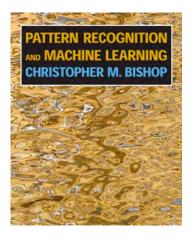
Principles of Probabilistic Programming

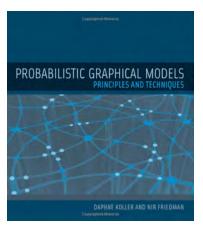
Joost-Pieter Katoen



Séminaire de l'IRIF, March 2017

Probabilistic Graphical Models





Rethinking the Bayesian approach



"In particular, the graphical model formalism that ushered in an era of rapid progress in AI has proven inadequate in the face of [these] new challenges.

A promising new approach that aims to bridge this gap is probabilistic programming, which marries probability theory, statistics and programming languages"

^aMIT/EECS George M. Sprowls Doctoral Dissertation Award

[Daniel Roy, 2011]^a

A 48M US dollar research program



Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency > Program Information >

Probabilistic Programming for Advancing Machine Learning (PPAML)

Probabilistic programs

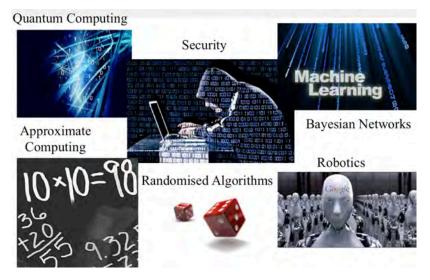
What are probabilistic programs?

Sequential programs with random assignments and conditioning.

[Hicks 2014, The Programming Languages Enthusiast]

"The crux of probabilistic programming is to consider normal-looking programs as if they were probability distributions."

Probabilistic programming applications



Probabilistic programming languages



Roadmap of this talk

- Introduction
- 2 Two flavours of semantics
- Operation Program transformations
- 4 Different flavours of termination
- 5 Run-time analysis
- 6 Recursion
- Ø Synthesizing loop invariants
- 8 Epilogue

Dijkstra's guarded command language



▶ skip	empty statement
▶ abort	abortion
▶ x := E	assignment
▶ prog1 ; prog2	sequential composition
▶ if (G) prog1 else prog2	choice
▶ prog1 [] prog2	non-deterministic choice
▶ while (G) prog	iteration

A probabilistic GCL



empty statement
abortion
assignment
conditioning
sequential composition
choice
probabilistic choice
iteration

- abort
- ▶ x := E
- ▶ observe (G)
- prog1 ; prog2
- if (G) prog1 else prog2
- ▶ prog1 [p] prog2
- while (G) prog

Let's start simple

$$x := 0 [0.5] x := 1;$$

 $y := -1 [0.5] y := 0$

This program admits four runs and yields the outcome:

$$Pr[x=0, y=0] = Pr[x=0, y=-1] = Pr[x=1, y=0] = Pr[x=1, y=-1] = \frac{1}{4}$$

A loopy program

For 0 an arbitrary probability:

```
bool c := true;
int i := 0;
while (c) {
    i++;
    (c := false [p] c := true)
}
```

The loopy program models a geometric distribution with parameter p.

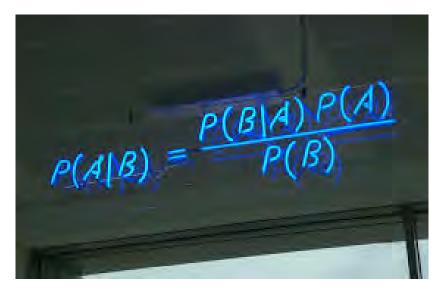
$$Pr[i = N] = (1-p)^{N-1} \cdot p \text{ for } N > 0$$

On termination

```
bool c := true;
int i := 0;
while (c) {
    i++;
    (c := false [p] c := true)
}
```

This program does not always terminate. It almost surely terminates.

