# Some Calculus & Numerical Analysis

# Why are we covering this topic?

Because there were some tasks about Calculus in the regional!

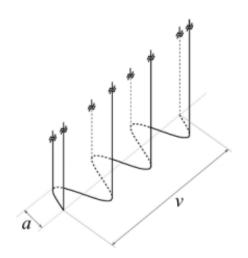


Figure 1: Curtain geometry. Note that this particular example illustrates 3 folds in a window width of v.

For each input record, output the amplitude of the sinusoidal folds required width of v using a curtain made using fabric with a of width w. The amplitude the folds form a curve in the shape  $a \sin(\frac{2\pi n}{v}x)$ , with  $0 \le x \le v$ , and a > 0.

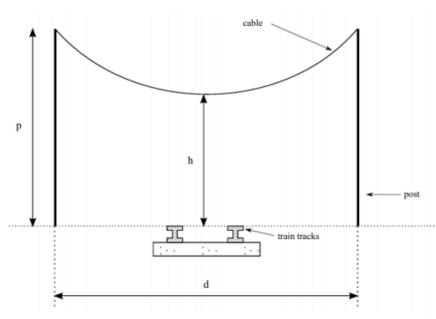


Figure 1: Power line dimensions

A cable hanging between poles is known to assume a specific shape called a *catenary*. T described by the formula

$$f(s) = a \cosh\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)$$

where  $\frac{-d}{2} \le s \le \frac{d}{2}$  denotes a position along the cable, as measured on the ground, and

$$\cosh(x) = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$$

## Today..

- How to use these functions in C++
  - Exponential functions & Logarithms
  - Square roots
  - Trigonometric functions
  - Hyperbolic functions
- Numerical Integration (Simpson's Rule)
- Bisection method
- Ternary search

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#### **Exponential Functions**

• Exponential function with base a ( $a \ne 1$ )  $f(x) = a^x$ 

• To use in C++:

#### Exponential Functions (cont.)

- Caution: There are some invalid inputs.
  - $(-5)^3$  is valid, but  $(-5)^{2.5}$  is invalid. (domain error)
  - $0^5$  is valid, but  $0^0$  and  $0^{-3}$  are both *invalid (domain error)*
  - 0.0013<sup>10000.53</sup> is too small to represent by a double-type variable. (range error)
- If you call pow function with these values, an error occurs.
- However, although  $1^x$  is not a exponential *function*, it has a value 1, so the pow(1, 73.2) returns 1.

#### Exponential Functions (cont.)

- e is a special constant, so  $e^x = \exp x$  is also defined.
- To use in C++:

• If x is too large,  $e^x$  is super large to be represented by a variable, so an error occurs. (range error)

# Logarithms

- e is a special constant, so  $\log_e x$  is also defined.
- To use in C++:

- If x is *not positive*, an error occurs. (*domain error*)
- Logarithms with base 10 is also defined: log10(x)

# Logarithms (cont.)

Base conversion:

$$\log_a x = \frac{\log x}{\log a} = \log(x) / \log(a)$$

• There is no built-in function for logarithms with different bases.

#### Square roots

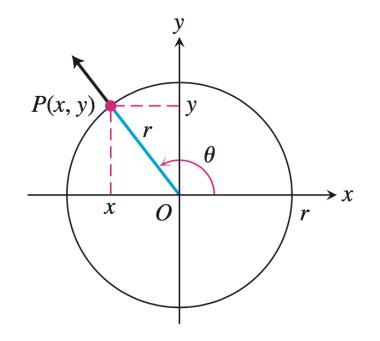
You may use the pow function to calculate the square root of x:

```
#include <math.h>
double y = pow(5.2, 0.5); // 2.280351
```

However, there is a built-in function for square roots:

```
#include <math.h>
double y = sqrt(5.2); // 2.280351
```

## Trigonometric Functions



sine: 
$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}$$

ne: 
$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$$

tangent: 
$$\tan \theta = \frac{1}{2}$$

sine: 
$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}$$
 cosecant:  $\csc \theta = \frac{r}{y}$ 

cosine: 
$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$$
 secant:  $\sec \theta = \frac{r}{x}$ 

tangent: 
$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$$
 cotangent:  $\cot \theta = \frac{x}{y}$ 

The trigonometric **FIGURE 1.42** functions of a general angle  $\theta$  are defined in terms of x, y, and r.

