

ECE 6350

Brief Review of Numerical Methods

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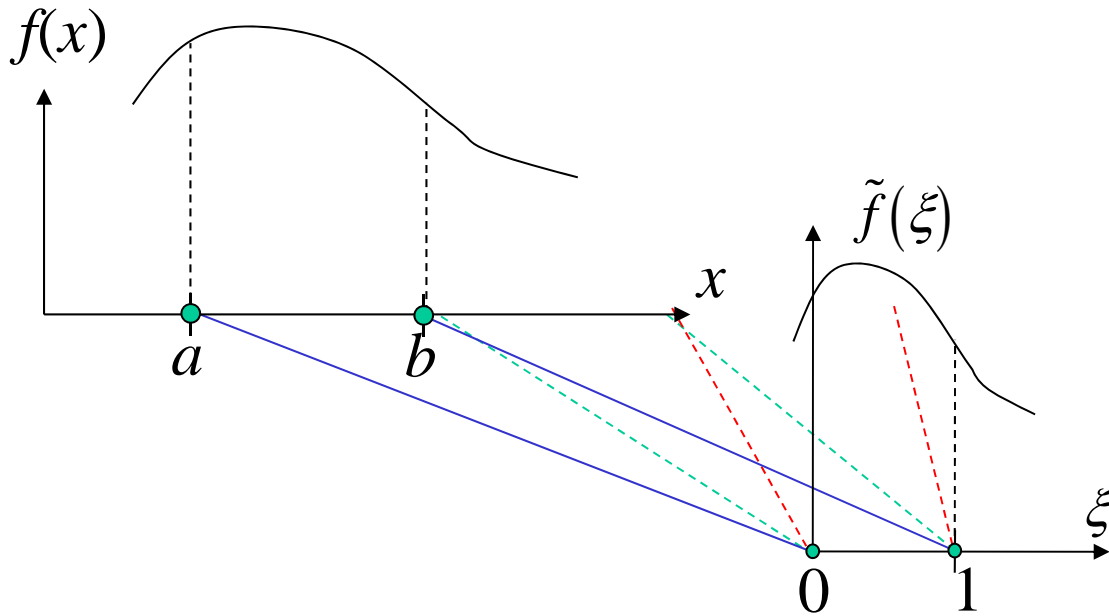
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Some Numerical Considerations

- Interpolation
- Numerical Integration
- Singular Integrals
- “Large” and “small” numbers
- Loss of accuracy resulting from small differences of large numbers

