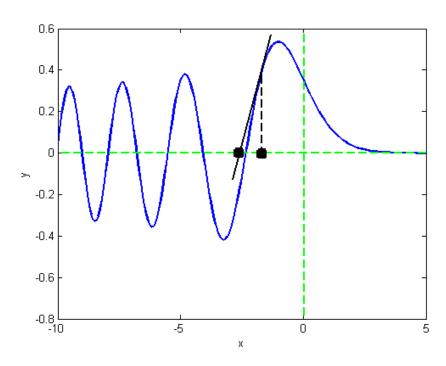
Chapter 4 Rootfinding



- There are many times when we need to find one or more values of a variable that satisfy a nonlinear equations
- Roots of polynomials are one example: finding eigenvalues, applications in vibrations, control, and many other fields
- In that case, we need to find x such that $P_n(x) = 0$, with $P_n(x) = a_1 x^n + a_2 x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n x^n + a_{n+1}$

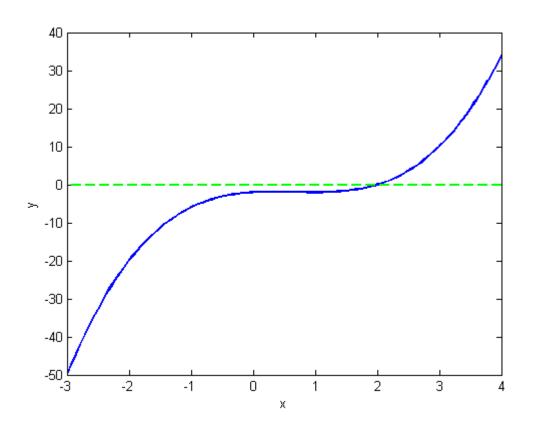
when written like it's used in Matlab

• Even for this simple case, we should, when possible, make a sketch or plot! You can see where the answers are, if any!

Consider this example:

$$P_3(x) = (x^2 + 1)(x - 2) = 0.$$

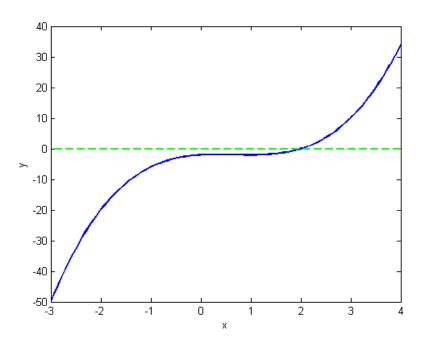
- Call the root(s) p.
- Cubic polynomial, so three roots.
- But, only one is real-valued.
- If we only wanted real roots as in a possible engineering or physics problem, we wouldn't need to waste time looking for others
- Knowing where it is graphically is not solving the problem



For this example:

$$P_3(x) = (x^2 + 1)(x - 2) = 0.$$

- Call the root(s) p.
- The three roots are shown from the roots command in Matlab
- Note the form of the last two as $\pm i$
- Matlab's function does a good job of dealing with the poor conditioning of finding roots.



```
>> a = [1 -2 1 -2]

a =

1 -2 1 -2

>> p=roots(a)

p =

2.0000 + 0.0000i

0.0000 + 1.0000i

0.0000 - 1.0000i
```

Consider this example:

$$P(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{10} (x - j)$$

- Roots are integers 1 to 10
- However, look at the expanded form since we never get them like this

```
>> a = [1 -55 1320 -18150 157773 -902055 3416930 -8409500 12753576 -10628640 3628800];

>> roots(a)'

ans =

Columns 1 through 8

10.0000 9.0000 8.0000 7.0000 6.0000 5.0000 4.0000 3.0000

Columns 9 through 10

2.0000 1.0000
```

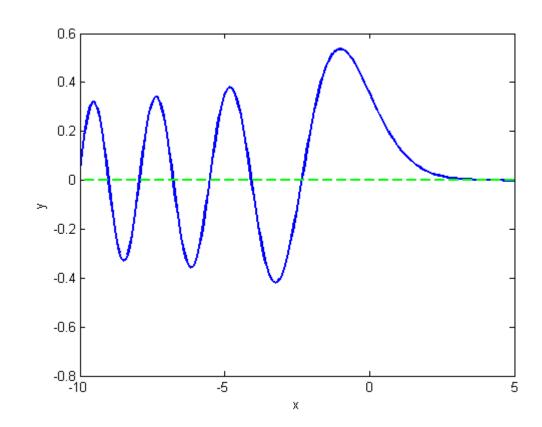
• This works great, but what if we perturb the coefficients a little?

