

Chapter 2: Polynomial Interpolation

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1 Polynomial Interpolation

In this chapter we study how to interpolate a data set with a polynomial.

Problem Description: Given $(n+1)$ points, say (x_i, y_i) , where $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$, with distinct x_i , not necessarily sorted, we want to find a polynomial of degree n :

$$P_n(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

such that it interpolates these points, i.e.,

$$P_n(x) = y_i, i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

The goal is to determine the coefficients $a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0$. Note the total number of data points is 1 larger than the degree of the polynomial.

Why should we do this?

- Find the values between the points for discrete data set
- To approximate a (probably complicated) function by a polynomial
- Then, it is easier to do computations such as derivative, integrations, etc. . .

1.1 Van Der Monde Matrix Example

Interpolate the given data set with a polynomial of degree 2:

$$\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} x_i & 0 & 1 & 2/3 \\ y_i & 1 & 0 & 0.5 \end{array}$$

Answer Let

$$P_2(x) = a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$$

We need to find the coefficients a_2, a_1, a_0 . By the interpolating properties, we have 3 equations:

$$x = 0, y = 1 : P_2(0) = a_0 = 1$$

$$x = 1, y = 0 : P_2(1) = a_2 + a_1 + a_0 = 0$$

$$x = \frac{2}{3}, y = 0.5 : P_2\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{4}{9}\right)a_2 + \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)a_1 + a_0 = 0.5$$

Here we have 3 linear equations and 3 unknowns (a_2, a_1, a_0) .

The equations:

$$a_0 = 1$$

$$a_2 + a_1 = 0$$

$$\frac{4}{9}a_2 + \frac{2}{3}a_1 + a_0 = 0.5$$

In matrix-vector form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \frac{4}{9} & \frac{2}{3} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_2 \\ a_1 \\ a_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Easy to solve in Matlab, or do it by hand:

$$a_2 = -\frac{3}{4}$$

$$a_1 = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$a_0 = 1$$

Then

$$P_2(x) = -\frac{3}{4}x^2 - \frac{1}{4}x + 1$$

1.1.1 The general case

- X: a $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ matrix, given (Van Der Monde matrix)
- a: unknown vector, with length $(n + 1)$
- y: given vector, with length $(n + 1)$

Theorem If x_i 's are distinct, then X is invertible, therefore a has a unique solution.

In Matlab, the command `vander(x)`, where x is a vector that contains the interpolation points $x = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$, will generate this matrix.

Bad News: X has a very large condition number for large n, therefore not effective to solve if n is large.

The general case. For the general case with $(n + 1)$ points, we have

$$P_n(x_i) = y_i, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

We will have $(n + 1)$ equations and $(n + 1)$ unknowns:

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x_0) = y_0 & : x_0^n a_n + x_0^{n-1} a_{n-1} + \dots + x_0 a_1 + a_0 = y_0 \\ P_n(x_1) = y_1 & : x_1^n a_n + x_1^{n-1} a_{n-1} + \dots + x_1 a_1 + a_0 = y_1 \\ & \vdots \\ P_n(x_n) = y_n & : x_n^n a_n + x_n^{n-1} a_{n-1} + \dots + x_n a_1 + a_0 = y_n \end{aligned}$$

Putting this in matrix-vector form

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_0^n & x_0^{n-1} & \dots & x_0 & 1 \\ x_1^n & x_1^{n-1} & \dots & x_1 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_n^n & x_n^{n-1} & \dots & x_n & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_n \\ a_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ a_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

i.e.

$$\mathbf{X} \vec{a} = \vec{y}$$

Figure 1:

$$l_i(x_j) = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & , \quad i = j \\ 0 & , \quad i \neq j \end{cases} \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

Figure 2:

$$\begin{aligned}
l_i(x) &= \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^n \left(\frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j} \right) \\
&= \frac{x - x_0}{x_i - x_0} \cdot \frac{x - x_1}{x_i - x_1} \cdots \frac{x - x_{i-1}}{x_i - x_{i-1}} \cdot \frac{x - x_{i+1}}{x_i - x_{i+1}} \cdots \frac{x - x_n}{x_i - x_n}
\end{aligned}$$

Verify:

$$l_i(x_i) = 1$$

and for $i \neq k$

$$l_i(x_k) = 0$$

$$l_i(x_k) = \delta_{ik}.$$

Figure 3:

1.2 Lagrange Form

Given points: x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n

Define the **cardinal functions** $I_0, I_1, \dots, I_n \in P^n$, satisfying the properties

Here δ_{ij} is called the Kronecker's delta.

