Do we need decimal?

Computer Arithmetic: Decimal and the 'fine print' of the standard

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 $(1/10)_{\beta=10} = (0.1)_{\beta=10}$ but in binary it is $(0.000110011001100...)_{\beta=2}$ which the computer rounds into a finite representation.

For a computer using binary64, if y = 0.30 and x = 0.10 then $3x - y = 5.6 \times 10^{-17}$. Furthermore, $2x - y + x = 2.8 \times 10^{-17}$. Leading to the wonderful surprise that

$$\frac{3x - y}{2x - y + x}\Big|_{(x=0.1, y=0.3)} = 2 !$$

For a human, is 0.050 kg = 0.05 kg?

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Humans and decimal numbers

If both measurements are normalized to 5×10^{-2} and stored in a format with 16 digits as (5.00000000000000 $\times10^{-2})$ they are

- indistinguishable and
- give the incorrect impression of a much higher accuracy (0.0500000000000 kg).

To maintain the distinction, we should store

with all those leading zeros. Both are members of the same *cohort*.

IEEE decimal formats

Sign	Combination	Trailing Significand
±	exponent and MSD	t = 10J bits

64 bits: 1 bit 13 bits, bias = 398 50 bits, 15 + 1 digits 128 bits: 1 bit 17 bits, bias = 6176 110 bits, 33 + 1 digits IEEE decimal64 and decimal128 formats.

Note that $(-1)^s \times \beta^e \times m = (-1)^s \times \beta^q \times c$ when

$$m = d_0.d_{-1}d^{-2}...d_{p-1},$$

$$c = d_0d_{-1}d^{-2}...d_{p-1}, and$$

$$q = e^{-(p-1)}.$$

The combination field encodes the exponent q and four significand bits.

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Decimal examples:

+	1.324 1.576	$_{\times 10^{5}}^{\times 10^{5}}$	$\begin{cases} 1.324 \times 10^5 \\ + 0.01576 \times 10^5 \\ \hline 1.33976 \times 10^5 \\ \approx 1.340 \times 10^5 \end{cases}$

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Back to addition

Decimal examples:

1.324×10^{5} + 1.576 $\times 10^{3}$	$ \begin{pmatrix} 1.324 \times 10^5 \\ + 0.01576 \times 10^5 \\ \hline 1.33976 \times 10^5 \\ \approx 1.340 \times 10^5 \end{pmatrix} $
9.853 $\times 10^7$ + 1.466 $\times 10^6$	$ \begin{cases} 9.853 \times 10^7 \\ + 0.1466 \times 10^7 \\ \hline 9.9996 \times 10^7 \\ \approx 1.000 \times 10^8 \end{cases} $
$\begin{array}{ccc} 1.324 & \times 10^3 \\ - & 1.321 & \times 10^3 \end{array} \right\}$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Decimal examples:

+	1.324 1.576	$_{\times 10^{5}}^{\times 10^{5}}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} + \\ \end{array} \right. \\ \approx \end{array}$	1.324 0.01576 1.33976 1.340	
+	9.853 1.466	$ imes 10^7 \\ imes 10^6$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} + \\ \approx \end{array} \right.$	9.853 0.1466 9.9996 1.000	

Multiplication

1. No alignment is necessary.

2. Multiply the significands.

3. Add the exponents.

4. The sign bit of the result is the *XOR* of the two operand signs.

Is it really that simple?

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Division

Where is the nearest number?

1. No alignment is necessary.

2. Divide the significands.

3. Subtract the exponents.

4. The sign bit of the result is the XOR of the two operand signs.

You know it is not that simple!

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Shall we normalize then round?

Even in decimal, if you have leading zeros and there are digits to discard then: *Yes, shift to the left first.*

Consider binary with a possibility of a single position shifting:

Left shift: S does not participate but G is shifted into the number and R into the old position of G.

Right shift: S and R guard bits are ORed into S (i.e., $L \rightarrow G$ and $G + R + S \rightarrow S$).

1.			G	S
\rightarrow	desired precision	\rightarrow	а	

The proper action to obtain unbiased rounding-to-even (RNE) is:

L	G	S	Action	a
Х	0	0	Exact result, no action.	0
Х	0	1	Inexact result, but no action needed.	0
0	1		Tie with even significand no action	0
1	1	0	Tie with odd significand, round to nearest even.	1
X	1	1	Round to nearest by adding 1.	1
	·		'	

Humans add 1/2 of the *LSD* position of the desired precision to the *MSD* of the portion to be discarded.

