#### **Computer Arithmetic**



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**September 14, 2003** 

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$$x = \pm r \times 10^n,$$

where

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and n is an integer (positive, negative, or zero).

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- r is called the mantissa and n is the exponent.
- The leading digit in the fraction is not zero.
- For example,

$$42.965 = 0.42965 \times 10^{2},$$
  
-0.00234 = -0.234 \times 10^{-2}.

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$$(1001.1101)_2 = 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^0 + 1 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} + 1 \times 2^{-4}$$
  
= 0.10011101 \times 2^4  
= (9.8125)\_{10}

# **Computer Arithmetic**

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Repeating the previous step, we arrive at

$$\frac{2}{3} = (0.101010\ldots)_2.$$

# **Computer Arithmetic**

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- This subset, which are called the *floating-point numbers*, contains only rational numbers, both positive and negative.
- When a number can not be represented exactly with the fixed finite number of digits in a computer, a near-by floating-point number is chosen for approximate representation.

$$x = \pm 0.a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t a_{t+1} a_{t+2} \cdots \times 2^m, \quad a_1 \neq 0,$$

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2. rounding up: add  $2^{-(t+1)} \times 2^m$  to x and then chop the excess bits to obtain a number of the form

$$fl(x) = \pm 0.\delta_1 \delta_2 \cdots \delta_t \times 2^m.$$

In this method, if  $a_{t+1} = 1$ , we add 1 to  $a_t$  to obtain fl(x), and if  $a_{t+1} = 0$ , we merely chop off all but the first t digits.

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**Definition 1.2 (Absolute Error and Relative Error)** If x is an approximation to the exact value  $x^*$ , the absolute error is  $|x^* - x|$  and the relative error is  $\frac{|x^* - x|}{|x^*|}$ , provided that  $x^* \neq 0$ .

**Remark 1.1** As a measure of accuracy, the absolute error may be misleading and the relative error more meaningful.

# **Computer Arithmetic**

$$\frac{|x - fl(x)|}{|x|} = \frac{|0.00 \cdots 0a_{t+1}a_{t+2} \cdots \times 2^{m}|}{|0.a_{1}a_{2} \cdots a_{t}a_{t+1}a_{t+2} \cdots \times 2^{m}|}$$
$$= \frac{|0.a_{t+1}a_{t+2} \cdots|}{|0.a_{1}a_{2} \cdots a_{t}a_{t+1}a_{t+2} \cdots|} \times 2^{-t}$$

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Since  $a_1 \neq 0$ , the minimal value of the denominator is  $\frac{1}{2}$ . The numerator is bounded above by 1. As a consequence

$$\left|\frac{x - fl(x)}{x}\right| \le 2^{-t+1}.$$

- If t-digit rounding arithmetic is used and
  - $a_{t+1} = 0$ , then  $fl(x) = \pm 0.a_1a_2 \cdots a_t \times 2^m$ .

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-  $a_{t+1} = 0$ , then  $fl(x) = \pm 0.a_1a_2 \cdots a_t \times 2^m$ . A bound for the relative error is

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-  $a_{t+1} = 1$ , then  $fl(x) = \pm (0.a_1a_2\cdots a_t + 2^{-t}) \times 2^m$ . The upper bound for relative error becomes

$$\frac{|x - fl(x)|}{|x|} = \frac{|1 - 0.a_{t+1}a_{t+2}\cdots|}{|0.a_1a_2\cdots a_ta_{t+1}a_{t+2}\cdots|} \times 2^{-t} \le 2^{-t},$$

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• If *t*-digit rounding arithmetic is used and

-  $a_{t+1} = 0$ , then  $fl(x) = \pm 0.a_1a_2 \cdots a_t \times 2^m$ . A bound for the relative error is

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Therefore the relative error for rounding arithmetic is

$$\left|\frac{x - fl(x)}{x}\right| \le 2^{-t} = \frac{1}{2} \times 2^{-t+1}.$$

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 In 1985, the IEEE (Institute for Electrical and Electronic Engineers) published a report called *Binary Floating Point Arithmetic Standard 754-1985*. In this report, formats were specified for single, double, and extended precisions, and these standards are generally followed by microcomputer manufactures using floating-point hardware.

