

nb-l04-float

November 12, 2019

Scientific Computing, TU Berlin, WS 2019/2020, Lecture 04

Jürgen Fuhrmann, WIAS Berlin

1 Recap

- Julia type system
- Multiple dispatch
- Performance issues
- Modules

1.1 Julia type system

- Julia is a strongly typed language
- Knowledge about the layout of a value in memory is encoded in its type
- Prerequisite for performance
- There are concrete types and abstract types
- See [WikiBook](#) for more

1.1.1 Concrete types

- Every value in Julia has a concrete type
- Concrete types correspond to computer representations of objects
- Inquire type info using `typeof()`
- One can initialize a variable with an explicitly given fixed type
 - Currently possible only in the body of functions and for return values, not in the global context of Jupyter, REPL

1.1.2 Abstract types

- Abstract types label concepts which work for a several concrete types without regard to their memory layout etc.
- All variables with concrete types corresponding to a given abstract type (must) share a common interface
- A common interface consists of a set of methods working for all types exhibiting this interface
- The functionality of an abstract type is implicitly characterized by the methods working on it
- “[duck typing](#)”: use the “duck test” — “If it walks like a duck and it quacks like a duck, then it must be a duck” — to determine if an object can be used for a particular purpose

1.1.3 The power of multiple dispatch

- Multiple dispatch is one of the defining features of Julia
- Combined with the hierarchical type system it allows for powerful generic program design
- New datatypes (different kinds of numbers, differently stored arrays/matrices) work with existing code once they implement the same interface as existent ones.
- In some respects C++ comes close to it, but for the price of more and less obvious code

1.2 Just-in-time compilation and Performance

- Just-in-time compilation is another feature setting Julia apart
- Use the tools from the [The LLVM Compiler Infrastructure Project](#) to organize on-the-fly compilation of Julia code to machine code
- Tradeoff: startup time for code execution in interactive situations
- Multiple steps: Parse the code, analyze data types etc.
- Intermediate results can be inspected using a number of macros

1.3 Performance

Macros for performance testing: - @elapsed: wall clock time used - @allocated: number of allocations - @time: @elapsed and @allocated together - @benchmark: Benchmarking small pieces of code

1.3.1 Julia performace gotchas:

- Variables changing types
 - Type change assumed to be always possible in global context (outside of a function)
 - Type change due to inconsequential programming
- Memory allocations for intermediate results
- See [# 7 Julia Gotchas to handle](#)

1.4 Structuring your code: modules, files and packages

- Complex code is split up into several files
- Avoid name clashes for code from different places
- Organize the way to use third party code

1.4.1 Finding modules in the file system

- Put single file modules having the same name as the module into a directory which in on the LOAD_PATH
- Call “using” or “import” with the module
- You can modify your LOAD_PATH by adding e.g. the actual directory

1.4.2 Packages in the file system

- Packages are found via the same mechanism
- Part of the load path are the directory with downloaded packages and the directory with packages under development
- Each package is a directory named `Package` with a subdirectory `src`

- The file `Package/src/Package.jl` defines a module named `Package`
- More structures in a package:
 - Documentation build recipes
 - Test code
 - Dependency description
 - UUID (Universal unique identifier)
- Default packages (e.g. the package manager `Pkg`) are always available
- Use the package manager to checkout a new package via the registry

2 Julia Workflows

- REPL
- Atom/Juno

2.1 Developing code with the Julia REPL

- “using” a package involves compilation delay on startup of session
- Best way: never leave Julia session
- E.g. edit your code in the editor
- Write code, include, run,
 - repeat

2.1.1 Revise.jl

- Adds a command `includet` which triggers automatic recompile of the included file and those used therein upon change on the disk.
- Put this into your `~/.julia/config/startup.jl`:

```
[1]: if isinteractive()
      try
          @eval using Revise
          Revise.async_steal_repl_backend()
      catch err
          @warn "Could not load Revise."
      end
  end
end
```

Start Julia at the command prompt with `julia -i`

2.2 Atom/Juno

3 Calling code from other languages

- C
- python
- C++, R ...

