

Lecture 6

Iterations and Root Finding

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Recall

For a really smooth function $f(x)$ we can expand the function around a point $x_0 \in [a, b]$ with a Taylor Series as

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f(x_0) + (x - x_0) \frac{df}{dx} \Big|_{x=x_0} + \frac{(x - x_0)^2}{2} \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} \Big|_{x=x_0} \\ &\quad + \dots + \frac{(x - x_0)^n}{n!} \frac{d^n f}{dx^n} \Big|_{x=x_0} + \dots \\ &= f(x_0) + (x - x_0) \frac{df}{dx} \Big|_{x=x_0} + \frac{(x - x_0)^2}{2} \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} \Big|_{x=x_0} \\ &\quad + \dots + \frac{(x - x_0)^n}{n!} \frac{d^n f}{dx^n} \Big|_{x=x_0} + \frac{(x - x_0)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \frac{d^{n+1}f}{dx^{n+1}} \Big|_{x=\xi} \end{aligned}$$



Recall

Then the function can be expressed as the n^{th} Taylor Series approximation and a truncation error:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f_n(x) + R_n(x) \\ &= \underbrace{f(x_0) + (x - x_0) \frac{df}{dx} \Big|_{x=x_0} + \frac{(x - x_0)^2}{2} \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} \Big|_{x=x_0} + \dots + \frac{(x - x_0)^n}{n!} \frac{d^n f}{dx^n} \Big|_{x=x_0}}_{f_n(x)} \\ &\quad + \underbrace{\frac{(x - x_0)^{n+1}}{(n + 1)!} \frac{d^{n+1}f}{dx^{n+1}} \Big|_{x=\xi}}_{R_n(x)} \end{aligned}$$



Convergence

Since $\frac{d^{n+1}f}{dx^{n+1}}$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ it is bounded, so

$$R_n(x) = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{(x - x_0)^{(n+1)}}{(n + 1)!}\right) = \mathcal{O}(h^{n+1})$$

We say that the truncation error is of "order $n + 1$ "

Questions:

- 1 how *fast* does the approximation converge?
- 2 how *expensive* is it to compute the approximation? (later)



Iterations

- With a Taylor Series, we are free to keep adding terms until we reach a certain tolerance in the approximate error

Start with f_0 :

$$f_0 = f(x_0)$$

$$f_1 = f_0 + (x - x_0) \frac{df}{dx} \Big|_{x=x_0}$$

$$f_2 = f_1 + (x - x_0)^2 \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} \Big|_{x=x_0}$$

⋮

$$f_k = f_{k-1} + (x - x_0)^k \frac{d^k f}{dx^k} \Big|_{x=x_0}$$

Better questions:

- 1 with approximations $f_k(x)$ and $f_{k+1}(x)$ of $f(x)$, how much better is f_{k+1} ?
- 2 how fast is $f_k(x) \rightarrow f(x)$ with respect to k ?

More General

Convergence rate

- Let $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence:

$$y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_j, \dots$$

- If α and K exist so that

$$|y - y_n| \leq \frac{K}{n^\alpha}$$

Then we say that $\{y_n\}$ **converges to y with rate of convergence $\frac{1}{n^\alpha}$**

- So we expect $|e_n| = |y - y_n| \approx c \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$



Convergence

- Then

$$\frac{|e_{n+1}|}{|e_n|} \approx \text{constant}$$

- In general, a sequence is said to converge with rate r if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|e_{n+1}|}{|e_n|^r} = C$$

Special Cases:

- If $r = 1$ and $C < 1$, then the rate is *linear*
- If $r > 1$, then the rate is *superlinear*
- If $r = 2$ and $C < 1$, then the rate is *quadratic*
- If $r = 3$ and $C < 1$, then the rate is *cubic*



