

On a Geometrical Interpolation Problem

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Abstract

Given a finite set of points A in \mathbb{R}^n and a geometrical pattern Φ we define a type of distance between A and Φ and study how to find a pattern Φ among a parametrized family of geometrical objects such that such a distance is minimum.

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1 Preliminaries

Many bidimensional "patterns" have a concatenation of plane curve arcs as boundaries; similarly, 3-dimensional "patterns" have as boundary a concatenation of surface pieces. For this reason, it could be useful to introduce and to study some new metrical properties, which permit to formulate and solve some interpolation problems.

Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be an open set and fix an integer $k \geq 1$. Consider a map $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ of class $C^1(U)$, $f = (f_1, \dots, f_k)^T$; for any $x \in U$, denote $J_f(x) = \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \right)$; $1 \leq i \leq k$, $1 \leq j \leq n$, the Jacobian matrix. The most important case in what follows will be when $k < n$; in this case, a point $x \in U$ is said regular for f if $\text{rank}(J_f(x)) = k$. The set of type $f^{-1}(0)$ generalize the plane curves, the surfaces, space curves etc.

Definition 1.1. We call a *pattern* in U any set of the form $\Phi = \bigcup_{i=1}^M \Phi_i$, such that there are C^1 functions $g_i : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$, $1 \leq i \leq M$ and $\Phi_i \subset g_i^{-1}(0)$ have all their points regular.

If $k = 1$, $\Phi \subset g^{-1}(0)$, where $g = g_1 \cdot g_2 \dots g_M$; if x is regular for g_i , $1 \leq i \leq M$, it could be not regular for g .

Given a point $a \in U$, $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n)^T$ a pattern Φ as above, it could be useful to define a suitable distance $d(a, \Phi)$ between them. If so, take $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_N \in U$ as N distinct points ("points of surveillance"); one knows that even the simple interpolation Lagrange problem has some obstructions to be solved, instead it

could be useful to determine, under some conditions, a function f such that the sum $\sum_{i=1}^N d(A_i, f^{-1}(0))^2$ is minimum. Such problems will be treated in what follows.

On the other hand, recall that if $A \in M_{k,n}(\mathbb{R})$, $B \in M_{k,1}(\mathbb{R})$ are two matrices, then $A^+ \in M_{n,k}(\mathbb{R})$ means the Penrose pseudoinverse of A , [4] and by putting $B^+ = AA^+B$, the vector $\xi = A^+B$ is unique in \mathbb{R}^n such that $A\xi = B^+$, the latter being just the orthogonal projection of B on ImA (that is $\|B - B^+\| = \text{minimum}$); ξ is called the *pseudosolution* of the linear system $AX = B$. If $k \leq n$ and $\text{rank}A = n$, then $A^+ = A^T \cdot (AA^T)^{-1}$.

2 A distance between a point and a pattern

Definition 2.1. Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be open and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$, $f = (f_1, \dots, f_k)^T$ be a C^1 -map; for any point $a \in U$ define the *distance* from a to the pattern $f^{-1}(0)$ as being

$$(1) \quad \delta(a, f^{-1}(0)) = \|J_f(a)^+ \cdot f(a)\| \text{ (Euclidean norm)}$$

Example. In the case when $k = 1$ and f is linear nonnull, $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i x_i$, put $c = (c_1, \dots, c_n)^T$; then for any $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n)^T$, one has $f(a) = c^T \cdot a$, $J_f(a) = c^T$ and $J_f(a)^+ = \frac{c}{\|c\|^2}$. Put $p = a - J_f(a)^+ \cdot f(a)$ hence $p = a - \frac{1}{\|c\|^2} (c \cdot c^T \cdot a)$. Then $f(p) = c^T \cdot p = 0$ and the vector $a - p$ is normal to the hyperplane $f^{-1}(0)$. In this case, $\|a - p\| = \delta(a, f^{-1}(0))$, justifying thus the definition 2.1. So δ extends the Euclidean distance.