3.1 ccall

- C language code has a well defined binary interface
 - `int` \leftrightarrow `Int32`
 - `float` \leftrightarrow `Float32`
 - `double` \leftrightarrow `Float64`
 - C arrays as pointers
- Create file `cadd.c`:

```
[2]: open("cadd.c", "w") do io
      write(io, """double cadd(double x, double y) { return x+y; }""")
    end
```

[2]: 47

- Create shared object (a.k.a. “dll”) `cadd.so`
 - note the Julia command syntax using backtics

```
[3]: run(`gcc --shared cadd.c -o libcadd.so`)
```

```
[3]: Process(`gcc --shared cadd.c -o
      libcadd.so`, ProcessExited(0))
```

- Define wrapper function `cadd` using the Julia `ccall` method
 - `(:cadd, "libcadd")`: call `cadd` from `libcadd.so`
 - First `Float64`: return type
 - `Tuple{Float64,Float64,}`: parameter types
 - `x,y`: actual data passed
- At its first call it will load `libcadd.so` into Julia
- Direct call of compiled C function `cadd()`, no intermediate wrapper code

```
[4]: cadd(x,y)=ccall((:cadd, "libcadd"), Float64, (Float64,Float64,),x,y)
```

[4]: `cadd` (generic function with 1 method)

Call wrapper

```
[5]: @show cadd(1.5,2.5);
```

`cadd(1.5, 2.5) = 4.0`

- Julia uses this method to access a number of highly optimized linear algebra and other libraries

3.2 PyCall

- Both Julia and Python are homoiconic language, featuring *reflection*
- They can parse the elements of their own data structures
- Possibility to automatically build proxies for python objects in Julia
- Define Python function

```
[6]: open("pyadd.py", "w") do io
      write(io, """
      def pyadd(x,y):
          return x+y
      """)
      end
```

[6]: 31

- Add PyCall package

```
[7]: using Pkg
      Pkg.add("PyCall")
```

```
Updating registry at `~/.julia/registries/General`
Updating git-repo
`https://github.com/JuliaRegistries/General.git`
Resolving package versions...
Updating `~/.julia/environments/v1.2/Project.toml`
[438e738f] + PyCall v1.91.2
Updating `~/.julia/environments/v1.2/Manifest.toml`
[1914dd2f] + MacroTools v0.5.2
[438e738f] + PyCall v1.91.2
```

- Use PyCall package

```
[8]: using PyCall
```

```
Info: Recompiling stale cache file
/home/fuhrmann/.julia/compiled/v1.2/PyCall/GkzkC.ji for PyCall
[438e738f-606a-5dbb-bf0a-cddfbfd45ab0]
@ Base loading.jl:1240
```

- Import python module:

```
[9]: pyadd=pyimport("pyadd")
```

```
[9]: PyObject <module 'pyadd' from
      '/home/fuhrmann/Wias/teach/scicomp/course/pyadd.py'>
```

- Call pyadd from imported module

```
[10]: @show pyadd.pyadd(3.5,6.5)
```

```
pyadd.pyadd(3.5, 6.5) = 10.0
```

[10]: 10.0

- Julia allows to call almost any python package
- E.g. matplotlib graphics

- t : mantissa length
- Normalization: assume $d_0 = 1 \Rightarrow$ save one bit for mantissa
 - normalization step after operations: adjust mantissa and exponent
- k : exponent size $-\beta^k + 1 = L \leq e \leq U = \beta^k - 1$
- Extra bit for sign
- \Rightarrow storage size: $\$ (t-1) + k + 1\$$

4.2.1 IEEE 754 floating point types

- Standardized for many languages
- Hardware support usually for 64bit and 32bit

precision	Julia	C/C++	k	t	bits
quadruple	n/a	long double	16	111	128
double	Float64	double	11	53	64
single	Float32	float	8	23	32
half	Float16	n/a	5	10	16

- See also the [Julia Documentation on floating point numbers](#)

4.2.2 Storage layout for a normalized Float32 number ($d_0 = 1$)

- bit 0: sign, $0 \rightarrow +$, $1 \rightarrow -$
- bit 1...8: $r = 8$ exponent bits
 - the value $e + 2^{r-1} - 1 = 127$ is stored \Rightarrow no need for sign bit in exponent
- bit 9...31: $t = 23$ mantissa bits $d_1 \dots d_{23}$
- $d_0 = 1$ not stored \equiv “hidden bit”

```
[12]: function floatbits(x::Float32)
        s=bitstring(x)
        return s[1]*" "*s[2:9]*" "*s[10:end]
      end
function floatbits(x::Float64)
        s=bitstring(x)
        return s[1]*" "*s[2:12]*" "*s[13:end]
      end
```

[12]: floatbits (generic function with 2 methods)

- $e = 0$, stored $e = 127$:

```
[13]: floatbits(Float32(1))
```

```
[13]: "0 01111111 000000000000000000000000"
```

- $e = 1$, stored $e = 128$:

```
[14]: floatbits(Float32(2))
```

```
[14]: "0 10000000 000000000000000000000000"
```

- $e = -1$, stored $e = 126$:

```
[15]: floatbits(Float32(1/2))
```

```
[15]: "0 01111110 000000000000000000000000"
```

