

# CSC338 Lecture 8 Non-linear Equations (§5)

Problem: Find  $x$  such that  $f(x) = y$   
where  $f$  is any smooth function.

Can take any derivative

(for now  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , extend to  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ )

Equivalently, find root(s) of a smooth function  $f(x)$ .

i.e. find an  $x^*$  such that  $f(x^*) = 0$ .

Existence and Uniqueness Unlike in a linear system,

$f(x) = 0$  can have no solution

—  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$

one solution

—  $f(x) = \cancel{0}x$

many solutions

—  $f(x) = x^2 - 1$

infinitely many solutions:  $f(x) = \sin(x)$

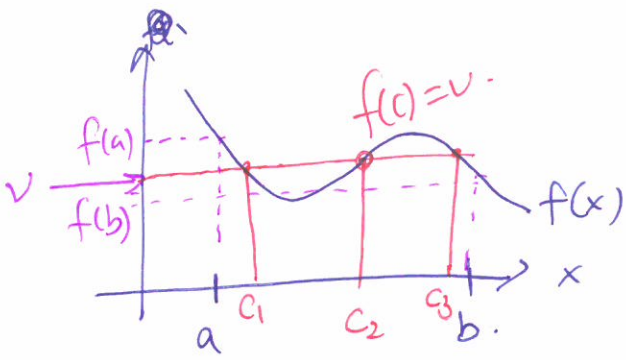
Even though we can't make global assertions about existence/uniqueness of roots, there are useful local criteria that guarantees the existence of solutions in a region.

## Intermediate Value Theorem (IVT)

If  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous on an interval  $[a, b]$

and  $v$  is a number between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ .

then there exists  $c \in [a, b]$  with  $f(c) = v$ .

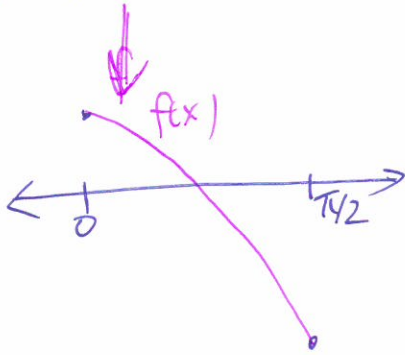


we can apply IVT to root finding:

If  $f$  is continuous,  $f(L)$  and  $f(R)$  have opposite signs, there exists  $x^*$  between  $L, R$  with  $f(x^*) = 0$ .

We can use this idea to develop an algorithm for root finding.

eg//  $f(x) = \cos(x) - x$ .  $f(0) = 1$ ,  $f(\frac{\pi}{2}) = -\frac{\pi}{2}$   
 $\Rightarrow$  there must be a root in the interval  $[0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ .



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Take midpoint  $m_1 = 0 + \frac{\frac{\pi}{2} - 0}{2} = \frac{\pi}{4}$   
 $f(m_1) = -0.07829 < 0$

Reapply IVT  $\Rightarrow$  root in interval  $[0, \frac{\pi}{4}]$

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Next midpoint  $m_2 = 0 + \frac{\frac{\pi}{4} - 0}{2} = \frac{\pi}{8}$   
 $f(m_2) = 0.53118 > 0$

$\Rightarrow$  root in interval  $[\frac{\pi}{8}, \frac{\pi}{4}]$

# Interval Bisection Algorithm

(3)

Start with  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  continuous and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $\text{sign}(f(a)) \neq \text{sign}(f(b))$ .

Iteratively find  $m = a + \frac{(b-a)}{2}$  and if

$$\text{sign}(f(m)) = \text{sign}(f(a)) \Rightarrow a := m.$$

$$\text{otherwise} \Rightarrow b := m.$$

Aside: midpoint computation.

Why do we compute  $m = a + \frac{(b-a)}{2}$  rather than  $m = \frac{a+b}{2}$ .