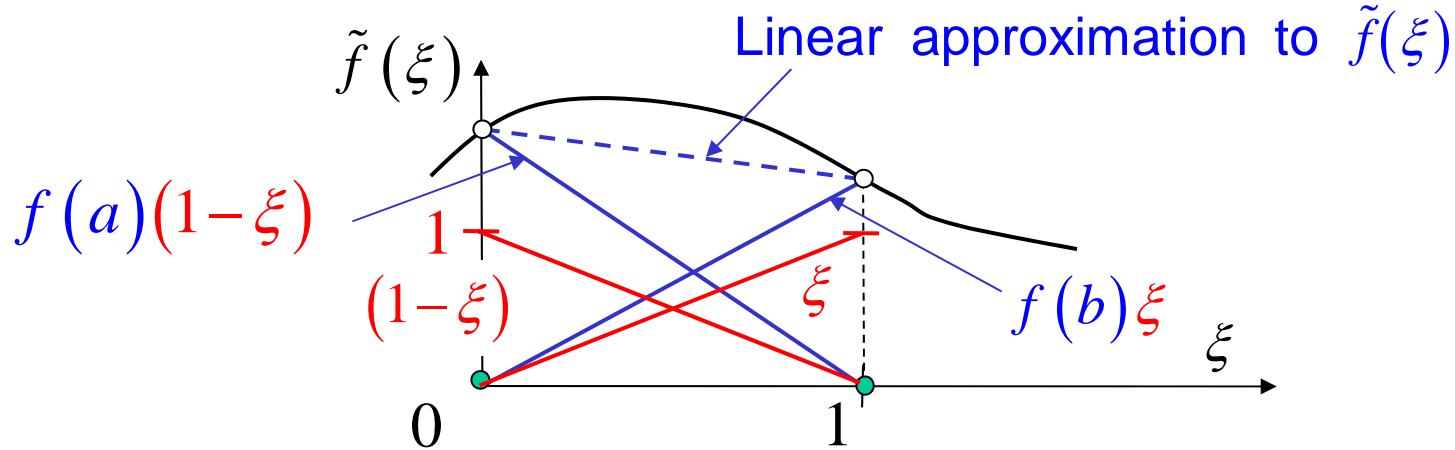
Interpolation



- A function $f(x)$ on any interval $x \in (a, b)$ can always be mapped to the unit interval $\xi \in (0, 1)$ via the interval-normalizing transformation $\xi = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$:

$$f(x) = f(x(\xi)) = f[a + (b-a)\xi] \equiv \tilde{f}(\xi)$$

Linear Interpolation



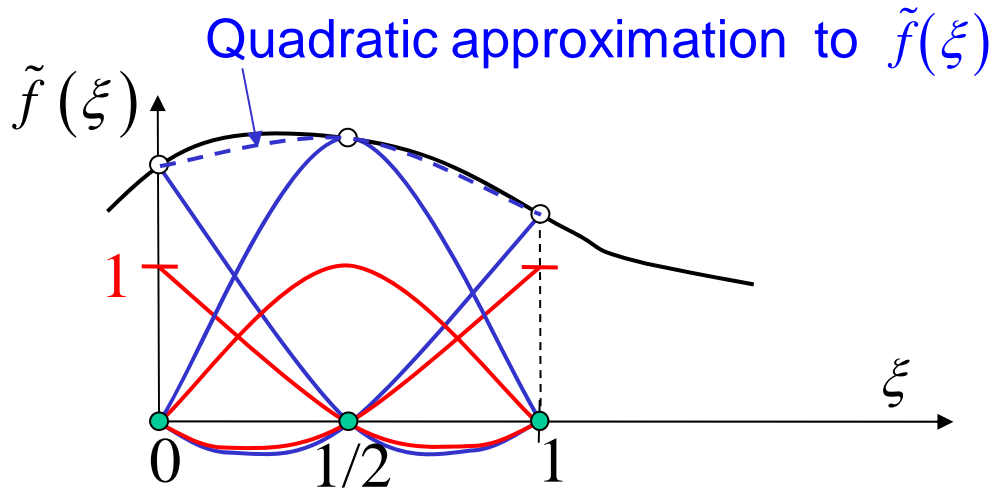
$$\tilde{f}(\xi) \approx \tilde{f}(0)(1-\xi) + \tilde{f}(1)\xi = f(a)(1-\xi) + f(b)\xi$$

