

We saw 3 methods for polynomial interpolation (Vandermonde, Lagrange, Newton). It is important to understand that all 3 methods compute (in theory) the same exact interpolant  $p(x)$ , just following different paths which may be better or worse from a computational perspective.

The question however, remains:

→ How accurate is this interpolation  
or, in other words

→ How close is  $p(x)$  to the "real" function  $f(x)$ !

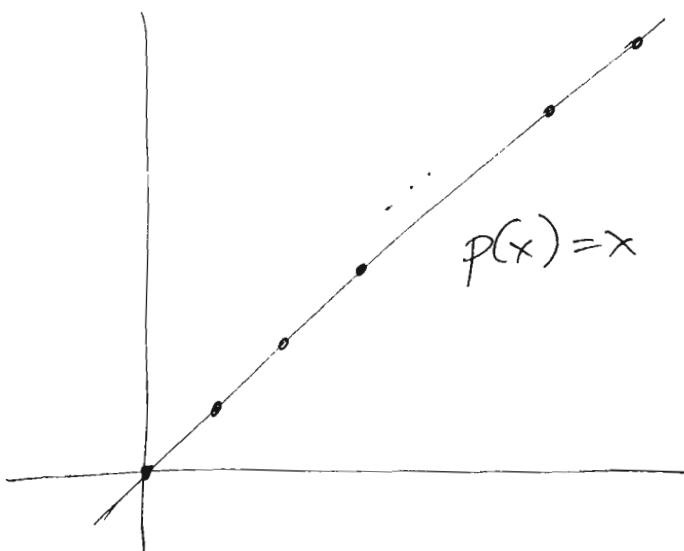
Example :

$$(x_0, y_0) = (0, 0)$$

$$(x_1, y_1) = (1, 1)$$

:

$$(x_n, y_n) = (n, n)$$



Using Lagrange polynomials  $P(x) (=x)$  is written as

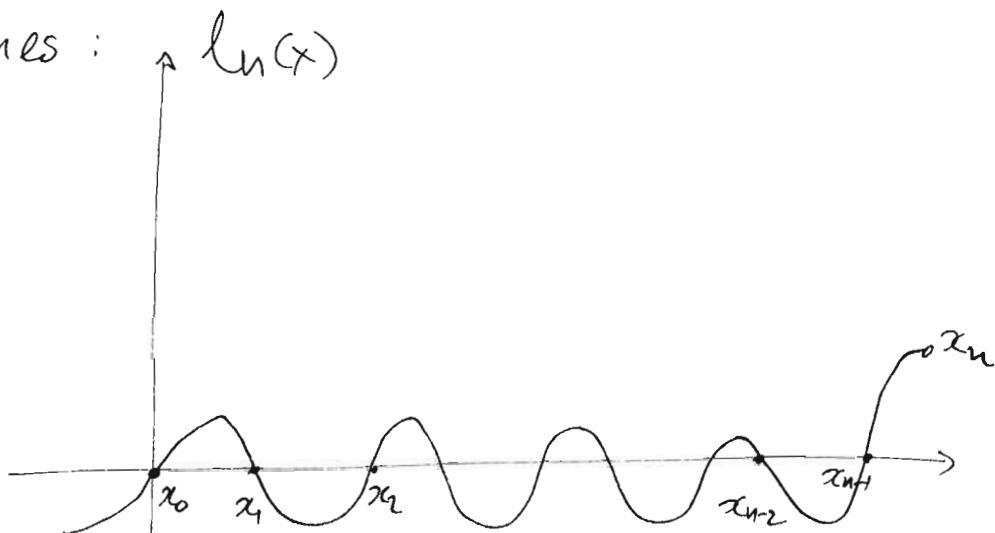
$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n y_i l_i(x)$$

Let us "shift"  $y_n$  by a small amount  $\delta$ . The new value is  $y_n^* = y_n + \delta$ . The updated interpolant  $P^*(x)$  then becomes:

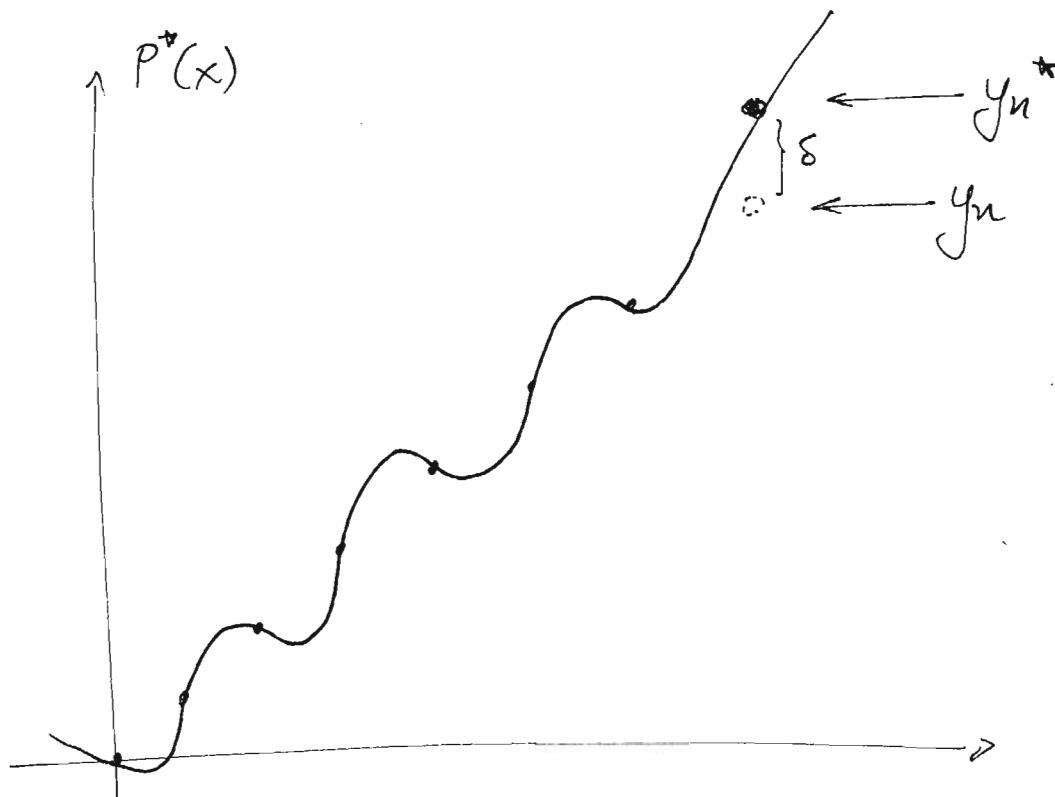
$$P^*(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} y_i l_i(x) + y_n^* l_n(x)$$

Thus  $P^*(x) - P(x) = \delta \cdot l_n(x)$ .

Note that  $l_n$  is a function that "oscillates" through zero several times:

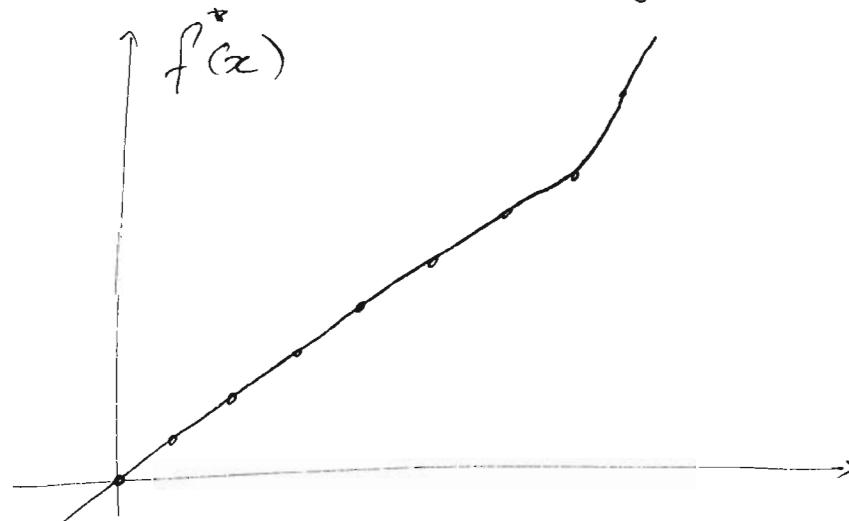


Thus  $P^*$  looks like



What we observe is that a local change in y-values caused a global (and drastic) change in  $P(x)$ .

