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# A Formal Framework to Measure the Incompleteness of Abstract Interpretations 

Marco Campion ${ }^{1[0000-0002-1099-3494]}$, Caterina Urban ${ }^{1[0000-0002-8127-9642]}$, Mila Dalla Preda ${ }^{2[0000-0003-2761-4347]}$, and Roberto Giacobazzi ${ }^{3[0000-0002-9582-3960]}$<br>1 INRIA \& École Normale Supérieure | Université PSL, Paris, France \{marco.campion, caterina.urban\}@inria.fr<br>2 University of Verona, Department of Computer Science, Verona, Italy mila.dallapreda@univr.it<br>${ }^{3}$ University of Arizona, Department of Computer Science, Tucson, Arizona, USA giacobazzi@arizona.edu


#### Abstract

In program analysis by abstract interpretation, backwardcompleteness represents no loss of precision between the result of the analysis and the abstraction of the concrete execution, while forwardcompleteness stands for no imprecision between the concretization of the analysis result and the concrete execution. Program analyzers satisfying one of the two properties (or both) are considered precise. Regrettably, as for all approximation methods, the presence of false-alarms is most of the time unavoidable and therefore we need to deal somehow with incompleteness of both. To this end, a new property called partial completeness has recently been formalized as a relaxation of backward-completeness allowing a limited amount of imprecision measured by quasi-metrics. However, the use of quasi-metrics enforces distance functions to adhere precisely the abstract domain ordering, thus not suitable to be used to weaken the forward-completeness property which considers also abstract domains that are not necessarily based on Galois Connections. In this paper, we formalize a weaker form of quasi-metric, called pre-metric, which can be defined on all domains equipped with a pre-order relation. We show how this newly defined notion of pre-metric allows us to derive other pre-metrics on other domains by exploiting the concretization and, when available, the abstraction maps, according to the information and the corresponding level of approximation that we want to measure. Finally, by exploiting pre-metrics as our imprecision meter, we introduce the partial forward/backward-completeness properties.


Keywords: Abstract Interpretation • Partial Completeness • Completeness • Program Analysis • Distances

## 1 Introduction

The theory of Abstract Interpretation introduced by Cousot and Cousot [20,21,22], is a general theory for the approximation of formal program semantics based on
a simple but striking idea that extracting properties of programs' execution means over-approximating their semantics. It is an invaluable framework that helps programmers design sound-by-construction program analysis tools as it makes possible to express mathematically the link between the output of a practical, approximated analysis, also called abstract semantics, and the original, uncomputable program semantics, also called concrete semantics.

The abstract interpretation of a program $P$ consists of an abstract domain of properties of interest $\mathcal{A}$ ordered by a partial-order $\leq_{\mathcal{A}}$, a concretization map $\gamma$ and an abstract interpreter $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}}$, designed for the language used to specify $P$ and on the abstract domain $\mathcal{A}$. Let $\llbracket P \rrbracket S$ be the result of the concrete (collecting) program semantics on a set of concrete inputs $S$. Soundness means that for all possible abstract inputs $S^{\sharp} \in \mathcal{A}$ it holds $\llbracket P \rrbracket \gamma\left(S^{\sharp}\right) \subseteq \gamma\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}} S^{\sharp}\right)$. Furthermore, when $\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}}$ also satisfies $\llbracket P \rrbracket \gamma\left(S^{\sharp}\right)=\gamma\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}} S^{\sharp}\right)$ then $\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}}$ is said to be forward-complete [32], while if the equation holds for a given input $S^{\sharp} \in \mathcal{A}$, then it is locally forward-complete at $S^{\sharp}$. In abstract interpretation forward-completeness intuitively encodes the greatest achievable precision for an abstract interpreter $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}}$ applied on a program $P$, meaning that $\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}} S^{\sharp}$ exactly matches the concrete result of the concrete counterpart $\llbracket P \rrbracket \gamma\left(S^{\sharp}\right)$. When the abstraction $\mathcal{A}$ also admits a Galois Connection (GC) with the concrete domain through an abstraction map $\alpha$, then $\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}}$ is said to be backward-complete when $\alpha(\llbracket P \rrbracket S)=\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}} \alpha(S)$ holds for all possible concrete set of inputs $S$, while locally backward-complete $[5,7]$ at $S$ if it holds for the input $S$. The backward-completeness property encodes an optimal behavior of the abstract interpreter $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}}$ with respect to the abstraction in $\mathcal{A}$ of the concrete behavior $\llbracket P \rrbracket S$. Forward- and backward-completeness and their local versions are both highly desirable properties in program analysis for verifying safety properties of programs (also called correctness properties) [21,33,29,39]. Unfortunately, it is well known that whenever a non-trivial abstract domain is used, the analysis will be necessarily (locally) forward/backward-incomplete, meaning that false alarms or spurious counterexamples will arise also for correct programs [29,11]. In fact, forward/backward-completeness and their local definitions in program analysis are extremely hard, if not even impossible, to achieve [33,11]. For this reason, instead of trying to reach forward/backward-completeness, we need to deal with incompleteness of both and therefore with imprecision [27].

In this direction, the notion of partial completeness has been introduced in [11] in order to weaken the equality requirement of the local backwardcompleteness property. Partial completeness allows a limited amount of incompleteness and this amount is measured by quasi-metrics $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}: \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty} \cup\{\perp\}$ (where the symbol $\perp$ means undefined) compatible with the underlying abstract domain partial-ordering, where $\mathcal{A}$ is assumed to be a complete lattice. More specifically, for a distance function $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}$ being a quasi-metric $\mathcal{A}$-compatible means satisfying for all $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3} \in \mathcal{A}$ : $(i)$ the partial-ordering $\leq_{\mathcal{A}}: a_{1} \leq_{\mathcal{A}} a_{2} \Leftrightarrow$ $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \neq \perp ;(i i)$ identity of indiscernibles: $a_{1}=a_{2} \Leftrightarrow \delta\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=0$; and (iii) the weak triangle inequality, namely, the triangle inequality only along chains $a_{1} \leq_{\mathcal{A}} a_{2} \leq_{\mathcal{A}} a_{3}$. So for instance, consider the intervals abstract do-
main [19] Int $\stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{[a, b] \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^{*}, a \leq b\right\} \cup\left\{\perp_{\operatorname{lnt}}\right\}$, where $\mathbb{Z}^{*} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \mathbb{Z} \cup\{-\infty,+\infty\}$, endowed with the standard ordering $\leq_{\operatorname{lnt}}$ induced by the interval containment. We can consider as quasi-metric Int-compatible the distance $\delta_{\mathrm{Int}}^{\mathfrak{w}}$ that counts how many more integer values has one interval with respect to another comparable interval. For instance, $\delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}([0,0],[0,5])=5, \delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}([0,+\infty],[-2,+\infty])=2$, while $\delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}([0,5],[0,0])=\perp$ as $[0,5] \not Z_{\operatorname{lnt}}[0,0]$. The analysis $\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}} \alpha(S)$ on a program $P$ with input $S$ is said to be $\varepsilon$-partial complete at input $S$ for an amount $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty}$ whenever $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\left(\alpha(\llbracket P \rrbracket S), \llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}} \alpha(S)\right) \leq \varepsilon$ holds, namely, the distance between the abstraction of the concrete execution and the result of the abstract interpreter is at maximum $\varepsilon$. In this setting, requiring 0 -partial completeness at $S$ corresponds to require local backward-completeness at $S$.

Main Contribution. In this paper we generalize the partial completeness property in order to be able to weaken both the local backward-completeness property in presence of a GC, and the local forward-completeness property in case only the concretization function $\gamma$ is available. In this last scenario, as we may need to define distances on concrete domains, a weakening of the definition of quasi-metrics $\mathcal{A}$-compatible is necessary. This is because, in the original formalization [11], the definition of quasi-metric $\mathcal{A}$-compatible is specifically tailored for the structure of abstract domains and their relative partial-ordering: the axiom ( $i$ ) forces the quasi-metric to return a value different from $\perp$ only if the two elements are comparable according to $\leq_{\mathcal{A}}$, namely $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}$ induces the partial-order $\leq_{\mathcal{A}}$. This is in fact not necessary: as our aim is to measure the incompleteness of an abstract interpreter with respect to the concrete execution, these two results are guaranteed to be comparable by soundness, therefore the distance may even return values on non-comparable elements as long as it is defined on all comparable ones. Moreover, the identity of indiscernibles axiom (ii) requires the quasi-metric to be precise enough to recognize equal elements since it constraints the distance to return zero whenever the two elements are equal. This is a too strong requirement especially in the scenario where only $\gamma$ is available and we have to define a distance on the concrete domain where elements contain more information than what we are interested in for measuring the incompleteness. For instance, by considering the concrete domain $\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)$ where $n$ is the number of variables used in a program and elements in $S \in \wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)$ are program states, we might need a distance function $\delta_{\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}$ that measures the imprecision of certain variables only, say $x$ and $y$. A possible estimate of this imprecision could be done by calculating the volume of their abstraction into the intervals abstract domain, namely, the area of the rectangle abstracting the values of $x$ and $y$.

