Numerical errors in computer simulations

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Numerical Methods (6E5X0), 2022-2023

Today's outline

Introduction

- Introduction
- Roundoff and truncation errors
- Break errors
- Loss of digits
- (Un)stable methods
- Symbolic math
- Summary



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Introduction

Start your spreadsheet program (Excel, ...)



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Enter:

Cell	Value
A1	0.1



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A1	0.1
A2	=(A1*10)-0.9



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(repeat until A30)



Introduction

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Enter:

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A1	0.1
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A3	=(A2*10)-0.9
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(repeat until A30)

What's happening?



Introduction

Start your spreadsheet program (Excel, ...)

Enter:

Call

Cell	value
A1	0.1
A2	=(A1*10)-0.9
A3	=(A2*10)-0.9
A4	=(A3*10)-0.9

1/21...

Enter:

Cell	Value
A1	2

(repeat until A30)

What's happening?



Introduction

Example 1

Start your spreadsheet program (Excel, ...)

Enter:

Cell	Value
A1	0.1
A2	=(A1*10)-0.9
А3	=(A2*10)-0.9
A4	=(A3*10)-0.9

Enter:

Value
2
=(A1*10)-18
=(A2*10)-18
=(A3*10)-18

(repeat until A30)

(repeat until A30)

What's happening?



Start Matlab



Introduction

Start Matlab

Investigate the result of sin(1e40 * pi)



Introduction

Start Matlab

Investigate the result of sin(1e40 * pi)

Create a vector v containing the powers of 10, e.g. from 10^0 up to 10^{40} and solve sin(v * pi):



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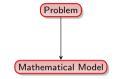
Verification and validation

Problem



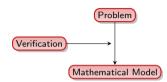
Verification and validation

Introduction





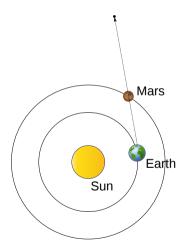
Verification and validation



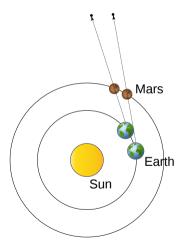
Verification

Verification is the process of mathematically and computationally assuring that the model computes the equations you intended to implement.

