## Reasoning about Probabilistic Programs

Oregon PL Summer School 2021

Day 1: Introducing Probabilistic Programs

- Motivations and key questions
- Mathematical preliminaries


## Day 2: First-Order Programs 1

- Probabilistic While language, monadic semantics
- Weakest pre-expectation calculus

Day 3: First-Order Programs 2

- Probabilistic While language, transformer semantics
- Probabilistic separation logic

Day 4: Higher-Order Programs

- Type system: probability monad
- Type system: probabilistic PCF


## Please ask questions!

OPLSS Slack: \#probabilistic

- I will check in periodically for offline questions

Zoom chat/raise hand

- Thanks to Breandan Considine for moderating!

We don't have to get through everything

- We will have to skip over many topics, anyways

Requests are welcome!

- Tell me if you're curious about something not on the menu


## Probabilistic Programs

Are Everywhere!

## Executable code: Randomized Algorithms

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Better performance in exchange for chance of failure

- Check if $n \times n$ matrices $A \cdot B=C: O\left(n^{2.37 \ldots}\right)$ operations
- Freivalds' randomized algorithm: $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ operations


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Improve performance against "worst-case" inputs

- Quicksort: if input is worst-case, $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ comparisons
- Randomized quicksort: $O(n \log n)$ comparisons on average


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Other benefits

- Randomized algorithms can be simpler to describe
- Sometimes: more efficient than deterministic algorithms

Executable code: Security and Privacy

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Cryptography

- Generate secrets the adversary doesn't know
- Example: draw encryption/decryption keys randomly


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## Privacy

- Add random noise to blur private data
- Example: differential privacy


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- Search a huge space of potential inputs
- Avoid human bias in selecting testcases


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Very common strategy for testing programs

- Property-based testing (e.g., QuickCheck)
- Fuzz testing (e.g., AFL, OSS-Fuzz)

Modeling tool: Representing Uncertainty

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Think of uncertain things as drawn from a distribution

- Example: whether a network link fails or not
- Example: tomorrow's temperature


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Different motivation from executable code

- Aim: model some real-world data generation process
- Less important: generating data from this distribution

Modeling tool: Fitting Empirical Data

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Foundation of machine learning

- Human designs a model of how data is generated, with unknown parameters
- Based on data collected from the world, infer parameters of the model


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Example: learning the bias of a coin

- Boolean data generated by coin flips
- Unknown parameter: bias of the coin
- Flip coin many times, try to infer the bias

Modeling tool: Approximate Computing

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## Computing on unreliable hardware

- Hardware operations may occasionally give wrong answer
- Motivation: lower power usage if we allow more errors


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## Computing on unreliable hardware

- Hardware operations may occasionally give wrong answer
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Model failures as drawn from a distribution

- Run hardware many times, estimate failures rate
- Randomized program describes approximate computing

Main Questions

## and Research Directions

## What to know about probabilistic programs?

Four general categories

- Semantics
- Verification
- Automation
- Implementation


## Semantics: what do programs mean mathematically?

Specify what programs are supposed to do

- Programs may generate complicated distributions
- Desired behavior of programs may not be obvious

Common tools

- Denotational semantics: define program behavior using mathematical concepts from probability theory (distributions, measures, ...)
- Operational semantics: define how programs step


## Verification: how to prove programs correct?

Design ways to prove probabilistic program properties

- Target properties can be highly mathematical, subtle
- Goal: reusable techniques to prove these properties

Common tools

- Low-level: interactive theorem provers (e.g., Coq, Agda)
- Higher-level: type systems, Hoare logic, and custom logics


## Automation: how to analyze programs automatically?

## Prove correctness without human help

- Benefit: don't need any human expertise to run
- Drawback: less expressive than manual techniques

Common tools

- Probabilistic model checking (e.g., PRISM, Storm)
- Abstract interpretation


## Implementation: how to run programs efficiently?

Executing a probabilistic program is not always easy

- Especially: in languages supporting conditioning
- Algorithmic insights to execute probabilistic programs

Common tools: sampling algorithms

- Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
- Sequential Monte Carlo (SMC)


## Important division: conditioning or not?

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## No conditioning in language

- Semantics is more straightforward
- Easier to implement; closer to executable code
- Verification and automation are more tractable


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Yes conditioning in language

- Semantics is more complicated
- Difficult to implement efficiently, but useful for modeling
- Verification and automation are very difficult


## Our focus, and the plan (can't cover everything!)

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Primary focus: verification

- Main course goal: reasoning about probabilistic programs


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Secondary focus: semantics

- Introduce a few semantics for probabilistic languages


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- Introduce a few semantics for probabilistic languages

Programs without conditioning

- Simpler, and covers many practical applications

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Semantics can make properties easier or harder to verify

- Probabilistic programs: several natural semantics
- Choice of semantics strongly affects verification

Verifying Probabilistic Programs
What Are the Challenges?

Traditional verification: big code, general proofs

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It computes a super-set of the possible run-time errors. AsTRÉE is designed for
efficiency on large software: hundreds of thousands of lines of code are analyzed
in a matter of hours, while producing very few false alarms. For example, some
fly-by-wire avionics reactive control codes $(70000$ and 380000 lines respectively,
the latter of a much more complex design) are analyzed in 1 h and 10 h 30
respectively on current single-CPU PCs, with no false alarm $[1,2,9]$.

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## Key lessons for designing static analyses tools deployed to find bugs in hundreds of millions of lines of code. <br> BY DINO DISTEFANO, MANUEL FÄHNDRICH, FRANCESCO LOGOZZO, AND PETER W. O'HEARN <br> Scaling Static Analyses at Facebook

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## Scaling Static Analyses at Facebook

How Coverity built a bug-finding tool, and a business, around the unlimited supply of bugs in software systems.

BY AL BESSEY, KEN BLOCK, BEN CHELF, ANDY CHOU, BRYAN FULTON, SETH HALLEM, CHARLES HENRI-GROS BRYAN FULTON, SETH HALLEM, CHARLES HENRI-GROS,
ASYA KAMSKY, SCOTT MCPEAK, AND DAWSON ENGLER

## A Few Billion Lines of Code Later

## Randomized programs: small code, specialized proofs

## Small code

- Usually: on the order of 10s of lines of code
- 100-line algorithm: unthinkable (and un-analyzable)


## Specialized proofs

- Often: apply combination of known and novel techniques
- Proofs (and techniques) can be research contributions


## Simple programs, but complex program states

Programs manipulate distributions over program states

- Each state has a numeric probability
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## Example: program with 10 Boolean variables

- Non-probabilistic programs: $2^{10}=1024$ possible states
- Probabilistic programs: each state also has a probability
- 1024 possible states versus uncountably many states


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Key probabilistic properties often involve...

- Probabilities of events (e.g., returning wrong result)
- Average value of randomized quantities (e.g., running time)


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Can’t just "ignore" probabilities

- Treat probabilities as zero or non-zero (non-determinism)
- Simplifies verification, but can't prove most properties

Needed: good abstractions for probabilistic programs

Discard unneeded aspects of a program's state/behavior

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Discard unneeded aspects of a program's state/behavior


- Andy Baio, Jay Maisel


## What do we want from these abstractions?

## Desired features

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1. Retain enough info to show target probabilistic properties
2. Be easy to establish (or at least not too difficult)
3. Behave well under program composition

Mathematical Preliminaries

## Distributions and sub-distributions

Distribution over $A$ assigns a probability to each $a \in A$ Let $A$ be a countable set. A (discrete) distribution over $A$, $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$, is a function $\mu: A \rightarrow[0,1]$ such that:

$$
\sum_{a \in A} \mu(a)=1
$$

For modeling non-termination: sub-distributions
A (discrete) subdistribution over $A, \mu \in \operatorname{SDistr}(A)$, is a function $\mu: A \rightarrow[0,1]$ such that:

$$
\sum_{a \in A} \mu(a) \leq 1
$$

"Missing" mass is probability of non-termination.

## Examples of distributions

Fair coin: Flip

- Distribution over $\mathbb{B}=\{t t, f f\}$
- $\mu(t t)=\mu(f f) \triangleq 1 / 2$


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Biased coin: $\operatorname{Flip}(1 / 4)$

- Distribution over $\mathbb{B}=\{t t, f f\}$
- $\mu(t t) \triangleq 1 / 4, \mu(f f) \triangleq 3 / 4$


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## Dice roll: Roll

- Distribution over $\mathbb{N}=\{0,1,2, \ldots\}$
- $\mu(1)=\cdots=\mu(6) \triangleq 1 / 6$
- Otherwise: $\mu(n) \triangleq 0$


## Notation for distributions

Probability of a set
Let $E \subseteq A$ be an event, and let $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$ be a distribution. Then the probability of $E$ in $\mu$ is:

$$
\mu(E) \triangleq \sum_{x \in E} \mu(x) .
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## Expected value

Let $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$ be a distribution, and $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$be a non-negative function. Then the expected value of $f$ in $\mu$ is:

$$
\mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu}[f(x)] \triangleq \sum_{x \in A} f(a) \cdot \mu(a) .
$$

## Operations on distributions: unit

The simplest possible distribution
Dirac distribution: Probability 1 of producing a particular element, and probability 0 of producing anything else.

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Distribution unit
Let $a \in A$. Then unit $(a) \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$ is defined to be:

$$
\operatorname{unit}(a)(x)= \begin{cases}1 & : x=a \\ 0 & : \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Why "unit"? The unit ("return") of the distribution monad.

## Operations on distributions: map

Translate each distribution output to something else
Whenever sample $x$, sample $f(x)$ instead. Transformation map $f$ is deterministic: function $A \rightarrow B$.

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Whenever sample $x$, sample $f(x)$ instead. Transformation map $f$ is deterministic: function $A \rightarrow B$.
Distribution map
Let $f: A \rightarrow B$. Then $\operatorname{map}(f): \operatorname{Distr}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(B)$ takes $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$ to:

$$
\operatorname{map}(f)(\mu)(b) \triangleq \sum_{a \in A: f(a)=b} \mu(a)
$$

Probability of $b \in B$ is sum probability of $a \in A$ mapping to $b$.

## Example: distribution map

Swap results of a biased coin flip

- Let neg : $\mathbb{B} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$ map $t t \mapsto f f$, and $f f \mapsto t t$.
- Then $\mu=\operatorname{map}($ neg $)(\mathbf{F l i p}(1 / 4))$ swaps the results of a biased coin flip.
- By definition of map: $\mu(t t)=3 / 4, \mu(f f)=1 / 4$.


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Try this at home!
What is the distribution obtained by adding 1 to the result of a dice roll Roll? Compute the probabilities using map.

## Operations on distributions: bind

Sequence two sampling instructions together
Draw a sample $x$, then draw a sample from a distribution $f(x)$ depending on $x$. Transformation map $f$ is randomized: function $A \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(B)$.

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Distribution bind
Let $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$ and $f: A \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(B)$. Then bind $(\mu, f) \in \operatorname{Distr}(B)$ is defined to be:

$$
\operatorname{bind}(\mu, f)(b) \triangleq \sum_{a \in A} \mu(a) \cdot f(a)(b)
$$

## Unpacking the formula for bind

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Probability of sampling $b$ is ...

1. Sample $a \in A$ from $\mu$ : probability $\mu(a)$

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2. Sample $b$ from $f(a)$ : probability $f(a)(b)$

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## Probability of sampling $b$ is ...

1. Sample $a \in A$ from $\mu$ : probability $\mu(a)$
2. Sample $b$ from $f(a)$ : probability $f(a)(b)$
3. Sum over all possible "intermediate samples" $a \in A$

## Example: distribution bind

## Summing two dice rolls

- For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $f(n) \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathbb{N})$ be the distribution of adding $n$ to the result of a fair dice roll Roll.
- Then: $\mu=\operatorname{bind}($ Roll,$f)$ is the distribution of the sum of two fair dice rolls.
- Can check from definition of bind: $\mu(2)=(1 / 6) \cdot(1 / 6)=1 / 36$


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Try this at home!

- Define $f$ in terms of distribution map.
- What if you try to define $\mu$ with map instead of bind?


## Operations on distributions: conditioning

Restrict a distribution to a smaller subset
Given a distribution over $A$, assume that the result is in $E \subseteq A$.
Then what probabilities should we assign elements in $A$ ?

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## Distribution conditioning

Let $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$, and $E \subseteq A$. Then $\mu$ conditioned on $E$ is the distribution in $\operatorname{Distr}(A)$ defined by:

$$
(\mu \mid E)(a) \triangleq \begin{cases}\mu(a) / \mu(E) & : a \in E \\ 0 & : a \notin E\end{cases}
$$

Idea: probability of $a$ "assuming that" the result must be in $E$. Only makes sense if $\mu(E)$ is not zero!

## Example: conditioning

## Rolling a dice until even number

Suppose we repeatedly roll a dice until it produces an even number. What distribution over even numbers will we get?

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Model as a conditional distribution

- Let $E=\{2,4,6\}$
- Resulting distribution is $\mu=($ Roll $\mid E)$
- From definition of conditioning: $\mu(2)=\mu(4)=\mu(6)=1 / 3$

Try this at home!
Suppose we keep rolling two dice until the sum of the dice is 6 or larger. What is the distribution of the final sum?

## Operations on distributions: convex combination

## Blending/mixing two distributions

Say we have distributions $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}$ over the same set. Blending the distributions: with probability $p$, draw something from $\mu_{1}$. Else, draw something from $\mu_{2}$.

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Say we have distributions $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}$ over the same set. Blending the distributions: with probability $p$, draw something from $\mu_{1}$. Else, draw something from $\mu_{2}$.

