# Numerical Analysis Exercises

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#### Abstract

The topics of the course are:

- Floating-point arithmetic: different sources of the computational error; absolute vs relative errors; the floating point representation of real numbers; the round-off unit; the machine epsilon; floating-point operations; over- and under-flow; numerical cancellation.
- Numerical approximation of nonlinear equations: the bisection and the Newton methods; the fixed-point iteration; convergence analysis (global and local results); order of convergence; stopping criteria and corresponding reliability; generalization to the system of nonlinear equations (hints).
- Numerical approximation of systems of linear equations: direct methods (Gaussian elimination method; LU and Cholesky factorizations; pivoting; sparse systems: Thomas algorithm for tridiagonal systems); iterative methods (the stationary and the dynamic Richardson scheme; Jacobi, Gauss-Seidel, gradient, conjugate gradient methods (hints); choice of the preconditioner; stopping criteria and corresponding reliability); accuracy and stability of the approximation; the condition number of a matrix; over- and under-determined systems: the singular value decomposition (hints).
- Numerical approximation of functions and data: Polynomial interpolation (Lagrange form); piecewise interpolation; cubic interpolating splines; least-squares approximation of clouds of data.
- Numerical approximation of derivatives: finite difference schemes of the first and second order; the undetermined coefficient method.
- Numerical approximation of definite integrals: simple and composite formulas; midpoint, trapezoidal, Cavalieri-Simpson quadrature rules; Gaussian formulas; degree of exactness and order of accuracy of a quadrature rule.
- Numerical approximation of ODEs: the Cauchy problem; one-step methods (forward and backward Euler and Crank-Nicolson schemes); consistency, stability, and convergence (hints).

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## Chapter 1

### Introduction to MATLAB

#### 1.1 Main MATLAB operators

Assignment operator:

```
% Print output
a = 1
% Does not print output
b = 2;
```

The active variables can be found in the workspace and the value can be checked on the command window with:

```
% Value of all variables
whos
% Value of a
whos a
```

If you want to save the file:

```
% Save the command history
diary file_name.txt
% Save the whole workspace
save file_name
% Save only the variable a
save file_name_only_a a
% Load only the variable a
load file_name_only_a
% Load the whole workspace
load file_name
```

It is possible to clear variables with the following commands:

```
% Clear only the variable a clear a % Clear the whole workspace clear all
```

#### 1.2 Vector and matrices

Most of the entities in MATLAB are matrices, even real numbers. The matrices can be defined in the following ways:

It is also possible to define various types of matrices:

```
% Zeros vector/matrix
A = zeros(row_length,column_length)
% Ones vector/matrix
A = ones(row_length,column_length)
% Identity matrix
A = eye(row_length,column_length)
% Diagonal matrix
d = [1:4]
D = diag(d)
% Set a not principal diagonal
D = diag(d, diagonal_index)
% Select only upper o lower trinagular
Ml = tril(M)
Mu = triu(M)
% Access an element in vector
% Access an element in matrix
```

```
C([2,3]);
% Access a part of the matrix
Q(rows,columns)
% Access the element in position (n,m)
Q(end, end)
% Dimension of a matrix
length(a);
numel(b);
size(a);
```

The operations on vectors are done in the following way:

```
% Given two row vectors a and b
% Vector sum
a + b
% Vector difference
a - b
% Scalar product
a * b'
dot(a,b)
% Tensor product
a' * b
% Elementwise product
a .* b
% Elementwise division
a ./ b
% Elementwise exponentiation
a .^ 2
```

The operations on matrices are done in the following way:

```
% Givcen two matrices A and B (both 3x2)
% Matrix sum
A + B
% Matrix difference
A - B
% Matrix product
K * L'
% Elementwise product
A .* B
% Elementwise division
A ./ B
% Elementwise exponentiation
A .^ 2
```

```
% Power matrix (useful only square)
A ^ 2
% Other useful values of the matrices
% Determinant
det(A)
% Trace
trace(A)
% Inverse of small matrix
inv(A)
% Given a column vector b ths olutio of Ax=b
A \ b
```

