

Lecture 5

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Example of graphics w/
wave interference.

Dropping a pebble in water
leads to waves radiating outward
from where it was dropped.

Given drop location at x_1, y_1 ,
distance from here is given by

$$r_1 = \sqrt{(x-x_1)^2 + (y-y_1)^2}$$

of sine wave for height is

$$\xi_1(x, y) = \xi_0 \sin(kr_1)$$

where ξ_0 is amplitude of

$k = 2\pi/\lambda$ is wavevector w/
of wavelength

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Dropping a pebble @ a different location would lead to

$$\psi_2(x, y) = \psi_0 \sin(kr_2)$$

$$\text{w/ } r_2 = \sqrt{(x-x_2)^2 + (y-y_2)^2}$$

Superposition of waves is created leading to

$$\psi_3(x, y) = \psi_0 \sin(kr_1) + \psi_0 \sin(kr_2)$$

Given $\lambda = 5 \text{ cm}$, amplitude = 1 cm
of centers of circles 20 cm apart
~~and~~, we can plot the waves

Bring up 1-ripples.py

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The Mandelbrot set is a fractal, containing structure within structure.

Let c be a complex number
then for some $z \in \mathbb{C}$, compute

$$z' = z^2 + c$$

keep repeating calculation, plugging
in z' as z .

Mandelbrot set M defined as

Let $c \in \mathbb{C}$ & $z = 0$ & iterate
as above repeatedly. If

~~if~~ $|z| > 2$ then $c \notin M$.

otherwise $c \in M$.

would need to iterate this infinitely
many times, but in practice can just
run a finite # of iterations.

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Bring up 1-1-mandelbrot.py

Chap. 4 - Accuracy & speed

Computers have limitations,
both for storage & processing time
talk about these now because
they can seriously affect physics
calculations.

Variables & ranges

python cannot store numbers that
are arbitrarily large.

largest value for float is $\approx 10^{308}$
& $\approx -10^{308}$

real & imaginary parts of complexes
are limited by this as well.

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can specify large numbers w/
"e" for exponent. $2e9$ means 2×10^9

If value of variable exceeds largest
value, we say it has "overflowed"

e.g. if x holds something close to 10^{308}
& we write $y = 10^4 x$

then y will overflow.

Python sets it to special value inf
& treats it as if it is infinity.

smallest # is 10^{-308}

If you go smaller, the #
overflows & the computer
sets it equal to zero.

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For integers, Python uses arbitrary size allowable by your computer.

Comparison for factorial

Bring up 2-factorial-function

Numerical error

Numbers like π or $\sqrt{2}$

can only be represented approximately,

level of precision is 16 significant digits

For example,

$$\pi = 3.141592653589793238\dots$$

$$\text{in Python} = 3.141592653589793$$

$$\text{difference} = 0.0\dots$$

$$0.238\dots$$

⑦

difference is called rounding error

Numbers in a floating-point calculation are only guaranteed to have accuracy to 16 significant figures

execute `print(1.1 + 2.2)` in Python..

consequence \rightarrow

never use an if statement to test equality of floating point numbers.

Fig., never do

```
if x == 3.3:
    print(x)
```

should instead do

```
epsilon = 1e-12
```

```
if abs(x - 3.3) < epsilon:
    print(x)
```

choose ϵ appropriately for your situation

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If we execute

```
from math import sqrt  
x = sqrt(2)
```

we don't get $x = \sqrt{2}$ but
rather $x + \epsilon = \sqrt{2}$ or $x - \epsilon = \sqrt{2}$

we cannot necessarily count on ϵ
being small. How to model this
error?

if a number x is accurate to
16 digits, then rounding error will
have a typical size of $x/10^{16}$.

Because we're dividing up space into
uniform intervals, simplest model is
that error is a uniformly distributed
random variable.