Function samples

Interpolation functions

$$= f(a) \frac{b-x}{b-a} + f(b) \frac{x-a}{b-a}$$

Quadratic Interpolation



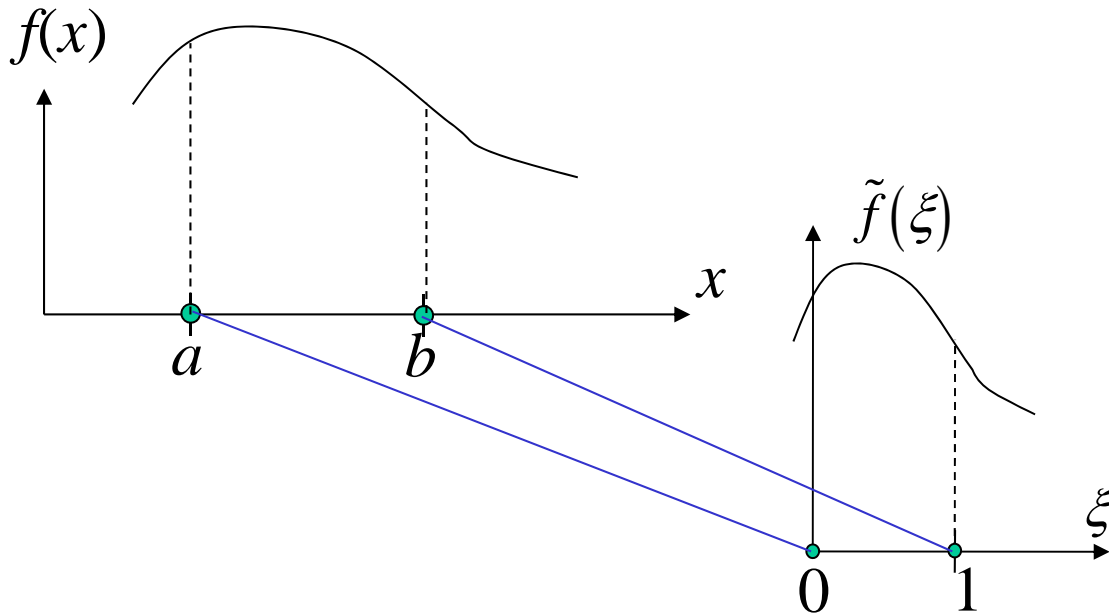
$$\tilde{f}(\xi) \approx \tilde{f}(0)2(\xi-1)(\xi-\frac{1}{2}) + \tilde{f}(\frac{1}{2})4\xi(1-\xi) + \tilde{f}(1)2\xi(\xi-\frac{1}{2})$$

Function samples

Interpolation functions

- Each interpolation function is *unity* at its associated interpolation point and *vanishes* at all others

Numerical Integration

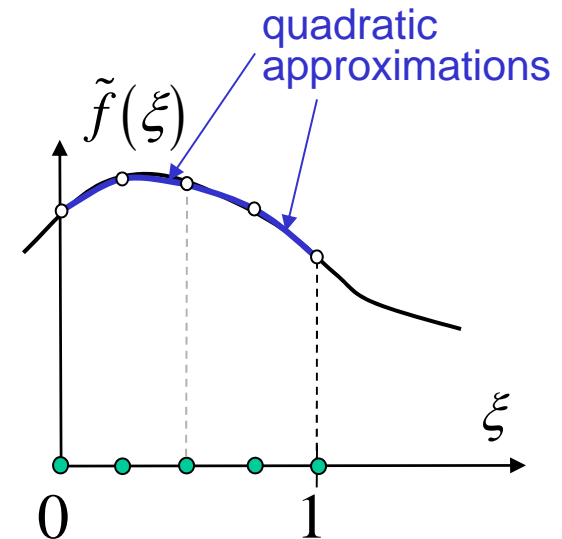


- Integrals $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ over any interval (a, b) can always be mapped to the unit interval $(0, 1)$ via the transformation $\xi = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx &= (b-a) \int_0^1 \underbrace{f(a + \xi(b-a))}_{\tilde{f}(\xi)} d\xi \\ &= (b-a) \int_0^1 \tilde{f}(\xi) d\xi \approx (b-a) \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \tilde{f}(\xi^{(k)}) \end{aligned}$$

Numerical Integration, cont'd

$$\int_0^1 \tilde{f}(\xi) d\xi \approx \sum_{k=1}^K \underbrace{w_k}_{\text{weights}} \underbrace{\tilde{f}(\xi^{(k)})}_{\text{sample points}}$$



