Designing a Correct Numerical Algorithm

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Outline



2 Implementation theory

3 Error analysis

- 4 Sollya and polynomial approximations
- 5 Gappa and error bounds



Conclusion

Outline



- Introduction
- Vocabulary
- Basic concepts

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- as fast as crude implementations,
- high confidence in the correctness.

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- Functions are straight-line codes, so as to avoid costly control flow.
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- Algorithm and proof are devised at the same time.

Environment for high-confidence code developments:

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- Gappa: the floating-point side of the process.
 - Bounding round-off and global errors.

Running Example

Example (Exponential)

A floating-point implementation of the exponential function with a relative accuracy of 2^{-42} (but no correct rounding).

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A floating-point implementation of the exponential function with a relative accuracy of 2^{-42} (but no correct rounding).

Constraints:

- a C function working on binary64 numbers,
- for any finite input x and any finite output y,

$$\left|\frac{y}{\exp x}-1\right|\leq 2^{-42},$$

• efficiency!

Vocabulary

Definition (Precision and accuracy)

- Precision: number format used for input, output, and computations.
- Accuracy: quality of the results.

Vocabulary

Definition (Validation and verification)

How to ensure that a program/device is fit for a purpose?

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Definition (Certification and qualification)

- Certification: assessing software safety according to regulations.
- Qualification: making tools suitable for use during certification.

Basic Concepts: Floating-Point Arithmetic

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- Concise specification, suitable for program verification.
- It is all about real numbers:

 $\circ(x)$ is the real value of the floating-point number the closest to the real number x, given a format and a rounding mode.

Basic Concepts: Interval Arithmetic

Interval evaluations can serve as proofs of bounds, when they satisfy the containment property:

 $x \in I_x \land y \in I_y \implies x \diamond y \in I_z \text{ if } I_x \diamond I_y \subseteq I_z$

for $\diamond \in \{+, -, \times, \div\}$. Also for unary functions: $\sqrt{\cdot}$, sin, and so on.

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Arithmetic operations on intervals:

• [a, b] + [c, d] = [a + c, b + d],

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

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

•
$$[a, b] \div [c, d] = [a, b] \times [c, d]^{-1}$$

with $[c, d]^{-1} = [1/d, 1/c]$ if $0 \notin [c, d]$.

Outline



- Functions on computers
- Ingredients for an implementation
- Implementation schemes

Elementary functions implemented on Computers



Elementary functions implemented on Computers



Elementary functions implemented on Computers



Disclaimer for this section

• No multi-precision algorithms

- The input/output precisions are supposed to be known
- E.g. exp gets implemented on binary64 with 53 bits
- Implementation of exp with k bits of output precision is harder.
 - Refer to the MPFR library for that.
- No techniques especially developed for hardware
 - The different libms are implemented in software
 - Some processors do integrated specialized hardware
 - but it is less and less used for common libm usecases.
 - If it is used, it is on Intel/AMD, where it is microcode, i.e. software.
 - There are some specialized techniques for hardware, such as CORDIC.

Polynomial approximation

- How to implement $f = \exp(...)$
- ... on a small domain I = [-1; 1], to start with?



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- Solution: replace f by an approximation polynomial p
- Classes of polynomials:
 - Weierstraß tells us that the techniques always work
 - Taylor expansion as a first idea
 - Polynomials that minimize the maximum error on the domain.

Why polynomials?

- Why polynomials and no other approximants?
 - Why no (truncated) continued fractions?
 - Why no approximations with other base functions?
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 - Why no approximations with other base functions?
- A (almost) purely technological answer
 - $\bullet\,$ Fast hardware support for +, \times and FMA
 - Less performance for division (19 cycles on i5/i7)
 - The ability to explicitly compute the error for + and $\times \ldots \ldots$ but not for sin and log

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 - The ability to explicitly compute the error for + and $\times \ldots$ \ldots but not for sin and log
- This answer is not categorical.
 - Some functions are hard to approximate with polynomials: asin
 - We are doing software; things might be different in hardware.
 - There is a rich tool-chain for polynomials and almost nothing for the rest.

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- When the domain is large, the error explodes for a given degree
- or: a huge degree is needed to compensate.

Argument reduction

- Argument reduction reduces the range of the function
 - Use of algebraic properties of the function
 - Periodicity: sin
 - Autosimilarity: exp
 - Symmetry: asin
 - Use of the semi-logarithmic character of the FP formats
 - From space, convertToInteger and exp are kind of alike.
 - Fallback: splitting of the domain into subdomains.

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 - Fallback: splitting of the domain into subdomains.
- Example for exp:

$$e^{x} = 2^{\frac{x}{\log 2}} = 2^{\left\lfloor \frac{x}{\log 2} \right\rceil} \cdot 2^{\frac{x}{\log 2} - \left\lfloor \frac{x}{\log 2} \right\rceil} = 2^{E} \cdot e^{x - E \log 2} = 2^{E} \cdot e^{r}$$

Tabulation

- Periodicity and the semi-logarithmic FP are not enough
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- Idea: use a table
 - precompute the function at discrete points in a table
 - and have the polynomial cover the gaps between these points.
- Issue: function needs to be autosimilar so that it stays the same between all discrete points.

Tabulation - Example

Example for exp:

$$e^{x} = 2^{\frac{x}{\log 2}}$$

$$= 2^{2^{-\lambda} \lfloor 2^{\lambda} \frac{x}{\log 2} \rfloor} \cdot 2^{\frac{x}{\log 2} - 2^{-\lambda} \lfloor 2^{\lambda} \frac{x}{\log 2} \rfloor}$$

$$= 2^{E} \cdot 2^{2^{-\lambda} i} \cdot e^{x - k \cdot 2^{-\lambda} \log 2}$$

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where

$$k = \left\lfloor 2^{\lambda} \frac{x}{\log 2} \right\rfloor, E = \left\lfloor 2^{-\lambda} k \right\rfloor, i = k - 2^{\lambda} E, r = x - k 2^{-\lambda} \log 2.$$

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Here,

- $t: i \mapsto 2^{2^{-\lambda}i}$ is $t: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$, hence a table,
- where the index i is bounded by $0 \le i \le 2^{\lambda} 1$ and
- r, the reduced argument, is in a small domain $|r| \leq \frac{1}{2} 2^{-\lambda} \frac{1}{\log 2}$.