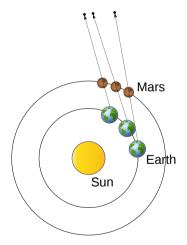




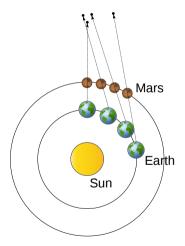




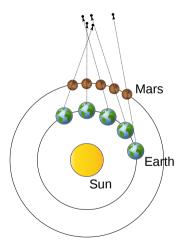




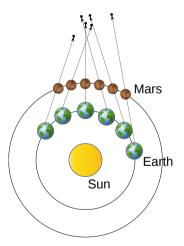




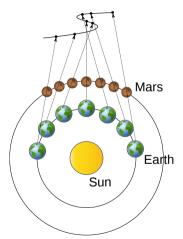


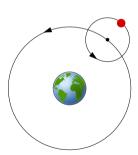




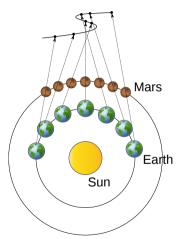


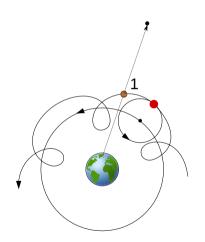




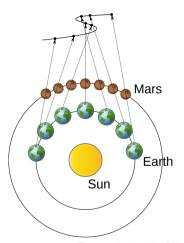


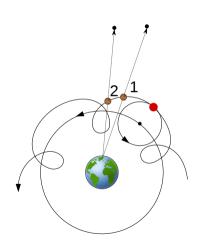




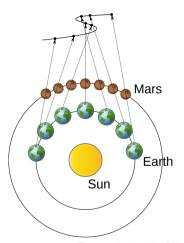


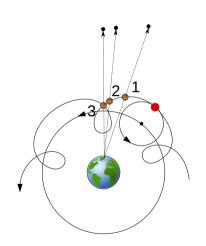




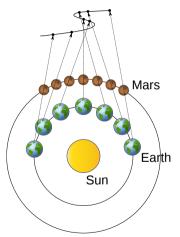


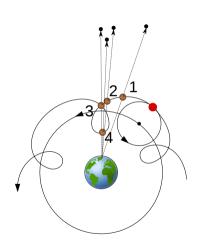




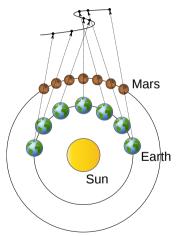


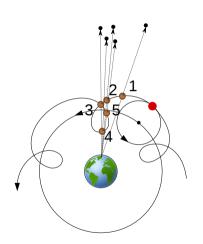




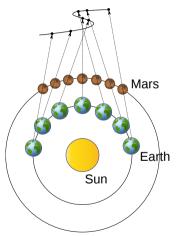


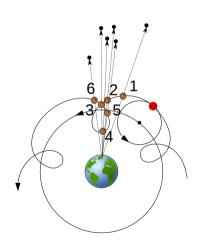




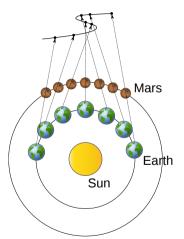


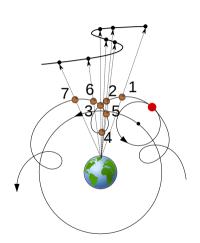












- The perceived orbit of Mars from Earth shows a zig-zag (in contrast to the Sun, Mercury, Venus)
- Even though they were not 'right', Earth-centered models (Ptolemy) were still valid



Be aware of your uncertainties

Aleatory uncertainty

Uncertainty that arises due to inherent randomness of the system, features that are too complex to measure and take into account

Epistemic uncertainty

Uncertainty that arises due to lack of knowledge of the system, but could in principle be known



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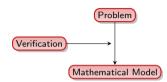


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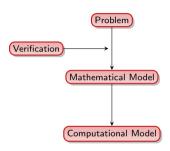




Verification

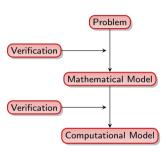


Verification





Verification





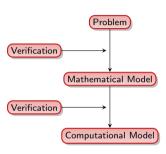
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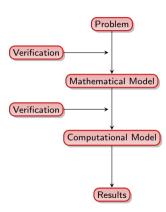


Verification





Verification



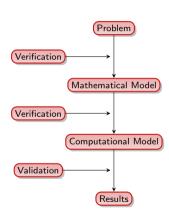


Verification

Verification is the process of mathematically and computationally assuring that the model computes the equations you intended to implement.

Validation

Validation is the process of determining the degree to which a model is an accurate representation of the real world from the perspective of the intended uses of the model





- Errors in the mathematical model (physics)
- Errors in the program (implementation)
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- Roundoff- and truncation errors



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Introduction

A numerical result \tilde{x} is an approximation of the real value x.

Absolute error

$$\delta = |\tilde{x} - x|, x \neq 0$$

• Relative error

$$\frac{\delta}{\tilde{x}} = |\frac{\tilde{x} - x}{\tilde{x}}|$$

• Error margin

$$\tilde{x} - \delta \le x \le \tilde{x} + \delta$$





Introduction 000000000000000

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• \tilde{x} has m significant digits if the absolute error in x is smaller or equal to 5 at the (m+1)-th position:

$$10^{q-1} \le |\tilde{x}| \le 10^q$$

$$|x - \tilde{x}| = 0.5 \times 10^{q-m}$$

• For example:

$$x = \frac{1}{3}, \tilde{x} = 0.333 \Rightarrow \delta = 0.00033333...$$

3 significant digits



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```
4 5 2 1

Number of 1's: 1 \times 10^{(0)}

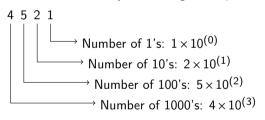
Number of 10's: 2 \times 10^{(1)}

Number of 100's: 5 \times 10^{(2)}

Number of 1000's: 4 \times 10^{(3)}
```



- Computers represent a number with a finite number of digits: each number is therefore an approximation due to roundoff and truncation errors.
- In the decimal system, a digit c at position n has a value of $c \times 10^{n-1}$



$$(4521)_{10} = 4 \times 10^3 + 5 \times 10^2 + 2 \times 10^1 + 1 \times 10^0$$



$$(4521)_{10} =$$

$$=$$
(



$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} +$$

$$=(1$$



$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} +$$

$$=(10$$



$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} + 0 \times 2^{10} +$$

$$=(100$$



$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} + 0 \times 2^{10} + 0 \times 2^9 + 0 \times 2^{10} + 0 \times 2$$

$$=(1000$$



$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} + 0 \times 2^{10} + 0 \times 2^9 + 1 \times 2^8 + \dots$$

$$=(10001$$



$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} + 0 \times 2^{10} + 0 \times 2^{9} + 1 \times 2^{8} + \dots$$
$$\dots 1 \times 2^{7} + \dots$$
$$= (100011)$$



$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} + 0 \times 2^{10} + 0 \times 2^{9} + 1 \times 2^{8} + \dots$$
$$\dots 1 \times 2^{7} + 0 \times 2^{6} + \dots$$
$$= (1000110)$$



$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} + 0 \times 2^{10} + 0 \times 2^{9} + 1 \times 2^{8} + \dots$$
$$\dots 1 \times 2^{7} + 0 \times 2^{6} + 1 \times 2^{5} + \dots$$
$$= (10001101)$$



$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} + 0 \times 2^{10} + 0 \times 2^9 + 1 \times 2^8 + \dots$$
$$\dots 1 \times 2^7 + 0 \times 2^6 + 1 \times 2^5 + 0 \times 2^4 + \dots$$
$$= (100011010$$



$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} + 0 \times 2^{10} + 0 \times 2^{9} + 1 \times 2^{8} + \dots$$

$$\dots 1 \times 2^{7} + 0 \times 2^{6} + 1 \times 2^{5} + 0 \times 2^{4} + \dots$$

$$\dots 1 \times 2^{3} + \dots$$

$$= (1000110101$$



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$$\dots 1 \times 2^{3} + 0 \times 2^{2} + \dots$$

$$= (10001101010$$



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$$\dots 1 \times 2^{3} + 0 \times 2^{2} + 0 \times 2^{1} + \dots$$

$$= (1000110101000)$$



• You could use another basis, computers often use the basis 2:

$$(4521)_{10} = 1 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} + 0 \times 2^{10} + 0 \times 2^{9} + 1 \times 2^{8} + \dots$$

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$$= (1000110101001)_{2}$$



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$$= (1000110101001)_{2}$$

• In general:

$$(c_m \dots c_1 c_0)_q = c_0 q^0 + c_1 q^1 + \dots + c_m q^m, c \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, q - 1\}$$



- Numbers are stored in binary in the memory of a computer, in segments of a specific length (called a *word*).
- We distinguish multiple types of numbers:
 - Integers: -301, -1, 0, 1, 96, 2293,...
 - Floating points: -301.01, 0.01, 3.14159265, 14498.2
- A binary integer representation looks like the following bit sequence:

$$z = \sigma (c_0 2^0 + c_1 2^1 + \dots + c_{\lambda - 1} 2^{\lambda - 1})$$

- σ is the sign of z (+ or -), and λ is the length of the word
- Endianness: the order of bits stored by a computer



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$$214_{10} = 11010110_2$$



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- Excel:
 - Decimal: =DEC2BIN(214)
 - Octal: =DEC20CT(214)
 - Hexadecimal: =DEC2HEX(214)



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- Excel:
 - Decimal: =DEC2BIN(214)
 - Octal: =DEC20CT(214)
 - Hexadecimal: =DEC2HEX(214)
- Matlab:
 - Decimal: dec2bin(214)
 - Other base: dec2base(214, <base>)