Locally supported in discrete sense. The cardinal functions $I_i(x)$ can be written as:

Lagrange form of the interpolation polynomial can be simply expressed as

$$P_n(x) = \sum I_j(x) * y_j$$

It is easy to check the interpolating property:

$$P_n(x_j) = \sum I_i(x_j) * y_i = y_j$$

for every j . (The cardinal function is 1 at x_i , so y_i is multiplied by 1).

Example 2 Write the Lagrange polynomial for the data

$$\begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
x_i & 0 & 1 & 2/3 \\
y_i & 1 & 0 & 0.5
\end{array}$$

Answer We first compute the cardinal functions

$$I_0(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)} = \frac{(x - 2/3)(x - 1)}{(0 - 2/3)(0 - 1)} = \frac{3}{2} \left(x - \frac{2}{3}\right)(x - 1)$$

$$I_1(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)} = \frac{(x-0)(x-1)}{(2/3-0)(2/3-1)} = -\frac{9}{2}x(x-1)$$

$$I_2(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)} = \frac{(x-0)(x-2/3)}{(1-0)(1-2/3)} = 2x(x-\frac{2}{3})$$

so

$$P_2(x) = I_0(x)y_0 + I_1(x)y_1 + I_2(x)y_2 = \frac{3}{2}(x-\frac{2}{3})(x-1) - \frac{9}{2}x(x-1)(0.5) + 0 = -\frac{3}{4}x^2 - \frac{1}{4}x + 1$$

Pros and cons of Lagrange polynomial:

- (+) Elegant Formula
- (-) Slow to compute, since each cardinal function is different
- (-) Not flexible: if one changes a point x_j , or add on an additional point x_{n+1} , one must recompute all cardinal functions.

1.3 Newton's divided differences

Given a data set:

$$\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c} x_i & x_0 & x_1 & \dots & x_n \\ \hline y_i & y_0 & y_1 & \dots & y_n \end{array}$$

We will describe an algorithm in a recursive form.

Main idea:

Given $P_k(x)$ that interpolates $k+1$ data points $\{x_i, y_i\}$, $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k$, compute $P_{k+1}(x)$ that interpolates one extra point, $\{x_{k+1}, y_{k+1}\}$, by using P_k and adding an extra term

For $n = 0$, we set $P_0(x) = y_0$. Then $P_0(x_0) = y_0$.

For $n = 1$, we set

$$P_1(x) = P_0(x) + a_1(x - x_0)$$

where a_1 is to be determined.

Then, $P_1(x_0) = P_0(x_0) + 0 = y_0$, for any a_1 .

Find a_1 by the interpolation property $y_1 = P_1(x_1)$, we have

$$y_1 = P_0(x_1) + a_1(x_1 - x_0) = y_0 + 0 + a_1(x_1 - x_0)$$

This gives us

$$a_1 = \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}$$

For $n = 2$, we set

$$P_2(x) = P_1(x) + a_2(x - x_0)(x - x_1)$$

Then $P_2(x_0) = P_1(x_0) = y_0$, $P_2(x_1) = P_1(x_1) = y_1$.

Determine a_2 by the interpolation property $y_2 = P_2(x_2)$

$$y_2 = P_1(x_2) + a_2(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)$$

Then

$$a_2 = \frac{y_2 - P_1(x_2)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)}$$

We would like to express a_2 in a different way. Recall

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

Then

$$\begin{aligned} P_1(x_2) &= y_0 + \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}(x_2 - x_0) \\ P_1(x_2) &= y_0 + \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}(x_2 - x_1) + \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}(x_1 - x_0) \\ P_1(x_2) &= y_1 + \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}(x_2 - x_1) \end{aligned}$$

Then a_2 can be rewritten as

$$a_2 = \frac{y_2 - P_1(x_2)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)} = \frac{y_2 - y_1 - \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}(x_2 - x_1)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)} = \frac{\frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} - \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}}{x_2 - x_0}$$

(Rise over the run? Secant lines represented...)

$$a_2 \approx \frac{f'(x_2) - f'(x_0)}{x_2 - x_0} \approx f''()$$

and a_1 is an approximate first derivative.

1.3.1 The general case:

Newton's form for the interpolation polynomial:

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

1.3.2 Recursive Computation

The recursion is initiated with

$$f[x_i] = y_i, i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Then

The general case for a_n :

Assume that $P_{n-1}(x)$ interpolates (x_i, y_i) for $i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$.