Convex combination
Let $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2} \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$, and let $p \in[0,1]$. Then the convex combination of $\mu_{1}$ and $\mu_{2}$ is defined by:

$$
\mu_{1} \oplus_{p} \mu_{2}(a) \triangleq p \cdot \mu_{1}(a)+(1-p) \cdot \mu_{2}(a) .
$$

## Example: convex combination

Blend two biased coin flips

- Let $\mu_{1}=\operatorname{Flip}(1 / 4), \mu_{2}=\operatorname{Flip}(3 / 4)$
- From definition of mixing, $\mu_{1} \oplus_{1 / 2} \mu_{2}$ is a fair coin Flip


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Try this at home!

- Show that $\operatorname{Flip}(r) \oplus_{p} \operatorname{Flip}(s)=\operatorname{Flip}(p \cdot r+(1-p) \cdot s)$.
- Show this relation between mixing and conditioning:

$$
\mu=(\mu \mid E) \oplus_{\mu(E)}(\mu \mid \bar{E})
$$

## Operations on distributions: independent product

Distribution of two "fresh" samples
Common operation in probabilistic programming languages: draw a sample, and then draw another, "fresh" sample.

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Common operation in probabilistic programming languages: draw a sample, and then draw another, "fresh" sample.

Independent product
Let $\mu_{1} \in \operatorname{Distr}\left(A_{1}\right)$ and $\mu_{2} \in \operatorname{Distr}\left(A_{2}\right)$. Then the independent product is the distribution in $\operatorname{Distr}\left(A_{1} \times A_{2}\right)$ defined by:

$$
\left(\mu_{1} \otimes \mu_{2}\right)\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \triangleq \mu_{1}\left(a_{1}\right) \cdot \mu_{2}\left(a_{2}\right) .
$$

## Example: independent product

Distribution of two fair coin flips

- Let $\mu_{1}=\mu_{2}=$ Flip
- Then distribution of pair of fair coin flips is $\mu=\mu_{1} \otimes \mu_{2}$

By definition, can show $\mu\left(b_{1}, b_{2}\right)=(1 / 2) \cdot(1 / 2)=1 / 4$.

## Example: independent product

Distribution of two fair coin flips

- Let $\mu_{1}=\mu_{2}=$ Flip
- Then distribution of pair of fair coin flips is $\mu=\mu_{1} \otimes \mu_{2}$
- By definition, can show $\mu\left(b_{1}, b_{2}\right)=(1 / 2) \cdot(1 / 2)=1 / 4$.

Try this at home!

- Show that unit $\left(a_{1}\right) \otimes \operatorname{unit}\left(a_{2}\right)=\operatorname{unit}\left(\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)\right)$.
- Can you formulate and prove an interesting property relating independent product and distribution bind?


## Our First Probabilistic Language

Probabilistic WHILE (PWHILE)

## pWhile by Example

The language, in a nutshell

- Core imperative WhiLe-language
- Assignment, sequencing, if-then-else, while-loops
- Main extension: a command for random sampling $x \& \in d$, where $d$ is a built-in distribution


## pWhile by Example

The language, in a nutshell

- Core imperative While-language
- Assignment, sequencing, if-then-else, while-loops
- Main extension: a command for random sampling $x \& \in d$, where $d$ is a built-in distribution

Can you guess what this program does?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{\leftarrow} \text { Roll; } ; \\
& y \leftarrow \text { Roll } ; \\
& z \leftarrow x+y
\end{aligned}
$$

## pWhile by Example

## Control flow can be probabilistic

- Branches can depend on random samples
- Challenge for verification: can't do a simple case analysis
- In some sense, an execution takes both branches


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- Branches can depend on random samples
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Can you guess what this program does?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { choice } \stackrel{\&}{*} \text { Flip; } \\
& \text { if choice then } \\
& \text { res } \& \mathbb{S} \operatorname{lip}(1 / 4) \\
& \text { else } \\
& \text { res } \& \operatorname{Flip}(3 / 4)
\end{aligned}
$$

## pWhile by Example

Loops can also be probabilistic

- Number of iterations can be randomized
- Termination can be probabilistic


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Loops can also be probabilistic

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Can you guess what this program does?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& t \leftarrow 0 ; \text { stop } \leftarrow f f ; \\
& \text { while } \neg \text { stop do } \\
& \quad t \leftarrow t+1 ; \\
& \quad \text { stop } \& \mathbb{F} \operatorname{lip}(1 / 4)
\end{aligned}
$$

## More formally: pWhile expressions

Grammar of boolean and numeric expressions

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{E} \ni e & :=x \in \mathcal{X} \\
& |b \in \mathbb{B}| \mathcal{E}>\mathcal{E} \mid \mathcal{E}=\mathcal{E} \\
& |n \in \mathbb{N}| \mathcal{E}+\mathcal{E} \mid \mathcal{E} \cdot \mathcal{E}
\end{aligned}
$$

(numbers)

Basic expression language

- Expression language can be extended if needed
- Assume: programs only use well-typed expressions


## More formally: pWHILE d-expressions

## Grammar of d-expressions

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{D E} \ni d & :=\text { Flip } \\
& \mid \text { Flip }(p) \\
& \mid \text { Roll }
\end{aligned}
$$

(fair coin flip)
( $p$-biased coin flip, $p \in[0,1]$ )
(fair dice roll)
"Built-in" or "primitive" distributions

- Distributions can be extended if needed
- "Mathematically standard" distributions
- Distributions that can be sampled from in hardware


## More formally: pWhile commands

## Grammar of commands

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{C} \ni c & :=\text { skip } \\
& \mid \mathcal{X} \leftarrow \mathcal{E} \\
& \mid \mathcal{X} \leftarrow \mathcal{D} \mathcal{E} \\
& \mid \mathcal{C} ; \mathcal{C} \\
& \mid \text { if } \mathcal{E} \text { then } \mathcal{C} \text { else } \mathcal{C} \\
& \mid \text { while } \mathcal{E} \text { do } \mathcal{C}
\end{aligned}
$$

(do nothing)
(assignment)
(sampling)
(sequencing)
(if-then-else)
(while-loop)

Imperative language with sampling

- Bare-bones imperative language
- Many possible extensions: procedures, pointers, etc.


## Reasoning about Probabilistic Programs

Oregon PL Summer School 2021

## Day 1: Introducing Probabilistic Programs

- Motivations and key questions
- Mathematical preliminaries

Day 2: First-Order Programs 1

- Probabilistic While language, monadic semantics
- Weakest pre-expectation calculus

Day 3: First-Order Programs 2

- Probabilistic While language, transformer semantics
- Probabilistic separation logic

Day 4: Higher-Order Programs

- Type system: probability monad
- Type system: probabilistic PCF


## Last time: pWHILE programs

Can you guess what this program does?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r \leftarrow 0 ; \\
& \text { while } r<4 \text { do } \\
& r \& \text { Roll }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Last time: PWHILE programs

Can you guess what this program does?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r \leftarrow 0 ; \\
& \text { while } r<4 \text { do } \\
& r \& \text { Roll }
\end{aligned}
$$

Uniform sample from $\{4,5,6\}$

- Start with dice roll, condition on $r \geq 4$


## More formally: pWhile expressions

Grammar of boolean and numeric expressions

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{E} \ni e & :=x \in \mathcal{X} \\
& |b \in \mathbb{B}| \mathcal{E}>\mathcal{E} \mid \mathcal{E}=\mathcal{E} \\
& |n \in \mathbb{N}| \mathcal{E}+\mathcal{E} \mid \mathcal{E} \cdot \mathcal{E}
\end{aligned}
$$

(numbers)

Basic expression language

- Expression language can be extended if needed
- Assume: programs only use well-typed expressions


## More formally: pWHILE d-expressions

## Grammar of d-expressions

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{D E} \ni d & :=\text { Flip } \\
& \mid \text { Flip }(p) \\
& \mid \text { Roll }
\end{aligned}
$$

(fair coin flip)
( $p$-biased coin flip, $p \in[0,1]$ )
(fair dice roll)
"Built-in" or "primitive" distributions

- Distributions can be extended if needed
- "Mathematically standard" distributions
- Distributions that can be sampled from in hardware


## More formally: pWhile commands

## Grammar of commands

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{C} \ni c & :=\text { skip } \\
& \mid \mathcal{X} \leftarrow \mathcal{E} \\
& \mid \mathcal{X} \leftarrow \mathcal{D} \mathcal{E} \\
& \mid \mathcal{C} ; \mathcal{C} \\
& \mid \text { if } \mathcal{E} \text { then } \mathcal{C} \text { else } \mathcal{C} \\
& \mid \text { while } \mathcal{E} \text { do } \mathcal{C}
\end{aligned}
$$

(do nothing)
(assignment)
(sampling)
(sequencing)
(if-then-else)
(while-loop)

Imperative language with sampling

- Bare-bones imperative language
- Many possible extensions: procedures, pointers, etc.

A First Semantics for PWHILE Monadic Semantics

## Program states

## Programs modify memories

- Memories $m$ assign a value $v \in \mathcal{V}$ to each variable $x \in \mathcal{X}$
- Just like memories in imperative languages


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- Memories $m$ assign a value $v \in \mathcal{V}$ to each variable $x \in \mathcal{X}$
- Just like memories in imperative languages

More formally:

$$
m \in \mathcal{M} \triangleq \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}
$$

## Semantics of expressions

The value of an expression depends on the memory

- Example: value of $x+1$ depends on the memory $m$
- Semantics of expressions takes memory as parameter


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- Example: value of $x+1$ depends on the memory $m$
- Semantics of expressions takes memory as parameter

More formally:

$$
\llbracket-\rrbracket: \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}
$$

For example:

- Expression $x+1$
- Memory $m$ with $m(x)=3$
- $\llbracket x+1 \rrbracket m \triangleq \llbracket x \rrbracket m+\llbracket 1 \rrbracket m \triangleq m(x)+1=3+1=4$


## Semantics of distributions

Semantics of d-expression is distribution over values

- From d-expression to a (mathematical) distribution
- (Easy) extension: d-expression with parameters

More formally:

$$
\llbracket-\rrbracket: \mathcal{D} \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{V})
$$

For example:

- D-expression Flip
$\checkmark \llbracket \mathrm{Flip} \rrbracket \triangleq \mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathbb{B})$, where $\mu(t t)=\mu(f f)=1 / 2$


## Monadic semantics of commands: overview

First choice:

1. Command takes a memory as input, or:
2. Command takes a distribution over memories as input?

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## Monadic semantics of commands: overview

First choice:

1. Command takes a memory as input, or:
2. Command takes a distribution over memories as input?

This lecture: monadic semantics

$$
(-): \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})
$$

Command: input memory to output distribution over memories.

## Operations on distributions: unit

The simplest possible distribution
Dirac distribution: Probability 1 of producing a particular element, and probability 0 of producing anything else.

Distribution unit
Let $a \in A$. Then unit $(a) \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$ is defined to be:

$$
\operatorname{unit}(a)(x)= \begin{cases}1 & : x=a \\ 0 & : \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Why "unit"? The unit ("return") of the distribution monad.

## Semantics of commands: skip

Intuition

- Input: memory m
- Output: distribution that always returns $m$


## Semantics of commands: skip

## Intuition

- Input: memory m
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Semantics of skip

$$
(\text { skip }) m \triangleq \operatorname{unit}(m)
$$

## Semantics of commands: assignment

## Intuition

- Input: memory m
- Output: distribution that always returns $m$ with $x \mapsto v$, where $v$ is the original value of $e$ in $m$.


## Semantics of commands: assignment

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- Input: memory m
- Output: distribution that always returns $m$ with $x \mapsto v$, where $v$ is the original value of $e$ in $m$.

Semantics of assignment
Let $v \triangleq \llbracket e \rrbracket m$. Then:

$$
(x \leftarrow e) m \triangleq \operatorname{unit}(m[x \mapsto v])
$$

## Operations on distributions: map

Translate each distribution output to something else
Whenever sample $x$, sample $f(x)$ instead. Transformation map $f$ is deterministic: function $A \rightarrow B$.
Distribution map
Let $f: A \rightarrow B$. Then $\operatorname{map}(f): \operatorname{Distr}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(B)$ takes $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$ to:

$$
\operatorname{map}(f)(\mu)(b) \triangleq \sum_{a \in A: f(a)=b} \mu(a)
$$

Probability of $b \in B$ is sum probability of $a \in A$ mapping to $b$.

## Semantics of commands: sampling

## Intuition

- Input: memory m
- Draw sample from $\llbracket d \rrbracket$, call it $v$
- Given $v$, map to updated output memory $m[x \mapsto v]$


## Semantics of commands: sampling

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- Input: memory m
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Semantics of sampling
Let $f(v) \triangleq m[x \mapsto v]$. Then:

$$
(x \stackrel{\&}{\&} d) m \triangleq \operatorname{map}(f)(\llbracket d \rrbracket)
$$

## Operations on distributions: bind

Sequence two sampling instructions together
Draw a sample $x$, then draw a sample from a distribution $f(x)$ depending on $x$. Transformation map $f$ is randomized: function $A \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(B)$.
Distribution bind
Let $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$ and $f: A \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(B)$. Then bind $(\mu, f) \in \operatorname{Distr}(B)$ is defined to be:

$$
\operatorname{bind}(\mu, f)(b) \triangleq \sum_{a \in A} \mu(a) \cdot f(a)(b)
$$

## Semantics of commands: sequencing

## Intuition

- Input: memory m
- Run first command, get distribution $\mu_{1}$
- Sample $m^{\prime}$ from $\mu_{1}$, bind into second command


## Semantics of commands: sequencing

## Intuition

- Input: memory $m$
- Run first command, get distribution $\mu_{1}$
- Sample $m^{\prime}$ from $\mu_{1}$, bind into second command

Semantics of sequencing

$$
\left(c_{1} ; c_{2}\right) m \triangleq \operatorname{bind}\left(\left(c_{1}\right) m,\left(c_{2}\right)\right)
$$

## Semantics of commands: conditionals

## Intuition

- Input: memory $m$
- If guard is true in $m$ run $c_{1}$, else run $c_{2}$
- Note: $m$ is a memory, not a distribution!


