COURSE 11

5. Numerical methods for solving nonlinear equations in \mathbb{R} (continuation)

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

$$f(x) = 0, \quad x \in \Omega. \tag{1}$$

For 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.

When there exists a neighborhood of α where the F-method is convergent, choosing x_0 in such a neighborhood allows approximating α by terms of the sequence

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

with a prescribed error ε .

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

$$\left|\alpha-x_{n}\right|\leq\frac{1}{m_{1}}\left|f\left(x_{n}\right)\right|,\quad \text{with } m_{1}\leq m_{1}f=\min_{a\leq x\leq b}\left|f'\left(x\right)\right|.$$

Proof. We use the mean formula

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

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

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

In practical applications the following evaluation is more useful:

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

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

Proof. We start with Taylor formula

$$f(x_n) = f(x_{n-1}) + (x_n - x_{n-1}) f'(x_{n-1}) + \frac{1}{2} (x_n - x_{n-1})^2 f''(\xi)$$
, where ξ belongs to the interval determined by x_{n-1} and x_n .

Since $x_n = F_2^T(x_{n-1})$, it follows that

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

thus we obtain

$$f(x_n) = \frac{1}{2} (x_n - x_{n-1})^2 f''(\xi)$$
.

Consequently,

$$|f(x_n)| \le \frac{1}{2} (x_n - x_{n-1})^2 M_2 f,$$

and Lemma 1 yields $|\alpha - x_n| \leq \frac{1}{m_1} |f(x_n)|$ so

$$|\alpha - x_n| \le \frac{1}{2m_1} (x_n - x_{n-1})^2 M_2 f.$$

Since F_2^T is convergent, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\frac{1}{2m_1}|x_n - x_{n-1}| M_2 f < 1, \quad n > n_0.$$

Hence,

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

Remark 3 The starting value is chosen randomly. If, after a fixed number of iterations the required precision is not achieved, i.e., condition $|x_n - x_{n-1}| \le \varepsilon$, does not hold for a prescribed positive ε , 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 $x_j, j = 1, 2, \ldots$ 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 α . 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 α 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

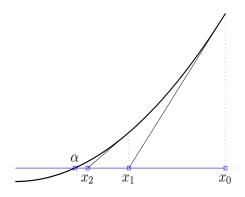
$$x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}.$$

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

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}, \ n \ge 0.$$
 (2)



The algorithm:

Let x_0 be the initial approximation.

for n = 0, 1, ..., ITMAX

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

A stopping criterion is:

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

where ε is a specified tolerance value.

Example 4 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

$$x_1 = 1 - \frac{-1}{1} = 2$$
 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.

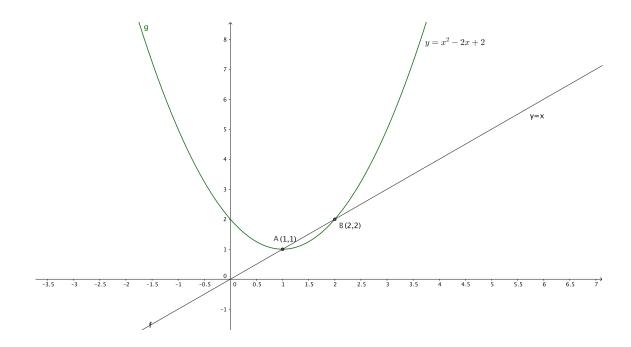
5.1.2. Fixed point iteration method (successive approximation method)

Definition 5 The number α is called **a fixed point** of the function $g: D \subseteq \mathbb{R} \to D$ if $g(\alpha) = \alpha$.

Example 6 Find the fixed points of the function $g(x) = x^2 - 2x + 2$.

Sol. A fixed point α of g has the property $\alpha = g(\alpha) = \alpha^2 - 2\alpha + 2$, so $0 = \alpha^2 - 3\alpha + 2 = (\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2)$. Whence, the fixed points of g are $\alpha_1 = 1$ and $\alpha_2 = 2$.

Geometrically, the fixed points are the intersection points of the graph of the function g and the first bisection line (y = x). (See the following figure.)

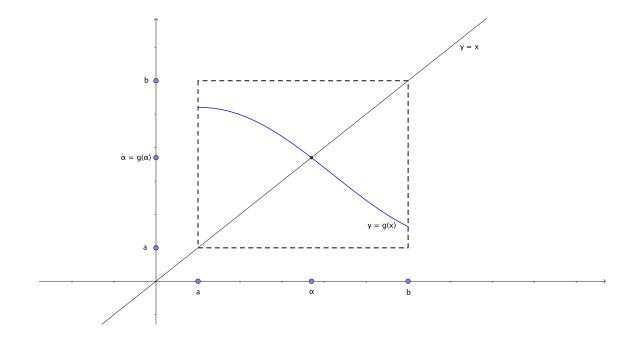


Sufficient condition for the existence and uniqueness of a fixed point:

- **Theorem 7** 1. If $g \in C[a,b]$ and $g(x) \in [a,b]$ for any $x \in [a,b]$, then g has at least one fixed point in [a,b]. In fewer words, if $g : [a,b] \rightarrow [a,b]$ and $g \in C[a,b]$ then $\exists \alpha \in [a,b]$ fixed point.
 - 2. Moreover, if there exists g'(x) in (a,b) and

$$|g'(x)| < 1, \quad \forall x \in (a,b),$$

then the fixed point is unique in [a,b].



