

1. Solve the steady state heat conduction problem from Question 4 from HW#4 using the conjugate gradient method. Take the same  $h = 2^{-p}$ ,  $p = 2, 3, 4, 5$  and start from  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = 0$ . Terminate the iteration when  $\|r^{(k)}\|_2 \leq 10^{-2}$ , where  $r^{(k)}$  is the residual at step  $k$ . Display the results for each method in a table:

- column 1:  $h$  (mesh size)
- column 2:  $k$  (total number of iterations needed to achieve error tolerance)
- column 3:  $\|r^{(k)}\|_2$  (norm of residual at step  $k$ )
- column 4:  $\frac{\|r^{(k)}\|_2}{\|r^{(k-1)}\|_2}$  (ratio of successive residual norms at step  $k$ )

Summarize and explain the results. How does the rate of convergence behave as  $h$  is reduced? How do the results compare with those obtained in Question 4 from HW#4?

From the last homework, we have the following tables for Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel method:

Table 1: Jacobi results

$h$	$k$ (iters)	$\ r_k\ _2$	ratio
0.2500	13	$9.568319 \times 10^{-3}$	$7.071067 \times 10^{-1}$
0.1250	49	$9.945191 \times 10^{-3}$	$9.238773 \times 10^{-1}$
0.0625	166	$9.887564 \times 10^{-3}$	$9.807788 \times 10^{-1}$
0.0312	523	$9.998456 \times 10^{-3}$	$9.951703 \times 10^{-1}$

Table 2: Gauss-Seidel results

$h$	$k$ (iters)	$\ r_k\ _2$	ratio
0.2500	7	$7.768911 \times 10^{-3}$	$4.999220 \times 10^{-1}$
0.1250	24	$9.751416 \times 10^{-3}$	$8.532369 \times 10^{-1}$
0.0625	81	$9.695216 \times 10^{-3}$	$9.617785 \times 10^{-1}$
0.0312	256	$9.937994 \times 10^{-3}$	$9.903053 \times 10^{-1}$

For the Conjugate Gradient method, the results are as follows:

Table 3: Conjugate Gradient results

$h$	$k$ (iters)	$\ r_k\ _2$	ratio
0.2500	5	$1.726279 \times 10^{-17}$	0
0.1250	11	$8.756590 \times 10^{-3}$	$2.536811 \times 10^{-1}$
0.0625	23	$6.355795 \times 10^{-3}$	$3.777855 \times 10^{-1}$
0.0312	46	$7.127013 \times 10^{-3}$	$5.431558 \times 10^{-1}$

### Summary:

Behavior of CG method as  $h$  decreases:

- Iterations roughly double as  $h$  halves, so CG iteration count grows like  $O(1/h)$ .
- The ratio of successive residual norms increases as  $h$  decreases,  $0 \rightarrow 0.254 \rightarrow 0.378 \rightarrow 0.543$ , indicating slower convergence. This is consistent with theory:

$$\rho_{CG} = \frac{\sqrt{\kappa_2} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa_2} + 1} \rightarrow 1 \text{ as } \kappa \rightarrow \infty,$$

Comparison with Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel:

- CG needs far fewer iterations than Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel for the same  $h$ . For example, at  $h = 0.0312$ , CG takes 46 iterations vs. 523 (Jacobi) and 256 (Gauss-Seidel).
- For residual contraction, CG shows slower approaching to 1 as  $h$  decreases, compared with Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel.

2. Consider the method of steepest descent for solving  $Ax = b$ , where  $A$  is symmetric, positive definite.

- (a) Derive the relation

$$r^{(k)} = r^{(k-1)} - \alpha^{(k)} Ar^{(k-1)}.$$

- (b) Show that consecutive residuals are orthogonal, i.e.,

$$(r^{(k)})^\top r^{(k-1)} = 0.$$

**Solution:**

- (a) By definition, the residual at step
- $k$
- is
- $r^{(k)} = b - Ax^{(k)}$
- . The update step in the method of steepest descent is given by

$$x^{(k)} = x^{(k-1)} + \alpha^{(k)} r^{(k-1)}.$$

Multiplying by  $A$  and subtracting from  $b$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} b - Ax^{(k)} &= b - A(x^{(k-1)} + \alpha^{(k)} r^{(k-1)}) \\ r^{(k)} &= (b - Ax^{(k-1)}) - \alpha^{(k)} Ar^{(k-1)} \\ r^{(k)} &= r^{(k-1)} - \alpha^{(k)} Ar^{(k-1)}. \end{aligned}$$

