

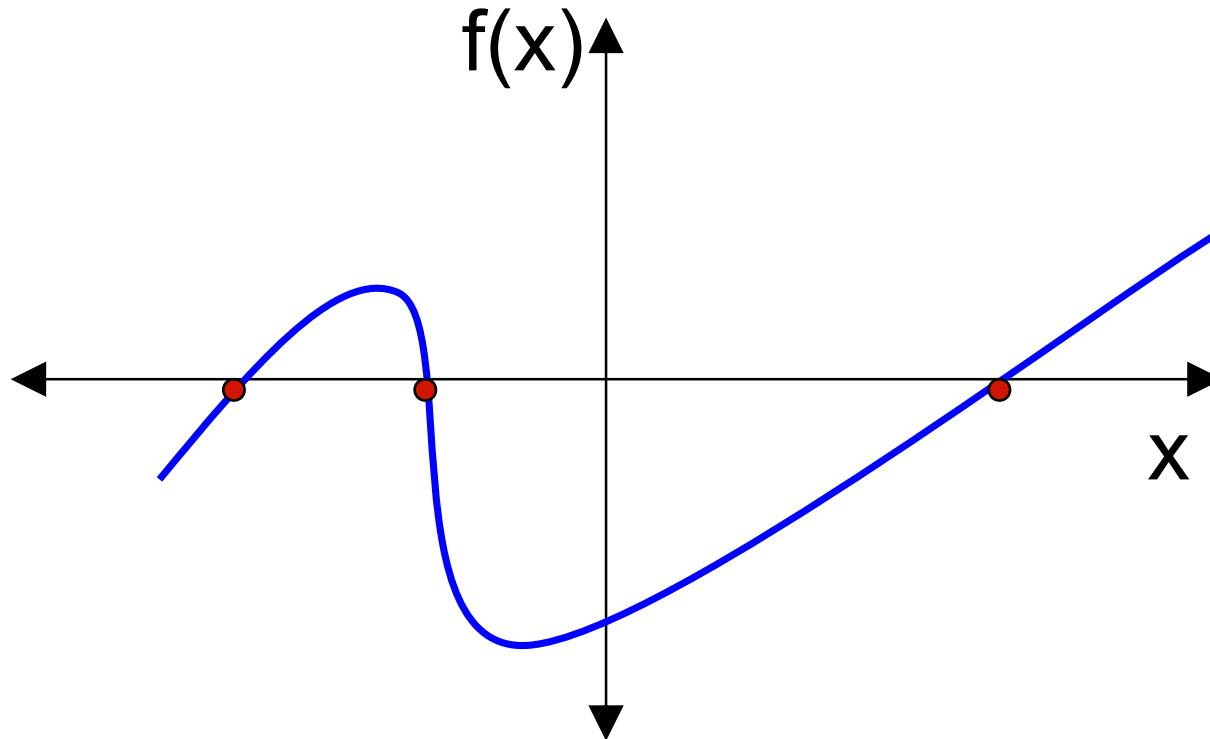
# Numerical root finding

## (Numerical Recipes in C++, Chapter 9)

### OBJECTIVES:

- ❖ Follow the algorithms of root finding methods of solving a non-linear equation
- ❖ Use different methods to solve examples of finding roots of non-linear equation, and
- ❖ Enumerate the advantages and disadvantages of different root finding methods

- A basic problem in mathematics: solve an equation  $g(x) = y$
- Convenient convention: rewrite this as  $f(x) = 0$
- The solutions are called the roots of  $f$



- We can also have a multidimensional problem in which coupled sets of equations must be solved

$$f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots) = 0$$

$$f_2(x_1, x_2, \dots) = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$$

.....

( Much harder for the general multi-D non-linear case;  
but first let's look at the 1-D non-linear case,  $f(x) = 0$  )

# Bracketing

- How do you know if a root exists?

