Formal verification of IA-64 division & square root software

Formal verification of IA-64 division and square root software John Harrison Intel Corporation, EY2-03

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IA-64 overview

IA-64 is a new 64-bit computer architecture jointly developed by Hewlett-Packard and Intel, and the forthcoming Merced chip from Intel will be its first silicon implementation. Among the special features of IA-64 are:

- An instruction format encoding parallelism explicitly
- Instruction predication
- Speculative and advanced loads
- Upward compatibility with IA-32 (x86).

The IA-64 Applications Developer's Architecture Guide is now available from Intel in printed form and online:

http://developer.intel.com/design/ia64/downloads/adag.htm

Quick introduction to HOL

The prover we use, HOL Light, is based on the approach to theorem proving pioneered in Edinburgh LCF in the 70s. The key ideas are:

- All theorems created by low-level primitive rules.
- Guaranteed by using an abstract type of theorems; no need to store proofs.
- ML available for implementing derived rules by arbitrary programming.

This gives advantages of reliability and extensibility. The system's source code can be completely open. The user controls the means of production (of theorems). To improve efficiency one can:

- Encapsulate reasoning in single theorems.
- Separate proof search and proof checking.



Some of HOL Light's derived rules

- Simplifier for (conditional, contextual) rewriting.
- Tactic mechanism for mixed forward and backward proofs.
- Tautology checker.
- Automated theorem provers for pure logic, based on tableaux and model elimination.
- Tools for definition of (infinitary, mutually) inductive relations.
- Tools for definition of (mutually) recursive datatypes
- Linear arithmetic decision procedures over ℝ,
 ℤ and ℕ.
- Differentiator for real functions.

Floating point numbers

There are various different schemes for floating point numbers. Usually, the floating point numbers are those representable in some number n of significant binary digits, within a certain exponent range, i.e.

$$(-1)^s \times d_0.d_1d_2\cdots d_n \times 2^e$$

where

- $s \in \{0, 1\}$ is the sign
- $d_0.d_1d_2\cdots d_n$ is the *significand* and $d_1d_2\cdots d_n$ is the *fraction*. These are not always used consistently; sometimes 'mantissa' is used for one or the other
- e is the exponent.

We often refer to p = n + 1 as the *precision*.

IA-64 floating point formats

A floating point format is a particular allowable precision and exponent range.

IA-64 supports a multitude of possible formats, e.g.

- IEEE single: p = 24 and $-126 \le e \le 127$
- IEEE double: p = 53 and $-1022 \le e \le 1023$
- IEEE double-extended: p = 64 and $-16382 \le e \le 16383$
- IA-64 register format: p = 64 and $-65534 \le e \le 65535$

There are various other hybrid formats, and a separate type of parallel FP numbers, which is SIMD single precision.

The highest precision, 'register', is normally used for intermediate calculations in algorithms.

HOL floating point theory (1)

We have formalized a generic floating point theory in HOL, which can be applied to all the IA-64 formats, and others supported in software such as quad precision.

A floating point format is identified by a triple of natural numbers fmt.

The corresponding set of real numbers is format(fmt), or ignoring the upper limit on the exponent, iformat(fmt).

Floating point rounding returns a floating point approximation to a real number, ignoring upper exponent limits. More precisely

round fmt rc x

returns the appropriate member of iformat(fmt) for an exact value x, depending on the rounding mode rc, which may be one of Nearest, Down, Up and Zero.



Division and square root on IA-64

There are no hardware instructions (in IA-64 mode) for division and square root. Instead, approximation instructions are provided, e.g. the floating point reciprocal square root approximation instruction.

frsqrta. $sf f_1, p_2 = f_3$

In normal cases, this returns in f_1 an approximation to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{f_3}}$. The approximation has a worst-case relative error of about $2^{-8.85}$. The particular approximation is specified in the IA-64 architecture.

Software is intended to start from this approximation and refine it to an accurate square root, using for example Newton-Raphson iteration, power series expansions or any other technique that seems effective.

Correctness issues

The IEEE standard states that all the algebraic operations should give the closest floating point number to the true answer, or the closest number up, down, or towards zero in other rounding modes.

It is easy to get within a bit or so of the right answer, but meeting the IEEE spec is significantly more challenging.

In addition, all the flags need to be set correctly, e.g. inexact, underflow,

There are various methods for designing IEEE-correct software algorithms, and we will show one such algorithm for square root and show how it was formally verified.

Related techniques can be used for division.

Our algorithm example

Our example is an algorithm for square roots using only single precision computations (hence suitable for SIMD). It is built using two basic IA-64 operations:

- The reciprocal square root approximation frsqrta described above, which given an input *a* returns an approximation to $1/\sqrt{a}$ with relative error at most about $2^{-8.85}$.
- The fused multiply add and its negated variant, which calculates xy + z or z - xywith just a single rounding error.

Because it only uses single precision calculations, readers can 'try it at home'; it's fairly easy to simulate a single-precision fused multiply-add on standard hardware. The actual tables used in the frsqrta instruction are documented in the IA-64 Architecture Guide.

