Theme 1: Roundoff and population modeling

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## Error Concepts

- Approximate solutions of mathematical problems using computers introduce various errors
- Distinguish between discretization error and roundoff error

Ex: Computer representation of a black-and-white picture

- Discretization error: a spatially continuous image is rasterized to pixels (say $1024 \times 768$ )
- Rounding error: only a fixed number (say 256) of gray tones at each pixel


## Content

- Computer arithmetic, floating-point numbers
- "The" standard: IEEE 754 binary 64 (double precision) floating point format
- Rounding error analysis, machine epsilon
- Warnings, consequences, rules of thumb for practical computations

The lab will clarify the relation to population modeling!

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## Error Concepts

- Discretization errors typically dominate the total error
- Rounding errors can in many practical cases be neglected!

Although rounding errors typically are small, they are noticeably annoying in practical computations with real numbers:

| Expression | Value | in Matlab |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\cos \pi / 2$ | 0 | $6.1232 \mathrm{e}-017$ |
| $0.08+0.42-0.5$ | 0 | 0 |
| $0.42-0.5+0.08$ | 0 | $-1.3878 \mathrm{e}-017$ |

Also, in some exceptional cases, to be discussed here, rounding errors can have catastrophic effects

## Binary numbers

- Computers usually stores numbers in binary form:

$$
\overbrace{1101}^{4 \text { bit }})_{2}=1 \cdot 2^{3}+1 \cdot 2^{2}+0 \cdot 2^{1}+1 \cdot 2^{0}=(13)_{10}
$$

- Integers are stored exactly in binary form up to $2^{n}$ ( $n$ bit)
- Fractional binary numbers:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(.1101)_{2} & =1 \cdot 2^{-1}+1 \cdot 2^{-2}+0 \cdot 2^{-3}+1 \cdot 2^{-4} \\
& =\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+0+\frac{1}{16}=\frac{13}{16}=(0.8125)_{10}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Note: The decimal fractions $0.1,0.2,0.3,0.4,0.6,0.7,0.8,0.9$ cannot be exactly represented as a fractional binary number! (But 0.5 can.)


## IEEE 754 binary 64 floating point format

- The format stores the numbers in normalized form, that is, floating point numbers are expressed as

$$
x= \pm(1+f) \cdot 2^{e}
$$

where

- $0 \leq f<1$ (the mantissa, or fraction) is represented in binary form using 52 bits
- $e$ (the exponent) is an integer satisfying $-1022 \leq e \leq 1023$ (using 11 bits)
- 1 bit is used for the sign (0 positive, 1 negative)
- Finiteness of $f$ is a limitation on precision
- Finiteness of $e$ is a limitation on range
- Only $f, e$, and sign is stored; not the initial 1 ("hidden bit")
- Number 0 is handled separately ( $e=-1023$ and $f=0$ indicates zero)


## Floating point numbers

- Most real numbers cannot be stored exactly; they need to be rounded and bounded
- Almost all computer hardware and software support the IEEE Standard for Floating-Point Arithmetic IEEE 754
- IEEE 754 adopted in 1985. Latest version IEEE 754-2008 (from year 2008)
- Yields a machine-independent model of how floating point arithmetic behaves
- Matlab supports the IEEE binary 64 (double precision) format, the most common format for floating point numbers

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## IEEE 754 binary 64 floating point format

- Thus, 64 bits, or 8 bytes ( 1 byte $=8$ bits), is used for each floating-point number


Picture: Wikipedia

- Ex: A $1000 \times 1000$ real matrix. Requires $10^{6} 8$-byte floating point numbers, thus 8 Mb storage


## Machine epsilon

- The number of digits in $f$ (the mantissa) limits the precision of the floating point system
- $f$ is represented by 52 binary digits in IEEE 754 binary 64
- For any floating point system, the distance between the number 1 and the next representable number is called the machine epsilon $\epsilon_{M}$
- For IEEE 754 binary $64, \epsilon_{M}=2^{-52} \approx 2.2204 \times 10^{-16}$.
 1... 51
- $\epsilon_{M}$ quantifies the precision of the floating point system


## Overflow and underflow

- Recall: $x= \pm(1+f) \cdot 2^{e}$ with $-1022 \leq e \leq 1023$
- Smallest (in magnitude) normalized number $x_{\text {min }}=2^{-1022}$


## Note: much smaller than $\epsilon_{M}$ !

- Largest (in magnitude) representable number: $x_{\max }=\left(2-\epsilon_{M}\right) \cdot 2^{1023}$
- Attempt to store numbers with $|x|>x_{\text {max }}$ yields overflow (many programs terminate with error when this happens)
- Attempt to store numbers with $|x|<x_{\text {min }}$ yields underflow (many programs set $x=0$ and continue)

The above is a slight lie: IEEE 754 actually supports "subnormal numbers" or "gradual underflow". When $e=-1023, f=0$ indicates zero, but any nonzero $f$ indicates the number $0 . f \cdot 2^{-1023}$, which allows storage of numbers down to $2^{-1074}$ with reduced accuracy.

