

# NUMBERS, APPROXIMATIONS, and BISECTION

(download slides and .py files to follow along)

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6.0001 LECTURE 3

Eric Grimson

# Last Time

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- new data structure – strings
- iteration and loops – while, for
- guess and check algorithms

# Today

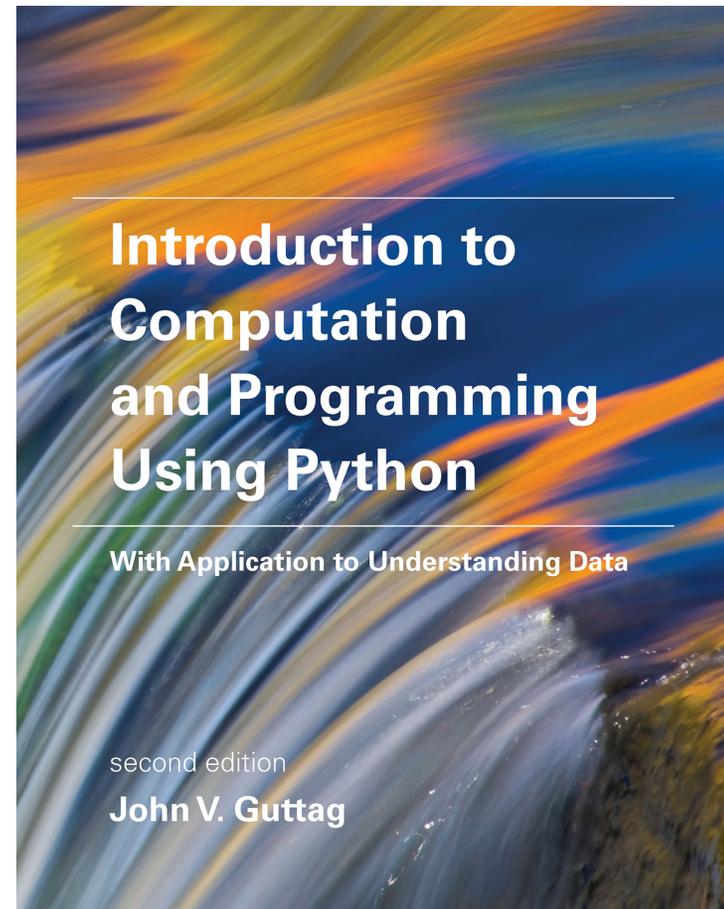
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- a short digression:
  - representing numbers
- approximate solutions
- guess & check algorithms using approximations
- bisection methods

# Assigned Reading



- Today:
  - Sections 3.3 – 3.5
- Next lecture:
  - Section 4.1 – 4.3



See <https://mitpress.mit.edu/books/introduction-computation-and-programming-using-python-second-edition> for errata sheet

# Numbers in Python

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- **int:** integers, (or whole numbers), like the ones you learned about in elementary school
- **float:** ~~reals, (or numbers with digits after the decimal point), like the ones you learned about in middle school~~



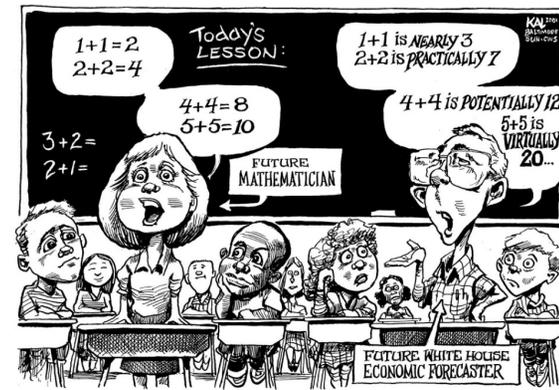
# A Closer Look at Floats

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- Python (and all programming languages) uses “floating point” to **approximate** real numbers
- The term “floating point” refers to way these numbers are stored in computer (more later about this)
- You would hope that approximating real numbers in computations usually shouldn't matter

**But “usually shouldn't matter” is another way of saying what?**

# Does approximation matter?



```
x = 0
```

```
for i in range(10):
```

```
    x += 0.1
```

```
print(x == 1)
```

```
print(x, '==', 10*0.1)
```

**Note:**  
 $x += 0.1$   
is the same as  
 $x = x + 0.1$

**Is it "close enough for government work"?**

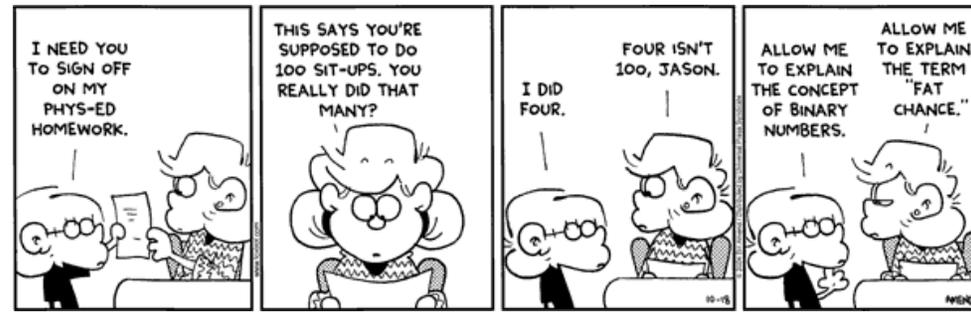
**So, approximating real numbers matters!  
Adding 10 instances of 0.1 is not the same as multiplying 10 by 0.1?**

