Probabilistic Program Analysis A Probabilistic Language and its Semantics

> Alessandra Di Pierro University of Verona, Italy alessandra.dipierro@univr.it

Herbert Wiklicky Imperial College London, UK herbert@doc.ic.ac.uk

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

Probabilistic Program Analysis

Slide 1 of 47

# Why probabilistic analysis

#### • Analysis of probabilistic programs

 Obtaining probabilistic answers from the analysis of deterministic programs

#### • Compiler optimization via data speculative optimization.

- Analysis of probabilistic programs
- Obtaining probabilistic answers from the analysis of deterministic programs
- Compiler optimization via data speculative optimization.

- Analysis of probabilistic programs
- Obtaining probabilistic answers from the analysis of deterministic programs
- Compiler optimization via data speculative optimization.

Analysis of probabilistic programs

May give 'incorrect' answers.

#### Probabilistic analysis of (deterministic) programs

Speculative vs conservative answers.

analysis.

#### Analysis of probabilistic programs

May give 'incorrect' answers.

#### Probabilistic analysis of (deterministic) programs

Speculative vs conservative answers.

#### Analysis of probabilistic programs

May give 'incorrect' answers.

#### Probabilistic analysis of (deterministic) programs

Speculative vs conservative answers.

#### Analysis of probabilistic programs

• May give 'incorrect' answers.

#### Probabilistic analysis of (deterministic) programs

• Speculative vs conservative answers.

#### Analysis of probabilistic programs

• May give 'incorrect' answers.

#### Probabilistic analysis of (deterministic) programs

• Speculative vs conservative answers.

#### Analysis of probabilistic programs

• May give 'incorrect' answers.

#### Probabilistic analysis of (deterministic) programs

• Speculative vs conservative answers.

# A simple example

The two deterministic programs below compute the factorial n!and the double factorial  $2 \cdot n!$ 

```
m := 1;
while (n>1) do
  m := m * n;
 n := n-1;
od
```

# A simple example

The two deterministic programs below compute the factorial n!and the double factorial  $2 \cdot n!$ 

```
m := 1;
while (n>1) do
  m := m * n;
 n := n-1;
od
m := 2;
while (n>1) do
  m := m * n;
  n := n-1;
od
```

# **Classical vs Probabilistic Results**

**Parity Analysis:** Determine at every program point whether a variable is *even* or *odd*.

A safe classical analysis will detect (starting with *m* and *n* "unknown")

- that m = 2 × n! at the end of the second program is always even;
- that the parity of m is "unknown" at the end of the first program.

# **Classical vs Probabilistic Results**

# Parity Analysis: Determine at every program point whether a variable is *even* or *odd*.

A safe classical analysis will detect (starting with *m* and *n* "unknown")

- that m = 2 × n! at the end of the second program is always even;
- that the parity of *m* is "unknown" at the end of the first program.

Parity Analysis: Determine at every program point whether a variable is *even* or *odd*. A safe classical analysis will detect (starting with *m* and *n* "unknown")

- that m = 2 × n! at the end of the second program is always even;
- that the parity of *m* is "unknown" at the end of the first program.

A safe classical analysis will detect (starting with *m* and *n* "unknown")

- that m = 2 × n! at the end of the second program is always even;
- that the parity of *m* is "unknown" at the end of the first program.

A safe classical analysis will detect (starting with *m* and *n* "unknown")

- that m = 2 × n! at the end of the second program is always even;
- that the parity of *m* is "unknown" at the end of the first program.

A safe classical analysis will detect (starting with *m* and *n* "unknown")

- that m = 2 × n! at the end of the second program is always even;
- that the parity of *m* is "unknown" at the end of the first program.

A safe classical analysis will detect (starting with *m* and *n* "unknown")

- that m = 2 × n! at the end of the second program is always even;
- that the parity of *m* is "unknown" at the end of the first program.

### Double Factorial: Data-flow Analysis

Consider the abstract values  $\perp < even$ ;  $\perp < odd$ ; odd  $< \top$ and **even**  $< \top$ .

- 5:  $m \mapsto even$ ,  $n \mapsto \top$  5:  $m \mapsto even$ ,  $n \mapsto \top$

Consider the abstract values  $\bot \leq$  even;  $\bot \leq$  odd; odd  $\leq \top$  and even  $\leq \top$ .

1:  $m \mapsto \top$ ,  $n \mapsto \top$ 1:  $m \mapsto \top$ ,  $n \mapsto \top$ 2:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 2:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 3:3:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 4:4:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 5:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 

### Double Factorial: Data-flow Analysis

Consider the abstract values  $\bot \leq$  even;  $\bot \leq$  odd; odd  $\leq \top$  and even  $\leq \top$ .

1:  $m \mapsto \top$ ,  $n \mapsto \top$ 1:  $m \mapsto \top$ ,  $n \mapsto \top$ 2:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 2:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 3: 3:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 3:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 4: 4:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 5:  $m \mapsto$  even,  $n \mapsto \top$ 

# Simple Factorial: Data-flow Analysis

If the loop is not executed we can guarantee that m is odd. If we execute the loop then the analysis will return  $\top$  for the parity of m at label 5.

1 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$	1 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$
2 :	$m \mapsto \mathbf{odd},$	$n \mapsto \top$	2 :	$m \mapsto \mathbf{odd},$	$n \mapsto \top$
3 :			3 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$
4 :			4 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n\mapsto  op$
5 :	$m \mapsto \mathbf{odd},$	$n \mapsto \top$	5 :	$m \mapsto \top$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$

# Simple Factorial: Data-flow Analysis

If the loop is not executed we can guarantee that m is odd. If we execute the loop then the analysis will return  $\top$  for the parity of m at label 5.

1:	$m\mapsto  op,$	$n\mapsto  op$	1 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n\mapsto  op$
2 :	$m \mapsto \mathbf{odd},$	$n\mapsto  op$	2 :	$m \mapsto \mathbf{odd},$	$n\mapsto  op$
3 :			3 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$
4 :			4 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$
5 :	$m \mapsto \mathbf{odd},$	$n\mapsto  op$	5 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$

If the loop is not executed we can guarantee that m is **odd**. If we execute the loop then the analysis will return  $\top$  for the parity of m at label 5.