## Trigonometric Functions (cont.)

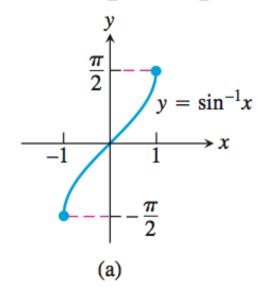
•  $\sin \theta$ ,  $\cos \theta$  and  $\tan \theta$  are all defined in C++:

- You must use *radians*, not degrees!  $180^{\circ} = \pi$  rad.
- To calculate  $\csc \theta$ ,  $\sec \theta$  and  $\cot \theta$ , just take the reciprocal of  $\sin \theta$ ,  $\cos \theta$  and  $\tan \theta$ , respectively.

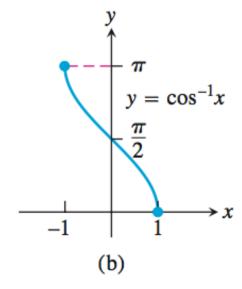
## Trigonometric Functions (cont.)

• What about inverses of trigonometric functions?

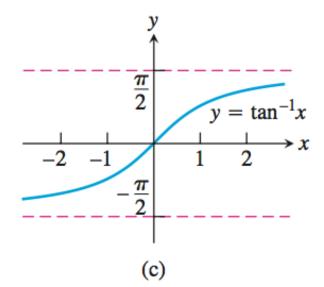
Domain: 
$$-1 \le x \le 1$$
  
Range:  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \le y \le \frac{\pi}{2}$ 



Domain: 
$$-1 \le x \le 1$$
  
Range:  $0 \le y \le \pi$ 



Domain: 
$$-\infty < x < \infty$$
  
Range:  $-\frac{\pi}{2} < y < \frac{\pi}{2}$ 



#### Trigonometric Functions (cont.)

•  $\sin^{-1} x$ ,  $\cos^{-1} x$  and  $\tan^{-1} x$  are all defined in C++:

```
#include <math.h>

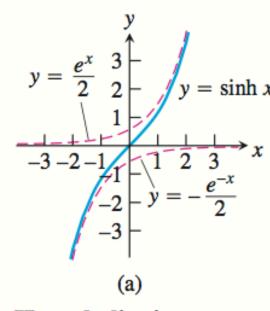
double x = 0.5;
double a = asin(x); // 0.523599
double b = acos(x); // 1.047198
double c = atan(x); // 0.463648
```

• Returned values are in <u>radians</u>, not degrees!  $180^{\circ} = \pi \text{ rad}$ .

# Trigonometric functions (cont.)

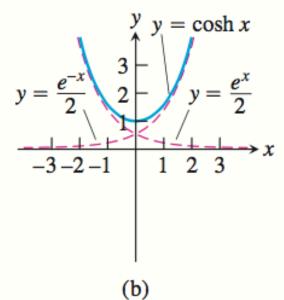
- To calculate  $\csc^{-1} x$ ,  $\sec^{-1} x$  and  $\cot^{-1} x$ , just calculate  $\sin^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$ ,  $\cos^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$  and  $\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$  (maybe  $\frac{\pi}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$ ) instead, respectively.
- Caution: You should <u>be careful of the *domain*</u> of inverse functions. If the argument is outside of the domain, an <u>error</u> occurs! (*domain error*)

