Numerical Matrix Analysis

Notes #11

Conditioning and Stability —Stability... a Closer Look

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Outline

- 1 Stability
 - Recap: Floating Point; Stability Definitions
 - The Road Ahead
- Stability of Floating Point Arithmetic
 - Basic Operations
 - Inner Product; Outer Product
 - \bullet x + C
- 3 Examples
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 - Accuracy of a Backward Stable Algorithm
 - Stability + Conditioning

 → Quality
 - Backward Error Analysis
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Last Time: Key Floating Point Axioms

Axiom (Floating Point Representation)

 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists ϵ with $|\epsilon| \le \epsilon_{\text{mach}}$, such that $fl(x) = x(1 + \epsilon)$.

Axiom (The Fundamental Axiom of Floating Point Arithmetic)

For all $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$ (where \mathbb{F} is the set of floating point numbers), there exists ϵ with $|\epsilon| \leq \epsilon_{\text{mach}}$, such that

$$x \oplus y = (x+y)(1+\epsilon),$$
 $x \ominus y = (x-y)(1+\epsilon),$
 $x \otimes y = (x*y)(1+\epsilon),$ $x \oslash y = (x/y)(1+\epsilon)$





Last Time: Key Stability Definitions

Definition (Stable Algorithm)

We say that \tilde{f} is a **stable algorithm** if $\forall \vec{x} \in X$

$$\frac{\|\tilde{f}(\vec{x}) - f(\tilde{\vec{x}})\|}{\|f(\tilde{\vec{x}})\|} = \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}})$$

for some $\tilde{\vec{x}}$ with

$$rac{\| ilde{ec{x}}-ec{x}\|}{\|ec{x}\|}=\mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{ extsf{mach}})$$

"A stable algorithm gives approximately the right answer, to approximately the right question."





Definition (Backward Stable Algorithm)

An algorithm \tilde{f} is **backward stable** if $\forall \vec{x} \in X$

$$\tilde{f}(\vec{x}) = f(\tilde{\vec{x}})$$

for some $\tilde{\vec{x}}$ with

$$rac{\| ilde{ec{x}}-ec{x}\|}{\|ec{x}\|}=\mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{ ext{mach}})$$

"A backward stable algorithm gives exactly the right answer, to approximately the right question."





Stability: The Road Ahead

- Algorithms: Backward stable, stable, and unstable.
- Backward Error Analysis linking conditioning (which is a property of the problem) and stability (which is a property of the algorithm).
- Detailed Stability Analysis (backward error analysis) of Householder Triangularization.





Floating Point Arithmetic

Backward Stable, 1 of 3

We start off by showing that our algorithmic building blocks — the floating point operations \oplus , \ominus , \otimes , and \oslash are backward stable.

We look at subtraction, which may be the biggest cause for concern due to cancellation errors. For $\vec{x} = [x_1, x_2]' \in \mathbb{C}^2$ the subtraction problem corresponds to the function

$$f(x_1, x_2) = x_1 - x_2,$$

and the subtraction algorithm corresponds to the function

$$ilde{f}(x_1,x_2)= exttt{fl}(x_1)\ominus exttt{fl}(x_2).$$





We apply the floating point representation axiom, and write

$$fl(x_1) = x_1(1 + \epsilon_1), \quad fl(x_2) = x_2(1 + \epsilon_2)$$

for some $|\epsilon_1|, |\epsilon_2| \leq \epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}$.





Floating Point Arithmetic

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for some $|\epsilon_1|, |\epsilon_2| \leq \epsilon_{\text{mach}}$.

By the fundamental axiom of floating point arithmetic, we have

$$\mathtt{fl}(x_1)\ominus\mathtt{fl}(x_2)=(\mathtt{fl}(x_1)-\mathtt{fl}(x_2))(1+\epsilon_3)$$

for some $|\epsilon_3| \leq \epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}$.





