# On the Solution of Systems of Equations by the Epsilon Algorithm of Wynn 

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#### Abstract

The $\epsilon$-algorithm has been proposed by Wynn on a number of occasions as a convergence acceleration device for vector sequences; however, little is known concerning its effect upon systems of equations. In this paper, we prove that the algorithm applied to the Picard sequence $\mathbf{x}_{i+1}=F\left(\mathbf{x}_{\boldsymbol{i}}\right)$ of an analytic function $F: \mathbf{R}^{n} \supset D \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{n}$ provides a quadratically convergent iterative method; furthermore, no differentiation of $F$ is needed. Some examples illustrate the numerical performance of this method and show that convergence can be obtained even when $F$ is not contractive near the fixed point. A modification of the method is discussed and illustrated.


1. Introduction. The $\epsilon$-algorithm is a nonlinear method for accelerating the convergence of sequences; in its simplest form, it is identical with the $\delta^{2}$ transformation of Aitken [1]. The determinantal formulae upon which it is based were given by Jacobi [6], Schmidt [11], and Shanks [12]; Wynn [13] developed it and examined it thoroughly in connection with various sequences and series [14]-[17]. The $\epsilon$-algorithm provides higher (integer) order methods for the computation of a fixed point of an analytic function $f: \mathbf{C} \supset D \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$ [4]. Using the generalized matrix inverse of Moore [8] and Penrose [9], the method has recently been applied to sequences of matrices and vectors as they arise, for example, in the solution of linear systems of equations [5], [7], [10], [18], [21], [22], [23]. Wynn points out that the algorithm also provides good results in the numerical solution of nonlinear systems [18], [19], [21], [22]. But, until now, nothing is known concerning convergence. In this paper, we examine the behaviour of the $\epsilon$-algorithm when applied to the Picard sequence of an analytic function $F$ : $\mathbf{R}^{n} \supset D \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{n}$ with fixed point z . With the help of a theorem of McLeod [7], we show that the algorithm, used in a manner similar to Steffensen's method, is a quadratically convergent iterative method for the computation of $z$ (compare also Brezinski [2]*). Because of the complicated recursive relationships, the convergence considered is of local nature, and Landau symbols are used in the proof. A short discussion of numerical properties of the method follows at the end of the paper.

We use certain standard notations: $i \in \mathrm{~N}$ means that $i$ is a nonnegative integer; lower (upper) case bold face letters denote vectors (matrices); $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ is the Euclidean norm $\left(\mathbf{x}^{*} \mathbf{x}\right)^{1 / 2}$ of the $n$-dimensional column vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{C}^{n} ; O\left(\|\mathbf{x}\|^{i}\right)$ denotes a vectorvalued function of the vector $\mathbf{x}$ whose norm remains bounded as $\|\mathbf{x}\| \rightarrow 0$ after division by $\|\mathbf{x}\|^{i} ; O\left\{\|\mathbf{x}\|^{i}\right\}$ denotes a real valued function with the same properties.

We also make use of the concept of an analytic function of a vector and of a vectorvalued Taylor series. Let $D$ be an open subset of $\mathbf{R}^{n}$, then $F: \mathbf{R}^{n} \supset D \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{n}$ is called

[^0]analytic if, for every point a $\in D$, there is an open polycylinder $P=\left\{\mathrm{x} \in \mathrm{R}^{n}, \mid x_{i}-\right.$ $\left.a_{i} \mid<r_{i}, 0<r_{i}, 1 \leqq i \leqq n\right\} \subset D$, such that in $P, F(x)$ is equal to the sum of an absolutely summable power series in the $n$ variables $x_{i}-a_{i}(1 \leqq i \leqq n)$. An analytic function is indefinitely differentiable, and, if the segment joining $x$ and $x+y$ is in $D$, we have, for $r \in \mathbf{N}$,
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y})= & F(\mathbf{x})+\sum_{k=1}^{r-1} \frac{1}{k!} F^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{y}^{(k)} \\
& +\left(\int_{0}^{1} \frac{(1-t)^{r-1}}{(r-1)!} F^{(r)}(\mathbf{x}+t \mathbf{y}) d t\right) \cdot \mathbf{y}^{(r)}
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

