# Math 6620: Analysis of Numerical Methods, II A primer on polynomial interpolation and quadrature 

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## Polynomial interpolation

Let's recall some basics about polynomial interpolation on $\mathbb{R}$ : Let $x_{1}, \ldots x_{n}$ be any distinct nodes in $\mathbb{R}$, and let $f: C(\mathbb{R} ; \mathbb{R})$ be given. Our goal is to construct a polynomial $p \in P_{n-1}:=\operatorname{span}\left\{1, x, \ldots, x^{n-1}\right\}$ such that,

$$
p\left(x_{j}\right)=f\left(x_{j}\right), \quad j \in[n]
$$

There are several ways to tackle this problem; one major outcome is that this problem is unisolvent: there is a bijection between $\left(f_{j}\right)_{j \in[n]}$ and $P_{n-1}$. (In fact this bijection is a linear map.)

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$$

Direct linear algebra:

$$
p(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{j} x^{j-1} .
$$

Asserting the interpolation conditions yields the linear system:

$$
\boldsymbol{V} \boldsymbol{c}=\boldsymbol{f}, \quad \boldsymbol{c}=\left(c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}\right)^{T}, \quad \boldsymbol{f}=\left(f\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, f\left(x_{n}\right)\right)^{T}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{V}$ is a Vandermonde matrix:

$$
(\boldsymbol{V})_{j, k}=x_{j}^{k-1}, \quad j, k \in[n]
$$

One can show that $\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{V} \neq 0$ :

$$
\operatorname{det} \boldsymbol{V}=\prod_{1 \leqslant j<k \leqslant n}\left(x_{k}-x_{j}\right),
$$

establishing unisolvence.
This procedure requires $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{3}\right)$ effort.

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$$

Newton form:

$$
p(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{j} \phi_{j}(x), \quad \phi_{j}(x):=\prod_{k=1}^{j-1}\left(x-x_{k}\right)
$$

Note that $\phi_{j}\left(x_{k}\right)=0$ for $k<j$, so that a direct linear algebraic system is upper-triangular:

- The diagonal of the corresponding linear system matrix contains no zeros: unisolvence
- The $c_{j}$ are computable in $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{2}\right)$ effort.

Moreover, back-substitution yields an extremely useful fact: the $c_{j}$ are simply (Newton) divided differences:

$$
c_{j}=f\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{j}\right],
$$

where $f[\cdot]$ are defined recursively:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left[x_{j}\right] & =f\left(x_{j}\right), & j \in[n] \\
f\left[x_{j}, x_{j+1}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, x_{k}\right] & =\frac{f\left[x_{j+1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right]-f\left[x_{j}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right]}{x_{k}-x_{j}}, & 1 \leqslant j<k \leqslant n .
\end{aligned}
$$

These divided differences are typically computed in a triangular array/tableau (which is $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{2}\right)$ effort to construct).

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$$

Lagrange form:

$$
p(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{j} \ell_{j}(x), \quad \quad \ell_{j}(x):=\frac{\prod_{k \in[n] \backslash\{k\}}\left(x-x_{k}\right)}{\prod_{k \in[n] \backslash\{k\}}^{j}\left(x_{j}-x_{k}\right)} .
$$

The functions $\ell_{j}$ are called Lagrange interpolating polynomials. Of particular importance is that, by construction, they satisfy,

$$
\ell_{j}\left(x_{k}\right)=\delta_{j, k}, \quad j, k \in[n]
$$

I.e., the corresponding interpolatory linear algebraic system matrix is $I$. Thus, the coefficients are:

$$
c_{j}=f\left(x_{j}\right)
$$

I.e., no linear algebra is required at all: computation of the coefficients is $\mathcal{O}(n)$. But evaluating the $\ell_{j}$ functions requires $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{2}\right)$ effort.

Again, this procedure confirms uni/solvence of the interpolation procedure.

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$$

There are some other approaches to constructing interpolants as well. For example:

$$
p(x)=\frac{\sum_{j \in[n]} \frac{w_{j} f_{j}}{x-x_{j}}}{\sum_{j \in[n]} \frac{w_{j}}{x-x_{j}}}, \quad f_{j}=f\left(\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{j}}\right) \quad w_{j}=\frac{1}{\prod_{k \in[n] \backslash\{j\}}\left(x_{k}-x_{j}\right)} .
$$

It is indeed true that $p \in P_{n-1}$ with $p\left(x_{j}\right)=f\left(x_{j}\right)$.
This explicitly provides an $\mathcal{O}(n)$ formula for the interpolant, if $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{2}\right)$ effort is expended to compute the weights $w_{j}$.
This is called the barycentric (Lagrange) form of the interoplant.

