

PHY604 Lecture 3

September 5, 2023

Review: Roundoff and truncation error

- Consider computing $\exp(-24)$ via a truncated Taylor series:

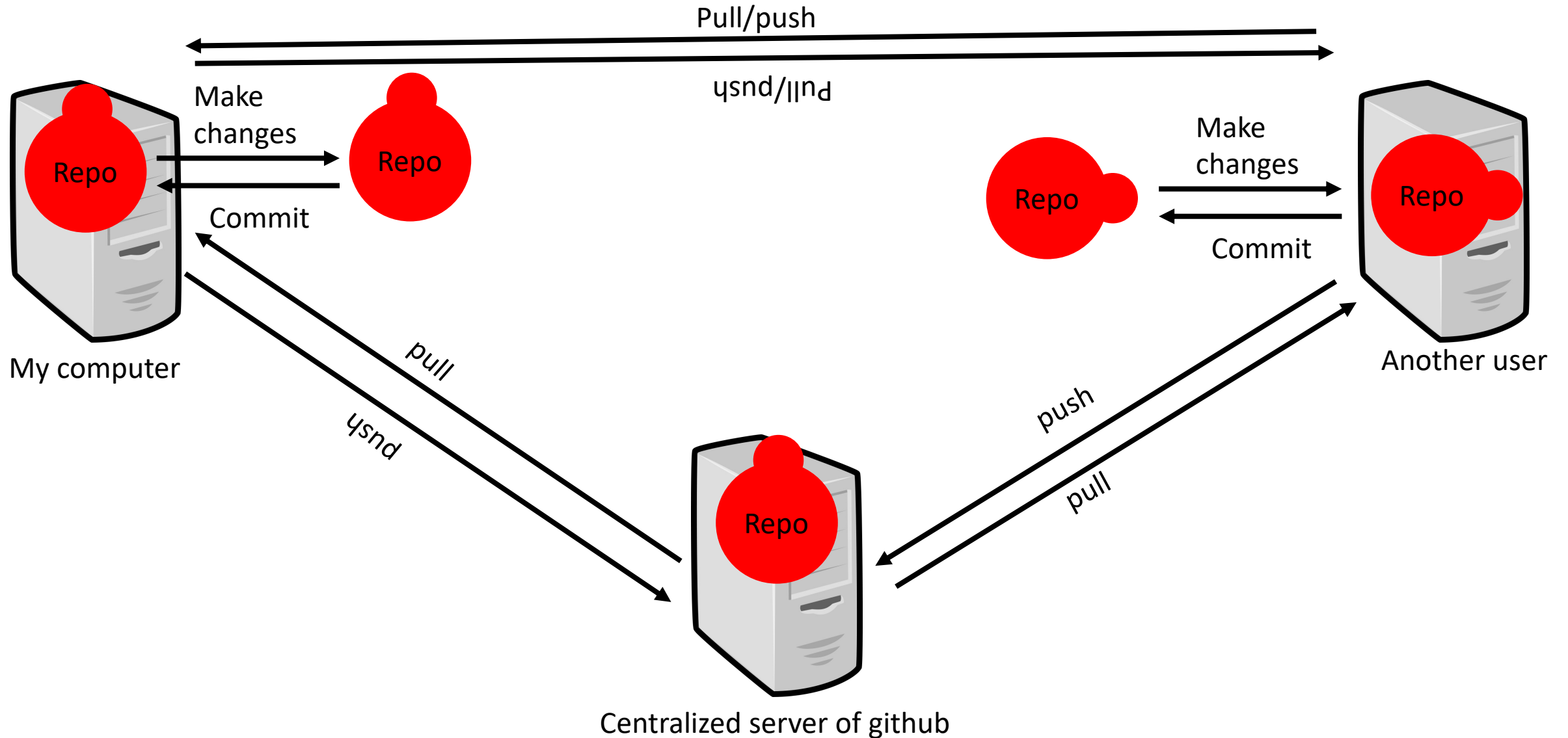
$$e^x \simeq S(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

