

# Non-linear equations

Towards the multi-dimensional case

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# Today's outline

- Python solvers
- Newton-Raphson method
- Multi-dimensional Newton-Raphson

# Non-linear Equation Solving in Python (1 var)

## Single Variable Non-linear Zero Finding:

- Use the `root_scalar` function from `scipy.optimize` for finding zeros of a single-variable non-linear function.
- Be aware of the initial bracketing steps in `root_scalar`.

```
1 from scipy.optimize import root_scalar
2
3 root_scalar(lambda x: -3*x**2 - 5*x + 2, method='brentq', bracket=[1, 4], xtol=1e-15)
```

```
converged: True
  flag: converged
function_calls: 10
iterations: 9
  root: 0.3333333333333333
```

# Non-linear equation solver in Python ( $\geq 2$ var)

## Solving Systems of Non-linear Equations (Multiple Variables):

- Use `fsolve` from `scipy.optimize` for systems involving multiple variables.
- Suitable for non-linear equations with two or more variables.

```
1 from scipy.optimize import fsolve
2
3 def equations(x):
4     return [2*x[0]*x[1] - x[1] + 2, 2*x[1] - 4*x[0] - 4]
5
6 fsolve(equations, [1, 1], xtol=1e-15)
```

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Algorithm:

- Requires evaluating both the function  $f(x)$  and its derivative  $f'(x)$  at arbitrary points.
- Extend the tangent line at the current point  $x_i$  until it intersects with zero.
- Set the next guess  $x_{i+1}$  as the abscissa of that zero crossing.
- For small enough  $\delta x$  and well-behaved functions, non-linear terms in the Taylor series become unimportant.

$$f(x) \approx f(x_i) + f'(x_i)\delta x + \mathcal{O}(\delta x^2) + \dots$$

$$0 \approx f(x_i) + f'(x_i)\delta x$$

$$\delta x \approx -\frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)}$$

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - \frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)}$$

- Can be extended to higher dimensions.
- Requires an initial guess close enough to the root to avoid failure.

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Example with the Formula:

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

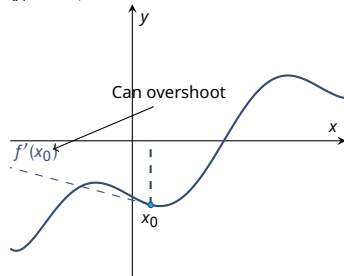
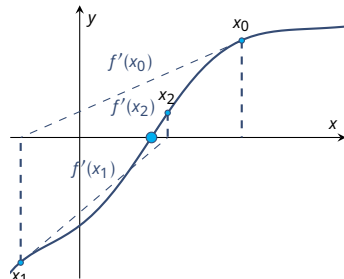
## When it works:

- Converges enormously fast when it functions correctly.

## When it does not work:

- Underrelaxation can sometimes be helpful.
- Underrelaxation formula:

$$x_{n+1} = (1 - \lambda)x_n + \lambda x_{n+1}$$
$$\lambda \in [0, 1]$$



# Newton-Raphson Method

## Basic Algorithm:

Given initial  $x$  and a required tolerance  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

- 1 Compute  $f(x)$  and  $f'(x)$ .
- 2 If  $|f(x)| \leq \varepsilon$ , return  $x$ .
- 3 Update  $x$  using the formula:

$$x \leftarrow x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$$

Repeat the above steps until a solution is found within the tolerance or the maximum number of iterations is exceeded.

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Exercise 5: Newton-Raphson Method in Excel

iteration	x	f	f'
0	-2	14	-8
1	-0.25	3.0625	-4.5
2	0.430556	0.463156	-3.13889
3	0.57811	0.021772	-2.84378
4	0.585766	5.86E-05	-2.82847
5	0.585786	4.29E-10	-2.82843
6	0.585786	0	-2.82843

Used formulas:

$$f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 2$$

$$f' = 2x - 4$$

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



# Newton-Raphson Method

## Why is the Newton-Raphson so powerful?

- High rate of convergence
- Can achieve quadratic convergence!

