# MATH 612 <br> Computational methods for equation solving and function minimization - Week \# 5 

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Spring 2014 - University of Delaware

## Plan for this week

- Discuss any problems you couldn't solve previous lectures
- You have to read lectures 12, 13, and 14
- I'll go over some aspects of these lectures and try to get to Lecture 15
- The second HW assignment is due Friday


## Remember that...

... I'll keep on updating, correcting, and modifying the slides until the end of each week.

## CONDITIONING

## The condition number of a matrix

Let $A$ be a square invertible matrix. Its condition number is the quantity

$$
\kappa(A)=\|A\|\left\|A^{-1}\right\|
$$

- $\kappa(A)$ depends on the norm we use, so we should be tagging it with the same name as the norm we use
- $\kappa\left(A^{-1}\right)=\kappa(A)$
- $\kappa(A B) \leq \kappa(A) \kappa(B)$ (because $\|A B\| \leq\|A\|\|B\|$ - which is required in matrix norms)


## The condition number of a matrix (2)

Assume that we are using one of the $\|\cdot\|_{p}$ norms to define the condition number. Then

$$
\kappa(c l)=1 \quad \forall c \neq 0
$$

and for every matrix

$$
\kappa(A) \geq 1 .
$$

The sprectral condition number. When $p=2$

$$
\kappa(A)=\frac{\sigma_{1}}{\sigma_{m}}
$$

where $\sigma_{1} \geq \ldots \geq \sigma_{m}>0$ are the singular values of $A$. (This is a good moment to recall a certain hyperellipsoid.) Note that if $Q$ is unitary, then $\kappa(Q)=1$. Why?

## Three tests

We are going to focus in the spectral condition number.
(1) We want to measure the sensitivity of

$$
x \mapsto A x
$$

to small perturbances in $x$.
(2) We will then measure the sensitivity of the system

$$
A x=b
$$

to small perturbances in $b$.
(3) Finally we will look at the first problem again when $A$ is what's perturbed.
A large condition number of $A$ means a large dispersion of the singular values of $A$.

We use the full=reduced SVD of $A=U \Sigma V^{*}$. Let:

$$
\begin{aligned}
x=v_{m} & \|x\|_{2}=1, \\
A x=\sigma_{m} u_{m} & \|A x\|_{2}=\sigma_{m}, \\
\delta x=\varepsilon v_{1} & \|\delta x\|_{2}=\varepsilon,
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
A(x+\delta x)=\varepsilon \sigma_{1} u_{1}+\sigma_{m} u_{m},
$$

$$
A(x+\delta x)-A x=\varepsilon \sigma_{1} u_{1} \quad\|A(x+\delta x)-A x\|_{2}=\varepsilon \sigma_{1}
$$

We then compute the relative error with respect to the relative error of data:

$$
\frac{\|A(x+\delta x)-A x\|_{2}}{\|A x\|_{2}} \frac{1}{\frac{\|\delta x\|_{2}}{\|x\|_{2}}}=\kappa(A) .
$$

## A theorem

In general, it's not difficult to show that

$$
\sup _{\delta x \neq 0} \frac{\|A(x+\delta x)-A x\|}{\|A x\|} \frac{\|x\|}{\|\delta x\|}=\|A\| \frac{\|x\|}{\|A x\|} \leq \kappa(A) .
$$

The quantity in red is called the condition number of the operation $x \mapsto A x$ with respect to perturbations in $x$.

The example of the previous slide shows how for a general invertible matrix and the 2-norm, there are vectors such that the condition number of the operation $x \mapsto A x$ is $\kappa(A)$.

Is this bad? In a way. The result says that if your condition number is very large, no matter how small your data perturbation is you could get a very large relative error in your computation.

## A second test

The problem of solving $A x=b$ is equivalent to the operator $b \mapsto A^{-1} b$. Therefore, we just apply the conclusions of the previous slide to $A^{-1}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sup _{\delta b \neq 0} \frac{\left\|A^{-1}(b+\delta b)-A^{-1} b\right\|}{\left\|A^{-1} b\right\|} \frac{\|b\|}{\|\delta b\|} & =\left\|A^{-1}\right\| \frac{\|b\|}{\left\|A^{-1} b\right\|} \\
& \leq \kappa\left(A^{-1}\right)=\kappa(A) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We are also able to find examples in the 2-norm where the upper estimate holds as an equality.

