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MAT321: Numerical Methods Professor Nicolas Boumal Due: 3 October 2018

Homework 1: f(x) = 0 and IEEE floating points

1 Solving f(x) = 0 with $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$

1.1 Convergence rate of g_3

We are given the function $f(x) = e^x - 2x - 1$. We find the roots of f(x), we consider the simple iteration on $g(x) = e^x - x - 1$. We observe that our function g(x) is a contraction by the Mean Value Theorem. We define the sequence $x_{k+1} = g(x_k)$. We define $\xi = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_k$. To prove that the sequence x_{k+1} converges quadratically to $\xi = 0$, by Definition 1.7, we have to show that with $\varepsilon_k = |x_k - \xi|$ for k = 0, 1, 2, ..., there exists a $\mu > 0$ such that $\mu = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{\varepsilon_{k+1}}{\varepsilon_k^q}$ for q = 2.

We see that:

$$\varepsilon_k = \mid x_k - \xi \mid = \mid x_k \mid \tag{1}$$

So.

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{\varepsilon_{k+1}}{\varepsilon_k^q} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x_{k+1}|}{|x_k|^q} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|g(x_k)|}{|x_k|^q} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|e^{x_k} - x_k - 1|}{|x_k|^q} = \lim_{x_k \to \xi} \frac{|e^{x_k} - x_k - 1|}{|x_k|^q}$$
(2)

Because $\xi = 0$, and the limit goes to 0 in both the numerator and denominator, we can use L'Hopital's Rule to find the left and right limits to solve for μ :

$$\lim_{x_k \to 0} \frac{|e^{x_k} - x_k - 1|}{|x_k|^q} = \lim_{x_k \to 0^-} \frac{e^{x_k} - x_k - 1}{(-1)^q x_k^q} = \lim_{x_k \to 0^+} \frac{e^{x_k} - x_k - 1}{x_k^q}$$
(3)

$$\mu = \lim_{x_k \to 0^-} \frac{e^{x_k} - x_k - 1}{(-1)^q x_k^q} = \lim_{x_k \to 0^-} \frac{e^{x_k} - 1}{(-1)^q q x_k^{q-1}} = \lim_{x_k \to 0^-} \frac{e^{x_k}}{(-1)^q q (q-1) x_k^{q-2}} = \frac{1}{2}$$
(4)

$$\mu = \lim_{x_k \to 0^+} \frac{e^{x_k} - x_k - 1}{x_k^q} = \lim_{x_k \to 0^+} \frac{e^{x_k} - 1}{q x_k^{q-1}} = \lim_{x_k \to 0^+} \frac{e^{x_k}}{q(q-1)x_k^{q-2}} = \frac{1}{2}$$
 (5)

We see that by equations (4) and (5), the only possible value for q such that μ takes on a real value > 0 ($\mu = 1/2$) is when q = 2. Therefore, the sequence x_{k+1} converges to $\mu = 0$ quadratically (defined by Definition 1.7).

1.2 Suli and Mayers Exercise 1.10

We see that:

$$\psi(x_{k-1}) = \lim_{x_k \to \xi} \varphi(x_k, x_{k-1}) = \lim_{x_k \to \xi} \frac{x_{k+1} - \xi}{(x_k - \xi)(x_{k-1} - \xi)} = \lim_{x_k \to \xi} \frac{\frac{x_k f(x_{k-1}) - x_{k-1} f(x_k)}{f(x_{k-1}) - f(x_k)} - \xi}{(x_k - \xi)(x_{k-1} - \xi)}$$
(6)

$$\lim_{x_k \to \xi} \frac{x_k f(x_{k-1}) - x_{k-1} f(x_k) - \xi f(x_{k-1}) + \xi f(x_k)}{(f(x_{k-1}) - f(x_k))((x_k - \xi)(x_{k-1} - \xi))}$$
(7)

Since $f(\xi) = 0$, the limit in both numerator and denominator goes to 0, we can use l'Hopital's Rule to find the limit:

$$\lim_{x_k \to \xi} \frac{f(x_{k-1}) - x_{k-1} f'(x_k) + \xi f'(x_k)}{-f'(x_k)((x_k - \xi)(x_{k-1} - \xi)) + (f(x_{k-1}) - f(x_k))(x_{k-1} - \xi)}$$
(8)

$$\psi(x_{k-1}) = \frac{f(x_{k-1}) - x_{k-1}f'(\xi) + \xi f'(\xi)}{(f(x_{k-1}) - f(\xi))(x_{k-1} - \xi)} = \boxed{\frac{f(x_{k-1}) - x_{k-1}f'(\xi) + \xi f'(\xi)}{(f(x_{k-1}))(x_{k-1} - \xi)}}$$
(9)

