

INTERPOLATION

Interpolation is the process of estimating intermediate values between precise data points or approximating complicated functions by simple polynomials:

Two main applications:

- 1) Constructing the function when it is not given explicitly and only the values of $f(x)$ or its certain derivatives are given at some points.
- 2) Replacing complicated function by an interpolating polynomials so that many operations such as determination of roots, differentiation and integration may be performed.

IDEA: Weierstrass approximation theorem:

Suppose that f is defined and continuous on $[a, b]$. For each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a polynomial $P(x)$ with the property that

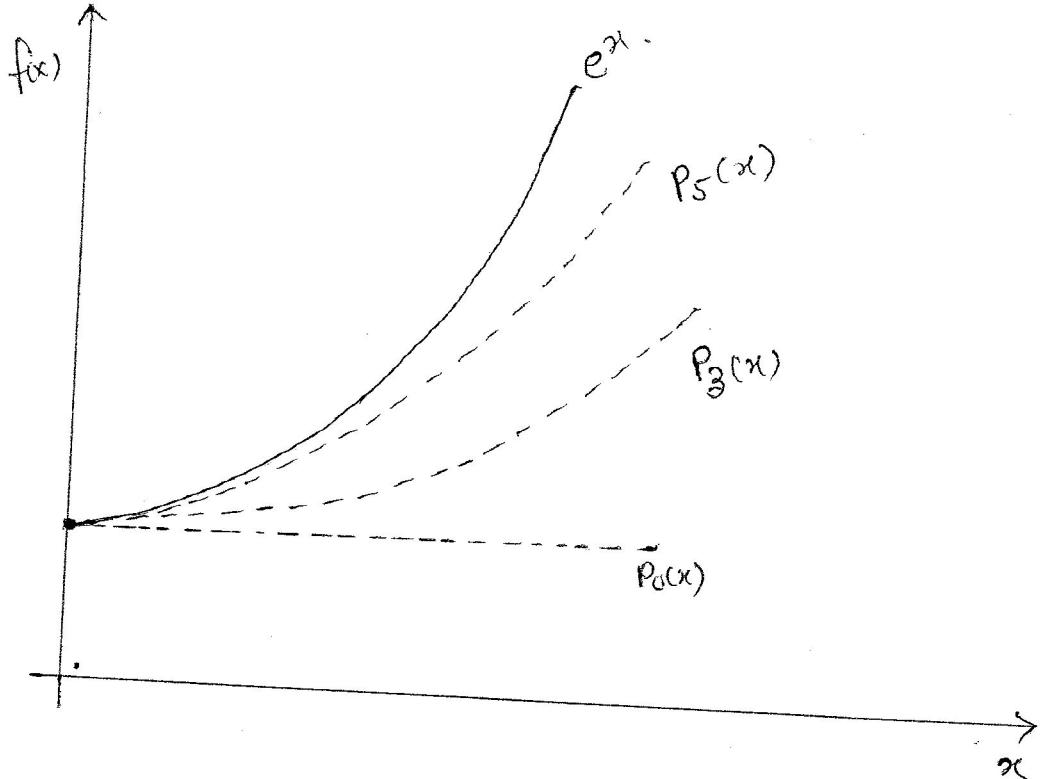
$$|f(x) - P(x)| < \epsilon, \text{ for all } x \text{ in } [a, b].$$

Why not Taylor's Polynomials: Taylor polynomials agree as closely as possible with a given function at a specific point, but they concentrate their accuracy near that point. Consider $f(x) = e^x$. Consider Taylor's polynomial around $x=0$.

$$P_0(x) = 1 \quad P_1(x) = 1 + x \quad P_2(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$P_3(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} \quad P_4(x) = 1 + x + \dots + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^4}{24}$$

$$P_5(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots + \frac{x^4}{24} + \frac{x^5}{120}$$

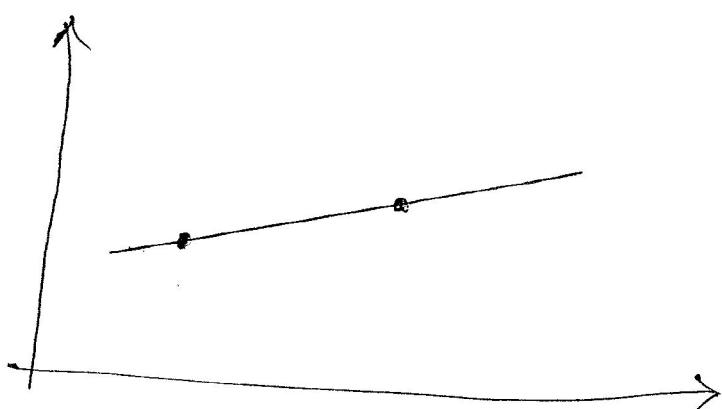


For ordinary computation purposes it is more efficient to use methods that include information at various points.

The most commonly used method for this purpose is polynomial interpolation.

For $(n+1)$ data points there is one and only one polynomial of order $\leq n$ that passes through all the points.

For example there is only one straight line (a first order polynomial) that passes through two points.



Although there is a unique n th order polynomial that fits $(n+1)$ data points, there are a variety of mathematical formats in which this polynomial can be expressed. Examples:

- Newton's divided difference formula ✓
- Lagrange interpolation formula ✓
- Newton's forward and backward interpolation formula ✓
- - -

We shall mainly discuss Newton's divided difference, and Lagrange Newton's forward and backward interpolation formulas.

Fundamental approach for polynomial interpolation:

Consider a n th order polynomial

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_n x^n.$$

A straight forward method for computing the coefficients of this polynomial is based on the fact that $(n+1)$ data points are required to determine $(n+1)$ unknowns.

Consider a second order polynomial

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2.$$

Suppose there are three given data points $(x_0, f(x_0))$, $(x_1, f(x_1))$, $(x_2, f(x_2))$.

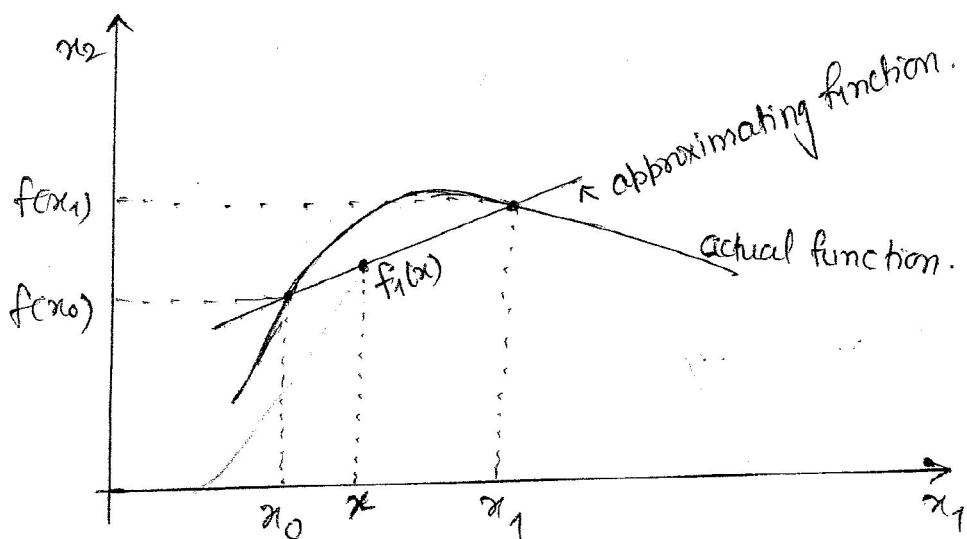
This polynomial must satisfy the data points

