# Math 4329: Numerical Analysis Chapter 03: Fixed Point Iteration and III behaving problems 

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## Why another root finding technique?

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■ Fixed Point iteration gives us the freedom to design our own root finding algorithm.
■ The design of such algorithms is motivated by the need to improve the speed and accuracy of the convergence of the sequence of iterates $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$.

- In this lecture, we will explore several algorithms for a given root finding problem and evaluate the convergence of each algorithm. Furthermore, we will look into the mathematical theory behind what makes certain methods converge.


## Basic Idea Behind Fixed Point Iteration

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■ What is a fixed point?
$\alpha$ is a fixed point of $g(x)$ provided $g(\alpha)=\alpha$.

Here, $\alpha$ is being "fixed" by $g(x)$ since it maps it to itself.

The root finding problem $\rightarrow$ fixed point finding problem.

$$
f(x)=0 \rightarrow \underbrace{f(x)+x}_{g(x)}=x
$$

## Towards the Design of Fixed Point Iteration

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Consider the root finding problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}-5=0 \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

Clearly the root is $\sqrt{5} \approx 2.2361$.
We consider the following 4 methods/formulas M1-M4 for generating the sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$ and check for their convergence.
M1:

$$
x_{n+1}=5+x_{n}-x_{n}^{2}
$$

How? Multiply ( ${ }^{*}$ ) by -1 and add $x$ to both sides, then the root finding problem $\left(^{*}\right)$ is transformed into the problem of finding the root of

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=g(x) \text { with } g(x)=x-x^{2}+5 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Towards the Design of Fixed Point Iteration

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Consider the root finding problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}-5=0 \tag{}
\end{equation*}
$$

M2:

$$
x_{n+1}=\frac{5}{x_{n}}
$$

How? Add 5 to both sides of $\left({ }^{*}\right)$ and divide both sides by $x$, then the root finding problem (*) is transformed into the problem of finding the root of

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=g(x) \text { with } g(x)=\frac{5}{x} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

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Consider the root finding problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}-5=0 \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

M3:

$$
x_{n+1}=1+x_{n}-\frac{x_{n}^{2}}{5}
$$

How? Multiply (*) by -1 , divide by 5 and add $x$ to both sides, then the root finding problem $\left(^{*}\right)$ is transformed into the problem of finding the root of

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=g(x) \text { with } g(x)=1+x-\frac{x^{2}}{5} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Towards the Design of Fixed Point Iteration

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Consider the root finding problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}-5=0 \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

M4:

$$
x_{n+1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(x_{n}+\frac{5}{x_{n}}\right)
$$

How? (Try it out yourself!)
The root finding problem (*) is transformed into the problem of finding the root of

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=g(x) \text { with } g(x)=\frac{1}{2}\left(x+\frac{5}{x}\right) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Towards the Design of Fixed Point Iteration

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Underlying Motivation for the algorithm design: $x=g(x)$.

## Performance of the 4 methods

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|  | M1 | M2 | M3 | M4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| n | $x_{n+1}: 5+x_{n}-x_{n}^{2}$ | $5 x_{n}^{-1}$ | $1+x_{n}-\frac{x_{n}^{2}}{5}$ | $\frac{x_{n}+5 x_{n}^{-1}}{2}$ |
| 0 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.5 |
| 1 | 1.25 | 2.0 | 2.25 | 2.25 |
| 2 | 4.6875 | 2.5 | 2.2375 | 2.2361 |
| 3 | -12.2852 | 2.0 | 2.2362 | 2.2361 |
| $x_{n} \rightarrow \alpha$ | No | No | Yes | Yes |

Transformation of the root finding to the fixed point finding problem

$$
f(\alpha)=0 \rightarrow \alpha=g(\alpha)
$$

## What makes the convergence possible?

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## Theorem

Assume $g(x)$ and $g^{\prime}(x)$ are continuous for $c<x<d$ with the fixed point $\alpha \in(c, d)$. Suppose that

$$
\left|g^{\prime}(\alpha)\right|<1,
$$

then, any sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 0}$ generated by $x_{n+1}=g\left(x_{n}\right)$ converges to $\alpha$.

Exercise: Check which of the four methods satisfies the conditions for convergence.

## Convergence criterea for the four methods

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|  | M1 | M2 | M3 | M4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g(x)$ | $5+x-x^{2}$ | $5 x^{-1}$ | $1+x-\frac{x^{2}}{5}$ | $\frac{x+5 x^{-1}}{2}$ |
| $g^{\prime}(x)$ | $1-2 x$ | $-5 x^{-2}$ | $\frac{1-2 x}{5}$ | $\frac{1-5 x^{-2}}{2}$ |
| $g^{\prime}(\alpha)$ | $1-2 \sqrt{5} \approx-3.47$ | -1 | $\frac{1-2 \sqrt{5}}{5} \approx 0.11$ | 0 |
| $x_{n} \rightarrow \alpha$ | No | No | Yes | Yes |
| $g^{\prime \prime}(\alpha)$ |  |  |  | 0.44 |
| $x_{n} \rightarrow \alpha$ | No | No | Linear | Quad. |

Observe that M1 and M3 assume the following form:
M1: $x=x+c\left(x^{2}-5\right), \quad c=-1$.
M3: $x=x+c\left(x^{2}-5\right), \quad c=-1 / 5$.

## Design of Iterative Methods

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We saw four methods which derived by algebraic manipulations of $f(x)=0$ obtain the mathematically equivalent form $x=g(x)$.
In particular, we obtained a method to obtain a general class of fixed point iterative methods namely:
Transformation of the root finding to the fixed point finding problem

$$
f(x)=0 \rightarrow x=\underbrace{x+c f(x)}_{g(x)}
$$

where $c$ is a parameter that we can choose to guarantee the convergence.