where $\mathrm{y}^{(k)}$ stands for ( $\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{y}, \cdots, \mathrm{y}$ ) ( $k$ times). For further details, we refer to the famous book of Dieudonné [3].
2. Picard Sequences. We consider some iterative schemes for determining a fixed point $\mathbf{z}$ of the equation $\mathbf{x}=F(\mathbf{x})$. If $\mathbf{s}_{p}(p \in \mathbf{N}, 0 \leqq p)$ is near $\mathbf{z}$, we have, using a Taylor expansion for $F(\mathrm{z})$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{z}=F\left(\mathrm{~s}_{p}\right)+F^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{s}_{p}\right)\left(\mathrm{z}-\mathrm{s}_{p}\right)+O\left(\left\|\mathrm{z}-\mathrm{s}_{p}\right\|^{2}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, when using the simple iteration scheme

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{s}_{p+1}=F\left(\mathrm{~s}_{p}\right) \quad(0 \leqq p) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

we have

$$
\mathrm{z}-\mathbf{s}_{p+1}=F^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{s}_{p}\right)\left(\mathrm{z}-\mathrm{s}_{p}\right)+O\left(\left\|\mathrm{z}-\mathbf{s}_{p}\right\|^{2}\right)
$$

Hence, the simple scheme (2) is, in general, at best linearly convergent; whether it converges or not depends upon the magnitudes of the eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrices $F^{\prime}\left(\mathbf{s}_{p}\right)(0 \leqq p)$ in the neighbourhood of $z$. We can, however, devise a quadratically convergent scheme based upon the solution of the linear system

$$
\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p+1}=F\left(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p}\right)+F^{\prime}\left(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p}\right)\left(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p+1}-\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p}\right) \quad(0 \leqq p)
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\mathrm{I}-F^{\prime}\left(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p}\right)\right) \hat{\mathrm{s}}_{p+1}=F\left(\hat{\mathrm{~s}}_{p}\right)-F^{\prime}\left(\hat{\mathrm{s}}_{p}\right) \hat{\mathrm{s}}_{p} \quad(0 \leqq p) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p+1}$. For, replacing $\mathbf{s}_{p}$ in formula (1) by $\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p}$, we now have

$$
z-\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p+1}=F^{\prime}\left(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p}\right)\left(\mathrm{z}-\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p+1}\right)+O\left(\left\|\mathrm{z}-\hat{\mathrm{s}}_{p}\right\|^{2}\right) \quad(0 \leqq p)
$$

i.e.,

$$
\left(\mathrm{I}-F^{\prime}\left(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p}\right)\right)\left(\mathrm{z}-\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p+1}\right)=O\left(\left\|z-\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p}\right\|^{2}\right) \quad(0 \leqq p)
$$

or, again subject to certain assumptions concerning the eigenvalues of $F^{\prime}(x)$ in the neighbourhood of $z$,

$$
z-\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p+1}=O\left(\left\|z-\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{p}\right\|^{2}\right) \quad(0 \leqq p)
$$

The second scheme, although yielding quadratic convergence, involves evaluation of a Jacobian matrix and the solution of a linear system at each stage. However, by use of the $\epsilon$-algorithm one can, as we shall show, obtain quadratic convergence without
the computation of the derivatives occurring in the Jacobian matrix, and without the solution of a linear system.
3. The Algorithm. The $\epsilon$-algorithm [13], [22] is a computational procedure in which successive columns of an array $\left(\epsilon_{q}^{(p)}\right)_{0 \leqq p, 0 \leqq q}$ with row index $p$ are obtained by use of the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon_{q+1}^{(p)}=\epsilon_{q-1}^{(p+1)}+\left(\epsilon_{q}^{(p+1)}-\epsilon_{q}^{(p)}\right)^{-1} \quad(0 \leqq p, 0 \leqq q), \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

starting from the initial conditions

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon_{-1}^{(p)}=0, \quad \epsilon_{0}^{(p)}=s_{p} \quad(0 \leqq p) . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

If the inverse of a nonzero vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{C}^{n}$ is defined, by [8], [9],

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{x}^{-1}=\left(x^{*} \mathbf{x}\right)^{-1} \overline{\mathrm{x}}, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

then we can apply the algorithm to sequences $\left\{s_{p}\right\}_{0 \leqq p}$ of vectors and have the fundamental theorem [7], [23] which we need later:

Theorem 1. Let $\left\{\mathrm{s}_{p}\right\}_{0 \leq p}$ be a sequence of vectors with complex coefficients which satisfy the irreducible linear recursion

