# Reasoning about Floating Point in Real-World Systems

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PhD Oral Exam (05/15/2023)

## "Continuous" Computations

#### Continuous values

6, 2.5, 
$$\frac{3}{7}$$
,  $\sqrt{2}$ , 0.9 $\pi$ , ...

Operations on them

$$6 + 2.5, \frac{3}{7} \times \sqrt{2}, \cos(0.9\pi), \dots$$

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Scientific computing



Machine learning



**Computer graphics** 

## Theory and Practice

	Continuous values	values Operations on them	
Theory	Real numbers ( $\mathbb{R}$ )	Exact operations (+, ×,)	

## **Theory and Practice**



## Discrepancy



## Discrepancy



- Discrepancy between the theory and practice of "continuous" computations.
- Can we better understand/characterize this discrepancy arising in real-world systems?

## My Work

Programs that implement math.h.Correctness: [PLDI'16], [POPL'18].Programs that train ML models.Acceleration: [Submitted].Programs that compute derivatives.Correctness: [ICML'23].

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## My Work

- done during my 3-year leave from Stanford

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#### Programs that implement math.h.

Programs that train ML models.

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#### math.h Implementations



math.h implementation **P** 

### math.h Implementations



math.h implementation P

### Problem



math.h implementation  ${\it P}$ 

• Can we find a tight bound on the maximum precision loss automatically?

### Problem



math.h implementation P

- Can we find a tight bound on the maximum precision loss automatically?
- Goal: Find a small  $\Theta > 0$  in an automatic way such that

 $\operatorname{err}(\boldsymbol{f}(x), \boldsymbol{P}(x)) \leq \Theta \quad \text{for all } x \in \boldsymbol{X}.$ 





(1) *P* often mixes floating-point and bit-level operations. [PLDI'16]
(2) *P* is often claimed to have a very small precision loss. [POPL'18]
e.g., < 1 ulp</li>

• **log** has precision loss of < 1 ulp  $\Leftrightarrow$  for any  $x \in X$ ,



• 0.5 ulp is the best we can achieve (by definition).



Prior work on the problem [FM'15, POPL'14, FMICS'09, PLDI'03, FMCAD'00, ...]:

- requires considerable manual efforts; or
- cannot handle general mixed codes and prove small error bounds.

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- Example: Given n (in int), compute  $2^n$  (in double).
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  - Better solution: (n + 1023) << 52. Fast, correct for  $n \in [-1022, 1023]$ .
- Such operations are often used in highly optimized implementations of math.h.

It is difficult to reason about such "mixed codes", which intermix bit-level and floating-point operations.











## **Evaluation Results**

	Optimized implementation Intel's implementation of math.h			
	exp <sub>opt</sub>	sin	log	
error (ulp)	10 <sup>7</sup> :			
	2.5E+06	12 25		
	2.0E+06	10 20		
	1.5E+06	8	5	
	1.0E+06	6 4	)	
	5.0E+05	2		
	0.0E+00 -4.0 -2.0 0.0 2.0 4.0	0 -1.6 -0.8 0.0 0.8 1.6	0.0 1.0 2.0 3.0 4.0	

— Our error bounds [PLDI'16]

--- Claimed error bounds

• Actual errors (between intervals)



## Summary of Contributions [PLDI'16]

- We propose the first systematic, automatic method for verifying mixed codes.
- Our method is based on abstraction, analytic optimization, and testing. Key: Split the input range into sub-intervals so that bit-level op's can be partially evaluated.
- We apply our method to real-world binaries for math.h and prove their formal error bonds.



math.h implementation  ${\it P}$ 



#### **Exactness Properties**

• Floating-point operations are often inexact.

 $a \times_{\mathbb{F}} 2^n \neq a \times 2^n$  $a -_{\mathbb{F}} b \neq a - b$ 

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 if  $|a \times 2^n| \ge 2^{-1022}$ . [Folklore]  
 $a -_{\mathbb{F}} b = a - b$  if  $b/2 \le a \le 2b$ . [Sterbenz, 1973]

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$$\begin{array}{c} \text{if } & [\cdots] \end{array}$$

• Such properties are implicitly used in highly accurate implementations of math.h.

Standard error analysis techniques ignore these exactness properties.

#### Loose Error Bounds





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#### Intel's implementation of math.h


## Our Approach

Construct tighter abstractions by automatically applying exactness results.



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Construct tighter abstractions by automatically applying exactness results.

Check preconditions of exactness results.



Example: Can we apply " $e(x) -_{\mathbb{F}} e'(x) = e(x) - e'(x)$ "?

• Need:  $1/2 e(x) \le e'(x) \le 2e(x)$  for all  $x \in I$ .

## **Our Approach**





# Summary of Contributions [POPL'18]

- We propose the first automatic method for verifying math.h implementations.
- Our method is based on a reduction of this verification problem to optimization problems. Key: Apply exactness results, after checking their preconditions by solving opt'n problems.
- We apply our method to Intel's math.h implementations and prove their correctness.

