

# Biostatistics 615 - Statistical Computing

## Lecture 3 Floating-point representation & Errors

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# Summary of the previous lecture

- Binary representation of a nonnegative integer in C++
- Basic syntax
  - Comment statement
  - Header files (iostream)
  - Statement “using”
  - The main function (return type and return statement)
  - Output/input operators (`cin`, `cout`, `<<`, `>>`)
  - Prototype / declaration of functions and variables
  - The “for” loop and statement “if ... else ... ”
  - Bit-wise operators (shift and AND)
- Compile and run using GNU C++ compiler
- Environment for homework
- Homework 0
- Resources

# Binary representation of a signed integer

- *Signed magnitude*

- Consider a one-byte integer:  $12 = (00001100)_2$  and  $-12 = (10001100)_2$ .
- Only 7 working digits and the red digit is *signed digit*.
- Ranging from  $-127 = -(2^7 - 1)$  to  $127 = 2^7 - 1$ .
- How about 0?

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- How about 0?

- *Two's complement rule*

- The left-most bit is allowed to represent  $-2^{m-1}$  in an  $m$  bit storage allocation
- It represents all the negative integers between  $-2^{m-1}$  and  $-1$

$$-a = -2^{m-1} + \sum_{k=0}^{m-2} b_k 2^{m-2-k}, \quad a = (1b_0 \dots b_{m-2})_2$$

- $-12 = -128 + 64 + 32 + 16 + 4 = (11110100)_2$
- Ranging from  $-2^{m-1}$  to  $2^{m-1} - 1$

# Floating point representation

- Computer cannot precisely store an irrational number. Why?
- There is a limit to the *precision* (the number of significant digits) that can be achieved.

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- A real number  $x$  is represented in base 10

$$x = \pm \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j 10^{p-j}, \quad x \approx \pm a_0.a_1 \dots a_m 10^p.$$

where  $a_j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$ .

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- A real number  $x$  is represented in base 2 in

$$x = \pm \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j 2^{p-j}, \quad x \approx \underbrace{\pm}_{\text{Sign}} \underbrace{b_0.b_1 \dots b_m}_{\text{Significand}} \underbrace{2^p}_{\text{Exponent}}.$$

where  $b_j \in \{0, 1\}$  for  $j = 1, \dots, m$  and  $b_0 = 1$ .

# Floating point representation – Single precision

- `float` type needs \_\_\_\_\_ bytes of storage
- A total of \_\_\_\_\_ bits of storage including
  - \_\_\_\_\_ for sign
  - \_\_\_\_\_ for exponent
  - \_\_\_\_\_ for significand



# Floating point representation – Single precision

- `float` type needs 4 bytes of storage
- A total of 32 bits of storage including
  - 1 for sign
  - 8 for exponent
  - 23 for significand
- IEEE 754 Standard

$$x \approx (-1)^{d_1} \left( 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{23} d_{j+9} 2^{-j} \right) \times 2^{(\sum_{j=1}^8 d_{j+1} 2^{8-j} - 127)}$$

where  $d_j \in \{0, 1\}$

$$x \approx \underbrace{(d_1)}_{\text{Sign}} \underbrace{(d_2 \dots d_9)}_{\text{Exponent}} \underbrace{(d_{10} \dots d_{32})}_{\text{Significand}}_2$$

# Single precision – Example

Convert  $-4.5$  into the binary representation in single precision

$$-4.5 = -(2^2 + 2^{-1}) = (-1)^{(1)} \times (1 + 2^{(-3)}) \times 2^2$$

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- Sign:  $d_1 = 1$
- Exponent:  $(127 + 2) = (10000001)_2 = (d_2 \dots d_9)_2$
- Significand:  $2^{-3} = (001000000000000000000000)_2 = (d_{10} \dots d_{32})_2$
- $-4.5 = (11000000100100000000000000000000)_2$

# Single precision – Example

Convert  $-4.5$  into the binary representation in single precision

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- Significand:  $2^{-3} = (001000000000000000000000)_2 = (d_{10} \dots d_{32})_2$
- $-4.5 = (11000000100100000000000000000000)_2$

More examples:

$$2015.915 \approx (0100010011111011111110101001000)_2$$

$$= 2015.9150390625$$

$$2015.91509 \approx ?$$

# Floating point representation – Double precision

- `double` type needs \_\_\_\_\_ bytes of storage
- A total of \_\_\_\_\_ bits of storage including
  - \_\_\_\_\_ for sign
  - \_\_\_\_\_ for exponent
  - \_\_\_\_\_ for significand