So, we see that to find $\lim_{x_{k-1}\to\xi} \psi(x_{k-1})$, we have to use L'Hopital's Rule (twice) since both numerator and denominator approaches 0 with x_{k-1} approaches ξ . Thus,

$$\lim_{x_{k-1} \to \xi} \psi(x_{k-1}) = \lim_{x_{k-1} \to \xi} \frac{f'(x_{k-1}) - f'(\xi)}{x_{k-1}f'(x_{k-1}) + f(x_{k-1}) - \xi f'(x_{k-1})}$$
(10)

$$= \lim_{x_{k-1} \to \xi} \frac{f''(x_{k-1})}{x_{k-1}f''(x_{k-1}) + 2f'(x_{k-1}) - \xi f''(x_{k-1})} = \boxed{\frac{f''(\xi)}{2f'(\xi)}}$$
(11)

Now, we assume that:

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x_{k+1} - \xi|}{|x_k - \xi|^q} = A \tag{12}$$

So,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x_k - \xi|}{|x_{k-1} - \xi|^q} = A \Rightarrow \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x_k - \xi|^{1/q}}{|x_{k-1} - \xi|} = A^{1/q}$$
(13)

So,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x_{k+1} - \xi|}{|x_k - \xi|^{q-1/q} |x_{k-1} - \xi|} = A^{\frac{1+q}{q}}$$
(14)

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x_{k+1} - \xi|}{|x_k - \xi|^{q-1/q-1}|x_k - \xi||x_{k-1} - \xi|} = A^{\frac{1+q}{q}}$$
(15)

$$= \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{|x_k - \xi|^{q-1/q-1}} \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x_{k+1} - \xi|}{|x_k - \xi||x_{k-1} - \xi|}$$
(16)

We know that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x_{k+1} - \xi|}{|x_k - \xi| |x_{k-1} - \xi|} = |\frac{f''(\xi)}{2f'(\xi)}|$$
 (17)

So, we have:

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} |x_k - \xi|^{q - 1/q - 1} = A^{\frac{q}{1+q}} |\frac{f''(\xi)}{2f'(\xi)}|$$
(18)

We see that because we know A > 0, we must have q - 1/q - 1 = 0 because if $q - 1/q - 1 \neq 0$, then the left limit of equation (18) would not exist because it would approach either 0 or ∞ So, we have:

$$q - 1 - 1/q = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{q = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})}$$
 (19)

and

$$A^{\frac{1+q}{q}} = \frac{f''(\xi)}{2f'(\xi)} \tag{20}$$

So, we can now solve for A:

$$A = \left(A^{\frac{1+q}{q}}\right)^{\frac{q}{q+1}} = \left(\frac{f''(\xi)}{2f'(\xi)}\right)^{\frac{q}{q+1}} \tag{21}$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x_{k+1} - \xi|}{|x_k - \xi|^q} = A = \left[\left(\frac{f''(\xi)}{2f'(\xi)} \right)^{\frac{q}{q+1}} \right]$$
 (22)

Now, we wish to implement Newton's Method (obtained from lecture notes) for the function $f(x) = \frac{e^{\cos(x)}}{2+x} - 1$ with a stopping criteria to check for the number of iterations, the residual size, and the increment size in comparison to machine accuracy to compute a root for the function.

```
1 %Implement Newton's Method for given function with an increment stopping
2 %criteria
3 \mid f = Q(x) \exp(\cos(x))/(2+x) - 1; %equation definition
 4 \mid df = Q(x) - exp(cos(x))*sin(x)/(2+x) - exp(cos(x))/(2+x)^2; %first order
5 %derivative of f
6 \times 0 = 0; %initial guess
  % choose a few integers, and can converge to root
9 \mid N = 50; %Maximum number of iterations %stopping criteria #1
10 tolerance = 1E-16; "Convergence tolerance "stopping criteria #2
11
12 x = x0; %set initial integer
13 fprintf('x = %+.16e, \t f(x) = %+.16e\n',x,f(x));
14
15 | x_before = x0;
16
17 root = 0; %define root
18
19 %Iterate until convergence
20 %Newton's Method algorithm
21 for k = 1 : N %stopping criteria 1
22
      x = x - f(x) / df(x); %simple iteration
23
      fprintf('x = %+.16e, \t f(x) = %+.16e\n', x, f(x));
24
25
      error1 = f(x); %stopping criteria 2: if the error is less than tolerance
26
      if (abs(error1) <= tolerance)</pre>
27
28
          break;
29
      end
30
      error2 = abs(x - x_before)/abs(x); %stopping criteria 3: if the relative
31
32
      %error is less than the tolerance
33
      if(error2 <= tolerance)</pre>
34
          break;
35
      x_before = x; %update x_before
36
37
38
  end
39
40 root = x; %final root obtained
41 fprintf('root = %+.16e',root);
```