## Semantics of commands: conditionals

## Intuition

- Input: memory $m$
- If guard is true in $m$ run $c_{1}$, else run $c_{2}$
- Note: $m$ is a memory, not a distribution!

Semantics of conditionals
(if $e$ then $c_{1}$ else $\left.c_{2}\right) m \triangleq \begin{cases}\left(c_{1}\right) m & : \llbracket e \rrbracket m=t t \\ \left(c_{2}\right) m & : \llbracket e \rrbracket m=f f\end{cases}$

## Semantics of loops: first try

## Intuition

- Input: memory $m$
- Idea: while $e$ do $c$ should be sequence of if-then-else:

$$
\text { (if } e \text { then } c \text { ); } \cdots \text {; (if } e \text { then } c \text { ) }
$$

## Semantics of loops: first try

## Intuition

- Input: memory m
- Idea: while $e$ do $c$ should be sequence of if-then-else:

$$
\text { (if } e \text { then } c \text { ); } \cdots \text {; (if } e \text { then } c \text { ) }
$$

D Define loop semantics as limit?
$($ while $e$ do $c) m \stackrel{?}{=} \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left((\text { if } e \text { then } c)^{n}\right) m$

## Semantics of loops: first try

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- Input: memory m
- Idea: while $e$ do $c$ should be sequence of if-then-else:

$$
\text { (if } e \text { then } c \text { ); } \cdots \text {; (if } e \text { then } c \text { ) }
$$

- Define loop semantics as limit?

$$
(\text { while } e \text { do } c) m \stackrel{?}{=} \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left((\text { if } e \text { then } c)^{n}\right) m
$$

What does this limit mean?

- Say $\left.\mu_{n} \triangleq(\text { if } e \text { then } c)^{n}\right) m$
- Each $\mu_{n}$ is a distribution in $\operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})$. Does limit exist?


## Intuitive loop semantics: limit may not exist!

Simple example: flipper
while $t t$ do if $x$ then $x \leftarrow f f$ else $x \leftarrow t t$
What does this program do?

## Intuitive loop semantics: limit may not exist!

Simple example: flipper

$$
\text { while } t t \text { do if } x \text { then } x \leftarrow f f \text { else } x \leftarrow t t
$$

What does this program do?
Repeatedly changes $x$ to $t t$ and $f f$

- Suppose input $m$ has $m(x)=t t$
- Can verify: $\left.\mu_{n}=\(\text { if } e \text { then } c)^{n}\right) m$ has all mass on $m$ for even $n$, and all mass on $m[x \mapsto f f]$ for odd $n$
- Oscillates: no sensible limit!


## Semantics of loops: approximants

Problem with the flipper example: loop not terminating

- Idea: only "count" probability mass that has terminated
- Why? Once loop terminates, it is always terminated
- Terminated states can't oscillate: values remain constant


## Semantics of loops: approximants

Problem with the flipper example: loop not terminating

- Idea: only "count" probability mass that has terminated
- Why? Once loop terminates, it is always terminated
- Terminated states can't oscillate: values remain constant

More formally...

- For $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})$, define:

$$
\mu[e](m) \triangleq \begin{cases}\mu(m) & : \llbracket e \rrbracket m=t t \\ 0 & : \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

- Erase weight of memories where $e=f f$ (not conditioning)


## Semantics of loops: limit of approximants

## Loop approximants

Idea: mass that has terminated after $n$ iterations

$$
\mu_{n} \triangleq\left(\left((\text { if } e \text { then } c)^{n}\right) m\right)[\neg e]
$$

Sub-distributions $\mu_{n}$ are increasing in $n$ : for any $m^{\prime}$,

$$
\mu_{n}\left(m^{\prime}\right) \leq \mu_{n+1}\left(m^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Thus limit exists!

## Semantics of loops: limit of approximants

## Loop approximants

Idea: mass that has terminated after $n$ iterations

$$
\mu_{n} \triangleq\left(\left((\text { if } e \text { then } c)^{n}\right) m\right)[\neg e]
$$

Sub-distributions $\mu_{n}$ are increasing in $n$ : for any $m^{\prime}$,

$$
\mu_{n}\left(m^{\prime}\right) \leq \mu_{n+1}\left(m^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Thus limit exists!
Finally: define loop semantics

$$
\text { (while } c \text { do } e) m \triangleq \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_{n}
$$

## Semantics of loops: example

## Consider this loop:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { while } \neg \text { stop do } \\
& \qquad t \leftarrow t+1 ; \\
& \text { stop } \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{lip}(1 / 4)
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose input memory $m$ has $m(t)=0, m(s t o p)=f f$

## Semantics of loops: example

Consider this loop:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { while } \neg \text { stop do } \\
& \qquad t \leftarrow t+1 \text {; } \\
& \text { stop } \leftarrow \mathbb{F} \operatorname{lip}(1 / 4)
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose input memory $m$ has $m(t)=0, m(s t o p)=f f$

- After 1 iters: terminates with prob. $1 / 4$ with $t=1$
- After 2 iters: terminates with prob. $3 / 4 \cdot 1 / 4$ with $t=2$
- After $n$ iters: terminates with prob. $(3 / 4)^{n-1} \cdot 1 / 4$ with $t=n$

Thus approximants are:

$$
\mu_{n}(\llbracket t=k \rrbracket)=(3 / 4)^{k-1} \cdot 1 / 4
$$

for $k=1, \ldots, n$. Taking limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$ gives loop semantics.

Reasoning about PWHILE Programs
Weakest Pre-Expectation Calculus

## Standard programs: Weakest Pre-conditions (Dijkstra)

Given a program and a post-condition, find pre-condition

- Given: program $c$ and post-condition $Q$
- Find $w p(c, Q)$ : general pre-condition that ensures $Q$ holds

To check $Q$ on output, check $w p(c, Q)$ on input

- If input state $m$ satisfies $w p(c, Q)$, then $\llbracket c \rrbracket m$ satisfies $Q$


## Example: Weakest Pre-conditions

## Example

- Program: $x \leftarrow y$
- Post-condition: $x>0$

What is the wp?

## Example: Weakest Pre-conditions

Example

- Program: $x \leftarrow y$
- Post-condition: $x>0$

What is the wp?
Answer: $w p(x \leftarrow y, x>0)=(y>0)$
Why?
Condition $y>0$ is the least we need to ensure that $x>0$ holds after running $x \leftarrow y$.

## Example: Weakest Pre-conditions

## Example

- Program: $x \leftarrow y ; x \leftarrow x+1$
- Post-condition: $x>0$

What is the wp?

## Example: Weakest Pre-conditions

Example
P Program: $x \leftarrow y ; x \leftarrow x+1$

- Post-condition: $x>0$

What is the wp?
Answer: $w p(x \leftarrow y ; x \leftarrow x+1, x>0)=(y>-1)$
Why?
Condition $y>-1$ is the least we need to ensure that $x>0$ holds after running $x \leftarrow y ; x \leftarrow x+1$.

## Example: Weakest Pre-conditions

## Example

- Program: if $z>0$ then $x \leftarrow y ; x \leftarrow x+1$ else $x \leftarrow 5$
- Post-condition: $x>0$

What is the wp?

## Example: Weakest Pre-conditions

## Example

- Program: if $z>0$ then $x \leftarrow y ; x \leftarrow x+1$ else $x \leftarrow 5$
- Post-condition: $x>0$

What is the wp?
Possible to work out by hand, but getting a bit cumbersome...

## How to make computing WP easier?

Idea: compute WP compositionally

- WP of complex command defined in terms of WP for sub-commands

Benefits

- Simplify computation of WP for complicated programs
- WP can be computed "mechanically" (and automatically)


## WP Calculus: Skip

Intuition

- Program: skip
- Post-condition: $Q$
- To ensure $Q$ holds after, $Q$ must hold before


## WP Calculus: Skip

Intuition

- Program: skip
- Post-condition: $Q$
- To ensure $Q$ holds after, $Q$ must hold before

WP for Skip

$$
w p(\text { skip }, Q)=Q
$$

## WP Calculus: Assignment

Intuition
$>$ Program: $x \leftarrow e$

- Post-condition: $Q$
- To ensure $Q$ holds after, $Q$ with $x \mapsto e$ must hold before


## WP Calculus: Assignment

Intuition

- Program: $x \leftarrow e$
- Post-condition: $Q$
- To ensure $Q$ holds after, $Q$ with $x \mapsto e$ must hold before

WP for Assignment

$$
w p(x \leftarrow e, Q)=Q[x \mapsto e]
$$

## WP Calculus: Assignment

Intuition

- Program: $x \leftarrow e$
- Post-condition: $Q$
- To ensure $Q$ holds after, $Q$ with $x \mapsto e$ must hold before

WP for Assignment

$$
w p(x \leftarrow e, Q)=Q[x \mapsto e]
$$

Brief check

$$
w p(x \leftarrow x+1, x>0)=(x+1>0)=(x>-1)
$$

## WP Calculus: Sequencing

## Intuition

- Program: $c_{1} ; c_{2}$
- Post-condition: $Q$
- To ensure $Q$ holds after $c_{2}, w p\left(c_{2}, Q\right)$ must hold after $c_{1}$
- To ensure $w p\left(c_{2}, Q\right)$ holds after $c_{1}$, compute another wp


## WP Calculus: Sequencing

## Intuition

- Program: $c_{1} ; c_{2}$
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- To ensure $Q$ holds after $c_{2}, w p\left(c_{2}, Q\right)$ must hold after $c_{1}$
- To ensure $w p\left(c_{2}, Q\right)$ holds after $c_{1}$, compute another wp

WP for Sequencing

$$
w p\left(c_{1} ; c_{2}, Q\right)=w p\left(c_{1}, w p\left(c_{2}, Q\right)\right)
$$

## WP Calculus: Conditionals

## Intuition

- Program: if $e$ then $c_{1}$ else $c_{2}$
- Post-condition: $Q$
- To ensure $Q$ holds after, $w p\left(c_{1}, Q\right)$ must hold before if $e=t t$, and $w p\left(c_{2}, Q\right)$ must hold before if $e=f f$


## WP Calculus: Conditionals

## Intuition

- Program: if $e$ then $c_{1}$ else $c_{2}$
- Post-condition: $Q$
- To ensure $Q$ holds after, $w p\left(c_{1}, Q\right)$ must hold before if $e=t t$, and $w p\left(c_{2}, Q\right)$ must hold before if $e=f f$

WP for Conditionals
$w p\left(\right.$ if $e$ then $c_{1}$ else $\left.c_{2}, Q\right)=\left(e \rightarrow w p\left(c_{1}, Q\right)\right) \wedge\left(\neg e \rightarrow w p\left(c_{2}, Q\right)\right)$

## Example: using the WP calculus

## Example

- Program: if $z>0$ then $x \leftarrow y ; x \leftarrow x+1$ else $x \leftarrow 5$
- Post-condition: $x>0$


## Example: using the WP calculus

## Example

- Program: if $z>0$ then $x \leftarrow y ; x \leftarrow x+1$ else $x \leftarrow 5$
- Post-condition: $x>0$

What is the wp? A bit ugly, but entirely mechanical:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& w p(\text { if } z>0 \text { then } x \leftarrow y ; x \leftarrow x+1 \text { else } x \leftarrow 5, x>0) \\
& =(z>0 \rightarrow w p(x \leftarrow y ; x \leftarrow x+1, x>0)) \\
& \quad \wedge(z \leq 0 \rightarrow w p(x \leftarrow 5, x>0)) \\
& =(z>0 \rightarrow w p(x \leftarrow y ; x>-1)) \wedge(z \leq 0 \rightarrow 5>0)) \\
& =(z>0 \rightarrow y>-1)
\end{aligned}
$$

## What is WP for loops?

## Problem: WP for loops is not easy to compute

- Defined in terms of a least fixed-point
- Might have to unroll loop arbitrarily far to compute wp


## What is WP for loops?

Problem: WP for loops is not easy to compute

- Defined in terms of a least fixed-point
- Might have to unroll loop arbitrarily far to compute wp

Idea: we often don't need to compute WP for loops

- Just want to know: does $P$ imply $w p($ while $e$ do $c, Q$ )?
- Use simpler, sufficient conditions to prove this implication


## WP for loops: invariant rule

Setup

- Program while $e$ do $c$
- Pre-condition $P$, post-condition $Q$


## WP for loops: invariant rule

## Setup

- Program while $e$ do $c$
- Pre-condition $P$, post-condition $Q$

If we know I satisfying the invariant conditions...
$\triangleright P \rightarrow I$

- $I \wedge \neg e \rightarrow Q$
- $I \wedge e \rightarrow w p(c, I)$
then we are done:

$$
P \rightarrow w p(\text { while } e \text { do } c, Q)
$$

## WP for loops: invariant rule

## Setup

- Program while $e$ do $c$
- Pre-condition $P$, post-condition $Q$

If we know I satisfying the invariant conditions...
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- $I \wedge \neg e \rightarrow Q$
- $I \wedge e \rightarrow w p(c, I)$
then we are done:

$$
P \rightarrow w p(\text { while } e \text { do } c, Q)
$$

What's the catch? Need to magically find an invariant $I$

- Invariant conditions are easy to check


## Example: using the invariant rule

## Example

- Program: while $n>0$ do $n \leftarrow n-2$
- Pre-condition: $P$ is $n \% 2=0 \wedge n \geq 0$ ( $n$ is even)
- Post-condition: $Q$ is $n=0$