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} f(x_0) = a_0 + a_1x_0 + a_2x_0^2 \\ f(x_1) = a_0 + a_1x_1 + a_2x_1^2 \\ f(x_2) = a_0 + a_1x_2 + a_2x_2^2 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \text{get } a_i$$

In practice this is observed that this system of equations is ill-conditioned. Whether they are solved with an elimination method or with a more efficient algorithm, the resulting coeff. can be highly inaccurate in particular for large n . Therefore we have some mathematical formats (interpolating formulae) in which such calculations can be avoided.

Necoton's divided-difference interpolating polynomials:

1 Linear case: The simplest form of interpolation is to connect two data points with a straight line:



INTERPOLATING POLYNOMIALS USING FINITE DIFFERENCES

Finite difference operators:

Let the tabular point x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n be equally spaced, that is,
 $x_i = x_0 + ih, i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$

- The shift operator: $E^1 f(x_i) = f(x_i + h)$
- The forward difference operator: $\Delta f(x_i) = f(x_i + h) - f(x_i)$
- The backward difference operator: $\nabla f(x_i) = f(x_i) - f(x_i - h)$
- The central difference operator: $\delta f(x_i) = f(x_i + \frac{h}{2}) - f(x_i - \frac{h}{2})$

It can be easily verified that

$$\Delta f_i = \nabla f_{i+1} = \delta f_{i+\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\square \quad \Delta = E - 1$$

$$\square \quad \nabla = 1 - E^{-1}$$

$$\delta = E^{\frac{1}{2}} - E^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

Higher order differences: forward: $\Delta^2 f(x_i) = \Delta[\Delta f(x_i)]$

$$= \Delta[f_{i+1} - f_i] = f_{i+2} - f_{i+1} - f_{i+1} + f_i$$

$$= f_{i+2} - 2f_{i+1} + f_i$$

Similarly: $\Delta^3 f_i = f_{i+3} - 3f_{i+2} + 3f_{i+1} - f_i$

$$\Delta^n f(x_i) = (E - 1)^n f(x_i) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \frac{\underline{m}}{\underline{k \ (n-k)}} f_{i+n-k}$$

Backward: $\nabla^2 f(x_i) = \nabla[\nabla f(x_i)] = \nabla[f_i - f_{i-1}]$

$$= f_i - f_{i-1} - f_{i-1} + f_{i-2}$$

$$= f_i - 2f_{i-1} + f_{i-2}$$

$$\nabla^n f(x_i) = (1 - E^{-1})^n f(x_i) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \frac{\underline{m}}{\underline{k \ (n-k)}} f_{i-k}$$

Table 1: Forward difference table:

x	$f(x)$	Δf	$\Delta^2 f$	$\Delta^3 f$
x_0	f_0			
x_1	f_1	Δf_0	$\Delta^2 f_0$	
x_2	f_2	Δf_1	$\Delta^2 f_1$	$\Delta^3 f_0$
x_3	f_3	Δf_2	$\Delta^2 f_2$	

Table 2: Backward difference table:

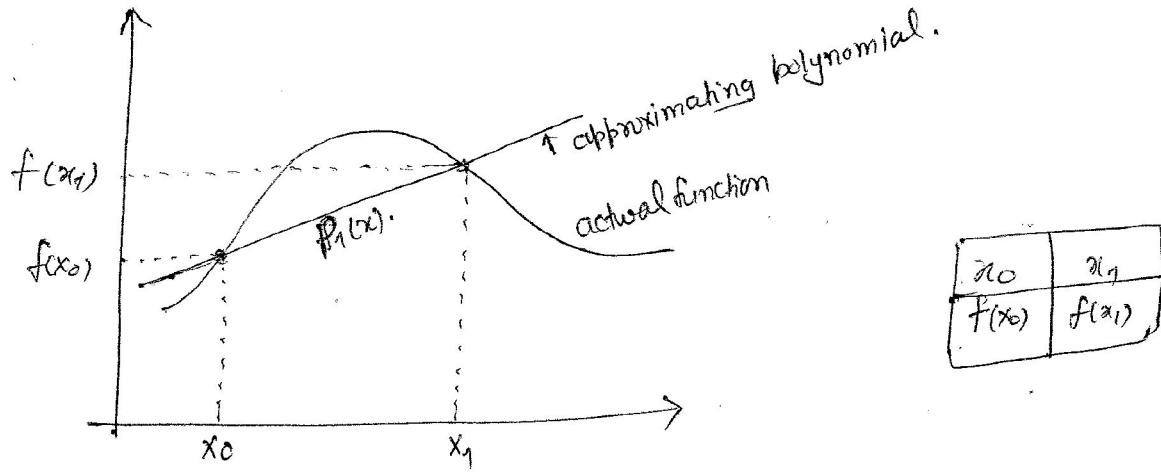
x	$f(x)$	∇f	$\nabla^2 f$	$\nabla^3 f$
x_0	f_0			
x_1	f_1	∇f_1		
x_2	f_2	∇f_2	$\nabla^2 f_2$	
x_3	f_3	∇f_3	$\nabla^2 f_3$	$\nabla^3 f_3$

Table 3: Central difference table:

x	$f(x)$	δf	$\delta^2 f$	$\delta^3 f$	$\delta^4 f$
x_0	f_0				
x_1	f_1	$\delta f_{1/2}$			
x_2	f_2	$\delta f_{3/2}$	$\delta^2 f_1$		
x_3	f_3	$\delta f_{5/2}$	$\delta^2 f_2$	$\delta^3 f_{3/2}$	
x_4	f_4	$\delta f_{7/2}$	$\delta^2 f_3$	$\delta^3 f_{5/2}$	$\delta^4 f_2$

Necoton's Forward Difference Interpolation

1. Linear Case: The simplest form of interpolation is to connect two data points with a straight line:



Let us consider the general equation of straight line:

$$P_1(x) = b_0 + b_1(x - x_0)$$

$$y = a_0 + a_1 x$$

at the point $x = x_0$,

$$P_1(x_0) = \boxed{f(x_0) = b_0}$$

at the point $x = x_1$

$$P_1(x_1) = f(x_1) = b_0 + b_1(x_1 - x_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} = b_1$$

Let us consider the equidistant data points.

