

## COURSE 10

### 4.3. Iterative methods for solving linear systems

Because of round-off errors, direct methods become less efficient than iterative methods for large systems ( $>100\ 000$  variables).

An iterative scheme for linear systems consists of converting the system

$$Ax = b \tag{1}$$

to the form

$$x = \tilde{b} - Bx.$$

After an initial guess for  $x^{(0)}$ , the sequence of approximations of the solution  $x^{(0)}, x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(k)}, \dots$  is generated by computing

$$x^{(k)} = \tilde{b} - Bx^{(k-1)}, \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

### 4.3.1. Jacobi iterative method

Consider the  $n \times n$  linear system,

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \dots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n, \end{cases}$$

where we assume that the diagonal terms  $a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn}$  are all nonzero.

We begin our iterative scheme by solving each equation for one of the variables:

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = u_{12}x_2 + \dots + u_{1n}x_n + c_1 \\ x_2 = u_{21}x_1 + \dots + u_{2n}x_n + c_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n = u_{n1}x_1 + \dots + u_{nn-1}x_{n-1} + c_n, \end{cases}$$

where  $u_{ij} = -\frac{a_{ij}}{a_{ii}}$ ,  $c_i = \frac{b_i}{a_{ii}}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

Let  $x^{(0)} = (x_1^{(0)}, x_2^{(0)}, \dots, x_n^{(0)})$  be an initial approximation of the solution. The  $k + 1$ -th approximation is:

$$\begin{cases} x_1^{(k+1)} = u_{12}x_2^{(k)} + \dots + u_{1n}x_n^{(k)} + c_1 \\ x_2^{(k+1)} = u_{21}x_1^{(k)} + u_{23}x_3^{(k)} + \dots + u_{2n}x_n^{(k)} + c_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n^{(k+1)} = u_{n1}x_1^{(k)} + \dots + u_{nn-1}x_{n-1}^{(k)} + c_n, \end{cases}$$

for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

**An algorithmic form:**

$$x_i^{(k)} = \frac{b_i - \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n a_{ij}x_j^{(k-1)}}{a_{ii}}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad \text{for } k \geq 1.$$

The iterative process is terminated when a convergence criterion is satisfied.

Stopping criteria:  $|x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)}| < \varepsilon$  or  $\frac{|x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)}|}{|x^{(k)}|} < \varepsilon$ , with  $\varepsilon > 0$  - a prescribed tolerance.

**Example 1** Solve the following system using the Jacobi iterative method. Use  $\varepsilon = 10^{-3}$  and  $x^{(0)} = (0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0)$  as the starting vector.

$$\begin{cases} 7x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 &= 17 \\ x_1 - 9x_2 + 3x_3 - x_4 &= 13 \\ 2x_1 + 10x_3 + x_4 &= 15 \\ x_1 - x_2 + x_3 + 6x_4 &= 10. \end{cases}$$

These equations can be rearranged to give

$$x_1 = (17 + 2x_2 - x_3)/7$$

$$x_2 = (-13 + x_1 + 3x_3 - x_4)/9$$

$$x_3 = (15 - 2x_1 - x_4)/10$$

$$x_4 = (10 - x_1 + x_2 - x_3)/6$$

and, for example,

$$x_1^{(1)} = (17 + 2x_2^{(0)} - x_3^{(0)})/7$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = (-13 + x_1^{(0)} + 3x_3^{(0)} - x_4^{(0)})/9$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = (15 - 2x_1^{(0)} - x_4^{(0)})/10$$

$$x_4^{(1)} = (10 - x_1^{(0)} + x_2^{(0)} - x_3^{(0)})/6.$$

Substitute  $x^{(0)} = (0, 0, 0, 0)$  into the right-hand side of each of these equations to get

$$x_1^{(1)} = (17 + 2 \cdot 0 - 0)/7 = 2.428\ 571\ 429$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = (-13 + 0 + 3 \cdot 0 - 0)/9 = -1.444\ 444\ 444$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = (15 - 2 \cdot 0 - 0)/10 = 1.5$$

$$x_4^{(1)} = (10 - 0 + 0 - 0)/6 = 1.666\ 666\ 667$$

and so  $x^{(1)} = (2.428\ 571\ 429, -1.444\ 444\ 444, 1.5, 1.666\ 666\ 667)$ .