For a sign-magnitude representation this gives RNA but not RNE:

 $\begin{array}{ccccc} 38.5 \, X \, X \, X \, X \leftarrow & \mathsf{Number to be rounded} \\ \hline 0.5 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \leftarrow & \mathsf{Add} \ 0.5 \\ \hline 39.0 \, X \, X \, X \, X \leftarrow & \mathsf{Result} \\ \hline 39 \qquad \leftarrow & \mathsf{Truncate} \end{array}$

The *sticky bit* is the *OR* function of all the bits we want to check.

The *round digit* is the *MSD* of the discarded part.

М.			L	G	R	S
$\leftarrow c$	lesired	precision	\rightarrow			

estred precision \rightarrow

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The sticky is important

Example 1 Let us see the importance of the sticky bit to
Directed Upward Rounding when we round to the integer
in the following two cases.
Case 1: No sticky bit is used;
38.00001 ightarrow 38
38.00000 ightarrow 38
Case 2: Sticky bit is used:
38.00001 ightarrow 39 (sticky bit = 1)
$38.00000 \rightarrow 38$ (sticky bit = 0,
exact number).
When the sticky bit is one and we neglect using it, the
result is incorrect.

Exceptions

Overflow and infinities

The IEEE standard specifies five exceptional conditions that may arise during an arithmetic operation:

1. invalid operation, $(\infty - \infty, \infty \times 0, \sqrt{-3},...)$

2. division by zero,

3. overflow,

4. underflow, and

5. inexact result.

Gradual underflow

The gradual underflow preserves an important mathematical property: if M is the set of representable numbers according to the standard then

 $\forall x, y \in M, \qquad x - y = 0 \Longleftrightarrow x = y.$

Example 2 Assume that a system uses the single precision format of IEEE but without denormalized numbers. In such a system, what is the result of $1.0 \times 2^{-120} - 1.1111 \cdots 1 \times 2^{-121}$? *Solution:* The exact result is obviously

 $\frac{ \begin{array}{ccc} 1.000\cdots0 & \times 2^{-120} \\ - & 0.111\cdots1|1 & \times 2^{-120} \\ \hline & 0.000\cdots0|1 & \times 2^{-120} = 2^{-144} \end{array} }$

which is not representable in this system. Hence the returned result is zero although the two numbers are not equal. The overflow flag is raised whenever the magnitude of what would be the result exceeds \max in the destination format.

In default exception handling, the rounding mode and the sign of the intermediate result determine the final result:

			RZ		
			+max		
-ve	$-\infty$	$-\infty$	-max	-max	$-\infty$

Furthermore, under default exception handling for overflow, the overflow flag shall be raised and the inexact exception shall be signaled.

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Going for the speed: Cray

As before, the format ($\beta = 2$) consists of sign bit, biased exponent and fraction (mantissa):

where

S = sign bit of fraction E = biased exponent F = fraction

then

e =true exponent = E-bias f =true mantissa = 0.F

A normalized nonzero number \boldsymbol{X} is

$$X = (-1)^S \times 2^{E-bias} \times (0.F)$$

with a bias $= 2^{14} = 16384$.

- max = $2^{2^{13}-1}(1-2^{-48}) = 2^{8191}(1-2^{-48})$
- Any result with an exponent containing two leading ones indicates overflow.
- min = $2^{-(2^{13})} \cdot 2^{-1} = 2^{-8193}$
- Any result with an exponent containing two leading zeros indicates underflow. (Flush to zero)
- Testing for over and underflow is done *before* normalization.
- Inputs are *not* tested.

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Does it really matter?

- In 3D graphics animation, an error in a few pixels in a frame that flashes on the screen is tolerable.
- In general, audio and video signal processing tolerates a number of errors.
- However, if fast and inaccurate results are delivered in scientific or financial computations catastrophes might occur.

- A number $s < \min$ can participate in computations:
- $(\min + s) \min = s$, where s is 2^{-2} to 2^{-48} times min, since $\min + s > \min$ before postnormalization.

The machine normalizes such results producing a number up to 2^{-48} smaller than $\min.$ This number is not set to zero.

- $s \times Y = 0$ if the exponent of Y is not positive enough to bring $\exp(s) + \exp(Y)$ into range.
- $s \times Y = s \times Y$ if $\exp(s) + \exp(Y) \ge \exp(\min)$.

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Looking back

- Comparison of the different systems
- Rounding
- Is $\frac{1}{3} \times 3 = 1?$
- Does $(x y = 0) \Rightarrow (x = y)$?
- Penalty for speeding!