Semantics Transformation of Arithmetic Expressions

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Abstract. Floating-point arithmetics is an important source of errors in programs because of the precision loss arising during a computation. Unfortunately, this arithmetics is not intuitive (e.g. many elementary operations are not associative, inversible, etc.) making the debugging phase very difficult and empiric.
This article introduces a new kind of program transformation in order to automatically improve the accuracy of floating-point computations. We use P. Cousot and R. Cousot’s framework for semantics program transformation and we propose an offline transformation. This technique was implemented and first experimental results are presented.

1 Introduction

In this article, we introduce a new kind of program transformation in order to improve the precision of the evaluation of arithmetic expressions in floating point arithmetic. We consider that an expression implements a formula obeying to usual mathematics. This means that, in particular, the evaluation of the formula in infinite precision yields an exact result and that algebraic rules like associativity, commutativity or distributivity do not modify the meaning of a formula. However, floating point arithmetic differs strongly from real number arithmetic: the values have a finite number of digits and the algebraic laws mentioned earlier do not hold longer. Consequently, the evaluation by a computer of mathematically equivalent formulas (for example $x \times (1 + x)$ and $x + x^2$) leads to possibly very different results.

Our work is motivated by the fact that, in programs, errors due to floating-point arithmetic are very difficult to understand and to rectify. Recently, validation techniques based on abstract interpretation have been developed to assert the numerical accuracy of these calculations [13, 8] but, while these tools enable one to detect the imprecisions and, possibly, to understand their origin, they do not help the programmer to correct the programs. Unfortunately, floating-point arithmetics is not intuitive, making the debugging phase very difficult and empiric: there exists no methodology to improve the accuracy of a computation, at most a set of tricks like “sort numbers increasingly before adding them” or “use Horner’s method to evaluate a polynomial”. Performing these transformations
by hand is tedious because the computer arithmetic is subtle. Therefore, their automatization is of great practical interest. Even if static analysis techniques have already given rise to industrially usable tools to assert the numerical precision of critical codes [8, 9], there is an important gap between validation and automatic correction. To our knowledge, this article is the first attempt in that new direction.

We introduce a new kind of program transformation, in order to automatically improve the “quality” of an arithmetic expression with respect to some evaluation criterion: the precision of floating point computations. We use P. Cousot and R. Cousot’s framework for semantics program transformation [6] by abstract interpretation [5] and we propose an offline transformation. Using the methodology of [6] enables us to define a semantics transformation that would be far more difficult to obtain at the syntactic level since there is no strong syntactic relation between the source and transformed expressions.

For the sake of simplicity, we restrict ourselves to arithmetic expressions, neglecting, in this first work, the statements of a full programming language. However, our techniques are not specific to expressions and can be extended to complete programming languages.

The main steps of our methods are the following: first, we introduce a non-deterministic small-step operational semantics for the evaluation of real expressions. Basically, algebraic laws like associativity, commutativity or distributivity make it possible to evaluate the same expression in many different ways (all confluent to the same final result). Next, the same semantics is applied to the floating point arithmetic. In this case, different evaluations of an expression yield different results because the algebraic laws of the reals do not work any longer. Then we compute the quality of each execution path of the floating point arithmetic based semantics by means of a non-standard domain (e.g. the global error arithmetic developed for validation of floating point computation [13, 12]). However, because there are too many paths in the previous semantics, we define a new abstract semantics in which sets of traces are merged into abstract traces. Basically, we merge traces in which sub-expressions have been evaluated approximatively in the same way, using abstract expressions of limited height. The semantics transformation then consists of computing (approximatively) the execution path which optimize the quality of the evaluation and the correctness of the transformation stems from the fact that, at the observational level (i.e. in the reals), all the execution paths that we consider lead to the same final result. Other classical abstractions of sets of numbers by intervals is used, in order to deal with sets of values and to find the best expression for a range of inputs. A prototype has been implemented and we also present some experimental results.

The rest of this article is organized as follows: Section 2 gives an overview of our transformation and of the semantics we use. Section 3 and Section 4 introduce the concrete and abstract semantics. The transformation is presented in Section 5 and experiment results are given in Section 6. Sections 7 and 8 are dedicated to perspectives and concluding remarks.
2 Overview

As mentioned in the introduction, we aim at transforming arithmetic expressions in order to improve the precision of their evaluation in floating point arithmetic. For example, let us consider the simple formula which computes the area of a rectangular parallelepiped of dimension $a \times b \times c$ (see Figure 1):

$$A = 2 \times ((a \times b) + (b \times c) + (c \times a))$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

and let us consider a thin parallelepiped of dimensions $a = 1 \quad b = c = \frac{1}{9}$.

With these values, the examination of Equation (1) reveals that $ab \gg ac$ and $ab \gg bc$ and it is well-known that, in floating-point arithmetic, adding numbers of different magnitude may lead to important precision loss: if $x \ll y$ then, possibly, $x +_\mathbb{F} y = y$ (this is called an absorption). In our example, absorptions arise in the direct evaluation of $A$. The transformation introduced in this article enables to automatically rewrite the original expression (where $d = 2$):

$$d*(((a*b)+(b*c))+(c*a))$$

into the new expression:

$$(((c*a)*d)+(d*(b*c)))+(d*(a*b))$$

In this new formula, the smallest terms are summed first. Furthermore, the product is distributed and this avoids to multiply the roundoff errors of the additions by a large value.

The transformation of arithmetic expressions relies on several semantics which are summarized below.

(i) $\rightarrow_{\mathbb{F}}$ is the concrete semantics based on the floating point arithmetic. This semantics exactly computes the evaluation of an expression $e$ by a computer. $\rightarrow_{\mathbb{F}}$ is defined in Section 3.1.

(ii) $\rightarrow_{\mathbb{R}}$ is the concrete semantics based on real number arithmetic. In $\mathbb{R}$, algebraic rules hold, like associativity, distributivity, etc. $\rightarrow_{\mathbb{R}}$ is defined in Section 3.2.

