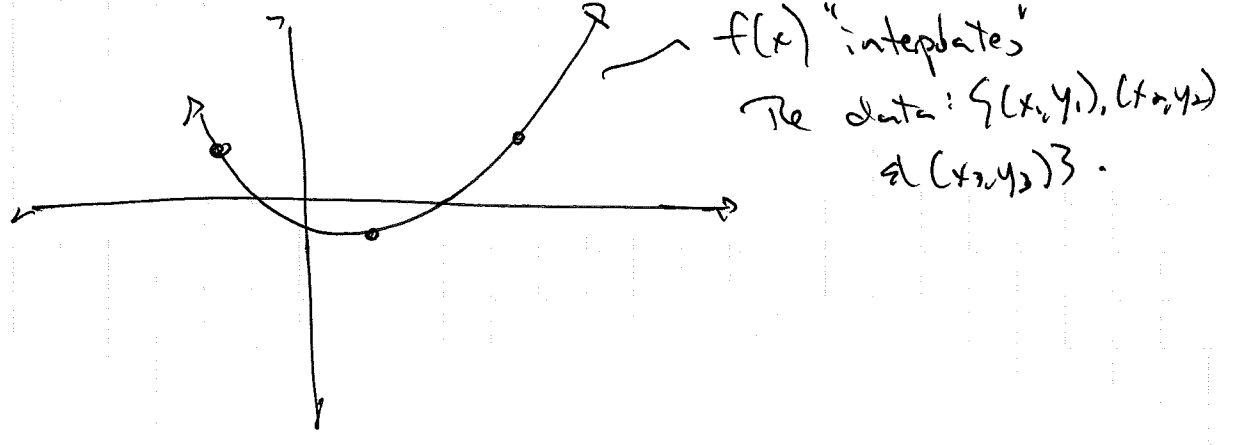


3.1 Path of Interpolating Functions

In general, given a data set: $\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$, we would like to find a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x_i) = y_i$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$.



Definition The function $y = P(x)$ **interpolates** the data: $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ if $P(x_i) = y_i \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$.

1) Note that P is required to be a function (ie each input gets a single output). In general, because of its various "desirable" mathematical properties (ie. low "complexity"), we generally aim to find $P(x)$ where $P(x)$ is a polynomial function.

2) Polynomial functions are the most fundamental functions for digital computers.

3) We can think of ^{interpolation} function as the reverse/inverse of function evaluation. In addition, function interpolation (using polynomials) is an instance of data/compression.

Def. Given n data points P the Lagrange Interpolating Polynomial

of degree $[n-1]$ is defined:

$$P_{n-1}(x) = y_1 L_1(x) + \dots + y_n L_n(x)$$

Note: no $(x-x_k)$ factor in numerator.

where:
$$L_k(x) = \frac{(x-x_1) \dots (x-x_{k-1})(x-x_{k+1}) \dots (x-x_n)}{(x_k-x_1) \dots (x_k-x_{k-1})(x_k-x_{k+1}) \dots (x_k-x_n)}$$

$\forall 1 \leq k \leq n.$

Ex. Given 3 data points: $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3)$ we have:

$$P_2(x) = y_1 \underbrace{\frac{(x-x_2)(x-x_3)}{(x_1-x_2)(x_1-x_3)}}_{L_1(x)} + y_2 \underbrace{\frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_3)}{(x_2-x_1)(x_2-x_3)}}_{L_2(x)} + y_3 \underbrace{\frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_3-x_1)(x_3-x_2)}}_{L_3(x)}$$

Claim: $P_2(x)$ interpolates the given data.

check $P_2(x_1) = y_1 \cdot 1 + 0 + 0 = y_1$ and $P_2(x_2) = y_2$ ✓
 $P_2(x_2) = 0 + y_2 \cdot 1 + 0 = y_2$

In general then, $P_{n-1}(x) = y_1 L_1(x) + \dots + y_n L_n(x)$
st $L_k(x_k) = 1$, else $L_k(x_j) = 0$ for $k \neq j$.