Reconstruction

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 - the function on the reduced domain
 - the functions $i \mapsto t[i]$ computed by the tables
 - the basic operations used in the reduction itself.
- The reconstruction phase recovers the original function f.
- Reconstruction code is often easier to write than argument reduction code.
 - Bit-fiddling for argument reduction
 - Pure basic FP operations (adds and muls) for reconstruction.
- However, reconstruction does yield to some error due to roundings.

Algorithm scheme for a function's implementation



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A toy exponential

```
// A very crude "toy" implementation of exp(x)
// About 42 bits of accuracy. No checks for NaN, Inf whatsoever.
double Exp(double x) {
  double z, n, t, r, P, tbl, y;
uint32_t E, idx, N;
  doubleCaster shiftedN . twoE:
 // Argument reduction
  z = x * TWO_4_RCP_LN_2;
                            // z = x * 2^4 * 1/ln(2)
  shifted N.d = z + TWO_52P_51; // shifted N.d = nearestint (z) + 2<sup>5</sup>2 + 2<sup>5</sup>1
  n = shiftedN.d - TWO_52_P_51; // n = nearestint(z) as double
                                    // N = nearestint(z) as integer
 N = shifted N \cdot i [LO];
                                    // E = floor(2^{-4} * N)
 E = N >> 4:
                                   // idx = N - E * 2^{4}
// t = n * 2^{-4} * ln(2)
  idx = N \& 0 \times 0f;
  t = n * TWO_M_4_N_2;
  \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{t}:
                                     1/r = x - t
 // Polynomial approximation p(r) approximates exp(r)
  P = c0 + r * (c1 + r * (c2 + r * (c3 + r * (c4 + r * c5))));
  // Table access
  tbl = table[idx];
                                     // tbl = 2^{(2^{-}-4)} * idx
  // Reconstruction
  twoE.i[HI] = (E + 1023) \ll 20;
                                    // twoE.d = 2^{E}
  twoE.i[LO] = 0:
  y = twoE.d * (tbl * P);
                                    // y = 2^{E} * tbI * P
  return y;
```

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- Floating-point formats have special values:
 - \bullet Infinities $\pm\infty$
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 - \bullet Infinities $\pm\infty$
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 - $\bullet~$ Zeros $\pm 0,$ with some semantics behind the sign
 - Subnormal numbers
- An implementation of f must handle these special values
 - in input, branching out before argument reduction
 - NaNs give NaNs with the same payload,
 - Infinities are handled with some limits semantics,
 - Subnormals must be renormalized as appropriate.
 - in output
 - Underflows and overflows where appropriate,
 - Domain errors yield NaNs.

Outline



- Error kinds and propagation
- Approximation
- Evaluation
- Argument reduction, result reconstruction

Error Kinds and Propagation

Definition (Absolute and relative errors)

Let \tilde{x} be a computed value and x an expected value.

- Absolute error: $\delta_x = \tilde{x} x$.
- Relative error: $\varepsilon_x = (\tilde{x} x)/x$.

(Gappa's definitions)

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- Relative error rules over floating-point arithmetic.
- It needs careful analysis in presence of addition:

$$\frac{(\tilde{x}+\tilde{y})-(x+y)}{x+y} = \frac{\delta_x+\delta_y}{x+y} \quad \text{when } x+y \to 0.$$

Definition

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Arbitrary classification.

Better look at them from a tool perspective.



Example (Truncation error for exponential) Input domain: $|r| \le 195103586506733 \cdot 2^{-53} \simeq 2^{-5.5}$. Expected result: e^r . Algorithm with infinitely-precise computations: $\hat{P}(r) = \sum_{i \le 5} c_i r^i$. Goal: bound $\hat{P}(r)/e^r - 1$.

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• $r \mapsto \hat{P}(r)/e^r$ is a C^{∞} function. All the methods from real analysis are available.

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- *P*(r) and e^r are close (by design),
 so be wary of tool results.
- Dedicated tool: Sollya.

Relative Truncation Error



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Polynomial Evaluation

Example (Round-off error for exponential) Input domain: $|r| \le 195103586506733 \cdot 2^{-53} \simeq 2^{-5.5}$. Algorithm with infinitely-precise computations: $\hat{P}(r) = \sum_{i \le 5} c_i r^i$. Computed value: $P(r) = \circ(c_0 + \circ(r \times \circ(c_1 + \ldots)))$. Goal: bound $P(r)/\hat{P}(r) - 1$.
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Polynomial Evaluation

Example (Round-off Global error for exponential) Input domain: $|r| \le 195103586506733 \cdot 2^{-53} \simeq 2^{-5.5}$. Algorithm with infinitely-precise computations: $\hat{P}(r) = \sum_{i \le 5} c_i r^i$. Computed value: $P(r) = \circ(c_0 + \circ(r \times \circ(c_1 + \dots)))$. Goal: bound $P(r)/\hat{P}(r) - 1$. Input error: $|r - \hat{r}| \le 184646756448821703 \cdot 2^{-100} \simeq 2^{-42.6}$. Truncation error: $|\hat{P}(r)/e^r - 1| \le 30567 \dots 0435 \cdot 2^{-129} \simeq 2^{-47.6}$. Goal: bound $P(r)/e^{\hat{r}} - 1$.

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- Note: the truncation error comes from Sollya.

Relative Round-Off Error



Relative Round-Off and Truncation Error



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Example (Input error for polynomial evaluation of exponential) Input domain: $|x| \le 800$. Reduction factor: $n = \lfloor \circ(x \cdot TWO_4_RCP_LN_2) \rceil$. Computed value: $r = \circ(x - \circ(n \times TWO_M_4_LN_2))$. Expected value: $\hat{r} = x - n \times \ln(2)/16$. Goal: bound $r - \hat{r}$.