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{r=0}^{m} c_{r} \mathbf{S}_{\boldsymbol{p}_{+r}}=\left(\sum_{r=0}^{m} c_{r}\right) \mathbf{s} \quad(0 \leqq p) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where s is fixed and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{r=0}^{m} c_{r} \neq 0, \quad c_{r} \in \mathbf{R} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

If then the elements of the array ${ }_{\left(\varepsilon_{d}^{(p)}\right)}$ are determined by using (4), (5), and (6), and if all $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{q}^{(p)}$ with $p+q \leqq 2 m$ exist, then

$$
\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{2 m}^{(0)}=\mathrm{s} .
$$

Following a conjecture of Wynn [24] and Greville [5], Theorem 1 remains true if relations (7), (8) hold for complex scalars only, but this has not yet been proved. In conclusion, we get

Corollary. Let $\mathbf{z}$ be the unique solution of the linear system $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{Ax}+\mathrm{c}$ with real coefficients and let $m$ be the degree of the minimal polynomial of the matrix A for $\mathbf{y}=\mathbf{x}_{0}-\mathbf{z}$. If the $\epsilon$-algorithm is applied to the Picard sequence $\left\{\mathbf{x}_{p} ; \mathbf{x}_{p+1}=A \mathbf{x}_{p}+\mathbf{c}\right\}_{0 \leqq p}$ and if all $\varepsilon_{a}^{(p)}$ with $p+q \leqq 2 m$ exist, then

$$
\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{2 m}^{(0)}=\mathbf{z} .
$$

Proof. Let $p(x)=\sum_{r=0}^{m} a_{r} x^{r}$ be the minimal polynomial of A for y , then

$$
\sum_{r=0}^{m} a_{r} \mathbf{x}_{p+r}=\left(\sum_{r=0}^{m} a_{r}\right) \mathbf{z}+\left(\sum_{r=0}^{m} a_{r} \mathbf{A}^{p+r}\right) \mathbf{y}=\left(\sum_{r=0}^{m} a_{r}\right) \mathbf{z},
$$

because $\mathrm{x}_{p}=\mathbf{z}+\mathrm{A}^{p} \mathrm{y}$ holds. By assumption, we have $\sum_{\mathrm{r}=0}^{m} a_{r} \neq 0$, since 1 is not eigenvalue of A (the equation $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{Ax}+\mathrm{c}$ has a unique solution), and the Corollary results from Theorem 1.
4. The Application of the Epsilon Algorithm to Picard Sequences. The general strategy adopted in deriving our main result is this: we first consider the behaviour of the vectors $\tilde{\varepsilon}_{d}^{(p)}(p+q \leqq 2 n)$ derived by means of the $\epsilon$-algorithm from the sequence $\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{p}=\mathrm{z}+\mathrm{A}^{p} \mathrm{y}(0 \leqq p)$, where $\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{z} \in \mathrm{R}^{n}$ and A is a real $n \times n$ matrix, for small values of $\|y\|$ (we know from the above Corollary that, subject to certain conditions, $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{2 n}^{(0)}=\mathrm{z}$ ). We then consider the behaviour of corresponding vectors derived from the sequence $\mathbf{s}_{p}=\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{p}+\boldsymbol{\delta}_{p}$, where $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{p}=O\left(\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}\right)(0 \leqq p)$. Finally, we use these results with $\mathbf{A}=F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})$ and

$$
\mathrm{s}_{p+1}=F\left(\mathrm{~s}_{p}\right)=\mathrm{z}+F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})\left(\mathrm{s}_{\mathrm{p}}-\mathrm{z}\right)+O\left(\left\|\mathrm{~s}_{p}-\mathrm{z}\right\|^{2}\right) \quad(0 \leqq p)
$$

to examine the behaviour of the vectors $\varepsilon_{a}^{(p)}$ produced from this iterative scheme when $S_{0}$ is near a fixed point $z$ and, in particular, to show that repeated use of the vector $\varepsilon_{2 n}^{(0)}$ in place of $s_{0}$ results in a quadratically convergent process for determining the fixed point in question. In the sequel, let $Q_{m}(\mathrm{~A}) \subset \mathrm{R}^{n}$ be the set of vectors $\mathbf{x}$ for which $m$ is the degree of the minimal polynomial of A .