To this end, in Section 3 we reason on the weakest axioms that a distance function should meet so that it can be used to measure the local forward/backwardincompleteness. We just require a relaxed version of the identity of indiscernibles axiom (only the left-implication) and a condition on chains. As domains may not be complete lattices or partial-orders, such as the convex polyhedra abstract domain [24], we only require one of the weakest form of ordering relation known as a pre-order. The resulting distance function will be called pre-metric $\preceq_{D^{-}}$ compatible where $D$ is a pre-ordered set according to the pre-order $\preceq_{D}$. We will
provide several useful examples of pre-metrics compatible to generic pre-ordered sets, as well as well-known numerical abstract domains, that can be used in practice. In Section 4 we show how this newly defined notion of pre-metric $\preceq_{D^{-}}$ compatible allows us to derive other pre-metrics from one domain to another by exploiting the concretization $\gamma$ or, when available, the abstraction map $\alpha$. Finally, in Section 5 we define the new properties partial backward-completeness and partial forward-completeness using pre-metrics compatible with the underlying domain ordering. We show that, when a certain condition on the precision of the pre-metric is met, then we can characterize the local forward/backwardcompleteness as the 0 -partial forward/backward-completeness. The proposed framework is general enough to be instantiated by most known metrics for abstract interpretation [25,36,42,13,11]. Since imprecision, i.e., incompleteness, is unavoidable in program analysis, our ambition is to help abstract interpretation designers in defining distances able to measure the imprecision they want to track regardless of the domain on which they want to define the distance, hence providing the appropriate tools to fully control the imprecision propagation.

## 2 Background

Orderings. Given two sets $S$ and $T, \wp(S)$ denotes the powerset of $S, \varnothing$ is the empty set, $S \subseteq T$ denotes sets inclusion, $|S|$ denotes the cardinality where $S$ is finite if $|S|<\omega$, countably infinite if $|S|=\omega$, countable if $|S| \leq \omega$. A binary relation $\sim$ over a set $S$ is a subset of the Cartesian product $\sim \subseteq \bar{S} \times S$. We will emphasize the set $S$ on which a binary relation $\sim$ is defined by the subscript $\sim_{S}$ except for the straightforward equivalence relation $=$ unless it has a different definition. We denote with $\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{R}$ the sets of all, respectively, integer and real numbers. We will use subscripts in order to limit their range, while the superscript symbol $\infty$ denotes the inclusion of the infinite symbol. For example, $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty}$ denotes the set of all non-negative real numbers together with the symbol $\infty$ such that, for all $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}, \varepsilon<\infty$.

A binary relation $\preceq_{L} \in \wp(L \times L)$ is a pre-order iff it is reflexive ( $\left.\forall l \in L . l \preceq_{L} l\right)$ and transitive $\left(\forall l_{1}, l_{2}, l_{3} \in L . l_{1} \preceq_{L} l_{2} \wedge l_{2} \preceq_{L} l_{3} \Rightarrow l_{1} \preceq_{L} l_{3}\right)$. A set $L$ endowed with a pre-order relation $\preceq_{L}$ is called a pre-ordered set, and it is denoted by ( $L, \preceq_{L}$ ). Furthermore, if $\preceq_{L}$ is anti-symmetric ( $\forall l_{1}, l_{2} \in L$. $l_{1} \preceq_{L} l_{2} \wedge l_{2} \preceq_{L}$ $\left.l_{1} \Rightarrow l_{1}=l_{2}\right)$ then it is a partial-order and the pair $\left(L, \preceq_{L}\right)$ is called a partiallyordered set. Clearly, every partially-ordered set is also a pre-ordered set. A subset $Y \subseteq L$ of a pre-ordered set $\left(L, \preceq_{L}\right)$ is a chain iff for all $y_{1}, y_{2} \in Y, y_{1} \preceq_{L} y_{2}$ or $y_{2} \preceq_{L} y_{1}$.

Measures and Distances. A $\sigma$-algebra on a set $X$ is a collection of subsets of $X$ that includes $X$ itself, it is closed under complement and it is closed under countable unions. The definition implies that it also includes the empty set $\varnothing$ and that it is closed under countable intersections. Consider a $\sigma$-algebra $A$ over $X$. The tuple $(X, A)$ is called a measurable space.

Definition 1 (Measure). A function $\mu: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty}$ is called a measure iff it satisfies the following properties:
(1) non-negativity: $\forall S \in A . \mu(S) \geq 0$;
(2) null empty set: $\mu(\varnothing)=0$;
(3) countable additivity: if $S_{i} \in A$ is a countable sequence of disjoint sets, then $\mu\left(\bigcup_{i} S_{i}\right)=\sum_{i} \mu\left(S_{i}\right)$.
The triple $(X, A, \mu)$ is called a measure space.
A metric is a function that defines a distance between pairs of elements of a set $S$. Formally:

Definition 2 (Metric). A metric on a non-empty set $S$ is a map $\delta_{S}: S \times S \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ that $\forall x, y, z \in S$ satisfies:
(1) identity of indiscernibles: $x=y \Leftrightarrow \delta_{S}(x, y)=0$;
(2) symmetry: $\delta_{S}(x, y)=\delta_{S}(y, x)$;
(3) triangle inequality: $\delta_{S}(x, z) \leq \delta_{S}(x, y)+\delta_{S}(y, z)$.

A set provided with a metric is called a metric space.
A function $\delta_{S}: S \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ satisfying all axioms of Definition 2 except for symmetry, is called a quasi-metric, while if $\delta_{S}$ does not satisfy the $\Leftarrow$ direction of the identity of indiscernibles axiom then it is called a pseudo-metric. A pseudoquasi-metric relaxes both the indiscernibility axiom and the symmetry axiom of a metric. $\delta_{S}$ is said to be a pre-metric if it satisfies only the $\Leftarrow$ implication of the identity of indiscernibility axiom (symmetry and triangle inequality may not hold).

Abstract Interpretation. We consider here the abstract interpretation framework as defined in [22] and based on the correspondence between a domain of concrete or exact properties $\mathcal{C}$ and a domain of abstract or approximate properties $\mathcal{A}$. Concrete and abstract domains are assumed to be at least pre-ordered sets, respectively $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right)$ and $\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$, and be related by a monotone concretization function $\gamma: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$. Furthermore, when they enjoy a Galois Connection (GC) through a monotone abstraction function $\alpha: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, denoted by the symbols $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \stackrel{\gamma}{\stackrel{\gamma}{\longleftrightarrow}}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$, then for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and $c \in \mathcal{C}: \alpha(c) \preceq_{\mathcal{A}} a \Leftrightarrow c \preceq_{\mathcal{C}} \gamma(a)$. A GC is a Galois Insertion (GI), denoted by $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \stackrel{\gamma}{\stackrel{\gamma}{~}}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$, when it holds $\alpha \circ \gamma=i d$, where $\circ$ denotes functions composition and $i d$ is the identity function. A concrete element $c \in \mathcal{C}$ is said to be exactly representable in the abstract domain $\mathcal{A}$ when $\gamma(\alpha(c))=c$.

Soundness and Completeness. Let $f_{\mathcal{C}}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ be a concrete monotone operator (to keep notation simple we consider unary functions) and let $f_{\mathcal{A}}: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be a corresponding monotone abstract operator defined on some abstraction $\mathcal{A}$. Then, $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is a sound (or correct) approximation of $f_{\mathcal{C}}$ on $\mathcal{A}$ when for all $a \in \mathcal{A}, f_{\mathcal{C}}(\gamma(a)) \preceq_{\mathcal{C}} \gamma\left(f_{\mathcal{A}}(a)\right)$ holds. When dealing with GCs, between all abstract functions that approximate a concrete one we can define the most precise one called best correct approximation (bca for short): $f_{\mathcal{A}}^{\alpha} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \alpha \circ f_{\mathcal{C}} \circ \gamma$. It turns out
that any abstract function $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is a correct approximation of $f_{\mathcal{C}}$ if and only if it holds $f_{\mathcal{A}}^{\alpha} \preceq_{\mathcal{A}} f_{\mathcal{A}}[20]$.

Given an abstract input $a \in \mathcal{A}$, when the concretization of $f_{\mathcal{A}}(a)$ matches the concrete counterpart $f_{\mathcal{C}}(\gamma(a))$ then $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is said to be locally forward-complete ${ }^{1}$ at the input $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

Definition 3 (Local forward-completeness). Let $f_{\mathcal{A}}: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be a sound approximation of $f_{\mathcal{C}}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$. Given an input $a \in \mathcal{A}, f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is said to be locally forward-complete at the input a, when $f_{\mathcal{C}}(\gamma(a))=\gamma\left(f_{\mathcal{A}}(a)\right)$ holds.

When $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{A}$ admit a GC, then we can also define the property of local backward-completeness [5,7].

Definition 4 (Local backward-completeness). Let $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \underset{\alpha}{\stackrel{\gamma}{\leftrightarrows}}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$ and $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ be a sound approximation of $f_{\mathcal{C}}$. Given an input $c \in \mathcal{C}, f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is said to be locally backward-complete at the input $c$, when $\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right)=f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))$.

The local forward- and backward-completeness properties are a weakening of the standard notions of forward- [32] and backward-completeness ${ }^{2}$ [20,21,33], respectively, which require Definition 3 and 4 to hold over all possible, respectively, abstract and concrete inputs. Intuitively, when $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is an abstract transfer function on $\mathcal{A}$ used in some static program analysis algorithm, local backwardcompleteness at input $c \in \mathcal{C}$ encodes an optimal precision for $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ at input $\alpha(c)$, meaning that the abstract behavior of $f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))$ on $\mathcal{A}$ exactly matches the abstraction in $\mathcal{A}$ of the concrete behavior of $f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)$. On the other hand, if $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is locally forward-complete at the abstract input $a \in \mathcal{A}$ means that $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ acts on the abstract input $a$ precisely as $f_{\mathcal{C}}$ does on its concretization. As a remark, when $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is locally forward-complete on an input $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \underset{\alpha}{\underset{\alpha}{\leftrightarrows}}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$, then $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is locally backward-complete at $\gamma(a)$, namely, $f_{\mathcal{A}}(a)$ corresponds to the bca $f_{\mathcal{A}}^{\alpha}(a)$.

