Chapter 2 Interpolation

2.1 Interpolation by Polynomials

2.1.1. Theoretical Foundation: The Interpolation Formula of Lagrange

 Π_n : the set of all real or complex polynomials P whose degrees do not exceed n:

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$$

(2.1.1.1) Theorem For n+1 arbitrary support points

$$(x_i, f_i), \quad i = 0, \ldots, n, \quad x_i \neq x_k \text{ for } i \neq k,$$

there exists a unique polynomial $P \in \Pi_n$ with

$$P(x_i) = f_i, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Proof. Uniqueness? Let $P_1(x_i) = P_2(x_i) = f_i$ for i = 0, 1, ..., n. Define $P = P_1 - P_2$, then $P(x_i) = 0$ for i = 0, 1, ..., n. Since P is a polynomial of degree n and $p(x) = c(x - x_0) ... (x - x_n), c = 0$.

Existence?

$$L_i(x) := \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{(x - x_j)}{(x_i - x_j)}$$
: Lagrange polynomial

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f_i L_i(x)$$
: Lagrange interploating polynomial

Basis for
$$\prod_n$$

= $\{1, x, x^2, ..., x^n\}$
= $\{L_0(x), L_1(x), ..., L_n(x)\}$

EXAMPLE. Given for n = 2:

Wanted: P(2), where $P \in \Pi_2$, $P(x_i) = f_i$ for i = 0, 1, 2. Solution?

$$L_0(x) = \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_0-x_1)(x_0-x_2)}$$

$$L_1(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)}$$

$$L_2(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)}$$

$$P(x) = f_0 L_0(x) + f_1 L_1(x) + f_2 L_2(x)$$

$$P(2) = 1\frac{(2-1)(2-3)}{(0-1)(0-3)} + 3\frac{(2-0)(2-3)}{(1-0)(1-3)} + 2\frac{(2-0)(2-1)}{(3-0)(3-1)}$$

2.1.2 Neville's Algorithm

For a given set of support points $(x_i, f_i), i = 0, 1, \ldots, n$, we denote by

$$P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k} \in \prod_k$$

that polynomial in Π_k for which

$$P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k}(x_{i_j}) = f_{i_j}, \qquad j = 0, 1, \dots, k.$$

These polynomials are linked by the following recursion:

$$P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k}(x) \equiv \frac{f_i}{P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k}(x) - (x - x_{i_k}) P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_{k-1}}(x)}{x_{i_k} - x_{i_0}}.$$

PROOF:

(2.1.2.1)

$$P_{i}(x) \equiv f_{i} \Rightarrow P_{i}(x_{i}) = f_{i}$$

Assume $P_{i_{0}i_{1}...i_{k-1}}(x_{i_{j}}) = f(x_{i_{j}}), \quad 0 \leq j \leq k-1,$
and $P_{i_{1}i_{2}...i_{k}}(x_{i_{j}}) = f(x_{i_{j}}), \quad 1 \leq j \leq k.$

Then

$$P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k}(x_{i_0}) = f(x_{i_0}),$$

$$P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k}(x_{i_k}) = f(x_{i_k}),$$

$$P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k}(x_{i_j}) = f(x_{i_j}), \quad 1 \le j \le k - 1.$$

EXAMPLE. Determine $P_{012}(2)$ for the same support points as in section 2.1.1.

2.1.3 Newton's Interpolation Formula: Divided Differences

Write the interpolating polynomial $P \in \Pi_n$, $P(x_i) = f_i$, i = 0, 1, ..., n, in the form of

$$P(x) \equiv P_{01...n}(x)$$

$$= a_0 + a_1(x - x_0) + a_2(x - x_0)(x - x_1) + \cdots$$

$$+ a_n(x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_{n-1}).$$

Horner Scheme: $P(\xi) = (\cdots (a_n(\xi - x_{n-1}) + a_{n-1})(\xi - x_{n-2}) + \cdots + a_1)(\xi - x_0) + a_0$.

$$f_0 = P(x_0) = a_0$$

$$f_1 = P(x_1) = a_0 + a_1(x_1 - x_0)$$

$$f_2 = P(x_2) = a_0 + a_1(x_2 - x_0) + a_2(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)$$

. .

