

# Probabilistic Program Analysis

## Data Flow Analysis and Regression

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## Classical Dataflow Analysis

The problem could be to identify at any program point the variables which are **live**, i.e. which may later be used in an assignment or test.

There are two phases of a classical *LV* analysis:

- (i) formulation of data-flow equations as set equations (or more generally over a property lattice  $L$ ),
- (ii) finding or constructing solutions to these equations, for example, via a fixed-point construction.

## Example

Consider a program like:

```
[x := 1]1;  
[y := 2]2;  
[x := x + y mod 4]3;  
if [x > 2]4 then [z := x]5 else [z := y]6 fi
```

Extract statically the control flow relation – i.e. is it possible to go from label  $\ell$  to label  $\ell'$ ?

$$flow = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 4), (4, 5), (4, 6)\}$$

Nielson, Nielson, Hankin: *Principles of Program Analysis*. Springer, 99/05.

## (Local) Transfer Functions

$$\begin{aligned} gen_{LV}([x := a]^\ell) &= FV(a) \\ gen_{LV}([skip]^\ell) &= \emptyset \\ gen_{LV}([b]^\ell) &= FV(b) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} kill_{LV}([x := a]^\ell) &= \{x\} \\ kill_{LV}([skip]^\ell) &= \emptyset \\ kill_{LV}([b]^\ell) &= \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_\ell^{LV} &: \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{Var}_*) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{Var}_*) \\ f_\ell^{LV}(X) &= X \setminus kill_{LV}([B]^\ell) \cup gen_{LV}([B]^\ell) \end{aligned}$$

# (Global) Control Flow

Formulate equations based on the control flow (relations):

$$\begin{aligned}LV_{entry}(\ell) &= f_{\ell}^{LV}(LV_{exit}(\ell)) \\ LV_{exit}(\ell) &= \bigcup_{(\ell, \ell') \in flow} LV_{entry}(\ell')\end{aligned}$$

**Monotone Framework:** Generalise this setting to lattice equations by using a general property lattice  $L$  instead of  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ .

This also gives ways to effectively construct solutions via various lattice theoretic concepts (fixed points, worklist, etc.)

## Example

$[x := 1]^1; [y := 2]^2; [x := x + y \bmod 4]^3;$   
 $\text{if } [x > 2]^4 \text{ then } [z := x]^5 \text{ else } [z := y]^6 \text{ fi}$

Control Flow:

$$flow = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 4), (4, \underline{5}), (4, 6)\}$$

Auxiliary Functions:

	$gen_{LV}(\ell)$	$kill_{LV}(\ell)$
1	$\emptyset$	$\{x\}$
2	$\emptyset$	$\{y\}$
3	$\{x, y\}$	$\{x\}$
4	$\{x\}$	$\emptyset$
5	$\{x\}$	$\{z\}$
6	$\{y\}$	$\{z\}$

**Equations** (over  $L = \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{Var})$ )

# A Probabilistic Language (Variation)

We consider a simple language with a random assignment  
 $\rho = \{\langle r_1, p_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle r_n, p_n \rangle\}$  (rather than a probabilistic choice).

$$\begin{array}{l}
 S ::= \text{skip} \\
 \quad | \quad x := e(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\
 \quad | \quad x \stackrel{?}{=} \rho \\
 \quad | \quad S_1; S_2 \\
 \quad | \quad \text{if } b \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \text{ fi} \\
 \quad | \quad \text{while } b \text{ do } S \text{ od} \\
 S ::= [\text{skip}]^\ell \\
 \quad | \quad [x := e(x_1, \dots, x_n)]^\ell \\
 \quad | \quad [x \stackrel{?}{=} \rho]^\ell \\
 \quad | \quad S_1; S_2 \\
 \quad | \quad \text{if } [b]^\ell \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \text{ fi} \\
 \quad | \quad \text{while } [b]^\ell \text{ do } S \text{ od}
 \end{array}$$

## Probabilistic Semantics

SOS:

- R0**  $\langle \text{stop}, s \rangle \Rightarrow_1 \langle \text{stop}, s \rangle$
- R1**  $\langle \text{skip}, s \rangle \Rightarrow_1 \langle \text{stop}, s \rangle$
- R2**  $\langle v := e, s \rangle \Rightarrow_1 \langle \text{stop}, s[v \mapsto \mathcal{E}(e)s] \rangle$
- R3**  $\langle v \stackrel{?}{=} \rho, s \rangle \Rightarrow_{\rho(r)} \langle \text{stop}, s[v \mapsto r] \rangle$

...

