# Homework 4 (Solution)

Math 3607

Tae Eun Kim

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## Problem 1 (Log Product; LM 5.6)

Here we compute the product of all elements of  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)^T$ 

$$P_n = \prod_{i=1}^n a_i$$

using the sum of logarithms as

$$\log |P_n| = \sum_{i=1}^n \log |a_i|,$$

and then expressing  $P_n$  in scientific notation  $f \times 10^m$ , where  $|f| \in [1, 10)$  and m is an integer. How do we obtain f and m from the sum of logs? Let  $\lambda = \log |P_n| = m + (\lambda - m)$ , where  $m = \lfloor \lambda \rfloor$  is the integer part of  $\lambda$  and  $\lambda - m \in [0, 1)$  is its fractional part. Upon exponentiation (with base 10), we obtain

$$|P_n| = 10^{\lambda} = 10^{\lambda - m} \times 10^m$$
.

Note that the first term  $10^{\lambda-m}$  is in [1,10), so it must correspond to |f|. In addition, m is the same m that appears in the scientific notation. In short, the procedure can be summarized as follows:

- 1. Compute the sum of logs of absolute value of elements; call it  $\lambda$ . In doing so, keep track of the sign of each term. If an element is 0, the answer is 0 so set f = 0 and m = 0 and exit the program.
- 2. Determine the integer part m and the fractional part  $\lambda m$  of  $\lambda$ .
- 3. m is found in the previous step;  $f=\pm 10^{\lambda-m}$  where the sign is determined by the number of negative elements.

Below is an example script.

```
% script m-file: logprod.m
% computes the product of elements of a using
% input: a
% output: f, m
n = length(a);
sgn = 1;
                  % sign tracker
                % sum of logs of abs vals (lambda)
sumLog = 0;
for i = 1:n
   if a(i) == 0 % if an elem is zero,
       f = 0; % the product is zero.
       m = 0;
       return
   elseif a(i) < 0
      sgn = (-1)*sgn;
   sumLog = sumLog + log10(abs(a(i)));
end
m = floor(sumLog); % integer part
f = sgn * 10^(mod(sumLog, 1)); % fractional part
```

We can do better without using any loop. (This is the style that I want you to ultimately acquire from this course.)

#### **Solution:** (Function m-file)

Note: When asked to write a function m-file, use Code Example environment as shown above. If you need to call the function, you may include the function at the end of the live script. See the end of this file.

**Explore.** What is the largest factorial computable in MATLAB?

So 170! is the largest factorial computable and n!, with  $n \ge 171$ , overflows to infinity in MATLAB.

```
factorial(170)

ans =
          7.25741561530799e+306

factorial(171)

ans =
          Inf
```

(Recall that realmax is the largest double-precision floating-point number.)

```
realmax

ans =
    1.79769313486232e+308
```

Question: How, then, would you go about calculating 200! using MATLAB?

## **Problem 2 (Tiling with Sprial Polygons)**

We have been working with this shapes several times and I hope by now you understand the underlying geometry as well as all programming techniques involved. See at the end of the current file for the code listing.

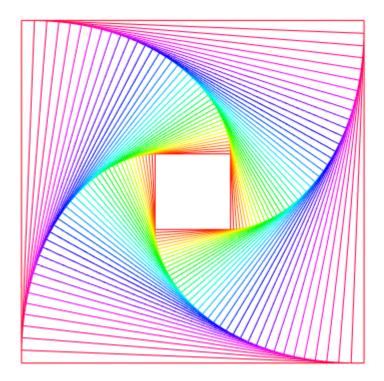
### **Illustration: Roles of Parameters**

To make sure everyone understands what is really going on, take a look at the following examples:

```
m = 4;
rotate = 45;
shift = [0 0];
```

#### Example 1:

```
clf; spiralgon(m, 41, 2.25, rotate, shift);
```

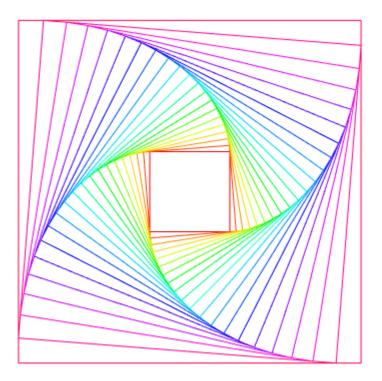


Since the first one is drawn as a square with horizontal and vertical sides and since 40 additional squares are drawn with each rotated by  $2.25^{\circ}$ , the very last one is rotated by  $40 \times 2.25^{\circ} = 90^{\circ}$ , and so the last one also have horizontal and vertical sides.