$$b_1 = \frac{f(x_0+h) - f(x_0)}{h} = \frac{\Delta f_0}{h}$$

So,

$$\boxed{P_1(x) = f(x_0) + (x - x_0) \frac{\Delta f_0}{h}}$$

II Quadratic Interpolation:

If three data points are available this can be accomplished with a second order polynomial. Let us consider a general second order polynomial.

$$P_2(x) = b_0 + b_1(x-x_0) + b_2(x-x_0)(x-x_1)$$

- at the point $x=x_0$:

$$\boxed{b_0 = f(x_0)}$$

- at the point $x=x_1$:

$$\frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} = b_1 \Rightarrow b_1 = \frac{\Delta f_0}{h} \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{in case of} \\ \text{equidistant} \\ \text{points} \end{array} \right)$$

- at the point $x=x_2$:

$$f(x_2) = f(x_0) + \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{h} (x_2 - x_0) + b_2 (x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_2) = f(x_0) + 2f(x_1) - 2f(x_0) + 2h^2 b_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{f(x_2) - 2f(x_1) + f(x_0)}{2h^2} = b_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Delta^2 f_0}{2 \cdot h^2} = b_2.$$

Interpolating polynomial:

$$\boxed{P_2(x) = f(x_0) + (x-x_0) \frac{\Delta f_0}{2 \cdot h} + (x-x_0)(x-x_1) \frac{\Delta^2 f_0}{2 \cdot h^2}.}$$

We can now write the Newton's Forward Difference interpolation formula based on $(n+1)$ nodal points x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n as

$$P_n(x) = f_0 + (x-x_0) \frac{\Delta f_0}{\underline{1} \cdot h} + (x-x_0)(x-x_1) \frac{\Delta^2 f_0}{\underline{2} \cdot h^2} + \dots + (x-x_0)(x-x_1) \dots (x-x_{n-1}) \frac{\Delta^n f_0}{\underline{n} \cdot h^n} \quad - (*)$$

If we put $\frac{x-x_0}{h} = u$ then it takes the following form:

$$P_n(x_0 + hu) = f_0 + u \Delta f_0 + \frac{u(u-1)}{\underline{1} \cdot 2} \Delta^2 f_0 + \dots + \frac{u(u-1) \dots (u-n+1)}{\underline{1} \cdot n} \Delta^n f_0. \quad - (**)$$

Alternative Derivation:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f\left(x_0 + \frac{x-x_0}{h} h\right) = f(x_0 + uh) \\ &= E^u f(x_0) \\ &= (1+\Delta)^u f(x_0) \\ &= f_0 + u \Delta f_0 + \frac{u(u-1)}{\underline{1} \cdot 2} \Delta^2 f_0 + \dots + \frac{u(u-1) \dots (u-n+1)}{\underline{1} \cdot n} \Delta^n f_0 \\ &\quad + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Neglecting the difference $\Delta^{n+1} f_0$ and higher order differences we get $(**)$.

Newton's Backward Difference Formula:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= f\left(x_n + \frac{x-x_n}{h} h\right) = f(x_n + hu) \\
 &= E^u f(x_n) \\
 &= (1-\nabla)^{-u} f(x_n) \\
 &= f(x_n) + u \nabla f(x_n) + \frac{u(u+1)}{2} \nabla^2 f(x_n) + \dots + \\
 &\quad \frac{u(u+1) \dots (u+n-1)}{n!} \nabla^n f(x_n) + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

Where $\frac{x-x_n}{h} = u$.

Neglecting the difference $\nabla^{n+1} f(x_n)$ and higher order differences we get interpolating polynomial

$$P_n(x_n + hu) = f_n + u \nabla f_n + \frac{u(u+1)}{2} \nabla^2 f_n + \dots + \frac{u(u+1)(u+2)\dots(u+n)}{n!} \nabla^n f_n$$

OR.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_n(x) &= f_n + \frac{(x-x_n) \nabla f_n}{1 \cdot h} + \frac{(x-x_n)(x-x_{n-1})}{2 \cdot h^2} \nabla^2 f_n + \dots \\
 &+ \frac{(x-x_n)(x-x_{n-1}) \dots (x-x_1)}{n \cdot h^n} \nabla^n f_n.
 \end{aligned}$$

Example: Find the cubic polynomial which takes the following values

x	0	1	2	3
$f(x)$	1	2	1	10

Use Newton's Forward and Backward interpolation.

Solution: The difference table:

x	$f(x)$	$\Delta f / \nabla f$	$\Delta^2 f / \square f$	$\Delta^3 f / \Box f$
0	1	1	-2	
1	2	-1		12
2	1	9	10	
3	10			

Forward: $P_3(x) = f_0 + \frac{(x-x_0)}{h} \Delta f_0 + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)}{2 \cdot h^2} \Delta^2 f_0 + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{3 \cdot h^3} \Delta^3 f_0$

$$= 1 + \frac{(x-0)}{1} \cdot 1 + \frac{(x-0)(x-1)}{2} (-2) + \frac{(x-0)(x-1)(x-2)}{6} 12$$

$$= 1 + x - x^2 + x^3 - 6x^2 + 4x$$

$$= 2x^3 - 7x^2 + 6x + 1. \quad \underline{\text{Ans.}}$$

Backward:

$$P_3(x) = f_3 + \frac{(x-x_3)}{(-1)h} \nabla f_3 + \frac{(x-x_3)(x-x_2)}{2 \cdot h^2} \nabla^2 f_3$$

$$+ \frac{(x-x_3)(x-x_2)(x-x_1)}{3 \cdot h^3} \nabla^3 f_3$$

$$= 10 + \frac{(x-3) \cdot 9}{-2} + \frac{(x-3)(x-2)}{2} 10$$

$$+ \frac{(x-3)(x-2)(x-1)}{6} 12.$$

$$= 10 + 9x - 27 + 5x^2 - 25x + 30$$

$$+ 2(x^3 - 6x^2 + 11x - 6)$$

$$= 2x^3 - 7x^2 + 6x + 1. \quad \underline{\text{Ans.}}$$

Example: Construct Newton's forward interpolation polynomial for the following table:

(16)

x	4	6	8	10
y	1	3	8	16

Hence evaluate
 y for $x=5$.

Solution: Difference table.

x	y	Δy	$\Delta^2 y$	$\Delta^3 y$
4	1	2	3	
6	3	5	0	
8	8	8	3	
10	16			

$$P(x) = 1 + \frac{(x-4)}{2} \cdot 2 + \frac{(x-4)(x-6)}{(2 \cdot 2)^2} \cdot 3$$

$$= 1 + x - 4 + \frac{3}{8} (x^2 - 10x + 24)$$

$$= 6 - \frac{11}{4}x + \frac{3}{8}x^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(5) &= 6 - \frac{11}{4} \times 5 + \frac{3}{8} \times 25 \\ &= 1.625 \end{aligned}$$

Ans.