Conditioning



Let's start simple

x := 0 [0.5] x := 1; y := -1 [0.5] y := 0; observe (x+y = 0)

This program blocks two runs as they violate x+y = 0. Outcome:

$$Pr[x=0, y=0] = Pr[x=1, y=-1] = \frac{1}{2}$$

Observations thus normalize the probability of the "feasible" program runs

A loopy program

For p an arbitrary probability:

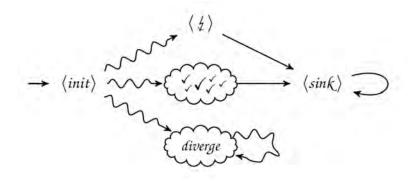
```
bool c := true;
int i := 0;
while (c) {
    i++;
    (c := false [p] c := true)
}
observe (odd(i))
```

The feasible program runs have a probability $\sum_{N\geq 0} (1-p)^{2N} \cdot p = \frac{1}{2-p}$

This program models the distribution:

$$Pr[i = 2N + 1] = (1-p)^{2N} \cdot p \cdot (2-p) \text{ for } N \ge 0$$
$$Pr[i = 2N] = 0$$

Operational semantics



This can be defined using Plotkin's SOS-style semantics

Some inference rules

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle \mathtt{skip}, s \rangle \rightarrow \langle \downarrow, s \rangle & \langle \mathtt{abort}, s \rangle \rightarrow \langle \mathtt{abort}, s \rangle \\ \hline \frac{s \models G}{\langle \mathtt{observe}(G), s \rangle \rightarrow \langle \downarrow, s \rangle} & \frac{s \notin G}{\langle \mathtt{observe}(G), s \rangle \rightarrow \langle \pounds \rangle} \\ \langle \downarrow, s \rangle \rightarrow \langle \mathtt{sink} \rangle & \langle \pounds \rangle \rightarrow \langle \mathtt{sink} \rangle & \langle \mathtt{sink} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \mathtt{sink} \rangle \\ \langle x \coloneqq E, s \rangle \rightarrow \langle \downarrow, s[x \coloneqq s(\llbracket E \rrbracket)] \rangle \\ \langle P[p] Q, s \rangle \rightarrow \mu \text{ with } \mu(\langle P, s \rangle) = p \text{ and } \mu(\langle Q, s \rangle) = 1-p \\ \hline \frac{\langle P, s \rangle \rightarrow \langle \pounds \rangle}{\langle P; Q, s \rangle \rightarrow \psi} \text{ with } \nu(\langle P'; Q', s' \rangle) = \mu(\langle P', s' \rangle) \text{ where } \downarrow; Q = Q \end{array}$$

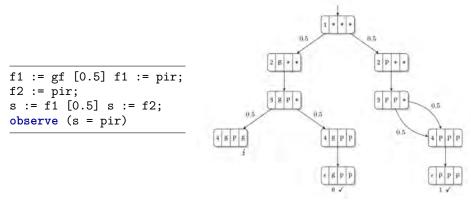
The piranha problem

[Tijms, 2004]

One fish is contained within the confines of an opaque fishbowl. The fish is equally likely to be a piranha or a goldfish. A sushi lover throws a piranha into the fish bowl alongside the other fish. Then, immediately, before either fish can devour the other, one of the fish is blindly removed from the fishbowl. The fish that has been removed from the bowl turns out to be a piranha. What is the probability that the fish that was originally in the bowl by itself was a piranha?



The piranha puzzle



What is the probability that the original fish in the bowl was a piranha? Consider the expected reward of successful termination without violating any observation

$$\operatorname{cer}(P, [f1 = pir])(\sigma_I) = \frac{1 \cdot 1/2 + 0 \cdot 1/4}{1 - 1/4} = \frac{1/2}{3/4} = 2/3.$$

Joost-Pieter Katoen

Expectations

Weakest pre-expectation

[McIver & Morgan 2004]

An expectation¹ maps program states onto non-negative reals. It is the quantitative analogue of a predicate.

An expectation transformer is a total function between two expectations.

The transformer wp(P, f) for program P and post-expectation f yields the least expectation e on P's initial state ensuring that P's execution terminates with an expectation f.

Annotation $\{e\} P\{f\}$ holds for total correctness iff $e \leq wp(P, f)$, where \leq is to be interpreted in a point-wise manner.

Weakest liberal pre-expectation w/p(P, f) = "wp(P, f) + Pr[P diverges]".

¹Not to be confused what expectations are in probability theory.

