

## Lecture 2: Solution of transcendental equations

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*Note: this lecture covers material useful for the introductory project*

<http://www.maths.cam.ac.uk/undergrad/catam/part-ia-lectures>

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## Basic idea

Given a continuous function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , we want to solve

$$f(x) = 0$$

(the relevant cases are those without any closed form solution, eg  $f(x) = e^x - 4x$ , etc...)

*Iterative approach:* We are going to compute a sequence  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots$  such that as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$x_n \rightarrow x_*, \quad \text{with} \quad f(x_*) = 0$$

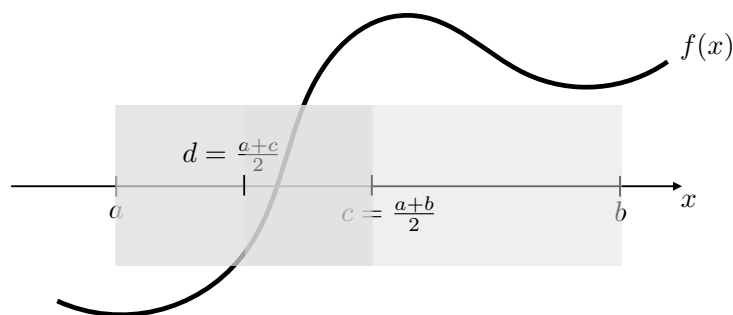
As the algorithm proceeds, we accumulate information, which can be used in computation of the rest of the sequence.

Eg, in some simple methods  $x_n = g(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2})$  for some function  $g$  (which is sometimes called the *iteration rule*).

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## Bisection method -- key idea

(also known as interval halving or binary search)



$f(x)$  changes sign between  $a$  and  $b$ , and  $f(x)$  is continuous, hence there is a root between  $a$  and  $b$  (intermediate value thm.)

$f(x)$  changes sign between  $a$  and  $c$ , there is a root between  $a$  and  $c$

Compute  $d = \frac{a+c}{2}$  and repeat...

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## Bisection method -- algorithm

Given: a function  $f$  and two numbers  $a, b$  such that  $f(a)f(b) < 0$  and  $a < b$ .

Let  $a_0 = a$  and  $b_0 = b$ . Let  $k = 0$ .

Iterate the following loop for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

There is surely a root in  $[a_k, b_k]$

Compute  $c_k = \frac{a_k + b_k}{2}$  and  $f(c_k)$ .

If  $f(b_k)f(c_k) > 0$  then let  $(a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}) = (a_k, c_k)$ ,

otherwise let  $(a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}) = (c_k, b_k)$

After  $n$  iterations, we know that there is a root in  $[a_n, b_n]$  which is an interval of size  $2^{-n}(b - a)$

The sequence  $c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots$  converges to a root of  $f$

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## Bisection method

There is a root  $x^*$  such that

$$|c_n - x^*| \leq 2^{-(n+1)}(b - a)$$

**Efficiency / complexity:** to be sure that  $|c_n - x^*| < \zeta$ , we insist that  $|c_n - x^*| \leq 2^{-(n+1)}(b - a) < \zeta$ , which requires

$$n > \frac{1}{\ln 2} \ln \left( \frac{b - a}{\zeta} \right) - 1$$

Loosely speaking, “complexity” is  $O(\ln(1/\zeta))$ .  
... see also rate/order of convergence (later)

Notes: (i) we need a suitable initial pair  $(a_0, b_0)$ ; (ii) we always find one root but we don't know about other possible roots

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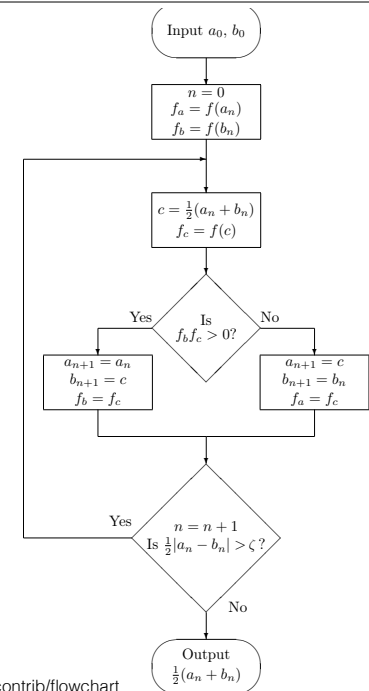
## Flowcharts

Before writing your program...  
... one way to check that an algorithm makes sense is to construct a flow chart

You can see the "loops", and you can check the possible sequences of operations that the algorithm will require

It's often a good idea to check that the system will not get stuck in an infinite loop...