Example: Estimate the values of $f(22)$ and $f(42)$ from the following available data:

x	20	25	30	35	40	45
$f(x)$	354	332	291	260	231	204

Difference table:

x	f(x)	$\Delta f(x)/\Delta^1 f(x)$	$\Delta^2 f/\Delta^2 f$	$\Delta^3 f/\Delta^3 f$	Δ^4	Δ^5
20	354	-22	-19			
25	332	-41	10	29	-37	
30	291	-31	2	-8	8	45
35	260	-29	2	0		
40	231	-27				
45	204					

$f(22)$: $x=22, x_0=20, h=5$

$$u = \frac{2}{5}$$

$$P(22) = f_0 + u \Delta f_0 + \frac{u(u-1)}{1!} \Delta^2 f_0 + \frac{u(u-1)(u-2)}{2!} \Delta^3 f_0 + \dots$$

$$= 354 + \frac{2}{5} \cdot (-22) + \frac{\frac{2}{5}(\frac{2}{5}-1)}{2} (49) + \frac{\frac{2}{5}(\frac{2}{5}-1)(\frac{2}{5}-2)}{6} (29)$$

$$+ \frac{\frac{2}{5}(\frac{2}{5}-1)(\frac{2}{5}-2)(\frac{2}{5}-3)}{24} (-37) + \frac{\frac{2}{5}(\frac{2}{5}-1)\dots(\frac{2}{5}-4)}{120} 45$$

Ans-

$$= 352.223$$

$f(42)$: $x=42, x_n=45, u = \frac{x-x_n}{h} = \frac{42-45}{5} = -\frac{3}{5}$

$$P(42) = f_n + u \Delta f_n + \frac{u(u+1)}{1!} \Delta^2 f_n + \dots + \frac{u(u+1)(u+2)(u+3)(u+4)}{5!} \Delta^5 f_n$$

$$= 204 + \frac{(-\frac{3}{5}) \cdot (-27)}{1!} + \frac{(-\frac{3}{5})(-\frac{3}{5}+1)}{2!} (2) + \frac{(-\frac{3}{5})(-\frac{3}{5}+1)(-\frac{3}{5}+2)(-\frac{3}{5}+3)}{4!} 8$$

$$+ \frac{(-\frac{3}{5})\dots(-\frac{3}{5}+4)}{5!} 45$$

$$= 218.6630$$

Ans.

Example:

Apply Newton's backward difference formula to the data below, to obtain a polynomial of degree 4 in x :

x	1	2	3	4	5
y	1	-1	1	-1	1

Solution: Difference table:

	x	y	∇y	$\nabla^2 y$	$\nabla^3 y$	$\nabla^4 y$
x_0	1	1		-2		
x_1	2	-1	2	4	-8	
x_2	3	1	-2	-4		16
x_3	4	-1	2	4	8	
x_4	5	1				

Backward difference formula:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_4(x) &= f_4 + \frac{(x-x_4)}{1 \cdot h} \nabla f_4 + \frac{(x-x_4)(x-x_3)}{2 \cdot h^2} \nabla^2 f_4 \\
 &\quad + \frac{(x-x_4)(x-x_3)(x-x_2)}{3 \cdot h^3} \nabla^3 f_4 + \frac{(x-x_4)(x-x_3)(x-x_2)(x-x_1)}{4 \cdot h^4} \nabla^4 f_4 \\
 &= 1 + \frac{(x-5)}{1}(2) + \frac{(x-5)(x-4)}{2} \cdot 4 + \frac{(x-5)(x-4)(x-3)}{6} \cdot 8 + \\
 &\quad + \frac{(x-5)(x-4)(x-3)(x-2)}{24} \cdot 16 \cdot 2 \\
 &= \frac{2}{3}x^4 - 8x^3 + \frac{100}{3}x^2 - 56x + 31.
 \end{aligned}$$

Ans.

Theorem: Let x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n be $(n+1)$ distinct nodes and let x be a point belonging to the domain of a given function f . Assume that $f \in C^{n+1}(I_x)$, where I_x is the smallest interval containing the nodes x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n and x . Then the interpolation error at the point x is given by

$$E_n(x) = f(x) - P_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} (x-x_0)(x-x_1) \dots (x-x_n).$$

where $\xi \in I_x$.

Proof: For simplicity let us assume $w_{n+1}(x) = (x-x_0)(x-x_1) \dots (x-x_n)$

Note that the result is obviously true if x coincides with any of the interpolation nodes.

Now Define for any $t \in I_x$ the function

$$G(t) = E_n(t) - \frac{w_{n+1}(t) E_n(x)}{w_{n+1}(x)} \quad t \in I_x$$

Since $f \in C^{n+1}(I_x)$ and w_{n+1} is a polynomial, then $G \in C^{(n+1)}(I_x)$ and it has $n+2$ distinct zeros in I_x since

$$G(x_i) = E_n(x_i) - \frac{w_{n+1}(x_i) E_n(x)}{w_{n+1}(x)} = 0 \quad i = 0, \dots, n.$$

$$G(x) = E_n(x) - \frac{w_{n+1}(x) E_n(x)}{w_{n+1}(x)} = 0.$$

Then Using mean value theorem: G' has at least $(n+1)$ distinct zeros.

By recursion it follows that $G^{(j)}$ admits at least $n+2-j$ distinct zeros.

$\Rightarrow G^{(n+1)}$ has at least one zero, which we denote by ξ .

$$\text{We know } E_n^{(n+1)}(t) = f^{(n+1)}(t) \quad (\text{since } E_n(t) = f(t) - P_n(t))$$

$$\text{and } w_{n+1}^{(n+1)}(x) = \underline{\lambda^{n+1}}.$$

We get

$$G^{(n+1)}(t) = f^{(n+1)}(t) - \frac{(n+1)}{c_{n+1}(x)} E_n(x)$$

at $t = \xi$.

$$0 = f^{(n+1)}(\xi) - \frac{(n+1)}{c_{n+1}(x)} E_n(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow E_n(x) = \boxed{\frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)} \cdot c_{n+1}(x)}$$

Newton's Divided-Difference interpolating polynomials: (Non-equi-distant points) (Works also for)

Linear Case: A general equation of the straight line.

$$P_1(x) = b_0 + b_1(x - x_0)$$

at the point $x = x_0$:

$$P_1(x_0) = \boxed{f(x_0) = b_0}$$

at the point $x = x_1$:

$$P_1(x_1) = f(x_1) = f(x_0) + b_1(x_1 - x_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow b_1 = \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} = f[x_1, x_0] \text{ divided difference.}$$

so, $\boxed{P_1(x) = f(x_0) + f[x_1, x_0](x - x_0)}$

Quadratic Interpolation: Let us assume we have three data points $(x_0, f(x_0))$, $(x_1, f(x_1))$ & $(x_2, f(x_2))$

In this case we can fit a polynomial of degree 2.