Consider  $F(\beta=10, p=2, U=10, L=-10)$

$$a = 0.67 \rightarrow 6.7 \times 10^{-1}$$

$$b = 0.69 \rightarrow 6.9 \times 10^{-1}$$

If we compute  $\frac{a+b}{2}$ , first compute  $a+b$ .

$$(a+b) = 1.36 \times 10^0 \Rightarrow 1.4 \times 10^0 \text{ rounded.}$$

$$\text{So } \frac{(a+b)}{2} = 0.7 = 7.0 \times 10^{-1} \text{ in floating-pt arithmetic.}$$

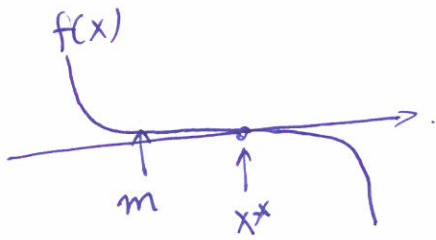
Problem:  $m$  is not even between  $[a, b]$ .

The computation  $m = a + \frac{b-a}{2}$  guaranteed to be between  $[a, b]$ .

Stopping Criteria  $\Rightarrow$  Depend on the problem

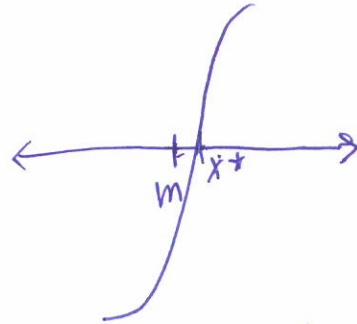
④

Idea 1 when  $f(m)$  is small enough.



$f(m)$  is small  
 $|m - x^*|$  is large.

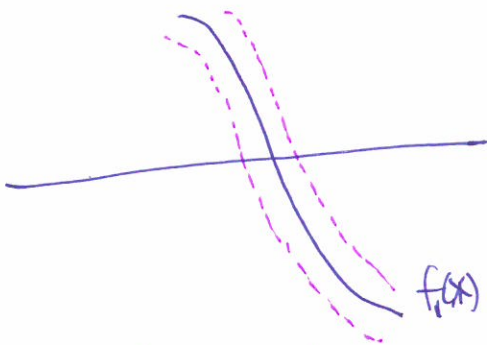
Idea 2 when the interval size is small enough.



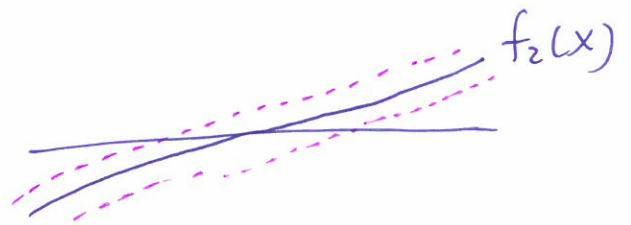
$|m - x^*|$  is small  
 $f(m)$  is large.

### Sensitivity and Conditioning

For which function is the root-finding problem  $f(x)=0$  well-conditioned?



Small perturbation  
in  $f \Rightarrow$  small change  
in solution (root)  
well-conditioned



Small perturbation in  
 $f \Rightarrow$  large change  
in solution (root)  
ill-conditioned.

Sensitivity of root finding problem is the opposite  
to that of evaluating the function  $f(x)$   
Essentially evaluating  $f^{-1}(0)$ .

To measure sensitivity, we need to use absolute Condition Numbers because  $f(x^*) = 0$

(5)

Absolute C.N. for evaluating  $y = f(x)$

If  $\Delta x$  change in  $x$  then  $\Delta y = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)$   
and the ratio

$$\frac{|\text{Abs Error in Sol'n}|}{|\text{Abs Error in Problem}|} = \left| \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} \right| = \left| \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} \right| \approx |f'(x)|$$

Absolute C.N. for root-finding is the inverse:  $\frac{1}{|f'(x)|}$

If  $f'(x^*) = 0$ , then  $x^*$  is a multiple root.

