

Computing with real numbers

Calculer avec les nombres réels

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Book chapter

- ▶ French version (thanks to Xavier Caruso):
http://fredrikj.net/math/ejcim2020_joh_fr.pdf
- ▶ English version:
http://fredrikj.net/math/ejcim2020_joh_en.pdf

Recommended: *Calcul mathématique avec Sage / Computational Mathematics with SageMath*

- ▶ <http://sagebook.gforge.inria.fr/>
- ▶ <http://sagebook.gforge.inria.fr/english.html>

The problem

$$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \quad ?$$

```
sage: sqrt(2.0)/2.0 == 1.0/sqrt(2.0)
False
```

```
sage: sqrt(2.0)/2.0; 1.0/sqrt(2.0)
0.707106781186548
0.707106781186547
```

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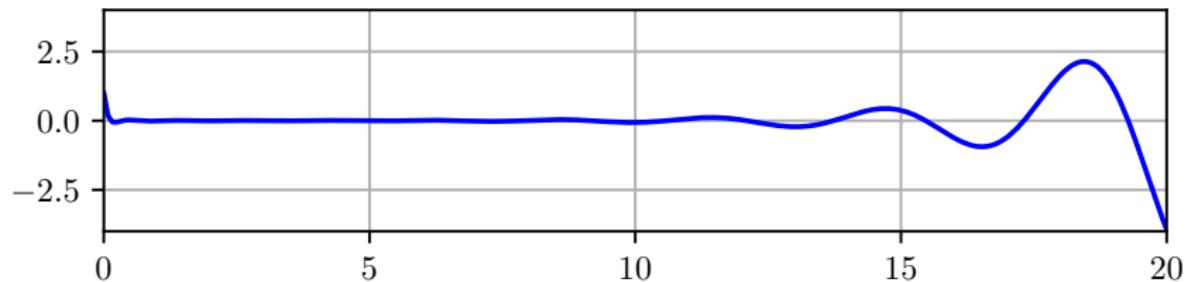
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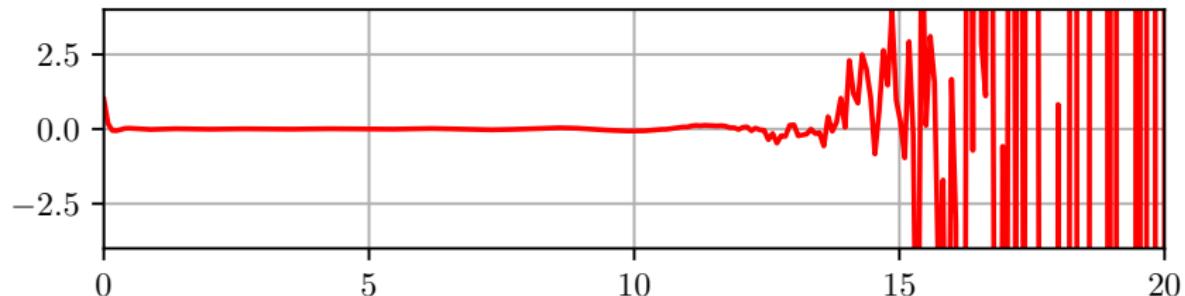
Why?

- ▶ Cannot store infinitely many digits on a computer
- ▶ Exact results may be impossible
- ▶ Exact results may be expensive

Errors can add up...



The hypergeometric function ${}_1F_1(-50, 3, x)$ on $0 \leq x \leq 20$



The function as computed by `scipy.special.hyp1f1`

...or worse



<http://www-users.math.umn.edu/~arnold/disasters/disasters.html>

Lecture plan

- ▶ **Part 1: computability, exact arithmetic**
- ▶ Part 2: approximate arithmetic, interval arithmetic

Approaches to computing with real numbers

1. Work with some *effective subset* $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ (or $S \subset \mathbb{C}$)

- ▶ Algebraic structures
 - ▶ Rational numbers \mathbb{Q}
 - ▶ Algebraic numbers $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$
 - ▶ ...
- ▶ Computable numbers
- ▶ Symbolic expressions, e.g. $x = e^\pi + 2\zeta(3)$

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2. Work with some *approximate model* of \mathbb{R} (or \mathbb{C})

- ▶ Floating-point arithmetic
- ▶ Interval arithmetic

What do we mean by an “effective” set S ?

- ▶ Represent any element of S by a finite description, and
- ▶ Represent any relevant operation on S by a (terminating) algorithm¹

¹For example, on a Turing machine, or in C/C++/Python/Julia...

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Warning: it all depends on the needed operations. Even for \mathbb{Q} , other operations may not be effective/computable/decidable.

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“Computable numbers”

Definition

Computable number x : there is an algorithm which, given n , outputs a rational \tilde{x} with $|x - \tilde{x}| < 2^{-n}$

Computable function f : there is an algorithm which, given n and a computable number x , outputs \tilde{y} with $|f(x) - \tilde{y}| < 2^{-n}$

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Example: $\pi = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{8}{(4k+1)(4k+3)}$

Example: $f(x, y) = x + y$, $f(x) = e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}$

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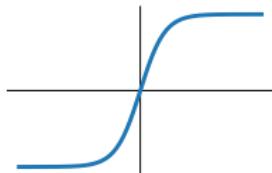
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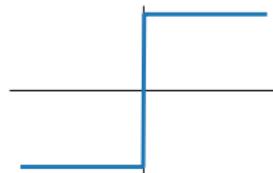
Effective?

- ▶ ✓ Finite representation
- ▶ ✓ $\{+, -, \times, /\}$ (except for division by zero)
- ▶ ✗ $\{=, <\}$ only semi-decidable (halting problem)

Computability – continuity – well-posedness



Computable



Not computable

- ▶ $f(x, y) = x + y$
- ▶ $\sin(x)$
- ▶ $|x|$
- ▶ $1/x$ (on $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$)

- ▶ $\text{sign}(x)$
- ▶ $x = y$
- ▶ $x < y$
- ▶ $[x], \lceil x \rceil$

Example: matrices

Assume A is a computable complex n by n matrix (each entry in A is a computable complex number).