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Result Reconstruction

Example (Final error for exponential)

Computed value: $y = \circ(2^E \times \circ(tbl \times P(r)))$. Expected value: $\hat{y} = e^x = 2^E \times (2^{idx/16} \times e^{\hat{r}})$. Goal: bound $y/\hat{y} - 1$.

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- Disclaimer: we have ignored the case where multiplying by 2^E causes an underflow.

Relative Global Error



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Outline

4 Sollya and polynomial approximations

- Polynomial approximation theory
- First ideas for polynomial approximation
- Interpolation polynomials
- Choosing the right interpolation points
- Remez polynomials
- Polynomial approximation with Sollya

- Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function...
- ... on a *small* domain $I = [a; b] \subset \mathbb{R}$.
- Also fix a target error $\overline{\varepsilon}$ to be satisfied.

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Example:

- Function: $f = \exp$
- Domain: $I = \left[-\frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}\right]$
- Target error: $\overline{\varepsilon} = 2^{-5}$ (5 correct bits)

- Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function...
- ... on a *small* domain $I = [a; b] \subset \mathbb{R}$.
- Also fix a target error $\overline{\varepsilon}$ to be satisfied.
- We need to compute a polynomial p of minimal degree n such that the error $\frac{p}{f} 1$ stays bounded by $\overline{\varepsilon}$ (in magnitude).

Example:

- Function: $f = \exp$
- Domain: $I = \left[-\frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2} \right]$
- Target error: $\overline{\varepsilon} = 2^{-5}$ (5 correct bits)

•
$$p(x) = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2$$
 $n = 2$

•
$$\|rac{p}{f} - 1\|_{\infty}^{\prime} pprox 3.05 \cdot 10^{-2} < 2^{-5}$$

Specifying polynomial approximation - cont'd

- Put differently, we need to
 - choose a degree *n* that seems to be sufficient, to
 - compute the coefficients c_i of a polynomial

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i x^i$$

- to consider the error $\frac{p}{f} 1$ yielded by p
- and to start over, increasing *n*, if it is too large.

Specifying polynomial approximation - cont'd

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- to consider the error $\frac{p}{f} 1$ yielded by p
- and to start over, increasing *n*, if it is too large.

But how to compute the coefficients c_i of the polynomial p?

Taylor polynomials

- First idea:
 - Let us take $x_0 \in I$
 - $f(x_0)$ approximates f(x) over I
 - $f(x_0) + (x x_0) \cdot f'(x_0)$ is better
 - $f(x_0) + (x x_0) \cdot f'(x_0) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (x x_0)^2 \cdot f''(x_0)$ works even better



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$$f(x) = \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(i)}(x_0)}{i!} \cdot (x - x_0)^{i}}_{=:p(x)} + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \cdot (x - x_0)^{n+1}}_{\text{Lagrange rest resp. error}}$$





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• This is the idea behind a Taylor expansion at x_0 :

$$f(x) = \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(i)}(x_0)}{i!} \cdot (x - x_0)^{i}}_{=:p(x)} + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \cdot (x - x_0)^{n+1}}_{\text{Lagrange rest resp. error}}$$

- The differential equations defining our functions are simple:
 - Taylor expansions are known for the functions in a libm

Issues with Taylor polynomials

Error of a Taylor polynomial p of degree 5 with respect to $f = \exp$:



Issues with Taylor polynomials

Error of a Taylor polynomial p of degree 5 with respect to $f = \exp$:



- The Taylor polynomial approximates the function best at the expansion point x₀: the error vanishes at x₀
- The error explodes at the extremities of I
- ⇒ p should approximate f well over the whole domain I, or, at least, the error should vanish several times on I

Christoph Lauter, Guillaume Melquiond

Interpolation polynomials

• A polynomial of degree *n*

- has n + 1 coefficients
- i.e. n+1 degrees of freedom
- It is defined by n + 1 points $(x_j, p(x_j))$

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- For the error p(x) f(x) to vanish at x_j, it suffices to have p(x_j) = f(x_j).
- The polynomial p interpolates the function f at x_j
- A interpolation polynomial for f is defined by n + 1 values x_j
 - There is one value per degree of freedom.
 - The ordinates $f(x_j)$ are trivial for f and x_j .

Example of an interpolation polynomial



Example of an interpolation polynomial



- The error vanishes at the interpolation points x_i
- By choosing the interpolation points, we can constrain the error to oscillate

Christoph Lauter, Guillaume Melquiond Designing a Correct Numerical Algorithm

Computing an interpolation polynomial

How can an interpolation polynomial be computed?

• We have
$$p(x_j) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x_j^i = f(x_j)$$
 for $n+1$ points x_j

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• Put differently, we have



• We know that Vandermonde matrix A and the r.h.s. \vec{f} .

- \Rightarrow solving that systems yields p
- Side note: special resolution algorithms for Vandermonde

Christoph Lauter, Guillaume Melquiond

Designing a Correct Numerical Algorithm

A chicken and egg problem

• We know that right-hand side \vec{f} .

A chicken and egg problem

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- So we can compute $f(x_j)$ for all x_j .
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- There is a chicken and egg problem:
 - We first need code to evaluate the $f(x_j)$
 - In a second step, we can compute interpolation polynomials to put them into code that computes *f*
- Practically:
 - We write multi-precision procedures for the functions
 - Those are based on *inefficient* Taylor polynomials in any case.
 - Then, we use these code in order develop a libm

Which interpolation points to choose?