If you understand the previous paragraph, you will see why n and d angle values were given as they were.

### Example 2:

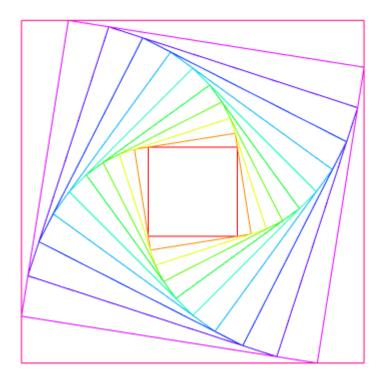
clf; spiralgon(m, 21, 4.5, rotate, shift);



Here,  $20 \times 4.5^{\circ} = 90^{\circ}$ . Once again, the outermost square has horizontal and veritcal sides, just as the innermost one.

## Example 3:

clf; spiralgon(m, 11, 9, rotate, shift);



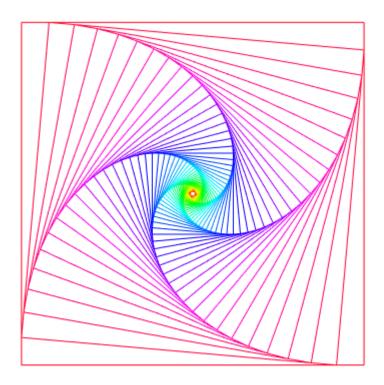
Again,  $10 \times 9^{\circ} = 90^{\circ}$ .

Observation. As you can see, as long as n and  $d_angle$  values are chosen so that

$$(n-1) \times d_angle$$

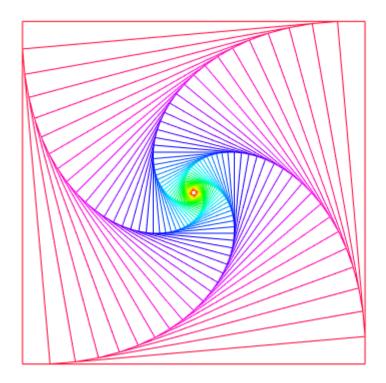
is a multiple of 90, the same kind of visual effect will be created. For instance,

clf; spiralgon(m, 55, 5, rotate, shift);



Let us also confirm here that the code works with negative  $d_angle$  value. (We expect to see spirals drawn in the opposite orientation.)

```
clf; spiralgon(m, 55, -5, rotate, shift);
```

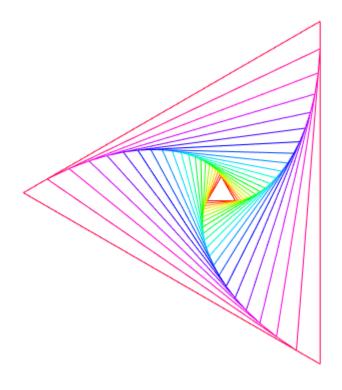


This will become useful in a bit.

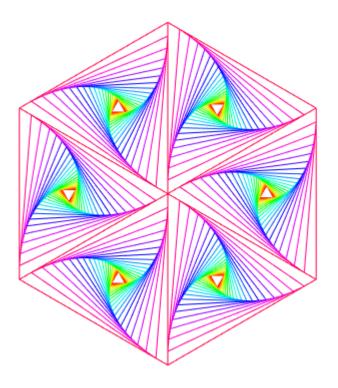
# (a) Tiling with spiral triangles

```
clf
n = 3; m = 21; d_angle = 4.5; d_rot = 90; shift = [0 0]';
V = spiralgon(n, m, d_angle, d_rot, shift);
hold off

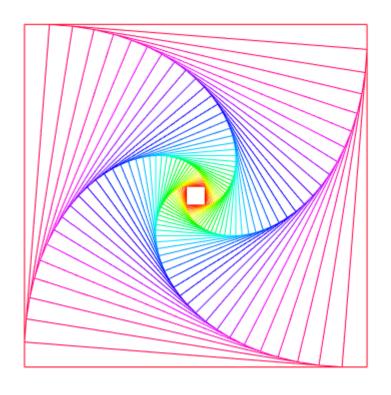
shift = -V(:,1);
spiralgon(n, m, d_angle, d_rot, shift);
```

