

*Title of the course:*

# **Numerical Analysis**

**Lector: Prof. A. Kuzmin**

**Harbin Institute of Technology**

**2024**

# Introduction

**We will study methods, algorithms, for solving complex equations numerically.**

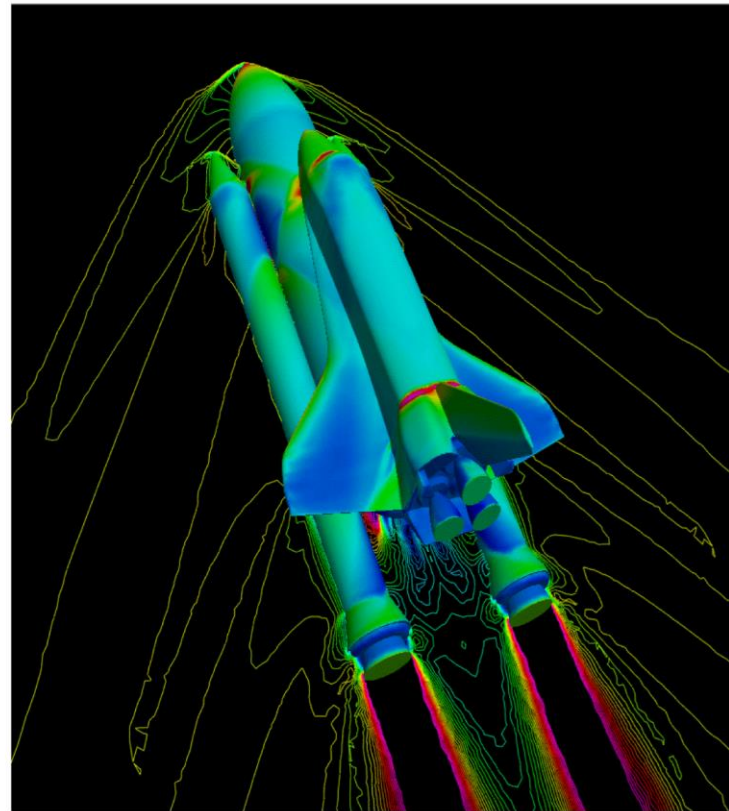
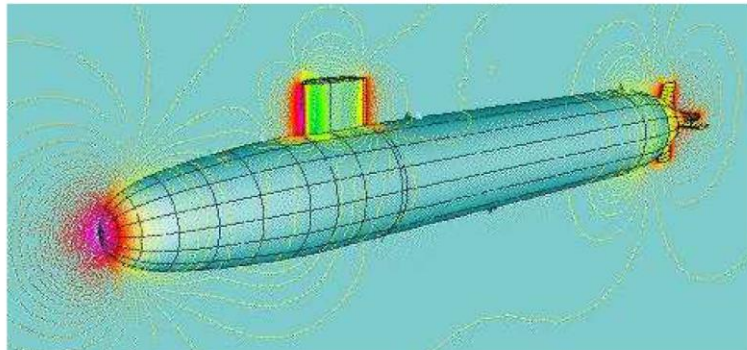
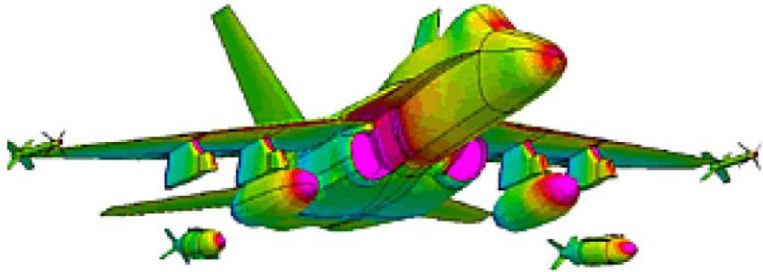
Though numerical solutions are approximate, their accuracy is very high, errors can be made extremely small.

Numerical analysis finds applications in all fields of engineering and physical sciences; and in the 21st century also in social sciences like economics, medicine, business and even the arts.