Perhaps the "real" function  $f$  would have exhibited a more graceful and localized change, e.g.:



We will use the following theorem to compare the "real" function  $f$  being sampled, and the reconstructed interpolant  $p(x)$

Theorem 1 Let :

- $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n-1} < x_n$
- $y_k = f(x_k)$   $k=1, 2, \dots, n$ , where  $f$  is a function which is  $n$ -times differentiable with continuous derivatives
- $P(x)$  is a polynomial that interpolates  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$

Then for any  $x \in (x_1, x_n)$  there exists a  $\theta = \theta(x) \in (x_1, x_n)$  such that  $f(x) - P(x) = \frac{f^{(n)}(\theta)}{n!} (x-x_1)(x-x_2)\dots(x-x_n)$

This theorem may be difficult to apply directly, since:

- $\theta$  is not known
- $\theta$  changes with  $x$
- The  $n$ -th derivative  $f^{(n)}(x)$  may not be fully known.

However, we can use it to derive a conservative bound:

Theorem 2 If  $M = \max_{x \in [x_1, x_n]} |f^{(n)}(x)|$

$$\text{and } h = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n-1} |x_{i+1} - x_i|$$

$$\text{then } |f(x) - p(x)| \leq \frac{Mh^n}{4n} \quad \text{for all } x \in [x_1, x_n].$$

How good is this, especially when we keep adding more and more data points (e.g.  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $h \rightarrow 0$ )

This really depends on the higher order derivatives of  $f(x)$ ... For example

$$f(x) = \sin x \quad x \in [0, 2\pi]$$

All derivatives of  $f$  are  $\pm \sin x$  or  $\pm \cos x$

$$\text{thus } |f^{(k)}(x)| \leq 1 \text{ for any } k$$

In this case  $M=1$ , and as we add more (and denser) data points we have  $|f(x) - p(x)| \leq \frac{Mh^n}{4n} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{h \rightarrow 0} 0$

For some functions, however, the values of

$|f^{(k)}(x)|$  grow vastly as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  (i.e. when we introduce additional points). e.g.:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x} \Rightarrow |f^{(n)}(x)| = n! \cdot \frac{1}{x^{n+1}}$$

$$x \in (0.5, 1)$$

$$M_n = \max_{x \in (0.5, 1)} |f^{(n)}(x)| = n! \cdot 2^n$$

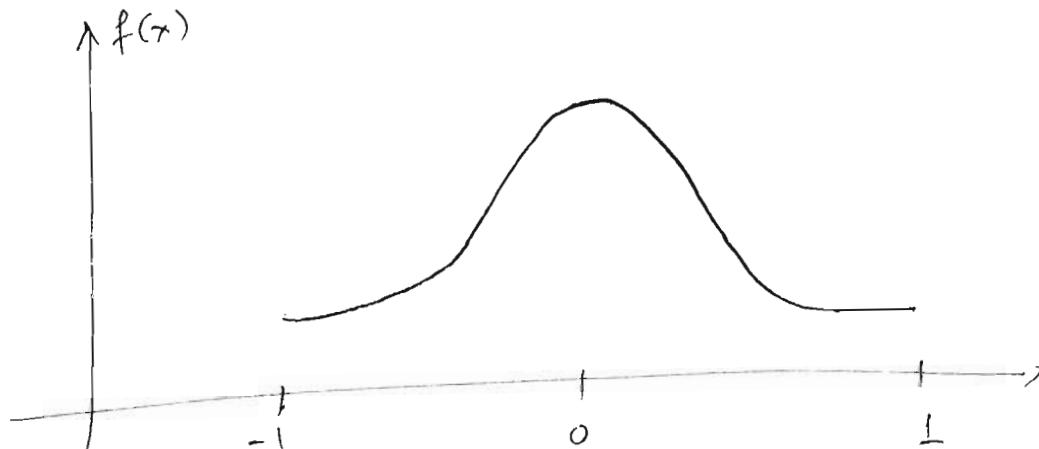
in this case, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\frac{M_n h^n}{4n} = \frac{n! 2^n h^n}{4n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} +\infty$$

