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# Numerical Methods

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#### Road Map

Dealing with numerical data
Framework for iterative processes
Newton's zero finding
Eigenvalues and eigenvectors
Cluster analysis
Conclusion

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## **Dealing With Numerical Data**

 Besides integers, Smalltalk supports two numerical types

 -! Fractions
 -! Floating point numbers

#### **Using Fractions**

Results of products and sums are exact.
Cannot be used with transcendental functions.
Computation is slow.
Computation may exceed computer's memory.
Convenient way to represent currency values when combined with rounding.

Computation is fast.

 Results have limited precision (usually 54 bits, ~16 decimal digits).

• Products preserve relative precision.

Sums may keep only wrong digits.

- Sums may keep only wrong digits.
   Example:
  - -! Evaluate 2.718 281 828 459 05 - 2.718 281 828 459 04 -!... = 9.76996261670138 x 10<sup>-15</sup> -! Should have been 10<sup>-14</sup> !

 Beware of meaningless precision!
 -!In 1424, Jamshid Masud al-Kashi published π = 3.141 592 653 589 793 25...

-!...but noted that the error in computing the perimeter of a circle with a radius 600'000 times that of earth would be less than the thickness of a horse's hair.

• Donald E. Knuth :

-! Floating point arithmetic is by nature inexact, and it is not difficult to misuse it so that the computed answers consist almost entirely of "noise". One of the principal problems of numerical analysis is to determine how accurate the results of certain numerical methods will be.

- Never use equality between two floating point numbers.
- •!Use a special method to compare them.

Proposed extensions to class Number

```
relativelyEqualsTo: aNumber upTo: aSmallNumber
    | norm |
    norm := self abs max: aNumber abs.
    ^norm <= aSmallNumber
        or: [ (self - aNumber) abs <
            ( aSmallNumber * norm)]</pre>
```

equalsTo: aNumber ^self relativelyEqualsTo: aNumber upTo: DhbFloatingPointMachine default defaultNumericalPrecision

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#### **Iterative Processes**

Find a result using successive approximations
Easy to implement as a *framework*Wide field of application

#### **Successive** Approximations









#### Simple example of use

#### Advanced example of use

```
| iterativeProcess result precision |
iterativeProcess := <a subclass of DhbIterativeProcess> new.
iterativeProcess desiredPrecision: 1.0e-6;
          maximumIterations: 25.
result := iterativeProcess evaluate.
iterativeProcess hasConverged
   ifTrue: [ Transcript nextPutAll: 'Result obtained
          after \.
          iterativeProcess iteration printOn: Transcript.
          Transcript nextPutAll: 'iterations. Attained
          precision is `.
          iterativeProcess precision printOn: Transcript.
   ifFalse: [ Transcript nextPutAll: 'Process did not
          converge'].
Transcript cr.
```

#### **Class** Diagram

#### **IterativeProcess**

evaluate initializeIteration hasConverged evaluateIteration finalizeIteration

precisionOf:relativeTo: desiredPrecision (g,s) maximumIterations (g,s) precision (g) iterations (g)

(g

#### result

#### Case of Numerical Result

 Computation of precision should be made relative to the result

•General method:

#### Absolute precision

Result

# Example of use

| iterativeProcess result |
iterativeProcess := <a subclass of
 FunctionalIterator> function:
 ( DhbPolynomial new: #(1 2 3).
result := iterativeProcess evaluate.
iterativeProcess hasConverged
 ifFalse: [ <special case processing>].

#### **Class** Diagram

**IterativeProcess** 

**FunctionalIterator** 

initializeIteration
computeInitialValues
relativePrecision
setFunction:

functionBlock

**AbstractFunction** 

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#### Newton's Zero Finding

It finds a value x such that f(x) = 0.
More generally, it can be used to find a value x such that f(x) = c.