(iii) $\rightarrow_{\mathbb{E}}$ is the non standard semantics based on the arithmetic of floating point numbers with global errors. This semantics calculates the exact global error between a real computation and a floating point computation [12]. $\rightarrow_{\mathbb{E}}$ is the abstract semantics based on $\rightarrow_{\mathbb{F}}$ where values are abstracted by intervals. $\rightarrow_{\mathbb{E}}$ and $\rightarrow_{\mathbb{E}}^*$ are defined in Section 3.3 and Section 4.2, respectively.
(iv) → is the non standard semantics used to define our abstract interpretation. 
→ is defined in Section 4.1.
(v) \( A^k \) is the abstract semantics. \( k \) is parameter which defines the precision of the semantics. \( A^k \) is defined in Section 4.2.

3 Concrete Semantics of Expressions

In this Section, we introduce our most simple semantics of expressions, for floating point arithmetic, for real arithmetics and for floating point numbers with global errors (the semantics \( \rightarrow_F \), \( \rightarrow_R \) and \( \rightarrow_E \) mentioned in Section 2). \( \rightarrow_F \) is the semantics used by a computer which comply to the IEEE754 Standard [1], \( \rightarrow_R \) is used in the correctness proofs where it plays the role of observer [6] and \( \rightarrow_E \) is used to define non standard and abstract semantics of programs.

For the shake of simplicity, we only consider elementary arithmetic expressions generated by the grammar:

\[
e ::= v \mid x \mid e_1 + e_2 \mid e_1 \times e_2
\]

where \( v \) denotes a value and \( x \in \text{Id} \) a constant whose value is given by a global environment. These global variable are implemented in our prototype and introduce no theoretical difficulty. We omit them in the all the formal semantics.

3.1 Floating Point Arithmetic Based Semantics

The semantics \( \rightarrow_F \) just defines how an expression is evaluated by a computer, following the IEEE754 Standard for floating point arithmetic.

Let \( \uparrow_\circ : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{F} \) be the function which returns the roundoff of a real number following the rounding mode \( \circ \in \{\circ_{-\infty}, \circ_{+\infty}, \circ_0, \circ_\sim\} \) [1]. \( \uparrow_\circ \) is fully specified by the IEEE754 Standard which also requires, for any elementary operation \( \diamond \), that:

\[
x_1 \diamond_F,\circ x_2 = \uparrow_\circ (x_1 \diamond_R x_2)
\]

Equation (3) states that the result of an operation between floating point numbers is the roundoff of the exact result of this operation. In this article, we also use the function \( \downarrow_\circ : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) which returns the roundoff error. We have \( \downarrow_\circ (r) = r - \uparrow_\circ (r) \).

The floating point arithmetic based semantics of expressions is defined by the rules of Figure 2. This semantics is obvious but we will need it to prove the correctness of the transformation, in Section 4.3.

3.2 Real Arithmetic Based Semantics

We consider that the exact evaluation of the expressions of Equation (2) is given by the real arithmetic. So, we define the reduction rules \( \rightarrow_R \) by assuming that any value \( v \) belongs to \( \mathbb{R} \) and by using the reduction rules of Figure 3 in which \( \oplus \) and \( \otimes \) stand for \( +_R \) and \( \times_R \) (the addition and product between real numbers).
The rules of equations (4) to (7) are straightforward. The rule of Equation (8) relies on the syntactic relation \(\equiv\) defined as being the smallest equivalence relation containing the relations 1 to 7 of Figure 3. \(\equiv\) identifies arithmetic expressions which are equal in the reals, using associativity, distributivity and the neutral elements of \(\mathbb{R}\). Equation (8) makes our transition system non-deterministic: there exists many reduction paths to evaluate the same expression. However, in \(\mathbb{R}\), this transition system is (weakly) confluent and all the evaluations yield the same final result. This is summed up by the following property in which \(\rightarrow_R^*\) denotes the transitive closure of \(\rightarrow_R\).

**Property 1** Let \(e\) be an arithmetic expression. If \(e \rightarrow_R e_1\) and \(e \rightarrow_R e_2\) then there exists \(e'\) such that \(e_1 \rightarrow_R^* e'\) and \(e_2 \rightarrow_R^* e'\).

3.3 Global Error Semantics

To define the global error semantics \(\rightarrow_E\), we first introduce the domain \(E = F \times \mathbb{R}\). Intuitively, in a value \((x, \mu) \in E\), \(\mu\) measures the distance between the floating
point result of a computation \( x \) and the exact result. The elements of \( E \) are ordered by \((x_1, \mu_1) \prec (x_2, \mu_2) \iff \mu_1 \leq \mu_2\).

For example, we can use the semantics \( \mathbb{I}_E \) of [12] which computes the floating-point number resulting from a calculation on a IEEE754 compliant computer as well as the error arising during the execution. Formally, in \( \mathbb{I}_E \), a value \( v \) is denoted by a pair \((x, \mu)\) where \( x \in \mathbb{F} \) denotes the floating point number used by the computer and \( \mu \in \mathbb{R} \) denotes the exact error attached to \( x \).

For example, in simple precision, the real number \( \frac{1}{3} \) is represented by the value \( x = (\uparrow \circ (\frac{1}{3}), \downarrow \circ (\frac{1}{3})) = (0.333333, (\frac{1}{3} - 0.333333)) \). The semantics interprets a constant \( c \) by \((\uparrow \circ (c), \downarrow \circ (c))\) and, for \( v_1 = (x_1, \mu_1) \) and \( v_2 = (x_2, \mu_2) \), the operations are defined by:

\[
\begin{align*}
v_1 +_E v_2 &= (\uparrow \circ (x_1 +_R x_2), [\mu_1 + \mu_2 + \downarrow \circ (x_1 +_R x_2)]) \tag{9} \\
v_1 \times_E v_2 &= (\uparrow \circ (x_1 \times_R x_2), [\mu_1 x_2 +_R \mu_2 x_1 +_R \mu_1 \mu_2 +_R \downarrow \circ (x_1 \times_R x_2)]) \tag{10}
\end{align*}
\]

The global semantics \( \rightarrow_E \) is defined by the reduction rules of equations (4) to (8) of Figure 3 and by the domain \( E \) for the values. The operators \( \oplus \) and \( \otimes \) are the addition \( +_E \) and the product \( \times_E \).