LOS:

- ...
- T**( $\langle l_1, \rho, l_2 \rangle$ ) =  $\mathbf{U}(x \leftarrow a) \otimes \mathbf{E}(l_1, l_2)$  for  $[x := a]^{\ell_1}$
- T**( $\langle l_1, \rho, l_2 \rangle$ ) =  $(\sum_i \rho(r_i) \cdot \mathbf{U}(x \leftarrow r_i)) \otimes \mathbf{E}(l_1, l_2)$  for  $[x \stackrel{?}{=} \rho]^{\ell_1}$
- ...

## (Local) Transfer Functions (extended)

$$gen_{LV}([x := a]^\ell) = FV(a)$$

$$gen_{LV}([x ?= \rho]^\ell) = \emptyset$$

$$gen_{LV}([skip]^\ell) = \emptyset$$

$$gen_{LV}([b]^\ell) = FV(b)$$

$$kill_{LV}([x := a]^\ell) = \{x\}$$

$$kill_{LV}([x ?= \rho]^\ell) = \{x\}$$

$$kill_{LV}([skip]^\ell) = \emptyset$$

$$kill_{LV}([b]^\ell) = \emptyset$$

$$f_\ell^{LV} : \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{Var}_*) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{Var}_*)$$

$$f_\ell^{LV}(X) = X \setminus kill_{LV}([B]^\ell) \cup gen_{LV}([B]^\ell)$$

## Probabilistic Analysis

In the classical analysis the undecidability of predicates in tests leads us to consider a conservative approach: Everything is possible, i.e. tests are treated as non-deterministic choices in the control flow.

In a probabilistic analysis we aim instead in providing good (optimal) estimates for **branch(ing) probabilities** when we construct the probabilistic control flow.

## Example

Consider, for example, instead of

```
[x := 1]1;  
[y := 2]2;  
[x := x + y mod 4]3;  
if [x > 2]4 then [z := x]5 else [z := y]6 fi
```

a probabilistic program like:

```
[x ?= {0, 1}]1;  
[y ?= {0, 1, 2, 3}]2;  
[x := x + y mod 4]3;  
if [x > 2]4 then [z := x]5 else [z := y]6 fi
```

## Probabilistic Control Flow and Equations

We can also use the classical control flow relation (as long as we do not consider a randomised `choose` statement).

However, we can't use the same equations, because:

- (i) We want to express **probabilities of properties** not just (safe approximations) of properties.
- (ii) We also need to consider relational aspects, i.e. **correlations** e.g. between the sign of variables.
- (iii) We would like/need to estimate the **branching probabilities** when tests are evaluated.
- (iv) We often also need probabilistic versions of the **transfer functions**.

When we look at the local transfer functions  $f_\ell$  then we now need some probabilistic version of these. For example: given probability distributions describing the values of  $x$  and  $y$ , what is the probability distribution describing possible values of  $x + y \bmod 4$ .

Possible ways to obtain probabilistic and abstract versions  $f_\ell^\#$

- **Construction** of a corresponding operator.
- **Abstraction** of the concrete semantics.
- **Testing** and **Profiling** also give us estimates.

## Probabilistic Abstract Interpretation

For an abstraction  $\mathbf{A} : \mathcal{V}(\mathbf{State}) \rightarrow \mathcal{V}(L)$  we get for a concrete transfer operator  $\mathbf{F}$  an abstract, (least-square) optimal estimate via  $\mathbf{F}^\# = \mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{F} \mathbf{A}$  in analogy to Abstract Interpretation.