- Error in the approximation (**i.e., truncation error**) is less than:

$$\frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \max\{1, e^x\}$$

- But if we compute $S(-24)$ by adding terms until they are less than machine precision (8 byte):
 - $S(-24)=3.7814382919759864\text{E-}007$
 - $\text{Exp}(-24)=3.7751345442790977\text{E-}011$
 - **Error is larger than the result (much larger than truncation error)!!**
 - Looking at terms, we see we are relying on cancellations of terms

Review: Distributed version control with Git



Today's lecture:

- Good programming practices:
 - Finish discussing version control
 - Testing
 - Misc. good practices
- Numerical differentiation

Example: Simple remote on group server

- We'll look at the example of having people work with a shared remote repository—this is common with groups.
 - Each developer will have their own clone that they interact with, develop in, branch for experimentation, etc.
 - You can push and pull to/from the remote repo to stay in sync with others
 - You probably want to put everyone in the same UNIX group on the server
- Creating a master bare repo:

```
git init --bare --shared myproject.git
```

```
chgrp -R groupname myproject.git
```

(to set permissions)

Example: Simple remote on group server

- This repo is empty, and bare—it will only contain the git files, not the actual source files you want to work on
- Each user should clone it
 - In some other directory. User A does:
 - `git clone /path/to/myproject.git`
- Now you can operate on it
 - Create a file (README)
 - Add it to your repo: `git add README`
 - Commit it to your repo: `git commit README`
 - Push it back to the bare repo: `git push`
- Note that for each commit you will be prompted to add a log message detailing the change

Example: Simple remote on group server

- Now user B comes along and wants to play too:
- In some other directory. User B does:
 - `git clone /path/to/myrepo.git`
- Note that they already have the README file
 - Edit README
 - Commit you changes locally: `git commit README`
 - Push it back to the bare repo: `git push`
- Now user A can get this changes by doing: `git pull`
- In general, you can push to a *bare repo*, but you can pull from anyone

Using github

- Don't want to use your own server? Use github or bitbucket
 - Free for public (open source) projects
 - Pay for private projects
- How to contribute to someone else's project?
 - Since you are not a member of that project, you cannot push back to it
 - You don't have write access
 - Use pull requests:
 - Fork the project into your own account
 - Push back to your fork
 - Issue a *pull-request* asking for your changes to be incorporated

Common Git commands available using `git --help`

```
/Users/cdreier % git --help
usage: git [--version] [--help] [-C <path>] [-c <name>=<value>]
        [--exec-path[=<path>]] [--html-path] [--man-path] [--info-path]
        [-p | --paginate | -P | --no-pager] [--no-replace-objects] [--bare]
        [--git-dir=<path>] [--work-tree=<path>] [--namespace=<name>]
        <command> [<args>]
```

These are common Git commands used in various situations:

start a working area (see also: `git help tutorial`)

<code>clone</code>	Clone a repository into a new directory
<code>init</code>	Create an empty Git repository or reinitialize an existing one

work on the current change (see also: `git help everyday`)

<code>add</code>	Add file contents to the index
<code>mv</code>	Move or rename a file, a directory, or a symlink
<code>reset</code>	Reset current HEAD to the specified state
<code>rm</code>	Remove files from the working tree and from the index

examine the history and state (see also: `git help revisions`)

<code>bisect</code>	Use binary search to find the commit that introduced a bug
<code>grep</code>	Print lines matching a pattern
<code>log</code>	Show commit logs
<code>show</code>	Show various types of objects
<code>status</code>	Show the working tree status

grow, mark and tweak your common history

<code>branch</code>	List, create, or delete branches
<code>checkout</code>	Switch branches or restore working tree files
<code>commit</code>	Record changes to the repository
<code>diff</code>	Show changes between commits, commit and working tree, etc
<code>merge</code>	Join two or more development histories together
<code>rebase</code>	Reapply commits on top of another base tip
<code>tag</code>	Create, list, delete or verify a tag object signed with GPG

collaborate (see also: `git help workflows`)

<code>fetch</code>	Download objects and refs from another repository
<code>pull</code>	Fetch from and integrate with another repository or a local branch
<code>push</code>	Update remote refs along with associated objects