Similarly to the semantics \( \rightarrow_R \) of Section 3.2, \( \rightarrow_E \) is non-deterministic since it also uses the rule of Equation (8) based on the syntactic relation \( \equiv \). However, in \( E \), the operations neither are associative or distributive and the reduction paths no longer are confluent.

**Remark 2** In general, for an arithmetic expressions \( e \), there exists reductions steps \( e \rightarrow_E e_1 \) and \( e \rightarrow_E e_2 \) such that there exists no expression \( e' \) such that \( e_1 \rightarrow_E^* e' \) and \( e_2 \rightarrow_E^* e' \).

Nonetheless, the arithmetic \( E \) provides a way to compare the different execution paths of \( \rightarrow_E \) using the error measure \( \mu \) attached to each value. We may consider that a path \( e \rightarrow_E (x_1, \mu_1) \) is better than another path \( e \rightarrow_E (x_2, \mu_2) \) if \( \mu_1 \prec \mu_2 \). The code transformation introduced in the next sections consists of building a new arithmetic expression from the minimal trace corresponding to the evaluation of an expression \( e \). But because there are possibly an exponential number of traces corresponding to the evaluation of \( e \), we first merge some of them into abstract traces. The transformation is then based on the minimal abstract trace.

### 4 Abstract Semantics

The abstract semantics \( \rightarrow_k \), introduced in Section 4.2, relies on the non-standard semantics \( \rightarrow \) of Section 4.1. In Section 4.3, we prove the correctness of the abstraction.
4.1 Non Standard Semantics

Basically, the non standard semantics records, during a computation, how each intermediary result (sub-expression reduced to a value) was obtained. A label \( \ell \in \mathcal{L} \) is attached to each value occurring in the expressions and we use two environments: \( \rho : \mathcal{L} \to \text{Expr} \) maps any label \( \ell \) to the expression \( e \) whose evaluation has lead to \( v^\ell \). \( \sigma : \text{Expr} \to E \) maps expressions to the result of their evaluation in the domain \( E \). We let \( \text{Env}_\rho \) and \( \text{Env}_\sigma \) denote the sets of such environments. This information is useful in the abstract semantics of Section 4.2.

Initially, a unique label is attached to each value occurring in an expression and a fresh label is associated to the result of each operation. For example, assuming that initially \( \rho(\ell_1) = 1^{\ell_1} \), \( \rho(\ell_2) = 2^{\ell_2} \), and \( \rho(\ell_3) = 3^{\ell_3} \), the expression \( (1^{\ell_1} + (2^{\ell_2} + 3^{\ell_3})) \) is evaluated as follows in the non standard semantics:

\[
\begin{align*}
(\rho, \sigma, (1^{\ell_1} + (2^{\ell_2} + 3^{\ell_3}))) &\rightarrow (\rho', \sigma', 1^{\ell_1} + 5^{\ell_3}) \rightarrow (\rho'', \sigma'', 6^{\ell_3})
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \rho' = \rho[\ell_1 \mapsto 1^{\ell_1} + 2^{\ell_2} + 3^{\ell_3}] \), \( \sigma' = \sigma[2^{\ell_2} + 3^{\ell_3} \mapsto 5] \), \( \rho'' = \rho'[\ell_5 \mapsto 1^{\ell_1} + (2^{\ell_2} + 3^{\ell_3})] \) and \( s'' = \sigma''[1^{\ell_1} + (2^{\ell_2} + 3^{\ell_3}) \mapsto 6] \).

In the example above, for the shake of simplicity, values are integers instead of values of \( E \).

The non standard semantics is given in Figure 4. We assume that, initially, \( \rho(\ell) = v^\ell \) for any value \( v^\ell \) occurring in the expression. Equations (11) and (12) respectively perform an addition and a product in \( E \). A new label \( \ell \) is assigned to the result \( v \) of the operation and the environment \( \rho \) is extended in order to relate \( \ell \) to the expression which has been evaluated. Similarly, \( \sigma \) is extended in order to record the result of the evaluation of the expression. The other rules only differ from the rules of the concrete semantics in that they propagate the environments \( \rho \) and \( \sigma \).

4.2 Abstract Semantics

In order to decrease the size of the non standard semantics, the abstract semantics merges traces in which sub-expressions have been evaluated approximatively.

\[
\begin{align*}
(\rho, \sigma, v_0^{\ell_0} + v_1^{\ell_1}) &\rightarrow (\rho[\ell \mapsto \rho(\ell_1) + \rho(\ell_2)], \sigma[\rho(\ell_1) + \rho(\ell_2) \mapsto v], v^\ell) \\
(\rho, \sigma, v_0^{\ell_0} \times v_1^{\ell_1}) &\rightarrow (\rho[\ell \mapsto \rho(v_1^{\ell_1}) \times \rho(v_2^{\ell_2})], \sigma[\rho(\ell_1) \times \rho(\ell_2) \mapsto v], v^\ell)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
(\rho, \sigma, v_0 \times v_1) &\rightarrow (\rho, \sigma', e_2) \\
(\rho, \sigma, v_0 + v_1) &\rightarrow (\rho, \sigma', e_2 + e_1)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
(\rho, \sigma, e_0) &\rightarrow (\rho', \sigma', e_2) \\
(\rho, \sigma, e_0 \times e_1) &\rightarrow (\rho', \sigma', e_2 \times e_1)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\ell \notin \text{Dom}(\rho) &\rightarrow v = v_1 + v_2 \\
\ell \notin \text{Dom}(\rho) &\rightarrow v = v_1 \times v_2
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\begin{align*}
(\rho, \sigma, v_0^{\ell_0} + v_1^{\ell_1}) &\rightarrow (\rho[\ell \mapsto \rho(\ell_1) + \rho(\ell_2)], \sigma[\rho(\ell_1) + \rho(\ell_2) \mapsto v], v^\ell) \\
(\rho, \sigma, v_0^{\ell_0} \times v_1^{\ell_1}) &\rightarrow (\rho[\ell \mapsto \rho(v_1^{\ell_1}) \times \rho(v_2^{\ell_2})], \sigma[\rho(\ell_1) \times \rho(\ell_2) \mapsto v], v^\ell)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
(\rho, \sigma, v_0 \times v_1) &\rightarrow (\rho, \sigma', e_2) \\
(\rho, \sigma, v_0 + v_1) &\rightarrow (\rho, \sigma', e_2 + e_1)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
(\rho, \sigma, e_0) &\rightarrow (\rho', \sigma', e_2) \\
(\rho, \sigma, e_0 \times e_1) &\rightarrow (\rho', \sigma', e_2 \times e_1)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
e \equiv e_1 &\rightarrow (\rho, \sigma, e_1) \rightarrow (\rho', \sigma', e_2) \\
(\rho, \sigma, e_0) &\rightarrow (\rho', \sigma', e_3)
\end{align*}
\]

Fig. 4. The non-standard semantics.
in the same way. More precisely, instead of the environments \(\rho\) and \(\sigma\), we use abstract environments \(\rho^\#\) mapping labels to abstract expressions of limited height and abstract environments \(\sigma^\#\) mapping expressions of limited height to unions of values. Next, we merge the paths in which sub-expressions have been evaluated almost in the same way, i.e. by the same abstract expressions.

