# Abstract Interpretation of Floating-Point Computations

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# Outline

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- An abstract interpretation for floating-point computations : a relational domain relying on affine arithmetic
  - Introduction to affine arithmetic
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  - From real to floating-point computation : relational domain for values and errors
- Examples
- References
- Joint work with Eric Goubault





# Floating-point numbers (defined by the IEEE 754 norm)

Normalized floating-point numbers

$$(-1)^{s}1.x_{1}x_{2}\ldots x_{n} \times 2^{e}$$
 (radix 2 in general)

- implicit 1 convention  $(x_0 = 1)$
- n = 23 for simple precision, n = 53 for double precision
- exponent e is an integer represented on k bits (k = 8 for simple precision, k = 11 for double precision)

Denormalized numbers (gradual underflow),

$$(-1)^s 0.x_1x_2\ldots x_n \times 2^{e_{\min}}$$





- ulp(x) = distance between two consecutive floating-point numbers around x = maximal rounding error of a number around x
- ► A few figures for simple precision floating-point numbers :

largest normalized	$\sim$	3.40282347 * 10 <sup>38</sup>
smallest positive normalized	$\sim$	$1.17549435 * 10^{-38}$
largest positive denormalized	$\sim$	$1.17549421 * 10^{-38}$
smallest positive denormalized	$\sim$	$1.40129846 * 10^{-45}$
ulp(1)	=	$2^{-23} \sim 1.19200928955 * 10^{-7}$



# Some difficulties of floating-point computation

▶ Representation error : transcendental numbers  $\pi$ , e, but also

$$\frac{1}{10} = 0.00011001100110011001100 \cdots$$

Floating-point arithmetic :

- absorption :  $1 + 10^{-8} = 1$  in simple precision float
- ▶ associative law not true :  $(-1+1) + 10^{-8} \neq -1 + (1+10^{-8})$
- cancellation : important loss of relative precision when two close numbers are subtracted
- Some more trouble :
  - re-ordering of operations by the compiler
  - storage of intermediate computation either in register or in memory, with different floating-point formats





## Example of cancellation : surface of a flat triangle

(a, b, c the lengths of the sides of the triangle, a close to b + c):

$$A = \sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}$$
  $s = \frac{a+b+c}{2}$ 

Then if a,b, or c is known with some imprecision, s - a is very inaccurate. Example,

real number	floating-point number
a = 1.9999999	a = 1.999999881
b = c = 1	b=c=1
s-a=5e-08	s - a = 1.19209e - 07
A = 3.16e - 4	A = 4.88e - 4





## In real world : a catastrophic example

- ► 25/02/91: a Patriot missile misses a Scud in Dharan and crashes on an american building : 28 deads.
- ► Cause :
  - the missile program had been running for 100 hours, incrementing an integer every 0.1 second
  - ▶ but 0.1 not representable in a finite number of digits in base 2  $\frac{1}{10} = 0.0001100110011001100\cdots$

Truncation error	$\sim$	0.000000095 (decimal)
Drift, on 100 hours	$\sim$	0.34 <i>s</i>
Location error on the scud	$\sim$	500 <i>m</i>



#### But also some other costly errors ...

- Explosion of Ariane 5 in 1996 (conversion of a 64 bits float into a 16 bits integer : overflow)
- Vancouver stock exchange in 1982
  - index introduced with initial value 1000.000
  - after each transaction, updated and truncated to the 3rd fractional digit
  - within a few months : index=524.881, correct value 1098.811
  - explanation : biais. The errors all have same sign
- Sinking of an offshore oil platform in 1992 : inaccurate finite element approximation

Collection of Software Bugs at url http://www5.in.tum.de/~huckle/bugse.html



# Validation of accuracy "by hand" ?

- A popular way : try the algorithm with different precision (using matlab for example) and compare the results
- ► Example (by Rump) : in FORTRAN on an IBM S/370, computing with x = 77617 and y = 33096 and x<sub>1</sub> = <sup>61.0</sup>/<sub>11</sub>,

$$f = 333.75y^{6} + x^{2}(11x^{2}y^{2} - y^{6} - 121y^{4} - 2) + 5.5y^{8} + x/(2y)$$

gives :

- in single precision, f = 1.172603...
- in double precision, f = 1.1726039400531...
- ▶ in extended precision, *f* = 1.172603940053178...
- We would deduce computation is correct ?
- ▶ True value is *f* = −0.82739... !!!