## Hyperbolic Functions



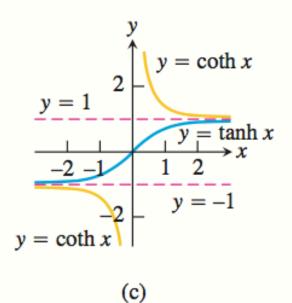
#### Hyperbolic sine:

$$\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$$



#### Hyperbolic cosine:

$$\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$$



#### Hyperbolic tangent:

$$\tanh x = \frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x} = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$$

# Hyperbolic Functions (cont.)

•  $\sinh x$ ,  $\cosh x$  and  $\tanh x$  are all defined in C++:

```
#include <math.h>

double x = 5.3;
double a = sinh(x); // 100.165909
double b = cosh(x); // 100.170901
double c = tanh(x); // 0.999950
```

- For sinh x and cosh x: if x is too large, results are super large to be represented by a variable, so an error occurs. (range error)
- To calculate  $\operatorname{csch} x$ ,  $\operatorname{sech} x$  and  $\operatorname{coth} x$ , just take the reciprocal of  $\sinh x$ ,  $\cosh x$  and  $\tanh x$ , respectively.

## Hyperbolic Functions (cont.)

What about inverses of hyperbolic functions?

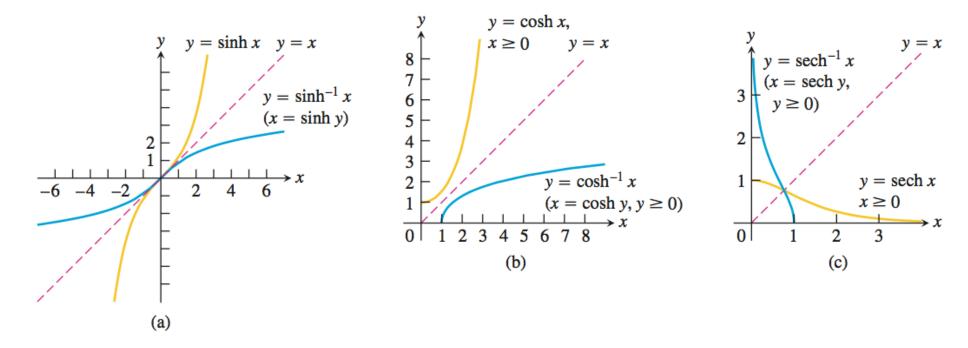


FIGURE 7.5 The graphs of the inverse hyperbolic sine, cosine, and secant of x. Notice the symmetries about the line y = x.

## Hyperbolic Functions (cont.)

•  $\sinh^{-1} x$ ,  $\cosh^{-1} x$  and  $\tan h^{-1} x$  are all defined in C++:

```
#include <math.h>
double a = asinh(0.3395); // 0.333295
double b = acosh(1.9542); // 1.290102
double c = atanh(0.8429); // 1.231107
```

- To calculate  $\operatorname{csch}^{-1} x$ ,  $\operatorname{sech}^{-1} x$  and  $\operatorname{coth}^{-1} x$ , just calculate  $\sinh^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$ ,  $\cosh^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$  and  $\tanh^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$  instead, respectively.
- Caution: You should <u>be careful of the *domain*</u> of inverse functions. If the argument is outside of the domain, an <u>error</u> occurs! (*domain error*)

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# Why integrate numerically?

• For some functions, we know how to integrate it.

$$\int e^x(\sin x + 5\cos x)dx = e^x(3\sin x + 2\cos x) + C$$

$$\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \tan^{-1} x + C$$

• So we can use the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to calculate the definite integral.

$$\int_{1}^{\sqrt{3}} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \tan^{-1} x \Big]_{1}^{\sqrt{3}} = \frac{\pi}{3} - \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{12}$$

# Why integrate numerically? (cont.)

However, some functions are really hard to integrate:

$$\int \sqrt{1 + \cos^2 x} \, dx$$

- So we just try to approximate the definite integral.
- For continuous functions, we can use the *Simpson's Rule*.