- **Simpson's rule (K points):**
 - **weights and sample points:**

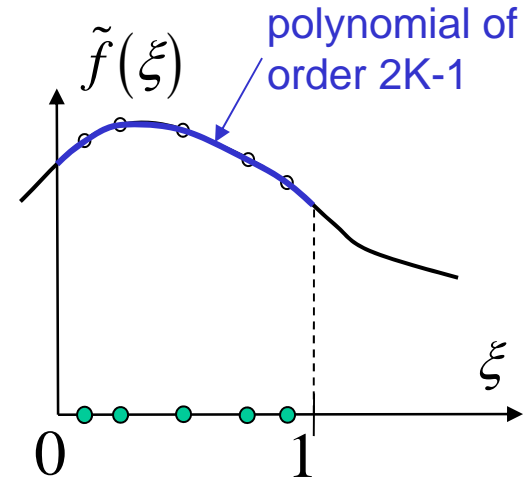
$$w_k = \frac{1}{K-1} \times \left\{ \frac{1}{3}, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \dots, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{1}{3} \right\}, \quad \left(\text{Note: } \sum_{k=1}^K w_k = 1 \right)$$

$$\xi^{(k)} = \left\{ 0, \frac{1}{K-1}, \frac{2}{K-1}, \dots, \frac{K-2}{K-1}, 1 \right\}, \quad K \text{ odd}$$

- **error:** $\frac{K-1}{180} f^{(4)}(x^*) \left(\frac{b-a}{K-1} \right)^5, \quad x^* \in (a, b)$

Numerical Integration, cont'd

$$\int_0^1 \tilde{f}(\xi) d\xi \approx \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \tilde{f}(\xi^{(k)})$$



- Gauss-Legendre quadrature:**

Find $w_k, \xi^{(k)}$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ such that

$$\int_0^1 \xi^m d\xi = \frac{1}{m+1} = \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \left(\xi^{(k)} \right)^m, \quad m = 0, 1, \dots, 2K-1$$

- sample points are unequally spaced
- weights and sample points are usually irrational
- convergence w.r.t. K is very good for smooth functions

- error:

$$\left(\frac{b-a}{2} \right)^{2K+1} \frac{f^{(2K)}(x^*)}{C_K}, \quad C_K = \frac{(2K+1)[(2K)!]^3}{2^{2K+1}(K!)^4}, \quad x^* \in (a, b)$$

Note there are K points, $2K$ parameters (wghts and sample pts), and $2K$ power series terms in ξ !

Numerical Integration, cont'd

Table 3 Sample points and weighting coefficients for K -point Gauss-Legendre quadrature.