- (b) We compute the inner product
- $(r^{(k)})^\top r^{(k-1)}$
- using the relation derived in (a):

$$(r^{(k)})^\top r^{(k-1)} = (r^{(k-1)} - \alpha^{(k)} Ar^{(k-1)})^\top r^{(k-1)}.$$

Distributing the transpose and the product:

$$(r^{(k)})^\top r^{(k-1)} = (r^{(k-1)})^\top r^{(k-1)} - \alpha^{(k)} (Ar^{(k-1)})^\top r^{(k-1)}.$$

Since  $A$  is symmetric,  $(Ar^{(k-1)})^\top = (r^{(k-1)})^\top A^\top = (r^{(k-1)})^\top A$ . Thus,

$$(r^{(k)})^\top r^{(k-1)} = (r^{(k-1)})^\top r^{(k-1)} - \alpha^{(k)} (r^{(k-1)})^\top Ar^{(k-1)}.$$

In the method of steepest descent, the step size  $\alpha^{(k)}$  is chosen to minimize the function  $\phi(x^{(k-1)} + \alpha r^{(k-1)})$ , which yields the formula:

$$\alpha^{(k)} = \frac{(r^{(k-1)})^\top r^{(k-1)}}{(r^{(k-1)})^\top Ar^{(k-1)}}.$$

Substituting this into the expression for the inner product:

$$(r^{(k)})^\top r^{(k-1)} = (r^{(k-1)})^\top r^{(k-1)} - \frac{(r^{(k-1)})^\top r^{(k-1)}}{(r^{(k-1)})^\top Ar^{(k-1)}} (r^{(k-1)})^\top Ar^{(k-1)}.$$

The terms cancel out:

$$(r^{(k)})^\top r^{(k-1)} = (r^{(k-1)})^\top r^{(k-1)} - (r^{(k-1)})^\top r^{(k-1)} = 0.$$

Therefore, consecutive residuals are orthogonal.

3. Let
- $A$
- be symmetric, positive definite and suppose that
- $\{p_1, \dots, p_k\}$
- are conjugate.

- (a) Show that
- $\{p_1, \dots, p_k\}$
- are linearly independent.

*Proof.* Since  $\{p_1, \dots, p_k\}$  are  $A$ -conjugate, we have

$$p_i^\top Ap_j = 0 \quad \text{for } i \neq j.$$

Assume there exist scalars  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k$  not all zero such that

$$\alpha_1 p_1 + \alpha_2 p_2 + \dots + \alpha_k p_k = 0.$$

Pick  $a_j \neq 0$ , and multiply both sides by  $p_j^\top A$ :

$$p_j^\top A(\alpha_1 p_1 + \alpha_2 p_2 + \dots + \alpha_k p_k) = 0.$$

Using the conjugacy property, all terms vanish except for the  $j$ -th term:

$$\alpha_j p_j^\top Ap_j = 0.$$

Since  $A$  is positive definite,  $p_j^\top Ap_j > 0$ , which implies  $\alpha_j = 0$ . This contradicts our assumption that not all  $\alpha_i$  are zero. Therefore, the set  $\{p_1, \dots, p_k\}$  is linearly independent.  $\square$

- (b) Show that  $\{Ap_1, \dots, Ap_k\}$  are linearly independent.

