

# 2nd Lecture: Basic properties of Floating-Point Arithmetic

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# Base $\beta$ Floating-Point System

## Parameters:

$$\begin{cases} \text{radix (or base)} & \beta \geq 2 \quad (\text{in practice } \beta = 2 \text{ or } 10) \\ \text{precision} & p \geq 1 \\ \text{extremal exponents} & e_{\min}, e_{\max} \quad (\text{in practice } e_{\min} = 1 - e_{\max}) \end{cases}$$

A **Floating-Point number** (FPN)  $x$  is represented by 2 integers:

- **integral significand**:  $M$ ,  $|M| \leq \beta^p - 1$ ;
- **exponent**  $e$ ,  $e_{\min} \leq e \leq e_{\max}$ .

such that

$$x = M \cdot \beta^{e+1-p}$$

with  $e$  smallest under these constraints (necessary for unicity:  
 $1200 \times 10^{-2} = 12 \times 10^0$ ).

$$\Rightarrow |M| \geq \beta^{p-1}, \text{ unless } e = e_{\min}.$$

## Base $\beta$ Floating-Point System

- **Fractional significand** of  $x$  (sometimes called **mantissa**): the number  $m = M \cdot \beta^{1-p}$ , so that  $x = m \cdot \beta^e$ .
- **normal number**: of absolute value  $\geq \beta^{e_{\min}}$ . The absolute value of its integral significand is  $\geq \beta^{p-1}$ . Example with  $\beta = 10$ ,  $e_{\min} = -99$  and  $p = 4$ :

$$4235 \times 10^{0-3} = 4.235 \times 10^0.$$

- **subnormal number**: of absolute value  $< \beta^{e_{\min}}$ . The absolute value of its integral significand is  $< \beta^{p-1}$ . Example with  $\beta = 10$ ,  $e_{\min} = -99$  and  $p = 4$ :

$$3 \times 10^{-99-3} = 0.003 \times 10^{-99}.$$

Subnormal numbers represented with worse accuracy: **graceful underflow**.

# Base $\beta$ Floating-Point System

In practice: normality/subnormality is encoded in the exponent field.

**Radix 2:** the leftmost bit of the significand is always:

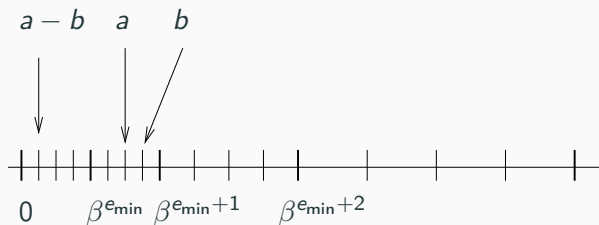
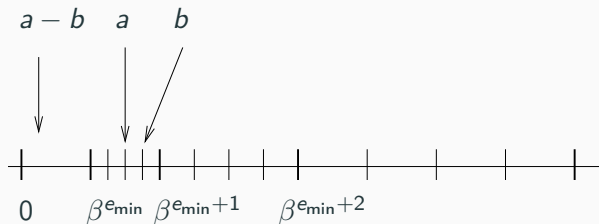
- a “1” for a normal number,
- a “0” for a subnormal number.

→ no need to store it (**implicit 1** convention).

### Exercise:

- what is the largest representable number  $\Omega$ ?
- let  $x \in [\beta^k, \beta^{k+1})$ , with  $k \geq e_{\min}$ . Assume  $x$  is a FPN. The number  $x^+$  (FP successor of  $x$ ) is the smallest FPN  $> x$ . What is the value of  $x^+ - x$ ?
- in the **binary32** format,  $\beta = 2$ ,  $e_{\max} = 127$ , and  $p = 24$ . What is the representation of 1? What is the smallest positive FP number?

## Subnormal numbers difficult to implement efficiently, but...



If  $a$  and  $b$  are FPN,  $a \neq b$  equivalent to “computed  $a - b \neq 0$ ”.

## Theorem 1 (Hauser)

If the absolute value of the sum/difference of two floating-point numbers is  $\leq \beta^{e_{\min}+1}$  then it is a floating-point number (i.e., it is exactly representable in FP arithmetic).

