# Numerical Analysis

Lecture 3: The Solutions of Nonlinear Systems

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### Nonlinear Systems

A system of nonlinear equations has the form

$$f_1(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = 0,$$
  
 $f_2(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = 0,$   
 $\vdots$   
 $f_n(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = 0,$ 

which can be represented by

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$$

The functions  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n$  are called the coordinate functions of **F**.

## Outline

- Vector Norms
- 2 Fixed Points for Functions of Several Variables
- 3 Newton's Method for Nonlinear Systems
- Gradient Descent Techniques

- Let  $\mathbb{R}^n$  denote the set of all *n*-dimensional column vectors with real-number components.
- To define a distance in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  we use the notion of a norm, which is the generalization of the absolute value on  $\mathbb{R}$ , the set of real numbers.

#### **Definition: Vector Norm**

A vector norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a function,  $||\cdot||$ , from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}$  with the following properties:

- $|\mathbf{x}|| \ge 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- $||\mathbf{x}|| = 0 \text{ iff } \mathbf{x} = 0$
- $|\alpha \mathbf{x}|| = |\alpha| |\mathbf{x}||$  for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- **1**  $||\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}|| \le ||\mathbf{x}|| + ||\mathbf{y}||$  for all  $||\mathbf{x}||, ||\mathbf{y}|| \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

### Definition: $L_1, L_2$ , and $L_{\infty}$ Norms

The norms for the vector  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^{\top}$  are defined by:

• 
$$L_1$$
 Norm

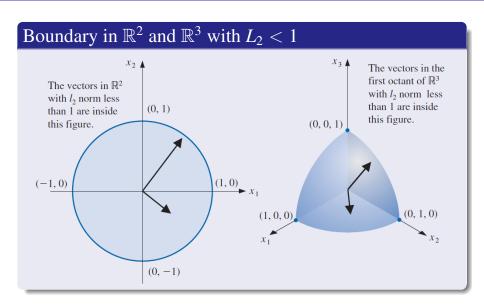
$$||\mathbf{x}||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$$

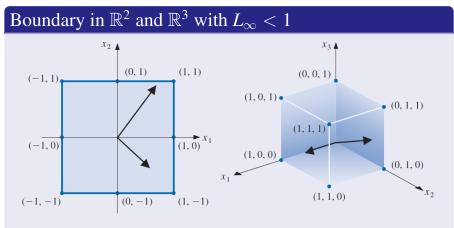
$$||\mathbf{x}||_2 = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right\}^{1/2}$$

• 
$$L_{\infty}$$
 Norm

$$||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_i|$$

Note that each of these norms reduces to the absolute value in the case n = 1.





The vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with  $l_{\infty}$  norm less than 1 are inside this figure.

The vectors in the first octant of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with  $l_{\infty}$  norm less than 1 are inside this figure.

## Establishing the Properties of a Vector Norm for $L_{\infty}$

- It is easy to show that the first three properties of the vector norm hold for  $L_{\infty}$  norm.
- The only property that requires much demonstration is

$$||\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}||_{\infty} \le ||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty} + ||\mathbf{y}||_{\infty} \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

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• In this case, if  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^{\top}$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)^{\top}$ , then

$$||\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_i + y_i| \le \max_{1 \le i \le n} (|x_i| + |y_i|)$$
  
$$\le \max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_i| + \max_{1 \le i \le n} |y_i| = ||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty} + ||\mathbf{y}||_{\infty}$$

## Establishing the Properties of a Vector Norm for $L_2$

- It is easy to show that the first three properties of the vector norm hold for  $L_2$  norm.
- But to show that

$$||\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}||_2 \le ||\mathbf{x}||_2 + ||\mathbf{y}||_2 \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

we need a famous inequality.

### Theorem (Cauchy-Bunyakovsky-Schwarz Inequality for Sums)

For each 
$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^{\top}$$
 and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)^{\top}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , 
$$\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \le \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right\}^{1/2} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \right\}^{1/2} = ||\mathbf{x}||_2 ||\mathbf{y}||_2$$

# Proof (1/2)

• If y = 0 or x = 0, the result is immediate.

