### CS 3410: Computer System Organization and Programming



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### Goals for today

Floats:Numbers with a decimal point (rather, a "binary point"!)

- Representing fractional numbers in binary
- Fixed point
- Floating points
  - Special cases
  - Other floating point formats
  - Guidelines



### How to represent fractional numbers in binary?

- C has alloat type like other languages
- Floats work for numbers with a decimal point in them
- How do we represent fractional numbers with bits?
- Implications on performance and accuracy



### Example: float.c

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
int main() {
   float n = 8.4f;
   printf("%f\n", n * 5.0f);
   return 0;
```



}

### **Fractional Numbers in Binary**

Base10  
19.64
$$_{10}^{4}$$
 = 1 • 10 + 9 · 10<sup>1</sup> + 6 · 10<sup>-1</sup> + 4 · 10<sup>-2</sup> = 19.64

Base 2

 $\frac{10.01}{2} = 1 \cdot 2^{1} + 0 \cdot 2^{0} + 0 \cdot 2^{-1} + 1 \cdot 2^{-2} = 2 + \frac{1}{4} = 2.25$ 



## Warning

- Fractional numbers in binary have a finite number of bits
- Thus, finite precision
- 1.0 + 2.0 != 3.0
- See<u>https://0.30000000000000004.co</u>m/
- Seenotable floating point errors
  - <a href="https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ariane\_5#Notable\_launches">https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ariane\_5#Notable\_launches</a>
  - <a href="https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ariane\_flight\_V88">https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ariane\_flight\_V88</a>
  - <u>https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pentium\_FDIV\_bug</u>



### Example: float.c

#include <stdio.h>

```
int main() {
    float x = 0.00000001f;
    float y = 0.0000002f;
```

```
printf("x = %e\n", x);
printf("y = %e\n", y);
printf("y - x = %e\n", y - x);
```

```
printf("1+x = %e\n", 1.0f + x);
printf("1+y = %e\n", 1.0f + y);
printf("(1+y) - (1+x) = %e\n", (1.0f + y) - (1.0f + x));
return 0;
```



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### **Fixed Point**

### • Key

- Like scientific notation, but in base 2
- E.g.34.10<sub>10</sub> x 10<sup>-5</sup>
- E.g.  $1001_2 \times 2^{-2} = 10.01_2 = 2.25_{10}$
- Notation:  $i \times 2^{e}$  where  $\tilde{i}$  is the integer and e determines where the binary point goes

### • Idea

- How many bits. Call this bit count *n*
- Where will the binary point go? Call this position *e* for *exponent* 
  - e=0 the binary point goes at the very end (so it's just a normal integer)
  - e=-1 means there is one bit after the binary point
  - e=1 means tack on one zero before the binary point
- Examples

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- *n*=4, *e*=-2, and bit pattern 1001
  - $10.01_2 = 2.25_{10}$
- n = 4, e = -3, and bit pattern 1111
  - $1111 = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = 1.875_{10}$
- n = 4, e = 1, and bit pattern 0101

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### **Fixed Point**

- Good and bad
  - *e* is metadata and <u>*not*</u> part of the actual data that the computer stores
  - The same bit pattern can represent many different numbers! Depends on the exponent that the programmer has in mind
  - Very fast and used a lot for machine learning (ML) and digital signal processing (DSP)
- However, due to limitation of not being self contained, most software used a different strategy, **floating point**



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- Fixed point

### Floating points

- Special cases
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- Guidelines