So the Lagrange Polynomial of degree $n-1$ interpolates n given data points, in general.

(3)

Q: How many interpolating polynomials of degree $n-1$ exist for a data set of n points (no repeated x_i 's).

A: We seek to find coefficients:

$$P(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1x + a_0 \quad \text{Factorize}$$

so that $P(x)$ interpolates the data.

This problem gives rise to n equations w/ n unknowns.

which means that any such solution is unique. Thus for n points, an interpolating polynomial of degree $n-1$ is unique!

Hence, the Lagrange interpolating polynomial is the unique $n-1$ degree polynomial that interpolates n data points.

(More formally)

Thm: Fund. Theorem of Polynomial Interpolation

Let $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ be n points in the plane w/ distinct x_i .

Then there exists one & only one polynomial P of degree $n-1$ (or less)

that satisfies $P(x_i) = y_i \quad \forall i \leq n$.

PF: (Existence is proved by the explicit Lagrange interpolation formulas given above).

Uniqueness Proof: (By contradiction) Suppose not, & say both $P(x)$ & $Q(x)$ have degree $n-1$ & both interpolate the data.

So, $P(x_1) = Q(x_1) = y_1$, $P(x_2) = Q(x_2) = y_2$, etc.

Define a new polynomial, $H(x) = P(x) - Q(x)$.

Then $\deg(H(x)) \leq n-1$, clearly (why?). Also: $H(x_i) = P(x_i) - Q(x_i) = 0$,

and in general, $H(x_i) = P(x_i) - Q(x_i) = 0 \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.

This shows that H has n distinct zeros. But, according to

the FTA (Fund. Theorem of Algebra), a $n-1$ degree can have

at most $n-1$ distinct zeros, unless the function is identically

zero. Consequently $H(x) \equiv 0$, which shows $P(x) \equiv Q(x)$, proving

uniqueness,

Ex. Find the (Lagrange) interpolating polynomial of degree 3 or

less for: $(0, 2)$, $(1, 1)$, $(2, 0)$ & $(3, -1)$.

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

$$= -\frac{1}{3}(x^3 - 6x^2 + 11x - 6) + \frac{1}{2}(x^3 - 5x^2 + 6x) - \frac{1}{6}(x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x)$$

$$= \boxed{-x + 2}$$

Our theorem says the interpolating polynomial of degree 3 or less

is unique, so our result indicates the data set

is co-linear.

Newton's Divided Difference

Lagrange interpolation, despite its seeming utility is rarely used in practice. Instead, as we shall see, we prefer to use a recursive method known as Newton's Divided Difference.

Def Denote by $(f[x_1, \dots, x_n])$ the coefficient of the x^{n-1} term in the unique polynomial that interpolates: $(x_1, f(x_1)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))$.

Ex. (one more Lagrange)
Interpolate: $(0, 1), (2, 2)$ & $(3, 4)$

$$P_2(x) = 1 \cdot \frac{(x-2)(x-3)}{(0-2)(0-3)} + 2 \cdot \frac{(x-0)(x-3)}{(2-0)(2-3)} + 4 \cdot \frac{(x-0)(x-2)}{(3-0)(3-2)}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}x + 1$$

Using our new notation, then: $f[0, 2, 3] = \frac{1}{2}$.

We now give a remarkable alternative interpolating formula:

$$P(x) = f[x_1] + f[x_1, x_2](x-x_1) + f[x_1, x_2, x_3](x-x_1)(x-x_2) + \dots + f[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n](x-x_1)\dots(x-x_{n-1})$$

Newton's Divided Difference.

Moreover, the coefficients $f[x_1, \dots, x_k]$ can be calculated recursively.