$$P_2(x) = b_0 + b_1(x - x_0) + b_2(x - x_0)(x - x_1)$$

at $x = x_0$:

$$\boxed{P_2(x) = f(x_0) = b_0}$$

at $x = x_1$:

$$P_2(x_1) = f(x_1) = b_0 + b_1(x_1 - x_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0}}_{f[x_1, x_0]} = b_1$$

at $x = x_2$:

$$f(x_2) = f(x_0) + \underbrace{\frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0}}_{f[x_1, x_0]} (x_2 - x_0) + b_2 (x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} b_2 &= \frac{\frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} - \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0}}{x_2 - x_0} \\ &= \frac{f[x_2, x_1] - f[x_1, x_0]}{x_2 - x_0} \\ &= f[x_2; x_1, x_0]. \end{aligned}$$

So,

$$P_2(x) = f(x_0) + f[x_1, x_0](x - x_0) + f[x_2, x_1, x_0](x - x_0)(x - x_1)$$

General form of Newton's interpolating polynomials:

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &= f(x_0) + (x - x_0) f[x_1, x_0] + (x - x_0)(x - x_1) f[x_2, x_1, x_0] + \dots \\ &\quad \dots + (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \dots (x - x_{n-1}) f[x_n, x_{n-1}, \dots, x_0]. \end{aligned}$$

This is called Newton's divided difference interpolating polynomials.

Lagrange interpolating polynomials: (works also for non-equi-distant points) (22)

The Lagrange interpolating polynomial is again simply a reformulation of the Newton's polynomials that avoids the computation of divided differences.

Linear: Newton's divided difference formula:

$$\begin{aligned} P_1(x) &= f(x_0) + f[x_1/x_0](x-x_0) \\ &= f(x_0) + \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} (x-x_0) \\ &= \frac{x-x_1}{x_0-x_1} f(x_0) + \frac{x-x_0}{x_1-x_0} f(x_1) \\ &= L_0(x) f(x_0) + L_1(x) f(x_1) \end{aligned}$$

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n L_i(x) f(x_i)$$

$L_i(x)$ are called Lagrange coefficient, defined as: (Lagrange fundamental Polynomials).

$$L_i(x) = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{x-x_j}{x_i-x_j} = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1) \dots (x-x_{i-1})(x-x_{i+1}) \dots (x-x_n)}{(x_i-x_0)(x_i-x_1) \dots (x_i-x_{i-1})(x_i-x_{i+1}) \dots (x_i-x_n)}$$

Note that

$$L_i(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n \\ 1 & x = x_i \end{cases}$$

In general, suppose $(n+1)$ data points $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ are given then,

$$P_n(x) = \boxed{\sum_{i=0}^n L_i(x) f(x_i)}$$

(23)

Example: Estimate, using Newton's divided difference formula, natural logarithm of 2 using linear interpolation. First perform the computation by interpolating between $\ln 1 = 0$ and $\ln 6 = 1.791759$. Then repeat the procedure but use a smaller interpolation $\ln 1$ to $\ln 4 (1.386294)$. Note that the true value of $\ln 2$ is 0.6931472 .

Solution:

$$(I) \quad f_1(2) = f(1) + \frac{f(6) - f(1)}{6-1} \cdot (2-1)$$

$$= 0 + \frac{1.791759}{5} = 0.3583518.$$

$$(II): \quad f_1(2) = 0 + \frac{1.386294}{3} = 0.462098.$$

Example: Fit a second order polynomial to the given three points:

$$\begin{array}{lll} x_0 = 1 & f(x_0) = 0 & | \ln 1 \\ x_1 = 4 & f(x_1) = 1.386294 & | \ln 4 \\ x_2 = 6 & f(x_2) = 1.791759 & | \ln 6 \end{array}$$

Use the polynomial to evaluate value at $x = 2$.

Sol: $P_2(x) = f(x_0) + f[x_1, x_0](x-x_0) + f[x_2, x_1, x_0](x-x_0)(x-x_1)$

Divided difference table:

x	$f(x)$	$f[x_1, x_0]$	$f[x_2, x_1, x_0]$
1	0	0.462098	
4	1.386294		-0.0518731
6	1.791759	0.2027325	

$$P_2(x) = 0 + 0.462098(x-1) - 0.0518731(x-1)(x-4)$$

$$P_2(2) = 0.5658442$$

Example: Use Lagrange interpolating polynomial of the second order to evaluate $\ln 2$. Given data points are

$x_0 = 1$	$f(x_0) = 0$	$\ln \phi$
$x_1 = 4$	$f(x_1) = 1.386294$	
$x_2 = 6$	$f(x_2) = 1.791760$	

Sol:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_2(2) &= \frac{(2-4)(2-6)}{(1-4)(1-6)} * 0 + \frac{(2-1)(2-6)}{(4-1)(4-6)} * 1.386294 \\
 &\quad + \frac{(2-1)(2-4)}{(6-1)(6-4)} 1.791760 \\
 &= 0.5658442.
 \end{aligned}$$

Ans

Complicated integrals: $\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx$ or $\int_0^\pi x^\pi \sin(\sqrt{x}) dx$ etc.

Necaton's Cotes Integration formulas:

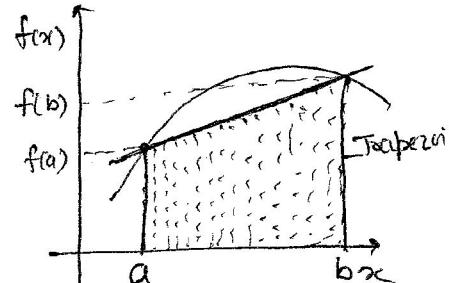
These formulas are based on the strategy of replacing a complicated function or tabulated data with an approximating function that is easy to integrate

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \int_a^b P_n(x) dx$$

(where $P_n(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$)

(1) The trapezoidal rule: (single application)

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \int_a^b P_1(x) dx \\ &= \int_a^b \left[f(a) + \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} (x-a) \right] dx \\ &= f(a)(b-a) + \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} \frac{1}{2} (b-a)^2 \end{aligned}$$



$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx (b-a) \frac{[f(a)+f(b)]}{2}}$$

Problem: Using trapezoidal rule integrate numerically the function

$$f(x) = 0.2 + 25x - 200x^2 + 675x^3 - 900x^4 + 400x^5$$

from $a=0$ to $b=0.8$. Compare result with exact value
of integral 1.640533.

solution: The function values

$$f(0) = 0.2$$

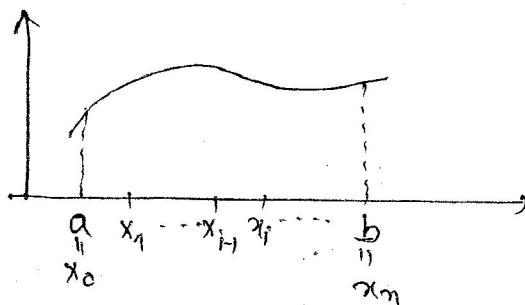
$$f(0.8) = 0.232$$

$$\int_0^{0.8} f(x) dx \approx \frac{0.2 + 0.232}{2} \cdot (0.8 - 0)$$

$$= 0.1728$$

The multiple-application of trapezoidal rule.

