#### Numerical methods

Session 2: Machine representation of numbers

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Any machine operation is affected by rounding errors or roundoff. Given a base  $\beta \in \mathbb{N}$  fixed with  $\beta \geq 2$ , and a real number x with a finite number of digits  $x_k$  with  $0 \leq x_k < \beta$  for  $k = -m, \dots, n$ . The positional representation of x with respect to the base  $\beta$  is:

$$x_{\beta} = (-1)^{s} [x_{n}x_{n-1} \cdots x_{1}x_{0}.x_{-1}x_{-2} \cdots x_{-m}], \quad x_{n} \neq 0.$$

This relation actually means

$$x_{\beta} = (-1)^{s} \left( \sum_{k=-m}^{n} x_{k} \beta^{k} \right)$$

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**Example:** The conventional writing  $x_{10} = 425.33$  denotes the number  $x = 4 \cdot 10^2 + 2 \cdot 10 + 5 + 3 \cdot 10^{-1} + 3 \cdot 10^{-2}$ , while  $x_6 = 425.33$  would denote the real number  $x = 4 \cdot 6^2 + 2 \cdot 6 + 5 + 3 \cdot 6^{-1} + 3 \cdot 6^{-2}$ .

A rational number can have a finite number of digits in a base and an infinite number of digits in another base. For example, the fraction 1/3 has infinite digits in base 10, being  $x_{10} = 0.\overline{3}$ , while it has only one digit in base 3, being  $x_3 = 0.1$ .

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Any real number can be approximated by numbers having a finite representation, with as much accuracy as we want, as long as we can increase the number of digits enough.

- 2 (binary): 0 and 1 (called bits).
- 10 (decimal): The human basis.
- 16 (hexadecimal): 0, 1, ..., 8, 9, A, B, ..., E, F.

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Basis in use:

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Computers use the *floating-point representation* which is given by

$$x = (-1)^s \cdot (0.a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t) \cdot \beta^e = (-1)^s \cdot m \cdot \beta^{e-t}$$

where:

- s will give the sign.
- β is the basis.
- $m = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_t$  an integer number called mantissa such that  $0 < m < \beta^{t-1}$  and  $0 < a_i < \beta 1$ ).
- $t \in \mathbb{N}$  is the number of significant digits.
- e is the exponent  $(L \le e \le U)$

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Let us define the set of floating-point numbers with t significant digits, base  $\beta \geq 2, 0 \leq a_i \leq \beta - 1$ , and range (L, U) with L < e < U:

$$\mathbb{F}(\beta, t, L, U) = \{0\} \cup \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R} : x = (-1)^s \beta^e \sum_{i=1}^t a_i \beta^{-i} \right\}$$

In order to force uniqueness in the representation of the number x we can impose  $a_1 \neq 0$  and  $m > \beta^{t-1}$ . This representation of x is called normalized.

For example, x = 1, would admit the representations  $0.1 * 10^{1}$ ,

0.0001 \* 10<sup>4</sup>. etc...but ion come normalized representation 1 1700 NUNTEPRIVATE LES SONES FAPS

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It is evident that if  $x \in \mathbb{F}$ , then -x is also in  $\mathbb{F}$ , and that  $\mathbb{F}$  has the following bounds:

$$x_{min} = \beta^{L-1} \le x \le \beta^{U} (1 - \beta^{-t}) = x_{max}$$

The cardinality (number of elements) of  $\mathbb{F}$  is card  $\mathbb{F} = 2(\beta - 1)\beta^{t-1}(U - L + 1) + 1$ .

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**Example:** The positive numbers in the set  $\mathbb{F}(2,3,-1,2)$  are:

$$\begin{array}{lll} (0.111) \cdot 2^2 = \frac{7}{2}, & (0.110) \cdot 2^2 = 3, & (0.101) \cdot 2^2 = \frac{5}{2}, & (0.100) \cdot 2^2 = 2, \\ (0.111) \cdot 2 = \frac{7}{4}, & (0.110) \cdot 2 = \frac{3}{2}, & (0.101) \cdot 2 = \frac{5}{4}, & (0.100) \cdot 2 = 1, \\ (0.111) = \frac{7}{8}, & (0.110) = \frac{3}{4}, & (0.101) = \frac{5}{8}, & (0.100) = \frac{1}{2}, \\ (0.111) \cdot 2^{-1} = \frac{7}{16}, & (0.110) \cdot 2^{-1} = \frac{3}{8}, & (0.101) \cdot 2^{-1} = \frac{5}{16}, & (0.100) \cdot 2^{-1} = \frac{1}{4}. \end{array}$$

They are included between  $x_{min} = \beta^{L-1} = 2^{-2} = 1/4$  and  $x_{max} = \beta^{U}(1 - \beta^{-t}) = 2^{2}(1 - 2^{-3}) = 7/2$ .