Combining these results give us

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathtt{fl}(x_1) \ominus \mathtt{fl}(x_2) & = & [x_1(1+\epsilon_1) - x_2(1+\epsilon_2)](1+\epsilon_3) \\ & = & x_1(1+\epsilon_1)(1+\epsilon_3) - x_2(1+\epsilon_2)(1+\epsilon_3) \\ & = & x_1(1+\epsilon_4) - x_2(1+\epsilon_5), \end{array}$$

for some $|\epsilon_4|, |\epsilon_5| \leq 2\epsilon_{\sf mach} + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\sf mach}^2)$.





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for some $|\epsilon_4|, |\epsilon_5| \leq 2\epsilon_{\sf mach} + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\sf mach}^2)$.

Hence $\tilde{f}(x_1,x_2) = \tilde{x}_1 - \tilde{x}_2 \equiv f(\tilde{x}_1,\tilde{x}_2)$, where

$$rac{| ilde{x}_1-x_1|}{|x_1|}=\mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{ ext{mach}}), \qquad rac{| ilde{x}_2-x_2|}{|x_2|}=\mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{ ext{mach}}).$$





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We have shown that **floating point subtraction is a backward stable operation**.





Example: Inner Product $\vec{x}^* \vec{y}$

Given two vectors $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{C}^m$, the computed value of the inner product

$$\alpha = \vec{x}^* \vec{y} = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^* y_i$$

is (usually) given by

$$\tilde{\alpha} = (\mathtt{fl}(x_1^*) \otimes \mathtt{fl}(y_1)) \oplus (\mathtt{fl}(x_2^*) \otimes \mathtt{fl}(y_2)) \oplus \cdots \oplus (\mathtt{fl}(x_m^*) \otimes \mathtt{fl}(y_m)).$$

Built from the backward stable fundamental operations in this manner, the inner product is also backward stable. (We leave the proof of this for later).





Example: Outer Product $\vec{x}\vec{y}^*$

Given $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{C}^m$, and $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, the $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ rank-1 outer product is given by

$$A = \vec{x}\vec{y}^* = \begin{bmatrix} x_1\vec{y}^* \\ x_2\vec{y}^* \\ \vdots \\ x_m\vec{y}^* \end{bmatrix}$$

The obvious algorithm is to compute the mn products $x_i y_j^*$ with \otimes and collect the results into the matrix \tilde{A} .

This algorithm is **stable**, **but not backward stable**. — The matrix \tilde{A} will most likely not have rank 1, and can therefore not be written in the form $(\vec{x} + \delta \vec{x})(\vec{y} + \delta \vec{y})^*$.





Example: x + C

Let $C \in \mathbb{C}$ be a fixed constant, and consider computing x + C, given $x \in \mathbb{C}$, we get

$$ilde{f}(x) = extstyle extstyle$$

with $|\epsilon_1|, |\epsilon_2|, |\epsilon_3| \leq \epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}$, $|\epsilon_4|, |\epsilon_5| \leq 2\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}} + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}^2)$.





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Example: x + C

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$$ilde{f}(x) = exttt{fl}(x) \oplus exttt{fl}(\mathcal{C}) \ = (x(1+\epsilon_1)+\mathcal{C}(1+\epsilon_2))(1+\epsilon_3) \ = x(1+\epsilon_4)+\mathcal{C}(1+\epsilon_5),$$

with
$$|\epsilon_1|, |\epsilon_2|, |\epsilon_3| \le \epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}$$
, $|\epsilon_4|, |\epsilon_5| \le 2\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}} + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}^2)$.

When $\mathcal{C} \neq 0$, and $x \approx 0$ we are introducing errors of size $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}})$, independent of x. Relative to the size of x, these errors may become unbounded.

Therefore, we cannot interpret the errors as being caused by small perturbations in the data. Hence x + C is not backward stable.





Rule of Thumb:

As a rule, algorithms $\tilde{F}: X \to Y$, where the dimension of Y is greater than the dimension of X are rarely backward stable.

In the outer product example, X has dimension m + n, and Y has dimension $m \cdot n$.

Confusing?

Note that x + C is not backward stable for fixed C > 0, but the algorithm for x + y is backward stable.

