Lec 11: Numbers, Problems, and Algorithms

Floating-Point Numbers

Absolute and Relative Errors

In numerical analysis, we use an **algorithm** to *approximate* some quantity of interest.

 We estimate of the accuracy of the computed value via an absolute error or a relative error:

$${
m e_{abs}} = A_{
m approx} - A_{
m exact}$$
 (absolute error) ${
m e_{rel}} = rac{A_{
m approx} - A_{
m exact}}{A_{
m exact}} = rac{A_{
m approx}}{A_{
m exact}} - 1$, (relative error)

where $A_{\rm exact}$ is the exact, analytical answer and $A_{\rm approx}$ is the approximate, numerical answer.

• If $e_{\rm abs}$ or $e_{\rm rel}$ is small, we say that the approximate answer is accurate.

Example: Stirling's Formula

Stirling's formula provides a "good" approximation to n! for large n:

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$$
 (*)

- Assume that the exact value of n! is found by factorial.
- Estimate n! using (\star).
- Show the accuracy of this approximation for various values of n.

Try in MATLAB:

```
n = ...;
err_abs = sqrt(2*pi*n)*(n/exp(1))^n - factorial(n);
err_rel = err_abs/factorial(n);
disp(err_abs)
disp(err_rel)
```

Limitations of Digital Representations

A digital computer uses a finite number of bits to represent a real number and so it cannot represent all real numbers.

- The represented numbers cannot be arbitrarily large or small;
- There must be gaps between them.

So for all operations involving real numbers, it uses a subset of $\mathbb R$ called the **floating-point numbers**, $\mathbb F$.

Floating-Point Numbers

A *floating-point number* is written in the form $\pm (1+F)2^E$ where

- *E*, the *exponent*, is an integer;
- F, the mantissa, is a number $F = \sum_{i=1}^{d} b_i 2^{-i}$, with $b_i = 0$ or $b_i = 1$.

Note that F can be rewritten as

$$F = 2^{-d} \sum_{k=0}^{d-1} b_{d-k} 2^k,$$

where M is an integer in $\mathbb{N}[0, 2^d - 1]$.

Consequently, there are 2^d evenly-spaced numbers between 2^e and 2^{e+1} in the floating-point number system.

Floating-Point Numbers - IEEE 754 Standard

 MATLAB, by default, uses double precision floating-point numbers, stored in memory in 64 bits (or 8 bytes):

$$\pm \underbrace{1.\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\cdots\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}}_{\text{mantissa (base 2): 52+1 bits}} \times 2^{\underbrace{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\cdots\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}}_{\text{exponent: 11 bits}}}_{\text{exponent: 11 bits}}$$

- Predefined variables:
 - eps = the distance from 1.0 to the next largest double-precision number:

$$eps = 2^{-52} \approx 2.2204 \times 10^{-16}$$
.

- realmin = the smallest positive floating-point number that is stroed to full accuracy; the actual smallest is realmin/2^52.
- realmax = the largest positive floating-point number

Machine Epsilon and Relative Errors

The IEEE standard guarantees that the *relative representation error* and the *relative computational error* have sizes smaller than eps, the *machine epsilon*:

• Representation: The floating-point representation, $\hat{x} \in \mathbb{F}$, of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfies

$$\hat{x} = x(1 + \epsilon_1),$$
 for some $|\epsilon_1| \leqslant \frac{1}{2}$ eps.

• Arithmetic: The floating-point representation, $\hat{x} \oplus \hat{y}$, of the result of $\hat{x} + \hat{y}$ with $\hat{x}, \hat{y} \in \mathbb{F}$ satisfies

$$\hat{x} \oplus \hat{y} = (\hat{x} + \hat{y})(1 + \epsilon_2), \quad \text{for some } |\epsilon_2| \leqslant \frac{1}{2} \text{ [eps]}.$$

Similarly with \ominus , \otimes , \oplus corresponding to -, \times , \div , respectively.

Round-Off Errors

Computers CANNOT usually

- represent a number correctly;
- add, subtract, multiply, or divide correctly!!

Run the following and examine the answers:

```
format long
1.2345678901234567890
12345678901234567890
(1 + eps) - 1
(1 + .5*eps) - 1
(1 + .51*eps) - 1
n = input(' n = '); ( n^(1/3) )^3 - n
```

Catastrophic Cancellation

In finite precision storage, two numbers that are close to each other are indistinguishable. So subtraction of two nearly equal numbers on a computer can result in loss of many significant digits.

Catastrophic Cancellation

Consider two real numbers stored with 10 digits of precision:

$$e = 2.7182818284,$$

 $b = 2.7182818272.$

- Suppose the actual numbers e and b have additional digits that are not stored.
- The stored numbers are good approximations of the true values.
- However, if we compute e-b based on the stored numbers, we obtain $0.0000000012=1.2\times10^{-9}$, a number with only two significant digits.

Example 1: Cancellation for Large Values of x

Question

Compute $f(x) = e^x(\cosh x - \sinh x)$ at x = 1, 10, 100, and 1000.

Numerically:

```
format long
x = input(' x = ');
y = exp(x) * ( cosh(x) - sinh(x) );
disp([x, y])
```

Example 2: Cancellation for Small Values of x

Question

Compute
$$f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{1+x} - 1}{x}$$
 at $x = 10^{-12}$.

