

Interpolation et Régression Linéaires

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Programme

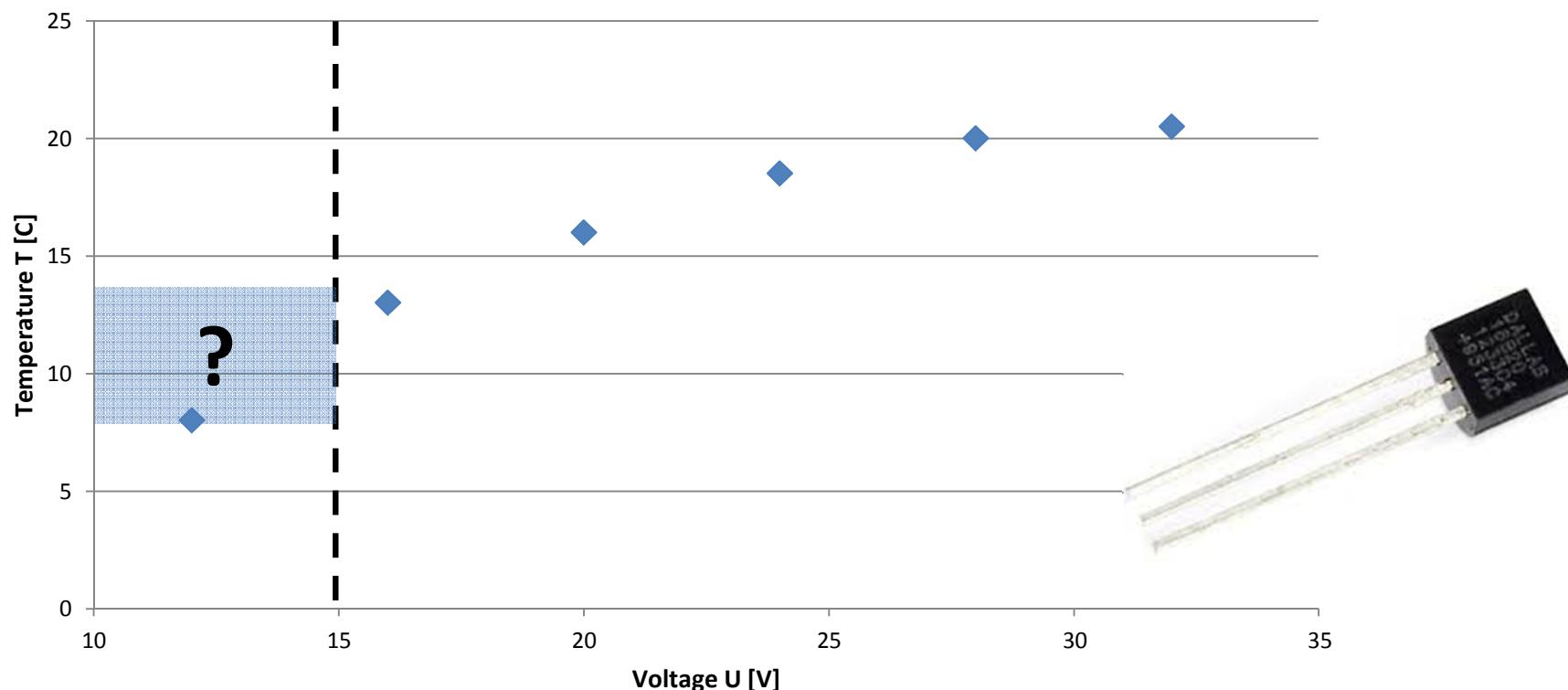
Cours 1	Librairies mathématiques, représentation des nombres en Python et erreurs liées
Cours 2,3	Résolution des systèmes linéaires
Cours 4,5	Interpolation et Régression Linéaires
Cours 6,7	Zéro d'équation
Cours 8,9	Développement limité et différentiation numérique
Cours 10	Intégration numérique
Cours 11,12	Introduction à l'optimisation
Cours 13	Rappel / Répétition

Outline

- **Introduction**
- **Polynomial interpolation**
 - Lagrange
 - Newton
 - Neville
 - Radial Function Interpolation
- **Cubic Spline**
 - B-Spline
- **Least-Square Fit**

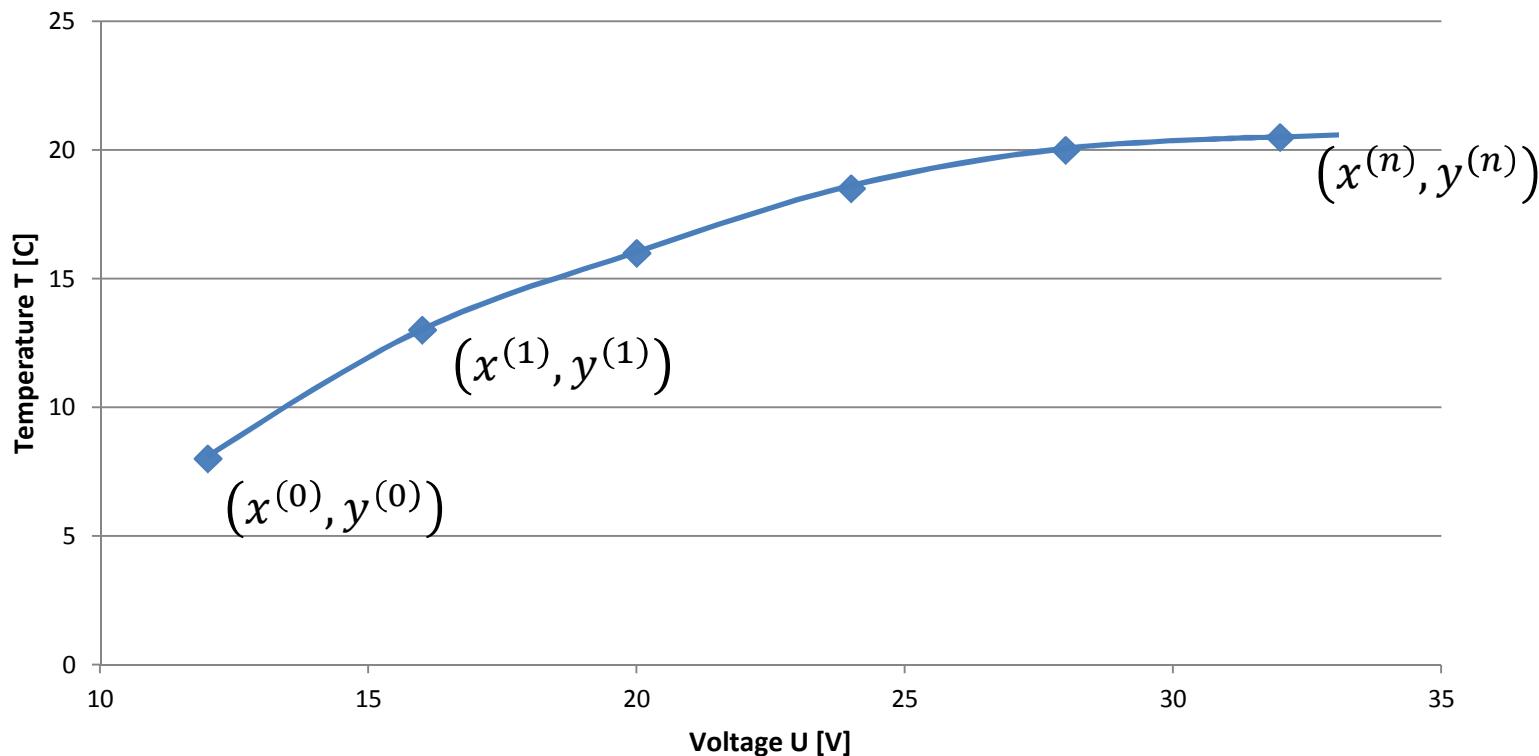
Example

- An electronic temperature sensor outputs a voltage U that depends on the temperature T
 - The response $T = f(U)$ is generally non linear
 - **What is the temperature for $U=15V$?**