Some last comments about git and github

- If you put the remote repository on a different server, then you always have a backup of your project
 - Since git is distributed, if your remote server dies, each clone is a backup of the entire repo, so you are safe both ways.
- Free (for open source), online, web-based hosting sites exist (e.g. Github)
- Best with Linux or Mac OS (in terminal).
 - Windows? Try: <https://git-for-windows.github.io/>
- Github provides tools to share your code broadly and engage with your community
 - Pull requests, issue tracking, etc.
- We'll use git to hand in our homework assignments (more on this later)

Today's lecture:

- Good programming practices:
 - Finish discussing version control
 - Testing
 - Misc. good practices
- Numerical differentiation

Testing

- Testing is obviously a crucial part of writing programs
- When programs get complicated, testing is not so straight forward:
 - How do I know that a change to one part didn't break another part?
 - How do I know what I did will work on different architectures?
 - My code crashes after running for 78 hours, where did the error originate from?
- Testing involves running the program or part of the program with some inputs and determining if the outputs are those that are expected (or at least consistent)
- Many types of testing. We will discuss **unit testing** and **regression testing**

Unit testing

- Unit testing is the practice in which each smallest, self-contained unit of the code is tested independently of the others
- There are unit testing frameworks out there that help automate the procedure for different codes
 - E.g., **unittest** for python

Another simple example: Matrix inversion

- Say your code has a matrix inversion routine that computes A^{-1}
- A unit test for this routine can be:
 - Pick a vector x
 - Compute $b = A x$
 - Compute $x = A^{-1} b$
 - Does the x you get match (to machine tol) the original x ?

Regression Testing

- Imagine you've “perfected” your program (simulation tool, analysis tool, etc.)
 - You are confident that the answer it gives is “right”
 - You want to make sure that any changes you do in the future do not change the output
 - Regression testing tests whether changes to the code change the solution
- Regression testing:
 - Store a copy of the current output (a benchmark)
 - Make some changes to the code
 - Compare the new solution to the previous solution
 - If the answers differ, either:
 - You've introduced a bug → fix it
 - You've fixed a bug → update your benchmark

Regression testing

- Simplest requirements:
 - You just need a tool to compare the current output to benchmark
 - You can build up a more complex system from here with simple scripting
- Big codes need a bunch of tests to exercise all possible options for the code
 - If you spend a lot of time hunting down a bug, once you fix it, put a test case in your suite to check that case
 - If someone implements a new functionality, ask them to submit a test
 - You'll never have complete coverage, but your number of tests will grow with time, experience, and code complexity

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Comments and Documentation

- Many in computer science will say that “good code documents itself”
 - **Do not believe it.**
 - Remember, we are often writing code for programming novices (both the developers and users)
 - The better people can understand your code, the more productive science will be done with it
- No hard-and-fast rules. Comments should explain the basic idea of what a block of code does
 - Only comment “single lines” if there is something special or unusual about them
 - Keep comments up to date with the code
 - Think about what information will be useful for you in the future, and other developers of your code
- Can often use tools to turn comments in the source into external documentation
 - Robodoc: <https://rfsber.home.xs4all.nl/Robo/>
 - FORD: <http://fortranwiki.org/fortran/show/FORD>
 - Pydoc: <https://docs.python.org/3/library/pydoc.html>
 - Others for python: <https://wiki.python.org/moin/DocumentationTools>

Debugging tools

- Simplest debugging: print out information at intermediate points in code execution
- Running with appropriate compiler flags (e.g., `-g` for gnu compilers) can provide debugging information
 - Can make code run slower, but useful for test purposes
- Interactive debuggers let you step through your code line-by-line, inspect the values of variables as they are set, etc.
 - gdb is the version that works with the GNU compilers. Some graphical frontends exist.
 - Lots of examples online
 - Not very useful for parallel code.
- Particularly difficult errors to find often involve memory management
 - **Valgrind** is an automated tool for finding memory leaks. No source code modifications are necessary.

