

## POLYNOMIAL INTERPOLATION

The central problem in function approximation is to take a given function  $f(x)$  and construct a simple function  $s(x)$  which approximates  $f(x)$  in some sense. The precise meaning of “simple” and “approximates” depends on the problem context and goals. Polynomial interpolation represents a first attempt to solve the approximation problem.

Let  $f(x)$  be a function defined on  $[a, b]$ , and let  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  be  $n + 1$  distinct points in  $[a, b]$ . The Lagrange polynomials for  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  are defined by

$$L_k(x) = \prod_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq k}}^n \frac{(x - x_i)}{(x_k - x_i)}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Note that  $L_k(x_i) = \delta_{ik} = \begin{cases} 1, & k = i \\ 0, & k \neq i \end{cases}$ . A polynomial  $P(x)$  is said to *interpolate*  $f$  at  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  if  $P(x_i) = f(x_i)$ ,  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ .

**Theorem.** Let  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  be  $n + 1$  distinct points, and  $f(x_0), \dots, f(x_n)$  arbitrary values. Then  $\exists$  a unique polynomial  $P(x)$  of degree  $\leq n$  such that  $P(x_i) = f(x_i)$ ,  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ .

Proof. The polynomial  $P(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f(x_k)L_k(x)$ , called the Lagrange interpolating polynomial to  $f(x)$  at  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ , has degree  $\leq n$ , and clearly satisfies  $P(x_i) = f(x_i)$ ,  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . To prove the uniqueness, suppose  $Q(x)$  is another polynomial of degree  $\leq n$  also interpolating  $f$  at  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ . Then  $P(x_i) - Q(x_i) = f(x_i) - f(x_i) = 0$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . Thus  $P - Q$  is a polynomial of degree  $\leq n$  with  $n + 1$  distinct roots, which implies  $P - Q \equiv 0$ , i.e.,  $P = Q$ .

Q. E. D.

The Hermite interpolating polynomial

$$H(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f(x_k)\psi_k(x) + \sum_{k=0}^n f'(x_k)\Psi_k(x),$$

where

$$\psi_k(x) = (1 - 2L'_k(x_k)(x - x_k))L_k^2(x), \quad \Psi_k(x) = (x - x_k)L_k^2(x),$$

matches both  $f$  and  $f'$  at  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ , and is unique.

Disadvantages of Lagrange forms:

- 1) difficult to incorporate higher order derivative data or mixed data,
- 2) Lagrange form is expensive to evaluate,
- 3) new data cannot be easily incorporated.

Let  $P(x)$  be the unique polynomial of degree  $\leq n$  interpolating  $f(x)$  at distinct points  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ . The Newton form of  $P(x)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} (x - x_i) \\ &= a_0 + a_1(x - x_0) + a_2(x - x_0)(x - x_1) + \dots + a_n(x - x_0)(x - x_1) \dots (x - x_{n-1}). \end{aligned}$$

Note that any polynomial can be expanded this way since  $1, (x - x_0), (x - x_0)(x - x_1), \dots, (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_{n-1})$  are a basis for the vector space of polynomials of degree  $\leq n$ . The Newton form and Lagrange form of the interpolating polynomial are just different expansions of the same polynomial  $P(x)$ .

**Definition.**  $a_k = f[x_0, \dots, x_k]$  is called the  $k$ th divided difference of  $f$  at  $x_0, \dots, x_k$ .

Properties of divided differences:

- 1) Let  $i_0, i_1, \dots, i_k$  be any permutation of  $0, 1, \dots, k$ . Then  

$$f[x_{i_0}, x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_k}] = f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k].$$
- 2)  $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k] = \frac{f[x_1, \dots, x_k] - f[x_0, \dots, x_{k-1}]}{x_k - x_0}, \quad f[x_i] = f(x_i).$
- 3)  $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k]$  is a continuous function of  $x_0, \dots, x_k$ .
- 4)  $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k] = \frac{f^{(k)}(\xi)}{k!}$  for some point  $\xi$ ,  $\min(x_0, \dots, x_k) < \xi < \max(x_0, \dots, x_k)$ .

