

# Mathematical preliminaries and error analysis

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# Outline

## 1 Round-off errors and computer arithmetic

- IEEE standard floating-point format
- Absolute and Relative Errors
- Machine Epsilon
- Loss of Significance

## 2 Algorithms and Convergence

- Algorithm
- Stability
- Rate of convergence



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*Solution:* To determine the binary representation for  $\frac{2}{3}$ , we write

$$\frac{2}{3} = (0.a_1a_2a_3\dots)_2.$$

Multiply by 2 to obtain

$$\frac{4}{3} = (a_1.a_2a_3 \dots)_2.$$

Therefore, we get  $a_1 = 1$  by taking the integer part of both sides.





Subtracting 1, we have

$$\frac{1}{3} = (0.a_2a_3a_4\dots)_2.$$

Repeating the previous step, we arrive at

$$\frac{2}{3} = (0.101010\dots)_2.$$





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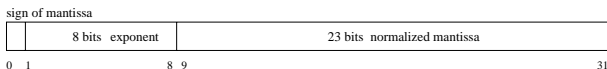
[illegible]

In 1985, the IEEE (Institute for Electrical and Electronic

- 



- The single precision IEEE standard floating-point format allocates 32 bits for the normalized floating-point number  $\pm q \times 2^m$  as shown in the following figure.



- [illegible]

- The first bit is a sign indicator, denoted  $s$ . This is followed by an 8-bit exponent  $c$  and a 23-bit mantissa  $f$ .
- The base for the exponent and mantissa is 2, and the actual exponent is  $c - 127$ . The value of  $c$  is restricted by the inequality  $0 \leq c \leq 255$ .



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- The actual exponent of the number is restricted by the inequality  $-127 \leq c - 127 \leq 128$ .
- A normalization is imposed that requires that the leading digit in fraction be 1, and this digit is not stored as part of the 23-bit mantissa.
- Using this system gives a floating-point number of the form

$$(-1)^s 2^{c-127} (1 + f).$$



## Example

What is the decimal number of the machine number

010000001010000000000000000000000?

- 1 The leftmost bit is zero, which indicates that the number is positive.

- 2 The next 8 bits, 10000001, are equivalent to

$$c = 1 \cdot 2^7 + 0 \cdot 2^6 + \cdots + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 129.$$

The exponential part of the number is  $2^{129-127} = 2^2$ .

- 3 The final 23 bits specify that the mantissa is

$$f = 0 \cdot (2)^{-1} + 1 \cdot (2)^{-2} + 0 \cdot (2)^{-3} + \cdots + 0 \cdot (2)^{-23} = 0.25.$$

- 4 Consequently, this machine number precisely represents the decimal number

$$(-1)^s 2^{c-127} (1 + f) = 2^2 \cdot (1 + 0.25) = 5.$$



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What is the decimal number of the machine number

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$$\begin{aligned} f &= 0 \cdot (2)^{-1} + 0 \cdot (2)^{-2} + 1 \cdot (2)^{-3} + \cdots + 1 \cdot (2)^{-23} \\ &= 0.2499998807907105. \end{aligned}$$

- ② Consequently, this machine number precisely represents the decimal number

$$\begin{aligned} (-1)^s 2^{c-127} (1 + f) &= 2^2 \cdot (1 + 0.2499998807907105) \\ &= 4.999999523162842. \end{aligned}$$



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**Example**

What is the decimal number of the machine number

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$$\begin{aligned} f &= 0 \cdot 2^{-1} + 1 \cdot 2^{-2} + 0 \cdot 2^{-3} + \cdots + 0 \cdot 2^{-22} + 1 \cdot 2^{-23} \\ &= 0.2500001192092896. \end{aligned}$$

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# Summary

## Above three examples

01000000010011111111111111111111111111111  $\Rightarrow$  4.999999523162842

01000000010100000000000000000000000000000  $\Rightarrow$  5

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- Only a relatively **small subset** of the real number system is used for the representation of all the real numbers.
- This subset, which are called the **floating-point numbers**, contains only rational numbers, both positive and negative.
- When a number can not be represented exactly with the fixed finite number of digits in a computer, a **near-by** floating-point number is chosen for approximate representation.