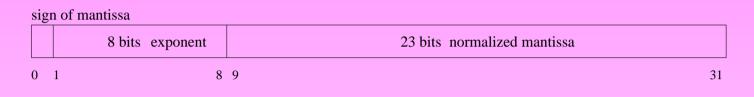


Figure 1: 32-bit single precision.

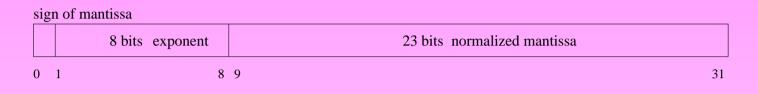


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The first bit is a sign indicator, denoted s. This is followed by an 8-bit exponent c and a 23-bit mantissa f.

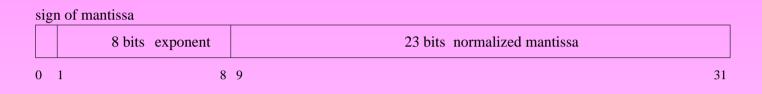


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- The base for the exponent and mantissa is 2, and the actual exponent is c 127. The value of c is restricted by the inequality  $0 \le c \le 255$ .

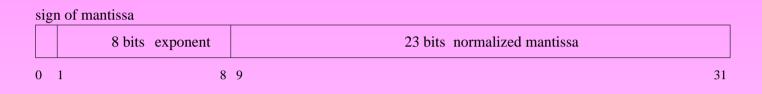


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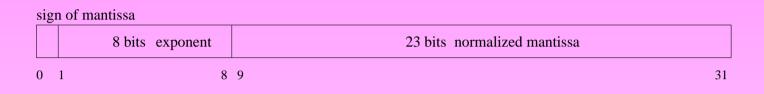


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- The actual exponent of the number is restricted by the inequality  $-126 \le c 127 \le 128.$
- A normalization is imposed that requires that the leading digit in fraction be 1, and this digit is not stored as part of the 23-bit mantissa.

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- This approximately corresponds to 6 accurate decimal digits. And the first single precision floating-point number greater than 1 is  $1 + 2^{-23}$ .
- The largest number that can be represented by the single precision format is approximately  $2^{128} \approx 3.403 \times 10^{38}$ , and the smallest positive number is  $2^{-126} \approx 1.175 \times 10^{-38}$ .

sign of m	antissa 11-bit exponent		mantissa	
1	11-bit exponent		manussa	
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• Range of approximately  $2^{-1022} \approx 2.225 \times 10^{-308}$  to  $2^{1024} \approx 1.798 \times 10^{308}$ .

• Table 1 summarizes some characteristics of IEEE standard floating-point representations.

	single precision	double precision
$\varepsilon_M$	$2^{-23} \approx 1.192 \times 10^{-7}$	$2^{-52} \approx 2.220 \times 10^{-16}$
smallest positive number	$2^{-126} \approx 1.175 \times 10^{-38}$	$2^{-1022} \approx 2.225 \times 10^{-308}$
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- For the most accuracy, computations should be done using double precision floating-point numbers, however, the execution time is much higher.
- If a number  $x = \pm q \times 2^m$  with m outside the computer's possible range (too large or too small), then we say that an *overflow* or an *underflow* has occurred.