The choice made for x_j has an influence on the error:
 Let p be a polynomial interpolating f at the x_j. Hence we have

$$f(x) = p(x) + \frac{1}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(\xi) \prod_{j=0}^{n} (x - x_j)$$

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- Chebyshev tried to minimize the error

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- Equidistant points are not optimal
- Chebyshev tried to minimize the error
- Remez has finally given an iterative algorithm
 - to compute the polynomial that is minimal w.r.t. the maximal error
 - The algorithm "just" chooses the right interpolation points

Equidistant points





Equidistant points





- This is better than Taylor: the error is 2.5 times less
- The error starts to oscillate
- The error still explodes at the extremities
 - \Rightarrow we should try to put more points near the extremities

Chebyshev interpolation nodes

• The error is to be minimized for the maximum norm $\| \quad \|_{\infty}$:

$$f(x) - p(x) = \frac{1}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(\xi) \prod_{j=0}^{n} (x - x_j)$$

• P. L. Chebyshev: try to minimize

$$\left\|\prod_{j=0}^n (x-x_j)\right\|_{\infty}$$



• Particular points for which this is the case over I = [a; b]:

$$x_j = a + \frac{b-a}{2} \cdot \left(\cos\left(\frac{2j-1}{2(n+1)}\right) + 1 \right)$$

• These are the Chebyshev interpolation nodes.

Chebyshev interpolation nodes - example

Error of p interpolating $f = \exp at$ the Chebyshev nodes:



Chebyshev interpolation nodes - example





• This is 10× better than for equidistant points!

Chebyshev interpolation nodes - example



Error of p interpolating $f = \exp at$ the Chebyshev nodes:

- This is $10 \times$ better than for equidistant points!
- It is not yet optimal: see plot
- There are functions where this sub-optimality is huge.

Remez polynomials

 Theorem (Chebyshev/ La Vallée-Poussin): The approximation polynomial is optimal iff all the extrema are the same height.

Theory Approx Interpolation Points Remez Sollya

Remez polynomials

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- E. Ya. Remez:
 - Directly interpolate f(x) + (−1)^j · ε where ε is the height of the sought extrema.
 - While the extrema are not at the same height, exchange the interpolation points with the points where the real extrema are located.

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- E. Ya. Remez:
 - Directly interpolate f(x) + (−1)^j · ε where ε is the height of the sought extrema.
 - While the extrema are not at the same height, exchange the interpolation points with the points where the real extrema are located.
- This is the Remez algorithm
- It converges towards the polynomial minimal undermaximum norm
- That is why it is also called minimax algorithm

Example: Remez polynomial



- The error is just a little smaller than for Chebyshev
- All the extrema are now at the same height

Yet another issue \rightarrow fpminimax

• Taylor, Chebyshev, Remez: polynomials with real coefficients

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_i x^i \quad c_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

• On computers, there are only FP numbers to store the c_i .

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• Taylor, Chebyshev, Remez: polynomials with real coefficients

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- On computers, there are only FP numbers to store the c_i .
- When rounding coefficient by coefficient, $\tilde{c}_i = \circ_{c_i}$, we destroy all the optimization work done by the Remez algorithm.
 - The oscillations disappear.
 - The error explodes.

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• Taylor, Chebyshev, Remez: polynomials with real coefficients

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- On computers, there are only FP numbers to store the c_i .
- When rounding coefficient by coefficient, $\tilde{c}_i = \circ_{c_i}$, we destroy all the optimization work done by the Remez algorithm.
 - The oscillations disappear.
 - The error explodes.
- Need to compute approximation polynomials with FP coefficients *n*

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} c_i x^i \quad c_i \in \mathbb{F}_k$$

- This is a hard discrete optimization problem
- Since 2006, there has been heuristic algorithms based on lattice reduction.

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Sollya: Functions and domains

```
> f:
exp(x)
> diff(f);
exp(x)
> f(x + 2)
exp(2 + x)
> dom;
[-0.25; 0.25]
> inf(dom);
-0.25
> sup(dom);
0.25
> plot(f, dom);
>
```

```
> f = exp(x); /* Define the function */
> dom = [-1/4; 1/4]; /* Define the domain */
                    /* Display f */
                    /* Differentiate f */
                    /* Compose f with x + 2 */
                    /* Display the domain */
                    /* Lower bound of the domain */
                    /* Upper bound of the domain */
               /* Plot the function */
```

Sollya: The remez command

```
> p = remez(f, n , dom); /* Remez polynomial */
> p;
1.0000001061667289247812...
>
```

Theory Approx Interpolation Points Remez Sollya

Sollya: Looking at the error

Sollya: Optimizing for absolute or relative error

```
> f = log(1 + x); /* Define the function */
> dom = [-1/4;1/4]; /* Define the domain */
                   /* Set degree n to 5 */
> n = 5:
> p = remez(f, n , dom); /* Remez polynomial */
> err = p/f - 1;  /* Define the rel. error */
> plot(err, dom); /* Plot the error */
> /* Recompute Remez polynomial for rel. error */
> p = remez(1, [| 1,...,n |], dom, 1/f);
> err = p/f - 1; /* Define the rel. error */
> plot(err, dom);
                       /* Plot the error */
```

Sollya: Computing and bounding the maximum error

```
> n = 5;
                 /* Set degree n to 5 */
> p = remez(1, n , dom, 1/f); /* Remez polynomial */
> err = p/f - 1; /* Define the rel. error */
> /* Compute supremum norm to get max. error */
> errmax = supnorm(p, f, dom, relative, 2<sup>(-10)</sup>);
> errmax:
[1.0576...e-8; 1.0586...e-8]
> superrmax = sup(errmax);
> log2(superrmax);
-2.649...e1
```

Sollya: The fpminimax command

```
> n = 5;
                      /* Set degree n to 5 */
> /* fpminimax with double prec. coeffs. */
> p = fpminimax(f, n, [|D...|], dom);
> err = p/f - 1; /* Define the rel. error */
> errmax = supnorm(p, f, dom, relative, 2<sup>(-10)</sup>);
> superrmax = sup(errmax);
> log2(superrmax);
-2.649...e1
> display = hexadecimal;
Display mode is hexadecimal numbers.
> for i from 0 to degree(p) do coeff(p,i);
0x1.0000002c62a0cp0
0xf.fffff4495ce78p-4
```