# Why?

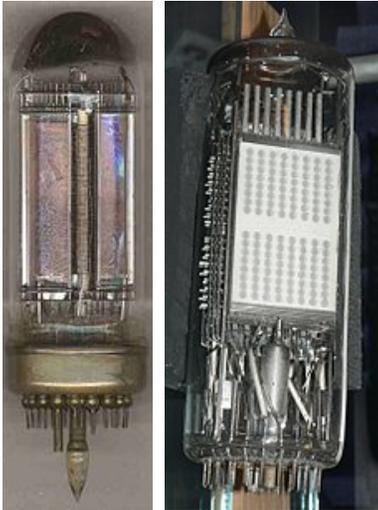


- Representation of floating point numbers is function of computer hardware, not programming language implementation
- Usual representation: standard called IEEE 754 floating point
- Key things to understand
  - In all modern computers, numbers (and everything else) are represented as a **sequence of bits** (0 or 1). Think of these as binary numbers (i.e., base 2)
  - When **we** write numbers down, we are using a notation designed to express rational numbers using base 10. E.g., 0.1 stands for the rational number  $1/10$
  - This produces **cognitive dissonance** – and it will influence how we write code

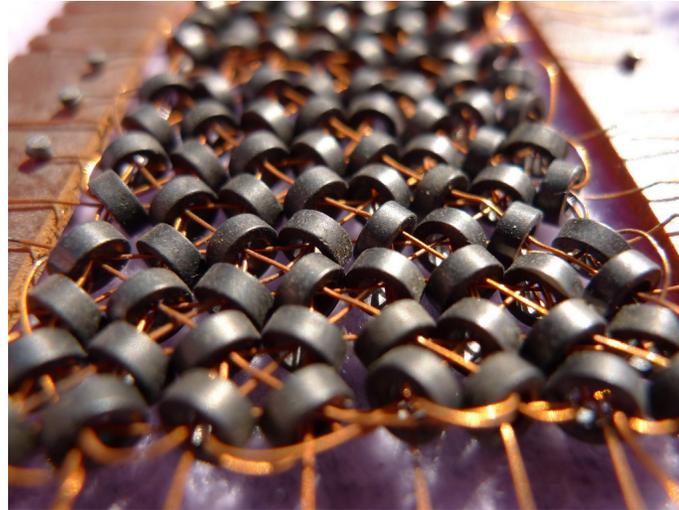
# Why Binary?



- Easy to implement in hardware—build components that can be in **one** of **two** states



4096 bit; 256 bit  
\$2.00 per bit



Core  
memory

1960 (\$0.62/bit) - 1971 (\$0.004/bit)

What does a bit of dynamic RAM cost today? \$0.0000000002/bit

There are only 10 types  
of people in the world:  
Those who understand binary  
and those who don't.

# Binary Numbers

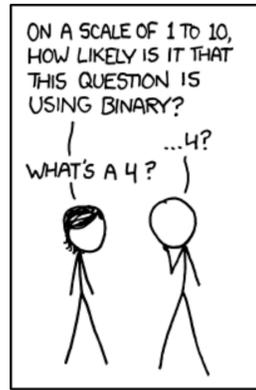
- Base 10 representation of an integer
  - sum of powers of 10, scaled by integers from 0 to 9

$$1507 = 1 * 10^3 + 5 * 10^2 + 0 * 10^1 + 7 * 10^0$$
$$= 1000 + 500 + 7$$

- Binary representation is same idea in base 2
  - sum of powers of 2, scaled by integers from 0 to 1

$$1507_{10} = 1 * 2^{10} + 1 * 2^8 + 1 * 2^7 + 1 * 2^6 + 1 * 2^5 + 1 * 2^1 + 1 * 2^0$$
$$= 1024 + 256 + 128 + 64 + 32 + 2 + 1$$
$$= 10111100011_2$$

# Converting Decimal Integer to Binary



- We input integers in decimal form, computer needs to convert to binary, so it can store/manipulate the numbers

- Consider example of

- $x = 19_{10} = 1 \cdot 2^4 + 0 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 10011$

- If we take remainder of x relative to 2 (  $19 \% 2$  in our example ), that gives us the smallest binary digit (bit)

- If we then integer divide x by 2 (  $19 // 2$  in our example), all the bits get shifted right

- $19 // 2 = 1 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 1001$

- Repeat on the remainder; this gets next bit, and new remainder, and so on

- Let's us convert to binary form

# Doing this in Python

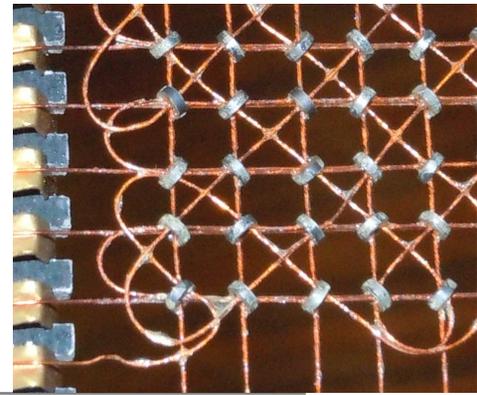


```
if num < 0:
    isNeg = True
    num = abs(num)
else:
    isNeg = False

result = ''
if num == 0:
    result = '0'
while num > 0:
    result = str(num%2) + result
    num = num//2
if isNeg:
    result = '-' + result
```

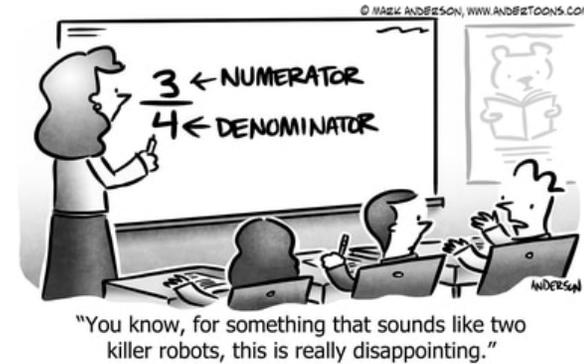
Note: this gives us a result as a string, but idea holds for numbers