Expectation transformer semantics of cpGCL

Syntax	Semantics wp(P, f)
▶ skip	▶ f
▶ abort	▶ 0
▶ x := E	$\blacktriangleright f[x := E]$
▶ observe (G)	► [G] • f
▶ P1 ; P2	$\blacktriangleright wp(P_1, wp(P_2, f))$
▶ if (G)P1 else P2	$[G] \cdot wp(P_1, \mathbf{f}) + [\neg G] \cdot wp(P_2, \mathbf{f})$
▶ P1 [p] P2	$\blacktriangleright p \cdot wp(P_1, f) + (1-p) \cdot wp(P_2, f)$
▶ while (G)P	$\blacktriangleright \mu X. ([G] \cdot wp(P, X) + [\neg G] \cdot f)$

 μ is the least fixed point operator wrt. the ordering \leq on expectations.

wlp-semantics differs from wp-semantics only for while and abort.

Principles of Probabilistic Programming

Two flavours of semantics

$$wp(c_{1}; c_{2}, [x = y]) = wp(c_{1}, wp(c_{2}, [x = y])) = wp(c_{1}, wp(c_{2}, [x = y])) = (x = y) + 2/3 \cdot wp(y := 1, [x = y])) = wp(c_{1}, 1/3 \cdot wp(y := 0, [x = y]) + 2/3 \cdot wp(y := 1, [x = y])) = wp(c_{1}, 1/3 \cdot [x = 0] + 2/3 \cdot [x = 1]) = (x + y) + 1/2 \cdot wp(x := 1, 1/3 \cdot [x = 0] + 2/3 \cdot [x = 1])) = (x + y) + 1/2 \cdot wp(x := 1, 1/3 \cdot [x = 0] + 2/3 \cdot [x = 1])) = (x + y) + 1/2 \cdot (1/3 \cdot [x = 0] + 2/3 \cdot [x = 0] + 1/2 \cdot (1/3 \cdot [x = 0] + 2/3 \cdot [x = 0]))$$

The piranha program – a wp perspective

What is the probability that the original fish in the bowl was a piranha?

$$\mathbb{E}(\texttt{f1} = \texttt{pir} \mid P \text{ is "feasible"}) = \frac{1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{4}}{1 - \frac{1}{4}} = \frac{1}{\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Let
$$cwp(P, f) = \frac{wp(P, f)}{wlp(P, 1)}$$
. In fact $cwp(P, f) = (wp(P, f), wlp(P, 1))$.

wlp(P, 1) = 1 - Pr[P violates an observation]. This includes diverging runs.

Divergence matters

Q: What is the probability that y = 0 on termination?

We:
$$\frac{wp(P, f)}{wlp(P, 1)} = \frac{2}{7}$$

Microsoft's R2: $\frac{wp(P, f)}{wp(P, 1)} = \frac{2}{3}$
In general:
observe (G) \equiv while(!G) skip

Warning: This is a silly example. Typically divergence comes from loops.

Leave divergence up to the programmer?

Almost-sure termination is "more undecidable" than ordinary termination!

Observations inside loops

These programs are mostly not distinguished as $wp(P_{left}, 1) = wp(P_{right}, 1) = 0$

- Certain divergence
- $(wp(P_{left}, f), wlp(P_{left}, 1)) = (0, 1)$
- Conditional wp = 0

- Divergence with probability zero
- $\blacktriangleright (wp(P_{right}, f), wlp(P_{right}, \mathbf{1})) = (\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0})$
- Conditional wp = undefined

We do distinguish these programs.

Basic properties

• Monotonicity: $f \le g$ implies $cwp(P, f) \le cwp(P, g)$

• Linearity:
$$cwp(P, \alpha \cdot f + \beta \cdot g) = \alpha \cdot cwp(P, f) + \beta \cdot cwp(P, g)$$

• Duality:
$$cwlp(P, f) = \mathbf{1} - cwp(P, \mathbf{1} - f)$$

Law of excluded miracle: cwp(P, 0) = 0

Certified using the Isabelle/HOL theorem prover; see [Hölzl, PPS 2016].

Contextual equivalence?

