Paradoxes of Probabilistic Programming (POPL'21) and deleted scenes (VeriProP'21)

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These slides: julesjacobs.com/slides/veriprop2021.pdf

Probabilistic programming

Example:

- ► A scientist randomly selects a man and a woman and measures their height
- The woman's height $h \sim Normal(1.7, 0.5)$ meters
- The man's height $h' \sim Normal(1.8, 0.5)$ meters

Question: What's the expectation of *h* conditioned on h' = h?

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Question: What's the expectation of *h* conditioned on h' = h?

```
function meters(){
    h = rand(Normal(1.7, 0.5))
    observe(Normal(1.8, 0.5), h)
    return h
}
samples = run(meters, 1000)
estimate = average(samples)
Answer: ≈ 1.75
```

Probabilistic programming

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Question: What's the expectation of *h* conditioned on h' = h?

```
function meters(){
                                  function centimeters(){
  h = rand(Normal(1.7, 0.5))
                                    h = rand(Normal(170, 50))
  observe(Normal(1.8, 0.5), h)
                                     observe(Normal(180, 50), h)
  return h
                                    return h
}
                                  }
                                  samples = run(centimeters, 1000)
samples = run(meters, 1000)
estimate = average(samples)
                                  estimate = average(samples)
Answer: \approx 1.75
                                  Answer: \approx 175
```

Paradox

```
h = rand(Normal(1.7, 0.5))
w = rand(Normal(60, 10))
if(flip(0.5)){
    observe(Normal(1.8, 0.5), h)
}else{
    observe(Normal(70, 10), w)
}
return h
Answer: ≈ 1.75
```

Paradox

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return h
Answer o(175
```

Answer: pprox 1.75

```
h = rand(Normal(170, 50))
w = rand(Normal(60, 10))
if(flip(0.5)){
    observe(Normal(180, 50), h)
}else{
    observe(Normal(70, 10), w)
}
return h
```

Answer: ≈ 170

Paradox

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h = rand(Normal(1.7, 0.5))
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Answer: ≈ 1.75
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h = rand(Normal(170, 50))
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}
return h
Answer: ≈ 170
```

- The output depends on whether we use meters or centimeters
- Happens in implementations as well as in formal operational semantics
- Similar behaviour in programs without conditionals too (Borel-Komolgorov paradox)

Problem:

- Probabilistic programs are not invariant under parameter transformations
- It's not clear what observe really means

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- Probabilistic programs are not invariant under parameter transformations
- It's not clear what observe really means

Key ideas:

- 1. Determine what observe should mean by looking at positive measure conditioning
- 2. Change the language: observe conditions on *intervals* instead of points: observe(Normal(1.8, 0.5), Interval(h, 0.1))

```
3. Parameterize the program by eps:
    function foo(eps){
        ... observe(Normal(1.8, 0.5), Interval(h, eps)) ...
    }
```

- 4. Take the limit $eps \rightarrow 0$.
- 5. Use symbolic infinitesimal arithmetic to compute the limit.

Paradox revisited

```
A = 2.3 // meters B = 42.6 // kilograms
function foo(eps){
  h = rand(Normal(1.7, 0.5)) // meters
  w = rand(Normal(60, 10)) // kilograms
  if(flip(0.5)){
    observe(Normal(1.8, 0.5), Interval(h,A*eps))
  }else{
    observe(Normal(70, 10), Interval(w,B*eps))
  }
  return h
}
```

Paradox revisited

}

```
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  }else{
    observe(Normal(70, 10), Interval(w,B*eps))
  }
  return h
```

- Assume rejection sampling as "gold standard" semantics (works because width > 0) observe(D,Interval(x,w)) ≜ reject if random(D) ∉ [x - w, x + w]
- Try foo(0.1); foo(0.01); foo(0.001) for different values of A and B
- $\blacktriangleright\,$ The relative size of A and B matters, even as ${\rm eps} \rightarrow 0$
- ► Change of units of h and w requires corresponding change in interval width A and B

Non-linear parameter transformations

- The problem is more general than units and conditionals
- ▶ The general issue is invariance under parameter transformations
- Changes of units = linear parameter transformations produces paradoxes in combination with conditionals
- General case: non-linear parameter transformations (e.g. log-transform) produces paradoxes even without conditionals (e.g. Borel-Komolgorov paradox)
- See paper "Paradoxes of probabilistic programming" for details (https://julesjacobs.com/pdf/paradoxes.pdf)