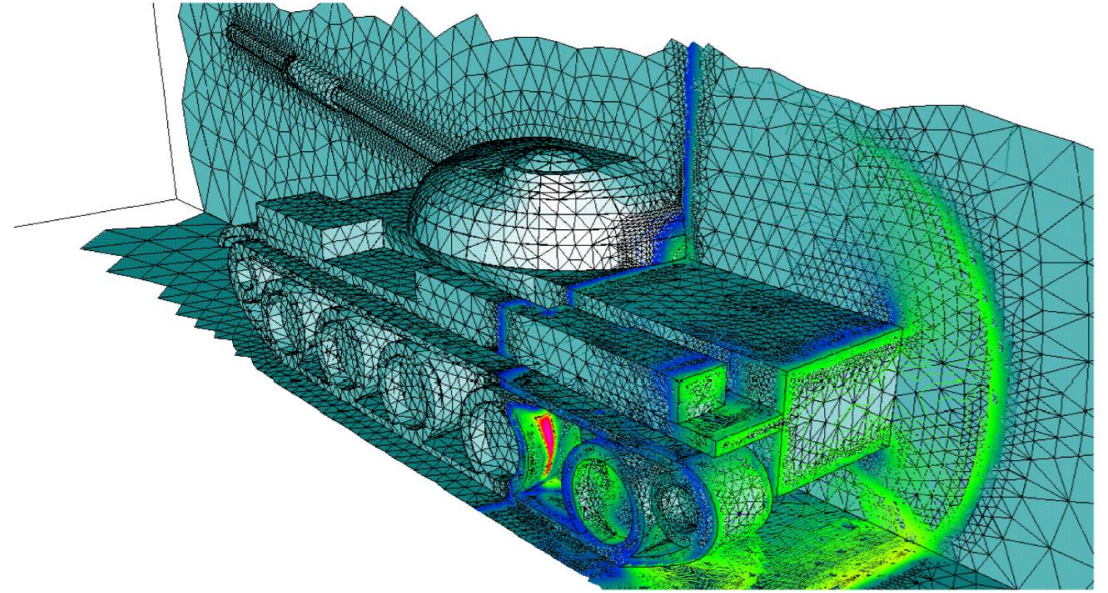
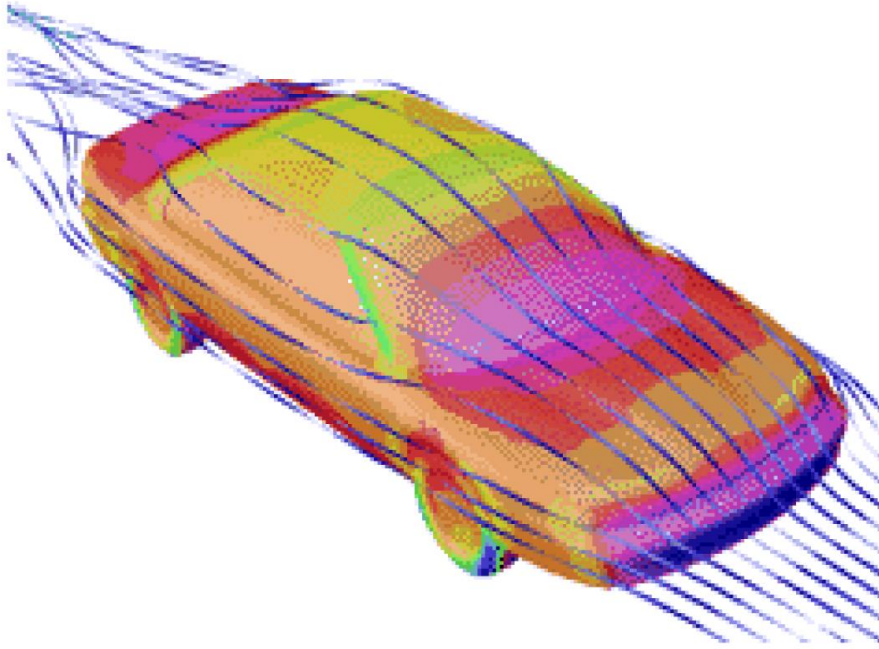
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Numerical\\_analysis](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Numerical_analysis)

# Examples of engineering problems:

A design of advanced flying or floating vehicles. It needs solutions of **Fluid Dynamics and Aerodynamics** equations



Also, advanced design of ground vehicles would not be possible without solving **equations of Solid Mechanics** which govern stresses and deformations in solid bodies





**Also, Computational Mechanics of solids**  
is urgent for the design and  
construction of buildings,  
bridges, roads, and so on.



**Therefore, a researcher or engineer must be familiar with Numerical Analysis and methods for solving various equations.**

**We will study:**

- (\*) Algebraic equations**
- (\*) Calculation of integrals**
- (\*) Finding maxima and minima of functions**
- (\*) Ordinary differential equations**
- (\*) Partial differential equations**

**Our aim is not a search of true (exact) solutions analytically, often this is not possible.**

**We will search numerical solutions, which are approximate;  
however, they are very close to true solutions,  
because errors (tolerance) can be made  
extremely small.**

### **Textbooks:**

- 1) S. Baskar Introduction to numerical analysis. 2010, 128 pages.**
- 2) S.S. Sastry Introductory methods of numerical analysis. 2012, 463 pages.**

# Chapter 1.

## Nonlinear and transcendental algebraic equations

Let us consider the single equation

$$f(x)=0, \quad a \leq x \leq b \quad [a,b]$$

where  $f(x)$  is a given function,  $x$  is unknown.

“nonlinear” means:  $x^2, x^3, \dots$

“transcendental” means:  $\sin x, \cos x, e^x, \dots$

For example:  $4x^2 + \sin(4\pi x) - 10 = 0, \quad 1 \leq x \leq 2$



## Problem:

if there exists a true/exact solution  $x^*$ , such that  $f(x^*)=0$ , then  
which way can we calculate an approximate value of  $x^*$ ,  
admitting a small error, say  $\pm 0.0001$  ?

$x^*$  is called a root of the equation

Recall that in the case of quadratic equation there is an explicit formula for calculation of  $x^*$  :

$$\text{If } ax^2 + bx + c = 0 \quad a \neq 0$$

then

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

*In the above-mentioned example*

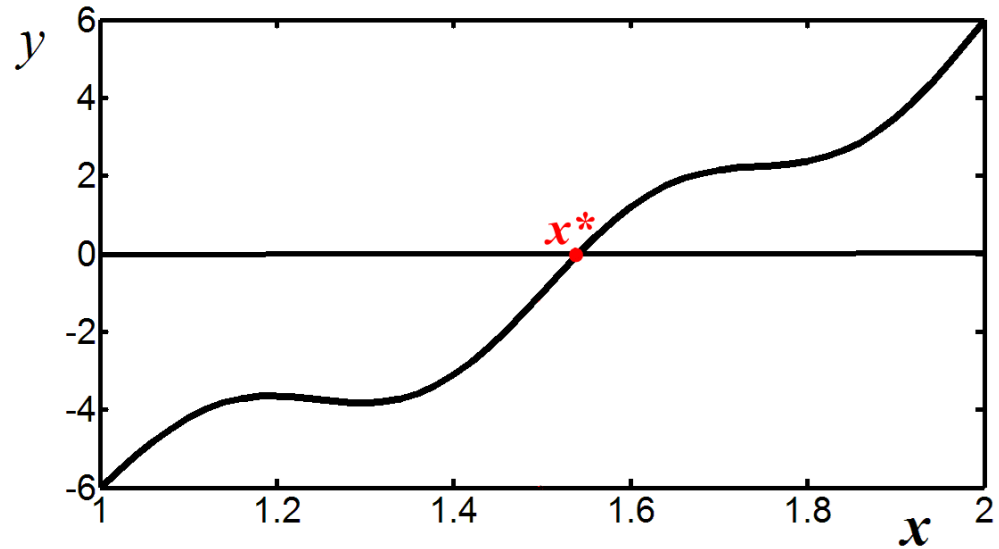
$$4x^2 + \sin(4\pi x) - 10 = 0, \quad 1 \leq x \leq 2$$

there is **no** explicit formula for calculation of root  $x^*$  .