 $P_{i_0i_1...i_{k-1}}(x)$ and $P_{i_0i_1...i_k}(x)$ differ by a polynomial of degree k with k zeros $x_{i_0}, x_{i_1}, \ldots, x_{i_{k-1}}$

$$P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k}(x) = P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_{k-1}}(x) + f_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k}(x - x_{i_0})(x - x_{i_1}) \dots (x - x_{i_{k-1}})$$

From the identity $P_{i_0} = f_{i_0}$,

(2.1.3.4)
$$P_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k}(x) = f_{i_0} + f_{i_0 i_1}(x - x_{i_0}) + \dots + f_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_k}(x - x_{i_0})(x - x_{i_1}) \dots (x - x_{i_{k-1}})$$

From (2.1.2.1)

$$f_{i_0i_1...i_k}=rac{f_{i_1...i_k}-f_{i_0...i_{k-1}}}{x_{i_k}-x_{i_0}}$$
 : k-th divided difference

The polynomial is invariant to any permutation of the indices i_0, i_1, \ldots, i_k , and so is its coefficient $f_{i_0 i_1 \ldots i_k}$ of x^k .

Divided-difference scheme:

EXAMPLE in section 2.2.1

$$x_0 = 0$$
 $f_0 = 1$ $f_{01} = 2$ $f_{1} = 3$ $f_{12} = -\frac{5}{6}$ $f_{2} = 2$ $f_{2} = 2$

Consider multivariate functions:

$$f[x_0] = f(x_0)$$

$$f[x_0, x_1] = \frac{f[x_1] - f[x_0]}{x_1 - x_0} = \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0}$$

$$f[x_0, x_1, x_2] = \frac{f[x_1, x_2] - f[x_0, x_1]}{x_2 - x_0}$$

$$= \frac{f(x_0)(x_1 - x_2) + f(x_1)(x_2 - x_0) + f(x_2)(x_0 - x_1)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)}$$

(2.1.3.9) Theorem. The divided difference $f[x_{i_0}, ..., x_{i_n}]$ is a symmetric function of their arguments.

(2.1.3.10) Theorem. If f(x) is a polynomial of degree N, then

$$f[x_0,...,x_k] = 0 \text{ for } k > N.$$

PROOF.

EXAMPLE. $f(x) = x^2$

x_i	k=0	1	2	3	4
0	0				
		1			
1	1		1		
0	,	3	1	0	0
2	4	۲	1	0	0
3	9	5	1	0	
3	9	7	1		
4	16	•			

If f(x) has a derivative at x_0 , then it makes sense for certain purposes to define

$$f[x_0, x_0] := f'(x_0).$$

2.1.4 The Error in Polynomial Interpolation

Once again we consider a given function f(x) and certain of its values

$$f_i = f(x_i), \qquad i = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$

Let $P(x) \equiv P_{0...n}(x) \in \Pi_n$ be the interpolating polynomial with

$$P(x_i) = f_i, i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

(2.1.4.1) **Theorem**. If the function f has an (n+1) st derivative, then for every argument \bar{x} , there exists a number ξ in the smallest interval $I[x_0, ..., x_n, \bar{x}]$, which contains \bar{x} and all support abscissas x_i , satisfying

$$f(\bar{x}) - P_{01...n}(\bar{x}) = \frac{\omega(\bar{x})f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!},$$

where

$$\omega(x) \equiv (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_n).$$

PROOF.

By Rolle's theorem, Q' has (n+1) zeros.

Let
$$Q(x) = f(x) - P(x) - K\omega(x)$$
.

Then
$$Q(x_i) = 0, i = 0, ..., n$$
.

Let $Q(\bar{x}) = 0$.

Then Q has (n+2) zeros.

Hence
$$K = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}$$

A different error term can be derived from Newton's interpolation for mula (2.1.3.4):

$$P(x) \equiv P_{01...n}(x) \equiv f[x_0] + f[x_0, x_1](x - x_0) + \cdots + f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n](x - x_0) \dots (x - x_{n-1}).$$

to interpolate

$$(x_i, f_i): f_i = f(x_i), i = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$

we introduce an (n+2)nd support point

$$(x_{n+1}, f_{n+1}): x_{n+1} := \bar{x}, f_{n+1} := f(\bar{x}), \bar{x} \neq x_i, i = 0, \dots, n,$$

then by Newton's formula

$$(2.1.4.2) f(\bar{x}) = P_{0...n+1}(\bar{x}) = P_{0...n}(\bar{x}) + f[x_0, \dots, x_n, \bar{x}]\omega(\bar{x}),$$

The difference on the left-hand side appears in Theorem (2.1.4.1), and since $\omega(\bar{x}) \neq 0$, we must have

$$f[x_0, \dots, x_n, \bar{x}] = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}$$
 for some $\xi \in I[x_0, \dots, x_n, \bar{x}]$.