1

$$P: \{x := 0\} [1/2] \{x := 1\}; observe(x = 1)$$

$$Q: \quad \{x \coloneqq 0; \text{ observe}(x = 1)\} [1/2] \{x \coloneqq 1; \text{ observe}(x = 1)\}$$

Of course

$$\frac{w\rho(P, [x=1])}{wl\rho(P, 1)} = \frac{w\rho(Q, [x=1])}{wl\rho(Q, 1)} = \frac{1/2}{1/2} = 1$$

 $1/_{2}$

0

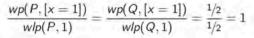
Contextual equivalence?

$$P: \{x := 0\} [1/2] \{x := 1\}; observe(x = 1)$$

$$Q: \{x := 0; observe(x = 1)\} [1/2] \{x := 1; observe(x = 1)\}$$

$$Q_1 = Q_2$$





but we cannot decompose

$$\frac{wp(Q, [x = 1])}{wlp(Q, 1)} \neq 0.5 \frac{wp(Q_1, [x = 1])}{wlp(Q_1, 1)} + 0.5 \frac{wp(Q_2, [x = 1])}{wlp(Q_2, 1)}$$

This all motivates the definition: cwp(P, f) = (wp(P, f), wlp(P, 1)).

1/2

Principles of Probabilistic Programming

Two flavours of semantics

Backward compatibility

McIver's wp-semantics is a conservative extension of Dijkstra's wp-semantics.

Our cwp-semantics is a conservative extension of McIver's wp-semantics.

Wp = conditional rewards

For program P and expectation f with cwp(P, f) = (wp(P, f), wlp(P, 1)):

The ratio of wp(P, f) over wlp(P, 1) for input η equals² the conditional expected reward to reach a successful terminal state in P's MC when starting with η .

Expected rewards in finite Markov chains can be computed in polynomial time.

²Either both sides are equal or both sides are undefined.

Importance of these results

- Unambiguous meaning to (almost) all probabilistic programs
- Operational interpretation to weakest pre-expectations
- Basis for proving correctness
 - ▶ of programs
 - of program transformations
 - of program equivalence
 - of static analysis
 - of compilers
 - ▶

Overview

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Synthesizing loop invariants

8 Epilogue

Removal of conditioning

- Idea: restart an infeasible run until all observe-statements are passed
- ▶ For program variable x use auxiliary variable sx
 - store initial value of x into sx
 - on each new loop-iteration restore x to sx
- Use auxiliary variable flag to signal observation violation:

```
flag := true; while(flag)flag := false; modprog
```

- Change prog into modprog by:
 - > observe(G) ~~~> flag := !G && flag > abort ~~~> if(!flag) abort
 - while(G) prog ~~> while(G && !flag) prog

Resulting program

```
sx1,...,sxn := x1,...,xn; flag := true;
while(flag) {
  flag := false;
  x1,...,xn := sx1,...,sxn;
  modprog
}
```

In machine learning, this is known as rejection sampling.

Removal of conditioning

the transformation in action:

х	:=	0	[p]	х	:=	1;
у	:=	0	[p]	у	:=	1;
<pre>observe(x != y)</pre>						

```
sx, sy := x, y; flag := true;
while(flag) {
    x, y := sx, sy; flag := false;
    x := 0 [p] x := 1;
    y := 0 [p] y := 1;
    flag := (x = y)
}
```

a simple data-flow analysis yields:

```
repeat {
    x := 0 [p] x := 1;
    y := 0 [p] y := 1
} until(x != y)
```

Principles of Probabilistic Programming

Program transformations

Removal of conditioning

Correctness of transformation

For program P, transformed program \hat{P} , and expectation f:

 $cwp(P, f) = wp(\hat{P}, f)$

A dual program transformation

repeat

a0 := 0 [0.5] a0 := 1; a1 := 0 [0.5] a1 := 1; a2 := 0 [0.5] a2 := 1; i := 4*a0 + 2*a1 + a0 + 1 until (1 <= i <= 6) a0 := 0 [0.5] a0 := 1; a1 := 0 [0.5] a1 := 1; a2 := 0 [0.5] a2 := 1; i := 4*a0 + 2*a1 + a0 + 1 observe (1 <= i <= 6)

Loop-by-observe replacement if there is "no data flow" between loop iterations

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Termination

[Esparza *et al.* 2012]

"[Ordinary] termination is a purely topological property [...], but almost-sure termination is not. [...] Proving almost-sure termination requires arithmetic reasoning not offered by termination provers."

Nuances of termination

..... certain termination

..... termination with probability one

 \implies almost-sure termination

..... in an expected finite number of steps

 \implies positive almost-sure termination

..... in an expected infinite number of steps

→ negative almost-sure termination

Certain termination

```
int i := 100;
while (i > 0) {
    i--;
}
```

This program certainly terminates.

