Numerical Analysis I Solutions of Equations in One Variable

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Fall 2010



¹These slides are based on Prof. Tsung-Ming Huang(NTNU)'s original slides < => < ->

Bisection Method

- 2 Fixed-Point Iteration
- 3 Newton's method
- 4 Error analysis for iterative methods
- 5 Accelerating convergence

6 Zeros of polynomials and Müller's method



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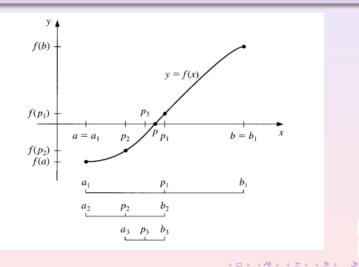
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Bisection Method

Idea

If $f(x) \in C[a, b]$ and f(a)f(b) < 0, then $\exists c \in (a, b)$ such that f(c) = 0.



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Bisection method algorithm

Given f(x) defined on (a, b), the maximal number of iterations M, and stop criteria δ and ε , this algorithm tries to locate one root of f(x).

Compute
$$fa = f(a)$$
, $fb = f(b)$, and $e = b - a$
If $sign(fa) = sign(fb)$, then stop End If
For $k = 1, 2, ..., M$
 $e = e/2, c = (a + b)/2, fc = f(c)$
If $(|e| < \delta$ or $|fc| < \varepsilon$), then stop End If
If $sign(fc) \neq sign(fa)$
 $b = c$, $fb = fc$
Else
 $a = c$, $fa = fc$
End If
End For

Let $\{c_n\}$ be the sequence of numbers produced. The algorithm should stop if one of the following conditions is satisfied.

1 the iteration number k > M,

2
$$|c_k - c_{k-1}| < \delta$$
, or

 $|f(c_k)| < \varepsilon.$

Let $[a_0, b_0], [a_1, b_1], \ldots$ denote the successive intervals produced by the bisection algorithm. Then

$$a = a_0 \le a_1 \le a_2 \le \dots \le b_0 = b$$

 $\Rightarrow \{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are bounded
 $\Rightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$ exist



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$$b_1 - a_1 = \frac{1}{2}(b_0 - a_0)$$

$$b_2 - a_2 = \frac{1}{2}(b_1 - a_1) = \frac{1}{4}(b_0 - a_0)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$b_n - a_n = \frac{1}{2^n}(b_0 - a_0)$$

hence

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n - \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} (b_n - a_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} (b_0 - a_0) = 0.$$

Therefore

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n=\lim_{n\to\infty}b_n\equiv z.$$

Since f is a continuous function, we have that

 $\lim_{n \to \infty} f(a_n) = f(\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n) = f(z) \text{ and } \lim_{n \to \infty} f(b_n) = f(\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n) = f(z)$

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$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} f(a_n)f(b_n) = f^2(z) \le 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(z) = 0$$

Therefore, the limit of the sequences $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ is a zero of f in [a, b]. Let $c_n = \frac{1}{2}(a_n + b_n)$. Then

$$|z - c_n| = \left| \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n - \frac{1}{2}(a_n + b_n) \right|$$

= $\left| \frac{1}{2} \left[\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n - b_n \right] + \frac{1}{2} \left[\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n - a_n \right] \right|$
 $\leq \max \left\{ \left| \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n - b_n \right|, \left| \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n - a_n \right| \right\}$
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This proves the following theorem.

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Theorem

Let $\{[a_n, b_n]\}$ denote the intervals produced by the bisection algorithm. Then $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$ exist, are equal, and represent a zero of f(x). If

$$z = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$$
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$$|z-c_n|\leq \frac{1}{2^n}\left(b_0-a_0\right).$$

Remark

 $\{c_n\}$ converges to z with the rate of $O(2^{-n})$.



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Example

How many steps should be taken to compute a root of $f(x) = x^3 + 4x^2 - 10 = 0$ on [1,2] with relative error 10^{-3} ?

solution: Seek an n such that

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Since $z \in [1, 2]$, it is sufficient to show

$$|z-c_n|\leq 10^{-3}.$$

That is, we solve

$$2^{-n}(2-1) \le 10^{-3} \Rightarrow -n \log_{10} 2 \le -3$$

which gives $n \ge 10$

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Fixed-Point Iteration

Definition

x is called a fixed point of a given function f if f(x) = x.

Root-finding problems and fixed-point problems

- Find x^* such that $f(x^*) = 0$. Let g(x) = x - f(x). Then $g(x^*) = x^* - f(x^*) = x^*$. $\Rightarrow x^*$ is a fixed point for g(x).
- Find x^* such that $g(x^*) = x^*$. Define f(x) = x - g(x) so that $f(x^*) = x^* - g(x^*) = x^* - x^* = 0$ $\Rightarrow x^*$ is a zero of f(x).



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Find x* such that f(x*) = 0. Let g(x) = x - f(x). Then g(x*) = x* - f(x*) = x*. ⇒ x* is a fixed point for g(x).
Find x* such that g(x*) = x*. Define f(x) = x - g(x) so that f(x*) = x* - g(x*) = x* - x* = 0

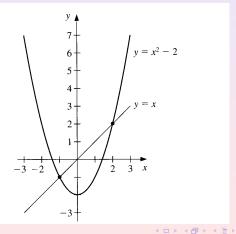
Define f(x) = x - g(x) so that $f(x^*) = x^* - g(x^*) = x^* - x^* = x^*$ is a zero of f(x).



Example

The function $g(x) = x^2 - 2$, for $-2 \le x \le 3$, has fixed points at x = -1and x = 2 since

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



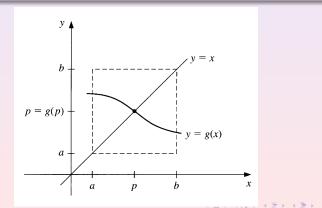
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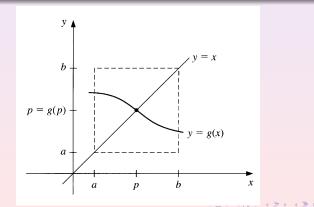
Theorem (Existence and uniqueness)

- If $g \in C[a, b]$ such that $a \leq g(x) \leq b$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then g has a fixed point in [a, b].
- If, in addition, g'(x) exists in (a, b) and there exists a positive constant M < 1 such that |g'(x)| ≤ M < 1 for all x ∈ (a, b). Then the fixed point is unique.



