

**Elementary Numerical Analysis**  
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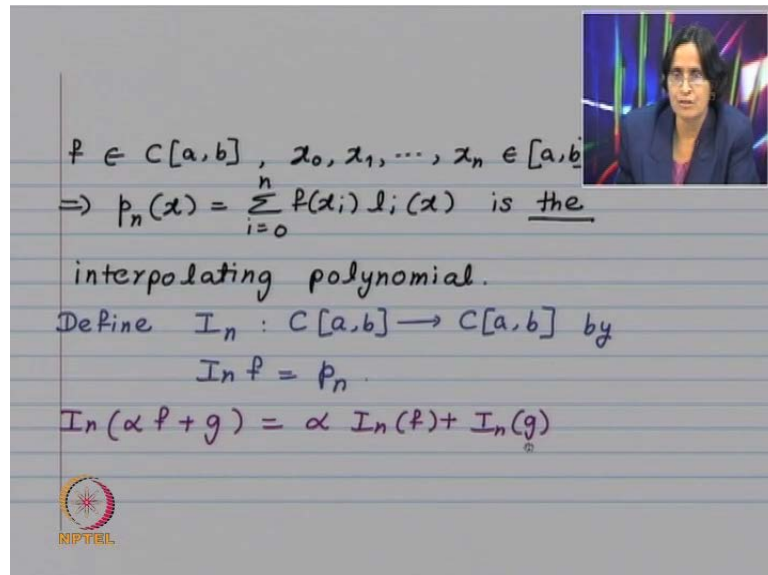
**Module No. # 01**

**Lecture No. # 04**


**Properties of Divided Difference**

Last time we have defined divided difference and proved some of the properties of it. Today we are going to prove some more properties of the divided difference, but before that, I want to consider map from  $C[a, b]$  space of continuous functions, which will associate  $f$  with a interpolating polynomial, and we are going to show that this map is linear, and when you consider the three functions  $1$ ,  $x$  and  $x^2$ , then you are going to have convergence.

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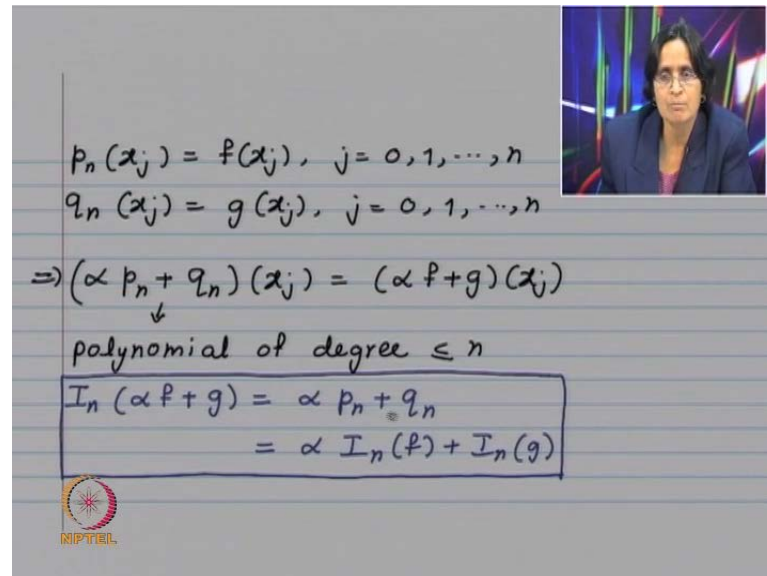
$f \in C[a, b], x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n \in [a, b]$   
 $\Rightarrow p_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) l_i(x)$  is the  
interpolating polynomial.  
Define  $I_n : C[a, b] \rightarrow C[a, b]$  by  
 $I_n f = p_n$   
 $I_n(\alpha f + g) = \alpha I_n(f) + I_n(g)$



So, we look at a continuous function defined on  $C[a, b]$ ,  $x_0, x_1, x_n$  these are  $n+1$  distinct points in the interval  $a, b$ . We know that there is a unique interpolating polynomial, which interpolates the given function at these points  $x_0, x_1, x_n$ . In fact, that interpolating polynomial is given by summation  $i$  goes from  $0$  to  $n$ ,  $f(x_i) l_i(x)$ , so this is the Lagrange form.

Now, consider map  $I_n$  from  $C[a, b]$  to  $C[a, b]$ , which will associate our function  $f$  to the interpolating polynomial.

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$p_n(x_j) = f(x_j), j = 0, 1, \dots, n$   
 $q_n(x_j) = g(x_j), j = 0, 1, \dots, n$   
 $\Rightarrow (\alpha p_n + q_n)(x_j) = (\alpha f + g)(x_j)$   
 polynomial of degree  $\leq n$   
 $I_n(\alpha f + g) = \alpha p_n + q_n$   
 $= \alpha I_n(f) + I_n(g)$

Now, it is easy to see that this map is linear, and by that we mean, that  $I_n$  of  $\alpha f$  plus  $g$  where  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous functions belonging to  $C[a, b]$ ,  $\alpha$  is a real number is equal to  $\alpha$  times  $I_n f$  plus  $I_n g$ ,  $p_n$  interpolates the given function at  $n + 1$  points it is a polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $n$ ,  $q_n$  interpolates  $g$  then when you look at  $\alpha p_n + q_n$  its value at  $x_j$ , that is going to be equal to  $\alpha f + g$  at  $x_j$ . That means  $\alpha p_n + q_n$  is going to interpolate  $\alpha f + g$ . Since,  $p_n$  and  $q_n$  are polynomials of degree less than or equal to  $n$ .

This  $\alpha p_n + q_n$ , it is going to be the interpolating polynomial of  $\alpha f + g$  and hence,  $I_n$  of  $\alpha f + g$  is equal to  $\alpha$  times  $p_n + q_n$ , which is equal to  $\alpha$  times  $I_n f$  plus  $I_n g$ .

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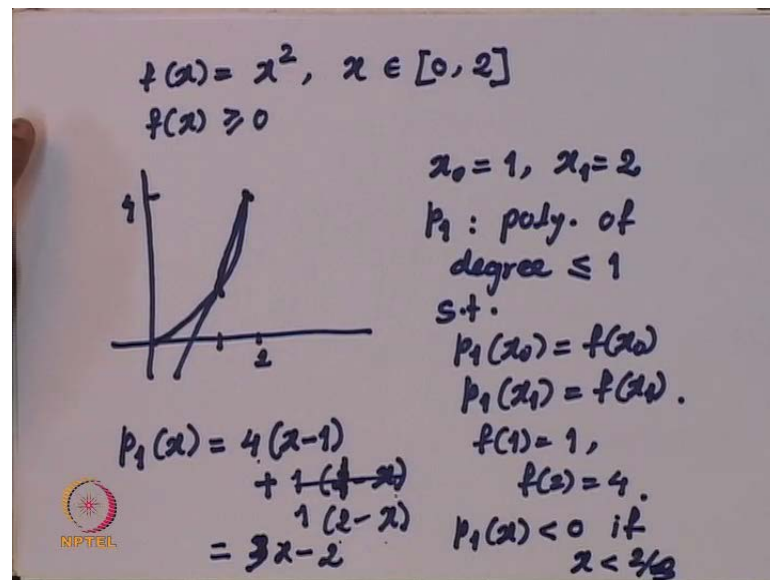
$$\begin{aligned} f(x) = 1 &\Rightarrow I_n(f) = f, n \geq 0 \\ f(x) = x &\Rightarrow I_n(f) = f, n \geq 1 \\ f(x) = x^2 &\Rightarrow I_n(f) = f, n \geq 2 \\ \|I_n(f) - f\|_\infty &\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \\ &\text{for } f(x) = 1, x, x^2. \\ f \geq 0 &\not\Rightarrow I_n(f) \geq 0 \\ \text{Korovkin Theorem: } &\text{not applicable.} \end{aligned}$$


Now, look at the three functions  $f(x)$  is equal to 1. In fact, the interpolating polynomial they reproduce the polynomials, so when  $f(x)$  is equal to 1 interpolating polynomial will be equal to  $f$  for  $n$  bigger than or equal to 0. For the function  $f(x)$  is equal to  $x$ ,  $I_n(f)$  will be equal to  $f$  for  $n$  bigger than or equal to 1 and  $f(x)$  is equal to  $x^2$ , that means  $I_n(f)$  will be equal to  $f$  for  $n$  bigger than or equal to 2 and hence, for these three functions norm of  $I_n(f) - f$  its infinity norm will tend to 0 as  $n$  tends to infinity.