*Proof.* Assume there exist scalars  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k$  not all zero such that

$$\beta_1 Ap_1 + \beta_2 Ap_2 + \dots + \beta_k Ap_k = 0.$$

Pick  $b_j \neq 0$ , and multiply both sides by  $p_j^\top$ :

$$p_j^\top (\beta_1 Ap_1 + \beta_2 Ap_2 + \dots + \beta_k Ap_k) = 0.$$

Using the conjugacy property, all terms vanish except for the  $j$ -th term:

$$\beta_j p_j^\top Ap_j = 0.$$

Since  $A$  is positive definite,  $p_j^\top Ap_j > 0$ , which implies  $\beta_j = 0$ . This contradicts our assumption that not all  $\beta_i$  are zero. Therefore, the set  $\{Ap_1, \dots, Ap_k\}$  is linearly independent.  $\square$

- (c) Show that  $P_k^\top AP_k$  is invertible, where  $P_k = [p_1 \ \dots \ p_k]$ .

*Proof.* Consider the  $(i, j)$  entry of the matrix  $P_k^\top AP_k$ :

$$(P_k^\top AP_k)_{ij} = p_i^\top Ap_j.$$

Using the conjugacy property, we have

$$(P_k^\top AP_k)_{ij} = \begin{cases} p_i^\top Ap_i > 0 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

So the matrix  $P_k^\top AP_k$  is diagonal with positive entries on the diagonal, which implies it is invertible.  $\square$

4. Prove that the Lagrange polynomials  $\ell_j \in \mathcal{P}_n$  form a basis for  $\mathcal{P}_n$ .

*Proof.* Recall that the Lagrange polynomials  $\ell_j(x)$  are defined as

$$\ell_j(x) = \prod_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq j}}^n \frac{x - x_i}{x_j - x_i},$$

where  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  are distinct nodes.

• **Linearly Independent:**

Assume there exist scalars  $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  such that

$$\alpha_0 \ell_0(x) + \alpha_1 \ell_1(x) + \dots + \alpha_n \ell_n(x) = 0.$$

Evaluating this equation at  $x = x_j$  for each  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ , we get

$$\alpha_j = 0.$$

Since this holds for all  $j$ , we conclude that all coefficients must be zero, proving linear independence.

- **Spanning:** Let  $p(x) \in \mathcal{P}_n$  be an arbitrary polynomial of degree at most  $n$ . We can express  $p(x)$  in terms of the Lagrange polynomials as follows:

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n p(x_j) \ell_j(x).$$

This shows that any polynomial in  $\mathcal{P}_n$  can be expressed as a linear combination of the Lagrange polynomials, proving that they span  $\mathcal{P}_n$ .  $\square$

5. Prove that for the Lagrange polynomials  $\ell_j \in \mathcal{P}_n$ ,

$$\sum_{j=0}^n \ell_j(x) \equiv 1.$$

*Proof.*

$$\ell_j(x) = \prod_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq j}}^n \frac{x - x_i}{x_j - x_i},$$

where  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  are distinct nodes. Consider the sum

$$S(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \ell_j(x).$$

We will show that  $S(x) \equiv 1$ . First, note that each  $\ell_j(x)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$ . Therefore,  $S(x)$  is also a polynomial of degree at most  $n$ . Next, evaluate  $S(x)$  at each of the nodes  $x_k$  for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$ :

$$S(x_k) = \sum_{j=0}^n \ell_j(x_k).$$

By the definition of the Lagrange polynomials, we have

$$\ell_j(x_k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = k, \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq k. \end{cases}$$

Therefore,

$$S(x_k) = \ell_k(x_k) + \sum_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq k}}^n \ell_j(x_k) = 1 + 0 = 1.$$

Since  $S(x)$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $n$  and takes the value 1 at  $n+1$  distinct points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ , it must be the constant polynomial 1. Thus,

$$S(x) \equiv 1.$$

□

6. Prove that

$$\omega'_{n+1}(x_i) = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n (x_i - x_j),$$

where  $\omega_{n+1}$  is the nodal polynomial.

*Proof.* The nodal polynomial is defined as  $\omega_{n+1}(x) = \prod_{j=0}^n (x - x_j)$ . We can rewrite this as

$$\omega_{n+1}(x) = (x - x_i) \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n (x - x_j) = (x - x_i)g(x),$$

where  $g(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j)$ . Differentiating using the product rule gives

$$\omega'_{n+1}(x) = 1 \cdot g(x) + (x - x_i)g'(x).$$

Evaluating at  $x = x_i$ , the second term vanishes:

$$\omega'_{n+1}(x_i) = g(x_i) + 0 = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n (x_i - x_j).$$

□

7. Provide an estimate of  $\|\omega_{n+1}\|_\infty$  in the cases  $n = 1$  and  $n = 2$ , for a distribution of equally spaced nodes.