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Solutions of Equations in One Variable

Existence:

- If g(a) = a or g(b) = b, then a or b is a fixed point of g and we are done.
- Otherwise, it must be g(a) > a and g(b) < b. The function h(x) = g(x) x is continuous on [a, b], with

$$h(a) = g(a) - a > 0$$
 and $h(b) = g(b) - b < 0$.

By the Intermediate Value Theorem, $\exists x^* \in [a, b]$ such that $h(x^*) = 0$. That is

$$g(x^*) - x^* = 0 \implies g(x^*) = x^*.$$

Hence g has a fixed point x^* in [a, b].

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Existence:

- If g(a) = a or g(b) = b, then a or b is a fixed point of g and we are done.
- Otherwise, it must be g(a) > a and g(b) < b. The function h(x) = g(x) x is continuous on [a, b], with

$$h(a) = g(a) - a > 0$$
 and $h(b) = g(b) - b < 0$.

By the Intermediate Value Theorem, $\exists x^* \in [a, b]$ such that $h(x^*) = 0$. That is

$$g(x^*)-x^*=0 \Rightarrow g(x^*)=x^*.$$

Hence g has a fixed point x^* in [a, b].

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Uniqueness:

Suppose that $p \neq q$ are both fixed points of g in [a, b]. By the Mean-Value theorem, there exists ξ between p and q such that

$$g'(\xi) = rac{g(p) - g(q)}{p - q} = rac{p - q}{p - q} = 1.$$

However, this contradicts to the assumption that $|g'(x)| \le M < 1$ for all x in [a, b]. Therefore the fixed point of g is unique.



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Example

Show that the following function has a unique fixed point.

$$g(x) = (x^2 - 1)/3, \quad x \in [-1, 1].$$

Solution: The Extreme Value Theorem implies that

$$\min_{\substack{x \in [-1,1]\\ x \in [-1,1]}} g(x) = g(0) = -\frac{1}{3},$$
$$\max_{x \in [-1,1]} g(x) = g(\pm 1) = 0.$$

That is $g(x) \in [-1, 1], \forall x \in [-1, 1].$ Moreover, g is continuous and

$$|g'(x)| = \left|\frac{2x}{3}\right| \le \frac{2}{3}, \ \forall \ x \in (-1,1).$$

By above theorem, g has a unique fixed point in [-1, 1].

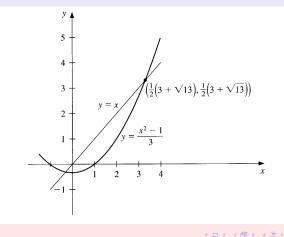


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Let p be such unique fixed point of g. Then

$$p = g(p) = rac{p^2 - 1}{3} \Rightarrow p^2 - 3p - 1 = 0$$

 $\Rightarrow p = rac{1}{2}(3 - \sqrt{13}).$



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Solutions of Equations in One Variable

 Fixed-point iteration or functional iteration

Given a continuous function g, choose an initial point x_0 and generate $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ by

$$x_{k+1}=g(x_k), \quad k\geq 0.$$

 $\{x_k\}$ may not converge, e.g., g(x) = 3x. However, when the sequence converges, say,

$$\lim_{k\to\infty}x_k=x^*,$$

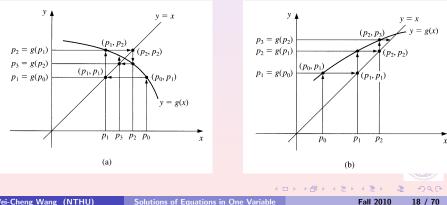
then, since g is continuous,

$$g(x^*) = g(\lim_{k \to \infty} x_k) = \lim_{k \to \infty} g(x_k) = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{k+1} = x^*.$$

That is, x^* is a fixed point of g.

Fixed-point iteration

Given x_0 , tolerance *TOL*, maximum number of iteration *M*. Set i = 1 and $x = g(x_0)$. While $i \leq M$ and $|x - x_0| \geq TOL$ Set i = i + 1, $x_0 = x$ and $x = g(x_0)$. End While



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Solutions of Equations in One Variable

Example

The equation

$$x^3 + 4x^2 - 10 = 0$$

has a unique root in [1,2]. Change the equation to the fixed-point form x = g(x).

(a)
$$x = g_1(x) \equiv x - f(x) = x - x^3 - 4x^2 + 10$$

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

$$x^{3} = 10 - 4x^{2} \Rightarrow x^{2} = \frac{10}{x} - 4x \Rightarrow x = \pm \left(\frac{10}{x} - 4x\right)^{1/2}$$

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

$$4x^2 = 10 - x^3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x = \pm \frac{1}{2} (10 - x^3)^{1/2}$$

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

$$x^{2}(x+4) = 10 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x = \pm \left(\frac{10}{4+x}\right)^{1/2}$$

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

$$x = g_5(x) \equiv x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$$



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Results of the fixed-point iteration with initial point $x_0 = 1.5$

п	<i>(a)</i>	<i>(b)</i>	(c)	(<i>d</i>)	(<i>e</i>)
0	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
1	-0.875	0.8165	1.286953768	1.348399725	1.373333333
2	6.732	2.9969	1.402540804	1.367376372	1.365262015
3	-469.7	$(-8.65)^{1/2}$	1.345458374	1.364957015	1.365230014
4	1.03×10^{8}	· · ·	1.375170253	1.365264748	1.365230013
5			1.360094193	1.365225594	
6			1.367846968	1.365230576	
7			1.363887004	1.365229942	
8			1.365916734	1.365230022	
9			1.364878217	1.365230012	
10			1.365410062	1.365230014	
15			1.365223680	1.365230013	
20			1.365230236		
25			1.365230006		
30			1.365230013		



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Theorem (Fixed-point Theorem)

Let $g \in C[a, b]$ be such that $g(x) \in [a, b]$ for all $x \in [a, b]$. Suppose that g' exists on (a, b) and that $\exists k$ with 0 < k < 1 such that

 $|g'(x)| \leq k, \ \forall \ x \in (a, b).$

Then, for any number x_0 in [a, b],

$$x_n = g(x_{n-1}), n \ge 1,$$

converges to the unique fixed point x in [a, b].