Another commonly cited counter-example is

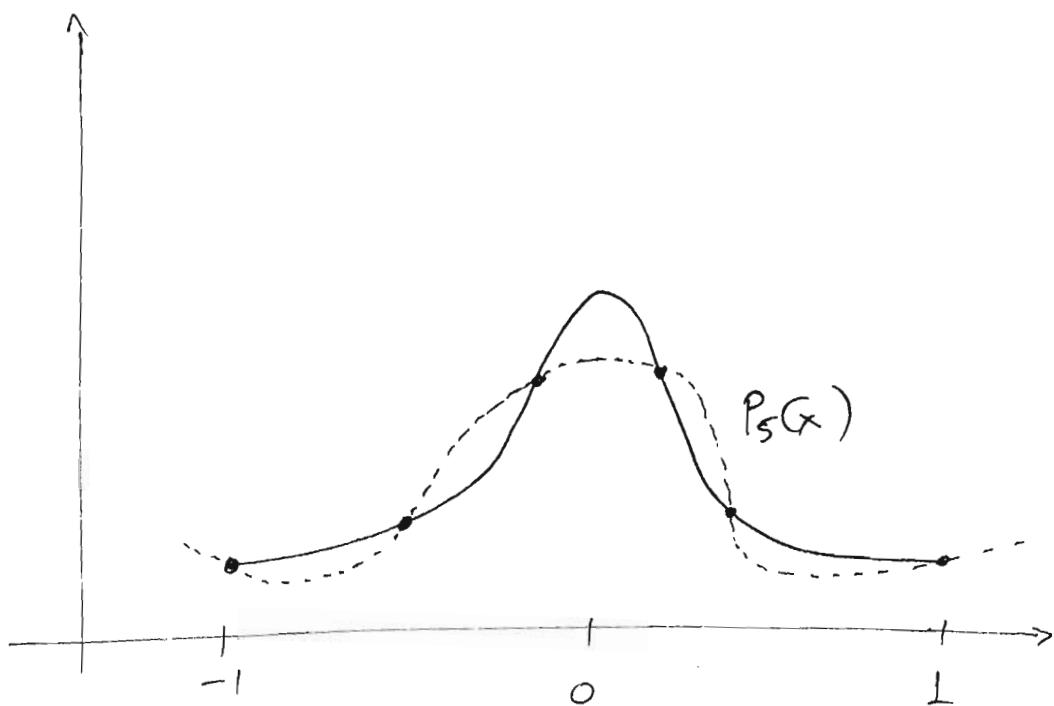
Runge's function:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + 25x^2}$$

