## Mathematical preliminaries and error analysis

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September 21, 2014



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## Outline



- IEEE standard floating-point format
- Absolute and Relative Errors
- Machine Epsilon
- Loss of Significance
- 2 Algorithms and Convergence
  - Algorithm
  - Stability
  - Rate of convergence



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## Outline



### Round-off errors and computer arithmetic

- IEEE standard floating-point format
- Absolute and Relative Errors
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- Loss of Significance

### 2 Algorithms and Convergence

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What is the difference for the arithmetic in algebra and computer?

For arithmetic in algebra,

$$256 + 1 = 257, \quad \left(\sqrt{256 + 1}\right)^2 = 257$$

Por arithmetic in computer (MATLAB),

- int8(256) + int8(1) = 127 ??????
- int16(256) + int16(1) = 257
- sqrt(256+1)<sup>2</sup> = ? The solution is equal to 257 or not.
- (single(sqrt(5))+single(sqrt(3)))<sup>2</sup> (sqrt(3)+sqrt(5))<sup>2</sup>

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#### IEEE standard floating-point format

#### Example 1

Consider the following recurrence algorithm

$$\begin{cases} x_0 = 1, & x_1 = \frac{1}{3} \\ x_{n+1} = \frac{13}{3}x_n - \frac{4}{3}x_{n-1} \end{cases}$$

for computing the sequence of  $\{x_n = (\frac{1}{3})^n\}$ .

#### Matlab program

$$\begin{array}{l} n=30; \ x=zeros(n,1); \ x(1)=1; \ x(2)=1/3; \\ \text{for ii}=3:n \\ x(\text{ii})=13/3 * x(\text{ii-1}) - 4/3 * x(\text{ii-2}); \\ xn=(1/3)^{(\text{ii-1})}; \quad \text{RelErr}=abs(xn-x(\text{ii}))/xn; \\ \text{fprintf}('x(\%2.0f)=\%15.8e, \ x\_ast(\%2.0f)=\%14.8e,', \ ... \\ `\text{RelErr}(\%2.0f)=\%11.4e \n', \ \text{ii}, x(\text{ii}), \text{ii}, xn, \text{ii}, \text{RelErr}); \\ \text{end} \end{array}$$

What is the binary representation of  $\frac{2}{3}$ ?

Solution: To determine the binary representation for  $\frac{2}{3}$ , we write

$$\frac{2}{3} = (0.a_1a_2a_3\ldots)_2.$$

#### Multiply by 2 to obtain

$$\frac{4}{3} = (a_1.a_2a_3\ldots)_2.$$

Therefore, we get  $a_1 = 1$  by taking the integer part of both sides.



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$$\frac{1}{3} = (0.a_2a_3a_4\ldots)_2.$$

Repeating the previous step, we arrive at

$$\frac{2}{3} = (0.101010\ldots)_2.$$



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- In the computational world, each representable number has only a fixed and finite number of digits.
- For any real number *x*, let

 $x = \pm 1.a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots \times 2^m,$ 

denote the normalized scientific binary representation of x.

• In 1985, the IEEE (Institute for Electrical and Electronic Engineers) published a report called *Binary Floating Point Arithmetic Standard 754-1985*. In this report, formats were specified for single, double, and extended precisions, and these standards are generally followed by microcomputer manufactures using floating-point hardware.



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## **Single precision**

• The single precision IEEE standard floating-point format allocates 32 bits for the normalized floating-point number  $\pm q \times 2^m$  as shown in the following figure.



- The first bit is a sign indicator, denoted *s*. This is followed by an 8-bit exponent *c* and a 23-bit mantissa *f*.
- The base for the exponent and mantissa is 2, and the actual exponent is c 127. The value of c is restricted by the inequality  $0 \le c \le 255$ .



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- The actual exponent of the number is restricted by the inequality  $-127 \le c 127 \le 128$ .
- A normalization is imposed that requires that the leading digit in fraction be 1, and this digit is not stored as part of the 23-bit mantissa.
- Using this system gives a floating-point number of the form

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#### Example 3

What is the decimal number of the machine number

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- The leftmost bit is zero, which indicates that the number is positive.
- Internet 8 bits, 10000001, are equivalent to

$$c = 1 \cdot 2^7 + 0 \cdot 2^6 + \dots + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 129.$$

The exponential part of the number is  $2^{129-127} = 2^2$ .