Lemma 1. For a given z , let $\tilde{\varepsilon}_{d}^{(p)}$ be the vectors obtained by means of the $\epsilon$-algorithm from the sequence $\left\{\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{\boldsymbol{p}} ; \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{p}=\mathrm{z}+\mathrm{A}^{p} \mathbf{y}\right\}_{o \leqq p}$. If there is a neighbourhood $U$ of 0 such that all $\tilde{\varepsilon}_{a}^{(D)}$ with $p+q \leqq 2 m$ exist for all $\mathrm{y} \in U \cap Q_{m}(\mathrm{~A})$, then

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\tilde{\mathbf{\varepsilon}}_{a}^{(p)}=\mathbf{z}+O(\|\mathbf{y}\|), & \text { q even }, \\
\tilde{\mathbf{\varepsilon}}_{a}^{(p)}=O\left(\|\mathbf{y}\|^{-1}\right), & \text { q odd },
\end{array}
$$

for $\mathrm{y} \in Q_{m}(\mathrm{~A})$ and $p+q \leqq 2 m$.
Proof. Let $m>0, p \leqq 2 m-q$, and $\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{d}^{(p)}=\tilde{\varepsilon}_{d}^{(p+1)}-\tilde{\varepsilon}_{d}^{(p)}$. For $q=1$, we get $\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}=\mathrm{A}^{p}(\mathrm{~A}-\mathrm{I}) \mathbf{y}=\mathrm{B}_{p} \mathbf{y}$, and $\mathrm{B}_{p} \mathrm{y} \neq 0$ for $\mathrm{y} \in Q_{m}(\mathrm{~A})$, by assumption. Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\tilde{\varepsilon}_{1}^{(p)}\right\| & =\left\|\left(\mathbf{y}^{*} \mathrm{~B}_{p}^{*} \mathrm{~B}_{p} \mathbf{y}\right)^{-1} \mathrm{~B}_{p} \mathbf{y}\right\| \\
& =\frac{1}{\|\mathbf{y}\|} \frac{\mathrm{y}^{*} \mathrm{y}}{\mathrm{y}^{*} \mathrm{~B}_{p}^{*} \mathrm{~B}_{p} \mathbf{y}} \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{y}\|}\left\|\mathrm{B}_{p} \mathbf{y}\right\| \leqq \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{y}\|} \frac{\left\|\mathrm{B}_{p}\right\|}{\lambda_{\min }},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $0<\lambda_{\text {min }}$ is the smallest eigenvalue of $\mathrm{B}_{p}^{*} \mathrm{~B}_{p}$. Let now $k \in \mathbf{N}, k<m, \mathrm{y} \in Q_{m}(\mathrm{~A})$, and let the statement be true for all $q \leqq 2 k$. By assumption, we have $\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)}=O(\|y\|)$ $\neq 0$, thus

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)}\right)=O\left\{\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}\right\} \\
\tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}= \\
=\tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k-1}^{(p+1)}+\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1} \Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)} \\
= \\
O\left(\|\mathbf{y}\|^{-1}\right)+O\left\{\|\mathbf{y}\|^{-2}\right\} O(\|\mathbf{y}\|)=O\left(\|\mathbf{y}\|^{-1}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

$\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 \boldsymbol{k}+1}^{(p)} \neq 0$, since, by assumption, all $\tilde{\varepsilon}_{d}^{(p)}$ which contribute to $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{2 m}^{(0)}$ exist. Therefore,

$$
\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right) *\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)=O\left\{\|\mathbf{y}\|^{-2}\right\},
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tilde{\mathfrak{\varepsilon}}_{2 k+2}^{(p)} & =\tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p+1)}+\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1} \Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)} \\
& =\mathbf{z}+O(\|\mathbf{y}\|)+, O\left\{\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}\right\} O\left(\|\mathbf{y}\|^{-1}\right)=\mathbf{z}+O(\|\mathbf{y}\|),
\end{aligned}
$$

and the assertion of the lemma follows by induction.
Lemma 2. Let $\left\{\delta_{p}\right\}_{0 \leqq p}$ be a sequence of analytic functions $\delta_{p}(\mathrm{y})=O\left(\|y\|^{2}\right)$. For a given z , let $\varepsilon_{a}^{(p)}$ be the vectors obtained by means of the $\epsilon$-algorithm from the sequence
$\left\{\mathbf{s}_{p} ; \mathbf{s}_{p}=\mathbf{z}+\mathbf{A}^{\mu} \mathbf{y}+\delta_{p}(\mathbf{y})\right\}_{0 \leq p}$. If there is a neighbourhood $U$ of 0 such that all $\mathbf{\varepsilon}_{a}^{(p)}$, $\tilde{\mathbf{e}}_{\boldsymbol{e}}^{(p)}$ with $p+q \leqq 2 m$ exist for all $\mathrm{y} \in U \cap Q_{m}(\mathrm{~A})$, then