Example 8 Prove that $g(x) = (x^2 - 4)/5$ has a unique fixed point in [-2,2].

Sol. The minimum and maximum of g(x) for $x \in [-2,2]$ are the limits of the interval, or at the points where g'(x) = 0. We have g'(x) = 2x/5, g is continuous and there exists g'(x) in [-2,2]. So, the minimum and maximum of g(x) on [-2,2] are at x=-2, x=0 or x=2. We have g(-2)=0, g(2)=0, g(0)=-4/5, so x=-2 and x=2 are points of absolute maximum and x=0 is a point of absolute minimum in [-2,2]. Moreover,

$$|g'(x)| = \left|\frac{2x}{5}\right| \le \left|\frac{4}{5}\right| < 1, \quad \forall x \in (-2, 2).$$

So, g satisfies the conditions of Theorem 7, so it follows that g has a unique fixed point in [-2,2].

Consider the equation

$$f(x) = 0, (3)$$

where $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$. Assume that $\alpha\in[a,b]$ is a zero of f(x).

In order to compute α , we transform (3) algebraically into *fixed point* form,

$$x = g(x), (4)$$

where g is chosen so that $g(x) = x \Leftrightarrow f(x) = 0$.

A simple way to do this is, for example, x = x + f(x) =: g(x).

Finding a zero of f(x) in [a,b] is then equivalent to finding a fixed point x=g(x) in [a,b].

The fixed point form suggests the fixed point iteration

$$x_0$$
 - initial guess, $x_{k+1} = g(x_k), k = 0, 1, 2,$

The hope is that iteration will produce a convergent sequence $(x_n) \to \alpha$.

For example, consider

$$f(x) = xe^x - 1 = 0. (5)$$

A first fixed point iteration is obtained rearranging and dividing (5) by e^x : $xe^x = 1 \Rightarrow x = e^{-x}$, so $x = g(x) = e^{-x}$ and

$$x_{k+1} = e^{-x_k}$$
.

With the initial guess $x_0 = 0.5$ we obtain the iterates $x_1 = 0.6065306597$, $x_2 = 0.5452392119$, ..., $x_8 = 0.5664094527$, $x_9 = 0.5675596343$, ..., $x_{28} = 0.56714328$, $x_{29} = 0.56714329$

So x_k seems to converge to $\alpha = 0.5671432...$

A second fixed point form is obtained from $xe^x = 1$ by adding x on both sides: $xe^x + x = 1 + x \Rightarrow x(e^x + 1) = 1 + x \Rightarrow x = \frac{1+x}{e^x+1}$, we get

$$x = g(x) = \frac{1+x}{e^x + 1}$$
.

This time the convergence is much faster (we need only three iterations to obtain a 10-digit approximation of α) : $x_0 = 0.5$, $x_1 = 0.5663110032$, $x_2 = 0.5671431650$, $x_3 = 0.5671432904$.

Another possibility for a fixed point iteration is $x = x + 1 - xe^x$. But this iteration function does not generate a convergent sequence.

Finally we could also consider the fixed point form $x = x + xe^x - 1$. Also this iteration function does not generate a convergent sequence.

The question is: when does the iteration sequence converge?

Answer: when conditions of Theorem 7 are fulfilled.

For this example, we have two cases when |g'(x)| < 1 and the algorithm converges and two cases when |g'(x)| > 1 and the algorithm is not convergent.

A more general statement for the convergence is the theorem of Banach.

Definition 9 A Banach space \mathcal{B} *is a complete normed vector space over some number field* K *such as* \mathbb{R} *or* \mathbb{C} . (Complete *means that every Cauchy sequence converges in* \mathcal{B} .)

Definition 10 Let $A \subset \mathcal{B}$ be a closed subset and $G: A \to A$. G is called **Lipschitz continuous** on A if there exists a constant $L \geq 0$ such that $||G(x) - G(y)|| \leq L ||x - y||$, $\forall x, y \in A$. Furthermore, G is called **a contraction** if L can be chosen such that L < 1.

