

Numerical Analysis

10th ed

R L Burden, J D Faires, and A M Burden

Beamer Presentation Slides
Prepared by
Dr. Annette M. Burden
Youngstown State University

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Chapter 10.1: Fixed Points for Functions of Several Variables



MOTIVATION

A system of nonlinear equations has the form

$$\begin{aligned}f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0, \\f_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0, \\&\vdots \\f_n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0,\end{aligned}$$

where each function f_i can be thought of as mapping a vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^t$ of the n -dimensional space \mathbb{R}^n into the real line \mathbb{R} .

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MOTIVATION

This system of n nonlinear equations in n unknowns can also be represented by defining a function \mathbf{F} mapping \mathbb{R}^n into \mathbb{R}^n as

$$\mathbf{F}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = (f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), f_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), \dots, f_n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))^t.$$

If vector notation is used to represent the variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , then system from the previous slide assumes the form

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}.$$

The functions f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n are called the **coordinate functions** of \mathbf{F} .

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MOTIVATION

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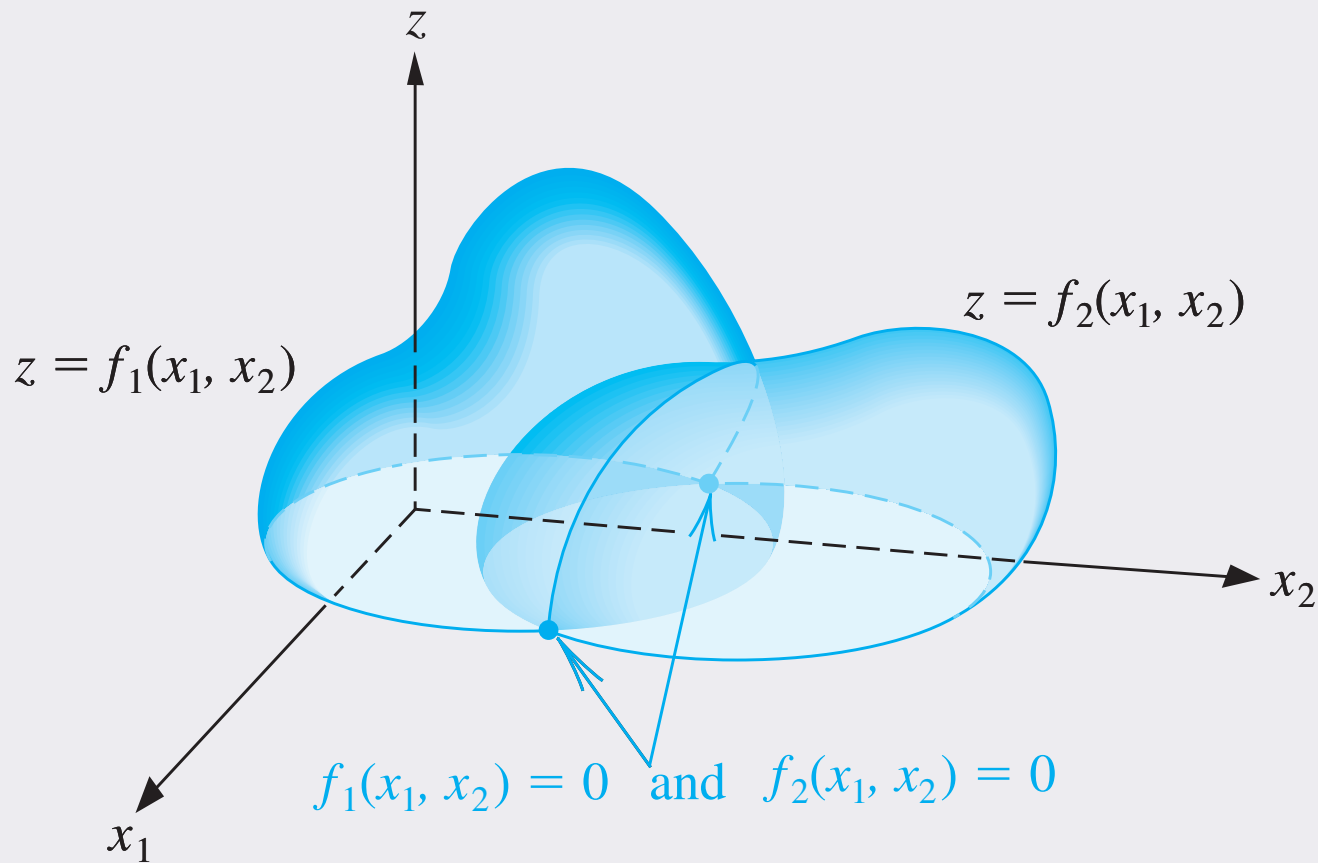