At first, we must understand if the root  $x^*$  exists.

**Theorem.** If the function  $y=f(x)$  is continuous on  $a \leq x \leq b$ , and the signs of  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$  are **opposite**, then there exists  $x^*$  such that  $f(x^*)=0$ .

(for a proof, see  
course of Math. Analysis)



$$4x^2 + \sin(4\pi x) - 10 = 0, \quad 1 \leq x \leq 2$$

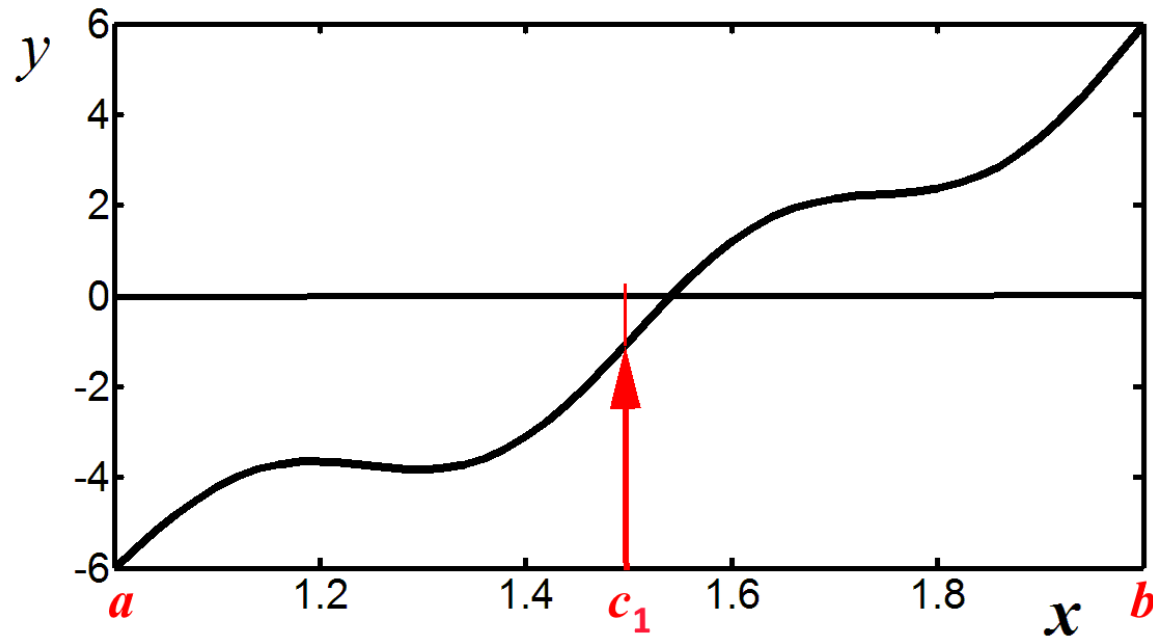
**The solution exists!**

# 1) Bysection method for calculation of $x^*$

It consists of repeatedly bisecting the given interval, and then selecting subinterval in which the function changes sign, and therefore must contain a root.

The method is also called the **interval halving** method, and the **dichotomy method**.

At each step the method divides the interval in two parts by computing the midpoint  $c_1 = (a+b)/2$  and then selecting the part in which function  $f(x)$  changes sign.



**Algorithm of calculations:** Suppose  $f(a) < 0$ ,  $f(b) > 0$ .

*Calculate  $c_1 = (a+b)/2$  and  $f(c_1)$*

*If  $f(c_1) < 0$ , then root is in the right subsegment,  
therefore we denote  $a_2 = c_1$ ,  $b_2 = b$*

*If  $f(c_1) > 0$ , then we denote  
 $a_2 = a$ ,  $b_2 = c_1$*

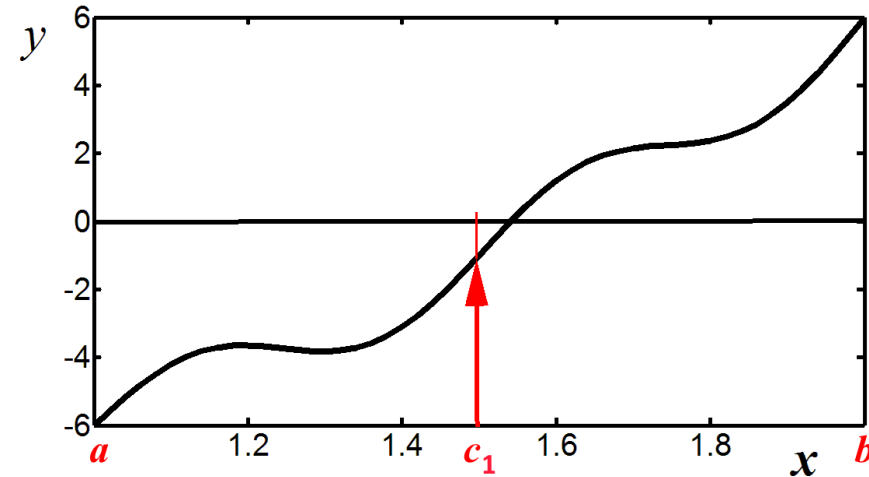
**Then procedure repeats:**

$$c_k = (a_k + b_k)/2, \quad k = 2, \dots$$

*If  $f(c_k) < 0$ , then  $a_{k+1} = c_k$ ,  $b_{k+1} = b_k$*

*If  $f(c_k) > 0$ , then  $a_{k+1} = a_k$ ,  $b_{k+1} = c_k$*

*(If  $f(c_k) = 0$ , then  $c_k$  is a root).*





At each step,  $f(a_k) < 0$ ,  $f(b_k) > 0$ . The procedure continues until the subinterval is sufficiently small.