A relaxation of Definition 4 has been introduced in [11], called partial completeness, where quasi-metrics compatible with the underlying abstract domain are considered to measure the imprecision of $f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))$ compared to $\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right)$.

Definition 5 ( $\varepsilon$-Partial (backward-)completeness). Consider the Galois Connection $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \stackrel{\gamma}{\leftrightarrows}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$, a sound approximation $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ of $f_{\mathcal{C}}$, a quasimetric $\delta_{\mathcal{A}} \mathcal{A}$-compatible, and $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty}$. The abstract operator $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is said to be an $\varepsilon$-partial (backward-)complete approximation of $f_{\mathcal{C}}$ on input $c \in \mathcal{C}$ when the following inequality holds: $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\left(\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right), f_{\mathcal{A}}\left(\alpha_{\mathcal{A}}(c)\right)\right) \leq \varepsilon$.

Establishing $\varepsilon$-partial (backward-)completeness at input $c \in \mathcal{C}$ of an abstract operator $f_{\mathcal{A}}$, means that when computing $f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))$, the output result is allowed to

[^0]have an imprecision limited to $\varepsilon$ compared to the abstraction of the concrete execution at $c$, namely, $\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right)$. The meaning of the value $\varepsilon$ depends on the quasimetric $\mathcal{A}$-compatible chosen. Note that the $\varepsilon$-partial (backward-)completeness property is always considered with respect to a specified input.

## 3 Distances on Orderings

The goal of this section is to set the minimum requirements that a distance function must meet so that it can be used to measure the local forward/backwardincompleteness generated by a sound abstract function $f_{\mathcal{A}}: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, operating on a set of approximated properties $\mathcal{A}$, with respect to the concrete function $f_{\mathcal{C}}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, operating on a set of properties $\mathcal{C}$ some of which may be undecidable. The target distance function could be defined either on the concrete domain $\mathcal{C}$ in order to calculate the distance between $f_{\mathcal{C}}(\gamma(a))$ and $\gamma\left(f_{\mathcal{A}}(a)\right)$ for an input $a \in \mathcal{A}$, that is the local forward-(in)completeness, or, e.g. when they enjoy a GC, directly on the abstract domain $\mathcal{A}$ for measuring the distance between $\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right)$ and $f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))$ for $c \in \mathcal{C}$, that is the local backward-(in)completeness (as, e.g., formalized in [11] through the use of quasi-metrics).

In abstract interpretation both $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{A}$ are often based on a qualitative notion of precision in order to know when an element is more precise respect to another. More generally, given an unordered set $D$, a basic relation able to accomplish this task is a pre-order relation $\preceq_{D} \in \wp(D \times D)$ where $x \preceq_{D} y$ for $x, y \in D$ intuitively means that $y$ approximates $x$ [22]. Therefore, we need to define a general notion of distance able to exploit any pre-ordered structure. Let us informally analyze each property that we may expect on a distance measuring the local incompleteness, either backward or forward, of abstract interpretations.

When comparing two elements $x, y \in D$ in a pre-ordered set $\left(D, \preceq_{D}\right)$, the distance function $\delta_{D}(x, y)$ must return a non-negative real value for all $x, y \in D$. We also give $\delta_{D}$ the possibility to return the symbol $\infty$ meaning an infinite distance between two elements. Thus, the type of a distance function $\delta_{D}$ will be:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{D}: D \times D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty} \tag{0}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we are calculating the distance between two identical elements, then we expect $\delta_{D}$ to output zero:

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=y \Rightarrow \delta_{D}(x, y)=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

However, we do not require the converse implication: we allow $x \neq y$ even if $\delta_{D}(x, y)=0$. This gives us the freedom to say that, e.g., the distance between two distinct elements is zero because the distance itself is considering the information represented by $x$ and $y$ up to some abstraction of interest. That is, the distance itself can be considered as another layer of approximation between the elements of $D$ and, thus, it may output zero even if they are represented differently in $D$. For example, consider the poset $(\wp(\mathbb{Z}), \subseteq)$ corresponding to the powerset of integers together with the subset inclusion relation (i.e., a partialorder). Given two sets $X, Y \in \wp(\mathbb{Z})$ such that $X \subseteq Y$ (e.g., $X=\{2,9,19\}$ and
$Y=\{2,9,15,19\})$, we might be interested in a function $\delta_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}$ that calculates the distance of an approximated representation of both $X$ and $Y$, for instance, by taking their interval abstraction. In this case, it might happen that $X$ and $Y$ are mapped to the same interval (i.e., the interval $[2,19]$ for the chosen X and Y) and therefore $\delta_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}(X, Y)=0$ even though $X \neq Y$. As another example, when considering the convex polyhedra domain (Poly, $\preceq_{\text {Poly }}$ ) [24] over $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ we might want that the distance between two polyhedra $p_{1}, p_{2} \in$ Poly is zero when they represent the same set of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. That is, if $\gamma\left(p_{1}\right)=\gamma\left(p_{2}\right)$ then $\delta_{\text {Poly }}\left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right)=0$ even if $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ are represented by different inequalities in Poly, i.e., $p_{1} \neq p_{2}$.

The requirements (0)-(1) define $\delta_{D}$ to be a generalization of a metric: by relaxing the identity of indiscernibles axiom and dropping the symmetry and triangle inequality axioms of metrics, we get a pre-metric ${ }^{3}$. Similarly to the relation between pre-orders and other stronger orderings (e.g., partial-orders and equivalence relations), pre-metrics are more general than pseudoquasi-metrics, quasi-metrics and metrics (see Section 2): a pre-metric satisfying the triangle inequality axiom is a pseudoquasi-metric, furthermore if it also satisfies the identity of indiscernibles then it is a quasi-metric, while a symmetric quasi-metric is a metric. Pre-metrics can be considered as one of the weakest forms of distance functions from which we can build on top of pre-ordered sets.

Until now the definition of pre-metric does not consider the pre-order relation between elements of $D$. Recall that we are interested in computing a distance between the result of a concrete operator $f_{\mathcal{C}}$ working on $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right)$ and a sound abstract operator $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ working on $\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$. Therefore, we already know that for any $a \in \mathcal{A}$ the two results $f_{\mathcal{C}}(\gamma(a))$ and $\gamma\left(f_{\mathcal{A}}(a)\right)$ are comparable according to $\preceq_{\mathcal{C}}$, namely $f_{\mathcal{C}}(\gamma(a)) \preceq_{\mathcal{C}} \gamma\left(f_{\mathcal{A}}(a)\right)$ thanks to the soundness assumption of $f_{\mathcal{A}}$. This means that our definition of distance should have a meaning when used to calculate distances between elements being part of the same chain, i.e., comparable according to $\preceq_{D}$, while we do not care about the result of $\delta_{D}(x, y)$ when $x \preceq_{D} y$. That said, suppose $x, y, z \in D$ are related by $x \preceq_{D} y \preceq_{D} z$, i.e., $z$ is an approximation of $y$ and $y$ approximates $x$. If we ascend the chain from $x$ to $y$, then we would expect that the remaining distance from $y$ to $z$ to be less than or equal the entire distance from $x$ to $z$. Similarly, if we descend the chain from $z$ to $y$ then we would expect the remaining distance from $x$ and $y$ to be less than or equal the whole distance from $x$ to $z$. Formally:

$$
\begin{equation*}
x \preceq_{D} y \preceq_{D} z \Rightarrow \delta_{D}(x, y) \leq \delta_{D}(x, z) \wedge \delta_{D}(y, z) \leq \delta_{D}(x, z) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This axiom gives us the possibility to reason on distance results between elements on the same chain. For example, suppose that the concrete and abstract domains are related by a $\operatorname{GC}\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \underset{\alpha}{\stackrel{\gamma}{\leftrightarrows}}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$ and that we have defined a distance $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}$ on the elements of $\mathcal{A}$. Given an input $c \in \mathcal{C}$, we already know

[^1]that the result of the bca of $f_{\mathcal{C}}$ on $\mathcal{A}$ is in the middle between the abstraction of $f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)$ and the result of the abstract sound operator $f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))$, namely, it holds $\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right) \preceq_{\mathcal{A}} f_{\mathcal{A}}^{\alpha}(\alpha(c)) \preceq_{\mathcal{A}} f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))$. In this case, we would expect that the distance between $\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right)$ and the best possible approximation of $f_{\mathcal{C}}$, i.e., $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\left(\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right), f_{\mathcal{A}}^{\alpha}(\alpha(c))\right)$ to be less than or equal to the distance between the concrete and the chosen abstract operator $f_{\mathcal{A}}$, namely, $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\left(\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right), f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))\right)$, and the same for $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\left(f_{\mathcal{A}}^{\alpha}(\alpha(c)), f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))\right)$. Note that the triangle inequality axiom required by metrics and some of their weakening, like pseudo-metrics and quasi-metrics, does not imply axiom (2), and (2) does not imply the triangle inequality. For example, if $D=\{x, y, z\}$ with $x \preceq_{D} y \preceq_{D} z$ and $\delta_{D}(x, y)=2$, $\delta_{D}(y, z)=1, \delta_{D}(x, z)=1$, then $\delta_{D}(x, z)=1<3=\delta_{D}(x, y)+\delta_{D}(y, z)$ but $\delta_{D}(x, y)=2>\delta_{D}(x, z)=1$. Instead, if $\delta_{D}(x, y)=1, \delta_{D}(y, z)=1, \delta_{D}(x, z)=3$ then (2) holds while $\delta_{D}(x, z)=3>2=\delta_{D}(x, y)+\delta_{D}(y, z)$. In fact, we do not require the triangle inequality axiom (neither its weaker form on chains as formalized, e.g., in $[25,36,11]$ ): as we are focusing on incompleteness results and, therefore, elements on chains according to the ordering $\preceq_{D}$, the distance $\delta_{D}(x, z)$ could be greater or lower than the sum between $\delta_{D}(x, y)$ and $\delta_{D}(y, z)$ as long as it respects (2).

