# Orthogonal Polynomials and Polynomial Approximation to Functions 

## 1 The Vector Space $L_{2}(a, b)$

The vector space $L_{2}(a, b)$ is the set of all square-integrable functions defined over the interval $[a, b]$. If a function $f \in L_{2}(a, b)$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{b} d x f(x)<\infty \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Given two such function $f$ and $g$, it is easy to see that a linear combination $c_{1} f+c_{2} g$ also satisfies condition (1). We can define a 'zero' function $f_{0}$ such that $f_{0}(x)=0 \forall x \in[a, b]$. Then, it is easy to see that the set of all such functions form a vector space. We can further define an inner-product on this space as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
f \cdot g=\int_{a}^{b} d x f(x) g(x) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to check that this satisfies the linearity condition for the inner product

$$
\begin{equation*}
f \cdot(\alpha g+\beta h)=\alpha f \cdot g+\beta f \cdot h \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha, \beta$ are numbers and $f, g, h$ are functions in $L_{2}(a, b)$. This inner product also induces a norm ('length' of vector $f$ ) as follows

$$
\begin{align*}
\|f\|^{2} & =f \cdot f  \tag{4}\\
& =\int_{a}^{b} d x f^{2}(x)
\end{align*}
$$

Since there is an infinite number of linearly independent functions which satisfy condition (1), this is an infinite dimensional vector space.

## 2 The Vector Space $\mathcal{P}_{n}$

We now consider the set of all polynomials of degree less than equal to $n$ over the interval $[-1,1]$. We will see how to generalize the analysis to an arbitrary interval $[a, b]$. It is easy to see that the set of all such polynomials also forms a vector space, which we denote as $\mathcal{P}_{n}$. This is clearly a sub-space of the vector space $L_{2}(-1,1)$. It is also easy to see that this is an $n+1$ dimensional vector space, since the set $\left\{1, x, x^{2}, x^{3}, \ldots, x^{n}\right\}$, which is linearly independent, spans the space (any such polynomial can be written as a linear combination of these functions) and therefore forms a basis, since any such polynomial can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{n}(x)=c_{0}+c_{1} x+c_{2} x^{2}+c_{3} x^{3}+\ldots+c_{n} x^{n} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

However, this basis is not orthonormal. We can construct an orthonormal basis out of this basis using Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization. Let us call the basis $\left\{\phi_{0}=1, \phi_{1}=x, \phi_{2}=x^{2}, . ., \phi_{n}=x^{n}\right\}$ the 'natural' basis, since we naturally view a polynomial of degree $n$ as an expansion in these simple functions.

Let us denote the orthonormal basis as $\left\{P_{0}, P_{1}, . ., P_{n}\right\}$. Following the Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization procedure, we choose the first unit 'vector' as $\phi_{0}$ itself, normalized

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{0} & =\frac{1}{\left\|\phi_{0}\right\|} \phi_{0} \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\phi_{0}\right\|^{2} & =\phi_{0} \cdot \phi_{0} \\
& =\int_{-1} 1 d x 1 \\
& =2
\end{aligned}
$$

Next, we add the vector $\phi_{1}$ and project out its component along the unit-vector $P_{0}$. Let us call this new vector $\psi_{1}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi_{1} & =\phi_{1}-\left(\phi_{1} \cdot P_{0}\right) P_{0} \\
& =\phi_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

since $\phi_{1} \cdot P_{0}=0$. Then, the second unit vector is just

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{1} & =\frac{1}{\left\|\psi_{1}\right\|} \psi_{1} \\
& =\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} x
\end{aligned}
$$

Next, we take $\phi_{2}$ and project out its components along $P_{0}$ and $P_{1}$ to give $\psi_{2}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi_{2} & =\phi_{2}-\left(\phi_{2} \cdot P_{1}\right) P_{1}-\left(\phi_{2} \cdot P_{0}\right) P_{0} \\
& =\phi_{2}-\left(\phi_{2} \cdot P_{0}\right) P_{0} \\
& =x^{2}-\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, we get the unit vector $P_{2}$ as

