00.01 basics: polynomials & floating-point

00 numerical methods

numerical methods, as distinguished from other branches of mathematics and from computer science,

- 1. work with arbitrary real numbers (including rational approximations of irrational number) and
- 2. consider cost and
- 3. consider accuracy.^[1]

this class will provide another way to express, to extend your math.

numerical methods are the algorithms; **numerical analysis** is the study of their properties — ie, accuracy, stability, convergence, efficiency, usw.

01 polynomials

The most fundamental operations of arithmetic are **addition** and **multiplication**. These are also the operations needed to evaluate a polynomial p(x) at a particular value x. It is no coincidence that polynomials are the basic building blocks for many computational techniques we will construct. [2]

→ i) evaluation

eg:
$$p(x) = a_4 x^4 + a_3 x^3 + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$$
.

with computational considerations:

- 1. approximate p(x) at x while
- 2. minimizing operations and
- 3. maximizing accuracy.

• method 1, step individually:

$$p(x)=a_4 imes x imes x imes x imes x+a_3 imes x imes x imes x+a_2 imes x imes x+a_1 imes x+a_0\mapsto 14$$
 operations.

• method 2, cache and reuse:

$$x_2=x imes x, x_3=x_2 imes x, x_4=x_3 imes x\mapsto 3$$
 operations; $p_4=a_4 imes x_4, p_3=a_x imes x_3, p_2=a_2 imes x_2, p_1=a_1 imes x_1\mapsto 4$ operations; $p(x)=p_4+p_3+p_2+p_1+a_0\mapsto 4$ ops $\mapsto 11$ operations total.

• method 3, nested multiplication (horners method):

$$p(x) = (((a_4 \times x + a_3) \times x + a_2) \times x + a_1) \times x + a_0 \mapsto 8$$
 operations.

02 binary notation

binary notation: $\dots b_2 b_1 b_0 \dots b_{-1} b_{-2} \dots$

→ i) conversion to decimal

$$a \Rightarrow \ldots b_2 imes 2^2 + b_1 imes 2^1 + b_0 imes 2^0 + b_{-1} imes 2^{-1} + b_{-2} imes 2^{-2} \ldots$$

 $\text{eg, } 111.11_2.$

integer:
$$1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 = 4 + 2 + 1 = 7$$

fractional:
$$1 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}$$

 \Downarrow

$$111.11_2 = 7_{10} + (\frac{3}{4})_{10} = 7.75_{10}.$$

→ ii) decimal conversion to binary

eg, 111.25_{10} .

integer:
$$\frac{111}{2} = 55 R 1$$

 $\rightarrow \frac{55}{2} = 27 R 1$
 $\rightarrow \frac{27}{2} = 13 R 1$
 $\rightarrow \frac{13}{2} = 6 R 1$
 $\rightarrow \frac{6}{2} = 3 R 0$
 $\rightarrow \frac{3}{2} = 1 R 1$
 $\rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = 0 R 1$
 $\rightarrow 11011111$, remainders in reverse order

fractional:
$$0.25 \times 2 = 0.50 + 0$$

 $\rightarrow 0.50 \times 2 = 0.00 + 1$
 $\rightarrow 0.01$, integers in order from left to right

$$111.25_{10} = 1101111_2 + 0.01_2 = 11011111.01_2.$$

- 03 polynomials in the machine
- → i) digital representation

$$x=[d_{N-1},\dots,d_1,d_0]$$
 digital vector $=d_{N-1} imes b^{N-1}+\dots+d_1 imes b^1+d_0 imes b^0$ with **precision** N and **base** b .

eg,

- base 10: $500_{10} = [5, 0, 0];$ $[5] = 5_{10}.$
- base 02: $[1,0,1]=101_2=1\times 2^2+0\times 2^1+1\times 2^0=4+0+1=5_{10}.$

ii) fixed/positional representation

using previous example,

- base 02: $101_2=1 imes 2^2+0 imes 2^1+1 imes 2^0$

where RHS is **fixed representation** and LH subscript is the base or **radix** r. additionally, precision $N \geq 1, r \geq 2$ such that

 $x = \sum^N d_k r^k$ has r^N **permutations** and can also be written as

$$r^N = (r-1)(\mathbf{r}^{N-1}) + (r_{N-1}) = [r-1]_{N-1}[r]_{N-2}\dots[r]_1[r]_0[r]_{-1}[r]_{-2}\dots[r]_{N-2}[r]_{N-1}$$
 where subscripts denote position wrt exponent.

eg, describe set where N=3, r=2.

permutations: $r^N = 2^3 \Rightarrow \{000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111\};$

$$ext{magnitude:} \quad \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} d_k r^k \leq \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (r-1) r^k = \mathbf{r^N-1} \Rightarrow \quad \operatorname{range}^{[*]} \quad [0,\mathbf{r^N-1}].$$

[*] note: "range of magnitude" of x is also "range" of x bc representation of x does not allow for sign.

