## SECTION 1: ROUNDOFF AND TRUNCATION ERRORS

ESC 440 - Computational Methods for Engineers

# Introduction and Course Overview 

## Mathematical Models

$\square$ As engineers, we are interested in

- Designing and analyzing physical systems
- Analyzing data
$\square$ We can represent these systems or data with mathematical models
- An equation or system of equations that describe the system or behavior
- Relates inputs to outputs
$\square$ Mathematical models used for analysis and simulation
- May be done analytically - by hand
- More often performed numerically - on a computer


## Numerical Analysis

$\square$ In practice, most engineering problems are solved, and analyses are performed numerically

- Using computers
$\square$ Often, we use simulators
- Electronic circuits
- Electromagnetic fields
- Thermal/fluid systems
- Structural analysis
$\square$ Sometimes, we use existing packages, libraries, toolboxes, functions, etc. E.g.,
- NumPy, SciPy in Python
- MATLAB
$\square$ Other times, we must write our own code


## Engineering Analyses

$\square$ Many of the types of analyses we perform as engineers are those you have learned about in previous classes

- Solution of systems of equations
- Integration/differentiation
- Solution of differential equations
- Optimization
- Curve fitting, etc.
$\square$ You have learned to perform these operations analytically
- By hand
- Solutions are exact
$\square$ In this course, you will learn to solve the same types of problems numerically
- Using a computer
- Solutions are estimates


## Numerical Analysis

$\square$ Numerical analysis yields an approximate solution

- An estimate of the actual solution
$\square$ The solution is not exact
- It includes error
$\square$ In this first section of the course, we will learn about numerical error
$\square$ Where does it come from?
$\square$ What causes it to increase? Decrease?
$\square$ How do we approximate it?


## Course Overview

1. Roundoff \& Truncation Error
2. Root Finding \& Optimization
3. Systems of Equations
4. Curve Fitting
5. Integration
6. Ordinary Differential Equations
7. Fourier Analysis

# Definitions of Error 

## True Error

$\square$ Absolute error - the difference between an approximation and the true value

$$
E_{t}=(\text { approx } . \text { value })-(\text { true value })=\hat{x}-x
$$

$\square$ Relative error - the true error as a percentage of the true value

$$
\varepsilon_{t}=\frac{\hat{x}-x}{x} \cdot 100 \%
$$

$\square$ Both definitions require knowledge of the true value!

- If we had that, why would we be approximating?


## Approximating the Error

$\square$ Since we don't know the true value, we can only approximate the error
$\square$ Often, approximations are made iteratively

- Approximate the error as the change in the approximate value from one iteration to the next

$$
\hat{E}=\hat{x}_{i+1}-\hat{x}_{i}
$$

## Relative Approximate Error

$\square$ We don't know the true value, so we can't calculate the true error - approximate the error
$\square$ Relative approximate error - an approximation of the error relative to the approximation itself

$$
\varepsilon_{a}=\frac{\text { approx.error }}{\text { approximation }} \cdot 100 \%=\frac{\hat{E}}{\hat{x}} \cdot 100 \%
$$

## Stopping Criterion

$\square$ For iterative approximations, continue to iterate until the relative approximate error magnitude is less than a specified stopping criterion

$$
\left|\varepsilon_{a}\right|<\varepsilon_{s}
$$

$\square$ For accuracy to at least $\boldsymbol{n}$ significant figures set the stopping criterion to

$$
\varepsilon_{s}=\left(0.5 \times 10^{2-n}\right) \%
$$

## 13 <br> Roundoff Error

## Roundoff Errors

$\square$ Roundoff errors occur due to the way in which computers represent numerical values
$\square$ Computer representation of numerical values is limited in terms of:

- Magnitude - there are upper and lower bounds on the magnitude of numbers that can be represented
- Precision - not all numbers can be represented exactly
$\square$ Certain types of mathematical manipulations are more susceptible to roundoff error than others


## Number Systems - Decimal

$\square$ We are accustomed to the decimal number system

- A base-10 number system
- Ten digits: $0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9$
$\square$ Each digit represents an integer power of 10



## Binary Number System

$\square$ Computers represent numbers in binary format

- A base-2 number system
- Two digits: 0, 1
- Easy to store binary values in computer hardware - an on or off switch - a high or low voltage
- One digit is a bit - eight bits is a byte
- Each bit represents an integer power of 2



## IEEE Double-Precision Format

$\square$ Floating point numbers in Python are represented as 64-bit double-precision floating point values - float64