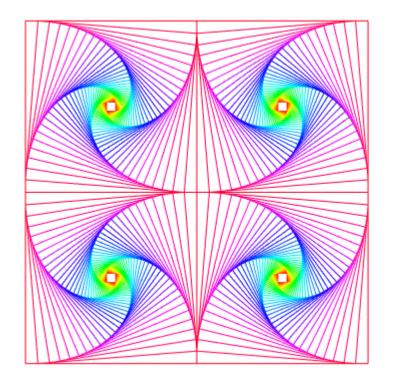


```
R = [cosd(60) -sind(60);
    sind(60) cosd(60)];
for i = 2:6
    d_rot = d_rot + 60;
    shift = R*shift;
    spiralgon(n, m, d_angle, d_rot, shift);
end
```



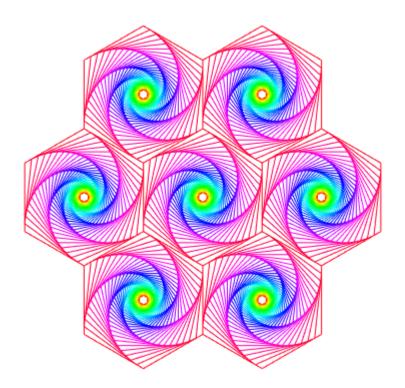
## (b) Tiling with spiral squares





# (c) Tiling with spiral hexagons

```
clf
V = spiralgon(6, 51, 6, 30, [0 0]);
for i = 1:6
    rotate = sum(V(:,i:i+1), 2);
    spiralgon(6, 51, 6, 30, rotate);
end
```



# Problem 3 (LM 9.3--3a)

```
format long g
```

#### Successor of 8:

```
(8 + 4*eps) - 8
(8 + 4.01*eps) - 8
```

Observe that the gap between 8 + 4.01\*eps and 8 is not 4.01\*eps, but rather 8\*eps.

```
8*eps
```

### Predecessor of 16:

```
16 - (16 - 4.01*eps)
16 - (16 - 4*eps)
```

Note that 16 - 4\*eps is registered to be the same as 16 in MATLAB while 16 - 4.01\*eps is rounded down to 16 - 8\*eps. This is how we know that 16 - 8\*eps comes immediately before 16 on the floating-point number system.

### Neighbors of $2^{10}$ :

The gap between  $2^{10}$  and the next floating-point number is  $2^{10} \cdot \text{eps} = 2^{-42}$ .

```
(2^10 + 2^9*eps) - 2^10
(2^10 + (2^9+1)*eps) - 2^10
2^(-42)
```

The gap between  $2^{10}$  and the one before is  $2^9 \cdot eps = 2^{-43}$ .

```
2^10 - (2^10 - 2^8*eps)
2^10 - (2^10 - (2^8+1)*eps)
2^(-43)
```

## **Problem 4 (9.3--10)**

```
format long e
```

(a) Since  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \dots = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^j}{j!}$ , the limit is clearly 1.

$$\lim_{x \to 0} f(x) = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x^j / j!}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{j-1}}{j!} = 1.$$

(b) The following are used commonly in all subparts.

```
k = [1:20]';

x = 10.^(-k);
```

(i) Note the use of elementwise division below.

```
fx = (exp(x) - 1)./x;
```

(ii) In our textbook, log denotes the natural log ln, and so the denominator  $\log e^x = \ln e^x = x$ .

```
f1x = (exp(x) - 1)./log(exp(x));
```

(iii) The function expm1 computes "exponental function  $e^x$  minus 1".

```
f2x = expm1(x)./x;
```

Let's package the results together simply using disp.

```
disp([x fx f1x f2x])
```

The first one f(x) suffers horribly from the catastrophic cancellation since  $e^x \approx 1$  for small x. To understand why  $f_1(x)$  is doing a better job, note that the denominator  $\log e^x$ , for small x, behaves as follows:

$$\log e^x = \log(1 + x + x^2/2 + \cdots) = x + \text{(higher-order terms)}.$$

Another round of power-series-fu reveals that

$$f_2(x) = (e^x - 1)/\log(e^x) = (x + x^2/2 + x^3/6 + \cdots)/(x + \cdots) = 1 + \text{(higher-order terms)},$$

and this is why MATLAB is much more tamed with this encoding. However, when x gets sufficiently small,  $e^x$  gets very close to 1 to a point that is not distinguishable on the floating-point number system. In our experiment, that happened when  $k \ge 16$ :

```
x_small = 1e-16;
exp(x_small)
```

When this is fed into log, it outputs zero resulting in NaN.

```
log(exp(x_small))
```

This explain why we had NaN's for the last 5 results ( $16 \le k \le 20$ ).