A slight perturbation of  $f$  can cause  $x^*$  to be one root or none at all!

On the flip side, if C.N. is small

then small residual  $|f(x)| \Rightarrow |x - x^*|$  is small.

### Convergence Rate

Def A series  $\{e_1, e_2, \dots\}$  converges to zero if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} e_k = 0$$

Def A series  $\{e_1, e_2, \dots\}$  converges with rate  $r$  if

$$\text{if } \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|e_{k+1}|}{|e_k|^r} = C \text{ for some constant } C > 0.$$

Intuition: if  $k$  is large enough,  $|e_{k+1}| \approx c \cdot |e_k|^r$  ⑥

In particular, if  $r=1$ ,  $c < 1$  conv. rate is linear.

$r > 1$

:

superlinear.

$r=2$

:

quadratic

$r=3$

:

cubic

eg//

- |   |                 |                 |                 |                 |     |                       |
|---|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----|-----------------------|
| ① | $e_1 = 10^{-2}$ | $e_2 = 10^{-3}$ | $e_3 = 10^{-4}$ | $e_4 = 10^{-5}$ | ... | linear, $c = 10^{-1}$ |
| ② | $10^{-2}$       | $10^{-4}$       | $10^{-6}$       | $10^{-8}$       | ... | linear, $c = 10^{-2}$ |
| ③ | $10^{-2}$       | $10^{-3}$       | $10^{-5}$       | $10^{-8}$       | ... | superlinear           |
| ④ | $10^{-2}$       | $10^{-4}$       | $10^{-8}$       | $10^{-16}$      | ... | quadratic.            |

Def. The convergence rate of a root-finding algo

is the convergence rate of  $e_k = x_k - x^*$

↑  
Approximate root  
at iteration  $k$ .

↑  
True root

An iterative method converges with rate  $r$  if  $\{e_k\}$  converges with rate  $r$ .

For interval bisection, we take the upper bound on  $|x_k - x^*|$ , i.e.  $|e_k| \leq \frac{|b-a|}{2^k}$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|b-a|/2^{k+1}}{(|b-a|/2^k)} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$\Rightarrow$  I.B. converges linearly with  $c = \frac{1}{2}$

$\Rightarrow$  One additional bit in accuracy per iteration.

Bisection method converges slowly, but is certain to converge. The method only uses the sign of the function, not its value. ⑦

### Fixed-Point Iteration

Idea: find an equivalent problem to root finding  $f(x)=0$  with the same solution.

Def A point  $p^*$  is a fixed-point of  $g(x)$  if  $g(p^*)=p^*$ .

eg// The root of  $f(x) = x - 0.2 \sin(x) - 0.5$  is the fixed-point of  $g(x) = 0.2 \sin(x) + 0.5$

~~if~~ If  $x^*$  is a root, then

$$x^* - 0.2 \sin(x^*) - 0.5 = 0$$

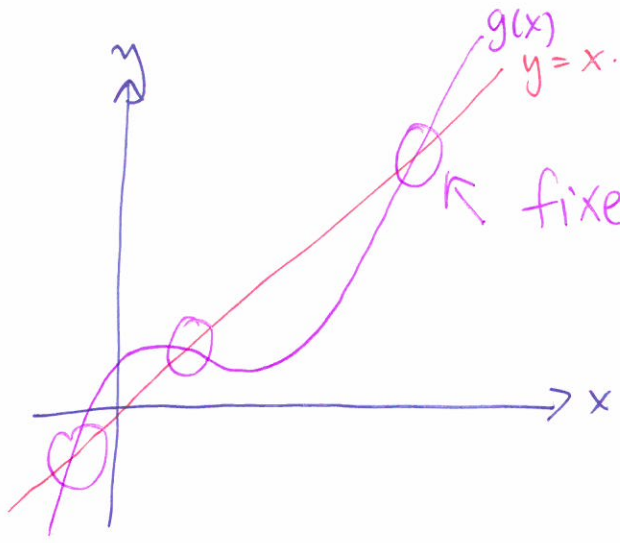
$$\Rightarrow x^* = 0.2 \sin(x^*) + 0.5 = g(x^*)$$

We can sometimes turn a root finding problem into a problem of finding a fixed-point of a related function.