Now, recall Korovkin Theorem, in the Korovkin Theorem it was, that if you have a sequence of maps which are linear and which are positive such that, there is convergence for three functions one  $x$  and  $x^2$ , in that case there is going to be convergence for all continuous functions.

In fact when we wanted to show that the Bernstein polynomials converge to  $f$  in the infinity norm it is Korovkin Theorem, which we have used.

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Now, we have a new map  $I_n$ , which is linear, which converge in for three functions  $1 \times x$  square, but it is not going to be positive, so we can look at a simple example. Look at  $f(x) = x^2$  on the interval  $[0, 2]$ . So, clearly  $f(x) \geq 0$  on this interval.

Now, I am going to look at interpolating polynomial, so the graph of function will be something like this, so here you have got at 2 it is going to take value 4, if I take my interpolating points to be 2 and 1.

So, I choose  $x_0$  is equal to 1 and  $x_1$  is equal to 2 and then I consider the linear polynomial, so I look at  $p_1$ , a polynomial of degree less than or equal to 1, such that  $p_1$  at  $x_0$  is equal to  $f(x_0)$  and  $p_1$  at  $x_1$  is equal to  $f(x_1)$ . We know that it is going to be the straight line passing through the point  $(1, 1)$  and  $(2, 4)$ , in fact we can write  $p_1(x)$  explicitly it is going to be equal to  $f(1) \frac{x-2}{1-2} + f(2) \frac{x-1}{2-1}$ , so it is going to be equal to  $1 \frac{x-2}{-1} + 4(x-1)$ , so it is going to be equal to  $2-x + 4x-4 = 3x-2$ .

So,  $p_1(x)$  will be given by  $4(x-1) + 1(2-x)$ , so that when  $x$  is equal to 2 it is 1 when  $x$  is equal to 2 it is going to be equal to 4 and when  $x$  is equal to 1 then it is going to be equal to so it should be  $1-x$  you want that  $p_1$  at 2 should be equal to 4.

So it will be at 2 it is going to be 4, at 1 it will be 1, so it is 4 into x minus 1 plus 1 into 2 minus x, so that is going to be equal to 3 x minus 2, so our p 1 x is 3 x minus 2, p 1 x will be less than 0 if x is less than 2 by 3.

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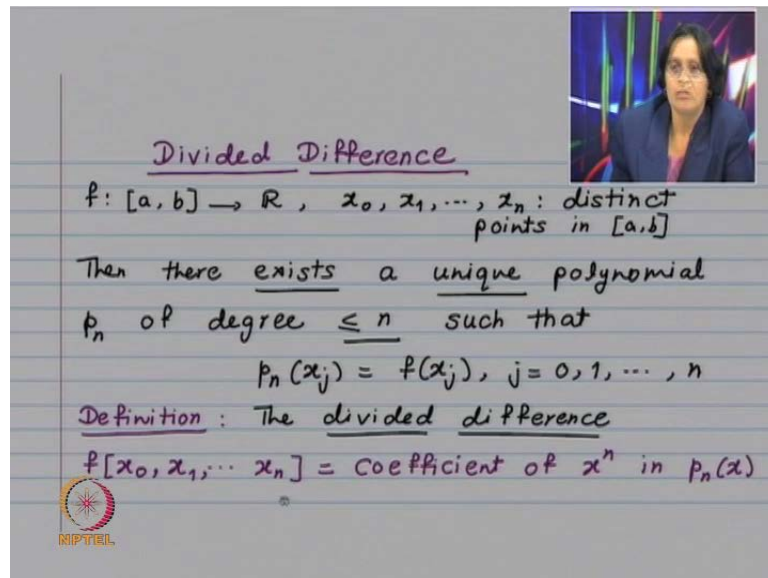
$f(x) = 1 \Rightarrow I_n(f) = f, n \geq 0$   
 $f(x) = x \Rightarrow I_n(f) = f, n \geq 1$   
 $f(x) = x^2 \Rightarrow I_n(f) = f, n \geq 2$   
 $\|I_n(f) - f\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$   
 for  $f(x) = 1, x, x^2$ .  
 $f \geq 0 \not\Rightarrow I_n(f) \geq 0$   
 Korovkin Theorem: not applicable.


So even if  $f(x)$  is bigger than or equal to 0,  $p_1(x)$  need not be bigger than or equal to 0 and hence, you have the Korovkin Theorem it needs the function to be, the map to be positive, which is not the case and hence it is not applicable.

In fact I had said that, for the interpolating polynomial that is going to be problem about the convergence, that not for all continuous functions your interpolating polynomials they are going to converge.

So, the map is it reproduces polynomials and hence, it we are going to have convergence for all polynomials, it will be a linear map but it will not be positive map.

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Divided Difference


$f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ : distinct points in  $[a, b]$

Then there exists a unique polynomial  $p_n$  of degree  $\leq n$  such that

$$p_n(x_j) = f(x_j), j = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

Definition: The divided difference

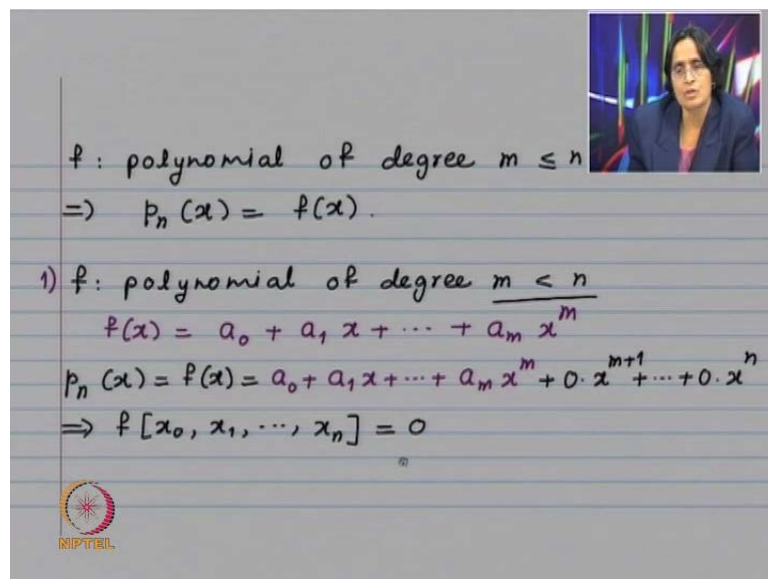
$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = \text{Coefficient of } x^n \text{ in } p_n(x)$$




So, now let us get back to the properties of divided difference, so the divided difference is defined as look at the coefficient of  $x$  raise to  $n$  in the interpolating polynomial  $p_n(x)$

There is a unique polynomial  $p_n$  such that  $p_n(x_j) = f(x_j)$ , so whatever is the coefficient of  $x$  raise to  $n$ , that is going to be our divided difference based on points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ .

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$f$ : polynomial of degree  $m \leq n$


$\Rightarrow p_n(x) = f(x)$

1)  $f$ : polynomial of degree  $m < n$

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_m x^m$$

$$p_n(x) = f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_m x^m + 0 \cdot x^{m+1} + \dots + 0 \cdot x^n$$

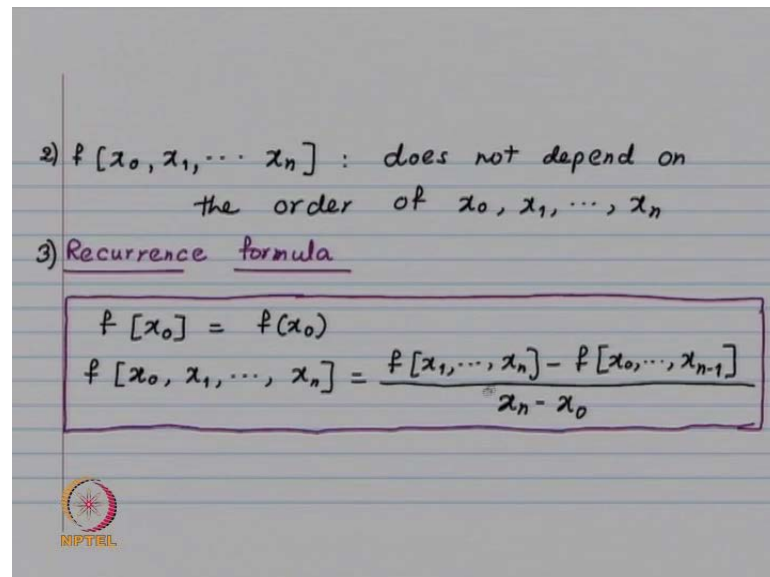
$\Rightarrow f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = 0$



Now, last time we saw that, if  $f$  is the polynomial of degree  $m$  which is less than  $n$  then, the divided difference is going to be 0, because if  $f$  is a polynomial of degree  $m$  which is


less than or equal to  $n$  then in the interpolating polynomial is function itself  $f$  being a polynomial of degree  $m$ , it will be of this form  $a_0$  plus  $a_1 x$  plus  $a_2 x^2$  plus  $a_3 x^3$  plus  $a_4 x^4$  plus  $a_5 x^5$  plus  $a_6 x^6$  plus  $a_7 x^7$  plus  $a_8 x^8$  plus  $a_9 x^9$  plus  $a_{10} x^{10}$ , to that we had  $0$  into  $x$  raise to  $m$  plus  $1$  plus  $0$  into  $x$  raise to  $n$ , so the coefficient  $x$  raise to  $n$  is going to be  $0$ , so this was the first property.

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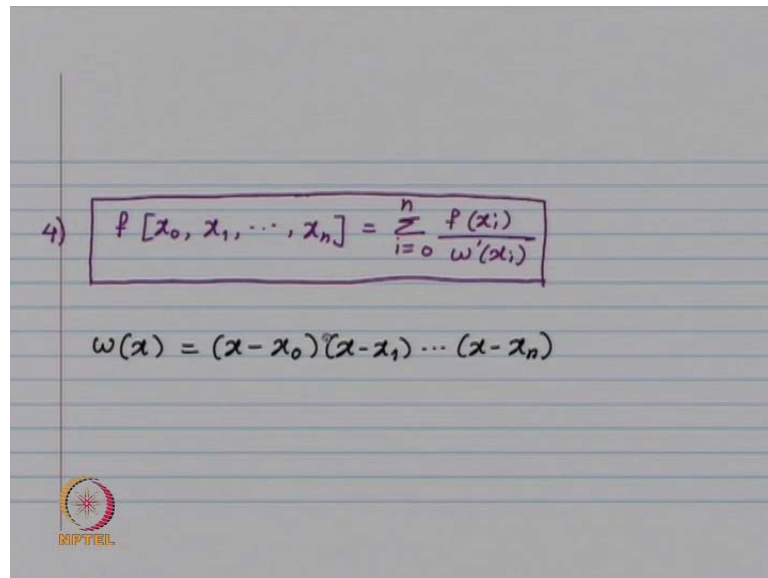
2)  $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$  : does not depend on the order of  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$

3) Recurrence formula

$$f[x_0] = f(x_0)$$
$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = \frac{f[x_1, \dots, x_n] - f[x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}]}{x_n - x_0}$$



Second property is, it does not depend on the order of  $x_0, x_1, x_n$  and the third is important property, which is the recurrence formula, that the divided difference based on  $n$  plus  $1$  points is expressed as difference of two divided differences based on  $n$  points divided by  $x_n$  minus  $x_0$ .

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4) 
$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{f(x_i)}{w'(x_i)}$$

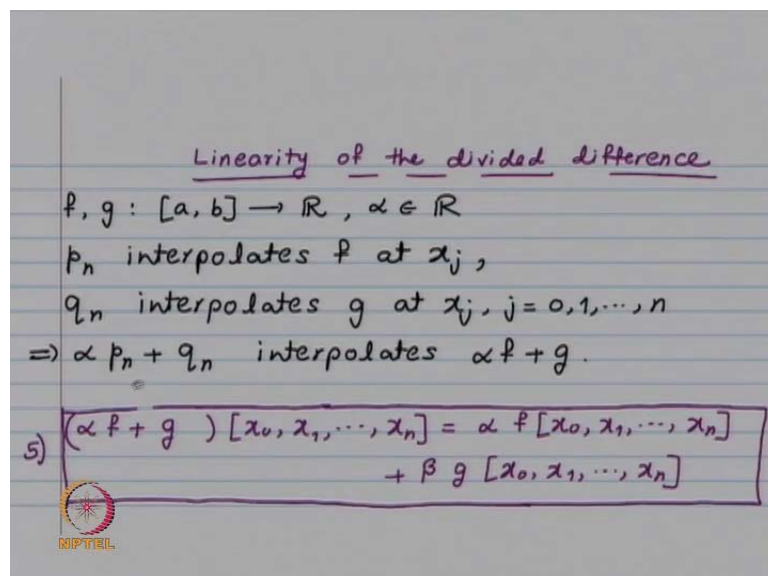
$$w(x) = (x - x_0)(x - x_1) \dots (x - x_n)$$



Then the value of divided difference in terms of function values is given by this formula, where  $w(x)$  is function  $x$  minus  $x_0$ ,  $x$  minus  $x_1$ ,  $x$  minus  $x_n$ . So, these were the 4 properties which we proved last time. Now, today we are going to prove another property and that is the linearity of the divided difference.

So, if you consider  $f$  and  $g$  to be 2 functions and  $\alpha$  to be a real number, then the divided difference of  $\alpha f$  plus  $g$  will be  $\alpha$  times divided difference of  $f$  plus divided difference of  $g$ .


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Linearity of the divided difference

$f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$   
 $p_n$  interpolates  $f$  at  $x_j$ ,  
 $q_n$  interpolates  $g$  at  $x_j, j = 0, 1, \dots, n$   
 $\Rightarrow \alpha p_n + q_n$  interpolates  $\alpha f + g$ .

5) 
$$(\alpha f + g)[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = \alpha f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] + \beta g[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$$

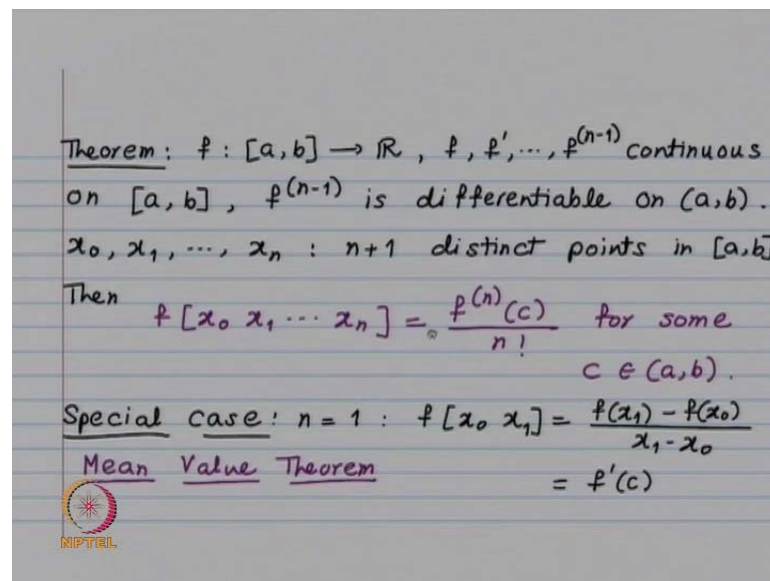




Let,  $p_n$  interpolate function  $f$  at  $x_j$ ,  $q_n$  interpolate  $g$  at  $x_j$ , we have already seen that  $\alpha p_n + q_n$  interpolates  $\alpha f + g$ .

Now, divided difference of  $\alpha f + g$  will be coefficient of  $x$  raised to  $n$  in  $\alpha p_n + q_n$  and that will be  $\alpha$  times coefficient of  $x$  raised to  $n$  in  $p_n$  plus coefficient of  $x$  raised to  $n$  in  $q_n$ , so here this  $\beta$  actually it should be 1. So, it is linearity of the divided difference.

