

OPEN SOURCE ENGINEERING



A SCILAB PROFESSIONAL PARTNER



## NUMERICAL ANALYSIS USING SCILAB: NUMERICAL STABILITY AND CONDITIONING

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In this Scilab tutorial we provide a collection of implemented examples on numerical stability and conditioning.

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Level



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### Step 1: The purpose of this tutorial

The purpose of this tutorial is to provide a collection of Scilab examples that are typically part of numerical analysis courses.

Here we provide some classical examples on numerical stability and conditioning.

An introduction to

## **NUMERICAL ANALYSIS USING SCILAB**

(numerical stability and conditioning)

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### Step 2: Roadmap

In this tutorial we provide the definitions of well-conditioned problem and stable algorithm and some related examples. These examples are useful to understand how much attention we have to pay when selecting a numerical solution method for a given problem.

Descriptions	Steps
Condition of problems	3
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### Step 3: Conditioning of a problem

Numerical stability and conditioning are two concepts that should not be confused.

A problem is called **well-conditioned** if a small perturbation of the input data (relative error), leads to small variations of the results (relative error), i.e. of the same magnitude order.

On the other hand, an **ill-conditioned** problem strongly amplifies the input relative error in the output dataset.

Denoting by  $\mathcal{P}$  the problem under consideration, if  $d$  represents the input data and  $r$  the output results, it is possible to define the **condition number** of the problem through the following inequality:

$$\frac{\|\Delta r\|}{\|r\|} \leq \text{cond}(\mathcal{P}) \cdot \frac{\|\Delta d\|}{\|d\|}$$

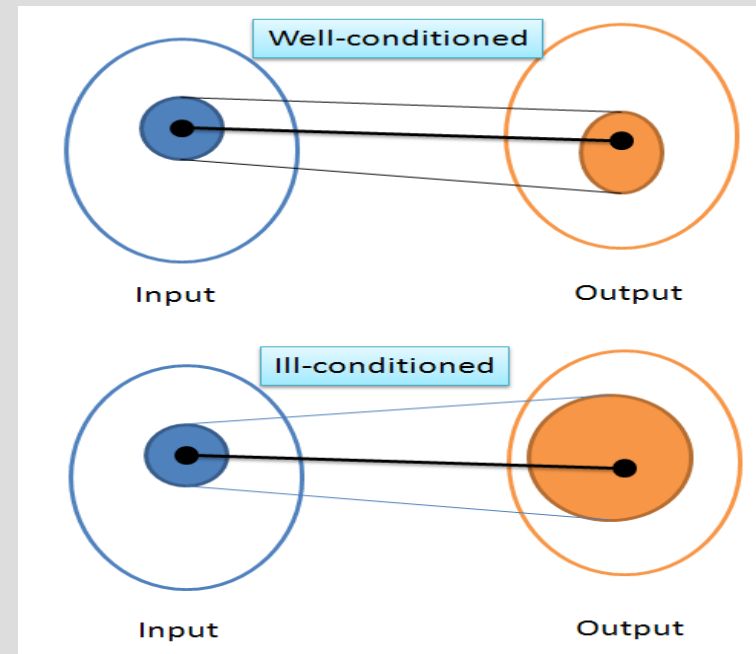
where  $\|\cdot\|$  is a given norm which is able to measure the involved quantities. The condition number bounds the propagation of the input relative error in the output results, it is closely related to the maximum accuracy that can be attained in the solution. Whenever  $r = 0$  or  $d = 0$ , the condition number is defined as

$$\|\Delta r\| \leq \text{cond}(\mathcal{P}) \cdot \|\Delta d\|.$$

Conditioning refers to the numerical problem and there is no connection with the rounding error and the solution strategy.

The numerical solution strategy should take into account the kind of problem we are trying to solve.

A graphical comparison is shown on the right.



**(Well-conditioned versus ill-conditioned problem)**

As an example, from the previous tutorial we have the following inequality:

$$\varepsilon_r^\oplus(x, y) \leq Eps + (1 + Eps) \left( \frac{|x|}{|x+y|} \varepsilon_r(x) + \frac{|y|}{|x+y|} \varepsilon_r(y) \right)$$

That is:  $\varepsilon_r^\oplus(x, y) \leq \max\{K_x, K_y\} (\varepsilon_r(x) + \varepsilon_r(y))$

where we have defined

- $K_x = \frac{|x|}{|x+y|}$  is the condition number relative to the input  $x$ ;
- $K_y = \frac{|y|}{|x+y|}$  is the condition number relative to the input  $y$ .

From this inequality, when  $x + y \rightarrow 0$  the condition numbers  $K_x$  and  $K_y$  grows up to infinity and hence the relative error on the result can be arbitrarily huge.

#### Step 4: Example: Intersection of two straight lines

In this example we consider the intersection of two straight lines  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  given by the equations:

$$r_1: 1.0x + 3.5y = 8.0$$

and

$$r_2: 2.1x + 7.0y = 16.1$$

The intersection point is  $(1.0, 2.0)$ . Now, if we change the coefficient of the second straight line from 2.1 to 2.12, the new solution becomes  $(0.8333, 2.048)$ .

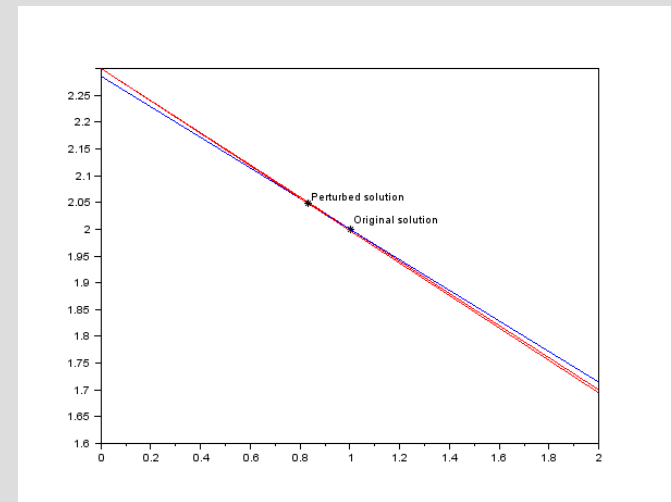
If we analyze the relative error of the system, we can see that the input relative error is approximately  $\frac{\|\Delta d\|}{\|d\|} = \frac{|2.1-2.12|}{|2.1|} \approx 9.5 \times 10^{-3}$ , while the relative errors on the solution are  $1.67 \times 10^{-1}$  for the variable  $x$  and  $2.38 \times 10^{-2}$  for  $y$  respectively. These values can be considered too high when compared to the order of magnitude of the input error. This is due to the fact that the two straight lines  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are almost parallel (**ill-conditioned**).

Now, let's consider the system where  $r_1$  is replaced by the orthogonal line  $r_3$  to the line  $r_2$ ,

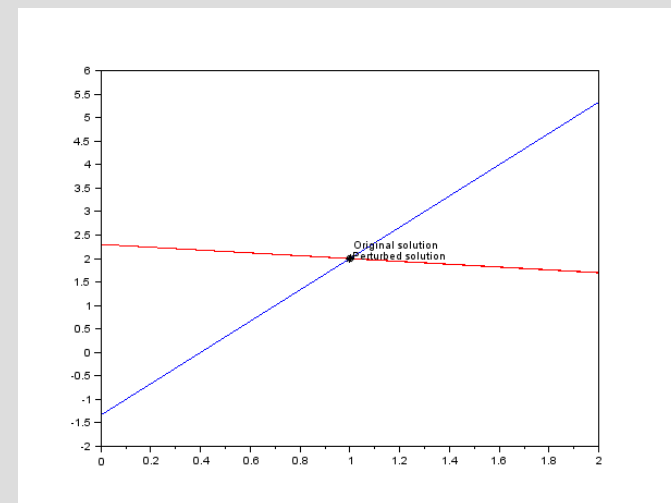
$$r_3: -3.3333x + y = -1.3333.$$

Using the previous perturbation, the solution now moves from  $(1.0, 2.0)$  to  $(0.9992, 1.9974)$ . In this case we have the same relative input error, but the relative errors on the solution are  $7.86 \times 10^{-4}$  for the variable  $x$  and  $1.31 \times 10^{-3}$  for  $y$ , which can be considered small (same order of magnitude of the input). This is due to the fact that the two straight lines  $r_3$  and  $r_2$  are almost orthogonal (**well-conditioned**).

The Scilab script is reported in the function **stabline.sce**.



(Example of an ill-conditioned problem)



(Example of a well-conditioned problem)

## Step 5: Zeros of polynomials

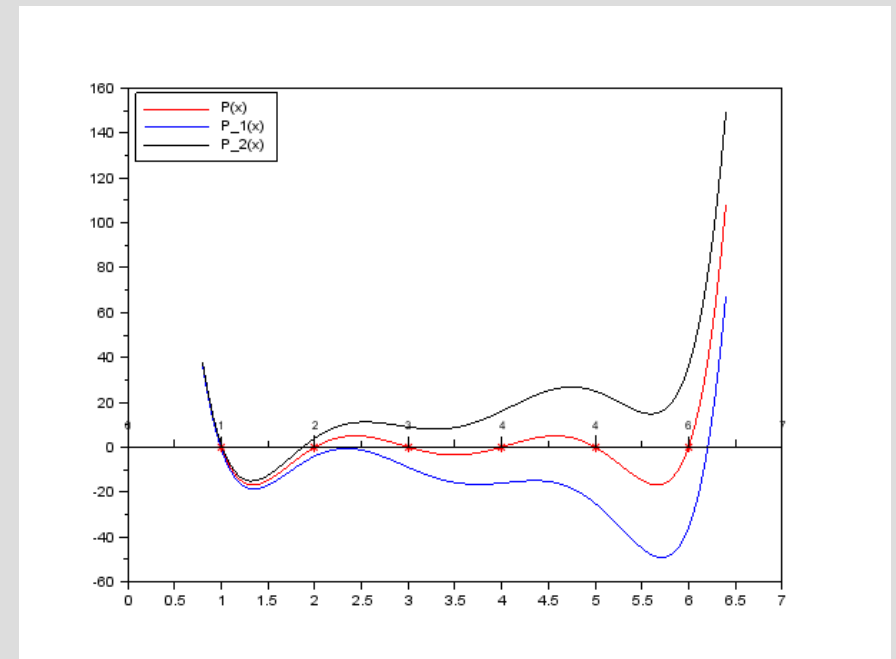
In this example we consider the problem of finding the real zeros of the polynomial

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= (x-1)(x-2)(x-3)(x-4)(x-5)(x-6) \\ &= x^6 - 21x^5 + 175x^4 - 735x^3 + 1624x^2 - 1764x + 720 \end{aligned}$$

and of  $P_1(x)$  and  $P_2(x)$ , which are obtained changing the coefficient of  $x^2$  first with 1623 and then with 1625.

As we may notice in the figure on the right, in  $P_1(x)$  and  $P_2(x)$  some roots are moved from real to imaginary.

The Scilab script is reported in the function [stabpoly.sce](#).



(Example of stability for zeros of a polynomial)

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-----
roots(P(x))  roots(P_1(x))  roots(P_2(x))
-----
6           +6.20616 +0.00000i  +5.70372 +0.38517i
5           +4.56804 +0.73363i  +5.70372 -0.38517i
4           +4.56804 -0.73363i  +3.35663 +0.63983i
3           +2.33290 +0.14639i  +3.35663 -0.63983i
2           +2.33290 -0.14639i  +1.87066 +0.00000i
1           +0.99195 +0.00000i  +1.00865 +0.00000i
-----

```

(Roots of the three polynomials)

## Step 6: Exercise #1

Let's consider the following polynomial

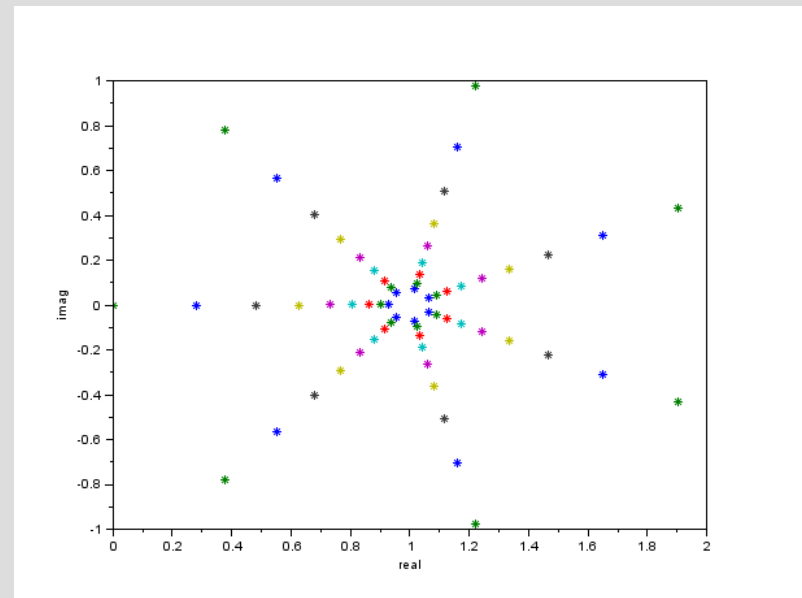
$$P_\varepsilon(x) = (x - 1)^7 - \varepsilon$$

which has 7 unitary roots for  $\varepsilon = 0$ .

Plot, in a complex plane, the roots of  $P_\varepsilon(x)$  for different values of  $\varepsilon$ .

**Hint:** Use the Scilab function **logspace** to distribute the value of  $\varepsilon$  in a log space subdivision between  $10^{-8}$  and 1. The function **logspace(d1,d2, [n])** distributes n points between  $10^{d1}$  and  $10^{d2}$ .

The Scilab script with the solution is reported in the function **ex1.sce**.



(Results on roots perturbation with  $\varepsilon$  varying in  $[10^{-8}, 1]$  )

## Step 7: Numerical stability

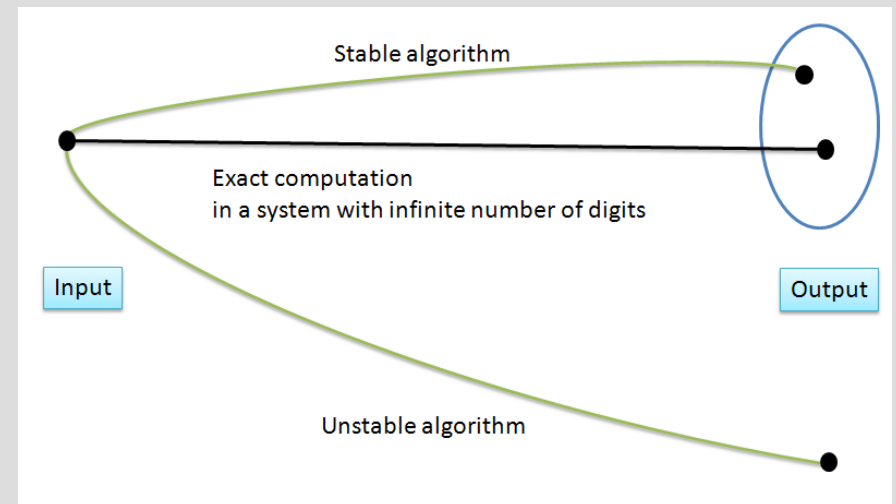
To solve a given problem we use a certain algorithm and its numerical implementation. Sometimes many algebraically equivalent solution strategies are available, but numerically they can lead to different results. This is due to computer's arithmetic, which can propagate errors in a more or less relevant way (see the Openeering tutorial on numerical errors).

Algorithms that do not magnify these errors are said to be **numerically stable**.

On the other hand, if an algorithm is **numerically unstable**, at a given point, the errors do not remain bounded and tend to grow up in an uncontrolled way corrupting completely the final result.

Hence, even when a problem is well-conditioned, if we try to solve it with an unstable algorithm, the obtained results will be meaningless.

The following examples refer to a comparison between stable and unstable algorithms for two given problems.



**(Stable and unstable algorithm with respect to a solution obtained using an exact analytical procedure with an infinite number of digits)**

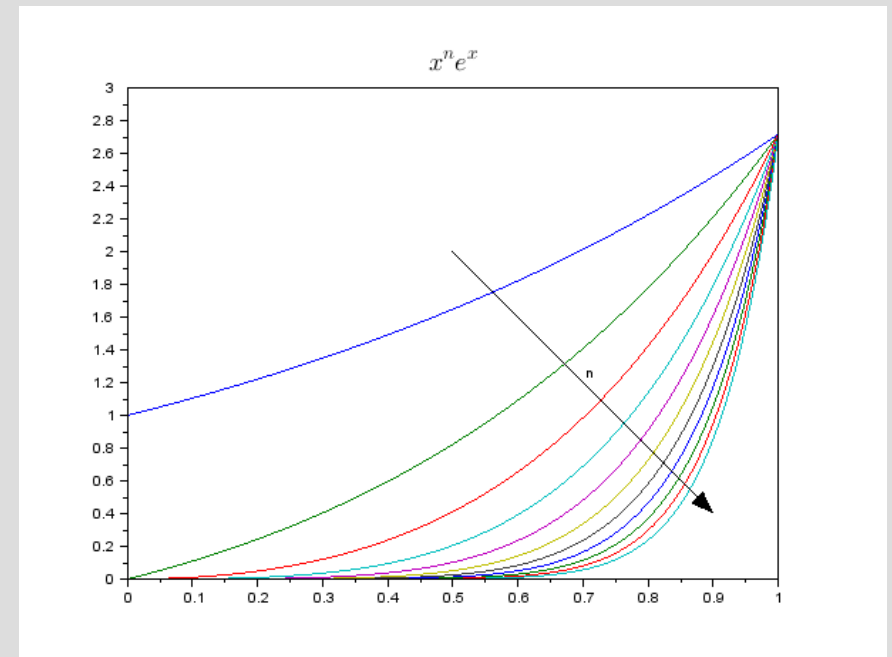
### Step 8: Example of integral computation

In the next two steps, we compare two algorithms solving the following integral:

$$I_n = \frac{1}{e} \int_0^1 x^n e^x dx, \quad n \geq 0 \text{ (integer)}$$

Both algorithms are based on the following theoretical considerations:

- $0 < I_n < \int_0^1 x^n dx = \frac{1}{n+1}$ ;
- $I_{n+1} < I_n$ ;
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} I_n = 0$



(the integrand)



## Step 9: Example of integral computation (unstable formulation)

The first strategy is to develop an algorithm based on the following recursive formula:

- For  $n = 0$  we have:

$$I_0 = \frac{1}{e} \int_0^1 e^x dx = \frac{1}{e} (e^1 - 1) = 1 - e^{-1};$$

- For  $n > 0$  we can use integration by parts having

$$I_n = \frac{1}{e} \left( \int_0^1 x^n e^x dx = [x^n e^x]_0^1 - n \int_0^1 x^{n-1} e^x dx \right) = 1 - nI_{n-1}$$

The developed program starts from  $n = 1$ , where  $I_1 = e^{-1}$ .

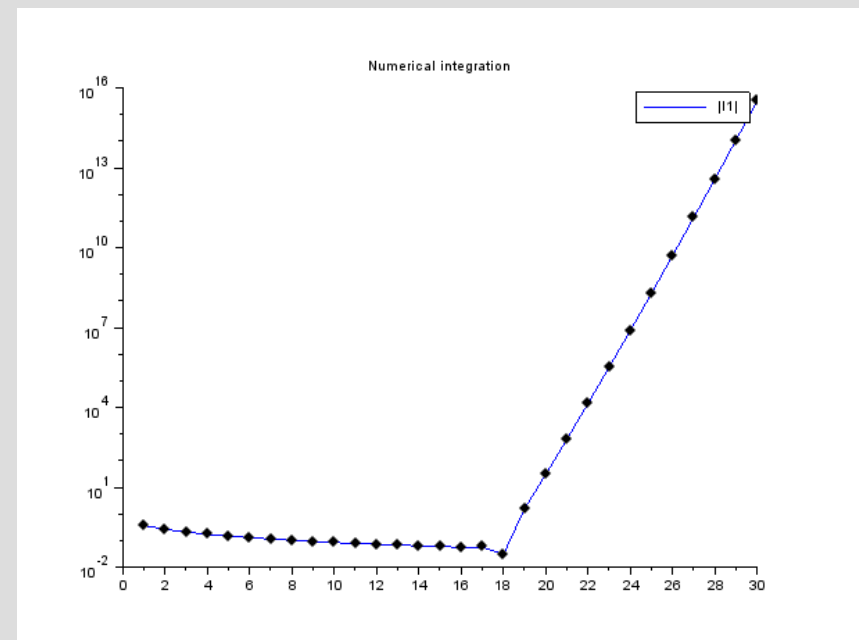
To perform the error analysis we denote by  $I'_n = I_n + \varepsilon_n$  the approximate value of the integral at step  $n$  with respect to the exact value  $I_n$  and making an error  $\varepsilon_n$ . Hence, it is possible to write the following recursive formula for the error

$$\varepsilon_n = I'_n - I_n = (1 - nI'_{n-1}) - (1 - nI_{n-1}) = -n(I'_{n-1} - I_{n-1}) = -n\varepsilon_{n-1}$$

and  $\varepsilon_n$ , with respect to the first error  $\varepsilon_1$ , is

$$\varepsilon_n = (-1)^{n-1} n! \varepsilon_1$$

As a consequence, even if  $\varepsilon_1$  is small, the error  $\varepsilon_n$  grows up to infinity as a factorial.



(Absolute value of  $I_n$ )

## Step 10: Example of integral computation (stable formulation)

The second strategy is to develop an algorithm based on the following recursive formula:

- For  $n = N$  we set:  
 $I_N = 0$ ;
- For  $n > 0$  we rewrite the previous recursive formula  $I_n = 1 - nI_{n-1}$  in terms of  $n - 1$  as follows:

$$I_{n-1} = \frac{1}{n}(1 - I_n)$$

The developed program starts from  $N = 100$  and computes  $I_1$  as the last integral.

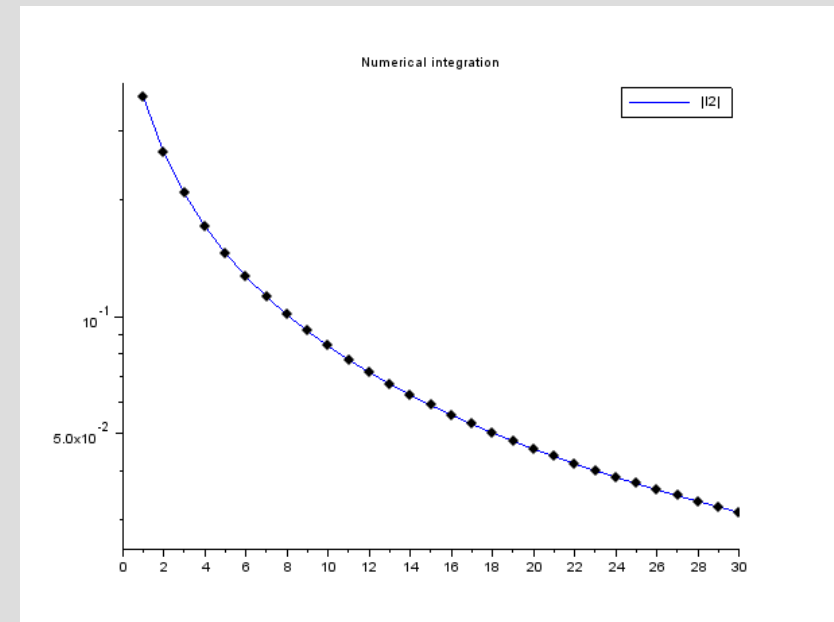
To perform the error analysis we denote by  $I'_n = I_n + \varepsilon_n$  the approximate value of the integral at step  $n$  with respect to the exact value  $I_n$  and making an error  $\varepsilon_n$ . Hence, it is possible to write the following recursive formula for the error

$$\varepsilon_n = I'_n - I_n = (1 - nI'_{n-1}) - (1 - nI_{n-1}) = -n(I'_{n-1} - I_{n-1}) = -n\varepsilon_{n-1}$$

giving  $\varepsilon_{n-1} = \frac{1}{-n}\varepsilon_n$ . Hence  $\varepsilon_1$  can be expressed in terms of  $\varepsilon_N$  as

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{(-1)^{N-1}}{N!}\varepsilon_N$$

As a consequence, even if  $\varepsilon_N$  is "big", the error  $\varepsilon_1$  decreases to zero, since we have a factorial as denominator.



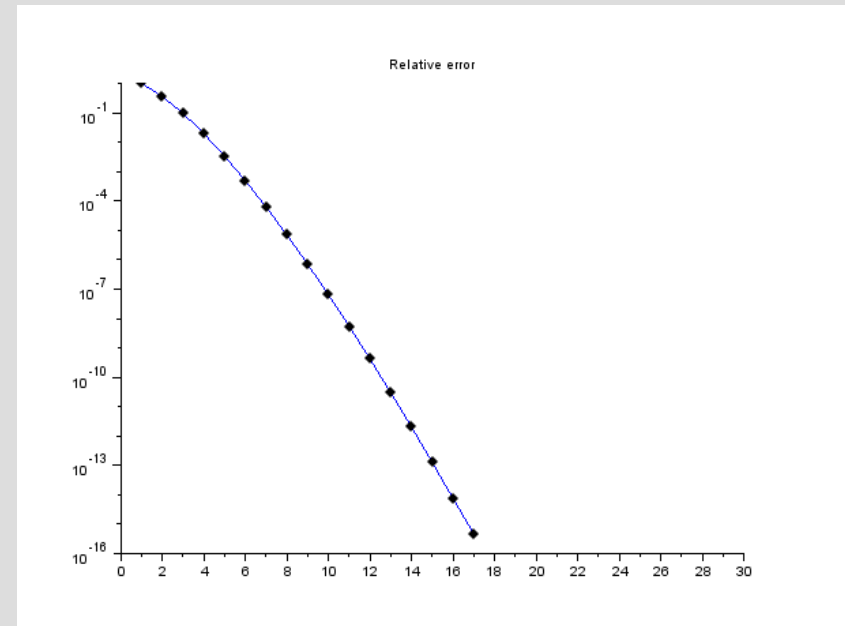
(Value of  $I_n$ . The code for this plot is in `intdemo.sce`)

## Step 11: Exercise #2

Considering the stable formulation, plot the relative error for  $I_1$  starting from  $I_N = 0$  for different values of  $N$  in the range  $[1,30]$ .

The relative error on  $\varepsilon_1$  is computed as

$$err_{rel} = \frac{|I_1^{exact} - I_1|}{|I_1^{exact}|} \text{ where } I_1 \text{ depends on } N \text{ and } I_1^{exact} = e^{-1}.$$



*(Relative error of the approximation of  $I_1$  depending on  $N$ . Note that the values are visible only until  $N=17$ , after that limit the values are less than %eps and are not visible in a logarithmic scale)*

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## Step 12: Concluding remarks and References

In this tutorial we have collected a series of numerical examples written in Scilab for the study of numerical stability.

1. Scilab Web Page: Available: [www.scilab.org](http://www.scilab.org).
2. Openeering: [www.openeering.com](http://www.openeering.com).
3. J. Higham, accuracy and Stability of Numerical Algorithms, SIAM
4. Atkinson, An Introduction to Numerical Analysis, Wiley

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## Step 13: Software content

To report a bugs or suggest improvements please contact Openeering team at the web site [www.openeering.com](http://www.openeering.com).

Thank you for your attention,

*Silvia Poles and Manolo Venturin*

```
-----  
Main directory  
-----  
stabline.sce      : Stability for line intersection  
stabpoly.sce     : Stability for polynomial  
intdemo.sce      : Integral computation example  
ex1.sce          : Solution of exercise #1  
ex2.sce          : Solution of exercise #2  
license.txt      : The license file
```