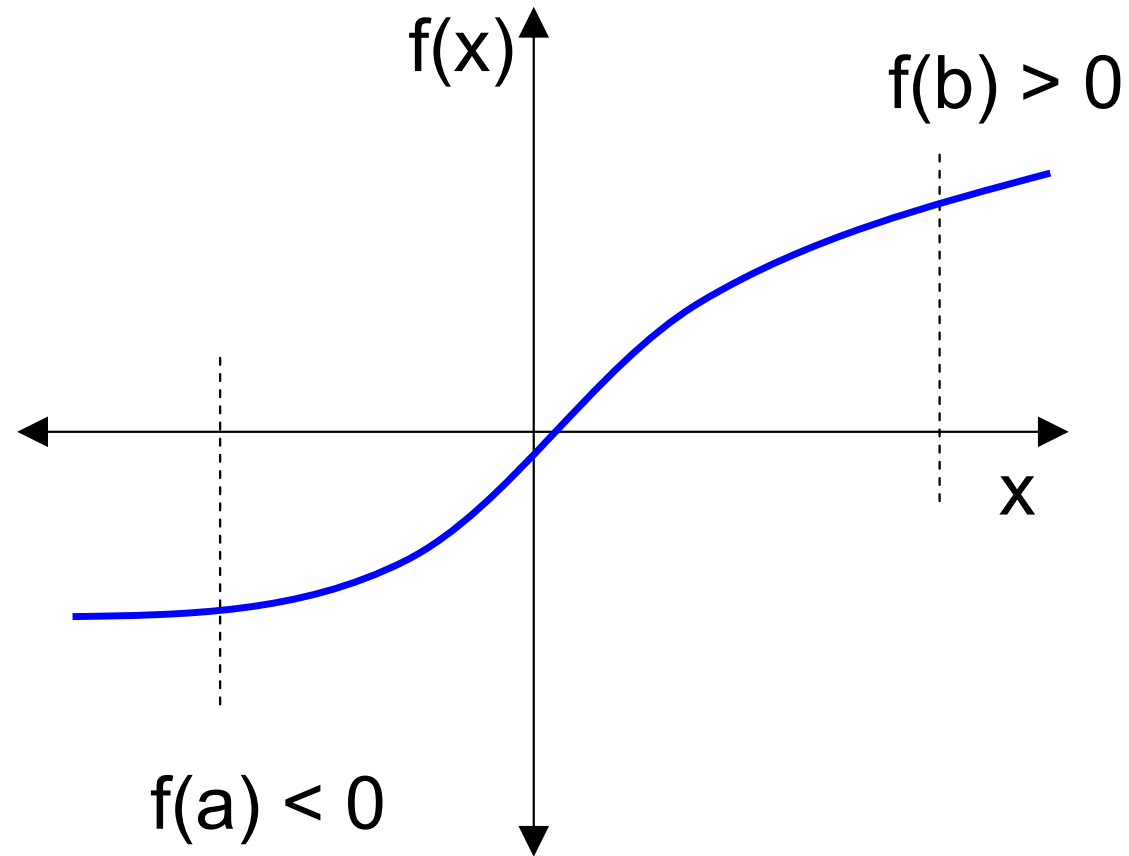
If there are no singularities, then if you can find an interval  $[a,b]$  such that  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$  have opposite signs, there must be at least one root between  $a$  and  $b$

Establishing such an interval is called “bracketing”

