

## Interpolation using the Vandermonde matrix

The most basic procedure to determine the coefficients  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$  of a polynomial

$$P_n(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n$$

such that it interpolates the  $n + 1$  points

$$(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$$

is to write a linear system of equations as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x_0) = y_0 &\Rightarrow a_0 + a_1x_0 + a_2x_0^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}x_0^{n-1} + a_nx_0^n = y_0 \\ P_n(x_1) = y_1 &\Rightarrow a_0 + a_1x_1 + a_2x_1^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}x_1^{n-1} + a_nx_1^n = y_1 \\ \vdots &\Rightarrow \vdots \\ P_n(x_n) = y_n &\Rightarrow a_0 + a_1x_n + a_2x_n^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}x_n^{n-1} + a_nx_n^n = y_n \end{aligned}$$

or, in matrix form:

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \cdots & x_0^{n-1} & x_0^n \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} & x_1^n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & x_{n-1}^2 & \cdots & x_{n-1}^{n-1} & x_{n-1}^n \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & \cdots & x_n^{n-1} & x_n^n \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{V}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}}_{\vec{a}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}}_{\vec{b}}$$

The matrix  $\mathbf{V}$  is called a *Vandermonde matrix*. We will see that  $\mathbf{V}$  is non-singular, thus we can solve the system  $\mathbf{V}\vec{a} = \vec{b}$  to obtain the coefficients  $\vec{a} = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)$ . Let's evaluate the merits and drawbacks of this approach:

- Cost to determine the polynomial  $P_n(x)$ : *VERY COSTLY* since a dense  $(n + 1) \times (n + 1)$  linear system has to be solved. This will generally require time proportional to  $n^3$ , making large interpolation problems intractable. In addition, the Vandermonde matrix is notorious for being challenging to solve (especially with Gauss elimination) and prone to large errors in the computed coefficients  $a_i$  when  $n$  is large and/or  $x_i \approx x_j$ .
- Cost to evaluate  $f(x)$  ( $x = \text{arbitrary}$ ) if coefficients are known: *VERY CHEAP*. Using Horner's scheme:

$$a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n = a_0 + x(a_1 + x(a_2 + \cdots + x(a_{n-1} + x a_n)))$$

- Availability of derivatives: *VERY EASY*, e.g.

$$P'_n(x) = a_1 + 2a_2x + 3a_3x^2 + \cdots + (n - 1)a_{n-1}x^{n-2} + na_nx^{n-1}$$

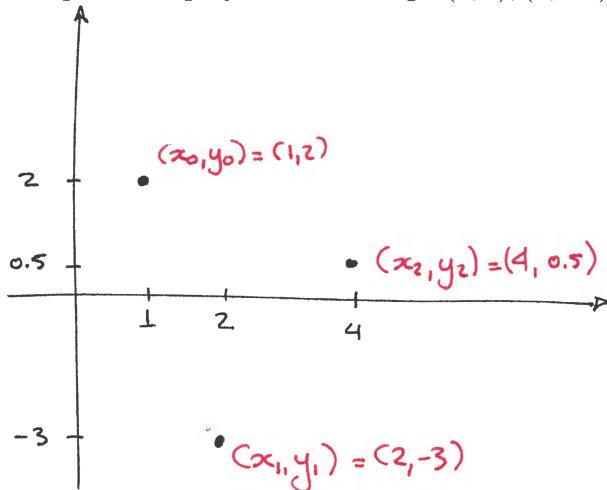
- Support for incremental interpolation: *NOT SUPPORTED!* This property examines if interpolating through  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n+1}, y_{n+1})$  is easier if we already know a polynomial (of degree =  $n - 1$ ) that interpolates through  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ . In our case, the system  $\mathbf{V}\vec{a} = \vec{y}$  would have to be solved from scratch for the  $(n + 1)$  data points.

## Lagrange interpolation

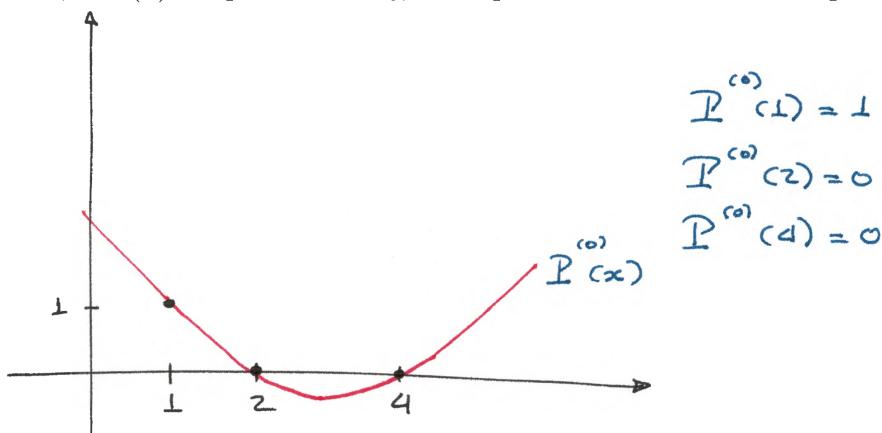
The Lagrange interpolation method is an alternative way to define  $P_n(x)$  without having to solve computationally expensive systems of equations. We shall explain how Lagrange interpolation works with an example.