# Floating point representation – Double precision

- `double` type needs 8 bytes of storage
- A total of 64 bits of storage including
  - 1 for sign
  - 11 for exponent
  - 52 for significand
- IEEE 754 Standard

$$x = (-1)^{d_1} \left( 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{52} d_{j+12} 2^{-j} \right) \times 2^{(\sum_{j=1}^{11} d_{j+1} 2^{11-j} - 1023)}$$

where  $d_j \in \{0, 1\}$

$$x = \underbrace{(d_1)}_{\text{Sign}} \underbrace{(d_2 \dots d_{12})}_{\text{Exponent}} \underbrace{(d_{13} \dots d_{64})}_{\text{Significand}} 2$$

# Double precision – Example

Convert 2015.915 into the binary representation in double precision

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Convert 2015.915 into the binary representation in double precision

- Sign:  $d_1 = 0$
- Exponent:  $(1023 + 10) = (10000001001)_2 = (d_2 d_3 \dots d_{12})_2$
- Significand:

$$\begin{aligned} & (2015.915/2^{10} - 1) \\ \approx & (111101111111010100011110101110000101000111101011100)_2 \\ = & (d_{13} \dots d_{64})_2 \end{aligned}$$



# Double precision – Example

Convert 2015.915 into the binary representation in double precision

- Sign:  $d_1 = 0$
- Exponent:  $(1023 + 10) = (10000001001)_2 = (d_2 d_3 \dots d_{12})_2$
- Significand:

$$\begin{aligned} & (2015.915/2^{10} - 1) \\ \approx & (111101111111010100011110101110000101000111101011100)_2 \\ = & (d_{13} \dots d_{64})_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2015.915 & \approx (0100000010011 \dots 1000111101011100)_2 \\ & = 2015.9149999999996362021192908 \end{aligned}$$

# Relative errors – Upper Bound

Suppose that  $x$  is a positive real number that can be written as

$$x = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j 2^{p-j}$$

with  $b_0 = 1$ . Then *round-to-closest*  $x$  by the approximation

$$\tilde{x} = 2^p \left[ \sum_{j=0}^m b_j 2^{-j} + \tilde{b}_{m+1} 2^{-(m+1)} \right]$$

更低位更  
接近

for some integer  $m$ , where  $\tilde{b}_{m+1} = 2$  if  $b_{m+1} = 1$  and  $\tilde{b}_{m+1} = 0$ . It can be shown that

$$|x - \tilde{x}| \leq 2^{p-m-1}$$

Thus,

$$\text{Rel}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{|x - \tilde{x}|}{|x|} \leq 2^{-(m+1)}$$

which are referred as the *machine epsilon*.

若 $\sim b_{m+1}=1$   
则必定不  
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的