## Spacing between floating point numbers

$$
x= \pm(1+f) \cdot 2^{e}
$$

- For $e=0$, the spacing between each consecutive numbers is $\epsilon_{M}$. Ex:
$(1.011000000000000000000000000000000000000000000001000)_{2}$
$-(1.011000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000111)_{2}$
$=(0.000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000001)_{2}$
- For $e=1$, the spacing between consecutive numbers is $2 \epsilon_{M}$
- In general, the spacing between consecutive numbers is $\epsilon_{M} \cdot 2^{e}$
- Thus, there is a constant spacing between numbers for a fixed exponent, but the spacing grows with the exponent


## Specials

The standard also defines the following quantities:

- $e=-1023$ and $f=0$ indicates zero
- The (extended real) numbers $+\infty$ and $-\infty$ (stored using the sign flag and $e=1024$ and $f=0$ )
- The symbol not-a-number, or NaN (stored in $e=1024$ when $f \neq 0$ ). NaN is typically used as the result of an operation using invalid inputs, such as $0 / 0$.


## Absolute and relative error

- $x$ : exact (real) number
- $\hat{x}$ : number with error (due to measurement error, roundoff, ...)
- Absolute error: $|x-\hat{x}|$
- Relative error: $\frac{|x-\hat{x}|}{|x|}(x \neq 0)$

If $x$ is a vector, use vector norm to express errors:

- Absolute error: $\|x-\hat{x}\|$
- Relative error: $\frac{\|x-\hat{x}\|}{\|x\|}(x \neq 0)$
$\|x\|=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}$ (e. g.; we will introduce other vector norms later!)

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## Rounding errors

- Note that $|x|=\left|\hat{m} \cdot 2^{e}\right| \geq 2^{e}$ whenever $x \neq 0$
- Thus, for $x \neq 0$, and when rounding to nearest floating-point number, the relative error is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{|x-f l(x)|}{|x|} \leq \frac{\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{M} \cdot 2^{e}}{2^{e}}=\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{M} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

- Thus, when rounding to nearest floating point number:

The relative error in the floating point approximation of any nonzero number is bounded by $\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{M}$

- In particular: the relative error is independent of the size of the number

Note: Some authors attach the name "machine epsilon" or "unit roundoff" to the quantity $\mu=\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{M}$ (in Eldén, Wittmeyer-Koch avrundningsenheten). However, we follow Matlab's definition.

## Rounding errors

- Assume that a given real number $x$ is approximated by a floating point number $f l(x)$ (using IEEE 754 binary 64)
- How big is the error $|x-f l(x)|$, the rounding error?
- $f l(x)=m \cdot 2^{e}$ with $m=1 . f$ or $m=0$ (when $\left.x=0\right)$
- Also, we may write $x=\hat{m} \cdot 2^{e}$, with same exponent as for $f l(x)$, and $1 \leq \hat{m}<2$, with infinite precision, or $\hat{m}=0$
- Recall that the distance between two consecutive floating point numbers is $\epsilon_{M} \cdot 2^{e}$

- Thus, for any sensible rounding $|x-f l(x)| \leq \epsilon_{M} \cdot 2^{e}$
- When rounding to nearest floating point number $|x-f l(x)| \leq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{M} \cdot 2^{e}$ (the default rounding and the one Matlab uses)

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## Rounding errors in practical computations

- Machine epsilon is a measure of the relative accuracy of a stored real number
- IEEE 754 binary 64 format provides a precision of about 16 decimal digits
- During practical computations, many floating point operations are performed on numbers that has been rounded. Nevertheless, the accumulated relative error in the final result is usually not more than a few orders of magnitude greater than $\epsilon_{M}$
- Rounding errors are in the majority of cases much smaller than other errors (discretization errors, measurement errors)!
- However, there are a few "dangerous" cases to watch out for!


## Cancellation of significant digits

- Watch out when subtracting almost-equal numbers:

$$
1.23456789-1.23456700=0.00000089
$$

- If both numbers to the left have 9 correct digits, the resulting number to the right only has 2 correct digits!
- The phenomenon is called cancellation of significant digits
- Cancellation can sometimes be avoided by rewriting:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{1+x}-\sqrt{1-x} & =\frac{(\sqrt{1+x}-\sqrt{1-x})(\sqrt{1+x}+\sqrt{1-x})}{\sqrt{1+x}+\sqrt{1-x}} \\
& =\frac{2 x}{\sqrt{1+x}+\sqrt{1-x}}
\end{aligned}
$$

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## When are rounding errors noticeable?

- Recall example with computer representation of a black-and-white picture
- Discretization error: a spatially continuous image is rasterized to pixels (say $1024 \times 768$ )
- Rounding error: only a fixed number (say 256) of gray tones at each pixel
- Using e. g. double precision floating point numbers for the gray tones, the rounding error can be completely neglected, it will only be the discretization error that matter!
- Similarly, in most cases when using numerical software, we can forget about rounding errors
- Two important exceptions!


## Consequences, rules of thumb

- if $\mathrm{x}==\mathrm{y}$ then. . . a dangerous statement when x and y are floating point numbers that can be affected by rounding (for instance when they are result of calculations)
- Better to use if abs(x-y) <= tolerance then... where tolerance is a small number
- Avoid, if possible, subtraction of almost-equal numbers
- The associative and distributive laws of arithmetic does not hold exactly for floating point numbers (often not so important)
- For $\sum_{n=1}^{N} s_{n}$, try to add up the terms starting with the ones smallest in magnitude

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## When are rounding errors noticeable?

1. Sensitive problems. The solution to a mathematical problems can sometimes be very sensitive to changes in the input data: small changes in the data creates large changes in the solution. The small errors induced by rounding the input can therefore cause noticeable changes in the solution. Such problems are called ill-conditioned or in extreme cases ill-posed.
2. Numerically unstable algorithms. Some numerical algorithms are sensitive to roundoff even when applied to a well-conditioned problem. Avoid such algorithms if possible!