# Hardware Implementation



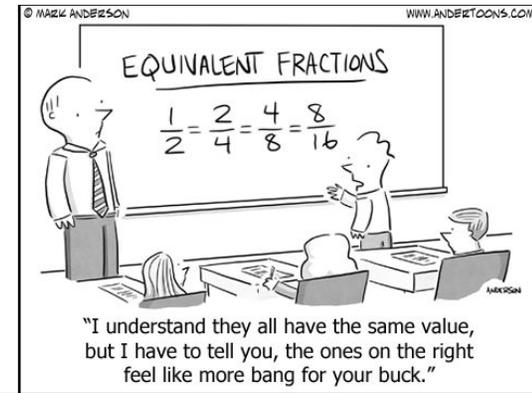
- Computer hardware is built around methods that can efficiently store information as 0's or 1's (a voltage is “high” or “low”; or a magnetic spin is “up” or “down”) and that can efficiently perform arithmetic operations on such representations
- Fine for integer arithmetic
- But what about numbers with fractional parts (floats)?

# Fractions



- What does the decimal fraction  $0.abc$  mean?
  - $a \cdot 10^{-1} + b \cdot 10^{-2} + c \cdot 10^{-3}$
- For binary representation, we use the same idea (where  $a, b, c$  are either 0 or 1)
  - $a \cdot 2^{-1} + b \cdot 2^{-2} + c \cdot 2^{-3}$
- Or to put in simpler terms, the binary representation of a decimal fraction  $f$  would require finding the values of  $a, b, c$ , etc. (all either 0 or 1) such that
  - $f = 0.5a + 0.25b + 0.125c + 0.0625d + 0.03125e + \dots$

# What About Fractions?



- How might we find that representation?
- In decimal form:  $\frac{3}{8} = 0.375 = 3 \cdot 10^{-1} + 7 \cdot 10^{-2} + 5 \cdot 10^{-3}$
- If we can multiply by a power of 2 big enough to turn into a whole number, can convert to binary (using previous method), and then divide by the same power of 2 to restore
- $0.375 * (2^{**3}) = 3_{10}$
- Convert 3 to binary, yielding  $11_2$
- Divide by  $2^{**3}$  (shift right three spots) to get  $0.011_2$

Check:  $0.011_2$  is  $\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{3}{8}$

```
x = float(input('Enter a decimal number between 0 and 1: '))
```

```
p = 0
while ((2**p)*x)%1 != 0:
    print('Remainder = ' + str((2**p)*x - int((2**p)*x)))
    p += 1
```

Find power  
of 2 to  
make  
integer

```
num = int(x*(2**p))
```

Convert to  
int

```
result = ''
if num == 0:
    result = '0'
while num > 0:
    result = str(num%2) + result
    num = num//2
```

Encode as  
binary  
number

```
for i in range(p - len(result)):
    result = '0' + result
```

Pad front  
with 0's

```
result = result[0:-p] + '.' + result[-p:]
```

Insert  
decimal

```
print('The binary representation of the decimal ' + str(x) + ' is  
' + str(result))
```

# But ...



- Why did display of remainder suddenly jump from simple fraction to number with a bunch of zeroes and a tiny additional amount?
- I am assuming that the representation for the decimal fraction I provided as input is completely accurate and not already an approximation as a result of number being read into Python
- Moreover, if there is no integer  $p$  such that  $x \cdot (2^{**}p)$  is a whole number, then internal representation is **always** an approximation, and I can't find the exact binary representation
- Hence, while the floating point conversion will work precisely for numbers like  $3/8$ , it will not work for numbers like  $1/10$ 
  - The first example has a power of 2 that converts to whole number, the second one doesn't



# Why is this a problem?

- What does the decimal representation 0.125 mean?
  - $1 \cdot 10^{-1} + 2 \cdot 10^{-2} + 5 \cdot 10^{-3}$
- Suppose we want to represent it in binary?
  - $1 \cdot 2^{-3}$  **0.001 (only need a few bits)**
- How about the representation 0.1?
  - In base 10:  $1 \cdot 10^{-1}$
  - In base 2: ? **0.0001100110011001100110011... goes on forever**

**Any finite number of bits gives us an approximation**

# And the point is?



- If everything ultimately is represented in terms of bits, we need to think about how to use binary representation to capture numbers
- Integers are straightforward
- But real numbers (things with digits after the decimal point) are a problem:
  - Have to somehow **approximate** the potentially infinite binary sequence of bits needed to represent them
  - **MORE IMPORTANTLY**, have to consider how approximation of numbers will impact algorithm design

I used to hate math, but then I realized decimals have a point.

# Floating Point Numbers

- Floating point representation is a **pair of integers**
  - Consists of a set of significant digits and a base 2 exponent
  - $(1, 1) \rightarrow 1 * 2^1 \rightarrow 10_2 \rightarrow 2.0$
  - $(1, -1) \rightarrow 1 * 2^{-1} \rightarrow 0.1_2 \rightarrow 0.5$
  - $(125, -2) \rightarrow 125 * 2^{-2} \rightarrow 11111.01_2 \rightarrow 31.25$
- The maximum number of significant digits governs the precision with which numbers can be represented
  - When exceeded, numbers are rounded
- Most modern computers use 32 bits to represent significant digits, so error will only be on order of  **$2 * 10^{-10}$**

Called "floating point" because location of decimal can "float" relative to significant digits

...and i should care,  
why?