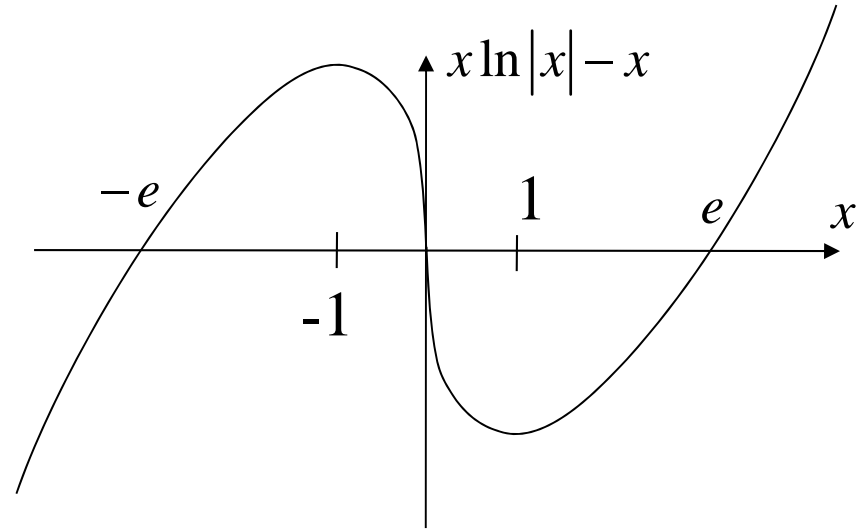
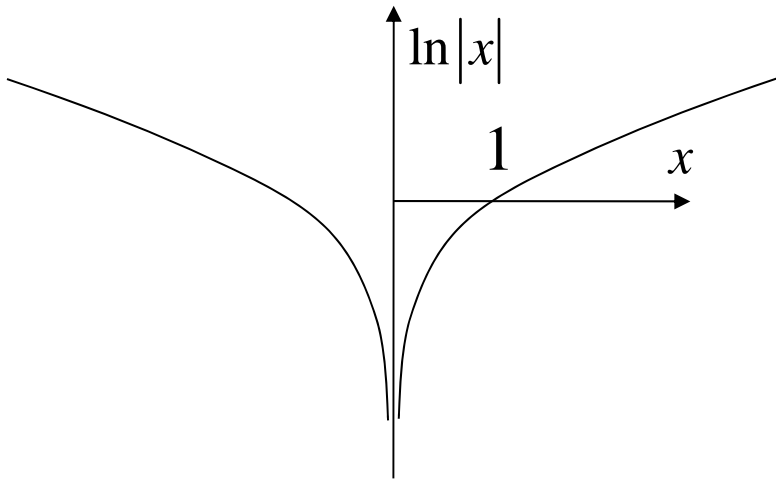
Sample Points, $\xi_1^{(k)}$	Weights, w_k
K=1: 0.5000000000000000	1.0000000000000000
K=2: 0.211324865405187 0.788675134594813	0.5000000000000000 0.5000000000000000
K=4: 0.069431844202974 0.330009478207572 0.669990521792428 0.930568155797027	0.173927422568727 0.326072577431273 0.326072577431273 0.173927422568727

- Gaussian quadrature:

$$\int_0^1 \tilde{f}(\xi) d\xi \approx \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \tilde{f}(\xi^{(k)})$$

$$\left(\text{Note: } \sum_{k=1}^K w_k = 1 \right)$$

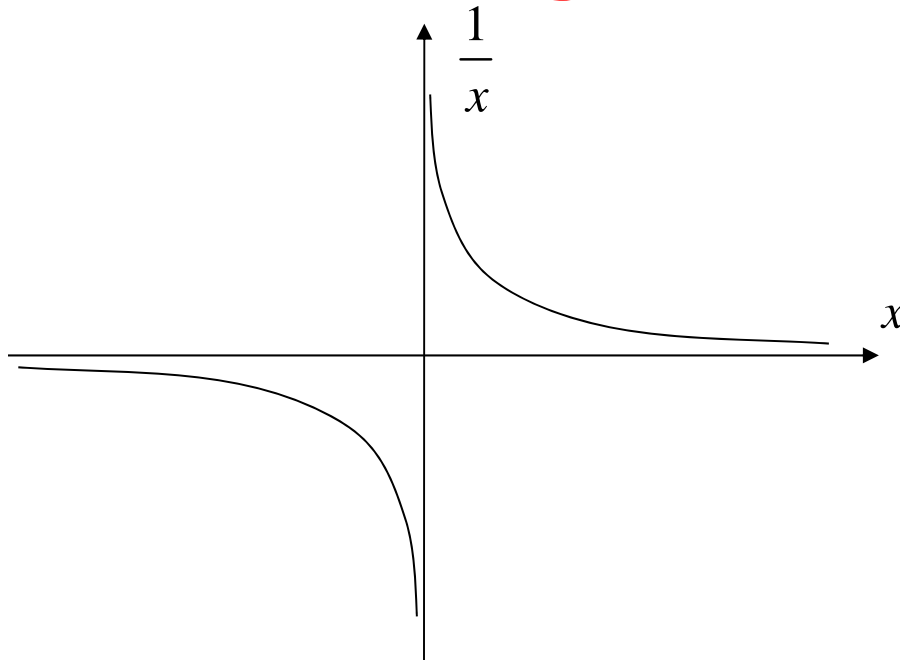
Singular Integrals



- Logarithmic singularities are examples of *integrable* singularities:

$$\int_0^1 \ln|x| \, dx = \left(x \ln|x| - x \right) \Big|_{x=0}^1 = -1 \quad \text{since} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \ln|x| = 0$$