• +Inf and -Inf correspond to two quite different numbers,  $+\infty$  and  $-\infty$ . A NaN stands for Not a Number and is an error pattern rather than a number. Table 2 lists the IEEE exception handling standard.

big*big	$\pm$ Inf	overflow
number/0.0	$\pm$ Inf	division
0.0/0.0	NaN	invalid
small/big	subnormal number	underflow
2.0/3.0	rounded	

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- **2** Floating-Point Error Analysis
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- Under (1), the relative error of  $fl(x \odot y)$  satisfies

 $fl(x \odot y) = (x \odot y)(1 + \delta), \quad \delta \le \varepsilon_M,$ 

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• But if *x*, *y* are not machine numbers, then they must first rounded to floating-point format before the arithmetic operation and the resulting relative error becomes

 $fl(fl(x) \odot fl(y)) = (x(1+\delta_1) \odot y(1+\delta_2))(1+\delta_3),$ 

where  $\delta_i \leq \varepsilon_M, i = 1, 2, 3.$ 

(3)

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• The analysis (3) can be extended to arithmetic operations on three floating-point numbers.

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$$\begin{aligned} l(x(y+z)) &= (x \cdot fl(y+z))(1+\delta_1) \\ &= (x(y+z)(1+\delta_2))(1+\delta_1) \\ &= x(y+z)(1+\delta_1+\delta_2+\delta_1\delta_2) \\ &\approx x(y+z)(1+\delta_1+\delta_2) \\ &= x(y+z)(1+\delta_3) \end{aligned}$$

#### **3** Loss of Significance

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One of the most common error-producing calculations involves the cancellation of significant digits due to the subtraction of nearly equal numbers (or the addition of one very large number and one very small number).

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Then the floating-point form of x - y is

$$fl(fl(x) - fl(y)) = 0.\sigma_{p+1}\sigma_{p+2}\cdots\sigma_t \times 10^n,$$

where

$$0.\sigma_{p+1}\sigma_{p+2}\cdots\sigma_t = 0.\alpha_{p+1}\alpha_{p+2}\cdots\alpha_t - 0.\beta_{p+1}\beta_{p+2}\cdots\beta_t.$$

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• The floating-point number used to represent x - y has at most t - p digits of significance.

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$$fl(fl(x) - fl(y)) = 0.\sigma_{p+1}\sigma_{p+2}\cdots\sigma_t \times 10^n,$$

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$$0.\sigma_{p+1}\sigma_{p+2}\cdots\sigma_t = 0.\alpha_{p+1}\alpha_{p+2}\cdots\alpha_t - 0.\beta_{p+1}\beta_{p+2}\cdots\beta_t.$$

The floating-point number used to represent x - y has at most t - p digits of significance. However, in most computers, x - y will be assigned t digits, with the last p digits being either zero or randomly assigned.

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**Example 3.1** If x = 0.3721478693 and y = 0.3720230572, what is the relative error in the computation of x - y using five decimal digits of accuracy?

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Therefore the relative error is

$$\frac{(x-y) - (fl(x) - fl(y))}{x-y} \approx 0.04 = 4\%.$$

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 $\checkmark$  How many significant binary bits are lost in the subtraction when x is close to y?

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**Theorem 3.1** If  $x \ge 0$  and  $y \ge 0$  are normalized floating-point binary numbers such that x > y and

$$2^{-q} \le 1 - \frac{y}{x} \le 2^{-p},$$

then at most q and at least p significant binary digits are lost in the subtraction x - y.

Proof: Write

$$x = r \times 2^n, \ \frac{1}{2} \le r < 1$$
 and  $y = s \times 2^m, \ \frac{1}{2} \le s < 1.$ 

Since x > y, we must shift the decimal digits of y to the right

$$y = (s \times 2^{m-n}) \times 2^n.$$

Then

$$x - y = (r - s \times 2^{m-n}) \times 2^n = r\left(1 - \frac{s \times 2^m}{r \times 2^n}\right) \times 2^n = r\left(1 - \frac{y}{x}\right) \times 2^n.$$

By assumption  $2^{-q} \leq 1 - \frac{y}{x} \leq 2^{-p}$  , hence

$$r\left(1-\frac{y}{x}\right) < 1 \cdot 2^{-p} = 2^{-p}.$$

This means that to normalize the result x - y, a shift of at least p bits to the left is required. Similarly,

$$r\left(1-\frac{y}{x}\right) \ge \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^{-q} = 2^{-(q+1)},$$

and a shift of at most q bits to the right is required.