#### Proof (1/2)

- If  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , the result is immediate.
- Suppose  $y \neq 0$  and  $x \neq 0$ . Note that, for each  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have

$$0 \le ||\mathbf{x} - \lambda \mathbf{y}||_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \lambda y_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - 2\lambda \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i + \lambda^2 \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2$$

so that

$$2\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + \lambda^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 = ||\mathbf{x}||_2^2 + \lambda^2 ||\mathbf{y}||_2^2$$

However  $||\mathbf{x}||_2 > 0$  and  $||\mathbf{y}||_2 > 0$ , so we can let

$$\lambda = ||\mathbf{x}||_2/||\mathbf{y}||_2$$
 to give

$$\left(2\frac{||\mathbf{x}||_2}{||\mathbf{y}||_2}\right)\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i\right) \le ||\mathbf{x}||_2^2 + \frac{||\mathbf{x}||_2^2}{||\mathbf{y}||_2^2}||\mathbf{y}||_2^2 = 2||\mathbf{x}||_2^2$$

### Proof (2/2)

Hence

$$2\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i \le 2||\mathbf{x}||_2^2 \frac{||\mathbf{y}||_2}{||\mathbf{x}||_2} = 2||\mathbf{x}||_2||\mathbf{y}||_2$$

and

$$\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i \le ||\mathbf{x}||_2 ||\mathbf{y}||_2 = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 \right\}^{1/2} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 \right\}^{1/2}$$

# Proof: $||\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}||_2 \le ||\mathbf{x}||_2 + ||\mathbf{y}||_2$

With the Cauchy-Bunyakovsky-Schwarz Inequality, we see that for each  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$||\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}||_{2}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} + y_{i})^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{2}$$

$$\leq ||\mathbf{x}||_{2}^{2} + 2||\mathbf{x}||_{2}||\mathbf{y}||_{2} + ||\mathbf{y}||_{2}^{2}$$

which gives norm property:

$$||\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}||_2 \le (||\mathbf{x}||_2^2 + 2||\mathbf{x}||_2||\mathbf{y}||_2 + ||\mathbf{y}||_2^2)^{1/2} = ||\mathbf{x}||_2 + ||\mathbf{y}||_2$$

### Distance between Vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$

#### Definition: Distance between Vectors

If  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^{\top}$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)^{\top}$  are vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the  $L_2$  and  $L_{\infty}$  distances between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are defined by

$$||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}||_2 = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2 \right\}^{1/2}$$

and

$$||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_i - y_i|$$

# Definition: A Limit of a Sequence of Vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$

A sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is said to converge to  $\mathbf{x}$  with respect to the norm  $||\cdot||$  if, given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N_{\epsilon}$  such that

$$||\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}|| < \epsilon$$
, for all  $k \ge N_{\epsilon}$ 

#### Theorem

The sequence of vectors  $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}$  converges to  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with respect to the  $L_{\infty}$  norm iff

$$\lim_{k\to\infty} x_i^{(k)} = x_i$$

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

### Proof (1/2)

Suppose  $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}$  converges to  $\mathbf{x}$  with respect to the  $L_{\infty}$  norm. Given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N_{\epsilon}$  such that for all  $k \geq N_{\epsilon}$ ,

$$\max_{i=1,2,\cdots,n}|x_i^{(k)}-x_i|=||\mathbf{x}^{(k)}-\mathbf{x}||_{\infty}<\epsilon$$

This result implies that  $|x_i^{(k)} - x_i| < \epsilon$ , for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , so

$$\lim_{k\to\infty} x_i^{(k)} = x_i$$

for each i.

### Proof (2/2)

Conversely, suppose that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} x_i^{(k)} = x_i$ , for every  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . For a given  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $N_{i\epsilon}$  for each i represent an integer with the property that

$$|x_i^{(k)} - x_i| < \epsilon$$

whenever  $k \ge N_{i\epsilon}$ . Define  $N_{\epsilon} = \max_{i=1,2,\cdots,n} N_{i\epsilon}$ . If  $k \ge N_{\epsilon}$ , then

$$\max_{i=1,2,\cdots,n} |x_i^{(k)} - x_i| = ||\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}||_{\infty} < \epsilon$$

This implies that  $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}$  converges to  $\mathbf{x}$  with respect to the  $L_{\infty}$  norm.

