

Applied Math

Interpolation

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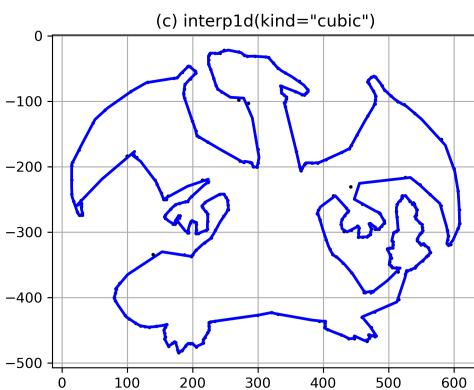
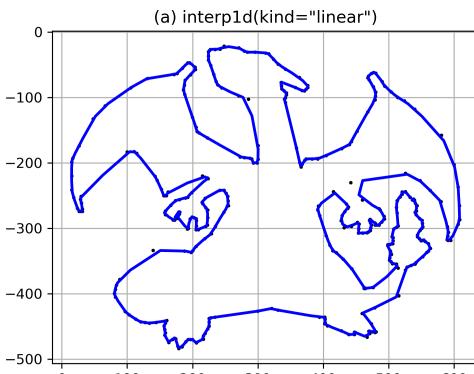
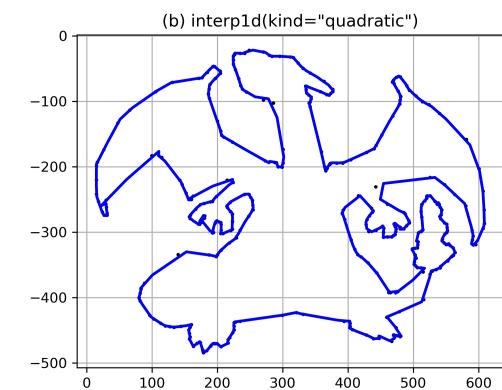
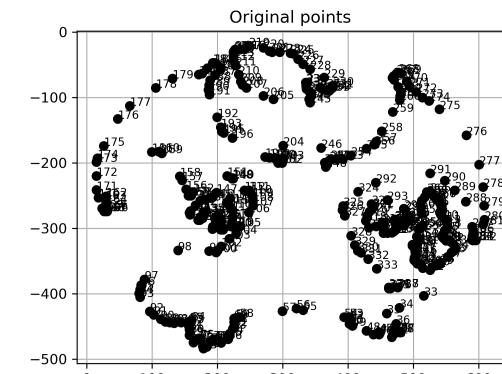
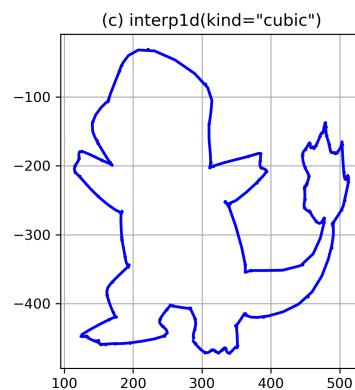
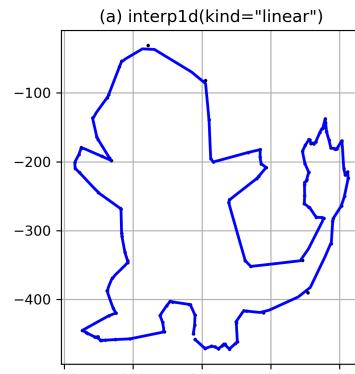
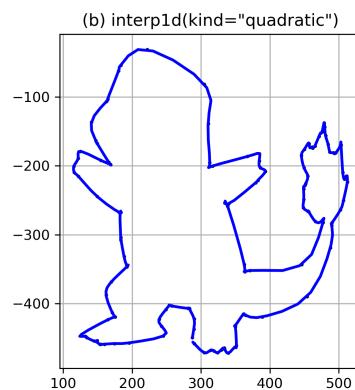
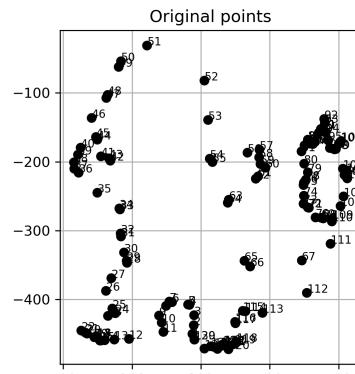
Outline

- Introduction
- Interpolation problem
- Polynomial interpolants and uniqueness
 - Monomial
 - Lagrange
 - Newton
- Interpolation error
- Convergence
- Runge phenomenon
- Stability and Lebesgue constant
- Chebyshev-Gauss-Lobatto nodes

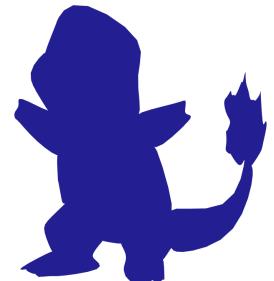
Motivations

- **Data Reconstruction:** estimate missing or unknown values between known data points.
 - Experimental or measured data are available only at discrete points
- **Function Approximation:** approximate complex or unknown functions with simpler ones
 - Polynomials enables easier computation, differentiation, or integration.
- **Computational Efficiency:** replace expensive analytical or numerical evaluations
 - Exploiting fast approximate evaluations using an interpolant in simulations.
- **Data Smoothing and Visualization:** generate smooth curves or surfaces through discrete datasets
 - Qualitative analysis and graphical representation.
- **Modeling and Simulation:** provide continuous input data to numerical solvers for PDEs and ODEs
 - Represent the solution, interpolate boundary or initial conditions.

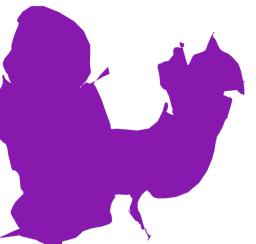
Real motivations



$t = 0.00$



$t = 0.25$



$t = 0.50$



$t = 0.75$

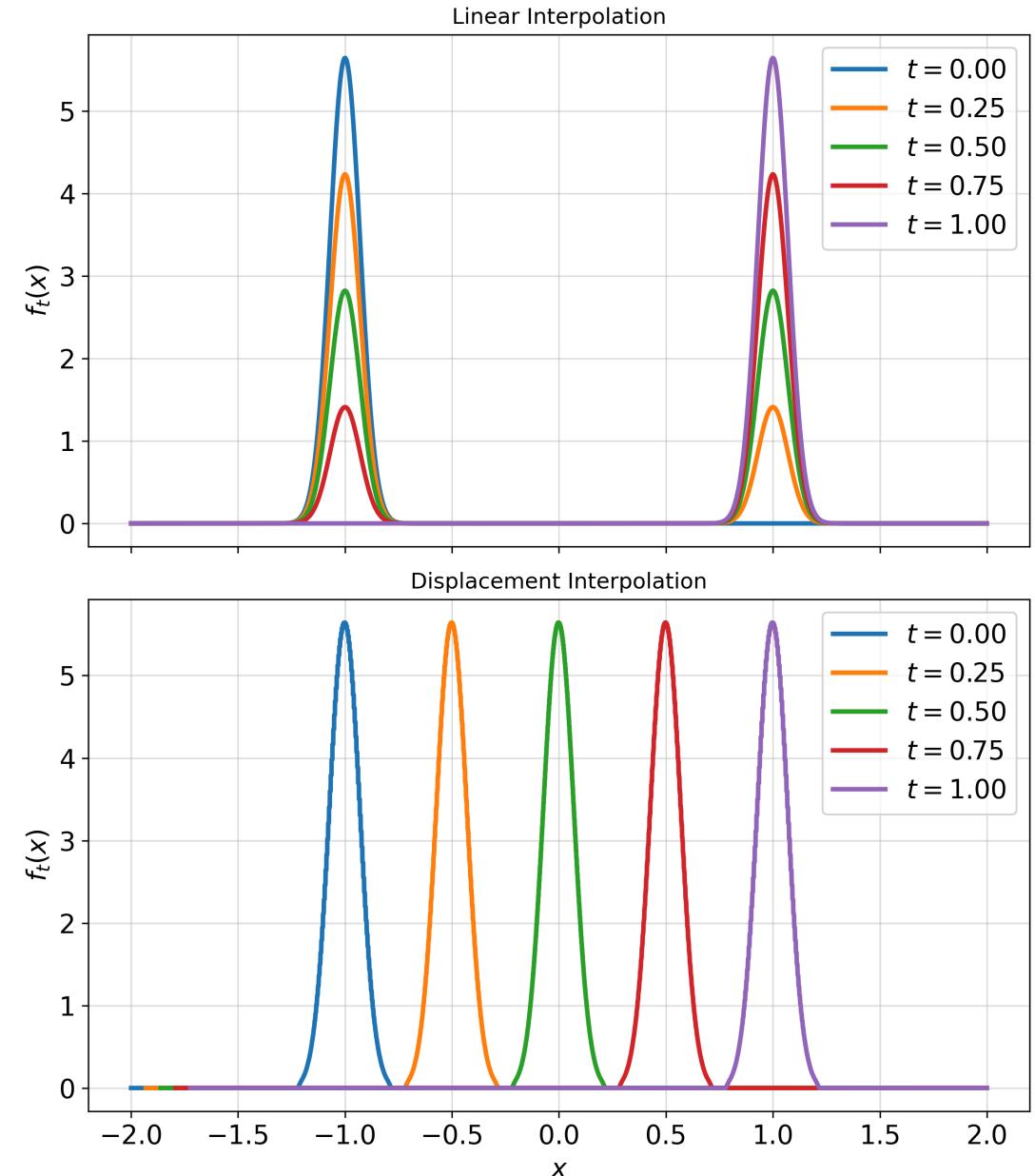


$t = 1.00$



Methodologies and Challenges

- Univariate and multivariate functions
- Polynomial interpolation (Monomial, Lagrange, Newton, and Hermite)
- Piecewise interpolation (splines)
- Trigonometric interpolation (periodicity)
- Scattered data interpolation (Radial Basis Functions for irregularly spaced data)
- High-dimensional and sparse interpolation (sparse grids and tensor-product)
- Interpolating moving features with different support (displacement interpolation)



Problem statement

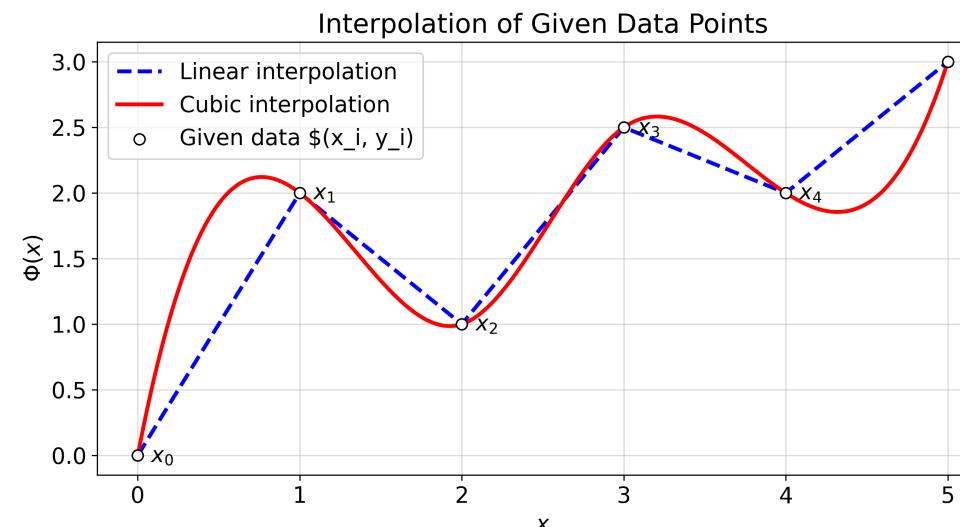
Interpolation. Given $n + 1$ pairs (x_i, y_i) , we look for a function $\Phi = \Phi(x)$ such that

$$\Phi(x_i) = y_i, \quad \text{for } i = 0, \dots, n$$

where y_i are some given values representing the exact value for a function f at x_i or experimental data.

