

NUMERICAL SOLUTION OF
ALGEBRAIC AND
TRANSCENDENTAL
EQUATIONS

Polynomial Functions : $y = f(x)$

1/ Linear : $f(x) = ax + b$ [Names derive from the highest degree.]

2/ Quadratic : $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$

3/ Cubic : $f(x) = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$

4/ Quartic : $f(x) = ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e$

5/ Quintic : $f(x) = ax^5 + bx^4 + cx^3 + dx^2 + ex + f$

A General n-order Polynomial

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$$

OR $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$ in a summation notation.

i) This implies that polynomials have a finite-order series.

ii) Analytical roots of a polynomial $f(x) = 0$ can be obtained only up to a quartic.

Transcendental Functions $y = f(x)$

1/ $f(x) = e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$

2/ $f(x) = \ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$

3/ $f(x) = \sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$

4/ $f(x) = \cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$

All transcendental functions (like some of the examples shown above) are given by an infinite series.

Plotting Techniques On some Transcendental Functions

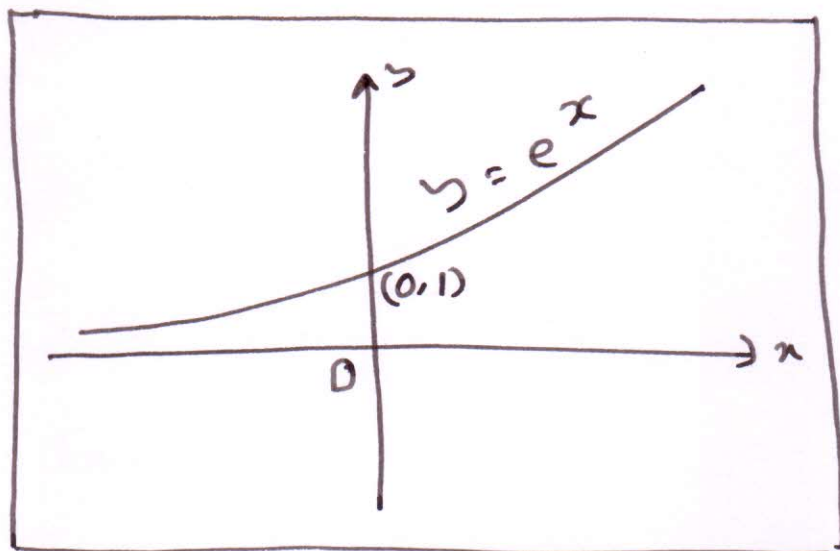
1/ $y = e^x$ i) When $x > 0$, $y > 0$ and when $x < 0$, $y > 0$.

Hence the function is in the first and second quadrants.

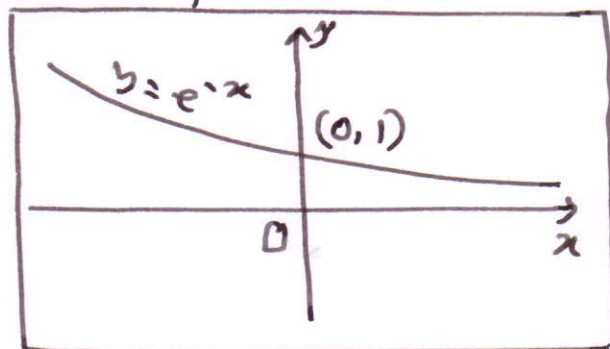
ii) The function crosses the y -axis ($x=0$). Hence the point through which the function ^{passes} is $(0, 1)$, while changing quadrants.

iii.) $\frac{dy}{dx} = e^x = 0 \Rightarrow x \rightarrow -\infty$. The function does not have a turning point, i.e. it is a ~~monotonic~~^{mono} function.

iv.) When $x \rightarrow \infty$, $y \rightarrow \infty$ and when $x \rightarrow -\infty$, $y \rightarrow 0$. (The asymptotic behaviour.)



Also for $y = e^{-x}$, ~~the~~ plot by $x \rightarrow -x$.



2/ $y = \ln x$

i.) x is always > 0 .