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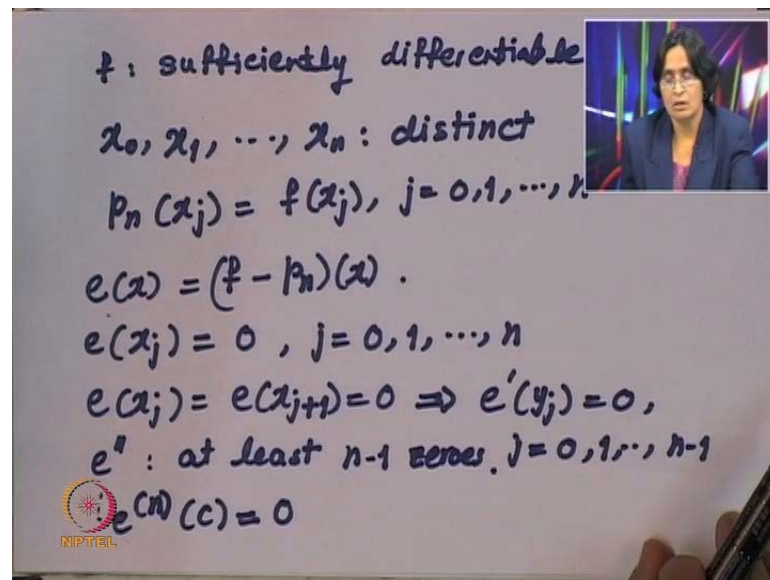


Now, the next property is, suppose your function  $f$  is sufficiently differentiable. Suppose,  $f$  is  $n$  times differentiable, then the divided difference of  $f$  based on  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ , that will be equal to  $n$ th derivative of  $f$  evaluated at  $c$  divided by  $n$  factorial.

For some point  $c$  in the interval  $a, b$ , if you take special case to be  $n$  is equal to 1, then this theorem says, that divided difference of  $f$  based on  $x_0, x_1$  which is equal to  $f'(c)$ , now that is nothing but the mean value theorem.

So, let us prove this result and then once we prove this, we will define divided difference when the points are not distinct, but they coincide.

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$f$ : sufficiently differentiable  
 $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ : distinct  
 $p_n(x_j) = f(x_j), j = 0, 1, \dots, n$   
 $e(x) = (f - p_n)(x)$   
 $e(x_j) = 0, j = 0, 1, \dots, n$   
 $e(x_j) = e(x_{j+1}) = 0 \Rightarrow e'(y_j) = 0,$   
 $e'$ : at least  $n-1$  zeroes,  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$   
 $e^{(n)}(c) = 0$

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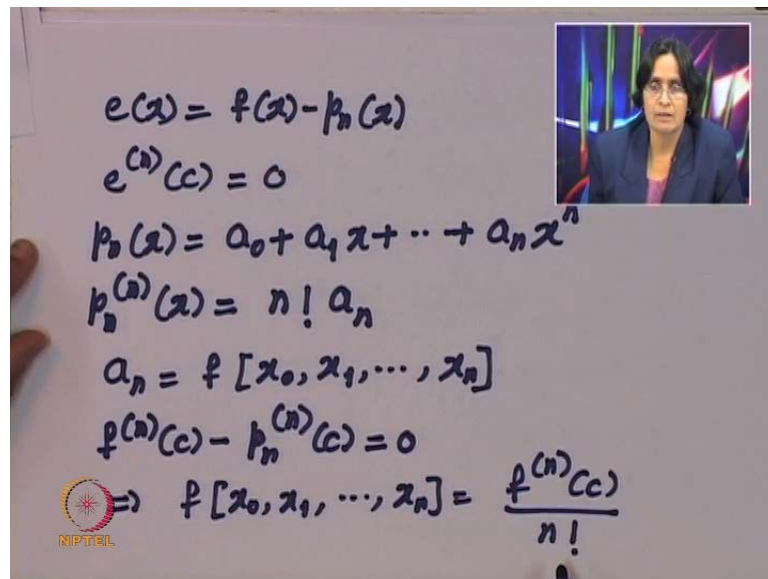
So, our  $f$  is sufficiently differentiable,  $x_0, x_1, x_n$  these are distinct points in the interval  $a, b$ ,  $p_n$  at  $x_j$  is equal to  $f$  at  $x_j$ ,  $j$  is equal to  $0, 1$  up to  $n$ .

So, let me define  $e(x)$  to be difference of  $f$  minus  $p_n$ , we assume that  $f$  is  $n$  times differentiable,  $p_n$  being a polynomial it is infinitely many times differentiable, because of the interpolation condition  $e(x_j)$  will be  $0$ , for  $j$  is equal to  $0, 1$  up to  $n$ .

So, now look at  $e(x_j) = e(x_{j+1}) = 0$  and  $e$  is differentiable, so by the Rolle's Theorem  $e'(y_j)$  will be equal to  $0$  for  $j$  is equal to  $0, 1$  up to  $n-1$ .

So, that means  $e$  has at least  $n+1$  zeros, then  $e'$  it is going to have at least  $n$  zeros, which will mean that  $e''$  will have at least  $n-1$  zeros,  $e$  has at least  $n+1$  zeros,  $e'$  has at least  $n$  zeros, so  $e''$  will have at least  $n-1$  zeros and when you continue the argument  $e^{(n)}$  this will have at least one zero, so suppose  $e^{(n)}$  at  $c$  is equal to  $0$  for some  $c$ .

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$$e(x) = f(x) - p_n(x)$$

$$e^{(n)}(c) = 0$$

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

$$p_n^{(n)}(x) = n! a_n$$

$$a_n = f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$$

$$f^{(n)}(c) - p_n^{(n)}(c) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!}$$

Now, we will look at the  $n$ th derivative of  $e$ ,  $e^{(n)}(x)$  will be equal to  $n$ th derivative of  $f$  minus  $n$ th derivative of  $p_n$ ,  $p_n$  is a polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $n$ , so its  $n$ th derivative is going to be constant and then, we have  $e^{(n)}(x)$  is equal to  $f^{(n)}(x)$  minus  $p_n^{(n)}(x)$  at  $c$  is equal to 0.

$p_n(x)$  is a polynomial of the form  $a_0$  plus  $a_1 x$  plus  $a_n x^n$ , when you consider  $n$ th derivative of  $p_n$ , that is going to be  $n!$  into  $a_n$  and by definition of divided difference  $a_n$  is nothing but divided difference based on  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ .

And thus, we get  $f^{(n)}(c)$  minus  $p_n^{(n)}(c)$  its  $n$ th derivative at  $c$  to be equal to 0, which will give us  $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$  to be equal to  $n$ th derivative of  $f$  evaluated at  $c$  divided by  $n!$ .

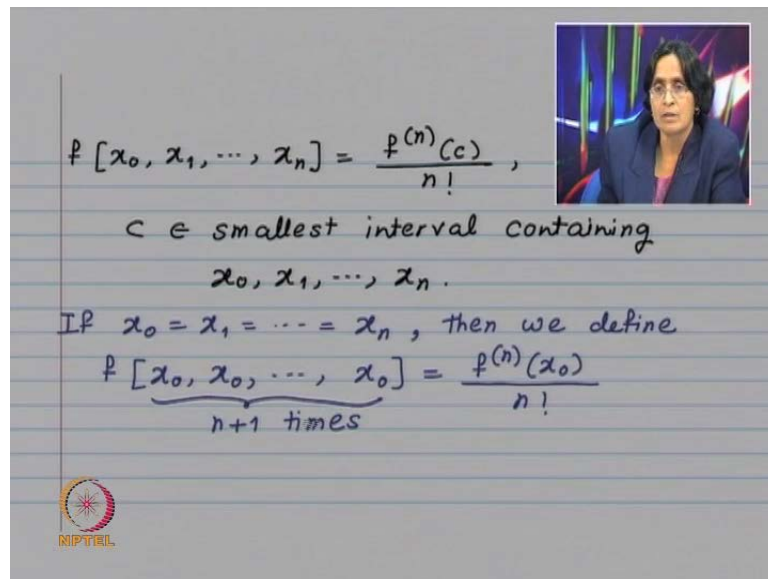
So, this is the generalization of mean value theorem, in order to define the divided difference we do not need a function to be differentiable, we do not even need it to be continuous, but if it happens to be  $n$  times differentiable then, the divided difference is going to be  $n$ th derivative evaluated at  $c$  divided by  $n!$ .