Proposition 2.2. Suppose that $1 \leq k < n$ and $a \in U$ is a regular point for a C^1 -map $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$. Then

$$(2) \quad \delta(a, f^{-1}(0)) = \left(f(a)^T \cdot (J_f(a) \cdot J_f(a)^T)^{-1} \cdot f(a) \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Proof. Let $J = J_f(a)$ hence $\text{rank}J = k$ (maximum); in this case, the symmetrical matrix $J \cdot J^T$ is invertible and moreover, $J^+ = J^T \cdot (J \cdot J^T)^{-1}$. Then by the definition 2.1.,

$$\delta(a, f^{-1}(0))^2 = \|J^+ \cdot f(a)\|^2 = \langle J^+ \cdot f(a), J^+ \cdot f(a) \rangle = f(a)^T \cdot (J^+)^T \cdot J^+ \cdot f(a).$$

Since $J^+ = J^T (J \cdot J^T)^{-1}$, one obtains:

$$\delta(a, f^{-1}(0))^2 = f(a)^T \cdot (J \cdot J^T)^{-1} \cdot J \cdot J^T \cdot (J \cdot J^T)^{-1} \cdot f(a).$$

But $J \cdot J^T \cdot (J \cdot J^T)^{-1} = I_n$ therefore $\delta(a, f^{-1}(0))^2 = f(a)^T \cdot (J \cdot J^T)^{-1} \cdot f(a)$, whence the proposition.

Corollary 2.3. Fix $a \in U$. The map $f \rightarrow \delta(a, f^{-1}(0))$, restricted to C^1 -functions on U for which a is regular, is continuous.

Corollary 2.4. Let $f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f_i(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j$, where $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2 = 1$ for $1 \leq i \leq k < n$ and the $k \times n$ -matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ has the rank k . Consider the hyperplanes

$$H_i = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid f_i(x) = b_i\}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq k$$

and put $B = (b_1, \dots, b_k)^T$. Then the pseudosolution of the linear system $A \cdot X = B$ minimizes the sum $\sum_{i=1}^k \delta(x, H_i)^2$.

Proof. Define $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$, $f(x) = (f_1(x) - b_1, \dots, f_k(x) - b_k)$ hence by proposition 2.2 $\delta(x, f^{-1}(0)) = f(x)^T \cdot (AA^T)^{-1} \cdot f(x)$ for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Put $B^+ = AA^+B = (b_1^+, \dots, b_k^+)^T$; then $\xi = A^+B$ is the pseudosolution of the system $AX = B$ and $A\xi = AA^+B = B^+$. We have

$$\delta(x, H_i) = d(x, H_i) = |f_i(x) - b_i|$$

and

$$\delta(\xi, H_i) = d(\xi, H_i) = |f_i(\xi) - b_i|,$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^k \delta(x, H_i)^2 &= d(f(x), b)^2 \geq d(Imf, b)^2 \geq \|B - B^+\|^2 = \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k (b_i^+ - b_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k |f_i(\xi) - b_i|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \delta(\xi, H_i)^2. \end{aligned}$$

The distance given in the definition 2.1 has some convenient geometrical properties. Under obvious hypothesis, one directly proves:

Proposition 2.5. Let $a \in U$ and a C^1 -function $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$.

1) If $A \in M_k(\mathbb{R})$ is nonsingular and $g = A \cdot f$, then $\delta(a, f^{-1}(0)) = \delta(a, g^{-1}(0))$;

2) If $Q \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ is an orthogonal matrix and $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $Tx = Qx + c$ is an isometry, then $\delta(a, f^{-1}(0)) = \delta(Ta, Tf^{-1}(0))$;

3) For any $\lambda > 0$, $\delta(\lambda a, g^{-1}(0)) = \lambda \delta(a, f^{-1}(0))$, where $g(x) = f\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)$.