## For what values of $c$ do we have convergence?

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Recall the root finding problem:

$$
f(x)=x^{2}-5
$$

and the corresponding fixed point problem is

$$
x=g(x) \text { with } g(x)=x+c f(x)
$$

Using the convergence criteria $\left|g^{\prime}(\alpha)\right|<1$, we have

$$
-1<1+2 c \alpha<1
$$

which simplifies to

$$
-0.4472 \approx-\frac{1}{\alpha}<c<0
$$

M1: $x=x+c\left(x^{2}-5\right), \quad c=-1$ outside $(-1 / \alpha, 0)!$.
M3: $x=x+c\left(x^{2}-5\right), \quad c=-1 / 5$ within $(-1 / \alpha, 0)$ !.
This explains why there is convergence for $M 3$ but not $M 1_{2}$

## Criterea for achieving higher order convergence

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## Theorem

Assume that $g$ is conitnuously differentiable in an interval $I_{\alpha}$ containing the fixed point $\alpha$ and

$$
g^{\prime}(\alpha)=g^{\prime \prime}(\alpha)=0 \cdots g^{(p-1)}(\alpha)=0, \quad p \geq 2
$$

Then, for $x_{0}$ close enough to $\alpha$,

$$
x_{n} \rightarrow \alpha
$$

and

$$
\left|\alpha-x_{n+1}\right| \leq c\left|\alpha-x_{n}\right|^{p}
$$

i.e., convergence is of order $p$.

## Remarks

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There are a number of reasons to perform theoretical error analyses of numerical method. We want to better understand the method,
1 when it will perform well,
2 when it will perform poorly, and perhaps,
3 when it may not work at all.
With a mathematical proof, we convinced ourselves of the correctness of a numerical method under precisely stated hypotheses on the problem being solved. Finally, we often can improve on the performance of a numerical method.

## III-behaving Problems

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We will examine two classes of problems for which the numerical root finding methods do not perform well. Often there is little that a numerical analyst can do to improve these problems, but one should be aware of their existence and of the reason for their ill-behavior.
We begin with functions that have a multiple root.

## III-behaving Problems: Multiple roots

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## Definition

Multiple Roots The root $\alpha$ of $f(x)$ is said to be of multiplicity $m$ if

$$
f(x)=(x-\alpha)^{m} h(x), h(\alpha) \neq 0
$$

for some continuous function $h(x)$ and positive integer $m$.
This means that

$$
f(\alpha)=f^{\prime}(\alpha)=\cdots f^{(m-1)}(\alpha)=0, \quad f^{(m)}(\alpha) \neq 0
$$

## Example 1:

$$
f(x)=(x-1)^{2}(x+2)
$$

has roots $\alpha=1$ with multiplicity 2 and $\alpha=-2$ is a simple root (with multiplicity 1 ).

## III-behaving Problems: Multiple roots

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## Example 2:

$$
f(x)=x^{3}-3 x^{2}+3 x-1
$$

has roots $\alpha=1$ with multiplicity 3 and

$$
\left.f(\alpha)=f^{\prime}(\alpha)=f^{(\prime \prime}(\alpha)=0, \quad f^{(\prime \prime \prime}\right)(\alpha) \neq 0 .
$$

## Example 3:

$$
f(x)=x^{2}\left[\frac{2 \sin ^{2}\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)}{x^{2}}\right]=x^{2} h(x)
$$

has roots $\alpha=0$ with multiplicity 2

## Numerical Evaluation of Multiple Roots

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1 When the Newton and secant methods are applied to the calculation of a multiple root, the convergence of $\alpha-x_{n}$ to zero is much slower than it would be for simple root.
2 There is a large interval of uncertainty as to where the root actually lies, because of the noise in evaluating $f(x)$.


Figure : $f(x)=x^{3}-3 x^{2}+3 x-1$ near $x=1$.

## Workout Example from Worksheet 05

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Apply Newton's Method to $f(x)=-x^{4}+3 x^{2}+2$ with starting guess $x_{0}=1$. Do we observe convergence?
Solution: No look at the sequence generated with the initial choice of $x_{0}$ :

$$
x_{1}=-1, \quad x_{2}=1, \quad x_{3}=1, \quad x_{4}=-1 \cdots .
$$

What happens if we change the choice of $x_{0}$ to 0 ?
Solution: Since $f^{\prime}(0)=0$, we are unable to apply Newton's Method.

$$
x_{1}=-1 \quad x_{2}=1 \quad x_{3}=1 \quad x_{4}=-1 \cdots
$$

## Workout Example from Worksheet 05

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Apply Secant's Method to $f(x)=-x^{4}+3 x^{2}+2$ with starting guess $x_{0}=0$ and $x_{1}=1$. Compute $x_{2}$ and $x_{3}$. Do we observe convergence?

Do it yourself in the class!

## Workout Example from Worksheet 06

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Consider the fixed point iteration

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{n+1}=5-(4+c) x_{n}+c x_{n}^{5} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

For some values of $c$, the iterations generated by the above formula converges to $\alpha=1$ provided $x_{0}$ is chosen sufficiently close to $\alpha$.

1 Identify the function $g(x)$ which characterizes the above fixed point iteration (5). [That is, the function $g(x)$ satisfying $x_{n+1}=g\left(x_{n}\right)$.]
2 Find the values of $c$ to ensure the convergence of the iterations generated by the above formula provided $x_{0}$ is chosen sufficiently close to $\alpha$.

3 For what values of $c$ is this convergence quadratic?

