Harnessing inexactness in scientific computing

Lecture 2: summation

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Introduction

Dealing with accumulation

Dealing with cancellation

Adaptive precision summation

Conclusion

Why summation is important

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \qquad \dots$$
ar

... an ubiquitous and fundamental task!

• Dot products:

$$a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n \Rightarrow a^T b = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i$$

• Matrix-vector products:

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \ b \in \mathbb{R}^n \Rightarrow (Ab)_j = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji}b_i, \ j = 1:m$$

• Matrix-matrix products:

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \ B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p} \Rightarrow (AB)_{jk} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ji} b_{ik}, \ j = 1: m, k = 1: p$$

n

• Gaussian elimination (LU factorization):

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, \ A = LU \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \ell_{jk} &= \left(a_{jk} - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \ell_{ji} u_{ik}\right) / u_{kk} \\ u_{kj} &= a_{kj} - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \ell_{ki} u_{ij} \end{cases}$$

Summation suffers from the accumulation of rounding errors

Standard model of FP arithmetic:

 $\mathsf{fl}(x \operatorname{op} y) = (x \operatorname{op} y)(1 + \delta), \quad |\delta| \le u$, for $\operatorname{op} \in \{+, -, \times, \div\}$

Consider the computation of $y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ by recursive summation:

$$y_{2} = x_{1} + x_{2} \implies \widehat{y}_{2} = (x_{1} + x_{2})(1 + \delta_{1})$$

$$y_{3} = \widehat{y}_{2} + x_{3} \implies \widehat{y}_{3} = (\widehat{y}_{2} + x_{3})(1 + \delta_{2})$$

$$= (x_{1} + x_{2})\underbrace{(1 + \delta_{1})(1 + \delta_{2})}_{\delta_{1} \text{ and } \delta_{2} \text{ accumulate!}} + x_{3}(1 + \delta_{2})$$

 $y_4 = \ldots$ etc.

How can we measure the accumulated effect of all rounding errors?

Forward and backward errors

- Let y = f(x) be computed in finite precision and let \hat{y} be the computed result
- Forward error analysis measures

$$|\widehat{y}-y|$$
 (absolute) or $rac{|\widehat{y}-y|}{|y|}$ (relative)

• Backward error analysis computes the smallest perturbation Δx such that

$$\widehat{y} = f(x + \Delta x)$$

and measures $|\Delta x|$ (absolute) or $|\Delta x|/|x|$ (relative).

- Backward error analysis recasts the rounding errors as perturbations of the input data
- An algorithm is **backward stable** if it yields a small backward error, where "small" usually means O(u)

Forward and backward errors for summation

• Forward error

$$\eta_{\mathrm{fwd}} = rac{|\widehat{y} - y|}{|y|}$$

Backward error

$$\eta_{\text{bwd}} = \min\left\{\varepsilon > 0 : \exists \delta x_i, \ \widehat{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \delta x_i, \ |\delta x_i| \le \varepsilon |x_i|\right\}.$$

Two questions:

- Find a formula for $\eta_{\rm bwd}$
- Find **bounds** for η_{bwd} and η_{fwd} when \hat{y} is computed in floating-point arithmetic

Formula for backward error

$$\eta_{\text{bwd}} = \min\left\{\varepsilon > 0 : \exists \delta x_i, \ \widehat{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \delta x_i, \ |\delta x_i| \le \varepsilon |x_i|\right\}.$$

We have the formula

$$\eta_{\text{bwd}} = \frac{|\widehat{y} - y|}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|}.$$

Proof:

•
$$\frac{|\widehat{y}-y|}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}|x_i|} \leq \eta_{\text{bwd}}$$

• $\eta_{\text{bwd}} \leq \frac{|\widehat{y}-y|}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}|x_i|}$ (using $\delta x_i = (\widehat{y}-y)\frac{|x_i|}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}|x_i|}$)

As a result we also obtain the formula

$$\kappa = \frac{\eta_{\text{fwd}}}{\eta_{\text{bwd}}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|}{\left|\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right|}.$$

• κ is large if $\sum |x_i| \gg |\sum x_i| \Rightarrow$ cancellation

Backward error analysis

. . .