$$0+0=0 \\ 0+1=1 \\ 1+0=1 \\ 1+1=0 \text{ (carry one)}$$



$$0+0=0$$

 $0+1=1$
 $1+0=1$
 $1+1=0$ (carry one)



$$0+0=0$$

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$$\begin{array}{l} 0+0=0 \\ 0+1=1 \\ 1+0=1 \\ 1+1=0 \text{ (carry one)} \end{array}$$



Addition:

$$0+0=0$$

 $0+1=1$
 $1+0=1$
 $1+1=0$ (carry one)

Subtraction:

$$0-0=0$$

 $1-0=1$
 $1-1=0$
 $0-1=1$ (borrow one)



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 $1-1=0$
 $0-1=1$ (borrow one)

Multiplication and division are more expensive, and more elaborate



Command	Result
intmin	-2147483648



Command	Result
intmin	-2147483648
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intmin	-2147483648
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whos i	int16 information
i = i + 100	i = 32767



Result
-2147483648
2147483647
i = 32767
int16 information
i = 32767
1.7977e+308



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intmin	-2147483648
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<pre>i = int16(intmax)</pre>	i = 32767
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format long e	



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whos f	double information
format long e	
realmax	1.797693134862316e+308
f	



Command	Result
intmin	-2147483648
intmax	2147483647
<pre>i = int16(intmax)</pre>	i = 32767
whos i	int16 information
i = i + 100	i = 32767
realmax	1.7977e+308
f = 0.1	
whos f	double information
format long e	
realmax	1.797693134862316e+308
f	
fprintf("%0.16f",f)	0.1000000000000000



Command	Result
intmin	-2147483648
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f = 0.1	
whos f	double information
format long e	
realmax	1.797693134862316e+308
f	
fprintf("%0.16f",f)	0.1000000000000000
fprintf("%0.20f",f)	0.1000000000000000555



• In Matlab, integers of the type int32 are represented by 32-bit words ($\lambda = 31$).



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- How can a computer identify an overflow?



Representation of real (floating point) numbers

• Formally, a real number is represented by the following bit sequence

$$x = \sigma (2^{-1} + c_2 2^{-2} + \dots + c_m 2^{-m}) 2^{e-1023}$$

Here, σ is the sign of x and e is an integer value.

 A floating point number hence contains sections that contain the sign, the exponent and the mantissa

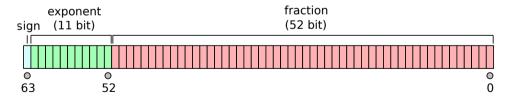


Image: Wikimedia Commons CC by-SA



Representation of real (floating point) numbers

• Example: $\lambda = 3$, m = 2, $x = \frac{2}{3}$

$$x = \pm \left(2^{-1} + c_2 2^{-2}\right) 2^e$$

- $c_0 \in \{0, 1\}$
- $e = \pm a_0 2^0$
- $a_0 \in \{0, 1\}$
- Truncation: $fI(x) = 2^{-1} = 0.5$
- Round off: $f(x) = 2^{-1} + 2^{-2} = 0.75$



Today's outline

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- Break errors
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- (Un)stable methods
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- Summary



- Processors can do logic and arithmetic instructions
- Trigonometric, logarithmic and exponential calculations are "higher-level" functions: exp, sin, cos, tan, sec, arcsin, arccos, arctan, log, ln, ...
- Such functions can be performed using these "low level" instructions, for instance using a Taylor series:

$$\sin(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} x^{2n+1} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$$
$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{x!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$$



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- These operations involve many multiplications and additions, and are therefore expensive
- \bullet Computations can only take finite time, for infinite series, calculations are interrupted at N

$$\sin(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} x^{2n+1} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^N}{(2N+1)!} x^{2N+1}$$

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{x^n}{x!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots + \frac{x^N}{N!}$$

