$$U_{n+1}(x) = 2xU_n(x) - U_{n-1}(x) \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

## 2 Polynomial Interpolation

When presented with  $n+1$  data points  $(x_i, f(x_i))$  ( $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ) a scientist may want to draw a curve through these points so that information might be obtained at intermediate values. *Polynomial Interpolation* is the process of finding a polynomial passing through these points namely

$$p(x_i) = f(x_i) \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Interpolation tells us something about intermediate values, *extrapolation* tells us about values beyond what we have.

EXAMPLE. Let  $(x_i, f(x_i))$  ( $i = 0, 1, 2$ ) be three points ( $n = 2$ ) with distinct  $x_i$ 's. Is there a unique interpolating polynomial of degree at most two

$$p_2(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2?$$

(Three points to fit and three unknown coefficients.)

Solve  $a_0 + a_1x_i + a_2x_i^2 = f(x_i)$  ( $i = 0, 1, 2$ ). Writing as a matrix equation

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 \end{pmatrix}}_X \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix}}_a = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} f(x_0) \\ f(x_1) \\ f(x_2) \end{pmatrix}}_f$$

we know that  $a$  will exist and be unique if  $X$  is invertible, i.e.  $\det X \neq 0$ . However,  $\det X = (x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)(x_2 - x_1) \neq 0$ , as the nodes are distinct.  $\square$

THEOREM. 2.1 *Let  $f$  be a continuous function on  $[a, b]$  and let  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  be distinct nodes lying in  $[a, b]$ . Then there exists a unique polynomial  $p_n \in \mathcal{P}_n$  which interpolates  $f$*

PROOF. Existence is proved by construction. Define the *Lagrange polynomials* of degree  $n$  by

$$l_j(x) := \frac{(x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_{j-1})(x - x_{j+1}) \cdots (x - x_n)}{(x_j - x_0) \cdots (x_j - x_{j-1})(x_j - x_{j+1}) \cdots (x_j - x_n)} = \prod_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq j}}^n \frac{x - x_k}{x_j - x_k}$$

and observe that  $l_j(x_i) = \delta_{ij}$ . Now the *interpolating Lagrange polynomial* of degree at most  $n$ ,  $p_n$ , is defined to be

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) l_j(x) \quad \text{so that} \quad p_n(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) l_j(x_i) = f(x_i) \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

To prove uniqueness we use proof by contradiction. Suppose that  $p_n \neq q_n$  are both interpolating polynomials of degree at most  $n$ , i.e.  $p_n(x_i) = q_n(x_i) = f(x_i)$  ( $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ). Let  $r_n(x) := p_n(x) - q_n(x) \in \mathcal{P}_n$ . Notice that

$$r_n(x_i) = p_n(x_i) - q_n(x_i) = 0, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$

i.e.  $r_n$  has at least  $n + 1$  real zeros, but it can have at most  $n!$   $\square$

Notice we can rewrite

$$l_i(x) = \frac{w_{n+1}(x)}{(x - x_i)w'_{n+1}(x_i)} \quad \text{where} \quad w_{n+1}(x) := \prod_{j=0}^n (x - x_j).$$

THEOREM. 2.2 (The truncation error theorem) *Let  $f, f', \dots, f^{(n+1)}$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and let  $p_n \in \mathcal{P}_n$  interpolate  $f$  at the distinct points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  in  $[a, b]$ . Define  $w_{n+1} = (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)$ . For each  $x \in [a, b]$  there is a point  $\xi \in (a, b)$  such that*

$$f(x) - p_n(x) = \frac{w_{n+1}(x)}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(\xi).$$

PROOF. If  $x = x_i$  ( $i = 0, \dots, n$ ) then

$$f(x) - p_n(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad w_{n+1}(x) = 0,$$

and the theorem is trivial. So assume that  $x \neq x_i$  is given (fixed). Define  $g$  to be

$$g(t) = f(t) - p_n(t) - \frac{w_{n+1}(t)}{w_{n+1}(x)} (f(x) - p_n(x)),$$

which is  $n + 1$  times continuously differentiable on  $[a, b]$ . Notice that  $w_{n+1}(x) \neq 0$  so  $g$  is well-defined. Then  $g(x) = 0$  and  $g(x_i) = 0$ ,  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . That is,  $g$  has  $n + 2$  distinct zeros in  $[a, b]$ . So from Rolle's theorem  $g'$  has  $n + 1$  distinct zeros in  $(a, b)$ . Repeated application of Rolle's theorem gives  $g^{(n+1)}(\xi) = 0$  for some  $c \in (a, b)$ . The result now follows from

$$0 = g^{(n+1)}(\xi) = f^{(n+1)}(\xi) - \frac{(n+1)!}{w_{n+1}(x)} [f(x) - p_n(x)] \square$$

