

## 1 Intro

This document is concerned with the formal semantics of probabilistic programs used for probabilistic modeling and machine learning. One approach in this setting is that

- we want programs in our language to specify probabilistic generative models of data, and
- we want these programs to be interpreted as (un-normalized) posterior distributions over variables of interest in the model (latents and model parameters)

That is, we want our compilers/interpreters to do probabilistic inference. Once one specifies a programming language, including its terms, types, and syntax, one must specify what a program means: in our case, how a generative model maps to a posterior distribution. We will focus on denotational semantics, which associate programs with a mathematical object from some suitable category. Denotational semantics are compositional so that, in our case, each piece of our program will describe a distribution and the whole program will too.

We present a walkthrough of *Semantics for probabilistic programming: higher-order functions, continuous distributions, and soft constraints* [1, 2016] and *Commutative semantics for probabilistic programming* [2, 2017], mainly focusing on the presentation in [2]. We first briefly review measures and kernels because they show up in the semantics. We will later be interested in higher-order functions and approximate inference but focus on first-order programs and exact inference here. Later, we will also be interested in properties of probabilistic programs (commutativity corresponding to Fubini’s theorem, generalized versions of de Finetti’s exchangeability theorem, and more).

## 2 Measure Theory

A  **$\sigma$ -algebra**  $\Sigma_X$  on a set  $X$  is a collection of subsets of  $X$  that contains  $\emptyset$  and is closed under complements and countable unions. A **measurable space** is a pair  $(X, \Sigma_X)$  of a set and a  $\sigma$ -algebra on it. The elements of  $\Sigma_X$ , which are themselves sets of elements in  $X$ , are called **measurable sets**. For example, the Borel sets are the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}$  that contains the intervals. This is the usual  $\sigma$ -algebra for  $\mathbb{R}$ . For any countable set, you can always start off with the individual elements of the set: satisfying complements and unions this gives you the powerset  $\sigma$ -algebra.

A **measure** on a measurable space  $(X, \Sigma_X)$  is a function  $\mu : \Sigma_X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  into the set  $[0, \infty]$  of extended non-negative reals that takes countable disjoint unions to sums, i.e.  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$  and  $\mu(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U_n) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(U_n)$  for any  $\mathbb{N}$ -indexed sequence of disjoint measurable sets  $U_n$ . A **probability measure** is a measure  $\mu$  such that  $\mu(X) = 1$ . For example, the Lebesgue measure  $\lambda$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  is generated by  $\lambda((a, b)) = b - a$ . For any  $x \in X$ , the Dirac measure  $\delta_x(U) = 1$  if  $x \in U$  and 0 otherwise.

A **kernel**  $k$  from  $X$  to  $Y$ , notated  $k : X \rightsquigarrow Y$ , is a function  $k : X \times \Sigma_Y \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  such that

- for fixed  $x$ ,  $k(x, -) : \Sigma_Y \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is a measure
- for fixed  $dy$ ,  $k(-, dy) : X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  is a measurable function.

An intuitive example of kernels at work is conditional probability. Take  $k(x, -)$  to be a probability measure  $\mu_Y : \Sigma_Y \rightarrow [0, 1]$  on  $Y$  given a particular value  $X = x$ :  $\sum_{dy \in \Sigma_y} k(x, dy) = 1$ . Note that  $\sum_{x \in X} k(x, dy) \neq 1$  in general.