Root finding without a bracket is tricky

# Bracketing

- If there are no singularities, there must be a root between  $a$  and  $b$



# Root finding algorithms

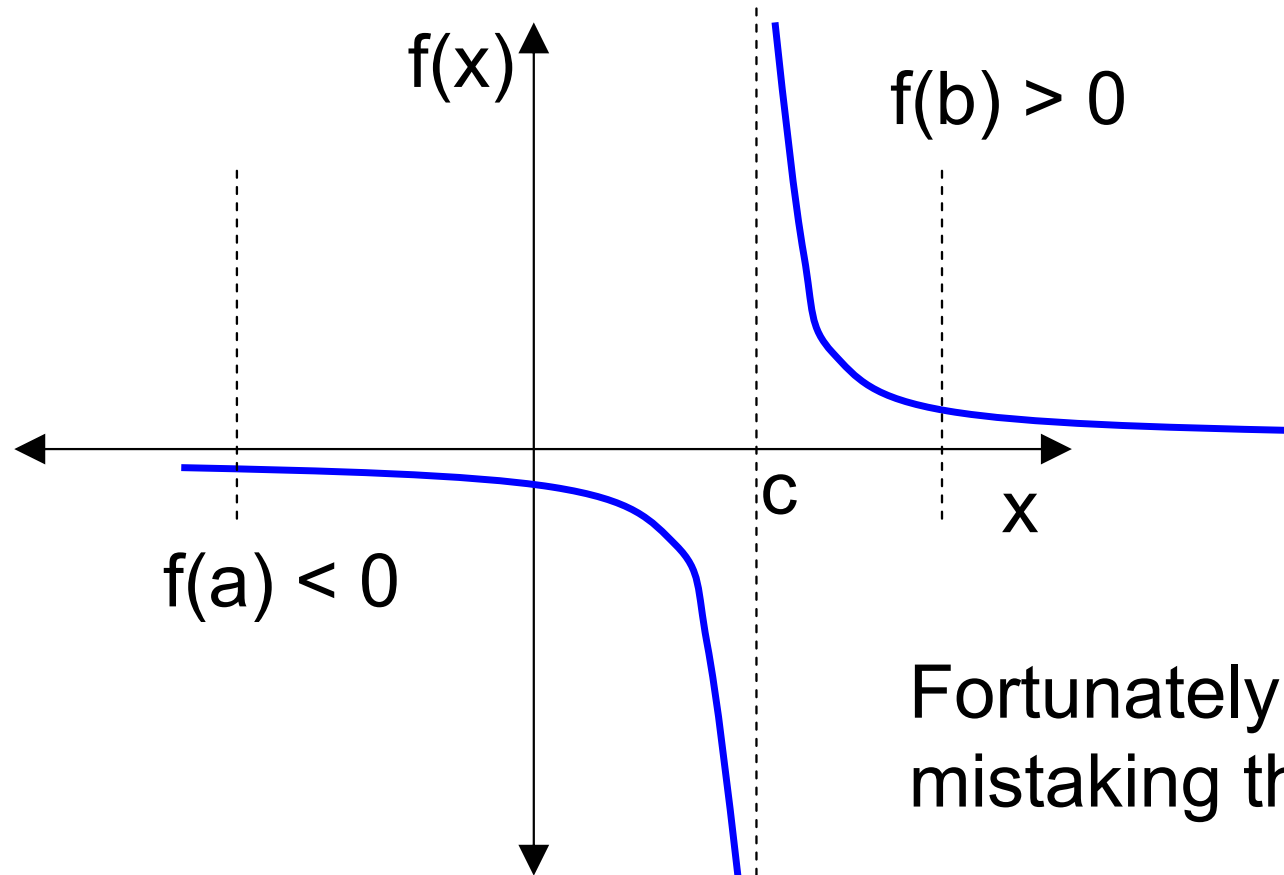
- All root finding algorithms are iterative
  - ➔ need a good guess (or small bracket) as a starting point

Like numerical integration, we need to know something about our problem to create an optimal solution: making a graph never hurts

- In the 1-D case, there is a tradeoff between speed and robustness
- Slower methods maintain a bracket at all times (bisection, “false position”) – successive iterations simply contract the bracket
- Faster methods do not maintain a bracket and can shoot unstably away from the root (Newton-Raphson, “secant”)
- Hybrid methods seek to get the best of both worlds (Brent, Ridder, “safe Newton-Raphson”)

# Bracketing

- A bracket is usually sufficient, although a singularity is still possible: e.g.  $f(x) = (x - c)^{-1}$