Initializing with integers around the root, such as 0, 1, and 2, we obtain the root of the function f(x): $\xi = 4.5515854822042595 \cdot 10^{-01}$

We now implement the Secant Method (obtained from lecture notes) for the function $f(x) = \frac{e^{\cos(x)}}{2+x} - 1$ with a stopping criteria to check for the number of iterations, the residual size, and the increment size in comparison to machine accuracy to compute a root for the function.

```
1 | %Implement Secant Method to find the roots of the function
  f = O(x) \exp(\cos(x))/(2+x) - 1; %No need for the derivative of f
4
  %Initialize initial two points
5
  x0 = 0.0;
6 | x1 = 1.0;
8
  %root
9
  root;
10
11 %Find f at the initial points
12 | f0 = f(x0);
13 | f1 = f(x1);
15 fprintf('x = %+.16e, \t f(x) = %+.16e\n', x1, f1);
16
17 \, | \, \mathbb{N} = 50; %Maximum number of iterations %stopping criteria #1
  tolerance = 1E-16; %Convergence tolerance %stopping criteria #2
19
20 | %Iterate until convergence
21 | for k = 1 : N
22
      error1 = abs(x1 - x0)/abs(x0); %stopping criteria: if the error is less than
23
           tolerance
      if (error1 <= tolerance)</pre>
24
25
          break;
26
      end
27
28
      error2 = f(x1);
29
      if (abs(error2) <= tolerance)</pre>
30
          break;
31
      end
32
33
       %Compute the next iterate
34
      x2 = x1 - f1 * (x1 - x0) / (f1 - f0);
35
36
      %Evaluate the function there with a call to f
      f2 = f(x2);
37
38
      fprintf('x = %+.16e, \ t f(x) = %+.16e\n', x2, f2);
39
40
      x0 = x1; %update the x and f
41
42
      f0 = f1;
      x1 = x2;
43
      f1 = f2;
44
45
46
  end
47
  root = x; %final root obtained
48
49 fprintf('root = %+.16e',root);
```

Initializing with integers around the root, such as $x_0 = 0$ and $x_1 = 1$, we obtain the root of

the function f(x): $\xi = 4.5515854822042590 \cdot 10^{-01}$

2 IEEE floating points

2.1 Difference of big numbers

We first consider the case of $c_1 = a^2 - b^2$:

$$(a \odot a) \ominus (b \odot b) = (a^2(1+\varepsilon_1)) \ominus (b^2(1+\varepsilon_2)) = ((a^2+\varepsilon_1a^2) - (b^2+\varepsilon_2b^2))(1+\varepsilon_3)$$
 (23)

$$=a^2+\varepsilon_1a^2-b^2-\varepsilon_2b^2+\varepsilon_3a^2-\varepsilon_3b^2+\varepsilon_3\varepsilon_1a^2-\varepsilon_3\varepsilon_2b^2=(a^2-b^2)+\varepsilon_1a^2-\varepsilon_2b^2+\varepsilon_3(a^2-b^2)+O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
(24)

Hence, we can bound the error (by using the Triangle Inequality):

$$|(a \odot a) \ominus (b \odot b) - (a^2 - b^2)| \le \varepsilon_{mach}(|a^2| + |b^2| + |a^2 - b^2|) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
 (25)

$$\left| \frac{(a \odot a) \ominus (b \odot b) - (a^2 - b^2)}{a^2 - b^2} \right| \le \varepsilon_{mach} \left(\frac{|a^2| + |b^2|}{|a^2 - b^2|} + 1 \right) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2) \tag{26}$$