Figure: Figure 10.1

Chapter 10.1: Fixed Points for Functions of Several Variables



Definition (10.1)

Let f be a function defined on a set $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and mapping into \mathbb{R} . The function f is said to have the **limit** L at \mathbf{x}_0 , written

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} f(\mathbf{x}) = L,$$

if, given any number $\varepsilon > 0$, a number $\delta > 0$ exists with

$$|f(\mathbf{x}) - L| < \varepsilon,$$

whenever $\mathbf{x} \in D$ and

$$0 < \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\| < \delta.$$

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Definition (10.2)

Let f be a function from a set $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ into \mathbb{R} . The function f is **continuous** at $\mathbf{x}_0 \in D$ provided $\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} f(\mathbf{x})$ exists and

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0).$$

Moreover, f is **continuous** on a set D if f is continuous at every point of D . This concept is expressed by writing $f \in C(D)$.

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Definition (10.3)

Let \mathbf{F} be a function from $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ into \mathbb{R}^n of the form

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = (f_1(\mathbf{x}), f_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_n(\mathbf{x}))^t,$$

where f_i is a mapping from \mathbb{R}^n into \mathbb{R} for each i . We define

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{L} = (L_1, L_2, \dots, L_n)^t,$$

if and only if $\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} f_i(\mathbf{x}) = L_i$, for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

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Theorem (10.4)

Let f be a function from $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ into \mathbb{R} and $\mathbf{x}_0 \in D$. Suppose that all the partial derivatives of f exist and constants $\delta > 0$ and $K > 0$ exist so that whenever $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\| < \delta$ and $\mathbf{x} \in D$, we have

$$\left| \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j} \right| \leq K, \quad \text{for each } j = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

Then f is continuous at \mathbf{x}_0 .

Definition (10.5)

A function \mathbf{G} from $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ into \mathbb{R}^n has a **fixed point** at $\mathbf{p} \in D$ if $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{p}$.

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Theorem (10.6)

Let $D = \{ (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^t \mid a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i, \text{ for each } i = 1, 2, \dots, n \}$ for some collection of constants a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n and b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n .

Suppose \mathbf{G} is a continuous function from $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ into \mathbb{R}^n with the property that $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) \in D$ whenever $\mathbf{x} \in D$. Then \mathbf{G} has a fixed point in D . Suppose also that all the component functions of \mathbf{G} have continuous partial derivatives and a constant $K < 1$ exists with

$$\left| \frac{\partial g_j(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j} \right| \leq \frac{K}{n}, \quad \text{whenever } \mathbf{x} \in D,$$

for each $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and each component function g_j . Then the fixed-point sequence $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ defined by an arbitrarily selected $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ in D and generated by $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$, for each $k \geq 1$ converges to the unique fixed point $\mathbf{p} \in D$ and

$$\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{p}\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{K^k}{1-K} \|\mathbf{x}^{(1)} - \mathbf{x}^{(0)}\|_{\infty}.$$

Chapter 10.2: Newton's Method



MOTIVATION

We will use an approach similar to the one used in the one-dimensional fixed-point method for the n -dimensional case. This involves a matrix

$$A(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}(\mathbf{x}) & a_{12}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & a_{1n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ a_{21}(\mathbf{x}) & a_{22}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & a_{2n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1}(\mathbf{x}) & a_{n2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & a_{nn}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix},$$

where each of the entries $a_{ij}(\mathbf{x})$ is a function from \mathbb{R}^n into \mathbb{R} . This requires that $A(\mathbf{x})$ be found so that

$$\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} - A(\mathbf{x})^{-1}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$$

gives quadratic convergence to the solution of $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$, assuming that $A(\mathbf{x})$ is nonsingular at the fixed point \mathbf{p} of \mathbf{G} .