To improve accuracy of the trapezoidal rule we divide the integration interval from a to b into a number of segments and apply the method to each segment.



Consider there are $n+1$ equally spaced base points x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n .

$$\text{Then, } h = \frac{b-a}{n}$$

$$I = \int_{x_0}^{x_1} f(x) dx + \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x) dx + \dots + \int_{x_{n-1}}^{x_n} f(x) dx$$

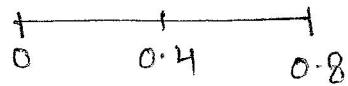
$$\approx h \left[\frac{f(x_0) + f(x_1)}{2} + h \frac{f(x_1) + f(x_2)}{2} + \dots + h \frac{f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)}{2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{h}{2} \left[f(x_0) + 2[f(x_1) + f(x_2) + \dots + f(x_{n-1})] + f(x_n) \right]$$

$$I \approx \frac{h}{2} \left[f(x_0) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(x_i) + f(x_n) \right]$$

Problem: Use the two-segment trapezoidal rule to estimate the integral of $f(x) = 0.2 + 25x - 200x^2 + 675x^3 - 900x^4 + 400x^5$ from $a=0$ to $b=0.8$. (Q7)

Sol:



$$h = \frac{0.8 - 0}{2} = 0.4.$$

$$f(0) = 0.2 \quad f(0.4) = 2.456 \quad f(0.8) = 0.232$$

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_0^{0.8} f(x) dx \approx \frac{0.4}{2} [0.2 + 2(2.456) + 0.232] \\ &= 1.0688. \quad \text{Ans.} \end{aligned}$$

ERROR BOUNDS for the trapezoidal rule:

I) Single application:

We know

$$f(x) - P_1(x) = (x-x_0)(x-x_1) \frac{f''(t)}{2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

with a suitable t depending on x between x_0 and x_1 .

Integrating (1) from x_0 to $x_1 = x_0 + h$, gives:

$$E = \int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} f(x) dx - \frac{h}{2} [f(x_0) + f(x_1)] = \int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} (x-x_0)(x-x_0-h) \frac{f''(t)}{2} dx.$$

Applying weighted mean value theorem ($(x-x_0)(x-x_0-h)$ does not change sign in $[x_0, x_0+h]$), we get

$$E = \frac{f''(t)}{2} \cdot \int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} (x-x_0)(x-x_0-h) dx.$$

$$\text{Subst. } x-x_0 = v \Rightarrow dx = dv$$

$$= \frac{f''(t)}{2} \int_0^h v(v-h) dv = \frac{f''(t)}{2} \left[\frac{1}{3}h^3 - \frac{h \cdot h^2}{2} \right]$$

$$= -\frac{h^3 f''(t)}{12} \quad \text{where } t \in (x_0, x_1).$$

Error in multiple application:

$$E = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left(-\frac{h^3}{12} f''(\tilde{x}_i) \right)$$

$$= -\frac{h^3}{12} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f''(\tilde{x}_i)$$

Using Discrete mean value theorem:

$$= -\frac{h^3}{12} \cdot n \cdot f''(\tilde{t}) \quad \text{with suitable, unknown } \tilde{t} \text{ between } a \text{ and } b.$$

$$E = -\frac{(b-a)}{12} \cdot h^2 f''(\tilde{t})$$

Error bounds:

Let $M_2 = \max_{[x_0, x_n]} |f''(x)|$ Then.

$$|E| \leq \frac{(b-a) h^2}{12} M_2$$

Example: Evaluate the following integral using trapezoidal rule

with $n=2, 4$. Compare with the exact solution.

$$\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{3+2x}$$

Find the bound on the error. Also find the number of subintervals required if the error is to be less than 5×10^{-4} .

Sol: i) number of subintervals = 2 ie $h = 0.5 = \frac{b-a}{n}$

Hence.

$$I_1 = \frac{0.5}{2} [f(0) + 2f(0.5) + f(1)] = \frac{0.5}{2} \left[\frac{1}{3} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} \right] \\ = 0.25833$$

(ii) number of subintervals $n = 4$:

$$h = \frac{1-0}{4} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

$$x_0 = 0 \quad x_1 = \frac{1}{4} \quad x_2 = \frac{2}{4} \quad x_3 = \frac{3}{4} \quad x_4 = 1.$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} I_2 &= \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[f(0) + 2 \left(f(x_1) + f(x_3) \right) + f(1) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \left[\frac{1}{3} + 2 \left\{ \frac{2}{7} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{2}{9} \right\} + \frac{1}{5} \right] \\ &= 0.25615 \end{aligned}$$

Exact solution: $\frac{1}{2} \ln(5) = 0.25541$

Errors: $E_1 = |0.25541 - 0.25615|$
 $= 0.00292$

$$E_2 = |0.25541 - 0.25615| = 0.00074.$$

Errors bounds: $f(x) = \frac{1}{3+2x}, \quad f'(x) = -\frac{2}{(3+2x)^2}$

$$f''(x) = \frac{8}{(3+2x)^3}$$

and $M_2 = \max_{[0,1]} \frac{8}{(3+2x)^3} = \frac{8}{27}$.

Hence. $|Error| \leq \frac{(b-a)h^2}{12} \cdot M_2 = \frac{1}{12} \cdot \frac{1}{3} h^2 \cdot \frac{8}{27}$
 $= \frac{2h^2}{81}$

ij. for $h = \frac{1}{4}$ $|Error| \leq 0.00617$.

ii) for $h = \frac{1}{2}$ $|Error| \leq 0.00154$

given $E = 5 \times 10^{-4}$.

(30)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{(b-a)h^2}{12} M_2 \leq 5 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{(b-a)(b-a)^2}{12n^2} \cdot \frac{8}{27} \leq 5 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1 \times 8}{12 \times 27 \times 5 \times 10^{-4}} \leq n^2$$

$$\Rightarrow 49.38 \leq n^2 \Rightarrow n \geq 7.03.$$

Since n is an integer, we require $n=8$.

Simpson's 1/3 Rule

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \int_a^b P_2(x) dx. \quad \text{Let } x_0 = a, x_1, x_2 = b.$$

$$I \approx \int_{x_0}^{x_2} \left[\frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_0-x_1)(x_0-x_2)} f(x_0) + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)} f(x_1) + \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)}{(x_2-x_0)(x_2-x_1)} f(x_2) \right] dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2h^2} f(x_0) \int_{x_0}^{x_2} (x-x_1)(x-x_1+x_1-x_2) dx$$