Φ is the *interpolant* that approximate such function/distribution interpolating the y_i at the nodes x_i .

- *Polynomial Interpolation:* Φ is algebraic or piecewise polynomial.
- Additional data might be prescribed (slope), and constraints might be imposed (smooth, monotone)



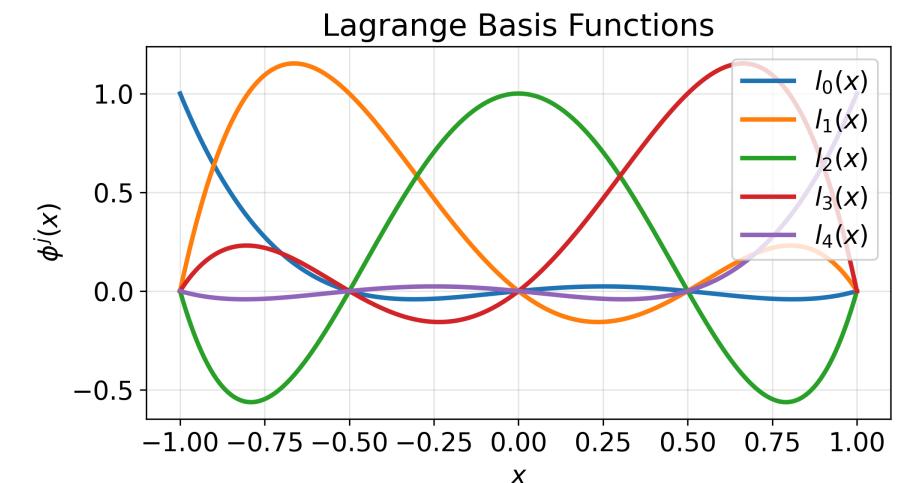
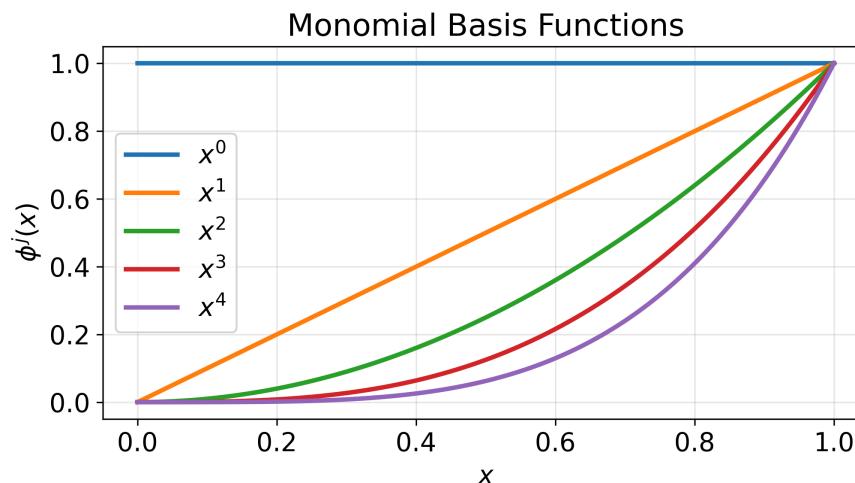
Interpolants

- Monomial interpolation

$$\Phi(x) = \sum_{j=0}^m b_j x^j$$

- Lagrange polynomial interpolation

$$\Phi(x) = \sum_{j=0}^m y_j l_j(x), \quad \text{where} \quad l_j(x) = \prod_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq j}}^n \frac{x - x_k}{x_j - x_k}, \quad \text{for } j = 0, \dots, n$$



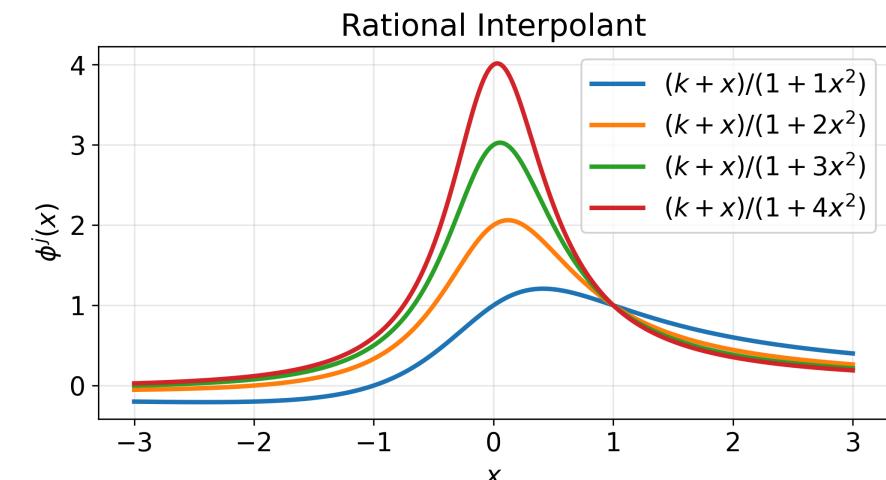
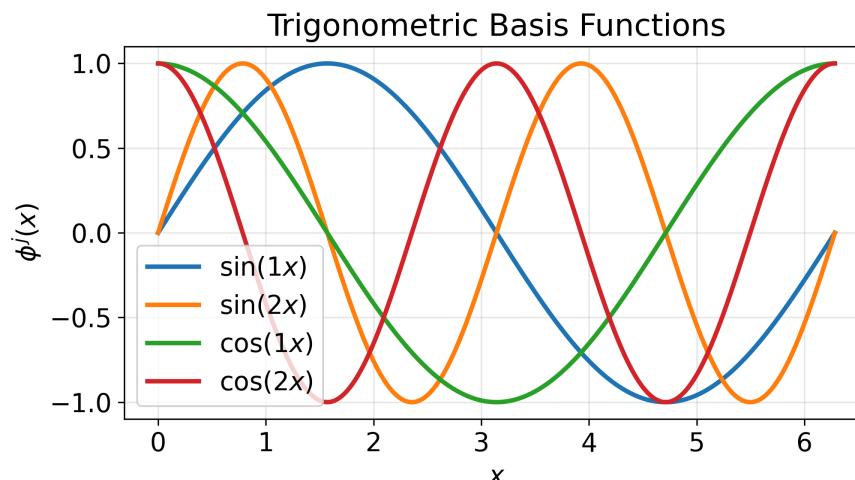
Interpolants

- Trigonometric interpolation (M is an integer equal to $m/2$ if m is even, $(m + 1)/2$ if m is odd)

$$\Phi(x) = \sum_{j=-M}^M b_j e^{ix}, \quad \text{with} \quad e^{ix} = \cos(x) + i \sin(x)$$

- Rational interpolation

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^k b_j x^j}{\sum_{j=0}^m b_{k+1+j} x^j}$$



Polynomial interpolation

Interpolating data points $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=0}^n$ via a linear combination of nonlinear **basis functions** $\{\phi^j(x)\}_{j=0}^m$:

$$\Pi_m(x) = \sum_{j=0}^m b_j \phi^j(x)$$

- x_i are called *interpolation nodes*, and when $n \neq m$ the problem is over or under-determined
 - $m > n$, interpolant usually doesn't exist
 - $m < n$, interpolant is not unique
 - $m = n$, data can be fit exactly

Theorem 1 [Existence and uniqueness]. Given $n + 1$ distinct nodes $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^n$ and $n + 1$ corresponding values $\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n$, there exists a unique polynomial $\Pi_n \in \mathbb{P}_n$ (of degree $m = n$) such that

$$\Pi_n(x_i) = y_i \quad \text{for } i = 0, \dots, n.$$

Polynomial interpolation

Proof. Existence by construction. Denoting by $\{l_j\}_{j=0}^n$ a basis for \mathbb{P}_n , then Π_n admits the representation

$$\Pi_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j l_j(x), \quad \text{such that} \quad \Pi_n(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j l_j(x_i) = y_i, \quad \text{for } i = 0, \dots, n.$$

Lagrange polynomials form a basis for \mathbb{P}_n , and it holds $l_j(x_i) = \delta_{ij}$, so that $b_j = y_j$.

As a consequence, the interpolating polynomial exists and has the following form

$$\Pi_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n y_j l_j(x), \quad \text{where} \quad l_j(x) = \prod_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq j}}^n \frac{x - x_k}{x_j - x_k}, \quad \text{for } j = 0, \dots, n.$$

To prove uniqueness, suppose that another interpolating polynomial Ψ_m of degree $m \leq n$ exists, such that $\Psi_m(x_i) = y_i$ for $i = 0, \dots, n$. Then, the difference polynomial $D = \Pi_n - \Psi_m \in \mathbb{P}_n$ vanishes at $n + 1$ distinct points x_i and thus coincides with the null polynomial, i.e. $D \equiv 0$. Therefore, $\Psi_m = \Pi_n$.

Find interpolation coefficients

Given data points $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=0}^n$ and an interpolant of the type

$$\Pi_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j \phi^j(x),$$

exploiting the **interpolation condition** $\Pi_n(x_i) = y_i$ for $i = 0, \dots, n$ one obtains the **linear system**

$$Ab = \begin{bmatrix} \phi^0(x_0) & \phi^1(x_0) & \cdots & \phi^n(x_0) \\ \phi^0(x_1) & \phi^1(x_1) & \cdots & \phi^n(x_1) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \phi^0(x_n) & \phi^1(x_n) & \cdots & \phi^n(x_n) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = y$$

Considerations for choosing basis functions

- The system $Ab = y$ has to be solved effectively and efficiently.
- Sensitivity of coefficients b to perturbations in data depends on $\text{cond}(A) = \|A^{-1}\| \|A\|$ so that

$$\frac{\|\Delta b\|}{\|b\|} \lesssim \text{cond}(A) \left(\frac{\|\Delta y\|}{\|y\|} + \frac{\|\Delta A\|}{\|A\|} \right)$$

- Most common type of interpolation uses polynomials: easy to evaluate, integrate, differentiate.
- Many interpolation problems follow the same procedure: form A and solve for b .

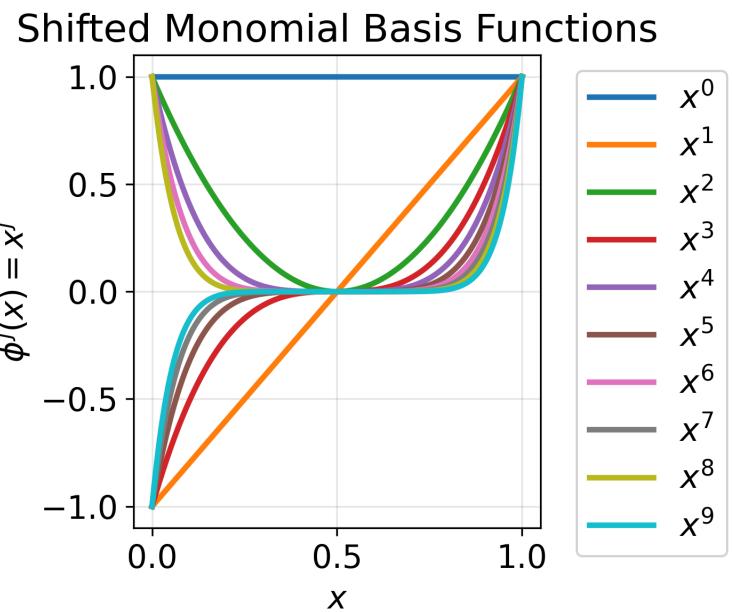
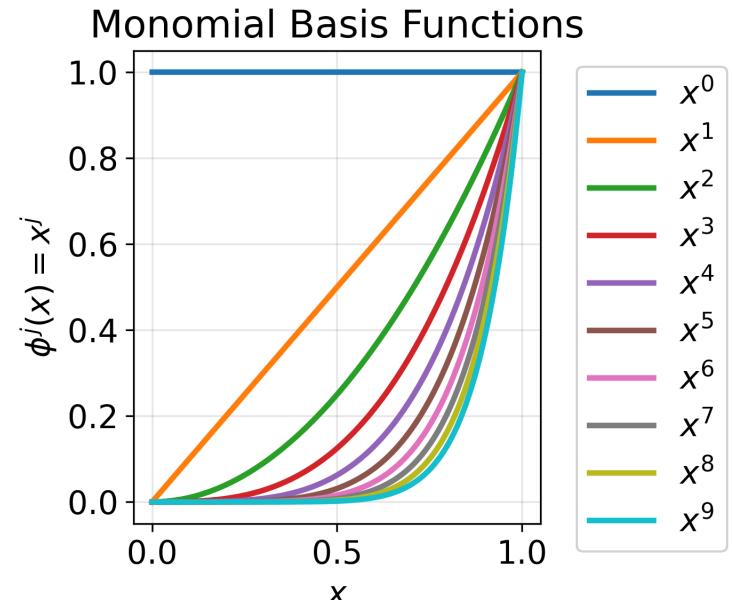
Monomial basis

