MATH 3Q03 - Numerical Explorations

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Course Outline

- Website: https://ms.mcmaster.ca/ bprotas/MATH3Q03/
- Textbook: *Numerical Mathematics*
- Supplemental references: *Approximation Theory and Approximation Practice*
- Five assignments

Contents

1 Introduction

1.1 Scientific computing

Definition 1.1 (Numerical analysis)**.** *Numerical analysis is a branch of applied mathematics, studying computational algorithms to solve problems in calculus and analysis (e.g., differentiation, integration, etc.). It focuses on the transforming continuous (infinite dimensional) problems to finite dimensional representations.*

Definition 1.2 (Scientific computing)**.** *Scientific computing focuses on efficient implementation of numerical algorithms on computers; modern computers are able to store data, compare data, and add, subtract, multiply, and divide. It aims to transform problems in calculus and analysis into problems in algebra.*

All numerical methods are *approximate*. In most practical problems, solutions need only possess a certain accuracy. Even when a solution is available analytically, its numerical value may only determine with a finite precision.

Numerical analysis seeks to understand and characterize the structure of errors so that approximations can be made arbitrarily accurate by using more computational time and memory. So we are equally interested in efficiency and complexity (number of operations required) of numerical methods (given the size of the problem and the desired accuracy of the solution).

Definition 1.3 (Types of error)**.** *There are four types of errors:*

1. Model error *from simplifying model by making assumptions.*
2. Measurement error *from determining parameters or data with imperfect accuracy.*
3. Truncation error *from approximating infinite sums by finite sums.*
4. Roundoff error *from representing real numbers with a finite number of bits (floating point numbers).*

Example 1.1.1 (Truncation error)**.** In theory, we would have to use infinitely many operation to compute e^x:

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

However, we may approximate this sum by using a finite sum,

$$e^x \approx \sum_{n=0}^{k} \frac{x^n}{n!},$$

yielding a truncation error of $\varepsilon = \sum_{n=k+1}^{\infty} (x^n/n!)$. Note that $\varepsilon \to 0$ as $k \to \infty$.

Example 1.1.2 (Roundoff error)**.** Let a and b be adjacent floating point numbers. Real numbers $x \in (a, b)$ will be represented necessarily either by a or by b (rounding).

Definition 1.4 (Finite arithmetic precision errors)**.**

- *Rounding (real numbers are rounded towards the nearest floating-point number)*
- *Underflow (computer cannot distinguish a number from 0)*
- *Overflow (computer cannot distinguish a number from infinity)*

Note that there exists a realmin *and* realmax*, which are smallest and largest floating point numbers that a computer can represent respectively.*

Example 1.1.3. We know that $2 - (\sqrt{2})^2 = 0$. However, what happens if we compute this on `MATLAB`?

```
2 - (sqrt(2))^2

% ans = -4.4409e-16

eps

% ans = 2.2204e-16

eps(1.0)

% ans = 2.2204e-16
```

We get a value that is different from 0. This phenomenon arises from a roundoff error. Since $\sqrt{2}$ is an irrational number, `MATLAB` rounds it to cloesest floating point value.

Note that increasing the number causes `eps` to increase as well. we can also use `realmin` and `realmax` to check the values of realmin and realmax.

Remark. Floating point arithmetic is not always associative. In other words,

$$(a + b) + c \neq a + (b + c)$$

Example 1.1.4. In this example, `1 - a` is equal to 0 but `1 - b` is not:

```
e = 0.5 * eps(1.0)

a = (1+e) + e;
b = 1 + (e + e);
```

Both truncation and round-off errors can propagate and accumulate at various stages of computations.

Definition 1.5. *The* total computational error *is the sum resulting from the interaction of the* component errrs*.*

Definition 1.6. *Absolute error* $= |$*true value* $-$ *approx value*$|$

Definition 1.7. *Relative error* $= \frac{\textit{Absolute error}}{|\textit{True value}|}$

Example 1.1.5. Suppose we have a function, $y = f(x)$, we want to evaluate. Then, $\hat{x}$ is the approximate input (subject to round-off errors) and $\hat{f}$ is the approximate operation (subject to truncation errors).

