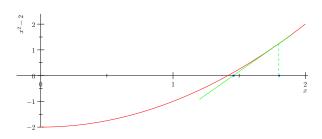
Algorithms and Analysis

Lesson 29: Understand Numerics



 $Representing\ reals,\ rounding\ error,\ convergence,\ stability,\\ conditioning$

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Numerical Analysis

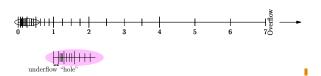
- Numerical algorithms are usually taught separately from the "discrete algorithms" we have predominantly looked at
- The main difference stems from the fact that numerical algorithms model continuous variables
- Computers can only approximate continuous variables
- Numerical algorithms have to take into account this approximation

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The Number Line

- We approximate the continuous number line by a set of discrete values
- Imagine using a mantissa of 3 bits and an exponent of 2 bits (and a sign)



• The rounding error is half the gap between the discrete values

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Rounding Error

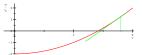
- The distance between two real numbers Δx grows with the number such that $\Delta x/x \leq u$ where $u \approx 10^{-16}$ for doubles!
- Measure relative error

$$\mathsf{Relative\ error} = \left| \frac{\mathsf{Approx} - \mathsf{Exact}}{\mathsf{Exact}} \right| \blacksquare$$

- Thus almost every operation is only accurate up to this small (relative) rounding error
- Most operations are carefully designed that these rounding errors are unbiased so that the sum of random errors grows sub-linearly

Outline

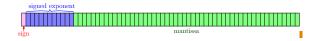
- 1. Numerical Approximations
- 2. Iterating to a Solution
- 3. Linear Algebra



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Representing Reals

• All real numbers are approximated by a binary encoding



- $x = m \times 2^{e-t}$
- t is precision so that if e=t, then $0.5 \le x < 1$
- ullet For IEEE double t=1023, $expon_{\min}=-1021$, $expon_{\max}=1024$
- ullet Typical rounding error is $u=1\times 10^{-16}$

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Overflow and Underflow

- An overflow will cause a program to fall over at run time
- An underflow is ignored
- \bullet This is usually innocuous, but can lead to trouble $\hspace{-0.1em}\blacksquare$
- If you call $\log(x)$ or 1.0/x but x has underflowed then your program will crash

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Losing Precision

- There seems to be plenty of precision, so what's the problem?
- One issue is that its easy to lose precision
- Consider estimating derivatives by finite differencing

$$f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x+\epsilon) - f(x-\epsilon)}{2\epsilon} = \frac{0.841470984861927 - 0.841470984753866}{2.0 \times 10^{-10}}$$

- The problem is $f(x+\epsilon)$ and $f(x-\epsilon)$ are very close so in taking their difference we lose precision
- $f(x) = \sin(x)$, $f'(x) = \cos(x)$ at x = 1.0

ϵ	10^{-6}	10^{-8}	10^{-10}	10^{-12}	10^{-14}
relative error	5×10^{-11}	5×10^{-9}	1×10^{-7}	2×10^{-5}	6×10^{-3}

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Solving Quadratic Equations

• A classic example where you can lose precision is in solving a quadratic equation $a\,x^2+b\,x+c=0$

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

- If $b^2 \gg |4\,a\,x|$ then for one solution we end up subtracting numbers very close!
- We rather use this equation to compute one solution

$$x_1 = \frac{-b - \text{sgn}(b)\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

• Use the identity $x_1 x_2 = c/a$ to find x_2

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Coping With Truncation Errors

- Nothing is exact so to check that x=y we use Math.abs(x-y) < 1.0e-10 $^{\parallel}$ // a small constant
- Sometimes sums that add up to 1 don't quite so we have not to rely on anything being exact.
- Avoid operations that are likely to lose accuracy (e.g. by taking the difference of similar numbers) where possible
- Sometimes it pays to do some operations using higher precision long double!
- Make sure that errors are unbiased

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Iterative Algorithms

 We solve many numerical tasks by obtaining successively better solutions

$$x^{(0)}, x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, x^{(3)}, x^{(4)}, \dots$$

- We often stop when the change in solution is below some threshold, e.g. $|x^{(i+1)}-x^{(i)}|\leq\epsilon\approx u$
- The time complexity depends on the speed of convergence
- This can range from very fast to miserably slow

