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In this lecture, we look at how we find the *best* computer approximation of a function. This will give us computational representations.

These notes are based on Chapter 2 in Gautschi's Numerical Analysis textbook.

#### THE PROBLEM SETUP

Given a function *f*, find  $\phi \in Phi$  a linear function space.

What is f? f is simply what you are interested in working with! It could be something simple, like sin(x). Or it could be something complicated, like the amount of fuel used by a SpaceX rocket moving a satellite to a geostationary transfer orbit. That second function is much more complicated and I hope you agree it's possible to *simulate* the function for particular points in geostationary transfer orbit, but having any insight into the function "as a math expression" is hard.

A simple setting for linear functions spaces is as a linear combination of elementary functions. These are nice because we can represent elements in these function spaces with their coefficients

**Example.** Let  $\pi_1(t), \ldots, \pi_n(t)$  be linearly independent functions. Then  $\Phi = \{c_1\pi_1(t) + c_2\pi_2(t) + \ldots + c_n\pi_n(t) \mid c_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$ 

Linearly independent functions. (Or ?) In linear algebra with vectors, we have

 $\mathbf{v}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{v}_k$ 

are linearly independent, then  $c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \ldots + c_k\mathbf{v}_k = 0$  is true if and only if  $c_1, \ldots, c_k = 0$ . So the same definition also holds for functions A linearly independent set of functions is characterized by the property that the only way of representing the zero function f(t) = 0 is where all the scalar terms  $c_1, \ldots, c_k$  are zero.

### LIMITING OUR CLASS OF FUNCTIONS

Now, the above setting is very general. We often look at standard classes. Two standard classes are

· polynomials for general problems

• trig functions for periodic domains

Why these two classes? Well, let's address polynomials first.

Polynomials are fairly easy to work with and reason about. They are linear combinations of monomials.<sup>1</sup>

The second reason polynomials are helpful is the Weierstrauss approximation theorem.

#### WEIERSTRAUSS APPROXIMATION THEOREM

Let *f* be a continuous function on [-1, 1]. Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then there exists a polynomial *p* such that

 $\|f-p\|_{\infty} \leq \varepsilon.$ 

The proof is hard and intricate and not particularly relevant. But it relies on *morphing* between a simple function  $\hat{f}$  and the original continuous function f using a PDE. This is a heat flow PDE like you see in morphing animations. As we reverse this process, it's smooth (because it's a heat flow PDE) and super continuous. Each function at each step then has a convergence taylor approximation, i.e. a polynomial.

<sup>1</sup> Although this is a terrible way to work with them! Do not use monomial polynomial representations unless you have very small degree polynomials.

See Chapter 6 in Trefethen ATAP for more on this theorem.

# SOLVING BEST APPROXIMATION PROBLEMS AND THE NORMAL EQUATIONS

Let  $\Phi$  be linear function space with basis function  $\pi_i$  and coefficients  $c_i$ . Our goal is to find  $\phi \in \Phi$ , or equivalently,  $c_i$ , to represent an arbitrary function f.

Consequently, the least squares approximation is find  $\phi \in Phi$  where

$$\|f-\phi\|_2$$

is as small as possible.

Assume that the  $\pi_i$  are linearly independent. Then we have

$$E = ||f - \phi||_2^2 = ||f - \sum_i c_i \pi_i||_2^2 \dots$$
 lots of algebra in class

This can be written in terms of terms involving  $\int \pi_i \pi_j dx$  or  $\int f \pi_i dx$ . These are something called *inner products*.

## ASIDE ON INNER PRODUCTS

The inner-product of two functions f and g is the result

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)g(x) dx \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \int f(t)g(t) d\lambda(t) \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \int fg d\lambda(t)$$
or equivalently  $(f,g)$ 

These inner product have some nice properties

- Symmetric (f, g) = (g, f)
- Homogeneous  $(\alpha f, g) = \alpha(f, g)$
- Additive (u + v, w) = (u, w) + (v, w)
- Positive Definite  $(u, u) \ge 0$  and (u, u) = 0 if and only if u = 0.

These, of course, are really the properties of linearity.