Proof: By the assumptions, a unique fixed point exists in [a, b]. Since $g([a, b]) \subseteq [a, b], \{x_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is defined and $x_n \in [a, b]$ for all $n \ge 0$. Using the Mean Values Theorem and the fact that $|g'(x)| \le k$, we have

$$|x - x_n| = |g(x_{n-1}) - g(x)| = |g'(\xi_n)||x - x_{n-1}| \le k|x - x_{n-1}|,$$

where $\xi_n \in (a, b)$. It follows that

$$|x_n - x| \le k |x_{n-1} - x| \le k^2 |x_{n-2} - x| \le \dots \le k^n |x_0 - x|. \tag{1}$$

Since 0 < k < 1, we have

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}k^n=0$$

and

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}|x_n-x|\leq \lim_{n\to\infty}k^n|x_0-x|=0.$$

Hence, $\{x_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges to x.



Corollary

If g satisfies the hypotheses of above theorem, then

$$|x-x_n| \le k^n \max\{x_0 - a, b - x_0\}$$

and

$$|x_n - x| \leq \frac{k^n}{1-k}|x_1 - x_0|, \ \forall \ n \geq 1.$$

Proof: From (1),

$$|x_n - x| \le k^n |x_0 - x| \le k^n \max\{x_0 - a, b - x_0\}.$$

For $n \ge 1$, using the Mean Values Theorem,

$$|x_{n+1} - x_n| = |g(x_n) - g(x_{n-1})| \le k|x_n - x_{n-1}| \le \cdots \le k^n|x_1 - x_0|$$



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Thus, for $m > n \ge 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} |x_m - x_n| &= |x_m - x_{m-1} + x_{m-1} - \dots + x_{n+1} - x_n| \\ &\leq |x_m - x_{m-1}| + |x_{m-1} - x_{m-2}| + \dots + |x_{n+1} - x_n| \\ &\leq k^{m-1} |x_1 - x_0| + k^{m-2} |x_1 - x_0| + \dots + k^n |x_1 - x_0| \\ &= k^n |x_1 - x_0| \left(1 + k + k^2 + \dots + k^{m-n-1}\right). \end{aligned}$$

It implies that

$$\begin{aligned} |x - x_n| &= \lim_{m \to \infty} |x_m - x_n| \le \lim_{m \to \infty} k^n |x_1 - x_0| \sum_{j=0}^{m-n-1} k^j \\ &\le k^n |x_1 - x_0| \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} k^j = \frac{k^n}{1 - k} |x_1 - x_0|. \end{aligned}$$



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Example

For previous example,
$$f(x) = x^3 + 4x^2 - 10 = 0$$
.

Let
$$g_1(x) = x - x^3 - 4x^2 + 10$$
, we have

$$g_1(1) = 6$$
 and $g_1(2) = -12$,

so $g_1([1,2]) \nsubseteq [1,2]$. Moreover,

$$g_1'(x) = 1 - 3x^2 - 8x \quad \Rightarrow \quad |g_1'(x)| \ge 1 \,\, \forall \,\, x \in [1, 2]$$

Convergence is NOT guaranteed. In fact, it almost for sure will not converge since when x_n is close to the solution x^* ,

$$|x_n - x^*| = |g_1(x_{n-1}) - g_1(x^*)| = |g_1'(c)(x_{n-1} - x^*)| > |x_{n-1} - x^*|.$$

The error is amplified whenever x_n is close to convergence. The only possibility for convergence is when x_n is far from x^* and (by chance, and very unlikely) that $g_1(x_n) = x^*$.

For
$$g_3(x) = \frac{1}{2}(10 - x^3)^{1/2}, \ \forall \ x \in [1, 1.5],$$

 $g_3'(x) = -\frac{3}{4}x^2(10 - x^3)^{-1/2} < 0, \ \forall \ x \in [1, 1.5],$

so g_3 is strictly decreasing on [1, 1.5] and

$$1 < 1.28 \approx g_3(1.5) \le g_3(x) \le g_3(1) = 1.5, \ \forall \ x \in [1, 1.5]$$

On the other hand,

$$|g'_3(x)| \le |g'_3(1.5)| \approx 0.66, \ \forall \ x \in [1, 1.5]$$

Hence, the sequence is convergent to the fixed point.



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For
$$g_4(x) = \sqrt{10/(4+x)}$$
, we have
 $\sqrt{\frac{10}{6}} \le g_4(x) \le \sqrt{\frac{10}{5}}, \ \forall \ x \in [1,2] \quad \Rightarrow \quad g_4([1,2]) \subseteq [1,2]$

Moreover,

$$|g_4'(x)| = \left|rac{-5}{\sqrt{10}(4+x)^{3/2}}
ight| \le rac{5}{\sqrt{10}(5)^{3/2}} < 0.15, \ orall \ x \in [1,2].$$

The bound of $|g'_4(x)|$ is much smaller than the bound of $|g'_3(x)|$, which explains the more rapid convergence using g_4 .



Newton's method

Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $f \in C^2[a, b]$, i.e., f'' exists and is continuous. If $f(x^*) = 0$ and $x^* = x + h$ where h is small, then by Taylor's theorem

$$0 = f(x^*) = f(x+h)$$

= $f(x) + f'(x)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x)h^2 + \frac{1}{3!}f'''(x)h^3 + \cdots$
= $f(x) + f'(x)h + O(h^2).$

Since *h* is small, $O(h^2)$ is negligible. It is reasonable to drop $O(h^2)$ terms. This implies

$$f(x) + f'(x)h \approx 0$$
 and $h \approx -\frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$, if $f'(x) \neq 0$.

Hence

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

is a better approximation to x^* .

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This sets the stage for the Newton-Raphson's method, which starts with an initial approximation x_0 and generates the sequence $\{x_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ defined by

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

Since the Taylor's expansion of f(x) at x_k is given by

$$f(x) = f(x_k) + f'(x_k)(x - x_k) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_k)(x - x_k)^2 + \cdots$$

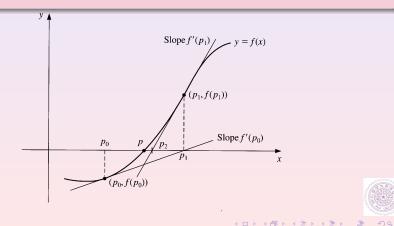
At x_k , one uses the tangent line

$$y = \ell(x) = f(x_k) + f'(x_k)(x - x_k)$$

to approximate the curve of f(x) and uses the zero of the tangent line to approximate the zero of f(x).