- ▶ $\det(A)$ is computable

²At least, up to issues with ordering

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- ▶ The eigenvalues $\lambda_i(A)$ are computable²
- ▶ The multiplicity of an eigenvalue is not computable (unless the multiplicity is 1)

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Symbolic expressions

Real numbers encoded as trees or strings (in some fixed language):

$$\sqrt{2} + \frac{5}{3}\pi \equiv (+, (\sqrt{\cdot}, 2), (\times, (/, 5, 3), \pi))$$

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 - ▶ **Easy:** $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$, $\sin(\pi) = 0$
 - ▶ **Harder:** $\pi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{16^n} \left(\frac{4}{8n+1} - \frac{2}{8n+4} - \frac{1}{8n+5} - \frac{1}{8n+6} \right)$

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- ▶ Problem: expression may not define a real number ($1/\sin(\pi)$)

Cautionary example 1

$$8 \int_0^\infty \cos(2x) \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \cos(x/n) dx \stackrel{?}{=} \pi$$

```
sage: from mpmath import mp
sage: print(8 * mp.quadosc(lambda x: mp.cos(2*x) *
...     mp.nprod(lambda n: mp.cos(x/n), [1,mp.inf]),
...     [0,mp.inf], omega=1))
3.14159265358979

sage: print(mp.pi)
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sage: print(mp.pi)
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```

In fact, there is a difference of $\approx 10^{-41}$

Cautionary example 2

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lfloor ne^{\pi\sqrt{163/9}} \rfloor}{2^n} \stackrel{?}{=} 1280640$$

```
sage: from mpmath import mp
sage: mp.dps = 10000
sage: print(mp.nsum(lambda n: mp.floor(n*mp.exp(mp.pi*
...     mp.sqrt(163)/mp.sqrt(9)))/2**n, [1,mp.inf]) - 1280640)
0.0
```

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```

In fact, there is a difference of $< 10^{-500,000,000}$

More examples:

<https://mathworld.wolfram.com/AlmostInteger.html>

Cautionary example 3

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \log \left(\left| \frac{\zeta(\frac{1}{2} + it)}{\zeta(\frac{1}{2})} \right| \right) \frac{1}{t^2} dt \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{\pi}{8} + \frac{\gamma}{4} + \frac{\log(8\pi)}{4} - 2$$

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This is equivalent to the Riemann hypothesis!

Algebraic structures

Special sets of numbers:

- ▶ Rational numbers \mathbb{Q}
- ▶ Algebraic numbers $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$
- ▶ Transcendental number fields, e.g. $\mathbb{Q}(\pi)$
- ▶ Elementary numbers
- ▶ Periods
- ▶ Holonomic constants

Known properties of all numbers in such a ring \implies Effective equality test (at least conjecturally)

Practical problem: coefficient explosion

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{50} = \frac{13943237577224054960759}{3099044504245996706400}$$

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Workarounds: fast algorithms, modular arithmetic (+ Chinese remainder theorem, rational reconstruction)

$$\mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \text{ or } \mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$$

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```
sage: %time random_matrix(QQ, 1000, 1000).det(algorithm=
    "generic")
```

```
Wall time: 10min 46s
(...2000 digit answer...)
```

```
sage: %time random_matrix(QQ, 1000, 1000).det()
Wall time: 7.77 s
(...2000 digit answer...)
```

Algebraic numbers

$$\overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \{x : x \in \mathbb{C}, f(x) = 0 \text{ for some } f \in \mathbb{Z}[x] \setminus \{0\}\}$$

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Representation: minimal polynomial + isolating interval

$$\sqrt{2} = (x^2 - 2, [1.41, 1.42])$$

Arithmetic operations: resultants + polynomial factorisation,
operations in a fixed number field $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ where possible

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QQbar in Sage:

```
sage: x = QQbar(2)
sage: sqrt(x)/2 == 1/sqrt(x)
True
```

Equality test for algebraic numbers

- ▶ Factorisation in $\mathbb{Z}[x] \implies$ unique minimal polynomials, no repeated roots
- ▶ Root separation bounds

$$\text{sep}(f) > \frac{\sqrt{3}\Delta(f)}{n^{n/2+1}(\|f\|_2)^{n-1}}$$

- ▶ Analytic theorems (numerical analysis)

Practical problem: degree explosion

Minimal polynomial of $x = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$:

$$x^4 - 10x^2 + 1$$

Minimal polynomial of $x = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{5}$:

$$x^8 - 40x^6 + 352x^4 - 960x^2 + 576$$

Minimal polynomial of $x = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{5} + \sqrt{7}$:

$$x^{16} - 136x^{14} + \dots - 5596840x^2 + 46225$$

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```
sage: x = QQbar(sum(sqrt(nth_prime(n+1)) for n in range(6)))
sage: %time x - (x - 1) - 1 == 0
CPU times: user 8.98 s, sys: 14.4 ms, total: 9 s
Wall time: 9.17 s
True
```

Beyond arithmetic: quantifier elimination

Theorem (M-D-R-P, 1970)

There is no algorithm that can decide for any given $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ whether $\exists x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{Z} : f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0$.

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Theorem (Tarski, 1951)

Any formula in first-order logic (using boolean operations and quantifiers \forall, \exists) involving n variables x_1, \dots, x_n and polynomial equalities and inequalities over $R = \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \cap \mathbb{R}$ is decidable.

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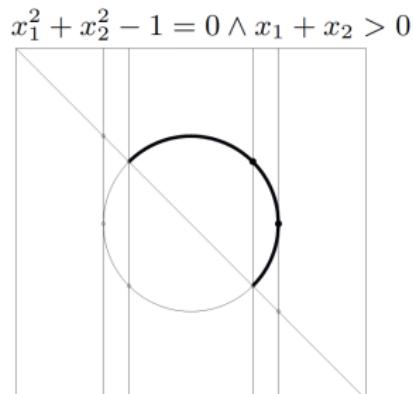
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Practical $(2^{2^{O(n)}})$ algorithm:
cylindrical algebraic decomposition
(CAD) by Collins, 1975.



Elementary numbers

Definition

The field of (closed-form)³ *elementary numbers* is the smallest field $E \subset \mathbb{C}$ that is closed with respect to e^x and $\log x$ ($x \neq 0$).

- ▶ $\sqrt{2} = e^{\log(2)/2} \in E$
- ▶ $\pi = \log(-1)/e^{\log(-1)/2} \in E$
- ▶ $\sin(\sin(1)) \in E$

³Competing definitions exist; for example, ensuring $\overline{\mathbb{Q}} \subset E$. See “What is a closed-form number?” by T. Chow, <https://arxiv.org/abs/math/9805045>

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Theorem (Richardson and Fitch, 1994)

Equality of elementary numbers is decidable if Schanuel's conjecture is true.

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Equality test (conjectural)

$x \neq y \implies$ can find difference by numerical computation

$x = y \implies$ can find relation of known type using algebraic computations and integer relation algorithms

Alternatively:

$x = y \implies$ can prove $|x - y| < \varepsilon$ using numerical computation,
where ε is a separation bound

Transcendence results

Theorem (Baker, 1966)

*If $\{2\pi i, \log(a_1), \dots, \log(a_n)\}$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} ,
 $a_i \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0\}$, then they are linearly independent over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$.*

In fact, there is an effective separation bound:

$$|b_1 \log(a_1) + \dots + b_n \log(a_n)| > 2^{-C(b_1, \dots, b_n, a_1, \dots, a_n)}$$

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Conjecture (Schanuel, 1960s)

If the complex numbers z_1, \dots, z_n are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} , then $\mathbb{Q}(z_1, \dots, z_n, e^{z_1}, \dots, e^{z_n})$ has transcendence degree at least n over \mathbb{Q} .

Undecidability for elementary functions

Theorem (Richardson, 1968)

Given $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined using:

- ▶ rational numbers, π , $\log(2)$
- ▶ arithmetic operations
- ▶ e^x , $\sin(x)$, and $|x|$,

it is undecidable (in general) whether $f(x) = 0$ holds everywhere.

Periods

$$C = \int_A F(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

A = algebraic set, F = algebraic function

Example: $\pi = \int_0^1 \frac{4}{x^2+1} dx = \int_0^1 4\sqrt{1-x^2} dx = \int_{x^2+y^2 \leq 1} 1 dx dy$

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Theorem

*Periods are computable.*⁴

⁴In fact, very efficiently. See: Lairez, Mezzarobba & Safey El Din,
Computing the volume of compact semi-algebraic sets,
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Theorem

*Periods are computable.*⁴

Conjecture (Kontsevich-Zagier, 2001)

Equality of periods can be decided using repeated use of additivity, change of variables, and the Stokes theorem.

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Holonomic constants

Values $f(\alpha)$, $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$, where f is a D-finite function

$$a_r(z)f^{(r)}(z) + \dots + a_1(z)f'(z) + a_0(z)f(z) = 0$$

with $a_i \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}(x)$.

Examples: $\exp(\sqrt{2})$, $J_0(1)$, ${}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{5}, -1+2i\right)$

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Efficient computation: algorithms by Chudnovsky², van der Hoeven, Mezzarobba

- ▶ Implementation:

https://github.com/mkauers/ore_algebra/

Equality test: ???

Summary

- ▶ Computable real numbers
- ▶ Barrier to exact computation over \mathbb{R} : testing $x = y$
- ▶ Effective subsets of \mathbb{R} such as $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$
- ▶ Practical problem: coefficient/expression growth

Summary

- ▶ Computable real numbers
- ▶ Barrier to exact computation over \mathbb{R} : testing $x = y$
- ▶ Effective subsets of \mathbb{R} such as $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$
- ▶ Practical problem: coefficient/expression growth

Advertisement: Calcium - <http://fredrikj.net/calcium/>

Summary

- ▶ Computable real numbers
- ▶ Barrier to exact computation over \mathbb{R} : testing $x = y$
- ▶ Effective subsets of \mathbb{R} such as $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$
- ▶ Practical problem: coefficient/expression growth

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Other software:

- ▶ <http://irram.uni-trier.de/>
- ▶ https://cs.nyu.edu/exact/core_pages/intro.html
- ▶ <https://github.com/flatsurf/exact-real>
- ▶ ...

Lecture plan

- ▶ Part 1: computability, exact arithmetic
- ▶ **Part 2: approximate arithmetic, interval arithmetic**

Approximate arithmetic

$$\underbrace{x}_{\text{True value}} = \underbrace{\hat{x}}_{\text{Approximation}} + \underbrace{\varepsilon}_{\text{Error}}$$

\hat{x} - easy to represent

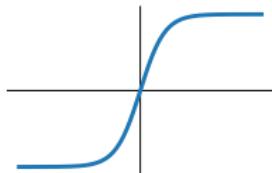
ε - unknown in general, but can often be bounded/estimated

Sources of numerical error

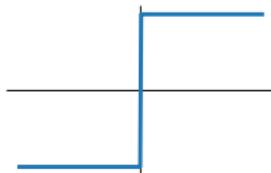
- ▶ Rounding error in single arithmetic operation
 - ▶ Typically:
$$\frac{|x - \hat{x}|}{|x|} \approx 2^{-p}$$
- ▶ Truncation / discretization error
 - ▶ Example: $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n + \varepsilon_N$
 - ▶ Example: differential equation approximated by finite difference with step size $h > 0$
- ▶ Uncertainty in input data (e.g. measurement error)

Multiple operations: need to study error propagation

Recall: computability – continuity – well-posedness



Computable



Not computable

- ▶ $f(x, y) = x + y$
- ▶ $\sin(x)$
- ▶ $|x|$
- ▶ $1/x$ (on $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$)

- ▶ $\text{sign}(x)$
- ▶ $x = y$
- ▶ $x < y$
- ▶ $[x], \lceil x \rceil$

Floating-point numbers

(Binary) floating-point numbers:

$$\hat{x} = a \cdot 2^b, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$$

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Precision: p such that $|a| < 2^p$

- ▶ IEEE 754 binary32 (`float`): $p = 24$ (= 7 decimals)
- ▶ IEEE 754 binary64 (`double`): $p = 53$ (= 16 decimals)
- ▶ Arbitrary-precision arithmetic (e.g. MPFR): any p

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Note: a floating-point system typically also defines an exponent range $E_{\min} \leq b \leq E_{\max}$ and special values $-0, -\infty, +\infty, \text{NaN}$.

Precision in practice

Most scientific
computing

float double

$p = 24$ $p = 53$



3.14159265358979323846264338327950288419716939937...

Precision in practice

Most scientific computing

float

$p = 24$



double

$p = 53$



$\frac{\text{Hydrogen atom}}{\text{Observable universe}} \approx 10^{-37}$

double-double

$p = 106$



quad-double

$p = 212$



3.14159265358979323846264338327950288419716939937...

Precision in practice

Most scientific computing

float double
 $p = 24$ $p = 53$
↓ ↓

3.14159265358979323846264338327950288419716939937...

↑
 $p = 8$
bfloat16

Hydrogen atom
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→

Computer graphics
Machine learning

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Arbitrary-precision arithmetic

Computer graphics
Machine learning

Unstable algorithms
Ill-conditioned problems
Mathematical problems

Example: inequalities

$$e^{\pi\sqrt{163}} = 640320^3 + 744?$$

