

# Numerical errors in computer simulations

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# Today's outline

- ① Introduction
- ② Roundoff and truncation errors
- ③ Break errors
- ④ Loss of digits
- ⑤ (Un)stable methods
- ⑥ Symbolic math
- ⑦ Summary

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Give this a thought!

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# Significant digits

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

- Absolute error

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

- Relative error

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

- Error margin

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

- For example:

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

3 significant digits

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# Representation of numbers

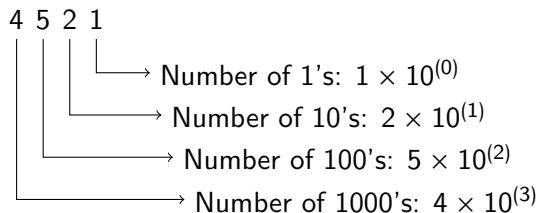
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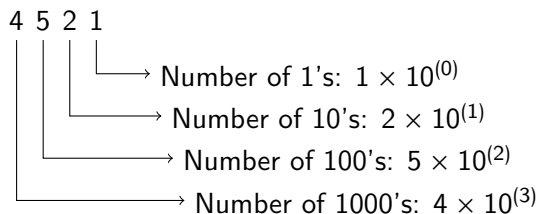
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$$(4521)_{10} = 4 \times 10^3 + 5 \times 10^2 + 2 \times 10^1 + 1 \times 10^0$$

# Representation of numbers

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- In general:

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

# Representation of numbers

- 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:  $-301, -1, 0, 1, 96, 2293, \dots$
  - Floating points:  $-301.01, 0.01, 3.14159265, 14498.2$
- A binary integer representation looks like the following bit sequence:

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

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  - Decimal: =DEC2BIN(214)
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- Matlab:
  - Decimal: dec2bin(214)
  - Other base: dec2base(214,<base>)

# Arithmetic operations with binary numbers

Addition:

$$0 + 0 = 0$$

$$0 + 1 = 1$$

$$1 + 0 = 1$$

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(carry one)

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- Multiplication and division are more expensive, and more elaborate

# Excercise

Try the following commands in Matlab:

| Command             | Result      |
|---------------------|-------------|
| <code>intmin</code> | -2147483648 |

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| <code>intmin</code>            | <code>-2147483648</code> |
| <code>intmax</code>            | <code>2147483647</code>  |
| <code>i = int16(intmax)</code> | <code>i = 32767</code>   |



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| <code>whos i</code>            | <code>int16 information</code> |

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| <code>whos i</code>            | <code>int16 information</code> |
| <code>i = i + 100</code>       | <code>i = 32767</code>         |
| <code>realmax</code>           | <code>1.7977e+308</code>       |

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| <code>intmax</code>            | <code>2147483647</code>        |
| <code>i = int16(intmax)</code> | <code>i = 32767</code>         |
| <code>whos i</code>            | <code>int16 information</code> |
| <code>i = i + 100</code>       | <code>i = 32767</code>         |
| <code>realmax</code>           | <code>1.7977e+308</code>       |
| <code>f = 0.1</code>           |                                |

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| <code>f = 0.1</code>           |                                 |
| <code>whos f</code>            | <code>double information</code> |

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|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <code>intmin</code>            | <code>-2147483648</code>        |
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| <code>f = 0.1</code>           |                                     |
| <code>whos f</code>            | <code>double information</code>     |
| <code>format long e</code>     |                                     |
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| <code>format long e</code>       |                                     |
| <code>realmax</code>             | <code>1.797693134862316e+308</code> |
| <code>f</code>                   |                                     |
| <code>fprintf("%0.16f",f)</code> | <code>0.1000000000000000</code>     |

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| <code>f</code>                   |                         |
| <code>fprintf("%0.16f",f)</code> | 0.10000000000000000     |
| <code>fprintf("%0.20f",f)</code> | 0.100000000000000000555 |

# Representation of integer numbers

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

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<sup>1</sup>Matlab does not perform actual integer overflows, it just stops at the maximum.

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- The set of numbers that an `int32`  $z$  can represent is:

$$-2^{31} \leq z \leq 2^{31} - 1 \approx 2 \times 10^9$$

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- How can a computer identify an overflow?