$$y_{2} = x_{1} + x_{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \hat{y}_{2} = (x_{1} + x_{2})(1 + \delta_{1}) = x_{1}(1 + \delta_{1}) + x_{2}(1 + \delta_{1})$$

$$y_{3} = \hat{y}_{2} + x_{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \hat{y}_{3} = (\hat{y}_{2} + x_{3})(1 + \delta_{2})$$

$$= x_{1}(1 + \delta_{1})(1 + \delta_{2}) + x_{2}(1 + \delta_{1})(1 + \delta_{2}) + x_{3}(1 + \delta_{2})$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \widehat{y}_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[x_i \prod_{k=k_i}^n (1+\delta_k) \right]$$

Backward error analysis

$$y_{2} = x_{1} + x_{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \hat{y}_{2} = (x_{1} + x_{2})(1 + \delta_{1}) = x_{1}(1 + \delta_{1}) + x_{2}(1 + \delta_{1})$$

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$$= x_{1}(1 + \delta_{1})(1 + \delta_{2}) + x_{2}(1 + \delta_{1})(1 + \delta_{2}) + x_{3}(1 + \delta_{2})$$
...

$$\Rightarrow \quad \widehat{y}_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[x_i \prod_{k=k_i}^n (1+\delta_k) \right]$$

Worst-case fundamental lemma

Let
$$\delta_k$$
, $k = 1 : n$, such that $|\delta_k| \le u$ and $nu < 1$. Then

$$\prod_{k=1}^n (1 + \delta_k) = 1 + \theta_n, \quad |\theta_n| \le \gamma_n := \frac{nu}{1 - nu}$$

General worst-case bound

General algorithm

 $S = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ Repeat Choose any pair $(x_i, x_j) \in S^2$ $(i \neq j)$ $S \leftarrow S \setminus \{x_i, x_j\}$ $S \leftarrow S \cup \{x_i + x_j\}$ until $S = \{y\}$

No matter the summation order we have the bound

$$\eta_{\text{bwd}} \leq \gamma_{n-1} = (n-1)u + O(u^2)$$

Consider the computation

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

In floating-point arithmetic, the forward error $\eta_{\rm fwd}$ is bounded by

$$\eta_{\text{fwd}} \leq \eta_{\text{bwd}} \kappa, \qquad \eta_{\text{bwd}} \leq \gamma_{n-1} = (n-1)u + O(u^2), \qquad \kappa = \frac{\sum |x_i|}{|\sum x_i|}$$

Thus η_{fwd} can be large when

- The unit roundoff *u* is large (low precision)
- The dimension *n* is large (accumulation)
- The condition number κ is large (cancellation)

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No matter the summation order we have the bound

$$\eta_{\mathrm{bwd}} \leq \gamma_{n-1} = (n-1)u + O(u^2)$$

 \Rightarrow However, for specific orders, we can get much better bounds, and much smaller errors!

Given a summation order to compute $y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$, we define its associated summation tree as a **binary tree** such that:

- the *n* leaf nodes are the *n* summands *x_i*
- any inner node is equal to the sum of its two children
- the root node is the final sum y

Example: recursive summation is a comb tree

• For any summation tree, we have the bound:

$$\eta_{\rm bwd} \le \gamma_h = hu + O(u^2)$$

where h is the height of the tree

- The minimal bound is therefore attained for a **balanced binary tree**, for which $h = \lceil \log_2 n \rceil$. This is called pairwise summation.
- While it achieves the minimal bound, pairwise summation is not efficient on modern computers.

Blocked summation

Blocked summation algorithm:

for i = 1: n/b do Compute $y_i = \sum_{j=(i-1)b+1}^{ib} x_j$. end for Compute $y = \sum_{i=1}^{n/b} y_i$.



- Widely used in NLA libraries (BLAS, LAPACK, ...)
- $\eta_{\text{bwd}} \leq \gamma_h$ with h = b + n/b 2
- With optimal $b = \sqrt{n}$: $h = 2(\sqrt{n} 1)$

Blocked summation

for
$$i = 1$$
: n/b do
Compute $y_i = \sum_{j=(i-1)b+1}^{ib} x_j$.
end for
Compute $y = \sum_{i=1}^{n/b} y_i$.

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Superblock summation

- Superblocked summation: tree summation with t levels, block size at level t: $b_t = n^{1/t}$
 - $\circ t = 1 \Rightarrow$ standard recursive summation
 - $\circ t = 2 \Rightarrow$ optimal blocked summation
 - $\circ t = \log_2 n \Rightarrow$ pairwise summation
 - $\eta_{\text{bwd}} \leq \gamma_h$ with $h = t(n^{1/t} 1)$
 - ∘ 🖹 Castaldo et al. (2009)



FABsum

Fast Accurate Blocked summation algorithm (FABsum) 🖹 Blanchard, Higham, M. (2020)

for
$$i = 1$$
: n/b do
Compute $y_i = \sum_{j=(i-1)b+1}^{ib} x_j$ with FastSum.
end for
Compute $y = \sum_{i=1}^{n/b} y_i$ with AccurateSum.