Numerically:

```
x = 1e-12;
fx = (sqrt(1+x) - 1)/x;
disp( fx )
```

To Avoid Such Cancellations ...

- Unfortunately, there is no universal way to avoid loss of precision.
- One way to avoid catastrophic cancellation is to remove the source of cancellation by simplifying the given expression before computing numerically.
- For Example 1, rewrite the given expression recalling that

$$\cosh x = (e^x + e^{-x})/2 \qquad \sinh x = (e^x - e^{-x})/2.$$

• For Example 2, try again after rewriting f(x) as

$$f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{1+x}-1}{x} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{1+x}+1}{\sqrt{1+x}+1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x}+1}$$
.

Do you now have an improved accuracy?

Problems and Conditioning

Problems and Conditioning

- A mathematical problem can be viewed as a function f: X → Y from a data/input space X to a solution/output space Y.
- We are interested in changes in f(x) caused by small perturbations of x.
- A well-conditioned problem is one with the property that all small perturbations of x lead to only small changes in f(x)

Condition Number

Let $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $\hat{x} = x(1 + \epsilon)$ be the representation of $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

 The ratio of the relative error in f due to the change in x to the relative error in x simplifies to

$$\frac{\left|f(x) - f(x(1+\epsilon))\right|}{\left|\epsilon f(x)\right|}.$$

In the limit of small error (ideal computer), we obtain

$$\kappa(x) := \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\left| f(x) - f(x(1+\epsilon)) \right|}{\left| \epsilon f(x) \right|}$$

$$= \left| \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{f(x+\epsilon x) - f(x)}{\epsilon x} \cdot \frac{x}{f(x)} \right| = \left| \frac{xf'(x)}{f(x)} \right|, \quad (\star)$$

which is called the (relative) condition number.

Example: Conditioning of Subtraction

Consider f(x) = x - c where c is some constant. Using the formula (*), we find that the associated condition number is

$$\kappa(x) = \left| \frac{xf'(x)}{f(x)} \right| = \left| \frac{x}{x-c} \right|.$$

• It is large when $x \approx c$.

Example: Conditioning of Multiplication

The condition number of f(x) = cx is

$$\kappa(x) = \left| \frac{xf'(x)}{f(x)} \right| = \left| \frac{x \cdot c}{cx} \right| = 1.$$

No magnification of error.

Example: Conditioning of Function Evaluation

The condition number of $f(x) = \cos(x)$ is

$$\kappa(x) = \left| \frac{xf'(x)}{f(x)} \right| = \left| \frac{-x\sin x}{\cos x} \right| = |x\tan x|.$$

• The condition number is large when $x = (n + 1/2)\pi$, where $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Example: Conditioning of Root-Finding

Let r=f(a;b,c) be a root of $ax^2+bx+c=0$. Instead of direct differentiation, use implicit differentiation

$$r^2 + 2ar\frac{dr}{da} + b\frac{dr}{da} = 0.$$

Solve for the derivative.

$$f'(a) = \frac{dr}{da} = -\frac{r^2}{2ar+b} = -\frac{r^2}{+\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}},$$

then compute the condition number using the formula (*) to get

$$\kappa(a) = \left| \frac{af'(a)}{f(a)} \right| = \left| \frac{ar^2}{\pm r\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}} \right| = \left| \frac{ar}{\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}} \right|.$$

Conditioning is poor for small discriminant, i.e., near repeated roots.

Stability of Algorithms

Algorithms

- Recall that we defined a problem as a function $f: X \to Y$.
- An algorithm can be viewed as another map $\tilde{f}:X\to Y$ between the same two spaces, which involves errors arising in
 - representing the actual input x as \hat{x} ;
 - ullet implementing the function f numerically on a computer.

Analysis - General Framework

The relative error of our interest is

$$\left|\frac{\tilde{f}(\hat{x}) - f(x)}{f(x)}\right| \leq \left|\frac{\tilde{f}(\hat{x}) - f(\hat{x})}{f(x)}\right| + \left|\frac{f(\hat{x}) - f(x)}{f(x)}\right| \\ \lessapprox \underbrace{\left|\frac{\tilde{f}(\hat{x}) - f(\hat{x})}{f(\hat{x})}\right|}_{\text{numerical error}} + \underbrace{\left|\frac{f(\hat{x}) - f(x)}{f(x)}\right|}_{\text{perturbation error}} \leq (\hat{\kappa}_{\text{num}} + \kappa_f) \boxed{\text{eps}}.$$

where $\kappa=\kappa_f$ be the (relative) condition number of the exact problem f and

$$\hat{\kappa}_{\text{num}} = \max \left| \frac{\tilde{f}(\hat{x}) - f(\hat{x})}{f(\hat{x})} \right| / \left| \frac{\hat{x} - x}{x} \right|.$$

Example: Root-Finding Revisited

Consider again solving the quadratic problem $ar^2 + br + c = 0$.

- Taking a=c=1 and $b=-(10^6+10^{-6})$, the roots can be computed exactly by hand: $r_1=10^6$ and $r_2=10^{-6}$.
- If numerically computed in MATLAB using the quadratic equation formula, r_1 is correct but r_2 has only 5 correct digits.
- Fix it using $r_2 = (c/a)/r_1$.