

$f(x, y, z)$. Multidimensional interpolation is often accomplished by a sequence of one-dimensional interpolations. We discuss this in §3.6.

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3.1 Polynomial Interpolation and Extrapolation

Through any two points there is a unique line. Through any three points, a unique quadratic. Et cetera. The interpolating polynomial of degree $N - 1$ through the N points $y_1 = f(x_1), y_2 = f(x_2), \dots, y_N = f(x_N)$ is given explicitly by Lagrange's classical formula,

$$P(x) = \frac{(x-x_2)(x-x_3)\dots(x-x_N)}{(x_1-x_2)(x_1-x_3)\dots(x_1-x_N)}y_1 + \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_3)\dots(x-x_N)}{(x_2-x_1)(x_2-x_3)\dots(x_2-x_N)}y_2 + \dots + \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)\dots(x-x_{N-1})}{(x_N-x_1)(x_N-x_2)\dots(x_N-x_{N-1})}y_N \quad (3.1.1)$$

There are N terms, each a polynomial of degree $N - 1$ and each constructed to be zero at all of the x_i except one, at which it is constructed to be y_i .

It is not terribly wrong to implement the Lagrange formula straightforwardly, but it is not terribly right either. The resulting algorithm gives no error estimate, and it is also somewhat awkward to program. A much better algorithm (for constructing the same, unique, interpolating polynomial) is *Neville's algorithm*, closely related to and sometimes confused with *Aitken's algorithm*, the latter now considered obsolete.

Let P_1 be the value at x of the unique polynomial of degree zero (i.e., a constant) passing through the point (x_1, y_1) ; so $P_1 = y_1$. Likewise define P_2, P_3, \dots, P_N . Now let P_{12} be the value at x of the unique polynomial of degree one passing through both (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) . Likewise $P_{23}, P_{34}, \dots, P_{(N-1)N}$. Similarly, for higher-order polynomials, up to $P_{123\dots N}$, which is the value of the unique interpolating polynomial through all N points, i.e., the desired answer.

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The various P 's form a "tableau" with "ancestors" on the left leading to a single "descendant" at the extreme right. For example, with $N = 4$,

$$\begin{array}{rcccc}
 x_1 : & y_1 = P_1 & & & \\
 & & P_{12} & & \\
 x_2 : & y_2 = P_2 & & P_{123} & \\
 & & P_{23} & & P_{1234} \\
 x_3 : & y_3 = P_3 & & P_{234} & \\
 & & P_{34} & & \\
 x_4 : & y_4 = P_4 & & &
 \end{array} \tag{3.1.2}$$

Neville's algorithm is a recursive way of filling in the numbers in the tableau a column at a time, from left to right. It is based on the relationship between a "daughter" P and its two "parents,"

$$P_{i(i+1)\dots(i+m)} = \frac{(x - x_{i+m})P_{i(i+1)\dots(i+m-1)} + (x_i - x)P_{(i+1)(i+2)\dots(i+m)}}{x_i - x_{i+m}} \tag{3.1.3}$$

This recurrence works because the two parents already agree at points $x_{i+1} \dots x_{i+m-1}$.

An improvement on the recurrence (3.1.3) is to keep track of the small differences between parents and daughters, namely to define (for $m = 1, 2, \dots, N - 1$),

$$\begin{aligned}
 C_{m,i} &\equiv P_{i\dots(i+m)} - P_{i\dots(i+m-1)} \\
 D_{m,i} &\equiv P_{i\dots(i+m)} - P_{(i+1)\dots(i+m)}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.1.4}$$

Then one can easily derive from (3.1.3) the relations

$$\begin{aligned}
 D_{m+1,i} &= \frac{(x_{i+m+1} - x)(C_{m,i+1} - D_{m,i})}{x_i - x_{i+m+1}} \\
 C_{m+1,i} &= \frac{(x_i - x)(C_{m,i+1} - D_{m,i})}{x_i - x_{i+m+1}}
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.1.5}$$

At each level m , the C 's and D 's are the corrections that make the interpolation one order higher. The final answer $P_{1\dots N}$ is equal to the sum of any y_i plus a set of C 's and/or D 's that form a path through the family tree to the rightmost daughter.

Here is a routine for polynomial interpolation or extrapolation:

```

SUBROUTINE polint(xa,ya,n,x,y,dy)
INTEGER n,NMAX
REAL dy,x,y,xa(n),ya(n)
PARAMETER (NMAX=10)           Largest anticipated value of n.
    Given arrays xa and ya, each of length n, and given a value x, this routine returns a
    value y, and an error estimate dy. If  $P(x)$  is the polynomial of degree  $N - 1$  such that
     $P(xa_i) = ya_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ , then the returned value  $y = P(x)$ .
INTEGER i,m,ns
REAL den,dif,dift,ho,hp,w,c(NMAX),d(NMAX)
ns=1
dif=abs(x-xa(1))

```

```

do 11 i=1,n
  dift=abs(x-xa(i))
  if (dift.lt.dif) then
    ns=i
    dif=dift
  endif
  c(i)=ya(i)
  d(i)=ya(i)
enddo 11
y=ya(ns)
ns=ns-1
do 13 m=1,n-1
  do 12 i=1,n-m
    ho=xa(i)-x
    hp=xa(i+m)-x
    w=c(i+1)-d(i)
    den=ho-hp
    if(den.eq.0.)pause 'failure in polint'
    This error can occur only if two input xa's are (to within roundoff) identical.
    den=w/den
    d(i)=hp*den
    c(i)=ho*den
  enddo 12
  if (2*ns.lt.n-m)then
    dy=c(ns+1)
  else
    dy=d(ns)
    ns=ns-1
  endif
  y=y+dy
enddo 13
return
END

```

Here we find the index `ns` of the closest table entry, and initialize the tableau of `c`'s and `d`'s.

This is the initial approximation to `y`.

For each column of the tableau, we loop over the current `c`'s and `d`'s and update them.

Here the `c`'s and `d`'s are updated.

After each column in the tableau is completed, we decide which correction, `c` or `d`, we want to add to our accumulating value of `y`, i.e., which path to take through the tableau—forking up or down. We do this in such a way as to take the most “straight line” route through the tableau to its apex, updating `ns` accordingly to keep track of where we are. This route keeps the partial approximations centered (insofar as possible) on the target `x`. The last `dy` added is thus the error indication.

Quite often you will want to call `polint` with the dummy arguments `xa` and `ya` replaced by actual arrays *with offsets*. For example, the construction call `polint(xx(15),yy(15),4,x,y,dy)` performs 4-point interpolation on the tabulated values `xx(15:18)`, `yy(15:18)`. For more on this, see the end of §3.4.

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3.2 Rational Function Interpolation and Extrapolation

Some functions are not well approximated by polynomials, but *are* well approximated by rational functions, that is quotients of polynomials. We denote by $R_{i(i+1)\dots(i+m)}$ a rational function passing through the $m + 1$ points

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