Now, we said that there exist  $c$  in the interval  $a, b$ , in fact  $c$  will be in the smallest interval which contains our interpolation points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ , because when you look at the interpolating polynomial, what comes into picture is our interpolation points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  and value of function  $f$  at those points.

So, now the divided difference is equal to  $f'(c)$  divided by  $n$  factorial where  $c$  lies in the smallest interval which contains  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ , if your points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  these are ordered then that interval is going to be closed interval  $x_0$  to  $x_n$ .

If, your  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  they all coincide, they are all equal, then our interval is a single point and then, it seems logical to define the divided difference based on  $x_0$  repeated  $n+1$  times to be  $f^{(n)}(x_0)$  divided by  $n$  factorial.

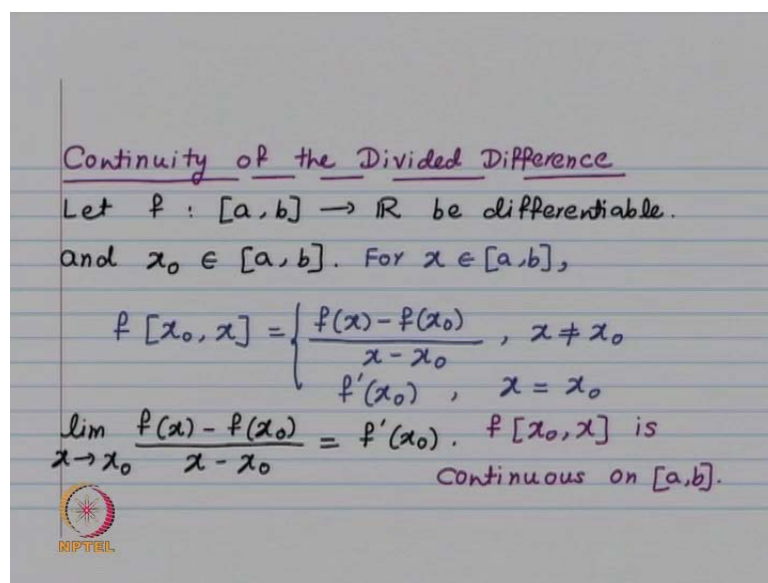
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$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!},$$

$$c \in \text{smallest interval containing } x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n.$$
 If  $x_0 = x_1 = \dots = x_n$ , then we define
 
$$f[\underbrace{x_0, x_0, \dots, x_0}_{n+1 \text{ times}}] = \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!}$$


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Continuity of the Divided Difference  
 Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable.  
 and  $x_0 \in [a, b]$ . For  $x \in [a, b]$ ,
 
$$f[x_0, x] = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}, & x \neq x_0 \\ f'(x_0), & x = x_0 \end{cases}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = f'(x_0).$$
 $f[x_0, x]$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

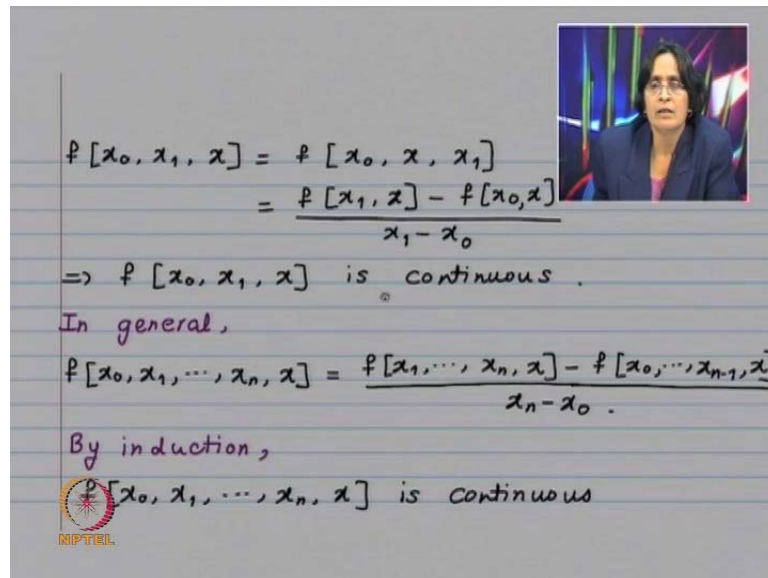
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$$f[x_0, x] = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}, & x \neq x_0 \\ f'(x_0), & x = x_0. \end{cases}$$
$$f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$
$$g(x) = f[x_0, x], \quad x_0 \text{ fixed.}$$
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = f'(x_0).$$


So  $f[x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$  is equal to  $f^{(n)}(c)$  by  $n$  factorial,  $c$  belonging to smallest interval containing  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  and hence, we define  $f[x_0, x_0, x_0, \dots, x_0]$  repeated  $n + 1$  times to be equal to  $f^{(n)}(x_0)$  divided by  $n$  factorial. We want to show another property of divided difference and that is the continuity of the divided difference, our divided difference  $f[x_0, x]$  this is going to be equal to  $\frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$ . If,  $x$  is not equal to  $x_0$  and  $f'(x_0)$  if  $x$  is equal to  $x_0$ , our function  $f$  is defined on interval  $a, b$  and let us assume  $f$  to be differentiable, so that we can talk of  $f'(x_0)$ .

Now, you fix  $x_0$  then  $f[x_0, x]$  this becomes a function of  $x$ , our claim is that if you consider  $g(x)$  to be equal to  $f[x_0, x]$ ,  $x_0$  fixed. This  $g$  is going to be continuous, because when you consider value of  $x$  not at  $x_0$ , then  $\frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$ .  $f$  being a continuous function, so we have got coefficient of two continuous functions and at  $x_0$  we have limit  $x$  tending to  $x_0$   $\frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$ , that is  $f'(x_0)$ , so that proves continuity of  $f[x_0, x]$  and now consider the higher order divided difference.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:04)



The slide shows a handwritten derivation of the continuity of divided differences. It starts with the definition of a first-order divided difference:  $f[x_0, x_1, x] = \frac{f[x_1, x] - f[x_0, x]}{x_1 - x_0}$ . It then states that this is continuous. Next, it generalizes to higher-order divided differences:  $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n, x] = \frac{f[x_1, \dots, x_n, x] - f[x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}, x]}{x_n - x_0}$ . Finally, it concludes by induction that the  $n$ -th order divided difference is continuous. A small video inset in the top right corner shows a woman speaking. A logo for 'MPTEL' is visible in the bottom left corner of the slide.

$$f[x_0, x_1, x] = \frac{f[x_1, x] - f[x_0, x]}{x_1 - x_0}$$

$\Rightarrow f[x_0, x_1, x]$  is continuous.

In general,

$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n, x] = \frac{f[x_1, \dots, x_n, x] - f[x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}, x]}{x_n - x_0}$$

By induction,


$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n, x]$  is continuous

If  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  are fixed, the divided difference based on  $x_0, x_1, x$ , it is same as divided difference based on  $x_0, x, x_1$ , because it is independent of order. Now, this will be equal to by recurrence relation  $f$  of  $x_1, x$  or  $x, x_1$  minus  $f$  of  $x_0, x$  divided by  $x_1$  minus  $x_0$ .

We have already seen that this divided difference is continuous, this divided difference is continuous, you are dividing by a constant, so this divided difference will be continuous and in general by induction, if you look at divided difference based on  $x_0, x_1, x_n, x$  that is going to be a continuous function.