From a formal point of view, the set \(\text{Expr}_k^\#\) of abstract expressions of height at most \(k\) is recursively defined by:

\[
\begin{align*}
\eta_0 &::= v^\ell | \top_{\eta} \\
\eta_k &::= \eta_{k-1} | \eta_{k-1} + \eta_{k-1} | \eta_{k-1} \times \eta_{k-1} \\
\end{align*}
\]

The values occurring in the abstract expressions belong to the abstract domain \(\mathbb{E}\). Let \(\wp(X)\) denote the powerset of \(X\), abstract and concrete floating point numbers with errors are related by the Galois connection:

\[
\langle \wp(\mathbb{E}), \subseteq \rangle \cong \langle \mathbb{E}, \sqsubseteq^\# \rangle
\]

This connection abstracts sets of values of \(\mathbb{E}\) by intervals in a componentwise way. \(\sqsubseteq^\#\) is the componentwise inclusion order on intervals.

An expression \(e\) of arbitrary height can be abstracted by \(\eta \in \text{Expr}_k^\#\) by means of the operator \(\llbracket e \rrbracket^\#\) recursively defined as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\llbracket v^\ell \rrbracket^\# &:= v^\ell, \quad k \geq 0 \\
\llbracket \top_{\eta} \rrbracket^\# &:= \top_{\eta}, \quad k \geq 0 \\
\llbracket e_1 + e_2 \rrbracket^\# &:= e_1^\# + e_2^\#, \quad k \geq 1 \\
\llbracket e_1 \times e_2 \rrbracket^\# &:= e_1^\# \times e_2^\#, \quad k \geq 1 \\
\end{align*}
\]

Intuitively, \(\llbracket e \rrbracket^\#\) replaces in \(e\) all the nodes of height \(k\) which are not values by \(\top_{\eta}\).

The abstract semantics, given in Figure 5, uses reduction rules of the form \(\langle \rho^\#, \sigma^\#, e \rangle \xrightarrow{A_k} \langle \rho'^\#, \sigma'^\#, e' \rangle\). \(k\) is a parameter of the semantics and \(A\) is an action indicating which operation is actually performed by a transition. Actions are used to build a new arithmetic expression from a trace and are detailed in Section 5. The environment \(\rho^\# : \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \wp(\text{Expr}_k^\#)\) maps labels to sets of abstract expressions. \(\sigma^\# : \text{Expr}_k^\# \rightarrow \mathbb{A}\) maps abstract expressions to abstract values. \(\text{Env}_\rho^\#\) and \(\text{Env}_\sigma^\#\) denote the sets of such environments. Intuitively, \(\eta \in \text{Expr}_k^\#\) abstracts a set \(S\) of expressions and \(\sigma^\#\) relates \(\eta\) to an abstract value containing all the possible values resulting from the evaluation of \(e \in S\).

\(\sigma^\#(\eta \mapsto v^\#)\) denotes the environment \(\sigma^\#\) extended by \(\sigma^\#(\eta) = v^\#\) and

\[
\sigma_{\eta \in S, \ v^\# = f(\eta)}
\]

is a shortcut for \(\sigma_{\eta_1 \mapsto f(\eta_1) | \eta_2 \mapsto f(\eta_2) \ldots | \eta_n \mapsto f(\eta_n)}\), for all \(\eta_i, 1 \leq i \leq n\), such that \(\eta_i \in S\).
In Figure 5, Equation (17) and Equation (18) are used for the addition and for the product of two values, respectively. Let \( v_1^0 + v_1^1 \) be the current expression, \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \) result from the evaluation of some expressions \( \nu_1 \in \rho^2(\ell_1) \) and \( \nu_2 \in \rho^2(\ell_2) \) (we assume that, initially, \( \rho^2(\ell) = \nu \) for any value \( \nu \) occurring in the expression). So, \( v^2 = \sigma^2(\eta_1) + \sigma^2(\eta_2) \). In Equation (17), the result \( v^2 \) of the addition is obtained by joining the sums of all the possible operands in \( \sigma^2(\eta_1) \) and in \( \sigma^2(\eta_2) \), for all the possible abstract expressions \( \nu_1 \in \rho^2(\ell_1) \) and \( \nu_2 \in \rho^2(\ell_2) \). Next, a fresh label \( \ell \) is attached to \( v^2 \) and \( \rho^2 \) is modified by assigning to \( \ell \) the set \( \nu \) of abstract expressions which have possibly been used to compute \( v^2 \). Finally, \( \sigma^2 \) is updated: it is extended by assignments \( [\eta \mapsto \sigma^2(\eta) \cup \nu] \) where \( \eta \) is one of the possible expressions used to compute \( v \) and \( \nu \) is the corresponding abstract value.

Equation (18) is similar to Equation (17) and equations (19) and (20) present no difficulty. Equation (21) is similar to equations (8) and (15): it introduces non-determinism in the semantics by means of a syntactic equivalence relation but now we use a new relation \( \equiv_k \) instead of the previous relation \( = \).

