

Honors Numerical Analysis

Lecture 16

There are a few questions that can be asked about p_n at this point:

[Q1] If the points (x_j, y_j) come from a smooth function, what is the error between p_n and the function f :



[Q2] What is the cost of evaluating p_n ? If a new data point is added, (x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}) , what is the cost of updating p_n ?

[Q3] In floating point arithmetic, is the evaluation of p_n stable?

[Q1] Note, if $y_j = f(x_j)$, then $p_n(x_j) = y_j = f(x_j)$ by construction. If $x \neq x_j$, then

Theorem: Let $f \in C^{n+1}[a, b]$. For $x \in (a, b)$, there exists a $\xi = \xi(x) \in (a, b)$ such that

$$f(x) - p_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \prod_{j=0}^n (x - x_j)$$

Exact pointwise error.

Similar to Taylor's thm

Depends highly on the choice of interpolator points.

□

Moreover:

$$|f(x) - p_n(x)| \leq \frac{M_{n+1}}{(n+1)!} |\pi_{n+1}(x)|$$

where $M_{n+1} = \max_{t \in [a,b]} |f^{(n+1)}(t)|$

$$\pi_{n+1}(x) = \prod_{j=0}^n (x - x_j)$$

Proof is detailed, will not go through it, see text.

Two takeaway points:

- ① Only useful if M_{n+1} can be computed.
- ② The interpolation error highly depends on where the nodes x_j are located.

This will be very important later on.

Q2 The cost of evaluating p_n depends on the form it is written in.

Lagrange Form: $p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n y_k L_k(x)$, $L_k(x) = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq k}}^n \frac{x - x_j}{x_k - x_j}$

$n+1$ mult
 n adds

3 flops
 $3(n-1)$ flops.

$\Rightarrow (n+1)3(n-1)$ flops to evaluate all L_k s.

\Rightarrow overall, $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ flops to evaluate p_n in Lagrange form.

Compare this with Horner's Method;

If the coefficients a_0, \dots, a_n are known in

$$p_n(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n \quad \text{then we can}$$

rewrite p_n as:

$$p_n(x) = a_0 + x(a_1 + a_2x + \dots + a_nx^{n-1})$$

$$= a_0 + x(a_1 + x(a_2 + a_3x + \dots + a_nx^{n-2}))$$

$$= a_0 + x(a_1 + x(a_2 + x(\dots)))$$

$$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{b_{n-1} = a_{n-1} + a_nx}$$

$$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{b_{n-2} = a_{n-2} + b_{n-1}x}$$

$$b_{n-1} = a_{n-1} + a_nx \quad (1 \text{ mult}, 1 \text{ add})$$

$$b_{n-2} = a_{n-2} + b_{n-1}x \quad (1 \text{ mult}, 1 \text{ add})$$

\vdots

$$b_0 = a_0 + b_1x \quad (1 \text{ mult}, 1 \text{ add})$$

$$= p_n(x) \Rightarrow \boxed{2n \text{ flops}}$$

This means that the Lagrange Form is very inefficient.

Is there a better form?

Q3 The numerical stability of evaluating p_n in Lagrange form:

Short story: The basic Lagrange form $p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n y_k L_k(x)$ can be unstable (i.e. have large condition number).

(Ex: overflow/underflow, roundoff error, etc.)

Alternative form next class.

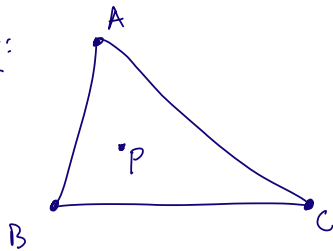
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Barycentric Form(s) of Interpolation

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 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)

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \underbrace{\left(\prod_{j \neq k} \frac{(x-x_j)}{(x_k-x_j)} \right)}_{L_k(x)} y_k \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^n \underbrace{\left(\prod_{j=0}^n (x-x_j) \right)}_{\text{does not depend on } k} \frac{1}{x-x_k} \left(\prod_{j \neq k} \frac{1}{(x_k-x_j)} \right) y_k \\
 &= \underbrace{\left(\prod_{j=0}^n (x-x_j) \right)}_{\varphi(x)} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{x-x_k} \underbrace{\left(\prod_{j \neq k} \frac{1}{x_k-x_j} \right)}_{w_k} y_k \\
 &= \varphi(x) \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{w_k}{x-x_k} y_k \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(Modified Lagrange Form)} \\ \text{First Barycentric Formula} \end{array}
 \end{aligned}$$

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:

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

This interpolant is mathematically equivalent to 1 .

$$\text{Then } p_n(x) = \frac{\cancel{\varphi(x)} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{w_k}{x-x_k} y_k}{\cancel{\varphi(x)} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{w_k}{x-x_k}} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^n w_k / (x-x_k) \cdot y_k}{\sum_{k=0}^n w_k / (x-x_k)} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Second} \\ \text{Barycentric} \\ \text{Formula.} \end{array}$$

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:

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

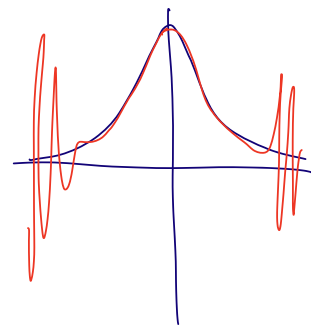
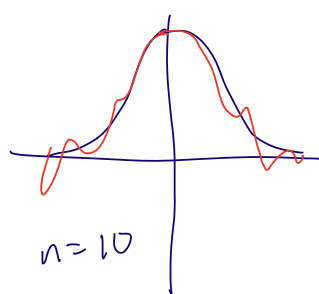
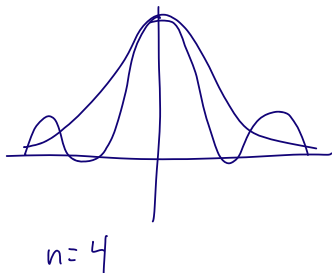
It's not obvious if this increases or decreases as $n \rightarrow \infty$...

Example

Runge's Function

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

The Range Effect



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)