```
sage: R = RealField(53)
sage: (R(163).sqrt() * R.pi()).exp(); R(640320**3 + 744)
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Example: computing discrete objects

$$p(4) = 5 \quad (4) = (3+1) = (2+2) = (2+1+1) = (1+1+1+1)$$

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Exact formula (Hardy-Ramanujan-Rademacher) for the partition function $p(n)$:

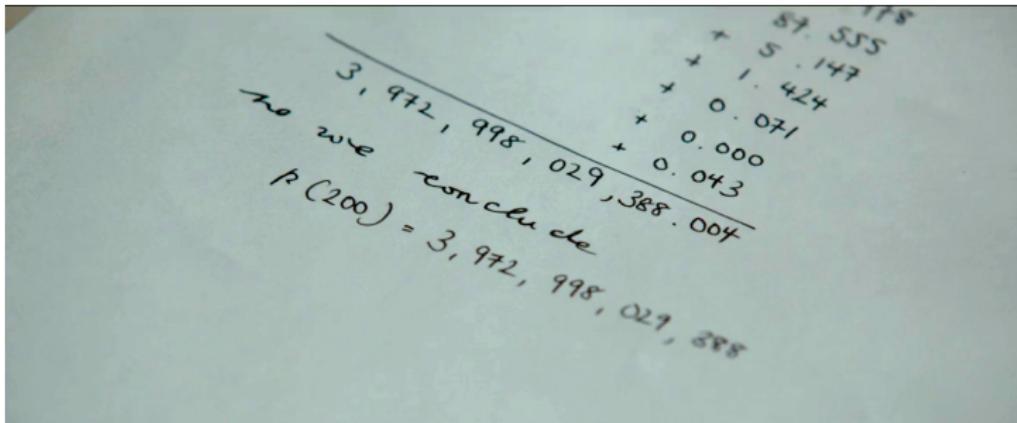
$$p(n) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k(n) \frac{\sqrt{k}}{\pi\sqrt{2}} \cdot \frac{d}{dn} \left[\frac{\sinh\left(\frac{\pi}{k}\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\left(n-\frac{1}{24}\right)}\right)}{\sqrt{n-\frac{1}{24}}} \right]$$

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Scene from *The Man Who Knew Infinity*, 2015

Example: guessing

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Find the minimal polynomial of $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{5}$ from a numerical approximation:

```
sage: R = RealField(100)
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sage: x
5.3823323474417620387383087344
sage: algdep(x, 8)
85*x^8 - 937*x^7 + 2332*x^6 + 1474*x^5 - 359*x^4 - 1935*x^3
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85*x^8 - 937*x^7 + 2332*x^6 + 1474*x^5 - 359*x^4 - 1935*x^3
- 268*x^2 + 318*x + 730

sage: R = RealField(200)
sage: x = R(2).sqrt() + R(3).sqrt() + R(5).sqrt()
sage: x
5.382332347441762038738308734468466809530954887988544255034
sage: algdep(x, 8)
x^8 - 40*x^6 + 352*x^4 - 960*x^2 + 576
```

Complexity of high-precision arithmetic

FFT: $O(n \log n)$ arithmetic operations

$$X_k = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} x_j e^{-2\pi i k j / n}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$$

Bit complexity: (number of operations) \times (cost per operation)

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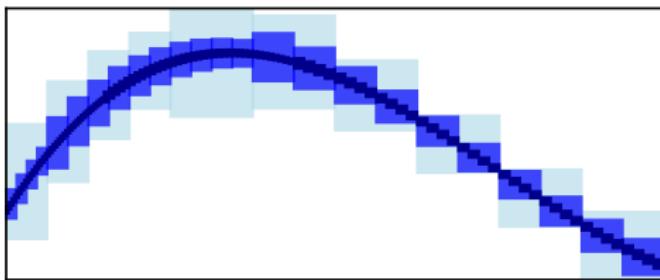
Cost for p -bit operations:

- ▶ Multiplication: $M(p) = O(p \log p)$ [Harvey and van der Hoeven, 2019]
- ▶ Division, square root: $O(M(p))$
- ▶ Exp, log, π : $O(M(p) \log p)$
- ▶ Holonomic constants: $O(M(p) \log^c p)$

Interval arithmetic and ball arithmetic

Definition

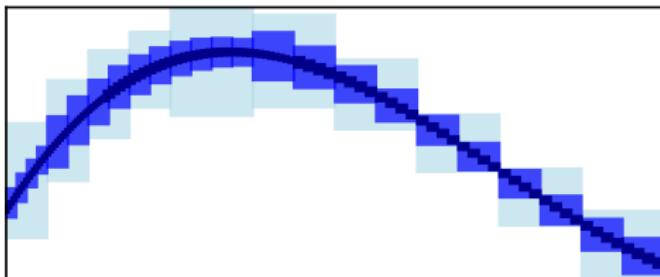
Interval extension of $f : A \rightarrow B$: given $X \subseteq A$, return some superset (enclosure) of $\{f(x) : x \in X\}$.



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Real intervals: $[3.14, 3.15]$ – RealIntervalField (MPFI)

- ▶ Better for subdivision of space

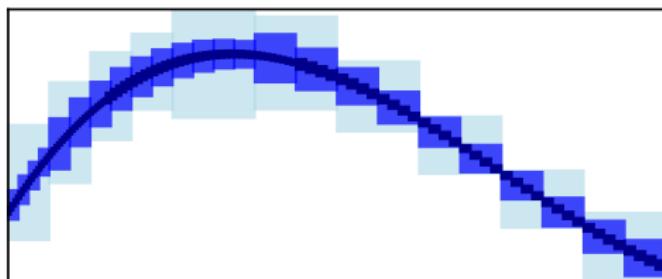
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Interval arithmetic and ball arithmetic