- Now modify the 9th degree coefficient a tiny bit ($a_2 = -55$)
- What happens?

```
>> b = a+[0 -1e-8 zeros(1,9)];
                                                >> b = a+[0 -1e-7 zeros(1.9)]:
                                                                                   >> b = a+[0 -1e-6 zeros(1.9)]:
>> % tiny perturbation to ninth-degree coefficient
                                                 >> roots(b)
                                                                                   >> roots(b)
>> roots(b)
                                                 ans =
                                                                                   ans =
ans =
                                                                                     10.0027
                                                  10.0003
 10.0000
                                                   8.9990
                                                                                      8.9903
  8.9999
                                                   8.0013
                                                                                      8.0133
  8.0001
                                                   6.9991
                                                                                      6.9907
  6.9999
                                                                                      6.0035
                                                   6.0004
  6.0000
                                                   4.9999
                                                                                      4.9993
  5.0000
                                                   4.0000
                                                                                      4.0001
  4.0000
                                                   3.0000
                                                                                      3.0000
  3.0000
                                                                                      2.0000
                                                   2.0000
  2.0000
                                                                                      1.0000
                                                   1.0000
  1.0000
```

- You try it. Keep increasing the perturbation
- If uncertainty/noice in coefficients, use with caution!

- There are lots of different functions that have zeros
- So-called "special functions" are solutions to variable coefficient ODE problems that arise typically from PDE problems
- Text example of Bessel function arises from vibration of circular drum head
- Another example is Airy function Ai(x) that satisfies y"-xy=0.
- Can you see why one side oscillates?



- To have a baseline for testing accuracy, we will use Matlab's builtin function fzero
- Say we want to find the root p closest to zero such that $\mathrm{Ai}(p)=0$
- To do this, we should give an initial guess near the root, specify the function (Matlab builtin airy here)
- We can see p, f(p) and a "flag" telling us the answer status

```
>> [p,fval,exflag] = fzero(@airy,-2)
p =
    -2.3381
fval =
    -9.3595e-17
exflag =
    1
```

- 1 fzero found a zero X.
- -1 Algorithm terminated by output function.
- -3 NaN or Inf function value encountered during search for an interval containing a sign change.
- -4 Complex function value encountered during search for an interval containing a sign change.
- -5 **fzero** may have converged to a singular point.
- -6 fzero can not detect a change in sign of the function.

- For the Airy function we had a good approximation to the root
- How sensitive is it?
- Sensitivity for an ideal computer: condition number
- We can see p, f(p) and a "flag" telling
- First, we need a norm: Use $||g||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in I} |g(x)|$
- The interval I will depend on context; for root finding it will most often be an interval containing the sequence of approximations to the answer, called iterates
- The same kinds of properties hold for this norm as for vectors: triangle inequality (add'n), Schwarz' inequality (mult'n), etc

Conditioning of root finding

• Say we want to solve f(x) = 0, but f is perturbed by a function h(x) so that the computed function is

$$\tilde{f}(x) = f(x) + \epsilon h(x)$$

Say the root r is perturbed a little bit,

$$\tilde{r} = r + \delta s$$

- ullet We assume that $\epsilon,\delta\ll 1$, and Taylor expand $ilde{f}(ilde{r})=0$
- We get $0 = f(r + \delta s) + \epsilon h(r + \delta s)$, and expand:

$$0 = f(r) + f'(r)\delta s + \epsilon [h(r) + h'(r)\delta s]$$

• Neglect the product term $\epsilon\delta$ as too small, 0=f(r), then $\delta s=\epsilon h(r)/f'(r)$

Conditioning of root finding

- We want the relative change in the answer
- Multiply both sides of

$$\delta s = \frac{\epsilon h(r)}{f'(r)}$$

with

$$\frac{\big||f|\big|_{\infty}}{|r|\big||\epsilon h|\big|_{\infty}}$$

Then after absolute value

$$\frac{\frac{|\delta s|}{|r|}}{\frac{||\epsilon h||_{\infty}}{||f||}} = \frac{\epsilon |h(r)|||f||_{\infty}}{|f'(r)||r|||\epsilon h||_{\infty}}$$

• Note that $\epsilon |h(r)| \leq \big||\epsilon h|\big|_{\infty}$, and substituting in the numerator gives $\kappa(f\mapsto r) = \frac{\big||f|\big|_{\infty}}{|f'(r)||r|}$

$$\kappa(f \mapsto r) = \frac{||f||_{\infty}}{|f'(r)||r|}$$

Conditioning of root finding

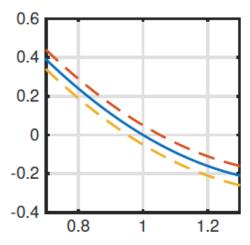
$$\kappa(f \mapsto r) = \frac{\big||f|\big|_{\infty}}{|f'(r)||r|}$$