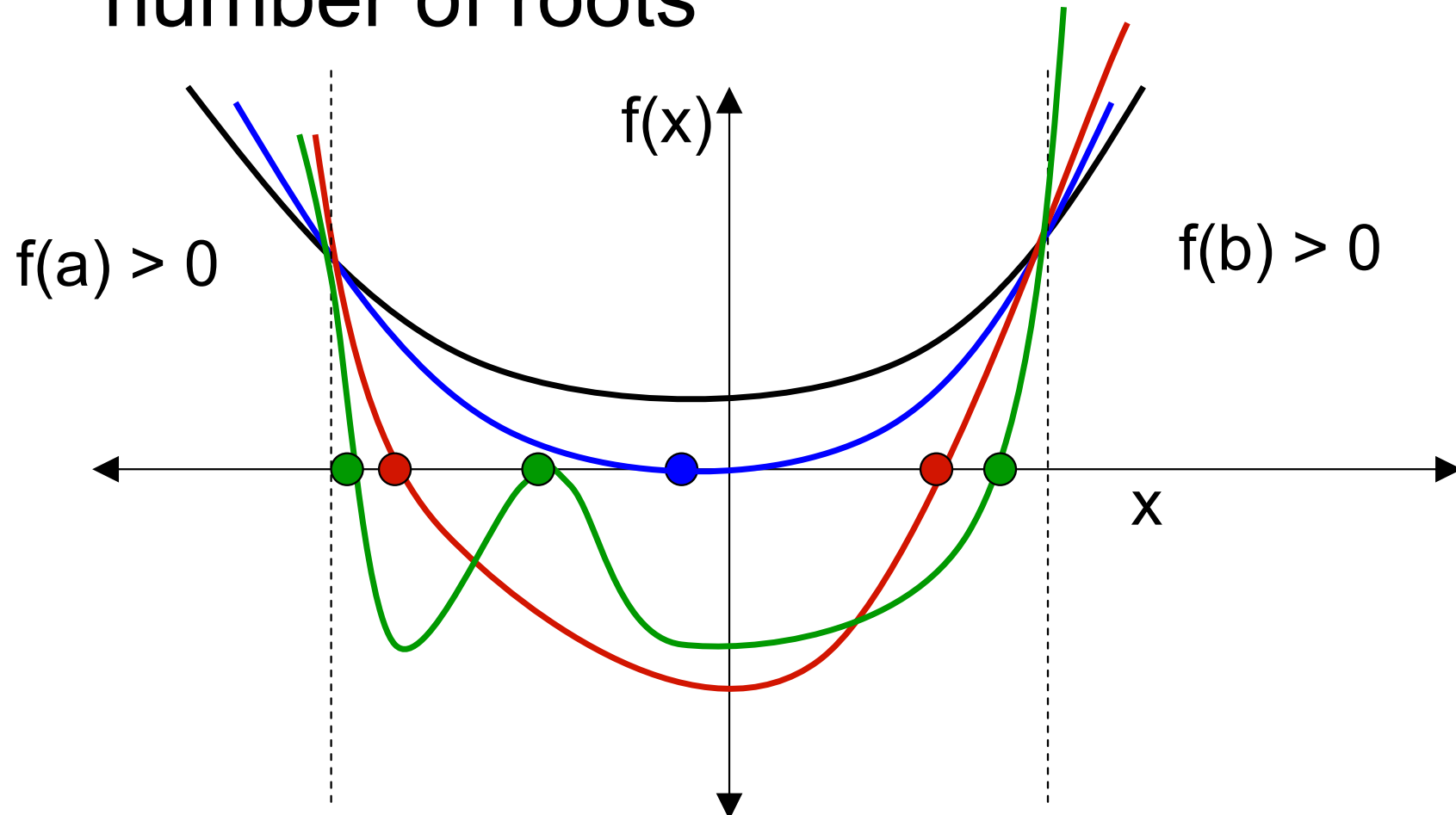


Fortunately, no danger of mistaking this for a root!



