#### Numerical methods

Session 1: Principles of numerical mathematics

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Consider the following expression:

$$F(x,d) = 0 (1)$$

in which we call x the unknown, d data and F is the relation between x and d.

- If F and d are known, finding x will be called the "direct problem".
- If F and x are known, finding d will be called the "inverse problem".

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**Definition:** We say that a problem is well-posed (or stable) if it admits a unique solution x which depends with continuity from the data.

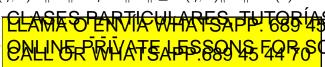
**Definition:** We say that a problem is ill-posed if it is not well-posed.

**Definition:** We say that x depends with continuity from the data if a little change  $\delta d$  in the data produces a small change in the solution  $\delta x$ . Mathematically:

If 
$$F(d + \delta d, x + \delta x) = 0$$
 then:

$$\forall \eta > 0, \exists K(\eta, d) : \|\delta d\| < \eta \Rightarrow \|\delta x\| \le K(\eta, d) \|\delta d\| \tag{2}$$





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**Example:** Find the number of roots of the polynomial  $p(x) = x^4 - (2a - 1)x^2 + a(a - 1)$  (a is the data of the problem). Is easy to check that we have four real roots if  $a \ge 1$ , two is  $a \in [0,1)$  and no real roots if a < 0. This is an ill posed problem because the solution does not depend continuously from the data.

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Most problems are not so clearly ill posed. To quantify the well/ill posedness of a problem we define:

**Definition:** Relative condition number

$$K(d) = \sup_{\delta d \in D} \frac{\|\delta x\|/\|x\|}{\|\delta d\|/\|d\|}$$
(3)

**Definition:** Absolute condition number

$$K_{abs}(d) = \sup_{\delta d \in D} \frac{\|\delta x\|}{\|\delta d\|} \tag{4}$$

D is a neighborhood of the origin that denotes the admissible



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Note: You can use any norm you want.

**Definition:** We say a problem is "ill-conditioned" if K is "big" where the definition of big depends on the problem.

It is important to understand that the conditioning of a problem does not depend on the algorithm used to solve it. You can develop stable and unstable algorithms for well-posed problems. The concept of stability for algorithms will be defined later on. Having a "big" or even infinite condition number does not imply that the problem is ill-posed. Some ill-posed problems can be reformulated as an equivalent problem (that is, one that has the same solution) which are well-posed.

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If a problem admits a unique solution, then there exist a mapping G, called the **resolvent**, between the data and the solutions sets such that:

$$x = G(d)$$
, that is,  $F(G(d), d) = 0$  (5)

According to this, and assuming G is differentiable in d (G'(d) exist), the Taylor expansion of G is

$$G(d + \delta d) - G(d) = G'(d)\delta d + o(||\delta d||)$$
 for  $\delta d \to 0$ 

This let us redefine the condition numbers in terms of the resolvent *G*:

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# Example of ill-conditioning: Algebraic second degree equation:

We want to calculate the solutions of  $x^2 - 2px + 1$  with  $p \ge 1$ .

Obviously 
$$x_+ = p \pm \sqrt{p^2 - 1}$$
.

We can formulate this problem as  $F(x, p) = x^2 - 2px + 1$  where p is the data and  $x_{\pm} = (x_{+}, x_{-})$  the solution. The resolvent

$$G(p) = (p + \sqrt{p^2 - 1}, p - \sqrt{p^2 - 1})$$
 and its derivative  $G'(p) = (1 + 1/\sqrt{p^2 - 1}, 1 - 1/\sqrt{p^2 - 1}).$ 

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Then:

$$egin{align} \mathcal{K}(d) &pprox \|G'(d)\| rac{\|d\|}{\|G(d)\|} = rac{(1
ho^2/(
ho^2-1)^{1/2})}{(2(
ho^2-1))^{1/2}} \|
ho\| = rac{p}{
ho^2-1} |
ho| \ &\mathcal{K}_{abs}(d) pprox \|G'(d)\| = \sqrt{2} rac{p}{\sqrt{
ho^2-1}} \end{aligned}$$

If p >> 1 then the problem is well-conditioned (two distinct roots). If p = 1 (one double root), then G is not differentiable but in the limit  $p \to 1^+$  the problem is ill conditioned as  $\lim_{p \to 1^+} \|G'(p)\| = \infty$ .