The Jacobi iterative process:

$$x_1^{(k+1)} = \left(17 + 2x_2^{(k)} - x_3^{(k)}\right) / 7$$

$$x_2^{(k+1)} = \left(-13 + x_1^{(k)} + 3x_3^{(k)} - x_4^{(k)}\right) / 9$$

$$x_3^{(k+1)} = \left(15 - 2x_1^{(k)} - x_4^{(k)}\right) / 10$$

$$x_4^{(k+1)} = \left(10 - x_1^{(k)} + x_2^{(k)} - x_3^{(k)}\right) / 6, \quad k \geq 1.$$

We obtain a sequence that converges to

$$x^{(9)} = (2.000127203, -1.000100162, 1.000118096, 1.000162172).$$

### 4.3.2. Gauss-Seidel iterative method

Almost the same as Jacobi method, except that each  $x$ -value is improved using the most recent approx. of the other variables.

For a  $n \times n$  system, the  $k + 1$ -th approximation is:

$$\begin{cases} x_1^{(k+1)} = u_{12}x_2^{(k)} + \dots + u_{1n}x_n^{(k)} + c_1 \\ x_2^{(k+1)} = u_{21}x_1^{(k+1)} + u_{23}x_3^{(k)} + \dots + u_{2n}x_n^{(k)} + c_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n^{(k+1)} = u_{n1}x_1^{(k+1)} + \dots + u_{nn-1}x_{n-1}^{(k+1)} + c_n, \end{cases}$$

with  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ;  $u_{ij} = -\frac{a_{ij}}{a_{ii}}$ ,  $c_i = \frac{b_i}{a_{ii}}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  (as in Jacobi method).

**Algorithmic form:**

$$x_i^{(k)} = \frac{b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij}x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij}x_j^{(k-1)}}{a_{ii}}$$

for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , and for  $k \geq 1$ .

Stopping criteria:  $|x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)}| < \varepsilon$ , or  $\frac{|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}|}{|\mathbf{x}^{(k)}|} < \varepsilon$ , with  $\varepsilon$  - a prescribed tolerance,  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

**Remark 2** *Because the new values can be immediately stored in the location that held the old values, the storage requirements for  $\mathbf{x}$  with the Gauss-Seidel method is half than that for Jacobi method and the rate of convergence is faster.*

**Example 3** *Solve the following system using the Gauss-Seidel iterative method. Use  $\varepsilon = 10^{-3}$  and  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0)$  as the starting vector.*

$$\begin{cases} 7x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 & = 17 \\ x_1 - 9x_2 + 3x_3 - x_4 & = 13 \\ 2x_1 & + 10x_3 + x_4 = 15 \\ x_1 - x_2 + x_3 + 6x_4 & = 10 \end{cases}$$

*We have*

$$x_1 = (17 + 2x_2 - x_3)/7$$

$$x_2 = (-13 + x_1 + 3x_3 - x_4)/9$$

$$x_3 = (15 - 2x_1 - x_4)/10$$

$$x_4 = (10 - x_1 + x_2 - x_3)/6,$$

*and, for example,*

$$x_1^{(1)} = (17 + 2x_2^{(0)} - x_3^{(0)})/7$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = (-13 + x_1^{(1)} + 3x_3^{(0)} - x_4^{(0)})/9$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = (15 - 2x_1^{(1)} - x_4^{(0)})/10$$

$$x_4^{(1)} = (10 - x_1^{(1)} + x_2^{(1)} - x_3^{(1)})/6,$$



which provide the following Gauss-Seidel iterative process:

$$x_1^{(k+1)} = \left( 17 + 2x_2^{(k)} - x_3^{(k)} \right) / 7$$

$$x_2^{(k+1)} = \left( -13 + x_1^{(k+1)} + 3x_3^{(k)} - x_4^{(k)} \right) / 9$$

$$x_3^{(k+1)} = \left( 15 - 2x_1^{(k+1)} - x_4^{(k)} \right) / 10$$

$$x_4^{(k+1)} = \left( 10 - x_1^{(k+1)} + x_2^{(k+1)} - x_3^{(k+1)} \right) / 6, \quad \text{for } k \geq 1.$$