3 A least-square interpolation problem and an algorithm

Let $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \dots, A_N\} \subset U$ ($U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open) be a fixed set of distinct "points of surveillance". For any pattern $\Phi = f^{-1}(0)$, where $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is a C^1 -function such that each A_i is regular for f , we put

$$(3) \quad \delta(\mathcal{A}, \Phi) = \sum_{i=1}^N \delta(A_i, f^{-1}(0))^2.$$

One can formulate the following problem:

(II). Given \mathcal{A} , determine a function f which minimizes $\delta(\mathcal{A}, f^{-1}(0))$. Such a problem could have some applications in Pattern Recognition [3]. In fact it is a geometrical nonlinear variant of the least squares method and the solution is generally not unique. In [1] one proves that whenever $F \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed and $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, with $F = f^{-1}(0)$, then for any continuous function $\epsilon : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ there exists a C^∞ -function $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $g^{-1}(0) = F$ and $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $|f(x) - g(x)| < \epsilon(x)$. This shows that for any pattern there are smooth functions which define it.

In what follows, we present the case when the unknown belongs to a parametrized family of functions (e.g. quadrics, cubics, spline-functions etc).

Let $P \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ be an open subset in a parameters space and $F : U \times P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ be a map such that for any $p \in P$, $p = (p_1, \dots, p_m)^T$, F determines a C^1 -function $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$, $x \rightarrow F(x, p)$; suppose there is a bijective correspondence between such functions and parameters (this happens for instance in the case of the polynomial functions of degree at most d , where $P = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $m = \binom{n+d}{n}$); in such a case, the function $\delta(\mathcal{A}, \Phi)$ becomes a function of the coefficients of the polynomials). In the case of the linear dependence on parameters, we also can impose supplementary relations on parameters, which do not modify the solution; for instance, the following condition

$$(4) \quad \sum_{i=1}^N J_f(A_i) \cdot J_f(A_i)^T = I_k.$$

Indeed, since the matrices $J_f(A_i) \cdot J_f(A_i)^T$ are symmetrical, positively semi-definite and nonsingular (A_i being supposed regular points of f), these matrixes result positively definite and the same is true for the matrix $C = \sum_{i=1}^N J_f(A_i) \cdot J_f(A_i)^T$. So there is an orthogonal matrix $Q \in M_k(\mathbb{R})$ such that $Q^T \cdot C \cdot Q = I_k$ and therefore Qf will verify (4).

Suppose now that the points A_1, \dots, A_N are "sufficiently near" of $f^{-1}(0)$, in the sense that $\delta(A_i, f^{-1}(0)) \simeq \|f(A_i)\|$, for each i . By (3), $\delta(\mathcal{A}, f^{-1}(0)) \simeq \sum_{i=1}^N \|f(A_i)\|^2$. Finally suppose fixed r C^2 -functions $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_r : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$, linearly independent and consider that the unknown C^2 -function f has the form $f = (f_1, \dots, f_k)^T$, where $f_i = \sum_{j=1}^r p_{ij} \varphi_j$, $1 \leq i \leq k$, with p_{ij} unknown real constant (as parameters); in matricial writing, $f = P^T \cdot \varphi$, where $P = (p_{ij}) \in M_{r,k}(\mathbb{R})$. Check the function f , that is the matrix P , such that the sum $\sum_{i=1}^N \|f(A_i)\|^2$ is minimum, with the restriction (4). In this case,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^N \|f(A_i)\|^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^N f(A_i)^T \cdot f(A_i) = \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \varphi(A_i)^T \cdot P \cdot P^T \cdot \varphi(A_i) = \text{tr}(P^T \cdot A \cdot P), \end{aligned}$$

where $A = \sum_{i=1}^N \varphi(A_i) \cdot \varphi(A_i)^T \in M_r(\mathbb{R})$ is a known symmetrical, positively semi-definite matrix. On the other part, since

