A compositional approach to scalable Bayesian computation and probabilistic programming

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Advances and challenges in machine learning languages

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Compositionality

Functional Programming

Category Theory

Probability monads

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Summary and conclusions

Compositionality, category theory, and functional programming

Compositionality and modelling

- We typically solve big problems by (recursively) breaking them down into smaller problems that we can solve more easily, and then compose the solutions of the smaller problems to provide a solution to the big problem that we are really interested in
- This "divide and conquer" approach is necessary for the development of genuinely scalable models and algorithms
- Statistical models and algorithms are not usually formulated in a composable way
- Category theory is in many ways the mathematical study of composition, and provides significant insight into the development of more compositional models of computation

What is functional programming?

- FP languages emphasise the use of immutable data, pure, referentially transparent functions, and higher-order functions
- Unlike commonly used imperative programming languages, they are closer to the Church end of the Church-Turing thesis
 — eg. closer to Lambda–calculus than a Turing–machine
- The original Lambda–calculus was untyped, corresponding to a dynamically–typed programming language, such as Lisp
- Statically-typed FP languages (such as Haskell) are arguably more scalable, corresponding to the simply-typed Lambda-calculus, closely related to Cartesian closed categories...

Monadic collections (in Scala)

- A collection of type M[T] can contain (multiple) values of type T
- If the collection supports a higher-order function
 map(f: T =>S): M[S] then we call the collection a Functor
 - eg. List(1,3,5,7) map (x =>x*2) = List(2,6,10,14)
- If the collection additionally supports a higher-order function flatMap(f: T =>M[S]): M[S] then we call the collection a Monad
 - eg. List(1,3,5,7) flatMap (x =>List(x,x+1)) = List(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8)
 - instead of List(1,3,5,7) map (x =>List(x,x+1))
 - = List(List(1,2),List(3,4),List(5,6),List(7,8))

Composing monadic functions

- Given functions f: S =>T, g: T =>U, h: U =>V, we can compose them as h compose g compose f or s =>h(g(f(s))) to get hgf: S =>V
- Monadic functions f: S =>M[T], g: T =>M[U],
 h: U =>M[V] don't compose directly, but do using flatMap:
 s =>f(s) flatMap g flatMap h has type S =>M[V]
- Can be written as a for-comprehension (do in Haskell):
 s =>for (t<-f(s); u<-g(t); v<-h(u)) yield v
- Just syntactic sugar for the chained flatMaps above really not an imperative-style "for loop" at all...

Other monadic types: Prob/Gen/Rand

- The Probability monad is another important monad with obvious relevance to statistical computing
- A Rand[T] represents a random quantity of type T
- It is used to encapsulate the non-determinism of functions returning random quantities — otherwise these would break the purity and referential transparency of the function
- map is used to transform one random quantity into another
- flatMap is used to chain together stochastic functions to create joint and/or marginal random variables, or to propagate uncertainty through a computational work-flow or pipeline
- Probability monads form the basis for the development of probabilistic programming languages using FP

Category theory

- A category C consists of a collection of objects, ob(C), and morphisms, hom(C). Each morphism is an ordered pair of objects (an arrow between objects). For x, y ∈ ob(C), the set of morphisms from x to y is denoted hom_C(x, y).
 f ∈ hom_C(x, y) is often written f : x → y.
- Morphisms are closed under composition, so that if
 f : *x* → *y* and *g* : *y* → *z*, then there must also exist a
 morphism *h* : *x* → *z* written *h* = *g* ∘ *f*.
- Composition is associative, so that $f \circ (g \circ h) = (f \circ g) \circ h$ for all composable $f, g, h \in hom(\mathcal{C})$.
- For every $x \in ob(\mathcal{C})$ there exists an identity morphism $id_x : x \longrightarrow x$, with the property that for any $f : x \longrightarrow y$ we have $f = f \circ id_x = id_y \circ f$.