The final 23 bits specify that the mantissa is

 $f = 0 \cdot (2)^{-1} + 1 \cdot (2)^{-2} + 0 \cdot (2)^{-3} + \dots + 0 \cdot (2)^{-23} = 0.25$ 

$$(-1)^{s}2^{c-127}(1+f) = 2^{2} \cdot (1+0.25) = 5.$$



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IEEE standard floating-point format

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$$f = 0 \cdot (2)^{-1} + 0 \cdot (2)^{-2} + 1 \cdot (2)^{-3} + \dots + 1 \cdot (2)^{-23}$$
  
= 0.2499998807907105.

Consequently, this machine number precisely represents the decimal number

 $(-1)^{s}2^{c-127}(1+f) = 2^{2} \cdot (1+0.2499998807907105)$ = 4.999999523162842.



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## Summary

#### Above three examples

# $\begin{array}{rcl} 0\underline{10000001} 001111111111111111111 & \Rightarrow & 4.999999523162842 \\ 0\underline{10000001} 0100000000000000000 & \Rightarrow & 5 \\ 0\underline{10000001} 01000000000000000000 & \Rightarrow & 5.00000476837158 \end{array}$

- Only a relatively small subset of the real number system is used for the representation of all the real numbers.
- This subset, which are called the *floating-point numbers*, contains only rational numbers, both positive and negative
- When a number can not be represented exactly with the fixed finite number of digits in a computer, a near-by floating-point number is chosen for approximate representation.



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#### The smallest positive number

Let s = 0, c = 1 and f = 0 which is equivalent to

$$2^{-126} \cdot (1+0) \approx 1.175 \times 10^{-38}$$

#### The largest number

Let 
$$s = 0$$
,  $c = 254$  and  $f = 1 - 2^{-23}$  which is equivalent to

 $2^{127} \cdot (2 - 2^{-23}) \approx 3.403 \times 10^{38}$ 

#### **Definition 6**

If a number x with  $|x| < 2^{-126} \cdot (1+0)$ , then we say that an *underflow* has occurred and is generally set to zero. If  $|x| > 2^{127} \cdot (2-2^{-23})$ , then we say that an *overflow* has occurred.



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- **Double precision** 
  - A floating point number in double precision IEEE standard format uses two words (64 bits) to store the number as shown in the following figure.



- The first bit is a sign indicator, denoted *s*. This is followed by an 11-bit exponent *c* and a 52-bit mantissa *f*.
- The actual exponent is c 1023.



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# Format of floating-point number

$$(-1)^s \times (1+f) \times 2^{c-1023}$$

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Let s = 0, c = 1 and f = 0 which is equivalent to

$$2^{-1022} \cdot (1+0) \approx 2.225 \times 10^{-308}$$

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Let 
$$s = 0$$
,  $c = 2046$  and  $f = 1 - 2^{-52}$  which is equivalent to

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# Chopping and rounding

For any real number x, let

$$x = \pm 1.a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots \times 2^m,$$

# denote the normalized scientific binary representation of x.

• **chopping:** simply discard the excess bits  $a_{t+1}, a_{t+2}, \ldots$  to obtain

$$fl(x) = \pm 1.a_1a_2\cdots a_t \times 2^m.$$

**2** rounding: add  $2^{-(t+1)} \times 2^m$  to x and then chop the excess bits to obtain a number of the form

$$fl(x) = \pm 1.\delta_1\delta_2\cdots\delta_t \times 2^m.$$

In this method, if  $a_{t+1} = 1$ , we add 1 to  $a_t$  to obtain fl(x), and if  $a_{t+1} = 0$ , we merely chop off all but the first t digits.



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# **Definition 7 (Roundoff error)**

The error results from replacing a number with its floating-point form is called *roundoff error* or *rounding error*.

### Definition 8 (Absolute Error and Relative Error)

If x is an approximation to the exact value  $x^*$ , the absolute error is  $|x^* - x|$  and the relative error is  $\frac{|x^* - x|}{|x^*|}$ , provided that  $x^* \neq 0$ .