---

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# Representation of real (floating point) numbers

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

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

Here,  $\sigma$  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

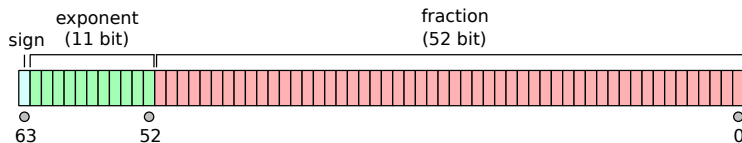


Image: [Wikimedia Commons CC by-SA](#)

# 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:  $fl(x) = 2^{-1} = 0.5$
- Round off:  $fl(x) = 2^{-1} + 2^{-2} = 0.75$



# Today's outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Roundoff and truncation errors
- 3 Break errors**
- 4 Loss of digits
- 5 (Un)stable methods
- 6 Symbolic math
- 7 Summary

# Trigonometric, Logarithmic, and Exponential computations

- 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:

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

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

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- These operations involve many multiplications and additions, and are therefore *expensive*
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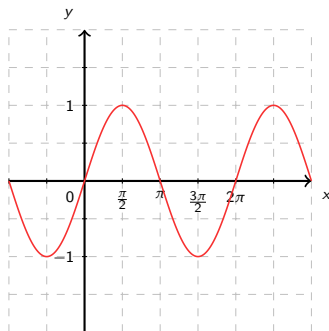
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# Algorithm for sine-computation

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  $\sin(x)$ :

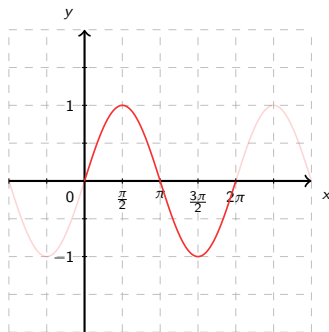




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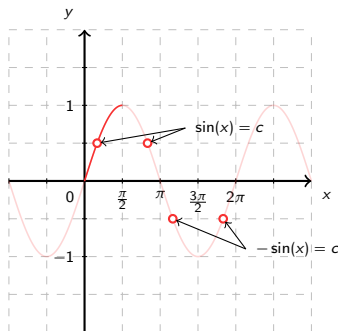
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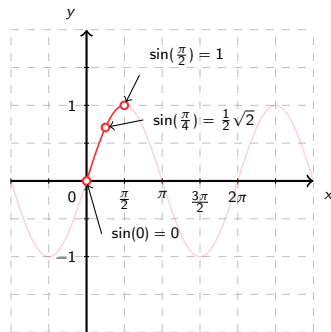
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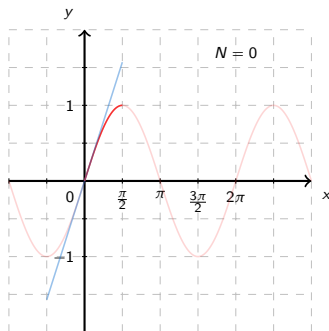
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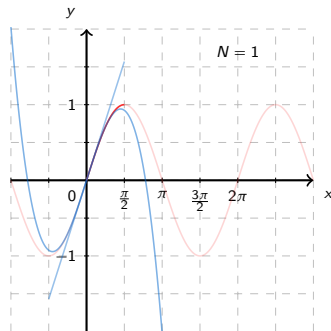
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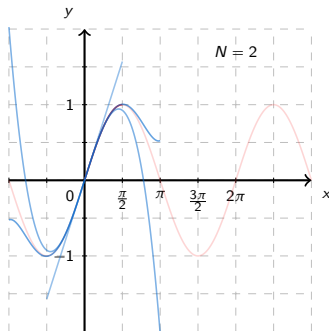
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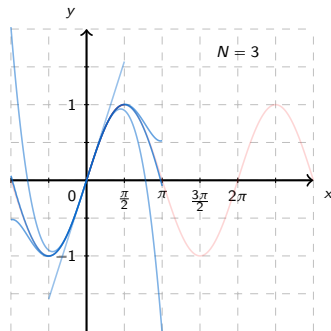
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- ④ Loss of digits
- ⑤ (Un)stable methods
- ⑥ Symbolic math
- ⑦ Summary



# Loss of digits

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

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

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

# Loss of digits: Example 1

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

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

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

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

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

- 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!