*After all,  $10^{-10}$  is a pretty  
small number, isn't it?*

# Because You Can Get Surprising Results



```
x = 0
for i in range(10):
    x += 0.125
print(x == 1.25)
```

**True**

```
x = 0
for i in range(10):
    x += 0.1
print(x == 1)
```

**False**

```
print(x, '==', 10*0.1)
```

**0.9999999999999999 == 1.0**

# The Moral of the Story



**Never, ever, use == to test floats**

Instead test whether they are within small amount of each other

What gets **printed** isn't always what is in **memory**

Need to be careful in **designing algorithms** that use floats, to account for approximate representations of numbers

# Effect of approximation on our algorithms?

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- Exact answer may not be accessible
- Need to find ways to decide when we have a “good enough” answer – is it close enough to ideal answer?
- Need ways to deal with fact that exhaustive enumeration can’t test every possible value, since set of possible guesses to check is in principle infinite

# Finding Roots

- Last lecture we looked at using guess & check methods to find the **roots of perfect squares**
- Suppose we want to find the square root of any positive integer, or any positive number
  - Answer may no longer be an integer, so need to change how we generate guesses
  - Answer may not be found exactly, so need to change how decide when we are done
- Back to original question: What does it mean to find the square root of  $x$ ?
  - Find an  $r$  such that  $r*r = x$  ?
  - If  $x$  is not a perfect square, then not possible in general to find an exact  $r$  that satisfies this relationship, but may find an  $r$  so that  $|r*r - x|$  is small



Find the root of a perfect food (truffle)

# Approximation



- Find an answer that is “good enough”
  - E.g., find a  $r$  such that  $r*r$  is within a given (small) distance of  $x$
  - By tradition, use epsilon for distance, so given  $x$  we want to find  $r$  such that  $|r^2 - x| < \epsilon$
- Algorithm
  - Start with guess **known to be too small** – call it  $g$
  - Increment by some small value – call it  $a$  – to give a new guess  $g$
  - Check if  $g**2$  is close enough to  $x$  (within  $\epsilon$ )
  - Continue until get answer close enough to actual answer
- Essentially, we are looking at all **values  $g + k*a$**  for positive integer values of  $k$  – so similar to exhaustive enumeration
  - May not find exact answer because of choice of  $k$ , initial value of  $g$

# Approximation Algorithms



- In this case, we have two parameters to set – epsilon (how close are we to answer?) and increment (how much to increase our guess?)
- Performance will vary based on these values
  - In speed
  - In accuracy
- Decreasing increment size  $\rightarrow$  slower program, but more likely to get closer to real answer
- Increasing epsilon  $\rightarrow$  less accurate answer, but faster program

# Implementation

---

```
x = 36
epsilon = 0.01
numGuesses = 0
ans = 0.0
increment = 0.0001
```

```
while abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
    ans += increment
    numGuesses += 1
```

```
print('numGuesses =', numGuesses)
```

```
if abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
    print('Failed on square root of', x)
else:
    print(ans, 'is close to square root of', x)
```

*Why do we think that loop will terminate?*

*Note: ans += increment is same as ans = ans + increment*

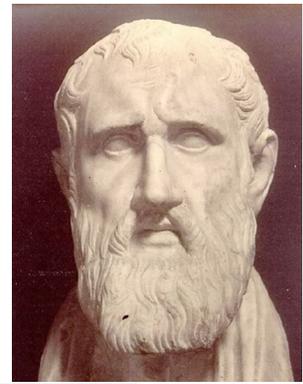
# Reasoning About Loop Termination

- Define a decremting function
  - Function maps variable(s) in program to a number
  - Show that value of function starts out  $\geq 0$
  - Show that value is decreased each time loop body is executed
  - Show that loop is exited when value is  $\leq 0$



**Is “decreased each time” strong enough to guarantee termination?**

# Reasoning About Loop Termination



Zeno of Elea: 495BC – 425 BC

- Zeno's paradox
  - Achilles gives a tortoise a head start in a race
  - Both run at different constant speeds
  - By time Achilles reaches tortoise's starting point, tortoise has moved further distance
  - Repeat argument
  - Thus, Achilles can never catch tortoise



Decrementing function should be decreased each time in a way that guarantees that it reaches 0 in a finite number of steps

# Approximation Algorithms

---

```
x = 36
epsilon = 0.01
numGuesses = 0
ans = 0.0
increment = 0.0001
while abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
    ans += increment
    numGuesses += 1
print('numGuesses =', numGuesses)
if abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
    print('Failed on square root of', x)
else:
    print(ans, 'is close to square root of', x)
```

Function: map ans to  
 $\text{abs}(\text{ans}^2 - x) - \text{epsilon}$

Initial value > 0?

Yes:  $x - \text{epsilon}$

Decrement by positive amount  
each iteration?

Yes: from  $x - \text{ans}^2$   
to  $x - (\text{ans} + \text{increment})^2$

# Approximation Algorithms

---

```
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while abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
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else:
    print(ans, 'is close to square root of', x)
```

*Hint: this test is not  
monotonic in ans*

Does decrementing function  
always eventually make this  
true?

Will this test ever  
return True?

**We should run it, and check**

# Some Observations

---

- Didn't find 6
- Took about 60,000 guesses
- Let's try:
  - 24
  - 2
  - 12345
  - 54321



# Let's Debug It



99 little bugs in the code.  
99 little bugs in the code.  
Take one down, patch it around.  
  