### Definition

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  be two Hilbert spaces and  $\mathbf{A} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$  a bounded linear map. A bounded linear map  $\mathbf{A}^\dagger = \mathbf{G} : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$  is the **Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse** of  $\mathbf{A}$  iff

$$(i) \quad \mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{G} = \mathbf{P}_A,$$

$$(ii) \quad \mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}_G,$$

where  $\mathbf{P}_A$  and  $\mathbf{P}_G$  denote orthogonal projections onto the ranges of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{G}$ .

## Definition

Given a program  $S_\ell$  with  $init(S_\ell) = \ell$  and a probability distribution  $\rho$  on **State**, the probability  $p_{\ell,\ell'}(\rho)$  that the control is flowing from  $\ell$  to  $\ell'$  is defined as:

$$p_{\ell,\ell'}(\rho) = \sum_s \{p \cdot \rho(s) \mid \exists s' \text{ s.t. } \langle S_\ell, s \rangle \Rightarrow_p \langle S_{\ell'}, s' \rangle\}.$$

The branch probabilities thus also depend on an initial distribution, even for deterministic programs.

One can implement the test  $b$  as projections  $\mathbf{P}(b)$  which filter out states which do not pass the test.

## Tests and Branch Probabilities (Concrete)

Consider the simple program with  $x \in \{0, 1, 2\}$

`if [x >= 1]1 then [x := x - 1]2 else [skip]3 fi`

Then the test  $b = (x \geq 1)$  is represented by the projection:

$$\mathbf{P}(x \geq 1) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{P}(x \geq 1)^\perp = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

For  $\rho = \{\langle 0, p_0 \rangle, \langle 1, p_1 \rangle, \langle 2, p_2 \rangle\} = (p_0, p_1, p_2)$  we can compute the branch(ing) probabilities as  $\rho \mathbf{P}(x \geq 1) = (0, p_1, p_2)$  and

$$p_{1,2}(\rho) = \|\rho \cdot \mathbf{P}(x \geq 1)\|_1 = p_1 + p_2,$$

for the `else` branch, with  $\mathbf{P}^\perp = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}$ :

$$p_{1,3}(\rho) = \|\rho \cdot \mathbf{P}^\perp(x \geq 1)\|_1 = p_0.$$

## Abstract Branch Probabilities

If we consider abstract states  $\rho^\# \in \mathcal{V}(L)$  we need abstract versions  $\mathbf{P}(b)^\#$  of  $\mathbf{P}(b)$  to compute the branch probabilities. In doing so we must guarantee that for  $\rho^\# = \rho\mathbf{A}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\rho\mathbf{P}(b)\mathbf{A} &\stackrel{!}{=} \rho^\#\mathbf{P}^\#(b) \\ \rho\mathbf{P}(b)\mathbf{A} &\stackrel{!}{=} \rho\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}^\#(b) \\ \mathbf{P}(b)\mathbf{A} &\stackrel{!}{=} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}^\#(b)\end{aligned}$$

Ideally, to get  $\mathbf{P}^\#$  if we multiply the last equation from the left with  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ . However,  $\mathbf{A}$  is in general not invertible. The optimal (least-square) **estimate** can be obtained via

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A}^\dagger\mathbf{P}(b)\mathbf{A} &= \mathbf{A}^\dagger\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}^\#(b) \\ \mathbf{A}^\dagger\mathbf{P}(b)\mathbf{A} &= \mathbf{P}^\#(b)\end{aligned}$$

We get estimates for the abstract branch probabilities.