## Derivation of quadratic convergence:

- 1 Subtract solution
- 2 Define error
- 3 Express in terms of error
- 4 Use Taylor expansion around solution
- 5 Rewrite in terms of error
- 6 Ignore higher order terms

$$x_{n+1} - x^* = x_n - x^* - f(x_n)/f'(x_n)$$

$$\varepsilon_n = x_n - x^*$$

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} = \varepsilon_n - f(x_n)/f'(x_n)$$

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} \approx \varepsilon_n - \frac{f(x^*) + f'(x^*)\varepsilon_n + f''(x^*)\varepsilon_n^2}{f'(x^*) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon_n^2)}$$

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} \approx -\frac{f''(x^*)\varepsilon_n^2 + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon_n^3)}{f'(x^*) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon_n^2)}$$

$$\boxed{\varepsilon_{n+1} \approx -K\varepsilon_n^2}$$

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Deriving the order of convergence

- The main issue with determining the order of convergence is that the solution is not known a priori
- To get around this issue it is possible to rewrite the problem in terms of known quantities.
- In the coming derivation, the following steps are taken to derive the order of convergence:
  - ① The formal definition of  $K$  is given in terms of  $\varepsilon$  and the order of convergence  $m$
  - ② This formal definition is used to rewrite the fraction of successive errors
  - ③ Logarithms are used to isolate  $m$
- Since the  $\varepsilon$  can't be computed without knowing the solution, the following approximation is made before plugging the final result:

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} \approx |x_{n+1} - x_n|$$

# Newton-Raphson Method

- ① Formal definition of  $K$  and  $m$ :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\varepsilon_{n+1}| = K |\varepsilon_n|^m$$

- ② Fraction of successive errors:

$$\frac{|\varepsilon_{n+1}|}{|\varepsilon_n|} = \frac{K |\varepsilon_n|^m}{K |\varepsilon_{n-1}|^m} \Rightarrow \left| \frac{\varepsilon_n}{\varepsilon_{n-1}} \right|^m$$

- ③ Extracting  $m$ :

$$\ln \left| \frac{\varepsilon_{n+1}}{\varepsilon_n} \right| = m \ln \left| \frac{\varepsilon_n}{\varepsilon_{n-1}} \right| \Rightarrow \boxed{m = \frac{\ln \left| \frac{\varepsilon_{n+1}}{\varepsilon_n} \right|}{\ln \left| \frac{\varepsilon_n}{\varepsilon_{n-1}} \right|}}$$

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Exercise 5: Newton-Raphson Method in Excel

- In this exercise, you will be working with the Newton-Raphson method implemented in Excel.
- The order of convergence ( $m$ ) can be estimated using the relation:

$$m = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{n+1}}{\varepsilon_n}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{\varepsilon_n}{\varepsilon_{n-1}}\right)}$$

Where it is assumed that  $\varepsilon$  can be approximated by:

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} = |x_{n+1} - x_n|$$

- Solve a problem using the Newton-Raphson method in Excel and verify the order of convergence using the formulas above.

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Exercise 5: Newton-Raphson Method in Excel solution

iteration	x	f	f'	eps	m
0	-2.000	14.000	-8.000	1.750	
1	-0.250	3.063	-4.500	0.681	1.619
2	0.431	0.463	-3.139	0.148	1.935
3	0.578	0.022	-2.844	0.008	1.998
4	0.586	0.000	-2.828	0.000	2.000
5	0.586	0.000	-2.828	0.000	
6	0.586	0.000	-2.828		

Used formulas:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - f(x_n)/f'(x_n)$$

$$m = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{n+1}}{\varepsilon_n}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{\varepsilon_n}{\varepsilon_{n-1}}\right)}$$

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} = |x_{n+1} - x_n|$$

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Exercise 6: Newton-Raphson Method in Python

- Write a Python function to find the root of a function using the Newton-Raphson method.
- Assume that an initial guess  $x_0$  is provided.
- The required tolerance for the solution should also be provided.
- Output the results of each iteration.
- Compute the order of convergence.