127 little bugs in the code...

```
x = 54321
epsilon = 0.01
numGuesses = 0
ans = 0.0
increment = 0.0001
while abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
    ans += increment
    numGuesses += 1
    if numGuesses%100000 == 0:
        print('Current guess =', ans)
        print('Current guess**2 - x =', abs(ans*ans - x))
print('numGuesses =', numGuesses)
if abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
    print('Failed on square root of', x)
else:
    print(ans, 'is close to square root of', x)
```

# Some Observations

---



- Decrementing function eventually starts incrementing
  - So didn't exit loop as expected
- We have over-shot the mark
  - I.e., we jumped from a value too far away but too small to one too far away but too large
- We didn't account for this possibility when writing the loop
- Let's fix that



# Let's Debug It

```
x = 54321
epsilon = 0.01
numGuesses = 0
ans = 0.0
increment = 0.0001
while abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon and ans**2 <= x:
    ans += increment
    numGuesses += 1
    if numGuesses%50000 == 0:
        print('Current guess =', ans)
        print('Current guess**2 - x =',
              abs(ans*ans - x))
print('numGuesses =', numGuesses)
if abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
    print('Failed on square root of', x)
else:
    print(ans, 'is close to square root of', x)
```

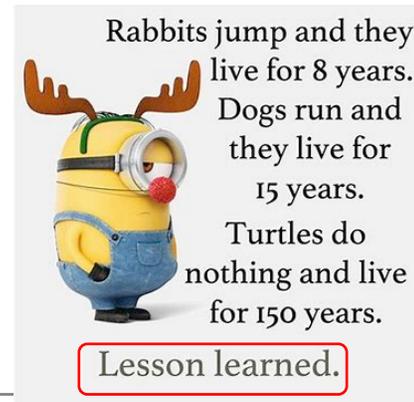
# Some Observations



- Decrementing function eventually starts incrementing
- We have over-shot the mark
- We didn't account for this possibility when writing the loop
- Let's fix that
- Now it stops, but reports failure, because it has over-shot the answer
- Let's try resetting increment to 0.00001

*How many iterations of loop?*

# Lessons Learned in Approximation Algorithms



- Need to be careful that looping mechanism doesn't jump over exit test and loop forever
- Tradeoff exists between efficiency of algorithm and accuracy of result
- Need to think about how close an answer we want when setting parameters of algorithm
- To find a good answer, this method can be painfully slow
  - Is there a faster way that still gets good answers?

# Five Minute Break

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# Chance to Win Bucks

- Suppose I attach a hundred dollar bill to a particular page in the text book
- If you can guess page in 8 or fewer guesses, you get the “Benjamin”
- If you fail, you lose a late day
- Would you want to play?
  - Hint: the book is 447 pages long
- Now suppose on each guess I told you whether you were correct, or too low or too high
- Would you want to play in this case?

*Your chances are about 1 in 56*

*Your chances are about 1 in 3*

447 <sup>1</sup>→ 223 <sup>2</sup>→ 111 <sup>3</sup>→ 55 <sup>4</sup>→ 27 <sup>5</sup>→ 13 <sup>6</sup>→ 6 <sup>7</sup>→ 3



# Bisection Search

---

- Suppose we are given a problem where there is an inherent order to the range of possible answers, and that there is a maximum and minimum possible so that the range of possible answers forms a coherent interval
- Thus we know answer lies within some interval
  - Guess midpoint of interval
  - If not answer, then check if answer is greater than or less than midpoint
  - Change interval
  - Repeat
- Process cuts set of things to check in half at each stage
  - Exhaustive search reduces set of possible answers from  $N$  to  $N-1$  on each step; bisection search reduces from  $N$  to  $N/2$

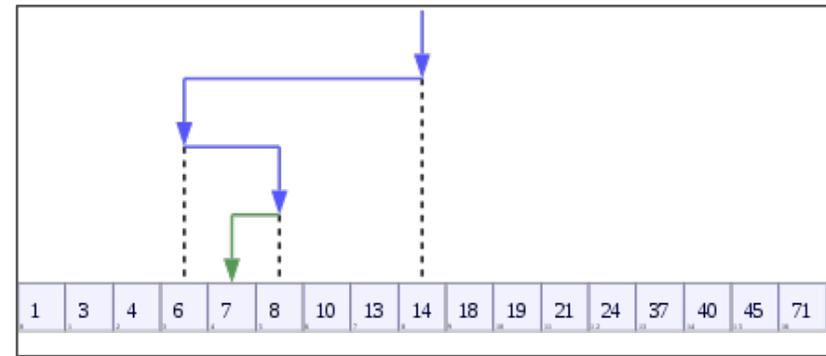
# Log Growth Is Better



- Process cuts set of things to check in half at each stage
  - Characteristic of a logarithmic growth
- We can replace the algorithm that is linear in the number of possible guesses with one is that logarithmic on the number of possible guesses
  - This should be much more efficient

*We will see discussion of  
relative costs of different  
algorithms in a few weeks*

# Bisection Search

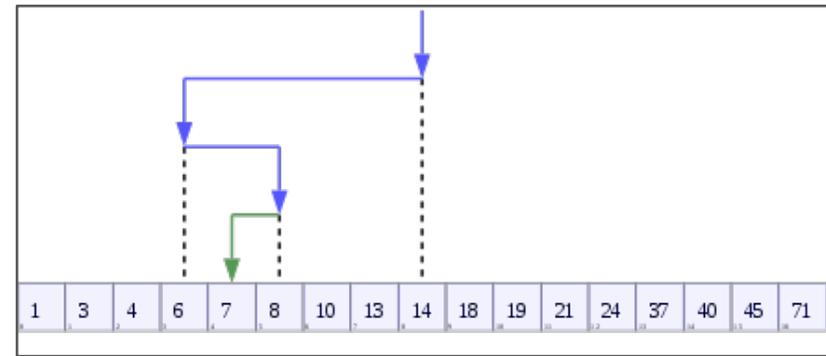


- Suppose we are looking for square root of  $x$ , so we know that the answer lies between  $0$  and  $x$
- Rather than exhaustively trying things starting at  $0$ , suppose instead we pick a number in the middle of this range