- Entries of (dense matrix) A are $a_{ij} = \phi^j(x_i) = (x_i)^j$, and $\phi^j(x)$ is similar to $\phi^{j-1}(x)$ as j increases

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & \cdots & (x_0)^n \\ 1 & x_1 & \cdots & (x_1)^n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & \cdots & (x_n)^n \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ to construct and $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ to solve
- $\mathcal{O}(n)$ to evaluate with Horner's rule
- Matrix of this form is called the *Vandermonde* matrix
- Poorly conditioned as n gets larger and/or x -range is wide.
- Improving $\text{cond}(A)$ by scaling and/or shifting basis as

$$\phi^j(x) = \left(\frac{x - c}{d}\right)^j \quad \text{where } c = (x_n + x_0)/2, \ d = (x_n - x_0)/2.$$



Monomial basis: an example

Construct a monomial basis interpolant for

$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=0}^3 = \{(2, 14), (6, 24), (4, 25), (7, 15)\}$$

- Four basis functions for polynomial degree 3:

$$\{\phi_j(x)\}_{j=0}^3 = \{1, x, x^2, x^3\}$$

- The interpolant is of the form be

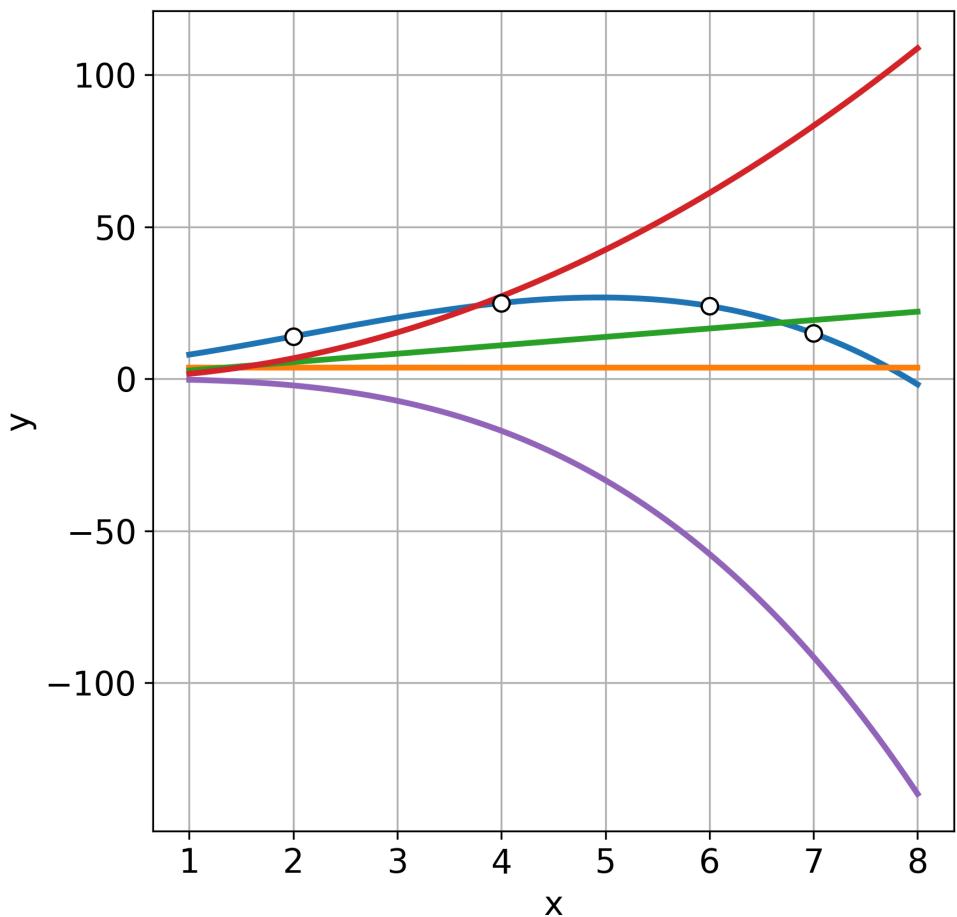
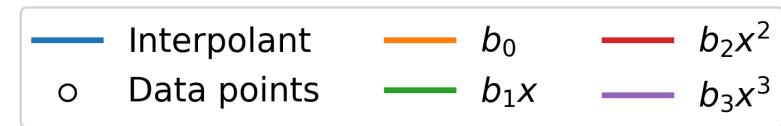
$$\Pi_3(x) = b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + b_3x^3$$

- Construct the linear system:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 \\ 1 & 6 & 36 & 216 \\ 1 & 4 & 16 & 64 \\ 1 & 7 & 49 & 343 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad y = \begin{bmatrix} 14 \\ 24 \\ 25 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Solving $Ab = y$ (with $\text{cond}(A) \approx 10^3$) we get

$$b = [3.8 \quad 2.767 \quad 1.7 \quad -0.267]^T$$



Evaluating polynomials

In monomial basis, interpolant can be written as

$$\Pi_n(x) = b_0 + b_1x + \cdots + b_nx^n,$$

requiring n additions and $2n - 1$ multiplications for its evaluation.

By exploiting Horner's nested evaluation scheme one can efficiently rewrite the interpolant as

$$\Pi_n(x) = b_0 + x(b_1 + x(\cdots (b_{n-1} + b_nx) \cdots)),$$

which requires only n additions and n multiplications.

- For example

$$1 - 4x + 5x^2 - 2x^3 + 3x^4 = 1 + x(-4 + x(5 + x(-2 + 3x))).$$

Manipulations with interpolating polynomials (differentiation, integration) are easy with this representation.

Lagrange basis

Lagrange interpolant defined as

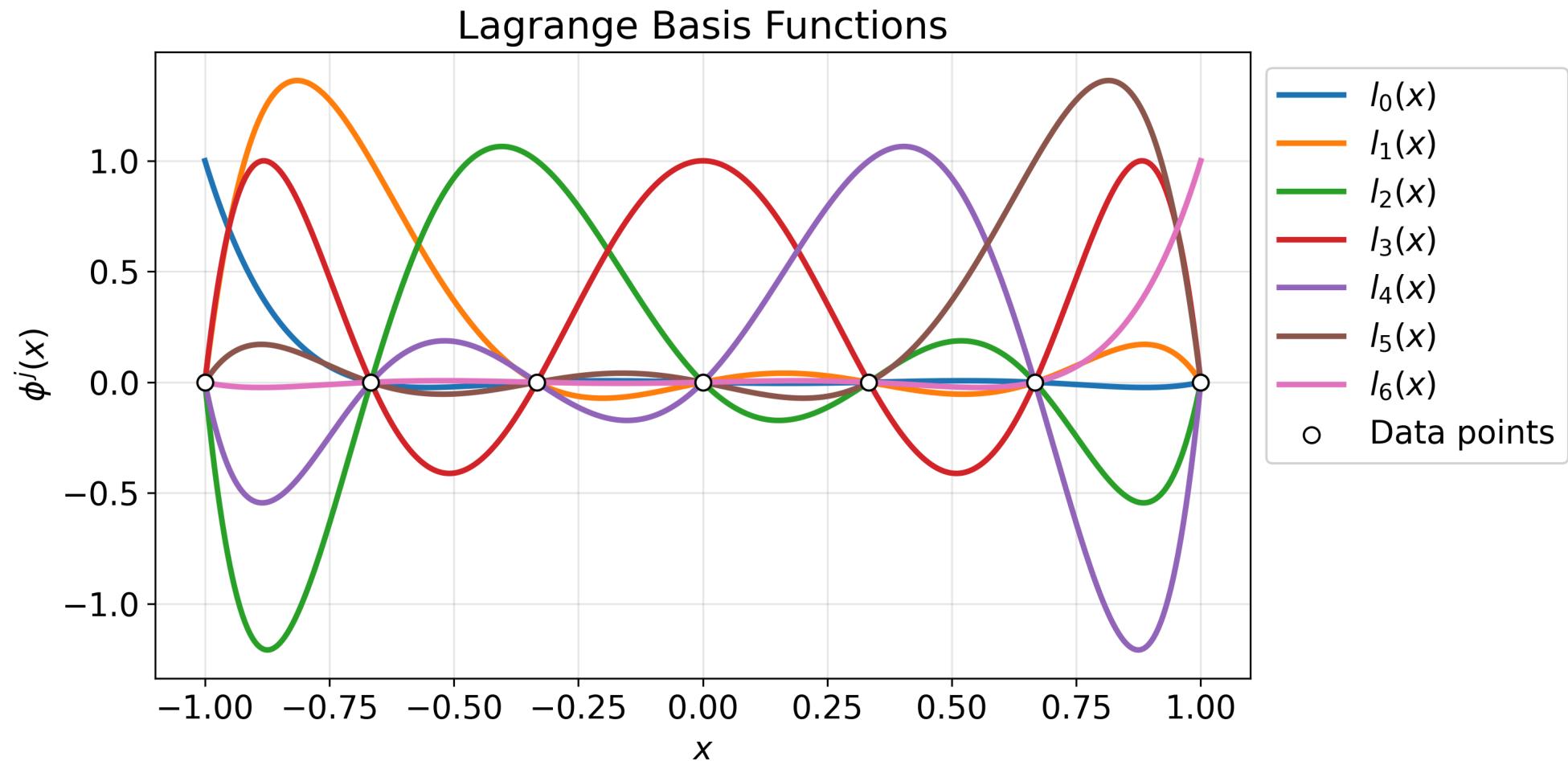
$$\Pi_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n y_j l_j(x), \quad \text{where } l_j(x) = \prod_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq j}}^n \frac{x - x_k}{x_j - x_k}, \quad \text{for } j = 0, \dots, n$$

$\rightsquigarrow a_{ij} = l_j(x_i) = \delta_{ij}$, i.e. $A = \mathbf{Id}$ (best-conditioned matrix), and no system needs to be solved.