Examples of categories

- The category **Set** has an object for every set, and its morphisms represent set functions
 - Note that this is a category, since functions are composable and we have identity functions, and function composition is associative
 - Note that objects are "atomic" in category theory it is not possible to "look inside" the objects to see the set elements category theory is "point-free"
- For a pure FP language, we can form a category where objects represent types, and morphisms represent functions from one type to another
 - In Haskell this category is often referred to as **Hask**
 - This category is very similar to **Set**, in practice (both CCCs)
 - By modelling FP types and functions as a category, we can bring ideas and techniques from CT into FP

Functors

- A functor is a mapping from one category to another which preserves some structure
- A functor F from C to D, written F : C → D is a pair of functions (both denoted F):
 - $F: \operatorname{ob}(\mathcal{C}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{ob}(\mathcal{D})$
 - $F : \hom(\mathcal{C}) \longrightarrow \hom(\mathcal{D})$, where $\forall f \in \hom(\mathcal{C})$, we have $F(f : x \longrightarrow y) : F(x) \longrightarrow F(y)$
 - In other words, if $f \in \hom_{\mathcal{C}}(x, y)$, then $F(f) \in \hom_{\mathcal{D}}(F(x), F(y))$
- The functor must satisfy the functor laws:
 - $F(\operatorname{id}_x) = \operatorname{id}_{F(x)}, \forall x \in \operatorname{ob}(\mathcal{C})$
 - $F(f \circ g) = F(f) \circ F(g)$ for all composable $f, g \in \hom(\mathcal{C})$
- A functor F : C → C is called an endofunctor in the context of functional programming, the word functor usually refers to an endofunctor F : Set → Set

Natural transformations

- Often there are multiple functors between pairs of categories, and sometimes it is useful to be able to transform one to another
- Suppose we have two functors $F,G:\mathcal{C}\longrightarrow\mathcal{D}$
- A natural transformation α : F ⇒ G is a family of morphisms in D, where ∀x ∈ C, the component α_x : F(x) → G(x) is a morphism in D
- To be considered natural, this family of morphisms must satisfy the naturality law:
 - $\alpha_y \circ F(f) = G(f) \circ \alpha_x, \quad \forall f : x \longrightarrow y \in \hom(\mathcal{C})$
- Naturality is one of the most fundamental concepts in category theory
- In the context of FP, a natural transformation could (say) map an Option to a List (with at most one element)

Monads

- A monad on a category C is an endofunctor T : C → C together with two natural transformations η : Id_C → T (unit) and μ : T² → T (multiplication) fulfilling the monad laws:
 - Associativity: $\mu \circ T\mu = \mu \circ \mu_T$, as transformations $T^3 \longrightarrow T$
 - Identity: $\mu \circ T\eta = \mu \circ \eta_T = 1_T$, as transformations $T \longrightarrow T$
- The associativity law says that the two ways of flattening T(T(T(x))) to T(x) are the same
- The identity law says that the two ways of lifting T(x) to T(T(x)) and then flattening back to T(x) both get back to the original T(x)
- In FP, we often use M (for monad) rather than T (for triple), and say that there are three monad laws — the identity law is considered to be two separate laws

Kleisli category

- Kleisli categories formalise monadic composition
- For any monad T over a category C, the Kleisli category of C, written C_T is a category with the same objects as C, but with morphisms given by:

• $\hom_{\mathcal{C}_T}(x, y) = \hom_{\mathcal{C}}(x, T(y)), \ \forall x, y \in \mathrm{ob}(\mathcal{C})$

• The identity morphisms in \mathcal{C}_T are given by $\mathrm{id}_x = \eta(x), \forall x$, and morphisms $f: x \longrightarrow T(y)$ and $g: y \longrightarrow T(z)$ in \mathcal{C} can compose to form $g \circ_T f: x \longrightarrow T(z)$ via

• $g \circ_T f = \mu_z \circ T(g) \circ f$

leading to composition of morphisms in $C_{\mathcal{T}}$.

 In FP, the morphisms in C_T are often referred to as Kleisli arrows, or Kleislis, or sometimes just arrows (although Arrow usually refers to a generalisation of Kleisli arrows, sometimes known as Hughes arrows)

Comonads

- The comonad is the categorical dual of the monad, obtained by "reversing the arrows" for the definition of a monad
- A comonad on a category C is an endofunctor W : C → C together with two natural transformations ε : W → Id_C (counit) and δ : W → W² (comultiplication) fulfilling the comonad laws:
 - Associativity: $\delta_W \circ \delta = W \delta \circ \delta$, as transformations $W \longrightarrow W^3$
 - Identity: $\varepsilon_W \circ \delta = W \varepsilon \circ \delta = 1_W$, as transformations $W \longrightarrow W$
- The associativity law says that the two ways of duplicating a W(x) duplicated to a W(W(x)) to a W(W(W(x))) are the same
- The identity law says that the two ways of extracting a W(x) from a W(x) duplicated to a W(W(x)) are the same