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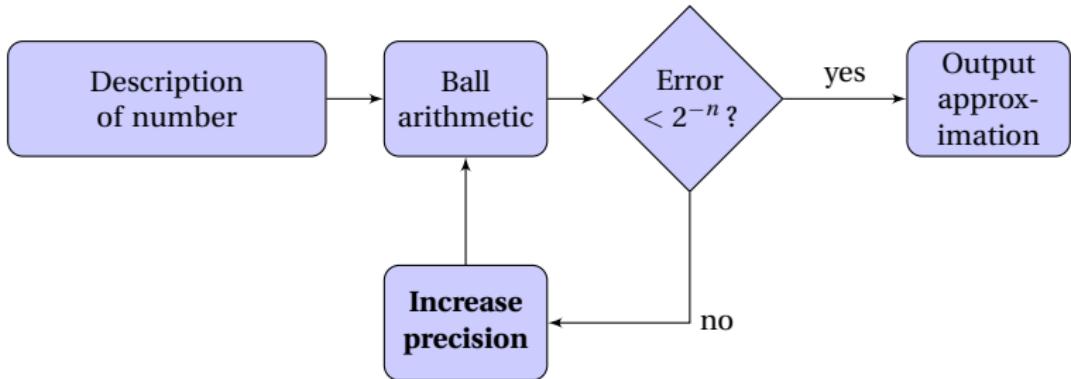
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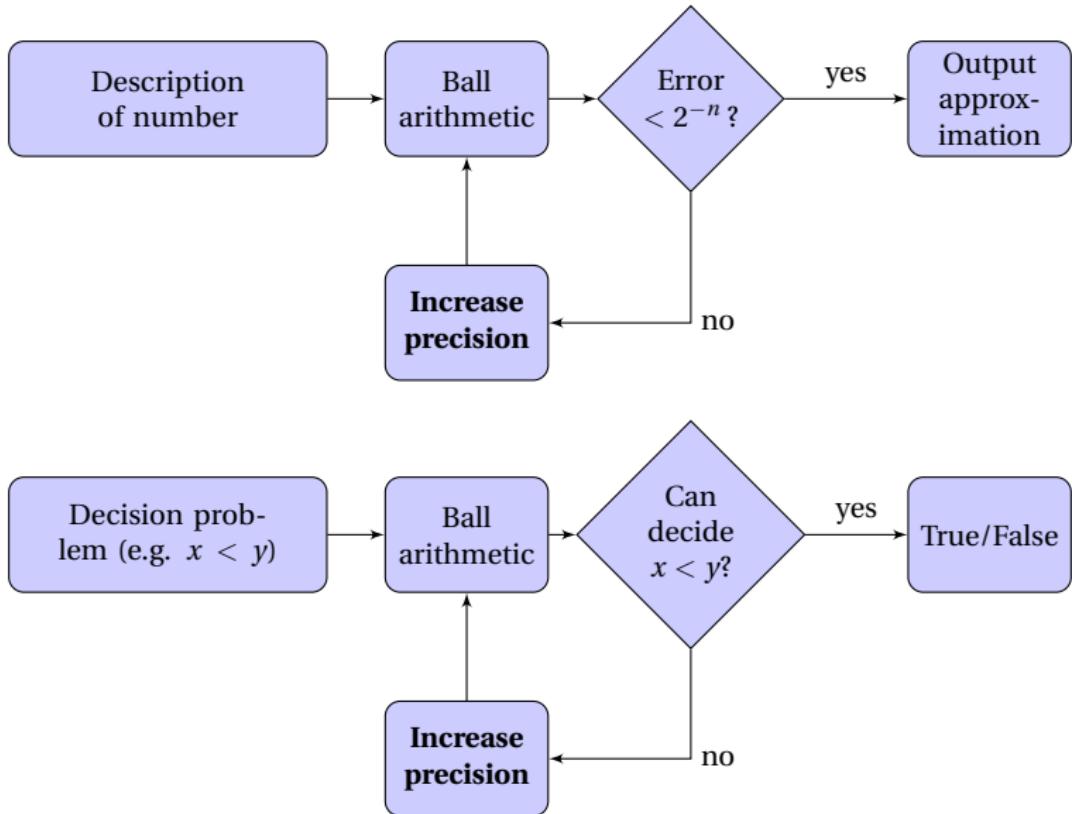
- ▶ Better for representing numbers

Note: $\sin([0, \pi]) \rightarrow [-2, 2]$ just as correct as $\sin([0, \pi]) \rightarrow [0, 1]$

Computable numbers using ball arithmetic



Computable numbers using ball arithmetic



Example: an inequality

$$e^{\pi\sqrt{163}} = 640320^3 + 744?$$

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sage: R = RealBallField(53)
sage: (R(163).sqrt() * R.pi()).exp() - R(640320**3 + 744)
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[+/- 5.02e-11]
```