Sollya: Computing the optimal degree

```
> f = exp(x);
               /* Define the function */
> dom = [-1/4;1/4]; /* Define the domain */
> targeterr = 2^-20; /* Define target error */
> nmax = 18;
                      /* Set max. degree */
> n = 1;
> okay = false;
> while (!okay && (n <= nmax)) do {
      p = fpminimax(f, n, [|D...|], dom);
      errmax = sup(supnorm(p, f, dom, relative,
         2^{(-10)};
      if (errmax <= targeterr) then okay = true;
     n = n + 1;
 };
> okay;
true:
> degree(p);
4
```

Advertisement: Sollya vs. Maple

- Both Maple and Sollya...
 - implement the Remez algorithm
 - have a plot command
 - support some means to estimate the supremum norm $\left\| p/f 1 \right\|_\infty$

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 - has trouble, in Remez, with relative errors and functions that vanish,
 - implements the plot command with HW FP arithmetic.
 As the error is often less than 2⁻⁵³, the plot shows nonsense.
 - Finally, Maple always *underestimates* the supremum norm.

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• ~> Use Sollya!

Outline



(5) Gappa and error bounds

- Gappa's overview
- Gappa's inner workings
- Debugging proofs
- Proof hints

Gappa

Objective: help users verify/analyze their numerical applications.

Gappa

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- The tool verifies enclosures of mathematical expressions.
- These expressions can contain rounding operators to express limitations and properties of datatypes.
- Formal proofs are generated to provide confidence in the results.

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- Formal proofs are generated to provide confidence in the results.

How does it work?

- Interval arithmetic for propagating enclosures.
- Theorems about rounded values and round-off errors.
- Rewriting rules for tightening computed enclosures.

Bounding Expressions by Numeric Intervals

Basic element: an enclosure $e \in I$.

- *e* is an expression on real numbers:
 - $e ::= number \mid -e \mid \circ(e) \mid e + e \mid e \times e \mid \sqrt{e} \mid \ldots$
- I = [a, b] is an interval with dyadic rational bounds: $m \times 2^n$.

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- I = [a, b] is an interval with dyadic rational bounds: $m \times 2^n$.

These enclosures are appropriate to express questions that usually arise when verifying numerical applications:

- no overflow, no invalid operations, etc
 - variable domain: $\tilde{x} \in I$,
- accuracy of computed values
 - absolute error: $\tilde{x} x \in I$,
 - relative error: $(\tilde{x} x)/x \in I$.

Rounding Operators

Example (Floating-point arithmetic)

float<53,-1074,ne>(x) is a number

- writable with 53 bits,
- multiple of 2^{-1074} ,
- closest to x when rounding to nearest, with tie break to even mantissas.

In other words, it is the default binary64 rounding of x.

It can also be written float<ieee_64,ne>(x).
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Example (Fixed-point arithmetic)

fixed<-16,dn>(x) is a number

- multiple of 2⁻¹⁶,
- closest to x when rounding toward $-\infty$.

In other words, it is $2^{-16} \cdot \lfloor x \cdot 2^{16} \rfloor$.

Syntax

```
# 1. Macros for expressions and rounding operators
one = 1;
one_third = float<ieee_32,ne>(1 / 3);
@D = float<ieee_64,ne>;
y = D(1 + D(x * one_third));
y_too D= one + x * one_third;
# 2. Logical formula to prove
{
    x in [1,2]
    ->
    one + 1 in [2,2] /\
    y - (1 + x * (1 / 3)) in ? # question mode
}
# 3. Hints for Gappa
```

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```

Intro Implem Errors Sollya Gappa Norm Conc

Overview Process Debug Hints

Gappa Script for Exponential

```
@rnd = float<ieee_64,ne>;
```

v - / Mtbl * f in ?

```
TWO 4 RCP LN 2 = rnd(2.308312065422341419207441504113376140594482421875e1);
TWO M 4 LN 2 = rnd(4.33216987849965803891727489371987758204340934753418e-2):
c0 = rnd(1.000000000000444089209850062616169452667236328125);
c1 = rnd(0.9999999999999998134825318629737012088298797607421875);
c_2 = rnd(0.499999999828379615429696514183888211846351623535156);
c_3 = rnd(0.1666666666666806587454585653063077188562601804733276367);
c4 = rnd(4.1667643527348190157777452213849755935370922088623e-2);
c5 = rnd(8.3331924949543046549083058494034048635512590408325e-3);
x = rnd(x): # the input
n = int \langle ne \rangle (rnd(x * TWO_4_RCP_LN_2));
r rnd= x - n * TWO_M_4_LN_2; # the reduced argument
Mr = x - n * Mln2div16:
p rnd= c0 + r * (c1 + r * (c2 + r * (c3 + r * (c4 + r * c5))));
Mp = c0 + Mr * (c1 + Mr * (c2 + Mr * (c3 + Mr * (c4 + Mr * c5))));
y rnd= tbl * p; # the value computed by the implementation
My = Mtbl * Mp;
  # all the hypotheses, including bounds by Sollya
  |x| <= 800 <sup>™</sup>
  |TWO M 4 LN 2 -/ Mln2div16| <= 1b-53 //
  |tbl -/ Mtbl| <= 34497432307204232637036148220926061792329570434285b-218 /\
  Mtbl in [1.2] /\
  |Mp -/ f| <= 3056780333711934143700435b-129
- >
  # what is the relative global error?
```

Dependent Expressions and Interval Evaluation

Example

Compute the range of $\frac{\tilde{u}\cdot\tilde{v}-u\cdot v}{u\cdot v}$ knowing that:

- domains of u, v, \tilde{u} , and \tilde{v} are [1, 100];
- values are related: $\left|\frac{\tilde{u}-u}{u}\right| \leq 0.1$ and $\left|\frac{\tilde{v}-v}{v}\right| \leq 0.2$.

