## Continuous Least-Square Fit

We want to find the 'best' way of approximating  $\sin x$  by a quadratic polynomial, in the interval  $0 < x < \frac{\pi}{2}$  (let's work in radians now).

We do it again by minimizing the 'sum' (now the integral) of squares of the residuals:

$$S = \int_{0}^{\pi/2} (\sin x - a - bx - cx^{2})^{2} dx$$

or

$$S = \int_{A}^{B} (y(x) - a - bx - cx^{2})^{2} dx$$

in general.

This leads to the following **normal equations** for a, b and c

Important simplification is achieved by first assuming: A=-1 and B=1. This is not a real restriction - we can easily go from y(x) to  $Y(X)\equiv y\left(\frac{A+B}{2}+\frac{B-A}{2}X\right)$ , and back, by the so called **shift**:  $X\to \frac{2x-(A+B)}{B-A}$ .

We can thus concentrate on solving

Secondly, instead of using  $a + bX + cX^2$ , we will fit

$$\hat{a} \phi_0(X) + \hat{b} \phi_1(X) + \hat{c} \phi_2(X)$$

where  $\phi_0(X)$ ,  $\phi_1(X)$  and  $\phi_2(X)$  are zero, first and second degree polynomials, *orthogonal* in the following sense:

$$\int_{-1}^{1} \phi_i(X) \cdot \phi_j(X) \, dX = 0$$

whenever  $i \neq j$ .

This modifies our normal equations to

with all the off-diagonal elements equal to zero. The solution is thus quite trivial:

$$\hat{a} = \frac{\int_{-1}^{1} \phi_0(X)Y(X)dX}{\alpha_0}$$

$$\hat{b} = \frac{\int_{-1}^{1} \phi_1(X)Y(X)dX}{\alpha_1}$$

$$\hat{c} = \frac{\int_{-1}^{1} \phi_2(X)Y(X)dX}{\alpha_2}$$

where  $\alpha_0 \equiv \int_{-1}^1 \phi_0(X)^2 dX,$   $\alpha_1 \equiv \int_{-1}^1 \phi_1(X)^2 dX,$  etc.

Furthermore, to fit a cubic polynomial instead of quadratic, we simply add

$$\hat{d} = \frac{\int_{-1}^{1} \phi_3(X) Y(X) dX}{\alpha_3}$$

Typical error:

$$\sqrt{\frac{S_{\min}}{2}} = \sqrt{\frac{\int_{-1}^{1} Y(X)^{2} dX - \alpha_{0} \, \hat{a}^{2} - \alpha_{1} \, \hat{b}^{2} - \alpha_{2} \, \hat{c}^{2}}{2}}$$

## Orthogonal (Legendgre) Polynomials:

We must yet construct  $\phi_0, \phi_1, \phi_2, ...$ 

We start with

$$\phi_0(X) = 1$$

(any constant would do); the corresponding  $\alpha_0$  is:  $\int_{-1}^{1} 1^2 dX = 2$ .

Next, we try  $\phi_1(X) = X + C$ . Making it orthogonal to  $\phi_0(X)$  requires

$$\int_{-1}^{1} 1 \cdot (X + C) \, dX = 2C = 0$$

which implies that C = 0. We thus have

$$\phi_1(X) = X$$

with 
$$\alpha_1 = \int_{-1}^1 X^2 dX = \frac{2}{3}$$
.

At this point we may realize that polynomials containing only odd powers of X are *automatically* orthogonal to polynomials with only even powers. Utilizing that:  $\phi_2(X) = X^2 + C$  (different C). It is automatically orthogonal to  $\phi_1(X)$ , we must also make it orthogonal to  $\phi_0(X)$  by

$$\int_{-1}^{1} 1 \cdot (X^2 + C) \, dX = \frac{2}{3} + 2C = 0 \Rightarrow C = -\frac{1}{3}$$

This results in

$$\phi_2(X) = X^2 - \frac{1}{3}$$

with  $\alpha_2 = \int_{-1}^1 (X^2 - \frac{1}{3})^2 dX = \frac{2}{5} - \frac{4}{9} + \frac{2}{9} = \frac{8}{45}$  (the  $\int_{-1}^1 X^{2n} dX = \frac{2}{2n+1}$  formula comes handy).