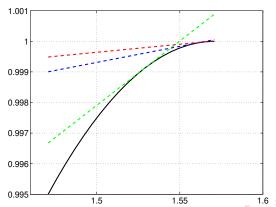




Example: sin(x) and cos(x)

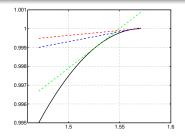
Floating point calculations of sin(x) and cos(x) are stable, but not backward stable.

Consider $\sin(x)$ for $x = \frac{\pi}{2} - \delta$, $0 < \delta \ll 1$,





Example: sin(x) and cos(x)



Suppose we have computed $\tilde{f}(x) = \mathtt{fl}(\sin(x)) = \sin(x)(1+\epsilon_1)$.

Since $f'(x) = \cos(x) \approx \delta$, we have [Remember Taylor, $\delta f = f'(x) \delta x$]

$$\tilde{f}(x) = f(\tilde{x}) \text{ for some } \tilde{x} \text{ with } \tilde{x} - x pprox rac{1}{\delta} (\tilde{f}(x) - f(x)) = \mathcal{O}\left(rac{\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}}{\delta}
ight).$$

Since δ can be arbitrarily small, the backward error is not of magnitude $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\text{mach}})$.



One way of computing the eigenvalues of a square matrix is through use of the **characteristic polynomial**

$$p(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A).$$

The *m* roots $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_m\}$, where $p(\lambda_i) = 0$ are the eigenvalues of *A*.





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- 1. Find the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial.
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- 1. Find the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial.
- 2. Find its roots.

Unfortunately, this algorithm is not only backward unstable, but also unstable; especially when the polynomial is expressed in the monomial basis $\{x^k\}_{k=0,1,\dots,d}$.

Even when the eigenvalue problem is well-conditioned, this algorithm may produce answers with large relative errors.

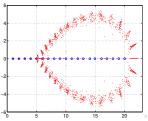




The instability manifests itself in the root-finding step. From lecture #9 we recall Wilkinson's example, where relative perturbations of the coefficients of

$$p_{\text{Wilkinson}}(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{20} (x-i) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_{19} x^{19} + x^{20}$$

by $~\sim 10^{-10}$ resulted in perturbation of size $\sim~1\text{--}10$ of the roots





The characteristic polynomial of the diagonal matrix

$$A_1 = \mathsf{diag}(1, 2, \dots, 20)$$

is Wilkinson's polynomial.

An even simpler example is given by $A_2=\operatorname{diag}(1,1)$, the 2×2 -identity. Trying to find the roots of the characteristic polynomial $p_2(\lambda)=\lambda^2-2\lambda+1$, reminds us of the example (also in Lecture #9) leading up to Wilkinson's polynomial:

$$x^{2} - 2x + 1 = (x - 1)^{2}$$

$$x^{2} - 2x + 0.9999 = (x - 0.99)(x - 1.01)$$

$$x^{2} - 2x + 0.999999 = (x - 0.999)(x - 1.001).$$

Where the algorithm above produces errors $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{\epsilon_{ ext{mach}}})$.



But really... This is a little too pessimistic. IEEE-785-1985 floating point can represent ("small[×]") integers exactly... But if we try

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 + 10^{-14} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

with $p(\lambda)=\lambda^2-(2+10^{-14})\lambda+(1+10^{-14})$, then in an environment with $\epsilon_{\rm mach}=2.22\times 10^{-16}$ we get

$$\{\tilde{\lambda}_1,\,\tilde{\lambda}_2\}=\{0.99999998509884,\,1.00000001490117\}$$

with errors

$$\{\tilde{\lambda}_1 - 1,\, \tilde{\lambda}_2 - (1+10^{-14})\} = \{-1.49 \times 10^{-8},\, 1.49 \times 10^{-8}\} \sim \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}})$$



 $[\]times$ Definition of small: $n \le 9,007,199,254,740,993$.

1 of 3

Suppose we have a backward stable algorithm $ilde{f}$ for the problem $f: X \to Y$

Question: Will the results be accurate?

Answer: It depends...





11. Stability... a Closer Look

1 of 3

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Answer: It depends... on the condition number $\kappa = \kappa(x)$.