Also
$$f[x_0, \dots, x_n] = \frac{f^{(n)}(\xi)}{n!}$$
 for some $\xi \in I[x_0, \dots, x_n]$

EXAMPLE. $f(x) = \sin x$:

$$x_{i} = \frac{\pi}{10} \cdot i, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \quad n = 5,$$

$$\sin x - P(x) = (x - x_{0})(x - x_{1}) \dots (x - x_{5}) \frac{-\sin \xi}{720}, \quad \xi = \xi(x),$$

$$\left|\sin x - P(x)\right| \le \frac{1}{720} \left|(x - x_{0})(x - x_{1}) \dots (x - x_{5})\right| = \frac{|\omega(x)|}{720}.$$

In the exterior of the interval $I[x_0, ..., x_n]$, the value of $|\omega(x)|$ in Theorem (2.1.4.1) grows very fast. The use of the interpolation polynomial P for approximating f at some location outside the interval $I[x_0, ..., x_n]$ -- called *extrapolation* -- should be avoided if possible.

Within $I[x_0, ..., x_n]$, it should not be assumed that finer and finer samplings of the function f will lead to better and better approximations through interpolation.

Consider a real function $f \in C^{\infty}[a,b]$. To every interval partition $\Delta = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < ... < x_n = b\}$, there exists an interpolating polynomial $P_{\Delta} \in \Pi_n$ with $P_{\Delta}(x_i) = f_i$ for $x_i \in \Delta$. A sequence of interval partitions

$$\Delta_m = \left\{ a = x_0^{(m)} < x_1^{(m)} < \dots < x_{n_m}^{(m)} = b \right\}$$

gives rise to a sequence of interpolating polynomials P_{Δ_m} .

One might expect the polynomials P_{Δ_m} to converge toward f if the fineness

$$\|\Delta_m\| := \max_i |x_{i+1}^{(m)} - x_i^{(m)}|$$

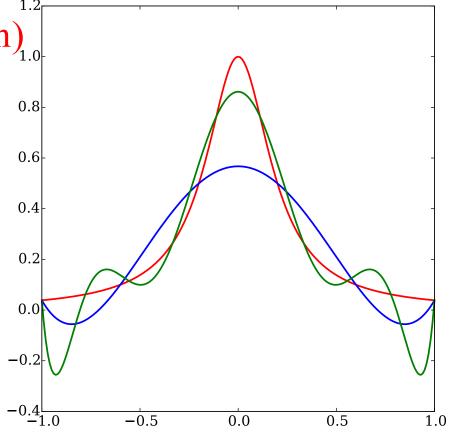
of the partitions tends to 0 as $m \to \infty$. In general this is not true. For example, it has been shown for the functions

$$f(x) := \frac{1}{1 + 25x^2}, \quad [a, b] = [-1, 1]$$
 (Runge function)

$$f(x) := \sqrt{x}, \quad [a, b] = [0, 1]$$

that the polynomials P_{Δ_m} do not converge pointwise to f for arbitrarily fine uniform partitions Δ_m ,

$$x_i^{(m)} = a + \frac{i(b-a)}{m}, i = 0, ..., m.$$



The red curve is the Runge function. The blue curve is a 5th-order interpolating polynomial (using six equally spaced interpolating points). The green curve is a 9th-order interpolating polynomial (using ten equally spaced interpolating points).

2.1.5 Hermite-Interpolation

Consider the real numbers $x_i, f_i^{(k)}, i = 0, 1, ..., m, k = 0, 1, ..., n_i - 1$, with $x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_m$.