*Length of the subinterval*  $b_k - a_k = (b - a) / 2^{k-1}$

**shows a maximum error in the calculated approximate solution  $c_k$  :**

$$|c_k - x^*| \leq (b - a) / 2^k$$

where  $x^*$  is the “true” solution.

$$k=10 \Rightarrow (b-a)/1024$$

$$k=20 \Rightarrow (b-a)/1048576$$

In engineering problems, typically, the error (tolerance) of 0.0001 or 0.00001 is O.K.

That is, calculations can be stopped if in successive approximations,  $c_k$  and  $c_{k+1}$ , 4 or 5 digits to the right of decimal point remain the same after rounding.

Now we consider another method, which often needs smaller number of steps for obtaining a solution of the same accuracy

## 2) Method of chords

Suppose that the curve

$y=f(x)$  is convex:  $f''(x)>0$

Draw a straight segment (**chord**) connecting its endpoints:

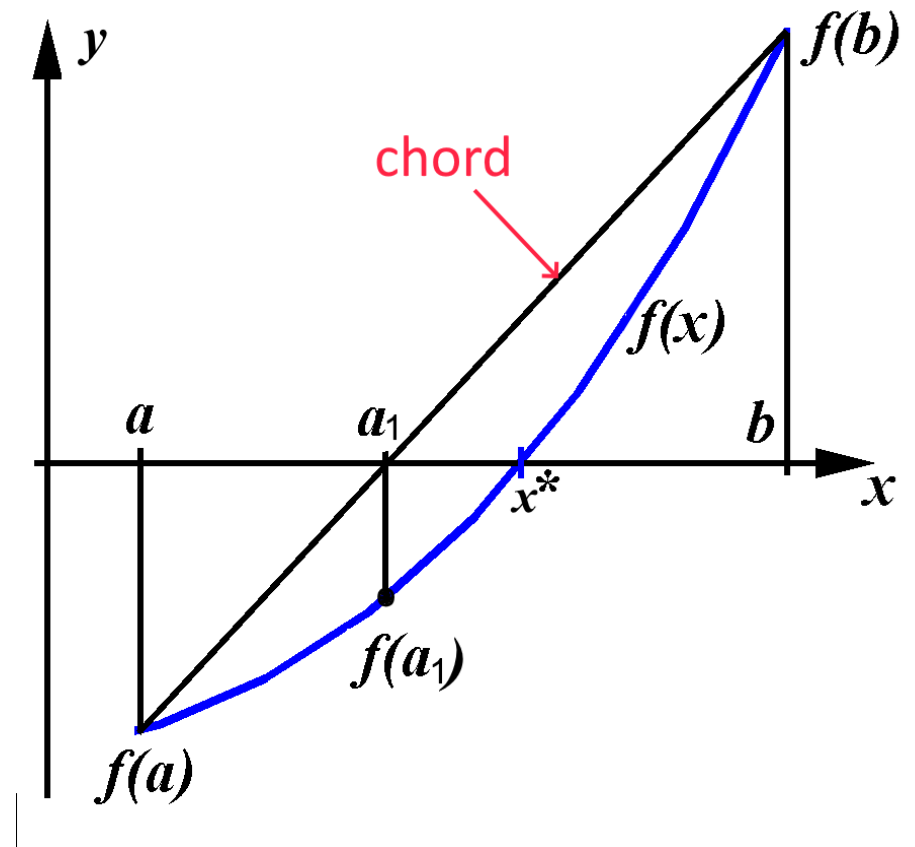
$$y=f(a)+(x-a)[f(b)-f(a)]/(b-a)$$

Find intersection of the segment with the axis  $y=0$ :

$$0=f(a)+(\mathbf{a_1}-a)[f(b)-f(a)]/(b-a)$$

$$-(b-a)f(a)=(\mathbf{a_1}-a)[f(b)-f(a)]$$

$$\mathbf{a_1}-a=-(b-a)f(a)/[f(b)-f(a)]$$



$$a_1 = a - (b-a)f(a)/[f(b)-f(a)]$$

- first step towards the solution

$$a_2 = a_1 - (b-a_1)f(a_1)/[f(b)-f(a_1)] \quad \text{- second step}$$

$$a_{k+1} = a_k - (b-a_k)f(a_k)/[f(b) - f(a_k)] \quad k=1,2,\dots$$

We get a sequence of approximate solutions

$$a_k \rightarrow x^*$$

the sequence is monotonously increasing as  $f(a_k) < 0$

Example: let's solve the equation

$$e^x + 2x^2 = 2, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1$$

$$e^x + 2x^2 - 2 = 0$$

$$f''(x) > 0$$

$$a_{k+1} = a_k - f(a_k)(b - a_k) / [f(b) - f(a_k)]$$

**Scilab, command window:**

→ **a=0**

→ **b=1**

→ **fa=exp(a)+2\*a\*a-2**

→ **fb=exp(b)+2\*b\*b-2**

→ **a=a-fa\*(b-a)/(fb-fa)**

→ **fa=exp(a)+2\*a\*a-2**

→ **a=**            **iterate**

### 3) Method of tangent lines (Newton's method)

The same problem: solve

$$f(x)=0, \quad a \leq x \leq b$$

Suppose curve  $y=f(x)$  is *convex*:  $f''(x)>0$

Line tangent to curve at  $x=b, y=f(b)$ :