Theorem 11 (Banach Fixed Point Theorem) Let A be a closed subset of a Banach space \mathcal{B} , and let G be a contraction $G: A \to A$. Then:

a) G has a unique fixed point α , which is the unique solution of the equation x = G(x).

b) The sequence $x_{n+1} = G(x_n)$ converges to α for every initial guess $x_0 \in A$.

c) We have the estimate:
$$||\alpha - x_n|| \le \frac{L^{n-l}}{1-L}||x_{l+1} - x_l||$$
, for $0 \le l \le n$ (or $||\alpha - x_n|| \le \frac{L^n}{1-L}||x_1 - x_0||$)

For practical applications is also useful the following estimation.

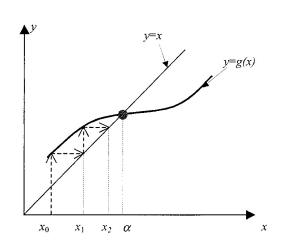
Lemma 12 If $||G'(x)|| < L < 1, x \in V(\alpha)$ then

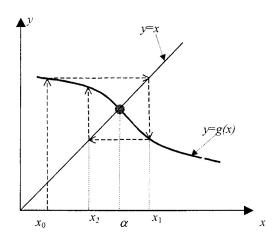
$$||\alpha - x_n|| \le \frac{L}{1 - L} ||x_n - x_{n-1}||.$$

Geometric interpretation of the method: we plot y = G(x) and y = x. The intersection points of the two functions are the solutions of x = G(x). The computation of the sequence $\{x_k\}$ with x_0 chosen initial value, $x_{k+1} = G(x_k), k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ can be interpreted geometrically via sequences of lines parallel to the coordinate axes:

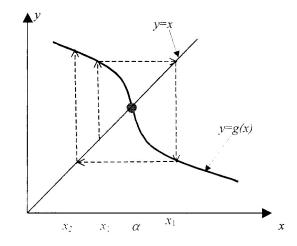
 x_0 start with x_0 on the x-axis $G(x_0)$ go parallel to the y-axis to the graph of $G(x_1)$ move parallel to the x-axis to the graph y=x $G(x_1)$ go parallel to the y-axis to the graph of $G(x_1)$ etc.

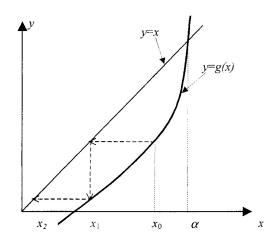
Case of convergence |G'(x)| < 1.





Case of divergence |G'(x)| > 1.





When $|g'(\alpha)| = 1$, depending on the mapping g, the iterates may converge or not (e.g., $g(x) = x - x^3$ or $g(x) = x + x^3$).

5.2. Multistep methods

Lagrange inverse interpolation

Let $y_k = f(x_k)$, k = 0, ..., n, hence $x_k = g(y_k)$. We attach the Lagrange interpolation formula to y_k and $g(y_k)$, k = 0, ..., n:

$$g = L_n g + R_n g, (6)$$

where

$$(L_n g)(y) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(y-y_0)...(y-y_{k-1})(y-y_{k+1})...(y-y_n)}{(y_k-y_0)...(y_k-y_{k-1})(y_k-y_{k+1})...(y_k-y_n)} g(y_k).$$
 (7)

Taking

$$F_n^L(x_0,...,x_n) = (L_ng)(0),$$

 F_n^L is a (n+1) – steps method defined by

$$F_n^L(x_0, ..., x_n) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{y_0 ... y_{k-1} y_{k+1} ... y_n}{(y_k - y_0) ... (y_k - y_{k-1}) (y_k - y_{k+1}) ... (y_k - y_n)} (-1)^n g(y_k)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{y_0 ... y_{k-1} y_{k+1} ... y_n}{(y_k - y_0) ... (y_k - y_{k-1}) (y_k - y_{k+1}) ... (y_k - y_n)} (-1)^n x_k.$$

Concerning the convergence of this method we state:

Theorem 13 If $\alpha \in (a,b)$ is solution of equation f(x) = 0, f' is bounded on (a,b), and the starting values satisfy $|\alpha - x_k| < 1/c$, k = 0, ..., n, with c = constant, then the sequence

$$x_{i+1} = F_n^L(x_{n-i}, ..., x_i), \quad i = n, n+1, ...$$

converges to α .

Remark 14 The order $ord(F_n^L)$ is the positive solution of the equation

$$t^{n+1} - t^n - \dots - t - 1 = 0.$$

Particular cases.

1) For n = 1, the nodes x_0, x_1 , we get **the secant method**

$$F_1^L(x_0, x_1) = x_1 - \frac{(x_1 - x_0) f(x_1)}{f(x_1) - f(x_0)},$$

Thus,

$$x_{k+1} := F_1^L(x_{k-1}, x_k) = x_k - \frac{(x_k - x_{k-1}) f(x_k)}{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

is the new approximation obtained using the previous approximations x_{k-1}, x_k .