Substitute  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (0, 0, 0, 0)$  into the right-hand side of each of these equations to get

$$x_1^{(1)} = (17 + 2 \cdot 0 - 0) / 7 = 2.428 \ 571 \ 429$$

$$x_2^{(1)} = (-13 + 2.428 \ 571 \ 429 + 3 \cdot 0 - 0) / 9 = -1.1746031746$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = (15 - 2 \cdot 2.428 \ 571 \ 429 - 0) / 10 = 1.0142857143$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_4^{(1)} &= (10 - 2.428 \ 571 \ 429 - 1.1746031746 - 1.0142857143) / 6 \\ &= 0.8970899472 \end{aligned}$$

*and so*

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = (2.428571429 - 1.1746031746, 1.0142857143, 0.8970899472).$$

*Similar procedure generates a sequence that converges to*

$$\mathbf{x}^{(5)} = (2.000025, -1.000130, 1.000020, 0.999971).$$

### 4.3.3. Relaxation method

In case of convergence, the Gauss-Seidel method is faster than Jacobi method. The convergence can be more improved using **relaxation method (SOR method)** (SOR=Successive Over Relaxation)

Algorithmic form of the method:

$$x_i^{(k)} = \frac{\omega}{a_{ii}} \left( b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij}x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij}x_j^{(k-1)} \right) + (1 - \omega)x_i^{(k-1)}$$

for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , and for  $k \geq 1$ .

For  $0 < \omega < 1$  the procedure is called **under relaxation method**, that can be used to obtain convergence for systems which are not convergent by Gauss-Siedel method.

For  $\omega > 1$  the procedure is called **over relaxation method**, that can be used to accelerate the convergence for systems which are convergent by Gauss-Siedel method.

By Kahan's Theorem follows that the method converges for  $0 < \omega < 2$ .

**Remark 4** For  $\omega = 1$ , relaxation method is Gauss-Seidel method.

**Example 5** Solve the following system, using relaxation iterative method.  
Use  $\varepsilon = 10^{-3}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (1 \ 1 \ 1)$  and  $\omega = 1.25$ ,

$$\begin{array}{rclcl} 4x_1 & + & 3x_2 & & = & 24 \\ 3x_1 & + & 4x_2 & - & x_3 & = & 30 \\ & & - & x_2 & + & 4x_3 & = & -24 \end{array}$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} x_1^{(k)} &= 7.5 - 0.937x_2^{(k-1)} - 0.25x_1^{(k-1)} \\ x_2^{(k)} &= 9.375 - 9.375x_1^{(k)} + 0.3125x_3^{(k-1)} - 0.25x_2^{(k-1)} \\ x_3^{(k)} &= -7.5 + 0.3125x_2^{(k)} - 0.25x_3^{(k-1)}, \quad \text{for } k \geq 1. \end{aligned}$$

The solution is  $(3, 4, -5)$ .

### 4.3.4 The matriceal formulations of the iterative methods

Split the matrix  $A$  into the sum

$$A = D + L + U,$$

where  $D$  is the diagonal of  $A$ ,  $L$  the lower triangular part of  $A$ , and  $U$  the upper triangular part of  $A$ . That is,

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}, \quad L = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & & 0 \\ a_{21} & \ddots & & \ddots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{n,n-1} & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$
$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \ddots & a_{n-1,n} \\ 0 & \cdots & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The system  $Ax = b$  can be written as

$$(D + L + U)x = b.$$

The **Jacobi method** in matriceal form is given by:

$$D\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = -(L + U)\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{b}$$

the **Gauss-Seidel method** in matriceal form is given by:

$$(D + L)\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = -U\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{b}$$

and **the relaxation method** in matriceal form is given by:

$$(D + \omega L)\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = ((1 - \omega)D - \omega U)\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \omega \mathbf{b}$$