- 64-bit binary word


$$
\pm\left(1+\sum_{i=1}^{52} f_{i} \cdot 2^{-i}\right) \times 2^{e}
$$

## IEEE Double-Precision Format

$\square$ Mantissa

- Only the fractional portion of the mantissa stored
- Bit to the left of the binary point assumed to be 1
- Normalized numbers
- Really a 53-bit value
$\square$ Exponent
- 11-bit signed integer value: -1022 ... 1023
- Two special cases:
- $e=0 \times 000$ (i.e. all zeros): zero if $f=0$, subnormal \#'s if $\mathrm{f} \neq 0$
- $e=0 \times 7 \mathrm{FF}$ (i.e. all ones): $\infty$ if $f=0, \mathrm{NaN}$ if $\mathrm{f} \neq 0$


## Normalized numbers

$\square$ Leading zeros are removed

- Most significant digit (must be a 1 in binary) moved to the left of the binary point
$\square 53^{\text {rd }}$ bit of the mantissa (always 1) needn't be stored
$\square$ Maximum mantissa



## Subnormal Numbers

$\square$ If $f_{0}=1$, always, then the smallest number that could be represented is: $2^{-1022} \approx 2.225 \times \mathbf{1 0}^{-308}$
$\square$ If we allow for $f_{0}=0$, then the most significant bit is somewhere to the right of the binary point

- Leading zeros - not normalized ... subnormal
$\square$ Allows for smaller numbers, filling in the hole around zero
$\square$ Subnormal numbers represented by setting the exponent to zero
$\square$ Smallest subnormal number:

$$
2^{-1022-52}=2^{-1074} \approx \mathbf{5} \times \mathbf{1 0}^{-324}
$$

## Doubles - Range

$\square$ Maximum value:

$$
\max =\left(1+\sum_{i=1}^{52} 2^{-i}\right) \times 2^{1023} \approx \mathbf{1 . 7 9 8} \times \mathbf{1 0}^{\mathbf{3 0 8}}
$$

$\square$ Minimum normal value:

$$
\min _{\text {norm }}=2^{-1022} \approx \mathbf{2 . 2 2 5} \times \mathbf{1 0}^{-\mathbf{3 0 8}}
$$

$\square$ Minimum subnormal value:

$$
\min _{s u b}=2^{-1022-52}=2^{-1074} \approx \mathbf{5} \times \mathbf{1 0}^{-324}
$$

$\square$ Precision - machine epsilon

$$
\varepsilon=2^{-52} \approx 2.22 \times 10^{-16}
$$

## Roundoff Error - Mathematical Operations

Certain types of mathematical operations are more susceptible to roundoff errors:
$\square$ Subtractive cancellation - subtracting of two nearlyequal numbers results in a loss of significant digits
$\square$ Large computations - even if the roundoff error from a single operation is small, the cumulative error from many operations may be significant
$\square$ Adding large and small numbers - as in an infinite series
$\square$ Inner products - (i.e., dot product) very common operation - solution of linear systems of equations

# Truncation Error 

## Truncation Errors

$\square$ Errors that result from the use of an approximation in place of an exact mathematical procedure

- E.g., numerical integration, or the approximation derivatives with finite-difference approximations
$\square$ To understand how truncation errors arise, and to gain an understanding of their magnitudes, we'll make use of the Taylor Series


## Taylor Series

$\square$ Taylor's Theorem - any smooth (i.e., continuously differentiable) function can be approximated as a polynomial
$\square$ Taylor Series

$$
f\left(x_{i+1}\right)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}\left(x_{i}\right)}{n!}\left(x_{i+1}-x_{i}\right)^{n}
$$

$\square$ This infinite series is an equality

- An exact representation of any smooth function as a polynomial
$\square$ An infinite-order polynomial - impractical


## Taylor Series Approximation

$\square$ Can approximate a function as a polynomial by truncating the Taylor series after a finite number of terms

$$
f\left(x_{i+1}\right) \approx f\left(x_{i}\right)+f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) h+\frac{f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{i}\right)}{2!} h^{2}+\cdots+\frac{f^{(n)}\left(x_{i}\right)}{n!} h^{n}
$$

where $h=x_{i+1}-x_{i}$ is the step size


## Taylor Series Truncation Error

$\square$ Can account for error by lumping the $n+1$ and higher-order terms into a single term, $R_{n}$

$$
f\left(x_{i+1}\right)=f\left(x_{i}\right)+f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) h+\frac{f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{i}\right)}{2!} h^{2}+\cdots+\frac{f^{(n)}\left(x_{i}\right)}{n!} h^{n}+R_{n}
$$