Example

- Can we find a function $T = f(U)$ that helps us to calculate T for all U ?
- Calibration:
 - measuring $f(U)$ for a set of values
- Interpolation



Introduction

- We start from a set of measure (x_i, y_i)

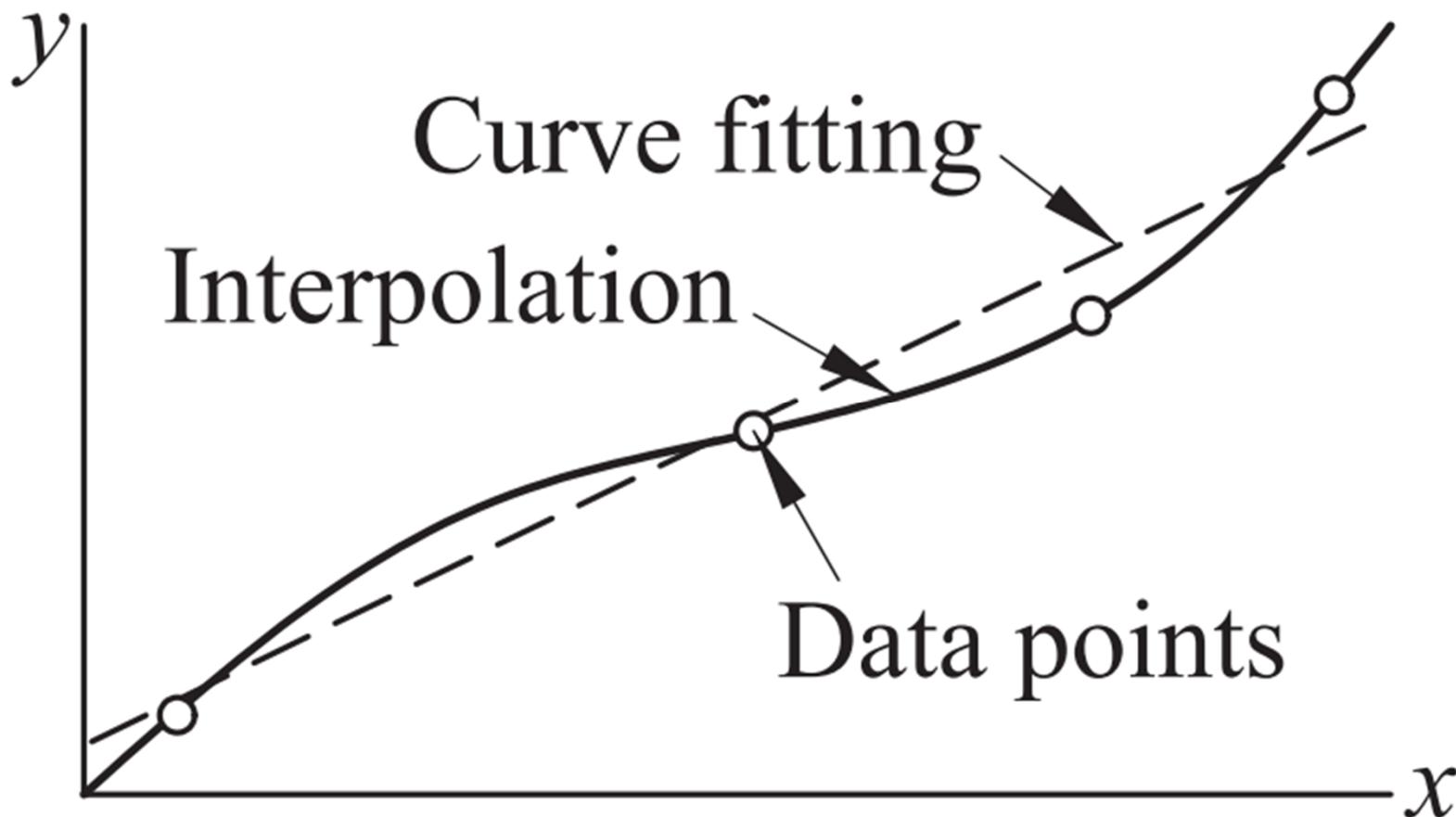
x_0	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_{n-1}	x_n
y_0	y_1	y_2	y_3	y_{n-1}	y_n

- The source of the data can be
 - Measurements (from instruments or experiments)
 - Numerical computations
- We want to get a find a curve $y(x)$ from this set of data, that is define on the entire data domain

Introduction

- **Interpolation** (and Extrapolation)
 - The curve pass through the points (x_i, y_i)
 - $y_i = f(x_i)$
- **Curve fitting**
 - The curve is **smooth** but does not necessary go through the data points
 - The curve “approximate” the data
 - $y_i = f(x_i) + \varepsilon_i$

Introduction



Polynomial Interpolation

Vandermonde (naïve) Solution (1)

- We will use this polynomial for interpolation:

$$f(x) = a_1 + a_2 x + a_3 x^2 \dots + a_n x^{n-1}$$

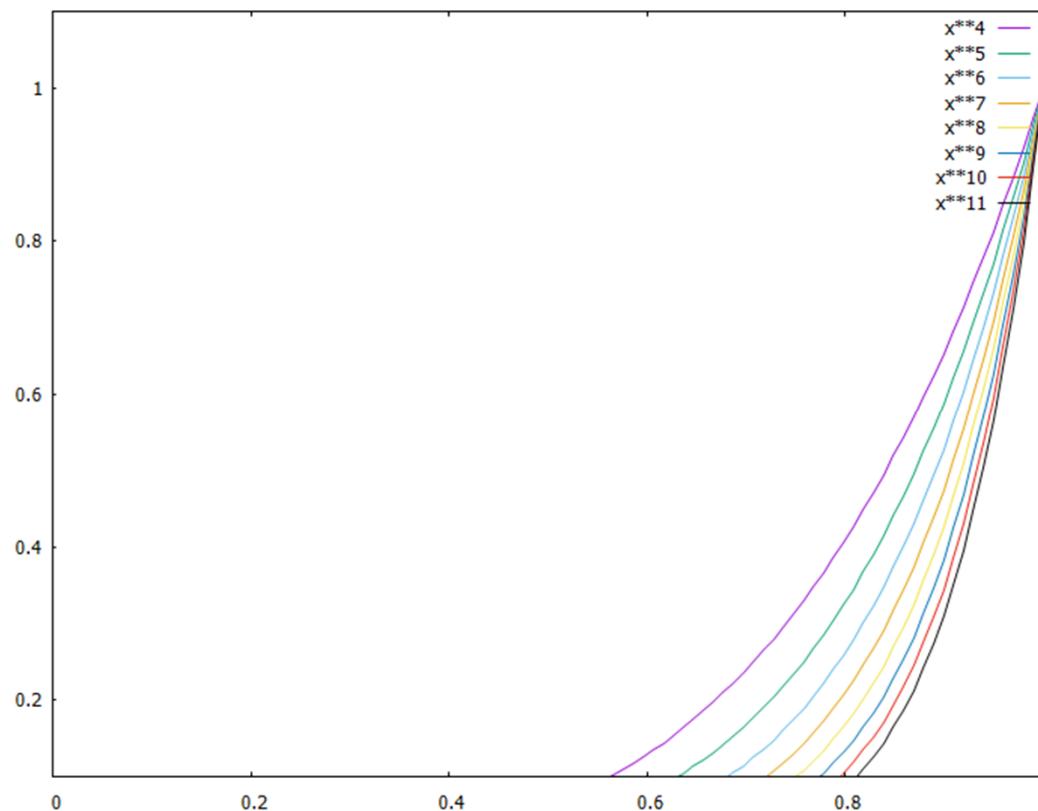
- We know that $f(x_i) = y_i$ for all i

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & (x_1)^2 & \dots & (x_1)^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m & (x_m)^2 & \dots & (x_m)^{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix}$$

- We can find a_i by solving the Vandermonde system
- For $n = m$, the system has a unique solution if all rows are linearly independent (= the matrix has rank n)
- There exists only one polynomial of degree $n - 1$ with $f(x_i) = y_i$ for n points!

Vandermonde (naïve) Solution (2)

- Complexity: $O(n^3)$
 - Bad: Will not work well for large n
 - Why?
 - For large k the terms x^k and x^{k+1} become very similar:



Vandermonde (naïve) Solution (3)

- That means the right columns of

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & (x_1)^2 & \cdots & (x_1)^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m & (x_m)^2 & \cdots & (x_m)^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

become very similar for large n

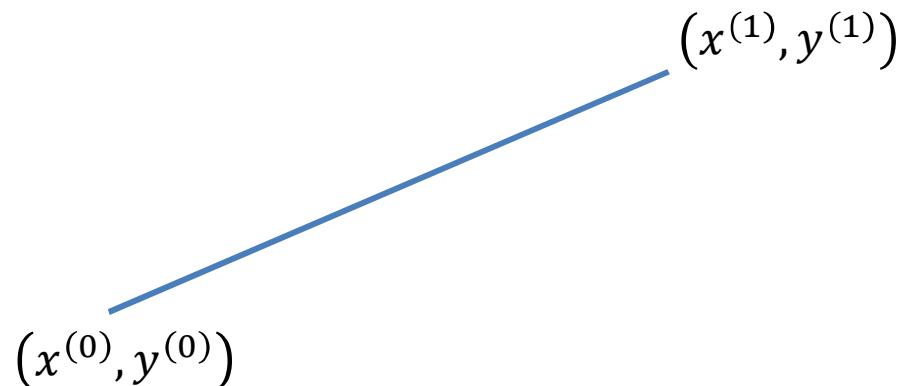
- The system $XA = Y$ becomes *ill-conditioned*:
We have nearly dependent columns
- This makes the solution numerically unstable.

Lagrange's Method

- Let's find another method
- Simplest interpolant is a polynomial
- It is always possible to construct a unique polynomial of degree n that passes through $n+1$ distinct points
 - 1 point → pol. degree 0 (horizontal line)
 - 2 points → pol. degree 1 (line)
 - 3 points → pol. degree 2

Lagrange's Method (1)

- Let's build a generic polynomial that passes through two points ($n=1$)



- $P_1(x) = a x + b$
- $P_1(x_0) = y_0$
- $P_1(x_1) = y_1$



$$a = \frac{y_0 - y_1}{x_0 - x_1}$$

$$b = \frac{x_0 y_1 - x_1 y_0}{x_0 - x_1}$$

$$P_1(x) = y_0 \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} + y_1 \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0}$$

Lagrange's Method (2)

$$P_1(x) = y_0 \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} + y_1 \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0}$$

- We can verify that

$$P_1(x_0) = y_0 \text{ and } P_1(x_1) = y_1$$

- Because:

$$l_0(x) := \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} = 1 \text{ for } x = x_0 \text{ and } = 0 \text{ for } x = x_1$$

- Similarly

$$l_1(x) := \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} = 0 \text{ for } x = x_0 \text{ and } = 1 \text{ for } x = x_1$$

Lagrange's Method (3)

$$P_1(x) = y_0 \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} + y_1 \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0}$$

- **Can we generalize to 3 points (n=2) ?**
- $P_2(x) = y_0 l_0(x) + y_1 l_1(x) + y_2 l_2(x)$
 - With $l_i(x_j)$ with the form $a x^2 + bx + c$
 - With $l_i(x_j) = 0$ for $i \neq j$
 - With $l_i(x_j) = 1$ for $i = j$

$$P_2(x) = y_0 \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} + y_1 \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)} + y_2 \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)}$$

Lagrange's Method (3)

$$P_2(x) = y_0 \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} + y_1 \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)} + y_2 \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)}$$

- Can we generalize to $n+1$ points (degree n) ?

- $P_n(x) = \sum_i y_i l_i(x)$

- With $l_i(x_j)$ with the form $a x^2 + bx + c$

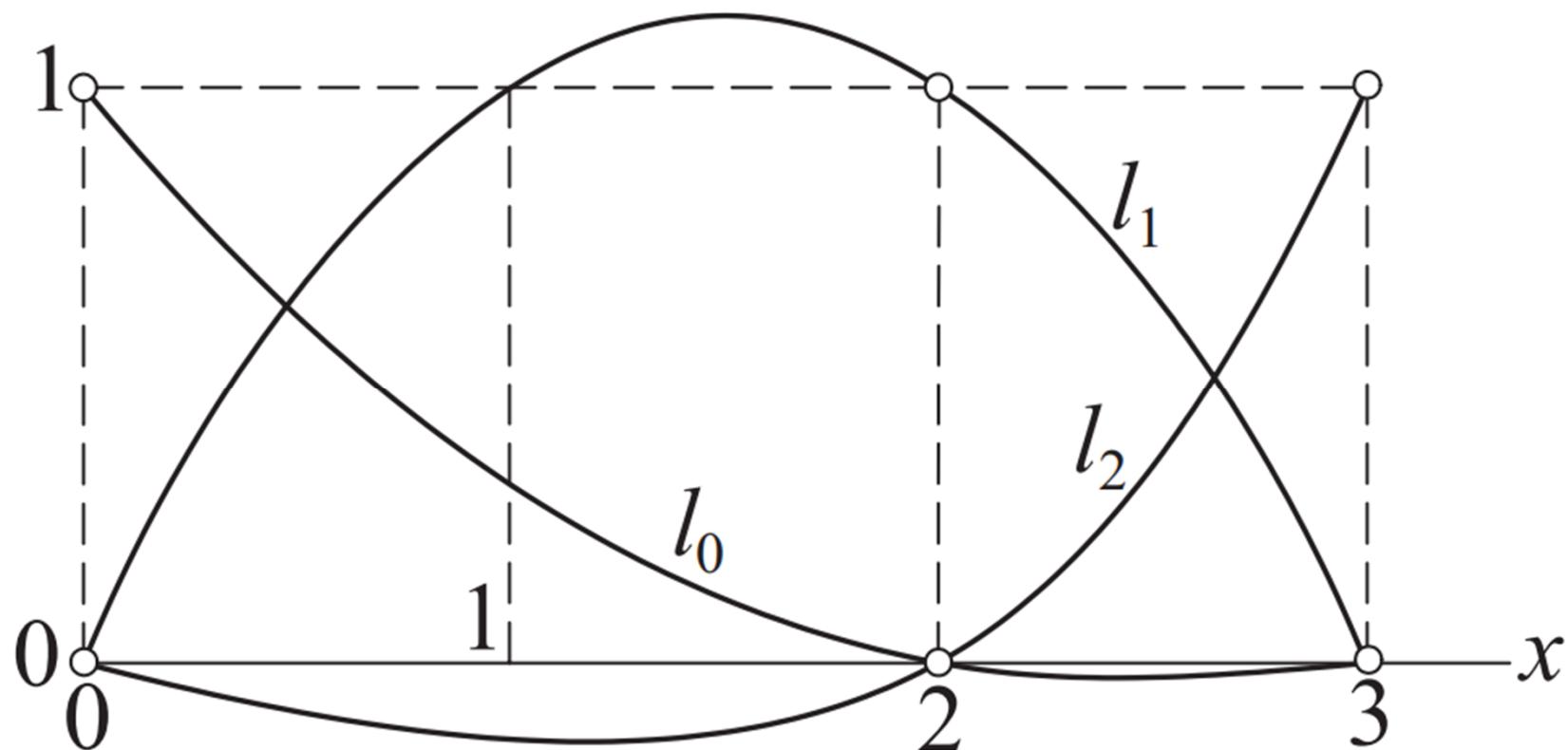
- With $l_i(x_j) = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$