## Convergence of the iterative methods

**Remark 6** *The convergence (or divergence) of the iterative process in the Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel methods does not depend on the initial guess, but depends only on the character of the matrices themselves. However, a good first guess in case of convergence will make for a relatively small number of iterations.*

A sufficient condition for convergence:

**Theorem 7 (Convergence Theorem)** *If  $A$  is strictly diagonally dominant, then the Jacobi, Gauss-Seidel and relaxation methods converge for any choice of the starting vector  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ .*

**Example 8** *Consider the system of equations*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 4 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

*The coefficient matrix of the system is strictly diagonally dominant since*

$$|a_{11}| = |3| = 3 > |1| + |1| = 2$$

$$|a_{22}| = |4| = 4 > |-2| + |0| = 2$$

$$|a_{33}| = |-6| = 6 > |-1| + |2| = 3.$$

*Hence, if the Jacobi or Gauss-Seidel method are used to solve the system of equations, they will converge for any choice of the starting vector  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ .*

**Example 9** Consider the linear system

$$\begin{aligned}4x_1 + x_2 &= 3 \\ 2x_1 + 5x_2 &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

a) Perform two iterations of the Jacobi method to this system, beginning with the vector  $x = [3, 11]$ .

b) Perform two iterations of the Gauss-Seidel method to this system, beginning with the vector  $x = [3, 11]$ .

(Solutions of the system are  $7/9$  and  $-1/9$ ).



## 5. Numerical methods for solving nonlinear equations in $\mathbb{R}$

Let  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Consider the equation

$$f(x) = 0, \quad x \in \Omega. \quad (2)$$

We attach a mapping  $F : D \rightarrow D$ ,  $D \subset \Omega^n$  to this equation.

Let  $(x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}) \in D$ . Using  $F$  and the numbers  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}$  we construct iteratively the sequence

$$x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n, \dots \quad (3)$$

with

$$x_i = F(x_{i-n}, \dots, x_{i-1}), \quad i = n, \dots. \quad (4)$$

The problem consists in choosing  $F$  and  $x_0, \dots, x_{n-1} \in D$  such that the sequence (3) to be convergent to the solution of the equation (2).

**Definition 10** *The procedure of approximation the solution of equation (2) by the elements of the sequence (3), computed as in (4), is called  **$F$ -method**.*

*The numbers  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}$  are called **the starting points** and the  $k$ -th element of the sequence (3) is called an approximation of  $k$ -th order of the solution.*

If the set of starting points has only one element then the  $F$ -method is **an one-step method**; if it has more than one element then the  $F$ -method is **a multistep method**.

**Definition 11** *If the sequence (3) converges to the solution of the equation (2) then the  $F$ -method is convergent, otherwise it is divergent.*

**Definition 12** Let  $\alpha \in \Omega$  be a solution of the equation (2) and let  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n, \dots$  be the sequence generated by a given  $F$ -method. The number  $p$  having the property

$$\lim_{x_i \rightarrow \alpha} \frac{\alpha - F(x_{i-n+1}, \dots, x_i)}{(\alpha - x_i)^p} = C \neq 0, \quad C = \text{constant},$$

is called the order of the  $F$ -method.

We construct some classes of  $F$ -methods based on the interpolation procedures.

Let  $\alpha \in \Omega$  be a solution of the equation (2) and  $V(\alpha)$  a neighborhood of  $\alpha$ . Assume that  $f$  has inverse on  $V(\alpha)$  and denote  $g := f^{-1}$ . Since

$$f(\alpha) = 0$$

it follows that

$$\alpha = g(0).$$

This way, the approximation of the solution  $\alpha$  is reduced to the approximation of  $g(0)$ .

**Definition 13** *The approximation of  $g$  by means of an interpolating method, and of  $\alpha$  by the value of  $g$  at the point zero is called **the inverse interpolation procedure**.*

### 5.1. One-step methods

Let  $F$  be a one-step method, i.e., for a given  $x_i$  we have  $x_{i+1} = F(x_i)$ .