- $l_j(x)$ are called **characteristic polynomials** and are defined from interpolation nodes.
- The coefficients b for the Lagrange basis are directly given by the data values y .
- Alternative representation via **nodal polynomial** ω_{n+1} and barycentric weights $q_j^{-1} = \omega'_{n+1}(x_j)$

$$\Pi_n(x) = \omega_{n+1}(x) \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{q_j}{(x - x_j)} y_j \quad \text{where } \omega_{n+1}(x) = \prod_{j=0}^n (x - x_j), \quad q_j = \prod_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq j}}^n \frac{1}{x_j - x_k}$$

Lagrange basis



Lagrange basis: an example

Construct a monomial basis interpolant for

$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=0}^3 = \{(2, 14), (6, 24), (4, 25), (7, 15)\}$$

- Four basis functions for polynomial degree 3:

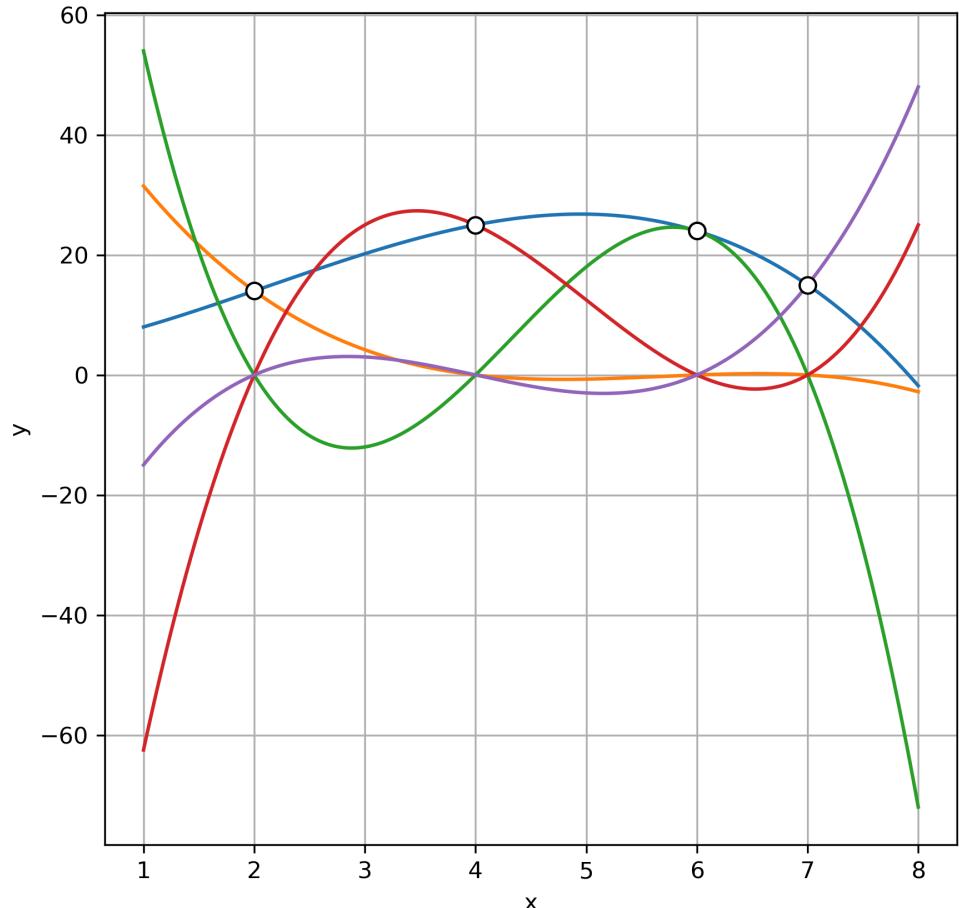
$$l_0(x) = \frac{(x - 6)(x - 4)(x - 7)}{(2 - 6)(2 - 4)(2 - 7)}, \quad l_1(x) = \frac{(x - 2)(x - 4)(x - 7)}{(6 - 2)(6 - 4)(6 - 7)}$$

$$l_2(x) = \frac{(x - 2)(x - 6)(x - 7)}{(4 - 2)(4 - 6)(4 - 7)}, \quad l_3(x) = \frac{(x - 2)(x - 6)(x - 4)}{(7 - 2)(7 - 6)(7 - 4)}$$

- The interpolant is of the form be

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi_3(x) = & -\frac{7}{20}(x - 6)(x - 4)(x - 7) - 3(x - 2)(x - 4)(x - 7) \\ & + \frac{25}{12}(x - 2)(x - 6)(x - 7) + (x - 2)(x - 6)(x - 4) \end{aligned}$$

—	Interpolant	—	$y_0 l_0$	—	$y_2 l_2$
○	Data points	—	$y_1 l_1$	—	$y_3 l_3$



Newton basis

- Different representation for interpolating polynomials, since Lagrange is not the most convenient one
- Add a new data point without changing the entire interpolant (before we had to recompute q_j)

Goal. Given $n + 1$ pairs $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=0}^n$ we want to represent Π_n (with $\Pi_n(x_i) = y_i$ for $i = 0, \dots, n$) as the sum of Π_{n-1} (with $\Pi_{n-1}(x_i) = y_i$ for $i = 0, \dots, n - 1$) and a polynomial $r_n \in \mathbb{P}_n$ of degree n which depends on the nodes x_i and on only one unknown coefficient:

$$\Pi_n(x) = \Pi_{n-1}(x) + r_n(x)$$

Since $r_n(x_i) = \Pi_n(x_i) - \Pi_{n-1}(x_i) = 0$, for $i = 0, \dots, n - 1$ then the polynomial is given by
 $\rightsquigarrow r_n(x) = b_n(x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_{n-1}) = b_n \omega_n(x)$ and the coefficients have the closed form

$$b_n \doteq [y_0, \dots, y_n] = \frac{y_n - \Pi_{n-1}(x_n)}{\omega_n(x_n)}$$

and are called the n -th **Newton divided difference**.

Newton basis

Remarks.

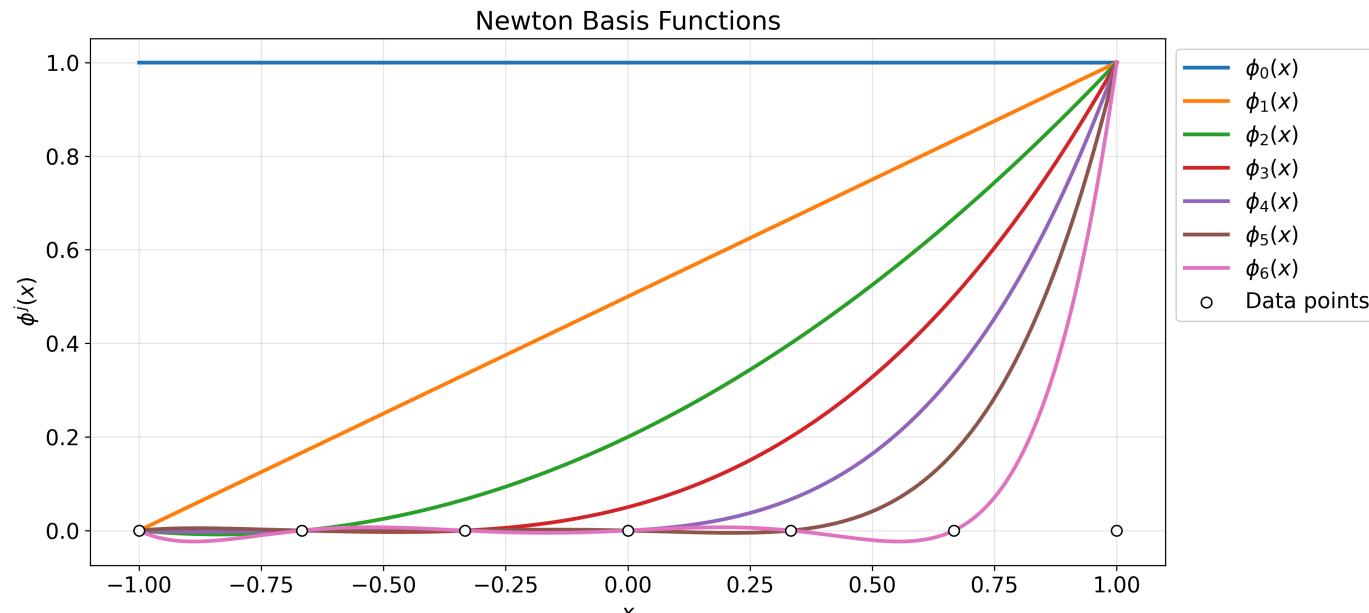
- Uniqueness of the interpolating polynomial ensures that the above expression yields the same interpolating polynomial generated by the Lagrange form.
- Newton basis functions are linearly independent because $\phi^j(x)$ has exactly degree $j - 1$.
- New basis function should not interfere with prior interpolation: $\phi^j(x_i) = 0$ for $i < j$.
- Old basis functions don't need info from new data: $\phi^j(x)$ is independent of (x_i, y_i) for $i > j$.

Newton basis

Newton interpolant

$$\Pi_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j \phi^j(x), \quad \text{where} \quad \phi^j(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{j-1} (x - x_i), \quad \text{for } j \geq 1 \text{ and } \phi^0(x) \equiv 1$$

- This leads to a special matrix A to be inverted: $a_{ij} = \phi^j(x_i) = 0$ for $i < j \rightsquigarrow A$ is lower triangular.
- Solution of the triangular system $Ab = y$ is computed via forward-substitution in $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ operations.



Newton basis: an example



Construct a monomial basis interpolant for

$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=0}^3 = \{(2, 14), (6, 24), (4, 25), (7, 15)\}$$

- Four basis functions for polynomial degree 3:

$$\phi^0(x) = 1, \quad \phi^1(x) = (x - 2)$$

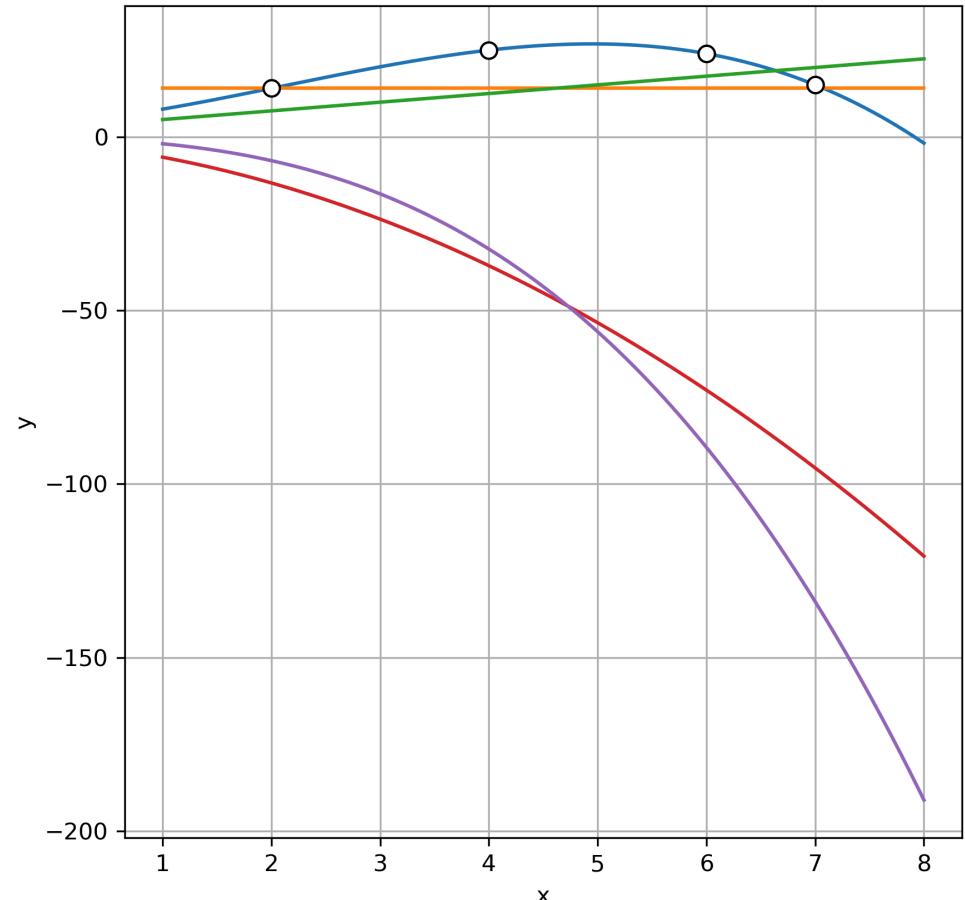
$$\phi^2(x) = (x - 2)(x - 6), \quad \phi^3(x) = (x - 2)(x - 6)(x - 4)$$

Construct the linear (triangular) system

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & -4 & 0 \\ 1 & 5 & 5 & 15 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad y = \begin{bmatrix} 14 \\ 24 \\ 25 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Solving $Ab = y$ (with $\text{cond}(A) = 17$) we get

$$b = [14 \quad 2.5 \quad -1.5 \quad -0.26677]^T$$



Interpolation error

Goal. Estimate the interpolation error that is made when replacing a given function f with its interpolating polynomial $\Pi_n f$ at the nodes x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n .