Singular Integrals, cont'd



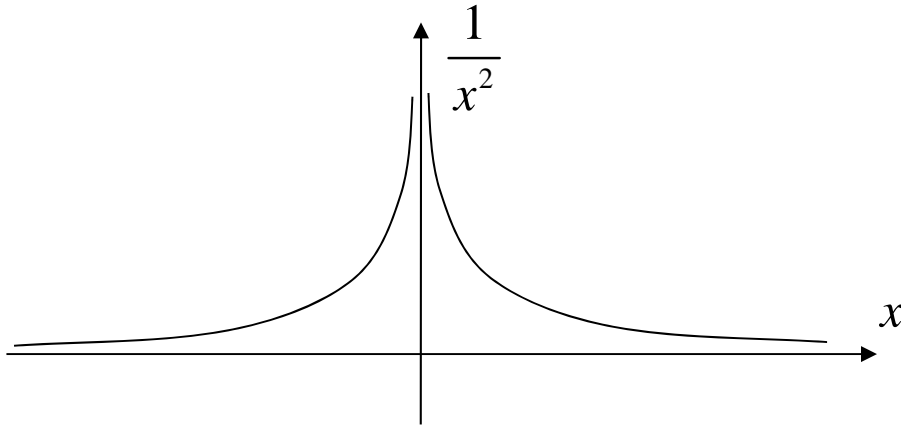
- $1/x$ singularities are examples of singularities integrable only in the *principal value (PV)* sense.
- Principal value integrals must not start or end at the singularity, but must *pass through* to permit cancellation of infinities

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| \Big|_{x=0}^1 = \infty \quad \text{since} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ln|x| = -\infty,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{but} \quad \text{PV} \int_{-1}^2 \frac{1}{x} dx &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \left(\int_{-1}^{-\varepsilon} + \int_{\varepsilon}^2 \right) \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[\ln|x| \Big|_{x=-1}^{-\varepsilon} + \ln|x| \Big|_{x=\varepsilon}^2 \right] \\ &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[\cancel{\ln \varepsilon} + \ln 2 - \cancel{\ln \varepsilon} \right] = \ln 2 \end{aligned}$$

Infinite contributions cancel!

Singular Integrals, cont'd



- Singularities like $1/x^2$ are *non-integrable*:

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \left. -\frac{1}{x} \right|_{x=0}^1 = \infty \quad \text{since} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$$

and infinite contributions from intervals on both sides of $x = 0$ will add, not cancel!

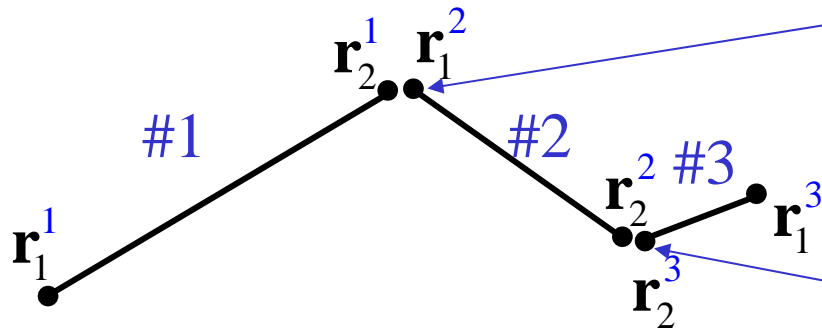
$$\left(\text{But note that } \frac{\text{sgn}(x)}{x^2} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x^2}, & x > 0 \\ -\frac{1}{x^2}, & x < 0 \end{cases} \text{ does have a PV integral} \right)$$