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Exercise 6: Newton-Raphson in Python solution

```
1 def newton1D(f, df, x0, tol, max_iter):
2     x = x0
3     e = [0] * max_iter
4     p = float('nan')
5     for i in range(max_iter):
6         x_new = x - f(x) / df(x)
7         e[i] = abs(x_new - x)
8         if i >= 2:
9             p = (log(e[i]) - log(e[i - 1])) / (log(e[i - 1]) - log(e[i - 2]))
10        print(f'x: {x_new:.10f}, e: {e[i]:.10f}, p: {p:.10f}')
11        if e[i] < tol:
12            break
13        x = x_new
14    return x
```

- Running the following command in Python yielded convergence in 6 iterations:

```
1 newton1D(lambda x: x**2 - 4*x + 2, lambda x: 2*x - 4, 1, 1e-12, 100)
```

- Question: Why does it not work with an initial guess of  $x_0 = 2$ ?
- This exercise encourages you to think about the influence of the initial guess on the convergence of the Newton-Raphson method.

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Modifications to the Basic Algorithm

- If  $f'(x)$  is not known or is difficult to compute/program, a local numerical approximation can be used:

$$f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x + \delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x} \quad (\text{with } \delta x \sim 10^{-8})$$

- The chosen  $\delta x$  should be small but not too small to avoid round-off errors.
- The method should be combined with:
  - A bracketing method to prevent the solution from wandering outside of the bounds.
  - A reduced Newton step method for more robustness; don't take the full step if the error doesn't decrease sufficiently.
  - Sophisticated step size controls like local line searches and backtracking using cubic interpolation for global convergence.



# Newton-Raphson Method in Python

## Exercise 6: Numerical Differentiation

```
1 from math import log
2 def newton1Dnum(f, h, x0, tol, max_iter):
3     x = x0
4     e = [0] * max_iter
5     p = float('nan')
6     for i in range(max_iter):
7         x_new = x - f(x) / ((f(x + h) - f(x)) / h) # NUMERICAL DIFFERENTIATION
8         e[i] = abs(x_new - x)
9         if i >= 2:
10             p = (log(e[i]) - log(e[i - 1])) / (log(e[i - 1]) - log(e[i - 2]))
11             print(f'x: {x_new:.10f}, e: {e[i]:.10f}, p: {p:.10f}')
12             if e[i] < tol:
13                 break
14             x = x_new
15     return x
```

- A command involving numerical differentiation in Python:

```
1 newton1Dnum(lambda x: x**2 - 4*x + 2, 1e-7, 1, 1e-12, 100)
```

- This demonstrates that numerical differentiation can be utilized in the Newton-Raphson method to find the roots with the same efficiency in this specific case.

# Newton-Raphson Method

## How to Solve for Arbitrary Functions $f$ : "Root Finding"

- **One-dimensional case:**
  - Move all terms to the left to have  $f(x) = 0$ .
  - Bracket or 'trap' a root between bracketing values, then hunt it down "like a rabbit."
- **Multi-dimensional case:**
  - Involving  $N$  equations in  $N$  unknowns.
  - It is not guaranteed to find a solution; it might not have a real solution or might have more than one solution.
  - Much more challenging compared to the one-dimensional case.
  - It is unpredictable to know if a root is nearby unless it has been found.

