

Propagation of uncertainty

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In [statistics](#), **propagation of uncertainty** (or **propagation of error**) is the effect of [variables' uncertainties](#) (or [errors](#)) on the uncertainty of a [function](#) based on them. When the variables are the values of experimental measurements they have uncertainties due to measurement limitations (e.g. instrument [precision](#)) which propagate to the the combination of variables in the function.

The uncertainty is usually defined by the [absolute error](#). Uncertainties can also be defined by the [relative error](#) $\Delta x/x$, which is usually written as a percentage.

Most commonly the error on a quantity, Δx , is given as the [standard deviation](#), σ , . Standard deviation is the positive square root of [variance](#), σ^2 . The value of a quantity and its error are often expressed as $x \pm \Delta x$. If the statistical [probability distribution](#) of the variable is known or can be assumed, it is possible to derive [confidence limits](#) to describe the region within which the true value of the variable may be found. For example, the 68% confidence limits for a variable belonging to a [normal distribution](#) are \pm one standard deviation from the value, that is, there is a 68% probability that the true value lies in the region $x \pm \sigma$.

If the variables are [correlated](#), then [covariance](#) must be taken into account.

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[\[edit\]](#) Linear combinations

Let $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ be a linear combination of n variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n with combination coefficients a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n .

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}$$

and let the [variance-covariance matrix](#) on \mathbf{x} be denoted by \mathbf{M} .

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & COV_{12} & COV_{13} & \dots \\ COV_{12} & \sigma_2^2 & COV_{23} & \dots \\ COV_{13} & COV_{23} & \sigma_3^2 & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

Then, the variance of f is given by

$$\sigma_f^2 = \sum_i \sum_j a_i M_{ij} a_j = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{a}$$

Each covariance term, M_{ij} can be expressed in terms of the [correlation coefficient](#) ρ_{ij} by $M_{ij} = \rho_{ij} \sigma_i \sigma_j$, so that an alternative expression for the variance of f is

$$\sigma_f^2 = \sum_i a_i^2 \sigma_i^2 + \sum_i \sum_{j(j \neq i)} a_i a_j \rho_{ij} \sigma_i \sigma_j$$

In the case that the variables \mathbf{x} are uncorrelated this simplifies to

$$\sigma_f^2 = \sum_i a_i^2 \sigma_i^2$$

[\[edit\]](#) Non-linear combinations

When f is a non-linear combination of the variables \mathbf{x} , it must usually be linearized by approximation to a first-order [Maclaurin series](#) expansion, though in some cases, exact formulas can be derived that do not depend on the expansion ^[1].

$$f \approx f^0 + \sum_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} x_i + \sum_i \sum_j \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} x_i x_j (i \neq j)$$

where $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}$ denotes the [partial derivative](#) of f with respect to the j -th variable. Since f^0 is a constant it does not contribute to the error on f . Therefore, the propagation of error

follows the linear case, above, but replacing the linear coefficients, a_i by the partial derivatives, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}$ in the linearized function.

[\[edit\]](#) Example

Any non-linear function, $f(a,b)$, of two variables, a and b , can be expanded as

$$f \approx f^0 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial a}a + \frac{\partial f}{\partial b}b + 2\frac{\partial f}{\partial a}\frac{\partial f}{\partial b}ab$$

Whence

$$\sigma_f^2 = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial a}\right)^2 \sigma_a^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial b}\right)^2 \sigma_b^2 + 2\frac{\partial f}{\partial a}\frac{\partial f}{\partial b}COV_{ab}$$

In the particular case that $f=ab$, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial a} = b$, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial b} = a$. Then

$$\sigma_f^2 = b^2 \sigma_a^2 + a^2 \sigma_b^2 + 2abCOV_{ab}$$

or

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_f}{f}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma_a}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_b}{b}\right)^2 + 2\left(\frac{\sigma_a}{a}\right)\left(\frac{\sigma_b}{b}\right)\rho_{ab}$$

[\[edit\]](#) Caveats and warnings

Error estimates for non-linear functions are [biased](#) on account of using a truncated series expansion. The extent of this bias depends on the nature of the function. For example, the bias on the error calculated for $\log x$ increases as x increases since the expansion to $1+x$ is a good approximation only when x is small.

In data-fitting applications it is often possible to assume that measurements errors are uncorrelated. Nevertheless, parameters derived from these measurements, such as [least-squares](#) parameters, will be correlated. For example, in [linear regression](#), the errors on slope and intercept will be correlated and this correlation should be taken into account when deriving the error on a calculated value.

$$y = mz + c : \sigma_y^2 = z^2 \sigma_m^2 + \sigma_c^2 + 2z\rho\sigma_m\sigma_c$$

In the special case of the inverse $1/B$ where $B = N(0,1)$, the distribution is a [Cauchy distribution](#) and there is no definable variance. In such cases, there can be defined probabilities for intervals which can be defined either by Monte Carlo simulation, or, in some cases, by using the Geary-Hinkley transformation ^[2].

