

# Modern C++ Programming

## 5. BASIC CONCEPTS III FLOATING-POINT TYPES

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# Floating-point Types

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# Floating-Point Types

Standard	Type	IEEE754	Bytes	Min	Max	C++23 <code>&lt;std::float&gt;</code>
C++23	(bfloating16)	N	2	$\pm 1.18 \times 10^{-38}$	$\pm 3.4 \times 10^{+38}$	<code>std::bfloating16_t</code>
C++23	(float16)	Y	2	0.00006	65,536	<code>std::float16_t</code>
	float	Y	4	$\pm 1.18 \times 10^{-38}$	$\pm 3.4 \times 10^{+38}$	<code>std::float32_t</code>
	double	Y	8	$\pm 2.23 \times 10^{-308}$	$\pm 1.8 \times 10^{+308}$	<code>std::float64_t</code>
C++23	(float128)	Y	16	$\pm 3.36 \times 10^{-4032}$	$\pm 1.18 \times 10^{+4032}$	<code>std::float128_t</code>

# Floating-Point Suffix Literals

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Standard	Type	SUFFIX	Example
	float	f, F	3.0f
	double		3.0
C++23	std::bfloat16_t	bf16, BF16	3.0bf16
C++23	std::float16_t	f16, F16	3.0f16
C++23	std::float32_t	f32, F32	3.0f32
C++23	std::float64_t	f64, F64	3.0f64
C++23	std::float128_t	f128, F128	3.0f128

---

# Floating-Point Limits

```
#include <limits>

std::numeric_limits<int>::max();           // 231 - 1
std::numeric_limits<uint16_t>::max();        // 65,535
std::numeric_limits<float>::max();           // 3.4 × 1038

std::numeric_limits<int>::min();            // -231
std::numeric_limits<unsigned>::min();         // 0
std::numeric_limits<float>::min();           // 1.18 × 10-38

std::numeric_limits<int>::lowest();          // -231      same as min()
std::numeric_limits<unsigned>::lowest();       // 0          same as min()
std::numeric_limits<float>::lowest();         // -3.4 × 1038 NOT the same as min()
```

\* this syntax will be explained in the next lectures

# IEEE Floating-Point Standard

**IEEE754** is the technical standard for floating-point arithmetic

The standard defines the binary format, operations behavior, rounding rules, exception handling, etc.

*First Release : 1985*

*Second Release : 2008. Add 16-bit, 128-bit, 256-bit floating-point types*

*Third Release : 2019. Specify min/max behavior*

References:

- The IEEE Standard 754: One for the History Books
- IEEE Standard for Floating-Point Arithmetic (2019)

# IEEE Floating-Point Standard and C++

In general, **C++ adopts IEEE754 floating-point standard**

The supports can be verified with:

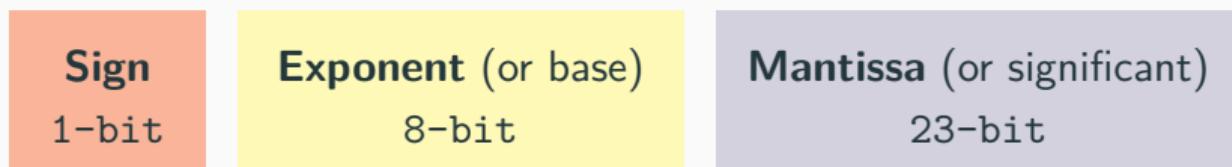
```
#include <limits>
std::numeric_limits<float>::is_iec559;
std::numeric_limits<double>::is_iec559;
```

[en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/types/numeric\\_limits/is\\_iec559](https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/types/numeric_limits/is_iec559)

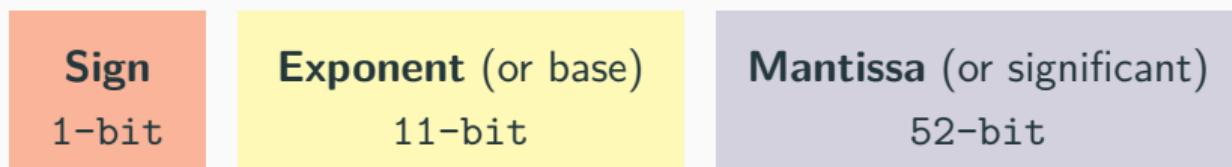
*C++ adopts IEEE754 in most platform, not all!* This allows some operations to have undefined behavior even if IEEE754 is supported