**Remark 14** *If  $p = 1$  the convergence condition is  $|F'(x)| < 1$ .*

*If  $p > 1$  there always exists a neighborhood of  $\alpha$  where the  $F$ -method converges.*

All information on  $f$  are given at a single point, the starting value  $\Rightarrow$  we are lead to Taylor interpolation.

**Theorem 15** *Let  $\alpha$  be a solution of equation (2),  $V(\alpha)$  a neighborhood of  $\alpha$ ,  $x, x_i \in V(\alpha)$ ,  $f$  fulfills the necessary continuity conditions.*

Then we have the following method, denoted by  $F_m^T$ , for approximating  $\alpha$ :

$$F_m^T(x_i) = x_i + \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} [f(x_i)]^k g^{(k)}(f(x_i)), \quad (5)$$

where  $g = f^{-1}$ .

**Proof.** There exists  $g = f^{-1} \in C^m[V(0)]$ . Let  $y_i = f(x_i)$  and consider Taylor interpolation formula

$$g(y) = (T_{m-1}g)(y) + (R_{m-1}g)(y),$$

with

$$(T_{m-1}g)(y) = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{k!} (y - y_i)^k g^{(k)}(y_i),$$

and  $R_{m-1}g$  is the corresponding remainder.

Since  $\alpha = g(0)$  and  $g \approx T_{m-1}g$ , it follows

$$\alpha \approx (T_{m-1}g)(0) = x_i + \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} y_i^k g^{(k)}(y_i).$$

Hence,

$$x_{i+1} := F_m^T(x_i) = x_i + \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} [f(x_i)]^k g^{(k)}(f(x_i))$$

is an approximation of  $\alpha$ , and  $F_m^T$  is an approximation method for the solution  $\alpha$ . ■

Concerning the order of the method  $F_m^T$  we state:

**Theorem 16** *If  $g = f^{-1}$  satisfies condition  $g^{(m)}(0) \neq 0$ , then  $\text{ord}(F_m^T) = m$ .*

**Remark 17** *We have an upper bound for the absolute error in approximating  $\alpha$  by  $x_{i+1}$ :*

$$\left| \alpha - F_m^T(x_i) \right| \leq \frac{1}{m!} [f(x_i)]^m M_m g, \quad \text{with } M_m g = \sup_{y \in V(0)} \left| g^{(m)}(y) \right|.$$

## Particular cases.

1) Case  $m = 2$ .

$$F_2^T(x_i) = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)}.$$

This method is called **Newton's method (the tangent method)**. Its order is 2.

2) Case  $m = 3$ .

$$F_3^T(x_i) = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)} - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)} \right]^2 \frac{f''(x_i)}{f'(x_i)},$$

with  $\text{ord}(F_3^T) = 3$ . So, this method converges faster than  $F_2^T$ .

3) Case  $m = 4$ .

$$F_4^T(x_i) = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(x_i)f^2(x_i)}{[f'(x_i)]^3} + \frac{\left(f'''(x_i)f'(x_i) - 3[f''(x_i)]^2\right)f^3(x_i)}{3![f'(x_i)]^5}.$$

**Remark 18** *The higher the order of a method is, the faster the method converges. Still, this doesn't mean that a higher order method is more efficient (computation requirements). By the contrary, the most efficient are the methods of relatively low order, due to their low complexity (methods  $F_2^T$  and  $F_3^T$ ).*

## Newton's method

According to Remark 14, there always exists a neighborhood of  $\alpha$  where the  $F$ –method is convergent. Choosing  $x_0$  in such a neighborhood allows approximating  $\alpha$  by terms of the sequence

$$x_{i+1} = F_2^T(x_i) = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)}, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots,$$

with a prescribed error  $\varepsilon$ .

