

### 3.1 Interpolation and the Lagrange Polynomial

Ex: Suppose we want to find the line <sup>← polynomial</sup> that passes through  $(x_0, y_0)$  and  $(x_1, y_1)$

Then

$$P(x) = ax + b$$

and

$$y_0 = P(x_0) = ax_0 + b$$

$$y_1 = P(x_1) = ax_1 + b$$

(set  $b=b$ )

$$\begin{cases} y_0 = ax_0 + b \\ y_1 = ax_1 + b \end{cases}$$

↑  
system of equations

$$y_0 - ax_0 = y_1 - ax_1$$

$$ax_1 - ax_0 = y_1 - y_0$$

$$a(x_1 - x_0) = y_1 - y_0$$

$$a = \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0} \Rightarrow b = y_1 - ax_1$$

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

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

So  $P(x) = ax + b = \left(\frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}\right)x + b \rightarrow$

This is difficult to extend to more than two points (but it is possible). It requires to solve a  $n \times n$  system of equations.

There is an easier way of doing it! Consider the polynomial

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

Note that this polynomial interpolates the points  $(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1)$

Since  $P(x_0) = \left(\frac{x_0 - x_1}{x_0 - x_1}\right) y_0 + \left(\frac{x_0 - x_0}{x_1 - x_0}\right) y_1 = y_0$

$$P(x_1) = y_1$$

The form makes it easy to solve for the polynomial that interpolates.

EX: Find the line that connects  $(1, 5)$  and  $(2, 7)$   
 $(x_0, y_0)$                        $(x_1, y_1)$

$$\text{So } p(x) = L_0(x) \cdot y_0 + L_1(x) \cdot y_1$$
$$= \frac{(x-2)}{(1-2)} (5) + \frac{(x-1)}{(2-1)} (7)$$

$$= -5(x-2) + 7(x-1)$$

$$= -5x + 10 + 7x - 7$$

$$p(x) = 2x + 3$$

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How to extend to higher dimensions?

Let's try  $3 \times 3$ .

We want

$$P(x) = L_{2,0}(x) y_0 + L_{2,1}(x) y_1 + L_{2,2}(x) y_2$$

Goal: If  $x = x_0$ , then  $P(x_0) = y_0 \Rightarrow$  means  $L_{2,0}(x_0) = 1$   
 $L_{2,1}(x_0) = 0$   
 $L_{2,2}(x_0) = 0$

$\Rightarrow P(x_1) = y_1 \Rightarrow$  means  $L_{2,0}(x_1) = 0$   
 $L_{2,1}(x_1) = 1$   
 $L_{2,2}(x_1) = 0$

$\Rightarrow P(x_2) = y_2 \Rightarrow$  means  $L_{2,0}(x_2) = 0$   
 $L_{2,1}(x_2) = 0$   
 $L_{2,2}(x_2) = 1$

$$L_{2,0}(x) = \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_0-x_1)(x_0-x_2)}$$

$$L_{2,1}(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)}$$

$$L_{2,2}(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)}$$

## Thm Lagrange Interpolating Polynomial.

If  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  are  $(n+1)$  distinct numbers  
 $f(x)$  function whose values are given at each  $x_i$   
then there exists a unique polynomial of degree at most  $n$   
with the property

$$f(x_k) = P(x_k), \text{ where}$$

$$P(x) = f(x_0)L_{n,0}(x) + \dots + f(x_n)L_{n,n}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f(x_k)L_{n,k}(x)$$

where

$$L_{n,k}(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)\dots(x-x_{k-1})(x-x_{k+1})\dots(x-x_n)}{(x_k-x_0)(x_k-x_1)\dots(x_k-x_{k-1})(x_k-x_{k+1})\dots(x_k-x_n)}$$

(If it is clear, then the  $n$  is dropped from  $L_{n,k}(x) = L_k(x)$ )

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Ex Find the polynomial that fits  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  between

1 and 4 where we use the points  $\rightarrow$

$$\begin{cases} f(1) = 1 \\ f(\frac{2}{3}) = \frac{3}{2} \\ f(3) = \frac{1}{3} \\ f(4) = \frac{1}{4} \end{cases}$$

So  $L_0(x) = \frac{(x - \frac{2}{3})(x - 3)(x - 4)}{(1 - \frac{2}{3})(1 - 3)(1 - 4)} = \frac{(3x - 2)(x - 4)(x - 3)}{6}$

$$L_1(x) = \frac{(x - 1)(x - 3)(x - 4)}{(\frac{2}{3} - 1)(\frac{2}{3} - 3)(\frac{2}{3} - 4)} = \frac{-27(x - 1)(x - 3)(x - 4)}{10}$$

$$L_2(x) = \frac{(x - 1)(x - \frac{2}{3})(x - 4)}{(3 - 1)(3 - \frac{2}{3})(3 - 4)} = \frac{-(3x - 2)(x - 4)(x - 1)}{14}$$

$$L_3(x) = \frac{(x - 1)(x - \frac{2}{3})(x - 3)}{(4 - 1)(4 - \frac{2}{3})(4 - 3)} = \frac{(3x - 2)(x - 1)(x - 3)}{30}$$