Theorem (10.7)

Let \mathbf{p} be a solution of $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$. Suppose a number $\delta > 0$ exists with

- (i) $\partial g_i / \partial x_j$ is continuous on $N_\delta = \{ \mathbf{x} \mid \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}\| < \delta \}$, for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$;
- (ii) $\partial^2 g_i(\mathbf{x}) / (\partial x_j \partial x_k)$ is continuous, and $|\partial^2 g_i(\mathbf{x}) / (\partial x_j \partial x_k)| \leq M$ for some constant M , whenever $\mathbf{x} \in N_\delta$, for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$, and $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$;
- (iii) $\partial g_i(\mathbf{p}) / \partial x_k = 0$, for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Then a number $\hat{\delta} \leq \delta$ exists such that the sequence generated by $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$ converges quadratically to \mathbf{p} for any choice of $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$, provided that $\|\mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{p}\| < \hat{\delta}$. Moreover,

$$\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{p}\|_\infty \leq \frac{n^2 M}{2} \|\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - \mathbf{p}\|_\infty^2, \quad \text{for each } k \geq 1.$$



The Jacobian Matrix

Define the matrix $J(\mathbf{x})$ by

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix},$$

It is required that

$$A(\mathbf{p})^{-1} J(\mathbf{p}) = I, \text{ the identity matrix, so } A(\mathbf{p}) = J(\mathbf{p}).$$



The Jacobian Matrix

An appropriate choice for $A(\mathbf{x})$ is, consequently, $A(\mathbf{x}) = J(\mathbf{x})$ since this satisfies condition (iii) in Theorem 10.7. The function \mathbf{G} is defined by

$$\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} - J(\mathbf{x})^{-1} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}),$$

and the fixed-point iteration procedure evolves from selecting $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ and generating, for $k \geq 1$,

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}) = \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - J(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})^{-1} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}).$$

This is called **Newton's method for nonlinear systems**, and it is generally expected to give quadratic convergence, provided that a sufficiently accurate starting value is known and that $J(\mathbf{p})^{-1}$ exists.



MOTIVATION

A generalization of the Secant method to systems of nonlinear equations is a technique known as **Broyden's method**

The method requires only n scalar functional evaluations per iteration and also reduces the number of arithmetic calculations to $O(n^2)$. It belongs to a class of methods known as *least-change secant updates* that produce algorithms called **quasi-Newton**. These methods replace the Jacobian matrix in Newton's method with an approximation matrix that is easily updated at each iteration.



DISADVANTAGES OF QUASI-NEWTON METHODS

- ▶ Quadratic convergence of Newton's method is lost, being replaced, in general, by a convergence called **superlinear**. This implies that

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|\mathbf{x}^{(i+1)} - \mathbf{p}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{p}\|} = 0,$$

where \mathbf{p} denotes the solution to $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ and $\mathbf{x}^{(i+1)}$ are consecutive approximations to \mathbf{p} .

This is an acceptable trade-off for the decrease in the amount of computation.

- ▶ Unlike Newton's method, they are not self-correcting. Newton's method will generally correct for roundoff error with successive iterations, but unless special safeguards are incorporated, Broyden's method will not.



Theorem (10.8)

Suppose that A is a nonsingular matrix and that \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are vectors with $\mathbf{y}^t A^{-1} \mathbf{x} \neq -1$. Then $A + \mathbf{xy}^t$ is nonsingular and

$$(A + \mathbf{xy}^t)^{-1} = A^{-1} - \frac{A^{-1} \mathbf{xy}^t A^{-1}}{1 + \mathbf{y}^t A^{-1} \mathbf{x}}.$$

Chapter 10.3: Quasi-Newton Methods



Algorithm 10.2: BROYDEN'S METHOD

To approximate the solution of the nonlinear system $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ given an initial approximation \mathbf{x} :

INPUT number n of equations and unknowns; initial approximation $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^t$; tolerance TOL ; maximum number of iterations N .

OUTPUT approximate solution $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^t$ or a message that the number of iterations was exceeded.

Step 1 Set $A_0 = J(\mathbf{x})$ where $J(\mathbf{x})_{i,j} = \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x})$ for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$;

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}). \quad (\text{Note: } \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}).)$$

Step 2 Set $A = A_0^{-1}$. (Use Gaussian elimination.)

Step 3 Set $\mathbf{s} = -A\mathbf{v}$; (Note: $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{s}_1$.)

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{s}; \quad (\text{Note: } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^{(1)}.)$$

$$k = 2.$$



Algorithm 10.2: Broyden

Step 4 While ($k \leq N$) do Steps 5–13.

Step 5 Set $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v}$; (Save \mathbf{v} .)

$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$; (Note: $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$.)

$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}$. (Note: $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}_k$.)

Step 6 Set $\mathbf{z} = -\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$. (Note: $\mathbf{z} = -\mathbf{A}_{k-1}^{-1}\mathbf{y}_k$.)