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left. \begin{aligned} a &= \pi_a \cdot \beta^{e_a - p + 1} \\ b &= \pi_b \cdot \beta^{e_b - p + 1} \\ e_a, e_b &\geq e_{\min} \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} &a \text{ and } b \text{ are} \\ &\text{multiple of} \\ &\beta^{e_{\min} - p + 1} \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} &a + b \text{ is} \\ &\text{multiple of} \\ &\beta^{e_{\min} - p + 1} \end{aligned} \\
 &|a + b| = K \cdot \beta^{e_{\min} - p + 1} \\
 &\text{It is } \leq \beta^{e_{\min} + 1} \Rightarrow K \leq \beta^p \\
 &\quad \textcircled{1} K \leq \beta^{p-1} \Rightarrow \text{Integral significant } K \text{ \& } \text{exponent } e_{\min} \\
 &\quad \textcircled{2} K = \beta^p \Rightarrow |a + b| = \beta^{e_{\min} + 1} \text{ which is a FPN}
 \end{aligned}$$

## Before 1985: a total mess...

Machine	Underflow $\lambda$	Overflow $\Lambda$
DEC PDP-11, VAX, F and D formats	$2^{-128} \approx 2.9 \times 10^{-39}$	$2^{127} \approx 1.7 \times 10^{38}$
DEC PDP-10; Honeywell 600, 6000; Univac 110x single; IBM 709X, 704X	$2^{-129} \approx 1.5 \times 10^{-39}$	$2^{127} \approx 1.7 \times 10^{38}$
Burroughs 6X00 single	$8^{-51} \approx 8.8 \times 10^{-47}$	$8^{76} \approx 4.3 \times 10^{68}$
H-P 3000	$2^{-256} \approx 8.6 \times 10^{-78}$	$2^{256} \approx 1.2 \times 10^{77}$
IBM 360, 370; Amdahl1; DG Eclipse M/600; ...	$16^{-65} \approx 5.4 \times 10^{-79}$	$16^{63} \approx 7.2 \times 10^{75}$
Most handheld calculators	$10^{-99}$	$10^{100}$
CDC 6X00, 7X00, Cyber	$2^{-976} \approx 1.5 \times 10^{-294}$	$2^{1070} \approx 1.3 \times 10^{322}$
DEC VAX G format; UNIVAC, 110X double	$2^{-1024} \approx 5.6 \times 10^{-309}$	$2^{1023} \approx 9 \times 10^{307}$

Source: Kahan, *Why do we need a Floating-Point Standard*, 1981.



## Before 1985: a total mess...

- on some **Cray supercomputers**, overflow in multiplication was computed just from the exponent of the entries, in parallel with the actual computation of the product;
- **1 \* x** could overflow;
- still on the Crays, only 12 bits of  $x$  were examined to detect a division by 0 when computing  $y/x$
- **if (x = 0) then z := 17.0 else z := y/x**  
could lead to a “zero divide” error message...  
but since the multiplier too examined only 12 bits to decide if an operand is zero,
- if (1.0 \* x = 0) then z := 17.0 else z := y/x**  
was just fine.

Writing **reliable** and **portable** numerical software was a challenge!

## IEEE-754 Standard for FP Arithmetic (1985, 2008, 2019)

- put an end to a mess (no portability, variable quality);
- leader: W. Kahan (father of the arithmetic of the HP35 and the Intel 8087);
- formats (in radices 2 and 10);
- **specification of operations** and conversions;
- exception handling ( $\text{max}+1$ ,  $1/0$ ,  $\sqrt{-2}$ ,  $0/0$ , etc.);
- successive versions of the standard: 2008, 2019, more to come.

# IEEE-754 Standard for FP Arithmetic (1985, 2008, 2019)

Name	binary16	binary32 (basic)	binary64 (basic)	binary128 (basic)
Former name	N/A	single precision	double precision	N/A
$p$	11	24	53	113
$e_{\max}$	+15	+127	+1023	+16383
$e_{\min}$	-14	-126	-1022	-16382

**Table 1:** Main parameters of the **binary interchange formats** of size up to 128 bits specified by the 754-2019 Std. In some articles and software libraries, 128-bit formats were sometimes called “quad precision”.