[[edit](#)] Example formulas

This table shows the variances of simple functions of the real variables A, B with standard deviations σ_A, σ_B , and precisely-known real-valued constants a, b .

Function	
$f = aA$	$\sigma_f^2 = a^2 \sigma_A^2$
$f = aA \pm bB$	$\sigma_f^2 = a^2 \sigma_A^2 + b^2 \sigma_B^2 \pm 2ab \text{COV}_{AB}$
$f = aAB$	$\left(\frac{\sigma_f}{f}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma_A}{A}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_B}{B}\right)^2 + 2\frac{\sigma_a \sigma_b}{A B} \rho_{AB}$
$f = a\frac{A}{B}$	$\left(\frac{\sigma_f}{f}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma_A}{A}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_B}{B}\right)^2 - 2\frac{\sigma_a \sigma_b}{A B} \rho_{AB}$
$f = aA^{\pm b}$	$\frac{\sigma_f}{f} = b\frac{\sigma_A}{A}$
$f = a \ln(\pm bA)$	$\sigma_f = a\frac{\sigma_A}{A}$
$f = ae^{\pm bA}$	$\frac{\sigma_f}{f} = b\sigma_A$

$f = a^{\pm bA}$	$\frac{\sigma_f}{f} = b \ln a \sigma_A$
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For uncorrelated variables the covariance terms are zero. Expressions for more complicated functions can be derived by combining simpler functions. For example, repeated multiplication, assuming no correlation gives,

$$f = AB(C) : \left(\frac{\sigma_f}{f}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma_A}{A}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_B}{B}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_C}{C}\right)^2$$

[\[edit\]](#) Partial derivatives

Given $X = f(A, B, C, \dots)$

Absolute Error	Variance
$\Delta X = \left \frac{\partial f}{\partial A} \right \cdot \Delta A + \left \frac{\partial f}{\partial B} \right \cdot \Delta B + \left \frac{\partial f}{\partial C} \right \cdot \Delta C + \dots$	$\sigma_X^2 = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial A} \sigma_A \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial B} \sigma_B \right)^2 + \dots$

[\[edit\]](#) Example calculation: Inverse tangent function

We can calculate the uncertainty propagation for the inverse tangent function as an example of using partial derivatives to propagate error.

Define

$$f(\theta) = \arctan \theta,$$

where σ_θ is the absolute uncertainty on our measurement of θ .

The partial derivative of $f(\theta)$ with respect to θ is

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} = \frac{1}{1 + \theta^2}.$$

Therefore, our propagated uncertainty is

$$\sigma_f = \frac{\sigma_\theta}{1 + \theta^2},$$

where σ_f is the absolute propagated uncertainty.

[edit] Example application: Resistance measurement

A practical application is an [experiment](#) in which one measures [current](#), I , and [voltage](#), V , on a [resistor](#) in order to determine the [resistance](#), R , using [Ohm's law](#), $R = V / I$.

Given the measured variables with uncertainties, $I \pm \Delta I$ and $V \pm \Delta V$, the uncertainty in the computed quantity, ΔR is

$$\Delta R = \left(\left(\frac{\Delta V}{I} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{V}{I^2} \Delta I \right)^2 \right)^{1/2} = R \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta V}{V} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta I}{I} \right)^2}.$$

Thus, in this simple case, the [relative error](#) $\Delta R/R$ is simply the square root of the sum of the squares of the two relative errors of the measured variables.

[edit] Notes

1. [^](#) [Leo Goodman](#) (1960). "[On the Exact Variance of Products](#)". *Journal of the American Statistical Association* **55** (292): 708-713.
2. [^](#) [Jack Hayya](#), [Donald Armstrong](#) and [Nicolas Gressis](#) (July 1975). "[A Note on the Ratio of Two Normally Distributed Variables](#)". *Management Science* **21** (11): 1338-1341.
3. [^](#) [\[Lindberg\]](#) (2000-07-01). [Uncertainties and Error Propagation](#) (eng). *Uncertainties, Graphing, and the Vernier Caliper 1*. Rochester Institute of Technology. Archived from [the original](#) on [2004-11-12](#). Retrieved on [2007-04-20](#). "The guiding principle in all cases is to consider the most pessimistic situation."

[edit] External links

- [Uncertainties and Error Propagation](#), Appendix V from the Mechanics Lab Manual, Case Western Reserve University.
- [A detailed discussion of measurements and the propagation of uncertainty](#) explaining the benefits of using error propagation formulas and monte carlo simulations instead of simple [significance arithmetic](#).
- [Uncertainty calculator](#) can be used to calculate propagated error

[edit] See also

- [Errors and residuals in statistics](#)
- [Accuracy and precision](#)
- [Delta method](#)
- [Significance arithmetic](#)

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