# Orthogonal-Polynomials

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In [1]: # Pkg.add(["Polynomials", "PyPlot"]) uncomment to install if needed
using Polynomials, PyPlot

## 1 Dot products of functions

We can apply the Gram–Schmidt process to *any* vector space as long as we **define a dot product** (also called an **inner product**). (Technically, a continuous ("complete") vector space equipped with an inner product is called a **Hilbert space**.)

For column vectors, the usual dot product is to multiply the components and add them up.

But (real-valued) functions f(x) also define a vector space (you can add, subtract, and multiply by constants). In particular, consider functions defined on the interval  $x \in [-1, 1]$ . The "components" of f can be viewed as its values f(x) at each point in the domain, and the obvious analogue of "summing the components" is the **integral**. Hence, the most obvious "dot product" of two functions in this space is:

$$f \cdot g = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x) \, dx$$

Such a generalized inner product is commonly denoted  $\langle f, g \rangle$  (or  $\langle f | g \rangle$  in physics).

## 2 Orthogonal polynomials

In particular, let us consider a subspace of functions defined on [-1, 1]: **polynomials** p(x) (of any degree). One possible basis of polynomials is simply:

$$1, x, x^2, x^3, \dots$$

(There are infinitely many polynomials in this basis because this vector space is **infinite-dimensional**.) Instead, let us apply Gram–Schmidt to this basis in order to get an **orthogonal basis of polynomials** known as the Legendre polynomials.

#### 2.1 Julia code

I'll use the Polynomials package to do polynomial arithmetic for me.

However, I'll need to define a few extra methods to perform my dot products from above, and I also want to display ("pretty print") the polynomials a bit more nicely than the default.

Out[2]: polydot (generic function with 1 method)

```
In [3]: # force IJulia to display as LaTeX rather than HTML
Base.mimewritable(::MIME"text/html", ::Poly) = false
```

#### 2.2 Gram–Schmidt on polynomials

Now, let's apply Gram-Schmidt on the polynomials  $a_i = x^i$  for i = 0, 1, ...

Ordinarily, in Gram–Schmidt, I would normalize each result p(x) by dividing by  $||p|| = \sqrt{p \cdot p}$ , but that will result in a lot of annoying square roots. Instead, I will divide by p(1) to result in the more conventional Legendre polynomials.

That means that to get  $p_i(x)$ , I will do:

$$\hat{p}_i(x) = a_i(x) - \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} p_j(x) \frac{p_j \cdot a_i}{p_j \cdot p_j}$$
$$p(x) = \hat{p}(x)/\hat{p}(1)$$

where I explicitly divide by  $p_i \cdot p_i$  in the projections to compensate for the lack of normalization.

In Julia, I will use the special syntax 2 // 3 to construct the exact rational  $\frac{2}{3}$ , etc. This will allow me to see the exact Legendre polynomials without any roundoff errors or annoying decimals.

In [4]: p0 = a0 = Poly([1//1])

Out[4]:

1

```
In [5]: a1 = Poly([0, 1//1])
```

Out[5]:

x

Out[6]:

x

Orthogonalization didn't change x, because x and 1 are already orthogonal under this dot product. In fact, any even power of x is orthogonal to any odd power (because the dot product is the integral of an even function times an odd function).

On the other hand,  $x^2$  and 1 are *not* orthogonal, so orthogonalizing them leads to a *different* polynomial of degree 2:

 $x^2$ 

In [7]: a2 = Poly([0, 0, 1//1])
Out[7]:

Out[8]:

$$-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2} \cdot x^2$$

It quickly gets tiresome to type in these expressions one by one, so let's just write a function to compute the Legendre polynomials  $p_0, \ldots, p_n$ :

```
In [9]: function legendre_gramschmidt(n)
    legendre = [Poly([1//1])]
    for i = 1:n
        p = Poly([k == i ? 1//1 : 0//1 for k=0:i])
        for q in legendre
            p = p - q * (polydot(q, p) // polydot(q,q))
        end
        push!(legendre, p / p(1))
    end
    return legendre
    end
```

Out[9]: legendre\_gramschmidt (generic function with 1 method)

```
In [10]: L = legendre_gramschmidt(5)
Out[10]: 6-element Array{Polynomials.Poly{Rational{Int64}},1}:
        Poly(1//1)
        Poly(x)
        Poly(-1//2 + 3//2·x^2)
        Poly(-3//2·x + 5//2·x^3)
        Poly(3//8 - 15//4·x^2 + 35//8·x^4)
        Poly(15//8·x - 35//4·x^3 + 63//8·x^5)
```

Let's display them more nicely with LaTeX:

In [11]: foreach(p -> display("text/latex", p), L)

```
1
x
-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2} \cdot x^{2}
-\frac{3}{2} \cdot x + \frac{5}{2} \cdot x^{3}
\frac{3}{8} - \frac{15}{4} \cdot x^{2} + \frac{35}{8} \cdot x^{4}
\frac{15}{8} \cdot x - \frac{35}{4} \cdot x^{3} + \frac{63}{8} \cdot x^{5}
```

Key things to notice:

• The polynomials contain *only even* or *only odd* powers of x, but not both. The reason is that the even and odd powers of x are *already* orthogonal under this dot product, as noted above.