So

$$p(x) = 1 \cdot L_0(x) + \frac{3}{2} \cdot L_1(x) + \frac{1}{3} L_2(x) + \frac{1}{4} L_3(x)$$

$$p(x) = \frac{-1}{24} (3x^3 - 26x^2 + 73x - 74)$$

Try  $p(2)$  - should be  $\frac{1}{2}$   $= \frac{-1}{24} (3(2)^3 - 26(2)^2 - 73(2) - 74) = \frac{1}{3}$

## Error bound

If  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  are distinct #'s in  $[a, b]$

$f \in C^{n+1}[a, b]$ , then

for each  $x \in [a, b]$ , a number  $\xi(x)$  in  $(a, b)$  exists with

$$f(x) = P(x) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi(x))}{(n+1)!} (x-x_0)(x-x_1)\dots(x-x_n)$$

Note the similarity to Taylor error term  $\frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi(x))}{(n+1)!} (x-x_0)^{n+1}$

↑  
all info concentrated here.

We can use this to approx a complicated function, as long as we know the  $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$  deriv of  $f(x)$

For example, let us form a partition of the interval from 0 to 1, separated by  $h$ . (a constant step size).

Then  $x_j = 0 + jh = jh$  and  $x_{j+1} = (j+1)h$

What should  $h$  be in order to make Linear interpolation be at most off by  $10^{-6}$ ? for  $f(x) = e^x$  (over  $[0,1]$ )

$$\text{So } |f(x) - P(x)| = \frac{f^{(2)}(\xi)}{2!} |x - x_j| |x - x_{j+1}|$$

$$= \frac{f^{(2)}(\xi)}{2} |x - jh| |x - (j+1)h| \leq \frac{1}{2} e \max_{x_j \leq x \leq x_{j+1}} |(x - jh)(x - (j+1)h)|$$

Note: If  $g(x) = (x - jh)(x - (j+1)h) \Rightarrow$  find  $\max |g(x)| \Rightarrow g'(x) \stackrel{\text{set}}{=} 0$

$$g'(x) = (x - jh) + x - (j+1)h = 2x - (2j+1)h = 0 \Rightarrow x = (j + \frac{1}{2})h$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \max_{x_j \leq x \leq x_{j+1}} |g(x)| &= \left| g\left(\left(j + \frac{1}{2}\right)h\right) \right| = \left| \left[\left(j + \frac{1}{2}\right)h - jh\right] \left[\left(j + \frac{1}{2}\right)h - (j+1)h\right] \right| \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2}h\right) \left(-\frac{1}{2}h\right) = \frac{h^2}{4} \end{aligned}$$

This means that the error is bounded by  $|f(x) - P(x)| \leq \frac{e}{2} \cdot \frac{h^2}{4} = \frac{eh^2}{8}$



Thus, we should choose  $h$  such that

$$\frac{eh^2}{8} \leq 10^{-6} \Rightarrow h < \sqrt{\frac{8}{e} 10^{-6}} = .0017155$$

one logical choice for  $h$  would be  $h = .001$

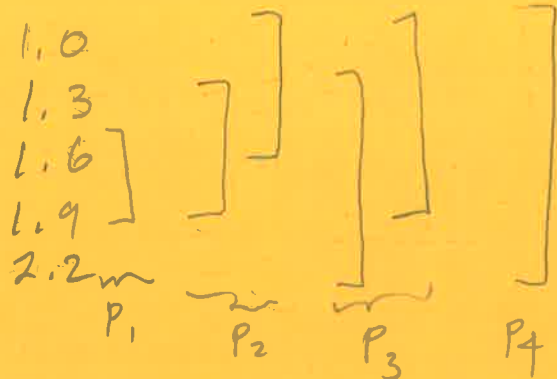
(when  $h = .001$ , the bound on the error is  $.000001/10^6$ )

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What if you have no idea about the derivs of  $f(x)$ ?  
(or you don't know  $f(x)$  explicitly (a formula))

$n$	$x$	$f(x)$
0	1.0	1
1	1.3	.897470696306
2	1.6	.893515349288
3	1.9	.961765831907
4	2.2	1.10180249088

Suppose we're interested in computing  $f(1.45)$  from the table, which would be the best interpolating polynomial to use?