```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
int main() {
    float n = 34.10f;
    float big = n * 123456789.0f;
    float small = n / 123456789.0f;
    printf("big = %e\nsmall = %e\n", big, small);
    return 0;
```



- Float allows the binary point to float
- Every float consists of *sign, exponent* and *significand* (*mantissa*), packed together
  - Where *s*, *e*, and *g* represent this number:

 $(-1)s \times 1.g \times 2^{e-127}$ 

- A32-bit float has
  - 1-bit <u>sign</u>, s, which is a single bit
    - 0 for positive, 1 for negative
  - 8-bit *exponente*, which is an unsigned integer
    - Scaling term,  $2^{e-127}$ , i.e. determines where the binary point goes
    - -127 is *bias* allowing the unsigned exponent to represent a wide range of both positive and negative binary-point positions
  - 23-bit *significand*(also called the *mantissa*), **g**, which is unsigned integer
    - Take the bits from g and put them all after the binary point, with a 1 in the ones place
    - The significand is the "main" part of the number,
      - so (in the normal case) it always represents a number between 1.0 and 2.0



#### Check out https://float.exposed/

- Example1: Convert 8.25 to float
- Step 1: Write binary representation: 1000<sub>2</sub>01
- Step 2: Normalize: 1.00001 % 2
- Step 3: Break into the three components
  - **s**=0

  - e = 3 + 127 = 130
  - 32-bit float: 0100 00010000 0100 0000 0000 0000 0€00x41040000



```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdint.h>
#include <string.h>
```

```
int main() {
    uint32_t bits = 0x41040000;
```

```
// Copy the to a variable with a different type
float val;
memcpy(&val, &bits, sizeof(val));
```

```
// Print the bits as a floating-point number
printf("%f\n", val);
```

### return 0;

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdint.h>
#include <string.h>

```
int main() {
    uint32_t bits = 0x41040000;
    uint32_t mantissa = bits & 0x007fffff; // mask to isolate mantissa
    uint32_t exponent = (bits & 0x7f800000) >> 23; // bit and bit shift
    uint32_t sign = (bits & 8000000) >> 31; // mask and bit shift
```

```
printf("s = %b, e = %b, g = %b \n", sign, exponent, mantissa);
return 0;
```



## Special cases, Not a number (NaN) and Infinity

- +0.0 and 0.0, i.e. s= 0 or s=1, but yoluave to set both e=0 and g=0
- When e = 0, but  $g \neq 0$ 
  - Denormalized number
  - The rule is that denormalized numbers represent the value (-1)s x  $0.g \times 2^{-126}$
  - The important difference is that we now use 0.g instead of 1.g
  - These values are useful to eke out the last drops of precision for extremely small numbers.
- e is all ones and g=0 is infinity (there is a  $+\infty$  and  $-\infty$ , when s=0 or s=1!)
- e is all ones and  $g \neq 0$  is NaN
- Dividing zero by zero is NaN, but dividing other numbers by zero is infinity!



```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdint.h>
#include <string.h>
```

```
int main() {
    printf("%f\n", 0.0f / 0.0f); // NaN
    printf("%f\n", 5.0f / 0.0f); // Infinity
    return 0;
```



## Other floating point formats

- float: 32-bit, "single precision"
  - 1-bit sign, 8bit exponent, 23bit significand
- double: 64-bit, "double precision"
  - 1-bit sign
  - 11-bit exponent
  - 54-bit significand
- Half-precision: 16bit, "half precision"
  - 1-bit sign
  - 5-bit exponent
  - 10-bit significand
- bfloat, 16-bit, "brain floating point"
  - Invented for machine learning (ML): Deep learning needs more range, but less precision
  - 1-bit sign
  - 8-bit exponent
  - 7-bit significand

### Guidelines

- Floating-point numbers are<u>not</u> real numbers
  - Expect to accumulate some error when using floats
- Never use floating-point numbers to represent currency
  - When people say \$123.45, they want that exact number of cents, not \$123.40000152.
  - Use an integer number of cents: i.e., a fixed-point representation with a fixed decimal point
- Be suspicious of equality, f1 = f2
  - E.g. try (0.1+0.2) = 0.3?
  - Consider using an "error tolerance" in comparisons, like abs(f1 f2) < epsilon.
- Floating-point arithmetic is expensive
  - It is slower and more energy than integer or fixed-point arithmetic
  - The flexibility is expensive since the complexity requires more complex for the hardware
- As a result, a lot of applications such as ML convert (quantize) models to a fixed-point representation so they can run efficientl.



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