We can find a fixed-point of  $g(x)$  using fixed-point iteration

Start with  $x_0$   
 $x_1 = g(x_0)$   
 $x_2 = g(x_1)$   
 $\vdots$   
 $x_{k+1} = g(x_k)$   
 $\vdots$

If this iteration converges, then it must converge to a fixed-point of  $g$ .



Explanation of  
hardout..

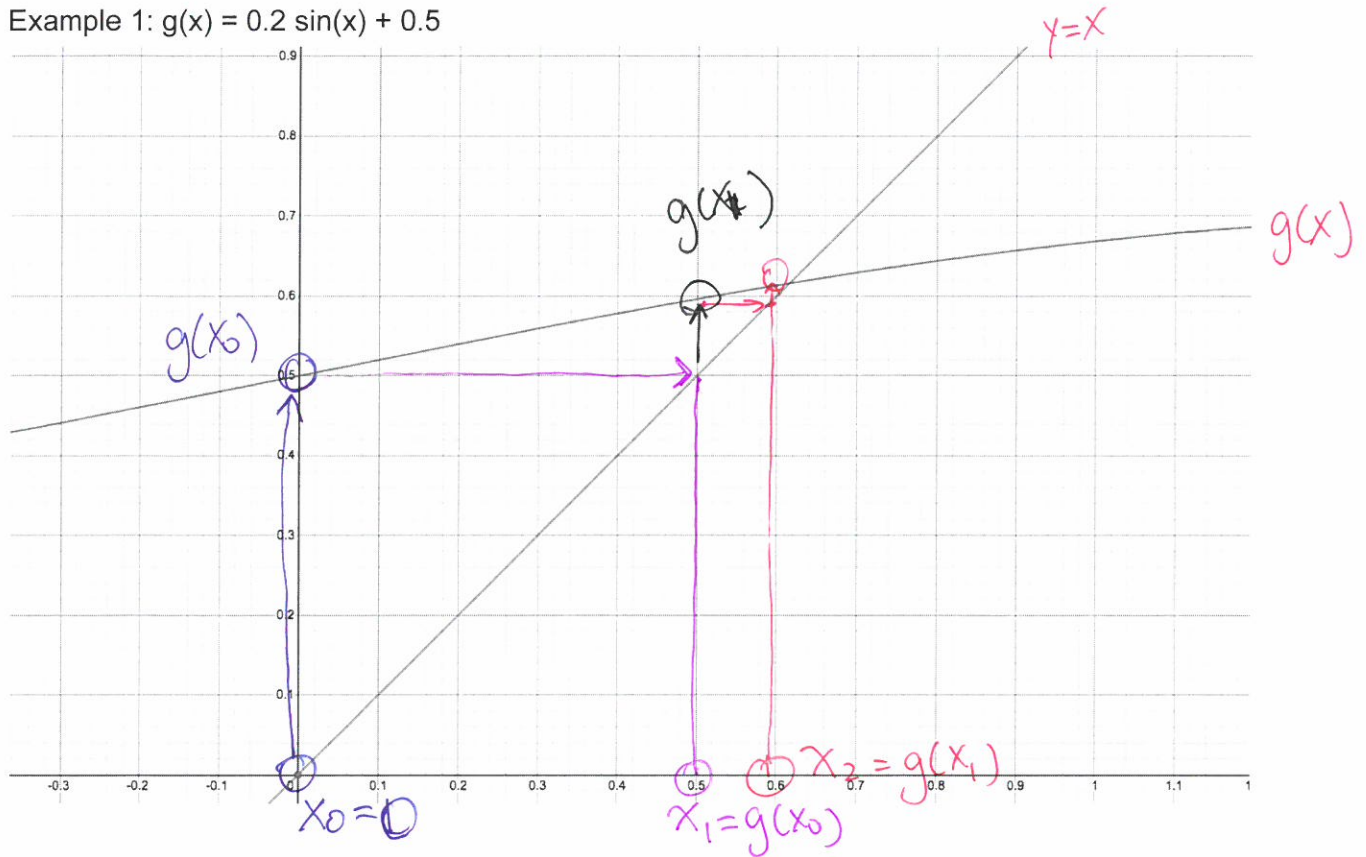
eg// find root of  $f(x) = x^3 - x - 1$ .