# Relative errors – Example

- For single precision (float),  $m = 23$ , the relative error is

$$2^{-23-1} \approx 0.6 \times 10^{-7}$$

There are 7 valid digits for single precision arithmetic

- For double precision (double),  $m = 52$ , the relative error is

$$2^{-52-1} \approx 0.1 \times 10^{-15}$$

There are 15 valid digits for double precision arithmetic

# A summary

Type	Size in bits	Format	Value range	
			Approximate	Exact
character	8	signed (one's complement)	<b>-127 to 127</b> <sup>[note 1]</sup>	
		signed (two's complement)	<b>-128 to 127</b>	
		unsigned	<b>0 to 255</b>	
integral	16	signed (one's complement)	$\pm 3.27 \cdot 10^4$	<b>-32767 to 32767</b>
		signed (two's complement)		<b>-32768 to 32767</b>
		unsigned	<b>0 to <math>6.55 \cdot 10^4</math></b>	<b>0 to 65535</b>
	32	signed (one's complement)	$\pm 2.14 \cdot 10^9$	<b>-2,147,483,647 to 2,147,483,647</b>
		signed (two's complement)		<b>-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647</b>
		unsigned	<b>0 to <math>4.29 \cdot 10^9</math></b>	<b>0 to 4,294,967,295</b>
	64	signed (one's complement)	$\pm 9.22 \cdot 10^{18}$	<b>-9,223,372,036,854,775,807 to 9,223,372,036,854,775,807</b>
		signed (two's complement)		<b>-9,223,372,036,854,775,808 to 9,223,372,036,854,775,807</b>
		unsigned	<b>0 to <math>1.84 \cdot 10^{19}</math></b>	<b>0 to 18,446,744,073,709,551,615</b>
floating point	32	IEEE-754 <a href="#">🔗</a>	$\pm 3.4 \cdot 10^{\pm 38}$ (~7 digits)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>min subnormal: <math>\pm 1.401,298,4 \cdot 10^{-47}</math></li> <li>min normal: <math>\pm 1.175,494,3 \cdot 10^{-38}</math></li> <li>max: <math>\pm 3.402,823,4 \cdot 10^{38}</math></li> </ul>
	64	IEEE-754	$\pm 1.7 \cdot 10^{\pm 308}$ (~15 digits)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>min subnormal: <math>\pm 4.940,656,458,412 \cdot 10^{-324}</math></li> <li>min normal: <math>\pm 2.225,073,858,507,201,4 \cdot 10^{-308}</math></li> <li>max: <math>\pm 1.797,693,134,862,315,7 \cdot 10^{308}</math></li> </ul>

# Errors on basic arithmetic operations

Let  $x, y$  be the true values and  $\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}$  be the approximate values (machine representation). Recall that

$$\text{Rel}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{x - \tilde{x}}{x}, \quad \text{Rel}(\tilde{y}) = \frac{y - \tilde{y}}{y},$$

Then

$$\text{Rel}(\tilde{x} \times \tilde{y}) = \text{Rel}(\tilde{x}) + \text{Rel}(\tilde{y}) - \text{Rel}(\tilde{x}\tilde{y})$$

$$\approx \text{Rel}(\tilde{x}) + \text{Rel}(\tilde{y})$$

$$\text{Rel}(\tilde{x}/\tilde{y}) = \frac{\text{Rel}(\tilde{x}) - \text{Rel}(\tilde{y})}{1 - \text{Rel}(\tilde{y})}$$

$$\approx \text{Rel}(\tilde{x}) - \text{Rel}(\tilde{y})$$

$$\text{Rel}(\tilde{x} + \tilde{y}) = \text{Rel}(\tilde{x}) \frac{x}{x+y} + \text{Rel}(\tilde{y}) \frac{y}{x+y}$$

$$\text{Rel}(\tilde{x} - \tilde{y}) = \text{Rel}(\tilde{x}) \frac{x}{x+y} - \text{Rel}(\tilde{y}) \frac{y}{x+y}$$

# Relative errors on summation

Let  $\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n$  be floating-point approximations of numbers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Then the relative errors of  $\tilde{S}_k = \sum_{j=1}^k \tilde{x}_j$ , for  $k = 2, \dots, n$ , is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Rel}(\tilde{S}_k) &= \text{Rel}(\tilde{S}_{k-1} + \tilde{x}_k) \\ &= \frac{1}{\tilde{S}_k} \left[ \text{Rel}(\tilde{S}_{k-1}) \tilde{S}_{k-1} + \text{Rel}(\tilde{x}_k) \tilde{x}_k \right]\end{aligned}$$

This suggests that

- The large error will accumulate as multiples of the previous term that are entered into the summation
- The best strategy: addition should proceed with values being summed from the small magnitude to the large magnitude

# Effects of order on addition: Example

Compute (direct order)

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{j^2} = \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^2}$$

This is mathematically equivalent to (reverse order)

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{(n-j+1)^2} = \frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{1}{(n-1)^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{1^2}$$

# Example: Compute series

```
//Example 3.3: series.cpp
#include <cstdlib>
#include <iostream>
#include <iomanip>

using namespace std;

int main(int argc, char* argv){
    float sumL = 0.0, sumU = 0.0;
    int n = atoi(argv[1]);
    for (int j=1; j<=n; j++){
        sumL = sumL + 1/(float)(j*j);
        sumU = sumU + 1/(float)((n+1-j)*(n+1-j));
    }
    cout << setprecision(8) << "Direct and reverse sums are "
         << sumL << " and " << sumU << endl;
    return 0;
}
```



# Useful header files

```
//Example 3.3: series.cpp
#include <cstdlib>
#include <iostream>
#include <iomanip>
...
}
```

- `cstdlib`: a collection of useful C++ functions including `atoi` in the example
- `iomanip`: output manipulators for formatting the printed output including `setprecision` in the example.