# Newton-Raphson Method: Multi-dimensional Case (1)

- **Two-dimensional case:**

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

$$g(x, y) = 0.$$

- **Multivariate Taylor series expansion:**

$$f(x + \delta x, y + \delta y) \approx f(x, y) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \delta y + O(\delta x^2, \delta y^2) = 0$$

- **Neglecting higher order terms:**

$$g(x + \delta x, y + \delta y) \approx g(x, y) + \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \delta y + O(\delta x^2, \delta y^2) = 0$$

- Leads to two linear equations in the unknowns  $\delta x$  and  $\delta y$ :

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \delta y = -f(x, y),$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \delta y = -g(x, y).$$

# Newton-Raphson Method: Multi-dimensional Case (2)

**In matrix notation:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta x \\ \delta y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -f(x,y) \\ -g(x,y) \end{bmatrix}$$

**Elements of this equation:**

- Jacobian matrix:

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The small displacement vector and  $\mathbf{f}$ :

$$\delta \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta x \\ \delta y \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} f(x,y) \\ g(x,y) \end{bmatrix}$$

**Solving equation by matrix inversion:**

- Expressing the stepping equation in matrix notation:

$$\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \delta \mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$$

- Multiplying both sides by the inverse of  $\mathbf{J}$ :

$$\delta \mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{J}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$$

- Writing in terms of iteration number:

$$\mathbf{x}_{n+1} = \mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{J}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_n) \cdot \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_n)$$

# Newton-Raphson Method: Multi-dimensional Case (2)

**In matrix notation:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta x \\ \delta y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -f(x,y) \\ -g(x,y) \end{bmatrix}$$

**Elements of this equation:**

- Jacobian matrix:

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The small displacement vector and  $\mathbf{f}$ :

$$\delta \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta x \\ \delta y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} f(x,y) \\ g(x,y) \end{bmatrix}$$

**Solution via Cramer's rule:**

- Determinant of the Jacobian  $\det(\mathbf{J})$ :

$$J = \det(\mathbf{J}) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}$$

- Solutions for  $\delta x$  and  $\delta y$ :

$$\delta x = \frac{-f(x,y) \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} + g(x,y) \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}}{J}$$

$$\delta y = \frac{f(x,y) \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} - g(x,y) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}}{J}$$

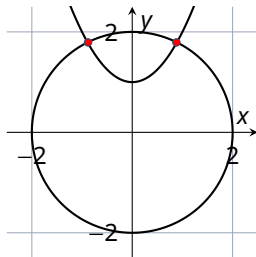
# Newton-Raphson Method: multi-dimensional case

**Example:** *intersection of circle with parabola in matrix form*

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + y^2 &= 4 \\ y &= x^2 + 1 \end{aligned} \quad \text{can be represented as} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ f(x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x - f(x) \\ x^2 + f(x^2) - 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Iterations for solving:

$i$	$\mathbf{x}$	$\mathbf{f}$	$\mathbf{J}$	$\delta \mathbf{x}$
1	$\begin{bmatrix} 1.00 \\ 2.00 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1.00 \\ 0.00 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 2.00 & 4.00 \\ 2.00 & -1.00 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} -0.1 \\ -0.2 \end{bmatrix}$
2	$\begin{bmatrix} 0.90 \\ 1.80 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 5.00 \\ 1.00 \end{bmatrix} \times 10^{-2}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1.80 & 3.60 \\ 1.80 & -1.00 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} -0.01 \\ -8.7 \times 10^{-3} \end{bmatrix}$
3	$\begin{bmatrix} 0.89 \\ 1.79 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1.83 \\ 0.11 \end{bmatrix} \times 10^{-4}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1.78 & 3.58 \\ 1.78 & -1.00 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} -6.99 \times 10^{-5} \\ -1.65 \times 10^{-5} \end{bmatrix}$
4	$\begin{bmatrix} 0.88 \\ 1.79 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 5.16 \\ 4.89 \end{bmatrix} \times 10^{-9}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1.78 & 3.58 \\ 1.78 & -1.00 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} -2.78 \times 10^{-9} \\ 5.94 \times 10^{-11} \end{bmatrix}$