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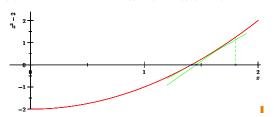
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Newton Raphson

 \bullet A second classic method to solve f(x)=0 is Newton-Raphson's method

$$x^{(i+1)} = x^{(i)} - \frac{f(x^{(i)})}{f'(x^{(i)})}$$

• For $f(x) = x^2 - 2$ so $x^{(i+1)} = ((x^{(i)})^2 - 1)/(2x^{(i)})$



Accumulation of Rounding Error

- With many significant figures surely we can afford to lose some accuracy?
- This is sometimes true, but we often use "for loops" where we might be losing accuracy all the time

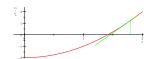
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 Gave the answer 1.2840 (if I run the for loop 60 times it gives the answer 1 for almost any input)

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Outline

- 1. Numerical Approximations
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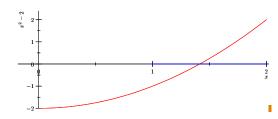
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Bisection

• Suppose we want to compute $\sqrt{2}$ (without using sqrt (2))

$$f(x) = x^2 - 2 = 0$$

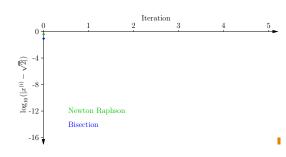
• One of the classic methods of solving f(x) = 0 is **bisection**



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Convergence



- Bisection shows linear convergence (exponential increase in accuracy)
- Newton Raphson shows quadratic convergence

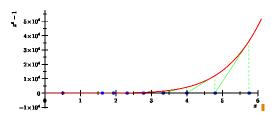
15 AICE10

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16

Beware of Asymptotic Convergence

- Newton Raphson only converges quadratically if you start close enough to the solution
- ullet Consider solving $x^6-1=0$ starting with $x^{(0)}=0.5$



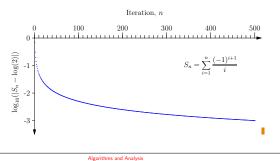
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Slow convergence

• Some expansions converge rather slowly (or even diverge)

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \cdots$$

ullet Converges for $-1 < x \le 1$, but converges slowly for x = 1



Differential Equations

- Differential equations are used in many applications, for example in modelling the motion of object
- A typical equation of motion might be

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$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 x(t)}{\mathrm{d}t^2} = 2 \frac{\mathrm{d}x(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} + 3 x(t)$$

- Which has a general solution $x(t) = c_1 e^{-t} + c_2 e^{3t}$
- \bullet The constants are determined by initial conditions, for example, if x(0)=1 and $\dot{x}(0)=-1$ then $x(t)=\mathrm{e}^{-t} {\rm I\!I}$

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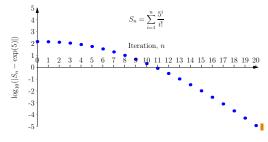
Stability

- Some iterative equations are unstable
- Round off errors can push a system of equations towards an unstable solution
- This can sometimes be overcome by cunning (e.g. running the equations backwards)
- Finding stable algorithms and avoiding unstable algorithms can be key to getting accurate predictions

Evaluating Functions

• We can evaluate many functions using a series expansion

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



• For large i this converges since $i! \gg x^i$

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Convergence

- Many functions can be approximated by a sum
- We get a truncation error by taking only a finite number of elements
- We want the truncation error to be around machine accuracy
- For quick evaluation we need a strongly convergent series
- This often depend on the value of the argument we give to the function
- Most special functions are approximated by different series depending on the input argument

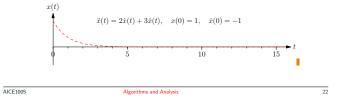
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Euler's Method

To solve a differential equation we use an approximate update equation

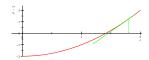
$$x(t+\epsilon) \approx x(t) + \epsilon \dot{x}(t)$$
$$\dot{x}(t+\epsilon) \approx \dot{x}(t) + \epsilon \ddot{x}(t)$$

 \bullet This becomes more exact as $\epsilon \to 0$



Outline

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Solving Simultaneous Equations