- Cost: $C(n,b) = \frac{n}{b}C_f(b) + C_a(\frac{n}{b}) \approx C_f(n) + \frac{1}{b}C_a(n)$
- Error: $\epsilon(n, b) = \epsilon_f(b) + \epsilon_a(n/b) + \epsilon_f(b)\epsilon_a(n/b)$
 - ⇒ If $\epsilon_a(p) = pu^2$ (recursive summation in precision u^2), then $\epsilon(n, b) = bu + O(u^2)$ is independent of *n* to first order



Backward error for summing random uniform [0, 1] data

Blocked summation: implementation remark

for
$$i = 1$$
: n/b do
Compute $y_i = \sum_{j=(i-1)b+1}^{ib} x_j$.
end for
Compute $y = \sum_{i=1}^{n/b} y_i$.

- If implemented as is, requires storing n/b intermediate y_i values, which requires extra memory and is likely to slow down computation
- Better to implement as follows:

```
y = 0
for i = 1: n/b do
Compute z = \sum_{j=(i-1)b+1}^{ib} x_j.
Compute y = y + z
end for
```

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Fast2sum

$$[x,y] = Fast2Sum(a,b)$$
Input: $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ such that $|a| \ge |b|$
Output: $x = fl(a + b), y \in \mathbb{F}$ such that
 $x + y = a + b$
 $e = x - a$
 $y = b - e$



```
Input: x_i \in \mathbb{F}, i = 1: n

Output: y \approx \sum_{i=1}^n x_i

y = 0

z = 0

for i = 1: n do

t = x_i + z

[y, z] = \text{Fast2Sum}(y, t)

end for
```

- · Kahan's summation reinjects the errors at each step in the sum
- It satisfies the bound $\eta_{\rm bwd} \leq 2u + O(nu^2)$ (proof is quite complicated)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \xrightarrow{distillation} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i, \quad \text{where } \kappa(d_i) \ll \kappa(x_i)$$

Fast2Sum: fl(a + b) = a + b + e, where $e \in \mathbb{F}$

AccSum: repeatedly replace (a, b) by (fl(a + b), e) until the sum is sufficiently well conditioned (higher $\kappa \Rightarrow$ more iterations) $\exists Rump, Ogita, Oishi (2008)$

Condensation methods



Condensation methods

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Conceptual algorithm

```
S = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}
Repeat for all pairs (x_i, x_j) \in S^2 (i \neq j) such that x_i + x_j is exact
S \leftarrow S \setminus \{x_i, x_j\}S \leftarrow S \cup \{x_i + x_j\}
until no such pair remains
Distill S
```

- Can we easily determine when $x_i + x_j$ is exact?
- Can we bound the maximum number of leftover summands?







Consider arithmetic with f-bit mantissa and e-bit exponent (e = 11 for fp64).



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 ... need one accumulator of 2^e + log₂ n
 bits



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Consider arithmetic with f-bit mantissa and e-bit exponent (e = 11 for fp64).

- One big accumulator: Kulisch method
 ... need one accumulator of 2^e + log₂ n
 bits
- One accumulator per exponent: Malcolm method ... need 2^e accumulators of f + log₂ n bits
- Demmel-Hida: general method, balance the number and size of accumulators.

Input: *n* summands x_i , number of exponent bits *m* to extract **Output:** $y = \sum_{j=1}^{2^m} A_j$

Initialize $A_j = 0$ for $j = 1, ..., 2^m$ for i = 1: n do $j \leftarrow m$ leading bits of exponent(x_i) $A_j \leftarrow A_j + x_i$ end for

With 2^m accumulators, need F-bit mantissa with

$$F \ge f + \lceil \log_2 n \rceil + 2^{e-m} - 1$$

number of bits						
		signif.	(<i>t</i>)	exp.	range	$u = 2^{-t}$
fp128	quadruple	113		15	$10^{\pm4932}$	$1 imes 10^{-34}$
fp64	double	53		11	$10^{\pm 308}$	$1 imes 10^{-16}$

Numerical example with fp64 and fp128 arithmetics:

- Assume $\log_2 n \le 29$ $(n \lesssim 0.5 \times 10^9)$
- F = 113, f = 53, $e = 11 \Rightarrow m$ must thus satisfy

$$F \ge f + \lceil \log_2 n \rceil + 2^{e-m} - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 2^{11-m} \le 32$$

$$\Rightarrow 6 \le m$$

Distillation methods (AccSum, etc.)