### 3 Types and Semantics

The two papers [1,2] don't actually define the set of terms of the language, but they are implied to be the typical ones in a language like Haskell. They just define some types and typing rules. The 2018 POPL paper on semantics for higher-order languages [3] does formally introduce a kind and type system and a set of terms. We define our types as:

$$\mathbb{A}, \mathbb{B} ::= \mathbb{R} | P(\mathbb{A}) | 1 | \mathbb{A} \times \mathbb{B} | \sum_i \mathbb{A}_{i \in I}$$

where  $I$  is countable and non-empty. As we will see, types are to be interpreted as measurable spaces  $[[\mathbb{A}]]$ . We have sum and product types. We have a type  $\mathbb{R}$  that denotes the Reals  $[[\mathbb{R}]]$ . We have a type  $P(\mathbb{A})$  that denotes the set of probability measures  $[[P(\mathbb{A})]]$  over a space denoted by  $\mathbb{A}$ . We have the type  $1$  that denotes a singleton set. For booleans, we can just take  $(1 + 1)$  and  $P(1 + 1)$  is the type for distributions over booleans. For the natural numbers, we can use  $\sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} 1$ . Our terms are therefore elements of these sets, like elements of a  $\sigma$ -algebra whose probability we are interested in and density functions.

#### 3.1 Notation

For those not familiar, the below typing rules of the form

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_d t : \mathbb{A}}{\Gamma \vdash_d f(t) : \mathbb{B}}$$

can be read as “under the premise that the term  $t$  is of type  $\mathbb{A}$  in the context of environment  $\Gamma$ , we can conclude that  $f(t)$  is of type  $\mathbb{B}$  in context  $\Gamma$ . To the right of the typing judgements below, we show the intended interpretations.  $[[x]]$  is the object denoted by  $x$ , or “the interpretation of  $x$ ”. As will be explained in the next section, these semantics interpret most terms as some kind of function. When we show an interpretation for a term  $t$ ,  $[[t]]$  is defined by how it acts on its arguments, i.e.  $[[t]](x) = y$

**Two Typing judgements:**  $\Gamma \vdash_d$  is used for deterministic judgements and  $\Gamma \vdash_p$  is used for probabilistic judgements. Having the two typing judgements is mainly for notational clarity: it helps us to define interpretation differently for deterministic and probabilistic terms.

**Environments as lists:** the following informally uses the notation  $\Gamma :: (x : \mathbb{A}) :: \Gamma'$  to show a particular variable  $x$  of type  $\mathbb{A}$  in the environment and  $\Gamma :: (x : \mathbb{A})$  to show that we have extended the environment with  $x$  (like in a `let` expression).

#### 3.2 Typing Judgements and Interpretations for Deterministic Terms

Deterministic terms  $\Gamma \vdash_d t : \mathbb{A}$  are interpreted as measurable functions  $[[t]] : [[\Gamma]] \rightarrow [[\mathbb{A}]]$ , where  $[[t]](\gamma) = x$  is an element of the underlying set  $[[\mathbb{A}]]$  and not a measurable set in  $\Sigma_{[[\mathbb{A}]]}$ .

- **basic term**  $x : \mathbb{A}$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma :: (x : A) :: \Gamma' \vdash_d x : \mathbb{A}} \quad [[x]](\gamma :: d :: \gamma') = d$$

- **Disjoint Sum Type**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_d t : \mathbb{A}_i}{\Gamma \vdash_d (i, t) : \sum_{i \in I} \mathbb{A}_i} \quad [[(i, t)]](\gamma) = (i, [[t]](\gamma))$$

- **Deterministic case**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_d t : \sum_{i \in I} \mathbb{A}_i \quad (\Gamma :: (x : \mathbb{A}_i) \vdash_d u_i : \mathbb{B})_{i \in I}}{\Gamma \vdash_d (\text{case } t \text{ of } \{(i, x) \rightarrow u_i\}_{i \in I}) : \mathbb{B}}$$

$$[[\text{case } t \text{ of } \{(i, x) \rightarrow u_i\}_{i \in I}]](\gamma) = [[u_i]](\gamma, d) \text{ if } [[t]](\gamma) = (i, d)$$

- **Unit**  $()$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash_d () : 1} \quad [[()]](\gamma) = ()$$