This results in a break error



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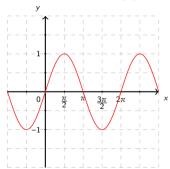
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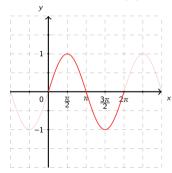






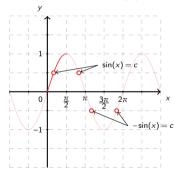
A computer may use a clever algorithm to limit the number of operations required to perform a higher-level function. A (fictional!) example for the computation of sin(x):

1 Use periodicity so that $0 \le x \le 2\pi$



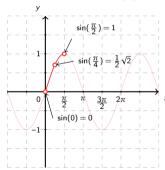


- **1** Use periodicity so that $0 \le x \le 2\pi$
- **2** Use symmetry $(0 \le x \le \frac{\pi}{2})$



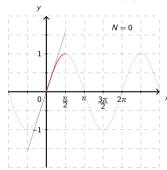


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- Use lookup tables for known values



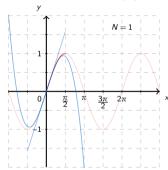


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- 4 Perform taylor expansion



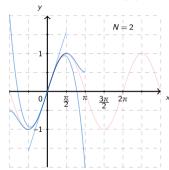


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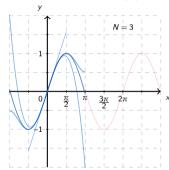


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Loss of digits

- During operations such as $+, -, \times, \div$, an error can add up
- Consider the summation of x and y

$$\tilde{x} - \delta \leq x \leq \tilde{x} + \delta \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{y} - \varepsilon \leq y \leq \tilde{y} + \varepsilon$$

$$(\tilde{x} + \tilde{y}) - (\delta + \varepsilon) \le x + y \le (\tilde{x} + \tilde{y}) + (\delta + \varepsilon)$$



$$x = \pi, \tilde{x} = 3.1416$$

 $y = 22/7, \tilde{y} = 3.1429$





$$\begin{cases}
x = \pi, \tilde{x} = 3.1416 \\
y = 22/7, \tilde{y} = 3.1429
\end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases}
\delta = \tilde{x} - x = 7.35 \times 10^{-6} \\
\varepsilon = \tilde{y} - y = 4.29 \times 10^{-5}
\end{cases}$$

$$x + y = \tilde{x} + \tilde{y} \pm (\delta + \varepsilon) \approx 6.2845 - 5.025 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$x - y = \tilde{x} - \tilde{y} \pm (\delta + \varepsilon) \approx -0.0013 + 3.55 \times 10^{-5}$$

- The absolute error is small ($\approx 10^{-5}$), but the relative error is much bigger (0.028).
- Adding up the errors results in a loss of significant digits!



- Calculate e^{-5}
 - Use the Taylor series
 - Calculate the first 26 terms (N = 26)
- Now repeat the calculation, but use for each calculation only 4 digits. What do you find?
- Without errors you would find: $e^{-5} = 0.006738$
- If you only use 4 digits in the calculations, you'll find 0.00998



- Calculate e^{−5}
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 - Calculate the first 26 terms (*N* = 26)
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 Use: str2double(sprintf('%.4g', term))
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Badly (ill) conditioned problems

We consider a system F(x,y) that computes a solution from input data. The input data may have errors:

$$F(x,y) = 0$$
 (Without errors)



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$$\begin{array}{c}
x \\
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\end{array}
\qquad \begin{array}{c}
y \\
\text{(Without errors)}$$

$$\xrightarrow{x + \delta x} F(x + \delta x, y + \delta y) = 0$$

$$\xrightarrow{y + \delta y} \text{(With errors)}$$



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$$\xrightarrow{y + \delta y} \text{(With errors)}$$

$$y(x+\delta x)-y(x)\approx y'(x)\delta x$$

$$C = \max_{\delta x} \left(\left| \frac{\delta y/y}{\delta x/x} \right| \right)$$

Condition criterion, C < 10 error development small



Solve the following linear system in Matlab using double and single precision:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1.2969 & 0.8648 \\ 0.2161 & 0.1441 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8642 \\ 0.1440 \end{bmatrix}$$



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Double precision



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Double precision

Single precision