1:	$m\mapsto  op,$	$n\mapsto  op$	1 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$
2 :	$m \mapsto \mathbf{odd},$	$n\mapsto  op$	2 :	$m \mapsto \mathbf{odd},$	$n \mapsto \top$
<b>3</b> :			3 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$
4 :			4 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$
5:	$m \mapsto \mathbf{odd},$	$n\mapsto  op$	5 :	$m\mapsto  op$ ,	$n \mapsto \top$

If the loop is not executed we can guarantee that m is **odd**. If we execute the loop then the analysis will return  $\top$  for the parity of m at label 5.

- A policy decision is safe or conservative if it never allows us to change what the program computes.
- Classical data-flow analyses computes solutions according to a 'meet-over-all-paths' approach
- This guarantees that any errors are in the safe direction
- Safe policies may, unfortunately, cause us to miss some code improvements that would retain the meaning of the program

- A policy decision is safe or conservative if it never allows us to change what the program computes.
- Classical data-flow analyses computes solutions according to a 'meet-over-all-paths' approach
- This guarantees that any errors are in the safe direction
- Safe policies may, unfortunately, cause us to miss some code improvements that would retain the meaning of the program

- A policy decision is safe or conservative if it never allows us to change what the program computes.
- Classical data-flow analyses computes solutions according to a 'meet-over-all-paths' approach
- This guarantees that any errors are in the safe direction
- Safe policies may, unfortunately, cause us to miss some code improvements that would retain the meaning of the program

- A policy decision is safe or conservative if it never allows us to change what the program computes.
- Classical data-flow analyses computes solutions according to a 'meet-over-all-paths' approach
- This guarantees that any errors are in the safe direction
- Safe policies may, unfortunately, cause us to miss some code improvements that would retain the meaning of the program

- Implement a potentially unsafe optimisation
- Verify
- Recover if necessary

- Implement a potentially unsafe optimisation
- Verify
- Recover if necessary

- Implement a potentially unsafe optimisation
- Verify
- Recover if necessary

- Implement a potentially unsafe optimisation
- Verify
- Recover if necessary

A definition d reaches a point p if there is a path from d to p such that d is not "killed" (i.e. if there is any other definition of x in the path).

A RD analysis determines for any program point p which statements that assign, or *may* assign, a value to a variable x, reach p.

Possible uses for code optimisation:

• a compiler can determine whether x is a constant at p;

 a debugger can determine whether x, used at p, may be an undefined variable. A definition d reaches a point p if there is a path from d to p such that d is not "killed" (i.e. if there is any other definition of x in the path).

A RD analysis determines for any program point p which statements that assign, or *may* assign, a value to a variable x, reach p.

Possible uses for code optimisation:

• a compiler can determine whether x is a constant at p;

 a debugger can determine whether x, used at p, may be an undefined variable. A definition d reaches a point p if there is a path from d to p such that d is not "killed" (i.e. if there is any other definition of x in the path).

A RD analysis determines for any program point p which statements that assign, or *may* assign, a value to a variable x, reach p.

Possible uses for code optimisation:

- a compiler can determine whether *x* is a constant at *p*;
- a debugger can determine whether *x*, used at *p*, may be an undefined variable.

A definition d reaches a point p if there is a path from d to p such that d is not "killed" (i.e. if there is any other definition of x in the path).

A RD analysis determines for any program point p which statements that assign, or *may* assign, a value to a variable x, reach p.

Possible uses for code optimisation:

- a compiler can determine whether *x* is a constant at *p*;
- a debugger can determine whether *x*, used at *p*, may be an undefined variable.

## **RD: Classical vs Probabilistic**

Classical RD analysis assumes that all edges of a flow graph can be traversed. This assumption may not be true in practice.

if (a == b) statement 1; else if (a == b) statement 2;

The second statement is actually never reached.

A Probabilistic RD analysis would allow us to use branching probabilities that could establish that the likelihood of taking the else path is lower than the if branch.

## **RD: Classical vs Probabilistic**

Classical RD analysis assumes that all edges of a flow graph can be traversed. This assumption may not be true in practice.

if (a == b) statement 1; else if (a == b) statement 2;

The second statement is actually never reached.

A Probabilistic RD analysis would allow us to use branching probabilities that could establish that the likelihood of taking the else path is lower than the if branch.

## **RD: Classical vs Probabilistic**

Classical RD analysis assumes that all edges of a flow graph can be traversed. This assumption may not be true in practice.

if (a == b) statement 1; else if (a == b) statement 2;

#### The second statement is actually never reached.

A Probabilistic RD analysis would allow us to use branching probabilities that could establish that the likelihood of taking the else path is lower than the if branch.

Classical RD analysis assumes that all edges of a flow graph can be traversed. This assumption may not be true in practice.

if (a == b) statement 1; else if (a == b) statement 2;

The second statement is actually never reached.

A Probabilistic RD analysis would allow us to use branching probabilities that could establish that the likelihood of taking the else path is lower than the if branch.

Classical RD analysis assumes that all edges of a flow graph can be traversed. This assumption may not be true in practice.

if (a == b) statement 1; else if (a == b) statement 2;

The second statement is actually never reached.

A Probabilistic RD analysis would allow us to use branching probabilities that could establish that the likelihood of taking the else path is lower than the if branch.

# A variable x is live at point p if the value of x at p could be used along some path in the flow graph starting at p.

A LV analysis determines for any program point *p* which variables *may* be live at the exit from *p*. Possible use for code optimisation:

- register assignment
- register allocation

A variable *x* is live at point *p* if the value of *x* at *p* could be used along some path in the flow graph starting at *p*. A LV analysis determines for any program point *p* which variables *may* be live at the exit from *p*.

Possible use for code optimisation:

- register assignment
- register allocation

A variable x is live at point p if the value of x at p could be used along some path in the flow graph starting at p. A LV analysis determines for any program point p which variables may be live at the exit from p. Possible use for code optimisation:

- register assignment
- register allocation

A variable x is live at point p if the value of x at p could be used along some path in the flow graph starting at p. A LV analysis determines for any program point p which variables may be live at the exit from p. Possible use for code optimisation:

- register assignment
- register allocation

A variable x is live at point p if the value of x at p could be used along some path in the flow graph starting at p. A LV analysis determines for any program point p which variables may be live at the exit from p. Possible use for code optimisation:

- register assignment
- register allocation

- a probabilistic semantics
- probabilistic analysis techniques based on it.