- Typeclasses are a mechanism for supporting ad hoc polymorphism in (functional) programming languages
- They are more flexible way to provide polymorphic functionality than traditional inheritance-based object classes in conventional object-oriented programming languages
- To define a typeclass (such as Monoid) for a basic type, the language must support parametric types
- To define a typeclass (such as Functor or Monad) for a parametric type or type constructor, the language must support higher-kinded types (very few widely-used languages do)

Typeclasses for Monoid, Functor, Monad and Comonad

```
trait Monoid[A] {
  def combine(a1: A, a2: A): A
 def id: A
}
trait Functor[F[ ]] {
 def map[A,B](fa: F[A])(f: A => B): F[B]
}
trait Monad[M[_]] extends Functor[M] {
  def pure[A](a: A): M[A]
  def flatMap[A,B](ma: M[A])(f: A => M[B]): M[B]
}
trait Comonad[W[_]] extends Functor[W] {
  def extract[A](wa: W[A]): A
 def coflatMap[A,B](wa: W[A])(f: W[A] => B): W[B]
}
```

Comonads for statistical computation

- Monads are good for operations that can be carried out on data points independently
- For computations requiring knowledge of some kind of local neighbourhood structure, Comonads are a better fit
- coflatMap will take a function representing a local computation producing one value for the new structure, and then extend this to generate all values associated with the comonad
- Useful for defining linear filters, Gibbs samplers, convolutional neural networks, etc.

Probability monads

Composing random variables with the probability monad

- The probability monad provides a foundation for describing random variables in a pure functional way (cf. Giry monad)
- We can build up joint distributions from marginal and conditional distributions using monadic composition
- For example, consider an exponential mixture of Poissons (marginally negative binomial): we can think of an exponential distribution parametrised by a rate as a function Exponential: Double =>Rand[Double] and a Poisson parametrised by its mean as a function Poisson: Double =>Rand[Int]
- Those two functions don't directly compose, but do in the Kleisli category of the Rand monad, so Exponential(3) flatMap {Poisson(_)} will return a Rand[Int] which we can draw samples from if required

Monads for probabilistic programming

• For larger probability models we can use for-comprehensions to simplify the model building process, eg.

```
for { mu <- Gaussian(10,1)
      tau <- Gamma(1,1)
      sig = 1.0/sqrt(tau)
      obs <- Gaussian(mu,sig) }
yield ((mu,tau,obs))</pre>
```

- We can use a regular probability monad for building forward models this way, and even for building models with simple Bayesian inference procedures allowing conditioning
- For sophisticated probabilistic sampling algorithms (eg. SMC, MCMC, pMCMC, HMC, ...) and hybrid compositions, it is better to build models like this using a free monad which can be interpreted in different ways

Mathematically, what exactly is a probability monad P?

Standard answer:

- Giry monad measurable functions and spaces
 - Defined on the category **Meas** of measurable spaces, *P* sends *X* to the space of probability measures on *X*
 - η is a dirac measure $(\eta(x) = \delta_x)$ and μ is defined as marginalisation using Lebesgue integration

$$\mu_X(\rho)(A) = \int_{P(X)} \tau_A(d\rho)$$

- Provides a solid foundation matching up closely with conventional probability theory, but isn't as compositional as we'd like (eg. **Meas** is not cartesian closed)
- Awkward for (higher-order) probabilistic programming languages

Alternative probability monad foundations

- Quasi-Borel spaces
 - A modification of the measure space approach which is cartesian closed (eg. $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbf{QBS}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$)
 - Good for the denotational semantics of (higher–order) probabilistic programming languages where we want to define probability distributions over functions
- Kantorovich monad built on (complete) metric spaces
 - Provides an alternative, more composable foundation for probability theory, less tightly linked to measure theory
- Expectation monad directly define an expectation monad
 - A formulation in which expectation is primitive and probability is a derived concept (cf. de Finetti)

And several others...