#### Theorem

For each  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty} \le ||\mathbf{x}||_2 \le \sqrt{n}||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty}$ 

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#### Proof

Let  $x_j$  be a coordinate of **x** such that  $||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_i| = |x_j|$ .

Then

$$||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty}^2 = |x_j|^2 \le \sum_{i=1} x_i^2 = ||\mathbf{x}||_2^2$$

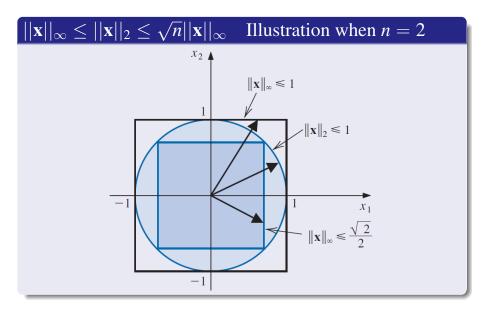
and

$$||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty} \le ||\mathbf{x}||_2$$

so

$$||\mathbf{x}||_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \le \sum_{i=1}^n x_j^2 = nx_j^2 = n||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty}^2$$

and  $||\mathbf{x}||_2 \leq \sqrt{n}||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty}$ .



#### **Theorem**

$$\| \mathbf{x}^{(\mathbf{k})} - \mathbf{x} \|_{\infty} < \varepsilon \Rightarrow \| \mathbf{x}^{(\mathbf{k})} - \mathbf{x} \|_{2} < \sqrt{\mathbf{n}} \varepsilon$$

$$\| \mathbf{x}^{(\mathbf{k})} - \mathbf{x} \|_{2} < \varepsilon \Rightarrow \| \mathbf{x}^{(\mathbf{k})} - \mathbf{x} \|_{\infty} < \varepsilon$$

# Example

Show that

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = (x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}, x_3^{(k)}, x_4^{(k)})^{\top} = \left(1, 2 + \frac{1}{k}, \frac{3}{k^2}, e^{-k} sin(k)\right)^{\top}$$

- converges to  $\mathbf{x} = (1, 2, 0, 0)^{\mathsf{T}}$  with respect to the  $L_{\infty}$  norm.
- It also converges to  $\mathbf{x} = (1, 2, 0, 0)^{\top}$  with respect to the  $L_2$  norm.

#### Solution

Given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N(\epsilon/2)$  with the property that

$$||\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}||_{\infty} < \frac{\epsilon}{2},$$

whenever  $k \ge N(\epsilon/2)$ . It implies that

$$||\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}||_2 \le \sqrt{4}||\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}||_{\infty} \le 2\frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

when  $k \ge N(\epsilon/2)$ . So  $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}$  also converges to  $\mathbf{x}$  with respect to the  $L_2$  norm.

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### Nonlinear Systems

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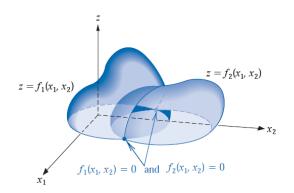
$$f_1(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = 0,$$
  
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 $\vdots$   
 $f_n(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = 0,$ 

which can be represented by

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$$

The functions  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n$  are called the coordinate functions of **F**.

## A System of Two Nonlinear Equations



#### Fixed Points in $\mathbb{R}^n$

A function **G** from  $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a fixed point at  $\mathbf{p} \in D$  if  $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{p}$ .

### Theorem (Existence of Fixed Points)

Let  $\mathbf{D} = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^\top | a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i, \text{for each } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$  for some collection of constants  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  and  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$ . Suppose  $\mathbf{G}$  is a continuous function from  $\mathbf{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the property that  $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbf{D}$  whenever  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{D}$ . Then  $\mathbf{G}$  has a fixed point in  $\mathbf{D}$ .