Newton's Method

Given x_0 , tolerance TOL, maximum number of iteration M. Set i = 1 and $x = x_0 - f(x_0)/f'(x_0)$. While $i \le M$ and $|x - x_0| \ge TOL$ Set i = i + 1, $x_0 = x$ and $x = x_0 - f(x_0)/f'(x_0)$. End While



Three stopping-technique inequalities

$$\begin{array}{ll} (a). & |x_n - x_{n-1}| < \varepsilon, \\ (b). & \frac{|x_n - x_{n-1}|}{|x_n|} < \varepsilon, \quad x_n \neq 0, \\ (c). & |f(x_n)| < \varepsilon. \end{array}$$

Note that Newton's method for solving f(x) = 0

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}, \quad \text{for} \quad n \ge 1$$

is just a special case of functional iteration in which

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

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Example

The following table shows the convergence behavior of Newton's method applied to solving $f(x) = x^2 - 1 = 0$. Observe the quadratic convergence rate.

п	X _n	$ e_n \equiv 1-x_n $
0	2.0	1
1	1.25	0.25
2	1.025	2.5e-2
3	1.0003048780488	3.048780488e-4
4	1.0000000464611	4.64611e-8
5	1.0	0



Theorem

Assume $f(x^*) = 0$, $f'(x^*) \neq 0$ and f(x), f'(x) and f''(x) are continuous on $N_{\varepsilon}(x^*)$. Then if x_0 is chosen sufficiently close to x^* , then

$$\left\{x_{n+1}=x_n-\frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}\right\}\to x^*.$$

Proof: Define

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

Find an interval $[x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$ such that

$$g([x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]) \subseteq [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$$

and

$$|g'(x)| \leq k < 1, \ \forall \ x \in (x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta).$$



Since f' is continuous and $f'(x^*) \neq 0$, it implies that $\exists \ \delta_1 > 0$ such that $f'(x) \neq 0 \ \forall \ x \in [x^* - \delta_1, x^* + \delta_1] \subseteq [a, b]$. Thus, g is defined and continuous on $[x^* - \delta_1, x^* + \delta_1]$. Also

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

for $x \in [x^* - \delta_1, x^* + \delta_1]$. Since f'' is continuous on [a, b], we have g' is continuous on $[x^* - \delta_1, x^* + \delta_1]$. By assumption $f(x^*) = 0$, so

$$g'(x^*) = rac{f(x^*)f''(x^*)}{|f'(x^*)|^2} = 0.$$

Since g' is continuous on $[x^* - \delta_1, x^* + \delta_1]$ and $g'(x^*) = 0$, $\exists \delta$ with $0 < \delta < \delta_1$ and $k \in (0, 1)$ such that

$$|g'(x)| \leq k, \ \forall \ x \in [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta].$$

Claim: $g([x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]) \subseteq [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$. If $x \in [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$, then, by the Mean Value Theorem, $\exists \xi$ between x and x^* such that

$$|g(x) - g(x^*)| = |g'(\xi)||x - x^*|.$$

It implies that

$$\begin{aligned} |g(x) - x^*| &= |g(x) - g(x^*)| = |g'(\xi)| |x - x^*| \\ &\leq k |x - x^*| < |x - x^*| < \delta. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $g([x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]) \subseteq [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$. By the Fixed-Point Theorem, the sequence $\{x_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ defined by

$$x_n = g(x_{n-1}) = x_{n-1} - \frac{f(x_{n-1})}{f'(x_{n-1})}, \text{ for } n \ge 1,$$

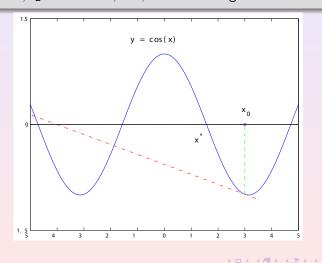
converges to x^* for any $x_0 \in [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$.



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Example

When Newton's method applied to $f(x) = \cos x$ with starting point $x_0 = 3$, which is close to the root $\frac{\pi}{2}$ of f, it produces $x_1 = -4.01525, x_2 = -4.8526, \cdots$, which converges to another root $-\frac{3\pi}{2}$.



Secant method

Disadvantage of Newton's method

In many applications, the derivative f'(x) is very expensive to compute, or the function f(x) is not given in an algebraic formula so that f'(x) is not available.

By definition,

$$f'(x_{n-1}) = \lim_{x \to x_{n-1}} \frac{f(x) - f(x_{n-1})}{x - x_{n-1}}.$$

Letting $x = x_{n-2}$, we have

$$f'(x_{n-1}) \approx \frac{f(x_{n-2}) - f(x_{n-1})}{x_{n-2} - x_{n-1}} = \frac{f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_{n-2})}{x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}}$$

Using this approximation for $f'(x_{n-1})$ in Newton's formula gives

$$x_n = x_{n-1} - \frac{f(x_{n-1})(x_{n-1} - x_{n-2})}{f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_{n-2})},$$

which is called the Secant method.

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From geometric point of view, we use a secant line through x_{n-1} and x_{n-2} instead of the tangent line to approximate the function at the point x_{n-1} . The slope of the secant line is

$$s_{n-1} = \frac{f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_{n-2})}{x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}}$$

and the equation is

$$M(x) = f(x_{n-1}) + s_{n-1}(x - x_{n-1}).$$

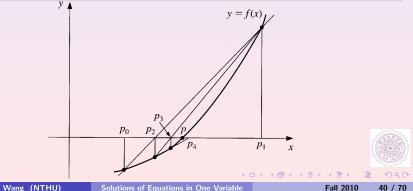
The zero of the secant line

$$x = x_{n-1} - \frac{f(x_{n-1})}{s_{n-1}} = x_{n-1} - f(x_{n-1})\frac{x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}}{f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_{n-2})}$$

is then used as a new approximate x_n .