- a probabilistic semantics
- probabilistic analysis techniques based on it.

- a probabilistic semantics
- probabilistic analysis techniques based on it.

- a probabilistic semantics
- probabilistic analysis techniques based on it.

# pWhile - Syntax I

Full programs contain optional variable declarations:

 $\begin{array}{rl} P & ::= & \mbox{begin } S \mbox{ end} \\ & | & \mbox{var } D \mbox{ begin } S \mbox{ end} \end{array}$ 

Declarations are of the form:

$$r ::= bool
| int
| {  $c_1, ..., c_n$  }  
| {  $c_1 ... c_n$  }  
D ::=  $v : r$   
|  $v : r ; D$$$

with  $c_i$  (integer) constants and r denoting ranges.

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

# pWhile - Syntax I

Full programs contain optional variable declarations:

P ::= begin S end | var D begin S end

Declarations are of the form:

$$\begin{array}{rccc}
r & ::= & bool \\
& & int \\
& & \{ c_1, \dots, c_n \} \\
& & \{ c_1 \dots c_n \} \\
D & ::= & v : r \\
& & v : r ; D
\end{array}$$

with  $c_i$  (integer) constants and r denoting ranges.

The syntax of statements *S* is as follows:

$$S ::= stop$$

$$| skip$$

$$| v := a$$

$$| S_1; S_2$$

$$| choose p_1 : S_1 \text{ or } p_2 : S_2 \text{ ro}$$

$$| if b \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \text{ fi}$$

$$| while b \text{ do } S \text{ od}$$

Where the  $p_i$  are constants, representing choice probabilities.

The syntax of statements *S* is as follows:

Where the  $p_i$  are constants, representing choice probabilities.

## **Evaluation of Expressions**

### $\sigma \ni \mathsf{State} = \mathsf{Var} \to \mathsf{Z} \uplus \mathsf{B}$

Evaluation  $\mathcal{E}$  of expressions *e* in state  $\sigma$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}(n)\sigma &= n\\ \mathcal{E}(v)\sigma &= \sigma(v)\\ \mathcal{E}(a_1 \odot a_2)\sigma &= \mathcal{E}(a_1)\sigma \odot \mathcal{E}(a_2)\sigma \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{true})\sigma = \mathbf{tt}$$
  
 $\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{false})\sigma = \mathbf{ff}$   
 $\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{not}\ b)\sigma = \neg \mathcal{E}(b)\sigma$   
 $\dots = \dots$ 

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

Probabilistic Program Analysis

## **Evaluation of Expressions**

 $\sigma \ni \mathsf{State} = \mathsf{Var} \to \mathsf{Z} \uplus \mathsf{B}$ 

Evaluation  $\mathcal{E}$  of expressions e in state  $\sigma$ :

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathcal{E}(n)\sigma &=& n\\ \mathcal{E}(v)\sigma &=& \sigma(v)\\ \mathcal{E}(a_1 \odot a_2)\sigma &=& \mathcal{E}(a_1)\sigma \odot \mathcal{E}(a_2)\sigma \end{array}$$

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathsf{true})\sigma = \mathsf{tt}$$
  

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathsf{false})\sigma = \mathsf{ff}$$
  

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathsf{not}\ b)\sigma = \neg \mathcal{E}(b)\sigma$$
  

$$\ldots = \ldots$$

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

Probabilistic Program Analysis

## **Evaluation of Expressions**

 $\sigma \ni \mathsf{State} = \mathsf{Var} \to \mathsf{Z} \uplus \mathsf{B}$ 

Evaluation  $\mathcal{E}$  of expressions e in state  $\sigma$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}(n)\sigma &= n \\ \mathcal{E}(v)\sigma &= \sigma(v) \\ \mathcal{E}(a_1 \odot a_2)\sigma &= \mathcal{E}(a_1)\sigma \odot \mathcal{E}(a_2)\sigma \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathsf{true})\sigma = \mathsf{tt}$$
  

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathsf{false})\sigma = \mathsf{ff}$$
  

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathsf{not}\ b)\sigma = \neg \mathcal{E}(b)\sigma$$
  

$$\ldots = \ldots$$

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

## pWhile - SOS Semantics I

**R0** 
$$\langle skip, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_1 \langle stop, \sigma \rangle$$

**R1** 
$$\langle \operatorname{stop}, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_1 \langle \operatorname{stop}, \sigma \rangle$$

**R2** 
$$\langle v := e, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_1 \langle \text{stop}, \sigma[v \mapsto \mathcal{E}(e)\sigma] \rangle$$

**R3**<sub>1</sub> 
$$\frac{\langle S_1, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_{\rho} \langle S'_1, \sigma' \rangle}{\langle S_1; S_2, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_{\rho} \langle S'_1; S_2, \sigma' \rangle}$$
  
**R3**<sub>2</sub> 
$$\frac{\langle S_1, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_{\rho} \langle \text{stop}, \sigma' \rangle}{\langle S_1; S_2, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_{\rho} \langle S_2, \sigma' \rangle}$$

- **R4**<sub>1</sub> (choose  $p_1 : S_1$  or  $p_2 : S_2, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_{p_1} \langle S_1, \sigma \rangle$
- $\mathbf{R4}_2 \quad \langle \mathbf{choose} \ p_1 : S_1 \ \mathbf{or} \ p_2 : S_2, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_{p_2} \langle S_2, \sigma \rangle$
- **R5**<sub>1</sub> (if *b* then  $S_1$  else  $S_2, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_1 \langle S_1, \sigma \rangle$  if  $\mathcal{E}(b)\sigma = \mathbf{t}$
- **R5**<sub>2</sub> (if *b* then  $S_1$  else  $S_2, \sigma$ )  $\Rightarrow_1$  ( $S_2, \sigma$ ) if  $\mathcal{E}(b)\sigma =$ ff
- **R6**<sub>1</sub> (while *b* do *S*,  $\sigma$ ) $\Rightarrow_1$ (*S*; while *b* do *S*,  $\sigma$ ) if  $\mathcal{E}(b)\sigma = \mathbf{tt}$
- **R6**<sub>2</sub> (while *b* do *S*,  $\sigma$ ) $\Rightarrow_1$ (stop,  $\sigma$ ) if  $\mathcal{E}(b)\sigma =$ ff

## Markov chains behave as transition systems where nondeterministic choices among successor states are replaced by probabilistic ones.