# Simpson's Rule

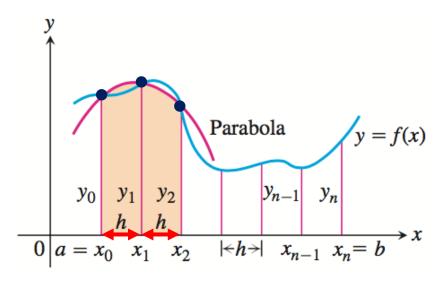
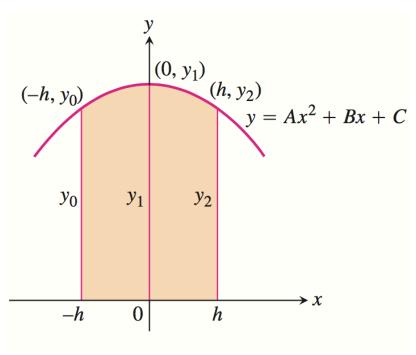


FIGURE 8.9 Simpson's Rule approximates short stretches of the curve with parabolas.

- We want to calculate  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ .
- Partition the interval [a,b] into n subintervals.  $(h = \Delta x = (b-a)/n)$ 
  - *n* must be <u>even</u>.
- We <u>approximate</u> the curve y = f(x) by pieces of parabolas!
  - For each consecutive pair of intervals,
  - The parabola passes three endpoints.

# Simpson's Rule (cont.)



- So, we can calculate the area of the parabola instead.
- By some calculations, the area under the parabola which passes  $(-h, y_0)$ ,  $(0, y_1)$  and  $(h, y_2)$ from x = -h to x = h is:

$$\frac{h}{3}(y_0 + 4y_1 + y_2)$$

• This formula holds even if we shift the parabola horizontally.

## Simpson's Rule (cont.)

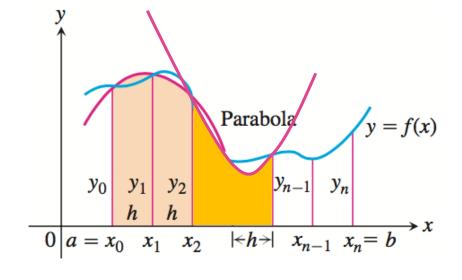


FIGURE 8.9 Simpson's Rule approximates short stretches of the curve with parabolas.

• The area under the parabola through  $(x_0, y_0)$ ,  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  is:

$$\frac{h}{3}(y_0 + 4y_1 + y_2)$$

• The area under the parabola through  $(x_2, y_2)$ ,  $(x_3, y_3)$  and  $(x_4, y_4)$  is:

$$\frac{h}{3}(y_2 + 4y_3 + y_4)$$

## Simpson's Rule (cont.)

• By summing up,

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \frac{h}{3}(y_{0} + 4y_{1} + y_{2}) + \frac{h}{3}(y_{2} + 4y_{3} + y_{4}) + \dots + \frac{h}{3}(y_{n-2} + y_{n-1} + y_{n})$$

$$= \frac{h}{3}(y_{0} + 4y_{1} + 2y_{2} + 4y_{3} + 2y_{4} + \dots + 2y_{n-2} + 4y_{n-1} + y_{n})$$

- f need not be positive, but it must be continuous.
- n must be even, since each parabolic arc uses two intervals.

# Implementing Simpson's Rule

```
double val = 0; // approximation of the intergral
double x i = a;
for(int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
 double y = f(x i);
 else val += 2 * y;
 x_i += h;
val *= h / 3; // multiply h/3 later to reduce precision error
printf("%lf\n", val);
```

# Error Estimation in Simpson's Rule

• If  $f^{(4)}$  is continuous and M is any upper bound for the values of  $|f^{(4)}|$  on [a,b],

$$|E_S| \le \frac{M(b-a)^5}{180n^4}$$

- where  $E_S$  is the error in the Simpson's Rule approximation on  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  for n steps.
- As n increases,  $|E_S|$  decreases very quickly.
- In most cases, it is impossible to estimate M, so just try to experiment with various n, and find the appropriate n.