# Bracketing

- The absence of a bracket can imply any number of roots



# Finding an initial bracket

- *Recipes* describes and provides two bracket-finding routines:
- ZBRAC: expands a seed interval looking for a bracket
- ZBRAK: subdivides a seed interval looking for brackets (good for multiple roots)

# Pathologies

- Some functions have roots, but it is impossible to find brackets

e.g. *Recipes* equation (3.0.1)

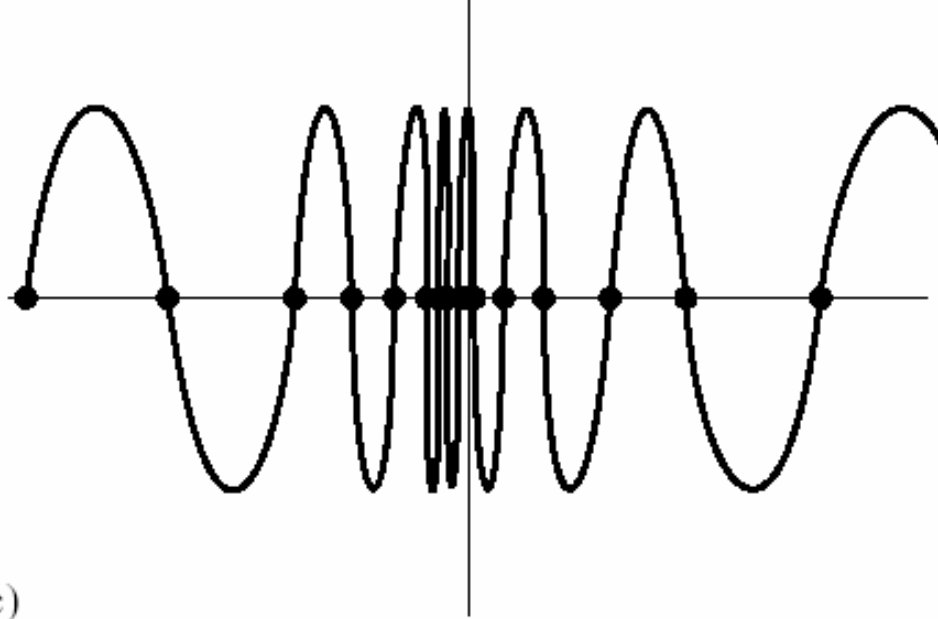
$$0 = f(x) \equiv 3x^2 + (1/\pi^4) \ln [(x - \pi)^2] + 1$$

Has a weak singularity at  $x = \pi$ , two roots very near  $x = \pi$ , but is negative only in the interval  $x = \pi \pm 10^{-667}$

You will probably never find a bracket even in quad precision

# Pathologies

- Some functions have infinitely many roots over a finite range, e.g.  $f(x) = \sin(1/x)$



From *Recipes*, Fig 9.1.1

(c)

- MORAL: understand your function before jumping into a numerical solution

# Root finding algorithms: bisection

- Once you have found a bracket, it can always be narrowed using the bisection method:
  - Divide  $[a,b]$  into  $[a, \frac{1}{2}(a+b)]$  and  $[\frac{1}{2}(a+b), b]$
  - Keep the valid bracket and repeat until the interval reaches a preset size
  - Totally foolproof – will also find singularities if they exist

# Performance of bisection

- In bisection, the size of the bracket after  $n$  iterations is  $\varepsilon_n = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_{n-1}$
- This is called linear convergence, because  $\varepsilon_n \propto (\varepsilon_{n-1})^m$  with  $m = 1$
- Faster methods have  $m > 1$  and have “supralinear” convergence

# Performance of bisection

- Note that linear convergence isn't at all bad: we still have  $\varepsilon_n = 2^{-n} \varepsilon_0$
- Number of iterations needed to achieve precision  $\varepsilon$  is  $\log_2 (\varepsilon_0/\varepsilon)$
- Need to quit anyway when  $\varepsilon$  approaches machine accuracy (for which  $n$  might typically be  $\sim 40$  in double precision)

# False– Position Method of Solving a Nonlinear Equation

- Bisection only makes use of information about the sign of the function. We can do better if we consider also the magnitude
- The secant and false position methods both use linear interpolation to decide how to narrow the bracket
  - False position always maintains a valid bracket
  - Secant doesn't necessarily, and is therefore less robust (but faster)



