# Mathematical Tripos Part IB: Lent 2019 Numerical Analysis – Lecture $1^1$

### What is numerical analysis?

Numerical analysis is the study of algorithms for problems in continuous mathematics.<sup>2</sup> The key word here is *algorithms*. We are looking for algorithms that *run fast* and that are *stable* against various sources of errors and "noise". Some examples of problems from continuous mathematics include:

- Algebraic equations: Solve f(x) = 0 where  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is a given function.
- Differential equations: Solve  $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x)$  where  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is a given function.
- Optimization: Find  $\min\{f(x) : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$  where  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is a given function.

Needless to say that such problems arise in many different application areas!

A note about computational complexity We measure the complexity of an algorithm by the number of *elementary operations*  $(+, -, \times, \div)$  it needs. We use the Big-Oh notation, e.g.,  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  or  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  where n is the size of the input. More precisely an algorithm has complexity  $\mathcal{O}(f(n))$  if the number of operations it needs is at most  $C \cdot f(n)$  where C > 0 is a constant.

## **1** Polynomial interpolation

We denote by  $\mathbb{P}_n[x]$  the *linear space* of all real polynomials of degree at most n.

#### 1.1 The interpolation problem

Given n+1 distinct real points  $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n$  and real numbers  $f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_n$ , we seek a polynomial  $p \in \mathbb{P}_n[x]$  such that  $p(x_i) = f_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, \ldots, n$ . Such a polynomial is called an *interpolant*. Note that a polynomial  $p \in \mathbb{P}_n[x]$  has n+1 degrees of freedom, while interpolation at  $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n$  constitutes n+1 conditions. This, intuitively, justifies seeking an interpolant from  $\mathbb{P}_n[x]$ .

### 1.2 The Lagrange formula

Although, in principle, we may solve a linear problem with n + 1 unknowns to determine a polynomial interpolant, this can be accomplished more easily by using the explicit Lagrange formula. We claim that

$$p(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} f_k \prod_{\substack{\ell=0\\\ell\neq k}}^{n} \frac{x - x_\ell}{x_k - x_\ell}, \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Note that  $p \in \mathbb{P}_n[x]$ , as required. We wish to show that it interpolates the data. Define

$$L_k(x) := \prod_{\substack{\ell=0\\ \ell \neq k}}^n \frac{x - x_\ell}{x_k - x_\ell}, \qquad k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

(Lagrange cardinal polynomials). It is trivial to verify that  $L_j(x_j) = 1$  and  $L_j(x_k) = 0$  for  $k \neq j$ , hence

$$p(x_j) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} f_k L_k(x_j) = f_j, \qquad j = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Corrections and suggestions to these notes should be emailed to h.fawzi@damtp.cam.ac.uk.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>This definition is taken from the essay *The definition of numerical analysis* by L. N. Trefethen.

and p is an interpolant,

**Uniqueness** Suppose that both  $p \in \mathbb{P}_n[x]$  and  $q \in \mathbb{P}_n[x]$  interpolate to the same n + 1 data. Then the *n*th degree polynomial p - q vanishes at n + 1 distinct points. But the only *n*th-degree polynomial with  $\geq n + 1$  zeros is the zero polynomial. Therefore  $p - q \equiv 0$  and the interpolating polynomial is unique.

**Complexity** For each k = 0, ..., n, evaluating  $L_k(x)$  takes  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  operations, and thus the total complexity of evaluating p(x) using the Lagrange formula is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ .

#### **1.3** The error of polynomial interpolation

Let [a, b] be a closed interval of  $\mathbb{R}$ . We denote by C[a, b] the space of all continuous functions from [a, b] to  $\mathbb{R}$  and let  $C^s[a, b]$ , where s is a positive integer, stand for the linear space of all functions in C[a, b] that possess s continuous derivatives.

**Theorem** Given  $f \in C^{n+1}[a,b]$ , let  $p \in \mathbb{P}_n[x]$  interpolate the values  $f(x_i)$ ,  $i = 0, 1, \ldots, n$ , where  $x_0, \ldots, x_n \in [a,b]$  are pairwise distinct. Then for every  $x \in [a,b]$  there exists  $\xi \in [a,b]$  such that

$$f(x) - p(x) = \frac{1}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(\xi) \prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i).$$
(1.1)

**Proof.** The formula (1.1) is true when  $x = x_j$  for  $j \in \{0, 1, ..., n\}$ , since both sides of the equation vanish. Let  $x \in [a, b]$  be any other point and define

$$\phi(t) := f(t) - \left( p(t) + (f(x) - p(x)) \frac{\prod_{i=0}^{n} (t - x_i)}{\prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i)} \right), \qquad t \in [a, b].$$

[Note: The variable in  $\phi$  is t, whereas x is a fixed parameter.] Note that  $\phi(x_j) = 0, j = 0, 1, ..., n$ , and  $\phi(x) = 0$ . Hence,  $\phi$  has at least n + 2 distinct zeros in [a, b]. Moreover,  $\phi \in C^{n+1}[a, b]$ .

We now apply the *Rolle theorem:* if the function  $g \in C^1[a, b]$  vanishes at two distinct points in [a, b] then its derivative vanishes at an intermediate point. We deduce that  $\phi'$  vanishes at (at least) n + 1 distinct points in [a, b]. Next, applying Rolle to  $\phi'$ , we conclude that  $\phi''$  vanishes at n points in [a, b]. In general, we prove by induction that  $\phi^{(s)}$  vanishes at n + 2 - s distinct points of [a, b] for  $s = 0, 1, \ldots, n + 1$ . Letting s = n + 1, we have  $\phi^{(n+1)}(\xi) = 0$  for some  $\xi \in [a, b]$ . Hence

$$0 = \phi^{(n+1)}(\xi) = f^{(n+1)}(\xi) - \left(p^{(n+1)}(\xi) + (f(x) - p(x))\frac{(n+1)!}{\prod_{i=0}^{n}(x-x_i)}\right)$$

where we used the fact that  $\frac{d^{n+1}}{dt^{n+1}}\prod_{i=0}^{n}(t-x_i) = (n+1)!$ . Using the fact that  $p^{(n+1)} \equiv 0$  (since p is a polynomial of degree n) we finally get (1.1).

**Runge's example** We interpolate  $f(x) = 1/(1+x^2)$ ,  $x \in [-5,5]$ , at the equally-spaced points  $x_j = -5 + 10\frac{j}{n}$ , j = 0, 1, ..., n. Some of the errors are displayed below



**Table:** Errors for n = 20

**Figure:** Errors for n = 15

The growth in the error is explained by the product term in (1.1) (the rightmost column of the table). Adding more interpolation points makes the largest error even worse. A remedy to this state of affairs is to cluster points toward the end of the range. A considerably smaller error is attained for  $x_j = 5 \cos \frac{(n-j)\pi}{n}$ ,  $j = 0, 1, \ldots, n$  (so-called *Chebyshev points*). It is possible to prove that this choice of points minimizes the magnitude of  $\max_{x \in [-5,5]} |\prod_{i=0}^{n} (x - x_i)|$ .