

# Lecture 10: Newton's and interpolation-based methods

Jamie Haddock

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## 1 Newton's method

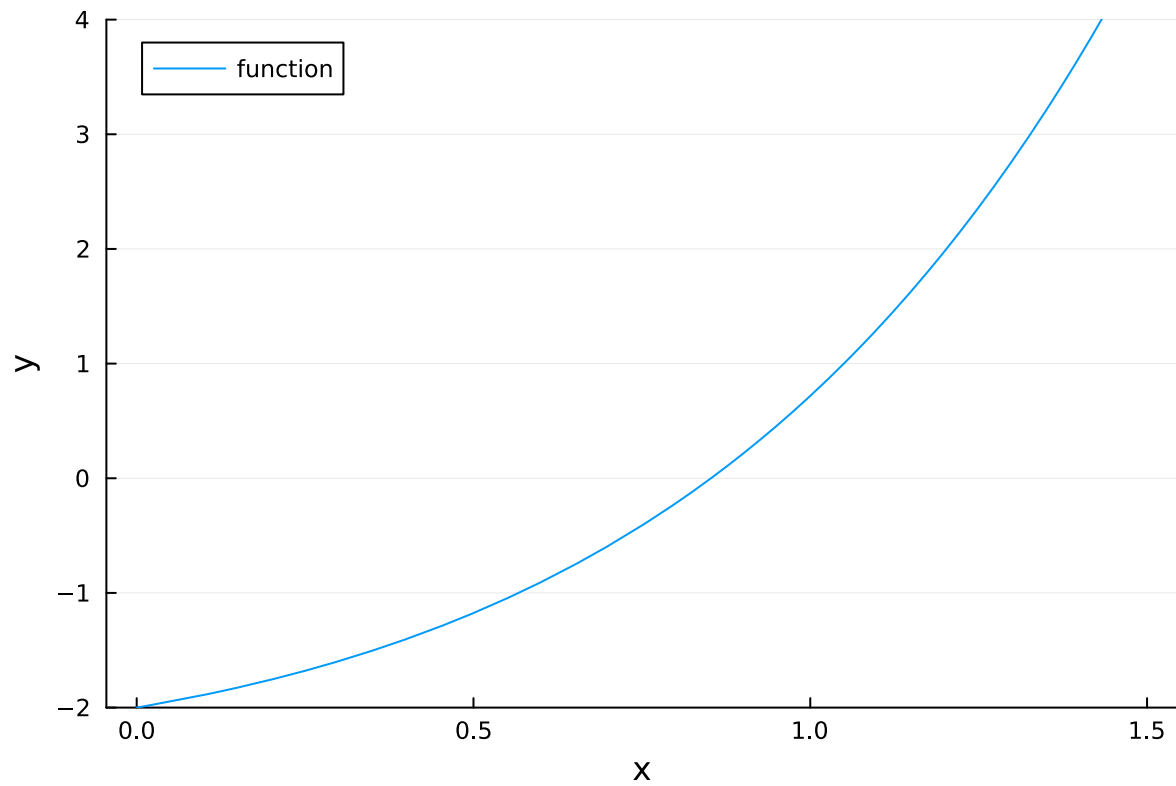
Newton's method is one of the most fundamental methods for rootfinding but it also introduces us to some other big ideas in iterative methods – superlinear convergence!