# Basic syntax: Command line input arguments

```
//Example 3.3: series.cpp
...
int main(int argc, char* argv[]){
    float sumL = 0.0, sumU = 0.0;
    int n = atoi(argv[1]);
    ...
    return 0;
}
```

- `argc`: argument count
- `argv`: argument vector
- `char* argv[]`: an array of character strings (actually, a pointer to memory that holds arrays of `char` variables) with each string being a non-white space component of the white-space delimited text that was entered on the shell command line.
- The first array element strings `argv[0]` contains the name of the executable while `argc` is the number of strings held in `argv`.

# Basic syntax: Convert string to integer

```
//Example 3.3: series.cpp
#include <cstdlib>

...
int main(int argc, char* argv[]){
    float sumL = 0.0, sumU = 0.0;
    int n = atoi(argv[1]);
    ...
    return 0;
}
```

- `atoi`: It is made available with the `cstdlib` header
- It transforms a string of character values into an integer variable
- The argument to `atoi` in this case is assumed to represent a sequence of digits that may be preceded by a sign
- If the string cannot be interpreted as a number, `atoi`, returns 0.
- The function `atof` performs the same type of operation except that the transformation is to a floating-point representation

# Basic syntax: Typecasting

```
//Example 3.3: series.cpp
...
int main(int argc, char* argv){
    float sumL = 0.0, sumU = 0.0;
    int n = atoi(argv[1]);
    for (int j=1; j<=n; j++){
        sumL = sumL + 1/(float)(j*j);
        sumU = sumU + 1/(float)((n+1-j)*(n+1-j));
    }
    ...
    return 0;
}
```

- Directly evaluate  $1/(j*j)$  for every  $j$  exceeds 1. A value 0 will be returned
- `(float) j*j` computes the integer product and converts the outcome to type `float`.

# Basic syntax: Set precision

```
//Example 3.3: series.cpp
...
#include <iomanip>
...
int main(int argc, char* argv[]){
    float sumL = 0.0, sumU = 0.0;
    ...
    cout << setprecision(8) << "Direct and reverse sums are "
         << sumL << " and " << sumU << endl;
    return 0;
    ...
}
```

- `setprecision(n)` to have `n` decimal numbers written to standard output
- Sets the decimal precision to be used to format floating-point values on output operations
- This manipulator is declared in the header `iomanip`

# Output of the program

```
$ ./series 2015  
Direct and reverse sums are 1.6444356 and 1.6444379  
  
$ ./series 12015  
Direct and reverse sums are 1.6447253 and 1.6448509
```

- When  $n = 2015$ , the two ways have the same answer up to 6 decimal digits
- When  $n = 12015$ , the difference appears in the 5th digits.
- Which one is closer to the true value?
- The computation can be redone in double precision: i.e. every `float` designation in `series.cpp` is replaced with `double` and it saves as `dseries.cpp`.

# Compute the sum in double precision

```
//Example 3.4: dseries.cpp
#include <cstdlib>
#include <iostream>
#include <iomanip>

using namespace std;

int main(int argc, char* argv){
    double sumL = 0.0, sumU = 0.0;
    int n = atoi(argv[1]);
    for (int j=1; j<=n; j++){
        sumL = sumL + 1/(double)(j*j);
        sumU = sumU + 1/(double)((n+1-j)*(n+1-j));
    }
    cout << setprecision(8) << "Direct and reverse sums are "
         << sumL << " and " << sumU << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

# Output of the program