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\varepsilon_{a}^{(p)}=\tilde{\varepsilon}_{d}^{(p)}+O\left(\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}\right), & \text { q even }, \\
\varepsilon_{a}^{(p)}=\tilde{\varepsilon}_{a}^{(p)}+O(1), & \text { q odd },
\end{array}
$$

for $\mathrm{y} \in Q_{m}(\mathrm{~A})$ and $p+q \leqq 2 m$.
Proof. Let $m>0$ and $p \leqq 2 m-q$. For $q=1$, we have $\Delta_{p} \mathfrak{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}=\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}+O\left(\|y\|^{2}\right)$ $\neq 0$ and $\Delta_{\nu} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)} \neq 0$ for $\mathrm{y} \in Q_{m}(\mathrm{~A})$, by assumption. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\Delta_{p} \varepsilon_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \varepsilon_{0}^{(p)}\right)=\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)+2\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*} O\left(\|y\|^{2}\right)+O\left\{\|y\|^{4}\right\} \\
& \quad=\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)\left[1+2 \frac{\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{D}^{(p)}\right)^{*} O\left(\|y\|^{2}\right)}{\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)}+\frac{O\left\{\|y\|^{4}\right\}}{\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

$\Delta_{\nu} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}=O(\|y\|)$ and hence,

$$
\left(\Delta_{p} \varepsilon_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \varepsilon_{0}^{(p)}\right)=\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)(1+O\{\|\mathbf{y}\|\})
$$

Since $\Delta_{\mathcal{p}} \varepsilon_{0}^{(\mathcal{D})}$ is an analytic function, we get

$$
\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \varepsilon_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \varepsilon_{0}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1}=\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1}[1+O\{\|\mathbf{y}\|\}]
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{1}^{(p)}= & \tilde{\varepsilon}_{1}^{(p)}+\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1} O\{\|\mathbf{y}\|\} \Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)} \\
& +\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{0}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1}[1+O\{\|\mathbf{y}\|\}] O\left(\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}\right) \\
= & \tilde{\varepsilon}_{1}^{(p)}+O(1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let now $k \in \mathbf{N}, k<m, \mathrm{y} \in Q_{m}(\mathrm{~A})$, and let the statement be true for all $q \leqq 2 k$. By assumption, we have $\Delta_{p} \varepsilon_{2 k}^{(\mathcal{D})}=\Delta_{p} \tilde{\tilde{\varepsilon}}_{2 k}^{(\mathcal{D})}+O\left(\|y\|^{2}\right) \neq 0$ and $\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(\mathcal{D})} \neq 0$. According to the proof for $q=1$, we get, by use of Lemma 1 ,

$$
\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \varepsilon_{2 k}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \mathfrak{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1} \Delta_{\nu} \mathfrak{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)}=\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1} \Delta_{\nu} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k}^{(p)}+O(1)
$$

and hence,

$$
\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(\mathcal{D})}=\tilde{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{2 k+1}^{(\mathcal{D})}+O(1) .
$$