# 32/64-bit Floating-Point

- IEEE754 Single-precision (32-bit) float

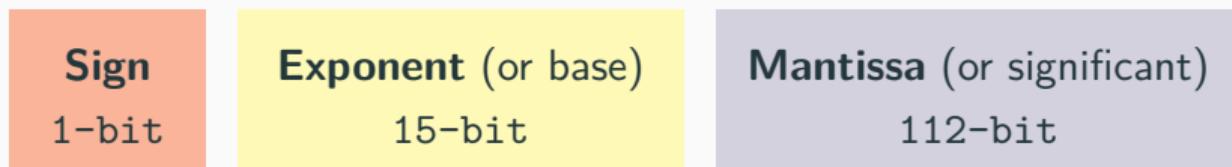


- IEEE754 Double-precision (64-bit) double

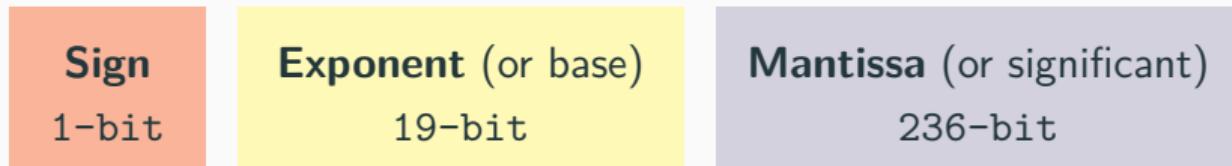


# 128/256-bit Floating-Point

- IEEE754 Quad-Precision (128-bit) `std::float128_t` C++23



- IEEE754 Octuple-Precision (256-bit) (not standardized in C++)

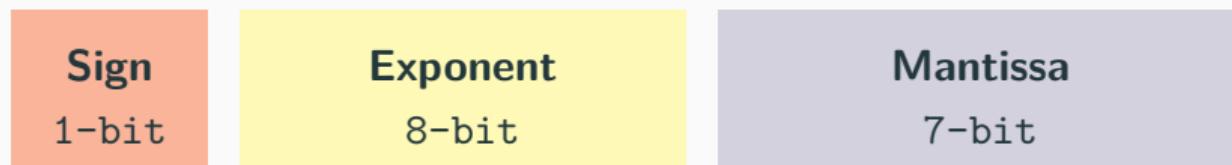


# 16-bit Floating-Point

- IEEE754 16-bit Floating-point ( `std::binary16_t` ) C++23 → GPU, Arm7

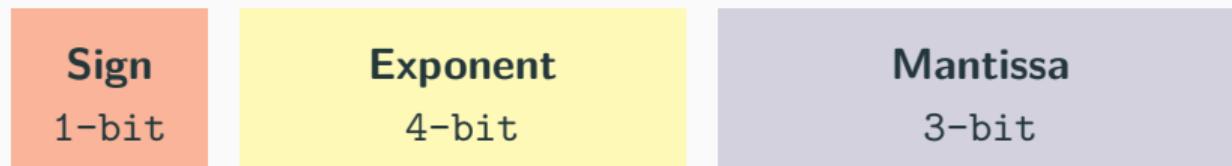


- Google 16-bit Floating-point ( `std::bfloat16_t` ) C++23 → TPU, GPU, Arm8

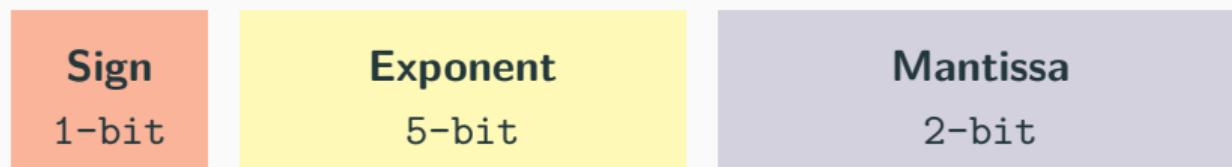


# 8-bit Floating-Point (Non-Standardized in C++/IEEE)

- E4M3



- E5M2



- 
- Floating Point Formats for Machine Learning, *IEEE draft*
  - FP8 Formats for Deep Learning, *Intel, Nvidia, Arm*

- **TensorFloat-32 (TF32)** Specialized floating-point format for deep learning applications
- **Posit** (John Gustafson, 2017), also called *unum III (universal number)*, represents floating-point values with *variable-width* of exponent and mantissa.  
It is implemented in experimental platforms

- 
- NVIDIA Hopper Architecture In-Depth
  - Beating Floating Point at its Own Game: Posit Arithmetic
  - Posits, a New Kind of Number, Improves the Math of AI
  - Comparing posit and IEEE-754 hardware cost

