

they are the same polynomial. Also, without uniqueness the linear system (3.1.2) would not be uniquely solvable; from results in linear algebra, this would imply the existence of data vectors y for which there is no interpolating polynomial of degree $\leq n$.

The formula

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n y_i l_i(x) \quad (3.1.6)$$

is called *Lagrange's formula* for the interpolating polynomial.

Example

$$\begin{aligned} p_1(x) &= \frac{x-x_1}{x_0-x_1} y_0 + \frac{x-x_0}{x_1-x_0} y_1 = \frac{(x_1-x)x_0 + (x-x_0)y_1}{x_1-x_0} \\ p_2(x) &= \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_0-x_1)(x_0-x_2)} y_0 + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)} y_1 \\ &\quad + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)} y_2 \end{aligned}$$

The polynomial of degree ≤ 2 that passes through the three points $(0, 1)$, $(-1, 2)$, and $(1, 3)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} p_2(x) &= \frac{(x+1)(x-1)}{(0+1)(0-1)} \cdot 1 + \frac{(x-0)(x-1)}{(-1-0)(-1-1)} \cdot 2 + \frac{(x-0)(x+1)}{(1-0)(1+1)} \cdot 3 \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2}x + \frac{3}{2}x^2 \end{aligned}$$

If a function $f(x)$ is given, then we can form an approximation to it using the interpolating polynomial

$$p_n(x; f) \equiv p_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) l_i(x) \quad (3.1.7)$$

This interpolates $f(x)$ at x_0, \dots, x_n . For example, we later consider $f(x) = \log_{10} x$ with linear interpolation. The basic result used in analyzing the error of interpolation is the following theorem. As a notation, $\mathcal{H}\{a, b, c, \dots\}$ denotes the smallest interval containing all of the real numbers a, b, c, \dots .

Theorem 3.2 Let x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n be distinct real numbers, and let f be a given real valued function with $n+1$ continuous derivatives on the interval $I_t = \mathcal{H}\{t, x_0, \dots, x_n\}$, with t some given real number.

Then there exists $\xi \in I_t$ with

$$f(t) - \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) l_j(t) = \frac{(t-x_0) \cdots (t-x_n)}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(\xi) \quad (3.1.8)$$

Proof Note that the result is trivially true if t is any node point, since then both sides of (3.1.8) are zero. Assume t does not equal any node point. Then define

$$E(x) = f(x) - p_n(x) \quad p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) l_j(x)$$

$$G(x) = E(x) - \frac{\Psi(x)}{\Psi(t)} E(t) \quad \text{for all } x \in I_t \quad (3.1.9)$$

with

$$\Psi(x) = (x-x_0) \cdots (x-x_n)$$

The function $G(x)$ is $n+1$ times continuously differentiable on the interval I_t , as are $E(x)$ and $\Psi(x)$. Also,

$$G(x_i) = E(x_i) - \frac{\Psi(x_i)}{\Psi(t)} E(t) = 0 \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

$$G(t) = E(t) - E(t) = 0$$

Thus G has $n+2$ distinct zeros in I_t . Using the mean value theorem, G' has $n+1$ distinct zeros. Inductively, $G^{(j)}(x)$ has $n+2-j$ zeros in I_t , for $j = 0, 1, \dots, n+1$. Let ξ be a zero of $G^{(n+1)}(x)$,

$$G^{(n+1)}(\xi) = 0$$

Since

$$E^{(n+1)}(x) = f^{(n+1)}(x)$$

$$\Psi^{(n+1)}(x) = (n+1)!$$

we obtain

$$G^{(n+1)}(x) = f^{(n+1)}(x) - \frac{(n+1)!}{\Psi(t)} E(t)$$

Substituting $x = \xi$ and solving for $E(t)$,

$$E(t) = \frac{\Psi(t)}{(n+1)!} \cdot f^{(n+1)}(\xi)$$

the desired result.