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**Example 3.2** Consider the two equivalent functions

$$f(x) = x(\sqrt{x+1} - \sqrt{x})$$
 and  $g(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x+1} + \sqrt{x}}$ .

Compare the function evaluation of f(500) and g(500) using 6 digits and rounding.

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Compare the function evaluation of f(500) and g(500) using 6 digits and rounding. Solution:

$$f(500) = 0.500000 \times 10^{3} \times (\sqrt{501} - \sqrt{500})$$
  
= 0.500000 \times 10^{3} \times (0.223830 \times 10^{2} - 0.223607 \times 10^{2})  
= 0.500000 \times 10^{3} \times 0.223000

$$= 0.111500 \times 10^{3}$$

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$$g(500) = \frac{500}{\sqrt{501} + \sqrt{500}}$$
  
=  $\frac{0.500000 \times 10^3}{0.223830 \times 10^2 + 0.223607 \times 10^2}$   
=  $\frac{0.500000 \times 10^3}{0.447437 \times 10^2}$   
=  $0.111748 \times 10^2$ 

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If more digits are used, we can calculated

$$f(500) = 500 \times (\sqrt{501} - \sqrt{500})$$
  
= 500 × (22.38302929 - 22.36067977)

- $= 500 \times 0.022349516$
- = 11.1747553

Hence it can be argued that the formulation g(x) is better.

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**Example 3.3** The quadratic formulas for computing the roots of  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , when  $a \neq 0$ , are

$$x_1 = \frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$
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$$\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac} = \sqrt{62.10^2 - 4.000} = \sqrt{3856 - 4.000} = \sqrt{3852} = 62.06,$$

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$$fl(x_1) = \frac{-62.10 + 62.06}{2.000} = \frac{-0.04000}{2.000} = -0.02000.$$

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The relative error in computing  $x_1$  is

$$\frac{|fl(x_1) - x_1|}{|x_1|} = \frac{|-0.02000 + 0.01610723|}{|-0.01610723|} = \frac{0.00389277}{0.01610723} \approx 0.2417.$$

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In this equation,  $b^2 = 62.10^2$  is much larger than 4ac = 4. Hence b and  $\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$  become two nearly equal numbers. The calculation of  $x_1$  involves the subtraction of two nearly equal numbers.

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To obtain a more accurate 4-digit rounding approximation for  $x_1$ , we change the formulation by rationalizing the numerator, that is,

$$x_1 = \frac{-2c}{b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}.$$

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Then

$$fl(x_1) = \frac{-2.000}{62.10 + 62.06} = \frac{-2.000}{124.2} = -0.01610.$$

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Example 3.4 Let

$$p(x) = ((x^3 - 3x^2) + 3x) - 1,$$
  

$$q(x) = ((x - 3)x + 3)x - 1.$$

Compare the function values at x = 2.19.

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Compare the function values at x = 2.19.

Solution: Use 3-digit and rounding for p(2.19) and q(2.19).

$$\hat{p}(2.19) = ((2.19^3 - 3 \times 2.19^2) + 3 \times 2.19) - 1$$
  
=  $((10.5 - 14.4) + 3 \times 2.19) - 1$   
=  $(-3.9 + 6.57) - 1$   
=  $2.67 - 1$   
=  $1.67$ 

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$$\hat{l}(2.19) = ((2.19 - 3) \times 2.19 + 3) \times 2.19 - 1$$
  
=  $(-0.81 \times 2.19 + 3) \times 2.19 - 1$   
=  $(-1.77 + 3) \times 2.19 - 1$   
=  $1.23 \times 2.19 - 1$   
=  $2.69 - 1$   
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$$\hat{q}(2.19) = ((2.19 - 3) \times 2.19 + 3) \times 2.19 - 1$$
  
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Hence the absolute errors are

$$|p(2.19) - \hat{p}(2.19)| = 0.015159$$

and

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respectively.