The function used to plot a graph are the following:

```
% To plot y=f(x) in [a,b]
x = a:step_length:b;
y = f(x);
figure
plot(x,y,color)
% To add y2=f2(x) in [c,d]
hold on
x2 = c:step_length:d;
y2 = f2(x);
plot(x2,y2,color)
% Show graph's grid
grid on
% Set the axis limit
axis([xmin xmax ymin ymax])
% Set the same scaling for both axis
axis equal
```

To handle functions the commands are:

```
% Define a function handle to g(x)
f = @g(x);
% Evaluation of f in a
f(a)
% Define an anonymous function
% It is useful to modify other functions
f = @(argument-list) expression
```

The operators that u logical values are:

```
% Smaller than
```

```
a < b
% Greater than
a > b
% Smaller or equal than
a <= b
% Equal to
a == b
% Different from
a ~= b
% And
(a < b) & (b > c)
% Or
(a < b) | (b > c)
```

The control-flow statement are:

```
% if-then-else statements
if (condition1)
   block1
elseif (condition2)
   block2
else
   block3
end
% for loops
for (index=start:step:end)
   instruction block
end
% while loops
while (condition)
   instruction block
end
```

There are two categories of m-files:

- Scripts: these files contain instructions that are executed in sequence in the command line if the script file is called. The variables are saved in the current workspace.
- Functions: they take some input arguments and return some outputs after a series of instructions are performed. The variables defined in the function are local to the scope of the function itself.

# Chapter 2

# Laboratory I

#### Exercise 1

Define the row vector:

$$\bar{v}_k = [1, 9, 25, \dots, (2k+1)^2] \in \mathbb{R}$$

with k = 8 using the following strategies:

- 1. A for loop to define one by one each element of the vector.
- 2. The vector syntax to build it in just one shot.

```
k = 8;

% For loop strategy
vk = zeros(1, k+1);
for (ii = 0:k)
    vk(ii+1) = (2*ii + 1)^2;
end
vk
% Vector syntax
vk = [1:2:2*k+1].^2;
```

Define a function which, for an input value k, returns the corresponding vector  $v_k$  as defined in the previous exercise.

```
function vk = ex_1_2(k)
vk = [1:2:2*k+1].^2;
end
```

Using the function of the previous exercise write another function that returns, for a generic value k, the  $2(k+1) \times 2(k+1)$  matrix.

$$m_k = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt[2]{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt[3]{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt[4]{2} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt[5]{2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt[6]{2} & \cdots & 0 & 25 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \frac{(2k+1)\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 9 & 9 & 25 & 25 & \cdots & (2k+1)^2 & (2k+1)^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

```
function Mk = ex_1_3(k)

% Create a diagonal matrix with the right elements and dimension
Mk = diag(2.^(1./[1:2*(k+1)]))
% The bottom right element will be overwritten

% Last column
Mk(2:2:end, end) = ex_1_2(k)

% Last line
Mk(end, 1:2:end) = ex_1_2(k)

Mk(end, 2:2:end) = ex_1_2(k)

end
```

Compare the results of the following code segments:

```
% Code A
x = 0;
while (x ~= 1)
    x = x + 1/16
end

% Code B
x = 0;
while (x ~= 1)
    x = x + 0.1
end
```

```
% Code A
x = 0;
while (x = 1)
   x = x + 1/16
\quad \text{end} \quad
% Code B
x = 0;
k = 1;
format long
while (x = 1)
   k
    x = x + 0.1
    if k==10 || k==11
        x-1
    end
    k=k+1;
    if k==15
        break
    end
end
```

Find the machine epsilon by implementing an ad hoc procedure. Comment and justify the obtained results.

```
\% Pay attention, you cannot use "eps" since it is a built-in
   variable
k = 0;
EPS = 1/2;
while (1 + EPS) > 1
   EPS_old = EPS;  % keep track of the value
   EPS = EPS / 2;
   k = k + 1;
end
format long
EPS_old
           % computed with the ad-hoc procedure
(1 + EPS_old) > 1
EPS
(1 + EPS) > 1
        \% Number of iterations, which is also the numer of digits
   in the mantissa, according to the standard
           % Octave/MATLAB built-in
```