- r in the denominator gives the change relative to the result
- $||f||_{\infty}$ gives the size of the data (or function)
- If f'(r) is small, small changes from r may result in a big change in the answer.

```
f = @(x) (x-1).*(x-2);
```

At the root r = 1, we have f'(r) = -1. If the value 0.05, we imagine finding the root of the function

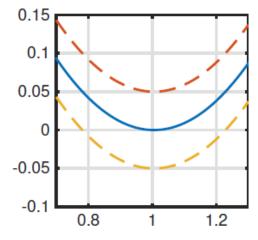
```
interval = [0.7 1.3];
fplot(f,interval), grid on
hold on, axis equal, axis square
fplot(@(x) f(x)+0.05,interval,'--')
fplot(@(x) f(x)-0.05,interval,'--')
```



```
f = @(x) (x-1).*(x-1.01);
```

Now f'(1) = -0.01, and the graph of f will be more on our thick rendering:

```
clf
fplot(f,interval), grid on
hold on, axis equal, axis square
fplot(@(x) f(x)+0.05,interval,'--')
fplot(@(x) f(x)-0.05,interval,'--')
```



- You have no doubt seen this method somewhere, but we will analyze it in a bit more depth
- We seek f(p) = 0 for x = p.
- We want to use Taylor's theorem to linearize the problem near p.
- If we Taylor expand about x near p, we obtain

$$f(p) = f(x) + \frac{f'(x)}{1!}(p - x) + \frac{f''(\xi(p))}{2!}(p - x)^2$$

- The number $\xi(p)$ makes the formula exact.
- To solve the problem approximately, we neglect the quadratic term, which may be expected to work if $|p-x|\ll 1$

• Also use f(p) = 0 to obtain

$$0 \approx f(x) + \frac{f'(x)}{1!}(p-x)$$

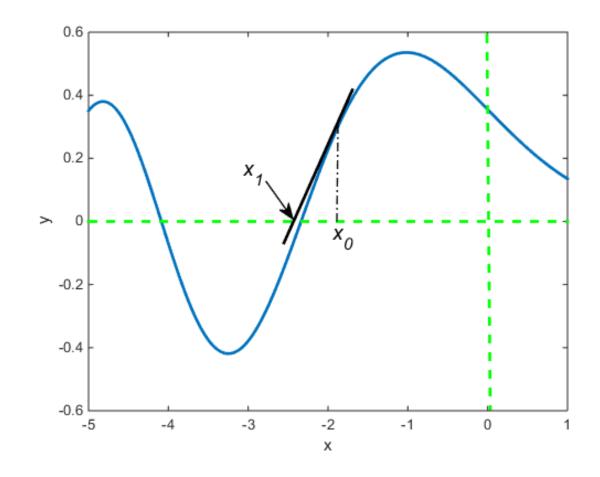
- This is the equation for a line tangent at x, which crosses the x-axis near p, but not at it (if things work right)
- Solving for p,

$$p \approx x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$$

• Because we aren't at the root, we turn this into an iteration. The x we expanded about becomes x_0 ; the approximate root into x_1 :

$$x_1 \approx x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}$$

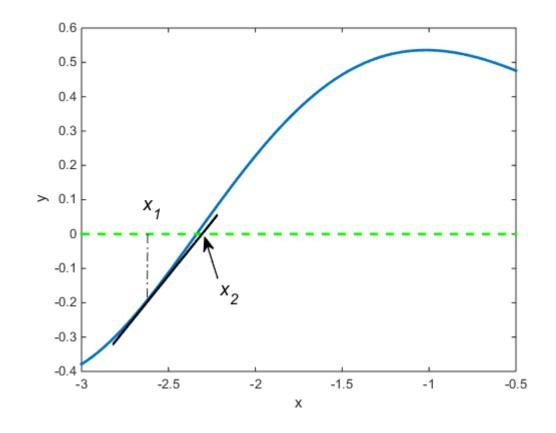
- x_1 is an approximation as well.
- Using it on the right side, we can generate a new approximation.



- x_1 is an approximation as well. Using it on the right side, we can generate a new approximation.
- Using x_1 as input, we compute a new $f(x_1)$ and $f'(x_1)$, and find the new approximation x_2
- We can repeat this and make it into an iteration:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}, \qquad n = 0,1,...$$

 Will it work? If so, how long to do this?