# Introduction

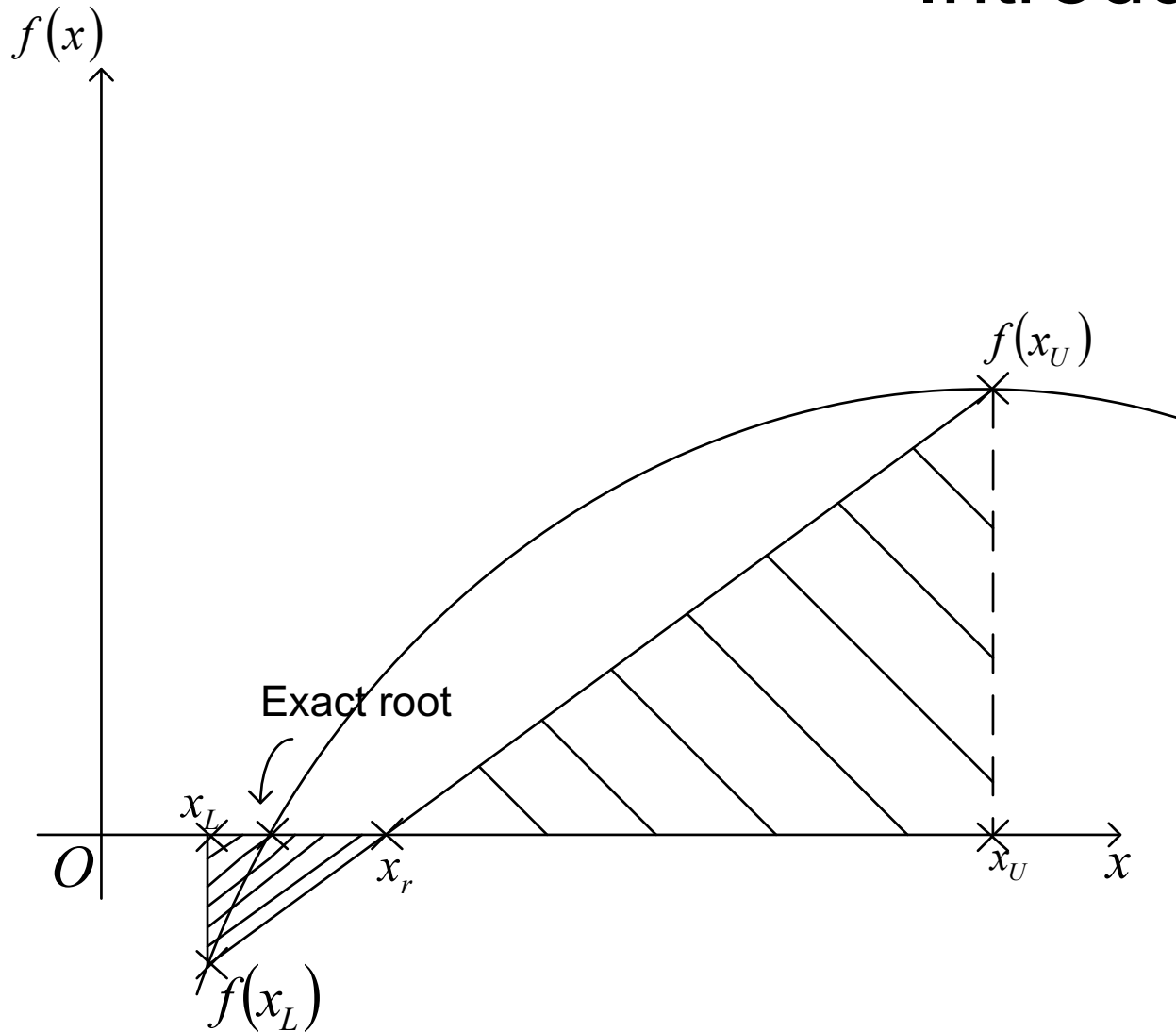


Figure 6 False-Position Method

$$f(x) = 0 \quad (1)$$

In the Bisection method

$$f(x_L) * f(x_U) < 0 \quad (2)$$

$$x_r = \frac{x_L + x_U}{2} \quad (3)$$

Based on two similar triangles, shown in Figure 6, one gets:

$$\frac{f(x_L)}{x_r - x_L} = \frac{f(x_U)}{x_r - x_U} \quad (4)$$

The signs for both sides of Eq. 4 is consistent, since:

$$f(x_L) < 0; x_r - x_L > 0$$

$$f(x_U) > 0; x_r - x_U < 0$$

From Eq. (4), one obtains

$$\begin{aligned}(x_r - x_L)f(x_U) &= (x_r - x_U)f(x_L) \\ x_U f(x_L) - x_L f(x_U) &= x_r \{f(x_L) - f(x_U)\}\end{aligned}$$

