

(1.48) Example (numerical approximation of the derivative).

Suppose we know, at instants t_1 and t_2 , the positions x_1 and x_2 of a point moving on a straight line. The quantity:

$$\bar{v} = (x_2 - x_1) / (t_2 - t_1)$$

is the average velocity of the point between the two instants. If the quantities x_1 and x_2 are known only with relative error ε_1 and ε_2 , for example because they were obtained through measurements, we can only obtain an approximation of \bar{v} :

$$w = \frac{(1 + \varepsilon_2)x_2 - (1 + \varepsilon_1)x_1}{t_2 - t_1}$$

The relative error committed by approximating \bar{v} with w is:

$$\frac{w - \bar{v}}{\bar{v}} = \frac{x_2}{x_2 - x_1} \varepsilon_2 + \frac{x_1}{x_2 - x_1} \varepsilon_1$$

In the case where the difference $x_2 - x_1$ is small (for example when \bar{v} is used as an estimate of the instantaneous velocity of a moving point with high velocity), as shown in the previous Remark, the calculation is *ill-conditioned* and the error committed by approximating \bar{v} with w will be much greater than the single errors ε_1 and ε_2 .

(1.49) Exercise.

The statement:

$$(A) \quad x = a + \delta \quad \text{with} \quad |\delta| \leq d$$

is *equivalent* to:

$$(B) \quad x \in [a - d, a + d]$$

We want to determine y and E so that the statement:

$$(*) \quad x = (1 + \varepsilon)y \quad \text{with} \quad |\varepsilon| \leq E$$

be equivalent to (A) and (B).

The statement (*) is equivalent to:

$$x \in [(1 - E)y, (1 + E)y]$$

This last statement is equivalent to (B) if and only if:

$$(1 - E)y = a - d \quad \text{and} \quad (1 + E)y = a + d$$

Solving the system we get:

$$y = a \quad \text{and} \quad E = d / a$$

So the statements (A) and (B) are equivalent to:

$$(C) \quad x = (1 + \varepsilon)a \quad \text{with} \quad |\varepsilon| \leq d / a$$

(1.50) Theorem (stability of the *bisezione* procedure).

Consider the implementation in *Scilab*¹, of the *bisezione* procedure.

If the assignment

$$[z, v, \text{info}] = \text{bisezione}(f, a, b, \text{delta})$$

terminates with $\text{info} = 0$ or $\text{info} = 1$, then:

$$|z - \alpha^*| \leq \text{delta}$$

where α^* is a zero of a function g 'close' to the function f in the sense that:

$$\text{for every } x \text{ in } [a, b] \text{ it is } |f(x) - g(x)| \text{ 'small'}$$

Informally: if $\text{info} = 0$ or $\text{info} = 1$ then the procedure returns a *good approximation* of a zero of a function *close* to the one under consideration.

(Proof omitted.)

(1.51) Remark (conditioning of the zeros of a regular function).

Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be regular (differentiable with continuous f') with $f' \neq 0$ and $f(a)f(b) < 0$, α be the only zero of f in $[a, b]$, $g: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and 'close' to f , precisely such that:

$$\text{for every } x \text{ in } [a, b] \text{ it is } |f(x) - g(x)| \leq d \text{ with a 'small' } d \text{ and } d < \min\{|f(a)|, |f(b)|\}$$

By the assumptions made, g has *at least one* zero in $[a, b]$. We want to know *how far the zero α of f can be from a zero of g .*

Let α^* be a zero of g in $[a, b]$. Then we have (using Lagrange's Theorem):

$$f(\alpha^*) = f(\alpha^*) - f(\alpha) = f'(t)(\alpha^* - \alpha) \quad \text{with } t \text{ between } \alpha^* \text{ and } \alpha$$

Hence, denoted $m = \min\{|f'(x)|, x \text{ in } [a, b]\}$, we have:

$$|\alpha^* - \alpha| = \frac{|f(\alpha^*)|}{|f'(t)|} \leq \frac{|f(\alpha^*)|}{m}$$

¹ See Statement (1.08), Lecture 2.

Finally, since:

$$|f(\alpha^*)| = |f(\alpha^*) - g(\alpha^*)| \leq d$$

we get:

$$|\alpha^* - \alpha| \leq \frac{d}{m}$$

The quantity $1/m$ plays the role of *condition number*: the larger it is, the further the zeros of g can be from the zero of f .