The error in polynomial interpolation
The error in polynomial approximation is well-studied. Here is one Lagrange remainder form for the error:

## Theorem

Assume $f \in C^{n}([a, b])$ where $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\} \subset[a, b]$. With $p$ the degree- $(n-1)$ polynomial interpolant of $f$, then for any $x \in[a, b]$, there exists a $y(x) \in[a, b]$ such that:

$$
f(x)-p(x)=\frac{f^{(n)}(y)}{n!} \prod_{j \in[n]}\left(x-x_{j}\right)
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$$

If the nodes are equispaced:

$$
x_{j}=a+(j-1) h, \quad h=\frac{b-a}{n-1},
$$

then

$$
\left|\prod_{j \in[n]}\left(x-x_{j}\right)\right| \leqslant \frac{(n-1)!}{4} h^{n}
$$

i.e., this error is $\mathcal{O}\left(h^{n}\right)$.

Some polynomial interpolation theory, I

The error bound on equispaced nodes decays to zero as $h \downarrow 0$. One can prove the following related result:

## Theorem

Let $f \in C([a, b])$. Then there exists some triangular array of nodes, $\left\{x_{j, n}\right\}_{j \in[n], n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset[a, b]$, with $\left\{x_{j, n}\right\}_{j \in[n]}$ distinct, such that the sequence of polynomials $p_{n} \in P_{n-1}$ that interpolate $f$ on $\left\{x_{j}\right\}_{j \in[n]}$ converge uniformly to $f$ on $[a, b]$.

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Unfortunately, since $f^{(n)}$ can be badly behaved, one can always construct adversarial examples.

## Theorem

Let $\left\{x_{j, n}\right\}_{j \in[n], n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset[a, b]$ be any triangular array of nodes. Then there exists a function $f \in C([a, b])$ such that the sequence of interpolating polynomials $p_{n}$ diverges from $f$ in the uniform norm on $[a, b]$.

Some polynomial interpolation theory, II

Nevertheless, the form of the Lagrange remainder error suggests that solving the minimization problem,

$$
\min _{\left\{x_{j}\right\}_{j} \subset[a, b]} \prod_{j \in[n]}\left(x-x_{j}\right)
$$

should produce a "good" sequence of nodes.

Some polynomial interpolation theory, II

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should produce a "good" sequence of nodes.
The solution to this minimization problem is the set of Chebyshev nodes, and they provide a reasonable set of interpolation points.

## Theorem

If $f$ is absolutely continuous on $[a, b]$, then the sequence of interpolating polynomials on the Chebyshev nodes converges to $f$ in the uniform norm.

## Finite differences

Interpolation, and in particular the existence of a reasonable error estimate, suggests a new strategy for constructing finite difference formulas that evaluate derivative of $u^{(p)}(x)$ at some point $x_{j}$ :

1. Decide on a stencil $x_{j-r}, \ldots, x_{j}, \ldots x_{j+s}$
2. Construct a degree- $(s+r)$ polynomial that interpolates $u$ at the stencil points
3. Take the $p$ th derivative of $u$
4. Evaluate the $p$ th derivative of the interpolant at $x_{j}$.
(You can convince yourself that indeed this will yield an approximation that is a linear combination of $u$ at the stencil points.)

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(You can convince yourself that indeed this will yield an approximation that is a linear combination of $u$ at the stencil points.)
Example
Use polynomial interpolation to construct an approximation to the second derivative at $x_{j}$ using the stencil $x_{j-1}, x_{j}, x_{j+1}$, where $x_{j \pm 1}=x_{j} \pm h$ with $h>0$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p(x)=u_{j-1} l_{-1}(x)+u_{j} l_{0}(x)+u_{j+1} l_{1}(x) \\
& \quad l_{-1}(x)=\frac{\left(x-x_{j}\right)\left(x-x_{j}-h\right)}{(-h)(-2 h)} \quad l_{1}(x)=\frac{\left(x-x_{j}+h\right)\left(x-x_{j}^{\prime}\right)}{(2 h)(h)} \\
& \quad l_{0}(x)=\frac{\left(x-x_{j}+h\right)\left(x-x_{j}-h\right)}{(h)(-h)}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
p^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{j}\right) & =? \\
& =u_{j-1} l_{-1}^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{j}\right)+u_{j} l_{0}^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{j}\right)+u_{j+1} l_{1}^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{j}\right) \\
& =u_{j-1} \cdot \frac{2}{2 h^{2}}+u_{j} \frac{2}{-h^{2}}+u_{j+1} \frac{2}{2 h^{2}} \\
& =\frac{1}{h^{2}}\left[u_{j-1}-2 u_{j}+u_{j+1}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

The previous exercise suggests that polynomial interpolation is doing something similar to eliminating entries in a Taylor series expansion.

## Finite differences and interpolation

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## Theorem

On any stencil of points (equidistant or not), the finite difference formula constructed by eliminating Taylor series terms to as high an order as possible is equivalent to the finite difference formula obtained through polynomial interpolation on the stencil.

In practice, it's frequently easier to use Taylor series, but interpolation has its uses. For example, it's conceptually easier to numerically implement.