- **Microscaling Formats (MX)** Specification for low-precision floating-point formats defined by AMD, Arm, Intel, Meta, Microsoft, NVIDIA, and Qualcomm.  
It includes FP8, FP6, FP4, (MX)INT8
- **Fixed-point** representation has a fixed number of digits after the radix point (decimal point). The gaps between adjacent numbers are always equal. The range of their values is significantly limited compared to floating-point numbers.  
It is widely used on embedded systems

## Floating-point number:

- *Radix* (or base):  $\beta$
- *Precision* (or digits):  $p$
- *Exponent* (magnitude):  $e$
- *Mantissa*:  $M$

$$n = \underbrace{M}_p \times \beta^e \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{IEEE754: } 1.M \times 2^e$$

```
float f1 = 1.3f;    // 1.3
float f2 = 1.1e2f; // 1.1 · 102
float f3 = 3.7E4f; // 3.7 · 104
float f4 = .3f;    // 0.3
double d1 = 1.3;   // without "f"
double d2 = 5E3;   // 5 · 103
```

## Exponent Bias

In IEEE754 floating point numbers, the exponent value is offset from the actual value by the **exponent bias**.

- For a single-precision number, the exponent is stored in the range [1, 254].
- 0 and 255 have special meanings: *denormal numbers* and NaN.
- The exponent is biased by subtracting 127 to get an exponent value in the range [-126, +127].

0  
+

10000111  
 $2^{(135-127)} = 2^8$

11000000000000000000000000000000  
 $\frac{1}{2^1} + \frac{1}{2^2} = 0.5 + 0.25 = 0.75 \xrightarrow{\text{normal}} 1.75$

$$+1.75 * 2^8 = 448.0$$

The exponent is stored as an unsigned value *suitable for comparison*.

Except NaN, floating point values are lexicographic ordered.

```
int make_float_comparable_as_int(float v) {
    int v_int = std::bit_cast<int>(v); // convert to 'int' without changing the
                                         // underlying representation
    return v_int < 0 ? 0x80000000 - v_int : v_int;
}

float v1 = ...
float v2 = ...
int w1 = make_float_comparable_as_int(v1);
int w2 = make_float_comparable_as_int(v2);
// v1 < v2 -> w1 < w2
```

## Normal number

A **normal** number is a floating point value that can be represented with *at least one bit set in the exponent* or the mantissa has all 0s

## Denormal number

**Denormal** (or subnormal) numbers fill the underflow gap around zero in floating-point arithmetic. Any non-zero number with magnitude smaller than the smallest normal number is denormal

A **denormal** number is a floating point value that can be represented with *all 0s in the exponent*, but the mantissa is non-zero

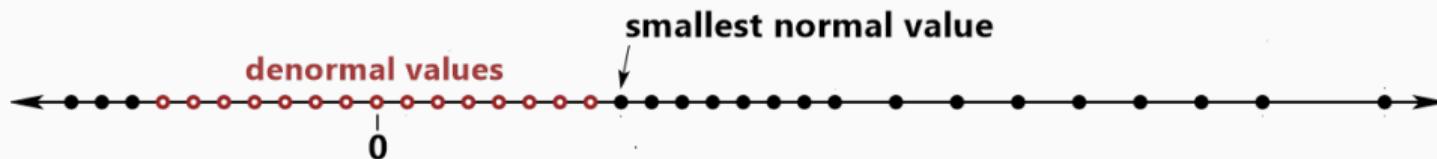
Why denormal numbers make sense:

(↓ normal numbers)



The problem: distance values from zero

(↓ denormal numbers)



## Infinity

In the IEEE754 standard, `inf` (infinity value) is a numeric data type value that exceeds the maximum (or minimum) representable value

Operations generating `inf`:

- $\pm\infty \cdot \pm\infty$
- $\pm\infty \cdot \pm\text{finite\_value}$
- $\text{finite\_value } op \text{ finite\_value} > \text{max\_value}$
- $\text{finite value} / \pm 0$

There is a single representation for `+inf` and `-inf`

Comparison:  $(\text{inf} == \text{finite\_value}) \rightarrow \text{false}$

$(\pm\text{inf} == \pm\text{inf}) \rightarrow \text{true}$

```
cout << 5.0 / 0.0;      // print "inf"
cout << -5.0 / 0.0;     // print "-inf"

auto inf = std::numeric_limits<float>::infinity;
cout << (-0.0 == 0.0);           // true, 0 == 0
cout << ((5.0f / inf) == ((-5.0f / inf))); // true, 0 == 0
cout << (10e40f) == (10e40f + 9999999.0f); // true, inf == inf
cout << (10e40) == (10e40f + 9999999.0f); // false, 10e40 != inf
```