Singular Integrals, cont'd

Summary:

- $\ln |x|$ is integrable at $x=0$
- $1/x^\alpha$ is integrable at $x=0$ for $\alpha < 1$
- $1/x^\alpha$ is non-integrable at $x=0$ for $\alpha = 1$, or $\alpha > 1$
- $f(x)\text{sgn}(x)/|x|^\alpha$ has a PV integral if $f(x)$ is continuous at $x=0$, for $\alpha < 2$
- Above results translate to singularities at a point $x=a$ via the transformation $x \rightarrow x-a$

How Big is “Big”? How Small is “Small”?



- Suppose, e.g., we want to set $\mathbf{r}_2^1 = \mathbf{r}_1^2$, etc. if the distance between line segments is “small.” I.e., if it seems the segments should really be “connected.”

- Naïve approach: Set $\mathbf{r}_2^1 = \mathbf{r}_1^2$ if $|\mathbf{r}_2^1 - \mathbf{r}_1^2| < \varepsilon$

- $\varepsilon = 10^{-5} ? 10^{-3} ? 10^{-1} ? 10^2 ? 10^6 ?$

- Better approach: Set $\mathbf{r}_2^1 = \mathbf{r}_1^2$ if $\frac{|\mathbf{r}_2^1 - \mathbf{r}_1^2|}{\min |\mathbf{r}_2^n - \mathbf{r}_1^n|} \ll 1$
 $\Rightarrow |\mathbf{r}_2^1 - \mathbf{r}_1^2| < \varepsilon \min |\mathbf{r}_2^n - \mathbf{r}_1^n|$

All Tests for “Smallness” or “Largeness” Should Be *Relative* Tests

- In the example, we assume we’ll have a connection if segment endpoints are close ---*relative* to, say, **the length of the smallest segment**. Therefore we should test if

$$\frac{\text{distance between two segment endpoints}}{\text{smallest segment length}} < \varepsilon$$

or, equivalently,

$$\text{distance between two segment endpoints} < \varepsilon \times \underbrace{\text{smallest segment length}}_{\text{some typical, lower bound measure of LHS quantities}}$$

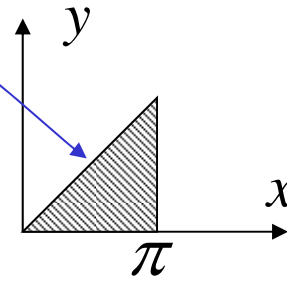
never

~~$$\text{distance between two segment endpoints} < \varepsilon$$~~

Small Differences of Large Numbers

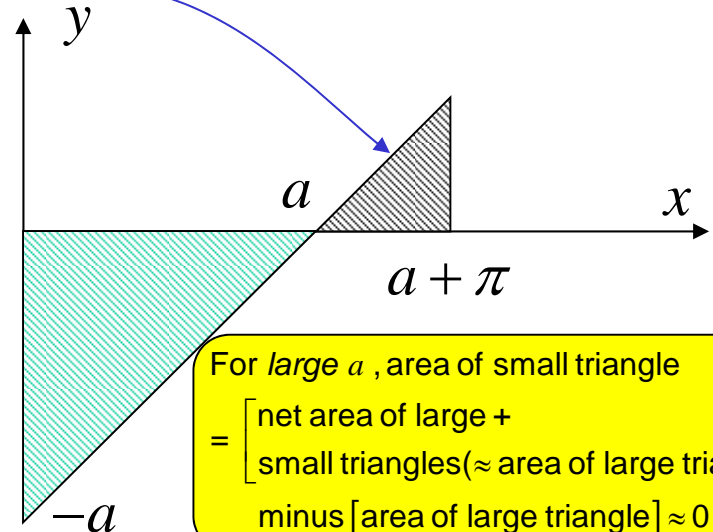
- Consider the following simple integral:

$$\int_0^{\pi} x \, dx = \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_{x=0}^{\pi} = \frac{\pi^2}{2}$$