## Example: using the invariant rule

## Example

- Program: while $n>0$ do $n \leftarrow n-2$
- Pre-condition: $P$ is $n \% 2=0 \wedge n \geq 0$ ( $n$ is even)
- Post-condition: $Q$ is $n=0$

Invariant:

$$
I=(n>0 \rightarrow n \% 2=0) \wedge(n \leq 0 \rightarrow n=0)
$$

## Example: using the invariant rule

## Example

- Program: while $n>0$ do $n \leftarrow n-2$
- Pre-condition: $P$ is $n \% 2=0 \wedge n \geq 0$ ( $n$ is even)
- Post-condition: $Q$ is $n=0$

Invariant:

$$
I=(n>0 \rightarrow n \% 2=0) \wedge(n \leq 0 \rightarrow n=0)
$$

Check these invariant conditions:
> $P \rightarrow I$

- $I \wedge \neg e \rightarrow Q$
- $I \wedge e \rightarrow w p(c, I)$


## Generalizing Weakest Preconditions

to Probabilistic Programs

Idea: generalize predicates to expectations
"Real-valued" version of predicates

- Predicate: $P: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$
- Expectation: $E: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$

Idea: generalize predicates to expectations
"Real-valued" version of predicates

- Predicate: $P: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$
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Example: numeric expression

- If $x, y, z$ are numeric, then they are all expectations
- Also expressions like $x+y, x \cdot y, \ldots$


## Idea: generalize predicates to expectations

## "Real-valued" version of predicates

- Predicate: $P: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$
- Expectation: $E: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$

Example: numeric expression

- If $x, y, z$ are numeric, then they are all expectations
- Also expressions like $x+y, x \cdot y, \ldots$


## Example: indicator function

- If $P$ is a (binary) predicate, then the indicator function is:

$$
[P](m)= \begin{cases}1 & : P(m)=t t \\ 0 & : P(m)=f f\end{cases}
$$

- Turns a predicate into an expectation


## What do expectations "mean" in a probabilistic state?

## Intuition

- The "value" of a predicate $P$ in a memory $m$ is $[P](m): 0$ if false, and 1 if true.
- The "value" of an expectation $E$ in a distribution over memories $\mu$ is the average of $E$ over $\mu$.


## Example: encoding a probability as an expectation

Suppose that:

- $\mu$ is a distribution over memories
- $E$ is the expectation $[x=y]$

Then we have:
The probability of $x=y$ in $\mu$ is the average of $E$ over $\mu$.

## Example: encoding an average as an expectation

Suppose that:

- $\mu$ is a distribution over memories
- $E$ is the expectation $t$, where $t$ is the running time

Then we have:
The average running time in $\mu$ is the average of $E$ over $\mu$.

## Weakest pre-expectation (Morgan and Mclver)

## Looks similar to weakest pre-conditions

- Given: probabilistic program $c$ and expectation $E$
- Find wpe $(c, E)$ : an expectation that computes the average value of $E$ in the output distribution after running $c$

To find average value of $E$ after, evaluate wpe $(c, E)$

- For any input state $m$, the average value of $E$ in the output distribution $(c) m$ is exactly wpe $(c, E)(m)$.


## Tailored to the monadic semantics for PWHILE

Key property satisfied by wpe
For any program $c$, expectation $E$, and input memory $m$ :

$$
\text { wpe }(c, E)(m)=\mathbb{E}_{m^{\prime} \sim(c) m}\left[E\left(m^{\prime}\right)\right]
$$

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- Input is a single memory $m$
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Expectation evaluated on input

- Input is a single memory $m$
- Evaluate expectation on the memory

Expectation evaluated on output

- Output is a distribution over memories (c) $m$
- Average the expectation over the output distribution


## Example: Reasoning with Weakest Pre-expectation

Example

- Program: $z \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Flip}(p)$
- Expectation: $[z]$

What is the wpe?

## Example: Reasoning with Weakest Pre-expectation

## Example

- Program: $z \& \operatorname{Flip}(p)$
- Expectation: $[z]$

What is the wpe?
Answer: wpe $(z \& \sin (p),[z])=p$
Why?
Average value of $[z]$ after running $z \leqslant$ Flip $(p)$ is the probability that $z=t t$, which is $p$.

## Example: Reasoning with Weakest Pre-expectation

## Example

- Program: $x \stackrel{\mathbb{s}}{\leftarrow}$ Roll; $y \&$ Roll
- Expectation: $x+y$

What is the wpe?

## Example: Reasoning with Weakest Pre-expectation

## Example

$\checkmark$ Program: $x \stackrel{\mathbb{s}}{\leftarrow}$ Roll; $y \stackrel{\&}{*}$ Roll

- Expectation: $x+y$

What is the wpe?
Answer: wpe $(x \&$ Roll; $y \leqslant$ Roll,$x+y)=7$
Why? Already not so easy to see...
Average value of $x+y$ after running $x<$ Roll; $y \ll$ Roll is the average value of $x$ plus the average value of $y$, which is $3.5+3.5=7$.

## Reasoning about Probabilistic Programs

Oregon PL Summer School 2021

## Day 1: Introducing Probabilistic Programs

- Motivations and key questions
- Mathematical preliminaries

Day 2: First-Order Programs 1

- Probabilistic While language, monadic semantics
- Weakest pre-expectation calculus

Day 3: First-Order Programs 2

- Probabilistic While language, transformer semantics
- Probabilistic separation logic

Day 4: Higher-Order Programs

- Type system: probability monad
- Type system: probabilistic PCF


## Last time: monadic semantics for pWhile

The PWHILE language

- Core imperative language extended with random sampling


## Last time: monadic semantics for PWHILE

The pWhile language

- Core imperative language extended with random sampling

Monadic semantics

$$
(c): \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})
$$

- Input: memory
- Output: distribution over memories


## Last time: weakest pre-expectations

## Weakest pre-expectation calculus

- Given: PWhile program c
- Given: post-expectation $E: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$
- Compute wpe $(c, E)$ : maps an input $m$ to $c$ to the expected value of $E$ in the output of $c$ executed on $m$.


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- Compute wpe $(c, E)$ : maps an input $m$ to $c$ to the expected value of $E$ in the output of $c$ executed on $m$.

What is this useful for?

- "The probability of $x=y$ is $1 / 2$ " in the output
- "The expected value of $t$ in the output is $n+42$ "


## How to compute Weakest Pre-expectations easier?

Same idea as for wp: define wpe compositionally

- Compute wpe of a program from wpe of sub-programs
- Break down a complicated computation into simpler parts


## How to compute Weakest Pre-expectations easier?

Same idea as for wp: define wpe compositionally

- Compute wpe of a program from wpe of sub-programs
- Break down a complicated computation into simpler parts

Overall framework developed by Morgan and McIver

- Work over multiple decades, building on work by Kozen
- Also covered non-deterministic choice (we won't do this)


## WPE Calculus: Skip

## Intuition

- Program: skip
- Post-expectation: E
- Average value of $E$ after is just $E$ before


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- Program: skip
- Post-expectation: E
- Average value of $E$ after is just $E$ before

WPE for Skip

$$
\text { wpe }(\text { skip }, E)=E
$$

## WPE Calculus: Assignment

Intuition

$>$ Program: $x \leftarrow e$

- Post-expectation: $E$
- Average value of $E$ after is $E$ with $x \mapsto e$ before


## WPE Calculus: Assignment

Intuition

- Program: $x \leftarrow e$
- Post-expectation: $E$
- Average value of $E$ after is $E$ with $x \mapsto e$ before

WPE for Assignment

$$
w p e(x \leftarrow e, E)=E[x \mapsto e]
$$

## WPE Calculus: Random sampling

Intuition

- Program: $x \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} d$
- Post-expectation: $E$
- Average value of $E$ computed from averaging over $x$


## WPE Calculus: Random sampling

## Intuition

- Program: $x \stackrel{\mathbb{s}}{\leftarrow} d$
- Post-expectation: E
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WPE for sampling Flip $(p)$

$$
w p e(x \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\leftrightarrows} \operatorname{lip}(p), E)=p \cdot E[x \mapsto t t]+(1-p) \cdot E[x \mapsto f f]
$$

Try this at home!
What is wpe $(x \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}$ Roll, $E)$ ?

## WPE Calculus: Sequencing

## Intuition

- Program: $c_{1} ; c_{2}$
- Post-expectation: $E$
- Average value of $E$ after $c_{2}$ is wpe $\left(c_{2}, E\right)$ before $c_{2}$
- Average value of wpe $\left(c_{2}, E\right)$ before $c_{1}$ : another wpe


## WPE Calculus: Sequencing

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- Average value of $E$ after $c_{2}$ is wpe $\left(c_{2}, E\right)$ before $c_{2}$
- Average value of $w p e\left(c_{2}, E\right)$ before $c_{1}$ : another wpe

WPE for Sequencing

$$
w p e\left(c_{1} ; c_{2}, E\right)=w p e\left(c_{1}, w p e\left(c_{2}, E\right)\right)
$$

## WPE Calculus: Conditionals

## Intuition

- Program: if $e$ then $c_{1}$ else $c_{2}$
- Post-expectation: E
- Average value of $E$ after is wpe $\left(c_{1}, E\right)$ before if $e=t t$, else wpe $\left(c_{2}, E\right)$ before if $e=f f$


## WPE Calculus: Conditionals

## Intuition

- Program: if $e$ then $c_{1}$ else $c_{2}$
- Post-expectation: $E$
- Average value of $E$ after is wpe $\left(c_{1}, E\right)$ before if $e=t t$, else wpe $\left(c_{2}, E\right)$ before if $e=f f$

WPE for Conditionals
wpe(if $e$ then $c_{1}$ else $\left.c_{2}, E\right)=[e] \cdot w p e\left(c_{1}, E\right)+[\neg e] \cdot w p e\left(c_{2}, E\right)$
Indicator functions play the role of if-then-else.

## WPE Calculus: Main soundness theorem

Theorem
Let c be a PWHILE program, $E$ be an expectation, and $m \in \mathcal{M}$ be any input state. If $\mu=(c) m$ is the output memory, then:

$$
\mathbb{E}_{m^{\prime} \sim \mu}\left[E\left(m^{\prime}\right)\right]=w p e(c, E)(m)
$$

## WPE Calculus: Main soundness theorem

Theorem
Let c be a PWHILE program, $E$ be an expectation, and $m \in \mathcal{M}$ be any input state. If $\mu=(c) m$ is the output memory, then:

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\mathbb{E}_{m^{\prime} \sim \mu}\left[E\left(m^{\prime}\right)\right]=w p e(c, E)(m)
$$

Try this at home!
Prove this for loop-free programs, by induction on the program structure.

Weakest Pre-expectations
for Probabilistic Loops

## Can you guess this WPE?

Program:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n \leftarrow 100 ; \\
& \text { while } n>42 \text { do } \\
& n \leftarrow n-1
\end{aligned}
$$

Post-expectation: $n$

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\begin{aligned}
& n \leftarrow 100 ; \\
& \text { while } n>42 \text { do } \\
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$$

Post-expectation: $n$
Answer
Deterministic program, always terminates with $n=42$. So wpe $(c, n)=42$.

## What about this one?

Program:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n \leftarrow 100 ; \\
& \text { while } n>42 \text { do } \\
& \quad \text { dec } \& \text { Flip; } \\
& \text { if dec then } n \leftarrow n-1
\end{aligned}
$$

Post-expectation: $n$

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& \quad \text { if dec then } n \leftarrow n-1
\end{aligned}
$$

Post-expectation: $n$
Answer
Randomized program, but always terminates with $n=42$. So $w p e(c, n)=42$.

## What about this one?

Program:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& t \leftarrow 0 ; \text { stop } \leftarrow f f ; \\
& \text { while } \neg \text { stop do } \\
& \quad t \leftarrow t+1 ; \\
& \quad \text { stop } \& \operatorname{Flip}(1 / 4)
\end{aligned}
$$

Post-expectation: $t$

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$$
\begin{aligned}
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& \quad t \leftarrow t+1 ; \\
& \quad \text { stop } \& \operatorname{Flip}(1 / 4)
\end{aligned}
$$

Post-expectation: $t$

## Starting to get more complicated...

Can we give a general method to compute wpe for loops?

## What is the WPE of a loop?

Can define wpe for loops mathematically, but...

- Defined in terms of a least fixed point
- Hard to compute wpe(while $b$ do $c, E$ ) in terms of $w p e(c,-)$


## What is the WPE of a loop?

Can define wpe for loops mathematically, but...