## Third test: dependence w.r.t. the matrix

Try and figure out what happened to $A$ when adding $\delta A$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
A=U \Sigma V^{*} & \|A\|_{2}=\sigma_{1}, \\
\delta A=U\left(\varepsilon e_{m} e_{m}^{*}\right) V^{*} & \|\delta A\|_{2}=\varepsilon, \\
x=v_{m}, & \\
A x=\sigma_{m} u_{m} & \|A x\|_{2}=\sigma_{m}, \\
(\boldsymbol{A}+\delta \boldsymbol{A}) x=\left(\sigma_{m}+\varepsilon\right) u_{m} & \\
(\boldsymbol{A}+\delta \boldsymbol{A}) x-\boldsymbol{A x}=\varepsilon u_{m} & \|(A+\delta A) x-A x\|_{2}=\varepsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

This is how the computation of $A x$ is affected:

$$
\frac{\|(A+\delta A) x-A x\|_{2}}{\|A x\|_{2}} \frac{1}{\frac{\|\delta A\|_{2}}{\|A\|_{2}}} \leq \kappa(A)
$$

## The corresponding theorem

Just with formulas:

$$
\sup _{\delta A \neq 0} \frac{\|(A+\delta A) x-A x\|}{\|A x\|} \frac{\|A\|}{\|\delta A\|} \leq \kappa(A)
$$

The same bound applies to the sensitivity of solving $A x=b$ with respect to perturbations of $A$. In this case the perturbations have to be small enough so that $A+\delta A$ is still invertible.

## Small interruption with an argument

If $A x=\lambda x$, with $x \neq 0$, then

$$
|\lambda|=\frac{\|A x\|}{\|x\|} \leq\|A\| .
$$

Therefore if $\|A\|<1$ (in any given norm), then $I \pm A$ are invertible (because $\lambda=\mp 1$ cannot be eigenvalues of $A$ ).
Finally, if

$$
\|\delta A\|<\frac{1}{\left\|A^{-1}\right\|}
$$

then

$$
\left\|A^{-1} \delta A\right\|<1
$$

and

$$
A+\delta A=A\left(I+A^{-1} \delta A\right) \text { is invertible }
$$

## Introducing the Hilbert matrix

The following matrix

$$
\begin{gathered}
H_{n}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n} \\
\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n+1} \\
\frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n+2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\frac{1}{n} & \frac{1}{n+1} & \frac{1}{n+2} & \cdots & \frac{1}{2 n-1}
\end{array}\right] \\
H_{i j}=\frac{1}{i+j-1}
\end{gathered}
$$

is known to have exceptionally bad condition number.

```
>> cond(hilb(5))
ans =
    4.766072502433796e+005
>> cond(hilb(6))
ans =
    1.495105864148109e+007
>> cond(hilb(7))
ans =
    4.753673562966472e+008
>> cond(hilb(8))
ans =
    1.525757555001589e+010
>> cond(hilb(9))
ans =
    4.931541097528780e+011
>> cond(hilb(10))
ans =
    1.602492277132444e+013
```


## An experiment with Hilbert's matrix

```
>> n=10;
>> A=hilb(n);u=ones(n,1);
>> b=A*u; v=A\b; norm(u-v)
ans =
    7.377072953848606e-004
>> n=20;
>> A=hilb(n);u=ones(n,1);
>> b=A*u; v=A\b; norm(u-v)
Warning: Matrix is close to singular or badly scaled.
    Results may be inaccurate. RCOND = 1.155429e-019.
ans =
    2.011761385588561e+002
```


## A MORE GENERAL DEFINITION

Given a function $x \mapsto f(x)$ and $\varepsilon>0$, we consider all the relative error of all posible perturbations os size $\varepsilon$ or less:

$$
\begin{aligned}
e(\varepsilon) & :=\sup _{|\delta x| \leq \varepsilon} \frac{\|f(x+\delta x)-f(x)\|}{\|f(x)\|} \frac{\|x\|}{\|\delta x\|} \\
& =\frac{\|x\|}{\|f(x)\|} \sup _{|\delta x| \leq \varepsilon} \frac{\|f(x+\delta x)-f(x)\|}{\|\delta x\|}
\end{aligned}
$$

and then we take the limit as the size of the perturbation is reduced:

$$
\kappa(x)=\lim _{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} e(\varepsilon)
$$