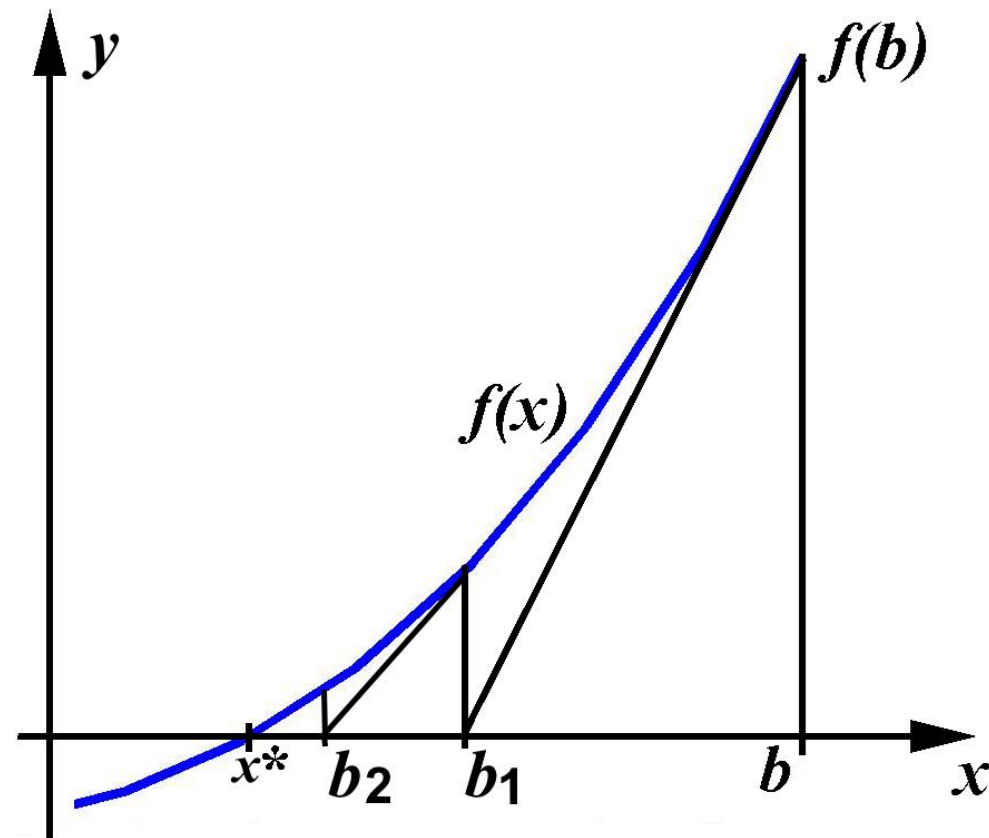
$$y=f(b) + (x-b)f'(b)$$

intersection:  $0=f(b) + (b_1-b)f'(b)$

$$-f(b) = (b_1-b)f'(b)$$

$$-f(b)/f'(b) = (b_1-b)$$

$b_1 = b - f(b)/f'(b)$  - *first step towards solution,*





**$b_1 = b - f(b)/f'(b)$  - first step towards solution,**

**$b_2 = b_1 - f(b_1)/f'(b_1)$**

**$b_{k+1} = b_k - f(b_k)/f'(b_k), \quad k=2, \dots$**

**sequence is monotonously decreasing**

**Example: finding square root**

$$x^2 = d$$

$$f(x) = x^2 - d$$

$$f'(x) = 2x$$

**$b_{k+1} = b_k - (b_k^2 - d)/(2b_k)$**

$$b_{k+1} = b_k - b_k/2 + d/(2b_k)$$

$$b_{k+1} = (b_k + d/b_k)/2$$

**initial  $b$  – arbitrary value**

**Example:  $e^x + 2x^2 - 2 = 0$**

**(same as in the method of chords)**

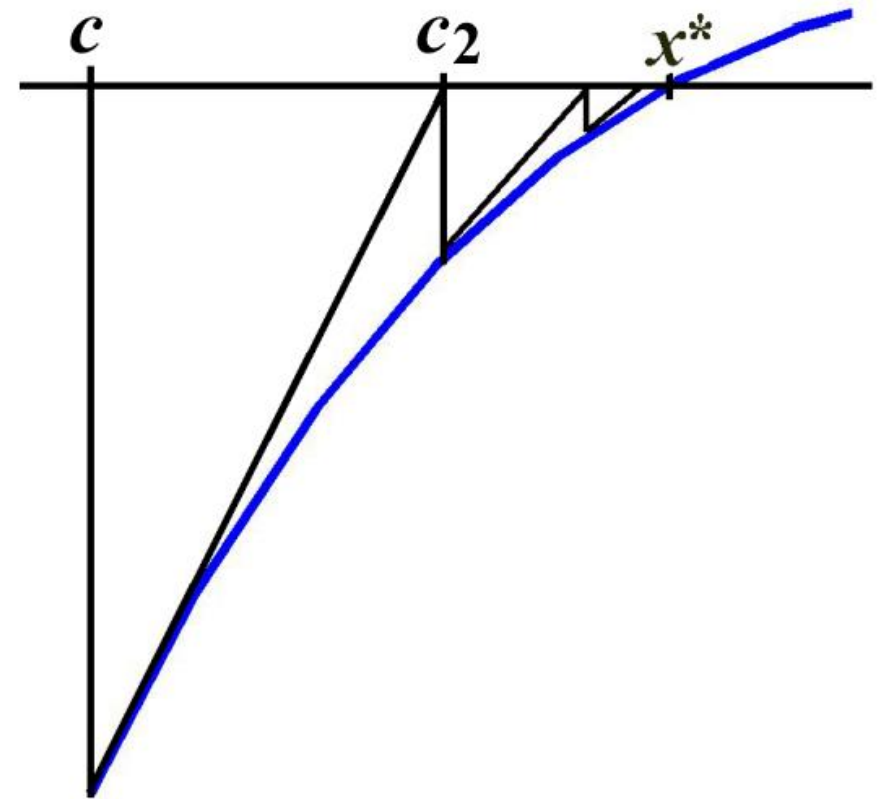
If curve  $y=f(x)$  is concave:  
 $f''(x)<0$

then the left endpoint  $a$  of the given segment is recommended as initial point for the start of iterations.