We now have all the ingredients needed to formalize the distance that matches our purposes: it must be a pre-metric (axioms (0)-(1)) compatible with the underlying pre-order (axiom (2)). Functions that meet these requirements over a pre-ordered set $\left(D, \preceq_{D}\right)$ are called pre-metrics $\preceq_{D}$-compatible.

Definition 6 (Pre-metric $\preceq_{\boldsymbol{D}}$-compatible). Let $\left(D, \preceq_{D}\right)$ be a pre-ordered set. The function $\delta_{D}: D \times D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty}$ is a pre-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible if and only if the following axioms are satisfied for all $x, y, z \in D$ :
(1) $x=y \Rightarrow \delta_{D}(x, y)=0$;
(2) $x \preceq_{D} y \preceq_{D} z \Rightarrow \delta_{D}(x, y) \leq \delta_{D}(x, z) \wedge \delta_{D}(y, z) \leq \delta_{D}(x, z)$.

Pre-ordered sets equipped with a compatible pre-metric are called pre-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible spaces.

Definition 7 (Pre-metric $\preceq_{\boldsymbol{D}}$-compatible space). Given a pre-ordered set ( $D, \preceq_{D}$ ) and a pre-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible $\delta_{D}$, the triple $\left(D, \preceq_{D}, \delta_{D}\right)$ is a premetric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible space. We use $\operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(D, \preceq_{D}\right)\right)$ to refer to the the set of all pre-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible spaces: $\left(D, \preceq_{D}, \delta_{D}\right) \in \operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(D, \preceq_{D}\right)\right)$.

The following is a list of pre-metrics compatible with a generic pre-ordered set $\left(D, \preceq_{D}\right)$ or tailored for specific domains.

Example 1 (Zero-distance). One of the most trivial pre-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible definable on any pre-ordered set is the distance that always returns the value zero for all $x, y \in D$ :

$$
\delta_{D}^{0}(x, y) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} 0
$$

Although it satisfies all axioms from Definition 6, it does not provide any information about the distance between elements in $D$ since it treats them as they are close to each other.

Example 2 (Ordering-distance). The following distance

$$
\delta_{\bar{D}}^{\preceq_{D}}(x, y) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } x=y \\ 1 & \text { if } x \neq y \wedge x \preceq_{D} y \\ \infty \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

is clearly a pre-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible. In fact, it extends the pre-order relation $\preceq_{D}$ with the function $\delta_{\bar{D}}^{\complement_{D}}$ having three output values: 0 for equal elements, 1 for not equal but comparable elements and $\infty$ for non-comparable elements.

Example 3 (Measure-distance). Let $(Z, D, \mu)$ be a measure space, i.e., $D$ be a domain that forms a $\sigma$-algebra over a set $Z$ and $\mu: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty}$ be a measure function. We define the function $\delta_{D}^{\mu}$ for every $X, Y \in D$ as follows:

$$
\delta_{D}^{\mu}(X, Y) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} A v(\mu(Y)-\mu(X))
$$

where $A v$ is the absolute value function. Note that, because $D$ is composed by measurable properties, $\delta_{D}^{\mu}$ can exploit the measure function $\mu$ in order to quantify the distance between elements of $D$. However, depending on how $\preceq_{D}$ is defined, it still may not be a pre-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible as axiom (2) may be violated. Let us show two examples where $\delta_{D}^{\mu}$ is compatible with $\preceq_{D}$.

Consider the measure space $\left(D, \wp(D), \mu^{c}\right)$, where $(\wp(D), \subseteq)$ and $\mu^{c}$ is the counting measure, namely, for all $X \in \wp(D), \mu^{c}(X) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}|X|$ if $|X|$ is finite, $\infty$ otherwise. Intuitively, $\delta_{\wp(D)}^{\mu^{c}}(X, Y)$ counts the elements in $X$ and $Y$ and returns the absolute value of their difference. Note that: axioms (0)-(1) are satisfied since $\delta_{\wp(D)}^{\mu^{c}}(X, Y)$ is either non-negative or $\infty$, and if $X=Y$ then they have the same number of elements which implies ${ }^{4} \delta_{\xi(D)}^{\mu^{c}}(X, Y)=0$. Furthermore, axiom (2) holds as $X \subseteq Y \subseteq Z$ implies that $Z$ has more elements than $Y$ and $Y$ has more elements than $X$, thus ascending (resp. descending) a chain implies that the distance will increase (resp. decrease). The function $\delta_{\wp(D)}^{\mu^{c}}$ fulfills all axioms (0)(2) and, therefore, it is a pre-metric $\subseteq$-compatible. Dually, the same reasoning holds with $\wp(D)$ being partially-ordered by $\supseteq$. This is one of the most common distance used for evaluating the outcome of a program analysis: you simply count the elements generated by the abstract analysis and the elements generated by the concrete execution and then the absolute value of the difference tells you the quality of the analysis result. The bigger this difference is, the worse the result will be.

Example 4 (Volume-distance). Let us consider the pre-ordered domain of convex polyhedra (Poly, $\preceq_{\text {Poly }}$ ). We define the pre-metric

$$
\delta_{\text {Poly }}^{\operatorname{Vol}}\left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{Av}\left(\operatorname{Vol}\left(p_{1}\right)-\operatorname{Vol}\left(p_{2}\right)\right)
$$

[^2]calculating the absolute value of the difference between the volume of two convex polyhedra $p_{1}, p_{2} \in$ Poly. The volume function Vol : Poly $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty}$ could be a monotone (namely, if $\gamma\left(p_{1}\right) \subseteq \gamma\left(p_{2}\right)$ then $\operatorname{Vol}\left(p_{1}\right) \leq \operatorname{Vol}\left(p_{2}\right)$ ) overapproximation of the exact volume computation (see, e.g., $[15,35]$ ). This means that Vol may not be a measure according to Definition 1 as the countable-additivity axiom may be violated. However, $\delta_{\text {Poly }}^{\text {Vol }}$ satisfies the two axioms of Definition 6 and therefore it is $\preceq_{\text {Poly }}$-compatible.

Example 5 (Trace-Length distance). Let $\Sigma$ be a set of program states and let $\Sigma^{+\infty} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \Sigma^{+} \cup \Sigma^{\infty}$ be the set of all non-empty finite $\left(\Sigma^{+}\right)$and infinite $\left(\Sigma^{\infty}\right)$ sequences of program states. We consider the domain of sets of program traces ordered by set inclusion, i.e., $\left(\wp\left(\Sigma^{+\infty}\right), \subseteq\right)$, and define the following function function Len: $\wp\left(\Sigma^{+\infty}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty}$ :

$$
\operatorname{Len}(T) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } T=\varnothing \\ \max \{|\sigma| \mid \sigma \in T\} & \text { if } T \cap \Sigma^{\infty}=\varnothing \\ \infty & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

where $|\sigma|$ applied on a trace denotes its length. Len computes the length of the longest program trace in a set of traces $T$. The following pre-metric

$$
\delta_{\wp(\Sigma}^{L e n}\left(\Sigma^{+\infty}\right)\left(T_{1}, T_{2}\right) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{Av}\left(\operatorname{Len}\left(T_{1}\right)-\operatorname{Len}\left(T_{2}\right)\right)
$$

looking at the absolute value of the difference between the lengths of the longest traces in two sets $T_{1}, T_{2} \in \wp\left(\Sigma^{+\infty}\right)$ is a pre-metric $\subseteq$-compatible. Note that $\operatorname{Len}(T)$ does not form a measure as the countable-additivity axiom does not hold.

Example 6 (Weighted path-length distance). We consider the weighted path-length distance $\delta_{D}^{\mathfrak{w}}$ defined in [11] for posets. We propose a slightly modified version able to work with any pre-ordered structures $\left(D, \preceq_{D}\right)$. Intuitively, $\delta_{D}^{\mathfrak{w}}$ considers a preordered set as a directed weighted graph where the set of edges $E_{D} \subseteq D \times D$ is defined as $E_{D} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{(x, y) \mid x \prec_{D} y\right\}$, and $\mathfrak{w}: E_{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is the weight function which assigns a non-negative real value to each edge. The relation $x \prec_{D} y$ is true whenever $x \prec_{D} y$ and there is no element $z \in D$ such that $x \prec_{D} z \prec_{D} y$. Clearly, if $\preceq_{D}$ is a partial-order then the graph is acyclic. Given $x, y \in D$ such that $x \neq y$, let $\mathfrak{C}_{x}^{y}$ denotes the set of all possible chains $\mathbf{c} \subseteq E_{D}$ between $x$ and $y$ such that if $(z, u) \in \mathbf{c}$ then $x \preceq_{D} z \prec_{D} u \preceq_{D} y$. It is clear that if $x \npreceq_{D} y$ then $\mathfrak{C}_{x}^{y}=\varnothing$. The weighted path-length distance $\delta_{D}^{\mathfrak{w}}: D \times D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\mathfrak{w}}$ is defined as follows:

$$
\delta_{D}^{\mathfrak{w}}(x, y) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } x=y \\
\infty & \text { if } \forall \mathbf{c} \in \mathfrak{C}_{x}^{y} .|\mathbf{c}|=\omega \\
\min \left\{\sum_{e \in \mathbf{c}} \mathfrak{w}(e) \left\lvert\, \begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{c} \in \mathfrak{C}_{x}^{y} \\
|\mathbf{c}|<\omega
\end{array}\right.\right\} & \text { if } \exists \mathbf{c} \in \mathfrak{C}_{x}^{y} .|\mathbf{c}|<\omega\end{cases}
$$