### Theorem (Fixed Point Theorem)

Let  $\mathbf{D} = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^\top | a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i, \text{ for each } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\} \text{ for some collection of constants } a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \text{ and } b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n. \text{ Suppose } \mathbf{G} \text{ is a continuous function from } \mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ into } \mathbb{R}^n \text{ with the property that } \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbf{D} \text{ whenever } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{D}. \text{ Then } \mathbf{G} \text{ has a fixed point in } \mathbf{D}.$ 

Moreover, suppose that all the component functions of G have continuous partial derivatives and a constant K < 1 exists with

$$\left|\frac{\partial g_i(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j}\right| \leq \frac{K}{n}, \text{ whenever } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{D},$$

for each  $j=1,2,\ldots,n$  and each component function  $g_i$ . Then the sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  defined by an arbitrarily selected  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$  in  $\mathbf{D}$  and generated by

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}), \text{ for each } k \geq 1$$

converges to the unique fixed point  $p \in D$  and

$$||\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{p}||_{\infty} \le \frac{K^k}{1 - K} ||\mathbf{x}^{(1)} - \mathbf{x}^{(0)}||_{\infty}$$

# Example

Find a solution for the nonlinear system

$$3x_1 - \cos(x_2 x_3) - \frac{1}{2} = 0,$$
  

$$x_1^2 - 81(x_2 + 0.1)^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06 = 0,$$
  

$$e^{-x_1 x_2} + 20x_3 + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} = 0.$$

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$$e^{-x_1 x_2} + 20x_3 + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} = 0.$$

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{3}\cos(x_2x_3) + \frac{1}{6},$$
  

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{9}\sqrt{x_1^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06} - 0.1,$$
  

$$x_3 = -\frac{1}{20}e^{-x_1x_2} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{60}.$$

## Example

#### Solution:

$$g_1(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \frac{1}{3}\cos(x_2x_3) + \frac{1}{6},$$

$$g_2(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \frac{1}{9}\sqrt{x_1^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06} - 0.1,$$

$$g_3(x_1, x_2, x_3) = -\frac{1}{20}e^{-x_1x_2} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{60}.$$

k	$x_1^{(k)}$	$x_{2}^{(k)}$	$x_{3}^{(k)}$	$\ \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}\ _{\infty}$
0	0.10000000	0.10000000	-0.10000000	
1	0.49998333	0.00944115	-0.52310127	0.423
2	0.49999593	0.00002557	-0.52336331	$9.4 \times 10^{-3}$
3	0.50000000	0.00001234	-0.52359814	$2.3 \times 10^{-4}$
4	0.50000000	0.00000003	-0.52359847	$1.2 \times 10^{-5}$
5	0.50000000	0.00000002	-0.52359877	$3.1 \times 10^{-7}$

### **Acceleration Convergence**

Use the latest estimates  $x_1^{(k)}, \dots, x_{i-1}^{(k)}$  instead of  $x_1^{(k-1)}, \dots, x_{i-1}^{(k-1)}$  to compute  $x_i^{(k)}$ .

$$\begin{split} x_1^{(k)} &= \frac{1}{3} \cos \left( x_2^{(k-1)} x_3^{(k-1)} \right) + \frac{1}{6}, \\ x_2^{(k)} &= \frac{1}{9} \sqrt{\left( x_1^{(k)} \right)^2 + \sin x_3^{(k-1)} + 1.06} - 0.1, \\ x_3^{(k)} &= -\frac{1}{20} e^{-x_1^{(k)} x_2^{(k)}} - \frac{10\pi - 3}{60}. \end{split}$$

k	$x_1^{(k)}$	$X_2^{(k)}$	$X_3^{(k)}$	$\ \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}\ _{\infty}$
0	0.10000000	0.10000000	-0.10000000	
1	0.49998333	0.02222979	-0.52304613	0.423
2	0.49997747	0.00002815	-0.52359807	$2.2 \times 10^{-2}$
3	0.50000000	0.00000004	-0.52359877	$2.8 \times 10^{-5}$
4	0.50000000	0.00000000	-0.52359877	$3.8 \times 10^{-8}$

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- Newton's Method for Nonlinear Systems
- Gradient Descent Techniques

# Newton's Method for Nonlinear Systems

## The fixed-point method for nonlinear equations

$$g(x) = x - \phi(x)f(x).$$

### The fixed-point method for nonlinear systems

$$G(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x})^{-1}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}),$$

where

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}(\mathbf{x}) & a_{12}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & a_{1n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ a_{21}(\mathbf{x}) & a_{22}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & a_{2n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1}(\mathbf{x}) & a_{n1}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & a_{nn}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