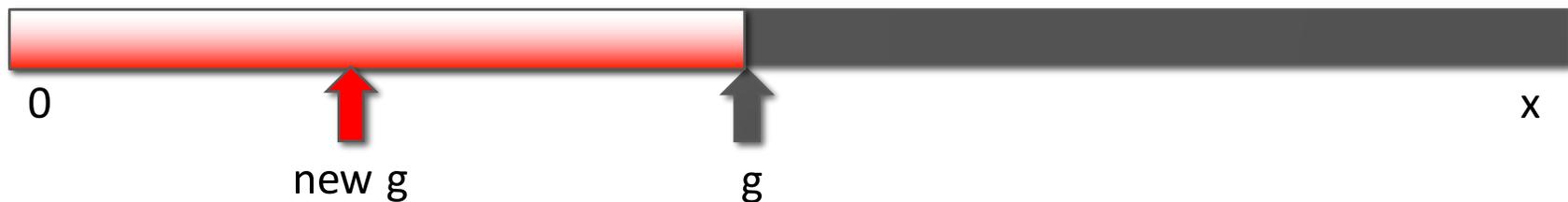


- If we are lucky, this answer is close enough

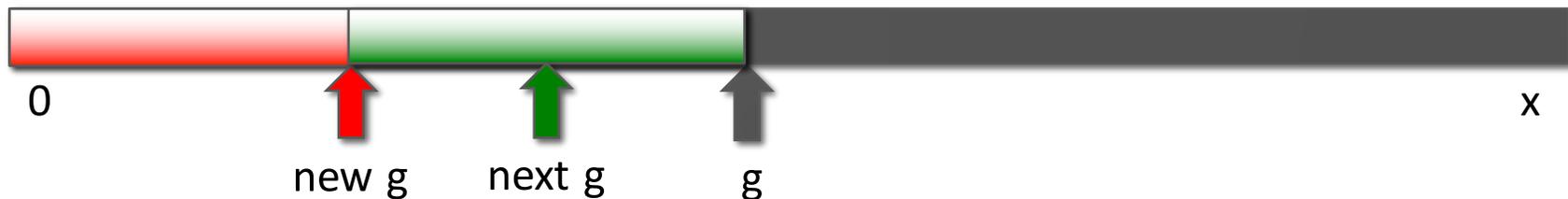
# Bisection Search



- If not close enough, is guess too big or too small?
- If  $g^2 > x$ , then know  $g$  is too big; so now search

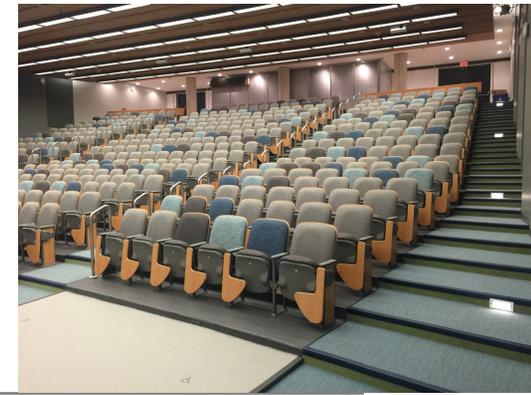


- And if, for example, this new  $g$  is such that  $g^2 < x$ , then know too small; so now search



- At each stage, reduce range of values to search by half
- Replace algorithm that is linear in the number of possible guesses with one that is logarithmic in the number of possible guesses

# An analogy



- Suppose we forced you to sit in alphabetical order in 26-100, from front left corner to back right corner
- To find a particular student, I could ask the person in the middle of the hall their name
- Based on the response, I can either dismiss the back half or the front half of the entire hall
- And I repeat that process until I find the person I am seeking

$$\sqrt{-4} = 2$$

It's all fun and games  
until someone loses an *i*.

# Fast Square Root

```
x = 54321
epsilon = 0.01
numGuesses = 0
low = 0.0
high = x
ans = (high + low)/2
while abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
    print('low = ' + str(low) + ' high = ' + str(high) \
          + ' ans = ' + str(ans))
    numGuesses += 1
    if ans**2 < x:
        low = ans
    else:
        high = ans
    ans = (high + low)/2.0
print('numGuesses = ' + str(numGuesses))
print(str(ans) + ' is close to square root of ' + str(x))
```



# Log Growth Is Better!



- Brute force search for root of 54321 took over 23M guesses
- With bisection search, reduced to 30 guesses!
- We'll spend more time on this later, but we say the brute force method is **linear** in size of problem, because number to steps grows linearly as we increase problem size
- Bisection search is **logarithmic** in size of problem, because number of steps grows logarithmically with problem size
  - search space (if finding root of  $x$ , with step of size  $a$ , then  $N = x/a$ )
  - first guess:  $N/2$
  - second guess:  $N/4$
  - $k^{\text{th}}$  guess:  $N/2^k$
  - done when  $N/2^k$  is 1; or in roughly  $k = \log_2 N$  steps

# Bisection Search: Cube Root



```
cube = 27
epsilon = 0.01
numGuesses = 0
low = 0
high = cube
ans = (high + low)/2.0
while abs(ans**3 - cube) >= epsilon:
    if ans**3 < cube:
        low = ans
    else:
        high = ans
    ans = (high + low)/2.0
    numGuesses += 1
print('numGuesses =', numGuesses)
print(ans, 'is close to the cube root of', cube)
```

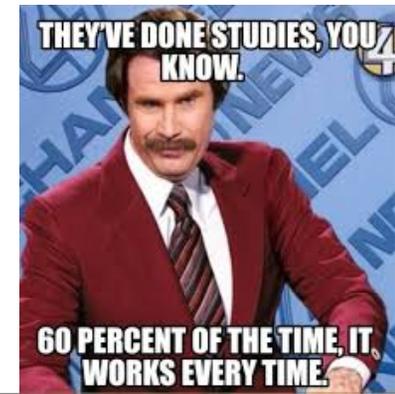
$$\sqrt{-4} = 2$$

It's all fun and games  
until someone loses an  $i$ .