## Example

The roots of the polynomial

$$
(x-2)^{2}=x^{2}-4 x+4
$$

are compared with a polynomial with a small perturbation:

$$
(1+\delta a) x^{2}+(-4+\delta b) x+(4+\delta c)
$$

where $\delta a, \delta b, \delta c$ are chosen randomly in $\varepsilon\left[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right]$. We first show where the roots are when $\varepsilon=0.1$ and then we look at the function

$$
\varepsilon \mapsto \max \left\{\frac{\left|r_{1}(\delta a, \delta b, \delta c)-2\right|}{\max \{|\delta a|,|\delta b|,|\delta c|\}}:(\delta a, \delta b, \delta c)\right\}
$$

## These are the roots



## ... and this is really bad news



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## FLOATING POINT

## An approximate floating point model

Even if numbers are typically stored in a different way, we are going to assume that floating point numbers are the following: 0 is a number, and all other numbers are

$$
\pm 0 . x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{16} \times 10^{e}, \quad x_{1} \neq 0
$$

where the exponent varies between a minimum and a maximum, that we will impose to be

$$
-323 \leq e \leq 309 .
$$

## Warning

Once again, numbers are not typically stored like this, but in base 2 decompositions, so the the digits $x_{j}$ would be zeros and ones, there would be more of them and the exponential part would be $2^{e}$. This model is quite close to what is called double precision.

## An approximate floating point model (2)

$$
\pm 0 . x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{16} \times 10^{e}, \quad x_{1} \neq 0, \quad-322 \leq e \leq 309
$$

- The sign is separated from the number. There are as many positive numbers as there are negative numbers.
- When a real number is too close to zero ( $e<-322$ ), the model goes to underflow. In Matlab, the underflow is identified with zero.
- When a real number is too large ( $e>309$ ), the model goes to overflow. Matlab associated overflow with the number Inf.
- The smallest number and largest numbers (in absolute value) are

$$
0.1 \underbrace{0 \ldots \ldots 0}_{15 \text { zeros }} \times 10^{-322}=10^{-323} \quad 0 . \underbrace{9 \ldots \ldots 9}_{16 \text { nines }} \times 10^{309}
$$

## An approximate floating point model (2)

$$
\pm 0 . x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{16} \times 10^{e}, \quad x_{1} \neq 0, \quad-322 \leq e \leq 309
$$

The following number to the right of

$$
1=0.10 \ldots 0 \times 10^{1}
$$

is

$$
0.1 \underbrace{0 \ldots 0}_{14} 1 \times 10^{1}=1+10^{-15}
$$

Therefore, the distance between 1 and all the numbers to its right before we reach 10 is $10^{-15}$. These numbers are equally spaced. Once we get to

$$
10=0.10 \ldots 0 \times 10^{2}
$$

the next number is $10^{-14}$ to the right.
(1) How many positive numbers can we store with this model?
(2) In this model all integers up to $10^{16}$ can be stored exactly. What happens after that?
(3) What is the closest number to $1 / 3$ that is stored in the model?
(9) Repeat the previous question with $1 / 6$.
(6) If $10^{m} \leq x<10^{m+1}$, what is the distance between $x$ and the closest number in the model?

## Some Matlab experiments

Remember that we are actually working in base 2, so we are not going to observe the model we have discussed, but something similar.

```
>> 1+1e-16
ans =
    1
>> 1+1e-15
ans =
    1.000000000000001
>> 1+5.551116e-16 % the answer is inbetween
ans =
    1.000000000000001
>> 9999999999999999 % I typed 16 nines
ans =
    1.000000000000000e+016
```


## Some Matlab experiments (2)

Remember that we are actually working in base 2, so we are not going to observe the model we have discussed, but something similar.

```
>> 1/6
ans =
    0.166666666666667
>> 1/6-0.166666666666666 % I changed the last digit
ans =
    6.661338147750939e-016
>> eps % this is what matlab
    % recognizes as machine epsilon
ans =
    2.220446049250313e-016
```