Corresponding textbook chapter(s):  
§4.3

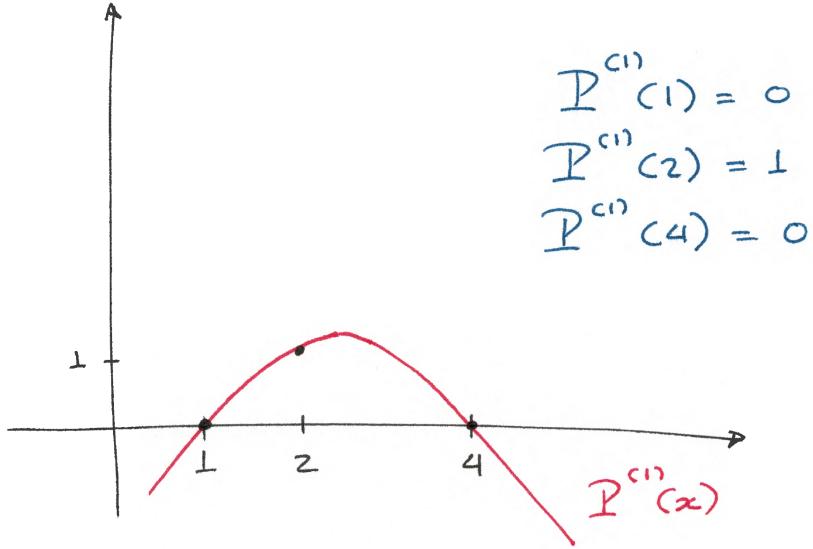
Example: Pass a quadratic polynomial through  $(1, 2), (2, -3), (4, 0.5)$ .



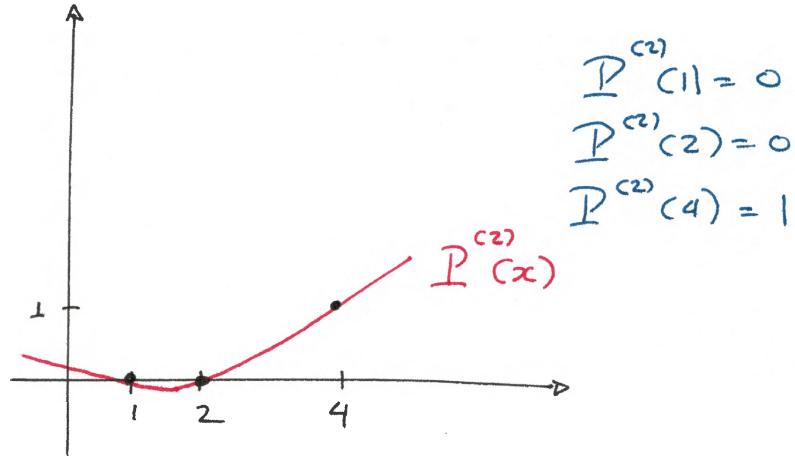
Assume we have somehow constructed 3 quadratic polynomials  $P^{(0)}(x), P^{(1)}(x), P^{(2)}(x)$ , such that,  $P^{(0)}(x)$  is equal to 1 at  $x_0$ , and equals zero at the other two points  $x_1, x_2$ :



