

# How Lagrange Interpolation Works

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## 1 Introduction

This guide is meant to serve as a supplement to Note 8 of CS70. It provides some more explicit explanations on why Lagrange Interpolation works because I didn't understand it the first time I read it. Credit goes to the authors of the original Note 8, as most of this material is a rehash.

## 2 Lagrange Interpolation

Given  $d + 1$  points, we can find the unique degree  $d$  polynomial that fits all the  $d + 1$  points.

## 3 Proofs

**Correctness** First let's find a polynomial such that  $y_1 = 1$  and  $y_j = 0$  for  $2 \leq j \leq d + 1$ . This roughly translates to, " $y_1 = 1$  for a single  $j$ , and  $y = 0$  for the rest". Let's take a look at  $q(x)$  and see if it does what we want.

$$q(x) = (x - x_2)(x - x_3)\dots(x - x_{d+1})$$

So, if we are given  $x_1, \dots, x_{d+1}$  we know that only  $x_1$  will evaluate to a non-zero number. We also know that  $q(x)$  is of degree  $d$  since it has exactly  $d$   $x$ 's which get multiplied together. So, what is  $q(x_1)$  ?

$$q(x_1) = (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3)\dots(x_1 - x_{d+1})$$

Again, all we know about  $q(x_1)$  is that it is some non-zero number. Now, our conditions in the beginning said that we need to find  $p(x)$  such

that  $y_1 = 1$  and  $y_j = 0$  for  $2 \leq j \leq d+1$ . So, if we let  $p(x) = \frac{q(x)}{q(x_1)}$ , we get that  $p(x_1) = 1$ . This is because  $q(x_1)$  is evaluated to some number already, and applying  $q(x)$  to  $x_1$  will give us  $q(x_1)$ . Since the numerator and the denominator of the fraction are equal, we get  $p(x) = 1$ .

Here's an example where we are given  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(2, 0)$ ,  $(3, 0)$  in order to find  $d = 2$  polynomial  $p(x)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} q(x) &= (x-2)(x-3) \\ q(1) &= (1-2)(1-3) \\ p(x) &= \frac{q(x)}{q(1)} \\ p(x) &= \frac{x^2 - 5x + 6}{2} \\ p(1) &= \frac{1^2 - 5(1) + 6}{2} \\ p(1) &= \frac{2}{2} \\ p(1) &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Now that we have done found  $p(x)$  for  $y_1 = 1$  and  $y_j = 0$  for  $2 \leq j \leq d+1$ , we can do the same for an arbitrary  $y_i$  and  $y_j$  where  $i \neq j$ . We can use the following notation:

$$\Delta_i = \frac{\prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j)}{\prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)}$$

This function isn't as confusing as it looks. The numerator is simply  $q(x)$  like we defined above. Instead of choosing  $j \neq 1$  we are choosing some arbitrary  $i$  instead. The denominator is simply  $q(x_1)$ , evaluate  $q(x)$  at the  $x_i$  you omitted in  $q(x)$ , or the numerator. Instead of  $q(1)$  we are choosing some arbitrary  $q(x_i)$ .

This is where the magic happens. We now know how to construct  $\Delta_1(x), \dots, \Delta_{d+1}(x)$ . If we add them all up we certainly have a polynomial of degree  $d$ , but we need for them to evaluate to  $y_i$  given  $x_i$ . So, the point of our delta functions  $\Delta_i(x)$ , is to return 1 given  $x_i$ . How can we exploit this fact to have it return  $y_i$  given  $x_i$ ? Simply multiply  $y_i \Delta_i(x)$ !

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{d+1} y_i \Delta_i(x)$$

If we expand this summation to look like this:

$$p(x) = y_1 \Delta_1(x_1) + \dots y_2 \Delta_2(x_2) + \dots y_{d+1} \Delta_{d+1}(x_{d+1})$$

We can see that given any  $x_i$ , exactly  $d$  terms evaluates to 0 and the  $i$ -th term evaluates to  $y_i$  times 1, since  $\Delta_i(x_i)$  always returns 1 and  $\Delta_{i \neq j}(x_{i \neq j})$  always returns 0.