## Quadrature

A second useful task is approximating integrals via sums of point values, i.e., quadrature:

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \mathrm{d} x \approx \sum_{j \in[n]} f\left(x_{j}\right) w_{j}
$$

Here the "unknowns" are the nodes $x_{j}$ and the quadrature weights $w_{j}$.
Like interpolation, we'll mostly consider the nodes as fixed, and our task is to determine "good" weights.

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Taking inspiration from finite differences: once the nodes are declared, it's probably a reasonble idea to (i) approximate an integrand by forming a polynomial interpolant and (ii) subsequently integrating the interpolant.

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The weights resulting from this procedure yield an interpolatory quadrature rule.
An exercise reveals that interpolatory quadrature rules have the following formula for the weights:

$$
w_{j}=\int_{a}^{b} \ell_{j}(x) \mathrm{d} x
$$

where $\ell_{j}$ is the Lagrange polynomial centered at $x_{j}$ on the nodes $\left\{x_{j}\right\}_{j \in[n]}$.

## Moment matching

While integrating Lagrange polynomials is an explicit way to compute interpolatory quadrature weights, like forming finite differences, there is an approach that is typically easier by hand:

Suppose we assert that the weights $w_{j}$ are formed in order to ensure an exact integral on $P_{n-1}$ :

$$
\int_{a}^{b} x^{k} \mathrm{~d} x=\sum_{j \in[n]} w_{j} x_{j}^{k}, \quad k=0, \ldots, n-1
$$

This is a well-posed strategy (in principle) since it forms a size- $n$ linear system for the $n$ unknown weights.
This approach is called moment matching. The principle is to form a quadrature rule that exactly integrates polynomials to as high a degree as possible.

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This approach is called moment matching. The principle is to form a quadrature rule that exactly integrates polynomials to as high a degree as possible.

Like the finite difference case, there is an equivalence with interpolation.

## Theorem

For fixed distinct nodes $\left\{x_{j}\right\}_{j \in[n]}$, the weights of an interpolatory quadrature rule are identical to those of a moment matching quadrature rule.

[^1]
## Examples

## Example

The following is a one-point qudarature rule approximation:

$$
\int_{0}^{h} u(x) \mathrm{d} x \approx h u(0) .
$$

I.e., $x_{1}=0$ and $w_{1}=h$.

The order of accuracy of this rule is the constant $p$ in an $\mathcal{O}\left(h^{p}\right)$ estimation of,

$$
\int_{0}^{h} u(x) \mathrm{d} x-h u(0) \quad u(x)=u(0)+\gamma u^{\prime}(d)+\frac{u^{\prime \prime}(0)}{2} x^{2}+=
$$

What is the order of accuracy of this quadrature rule?


$$
\int_{0}^{h} u(x) d x=u(0) h+\sqrt{\Lambda_{1}} \frac{h^{2}}{2}+\frac{h^{2} / 2}{\Lambda^{\prime}} \cdot \frac{h^{3}}{6}+\cdots
$$

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$$

What is the order of accuracy of this quadrature rule?

An essentially identical quadrature rule approximation is:

$$
\frac{1}{h} \int_{0}^{h} u(x) \mathrm{d} x \approx u(0)
$$

What is the order of accuracy of this quadrature rule?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{1}{h} u(x)-\frac{1}{h} u(0)+u^{\prime \prime}(0) x+\ldots \\
& \frac{1}{h} \int_{0}^{h} u(x) d x-u(0) \sim \frac{h^{2}}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Examples

Example
Identify the order of accuracy of the quadrature rules,

$$
\int_{0}^{h} u(x) \mathrm{d} x \approx h u(h) \cdot \frac{1}{b} \int_{0}^{h} u(x x) \mathrm{d} x
$$

Zach

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{1}{h} \int_{0}^{h} u(x) d \gamma \approx u(h) \\
p=2 \\
p=1
\end{gathered}
$$

## Example

Identify the weights and order of accuracy of the quadrature rules,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{0}^{h} u(x) \mathrm{d} x \approx w_{0} u(0)+w_{1} u(h) \\
& \frac{1}{h} \int_{0}^{h} u(x) \mathrm{d} x \approx \frac{w_{0}}{h} u(0)+\frac{w_{1}}{h} u(h) \\
& \int_{0}^{h} u(x) d x=w_{0} u(0)+w_{1} u(h) \\
& \int_{0}^{h} x^{j} d x=\left.w_{0}\left(x^{j}\right)\right|_{d=0}+\left.w_{1}\left(x^{j}\right)\right|_{x=h} \quad j=0,1 \\
& \left.\begin{array}{l}
j=0: \quad h=w_{0}+w_{1} \\
j=1: \quad \frac{h^{2}}{2}=w_{1}, h
\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{l}
w_{1}=h / 2 \\
w_{0}=h / 2
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

References I

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    Math 6620: Polynomial methods