- 🙂 Entirely in the working precision
- Only uses standard arithmetic operations
- Strongly dependent on the conditioning
- 🙁 Limited parallelism

Condensation methods (Demmel-Hida, etc.)

- Independent on the conditioning
- ☺ High level of parallelism
- Requires access to the exponent
- 🙁 Requires extended precision arithmetic

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Can we avoid the use of extended precision arithmetic?

When is x + y exact? Intuition 1



Let $x, y \in \mathbb{F} \cap [2^{q-1}, 2^q]$ such that

$$x = 2^{q-1} + k_x \varepsilon$$
$$y = 2^{q-1} + k_y \varepsilon$$

Then

$$x + y = 2^{q-1} + k_x \varepsilon + 2^{q-1} + k_y \varepsilon$$
$$= 2^q + (k_x + k_y)\varepsilon \in \mathbb{F} \text{ iff } k_x + k_y \equiv 0 \mod 2$$

When is x + y exact? Intuition 1



Similarly if

$$x = 2^{q-1} + k_x \varepsilon$$
$$y = 2^q + k_y 2\varepsilon$$

then $x + y \in \mathbb{F}$ iff

$$\begin{cases} x+y \le 2^{q+1} \text{ and } k_x \equiv 0 \mod 2\\ x+y > 2^{q+1} \text{ and } k_x + 2k_y \equiv 0 \mod 4 \end{cases}$$

 $\begin{array}{l} 2^{q} \times 101 + 2^{q} \times 111 = 2^{q} \times 1100 = 2^{q+1} \times 110.0 \in \mathbb{F} \\ 2^{q} \times 101 + 2^{q} \times 110 = 2^{q} \times 1011 = 2^{q+1} \times 101.1 \notin \mathbb{F} \end{array}$

$$2^q imes 101 + 2^{q-1} imes 111 = 2^{q+1} imes 100.01 \notin \mathbb{F}$$

 $2^q imes 101 + 2^{q-1} imes 110 = 2^{q+1} imes 100.00 \in \mathbb{F}$

Theorem (Graillat and M.)

Let $x,y\in\mathbb{F}$ of the same sign $\sigma=\pm 1$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \sigma(\beta^{e_x} + k_x \varepsilon_{e_x}), \\ y &= \sigma(\beta^{e_y} + k_y \varepsilon_{e_y}). \end{aligned}$$

Assuming (without loss of generality) that $|x| \leq |y|$, then $x + y \in \mathbb{F}$, and thus the addition is exact, iff one of the following conditions is met:

(i)
$$x = 0$$
;
(ii) $|x + y| < \beta^{e_y + 1}$, $e_y - e_x \le t - 1$, and $k_x \equiv 0 \mod \beta^{e_y - e_x}$;
(iii) $|x + y| = \beta^{e_y + 1}$, $e_y + 1 \le e_{\max}$, $e_y - e_x \le t - 1$, and $k_x \equiv 0 \mod \beta^{e_y - e_x}$;
(iv) $|x + y| > \beta^{e_y + 1}$, $e_y + 1 \le e_{\max}$, $e_y - e_x \le t - 2$, and
 $k_x + k_y \beta^{e_y - e_x} \equiv 0 \mod \beta^{e_y - e_x + 1}$.

$$k_x + k_y \beta^{e_y - e_x} \equiv 0 \mod \beta^{e_y - e_x + 1} \xrightarrow{\beta = 2, e_x = e_y} k_x + k_y \equiv 0 \mod 2$$

Corollary

If $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$ with $\beta = 2$ have the same sign, exponent, and least significant bit, then barring overflow their addition is exact.