$$l_i(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)}{(x_i-x_0)} \frac{(x-x_1)}{(x_i-x_1)} \cdots \frac{(x-x_{i-1})}{(x_i-x_{i-1})} \frac{(x-x_{i+1})}{(x_i-x_{i+1})} \cdots \frac{(x-x_n)}{(x_i-x_n)} = \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{(x-x_j)}{(x_i-x_j)}$$

$$P_n(x) = \sum_i \left(y_i \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{(x-x_j)}{(x_i-x_j)} \right)$$

Lagrange's Method (4)

Example for P_2



Lagrange's Method (5)

- Error of the interpolation

$$f(x) - P_n(x) = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n)}{(n + 1)!} f^{(n+1)}(\xi)$$

- ξ is somewhere between (x_0, x_n)
- It is interesting to note that:
 - The error is 0 if $x=x_i$ (by construction)
 - The error grows the farther we are from x_i

Lagrange: Exercise

Use Lagrange to
compute y at x=1 ?

Data =

x	0	2	3
y	7	11	28

$$P_n(x) = \sum_i y_i l_i(x)$$

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

$$\ell_0 = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} = \frac{(1 - 2)(1 - 3)}{(0 - 2)(0 - 3)} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\ell_1 = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)} = \frac{(1 - 0)(1 - 3)}{(2 - 0)(2 - 3)} = 1$$

$$\ell_2 = \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)} = \frac{(1 - 0)(1 - 2)}{(3 - 0)(3 - 2)} = -\frac{1}{3}$$

$$y = y_0 \ell_0 + y_1 \ell_1 + y_2 \ell_2 = \frac{7}{3} + 11 - \frac{28}{3} = 4$$

Newton's Method (1)

- Lagrange Method is conceptually simple
- But the algorithm is not very efficient
- A more efficient method is Newton's method
Where the polynomial have the form:

$$\begin{aligned}P_n(x) = & a_0 \\& + (x - x_0)a_1 \\& + (x - x_0)(x - x_1)a_2 \\& + \dots \\& + (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_{n-1})a_n\end{aligned}$$

Newton's Method (2)

- Example with 4 points ($n=3$)

$$\begin{aligned}P_3(x) &= a_0 + (x - x_0)a_1 + (x - x_0)(x - x_1)a_2 + (x - x_0)(x - x_1)(x - x_2)a_3 \\&= a_0 + (x - x_0) \{a_1 + (x - x_1) [a_2 + (x - x_2)a_3]\}\end{aligned}$$

- Can be computed easily by recurrence relations:

$$P_0(x) = a_3$$

$$P_1(x) = a_2 + (x - x_2) P_0(x)$$

$$P_2(x) = a_1 + (x - x_1) P_1(x)$$

$$P_3(x) = a_0 + (x - x_0) P_2(x)$$

Newton's Method (3)

- Generalizing to arbitrary n

$$P_0(x) = a_n$$

$$P_k(x) = a_{n-k} + (x - x_{n-k}) P_{k-1}(x), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- The algorithm implementation is then just:

```
p = a[n]
for k in range(1,n+1):
    p = a[n-k] + (x - xData[n-k])*p
```

- with xData the x-coordinate of the n data points

Newton's Method (4)

- OK, But...
 - what are the coefficients a_i ?
- We force the polynomials to pass through the data points (x_i, y_i)

$$y_i = P_n(x_i)$$

- This lead to the system of equations:

$$y_0 = a_0$$

$$y_1 = a_0 + (x_1 - x_0)a_1$$

$$y_2 = a_0 + (x_2 - x_0)a_1 + (x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)a_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$y_n = a_0 + (x_n - x_0)a_1 + \cdots + (x_n - x_0)(x_n - x_1) \cdots (x_n - x_{n-1})a_n$$

Newton's Method (5)

$$\begin{aligned}y_0 &= a_0 & a_0 &= y_0 \\y_1 &= a_0 + (x_1 - x_0)a_1 & a_1 &= \nabla y_1 \\y_2 &= a_0 + (x_2 - x_0)a_1 + (x_2 - x_1)(x_2 - x_0)a_2 & a_2 &= \nabla^2 y_2 \\\vdots &&& \\y_n &= a_0 + (x_n - x_0)a_1 + \cdots + (x_n - x_0)(x_n - x_1) \cdots (x_n - x_{n-1})a_n & a_n &= \nabla^n y_n\end{aligned}$$

- Divided difference

$$\nabla y_i = \frac{y_i - y_0}{x_i - x_0}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$\nabla^2 y_i = \frac{\nabla y_i - \nabla y_1}{x_i - x_1}, \quad i = 2, 3, \dots, n$$

$$\nabla^3 y_i = \frac{\nabla^2 y_i - \nabla^2 y_2}{x_i - x_2}, \quad i = 3, 4, \dots, n$$

\vdots

$$\nabla^n y_n = \frac{\nabla^{n-1} y_n - \nabla^{n-1} y_{n-1}}{x_n - x_{n-1}}$$

Newton's Method (6)

- Calculating by hand
 - It is easier if we store the values in the “Coefficients Table”

x_0	y_0	$\nabla y_0 = a_0$			
x_1	y_1	$\nabla y_1 = a_1$			
x_2	y_2	∇y_2	$\nabla^2 y_2 = a_2$		
x_3	y_3	∇y_3	$\nabla^2 y_3$	$\nabla^3 y_3 = a_3$	
x_4	y_4	∇y_4	$\nabla^2 y_4$	$\nabla^3 y_4$	$\nabla^4 y_4 = a_4$