Name	decimal32	decimal64 (basic)	decimal128 (basic)
$p$	7	16	34
$e_{\max}$	+96	+384	+6144
$e_{\min}$	−95	−383	−6143

**Table 2:** Main parameters of the decimal interchange formats of size up to 128 bits specified by the 754-2019 Std.

## Standardizing has some interest. . .

- The Mars Climate Orbiter probe crashed on Mars in 1999;
- one of the software teams assumed the unit of length was the meter;
- the other team assumed it was the foot.



# Roundings

- in general, the sum, product, quotient... of two FP numbers is not a FP number → it must be **rounded**;
- first systems: the only information was that the computed result was “close to” the exact result;
- now: a **rounding function** is defined, and the computed result is obtained by applying that function to the exact result

→ notion of **correct rounding**:

- easy to guarantee for  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\div$ ,  $\times$ ,  $\sqrt{\phantom{x}}$ ;
- very difficult for  $\sin$ ,  $\exp$ ,  $\Gamma$ , etc.

# Rounding function

Denote  $\mathbb{F}$  the set of FP numbers in a given system  $(\beta, p, e_{\min}, e_{\max})$ .

A function  $r : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$  is a **rounding function** if:

- $\forall x \in \mathbb{F}, r(x) = x$ ;
- $x_1 \leq x_2 \Rightarrow r(x_1) \leq r(x_2)$ .

Here are some usual rounding functions:

- round toward  $-\infty$ :  $RD(x)$  is the largest FP number  $\leq x$ ;
- round toward  $+\infty$ :  $RU(x)$  is the smallest FP number  $\geq x$ ;
- round toward zero:  $RZ(x) = \begin{cases} RD(x) & \text{if } x \geq 0, \\ RU(x) & \text{if } x < 0; \end{cases}$
- round to nearest:  $RN(x) = \text{FPN closest to } x$ . If  $x$  halfway between two consecutive FPNs, a **tie-breaking rule** is needed.

## Classical tie-breaking rules for RN (round to nearest)

When  $x$  is exactly halfway between 2 consecutive FP numbers:

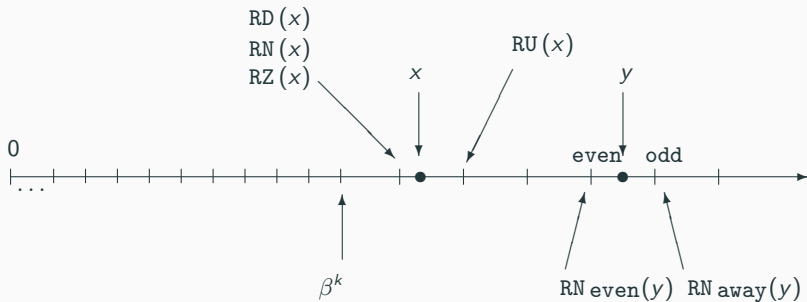
- **ties-to-even**: choose the one whose integral significand is even (default);
- **ties-to-away**: choose the one with largest magnitude;
- **ties-to-zero**: choose the one with smallest magnitude.

These 3 rules are easy to implement in hardware, and with them we have

- $\text{RN}(-x) = -\text{RN}(x)$ ,
- $\text{RN}(2^k x) = 2^k \text{RN}(x)$  ( $x$  and  $2^k x$  in normal range), and
- $x$  multiple of  $2^k \Rightarrow \text{RN}(x)$  is multiple of  $2^k$ .



# The standard rounding functions



Here we assume that the real numbers  $x$  and  $y$  are positive.

## Correct rounding

- IEEE 754 specifies the rounding functions RD, RU, RZ, and RN with ties-to-even and ties-to-away (ties-to-zero allowed for some special, not-yet-implemented operations);
- the user can choose the rounding function (not always simple);
- the default function is **RN ties to even**.

**Correctly rounded operation:** returns what we would get by **exact operation followed by rounding**.

- correctly rounded  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$ ,  $\div$ ,  $\sqrt{\cdot}$  are required;
- correctly rounded  $\sin$ ,  $\cos$ ,  $\exp$ ,  $\ln$ , etc. are only recommended (not mandatory).

→ in practice, when the operation  $c = a + b$  appears in a program, we obtain  $c = \text{RN}(a + b)$ .