### 1.1 Demo

```
Resolving package versions...
Updating `~/.julia/environments/v1.11/Project.toml`
[91a5bcdd] + Plots v1.40.7
No Changes to `~/.julia/environments/v1.11/Manifest.toml`

f = x -> x*exp(x) - 2 #function defining the rootfinding problem

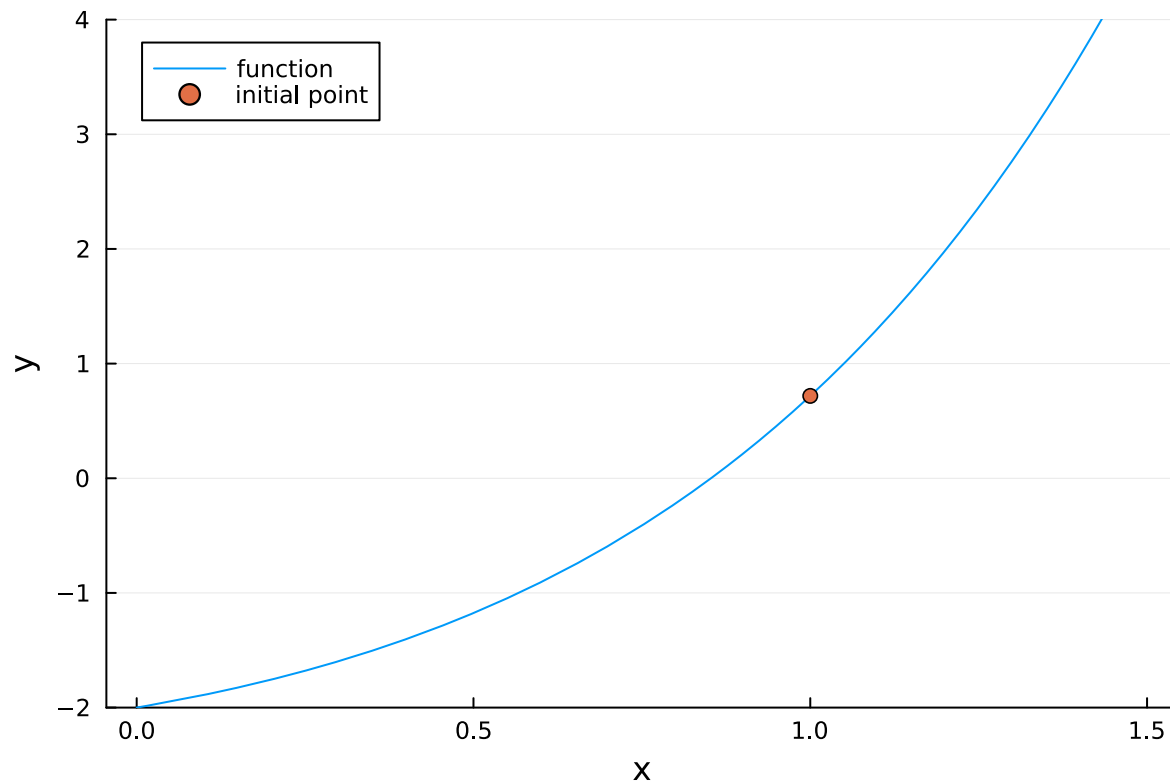
plot(f,0,1.5,label="function",grid=:y,ylim=[-2,4],xlabel="x",ylabel="y",legend=:topleft)
```



We can see that there is a root near  $x = 1$ . This will be our initial guess,  $x_1$ .

---

```
x1 = 1
y1 = f(x1)
scatter!([x1], [y1], label="initial point")
```



Next, we compute the tangent line at the point  $(x_1, f(x_1))$  using the derivative.

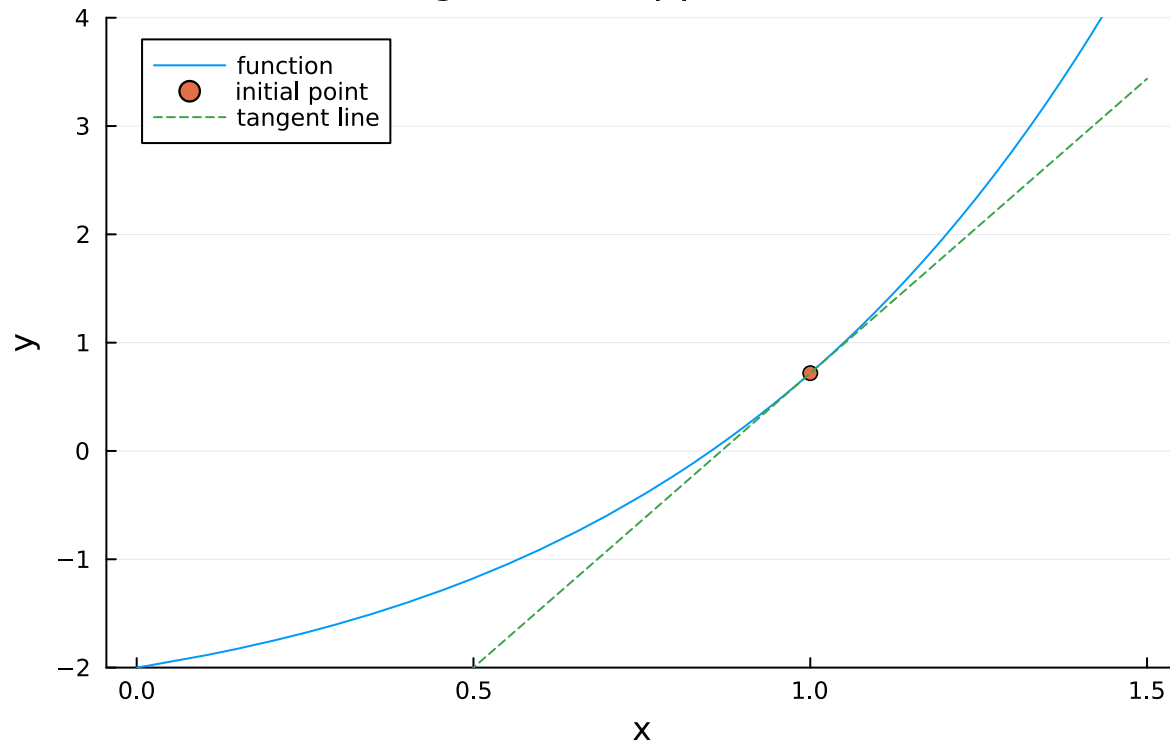
```
dfdx = x -> exp(x)*(x+1)
m1 = dfdx(x1)
tangent = x -> y1 + m1*(x-x1)
```

