



CSC336

Numerical Methods

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PART I

PART 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1

Motivation

Math Textbook + Laptop + Coding $\xrightarrow{?}$ Compute Accurate Solution

Consider the McLaurin series expansion of the function $f(x) = e^x$:

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

The issue is that we cannot compute to infinity. We need to introduce partial sums

$$S_n = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{x^i}{i!}$$

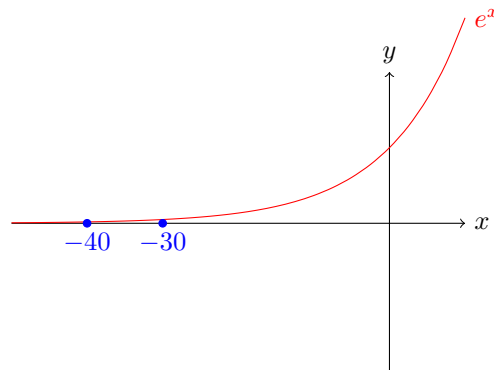
We could iterate over n until $|S_n - S_{n-1}| < \text{tolerance}$.

x	0	1	10	20	40
Num Terms to “Converge”	2	13	42	69	104

We observe that the running time is dependent on the value of x . We need to find a better way to compute the sum – with more consistent running time.

Using the python program,

- When $x = -30$, convergence happened after 97 terms, to -6.0×10^{-5} .
- When $x = -40$, convergence happened after 124 terms, to approximately -5.9×10^0 .



Clearly, we have inaccuracy when $x = -40$, as $0 < e^x < 1$ for all $x < 0$. The math textbooks' techniques does not always provide good computational algorithms.

Course goal:

Show computational algorithms and discuss why they are good.

Example (e^x Better Algorithm). A better algorithm is as follows

- Find k such that $r = \frac{x}{k}$ exactly with $\|r\| < 1$.
- Compute $e^r = e^{x/k}$ using the McLaurin series.
- Then, $e^x = (e^r)^k$.



Remark Error due to Catastrophic Cancellation

When we subtract two numbers that are very close to each other, we lose precision.

1.2

Topics

- Computer Arithmetic and Computational Errors (Chap. 1)

- Floating Point Arithmetic
- Two Concepts
 - The conditioning of a math problem
 - the numerical stability of an algorithm

- Solving Systems of Linear Equations (Chap. 2)

- Solve $Ax = b$ for x

- Solving Non-linear Equations (Chap. 5)

Fine x s.t. $f(x) = 0$ or $g(x) = 0$ or $f(x) = g(x)$.

- Interpolation (Chap. 7)

- Given the set of data

$$\{(t_i, y_i)\}_{i=0}^n \quad \text{or} \quad \{(t_i, f(t_i))\}_{i=0}^n$$

come up with a function $g(t)$ that approximates the data.

COMPUTER ARITHMETIC AND COMPUTATIONAL ERRORS

2.1 Numerical Stability

There is only finite space in computer. How would we store π , an irrational number? We can't. We can only store an approximation of π . How does introduction of approximations affect the accuracy of our computations?

Example. Suppose we want to compute the value for the sequence of integrals

$$y_n = \int_0^1 \frac{x^n}{x+5} dx$$

for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 8$, with 3 decimal digits of accuracy.

There are several properties that I can claim:

- $y_n > 0$ for all n , since the integrand $\frac{x^n}{x+5} > 0$ for all $x \in (0, 1)$.
- $y_{n+1} < y_n$ for all n , since the integrand $\frac{x^{n+1}}{x+5} = x \cdot \frac{x^n}{x+5} < \frac{x^n}{x+5}$ for all $x \in (0, 1)$.