Secant Method

Given x_0, x_1 , tolerance *TOL*, maximum number of iteration *M*. Set i = 2; $y_0 = f(x_0)$; $y_1 = f(x_1)$; $x = x_1 - v_1(x_1 - x_0)/(v_1 - v_0).$ While i < M and $|x - x_1| > TOL$ Set i = i + 1; $x_0 = x_1$; $y_0 = y_1$; $x_1 = x$; $y_1 = f(x)$; $x = x_1 - v_1(x_1 - x_0)/(v_1 - v_0).$ End While



• Choose initial approximations x_0 and x_1 with $f(x_0)f(x_1) < 0$.

$$2 x_2 = x_1 - f(x_1)(x_1 - x_0)/(f(x_1) - f(x_0))$$

Decide which secant line to use to compute x₃: If f(x₂)f(x₁) < 0, then x₁ and x₂ bracket a root, i.e.,

$$x_3 = x_2 - f(x_2)(x_2 - x_1)/(f(x_2) - f(x_1))$$

Else, x_0 and x_2 bracket a root, i.e.,

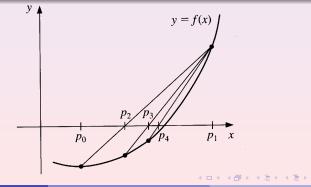
$$x_3 = x_2 - f(x_2)(x_2 - x_0)/(f(x_2) - f(x_0))$$

End if

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Method of False Position

Given x_0, x_1 , tolerance *TOL*, maximum number of iteration *M*. Set i = 2; $y_0 = f(x_0)$; $y_1 = f(x_1)$; $x = x_1 - y_1(x_1 - x_0)/(y_1 - y_0)$. While $i \le M$ and $|x - x_1| \ge TOL$ Set i = i + 1; y = f(x). If $y \cdot y_1 < 0$, then set $x_0 = x_1$; $y_0 = y_1$. Set $x_1 = x$; $y_1 = y$; $x = x_1 - y_1(x_1 - x_0)/(y_1 - y_0)$. End While



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Error analysis for iterative methods

Definition

Let $\{x_n\} \to x^*$. If there are positive constants *c* and α such that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{|x_{n+1}-x^*|}{|x_n-x^*|^{\alpha}}=c,$$

then we say the rate of convergence is of order α .

We say that the rate of convergence is

1 linear if
$$\alpha = 1$$
 and $0 < c < 1$.

2 superlinear if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{|x_{n+1} - x^*|}{|x_n - x^*|} = 0;$$

(a) quadratic if $\alpha = 2$.

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Suppose that $\{x_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $\{\tilde{x}_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ are linearly and quadratically convergent to x^* , respectively, with the same constant c = 0.5. For simplicity, suppose that

$$\frac{|x_{n+1}-x^*|}{|x_n-x^*|}\approx c \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{|\tilde{x}_{n+1}-x^*|}{|\tilde{x}_n-x^*|^2}\approx c.$$

These imply that

$$|x_n - x^*| \approx c |x_{n-1} - x^*| \approx c^2 |x_{n-2} - x^*| \approx \cdots \approx c^n |x_0 - x^*|$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} |\tilde{x}_{n} - x^{*}| &\approx c |\tilde{x}_{n-1} - x^{*}|^{2} \approx c \left[c |\tilde{x}_{n-2} - x^{*}|^{2} \right]^{2} &= c^{3} |\tilde{x}_{n-2} - x^{*}|^{4} \\ &\approx c^{3} \left[c |\tilde{x}_{n-3} - x^{*}|^{2} \right]^{4} &= c^{7} |\tilde{x}_{n-3} - x^{*}|^{8} \\ &\approx \cdots \approx c^{2^{n}-1} |\tilde{x}_{0} - x^{*}|^{2^{n}}. \end{aligned}$$

Remark

Quadratically convergent sequences generally converge much more quickly than those that converge only linearly.

Theorem

Let $g \in C[a, b]$ with $g([a, b]) \subseteq [a, b]$. Suppose that g' is continuous on (a, b) and $\exists k \in (0, 1)$ such that

 $|g'(x)| \leq k, \ \forall \ x \in (a, b).$

If $g'(x^*) \neq 0$, then for any $x_0 \in [a, b]$, the sequence

$$x_n = g(x_{n-1}), \text{ for } n \geq 1$$

converges only linearly to the unique fixed point x^* in [a, b].

Proof:

- By the Fixed-Point Theorem, the sequence $\{x_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges to x^* .
- Since g' exists on (a, b), by the Mean Value Theorem, $\exists \xi_n$ between x_n and x^* such that

$$x_{n+1} - x^* = g(x_n) - g(x^*) = g'(\xi_n)(x_n - x^*).$$

- :: $\{x_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \to x^* \quad \Rightarrow \quad \{\xi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \to x^*$
- Since g' is continuous on (a, b), we have

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}g'(\xi_n)=g'(x^*).$$

Thus,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{|x_{n+1}-x^*|}{|x_n-x^*|} = \lim_{n\to\infty}|g'(\xi_n)| = |g'(x^*)|.$$

Hence, if $g'(x^*) \neq 0$, fixed-point iteration exhibits linear convergence.

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Theorem

Let x^* be a fixed point of g and I be an open interval with $x^* \in I$. Suppose that $g'(x^*) = 0$ and g'' is continuous with

$$|g''(x)| < M, \ \forall \ x \in I.$$

Then $\exists \delta > 0$ such that

$$\{x_n = g(x_{n-1})\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \to x^* \text{ for } x_0 \in [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$$

at least quadratically. Moreover,

$$|x_{n+1}-x^*| < \frac{M}{2}|x_n-x^*|^2$$
, for sufficiently large n.



Proof:

- Since $g'(x^*) = 0$ and g' is continuous on I, $\exists \delta$ such that $[x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta] \subset I$ and $|g'(x)| \le k < 1, \ \forall x \in [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta].$
- In the proof of the convergence for Newton's method, we have

$$\{x_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \subset [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta].$$

• Consider the Taylor expansion of $g(x_n)$ at x^*

$$\begin{aligned} x_{n+1} &= g(x_n) &= g(x^*) + g'(x^*)(x_n - x^*) + \frac{g''(\xi)}{2}(x_n - x^*)^2 \\ &= x^* + \frac{g''(\xi)}{2}(x_n - x^*)^2, \end{aligned}$$

where ξ lies between x_n and x^* .