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Recall that mean of uniform P.V.
on $[a, b]$ is $\frac{1}{2}(a+b)$ &
variance is $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12}(b-a)^2$ so that

st. dev. is $\sigma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{12}}(b-a)$

\Rightarrow st. dev. ^{error for} for a number x
w/ 16 significant digits will be

$$\sigma = Cx \quad \text{where} \quad C \approx 10^{-16}$$

error can grow if we add or
subtract, multiply or divide
numbers.

If we add two numbers, then
errors add & by assuming independent
errors, std. dev's sum

$$\sigma^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 \quad \text{so then by the above}$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{r_x^2 + r_y^2} = C\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$$

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results extend for addition of

N numbers x_1, \dots, x_N :

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N C^2 x_i^2$$

$$= C^2 N \bar{x}^2 \quad \text{where}$$

$$\bar{x}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i^2$$

is mean-square value of sequence

so std. dev. is

$$\sigma = C \sqrt{N} \bar{x}^2$$

\Rightarrow as N increases so does error, but goes as \sqrt{N} .

As an example, suppose that you are adding

$$x = 10 \dots 00$$

$$y = 10 \dots 01.23456789 \dots$$

Then computer will represent as

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$$x = 10 \dots \infty$$

$$y = 10 \dots 01.2$$

$$\Rightarrow y - x = 1.2$$

very different from true value
& can lead to problems

Another example:

take $x = 1$

$$y = 1 + 10^{-14} \sqrt{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow 10^{14} (y - x) = \sqrt{2}$$

Bring up 3-error.py

calculation only accurate to first
decimal place.

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Example w/ calculating derivatives

Mathematical definition of
derivative of $f(x)$:

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+\delta) - f(x)}{\delta}$$

can get a reasonable approximation
by making δ small (but not too
small)

Ex. , suppose $f(x) = x(x-1)$

+ we want value of derivative
@ $x=1$.

$$\text{Then } \frac{df(x)}{dx} \Big|_{x=1} = 2x-1 \Big|_{x=1} = 1$$

can write computer program for this

Bring up ³⁻¹ ~~3~~-derivative.py

Program speed

Computers are limited in speed. However, they are fast & can handle a million operations easily. A billion could take minutes or ~~seconds~~ hours, so author suggests as a rough guide that a computer can handle a billion or less.

As example, consider quantum simple harmonic oscillator w/ energy levels

$$E_n = \hbar \omega (n + 1/2) \text{ for } n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Average energy @ temperature T

$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} E_n e^{-\beta E_n}$$

where $\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$ is inverse temperature

$$Z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta E_n}$$

partition function

Suppose we want to calculate E when $k_B T = 100$.

Since we have an exponential falloff w/ increasing n , we can get a reasonable approximation by taking n large, say $n=1000$

Take units $\hbar = \omega = 1$,

Bring up 4-qsho.py

Features of program:

1. constants are defined at the beginning
2. only one "for" to calculate two sums
3. Even though $e^{-\beta E_n}$ occurs in both sums,

can increase number of terms to get more accurate answer, but then there is a trade-off between time & accuracy.

Should do an estimate for how long it will take a calculation to run before doing it.

Another example: matrix multiplication

How to multiply two matrices

$A + B$ together?

Bring up `S-matrix-multiply.py`

What is the complexity of

this simple algorithm for matrix multiplication?

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3 nested "for" loops

innermost one has N iterations
of multiplications, for a total of
 $2N$ operations

nested inside of two for loops
that each go around N
times, giving a total of
 $2 \cdot N^3$ operations

so if $N=1000$, that would
be two billion operations, which
would require a few minutes
of running time...

then if $N=2000$, we need
16 billion ops & becomes more
difficult.

There is an algorithm called Strassen's algorithm for matrix multiplication which brings complexity down to $N^{2.8}$, which can be much faster for large matrices. Area of open research to figure out what the optimal exponent is.

Best exponent known is 2.3729... but only useful for matrices that are too large to handle on present day computers

(This is due to Francis Le Gall, quantum computational theorist)