- Call the root r; we study what happens to the error $e_k = r x_k$ for n big enough
- ullet We assume that we can make e_n as small as we like
- Using $x_{k+1} = x_k \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}$, k = 0,1,...
- Subtract r from both sides, and eliminate x_k :

$$e_{k+1} = e_k - \frac{f(r - e_k)}{f'(r - e_k)}, \qquad n = 0,1,...$$

 \bullet The arguments of f and f' are small; Taylor expand them

$$e_{k+1} = e_k + \frac{f(r) - e_k f'(r) + \frac{1}{2} e_k^2 f''(r) + O(e_k^3)}{f'(r) - e_k f''(r) + O(e_k^2)}$$

Now use f(r)=0 in

$$e_{k+1} = e_k + \frac{f(r) - e_k f'(r) + \frac{1}{2} e_k^2 f''(r) + O(e_k^3)}{f'(r) - e_k f''(r) + O(e_k^2)}$$

• Then factor out f'(r); result in denominator can be written as geometric series:

$$e_{k+1} = e_k - e_k \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} e_k + O(e_k^2) \right] \left[1 - \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} e_k + O(e_k^2) \right]^{-1}$$

Multiply out the last two terms:

$$e_{k+1} = e_k - e_k \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} e_k + O(e_k^2) \right] \left[1 + \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} e_k + O(e_k^2) \right]$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} e_k^2 + O(e_k^3).$$

- This means $|e_{k+1}| \approx C|e_k|^2$, with the approximation getting better as k increases
- This is "quadratic convergence" or "quadratic rate of convergence"
- Number of correct digits doubles with each iteration
- If we take the log of both sides, we get $\log |e_{k+1}| \approx 2 \log |e_k| + K$
- This gives us an empirical way to detect rate of convergence
- Consider two sequences:
- $a_k = 2^{-k}$, k = 0,1,... each term in the sequence is half of previous
- $b_k = 2^{-2^k}$, k = 0,1,... this time, the exponent doubles every time

- Consider two sequences:
- $a_k = 2^{-k}$, k = 0,1,... each term in the sequence is half of previous
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- Try RateOfConv.m for empirical test in log-log plot
- Also look at $\lim_{k\to\infty}\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k}$ and $\lim_{k\to\infty}\frac{b_{k+1}}{b_k}$

Newton's method: example

- Consider solving for x where $2 = xe^x$
- We need to write it in standard form: $f(x) = xe^x 2$
- Then we are solving f(x) = 0
- Define f and df/dx
- Then, we can use fzero to find
- "exact" error
- Now use simple loop to iterate the r =
 formula:

```
f = @(x) x.*exp(x) - 2

dfdx = @(x) exp(x).*(x+1)

r = fzero(f,1)
```

```
r =
0.8526
```

```
x = 1;

for n = 1:6

x(n+1) = x(n) - f(x(n))/dfdx(x(n))

end
```

Newton's method: example

- Computing $f(x) = xe^x 2 = 0$
- The log of the error is at right
- Doubles, roughly for first five iterates
- Doubling stops because we ran out precision in the computer
- Computing the ratio of the logs shows that the slope is two, roughly, for the first five iterations; this is like looking at the ratio of b_n in model sequences

```
logerr = log(abs(e))
```

```
logerr =
-1.9146e+00
-4.1816e+00
-8.6344e+00
-1.7531e+01
-3.5351e+01
-3.6737e+01
-3.6737e+01
```

```
ratios = logerr(2:end) ./ logerr(1:end-1)

ratios =
    2.1840e+00
    2.0649e+00
    2.0303e+00
    2.0165e+00
    1.0392e+00
    1.0000e+00
```

Newton's method: Code

- For function, we need f, df/dx, initial guess
- Tolerances in both x and f(x) are set to 100eps
- A max number of iterations is set
- Iterate in while loop until tolerances aren't satisfied
- Stops if too many iterations

```
function x = newton(f, dfdx, x0)
               Newton's method for a scalar equation.
   % Input:
                function that outputs value of the function
       dfdx
                function that outputs values of the derivative
                initial root approximation
       x 0
   % Output
                vector of root approximations (last is best)
   % Operating parameters.
   funtol = 100*eps; xtol = 100*eps; maxiter = 40;
   x = x0;
   y = f(x0);
   dx = Inf;
   k = 1:
   while (abs(dx) > xtol) && (abs(y) > funtol)
     dydx = dfdx(x(k));
     dx = -y/dydx; % Newton step
     x(k+1) = x(k) + dx;
     k = k+1;
     if k==maxiter
25
       warning('Maximum number of iterations reached.')
26
       break
     end
     y = f(x(k));
   end
```

Newton's method: observations and advice

- If mistakes in df/dx or if multiple roots, then rate of convergence falls to only a linear rate of convergence
- If you see linear convergence, check your functions for mistakes, or multiple roots
- The guess must be close enough to the root to avoid zero slope in the function and to converge quadratically