#39 (generic function with 1 method)

---

```
plot!(tangent,0,1.5,l=:dash,label="tangent line", title="Tangent line approximation")
```

## Tangent line approximation

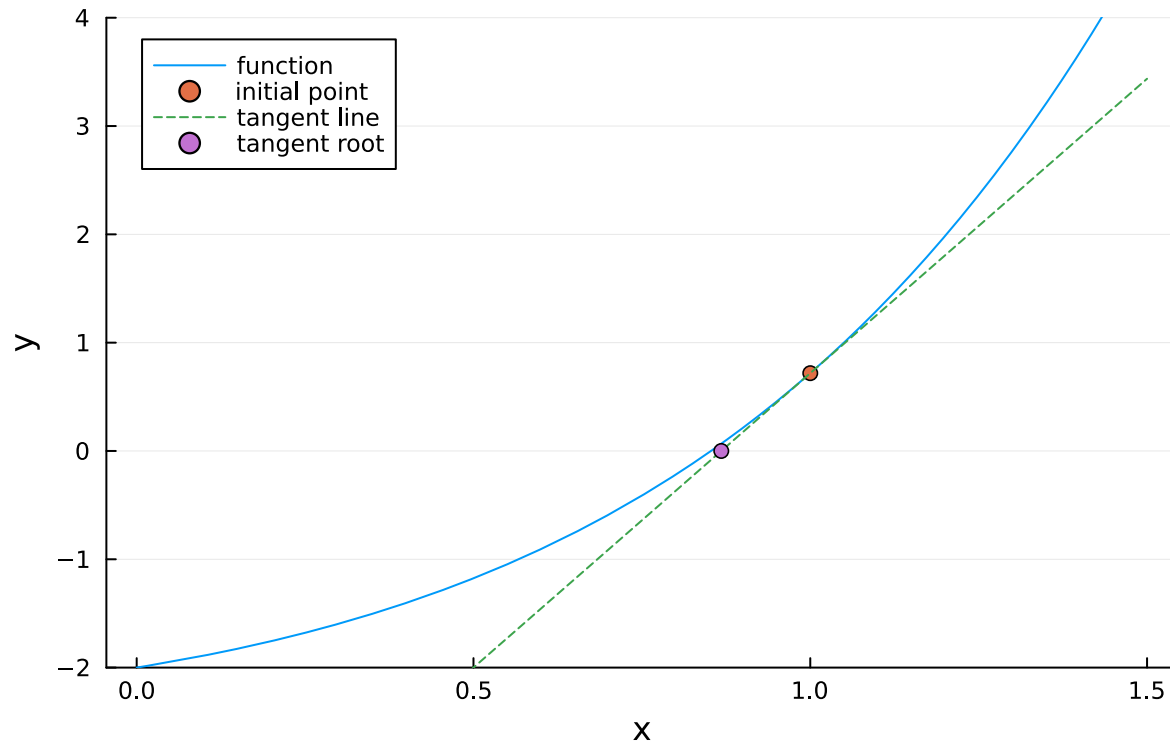


Rather than finding the root of  $f$  itself, we settle for finding the root of the tangent line and let this be our next approximation  $x_2$ .

```
@show x2 = x1 - y1/m1  
scatter!([x2],[0],label="tangent root",title="First iteration")
```

```
x2 = x1 - y1 / m1 = 0.8678794411714423
```