#### Newton's Zero Finding

Use successive approximation formula x<sub>n+1</sub> = x<sub>n</sub> - f(x<sub>n</sub>)/f'(x<sub>n</sub>)
Must supply an initial value -!overload computeInitialValues
Should protect against f'(x<sub>n</sub>) = 0



#### Example of use

| zeroFinder result |
zeroFinder:= DhbNewtonZeroFinder
 function: [ :x | x
 errorFunction - 0.9]
derivative: [ :x | x normal].
zeroFinder initialValue: 1.
result := zeroFinder evaluate.
zeroFinder hasConverged
 ifFalse:[ <special case processing>].

#### **Class** Diagram



derivativeBlock

**AbstractFunction** 



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Finds the solution to the problem M·v = λ·v where M is a square matrix and v a non-zero vector.
λ is the *eigenvalue*.
v is the *eigenvector*.

Example of uses:

 -!Structural analysis (vibrations).
 -!Correlation analysis (statistical analysis and data mining).

- •!We use the Jacobi method applicable to symmetric matrices only.
- A 2x2 rotation matrix is applied on the matrix to annihilate the largest off-diagonal element.
- This process is repeated until all offdiagonal elements are negligible.

When M is a symmetric matrix, there exist an orthogonal matrix O such that: O<sup>T</sup>·M·O is diagonal.
The diagonal elements are the eigenvalues.
The columns of the matrix O are the eigenvectors of the matrix M.

- Let *i* and *j* be the indices of the largest offdiagonal element.
- The rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}_{l}$  is chosen such that  $(\mathbf{R}_{l}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot \mathbf{R}_{l})_{ii}$  is 0.
- The matrix at the next step is:  $\mathbf{M}_2 = \mathbf{R}_1^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot \mathbf{R}_1.$

Interpretent of all matrix and the matrix M2.
Interpretent of all matrices Rn.

The *precision* is the absolute value of the largest off-diagonal element.
To finalize, eigenvalues are sorted in decreasing order of absolute values.
There are two results from this algorithm: -!A vector containing the eigenvalues,
The matrix O containing the corresponding eigenvectors.

#### Example of use

#### **Class** Diagram

**IterativeProcess** 

**JacobiTransformation** 

evaluateIteration
largestOffDiagonalIndices
transformAt:and:
finalizeIteration
sortEigenValues
exchangeAt:
printOn:
lowerRows (i)
transform (c)

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Is one of the techniques of *data mining*.
Allows to extract unsuspected similarity patterns from a large collection of objects.
Used by marketing strategists (banks).
Example: BT used cluster analysis to locate a long distance phone scam.

 Each object is represented by a vector of numerical values.

• A metric is defined to compute a similarity factor using the vector representing the object.

At first the centers of each clusters are defined by picking random objects.
Objects are clustered to the nearest center.
A new center is computed for each cluster.
Continue iteration until all objects remain in the cluster of the preceding iteration.
Empty clusters are discarded.

- The *similarity* metric is essential to the performance of cluster analysis.
- Depending on the problem, a different metric may be used.
- •!Thus, the metric is implemented with a *STRATEGY* pattern.

- The *precision* is the number of objects that changed clusters at each iteration.
- The result is a grouping of the initial objects, that is a set of clusters.
- •Some clusters may be better than others.

#### Example of use

#### Class Diagram

**IterativeProcess** 

\_\_\_\_\_

ClusterFinder

evaluateIteration
accumulate:
indexOfNearestCluster:
initializeIteration

finalizeIteration

dataServer

clusters

(1,g)

(i)

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**ClusterDataServer** 

openDataStream closeDataStream dimension seedClusterIn: accumulateDataIn

**Cluster** 

accumulate: distance: isEmpty: reset accumulator metric

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#### Conclusion

- •!When used with care numerical data can be processed with Smalltalk.
- OO programming can take advantage of the mathematical structure.
- Programming numerical algorithms can take advantage of OO programming.

### Questions



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