(Refer Slide Time: 23:07)

Building of polynomials  
 $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  
 $p_{n-1}$ : polynomial of degree  $\leq n-1$ ,  
 $p_{n-1}(x_j) = f(x_j), j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$   
 $p_n$ : polynomial of degree  $\leq n$ ,  
 $p_n(x_j) = f(x_j), j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1, n$   
Claim:  $p_n(x) = p_{n-1}(x) + f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n](x-x_0)\dots(x-x_{n-1})$



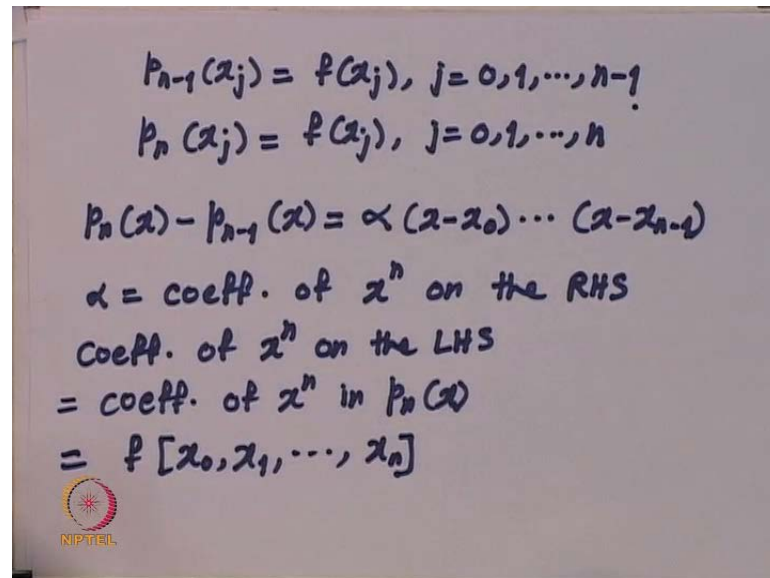
Now, we want to look at building of polynomials, when we looked at the interpolating polynomial, when we proved its existence and uniqueness, then we already had the Lagrange form explicitly we had written  $p_n$  using Lagrange polynomial.

Now, that time we said, that the disadvantage of this Lagrange form is, suppose you have found an interpolating polynomial interpolating  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  and then you add just one more interpolating point then you have to do all the work again.

So, that is why what we want to do is, if I have found already  $p_n$  and I add one more interpolating point then I should be able to do it, so that I just add one more extra term and that is why we defined the divided difference.

Now, let us see how if you have found  $p_{n-1}$  how to get  $p_n$ , so  $p_{n-1}$  is the interpolating polynomial interpolating given function at  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}$ ,  $p_n$  is polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $n$ , which interpolates the given function not only at  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}$ , but also at  $x_n$  and our claim is that  $p_n$  will be equal to  $p_{n-1}$  plus this extra term, so now we are going to prove this and then from that we can write the Newton form for the Lagrange polynomial.

(Refer Slide Time: 25:10)


$$\begin{aligned} p_{n-1}(x_j) &= f(x_j), \quad j=0,1,\dots,n-1 \\ p_n(x_j) &= f(x_j), \quad j=0,1,\dots,n \\ p_n(x) - p_{n-1}(x) &= \alpha(x-x_0)\cdots(x-x_{n-1}) \\ \alpha &= \text{coeff. of } x^n \text{ on the RHS} \\ &= \text{coeff. of } x^n \text{ on the LHS} \\ &= \text{coeff. of } x^n \text{ in } p_n(x) \\ &= f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] \end{aligned}$$

So, we have got  $p_{n-1}(x_j) = f(x_j)$  for  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ .  $p_n(x_j) = f(x_j)$  for  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ .

If, I look at  $p_n(x) - p_{n-1}(x)$ , this is going to vanish at  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}$  at the common zeroes,  $p_n(x_j) = f(x_j) = p_{n-1}(x_j)$  for  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ , so we are going to have factors  $(x - x_0)$  up to  $(x - x_{n-1})$ . Now, these are  $n$  brackets, so right hand side this will be a polynomial of degree  $n$ ,  $p_n(x)$  is a polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $n$ ,  $p_{n-1}(x)$  is a polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $n-1$ , so here what we will have will be a constant,  $\alpha$  a constant.

So,  $p_n(x) - p_{n-1}(x)$  it has got this form, now let us calculate what is  $\alpha$ ? So,  $\alpha$  is coefficient of  $x^n$  on the right hand side, coefficient of  $x^n$  on the left hand side will be  $p_{n-1}(x)$  is a polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $n-1$ . So, coefficient of  $x^n$  on the left hand side will be coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $p_n(x)$ , because there will be no contribution from  $p_{n-1}(x)$ , but coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $p_n(x)$  is nothing but  $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$  the divided difference.

So thus you get  $p_n(x) = p_{n-1}(x) + \alpha(x-x_0)\cdots(x-x_{n-1})$ .



(Refer Slide Time: 28:02)

$$p_n(x_j) = f(x_j), \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

$$p_n(x) - p_{n-1}(x) = \alpha (x-x_0) \cdots (x-x_{n-1})$$

Coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $p_n(x) - p_{n-1}(x)$

$$= \text{Coefficient of } x^n \text{ in } p_n(x)$$

$$= f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = \alpha$$

$$p_n(x) = p_{n-1}(x) + f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n](x-x_0) \cdots (x-x_{n-1})$$

So, thus we have shown that  $p_n(x)$  is equal to  $p_{n-1}(x)$  plus this term. Now, you can replace  $n$  by  $n-1$  and get a formula for  $p_{n-1}(x)$  in terms of  $p_{n-2}(x)$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 28:16)

$$p_n(x) = p_{n-1}(x) + f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n](x-x_0) \cdots (x-x_{n-1})$$

$$p_{n-1}(x) = p_{n-2}(x) + f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}](x-x_0) \cdots (x-x_{n-2})$$

$$p_n(x) = p_{n-2}(x) + f[x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}](x-x_0) \cdots (x-x_{n-2}) + f[x_0, \dots, x_n](x-x_0) \cdots (x-x_{n-1})$$

So,  $p_n(x)$  is  $p_{n-1}(x)$  plus this divided difference into  $x-x_0, x-x_1, \dots, x-x_{n-1}$ , replace  $n$  by  $n-1$ , so you will get  $p_{n-1}(x)$  is equal to  $p_{n-2}(x)$  plus you are replacing  $n$  by  $n-1$ , so you have got this divided difference into  $x-x_0, x-x_1, \dots, x-x_{n-2}$ , which gives us  $p_n(x)$  to be equal to  $p_{n-2}(x)$  plus these two terms.


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$$p_n(x) = f(x_0) + f[x_0, x_1](x-x_0) + \dots +$$

$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n](x-x_0) \dots (x-x_{n-1})$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^n (x-x_0) \dots (x-x_{r-1}) f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_r]$$

$r=0$  term:  $f[x_0]$



So, you can continue this process and then you can have  $p_n(x)$  to be equal to  $f(x_0)$  plus  $f$  of  $x_0, x_1$  times  $x$  minus  $x_0$  plus this term.

(Refer Slide Time: 29:25)

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

Power form.

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

$$+ \dots + f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n](x-x_0) \dots (x-x_{n-1})$$


$$= a_0 + a_1(x-x_0) + \dots + a_n(x-x_0) \dots (x-x_{n-1})$$

Newton form.

$$x_0 = x_1 = \dots = x_n = 0$$

$$f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n] = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} = a_n$$

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



So, we have got the power form which is  $p_n(x)$  is equal to  $a_0$  plus  $a_1 x$  plus  $a_n x$  raise to  $n$ , now we have got another form, so you have  $p_n(x)$  is equal to  $a_0$  plus  $a_1 x$  plus  $a_n x$  raise to  $n$  and then we have  $p_n(x)$  is equal to  $f(x_0)$  plus  $f$  of  $x_0, x_1$  times  $x$  minus  $x_0$  plus  $f$  of  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  times  $x$  minus  $x_0$ ,  $x$  minus  $x_1$  minus  $x_2$ .

So, it is of the form  $\alpha_0 + \alpha_1(x - x_0) + \alpha_2(x - x_0)(x - x_1) + \dots + \alpha_n(x - x_0)(x - x_1)\dots(x - x_{n-1})$ . So, this is known as Newton form, this is the power form, our  $\alpha_n$  is divided difference based on  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ . Suppose, your points are all 0, so if you have got  $x_0 = x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n = 0$ , then the divided difference  $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$  this is going to be equal to  $n$ th derivative at 0 divided by  $n$  factorial and hence, your  $\alpha_n$  will be  $\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 x^2 + \dots + \alpha_n x^n$  where  $\alpha_n$  is  $f^{(n)}(0)/n!$ .