- Defined in terms of a least fixed point
- Hard to compute wpe(while $b$ do $c, E$ ) in terms of wpe( $c,-$ )

Idea: prove upper and lower bounds on wpe

- Analog of wp: implication becomes inequality
- Don't aim to compute wpe exactly


## Making it easier to bound WPE: super-invariant rule

Setup: check upper-bounds on wpe

- Program: while $e$ do $c$
- Pre-expectation $E^{\prime}$, Post-expectation $E$
- Goal: Check if wpe(while $e$ do $c, E) \leq E^{\prime}$


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## Super-invariant rule

Suppose we have an expectation $I$ (the invariant) satisfying the super-invariant conditions:

- $I \leq E^{\prime}$
- $[e] \cdot$ wpe $(c, I)+[\neg e] \cdot E \leq I$


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- $E^{\prime} \leq I$
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- $E^{\prime} \leq I$
$>I \leq[e] \cdot$ wpe $(c, I)+[\neg e] \cdot E$
Then we can conclude the lower-bound:

$$
E^{\prime} \leq w p e(\text { while } e \text { do } c, E)
$$

## An example: FAIR

Simulate a fair coin flip from biased coin flips

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { while } x=y \text { do } \\
& \qquad x \& \operatorname{Flip}(p) ; \\
& y \& \mathbb{F} \operatorname{lip}(p)
\end{aligned}
$$

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Simulate a fair coin flip from biased coin flips

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { while } x=y \text { do } \\
& \qquad x \& \underset{\leftarrow}{\&} \operatorname{lip}(p) \\
& y \& \operatorname{llip}(p)
\end{aligned}
$$

Goal: show that if $x=y$ initially, then final $x$ is fair coin In terms of wpe, this follows from proving:

$$
\text { wpe }(\text { FAIR, }[x])=[x=y] \cdot 0.5+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
$$

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& y \& F \operatorname{lip}(p)
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$$

Goal: show that if $x=y$ initially, then final $x$ is fair coin In terms of wpe, this follows from proving:

$$
\text { wpe }(\text { FAIR, }[x])=[x=y] \cdot 0.5+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
$$

Prove this in two steps:

1. Upper-bound: wpe(FAIR, $[x]) \leq[x=y] \cdot 0.5+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]$
2. Lower-bound: wpe(FAIR, $[x]) \geq[x=y] \cdot 0.5+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]$

## FAIR: proving the upper-bound

Want I satisfying super-invariant conditions:

$$
I \leq[x=y] \cdot \operatorname{wpe}(x \& \operatorname{Flip}(p) ; y \& \operatorname{Flip}(p), I)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
$$

## FAIR: proving the upper-bound

Want I satisfying super-invariant conditions:

$$
I \leq[x=y] \cdot \operatorname{wpe}(x \& \operatorname{Flip}(p) ; y \& \operatorname{Flip}(p), I)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
$$

Take the following invariant:

$$
I \triangleq[x=y] \cdot 0.5+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
$$

## FAIR: checking the super-invariant condition

Apply the wpe calculus rules
$[x=y] \cdot w p e\left(x \stackrel{\mathbb{s}}{-} \operatorname{Flip}(p) ; y \mathbb{S}^{\mathbb{E}} \operatorname{Flip}(p), I\right)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]$

## FAIR: checking the super-invariant condition

## Apply the wpe calculus rules

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[x=y] \cdot w p e(x \stackrel{\mathbb{s}}{ } \operatorname{Flip}(p) ; y \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{ } \operatorname{Flip}(p), I)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]} \\
& =[x=y] \cdot \operatorname{wpe}(x \stackrel{s}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Flip}(p), \\
& \quad p \cdot I[y \mapsto t t]+(1-p) \cdot I[y \mapsto f f])+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
\end{aligned}
$$

## FAIR: checking the super-invariant condition

## Apply the wpe calculus rules

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\begin{aligned}
& {[x=y] \cdot w p e(x \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{ } \operatorname{Flip}(p) ; y \mathbb{\&} \operatorname{Flip}(p), I)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]} \\
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& \quad p \cdot I[y \mapsto t t]+(1-p) \cdot I[y \mapsto f f])+[x \neq y] \cdot[x] \\
& =[x=y] \cdot(p \cdot p \cdot I[x, y \mapsto t t]+p \cdot(1-p) \cdot I[x, y \mapsto t t, f f] \\
& \left.\quad+p \cdot(1-p) \cdot I[x, y \mapsto f f, t t]+(1-p)^{2} \cdot I[x, y \mapsto f f]\right)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
\end{aligned}
$$

## FAIR: checking the super-invariant condition

## Apply the wpe calculus rules

$$
\begin{aligned}
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& =[x=y] \cdot w p e(x \& \in \operatorname{Flip}(p), \\
& \quad p \cdot I[y \mapsto t t]+(1-p) \cdot I[y \mapsto f f])+[x \neq y] \cdot[x] \\
& =[x=y] \cdot(p \cdot p \cdot I[x, y \mapsto t t]+p \cdot(1-p) \cdot I[x, y \mapsto t t, f f] \\
& \left.\quad+p \cdot(1-p) \cdot I[x, y \mapsto f f, t t]+(1-p)^{2} \cdot I[x, y \mapsto f f]\right)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x] \\
& =[x=y] \cdot(p \cdot p \cdot 0.5+p \cdot(1-p) \cdot 1 \\
& \left.\quad+p \cdot(1-p) \cdot 0+(1-p)^{2} \cdot 0.5\right)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
\end{aligned}
$$

## FAIR: checking the super-invariant condition

## Apply the wpe calculus rules

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[x=y] \cdot w p e(x \& \mathbb{S} \operatorname{Flip}(p) ; y \& \mathbb{S} \operatorname{Flip}(p), I)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x] } \\
&= {[x=y] \cdot w p e(x \& \mathbb{S} \operatorname{Flip}(p),} \\
&p \cdot I[y \mapsto t t]+(1-p) \cdot I[y \mapsto f f])+[x \neq y] \cdot[x] \\
&= {[x=y] \cdot(p \cdot p \cdot I[x, y \mapsto t t]+p \cdot(1-p) \cdot I[x, y \mapsto t t, f f]} \\
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&\left.+p \cdot(1-p) \cdot 0+(1-p)^{2} \cdot 0.5\right)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x] \\
&= {[x=y]+[x \neq y] \cdot[x] \leq I }
\end{aligned}
$$

## FAIR: checking the super-invariant condition

## Apply the wpe calculus rules

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[x=y] \cdot w p e(x \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{ } \operatorname{Flip}(p) ; y \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{ } \operatorname{Flip}(p), I)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x] } \\
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&= {[x=y] \cdot(p \cdot p \cdot 0.5+p \cdot(1-p) \cdot 1} \\
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\end{aligned}
$$

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&= {[x=y] \cdot(p \cdot p \cdot 0.5+p \cdot(1-p) \cdot 1} \\
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&= {[x=y]+[x \neq y] \cdot[x] \leq I }
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the super-invariant rule proves the upper-bound:

$$
w p e(\text { FAIR, }[x]) \leq[x=y] \cdot 0.5+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
$$

## FAIR: proving the lower-bound

Want $I$ satisfying sub-invariant conditions:

$$
I \geq[x=y] \cdot \operatorname{wpe}(x \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{ } \mathbf{F l i p}(p) ; y \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{ } \mathbf{F} \operatorname{lip}(p), I)+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
$$

The same invariant works:

$$
I \triangleq[x=y] \cdot 0.5+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
$$

And $I$ is bounded in $[0,1]$.
Thus the sub-invariant rule proves the lower-bound:

$$
\text { wpe }(\text { FAIR },[x]) \geq[x=y] \cdot 0.5+[x \neq y] \cdot[x]
$$

## WPE: references and further reading

## Recent survey of the area

Kaminski. Advanced Weakest Precondition Calculi for Probabilistic Programs. PhD Thesis (RWTH Aachen), 2019.
https://moves.rwth-aachen.de/people/kaminski/thesis/
Comprehensive book
Mclver and Morgan. Abstraction, Refinement and Proof for Probabilistic Systems. Springer, 2004.

## Related methods: Hoare logics for monadic PWHILE

Prove judgments of the following form:

$$
\{P\} c\{Q\}
$$

- Pre-condition $P$ describes input memory
- Post-condition $Q$ describes output memory distribution


## Example systems

- A program logic for union bounds (ICALP16)
- Formal certification of code-based cryptographic proofs (POPLo9)
- Probabilistic relational reasoning for differential privacy (POPL12)
- A pre-expectation calculus for probabilistic sensitivity (POPL21)

A Second Semantics for PWHILE

## Transformer Semantics

## Why a second semantics?

## Why a second semantics?

Alternative view of what the program does

- Gives us a new way of understanding the program behavior


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Alternative view of what the program does

- Gives us a new way of understanding the program behavior

Enable new extensions of the language

- Allows extending the language with different features


## Why a second semantics?

Alternative view of what the program does

- Gives us a new way of understanding the program behavior

Enable new extensions of the language

- Allows extending the language with different features

Support different verification methods

- Can make some properties easier (or harder) to verify


## Semantics of expressions/distributions: unchanged

Recall: program states are memories
Memory $m$ maps each variable to a value:

$$
m \in \mathcal{M}=\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}
$$

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Memory $m$ maps each variable to a value:

$$
m \in \mathcal{M}=\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}
$$

Expression semantics: map memory to value

$$
\llbracket-\rrbracket: \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}
$$

Semantics of expressions/distributions: unchanged

Recall: program states are memories
Memory $m$ maps each variable to a value:

$$
m \in \mathcal{M}=\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}
$$

Expression semantics: map memory to value

$$
\llbracket-\rrbracket: \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}
$$

D-expression semantics: distribution over values

$$
\llbracket-\rrbracket: \mathcal{D} \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{V})
$$

## Transformer semantics of commands: overview

Last time: monadic semantics

$$
(-): \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})
$$

Command: input memory to output distribution over memories.

## Transformer semantics of commands: overview

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$$
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$$

Command: input memory to output distribution over memories.
This time: transformer semantics (Kozen)

$$
\llbracket-\rrbracket: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})
$$

Command: input distribution over memories to output distribution over memories.

## Semantics of commands: skip

## Intuition

- Input: memory distribution $\mu$
- Output: the same memory distribution $\mu$


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Semantics of skip

$$
\llbracket \text { skip } \rrbracket \mu \triangleq \mu
$$

## Semantics of commands: assignment

## Intuition

- Input: memory distribution $\mu$
- Output: distribution from sampling $m$ from $\mu$, and mapping to $m$ with $x \mapsto v$, where $v$ is the original value of $e$ in $m$.


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- Output: distribution from sampling $m$ from $\mu$, and mapping to $m$ with $x \mapsto v$, where $v$ is the original value of $e$ in $m$.

Semantics of assignment
Let $f(m)=m[x \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket m]$. Then:

$$
\llbracket x \leftarrow e \rrbracket \mu \triangleq \operatorname{map}(f)(\mu)
$$

## Semantics of commands: sampling

## Intuition

- Input: memory distribution $\mu$
- Sample $m$ from $\mu$, and sample $v$ from d-expression
- Output: return updated memory, $m$ with $x \mapsto v$


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## Semantics of sampling

Let $g(m)(v)=m[x \mapsto v]$. Then:

$$
\llbracket x \stackrel{\$}{\leftrightarrow} d \rrbracket \mu \triangleq \operatorname{bind}(\mu, \lambda m \cdot \operatorname{map}(g(m))(\llbracket d \rrbracket))
$$

## Semantics of commands: sequencing

## Intuition

- Input: memory distribution $\mu$
- Transform $\mu$ to $\mu^{\prime}$ using first command
- Output: transform $\mu^{\prime}$ to $\mu^{\prime \prime}$ using second command


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Semantics of sequencing

$$
\llbracket c_{1} ; c_{2} \rrbracket \mu \triangleq \llbracket c_{2} \rrbracket\left(\llbracket c_{1} \rrbracket \mu\right)
$$

## Semantics of commands: conditionals (first try)

## Intuition

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- ???


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Problem: what should input to branches be?

- First branch: distribution where guard holds
- Second branch: distribution where guard doesn't hold
- But $\mu$ may have some probability of both cases
- Can't case analysis on guard in $\mu$ (cf. monadic semantics)


## Operations on distributions: conditioning

Restrict a distribution to a smaller subset
Given a distribution over $A$, assume that the result is in $E \subseteq A$.
Then what probabilities should we assign elements in $A$ ?

## Distribution conditioning

Let $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$, and $E \subseteq A$. Then $\mu$ conditioned on $E$ is the distribution in $\operatorname{Distr}(A)$ defined by:

$$
(\mu \mid E)(a) \triangleq \begin{cases}\mu(a) / \mu(E) & : a \in E \\ 0 & : a \notin E\end{cases}
$$

Idea: probability of $a$ "assuming that" the result must be in $E$. Only makes sense if $\mu(E)$ is not zero!

## Semantics of commands: conditionals (second try)

## Intuition

- Input: memory distribution $\mu$
- Condition $\mu$ on guard true; transform with first branch
- Condition $\mu$ on guard false; transform with second branch
- Output: ???


## Semantics of commands: conditionals (second try)

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- Input: memory distribution $\mu$
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- Output: ???


## Problem: how to combine outputs of branches?

- First branch: some output distribution
- Second branch: some other output distribution
- But we want a single output for the if-then-else


## Operations on distributions: convex combination

## Blending/mixing two distributions

Say we have distributions $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}$ over the same set. Blending the distributions: with probability $p$, draw something from $\mu_{1}$. Else, draw something from $\mu_{2}$.

Convex combination
Let $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2} \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$, and let $p \in[0,1]$. Then the convex combination of $\mu_{1}$ and $\mu_{2}$ is defined by:

$$
\mu_{1} \oplus_{p} \mu_{2}(a) \triangleq p \cdot \mu_{1}(a)+(1-p) \cdot \mu_{2}(a) .
$$

## Semantics of commands: conditionals

## Intuition

- Input: memory distribution $\mu$
- Record probability $p$ of guard true
- Condition $\mu$ on guard true; transform with first branch
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- Output: take $p$-convex combination of two results


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Semantics of conditionals
Let $p=\mu(\llbracket e \rrbracket)$ be the probability the guard is true. Then:

$$
\llbracket \text { if } e \text { then } c_{1} \text { else } c_{2} \rrbracket \mu \triangleq \llbracket c_{1} \rrbracket(\mu \mid \llbracket e=t t \rrbracket) \oplus_{p} \llbracket c_{2} \rrbracket(\mu \mid \llbracket e=f f \rrbracket)
$$

## Semantics of commands: loops

## Same strategy works as before

- Define sequence of loop approximants $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots$
- Each $\mu_{n}$ : outputs terminating after $n$ iterations
- Take limit $\mu_{n}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ to define output of loop


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Maybe don't try this at home:
Work out the gory details and define a transformer semantics for loops.