- Numbers which are exactly represented in decimal system may not be exactly represented in binary system! - Example: infinite periodic number in binary system:

```
[16]: floatbits(Float32(0.1))
```

```
[16]: "0 01111011 10011001100110011001101"
```

- positive zero:

```
[17]: floatbits(zero(Float32))
```

```
[17]: "0 00000000 000000000000000000000000"
```

- negative zero:

```
[18]: floatbits(-zero(Float32))
```

```
[18]: "1 00000000 000000000000000000000000"
```

4.2.3 Floating point limits

- Finite size of representation \Rightarrow there are minimal and maximal possible numbers which can be represented
- symmetry wrt. 0 because of sign bit
- smallest positive denormalized number: $d_i = 0, i = 0 \dots t-2, d_{t-1} = 1 \Rightarrow x_{min} = \beta^{1-t}\beta^L$

```
[19]: @show nextfloat(zero(Float32));  
@show floatbits(nextfloat(zero(Float32)));
```

```
nextfloat(zero(Float32)) = 1.0f-45  
floatbits(nextfloat(zero(Float32))) = "0 00000000 000000000000000000000001"
```

```
[20]: @show nextfloat(zero(Float64));  
@show floatbits(nextfloat(zero(Float64)));
```

```
nextfloat(zero(Float64)) = 5.0e-324  
floatbits(nextfloat(zero(Float64))) = "0 000000000000  
00000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000001"
```

- smallest positive normalized number: $d_0 = 1, d_i = 0, i = 1 \dots t-1 \Rightarrow x_{min} = \beta^L$

```
floatmin(Float32) = 1.1754944f-38
floatbits(floatmin(Float32)) = "0 00000001 000000000000000000000000"
```

[illegible]

- ```
[23]: @show floatmax(Float32)
 @show floatbits(floatmax(Float32));
```

```
[24]: @show floatmax(Float64)
 @show floatbits(floatmax(Float64));
```

[illegible]

- ```
[25]: @show typemax(Float32)
      @show floatbits(typemax(Float32))
      @show prevfloat(typemax(Float32));
```

```
typemax(Float32) = Inf32  
floatbits(typemax(Float32)) = "0 11111111 000000000000000000000000"  
prevfloat(typemax(Float32)) = 3.4028235f38
```

```
typemax(Float64) = Inf  
floatbits(typemax(Float64)) = "0 11111111111  
0000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000"  
prevfloat(typemax(Float64)) = 1.7976931348623157e308
```

4.3 Machine precision

- There cannot be more than 2^{t+k} floating point numbers \Rightarrow almost all real numbers have to be approximated
- Let x be an exact value and \tilde{x} be its approximation. Then $|\frac{\tilde{x}-x}{x}| < \epsilon$ is the best accuracy estimate we can get, where
 - $\epsilon = \beta^{1-t}$ (truncation)
 - $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}\beta^{1-t}$ (rounding)
- Also: ϵ is the smallest representable number such that $1 + \epsilon > 1$.
- Relative errors show up in particular when
 - subtracting two close numbers
 - adding smaller numbers to larger ones

4.4 How do operations work?

E.g. Addition - Adjust exponent of number to be added: - Until both exponents are equal, add one to exponent, shift mantissa to right bit by bit - Add both numbers - Normalize result

The smallest number one can add to 1 can have at most t bit shifts of normalized mantissa until mantissa becomes 0, so its value must be 2^{-t} .

4.4.1 Machine epsilon

- Smallest floating point number ϵ such that $1 + \epsilon > 1$ in floating point arithmetic
- In exact math it is true that from $1 + \varepsilon = 1$ it follows that $0 + \varepsilon = 0$ and vice versa. In floating point computations this is not true

```
[27]: =eps(Float32)
@show , floatbits()
@show one(Float32)+ /2
@show one(Float32)+ ,floatbits(one(Float32)+ )
@show nextfloat(one(Float32))-one(Float32);

( , floatbits()) = (1.1920929f-7, "0 01101000 000000000000000000000000")
one(Float32) + / 2 = 1.0f0
(one(Float32) + , floatbits(one(Float32) + )) = (1.0000001f0, "0 01111111
00000000000000000000000000000001")
nextfloat(one(Float32)) - one(Float32) = 1.1920929f-7
```

```
[28]: =eps(Float64)
@show , floatbits()
@show one(Float64)+ /2
@show one(Float64)+ ,floatbits(one(Float64)+ )
@show nextfloat(one(Float64))-one(Float64);

( , floatbits() ) = (2.220446049250313e-16, "0 01111001011
0000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000")
one(Float64) + / 2 = 1.0
(one(Float64) + , floatbits(one(Float64) + )) = (1.0000000000000002, "0
```

