

# Numerical analysis

## Nonlinear equations

Kazuaki Tanaka

We consider the problem of finding a solution to the nonlinear equation

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

where  $f$  is a nonlinear function from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .  $n=1$

### 1 Fixed point iterative method

For simplicity, we assume  $n = 1$  for a while.

**Definition 1.1** (Fixed point iterative method). Let  $g$  be some function from some subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . The iteration based on the following iteration is called **Fixed point iterative method**:

$$x_{k+1} = g(x_k), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (2)$$

If the sequence  $\{x_k\}_{k \geq 0}$  constructed by (2) converges to some  $x^* \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $g$  is continuous, then it follows that

$$x^* = g(x^*), \quad (3)$$

*Fixed point of  $g$*

and such  $x^*$  called a *fixed point* of  $g$ . From the same target equation (1), we may construct several different iterative sequences defined by (2). In fact, Newton's method, the most important method in this chapter, is one of fixed point iterative methods.

#### Examples

$$f(x) = x^3 - 3x - 1 = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x = \frac{x^3 - 1}{3} =: g(x)$$

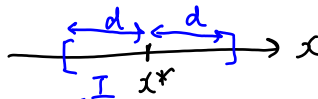
$$x_{k+1} = \frac{x_k^3 - 1}{3} = g(x_k)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x^3 = 3x + 1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x = \frac{3x + 1}{x^2} \quad (x \neq 0)$$

$$g(x)$$

$$x_{k+1} = \frac{3x_k + 1}{x_k^2}$$



**Theorem 1.1** (Convergence of fixed point iterative method). Suppose that  $g(x) = x$  has a solution  $x^*$  and that  $g \in C^1(I)$ ,  $I = [x^* - d, x^* + d]$  for some  $d > 0$ . If we have

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} g, \\ g' \end{array} \text{ continuous over } I} \quad |g'(x)| \leq \lambda < 1 \quad \text{for all } x \in I. \quad (4)$$

then:

- (i) The iteration defined by (2) converges to  $x^*$  for any initial value  $x_0 \in I$ .
- (ii)  $x^*$  is the unique solution to  $g(x) = x$  in  $I$ .
- (iii) For each  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ,  $x_k$  satisfies

$$\frac{\epsilon_k}{1 + \lambda} \leq |x_k - x^*| \leq \frac{\epsilon_k}{1 - \lambda} \leq \frac{\lambda^k}{1 - \lambda} \epsilon_0 = \frac{\lambda^k}{1 - \lambda} |x_1 - x_0| \quad (5)$$

where  $\epsilon_k = |x_{k+1} - x_k|$ .

This theorem can also be interpreted as follows:

**Corollary 1.2.** Suppose that  $g(x) = x$  has a solution  $x^*$  and that  $g$  has a continuous derivative in a neighborhood around  $x^*$ . If  $|g'(x^*)| < 1$ , then we have, for some closed interval  $I \ni x^*$  and  $0 < \lambda < 1$ , (i)-(iii) in Theorem 1.1.

*Proof.*  $\epsilon := \frac{1 - |g'(x^*)|}{2}$  small  $\delta > 0$   
 Because  $g'$  is continuous,  $|g'(x) - g'(x^*)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta] = I$ .  
 $|g'(x)| = |g'(x) - g'(x^*) + g'(x^*)| \leq |g'(x) - g'(x^*)| + |g'(x^*)| < \frac{1 - |g'(x^*)|}{2} + |g'(x^*)| = \frac{1 + |g'(x^*)|}{2} =: \lambda < 1$  □

## 2 One-dimensional Newton's method

**Definition 2.1** (Newton's method (one dimensional)). Let  $f$  be some twice continuously differentiable function from some subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . The iteration based on the following iteration is called **Newton's method**:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (6)$$

This is in fact a special case where  $g(x_k) = x_k - f(x_k)/f'(x_k)$  in (2).

Once  $x_0$  is given, one can calculate the iterative sequence based on (6) unless  $f'(x_k) = 0$  for some  $k$ .

A lot of other iterative methods are known, for example:

- **Simplified Newton's method** defined by

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{\boxed{f'(x_0)} \text{ fixed}}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (7)$$

This is the special case where  $g(x_k) = x_k - f(x_k)/f'(x_0)$  in (2).

- The secant method defined by

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{x_k - x_{k-1}}{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})} f(x_k), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (8)$$

$\sim f'(x_k)^{-1}$

Note that two initial values  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  are required for the secant method.

- As one of the simplest methods, bisection method is well known. Although this method always converges as long as initial values  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  satisfy  $x_0 x_1 < 0$ , it is difficult to be generalized to a multi-dimensional method.

**Theorem 2.1** (Convergence of Newton's method). Suppose that equation  $f(x) = 0$  has a solution  $x^*$  satisfying  $f'(x^*) \neq 0$  and that  $f$  has a continuous second derivative in a neighborhood around  $x^*$ . Then, Newton's method (6) converges to  $x^*$  if the initial value  $x_0$  is sufficiently near to  $x^*$ .

*Proof.* Let

$$g(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}.$$

Then,  $g(x)$  is  $C^1$  in the neighborhood of  $x^*$ , and moreover

$$g'(x) = 1 - \frac{f'(x)^2 - f(x)f''(x)}{f'(x)^2} = \frac{f(x)f''(x)}{f'(x)^2} \quad \text{in the neighborhood of } x^* \quad (9)$$

and

$$g'(x^*) = 0 (< 1). \quad (10)$$

$\leftarrow f(x^*) = 0$

Hence, Corollary 1.2 ensures the argument.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.2** (Quadratic convergence of Newton's method). Under the same assumption in Theorem 2.1, the sequence of Newton's method (6) satisfies

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x_{k+1} - x^*}{(x_k - x^*)^2} = \frac{f''(x^*)}{2f'(x^*)} = \text{const.} \quad (11)$$

when  $x_0 \neq x^*$ .

*Proof.* Taylor's theorem ensures that

$$f(x^*) = f(x) + f'(x)(x^* - x) + \frac{1}{2}f''(\xi)(x^* - x)^2 = 0 \quad (12)$$

for  $\xi$  between  $x^*$  and any  $x \in$  (the neighborhood of  $x^*$ ). Since  $f(x^*) = 0$ , we have

$$f(x) + f'(x)(x^* - x) = -\frac{1}{2}f''(\xi)(x^* - x)^2. \quad (13)$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} - x^* &= \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)} - x^* \\ &= -\frac{1}{f'(x_k)} (f(x_k) + f'(x_k)(x^* - x_k)) \\ &= \frac{f''(\xi_k)}{2f'(x_k)} (x_k - x^*)^2, \quad (\because (13)), \end{aligned}$$

$\xrightarrow{\text{blue}} = x_{k+1}$   
 $\xrightarrow{\text{red}} x^*$

where  $\xi_k$  lies between  $x^*$  and  $x_k$  and therefore  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \xi_k = x^*$ . The continuity of  $f'$  and  $f''$  ensures the argument.  $\square$

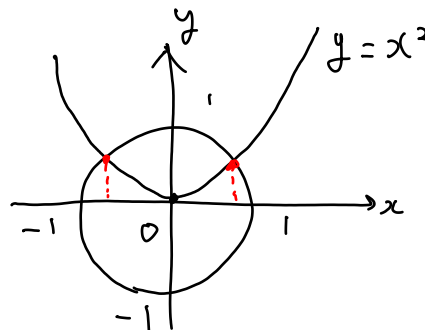
### 3 Multi-dimensional Newton's method

One-dimensional Newton's method (introduced in the previous section) can be extended to the multi-dimensional version, which is useful for solving systems of nonlinear equations. First, let us consider the system of two nonlinear equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} f(x, y) \\ g(x, y) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (14)$$

where  $f, g$  are functions from some  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$$\begin{cases} x^2 + y^2 = 1 \\ y = x^2 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0 \\ g(x, y) = y - x^2 = 0 \end{cases}$$



For ensuring the convergence property of Newton's method, each  $f, g$  are required to be in  $C^2(D)$  as well as the one-dimensional case. Newton's method for problem (15) is defined by

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{k+1} \\ y_{k+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ y_k \end{bmatrix} - \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} f_x(x_k, y_k) & f_y(x_k, y_k) \\ g_x(x_k, y_k) & g_y(x_k, y_k) \end{bmatrix}^{-1}} \begin{bmatrix} f(x_k, y_k) \\ g(x_k, y_k) \end{bmatrix}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad (15)$$

where  $f_x$  denotes the partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to the first variable  $x$ ; likewise  $f_y, g_x$ , and  $g_y$  are defined. Using the notation

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ y_k \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_k) = \begin{bmatrix} f(\mathbf{x}_k) \\ g(\mathbf{x}_k) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_k) = \begin{bmatrix} f_x(\mathbf{x}_k) & f_y(\mathbf{x}_k) \\ g_x(\mathbf{x}_k) & g_y(\mathbf{x}_k) \end{bmatrix}, \quad (16)$$

(15) is written in the following form similar to (6)

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \underbrace{\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_k)^{-1}}_{\mathbf{A}^{-1}} \underbrace{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_k)}_{\mathbf{b}}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots. \quad (17)$$

Here, the matrix  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_k)$  is called the Jacobian matrix of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_k$ ; it is often denoted, e.g., by  $D\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_k)$  or  $J_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}_k)$ .

$$\boxed{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}}$$

## 4 Zeros of polynomials

Consider the problem of finding all solutions of the equation

$$f(x) := a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n = 0, \quad (18)$$

where  $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$  ( $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ) and  $a_n \neq 0$ .

$\hookrightarrow$  has  $n$  solutions.

$$x = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$$

### 4.1 Durand-Kerner method

The iterative method based on the following iteration is called the **Durand-Kerner method** (**DK method**):

$$x^{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^{k+1} \\ x_2^{k+1} \\ \vdots \\ x_n^{k+1} \end{pmatrix} \quad x_i^{k+1} = x_i^{(k)} - \frac{f(x_i^{(k)})}{a_n \prod_{j \neq i} (x_i^{(k)} - x_j^{(k)})}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad (19)$$

*Handwritten notes:*  $x_i^{k+1}$  is labeled "stop" and "solution". The denominator is labeled  $f'(x_i^{(k)})$ .

where, when  $x_i^{(k)} = x_j^{(k)}$  for some  $j \neq i$ , we set  $x_i^{(k+1)} = x_i^{(k)}$  afterward.

Assume that  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are good approximations of solutions of  $f(x) = 0$ .

So,  $f(x_i) \sim 0$ .

We have  $f(x) \sim a_n(x-x_1)(x-x_2)\cdots(x-x_n)$

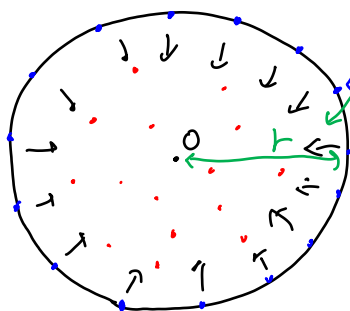
$$= a_n \prod_{i=1}^n (x-x_i) = a_n \underbrace{(x-x_i)}_{A(x)} \underbrace{\prod_{j \neq i} (x-x_j)}_{B(x)} \quad (i=1, 2, \dots, n)$$

$$\begin{cases} f'(x) \sim a_n \{A'(x)B(x) + A(x)B'(x)\} \\ x_i = a_n \left\{ \prod_{j \neq i} (x-x_j) + (x-x_i)B'(x) \right\} \end{cases} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} f'(x_i) \sim a_n \prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j) \end{array} \right.$$

### 4.2 A simple initial value

Since the Durand-Kerner method is an iterative method, setting a "good" starting point important. One possibility is putting the points on a circle including all the solutions of the target equation. Such a circle can be given with the center  $(0,0)$  and the radius

$$r := \max_{0 \leq i \leq n-1} \left( n \left| \frac{a_i}{a_n} \right| \right)^{\frac{1}{n-i}}.$$



$$x_i^0 = r \exp \left[ \left( \frac{2(i-1)\pi}{n} + \frac{\pi}{2n} \right) \sqrt{-1} \right]$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{l} a = 1 : 10; \\ f(x) = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + \cdots + 10x^9 \end{array} \right|$$

### 4.3 Aberth's initial values

A very effective choice is known as Aberth's starting point; see [1, Section 4]. The DK method with the Aberth's starting point is called the **Durand-Kerner-Aberth method (DKA method)**.

## References

- [1] Oliver Aberth, Iteration methods for finding all zeros of a polynomial simultaneously Mathematics of computation 27, (122), 339-344 (1973).  
<https://www.ams.org/journals/mcom/1973-27-122/S0025-5718-1973-0329236-7/>