Wikipedia's page on flowcharts  
<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flowchart>  
Package for creating flowcharts in LaTeX  
<http://www.ctan.org/tex-archive/graphics/pgf/contrib/flowchart>



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## Code and pseudocode

Pseudocode is a way to sketch out programs without worrying about the details of : ; ~, etc

Pseudocode for bisection

Fix some  $\zeta$  and a suitable  $a, b$

loop over  $n$ , until  $0.5|b - a| < \zeta$  :

```

    set  $c = 0.5(a + b)$ 
    if  $f(b)*f(c) > 0$ 
        set  $b = c$ 
    else
        set  $a = c$ 
    end if
end loop

```

estimate root as  $0.5(a+b)$

MATLAB code

```

zeta = 1e-7;
a = 0.0; b = 1.0;

while abs(b - a)/2 > zeta
    c = (a+b)/2;
    if f(b)*f(c) > 0
        b = c;
    else
        a = c;
    end
end

estRoot = (a+b)/2

```

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## MATLAB implementation

```

% set f to be a (mathematical) function
% (not the same as a MATLAB function...)
f = @(x) exp(x)-4*x;
% plot the function
fplot( f, [0,1] )

% now we aim to solve exp(x)-4x == 0
% to 6 decimal places
zeta = 1e-7;
a = 0.0; b = 1;

while abs(b - a)/2 > zeta
    c = (a+b)/2;
    if f(b)*f(c) > 0
        b = c;
    else
        a = c;
    end
end

estRoot = (a+b)/2

% check that f(estRoot) is indeed small
display( f(estRoot) )

```

Example: root\_simple.m

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# MATLAB function

```
function [ root ] = binarySearch( func, xlow, xhigh, tol )
%binarySearch method to find root of a function (called func)
% the output is root, initial guesses xlow and xhigh
% the tolerance (tol) is such that there is a root between
% xroot(1+tol) and xroot(1-tol), this is "relative error"
% (see lecture 3)

% Use this to solve exp(x) - 4x == 0 by running
% binarySearch( @(x) exp(x)-4*x, 0,1, 1e-7)

a=xlow;
b=xhigh;

while abs(b - a)/2 > tol*abs(a+b)/2
    c = (a+b)/2;

    if func(b)*func(c) > 0
        b = c;
    else
        a = c;
    end
end % of the "while loop"

root = (a+b)/2;
end % of the function
```

Example: binarySearch.m

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# Bisection method

## Good points

Always finds a root (for any continuous function)

Even for finite  $n$ , we know that there is definitely a root in  $[a_n, b_n]$ .

## Non-good points

Requires a suitable initial interval

... can't find double roots, eg no suitable interval if  $f(x) = (x - 1)^2$

Other methods may converge faster

## General caveat about root finding

We want to solve  $f(x) = 0$ .

... but even if  $|x_n - x_*| < \zeta$ , we might still have  $|f(x_n)|$  quite large (especially if  $f'(x_*)$  is large, or does not exist...)

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# A note on efficiency

You can see that binarySearch evaluates both  $f(c)$  and  $f(b)$  in each iteration

At step  $n$ , the value of  $f(b_n)$  has already been calculated (in a previous step)

If we keep track of this, we can reduce the computational effort.

If evaluating the function  $f$  is expensive then this can reduce the time to find the root by up to a factor of 2

Replace the while loop in binarySearch by:

```
fb = func(b);
while abs(b - a)/2 > tol*abs(a+b)/2
    c = (a+b)/2;
    fc = func(c);

    if fb*fc > 0
        b = c;
        fb = fc;
    else
        a = c; % (fb stays the same)
    end
end % of the "while loop"
```

Example: binarySearchV2.m , binaryTest.m

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# Order of convergence

We want to characterise the efficiency of our algorithms.

Define

$$\delta_n = x_n - x_*$$

We say that the *order of convergence* is  $p$  if we can find constants  $p \geq 1$  and  $c$  such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|\delta_{n+1}|}{|\delta_n|^p} = c$$

(if  $p = 1$  then we require  $c < 1$ )

The *asymptotic error constant* is  $c$

Algorithms with larger  $p$  converge faster, as long as  $c$  is not too large/small.

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## Order of convergence

An alternative definition is that the order of convergence is  $p$  if there is a sequence  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  such that  $|\delta_n| < y_n$  for all  $n$  and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|y_{n+1}|}{|y_n|^p} \leq c$$

Using this definition, it is easy to analyse the bisection method: we have  $y_n = 2^{-n-1}(b_0 - a_0)$  so that  $p = 1$  and  $c = 1/2$ .

The case  $p = 1$  is called *linear convergence*, while  $p = 2$  is quadratic convergence, etc

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## Order of convergence -- efficiency

Suppose we require  $|\delta_n| < \zeta$ . How many iterations are needed?

Assume that  $|\delta_{n+1}| \leq c|\delta_n|^p$  for all  $n$ .

(This is a bit stronger than just having order of convergence  $p$ .)

For  $p = 1$  we must have  $c < 1$ ; then  $|\delta_n| \leq c^n |\delta_0|$ .