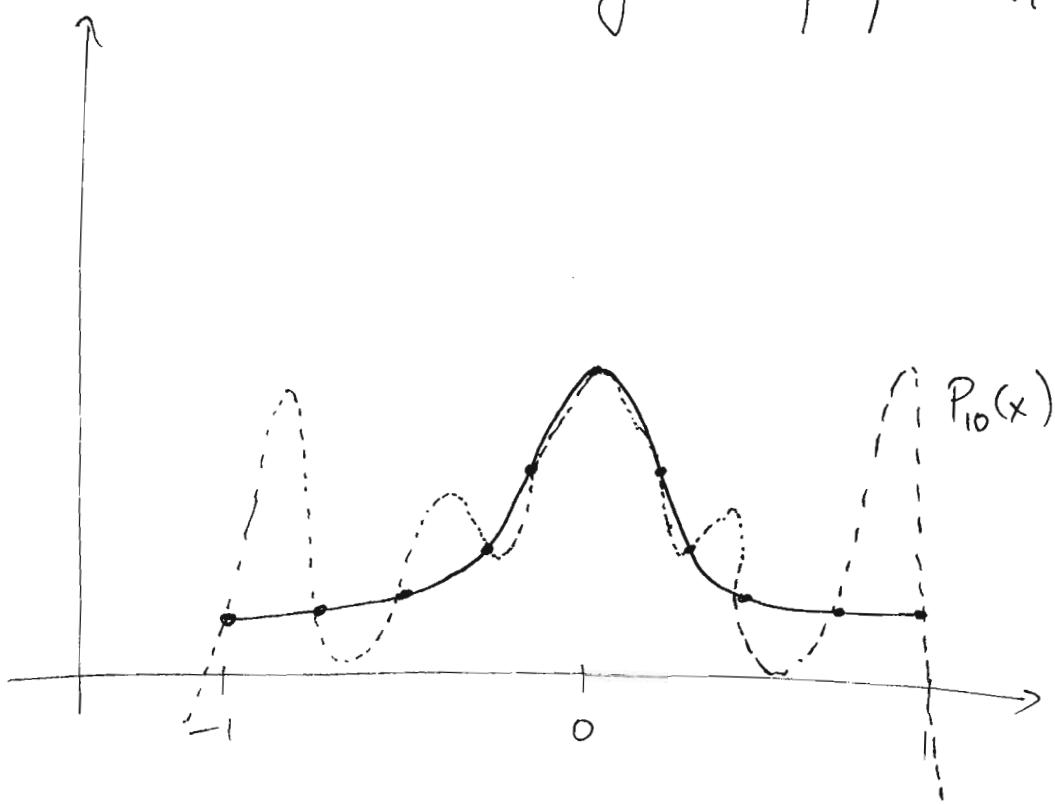


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Approximation with a degree=5 polynomial



Approximation with a degree = 10 polynomial



Thus in this case the polynomials  $P_n(x)$  do not uniformly converge to  $f(x)$  as we add more points

A possible improvement stems from the following idea:

$$f(x) - P(x) = \frac{f^{(n)}(\theta)}{n!} \underbrace{(x-x_1) \dots (x-x_n)}_{\uparrow \quad \uparrow}$$

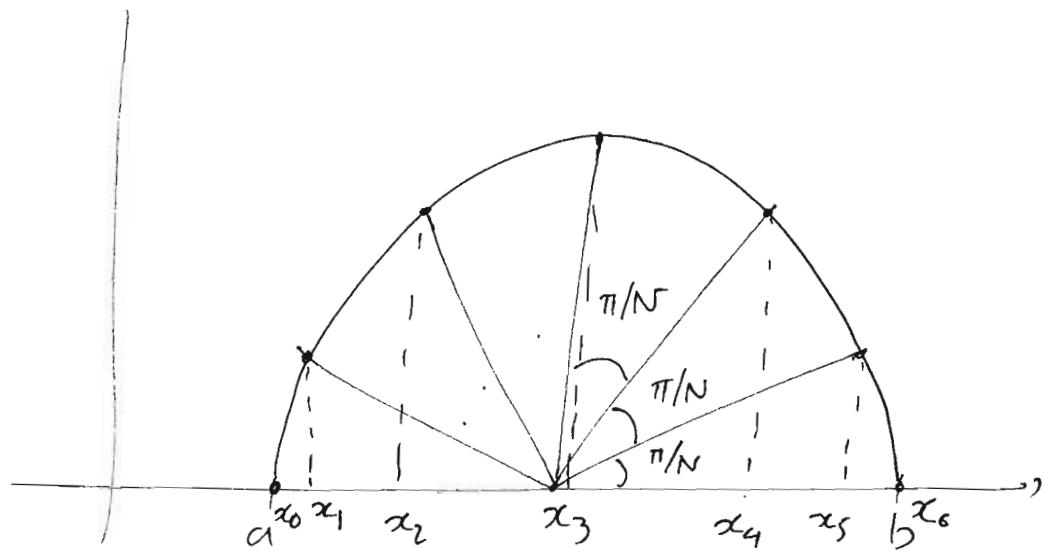
This we have Idea: Select the points no control over  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  to minimize this product.