## NaN

In the IEEE754 standard, NaN (not a number) is a numeric data type value representing an undefined or non-representable value

Floating-point operations generating **NaN** :

- Operations with a NaN as at least one operand
- $\pm\infty \cdot \mp\infty$ ,  $0 \cdot \infty$
- $0/0, \infty/\infty$
- $\sqrt{x}$ ,  $\log(x)$  for  $x < 0$
- $\sin^{-1}(x), \cos^{-1}(x)$  for  $x < -1$  or  $x > 1$

Comparison:  $(\text{NaN} == x) \rightarrow \text{false}$ , for every  $x$

$(\text{NaN} == \text{NaN}) \rightarrow \text{false}$

There are many representations for NaN (e.g.  $2^{24} - 2$  for float)

The specific (bitwise) NaN value returned by an operation is implementation/compiler specific

```
cout << 0 / 0;           // undefined behavior
cout << 0.0 / 0.0;       // print "nan" or "-nan"
```

## Machine epsilon

**Machine epsilon**  $\epsilon$  (or *machine accuracy*) is defined to be the smallest number that can be added to 1.0 to give a number other than one

IEEE 754 Single precision :  $\epsilon = 2^{-23} \approx 1.19209 * 10^{-7}$

IEEE 754 Double precision :  $\epsilon = 2^{-52} \approx 2.22045 * 10^{-16}$

# Units at the Last Place (ULP)

## ULP

**Units at the Last Place** is the gap between consecutive floating-point numbers

$$ULP(p, e) = \beta^{e-(p-1)} \rightarrow 2^{e-(p-1)}$$

Example:

$$\beta = 10, p = 3$$

$$\pi = 3.1415926\ldots \rightarrow x = 3.14 \times 10^0$$

$$ULP(3, 0) = 10^{-2} = 0.01$$

Relation with  $\varepsilon$ :

- $\varepsilon = ULP(p, 0)$
- $ULP_x = \varepsilon * \beta^{e(x)}$

## Floating-Point Representation of a Real Number

The machine floating-point representation  $\text{fl}(x)$  of a *real number*  $x$  is expressed as

$$\text{fl}(x) = x(1 + \delta), \text{ where } \delta \text{ is a small constant}$$

The approximation of a *real number*  $x$  has the following properties:

**Absolute Error:**  $|\text{fl}(x) - x| \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot ULP_x$

**Relative Error:**  $\left| \frac{\text{fl}(x) - x}{x} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \epsilon$

- NaN (mantissa  $\neq 0$ )

*	11111111	*****
---	----------	-------

- $\pm$  infinity

*	11111111	00000000000000000000000000000000
---	----------	----------------------------------

- Lowest/Largest ( $\pm 3.40282 * 10^{+38}$ )

*	11111110	11111111111111111111111111111111
---	----------	----------------------------------

- Minimum (normal) ( $\pm 1.17549 * 10^{-38}$ )

*	00000001	00000000000000000000000000000000
---	----------	----------------------------------

- Denormal number ( $< 2^{-126}$ ) (minimum:  $1.4 * 10^{-45}$ )

*	00000000	*****
---	----------	-------

- $\pm 0$

*	00000000	00000000000000000000000000000000
---	----------	----------------------------------

	E4M3	E5M2	float16_t
<b>Exponent</b>	4 [0*-14] (no inf)	5-bit [0*-30]	
<b>Bias</b>	7		15
<b>Mantissa</b>	4-bit	2-bit	10-bit
<b>Largest (±)</b>	$1.75 * 2^8$ 448	$1.75 * 2^{15}$ 57,344	$2^{16}$ 65,536
<b>Smallest (±)</b>	$2^{-6}$ 0.015625		$2^{-14}$ 0.00006
<b>Smallest Denormal</b>	$2^{-9}$ 0.001953125	$2^{-16}$ $1.5258 * 10^{-5}$	$2^{-24}$ $6.0 \cdot 10^{-8}$
<b>Epsilon</b>	$2^{-4}$ 0.0625	$2^{-2}$ 0.25	$2^{-10}$ 0.00098

	bfloat16_t	float	double
<b>Exponent</b>	8-bit [0*-254]		11-bit [0*-2046]
<b>Bias</b>		127	1023
<b>Mantissa</b>	7-bit	23-bit	52-bit
<b>Largest (<math>\pm</math>)</b>	$2^{128}$ $3.4 \cdot 10^{38}$		$2^{1024}$ $1.8 \cdot 10^{308}$
<b>Smallest (<math>\pm</math>)</b>	$2^{-126}$ $1.2 \cdot 10^{-38}$		$2^{-1022}$ $2.2 \cdot 10^{-308}$
<b>Smallest Denormal</b>	/	$2^{-149}$ $1.4 \cdot 10^{-45}$	$2^{-1074}$ $4.9 \cdot 10^{-324}$
<b>Epsilon</b>	$2^{-7}$ 0.0078	$2^{-23}$ $1.2 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$2^{-52}$ $2.2 \cdot 10^{-16}$