## First iteration



```
y2 = f(x2)
```

```
0.06716266657572145
```

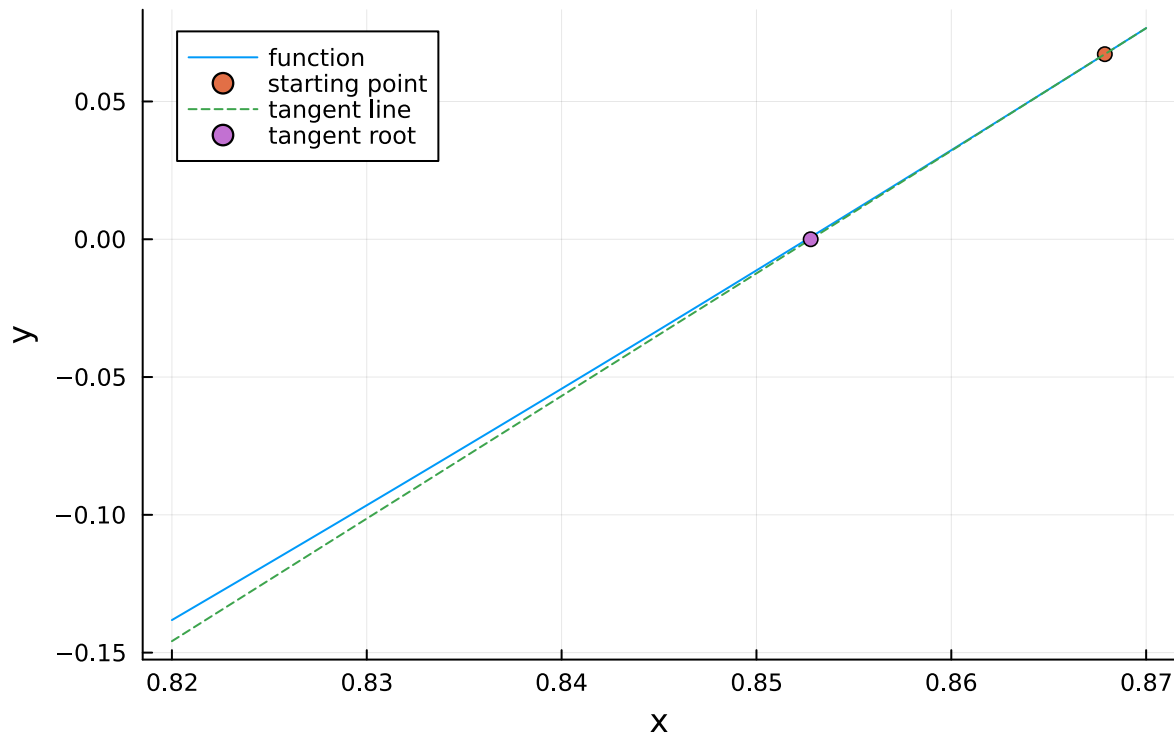
The residual (i.e., value of  $f$  at  $x_2$ ) is smaller than before but not zero. Thus, we repeat!

```
plot(f,0.82,0.87,label="function",legend=:topleft,xlabel="x",ylabel="y",title="Second iteration")
scatter!([x2],[y2],label="starting point")
m2 = dfdx(x2)
tangent = x -> y2 + m2*(x-x2)
plot!(tangent,0.82,0.87,l=:dash,label="tangent line")

@show x3 = x2-y2/m2
scatter!([x3],[0],label="tangent root")
```

```
x3 = x2 - y2 / m2 = 0.8527833734164099
```

## Second iteration



```
y3 = f(x3)
```

0.0007730906446230534

The residual is decreasing quickly, so we appear to be getting much closer to the root!

## 1.2 Newton's method

Given a function  $f$ , its derivative  $f'$ , and an initial value  $x_1$ , iteratively define

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

First, note that this is a special case of the fixed-point iteration! Define  $g(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$ . When we identify a root,  $x$ , where  $f(x) = 0$ , we have a fixed point of  $g$ , which is the function defining the Newton update.

The previous example also suggests why Newton's method might converge to a root – as we zoom in on the function  $f$ , the tangent line and the graph of the differentiable function  $f$  must become more and more similar. However, we don't yet know that it will converge or how quickly!

## 1.3 Convergence

Assume that the sequence  $x_k$  converges to limit  $r$  which is a root,  $f(r) = 0$ . Define again the error  $\epsilon_k = x_k - r$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ .

We can rewrite the update in terms of the  $\epsilon$  sequence as

$$\epsilon_{k+1} + r = \epsilon_k + r - \frac{f(r + \epsilon_k)}{f'(r + \epsilon_k)}.$$

Now, note that we know  $|\epsilon_k| \rightarrow 0$ , so we can use a Taylor expansion of  $f$  about  $x = r$  to show

$$\epsilon_{k+1} = \epsilon_k - \frac{f(r) + \epsilon_k f'(r) + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_k^2 f''(r) + O(\epsilon_k^3)}{f'(r) + \epsilon_k f''(r) + O(\epsilon_k^2)}.$$

Using that  $f(r) = 0$  and dividing through the numerator and denominator by  $f'(r)$ , we have

$$\epsilon_{k+1} = \epsilon_k - \epsilon_k \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} \epsilon_k + O(\epsilon_k^2) \right] \left[ 1 + \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} \epsilon_k + O(\epsilon_k^2) \right]^{-1}.$$

The denominator term is of the form  $1/(1+z)$  and provided  $|z| < 1$ , this is the limit of  $1 - z + z^2 - z^3 + \dots$ . Cutting terms off at the quadratic term we have

$$\epsilon_{k+1} = \epsilon_k - \epsilon_k \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} \epsilon_k + O(\epsilon_k^2) \right] \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} \epsilon_k + O(\epsilon_k^2) \right] = \frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} \epsilon_k^2 + O(\epsilon_k^3).$$

Fact:

Asymptotically, each iteration of Newton's method roughly squares the error.