If  $\alpha$  is a solution of equation (2) and  $x_{n+1} = F_2^T(x_n)$ , for approximation error, Remark 17 gives

$$|\alpha - x_{n+1}| \leq \frac{1}{2}[f(x_n)]^2 M_2 g.$$



**Lemma 19** *Let  $\alpha \in (a, b)$  be a solution of equation (2) and let  $x_n = F_2^T(x_{n-1})$ . Then*

$$|\alpha - x_n| \leq \frac{1}{m_1} |f(x_n)|, \quad \text{with } m_1 \leq m_1 f = \min_{a \leq x \leq b} |f'(x)|.$$

**Proof.** We use the mean formula

$$f(\alpha) - f(x_n) = f'(\xi)(\alpha - x_n),$$

with  $\xi \in$  to the interval determined by  $\alpha$  and  $x_n$ . From  $f(\alpha) = 0$  and  $|f'(x)| \geq m_1$  for  $x \in (a, b)$ , it follows  $|f(x_n)| \geq m_1 |\alpha - x_n|$ , that is

$$|\alpha - x_n| \leq \frac{1}{m_1} |f(x_n)|.$$

■

In practical applications the following evaluation is more useful:

**Lemma 20** *If  $f \in C^2[a, b]$  and  $F_2^T$  is convergent, then there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that*

$$|x_n - \alpha| \leq |x_n - x_{n-1}|, \quad n > n_0.$$

**Remark 21** *The starting value is chosen randomly. If, after a fixed number of iterations the required precision is not achieved, i.e., condition  $|x_n - x_{n-1}| \leq \varepsilon$ , does not hold for a prescribed positive  $\varepsilon$ , the computation has to be started over with a new starting value.*

A modified form of Newton's method: - the same value during the computation of  $f'$ :

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_0)}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

It is very useful because it doesn't request the computation of  $f'$  at  $x_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots$  but the order is no longer equal to 2.

## Another way for obtaining Newton's method.

We start with  $x_0$  as an initial guess, sufficiently close to the  $\alpha$ . Next approximation  $x_1$  is the point at which the tangent line to  $f$  at  $(x_0, f(x_0))$  crosses the  $Ox$ -axis. The value  $x_1$  is much closer to the root  $\alpha$  than  $x_0$ .

We write the equation of the tangent line at  $(x_0, f(x_0))$  :

$$y - f(x_0) = f'(x_0)(x - x_0).$$

If  $x = x_1$  is the point where this line intersects the  $Ox$ -axis, then  $y = 0$

$$-f(x_0) = f'(x_0)(x_1 - x_0),$$

and solving for  $x_1$  gives

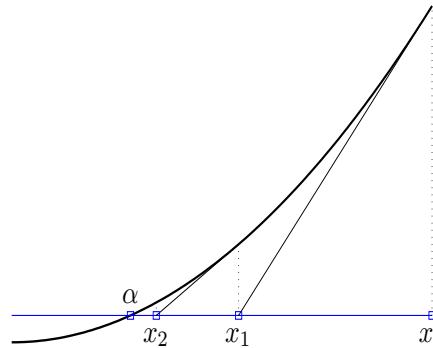
$$x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}.$$

By repeating the process using the tangent line at  $(x_1, f(x_1))$ , we obtain for  $x_2$

$$x_2 = x_1 - \frac{f(x_1)}{f'(x_1)}$$

For the general case we have

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}, \quad n \geq 0. \quad (6)$$



**The algorithm:**

Let  $x_0$  be the initial approximation.

**for**  $n = 0, 1, \dots, ITMAX$

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

A stopping criterion is:

$$|f(x_n)| \leq \varepsilon \text{ or } |x_{n+1} - x_n| \leq \varepsilon \text{ or } \frac{|x_{n+1} - x_n|}{|x_{n+1}|} \leq \varepsilon,$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is a specified tolerance value.

**Example 22** Use Newton's method to compute a root of  $x^3 - x^2 - 1 = 0$ , to an accuracy of  $10^{-4}$ . Use  $x_0 = 1$ .

**Sol.** The derivative of  $f$  is  $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 2x$ . Using  $x_0 = 1$  gives  $f(1) = -1$  and  $f'(1) = 1$  and so the first Newton's iterate is

$$x_1 = 1 - \frac{-1}{1} = 2 \text{ and } f(2) = 3, f'(2) = 8.$$

The next iterate is

$$x_2 = 2 - \frac{3}{8} = 1.625.$$

Continuing in this manner we obtain the sequence of approximations which converges to 1.465571.