#### Example 9

(a) If  $x^* = 0.3000 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $x = 0.3100 \times 10^{-3}$ , then the absolute error is  $0.1 \times 10^{-4}$  and the relative error is  $0.3333 \times 10^{-1}$ . (b) If  $x^* = 0.3000 \times 10^4$  and  $x = 0.3100 \times 10^4$ , then the absolute error is  $0.1 \times 10^3$  and the relative error is  $0.3333 \times 10^{-1}$ .



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If x is an approximation to the exact value  $x^*$ , the absolute error is  $|x^* - x|$  and the relative error is  $\frac{|x^* - x|}{|x^*|}$ , provided that  $x^* \neq 0$ .

### **Example 9**

(a) If  $x^* = 0.3000 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $x = 0.3100 \times 10^{-3}$ , then the absolute error is  $0.1 \times 10^{-4}$  and the relative error is  $0.3333 \times 10^{-1}$ .

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### **Remark 1**

Absolute and Relative Errors

As a measure of accuracy, the absolute error may be misleading and the relative error more meaningful.

### Definition 10

The number x is said to approximate  $x^*$  to t significant digits if t is the largest nonnegative integer for which

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The minimal value of the denominator is 1. The numerator is bounded above by 1. As a consequence

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since the numerator is bounded above by  $\frac{1}{2}$  due to  $a_{t+1} = 0$ . •  $a_{t+1} = 1$ , then  $fl(x) = \pm (1.a_1a_2 \cdots a_t + 2^{-t}) \times 2^m$ . The upper bound for relative error becomes

$$\frac{|x - fl(x)|}{|x|} = \frac{|1 - 0.a_{t+1}a_{t+2}\cdots|}{|1.a_1a_2\cdots a_ta_{t+1}a_{t+2}\cdots|} \times 2^{-t} \le 2^{-(t+1)},$$

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# **Definition 11 (Machine epsilon)**

The floating-point representation, fl(x), of x can be expressed as

$$fl(x) = x(1+\delta), \quad |\delta| \le \varepsilon_M,$$
 (1)

where  $\varepsilon_M \equiv 2^{-t}$  is referred to as the *unit roundoff error* or *machine epsilon*.

# Single precision IEEE standard floating-point format

The mantissa f corresponds to 23 binary digits (i.e., t = 23), the machine epsilon is

 $\varepsilon_M = 2^{-23} \approx 1.192 \times 10^{-7}.$ 

This approximately corresponds to 7 accurate decimal digits



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# Double precision IEEE standard floating-point format

The mantissa f corresponds to 52 binary digits (i.e., t = 52), the machine epsilon is

$$\varepsilon_M = 2^{-52} \approx 2.220 \times 10^{-16}.$$

which provides between 15 and 16 decimal digits of accuracy.

#### Summary of IEEE standard floating-point format



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### Summary of IEEE standard floating-point format

	single precision	double precision
$\varepsilon_M$	$1.192 \times 10^{-7}$	$2.220 \times 10^{-16}$
smallest positive number	$1.175 \times 10^{-38}$	$2.225 \times 10^{-308}$
largest number	$3.403 \times 10^{38}$	$1.798 \times 10^{308}$
decimal precision	7	16



- Let ⊙ stand for any one of the four basic arithmetic operators +, -, \*, ÷.
- Whenever two machine numbers x and y are to be combined arithmetically, the computer will produce  $fl(x \odot y)$  instead of  $x \odot y$ .
- Under (1), the relative error of  $fl(x \odot y)$  satisfies

 $fl(x \odot y) = (x \odot y)(1+\delta), \quad \delta \le \varepsilon_M,$  (2)

where  $\varepsilon_M$  is the unit roundoff.

 But if x, y are not machine numbers, then they must first rounded to floating-point format before the arithmetic operation and the resulting relative error becomes

 $fl(fl(x) \odot fl(y)) = (x(1+\delta_1) \odot y(1+\delta_2))(1+\delta_3),$ 

where  $\delta_i \leq \varepsilon_M, i = 1, 2, 3.$ 



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## Example

## Let $x=0.54617 \mbox{ and } y=0.54601.$ Using rounding and four-digit arithmetic, then

•  $x^* = fl(x) = 0.5462$  is accurate to four significant digits since

$$\frac{|x-x^*|}{|x|} = \frac{0.00003}{0.54617} = 5.5 \times 10^{-5} \le 5 \times 10^{-4}.$$

•  $y^* = fl(y) = 0.5460$  is accurate to five significant digits since

$$\frac{|y-y^*|}{|y|} = \frac{0.00001}{0.54601} = 1.8 \times 10^{-5} \le 5 \times 10^{-5}.$$



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## The exact value of subtraction is

r = x - y = 0.00016.