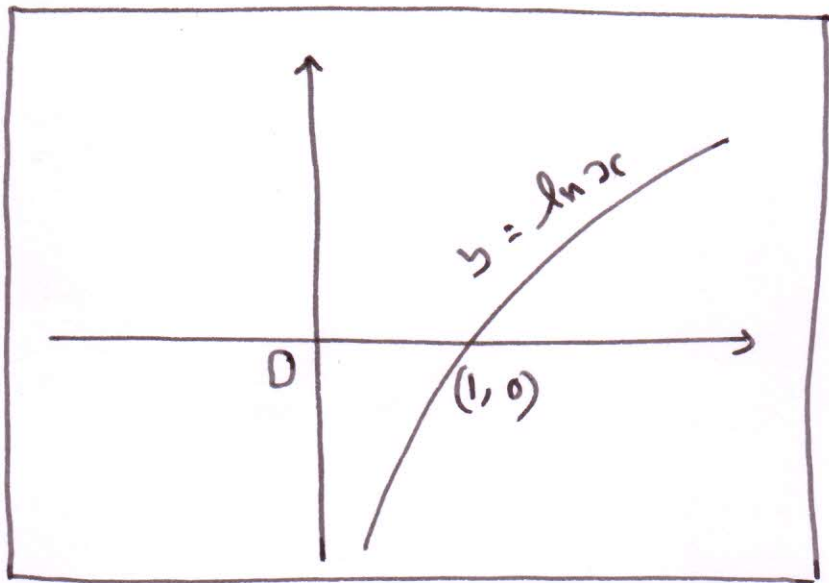
When $x > 1$, $y > 0$ and when $x < 1$, $y < 0$. The function is in the first and fourth quadrants.

ii.) The ^{function} crosses the x axis ($y = 0$). The point of crossing is ~~for~~^{at} $0 = \ln 1$, i.e. $(1, 0)$.

iii.) $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} = 0 \Rightarrow x \rightarrow \infty$, i.e. this

function is also monotonic without any turning point at finite values of x .

iv.) When $x \rightarrow \infty$, $y \rightarrow \infty$ and when $x \rightarrow 0$, $y \rightarrow -\infty$.



I/. On large scales of x , the growth of e^x is much greater than $\ln x$.

II/. Similarly x also grows much faster than $\ln x$ on large x .

Example : 1/. $f(x) = e^x + \ln x$. When $x \rightarrow \infty$,

$f(x) \sim e^x$ and when $x \rightarrow 0$, $f(x) \sim \ln x$.

2/. $f(x) = x + \ln x$. When $x \rightarrow \infty$, $f(x) \sim x$

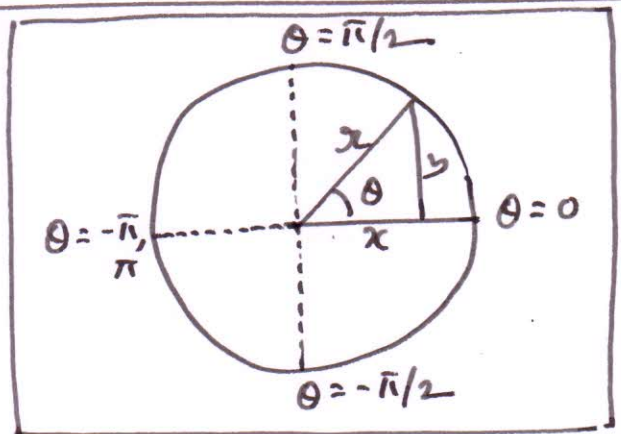
and when $x \rightarrow 0$, $f(x) \sim \ln x$.

3/. $y = \sin x$

(on an open linear scale)

On the circular path,

$\sin \theta = y/r$



i). When $\theta = 0$, $y = 0 \Rightarrow \sin \theta = 0$.
When $\theta = \pm \pi/2$, $y = \pm r \Rightarrow \sin \theta = \pm 1$.