$\Delta_{p} \varepsilon_{2 k+1}^{(\mathcal{p})}=\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(\mathcal{p})}+O(1)$ and $\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}$ are equally supposed to be different from zero and, therefore, we get, by use of Lemma 1 ,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\Delta_{p} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right) *\left(\Delta_{p} \mathfrak{e}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right) \\
& =\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(D)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)\left[1+2 \frac{\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)^{*} O(1)}{\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)}+\frac{O\{1\}}{\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(D)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(D)}\right)}\right] . \\
& =\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right) *\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)(1+O\{\|\mathrm{y}\|\}) . \\
& \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{2 k+2}^{(\boldsymbol{p})}=\tilde{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{2 k}^{(\boldsymbol{p}+1)}+O\left(\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}\right) \\
& +\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\mathbf{e}}_{2 k+1}^{(\mathcal{D})}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\mathbf{\varepsilon}}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1}[1+O\{\|\mathbf{y}\|\}]\left[\Delta_{p} \tilde{\mathrm{e}}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}+O(1)\right] \\
& =\tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+2}^{(p+1)}+O\left(\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}\right)+\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)^{*}\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1} O\{\|\mathbf{y}\|\} \Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)} \\
& +\left[\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right) *\left(\Delta_{p} \tilde{\varepsilon}_{2 k+1}^{(p)}\right)\right]^{-1}[1+O\{\|y\|\}] O(1) \\
& =\tilde{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{2 k+2}^{(p)}+O\left(\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}\right) \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In conclusion, we have the following result:
Theorem 2. Let $F: \mathbf{R}^{n} \supset D \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{n}$ be an analytic function with fixed point $\mathbf{z} \in \dot{D}$ and let $Q_{m}\left(F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})\right) \subset \mathrm{R}^{n}$ be the set of vectors x for which $m$ is the degree of the minimal polynomial of $F^{\prime}(\mathbf{z})$. Further, let $\varepsilon_{a}^{(p)}$ and $\tilde{\varepsilon}_{a}^{(p)}$ be the vectors obtained by means of the $\epsilon$-algorithm from the sequences

$$
\left\{\mathbf{s}_{p} ; \mathbf{s}_{p+1}=F\left(\mathbf{s}_{p}\right)\right\}_{o \leqq p}, \quad \text { and } \quad\left\{\tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{p} ; \tilde{\mathbf{s}}_{p}=\mathbf{z}+\left(F^{\prime}(\mathbf{z})\right)^{p}\left(\mathbf{s}_{0}-\mathrm{z}\right)\right\}_{0 \leqq p},
$$

respectively. Assume that
(i) 1 is not an eigenvalue of $F^{\prime}(z)$,
(ii) the vectors $\varepsilon_{a}^{(p)}, \tilde{\varepsilon}_{a}^{(p)}, p+q \leqq 2 m$, exist for all $\mathrm{S}_{0}$ sufficiently close to z with $\mathrm{s}_{0}-\mathrm{z} \in Q_{m}\left(F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})\right)$.

Set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{2 m}^{(0)}=G\left(\mathrm{~s}_{0}, \cdots, \mathrm{~s}_{2 m}\right)=H_{F}\left(\mathrm{~s}_{0}\right), \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

then the computational procedure

$$
\mathbf{x}_{i+1}=H_{F}\left(\mathbf{x}_{i}\right) \quad(0 \leqq i)
$$

is, for $\mathrm{x}_{0}$ sufficiently close to z and $\mathrm{x}_{0}-\mathrm{z} \in Q_{m}\left(F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})\right.$ ), a quadratically convergent iterative method for the computation of z .

Proof. By the corollary and Lemma 2, we have

$$
H_{F}\left(\mathbf{x}_{0}\right)=\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{2 m}^{(0)}=\mathbf{z}+O\left(\left\|\mathbf{x}_{0}-\mathbf{z}\right\|^{2}\right)
$$

for $\mathbf{x}_{0}-\mathbf{z} \in Q_{m}\left(F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})\right)$.
5. A Modification of the Method. When a system of equations $x=F(x)$ of order $n$ is to be solved by the $\epsilon$-algorithm, the way of doing this is normally to put $m=n$. Then, we need, for each step of iteration, $4 n^{3}+2 n^{2}$ multiplications, $2 n^{2}+n$ divisions, $6 n^{3}-n^{2}$ additions/subtractions and the computation of $\mathbf{s}_{p}=F\left(\mathbf{s}_{p-1}\right)$ for $1 \leqq p \leqq 2 n$. The computation of the vectors $\mathrm{s}_{p}$ rather quickly produces a characteristic overflow if the eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrix $F^{\prime}(x)$ are greater in absolute value than unity near the fixed point $z$. This disadvantage can possibly be eliminated by replacing the Picard sequence $\mathrm{s}_{p+1}=F\left(\mathrm{~s}_{p}\right)$ by

$$
\mathrm{s}_{p+1}=F_{\alpha}\left(\mathrm{s}_{p}\right)=(1-\alpha) \mathrm{s}_{p-1}+\alpha F\left(\mathrm{~s}_{p}\right) \quad(0 \leqq p)
$$

with a suitable $\alpha, 0<\alpha<1$; in this way, the rate of growth of the components of the vectors $\mathrm{s}_{\boldsymbol{p}}$ is reduced. If we have, for example, $\dot{\rho}\left(F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})\right)=2$ for the spectral radius $\rho$ of $F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})$, we get $\rho\left(F_{\alpha}^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})\right)=3 / 2$ for $\alpha=1 / 2$. Those eigenvalues $\lambda$ of $F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})$ for which $|\lambda|<1$ are thereby increased, but they remain smaller than one in absolute value. Apart from this, convergence is slow if the eigenvalues of $F^{\prime}(x)$ approach one near $z$.