- Now shift the integrand, limits, and evaluate:

$$\int_a^{a+\pi} (x-a) \, dx = \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - ax \right) \Big|_{x=a}^{a+\pi} = \frac{\pi^2}{2}$$



For large a , area of small triangle
 $= \left[\text{net area of large +} \right.$
 $\left. \text{small triangles} (\approx \text{area of large triangle}) \right]$
 $\text{minus [area of large triangle]} \approx 0$

Small Differences of Large Numbers, cont'd

$$\int_a^{a+\pi} (x-a) dx = \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - ax \right) \bigg|_{x=a}^{a+\pi} = \frac{\pi^2}{2} = 4.93480220054467 \dots$$

•Results for varying values of a

a	upper limit	lower limit	difference
1.0	4.434802200544670	-0.50	4.934802200544670
10.0	-45.065197799455300	-50.00	4.934802200544670
100.0	-4995.065197799460000	-5000.00	4.934802200544250
1000.0	-499995.065197799000000	-500000.00	4.934802200528790
10000.0	-49999995.065197800000000	-50000000.00	4.934802196919910
100000.0	-4999999995.065200000000000	-5000000000.00	4.934802055358880
1000000.0	-499999999995.065000000000000	-500000000000.00	4.934814453125000
10000000.0	-49999999999995.100000000000000	-50000000000000.00	4.937500000000000
100000000.0	-4999999999999990.000000000000000	-5000000000000000.00	0.000000000000000
1000000000.0	-5000000000000000000.000000000000000	-5000000000000000000.00	0.000000000000000
10000000000.0	-50000000000000000000.000000000000000	-50000000000000000000.00	0.000000000000000

Lost significant digits

Ques : What happens if the limit π is replaced by an integer? If a is irrational?

With Numerical Integration, the Error Grows Only Half as Fast

$$\int_a^{a+\pi} (x-a) dx = \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - ax \right) \Big|_{x=a}^{a+\pi} = \frac{\pi^2}{2} = 4.93480220054467 \dots$$

- Results for varying values of a , but integral is evaluated by Gauss quadrature
- Sensitivity is less since integrand is *linear*-- i.e., we are not *squaring* any already large quantities
- Observation: Sometimes a numerically obtained result is more accurate than an “exact” one!

	Two Point
a	Gauss Quadrature
1.0	4.93480220054467
10.0	4.93480220054467
100.0	4.93480220054469
1000.0	4.93480220054465
10000.0	4.93480220054572
100000.0	4.93480220052857
1000000.0	4.93480220052857
10000000.0	4.93480220016284
100000000.0	4.93480219431117
1000000000.0	4.93480210068441
10000000000.0	4.93480022814947

With Some Rational Numbers, No Error Appears---until Catastrophic Failure Occurs

$$\int_a^{a+1} (x-a) dx = \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - ax \right) \Big|_{x=a}^{a+1} = \frac{1}{2} \quad (= 0.1000000000... \text{ in binary })$$

•Results for varying values of a

a	upper limit	lower limit	difference
1.000	0.000	-0.500	0.500
10.000	-49.500	-50.000	0.500
100.000	-4999.500	-5000.000	0.500
1000.000	-499999.500	-500000.000	0.500
10000.000	-49999999.500	-50000000.000	0.500
100000.000	-4999999999.500	-5000000000.000	0.500
1000000.000	-499999999999.500	-500000000000.000	0.500
10000000.000	-49999999999999.500	-50000000000000.000	0.500
100000000.000	-5000000000000000.000	-5000000000000000.000	0.000
1000000000.000	-5000000000000000000.000	-5000000000000000000.000	0.000
10000000000.000	-50000000000000000000.000	-50000000000000000000.000	0.000
100000000000.000	-500000000000000000000.000	-500000000000000000000.000	0.000