- **Product Type**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_d t_0 : \mathbb{A}_0 \quad \Gamma \vdash_d t_1 : \mathbb{A}_1}{\Gamma \vdash_d (t_0, t_1) : \mathbb{A}_0 \times \mathbb{A}_1} \quad [[(t_0, t_1)]](\gamma) = ([[t_0]](\gamma), [[t_1]](\gamma))$$

- **Projection**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_d t : \mathbb{A}_0 \times \mathbb{A}_1}{\Gamma \vdash_d \pi_j(t) : \mathbb{A}_j} \quad [[\pi_j(t)]](\gamma) = d_j \text{ if } [[t]](\gamma) = (d_0, d_1)$$

where the **case** expression above has a deterministic continuation  $u_i$ . We will come back to the probabilistic continuation case. Now the semantics for sequencing.

### 3.3 Typing Judgements and Interpretations for Probabilistic Terms

Probabilistic terms  $\Gamma \vdash_p t : \mathbb{A}$  are interpreted as s-finite kernels  $[[t]] : [[\Gamma]] \rightsquigarrow [[\mathbb{A}]]$ .

- **return**(t)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_d t : \mathbb{A}}{\Gamma \vdash_p \text{return}(t) : \mathbb{A}} \quad [[\text{return}(t)]](\gamma, da) = \delta_{[[t]](\gamma)}(da)$$

this corresponds to a Dirac Delta measure sitting at a point  $[[t]](\gamma)$ .

- **let**  $x = t$  **in**  $u$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_p t : \mathbb{A} \quad \Gamma, x : \mathbb{A} \vdash_p u : \mathbb{B}}{\Gamma \vdash_p \text{let } x = t \text{ in } u : \mathbb{B}} \quad [[\text{let } x = t \text{ in } u]](\gamma, db) = \int_{x, dx \in [[\mathbb{A}]]} [[u]](\gamma :: x, db) [[t]](\gamma, dx)$$

- probabilistic case

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_d t : \sum_{i \in I} \mathbb{A}_i \quad (\Gamma, x : \mathbb{A}_i \vdash_p u_i : \mathbb{B})_{i \in I}}{\Gamma \vdash_p (\text{case } t \text{ of } \{(i, x) \rightarrow u_i\}_{i \in I}) : \mathbb{B}}$$

$$[[\text{case } t \text{ of } \{(i, x) \rightarrow u_i\}_{i \in I}]](\gamma, db) = [[u_i]](\gamma :: d, db) \text{ if } [[t]](\gamma) = (i, d)$$

- `sample(t)`

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_d t : P(\mathbb{A})}{\Gamma \vdash_p \text{sample}(t) : \mathbb{A}} \quad [[\text{sample}(t)]](\gamma, da) = \left( [[t]](\gamma) \right)(da)$$

- `score(t)`

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_d t : \mathbb{R}}{\Gamma \vdash_p \text{score}(t) : 1}$$

$$[[\text{score}(t)]](\gamma, du) = \begin{cases} \text{abs}([t](\gamma)), & \text{if } du = \{()\} \\ 0, & \text{if } du = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

### 3.4 Typing Judgements and Interpretation for Normalize

TODO

## 4 Example Programs

Beta-Bernoulli model: in the following, we derive that “the un-normalized posterior is a measure defined by integrating the likelihood with respect to the prior”.