The rounding errors affect the computation severely. Perhaps, it is possible that the numerical properties can be improved if a modification proposed by Wynn [20] is applied. If the eigenvalues $\lambda$ of $F^{\prime}(x)$ with $|\lambda|<1$ predominate, we can indicate a modification of the method, by giving up the (theoretic) quadratic convergence, which considerably reduces the amount of work. To achieve this, we replace $2 m$ by $2[(m+1) / 2]$ in (9) and obtain for the basic formula of the algorithm

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon_{n}^{(0)}=G\left(\mathrm{~s}_{0}, \cdots, \mathrm{~s}_{n}\right)=H_{F}^{*}\left(\mathrm{~s}_{0}\right) \tag{9*}
\end{equation*}
$$

in the case $m=n$ even. We need now, per step of iteration, only

$$
\left(n^{3}+8 n^{2}-4 n\right) / 8
$$

multiplications/divisions,

$$
\left(6 n^{3}-2 n^{2}\right) / 8
$$

additions/subtractions and the computation of $\mathbf{s}_{p}=F\left(\mathbf{s}_{p-1}\right)$ for $1 \leqq p \leqq n$.
6. Numerical Examples. Let $F: \mathbf{R}^{4} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{4}$. In order to illustrate the method of Theorem 2 and its modifications, we consider some systems of quadratic equations $\mathbf{x}=F(\mathbf{x})$ with fixed point $\mathbf{z}=(1,1,1,1)^{T}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(\mathrm{x})=\mathrm{z}+F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})(\mathrm{z}-\mathrm{z})+\frac{1}{2} F^{\prime \prime}(\mathrm{z})(\mathrm{x}-\mathrm{z})^{(2)} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the Taylor series (10), we write briefly

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(\mathrm{x})=\mathrm{z}+\mathrm{A}(\mathrm{x}-\mathrm{z})+Q(\mathrm{x}-\mathrm{z}) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

and choose for A (linear) and $Q$ various mappings. The fixed point z of the systems given in that manner is computed by means of single-precision arithmetic with ten decimal digits. In detail, let $P^{(i)}(\mathrm{x})=\left(p_{1}^{(i)}(\mathrm{x}), \cdots, p_{4}^{(i)}(\mathrm{x})\right)^{T}$ and

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
p_{1}^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})=-\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{1} x_{4}\right) / 2, & p_{1}^{(2)}(\mathbf{x})=-x_{1}^{2} / 4, \\
p_{2}^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})=-x_{2}^{2} / 2, & p_{2}^{(2)}(\mathbf{x})=-x_{2}^{2} / 4, \\
p_{3}^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})=-x_{3}^{2} / 2, & p_{3}^{(2)}(\mathbf{x})=-x_{3}^{2} / 4, \\
p_{4}^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})=-\left(x_{4} x_{1}+x_{4}^{2}\right) / 2, & p_{4}^{(2)}(\mathbf{x})=-x_{4}^{2} / 4 .
\end{array}
$$

Furthermore, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{D}_{1}=(0.9,0.8,0.7,0.6), \\
& \mathbf{D}_{2}=(1.5,0.8,0.7,0.6), \\
& \mathbf{D}_{3}=(2.0,0.8,0.7,0.6)
\end{aligned}
$$

be diagonal matrices and

$$
U_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\
1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\
1 & -1 & -1 & 1
\end{array}\right), \quad U_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
1 & 3 & 6 & 10 \\
1 & 4 & 10 & 20
\end{array}\right) .
$$

We remark that $\mathrm{U}_{1}$ is orthogonal, whereas $\mathrm{U}_{2}$ is the ill-conditioned Pascal matrix of order four having an integer-valued inverse. It should be pointed out that

$$
\left.\left(\frac{\partial P^{(i)}(\mathbf{x}-\mathrm{z})}{\partial \mathbf{x}}\right)\right|_{\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{z}}=0 \quad(\text { Matrix }) \quad(j=1,2)
$$

hence, choosing $Q=P^{(i)}$ in eq. (11), we get, indeed, $F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})=\mathrm{A}$. Now, if $\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{U}_{m} \mathrm{D}_{l} \mathrm{U}_{m}^{-1}$ ( $l=1,2,3 ; m=1,2$ ), then $\mathrm{D}_{l}$ is the matrix of eigenvalues and $\mathrm{U}_{m}$ is the matrix of eigenvectors of $F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})$.