# Correct rounding

IEEE-754 (since 1985): **Correct rounding** for  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$ ,  $\div$ ,  $\sqrt{\phantom{x}}$  and some conversions. Advantages:

- if the result of an operation is exactly representable, we get it;
- if we just use the 4 arith. operations and  $\sqrt{\phantom{x}}$ , deterministic arithmetic: one can elaborate **algorithms** and **proofs** that use the specifications;
- accuracy and portability are improved;
- playing with rounding towards  $+\infty$  and  $-\infty \rightarrow$  guaranteed lower and upper bounds: **interval arithmetic**.

FP arithmetic becomes a **structure in itself**, that can be studied.

## Just for the fun: what does this program?

$\circ$  is any of RD, RU, RZ, or RN.

$A \leftarrow 1.0$

$B \leftarrow 1.0$

**while**  $\circ(\circ(A + 1.0) - A) = 1.0$  **do**

$A \leftarrow \circ(2 \times A)$

**end while**

**while**  $\circ(\circ(A + B) - A) \neq B$  **do**

$B \leftarrow \circ(B + 1.0)$

**end while**

**return**  $B$

# It computes $\beta$

```
A ← 1.0
B ← 1.0
while o(o(A + 1.0) - A) = 1.0 do
  A ← o(2 × A)
end while
while o(o(A + B) - A) ≠ B do
  B ← o(B + 1.0)
end while
return B
```

Assume radix  $\beta$ , precision  $p$ . Define

$A_i$  = value of  $A$  after  $i^{\text{th}}$  execution of  
the first **while** loop.

Consider the first **while** loop:

- Induction  $\rightarrow$  if  $2^i \leq \beta^p - 1$ , then  $A_i = 2^i$  exactly.  
Gives  $A_i + 1 \leq \beta^p \rightarrow o(A_i + 1.0) = A_i + 1$ .
- Hence,  $o(o(A_i + 1.0) - A_i) = o((A_i + 1) - A_i) = 1$ .  
Therefore **while  $2^i \leq \beta^p - 1$ , we stay in the 1st loop.**
- Consider the smallest  $j$  s.t.  $2^j \geq \beta^p$ . We have  
 $A_j = o(2A_{j-1}) = o(2 \times 2^{j-1}) = o(2^j)$ . Since  $\beta \geq 2$ ,  
we conclude

$$\beta^p \leq A_j < \beta^{p+1}.$$

- Hence, the FP successor of  $A_j$  is  $A_j + \beta \rightarrow o(A_j + 1.0)$   
is either  $A_j$  or  $A_j + \beta$  therefore  $o(o(A_j + 1.0) - A_j)$  is 0  
or  $\beta$ : in any case it is  $\neq 1.0 \rightarrow$  we exit the loop.

At the end of the 1st while loop,  $A$  satisfies  $\beta^p \leq A < \beta^{p+1}$ .

# It computes $\beta$

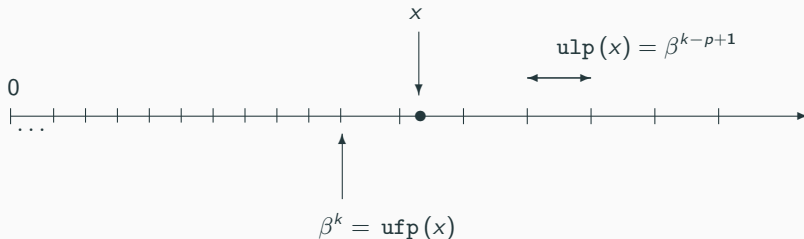
```
A ← 1.0
B ← 1.0
while  $\circ(\circ(A + 1.0) - A) = 1.0$  do
  A ←  $\circ(2 \times A)$ 
end while
while  $\circ(\circ(A + B) - A) \neq B$  do
  B ←  $\circ(B + 1.0)$ 
end while
return B
```

Consider the 2nd while loop.

- We have seen that the FP successor of  $A$  is  $A + \beta$ .
- Hence, while  $B < \beta$ ,  $\circ(A + B)$  is either  $A$  or  $A + \beta \rightarrow \circ(\circ(A + B) - A)$  is 0 or  $\beta$ : in any case, we do not exit the loop.
- As soon as  $B = \beta$ ,  $\circ(A + B)$  is  $A + B$  exactly, so  $\circ(\circ(A + B) - A) = B$ .