Is there a way to find out how much error there will be? In other words, we want to understand $\hat{f}(\hat{x}) - f(x)$. In order to do so, we start by manipulating the equation by adding and subtracting $f(\hat{x})$ and applying triangle inequality ($|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$)

$$\begin{aligned}\left|\hat{f}(\hat{x}) - f(x)\right| &= \left|\left[\hat{f}(\hat{x}) - f(\hat{x})\right] + \left[f(\hat{x}) - f(x)\right]\right| \\ &\leq \underbrace{|\hat{f}(\hat{x}) - f(\hat{x})|}_{\text{truncation error}} + \underbrace{|f(\hat{x}) - f(x)|}_{\text{round-off errors}}\end{aligned}$$

Definition 1.8. Conduction number *represents sensitivity of a mathematical procedure to input errors:*

$$\begin{aligned}\kappa &= \frac{\textit{rel. output error}}{\textit{rel. input error}} \\ &= \frac{|\hat{y} - y|}{|y|} \Big/ \frac{|\hat{x} - x|}{|x|}\end{aligned}$$

Remark. Interval arithmetics explicitly accounts for round-off errors

1.2 Vectors

Definition 1.9 (Dot product)**.** *Dot product can be obtained by multiplying two row vectors in* `MATLAB`*:*

$$(a, b) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i b_i$$

Definition 1.10 (Dyadic/tensor product)**.** *Dyadic product can obtained by multiplying a row vector and a column vector in* `MATLAB`*:*

$$(a \otimes b) = (ab)_{ij} = a_i b_j$$

Axioms of a vector norm

1. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\| > 0$.
2. $\|x\| = \iff x = 0$.
3. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$

Definition 1.11 (p-norm)**.** *Given $1 \leq p < \infty$, $p \in \mathbb{Z}$, p-norm of a vector $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$ is defined as follows:*

$$\|\vec{x}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

Example 1.2.1 (Euclidean norm)**.** Euclidean norm is a p-norm with $p = 2$.

Example 1.2.2 (∞-norm)**.** $\|\vec{x}\|_\infty = \max\limits_{1 \leq i \leq N} |x_i|$.

In matlab, there is a function named `norm`. If we don't specify an extra arguments, it calculates the Euclidean norm. If we're interested in a p-norm, we can use `norm(x, p)`. For example, ∞-norm is given by `norm(x,Inf)`.

1.3 Root finding methods for non-linear equations (8.1 & 8.2)

Definition 1.12. Well-posed problems *are problems for which solutions (1) exist, (2) are unique, and (3) depend continuously on the data.*

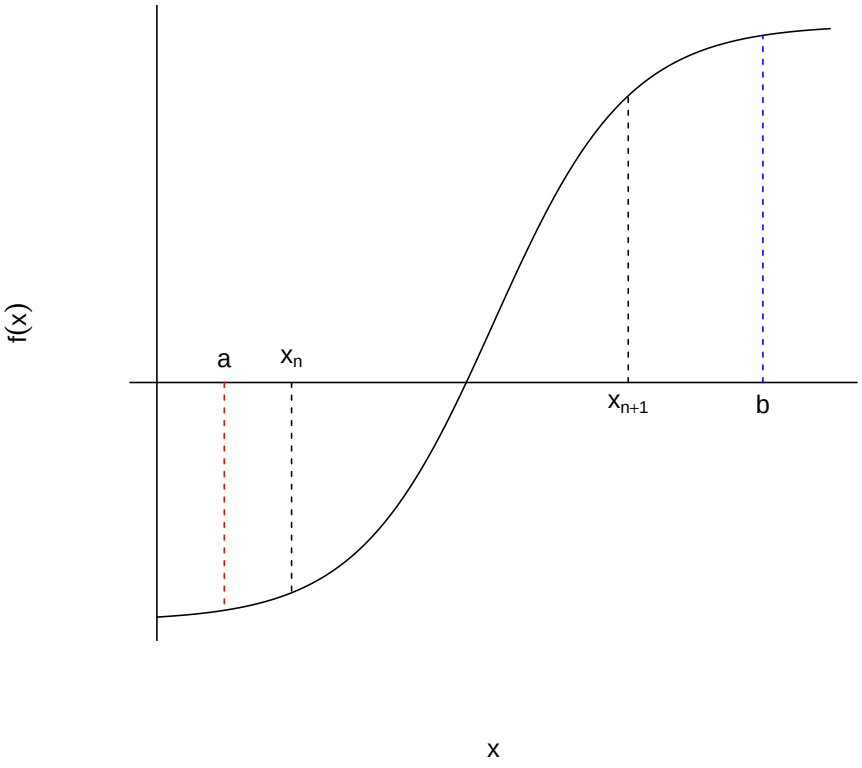
Definition 1.13. *Problems that are not well-posed are called* ill-posed*.*

Given a function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, how do we find the solution fr $f(x) = 0$? In order to do so, f must satisfy certian conditions first:

- continuity
- differentiability

$f(x)$ may be very costly to evaluate so we need methods with as few evaluations as possible.

Bisection method (Interval-halving method)



1. Start with two values of x that bracket the root: $f(a)f(b) < 0$.
2. Then, repeatedly halt the interval and retain the part where $f(x)$ changes the sign: $f(x_n)f(x_{n+1}) < 0$
3. Stop when the interval containing the root shrinks below some prescribed accuracy ε.