**Definition 3** Let \( \sim_k \subseteq \text{Expr} \times \text{Expr} \) be the equivalence relation defined by:

\[
e \sim_k e' \iff \gamma e \sim_k \gamma e'
\]

\( \equiv_k \subseteq \text{Expr} \times \text{Expr} \) is the quotient relation \( = / \sim_k \).
Let us remark that \(\equiv_k\) is coarser than \(\equiv\) (which means that \(\equiv\subseteq\equiv_k\)) and that, while the \(\equiv\)-class \(\text{CL}_{\equiv}(e)\) of an expression \(e\) contains all the expressions generated by the rules 1 to 7 of Figure 3, the \(\equiv_k\)-class \(\text{CL}_{\equiv_k}(e)\) contains only one element of each \(~_k\) class among the \(\equiv\)-equivalent elements.

At each step, our concrete and abstract semantics generate one new path per element of the equivalence class of the current expression. \(\equiv_k\) being coarser than \(\equiv\), the number of paths of the semantics based on \(\equiv_k\) is smaller than the number of paths of the semantics based on \(\equiv\).

**Property 4** Let \(e\) be an expression of size \(n\).

(i) In the worst case, the \(\equiv\)-class of \(e\) contains \(O(\exp(n))\) elements.

(ii) In the worst case, the \(\equiv_k\)-class of \(e\) contains \(O(n^k)\) elements.

This property states that the number of expressions \(\equiv_k\)-equivalent to a given expression \(e\) is polynomial, of degree \(k\), in the size of \(e\). A worst case consists of taking a sequence of sums \(x_1 + x_2 + \ldots + x_n\) which, by associativity, can be evaluated in \(n!\) ways using \(\equiv\) and in \(n^k\) ways using \(\equiv_k\), where \(k\) is a user-defined parameter of the semantics.

### 4.3 Correctness of the Abstract Semantics

In this Section, we show that the abstract semantics of Section 4.2 is a correct abstraction of the non-standard semantics of Section 4.1.

First, we relate the environments used in the non-standard semantics and in the abstract semantics by the connections:

\[
\langle \wp(\text{Env}_\rho), \subseteq \rangle \xrightarrow{\alpha^\rho_{\equiv_k}} \langle \text{Env}^\wp_{\rho,k}, \sqsubseteq \rangle
\]

and

\[
\langle \wp(\text{Env}_\sigma), \subseteq \rangle \xrightarrow{\alpha^\sigma_{\equiv_k}} \langle \text{Env}^\wp_{\sigma,k}, \sqsubseteq \rangle
\]

The partial order and abstraction and concretization functions for the first kind of environments are defined by:

\[
\rho^1_\ell \subseteq_\rho \rho^2_\ell \iff \forall \ell \in \text{Dom}(\rho^1_\ell), \ \rho^1_\ell(\ell) \subseteq \rho^2_\ell(\ell)
\]

\[
\alpha^\rho_k(R) = \rho^\ast : \forall \ell \in \mathcal{L}, \ \rho^\ast(\ell) = \bigcup_{\rho \in R} \rho(\ell)^{\sim_k}
\]

\[
\gamma^\rho_k(\rho^\ast) = \{ \rho \in \text{Env}_\rho : \forall \ell \in \mathcal{L}, \ \tau \rho(\ell)^{\sim_k} \in \rho^\ast(\ell) \}
\]

The environment \(\rho^1_\ell\) is smaller than \(\rho^2_\ell\) if, for any label \(\ell\), the set \(\rho^1_\ell(\ell)\) is a subset of \(\rho^2_\ell(\ell)\). The abstraction \(\alpha^\rho_k(R)\) of a set \(R = \{\rho_1, \rho_2, \ldots, \rho_n\}\) of environments is the abstract environment \(\rho^\ast\) which maps any label \(\ell\) to the set of the abstract expressions \(\tau e^{\sim_k}\) such that \(\rho_i(\ell) = e\) for some \(1 \leq i \leq n\). Conversely, \(\gamma^\rho_k\) is the set of environments \(\rho\) which map \(\ell\) to an expression \(e\) such that \(\tau e^{\sim_k} = \rho^\ast(\ell)\). Similarly, we have for the second kind of environments:

\[
\sigma^1_\eta \subseteq_\sigma \sigma^2_\eta \iff \forall \eta \in \text{Dom}(\sigma^1_\ell), \ \sigma^1_\ell(\eta) \subseteq_\delta^k \sigma^2_\ell(\eta)
\]
\[ \alpha_k^A(S) = \sigma^A : \forall \eta \in \text{Expr}^A_k, \ \sigma^A(\eta) = \alpha(\{\sigma(\eta), \ \sigma \in S\}) \]  
(28)

\[ \gamma^A_k(\sigma^A) = \{\sigma \in \text{Env}_\sigma : \forall e \in \text{Expr}, \ \sigma(e) \in \gamma(\sigma^A(\text{Env}_\sigma))) \]  
(29)

\( \sigma^A_1 \) is smaller than \( \sigma^A_2 \) if \( \sigma^A_1 \) maps any abstract expression \( \eta \) to a smaller abstract value than \( \sigma^A_2 \). The abstraction \( \alpha^A_k \) and concretization \( \gamma^A_k \) are based on the Galois connection introduced in Section 3.3 to relate concrete and abstract values.

Let \( \langle \rho, \sigma, e \rangle \xrightarrow{\nu} \langle \rho', \sigma', v \rangle \) and \( \langle \rho^A, \sigma^A, e \rangle \xrightarrow{\nu^A} \langle \rho'^A, \sigma'^A, v^A \rangle \) denote sequences of reductions steps of length \( n \) in the non standard and abstract semantics, yielding final values \( v \) or \( v^A \). The following property holds.

**Property 5** If \( \langle \rho, \sigma, e \rangle \xrightarrow{n} \langle \rho', \sigma', v \rangle \) and if \( e \subseteq \rho^A \) and \( e \subseteq \sigma^A \) then \( \langle \rho^A, \sigma^A, e \rangle \xrightarrow{n} \langle \rho'^A, \sigma'^A, v^A \rangle \) such that \( v \in \gamma(v^A) \), \( \alpha^A_k(\rho') \subseteq \rho^A \) and \( \alpha^A_k(\sigma') \subseteq \sigma^A \).

Property 5 states that for any path of length \( n \), in the non standard semantics which leads to a value \( v \), there exists a path of the abstract semantics of length \( n \) which leads to a value \( v^A \) such that \( v \in \gamma(v^A) \).