The *order* of this method is the positive solution of equation:

$$t^2 - t - 1 = 0,$$

so $ord(F_1^L) = \frac{(1+\sqrt{5})}{2} \approx 1.618$. (the golden ratio).

A modified form of the secant method: if we keep x_1 fixed and we change every time the same interpolation node, i.e.,

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{(x_k - x_1) f(x_k)}{f(x_k) - f(x_1)}, \quad k = 2, 3, \dots$$

2) For n = 2, the nodes x_0, x_1, x_2 and we get

$$F_2^L(x_0, x_1, x_2) = \frac{x_0 f(x_1) f(x_2)}{[f(x_0) - f(x_1)][f(x_0) - f(x_2)]} + \frac{x_1 f(x_0) f(x_2)}{[f(x_1) - f(x_0)][f(x_1) - f(x_2)]} + \frac{x_2 f(x_0) f(x_1)}{[f(x_2) - f(x_0)][f(x_2) - f(x_1)]}.$$

The *order* of this method is the positive solution of equation:

$$t^3 - t^2 - t - 1 = 0,$$

so $ord(F_2^L) = 1.8394$.

Comparing the Newton's method and secant method with respect to the time needed for finding a root with some given precision, we have:

- -Newton's method has more computation at one step: it is necessary to evaluate f(x) and f'(x). Secant method evaluates just f(x) (supposing that $f(x_{previous})$ is stored.)
- -The number of iterations for Newton's method is smaller (its order is $p_N=2$). Secant method has order $p_S=1.618$ and we have that three steps of this method are equivalent with two steps of Newton's method.
- It is proved that if the time for computing f'(x) is greater than $(0.44 \times \text{the time for computing } f(x))$, then the secant method is faster.

Remark 15 The computation time is not the unique criterion in choosing the method! Newton's method is easier to apply. If f(x) is not explicitly known (for example, it is the solution of the numerical integration of a differential equation), then its derivative is computed numerically. If we consider the following expression for the numerical computation of derivative:

$$f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})}{x_n - x_{n-1}}$$
 (8)

then the Newton's method becomes the secant method.

Another way of obtaining secant method.

Based on approx. the function by a straight line connecting two points on the graph of f (not required f to have opposite signs at the initial points).

The first point, x_2 , of the iteration is taken to be the point of intersection of the Ox-axis and the secant line connecting two starting points

 $(x_0, f(x_0))$ and $(x_1, f(x_1))$. The next point, x_3 , is generated by the intersection of the new secant line, joining $(x_1, f(x_1))$ and $(x_2, f(x_2))$ with the Ox-axis. The new point, x_3 , together with x_2 , is used to generate the next point, x_4 , and so on.

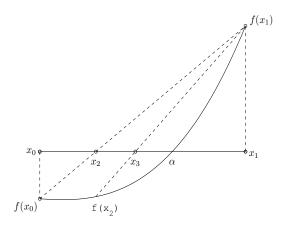
The formula for x_{n+1} is obtained by setting $x = x_{n+1}$ and y = 0 in the equation of the secant line from $(x_{n-1}, f(x_{n-1}))$ to $(x_n, f(x_n))$:

$$\frac{x - x_n}{x_{n-1} - x_n} = \frac{y - f(x_n)}{f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_n)} \Leftrightarrow x = x_n + \frac{(x_{n-1} - x_n)(y - f(x_n))}{f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_n)},$$

we get

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - f(x_n) \left[\frac{x_n - x_{n-1}}{f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})} \right].$$
 (9)

Note that x_{n+1} depends on the two previous elements of the sequence \Rightarrow two initial guesses, x_0 and x_1 , for generating x_2, x_3, \dots .



The algorithm:

Let x_0 and x_1 be two initial approximations.

for n = 1, 2, ..., ITMAX

$$x_{n+1} \leftarrow x_n - f(x_n) \left[\frac{x_n - x_{n-1}}{f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})} \right].$$

A suitable stopping criterion is

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

where ε is a specified tolerance value.

Example 16 Use the secant method with $x_0 = 1$ and $x_1 = 2$ to solve $x^3 - x^2 - 1 = 0$, with $\varepsilon = 10^{-4}$.

Sol. With
$$x_0 = 1$$
, $f(x_0) = -1$ and $x_1 = 2$, $f(x_1) = 3$, we have
$$x_2 = 2 - \frac{(2-1)(3)}{3-(-1)} = 1.25$$

from which $f(x_2) = f(1.25) = -0.609375$. The next iterate is

$$x_3 = 1.25 - \frac{(1.25 - 2)(-0.609375)}{-0.609375 - 3} = 1.3766234.$$

Continuing in this manner the iterations lead to the approximation 1.4655713.