

Let us revisit Newton's method once again: The equality we showed previously

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

can give us some insights about certain cases, where convergence is more likely, and others where convergence may be at risk:

- If  $f''$  is *small*,  $g'(x)$  will also tend to be small. In the limit case where  $f''(x) = 0$ , convergence is instantaneous; of course, this is of limited interest because it would imply that the equation of interest is in fact linear, or  $f(x) = ax + b$ . However, when  $f''(x) \approx 0$ , we can expect very rapid convergence.
- If  $f'(x)$  is large, convergence will typically occur more easily. Of course, sometimes this fact coincides with  $f''$  being large, in which case the two factors compete or cancel one another.
- Another consequence is that, when  $f'(x) \approx 0$  (i.e., the plot of  $f$  is mostly “flat”), convergence will be less certain. Compare this with our intuitive graphical explanation of “flat” tangents in Newton's method.

### Order of convergence

We previously used the hypothesis that  $g$  (in the fixed point iteration  $x_{k+1} = g(x_k)$ ) is a contraction to show that  $|x_k - a| \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} 0$ . Remember that the quantity

$$e = x_{\text{approximate}} - x_{\text{exact}}$$

was previously defined as the (absolute) error. In this case, let us define  $e_k = x_k - a$  ( $a$  is the solution  $f(a) = 0$ ) as the error after the  $k$ -th iteration. If  $g$  is a contraction, we have

$$|e_{k+1}| = |x_{k+1} - a| = |g(x_k) - g(a)| \leq L|x_k - a| = L|e_k|$$

Since  $L < 1$  the error shrinks at least by a constant factor at each iteration.

In some cases we can do even better. Remember the following theorem:

**Theorem (Taylor's formula)** : If a function  $g$  is  $k$ -times differentiable, then:

$$g(y) = g(x) + g'(x)(y-x) + \frac{g''(x)}{2!}(y-x)^2 + \frac{g'''(x)}{3!}(y-x)^3 + \dots$$

$$\dots + \frac{g^{(k-1)}(x)}{(k-1)!}(y-x)^{k-1} + \frac{g^{(k)}(c)}{k!}(y-x)^k$$

for some number  $c$  between  $x$  and  $y$ .

For  $k = 1$  we simply obtain the mean value theorem

$$g(y) = g(x) + g'(c)(y - x) \Leftrightarrow \frac{g(y) - g(x)}{y - x} = g'(c)$$

(for some  $c$  between  $x$  and  $y$ ), which we used before to show that  $|g'(x)| \leq L < 1$  implies that  $g$  is a contraction.

We will not use the theorem in the case  $k = 2$ :

$$g(y) = g(x) + g'(x)(y - x) + \frac{g''(c)}{2}(y - x)^2 \quad \text{for some } c \text{ between } x \text{ \& } y \quad (3)$$

Let  $g = x - f(x)/f'(x)$  (as in Newton's method). Now, let us make the following substitutions in the equation above:

$$x \leftarrow a \text{ (the solution), and } y \leftarrow x_k$$

If  $f'(a) \neq 0$  and  $f''(a)$  is defined, then

$$g'(a) = \frac{\overbrace{f(a)}^{=0} f''(a)}{[f'(a)]^2} = 0$$

Thus equation (3) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} g(x_k) &= g(a) + \frac{g''(c)}{2}(x_k - a)^2 \\ \Rightarrow x_{k+1} &= a + \frac{g''(c)}{2}(x_k - a)^2 \\ \Rightarrow |x_{k+1} - a| &= \left| \frac{g''(c)}{2} \right| |x_k - a|^2 \\ \Rightarrow |e_{k+1}| &= C|e_k|^2 \quad (\text{note the exponent!}) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Where

$$C := \max \left| \frac{g''(x)}{2} \right|_{x \text{ between } a \text{ and } x_k}$$

Compare equation (4) with the general guarantee

$$|e_{k+1}| \leq L|e_k| \quad (5)$$

for contractions:

- Equation (5) depends on  $L < 1$  to reduce the error. In equation (4), even if  $C$  is larger than one, if  $e_k$  is small enough then  $e_{k+1}$  will be reduced. Consider for example the case  $C = 10$ ,  $|e_k| = 10^{-3}$  which will guarantee  $|e_{k+1}| \leq 10^{-5}$ , and  $|e_{k+2}| \leq 10^{-9}$  in the next iteration.

- Equation (5) implies that every iteration adds a fixed number (or, a fixed fraction) of correct significant digits. For example, if  $L = 0.3$ :

$$|e_{k+2}| \leq 0.3|e_{k+1}| \leq 0.09|e_k|$$

thus, we gain 1 significant digit every 2 iterations.