$$\begin{aligned}
& [[\text{let } x = \text{sample}(\text{Beta}(2, 2)) \text{ in } \text{score}(\text{Bernoulli}(1; x)); \text{return}(x)]](db) \\
&= \int_x [[\text{let } a = \text{score}(\text{Bernoulli}(1; x)) \text{ in } \text{return}(x)]](\gamma :: x, db) \quad [[\text{sample}(\text{Beta}(2, 2))]](\gamma, dx) \\
&= \int_x [[\text{let } a = \text{score}(\text{Bernoulli}(1; x)) \text{ in } \text{return}(x)]](\gamma :: x, db) \quad \text{Beta}(dx; 2, 2) \\
&= \int_x \left( \sum_{s \in \{\emptyset, \{()\}} [[\text{return}(x)]](\gamma :: x :: a, db) \quad [[\text{score}(\text{Bernoulli}(1; x))]](\gamma :: x, s) \right) \text{Beta}(dx; 2, 2) \\
&= \int_x \left( [[\text{return}(x)]](\gamma :: x :: a, db) \quad [[\text{score}(\text{Bernoulli}(1; x))]](\gamma :: x, \{()\}) \right) \text{Beta}(dx; 2, 2) \\
&= \int_x \left( [[\text{return}(x)]](\gamma :: x :: a, db) \quad \text{Bernoulli}(1; x) \right) \text{Beta}(dx; 2, 2) \\
&= \int_x \left( \mathbb{1}[x \in db] \quad \text{Bernoulli}(1; x) \right) \text{Beta}(dx; 2, 2) \\
&= \text{UnnormalizedPosterior}(db) = \int_{x \in db} \text{Bernoulli}(1; x) \quad \text{Beta}(dx; 2, 2) \\
&= \int_{x \in db} \left( x^{2+1-1} (1-x)^{2-1} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

This gives the expected result. We were able to interpret the program as an un-normalized posterior for a Beta-Bernoulli model. We could also have applied `Normalize` to get the exact normalized posterior.

Note on conjugacy: In this example, we consider a Beta-Bernoulli model. The Beta distribution is a continuous distribution over  $[0, 1]$  whose shape is determined by two parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  so that the density is  $\text{Beta}(x; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{C(\alpha, \beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}$  where  $C(\alpha, \beta)$  is just a normalizing constant. The Bernoulli distribution is a discrete distribution over  $\{0, 1\}$  with parameter  $x \in [0, 1]$  defined by mass function  $\text{Bernoulli}(d; x) = x$  if  $d = 1$  and  $1-x$  if  $d = 0$ . The two distributions have the following property: if  $x$  is distributed  $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$  and you observe data-points  $d_i \in \{0, 1\}$  with likelihood distribution  $\prod_i \text{Bernoulli}(d_i; x)$  (Bernoulli with parameter  $x$ ), then the posterior distribution over  $x$  is  $\text{Beta}(\alpha + \#1, \beta + \#0)$ , where there are  $\#1$  1's and  $\#0$  0's in the data. This is a result coming from the Beta and Bernoulli being a **conjugate pair**. If we were to wrap the entire program in a call to `normalize()`, we should get a measure with density  $\text{Beta}(2 + 1, 2)$

**TODO:** Definition of Density: if  $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}$ , then: ...

**TODO:** For probability measure  $p$  with density  $g$ , recover the importance sampling algorithm for sampling from  $p$  by sampling from a Gaussian by showing:

$$\begin{aligned}
[[\text{sample}(p)]] &= [[\text{let } x = \text{lebesgue} \text{ in } \text{score}(p(x)); \text{return}(x)]] \\
&= [[\text{let } x = \text{gauss}(0, 1) \text{ in } \text{score}(1/f(x)); \text{score}(g(x)); \text{return}(x)]] \\
&= [[\text{let } x = \text{gauss}(0, 1) \text{ in } \text{score}(g(x)/f(x)); \text{return}(x)]]
\end{aligned}$$

## 5 Higher Order

...

## 6 Citation

1. Staton et al. Semantics for probabilistic programming: higher-order functions, continuous distributions, and soft constraints. LICS 2016. <https://arxiv.org/pdf/1601.04943.pdf>
2. Staton. Commutative semantics for probabilistic programming. ESOP 2017. ‘ <http://www.cs.ox.ac.uk/people/samuel.staton/papers/esop2017.pdf>
3. Scibior et al. Denotational validation of Bayesian inference. POPL 2018. <https://arxiv.org/pdf/1711.03219.pdf>