Definition: Quadratic convergence

Suppose a sequence  $x_k$  approaches a limit  $x^*$ . If the error  $\epsilon_k = x_k - x^*$  satisfies

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|\epsilon_{k+1}|}{|\epsilon_k|^2} = L$$

for a positive constant  $L$ , then the sequence has **quadratic convergence** to the limit.

Quadratic convergence is an example of *superlinear convergence*.

Fact:

While practically linear convergence trends towards a straight line on a log-linear plot of the error, when the convergence is quadratic, no such straight line exists – the convergence keeps getting steeper.

```
f = x -> x*exp(x) - 2;
dfdx = x -> exp(x)*(x+1);
```

Resolving package versions...

No Changes to `~/.julia/environments/v1.11/Project.toml`

No Changes to `~/.julia/environments/v1.11/Manifest.toml`

```
r = nlsolve(x -> f(x[1]), [1.]).zero #calculate a proxy for the exact root
```

```
1-element Vector{Float64}:
 0.852605502013726
```

```
x = [1; zeros(4)] #use 1 as our starting point
for k = 1:4
    x[k+1] = x[k] - f(x[k]) / dfdx(x[k])
end
x
```

```
5-element Vector{Float64}:
 1.0
 0.8678794411714423
 0.8527833734164099
 0.8526055263689221
 0.852605502013726
```

```
eps = @. x - r
```

```
5-element Vector{Float64}:
 0.14739449798627402
 0.015273939157716354
 0.00017787140268388235
 2.435519608212644e-8
 0.0
```

---

The error reaches  $\epsilon_{\text{mach}}$  quickly, so we use extended precision (and software emulation arithmetic) to do the calculations for a few more iterations.

```
x = [BigFloat(1);zeros(7)]      #a BigFloat uses 256 bits of precision, but arithmetic is *much* slower
for k = 1:7
    x[k+1] = x[k] - f(x[k]) / dfdx(x[k])
end
r = x[end]
```

```
0.8526055020137254913464724146953174668984533001514035087721073946525150656742605
```

```
eps = @. Float64(x[1:end-1]-r)
```

```
7-element Vector{Float64}:
 0.14739449798627452
 0.01527393915771683
 0.00017787140268443004
 2.435519656311045e-8
 4.56680051680793e-16
 1.6056572825272187e-31
 1.9848810119594387e-62
```

---

```
logerr = @. log(abs(eps))
[ logerr[i+1]/logerr[i] for i in 1:length(logerr)-1 ]
```

```
6-element Vector{Float64}:
 2.184014482339964
 2.0648638810676476
 2.0302996897413403
 2.014917265833641
 2.007403413131773
 2.003688054470438
```

The above convergence to 2 constitutes good evidence of quadratic convergence!



Fact:

In our derivations above, we have made some assumptions – these are requirements for  $f$ :

1. Function  $f$  needs to be sufficiently *smooth* to make the Taylor series expansion valid.
2. We require  $f'(r) \neq 0$ , meaning  $r$  must be a simple root.
3. We assumed that the sequence converged which is not guaranteed. In fact it is often hard to identify a starting point from which Newton's method converges!

```
"""
    newton(f,dfdx,x1[:maxiter],ftol,xtol))

Use Newton's method to find a root of 'f' starting from 'x1', where 'dfdx' is the derivative of 'f'.
Returns a vector of root estimates.

The optional keyword parameters set the maximum number of iterations and the stopping tolerance for
values of 'f' and changes in 'x'.
"""
function newton(f,dfdx,x1;maxiter=40,ftol=100*eps(),xtol=100*eps())
    # maxiter, ftol, and xtol are keyword parameters
    # the default values are given but others may be entered by a user
    x = [float(x1)]
    y = f(x1)
    delx = Inf
    k = 1

    while (abs(delx) > xtol) && (abs(y) > ftol)
        dydx = dfdx(x[k])
        delx = -y/dydx                # Newton step
        push!(x,x[k]+delx)           # append iterate

        k += 1
        y = f(x[k])
        if k==maxiter
            @warn "Maximum number of iterations reached."
            break                    # exit loop
        end
    end
    return x
end
```

`newton`

We use three stopping criteria here:

1. If  $|x_{k+1} - x_k| < \text{xtol}$  (the update distance gets sufficiently small) we stop. This value is used as a proxy for the unknown error  $|x_k - r|$ .
2. If the residual  $|f(x_k)| < \text{ftol}$  (the backward error is sufficiently small) we stop. This is more realistic to control for badly conditioned problems.
3. We protect against a nonconvergent iteration with a bound on the total number of iterations, `maxiter`.