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Interval evaluation:

$$\frac{\tilde{u} \cdot \tilde{v} - u \cdot v}{u \cdot v} \in \frac{[1, 100] \times [1, 100] - [1, 100] \times [1, 100]}{[1, 100] \times [1, 100]} \\
\in \frac{[1, 10000] - [1, 10000]}{[1, 10000]} \\
\in [-9999, 9999]$$

Dependent Expressions and Interval Evaluation

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Interval evaluation:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \frac{\tilde{u} \cdot \tilde{v} - u \cdot v}{u \cdot v} &\in & \frac{[1, 100] \times [1, 100] - [1, 100] \times [1, 100]}{[1, 100] \times [1, 100]} \\ &\in & \frac{[1, 10000] - [1, 10000]}{[1, 10000]} \\ &\in & [-9999, 9999] \quad \text{Bad!} \end{array}$$

Naive interval arithmetic does not track dependencies between values.

Rewriting Expressions to Exhibit Dependencies

Example

Compute the range of $\frac{\tilde{u}\cdot\tilde{v}-u\cdot v}{u\cdot v}$ knowing that

• values are related: $\left|\frac{\tilde{u}-u}{u}\right| \leq 0.1$ and $\left|\frac{\tilde{v}-v}{v}\right| \leq 0.2$.

Solution: make dependencies explicit.

$$\frac{\tilde{u}\cdot\tilde{v}-u\cdot v}{u\cdot v}=\frac{\tilde{u}-u}{u}+\frac{\tilde{v}-v}{v}+\frac{\tilde{u}-u}{u}\times\frac{\tilde{v}-v}{v}$$

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Solution: make dependencies explicit.

$$\frac{\tilde{u} \cdot \tilde{v} - u \cdot v}{u \cdot v} = \frac{\tilde{u} - u}{u} + \frac{\tilde{v} - v}{v} + \frac{\tilde{u} - u}{u} \times \frac{\tilde{v} - v}{v}$$

Interval evaluation:

$$\frac{\tilde{u} \cdot \tilde{v} - u \cdot v}{u \cdot v} \in [-0.1, 0.1] + [-0.2, 0.2] + [-0.1, 0.1] \times [-0.2, 0.2] \\ \in [-0.32, 0.32]$$

Rewriting Expressions to Exhibit Dependencies

Example

Compute the range of $\frac{\tilde{u}\cdot\tilde{v}-u\cdot v}{u\cdot v}$ knowing that

• values are related: $\left|\frac{\tilde{u}-u}{u}\right| \leq 0.1$ and $\left|\frac{\tilde{v}-v}{v}\right| \leq 0.2$.

Solution: make dependencies explicit.

$$\frac{\tilde{u} \cdot \tilde{v} - u \cdot v}{u \cdot v} = \frac{\tilde{u} - u}{u} + \frac{\tilde{v} - v}{v} + \frac{\tilde{u} - u}{u} \times \frac{\tilde{v} - v}{v}$$

Interval evaluation:

$$\frac{\tilde{u} \cdot \tilde{v} - u \cdot v}{u \cdot v} \in [-0.1, 0.1] + [-0.2, 0.2] + [-0.1, 0.1] \times [-0.2, 0.2]$$
$$\in [-0.32, 0.32]$$

Gappa automatically rewrites expressions in order to get tight enclosures when computing error bounds.

Gappa's Inner Workings

Massage the user goal into a simple logical formula:

$$e_1 \in I_1 \land \cdots \land e_n \in I_n \implies e_{n+1} \in I_{n+1}.$$

- Guess expressions and instances of theorems potentially useful as intermediate steps for bounding e_1, \dots, e_{n+1} .
- Assuming that e₁ ∈ I₁, · · · , e_n ∈ I_n hold, perform a saturation on the selected theorems until the enclosure e_{n+1} ∈ I_{n+1} is proved.
 (Keep track of the theorems as they are applied.)
- Generate a formal proof.

$$BND(x, I) \equiv x \in I$$
 | x in I

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Overview Process Debug Hints

Expression Properties

Gappa handles more than just enclosures:

Variants: $x \le c$, $x \ge c$, $|x| \le c$, $|x - / y| \le c$. Question mode: replace "in I" by "in ?".

Example (Wrong)

The relative round-off error is bounded:

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{ float < ieee_64, ne >(x) -/ x in ? }
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Example (Correct)

But only outside the subnormal range:

```
{ |x| in [1e-6,1e6] ->
    |float<ieee_64,ne>(x) -/ x| <= 1b-53 }</pre>
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{ float <ieee_64, ne>(x + y) -/ (x + y) in ? }
```

Example (Correct)

But only if the inputs are floating-point numbers:

```
@rnd = float<ieee_64,ne>;
x = rnd(x_); y = rnd(y_);
{ |rnd(x + y) -/ (x + y)| <= 1b-53 }</pre>
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Example (Minimal)

Actually, that is how Gappa does the proof:

```
@rnd = float <53, -1074, ne>;
{ @FIX(z, -1074) -> |rnd(z) -/ z| <= 1b-53 }</pre>
```

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{ int < dn > (x + y) - (y + x) in ?}

```
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{ int <dn>(x + y) - (y + x) in ? }
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Example (Too easy)

Gappa is guided by the syntax and structure of expressions:

```
{ int dn > (x + y) - (x + y) in [-1,0] }
```

```
Example (Dependencies)
{ x in [0,1] -> x * (1 - x) in ? } # [0,1]
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Example (Dependencies)

{ x in $[0,1] \rightarrow x * (1 - x)$ in ? } # [0,1]

Example (Sub-intervals)

```
\{x \text{ in } [0,1] \rightarrow x * (1 - x) \text{ in } \} \# [0,0.375]
$ x; # $ x in 4;
# x in [0,0.25] [0.25,0.5] [0.5,0.75] [0.75,1]
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```

Example (Rewriting)

```
{ x in [0,1] \rightarrow x * (1 - x) in [0,0.25] }
x * (1 - x) \rightarrow 1/4 - (x - 1/2) * (x - 1/2);
```