## Floating-point - Limits

```
#include <limits>
// T: float, double, etc.

std::numeric_limits<T>::max()           // largest value

std::numeric_limits<T>::lowest()         // lowest value (-largest value)

std::numeric_limits<T>::min()            // smallest value

std::numeric_limits<T>::denorm_min()     // smallest (denormal) value

std::numeric_limits<T>::epsilon()         // epsilon value

std::numeric_limits<T>::infinity()        // infinity

std::numeric_limits<T>::quiet_NaN()       // NaN
```

## Floating-point - Useful Functions

```
#include <cmath> // C++11

bool std::isnan(T value)      // check if value is NaN
bool std::isinf(T value)       // check if value is ±infinity
bool std::isfinite(T value)    // check if value is not NaN
                                // and not ±infinity

bool std::isnormal(T value); // check if value is Normal

T     std::ldexp(T x, p)      // exponent shift  $x * 2^p$ 
int   std::ilogb(T value)      // extracts the exponent of value
```

Floating-point operations are written

- $\oplus$  addition
- $\ominus$  subtraction
- $\otimes$  multiplication
- $\oslash$  division

$$\odot \in \{\oplus, \ominus, \otimes, \oslash\}$$

$op \in \{+, -, *, /\}$  denotes exact precision operations

(P1) In general,  $a \text{ op } b \neq a \odot b$

(P2) **Not Reflexive**  $a \neq a$

- *Reflexive without NaN*

(P3) **Not Commutative**  $a \odot b \neq b \odot a$

- *Commutative without NaN ( $\text{NaN} \neq \text{NaN}$ )*

(P4) In general, **Not Associative**  $(a \odot b) \odot c \neq a \odot (b \odot c)$

- even excluding NaN and inf in intermediate computations

(P5) In general, **Not Distributive**  $(a \oplus b) \otimes c \neq (a \otimes c) \oplus (b \otimes c)$

- even excluding NaN and inf in intermediate computations

(P6) Identity on operations is not ensured

- $(a \ominus b) \oplus b \neq a$
- $(a \oslash b) \otimes b \neq a$

(P7) Overflow/Underflow Floating-point has “saturation” values inf, -inf

- as opposite to integer arithmetic with wrap-around behavior

# Special Values Behavior

## Zero behavior

- $a \odot 0 = \text{inf}$ ,  $a \in \{\text{finite} - 0\}$  [IEEE-754], undefined behavior in C++
- $0 \odot 0$ ,  $\text{inf} \odot 0 = \text{NaN}$  [IEEE-754], undefined behavior in C++
- $0 \otimes \text{inf} = \text{NaN}$
- $+0 = -0$  but they have a different binary representation

## Inf behavior

- $\text{inf} \odot a = \text{inf}$ ,  $a \in \{\text{finite} - 0\}$
- $\text{inf} \oplus \otimes \text{inf} = \text{inf}$
- $\text{inf} \ominus \text{inf} = \text{NaN}$
- $\pm \text{inf} \oplus \ominus \mp \text{inf} = \text{NaN}$
- $\pm \text{inf} = \pm \text{inf}$

## NaN behavior

- $\text{NaN} \odot a = \text{NaN}$
- $\text{NaN} \neq a$

# Floating-Point Undefined Behavior

- **Division by zero**  
e.g.,  $10^8/0.0$
- **Conversion to a narrower floating-point type of a non-representable value:**  
e.g.,  $0.1$  double  $\rightarrow$  float
- **Conversion from floating-point to integer of a non-representable value:**  
e.g.,  $10^8$  float  $\rightarrow$  int
- **Operations on signaling NaNs:** Arithmetic operations that cause an “invalid operation” exception to be signaled  
e.g.,  $\text{inf} - \text{inf}$
- **Incorrectly assuming IEEE-754 compliance for all platforms:**  
e.g., Some embedded Linux distribution on ARM