So, that is nothing but the Taylor's truncated series, so here the center is zero, here you have got different centers, you have got  $x - x_0$  then  $x - x_0, x - x_1$  and so on.

(Refer Slide Time: 31:52)

Divided Difference Table

$x_0$	$f(x_0)$	$f[x_0, x_1]$	$f[x_0, x_1, x_2]$
$x_1$	$f(x_1)$	$f[x_1, x_2]$	
$x_2$	$f(x_2)$		

$$p_3(x) = f(x_0) + f[x_0, x_1](x - x_0) + f[x_0, x_1, x_2](x - x_0)(x - x_1) + f[x_2, x_1](x - x_2) + f[x_2, x_1, x_0](x - x_2)(x - x_1)$$

So, this is the Newton form, this is the Power form and we have looked at the Lagrange form. Look at the divided difference table, when we want to construct a interpolating polynomial, then I am first going to look at only three points  $x_0, x_1, x_2$ , look at the function values so  $f(x_0), f(x_1), f(x_2)$ . The first thing we do is, we evaluate this divided difference, so it will be  $f(x_1) - f(x_0)$  divided by  $x_1 - x_0$ . So, that will give us this term, then divided difference based on  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , so you calculate that and then you calculate the divided difference based on  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  which will be this entry minus this entry divided by  $x_2 - x_0$ , so you prepare divided difference table.

Then, when we want to write the  $p_3(x)$  you have  $x_0, x_1, x_2$ , it should be  $p_2(x)$  actually it is the second degree polynomial, so this will be  $f(x_0)$  plus  $f$  of  $x_0, x_1$  into  $x$  minus  $x_0$  plus this divided difference multiplied by  $x$  minus  $x_0, x$  minus  $x_1$ , so you are looking at these three entries and then you are writing your polynomial.

Now, instead of taking the interpolation points as  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  in that order, if you take in the order  $x_2, x_1, x_0$ , then you will have  $f(x_2)$  plus this divided difference into  $x$  minus  $x_2$  plus this divided difference into  $x$  minus  $x_2, x$  minus  $x_1$ . It is going to be the same polynomial, it is just that this will be forward formula and this will be backward formula but the interpolating polynomial it is going to be the same.

(Refer Slide Time: 34:13)

The slide shows a table of values for  $x$  and  $f(x)$ :

$x$	$f(x)$
0	1
1	4
2	15
3	40

Below the table, the divided differences are calculated and shown in a triangular arrangement:

- Between  $x=0$  and  $x=1$ :  $3$
- Between  $x=1$  and  $x=2$ :  $11$
- Between  $x=2$  and  $x=3$ :  $7$
- Between  $x=0$  and  $x=2$ :  $4$
- Between  $x=0$  and  $x=3$ :  $1$

The polynomial  $p_2(x)$  is derived as:

$$p_2(x) = 1 + 3(x-0) + 4(x-1)(x-0)$$

$$= 15 + 11(x-2) + 4(x-2)(x-1)$$

The polynomial  $p_3(x)$  is then given by:

$$p_3(x) = p_2(x) + 1(x-0)(x-1)(x-2)$$

A NIPTEL logo is visible in the bottom left corner of the slide.

So, now let us look at an example so suppose  $x$  is taking values  $0, 1, 2$ , so this is  $x_0, x_1, x_2$ , the corresponding values of  $f(x)$  they are given to be  $1, 4$  and  $15$ , so we will first calculate the divided difference  $4$  minus  $1$  divided by  $1$  minus  $0$ , that will give us  $3$ ,  $15$  minus  $4$  divided by  $2$  minus  $1$ , so that will give us  $11$ , then  $11$  minus  $3$  divided by  $2$  minus  $0$ , so that is going to give us  $4$ , then our  $p_2(x)$  is going to be equal to  $1$   $f(x_0)$  plus  $3$  into  $x$  minus  $x_0$ , this is  $f$  of  $x_0, x_1$  into  $x$  minus  $x_0$  plus  $4$  into  $x$  minus  $x_1$  into  $x$  minus  $x_0$ .

So, this is our  $p_2(x)$  that is  $f(x_0)$  plus  $f$  of  $x_0, x_1$  into  $x$  minus  $x_0$  plus  $f$  of  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  into  $x$  minus  $x_0, x$  minus  $x_1$ , it is also going to be equal to, if I write the backward formula, it will be  $15$  that is value of  $f$  at  $x_2$  plus  $11$  into  $x$  minus  $x_2$  that is the  $x$  minus  $2$  plus  $4$  into  $x$  minus  $2$  and  $x$  minus  $1$  you can check that both these they give you the

same polynomial, it is the same interpolating polynomial only one side take my interpolation point in the order  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  and in other I take as  $x_2, x_1, x_0$ .

So, we have calculated  $p_2(x)$  now suppose you are also given the value at 3 to be 40, so now what we will do is we will complete the divided difference table. So, now first the divided difference based on 2 and 3, so that will be 40 minus 15, that is going to be 25 divided by 3 minus 2, so this I am adding extra, then 25 minus 11 that is going to be 14 divided by 2, so that will be 7 and then 7 minus 4 divided by 3 minus 0, so that is going to be 1, so we added one extra interpolation points and these are the entities which we calculated and then our  $p_3(x)$  will be equal to  $p_2(x)$  plus this new divided difference 1 and then multiplied by  $(x - x_0)$ ,  $(x - x_1)$  and  $(x - x_2)$ .

So,  $p_3(x)$  you add this term and then you get interpolating polynomial, if you were using Lagrange form, then you calculate the Lagrange polynomials corresponding to 0, 1, 2 and then you have to calculate completely again the Lagrange polynomials corresponding to 0, 1, 2, 3.

(Refer Slide Time: 38:21)

The slide shows a table for the divided difference method. The first column lists nodes  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ . The second column lists function values  $f(x_0), f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots, f(x_n)$ . The third column shows first-order divided differences  $f[x_0, x_1], f[x_1, x_2], \dots, f[x_{n-1}, x_n]$ . The fourth column shows second-order divided differences  $f[x_0, x_1, x_2], \dots, f[x_{n-2}, x_{n-1}, x_n]$ . The final column shows the  $n$ -th order divided difference  $f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n]$ .

Below the table, the Newton interpolation polynomial is given as:

$$p_n(x) = f(x_0) + f[x_0, x_1](x - x_0) + \dots + f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n](x - x_0) \dots (x - x_{n-1})$$

$$= f(x_0) + f[x_{n-1}, x_n](x - x_n) + f[x_0, \dots, x_n](x - x_n) \dots (x - x_1)$$

A small video inset in the top right corner shows a woman speaking. The RIPT logo is visible in the bottom left corner.

So, this is how the building of the polynomial it helps, now we are going to look at a general this thing for the sake of simplicity I looked at three points, but if you have got  $x_0, x_1, x_n$ ,  $n + 1$  points, then these are the function values given to us the first column contains the divided difference is based on two points, then divided difference based on three points and the last column will contain the divided difference based on  $n + 1$

point and then  $p_n(x)$  will be equal to  $f(x_0)$  plus  $f$  of  $x_0, x_1$  into  $x$  minus  $x_0$  plus  $f$  of  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  into  $x$  minus  $x_0, x_1$  minus  $x_2$  plus  $f$  of  $x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3$  into  $x$  minus  $x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3$  minus  $x_4$ , or you can take the points in the other order and then you will have  $f(x_n)$  plus  $f$  of  $x_n, x_{n-1}$  into  $x$  minus  $x_n$  plus  $f$  of  $x_n, x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}$  into  $x$  minus  $x_n, x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}, x_{n-3}$  and your points are in the order  $x_n, x_{n-1}$  up to  $x_1$  you have to go.