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respectively. One can observe that the evaluation formula q(x) is better than p(x).

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Example 3.5 How to evaluate

 $y = x - \sin x$ 

when x is small?

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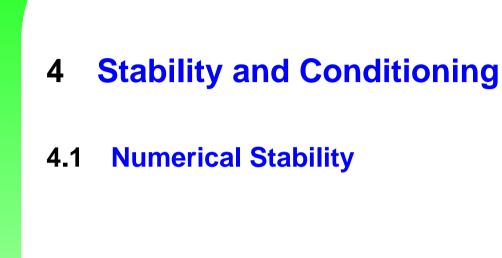
Solution: Since  $x \approx \sin x$  for small x, the computation will cause loss of significance. Alternatively, use Taylor series for  $\sin x$  so that

$$y = x - \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \frac{x^9}{9!} - \cdots\right)$$
  
$$= \frac{x^3}{3!} - \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^7}{7!} - \frac{x^9}{9!} + \cdots$$
  
$$= \frac{x^3}{6} - \frac{x^5}{6 \times 20} + \frac{x^7}{6 \times 20 \times 42} - \frac{x^9}{6 \times 20 \times 42 \times 72} \cdots$$
  
$$= \frac{x^3}{6} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{20} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{42} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{72} (\cdots)\right)\right)\right)$$

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Numerical analysis

#### **4** Stability and Conditioning

#### 4.1 Numerical Stability

A numerical process is unstable if small errors made at one stage of the process are magnified and propagated in subsequent stages and seriously degrade the accuracy of the overall calculation.

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#### 4.1 Numerical Stability

A numerical process is unstable if small errors made at one stage of the process are magnified and propagated in subsequent stages and seriously degrade the accuracy of the overall calculation.

**Example 4.1** Consider the following recurrence algorithm

$$\begin{cases} x_0 = 1, & x_1 = \frac{1}{3} \\ x_{n+1} = \frac{13}{3}x_n - \frac{4}{3}x_{n-1} \end{cases}$$

for computing the sequence of  $\{x_n = (\frac{1}{3})^n\}$ . This algorithm is unstable.



#### Solution: A computer implementation of the recurrence algorithm gives the following result.

n	$x_n$	n	$x_n$	n	$x_n$	n	$x_n$
0	1.0000000	4	0.0123466	8	0.0003757	12	0.0571502
1	0.3333333	5	0.0041187	9	0.0009437	13	0.2285939
2	0.1111112	6	0.0013857	10	0.0035887	14	0.9143735
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The error present in  $x_n$  is multiplied by  $\frac{13}{3}$  in computing  $x_{n+1}$ . For example, the error will be propagated with a factor of  $\left(\frac{13}{3}\right)^{14}$  in computing  $x_{15}$ .

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#### 4.2 Conditioning

Numerical analysis

# (32

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- A problem is ill-conditioned if small changes in the data can produce large changes in the results.
- $\checkmark$  For a nonsingular square matrix A, the condition number of A is defined as

$$\kappa(A) = \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|,$$

with respect to some matrix norm.

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Numerical

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#### Conditioning 4.2

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with respect to some matrix norm.

For a general rectangular matrix, the singular values are used to characterize the condition CP number

$$\kappa(A) = \frac{\sigma_{max}}{\sigma_{min}},$$

where  $\sigma_{max}$  is the largest singular value of A and  $\sigma_{min}$  the smallest singular value. otember 14, 2003 ung-Min Hwang

Version 2.1







#### ${} > A$ is said to be ill-conditioned if $\kappa(A)$ is large, and well-conditioned when $\kappa(A)$ is modest.



- $\Im$  A is said to be ill-conditioned if  $\kappa(A)$  is large, and well-conditioned when  $\kappa(A)$  is modest.
- A well-known ill-conditioned matrix is the Hilbert matrix

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- In general, ill-conditioning is not easy to detect.
- In solving a system of linear equations Ax = b in which A is ill-conditioned, small perturbation in b will cause large perturbation in x.