\Rightarrow for any argument x , $\sin x$ (on the open scale) varies between ± 1 ($-1 < \sin x < 1$)

\therefore For all x , $y = \sin x$ lies in all the four quadrants.

ii) $\boxed{\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x = \pm \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 x}}$, because

$\boxed{\cos \theta = x/r}$ and ~~also~~ by the Pythagoras theorem, $\boxed{x^2 + y^2 = r^2}$ on the circular path.

$\therefore \boxed{x = r \cos \theta}$ and $\boxed{y = r \sin \theta}$ ~~so that~~

$\Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 = r^2 \cos^2 \theta + r^2 \sin^2 \theta = r^2$

$\Rightarrow \boxed{\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1} \Rightarrow \boxed{\cos x = \pm \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 x}}$

On the linear scale we plot $\sin x$ ^{over} $[-\pi, \pi]$.

a) When $x = -\pi$, $\boxed{\sin x = 0}$, and $\boxed{\cos x = -1}$.

b) When $x = -\pi/2$, $\boxed{\sin x = -1}$, and $\boxed{\cos x = 0}$.

$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ at $x = -\pi/2$ (a turning point).

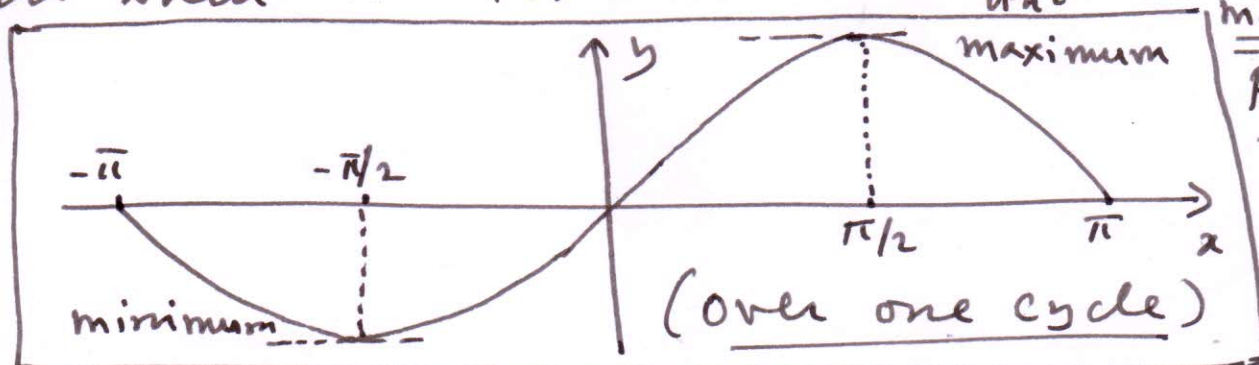
c) When $x = 0$, $\boxed{\sin x = 0}$, and $\boxed{\cos x = +1}$.

d) When $x = \pi/2$, $\boxed{\sin x = 1}$ and $\boxed{\cos x = 0}$.

$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ at $x = \pi/2$ (a turning point).

e) $\boxed{\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\sin x}$. When $x = -\pi/2$, $\sin x = -1$.
 $\Rightarrow \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 1 > 0$ (Stable minimum)

And when $x = \pi/2$, $\sin x = 1 \Rightarrow \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -1 < 0$ (unstable maximum)



Repeat this form for all cycles.

4/ $y = e^{-x^2}$

i) When $x > 0$, $y > 0$ and
When $x < 0$, $y > 0$.

Also $y(x) = y(-x)$. This is an even function lying in the first and fourth quadrants.

ii) The function crosses the y axis ($x=0$), at the point $(0,1)$.

iii) $\frac{dy}{dx} = e^{-x^2} \cdot (-2x) = 0$. The solutions are $x=0$ and $x \rightarrow \pm \infty$.

There is a turning point at $x=0$.

$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -2[e^{-x^2} + x e^{-x^2} \cdot (-2x)]$ At $x=0$, $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -2 < 0$.

\Rightarrow The turning point is a maximum.

iv) When $x \rightarrow \pm \infty$, $y \rightarrow 0$.

v) $y = \frac{1}{e^{x^2}} \approx \frac{1}{1+x^2} \rightarrow$ Going up to the first order.

$y = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ is known as the Lorentz function.