Given the following code:

```
realmax
a = 1.0e+308;
b = -a;
c = 1.1e+308;
(a + b) + c
(a + c) + b
```

Explain why the second result is Inf.

```
realmax

a = 1.0e+308;

b = 1.1e+308;

c = -a;

(a + b) + c

a + (b + c)
```

Consider the following function:

$$f(x) = \frac{e^x - 1}{r}$$

- 1. Evaluate f(x) for values of x around zero (try with  $x_k = 10^{-k}$ ,  $k \in [1, 20]$ ). What do you obtain? Explain the results.
- 2. Propose an approach for fixing the problem. (Hint: Use Taylor expansions to get an approximation of f(x) around x = 0).
- 3. How many terms in the Taylor expansion are needed to get double precision accuracy (16 decimal digits)  $\forall x \in \left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right]$ ?

#### Answer of exercise 7

% Evaluate f(x) for values of x around zero (try with xk =  $10^{-k}$ , k in [1,20]). What do you obtain? Explain the results.

```
k = [1:20];
x = 10.^(-k);
f = Q(x) (exp(x) - 1) ./ x;
format long
[k x f(x)]
figure;
plot(x, f(x), '*')
  The computed f(xk) have the expected behavior until k = 7, in
   agreement with
  \lim\{x \to 0\} f(x) = 1.
\% k = 8 to k = 15: the sequence oscillates with increasing
   amplitude (bigger and bigger).
% k = 16: the result becomes 0! The cause of these effects is the
   loss of accuracy due to
% numerical cancellation.
% The numerical cancellation is the most serious consequence
   related to the
% floating point representation, that is the representation of the
   real
```

```
% numbers with a finite precision.
% It occurs when you subtract two numbers which are very close to
   each other.
\% So you lose significant digits and consequently accuracy of the
   finite
% representation
\% a = 1.11e-15, b = 1.12e-15, b-a=1.0e-17_ b-a very close to the
   machine
% epsilon
% For k = 8, \ldots, 15 e^{xk} and 1 are very close to each other,
% still being different in floating point arithmetic.
\% We are subtracting them and the result suffers of a great
   relative error.
% Moreover, we are dividing by xk, that approaches 0, hence the
   error is magnified.
% Finally, for k = 16, e^{xk} and 1 are too close to have a
   different representation
% in the floating ploint arithmetic (eps ~ 10^{-16}), hence the
   difference is 0.
% Write the Taylor expansion of e^x around x0 = 0, truncating it
   at the fifth order:
% e^x = sum_{k=0}^{+infinity} {f^{(k)}(x0)}/{k!} (x-x0)^k =
%
        = sum_{k=0}^{5}
                              {f^{(k)}(x0)}/{k!} (x-x0)^k + O(x^6) =
      = 1 + x + {x^2}/{2} + {x^3}/{6} + {x^4}/{24} + {x^5}/{120} +
%
   0(x^6)
%
  and substitute it in f(x).
f(x) = 1 + {x}/{2} + {x^2}/{6} + {x^3}/{24} + {x^4}/{120} +
   0(x^5)
% With this formula, at least for x > 0, all the terms have the
   same sign, so no numerical cancellation occurs.
f_{taylor_5} = @(x) 1 + 1/2*x + 1/6*x.^2 + 1/24*x.^3 + 1/120*x.^4;
```

