

Numerical Analysis

(ENME 602)

Spring 2021

Lecture 2

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Lecture 2

Roots of Non-linear Equations

- 2.1 Algorithms Stability and Convergence
- 2.2 Root Finding Problem Statement
- 2.3 Bisection Method





Algorithm: is an approximation procedure that describes a finite sequence of steps to be performed in a specified order.

The object of the algorithm is to implement a procedure to solve a problem or approximate a solution to the problem.

Pseudocode: used to describe an algorithm. It follows the rules of structured program construction.

It specifies the input, output and a stopping technique independent of the numerical technique. It can be easily translated in any programming language: e.g Matlab, Python or Java.



Example: Write an algorithm to compute:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i = x_1 + x_2 + \ldots + x_N,$$

where N and the numbers x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N are given.

Pseudocode:

INPUT N, x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N .

OUTPUT
$$SUM = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$
.

Step 1 Set
$$SUM = 0$$
. (Initialize accumulator.)

Step 2 For
$$i = 1, 2, ..., N$$
 do set $SUM = SUM + x_i$. (Add the next term.)



Algorithm stability if small changes in the initial data (input) produce correspondingly small changes in the final results (output), the algorithm is called **stable**; otherwise it is **unstable**.

Round-off errors growth & algorithm stability

Let $E_0 > 0$ be an initial error, E_n error after n operations. Let C a constant independent of n:

The growth of error is said to be linear and the algorithm is stable if

$$E_n \approx C \times n \times E_0$$

► The growth of error is said to be exponential and the algorithm is unstable if

$$E_n \approx C^n \times E_0$$



Algorithm stability-Example: The recursive equation

$$p_n = \frac{10}{3}p_{n-1} - p_{n-2}, \quad n = 2, 3, \dots$$

has exact solution

$$p_n = c_1 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n + c_2 \cdot 3^n \tag{1}$$

for any constants c_1 , c_2 (determined by starting values $p_0 \& p_1$). In particular, if $p_0 = 1$ and $p_1 = \frac{1}{3}$, substitute into (1) to get

$$\begin{cases} c_1 + c_2 = p_0 = 1\\ \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)c_1 + 3c_2 = p_1 = \frac{1}{3} \end{cases}$$

we get
$$c_1=1,\quad c_2=0$$
 and $p_n=\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n$ for all n .



Algorithm stability-Example: Now, consider what happens when p_n is estimated in 5-digit rounding arithmetic, where $p_0 = 1$, $p_1 = \frac{1}{3}$ are rounded:

$$p_0^* = 1.0000$$
 $p_1^* = 0.33333$

Substitute p_0^* and p_1^* into the general solution

$$p_n = c_1 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n + c_2 \cdot 3^n$$

and solve for c_1 and c_2

$$\begin{cases} c_1 + c_2 = p_0^* = 1.0000 \\ \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) c_1 + 3c_2 = p_1^* = 0.33333 \end{cases}$$

we get modified constants $c_1^* = 1.0000$, $c_2^* = -0.12500 \times 10^{-5}$ and the approximation of the general solution is

$$p_n^* = c_1^* \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n + c_2^* 3^n$$



Algorithm stability-Example: To recapitulate:

For $p_0=1$, $p_1=\frac{1}{3}$, we get $c_1=1$, $c_2=0$ and the exact solution is

$$p_n = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n$$

With 5-digit rounding, $p_0^*=1.0000$, $p_1^*=0.33333$, we get $c_1^*=1.0000$, $c_2^*=-0.12500\times 10^{-5}$ and the approximate solution is

$$p_n^* = 1.0000 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n - 0.12500 \times 10^{-5}(3)^n$$

The round-off error clearly grows exponentially with n:

$$E_n = |p_n - p_n^*| = \underbrace{0.12500 \times 10^{-5} \text{(3)}^n}_{\text{exponential growth}}$$



Algorithm stability-Example: Exponential growth gives very large relative errors for the first few iterations

n	Computed \hat{p}_n	Correct p_n	Relative error
0	0.10000×10^{1}	0.10000×10^{1}	
1	0.33333×10^{0}	0.33333×10^{0}	
2	0.11110×10^{0}	0.111111×10^{0}	9×10^{-5}
3	0.37000×10^{-1}	0.37037×10^{-1}	1×10^{-3}
4	0.12230×10^{-1}	0.12346×10^{-1}	9×10^{-3}
5	0.37660×10^{-2}	0.41152×10^{-2}	8×10^{-2}
6	0.32300×10^{-3}	0.13717×10^{-2}	8×10^{-1}
7	-0.26893×10^{-2}	0.45725×10^{-3}	7×10^{0}
8	-0.92872×10^{-2}	0.15242×10^{-3}	6×10^{1}