```
>> clear; clc; format long e;
>> A = single(
    [[1.2969 0.8648];
    [0.2161 0.1441]] );
>> x = single(
    [0.8642; 0.1440] );
>> y = A\x
y =
    1.3331791e+00
    -1.0000000e+00
```



Matlab already warned us about the bad condition number:

```
Warning: Matrix is close to singular or badly scaled. Results may be inaccurate. RCOND = 1.148983e -08.
```

- The RCOND is the reciprocal condition number
- A small error in x results in a big error in y. This is called an ill conditioned problem.



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(Un)stable methods

- The condition criterion does not tell you anything about the quality of a numerical solution method!
- It is very well possible that a certain solution method is more sensitive for one problem than another
- If the method propagates the error, we call it an *unstable method*. Let's look at an example.



• Let's evaluate the following recurrent relationship:

$$y_{n+1} = y_{n-1} - y_n$$

$$y_0 = 1$$
, $y_1 = \frac{2}{1 + \sqrt{5}}$

• You can prove (by substitution) that:

$$y_n = x^{-n}$$
, $n = 0, 1, 2, ...$, $x = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$



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Recurrent version

```
% initialise
y(1) = 1;
y(2) = 2 / (1 + sqrt(5));

% Perform recurrent approach
for n = 2:39
    y(n+1) = y(n-1)-y(n);
end
```



Recurrent version

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% initialise
y(1) = 1;
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% Perform recurrent approach
for n = 2:39
    y(n+1) = y(n-1)-y(n);
end
```

Powerlaw version

```
% initialise
x = (1 + sqrt(5))/2;
y2(1) = x^0; % n = 1

% Perform powerlaw apprach
for n = 0:39
    y2(n+1) = x^-n
end
```



n	Recurrent	Powerlaw
1	1.0000	1.0000
1	0.6180	0.6180
2	0.3820	0.3820
3	0.2361	0.2361
37	$3.080 \cdot 10^{-08}$	$2.995 \cdot 10^{-08}$
38	$1.714 \cdot 10^{-08}$	$1.851 \cdot 10^{-08}$
39	$1.366 \cdot 10^{-08}$	$1.144\cdot 10^{-08}$
40	$3.485 \cdot 10^{-08}$	$7.071 \cdot 10^{-09}$

• The recurrent approach enlarges errors from earlier calculations!



n	Recurrent	Powerlaw
1	1.0000	1.0000
1	0.6180	0.6180
2	0.3820	0.3820
3	0.2361	0.2361
37	$3.080 \cdot 10^{-08}$	$2.995 \cdot 10^{-08}$
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Example 1: Explanation

Recall example 1, where the errors blew up our computation of 0.1, whereas they did not for 2. Why did we see these results?



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Recall example 1, where the errors blew up our computation of 0.1, whereas they did not for 2. Why did we see these results?

- The number 0.1 is not exactly represented in binary
 - A tiny error can accumulate up to catastrophic proportions!
- The number 2 does have an exact binary representation



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Recall example 1, where the errors blew up our computation of 0.1, whereas they did not for 2. Why did we see these results?

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Example 2 (large sine series)

The $\sin(1e40*pi)$ result gives poor results, because 1e40 has an error of eps, about 1×10^{-14} . In Matlab, the number of $2*\pi$ cycles is still much larger than $10^{40}*10^{-14}$. Also, π is not stored with enough digits.



Start your calculation program of choice (Excel, Matlab, ...)



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Calculate the result of y:

$$y = e^{\pi} - \pi$$



Start your calculation program of choice (Excel, Matlab, ...)

Calculate the result of y:

$$y = e^{\pi} - \pi = 19.999099979$$



Start your calculation program of choice (Excel, Matlab, ...)

Calculate the result of *y*:

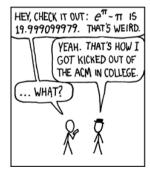
$$y = e^{\pi} - \pi = 19.999099979 \neq 20$$



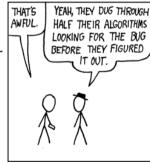
Start your calculation program of choice (Excel, Matlab, ...)

Calculate the result of y:

$$y = e^{\pi} - \pi = 19.999099979 \neq 20$$



DURING A COMPETITION, I TOLD THE PROGRAMMERS ON OUR TEAM THAT e^{π} - π WAS A STANDARD TEST OF FLOATING-POINT HANDLERS -- IT WOULD COME OUT TO 20 UNLESS THEY HAD ROUNDING ERRORS. I





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Symbolic math packages

Definition

The use of computers to manipulate mathematical equations and expressions in symbolic form, as opposed to manipulating the numerical quantities represented by those symbols.