## Comparing the two semantics:

Monadic versus Transformer

## Monadic semantics to transformer semantics

Useful construction

- Given: $f: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})$
- Define $f^{\#}: \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})$ by "averaging $f^{\prime \prime}$ over input distribution:

$$
f^{\#}(\mu)\left(m^{\prime}\right) \triangleq \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} \mu(m) \cdot f(m)\left(m^{\prime}\right)
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## Monadic semantics to transformer semantics

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$$

## Relation between semantics

For any PWHILE program $c$ and input distribution $\mu$, we have:

$$
(c)^{\#}(\mu)=\llbracket c \rrbracket \mu
$$

Good sanity check: would be strange if monadic semantics disagrees with transformer semantics when we feed in the same input distribution.

## Transformer semantics to monadic semantics?

Not so useful fact

- Given: $\bar{f}: \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})$
- There does not always exist $f: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})$ such that $\bar{f}=f^{\#}$.
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- Transformer semantics supports fancier PPL features

Notable example: conditioning
New command to condition the input distribution on a guard being true:

$$
\llbracket \operatorname{observe}(e) \rrbracket \mu \triangleq \mu \mid \llbracket e=t t \rrbracket
$$

Not possible to give a monadic semantics to this command.

## For verification: what is the tradeoff?

Why prefer monadic semantics?

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Why prefer monadic semantics?

- Memory assertions are simpler than distribution assertions
- Can do case analysis on memory if input is a memory

Why prefer transformer semantics?

- Sometimes, want to assume property of input distribution
- Can enable verifying richer probabilistic properties

Reasoning about pWhile Programs
Probabilistic Separation Logic

What Is Independence, Intuitively?

Two random variables $x$ and $y$ are independent if they are uncorrelated: the value of $x$ gives no information about the value or distribution of $y$.

## Things that are independent

Fresh random samples

- $x$ is the result of a fair coin flip
- $y$ is the result of another, "fresh" coin flip
- More generally: "separate" sources of randomness


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- $x$ is the result of a fair coin flip
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- More generally: "separate" sources of randomness


## Uncorrelated things

- $x$ is today's winning lottery number
- $y$ is the closing price of the stock market


## Things that are not independent

Re-used samples

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## Things that are not independent

## Re-used samples

- $x$ is the result of a fair coin flip
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Common cause

- $x$ is today's ice cream sales
- $y$ is today's sunglasses sales


## What Is Independence, Formally?

## Definition

Two random variables $x$ and $y$ are independent (in some implicit distribution over $x$ and $y$ ) if for all values $a$ and $b$ :

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(x=a \wedge y=b)=\operatorname{Pr}(x=a) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(y=b)
$$

That is, the distribution over $(x, y)$ is the product of a distribution over $x$ and a distribution over $y$.

## Why Is Independence Useful for Program Reasoning?

Ubiquitous in probabilistic programs

- A "fresh" random sample is independent of the state.


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- Complicated: general distribution over many variables
- Simple: product of distributions over each variable


## Why Is Independence Useful for Program Reasoning?

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Simplifies reasoning about groups of variables

- Complicated: general distribution over many variables
- Simple: product of distributions over each variable

Preserved under common program operations

- Local operations independent of "separate" randomness
- Behaves well under conditioning (prob. control flow)


## Reasoning about Independence: Challenges

Formal definition isn't very promising

- Quantification over all values: lots of probabilities!
- Computing exact probabilities: often difficult

How can we leverage the intuition behind probabilistic independence?

## Main Observation: Independence is Separation

Two variables $x$ and $y$ in a distribution $\mu$ are independent if $\mu$ is the product of two distributions $\mu_{x}$ and $\mu_{y}$ with disjoint domains, containing $x$ and $y$.

Leverage separation logic to reason about independence

- Pioneered by O'Hearn, Reynolds, and Yang
- Highly developed area of program verification research
- Rich logical theory, automated tools, etc.


## Our Approach: Two Ingredients

# - Develop a probabilistic model of the logic BI 

- Design a probabilistic separation logic PSL


## Bunched Implications

## and Separation Logics

What Goes into a Separation Logic?

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1. Programs

- Transform input states to output states
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- Formulas describe pieces of program states
- Semantics defined by a model of BI (Pym and O'Hearn)


## What Goes into a Separation Logic?

## 1. Programs

- Transform input states to output states
- Done: pWHILE with transformer semantics

2. Assertions

- Formulas describe pieces of program states
- Semantics defined by a model of BI (Pym and O'Hearn)

3. Program logic

- Formulas describe programs
- Assertions specify pre- and post-conditions


## Classical Setting: Heaps

Program states $(s, h)$

- A store $s: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$, map from variables to values
- A heap $h: \mathbb{N} \rightharpoonup \mathcal{V}$, partial map from addresses to values


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## Pointer-manipulating programs

- Control flow: sequence, if-then-else, loops
- Read/write addresses in heap
- Allocate/free heap cells


## Assertion Logic: Bunched Implications (BI)

## Substructural logic (O'Hearn and Pym)

- Start with regular propositional logic $(T, \perp, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow)$
- Add a new conjunction ("star"): $P * Q$
- Add a new implication ("magic wand"): $P-* Q$


## Assertion Logic: Bunched Implications (BI)

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- Add a new conjunction ("star"): $P * Q$
- Add a new implication ("magic wand"): $P \rightarrow Q$

Star is a multiplicative conjunction

- $P \wedge Q: P$ and $Q$ hold on the entire state
- $P * Q: P$ and $Q$ hold on disjoint parts of the entire state


## Resource Semantics of BI (O'Hearn and Pym)

Suppose states form a pre-ordered, partial monoid

- Set $S$ of states, pre-order $\sqsubseteq$ on $S$
- Partial operation $\circ: S \times S \rightarrow S$ (assoc., comm., ...)


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Inductively define states that satisfy formulas

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
s \models \top & & \text { always } \\
s \models \perp & & \text { never }
\end{array}
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Inductively define states that satisfy formulas

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
s \nvdash T & \\
s \models \perp & \\
\text { always } \\
s \models P \wedge Q & \\
\text { iff } s \models P \text { and } s \models Q
\end{array}
$$

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\text { always } \\
s \models \perp & \\
\text { never } \\
s \models P \wedge Q & \\
\text { iff } s \models P \text { and } s \models Q \\
s \models P * Q & \\
\text { iff } s_{1} \circ s_{2} \sqsubseteq s \text { with } s_{1} \models P \text { and } s_{2} \models Q
\end{array}
$$

State $s$ can be split into two "disjoint" states, one satisfying $P$ and one satisfying $Q$

## Example: Heap Model of BI

Set of states: heaps

- $S=\mathbb{N} \rightharpoonup \mathcal{V}$, partial maps from addresses to values


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Monoid operation: combine disjoint heaps

- $s_{1} \circ s_{2}$ is defined to be union iff $\operatorname{dom}\left(s_{1}\right) \cap \operatorname{dom}\left(s_{2}\right)=\emptyset$


## Example: Heap Model of BI

Set of states: heaps

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Monoid operation: combine disjoint heaps
$>s_{1} \circ s_{2}$ is defined to be union iff $\operatorname{dom}\left(s_{1}\right) \cap \operatorname{dom}\left(s_{2}\right)=\emptyset$
Pre-order: extend/project heaps
> $s_{1} \sqsubseteq s_{2}$ iff $\operatorname{dom}\left(s_{1}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}\left(s_{2}\right)$, and $s_{1}, s_{2}$ agree on dom $\left(s_{1}\right)$

## Propositions for Heaps

Atomic propositions: "points-to"

- $x \mapsto v$ holds in heap $s$ iff $x \in \operatorname{dom}(s)$ and $s(x)=v$

Example axioms (not complete)

- Deterministic: $x \mapsto v \wedge y \mapsto w \wedge x=y \rightarrow v=w$
- Disjoint: $x \mapsto v * y \mapsto w \rightarrow x \neq y$


## The Separation Logic Proper

Programs c from a basic imperative language

- Read from location: $x:=* e$
- Write to location: $* e:=e^{\prime}$


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Program logic judgments

$$
\{P\} \subset\{Q\}
$$

## Reading

Executing $c$ on any input state satisfying $P$ leads to an output state satisfying $Q$, without invalid reads or writes.

A Probabilistic Model of BI

## States: Distributions over Memories

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Memories (not heaps)

- Fix sets $\mathcal{X}$ of variables and $\mathcal{V}$ of values
- Memories indexed by domains $A \subseteq \mathcal{X}: \mathcal{M}(A)=A \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$


## States: Distributions over Memories

Memories (not heaps)

- Fix sets $\mathcal{X}$ of variables and $\mathcal{V}$ of values
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## Program states: randomized memories

- States are distributions over memories with same domain
- Formally: $S=\{s \mid s \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}(A)), A \subseteq \mathcal{X}\}$
- When $s \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}(A))$, write $\operatorname{dom}(s)$ for $A$


## Monoid: "Disjoint" Product Distribution

## Intuition

- Two distributions can be combined iff domains are disjoint
- Combine by taking product distribution, union of domains


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- Two distributions can be combined iff domains are disjoint
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More formally...
Suppose that $s \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}(A))$ and $s^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}(B))$. If $A, B$ are disjoint, then:

$$
\left(s \circ s^{\prime}\right)\left(m \cup m^{\prime}\right)=s(m) \cdot s^{\prime}\left(m^{\prime}\right)
$$

for $m \in \mathcal{M}(A)$ and $m^{\prime} \in \mathcal{M}(B)$. Otherwise, $s \circ s^{\prime}$ is undefined.

## Pre-Order: Extension/Projection

## Intuition

- Define $s \sqsubseteq s^{\prime}$ if $s$ "has less information than" $s^{\prime}$
- In probabilistic setting: $s$ is a projection of $s^{\prime}$


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More formally...
Suppose that $s \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}(A))$ and $s^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}(B))$. Then $s \sqsubseteq s^{\prime}$ iff $A \subseteq B$, and for all $m \in \mathcal{M}(A)$, we have:

$$
s(m)=\sum_{m^{\prime} \in \mathcal{M}(B)} s^{\prime}\left(m \cup m^{\prime}\right)
$$

That is, $s$ is obtained from $s^{\prime}$ by marginalizing variables in $B \backslash A$.

## Reasoning about Probabilistic Programs

Oregon PL Summer School 2021

## Day 1: Introducing Probabilistic Programs

- Motivations and key questions
- Mathematical preliminaries


## Day 2: First-Order Programs 1

- Probabilistic While language, monadic semantics
- Weakest pre-expectation calculus

Day 3: First-Order Programs 2

- Probabilistic While language, transformer semantics
- Probabilistic separation logic

Day 4: Higher-Order Programs

- Type system: probability monad
- Type system: probabilistic PCF


## Atomic Formulas

## Equalities

- $e=e^{\prime}$ holds in $s$ iff all variables $F V\left(e, e^{\prime}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(s)$, and $e$ is equal to $e^{\prime}$ with probability 1 in $s$


## Atomic Formulas

## Equalities

- $e=e^{\prime}$ holds in $s$ iff all variables $F V\left(e, e^{\prime}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(s)$, and $e$ is equal to $e^{\prime}$ with probability 1 in $s$

Distribution laws

- $[e]$ holds in $s$ iff all variables in $F V(e) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(s)$
- Unif ${ }_{S}[e]$ holds in $s$ iff $F V(e) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(s)$, and $e$ is uniformly distributed on $S$ (e.g., $S=\mathbb{B}$ is fair coin flip)


## Example: Distribution Assertions

Suppose $\mu$ has two variables $x, y$, indep. fair coin flips

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mu([x \mapsto t t, y \mapsto t t]) & =1 / 4 & \mu([x \mapsto t t, y \mapsto f f]) & =1 / 4 \\
\mu([x \mapsto f f, y \mapsto t t]) & =1 / 4 & \mu([x \mapsto f f, y \mapsto f f]) & =1 / 4
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- We can decompose $\mu=\mu_{x} \otimes \mu_{y}$, where:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mu_{x}([x \mapsto t t]) \triangleq 1 / 2 & \mu_{x}([x \mapsto f f]) \triangleq 1 / 2 \\
\mu_{y}([y \mapsto t t]) \triangleq 1 / 2 & \mu_{y}([y \mapsto f f]) \triangleq 1 / 2
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So, $\mu \sqsubseteq \mu_{x} \circ \mu_{y}$

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So, $\mu \sqsubseteq \mu_{x} \circ \mu_{y}$
$\triangleright$ Next, $\mu_{x} \models \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x]$ and $\mu_{y} \models \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[y]$

## Example: Distribution Assertions

Suppose $\mu$ has two variables $x, y$, indep. fair coin flips

$$
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\mu([x \mapsto t t, y \mapsto t t]) & =1 / 4 & & \mu([x \mapsto t t, y \mapsto f f]) \\
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Then: $\mu$ satisfies $\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x] * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[y]$. Why?