Equivalently: the successor state of a state *s* is chosen according to a probability distribution **d**.

**d** only depends on the current state *s*, and evolution does not depend on the history (memoryless property).

Markov chains behave as transition systems where nondeterministic choices among successor states are replaced by probabilistic ones. Equivalently: the successor state of a state *s* is chosen

according to a probability distribution **d**.

**d** only depends on the current state *s*, and evolution does not depend on the history (memoryless property).

Markov chains behave as transition systems where nondeterministic choices among successor states are replaced by probabilistic ones.

Equivalently: the successor state of a state *s* is chosen according to a probability distribution **d**.

**d** only depends on the current state *s*, and evolution does not depend on the history (memoryless property).

Markov chains behave as transition systems where nondeterministic choices among successor states are replaced by probabilistic ones. Equivalently: the successor state of a state *s* is chosen

according to a probability distribution **d**.

**d** only depends on the current state *s*, and evolution does not depend on the history (memoryless property).

Markov chains behave as transition systems where nondeterministic choices among successor states are replaced by probabilistic ones. Equivalently: the successor state of a state *s* is chosen

according to a probability distribution **d**.

**d** only depends on the current state *s*, and evolution does not depend on the history (memoryless property).

# **DTMC: Formal Definition**

### Definition

- A DTMC is a tuple ( $S, P, \iota_{in}$ ) where
  - S is a countable, nonempty set of states,
  - P: S × S → [0, 1] is the *transition probability* function such that for all s ∈ S

$$\sum_{s'\in S} \mathbf{P}(s,s') = 1,$$

•  $\iota_{in} : S \mapsto [0, 1]$  is the *initial distribution*, s.t.  $\sum_{s \in S} \iota_{in}(s) = 1$ .

# **DTMC: Formal Definition**

### Definition

A DTMC is a tuple  $(S, \mathbf{P}, \iota_{in})$  where

- S is a countable, nonempty set of states,
- P: S × S → [0, 1] is the *transition probability* function such that for all s ∈ S

 $\sum_{s'\in S} \mathbf{P}(s,s') = 1,$ 

•  $\iota_{in}: S \mapsto [0, 1]$  is the *initial distribution*, s.t.  $\sum_{s \in S} \iota_{in}(s) = 1$ .

# **DTMC: Formal Definition**

### Definition

A DTMC is a tuple  $(S, \mathbf{P}, \iota_{in})$  where

- S is a countable, nonempty set of states,
- P: S × S → [0, 1] is the *transition probability* function such that for all s ∈ S

$$\sum_{s'\in S} \mathbf{P}(s,s') = 1,$$

•  $\iota_{in} : S \mapsto [0, 1]$  is the *initial distribution*, s.t.  $\sum_{s \in S} \iota_{in}(s) = 1$ .

### Definition

A DTMC is a tuple  $(S, \mathbf{P}, \iota_{in})$  where

- S is a countable, nonempty set of states,
- P: S × S → [0, 1] is the *transition probability* function such that for all s ∈ S

$$\sum_{s'\in S} \mathbf{P}(s,s') = 1,$$

•  $\iota_{in}: S \mapsto [0, 1]$  is the *initial distribution*, s.t.  $\sum_{s \in S} \iota_{in}(s) = 1$ .

## **DTMC Semantics**

Given a **pWhile** program, consider any enumeration of all its configurations (= pairs of statements and state)  $C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots \in$  **Conf**. Then

$$(\mathbf{T})_{ij} = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} p & ext{if } m{\mathcal{C}}_i \Rightarrow_p m{\mathcal{C}}_j \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array} 
ight.$$

is the generator of a Discrete Time Markov Chain.

Transitions are implemented as

$$\mathbf{d}_n \cdot \mathbf{T} = \sum_i (\mathbf{d}_n)_i \cdot \mathbf{T}_{ij} = \mathbf{d}_{n+1}$$

where **d**<sub>*i*</sub> is the probability distribution over **Conf** at the *i*th step.

## **DTMC Semantics**

Given a **pWhile** program, consider any enumeration of all its configurations (= pairs of statements and state)  $C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots \in$  **Conf**. Then

$$(\mathbf{T})_{ij} = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } \mathbf{C}_i = \langle \mathbf{S}, \sigma \rangle \Rightarrow_p \mathbf{C}_j = \langle \mathbf{S}', \sigma' \rangle \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is the generator of a Discrete Time Markov Chain.

Transitions are implemented as

$$\mathbf{d}_n \cdot \mathbf{T} = \sum_i (\mathbf{d}_n)_i \cdot \mathbf{T}_{ij} = \mathbf{d}_{n+1}$$

where **d**<sub>*i*</sub> is the probability distribution over **Conf** at the *i*th step.

Given a **pWhile** program, consider any enumeration of all its configurations (= pairs of statements and state)  $C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots \in$  **Conf**. Then

$$(\mathbf{T})_{ij} = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} p & ext{if } m{C}_i \Rightarrow_p m{C}_j \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array} 
ight.$$

is the generator of a Discrete Time Markov Chain.

Transitions are implemented as

$$\mathbf{d}_n \cdot \mathbf{T} = \sum_i (\mathbf{d}_n)_i \cdot \mathbf{T}_{ij} = \mathbf{d}_{n+1}$$

where **d**<sub>*i*</sub> is the probability distribution over **Conf** at the *i*th step.

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

Given a **pWhile** program, consider any enumeration of all its configurations (= pairs of statements and state)  $C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots \in$ **Conf**. Then

$$(\mathbf{T})_{ij} = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} p & ext{if } m{C}_i \Rightarrow_p m{C}_j \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array} 
ight.$$

is the generator of a Discrete Time Markov Chain.

Transitions are implemented as

$$\mathbf{d}_{n} \cdot \mathbf{T} = \sum_{i} (\mathbf{d}_{n})_{i} \cdot \mathbf{T}_{ij} = \mathbf{d}_{n+1}$$

where  $d_i$  is the probability distribution over **Conf** at the *i*th step.

Given a **pWhile** program, consider any enumeration of all its configurations (= pairs of statements and state)  $C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots \in$ **Conf**. Then

$$(\mathbf{T})_{ij} = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} p & ext{if } m{\mathcal{C}}_i \Rightarrow_p m{\mathcal{C}}_j \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array} 
ight.$$

is the generator of a Discrete Time Markov Chain.