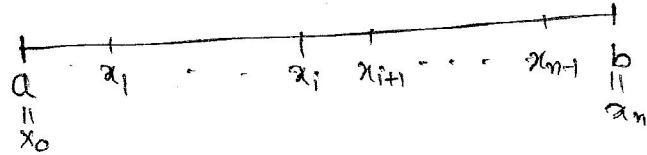
$$- \frac{1}{h^2} f(x_1) \int_{x_0}^{x_2} (x-x_0)(x-x_0+x_0-x_2) dx$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2h^2} f(x_2) \int_{x_0}^{x_2} (x-x_0)(x-x_0+x_0-x_1) dx.$$

$$= \frac{f(x_0)}{2h^2} \left[\frac{1}{3}(h^3+h^3) - h \cdot 0 \right] - \frac{f(x_1)}{h^2} \left[\frac{1}{3}(2h)^3 + \left(-\frac{h}{2}\right) \cdot (2h)^2 \right] + \frac{f(x_2)}{2h^2} \left[\frac{1}{3} \cdot (2h)^3 + \left(-\frac{h}{2}\right) \cdot (2h)^2 \right].$$

$$I \approx \frac{h}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)]$$

multiple application of Simpson's Rule



$$b-a = nh$$

$$I = \int_{x_0}^{x_2} f(x) dx + \int_{x_2}^{x_4} f(x) dx + \dots + \int_{x_{n-2}}^{x_n} f(x) dx$$

$$\approx \frac{h}{3} \left\{ f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2) \right\} + \frac{h}{3} \left\{ f(x_2) + 4f(x_3) + f(x_4) \right\}$$

$$+ \dots + \frac{h}{3} \left\{ f(x_{n-2}) + 4f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n) \right\}$$

$$= \frac{h}{3} \left[f(x_0) + 4 \sum_{i=1,3,5}^{n-1} f(x_i) + 2 \sum_{j=2,4,6}^{n-2} f(x_j) + f(x_n) \right].$$

□.

Error: Single application

$$E = - \frac{h^5}{90} f^{(4)}(\xi) \quad \begin{cases} \xi \in (a, b) \\ \text{or } \xi \in (x_0, x_2) \end{cases}$$

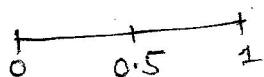
multiple application

$$E = - \frac{b-a}{180} h^4 f^{(4)}(\xi) \quad \begin{cases} \xi \in (a, b) \\ \text{or } \xi \in (x_0, x_n). \end{cases}$$

Example: Evaluate $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{3+2x}$ using Simpson's rule with $n=2, 4$.

Compare with the exact solution.

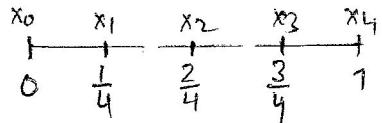
Sol: $n=2$:



$$I \approx \frac{h}{3} \left[f(0) + 4f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + f(1) \right] = \frac{0.5}{3} \left[\frac{1}{3} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} \right]$$

$$= 0.25556.$$

For $n=4$:



(32)

$$h = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\begin{aligned} I &\approx \frac{h}{3} \left[f(0) + 4 \left\{ f\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + f\left(\frac{3}{4}\right) \right\} + 2 f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + f(1) \right] \\ &= 0.25542. \quad \underline{\text{Ans}} \end{aligned}$$

Discrete mean value theorem:

Let $f \in C[a, b]$ and let x_j be $n+1$ points in $[a, b]$ and c_j be $(n+1)$ constants, all having the same sign. Then there exists $\xi \in [a, b]$ such that

$$\sum_{j=0}^n c_j f(x_j) = f(\xi) \sum_{j=0}^n c_j$$

In particular, if $c_j = 1 \ \forall j=0, \dots, n$.

Then

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{j=0}^n f(x_j) = f(\xi)}$$

Weighted mean value theorem: Assume f and g are continuous in $[a, b]$ if g never changes sign in $[a, b]$. Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx = f(c) \int_a^b g(x) dx. \quad c \in [a, b].$$

Transcendental and polynomial equations (Determination of the roots)

Problem:

Determination of the root of an equation of the form

$$f(x) = 0.$$

1. Fixed point iteration method
2. Bisection method
3. Newton's method or Newton-Raphson method
4. Secant method.

Fixed point iteration method:

We transform $f(x) = 0$ into the form

$$x = g(x)$$

and then setup an iteration method:

$$x_{n+1} = g(x_n) \quad n = 0, 1, \dots \quad (*)$$

A solution of (*) is called a fixed point of g .

The choice of g is not unique.

Convergence of fixed point iteration:

Let $x = s$ be a solution of $x = g(x)$ and suppose that g has a continuous derivative in some interval J containing s . Then if $|g'(x)| \leq k < 1$ in J the iteration scheme $x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$ converges for any x_0 in J .

Example: Find a solution of $f(x) = x^3 + x - 1 = 0$ by fixed point iteration method.

Sol: $x^3 + x - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow x(x^2 + 1) = 1 \Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{1+x^2} =: g(x)$

iteration method becomes:

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{1+x_n^2}$$

Note that $g(x) = \frac{2x}{(1+x^2)^2}$

take $x_0 = 0$.

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{1+0} = 1$$

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5$$

$$x_3 = 0.800$$

$$x_4 = 0.6098$$

$$x_5 = 0.7290 \quad x_6 = 0.6530 \quad x_7 = 0.7011$$

$$x_8 = 0.6705 \quad x_9 = 0.6899 \quad x_{10} = 0.6775$$

$$x_{11} = 0.6854 \quad x_{12} = 0.6804 \quad x_{13} = 0.6836$$

$$x_{14} = 0.6815 \quad x_{15} = 0.6829 \quad x_{16} = 0.6820$$

Bisection Method: The bisection method is based on the following property:

Theorem for zeros of continuous functions: Given a continuous function $f: [a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(a)f(b) < 0$, then $\exists x \in [a,b]$ such that $f(x) = 0$.

Algorithm: Starting from $I_0 = [a,b]$ so that $f(a)f(b) < 0$,

the bisection method generates a sequence of subintervals $I_k = [a^{(k)}, b^{(k)}]$ $k \geq 0$ with $I_k \subset I_{k+1}$, $k \geq 1$.

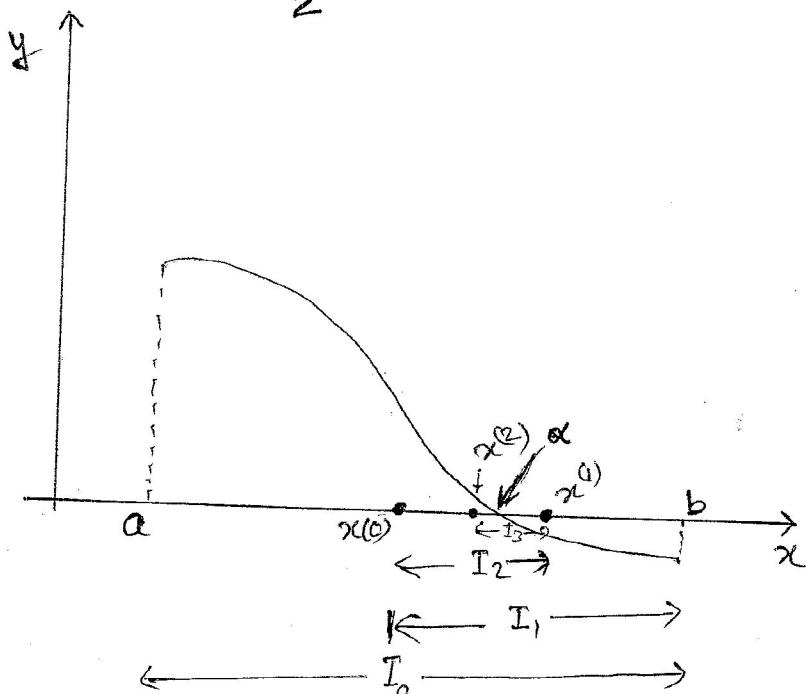
and enjoy the property that $f(a^{(k)})f(b^{(k)}) < 0$.