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Since

$$|g'(x)| \leq k < 1, \; orall \; x \in [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$$

and

$$g([x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]) \subseteq [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta],$$

it follows that $\{x_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges to x^* .

• But ξ_n is between x_n and x^* for each n, so $\{\xi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ also converges to x^* and

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{|x_{n+1}-x^*|}{|x_n-x^*|^2}=\frac{|g''(x^*)|}{2}<\frac{M}{2}.$$

• It implies that $\{x_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ is quadratically convergent to x^* if $g''(x^*) \neq 0$ and

$$|x_{n+1}-x^*| < \frac{M}{2}|x_n-x^*|^2$$
, for sufficiently large n .

Example

Recall that Newton's method $x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$ corresponds to $g(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$. Suppose that f(x) has a m-fold root at x^* , that is

$$f(x) = (x - x^*)^m q(x), \qquad q(x^*) \neq 0.$$

Let $\mu(x) = \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)} = (x - x^*) \frac{q(x)}{mq(x) + (x - x^*)q'(x)}$, it is easy to see that $\mu'(x^*) = \frac{1}{m}$. It follows that $0 \le g'(x_*) = 1 - \frac{1}{m} < 1$. Hence Newton's method is locally convergent. Moreover, it converges quadratically for simple roots (m = 1) and linearly for multiple roots (m > 1).

Remedy for slow convergence on multiple roots (m > 1):

- If *m* is known, take $x_{n+1} = x_n \frac{mf(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$.
- If *m* is not known, take $x_{n+1} = x_n \frac{\mu(x_n)}{\mu'(x_n)}$, since $\mu(x) = \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)} = \frac{O(x-x^*)^m}{O(x-x^*)^{m-1}} = O(x-x^*)$ always has a simple root at

 x^* for any $m \ge 1$. This is known as modified Newton's method.

Global Convergence for Convex (Concave) Functions

Theorem

If $f \in C^2$, f'' > 0 and f(x) = 0 has a root, then Newton's method always converges to a root x^* for any initial x_0 .

Proof:

If suffices to consider the case where f' > 0, f'' > 0 and f(x) = 0 has a root. In this case, the root x^* is unique.

(Later).

The proof for other cases

- f' < 0, f'' > 0, f(x) = 0 has a root.
- f'' > 0, has two distinct roots.
- f'' > 0, has a double root.

are similar. So is the concave case (f'' < 0).

Alternative Error Estimate for Newton's Method



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Error Analysis of Secant Method

Reference: D. Kincaid and W. Cheney, "Numerical analysis" Let x^* denote the exact solution of f(x) = 0, $e_k = x_k - x^*$ be the errors at the *k*-th step. Then

$$\begin{aligned} e_{k+1} &= x_{k+1} - x^* \\ &= x_k - f(x_k) \frac{x_k - x_{k-1}}{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})} - x^* \\ &= \frac{1}{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})} \left[(x_{k-1} - x^*) f(x_k) - (x_k - x^*) f(x_{k-1}) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})} \left(e_{k-1} f(x_k) - e_k f(x_{k-1}) \right) \\ &= e_k e_{k-1} \left(\frac{\frac{1}{e_k} f(x_k) - \frac{1}{e_{k-1}} f(x_{k-1})}{x_k - x_{k-1}} \cdot \frac{x_k - x_{k-1}}{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})} \right) \end{aligned}$$

To estimate the numerator $\frac{\frac{1}{e_k}f(x_k) - \frac{1}{e_{k-1}}f(x_k)}{x_k - x_{k-1}}$, we apply the Taylor's theorem

$$f(x_k) = f(x^* + e_k) = f(x^*) + f'(x^*)e_k + \frac{1}{2}f''(x^*)e_k^2 + O(e_k^3),$$

to get

$$\frac{1}{e_k}f(x_k) = f'(x^*) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x^*)e_k + O(e_k^2).$$

Similarly,

$$\frac{1}{e_{k-1}}f(x_{k-1}) = f'(x^*) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x^*)e_{k-1} + O(e_{k-1}^2).$$

Hence

$$\frac{1}{e_k}f(x_k) - \frac{1}{e_{k-1}}f(x_{k-1}) \approx \frac{1}{2}(e_k - e_{k-1})f''(x^*).$$

Since $x_k - x_{k-1} = e_k - e_{k-1}$ and

$$\frac{x_k - x_{k-1}}{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})} \to \frac{1}{f'(x^*)}$$

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we have

$$e_{k+1} \approx e_k e_{k-1} \left(\frac{\frac{1}{2} (e_k - e_{k-1}) f''(x^*)}{e_k - e_{k-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{f'(x^*)} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{f''(x^*)}{f'(x^*)} e_k e_{k-1}$$

$$\equiv C e_k e_{k-1}$$
(2)

To estimate the convergence rate, we assume

 $|\mathbf{e}_{k+1}| \approx \eta |\mathbf{e}_k|^{\alpha},$

where $\eta > 0$ and $\alpha > 0$ are constants, i.e.,

$$rac{|e_{k+1}|}{\eta |e_k|^lpha}
ightarrow 1 \quad {
m as} \quad k
ightarrow \infty.$$

Then $|e_k| \approx \eta |e_{k-1}|^{\alpha}$ which implies $|e_{k-1}| \approx \eta^{-1/\alpha} |e_k|^{1/\alpha}$. Hence (2) gives

$$\eta |e_k|^{lpha} pprox C |e_k| \eta^{-1/lpha} |e_k|^{1/lpha} \implies C^{-1} \eta^{1+rac{1}{lpha}} pprox |e_k|^{1-lpha+rac{1}{lpha}}$$

Since $|e_k| \to 0$ as $k \to \infty$, and $C^{-1} \eta^{1+\frac{1}{\alpha}}$ is a nonzero constant,

$$1 - \alpha + \frac{1}{\alpha} = 0 \implies \alpha = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.62.$$

This result implies that $C^{-1}\eta^{1+rac{1}{lpha}}
ightarrow 1$ and

$$\eta \to C^{\frac{\alpha}{1+\alpha}} = \left(\frac{f''(x^*)}{2f'(x^*)}\right)^{0.62}$$

In summary, we have shown that

$$|\mathbf{e}_{k+1}| = \eta |\mathbf{e}_k|^{\alpha}, \quad \alpha \approx 1.62,$$

that is, the rate of convergence is superlinear. Rate of convergence:

- secant method: superlinear
- Newton's method: quadratic
- bisection method: linear



Each iteration of method requires

- secant method: one function evaluation
- Newton's method: two function evaluation, namely, f(xk) and f'(xk).
 ⇒ two steps of secant method are comparable to one step of Newton's method. Thus

$$|e_{k+2}| \approx \eta |e_{k+1}|^{\alpha} \approx \eta^{1+\alpha} |e_k|^{\frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2}} \approx \eta^{1+\alpha} |e_k|^{2.62}.$$

 \Rightarrow secant method is more efficient than Newton's method.