# Newton's Method for Nonlinear Systems

## Theorem (Convergence)

Let **p** be a solution of G(x) = x. Suppose a number  $\delta > 0$  exists with

- **1**  $\partial g_i/\partial x_j$  is continuous on  $N_\delta = \{\mathbf{x}|||\mathbf{x} \mathbf{p}|| < \delta\}$ , for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ;
- ②  $\partial^2 g_i(\mathbf{x})/(\partial x_j \partial x_k)$  is continuous, and  $|\partial^2 g_i(\mathbf{x})/(\partial x_j \partial x_k)| \leq M$  for some constant M, whenever  $\mathbf{x} \in N_\delta$ , for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , and  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ;
- $\partial g_i(\mathbf{p})/\partial x_k = 0$ , for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Then a number  $\hat{\delta} \leq \delta$  exists such that the sequence generated by  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$  converges quadratically to  $\mathbf{p}$  for any choice of  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ , provided that  $||\mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{p}|| < \hat{\delta}$ . Moreover,

$$||\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{p}||_{\infty} \le \frac{n^2 M}{2} ||\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - \mathbf{p}||_{\infty}^2, \text{for each } k \ge 1$$

# Newton's Method for Nonlinear Systems

### Construction of the Matrix

Let  $b_{ii}(\mathbf{x})$  denote the entry of  $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x})^{-1}$ , we have

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = x_i - \sum_{i=1}^n b_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) f_j(\mathbf{x})$$

$$\frac{\partial g_i}{\partial x_k}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 - \sum_{j=1}^n \left( b_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_k}(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial b_{ij}}{\partial x_k}(\mathbf{x}) f_j(\mathbf{x}) \right), & \text{if } i = k, \\ - \sum_{j=1}^n \left( b_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_k}(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial b_{ij}}{\partial x_k}(\mathbf{x}) f_j(\mathbf{x}) \right), & \text{if } i \neq k. \end{cases}$$

This means that for i = k,  $\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{ij}(\mathbf{p}) \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{p}) = 1$  and for  $i \neq k$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{ij}(\mathbf{p}) \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{p}) = 0$ 

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}.$$

### The Jacobian matrix

Then,  $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{p})^{-1}\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{I}$ . Therefore,  $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{p})$ .

$$x^{(k)} = x^{(k-1)} - \frac{1}{f'(x^{(k-1)})} f(x^{(k-1)})$$

### Newton's Method for Nonlinear Systems

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})^{-1}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}),$$

where  $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})$  is the Jacobian matrix

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})^{-1}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}),$$

### Remarks

- A weakness in Newton's method arises from the need to compute and invert the matrix J(x) at each step.
- In practice, explicit computation of  $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})^{-1}$  is avoided by performing the operation in a two-step manner.
  - **1** A vector **y** is found that satisfies  $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})\mathbf{y} = -\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$
  - ② The new approximation,  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ , is obtained by adding  $\mathbf{y}$  to  $\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}$ .

### Algorithm

INPUT number n of equations and unknowns; initial approximation  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^t$ , tolerance TOL; maximum number of iterations N.

OUTPUT approximate solution  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^t$  or a message that the number of iterations was exceeded.

```
Step 1 Set k = 1.
```

Step 2 While 
$$(k \le N)$$
 do Steps 3–7.

Step 3 Calculate 
$$F(\mathbf{x})$$
 and  $J(\mathbf{x})$ , where  $J(\mathbf{x})_{i,j} = (\partial f_i(\mathbf{x})/\partial x_j)$  for  $1 \le i,j \le n$ .

Step 4 Solve the 
$$n \times n$$
 linear system  $J(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{y} = -\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$ .

Step 5 Set 
$$x = x + y$$
.

Step 6 If 
$$||y|| < TOL$$
 then OUTPUT (x);  
(The procedure was successful.) STOP.

*Step 7* Set 
$$k = k + 1$$
.

Step 8 OUTPUT ('Maximum number of iterations exceeded'); (The procedure was unsuccessful.) STOP.