- All the coefficients of the polynomial are on the diagonal of the table

Newton's Method (7)

- Example

x	-2	1	4	-1	3	-4
y	-1	2	59	4	24	-53

i	x_i	y_i	∇y_i
0	-2	-1	
1	1	2	?
2	4	59	?
3	-1	4	?
4	3	24	?
5	-4	-53	?

$$\nabla y_i = \frac{y_i - y_0}{x_i - x_0}$$

$$(2 - (-1)) / (1 - (-2)) = 1$$

$$(59 - (-1)) / (4 - (-2)) = 10$$

Newton's Method (7)

- Example

x	-2	1	4	-1	3	-4
y	-1	2	59	4	24	-53

We see that all these data lies on a cubic polynomial (degree 3)

i	x_i	y_i	∇y_i	$\nabla^2 y_i$	$\nabla^3 y_i$	$\nabla^4 y_i$	$\nabla^5 y_i$
0	-2	-1					
1	1	2	1				
2	4	59	10	?			
3	-1	4	5	?	?		
4	3	24	5	?	?	?	
5	-4	-53	26	?	?	?	?

Newton's Method (8)

- Making an algorithm

- Notation: $m = n+1$

```
a = yData.copy()
for k in range(1,m):
    for i in range(k,m):
        a[i] = (a[i] - a[k-1])/(xData[i] - xData[k-1])
```

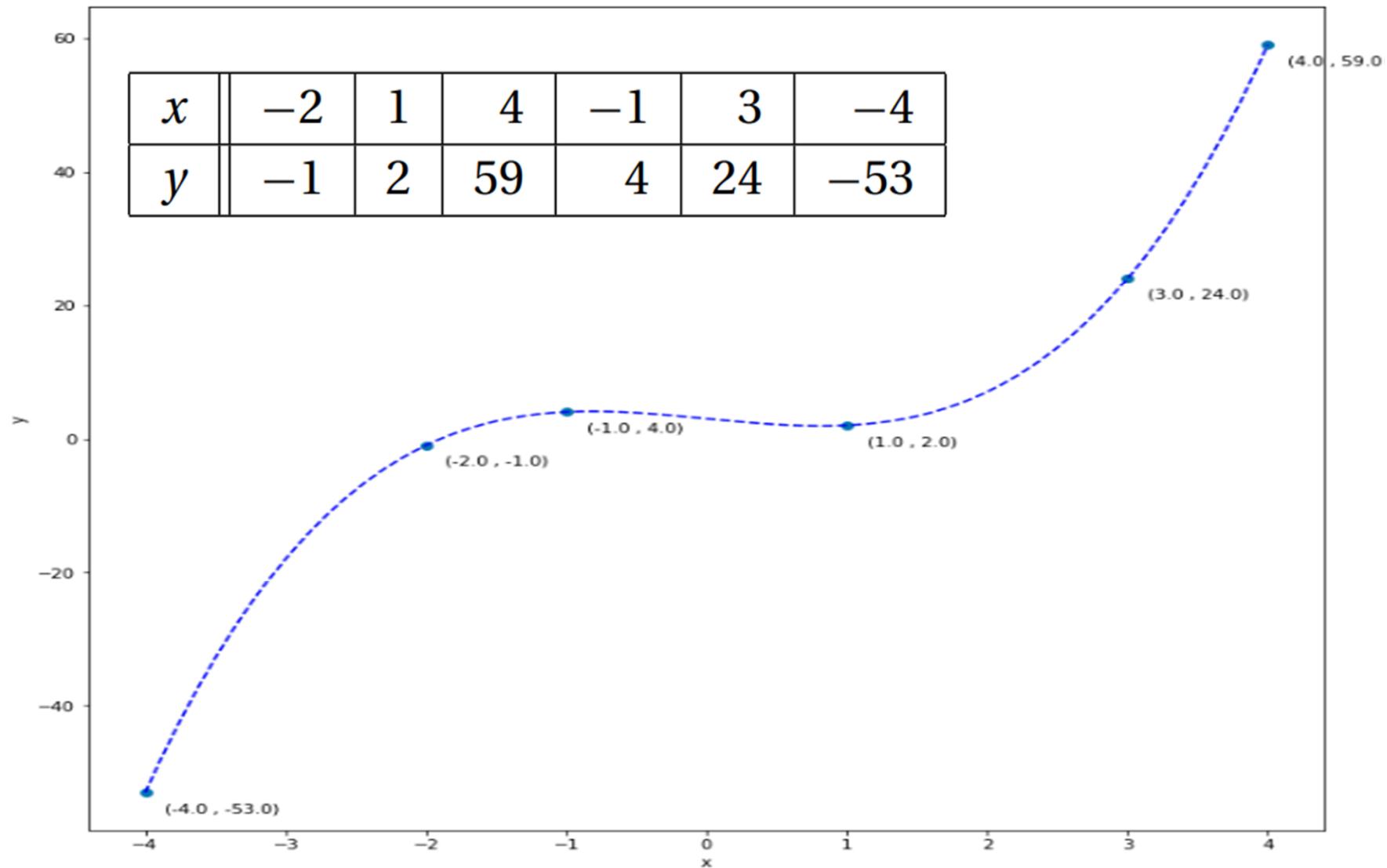
- At start, ‘a’ contains the y-coordinates of the data
 - It’s the y column of the coefficient table
 - Each pass through the loop, generate the next column of the coefficient table
 - It overwrite the component in ‘a’ from indices ‘k’
 - At the end, ‘a’ contains the diagonal of the table
 - The polynomial coefficients

Newton's Implementation

```
def coeffts(xData,yData):  
    m = len(xData) # Number of data points  
    a = yData.copy()  
    for k in range(1,m):  
        a[k:m] = (a[k:m] - a[k-1])/(xData[k:m] - xData[k-1])  
    return a
```

```
def evalPoly(a,xData,x):  
    n = len(xData) - 1 # Degree of polynomial  
    p = a[n]  
    for k in range(1,n+1):  
        p = a[n-k] + (x - xData[n-k])*p  
    return p
```

Example



Neville's Method (1)

- Newton's requires two steps of computations
 - Computation of the coefficients
 - Evaluation of the polynomials
- It's OK if we need to interpolate the data at many different values of x .
- But if we need to interpolate for only one value, Neville's algorithm is more efficient
 - It involves only one step

Neville's Method (2)

- Let's define, $P_k[x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+k}]$
- The polynomial of degree k that passes through the $k+1$ data points $(x_i, y_i), (x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}), \dots, (x_{i+k}, y_{i+k})$
- For a single data point, we have:
$$P_0[x_i] = y_i$$
- For two data points:

$$P_1[x_i, x_{i+1}] = \frac{(x - x_{i+1}) P_0[x_i] + (x_i - x) P_0[x_{i+1}]}{x_i - x_{i+1}}$$

- We can verify that:

$$P_1[x_i, x_{i+1}] = y_i \text{ when } x = x_i$$

$$P_1[x_i, x_{i+1}] = y_{i+1} \text{ when } x = x_{i+1}$$

Neville's Method (3)

- For three data points:

$$P_2[x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}] = \frac{(x - x_{i+2}) P_1[x_i, x_{i+1}] + (x_i - x) P_1[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}]}{x_i - x_{i+2}}$$