# Fast Square Root

```
x = 0.5
epsilon = 0.01
numGuesses = 0
low = 0.0
high = x
ans = (high + low)/2
while abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
    print('low = ' + str(low) + ' high = ' + str(high) \
          + ' ans = ' + str(ans))
    numGuesses += 1
    if ans**2 < x:
        low = ans
    else:
        high = ans
    ans = (high + low)/2.0
print('numGuesses = ' + str(numGuesses))
print(str(ans) + ' is close to square root of ' + str(x))
```

*For what values of x does this work?*



# Does it always work?

- Try running code for  $x$  such that  $0 < x < 1$
- If  $x < 1$ , we are searching from 0 to  $x$  but know square root is greater than  $x$  and less than 1
- Modify the code to choose the search space depending on value of  $x$
- As we will see in a later lecture, careful thought about test cases is important in ensuring that algorithm performs as expected on all legal inputs

```

x = 0.5
epsilon = 0.01
numGuesses = 0
if x >= 1:
    low = 1.0
    high = x
else:
    low = x
    high = 1.0
ans = (high + low)/2

while abs(ans**2 - x) >= epsilon:
    print('low = ' + str(low) + ' high = ' + str(high)\
          + ' ans = ' + str(ans))
    numGuesses += 1
    if ans**2 < x:
        low = ans
    else:
        high = ans
    ans = (high + low)/2.0
print('numGuesses = ' + str(numGuesses))
print(str(ans) + ' is close to square root of ' + str(x))

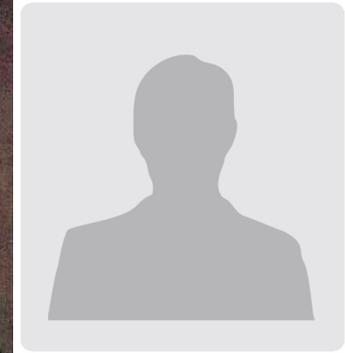
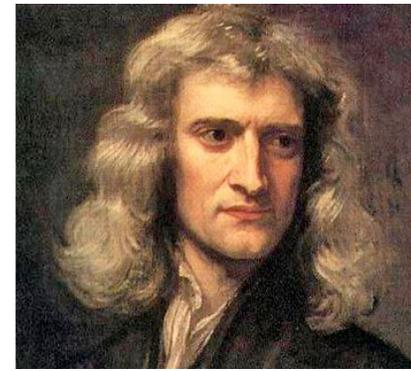
```

# Some Observations



- Bisection search radically reduces computation time – being smart about generating guesses is important
- Search space gets smaller quickly at the beginning and then more slowly (in absolute terms, but not as a fraction of search space) later
  - Can see tradeoff between accuracy and speed
- Works on problems with “ordering” property – value of function being solved varies monotonically with input value
  - Here function is  $\text{ans}^{**2}$ ; which grows as  $\text{ans}$  grows
- Can we do this even more efficiently?