DEMO valgrind

- Ssh -Y rusty
- Cd ~/teaching/PHY604_Fall2021/Lecture2_demos/cxx_val
- Emacs bounds
- g++ -o bounds bounds.cpp
- ./bounds
- Valgrind ./bounds
 - Finds leak, but not sure where
- g++ -o bounds bounds.cpp -g
- valgrind ./bounds
 - Now we can see leak is
- Uncomment std::cout...
- g++ -o bounds bounds.cpp -g
- valgrind ./bounds
 - Uninitialized error

Building your code with, e.g., Makefiles

- It is good style to separate your subroutines/functions into files, grouped together by purpose
 - Makes a project easier to manage (for you and version control)
 - Reduces compiler memory needs (although, can prevent inlining across files)
 - Reduces compile time—you only need to recompile the code that changed (and anything that might depend on it)
- Makefiles automate the process of building your code
 - No ambiguity of whether your executable is up-to-date with your changes
 - Only recompiles the code that changed (looks at dates)
 - Very flexible: lots of rules allow you to customize how to build, etc.
 - Written to take into account dependencies

We have not really discussed general coding style

- Depends very much on the language, and is often a matter of opinion (google it)
- Some general rules:
 - 1. Use a consistent programming style
 - 2. Use brief but descriptive variable and function names
 - 3. Avoid “magic numbers”
 - Name your constants, specify your flags
 - 4. Use functions and/or subroutines for repetitive tasks
 - 5. Check return values for errors before proceeding
 - 6. Share information effectively (e.g., using modules or namespaces)
 - 7. Limit the scope of your variables, methods, etc.
 - 8. Think carefully about the most effective way to input and output data
 - 9. Be careful about memory, i.e., allocating and deallocating
 - 10. Make your code readable and portable, you will thank yourself (or your collaborators will thank you) later.

Today's lecture:

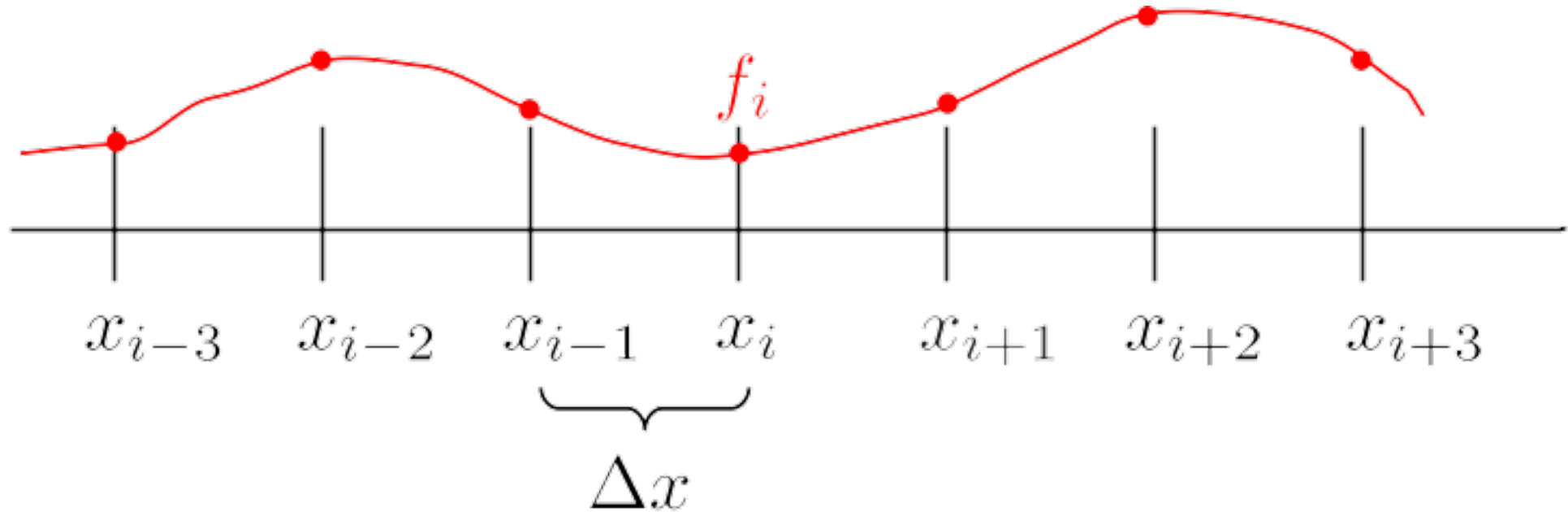
- Good programming practices:
 - Finish discussing version control
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- Numerical differentiation

Numerical differentiation, Two situations:

- We have data defined only at a set of (possibly regularly spaced) points
 - Generally speaking, asking for greater accuracy for the derivative involves using more of the discrete points
- We have an analytic expression for $f(x)$ and want to compute the derivative numerically
 - If possible, it would be better to take the analytic derivative of $f(x)$, but we can learn something about error estimation in this case.
 - Used, for example, in computing the numerical Jacobian for integrating a system of ODEs (we'll see this later)

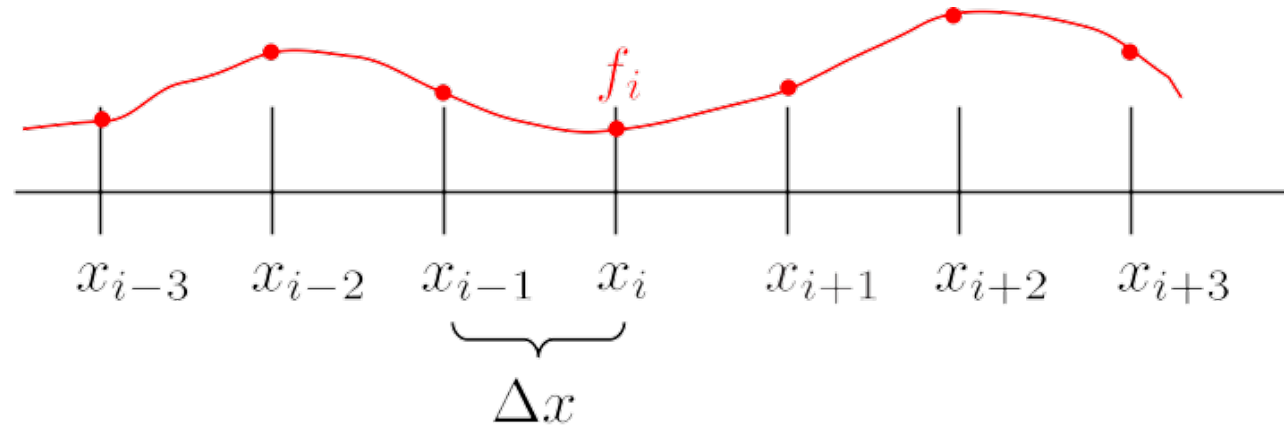
OTB: Gridded data

- Discretized data is represented at a finite number of locations
 - Integer subscripts are used to denote the position (index) on the grid
 - Structured/regular: spacing is constant



- Data is known only at the grid points: $f_i = f(x_i)$

OTB: First derivative



- Taylor expansion:

$$f_{i+1} = f(x_i + \Delta x) = f_i + \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x_i} \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \right|_{x_i} \Delta x^2 + \dots$$

- Solve for the first derivative:

$$\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x_i} = \frac{f_{i+1} - f_i}{\Delta x} - \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \right|_{x_i} \Delta x$$

Discrete approx. of f'

Leading term in the truncation error

OTB: Order of accuracy

$$\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x_i} = \frac{f_{i+1} - f_i}{\Delta x} - \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \right|_{x_i} \Delta x$$

- The accuracy of the finite difference approximation is determined by size of Δx
- So this finite difference expression is accurate to “order” Δx : $\mathcal{O}(\Delta x)$
- However: Making Δx small means that we are **subtracting numbers that are very close to each other**, which can result in significant rounding errors

OTB Maximizing the accuracy

- Say we can evaluate the function to accuracy $C f(x)$ [also $C f(x+\Delta x)$]
 - For double precision: $C \simeq 10^{-16}$
- Worst-case rounding error on derivative is $2C|f(x)|/\Delta x$

- Also need to worry about associative errors: $(x + \Delta x) - x \stackrel{?}{=} \Delta x$

- So total error is:
$$\left| \frac{df}{dx} \Big|_{x_i} - \frac{f_{i+1} - f_i}{\Delta x} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \Big|_{x_i} \Delta x + \frac{2C|f_i|}{\Delta x}$$

- We can minimize to find:
$$\Delta x = \sqrt{4C \left| \frac{f_i}{f_i''} \right|} \sim 10^{-8}$$

- So “minimum” error:
$$\epsilon = \sqrt{4C |f_i f_i''|} \sim 10^{-8}$$

Increasing accuracy with more points in the “stencil”