The square root algorithm

1.	$y_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}(1+\epsilon)$	f(p)rsqrta
	$b = \frac{1}{2}a$	Single
2.	$z_0 = y_0^2$	Single
	$S_0 = ay_0$	Single
3.	$d = \frac{1}{2} - bz_0$	Single
	$k = ay_0 - S_0$	Single
	$H_0 = \frac{1}{2}y_0$	Single
4.	$e = 1 + \frac{3}{2}d$	Single
	$T_0 = dS_0 + k$	Single
5.	$S_1 = S_0 + eT_0$	Single
	c = 1 + de	Single
6.	$d_1 = a - S_1 S_1$	Single
	$H_1 = cH_0$	Single
7.	$S = S_1 + d_1 H_1$	Single

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Proving IEEE correctness

Provided the input number is in a certain range, this algorithm returns the correctly rounded square root *and* sets all the IEEE flags correctly.

How do we prove that the result is correctly rounded? We will concentrate on round-to-nearest mode, which is the most interesting case. What the algorithm actually returns is the result of rounding the value:

 $S^* = S_1 + d_1 H_1$

The algorithm is correct if this is always the same as the result of rounding the exact square root \sqrt{a} .

Moreover, properties of this value S^* , e.g. whether it is already exactly a floating point number, determine the final flag settings (intermediate steps do not set flags). We also want to make sure these properties are the same as for the exact square root.

Condition for perfect rounding

We prove perfect rounding using a formalization of a technique described here:

http://developer.intel.com/technology/itj/q21998/articles/art_3.htm

A sufficient condition for perfect rounding is that the closest floating point number to \sqrt{a} is also the closest to S^* . That is, the two real numbers \sqrt{a} and S^* never fall on opposite sides of a midpoint between two floating point numbers.

In the following diagram this is not true; \sqrt{a} would round to the number below it, but S^* to the number above it.



How can we prove this?

Exclusion zones

It would suffice if we knew for any midpoint m that:

$$|\sqrt{a} - S^*| < |\sqrt{a} - m|$$

In that case \sqrt{a} and S^* cannot lie on opposite sides of m. Here is the formal theorem in HOL:

$$|-\neg(\text{precision fmt} = 0) \land$$
$$(\forall m. m \text{ IN midpoints fmt} \\ \implies abs(x - y) < abs(x - m)) \\ \implies (\text{round fmt Nearest } x = round fmt Nearest } y)$$

And this is possible to prove, because in fact every midpoint m is surrounded by an 'exclusion zone' of width $\delta_m > 0$ within which the square root of a floating point number cannot occur.

However, this δ can be quite small, considered as a relative error. If the floating point format has precision p, then we can have $\delta_m \approx |m|/2^{2p+2}$.

Difficult cases

So to ensure the equal rounding property, we need to make the final approximation before the last rounding accurate to *more than twice* the final accuracy.

The fused multiply-add can help us to achieve *just under twice* the accuracy, but to do better is slow and complicated. How can we bridge the gap?

Only a fairly small number of possible inputs a can come closer than say $2^{-(2p-1)}$. For all the other inputs, a straightforward relative error calculation (which in HOL we have largely automated) yields the result.

We can then use number-theoretic reasoning to isolate the additional cases we need to consider, then simply *try them and see*! More than likely we will be lucky, since all the error bounds are worst cases and even if the error is exceeded, it might be in the right direction to ensure perfect rounding anyway.

Isolating difficult cases

By some straightforward mathematics, formalizable in HOL without difficulty, one can show that the difficult cases have mantissas m, considered as p-bit integers, such that one of the following diophantine equations has a solution kfor d a small integer. (Typically ≤ 10 , depending on the exact accuracy of the final approximation before rounding.)

$$2^{p+2}m = k^2 + d$$

or

$$2^{p+1}m = k^2 + d$$

We consider the equations separately for each chosen d. For example, we might be interested in whether:

$$2^{p+1}m = k^2 - 7$$

has a solution. If so, the possible value(s) of m are added to the set of difficult cases.

Solving the equations

It's quite easy to program HOL to enumerate all the solutions of such diophantine equations, returning a disjunctive theorem of the form:

$$(2^{p+1}m = k^2 + d) \Longrightarrow (m = n_1) \lor \ldots \lor (m = n_i)$$

The procedure simply uses even-odd reasoning and recursion on the power of two (effectively so-called 'Hensel lifting'). For example, if

$$2^{25}m = k^2 - 7$$

then we know k must be odd; we can write k = 2k' + 1 and get the derived equation:

$$2^{24}m = 2k'^2 + 2k' - 3$$

By more even/odd reasoning, this has no solutions. In general, we recurse down to an equation that is trivially unsatisfiable, as here, or immediately solvable. One equation can split into two, but never more.

Conclusions

Because of HOL's mathematical generality, all the reasoning needed can be done in a unified way with the customary HOL guarantee of soundness:

- Underlying pure mathematics
- Formalization of floating point operations
- Proof that the condition tested ensures perfect rounding
- Routine relative error computation for the final result before rounding
- Number-theoretic isolation of difficult cases
- Explicit computation with those cases

Moreover, because HOL is programmable, many of these parts can be, and have been, automated. In short, HOL is an almost ideal vehicle for verifications of this type.