- We can verify that:

– For $x = x_i$ $P_2[x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}] = P_1[x_i, x_{i+1}] = y_i$

– For $x = x_{i+2}$ $P_2[x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}] = P_2[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}] = y_{i+2}$

– For $x = x_{i+1}$ $P_2[x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}] = \frac{(x_{i+1} - x_{i+2}) y_{i+1} + (x_i - x_{i+1}) y_{i+1}}{x_i - x_{i+2}} = y_{i+1}$

- Because for $x = x_{i+1}$ we have $P_1[x_i, x_{i+1}] = P_1[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}] = y_{i+1}$

Neville's Method (4)

- We can deduce a recursive formulate from the pattern

$$P_k[x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+k}] = \frac{(x - x_{i+k}) P_{k-1}[x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+k-1}] + (x_i - x) P_{k-1}[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_{i+k}]}{x_i - x_{i+k}}$$

- Tableau for Neville's Method

	$k = 0$	$k = 1$	$k = 2$	$k = 3$
x_0	$P_0[x_0] = y_0$	$P_1[x_0, x_1]$	$P_2[x_0, x_1, x_2]$	$P_3[x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3]$
x_1	$P_0[x_1] = y_1$	$P_1[x_1, x_2]$	$P_2[x_1, x_2, x_3]$	
x_2	$P_0[x_2] = y_2$	$P_1[x_2, x_3]$		
x_3	$P_0[x_3] = y_3$			

Neville's Method (5)

- Example, Evaluate the function at $x=0$

Given the data:

x	-2	1	4	-1
y	-1	2	59	4

$$P_1[x_i, x_{i+1}] = \frac{(x - x_{i+1}) P_0[x_i] + (x_i - x) P_0[x_{i+1}]}{x_i - x_{i+1}}$$

$$P_2[x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}] = \frac{(x - x_{i+2}) P_1[x_i, x_{i+1}] + (x_i - x) P_1[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}]}{x_i - x_{i+2}}$$

x_i	$y_i = P_0[]$	$P_1[,]$	$P_2[, ,]$	$P_3[, , ,]$
-2	-1	?	?	?
1	2	?	?	
4	59	?		
-1	4			

Neville's Method (6)

- Making an algorithm to compute the table
 - Notation: $m = n+1$

```
y = yData.copy()
for k in range (1,m):
    for i in range(m-k):
        y[i] = ((x - xData[i+k])*y[i] + (xData[i] - x)*y[i+1])/ \
                (xData[i]-xData[i+k])
```

- At start, ‘y’ contains the y-coordinates of the data
 - It’s the y column of the Neville’s table
- Each pass through the outer loop, generate the next column of the Neville’s table
 - It overwrite the component in ‘y’ from indices ‘k’
- At the end, ‘y’ contains the diagonal (evaluated at x)
 - The final value of the interpolant evaluated at x is $y[0]$

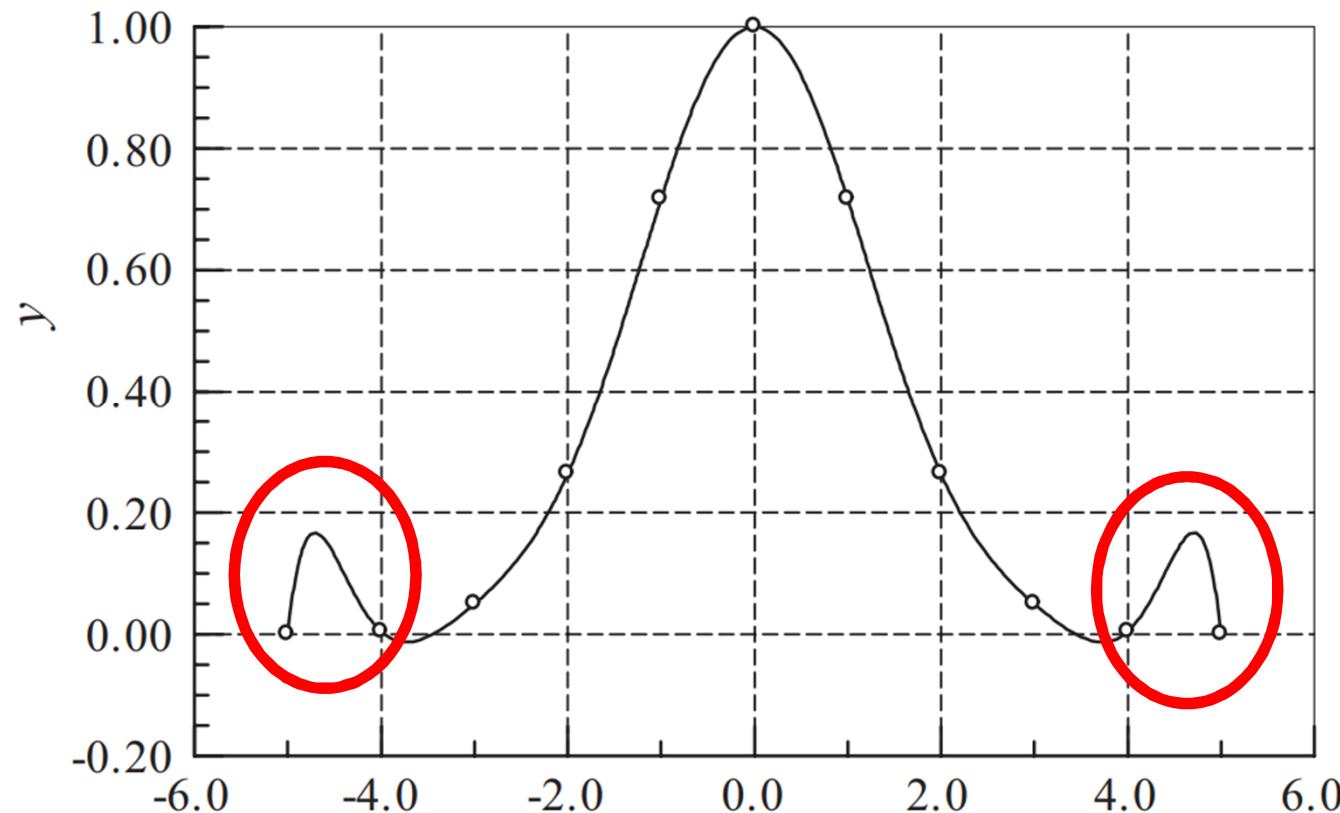
Remarks on polynomial interpolation (1)

- **How the error of the polynomial approximation evolves with n (the degree of the polynomial) ?**
 - Does it increase or decrease ?
- We could believe that the error $\rightarrow 0$ when $n \rightarrow \infty$
 - Lagrange thought that too
 - But this is incorrect, in fact:
error $\rightarrow \infty$ when $n \rightarrow \infty$
 - Known as the Runge Phenomena
- **Polynomial interpolation should be carried out with the fewest feasible number of points**

Remarks on polynomial interpolation (2)