Example

Convergence Rate

- 1 $10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-5} \dots$
- 2 $10^{-2}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-6}, 10^{-8} \dots$
- 3 $10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-5}, 10^{-8} \dots$
- 4 $10^{-2}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-8}, 10^{-16} \dots$



Example

Convergence Rate

- 1 $10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-5} \dots$ (linear with $C = 10^{-1}$)
- 2 $10^{-2}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-6}, 10^{-8} \dots$ (linear with $C = 10^{-2}$)
- 3 $10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-5}, 10^{-8} \dots$ (superlinear, not quadratic)
- 4 $10^{-2}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-8}, 10^{-16} \dots$ (quadratic)



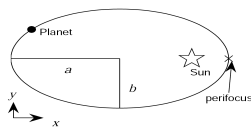
What Next?

We need to study some iterations.

- iteratively finding a root to an equation
- iteratively finding the solution to an algebraic system
- iteratively finding solutions to Ordinary Differential Equations (ODEs)
- ...

Planetary Motion

Courtesy of G. Wright



Consider a planet in orbit around the sun

- ω is the frequency of orbit
- t is the time since the planet was last closest to the sun (perifocus)
- $e = \sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$ is the eccentricity of the orbit
- Kepler's Law says the location of the planet at time is

$$x = a(\cos E - e)$$

$$y = a \sqrt{1 - e^2} \sin E$$

- $E = \omega t + e \sin E$ is the eccentric anomaly
- cannot explicitly express E

Planetary Motion

But we can write the eccentric anomaly as a root problem: Find the root of $F(E) = 0$ where

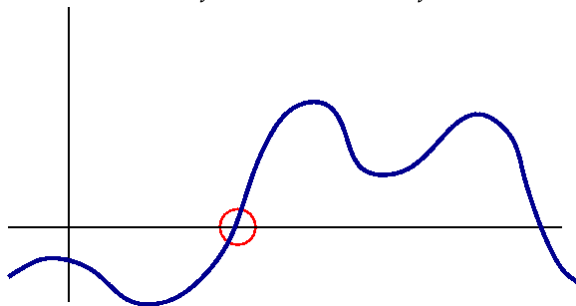
$$F(E) = \omega t + e \sin E - E$$

How?



Root Finding

Given a function $f(x)$, find x so that $f(x) = 0$



Topic Outline

- 1 bracketing methods
- 2 fixed point iterations
- 3 Bisection Method
- 4 Newton's Method
- 5 Secant Method
- 6 Special Case: Roots of Polynomials

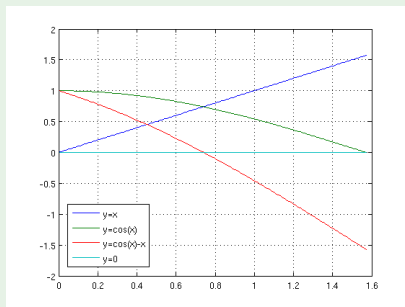


Roots of $f(x)$

- Any single valued function can be written as $f(x) = 0$

Example

- Find x so that $\cos(x) = x$
- That is, find where $f(x) = \cos(x) - x = 0$



Analyze your Application

- Is the function complicated to evaluate?
 - lots of expressions?
 - singularities?
 - simplify? polynomial?
- How accurate does our root need to be?
- How fast/robust should our method be?

!

From this, you can pick the right method...



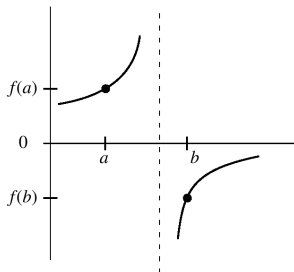
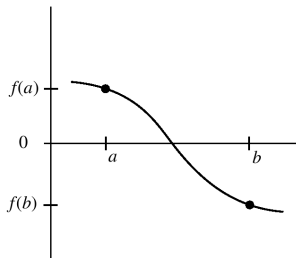
Basic Root Finding Strategy