Precisely we set $a^{(0)} = a$ & $b^{(0)} = b$ and
 $\alpha^{(0)} = \frac{a^{(0)} + b^{(0)}}{2}$ then for $k \geq 0$:

set $a^{(k+1)} = a^{(k)}$, $b^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)}$ if $f(x^{(k)})f(a^{(k)}) < 0$;

set $a^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)}$, $b^{(k+1)} = b^{(k)}$ if $f(x^{(k)})f(b^{(k)}) < 0$;

set $x^{(k+1)} = \frac{a^{(k+1)} + b^{(k+1)}}{2}$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Note that } |I_k| &= \frac{|I_0|}{2^k}, \quad k \geq 0 \\ &= \frac{b-a}{2^k}, \quad k \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Denoting $e^{(k)} = x^{(k)} - \alpha$. (absolute error at step k)

$$\text{It follows } |e^{(k)}| < \frac{|I_k|}{2} = \frac{(b-a)}{2^{k+1}}, \quad k \geq 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |e^{(k)}| = 0$$

The bisection method is therefore globally convergent.

(56)

Example: Perform five iterations of the bisection method to obtain the smallest positive root of the equation

$$f(x) = x^3 - 5x + 1 = 0.$$

Sol: Since $f(0) = 1$ & $f(1) = -3$

$$\because f(0)f(1) < 0,$$

the smallest positive root lies in the interval $(0, 1)$.

take $a_0 = 0$ & $b_0 = 1$.

~~initial~~ { $x_0 = \frac{0+1}{2} = 0.5$

$$f(a_0)f(x_0) < 0$$

1st iter. $\underbrace{a_1 = 0}_{f > 0}$ $\underbrace{b_1 = 0.5}_{f < 0}$ $\underbrace{x_1 = 0.25}_{f < 0}$ $f(a_1)f(x_1) < 0$

2nd iter. $\underbrace{a_2 = 0}_{f > 0}$ $\underbrace{b_2 = 0.25}_{f < 0}$ $\underbrace{x_2 = 0.125}_{f > 0}$ $f(b_2)f(x_2) < 0$

3rd iter. $\underbrace{a_3 = 0.125}_{f > 0}$ $\underbrace{b_3 = 0.25}_{f < 0}$ $\underbrace{x_3 = 0.1875}_{f > 0}$ $f(b_3)f(x_3) < 0$

4th iter. $\underbrace{a_4 = 0.1875}_{f > 0}$ $\underbrace{b_4 = 0.25}_{f < 0}$ $\underbrace{x_4 = 0.21875}_{f < 0}$ $f(a_4)f(x_4) < 0$

The root lies in $(0.1875, 0.21875)$

The approximate root is taken as the mid-point of this interval
that is, $\underline{\underline{x_5}} = 0.203125$.

Newton Raphson method:

Let x_k be an approximation to the root of $f(x) = 0$.

Let Δx be an increment in x such that $x_k + \Delta x$ is an exact root.

Then $f(x_k + \Delta x) = 0$

Expanding Taylor series about the point x_k , we get

$$f(x_k) + \Delta x f'(x_k) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^2 f''(x_k) + \dots = 0$$

Neglecting second and higher powers of Δx , we get

$$f(x_k) + \Delta x f'(x_k) \approx 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta x \approx -\frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}$$

Hence we get the iteration method

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \Delta x = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}, \quad k=0, 1, \dots$$

$$\boxed{x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}}$$

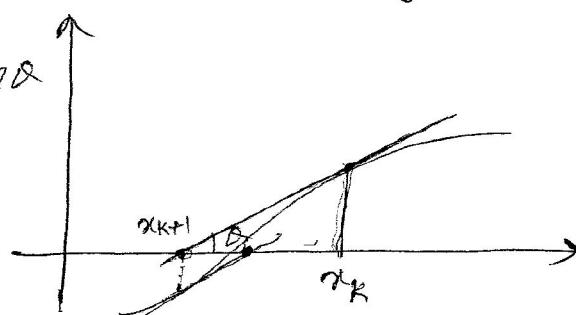
Alternatively: function is approximated by its tangent line.

Then x -intercept gives better approximation of the root.

From the figure:

$$\frac{f(x_k) - 0}{(x_k - x_{k+1})} = f'(x_k) = \text{tang}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}}$$



Example: Perform four iterations of the Newton-Raphson method to find the smallest positive root of the equation

$$f(x) = x^3 - 5x + 1 = 0.$$

Solution: The smallest positive root lies in the interval $(0, 1)$. Take the initial approximation as $x_0 = 0.5$. We have

$$f(x) = x^3 - 5x + 1 = 0$$

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 5$$

N-R method:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{x_k^3 - 5x_k + 1}{3x_k^2 - 5}$$

$$= \frac{2x_k^3 - 1}{3x_k^2 - 5} \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

$$x_0 = 0.5$$

$$x_0 = 0.5$$

$$x_1 = 0.1764705882$$

$$x_1 = 0.1764705882$$

$$x_2 = 0.2015680743$$

$$x_2 = 0.2015680743$$

$$x_3 = 0.2016396750$$

$$x_3 = 0.2016396750$$

$$x_4 = 0.2016396757$$

$$x_4 = 0.2016396757$$

Example: Apply Newton-Raphson's method to determine a root of the equation

$$f(x) = \cos x - xe^x = 0$$

such that $|f(x^*)| < 10^{-8}$, where x^* is the approximation to the root. Take the initial approximation as $x_0 = 1$.

Solution:

$$x_0 = 1.$$

$$\begin{aligned}x_{k+1} &= x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)} \\&= x_k - \frac{(cos x_k - x_k e^{x_k})}{(-\sin x_k - e^{x_k} - x_k e^{x_k})}\end{aligned}$$

K	x_K	$f(x_K)$
0	1	
1	0.6531	-0.4606
2	0.5313	-0.0418
3	0.5179	-4.6413×10^{-4}
4	0.5178	-5.9268×10^{-8}
5	0.5178	-8.88×10^{-16}

Secant method: Though Newton's method is very powerful,

it requires evaluation of the derivative.

This suggests the idea of replacing derivatives $f'(x_n)$ by the difference quotient.

$$f'(x_n) \approx \frac{f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})}{x_n - x_{n-1}}.$$

The method becomes now

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})} (x_n - x_{n-1}) \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

This is known as Secant method.