## Loss of digits: Example 2

- 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

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Use: `str2double(sprintf('%.4g', term))`
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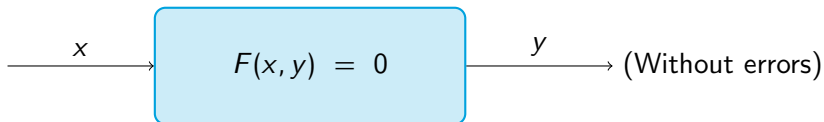
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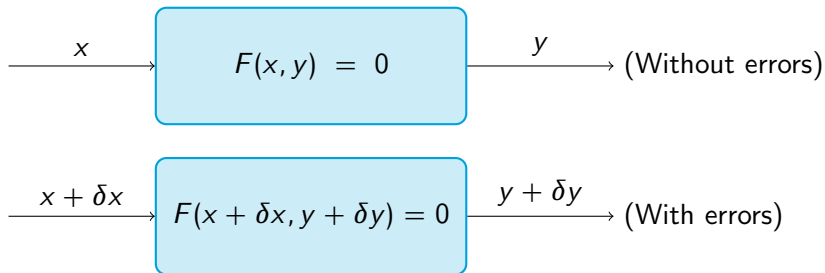
## Badly (ill) conditioned problems

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



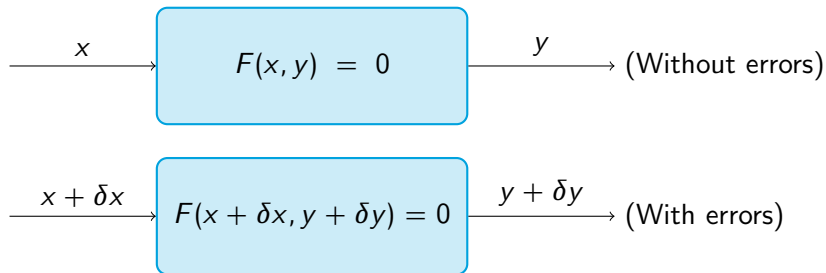
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$$y(x + \delta x) - y(x) \approx y'(x)\delta x$$

Propagated error on the basis of  
Taylor expansion

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

Condition criterion,  $C < 10$  error  
development small

## Badly (ill) conditioned problems: Example

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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>> clear;clc;format long e;  
>> A = [[1.2969 0.8648];  
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>> y = A\x  
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    1.3331791e+00  
   -1.0000000e+00
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# Badly (ill) conditioned problems: Example

- 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.



## Badly (ill) conditioned problems: Example

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Warning: Matrix is **close** to singular or badly scaled.  
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- 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.

## Badly (ill) conditioned problems: Example

- 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.
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# Today's outline

- ① Introduction
- ② Roundoff and truncation errors
- ③ Break errors
- ④ Loss of digits
- ⑤ (Un)stable methods**
- ⑥ Symbolic math
- ⑦ Summary

# (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.

# The Golden mean

- Let's evaluate the following recurrent relationship:

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

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

- You can prove (by substitution) that:

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

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# The Golden mean

## 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
```

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end
```

## Powerlaw version

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

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



# The Golden mean

| $n$ | 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  | $1.366 \cdot 10^{-08}$ | $1.144 \cdot 10^{-08}$ |
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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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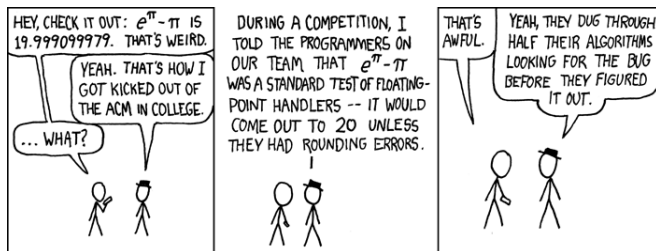


Image: [xkcd](#)

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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

# Symbolic math: simplify

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

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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)
```

```
f2 =
```

```
x^4
```

# Symbolic math: integration and differentiation

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



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```
>> 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

>> my_f_diff = diff(my_f_int)

my_f_diff = 1/(3*(x + 1)) + 2/(3*((4*(x - 1/2)^2)/3 +
          1)) - (2*x - 1)/(6*((x - 1/2)^2 + 3/4))

>> simplify(my_f_diff)

ans = 1/(x^3 + 1)
```

# Symbolic math: exercises

## Exercise 1

Simplify the following expression:

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

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Simplify the following expression:

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## 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
```

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### Function as a string

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```

## Function as a string

$$f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 2$$

```
>> solve('x^2 - 4*x + 2')
ans =
    2^(1/2) + 2
    2 - 2^(1/2)
```

## Symbolic math toolbox: variable precision arithmetic

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

```
>> p = vpa(1/3,16)
p = 0.3333333333333333
>> p = vpa(1/3,4)
p = 0.3333
>> a = vpa(0.1, 30)
a = 0.1
>> b = vpa(0.1, 5);
b = 0.1
>> a-b
```

```
ans = 0.000000000000000056843418860808014869689938467514
```

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- 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
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- Symbolic math computations may be performed to solve certain equations algebraically, bypassing numerical errors, but this is not always possible.

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