C++11 allows determining if a floating-point exceptional condition has occurred by using floating-point exception facilities provided in `<cfenv>`

```
#include <cfenv>
// MACRO
FE_DIVBYZERO // division by zero
FE_INEXACT // rounding error
FE_INVALID // invalid operation, i.e. NaN
FE_OVERFLOW // overflow (reach saturation value +inf)
FE_UNDERFLOW // underflow (reach saturation value -inf)
FE_ALL_EXCEPT // all exceptions

// functions
std::feclearexcept(FE_ALL_EXCEPT); // clear exception status
std::fetestexcept(<macro>); // returns a value != 0 if an
                             // exception has been detected
```

# Detect Floating-point Errors ★

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```
#include <cfenv>    // floating point exceptions
#include <iostream>
#pragma STDC FENV_ACCESS ON // tell the compiler to manipulate the floating-point
                           // environment (not supported by all compilers)
int main() {           // gcc: yes, clang: no
    std::feclearexcept(FE_ALL_EXCEPT); // clear
    auto x = 1.0 / 0.0;                 // all compilers
    std::cout << (bool) std::fetestexcept(FE_DIVBYZERO); // print true

    std::feclearexcept(FE_ALL_EXCEPT); // clear
    auto x2 = 0.0 / 0.0;                // all compilers
    std::cout << (bool) std::fetestexcept(FE_INVALID); // print true

    std::feclearexcept(FE_ALL_EXCEPT); // clear
    auto x4 = 1e38f * 10;              // gcc: ok
    std::cout << std::fetestexcept(FE_OVERFLOW);          // print true
}
```

# Floating-point Issues

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**Ariane 5:** data conversion from 64-bit floating point value to 16-bit signed integer → *\$137 million*



**Patriot Missile:** small chopping error at each operation, 100 hours activity → *28 deaths*

### Integer type is more accurate than floating type for large numbers

```
cout << 16777217;           // print 16777217
cout << (int) 16777217.0f; // print 16777216!!
cout << (int) 16777217.0;   // print 16777217. double ok
int    x    = 20000001;
float y    = x;
bool  z1 = (x == y);       // true
bool  z2 = (x == (int) y); // false!!
```

### float numbers are different from double numbers

```
cout << (1.1 != 1.1f); // print true !!!
```

## The floating point precision is finite!

```
cout << setprecision(20);
cout << 3.33333333f; // print 3.333333254!!
cout << 3.33333333; // print 3.33333333
cout << (0.1 + 0.1 + 0.1 + 0.1 + 0.1 + 0.1); // print 0.5999999999999998
```

## Floating point arithmetic is not associative