# Newton-Raphson

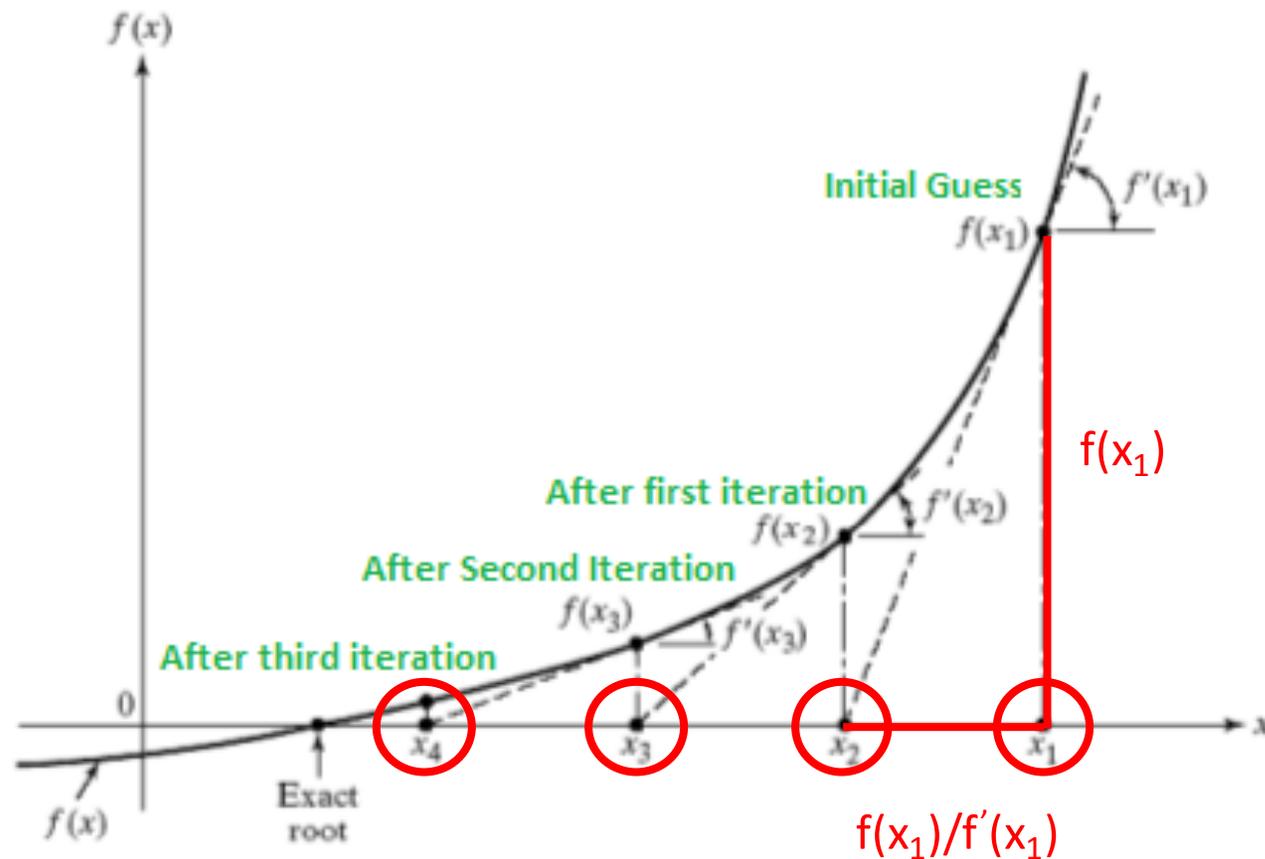


- General approximation algorithm to find roots of a polynomial in one variable

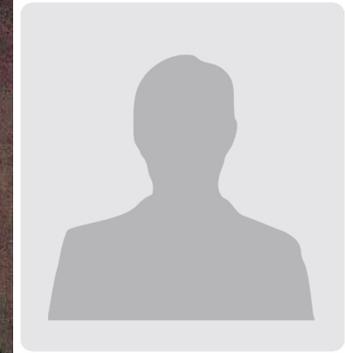
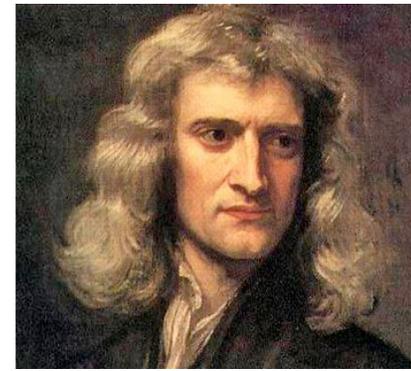
$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

- Want to find  $r$  such that  $f(r) = 0$
- For example, to find the square root of 24, find the root of  $f(x) = x^2 - 24$
- Newton developed method in 1685; method created sequence of polynomials, whose final solution is the desired root
- Raphson developed a much cleaner method that found successive approximations to the root, published in 1690
- We really use Raphson's method, but Newton (being much more famous) also gets credit (often method is just referred to as Newton's method, even though we use Raphson's version)

# Intuition for Newton-Raphson



# Newton-Raphson



- General approximation algorithm to find roots of a polynomial in one variable

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

- Raphson showed that if  $g$  is an approximation to the root, then

$$g - f(g)/f'(g)$$

is a better approximation; where  $f'$  is derivative of  $f$

# Newton-Raphson Root Finder

---

- Simple case:  $cx^2 + k$
- First derivative:  $2cx$
- So if polynomial is  $x^2 - k$ , then derivative is  $2x$
- Newton-Raphson says given a guess  $g$  for root of  $k$ , a better guess is

$$g - (g^2 - k)/2g$$

# Newton-Raphson Root Finder

---

- Another way of generating guesses, which we can check; very efficient

```
epsilon = 0.01
```

```
y = 24.0
```

```
guess = y/2.0
```

```
numGuesses = 0
```

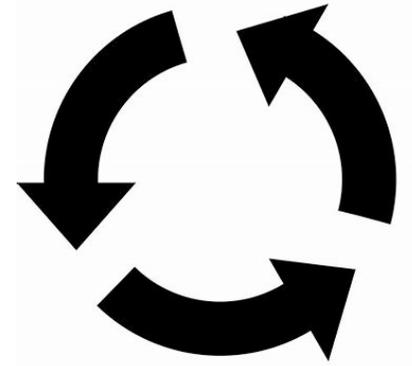
```
while abs(guess*guess - y) >= epsilon:
```

```
    numGuesses += 1
```

```
    guess = guess - (((guess**2) - y)/(2*guess))
```

```
print('numGuesses = ' + str(numGuesses))
```

```
print('Square root of ' + str(y) + ' is about ' + str(guess))
```

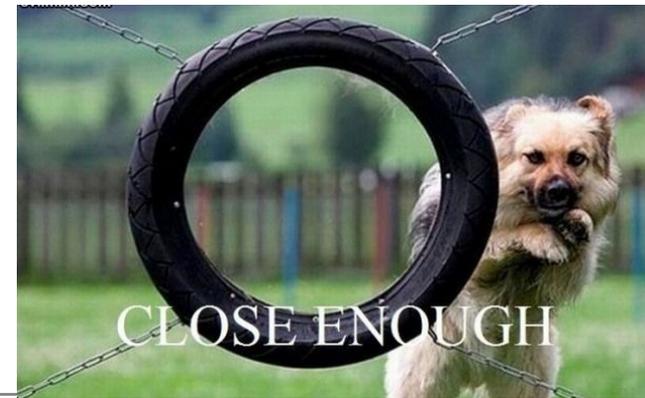


# Iterative Algorithms

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- Guess and check methods build on reusing same code
  - Use a looping construct to generate guesses, then check and continue
  
- Generating guesses
  - Exhaustive enumeration
  - Bisection search
  - Newton-Raphson (for root finding)

# Summary



- For many problems, cannot find exact answer; need to seek “good enough” answer using approximations
- When testing floating point numbers (e.g., as part of an approximate answer), important to understand how computer represents these in binary, and why we use “close enough” and not “==”
- Bisection search is a great way to reduce a linear algorithm to a logarithmic one