$$J_f(A_i) \cdot J_f(A_i)^T = P^T \cdot J_\varphi(A_i) \cdot J_\varphi(A_i)^T \cdot P,$$

by putting

$$B = \sum_{i=1}^N J_\varphi(A_i) \cdot J_\varphi(A_i)^T,$$

with $B \in M_r(\mathbb{R})$ known, the relation (4) becomes $P^T \cdot B \cdot P = I_k$. Thus, the above least-squares problem reduces to the following matricial one: *check a matrix $P \in M_{r,k}(\mathbb{R})$ of rank k such that $P^T \cdot B \cdot P = I_k$ and $\text{tr}(P^T \cdot A \cdot P)$ be minimum.*

In order to solve this, we first remark that $P^T \cdot A \cdot P$ can be assumed diagonal [indeed, $P^T \cdot A \cdot P$ is symmetrical and positively semi-definite, hence there is an orthogonal matrix $Q \in M_k(\mathbb{R})$, i.e., $Q \cdot Q^T = I_k$, such that $Q^T(P^T \cdot A \cdot P)Q$ is diagonal; but $\text{tr}(P^T \cdot A \cdot P) = \text{tr}((PQ)^T \cdot A \cdot P \cdot Q)$ and moreover, $P^T \cdot B \cdot P = I_k$ if and only if $(PQ)^T \cdot B \cdot P \cdot Q = I_k$. Thus, one can substitute P by PQ]. Denote by x_1, \dots, x_k the column vectors of the matrix P ; then $\text{tr}(P^T \cdot A \cdot P) = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i^T A x_i$ and the relation $P^T \cdot B \cdot P = I_k$ can be written $x_i^T \cdot B \cdot x_j = \delta_{ij}$ for any $1 \leq i, j \leq k$. Consider the Lagrangean

$$\mathcal{L}(x_1, \dots, x_k, L) = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i^T A x_i - \sum_{u=1}^k \sum_{v=1}^k \lambda_{uv} (x_u^T B x_v - \delta_{uv}),$$

where $L = (\lambda_{uv})$; $1 \leq u, v \leq k$ is the matrix of the Lagrange multipliers; the necessary (here also sufficient) extreme condition is $\nabla \mathcal{L} = 0$ and this leads to $AP - BPL = 0$. But $P^T AP = D$ (diagonal) hence $L = I_k L = (P^T BP)L = P^T(BPL) = P^T AP = D$. Therefore the matrix L will be diagonal and much more, positively semi-definite (since A is so). Put $L = \text{diag}(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$ and the relation $AP - BPL = 0$ leads to $(A - \alpha_i B)x_i = 0$, $1 \leq i \leq k$, hence x_i is an eigenvector of the matrix-bundle $A - \alpha B$, with an eigenvalue α_i . One can apply different methods to determine the vectors x_i and, by this, the matrix P .

All the above can be shortly concentrated in the following.

Proposition 3.1. (Algorithm to solve the problem II). *Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be an open set. Fix r linearly independent C^2 -functions $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_r : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ and N "points of surveillance" $A_1, \dots, A_N \in U$. The problem is to look for a function $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ [whose components f_1, \dots, f_k are linear combinations of $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_r$, namely $(f_1, \dots, f_k) = (\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_r)P$, with $P \in M_{r,k}(\mathbb{R})$ a matrix to be determined], such that the pattern $f^{-1}(0)$ is the nearest to the set $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \dots, A_N\}$.*

Step I

Determine the $r \times r$ -matrices $A = \sum_{i=1}^N \varphi(A_i) \cdot \varphi(A_i)^T$ and $B = \sum_{i=1}^N J_\varphi(A_i) \cdot J_\varphi(A_i)^T$, where $\varphi = (\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_r)^T$.