Consider the toy example

y = 0.25 + 0.3125 + 0.375 + 0.375 + 0.4375 + 0.4375 + 0.625 + 0.625 + 0.75 + 0.75 + 0.875 computed with 3-bit arithmetic:



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y = 0.25 + 0.3125 + 0.375 + 0.375 + 0.4375 + 0.4375 + 0.625 + 0.625 + 0.75 + 0.75 + 0.875 computed with 3-bit arithmetic:



Input: *n* summands *x_i* and a distillation method distill **Output:** $y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ Initialize Acc(e, s, b) to 0 for $e = e_{\min}$: e_{\max} , $s \in \{-1, 1\}, b \in \{0, 1\}.$ for all x_i in any order do $e = exponent(x_i)$ $s = \operatorname{sign}(x_i)$ $b = LSB(x_i)$ insert (Acc, x_i , e, s, b) end for $x_{\text{condensed}} = \text{gather} (Acc)$ $y = \text{distill}(x_{\text{condensed}})$

function insert (Acc, x, e, s, b)if Acc(e, s, b) = 0 then Acc(e, s, b) = xelse $x' = \operatorname{Acc}(e, s, b) + x$ Acc(e, s, b) = 0b' = LSB(x')insert(Acc, x', e + 1, s, b')end if end function function $x_{\text{condensed}} = \text{gather}$ (Acc) i = 0for all nonzero Acc(e, s, b) do i = i + 1 $x_{\text{condensed}}(i) = \text{Acc}(e, s, b)$ end for end function

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Conceptual algorithm

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{S} &= \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \\ \text{Repeat for all pairs } (x_i, x_j) \in \mathbb{S}^2 \ (i \neq j) \text{ such that } x_i + x_j \text{ is exact} \\ & \mathbb{S} \leftarrow \mathbb{S} \setminus \{x_i, x_j\} \\ & \mathbb{S} \leftarrow \mathbb{S} \cup \{x_i + x_j\} \\ \text{until no such pair remains} \\ \text{Distill } \mathbb{S} \end{split}$$

- Can we easily determine when $x_i + x_j$ is exact? YES! It suffices to check the sign, exponent, and LSB of x_i and x_j
- Can we bound the maximum number of leftover summands? YES! At most 4L summands where L is the depth of the tree

$$L \leq \lceil \log_2 n \rceil + d \rceil$$

where d is independent of n and depends on the range of the values (at most 2047 in binary64)

Distillation methods (AccSum, etc.)

- 🙂 Entirely in the working precision
- Only uses standard arithmetic operations
- Strongly dependent on the conditioning
- 🙁 Limited parallelism

Condensation methods (Demmel–Hida, Graillat–Mary)

- Independent on the conditioning
- ☺ High level of parallelism
- \bigcirc Requires access to the exponent + LSB
- 😌 Requires extended precision arithmetic

Performance comparison



Quadruple working precision



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- Given an algorithm and a prescribed accuracy ε , adaptively select the minimal precision for each instruction depending on the data
- \Rightarrow First of all, why should the precisions vary?

- Given an algorithm and a prescribed accuracy ε , adaptively select the minimal precision for each instruction depending on the data
- \Rightarrow First of all, why should the precisions vary?
- Because not all computations are equally "important"! Example:



⇒ Opportunity for mixed precision: adapt the precisions to the data at hand by storing and computing "less important" (which usually means smaller) data in lower precision Goal: compute y = Ax, where A is a sparse matrix, with a prescribed accuracy ε

for i = 1: m do $y_i = \sum_{j \in nnz_i(A)} a_{ij} x_j$ end for

If computed in precision ε , \widehat{y} satisfies

$$|\widehat{y}_i - y_i| \le n_i \varepsilon \sum_{j \in nnz_i(A)} |a_{ij}x_j|$$

and thus

$$\|\widehat{y} - y\| \leq c\varepsilon \|A\| \|x\|$$
 $(c = \max_i n_i)$

This is a normwise backward error bound: $\widehat{y} = (A + E)x$, $||E|| \le c\varepsilon ||A||$.

Adaptive precision SpMV

• Given p available precisions $u_1 < \varepsilon < u_2 < \ldots < u_p$, define partition $A = \sum_{k=1}^p A^{(k)}$ where

$$a_{ij}^{(k)} = \begin{cases} \mathsf{fl}_k(a_{ij}) & \text{if } |a_{ij}| \in (\varepsilon ||A||/u_k, \varepsilon ||A||/u_{k+1}] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 \Rightarrow the precision of each element is chosen inversely proportional to its magnitude



Adaptive precision SpMV

for
$$i = 1$$
: m do
for $k = 1$: p do
 $y_i^{(k)} = \sum_{j \in nnz_i(A^{(k)})} a_{ij}^{(k)} x_j$ in precision u_k
end for
 $y_i = \sum_{k=1}^p y_i^{(k)}$ in precision u_1
end for

- Compute $y^{(k)} = A^{(k)}x$ in precision u_k . The computed $\hat{y}^{(k)}$ satisfies $|\hat{y}_i^{(k)} - y_i^{(k)}| \le (n_i^{(k)})^2 \varepsilon ||A|| ||x||$
- Compute $y = \sum_{k=1}^{p} y^{(k)}$ in precision u_1 . The computed \widehat{y} satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{y}_i &= \sum_{k=1}^p \widehat{y}_i^{(k)} + e_i, \quad |e_i| \le p u_1 \|A\| \|x\| \\ &= y_i + f_i, \quad |f_i| \le c \varepsilon \|A\| \|x\| \end{aligned}$$

45/51 📑 Graillat, Jézéquel, M., Molina (2024)

The more precisions we have, the more we can reduce storage \Rightarrow can we exploit custom precision formats?