✓ iii) sign

sign extends range.

• method 1: use position d_{N-1} for sign.

$$x = [\pm][d_{N-1}, \dots, d_1, d_0]$$
 and

permutations: $r^{N-1} \times 2$;

range:
$$[-r^{N-1}+1,0), [0,+\mathbf{r^{N-1}}-\mathbf{1}].$$

• method 2: use bias to obtain sign.

ie, all positions used for magnitude and bias is an operation.

$$x_{\min} = -B, x_{\max} = r^N - B$$

range:
$$[x_{\min}, x_{\max}] = [1 - r^{N-1}, r^{N-1}(r-1)]$$

with standard bias $B = \mathbf{r}^{N-1} - \mathbf{1}$.

eg, describe set where N=3, r=2 with standard bias.

$$B = r^{N-1} - 1 = (2)^{(3-1)} - 1 = 4 - 1 = 3$$
 and

range:
$$[000, 111]_2 \mapsto [0, 7]_{10} - B = [-3, +4]_{10}$$
.

04 floating-point

 $x=M.\,b^E$, where **mantissa** M is an integer represented by sign, magnitude, radix and **precision** m; **exponent** E is an integer represented by bias and same radix. also, M is **normalized** as 1.F, where "1." is implicit and **fractional** F is

$$F = \sum^{m-2} d_k r^k, r \geq 2 \Rightarrow x = \pm 1.F imes b^E.$$

ie, same r for M,E; m includes sign; $m_E=N-m$; $B=r^{N-1}-1$ with bias power $N-1=m_E-1$. note: b is the base of the exponent and not the base of the exponents power.

$$x = \pm 1.F \times 2^E = [s] \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} m_E = N - m \\ \vdots \\ m_E = 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m_F = m - sign \\ \vdots \\ m_E = N - m \end{bmatrix}}_{m_F = m - sign},$$

$$\dots + e_1 \times r^1 + e_0 \times r^0 \quad f_1 \times r^{-1} + f_2 \times r^{-2} + \dots$$

 $\mathbb{FP}(N=5,m=3,r=3,b= extstyle{2})$ with standard bias. $^{[3]}$

$$x=\pm 1.F imes 2^E=[s] \underbrace{ egin{bmatrix} m_E=5-3=2 & m_F=3-1=2 \ [e_1][e_0] & 1. & [f_1][f_2] \end{matrix}, }_{ ext{positions allocated}},$$

where

$$s \in \{0,1\}$$
 $f_j \in \{0,1,2\}_3$ \Downarrow

$$F_{
m magnitude} = [0.00, 0.22]_3$$
 and

$$e_i \in \{0, 1, 2\}_3$$

$$B = r^{N-1} - 1 \mapsto r^{m_E - 1} - 1 = 3^{2-1} - 1 = (3-1)_{10} = 2_{10}$$
 \Downarrow

$$E_{\text{range}} = [00, 22]_3 - B = [0, 8]_{10} - 2_{10} = [-2, 6]_{10}.$$

eg,

$$egin{aligned} x &= [0, \textbf{1}, \textbf{1}, \textbf{2}, 0]_{\mathbb{FP}(5,3,3,2)} \ &= (-1)^0 imes \textbf{1}. \textbf{20}_3 imes \textbf{2}^{\pmb{E}} \quad ext{where } \pmb{E} = (\textbf{11}_3 - B) = (4-2)_{10} = \textbf{2}_{10} \ &= + (\textbf{1}. + \textbf{2} imes \textbf{3}^{-1})_{10} imes \textbf{2}^{\textbf{2}} = + (\frac{5}{3}) imes \textbf{4} = + \frac{20}{3} = + 6.\overline{6}. \end{aligned}$$