Step 7 Set $p = -\mathbf{s}^t\mathbf{z}$. (Note: $p = \mathbf{s}_k^t\mathbf{A}_{k-1}^{-1}\mathbf{y}_k$.)

Step 8 Set $\mathbf{u}^t = \mathbf{s}^t\mathbf{A}$.

Step 9 Set $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{p}(\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{z})\mathbf{u}^t$. (Note: $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}_k^{-1}$.)

Step 10 Set $\mathbf{s} = -\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}$. (Note: $\mathbf{s} = -\mathbf{A}_k^{-1}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$.)

Step 11 Set $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{s}$. (Note: $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$.)

Step 12 If $\|\mathbf{s}\| < TOL$ then OUTPUT (\mathbf{x});

(Procedure successful.) STOP

Step 13 Set $k = k + 1$.

Step 14 OUTPUT ('Maximum number of iterations exceeded');

(Procedure unsuccessful.) STOP



MOTIVATION

The method of Steepest Descent for finding a local minimum for an arbitrary function g from \mathbb{R}^n into \mathbb{R} can be intuitively described as follows:

1. Evaluate g at an initial approximation

$$\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \left(x_1^{(0)}, x_2^{(0)}, \dots, x_n^{(0)} \right)^t.$$

2. Determine a direction from $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ that results in a decrease in the value of g .
3. Move an appropriate amount in this direction and call the new value $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$.
4. Repeat steps 1 through 3 with $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ replaced by $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$.



MOTIVATION

For $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the **gradient** of g at $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^t$ is denoted $\nabla g(\mathbf{x})$ and defined by

$$\nabla g(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}), \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \right)^t.$$

A differentiable multivariable function can have a relative minimum at \mathbf{x} only when the gradient at \mathbf{x} is the zero vector. Suppose that $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)^t$ is a unit vector in \mathbb{R}^n ; that is,

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 = 1.$$



MOTIVATION

The **directional derivative** of g at \mathbf{x} in the direction of \mathbf{v} measures the change in the value of the function g relative to the change in the variable in the direction of \mathbf{v} . It is defined by

$$D_{\mathbf{v}}g(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} [g(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{v}) - g(\mathbf{x})] = \mathbf{v}^t \cdot \nabla g(\mathbf{x}).$$

When g is differentiable, the direction that produces the maximum value for the directional derivative occurs when \mathbf{v} is chosen to be parallel to $\nabla g(\mathbf{x})$, provided that $\nabla g(\mathbf{x}) \neq \mathbf{0}$. As a consequence, the direction of greatest decrease in the value of g at \mathbf{x} is the direction given by $-\nabla g(\mathbf{x})$.



Algorithm 10.3 STEEPEST DESCENT

To approximate a solution \mathbf{p} to the minimization problem

$$g(\mathbf{p}) = \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} g(\mathbf{x})$$

given an initial approximation \mathbf{x} :

INPUT number n of variables; initial approximation $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^t$
 TOL ; maximum number of iterations N .

OUTPUT approximate solution $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^t$ or message of failure.

Step 1 Set $k = 1$.

Step 2 While ($k \leq N$) do Steps 3–15.

Step 3 Set $g_1 = g(x_1, \dots, x_n)$; (Note: $g_1 = g(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$.)
 $\mathbf{z} = \nabla g(x_1, \dots, x_n)$; (Note: $\mathbf{z} = \nabla g(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$.)
 $z_0 = \|\mathbf{z}\|_2$.



Algorithm 10.3 STEEPEST DESCENT

Step 4 If $z_0 = 0$ then OUTPUT ('Zero gradient');
OUTPUT (x_1, \dots, x_n, g_1) ;
(*The procedure completed, may have a minimum.*)
STOP.

Step 5 Set $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}/z_0$; (*Make \mathbf{z} a unit vector.*)

$$\alpha_1 = 0;$$

$$\alpha_3 = 1;$$

$$g_3 = g(\mathbf{x} - \alpha_3 \mathbf{z}).$$

Step 6 While $(g_3 \geq g_1)$ do Steps 7 and 8.

