Analyse d'Algorithmes en Arithmétique à Virgule Flottante

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Starting point:

How do numerical algorithms behave in finite precision arithmetic?

Typically,

- basic matrix computations: Ax = b, ...
- floating-point data and arithmetic as specified by IEEE 754.

Ideally, we'd like to guarantee a priori that the computed solution \widehat{x} has some kind of numerical quality:

- the forward error $||x \widehat{x}||$ is 'small',
- the backward error $\|\Delta A\|$ such that $(A + \Delta A)\hat{x} = b$ is 'small'.

To get such guarantees, a key tool is backward error analysis:

- developed by Wilkinson in the 1960's,
- identifies nearby problems solved exactly: $\widehat{x} = (A + \Delta A)^{-1} b$,
- relies on a standard model of floating-point arithmetic,
- eminently powerful; see e.g. Higham's book:



The standard model says that the result \hat{r} of a single operation x op y in floating-point arithmetic satisfies

$$\widehat{r} = (x \text{ op } y) \times (1 + \delta), \qquad |\delta| \leqslant u.$$

Simple and handy.

But does not express all the features of IEEE 754.

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Our goal: show the benefits of exploiting some lower-level features:

- 1. Optimal bounds for basic operations,
- 2. Simpler and sharper Wilkinson-style error analysis,
- 3. Explain why some tiny kernels behave so well.

Floating-point arithmetic

Error properties of arithmetic operations over ${\mathbb F}$

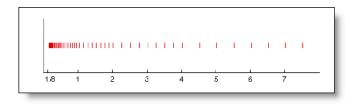
Some Wilkinson's bounds made simpler and sharper

Analyzing highly accurate kernels

Conclusion

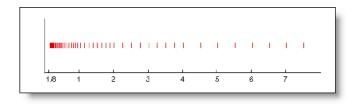
$$\mathbb{F} := \{0\} \cup \left\{ \pm M \cdot \beta^{e-p+1} : \beta^{p-1} \leqslant M < \beta^{p}, \ e_{\min} \leqslant e \leqslant e_{\max} \right\}.$$

- ► base β,
- ▶ precision *p*,
- exponent range defined by e_{min} and e_{max}.



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- exponent range defined by e_{min} and e_{max}.



We assume

e_{min} = -∞ and e_{max} = +∞: unbounded exponent range,
 β is even.

$$\succ x \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\} \quad \Rightarrow \quad |x| = m \cdot \beta^e, \quad m = (*, \underbrace{* \cdots *}_{p-1})_{\beta} \in [1, \beta).$$

- Three useful "units":
 - Unit in the first place: $ufp(x) = \beta^e$,
 - Unit in the last place: $ulp(x) = \beta^{e-p+1}$,

• Unit roundoff:
$$u = \frac{1}{2}\beta^{1-p}$$
.

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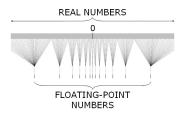
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 - Unit in the last place: $ulp(x) = \beta^{e-p+1}$,
 - Unit roundoff: $u = \frac{1}{2}\beta^{1-p}$.
- ► Alternative views, which display the structure of **F** very well:
 - $x \in ulp(x)\mathbb{Z}$,
 - ► $|x| = (1 + 2ku) \operatorname{ufp}(x), \quad k \in \mathbb{N}.$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $\mathbb{F} \cap [1, \beta) = \Big\{1, 1+2u, 1+4u, \dots\Big\}.$

Rounding function

Round-to-nearest function RN : $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{F}$ such that $\forall t \in \mathbb{R}, \qquad |\mathsf{RN}(t) - t| = \min_{f \in \mathbb{F}} |f - t|,$

with given tie-breaking rule.

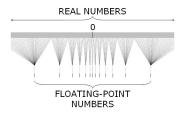


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- ▶ $t \in \mathbb{F} \Rightarrow \mathsf{RN}(t) = t$
- RN nondecreasing
- reasonable tie-breaking rule:

$$\blacktriangleright \mathsf{RN}(-t) = -\mathsf{RN}(t)$$

► $\mathsf{RN}(t\beta^{e}) = \mathsf{RN}(t)\beta^{e}, e \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$E_1(t) := \frac{|\mathsf{RN}(t) - t|}{|t|} \leq \frac{u}{1+u}, \qquad E_2(t) := \frac{|\mathsf{RN}(t) - t|}{|\mathsf{RN}(t)|} \leq u.$$

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Proof:

• Assume
$$1 \leq t < \beta$$
, so that

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Bound $\frac{u}{1+u}$: sharp and well known [Dekker'71, Holm'80, Knuth'81-98], but simpler bound u almost always used in practice.

Correct rounding

This is the result of the composition of two functions: basic operations performed exactly, and exact result then rounded:

 $x, y \in \mathbb{F}, \text{ op} = \pm, \times, \div \Rightarrow \text{ return } \widehat{r} := \mathsf{RN}(x \text{ op } y).$

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► The error bounds on *E*₁ and *E*₂ yield two standard models:

$$\widehat{r} = (x \text{ op } y) imes (1 + \delta_1), \qquad |\delta_1| \leqslant rac{u}{1+u} =: u_1, \ = (x \text{ op } y) imes rac{1}{1+\delta_2}, \qquad |\delta_2| \leqslant u.$$

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▶ High relative accuracy is ensured:

$$\begin{split} \widehat{r} &= \frac{\mathsf{RN}(x+y)}{2}(1+\delta_1), \qquad |\delta_1| \leqslant u_1, \\ &= \frac{x+y}{2}(1+\delta_1)(1+\delta_1'), \qquad |\delta_1'| \leqslant u_1, \\ &=: r(1+\epsilon), \qquad |\epsilon| \leqslant 2u. \end{split}$$

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• We'd also like to have $\min(x, y) \leq \hat{r} \leq \max(x, y) \dots$

X Not always true:

$$\beta = 10, \ p = 3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathsf{RN}\left(\frac{\mathsf{RN}(5.01 + 5.03)}{2}\right) = \mathsf{RN}\left(\frac{10}{2}\right) = 5.$$

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$$\widehat{r} \leq \frac{x+y}{2} \leq y \implies \operatorname{RN}(x) \leq \operatorname{RN}\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \leq \operatorname{RN}(y)$$

$$\Rightarrow x \leq \widehat{r} \leq y.$$

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 \hookrightarrow Repair other cases using $r = x + \frac{y-x}{2}$. [Sterbenz'74, Boldo'15]

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Conditions for exact subtraction

Sterbenz' lemma:[Sterbenz'74]
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- ► Proof: [Hauser'96] ► assume $0 < y \le x \le 2y$.
 - $ulp(y) \leq ulp(x) \Rightarrow x y \in \beta^{e}\mathbb{Z}$ with $\beta^{e} = ulp(y)$.
 - $\blacktriangleright \ \frac{x-y}{\beta^{\bullet}} \ \text{is an integer such that} \ 0 \leqslant \frac{x-y}{\beta^{\bullet}} \leqslant \frac{y}{\mathsf{ul}|\mathsf{p}(y)} < \beta^{p}.$

Representable error terms

Addition and multiplication:

$$x, y \in \mathbb{F}$$
, op $\in \{+, \times\}$ \Rightarrow $x \text{ op } y - \mathsf{RN}(x \text{ op } y) \in \mathbb{F}$.

Division and square root:

$$x - y \operatorname{RN}(x/y) \in \mathbb{F}, \qquad x - \operatorname{RN}(\sqrt{x})^2 \in \mathbb{F}.$$

Noted quite early. [Dekker'71, Pichat'76, Bohlender et al.'91]
 RN required only for ADD and SQRT. [Boldo & Daumas'03]

FMA: its error is the sum of *two* floats. [Boldo & Muller'11]

Error-free transformations (EFT)

Floating-point algorithms for computing such error terms exactly:

► x + y - RN(x + y) in 6 additions [Møller'65, Knuth] and not less [Kornerup, Lefèvre, Louvet, Muller'12]

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• in only 2 ops if an FMA is available:

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Similar FMA-based EFT for DIV, SQRT ... and FMA.

EFT are key for extended precision algorithms: *error compensation* [Kahan'65, ..., Higham'96, Ogita, Rump, Oishi'04+, Graillat, Langlois, Louvet'05+, ...], *floating-point expansions* [Priest'91, Shewchuk'97, Joldes, Muller, Popescu'14+].

When t can be any real number, $E_1(t) \leq \frac{u}{1+u}$ and $E_2(t) \leq u$ are best possible:

 $t := 1 + u \Rightarrow \operatorname{RN}(t) \text{ is } 1 \text{ or } 1 + 2u \Rightarrow |t - \operatorname{RN}(t)| = u.$

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These are examples of optimal bounds:

- valid for all (t, RN) with t of a certain type;
- attained for some (t, RN) with t parametrized by β and p.

Can we do better when $t = x \operatorname{op} y$ and $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$?

This depends on op and, sometimes, on β and p. [J. & Rump'14]

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t	optimal bound on $E_1(t)$	optimal bound on $E_2(t)$
$x \pm y$	$\frac{u}{1+u}$	и
xy	$\frac{u}{1+u}$ (*)	u (*)
x/y	$\begin{cases} \frac{u}{1+u} & \text{if } \beta > 2, \\ u - 2u^2 & \text{if } \beta = 2 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} u & \text{if } \beta > 2, \\ \frac{u-2u^2}{1+u-2u^2} & \text{if } \beta = 2 \end{cases}$
\sqrt{x}	$1 - rac{1}{\sqrt{1+2u}}$	$\sqrt{1+2u}-1$

(*) iff $\beta > 2$ or $2^{p} + 1$ is not a Fermat prime.

 \longrightarrow Two standard models for *each* arithmetic operation. \longrightarrow Application: sharper bounds and/or much simpler proofs.

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Floating-point summation

Given $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{F}$, evaluate their sum in any order.

Classical analysis [Wilkinson'60]:

- Apply the standard model n-1 times.
- Deduce that the computed value $\widehat{s} \in \mathbb{F}$ satisfies

$$\left|\widehat{s}-\sum_{i=1}^{n}x_{i}\right|\leqslant \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{n}|x_{i}|, \qquad \alpha=(1+u)^{n-1}-1.$$

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★ But $\alpha = (n-1)u + O(u^2)$, which hides a constant. So, classically bounded as

$$\alpha \leqslant \gamma_{n-1}, \qquad \gamma_k = rac{ku}{1-ku}, \qquad ku < 1.$$
 [Higham'96]

Theorem [Rump'12]

For recursive summation, one can take $\alpha = (n-1)u$.

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To prove this,

X don't use just the *refined* standard model, since

$$\left(1+\frac{u}{1+u}\right)^{n-1}-1\leqslant (n-1)u$$

only for $n \leqslant 4$.

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X it might be difficult to use the usual *backward* error analysis:

$$\widehat{s} = \sum_{i} x_i (1 + \theta_i),$$

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since for

$$1+u-u+u-u+\cdots$$

and RN with ties 'to away'

$$\max_{i} |\theta_{i}| = (1 + \frac{u}{1+u})^{n-1} - 1$$
$$= (n-1)u + O(u^{2}).$$

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To prove this,

- Proceed forward;
- Combine

$$|\mathsf{RN}(x+y) - (x+y)| \leq \frac{u}{1+u}|x+y|, \tag{1}$$

with the lower-level property

$$|\mathsf{RN}(x+y) - (x+y)| \leq |f - (x+y)|, \quad \forall f \in \mathbb{F}, \\ \leq \min\{|x|, |y|\};$$
(2)

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► Conclude by induction on n with a clever case-distinction comparing |x_n| to u · ∑_{i<n} |x_i|, and using either (1) or (2).

Wilkinson's bounds revisited

Problem	Classical $lpha$	New $lpha$	Ref.
summation	$(n-1)u+O(u^2)$	(n-1)u	[1]

Wilkinson's bounds revisited

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summation	$(n-1)u+O(u^2)$	(n-1)u	[1]
dot prod., mat. mul.	$nu + O(u^2)$	nu	[1]
Euclidean norm	$(\frac{n}{2}+1)u+O(u^2)$	$(\frac{n}{2} + 1)u$	[2]
Tx = b, $A = LU$	$nu + O(u^2)$	nu	[2]
$A = R^T R$	$(n+1)u+O(u^2)$	(n + 1)u	[2]
x^n (recursive, $\beta = 2$)	$(n-1)u+O(u^2)$	(n-1)u (*)	[3]
product $x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$	$(n-1)u+O(u^2)$	(n-1)u (*)	[4]
poly. eval. (Horner)	$2 nu + O(u^2)$	2 <i>nu</i> (*)	[4]

(*) if $n < O(1/\sqrt{u})$ [1]: with Rump'13; [2]: with Rump'14; [3]: Graillat, Lefèvre, Muller'14; [4]: with Bünger and Rump'14.

Remarks

- Except for Horner's rule, these bounds hold for any ordering.
- ► Further refinements are possible:
 - using $u_1 := \frac{u}{1+u}$ instead of u;
 - assuming recursive summation and 20nu < 1 [Mascarenhas'16]

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- Further refinements are possible:
 - using $u_1 := \frac{u}{1+u}$ instead of u;
 - assuming recursive summation and 20nu < 1 [Mascarenhas'16]
- Key ingredients for analyzing Horner's rule in degree n:
 - see it as $(\times)(+\times)\cdots(+\times)(+)$;
 - bound the relative error of RN(RN(x + y)z) by

$$(1+u_1)(1+u_{\varphi})-1, \qquad u_{\varphi} \approx rac{u}{1+\sqrt{u}}$$

• show that $\alpha \leqslant (1+u_1)^{n+1}(1+u_{\varphi})^{n-1}-1 \leqslant 2nu$.

Context

Floating-point arithmetic

Error properties of arithmetic operations over ${\ensuremath{\mathbb F}}$

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Analyzing highly accurate kernels

Conclusion

Kahan's algorithm uses the FMA to evaluate det $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc$:

$$\widehat{w} := \mathsf{RN}(bc); \widehat{f} := \mathsf{RN}(ad - \widehat{w}); \quad e := \mathsf{RN}(\widehat{w} - bc); \widehat{r} := \mathsf{RN}(\widehat{f} + e);$$

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- ▶ The operation *ad* − *bc* is not in IEEE 754, but very common:
 - complex arithmetic,
 - discriminant of a quadratic equation,
 - ▶ robust orientation predicates using tests like 'ad bc > e?'
- ▶ If evaluated naively, *ad* − *bc* leads to highly inaccurate results:

$$rac{|\widehat{f}-r|}{|r|}$$
 can be of the order of $u^{-1}\gg 1$.

Analysis in the standard model [Higham'96]:

$$\frac{|\widehat{r}-r|}{|r|} \leqslant 2u\left(1+\frac{u|bc|}{2|r|}\right).$$

 \Rightarrow high relative accuracy as long as $u|bc| \gg 2|r|$.

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When u|bc| ≫ 2|r|, the error bound can be > 1 and does not even allow to conclude that sign(r) = sign(r).

- In fact, Kahan's algorithm is always highly accurate:
 - X the standard model alone fails to predict this;
 - $\pmb{\mathsf{X}}$ misinterpreting bounds \Rightarrow dismissing good algorithms.

Further analysis

[J., Louvet, Muller'13]

The key is an ulp-analysis of the error terms ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 given by:

- Since e is exactly $\widehat{w} bc$, we have $\widehat{r} r = \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2$.
- Furthermore, we can prove that $|\epsilon_i| \leq \frac{\beta}{2} ulp(r)$ for i = 1, 2.

Proposition: $|\hat{r} - r| \leq \beta \operatorname{ulp}(r) \leq 2\beta u |r|$.

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These bounds mean Kahan's algorithm is always highly accurate.

We can do better via a case analysis comparing $|\epsilon_2|$ to $\frac{1}{2}ulp(r)$:

Theorem:

• relative error
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Theorem:

- relative error $|\hat{r} r|/|r| \leq 2u$;
- this bound is asymptotically optimal.

Certificate of optimality

This is an explicit input set parametrized by β and p such that

$$\frac{\text{error}}{\text{error bound}} \quad \rightarrow \quad 1 \quad \text{as} \quad u \rightarrow 0.$$

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Example: for Kahan's algorithm for r = ad - bc:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a = b = \beta^{p-1} + 1 \\ c = \beta^{p-1} + \frac{\beta}{2} \beta^{p-2} \\ d = 2\beta^{p-1} + \frac{\beta}{2} \beta^{p-2} \end{array} \right\} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{|\hat{r} - r|/|r|}{2u} = \frac{1}{1 + \beta^{1-p}} = 1 - 2u + O(u^2).$$

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- Optimality is asymptotic, but often OK in practice: for β = 2 and p = 11, the above example has relative error 1.999024...u.
- The certificate consists of sparse, symbolic floating-point data, which we can handle automatically. [J., Louvet, Muller, Plet]

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Summary

Floating-point arithmetic is

- specified rigorously by IEEE 754,
- highly structured and much richer than the standard model.

Exploiting this structure leads to

- optimal standard models for basic arithmetic operations,
- simpler and sharper Wilkinson-like bounds,
- proofs of nice behavior of some numerical kernels.

Future directions

Optimal error bounds for complex arithmetic:

- ▶ Naive evaluation of z = (a + ib)(c + id) in floating-point $\Rightarrow |\hat{z} - z|/|z| \leq \sqrt{5} u$ [Brent, Percival, Zimmermann'07]
- Similar results for other schemes [with Kornerup, Louvet, Muller'14]
- For inversion, best constant ≈ 2.7 [with Louvet, Muller, Plet'15]
- Best constants for division and square root?

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Robustness issues

- What if roundings other than to nearest? [Demmel, Nguyen'13], [Boldo, Graillat, Muller'16]; [Ozaki, Ogita, Bünger, Oishi'15]
- How to take underflow and overflow into account?