- The user chooses one among four rounding modes (rounding to the nearest which is the default mode, rounding towards +∞, rounding towards -∞, or rounding towards 0)
- ► The result of x \* y, \* being +, -, ×, / or of √x, is the rounded value of the real result (thus the rounding error is less than the ulp of the result)

 $\rightarrow$  Allows to prove some properties on programs using floating-point numbers





- Analysis of the source source, for a set of inputs and parameters, without executing it
- ► The program is considered as a discrete dynamical system
- Find in an automatic, and guaranteed way :
  - invariant properties (true on all trajectories for all possible inputs or parameters).

Example : bounds on values of variables

 liveness properties (that become true at some moment on one trajectory).

Examples : state reachability, termination





## But undecidable in general

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Thus abstraction to compute over-approximations of sets of values : Abstract Interpretation



The analysis must terminate, may return an over-approximated information ("false alarm"), but never a false answer





## Abstract Interpretation (Cousot & Cousot 77)

#### Theory of semantics approximation (operators, fixpoint transfers)







## Fixpoint computation

To automatically find local invariants :

- Abstract domain (lattice) for sets of value
- The semantic is given by a system of equations, of which we compute iteratively a fixpoint :

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ \dots \\ X_n \end{pmatrix} = F \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ \dots \\ X_n \end{pmatrix}$$

- F is non-decreasing, least fixpoint is the limit of Kleene iteration X<sup>0</sup> = ⊥, X<sup>1</sup> = F(X<sup>0</sup>), ..., X<sup>k+1</sup> = X<sup>k</sup> ∪ F(X<sup>k</sup>), ...
- Iteration strategies, extrapolation (called widenings) to reach a fixpoint in finite time



- ▶ Intervals [a, b] with bounds in  $\mathbb R$  with  $-\infty$  and  $+\infty$
- ▶ Smallest element  $\perp$  identified with all [a, b] with a > b
- Greatest element  $\top$  identified with  $[-\infty, +\infty]$
- ▶ Partial order :  $[a, b] \subseteq [c, d] \iff a \ge c$  and  $b \le d$
- ▶ Sup :  $[a, b] \cup [c, d] = [\min(a, b), \max(c, d)]$
- ▶ Inf :  $[a, b] \cap [c, d] = [\max(a, b), \min(c, d)]$





# Example

int x=0; // 1 
$$x_1 = [0,0]$$
  
while (x<100) { // 2  $x_2 = ] -\infty,99] \cap (x_1 \cup x_3)$   
x=x+1; // 3  $x_3 = x_2 + [1,1]$   
} // 4  $x_4 = [100, +\infty[\cap(x_1 \cup x_3)$ 

- Iterate i + 1 (i < 100) [Kleene/Jacobi/Gauss-Seidl] :

- Fixpoint (after 101 Kleene iterates or widening) :

$$x_2^{\infty} = [0, 99]; \ x_3^{\infty} = [1, 100]; \ x_4^{\infty} = [100, 100]$$



Abstract Interpretation of Floating-Point Computations

# Analysis of programs using floating-point numbers

What is a correct program when using floating-point numbers ?

- ► No run-time error, such as division by 0
- But also the program does compute what is expected with respect to some tolerance (the programmer usually thinks in real numbers)

For that, we need :

- Bounds of floating-point values (ASTREE, FLUCTUAT)
- Bounds on the discrepancy error between the real and floating-point computations (FLUCTUAT)
- If possible, the main source of this error (FLUCTUAT)



### Related work and tools

- The ASTREE static analyzer (see references)
  - Detection of run-time error for large synchronous instrumentation software
  - Using in particular octogons and domains specialized for order 2 filters (ellipsoids)
  - Taking floating-point arithmetic into account

http://www.astree.ens.fr/

- CADNA : estimation of the roundoff propagation in scientific programs by stochastic testing http://www-anp.lip6.fr/cadna/
- GAPPA : automatic proof generation of arithmetic properties http://lipforge.ens-lyon.fr/www/gappa/





# Analysis for the floating-point value

► First natural idea : Interval Arithmetic (IA) with floating-point bounds, where min bound computed with rounding to -∞ and max bound computed with rounding to +∞

• 
$$[a, b] + [c, d] = [a + c, b + d]$$

• 
$$[a, b] - [c, d] = [a - d, b - c]$$

 $\blacktriangleright [a, b] \times [c, d] = [\min(ac, ad, bc, bd), \max(ac, ad, bc, bd)]$ 

Defect : too conservative, non relational

- ► extreme example : if X = [-1, 1], X X computed in interval arithmetic is not 0 but [-2, 2]
- A solution : Affine Arithmetic, an extension of IA that takes linear correlations into account
  - but correlations true only for computations on real numbers



# Affine Arithmetic for real numbers

- Proposed in 1993 by Comba, de Figueiredo and Stolfi as a more accurate extension of Interval Arithmetic
- A variable x is represented by an affine form  $\hat{x}$  :

$$\hat{x} = x_0 + x_1 \varepsilon_1 + \ldots + x_n \varepsilon_n,$$

where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\varepsilon_i$  are independent symbolic variables with unknown value in [-1, 1].