## An Example: Prime Numbers are Odd

Consider the following program that counts the prime numbers.

```
[i := 2]1;  
while [i < 100]2 do  
  if [prime(i)]3 then [p := p + 1]4  
  else [skip]5 fi;  
  [i := i + 1]6  
od
```

Essential is the abstract branch probability for [<sup>3</sup>]:

$$\mathbf{P}(\text{prime}(i))^\# = \mathbf{A}_e^\dagger\mathbf{P}(\text{prime}(i))\mathbf{A}_e,$$

# An Example: Abstraction

Test operators:

$$\mathbf{P}_e = (\mathbf{P}(\text{even}(n)))_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 2k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_p = (\mathbf{P}(\text{prime}(n)))_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if prime}(i) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Abstraction Operators:

$$(\mathbf{A}_e)_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 2k + 1 \wedge j = 2 \\ 1 & \text{if } i = 2k \wedge j = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$(\mathbf{A}_p)_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if prime}(i) \wedge j = 2 \\ 1 & \text{if } \neg\text{prime}(i) \wedge j = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# An Example: Abstract Branch Probability

For ranges  $[0, \dots, n]$  we get:

	$\mathbf{A}_e^\dagger \mathbf{P}_p \mathbf{A}_e$	$\mathbf{A}_e^\dagger \mathbf{P}_p^\perp \mathbf{A}_e$	$\mathbf{A}_p^\dagger \mathbf{P}_e \mathbf{A}_p$	$\mathbf{A}_p^\dagger \mathbf{P}_e^\perp \mathbf{A}_p$
$n = 10$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.20 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.60 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.80 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.40 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.25 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.67 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.75 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.33 \end{pmatrix}$
$n = 100$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.02 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.48 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.98 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.52 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.04 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.65 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.96 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.35 \end{pmatrix}$
$n = 1000$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.33 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.67 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.01 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.60 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.99 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.40 \end{pmatrix}$
$n = 10000$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.25 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.75 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.57 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.43 \end{pmatrix}$

The entries in the upper left corner of  $\mathbf{A}_e^\dagger \mathbf{P}_p \mathbf{A}_e$  give us the chances that an even number is also a prime number, etc.

Note that the positive and negative matrices always add up to  $\mathbf{I}$ .

# Probabilistic Dataflow Equations

Similar to classical DFA we formulate **linear equations**:

$$Analysis_{\bullet}(\ell) = Analysis_{\circ}(\ell) \cdot \mathbf{F}_{\ell}^{\#}$$

$$Analysis_{\circ}(\ell) = \begin{cases} \iota, & \text{if } \ell \in E \\ \sum \{ Analysis_{\bullet}(\ell') \cdot \mathbf{P}(\ell', \ell)^{\#} \mid (\ell', \ell) \in F \}, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

A simpler version can be obtained by **static branch prediction**:

$$Analysis_{\circ}(\ell) = \sum \{ p_{\ell', \ell} \cdot Analysis_{\bullet}(\ell') \mid (\ell', \ell) \in F \}$$

Abstract branch probabilities, i.e. estimates for the test operators  $\mathbf{P}(\ell', \ell)^{\#}$ , can be estimated also via a different analysis *Prob*, in a first phase before the actual *Analysis*.

## Live Variable Analysis: Example

Coming back to our previous example and its *LV* analysis:

$[x \text{ ?= } \{0, 1\}]^1$ ;  $[y \text{ ?= } \{0, 1, 2, 3\}]^2$ ;  $[x := x + y \text{ mod } 4]^3$ ;  
if  $[x > 2]^4$  then  $[z := x]^5$  else  $[z := y]^6$  fi

Consider two properties *d* for 'dead', and *l* for 'live' and the space  $\mathcal{V}(\{0, 1\}) = \mathcal{V}(\{d, l\}) = \mathbb{R}^2$  as the property space.

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{K} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We define the abstract transfers for our four blocks a

$$\mathbf{F}_{\ell} = \mathbf{F}_{\ell}^{LV} : \mathcal{V}(\{0, 1\})^{\otimes |\mathbf{Var}|} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}(\{0, 1\})^{\otimes |\mathbf{Var}|}$$