$P_2 = \frac{(1.45 - 1.6)(1.45 - 1.9)}{(1.3 - 1.6)(1.3 - 1.9)} (.8974 \dots) +$   
 $\frac{(1.45 - 1.3)(1.45 - 1.9)}{(1.6 - 1.3)(1.6 - 1.9)} (.8935 \dots) +$   
 $\frac{(1.45 - 1.3)(1.45 - 1.6)}{(1.9 - 1.3)(1.9 - 1.6)} (.9617 \dots)$   
 $= .886467294092$

*use*  
 $1.37$   
 $1.6$   
 $1.9$

$\{1, 2, 3\}$

$$P_1(1.45) = \frac{(1.45 - 1.6)}{(1.3 - 1.6)} (.8974 \dots)$$

$$+ \frac{(1.45 - 1.3)}{(1.6 - 1.3)} (.8935 \dots)$$

$$= .895493022797$$

0 thru 1

Nodes

$$\hat{P}_2 = \sum_{0,1,2,3} = .883171278213$$

$$P_3 = \sum_{1,2,3,4} = .886441065762$$

$$\hat{P}_3 = \sum_{0,1,2,3} = .884819286152$$

$$P_4 = \sum_{0,1,2,3,4} = .885427453506$$

The real answer to  $f(1.45) = .885661380271$

This gives the following errors for  $|P_n(1.45) - f(1.45)|$

<u>Poly</u>	<u>Error</u>
$P_1$	$9.83 \times 10^{-3}$
$P_2$	$8.06 \times 10^{-4}$
$\hat{P}_2$	$2.49 \times 10^{-3}$
$P_3$	$7.80 \times 10^{-4}$
$\hat{P}_3$	$8.42 \times 10^{-4}$
$P_4$	$2.34 \times 10^{-4}$

Note: The smallest error does not always go with the largest  $n$ . Note the difference between  $P_2$  &  $\hat{P}_3$

Note:

- 1) Error term is difficult to apply (you don't always know which is best)
- 2) If you compute  $P_2$ , it doesn't help when computing  $P_3, P_4, \dots$

A fix  $\Rightarrow$  Neville's Method. We can recursively generate Lagrange polynomial approximations.

**DEF:** Let  $f$  be def at  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ .  
Suppose  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$  are  $k$  distinct integers with  $0 \leq m_i \leq k$  ( $k \leq n$ )  
The Lagrange poly that agrees with  $f$  at those  $k$  pts  
is called  $P_{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k}$ .

Ex: Take our example from before

old name      new name

$$P_1 = P_{2,3} \qquad P_3 = P_{1,2,3,4}$$

$$P_2 = P_{1,2,3} \qquad \hat{P}_3 = P_{0,1,2,3}$$

$$\hat{P}_2 = P_{0,1,2} \qquad P_4 = P_{0,1,2,3,4}$$

Thm 3.5 Let  $f$  be def at  $x_0, \dots, x_n$

Let  $x_i \neq x_j$  be two distinct numb. in this set.

Then

$$P(x) = \frac{(x-x_j)P_{0,1,\dots,j-1,j+1,\dots,k}(x) - (x-x_i)P_{0,1,\dots,i-1,i+1,\dots,k}(x)}{(x_i-x_j)}$$

is the  $k^{\text{th}}$  Lagrange poly that interpolates  $f$  at the  $k+1$  pts  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k$ . In other words,  $P = P_{0,1,2,\dots,k}$

this implies we can generate the interpolating polyn. recursively

For example, suppose we know  $P_{0,1}$  &  $P_{1,2}$ , then  $P_{0,1,2} = \frac{(x-x_0)P_{1,2} - (x-x_2)P_{0,1}}{x_0-x_2}$

Table	increasing degree of polynomial				
$x_0$	$P_0 = Q_{0,0}$				
$x_1$	$P_1 = Q_{1,0}$	$P_{0,1} = Q_{1,1}$			
$x_2$	$P_2 = Q_{2,0}$	$P_{1,2} = Q_{2,1}$	$P_{0,1,2} = Q_{2,2}$		
$x_3$	$P_3 = Q_{3,0}$	$P_{2,3} = Q_{3,1}$	$P_{1,2,3} = Q_{3,2}$	$P_{0,1,2,3} = Q_{3,3}$	
$x_4$	$P_4 = Q_{4,0}$	$P_{3,4} = Q_{4,1}$	$P_{2,3,4} = Q_{4,2}$	$P_{1,2,3,4} = Q_{4,3}$	$P_{0,1,2,3,4} = Q_{4,4}$

(Note:  $P_i = f(x_i) = y_i$ )

Taken  
2 at  
a time.

↑  
note numbers  
are consecutive

So  $Q_{i,j} = P_{i,j, i+j+1, \dots, i}$

Example from our problem.