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As a whole, we have  $(\beta - 1)\beta^{t-1}(U - L + 1) = (2 - 1)2^{3-1}(2 + 1 + 1) = 16$  strictly positive numbers. Their opposites must be added to them, as well as the number zero. We notice that when  $\beta = 2$ , the first significant digit in the normalized representation is necessarily equal to 1 and thus it may not be stored in the computer (in such an event, we call it hidden bit). When considering also the positive de-normalized numbers, we should complete the above set by adding the following numbers:

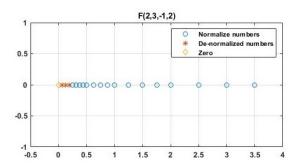
$$(.011)_2 \cdot 2^{-1} = \frac{3}{16}, \quad (.010)_2 \cdot 2^{-1} = \frac{1}{8}, \quad (.001)_2 \cdot 2^{-1} = \frac{1}{16}.$$

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#### Distribution of floating-point numbers

The floating-point numbers are not equally spaced along the real line, but they get dense close to the smallest representable number.



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## Distribution of floating-point numbers. Standard formats

Nowadays the standard IEC559 endorses two formats for the floating-point numbers: a basic format, made by the system  $\mathbb{F}(2,24,-125,128)$  for the single precision, and by  $\mathbb{F}(2,53,-1021,1024)$  for the double precision, both including the de-normalized numbers, and an extended format, for which only the main limitations are fixed.

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As previously stated, it is necessary to define on the set of machine numbers an arithmetic which is analogous, as far as possible, to the arithmetic in  $\mathbb{R}.$  Thus, given any arithmetic operation  $\circ:\mathbb{R}\times\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$  on two operands in  $\mathbb{R}$  (the symbol  $\circ$  may denote sum, subtraction, multiplication or division), we shall denote by  $\boxdot$  the corresponding machine operation

$$\odot : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{F}, \quad x \odot y = fl(fl(x) \circ fl(y)).$$

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From the properties of floating-point numbers one could expect that for the operations on two operands, whenever well defined, the following property holds:  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{F}, \exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$x \odot y = (x \circ y)(1 + \delta) \tag{1}$$

with

$$|\delta| \le u$$
 (remember  $u$  is the machine precision  $u = \frac{1}{2}\beta^{1-t} = \frac{1}{2}\epsilon_M$ ).

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In order for this to be satisfied when  $\circ$  is the operator of subtraction, it will require an additional assumption on the structure of the numbers in  $\mathbb{F}$ , that is the presence of the so-called round digit (which is addressed at the end of this section). In particular, when  $\circ$  is the sum operator, it follows that for all  $x,y\in\mathbb{F}$ 

$$\frac{|x \boxplus y - (x + y)|}{|x + y|} \le u(1 + u)\frac{|x| + |y|}{|x + y|} + u$$

so that the relative error associated with every machine operation will be small, unless x + y is not small by itself. An aside comment is deserved by the case of the sum of two numbers close in module,

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**Example:** Let us work with  $\mathbb{F}$  having  $\beta = 10$  and t = 2. Let us subtract 1 and 0.99.

Without round digit we have:

With round digit:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 10^1 \cdot 0.1 & & 10^1 \cdot 0.10 \\ 10^0 \cdot 0.99 & \rightarrow & 10^1 \cdot 0.09 \boxed{9} \end{array}$$

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It is important to notice that, together with properties of standard arithmetic that are preserved when passing to floating-point arithmetic (like, for instance, the commutativity of the sum of two addends, or the product of two factors), other properties are lost. An example is given by the associativity of sum: it can indeed be shown that in general

$$x \boxplus (y \boxplus z) \neq (x \boxplus y) \boxplus z$$
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**Note:** The IEC559 standard defines a closed arithmetic on  $\mathbb{F}$ , this meaning that any operation on it produces a result that can be represented within the system itself. As an example, in the next table we report the results that are obtained in exceptional situations:

Exception	Examples	Result
non valid operation	$0/0, 0\cdot\infty$	NaN
overflow		$\pm \infty$
division by zero	1/0,	$\pm \infty$
underflow		subnormal numbers

The presence of a NaN (Nat-a-Number

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Round-off errors: Wikipedia.

In these links there are some examples of round-off disasters: http://www-users.math.umn.edu/ arnold//disasters/ https://web.ma.utexas.edu/users/arbogast/misc/disasters.html

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