```
sage: R = RealBallField(128)
sage: (R(163).sqrt() * R.pi()).exp() - R(640320**3 + 744)
[-7.49927e-13 +/- 5.89e-19]
```

Pessimistic error bounds: the dependency problem

Error of sum of N terms?

$$\sum_{n=1}^N x_n = \sum_{n=1}^N \tilde{x}_n + \varepsilon_n$$

(Let's say $\varepsilon_n = O(2^{-p})$)

- ▶ Worst-case bound: $\sum |\varepsilon_n| = O(N \cdot 2^{-p})$
- ▶ Expected error: $O(N^{1/2} \cdot 2^{-p})$ (assuming ε_n behave like independent random variables)
- ▶ Best case: 0 (errors might cancel out completely!)

Example: linear solving

Solve $Ax = b$

- ▶ Well-conditioned A
- ▶ Ill-conditioned A
- ▶ Floating-point arithmetic
- ▶ Ball arithmetic

Well-conditioned matrix, floating-point arithmetic

Solve $Ax = b$, A = size- n DCT matrix, $b = [1, \dots, 1]^T$

n	x_1
1	1.000000000000000
2	1.41421356237310
3	1.69270534084004
4	1.92387953251129
5	2.12756936615424
10	2.93381472087850
20	4.08975996439745
30	4.98358363678481
40	5.73967906112813
50	6.40709547252447
100	9.03226736256870
1000	28.4797579795013

Gaussian elimination in floating-point arithmetic ($p = 53$)

Well-conditioned matrix, ball arithmetic

Solve $Ax = b$, A = size- n DCT matrix, $b = [1, \dots, 1]^T$

n	x_1
1	1.000000000000000
2	[1.41421356237310 +/- 5.53e-15]
3	[1.69270534084004 +/- 6.07e-15]
4	[1.9238795325113 +/- 2.18e-14]
5	[2.1275693661542 +/- 5.01e-14]
10	[2.93381472088 +/- 9.20e-12]
20	[4.089760 +/- 5.09e-7]
30	[5.0 +/- 0.0468]
40	[+/- 6.36e+3]
50	-
100	-
1000	-

1	1.000000000000000
2	[1.41421356237310 +/- 5.53e-15]
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4	[1.9238795325113 +/- 2.18e-14]
5	[2.1275693661542 +/- 5.01e-14]
10	[2.93381472088 +/- 9.20e-12]
20	[4.089760 +/- 5.09e-7]
30	[5.0 +/- 0.0468]
40	[+/- 6.36e+3]
50	-
100	-
1000	-

Gaussian elimination in ball arithmetic

Well-conditioned matrix, better ball arithmetic

Solve $Ax = b$, A = size- n DCT matrix, $b = [1, \dots, 1]^T$

n	x_1	
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2	[1.41421356237310 +/- 5.53e-15]	
3	[1.69270534084004 +/- 6.07e-15]	
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30	[4.9835836367848 +/- 1.69e-14]	*
40	[5.7396790611281 +/- 3.38e-14]	*
50	[6.4070954725245 +/- 4.13e-14]	*
100	[9.0322673625687 +/- 2.09e-14]	*
1000	[28.479757979501 +/- 3.23e-13]	*

* Floating-point solution + *a posteriori* ball certification

Ill-conditioned matrix, floating-point arithmetic

Solve $Ax = b$, A = size- n Hilbert matrix, $b = [1, \dots, 1]^T$

n	x_1
1	1.000000000000000
2	-2.000000000000000
3	3.0000000000005
4	-4.000000000000134
5	5.000000000002543
10	-9.99995126767237
20	-35.6777214905094
30	6.34155467845874
40	44.5343844893017
50	33.9009376509307
100	52.5690415087492
1000	64.6972177711318

Gaussian elimination in floating-point arithmetic, $p = 53$

Ill-conditioned matrix, ball arithmetic