Transitions are implemented as

$$\mathbf{d}_n \cdot \mathbf{T} = \sum_i (\mathbf{d}_n)_i \cdot \mathbf{T}_{ij} = \mathbf{d}_{n+1}$$

where  $d_i$  is the probability distribution over **Conf** at the *i*th step.

Given a **pWhile** program, consider any enumeration of all its configurations (= pairs of statements and state)  $C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots \in$ **Conf**. Then

$$(\mathbf{T})_{ij} = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} p & ext{if } m{\mathcal{C}}_i \Rightarrow_p m{\mathcal{C}}_j \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array} 
ight.$$

is the generator of a Discrete Time Markov Chain.

Transitions are implemented as

$$\mathbf{d}_n \cdot \mathbf{T} = \sum_i (\mathbf{d}_n)_i \cdot \mathbf{T}_{ij} = \mathbf{d}_{n+1}$$

where  $d_i$  is the probability distribution over **Conf** at the *i*th step.

Let us investigate the possible transitions of the following labelled program (with  $\bm{x} \in \{0,1\})$ :

# Example DTMC

#### **Example Transition**

Weget: (000000001).

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

Probabilistic Program Analysis

#### **Example Transition**

We get:  $(0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1)$ .

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

# Dataflow analyses work by calculating an assignment of abstract states to the edges of a control-flow graph.

Depending on whether the analysis is forward or backward, either the direct or the inverse control-flow graph of a given program is used and the calculation takes place by propagating abstract states across the nodes of the graph in the appropriate direction.

Probabilistic dataflow analyses work in the same way, but calculation is carried out by propagating probabilities together with abstract states. Dataflow analyses work by calculating an assignment of abstract states to the edges of a control-flow graph.

Depending on whether the analysis is forward or backward, either the direct or the inverse control-flow graph of a given program is used and the calculation takes place by propagating abstract states across the nodes of the graph in the appropriate direction.

Probabilistic dataflow analyses work in the same way, but calculation is carried out by propagating probabilities together with abstract states.

Dataflow analyses work by calculating an assignment of abstract states to the edges of a control-flow graph.

Depending on whether the analysis is forward or backward, either the direct or the inverse control-flow graph of a given program is used and the calculation takes place by propagating abstract states across the nodes of the graph in the appropriate direction.

Probabilistic dataflow analyses work in the same way, but calculation is carried out by propagating probabilities together with abstract states.

# An Example

Consider the following program, power, computing the x-th power of the number stored in y:

$$\begin{bmatrix} z & := 1 \end{bmatrix}^{1}; \\ \text{while } [x > 1]^{2} \text{ do } ( \\ \begin{bmatrix} z & := z \star y \end{bmatrix}^{3}; \\ \begin{bmatrix} x & := x-1 \end{bmatrix}^{4});$$

We have  $labels(power) = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , init(power) = 1, and  $final(power) = \{2\}$ . The function flow produces the set:

 $\textit{flow}(\texttt{power}) = \{(1,2), (2,3), (3,4), (4,2)\}$ 

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

Probabilistic Program Analysis

# An Example

Consider the following program, power, computing the x-th power of the number stored in y:

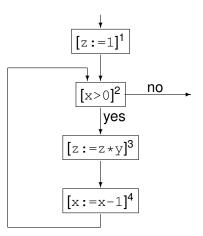
$$\begin{bmatrix} z & := 1 \end{bmatrix}^{1}; \\ \text{while } [x > 1]^{2} \text{ do } ( \\ [z & := z \star y ]^{3}; \\ [x & := x-1 ]^{4}); \\ \end{cases}$$

We have  $labels(power) = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , init(power) = 1, and  $final(power) = \{2\}$ . The function *flow* produces the set:

$$\textit{flow}(\texttt{power}) = \{(1,2), (2,3), (3,4), (4,2)\}$$

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

# Flow Graph



Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

#### ESSLLI'16

#### Probabilistic Program Analysis

Slide 27 of 47

# **Probabilistic Control Flow**

Consider the following labelled program:

1: while 
$$[z < 100]^1$$
 do  
2: [choose]<sup>2</sup>  $\frac{1}{3}$  :  $[x :=3]^3$  or  $\frac{2}{3}$  :  $[x :=1]^4$  ro  
3: od  
4:  $[stop]^5$ 

Its probabilistic control flow is given by:

 $\textit{flow}(\textit{P}) = \{ \langle 1, 1, 2 \rangle, \langle 1, 1, 5 \rangle, \langle 2, \frac{1}{3}, 3 \rangle, \langle 2, \frac{2}{3}, 4 \rangle, \langle 3, 1, 1 \rangle, \langle 4, 1, 1 \rangle \}.$ 

# **Probabilistic Control Flow**

Consider the following labelled program:

1: while 
$$[z < 100]^1$$
 do  
2: [choose]<sup>2</sup>  $\frac{1}{3}$  :  $[x :=3]^3$  or  $\frac{2}{3}$  :  $[x :=1]^4$  ro  
3: od  
4:  $[stop]^5$ 

Its probabilistic control flow is given by:

$$\textit{flow}(\textit{P}) = \{ \langle 1, 1, 2 \rangle, \langle 1, 1, 5 \rangle, \langle 2, \frac{1}{3}, 3 \rangle, \langle 2, \frac{2}{3}, 4 \rangle, \langle 3, 1, 1 \rangle, \langle 4, 1, 1 \rangle \}.$$

- $init([skip]^{\ell}) = \ell$
- $init([stop]^{\ell}) = \ell$

$$init([v:=e]^{\ell}) = \ell$$

$$init(S_1; S_2) = init(S_1)$$

$$init([choose]^{\ell} p_1 : S_1 \text{ or } p_2 : S_2) = \ell$$

*init*(if 
$$[b]^{\ell}$$
 then  $S_1$  else  $S_2$ ) =  $\ell$ 

*init*(while 
$$[b]^{\ell}$$
 do  $S$ ) =  $\ell$ 

 $\begin{aligned} & \text{final}([\mathsf{skip}]^{\ell}) = \{\ell\} \\ & \text{final}([\mathsf{stop}]^{\ell}) = \{\ell\} \\ & \text{final}([\mathsf{v}:=e]^{\ell}) = \{\ell\} \\ & \text{final}([\mathsf{v}:=e]^{\ell}) = \{\ell\} \\ & \text{final}(S_1; S_2) = \text{final}(S_2) \\ & \text{final}([\mathsf{choose}]^{\ell} \ p_1 : S_1 \ \mathsf{or} \ p_2 : S_2) = \text{final}(S_1) \cup \text{final}(S_2) \\ & \text{final}(\mathsf{if} \ [b]^{\ell} \ \mathsf{then} \ S_1 \ \mathsf{else} \ S_2) = \text{final}(S_1) \cup \text{final}(S_2) \\ & \text{final}(\mathsf{while} \ [b]^{\ell} \ \mathsf{do} \ S) = \{\ell\} \end{aligned}$ 