- First-order “forward” or “backward”:

$$f' = \frac{f_{i+1} - f_i}{\Delta x}$$

$$f' = \frac{f_i - f_{i-1}}{\Delta x}$$

2-point stencil

- Second-order “central”:

$$f' = \frac{-\frac{1}{2}f_{i-1} + 0f_i + \frac{1}{2}f_{i+1}}{\Delta x}$$

3-point stencil

Second-order central

- Consider two Taylor expansions:

$$f_{i+1} = f_i + \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x_i} \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \right|_{x_i} \Delta x^2 + \dots$$

$$f_{i-1} = f_i - \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x_i} \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \right|_{x_i} \Delta x^2 + \dots$$

- We see that:

$$\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x_i} = \frac{f_{i+1} - f_{i-1}}{2\Delta x} + \mathcal{O}(\Delta x^2) + \dots$$

Error in Second order central

$$\left| \frac{df}{dx} \Big|_{x_i} - \frac{f_{i+1} - f_{i-1}}{2\Delta x} \right| \leq \frac{1}{6} \frac{d^3 f}{dx^3} \Big|_{x_i} \Delta x^2 + \frac{C|f_i|}{\Delta x}$$

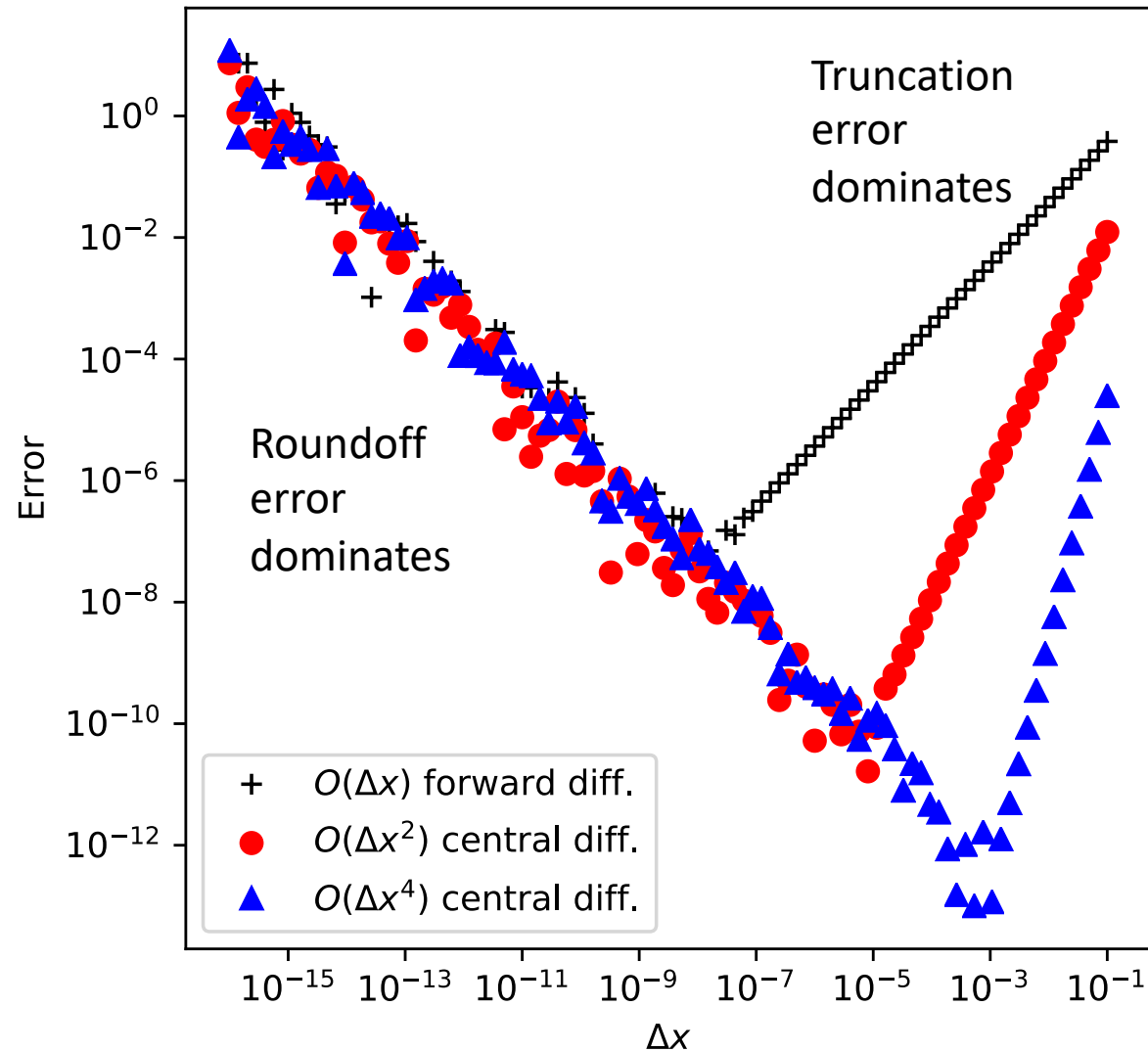
- Minimize WRT Δx : $\Delta x = \sqrt[3]{6C \left| \frac{f(x_i)}{f'''(x_i)} \right|} \sim 10^{-5}$
Assuming double prec.
- Minimum error: $\epsilon \propto \sqrt[3]{C^2 f(x_i)^2 |f'''(x_i)|} \sim 10^{-11}$
Assuming double prec.