Intuitively, when $\delta_{D}^{\mathfrak{w}}$ is used to calculate the distance between $x$ and $y$ such that $x \prec_{D} y$ then it outputs the minimum weighted path w.r.t. $\mathfrak{w}$ between $x$ and $y$,
while if $x \npreceq_{D} y$ then it outputs $\infty$. Note that $\delta_{D}^{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a pre-metric that does not satisfy symmetry, while it satisfies the triangle inequality axiom only on chains. However, it may not be compatible with the underlying ordering $\preceq_{D}$ as axiom (2) may turn false. For instance, consider the Sign $\stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\{\mathbb{Z},-, 0,+, \varnothing\}$ domain for sign analysis of integer variables [19]. Sign is ordered by the following partial-order: $\varnothing \preceq_{\text {Sign }} 0 \preceq_{\text {Sign }}-\preceq_{\text {Sign }} \mathbb{Z}$ and $\varnothing \preceq_{\text {Sign }} 0 \preceq_{\text {Sign }}+\preceq_{\text {Sign }} \mathbb{Z}$. Suppose the weight function $\mathfrak{w}$ assigns $\mathfrak{w}((0,-))=5$ while for the others couple $(a, b) \in E_{\text {Sign }}$,
 compatible as $\delta_{\text {Sign }}^{\mathfrak{w}}(0,-)=5>2=\delta_{\text {Sign }}^{\mathfrak{p}}(0, \mathbb{Z})$ thus violating (2). On the other hand, if we set $\forall(a, b) \in E_{\text {Sign }}, \mathfrak{w}((a, b))=1$ then we get a pre-metric $\preceq_{\text {sign }^{-}}$ compatible.

As a final case of application of $\delta_{D}^{\mathfrak{w}}$, consider the domain of integer intervals Int also known as the box domain. Given any two intervals $i_{1}, i_{2} \in \operatorname{lnt}$ such that $\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \in E_{\operatorname{lnt}}$, if we define $\mathfrak{w}\left(\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)\right)=1$, then $\delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}$ is a pre-metric $\preceq_{\mathrm{Int}}$-compatible. Intuitively, $\delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)$ for $i_{1} \preceq_{\mathrm{Int}} i_{2}$ counts how many more elements one interval has compared to the other: if $\delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)=k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, then the interval $i_{2}$ contains exactly $k$ more elements than $i_{1}$. For instance, $\delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}([0,0],[-1,2])=3$ as the interval $[-1,2]$ has 3 more elements than the singleton $[0,0]$, namely: $-1,1,2 ; \delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}([0,10],[0,+\infty])=\infty$ as $[0,+\infty]$ has an infinite number of more elements than $[0,10]$, while $\delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}([0,+\infty],[-5,+\infty])=5$.

When a pre-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible is precise enough to assign zero only when two comparable elements are identical, namely, when it satisfies the identity of indiscernibles axiom on chains, it will be called strong.

Definition 8 (Strong pre-metric $\preceq_{\boldsymbol{D}}$-compatible). Consider the pre-ordered space $\left(D, \preceq_{D}, \delta_{D}\right)$. The pre-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible $\delta_{D}$ is said to be strong if and only if the following implication holds for every $x, y \in D$ :

$$
x \preceq_{D} y \Rightarrow\left(\delta_{D}(x, y)=0 \Rightarrow x=y\right)
$$

For instance, the ordering-distance $\delta_{\bar{D}}^{\complement_{D}}$ of Example 2, the weighted path-length $\delta_{\text {lnt }}^{\mathfrak{w}}$ defined on intervals in Example 6, $\delta_{\text {Poly }}^{\text {Vol }}$ of Example 4 with Vol calculating the exact volume, and the counting measure-distance on integer sets $\delta_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}^{\mu^{c}}$, are strong. Conversely, the zero-distance $\delta_{D}^{0}$ of Examples 1, the volume-distance $\delta_{\text {Poly }}^{V o l}$ with Vol overapproximating the real volume, and the trace-length distance $\delta_{\wp\left(\Sigma^{+\infty}\right)}^{L e n}$ defined in Example 5, are not. We will see in Section 5 that strong pre-metrics $\preceq_{D}$-compatible play an important rule when measuring the local forward/backward-incompleteness of abstract interpretations.

As a last note, it is worth noting that Definition 6 is general enough to be instantiated with other definitions of metrics specifically tailored in the context of abstract interpretation. For instance, if a pre-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible $\delta_{D}$ is also symmetric and it satisfies the weak triangle inequality then it is a pseudo-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible according to [36], whereas if $\delta_{D}$ both induces the underlying order relation, it is strong and it satisfies the weak triangle inequality then it is a quasi-metric $\preceq_{D}$-compatible $[11,25]$.

## 4 Deriving Pre-Metrics from Domains

Concrete $\mathcal{C}$ and abstract $\mathcal{A}$ domains of properties in abstract interpretation are often related by a monotonic concretization function $\gamma: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ and sometimes additionally by a monotonic abstraction function $\alpha: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ that maps a concrete element to the best (i.e., the smallest according to $\preceq_{\mathcal{A}}$ ) abstract element approximating it, such that $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \underset{\alpha}{\stackrel{\gamma}{\leftrightarrows}}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$ forms a GC. By exploiting these structures we can derive pre-metrics from one domain to another.

Given a pre-metric compatible with the concrete domain $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right)$, we can exploit the concretization function $\gamma$ to derive a pre-metric compatible with the underlying abstract domain ordering $\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$. Here a GC between $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{A}$ is not necessary.

Definition 9 (Induced distance from the concrete domain). Consider $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}, \delta_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \in \operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right)\right)$. For all $a_{1}, a_{2} \in \mathcal{A}$, we define:

$$
\vec{\delta}_{\mathcal{A}}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \delta_{\mathcal{C}}\left(\gamma\left(a_{1}\right), \gamma\left(a_{2}\right)\right)
$$

as the pre-metric induced on $\mathcal{A}$ from $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}, \delta_{\mathcal{C}}\right)$.
Proposition 1. The following statements hold:
(i) $\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}, \vec{\delta}_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$ is a pre-metric $\preceq_{\mathcal{A}}$-compatible space;
(ii) if $\delta_{\mathcal{C}}$ is strong and $\gamma$ is injective then $\vec{\delta}_{\mathcal{A}}$ is strong.

Furthermore, given $\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}, \delta_{\mathcal{A}}\right) \in \operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)\right)$, when the concrete and abstract domains admit a GC through an abstraction function $\alpha: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, we can derive the pre-metric $\preceq_{\mathcal{C}}$-compatible on the concrete properties $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right)$. This distance will be called the induced distance from the abstract pre-metric $\preceq_{\mathcal{A}^{-}}$ compatible space.

Definition 10 (Induced distance from the abstract domain). Let the concrete and abstract domains be correlated by a $G C\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \underset{\alpha}{\stackrel{\gamma}{\leftrightarrows}}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$. Moreover, let $\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}, \delta_{\mathcal{A}}\right) \in \operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)\right)$ be a pre-metric $\preceq_{\mathcal{A}}$-compatible space. For all $c_{1}, c_{2} \in \mathcal{C}$, we define:

$$
\bar{\delta}_{\mathcal{C}}\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \delta_{\mathcal{A}}\left(\alpha\left(c_{1}\right), \alpha\left(c_{2}\right)\right)
$$

as the pre-metric induced on $\mathcal{C}$ from $\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}, \delta_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$.
Proposition 2. $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}, \bar{\delta}_{\mathcal{C}}\right)$ is a pre-metric $\preceq_{\mathcal{C}}$-compatible space.
The derived pre-metric on the concrete properties is compatible with $\preceq_{c}$ as it measures the distance between two concrete elements by throwing away nonrelevant information according to the abstraction $\alpha$.

Note how Definition 9 and Definition 10 define a way to build pre-metrics on domains correlated by a concretization function and/or an abstraction function.

This means that the distance itself $\delta_{D}$ defined on a pre-ordered domain $D$, can view properties of $D$ on different levels of precision: $\delta_{D}$ can exploit a more approximated pre-metric $\delta_{\mathcal{A}}$ defined on an abstraction of properties $\mathcal{A}$ of $D$, e.g. we can use $\bar{\delta}_{D}$ when $\left(D, \preceq_{D}\right) \underset{\alpha}{\stackrel{\gamma}{\leftrightarrows}}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)$. Alternatively, $\delta_{D}$ can exploit a more precise distance $\delta_{\mathcal{C}}$, for instance when $\delta_{\mathcal{C}}$ is defined on a more precise domain $\mathcal{C}$ related with $D$ through the concretization $\gamma: D \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, then we can use $\vec{\delta}_{D}$. We can also combine distances in a way similar to combining abstractions.