The Hermite interpolation problem for these data consists of determining a polynomial P whose degree does not exceed $n, P \in \Pi_n$, where

Example:

 $x_2: f(x_2)$

 $x_0: f(x_0), f'(x_0)$ $x_1: f(x_1), f'(x_1), f''(x_1)$

$$n+1 := \sum_{i=0}^m n_i \,,$$

and which satisfies the following interpolation conditions:

$$(2.1.5.1) P^{(k)}(x_i) = f_i^{(k)}, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, m \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n_i - 1.$$

(2.1.5.2)**Theorem**. For arbitrary numbers $x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_m$ and $f_i^{(k)}$, $i=0,1,\ldots,m$, $k=0,1,\ldots,n_i-1$, there exists precisely one polynomial

$$P \in \Pi_n, \quad n+1 := \sum_{i=0}^m n_i,$$

which satisfies (2.1.5.1).

PROOF. Uniqueness?

Existence?

Uniqueness implies existence

Hermite interpolating polynomials can be given explicitly in a form analogous to the interpolation formula of Lagrange. The polynomial $P \in \Pi_n$ given by

$$(2.1.5.3) P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \sum_{k=0}^{n_i-1} f_i^{(k)} L_{ik}(x)$$

satisfies (2.1.5.1). The polynomials $L_{ik} \in \Pi_n$ are generalized Lagrange polynomials. They are defined as follows: Starting with the auxiliary polynomials

$$l_{ik}(x) := \frac{(x-x_i)^k}{k!} \prod_{\substack{j=0\\j\neq i}}^m \left(\frac{x-x_j}{x_i-x_j}\right)^{n_j}, \quad 0 \le i \le m, \quad 0 \le k \le n_i,$$

put

$$L_{i0}(x) = l_{i0}(x) + \sum_{k=1}^{n_i - 1} c_{0k} l_{ik}(x),$$
 $L_{i1}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{n_i - 1} c_{1k} l_{ik}(x),$
 $L_{i2}(x) = \sum_{k=2}^{n_i - 1} c_{2k} l_{ik}(x),$
 \vdots
 $L_{i,n_i - 1}(x) = c_{n_i - 1,n_i - 1} l_{i,n_i - 1}(x)$

$$L_{ik}^{(\sigma)}(x_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i = j \text{ and } k = \sigma, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 implies

$$L_{i,n_i-1}(x) := l_{i,n_i-1}(x), \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, m,$$

For
$$k = n_i - 2, n_i - 3, ..., 0$$
, $L_{ik}(x) := l_{ik}(x) - \sum_{\nu=k+1}^{n_i-1} l_{ik}^{(\nu)}(x_i) L_{i\nu}(x)$.

Thus P in (2.1.5.3) is indeed the desired Hermite interpolating polynomial.

An alternative way to describe Hermite interpolation is to generalize divided differences $f[x_0, x_1, ..., x_k]$ so as to accommodate repeated abscissae. To this end, we expand the sequence of abscissae $x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_m$ by replacing each x_i by n_i copies of itself:

$$\underbrace{x_0 = \cdots = x_0}_{n_0} < \underbrace{x_1 = \cdots = x_1}_{n_1} < \cdots < \underbrace{x_m = \cdots = x_m}_{n_m}.$$

The $n+1=\sum_{i=0}^m n_i$ elements in this sequence are then renamed

$$t_0 = x_0 \le t_1 \le \dots \le t_n = x_m,$$

and will be referred to as virtual abscissae.

We now reformulate the Hermite interpolation problem (2.1.5.1) in terms of the virtual abscissae. In order to stress the dependence of the Hermite interpolant P(.) on $t_0, t_1,...,t_n$ we write $P_{01...n}(.)$ for P(.). Also it will be convenient to write $f^{(r)}(x_i)$ instead of $f_i^{(r)}$ in (2.1.5.1). An essential observation is that the interpolation conditions in (2.1.5.1) belonging to the following linear ordering of the index pairs (i, k),

$$(0,0), (0,1), \ldots, (0,n_0-1), (1,0), \ldots, (1,n_1-1), \ldots, (m,n_m-1),$$

have the form $P_{01...n}^{(s_j-1)}(t_j) = f^{(s_j-1)}(t_j), \quad j = 0, 1, ..., n,$ (2.1.5.4)

if we define $s_j, j=0,1,...,n$, as the number of times the value of t_j occurs in the subsequence

$$t_0 \leq t_1 \leq \cdots \leq t_j$$
.