## Interpolation at Chebyshev nodes

It should be noted that truncation error theorem doesn't guarantee convergence of the interpolant as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . A simple example ( $f(x) = 1/(1 + 25x^2)$  with equally spaced nodes) can be used to show that we don't necessarily get a better approximation by putting in more points. (The essence of the problem is that, even though  $f(x)$  is infinitely continuous the maximum values of the derivatives grows rapidly as we take higher derivatives). If we examine the error estimate

$$f(x) - p(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} w_{n+1}(x) \in (a, b).$$

we see that we have little control over the  $f^{(n+1)}(\xi)/(n+1)!$  term. However we can try to choose the interpolation points to minimise the maximum value of  $w_{n+1}(x)$  which is done by choosing the  $x_i$ 's to be the zero's of  $T_{n+1}(x)$ , i.e.  $x_i = \cos\left(\frac{(2i+1)\pi}{2(n+1)}\right)$  so that from before

$$|f(x) - p(x)| \leq \frac{|f^{(n+1)}(\xi)|}{(n+1)! 2^n}.$$

Hermite Interpolation

If we ask to produce a polynomial interpolant which at distinct nodes  $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^n$  fits heights  $\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n$  and slopes  $\{y'_i\}_{i=0}^n$  we produce the Hermite interpolant.

THEOREM. 2.3 The Hermite interpolation polynomial  $p_{2n+1}(x) := \sum_{i=0}^n [h_i(x)y_i + \bar{h}_i(x)y'_i] \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1}$  where

$$\bar{h}_i(x) := (x - x_i)l_i^2(x), \quad h_i(x) := [1 - 2(x - x_i)l_i'(x_i)]l_i^2(x)$$

is the only polynomial with the properties  $p_{2n+1}(x_i) = y_i$  and  $p'_{2n+1}(x_i) = y'_i$  for  $i = 0 \rightarrow n$ .

PROOF. Existence is automatic since

$$h_i(x_j) = \delta_{ij}, \quad h'_i(x_j) = 0, \quad \bar{h}_i(x_j) = 0 \text{ and } \bar{h}'_i(x_j) = \delta_{ij}.$$

Let  $p(x), q(x) \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1}$  satisfy the interpolation conditions, then  $p(x) - q(x) \in \mathcal{P}_{2n+1}$  and  $p(x_i) - q(x_i) = 0, p'(x_i) - q'(x_i) = 0$ . Thus  $p(x) - q(x)$  is an  $2n + 1$  degree polynomial with  $2n + 2$  roots. Therefore by the fundamental theorem of algebra  $p(x) - q(x) \equiv 0$ .

THEOREM. 2.4 (Truncation Error) Let  $f, f', \dots, f^{(2n+2)}$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $p_{2n+1}$  be the interpolating Hermite polynomial at the distinct nodes  $x_i$  ( $i = 0 \rightarrow n$ ). Then for all  $x \in [a, b]$

$$E(x) := f(x) - p_{2n+1}(x) = \frac{[w_{n+1}(x)]^2}{(2n + 2)!} f^{(2n+2)}(\xi) \quad \xi \in (a, b) \tag{2.3}$$

PROOF. The theorem is plainly true at the interpolation points. Fix  $x \neq x_i$  and define

$$g(t) = f(t) - p_{2n+1}(t) - \frac{f(x) - p_{2n+1}(x)}{[w_{n+1}(x)]^2} [w_{n+1}(t)]^2,$$

then  $g(t)$  has at least  $n + 1$  double roots in  $[a, b]$  and  $g(x) = 0$ . Hence  $g(t)$  has at least  $n + 2$  roots ( $n + 1$  of which are double) in  $[a, b]$ . One application of Rollé's theorem gives that  $g'(t)$  has  $n + 1$  roots in the open intervals defined by the roots of  $g(t)$ , therefore (from the double roots)  $g'(t)$  has at least  $2n + 2$  distinct roots in  $[a, b]$ . Now repeated application of Rollé's theorem gives that  $g^{(2n+2)}$  has at least one root in  $\xi \in (a, b)$  where

$$0 = g^{(2n+2)}(\xi) = f^{(2n+2)}(\xi) - \frac{f(x) - p_{2n+1}(x)}{[w_{n+1}(x)]^2} (2n + 2)!$$