There is not closed-form solution to this problem.

$$\begin{aligned} x^n &= x^n \cdot \frac{x+5}{x+5} && \text{for } x \in (0, 1) \\ x^n &= \frac{x^{n+1}}{x+5} + \frac{5x^n}{x+5} \\ \int_0^1 x^n dx &= \int_0^1 \frac{x^{n+1}}{x+5} dx + 5 \int_0^1 \frac{x^n}{x+5} dx \\ \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} \Big|_0^1 &= y_{n+1} + 5y_n \\ y_{n+1} &= \frac{1}{n+1} - 5y_n \end{aligned}$$

Fortunately,

$$\begin{aligned} y_0 &= \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x+5} dx \\ &= \ln(x+5) \Big|_0^1 \\ &= \ln 6 - \ln 5 \\ &= \ln \frac{6}{5} \doteq 0.182 \end{aligned}$$

By the recurrence,

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= \frac{1}{1} - 5y_0 \doteq 1 - 5(0.182) = 0.0900 \\ y_2 &= \frac{1}{2} - 5y_1 \doteq 0.5 - 5(0.0900) = 0.0500 \\ y_3 &= \frac{1}{3} - 5y_2 \doteq 0.333 - 5(0.0500) = 0.0830 \\ y_4 &= \frac{1}{4} - 5y_3 \doteq 0.25 - 5(0.0830) = -0.165 \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, something went wrong. We have a negative value for y_4 , which is impossible. We also have $y_3 > y_2$. The problem is that we are using floating point arithmetic, which is not exact. We are losing precision in our calculations.

What if we leave y_0 as an unevaluated term?

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= 1 - 5y_0 \\ y_2 &= \frac{1}{2} - 5y_1 \\ &= -\frac{9}{2} + 25y_0 \\ y_3 &= \frac{1}{3} - 5y_2 \\ &= \frac{137}{6} - 125y_0 \\ y_4 &= \frac{1}{4} - 5y_3 \\ &= -\frac{1367}{12} + 625y_0 \end{aligned}$$

We approximated $y_0 = \ln \frac{6}{5} \approx 0.182$. We know that the true value of $y_0 \in [0.1815, 0.1825]$. Another way to express y_0 is $y_0 = 0.182 + E$, where $|E| \leq 0.0005 = 5 \times 10^{-4}$ is the error in our approximation.

Substituting this into the formula for y_4 , we get

$$\begin{aligned} y_4 &= -\frac{1367}{12} + 625(0.182 + E) \\ &= -113.91\dot{6} + 113.75 + 625E \\ &= -0.1\dot{6} + 625E \end{aligned}$$

where

$$625E \leq 625 \times 5 \times 10^{-4} = 0.3125$$

and

$$y_4 < y_0 \doteq 0.182$$

so our propagated error is greater than the quantity to compute. \diamond

A lesson learned from the previous example is that the math textbook algorithms does not necessarily produce good computational algorithms. This algorithms for computing y_n is said to be an **numerically unstable algorithm**, since a small error was magnified by the algorithm. We want the algorithms to be **numerically stable**.

Definition 2.1.1 Numerically Unstable

An algorithm is said to be **numerically unstable** if the error in the output is not bounded by the error in the input.

Remark

In the previous example, a small error E is magnified by 5 each step.

Example (Cont.). We can re-arrange the recurrent relation

$$\begin{aligned} y_{n+1} &= \frac{1}{n-1} - 5y_n \\ 5y_n &= \frac{1}{n+1} - y_{n+1} \\ y_{n+1} &= \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{1}{n+1} - y_{n+1} \right) \end{aligned}$$

We have bounded the error in the output by the error in the input, but we are at a disadvantage since we are computing backwards. How can we start this recurrent relation?