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$$x \longrightarrow \cdots \log x \cdots$$

#### Agenda

#### Programs that implement math.h.

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Programs that train ML models.

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# Training in Machine Learning



How to accelerate training computation while maintaining training quality?



• Standard training: Use FP32 to represent tensors.



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  - Example: operator-based assignment  $\pi_{op}$ .



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  - We call a mapping from tensors to {high, low} a "precision assignment".
  - Example: operator-based assignment  $\pi_{op}$ , uniform assignment  $\pi_{unif}$ .

## Limitations

#### most often just one

• For a given set of models, prior work uses very few precision assignments (e.g.,  $\pi_{unif}$  or  $\pi_{op}$ ).

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- But for other models, the chosen  $\pi$ 
  - may result in noticeably worse accuracy (and divergence of training).
  - may admit more efficient assignments that achieve similar accuracy.

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## Memory-Accuracy Tradeoff Problem

- Input: a model *M*, FP formats  $(FP_{hi}, FP_{lo})$ , and a parameter  $r \in [0,1]$ .
- Goal: Find a precision assignment  $\pi$  for M using only  $(FP_{hi}, FP_{lo})$  such that

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E.g., ratio<sub>lo</sub>( $\pi_{hi}$ ) = 0, ratio<sub>lo</sub>( $\pi_{lo}$ ) = 1.

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• Find  $\pi$  that maximizes training accuracy under a memory/time constraint (given by r).

# Challenges

- Input: a model *M*, FP formats  $(FP_{hi}, FP_{lo})$ , and a parameter  $r \in [0,1]$ .
- Goal: Find a precision assignment  $\pi$  for M using only  $(FP_{hi}, FP_{lo})$  such that

 $\operatorname{acc}_M(\pi)$  is maximized subject to  $\operatorname{ratio}_{\operatorname{lo}}(\pi) \ge r$ .

- Practically,
  - There is no known analytic method for predicting  $acc_M(\pi)$ .
  - There are exponentially many candidates for  $\pi$ .

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- Practically,
  - There is no known analytic method for predicting  $acc_M(\pi)$ .
  - There are exponentially many candidates for  $\pi$ .
- Theoretically, we prove:

<u>Theorem</u> The memory-accuracy tradeoff problem is NP-hard.

- Input: a model *M*, FP formats  $(FP_{hi}, FP_{lo})$ , and a parameter  $r \in [0,1]$ .
- Our method for **the tradeoff problem**:
  - Initialize  $\pi$  to the all- $FP_{hi}$  assignment.



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  - Repeat it while  $ratio_{lo}(\pi) \ge r$ . Return the final  $\pi$ .



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    - *FP*<sub>hi</sub> Conv MaxPool Conv • • • **y**<sub>4</sub>  $y_2$ **y**<sub>3</sub>  $\pi$ dConv dMaxPool dConv ...  $dy_2$  $dy_4$  $dy_3$ dL

- Optimal in a very simplified setting.
- Empirically better than other orders.

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- The above method places no explicit constraint on  $\operatorname{acc}_M(\pi)$ .
  - Observe: Training with this  $\pi$  sometimes diverges, due to too many overflows.

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- The above method places no explicit constraint on  $acc_M(\pi)$ .
  - Observe: Training with this  $\pi$  sometimes diverges, due to too many overflows.
- Our method for **handling overflows**:
  - Promote the precision of tensors that overflow "too much" to FP<sub>hi</sub>. ← during training

before training

## **Evaluation Results**

• Comparison with existing precision assignments.



## Summary of Contributions [Submitted]

- We formally introduce the memory-accuracy tradeoff problem and prove its NP-hardness.
- We propose:

(i) a novel precision assignment method as a heuristic solution to the tradeoff problem;(ii) a novel technique that can handle too many overflows arising in training.

• We demonstrate that our techniques outperform existing precision assignments.

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$$NN \longrightarrow \min_{w} \mathcal{L}(NN_{w})$$
  
memory & time  $\Downarrow$ 

## Agenda

Programs that implement math.h.

Correctness: [PLDI'16], [POPL'18].

Probabilistic / differentiable programming. Correctness: [NeurIPS'18/20], [POPL'20/23].

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Acceleration: [Submitted].

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## Autodiff

• Autodiff (AD): a class of algorithms that compute

 $\mathcal{D}P(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  (when it exists)

for a given program  $P : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  and input  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , by applying the chain rule.

• Backpropagation algorithm: an instance of AD, widely used in machine learning.

If P consists of differentiable functions and language constructs, then

$$\exists \mathcal{D}P(x) \land \mathcal{D}P(x) = \mathcal{D}^{\mathrm{AD}}P(x) \qquad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

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If P uses non-differentiable functions or language constructs, then

$$\nexists \mathcal{D}P(x) \quad \forall \quad \mathcal{D}P(x) \neq \mathcal{D}^{\mathrm{AD}}P(x) \qquad \text{for some } x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

E.g., for 
$$P(x) = \operatorname{ReLU}(x) - \operatorname{ReLU}(-x)$$
,  
 $\mathcal{D}P(0) = 1$  but  $\mathcal{D}^{\operatorname{AD}}P(0) = 0$ .