- $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  is the *central value* of the affine form
- the coefficients  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$  are the *partial deviations*
- the  $\varepsilon_i$  are the noise symbols
- The sharing of noise symbols between variables expresses implicit dependency ortift



### Affine arithmetic : arithmetic operations

Assignment of a of a variable x whose value is given in a range [a, b] introduces a noise symbol ε<sub>i</sub> :

$$\hat{x} = \frac{(a+b)}{2} + \frac{(b-a)}{2}\varepsilon_i$$

Addition is computed componentwise (no new noise symbol):

$$\hat{x} + \hat{y} = (\alpha_0^x + \alpha_0^y) + (\alpha_1^x + \alpha_1^y)\varepsilon_1 + \ldots + (\alpha_n^x + \alpha_n^y)\varepsilon_n$$

For example, with real (exact) coefficients , f - f = 0.

Multiplication : we select an approximate linear form, the approximation error creates a new noise term :

$$\hat{x} \times \hat{y} = \alpha_0^x \alpha_0^y + \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha_i^x \alpha_0^y + \alpha_i^y \alpha_0^x) \varepsilon_i + (\sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i^x| \cdot |\sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i^y|) \varepsilon_{n+1}.$$

## Affine forms define implicit relations : example

Consider, with  $a \in [-1,1]$  and  $b \in [-1,1]$ , the expressions

$$x = 1 + a + 2 * b;$$

- z = x + y 2 \* b;
  - ► The representation as affine forms is  $\hat{x} = 1 + \epsilon_1 + 2\epsilon_2$ ,  $\hat{y} = 2 - \epsilon_1$ , with noise symbols  $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 \in [-1, 1]$
  - This implies  $x \in [-2, 4]$ ,  $y \in [1, 3]$
  - It also contains implicit relations, such as x + y = 3 + 2ǫ₂ ∈ [1,5] or x + y - 2b = 3: we thus get

$$z = x + y - 2b = 3$$

Whereas we get with intervals



$$z = x + y - 2b \in [-3,9]$$



# Affine forms and existing relational domains

- More expressive (less abstract) than zones or octogons [A. Mine]
- Close to dynamic templates [Z. Manna]
- Provides Sub-polyedric relations (there is a concretization to center-symmetric bounded convex polyedra)
- But by some aspects better than polyhedra [P. Cousot/N. Halbwachs]
  - ► for example, to interpret *non-linear computations* :
    - dynamic linearization of non-linear computations
  - much more efficient in computation time and memory
    - dynamic construction of relations
    - no static packing of variables needed





## Comparative example

Zones/polyhedra (with a simple semantics):

$$\left(\begin{array}{c}
0 \le x \le 2\\
0 \le y - x \le 2\\
0 \le z \le 8\\
-8 \le t \le 8
\end{array}\right)$$

Affine forms:

$$\begin{cases} x = 1 + \varepsilon_1 & \in [0, 2] \\ y = 2 + \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 & \in [0, 4] \\ z = 2.5 + 3 \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 + 1.5 \varepsilon_3 & \in [-3, 8] \\ t = -1.5 + 1.5 \varepsilon_3 & \in [-3, 0] \end{cases}$$
  
(in practice coupled with intervals, thus  $z \in [0, 8]$ )



# Concretisation of affine forms (x,y,z)



concretization of affine form finds  $z - 2x - y \in [-3, 0]$  with classical polyhedron





# Concretisation of affine forms (x,y,t)



concretization of affine form

with classical polyhedron





## Implementation using floating-point numbers

- For the computation of the affine form for the real value, the analyzer also uses finite precision arithmetic :
  - Affine form with floating point coefficients (with higher precision floating-point numbers, using the MPFR library)
  - Uncertainty in the computation of coefficients is handled by creating new noise terms





# Join (and meet) operations on affine forms

• Let  $[\alpha_i^x \cup \alpha_i^y] = [\alpha_i^x, \alpha_i^y]$  if  $\alpha_i^x \le \alpha_i^y$  else  $[\alpha_i^y, \alpha_i^x]$ 