### Divided Difference Table

$x_0$	$f(x_0)$				
		$f[x_0, x_1]$			
$x_1$	$f(x_1)$		$f[x_0, x_1, x_2]$		
		$f[x_1, x_2]$		$f[x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3]$	
$x_2$	$f(x_2)$		$f[x_1, x_2, x_3]$		$f[x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4]$
		$f[x_2, x_3]$		$f[x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4]$	
$x_3$	$f(x_3)$		$f[x_2, x_3, x_4]$		
		$f[x_3, x_4]$			
$x_4$	$f(x_4)$				

Evaluation algorithm for  $P(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} (x - x_i)$  at  $x = z$ :

$$b_n := a_n;$$

for  $k := n - 1$  step  $-1$  until  $0$  do

$$b_k := b_{k+1} * (z - x_k) + a_k;$$

Then  $b_0 = P(z)$ , and  $P(x) = b_0 + b_1(x - z) + b_2(x - z)(x - x_0) + \dots + b_n(x - z)(x - x_0) \cdots (x - x_{n-2})$ .

**Theorem.** Let  $f \in C^{n+1}[a, b]$ ,  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  distinct points in  $[a, b]$ , and  $P(x)$  be the unique polynomial of degree  $\leq n$  interpolating  $f$  at  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ . Then for any  $x \in [a, b]$ ,

$$f(x) - P(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i),$$

where  $\min(x, x_0, \dots, x_n) < \xi < \max(x, x_0, \dots, x_n)$ .

Proof. If  $x = x_i$  for some  $i$ , the result holds trivially. So assume  $x \neq x_i$  for any  $i$ , and define

$$A(t) = f(t) - P(t) - \frac{f(x) - P(x)}{\prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i)} \prod_{i=0}^n (t - x_i).$$

$A(t)$  has  $n + 2$  distinct zeros,  $x, x_0, \dots, x_n$ . By Rolle's Theorem,  $A'(t)$  has at least  $n + 1$  distinct zeros separating the zeros of  $A(t)$ . Applying Rolle's Theorem repeatedly yields that  $A^{(n+1)}(t)$  has at least one zero, say  $\xi$ . Then

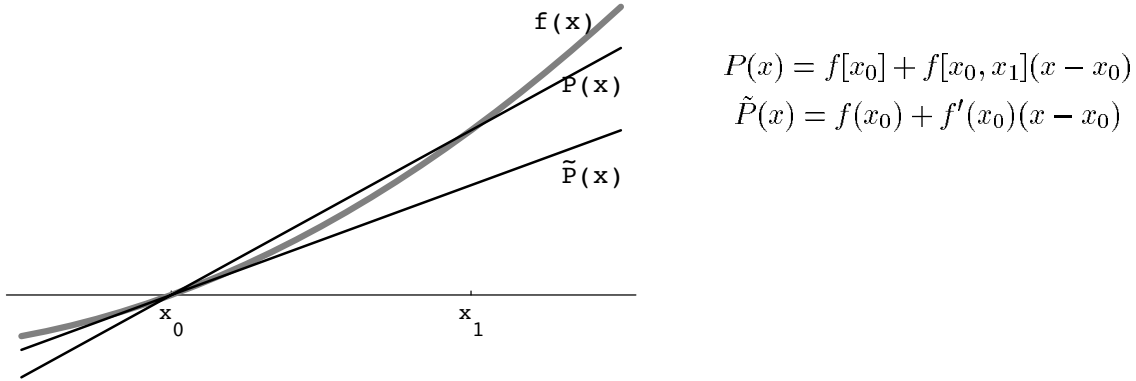
$$0 = A^{(n+1)}(\xi) = f^{(n+1)}(\xi) - \frac{f(x) - P(x)}{\prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i)} (n + 1)!,$$

which is the theorem. Q. E. D.

### OSCULATORY INTERPOLATION

Question: What is the meaning of  $P(x)$  as  $x_1 \rightarrow x_0$ ?