More generally, if an iterative scheme for solving  $f(x) = 0$  can guarantee that

$$|e_{k+1}| \leq L|e_k|^d$$

then the exponent  $d$  (which can be a fractional number, too) is called the *order of convergence*. Specifically:

- If  $d = 1$  we shall also require that  $L < 1$  in order to guarantee that the error  $e_k$  is being reduced. In this case we say that the method exhibits *linear convergence*
- If  $d > 1$  we no longer need  $L < 1$  as a strict condition for convergence (although we need to be “close enough” to the solution to guarantee progress). This case is described as *superlinear* convergence. The case  $d = 2$  is referred to as *quadratic* convergence, when  $d = 3$  we talk about *cubic* convergence, and so on.

We previously saw that Newton’s method converges quadratically. More generally, for the fixed point iteration  $x_{k+1} = g(x_k)$ , if we can show that  $g'(a) = 0$  ( $a$  is the solution), then Taylor’s 2nd order formula yields the same result as in equation (4), and the fixed point iteration converges quadratically.

## Multiple roots

So far we have ignored the case  $f'(a) = 0$ . This case is typically described as a *multiple root* because if  $f(x)$  is a polynomial and  $f(a) = f'(a) = f''(a) = \dots = f^{(k-1)}(a) = 0$  this would imply that  $(x - a)^k$  is a factor of  $f(x)$  (in other words,  $a$  is a root with multiplicity of  $k$ ).

Let us now assume that  $f(a) = f'(a) = f''(a) = \dots = f^{(k-1)}(a) = 0$ , but  $f^{(k)}(a) \neq 0$ . At first, it may appear that Newton’s method would be inapplicable in this case, because the denominator  $f'(x)$  becomes near-zero close to the solution. Consider, however, the example:

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

Newton’s method would give:

$$g(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)} = x - \frac{(x - 1)^3(x + 2)}{3(x - 1)^2(x + 2) + (x - 1)^3} = x - \frac{(x - 1)(x + 2)}{4x + 5}$$

Optional  
reading

whose denominator remains non-zero near the solution  $x = 1$ . In fact we can show that  $g$  remains a contraction near  $a$  in this case.

*Proof* : Remember that

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

Taylor's theorem applied on  $f(x)$  yields:

$$f(x) = \underbrace{f(a)}_{=0} + \underbrace{f'(a)}_{=0}(x-a) + \cdots + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(k-1)}(a)}{(k-1)!}}_{=0}(x-a)^{k-1} + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(k)}(c_1)}{k!}}_{\neq 0}(x-a)^k$$

Applying Taylor's formula on the *derivative*  $f'(x)$  gives

$$f'(x) = \underbrace{f'(a)}_{=0} + \underbrace{f''(a)}_{=0}(x-a) + \cdots + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(k-1)}(a)}{(k-2)!}}_{=0}(x-a)^{k-2} + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(k)}(c_2)}{(k-1)!}}_{\neq 0}(x-a)^{k-1}$$

And, one more, on the second derivative  $f''(x)$

$$f''(x) = \underbrace{f''(a)}_{=0} + \underbrace{f'''(a)}_{=0}(x-a) + \cdots + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(k-1)}(a)}{(k-3)!}}_{=0}(x-a)^{k-3} + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(k)}(c_3)}{(k-2)!}}_{\neq 0}(x-a)^{k-2}$$

Where  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  are some numbers between  $x$  and  $a$ . Combining the last 3 equations, we get

$$g'(x) = \frac{\frac{f^{(k)}(c_1)}{k!}(x-a)^k \frac{f^{(k)}(c_3)}{(k-2)!}(x-a)^{k-2}}{\left[\frac{f^{(k)}(c_2)}{(k-1)!}(x-a)^{k-1}\right]^2} \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} \frac{[f^{(k)}(a)]^2 [(k-1)!]^2}{[f^{(k)}(a)]^2 k!(k-2)!} = \frac{k-1}{k}.$$

Since  $g'(a) = (k-1)/k < 1$ , there is an interval  $(a - \delta, a + \delta)$  where  $g'(x) \leq L < 1$ , and thus  $g$  is a contraction.

However, in all of these cases, convergence is limited to be *only linear*, since  $g'(a) \neq 0$ .

**Caution** : If we know, or suspect, that  $f(x)$  may have a multiple root, then Newton's method is only safe (albeit slow) when we can write an analytic formula for  $f(x)/f'(x)$  and perform any cancellations "on paper" to avoid division by zero. Otherwise, for example in the case where both  $f$  and  $f'$  are given as black-box computer functions, any roundoff error in the value of the numerator or denominator could cause severe instabilities, by dividing two (inaccurate) near-zero quantities.