Emulated formats								
Bits								
Format	Signif.(t)	Exponent	Range	$u = 2^{-t}$				
bf16	8	8	10 ^{±38}	$4 imes 10^{-3}$				
fp24	16	8	$10^{\pm 38}$	$2 imes 10^{-5}$				
fp32	24	8	$10^{\pm 38}$	$6 imes 10^{-8}$				
fp40	29	11	$10^{\pm 308}$	$2 imes 10^{-9}$				
fp48	37	11	$10^{\pm 308}$	$8 imes 10^{-12}$				
fp56	45	11	$10^{\pm 308}$	$3 imes 10^{-14}$				
fp64	53	11	$10^{\pm 308}$	$1 imes 10^{-16}$				

How to efficiently implement custom precision storage?

```
union union64 {
uint64_t i;
                                                            Sign
1 bit
                                                                  Exp.
11 bits
                                                                               Sig.
28 bits
                                                             double f;
                                                Stored as RP40
};
                                                uint8 t to uint64 t copy
double RpToFp (rp40 rp, size_t i){
                                                bitshift
union union64 u64;
                                                uint32 t to uint64 t copy
uint64_t i64h, i641;
                                                bitshift
i64h = (uint64_t)rp.i32[i];
                                                binary or
                                                                                           i64h = i64h << 32;
i641 = (uint64_t)rp.i8[i];
                                                Accessed as FP64
i641 = i641 << 24;
                                                                  Exp.
                                                                                              Sig.
52 bits
                                                             Sian
                                                             1 hit
                                                                  11 hite
u64.i = i64h | i641;
return u64.f;
}
    Graillat, Jézéguel, M., Molina, Mukunoki (2024)
```

Experimental results (Long_Coup_dt6 matrix, $n \approx 1.5$ M)



Controlled accuracy

Experimental results (Long_Coup_dt6 matrix, $n \approx 1.5$ M)



• Controlled accuracy

Experimental results (Long_Coup_dt6 matrix, n pprox 1.5 M)



- Controlled accuracy
- Storage reduced by at least 30% and potentially much more for larger ε .
- 48/51 Time cost matches storage.

Introduction

Dealing with accumulation

Dealing with cancellation

Adaptive precision summation

Conclusion

$$\eta_{\mathrm{fwd}} \leq \eta_{\mathrm{bwd}}\kappa, \qquad \eta_{\mathrm{bwd}} \leq \gamma_{n-1} = (n-1)u + O(u^2), \qquad \kappa = rac{\sum |x_i|}{|\sum x_i|}$$

- We have seen various summation methods with different properties/objectives: handling error accumulation, cancellation, using mixed precision...
- A common theme has been the reordering of the summands by grouping them into blocks/buckets,
 - $\circ~$ either fixed-size groups of arbitrary summands
 - or groups of summands of similar magnitude.
- We have seen several possible uses of mixed precision arithmetic:
 - Mixed precision blocked summation (FABsum): reduce accumulation $\Rightarrow \eta_{\text{bwd}}$ independent of *n*
 - $\circ~$ Bucket summation with extended precision (Demmel-Hida): reduce cancellation $\Rightarrow \eta_{\rm fwd}$ independent of κ
 - $\circ~$ Bucket summation with adaptive precision: exploit lower precisions while controlling

 $\eta_{
m bwd}$

- You are given a mysterious sum to evaluate as accurately and efficiently as possible.
 Goal: achieve close to 10⁻¹⁶ accuracy while maintaining a time cost comparable to recursive summation.
- Use of MATLAB's sum is obviously forbidden!
- Suggestions:
 - Implement Kahan's summation (slide 24).
 - \circ Implement blocked summation (slide 16). How should you choose the block size b?
 - Implement FABsum (slide 19) with Kahan's summation as AccurateSum. How should you choose the block size *b*?
 - Compare performance-accuracy tradeoffs.
 - Remember slide number 21.