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{2} & =\frac{1}{\left\|\psi_{2}\right\|} \psi_{2} \\
& =\sqrt{\frac{5}{8}}\left(3 x^{2}-1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We can similarly recursively generate the unit vectors $P_{3}, P_{4}, . ., P_{n}$. These orthonormal functions defined over the interval $[-1,1]$ are just the 'special' functions known as Legendre Polynomials. The next two orthonormal vectors in this set are

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{3} & =\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{7}{2}}\left(5 x^{3}-3 x\right) \\
P_{4} & =\frac{1}{8} \sqrt{\frac{9}{2}}\left(35 x^{4}-30 x^{2}+3\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## 3 Polynomial Approximation

Consider an arbitrary function $f$ belonging to $L_{2}(-1,1)$. Say, we wish to approximate this function by a polynomial of degree $n$. To do this, of all the polynomials of degree less than equal to $n$, we wish to pick
the one which is 'closest' to the function $f$. Since each such polynomial belongs to the subspace $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ of the vector space $L_{2}(-1,1)$, the natural measure of 'closeness' is the norm $\left\|f-p_{n}\right\|$ where $p_{n} \in \mathcal{P}_{n}$, which can be thought of as the 'distance' between functions $f$ and $p_{n}$. The mathematical problem then reduces to determining $p_{n} \in \mathcal{P}_{n}$ which minimises this norm. Since $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ is a subspace of $L_{2}(-1,1)$. the element of $\mathcal{P}_{n}$ which minimises this norm is just the orthogonal projection of the vector $f$ on to $\mathcal{P}_{n}$. This is just the function/vector $f_{\perp}$ given by

$$
f_{\perp}=\sum_{i=0}^{n}\left(f \cdot P_{i}\right) P_{i}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
f \cdot P_{i}=\int_{-1}^{1} d x f(x) P_{i}(x) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The strategy can be extended to an arbitrary interval $x \in[a, b]$. First, we define a new variable $y$ as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=\left(\frac{2}{b-a}\right) x+\left(\frac{a+b}{a-b}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

This maps $y$ to the interval $[-1,1]$. Next, we define the function

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(y)=f\left[\left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right) y+\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)\right] \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is defined over $[-1,1]$. We can approximate $g(y)$ by its orthogonal projection over $\mathcal{P}_{n}, g_{\perp}$. Then, the required polynomial approximation for $f$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{\perp}=g_{\perp}\left[\left(\frac{2}{b-a}\right) x+\left(\frac{a+b}{a-b}\right)\right] \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 4 Generalizing the Inner Product: The Weight Function

The definition (2) of the inner product can be generalized as follows: Given a non-negative function $w(x)$ over the interval $[a, b]$, we can generalize the definition of inner product to

$$
\begin{equation*}
f \cdot g=\int_{a}^{b} d x w(x) f(x) g(x) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to check that this satisfies the linearity condition and also induces positive norm (because of the positivity of $w(x)$ ). For different values of $a$ and $b$ and choices of the 'weight function' $w$, the Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization leads to different families of orthogonal polynomials (Hermite, Laguerre, Chebyshev, etc.). From the point of view of polynomial approximation, a given weight function could include the information about certain regions where we wish the polynomial approximation to be more accurate. The choice of $w(x)=1$ treats the entire domain democratically. However, say we wish to be more precise near the middle of the interval. Then, a weight function which is maximum in the middle of the interval will yield the desired approximation.
Of particular importance is the choice $w(x)=1 / \sqrt{1-x^{2}}$ corresponding to the interval $[-1,1]$. This choice generates the Chebyshev Polynomials, which have the special 'min-max' property, making zeros of these polynomials the preferred choice of interpolation points in the problem of polynomial interpolation.

