# CS412: Lecture \#9 

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## Lagrange Interpolation

Lagrange interpolation is an alternative way to define $\mathcal{P}_{n}(x)$, without having to solve expensive systems of equations. For a given set of $n+1$ points $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right),\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(x_{n}, y_{n}\right)$, define the Lagrange polynomials of degree- $n l_{0}(x)$, $l_{1}(x), \ldots, l_{n}(x)$ as:

$$
l_{i}\left(x_{j}\right)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } i=j \\ 0 & \text { if } i \neq j\end{cases}
$$

Then, the interpolating polynomial is simply

$$
\mathcal{P}_{n}(x)=y_{0} l_{0}(x)+y_{1} l_{1}(x)+\ldots+y_{n} l_{n}(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} y_{i} l_{i}(x)
$$

Note that no solution of a linear system is required here. We just have to explain what every $l_{i}(x)$ looks like. Since $l_{i}(x)$ is a degree- $n$ polynomial, with the $n$-roots $x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \ldots, x_{n}$, it must have the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
l_{i}(x) & =C_{i}\left(x-x_{0}\right)\left(x-x_{1}\right) \ldots\left(x-x_{i-1}\right)\left(x-x_{i+1}\right) \ldots\left(x-x_{n}\right) \\
& =C_{i} \prod_{j \neq i}\left(x-x_{j}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, we require that $l_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)=1$, thus

$$
1=C_{i} \cdot \prod_{j \neq i}\left(x_{i}-x_{j}\right) \Rightarrow C_{i}=\frac{1}{\prod_{j \neq i}\left(x_{i}-x_{j}\right)}
$$

Thus, for every $i$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
l_{i}(x) & =\frac{\left(x-x_{0}\right)\left(x-x_{1}\right) \ldots\left(x-x_{i-1}\right)\left(x-x_{i+1}\right) \ldots\left(x-x_{n}\right)}{\left(x_{i}-x_{0}\right)\left(x_{i}-x_{1}\right) \ldots\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right)\left(x_{i}-x_{i+1}\right) \ldots\left(x_{i}-x_{n}\right)} \\
& =\prod_{j \neq i} \frac{\left(x-x_{j}\right)}{\left(x_{i}-x_{j}\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $\tilde{y}=\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ would have existed such that $V \tilde{a}=\tilde{y}$ would have no solution, which is a contradiction!

Let's use Lagrange interpolation to compute an interpolating polynomial to the three data points $(-2,-27),(0,-1),(1,0)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{P}_{2}(x) & =-27 \frac{(x-0)(x-1)}{(-2-0)(-2-1)}+(-1) \frac{(x-(-2))(x-1)}{(0-(-2))(0-1)}+0 \frac{(x-(-2))(x-0)}{(1-(-2))(1-0)} \\
& =-27 \frac{x(x-1)}{6}+\frac{(x+2)(x-1)}{2}=-1+5 x-4 x^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Recall form Lecture 8 that this is the same polynomial we computed using the monomial basis!

Let us evaluate the same four quality metrics we saw before for the Vandermonde matrix approach.

- Cost of determining $\mathcal{P}_{n}(x)$ : very easy.

We are essentially able to write a formula for $\mathcal{P}_{n}(x)$ without solving any systems. However, if we want to write $\mathcal{P}_{n}(x)=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\ldots+a_{n} x^{n}$, the cost of evaluating the $a_{i}$ 's would be very high! Each $l_{i}(x)$ would need to be expanded, leading to $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ operations for each $l_{i}(x)$ implying $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ operations for $\mathcal{P}_{n}(x)$.

- Cost of evaluating $\mathcal{P}_{n}(x)$ for an arbitrary $x$ : significant.

We do not really need to compute the $a_{i}$ 's beforehand, if we only need to evaluate $\mathcal{P}_{n}(x)$ at a select few locations. For each $l_{i}(x)$ the evaluation requires $n$ subtractions and $n$ multiplications, implying a total of $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ operations (better than $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ for computing the $a_{i}$ 's).

- Availability of derivatives: not readily available.

Differentiating each $l_{i}(x)$ (since $\left.\mathcal{P}_{n}^{\prime}(x)=\sum y_{i} l_{i}^{\prime}(x)\right)$ is not trivial; the above expression has $n$ terms each with $n-1$ products per term.

- Incremental interpolation: not accomodated.

Still, Lagrange interpolation is a good quality method if we can accept its limitations.

## Newton Interpolation

Newton interpolation is yet another alternative, which enables both efficient evaluation and allows for incremental construction. Additionally, it allows both the coefficients $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$ as well as the derivative $\mathcal{P}_{n}^{\prime}(x)$ to be evaluated efficiently.

For a given set of data points $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right), \ldots,\left(x_{n}, y_{n}\right)$, the Newton basis functions are given by

$$
\pi_{j}(x)=\left(x-x_{0}\right)\left(x-x_{1}\right) \ldots\left(x-x_{j-1}\right)=\prod_{k=1}^{j-1}\left(x-x_{k}\right), \quad j=0, \ldots, n
$$

where we take the value of the product to be 1 when the limits make it vacuous. In the Newton basis, a given polynomial has the form
$\mathcal{P}_{n}(x)=a_{0}+a_{1}\left(x-x_{0}\right)+a_{2}\left(x-x_{0}\right)\left(x-x_{1}\right)+\ldots+a_{n-1}\left(x-x_{0}\right)\left(x-x_{1}\right) \ldots\left(x-x_{n-1}\right)$
From the definition, we see that $\pi_{j}\left(x_{i}\right)=0$ for $i<j$, so that the basis matrix $A$ with $a_{i j}=\pi_{j}\left(x_{i}\right)$ is lower triangular. To illustrate Newton interpolation, we use it to determine the interpolating polynomial for the three data points $(-2,-27),(0,-1),(1,0)$. With the Newton basis, we have the lower triangular linear system

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & x_{1}-x_{0} & 0 \\
1 & x_{2}-x_{0} & \left(x_{2}-x_{0}\right)\left(x_{2}-x_{1}\right)
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
a_{0} \\
a_{1} \\
a_{2}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
y_{0} \\
y_{1} \\
y_{2}
\end{array}\right]
$$

For the given data, this system becomes

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 2 & 0 \\
1 & 3 & 3
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
a_{0} \\
a_{1} \\
a_{2}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
-27 \\
-1 \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

whose solution is $\tilde{a}=(-27,13,-4)$. Thus, the interpolating polynomial is

$$
\mathcal{P}_{2}(x)=-27+13(x+2)-4(x+2) x=-1+5 x-4 x^{2}
$$

which is the same polynomial we computed earlier!