Runge Phenomena

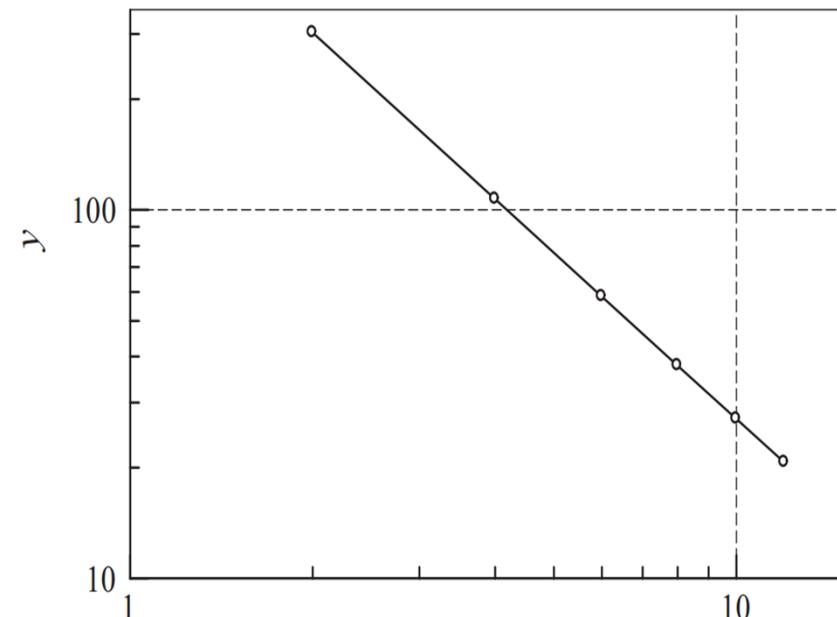
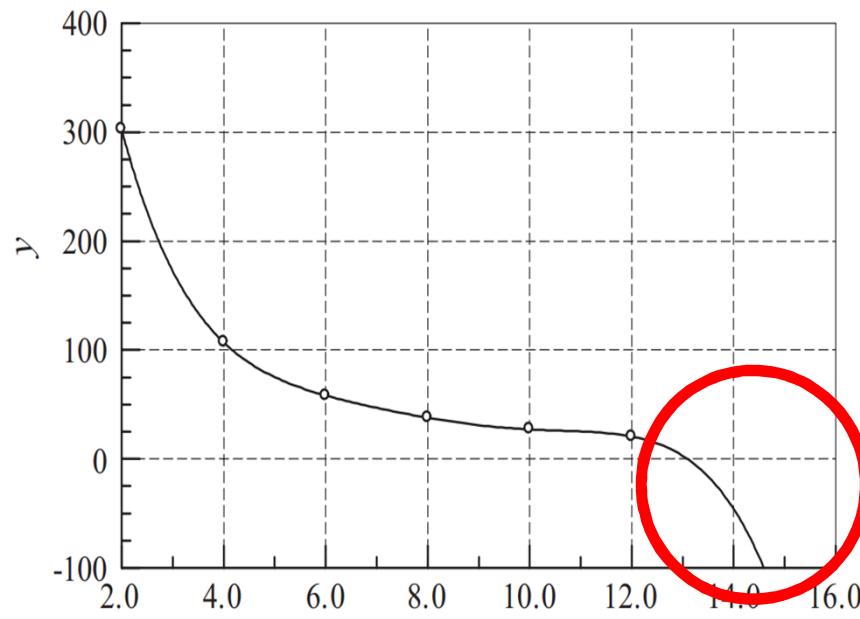
Do you see the problem ?



Polynomials with a large degree (here, $n=10$) have a tendency to oscillate

Remarks on polynomial extrapolation

- **Polynomial extrapolation → interpolate outside the range**
- **Extrapolation is dangerous**
- **If there is no other options:**
 - Visually inspect that the extrapolation make sense
 - Use a low order polynomial (with the nearest points)
 - Work with a $\log(x)$ vs $\log(y)$



Inverse Interpolation

- **Interpolation can be used to estimate the inverse of a function**
 - $y = f(x)$
 - $x = f^{-1}(y)$
- **We can exchange x and y in Neville's algorithm, to get an approximation of $f^{-1}(y)$**
- **Example: Find the root of f given the data:**
 - Root the $f \rightarrow x$ such that $f(x) = 0 \quad \rightarrow \text{root} = f^{-1}(0)$

x	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.7
y	-0.06604	-0.02724	0.01282	0.05383

i	y_i	$P_0[] = x_i$	$P_1[,]$	$P_2[, ,]$	$P_3[, , ,]$
0	-0.06604	4.0	?	?	?
1	-0.02724	3.9	?	?	
2	0.01282	3.8	?		
3	0.05383	3.7			

Inverse Interpolation

i	y_i	$P_0[] = x_i$	$P_1[,]$	$P_2[, ,]$	$P_3[, , ,]$
0	-0.06604	4.0	3.8298	3.8316	3.8317
1	-0.02724	3.9	3.8320	3.8318	
2	0.01282	3.8	3.8313		
3	0.05383	3.7			

- Root estimation based on cubic interpolation over 4 points
 - 3.8317
- But actually, all numbers in the table are estimates of the root based on
 - Different points
 - Different degree of the polynomials

Radial Function Interpolation (1)

- Some data are better interpolated by **rational functions**
 - Rational functions is the quotient of two polynomials

$$R(x) = \frac{P_m(x)}{Q_n(x)} = \frac{a_1 x^m + a_2 x^{m-1} + \cdots + a_m x + a_{m+1}}{b_1 x^n + b_2 x^{n-1} + \cdots + b_n x + b_{n+1}}$$

- As $R(x)$ is a ratio, it can be scaled such that one of the coefficient is unity
 - Generally, $b_{n+1} = 1$
 - $m+n+1$ undetermined coefficients $\rightarrow m+n+1$ data points
- **Diagonal rational function**
 - Degree of the numerator (m) equals degree of the denominator (n)
if $m+n$ is even \rightarrow $m = n$
 - Degree of the numerator (m) equals degree of the denominator minus 1 ($n-1$)
if $m+n$ is odd \rightarrow $m = n-1$
 - Interpolation can be carried out with a Neville-type of algorithm

Radial Function Interpolation (2)

- Recursive formula

$$R[x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+k}] = R[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_{i+k}] + \frac{R[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_{i+k}] - R[x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+k-1}]}{S}$$