Positive almost-sure termination

For p an arbitrary probability:

```
bool c := true;
int i := 0;
while (c) {
    i++;
    (c := false [p] c := true)
}
```

This program almost surely terminates. In finite expected time. Despite the possibility of divergence.

Negative almost-sure termination

Consider the one-dimensional (symmetric) random walk:

```
int x := 10;
while (x > 0) {
   (x-- [0.5] x++)
}
```

This program almost surely terminates but requires an infinite expected time to do so.

Compositionality

Consider the two probabilistic programs:

```
int x := 1;
bool c := true;
while (c) {
    c := false [0.5] c := true;
    x := 2*x
}
```

while (x > 0) {
 x-}

Finite termination time

Finite expected termination time

Running the right after the left program yields an infinite expected termination time

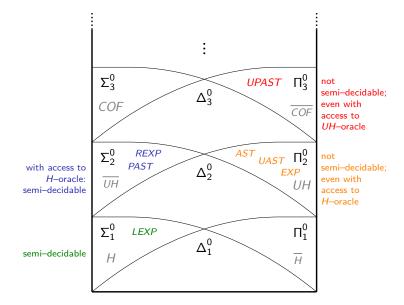
Three results

Determining expected outcomes is as hard as almost-sure termination.

Almost-sure termination is "more undecidable" than ordinary termination.

Universal almost-sure termination is as hard as almost-sure termination. This does not hold for positive almost-sure termination.

Hardness of almost sure termination



Proof idea: hardness of positive as-termination

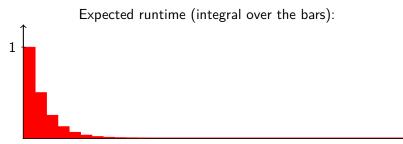
Reduction from the complement of the universal halting problem

For an ordinary program Q, provide a probabilistic program P (depending on Q) and an input η , such that

P terminates in a finite expected number of steps on η if and only if Q does not terminate on some input

Let's start simple

```
bool c := true;
int nrflips := 0;
while (c) {
    nrflips++;
    (c := false [0.5] c := true);
}
```



The nrflips-th iteration takes place with probability 1/2^{nrflips}.

Reducing an ordinary program to a probabilistic one

Assume an enumeration of all inputs for Q is given

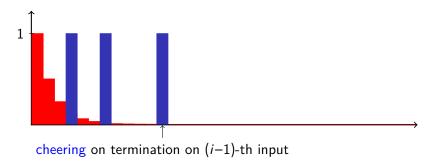
```
bool c := true;
int nrflips := 0;
int i := 0;
while (c) {
    // simulate Q for one (further) step on its i-th input
    if (Q terminates on its i-th input) {
         cheer: // take 2<sup>nrflips</sup> effectless steps
         i++:
         // reset simulation of program Q
    }
    nrflips++;
    (c := false [0.5] c := true);
}
```

 ${\it P}$ looses interest in further simulating ${\it Q}$ by a coin flip to decide for termination.

Q does not always halt

Let i be the first input for which Q does not terminate.

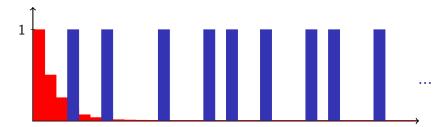
Expected runtime of P (integral over the bars):



Finite cheering — finite expected runtime

Q terminates on all inputs

Expected runtime of P (integral over the bars):



Infinite cheering — infinite expected runtime

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 $\Rightarrow \Pi_2^0$ -complete

55/80

Expected run-times

Aim

Provide a wp-calculus to determine expected run-times. Why?

- 1. Prove universal positive almost-sure termination
- 2. Reason about the efficiency of randomised algorithms³

ert(P, t) bounds P's expected run-time if P's continuation takes t time.