Similarly,  $\phi_3(X) = X^3 + CX$ . Making it orthogonal to  $\phi_1(X)$ :

$$\int_{-1}^{1} X \cdot (X^3 + CX) \, dX = \frac{2}{5} + \frac{2}{3}C = 0 \Rightarrow C = -\frac{3}{5}$$

Thus

$$\phi_3(X) = X^3 - \frac{3}{5}X$$

and 
$$\alpha_3 = \int_{-1}^{1} (X^3 - \frac{3}{5}X)^2 dX = \frac{2}{7} - \frac{6}{5} \cdot \frac{2}{5} + \frac{9}{25} \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{8}{175}$$
.

To construct  $\phi_4(X)$  we can use  $X^4+C_2X^2+C_0$ , but it is more convenient (why?) to use  $\phi_4(X)=X^4+C_2\phi_2(X)+C_0\phi_0(X)$  instead. We have to make it orthogonal

to  $\phi_0(x)$ :

$$\int_{-1}^{1} \phi_0(X) \cdot \left[ X^4 + C_2 \phi_2(X) + C_0 \phi_0(X) \right] dX = \frac{2}{5} + 2C_0 = 0 \Rightarrow C_0 = -\frac{1}{5}$$

and to  $\phi_2(X)$ :

$$\int_{-1}^{1} \phi_2(X) \cdot \left[ X^4 + C_2 \phi_2(X) + C_0 \phi_0(X) \right] dX = \frac{2}{7} - \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{5} + \frac{8}{45} C_1 = 0 \Rightarrow C_1 = -\frac{6}{7}$$

implying that

$$\phi_4(X) = X^4 - \frac{6}{7}\left(X^2 - \frac{1}{3}\right) - \frac{1}{5} = X^4 - \frac{6}{7}X^2 + \frac{3}{35}$$

(the signs will always alternate), with  $\alpha_4 = \int_{-1}^{1} (X^4 - \frac{6}{7}X^2 + \frac{3}{35})^2 dX = \frac{128}{11025}$ .

It should be obvious, how to continue this process (called **Gram-Schmidt orthog-onalization**). The resulting polynomials are called **Legendre**, and are quite useful in many other areas of Mathematics and Physics.

## Example:

Fit  $\sin x$  by a **cubic** polynomial, in the  $(0, \frac{\pi}{2})$  interval.

Replacing x by  $\frac{A+B}{2} + \frac{B-A}{2}X = \frac{\pi}{4}(1+X)$ , this is the same as fitting  $\sin[\frac{\pi}{4}(1+X)]$  over (-1,1).

Using the previous formulas:

$$\hat{a} = \frac{\int_{-1}^{1} \sin[\frac{\pi}{4}(1+X)] dX}{2} = \frac{2}{\pi}$$

$$\hat{b} = \frac{\int_{-1}^{1} X \sin[\frac{\pi}{4}(1+X)] dX}{\frac{2}{3}} = 6 \cdot \frac{4-\pi}{\pi^2}$$

$$\hat{c} = \frac{\int_{-1}^{1} (X^2 - \frac{1}{3}) \sin[\frac{\pi}{4}(1+X)] dX}{\frac{8}{45}} = \frac{15 \cdot \frac{48 - 12\pi - \pi^2}{\pi^3}}{\frac{8}{175}}$$

$$\hat{d} = \frac{\int_{-1}^{1} (X^3 - \frac{3}{5}X) \sin[\frac{\pi}{4}(1+X)] dX}{\frac{8}{175}} = \frac{35 \cdot \frac{960 - 240\pi - 24\pi^2 + \pi^3}{\pi^4}}{\frac{960 - 240\pi - 24\pi^2 + \pi^3}{\pi^4}}$$

The corresponding least-squares polynomial is thus

$$\frac{2}{\pi} + 6 \cdot \frac{4 - \pi}{\pi^2} X - 15 \cdot \frac{48 - 12\pi - \pi^2}{\pi^3} (X^2 - \frac{1}{3})$$
$$-35 \cdot \frac{960 - 240\pi - 24\pi^2 + \pi^3}{\pi^4} (X^3 - \frac{3}{5}X)$$

having the typical error of

$$\sqrt{\frac{\int_{-1}^{1} \sin\left[\frac{\pi}{4}(1+X)\right]^{2} dX - 2\hat{a}^{2} - \frac{2}{3}\hat{b}^{2} - \frac{8}{45}\hat{c}^{2} - \frac{8}{175}\hat{d}^{2}}{2}}$$

$$= 0.000833$$

The final answer must be expressed in terms of x (by:  $X \to \frac{4}{\pi} \cdot x - 1$ ). Expanded, this yields:

$$-2.25846244 \times 10^{-3} + 1.027169553x$$
$$-0.0699437654x^{2} - 0.1138684594x^{3}$$