Theorem 2 [Cauchy]. Let $f \in C^{n+1}(I)$ and suppose that $x_0, \dots, x_n \in I$ are distinct, and that the polynomial $\Pi_n f$ satisfies

$$\Pi_n f(x_i) = f(x_i), \quad i = 0, \dots, n.$$

Then

$$E_n[f](x) \doteq f(x) - \Pi_n f(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i), \quad \text{where } \omega_{n+1}(x) = \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i),$$

where $\xi \in I$, with I being the smallest open interval containing x_0, \dots, x_n and x .

Interpolation error

Proof. At the interpolation nodes the results holds trivially.

Let us introduce $\forall x \in I$ the following auxiliary function

$$G(t) = E_n[f](t) - \frac{\omega_{n+1}(t)}{\omega_{n+1}(x)} E_n[f](x)$$

Since $f \in C^{n+1}(I)$ and ω_{n+1} is a polynomial, then $G \in C^{n+1}(I)$ has at least $n + 2$ zeros in I :

\rightsquigarrow the $n + 1$ interpolation points x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n and the point $t = x$.

Thanks to the mean value theorem, $G^{(1)}$ has at least $n + 1$ distinct zeros and, by recursion, $G^{(j)}$ admits at least $n + 2 - j$ distinct zeros $\rightsquigarrow G^{(n+1)}$ has at least one zero, which we denote by ξ .

On the other hand, since $E_n^{(n+1)}[f](t) = f^{(n+1)}(t)$ and $\omega_{n+1}^{(n+1)}(x) = (n + 1)!$ we get

$$G^{(n+1)}(t) = f^{(n+1)}(t) - \frac{(n + 1)!}{\omega_{n+1}(x)} E_n[f](x),$$

which, evaluated at $t = \xi$, gives the desired expression for $E_n[f](x)$.

Interpolation error

It is observed that while ξ exists, it is not generally possible to determine its exact value.

However, if $M = \max_{s \in I} |f^{(n+1)}(s)|$ is known, it is still possible to estimate the error as follows:

$$|E_n[f](x)| = \left| f^{(n+1)}(\xi) \frac{\prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i)}{(n+1)!} \right| \leq M \frac{|\prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i)|}{(n+1)!}.$$

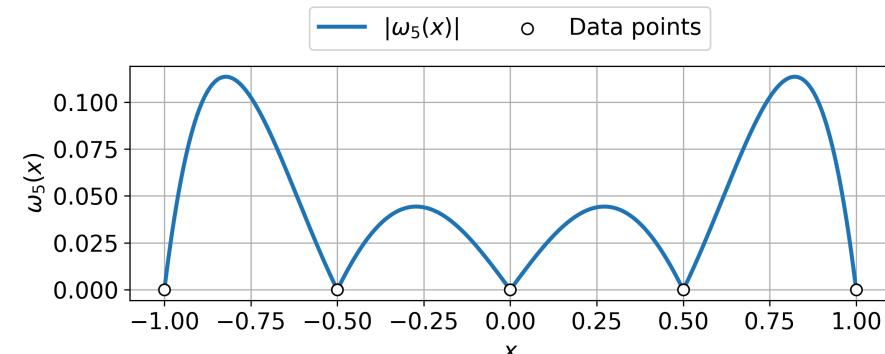
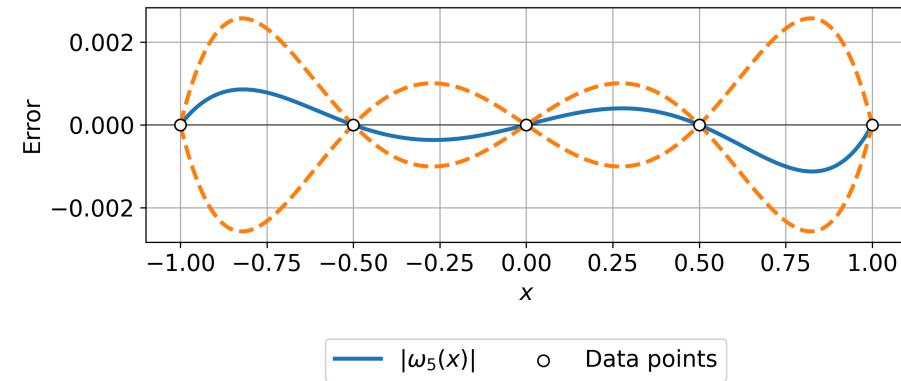
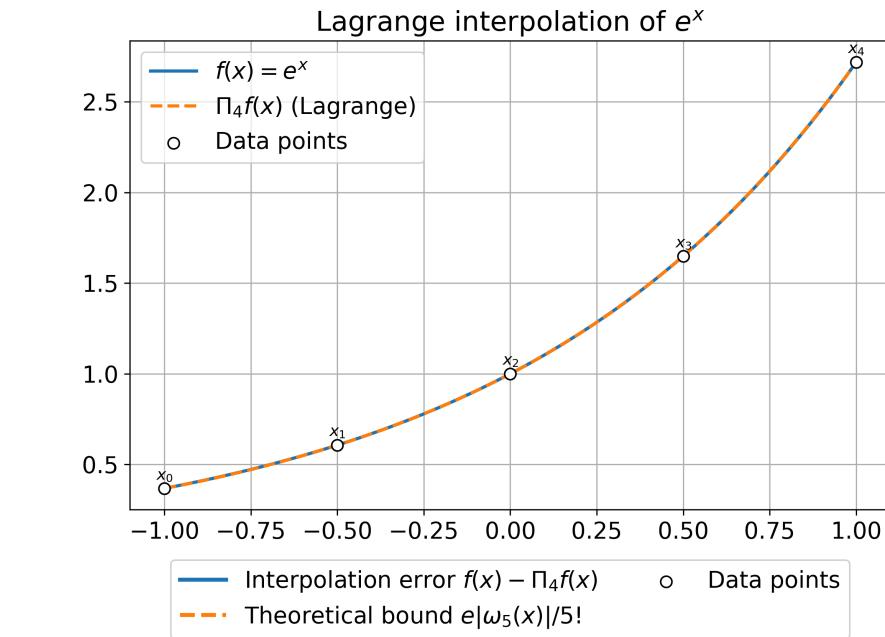
Example. Let $f(x) = \exp(x)$ and $\Pi_4 f$ interpolates $f(x)$ at 5 equispaced points $\{x_i = -1 + \frac{i}{2}\}_{i=0}^4$.

- f exponential and increasing \rightsquigarrow

$$M = \|f^{(5)}\|_\infty = \max_{x \in [-1, 1]} |\exp(x)| = e$$

- $|\prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i)| \leq 0.12$

$$|E_4[f](x)| = \left| \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i) \right| \leq \frac{e \cdot 0.12}{120} \approx 0.0027.$$



Convergence of polynomial interpolation

Remark. Given $x_0, h > 0$ and the $n + 1$ equispaced nodes $x_i = x_{i-1} + h$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, one has

$$\left| \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i) \right| \leq n! \frac{h^{n+1}}{4}, \quad \text{so that} \quad \max_{x \in I} |E_n[f](x)| \leq \frac{h^{n+1}}{4(n+1)} \max_{x \in I} |f^{(n+1)}(x)|$$

- We cannot deduce that $\|E_n[f](x)\|_\infty \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$, only if $|f^{(n+1)}(x)|$ doesn't grow too rapidly with n .

Theorem 3. For any distribution of nodes, there exists at least one function $f \in C(I)$, I bounded, s.t.

$$\|E_n[f]\|_\infty \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0.$$

Theorem 4. For every function $f \in C(I)$, I bounded, there exists at least one distribution of nodes s.t.

$$\|E_n[f]\|_\infty \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0.$$

Convergence of polynomial interpolation

We introduce a lower triangular matrix X of *infinite size*, called the **interpolation matrix** on $I = [a, b]$
~~> for any $n \geq 0$, the $n + 1$ -th row of X contains $n + 1$ distinct interpolation nodes, that for a given f ,
uniquely define an interpolating polynomial $\Pi_n f$ of degree n .

Denoted the **interpolation error** as $E_{n,\infty}(X) = \|f - \Pi_n f\|_\infty$ and by $\Pi_n^* f$ the **best approximation polynomial** such that $E_n^* = \|f - \Pi_n^* f\|_\infty \leq \|f - r_n\|_\infty, \forall r_n \in \mathbb{P}_n$

Theorem. Given $f \in C^0(I)$, X interpolation matrix in I , and $l_j^{(n)} \in \mathbb{P}_n$ the j -th characteristic polynomial associated with the $n + 1$ -th row of X , i.e. $l_j^{(n)}(x_{nk}) = \delta_{jk}$, for $j, k \geq 0$ then

$$E_{n,\infty}(X) \leq E_n^*(1 + \Lambda_n(X)), \quad \text{with} \quad \Lambda_n(X) = \left\| \sum_{j=0}^n |l_j^{(n)}| \right\|_\infty$$

where $\Lambda_n(X)$ denotes the **Lebesgue constant** of X .

~~> Notice that E_n^* does not depend on X , so the effects of X on $E_{n,\infty}(X)$ is only contained in $\Lambda_n(X)$.

Runge counterexample

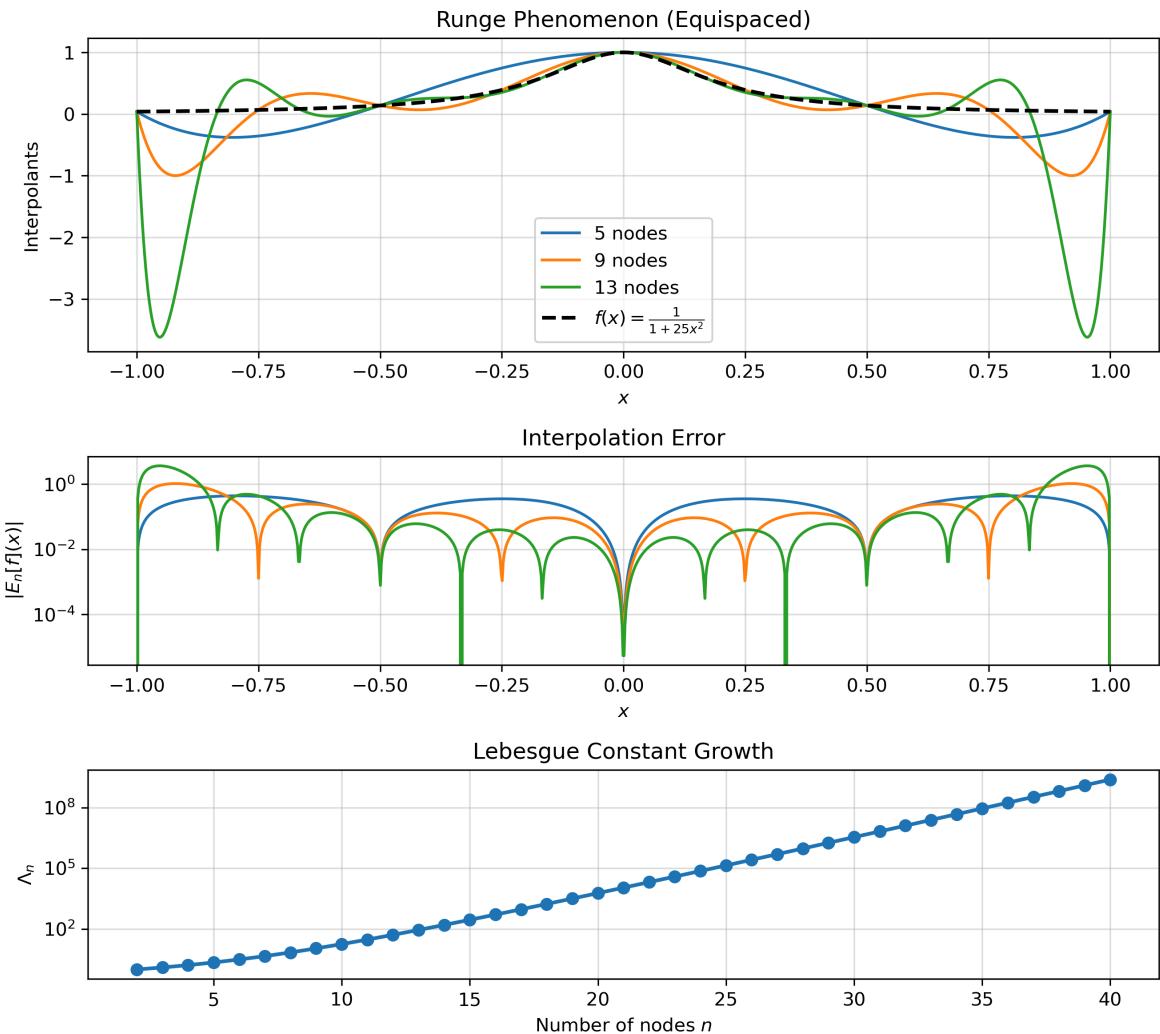
Let us consider the Lagrange interpolation with equispaced nodes $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^n \in [-1, 1]$ for