# Transfer Functions for Live Variables

For  $[x := a]^\ell$  (with  $\mathbf{I}$  the identity matrix)

$$\mathbf{F}_\ell = \bigotimes_{x_i \in \mathbf{Var}} \mathbf{X}_i \text{ with } \mathbf{X}_i = \begin{cases} \mathbf{L} & \text{if } x_i \in FV(a) \\ \mathbf{K} & \text{if } x_i = x \wedge x_i \notin FV(a) \\ \mathbf{I} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

and for tests  $[b]^\ell$

$$\mathbf{F}_\ell = \bigotimes_{x_i \in \mathbf{Var}} \mathbf{X}_i \text{ with } \mathbf{X}_i = \begin{cases} \mathbf{L} & \text{if } x_i \in FV(b) \\ \mathbf{I} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

For  $[\text{skip}]^\ell$  and  $[x ?= \rho]^\ell$  have  $\mathbf{F}_\ell = \bigotimes_{x_i \in \mathbf{Var}} \mathbf{I}$ .

## Preprocessing

We present a *LV* analysis based essentially on **concrete** branch probabilities. That means that in the first phase of the analysis we will not abstract the values of  $x$  and  $y$ , we just ignore  $z$  all together.

If the concrete state of each variable is a value in  $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ , then the probabilistic state is in  $\mathcal{V}(\{0, 1, 2, 3\})^{\otimes 3} = \mathbb{R}^{4^3} = \mathbb{R}^{64}$ .

The abstraction we use when we compute the concrete branch probabilities is  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{A}_f$ , with  $\mathbf{A}_f = (1, 1, 1, 1)^t$  the forgetful abstraction, i.e.  $z$  is ignored. This allows us to reduce the dimensions of the probabilistic state space from 64 to just 16. Note that also  $\mathbf{F}_5^\# = \mathbf{F}_6^\# = \mathbf{I}$ .



# Data Flow Equations

With this information we can formulate the actual  $LV$  equations:

$$LV_{entry}(1) = LV_{exit}(1) \cdot (\mathbf{K} \otimes \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{I})$$

$$LV_{entry}(2) = LV_{exit}(2) \cdot (\mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{K} \otimes \mathbf{I})$$

$$LV_{entry}(3) = LV_{exit}(3) \cdot (\mathbf{L} \otimes \mathbf{L} \otimes \mathbf{I})$$

$$LV_{entry}(4) = LV_{exit}(4) \cdot (\mathbf{L} \otimes \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{I})$$

$$LV_{entry}(5) = LV_{exit}(5) \cdot (\mathbf{L} \otimes \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{K})$$

$$LV_{entry}(6) = LV_{exit}(6) \cdot (\mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{L} \otimes \mathbf{K})$$

$$LV_{exit}(1) = LV_{entry}(2)$$

$$LV_{exit}(2) = LV_{entry}(3)$$

$$LV_{exit}(3) = LV_{entry}(4)$$

$$LV_{exit}(4) = p_{4,5}LV_{entry}(5) + p_{4,6}LV_{entry}(6)$$

$$LV_{exit}(5) = (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0)$$

$$LV_{exit}(6) = (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0)$$

## Example: Solution

The solution to the  $LV$  equations is then given by:

$$LV_{entry}(1) = (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0)$$

$$LV_{entry}(2) = (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} LV_{entry}(3) &= 0.25 \cdot (0, 1) \otimes (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0) + \\ &+ 0.75 \cdot (0, 1) \otimes (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0) \\ &= (0, 1) \otimes (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} LV_{entry}(4) &= 0.25 \cdot (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0) + \\ &+ 0.75 \cdot (0, 1) \otimes (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0) \end{aligned}$$

$$LV_{entry}(5) = (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0)$$

$$LV_{entry}(6) = (1, 0) \otimes (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0)$$

$$LV_{exit}(1) = (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0)$$

$$LV_{exit}(2) = (0, 1) \otimes (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0)$$

$$LV_{exit}(3) = 0.25 \cdot (0, 1) \otimes (1, 0) \otimes (1, 0) +$$

# The Moore-Penrose Pseudo-Inverse

## Definition

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  be two finite-dimensional vector spaces and  $\mathbf{A} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$  a linear map. Then the linear map  $\mathbf{A}^\dagger = \mathbf{G} : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$  is the **Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse** of  $\mathbf{A}$  iff  $\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{G} = \mathbf{P}_A$  and  $\mathbf{G} \circ \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}_G$ , where  $\mathbf{P}_A$  and  $\mathbf{P}_G$  denote orthogonal projections onto the ranges of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{G}$ .