Solve $Ax = b$, A = size- n Hilbert matrix, $b = [1, \dots, 1]^T$

n	x_1	p
1	1.000000000000000	64
2	[-2.00000... +/- 1.85e-18]	64
3	[3.00000... +/- 3.14e-35]	128
4	[-4.00000... +/- 1.64e-32]	128
5	[5.00000... +/- 3.56e-29]	128
10	[-10.00000... +/- 7.41e-50]	256
20	[-20.00000... +/- 8.85e-85]	512
30	[-30.00000... +/- 2.82e-33]	256
40	[-40.00000... +/- 1.81e-142]	1024
50	[-50.00000... +/- 1.61e-90]	1024 # 0.1 s
100	[-100.00000... +/- 1.74e-118]	2048 # 0.8 s
1000	[-1000.00000... +/- 4.62e-937]	8192 # 4 hours

Ball arithmetic, $p = 64, 128, 256, \dots$ until error $< 2^{-53}$

Calculus

Consider:

- ▶ Differentiation: $f'(x)$
- ▶ Integration: $\int_a^b f(x)dx$

How is f represented?

- ▶ Symbolic expression
- ▶ Black-box functions (computable functions)
- ▶ Polynomial approximant
- ▶ ...?

Symbolic calculation

Differentiation: the chain rule (easy)

- ▶ Efficient implementation: automatic differentiation

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- ▶ Decision procedure for integrating elementary functions in closed form
- ▶ Subject to equality testing of constants:
 $f(x) = x + (b - a)e^{x^2}$ is elementary integrable $\iff a = b$

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 $f(x) = x + (b - a)e^{x^2}$ is elementary integrable $\iff a = b$

What symbols?

- ▶ Introduce $\text{erf}(x) \implies$ can integrate e^{x^2}
- ▶ Introduce $\Gamma(x) \implies$ no closed form for $\Gamma'(x)$ (until we add this as yet another function)

Symbolic definite integration

- ▶ Risch algorithm + fundamental theorem of calculus

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

requires handling singular points, branch cuts.

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$$\int_0^\infty e^{-zx^2} dx = \frac{1}{2}(\pi/z)^{1/2}, \quad z > 0$$

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$$\int_0^\infty e^{-zx^2} dx = \frac{1}{2}(\pi/z)^{1/2}, \quad z > 0$$

- ▶ Other methods: integral transforms, differential equations, residue theorem, lookup tables ...

Numerical computation: black-box functions

Computable function f : have algorithm which, given p and a computable x , outputs \tilde{y} with $|f(x) - \tilde{y}| < 2^{-p}$

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$$f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}, \quad h > 0$$

f differentiable \implies convergence as $h \rightarrow 0$

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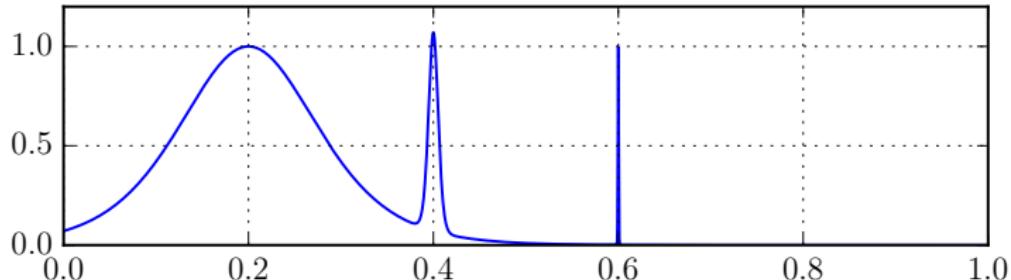
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For error bounds, need some knowledge about the regularity of f (typically a bound for the higher derivatives).

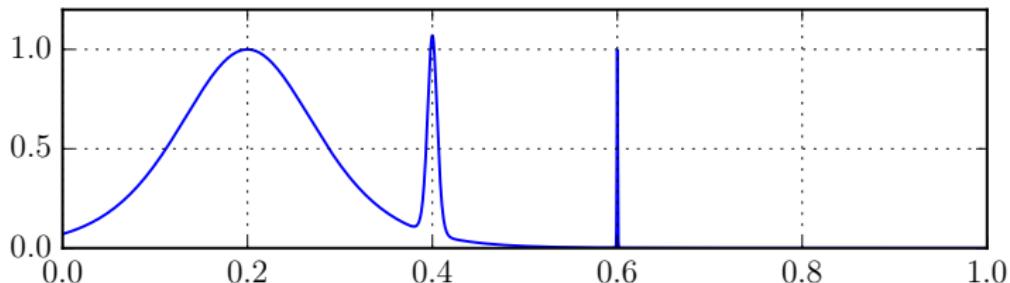
Example: the spike integral

$$\int_0^1 \operatorname{sech}^2(10(x - 0.2)) + \operatorname{sech}^4(100(x - 0.4)) + \operatorname{sech}^6(1000(x - 0.6)) \, dx$$