Rand for forward simulation

- Whilst the semantics of probability monads should be reasonably clear, there are many different ways to implement them, depending on the intended use-case
- The simplest probability monad implementations typically provide a draw method, which can be used (with a uniform random number generator) to generate draws from the distribution of interest
- For x: Rand[X], monadic bind x flatMap (f: X =>Rand[Y]) returns y: Rand[Y]
- f represents a conditional distribution and y represents the marginalisation of this distribution over x
- The draw method for y first calls draw on x (which it holds a reference to), feeds this in to f and then calls draw on the result

Dist for Bayesian conditioning via SMC

- Rather than providing a draw method for generating individual values from the distribution of interest, you can define a monad whose values represent large (weighted) random samples from a distribution — an empirical distribution
- flatMap is then essentially just the same flatMap you would have on any other collection, but here will typically be combined with a random thinning of the result set to prevent an explosion in the number of particles with deep chaining
- One advantage of this representation is that it then easy to introduction a condition method which uses importance (re)sampling to condition on observations
- This can be used to implement a simple SMC-based Bayesian PPL with very little code, but it won't scale well with large or complex models

RandomVariable for Bayesian HMC sampling

- Rather than using a probability monad to represent samples or methods for sampling, one can instead use them to represent the (joint, log) density of the variables
- flatMap just multiplies the (conditional) densities
- Again, conditioning is easy (multiplication), so this forms a good basis for Bayesian PPLs
- Can use the joint posterior for simple MH algorithms (and Gibbs, if dependencies are tracked), but for Langevin and HMC algorithms, also need to keep track of gradients, using automatic differentiation (AD)
- OK, because (reverse-mode) AD on a compute graph is also monadic!
- Rainier is a Scala library for HMC sampling of monadic random variables (using a static compute graph, for efficiency)

Example — Bayesian logistic regression model in Rainier

```
val model = for {
      beta0 <- Normal(0, 5).param</pre>
      beta1 <- Normal(0, 5).param</pre>
      _ <- Predictor.fromDouble { x =>
           ł
             val theta = beta0 + beta1 * x
             val p = \text{Real}(1.0) / (\text{Real}(1.0) +
                 (Real(0.0) - theta).exp)
             Categorical.boolean(p)
           7
        }.fit(x zip y)
} yield Map("b0" -> beta0, "b1" -> beta1)
val out = model.sample(HMC(5), 1000, 10000*10, 10)
```

Composing probabilistic programs

- Describing probabilistic programs as monadic values in a functional programming language with syntax for monadic composition leads immediately to an embedded PPL DSL "for free"
- This in turn enables a fully compositional approach to the (scalable) development of (hierarchical) probabilistic models
- Model components can be easily "re-used" in order to build big models from small
- eg. a regression model component can be re-used to create a hierarchical random effects model over related regressions
- In some well-known PPLs (eg. BUGS), this would require manual copy-and-pasting of code, wrapping with a "for loop", and manual hacking in of an extra array index into all array references — not at all compositional!

Representation independence using the free monad

- However you implement your probability monad, the semantics of your probabilistic program are (essentially) the same
- It would be nice to be able to define and compose probabilistic programs independently of concerns about implementation, and then to interpret the program with a particular implementation later
- Building a probability monad on top of the free monad allows this — implementation of pure and flatMap is "suspended" in a way that allows subsequent interpretation with concrete implementations later
- This allows layering of multiple inference algorithms, and different interpretation of different parts of the model, enabling sophisticated composition of different (hybrid) inference algorithms

Compositionality of inference algorithms

- As well as building models in scalable, compositional way, we would also like our inference algorithms to be compositional, ideally reflecting the compositional structure of our models
- Some algorithms, such as component-wise samplers and message-passing algorithms, naturally reflect the compositional structure of the underlying model
- Other algorithms, such as Langevin and HMC samplers, deliberately don't decompose with the model structure, but do have other structure that can be exploited, such as decomposing over observations
- Understanding and exploiting the compositional structure of models and algorithms will be crucial for developing scalable inferential methods

Summary and conclusions

Summary

- Mathematicians and theoretical computer scientists have been thinking about models of (scalable) computation for decades
- Functional programming languages based on Cartesian closed categories provide a sensible foundation for computational modelling with appropriate levels of abstraction
- Concepts from category theory, such as functors, monads and comonads, provide an appropriate array of tools for scalable data modelling and algorithm construction and composition
- Expressing models and algorithms in FP languages using category theory abstractions leads to elegant, composable PPLs "for free", doing away with the need to manually construct and parse custom DSLs
- Monadic composition is the canonical approach to constructing flexible, composable PPLs (and AD systems, and deep NNs, ...)

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