Let

$$P_n(x) = P_{n-1}(x) + a_n(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_{n-1})$$

Then for $i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$, we have

$$P_n(x_i) = P_{n-1}(x_i) = y_i.$$

Find a_n by the property $P_n(x_n) = y_n$,

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

then

$$a_n = \frac{y_n - P_{n-1}(x_n)}{(x_n - x_0)(x_n - x_1) \cdots (x_n - x_{n-1})}$$

Figure 4:

$$\begin{aligned} f[x_0, x_1] &= \frac{f[x_1] - f[x_0]}{x_1 - x_0} \\ f[x_1, x_2] &= \frac{f[x_2] - f[x_1]}{x_2 - x_1} \\ f[x_0, x_1, x_2] &= \frac{f[x_1, x_2] - f[x_1, x_0]}{x_2 - x_0} \\ f[x_0, x_1, x_2] &= \frac{f[x_3, x_2] - f[x_2, x_1]}{x_3 - x_1} \end{aligned}$$

For the general step we have

$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k] = \frac{f[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k] - f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}]}{x_k - x_0}$$

The constants a_k 's in the Newton's form are computed as

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= f[x_0] \\ a_1 &= f[x_0, x_1] \\ &\dots \\ a_k &= f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k] \end{aligned}$$

We compute $f[\dots]$'s through the following table:

The diagonal elements give us the coefficients a_i 's

x_0	$f[x_0] = y_0$				
x_1	$f[x_1] = y_1$	$f[x_0, x_1]$ $= \frac{f[x_1] - f[x_0]}{x_1 - x_0}$			
x_2	$f[x_2] = y_2$	$f[x_1, x_2]$ $= \frac{f[x_2] - f[x_1]}{x_2 - x_1}$	$f[x_0, x_1, x_2]$		
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\ddots	
x_n	$f[x_n] = y_n$	$f[x_{n-1}, x_n]$ $= \frac{f[x_n] - f[x_{n-1}]}{x_n - x_{n-1}}$	$f[x_{n-2}, x_{n-1}, x_n]$	\dots	$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$

Figure 5:

1.3.3 Example

Write Newton's form of interpolation polynomial for the data

x_i	0	1	2/3	1/3
y_i	1	0	1/2	0.866

Answer Set up the triangular table for computation

0	1			
1	0	-1		
2/3	0.5	-1.5	-0.75	
1/3	0.8660	-1.0981	-0.6029	0.4413

So we have

$$a_0 = 1, a_1 = -1, a_2 = -0.75, a_3 = 0.4413$$

Then

$$P_3(x) = 1 + -1x + -0.75x(x-1) + 0.4413x(x-1)x - \frac{2}{3}$$

Flexibility of Newton's form: easy to add additional points to interpolate.

1.3.4 Nested form of Newton's Polynomial

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

$$P_n(x) = a_0 + (x - x_0)(a_1 + (x - x_1)(a_2 + (x - x_2)(a_3 + \dots + a_n(x - x_{n-1}))))$$

Effective coding:

Given the data x_i and a_i for $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ the following pseudo-code evaluates Newton's Polynomial $p = P_n(x)$

- $p = a_n$
- for $k = n-1, n-2, \dots, 0$
 - $p = p(x-x_k) + a_k$
- end

This requires only $3n$ flops.

1.4 Existence and Uniqueness theorem for polynomial interpolation

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra)

Every polynomial of degree n that is not identically zero, has maximum n roots (including multiplicities). These roots may be real or complex. In particular, this implies that if a polynomial of degree n has more than n roots, then it must be identically zero.

Theorem (Existence and Uniqueness of Polynomial Interpolation)

Given (x_i, y_i) , with x_i 's distinct. There exists one and only one polynomial $P_n(x)$ of degree $\leq n$ such that $P_n(x_i) = y_i$ for $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$.

Proof

The existence: by construction. Uniqueness: Assume we have two polynomials $p(x), q(x) \in P_n$, such that

$$p(x_i) = y_i$$

$$q(x_i) = y_i$$

$$i = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

Now, let $g(x) = p(x) - q(x)$, a polynomial of degree $\leq n$.

$$g(x_i) = p(x_i) - q(x_i) = y_i - y_i = 0$$

$$i = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

So $g(x)$ has $n+1$ zeros. By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra (max n roots), we must have $g(x) = 0$, therefore $p(x)$ is congruent to $q(x)$.