 $[k \times f(x) f_{taylor_5(x)}]$ 

```
%%% How many terms in the Taylor expansion are needed to get
   double precision accuracy (16 decimal digits) for all x in [0,
   1/2]?
%
% The error in the approximation of a function g(x) at a point x
   = a with its Taylor expansion up to order n is
  E[g,n,a](x) = {g^{(n+1)}(xi)}/{(n+1)!} (x-a)^{n+1} for at least
   a xi
%
  s.t. |xi - a| < |x - a|.
%
  In this case
%
  E[e^x,n+1,0](x) = {e^{xi}}/{(n+2)!} x^{n+2} \text{ for xi in } [0,x]
%
%
  and therefore, substituting in f(x)
%
E[f,n,0](x) = \{E[e^x,n+1,0](x)\}/\{x\} = \{e^x\}\{(n+2)!\} x^{n+1}
   for xi in [0,x]
%
%
  We want
%
%
  E[f,n,0](x) < eps for all x in [0, 0.5]:
%
%
  since both e^xi and x^{n+1} are increasing functions, it's
   enough to choose xi = x = 0.5 and seek the first n* such that
e^{1/2}/{(n*+2)!} (1/2)^{n*+1} < eps
format short e
n = [1:20];
err = 1./factorial(n+2) .* (0.5).^(n+1).*exp(0.5);
[n err]
   Therefore n* = 13$.
```

The sequence:

$$1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{9}, \dots, \frac{1}{3^n}, \dots$$

can be generated with the following recursive relations:

$$\begin{cases} p_n = \frac{10}{3} p_{n-1} = p_{n-2} \\ p_1 = \frac{1}{3}, \ p_0 = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} q_n = \frac{1}{3}q_{n-1} \\ q_0 = 1 \end{cases}$$

- 1. Implement the two relations in order to generate the first 100 terms of the sequence.
- 2. Study the stability of the two algorithms and justify the obtained results.

#### Answer of exercise 8

% Implement the two relations in order to generate the first 100 terms of the sequence.

```
% First recursive relation
```

```
p(1) = 1;
p(2) = 1/3;
for i = 2:100
    p(i+1) = 10/3*p(i) - p(i-1);
end

figure
subplot(2,1,1)
plot(0:100, p, 'LineWidth',3)
% gca return the current axes
% setting the fontsize on axes
set(gca,'FontSize',16)
xlabel('n','FontSize',16)
ylabel('p_n','FontSize',16)
% The sequence explodes!
```

```
% Second recursive relation
q(1) = 1;
for i=1:100
   q(i+1) = 1/3*q(i);
end
subplot(2,1,2)
plot(0:100, q, 'LineWidth',3)
set(gca,'FontSize',16)
xlabel('n','FontSize',16)
ylabel('q_n','FontSize',16)
% The sequence is ok.
% Study the stability of the two algorithms and justify the
   obtained results.
%
% Error analysis: since we use finite precision numbers, we know
   the initial
% data up to an error eps. Actually, if we start from 1, we know
   it exactly,
% but we may introduce anyway errors in the following steps.
% Indeed, denoting by fl(pi) the floating point representative
   for pi:
% fl(p0) = p0 + eps, fl(p1) = p1 + eps.
%
% It follows
%
fl(p2) = {10}{3} fl(p1) - fl(p0) = {10}{3}(p1 + eps) - (p0 + eps)
   eps) = p2 + \{7\} \setminus \{3\} eps
\% fl(p3) = {10}\{3} fl(p2) - fl(p1) = {10}\{3}(p2 + {7}\{3}eps) -
   (p1 + eps) = p2 + \{61\} \setminus \{9\} eps
%
  fl(p4) = \dots
%
%
  The error is amplified!
%
% Instead, with the second formula
%
% fl(q0) = q0 + eps
fl(q1) = {1}{3} fl(q0) = {1}{3} q0 + {1}{3} eps = q1 +
   \{1\}\setminus\{3\} eps
```

```
% fl(q2) = {1}\{3} fl(q1) = {1}\{3} q1 + {1}\{9} eps = q2 +
     {1}\{9} eps
% fl(q3) = ...
%
The error is reduced!
```

Find the minimum positive number representable in MATLAB/Octave by implementing an ad hoc procedure. Compare with *realmin*.

```
k = 0;
zero = 1/2;
while (0 + zero) > 0
  zero_old = zero;
  zero = zero / 2;
  k = k + 1;
end

% Remember: realmin is the minimum !normalized! positive floating
  point number
realmin
% The minimum positive floating point number is instead a
  !denormalized! number
zero_old % < realmin
k</pre>
```