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Uniformity and products
$>\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x] * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[y] \rightarrow \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B} \times \mathbb{B}}[x, y]$
Uniformity and exclusive-or ( $\oplus$ )
$>\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x] *[y] \wedge z=x \oplus y \rightarrow \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[z] *[y]$

A Probabilistic Separation Logic

## Program Logic Judgments in PSL

$P$ and $Q$ from probabilistic $\mathrm{BI}, c$ a probabilistic program

$$
\{P\} c\{Q\}
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Validity
For all input states $s \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X}))$ satisfying the pre-condition $s \models P$, the output state $\llbracket c \rrbracket s$ satisfies the post-condition $\llbracket c \rrbracket s \models Q$.

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## Perfectly fits the transformer semantics for PWHILE

Under transformer semantics:

- $P$ describes: a distribution over memories (input)
- $Q$ describes: a distribution over memories (output)

Under monadic semantics: mismatch!

- $P$ describes: a distribution over memories
- But input to program: a single memory


## How do we prove these judgments?

Validity
For all input states $s \in \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X}))$ satisfying the pre-condition $s \models P$, the output state $\llbracket c \rrbracket s$ satisfies the post-condition $\llbracket c \rrbracket s \models Q$.

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## Proving validity directly is difficult

- Must unfold definition of $\llbracket c \rrbracket$ as a function
- Then prove property of function by working with definition


## How do we prove these judgments?

## Validity

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## Proving validity directly is difficult

- Must unfold definition of $[c]$ as a function
- Then prove property of function by working with definition

Things that would make proving judgments easier:

- Compositionality: prove property of bigger program by combining proofs of properties of sub-programs
- Avoid unfolding definition of program semantics


## Solution: define a set of proof rules (a proof system)

Each proof rule look like:

$$
\frac{\left\{P_{1}\right\} c_{1}\left\{Q_{1}\right\} \quad \cdots \quad\left\{P_{n}\right\} c_{n}\left\{Q_{n}\right\}}{\{P\} c\{Q\}} \text { RULENAME }
$$

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Proof rules mean:

- To prove $\{P\} \subset\{Q\}$
- We just have to prove $\left\{P_{1}\right\} c_{1}\left\{Q_{1}\right\}, \ldots,\left\{P_{n}\right\} c_{n}\left\{Q_{n}\right\}$


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Why do proof rules help?

- Programs $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}$ are smaller/simpler than $c$
- If $c$ can't be broken down, no premises $(n=0)$

The Proof System of PSL
Basic Rules

## Basic Proof Rules in PSL: Assignment

Assignment Rule

$$
\frac{x \notin F V(e)}{\{\top\} x \leftarrow e\{x=e\}} \text { AssN }
$$

## Basic Proof Rules in PSL: Assignment

## Assignment Rule

$$
\frac{x \notin F V(e)}{\{T\} x \leftarrow e\{x=e\}} \text { AssN }
$$

How to read this rule?
From any initial distribution, running $x \leftarrow e$ will lead to a distribution where $x$ equals $e$ with probability 1 (assuming $x$ doesn't appear in e).

## Basic Proof Rules in PSL: Sampling

Sampling Rule

$$
\overline{\{T\} x \& \mathbb{S}} \mathbf{F l i p}\left\{\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x]\right\} \text { SAMP }
$$

## Basic Proof Rules in PSL: Sampling

## Sampling Rule

$$
\overline{\{\top\} x \& \mathbb{S} \operatorname{Flip}\left\{\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x]\right\}} \text { SAMP }
$$

How to read this rule?
From any initial distribution, running $x \&$ Flip will lead to a distribution where $x$ is a uniformly distributed Boolean.

## Basic Proof Rules in PSL: Sequencing

Sequencing Rule

$$
\frac{\{P\} c_{1}\{Q\} \quad\{Q\} c_{2}\{R\}}{\{P\} c_{1} ; c_{2}\{R\}} \text { SEQ }
$$

## Basic Proof Rules in PSL: Sequencing

## Sequencing Rule

$$
\frac{\{P\} c_{1}\{Q\} \quad\{Q\} c_{2}\{R\}}{\{P\} c_{1} ; c_{2}\{R\}} \text { SEQ }
$$

How to read this rule?

- If: from any distribution satisfying $P$, running $c_{1}$ leads to a distribution satisfying $R$
- If: from any distribution satisfying $R$, running $c_{2}$ leads to a distribution satisfying $Q$
- Then: from any distribution satisfying $P$, running $c_{1} ; c_{2}$ leads to a distribution satisfying $Q$

The Proof System of PSL
Conditional Rule

## Conditional Rule: first try

Does this rule work?

$$
\frac{\{e=t t \wedge P\} c\{Q\} \quad\{e=f f \wedge P\} c^{\prime}\{Q\}}{\{P\} \text { if } e \text { then } c \text { else } c^{\prime}\{Q\}} \text { COND? }
$$

Rule Cond? is not sound!

## Rule Cond? is not sound!

Take $P$ to be $\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[e]$ and $Q$ to be $\perp$ :
$\frac{\left\{e=t t \wedge \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[e]\right\} c\{\perp\} \quad\left\{e=f f \wedge \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[e]\right\} c^{\prime}\{\perp\}}{\left\{\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[e]\right\} \text { if } e \text { then } c \text { else } c^{\prime}\{\perp\}}$ Cond?

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$\frac{\left\{e=t t \wedge \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[e]\right\} c\{\perp\} \quad\left\{e=\int f \wedge \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[e]\right\} c^{\prime}\{\perp\}}{\left\{\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[e]\right\} \text { if } e \text { then } c \text { else } c^{\prime}\{\perp\}}$ Cond?

Premises are valid...
There is no distribution satisfying $e=t t \wedge$ Unif $_{\mathbb{B}}[e]$ or
$e=f f \wedge$ Unif $_{\mathbb{B}}[e]$, so pre-conditions are $\perp$ and the premises are trivially valid.

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But the conclusion is not!
It is not the case that if Unif $_{\mathbb{B}}[e]$ in the input distribution, then running if $e$ then $c$ else $c^{\prime}$ will lead to an impossible output distribution!

## What went wrong?

The broken rule

$$
\frac{\{e=t t \wedge P\} c\{Q\} \quad\{e=f f \wedge P\} c^{\prime}\{Q\}}{\{P\} \text { if } e \text { then } c \text { else } c^{\prime}\{Q\}} \text { COND? }
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$$

The problem: conditioning

- We assume: $P$ holds in input distribution $\mu$
- Inputs to branches: $\mu$ conditioned on $e=t t$ and $e=f f$
- But: $P$ might not hold on conditional distributions!


## Conditional Rule: second try

Does this rule work?

$$
\frac{\{e=t t * P\} c\{Q\} \quad\{e=f f * P\} c^{\prime}\{Q\}}{\{[e] * P\} \text { if } e \text { then } c \text { else } c^{\prime}\{Q\}} \text { Cond?? }
$$

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$$

## Previous counterexample fails

If we take $P$ to be $\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[e]$, then $[e] * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[e]$ is false, and the conclusion is trivially valid.

## But rule Cond?? is still not sound!

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Consider this proof

$$
\frac{\{e=t t * \top\} x \leftarrow e\{[x] *[e]\} \quad\{e=f f * P\} x \leftarrow e\{[x] *[e]\}}{\{[e] * T\} \text { if } e \text { then } x \leftarrow e \text { else } x \leftarrow e\{[x] *[e]\}} \text { Cond? }
$$

## But rule Cond?? is still not sound!

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Premises are valid...
In the output of each branch, $x$ and $e$ are independent since $e$ is deterministic.

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Premises are valid...
In the output of each branch, $x$ and $e$ are independent since $e$ is deterministic.

But the conclusion is not!
In the output of the conditional, $x$ and $e$ are clearly not always independent: they are equal, and they might be randomized!

## What went wrong?

The broken rule

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$$

The problem: mixing

- Suppose: $Q$ holds in the outputs of both branches
- The output of the conditional is a convex combination of the branch outputs
- But: $Q$ might not hold in the convex combination!


## Conditional Rule in PSL

Fixed rule

$$
\begin{gathered}
\{e=t t * P\} c\{Q\} \\
\{e=f f * P\} c^{\prime}\{Q\} \\
\frac{Q \text { is closed under mixtures (CM) }}{\{[e] * P\} \text { if } e \text { then } c \text { else } c^{\prime}\{Q\}} \text { Cond }
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## Pre-conditions

- Inputs to branches derived from conditioning on $e$
- Independence ensures that $P$ holds after conditioning


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- Inputs to branches derived from conditioning on $e$
- Independence ensures that $P$ holds after conditioning


## Post-conditions

- Not all post-conditions $Q$ can be soundly combined
- "Closed under mixtures" needed for soundness


## CM properties: Closed under Mixtures

An assertion $Q$ is CM if it satisfies:
If $\mu_{1} \models Q$ and $\mu_{2} \models Q$, then $\mu_{1} \oplus_{p} \mu_{2} \models Q$ for any $p \in[0,1]$.

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- $x=e$
$-\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x]$


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Examples of CM assertions

- $x=e$
$-\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x]$
Examples of non-CM assertions
- $[x] *[y]$
- $x=1 \vee x=2$


## Example: using the conditional rule

Consider the program:

$$
\text { if } x \text { then } z \leftarrow \neg y \text { else } z \leftarrow y
$$

If $x$ is true, negate $y$ and store in $z$. Otherwise store $y$ into $z$.

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$$

If $x$ is true, negate $y$ and store in $z$. Otherwise store $y$ into $z$.
Using the conditional rule:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left\{x=t t * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[y]\right\} z \leftarrow \neg y\left\{\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[z]\right\} \\
\left\{x=f f * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[y]\right\} z \leftarrow y\left\{\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[z]\right\} \\
\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[z] \text { is closed under mixtures }(\mathrm{CM}) \\
\left\{[x] * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[y]\right\} \text { if } x \text { then } z \leftarrow \neg y \text { else } z \leftarrow y\left\{\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[z]\right\}
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$$

The Proof System of PSL
Frame Rule

## The Frame Rule in SL

Properties about unmodified heaps are preserved

$$
\frac{\{P\} \subset\{Q\} \quad c \text { doesn't modify } F V(R)}{\{P * R\} \subset\{Q * R\}} \text { Frame }
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\frac{\{P\} c\{Q\} \quad c \text { doesn't modify } F V(R)}{\{P * R\} c\{Q * R\}} \text { FRAME }
$$

So-called "local reasoning" in SL

- Only need to reason about part of heap used by $c$
- Note: doesn't hold if $*$ replaced by $\wedge$, due to aliasing!


## Why is the Frame rule important?

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In SL: simplify reasoning

- Program c may only modify a small part of the heap
- Rest of heap may be complicated (linked lists, trees, etc.)
- Automatically preserve any assertion about rest of heap, as long as rest of heap is separate from what $c$ touches


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- Rest of heap may be complicated (linked lists, trees, etc.)
- Automatically preserve any assertion about rest of heap, as long as rest of heap is separate from what $c$ touches

In PSL: preserve independence

- Assume: in input, variable $x$ is independent of what $c$ uses
- Conclude: in output, $x$ is independent of what $c$ touches


## The Frame Rule in PSL

The rule

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\{P\} c\{Q\} & F V(R) \cap M V(c)=\emptyset \\
\models P \rightarrow[R V(c)] & F V(Q) \subseteq R V(c) \cup W V(c) \\
\{P * R\} c\{Q * R\} & \text { FRAME }
\end{array}
$$

Side conditions

## The Frame Rule in PSL

The rule

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1. Variables in $R$ are not modified

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$$

Side conditions

1. Variables in $R$ are not modified
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3. Everything in $Q$ is freshly written, or in $P$

## Variables in the $Q$ were independent of $R$, or are newly independent of $R$

## Example: Deriving a Better Sampling Rule

Original sampling rule:

$$
\overline{\{\top\} x \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{\mathscr{E}} \operatorname{Flip}\left\{\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x]\right\}} \text { SAMP }
$$

Frame rule:

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\end{array} \text { FRAME }
$$

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Original sampling rule:

$$
\overline{\{\top\} x \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{\mathscr{E}} \operatorname{Flip}\left\{\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x]\right\}} \text { SAMP }
$$

Frame rule:

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\{P\} c\{Q\} & F V(R) \cap M V(c)=\emptyset \\
\models P \rightarrow[R V(c)] & F V(Q) \subseteq R V(c) \cup W V(c) \\
\{P * R\} c\{Q * R\}
\end{array} \text { FRAME }
$$

Can derive:

$$
\frac{x \notin F V(R)}{\{R\} x \& \mathbb{F l i p}_{\{ }\left\{\mathrm{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x] * R\right\}} \text { SAMP* }^{*}
$$

## Example: Deriving a Better Sampling Rule

Original sampling rule:

$$
\overline{\{\top\} x \&} \operatorname{Flip}\left\{\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x]\right\} \text { SAMP }
$$

Frame rule:

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\{P\} c\{Q\} & F V(R) \cap M V(c)=\emptyset \\
\models P \rightarrow[R V(c)] & F V(Q) \subseteq R V(c) \cup W V(c) \\
\{P * R\} c\{Q * R\}
\end{array} \text { FRAME }
$$

Can derive:

$$
\frac{x \notin F V(R)}{\{R\} x \& \mathbb{F l i p}_{\{ }\left\{\mathrm{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x] * R\right\}} \text { SAMP* }^{*}
$$

Intuitively: fresh random sample is independent of everything

A Probabilistic Separation Logic

## Soundness Theorem

## Proof rules can only show valid judgments

Theorem
If $\{P\} c\{Q\}$ is derivable via the proof rules, then $\{P\} c\{Q\}$ is a valid judgment: for all initial distributions $\mu$, if $\mu \models P$ then $\llbracket c \rrbracket \mu \models Q$.