## Definition

Let  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a **least squares solution** to  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$  if

$$\|\mathbf{Au} - \mathbf{b}\| \leq \|\mathbf{Av} - \mathbf{b}\|, \text{ for all } \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

## Theorem

Let  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then  $\mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{b}$  is the **minimal least squares solution** to  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ .

# Probabilistic Abstract Interpretation

Probabilistic Abstract Interpretation is based on:

- Concrete and abstract domains are **linear spaces**  $\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D} \dots$
- Concrete and abstract semantics are **linear operators**  $\mathbf{T} \dots$

The Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse allows us to construct the **closest** (i.e. least square) approximation

$$\mathbf{T}^\# : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{D} \text{ of a concrete semantics } \mathbf{T} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$$

which we define via the Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse:

$$\mathbf{T}^\# = \mathbf{G} \cdot \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^\dagger \cdot \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{T} \circ \mathbf{G}.$$

This gives a “smaller” DTMC via the abstracted generator  $\mathbf{T}^\#$ .

# Probabilistic Program Analysis vs Statistics

## Probabilistic Program Analysis

- Probabilities are **given** (as values or parameters):
- Calculate properties according to these input data using the program **semantics**,
- i.e. **deduce** probabilities of properties from semantics.

## Statistical Analysis

- Probabilities and initial states are **not known**:
- Estimate these parameters using **observations** of the program behaviour,
- i.e. **infer** execution probabilities by observing some sample runs.

## Using Statistics

Infer execution probabilities by **observing** some sample runs.

- Identify a random vector **y** with some measurement results
- Identify a model by a vector of parameters  **$\beta$**
- Construct a matrix **X** mapping models to the runs
- Use  **$X^\dagger$**  and **y** to find a best estimator of the model.

### Theorem (Gauss-Markov)

Consider the linear model  $y = \beta X + \varepsilon$  with **X** of full column rank and  $\varepsilon$  (fulfilling some conditions) Then the **Best Linear Unbiased Estimator (BLUE)** is given by