#### Flow I — Control Transfer

The probabilistic control flow is defined by the function:

```
flow : Stmt \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\text{Lab} \times [0, 1] \times \text{Lab})
```

$$flow([\mathbf{skip}]^{\ell}) = \emptyset$$
  

$$flow([\mathbf{stop}]^{\ell}) = \{\langle \ell, 1, \ell \rangle\}$$
  

$$flow([v:=e]^{\ell}) = \emptyset$$
  

$$flow(S_1; S_2) = flow(S_1) \cup flow(S_2) \cup$$
  

$$\cup \{(\ell, 1, init(S_2)) | \ell \in final(S_1)\}$$

#### Flow I — Control Transfer

The probabilistic control flow is defined by the function:

```
flow : Stmt \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\text{Lab} \times [0, 1] \times \text{Lab})
```

$$flow([choose]^{\ell} p_1 : S_1 \text{ or } p_2 : S_2) =$$

*flow*(if 
$$[b]^{\ell}$$
 then  $S_1$  else  $S_2$ )

*flow*(while  $[b]^{\ell}$  do S)

ESSLLI'16

flow(
$$S_1$$
)  $\cup$  flow( $S_2$ )  $\cup$ 

$$= \{(\ell, p_1, init(S_1)), (\ell, p_2, init(S_2))\}$$

$$= \textit{flow}(S_1) \cup \textit{flow}(S_2) \cup$$

$$= \{(\ell, 1, init(S_1)), (\ell, 1, init(S_2))\}$$

$$= \textit{flow}(S) \cup$$

ι

ι

$$\cup \{(\ell', 1, \ell) \mid \ell' \in \mathit{final}(S)\}$$

# The matrix representation of the SOS semantics of a **pWhile** program is not 'compositional'.

In order to be able to analyse programs by analysing its parts, a more useful semantics is one resulting from the composition of different linear operators each expressing a particular operation contributing to the overall behaviour of the program. The matrix representation of the SOS semantics of a **pWhile** program is not 'compositional'.

In order to be able to analyse programs by analysing its parts, a more useful semantics is one resulting from the composition of different linear operators each expressing a particular operation contributing to the overall behaviour of the program.

# For a **pWhile** program *P* we can identify configurations with elements in

 $Dist(State \times Lab) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(State \times Lab).$ 

Assuming v = |Var| finite,

State =  $(\underline{\mathbb{Z}} + \mathbb{B})^{\nu}$  = Value<sub>1</sub> × Value<sub>2</sub> ... × Value<sub> $\nu$ </sub>

with **Value**<sub>*i*</sub> =  $\underline{\mathbb{Z}}$  or  $\mathbb{B}$ .

Thus, we can represent the space of configurations as

 $\mathsf{Dist}(\mathsf{Value}_1 \times \ldots \times \mathsf{Value}_v \times \mathsf{Lab}) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(\mathsf{Value}_1) \otimes \ldots \otimes \mathcal{V}(\mathsf{Value}_v) \otimes \mathcal{V}(\mathsf{Lab}).$ 

For a **pWhile** program *P* we can identify configurations with elements in

#### $\textbf{Dist}(\textbf{State} \times \textbf{Lab}) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(\textbf{State} \times \textbf{Lab}).$

Assuming v = |Var| finite,

State =  $(\underline{\mathbb{Z}} + \mathbb{B})^{\nu}$  = Value<sub>1</sub> × Value<sub>2</sub> ... × Value<sub>ν</sub>

with **Value**<sub>i</sub> =  $\underline{\mathbb{Z}}$  or  $\mathbb{B}$ .

Thus, we can represent the space of configurations as

 $\begin{aligned} & \text{Dist}(\text{Value}_1 \times \ldots \times \text{Value}_v \times \text{Lab}) & \subseteq \\ & \mathcal{V}(\text{Value}_1) \otimes \ldots \otimes \mathcal{V}(\text{Value}_v) \otimes \mathcal{V}(\text{Lab}). \end{aligned}$ 

For a **pWhile** program *P* we can identify configurations with elements in

```
\textbf{Dist}(\textbf{State} \times \textbf{Lab}) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(\textbf{State} \times \textbf{Lab}).
```

Assuming v = |Var| finite,

State =  $(\underline{\mathbb{Z}} + \mathbb{B})^{\nu}$  = Value<sub>1</sub> × Value<sub>2</sub> ... × Value<sub> $\nu$ </sub>

with **Value**<sub>*i*</sub> =  $\underline{\mathbb{Z}}$  or  $\mathbb{B}$ .

Thus, we can represent the space of configurations as

 $\mathsf{Dist}(\mathsf{Value}_1 \times \ldots \times \mathsf{Value}_v \times \mathsf{Lab}) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(\mathsf{Value}_1) \otimes \ldots \otimes \mathcal{V}(\mathsf{Value}_v) \otimes \mathcal{V}(\mathsf{Lab}).$ 

For a **pWhile** program *P* we can identify configurations with elements in

```
\textbf{Dist}(\textbf{State} \times \textbf{Lab}) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(\textbf{State} \times \textbf{Lab}).
```

Assuming v = |Var| finite,

State =  $(\underline{\mathbb{Z}} + \mathbb{B})^{\nu}$  = Value<sub>1</sub> × Value<sub>2</sub> ... × Value<sub> $\nu$ </sub>

with **Value**<sub>*i*</sub> =  $\underline{\mathbb{Z}}$  or  $\mathbb{B}$ .