 $\mathbb{FP}(N=6,m=4,r=3,b= extstyle{2})$ with standard bias. $^{[4]}$

$$x=\pm 1.F imes 2^E=[s] \underbrace{ egin{bmatrix} rac{m_E=6-4=2}{[e_1][e_0]} 1.[f_1][f_2][f_3], \ & ext{positions allocated} \end{matrix} }_{ ext{positions allocated}},$$

where

$$egin{aligned} s \in \{0,1\}, f_j \in \{0,1,2\}_3 \ &\Rightarrow F_{ ext{magnitude}} = [0.000, 0.222]_3 \quad ext{and} \ &e_i \in \{0,1,2\}_3 \ &B = r^{N-1} - 1 \mapsto r^{m_E-1} - 1 = 3^{2-1} - 1 = (3-1)_{10} = 2_{10} \ &\Rightarrow E_{ ext{range}} = [00,22]_3 - B = [0,8]_{10} - 2_{10} = [-2,6]_{10} \,. \end{aligned}$$

ie,

$$egin{aligned} |x_{\min}| &= [0,0,0,0,0,0]_{\mathbb{FP}(6,4,3,2)} \ &= (-1)^0 imes 1.000_3 imes 2^E, \quad \pmb{E} = (00_3 - B) = (0-2)_{10} = -2_{10} \ &= +1.0_{10} imes 2^{-2} = +rac{1}{4}. \ &|x_{\max}| &= [0,2,2,2,2,2]_{\mathbb{FP}(6,4,3,2)} \ &= (-1)^0 imes 1.222_3 imes 2^E, \quad \pmb{E} = (22_3 - B) = (8-2)_{10} = \pmb{6}_{10} \ &= +[1. + (2 imes 3^{-1} + 2 imes 3^{-2} + 2 imes 3^{-3})_{10}] imes 2^6 = +(1 + rac{26}{27}) imes 64 imes +125.\overline{629}. \end{aligned}$$

i) denormalized vs normalized

a base-2 floating-point number will always start with "1", so its inclusion is implied. explicitly, 1×2^0 is a given so the position it might have used is given over to the fractional part of the mantissa, that is the normalized mantissa.

however, if the biased exponent is zero, the mantissa is **denormalized**. ie, there is no implicit "1". (note: this is a feature of the standard, IEEE-754 and not necessarily a feature of other FPS.)

eg,
$$B_{\text{IEEE }754} = 126 \Rightarrow [0][00000000]0.[00010...0]$$

= $+(1 \times 2^{-4}) \times (2^{0-126}) = +2^{-130}.^{[5]}$

✓ ii) IEEE 754

the standard is <u>IEEE 754-2019</u>, $\mathbb{FP}(N-1,m,r,b)=\mathbb{FP}(64,53,2,2)$, where 32-bit is single precision and 64-bit is double-precision.

✓ iii) hexadecimal vs binary

IEEE 754 stores floating-point numbers using binary format; however, hexadecimal (<u>base 16</u>) representation of those bits is considered more human friendly.

consider the approximation of π :

```
\pi = 3.14159265358979
```

IEEE 754: 0100000000010010000011111011101111

Sign Bit: 0

Exponent: 10000000 (128 in decimal, after subtracting the bias of 127)

Mantissa: 00100100000111110111010111

Hex : 0x40490FDB

Sign Bit: 0 Hex Flag: x Exponent: 40

Mantissa: 490FDB

✓ iv) observations

• gaps between adjacent numbers scale with magnitude of number represented. (ie, consider negative exponents vs positive exponents.)

- machine epsilon, ϵ_{mach} , is the gap between 1 and the next FPN.
- unit roundoff, $\mu_{\mathrm{mach}} = \frac{1}{2} \, \epsilon_{\mathrm{mach}}$.
- for all x there exists a floating-point x' such that $|x-x'| \leq \mu_{\mathrm{mach}} imes |x|$.
- ullet when M normalized, zero represented by $\epsilon=\epsilon_{\min}-1$.
- $\pm\infty$ returned when and operation overflows.
- $\frac{x}{\pm \infty}$ returns 0 and $\frac{x}{0}$ returns $\pm \infty$.
- "not a number" (NaN) is returned if no well-defined finite or infinite result.
- und so weiter.

resources

- horners method @wiki
- telescoping sum @wiki
- floating-point @wiki @youtube #1 #2-pt1 #2-pt2
- unit in last place (ulp) @wiki
- machine epsilon @wiki
- <u>IEEE 754-2019</u>

references

- 1. johnson, sg. 18.335, introduction to numerical methods, mit.ocw, spring 2015.
- 2. sauer, tim. numerical analysis, 2nd edition, pearson education, 2012, p1.
- 3. martinez, vincent. *math 685*, hunter, spring 2023.
- 4. *ibid*.
- 5. nerdfirst. denormal numbers, 0612 tv, 2020.