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## The smallest positive number

Let  $s = 0$ ,  $c = 1$  and  $f = 0$  which is equivalent to

$$2^{-126} \cdot (1 + 0) \approx 1.175 \times 10^{-38}$$

## The largest number

Let  $s = 0$ ,  $c = 254$  and  $f = 1 - 2^{-23}$  which is equivalent to

$$2^{127} \cdot (2 - 2^{-23}) \approx 3.403 \times 10^{38}$$

## Definition

If a number  $x$  with  $|x| < 2^{-126} \cdot (1 + 0)$ , then we say that an *underflow* has occurred and is generally set to zero.

If  $|x| > 2^{127} \cdot (2 - 2^{-23})$ , then we say that an *overflow* has occurred.



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# Double precision

- A floating point number in double precision IEEE standard format uses two words (64 bits) to store the number as shown in the following figure.



- The first bit is a sign indicator, denoted  $s$ . This is followed by an 11-bit exponent  $c$  and a 52-bit mantissa  $f$ .
- The actual exponent is  $c - 1023$ .



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## Format of floating-point number

$$(-1)^s \times (1 + f) \times 2^{c-1023}$$

### The smallest positive number

Let  $s = 0$ ,  $c = 1$  and  $f = 0$  which is equivalent to

$$2^{-1022} \cdot (1 + 0) \approx 2.225 \times 10^{-308}.$$

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Let  $s = 0$ ,  $c = 2046$  and  $f = 1 - 2^{-52}$  which is equivalent to

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# Chopping and rounding

For any real number  $x$ , let

$$x = \pm 1.a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots \times 2^m,$$

denote the normalized scientific binary representation of  $x$ .

- 1 **chopping**: simply discard the excess bits  $a_{t+1}, a_{t+2}, \dots$  to obtain

$$fl(x) = \pm 1.a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t \times 2^m.$$

- 2 **rounding**: add  $2^{-(t+1)} \times 2^m$  to  $x$  and then chop the excess bits to obtain a number of the form

$$fl(x) = \pm 1.\delta_1 \delta_2 \cdots \delta_t \times 2^m.$$

In this method, if  $a_{t+1} = 1$ , we add 1 to  $a_t$  to obtain  $fl(x)$ , and if  $a_{t+1} = 0$ , we merely chop off all but the first  $t$  digits.



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## Definition (Roundoff error)

The error results from replacing a number with its floating-point form is called *roundoff error* or *rounding error*.

## Definition (Absolute Error and Relative Error)

If  $x$  is an approximation to the exact value  $x^*$ , the *absolute error* is  $|x^* - x|$  and the *relative error* is  $\frac{|x^* - x|}{|x^*|}$ , provided that  $x^* \neq 0$ .

## Example

(a) If  $x = 0.3000 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $x^* = 0.3100 \times 10^{-3}$ , then the absolute error is  $0.1 \times 10^{-4}$  and the relative error is  $0.3333 \times 10^{-1}$ .

(b) If  $x = 0.3000 \times 10^4$  and  $x^* = 0.3100 \times 10^4$ , then the absolute error is  $0.1 \times 10^3$  and the relative error is  $0.3333 \times 10^{-1}$ .



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## Remark

As a measure of accuracy, the absolute error may be misleading and the relative error more meaningful.

## Definition

The number  $x^*$  is said to approximate  $x$  to  $t$  **significant digits** if  $t$  is the largest nonnegative integer for which

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## Absolute and Relative Errors

- If the floating-point representation  $fl(x)$  for the number  $x$  is obtained by using  $t$  digits and chopping procedure, then the relative error is

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{|x - fl(x)|}{|x|} &= \frac{|0.00 \cdots 0 a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots \times 2^m|}{|1.a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots \times 2^m|} \\ &= \frac{|0.a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots|}{|1.a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots|} \times 2^{-t}.\end{aligned}$$