*We have the same formula*

$$c_{k+1}=c_k - f(c_k)/f'(c_k),$$

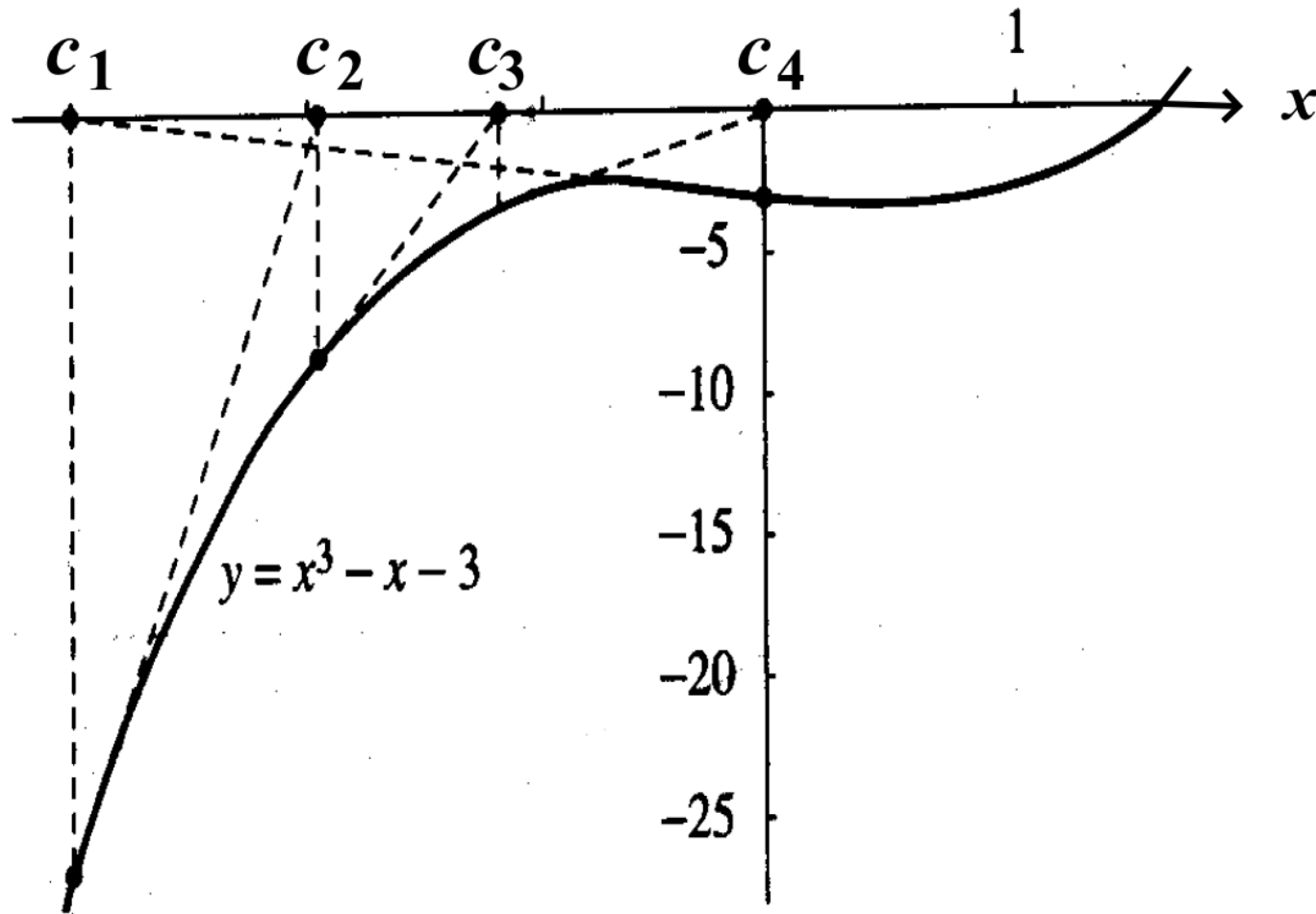
where  $f(c_k)<0$  ; therefore, the sequence  $c_k$  is monotonously increasing.



Sometimes, the method does not work (bad cases) :

(\*) If  $f'(c_k)=0$  for some  $k$ , then the method can no longer be applied.

(\*\*) Iterations can stuck in a cycle:



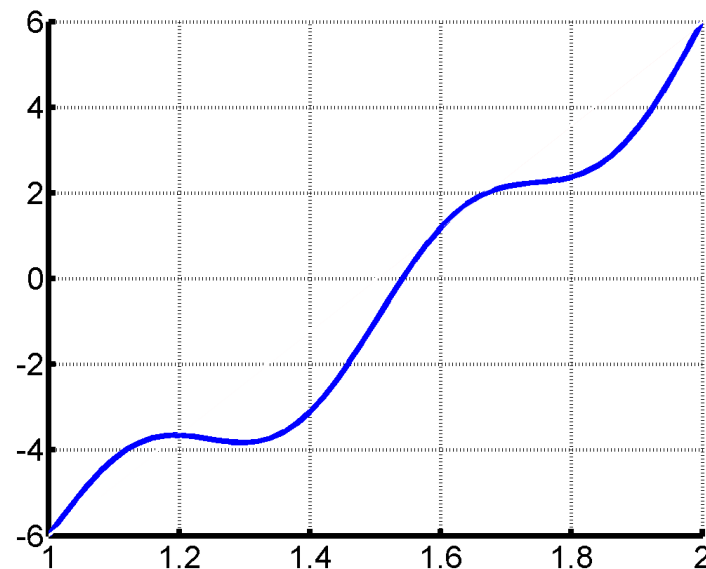
The case  $f(a)>0$  and  $f(b)<0$  can be reduced to the previous one by multiplying the equation by  $-1$  :

$$-f(x)=0$$

Notice on the number of roots:

$$4x^2 + \sin(4\pi x) - 10 = 0, \quad 1 \leq x \leq 2$$

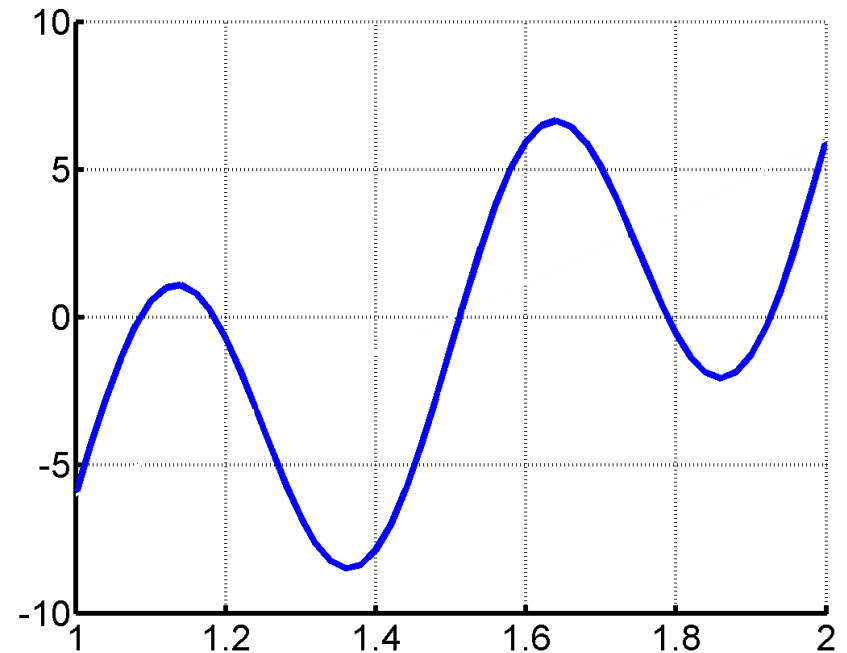
1 root:



Possibly, there exist non-unique roots

$$4x^2 + 6^*\sin(4\pi x) - 10 = 0, \quad 1 \leq x \leq 2$$

5 roots:



It is recommended to “separate” roots by plotting a graph



## 4) Iteration method

### Example 1.

$$x - 0.1 \sin x - 2 = 0$$

$$x = 0.1 \sin x + 2$$

$$c_1 = 2 \quad \text{- initial approximation}$$

$$c_2 = 0.1 \sin c_1 + 2 = 2.0909297$$

$$c_3 = 0.1 \sin c_2 + 2 = 2.0867753$$

$$c_4 = 0.1 \sin c_3 + 2 = 2.0869810$$

$$c_5 = 0.1 \sin c_4 + 2 = 2.0869709$$

$$c_6 = 0.1 \sin c_5 + 2 = 2.0869714$$

$$c_7 = 0.1 \sin c_6 + 2 = 2.0869713$$

$$c_8 = 0.1 \sin c_7 + 2 = 2.0869713$$

- approximate solutions

*In general:* The equation  $f(x)=0$  can be transformed to the form  $x = \varphi(x)$  by a simple addition of  $x$  to both sides:

$$\begin{array}{c} x = \frac{x+f(x)}{\phantom{x}} \\ \downarrow \\ x = \varphi(x) \end{array}$$

Then choose an initial value  $c_1$  and start iterations:

$$c_{k+1} = \varphi(c_k) , \quad k=1, 2, \dots$$

If  $c_{k+1}$  and  $c_k$  become very close to each other, then

$$c_k \approx x^* \text{ - solution}$$

**Example 2.  $x + 0.3(1+x^4) - 0.4 = 0$**

**clear**

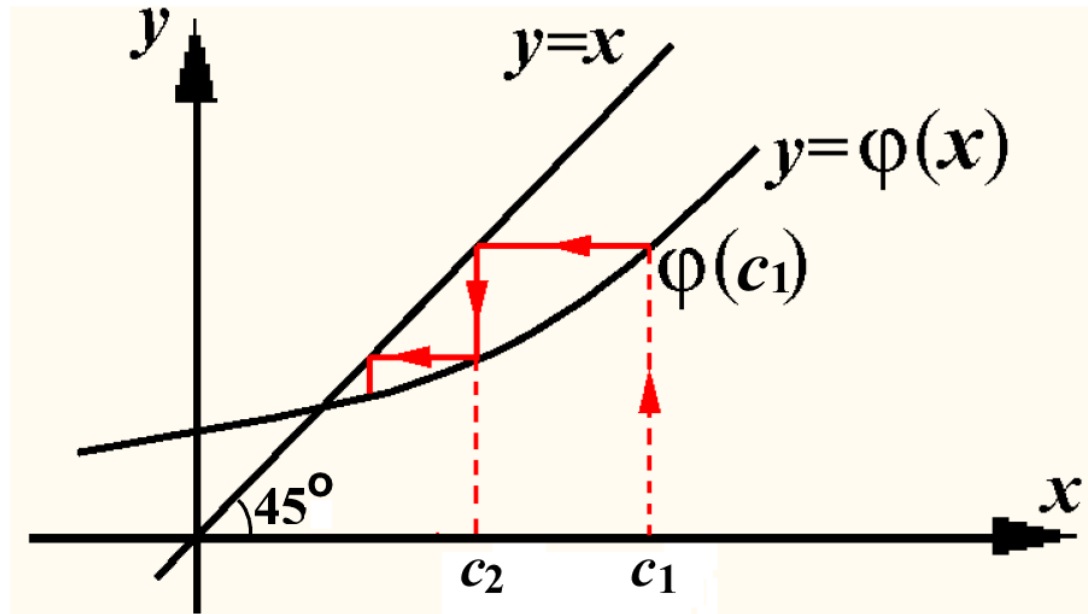
**$0 \leq x \leq 1.4$**

**> c=0**

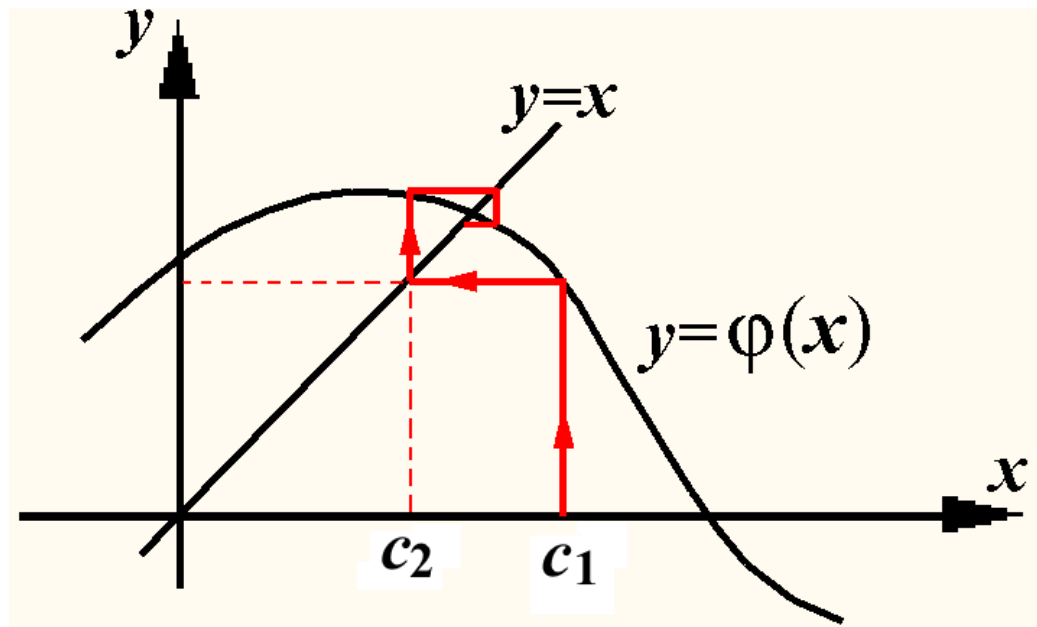
**> c= 0.4- 0.3\*(1+c^4)**

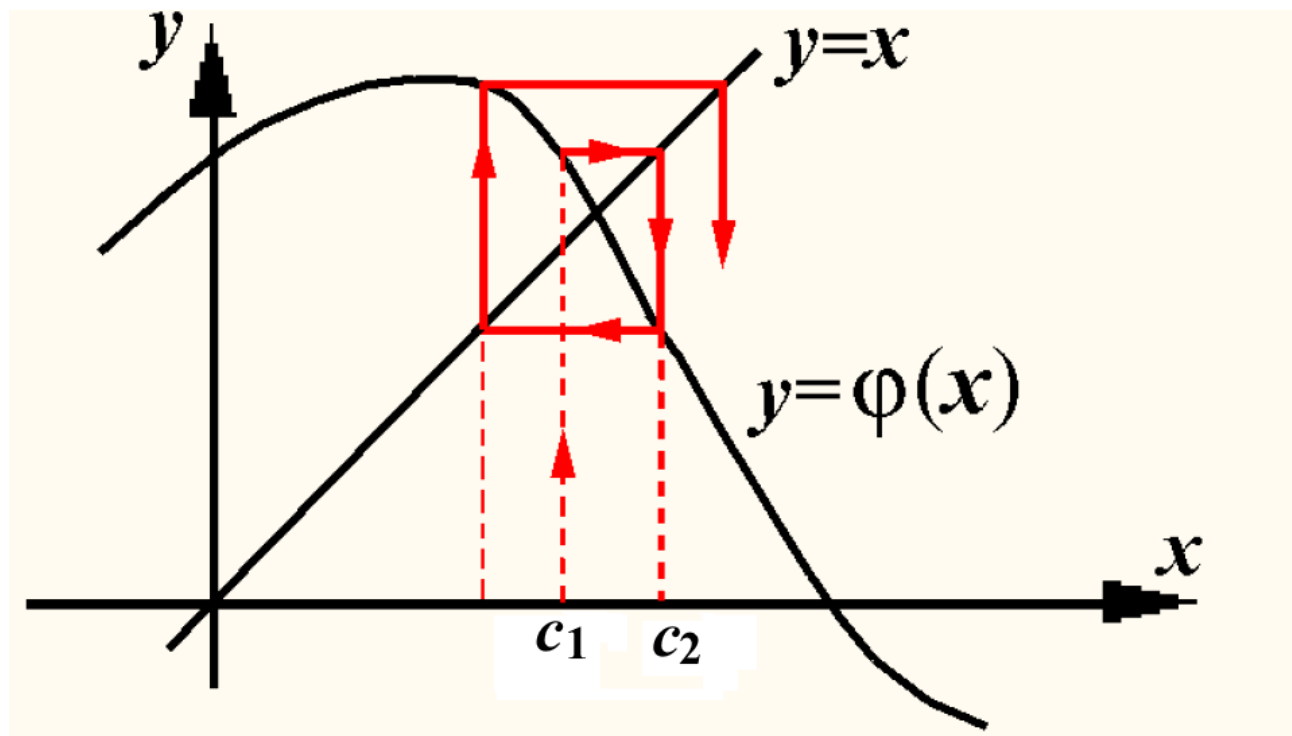
# Geometric illustration of solving $x=\varphi(x)$ :

Let us plot  $y=x$  ,  $y=\varphi(x)$



$$c_2 = \varphi(c_1)$$





*In this figure, we see **a divergence** of successive approximations  **$c_k$** , which move away from the exact solution  **$x^*$** .*



*The convergence or divergence of the sequence  $c_k$  depends on the slope of curve  $y=\varphi(x)$  to the  $x$ -axis, that is on the module of the first derivative :*

$$| \varphi'(x) |$$

**Theorem** *(sufficient condition for the convergence of iterations):*

*If  $| \varphi'(x) | < 1$  at  $a \leq x \leq b$  , then*

*$c_k \longrightarrow x^*$  at  $k \longrightarrow \infty$  , and*

*$x^*$  is the unique root of the equation  $x=\varphi(x)$  .*