The value of the product  $(x-x_1) \dots (x-x_n)$  is minimized by selecting the  $x_i$ 's as the Chebyshev points.

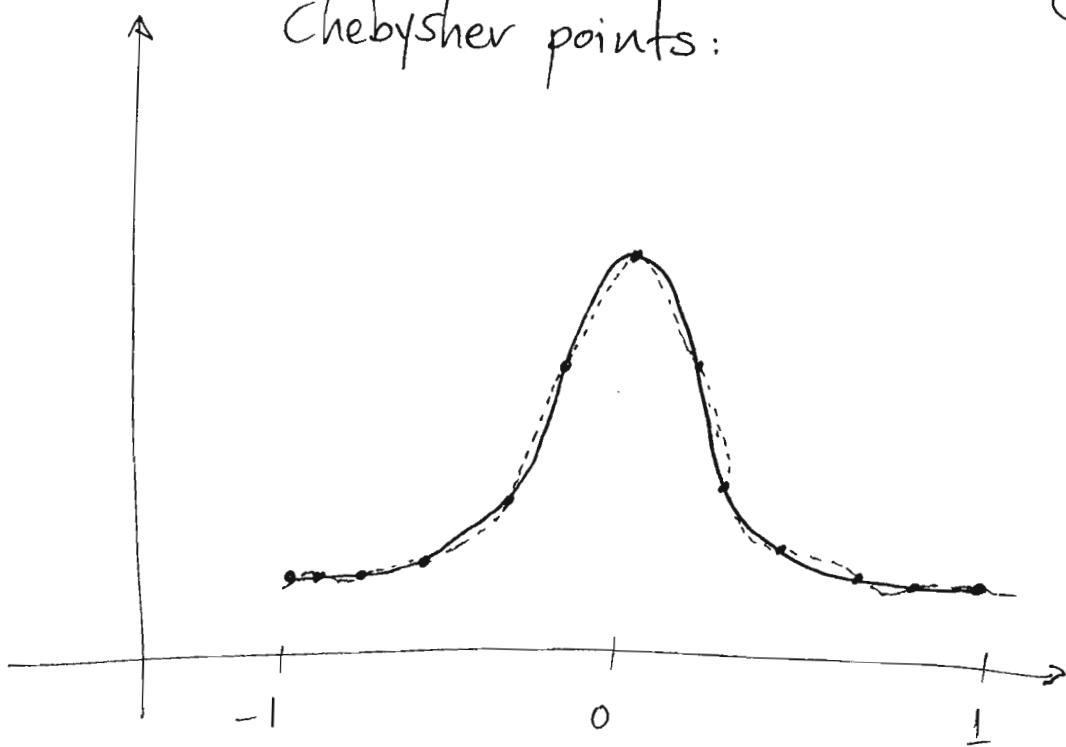
If the interpolation interval is  $[a, b]$ , the Chebyshev points are given by:

$$x_i = a + (b-a) \sin\left(\frac{i\pi}{N}\right) \quad i=0, 1, 2, \dots, N$$

Graphically, these points are the projections 2/17/11 L9  
 on the x-axis of ( $N+1$ ) points located along the  
 half circle with diameter the interval  $[a,b]$ , at equal  
 arc-lengths:



Now, we can re-try Runge's function using Chebyshev points:



In fact, it is possible to show that, using Chebyshev points, we can guarantee that

$$|f(x) - P(x)| \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

provided that over  $[a, b]$  both  $f(x)$  and its derivative  $f'(x)$  remain bounded (The benefit is that this condition does not place restrictions on higher-order derivatives of  $f(x)$ )