```
$ ./series 2015
```

```
Direct and reverse sums are 1.6444356 and 1.6444379
```

```
$ ./series 12015
```

```
Direct and reverse sums are 1.6447253 and 1.6448509
```

```
$ ./dseries 2015
```

```
Direct and reverse sums are 1.6444379 and 1.6444379
```

```
$ ./dseries 12015
```

```
Direct and reverse sums are 1.6448508 and 1.6448508
```



# Computing sample mean and variance

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  denote data of interest. We would like to compute the sample mean and sample variance

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{X} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \\ S^2 &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2\end{aligned}$$

We need to design an algorithm

## An Informal Definition

- An **algorithm** is a sequence of well-defined computational steps
- that takes a set of values as **input (Data)**
- and produces a set of values as **output (Result)**

## Key Features of Good Algorithms

- **Correctness**
  - ✓ Algorithms must produce correct outputs across all legitimate inputs
- **Efficiency**
  - ✓ Time efficiency : consume as small computational time as possible
  - ✓ Space efficiency : consume as small memory / storage as possible
- **Simplicity**
  - ✓ Concise to write down & easy to interpret

## Algorithm 3.1: Two-pass algorithm

**Data:**  $X_1, \dots, X_n$

**Result:**  $S^2$  and  $\bar{X}$

$\bar{X} = 0$ ;

**for**  $i = 1$  **to**  $n$  **do**

$\bar{X} = \bar{X} + X_i$ ;

**end**

$\bar{X} = \bar{X}/n$ ;

$S^2 = 0$ ;

**for**  $i = 1$  **to**  $n$  **do**

$S^2 = S^2 + (X_i - \bar{X})^2$ ;

**end**

$S^2 = S^2/(n-1)$ ;

- First compute  $\bar{X}$ , and then compute  $S^2$ .
- Need to go through data twice

## Algorithm 3.2: One pass algorithm

**Data:**  $X_1, \dots, X_n$

**Result:**  $S^2$  and  $\bar{X}$

$\bar{X} = S^2 = 0$ ;

**for**  $i = 1$  **to**  $n$  **do**

$\bar{X} = \bar{X} + X_i$ ;  
     $S^2 = S^2 + X_i^2$ ;

**end**

$S^2 = S^2 - \bar{X}^2/n$ ;

$\bar{X} = \bar{X}/n$ ;

$S^2 = S^2/(n-1)$ ;

- Based on  $(n-1)S^2 = (\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2) - (\sum_{i=1}^n X_i)^2/n$
- Only need to go through data once
- Might produce inaccuracies when compute the subtraction between  $(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2)$  and  $(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i)^2/n$

## Algorithm 3.3: West algorithm

**Data:**  $X_1, \dots, X_n$

**Result:**  $S^2$  and  $\bar{X}$

$\bar{X} = X_1$ ;

$S^2 = 0$ ;

**for**  $i = 2$  **to**  $n$  **do**

$S^2 = S^2 + \frac{i-1}{i}(X_i - \bar{X})^2$ ;

$\bar{X} = \bar{X} + (X_i - \bar{X})/i$ ;

**end**

$\bar{X} = \bar{X}/n$ ;

$S^2 = S^2/(n-1)$ ;

- Only need to go through data once
- Avoid to produce the inaccuracies in one pass algorithm

- The primitive data types in R
  - `character`: holds character strings rather than just a single character in C++
  - `double`: or `numeric` is the same as C++ double precision (eight-byte)
  - `integer`: is the same as (signed) int in C++ (four-byte)
  - `logical`: is the same as boolean type in C++
- The most basic data structure in R is an array comprised of one of the primitive data types that is referred to as an *atomic vector*.
- Using the `mode` or `storage.mode` to access the storage mode of a given object
- Machine specific details concerning storage, etc. are held in the R list variable `.Machine`

# R storage details

```
> noquote(format(.Machine))  
      double.eps      double.neg.eps      double.xmin  
2.220446049e-16      1.110223025e-16      2.225073859e-308  
      double.xmax      double.base      double.digits  
1.797693135e+308      2      53  
      double.rounding      double.guard      double.ulp.digits  
5      0      -52  
double.neg.ulp.digits      double.exponent      double.min.exp  
-53      11      -1022  
      double.max.exp      integer.max      sizeof.long  
1024      2147483647      8  
sizeof.longlong      sizeof.longdouble      sizeof.pointer  
8      16      8
```

- `?Machine` to see the meanings of each specification.
- `format`: Format an R object for pretty printing.
- `noquote`: suppresses the use of quotes in the printed output.

# Summary

- Binary representation of a signed integer
- Floating point representation
  - Single precision
  - Double precision
- Relative errors
  - 7 valid digits for `float`
  - 15 valid digits for `double`
  - Relative errors on arithmetic
- Basic syntax
  - Command line input arguments `argc` and `argv`
  - Convert string to integer `atoi` or floating-point `atof` with `#include<cstdlib>`
  - Typcasting
  - Set precision in the standard output with `#include<iomanip>`
- Three algorithms for compute sample mean and variance
- R storage