Algorithms Convergence

- The concepts of limits and convergence of sequences you have covered in early calculus courses still apply to the sequence of approximations generated by the numerical iterative techniques in this course.
- A numerical iterative technique will start with an initial value (let us say α_0) and generates a sequence of approximations (α_n) to the solution (α) we are trying to compute.
- Hence in numerical analysis, the list of approximations generated by the given numerical method (α_n) is the sequence and the solution (α) we are trying to approximate is the limit.

Algorithms Convergence

- First let us recall What does it mean when we say a sequence " α_n " converges to its limit " α "?
 - ✓ It means when "n" starts getting enough large, the value of " α_n " gets closer to the value of the limit " α ".
 - Remember n here represents the iteration index, which means when you generate enough iterations, you are likely to get a better approximation for the limit value " α ".
 - ✓ IF this doesn't happen, the sequence is said to be *divergent*.
- In numerical analysis, it is not enough to *converge* to a limit, the speed of convergence also matters, in order to say that a method is efficient.
- For example, The Bisection Method always converges but because it converges with a very slow rate, it is not used in practice.
- In general, we would like the numerical technique to converge as rapidly as possible.

Rate of convergence: To describe the rate at which convergence occurs, when a numerical technique produces a sequence of approximations α_n , we compare to the convergence rate of a known sequence β_n :

Definition: Suppose $(\beta_n)_{n\geq 1}$ is a sequence known to converge to zero, and $(\alpha_n)_{n\geq 1}$ converges to α . If there exists K>0 with

$$|\alpha_n - \alpha| \le K \times |\beta_n|$$
 for large n ,

then we say that $(\alpha_n)_{n\geq 1}$ converges to α with rate of convergence $O(\beta_n)$. (Read as "big oh of β_n ") and written as

$$\alpha_n = \alpha + O(\beta_n).$$

Often β_n is taken as $\beta_n = \frac{1}{n^p} \longrightarrow 0$, the larger is p the faster is the rate of convergence.



Example:(Ex.6(b), Sec.1.3) Find the rate of convergence of the sequence

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\sin\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)=0$$

▶ Let $\alpha_n = \sin\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$ and $\alpha = 0$, we show that $|\alpha_n - \alpha|$ is bounded above by a sequence β_n converging to zero.

$$|\alpha_n - \alpha| = \left| \sin\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right) - 0 \right| = \left| \sin\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right) \right| \le \left| \frac{1}{n^2} \right| \quad \text{for all } n \ge 1$$

(using the inequality $|\sin(x)| \le |x|$, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$).

► Hence $\beta_n = \frac{1}{n^2} \longrightarrow 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

The rate of convergence of $\sin(\frac{1}{n^2})$ is $O(\frac{1}{n^2})$. We write

$$\sin\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right) = 0 + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$

That is, $\sin(\frac{1}{n^2}) \longrightarrow 0$ about as fast as $\frac{1}{n^2}$ converges to zero.



Solutions of Non-linear Equations in One Variable

- Bisection Method
- Newton's Method and its extensions
 - ✓ Newton's Method
 - √ Secant Method
 - **✓** Method of False Position
- Fixed-Point Method

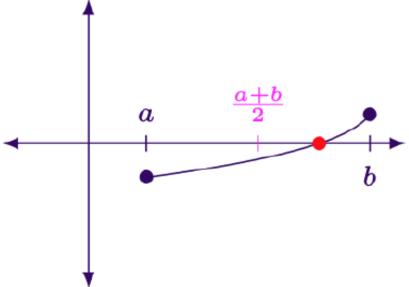
2.2 Root Finding Problem Statement

2.2 Root Finding Problem Statement

The root of an equation

The value of x that satisfies f(x) = 0 is called the root (solution) of the equation f(x) = 0 or the zero of the function f.

Graphically, it is the x-intercept when the graph of f crosses the x-axis.