(Refer Slide Time: 39:35)

The image shows a handwritten derivation on lined paper. At the top, it says "forward formula" with an arrow pointing to the first equation. The first equation is 
$$P_n(x) = \sum_{r=0}^n (x-x_0)\cdots(x-x_{r-1}) f[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_r]$$
. Below this, it says "backward formula" with an arrow pointing to the second equation. The second equation is 
$$= \sum_{s=0}^n (x-x_{s+1})\cdots(x-x_n) f[x_s, x_{s+1}, \dots, x_n]$$
. A green arrow points from the second equation down to the text " $s=n$  term:  $f[x_n]$ ". At the bottom left of the page is the NPTEL logo.

So, that is going to be the backward formula and in compact form you can write it as summation  $r$  goes from  $0$  to  $n$   $x$  minus  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{r-1}$  and the divided difference based on  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_r$ . Remember always if you are going here up to  $x_r$  you are multiplying up to  $x$  minus  $x_{r-1}$ , here in the backward formula it will be  $f$  of  $x_s, x_{s+1}, \dots, x_n$  or if you want  $x_n, x_{n-1}$  and then go up to  $s$  and then you multiply by  $x$  minus  $x_n, x_{n-1}, \dots, x_{s+1}$ , so this is a forward formula and this is a backward formula, they give you the same polynomial, but then the reason we write this is, because we want to prove next the Leibniz formula for the divided difference.

(Refer Slide Time: 41:43)

The image shows a handwritten derivation of Leibniz's rule for the derivatives of a product of two functions,  $f(x)g(x)$ . The title is "Leibniz rule for the derivatives". The first line shows the first derivative:  $(fg)'(x) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$ . The second line shows the second derivative:  $(fg)''(x) = f''(x)g(x) + 2f'(x)g'(x) + f(x)g''(x)$ , which is then written as a summation:  $= \sum_{r=0}^2 \frac{2!}{r!(2-r)!} f^{(r)}(x)g^{(2-r)}(x)$ . The third line shows the general formula for the  $n$ th derivative, enclosed in a purple box:  $(fg)^{(n)}(x) = \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} f^{(r)}(x)g^{(n-r)}(x)$ . At the bottom left of the page is a logo for NPTEL.

$$\text{Leibniz rule for the derivatives}$$
$$(fg)'(x) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$$
$$(fg)''(x) = f''(x)g(x) + 2f'(x)g'(x) + f(x)g''(x)$$
$$= \sum_{r=0}^2 \frac{2!}{r!(2-r)!} f^{(r)}(x)g^{(2-r)}(x)$$
$$(fg)^{(n)}(x) = \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} f^{(r)}(x)g^{(n-r)}(x)$$

So, that is why I wanted to write it in this form, so now let me recall the Leibniz rule for the derivatives,  $f$  into  $g$  we are considering various properties of the divided difference, we saw what is the divided difference of  $\alpha f$  plus  $g$ , so that is the linearity. Now, suppose you have got functions  $f$  and  $g$ , you take their product, what can one say about the divided difference of the product.

There is a relation between divided difference and the derivatives, if your points are identical then the divided difference based on  $x_0$  repeated  $n$  plus 1 times, that is nothing but  $f^{(n)}(x_0)$  divided by  $n$  factorial and for the derivatives we have got product rule, so whether such a product rule exist for the divided difference and the answer is yes and that is where we will need the forward formula and backward formula.

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Leibniz Rule

$$(fg)^{(n)}(x) = \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} f^{(r)}(x) g^{(n-r)}(x)$$

$$\frac{(fg)^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} = \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{f^{(r)}(x_0)}{r!} \frac{g^{(n-r)}(x_0)}{(n-r)!}$$

$$(fg) [x_0 \dots x_0]_{n+1} = \sum_{r=0}^n f [x_0 \dots x_0]_{r+1} g [x_0 \dots x_0]_{n-r+1}$$

So, let me recall the divided Leibniz rule for derivatives, if you consider two functions  $f$  and  $g$  into  $g$  its  $n$ th derivative at point  $x$ , it is given by summation  $r$  going from 0 to  $n$ ,  $n$  factorial divided by  $r$  factorial  $n$  minus  $r$  factorial  $r$ th derivative of  $f$  at  $x$  multiplied by  $n$  minus  $r$ th derivative at  $x$ .

So, now let me fix  $x$  to be equal to  $x_0$  and the same formula I write as  $f$  into  $g$   $n$ th derivative at  $x_0$  divided by  $n$  factorial, this  $n$  factorial I take it on the left hand side, this is going to be equal to summation  $r$  going from 0 to  $n$ ,  $f^{(r)}(x_0)$  divided by  $r$  factorial and  $g^{(n-r)}(x_0)$  divided by  $n$  minus  $r$  factorial, I associate  $r$  factorial with  $f^{(r)}$  and  $n$  minus  $r$  factorial with  $g^{(n-r)}$ .

Now, the left hand side is nothing, but divided difference of  $f$  into  $g$   $x_0$  repeated  $n+1$  times is equal to summation  $r$  going from 0 to  $n$  divided difference of  $f$  based on  $x_0$  repeated  $r+1$  times and  $g$  divided difference of  $x_0$  repeated  $n$  minus  $r$  plus 1 times.

So, Leibniz rule for the derivatives I am just rewriting in a different manner, that it is  $f$  into  $g$  the divided difference based on  $x_0$  repeated  $n+1$  times, which is equal to summation  $r$  goes from 0 to  $n$  divided difference of  $f$  when  $x_0$  is repeated  $r+1$  times and divided difference of  $g$  when  $x_0$  is repeated  $n$  minus  $r$  plus 1 time.



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$$(fg)[x_0 \cdots x_n] = \sum_{r=0}^n f[x_0 \cdots x_r] g[x_r \cdots x_n]$$

Q.

$$(fg)[x_0 x_1 \cdots x_n] = \sum_{r=0}^n f[x_0 x_1 \cdots x_r] g[x_r x_{r+1} \cdots x_n] ?$$

Now, what we want to do is, instead of  $x_0$  repeated  $n + 1$  times, suppose I have got  $n + 1$  distinct points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ , then whether we have this divided difference is equal to  $f$  and then here  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_r$  and then here it will be  $x_r, x_{r+1}, \dots, x_n$ , so that is what we want to see whether such a thing is possible.

The question is, whether  $f$  into  $g$  its divided difference based on  $x_0, x_1$  up to  $x_n$ , whether it is equal to summation  $r$  goes from  $0$  to  $n$   $f$  of  $x_0, x_1$  up to  $x_r$  and  $g$  of  $x_r, x_{r+1}$  up to  $x_n$ , these are  $r + 1$  points these are  $n - r + 1$  point.

So, instead of identical points, whether the formula is true for the distinct points, so this is question such a formula for the divided difference is valid, now the answer is yes, so once again what we will do is, our divided difference is coefficient of  $x$  raise to  $n$  in the interpolating polynomial, we have got  $f$  and  $g$  to be two functions.

So, we will look at their interpolating polynomials, so suppose  $p_n$  is interpolating polynomial of  $f$  interpolating at  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_r$ , for  $g$  suppose you have got another polynomial  $q_n$  which interpolates the given function at  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_r$ .

Now, if I look at product  $f$  into  $g$ , so similarly I will look at the product  $p_n \times q_n$  now  $p_n$  at  $x_j$  is equal to  $f(x_j)$ ,  $q_n$  at  $x_j$  is equal to  $g(x_j)$ , so this polynomial  $p_n \times q_n$  it will interpolate our function  $f$  into  $g$ .

So, we have got product  $f$  into  $g$  at  $x_j$  is equal to  $f(x_j) \cdot g(x_j)$ ,  $f(x_j)$  is equal to  $p_n(x_j)$ ,  $g(x_j)$  is equal to  $q_n(x_j)$ , so thus  $p_n$  into  $q_n$  will be a polynomial, which will interpolate the product function, but then we do not want just a polynomial which interpolates but we are interested in the degree,  $p_n$  is a polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $n$ ,  $q_n$  is a polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $n$ , when I take its product it will be a polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $2n$ , whereas for the divided difference of  $f$  into  $g$ , I will need a polynomial of degree less than or equal to  $n$ .

So, we will see next time how to do this, so the next time we are going to first prove, the Leibniz rule for the divided difference and then we will consider the error in the interpolating polynomial. I had said earlier that the divided difference is also important in getting the error formula, this we are going to do next time thank you.