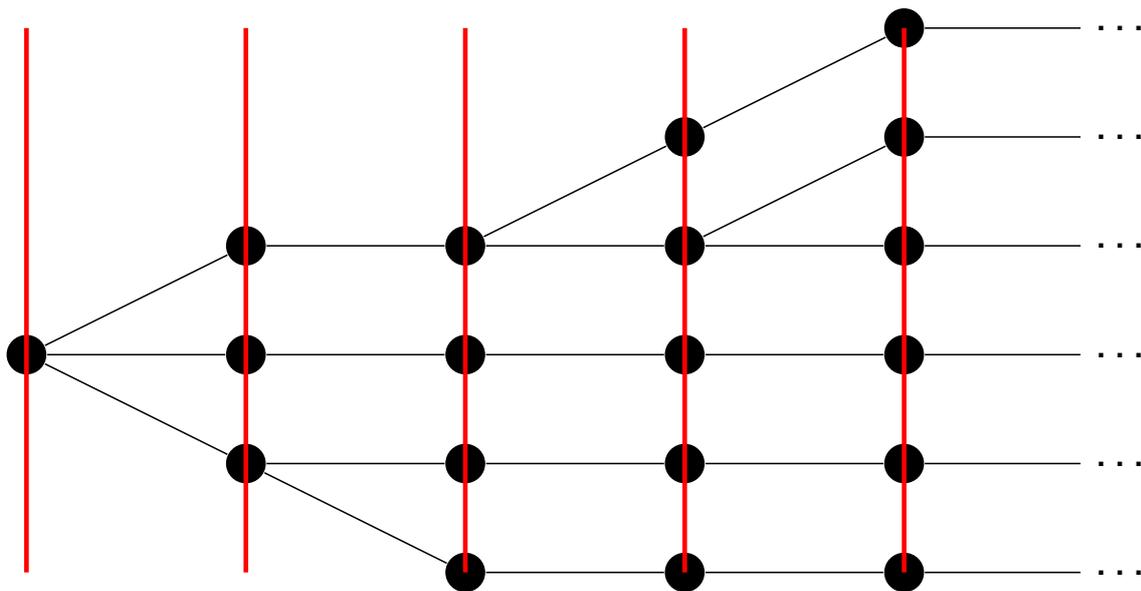
$$\hat{\beta} = yX^\dagger.$$

# Modular Exponentiation

```
s := 1;
i := 0;
while i <= w do
  if k[i] == 1 then
    x := (s*x) mod n;
  else
    r := s;
  fi;
  s := r*r;
  i := i+1;
od;
```

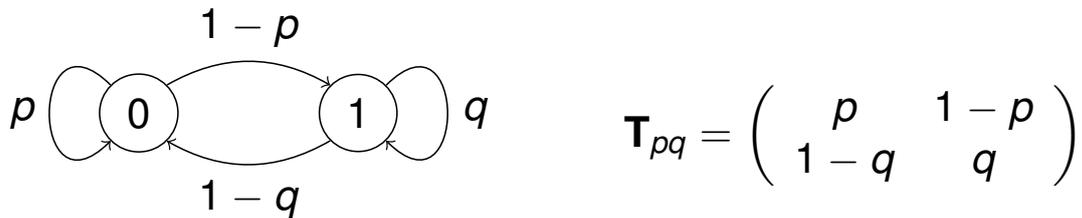
*P.C. Kocher: Cryptanalysis of Diffie-Hellman, RSA, DSS, and other cryptosystems using timing attacks, CRYPTO '95.*

# Paths and Fronts



## Observing Traces: The DTMC

Consider the following simple DTMC with parameters  $p$  and  $q$  in the real interval  $[0, 1]$ :

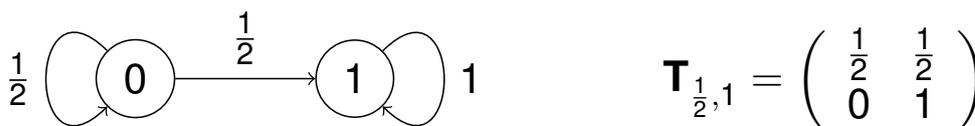


This behaviour is essentially the one of the following program:

```
while (true) do
  if (x == 1)
    then x := {⟨0, p⟩, ⟨1, 1 - p⟩}
    else x := {⟨0, 1 - q⟩, ⟨1, q⟩}
  fi
od
```

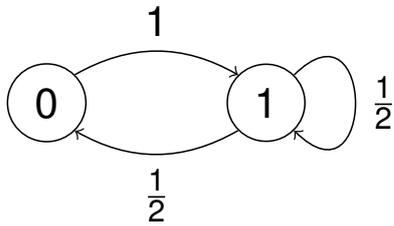
## Observing Traces: Possible Parameters

Instantiating the parameters:

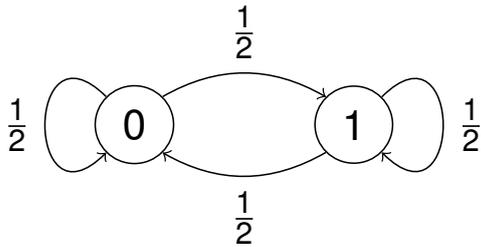


# Observing Traces: Possible Parameters

Instantiating the parameters:



$$\mathbf{T}_{0, \frac{1}{2}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$



$$\mathbf{T}_{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

## Identifying the Concrete Model

PAI can be used to this purpose as follows:

- **Abstract domain:**  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{M})$ , with  $\mathcal{M} = \{\langle s, p, q \rangle \mid s \in \{0, 1\}, p, q \in [0, 1]\}$
- **Concrete domain:**  $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{T})$  with  $\mathcal{T} = \{0, 1\}^{+\infty}$  (execution traces)
- **Design matrix:**  $\mathbf{G} : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$  associates to each instance model the corresponding distribution on traces
- Compute the Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse  $\mathbf{G}^\dagger$  of  $\mathbf{G}$  to calculate the **best estimators** of the parameters  $p$  and  $q$ .