• When problems involve many variables it is convenient to use matrices and vectors to store the numbers

$$3x + 2y = 5$$

$$7x - 8y = -11$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 7 & -8 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -11 \end{pmatrix} \blacksquare$$

- ullet Or $\mathbf{A}x=b$ with solution $x=\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}$
- Linear algebra is an abstraction allowing mathematicians, scientists and engineers to write solutions at a higher level
- The job of the numerical analyst is to write the code that does this

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Solving Linear Equations

- ullet We consider the classic problem of solving ${f A}x=b{f I}$
- Although we can solve this by computing ${\bf A}^{-1}{\bf b}$, finding the inverse of a matrix is typically a $\Theta(n^3)$ operation
- It is preferable to decompose **A** into a product of a lower triangular matrix **L** and an upper triangular matrix **U** which takes $\Theta(n^2)$ operations

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 6 \\ 3 & 5 & 9 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.75 & 1 & 0 \\ 0.25 & 0.428 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 6 \\ 0 & 3.5 & 4.5 \\ 0 & 0 & -4.28 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{LUI}$$

- Solving $\pmb{x} = \mathbf{U}^{-1}(\mathbf{L}^{-1}\pmb{b})$ is also $\Theta(n^2)$ because of the structure of \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{UI}

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Norms

- ullet With some work we can get a good approximation to x such that $\mathbf{A}x = b\mathbf{I}$
- But what if we have some error in ${m b}$, this induces an error $\delta {m x} = {m A}^{-1} \, \delta {m b}$
- How big is δx ?
- \bullet To measure the size of a vector we use a norm $\|\delta x\|,$ which is a number encoding the size of δx
- There are a number of different norms, e.g.

$$\|\delta\boldsymbol{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{\delta x_1^2 + \dots + \delta x_n^2}, \quad \|\delta\boldsymbol{x}\|_1 = |\delta x_1| + \dots + |\delta x_n|$$

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Linear Algebra

- Linear algebra packages provide an important set of tools used for solving linear equations
- Care has to be taken to ensure that needless operations (such as inverting a matrix) are not done.
- Algorithms must ensure that as little accuracy as possible is lost (e.g. by permuting rows in LU-decomposition)
- Even when the algorithms are precise, small errors can get amplified in some operations, which requires care in formulating the problem
- The idea of poor conditioning (errors being amplified) is useful in understanding many numerical tasks

Linear Algebra

- There are a large number of problems with matrices that people care about
- The solution often depends on the problem!
- These include
 - * Multiply matrices together
 - \star Solving linear equations $\mathbf{A}x=b$
 - * Finding eigenvalues of symmetric and non-symmetric matrices
 - ★ Performing singular valued decomposition
- These are important tasks that need to be done efficiently and reliably

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LU-Decomposition

- LU-decomposition is achieved by Gaussian-elimination
- This is a straightforward procedure, but if done carelessly can lead to large rounding errors
- The standard solution is to permute the rows of the matrix (aka pivoting) to prevent loss of accuracy
- In addition we can "polish" solutions

$$\mathbf{A}(\boldsymbol{x} + \delta \boldsymbol{x}) - \boldsymbol{b} = \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$

• Thus $\delta x = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \epsilon$ which we can use to get an improved estimate of x

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Conditioning

• The size of the error is given by

$$\|\delta oldsymbol{x}\| = \|oldsymbol{\mathsf{A}}^{-1}\delta oldsymbol{b}\|\mathbf{ar{\mathsf{I}}} \leq \|oldsymbol{\mathsf{A}}^{-1}\| \, \|\delta oldsymbol{b}\|\mathbf{ar{\mathsf{I}}}$$

- Where $\|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\|$ provides a measure of the size of the error in the worst casel
- For large matrices $\|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\|$ can be large meaning that any error in b is potentially magnified significantly!
- Such matrices are said to be ill-conditions
- Ill-conditioning is not to due with rounding errors but the structure of the matrix

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Lessons

- Be wary of numerical algorithms, because computers approximate real numbers you don't always get what you expect.
- Don't avoid numerical algorithms, they are hugely important with vast areas of applications
- This is a well studied area with large libraries of reliable algorithms that work most of the time!
- There are some good books such as "Numerical Recipes" by Press, et al., which describes the issues and provides codel

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