Higher order first derivatives

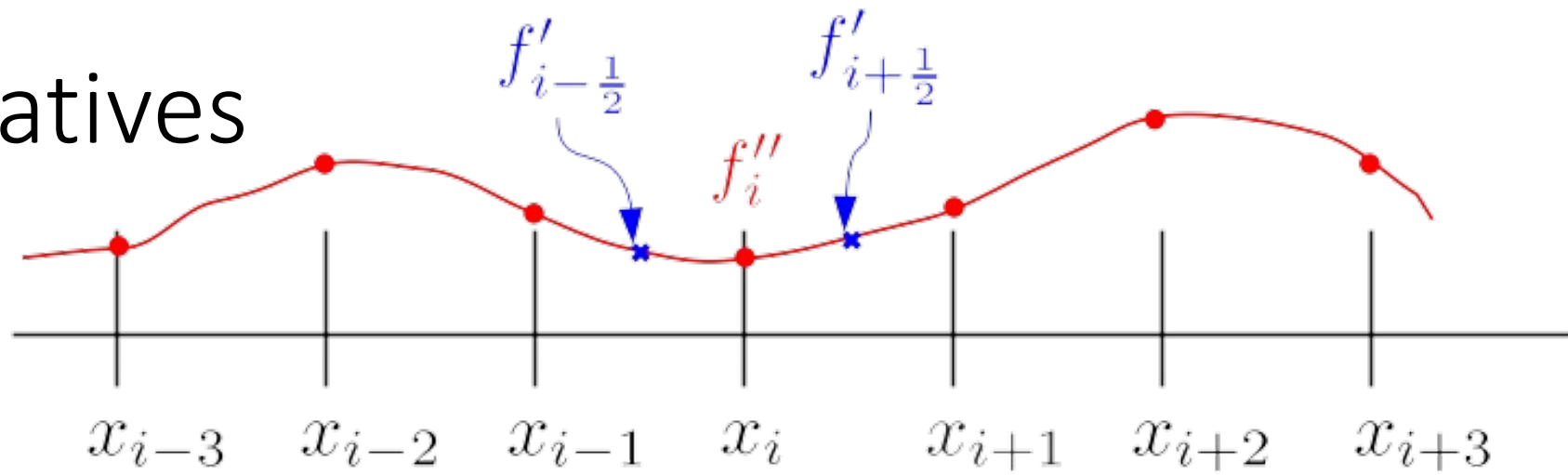
- To get accuracy to order n [i.e., $\mathcal{O}(\Delta x^n)$] follow a similar strategy:
 - 1. Write down Taylor expansion for $n+1$ finite difference points up to order $n+1$
 - 2. Solve set of polynomial equation in Δx for f'
 - 3. Obtain an expression involving weighted sum of function evaluated at $n+1$ points (some weights may be zero)
- Note: may be central, forward, or backward
- For example, for central:

Derivative	Accuracy	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
1	2					-1/2	0	1/2				
	4				1/12	-2/3	0	2/3	-1/12			
	6			-1/60	3/20	-3/4	0	3/4	-3/20	1/60		
	8		1/280	-4/105	1/5	-4/5	0	4/5	-1/5	4/105	-1/280	

Example: Derivative of $\exp(x)$



OTB: Higher derivatives



- Write second derivative as:
$$f''_i = \frac{f'_{i+1/2} - f'_{i-1/2}}{\Delta x}$$
- Insert central difference first derivatives, e.g.:
$$f'_i = \frac{f_{i+1} - f_i}{\Delta x}$$
- So we get:
$$f''_i = \frac{f_{i+1} - 2f_i + f_{i-1}}{\Delta x^2}$$

Higher derivatives and error

- We can also use the Taylor expansion strategy:

$$f_{i+1} = f_i + \Delta x f'_i + \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^2 f''_i + \frac{1}{6} \Delta x^3 f'''_i + \frac{1}{24} \Delta x^4 f''''_i + \dots$$

$$f_{i-1} = f_i - \Delta x f'_i + \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^2 f''_i - \frac{1}{6} \Delta x^3 f'''_i + \frac{1}{24} \Delta x^4 f''''_i + \dots$$

- Add together and rearrange: $f''_i = \frac{f_{i+1} - 2f_i + f_{i-1}}{\Delta x^2} - \frac{1}{12} \Delta x^2 f''''_i$

- Error: $\epsilon = \sqrt{\frac{4}{3} C |f_i f''''_i|} \sim 10^{-8}$

Assuming double prec.



Partial and mixed derivatives

- Partial derivatives are a simple generalization
- E.g., central differences for function of two variables $f(x,y)$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{f(x + \Delta x, y) - f(x - \Delta x, y)}{2\Delta x} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{f(x, y + \Delta y) - f(x, y - \Delta y)}{2\Delta y}$$

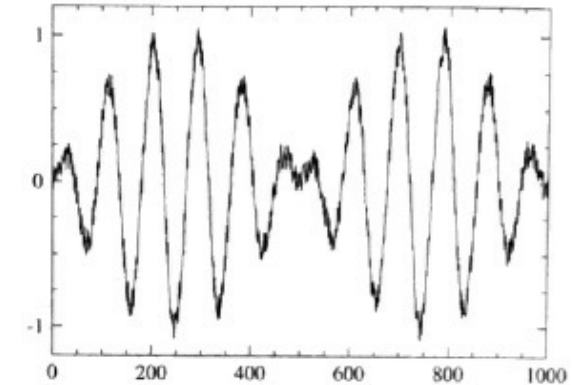
- Mixed second derivative:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - f(x - \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - f(x + \Delta x, y - \Delta y) + f(x - \Delta x, y - \Delta y)}{4\Delta x \Delta y}$$

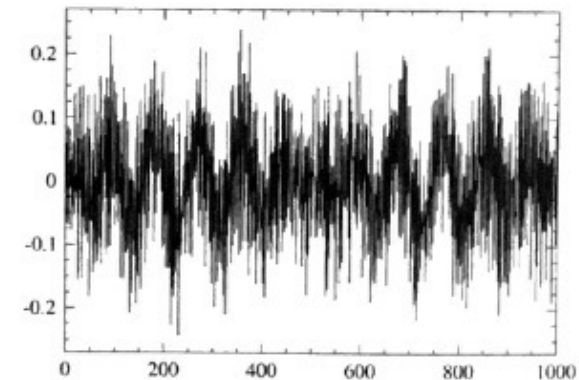
Some final comments on numerical derivation

- Taking derivatives of noisy data makes the noise much worse!
 - Fit to a smooth curve and take the derivative of that
 - Smooth the data, e.g., with a Fourier transform
- We can treat data on uneven grids with the same strategy as before, taking into account the different Δx 's between points

Noisy data



Derivative



(Newman)

After class tasks

- If you do not already have one, make an account on github:
<https://github.com/>
- Readings:
 - [Wikipedia artical on makefiles](#)
 - [Fortran best practices](#)
 - [Good Enough Practices in Scientific Computing](#)
 - [Blog on numerical differentiation](#)
 - [Wikipedia page of finite difference coefficients](#)
 - Newman Chapter 5
 - Garcia Section 10.2