³Typically by classical probability theory using martingales and expected values. Joost-Pieter Katoen Principles of Probabilistic Programming

A naive, unsound approach

Equip the program with a counter rc and use standard wp-reasoning.

```
rc := 0;
c := false [0.5] c := true; rc++;
for (i := 1; i < 2k-1; i++) // 2k-1 useless steps
        { skip; rc++ }
while (c) { skip; rc++ }
```

The expected value of rc is k, but the expected run-time is ∞

Expected run-times

Syntax skip abort x := mu observe (G) P1 ; P2 if (G) P1 else P2 while(G)P

Semantics *ert*(*P*, **t**)

▶ 1+t

▶ ∞

► **1** + $\lambda \sigma . E_{\llbracket \mu \rrbracket(\sigma)} (\lambda v . t[x \coloneqq v](\sigma))$

 $\blacktriangleright [G] \cdot (\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{t})$

ert(P₁, ert(P₂, t))

- ▶ $\mathbf{1} + [G] \cdot ert(P_1, \mathbf{t}) + [\neg G] \cdot ert(P_2, \mathbf{t})$
- $\blacktriangleright \mu X. \mathbf{1} + ([G] \cdot ert(P, X) + [\neg G] \cdot \mathbf{t})$

 μ is the least fixed point operator wrt. the ordering \leq on run-times and a set of proof rules ⁴ to get two-sided bounds on run-times of loops

⁴Certified using the Isabelle/HOL theorem prover; see [Hölzl, ITP 2016].

Proof rules for loops

Let n be a natural and let while(G) P be our loop.

Run-time transformer I_n is a lower ω -invariant w.r.t. t iff

 $I_0 \leq F_t(\mathbf{0})$ and $I_{n+1} \leq F_t(I_n)$ for all n

where $F_t(X) = \mu X \cdot \mathbf{1} + ([G] \cdot ert(P, X) + [\neg G] \cdot t)$.

In a similar way, upper ω -invariants w.r.t. t are defined.

If I_n is a lower ω -invariant w.r.t. t and $\lim_{n\to\infty} I_n$ exists, then:

 $\lim_{n \to \infty} I_n \preceq ert(while(G) P, t)$

Upper ω -invariants provide an upper bound on the loop's run time.

Completeness: such lower- and upper ω -invariants always exist.

Invariant synthesis

while (c) { {c := false [0.5] c := true}; x := 2*x}

Template for a lower ω -invariant:

$$I_n = \mathbf{1} + \underbrace{[c \neq 1] \cdot (\mathbf{1} + [x > 0] \cdot 2x)}_{\text{on termination}} + \underbrace{[c = 1] \cdot (a_n + b_n \cdot [x > 0] \cdot 2x)}_{\text{on iteration}}$$

The constraints on being a lower ω -invariant yield:

$$a_0 \le 2$$
 and $a_{n+1} \le 7/2 + 1/2 \cdot a_n$ and $b_0 \le 0$ and $b_{n+1} \le 1 + b_n$

This admits the solution $a_n = 7 - \frac{5}{2^n}$ and $b_n = n$.

EM 250

200

150

100

50

Coupon collector's problem

ON A CLASSICAL PROBLEM OF PROBABILITY THEORY

by

P. ERDŐS and A. RÉNYI

Coupon collector's problem In probability theory, the coupon collector's problem describes the "collect all In probability meony, the coupon collectors problem describes the toppose that there is an coupons and with contests. It asks the following question: Suppose that there is an coupons and with contests. coupons and win' contests. It asks the tollowing question: Suppose that there is an un of n different coupons, from which coupons are being collected, equally likely, um of nonferent coupons, from which coupons are being collected, equally likely, with replacement. What is the probability that more than teampie trials are needed. From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia anter a description and an and a Winn replacement. What is the probability that more than 1 semple thats are needed to any the many of the statement is Given in Coupons? An alternative statement is device the statement is and the statement is a statement in the statement in the statement is a statement in the statement in the statement is a statement in the statement in the statement is a statement in the statement in the statement is a statement in the statement in the statement is a statement in the statement in the statement is a statement in the statement in the statement in the statement is a statement in the statement in the statement is a statement in the statement in the statement is a statement in the statement in the statement is a statement in the statement is a statement in the st to collect all in coupons (An allemative statement is: usven in coupons, now many outpons do you expect you need to draw with replacement before having drawn with productions as transformer or the material and the contract of the contr 16 18 coupons oo you expect you need to oraw with replacement before naving grawn that expect you need to oraw with replacement before naving an and the problem reveals that an advert and the problem reveals that are adverted to problem reveals that 20 soupon ar least once / the mamemalical analysis of the problem reveals that because number of trials needed grows as $\Theta(n \log(n))^{(1)}$ For example, when because number of trials needed grows as $\Theta(n \log(n))^{(1)}$ 26 20 M Em=3n Joost-Pieter Katoen Principles of Probabilistic Programming

Coupon collector's problem

A more modern phrasing:

Each box of cereal contains one (equally likely) out of N coupons. You win a price if all N coupons are collected.How many boxes of cereal need to be bought on average to win?