The minimal value of the denominator is 1. The numerator is bounded above by 1. As a consequence

$$\left| \frac{x - fl(x)}{x} \right| \leq 2^{-t}.$$



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$$\begin{aligned}\frac{|x - fl(x)|}{|x|} &= \frac{|0.00 \cdots 0 a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots \times 2^m|}{|1.a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots \times 2^m|} \\ &= \frac{|0.a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots|}{|1.a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots|} \times 2^{-t}.\end{aligned}$$

The minimal value of the denominator is 1. The numerator is bounded above by 1. As a consequence

$$\left| \frac{x - fl(x)}{x} \right| \leq 2^{-t}.$$



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## Absolute and Relative Errors

- If  $t$ -digit rounding arithmetic is used and
  - $a_{t+1} = 0$ , then  $fl(x) = \pm 1.a_1a_2 \cdots a_t \times 2^m$ . A bound for the relative error is

$$\frac{|x - fl(x)|}{|x|} = \frac{|0.a_{t+1}a_{t+2} \cdots|}{|1.a_1a_2 \cdots a_t a_{t+1}a_{t+2} \cdots|} \times 2^{-t} \leq 2^{-(t+1)},$$

since the numerator is bounded above by  $\frac{1}{2}$  due to  $a_{t+1} = 0$ .

- $a_{t+1} = 1$ , then  $fl(x) = \pm(1.a_1a_2 \cdots a_t + 2^{-t}) \times 2^m$ . The upper bound for relative error becomes

$$\frac{|x - fl(x)|}{|x|} = \frac{|1 - 0.a_{t+1}a_{t+2} \cdots|}{|1.a_1a_2 \cdots a_t a_{t+1}a_{t+2} \cdots|} \times 2^{-t} \leq 2^{-(t+1)},$$

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## Definition (Machine epsilon)

The floating-point representation,  $fl(x)$ , of  $x$  can be expressed as

$$fl(x) = x(1 + \delta), \quad |\delta| \leq \varepsilon_M, \quad (1)$$

where  $\varepsilon_M \equiv 2^{-t}$  is referred to as the *unit roundoff error* or *machine epsilon*.

## Single precision IEEE standard floating-point format

The mantissa  $f$  corresponds to 23 binary digits (i.e.,  $t = 23$ ), the machine epsilon is

$$\varepsilon_M = 2^{-23} \approx 1.192 \times 10^{-7}.$$

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## Double precision IEEE standard floating-point format

The mantissa  $f$  corresponds to 52 binary digits (i.e.,  $t = 52$ ), the machine epsilon is

$$\varepsilon_M = 2^{-52} \approx 2.220 \times 10^{-16}.$$

which provides between 15 and 16 decimal digits of accuracy.

## Summary of IEEE standard floating-point format

	single precision	double precision
$\varepsilon_M$	$1.192 \times 10^{-7}$	$2.220 \times 10^{-16}$
smallest positive number	$1.175 \times 10^{-38}$	$2.225 \times 10^{-308}$
largest number	$3.403 \times 10^{38}$	$1.798 \times 10^{308}$
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## Machine Epsilon

- Let  $\odot$  stand for any one of the four basic arithmetic operators  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $*$ ,  $\div$ .
- Whenever two machine numbers  $x$  and  $y$  are to be combined arithmetically, the computer will produce  $fl(x \odot y)$  instead of  $x \odot y$ .
- Under (1), the relative error of  $fl(x \odot y)$  satisfies

$$fl(x \odot y) = (x \odot y)(1 + \delta), \quad \delta \leq \varepsilon_M, \quad (2)$$

where  $\varepsilon_M$  is the unit roundoff.

- But if  $x, y$  are not machine numbers, then they must first rounded to floating-point format before the arithmetic operation and the resulting relative error becomes

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# Example

Let  $x = 0.54617$  and  $y = 0.54601$ . Using rounding and four-digit arithmetic, then

- $x^* = fl(x) = 0.5462$  is accurate to **four** significant digits since

$$\frac{|x - x^*|}{|x|} = \frac{0.00003}{0.54617} = 5.5 \times 10^{-5} \leq 5 \times 10^{-4}.$$

- $y^* = fl(y) = 0.5460$  is accurate to **five** significant digits since

$$\frac{|y - y^*|}{|y|} = \frac{0.00001}{0.54601} = 1.8 \times 10^{-5} \leq 5 \times 10^{-5}.$$



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- The exact value of subtraction is

$$r = x - y = 0.00016.$$

But

$$r^* \equiv x \ominus y = fl(fl(x) - fl(y)) = 0.0002.$$

Since

$$\frac{|r - r^*|}{|r|} = 0.25 \leq 5 \times 10^{-1}$$

the result has only **one** significant digit.