□

Piecewise linear interpolation

The continuous, piecewise linear function,  $p_1$ , interpolating  $f$  at  $x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n$  is defined by

$$p_1(x) = \frac{x_{j+1} - x}{x_{j+1} - x_j} f(x_j) + \frac{x - x_j}{x_{j+1} - x_j} f(x_{j+1}) \quad x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}] \quad (i = 0 \rightarrow n - 1).$$

Notice that if  $f, f', f''$  are all continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then from linear interpolation for  $x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]$ ,

$$|f(x) - p_1(x)| \leq \frac{(x_{i+1} - x_i)^2}{8} M$$

where  $|f''(x)| \leq M$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . Hence for all  $x \in [a, b]$

$$|f(x) - p_1(x)| \leq \frac{h_i^2}{8} M \quad \text{where } h = \max_i x_{i+1} - x_i.$$

3 Continuous least-squares approximation

In this section we try and make the error in approximation as small as possible, for instance for a given  $n$  minimize

$$E(d_0, \dots, d_n) = \int_a^b \left( f(x) - \sum_{j=0}^n d_j x^j \right)^2 \mathrm{d}x$$

(note we could use another measure for the error, see §1, we have just decided to use the integral), we need to solve for  $k = 0 \rightarrow n$

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} 0 = \frac{\partial E}{\partial d_k} & = -2 \int_a^b \left( f(x) - \sum_{j=0}^n d_j x^j \right) x^k \mathrm{d}x \\ k = 0 : & s_0 d_0 & + s_1 d_1 & + \dots & + s_n d_n & = \rho_0 \\ k = 1 : & s_1 d_0 & + s_2 d_1 & + \dots & + s_{n+1} d_n & = \rho_1 \\ & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ k = n : & s_n d_0 & + s_{n+1} d_1 & + \dots & + s_{2n} d_n & = \rho_n \end{array}$$

where  $s_k = \int_a^b x^k \mathrm{d}x$  and  $\rho_k = \int_a^b x^k f(x) \mathrm{d}x$ , a tricky set of  $n + 1$  simultaneous ill-conditioned equations. If it were the case that for  $j \neq k$  that

$$\int_a^b \left( f(x) - \sum_{j=0}^n d_j x^j \right) x^k \mathrm{d}x$$

then we would be left with an explicit expression for  $d_k$ . We spend some time developing the idea of orthogonal polynomials to make the algebra easy.

### Orthogonal polynomials

Given  $\omega(x)\geqslant 0$  for all  $x \in (a,b)$ , continuous and  $\int_a^b \omega(x)\mathrm{d}x > 0$ , i.e.  $\omega(x) \not\equiv 0$ . We can define an inner-product

$$(f,g) := \int_a^b \omega(x)f(x)g(x)\mathrm{d}x \quad \text{and} \quad \|f\| := [(f,f)]^{1/2}.$$

Obviously the inner-product satisfies the following three key relations

- $\|f\|\geqslant 0$  and  $\|f\| = 0$  iff  $f \equiv 0$ ;
- $(\alpha f + \beta g, h) = \alpha(f, h) + \beta(g, h)$ ;
- $(f, g) = (g, f)$ .

This is actually the definition of an inner-product.

The sequence  $\{\phi_n\}$  is an *orthogonal polynomial sequence* if  $\phi_n(x)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$  and  $(\phi_n, \phi_m) = 0$  for  $n \neq m$ .

**THEOREM. 3.1** (*Gram-Schmidt*) *Every inner-product, as defined above, has a monic orthogonal polynomial sequence. Moreover,  $\{\phi_n\}$  satisfies the three term recurrence relation*

$$\phi_n(x) = (x + \alpha_{n-1})\phi_{n-1}(x) + \beta_{n-1}\phi_{n-2}(x) \quad n\geqslant 2$$

where  $\alpha_{n-1}, \beta_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**PROOF.** Let  $\phi_0(x) \equiv 1$ . Let  $\phi_1(x) = x + a_{1,0}\phi_0(x) \in \mathcal{P}_1$  where  $a_{1,0} = -(x, \phi_0)$  so that