The above equation can be solved to obtain the next predicted root  $x_r$  as

$$x_r = \frac{x_U f(x_L) - x_L f(x_U)}{f(x_L) - f(x_U)} \quad (5)$$

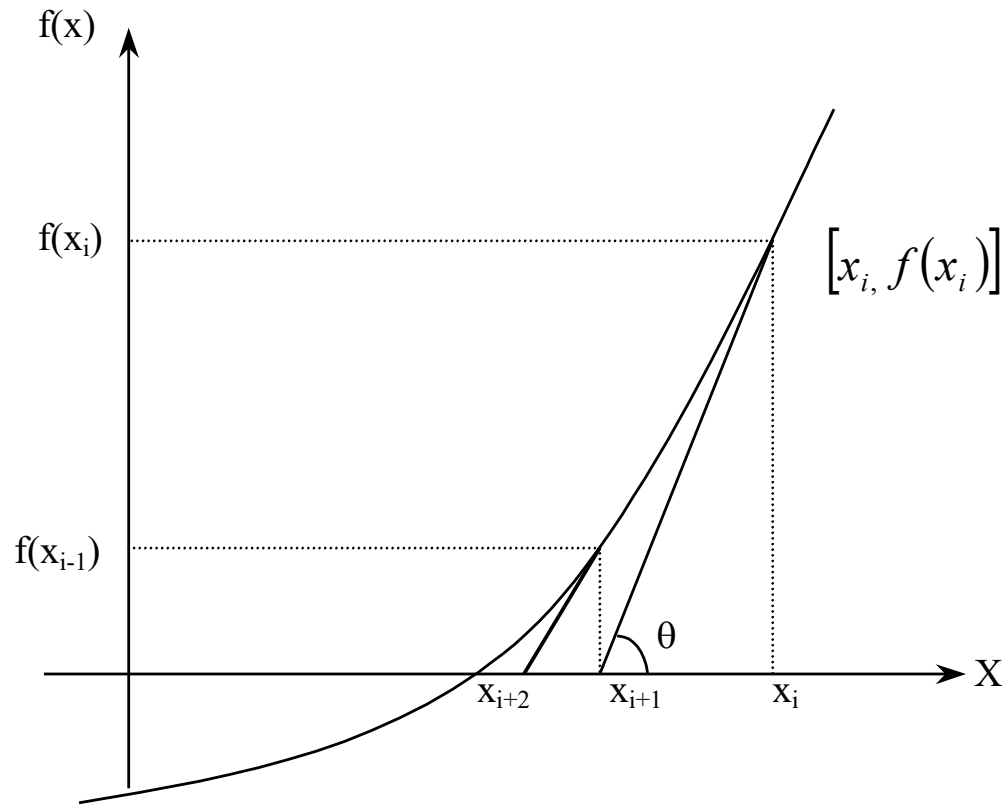
The above equation,

$$x_r = x_U - \frac{f(x_U)\{x_L - x_U\}}{f(x_L) - f(x_U)} \quad (6)$$

Or

$$x_r = x_L - \frac{f(x_L)}{\left\{ \frac{f(x_U) - f(x_L)}{x_U - x_L} \right\}} \quad (7)$$