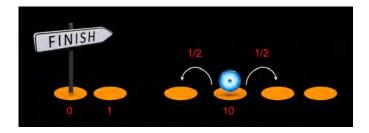


Coupon collector's problem

```
cp := [0,...,0]; // no coupons yet
i := 1; // coupon to be collected next
x := 0: // number of coupons collected
while (x < N) {
   while (cp[i] != 0) {
      i := uniform(1..N) // next coupon
   }
   cp[i] := 1; // coupon i obtained
   x++; // one coupon less to go
}
```

Using our ert-calculus one can prove that expected run-time is $\Theta(N \cdot \log N)$. By systematic formal verification à la Floyd-Hoare. Machine checkable.

Random walk



Using our ert-calculus one can prove that its expected run-time is ∞ . By systematic formal verification à la Floyd-Hoare. Machine checkable.

Joost-Pieter Katoen

Principles of Probabilistic Programming

Overview

Introduction

- 2 Two flavours of semantics
- 3 Program transformations
- 4 Different flavours of termination
- 5 Run-time analysis

6 Recursion

- 7 Synthesizing loop invariants
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Recursion

Q: What is the probability that recursive program P terminates?

P :: skip [0.5] { call P; call P; call P }

Recursion

The semantics of recursive procedures is the limit of their *n*-th inlining:

$$\operatorname{call}_{0}^{D} P = \operatorname{abort}$$

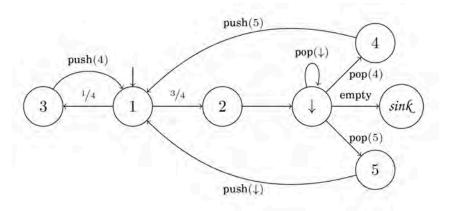
 $\operatorname{call}_{n+1}^{D} P = D(P)[\operatorname{call} P := \operatorname{call}_{n}^{D} P]$

$$wp(call P, f)[D] = sup_n wp(call_n^D P, f)$$

where D is the process declaration and D(P) the body of P

This corresponds to the fixed point of a (higher order) environment transformer

Pushdown Markov chains



 $\{\mathsf{skip}^1\} \, [^{1}\!/_{2}]^2 \, \{\mathsf{call} \, P^3; \, \mathsf{call} \, P^4; \, \mathsf{call} \, P^5 \, \}$

Wp = expected rewards in pushdown MCs

For recursive program P and post-expectation f:

wp(P, f) for input η equals the expected reward (that depends on f) to reach a terminal state in the pushdown MC of P when starting with η .

Checking expected rewards in finite-control pushdown MCs is decidable.⁵

⁵see [Brazdil, Esparza, Kiefer, Kucera, FMSD 2013].

Proof rules for recursion

Standard proof rule for recursion:

 $\frac{wp(\text{call } P, f) \le g \text{ derives } wp(D(P), f) \le g}{wp(\text{call } P, f)[D] \le g}$

call P satisfies f, g if P's body satisfies it, assuming the recursive calls in P's body do so too.

Proof rule for obtaining two-sided bounds given $\ell_0 = \mathbf{0}$ and $u_0 = \mathbf{0}$:

$$\frac{\ell_n \le wp(\text{call } P, f) \le u_n \text{ derives } \ell_{n+1} \le wp(D(P), f) \le u_{n+1}}{\sup_n \ell_n \le wp(\text{call } P, f)[D] \le \sup_n u_n}$$

The golden ratio

Extension with proof rules allows to show e.g.,

P :: skip [0.5] { call P; call P; call P }

terminates with probability
$$rac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$$
 = $rac{1}{\phi}$ = $arphi$

Or: apply to reason about Sherwood variants of binary search, quick sort etc.