We now consider the case of $c_1 = (a + b)(a - b)$:

$$(a \oplus b) \otimes (a \ominus b) = (a+b)(1+\varepsilon_1) \otimes (a-b)(1+\varepsilon_2) = (a+b)(1+\varepsilon_1)(a-b)(1+\varepsilon_2)(1+\varepsilon_3)$$
 (27)

$$= (a^2 - b^2)(1 + \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_3 + \varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_1\varepsilon_3 + \varepsilon_2\varepsilon_3 + \varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2\varepsilon_3)$$
(28)

Hence, we can bound the error:

$$|(a \oplus b) \otimes (a \ominus b) - (a^2 - b^2)| \le \varepsilon_{mach}(3 \mid a^2 - b^2 \mid) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
(29)

In relative terms, we have:

$$\left| \frac{(a \oplus b) \otimes (a \ominus b) - (a^2 - b^2)}{a^2 - b^2} \right| \le 3 \left| \varepsilon_{mach} \right| + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
 (30)

Therefore, we see that the second formula (c_2) is significantly more trustworthy than c_1 because the former is bounded by a $3\varepsilon_{mach}$ consistently regardless of our choice for a and b. We see that for c_1 , when we choose a and b to be numbers that are close to each other, the relative error will become large because we divide by $|a^2 - b^2|$, which is multiplied by the ε_{mach} , thus potentially giving a very large error.

2.2 Distance between points on a circle

We wish to first demonstrate that $dist_1(x, y) = dist_2(x, y)$ mathematically. We let $dist_1 = \theta_1$, and $dist_2 = \theta_2$. So, we see that:

$$dist_1(x, y) = \theta_1 = arccos(x^T y) \Rightarrow cos(\theta_1) = x^T y = x \cdot y$$
 (31)

We also see that:

$$dist_2(x,y) = \theta_2 = 2arcsin(1/2 || x - y ||) \Rightarrow sin(\frac{\theta_2}{2}) = \frac{1}{2} || x - y ||$$
 (32)

Because we know that $x \cdot x = y \cdot y = 1$ because x and y lie on the unit circle, so their magnitudes from the origin must be 1, we see that:

$$\sin(\frac{\theta_2}{2}) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{||x-y||}{||x||} \Rightarrow \cos(\theta_2) = 1 - 2\sin^2(\frac{\theta_2}{2}) = 1 - 2\frac{\frac{1}{4}||x-y||^2}{||x||^2}$$
(33)

$$cos(\theta_2) = 1 - 2sin^2(\frac{\theta_2}{2}) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-y) \cdot (x-y)}{x \cdot x} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{x \cdot x - 2x \cdot y + y \cdot y}{x \cdot x} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} (2 - 2x \cdot y)$$
(34)

Therefore, we conclude that

$$cos(\theta_2) = x \cdot y = cos(\theta_1) \Rightarrow \theta_1 = \theta_2 \Rightarrow \boxed{dist_1(x, y) = dist_2(x, y)}$$
 (35)

Now, we wish to confirm that y(x, v, t) lies on the unit circle and t is the distance between x and y. So, we wish to show that $y \cdot y = 1$:

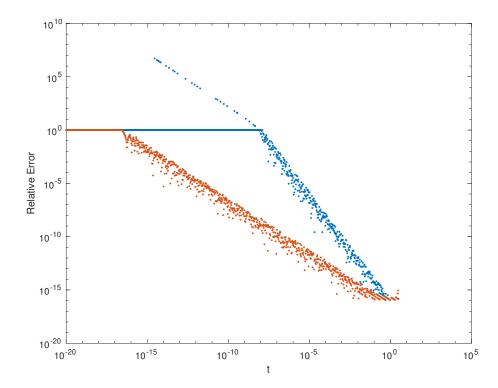
$$(\cos(t)x+\sin(t)v)\cdot(\cos(t)x+\sin(t)v) = \cos^2(t)x\cdot x + 2\sin(t)\cos(t)x\cdot v + \sin^2(t)y\cdot y = \cos^2(t) + \sin^2(t) = \boxed{1}$$

Furthermore,

$$dist_1(x,y) = \arccos(x^T y) = \arccos(x \cdot (\cos(t)x + \sin(t)y)) = \arccos(\cos(t)) = \boxed{t}$$
 (37)