1 of 3

Suppose we have a backward stable algorithm \tilde{f} for the problem $f:X\to Y$.

Question: Will the results be accurate?

Answer: It depends... on the condition number $\kappa = \kappa(x)$.

If $\kappa(x)$ is small, the results will be accurate (in the relative sense). When $\kappa(x)$ is large, we will lose accuracy in proportion to the size of $\kappa(x)$.

We make this dependence precise in a theorem...





Theorem (Computational Accuracy)

Suppose a backward stable algorithm is applied to solve a problem $f: X \to Y$ with condition number κ in a floating point environment satisfying the floating point representation axiom, and the fundamental axiom of floating point arithmetic.

Then the relative errors satisfy

$$rac{\| ilde{f}(x) - f(x)\|}{\|f(x)\|} = \mathcal{O}(\kappa(x)\epsilon_{ ext{\tiny mach}})$$

We have tied conditioning, stability, and accuracy together!





3 of 3

Proof (Computational Accuracy)

By the definition of backward stability, we have $\tilde{f}(x) = f(\tilde{x})$ for some $\tilde{x} \in X$, with

$$rac{\| ilde{x}-x\|}{\|x\|}=\mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}).$$





3 of 3

Proof (Computational Accuracy)

By the definition of backward stability, we have $\tilde{f}(x) = f(\tilde{x})$ for some $\tilde{x} \in X$, with

$$\frac{\|\tilde{x} - x\|}{\|x\|} = \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}).$$

By the definition of $\kappa(x)$

$$\kappa(x) = \sup_{\delta x} \left[\frac{\|\delta f\|}{\|f(x)\|} \middle/ \frac{\|\delta x\|}{\|x\|} \right],$$





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By the definition of $\kappa(x)$

$$\kappa(x) = \sup_{\delta x} \left\lfloor \frac{\|\delta f\|}{\|f(x)\|} \middle/ \frac{\|\delta x\|}{\|x\|} \right\rfloor,\,$$

we have

$$\frac{\|\tilde{f}(x) - f(x)\|}{\|f(x)\|} \le (\kappa(x) + o(1)) \frac{\|\tilde{x} - x\|}{\|x\|} = \mathcal{O}(\kappa(x)\epsilon_{\mathsf{mach}}). \quad \Box$$

Note: o(1) is a quantity which converges to zero as $\epsilon_{\sf mach} \to 0$.





Backward Error Analysis

The method of proof we used is known as **backward error analysis**.

We obtain the accuracy estimate in two steps:

- Analyze the condition of the problem.
- 2. Analyze the **stability** of the algorithm.

Conclusion: If the algorithm is stable, then the accuracy is proportional to the condition number.

At this point, this may seem natural and straight-forward.





Forward Error Analysis...

...and Backward Error Analysis

At first glance, the most natural form of error analysis is to apply the the floating point representation axiom, and the fundamental axiom of floating point arithmetic directly to the algorithms and

- 1. Introduce error bounds on each operations.
- 2. Track how the errors compound throughout the computation.

It turns out that this approach is very difficult to carry out!





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It turns out that this approach is very difficult to carry out!

Here there is no separation of algorithm and problem; hence the forward error analysis must capture both the stability behavior of the algorithm, **and** the conditioning of the problem. How do we "detect" the conditioning in operation-level analysis?!?





Accuracy of a Backward Stable Algorithm
Stability + Conditioning -- Quality
Backward Error Analysis
Looking Forward: Application of Backward Error Analysis

Backward Error Analysis

Backward Error Analysis is the right tool: in general, the **best** algorithms for a problem will compute the exact solution to a slightly perturbed problem. The method of backward error analysis is perfectly tailored to this slightly "backward view."





Next Time

...and The Near Future

We carefully analyze the stability of two of our most important algorithms:

- The Householder Triangularization algorithm for computing the QR-factorization.
- The back (and forward) substitution algorithm.

Together they are the foundation upon with we build our solvers for $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ for both square and non-square A.

Then, we re-visit the Least Squares problem — and carefully look at the conditioning of the problem, and stability of the algorithms we use for solving the problem.