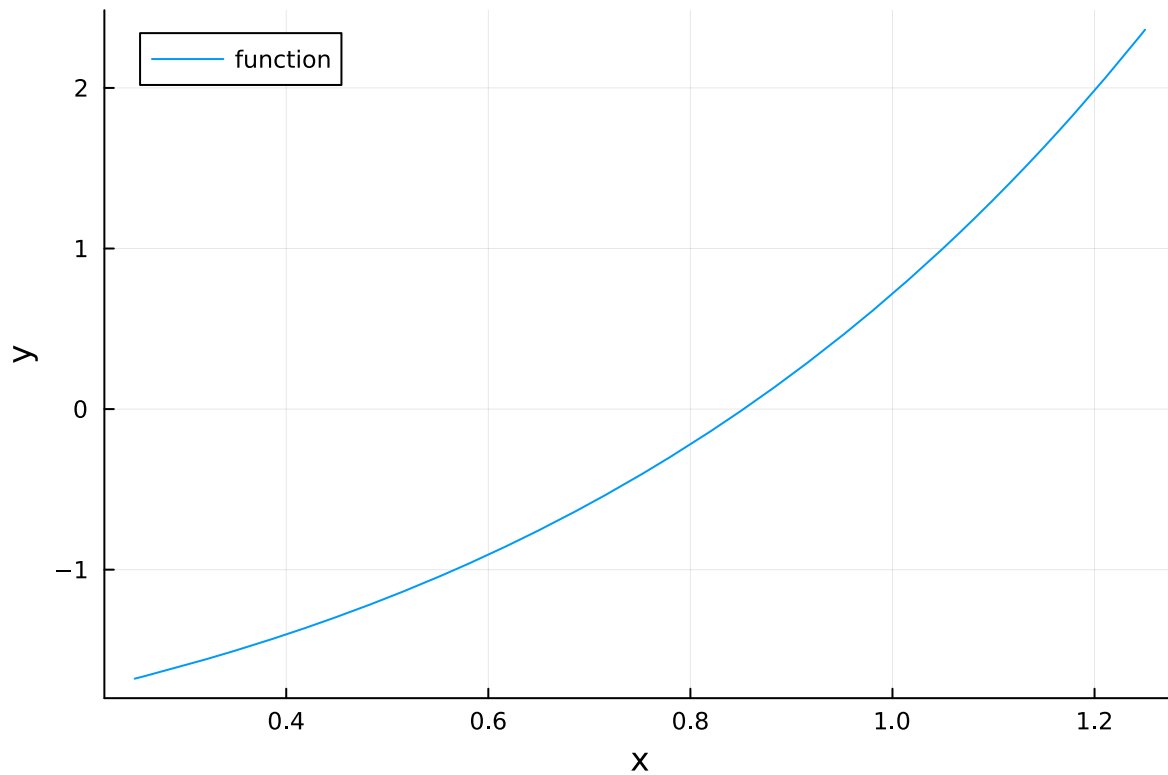
## 2 Interpolation-based methods

One of the biggest challenges to use Newton's method is that you must provide (or approximate)  $f'$ . However, the following observation yields a way to avoid this drawback!

Fact:

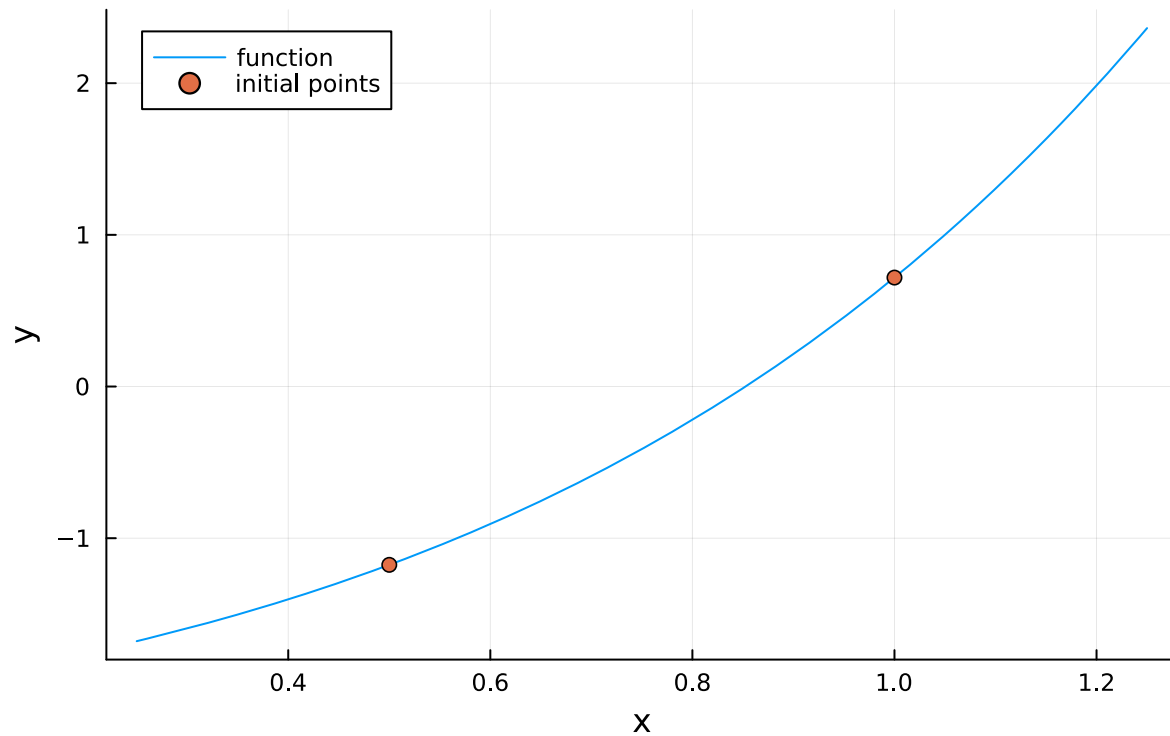
When a step produces an approximate result, you are free to carry it out approximately.

```
f = x -> x*exp(x) - 2;  
plot(f,0.25,1.25,label="function",xlabel="x",ylabel="y",legend=:topleft)
```



```
x1 = 1; y1 = f(x1);  
x2 = 0.5; y2 = f(x2);  
scatter!([x1, x2],[y1, y2], label="initial points", title="Two initial values")
```

## Two initial values



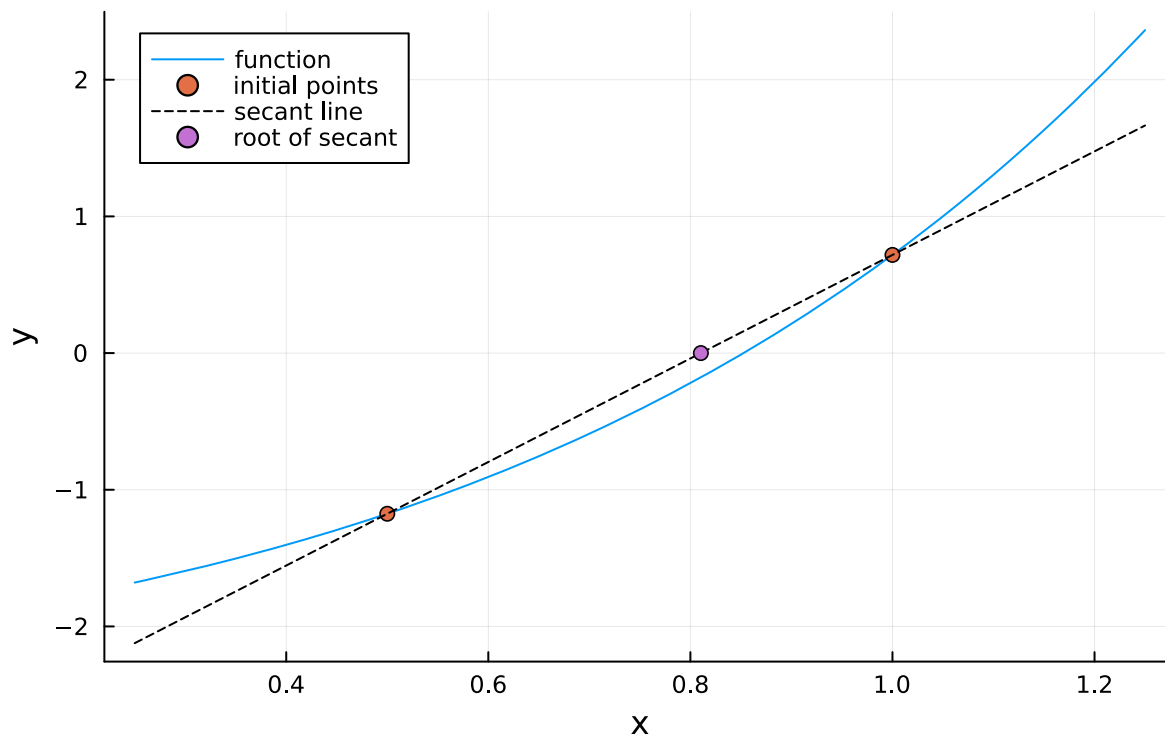
Instead of using the tangent line, we can use the *secant line*!

```
m2 = (y2-y1)/(x2-x1)
secantline = x -> y2 + m2*(x-x2)
plot!(secantline,0.25,1.25,label="secant line",l=:dash,color=:black)

x3 = x2 - y2/m2
@show y3 = f(x3)
scatter!([x3],[0],label="root of secant", title="First iteration")
```

```
y3 = f(x3) = -0.17768144843679456
```