*Proof.* For  $n = 1$ , the nodal polynomial is

$$\omega_2(x) = (x - x_0)(x - x_1).$$

Assuming equally spaced nodes  $x_0 = a$  and  $x_1 = b$ , we have

$$\omega_2(x) = (x - a)(x - b).$$

The maximum value of  $|\omega_2(x)|$  occurs at the midpoint  $x = \frac{a+b}{2}$ :

$$\|\omega_2\|_\infty = \left| \left( \frac{a+b}{2} - a \right) \left( \frac{a+b}{2} - b \right) \right| = \left| \frac{b-a}{2} \cdot \left( -\frac{b-a}{2} \right) \right| = \frac{(b-a)^2}{4}.$$

For  $n = 2$ , the nodal polynomial is

$$\omega_3(x) = (x - x_0)(x - x_1)(x - x_2).$$

Assuming equally spaced nodes  $x_0 = a$ ,  $x_1 = a + h$ , and  $x_2 = a + 2h$ , we have

$$\omega_3(x) = (x - a)(x - (a + h))(x - (a + 2h)).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_3'(x) &= (x - (a + h))(x - (a + 2h)) + (x - a)(x - (a + 2h)) + (x - a)(x - (a + h)) \\ &= 3x^2 - 6(a + h)x + (3a^2 + 6ah + 2h^2) \\ &= 3(x^2 - 2(a + h)x + a^2 + 2ah + h^2) - h^2 \\ &= 3(x - (a + h))^2 - h^2 = 0 \implies x = a + h \pm \frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}. \end{aligned}$$

Evaluating  $\omega_3(x)$  at these critical points:

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_3\left(a + h + \frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}\right) &= \left(h + \frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \left(\frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \left(-h + \frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}\right) = -\frac{2h^3}{3\sqrt{3}}, \\ \omega_3\left(a + h - \frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}\right) &= \left(h - \frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \left(-\frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \left(-h - \frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}\right) = \frac{2h^3}{3\sqrt{3}}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\|\omega_3\|_\infty = \frac{2h^3}{3\sqrt{3}} = \frac{2\sqrt{3}h^3}{9} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{36}(b - a)^3.$$

□

8. Some modeling considerations have mandated a search for a function

$$u(x) = \gamma_0 e^{\gamma_1 x + \gamma_2 x^2},$$

where the unknown coefficients  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  are expected to be nonpositive. Given are data pairs to be interpolated,  $(x_0, z_0)$ ,  $(x_1, z_1)$ , and  $(x_2, z_2)$ , where  $z_i > 0$ ,  $i = 0, 1, 2$ . Thus, we require

$$u(x_i) = z_i.$$

The function  $u(x)$  is not linear in its coefficients, but

$$v(x) = \ln(u(x))$$

is linear in its coefficients.

- (a) Find a quadratic polynomial  $v(x)$  that interpolates appropriately defined three data pairs, and then give a formula for  $u(x)$  in terms of the original data. (This is a pen-and-paper item; the following one should consume much less of your time.)

**Solution:** We have

$$v(x) = \ln(u(x)) = \ln(\gamma_0) + \gamma_1 x + \gamma_2 x^2.$$

And the data pairs for  $v(x)$  are  $(x_i, \ln(z_i))$ ,  $i = 0, 1, 2$ . We can express  $v(x)$  in terms of Lagrange basis polynomials:

$$v(x) = \sum_{j=0}^2 \ln(z_j) \ell_j(x),$$

where  $\ell_j(x)$  are the Lagrange basis polynomials defined as

$$\ell_j(x) = \prod_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq j}}^2 \frac{x - x_i}{x_j - x_i}.$$

Therefore, the function  $u(x)$  can be expressed as

$$u(x) = \exp \left( \sum_{j=0}^2 \ln(z_j) \ell_j(x) \right) = \prod_{j=0}^2 z_j^{\ell_j(x)}.$$

- (b) Write a script to find  $u$  for the data  $(0, 1)$ ,  $(1, 0.9)$ ,  $(3, 0.5)$ . Give the coefficients  $\gamma_i$  and plot the resulting interpolant over the interval  $[0, 6]$ . In what way does the curve behave qualitatively differently from a quadratic?