Recall that

$$y_{100} < y_{99} < \dots < y_0 \doteq 0.182$$

We start by approximating $y_{100} \doteq 0$. We know the exact value is $y_{100} = 0 + \varepsilon$, where $0 < \varepsilon < 0.182$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} y_{99} &= \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{1}{100} - y_{100} \right) & y_{98} &= \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{1}{100} - y_{99} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{1}{100} - (0 + \varepsilon) \right) & &= \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{1}{100} - \left(\frac{1}{500} + \frac{\varepsilon}{5} \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{500} - \frac{\varepsilon}{5} & &= \dots + \frac{\varepsilon}{25} \end{aligned}$$

We observe that the effect of the error is ε is diminished by a factor of $\frac{1}{5}$ each step. This is a numerically stable algorithm. By the time we get to y_8 , we can expect an accurate result. \diamond

Definition 2.1.2 Numerical Stability

An algorithm is said to be **numerically stable** if the error in the output is bounded by the error in the input.

2.2**Floating Point Arithmetic****2.2.1 Floating Point Representation**

We only have finite space in the computer. This means we cannot store all real numbers, only an approximation of them. We use the **floating point representation** to store real numbers.

Definition 2.2.1 Floating Point Representation

A real number x is represented in the form

$$fl(x) = \pm d_0.d_1d_2\dots d_{p-1} \times \beta^e \quad d_0 \neq 0$$

where m is the **significant** or **mantissa**, β is the **base**, and e is the **exponent**.

Note:

- d_i 's are bounded by

$$0 \leq d_i < \beta.$$

- p is the precision of the accuracy.

- E is also bounded by

$$L \leq E \leq U$$

With the floating point representation, we have a finite set of floating point numbers

$$F(\beta, p, L, U) = \{\pm d_0.d_1d_2 \dots d_{p-1} \times \beta^E : 0 \leq d_i < \beta, L \leq E \leq U\}.$$

Remark $d_0 \neq 0$

We observe that this representation is not unique. Consider a system

$$F(\beta = 10, p = 5, L = -10, U = 10)$$

and the number 1.23, we have the representation

$$+1.2300 \times 10^0 \in F(10, 5, -10, 10)$$

but also

$$+0.1230 \times 10^1 \in F(10, 5, -10, 10)$$

and

$$+0.0123 \times 10^2 \in F(10, 5, -10, 10)$$

Thus, we need to choose a unique representation for each number. We can add a rule that the first digit is not zero, which normalizes the floating point representation, and makes representations unique.

Remark Representating Zero

Since $d_0 \neq 0$, how can we represent zero? We define another rule

$$fl(0) = 0.000 \dots 0 \times \beta^{L-1}$$

where an exponent of $L - 1$ is used to indicate the value is denormalized.

In the early days of computing, different manufacturers used different floating point representations. This made it difficult to write portable code. The IEEE 754 standard [2] was introduced to standardize floating point representations.

	Single Precision	Double Precision
β	2	2
p	24	53
L	-126	-1022
U	127	1023

Note:

For single precision, we have

$$E \in \{-126, -125, \dots, 127\}$$

with a cardinality of 254. If we use 8 bits to represent the exponent, we have $2^8 = 256$ possible

values. We have 2 special values: $E = L - 1 = -127$ for denormalized numbers, and $E = U + 1 = 128$ for infinity and NaN (Not a Number).

Remark Memory Requirements

For single precision, we need $1 + 24 + 8 = 33$ bits to represent a number. This is a very weird number of bits. We don't know any computer that uses 33 bits to represent a number.

Turns out we only need 23 bits for the significant, since the first digit in a normalized system is always 1. We can drop the first digit, and use 23 bits for the significant, 8 bits for the exponent, and 1 bit for the sign. This gives us 32 bits, which is a more common number of bits.

Note: Types in Different Languages

	Single Precision	Double Precision
C	<code>float</code>	<code>double</code>
Python		<code>float</code>
Rust	<code>f32</code>	<code>f64</code>

Note: Extended Precision and Reduced Precision

For accurate engineering, we may need more precision, called **extended precision** (Quad Precision). This is not part of the IEEE 754 standard, but is available in some systems.

In machine learning systems, we want the opposite – we want to use less precision to save memory and computation time. This is called **reduced precision**, and we often use 16 or 8 bits. This is a topic of active discussion, and the IEEE committee is working on a standard for reduced precision for ML.

PART II

APPENDICES

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