But

$$r^* \equiv x \ominus y = fl(fl(x) - fl(y)) = 0.0002.$$

Since

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the result has only one significant digit.

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## Loss of Significance

- One of the most common error-producing calculations involves the cancellation of significant digits due to the subtraction of nearly equal numbers or the addition of one very large number and one very small number.
- Sometimes, loss of significance can be avoided by rewriting the mathematical formula.

## Example 12

The quadratic formulas for computing the roots of  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , when  $a \neq 0$ , are

$$x_1 = rac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$
 and  $x_2 = rac{-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$ 

Consider the quadratic equation  $x^2 + 62.10x + 1 = 0$  and discuss the numerical results.



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## Solution

• Using the quadratic formula and 8-digit rounding arithmetic, one can obtain

 $x_1 = -0.01610723$  and  $x_2 = -62.08390$ .

• Now we perform the calculations with 4-digit rounding arithmetic. First we have

$$\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac} = \sqrt{62.10^2 - 4.000} = \sqrt{3856 - 4.000} = 62.06,$$

and

$$fl(x_1) = \frac{-62.10 + 62.06}{2.000} = \frac{-0.04000}{2.000} = -0.02000.$$
  
The relative error in computing  $x_1$  is  
$$\frac{|fl(x_1) - x_1|}{|x_1|} = \frac{|-0.02000 + 0.01610723|}{|-0.01610723|} \approx 0.2417 \le 5 \times 10^{10}$$

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• In calculating  $x_2$ ,

 $fl(x_2) = \frac{-62.10 - 62.06}{2.000} = \frac{-124.2}{2.000} = -62.10,$ the relative error in computing  $x_2$  is

$$\frac{|fl(x_2) - x_2|}{|x_2|} = \frac{|-62.10 + 62.08390|}{|-62.08390|} \approx 0.259 \times 10^{-3} \le 5 \times 10^{-4}.$$

- In this equation,  $b^2 = 62.10^2$  is much larger than 4ac = 4. Hence *b* and  $\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$  become two nearly equal numbers. The calculation of  $x_1$  involves the subtraction of two nearly equal numbers.
- To obtain a more accurate 4-digit rounding approximation for x<sub>1</sub>, we change the formulation by rationalizing the numerator, that is,

$$x_1 = \frac{-2c}{b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}.$$



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and the relative error in computing  $x_2$  is

$$\frac{|fl(x_2) - x_2|}{|x_2|} = \frac{|-62.10 + 62.08390|}{|-62.08390|} \approx 0.259 \times 10^{-3} \le 5 \times 10^{-4}.$$

- In this equation,  $b^2 = 62.10^2$  is much larger than 4ac = 4. Hence *b* and  $\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$  become two nearly equal numbers. The calculation of  $x_1$  involves the subtraction of two nearly equal numbers.
- To obtain a more accurate 4-digit rounding approximation for x<sub>1</sub>, we change the formulation by rationalizing the numerator, that is,

$$x_1 = \frac{-2c}{b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}.$$



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## Then

$$fl(x_1) = \frac{-2.000}{62.10 + 62.06} = \frac{-2.000}{124.2} = -0.01610.$$

The relative error in computing  $x_1$  is now reduced to  $6.2 \times 10^{-4}$ 

# Example 13 Let $p(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 3x - 1,$ q(x) = ((x - 3)x + 3)x - 1.Compare the function values at x = 2.19 with using three-digit



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## Example 13 Let $p(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 3x - 1,$

$$q(x) = ((x-3)x+3)x - 1.$$

Compare the function values at x = 2.19 with using three-digit arithmetic.

## Solution

Use 3-digit and rounding for p(2.19) and q(2.19).

$$\hat{p}(2.19) = ((2.19^3 - 3 \times 2.19^2) + 3 \times 2.19) - 1$$
  
= ((10.5 - 14.4) + 3 × 2.19) - 1  
= (-3.9 + 6.57) - 1  
= 2.67 - 1 = 1.67

and

$$\hat{q}(2.19) = ((2.19 - 3) \times 2.19 + 3) \times 2.19 - 1$$
  
= (-0.81 × 2.19 + 3) × 2.19 - 1  
= (-1.77 + 3) × 2.19 - 1  
= 1.23 × 2.19 - 1  
= 2.69 - 1 = 1.69.