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + 25x^2}.$$

$\rightsquigarrow \Pi_n f$ does not converge uniformly to f

In particular, for each choice of X there exist a constant $C > 0$ such that

$$\Lambda_n(X) \geq \left[\frac{2}{\pi} \log(n+1) - C \right] \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \infty$$



Stability of Polynomial Interpolation

Remarks.

- Interpolating polynomials of high degree is expensive to determine and evaluate
- Coefficients of polynomial may be poorly determined due to ill-conditioning of linear system
- High-degree polynomials necessarily have lots of "oscillations" which may bear no relation to data

Perturbations. Let us consider a set of function values $y_i = \tilde{f}(x_i)$ which is a perturbation (round-off, experiment, noise) of the data $f(x_i)$ relative to the nodes $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^n \in I$.

Denoting by $\Pi_n \tilde{f}$ the Lagrange interpolant for $\{(x_i, \tilde{f}_i)\}_{i=0}^n$ it holds

$$\begin{aligned}\|\Pi_n f(x) - \Pi_n \tilde{f}(x)\|_\infty &= \max_{x \in I} \left| \sum_{j=0}^n (f(x_j) - \tilde{f}(x_j)) l_j(x) \right| \\ &\leq \Lambda_n(X) \max_{j=0, \dots, n} |f(x_j) - \tilde{f}(x_j)|\end{aligned}$$

~ small data perturbations give rise to small changes on the interpolant only for small Lebesgue constant.

Lebesgue constant

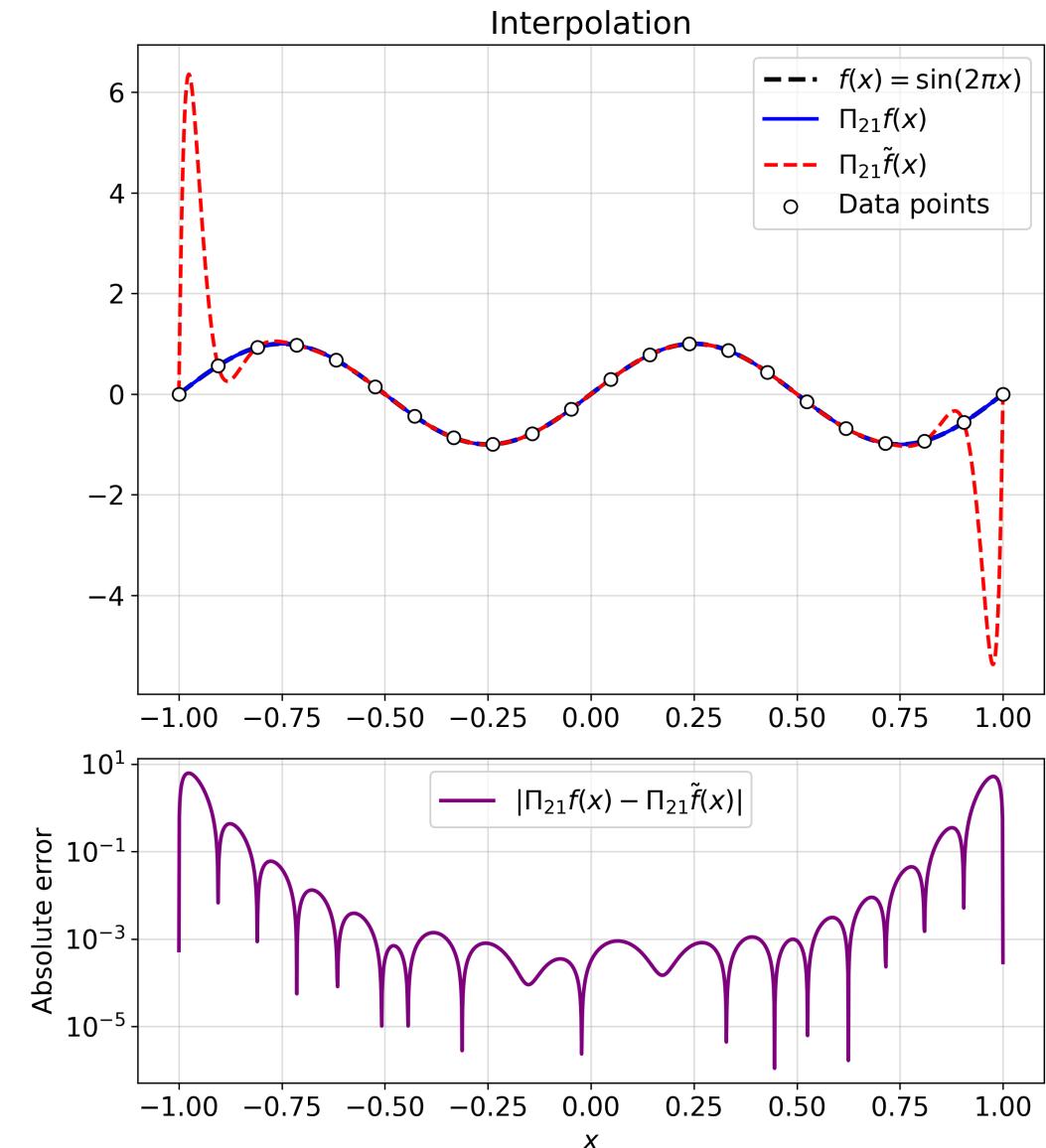
This constant plays the role of the **condition number** for the interpolation problem.

For Lagrange interpolation on $n + 1$ equispaced nodes in $I = [-1, 1]$, it can be proved that

$$\Lambda_n(X) \sim \frac{2^{n+1}}{n \log n}$$

For large values of n this can become unstable.

Example. Interpolate $f(x) = \sin(2\pi x)$ in $I = [-1, 1]$ with $n + 1 = 22$ equispaced nodes, such that $\max_{x_i} |f(x_i) - \tilde{f}(x_i)| = 9.5 \times 10^{-4}$.



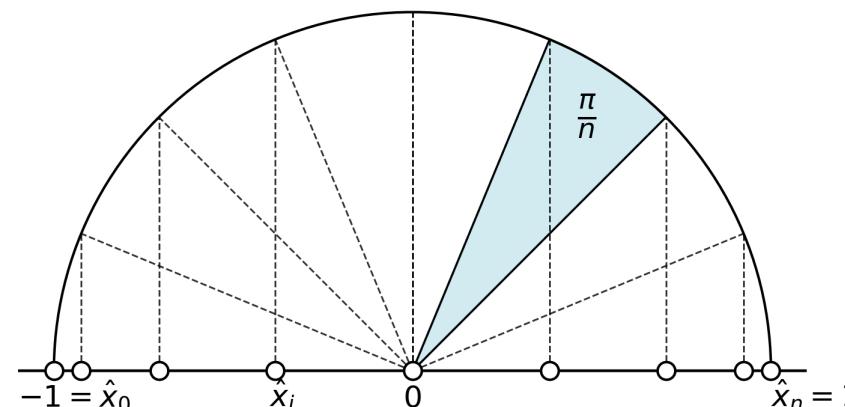
Chebyshev-Gauss-Lobatto points

Runge's phenomenon can be avoided if a suitable distribution of nodes is used. In particular, in an arbitrary interval $[a, b]$, we can consider the so called **Chebyshev-Gauss-Lobatto** nodes