1. Use Taylor polynomial approximation to avoid the loss of significance errors in the following function when x approaches 0:

$$f(x) = \frac{1 - \cos(x)}{x^2}$$

2. Reformulate the following function g(x) to avoid the loss of significance error in its evaluation for increasing values of x towards  $+\infty$ :

$$g(x) = x\left(\sqrt{x+1} - \sqrt{x}\right)$$

#### Answer of exercise 10

format long

```
Use Taylor polynomial approximation to avoid the loss of
    significance
   errors in the following function when x approaches 0
%
%
      f(x) = \{1-\cos(x)\}/\{x^2\}
%
%
   The limit of f(x) = \frac{1-\cos(x)}{x^2} as x \to 0 is well known:
%
%
   \lim \{x \to 0\} \{1-\cos(x)\}/\{x^2\} = \{1\}/\{2\}
clear all, close all, clc
k = [1:30];
x = 2.^(-k);
f = 0(x) (1 - \cos(x))./(x.^2);
[k x f(x)]
```

- % If we try to evaluate f(x) directly with a sequence  $xk = 2^{-k}$  that approaches 0, we notice anomalous behaviour at k = 13, k = 27,  $k = \dots$
- % The reason is numerical cancellation of the terms on the numerator. We can use Taylor expansion of cos(x) for  $x \to 0$  to obtain a better approximation. Indeed

```
%
  cos(x) = 1 - \{1\}/\{2\} x^2 + \{1\}/\{24\} x^4 - \{1\}/\{720\} x^6 + o(x^8)
%
%
  so that
%
f(x) = \{1\}/\{2\} - \{1\}/\{24\} x^2 + \{1\}/\{720\} x^4 + o(x^6)
f_{taylor_4} = 0(x) 1/2 - x.^2/24 + x.^4/720;
[k x f(x) f_taylor_4(x)]
% The obtained formula is more stable that the direct evaluation
   of f(x), and the computed values approach \{1\}/\{2\}.
% significance error in its evaluation for increasing values of x
   towards +infinity.
% g(x) = x (sqrt{x+1} - sqrt{x}).
% It is well known that
%
\% lim{x -> +infinity} g(x) = +infinity
clear all, close all, clc
format short e
k = [1:20];
x = 10.^(k);
g = 0(x) x.*(sqrt(x+1) - sqrt(x));
[k \times g(x)]
% If we try to evaluate g(x) for a sequence xk = 10^{k} that
   approaches 0, we notice anomalous behaviour at k = 16, k = ...,
   for which the computed value is 0. This happens since, in
   floating point representation, x16 + 1 = x16!
%
```

```
% Rationalization of the expression in bracket solves this
   numerical cancellation: indeed, multiplying the numerator and
   the denominator by sqrt{x+1} + sqrt{x}

% g(x) = {x (sqrt{x+1} - sqrt{x})(sqrt{x+1} +
        sqrt{x})}/{(sqrt{x+1} + {x})} = {x}/{(sqrt{x+1} + sqrt{x})}.

g2 = @(x) x./(sqrt(x+1) + sqrt(x));

[k x g(x) g2(x)]

% This formula is more stable and does not suffer of numerical
   cancellation.
```

We can compute  $e^{-x}$  around x = 0 using Taylor polynomials in two ways, either using:

$$e^{-x} \approx 1 - x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \dots$$

or using

$$e^{-x} = \frac{1}{e^x} \approx \frac{1}{1 - x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \dots}$$