Thus, we can represent the space of configurations as

```
\begin{array}{l} \text{Dist}(\text{Value}_1 \times \ldots \times \text{Value}_{\nu} \times \text{Lab}) & \subseteq \\ \mathcal{V}(\text{Value}_1) \otimes \ldots \otimes \mathcal{V}(\text{Value}_{\nu}) \otimes \mathcal{V}(\text{Lab}). \end{array}
```

# **Tensor Product**

Given a  $n \times m$  matrix **A** and a  $k \times l$  matrix **B**:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & \dots & b_{1l} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & \dots & b_{kl} \end{pmatrix}$$

The tensor product  $\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}$  is a  $nk \times ml$  matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} a_{11}\mathbf{B} & \dots & a_{1m}\mathbf{B} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1}\mathbf{B} & \dots & a_{nm}\mathbf{B} \end{array}\right)$$

Special cases are square matrices (n = m and k = l) and vectors (row n = k = 1, column m = l = 1).

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

# **Tensor Product**

Given a  $n \times m$  matrix **A** and a  $k \times l$  matrix **B**:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & \dots & b_{1l} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & \dots & b_{kl} \end{pmatrix}$$

The tensor product  $\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}$  is a  $nk \times ml$  matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}\mathbf{B} & \dots & a_{1m}\mathbf{B} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1}\mathbf{B} & \dots & a_{nm}\mathbf{B} \end{pmatrix}$$

Special cases are square matrices (n = m and k = l) and vectors (row n = k = 1, column m = l = 1).

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

# **Tensor Product**

Given a  $n \times m$  matrix **A** and a  $k \times l$  matrix **B**:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & \dots & b_{1l} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & \dots & b_{kl} \end{pmatrix}$$

The tensor product  $\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}$  is a  $nk \times ml$  matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}\mathbf{B} & \dots & a_{1m}\mathbf{B} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1}\mathbf{B} & \dots & a_{nm}\mathbf{B} \end{pmatrix}$$

Special cases are square matrices (n = m and k = l) and vectors (row n = k = 1, column m = l = 1).

### A Linear Operator based on flow

$$\mathbf{T}(P) = \sum_{\langle i, p_{ij}, j \rangle \in \textit{flow}(P)} p_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{T}(\ell_i, \ell_j),$$

where

$$\mathbf{T}(\ell_i,\ell_j)=\mathbf{N}\otimes\mathbf{E}(\ell_i,\ell_j),$$

with **N** an operator representing a state update while the second factor realises the transfer of control from label  $\ell_i$  to label  $\ell_i$ .

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

### A Linear Operator based on flow

$$\mathbf{T}(P) = \sum_{\langle i, p_{ij}, j \rangle \in \textit{flow}(P)} p_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{T}(\ell_i, \ell_j),$$

where

#### $\mathbf{T}(\ell_i,\ell_j)=\mathbf{N}\otimes \mathbf{E}(\ell_i,\ell_j),$

with **N** an operator representing a state update while the second factor realises the transfer of control from label  $\ell_i$  to label  $\ell_i$ .

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

# A Linear Operator based on flow

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{P}) = \sum_{\langle i, \mathbf{p}_{ij}, j \rangle \in \mathit{flow}(\mathbf{P})} \mathbf{p}_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{T}(\ell_i, \ell_j),$$

where

$$\mathsf{T}(\ell_i,\ell_j)=\mathsf{N}\otimes\mathsf{E}(\ell_i,\ell_j),$$

with **N** an operator representing a state update while the second factor realises the transfer of control from label  $\ell_i$  to label  $\ell_i$ .

-

# **Transfer Operators**

# **Projection Operators**

Filtering out *relevant* probabilities, i.e. only for states/values which fulfill a certain condition. Use diagonal matrix:

$$(\mathbf{P})_{ii} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if condition holds for } c_i \in \mathbf{Value} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$



# **Projection Operators**

Filtering out *relevant* probabilities, i.e. only for states/values which fulfill a certain condition. Use diagonal matrix:

$$(\mathbf{P})_{ii} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if condition holds for } c_i \in \mathbf{Value} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

#### **Tests and Filters**

Select a certain value  $c \in Value_k$  for variable  $x_k$ :

$$(\mathbf{P}(c))_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = c = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Select a certain classical state  $\sigma \in$  **State**:

$$\mathbf{P}(\sigma) = \bigotimes_{i=1}^{V} \mathbf{P}(\sigma(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

Select states where expression  $e = a \mid b$  evaluates to c:

$$\mathbf{P}(\boldsymbol{e} = \boldsymbol{c}) = \sum_{\mathcal{E}(\boldsymbol{e})\sigma = \boldsymbol{c}} \mathbf{P}(\sigma)$$

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

Probabilistic Program Analysis

#### **Tests and Filters**

Select a certain value  $c \in Value_k$  for variable  $x_k$ :

$$(\mathbf{P}(c))_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = c = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Select a certain classical state  $\sigma \in$  **State**:

$$\mathbf{P}(\sigma) = \bigotimes_{i=1}^{v} \mathbf{P}(\sigma(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

Select states where expression  $e = a \mid b$  evaluates to c:

$$\mathbf{P}(\boldsymbol{e} = \boldsymbol{c}) = \sum_{\mathcal{E}(\boldsymbol{e})\sigma = \boldsymbol{c}} \mathbf{P}(\sigma)$$

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

Probabilistic Program Analysis

#### **Tests and Filters**

Select a certain value  $c \in Value_k$  for variable  $x_k$ :

$$(\mathbf{P}(c))_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = c = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Select a certain classical state  $\sigma \in$  **State**:

$$\mathbf{P}(\sigma) = \bigotimes_{i=1}^{v} \mathbf{P}(\sigma(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

Select states where expression  $e = a \mid b$  evaluates to *c*:

$$\mathbf{P}(\boldsymbol{e} = \boldsymbol{c}) = \sum_{\mathcal{E}(\boldsymbol{e})\sigma = \boldsymbol{c}} \mathbf{P}(\sigma)$$

# Updates

Modify the value of variable  $x_k$  to a constant  $c \in Value_k$ :

$$(\mathbf{U}(c))_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = c \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Set value of variable  $x_k \in$ Var to constant  $c \in$ Value:

$$\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow \mathbf{c}) = \left(\bigotimes_{i=1}^{k-1} \mathbf{I}\right) \otimes \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{c}) \otimes \left(\bigotimes_{i=k+1}^{\nu} \mathbf{I}\right)$$

Set value of variable  $x_k \in$ **Var** to value given by  $e = a \mid b$ :

$$\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow e) = \sum_{c} \mathbf{P}(e = c) \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow c)$$