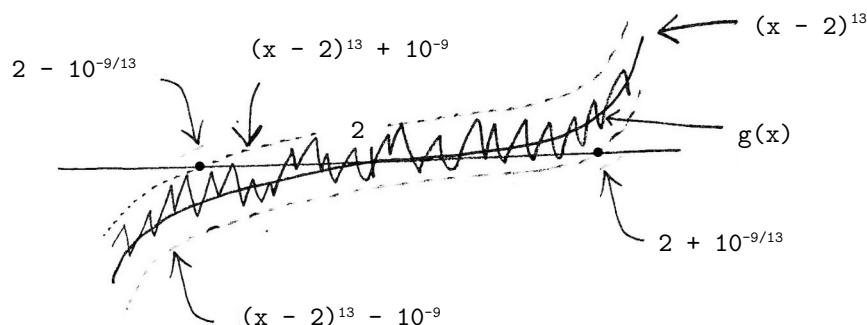
If $f'(x) = 0$ for some x in $[a, b]$, in particular if $f'(\alpha) = 0$, the conditioning is certainly *bad*, as highlighted in the following Example.

(1.52) Example.

Let $f(x) = (x - 2)^{13}$. The function has only one zero, $\alpha = 2$, and is regular in the interval $[1, 3]$. Then consider $g: [1, 3] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous such that:

$$\text{for every } x \text{ in } [1, 3] \text{ it is } |f(x) - g(x)| \leq 10^{-9}$$

The graph of such a function g is shown in the figure.



In the *worst case* the distance between the zero α of f and a zero α^* of g is $10^{-9/13} \approx 0.2$, *much larger* than the distance 10^{-9} between f and g .

(1.1) ONE-POINT METHODS

The strength of the bisection method is its generality: it can be applied to *any* function that is continuous and takes values of opposite signs at the endpoints of an interval. However, in some applications, the method requires an *excessive number of iterations* to achieve the accuracy required by the user. To overcome this drawback, let's analyze other methods for approximating the zero of a function: *one-point methods*.

(1.53) Definition (one-point method).

Let $h: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function. The *one-point method* defined by h is the following procedure:

$z = \text{MetodoUnPunto}(h, a, b, \gamma)$

input: a continuous $h: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, γ in $[a, b]$

- $x(0) = \gamma$;
- for $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ repeat
 if $x(k-1)$ in $[a, b]$ then $x(k) = h(x(k-1))$ else STOP

output: when an appropriate *stopping criterion* is met: $z = x(k)$.

(1.54) Remark.

If we omit the stopping criterion and for every k we have $x(k-1)$ in $[a, b]$, the one-point method defines a sequence $x(0), x(1), x(2), \dots$. If the sequence is *convergent*, its limit is a *fixed point* of h .²

(Proof. The sequence $x(0), x(1), x(2), \dots$ is identical to the sequence $h(x(0)), h(x(1)), h(x(2)), \dots$. Therefore the latter is convergent and, if α be the limit of the sequence $x(k)$:

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} h(x(k)) = \alpha$$

Since h is a continuous function and the sequence $x(k)$ converges to α , we have:

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} h(x(k)) = h(\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x(k)) = h(\alpha)$$

By the uniqueness of the limit of a convergent sequence, we deduce that $\alpha = h(\alpha)$.)

(1.55) Remark.

Let f be the continuous function for which we are interested in approximating some zero. As stated in the previous Remark, 'if all goes well' the one-point method defined by h can be used to approximate a *fixed point* of h . The one-point method can be used to approximate some zero of f , if we *choose* the function h that defines it such that:

$$(\#) \quad \{\text{zeroes of } f\} = \{\text{fixed point of } h\}$$

The question arises whether *there exist* (continuous) functions h with the required property.

Consider the function h defined as follows:

$$h(x) = f(x) + x$$

If α is a zero of f , i.e. $f(\alpha) = 0$, we have:

$$h(\alpha) = f(\alpha) + \alpha = \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \text{ is a fixed point of } h$$

Conversely, if α is a fixed point of h (i.e. $\alpha = h(\alpha)$), we have:

² The real number α is a *fixed point* of h meaning that $\alpha = h(\alpha)$.

$$h(\alpha) = f(\alpha) + \alpha \Rightarrow f(\alpha) = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha \text{ is a zero of } f$$

The function h is therefore *a* function that verifies the property (#).

It is easily verified that, if g is a continuous function such that $g(x) \neq 0$ for all x , the function h defined by:

$$h(x) = g(x)f(x) + x$$

it is continuous and satisfies the property (#). So there exist *infinitely many* functions h that have as their fixed points all and only the zeros of f .

The problem now arises of choosing, among all the possible functions that have the property (#), an h such that the method defined by it generates a *convergent* sequence.