The function expm1 was designed to avoid the catastrophic cancellation occurring in calculating  $e^x - 1$  for small x. See

```
help expm1
```

## **Problem 5 (Inverting hyperbolic cosine)**

```
t = -4:-4:-16;

x = \cosh(t);
```

(a) Let  $f(x) = \log(x - \sqrt{x^2 - 1}) = \operatorname{acosh}(x)$ . Calculation shows that

$$\kappa_f(x) = \left|\frac{xf'(x)}{f(x)}\right| = \left|\frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{\log(x-\sqrt{x^2-1})}\right|.$$

We evaluate the condition number at the entries of x by

```
f = log(x - sqrt(x.^2-1));

fp = -1./sqrt(x.^2-1);

kappa = abs(x.*fp./f)
```

(b) We have already evaluted t = f(x) in part (a), saved as f. We compare against the original values stored in t;

```
absErr = abs(f - t)';
relErr = absErr./abs(t);
for j = 1: length(x)
    if j == 1
        fprintf(' %10s %16s %16s\n', 'x', 'abs error', 'rel error')
        fprintf(' %45s\n', repmat('-', 1, 45))
    end
    fprintf(' 10.4e 16.8e 16.8e, x(j), absErr(j), relErr(j))
end
```

```
abs error
                               rel error
2.7308e+01 4.61852778e-14 1.15463195e-14
          1.71089809e-10
                          4.27724522e-11
1.4905e+03
8.1377e+04
          1.37072186e-07
                           3.42680466e-08
4.4431e+06 1.37512880e-03 3.43782200e-04
```

Note from the expression for  $\kappa_f(x)$  that the condition number becomes large as x increases because the denominator  $(x - \sqrt{x^2 - 1}) \log(x - \sqrt{x^2 - 1}) \to 0$  as  $x \to 0$ . This explains why the numerical computation incur larger errors, both absolute and relative, when x is large.

(c,d) Let  $g(x) = -2\log\left(\sqrt{\frac{x+1}{2}} + \sqrt{\frac{x-1}{2}}\right)$ . Analytically, g(x) = f(x). Unlike f(x), however, numerical evaluation of g(x) is done much more stably:

```
q = -2*log(sqrt((x+1)/2) + sqrt((x-1)/2));
absErr = abs(q - t)';
relErr = absErr./abs(t);
for j = 1: length(x)
    if j == 1
        fprintf(' %10s %16s %16s\n', 'x', 'abs error', 'rel error')
        fprintf(' %45s\n', repmat('-', 1, 45))
    fprintf(' %10.4e %16.8e %16.8e\n', x(j), absErr(j), relErr(j))
end
```

```
abs error
                                  rel error
2.7308e+01 0.0000000000e+00 0.0000000000e+00
1.4905e+03 0.0000000000e+00 0.000000000e+00
8.1377e+04 0.0000000000e+00 0.000000000e+00
4.4431e+06 0.0000000000e+00 0.0000000000e+00
```

The key difference is that the expression for g(x) does not involve any ill-conditioned steps whereas f(x) requires a subtraction which is prone to catastrophic cancellation for large x as seen in part (b).

### **Functions Used**

### **Log Product**

## **Spiral Polygon**

```
function V = spiralgon(m, n, d angle, rotate, shift)
% FSPRIALGON plots spiraling regular m-gons
% input: m = the number of vertices
           n = the number of regular m-gon
응
           d angle = the degree angle between successive m-gons
응
응
           (can be positive or negative)
           rotate = the degree angle of rotation of the initial m-gon
           shift = (2-vector) location of the center of all m-gons
% output: V = the vertices of the outermost m-gon
th = linspace(0, 360, m+1) + rotate;
V = [cosd(th);
    sind(th)];
C = colormap(hsv(n));
scale = sind(90 + 180/m - abs(d angle))/...
    sind(90 - 180/m);
R = [\cos d(d \text{ angle}) - \sin d(d \text{ angle});
    sind(d angle) cosd(d angle)];
% hold off
for i = 1:n
    if i > 1
        V = scale*R*V;
    plot(V(1,:)+shift(1), V(2,:)+shift(2), 'Color', C(i,:))
    hold on
end
set(gcf, 'Color', 'w')
axis equal, axis off
```