However, the problem is not ill-posed. We can reformulate it as

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Let's assume the problem F(x,d)=0 is well-posed. Then, a numerical method to approximate its solution will consist, in general, of a sequence of approximate problems

$$F_n(x_n, d_n) = 0 \quad n \ge 1$$

We would expect that  $x_n \underset{n \to \infty}{\to} x$ . For that it is necessary that  $d_n \to d$  and that  $F_n$  approximates F when  $n \to \infty$ .

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**Definition:** We say that  $F_n(x_n, d_n) = 0$  is consistent if

$$F_n(x,d) = F_n(x,d) - F(x,d) \underset{n \to \infty}{\rightarrow} 0$$

where x is the solution of F(x, d) = 0 for the datum d.

**Definition:** We say that a method is strongly consistent if  $F_n(x, d) = 0 \quad \forall n$ .

In some cases when iterative methods are used, we can write them as

$$F(x_n, x_{n-1}, \dots, x_{n-q}, d_n) = 0$$

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#### **Examples:**

- Newton's method:  $x_n = x_{n-1} \frac{f(x_{n-1})}{f'(x_{n-1})}$  is strongly consistent.
- ② Composite midpoint rule: If  $x = \int_a^b f(t)dt$ ,  $x_n = H \sum_{k=1}^n f(\frac{t_k + t_{k+1}}{2})$   $n \ge 1$  with H = (b-a)/n and  $t_k = a + (k-1)H$ . This method to calculate the integral is consistent, but only strongly consistent if f is a piecewise linear polynomial.

In general, numerical methods obtained from the mathematical problem by truncation of limit operations (like integrals, derivatives, series,...) are not strongly consistent.

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**Definition:** We say that a numerical method  $F_n(x_n, d_n) = 0$  is well-posed (or stable) if for any fixed n there exists a unique solution  $x_n$  corresponding to the datum  $d_n$ , that the computation of  $x_n$  as a function of  $d_n$  is unique, and that  $x_n$  depends continuously on the data, i.e:

$$\forall \eta > 0, \exists K_n(\eta, d_d) : \|\delta d_n\| < \eta \Rightarrow \|\delta x - n\| \le K_n(\eta, d_n) \|\delta d_n\|$$
 (6)

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We can also define:

$$K_n(d_n) = \sup_{\delta d_n \in D_n} \frac{\|\delta x_n\|/\|x_n\|}{\|\delta d_n\|/\|d_n\|} \qquad K_{abs,n}(d_n) = \sup_{\delta d_n \in D_n} \frac{\|\delta x_n\|}{\|\delta d_n\|} \quad (7)$$

and from these:

$$K^{num}(d_n) = \lim_{\substack{n \to \infty \\ n > k}} \sup_{n > k} K_n(d_n)$$
 (8)

$$K_{abs}^{num}(d_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup_{n > k} K_{abs,n}(d_n)$$
 (9)

 $K_{num}$  is the relative asymptotic condition number and  $K_{abs}^{num}$  is the absolute asymptotic condition number of the numerical method

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We can also define the resolvent  $G_n$  for the numerical method:

$$x_n = G(d_n)$$
, that is  $F(G_n(d_n), d_n) = 0$ 

Assuming it is differentiable:

$$K_n(d_n) pprox \|G_n'(d_n)\| rac{\|d_n\|}{\|G_n(d_n)\|}$$
 and  $K_{abs} pprox \|G_n'(d_n)\|$ 

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#### **Examples:**

• Sum and subtraction. The sum defined as

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}_{(a,b)}$$

has derivative  $f'(a,b)=(1,1)^T$ , and thus, its condition number  $K((a,b)) \approx \frac{|a|+|b|}{|a+b|} \approx 1$  The subtraction defined as