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• If *P* consists of differentiable functions and language constructs, then

$$\exists DP(x) \land DP(x) = D^{AD}P(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$
My previous result [NeurIPS'20]
• If P uses non-differentiable functions or language constructs, then
$$\exists DP(x) \lor DP(x) \neq D^{AD}P(x) \quad \text{for some } x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$
That is,
$$\exists DP(x) \quad \forall \quad DP(x) \neq D^{AD}P(x) \quad \text{for some } x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$


## Limitations







### Limitations



## Problem

- Study the correctness of AD when inputs are floats (not reals).
- We focus on programs  $P : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  that represent neural networks:

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- We focus on programs  $P : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  that represent neural networks:

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• Goal: Bound the size of the incorrect set  $(S_{inc})$  and non-differentiable set  $(S_{ndf})$  of P.



• Consider a neural network *P* with bias parameters:



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$$w_1 w_2$$

$$x_1 \qquad f_1(x_1, w_1) + w_2$$

$$x_2 \qquad \text{ReLU}(x_2)$$

$$w_3 w_4$$

$$f_3(x_3, w_3) + w_4$$

$$x_4 \qquad \text{ReLU}(x_4)$$

$$\dots$$

• <u>Theorem 1</u> The incorrect set is always empty:



somewhat surprising, given that there were no such type of results before

![](_page_77_Figure_6.jpeg)

• Consider a neural network *P* with bias parameters:

$$w_1 w_2 \xrightarrow{x_1} f_1(x_1, w_1) + w_2 \xrightarrow{x_2} \text{ReLU}(x_2) \xrightarrow{w_3 w_4} f_3(x_3, w_3) + w_4 \xrightarrow{\text{ReLU}(x_4)} \cdots$$

• <u>Theorem 2</u> The density of the non-differentiable set is upper-bounded by

![](_page_78_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_78_Figure_5.jpeg)

• Consider a neural network *P* with bias parameters:

$$\begin{array}{c} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ x_1 \\ \end{array} \\ f_1(x_1, w_1) + w_2 \\ x_2 \\ \end{array} \\ \hline \\ x_2 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ x_3 \\ \end{array} \\ \hline \\ x_3 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ x_3 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ x_3 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ x_3 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ x_3 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ x_3 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ x_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} ReLU(x_4) \\ x_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} ReLU(x_4) \\ w_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} ReLU(x_4) \\ w_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ w_4 \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} w_3 \\ w_4 \\ w_$$

• <u>Theorem 2</u> The density of the non-differentiable set is upper-bounded by

$$\frac{|S_{\text{ndf}}|}{|\mathbb{F}^n|} \le \frac{\# \text{ ReLUs in } P}{|\mathbb{F}|}$$

• <u>Theorem 3</u> For many *P*, the above density is lower-bounded by

$$\frac{|S_{\text{ndf}}|}{|\mathbb{F}^n|} \ge \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\# \text{ ReLUs in } P}{|\mathbb{F}|}$$

![](_page_79_Picture_7.jpeg)

• Consider a neural network *P* with bias parameters:

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$$x_1 f_1(x_1, w_1) + w_2$$

$$x_2$$

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$$w_3 w_4$$

$$f_3(x_3, w_3) + w_4$$

$$x_4$$

$$ReLU(x_4)$$

$$\dots$$

• <u>Theorem 4</u> Over the non-differentiable set, AD computes a generalized derivative:

$$\mathcal{D}^{AD}P(w) \in \partial P(w) \quad \text{for all } w \in S_{\text{ndf}}.$$

$$\mathcal{D}^{AD}P(w) \in \mathcal{D}^{P}(w) \quad \mathcal{T}_{\text{subdifferential of } P}$$

$$\triangleq \operatorname{conv}\left\{\lim_{t \to \infty} \mathcal{D}^{P}(w_{t}) : w_{t} \to w\right\}$$

• Consider a neural network *P* with bias parameters:

![](_page_81_Figure_2.jpeg)

• <u>Theorem 3</u> On the non-differentiable set, AD computes a generalized derivative:

![](_page_81_Figure_4.jpeg)

# Summary of Contributions [ICML'23]

- We theoretically study the correctness of AD for neural networks when param's are floats.
- We prove tight bounds on the density of the incorrect and non-differentiable sets.
   We also prove what AD computes over these sets.
- Our results imply that AD for neural networks is correct on most floating-point param's, and it is correct more often with bias parameters.

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$$P \longrightarrow \cdots \mathcal{D}^{AD}P \cdots$$

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Acceleration: [Submitted].

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 $\Rightarrow$  Have widened our understanding of floating point in real-world systems.

# Questions?