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## With more digits, one can have

p(2.19) = g(2.19) = 1.685159

Hence the absolute errors are

 $|p(2.19) - \hat{p}(2.19)| = 0.015159$ 

and

$$|q(2.19) - \hat{q}(2.19)| = 0.004841,$$

respectively. One can observe that the evaluation formula q(x) is better than p(x).

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Error

Loss of Significance

Exercise

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#### Algorithm

## **Definition 14 (Algorithm)**

An algorithm is a procedure that describes a finite sequence of steps to be performed in a specified order.

## Example 15

Give an algorithm to compute  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ , where *n* and  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$  are given.

## Algorithm



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#### Algorithm

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#### Algorithm

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An algorithm is a procedure that describes a finite sequence of steps to be performed in a specified order.

## **Example 15**

Give an algorithm to compute  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ , where *n* and  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$  are given.

## Algorithm

INPUT	$n, x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n.$
OUTPUT	$SUM = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i.$
Step 1.	Set $SUM = 0$ . (Initialize accumulator.)
Step 2.	For $i=1,2,\ldots,n$ do
	Set $SUM = SUM + x_i$ . (Add the next term.)
Step 3.	OUTPUT SUM;
	STOP
Step 1. Step 2. Step 3.	Set $SUM = 0$ . (Initialize accumulator.) For $i = 1, 2,, n$ do Set $SUM = SUM + x_i$ . (Add the next term.) OUTPUT $SUM$ ; STOP

## **Definition 16 (Stable)**

An algorithm is called stable if small changes in the initial data of the algorithm produce correspondingly small changes in the final results.

## **Definition 17 (Unstable)**

An algorithm is unstable if small errors made at one stage of the algorithm are magnified and propagated in subsequent stages and seriously degrade the accuracy of the overall calculation.

### Remark

Whether an algorithm is stable or unstable should be decided on the basis of relative error.



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## Remark

Whether an algorithm is stable or unstable should be decided on the basis of relative error.



## Example 18

Consider the following recurrence algorithm

$$\begin{cases} x_0 = 1, & x_1 = \frac{1}{3} \\ x_{n+1} = \frac{13}{3}x_n - \frac{4}{3}x_{n-1} \end{cases}$$

for computing the sequence of  $\{x_n = (\frac{1}{3})^n\}$ . This algorithm is unstable.

A Matlab implementation of the recurrence algorithm gives the following result.



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$\overline{n}$	$x_n$	$x_n^*$	RelErr
8	4.57247371e-04	4.57247371e-04	4.4359e-10
10	5.08052602e-05	5.08052634e-05	6.3878e-08
12	5.64497734e-06	5.64502927e-06	9.1984e-06
14	6.26394672e-07	6.27225474e-07	1.3246e-03
15	2.05751947e-07	2.09075158e-07	1.5895e-02
16	5.63988754e-08	6.96917194e-08	1.9074e-01
17	-2.99408028e-08	2.32305731e-08	2.289e+00
20	-3.40210767e-06	8.60391597e-10	3.955e+03
23	-2.17789924e-04	3.18663555e-11	6.835e+06
27	-5.57542287e-02	3.93411796e-13	1.417e+11
30	-3.56827064e+00	1.45708072e-14	2.449e+14



## For any constants $c_1$ and $c_2$ ,

$$x_n = c_1 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n + c_2 \left(4^n\right)$$

## is a solution to the recursive equation

$$x_n = \frac{13}{3}x_{n-1} - \frac{4}{3}x_{n-2}$$

since

$$\frac{13}{3}x_{n-1} - \frac{4}{3}x_{n-2}$$

$$= \frac{13}{3}\left[c_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{n-1} + c_24^{n-1}\right] - \frac{4}{3}\left[c_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{n-2} + c_24^{n-2}\right]$$

$$= c_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{n-2}\left(\frac{13}{3}\cdot\frac{1}{3}-\frac{4}{3}\right) + c_24^{n-2}\left(\frac{13}{3}\cdot4-\frac{4}{3}\right)$$

$$= c_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n + c_24^n = x_n.$$



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$$= c_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n + c_24^n = x_n.$$



Take  $x_0 = 1$  and  $x_1 = \frac{1}{3}$ . This determine unique values as  $c_1 = 1$  and  $c_2 = 0$ . Therefore,

$$x_n = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n$$
 for all  $n$ .