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}_{a-b}$$

has derivative  $f'(a, b) = (1, -1)^T$  and thus, its condition

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• Finding the roots of  $x^2 - 2px + 1 = 0$  is well-conditioned, but we can develop an unstable algorithm:  $x_{-} = p - \sqrt{p^2 - 1}$ because this formula is subject to errors due to numerical cancellation of digits in the subtraction. The Newton's method could be a stable algorithm to solve this problem:

$$x_n = x_{n-1} - \frac{x_{n-1}^2 - 2px_{n-1} + 1}{2x_{n-1} - 2p}$$

The method's condition number is  $K_n(p) = \frac{|p|}{|x_n - p|}$ . To compute  $K_n^{num}(p)$  we notice that if the algorithm converges, then  $x_n \to x_+$  or  $x_-$ , therefore,  $|x_n - p| \to \sqrt{p^2 - 1}$  and

 $k_n(p) \rightarrow K_n^{num}(p) \xrightarrow{p} phich is similar to the condition property of the property of the$ Cartagena99

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**Definition:** We say that the numerical method  $F_n(x_n, d_n) = 0$  is convergent if and only if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists n_0(\epsilon), \exists \delta(n_0, \epsilon) : \forall n > n_0, \forall \|\delta d_n\| < \delta(n_0, \epsilon) \Rightarrow$$

$$||x(d) - x_n(d + \delta d_n)|| < \epsilon$$

where d is an admissible datum, x(d) the corresponding solution, and  $x(d + \delta d_n)$  is the solution of the numerical problem  $(F_n(x_n, d_n))$  with datum  $d + \delta d_n$ .

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**Definition:** Absolute and relative errors:

$$E(x_n) = |x - x_n|$$
  $E_{rel}(x_n) = \frac{|x - x_n|}{|x|}$   $(x \neq 0)$ 

**Definition:** Error by component:

$$E_{rel}^{c}(x_n) = \max_{i,j} \frac{|(x - x_n)_{i,j}|}{|x_{i,j}|} \quad (x_{i,j} \neq 0)$$

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#### Relations between stability and convergence

The concepts of stability and convergence are strongly connected. If a (numerical) problem is well-posed, stability is a necessary condition for convergence. Moreover, if the numerical problem is consistent, stability is a sufficient condition for convergence. This is known as "equivalence" or "Lax-Richtmyer" theorem: For a consistent numerical method, stability is equivalent to convergence.

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#### Sources of errors in computational models

Whenever the numerical problem (NP) is an approximation of a mathematical problem (MP) and this latter is in turn a model of a physical problem (PP), we say that NP  $(F_n(x_n, d_n) = 0)$  is a computational model for PP.

The global error  $e = |x_{ph} - x_n|$  can be interpreted as the sum of the MP error  $e_m = x - x_{ph}$  and the computational problem error  $e_c = \hat{x} - x$  ( $e = e_m + e_c$ ).

 $e_a$ : Error induced by the numerical algorithm and the rounding errors.

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In general, we can enumerate the following sources of error:

- Errors due to the model, that can be **reduced** by using a proper model.
- Errors due to data, that can be reduced improving the measurement's accuracy.
- Truncation errors, arising from the approximation (truncation) of limit operations (integrals, derivatives,...).
- Rounding errors.

Type 3 and 4 errors give rise to the computational error. A numerical method will be convergent if this error can be made arbitrarily small increasing the computational effort. Although

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Accuracy means that the errors are small with respect to a fixed tolerance. It is usually quantified by the infinitesimal order of the error  $e_n$  with respect to the discretization characteristic parameter (for example the largest grid spacing).

**Note:** Machine precision does not limit, theoretically, the accuracy. Reliability means that it is very likely that the global error is below a certain tolerance.

Efficiency mean that the computational (effort) complexity needed to control the error (number of operation and memory) is as small as possible.

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**Definition:** Algorithm is a directive that indicates, through elementary operations, all the passages needed to solve a problem. It should finish after a finite number of steps, and as a consequence the executor (man or machine) must find within the algorithm itself all the instructions to completely solve the problem. Complexity of an algorithm is a measure of its executing time. Complexity of a problem is the complexity of the algorithm with smallest complexity capable of solving the problem.

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