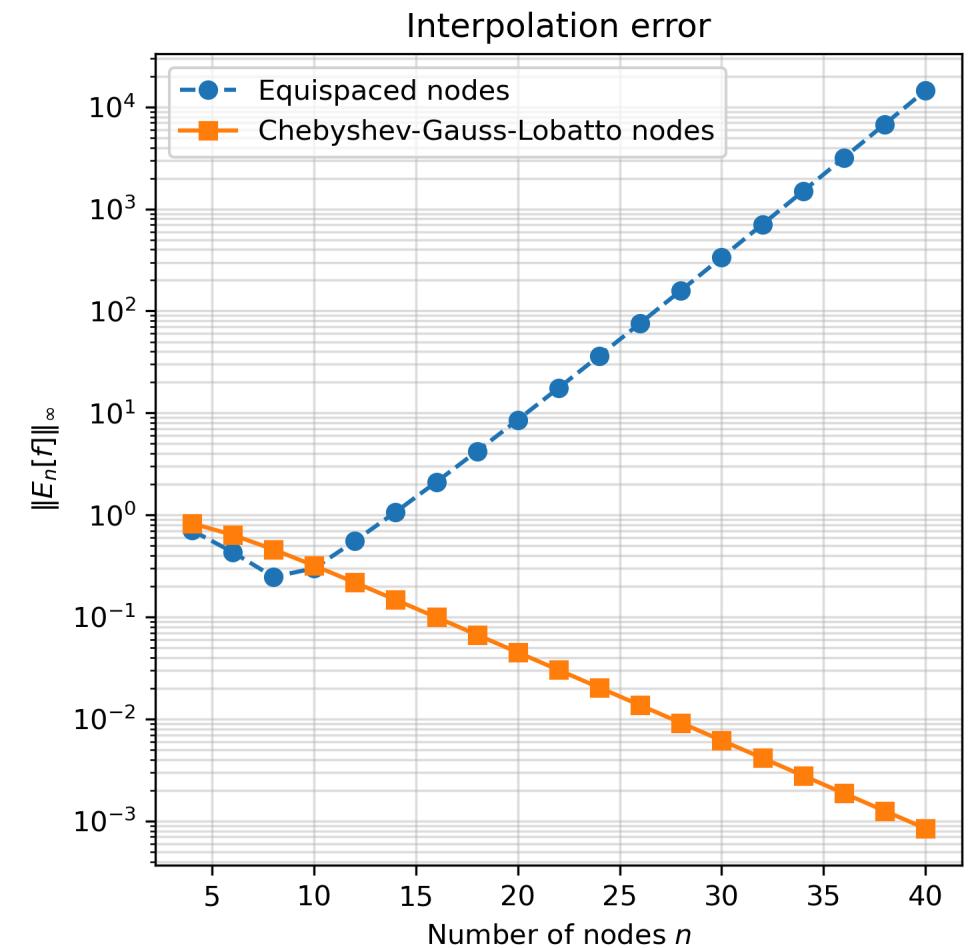
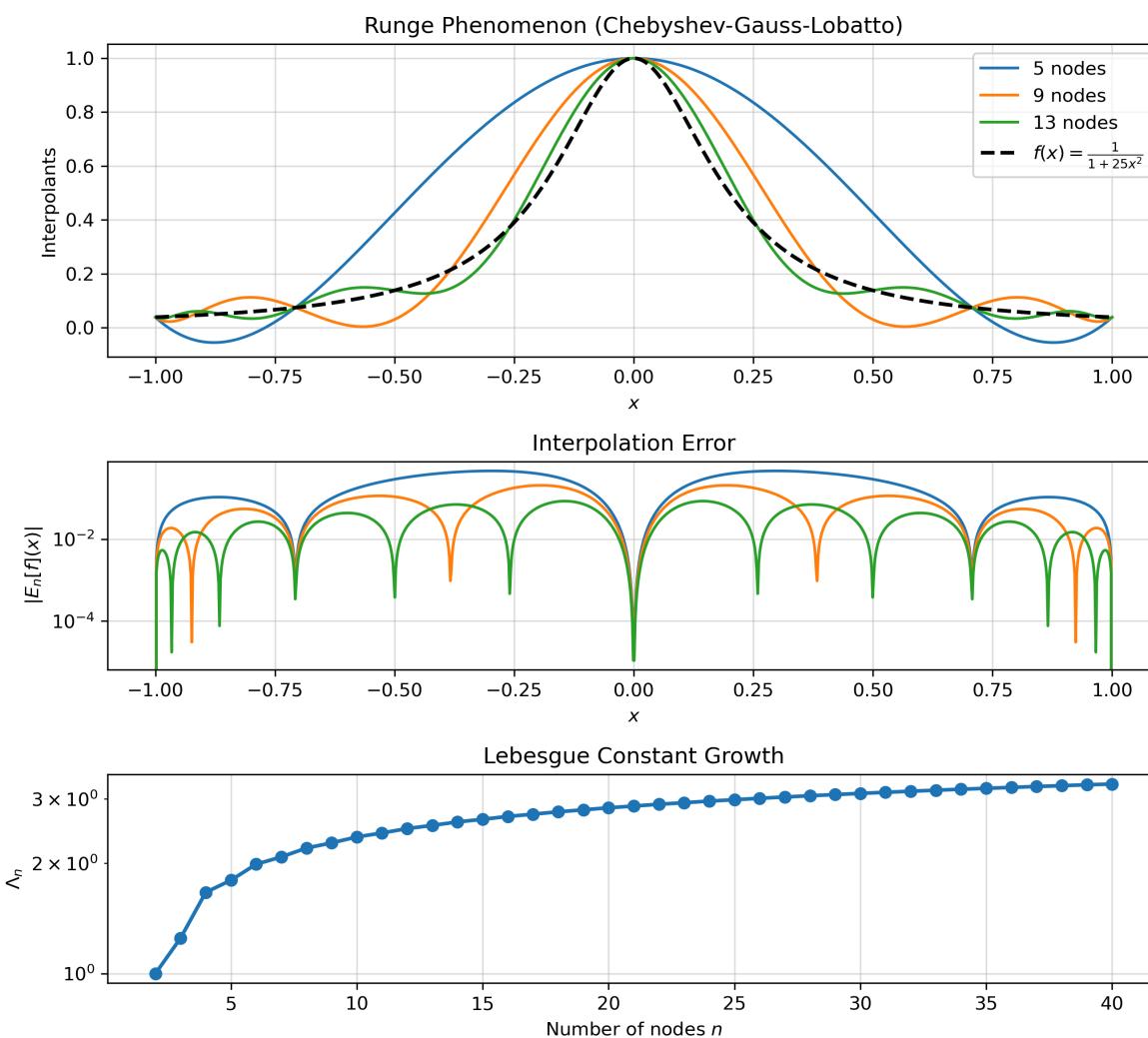
$$x_i = \frac{a + b}{2} + \frac{b - a}{2} \hat{x}_i, \quad \text{where } \hat{x}_i = -\cos\left(\frac{\pi i}{n}\right), \quad \text{for } i = 0, \dots, n$$

↷ If f is a continuous and differentiable function in I , then $\Pi_n f(x) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$ for all $x \in I$.

They are the abscissas of equispaced nodes on the unit semi-circumference, lie inside $[a, b]$ and are clustered near the endpoints of the interval.



Chebyshev-Gauss-Lobatto points



Barycentric Lagrange Interpolation

The main drawbacks of the Lagrange form of the interpolation are

- each evaluation of Π_n requires $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ additions and multiplications
- adding a new data pair (x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}) requires a new computation from scratch
- the computations can be numerically unstable.

Barycentric Lagrange interpolation is an alternative to Lagrange formula so that it can be evaluated and updated in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ operations. Starting from the characteristic polynomial $l_j(x)$ one can write

$$l_j(x) = \prod_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq j}}^n \frac{x - x_k}{x_j - x_k} = \underbrace{\left[\prod_{k=0}^n (x - x_k) \right]}_{\omega_{n+1}(x)} \frac{q_j}{x - x_j} \quad \text{where } q_j = \left(\prod_{k=0}^n (x_j - x_k) \right)^{-1}$$

Then we can write the *first form* of the *barycentric interpolation* formula with q_j *barycentric weights* as

$$\Pi_n(x) = \omega_{n+1}(x) \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{q_j}{(x - x_j)} y_j$$

Barycentric Lagrange Interpolation

- Computing $n + 1$ coefficients costs $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$, while evaluating Π_n costs $\mathcal{O}(n)$ operations for each x .
- If a new pair (x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}) is added, the following $\mathcal{O}(n)$ operations are required:
 - for $j = 0, \dots, n$ divide each q_j by $x_j - x_{n+1}$ for a cost of $n + 1$ operations;
 - compute the weight q_{n+1} as before for a cost of $n + 1$ additional operations.

In practice, the *second form* of the *barycentric interpolation* formula is used.

Suppose we interpolate the constant values $y_i = 1$ for $i = 0, \dots, n$, then it holds:

$$1 \equiv \Pi_n(x) = \omega_{n+1}(x) \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{q_j}{(x - x_j)}$$

thus, dividing first form by this term and cancelling the common factor (nodal polynomial) one obtains

$$\Pi_n(x) = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^n \frac{q_j}{(x-x_j)} y_j}{\sum_{j=0}^n \frac{q_j}{(x-x_j)}}$$

Barycentric Lagrange Interpolation

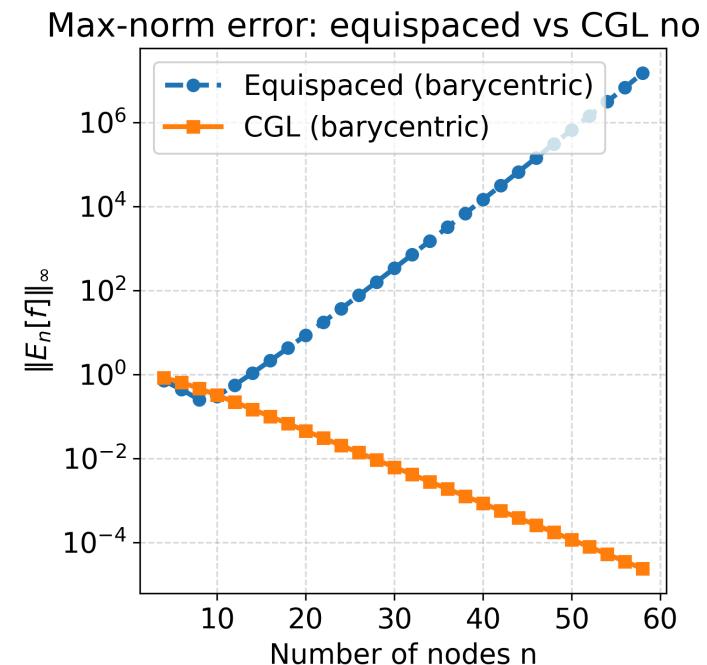
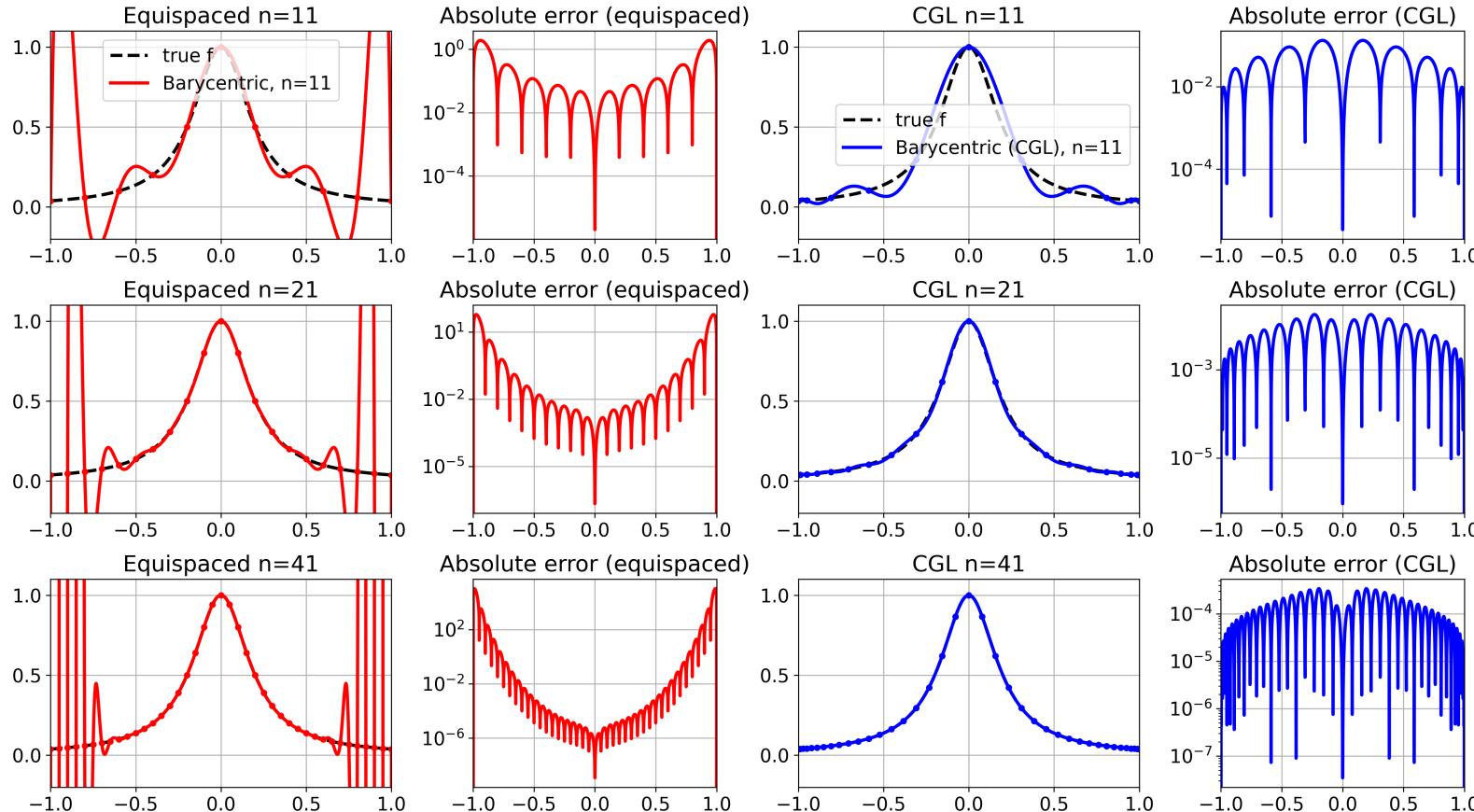
The second form of the barycentric Lagrange interpolation formula has a special symmetry: the weights q_j appear both in the denominator and in the numerator (weighted by data y_j).