**Proof**

The proof is by induction on the length \( n \) of the reduction sequence. If \( n = 1 \) then \( e = e_1 + e_2 \) or \( e = e_1 \times e_2 \). Let us assume that \( e = e_1 + e_2 \). Let \( v = v_1 + v_2 \). In the non standard semantics we have:

\[ \langle \rho, \sigma, e \rangle \xrightarrow{1} \langle \rho[\ell \mapsto \rho(\ell_1) + \rho(\ell_2)], \sigma[\rho(\ell_1) + \rho(\ell_2) \mapsto v], v^\ell \rangle \]

In the abstract semantics we have \( \langle \rho^A, \sigma^A, e \rangle \xrightarrow{A} \langle \rho'^A, \sigma'^A, v^A \rangle \) with:

\[ v^A = \bigcup \sigma^A(\eta_1) + \sigma^A(\eta_2), \eta_1 \in \rho^A(\ell_1), \eta_2 \in \rho^A(\ell_2) \]

Since \( \rho(\ell_1) = v_1 + v_2 \), \( \rho(\ell_2) = v_1 \times v_2 \), since, by hypothesis, \( \alpha^A_k(\rho) \subseteq \rho^A \) and \( \alpha^A_k(\sigma) \subseteq \sigma^A \), and since in a Galois connection \( \gamma \circ \alpha \) is extensive \( R \subseteq \gamma^A_k(\alpha^A_k(R)) \) and \( S \subseteq \gamma^A_k(\alpha^A_k(S)) \), we have \( v_1 \in \gamma(\sigma^A(\rho^A(\ell_1))) \) and \( v_2 \in \gamma(\sigma^A(\rho^A(\ell_2))) \). Consequently, \( v \in \gamma(v^A) \).

The proof for \( n = 1 \) is completed without difficulty by showing that \( \alpha^A_k(\rho') \subseteq \rho^A \) and \( \alpha^A_k(\sigma') \subseteq \sigma^A \) with \( \rho' = \rho[\ell \mapsto \rho(\ell_1) + \rho(\ell_2)] \) and \( \sigma' = \sigma[\rho(\ell_1) + \rho(\ell_2) \mapsto v] \).

Now, we assume that the property holds for any \( m \leq n \) and we consider a sequence of length \( n + 1 \). We distinguish two cases:

- **Rules of Equation (13) and Equation (14):** if \( \langle \rho, \sigma, e_1 \rangle \xrightarrow{\alpha_k^A} \langle \rho', \sigma', e_2 \rangle \) then \( \langle \rho^A, \sigma^A, e_1 \rangle \xrightarrow{A_k} \langle \rho'^A, \sigma'^A, e_2 \rangle \). By induction hypothesis, \( \alpha^A_k(\rho') \subseteq \rho^A \) and \( \alpha^A_k(\sigma') \subseteq \sigma^A \). Now, \( \langle \rho', \sigma', e_1 \rangle \xrightarrow{n} \langle \rho'', \sigma'', v \rangle \) and we may apply again our induction hypothesis.

- **Rule of Equation (15):** let us assume that \( e \equiv e_1 \). Then, since, by definition of \( \equiv_k \), \( e \equiv e_1 \Rightarrow e \equiv_k e_1 \) and \( e_2 \equiv e_3 \). So, in the abstract semantics we have:

\[ e \equiv_k e_1 \xrightarrow{A_k} \langle \rho^A, \sigma^A, e_1 \rangle \xrightarrow{A_k} \langle \rho'^A, \sigma'^A, e_2 \rangle \xrightarrow{A_k} \langle \rho^A, \sigma^A, e_3 \rangle \]
Then we can complete the proof, by induction, in the same way than in the previous case.

□

5 Semantics Transformation

The concrete semantics of an arithmetic expression is the floating point semantics \( \rightarrow_F \) defined in Section 3.1. Indeed, this is the only semantics which indicates how an expression is actually evaluated by a computer. Given an expression \( e \) and its (unique) execution trace \( t = e \rightarrow^*_F v \), the semantics transformation has to generate a new trace \( t' = e' \rightarrow^*_F v' \) such that \( t \) and \( t' \) are equal at some observational level. This is performed in Section 5.1 by using the information provided by the abstract semantics \( \rightarrow^A_k \). In Section 5.2, we prove that \( e \rightarrow^*_R v'' \) and \( e' \rightarrow^*_R v'' \) for the same value \( v'' \), where \( \rightarrow_R \) is the semantics introduced in Section 3.2.

5.1 Semantics Transformation

Because the abstract semantics \( \rightarrow^A_k \) of an expression \( e \), as defined in Section 4.2, is non-deterministic, the abstract interpretation of \( e \) consists of a set of traces. The semantics transformation \( \tau_k \) is based on the trace \( e \rightarrow^A_k v^t \) which optimizes the quality of the evaluation: recall, from Section 3.3, that, in the floating point arithmetic based semantics, any value is a pair \((x, \mu) \in \mathbb{E}\) where \( x \) is a computer representable value and \( \mu \) a measure of the quality of \( x \). Recall also that \((x_1, \mu_1) \subseteq_E (x_2, \mu_2) \iff x_1 = x_2 \) and \( \mu_1 \prec \mu_2 \). Let \( \mu_1^t = [\mu_1, |\mu_1|] \) and \( \mu_2^t = [\mu_2, |\mu_2|] \). The corresponding order in \( \mathbb{E}^t \) is:

\[
(x_1^t, \mu_1^t) \prec^t (x_2^t, \mu_2^t) \iff \max(|\mu_1|, |\mu_1|) \leq \max(|\mu_2|, |\mu_2|)
\]

In \( \prec^t \), \( v_1^t \) is more precise than \( v_2^t \) if, in absolute value, the maximal error on \( v_1^t \) is less than the maximal error on \( v_2^t \).

The transformation \( \tau_k \) is based on the minimal abstract trace \( e \rightarrow^A_k v^t \), i.e. the trace which yields the minimal value \( v^t \), in the sense of \( \prec^t \). Remark that, since \( \rightarrow^A_k \) uses abstract values of \( \mathbb{E}^t \), the transformation \( \tau_k \) minimizes the worst measure \( \mu \) which may occurs during an evaluation. Therefore, \( \tau_k \) minimizes the precision lost which may arise during an evaluation in the worst case, that is for the most pessimistic combination of data.