In Examples I-VI, $\mathbf{z}$ is computed by the method proposed in Theorem 2.

| I | 2.0 | $1.2 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $1.0 \cdot 10^{-5}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| II | $7.4 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $6.6 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $4.5 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $1.4 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $6.8 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $8.4 \cdot 10^{-3}$ | $7.5 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $2.5 \cdot 10^{-8}$ |
| III | $6.0 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $5.4 \cdot 10^{-5}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| IV | 0.9 | $8.2 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $2.7 \cdot 10^{-6}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| V | 2.0 | $9.9 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $2.8 \cdot 10^{-6}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| VI | 1.8 | $1.5 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $3.7 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $1.1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $4.4 \cdot 10^{-8}$ | $2.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$ | $1.1 \cdot 10^{-3}$ | $3.6 \cdot 10^{-4}$ |
| VII | 1.9 | $8.6 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $5.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$ | $5.0 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $5.2 \cdot 10^{-8}$ |  |  |  |
| VIII | $7.9 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $6.5 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $4.3 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $1.3 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $4.6 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $1.6 \cdot 10^{-3}$ | $5.1 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $4.8 \cdot 10^{-8}$ |
| IX | $6.0 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $6.0 \cdot 10^{-3}$ | $4.0 \cdot 10^{-6}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| X | $8.9 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $1.1 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $3.2 \cdot 10^{-4}$ | $2.4 \cdot 10^{-7}$ |  |  |  |  |
| XI | $3.8 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $5.1 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $1.1 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $3.8 \cdot 10^{-4}$ | $1.1 \cdot 10^{-6}$ |  | $1.0 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $9.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ |
| XII | 1.5 | $3.2 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $1.1 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $4.6 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $2.1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $6.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ |  |  |

Example I: $\quad F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})=\mathrm{U}_{1} \mathrm{D}_{1} \mathrm{U}_{1}^{-1}, Q=P^{(1)}$, initial vector $\mathrm{x}_{0}=2 \mathrm{z}$;
Example II: $F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})=\mathrm{U}_{1} \mathrm{D}_{2} \mathrm{U}_{1}^{-1}, Q=P^{(1)}, \mathrm{x}_{0}=0$;
Example III: as Example II but using $\mathrm{x}_{0}=2 \mathrm{z}$;
Example IV: $F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})=\mathrm{U}_{2} \mathrm{D}_{2} \mathrm{U}_{2}^{-1}, Q=P^{(2)}, \mathrm{x}_{0}=0.5 \mathrm{z}$;
Example V: as Example IV but using $\mathrm{x}_{0}=1.5 \mathrm{z}$;
Example VI: $F^{\prime}(\mathrm{z})=\mathrm{U}_{1} \mathrm{D}_{3} \mathrm{U}_{1}^{-1}, Q=P^{(1)}, \mathrm{x}_{0}=2 \mathrm{z}$, using the modified Picard sequence $\mathrm{s}_{p+1}=F_{\alpha}\left(\mathrm{s}_{p}\right)$ with $\alpha=1 / 2$.

The Examples VII-XII are the same as Examples I-VI, respectively, but $z$ is computed using formula (9*) instead of (9).

The above table contains in column $i(1 \leqq i \leqq 8)$ the values $\left\|\mathbf{x}_{i}-\mathbf{x}_{i-1}\right\|$ (compare Theorem 2) with rounded mantissae; values for which $\left\|\mathbf{z}-\mathbf{x}_{i}\right\|<5.0 \cdot 10^{-9}$ (the process has then terminated) are omitted. Generally speaking, we have found that the algorithm produces better results if the Jacobian matrix of the given system $\mathbf{x}=$ $F(x)$ is symmetric. Finally, it should be mentioned that it seems to be impossible at the moment to say more about the error than that it is of quadratic order.

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