Which approach is the most accurate?

```
clear all, close all, clc
format long
f_{taylor_pos} = 0(x) 1 - x + 1/2*x.^2 - 1/6*x.^3 + 1/24*x.^4 -
            1/120*x.^5;
f_{taylor_neg} = 0(x) 1./(1 + x + 1/2*x.^2 + 1/6*x.^3 + 1/24*x.^4 + 1/24*x.^
            1/120*x.^5;
k = [1:20];
x_{pos} = 10.^{-(-k)};
[x_pos f_taylor_pos(x_pos) f_taylor_neg(x_pos)]
x_neg = -10.^(-k);
[x_neg f_taylor_pos(x_neg) f_taylor_neg(x_neg)]
% No bad behaviour is observed since the 1 in both formulas
           dominates the sum and numerical cancellation does not occur.
            Therefore both expression can be accepted.
%
\% Instead, if the sum were not dominated by the term 1 (or if you
           didn't notice that),
%
          the following combination could have been proposed
        e^{-x} = {1}/{1 + x + {1}/{2}x^2 + {1}/{6}x^3 + ...}, x > 0;
                              ^{\sim} 1 - x + {1}/{2}x^2 - {1}/{6}x^3 + ..., x <=0.
%
%
       The choice of the previous expression for x > 0 should not
            display any numerical cancellation because all the terms in the
```

sum are positive. Similarly, the choice for x < 0 grants that the terms  $-x^{2k+1}$  are positive, again avoiding any numerical cancellation.

Consider the following integral:

$$I_n(\alpha) = \int_0^1 \frac{x^n}{x+\alpha} dx \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \alpha > 0$$

- 1. Give an upper bound for  $I_n(\alpha)$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \alpha > 0$ .
- 2. Prove the following recursive relation between  $In(\alpha)$  and  $I_{n-1}(\alpha)$ :

$$\begin{cases} I_n(\alpha) = -\alpha I_{n-1}(\alpha) + \frac{1}{n} \\ I_o(\alpha) = \ln\left(\frac{\alpha+1}{\alpha}\right) \end{cases}$$

- 3. Employing the previous relation, compute  $I_40(\alpha=8)$  and comment the obtained results.
- 4. Write a numerically stable recursive relation for  $I_40(\alpha = 8)$ .

```
clear all;
format short e
n = 40;
% alpha = 1/8 not requested in the homework
for (alpha = [1/8, 8])
   I(1) = log((alpha+1)/alpha);
   for (k = 1:n)
       I(k+1) = -alpha*I(k) + 1/k;
   end
   recursion_integral = I(n+1);
   upper_bound = (1/alpha)*(1/(n+1));
   exact_integral = quadl(@(x) (x.^n)./(x+alpha), 0, 1, 1e-16); %
       Exact value (not requested)
    [recursion_integral, upper_bound, exact_integral]
end
  The recursive approximation of I{40}(alpha = 8) is 1.6389 ...
   10^{18}: this result is for sure incorrect because it violates
   the upper bound for I_{40}(\alpha = 8).
```

```
\% This is due to the finite precision we use and the error
   propagation: the initial value IO(alpha) =
   ln({alpha+1}/{alpha}) is represented with a certain error eps;
   denoting by fl(y) the floating point representation of the
   number y, we have
% fl(IO(alpha)) = IO(alpha) + eps,
% fl(I1(alpha)) = -alpha fl(I0(alpha)) + 1 = -alpha (I0(alpha) +
   eps) + 1 = I1(alpha) - alpha eps,
% fl(Ik(alpha)) = In(alpha) + (-1)^k alpha^k eps,
%
% Therefore, at the final (n-th) step the error is multiplied by
   a factor alpha^n, which result in an amplification of the error
   if alpha > 1. Instead, for alpha < 1, the error is damped and
   the recursive relation is stable (e.g. see the previous test
   for alpha = 1/8).
%
% Now write a numerically stable recursive relation for
   I{40}(alpha = 8).
%
\% The idea is to transform the factor alpha on the RHS of the
   recursive relation in a factor {1}/{alpha}; this can be
   achieved inverting the recursive relation:
%
%
     I\{k-1\}(alpha) = - \{1\}/\{alpha\} I\{k\}(alpha) + \{1\}/\{k alpha\}
%
     \lim\{k \rightarrow +\inf\{inity\}\}\ I\{k\}(alpha) = 0
%
% The final value \lim\{k \rightarrow +\inf\{inity\}\}\ I\{k\}(alpha) is equal to
   zero because 0 \le I\{k\}(alpha) \le \{1\}/\{alpha\} \{1\}/\{k+1\} \rightarrow 0, as
   k \rightarrow + infinity.
clear all;
n = 40;
big = 1000;
% alpha = 1/8 not requested in the homework
for (alpha = [1/8, 8])
    I(big + 1) = 0;
    for (k = big:-1:n+1)
       I(k) = -1/alpha*I(k+1) + 1/(k*alpha);
```

```
end
  recursion_integral = I(n+1);
  upper_bound = (1/alpha)*(1/(n+1));
  exact_integral = quadl(@(x) (x.^n)./(x+alpha), 0, 1, 1e-16); %
       Exact value (not requested)
  [recursion_integral, upper_bound, exact_integral]
end

% The recursion is now stable for alpha > 1 (and note that, now, an additional error is present, because the final condition can be set for an arbitrary large k = k* instead of k = +infinity).
```