## First iteration



For the next iteration, we use the line through the two most recent points.

```
m3 = (y3-y2)/(x3-x2)
x4 = x3 - y3/m3
```

0.8656319273409482

This is the **secant method**! Given function  $f$  and two initial values  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , define

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

```
"""
    secantmethod(f,x1,x2[,maxiter,ftol,xtol])

Use the secant method to find a root of 'f' starting from 'x1' and 'x2'.
Returns a vector of root estimates.
"""
function secantmethod(f,x1,x2;maxiter=40,ftol=100*eps(),xtol=100*eps())
    x = [float(x1),float(x2)]
    y1 = f(x1)
    delx, y2 = Inf, Inf
    k = 2

    while (abs(delx) > xtol) && (abs(y2) > ftol)
        y2 = f(x[k])
        delx = -y2 * (x[k]-x[k-1]) / (y2-y1) # secant step
        push!(x,x[k]+delx) # append new estimate
```

```

        k += 1
        y1 = y2

        if k==maxiter
            @warn "Maximum number of iterations reached."
            break      # exit loop
        end
    end
    return x
end

```

secantmethod

## 2.1 Convergence

An annoying Taylor series expansion calculation like we did for Newton's method show that, for the errors for the secant method,

$$\epsilon_{k+1} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(r)}{f'(r)} \epsilon_k \epsilon_{k-1}.$$

Guessing that  $\epsilon_{k+1} = c(\epsilon_k)^\alpha$ , the above equation is

$$[\epsilon_{k-1}^\alpha]^\alpha \approx C \epsilon_{k-1}^{\alpha+1}$$

and thus we must have  $\alpha^2 = \alpha + 1$  which has positive solution

$$\alpha = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.618.$$

---

Definition: Superlinear convergence

Suppose a sequence  $x_k$  approaches limit  $x^*$ . If the error sequence  $\epsilon_k = x_k - x^*$  satisfies

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|\epsilon_{k+1}|}{|\epsilon_k|^\alpha} = L$$

for constants  $\alpha > 1$  and  $L > 0$ , then the sequence has **superlinear convergence** with rate  $\alpha$ .

```

f = x -> x*exp(x) - 2
x = secantmethod(f,BigFloat(1),BigFloat(0.5),xtol=1e-80,ftol=1e-80);

```

```

r = x[end]

```

0.8526055020137254913464724146953174668984533001514035087721073946525150656742605

---

```

eps = @. Float64(r - x[1:end-1])

```

```

12-element Vector{Float64}:
-0.14739449798627452
 0.3526055020137255
 0.04223372706144885
-0.013026425327222755
 0.00042747994131549927

```

```

4.269915586133851e-6
-1.4054770126368277e-9
4.620323656624992e-15
4.999480931132388e-24
-1.7783862252641536e-38
6.845099610444838e-62
0.0

```

```
[ log(abs(eps[k+1]))/log(abs(eps[k])) for k in 1:length(eps)-1 ]
```

```
11-element Vector{Float64}:
```

```

0.5444386280277932
3.0358017547194556
1.3716940021941466
1.7871469297607543
1.5937804750546951
1.6485786749732587
1.6194128077496301
1.6254302470561015
1.6200958015239788
1.6202559600872728

```

```
Inf
```

---

Fact:

If function evaluations are used to measure computational work, the secant iteration converges more rapidly than Newton's method.

Each iteration of the secant method needs only one *new* function evaluation of  $f$ , while Newton's method requires a new function evaluation of  $f$  and  $f'$ . Thus, for every two function evaluations, Newton's method squares the error, while the secant method raises the error to a power of approximately 3.236.

There are two additional ideas used to strengthen the type of method we've studied in this lecture.

1. Use more than two points and other functional (other than linear) or polynomial interpolants of the points whose root defines the next approximation. These are sometimes called **interpolation** or **inverse interpolation** methods.
2. Use only sets of points that are known to **bracket** the root to avoid any possibility of divergence. This is the idea behind **Brent's method** which is a very powerful rootfinding method.