Example: the spike integral

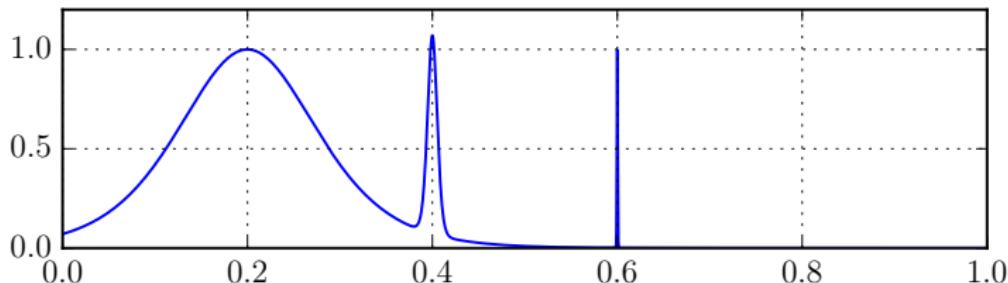
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Mathematica NIntegrate: 0.209736

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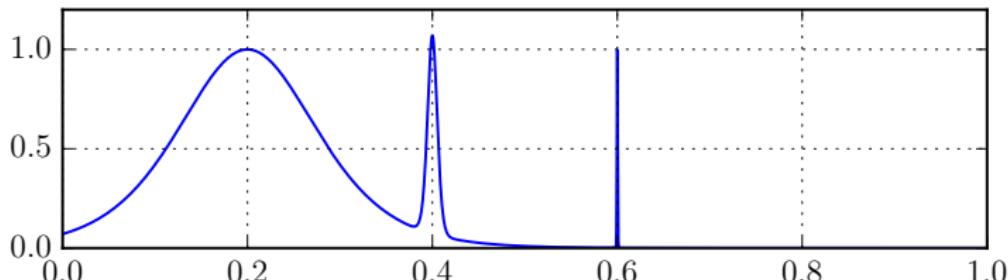


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Octave quad: 0.209736, error estimate 10^{-9}

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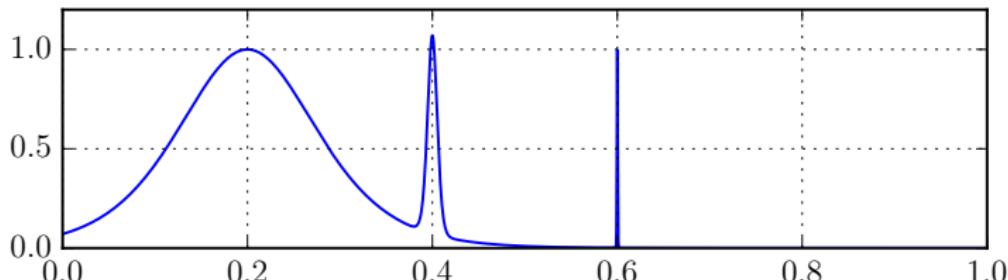
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Sage numerical_integral: 0.209736, error estimate 10^{-14}

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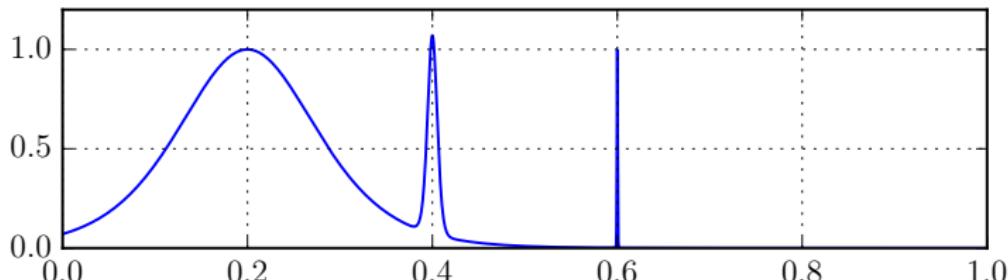
Octave quad: 0.209736, error estimate 10^{-9}

Sage numerical_integral: 0.209736, error estimate 10^{-14}

SciPy quad: 0.209736, error estimate 10^{-9}

Example: the spike integral

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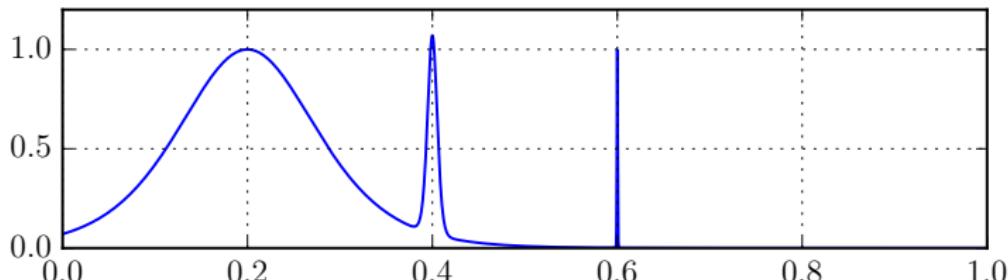
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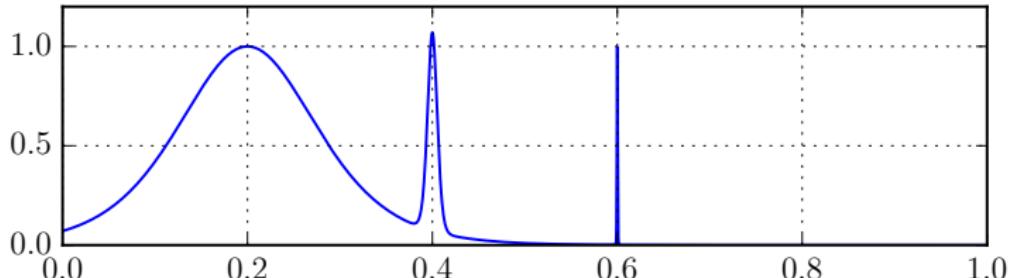
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Pari/GP intnum: 0.211316

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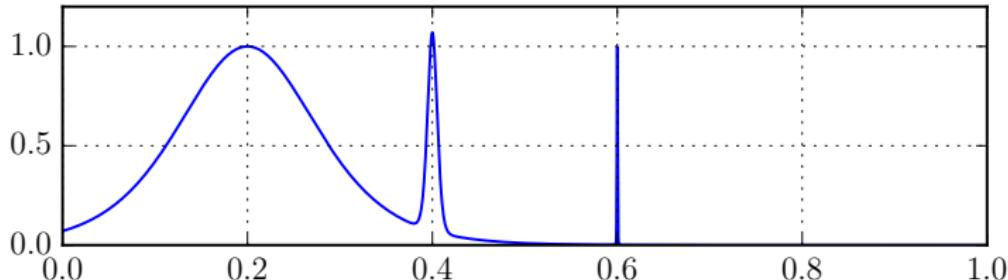
mpmath quad: 0.209819

Pari/GP intnum: 0.211316

Actual value: 0.210803

Example: the spike integral

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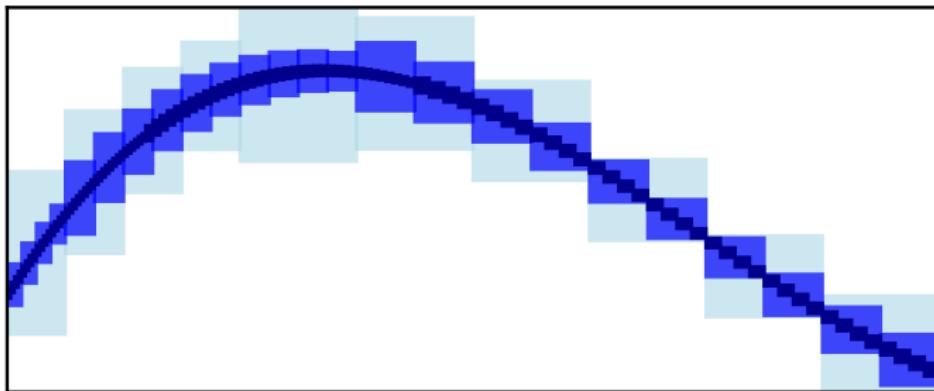
Pari/GP intnum: 0.211316

Actual value: 0.210803

Arb: $[0.21080273550054928 \pm 4.55 \cdot 10^{-18}]$

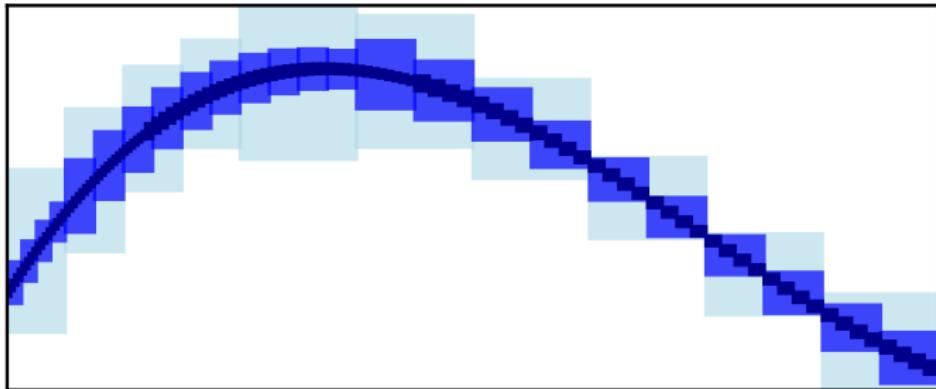
Integration in interval arithmetic: subdivision

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \in (b-a)f([a, b]) \quad + \quad \text{subdivision of } [a, b]$$



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Unfortunately, we need $2^{O(p)}$ evaluations for p -bit accuracy

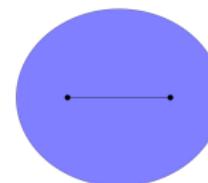
Efficient integration of piecewise holomorphic functions

- ▶ Gauss-Legendre quadrature with error bounds

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \sum_{k=1}^n w_k f(x_k) \right| \leq \frac{M}{\rho^{2n}} \cdot |b-a| C_\rho, \quad |f(z)| \leq M$$



$$\rho = 2.00$$



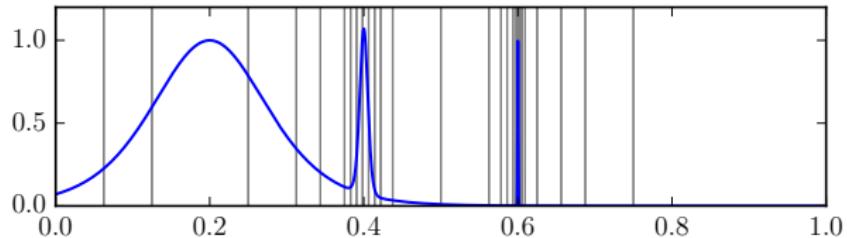
$$\rho = 3.73$$

- ▶ If there are singularities too close to $[a, b]$, bisect (possibly falling back to direct enclosure)

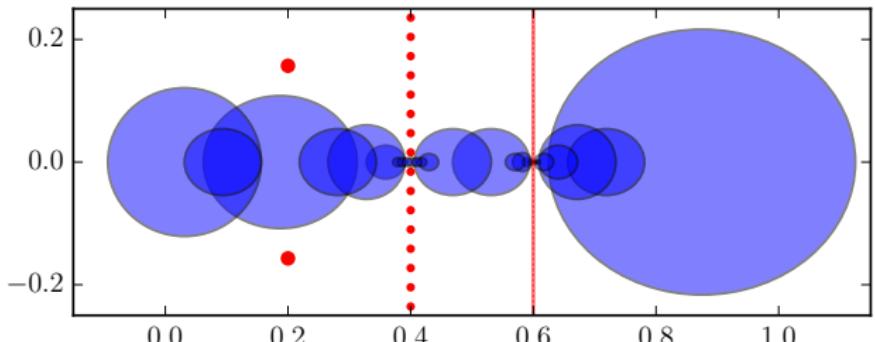
Adaptive subdivision

$$\int_0^1 \operatorname{sech}^2(10(x - 0.2)) + \operatorname{sech}^4(100(x - 0.4)) + \operatorname{sech}^6(1000(x - 0.6)) \, dx$$

Arb chooses
31 subintervals,
narrowest is 2^{-11}



Complex ellipses
used for bounds
Red dots = poles



Summary

- ▶ High precision needed for some problems
- ▶ Interval and ball arithmetic as tools for rigorous computation
- ▶ Pessimistic error bounds, slow convergence \implies need numerical analysis!