Using a MATLAB script, we find the coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_0 &= 1 \\ \gamma_1 &= -0.042516 \\ \gamma_2 &= -0.062844 \end{aligned}$$

The plot of the interpolant  $u(x)$  over the interval  $[0, 6]$  shows an exponential decay behavior, which is qualitatively different from a quadratic function that would typically exhibit a parabolic shape. The exponential form allows for a more gradual decrease, especially as  $x$  increases, compared to the rapid changes seen in quadratic functions.

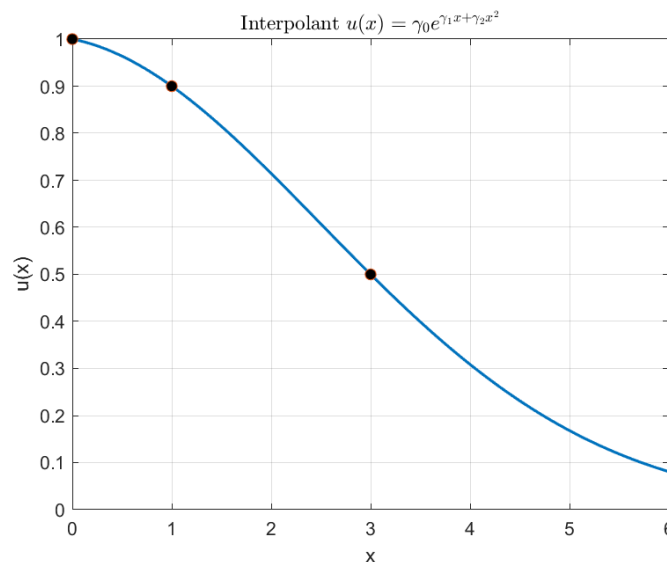


Figure 1: Plot of the interpolant  $u(x)$  over  $[0, 6]$

9. Use the known values of the function  $\sin(x)$  at

$$x = 0, \frac{\pi}{6}, \frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{2}$$

to derive an interpolating polynomial  $p(x)$ . What is the degree of your polynomial? What is the interpolation error magnitude  $|p(1.2) - \sin(1.2)|$ ?

**Solution:** The degree of the interpolating polynomial is 4, since we have 5 data points. Using Lagrange interpolation, we construct the polynomial  $p(x)$  as follows:

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=0}^4 \sin(x_j) \ell_j(x),$$

where  $x_0 = 0$ ,  $x_1 = \frac{\pi}{6}$ ,  $x_2 = \frac{\pi}{4}$ ,  $x_3 = \frac{\pi}{3}$ ,  $x_4 = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , and  $\ell_j(x)$  are the Lagrange basis polynomials defined as

$$\ell_j(x) = \prod_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq j}}^4 \frac{x - x_i}{x_j - x_i}.$$

Evaluating  $p(1.2)$  and comparing it to  $\sin(1.2)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} p(1.2) &= 0.9321 \\ \sin(1.2) &= 0.932039 \\ |p(1.2) - \sin(1.2)| &= 1.0244 \times 10^{-4} \end{aligned}$$

10. Let  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  be distinct real points, and consider the following interpolation problem. Choose a function

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j e^{jx}$$

such that

$$P_n(x_i) = y_i, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$

with the  $\{y_i\}$  given data. Show there is a unique choice of  $c_0, \dots, c_n$ .