[illegible]

4.4.2 Associativity ?

- Normally: $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$
- But without optimization:

```
[29]: @show (1.0 + 0.5*eps(Float64)) - 1.0
      @show 1.0 + (0.5*eps(Float64) - 1.0);
```

```
(1.0 + 0.5 * eps(Float64)) - 1.0 = 0.0
1.0 + (0.5 * eps(Float64) - 1.0) = 1.1102230246251565e-16
```

- With optimization:

```
[30]: =eps(Float64)
@show (1.0 +  $\sqrt{2}$ ) - 1.0
@show 1.0 + ( $\sqrt{2}$  - 1.0);
```

$$\begin{aligned}(1.0 + \quad / 2) - 1.0 &= 0.0 \\ 1.0 + (\quad / 2 - 1.0) &= 1.1102230246251565\text{e-}16\end{aligned}$$

4.4.3 Density of floating point numbers

```
[31]: function fpdens(x::AbstractFloat;sample_size=1000)
        xleft=x
        xright=x
        for i=1:sample_size
            xleft=prevfloat(xleft)
            xright=nextfloat(xright)
        end
        return prevfloat(2.0*sample_size/(xright-xleft))
    end
```

```
[31]: fpdfens (generic function with 1 method)
```

```
[32]: x=10.0 .^collect(-10.0:0.1:10.0)
```

```
[32]: 201-element Array{Float64,1}:
 1.0e-10
 1.2589254117941662e-10
 1.5848931924611111e-10
 1.9952623149688828e-10
 2.511886431509582e-10
 3.1622776601683795e-10
 3.9810717055349694e-10
 5.011872336272714e-10
 6.309573444801942e-10
```

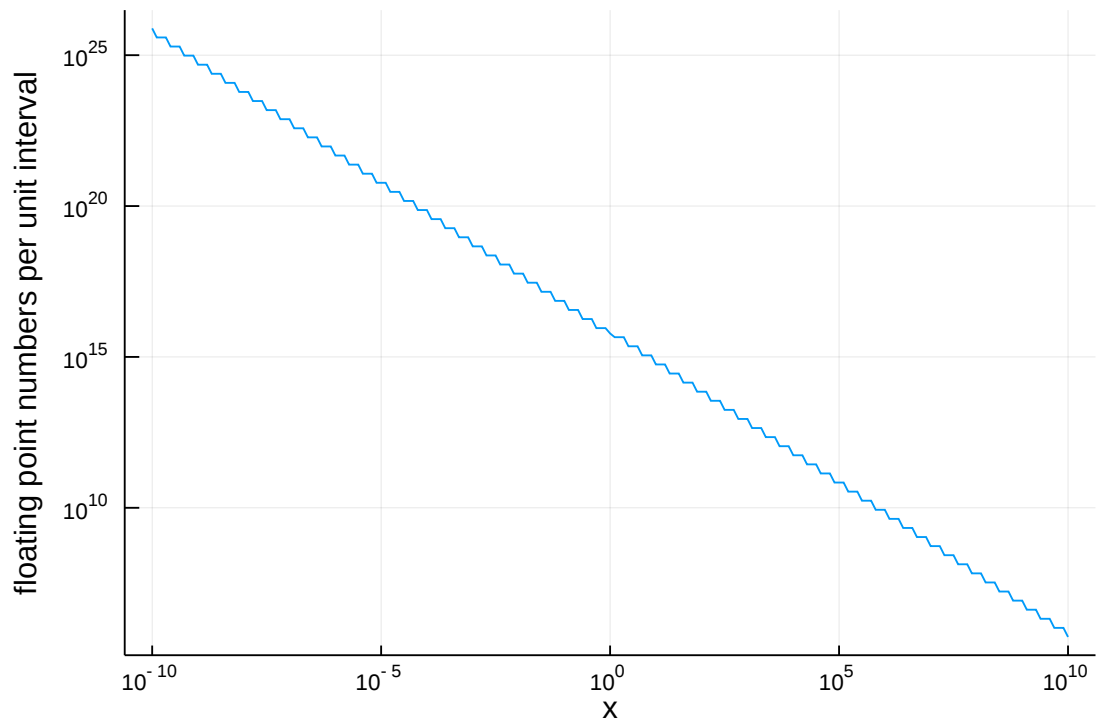
```
7.943282347242822e-10
1.0e-9
1.2589254117941663e-9
1.584893192461111e-9
```

```
7.943282347242821e8
1.0e9
1.258925411794166e9
1.5848931924611108e9
1.9952623149688828e9
2.511886431509582e9
3.1622776601683793e9
3.9810717055349693e9
5.011872336272715e9
6.309573444801943e9
7.943282347242822e9
1.0e10
```

```
[33]: using Plots
using Plots
plot(x,fpdens.(x), xaxis=:log, yaxis=:log, label="",xlabel="x",
      ylabel="floating point numbers per unit interval")
```

```
Info: Recompiling stale cache file
/home/fuhrmann/.julia/compiled/v1.2/Plots/ld3vC.ji for Plots
[91a5bcdd-55d7-5caf-9e0b-520d859cae80]
@ Base loading.jl:1240
```

```
[33]:
```