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## Loss of Significance

- One of the most common error-producing calculations involves the cancellation of significant digits due to the subtraction of nearly equal numbers or the addition of one very large number and one very small number.
- Sometimes, loss of significance can be avoided by rewriting the mathematical formula.

## Example

The quadratic formulas for computing the roots of  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , when  $a \neq 0$ , are

$$x_1 = \frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = \frac{-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}.$$

Consider the quadratic equation  $x^2 + 62.10x + 1 = 0$  and discuss the numerical results.



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# Solution

- Using the quadratic formula and 8-digit rounding arithmetic, one can obtain

$$x_1 = -0.01610723 \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = -62.08390.$$

- Now we perform the calculations with 4-digit rounding arithmetic. First we have

$$\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac} = \sqrt{62.10^2 - 4.000} = \sqrt{3856 - 4.000} = 62.06,$$

and

$$fl(x_1) = \frac{-62.10 + 62.06}{2.000} = \frac{-0.04000}{2.000} = -0.02000.$$

The relative error in computing  $x_1$  is

$$\frac{|fl(x_1) - x_1|}{|x_1|} = \frac{|-0.02000 + 0.01610723|}{|-0.01610723|} \approx 0.2417 \leq 5 \times 10^{-1}$$



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## Loss of Significance

- In calculating  $x_2$ ,

$$fl(x_2) = \frac{-62.10 - 62.06}{2.000} = \frac{-124.2}{2.000} = -62.10,$$

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$$\frac{|fl(x_2) - x_2|}{|x_2|} = \frac{|-62.10 + 62.08390|}{|-62.08390|} \approx 0.259 \times 10^{-3} \leq 5 \times 10^{-4}.$$

- In this equation,  $b^2 = 62.10^2$  is much larger than  $4ac = 4$ . Hence  $b$  and  $\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$  become two nearly equal numbers. The calculation of  $x_1$  involves the subtraction of two nearly equal numbers.
- To obtain a more accurate 4-digit rounding approximation for  $x_1$ , we change the formulation by rationalizing the numerator, that is,

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Then

$$fl(x_1) = \frac{-2.000}{62.10 + 62.06} = \frac{-2.000}{124.2} = -0.01610.$$

The relative error in computing  $x_1$  is now reduced to  $6.2 \times 10^{-4}$



### Example

Let

$$p(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 3x - 1,$$

$$q(x) = ((x - 3)x + 3)x - 1.$$

Compare the function values at  $x = 2.19$  with using three-digit arithmetic.



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$$p(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 3x - 1,$$

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Compare the function values at  $x = 2.19$  with using three-digit arithmetic.



# Solution

Use 3-digit and rounding for  $p(2.19)$  and  $q(2.19)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{p}(2.19) &= ((2.19^3 - 3 \times 2.19^2) + 3 \times 2.19) - 1 \\
 &= ((10.5 - 14.4) + 3 \times 2.19) - 1 \\
 &= (-3.9 + 6.57) - 1 \\
 &= 2.67 - 1 = 1.67
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{q}(2.19) &= ((2.19 - 3) \times 2.19 + 3) \times 2.19 - 1 \\
 &= (-0.81 \times 2.19 + 3) \times 2.19 - 1 \\
 &= (-1.77 + 3) \times 2.19 - 1 \\
 &= 1.23 \times 2.19 - 1 \\
 &= 2.69 - 1 = 1.69.
 \end{aligned}$$





With more digits, one can have

$$p(2.19) = g(2.19) = 1.685159$$

Hence the absolute errors are

$$|p(2.19) - \hat{p}(2.19)| = 0.015159$$

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## Definition (Algorithm)

An **algorithm** is a procedure that describes a finite sequence of steps to be performed in a specified order.