```
cout << 0.1 + (0.2 + 0.3) == (0.1 + 0.2) + 0.3; // print false
```

IEEE754 Floating-point computation guarantees to produce **deterministic** output, namely the exact bitwise value for each run, if and only if the order of the operations is always the same

→ *same result on any machine and for all runs*

*“Using a double-precision floating-point value, we can represent easily the number of atoms in the universe.*

*If your software ever produces a number so large that it will not fit in a double-precision floating-point value, chances are good that you have a bug”*

*Daniel Lemire, Prof. at the University of Quebec*

*“ NASA uses just 15 digits of  $\pi$  to calculate interplanetary travel.  
With 40 digits, you could calculate the circumference of a circle the size of the visible universe with an accuracy that would fall by less than the diameter of a single hydrogen atom”*

*Latest in space, Twitter*

# Floating-point Algorithms

- **addition algorithm** (simplified):

- (1) Compare the exponents of the two numbers. Shift the smaller number to the right until its exponent would match the larger exponent
- (2) Add the mantissa
- (3) Normalize the sum if needed (shift right/left the exponent by 1)

- **multiplication algorithm** (simplified):

- (1) Multiplication of mantissas. The number of bits of the result is twice the size of the operands (46 + 2 bits, with +2 for implicit normalization)
- (2) Normalize the product if needed (shift right/left the exponent by 1)
- (3) Addition of the exponents

- **fused multiply-add (fma):**

- Recent architectures (also GPUs) provide `fma` to compute addition and multiplication in a single instruction (performed by the compiler in most cases)
- The rounding error of  $fma(x, y, z)$  is less than  $(x \otimes y) \oplus z$

## Catastrophic Cancellation

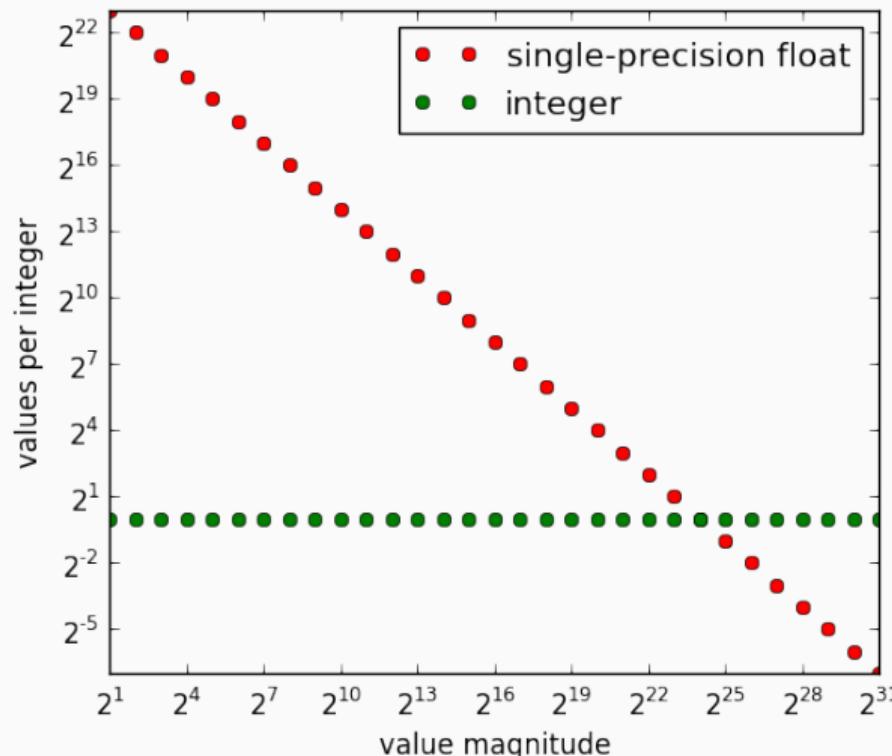
**Catastrophic cancellation** (or *loss of significance*) refers to loss of relevant information in a floating-point computation that cannot be recovered

Two cases:

- (C1)  $a \pm b$ , where  $a \gg b$  or  $b \gg a$ . The value (or part of the value) of the smaller number is lost
- (C2)  $a - b$ , where  $a, b$  are approximation of exact values and  $a \approx b$ , namely a loss of precision in both  $a$  and  $b$ .  $a - b$  cancels most of the relevant part of the result because  $a \approx b$ . It implies a *small absolute error* but a *large relative error*

## Catastrophic Cancellation (case 1) - Granularity

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**Intersection** =  $16,777,216 = 2^{24}$

*How many iterations performs the following code?*

```
while (x > 0)
    x = x - y;
```

How many iterations?

```
float: x = 10,000,000    y = 1      -> 10,000,000
float: x = 30,000,000    y = 1      -> does not terminate
float: x =     200,000    y = 0.001 -> does not terminate
bfloat: x =         256    y = 1      -> does not terminate !!
```

## Floating-point increment

```
float x = 0.0f;  
for (int i = 0; i < 20000000; i++)  
x += 1.0f;
```

What is the value of `x` at the end of the loop?

---

Ceiling division  $\left\lceil \frac{a}{b} \right\rceil$

```
//           std::ceil((float) 101 / 2.0f) -> 50.5f -> 51  
float x = std::ceil((float) 20000001 / 2.0f);
```

What is the value of `x`?

Let's solve a quadratic equation:

$$x_{1,2} = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

$$x^2 + 5000x + 0.25$$

```
(-5000 + std::sqrt(5000.0f * 5000.0f - 4.0f * 1.0f * 0.25f)) / 2 // x2
(-5000 + std::sqrt(25000000.0f - 1.0f)) / 2 // catastrophic cancellation (C1)
(-5000 + std::sqrt(25000000.0f)) / 2
(-5000 + 5000) / 2 = 0                                // catastrophic cancellation (C2)
// correct result: 0.00005!!
```

relative error:  $\frac{|0 - 0.00005|}{0.00005} = 100\%$

## The problem

```
cout << (0.11f + 0.11f < 0.22f); // print true!!  
cout << (0.1f + 0.1f > 0.2f); // print true!!
```

Do not use absolute error margins!!

```
bool areFloatNearlyEqual(float a, float b) {  
    if (std::abs(a - b) < epsilon); // epsilon is fixed by the user  
        return true;  
    return false;  
}
```

Problems:

- Fixed epsilon “looks small” but it could be too large when the numbers being compared are very small
- If the compared numbers are very large, the epsilon could end up being smaller than the smallest rounding error, so that the comparison always returns false

**Solution:** Use relative error  $\frac{|a-b|}{b} < \varepsilon$

```
bool areFloatNearlyEqual(float a, float b) {
    if (std::abs(a - b) / b < epsilon); // epsilon is fixed
        return true;
    return false;
}
```

Problems:

- **a=0, b=0** The division is evaluated as 0.0/0.0 and the whole if statement is (nan < epsilon) which always returns false
- **b=0** The division is evaluated as abs(a)/0.0 and the whole if statement is (+inf < epsilon) which always returns false
- **a and b very small.** The result should be true but the division by b may produce wrong results
- **It is not commutative.** We always divide by b

Possible solution:  $\frac{|a-b|}{\max(|a|, |b|)} < \varepsilon$

```
bool areFloatNearlyEqual(float a, float b) {
    constexpr float normal_min      = std::numeric_limits<float>::min();
    constexpr float relative_error = <user_defined>

    if (!std::isfinite(a) || !isfinite(b)) // a = ±∞, NaN or b = ±∞, NaN
        return false;
    float diff  = std::abs(a - b);
    // if "a" and "b" are near to zero, the relative error is less effective
    if (diff <= normal_min) // or also: user_epsilon * normal_min
        return true;

    float abs_a = std::abs(a);
    float abs_b = std::abs(b);
    return (diff / std::max(abs_a, abs_b)) <= relative_error;
}
```

## Minimize Error Propagation - Summary

- Prefer **multiplication/division** rather than addition/subtraction
- Try to reorganize the computation to **keep near** numbers with the same scale (e.g. sorting numbers)
- Consider **putting a zero** very small number (under a threshold). Common application: iterative algorithms
- Scale by a **power of two** is safe
- **Switch to log scale.** Multiplication becomes Add, and Division becomes Subtraction
- Use a **compensation algorithm** like Kahan summation, Dekker's FastTwoSum, Rump's AccSum

## References

### Suggested readings:

- What Every Computer Scientist Should Know About Floating-Point Arithmetic ↗
- Do Developers Understand IEEE Floating Point? ↗
- Yet another floating point tutorial ↗
- Unavoidable Errors in Computing ↗

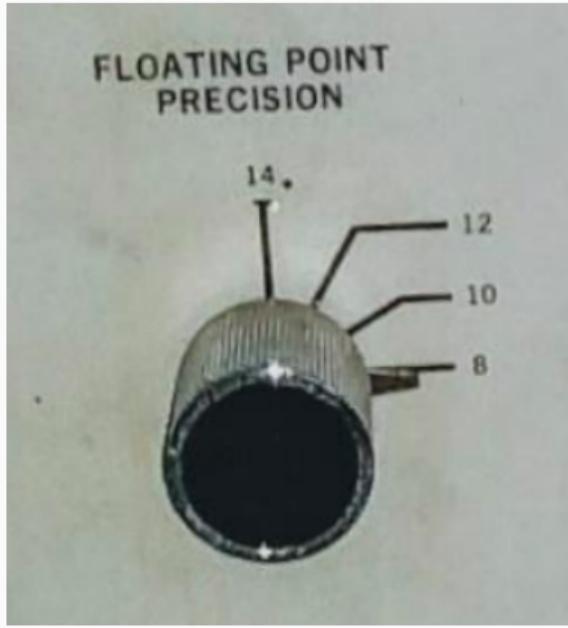
### Floating-point Comparison readings:

- The Floating-Point Guide - Comparison ↗
- Comparing Floating Point Numbers, 2012 Edition ↗
- Some comments on approximately equal FP comparisons ↗
- Comparing Floating-Point Numbers Is Tricky ↗

## Floating point tools

- IEEE754 visualization/converter ↗
- float.exposed ↗
- Float Toy ↗
- Find and fix floating-point problems ↗

# System/360 Model 44



Ken Shirriff: Want to adjust your computer's floating point precision by turning a knob? You could do that on the System/360 Model 44

# On Floating-Point

HEY, CHECK IT OUT:  $e^{\pi} - \pi$  IS 19.999099979. THAT'S WEIRD.

YEAH. THAT'S HOW I GOT KICKED OUT OF THE ACM IN COLLEGE.

... WHAT?



DURING A COMPETITION, I TOLD THE PROGRAMMERS ON OUR TEAM THAT  $e^{\pi} - \pi$  WAS A STANDARD TEST OF FLOATING-POINT HANDLERS -- IT WOULD COME OUT TO 20 UNLESS THEY HAD ROUNDING ERRORS.



THAT'S AWFUL.

YEAH, THEY DUG THROUGH HALF THEIR ALGORITHMS LOOKING FOR THE BUG BEFORE THEY FIGURED IT OUT.