- 1 Plot the function
 - ▶ Get an initial guess
 - ▶ Identify problematic parts
- 2 Start with the initial guess and iterate



Bracket Basics

- A root x is *bracketed* on $[a, b]$ if $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ have opposite sign.
- Changing signs does not mean bracketed, however: singularity



- helps get an initial guess



Bracket Algorithm

Algorithm 6.1 Bracket Roots

given: $f(x)$, x_{\min} , x_{\max} , n

$$dx = (x_{\max} - x_{\min})/n$$

$$x_{\text{left}} = x_{\min}$$

$$i = 0$$

while $i < n$

$$i \leftarrow i + 1$$

$$x_{\text{right}} = x_{\text{left}} + dx$$

if $f(x)$ changes sign in $[x_{\text{left}}, x_{\text{right}}]$

 save $[x_{\text{left}}, x_{\text{right}}]$ for further root-finding

end

$$x_{\text{left}} = x_{\text{right}}$$

end



Testing Sign

$$f(a) \times f(b) < 0$$

Should we use?

```
fa = myfunc(a);
```

```
fb = myfunc(b);
```

```
if(fa*fb<0)
```

```
    (save)
```

```
end
```



Bestter Sign Test

!

Nope. Underflow...

sign()

Use matlab's sign

```
fa = myfunc(a);
```

```
fb = myfunc(b);
```

```
if(sign(fa) ~= sign(fb))
```

```
    (save)
```

```
end
```



brackPlot.m (in text)

Let's look at **brackPlot.m**:

- searches for brackets of user-defined $f(x)$
- plots the brackets
- returns the brackets

Usage:

```
Xb = brackPlot(fun,xmin,xmax)
```

```
Xb = brackPlot(fun,xmin,xmax,nx)
```

```
fun = (string) name of mfile function
```



Moving forward...

Bracketing is fine. But we need to find the actual root:

- Fixed Point Iteration
- Bisection
- Newton's Method
- Secant Method

Process:

- 1 use brackPlot.m to get a visual and brackets
- 2 search brackets with these methods



Fixed Point Iteration

- simple
- not-robust: only works for nice functions

Definition

A **fixpoint** of a function is a number mapped to itself: $x = g(x)$

Goal

Write our equation

$$f(x) = 0$$

as

$$g(x) = x$$



Fixed Point Iteration

Given $x = g(x)$, take the first guess:

$$x_1 = g(x_0)$$

$$x_2 = g(x_1)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_k = g(x_{k-1})$$

Algorithm

```
pick  $x_0$ 
for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ 
   $x_k = g(x_{k-1})$ 
  stop if converged
end
```

Careful!

Automated root-finding implementations need to monitor progress and stop if necessary

- avoids over computation (convergence to unnecessary accuracy)
- can look at to successive iterates to see if there's a stall
- can monitor the exact goal: $f(x) = 0$



Example

Consider

$$x - x^{1/3} - 2 = 0$$

How to write $x = g(x)$?



Example

Consider

$$x - x^{1/3} - 2 = 0$$

How to write $x = g(x)$?

rearrange

$$x_{k+1} = g_1(x_k) = x_k^{1/3} + 2$$



Example

Consider

$$x - x^{1/3} - 2 = 0$$

How to write $x = g(x)$?

rearrange

$$x_{k+1} = g_1(x_k) = x_k^{1/3} + 2$$

rearrange

$$x_{k+1} = g_2(x_k) = (x_k - 2)^3$$



Example

Consider

$$x - x^{1/3} - 2 = 0$$

How to write $x = g(x)$?

rearrange

$$x_{k+1} = g_1(x_k) = x_k^{1/3} + 2$$

rearrange

$$x_{k+1} = g_2(x_k) = (x_k - 2)^3$$

more later...

$$x_{k+1} = g_3(x_k) = \frac{6 + 2x^{1/3}}{3 - x^{-2/3}}$$