• A natural join between  $\hat{x}$  and  $\hat{y}$  is

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} \cup \hat{\mathbf{y}} = [\alpha_0^{\mathbf{x}} \cup \alpha_0^{\mathbf{y}}] + \sum_{i \in L} [\alpha_i^{\mathbf{x}} \cup \alpha_i^{\mathbf{y}}] \varepsilon_i$$

Result might be greater than the union of enclosing intervals, but may be more interesting to keep correlations

▶ But with interval coefficients  $(\hat{x} \cup \hat{y}) - (\hat{x} \cup \hat{y}) \neq 0$ we get back to the defects of intervals



# Join (and meet) operations on affine forms

For an interval i, we note

$$\mathsf{mid}(\mathbf{i}) = \frac{\underline{i} + \overline{i}}{2}, \ \mathsf{dev}(\mathbf{i}) = \overline{i} - \mathsf{mid}(\mathbf{i})$$

the center and deviation of the interval.

A better join is then

$$\hat{x} \cup \hat{y} = \mathsf{mid}([\alpha_0^x, \alpha_0^y]) + \sum_{i \in L} \mathsf{mid}([\alpha_i^x, \alpha_i^y]) \varepsilon_i + \sum_{i \in L \cup \{0\}} \mathsf{dev}([\alpha_i^x, \alpha_i^y]) \varepsilon_k^u$$

- Then we have affine forms with real coefficients again
- Order on affine forms considers noise symbols due to join operations differently than noise symbols due to arithmetic operations



# Example (join)

Let  $\hat{x} = 1 + 2\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2$  and  $\hat{y} = 2 - \varepsilon_1$ .

- ▶ Join on intervals :  $[x] \cup [y] \in [-2, 4]$
- First join on affine forms :

• 
$$\hat{x} \cup \hat{y} = [1,2] + [-1,2]\varepsilon_1 + [0,1]\varepsilon_2 \subset [-2,5]$$

- larger enclosure than on intervals but it may still be interesting for further computations to keep relations
- Second join on affine forms :
  - $\hat{x} \cup \hat{y} = 1.5 + 0.5\varepsilon_1 + 0.5\varepsilon_2 + 2.5\varepsilon_3^u \subset [-2, 5]$
  - same enclosure, but  $(\hat{x} \cup \hat{y}) (\hat{x} \cup \hat{y}) = 0$



# Order on affine forms with real coefficients

For variable x, let α<sup>x</sup><sub>i</sub>, i ∈ L denote terms due to "classical" noise symbols and β<sup>x</sup><sub>k</sub> denote terms due to "union" noise symbols :

$$\hat{x} \leq \hat{y} \text{ iff } \sum_{i \in L \cup \{0\}} |\alpha_i^x - \alpha_i^y| \leq \sum_k |\beta_k^y| - \sum_k |\beta_k^x|$$

- Projection of "union" noise symbols on "classical" noise symbols in arithmetic operations
- Then we have a complete partial order (under some restrictions)



# Correctness of the semantics on affine forms

#### Affine forms define *implicit* relations

- the concretization of an affine form representing a variable must contain the concrete values of the variable
- and in whatever expression using the affine forms, the concretization as interval of the expression must contain the concrete values it can take
  - we must not introduce non-existing relations by undue sharing of noise symbols





## From real to floating-point computation

- Affine arithmetic uses symbolic properties of real number computation, such as associativity and distributivity of +, ×
- These properties do not hold exactly for floating-point numbers, thus affine arithmetic can not be directly used for floating-point estimation
- Example :
  - let  $x \in [0,2]$  and  $y \in [0,2]$ , we consider ((x + y) x) y.
  - with affine arithmetic:  $x = 1 + \varepsilon_1$ ,  $y = 1 + \varepsilon_2$  $((x + y) - x) - y = ((2 + \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2) - 1 - \varepsilon_1) - 1 - \varepsilon_2 = 0$
  - ▶ false in floating-point numbers : take x = 2 and y = 0.1, then in simple precision ((x + y) - x) - y = -9.685755e - 08





- Affine arithmetic for real number estimation
- Estimation of the loss of precision due to the use of floating-point numbers
  - using ideas from affine arithmetic
  - decomposition of errors on their provenance in the program
- We deduce bounds for the floating-point value





# Representation of values (concrete)

The set of floating-point values that a variable x can take is expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} f^{x} &= r^{x} + e_{1}^{x} + e_{ho}^{x} \\ &= r^{x} + \bigoplus_{i \in I} \alpha_{i}^{x} + e_{ho}^{x} \end{aligned}$$

where:

- r<sup>x</sup> is the real-number value that would have been computed if we had exact arithmetic available
- e<sup>x</sup><sub>ho</sub> is the higher-order error



$$\begin{array}{rcl} x & = & 0.1 + 1.49011612e^{-9} \ [1] \\ y & = & 0.5 \\ z & = & 0.6 + 1.49011612e^{-9} \ [1] + \\ & & 2.23517418e^{-8} \ [3] \\ t & = & 0.06 + 1.04308132e^{-9} \ [1] \\ & & +2.23517422e^{-9} \ [3] \\ & & -8.94069707e^{-10} \ [4] \\ & & -3.55271366e^{-17} \ [ho] \end{array}$$





- Affine Arithmetic for the real part  $r^x$  as already presented
- First natural idea: use interval arithmetic for coefficients α<sup>x</sup><sub>i</sub> and e<sup>x</sup><sub>ho</sub>
- Rounding errors given by the IEEE 754 standard:
  - in general, an interval of width ulp(x) when x is not just a singleton
- But of course, we run into dependency problems : affine arithmetic on errors also





### First-order errors

Also represented in affine arithmetic (with other noise symbols):

$$e_1^{\mathsf{x}} = \bigoplus_{l \in L} t_l^{\mathsf{x}} \eta_l + \bigoplus_{l \in L} t_l^{\mathsf{x}} + \bigoplus_{i \in I} t_i^{\mathsf{x}} \varepsilon_i + \beta_0^{\mathsf{x}} + \bigoplus_{p \in P} \beta_p^{\mathsf{x}} \vartheta_p$$

- ▶  $t_l^{\times}$ : center of the first-order error associated to the operation *l*
- t<sup>'x</sup><sub>l</sub> η<sub>l</sub>: deviation on the first-order error associated to the operation l
- the other terms are useful for modelling the propagation of the first-order error terms after non-linear operations
  - For instance, the term t<sup>'' × × y</sup> ε<sub>i</sub> comes from the multiplication of t<sup>×</sup><sub>i</sub> by α<sup>y</sup><sub>i</sub>ε<sub>i</sub>, and represents the uncertainty on the first-order error due to the uncertainty on the value, at label i
  - The multiplications ε<sub>i</sub>η<sub>i</sub> cannot be represented in our linear forms: we use a new noise symbol ϑ<sub>p</sub>



ortin

## Example : a non linear Newton scheme

Computes the inverse of A, that can take any value in [20,30] :

```
double xi, xsi, A, temp;
    signed int *PtrA, *Ptrxi, cond, exp, i;
    A = \_BUILTIN_DAED_DBETWEEN(20.0, 30.0);
    /* initial condition = inverse of nearest power of 2 */
    PtrA = (signed int *) (&A);
    Ptrxi = (signed int *) (&xi);
    exp = (signed int) ((PtrA[0] & 0x7FF00000) >> 20) - 1023;
    xi = 1; Ptrxi[0] = ((1023-exp) << 20);</pre>
    temp = xsi-xi; i = 0;
    while (abs(temp) > e-10) {
      xsi = 2*xi-A*xi*xi;
      temp = xsi-xi;
      xi = xsi;
      i++:
ortin
```



# Analysis of the inverse computation

#### Symbolic execution

- ► A = 20.0 : i = 5, xi = 5.0e-2 + [-2.82e-18,-2.76e-18]
- ► A = 30.0 : i = 9, xi = 3.33e-2 + [-5.28e-18,6.21e-18]

Static analysis for A in [20.0,30.0] :

- Non relational : analysis *does not prove termination* of the Newton algorithm
- ▶ Relational (with 10000 subdivisions) : analysis finds

i in [5,9], xi in [3.33e-2,5.0e-2]+ [-4.21e-13,4.21e-13]

 Study of this algorithm is not obvious (for example, execution of the same algorithm but with simple precision float variables does not always terminate)



#### Example : second-order filter

A new independent input E at each iteration of the filter:

```
double S,S0,S1,E,E0,E1;
int i:
S=0.0; S0=0.0;
E= BUILTIN DAED DBETWEEN(0,1,0);
EO= BUILTIN DAED DBETWEEN(0,1.0);
for (i=1:i<=170:i++) {</pre>
  E1 = E0:
  EO = E:
  E = BUILTIN DAED DBETWEEN(0,1,0);
  S1 = S0:
  SO = S:
  S = 0.7 * E - E0 * 1.3 + E1 * 1.1 + S0 * 1.4 - S1 * 0.7;
}
```





#### Relational analysis on values and errors :









Propagation of an error on the input:

- Each input has now an error in [0,0.001]
- Relational on errors : S in [-1.09,2.76], with a stabilized error in [-0.00109,0.00276]





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