

CS 450: Numerical Analysis

Lecture 19

Chapter 7 Interpolation

Basics of Interpolation

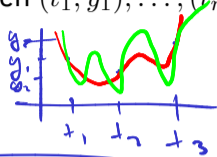
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Interpolation

- ▶ Given $(t_1, y_1), \dots, (t_m, y_m)$ with $t_1 < \dots < t_m$ an **interpolant** f satisfies:



interpolant works well for analyzing function modeling

$$f(t_i) = y_i \text{ for all } i$$

with noisy data, we want usually to minimize residual of approximation that is smooth \neq interpolation

- ▶ Interpolant is usually constructed as linear combinations of **basis functions**

$$\{\phi_j\}_{j=1}^n = \{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n\} \text{ so } f(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \phi_j(t).$$

$$V(t, \{\phi_j\}_{j=1}^n)$$

$$y = Ax$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \phi_1(t_1) & \phi_2(t_1) & \dots \\ \phi_1(t_2) & & \\ \vdots & & \\ & & \phi_n(t_m) \end{bmatrix} = A$$

interpolation usually works with $n=m$ unique interpolant

Polynomial Interpolation

- ▶ The choice of *monomials* as basis functions, $\phi_j(t) = t^{j-1}$ yields a degree $n - 1$ polynomial interpolant:

Vandermonde matrix

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t_1 & t_1^2 & t_1^3 \\ 1 & t_2 & t_2^2 & t_2^3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_n & t_n^2 & t_n^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solving $Vx = y$ gives polynomial interpolant

$$f(t) = x_1 + x_2 t + x_3 t^2 + \dots$$

- ▶ Polynomial interpolants are easy to evaluate and do calculus on:

Horner's evaluation rule

$$f(t) = x_1 + t(x_2 + t(x_3 + \dots))$$

n -additions
 n -multiplications

easy to $\int, \frac{d}{dt}$ polynomials

Conditioning of Interpolation

- Conditioning of interpolation matrix A depends on basis functions and coordinates t_1, \dots, t_m :

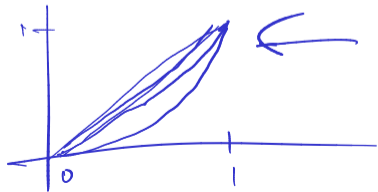
nodes

$$A = V(t, \{\varphi\}_{i=1}^n)$$

nodes are far apart
(in relative terms)

basis functions that
are 'different' so that
cols of A are not linearly
independent

- The Vandermonde matrix tends to be ill-conditioned:



x^j looks like x^{j-1} for large j

naively also n^3 work to
solve lin-sys with A

Lagrange Basis

- ▶ n -points fully define the unique $(n - 1)$ -degree polynomial interpolant in the Lagrange basis:

given n points, n -basis functions yield unique interpolant, with monomials give $n-1$ degree polynomial

$$e_j(t) = \frac{\prod_{i=1, i \neq j}^n (t - t_i)}{\prod_{i=1, i \neq j}^n (t_j - t_i)} \quad \begin{matrix} e_j(t_j) = 1 \\ e_j(t_i) = 0 \ (i \neq j) \end{matrix}$$

numerator
denominator

- ▶ Lagrange polynomials yield a convenient Vandermonde system, but the basis functions are hard to evaluate and do calculus on:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

j th coefficient is y_j
 since only $e_j(t_j) \neq 0$ | $e_i(t_j) = 0$

Solving system is trivial, evaluation is harder
 calculus is also harder | worst case $O(n^2)$

Newton Basis

- ▶ The Newton basis functions $\phi_j(t) = \prod_{k=1}^{j-1} (t - t_k)$ seek the best of monomial and Lagrange bases:

$$\phi_j(t) = 0 \quad \text{if } t = t_i, \text{ where } i < j$$

- fast evaluation (monomial)
- easy Vandermonde system (Lagrange)

lower
↓

- ▶ The Newton basis yields a triangular Vandermonde system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \phi_1(t_1) & \phi_2(t_1) = 0 & & \\ \phi_1(t_2) & & & \\ \vdots & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

so solving $Ax = y$
has cost $O(n^2)$
via forward-substitution

Recurrences for Newton Basis

- ▶ The Newton basis functions $\phi_j(t) = \prod_{k=1}^{j-1} (t - t_k)$ can be evaluated at t with $O(n)$ work using a simple recurrence:

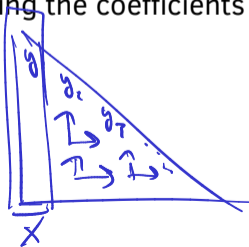
$$\phi_{j+1}(t) = \phi_j(t) (t - t_j)$$

Overall $O(n)$ work to evaluate \uparrow 1 product per basis fn

- ▶ A recurrence known as the divided-differences formula gives a stable way of efficiently computing the coefficients x :

$$x = l_{i,i}$$

$$L =$$



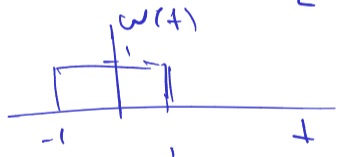
$$l_{ij} = \frac{l_{i,j-1} - l_{i+1,j}}{x_j - x_i}$$

Orthogonal Polynomials

- ▶ Recall that good conditioning for interpolation is achieved by constructing a well-conditioned Vandermonde matrix, which is the case when the columns (corresponding to each basis function) are orthonormal. To construct robust basis sets, we introduce a notion of *orthonormal functions*:

$$\langle p, q \rangle_w = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w(t) p(t) q(t) dt \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{e.g. } w(t) = 1 \\ \text{if } t \in [-1, 1] \end{array} \right.$$

$\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$ are orthonormal if



$$\langle e_i, e_j \rangle_w = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & : \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Legendre Polynomials

- ▶ The Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization procedure can be used to obtain an orthonormal basis with the same span as any given arbitrary basis:

Given $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$ (arb. basis) comp. orthonormal $\{\hat{e}_i\}_{i=1}^n$

$$\hat{e}_i = \frac{\psi_i}{\|\psi_i\|} \quad \left| \quad \psi_i = e_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \hat{e}_j \langle \hat{e}_j, e_i \rangle \right.$$
$$\|f\| = \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle_w}$$

- ▶ The Legendre polynomials are obtained by Gram-Schmidt on the monomial basis, with normalization done so $\hat{p}_i(1) = 1$ and $w(t) = \begin{cases} 1: -1 \leq t \leq 1 \\ 0: \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

let $e_i(t) = t^{i-1}$ and Gram-Schmidt gives $\{\hat{e}_i\}$

Legendre is slightly different, normalize so that $e_i(1) = 1$, $e_i(t)$ defined on $[-1, 1]$

Usually normalized function f on $[-1, 1]$ with $w=1$ must satisfy

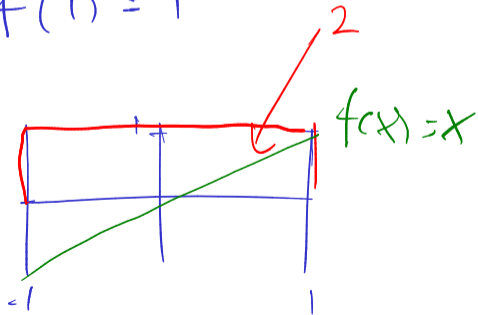
$$\int_{-1}^1 f(t)^2 dt = 1$$

$w=1$

$$\langle f, f \rangle_w = 1$$

$$\langle f, g \rangle_w = \int_a^b w(t) f(t) g(t) dt$$

Legendre
 $f(1) = 1$



Legendre for $n=3$ is $\{1, x, (3x-1)/2\}$

$$e_1(x) = 1$$

$$\psi_2(x) = x - \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 x \, dx = 0$$

$$\psi_3(x) = x^2 - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 x^2 \, dx}_{1/3} - x \underbrace{\int_{-1}^1 x^3 \, dx}_0$$

$$e(1) = 1$$

$$\omega(t) = 1 \text{ on } [-1, 1]$$