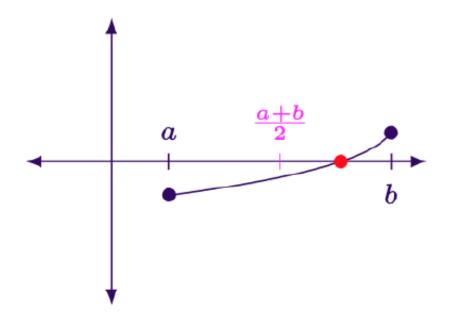


The root-finding problem

is the process of approximating the root (solution) of the equation f(x) = 0 (to within a given tolerance).

Idea of bisection method

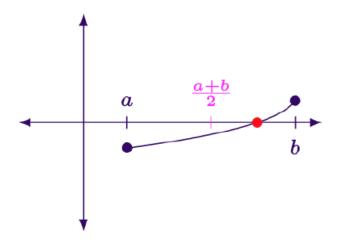
When there is a root (red dot here), it occurs either in the right half of the interval [a,b] (like in the graph) or in the left half or at the midpoint. Take the half that contains the root!

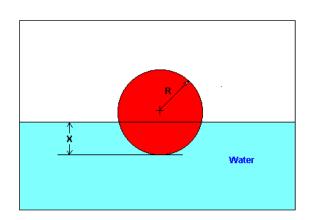


We obtain an approximation of the root by repeatedly halving the subintervals of [a,b], and "trapping" the root in smaller and smaller interval at each step.

Idea of bisection method

When there is a root (red dot here), it occurs either in the right half of the interval [a,b] (like in the graph) or in the left half or at the midpoint. Take the half that contains the root!





Example: The equation that gives the depth to which the ball (given its specific gravity and radius) is submerged under water is given by *x*:

$$x^3 - 0.165x^2 + 3.993 \times 10^{-4} = 0$$

$$0 \le x \le 2R$$

$$0 \le x \le 2(0.055)$$

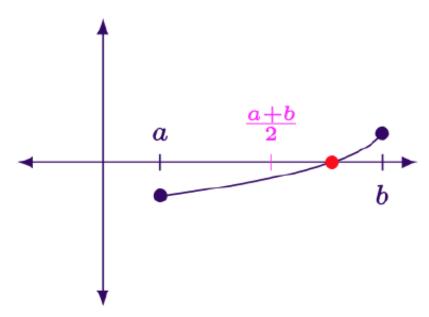
$$0 \le x \le 0.11$$



Idea of bisection method

Q: How to know that a root exists in [a, b]?

Answer: apply the Intermediate Value Theorem: If f is continuous on [a,b] and f(a) and f(b) are of opposite signs (which is usually expressed as their product $f(a) \cdot f(b) < 0$) then there exist p such that f(p) = 0.



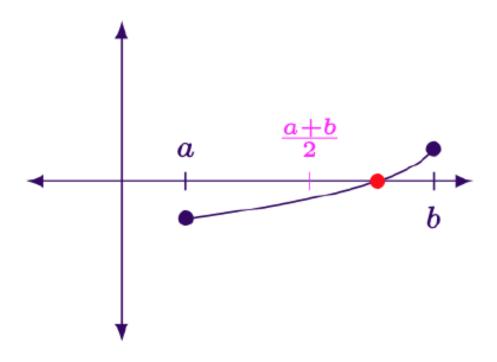
Note: We assume there is a unique solution inside the interval



Idea of bisection method

Halving the interval [a, b]

The method calls for a repeated halving of subintervals of [a, b] and, at each step, locating the half containing p.



Idea of bisection method

Q: How to select the half that contains the root?

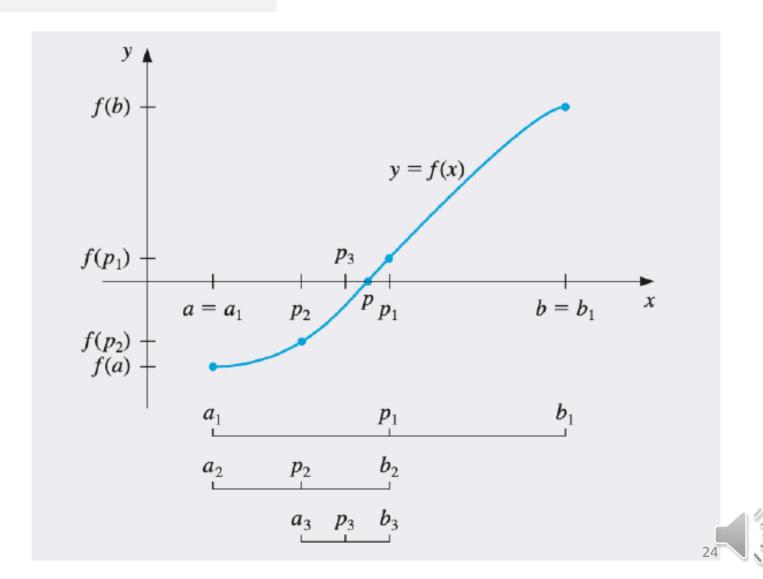
Construct the sequence of subintervals $[a_k, b_k]$ iteratively:

- ▶ Begin with first interval $[a_1, b_1] = [a, b]$ such that f(a)f(b) < 0 (so f has a root in [a, b]).
- ► Compute the midpoint $p = \frac{a+b}{2}$.
- ▶ To choose left or right subinterval: check the sign of f(p) and compare it to the signs of f(a) and f(b).

If f(a)f(p) < 0 then f change signs in [a, p], the new interval $[a_2, b_2] = [a, p]$, otherwise, take [p, b].

▶ Set either [a, p] or [p, b] as new interval. At each iteration use p as new approximation of the root.

Bisection illustration

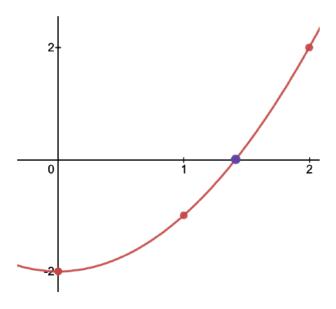


Example 1

Approximate $\sqrt{2}$, using bisection method

Let $x = \sqrt{2}$, to approximate x, convert it to a root-finding problem by squaring both sides $x^2 = 2$, then let $f(x) = x^2 - 2$, and seek a positive value for x that is a root of f(x) = 0. Select a starting interval [0,2] that contains the root.

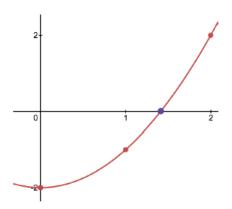
Note that $f(0) \cdot f(2) = (-2) \cdot (2) = -4 < 0$, so there exists $p \in [0, 2]$ such that $f(p) = p^2 - 2 = 0$.



Example 1

Approximate $\sqrt{2}$, using bisection method (compute p_3)

Given [a, b] = [0, 2] with f(0) < 0 and f(2) > 0:



▶ Iteration 1: Compute the midpoint & its image:

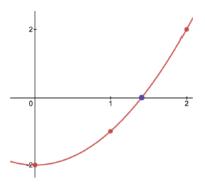
$$p_1 = \frac{a+b}{2} = 1, \quad f(p_1) = -1 < 0$$

▶ Clearly $f(p_1) \cdot f(b) = f(1) \cdot f(2) = (-1)(2) = -2 < 0$, hence the root lies in $[p_1, b] = [1, 2]$, the new interval.



Example 1

Approximate $\sqrt{2}$, using bisection method (compute p_3)



▶ Iteration 2: The new interval is $[a_2, b_2] = [p_1, b] = [1, 2]$, compute the new midpoint p_2 & its image:

$$p_2 = \frac{p_1 + b}{2} = \frac{3}{2} \approx 1.500, \quad f(p_2) = \frac{1}{4} > 0$$

This time

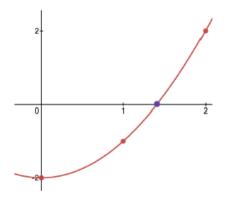
$$f(a_2) \cdot f(p_2) = f(p_1) \cdot f(p_2) = f(1) \cdot f(1.5) = (-1)(2) = -2 < 0$$

hence the root lies in $[p_1, p_2] = [1, 1.5]$.



Example 1

Approximate $\sqrt{2}$, using bisection method (compute p_3)



▶ Iteration 3: The new interval is $[a_3, b_3] = [p_1, p_2] = [1, 1.500]$, compute p_3 :

$$p_3 = \frac{p_1 + p_2}{2} = \frac{5}{4} = 1.2500 \approx \sqrt{2} = 1.4142...$$

Example 1

Approximate $\sqrt{2}$, using bisection method (compute p_3)

Get used to organize your iterations in a table:

n	a _n	b_n	p_n	$f(p_n)$	$E_{relative} = \frac{ p_n - p_{n-1} }{ p_n }$
1	0	2	$p_1 = 1.0000$		
2	1	2	$p_2 = 1.5000$	0.2500	
3	1	1.5000	$p_3 = 1.2500$		

Note that $p_3 = 1.2500$ is not yet the best approximation to $\sqrt{2} \approx 1.4142$ since it approximates it to only one decimal precision.

