Floating Point Arithmetic

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Errors in Scientific Computing

• Before computations:

- **Modeling** -- Neglecting certain properties
- Empirical data -- Not every input is known perfectly
- Previous computations -- Data may be taken from other (error-prone) numerical methods
- **Sloppy programming** -- E.g. inconsistent conversions

During computations

- **Truncation** -- Approximations from numerical method
- Rounding -> computers offer only finite precision in representing real numbers (THIS LECTURE)

Example 1: earth surface calculation

 $A = 4 \pi r^2$



- Empirical data -- rr contains measurement errors
- **Truncation** -- our calculation employs a finite amount of digits for $\pi\pi$
- Rounding -> the multiplications are rounded



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Rounding

- Efficiency/Memory reasons =>
 - amount of information numeric variables carry: LIMITED to N bits (usu

(usually 8/16/32/64/80/128)

- trade-off between speed and accuracy
- A variable of N bits can represent exactly 2^N states.
 - E.g. int -> 32bit numbers between -2.147.483.648 and +2.147.483.647
 - 2^32 ~ 4B states
 - 1 is the smallest non-zero number representable
 - Integer: OK with "digital thinking"
- ISSUE: we often need to deal with real numbers:
 - 0.03, 445.67, e, Gas constant R in SI units, pi, Universal gravitational constant in SI units
 - Our height compared to the earth radius...

Rounding

- We can fabricate many encodings carrying real numbers in 32bit
- Key observation:

regardless the encoding we cannot bypass the limit of 32bit worth of information!

- Simple example *Fixed point* arithmetic: we scale the integers by a given factor
 - e.g. Scale: 1/10.000, 32bit

-214.748,3648 and +214.748,3647

• Still inconvenient: need to agree on the scale

cannot represent numbers smaller than 1/10.000 or too large.

IEEE 754 Floating-point number representation (single precision case)

- Standard representation since the 90's. Now at 2008 revision
- Idea:

32 bit of information

•
$$x = 22.841796875$$
 = $+0.22841796875 \cdot 10^{-2}$
Usual decimal notation Normalized scientific notation
 $(0.....)$
We conveniently use base 2

We conveniently use base 2

$$x = +0.1011011010111100000000 \cdot 2^{00000101}$$
Sign: 1bit Mantissa: 23bit exponent: 8bit (with bias)

IEEE 754 Floating-point number representation (single precision case)



- Different chunks of the 32bits serve different purposes
 - Sign -> 1bit
 - Scale (exponent) -> 8bit
 - Fraction/Significand/Mantissa -> 23bit
- We use normalized representation: the first "fractional" digit is always 1! (one bit gain!)
- The exponent is stored normalized: $real \exp = storedexp bias(127)$
- The exponent "storedexp = 0" is kept for special cases

IEEE 754 Floating-point number representation (single precision case)



- Different chunks of the 32bits serve different purposes
 - Sign -> 1bit
 - Scale (exponent) -> 8bit
 - Fraction/Significand/Mantissa -> 23bit
- Heads up: Floating-point arithmetic comes with different rules!
- UNDERSTANDING THE RULES: ESSENTIAL!
 - Past: several devastating accidents (related to guidance problem)

Example 2: Constant speed walking: how far do I get? (A journey with rounding errors)

• Walking forward with constant velocity

$$\dot{x} = v$$

• This can be discretized as

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \Delta t v$$

- For simplicity let the displacement be $\Delta t v = 1$.
- ISSUE: naïve implementations rapidly yield wrong results due to rounding errors

Example 2: Constant speed walking: how far do I get? (A journey with rounding errors)

```
import numpy as np
%pylab inline
history = []
x = np.float16(0.) ## initial position at 0. using half-precision to cut it short
u = np.float16(1.) ## displacement at every time step
time = range(int(5e3))
saving step = 100
for t in time:
    x += u
    if t % saving step == 0:
        history.append(x)
plt.figure(figsize = (8,6))
plt.plot(np.array(time[::saving step]), label = 'Exact solution')
plt.plot(history,label='Numeric integration')
plt.xlabel('time')
plt.ylabel('position')
plt.legend()
```





"Walking" with 3 significant digits (as in base for simplicity 10)

- initial position: $0.000\cdot 10^0$
- next step: $0.100 \cdot 10^1$
-
- position: $999 = 0.999 \cdot 10^3$
- next step: $999 + 1 = 0.100 \cdot 10^5$
- next step:

 $(1000 + 1) = 0.100 \cdot 10^5 + 0.1 \cdot 10^1 = 0.1001 \cdot 10^5 \rightarrow 0.100 \cdot 10^5$

where the last arrow performed the truncation operation as we retain 3 digits only.