## Numerical Experiments

In order to be able to compute an analysis of the system we considered  $p, q \in \{0, \frac{1}{2}, 1\}$ , i.e. 9 possible semantics, with possible initial states either 0 or 1.

$$\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{V}(\{0, 1\}) \otimes \mathcal{V}(\{0, \frac{1}{2}, 1\}) \otimes \mathcal{V}(\{0, \frac{1}{2}, 1\}) = \mathbb{R}^2 \otimes \mathbb{R}^3 \otimes \mathbb{R}^3 = \mathbb{R}^{18}$$

Observe traces of a certain length, e.g. traces of length  $t = 3$ :

$$\mathcal{C}_3 = \mathcal{V}(\{0, 1\}^3) = \mathcal{V}(\{0, 1\})^{\otimes 3} = (\mathbb{R}^2)^{\otimes 3} = \mathbb{R}^8$$

Actually, we simulated 10000 executions (with errors) of the system and observed traces of length  $t = 10$ .

$$\mathcal{C}_{10} = \mathcal{V}(\{0, 1\}^{10}) = \mathcal{V}(\{0, 1\})^{\otimes 10} = (\mathbb{R}^2)^{\otimes 10} = \mathbb{R}^{1024}$$

## Numerical Experiments: Parameter Space $\mathcal{D} = \mathbb{R}^9$

$s$	$p$	$q$	$s$	$p$	$q$
0	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
1	0	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
0	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	1	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
1	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	1
0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$\frac{1}{2}$	1
1	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	1	1
0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	1

# Experiments: Trace Space $\mathcal{C}_3 = \mathbb{R}^8$ and $\mathcal{C}_{10} = \mathbb{R}^{1024}$

<i>trace <math>\mathcal{C}_3</math></i>	<i>trace <math>\mathcal{C}_{10}</math></i>									
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:

# Experiments: Concretisation $\mathbf{G}_3$

$$\mathbf{G}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Experiments: Regression $\mathbf{G}_3^\dagger$ (Abstraction)

$$\mathbf{G}_3^{\dagger t} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{11}{15} & -\frac{1}{15} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{15} & \frac{11}{15} & -\frac{2}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{1}{5} & -\frac{1}{5} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{11}{15} & -\frac{1}{15} & -\frac{2}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{4}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{4}{3} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{4}{3} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{5} & -\frac{1}{5} & \frac{4}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{15} & \frac{11}{15} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{4}{3} & -\frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

## Numerical Experiments for $\mathcal{C}_{10}$

For the model  $p = 0, q = \frac{1}{2}$  we obtained (for different noise distortions  $\varepsilon$ ) by observation of the possible traces in 10000 test runs their (experimental) probability distributions  $y, y'$  etc. in  $\mathbb{R}^{1024}$  (where  $y_i$  is the observed frequency of trace  $i$ ) and from these estimate the (unknown) parameters via:

$$\begin{aligned} y\mathbf{G}_{10}^\dagger &= (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.50, 0.49, 0, 0.01, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) \\ y'\mathbf{G}_{10}^\dagger &= (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.49, 0.50, 0.01, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) \\ y''\mathbf{G}_{10}^\dagger &= (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.43, 0.43, 0.07, 0.06, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) \\ y'''\mathbf{G}_{10}^\dagger &= (0, 0, 0.01, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0.33, 0.35, 0.16, 0.16, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) \end{aligned}$$

The distribution  $y$  denotes the undistorted case,  $y'$  the case with  $\varepsilon = 0.01$ ,  $y''$  the case  $\varepsilon = 0.1$ , and  $y'''$  the case  $\varepsilon = 0.25$ .

The initial state was always chosen with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$  as the state 0 or the state 1.

## Some References

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