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#### Bisection method

• Sometimes we want to find the roots of an equation.

$$f(x)=0$$

Some equations are easy to solve.

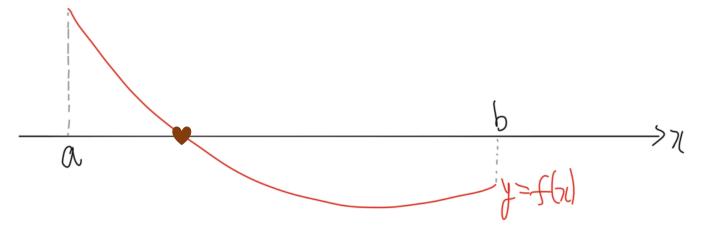
$$x^2 + 2x + 1 = 0 \implies x = -1$$

• But some are not.

$$x + \sin x + 1 = 0$$

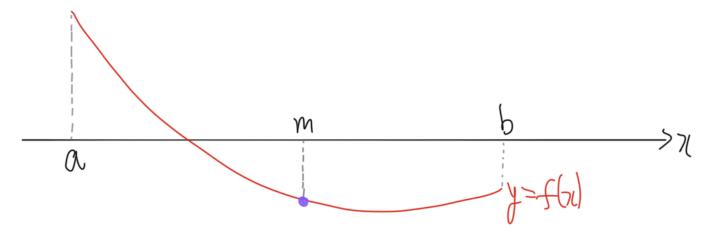
So we are trying to solve it numerically.

• Suppose *f* is a continuous function.



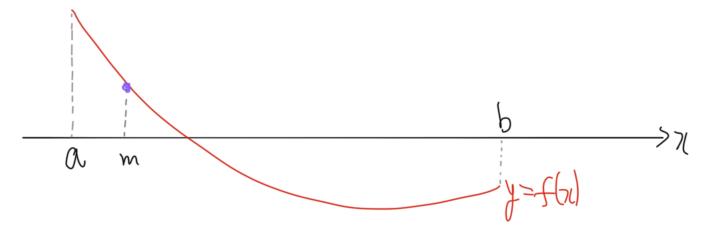
- When  $f(a)f(b) \le 0$ , there must be at least one root between a and b (inclusive)
  - We are going to use this fact!
  - WLOG, f(a) > 0 and f(b) < 0.

• Choose any m between a and b.



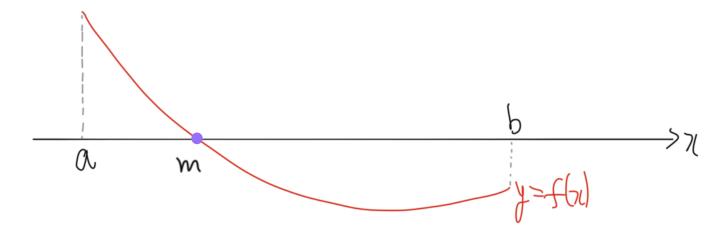
• If f(m) < 0, f(a)f(m) < 0. Therefore there exists a root between a and m.

• Choose any m between a and b.



• If f(m) > 0, f(b)f(m) < 0. Therefore there exists a root between m and h.

• Choose any m between a and b.