*Proof.* Suppose there are two different sets of coefficients  $\{c_j\}$  and  $\{d_j\}$  that satisfy the interpolation conditions:

$$P_n(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j e^{jx_i} = \sum_{j=0}^n d_j e^{jx_i} = y_i, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$

Subtracting these two equations, we get

$$\sum_{j=0}^n (c_j - d_j) e^{jx_i} = 0, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Define polynomial

$$g(z) := \sum_{j=0}^n a_j z^j,$$

Then take  $z = e^x$ ,

$$g(z_i) = 0 \text{ where } z_i = e^{x_i}, i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

But  $g$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $n$  with  $n+1$  distinct roots  $z_0, z_1, \dots, z_n$ . By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, the only possible case is that

$$g(z) \equiv 0.$$

Hence all coefficients  $a_j = c_j - d_j = 0$ , which implies  $c_j = d_j$  for all  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . □

11. Consider finding a rational function

$$p(x) = \frac{a + bx}{1 + cx}$$

that satisfies

$$p(x_i) = y_i, \quad i = 1, 2, 3,$$

with  $x_1, x_2, x_3$  distinct. Does such a function  $p(x)$  exist, or are additional conditions needed to ensure existence and uniqueness of  $p(x)$ ?

**Solution:** The interpolation condition  $p(x_i) = y_i$  implies

$$y_i = \frac{a + bx_i}{1 + cx_i} \implies y_i(1 + cx_i) = a + bx_i \implies a + bx_i - cx_i y_i = y_i.$$

For  $i = 1, 2, 3$ , this gives a linear system of equations for the unknowns  $a, b, c$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & -x_1 y_1 \\ 1 & x_2 & -x_2 y_2 \\ 1 & x_3 & -x_3 y_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let  $M$  be the coefficient matrix. A unique solution for  $a, b, c$  exists if and only if  $\det(M) \neq 0$ .

However, We must also ensure that the denominator does not vanish at any of the interpolation nodes  $x_i$ . That is, we require

$$1 + cx_i \neq 0 \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, 3.$$

Therefore, such a function  $p(x)$  does not always exist. Additional conditions are needed:

- (a) The linear system must be invertible ( $\det(M) \neq 0$ ).
- (b) The resulting  $c$  must satisfy  $1 + cx_i \neq 0$  for all  $i = 1, 2, 3$ .

12. The following data are taken from a polynomial of degree  $\leq 5$ :

$$(-2, -5), (-1, 1), (0, 1), (1, 1), (2, 7), (3, 25).$$

What is the degree of the polynomial?

**Solution:** Consider a difference table for the given data points. Since the  $x$  values are equally spaced with  $h = 1$ , we can use forward differences.

$x$	$y$	$\Delta y$	$\Delta^2 y$	$\Delta^3 y$	$\Delta^4 y$	$\Delta^5 y$
-2	-5					
		6				
-1	1		-6			
		0		6		
0	1		0		0	
		0		6		0
1	1		6		0	
		6		6		
2	7		12			
		18				
3	25					

The third differences ( $\Delta^3 y$ ) are constant (all equal to 6). This implies that the polynomial is of degree **3**.

13. For  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ ,  $-5 \leq x \leq 5$ , produce  $p_n(x)$  using  $n+1$  evenly spaced nodes on  $[-5, 5]$ . Calculate  $p_n(x)$  at a large number of points, and graph it and its error on  $[-5, 5]$ .

We choose  $n = 10$  for the interpolation. The result shows significant oscillations near the endpoints of the interval, a phenomenon known as Runge's phenomenon. The error plot indicates that the maximum error occurs near the edges of the interval.