Our MATLAB code to produce the plot is shown below:

```
1 | n = 2;
  x = randn(n, 1);
  x = x / norm(x) %x vector
5
  v = randn(n, 1);
  v = v - (x,*v)*x;
  v = v / norm(v) %v vector
  y = Q(x,v,t) cos(t)*x + sin(t)*v; % define y vector
10
  dist1 = @(x, y) acos(dot(x,y)); %define dist1
11
  dist2 = @(x,y) 2 * asin(0.5 * sqrt(dot((x-y),(x-y)))); %define dist2
12
13
  t = logspace(-20, pi, 1000); %create t vector
14
16 %create g1 and g2 vectors
17
  g1 = [];
  g2 = [];
18
19
20
  for k = 1:1000
  g1(k) = abs(t(k) - dist1(x, y(x,v,t(k))))/t(k);
  g2(k) = abs(t(k) - dist2(x, y(x,v,t(k))))/t(k);
23
  end
24
25 figure
26 loglog(t,g1,'.')
27
  hold on
28 loglog(t, g2, '.')
29 legend('g1','g2')
30 xlabel('t')
31 ylabel('Relative Error')
32 hold off
```



We plot the relative errors in a log-log plot for g1(t) and g2(t). We observe that the function g2 is preferred because the relative error of the function is consistently lower than g1.

Now, we wish to show that for $dist_1$,

1. $\left|\frac{fl(x^Ty)-x^Ty}{x^Ty}\right| \leq \left(1+\frac{|x|^T|y|}{|x^Ty|}\right)\varepsilon_{mach}$: We see that the floating point arithmetic of the dot product can be depicted as: $fl(x^Ty)=(x_1\otimes y_1)\oplus (x_2\otimes y_2)$. This becomes:

$$(x_1y_1)(1+\varepsilon_1) \oplus (x_2y_2)(1+\varepsilon_2) = (x_1y_1 + \varepsilon_1x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \varepsilon_2x_2y_2)(1+\varepsilon_3)$$
(38)

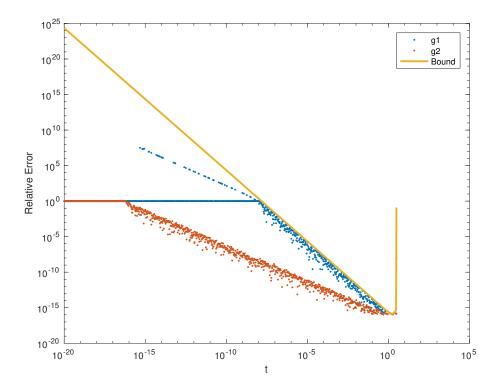
$$(x_1y_1 + x_2y_2) + \varepsilon_1 x_1 y_1 + \varepsilon_2 x_2 y_2 + \varepsilon_3 (x_1y_1 + x_2y_2) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
(39)

$$|fl(x^Ty) - (x_1y_1 + x_2y_2)| \le \varepsilon_{mach}(|x_1y_1| + |x_2y_2| + |(x_1y_1 + x_2y_2)|) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
 (40)

$$\left| \frac{fl(x^Ty) - (x_1y_1 + x_2y_2)}{x_1y_1 + x_2y_2} \right| \le \varepsilon_{mach} \left(\frac{|x_1y_1| + |x_2y_2|}{|(x_1y_1 + x_2y_2)|} + 1 \right) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
(41)

$$\left| \frac{fl(x^Ty) - (x^Ty)}{x^Ty} \right| \le \varepsilon_{mach} \left(\frac{|x|^T|y|}{|x^Ty|} + 1 \right) \tag{42}$$

2. Hence, we see that when x and y are sufficiently close, we observe that $\mid x^Ty\mid \rightarrow \mid x^Tx\mid = \mid x\mid^2$ and $\mid x\mid^T\mid y\mid \rightarrow \mid x\mid^T\mid x\mid = \mid x_1\mid^2 + \mid x_2\mid^2 = \mid x\mid^2$. Thus, we observe that when x is sufficiently close to y, $\mid \frac{fl(x^Ty)-(x^Ty)}{x^Ty}\mid \leq \varepsilon_{mach}(\frac{\mid x\mid^2}{\mid x\mid^2}+1)=2\varepsilon_{mach},$ so $fl(x^Ty)=x^Ty(1+2\varepsilon)$



with $|\varepsilon| \leq \varepsilon_{mach}$, as desired.