Implementation

- Semantics: rejection sampling observe(D,I) ≜ reject if random(D) ∉ I
- Implementation: likelihood weighting observe(D,I) ≜ { weight *= P(D,I) } where P(D,I) ≜ P(random(D) ∈ I).
- ► The interval I can depend on eps to compute lim eps $\rightarrow 0$ exactly, do arithmetic with $\mathbb{R}_{\epsilon} \triangleq \{a\epsilon^n \mid a \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
- Similar to automatic differentiation with dual numbers
- ▶ Dual numbers: $a + b\epsilon$ where $\epsilon^2 = 0$
- Infinitesimal probabilities: $a\epsilon^n$ where $1 + \epsilon = 1$

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- ▶ Infinitesimal probabilities: $a\epsilon^n$ where $1 + \epsilon = 1$

Result:

- This observe is invariant under arbitrary parameter transformations: observe(f(D), f(I)) = observe(D, I)
- Programs have clear probabilistic meaning via rejection sampling
- Can still condition on measure zero events
- Implemented as a DSL in Julia

Originally in the paper: Beyond intervals

```
We can let I in observe(D,I) be an arbitrary set
as long as we can compute P(D,I) \triangleq \mathbb{P}(random(D) \in I)
e.g.
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- Union of intervals
- ► Finite set (if D is discrete)
- Regular language (if D is a Markov chain)
- ▶ General $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ for which we can approximate P(D,I) (if D multivariate)
 - e.g. ellipsoid $I_{\epsilon} \triangleq \{ |A\vec{x} + b| \le \epsilon \mid \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \}$
 - We can compute $P(D, I_{\epsilon})$ for infinitesimal ϵ in terms of the PDF of D
 - For finite $\epsilon > 0$ we may need numerical integration

Originally in the paper: Soft observations

Generalize further: use soft indicator function $f: \Omega \rightarrow [0,1]$ instead of hard sets

- $f(x) \triangleq$ probability of accepting x
- Semantics: observe(D,f) ≜ reject if flip(f(random(D))) == false

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- ▶ Implementation: observe(D,f) \triangleq { weight *= W(D,f) } where W(D,f) $\triangleq \int f(x)d\mathbb{P}(D)$
- e.g if f is piecewise constant, and we have a CDF for D, then we can compute W(D, f)
 - \blacktriangleright Such f specifies the rejection probability for each piecewise constant region

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- e.g if f is piecewise constant, and we have a CDF for D, then we can compute W(D, f)
 - Such f specifies the rejection probability for each piecewise constant region
- ▶ Note: *f* is *not* a probability density function.
 - Probability density functions integrate to 1
 - Soft observation functions return a *probability* (possibly infinitesimal)
 - The PDF of the normal distribution is not a soft indicator function, but $sin(x)^2$ is

Originally in the paper: Events

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- Semantics: observe(Bernoulli(p)) ≜ reject if flip(p) == false
- ▶ Implementation: observe(Bernoulli(p)) ≜ { weight *= p }
- We view Bernoulli(p) as a "random boolean" and we observe that the boolean is true
- Probability p is allowed to be infinitesimal

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- ▶ Define within(D,I) \triangleq Bernoulli($\mathbb{P}($ random(D) \in I))

Recovers observe(D,I) as observe(within(D,I))

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- Probability p is allowed to be infinitesimal
- ▶ Define within(D,I) \triangleq Bernoulli($\mathbb{P}($ random(D) \in I))
 - Recovers observe(D,I) as observe(within(D,I))
- Boolean operations on Bernoulli's:

```
E1 = within(D1,I1)
E2 = within(D2,I2)
observe(or(E1,not(E2)))
```

Rejection sampling semantics:

if(!(random(D1) in I1 || random(D2) notin I2)){ reject(); }

Correctness of probabilistic programming

- Which correctness criterion do we want?
- Even if the implementation matches the semantics, maybe the semantics still has surprising behaviour!
- My view here
 - Rejection sampling as gold standard semantics
 - Use explicit limits to express measure zero conditioning
- Correctness criterion:
 - Optimized semantics (e.g. likelihood weighting + importance sampling) is equivalent to rejection sampling for *ϵ* ∈ ℝ_{>0}
 - Limit is computed correctly: executing foo(ε) on symbolic ε gives the same result as lim_{x→0} foo(x)
- Can we prove all this in e.g. Coq?
- Other correctness criteria?

Comments or questions?

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