The equivalence of (2.1.5.1) and (2.1.5.4) follows directly from

$$x_0 = t_0 = t_1 = \dots = t_{n_0-1} < x_1 = t_{n_0} = \dots = t_{n_0+n_1-1} < \dots,$$

We now define the generalized divided difference

$$f[t_i, t_{i+1}, \dots, t_{i+k}]$$

as the coefficient of x^k in the polynomial $P_{i,i+1,\dots,i+k}(x) \in \Pi_k$ By comparing the coefficients of x^k , we find, if $t_i = \dots = t_{i+k} = x_l$,

(2.1.5.7a)
$$f[t_i, t_{i+1}, \dots, t_{i+k}] = \frac{1}{k!} f_i^{(k)},$$

and if $t_i < t_{i+k}$

(2.1.5.7b)
$$f[t_i, t_{i+1}, \dots, t_{i+k}] = \frac{f[t_{i+1}, \dots, t_{i+k}] - f[t_i, t_{i+1}, \dots, t_{i+k-1}]}{t_{i+k} - t_i}.$$

By means of the generalized divided differences

$$a_k := f[t_0, t_1, \dots, t_k], \qquad k = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$

the solution $P(x) = P_{01...n}(x) \in \Pi_n$ of the Hermite interpolation problem (2.1.5.1) can be represented explicitly in its Newton form

(2.1.5.8)
$$P_{01\cdots n}(x) = a_0 + a_1(x - t_0) + a_2(x - t_0)(x - t_1) + \cdots + a_n(x - t_0)(x - t_1) \cdots (x - t_{n-1}).$$

Why?

EXAMPLE 3. We illustrate the calculation of the generalized divided differences with the data of Example 2 ($m = 1, n_0 = 2, n_1 = 3$). Find the Hermite interpolating polynomial.

$$x_0 = 0: f_0^{(0)} = -1, f_0^{(1)} = -2,$$

 $x_1 = 1: f_1^{(0)} = 0, f_1^{(1)} = 10, f_1^{(2)} = 40$

(2.1.5.9) **Theorem**. Let the real function f be (n+1) times differentiable on the interval [a,b], and consider (m+1) support abscissae $x_i \in [a,b]$,

$$x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_m$$
.

If the polynomial P(x) is of degree at most n,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{m} n_i = n+1,$$

and satisfies the interpolation conditions

$$P^{(k)}(x_i) = f^{(k)}(x_i), \qquad i = 0, 1, \dots, m, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n_i - 1,$$

then for every $\bar{x} \in [a, b]$ there exists $\bar{\xi} \in I[x_0, ..., x_m, \bar{x}]$ such that

$$f(\bar{x}) - P(\bar{x}) = \frac{\omega(\bar{x})f^{(n+1)}(\bar{\xi})}{(n+1)!},$$

where

$$\omega(x) := (x - x_0)^{n_0} (x - x_1)^{n_1} \dots (x - x_m)^{n_m}.$$

Hermite interpolation is frequently used to approximate a given real function f by a piecewise polynomial function φ . Given a partition

$$\Delta : a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_m = b$$

of an interval [a, b], the corresponding *Hermite function space* $H_{\Delta}^{(v)}$ is defined as consisting of all functions $\varphi: [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ with the following properties:

(2.1.5.10) (a) $\varphi \in C^{\nu-1}[a,b]$: The $(\nu-1)$ st derivative of φ exists and is continuous on [a,b]. (b) $\varphi|_{I_i} \in \prod_{2\nu-1} : On \ each \ subinterval \ I_i \coloneqq [x_i, x_{i+1}], i = 0,1,..., m-1, \varphi \ agrees$ with a polynomial of degree at most $2\nu-1$.

Thus the function φ consists of polynomial pieces of degree $2\nu-1$ or less which are $\nu-1$ times differentiable at the "knots" x_i . In order to approximate a given real function $f \in C^{\nu-1}[a,b]$ by a function $\varphi \in H^{(\nu)}_{\Delta}$, we choose the component polynomials $P_i = \varphi|_{I_i}$ of φ so that $P_i \in \Pi_{2\nu-1}$ and so that the Hermite interpolation conditions

$$P_i^{(k)}(x_i) = f^{(k)}(x_i), \quad P_i^{(k)}(x_{i+1}) = f^{(k)}(x_{i+1}), \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, \nu - 1,$$

are satisfied.