## Example

Give an algorithm to compute  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ , where  $n$  and  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are given.

## Algorithm

INPUT  $n, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ .

OUTPUT  $SUM = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ .

Step 1. Set  $SUM = 0$ . (Initialize accumulator.)

Step 2. For  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  do

Set  $SUM = SUM + x_i$ . (Add the next term.)

Step 3. OUTPUT  $SUM$ ;

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## Definition (Stable)

An algorithm is called stable if **small** changes in the initial data of the algorithm produce correspondingly **small** changes in the final results.

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An algorithm is unstable if small errors made at one stage of the algorithm are magnified and propagated in subsequent stages and seriously degrade the accuracy of the overall calculation.

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## Example

Consider the following recurrence algorithm

$$\begin{cases} x_0 = 1, & x_1 = \frac{1}{3} \\ x_{n+1} = \frac{13}{3}x_n - \frac{4}{3}x_{n-1} \end{cases}$$

for computing the sequence of  $\{x_n = (\frac{1}{3})^n\}$ . This algorithm is **unstable**.

A Matlab implementation of the recurrence algorithm gives the following result.



$n$	$x_n$	$x_n^*$	RelErr
8	4.57247371e-04	4.57247371e-04	4.4359e-10
10	5.08052602e-05	5.08052634e-05	6.3878e-08
12	5.64497734e-06	5.64502927e-06	9.1984e-06
14	6.26394672e-07	6.27225474e-07	1.3246e-03
15	2.05751947e-07	2.09075158e-07	1.5895e-02
16	5.63988754e-08	6.96917194e-08	1.9074e-01
17	-2.99408028e-08	2.32305731e-08	2.2889e+00

The error present in  $x_n$  is multiplied by  $\frac{13}{3}$  in computing  $x_{n+1}$ . For example, the error will be propagated with a factor of  $(\frac{13}{3})^{14}$  in computing  $x_{15}$ . Additional roundoff errors in computing  $x_2, x_3, \dots$  may also be propagated and added to that of  $x_{15}$ .



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## Matlab program

```
n = 30;  
x = zeros(n,1);  
x(1) = 1;  
x(2) = 1/3;  
for ii = 3:n  
    x(ii) = 13 / 3 * x(ii-1) - 4 / 3 * x(ii-2);  
    xn = (1/3)^(ii-1);  
    RelErr = abs(xn-x(ii)) / xn;  
    fprintf('x(%2.0f) = %20.8d, x_ast(%2.0f) = %20.8d,', ...  
        'RelErr(%2.0f) = %14.4d \n', ii,x(ii),ii,xn,ii,RelErr);  
end
```



## Definition

Suppose  $\{\beta_n\} \rightarrow 0$  and  $\{x_n\} \rightarrow x^*$ . If  $\exists c > 0$  and an integer  $N > 0$  such that

$$|x_n - x^*| \leq c|\beta_n|, \quad \forall n \geq N,$$

then we say  $\{x_n\}$  **converges** to  $x^*$  with **rate of convergence**  $O(\beta_n)$ , and write  $x_n = x^* + O(\beta_n)$ .

## Example

Compare the convergence behavior of  $\{x_n\}$  and  $\{y_n\}$ , where

$$x_n = \frac{n+1}{n^2}, \quad \text{and} \quad y_n = \frac{n+3}{n^3}.$$





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# Solution:

Note that both

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = 0.$$

Let  $\alpha_n = \frac{1}{n}$  and  $\beta_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$ . Then

$$|x_n - 0| = \frac{n+1}{n^2} \leq \frac{n+n}{n^2} = \frac{2}{n} = 2\alpha_n,$$

$$|y_n - 0| = \frac{n+3}{n^3} \leq \frac{n+3n}{n^3} = \frac{4}{n^2} = 4\beta_n.$$

Hence

$$x_n = 0 + O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad y_n = 0 + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right).$$

This shows that  $\{y_n\}$  converges to 0 much faster than  $\{x_n\}$ .