Step 7 Set $\alpha_3 = \alpha_3/2$;

$$g_3 = g(\mathbf{x} - \alpha_3 \mathbf{z}).$$

Step 8 If $\alpha_3 < TOL/2$ then

OUTPUT ('No likely improvement');

OUTPUT (x_1, \dots, x_n, g_1) ; STOP

(*Procedure completed, may have a minimum.*)



Algorithm 10.3 STEEPEST DESCENT

Step 9 Set $\alpha_2 = \alpha_3/2$;

$$g_2 = g(\mathbf{x} - \alpha_2 \mathbf{z}).$$

Step 10 Set $h_1 = (g_2 - g_1)/\alpha_2$;

$$h_2 = (g_3 - g_2)/(\alpha_3 - \alpha_2);$$

$$h_3 = (h_2 - h_1)/\alpha_3.$$

(Note: Newton's forward divided-difference formula used to find the quadratic

$P(\alpha) = g_1 + h_1\alpha + h_3\alpha(\alpha - \alpha_2)$ that interpolates $h(\alpha)$ at $\alpha = 0, \alpha = \alpha_2, \alpha = \alpha_3$.)

Step 11 Set $\alpha_0 = 0.5(\alpha_2 - h_1/h_3)$; *(Critical point of P at α_0 .)*

$$g_0 = g(\mathbf{x} - \alpha_0 \mathbf{z}).$$

Step 12 Find α from $\{\alpha_0, \alpha_3\}$ so $g = g(\mathbf{x} - \alpha \mathbf{z}) = \min\{g_0, g_3\}$.

Step 13 Set $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - \alpha \mathbf{z}$.



Algorithm 10.3 STEEPEST DESCENT

Step 14 If $|g - g_1| < TOL$ then
 OUTPUT (x_1, \dots, x_n, g) ;
 (*The procedure was successful.*)
 STOP.

Step 15 Set $k = k + 1$.

Step 16 OUTPUT ('Maximum iterations exceeded');
 (*The procedure was unsuccessful.*)
 STOP.

Chapter 10.5: Homotopy; Continuation Method



Homotopy, or continuation, methods for nonlinear systems embed the problem to be solved within a collection of problems. Specifically, to solve a problem of the form

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0},$$

which has the unknown solution \mathbf{x}^* , we consider a family of problems described using a parameter λ that assumes values in $[0, 1]$. A problem with a known solution $\mathbf{x}(0)$ corresponds to the situation when $\lambda = 0$, and the problem with the unknown solution $\mathbf{x}(1) \equiv \mathbf{x}^*$ corresponds to $\lambda = 1$.



CONTINUATION PROBLEM

The **continuation** problem is to: Determine a way to proceed from the known solution $\mathbf{x}(0)$ of $\mathbf{G}(0, \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{zero}$ to the unknown solution $\mathbf{x}(1) = \mathbf{x}^*$ of $\mathbf{G}(1, \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$, that is, the solution to $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$.

Theorem (10.10)

Let $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$ be continuously differentiable for $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Suppose that the Jacobian matrix $J(\mathbf{x})$ is nonsingular for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and that a constant M exists with $\|J(\mathbf{x})^{-1}\| \leq M$, for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, for any $\mathbf{x}(0)$ in \mathbb{R}^n , there exists a unique function $\mathbf{x}(\lambda)$, such that

$$\mathbf{G}(\lambda, \mathbf{x}(\lambda)) = \mathbf{0},$$

for all λ in $[0, 1]$. Moreover, $\mathbf{x}(\lambda)$ is continuously differentiable and $\mathbf{x}'(\lambda) = -J(\mathbf{x}(\lambda))^{-1}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}(0))$, for each $\lambda \in [0, 1]$.



Algorithm 10.4 CONTINUATION

To approximate the solution of the nonlinear system $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ given an initial approximation \mathbf{x} :

INPUT number n of equations and unknowns; integer $N > 0$; initial approximation $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^t$.

OUTPUT approximate solution $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^t$.

Step 1 Set $h = 1/N$;

$$\mathbf{b} = -h\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}).$$

Step 2 For $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ do Steps 3–7.

Step 3 Set $A = J(\mathbf{x})$; Solve the linear system $A\mathbf{k}_1 = \mathbf{b}$.

Step 4 Set $A = J(\mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{k}_1)$; Solve the linear system $A\mathbf{k}_2 = \mathbf{b}$.

Step 5 Set $A = J(\mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{k}_2)$; Solve the linear system $A\mathbf{k}_3 = \mathbf{b}$.

Step 6 Set $A = J(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{k}_3)$; Solve the linear system $A\mathbf{k}_4 = \mathbf{b}$.

Step 7 Set $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + (\mathbf{k}_1 + 2\mathbf{k}_2 + 2\mathbf{k}_3 + \mathbf{k}_4)/6$.

Step 8 OUTPUT (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) ; STOP.