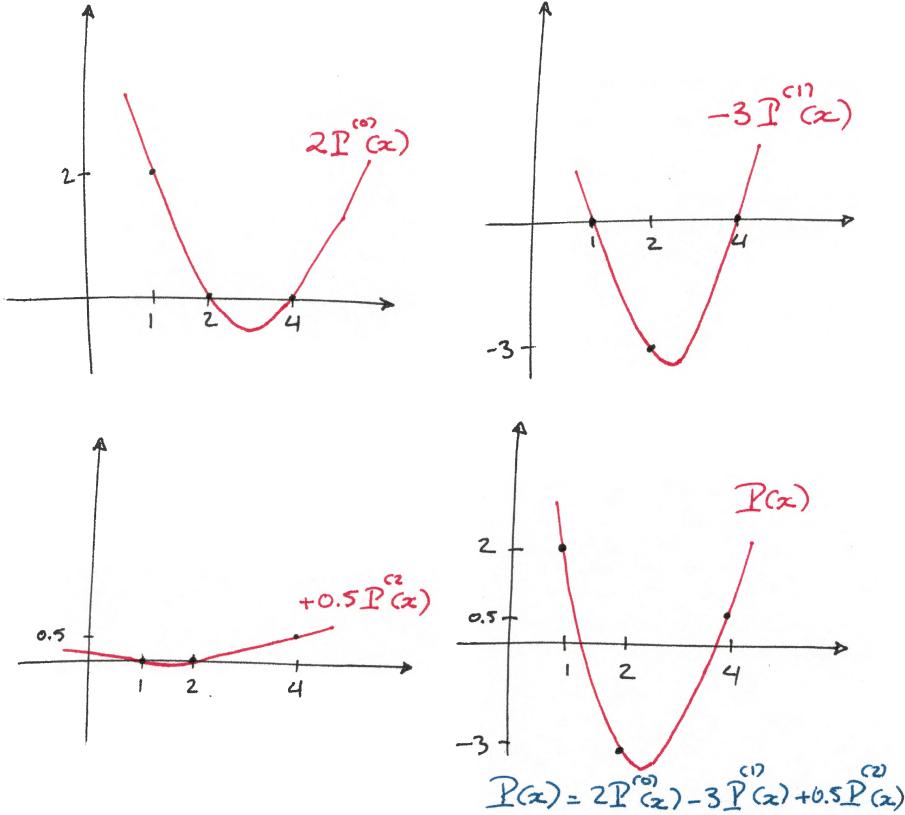
$P^{(1)}(x)$  is designed as to equal 1 at location  $x_1$ , and evaluate to zero at  $x_0, x_2$ :



While  $P^{(2)}$  is similarly constructed to satisfy



Now, the idea is to *scale* each  $P^{(i)}$ , such that  $P^{(i)}(x_i) = y_i$  and add them all together:



In summary, if we have a total of  $(n+1)$  data points  $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ , define the Lagrange polynomials of  $n$ -degree  $l_0(x), l_1(x), \dots, l_n(x)$  as:

$$l_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

Then, the interpolating polynomial is simply:

$$P(x) = y_0 l_0(x) + y_1 l_1(x) + \dots + y_n l_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n y_i l_i(x).$$

No solution of a linear system is necessary here. We just have to explain what every  $l_i(x)$  looks like. Since  $l_i(x)$  is an  $n$ -degree polynomial with  $n$  roots

$$x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_n,$$

it must have the form

$$\begin{aligned} l_i(x) &= C_i (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \dots (x - x_{i-1})(x - x_{i+1}) \dots (x - x_n) \\ &= C_i \prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j) \end{aligned}$$

Now, we require  $l_i(x_k) = 1$ , thus:

$$1 = C_i \prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j) \Rightarrow C_i = \frac{1}{\prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)}.$$

Thus, for every  $i$ , we have:

$$\begin{aligned} l_i(x) &= \frac{(x - x_o)(x - x_1) \dots (x - x_{i-1})(x - x_{i+1})/ldots(x - x_n)}{(x_i - x_o)(x_i - x_1) \dots (x_i - x_{i-1})(x_i - x_{i+1})/ldots(x_i - x_n)} \\ &= \prod_{j \neq i} \left( \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j} \right) \\ &= \frac{\prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j)}{\prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)} \end{aligned}$$

*Note:* This result essentially proves *existence* of a polynomial interpolant of degree  $= n$  that passes through  $(n + 1)$  data points. We can also use it to prove that the Vandermonde matrix  $V$  is non-singular; if it *were* singular, a right-hand-side  $\vec{y} = (y_0, \dots, y_n)$  would have existed such that  $V\vec{a} = \vec{y}$  would have no solution, which is a contradiction.

Let's evaluate the same 4 quality metrics we saw before for the Vandermonde matrix approach.

- Cost of determining  $P(x)$ : *VERY EASY*. We are essentially able to write a formula for  $P(x)$  without solving any systems. However, if we want to write  $P(x) = a_0 + a_1 s + \dots + a_n x^n$ , the cost of evaluating the  $a_i$ 's would be very high! Each  $l_i$  would need to be expanded  $\Rightarrow$  approximately  $N^2$  operations for each  $l_i$ ,  $N^3$  operations for  $P(x)$ .
- Cost of evaluating  $P(x)$  ( $x = \text{arbitrary}$ ): *SIGNIFICANT*. We do not really need to compute the  $a_i$ 's beforehand if we only need to evaluate  $P(x)$  at select few locations. For each  $l_i(x)$  the evaluation requires  $N$  subtractions and  $N$  multiplications  $\Rightarrow$  total = about  $N^2$  operations (better than  $N^3$  for computing the  $a_i$ 's).
- Availability of derivatives: *NOT READILY AVAILABLE*. Differentiating each  $l_i$  (since  $P'(x) = \sum y_i l'_i(x)$ ) is not trivial  $\Rightarrow$  yeilds  $N$  terms each with  $(N - 1)$  products per term.
- Incremental interpolation: The Lagrange method does not provide any special shortcuts to adding one extra point to the interpolation problem, however it is very easy to simply rebuild the new interpolant  $P(x)$  from scratch.