### Example

Find a solution for the nonlinear system

$$3x_1 - \cos(x_2 x_3) - \frac{1}{2} = 0,$$
  

$$x_1^2 - 81(x_2 + 0.1)^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06 = 0,$$
  

$$e^{-x_1 x_2} + 20x_3 + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} = 0.$$

$\boldsymbol{k}$	$x_1^{(k)}$	$x_{2}^{(k)}$	$x_3^{(k)}$	$\ \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}\ _{\infty}$
0	0.1000000000	0.1000000000	-0.1000000000	
1	0.4998696728	0.0194668485	-0.5215204718	0.4215204718
2	0.5000142403	0.0015885914	-0.5235569638	$1.788 \times 10^{-2}$
3	0.5000000113	0.0000124448	-0.5235984500	$1.576 \times 10^{-3}$
4	0.5000000000	$8.516 \times 10^{-10}$	-0.5235987755	$1.244 \times 10^{-5}$
5	0.5000000000	$-1.375 \times 10^{-11}$	-0.5235987756	$8.654 \times 10^{-10}$

#### Remarks

- The advantage of the Newton's method for solving systems of nonlinear equations is its speed of convergence once a sufficiently accurate approximation is known.
- A weakness of this method is that an accurate initial approximation to the solution is needed to ensure convergence.

### Outline

- Vector Norms
- 2 Fixed Points for Functions of Several Variables
- 3 Newton's Method for Nonlinear Systems
- 4 Gradient Descent Techniques

### **Gradient Descent**

- A.K.A Steepest Descent method, converges only linearly to the solution, but it will usually converge even for poor initial approximations.
- The method of Steepest Descent determines a local minimum for a multivariable function.

#### **Gradient Descent Method**

A system of nonlinear equations has the form

$$f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 0,$$
  
 $f_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 0,$   
 $\vdots$   
 $f_n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 0.$ 

Then the following function has the minimal value of 0:

$$g(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i^2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

#### **Gradient Descent Method**

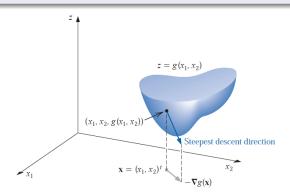
The method of Steepest Descent for finding a local minimum for an arbitrary function  $\mathbf{g}$  from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}$  can be intuitively described as follows:

- Evaluate **g** at an initial approximation  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ ;
- ② Determine a direction from  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$  that results in a decrease in the value of  $\mathbf{g}$ ;
- **1** Move an appropriate amount in this direction and call the new value  $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$ ;
- **1** Repeat steps 1 through 3 with  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$  replaced by  $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$ .

### The Gradient of a Function

For  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ , the gradient of g at  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^{\top}$  is denoted  $\nabla g(\mathbf{x})$  and defined by

$$\nabla g(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}), \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}), \cdots, \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x})\right)^{\top}.$$



### **Gradient Descent Method**

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - \alpha \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}),$$

where  $\alpha$  is the step size.

### Example

Using gradient descent method to find a solution for the nonlinear system

$$3x_1 - \cos(x_2 x_3) - \frac{1}{2} = 0,$$
  

$$x_1^2 - 81(x_2 + 0.1)^2 + \sin x_3 + 1.06 = 0,$$
  

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### Example

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$$e^{-x_1 x_2} + 20x_3 + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} = 0.$$

**Solution** Let  $g(x_1, x_2, x_3) = [f_1(x_1, x_2, x_3)]^2 + [f_2(x_1, x_2, x_3)]^2 + [f_3(x_1, x_2, x_3)]^2$ .

k	$x_1^{(k)}$	$x_{2}^{(k)}$	$x_3^{(k)}$	$g(x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}, x_3^{(k)})$
2	0.137860	-0.205453	-0.522059	1.27406
3	0.266959	0.00551102	-0.558494	1.06813
4	0.272734	-0.00811751	-0.522006	0.468309
5	0.308689	-0.0204026	-0.533112	0.381087
6	0.314308	-0.0147046	-0.520923	0.318837
7	0.324267	-0.00852549	-0.528431	0.287024

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### Gradient Descent vs. Newton's Method

### Gradient Descent vs. Newton's Method

• Newton's method is to find a root  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ 

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})^{-1}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}),$$

• Gradient descent is to find a local minimum  $g(\mathbf{x}) = ||\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})||_2^2$ 

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - \alpha \nabla g(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}).$$

# Assignments

- Reading Assignment: Chap 10
- Homework 2.