Step II

The column-vectors x_1, \dots, x_k of the looked for matrix P (of rank k) are just the eigen vectors of the matrix-bundle $A - \alpha B$ and moreover verify $P^T BP = I_k$. One determines thus x_1, \dots, x_k and P .

As well as the matrices A, B are known (that depending on the choice of the functions $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_r$), this algorithm requires $O(r^3)$ operations.

4 A Newton-Raphson type result

In the paper [2] it was proved the following result:

Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a nonempty convex bounded set, $f : D \rightarrow D$ a C^2 -map such that any point of $f^{-1}(0)$ is nonsingular for f . For $u \in D$ fixed, define the

function $h_u : D \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $h_u(x, t) = f(x) + (t-1)f(u)$. Then for a.e. $u \in D$, the set

$$\{(x, t) \in D \times [0, 1] \mid 0 \leq t \leq 1, \quad h_u(x, t) = 0\}$$

either consists of a finite number of closed curves in $D \times [0, 1]$, or a finite number of arcs in $D \times (0, 1)$ with their ends in $D \times \{1\}$ or $D \times \{0\}$, or a finite number of arcs which start from $D \times \{0\}$ and end in $D \times \{1\}$; all these three kinds of curves are disjoint, of class C^1 . Therefore, one can find a solution for the equation $f(x) = 0$ by following the curve $h_u^{-1}(0)$ which starts from $(u, 0)$ for some $u \in D$; such a curve will attain a solution ξ of the equation $f(x) = 0$ as soon as $t = 1$ is touched.

Let $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be a C^2 -map ($U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open) and $h(x, t)$, $h : U \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ a C^2 -map such that for any $x \in U$, $h(x, 1) = f(x)$ and the equation $h(x, 0) = 0$ has a solution $u \in U$; for instance, take $h(x, t) = f(x) + (t-1)f(u)$ as above, or $h(x, t) = (1-t)(x-u) + tf(x)$. Suppose that $(\gamma) = h^{-1}(0)$ is a curve in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} which joins $(u, 0)$ and a point $(\xi, 1)$ such that $f(\xi) = 0$. Let $a \in (\gamma)$ be fixed; choose a tangent vector τ in a at (γ) such that $J_h(a) \cdot \tau = 0$, $\|\tau\| = 1$ and $\det \begin{pmatrix} J_h(a) \\ \tau^T \end{pmatrix} > 0$. Then choose a step $p > 0$ sufficiently small such that if $b = a + p\tau$, then $h(b)$ is near to 0. Put $c = b - J_h(b)^+ \cdot h(b)$. By the definition 2.1, $\delta(b, h^{-1}(0)) = \|b - c\|$; c is just near the point where the hyperplane, passing by b and orthogonal to b , intersects (γ) . If u is a point of simple bifurcation for k , then in the neighborhood of u , $h^{-1}(0)$ represents the union of two curves γ_1, γ_2 ; if we take the arc length s as parameter and $\gamma_1(0) = u$, $\gamma_2(0) = u$, then $\det \begin{pmatrix} J_h(s) \\ \dot{\gamma}(s)^T \end{pmatrix}$ changes its sign in $s = 0$ for $\gamma = \gamma_1$ and $\gamma = \gamma_2$ and conversely; both the curves are suitable for the next algorithm.

Proposition 4.1. *Suppose f, h satisfy the conditions of the above formulated result of [2]. Take a solution $u \in D$ of the equation $h(x, 0) = 0$. Take $a_0 = (u, 0)$ and apply the described scheme which yields the sequence $(a_k)_{k \geq 0}$, where $a_{k+1} = c$ and $a_k = a$ as above. This sequence converges to a point $(\xi, 1)$ such that $f(\xi) = 0$.*

The proof uses a typical reasoning for the Newton-Raphson method. The new thing is that b can be singular for h and for this reason we use the pseudoinverse; in fact by the Sard theorem almost all points of \mathbb{R}^n are regular values for the map h .

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