by finding the fixed point of  $g(x) = x^3 - 1$

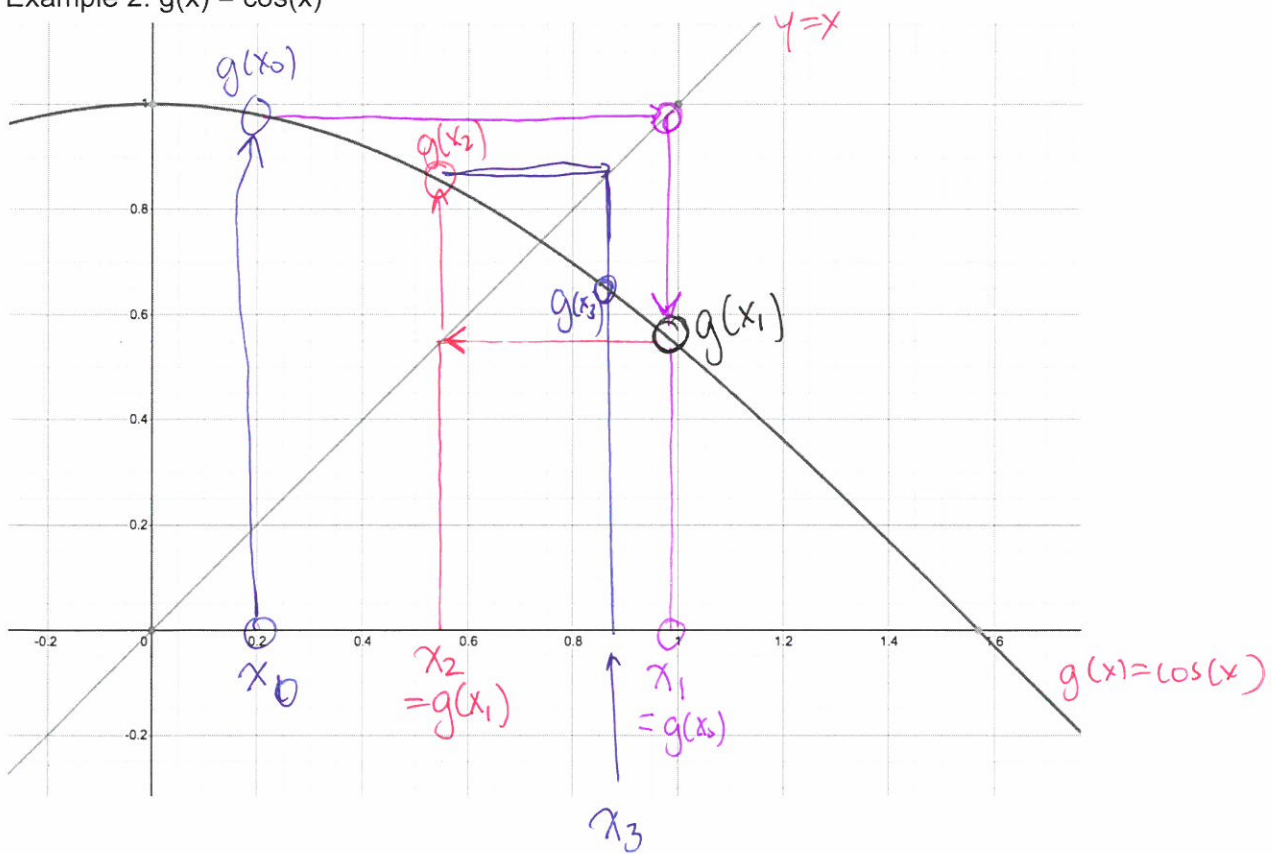


# CSC338 Lecture 8 - Fixed-Point Iterations Handout