• A key property of Gram–Schmidt is that the first k vectors span the same space as the original first k vectors, for any k. In this case, it means that  $p_0, \ldots, p_k$  span the same space as  $1, x, \ldots, x^k$ . That is, the  $p_0, \ldots, p_k$  polynomials are an orthogonal basis for all polynomials of degree k or less.

These polynomials are **very special** in many ways. To get a hint of that, let's plot them:

```
In [12]: leg = []
    x = linspace(-1, 1, 300)
    for i in eachindex(L)
        plot(x, L[i].(x), "-")
        push!(leg, "\$P_{$(i-1)}(x)\$")
    end
    plot(x, 0*x, "k--")
    legend(leg)
    xlabel(L"x")
    ylabel("Legendre polynomials")
```





Note that  $p_n(x)$  has exactly n roots in the interval [-1, 1]!

#### 2.2.1 Expanding a polynomial in the Legendre basis.

Now that we have an orthogonal (but not orthonormal) basis, it is easy to take an arbitrary polynomial p(x) and write it in this basis:

$$p(x) = \alpha_0 p_0(x) + \alpha_1 p_1(x) + \dots = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha_i p_i(x)$$

because we can get the coefficients  $\alpha_i$  merely by projecting:

$$\alpha_i = \frac{p_i \cdot p}{p_i \cdot p_i}$$

Note, however, that this isn't actually an infinite series: if the polynomial p(x) has degree d, then  $\alpha_i = 0$  for i > d. The polynomials  $p_0, \ldots, p_d$  are a basis for the subspace of polynomials of degree d (= span of  $1, x, \ldots, x^d$ )!

Let's see how this works for a "randomly" chosen p(x) of degree 5:

In [13]: p = Poly([1,3,4,7,2,5])

Out[13]:

$$1 + 3 \cdot x + 4 \cdot x^2 + 7 \cdot x^3 + 2 \cdot x^4 + 5 \cdot x^5$$

Here are the coefficients  $\alpha$ :

In [14]:  $\alpha$  = [polydot(q,p)/polydot(q,q) for q in L]

```
Out[14]: 6-element Array{Rational{Int64},1}:
```

41//15 327//35 80//21 226//45 16//35 40//63

Let's check that the sum of  $\alpha_i p_i(x)$  gives p(x):

In [15]: sum( $\alpha$  .\* L) #  $\alpha$ [1]\*L[1] +  $\alpha$ [2]\*L[2] + ... +  $\alpha$ [6]\*L[6] Out[15]:

$$1 + 3 \cdot x + 4 \cdot x^2 + 7 \cdot x^3 + 2 \cdot x^4 + 5 \cdot x^5$$

In [16]: sum( $\alpha$  .\* L) - p

Out[16]:

0//1

### 2.3 Polynomial fits

#### 2.3.1 Review: Projections and Least-Square

Given a matrix Q with n orthonormal columns  $q_i$ , we know that the **orthogonal projection** 

$$p = QQ^T b = \sum_{i=1}^n q_i q_i^T b$$

is the closest vector in C(Q) to b. That is, it minimizes the distance:

$$\min_{p \in C(Q)} \|p - b\| \; .$$

#### 2.3.2 Closest polynomials

Now, suppose that we have some function f(x) on  $x \in [-1, 1]$  that is *not* a polynomial, and we want to find the **closest polynomial** of degree n to f(x) in the least-square sense. That is, we want to find the polynomials p(x) of degree n that **minimizes** 

$$\min_{p \in \mathcal{P}_n} \int_{-1}^1 |f(x) - p(x)|^2 dx = \min_{p \in \mathcal{P}_n} \|f(x) - p(x)\|^2$$

where

$$\mathcal{P}_n = \operatorname{span}\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\} = \operatorname{span}\{p_0(x), p_1(x), \dots, p_n(x)\}$$

is the space of polynomials of degree  $\leq n$ , spanned by our Legendre polynomials up to degree n.

Presented in this context, we can see that this is the same problem as our least-square problem above, and the solution should be the same: p(x) is the **orthogonal projection** of f(x) onto  $\mathcal{P}_n$ , given by:

$$p(x) = p_0(x)\frac{p_0 \cdot f}{p_0 \cdot p_0} + \dots + p_n(x)\frac{p_n \cdot f}{p_n \cdot p_n} .$$

Let's try this out for  $f(x) = e^x$ . Because we're lazy, we'll have Julia compute the integrals numerically using its quadgk function, and fit it to polynomials of degree 5 using our Legendre polynomials from above.

```
In [17]: polydot(p::Poly, f::Function) = quadgk(x \rightarrow p(x)*f(x), -1,1, abstol=1e-13, reltol=1e-11)[1]
```

```
Out[17]: polydot (generic function with 2 methods)
```

Now, let's use dot products to compute the coefficients in the  $p_i(x)$  expansion above for  $f(x) = e^x$  (the exp function in Julia):

One thing to notice is an important fact: expanding functions, especially smooth functions, in orthogonal bases like Legendre polynomials or Fourier series tends to converge very rapidly.

Let's write out the resulting polynomial p(x):

```
In [19]: p = sum(coeffs .* L)
```

Out[19]:

Let's plot it:



```
Out[20]: PyObject <matplotlib.text.Text object at 0x31f991610>
```

They are so close that you can hardly tell the difference! Let's plot the fits for degree  $0, 1, \ldots, 3$  so that we can watch it converge:



Out[21]: PyObject <matplotlib.text.Text object at 0x322f64950>

By degree 3, it is hard to tell the difference from  $e^x$ .