$\square R_{n}$ is the error associated with truncating after $n$ terms

$$
R_{n}=\frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} h^{n+1}
$$

$\square \xi$ is some (unknown) value of $x$ between $x_{i}$ and $x_{i+1}$

## Derivative Mean-Value Theorem

$\square$ If $f(x)$ and $f^{\prime}(x)$ are continuous on $\left[x_{i}, x_{i+1}\right]$, then there is a point on this interval, $\xi$, where $f^{\prime}(\xi)$ is the slope of the line joining $f\left(x_{i}\right)$ and $f\left(x_{i+1}\right)$


## Truncation Error - Dependence on Step Size

$$
R_{n}=\frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} h^{n+1}
$$

$\square$ We don't know $\xi$, so we don't know $R_{n}$
$\square$ We do know it's proportional to $h^{n+1}$, where $h$ is the step size

- Error is on the order of $h^{n+1}$

$$
R_{n}=O\left(h^{n+1}\right)
$$

$\square$ If $n=1$ (first-order approx.), halving the step size will quarter the error

# Truncation Errors in Practice 

- Discretizing equations

Finite-difference approximations

## Discretization of Equations

$\square$ As engineers, many of the mathematical expressions we are interested in are differential equations

- We know how to evaluate derivatives analytically
$\square$ Need an approximation for the derivative operation in order to solve numerically
$\square$ Discretization - conversion of a continuous function, e.g., differentiation, to a discrete approximation for numerical evaluation


## Finite Difference Approximations

$\square$ Recall the definition of a derivative

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-f\left(x_{i}\right)}{h}
$$

$\square$ Remove the limit to approximate this numerically

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) \approx \frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-f\left(x_{i}\right)}{h}
$$

$\square$ This is the forward difference approximation

- Uses value at $x_{i}$ and forward one step at $x_{i+1}$ to approximate the derivative at $x_{i}$


## Discretizing Equations - Example

$\square$ A free-falling object can be modeled as

$$
\frac{d v}{d t}=g-\frac{c_{d}}{m} v^{2}
$$

where $v$ is velocity, $m$ is mass, $g$ is gravitational acceleration, and $c_{d}$ is a lumped drag coefficient
$\square$ This is a non-linear ordinary differential equation (ODE), which can be solved analytically to yield

$$
v(t)=\sqrt{\frac{m g}{c_{d}}} \tanh \left(\sqrt{\frac{g c_{d}}{m}} \cdot t\right)
$$

## Discretizing Equations - Example

$\square$ To solve numerically instead, approximate the derivative operation with a finite difference

$$
\frac{v\left(t_{i+1}\right)-v\left(t_{i}\right)}{t_{i+1}-t_{i}} \cong g-\frac{c_{d}}{m} v\left(t_{i}\right)^{2}
$$

$\square$ Solving for $v\left(t_{i+1}\right)$ and using $h$ to denote the time step yields

$$
v\left(t_{i+1}\right) \cong v\left(t_{i}\right)+\left[g-\frac{c_{d}}{m} v\left(t_{i}\right)^{2}\right] h
$$

$\square$ We've transformed the differential equation to a difference equation
$\square$ An algebraic equation

- Can be solved iteratively - using a loop


## Discretizing Equations - Example

$$
v\left(t_{i+1}\right) \cong v\left(t_{i}\right)+\left[g-\frac{c_{d}}{m} v\left(t_{i}\right)^{2}\right] h
$$

$\square$ The term in the square brackets is the original diff. eq., i.e., it is $v^{\prime}(t)$
$\square$ The difference equation is a first-order Taylor series approximation

$$
v\left(t_{i+1}\right)=v\left(t_{i}\right)+v^{\prime}\left(t_{i}\right) h+R_{1}
$$

$\square$ Where we know that the error is on the order of the step size squared

$$
R_{1}=O\left(h^{2}\right)
$$

$\square$ Taylor series provides a relation between the step size and the accuracy of the numerical solution to the diff. eqn.

## Finite Difference Methods

$\square$ The preceding example showed

- One method - forward difference - for numerically approximating a derivative
$\square$ Transformation of a differential equation to a difference equation
- How Taylor series can provide an understanding of the error associated with an approximation
$\square$ Now we'll take a closer look at three finite difference methods and how Taylor series can help us understand the error associated with each


## Forward Difference

$\square$ Can also derive the forward difference approximation from the Taylor Series

$$
f\left(x_{i+1}\right)=f\left(x_{i}\right)+f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) h+R_{1}
$$

$\square$ Solving for $f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)$

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)=\frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-f\left(x_{i}\right)}{h}-\frac{R_{1}}{h}
$$

$\square$ We've already seen that

$$
R_{1}=O\left(h^{2}\right)
$$

$\square$ So, the error term is

$$
\frac{R_{1}}{h}=O(h)
$$

$\square$ The forward difference, including error, is

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)=\frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-f\left(x_{i}\right)}{h}+O(h)
$$

$\square$ Error of the forward difference approximation is on the order of the step size

## Forward Difference


$\square$ Value of the function, $f(x)$, at $x_{i}$ and forward one step at $x_{i+1}$ used to approximate the derivative at $x_{i}$

## Backward Difference

$\square$ Backward difference uses value of $f(x)$ at $x_{i}$ and one step backward at $x_{i-1}$ to approximate the derivative at $x_{i}$

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) \approx \frac{f\left(x_{i}\right)-f\left(x_{i-1}\right)}{h}
$$

$\square$ This can also be developed by expanding the Taylor series backward

$$
f\left(x_{i-1}\right)=f\left(x_{i}\right)-f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) h+R_{1}
$$

$\square$ Then solving for $f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)$

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)=\frac{f\left(x_{i}\right)-f\left(x_{i-1}\right)}{h}+\frac{R_{1}}{h}
$$

$\square$ Again the error is on the order of the step size

$$
\frac{R_{1}}{h}=O(h)
$$

$\square$ The backward difference expression, including error, becomes

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)=\frac{f\left(x_{i}\right)-f\left(x_{i-1}\right)}{h}+O(h)
$$

$\square$ Error of the backward difference approximation is on the order of the step size

## Backward Difference

$\square$ Now use the value of $f(x)$ at $x_{i}$ and backward one step at $x_{i-1}$ to approximate the derivative at $x_{i}$

Again, error is

$$
R=O(h)
$$

## Central Difference

$\square$ Central difference uses value of $f(x)$ one step backward at $x_{i-1}$ and ones step ahead at $x_{i+1}$ to approximate the derivative at $x_{i}$

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) \approx \frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-f\left(x_{i-1}\right)}{2 h}
$$

$\square \quad$ This can also be developed by subtracting the backward Taylor series from the forward series
$\square$ Second-order derivative terms cancel, leaving

$$
f\left(x_{i+1}\right)=f\left(x_{i-1}\right)+2 f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) h+R_{2}
$$

$\square$ Now, the remainder term is

$$
R_{2}=O\left(h^{3}\right)
$$

$\square$ The central difference expression, including error, becomes

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)=\frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-f\left(x_{i-1}\right)}{2 h}+O\left(h^{2}\right)
$$

$\square$ Error of the central difference approximation is on the order of the step size squared
$\square$ Central difference method is more accurate than forward or backward

- Uses more information


## Central Difference

$\square$ Now use the value of $f(x)$ backward one
step at $x_{i-1}$ and
forward one step
at $x_{i+1}$ to
approximate the derivative at $x_{i}$
$\square$ Reduced error:

$$
R=O\left(h^{2}\right)
$$

Total Numerical Error

## Total Numerical Error

$\square$ Total numerical error is the sum of roundoff and truncation error
$\square$ Roundoff error is largely out of your control, and, with double precision arithmetic, it is not typically an issue

- Truncation error can be a significant problem, but can be reduced by decreasing step size
$\square$ Reducing step size reduces truncation error, but may also result in subtractive cancellation, thereby increasing roundoff error
$\square$ Choose step size to minimize total error
- Or, more typically, to reduce truncation error to an acceptable level


## Total Numerical Error

$\square$ Reducing step size reduces truncation error, but may also result in subtractive cancellation, thereby increasing roundoff error
$\square$ Could choose step size to minimize total error
$\square$ But, more typically, reduce step size just enough to reduce truncation error to an acceptable level


## Central Difference Error Analysis

$\square$ First derivative of a function in terms of the central difference approximation is

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)=\frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-f\left(x_{i-1}\right)}{2 h}-\frac{\mathrm{f}^{(3)}(\xi)}{6} h^{2}
$$

$\square$ The last term on the right is the truncation error
$\square$ There is also roundoff error associated with each value

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f\left(x_{i-1}\right)=\tilde{f}\left(x_{i-1}\right)-e_{i-1} \\
& f\left(x_{i+1}\right)=\tilde{f}\left(x_{i+1}\right)-e_{i+1}
\end{aligned}
$$

were $\tilde{f}\left(x_{i}\right)$ represents a rounded value, and $e_{i}$ is the corresponding roundoff error

## Central Difference Error Analysis

$\square$ Substituting the expressions for the rounded values into the expression for the true derivative yields

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)=\frac{f\left(x_{i+1}\right)-f\left(x_{i-1}\right)}{2 h}-\frac{\mathrm{f}^{(3)}(\xi)}{6} h^{2}+\frac{e_{i+1}-e_{i-1}}{2 h}
$$

$\square$ Giving a total error of

$\square$ Truncation error increases with step size
$\square$ Roundoff error decreases with step size

