☐3. Representing real numbers: Floating-point arithmetic

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Review of the previous class

- Data are stored as a sequence of bits
- Data types tell the computer how to operate on the bits
- New data types using struct

- Representations of
 - Booleans
 - Integers
 - Rationals

 Rationals lead to an explosion of memory requirements and processing time

Goals for today

Look for a solution for representing real numbers

- Floating-point numbers
- Rounding

Real numbers

- Real numbers
- Ordered, uncountable set of numbers

Think of infinite decimal expansions

$$x=a_m\cdots a_1a_0\boldsymbol{\cdot} a_{-1}a_{-2}\cdots a_{-n}\cdots$$

i.e.

$$x = \sum_{i = -\infty}^{m} a_i b^i$$

b is the base or radix

Collaborative exercise

Towards the reals

- How could we represent a number of dollars *and cents* using just integers?
- 2 How should we add daily interest by multiplying by 1.0001?
- 3 How does this generalise to represent numbers of scientific interest?
- What should we do if numbers become too big or too small?

- We could **fix** the position for the radix point:
- $= a_3 a_2 a_1 a_0 \cdot a_{-1} a_{-2} a_{-3} a_{-4}$

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- We could represent this in a single byte
- Fixed-point arithmetic
- e.g. FixedPointArithmetic.jl Julia package

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But a fixed-point representation cannot represent a wide range of numbers

Collaborative exercise II

Representing wider ranges of numbers

Starting from fixed-point arithmetic, how could we represent a wider range of numbers? Think about scientific notation.

Representing reals: Floating-point arithmetic

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- Solution: jFix** the number of digits, but let the binary point float, i.e. move around
- Similar to significant figures and scientific notation:

3.1415 31.415 314.15

Relative precision

- Note that we always have the same **relative** precision
- I.e. the ratio

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The downside is that we have less absolute accuracy for larger numbers

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- lacksquare We define a set $\mathbb F$ of numbers of the form

$$x = \pm 2^e (1+f)$$

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- lacksquare e integer **exponent**; f = fractional part (**mantissa**)
- $f = \sum_{i=1}^p b_i 2^{-i}$
- f has a binary expansion like $0 \cdot 101 \dots$
- \bullet $f = \frac{n}{2^p}$ with n an integer

Floating-point numbers II

- We need to store
 - 1 bit for the sign
 - lacksquare n_e bits for the exponent
 - p bits for the mantissa
- E.g. IEEE double precision ("binary64" = Float64):

$$n_e=11$$
 and $p=52$

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$$n_e=11 \ {\rm and} \ p=52$$

- Note that one bit of the mantissa is implicit and not stored
- lacksquare So the **precision** is actually $\tilde{p}=p+1$
- E.g. double precision has 53 bits of precision

Collaborative exercise III

Spacing of floats

1 How are floats spaced along the real line? Think about using a small precision, say 3, and start with exponent 0.

- Note that $1 \le (1+f) < 2$
- lacktriangle The floats in this range (e=0) are equally spaced
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■ What happens if we *change* the exponent?

- \blacksquare We multiply the picture by 2^e
- \blacksquare Floats with exponent e are equally spaced in $[2^e,2^{e+1})$!
- But floats with different exponents have different spacings!

Plotting floats with Julia

```
```julia
using Plots
x = Float16(1.0)
xs = [x]
for i in 1:10000
 x = nextfloat(x)
 push!(xs, x)
end
scatter(xs)
. . .
```

#### Peeling apart floats in Julia

- Float64 is standard format: IEEE double precision ("binary64")
- Sign: 1 bit; exponent: 11 bits; mantissa: p=52 bits
- Peel it apart following the above description:

```
x = 0.1
s = bitstring(x)

mantissa_string = s[end-51:end]
f = parse(Int, mantissa_string, base=2) / (2.0^52)
y = 2.0^(exponent(x)) * (1 + f)
```

Exponent: integer with shift ("bias") – 1023 for Float64

#### Machine epsilon

- lacktriangle The smallest number greater than 1 is  $1+2^{-p}$
- $\blacksquare \ 2^{-p}$  is called **machine epsilon** or  $\epsilon_{\rm mach}$
- Julia:

```
eps(Float64)
eps(1.0)
nextfloat(1.0) - 1.0
```

- Given a *true* real number x, we can (in principle) find the *nearest* floating-point number to it, fl(x)
- This is called rounding
- We have the following bound for the **relative error**:

$$\frac{|\mathbf{fl}(x) - x|}{|x|} \leq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{\mathrm{mach}}$$

 $\blacksquare$  Equivalently,  $\mathrm{fl}(x) = x(1+\epsilon)$  with  $|\epsilon| \leq \frac{1}{2}\epsilon_{\mathrm{mach}}$ 

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Julia has faithful rounding: returns one of the two nearest floating-point numbers

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- What is 0.1 (in Julia / any programming language)?
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- What is 3.3 \* 1.2?

#### BigFloat**S**

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setprecision(BigFloat, 1000)
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- big(0.1) shows true value represented by 0.1.
- pi or π is special: it can calculate its value to arbitrary precision:

```
typeof(\pi) big(\pi)
```

#### Overflow and underflow

- Certain operations exceed the range of representable values
- Overflow: A number is produced that is too large
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- NB: Julia's Int types do not warn you when overflow occurs (for performance):

```
x = factorial(20) # OK
x * 21 # wrong!
```

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x = 1e305 # scientific notation for 10^(305)
x * 10000 # gives Inf
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- Underflow gives 0.0
- There is **negative zero**!:

```
-1 / Inf
```

#### Sub-normal numbers

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- We want to represent numbers closer to 0 than is allowed by the above description
- Sub-normal numbers have the smallest possible exponent
- We allow initial digits of the mantissa to be 0 to represent smaller numbers

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- This is false!

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- They behave in well-defined and predictable ways

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Floating-point numbers are special rationals!

- They are dyadic numbers: rationals with power-of-2 denominators
- They behave in well-defined and predictable ways
- Operations usually must round to the nearest float
- There are (slow) arbitrary-precision float libraries