3. We see that $fl(dist_1(x,y)) = fl(arccos(x^Ty)) = arccos(fl(x^Ty))(1+\varepsilon_1))$ by the given identity of the relative accuracy of arccos. From part 2, we see that $fl(x^Ty) = x^Ty(1+2\varepsilon)$, so we see that:

$$fl(dist_1(x,y)) = arccos(x^T y(1+2\varepsilon_2))(1+\varepsilon_1) = arccos(x^T y + 2\varepsilon_2 x^T y)(1+\varepsilon_1)$$
(43)

Using the Taylor expansion identity or arccos, we obtain:

$$arccos(x^Ty + 2\varepsilon_2 x^Ty) = (arccos(x^Ty) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{((1 - (x^Ty)^2)}}(2\varepsilon_2 x^Ty) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2))(1 + \varepsilon_1)$$
 (44)

$$= \arccos(x^T y) - \varepsilon_2(\frac{2x^T y}{\sqrt{1 - (x^T y)^2}}) + \varepsilon_1 \arccos(x^T y) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
 (45)

Therefore,

$$\left| \frac{fl(dist_1(x,y)) - arccos(x^T y)}{arccos(x^T y)} \right| \le \varepsilon_{mach} \left(1 + \frac{2x^T y}{\sqrt{1 - (x^T y)^2} \left| arccos(x^T y) \right|} \right) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
 (46)

We are given that $t = dist_1(x, y) = arccos(x^T y)$, so $cos(t) = x^T y$. Thus,

$$\left| \frac{fl(dist_1(x,y)) - arccos(x^T y)}{arccos(x^T y)} \right| \le \varepsilon_{mach} \left(1 + \frac{2(cos(t))}{\sqrt{1 - cos^2(t)} \mid t \mid} \right) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
 (47)

$$\left| \frac{fl(dist_1(x,y)) - arccos(x^T y)}{arccos(x^T y)} \right| \le \varepsilon_{mach} \left(1 + \frac{2(cos(t))}{|sin(t)||t|} \right) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2)$$
 (48)

$$\left| \frac{fl(dist_1(x,y)) - dist_1(x,y)}{dist_1(x,y)} \right| \le \left[\varepsilon_{mach} \left(1 + \frac{2}{|(t)tan(t)|} \right) + O(\varepsilon_{mach}^2) \right]$$
(49)

as desired.

2.3 Extra Credit

For when x is very close to y so $dist_1(x,y) \to 0$, we observe that $x^Ty \to ||x||^2 = 1$ because x lies on the unit circle. Thus, when x is close to y, t becomes very small, and the distance between x and y can be approximated by $dist_1(x,y) = arccos(x^Ty) = arccos(x^Tx) = arccos(1)$ when x and y are the same point. For when x and y are close, the next approximation we can possibly do is $arccos(1 - \varepsilon_{mach})$ because each increment can only be ε_{mach} . We can Taylor expand:

$$t' = \arccos(1 - \varepsilon_{mach}) \tag{50}$$

$$cos(t') = 1 - \frac{t^2}{2!} = 1 - \varepsilon_{mach} \Rightarrow t' = \sqrt{2\varepsilon_{mach}}$$
 (51)

Thus, around $t=0,\ t'-t=\sqrt{2\varepsilon_{mach}}$, so because $\varepsilon_{mach}\approx 1.11\cdot 10^{-16},\ \sqrt{2\varepsilon_{mach}}\propto 10^{-8}$. Thus, the minimum value of t that we can represent accurately for $dist_1$ is when $t\geq 10^{-8}$. When t is smaller than this, the relative error becomes very large/inconsistent because the minimum separation between x and y is ε_{mach} . Thus, this explains the change in slope of the relative error when $t\leq 10^{-8}$ on our graph with the smaller values of t even having a relative error of 1. Therefore, we observe that we cannot calculate the distance between x and y accurately using $dist_1$ if they are separated by $t\leq 10^{-8}$. When x^Ty is between 1 and $1-\varepsilon_{mach}$, then $arccos(x^Ty)$ will be rounded off to arccos(1)=0, so that explains the constant relative error of 1 because the absolute error is ((t-0)/|t|)=1 when $t\leq 10^{-8}$.