Because the semantics \( \rightarrow^A_k \) allows more steps than the semantics \( \rightarrow_F \) (in \( \rightarrow_F \) an expression may not be transformed by \( \equiv_k \)), we cannot directly transform a trace of \( \rightarrow^A_k \) into a trace of \( \rightarrow_F \): we first have to rebuild the totally parsed expression which has actually been evaluated by \( \rightarrow^A_k \). This is achieved by using the actions \( A \) appearing in the transitions of the abstract semantics and which collect the operations actually performed along a trace.
Let \( \alpha \) be an observational abstraction \( \alpha : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) which transforms a floating point number with errors into a real number, i.e. \( \alpha(x, \mu) = x + \mu \). We first introduce a lemma concerning the non standard semantics.

**Definition 6** Let \( e \) be an arithmetic expression. The semantics transformation \( \tau_k \) of \( e \rightarrow_F v \) is defined by:

\[
\tau_k \left( e \rightarrow_F v, T_k^e(e) \right) = \mathbf{P} \left( \text{min}_{\prec} T_k^e(e) \right) \rightarrow_F v'
\]

By Definition 6, the transformed trace is the evaluation trace in the floating point arithmetic based semantics of the expression \( \mathbf{P}(e) \) generated from the minimal trace \( e \overset{A}{\rightarrow}_k v^d = \text{min}_{\prec} T_k^e(e) \).

**5.2 Correctness of the Transformation**

In order to prove the correctness of the transformation, we show that, at an observational level [6], the semantics of the original expression \( e \) and the semantics of the transformed expression \( e_t \) are equal. Our observation consists of showing that \( e \) and \( e_t \) compute the same thing in the exact arithmetic of real numbers.

**Fig. 6.** Generation of the new expression.

\[
P \left( (\rho^, \sigma^, e) \overset{\ell_1 + \ell_2}{\rightarrow} k (\rho^, \sigma^, e'), \ell \right) = \mathbf{P} \left[ (\ell \mapsto \ell_1 + \ell_2) \right]
\]

\[
P \left( (\rho^, \sigma^, e) \overset{\ell_1 \times \ell_2}{\rightarrow} k (\rho^, \sigma^, e'), \ell \right) = \mathbf{P} \left[ (\ell \mapsto \ell_1 \times \ell_2) \right]
\]

\[
P \left( (\rho^, \sigma^, e) \overset{\ell \rightarrow \ell}{\rightarrow} k (\rho^, \sigma^, e'), \ell \right) = \mathbf{P} \left[ (\ell \mapsto \ell) \right]
\]

\[
P \left( s_1 \overset{A}{\rightarrow} k s_2 \overset{A}{\rightarrow} \ldots s_n, \ell \right) = \mathbf{P} \left( s_2 \overset{A}{\rightarrow} k \ldots s_n, \mathbf{P}(s_1 \overset{A}{\rightarrow} k s_2) \right)
\]
Lemma 7 Let \( e \) be an arithmetic expression and let \( \langle \rho, \sigma, e \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle \rho', \sigma', v_1 \rangle \) and \( \langle \rho, \sigma, e \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle \rho'', \sigma'', v_2 \rangle \) be two paths of the non standard semantics. Then \( \alpha_O(v_1) = \alpha_O(v_2) \).

Lemma 7 stems from the fact that, in \( E \), the errors are exactly computed. So, by \( \alpha_O \), the traces of \( \rightarrow_E \) are identical to the traces of \( \rightarrow_R \).

Lemma 8 Let \( e_t = P(t', \iota) \) for some trace \( \langle \rho', s', e \rangle \xrightarrow{A^*} k \langle \rho'', \sigma'', v' \rangle \in T^*_k(e) \). Then \( e \equiv e_t \).

As a consequence, in the non standard semantics \( e \) and \( e_t \) lead to observationally equivalent values: by Lemma 7, if \( \langle \rho, \sigma, e \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle \rho', \sigma', v \rangle \) then, by the rule of Equation (15), \( \langle \rho, \sigma, e_t \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle \rho'', \sigma'', v \rangle \). Using Lemma 7 and Lemma 8, we have:

Property 9 Let \( e \) be an arithmetic expression, let \( t = e \xrightarrow{\theta^t} v \) be the concrete evaluation trace of \( e \), let \( t^2 = \langle \rho^2, s^2, e \rangle \xrightarrow{A^*} k \langle \rho''^2, \sigma''^2, v''^2 \rangle \in T^*_k(e) \). Then we have:

\[ e \xrightarrow{\tau^E} v \iff P(t^2, \iota) \xrightarrow{\tau^E} v \]

In particular, this property holds for the minimal trace used in Equation (35), in the definition of \( \tau_k \).

6 Experimental Results

A prototype based on the abstract semantics of Section 4.2 and on the transformation of Section 5 has been implemented and, in this section, we present our experimental results.

As explained in Section 2, adding numbers of different magnitude may lead to important precision losses by absorption. For example, in the IEEE754 single-precision format, \( 1.0 + 5e^{-8} = 1.0 \) while \( 1.0 + (2 \times 5e^{-8}) \neq 1.0 \). We consider the expression:

\[ e = a \times ((b + c) + d) \]

and the global abstract environment \( \theta^t \) such that:

\[ a = [56789, 98765] \quad b = [0, 1] \quad c = [0, 5e^{-8}] \quad d = [0, 5e^{-8}] \] (37)

Our prototype \( P(e, \theta^t, k) \) computes for this example (with \( k = 2 \)):

\[ (a*(((b+c)+d)) \rightarrow ((a*b)+(a*(c+d)))) \quad k=2 \]

The sums are parsed in order to first add the smallest terms: this limits the absorption. Furthermore, with \( k = 3 \), the product is distributed and this avoids to multiply the roundoff errors of the additions by a large value and, consequently, also reduce the final error.

Using the domain \( E^t \) which computes an over-approximation of the error attached to the result of a floating point computation, our prototype also outputs a bound on the maximal error arising during the evaluation of an expression (for any concrete set of inputs in the intervals given in Equation (37)). The errors for the source and transformed expressions are:
– Error bound on $(a*(b+c)+d))$: [-1.5679E-2,1.5680E-2]
– Error bound on $((a*(c+d))+(a*b))$: [-7.8125E-3,7.8126E-3]

The error on the transformed expression is approximatively half the error on the original expression.