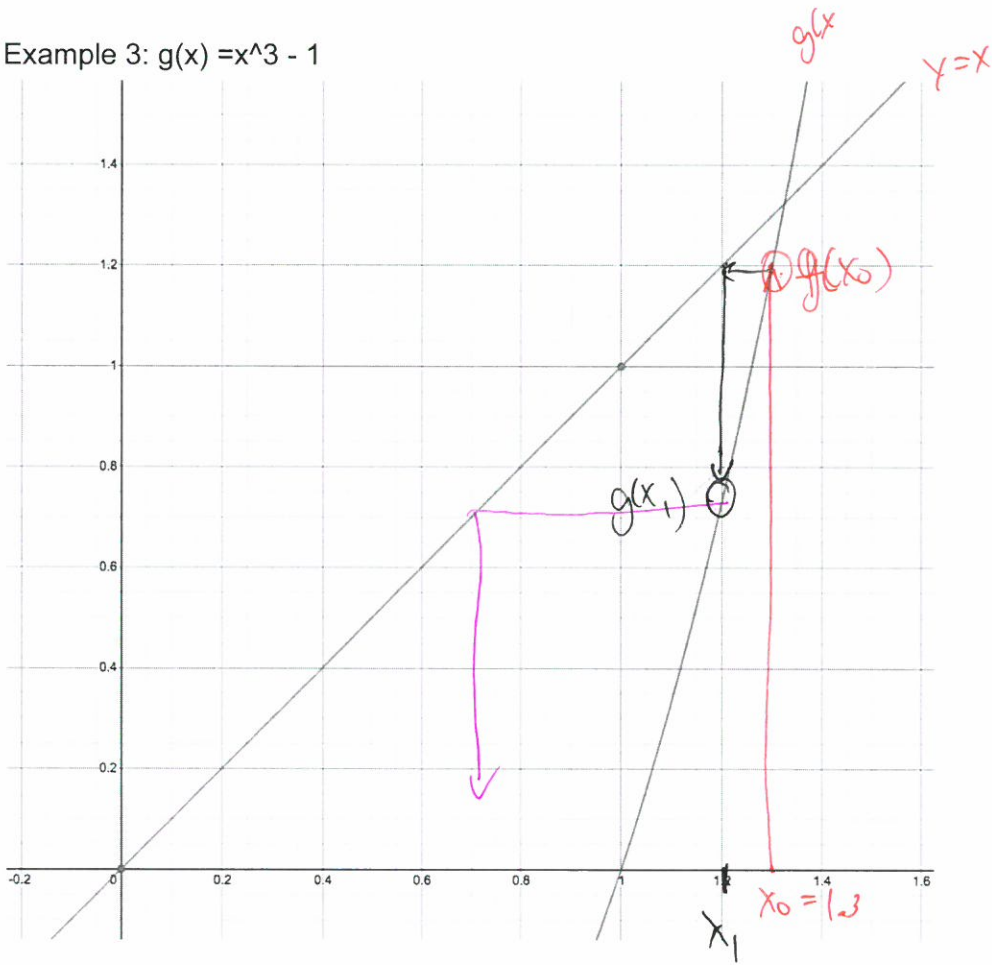
Example 1:  $g(x) = 0.2 \sin(x) + 0.5$



Example 2:  $g(x) = \cos(x)$



Example 3:  $g(x) = x^3 - 1$



Example 4:  $g(x) = -x^3 + 5$