# Newton-Raphson Method: multi-dimensional case

**Extensions to multi-dimensional case:**

**Check order of convergence:**

it	$x_1$	$x_2$	eps1	eps2	$m_1$	$m_2$
1	1.0000	2.0000				
2	0.9000	1.8000	0.1000	0.2000		
3	0.8896	1.7913	0.0104	0.0087	1.9835	2.9482
4	0.8895	1.7913	0.0000699	0.0000165	2.0949	2.3208
5	0.8895	1.7913	0.0000000278	0.0000000059	2.0589	2.1382

**Quadratic convergence**

Doubling number of significant digits every iteration

$$m = \frac{\ln(\varepsilon_{n+1}) - \ln(\varepsilon_n)}{\ln(\varepsilon_n) - \ln(\varepsilon_{n-1})}$$

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Deriving the extension to more than two variables:

- 1 Generalization to the N-dimensional case
- 2 Define variables
- 3 Multi-variate Taylor series expansion
- 4 Define Jacobian matrix
- 5 Neglect higher-order terms
- 6 Express in terms of iterations

- 1  $f_i(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) = 0$
- 2  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N]$   $\mathbf{f} = [f_1, f_2, \dots, f_N]$
- 3  $f_i(\mathbf{x} + \delta\mathbf{x}) = f_i(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \delta x_j + O(\delta\mathbf{x}^2)$
- 4  $J_{ij} = \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$   $f(\mathbf{x} + \delta\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{J}\delta\mathbf{x} + O(\delta\mathbf{x}^2)$
- 5  $\mathbf{J} \cdot \delta\mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$

$$\mathbf{x}_{n+1} = \mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{J}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_n) \cdot \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_n)$$



# Newton-Raphson Method

## Multi-variate Newton-Raphson in Python:

```
1 def my_equations(X):
2     F = np.zeros(2)
3     F[0] = X[0]**2 + X[1]**2 - 4
4     F[1] = X[0]**2 - X[1] + 1
5     return F
```

```
1 def my_jac(x):
2     jac = np.zeros((2, 2))
3     jac[0, 0] = 2 * x[0]
4     jac[0, 1] = 2 * x[1]
5     jac[1, 0] = 2 * x[0]
6     jac[1, 1] = -1
7     return jac
```

```
1 import numpy as np
2 def newton_nd(f, j, x0, tol, max_iter):
3     x = np.array(x0)
4     err = np.zeros(max_iter)
5     p = np.zeros(max_iter)
6     for i in range(max_iter):
7         delta_x = -np.linalg.solve(j(x), f(x))
8         x += delta_x
9         err[i] = np.linalg.norm(delta_x)
10        if i > 0:
11            p[i] = np.log(err[i]) / np.log(err[i-1])
12        else:
13            p[i] = float('nan')
14        print(f'i = {i}: x = {x}, err = {err[i]:.6e}, p = {p[i]:.6f}')
15        if err[i] < tol:
16            break
17    return x
```

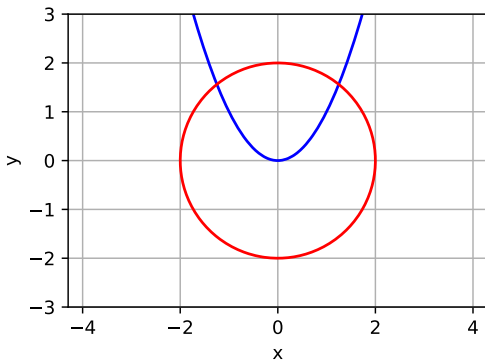
```
1 newton_nd(my_equations, my_jac, [1, 2], 1e-12, 100)
```

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Multi-variate Newton-Raphson in Python:

Plotting the functions:

```
1 plot_implicit_function(lambda x,y: y-x**2, resolution=100, colors="blue")  
2 plot_implicit_function(lambda x,y: y**2+x**2-4, resolution=100, colors="red")
```