Stopping Criteria: Error bound for bisection method

Q1: How do we know when to stop iterations?

Q2: Is convergence guaranteed?

Theorem (2.1)

Suppose that $f \in C[a,b]$ and $f(a) \cdot f(b) < 0$. The Bisection method generates a sequence $\{p_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ approximating a zero p of f with

$$|p_n-p|\leq \frac{b-a}{2^n},$$
 when $n\geq 1$.

This Theorem is a powerful tool, because:

- It guarantees convergence (under assumptions f continuous and f(a)f(b) < 0)
- ▶ it gives an upper bound for the absolute error $|p p_n| \le \frac{b-a}{2^n}$.
- ▶ it gives the exact number of steps needed to achieve a desired accuracy, and therefore to stop iterating.



Stopping Criteria: Error bound for bisection method

Q1: How do we know when to stop iterations?

If we iterate until the n^{th} sub-interval length is at most ϵ :

$$\frac{b-a}{2^n} \le \epsilon \tag{1}$$

The Theorem guarantees that the absolute error is at most ϵ :

$$|p-p_n| \le \frac{b-a}{2^n} \le \epsilon$$

To determine the number of iteration \mathbf{n} necessary to reach a tolerance ϵ in [a, b], solve (1) for \mathbf{n} : taking In of both sides

$$\ln\left(\frac{b-a}{2^{\mathbf{n}}}\right) < \ln(\epsilon)$$

$$\ln(b-a) - \mathbf{n} \ln 2 < \ln(\epsilon) \Longrightarrow \mathbf{n} > \frac{\ln(b-a) - \ln(\epsilon)}{\ln 2} = \frac{\ln(\frac{b-a}{\epsilon})}{\ln 2}$$



Example on error bound

How many iterations needed to approximate $\sqrt{2}$ to within a tolerance 10^{-3} , using 5-digits rounding arithmetic?

▶ To determine the number of iteration \mathbf{n} necessary to reach a tolerance ϵ , in [0,2], requires finding \mathbf{n} that satisfies:

$$|p - p_{\mathbf{n}}| \le \frac{b - a}{2^{\mathbf{n}}} < 10^{-3}$$

▶ For $\epsilon = 10^3$, a = 0, and b = 2, the minimum number of iteration to reach the precision ϵ satisfies

$$\mathbf{n} > \frac{\ln\left(\frac{b-a}{\epsilon}\right)}{\ln 2} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{2-0}{10^{-3}}\right)}{\ln 2} \approx 10.9658$$

Hence we need at least $\mathbf{n}=11$ iterations to reach the precision $\epsilon=10^{-3}$.



Bisection Algorithm

To find a solution to f(x) = 0 given the continuous function f on the interval [a, b], where f(a) and f(b) have opposite signs:

INPUT endpoints a, b; tolerance TOL; maximum number of iterations N_0 .

OUTPUT approximate solution p or message of failure.

Step 1 Set
$$i = 1$$
;
 $FA = f(a)$.

Step 2 While $i \le N_0$ do Steps 3–6.

Step 3 Set
$$p = a + (b - a)/2$$
; (Compute p_i .)
 $FP = f(p)$.

Step 4 If
$$FP = 0$$
 or $(b - a)/2 < TOL$ then OUTPUT (p) ; (Procedure completed successfully.) STOP.

Step 5 Set
$$i = i + 1$$
.

Step 6 If
$$FA \cdot FP > 0$$
 then set $a = p$; (Compute a_i, b_i .)
$$FA = FP$$
else set $b = p$. (FA is unchanged.)

Step 7 OUTPUT ('Method failed after N_0 iterations, $N_0 =$ ', N_0); (The procedure was unsuccessful.) STOP.



- The Bisection method, though conceptually clear, has significant drawbacks. It is relatively slow to converge (that is, N may become quite large before $|p p_n|$ is sufficiently small), and a good intermediate approximation might be unintentionally discarded.
- However, the method has the important property that it always converges to a solution, and for that reason it is often used as a starter for the more efficient methods we will see later in False Position Method.

Thank You



- Extension of Newton's Method
 - ✓ Secant Method
 - ✓ Method of False Position
- Fixed-Point Method