Example 7. Let Zone be the zone domain [37], and Oct be the octagon domain [38]. Both are relational domains, with Oct more precise than Zone, able to infer affine relationships (inequalities) between variables, although in a more restricted form respect to Poly. Consider the volume-distance $\delta_{\text {Poly }}^{\text {Vol }}$ defined on convex polyhedra in Example 4. We can systematically derive other volumedistances on domains which can be represented by Poly, e.g., Int, Zone and Oct. For instance, given $\gamma_{\text {Oct }}:$ Oct $\rightarrow$ Poly, $\gamma_{\text {Zone }}:$ Zone $\rightarrow$ Poly, $\gamma_{\text {Int }}:$ Int $\rightarrow$ Poly, for all $o_{1}, o_{2} \in$ Oct, $z_{1}, z_{2} \in$ Zone, $i_{1}, i_{2} \in \operatorname{Int}$ we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \delta_{\text {Oct }}^{\overrightarrow{V o l}}\left(o_{1}, o_{2}\right)=\delta_{\text {Poly }}^{\text {Vol }}\left(\gamma_{\text {Oct }}\left(o_{1}\right), \gamma_{\text {Oct }}\left(o_{2}\right)\right) \\
& \delta_{\text {Zone }}^{V o l}\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right)=\delta_{\text {Poly }}^{V o l}\left(\gamma_{\text {Zone }}\left(z_{1}\right), \gamma_{\text {Zone }}\left(z_{2}\right)\right) \\
& \overrightarrow{V o l} \\
& \delta_{\text {Int }}^{V o l}\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)=\delta_{\text {Poly }}^{V o l}\left(\gamma_{\text {Int }}\left(i_{1}\right), \gamma_{\text {Int }}\left(i_{2}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Depending on a number of factors such as the imprecision we want to track, the quantity of information represented by a domain, and/or the computational complexity needed to implement $\delta_{D}$, we may switch from one domain to another. This procedure is also common in program analysis by abstract interpretation where it can be useful to convert between one abstract domain and another, for instance to switch abstract domains dynamically during the analysis or benefit from abstract operators available in other more abstract domains (see, e.g., $[18,39])$.

Example 8. Let us consider as concrete domain $\left(\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right), \subseteq\right)$ and the abstract pre-metric $\preceq_{\mathrm{Int}}$-compatible space ( $\operatorname{Int}, \preceq \mathrm{Int}, \delta_{\mathrm{Int}}^{\mathfrak{w}}$ ) of intervals together with the weighted path-length defined in Example 6. We can derive the pre-metric

$$
\bar{\delta}_{\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}\left(S_{1}, S_{2}\right)=\delta_{\mathrm{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}\left(\alpha_{i}\left(S_{1}\right), \alpha_{i}\left(S_{2}\right)\right)
$$

where for all $S_{1}, S_{2} \in \wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right), \alpha_{i}: \wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right) \rightarrow$ Int calculates the interval of the $i$-th component only, with $1 \leq i \leq n$, of set of vectors $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$. For instance, if $n=3$ and $S_{1}=\{\langle 1,9,9\rangle,\langle 1,0,10\rangle\}, S_{2}=\{\langle 1,5,0\rangle,\langle-1,0,10\rangle,\langle 5,0,0\rangle\}$ then $\alpha_{1}\left(S_{1}\right)=[1,1], \alpha_{1}\left(S_{2}\right)=[-1,5]$, and their distance is $\bar{\delta}_{\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}\left(S_{1}, S_{2}\right)=$ $\delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}([1,1],[-1,5])=6$. This can be useful, e.g., when $\sigma \in S$ represents a program state and the $i$-th component of $\sigma$ corresponds to the value of a program variable, thus, $\bar{\delta}_{\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)}\left(S_{1}, S_{2}\right)$ is interested in calculating the imprecision of that variable only.

## 5 Partial Forward/Backward-Completeness Properties

As already mentioned in Section 2, Campion et al. in [11] proposed a relaxation of the local backward-completeness through the use of quasi-metrics, leading to Definition 5. More specifically, they require $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{A}$ to be complete lattices and related by a GC. In their formalization, the use of quasi-metrics enforces distance functions to adhere precisely to the underlying partial-ordering (namely, returning a distance for comparable elements only), and to output zero only when both elements are equal (corresponding to (1) but with both implications). These conditions imply that, if we want to define a quasi-metric on the concrete properties $\mathcal{C}$, the distance function must be precise enough to distinguish when two concrete elements are equal, thus limiting the possibility to choose, e.g., computationally less expensive distances at the cost of losing precision. For instance, the volumedistance defined in Example 4 on Poly would not be possible as a quasi-metric Poly-compatible unless Vol exactly calculates the volume of a convex polytope, which has exponential complexity. Similarly, defining a distance that partially considers the information encoded in the concrete elements, e.g. the imprecision of a specific program variable (Example 8), is not allowed.

In this section we exploit the newly introduced notion of pre-metrics $\preceq_{D^{-}}$ compatible to weaken both definitions of local forward-completeness (Definition 3) and local backward-completeness (Definition 4). Thanks to the weaker requirements of pre-metrics, we ask $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{A}$ to have fewer structures compared to [11]: they must be, at least, pre-ordered sets and be correlated by a monotone concretization function $\gamma: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ but not necessary forming a GC with an abstraction function $\alpha$. Weakening the local forward-completeness property involves defining a pre-metric $\preceq_{\mathcal{C}}$-compatible on the concrete domain $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right)$ : this can be achieved by either defining a pre-metric specifically tailored for ( $\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}$ ) or, as showed in Section 4, by deriving a distance from another domain which may approximate the computation. The new notion of $\varepsilon$-partial forward-completeness is defined as follows.

Definition 11 ( $\varepsilon$-Partial forward-completeness). Let us consider a premetric $\preceq_{\mathcal{C}}$-compatible space $\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}, \delta_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \in \operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right)\right)$ and let $f_{\mathcal{A}}: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be a sound approximation of $f_{\mathcal{C}}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$. Given $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty}$, we say that $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ is an $\varepsilon$-partial forward-complete approximation of $f_{\mathcal{C}}$ on input $a \in \mathcal{A}$ if and only if the following predicate holds:

$$
\delta_{\mathcal{C}}\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(\gamma(a)), \gamma\left(f_{\mathcal{A}}(a)\right)\right) \leq \varepsilon
$$

The value of the distance $\delta_{\mathcal{C}}$ between the result of the concrete operator $f_{\mathcal{C}}(\gamma(a))$ and the concretization of the abstract operator $\gamma\left(f_{\mathcal{A}}(a)\right)$ ) can be interpreted as the measure of the approximation introduced by $f_{\mathcal{A}}$ with respect to $f_{\mathcal{C}}$ at input $a$. Therefore, this distance encodes a quantitative level of imprecision introduced by $f_{\mathcal{A}}$, more precisely, the imprecision that we want to measure according to how we have defined the pre-metric $\preceq_{\mathcal{C}}$-compatible $\delta_{\mathcal{C}}$.

```
var \(x\) : int, \(y\) : int;
begin
    \(x=0 ; y=0 ;\)
    while \((x<=9)\) and \((y>=0)\) d
            if \(x<=4\) then
            \(x=x+1 ; y=y+1 ;\)
            else
                    \(x=x+1 ; y=y-1 ;\)
        endif;
```