First, list the data points in a Table:

x_1	$f(x_1)$
x_2	$f(x_2)$
\vdots	\vdots
x_n	$f(x_n)$

Now define the divided differences, which are real numbers:

$$f[x_k] = f(x_k)$$

$$f[x_k, x_{k+1}] = \frac{f[x_{k+1}] - f[x_k]}{x_{k+1} - x_k}$$

$$f[x_k, x_{k+1}, x_{k+2}] = \frac{f[x_{k+1}, x_{k+2}] - f[x_k, x_{k+1}]}{x_{k+2} - x_k}$$

⋮

$$f[x_k, x_{k+1}, x_{k+2}, x_{k+3}] = \frac{f[x_{k+1}, x_{k+2}, x_{k+3}] - f[x_k, x_{k+1}, x_{k+2}]}{x_{k+3} - x_k}$$

Overall, we write this calculations as a Table as:

x_1	$f[x_1]$		
x_2	$f[x_2]$	$f[x_1, x_2]$	
x_3	$f[x_3]$	$f[x_2, x_3]$	$f[x_1, x_2, x_3]$

The interpolating polynomial is
$$P(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n f[x_1, \dots, x_i] (x-x_1) \dots (x-x_{i-1})$$

FACTS: ① The unique interpolating polynomial is given by \rightarrow ② Divided Difference gives a nested i.e. efficiently expressed polynomial.

Ex. Interpolate w/ N's D.D. : (0,1), (2,2), (3,4)

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc}
 0 & (1) & & \\
 2 & 2 & (\frac{1}{2}) & \\
 3 & 4 & 2 & (\frac{1}{2})
 \end{array}
 \rightarrow P(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{2}(x-0) + \frac{1}{2}(x-0)(x-2)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}x + 1 \right)$$

Computations:

$$f[x_1] = 1$$

$$f[x_1, x_2] = \frac{f[x_2] - f[x_1]}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{2-1}{2-0} = \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)$$

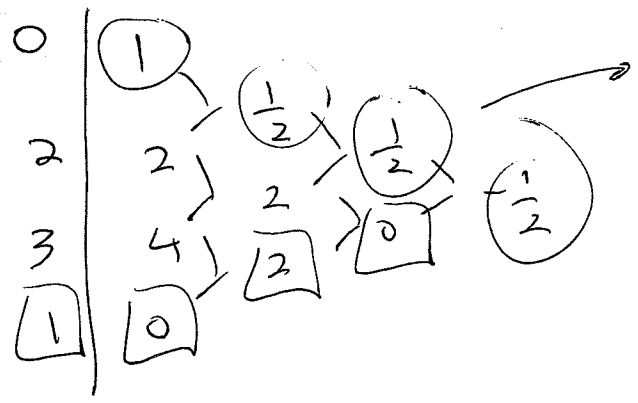
$$f[x_2, x_3] = \frac{f[x_3] - f[x_2]}{x_3 - x_2} = \frac{4-2}{3-2} = \left(2 \right)$$

$$f[x_1, x_2, x_3] = \frac{f[x_2, x_3] - f[x_1, x_2]}{x_3 - x_1} = \frac{2 - \frac{1}{2}}{3-0} = \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)$$

(*) A key advantage of using Newton's divided difference stems from the fact that if we add a point to our data set, only a small number of updated computations are required (because of recursion).

(*) On the other hand, if we computed $P_3(x)$ for 3 data points, and then add a single datum to our set (now $n=4$), computing $P_4(x)$ for this data would require us to start the process over from scratch (very inefficient).

Ex. Add a fourth point: $(1, 0)$ to the previous data set & compute $P_3(x)$, using Newton's Divided Diff.



$$P_3(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{2}(x-0) + \frac{1}{2}(x-0)(x-2) + \frac{1}{2}(x-0)(x-2)(x-3)$$

$$= P_2(x) + (-\frac{1}{2})(x-0)(x-2)(x-3)$$

Newton's D.D. is often used for data that is updated in "real-time".

Q: How many interpolating polynomials of degree 4 interpolate a data set consisting of 4 points?

A: An infinite-number! why? free variable!

By N's D.D. $\rightarrow P_4(x) = P_3(x) + c_1(x-x_0)(x-x_1)(x-x_2)(x-x_3)$

uniquely determined by 4 points

Polynomial interpolation is an example of compression in numerical analysis.

Calculator: what is $\sin(0.123) = ?$

Mechanism:

