

point rep-representations of a number define a base β and a precision p . IEEE 754-1985 is a binary standard where $\beta = 2$ and $p = 24$ (7.22 decimal digits) for single precision and $p = 53$ (15.95 decimal digits) for double precision. Length of a word in single precision is 32 bits, 23 bits for the significant, and 8 bits for the exponent and 1 sign bit. In double precision a word is 64 bits long, 52 bits for the significant, and 11 bits for the exponent and 1 sign bit. In 2008 this standard was updated to IEEE 754-2008, where the radix can be either 2 or 10. IEEE 754-2008 defines the interchange formats, rounding algorithms, operations, and exception handling. Whenever the result of an operation is inexact then by default IEEE standards rounding rule approximates the answer to the nearest representable number. There are two rounding to nearest schemes for this. The standard defines three other rounding modes, called directed roundings.



Fig. 1. A payer and payee—single sided

Amount Δ is added to the payee, in the payee's currency. Intermediate calculations and representations may be in either double precision binary or exact decimal arithmetic. This financial model, while simplified, is adequate for obtaining insight.

III. SINGLE NODE

An account in a bank can act as a payer or a payee, and the transactions are withdrawals and deposits. The transaction amount Δ could be an arbitrary real value based on some calculations like interest payment. This amount Δ may not be exactly representable if IEEE 754 standard for binary arithmetic is used. In this case, we are interested in ϵ , the error in the capitalization (difference between the exact value, and that calculated using IEEE 754 followed by currency specific rounding methods) at the node X (payer) or Y (payee) as shown in Fig. 1. For computing this in exact decimal arithmetic, we have the relations between the initial and final quantities as shown. Let X_i and Y_i represent the initial balance amount at payer node and payee node, respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} X_f &= \rho_c(X_i - \rho_c(\Delta)) \\ Y_f &= \rho_c(Y_i + \rho_c(\Delta)) \end{aligned}$$

For calculations in double precision, we have an initial step where the decimal account balances are converted from their exact decimal values. Carets are used to refer to binary approximations of decimal quantities'

$$\begin{aligned} X_i^{\wedge} &= \epsilon_i(X_i) \\ Y_i^{\wedge} &= \epsilon_i(Y_i) \\ \Delta^{\wedge} &= \epsilon_i(\rho_c(\Delta)) \\ X_f &= \rho_c(\epsilon_i(X_i^{\wedge} - \Delta^{\wedge})) \\ Y_f &= \rho_c(\epsilon_i(Y_i^{\wedge} + \Delta^{\wedge})), \end{aligned}$$

The computations are in accordance to IEEE 754 standards and include any IEEE 754 specific rounding as the operands are binary numbers.



Fig. 2. A payer and payee—single sided

3.1 A TRANSACTION PAIR

A pair of accounts transacting with each other forms a transaction pair. The nodes of the pair may have the same base currency, in which case the transactions are single currency transactions, or they could have different base currencies, where the transactions are multicurrency. Of interest here are the errors in the capitalization of the payer, X or the payee, Y or the total, $X+Y$. If the base currency of both payer and payee is same (c) as shown in Fig. 2, then there is no currency conversion in the transaction and there are no errors in decimal arithmetic if rounding is not applied

$$\begin{aligned} X_f &= X_i - \rho_c(\Delta), \\ Y_f &= Y_i + \rho_c(\Delta), \\ X_i + Y_i &= X_f + Y_f \end{aligned}$$

error due to binary computation is derived

$$(X_f + Y_f) \in \underline{\Delta} (X_i + Y_i)$$

Here, X_f and Y_f are derived. Similarly, if the base currency of X and Y is different, then there is a currency conversion step in the transaction, which involves a multiplication by the exchange rate η_{XY} to convert currency of X into currency of Y , as shown in Fig. 3.

Let x, y be the currencies of X and Y , respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} X_f &= \rho_x(X_i - \rho_x(\Delta)), \\ Y_f &= \rho_y(Y_i + \rho_y(\eta_{XY} X_f - \rho_x(\Delta))), \\ \eta_{XY} X_f + Y_i &= \eta_{XY} X_f + Y_f. \end{aligned}$$

3.2 INTEREST PAYMENTS AND SPLITS

Periodic interest payments result in a correlated sequence of transaction volumes. A k -way split disbursement of funds is similar to a pair wise transaction, except that the initial amounts are in general non exactly representable (e.g., Rs. 1.00 split into three pieces). Additional errors beyond the cases discussed above result. If an amount Z is to be split into n parts, then an error between 0 and $\text{Mod}(Z, n)$ can occur. Hence, for any given n , the maximum error can be $(n - 1)$

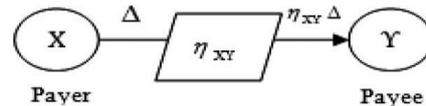


Fig. 3. A payer-payee pair (multicurrency)

3.3 A FINANCIAL NETWORK

A network is formed when accounts across multiple banks or accounts are transacting with each other. Here, each node (account) can have a different base currency so it is basically a multicurrency network.

If there are N accounts in the network and Let X_{ji} and X_{jf} represent the initial and final balances, respectively, of the j th account, then

$$\sum_{j=1}^N X_{ji} X_{j\$} = \sum_{j=1}^N X_{jf} X_{j\$}$$

This is because first, the currency exchange rates are specified only up to six significant figures and second, there are currency specific rounding rules.

4. ANALYSIS OF ERROR PROCESS

We analyze the behavior of the error process using the model of transactions discussed in Section 3. We discuss the properties of the error in representing a single value, followed by properties of error accumulation in basic operations.

4.1 ERROR IN REPRESENTING A SINGLE VALUE

First consider a single decimal value in D digits, and its nearest binary representation in B bits. We assume that default round to nearest rounding direction mode is being used. We consider that all numbers are normalized to unity (we need only consider this case for insight, if D and B are suitably chosen).

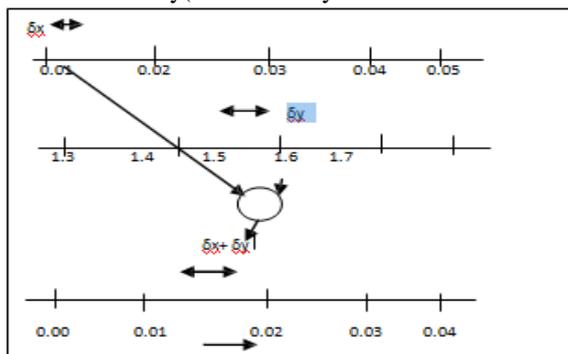


Fig.4. Error in multiplication

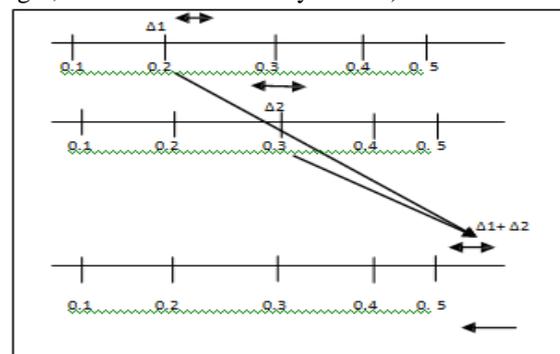


Fig. 5. Error in addition

4.2 ERROR IN A SINGLE ADDITION

If the balance amount x is to be represented in binary format, let δx be the error associated with it (Fig. 6). Let y be the transaction (deposit) amount and δy be the error associated with it.

4.3 Error in a Single Multiplication

The story is different for multiplications. Since the product of two exactly representable numbers can easily hit a rounding boundary. Another common decimal operation in financial applications is the IEEE 754-2008 quantize operation. This is essentially a multiplication by a power of 10 and the same analysis as above is

applicable. With this analysis of errors in number representation and basic operations, we can discuss the impact of finiteprecision in financial calculations.

5. ERROR PROCESS: WORST CASE

we discuss the various transactions below, in order. A novel tabular approach is used to examine the worst case errors, as outlined below. These errors are rare, requiring either very large numbers or accidental matches. This fact will be exploited to obtain high-speed routines using only binary arithmetic

5.1 SINGLE NODE, PAYER/PAYEE: TRANSACTION ERROR MATRIX With capitalization amounts exceeding $10^{13}(2^{45})$, errors are possible in additions, as shown in Section 4. Here, using a tabular approach, we demonstrate a sequence of transaction amounts, such that an error is made in every transaction.

First, we define the capitalization transaction error matrix- (CTEM) T(D,B), where D is the number of decimal digits in the fraction and B is the number of binary bits in the binary approximation, as an nxm matrix, with entries $T_{ij} = \text{Error in adding/subtracting Transaction amount } \Delta_i \text{ to from Capital } C_i$, where n is the number of possible capitalization values and m is the number of possible transaction amounts.

This error is with respect to exact decimal arithmetic. To differentiate between the CTEM for deposits and withdrawals, we represent CTEM as $T_+(D,B)$ and $T_-(D,B)$, respectively.

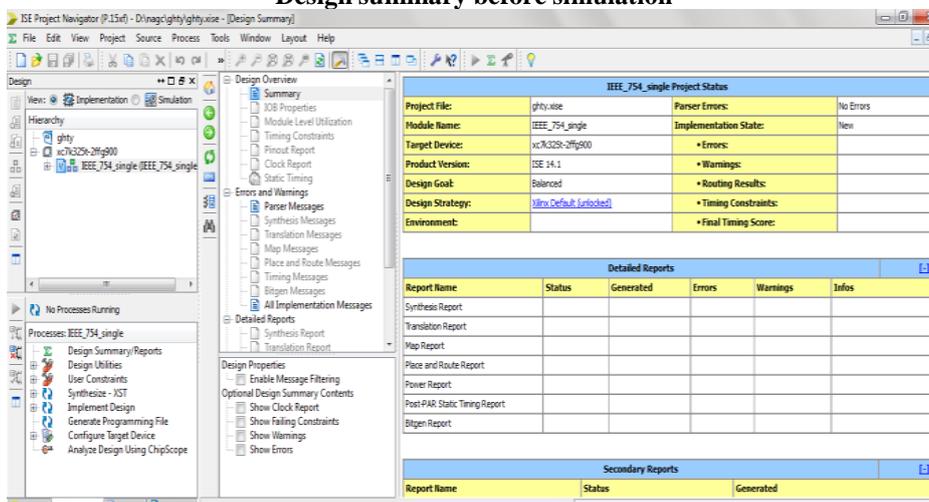
Table1 CTEM $T_+(1,3)$

	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9
0.1	-0.1	-0.1	0	0	0	-0.1	-0.1	0	0
0.2	-0.1	-0.1	0	0	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	0	0
0.3	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1
0.4	0	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0	0.1	0.1
0.5	0	-0.1	0.1	0	0	0	-0.1	0.1	0
0.6	-0.1	-0.1	0	0	0	-0.1	-0.1	0	0
0.7	-0.1	-0.1	0	0	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	0	0
0.8	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1
0.9	0	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0	0.1	0.1
1	0	-0.1	0.1	0	0	0	-0.1	0.1	0

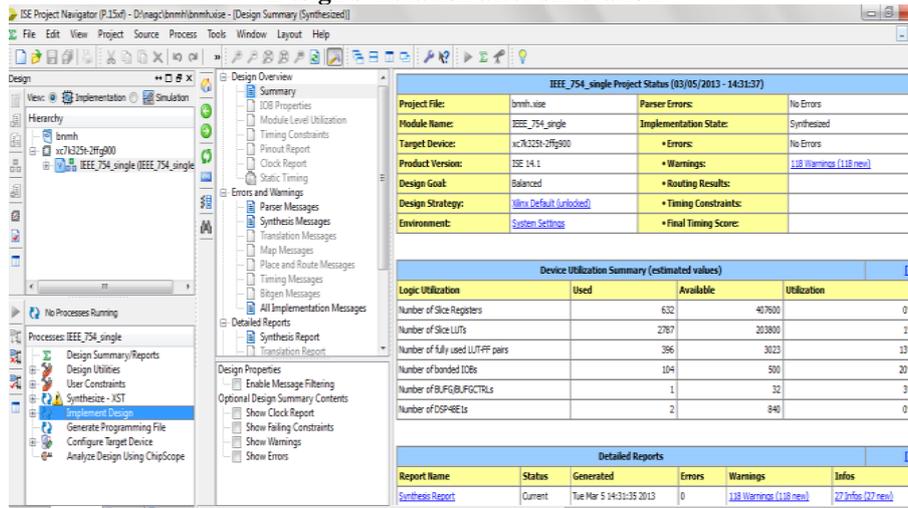
Table 1 shows a CTEM $T_+(1,3)$ for deposit transactions(additions).Similarly, shows a multiplication CTEM $T_X(1,3)$ where each entry T_{ij} is the error that results from multiplying the ith capital to jth interest rate.

5.RESULTS

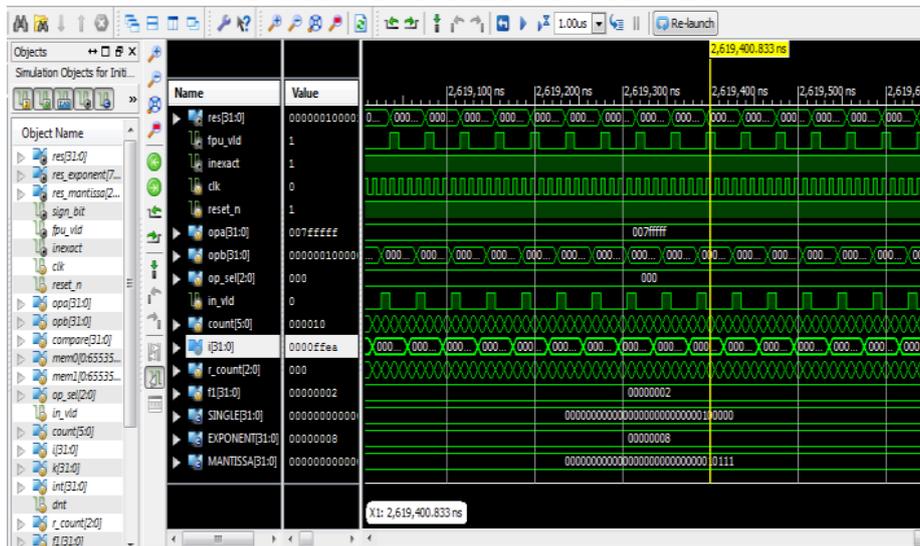
Design summary before simulation



Design simulation after simulation



FLOATING POINT ADDITION RESULT



FLOATING POINT SUBTRACTION RESULT



CONCLUSION

If financial software neglect the effects of IEEE-754 finite precision, then the results could be disastrous and huge monetary losses may occur. This paper quantifies these losses using a matrix approach the CTEM.

Using the CTEM, we showed that even the use of double precision can be exploited to create arbitrary error sequences, with considerable possibilities of financial arbitrage. Initial evidence testifies to the fact that these sequences can be chosen so as to pass many common statistical tests, and thus avoid detection. Thus, we show that using binary arithmetic directly for financial calculations is inappropriate, as error can build up without bound, and as we have found statistically undetectable sequences in our experiments.

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