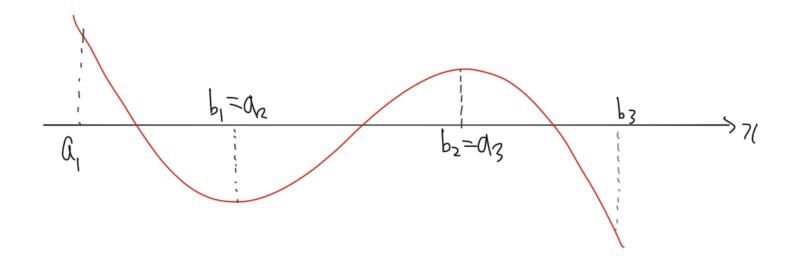
- If f(m) = 0, we are done.
- However, because of precision issues, this is not the case in most situations. For simplicity, let's just think there is a root between a and m.

- Therefore, in both cases, the interval which contains the root shrinks.
  - $f(m) \le 0$ :  $[a, b] \to [a, m]$
  - f(m) > 0:  $[a, b] \to [m, b]$
- So choose  $m = \frac{a+b}{2}$ . Then, the length of the interval *always* becomes **half**.
- When we do this n times, the length of the interval becomes  $(b-a)\times\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$ .

```
// Precondition: f(a) > 0, f(b) < 0
for(int steps = 0; steps < 50; steps++) {
    double m = (a + b) / 2.0;
    if(f(m) <= 0) {
        b = m;
    }else {
        a = m;
    }
}</pre>
```

#### Bisection method (cont.)

• This method computes **exactly one root** between a and b. If you want to compute multiple roots, you should apply this method multiple times for different initial intervals.

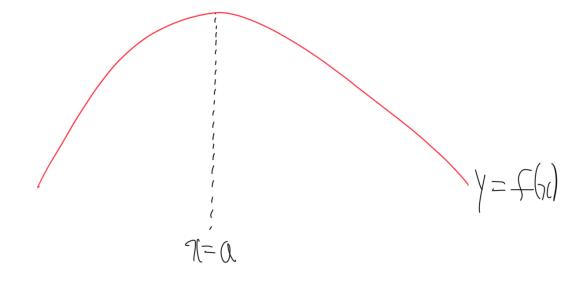


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### Finding the maximum of a unimodal function

- Assume we are finding the maximum of a continuous function f(x).
- ..where f(x) is strictly increasing when x < a and strictly decreasing when x > a.



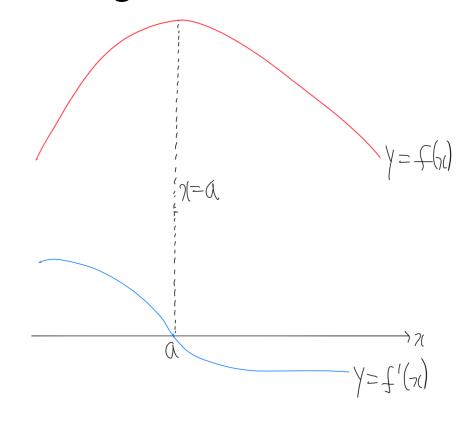
# Finding the maximum of a unimodal function (cont.)

• It is obvious that the maximum value lies on x = a. So our task is to find the value of a.

• Of course, we don't know how the graph looks like, so we should calculate the value of f(x) for some x and search for the maximum.

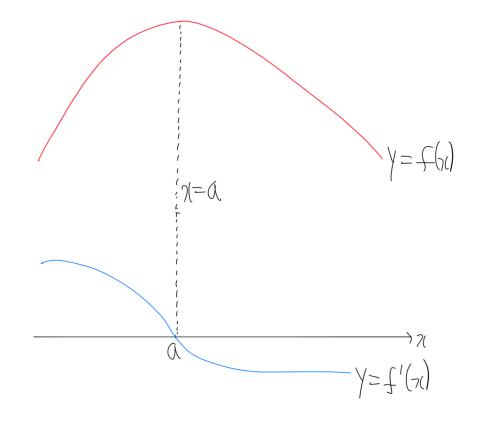
#### If we could calculate the derivative...

• Take a look at the derivative of f. It is positive for all x < a, zero if x = a, and is negative for all x > a.