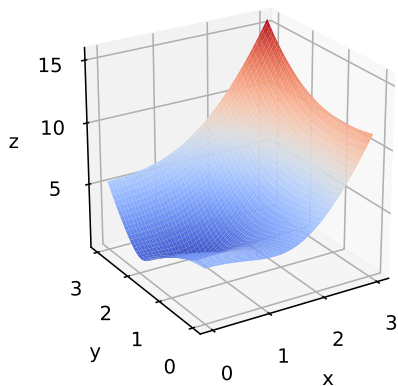
- Code can be found in `plot_implicit.py`
- Uses contour plot at  $f(x,y) = 0$

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Multi-variate Newton-Raphson in Python:

Plotting the norm of the function:

```
1 plot_surface_function(lambda x,y: np.sqrt((x**2 + y**2 -4)**2+(x**2-y+1)**2),  
2                      (0,3),(0,3))
```



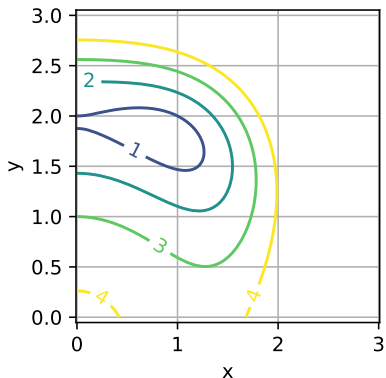
- Code can be found in `plot_implicit.py`
- Uses contour plot at  $f(x,y) = 0$

# Newton-Raphson Method

## Multi-variate Newton-Raphson in Python:

Plotting the norm of the function:

```
1 plot_contours(lambda x,y: np.sqrt((x**2 + y**2 -4)**2+(x**2-y+1)**2),  
2               (0, 3), (0, 3), resolution = 100, levels=[0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
```



- Code can be found in `plot_implicit.py`
- Uses contour plot at  $f(x,y) = 0$

# Broyden's Method

## Multi-dimensional secant method ('quasi-Newton'):

- Disadvantage of the Newton-Raphson method:
  - It requires the Jacobian matrix.
  - In many problems, no analytical Jacobian is available.
  - If the function evaluation is expensive, the numerical approximation using finite differences can be prohibitive.
- Solution: Use a cheap approximation of the Jacobian! (Secant or 'quasi-Newton' method)
- Comparison:

Newton-Raphson:  $J_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x})$  (Analytical)

Secant method:  $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})$  approximated by  $\mathbf{B}$  (Numerical)

# Broyden's Method

## Approximating $\mathbf{B}^{n+1}$ :

- Multi-dimensional secant method ('quasi-Newton'):
- Secant equation (generalization of 1D case):

$$\mathbf{B}^{n+1} \cdot \delta \mathbf{x}^n = \delta \mathbf{f}^n \quad \delta \mathbf{x}^n = \mathbf{x}^{n+1} - \mathbf{x}^n \quad \delta \mathbf{f}^n = \mathbf{f}^{n+1} - \mathbf{f}^n$$

- Underdetermined (not unique: -n equations with n unknowns), need another condition to pin down  $\mathbf{B}^{n+1}$ .

## Broyden's method:

- Determine  $\mathbf{B}^{n+1}$  by making the least change to  $\mathbf{B}^n$  that is consistent with the secant condition.
- Updating formula:

$$\mathbf{B}^{n+1} = \mathbf{B}^n + \frac{(\delta \mathbf{f}^n - \mathbf{B}^n \cdot \delta \mathbf{x}^n)}{\delta \mathbf{x}^n \cdot \delta \mathbf{x}^n} \otimes \delta \mathbf{x}^n$$

Note: Sometimes  $\delta \mathbf{B}_{n-1}$  is updated directly.