var x: int;

```
var x: int;
begin
begin
    while }x>0\mathrm{ do
    while }x>0\mathrm{ do
        x=x-1;
        x=x-1;
    done;
    done;
end
```

```
end
```

```

Fig. 2: The Program \(Q\)
    done;
end

Fig. 1: The Program \(P\)

Example 9 (Static analysis of numeric invariants). We want to analyze the partial forward-completeness of the Interproc \({ }^{5}\) [2] static analyzer when used to infer the numerical invariant of the while-loop of program \(P\) defined in Fig. 1 using the abstract domains \(\mathcal{A} \in\{\) Oct, Poly \(\}\). The imprecision generated by the abstract execution \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}}\) with respect to the concrete (collecting) execution \(\llbracket P \rrbracket\), is measured by using the following pre-metric \(\subseteq\)-compatible on \(\left(\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right), \subseteq\right)\) :
\[
\% \operatorname{Vol}\left(S_{1}, S_{2}\right) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{\left(\operatorname{Vol}\left(\alpha_{\operatorname{lnt}^{n}}\left(S_{2}\right)\right)-\operatorname{Vol}\left(\alpha_{\operatorname{lnt}^{n}}\left(S_{1}\right)\right)\right) \cdot 100}{\operatorname{Vol}\left(\alpha_{\operatorname{lnt}^{n}}\left(S_{1}\right)\right)}
\]

Intuitively, the value returned by \(\% \operatorname{Vol}\left(S_{1}, S_{2}\right)\) is to be interpreted as the percentage of more volume that the abstraction \(\left(\alpha_{\operatorname{lnt}^{n}}\right)\) of \(S_{2}\) into Int \({ }^{n}\) has compared to the volume of the abstraction of \(S_{1}\) into \(\operatorname{Int}^{n}\), namely, \(\operatorname{Vol}\left(\alpha_{\operatorname{Int}^{n}}\left(S_{1}\right)\right)\) and \(\operatorname{Vol}\left(\alpha_{\operatorname{lnt}^{n}}\left(S_{2}\right)\right)\) are the volumes of the two smallest hyperrectangles containing, respectively, \(S_{1}\) and \(S_{2}\). Calculating the exact volume of hyperrectangles is generally much less computationally expensive than computing volumes of octagons and polyhedra, so this choice can be a good trade-off. In our case example, \(n=2\) since \(P\) has two variables so that \(\mathrm{Int}^{2}\) represents rectangles and \(\operatorname{Vol}\left(\alpha_{\operatorname{lnt}^{2}}(S)\right)\) is the area of the rectangle \(\alpha_{\operatorname{lnt}^{2}}(S)\). Note that, since the concrete \(\llbracket P \rrbracket\) and the two abstract executions \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}, \llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\) respect \(\llbracket P \rrbracket \subseteq \gamma_{\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\right) \subseteq \gamma_{\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\right)\) where \(\gamma_{\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)}\) is the concretization of Oct and Poly into \(\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)\), then, thanks to axiom 2, we are sure that
\[
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\% \operatorname{Vol}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket, \gamma_{\wp( }\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)\right.
\end{array}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\right)\right) \leq \% \operatorname{Vol}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket, \gamma_{\wp\left(\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)\right.}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\right)\right)
\]

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{5}\) Interproc is freely available at http://pop-art.inrialpes.fr/interproc/ interprocweb.cgi
}


Fig. 3: Invariant generated by \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\)


Fig. 4: Invariant generated by \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\)
hold for program \(P\). This means that \(\%\) Vol estimates how more inaccurate is \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\) compared to \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}, \llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\) compared to \(\llbracket P \rrbracket\), and \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\) compared to \(\llbracket P \rrbracket\).

Suppose our imprecision tolerance measured by \(\%\) Vol is \(20 \%\). We want to verify when \(\% \operatorname{Vol}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket, \gamma_{\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\mathcal{A}}\right)\right) \leq 20\) holds, i.e., whether \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\) and \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\) are 20-partial forward-complete. By running Interproc using Oct and Poly \({ }^{6}\) we get the following inequalities representing the inferred while-loop invariants:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}=\{x>=0 ;-x+10>=0 ;-x+y+11>=0 ; x+y>=0 \\
& y+1>=0 ;-x-y+17>=0 ; x-y>=0 ;-y+7>=0\} \\
& \llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}=\{-x-y+10>=0 ;-x+10>=0 ; y+1>=0 \\
& \qquad x-y>=0 ; x+6 y>=0\}
\end{aligned}
\]

Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 depict, respectively, \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\) and \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\). The pre-metric \(\%\) Vol outputs:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \% \operatorname{Vol}\left(\gamma_{\wp( }\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)\right. \\
&\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\right), \gamma_{\wp( }\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right) \\
& \% \operatorname{Vol}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket, \gamma_{\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\right)\right)=33.33 \\
& \% \operatorname{Vol}\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket, \gamma_{\wp( }\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)\right.=20 \\
&\left.\left(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\right)\right)=60
\end{aligned}
\]

These numbers validate the better accuracy of \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\) compared to \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\) by providing us a quantitative estimation: the rectangle representing \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\) has \(33.33 \%\) more volume than \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\), the one representing \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\) has \(20 \%\) more volume than the concrete execution \(\llbracket P \rrbracket\), while \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\) has \(60 \%\) more volume than \(\llbracket P \rrbracket\). We can conclude that \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Poly }}\) is 20 -partial forward-complete whereas \(\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {oct }}\) is not.

It is worth noting that, the same results can be drawn by defining a similar (computationally more efficient) pre-metric compatible with the Oct domain

\footnotetext{
\({ }^{6}\) For the convex polyhedra analysis, we activated the option of 2 descending steps.
}
\(\% \operatorname{Vol}\left(o_{1}, o_{2}\right)\) with \(o_{1}, o_{2} \in\) Oct which abstracts octagons into boxes, thus calculating for instance \(\% \operatorname{Vol}\left(\alpha_{\text {Oct }}(\llbracket P \rrbracket), \llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text {Oct }}\right)\) without passing through the concrete domain \(\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)\).

When \(\mathcal{C}\) and \(\mathcal{A}\) enjoy a GC and a pre-metric \(\preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\)-compatible is defined over the abstract elements of \(\mathcal{A}\), then we can weaken the notion of local backwardcompleteness to obtain the \(\varepsilon\)-partial backward-completeness property.

Definition 12 ( \(\varepsilon\)-Partial backward-completeness). Let the concrete and abstract domains be correlated by a \(G C\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \stackrel{\gamma}{\leftrightarrows}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)\). Furthermore, as\(\operatorname{sume}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}, \delta_{\mathcal{A}}\right) \in \operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)\right)\) and let \(f_{\mathcal{A}}: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}\) be a sound approximation of \(f_{\mathcal{C}}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}\). Given \(\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^{\infty}\), we say that \(f_{\mathcal{A}}\) is an \(\varepsilon\)-partial backward-complete approximation of \(f_{\mathcal{C}}\) on input \(c \in \mathcal{C}\) if and only if the following predicate holds:
\[
\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\left(\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right), f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))\right) \leq \varepsilon
\]

The \(\varepsilon\)-partial backward-completeness property of an abstract sound operator \(f_{\mathcal{A}}\) encodes a limited amount of imprecision measured by \(\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\), namely at maximum \(\varepsilon\), between the abstraction of the concrete execution \(\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right)\) and the abstract execution \(f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))\) over the concrete input \(c\). Note the difference between the above definition and Definition 5 presented in [11]: here \(\mathcal{C}\) and \(\mathcal{A}\) are required to be at least pre-orders, and pre-metrics \(\preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\)-compatible are employed as distance functions, instead of quasi-metrics \(\mathcal{A}\)-compatible.

We conclude this section by showing some common characteristics between partial forward- and partial backward-completeness properties.

Proposition 3. Let \(\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}, \delta_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \in \operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right)\right)\) and \(f_{\mathcal{A}}: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}\) be a correct approximation of \(f_{\mathcal{C}}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}\). The following hold for every \(a \in \mathcal{A}\) :
(i) \(f_{\mathcal{A}} \varepsilon\)-partial forward-complete at \(a \Rightarrow \forall \xi \geq \varepsilon: f_{\mathcal{A}} \xi\)-partial forwardcomplete at \(a\);
(ii) \(f_{\mathcal{A}} \infty\)-partial forward-complete at \(a\).

Proposition 4. Let \(\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \underset{\alpha}{\stackrel{\gamma}{\leftrightarrows}}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)\) and \(\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}, \delta_{\mathcal{A}}\right) \in \operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)\right)\). The following hold for every \(c \in \mathcal{C}\) :
(i) \(f_{\mathcal{A}} \varepsilon\)-partial backward-complete at \(c \Rightarrow \forall \xi \geq \varepsilon: f_{\mathcal{A}} \xi\)-partial backwardcomplete at \(c\);
(ii) \(f_{\mathcal{A}} \infty\)-partial backward-complete at \(c\).

If \(f_{\mathcal{A}}\) is \(\varepsilon\)-partial forward-complete at \(a\) (resp. \(\varepsilon\)-partial backward-complete at c) then admitting a larger imprecision \(\xi\) according to \(\delta_{\mathcal{C}}\) (resp. \(\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\) ) results in the property of \(\xi\)-partial forward-completeness (resp. \(\xi\)-partial backwardcompleteness) which is always satisfied by \(f_{\mathcal{A}}\). This implies that, if we define the class of all \(\varepsilon\)-partial forward-complete (sound) abstract operators with respect to \(f_{\mathcal{C}}\) and input \(a \in \mathcal{A}\), and the class of all \(\varepsilon\)-partial backward-complete
(sound) abstract operators with respect to \(f_{\mathcal{C}}\) and input \(c \in \mathcal{C}\), namely
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{F}_{f_{\mathcal{C}}, a}^{\varepsilon} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{f_{\mathcal{A}} \mid \delta_{\mathcal{C}}\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(\gamma(a)), \gamma\left(f_{\mathcal{A}}(a)\right)\right) \leq \varepsilon\right\} \\
& \mathbb{B}_{f_{\mathcal{C}}, c}^{\varepsilon} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{f_{\mathcal{A}} \mid \delta_{\mathcal{A}}\left(\alpha\left(f_{\mathcal{C}}(c)\right), f_{\mathcal{A}}(\alpha(c))\right) \leq \varepsilon\right\}
\end{aligned}
\]
then for all \(\xi \geq \varepsilon: \mathbb{F}_{f_{\mathcal{C}}, a}^{\varepsilon} \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{f_{\mathcal{C}}, a}^{\xi}\) and \(\mathbb{B}_{f_{\mathcal{C}}, c}^{\varepsilon} \subseteq \mathbb{B}_{f_{\mathcal{C}}, c}^{\xi}\). The second point of Proposition 3 and Proposition 4 simply states that any sound approximation \(f_{\mathcal{A}}\) of \(f_{\mathcal{C}}\) is partial forward/backward-complete when we admit an infinite level of imprecision.

\section*{6 Characterizing Local Forward/Backward-Completeness}

In the original definition of partial (backward-)completeness given in [11] using quasi-metrics, asking for 0-partial (backward-)completeness at an input \(c \in \mathcal{C}\) is equivalent to require local backward-completeness at \(c\) [11].