# If we could calculate the derivative.. (cont.)

• So we can use the *bisection method* on the derivative to find the value of a.

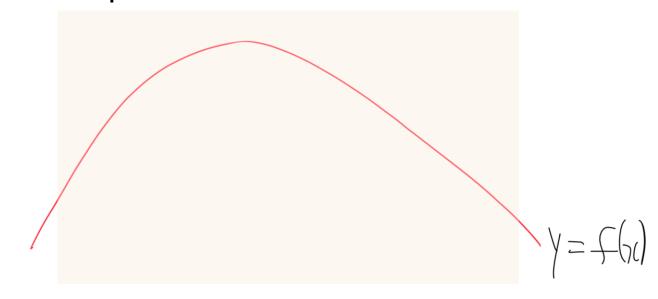


# Derivative is too complicated and cause precision errors

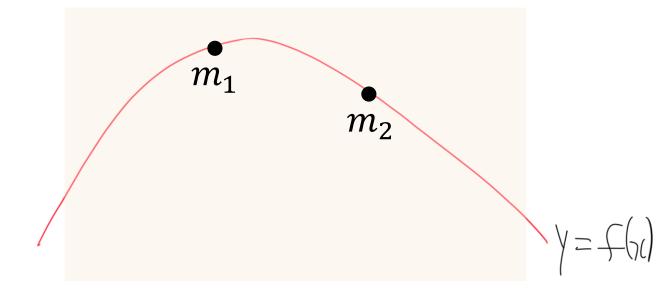
- However, we don't know what the function *f* is, so we cannot calculate the value of the derivative.
- Maybe we could try to *estimate* the derivative like:  $\frac{f(x+10^{-9})-f(x)}{10^{-9}}.$
- However, it isn't possible because of precision errors.

### Ternary search

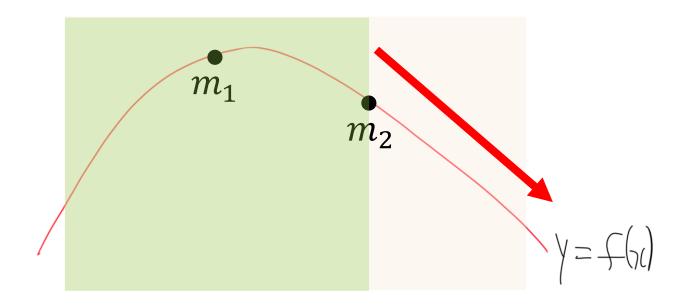
- This is why we use a new method, ternary search.
- Like other searches, first we set an interval [l, r] that will contain the optimal point a.



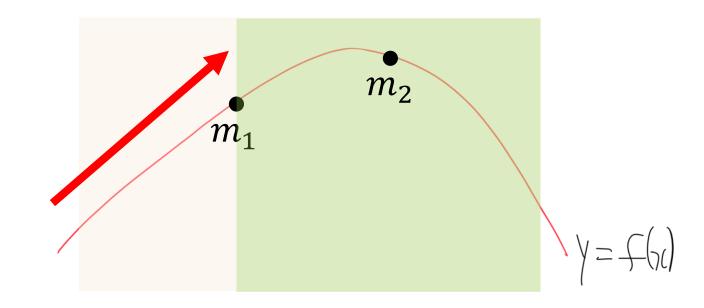
- Now, consider any two points  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  in the interval, and calculate  $f(m_1)$  and  $f(m_2)$ .
- What can we know from that?



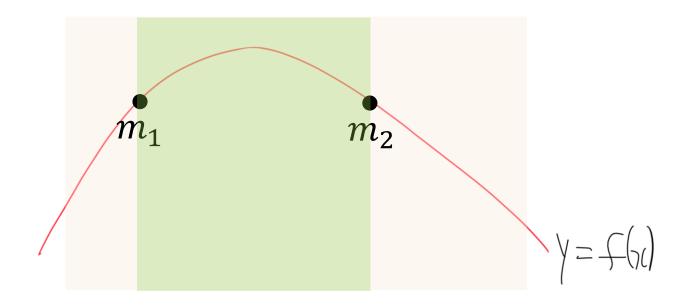
• If  $f(m_1) > f(m_2)$ , maximum not lies in  $[m_2, r]$ , because f is decreasing at  $x = m_2$ . So we can shrink the interval to  $[l, m_2]$ .



