Computer Simulations

A practical approach to simulation

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Representations of the Numbers

- Computers are consist of large but finite memory and processor which do calculations on the stored numbers.
- Memory is a sequence of electronic components which can only take two values namely bits (0 or 1). This means that all numbers are stored in memory in binary form.
- As a consequence, N bits can store integers in the range $\left[0,2N\right]$.

- Storing arbitrary numbers on the memory require an optimization.
- Since the memory of the computer has limited space the use of this space require a decesion between,
 - 1) either each number will take as much spase as possible or
 - 2) as many numbers with limited precision (number of bits) as possible.

- The numbers must be long enough to give the required high precission of scientific calculations and short enough to store as many numbers as possible.
- To fullfill these requirements the structure of the computer memory is organized such that memory and storage sizes are measured in bytes, kilobytes, megabytes, gigabytes, terabytes, and petabytes (1015).
 - 1 Bit (binary integers) 0 and 1
 - 1 byte 1B = 8 bits.
 - 1 K 1 kB = 1024 bytes.

 Some care is needed here for those who chose to compute sizes in detail because a K is not always a 1000.

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- A problem in computer design is how to represent an arbitrary number using a finite amount of memory space, and then how to deal with the limitations arising from that representation.
- As a consequence of computer memories being based on the magnetic or electronic realization of a spin pointing up or down, the most elementary units of computer memory are the two bits.

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- Consequently, binary strings are converted to octal, decimal, or hexadecimal numbers before results are communicated to people.
- Octal and hexadecimal numbers are nice because the conversion loses no precision, but not all that nice because our decimal rules of arithmetic do not work for them.
- Converting to decimal numbers make the numbers easier for us to work with, but unless the number is a power of two, the process leads to a decrease in precision.
- A description of a particular computer system will normally state the word length, that is, the number of bits used to store a number.

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- In order to optimize the memory usage all computer languages define different size variables and constatnts.
- Variables are given name for storage allocation for a finite space in the memory with changing content.
 Variables and constants may have type, Boolean, Character, Integer, Float,
- Each type of variable have finite, predetermined size, which is called "Word size"

 At the beginning each computer brand used different size variable. This create confusion when results are compared. In 1987 IEEE standards for the number representations are accepted. Table 12 presents standard word sizes.

Boolean (True, False)	=	1 bit
Character (A,B,C,)	=	1 byte
Single Precision Integer	=	4 bytes
Double Precision Integer	=	c bytes
Single Precision Float	=	4 bytes
Double Precision Float	=	8 bytes

Table 1: IEEE standard for the variable and con-

stant definitions Term Ankara University Department of Computer Engineering – p.12/66

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Integer Representations

- Integers are typically 4 bytes (32 bits) in length and in the range $-2147483648 \le 4B$ integer ≤ 2147483647 .
 - B : Base,
 - E : Exponent,
 - S : Sign,
 - N: Word Length

$$I = S \times (a_{N-1}B^{N-1} + a_{N-2}B^{N-2} + \dots + a_0B^0)$$

where $0 \leq a_i < B$.

• Common bases are 10, 8, 16 or 2.

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• In binary (B = 2) and Decimal (B = 10) notations largest and smallest single precision integers are:

$$I_{max}^{10} = +2147483647$$

$$I_{max}^{10} = -2147483648$$

Example: The same number in binary (B = 2), Octal (B = 8), Hexadecimal (B = 16) and Decimal (B = 10) notations.

$$\begin{split} I_{10} &= 3 \times 10^5 + 3 \times 10^4 + 7 \times 10^3 + 5 \times 10^2 \\ &+ 5 \times 10^1 + 9 \times 10^0 \\ I_{16} &= 5 \times 16^4 + 2 \times 16^3 + 6 \times 16^2 + 9 \times 16^1 + 7 \times 16^0 \\ I_2 &= 1 \times 2^{18} + 0 \times 2^{17} + 1 \times 2^{16} + 0 \times 2^{15} \\ &+ 0 \times 2^{14} + 1 \times 2^{13} + 0 \times 2^{12} + 0 \times 2^{11} + 1 \times 2^{10} \\ &+ 1 \times 2^9 + 0 \times 2^8 + 1 \times 2^7 + 0 \times 2^6 + 0 \times 2^5 \\ &+ 1 \times 2^4 + 0 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 \end{split}$$

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Real Numbers

- Real numbers are represented on computers in either fixed-point or floating-point notation.
- Fixed-point notation can be used for numbers with a fixed number of places beyond the decimal point (radix) or for integers.
- It has the advantages of being able to use two's complement arithmetic and of storing integers exactly 3.

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Fix Point Representation

• In the fixed-point representation with N bits and with two's complement format, a number is represented as

$$Nfix = sign \times (a_n 2^n + a_{n-1} 2^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0 2^0 + \ldots + a_{-m} 2^{-m}),$$

where n + m = N - 2.

- That is, one bit is used to store the sign, with the remaining N 1 bits used to store the a_i values (the powers of 2 are understood).
- The particular values for *N*,*m*, and *n* are machine-dependent.

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Floating Point Number Representation

- Most scientific computations use double-precision floating point numbers (64b = 8B).
- The floating-point representation of numbers on computers is a binary version of what is commonly known as "scientific" or "engineering" notation.

• For example, the speed of light $c = +2.99792458 \times 10^{+8}$ m/s in scientific notation and $+0.299792458 \times 10^{+9}$ or 0.299795498 E09 m/s in engineering notation. In any of these cases, the number out front is called the mantissa and contains nine significant figures. The power to which 10 is raised is called the exponent, with the + sign included as a reminder that these numbers may be negative. Floating point numbers are stored on the computer as a concatenation.

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 The two's complement of a binary number is the value obtained by subtracting the number from 2N for an N bit representation. Because this system represents negative numbers by the two's complement of the absolute value of the number, additions and subtractions can be made without the need to work with the sign of the number.

- Since any floating number must be represented in finite number of bits, the floating point system is finite and discrete.
 - B Base.
 - *P* Precision (Number of bits speared for the mantissa).
 - L, U Exponent Range U:Upper,L:Lower.

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• If *E* is the exponent the number *x* represented in base *B* sytem as,

$$x = \left(\frac{d_0}{B^0} + \frac{d_1}{B^1} + \frac{d_2}{B^2} + \dots + \frac{d_{p-1}}{B^{p-1}}\right)B^E$$

where, $0 \le d_i < B - 1$, i = 0, ..., p - 1 L < E < U. Mantissa : $d_0, d_1, ..., d_{p-1}$

 Sigh, exponent and mantissa are stored in seperate fixed-width fields of each floating word. Parameters for typical floating point system using IEEE standards for the exponents of the floting point representation:

_		
24	-126	127
	24	24 -126

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- Floating point system is normalized if leading digit is always nonzero unless number represented is zero. In a normalized system if manissa, m ≠ 0, 1 ≤ m < B.
- Not all real numbers x are exactly representable. If a real number is exactly representable in a given precision, this number is called *machine represantable floating point number*. If a real number x is not exactly representable, than it is approximated by "*nearby*" machine representable floating point number.

Total number of *normalized* floating numbers is;

$$2(B-1)B^{p-1}(U-L+1) + 1$$

- 1. Smallest normalized pozitive number : B^L ,
- 2. largest normalized number : $B^{U+1}(1 B^{-p})$.
- 3. This process is called *rounding* and error introduced by this process is called *rounding error*.

- **Chop** : Truncate base B expansion of x after $(p-1)^{st}$ digit
- **Round:** x is rounded to the nearest representable floating point number. In case of tie, x is roundet to the nearest floating point number with even last digit.

Accuracy of floating point system is characterized by unit roundoff or machine precision.

(1)
$$\epsilon_{mach} = \begin{cases} B^{1-p} & \text{by chopping} \\ \frac{1}{2}B^{1-p} & \text{by rounding} \end{cases}$$

Units of roundoff ϵ_{mach} is determined by the number of digits in mantissa of floating point system.

Underflow: if a number is smaller than representable smallest number this stuation is called Underflow'w.

Overflow: If a number is larger than the representable largest number thsi stuation is called Overflow.

Both Underflow and Overflow are related to the range of the exponent field.

(2)
$$\epsilon_{mach} = \begin{cases} 2^{-24} & \text{Single Precision} \\ 2^{-53} & \text{Double Precision} \end{cases}$$

.

Alternative definition of the machine precision can be given by choosing the smallest number, ϵ such that,

 $(1+\epsilon) > 1$

It= 1	Eps	=	0.5000000	Val=1.5000000
It= 4	Eps	=	6.2500000E-02	Val=1.0625000
It= 6	Eps	=	1.56250000E-02	Val=1.0156250
It= 8	Eps	=	3.90625000E-03	Val=1.0039063
It=10	Eps	=	9.76562500E-04	Val=1.0009766
It=12	Eps	=	2.44140625E-04	Val=1.0002441
It=14	Eps	=	6.10351563E-05	Val=1.0000610
It=16	Eps	=	1.52587891E-05	Val=1.0000153
It=18	Eps	=	3.81469727E-06	Val=1.0000038
It=20	Eps	=	9.53674316E-07	Val=1.0000010
It=22 <mark>20</mark>	14 ¹ 2015 S	prin	gZerna AnttalaUaiversity Depart	ment of Completer Engineering - p.37/66

It=23 Eps = 1.19209290E-07 Val=1.0000001

floating Point Number System

- if a number smaller than representable smallest number Underflow
- If a number larger than the representable largest number, Overflow,
- Underflow and Overflow related to the range of the exponent field.

IEEE floating point standart provides special values to indicate two exceptional stuations.

- Inf : Infinity results from dividing a finite number by zero, 1/0.
- NaN : Not a Number, stands for 0/0, $0 \times Inf$ or Inf/Inf.

Inf and *NaN* are implemented in IEEE arithmetic through special reserved values of exponent field.

Sources of Errors in Computation

General Strategy for Numerical Simulation and Modelling Well-Posed Problems Problem is well-posed if solution

- 1. exists
- 2. is unique
- 3. depends continuously on problem data

Otherwise, problem is ill-posed Even if problem is well posed, solution may still be sensitive to input data. Computational algorithm should not make sensitivity worse.

How to Model a Real World Problem Replace difficult problem by easier one having same or closely related solution

- 1. infinite \rightarrow finite
- 2. differential \rightarrow algebraic
- 3. nonlinear \rightarrow linear
- 4. complicated \rightarrow simple

Solution obtained may only approximate that of original problem.

Sources of Error in Moddeling Approximation Before computation

- 1. modeling
- 2. empirical measurements
- 3. previous computations

During computation

- 1. truncation or discretization
- 2. rounding

Accuracy of final result reflects all these uncertainty in input may be amplified by problem perturbations during computation may be amplified by algorithm.

Example:

Problem:

Computing surface area of Earth using formula $A = 4\pi r^2$ Approximations:

- Earth is modeled as a sphere.
- Value for radius is approximate.
- Value for π requires truncation.
- Values for input data and results of arithmetic operations are rounded in computer.

Absolute Error and Relative Error

Absolute error = (approximate - true) value Relative error = $\frac{absolute \ error}{true \ value}$ Approx value = (true value) × (1 + relative error) True value usually unknown, so we estimate or bound error rather than compute it exactly

Relative error often taken relative to approximate value,

rather than (unknown) true value

Data Error and Computational Error Typical problem: compute value of function $f : R \to R$ for given argument x = true value of input f(x) = desired result $\hat{x} =$ approximate (inexact) input $\hat{f} =$ approximate function; actually computed **Total error :**

 $\begin{aligned} \hat{f}(\hat{x}) - f(x) &= \\ \hat{f}(\hat{x}) - f(\hat{x}) &+ f(\hat{x}) - f(x) \\ \text{computational error} &+ \text{ propagated data error} \end{aligned}$

Algorithm has no effect on propagated data error

Computational Error

Truncation Error : Difference between true result (for actual input) and result produced by given algorithm using exact rithmetic. Truncation of infinite series.

Rounding Error: Difference between results produced by given algorithm and result produced by the same algorithm using limited precision aritmetic. Computational error is the sum of Rounding error and truncation error.

Calculation of the machine precision

```
int main() {
  float eps, sum;
  int i,n;
  n = 25;
  printf("Calculate machine precision 1+eps~1\n");
  eps = 1.0;
  for(i = 1;i<=n;i++) {</pre>
    eps = eps/2.0d0;
    sum = 1.0 + eps;
    printf("Iter=%2d Eps=%12.8f \
     value=%12.8f\n",i,eps,sum);
```

Calculation of the machine precision

Calculate machine precision $1 + eps \sim 1; eps = eps/2$ 1 Eps =0.5000000 value =1.5000000 Iter = 2 Eps =0.25000000 value =1.25000000 Iter = 3 Eps =0.12500000 value =1.12500000 Iter = 4 Eps =0.06250000 value =1.06250000 Iter = 5 Eps =0.03125000 value =1.03125000 Iter = 6 Eps =0.01562500 value =1.01562500 Iter = Iter = 7 Eps = 0.00781250 value = 1.00781250Iter = 8 Eps = 0.00390625 value = 1.003906259 Eps =0.00195312 value =1.00195312 Iter = Iter = 10 Eps = 0.00097656 value = 1.00097656Iter = 11 Eps = 0.00048828 value = 1.00048828Iter = 12 Eps = 0.00024414 value = 1.00024414

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Calculation of the machine precision

Iter	=	13	Eps	=0.00012207	value	=1.00012207
Iter	=	14	Eps	=0.00006104	value	=1.00006104
Iter	=	15	Eps	=0.00003052	value	=1.00003052
Iter	=	16	Eps	=0.00001526	value	=1.00001526
Iter	=	17	Eps	=0.00000763	value	=1.00000763
Iter	=	18	Eps	=0.0000381	value	=1.0000381
Iter	=	19	Eps	=0.0000191	value	=1.00000191
Iter	=	20	Eps	=0.0000095	value	=1.0000095
Iter	=	21	Eps	=0.0000048	value	=1.0000048
Iter	=	22	Eps	=0.0000024	value	=1.0000024
Iter	=	23	Eps	=0.0000012	value	=1.0000012
Iter	=	24	Eps	=0.0000006	value	=1.00000000
Iter	=	25	Eps	=0.0000003	value	=1.00000000

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Computational Error

Calculate exponantial function,

$$f(x) = \exp(x)$$
$$\hat{y} = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

int main() {
 float x,x2,x3,x4,sum;
 x = -0.5;
 printf("Calculate exp(-0.5) by using Taylor serie
 sum = 1.0+x+(x2=(x*x/2.0))+(x3=(x2*x/3.0))+(x4=(x
 printf("value= %f err= %+f \n",sum,exp(-0.5)-sur
 return(0);

Series Summation

```
int main() {
  float x, xx, sum;
  int i, n=7;
  x = -0.5;
  printf("Calculate exp(-0.5) by using Taylor serie
  sum = 1.0;
  xx = 1.0;
  for(i = 1;i<=n;i++) {</pre>
    xx = xx * x/(float)i;
    sum = sum + xx;
   printf("Iter=%d value=%f err=%+f n",
   i, sum, exp(-0.5) - sum);
```

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bf Calculate exp(0.5) by using Taylor series Expansion

- It=1 Val=1.5000000 err= 0.14872122
- It=2 Val=1.6250000 err= 2.37212181E-02
- It=3 Val=1.6458334 err= 2.88784504E-03
- It=4 Val=1.6484375 err= 2.83718109E-04
- It=5 Val=1.6486980 err= 2.32458115E-05
- It=6 Val=1.6487197 err= 1.54972076E-06
- It=7 Val=1.6487212 err=0.0000000

Calculate exp(-0.5) by using Taylor series

It=1 Val=0.5000000 err= 0.10653067
It=2 Val=0.62500000 err=-1.84693336E-02
It=3 Val=0.60416669 err= 2.36397982E-03
It=4 Val=0.60677087 err=-2.40206718E-04
It=5 Val=0.60651046 err= 2.02059746E-05
It=6 Val=0.60653216 err=-1.49011612E-06
It=7 Val=0.60653061 err= 5.96046448E-08

Truncation Error

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Example : Calculate cosine function by truncated series expansion If only two terms are taken,

absolute error =
$$1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} - \cos(x)$$

 $\sim \mathcal{O}(\frac{x^4}{4!})$

(3)

Truncation error can be reduced by increasing the number of terms included in the expansion until the machine precission is reached.

Example : Calculate cosine function by truncated series expansion For x = 1.0,

$$f(1.0) = \cos(1.0) = 0.5403$$

$$\hat{f}(1.0) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} = 0.5$$

$$\hat{f}(1.0) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \mathcal{O}(\frac{x^6}{6!})$$

$$\hat{f}(1.0) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \mathcal{O}(\frac{x^8}{8!})$$

(4)

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Errors in Computation

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Error in finite difference approximation:

The derivative of a function at $x = x_i$, Taylor Series expansion of the function f(x),

$$f(x_i + \Delta x) = f(x_i) + \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=x_i} \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \right|_{x=x_i} \Delta x^2 + \cdots$$

leads to first derivatibe at $x = x_i$

$$\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x_i} = \frac{f(x_i + \Delta x) - f(x_i)}{\Delta x} + \mathcal{O}(\Delta x)$$

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Errors in Computation

The first term not included in the calculations is, $\frac{1}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{x=x_i}$. If M bounds $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{x=x_i}$ The truncation error is bounded by $\frac{M\Delta x}{2}$

Rounding error bounded by $2\epsilon/\Delta x$ where ϵ is the error in function values.

Total error
$$=$$
 $\frac{M\Delta x}{2} + \frac{2\epsilon}{\Delta x}$

Total error is minimized when $\Delta x \sim 2\sqrt{\epsilon/M}$. Calculate y = f(x) where $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ 2014-2015 Spring Term Ankara University Department of Computer Engineering – p.61/66 Forward error = $\Delta u = \hat{u} - u$ where $\hat{u} = f(\hat{x})$

Example : $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$

Problem is *insensitive* or *well conditioned* if relative change in the input causes similar relative change in the output. Problem is *sensitive* od *ill conditioned* if relative change in solution can be much larger than the input data.

Condition number = $\frac{\text{Relative change in solution}}{\text{Relative change in input data}}$

Condition number =
$$\frac{\left|\left[f(\hat{x}) - f(x)\right]\right| / f(x)}{\left|\left[(\hat{x} - x)/x\right]\right|}$$

Problem is sensitive or ill conditioned if Condition number >> 1. Condition number is an amplification factor.

Relative forwarderror = Condition number \times Relative backward erro

Stable Algorithm: Algorithm is stable if results are relatively insensitive to perturbations dring calculations. For stable algorithm, effects of computational error is no worse than effects of small data errorin input.

- Accuracy : Closeness of computed solution to true solution of the problem.
- **Precision:** The number of digits that is trustable.

Stability of algorithm does not guarantie accurate results. Accuracy depends on conditioning of the problem as well as stability of the algoritm. Inaccuracy can esult from aplying stable algorithm to ill-conditioned problems or unstable algorithm to well-conditioned problem.

Example : Tangent is sensitive to its arguments near $\Pi/2$.

 $\tan(1.57079) \sim 1.58058 \, 10^5$ $\tan(1.57078) \sim 6.12490 \, 10^4$ $\Delta x = 0.00001 \qquad \Delta f = 9.6809 \, 10^4$