- Possible common factors in all the weights q_j may be cancelled without affecting the value of $\Pi_n(x)$
 - More stable than the Newton formula if one avoids division by zero in the expression of weights q_j .
 - When $x \approx x_j$ the quantity $\frac{q_j}{x-x_j}$ will be very large and we would expect a risk of inaccuracy.
 - However, the same inaccuracy appears in both numerator and denominator and they cancel out.
- ↷ For equidistant nodes with spacing $h = 2/n$ on the interval $[-1, 1]$ one has $q_j = (-1)^j \binom{n}{j}$.

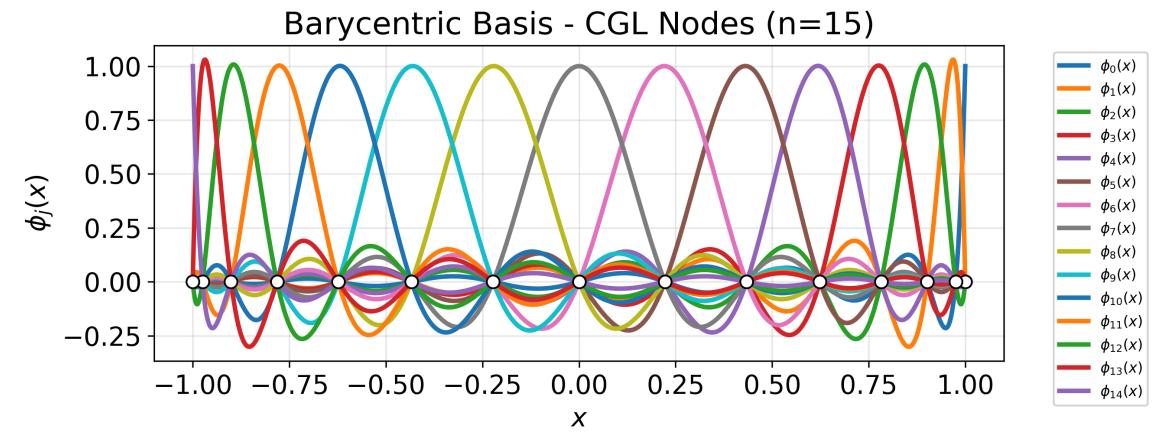
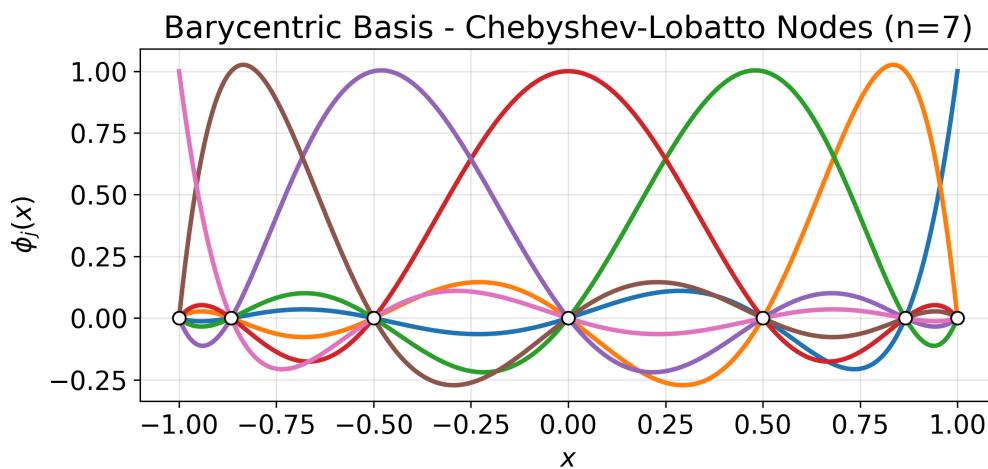
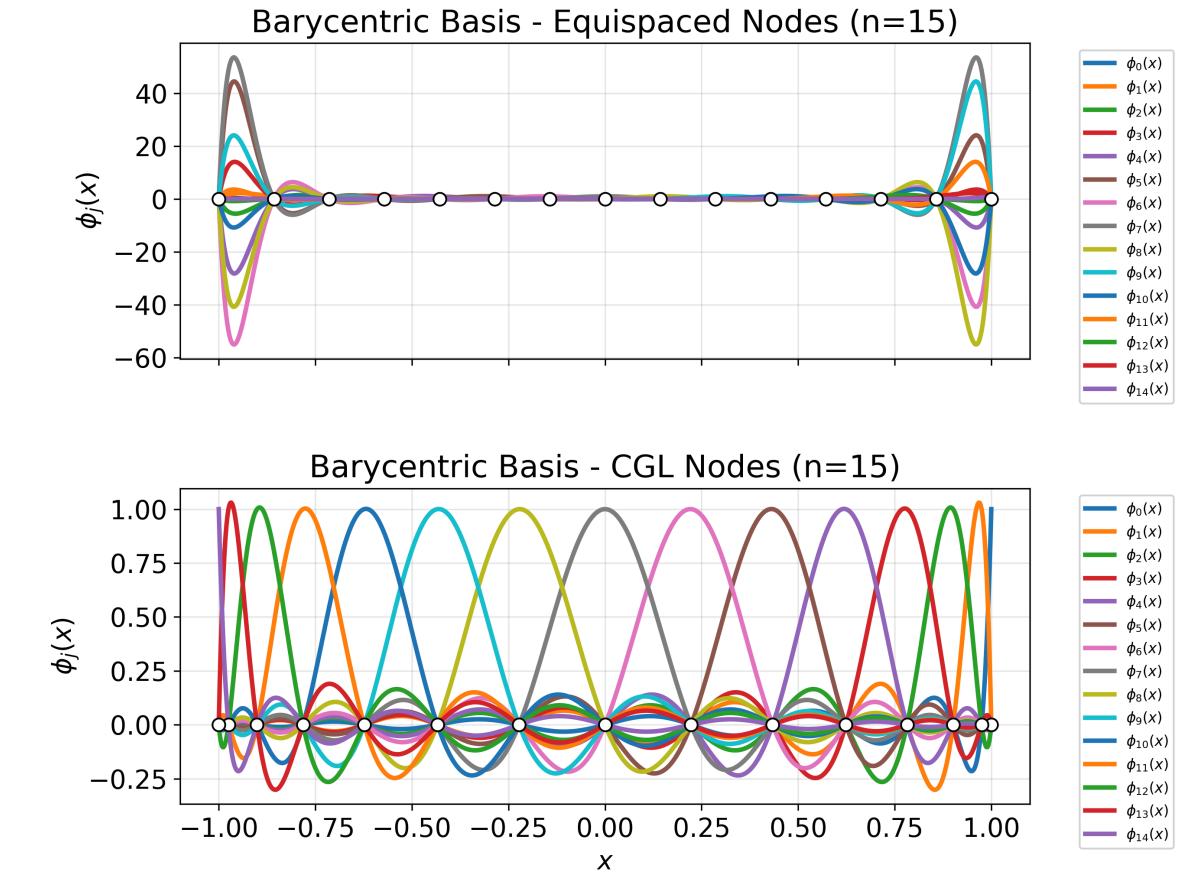
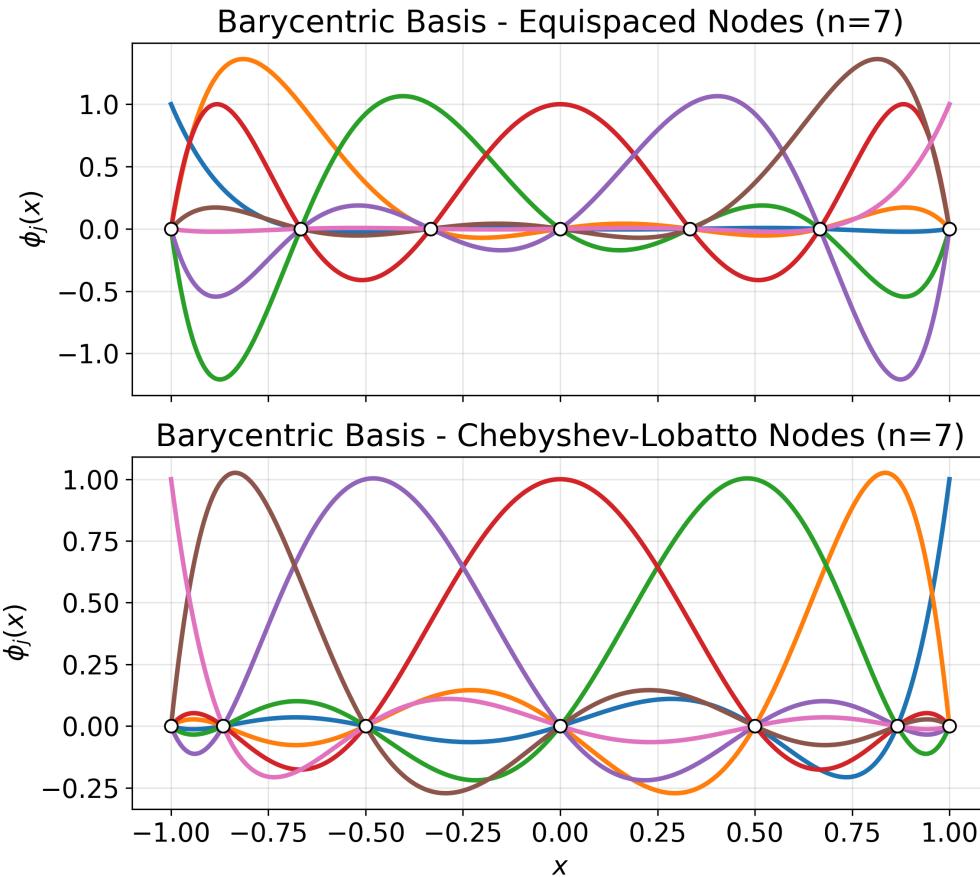
If the barycentric weights vary widely (equispaced) the interpolation problem must be ill-conditioned:

$$\Lambda_n(X) = \frac{1}{2n^2} \frac{\max_{j=0,\dots,n} |q_j|}{\min_{j=0,\dots,n} |q_j|}$$

Barycentric Lagrange Interpolation



Barycentric Lagrange Interpolation



Piecewise Polynomial Interpolation

- For equispaced points, uniform convergence of Π_n to f is not guaranteed as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- For smooth function f , the interpolant at Chebyshev nodes provides an accurate approximation.
- What to do when f is nonsmooth or when f is only known through its values at a set of given points?
- But exploiting equispaced nodes is clearly computationally convenient, and if sufficiently small interpolation intervals are considered, Lagrange interpolation of low degree is very accurate.

↷ Introduce a partition \mathcal{T}_h of $[a, b]$ into K subintervals $I_j = [x_j, x_{j+1}]$ of length h_j , with $h = \max_{0 \leq j \leq K-1} h_j$, such that $[a, b] = \cup_{j=0}^{K-1} I_j$ and then to employ Lagrange interpolation on each I_j using $k + 1$ equispaced nodes $\{x_j^{(i)}, 0 \leq i \leq k\}$ with a small k .

Piecewise Polynomial Interpolation

For $k \geq 1$, we introduce on \mathcal{T}_h the **piecewise polynomial space**

$$X_h^k = \{v \in C^0([a, b]) : v|_{I_j} \in \mathbb{P}_k(I_j), \forall I_j \in \mathcal{T}_h\}$$

which is the space of the continuous functions over $[a, b]$ whose restrictions on each I_j are polynomials of degree $\leq k$. Then, for any continuous function f in $[a, b]$, the piecewise interpolation polynomial $\Pi_h^k f$ coincides on each I_j with the interpolating polynomial of $f|_{I_j}$ at the $k + 1$ nodes $x_j^{(i)}, 0 \leq i \leq k$.

If $f \in C^{k+1}([a, b])$, we use the interpolation error formula within each interval to obtain the following error estimate:

$$\|E_n[f](x)\|_\infty = \|f(x) - \Pi_h^k f(x)\|_\infty \leq ch^{k+1} \|f^{(k+1)}\|_\infty$$

Note that a small interpolation error can be obtained even for low k provided that h is sufficiently "small".

Piecewise Polynomial Interpolation