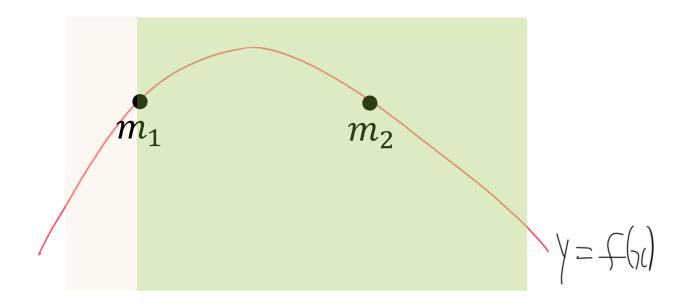
• If  $f(m_1) < f(m_2)$ , maximum not lies in  $[l, m_1]$ , because f is increasing at  $x = m_1$ . So we can shrink the interval to  $[m_1, r]$ .



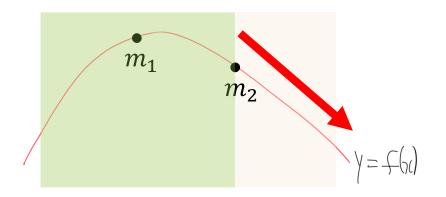
• If  $f(m_1) = f(m_2)$ , maximum must lie in  $[m_1, m_2]$ , so we can shrink the interval to that.

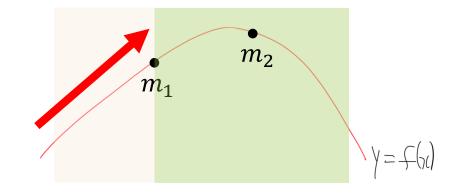


• Or you can just shrink the interval into  $[l, m_2]$  or  $[m_1, r]$ , to make the code simpler. We will take  $[m_1, r]$ .

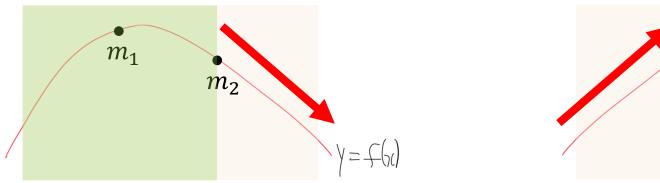


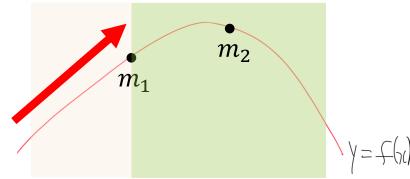
- To sum up: We have an interval [l, r] that contains the optimal point x = a. Repeat these steps:
  - Set two points  $m_1 < m_2$  in the interval.
  - If  $f(m_1) > f(m_2)$ , shrink the interval to  $[l, m_2]$ .
  - Otherwise, shrink the interval to  $[m_1, r]$ .





- If we set  $m_1 = \frac{2l+r}{3}$  and  $m_2 = \frac{l+2r}{3}$ , in either case the length of the interval becomes  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the original.
- If we repeat these steps s times, the length of the interval becomes  $(r-l) \times \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^s$ . Try to fix s to get the desired precision.





```
// Precondition: l < a < r
for(int steps = 0; steps < 70; steps++) {
    double m1 = (2 * l + r) / 3.0;
    double m2 = (l + 2 * r) / 3.0;
    if(f(m1) > f(m2)) {
        r = m2;
    }else {
        l = m1;
    }
}
```