We exit the 2nd loop as soon as  $B = \beta$

## Some useful notions



- this figure: We assume that  $x$  is in the **normal** range:  $\beta^{e_{\min}} \leq x \leq \Omega$ ;
- distance between consecutive FPNs of absolute value  $< \beta^{e_{\min}}$ :  $\beta^{e_{\min}-p+1}$ .

# ulp (“unit in the last place”) and ufp (“unit in the first place”)

## Definition 2 (ulp function)

If  $|x| \in [\beta^e, \beta^{e+1})$ , then  $\text{ulp}(x) = \beta^{\max\{e, e_{\min}\} - p + 1}$ .

It is the distance between consecutive FP numbers in the neighborhood of  $x$ .

### Properties:

- $|x - \text{RN}(x)| \leq \frac{1}{2} \text{ulp}(x)$ ;
- $|x - \text{RU}(x)|$ ,  $|x - \text{RD}(x)|$ , and  $|x - \text{RZ}(x)|$  are  $< 1 \text{ulp}(x)$ ;
- if  $x$  is a FP number then it is an integer multiple of  $\text{ulp}(x)$ .

Function ulp is frequently used for expressing errors.

## Definition 3 (ufp function)

If  $|x| \in [\beta^e, \beta^{e+1})$ , then  $\text{ufp}(x) = \beta^e$ .



## Relative error due to rounding

The most frequent measure of error in numerical computing is **relative error**. If  $\hat{x}$  approximates an exact value  $x$ , it is defined as:

- $\left| \frac{\hat{x} - x}{x} \right|$  if  $x \neq 0$ ;
- 0 if  $\hat{x} = x = 0$ ;
- $+\infty$  if  $x = 0$  and  $\hat{x} \neq 0$ .

In practice, when the relative error is  $\geq 1$  this means we have lost all information on  $x$  (we even do not know its sign).

## Relative error due to rounding

- if  $x$  is in the **normal** range (i.e.,  $\beta^{e_{\min}} \leq |x| \leq \Omega$ ), then

$$|x - \text{RN}(x)| \leq \frac{1}{2} \text{ulp}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \beta^{\lfloor \log_{\beta} |x| \rfloor - p + 1},$$

therefore,

$$|x - \text{RN}(x)| \leq u \cdot |x|, \quad (1)$$

with  $u = \frac{1}{2} \beta^{-p+1}$  (base 2,  $u = 2^{-p}$ ). Hence the **relative error**

$$\frac{|x - \text{RN}(x)|}{|x|}$$

(for  $x \neq 0$ ) is  $\leq u$ .

- $u$ , called **rounding unit** is frequently used for expressing errors.
- Exercise (for next time): show that in (1),  $u$  can be replaced by  $\frac{u}{1+u}$ .

## Relative error due to rounding

- similarly, for  $x$  in the normal range,  $|x - \circ(x)|$ , where  $\circ \in \{RU, RD, RZ\}$ , is  $\leq \beta^{-p+1}$ ;
- if  $|x|$  is below  $\beta^{e_{\min}}$  (subnormal range), we only have

$$|x - RN(x)| \leq \frac{1}{2} \beta^{e_{\min} - p + 1},$$

(i.e., the relative error can be much larger than  $u$ ).

## Consequence: the “standard model”

- correctly rounded operation  $\top \in \{+, -, \times, \div\}$ ;
- $a, b$  FP numbers;
- if  $a \top b$  is in the normal range, then the **computed** result  $\hat{r} = \text{RN}(a \top b)$  and the **exact** result  $r = a \top b$  satisfy

$$\hat{r} = r \cdot (1 + \epsilon_1),$$

with  $|\epsilon_1| \leq u$ ;

- very similarly, we have

$$\hat{r} = \frac{r}{1 + \epsilon_2},$$

with  $|\epsilon_2| \leq u$ .

Hauser's theorem  $\Rightarrow$  if  $\top \in \{+, -\}$  these relations hold even in the subnormal range.

## The FMA (*Fused Multiply-Add*) instruction

- added in 2008 to the standard, now implemented in all commercially-significant processors;
- computes  $\circ(ab + c)$ , where  $\circ$  is the chosen rounding function;
- allows faster (and frequently more accurate) complex multiplication, division, evaluation of polynomials or dot-products;
- facilitates the implementation of correctly-rounded division and square-root using slightly modified Newton-Raphson iterations.