Remark

Two steps of secant method would require a little more work than one step of Newton's method.



Accelerating convergence

Aitken's Δ^2 method

- Accelerate the convergence of a sequence that is linearly convergent.
- Suppose {y_n}[∞]_{n=0} is a linearly convergent sequence with limit y. Construct {ŷ_n}[∞]_{n=0} that converges more rapidly to y than {y_n}[∞]_{n=0}.

For n sufficiently large,

$$\frac{y_{n+1}-y}{y_n-y}\approx\frac{y_{n+2}-y}{y_{n+1}-y}.$$

Then

$$(y_{n+1}-y)^2 \approx (y_{n+2}-y)(y_n-y),$$

SO

$$y_{n+1}^2 - 2y_{n+1}y + y^2 \approx y_{n+2}y_n - (y_{n+2} + y_n)y + y^2$$



 and

$$(y_{n+2}+y_n-2y_{n+1})y \approx y_{n+2}y_n-y_{n+1}^2.$$

Solving for y gives

$$y \approx \frac{y_{n+2}y_n - y_{n+1}^2}{y_{n+2} - 2y_{n+1} + y_n}$$

= $\frac{y_ny_{n+2} - 2y_ny_{n+1} + y_n^2 - y_n^2 + 2y_ny_{n+1} - y_{n+1}^2}{y_{n+2} - 2y_{n+1} + y_n}$
= $\frac{y_n(y_{n+2} - 2y_{n+1} + y_n) - (y_{n+1} - y_n)^2}{(y_{n+2} - y_{n+1}) - (y_{n+1} - y_n)}$
= $y_n - \frac{(y_{n+1} - y_n)^2}{(y_{n+2} - y_{n+1}) - (y_{n+1} - y_n)}.$

Aitken's Δ^2 method

$$\hat{y}_n = y_n - \frac{(y_{n+1} - y_n)^2}{(y_{n+2} - y_{n+1}) - (y_{n+1} - y_n)}.$$
(3)

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Example

The sequence $\{y_n = \cos(\frac{1}{n})\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges linearly to y = 1.

п	Уn	en	ŷn	ên
1	0.54030	0.45969	0.96178	0.03822
2	0.87758	0.12242	0.98213	0.01787
3	0.94496	0.05504	0.98979	0.01021
4	0.96891	0.03109	0.99342	0.00658
5	0.98007	0.01993	0.99541	0.00459
6	0.98614	0.01386		
7	0.98981	0.01019		

• $\{\hat{y}_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges more rapidly to y = 1 than $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$.



Definition

For a given sequence $\{y_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$, the forward difference Δy_n is defined by

$$\Delta y_n = y_{n+1} - y_n$$
, for $n \ge 0$.

Higher powers of Δ are defined recursively by

$$\Delta^k y_n = \Delta(\Delta^{k-1} y_n), \quad \text{for} \ k \ge 2.$$

The definition implies that

$$\Delta^2 y_n = \Delta(y_{n+1} - y_n) = \Delta y_{n+1} - \Delta y_n = (y_{n+2} - y_{n+1}) - (y_{n+1} - y_n).$$

So the formula for \hat{y}_n in (3) can be written as

$$\hat{y}_n = y_n - rac{(\Delta y_n)^2}{\Delta^2 y_n}, \quad ext{for} \quad n \geq 0.$$

Theorem

Suppose $\{y_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \to y$ linearly and $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{y_{n+1} - y}{y_n - y} < 1.$ Then $\{\hat{y}_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \to y$ faster than $\{y_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ in the sense that $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\hat{y}_n - y}{y_n - y} = 0.$

• Aitken's Δ^2 method constructs the terms in order:

$$y_0$$
, $y_1 = g(y_0)$, $y_2 = g(y_1)$, $\hat{y}_0 = \{\Delta^2\}(y_0)$, $y_3 = g(y_2)$,
 $\hat{y}_1 = \{\Delta^2\}(y_1)$,

Based on the assumption that $|\hat{y}_0 - y| < |y_2 - y|$, $|\hat{y}_1 - y| < |y_3 - y|$, etc.

• Steffensen's method constructs the terms in order:

$$\begin{aligned} y_0^{(0)} &\equiv y_0, \qquad y_1^{(0)} = g(y_0^{(0)}), \quad y_2^{(0)} = g(y_1^{(0)}), \\ y_0^{(1)} &= \{\Delta^2\}(y_0^{(0)}), \quad y_1^{(1)} = g(y_0^{(1)}), \quad y_2^{(1)} = g(y_1^{(1)}), \quad \dots. \end{aligned}$$

Steffensen's method (To find a solution of y = g(y))

Given y_0 , tolerance *TOL*, maximum number of iteration *M*. Set i = 1. While $i \le M$ Set $y_1 = g(y_0)$; $y_2 = g(y_1)$; $y = y_0 - (y_1 - y_0)^2/(y_2 - 2y_1 + y_0)$. If $|y - y_0| < Tol$, then STOP. Set i = i + 1; $y_0 = y$. End While

Theorem

Suppose that x = g(x) has the solution x^* with $g'(x^*) \neq 1$. If $\exists \delta > 0$ such that $g \in C^3[x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$, then Steffensen's method gives quadratic convergence for any $x_0 \in [x^* - \delta, x^* + \delta]$.