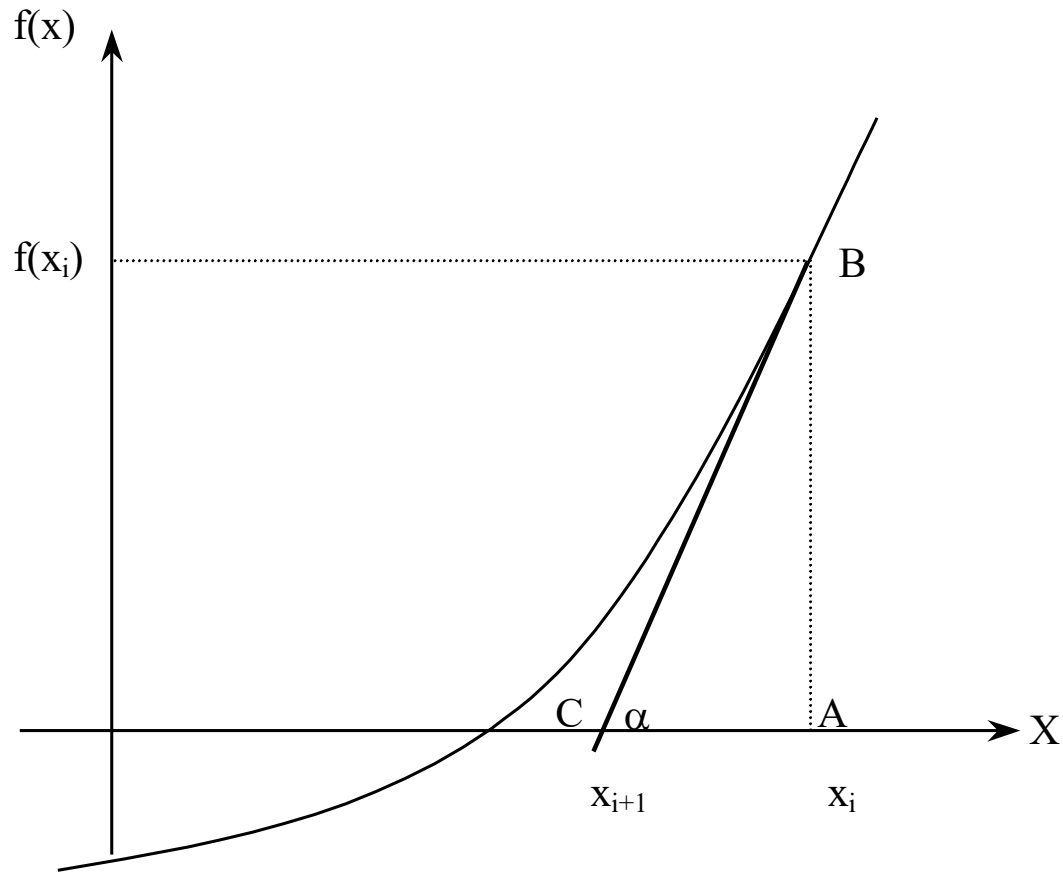
# Newton-Raphson Method of Solving a Nonlinear Equation



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

**Figure 7** Geometrical illustration of the Newton-Raphson method.

# Derivation



$$\tan(\alpha) = \frac{AB}{AC}$$

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

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

**Figure 8** Derivation of the Newton-Raphson method.

# Newton-Raphson

- When the derivative of  $f(x)$  is known, and when  $f(x)$  is well behaved, the celebrated (and ancient) Newton-Raphson method gives the fastest convergence of all (“quadratic”, i.e.  $m = 2$ , such that  $\varepsilon_n = \varepsilon_{n-1}^2$ )

- Relies on the Taylor expansion

$$f(x + \delta) = f(x) + \delta f'(x) + \frac{1}{2} \delta^2 f''(x) + \dots$$

If *ith* iteration,  $x_i$ , is close to the root, then for the next iteration, try  $x_{i+1} = x_i + \delta$  with  $\delta = -f(x_i) / f'(x_i)$

- Convergence is rapid, and the method is very useful for “polishing” a root (i.e. refining an estimate that is nearly correct)

Clearly, a few iterations usually yields an accurate result in the limit of small  $\delta$ , because terms of order  $\frac{1}{2} \delta^2 f''(x)$  or higher are much smaller than  $\delta f'(x)$

$$f(x + \delta) = f(x) + \delta f'(x) + \frac{1}{2} \delta^2 f''(x) + \dots$$

Exception: when  $f'(x)$  is very small (or zero)