Answer:  $\tilde{P}(x) = \lim_{x_1 \rightarrow x_0} P(x)$  matches *both*  $f$  and  $f'$  at  $x_0$ .



Since  $\tilde{P}(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) = \lim_{x_1 \rightarrow x_0} P(x) = \lim_{x_1 \rightarrow x_0} (f[x_0] + f[x_0, x_1](x - x_0))$  it is reasonable to define  $f[x_0, x_0] = f'(x_0)$ , and in general  $f[\underbrace{x_0, \dots, x_0}_{k+1 \text{ times}}] = \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!}$ .

**Definition.** For  $x_0 \leq x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_n$ , distinct or not, define

$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = \begin{cases} \frac{f[x_1, \dots, x_n] - f[x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}]}{x_n - x_0}, & x_n \neq x_0, \\ \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!}, & x_n = x_0. \end{cases}$$

To construct a polynomial  $P(x)$  such that

$$P^{(j)}(x_k) = f^{(j)}(x_k), \quad \text{for } j = 0, 1, \dots, r_k - 1, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$

simply compute the Newton form of the polynomial interpolating  $f$  at the points:

$$\underbrace{x_0, \dots, x_0}_{r_0 \text{ times}}, \underbrace{x_1, \dots, x_1}_{r_1 \text{ times}}, \underbrace{x_2, \dots, x_2}_{r_2 \text{ times}}, \dots, \underbrace{x_n, \dots, x_n}_{r_n \text{ times}}.$$

For a rigorous proof see Isaacson and Keller (1966).

**Weierstrass Approximation Theorem.** Let  $f$  be a continuous function on a closed, bounded interval  $[a, b]$ . Then  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists$  a polynomial  $P$  such that  $\max_{a \leq x \leq b} |f(x) - P(x)| < \epsilon$ .

Proof (convolution with an “approximate identity”). Assume that  $[a, b] = [0, 1]$  and  $f(0) = f(1) = 0$  (possible by adding a linear function to  $f$ ). Extend  $f$  to the whole line by  $f(x) = 0 \forall x \notin [0, 1]$ . Consider the kernel  $Q_n(t) = c_n(1 - t^2)^n$ ,  $\int_{-1}^1 Q_n(x) dx = 1$ . Define

$$P_n(x) = \int_{-1}^1 Q_n(t) f(x+t) dt = \int_{-x}^{1-x} Q_n(t) f(x+t) dt = \int_0^1 Q_n(t-x) f(t) dt,$$

(note that  $P_n(x) \approx f(x)$  since  $Q_n$  has all its weight at 0) which is a polynomial in  $x$ . Let  $|f(t)| \leq M$  on  $[0, 1]$  and  $\delta$  be such that  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$  for  $|x - y| < 2\delta$ . Observe that  $\forall \epsilon, \delta > 0 \exists N : Q_N(t) \leq \epsilon$  for  $|t| \geq \delta$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} |P_N(x) - f(x)| &= \left| \int_{-1}^1 Q_N(t) [f(x+t) - f(x)] dt \right| \leq \left| \int_{-1}^{-\delta} \right| + \left| \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} \right| + \left| \int_{\delta}^1 \right| \\ &\leq 2M\epsilon + \epsilon + 2M\epsilon = (4M + 1)\epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Q. E. D.

**Theorem (Weierstrass).** Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ,  $f(-\pi) = f(\pi)$ . Then  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists$  a trigonometric polynomial  $T_n(x) = A_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n (A_k \cos kx + B_k \sin kx)$  such that  $\|T_n - f\|_\infty < \epsilon$ .

**Definition.** Let  $s_i$  be the  $i$ th partial sum of a sequence  $a_i$ . Then the  $n$ th Cesàro mean is

$$\sigma_n = \frac{s_0 + s_1 + \dots + s_n}{n+1}.$$

**Fejér’s Theorem.** If  $f$  is continuous and periodic with period  $2\pi$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , then the Cesàro means of the Fourier series of  $f$  converge uniformly to  $f$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .