# 數值分析 MA-3021

### **Chapter 2. Solutions of Nonlinear Equations**

- §2.1 Bisection Method
- §2.2 Fixed-Point Iteration and Error Analysis
- §2.3 Newton's Method (for Equation of One Variable)
- §2.4 Secant Method
- §2.5 Newton's Method for System of Equations

- Let  $f: \emptyset \neq A \subseteq \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a nonlinear real-valued function in variable x. We are interested in finding the roots (solutions) of the equation f(x) = 0; i.e., zeros of the function f(x).
- 2 A system of nonlinear equations:

Let  $F: \varnothing \neq A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a nonlinear vector-valued function in a vector variable  $X = (x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n)^\top$ . We are interested in finding the roots (solutions) of the equation F(X) = 0; i.e., zeros of the function F(X).

#### Example

- Let us look at three functions (polynomials):
  - $f(x) = x^4 12x^3 + 47x^2 60x$
  - $f(x) = x^4 12x^3 + 47x^2 60x + 24$
  - $f(x) = x^4 12x^3 + 47x^2 60x + 24.1$
- Find the zeros of these polynomials is not an easy task.
  - The first function has real zeros 0, 3, 4, and 5.
  - The real zeros of the second function are 1 and 0.888....
  - The third function has no real zeros at all.
- Matlab:  $p = [1 -12 \ 47 -60 \ 0]; r = roots(p)$



Consider the nonlinear equation f(x) = 0 or F(X) = 0.

- The basic questions:
  - Does the solution exist?
  - Is the solution unique?
  - How to find it?
- In this lecture, we will mainly focus on the third question and we always assume that the problem under considered has a solution x\*.
- We will study iterative methods for finding the solution: first find an initial guess  $x_0$ , then a better guess  $x_1, \dots$ , in the end we hope that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x^*$ .



- Iterative methods: Constructive ways of finding roots of equations
  - Bisection method;
  - Fixed-point method;
  - Newton's method;
  - Secant method.

## §2.1 Bisection Method

### Theorem (Bolzano)

Let  $f: [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuous. If f(a)f(b) < 0, then there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  such that f(c) = 0.

The basic idea: Assume that f(a)f(b) < 0.

- Set  $a_1 = a$  and  $b_1 = b$ , compute  $p_1 = \frac{1}{2}(a_1 + b_1)$ .
- If  $f(p_1)f(a_1) = 0$  then  $f(p_1) = 0 \Rightarrow p = p_1$ ; if  $f(p_1)f(a_1) > 0$  then  $p \in (p_1, b_1)$ , set  $a_2 = p_1$  and  $b_2 = b_1$ ; if  $f(p_1)f(a_1) < 0$  then  $p \in (a_1, p_1)$ , set  $a_2 = a_1$  and  $b_2 = p_1$ .
- $p_2 = \frac{1}{2}(a_2 + b_2)$ .
- Repeat the process until the interval is very small then any point in the interval can be used as approximations of the zero. In fact,  $p_1 
  ightharpoonup p_2 
  ightharpoonup p_3 
  ightharpoonup p$ .

### The bisection algorithm

**Input** *a*, *b*, tolerance TOL, max. no. of iteration  $N_0$ .

**Output** approximate sol. of p or message of failure.

**Step 1:** 
$$i = 1$$
,  $FA = f(a)$ .

**Step 2:** while  $i \le N_0$  do step 3-6.

**Step 3:** set 
$$p = a + \frac{1}{2}(b - a)$$
;  $FP = f(p)$ .

**Step 4:** if 
$$FP = 0$$
 or  $\frac{1}{2}(b-a) < TOL$  then output(p); stop.

**Step 5:** i = i + 1.

**Step 6:** if 
$$FA \times FP > 0$$
 then set  $a = p$  and  $FA = FP$ ; else set  $b = p$ .

**Step 7:** output (method failed after  $N_0$  iterations); stop.



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### §2.1 Bisection Method

### Stopping criteria

 The stopping criteria are practical tests needed to determine when to stop the iteration (loop) or even the whole program.
 In our algorithm in the previous page, two stopping criteria are

$$FP = 0$$
 or  $\frac{1}{2}(b-a) < TOL$ .

- Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be a given tolerance.
  - The stopping criterium FP = 0 can be replaced by  $|FP| < \varepsilon$ .
  - The stopping criterium  $\frac{1}{2}(b-a) < TOL$  can be replaced by

$$|p_i - p_{i-1}| < \varepsilon$$
 or  $\frac{|p_i - p_{i-1}|}{p_i} < \varepsilon$ .



#### Example

Find a root of  $f(x) = x^3 + 4x^2 - 10$ .

Note that f(1)=-5, f(2)=14. Therefore, there exists a root  $p\in[1,2]$ . Actual root is p=1.365230013...

Using the bisection method, we get the table:

n	a <sub>n</sub>	b <sub>n</sub>	p <sub>n</sub>	$f(p_n)$
1	1.000000000000	2.000000000000	1.500000000000	2.375000000000
2	1.000000000000	1.500000000000	1.250000000000	-1.796875000000
3	1.250000000000	1.500000000000	1.375000000000	0.162109375000
:	:	:	:	:
13	1.364990234375	1.365234375000	1.365112304687	-0.001943659010
14	1.365112304687	1.365234375000	1.365173339843	-0.000935847281
		•		
:	:	;	;	:
18	1.365226745605	1.365234375000	1.365230560302	0.000009030992

See the details of the M-file: bisection.m



### §2.1 Bisection Method

### Properties of bisection methods

- Drawbacks:
  - often slow;
  - a good intermediate approximation may be discarded;
  - doesn't work for higher dimensional problems: F(X) = 0.
- Advantage: it always converges to a solution if a suitable initial interval can be chosen.

## §2.1 Bisection Method

#### Theorem

If  $f \in C([a,b])$  and p is the unique zero of f in [a,b], then the bisection method generates  $\{p_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  with  $|p_n-p| \leqslant \frac{1}{2^n}(b-a)$  for all  $n \geqslant 1$ .

#### Proof.

For  $n \ge 1$ , we have  $b_n - a_n = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}(b-a)$  and  $p \in [a_n, b_n]$ .

$$\therefore p_n = \frac{1}{2}(a_n + b_n), \ \forall \ n \geqslant 1.$$

$$\therefore |p_n - p| \leq \frac{1}{2}(b_n - a_n) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}(b - a) = \frac{1}{2^n}(b - a).$$

**Note:** Since  $|p_n - p| \le \frac{1}{2^n}(b - a)$ , we have  $p_n = p + \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{2^n})$ .



#### Definition

Let  $\emptyset \neq X \subseteq Y$  be two sets, and  $g: X \to Y$  be a function. A point  $p \in X$  is called a fixed-point of g if g(p) = p.

Root-finding problem & fixed-point problem are equivalent in the following sense:

- If p is a root of f(x) = 0, p is a fixed point of g(x) := x f(x),  $h(x) := x \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$ , and etc.
- If p is a fixed point of g(x); i.e., g(p) = p, then p is a root of f(x) := x g(x), h(x) := 3x 3g(x), and etc.

 $(root-finding problem) \Leftrightarrow (fixed-point problem).$ 



#### Example

Let  $g: [-2,3] \to \mathbb{R}$  be defined by  $g(x) = x^2 - 2$ .

$$g(-1) = (-1)^2 - 2 = -1$$
 and  $g(2) = 2^2 - 2 = 2$ .

 $\therefore$  -1 and 2 are fixed points of g.

Moreover, finding the fixed-point of g is equivalent to finding the zeros of the function  $f(x) = x^2 - x - 2$ .

#### Theorem

Let  $-\infty < a < b < \infty$  and  $g : [a, b] \rightarrow [a, b]$  be continuous. Then g has a fixed-point.

#### Proof.

If g(a)=a or g(b)=b then g has a fixed point in [a,b]. Suppose not, then  $a < g(a) \leqslant b$  and  $a \leqslant g(b) < b$ . Define h(x):=g(x)-x. Then h is continuous on [a,b] and h(a)>0, h(b)<0. By the Intermediate Value Theorem, there exists  $p \in (a,b)$  such that h(p)=0; i.e., g(p)=p.

#### Example

Let  $g: [-2,2] \to \mathbb{R}$  be defined by  $g(x) = x^2 - 2$ . Then  $g: [-2,2] \to [-2,2]$  and -1 and 2 are fixed points of g.



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### Theorem (Banach fixed-point theorem)

Let  $-\infty < a < b < \infty$  and  $g: [a, b] \rightarrow [a, b]$ . If there exists a constant  $k \in [0, 1)$  such that

$$|g(x) - g(y)| \le k|x - y| \quad \forall x, y \in [a, b],$$

then there exists a unique fixed-point of g (i.e., there is one and only one fixed-point of g). Moreover, for any given  $p_1 \in [a,b]$ , the sequence  $\{p_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  obtained by  $p_{n+1} = g(p_n)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  converges to the fixed-point p and

$$|p_n - p| \le k^{n-1}|p_1 - p|$$
 and  $|p_n - p| \le \frac{k^{n-1}}{1 - k}|p_2 - p_1|$ . (\*)

**Note:** Even though we might not know where p locates,  $(\star)$  is still a good estimate of the speed of convergence of  $\{p_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  to p.

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#### Proof.

Note that the condition  $|f(x) - f(y)| \le k|x - y|$  for all x, y in [a, b] implies that f is continuous on [a, b]; thus the previous theorem implies that f has at least one fixed-point.

Suppose that p and q are fixed-points of g. Then

$$|p-q|=\left|g(p)-g(q)\right|\leqslant k|p-q|$$
 .

Since  $k \in [0,1)$ , we must have |p-q|=0 or p=q. Therefore there is only one fixed-point of g.

Let  $p_1 \in [a, b]$ , and  $p_{n+1} = g(p_n)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then

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Therefore,

$$|p_n-p| \leqslant k|p_{n-1}-p| \leqslant k^2|p_{n-2}-p| \leqslant \cdots \leqslant k^{n-1}|p_1-p|;$$
  
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**Goal**:  $|p_n - p| \le \frac{k^{n-1}}{1-k}|p_2 - p_1|$  for all  $n \ge 2$ .

### Proof (Cont.)

Finally, we note that

$$|p_{n+1}-p_n|=|g(p_n)-g(p_{n-1})|\leqslant k|p_n-p_{n-1}|\quad\forall\;n\geqslant 2$$

thus if  $n+j \ge 2$ ,

$$|p_{n+j} - p_{n+j-1}| \le k|p_{n+j-1} - p_{n+j-2}| \le k^2|p_{n+j-2} - p_{n+j-3}|$$
  
 $\le \dots \le k^{n+j-2}|p_2 - p_1|.$ 

Therefore, for  $j \ge 1$  and  $n \ge 2$ ,

$$|p_{n+j} - p_n| \le |p_{n+j} - p_{n+j-1}| + \dots + |p_{n+2} - p_{n+1}| + |p_{n+1} - p_n|$$

$$\le (k^j + k^{j-1} + \dots + k)k^{n-2}|p_2 - p_1|$$

$$\le \frac{1 - k^j}{1 - k}k^{n-1}|p_2 - p_1| .$$

The final conclusion follows from passing to the limit as  $j \to \infty$ .

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Finally, we note that

$$|p_{n+1} - p_n| = |g(p_n) - g(p_{n-1})| \le k|p_n - p_{n-1}| \quad \forall n \ge 2;$$

thus if  $n + j \ge 2$ ,

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### Theorem (Banach fixed-point theorem)

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$$|g(x) - g(y)| \le k|x - y| \quad \forall x, y \in [a, b],$$

then there exists a unique fixed-point of g (i.e., there is one and only one fixed-point of g). Moreover, for any given  $p_1 \in [a,b]$ , the sequence  $\{p_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  obtained by  $p_{n+1} = g(p_n)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  converges to the fixed-point p and

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#### Definition

Let  $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . A function  $g:A \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a contraction or a contraction mapping if there exists a constant  $k \in [0,1)$  such that

$$|g(x) - g(y)| \le k||x - y|| \quad \forall x, y \in A$$

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### Theorem (Contraction mapping principle)

Let  $-\infty < a < b < \infty$  and  $g: [a,b] \rightarrow [a,b]$ . If there exists a constant  $k \in [0,1)$  such that

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#### Definition

Let  $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . A function  $g:A \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a contraction or a contraction mapping if there exists a constant  $k \in [0,1)$  such that

$$\|g(x) - g(y)\| \le k\|x - y\| \quad \forall x, y \in A.$$



#### Theorem

Let  $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be an interval, and  $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$ . If there exists a constant  $k \in [0,1)$  such that  $|f'(x)| \leq k$  for all  $x \in I$ , then f is a contraction.

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Let  $x, y \in I$ . By MVT, there exists z between x and y such that

$$f(x) - f(y) = f'(z)(x - y);$$

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Since k < 1, f is a contraction.

#### $\mathsf{Example}$

The function  $f:(0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x)=\arctan x$  is not a contraction even though |f'(x)|<1 for all  $x\in\mathbb{R}$ .

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#### **Fixed point iterations**

$$p_n = g(p_{n-1}), \quad n = 1, 2, \cdots$$

Assume that g is continuous and  $\lim_{n\to\infty}p_n=p$ . Then

$$g(p) = g(\lim_{n \to \infty} p_n) = g(\lim_{n \to \infty} p_{n-1}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} g(p_{n-1})$$
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#### Example

The function  $f(x) = x^3 + 4x^2 - 10$  has a unique zero in [1,2]:

- Since f(1) = -5 < 0 and f(2) = 14 > 0, Bolzano's Theorem implies that f has a zero in [1, 2].
- ② Since  $f'(x) = 3x^2 + 8x > 0$  for all  $x \in (1,2)$ , f is strictly increasing on [1,2]; f has a unique zero in [1,2].

Next, we focus on finding the unique zero of f using the fixed-point iteration. This amounts to provide a **good** continuous function g so that x = g(x) is equivalent to f(x) = 0.

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### Example (Cont.)

Some computations show that the fixed-point of the following functions are the unique zero of f.

(a) 
$$x = g_1(x) := x - x^3 - 4x^2 + 10$$
.

(b) 
$$x = g_2(x) := \left(\frac{10}{x} - 4x\right)^{1/2}$$
.

(c) 
$$x = g_3(x) := \frac{1}{2} (10 - x^3)^{1/2}$$
.

(d) 
$$x = g_4(x) := \left(\frac{10}{4+x}\right)^{1/2}$$
.

(e) 
$$x = g_5(x) := x - \frac{x^3 + 4x^2 - 10}{3x^2 + 8x}$$
.

### Example (Cont.)

Using the fixed-point iterations with functions  $g_1,g_2,\cdots,g_5$  and  $p_0=1.5$ , we have the following numerical results:

n	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
0	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
:	<u>:</u>	:	:	<u>:</u>	:
3	-469.7	$(-8.65)^{1/2}$			
4	$1.03 \times 10^{8}$				1.365230013
			:	<u>:</u>	
15			1.365223680	1.365230013	
			: :		
30			1.365230013		

The actual root is p = 1.365230013...

Computer project: write the Matlab files for (c), (d), and (e).

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- Motivation: we know how to solve f(x) = 0 if f is linear. For nonlinear f, we can always approximate it with a linear function.
- Suppose that  $f \in C^2([a,b])$  and f(p)=0. Let  $p_0 \in [a,b]$  be an approximation to p,  $f'(p_0) \neq 0$  and  $|p-p_0|$  is "small". Using Taylor Theorem, we have

$$0 = f(p) = f(p_0) + (p - p_0)f'(p_0) + \frac{(p - p_0)^2}{2}f''(\xi(p)).$$

If  $|p-p_0|$  is small, then we can drop the  $(p-p_0)^2$  term,

$$0 \approx f(p_0) + (p - p_0)f'(p_0)$$
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Solving for *p* gives

$$p \approx p_1 := p_0 - \frac{f(p_0)}{f'(p_0)}, \text{ provided } f'(p_0) \neq 0.$$



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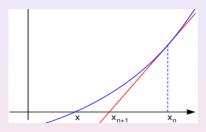
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• **Newton's method** can be defined as follows: for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \cdots$ 

$$p_{n+1} = p_n - \frac{f(p_n)}{f'(p_n)}, \quad \text{provided} \quad f'(p_n) \neq 0.$$



### **Geometrical interpretation**



- An illustration of one iteration of Newton's method. The function f is shown in blue and the tangent line is in red. We see that  $p_{n+1}$  is a better approximation than  $p_n$  for the root p of the function f.
- What is the geometrical meaning of  $f'(p_n) = 0$ ?



### Example

Find the zero the function  $f(x) = \cos x - x$  in  $[0, \pi/2]$ .

- :  $f(\pi/2) = -\pi/2 < 0$  and f(0) = 1 > 0.
  - $\therefore$  there exists  $p \in (0, \pi/2)$  such that f(p) = 0.

**Newton's method:** choose  $p_0 \in [0, \pi/2]$  and

$$p_n := p_{n-1} - \frac{\cos(p_{n-1}) - p_{n-1}}{-\sin(p_{n-1}) - 1}, \quad n \geqslant 1.$$

• Numerical results:  $p_0 = \pi/4$ .

n	$p_n$	$f(p_n)$
0	0.78539816339745	-0.07829138221090
1	0.73953613351524	-0.00075487468250
2	0.73908517810601	-0.00000007512987
3	0.73908513321516	-0.00000000000000



#### Theorem

Assume that  $f \in C^2([a,b])$ ,  $p \in (a,b)$  such that f(p) = 0 and  $f'(p) \neq 0$ . Then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $p_0 \in [p-\delta, p+\delta]$  then Newton's method generates  $\{p_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converging to p.

**Idea of proof**: Define  $g(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$ . Then p is a fixed-point of g. To apply the Banach fixed-point theorem for the construction of the fixed-point of g, we want to find  $\delta > 0$  such that

- $g: [p-\delta, p+\delta] \to [p-\delta, p+\delta]$  or equivalently,  $|g(x)-p| \le \delta \qquad \forall \ x \in [p-\delta, p+\delta] \ .$
- ② there exists  $k \in (0,1)$  such that  $|g'(x)| \leq k$  for all  $x \in [p-\delta, p+\delta]$ .

### Proof.

Since f' is continuous on [a, b], there exists  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that

$$|f'(p) - f'(x)| < \frac{|f'(p)|}{2} \quad \forall x \in [p - \delta_1, p + \delta_1] \subseteq [a, b].$$

Let  $k \in (0,1)$  be a constant and  $g: [p-\delta_1, p+\delta_1] \to \mathbb{R}$  be defined by  $g(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{x}$ . Then

$$g'(x) = 1 - \frac{f'(x)f'(x) - f(x)f''(x)}{f'(x)^2} = \frac{f(x)f''(x)}{f'(x)^2}$$

Therefore, g' is continuous on  $[p-\delta_1,p+\delta_1]$ . Moreover, g'(p)=0; thus there exists  $0<\delta<\delta_1$  such that

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A sequence  $\{p_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is said to converge to p of order  $\alpha$ , where  $\alpha > 0$ ,

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 for all large  $n$ .

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- If  $\lim_{n\to\infty}p_n=p$  and the limit  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{|p_{n+1}-p|}{|p_n-p|^{\alpha}}=\lambda$  exists and is non-zero, then  $\{p_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to p of order  $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$  is called the asymptotic error constant.
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$$\left|p-p_{n+1}\right| \leqslant \frac{\displaystyle\max_{x\in[a,b]}\left|f''(x)\right|}{2\left|f'(p_n)\right|}\left|p-p_n\right|^2 \quad \text{for all} \qquad n$$
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#### Theorem

Newton's method is quadratically convergent when it converges.

### Sketch of the proof.

Since  $f \in C^2([a,b])$  and f(p) = 0, by Taylor's Theorem for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists  $\xi_n$  between p and  $p_n$  such that

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Therefore,

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$$\left|p-p_{n+1}\right| \leqslant \frac{\max\limits_{x\in[a,b]}\left|f''(x)\right|}{\left|f'(p)\right|}\left|p-p_{n}\right|^{2}$$
 for all large  $n$ .

### Remark:

- Advantages:
  - 1 The convergence is quadratic.
  - 2 Newton's method works for higher dimensional problems.
- Disadvantages:
  - **1** Newton's method converges only locally; i.e., the initial guess  $p_0$  has to be close enough to the solution p.
  - 2 It needs the first derivative of f(x).

### §2.4 Secant Method

• Secant method: given two initial approximations  $p_0$  and  $p_1$  with  $p_0 \neq p_1$  and  $f(p_0) \neq f(p_1)$ . Then for  $n \geqslant 2$ ,

• compute 
$$m = \frac{f(p_{n-1}) - f(p_{n-2})}{p_{n-1} - p_{n-2}}$$
, if  $p_{n-1} \neq p_{n-2}$ .

• compute  $p_n = p_{n-1} - \frac{f(p_{n-1})}{m}$ , if  $f(p_{n-1}) \neq f(p_{n-2})$ .

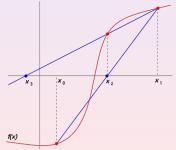


Figure 1: This picture is quoted from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/

## §2.4 Secant Method

#### Remarks:

- we need only one function evaluation per iteration.
- $p_n$  depends on two previous iterations. For example, to compute  $p_2$ , we need both  $p_1$  and  $p_0$ .
- how do we obtain  $p_1$ ? We need to use FD-Newton: pick a small parameter h, compute  $a_0=(f(p_0+h)-f(p_0))/h$ , then  $p_1=p_0-f(p_0)/a_0$ .
- The convergence of secant method is superlinear (i.e., better than linear). More precisely, we have

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{|p_{n+1}-p|}{|p_n-p|^{(1+\sqrt{5})/2}} = C, \quad (1+\sqrt{5})/2 \approx 1.62 < 2.$$



# §2.4 Secant Method

### Example

Find the zero the function  $f(x) = \cos x - x$  in  $[0, \pi/2]$ .

• Let  $p_0 = 0.5$  and  $p_1 = \pi/4$ .

The secant method:

$$p_n := p_{n-1} - \frac{(p_{n-1} - p_{n-2})(\cos(p_{n-1}) - p_{n-1})}{(\cos(p_{n-1}) - p_{n-1}) - (\cos(p_{n-2}) - p_{n-2})}, \ n \geqslant 2.$$

• Numerical results:

n	$p_n$	$f(p_n)$
0	0.50000000000000	0.37758256189037
1	0.78539816339745	-0.07829138221090
2	0.73638413883658	0.00451771852217
3	0.73905813921389	0.00004517721596
4	0.73908514933728	-0.00000002698217
5	0.73908513321506	0.00000000000016

### §2.5 Newton's Method for System of Equations

We first focus on solving for zeros of system of two nonlinear equations. We wish to solve

$$\begin{cases} f_1(x_1, x_2) = 0, \\ f_2(x_1, x_2) = 0, \end{cases}$$

where  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are nonlinear functions of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .

Applying Taylor's expansion in two variables around  $(x_1, x_2)$  to the system of equations, we obtain

$$\begin{cases} 0 = f_1(x_1 + h_1, x_2 + h_2) \approx f_1(x_1, x_2) + h_1 \frac{\partial f_1(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1} + h_2 \frac{\partial f_1(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2}, \\ 0 = f_2(x_1 + h_1, x_2 + h_2) \approx f_2(x_1, x_2) + h_1 \frac{\partial f_2(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1} + h_2 \frac{\partial f_2(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2}. \end{cases}$$

Putting it into the matrix form, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} f_1(x_1, x_2) \\ f_2(x_1, x_2) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Newton's method for the system of two nonlinear equations is defined as follows: for  $k=0,1,\cdots$ ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(k+1)} \\ x_2^{(k+1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(k)} \\ x_2^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} h_1^{(k)} \\ h_2^{(k)} \end{bmatrix}$$

with

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}(x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}(x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}(x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_1^{(k)} \\ h_2^{(k)} \end{bmatrix} = - \begin{bmatrix} f_1(x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}) \\ f_2(x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}) \end{bmatrix}.$$

#### Example

Use Newton's method with initial guess

$$\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (x_1^{(0)}, x_2^{(0)})^\top = (0, 1)^\top$$

to solve the following nonlinear system (perform two iterations):

$$\begin{cases} 4x_1^2 - x_2^2 = 0, \\ 4x_1x_2^2 - x_1 = 1. \end{cases}$$

Let  $f_1(x_1, x_2) = 4x_1^2 - x_2^2$  and  $f_2(x_1, x_2) = 4x_1x_2^2 - x_1 - 1$ . Then

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(x_1, x_2) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}(x_1, x_2) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}(x_1, x_2) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}(x_1, x_2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8x_1 & -2x_2 \\ 4x_2^2 - 1 & 8x_1x_2 \end{bmatrix};$$



$$\begin{split} f_1(x_1,x_2) &= 4x_1^2 - x_2^2, \ f_2(x_1,x_2) = 4x_1x_2^2 - x_1 - 1, \ \text{and} \\ & \left[ \begin{array}{cc} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(x_1,x_2) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}(x_1,x_2) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}(x_1,x_2) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}(x_1,x_2) \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 8x_1 & -2x_2 \\ 4x_2^2 - 1 & 8x_1x_2 \end{array} \right] \ ; \end{split}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{(1)} \\ x_2^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} h_1^{(0)} \\ h_2^{(0)} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 8 \cdot 0 & -2 \cdot 1 \\ 4 \cdot 1^2 - 1 & 8 \cdot 0 \cdot 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} f_1(0, 1) \\ f_2(0, 1) \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1/3 \\ -1/2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1/2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 8 \cdot 1/3 & -2 \cdot 1/2 \\ 4 \cdot (1/2)^2 - 1 & 8 \cdot 1/3 \cdot 1/2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} f_1(1/3, 1/2) \\ f_2(1/3, 1/2) \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0.541\bar{6} \\ 1.25 \end{bmatrix}$$

- In general, we can use Newton's method for F(X) = 0, where  $X = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^{\top}$  and  $F = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n)^{\top}$ .
- For higher dimensional problem, the first derivative is defined as a matrix (the Jacobian matrix)

$$DF(X) := \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1(X)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1(X)}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1(X)}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2(X)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2(X)}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_2(X)}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n(X)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_n(X)}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_n(X)}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n}.$$

Newton's method: given  $X^{(0)} = [x_1^{(0)}, \cdots, x_n^{(0)}]^{\mathsf{T}}$ , define

$$X^{(k+1)} = X^{(k)} + H^{(k)},$$

where

$$DF(X^{(k)})H^{(k)} = -F(X^{(k)}),$$

which requires solving a large linear system at every iteration.

- vector operations: not expensive.
- function evaluations: can be expensive.
- compute the Jacobian: can be expensive.
- solving matrix equations (linear system): very expensive!



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**Computer project:** write the computer code of Newton's method for solving the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} 3x - \cos(yz) - \frac{1}{2} = 0, \\ x^2 - 81(y+0.1)^2 + \sin(z) + 1.06 = 0, \\ e^{-xy} + 20z + \frac{10\pi - 3}{3} = 0, \end{cases}$$

with initial guess  $(x, y, z)^{T} = (0.1, 0.1, -0.1)^{T}$ .