Zeros of polynomials and Müller's method

• Horner's method:

Let

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + a_n x^n$$

= $a_0 + x (a_1 + x (a_2 + \dots + x (a_{n-1} + a_n x) \dots))$

lf

$$b_n = a_n,$$

 $b_k = a_k + b_{k+1}x_0, \text{ for } k = n - 1, n - 2, \dots, 1, 0,$

then

$$b_0 = a_0 + b_1 x_0 = a_0 + (a_1 + b_2 x_0) x_0 = \cdots = P(x_0).$$

Consider

$$Q(x) = b_1 + b_2 x + \cdots + b_n x^{n-1}$$



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Then

$$b_0 + (x - x_0)Q(x) = b_0 + (x - x_0) (b_1 + b_2 x + \dots + b_n x^{n-1})$$

= $(b_0 - b_1 x_0) + (b_1 - b_2 x_0)x + \dots + (b_{n-1} - b_n x_0)x^{n-1} + b_n x^n$
= $a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n = P(x).$

Differentiating P(x) with respect to x gives

$$P'(x) = Q(x) + (x - x_0)Q'(x)$$
 and $P'(x_0) = Q(x_0)$.

Use Newton-Raphson method to find an approximate zero of P(x):

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{P(x_k)}{Q(x_k)}, \ \forall \ k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Similarly, let

 $c_n = b_n = a_n,$ $c_k = b_k + c_{k+1} x_k, \text{ for } k = n - 1, n - 2, ..., 1,$



then $c_1 = Q(x_k)$.

Horner's method (Evaluate $y = P(x_0)$ and $z = P'(x_0)$)

Set
$$y = a_n$$
; $z = a_n$.
For $j = n - 1, n - 2, ..., 1$
Set $y = a_j + yx_0$; $z = y + zx_0$.
End for
Set $y = a_0 + yx_0$.

If x_N is an approximate zero of P, then

$$P(x) = (x - x_N)Q(x) + b_0 = (x - x_N)Q(x) + P(x_N) \approx (x - x_N)Q(x) \equiv (x - \hat{x}_1)Q_1(x).$$

So $x - \hat{x}_1$ is an approximate factor of P(x) and we can find a second approximate zero of P by applying Newton's method to $Q_1(x)$. The procedure is called deflation.

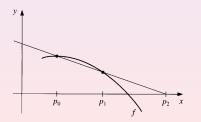


• Müller's method for complex root:

Theorem

If z = a + ib is a complex zero of multiplicity m of P(x) with real coefficients, then $\overline{z} = a - bi$ is also a zero of multiplicity m of P(x) and $(x^2 - 2ax + a^2 + b^2)^m$ is a factor of P(x).

Secant method: Given p_0 and p_1 , determine p_2 as the intersection of the x-axis with the line through $(p_0, f(p_0))$ and $(p_1, f(p_1))$.



Müller's method: Given p_0, p_1 and p_2 , determine p_3 by the intersection of the x-axis with the parabola through $(p_0, f(p_0))$, $(p_1, f(p_1))$ and $(p_2, f(p_2))$.

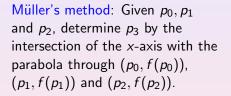


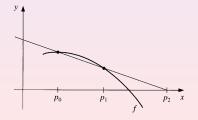
• Müller's method for complex root:

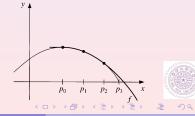
Theorem

If z = a + ib is a complex zero of multiplicity m of P(x) with real coefficients, then $\overline{z} = a - bi$ is also a zero of multiplicity m of P(x) and $(x^2 - 2ax + a^2 + b^2)^m$ is a factor of P(x).

Secant method: Given p_0 and p_1 , determine p_2 as the intersection of the x-axis with the line through $(p_0, f(p_0))$ and $(p_1, f(p_1))$.







$$P(x) = a(x - p_2)^2 + b(x - p_2) + c$$

that passes through $(p_0, f(p_0))$, $(p_1, f(p_1))$ and $(p_2, f(p_2))$. Then

$$\begin{array}{rcl} f(p_0) &=& a(p_0-p_2)^2+b(p_0-p_2)+c,\\ f(p_1) &=& a(p_1-p_2)^2+b(p_1-p_2)+c,\\ f(p_2) &=& a(p_2-p_2)^2+b(p_2-p_2)+c=c. \end{array}$$

It implies that

$$c = f(p_2),$$

$$b = \frac{(p_0 - p_2)^2 [f(p_1) - f(p_2)] - (p_1 - p_2)^2 [f(p_0) - f(p_2)]}{(p_0 - p_2)(p_1 - p_2)(p_0 - p_1)},$$

$$a = \frac{(p_1 - p_2) [f(p_0) - f(p_2)] - (p_0 - p_2) [f(p_1) - f(p_2)]}{(p_0 - p_2)(p_1 - p_2)(p_0 - p_1)}.$$

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To determine p_3 , a zero of P, we apply the quadratic formula to P(x) = 0and get

$$p_3 - p_2 = \frac{2c}{b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}$$

Choose

$$p_3 = p_2 + \frac{2c}{b + sgn(b)\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}$$

such that the denominator will be largest and result in p_3 selected as the closest zero of P to p_2 .



A B > A B >

Müller's method (Find a solution of f(x) = 0)

Given p_0, p_1, p_2 ; tolerance TOL; maximum number of iterations M Set $h_1 = p_1 - p_0$; $h_2 = p_2 - p_1$; $\delta_1 = (f(p_1) - f(p_0))/h_1; \ \delta_2 = (f(p_2) - f(p_1))/h_2;$ $d = (\delta_2 - \delta_1)/(h_2 + h_1); i = 3.$ While i < MSet $b = \delta_2 + h_2 d$; $D = \sqrt{b^2 - 4f(p_2)d}$. If |b - D| < |b + D|, then set E = b + D else set E = b - D. Set $h = -2f(p_2)/E$; $p = p_2 + h$. If |h| < TOL, then STOP. Set $p_0 = p_1$; $p_1 = p_2$; $p_2 = p$; $h_1 = p_1 - p_0$; $h_2 = p_2 - p_1$; $\delta_1 = (f(p_1) - f(p_0))/h_1; \ \delta_2 = (f(p_2) - f(p_1))/h_2:$ $d = (\delta_2 - \delta_1)/(h_2 + h_1); i = i + 1.$ End while