 $\mathsf{wp}[\mathsf{call}\, P](\mathbf{1}) \preceq \varphi \, \Vdash \, \mathsf{wp}[\mathcal{D}(P_{\mathsf{rec}_3})](\mathbf{1}) \preceq \varphi$

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Playing with geometric distributions

- \blacktriangleright X is a random variable, geometrically distributed with parameter p
- \blacktriangleright Y is a random variable, geometrically distributed with parameter q
- Q: generate a sample x, say, according to the random variable X Y

```
int XminY1(float p, q){ // 0 <= p, q <= 1
int x := 0;
bool flip := false;
while (!flip) { // take a sample of X to increase x
   (x++ [p] flip := true);
}
flip := false;
while (!flip) { // take a sample of Y to decrease x
   (x-- [q] flip := true);
}
return x; // a sample of X-Y
}</pre>
```

Program equivalence

```
int XminY1(float p, q){
    int x, f := 0, 0;
    while (f = 0) {
        (x++ [p] f := 1);
    }
    f := 0;
    while (f = 0) {
        (x-- [q] f := 1);
    }
    return x;
}
```

```
int XminY2(float p, q){
 int x, f := 0, 0;
  (f := 0 [0.5] f := 1);
 if (!f) {
   while (!f) {
     (x++ [p] f := 1);
   }
 } else {
   f := 0;
   while (!f) {
     x--; (skip [q] f := 1);
   }
 }
return x;
```

Using loop invariant synthesis:

Both programs are equivalent for any q with $q = \frac{1}{2-p}$.

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Invariant synthesis for linear programs

inspired by [Colón et al. 2002]

1. Speculatively annotate a while-loop with linear expressions:

 $[\alpha_1 \cdot x_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n \cdot x_n + \alpha_{n+1} \ll 0] \cdot (\beta_1 \cdot x_1 + \ldots + \beta_n \cdot x_n + \beta_{n+1})$

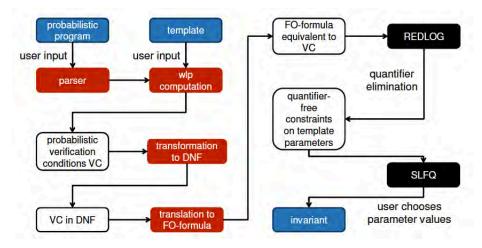
with real parameters α_i , β_i , program variable x_i , and $\ll \in \{<, \le\}$.

- 2. Transform these numerical constraints into Boolean predicates.
- 3. Transform these predicates into non-linear FO formulas.
- 4. Use constraint-solvers for quantifier elimination (e.g., RedLOG).
- 5. Simplify the resulting formulas (e.g., by SMT solving).

Soundness and completeness

For any linear probabilistic program and linear expectations, this will find all parameter solutions that make the template valid, and no others.

PRINSYS Tool: Synthesis of Probabilistic Invariants



download from moves.rwth-aachen.de/prinsys

Program equivalence

```
int XminY2(float p, q){
  int x, f := 0, 0;
 (f := 0 [0.5] f := 1);
if (f = 0) \{
    while (f = 0) {
     (x++[p] f := 1);
    }
  } else {
    f := 0:
    while (f = 0) {
      x--:
      (skip [q] f := 1);
  return x:
```

Using template $x + [f = 0] \cdot \alpha$ we find the invariants :

$$\alpha_{11} = \frac{p}{1-p}, \ \alpha_{12} = -\frac{q}{1-q}, \ \alpha_{21} = \alpha_{11} \text{ and } \alpha_{22} = -\frac{1}{1-q}.$$

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Epilogue

Take-home message

- Connecting wp and operational semantics
- Semantic intricacies of conditioning
- Almost-sure termination is harder than termination
- Expected run-time analysis

Extensions

- Non-determinism
- Mixed-sign random variables
- Link to Bayesian networks
- Invariant synthesis



Further reading

- JPK, A. MCIVER, L. MEINICKE, AND C. MORGAN. Linear-invariant generation for probabilistic programs. SAS 2010.
- ▶ F. GRETZ, JPK, AND A. MCIVER.

Operational versus wp-semantics for pGCL. J. on Performance Evaluation, 2014.

▶ F. GRETZ et al..

Conditioning in probabilistic programming. MFPS 2015.

▶ B. Kaminski, JPK.

On the hardness of almost-sure termination. MFCS 2015.

- B. KAMINSKI, JPK, C. MATHEJA, AND F. OLMEDO. Expected run-time analysis of probabilistic programs ⁶. ESOP 2016.
- ▶ F. Olmedo, B. Kaminski, JPK, C. Matheja.

Reasoning about recursive probabilistic programs. LICS 2016.

⁶Recipient EATCS best paper award of ETAPS 2016.