5 Matrix + Vector norms

5.1 Vector norms: let $x = (x_i) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

```
[34]: using LinearAlgebra
      x=[3.0,2.0,5.0]
```

```
[34]: 3-element Array{Float64,1}:
      3.0
      2.0
      5.0
```

- $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$: sum norm, l_1 -norm

```
[35]: @show norm(x,1);
```

```
norm(x, 1) = 10.0
```

- $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$: Euclidean norm, l_2 -norm

```
[36]: @show norm(x,2);
      @show norm(x);
```

```
norm(x, 2) = 6.164414002968976
norm(x) = 6.164414002968976
```

- $\|x\|_\infty = \max_{i=1}^n |x_i|$: maximum norm, l_∞ -norm

```
[37]: @show norm(x, Inf);
```

```
norm(x, Inf) = 5.0
```

Matrix $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ - Representation of linear operator $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by $\mathcal{A} : x \mapsto y = Ax$ with

$$y_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j$$

- Induced matrix norm:

$$\begin{aligned} \|A\|_p &= \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_p}{\|x\|_p} \\ &= \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_p = 1} \|Ax\|_p \end{aligned}$$

5.2 Matrix norms induced from vector norms

```
[38]: A=[3.0 2.0 5.0; 0.1 0.3 0.5 ; 0.6 2 3]
```

```
[38]: 3×3 Array{Float64,2}:
 3.0  2.0  5.0
 0.1  0.3  0.5
 0.6  2.0  3.0
```

- $\|A\|_1 = \max_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^n |a_{ij}|$ maximum of column sums of absolute values of entries

```
[39]: @show opnorm(A,1);
```

```
opnorm(A, 1) = 8.5
```

- $\|A\|_\infty = \max_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|$ maximum of row sums of absolute values of entries

```
[40]: @show opnorm(A,Inf);
```

```
opnorm(A, Inf) = 10.0
```

- $\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}}$ with λ_{\max} : largest eigenvalue of $A^T A$.

```
[41]: @show opnorm(A,2);
```

```
opnorm(A, 2) = 7.083763693021976
```

6 Matrix condition number and error propagation

- Problem: solve $Ax = b$, where b is inexact
- Let Δb be the error in b and Δx be the resulting error in x such that

$$A(x + \Delta x) = b + \Delta b.$$

- Since $Ax = b$, we get $A\Delta x = \Delta b$
- Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \Delta x = A^{-1}\Delta b \\ Ax = b \end{array} \right\} &\Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \|A\| \cdot \|x\| \geq \|b\| \\ \|\Delta x\| \leq \|A^{-1}\| \cdot \|\Delta b\| \end{array} \right. \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|} \leq \kappa(A) \frac{\|\Delta b\|}{\|b\|} \end{aligned}$$

where $\kappa(A) = \|A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\|$ is the *condition number* of A .

6.0.1 Error propagation:

```
[42]: A=[ 1.0 -1.0 ; 1.0e5 1.0e5];  
Ainv=inv(A)  
=opnorm(A)*opnorm(Ainv)  
@show Ainv  
@show ;
```

```
Ainv = [0.5 5.0e-6; -0.5 5.0e-6]  
= 100000.0
```

```
[43]: x=[ 1.0, 1.0]  
b=A*x  
@show b  
Δb=1*[eps(1.0), eps(1.0)]  
Δx=Ainv*(b+Δb)-x  
@show norm(Δx)/norm(x)  
@show norm(Δb)/norm(b)  
@show *norm(Δb)/norm(b)
```

```
b = [0.0, 200000.0]  
norm(Δx) / norm(x) = 7.850462293418875e-17  
norm(Δb) / norm(b) = 1.5700924586837751e-21  
( * norm(Δb)) / norm(b) = 1.5700924586837752e-16
```

```
[43]: 1.5700924586837752e-16
```

This notebook was generated using [Literature.jl](#).