## A working model for theory

The issues of magnitude (upper and lower limits for exponents) are typically ignored when we deal with stability. Real numbers $x$ will be assigned a floating point representation $\mathrm{fl}(x) \in \mathrm{F}$. The four arithmetic operators $\{+,-, \times, /\}$ will have floating point correspondents $\{\oplus, \ominus, \otimes,(\square\}$, which act on floating point numbers. There's a small number called the machine epsilon $\epsilon_{\text {machine }}$. We admit the following axioms:

- For all $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$
\mathrm{fl}(x)=x(1+\epsilon), \quad|\epsilon| \leq \epsilon_{\text {machine }} .
$$

- For all $x, y \in \mathbf{F}$ and $* \in\{+,-, \times, /\}$,

$$
x \circledast y=(x * y)(1+\epsilon) \quad|\epsilon| \leq \epsilon_{\text {machine }} .
$$

## BACKWARD STABILITY

## Landau's big O symbol

For notational purposes, we will write things like

$$
\varphi(t)=O(\psi(t)) \quad \text { as } t \rightarrow 0, \text { or } t \rightarrow \infty, \ldots
$$

meaning that there exists $C$ such that

$$
|\varphi(t)| \leq C \psi(t) \quad \text { as } t \rightarrow 0, \text { or } t \rightarrow \infty, \ldots
$$

When there are other parameters and $C$ does not depend on them, we will say the $\varphi=O(\psi)$ uniformly in these other parameters.

Even if $\epsilon_{\text {machine }}$ is fixed, we will admit expressions like

$$
\text { something we have computed }=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right)
$$

assuming that $\epsilon_{\text {machine }}$ is allowed to go to zero.

A problem is a function

$$
f: X \rightarrow Y \quad X, Y \text { are vector spaces (copies of } \mathbb{R}^{n} \text { ) }
$$

and an algorithm is an actual approximation of the function

$$
\widetilde{f}: X \rightarrow Y
$$

An algorithm is backward stable if for every $x$, there exists $\widetilde{x}$ such that

$$
\frac{\|x-\widetilde{x}\|}{\|x\|}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad f(\widetilde{x})=\widetilde{f}(x)
$$

## A simple example

Multiplication of floating point numbers:

$$
f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=x_{1} \times x_{2}, \quad \tilde{f}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=f\left(x_{1}\right) \otimes f\left(x_{2}\right) .
$$

The spaces are $X=\mathbb{R}^{2}$ and $Y=\mathbb{R}$. Recall the axioms:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f \mid\left(x_{j}\right)=x_{j}\left(1+\epsilon_{j}\right), & \left|\epsilon_{j}\right| \leq \epsilon_{\text {machine }} \\
x \otimes y=(x \times y)\left(1+\epsilon_{3}\right), & \left|\epsilon_{3}\right| \leq \epsilon_{\text {machine }} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tilde{f}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) & =f\left(x_{1}\right) \otimes \mathrm{f}\left(x_{2}\right) \\
& =\underbrace{x_{1}\left(1+\epsilon_{1}\right)}_{\widetilde{x}_{1}} \underbrace{x_{2}\left(1+\epsilon_{2}\right)\left(1+\epsilon_{3}\right)}_{\widetilde{x}_{2}} \\
& =f\left(\widetilde{x}_{1}, \widetilde{x}_{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## A simple example (cont'd)

We have shown that

$$
\widetilde{f}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=f\left(\widetilde{x}_{1}, \widetilde{x}_{2}\right)
$$

with

$$
\widetilde{x}_{1}=x_{1}\left(1+\epsilon_{1}\right), \quad \widetilde{x}_{2}=x_{2}\left(1+\epsilon_{2}\right)\left(1+\epsilon_{3}\right)
$$

satisfying

$$
\frac{\left|\widetilde{x}_{1}-x_{1}\right|}{\left|x_{1}\right|}=\left|\epsilon_{1}\right| \leq \epsilon_{\text {machine }}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right)
$$

$$
\frac{\left|\widetilde{x}_{2}-x_{2}\right|}{\left|x_{2}\right|}=\left|\epsilon_{2}+\epsilon_{3}+\epsilon_{2} \epsilon_{3}\right| \leq 2 \epsilon_{\text {machine }}+\epsilon_{\text {machine }}^{2}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right)
$$

So, there we go! Floating point multiplication is backward stable.