Digging in the IEEE 754 standard

Single precision: 32 bit





More recently: quad precision 128 bit, half-precision 16 bit (deep learning)

What the IEEE 754 Standard defines

- Arithmetic operations
 - (add, subtract, multiply, divide, square root, fused multiply-add, remainder)
- Conversions between formats
- Encodings of special values
- This ensures portability of compute kernels

IEEE 754 implications: number density

- number of significant digits FIXED =>number density decreases
 - the exponent determines the number density
- Example: 32 bit float
 - 8 bits exponents
 - 0 is represented with exponent -127
 - 126 negative exponents, each has 2^23 unique numbers
 - Total in (0,1) = 1,056,964,608
 - Boundaries: {0}, {1} (2 contributions)
 - Total in [0,1] = 1,056,964,610
 - REM: Total available numbers in 32bit: 2^32 = **4,294,967,296**

IEEE 754 number density – numbers in [0,1]



About **25%** of all numbers available in FP are between 0.0 and 1.0

IEEE 754 number density - numbers in [-1,1]



Hence about **50%** of all numbers available in FP are between -1.0 and 1.0

IEEE 754 number density

- the same number of bits is used for the significand => exponent determines representable number density
 - e.g. in a single-precision floating-point number there are 8,388,606 numbers
 - between 1.0 and 2.0, but only 16,382 between 1023.0 and 1024.0
- Accuracy depends on the magnitude
- For instance: all numbers beyond a threshold are even
 -> We lose the "unit bit" O(1)
 - single-precision: all numbers beyond 224 are even
 - double-precision: all numbers beyond 253 are even

IEEE 754 – Unit of Last Position (ULP) & rounding error

- ULP: spacing between two neighboring floating-point numbers.
 - $x = 0.11010100 \cdot 2^{exp}$

How large is the increment if the last zero is shifted to one?

- ULP ~ 2 x relative error that we make as we truncate
- Machine ϵ : ULP for x = 1

Example: $e^{100} \approx 2.6881171418161356 \ 10^{43}$

- If we take the approximation literarily:
 - 26,881,171,418,161,356,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000
- actual value stored (after float64 binary representation)
 - **26,881,171,418,161,356**,094,253,400,435,962,903,554,686,976
- correct value
 - **26,881,171,418,161,354**,484,126,255,515,800,135,873,611,118
- **ISSUE**: the correct value is NOT a float64 number and needs to be approximated by rounded

a=26,881,171,418,161,351,142,493,243,294,441,803,958,190,080 b=26,881,171,418,161,356,094,253,400,435,962,903,554,686,976



IEEE 754 Operations: sum

Sum $a \oplus b$:

Algorithm:

- 1. determine operand with smaller exponent (e.g. *a*)
- 2. transform the representation of *a* to have the same exponent of *b i.e. shift the mantissa*
- *3. sum the mantissa (integer operation, temporarily on more bits)*
- 4. normalize
- 5. round
- *6. truncate*

ISSUE: the sum \bigoplus <u>has different rules than</u> on (usual "infinite precision") real numbers

IEEE 754 Operations: sum properties & issues

		Commutative	e property	Associative property
	Real-numbers op	a + b =	b + a	(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)
	Floating-point op	$a \oplus b =$	$b \oplus a$	$(a \oplus b) \oplus c \neq a \oplus (b \oplus c)$
			Example	
ISSUE 1: Floating point sum is not		associative!	<pre>d = 1.0 + (1.5e38 + (-1.5e38)); printf("%f", d); // prints 1.0</pre>	
			d = (1.0 printf(') + 1.5e38) + (-1.5e38); '%f", d); // prints 0.0

IEEE 754 Operations: sum properties & issues

ISSUE 2: subtractions of similar numbers (after rounding) yields loss of precision

- After rounding, represented numbers come with error |e|<0.5ULP
- Catastrophic cancellation happens when similar operands subjected to rounding errors are subtracted.

EXAMPLE

$$a = 0.123456789 \rightarrow a_t = 0.1234568$$

 $b = 0.123455555 \rightarrow b_t = 0.1234556$
 $a - b = 0.00001234 = 0.123400000 \cdot 10^{-7} = (a - b)_t$

 $a_t \oplus -b_t = 0.1200000 \cdot 10^{-7}$

We lost precision with no possibility of gaining it back.

- REM: Extra care when dealing with subtractions of similar numbers
- REM: Extra-extra-extra care when using result in multiplication, since result is tainted by low accuracy

IEEE 754 Operations: multiplication

multiplication $a \otimes b$: Algorithm:

- 1. multiply mantissa (yields a valid mantissa by construction)
- 2. sum exponents
- 3. normalize
- 4. round
- 5. truncate

Again the FP multiplication \otimes is commutative but not associative although "not plagued by cancellation"

ISSUE: we can overflow underflow exponents

IEEE 754 Operations: order relations and comparison

As numbers are known with accuracy 0.5ULP (or lower):

- equality is not well defined
- two numbers are "equal" (considering rounding) if their relative difference is within few machine epsilon
- unsafe to use FP numbers e.g. as loop indices
- Rem when testing

IEEE 754 standard – special numbers

The standard prescribes a special set of values to treat exceptions

Туре	Ехр	Fraction	Sign
Positive Zero	0	0	0
Negative Zero	0	0	1
Denormalised numbers	0	non zero	any
Normalised numbers	12^e-2	any	any
Infinities	2^e-1	0	any
NaN	2^e-1	non zero	any

IEEE 754 Operations: best practices

- Avoid summation of numbers with different order of magnitude as "small" terms are discarded
 - We can play smart algorithmic tricks:
 - sum after sort to allow gradual growth of order of magnitude
 - sum in blocks keeping order of magnitude commensurable
 - use Kahan summation
 - use higher precision variables

- Algorithmic tricks cannot help cancellation.
 - Use your math
 - Check for suitable library help (exp(x) -1, for x ~ 0)

Exercises

- Go online <u>https://gitlab.com/acorbe/SMR3199_FP_ex</u>
- git clone git@gitlab.com:acorbe/SMR3199_FP_ex.git