$$(\phi_1, \phi_0) = (x, \phi_0) + a_{1,0}(\phi_0, \phi_0) = 0.$$

We now use mathematical induction. Let  $n\geqslant 2$  Suppose that  $\phi_0(x), \dots, \phi_{n-1}(x)$  satisfy  $\phi_j \in \mathcal{P}_j$  and  $(\phi_i, \phi_j) = 0$  if  $i \neq j$ . Let

$$\phi_n(x) = x\phi_{n-1}(x) + a_{n,n-1}\phi_{n-1}(x) + \dots + a_{n,0}\phi_0(x) \in \mathcal{P}_n$$

where we choose  $a_{n,j} \; j = 0 \rightarrow n-1$  so that  $(\phi_n, \phi_j) = 0$ , that is

$$a_{n,j} = \begin{cases} 0 & j = 0 \rightarrow n-3 \\ -\frac{(a_{n,n-1}\phi_{n-2})}{(\phi_{n-2}, \phi_{n-2})} & j = n-2 \\ -\frac{(x\phi_{n-1})}{(\phi_{n-1}, \phi_{n-1})} & j = n-1 \end{cases}$$

EXAMPLES.

anial name	$\omega(x)$	Interval	Recurrence relation	$n = 0, \quad 1$
Lev	$(1-x^2)^{-1/2}$	$[-1, 1]$	$T_{n+1}(x) = 2xT_n(x) - T_{n-1}(x)$	$T_0(x) = 1, \quad T_1(x) = x$
ce	1	$[-1, 1]$	$P_{n+1}(x) = \frac{(2n+1)}{n+1}xP_n(x) - \frac{n}{n+1}P_{n-1}(x)$	$P_0(x) = 1, \quad P_1(x) = x$
	$e^{-x}$	$[0, \infty)$	$L_{n+1}(x) = \frac{(2n+1-x)}{n+1}L_n(x) - \frac{n}{n+1}L_{n-1}(x)$	$L_0(x) = 1, \quad L_1(x) = 1-x$
	$e^{-x^2}$	$(-\infty, \infty)$	$H_{n+1}(x) = 2xH_n(x) - 2nH_{n-1}(x)$	$H_0(x) = 1, \quad H_1(x) = 2x$

### Continuous least-squares

Taking the usual inner-product, let  $\{\phi_n\}$  be the orthogonal monic polynomial sequence. For a given  $n$  we minimize

$$E(c_0, \dots, c_n) = \int_a^b \omega(x) \left( f(x) - \sum_{j=0}^n c_j \phi_j(x) \right)^2 \mathrm{d}x$$

That is we want to solve

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{\partial E}{\partial c_k} = -2 \int_a^b \omega(x) \left( f(x) - \sum_{j=0}^n c_j \phi_j(x) \right) \phi_k(x) \mathrm{d}x \\ &= -2(f - \sum_{j=0}^n c_j \phi_j, \phi_k) = -2(f - c_k \phi_k, \phi_k) \implies c_k = \frac{(f, \phi_k)}{(\phi_k, \phi_k)} \end{aligned}$$

Analogous theory holds where one works with a discrete inner-product, e.g. given distinct  $x_i$  and  $\omega_i > 0$  define

$$(f, g) := \sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i f(x_i) g(x_i).$$

where  $f$  and  $g$  are polynomials of degree  $n$ .

## 4 Numerical Integration

### Introduction

It is easy to write down an integral where we cannot write down the answer in a closed form, for example

$$\int_0^x e^{-t^2} \mathrm{d}t \quad \text{or} \quad \int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x} \mathrm{d}x,$$

or the integrand may be complicated to write down. To find the value of the integral we may have to resort to *Numerical Integration*.

Let  $f$  be a continuous function and  $x_i \; (i = 0 \rightarrow n)$  be interpolation points. Then integrating the Lagrange interpolation polynomial over the interval  $[a, b]$  yields the  $(n+1)$  point interpolation formula which is exact for polynomials of degree  $\leqslant n$

$$\int_a^b f(x) \mathrm{d}x \approx \sum_{i=0}^n H_i f(x_i) \quad \text{where} \quad H_i = \int_a^b l_i(x) \mathrm{d}x = \int_a^b \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{x-x_j}{x_i-x_j} \mathrm{d}x.$$

If  $f, f', \dots, f^{(n+1)}$  are continuous on  $[a, b]$  then using the Lagrange interpolation error formula

$$\int_a^b f(x) \mathrm{d}x - \sum_{i=0}^n H_i f(x_i) = \int_a^b \frac{w_{n+1}(x)}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(\zeta) \mathrm{d}x.$$