## Stable vs backward stable

$f: X \rightarrow Y$ is the problem, $\tilde{f}: X \rightarrow Y$ is the algorithm.
An algorithm is backward stable if for every $x$, there exists $\tilde{x}$ such that

$$
\frac{\|x-\tilde{x}\|}{\|x\|}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad f(\widetilde{x})=\tilde{f}(x) .
$$

An algorithm is stable if for every $x$, there exists $\widetilde{x}$ such that

$$
\frac{\|x-\tilde{x}\|}{\|x\|}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\|f(\widetilde{x})-\tilde{f}(x)\|}{\|f(\tilde{x})\|}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right) .
$$

Clearly, backward stable implies stable. The reverse statement is false.

## An example

The problem and the algorithm:

$$
f(x)=x+1, \quad \widetilde{f}(x)=f(x) \oplus 1
$$

Looking for backward stability ${ }^{1}$ : we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widetilde{f}(x) & =\left(x\left(1+\epsilon_{1}\right)+1\right)\left(1+\epsilon_{2}\right) \\
& =\underbrace{x\left(1+\epsilon_{1}\right)\left(1+\epsilon_{2}\right)+\epsilon_{2}}_{\widetilde{x}}+1=f(\widetilde{x})
\end{aligned}
$$

but there's no backwards stability because

$$
\frac{|x-\widetilde{x}|}{|x|}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right)+\frac{O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right)}{|x|} .
$$

Funny fact! Adding two numbers is backward stable. Adding 1 to another number is not.
${ }^{1}$ every $\epsilon$ is assumed to satisfy $|\epsilon| \leq \epsilon_{\text {machine }}$

## An example (cont'd)

On the other hand

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widetilde{f}(x) & =\left(x\left(1+\epsilon_{1}\right)+1\right)\left(1+\epsilon_{2}\right) \\
& =\underbrace{x\left(1+\epsilon_{1}\right)}_{\widetilde{x}}+1+(\underbrace{x\left(1+\epsilon_{1}\right)}_{\widetilde{x}}+1) \epsilon_{2} \\
& =\underbrace{\widetilde{x}+1}_{f(\widetilde{x})}+(\underbrace{\widetilde{x}+1}_{f(\widetilde{x})}) \epsilon_{2}=f(\widetilde{x})+f(\widetilde{x}) \epsilon_{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

which gives

$$
\frac{|x-\widetilde{x}|}{|x|}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right) \quad \frac{|\widetilde{f}(x)-f(\widetilde{x})|}{|f(\widetilde{x})|}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right)
$$

which means this algorithm is stable.

## STABILITY AND CONDITIONING

An algorithm $\tilde{f}: X \rightarrow Y$ to solve a problem $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is backward stable when for all $x \in X$, there exists $\widetilde{x} \in X$ such that

$$
\widetilde{f}(x)=f(\widetilde{x}) \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\|x-\widetilde{x}\|}{\|x\|}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right)
$$

The condition number of the computation $f(x)$ is the limit

$$
\kappa(x)=\lim _{\delta \rightarrow 0}\left(\sup _{\|\delta x\| \leq \delta} \frac{\|f(x+\delta x)-f(x)\|}{\|f(x)\|} \frac{\|x\|}{\|\delta x\|}\right)
$$

For a given $x$ and $\delta x$, we can formally write

$$
\frac{\|f(x+\delta x)-f(x)\|}{\|f(x)\|} \leq(\kappa(x)+o(1)) \frac{\|\delta x\|}{\|x\|}
$$

where $o(1)$ means that there's a quantity converging to zero as $\delta \rightarrow 0$.

## A simple argument

Let $\tilde{f}$ be a backward stable algorithm for $f$. Given $x$, we can find $\widetilde{x}$ such that

$$
\tilde{f}(x)=f(\widetilde{x}) \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\|x-\tilde{x}\|}{\|x\|}=O\left(\epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right) .
$$

Then the relative error of the computation satisfies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\|\tilde{f}(x)-f(x)\|}{\|f(x)\|} & =\frac{\|f(\widetilde{x})-f(x)\|}{\|f(x)\|} \\
& \leq(\kappa(x)+o(1)) \frac{\|\widetilde{x}-x\|}{\|x\|} \\
& =O\left(\kappa(x) \epsilon_{\text {machine }}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