Example (Exponential) Why does the script for exponential fail?

```
{ |x| <= 800 /\
    |TWO_M_4_LN_2 -/ Mln2div16| <= 1b-53 /\
->
    r in ? /\ # |r| <= 2^(10.6)
    p in ? } # |p| <= 2^(46.3)</pre>
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Example (Sub-intervals)

\$ x;

gives $|r| \le 2^{8.6}$ and $|p| \le 2^{36.3}$. So there are dependencies!

Example (Argument reduction)

 $n = \lfloor \circ (x \cdot \mathsf{TWO_4_RCP_LN_2}) \rfloor.$

 $\hat{r} = x - n \cdot \hat{c}$ with $\hat{c} = \ln 2/16$.

Note: x appears twice in \hat{r} , hence the overestimation.

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Example (Rewriting hint for Gappa) # any property on the lhs can be obtained from the rhs x - n * Mln2div16 -> x * (1 - TWO_4_RCP_LN_2 * Mln2div16) - (n - x * TWO_4_RCP_LN_2) * Mln2div16;
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- Compute and use the error between y and x: y ~ x;
- Use y when looking for properties of x
 - always: x -> y;
 - only when a constraint is met: $x \rightarrow y \{z \ge 3\}$;

Outline

6 Supremum norm

- Verified supremum norms
- Previous approaches for supremum norms
- Sollya's supremum norm approach
- Supremum norm algorithm
- Supremum norms on polynomials
- Taylor Models
- Use of the supremum norm algorithm in Sollya

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- The algorithm should be able to generate a formal certificate.

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Eliminate sub-intervals:

 $\stackrel{\text{$\sim\sim$}}{\to} \text{If } \varepsilon(I) \subseteq [-\ell, \ell], \text{ eliminate } I. \\ \stackrel{\text{$\sim\sim$}}{\to} \text{If } \varepsilon'(I) \not\supseteq 0 \text{ eliminate } I. \\ \end{aligned}$

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Increase ℓ :

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First case: $h \gg \|\varepsilon\|_{\infty}$

Designing a Correct Numerical Algorithm

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This phenomenon appears at several orders:

$$\begin{split} \|\varepsilon\|_{\infty} &= 1.4\text{e}{-19}, \\ \|\varepsilon'\|_{\infty} &= 5.6\text{e}{-17}, \\ \|\varepsilon''\|_{\infty} &= 7.3\text{e}{-15}, \\ |\varepsilon^{(3)}\|_{\infty} &= 5.6\text{e}{-13}, \\ |\varepsilon^{(4)}\|_{\infty} &= 3.0\text{e}{-11}, \\ \|\varepsilon^{(5)}\|_{\infty} &= 1.2\text{e}{-9}, \\ \|\varepsilon^{(6)}\|_{\infty} &= 3.8\text{e}{-8}. \end{split}$$

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In conclusion: general-purpose techniques of GO useless.

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- Accept any function *f* defined by an expression.
- Guaranteed *a priori* quality η of the result.
- Correctly handles the removable discontinuities in usual cases.
- Could generate a complete formal proof without much effort.
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 - They are often very reliable.
 - **2** They give a rigorous lower bound ℓ .
- Algorithm:

Numerically find the zeros of ε' : $L = [z_1, \ldots, z_k]$; for $i \leftarrow 1$ to k— $[a_i, b_i] \leftarrow |\varepsilon([z_i, z_i])|$; end $\ell \leftarrow \max |a_i|$; return ℓ ;

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- The actual difficulty is in finding a rigorous upper bound
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• Algorithm computeLowerBound(ε , I, η) returns ℓ such that

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \ell \leq \|\varepsilon\|_{\infty} & \text{rigorously}, \\ \left|\frac{\|\varepsilon\|_{\infty}-\ell}{\ell}\right| \leq \eta & \text{with a high level of confidence.} \end{array} \right.$$

Intro Implem Errors Sollya Gappa Norm Conc

Our algorithm, absolute error case

• Assumption: procedure findPolyWithGivenError (f, I, δ) computing a polynomial T (with a sufficient degree) such that $||T - f||_{\infty} \leq \delta$.

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- Our algorithm:

$$\begin{split} \ell &\leftarrow \text{computeLowerBound}(p - f, I, \eta/32); \\ m' &\leftarrow \ell (1 + \eta/2); \quad u \leftarrow \ell (1 + 31\eta/32); \quad \delta \leftarrow 15\ell \eta/32; \\ T &\leftarrow \text{findPolyWithGivenError}(f, I, \delta); \\ s_1 &\leftarrow m' - (p - T); \quad s_2 \leftarrow m' - (T - p); \\ \text{if showPositivity}(s_1, I) \land \text{showPositivity}(s_2, I) \\ \text{then return } (\ell, u); \\ \text{else return } \bot; \end{split}$$

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- Let $T \leftarrow \texttt{findPolyWithGivenError}(f, I, \delta)$. By triangle inequality (most likely)

$$\|\boldsymbol{p} - \boldsymbol{T}\|_{\infty} \le \ell \left(1 + \eta'\right) + \delta. \tag{1}$$

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- Problem: how can we prove it?
- Idea: proving polynomial inequalities is easier.
- Let $T \leftarrow \texttt{findPolyWithGivenError}(f, I, \delta)$. By triangle inequality (rigorously)

$$\left\| \boldsymbol{p} - \boldsymbol{T} \right\|_{\infty} \le \ell \left(1 + \eta' \right) + \delta.$$
 (1)

- This inequality can be formally checked.
 - \rightsquigarrow Using Equation (1), we get the rigorous bound:

$$\begin{aligned} \|p-f\|_{\infty} &\leq \|p-T\|_{\infty} + \|T-f\|_{\infty} \\ &\leq \ell (1+\eta') + 2\delta. \end{aligned}$$







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Our algorithm: absolute error case

$$\begin{split} \ell &\leftarrow \text{computeLowerBound}(p - f, I, \eta/32); \\ m' &\leftarrow \ell (1 + \eta/2); \quad u \leftarrow \ell (1 + 31\eta/32); \quad \delta \leftarrow 15\ell \eta/32; \\ T &\leftarrow \text{findPolyWithGivenError}(f, I, \delta); \\ s_1 &\leftarrow m' - (p - T); \quad s_2 \leftarrow m' - (T - p); \\ \text{if showPositivity}(s_1, I) \land \text{showPositivity}(s_2, I) \\ \text{then return } (\ell, u); \\ \text{else return } \bot; \end{split}$$

- The algorithm may fail:
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- The algorithm may fail:
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- Important point: the algorithm never lies.
- Failure cases were never encountered in practice.
- Possible solutions in case of failure:
 - Cut the interval into sub-intervals.
 - Call computeLowerBound with a smaller parameter (e.g. $\eta/1024$).

• Absolute error: $\|p - T\|_{\infty} \leq m'$ if and only if

$$orall x \in I, \left\{ egin{array}{c} m' - p(x) + T(x) \geq 0 \ m' + p(x) - T(x) \geq 0. \end{array}
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• Relative error: $\| p/T - 1 \|_\infty \leq m'$ if and only if

$$\forall x \in I, \begin{cases} m' |T(x)| - p(x) + T(x) \ge 0\\ m' |T(x)| + p(x) - T(x) \ge 0. \end{cases}$$

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• Moreover the core of the algorithm proves that

$$\forall x \in I, \ \Big(|f(x)| \ge F \quad ext{and} \quad |f(x) - T(x)| \le \delta \le F \Big).$$

Hence, T has a constant sign over I.

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 In any case, proving the supremum norm of a polynomial is equivalent to proving polynomial inequalities.

Proving a polynomial inequality

In order to prove that $\forall x \in [a, b], q(x) > 0$ where q is a polynomial:

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where the s_i are polynomials.

- Found by an efficient, possibly heuristic, algorithm.
- Once found: there just remains a polynomial equality to prove.
- Particularly interesting for a formal proof.

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- findPolyWithGivenError obtained from findPoly by a simple bisection over *n*.
- This strategy may not terminate
 ~> case of failure of the algorithm.

- Popular implementation of findPoly(f, I, n): Taylor Models.
- Taylor Model of degree n of f over I: (T, Δ) such that

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 $\rightarrow \frac{(x - \frac{x^2}{2}, [-7e - 3, 7e - 3])}{(x + \frac{x^2}{2}, [-3e - 3, 3e - 3])}$ leads to an infinite remainder... ... though it represents $\sin(x)/(\exp(x) - 1)$ (perfectly defined by continuity).

Modified Taylor Models

• Develop f at one of its zeros z:

$$f(x) = 0 + a_1 (x - z) + \dots + a_n (x - z)^n + O(x - z)^{n+1}$$

 \rightsquigarrow the information f(z) = 0 is readable in the development.

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- Idea: represent the coefficients of *T* with small intervals enclosing the actual value.
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- Moreover, keep $(x z)^{n+1}$ factored out in the remainder.

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Modified Taylor Models

A modified Taylor Model of f over I, developed at x_0 is (T, Δ) where:

• T has (narrow) interval coefficients.

$$\forall x \in I, \ \exists \delta \in \mathbf{\Delta}, \quad f(x) - T(x - x_0) = (x - x_0)^n \, \delta$$

Sollya: Computing and bounding the maximum error