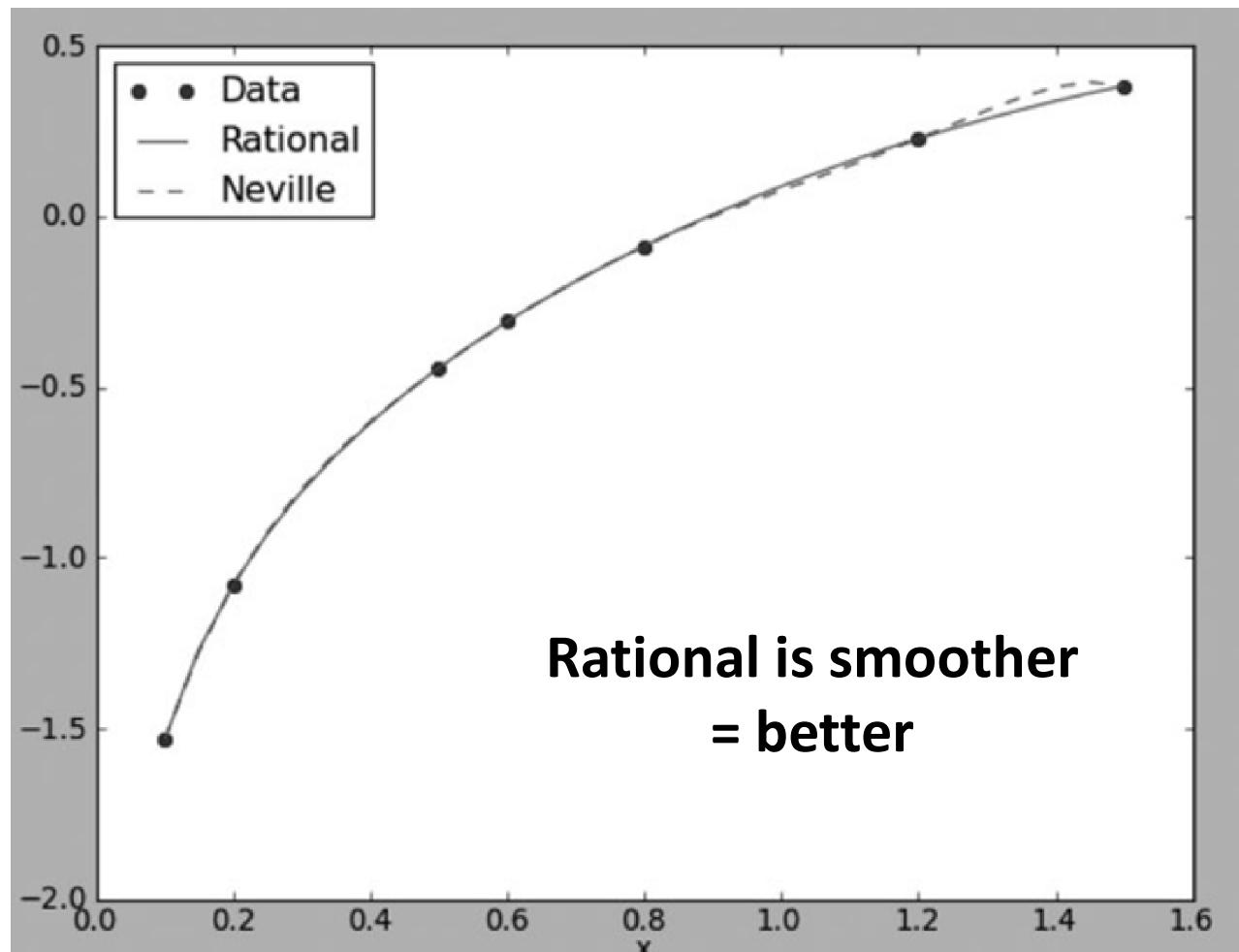
where

$$S = \frac{x - x_i}{x - x_{i+k}} \left(1 - \frac{R[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_{i+k}] - R[x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+k-1}]}{R[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_{i+k}] - R[x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_{i+k-1}]} \right) - 1$$

	$k = -1$	$k = 0$	$k = 1$	$k = 2$	$k = 3$
x_1	0	$R[x_1] = y_1$	$R[x_1, x_2]$	$R[x_1, x_2, x_3]$	$R[x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4]$
x_2	0	$R[x_2] = y_2$	$R[x_2, x_3]$	$R[x_2, x_3, x_4]$	
x_3	0	$R[x_3] = y_3$	$R[x_3, x_4]$		
x_4	0	$R[x_4] = y_4$			

Radial Function Interpolation (3)

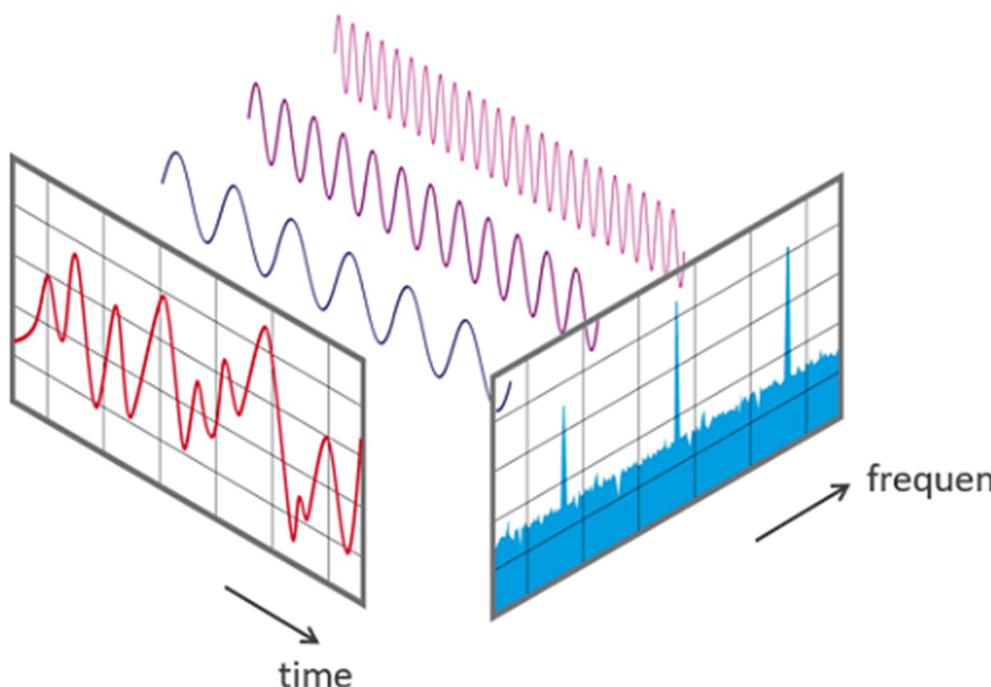
x	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.2	1.5
y	-1.5342	-1.0811	-0.4445	-0.3085	-0.0868	0.2281	0.3824



Trigonometric Interpolation

- There exists many other forms of interpolations
- For instance, if f is a periodic function,
We will interpolate it with a basis of periodical functions
- $y_i = \phi(x_i)$
- $\phi(x) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^K (a_k \cos(kx) + b_k \sin(kx))$
- $\phi(x) = \sum_{k=-K}^K c_k e^{ikx}$ (with Euler notation)
- $2K+1$ unknowns \rightarrow Unique solution if we have $2K+1$ points
- In the special case where the x_i are evenly spaced,
 - This problem is the **Discrete Fourier Transform**
 - Efficient algorithm implementation: **Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)**

Application of FFT



- Signal Decomposition

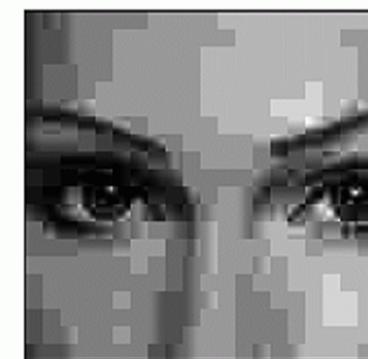
- Signal Filtering



a. Original image



b. With 10:1 compression



c. With 45:1 compression

- Compression
 - JPEG
 - MP3

FIGURE 27-15
Example of JPEG distortion. Figure (a) shows the original image, while (b) and (c) shows restored images using compression ratios of 10:1 and 45:1, respectively. The high compression ratio used in (c) results in each 8×8 pixel group being represented by less than 12 bits.

Source: <https://www.dspguide.com/ch27/6.htm>