In our more relaxed framework where pre-metrics are involved and the identity of indiscernibles axiom is not satisfied, requiring 0-partial backward-completeness at \(c\) may not be the same as demanding local backward-completeness at \(c\) and, similarly, requiring 0 -partial forward-completeness at input \(a \in \mathcal{A}\) may not coincide with local forward-completeness at \(a\). This is a consequence of the possible approximation introduced by the pre-metric when valuating the distance.

Example 10. Given \(\left(\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right), \subseteq\right)\), consider the pre-metric \(\subseteq\)-compatible \(\% \mathrm{Vol}\) defined in Example 9, and the two sets \(S_{1}=\{\langle 0,2\rangle,\langle 3,5\rangle\}, S_{2}=\{\langle 0,2\rangle,\langle 1,1\rangle,\langle 3,5\rangle\}\) such that \(S_{1} \subseteq S_{2}\). The \(\% \operatorname{Vol}\) between \(S_{1}\) and \(S_{2}\) is \(\% \operatorname{Vol}\left(S_{1}, S_{2}\right)=0\) even if \(S_{1} \neq S_{2}\). This is because of the approximation made by \(\%\) Vol which considers an approximated representation of \(S_{1}\) and \(S_{2}\), namely, rectangles so that \(\alpha_{\operatorname{lnt}^{2}}\left(S_{1}\right)=\langle[0,3],[1,5]\rangle=\alpha_{\operatorname{lnt}^{2}}\left(S_{2}\right)\). Therefore, if \(S_{1}\) and \(S_{2}\) are the results of, respectively, a concrete operator \(f_{\wp\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}\right)}\) and and abstract operator \(f_{\text {Int }^{2}}\), then \(f_{\text {Int }^{2}}\) is 0-partial forward-complete but not local forward-complete.

However, it turns out that the 0-partial forward-completeness property coincides with the local forward-completeness property when the pre-metric \(\preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\) compatible is strong.

Theorem 1. If \(\delta_{\mathcal{C}}\) is strong then the following equivalence holds for all \(a \in \mathcal{A}\) :
\(f_{\mathcal{A}} 0\)-partial forward-complete at \(a \Leftrightarrow f_{\mathcal{A}}\) locally forward-complete at a
Example 11. If we define the weighted path-length directly on \((\wp(\mathbb{Z}), \subseteq)\), namely, \(\delta_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}^{\mathfrak{w}}\) where \(\mathfrak{w}\left(S_{1}, S_{2}\right)=1\) for all \(\left(S_{1}, S_{2}\right) \in E_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}\), then \(\delta_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}^{\mathfrak{w}}\) is strong. Consider the program \(Q\) defined in Fig. 2. We analyze the value of variable \(x\) at the end of the program having input the interval \([10,10]\) using Interproc on the interval abstract domain Int with no widening at the first 10 loop iterations. The result
of the analysis is \(\gamma\left(\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{\operatorname{lnt}}[10,10]\right)=\{0\}=\llbracket Q \rrbracket \gamma([10,10])\), and the weighted path-length outputs
\[
\delta_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}^{\mathfrak{w}}\left(\llbracket Q \rrbracket \gamma([10,10]), \gamma\left(\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{\operatorname{lnt}}[10,10\rfloor\right)\right)=0
\]
i.e., \(\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{\text {Int }}\) is 0-partial forward-complete on input \([10,10]\) using \(\delta_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}^{\mathfrak{w}}\). Since \(\delta_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}^{\mathfrak{w}}\) is strong, then we are sure that \(\llbracket Q \rrbracket \gamma([10,10])=\gamma\left(\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{\mathrm{lnt}}[10,10]\right)\), i.e., \(\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{\mathrm{lnt}}\) is locally forward-complete.

A similar reasoning also applies to the 0-partial backward-completeness property when strong pre-metrics \(\preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\)-compatible are employed.

Theorem 2. If \(\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\) is strong then the following equivalence holds for all \(c \in \mathcal{C}\) :
\(f_{\mathcal{A}}\) 0-partial backward-complete at \(c \Leftrightarrow f_{\mathcal{A}}\) locally backward-complete at \(c\)
As a final observation, in cases where the concrete and abstract domains enjoy a GI through an abstraction function \(\alpha: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}\) and \(\mathcal{A}\) is equipped with a strong pre-metric \(\preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\)-compatible \(\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\), we can characterize the local backwardcompleteness property over exactly representable elements of \(\mathcal{C}\) as an instance of the 0-partial forward-completeness property by exploiting the induced pre-metric \(\bar{\delta}_{\mathcal{C}}\) from the abstract pre-metric \(\preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\)-compatible space.

Theorem 3. Let \(\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \underset{\alpha}{\stackrel{\gamma}{\leftrightarrows}}\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right),\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}, \delta_{\mathcal{A}}\right) \in \operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(\mathcal{A}, \preceq_{\mathcal{A}}\right)\right)\) and \(\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}, \bar{\delta}_{\mathcal{C}}\right) \in \operatorname{Pre}\left(\left(\mathcal{C}, \preceq_{\mathcal{C}}\right)\right)\). If \(\delta_{\mathcal{A}}\) is strong then the following equivalence holds for every \(a \in \mathcal{A}\) :
\(f_{\mathcal{A}} 0\)-partial forward-complete at \(a \Leftrightarrow f_{\mathcal{A}}\) locally backward-complete at \(\gamma(a)\)

Example 12. Consider again Example 11 analyzing program \(Q\) defined in Fig. 2. Let us use this time the weighted path-length \(\delta_{\text {Int }}^{\mathfrak{w}}\) on intervals for reasoning on the partial backward-completeness at input \(\gamma([10,10])=\{10\}\) of variable \(x\) at the end of program \(Q\). Recall that \(\delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}\) is a strong pre-metric \(\preceq_{I_{n t}}\)-compatible. We get the following equalities:
\(\bar{\delta}_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}\left(\llbracket Q \rrbracket \gamma([10,10]), \gamma\left(\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{\mathrm{lnt}}[10,10\rfloor\right)\right)=\delta_{\mathrm{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}\left(\alpha(\llbracket Q \rrbracket \gamma([10,10])), \llbracket Q \rrbracket_{\mathrm{lnt}}[10,10]\right)=0\)
namely, \(\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{\text {lnt }}\) is 0-partial forward-complete on input \([10,10]\) using \(\bar{\delta}_{\wp(\mathbb{Z})}\). Since \(\delta_{\operatorname{lnt}}^{\mathfrak{w}}\) is strong, this implies that \(\alpha(\llbracket Q \rrbracket \gamma([10,10]))=\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{\operatorname{lnt}}[10,10]\), i.e., \(\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{\operatorname{lnt}}\) is locally backward-complete at \(\{10\}\).

\section*{7 Related Work}

Forward and backward completeness are well known notions in abstract interpretation, especially in static program analysis for verifying safety program properties [20,33,29]. The first attempt to weaken the notion of backward-completeness
in abstract interpretation has been defined in [5]. Here the authors introduced the notion of local completeness which corresponds to our definition of local backward-completeness (Definition 3). Partial completeness has been recently introduced as a further weakening of the local completeness property by admitting a limited amount of imprecision measured by a quasi-metric compatible with the underlying abstract domain \([11,10]\).

Besides the partial completeness property, the problem of measuring the imprecision of abstract interpretations is not new. Sotin [42] defines a metric to quantify the result of numerical invariants by calculating the size of the concretization into \(\mathbb{R}^{n}\). This metric can be considered as an instance of pre-metric \(\subseteq\)-compatible, thus it can be used as distance function for formalizing the partial forward/backward-completeness property of interest.

Crazzolara [25] proposes to substitute partial-orders with quasi-metrics, i.e., the concrete and abstract partially-ordered set turn into quasi-metric spaces. Our approach, instead, preserves the standard abstract interpretation framework and considers the distances as external tools for measuring the incompleteness of abstract operators. A similar idea is proposed by Di Pierro and Wiklicky [41] where partially-ordered domains are replaced by vector spaces lifting abstract interpretation to a probabilistic version where it is possible to apply some wellknown distances in linear spaces.

Logozzo et al. [36] adapt the notion of pseudo-metric to be compatible with partially-ordered sets in order to measure the distance between two elements. Their definition of pseudo-metric requires the weak triangle inequality axiom and symmetry, while our definition of pre-metric relaxes those axioms. Moreover, axiom 2 may not be satisfied by pseudo-metrics, therefore their distances may not fit well in our framework.

Casso et al. [13] proposes a list of observations about distance functions when used to measure distances between elements of abstract domains in the context of logic programming. They show that it is possible to induce other distances from one domain to another through the concretization and abstraction functions in a similar way we did in Section 4. However, their notion of distance requires more compatibility with the underlying lattice than our approach as they focus on abstract domains commonly used for analyzing logic programs. For instance, they assume abstract domains to be complete lattices related by a GI with the concrete domains, they require another type of triangle inequality called diamond inequality, and consider distances between comparable elements only. As our notion of pre-metric is weaker than what they require for distances, our framework can be easily instantiated with their distances.

\section*{8 Conclusion}

We weakened both the local backward-completeness, in presence of a GC, and the local forward-completeness properties in case only a concretization function is available (e.g., the case of convex polyhedra or the domain of formal languages [9]) in order to allow a limited amount of imprecision. This imprecision
is measured according to a distance function formalized as a pre-metric compatible with the underlying pre-order relation. The definition of pre-metrics is general enough to be instantiated by distance functions having different "levels of view". For instance, a distance may be precise enough to satisfies the identity of indiscernibles axiom on the concrete domain, so that it can be used to reason on the local forward-completeness. Different levels of approximation can be obtain by inducing pre-metrics from one domain to another by the use of the concretization or the abstraction maps. Our framework could assist program analysis designers in controlling the propagation of incompleteness, e.g., by choosing the preferred pre-metric according to the imprecision they want to measure and at which level of details, and then by using it for checking how an invariant generated by the analysis grows with respect to the concrete execution or another comparable analysis. This checking process could also be combined with other repairing techniques that aim to enrich the expressiveness of abstract domains [33,6].

Similarly to the other completeness properties [29,4,11,10] both partial forward and backward-completeness properties are undecidable. As a future work we plan to extend the proof system proposed in [11] in order to be able to overestimate, according to \(\delta_{D}\), a bound of incompleteness (either forward or backward) generated by the abstract interpreter without actually executing the program. This, in fact, can be considered as another abstract interpretation analyzing the abstract interpreter [23].

Understanding the propagation of incompleteness through pre-metrics is closely linked to code obfuscation [16], which finds application in software protection \([28,30,31]\) and malware analysis \([40,44,26,12]\). Being able to quantify the amount of incompleteness induced in the abstract interpretation by a codeobfuscating program transformation could enable us to measure the potency of these transformations. This remains one of the primary open challenges in software protection [43,14,17].

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The term "forward-completeness" was introduced in [32] in order to distinguish it from the well known backward-completeness property requiring an abstraction function.
    ${ }^{2}$ In the standard abstract interpretation framework [20,21] dealing with GCs, the backward-completeness property is simply called completeness or exactness.

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ This is not a standard term in the literature: sometimes it is used to refer to other generalizations of metrics such as pseudosemi-metrics [8] or pseudo-metrics [34]; it sometimes appears as pra-metric [3]. This definition is taken from Wikipedia [1].

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ We assume the following results when the $\infty$ symbol is involved: $A v(k-\infty)=$ $A v(\infty-k)=\infty$ with $k \in \mathbb{R}$, while $\infty-\infty=0$.