Given the following sequence:

$$\begin{cases} x_{n+1} = 2^{n+1} \left[ \sqrt{1 + \frac{x_n}{2^n}} - 1 \right] \\ x_0 > -1 \end{cases}$$

for which  $\lim_{n\to+\infty} x_n = \ln(1+x_0)$ 

- 1. Set  $x_0 = 1$ , compute  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{71}$  and explain the obtained results.
- 2. Transform the sequence in an equivalent one that converges to the theoretical limit.

```
% Set x0 = 1, compute x1, x2, ..., x\{71\} and explain the obtained
   results.
clear all, close all, clc
format long
n_max = 71;
x = zeros(n_max+1, 1);
                % x0 set to 1
x(1) = 1;
for n = 0:n_{max-1}
  x(n+2) = 2^{(n+1)}*(sqrt(1 + x(n+1)/2^{(n)}) - 1); % Pay attention to
     the indexing!!!
end
x(end)
x_{lim} = log(1 + x(1))
figure
hold on, box on
plot([0:71], x, 'bx-', 'Linewidth',3)
plot([0:71], x_lim*ones(n_max+1,1)', 'r-', 'Linewidth',3)
axis([-1 72 -0.05 1.05])
set(gca,'LineWidth',2)
set(gca,'FontSize',16)
% When computing the sequence with Octave/MATLAB we find that
   x{71} differs a lot from ln(1+x0) = ln(2). The plots also shows
   that xn = 0, for all n \ge n* = 52: this is due to numerical
```

```
cancellation effects, because at n = n* it holds
   {x{n*}}/{2^{n*}} < eps, hence in finite precision arithmetic
   x\{n*\} = 0!
x(53)
%%
% The value of n* can also be computed with the following
   argument: since (hopefully) numerical cancellation will occur
   for large n
% x{n} \sim ln(1+x0)
% therefore
% {x{n}}/{2^{n}} < eps is approximately equivalent to
   {\ln(1+x0)}/{2^{n}} < eps
% which can be solved for n, finding
n > \log 2({\ln(1+x0)}/{eps})
x_0 = 1;
n = \log(\log(1 + x_0)/\exp(2))
% Transform the sequence in an equivalent one that converges to
   the theoretical limit.
\% After a razionalization, the recurrence can be written as
x{n+1} = 2^{n+1} [ sqrt{1+(xn)/(2^{n})} - 1 ] = {2 xn}{ sqrt{1}}
   + \{xn\}/\{2^{n}\}\} + 1\}
clc, clear all
n_max = 71;
x = zeros(n_max+1, 1);
x(1) = 1;
                  % x0 set to 1
for n = 0:n_{max-1}
 x(n+2) = 2*x(n+1)/(sqrt(1 + x(n+1)/2^n)) + 1);
end
x(end)
  The error in this case is
```

```
x(end) - log(1 + x(1))

figure
hold on, box on
plot([0:n_max], x,'bx-','Linewidth',3)
plot([0:n_max], log(1+x(1))*ones(n_max+1), 'r-','Linewidth',3)
axis([-1 72 0.67 1.02])
set(gca,'LineWidth',2)
set(gca,'FontSize',14)

% Using the previous calculations we know that (1 + xn/2^n)
approximately 1 for n >= 52, so x(n+1) = 2*xn/(1 + 1) = xn
```

# Chapter 3 Laboratory session II