In computer arithmetic,  $\hat{x}_0 = 1$  and  $\hat{x}_1 = 0.33 \cdots 3$ . The generated sequence  $\{\hat{x}_n\}$  is then given by

$$\hat{x}_n = \hat{c}_1 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n + \hat{c}_2 \left(4^n\right),$$

where  $\hat{c}_1 \approx 1$  and  $|\hat{c}_2| \approx \varepsilon$ . Therefore, the round-off error is

$$x_n - \hat{x}_n = (1 - \hat{c}_1) \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n - \hat{c}_2 (4^n)$$

which grows exponentially with n.



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## Matlab program

```
n = 30;
x = zeros(n,1);
x(1) = 1;
x(2) = 1/3;
for ii = 3:n
  x(ii) = 13 / 3 * x(ii-1) - 4 / 3 * x(ii-2);
  xn = (1/3)(ii-1);
   RelErr = abs(xn-x(ii)) / xn;
   fprintf('x(\%2.0f) = \%20.8d, x_ast(\%2.0f) = \%20.8d,', ...
     'RelErr(%2.0f) = %14.4d \n', ii,x(ii),ii,xn,ii,RelErr);
end
```

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# Example 19

Consider the following recurrence algorithm

$$\begin{cases} x_0 = 1, & x_1 = \frac{1}{3} \\ x_{n+1} = 2x_n - x_{n-1} \end{cases}$$

for computing the sequence of  $\{x_n = 1 - \frac{2}{3}n\}$ . This algorithm is stable.

For any constants  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ ,

$$x_n = c_1 + c_2 n$$

is a solution to the recursive equation

$$x_n = 2x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}.$$



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### Stability

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Take  $x_0 = 1$  and  $x_1 = \frac{1}{3}$ . This determine unique values as  $c_1 = 1$  and  $c_2 = -\frac{2}{3}$ . Therefore,

$$x_n = 1 - \frac{2}{3}n$$
, for all  $n$ .

In computer arithmetic,  $\hat{x}_0 = 1$  and  $\hat{x}_1 = 0.33 \cdots 3$ . The generated sequence  $\{\hat{x}_n\}$  is then given by

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where  $\hat{c}_1 pprox 1$  and  $|\hat{c}_2| pprox rac{2}{3}.$  Therefore, the round-off error is

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which grows linearly with n.



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#### Rate of convergence

### **Definition 20**

Suppose  $\{\beta_n\} \to 0$  and  $\{x_n\} \to x^*$ . If  $\exists c > 0$  and an integer N > 0 such that

 $|x_n - x^*| \le c|\beta_n|, \quad \forall \ n \ge N,$ 

then we say  $\{x_n\}$  converges to  $x^*$  with rate of convergence  $O(\beta_n)$ , and write  $x_n = x^* + O(\beta_n)$ .

### Example 21

Compare the convergence behavior of  $\{x_n\}$  and  $\{y_n\}$ , where

$$x_n = \frac{n+1}{n^2}$$
, and  $y_n = \frac{n+3}{n^3}$ 

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### Rate of convergence

### Note that both

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{n \to \infty} y_n = 0.$$
  
et  $\alpha_n = \frac{1}{n} \text{ and } \beta_n = \frac{1}{n^2}.$  Then  
 $|x_n - 0| = \frac{n+1}{n^2} \le \frac{n+n}{n^2} = \frac{2}{n} = 2\alpha_n,$   
 $|y_n - 0| = \frac{n+3}{n^3} \le \frac{n+3n}{n^3} = \frac{4}{n^2} = 4\beta_n.$ 

Hence

$$x_n = 0 + O(\frac{1}{n})$$
 and  $y_n = 0 + O(\frac{1}{n^2}).$ 

This shows that  $\{y_n\}$  converges to 0 much faster than  $\{x_n\}$ .



Error

Rate of convergence

Exercise

Page 39: 3.a, 6, 7, 11