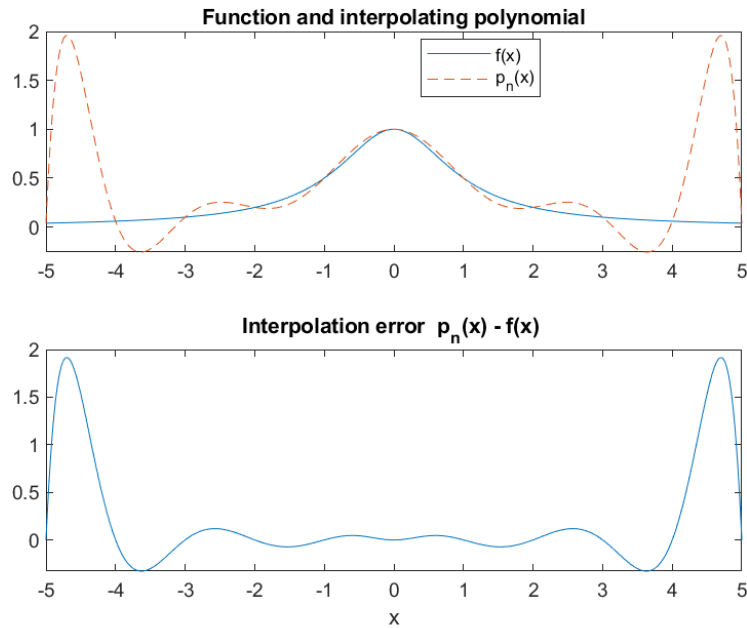


Figure 2: Interpolation of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$  using  $n+1 = 11$  evenly spaced nodes on  $[-5, 5]$

14. Given a sequence  $y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots$ , define the forward difference operator  $\Delta$  by

$$\Delta y_i := y_{i+1} - y_i.$$

Powers of  $\Delta$  are defined recursively by

$$\Delta^0 y_i := y_i, \quad \Delta^j y_i := \Delta(\Delta^{j-1} y_i), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots$$

Thus,

$$\Delta^2 y_i = \Delta(y_{i+1} - y_i) = y_{i+2} - 2y_{i+1} + y_i,$$

etc.

Consider the polynomial interpolation at equispaced points

$$x_i = x_0 + ih, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

(a) Show that

$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_j] = \frac{1}{j! h^j} \Delta^j f(x_0).$$

*Hint:* Use mathematical induction.

*Proof.* We will prove the statement by induction on  $j$ .

- For  $j=0$ :

$$f[x_0] = f(x_0) = \Delta^0 f(x_0)$$

- For  $j=1$ :

$$f[x_0, x_1] = \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} = \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} = \frac{\Delta f(x_0)}{1! h^1}$$

- Assume the statement holds for  $j$  points:

$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{j-1}] = \frac{1}{(j-1)! h^{j-1}} \Delta^{j-1} f(x_0).$$

$$f[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_j] = \frac{1}{(j-1)! h^{j-1}} \Delta^{j-1} f(x_1).$$

So,

$$\begin{aligned}
 f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_j] &= \frac{f[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_j] - f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{j-1}]}{x_j - x_0} \\
 &= \frac{\frac{1}{(j-1)!h^{j-1}} \Delta^{j-1} f(x_1) - \frac{1}{(j-1)!h^{j-1}} \Delta^{j-1} f(x_0)}{jh} \\
 &= \frac{1}{j!h^j} (\Delta^{j-1} f(x_1) - \Delta^{j-1} f(x_0)) \\
 &= \frac{1}{j!h^j} \Delta^j f(x_0).
 \end{aligned}$$

□

- (b) Show that the interpolating polynomial of degree at most  $n$  is given by the Newton forward difference formula

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{s}{j} \Delta^j f(x_0),$$

where

$$s = \frac{x - x_0}{h}$$

and

$$\binom{s}{j} = \frac{s(s-1)\cdots(s-j+1)}{j!}, \quad \binom{s}{0} = 1.$$

*Proof.* The Newton form of the interpolating polynomial is given by

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_j] \prod_{i=0}^{j-1} (x - x_i).$$

For equal spacing, we have

$$x - x_k = (x - x_0) - kh = h \left( \frac{x - x_0}{h} - k \right)$$

Define  $s = \frac{x - x_0}{h}$ , then

$$\prod_{i=0}^{j-1} (x - x_i) = h^j \prod_{i=0}^{j-1} (s - i) = h^j \frac{s(s-1)\cdots(s-j+1)}{j!} j! = h^j \binom{s}{j} j!.$$

Using the result from part (a), we substitute  $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_j] = \frac{1}{j!h^j} \Delta^j f(x_0)$  into the Newton form:

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_n(x) &= \sum_{j=0}^n \left( \frac{1}{j!h^j} \Delta^j f(x_0) \right) \left( h^j \binom{s}{j} j! \right) \\
 &= \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{s}{j} \Delta^j f(x_0).
 \end{aligned}$$

□