#### Updates

Modify the value of variable  $x_k$  to a constant  $c \in Value_k$ :

$$(\mathbf{U}(c))_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = c \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Set value of variable  $x_k \in$ Var to constant  $c \in$  Value:

$$\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow \mathbf{c}) = \left(\bigotimes_{i=1}^{k-1} \mathbf{I}\right) \otimes \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{c}) \otimes \left(\bigotimes_{i=k+1}^{\nu} \mathbf{I}\right)$$

Set value of variable  $x_k \in$ **Var** to value given by  $e = a \mid b$ :

$$\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow e) = \sum_{c} \mathbf{P}(e = c) \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow c)$$

# Updates

Modify the value of variable  $x_k$  to a constant  $c \in Value_k$ :

$$(\mathbf{U}(c))_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = c \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Set value of variable  $x_k \in$ Var to constant  $c \in$  Value:

$$\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow \boldsymbol{c}) = \left(\bigotimes_{i=1}^{k-1} \mathbf{I}\right) \otimes \mathbf{U}(\boldsymbol{c}) \otimes \left(\bigotimes_{i=k+1}^{\nu} \mathbf{I}\right)$$

Set value of variable  $x_k \in$ **Var** to value given by  $e = a \mid b$ :

$$\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow e) = \sum_{c} \mathbf{P}(e = c) \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow c)$$

if  $[x == 0]^a$  then  $[x \leftarrow 0]^b$ ; else  $[x \leftarrow 1]^c$ ; fi;  $[stop]^d$ 

 $T(P) = P(x = 0) \otimes E(a, b) +$  $+ P(x \neq 0) \otimes E(a, c) +$  $+ U(x \leftarrow 0) \otimes E(b, d) +$  $+ U(x \leftarrow 1) \otimes E(c, d) +$  $+ I \otimes E(d, d)$  if  $[x == 0]^a$  then  $[x \leftarrow 0]^b$ ; else  $[x \leftarrow 1]^c$ ; fi;  $[stop]^d$ 

- $T(P) = P(x = 0) \otimes E(a, b) + P(x \neq 0) \otimes E(a, c) \otimes E(a, c$ 
  - +  $\mathbf{U}(x \leftarrow 0) \otimes \mathbf{E}(b, d)$  +
  - +  $\mathbf{U}(x \leftarrow 1) \otimes \mathbf{E}(c, d)$  +
  - +  $I \otimes E(d, d)$

# An Example

$$\mathbf{T}(P) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \mathbf{E}(a, b) + \\ + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \mathbf{E}(a, c) + \\ + \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \mathbf{E}(b, d) \end{pmatrix} + \\ + \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \mathbf{E}(c, d) \end{pmatrix} + \\ + (\mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{E}(d, d))$$

# An Example

Т

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

Probabilistic Program Analysis

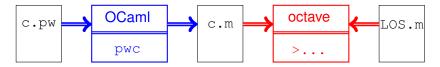
Slide 42 of 47

# LOS and DTMC

$$\begin{array}{lll} \langle \boldsymbol{x}=0,[\boldsymbol{x}=0]\rangle & \dots & \\ \langle \boldsymbol{x}=0,[\boldsymbol{x}:=0]\rangle & \dots & \\ \langle \boldsymbol{x}=0,[\boldsymbol{x}:=1]\rangle & \dots & \\ \langle \boldsymbol{x}=0,[\boldsymbol{stop}]\rangle & \dots & \\ \langle \boldsymbol{x}=1,[\boldsymbol{x}=0]\rangle & \dots & \\ \langle \boldsymbol{x}=1,[\boldsymbol{x}:=0]\rangle & \dots & \\ \langle \boldsymbol{x}=1,[\boldsymbol{x}:=1]\rangle & \dots & \\ \langle \boldsymbol{x}=1,[\boldsymbol{x}:=0]\rangle & \dots$$

# Research Tool: A pWhile Compiler pwc

Written in OCaml produces an octave file c.m which specify the LOS matrices **U**, **P**, etc. for a pWhile program c.pw.



We can use the interactive interface of octave and definitions of standard operations in LOS.m to analyse matrices in c.m.

Exploiting sparse matrix representation to handle programs with about 3 to 5 variables, up to 10 values and program fragments with something like 20 lines/labels.

# Factorial

#### Consider the program F for calculating the factorial of n:

```
var
  m : {0..2};
  n : {0..2};
begin
m := 1;
while (n>1) do
  m := m * n;
  n := n-1;
od;
stop; # looping
end
```

#### $\mathit{flow}(F) = \{(1,1,2), (2,1,3), (3,1,4), (4,1,2), (2,1,5), (5,1,5)\}$

 $\mathbf{\Gamma}(F) = \mathbf{U}(m \leftarrow 1) \otimes \mathbf{E}(1,2) + \mathbf{P}((n > 1)) \otimes \mathbf{E}(2,3) + \mathbf{U}(m \leftarrow (m * n)) \otimes \mathbf{E}(3,4) + \mathbf{U}(n \leftarrow (n-1)) \otimes \mathbf{E}(4,2) + \mathbf{P}((n <= 1)) \otimes \mathbf{E}(2,5) + \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{E}(5,5)$ 

Bolzano, 22-26 August 2016

ESSLLI'16

Probabilistic Program Analysis

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

$$\mathbf{T}(F) = \mathbf{U}(m \leftarrow 1) \otimes \mathbf{E}(1,2) + \\ \mathbf{P}((n > 1)) \otimes \mathbf{E}(2,3) + \\ \mathbf{U}(m \leftarrow (m * n)) \otimes \mathbf{E}(3,4) + \\ \mathbf{U}(n \leftarrow (n-1)) \otimes \mathbf{E}(4,2) + \\ \mathbf{P}((n <= 1)) \otimes \mathbf{E}(2,5) + \\ \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{E}(5,5)$$

The matrix  $\mathbf{T}(F)$  is very big already for small *n*.

n	dim( <b>T</b> ( <i>F</i> ))
2	45 × 45
3	140 × 140
4	625 × 625
5	3630 × 3630
6	$25235 \times 25235$
7	$201640 \times 201640$
8	1814445  imes 1814445
9	18144050  imes 18144050

We will show how we can drastically reduce the dimension of the LOS by using *Probabilistic Abstract Interpretation* (next talk).