# Broyden's Method

## Background of Broyden's method:

- Secant equation:

$$\mathbf{B}^{n+1} \cdot \delta \mathbf{x}^n = \delta f_n$$

- Since there is no update on derivative info, why would  $\mathbf{B}^n$  change in a direction orthogonal to  $\delta \mathbf{x}^n$ ?

$$\Rightarrow (\delta \mathbf{x}^n)^T \delta \mathbf{w} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{B}^{n+1} \cdot \mathbf{w} &= \mathbf{B}^n \cdot \mathbf{w} \\ \mathbf{B}^{n+1} \cdot \delta \mathbf{x}^n &= \delta \mathbf{f}^n \end{aligned} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{B}^{n+1} = \mathbf{B}^n + \frac{(\delta \mathbf{f}^n - \mathbf{B}^n \cdot \delta \mathbf{x}^n)}{\delta \mathbf{x}^n \cdot \delta \mathbf{x}^n} \otimes \delta \mathbf{x}^n$$

- Initialize  $\delta \mathbf{x}^n$  and  $\mathbf{B}_0$  with the identity matrix (or with finite difference approx.).

# Broyden's Method

## Python implementation of Broyden's method:

- Same example as before but now with Broyden's method.
  - Slower convergence with Broyden's method should be offset by improved efficiency of each iteration!
- ```
1 broyden(@MyFunc, [1; 2], 1e-12, 1e-12)
```
- Requires 11 iterations (compare with Newton: 5 iterations)  
But much fewer function evaluations per iteration!

```
1 import numpy as np
2 from numpy.linalg import inv
3
4 def broyden(F, x0, tol=1e-6, max_iter=100):
5     x = np.array(x0)
6     B = np.eye(x.size)
7     for i in range(max_iter):
8         Fx = F(x)
9         if np.linalg.norm(Fx) < tol:
10             print(f"Converged after {i} iterations.")
11             return x
12         x_new = x - inv(B)@Fx
13         delta_x = x_new - x
14         delta_Fx = F(x_new) - Fx
15         B += np.outer((delta_Fx - B@delta_x)/(
16                     delta_x@delta_x), delta_x)
17         x = x_new
18     print("Max iterations reached.")
19     return x
```



# Broyden's Method

- Same example as before but now with Broyden's method.
- Note how the approximate Jacobian (**B**) is updated over subsequent iterations:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 \begin{bmatrix} 1. & 0. \\ 0. & 1. \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} 3. & -1. \\ 4. & -1. \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} -1.0 & -9.0 \\ 3.4 & -2.2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} -1.062 & -9.260 \\ 3.411 & -2.154 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \\
 \begin{bmatrix} 5.290 & -3.864 \\ 2.493 & -2.934 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} 7.363 & -1.931 \\ 3.556 & -1.943 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} 2.349 & -0.773 \\ 3.547 & -1.941 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} -0.934 & -6.772 \\ 2.351 & -4.124 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \\
 \begin{bmatrix} -0.384 & -5.879 \\ 2.500 & -3.884 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} 10.416 & 6.344 \\ 5.947 & 0.018 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} 9.781 & 5.515 \\ 5.641 & -0.382 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} 3.577 & 3.630 \\ 3.362 & -1.074 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \\
 \begin{bmatrix} 3.116 & 3.238 \\ 2.912 & -1.458 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} 1.992 & 3.272 \\ 1.989 & -1.430 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow & \dots \rightarrow & \dots \rightarrow
 \end{array}$$

- Compare with analytical jacobian:  $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.748 & 3.261 \\ 1.736 & -1.439 \end{bmatrix}$   $\mathbf{J} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.779 & 3.583 \\ 1.779 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$
- Note that the approximate Jacobian (**B**) is not exact even when the solution has already been found!

# Conclusions

- Recommendations for root finding:
  - One-dimensional cases:
    - If it is not easy/cheap to compute the function's derivative  $\Rightarrow$  use Brent's algorithm.
    - If derivative information is available  $\Rightarrow$  use Newton-Raphson's method + bookkeeping on bounds provided you can supply a good enough initial guess!!
    - There are specialized routines for (multiple) root finding of polynomials (but not covered in this course).
  - Multi-dimensional cases:
    - Use Newton-Raphson method, but make sure that you provide an initial guess close enough to achieve convergence.
    - In case derivative information is expensive  $\Rightarrow$  use Broyden's method (but slower convergence!).