- Symbolic integration or differentiation, substitution of one expression into another
- Simplification of an expression, change of subject etc.
- Packages and toolboxes:



Symbolic math packages

Mathematica Well known software package, license available via TU/e

Maple Well known, license available via TU/e

Wolfram Alpha Web-based interface by Mathematica developer. Less powerful in mathematical respect, but more accessible and has a broad application range (unit conversion, semantic commands).

Sage Open-source alternative to Maple, Mathematica, Magma, and MATLAB.

Matlab Symbolic math toolbox



$$f(x) = (x-1)(x+1)(x^2+1)+1$$



$$f(x) = (x-1)(x+1)(x^2+1) + 1$$

```
>> syms x
>> f = (x - 1)*(x + 1)*(x^2 + 1) + 1
```



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>> syms x
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(x^2 + 1)*(x - 1)*(x + 1) + 1
```



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```
>> syms x
>> f = (x - 1)*(x + 1)*(x^2 + 1) + 1
f =
(x^2 + 1)*(x - 1)*(x + 1) + 1
>> f2 = simplify(f)
```



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```
>> syms x
>> f = (x - 1)*(x + 1)*(x^2 + 1) + 1
f =
(x^2 + 1)*(x - 1)*(x + 1) + 1
>> f2 = simplify(f)
f2 =
x^4
```



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^3 + 1}$$



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^3 + 1}$$

```
>> syms x
>> f = 1/(x^3+1);
>> my_f_int = int(f)
```



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^3 + 1}$$

```
>> syms x
>> f = 1/(x^3+1);
>> my_f_int = int(f)
my_f_int = log(x + 1)/3 - log((x - 1/2)^2 + 3/4)/6 + (3^(1/2)*atan((2*3^(1/2)*(x - 1/2)))
    /3))/3
```



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^3 + 1}$$

```
>> syms x
>> f = 1/(x^3+1);
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    /3))/3
>> my_f_diff = diff(my_f_int)
```



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^3 + 1}$$



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$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^3 + 1}$$



Exercise 1

Simplify the following expression:

$$f(x) = \frac{2\tan x}{(1+\tan^2 x)}$$



Exercise 1

Simplify the following expression:

$$f(x) = \frac{2\tan x}{(1+\tan^2 x)} = \sin 2x$$

>> simplify(2*tan(x)/(1 + tan(x)^2))



Exercise 1

Simplify the following expression:

$$f(x) = \frac{2\tan x}{(1+\tan^2 x)} = \sin 2x$$

 \Rightarrow simplify(2*tan(x)/(1 + tan(x)^2))

Exercise 2

Calculate the *value* of *p*:

$$p = \int_0^{10} \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{\sinh x} dx$$

Exercise 1

Simplify the following expression:

$$f(x) = \frac{2\tan x}{(1+\tan^2 x)} = \sin 2x$$

 \Rightarrow simplify(2*tan(x)/(1 + tan(x)^2))

Exercise 2

Calculate the *value* of *p*:

$$p = \int_0^{10} \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{\sinh x} dx$$

>> f = ((exp(x)- exp(-x))/sinh(x)); >> p = int(f,0,10) p = 20

Symbolic math: root finding

A root finding method searches for the values where a function reaches zero. We will cover the numerical methods later, here we show how to use root finding with symbolic math in Matlab.

Symbolic math function

$$f(x) = \frac{3}{x^2 + 3x} - 2$$



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```
>> syms x
>> f = 3 / (x^2 + 3*x) - 2;
>> solve(f)
ans =
15^(1/2)/2 - 3/2
- 15^(1/2)/2 - 3/2
```



Symbolic math toolbox: variable precision arithmetic

Variable precision can be used to specify the number of significant digits.



Today's outline

- Introduction
- Roundoff and truncation errors
- Break errors
- Loss of digits
- (Un)stable methods
- Symbolic math
- Summary



- Numerical errors may arise due to truncation, roundoff and break errors, which may seriously affect the accuracy of your solution
- Errors may propagate and accumulate, leading to smaller accuracy
- Ill-conditioned problems and unstable methods have to be identified so that proper
- Symbolic math computations may be performed to solve certain equations algebraically. bypassing numerical errors, but this is not always possible.



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