As before (for bisection) insist that  $|\delta_n| \leq c^n |\delta_0| < \zeta$

This requires

$$n > \frac{\log(|\delta_0|/\zeta)}{\log(1/c)}$$

... can think of this as  $O(\log(1/\zeta))$  but one would usually just quote the order of convergence (linear in this case).

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## Order of convergence

For  $p > 1$  we have:

$$|\delta_n| < c^{\frac{p^n - 1}{p - 1}} |\delta_0|^{p^n}$$

Assuming  $n \gg 1$ , we get  $|\delta_n| < (1/\zeta)$  if

$$n \gtrsim \frac{1}{\log p} \log \left[ \frac{\log(1/\zeta)}{\log(1/|\delta_0|) + (p - 1)^{-1} \log(1/c)} \right]$$

The number of iterations grows as  $\log \log(1/\zeta)$  – few iterations are needed even for very small  $\zeta$

Again the order of convergence characterises the efficiency of the algorithm, this is better than writing  $O(\log \log(1/\zeta))$

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## Secant method

An alternative method for root-finding:

Given two points  $x_0, x_1$  (not necessarily with  $f(x_0)f(x_1) < 0$ ):

Iterate  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  and compute

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \left[ \frac{x_n - x_{n-1}}{f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})} \right] f(x_n)$$

Unlike bisection, the resulting sequence is *not guaranteed* to converge to a root of  $f$

However, for “nice enough” functions  $f$ , it does converge to a root. In this case, the order of convergence is (usually)  $p = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2 \approx 1.6$

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## Secant vs bisection

### Good points for bisection

Always finds a root (for any continuous function)

Even for finite  $n$ , we know that there is definitely a root in  $[a_n, b_n]$ .

### Good points for secant

Does not require a suitable initial interval

Often converges faster than bisection

### Common trade-offs...

Prior information (eg initial interval) helps to guarantee convergence

Faster methods (eg secant) may not guarantee convergence but are useful in those cases where they work...

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## Termination criteria

Remember, at stage  $n$ , bisection guarantees that  $a_n \leq x^* \leq b_n$

This means that we can specify the tolerance  $\zeta$  required for our estimate, and stop our computation once  $|b_n - a_n| < \zeta$

In the secant method, we get an estimate for  $x^*$  but we don't get exact upper/lower bounds.

How do we know when our estimate is “good enough”?

Mathematics can't answer this question, we need to define “good enough”

Typically, one would fix some  $\xi$  and stop when  $|f(x_n)| < \xi$  or  $|x_{n+1} - x_n| < \xi$ . Of course,  $|x_n - x^*|$  might still be large, depending on the function

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## Introductory project

- Based on this lecture
- Published online after exams
- Not submitted to Maths Faculty (no marks for it)
- Opportunity to try a full project (computing + write-up) and get feedback from a supervisor
- Model answer published in Michaelmas term

**Now:** introduce the main mathematical idea(s)

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## Fixed point iteration

(or Picard iteration)

As before we want to solve  $f(x) = 0$ .

Rewrite this equation as  $x = g(x)$  for some  $g$   
(of course there are many ways to do this)

Choose some  $x_0$ , iterate  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  and compute  $x_n = g(x_{n-1})$

If  $f(x^*) = 0$  then  $g(x^*) = x^*$  so the root  $x^*$  is a fixed point of this iteration scheme. . . can use this method to search for roots

This is a very simple scheme but of course there is no guarantee that the sequence  $x_0, x_1, \dots$  will converge to a fixed point

What would be a sensible choice for  $g$ ?

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## Newton-Raphson iteration

A nice example is

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

(For reasonable functions,  $g(x) = x$  implies  $f(x) = 0$ )

Hence we can iterate as

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

No guarantee of convergence but for a (sufficiently nice) class of functions and suitable initial points  $x_0$ , can prove quadratic convergence (order  $p = 2$ ).

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## In-built routines

MATLAB has built-in routines for finding roots

```
>> help fzero
[...]  
  
>> fzero( @(x) x^2 - cosh(x), 1.0)  
ans = 1.621347946103253  
  
>> fsolve( @(x) exp(x) - 4*x , 0.0 )  
[...]
```

"In real life", you would always use a built-in routine instead of writing your own. They are efficient, reliable, etc

However, for CATAM projects, we ask you to write your own code and not to use built-in routines (unless they have been approved by CATAM)

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## In-built routines

From the introduction to the project manuals:

- As a rule of thumb, do not use a built-in function if there is no equivalent MATLAB routine that has been approved for use, **or if use of the built-in function would make the programming considerably easier than intended**. For example, use of a command to test whether an integer is prime would not be allowed in a project which required you to write a program to find prime numbers. The **CATAM Helpline** (see §4 below) can give clarification in specific cases.

The reason is (of course) is that solving relatively simple problems will *help you to learn* how to design and implement computer programs

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## Next...

... how do computers manipulate numbers, and what implications does this have for mathematics?

... important for all CATAM projects

<http://www.maths.cam.ac.uk/undergrad/catam/part-ia-lectures>

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