```
> n = 5;
                 /* Set degree n to 5 */
> p = remez(1, n , dom, 1/f); /* Remez polynomial */
> err = p/f - 1; /* Define the rel. error */
> /* Compute supremum norm to get max. error */
> errmax = supnorm(p, f, dom, relative, 2<sup>(-10)</sup>);
> errmax:
[1.0576...e-8; 1.0586...e-8]
> superrmax = sup(errmax);
> log2(superrmax);
-2.649...e1
```

Outline



- Conclusion
- Perspectives
- References

What We Showed Today

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- that is efficient and rather accurate,
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- with global error bounds verified by Gappa.

Conclusion Perspectives Refs

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- that is guaranteed not to have unsafe executions (*e.g.* arithmetic overflow, out-of-bound array access),
- that is formally proved to be correct.

Conclusion Perspectives Refs

What We Could Not Have Shown Today

Even if we had wanted to

How to implement a mathematical function

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What We Could Not Have Shown Today

Even if we had wanted to

- for an arbitrary accuracy,
- with a bound on the average error.

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- Floating-point functions verified directly on their C code.

Annotated Newton Algorithm for Square Root

```
/*@ requires 0.5 <= x <= 2;</pre>
  @ ensures abs(\result - 1/\sqrt(x)) \le 0x1p-6 * abs(1/\sqrt(x)); */
double sqrt_init(double x);
/* lemma quadratic_newton: \forall real x, t; x > 0 ==>
      \det err = (t - 1 / \operatorname{sqrt}(x)) / (1 / \operatorname{sqrt}(x));
      (0.5 * t * (3 - t * t * x) - 1 / \operatorname{sqrt}(x)) / (1 / \operatorname{sqrt}(x)) ==
        - (1.5 + 0.5 * err) * (err * err); */
/*@ requires 0.5 <= x <= 2;</pre>
  @ ensures abs(result - sqrt(x)) \le 0x1p-43 * abs(sqrt(x)): */
double sart(double x)
  int i:
  double t. u:
  t = sart init(x):
  /*@ loop pragma UNROLL 4:
    @ loop invariant 0 <= i <= 3: */</pre>
  for (i = 0; i <= 2; ++i) {
    u = 0.5 * t * (3 - t * t * x);
    //@ assert \abs(u - 0.5 * t * (3 - t * t * x)) <= 1;
    /* assert \let err = (t - 1 / \sqrt(x)) / (1 / \sqrt(x));
          (0.5 * t * (3 - t * t * x) - 1 / sqrt(x)) / (1 / sqrt(x)) ==
          -(1.5 + 0.5 * err) * (err * err); */
    //@ assert abs(u - 1 / sqrt(x)) \le 0x1p-10 * abs(1 / sqrt(x));
   t = u;
  3
  //@ assert x * (1 / \sqrt(x)) == \sqrt(x);
  return x * t;
3
```

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