Let us consider now the pure sum $s = \sum_{i=0}^{4} x_i$, with $x_i = [2^i, 2^i+1]$. The results, for different values of $k$ are given in the table below, where $a$, $b$, $c$, $d$ and $e$ stand for $x_0$, $x_1$, $x_2$, $x_3$ and $x_4$, respectively:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Error bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source expression</td>
<td>$[((e+d)+c)+b]+a$</td>
<td>[-7.6293E-6,7.6294E-6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k = 1$</td>
<td>$(b+a)+((c+(e+d))$</td>
<td>[-5.9604E-6,5.9605E-6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k = 2$</td>
<td>$(c+(b+a))+(e+d)$</td>
<td>[-4.5299E-6,4.5300E-6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k = 3$</td>
<td>$(d+(c+(a+b)))+e$</td>
<td>[-3.5762E-6,3.5763E-6]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the parameter $k$ increases, the terms are more and more sorted, increasing the precision of the result. With $k = 3$, the error is guaranteed to be less than half the error on the original expression. Let $x = ([-1.1, -0.9], [0,0, 0.001])$.

Another class of examples concerns the evaluation of polynomials. Again, anybody familiar with computer arithmetic knows that, in general, factorization improves the quality of the evaluation of a polynomial. In the abstract environment $\theta^e$ in which an initial error has been attached to $x$: $x = ([0, 2], [0, 0.0005])$, $p(e, \theta^e, n)$ computes the following results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Error bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source expression</td>
<td>$x+(x*x)$</td>
<td>[-1.80007334E-3,1.001074437E-3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k = 2$</td>
<td>$(1.0+x)*x$</td>
<td>[-9.000069921E-4,1.010078437E-4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source expression</td>
<td>$(x*(x<em>x))+(x</em>x)$</td>
<td>[-1.802887642E-3,3.191200091E-3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k = 3$</td>
<td>$(x+1.0)<em>(x</em>x)$</td>
<td>[-1.818142851E-4,1.390014781E-3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k = 4$</td>
<td>$((1.0+x)<em>(x</em>x))$</td>
<td>[-9.091078216E-5,1.100112212E-3]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Our last example concern the expression $(a+b)^2$. If $b \ll a$ then we obtain a better precision by developing the remarkable identity. Using $a = [5, 10]$ and $b = [0, 0.001]$, our prototype outputs the following results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Error bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source expression</td>
<td>$(a+b)*(a+b)$</td>
<td>[-1.335239380E-5,1.335239381E-5]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k = 2$</td>
<td>$((b*(a+b))+(a<em>b))+(a</em>a)$</td>
<td>[-7.631734013E-6,6.731734014E-6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k = 3$</td>
<td>$((b*(a)+b<em>b)+(a</em>b))+(a*a)$</td>
<td>[-7.631722894E-6,6.731722895E-6]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With $k = 3$ the transformation consists of finding the remarkable identity. However, with $k = 2$, another formula which significantly improve the precision has already been found.

7 Perspectives

We believe that the new kind of program transformation introduced in this article can be improved and extended in many ways.

First of all, we aim at extending our methodology to complete programming languages, with variables, loops and conditionals, instead of simple arithmetic expressions. We believe it is possible to rewrite computations defined among
many lines of code. General code transformation techniques [10] could be used. For example, loop unfolding techniques can be used to improve the numerical precision of iterative computations. In addition, some statements may also introduce precision loss, like assignments when processor registers have more digits than memory locations [11]. This last remark also makes us believe that our program transformation could be used on assembler codes, possibly at compile-time. We are confident in the feasibility of such transformations for large scale programs, static analysis of the numerical precision having already been defined for general programming languages and being implemented in analyzers used in industrial contexts [8].

Another research direction concerns the abstract semantics. In this article, we have presented a simple abstract semantics which could be improved in many ways. For arithmetic expressions, more subtle abstractions could be defined, which minimize more globally the error on a evaluation path. The semantics of error series [13] could be useful in this context but we believe that other approaches could also be successfully developed.

The relation \(\equiv\), introduced in Section 3, identifies expressions which are equal in the reals. These laws enable us to rewrite expressions. However, the relation \(\equiv\) is not unique and could be extended by many other laws. For example, some laws can be used to improve the precision of floating-point computations, like Sterbenz’s theorem for the subtraction [14]. Other laws can be found in [3, 4, 2].

Finally, other applications could be studied. For example, finite precision arithmetic is widely used in embedded systems. In order to implement a chain of operations, the programmer often works as follows: the size of the inputs (their number of digits) is know, and the result \(r\) of each elementary operation is stored in a new number large enough to represent exactly \(r\). Obviously, the designer of an embedded system aims at limiting the sizes of the numbers and this strongly depends on how the formula is implemented. Yet other applications, like code obfuscation for arithmetic expressions without loss of precision could also be developed, the framework of semantics program transformation having already been used in this context [7].

8 Conclusion

In this article, we have introduced a semantics based program transformation for arithmetic expressions, in order to improve the quality of their implementation. This work is a first step towards the automatic improvement of large scale codes containing numerical computations. This research direction could find many applications, in the context of embedded softwares as well as for numerical codes. In addition, this program transformation can be used either as a source to source transformation or at compile-time, during the low-level code generation phase.

We believe that our method can be improved and extended in many directions and some issues have been discussed in Section 7. Meanwhile, the experimental results of Section 6 show that the transformation of simple arithmetic expressions, using a simple analysis, already yield interesting results.
We also believe that the framework of semantics program transformation [6] was very helpful to define our method which would be more difficult to design and prove at the syntactic level.

More generally, our approach relies on the assumption that, concerning numerical precision, a program can be viewed either as a model or as an implementation. More precisely, a formula occurring in a source code may be considered as the specification of what should be computed in the reals as well as a sequence of machine operations. We used the first point of view to generate a new sequence of operations. We believe that this approach may lead to many further developments in the domain of program transformation for numerical precision, independently of the techniques used in this article which represent our first attempt to automatically improve the accuracy of numerical programs.

References