Key property for soundness: restriction
Let $P$ be any formula of probabilistic BI , and suppose that $s \models P$. Then there exists $s^{\prime} \sqsubseteq s$ such that $s^{\prime} \models P$ and $\operatorname{dom}\left(s^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{dom}(s) \cap F V(P)$.

## Intuition

- The only variables that "matter" for $P$ are $F V(P)$
- Tricky for implications; proof "glues" distributions

Verifying an Example

## One-Time-Pad (OTP)

Possibly the simplest encryption scheme

- Input: a message $m \in \mathbb{B}$
- Output: a ciphertext $c \in \mathbb{B}$
- Idea: encrypt by taking xor with a uniformly random key $k$


## One-Time-Pad (OTP)

Possibly the simplest encryption scheme

- Input: a message $m \in \mathbb{B}$
- Output: a ciphertext $c \in \mathbb{B}$
- Idea: encrypt by taking xor with a uniformly random key $k$

The encoding program:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{lip}_{9}^{\circ} \\
& c \leftarrow k \oplus m
\end{aligned}
$$

How to Formalize Security?

## How to Formalize Security?

## Method 1: Uniformity

- Show that $c$ is uniformly distributed
- Always the same, no matter what the message $m$ is


## How to Formalize Security?

## Method 1: Uniformity

- Show that $c$ is uniformly distributed
- Always the same, no matter what the message $m$ is

Method 2: Input-output independence

- Assume that $m$ is drawn from some (unknown) distribution
- Show that $c$ and $m$ are independent


## Proving Input-Output Independence for OTP in PSL

$k \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{ }$ Flip;
$c \leftarrow k \oplus m$

## Proving Input-Output Independence for OTP in PSL

$\{[m]\}$

## assumption

$k \stackrel{\mathbb{S}}{ } \mathrm{Flip}_{9}^{\circ}$
$c \leftarrow k \oplus m$

## Proving Input-Output Independence for OTP in PSL

$\{[m]\}$
$k \stackrel{\mathbb{s}}{ }$ Flip\%
$\left\{[m] * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[k]\right\}$
$c \leftarrow k \oplus m$
assumption
[SAMP*]

## Proving Input-Output Independence for OTP in PSL

$\{[m]\}$
$k \stackrel{\mathbb{s}}{ }$ Flip\%
$\left\{[m] * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[k]\right\}$
$c \leftarrow k \oplus m$
$\left\{[m] * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[k] \wedge c=k \oplus m\right\}$
[ASSN*]

## Proving Input-Output Independence for OTP in PSL

$\{[m]\}$
$k \stackrel{\mathbb{s}}{ }$ Flip\%
$\left\{[m] * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[k]\right\}$
$c \leftarrow k \oplus m$
$\left\{[m] * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[k] \wedge c=k \oplus m\right\}$
$\left\{[m] * \operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[c]\right\}$
assumption
[SAMP*]
[Assn*]
XOR axiom

## PSL: references and further reading

The original paper on probabilistic semantics
Kozen. Semantics of Probabilistic Programs. FOCS 1980.
Unifying survey on Bunched Implications
Docherty. Bunched Logics: A Uniform Approach. PhD Thesis (UCL), 2019.

A Probabilistic Separation Logic (POPL20)

- Extensions to PSL: deterministic variables, loops, etc.
- Many examples from cryptography, security of ORAM
- https://arxiv.org/abs/1907.10708

A Bunched Logic for Conditional Independence (LICS21)

- A BI-style logic called DIBI for conditional independence
- A separation logic (CPSL) based on DIBI
- https://arxiv.org/abs/2008.09231


## Reasoning about Probabilistic Programs

Higher-Order Languages

## So far: reasoning about PWHILE programs

First part

- Monadic semantics: $(c): \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})$
- Verification method: weakest pre-expectations (wpe)

Second part

- Transformer semantics: $\llbracket c \rrbracket: \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{M})$
- Verification method: probabilistic separation logic (PSL)


## Today: probabilistic higher-order programs

What's missing from PWHILE?

- First-order programs only
- That is: can't pass functions to other functions

This is OPLSS: where are the functions?

- How about probabilistic functional languages?
- What do the type systems look like?

With a Probability Monad:
A Simple Functional Language

## Operations on distributions: unit

The simplest possible distribution
Dirac distribution: Probability 1 of producing a particular element, and probability 0 of producing anything else.

Distribution unit
Let $a \in A$. Then unit $(a) \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$ is defined to be:

$$
\operatorname{unit}(a)(x)= \begin{cases}1 & : x=a \\ 0 & : \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Why "unit"? The unit ("return") of the distribution monad.

## Operations on distributions: bind

Sequence two sampling instructions together
Draw a sample $x$, then draw a sample from a distribution $f(x)$ depending on $x$. Transformation map $f$ is randomized: function $A \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(B)$.
Distribution bind
Let $\mu \in \operatorname{Distr}(A)$ and $f: A \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(B)$. Then bind $(\mu, f) \in \operatorname{Distr}(B)$ is defined to be:

$$
\operatorname{bind}(\mu, f)(b) \triangleq \sum_{a \in A} \mu(a) \cdot f(a)(b)
$$

## Language: probabilistic monadic lambda calculus

Language grammar: core

$$
\mathcal{E} \ni e:=x \in \mathcal{X}|\lambda \mathcal{X} . \mathcal{E}| \mathcal{E} \mathcal{E} \mid \text { fix } \mathcal{X} . \lambda \mathcal{X} . \mathcal{E} \quad \text { (lambda calc.) }
$$

## Language: probabilistic monadic lambda calculus

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\mathcal{E} \ni e:=x \in \mathcal{X}|\lambda \mathcal{X} . \mathcal{E}| \mathcal{E} \mathcal{E} \mid \text { fix } \mathcal{X} . \lambda \mathcal{X} . \mathcal{E} \quad \text { (lambda calc.) }
$$

Language grammar: base types

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathcal{E} \ni e:=\cdots|b \in \mathbb{B}| \text { if } \mathcal{E} \text { then } \mathcal{E} \text { else } \mathcal{E} \\
\\
|n \in \mathbb{N}| \operatorname{add}(\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{E})
\end{gathered}
$$

(booleans)
(numbers)

## Language: probabilistic monadic lambda calculus

Language grammar: core

$$
\mathcal{E} \ni e:=x \in \mathcal{X}|\lambda \mathcal{X} . \mathcal{E}| \mathcal{E} \mathcal{E} \mid \text { fix } \mathcal{X} . \lambda \mathcal{X} . \mathcal{E} \quad \text { (lambda calc.) }
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\\
|n \in \mathbb{N}| \operatorname{add}(\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{E})
\end{gathered}
$$

(booleans)
(numbers)

Language grammar: probabilistic part

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{E} \ni e & :=\cdots \mid \text { Flip } \mid \text { Roll } \\
& \mid \operatorname{return}(\mathcal{E}) \\
& \mid \operatorname{sample} \mathcal{X}=\mathcal{E} \text { in } \mathcal{E}
\end{aligned}
$$

(distributions)
(unit)
(bind)

## Example programs

Sum of two dice rolls

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sample } x=\text { Roll in } \\
& \text { sample } y=\text { Roll in } \\
& \operatorname{return}(\operatorname{add}(x, y))
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example programs

## Sum of two dice rolls

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sample } x=\text { Roll in } \\
& \text { sample } y=\text { Roll in } \\
& \operatorname{return}(\operatorname{add}(x, y))
\end{aligned}
$$

Geometric distribution
(fix geo. $\lambda n$.
sample stop $=$ Flip in
if stop then return $(n)$ else geo $\operatorname{add}(n, 1)) 0$

## Operational semantics: One-step reduction

## Definition

The one-step relation $\rightarrow: \mathcal{C E} \rightarrow \operatorname{Distr}(\mathcal{C E})$ maps closed expressions to distributions on closed expressions:

$$
e \rightarrow \mu
$$

## Reading

"Expression e steps to distribution $\mu$ on expressions in one step".

## Operational semantics: Multi-step reduction

## Definition

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the multi-step relation $\Rightarrow_{n}: \mathcal{C E} \rightarrow \operatorname{SDistr}(\mathcal{C V})$ maps closed expressions to sub-distributions on closed values.

$$
e \Rightarrow_{n} \mu
$$

## Reading

"Expression $e$ steps to sub-distribution $\mu$ on values in exactly $n$ steps".

## Operational semantics: Big-step reduction

## Definition

The multi-step relation $\Rightarrow: \mathcal{C E} \rightarrow$ SDistr $(\mathcal{C V})$ maps closed expressions to sub-distributions on closed values.

$$
e \Rightarrow \mu
$$

## Reading

"Expression $e$ steps to sub-distribution $\mu$ on values".
Define as limit of approximants: if $e \Rightarrow_{n} \mu_{n}$, then
$e \Rightarrow \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{k} \mu_{n}$

## Operational semantics: non-probabilistic part

## Standard call-by-value semantics

$$
(\lambda x . e) v \rightarrow \operatorname{unit}(e[v / x])
$$

if $t t$ then $e$ else $e^{\prime} \rightarrow$ unit (e)
if ff then $e$ else $e^{\prime} \rightarrow \operatorname{unit}\left(e^{\prime}\right)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
(f i x f . \lambda x . e) v & \rightarrow \operatorname{unit}(e[(f i x f . \lambda x . e) / f][v / x]) \\
\quad \operatorname{add}\left(n, n^{\prime}\right) & \rightarrow \operatorname{unit}\left(n+n^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Operational semantics: primitive distributions

Notation
We write $\left\{v_{1}: p_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}: p_{n}\right\}$ or $\left\{v_{i}: p_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ for the distribution that produces $v_{i}$ with probability $p_{i}$.

Step to distributions on values

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Flip } \rightarrow\{t t: 1 / 2, \text { ff }: 1 / 2\} \\
& \text { Roll } \rightarrow\{1: 1 / 6, \ldots, 6: 1 / 6\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Operational semantics: unit and bind

## Unit

$$
\frac{e \rightarrow e^{\prime}}{\operatorname{return}(e) \rightarrow \operatorname{return}\left(e^{\prime}\right)}
$$

## Bind

$$
\frac{e \rightarrow\left\{v_{i}: p_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}}{\text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime} \rightarrow\left\{e^{\prime}\left[v_{i} / x\right]: p_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}}
$$

## Types in our language

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{T} \ni \tau & :=\mathbb{B} \mid \mathbb{N} \\
& \mid \mathcal{T} \rightarrow \mathcal{T} \\
& \mid \bigcirc \mathcal{T}
\end{aligned}
$$

(base types)
(functions)
(distributions)

## Typing judgment basics

The main judgment
Let $e \in \mathcal{E}, \tau \in \mathcal{T}$, and $\Gamma$ be a finite list of of bindings
$x_{1}: \tau_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: \tau_{n}$. Then the typing judgment is:

$$
\Gamma \vdash e: \tau
$$

## Reading

If we substitute closed values $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ for variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ in $e$, then the result either reduces to unit ( $v$ ) if $\tau$ is non-probabilistic, or reduces to a sub-distribution over closed values if $\tau$ is probabilistic (of the form $\bigcirc \tau$ ).

## Typing rules: variables and functions

Exactly the same as in lambda calculus

$$
\frac{x: \tau \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x: \tau} \mathrm{VAR}
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e: \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x . e: \tau \rightarrow \tau^{\prime}} \operatorname{LAM}
$$

$\Gamma \vdash e: \tau \rightarrow \tau^{\prime}$
$\Gamma \vdash e^{\prime}: \tau$
$\Gamma \vdash e e^{\prime}: \tau^{\prime}$ APP

$$
\frac{\Gamma, f: \tau \rightarrow \tau^{\prime} \vdash \lambda x . e: \tau \rightarrow \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { fix } f . \lambda x . e: \tau \rightarrow \tau^{\prime}} \mathrm{FIX}
$$

## Typing rules: booleans and integers

Hopefully not too surprising

$$
\frac{b=t t, f f}{\Gamma \vdash b: \mathbb{B}} \text { BooL } \quad \frac{n \in \mathbb{N}}{\Gamma \vdash n: \mathbb{N}} \text { NAT }
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Gamma \vdash e: \mathbb{N} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e^{\prime}: \mathbb{N}}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{add}\left(e, e^{\prime}\right): \mathbb{N}} \mathrm{ADD}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Typing rules: primitive distributions

Assign distribution types

$$
\overline{\Gamma \vdash \text { Flip }: \bigcirc \mathbb{B}}{ }^{\text {FLIP }}
$$

$$
\overline{\Gamma \vdash \text { Roll }: \bigcirc \mathbb{N}}{ }^{\text {Roll }}
$$

## Typing rules: unit and bind

## Unit

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{return}(e): \bigcirc \tau} \text { RETURN }
$$

Bind

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \bigcirc \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: \bigcirc \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: \bigcirc \tau^{\prime}} \text { SAMPLE }
$$

## What property do we want the types to ensure?

## Non-probabilistic types

If $e \in \mathcal{C} \mathcal{E}$ has non-probabilistic type $\tau$, then $e$ should reduce to unit $(v)$ with $v \in \mathcal{C} \mathcal{V}$ of type $\tau$, or loop forever.

## Probabilistic types

If $e \in \mathcal{C E}$ has probabilistic type $\bigcirc \tau$, then $e$ should reduce to $\mu \in \operatorname{SDistr}(\mathcal{C} \mathcal{V})$ where every element in the support of $\mu$ has type $\tau$.

Monadic Type Systems:
A Closer Look

## What else can we do with a monadic type system?

So far: describe type of a distribution
If a program $e$ has type $\bigcirc \mathbb{N}$, then:

- It evaluates to a sub-distribution over $\mathbb{N}$ : samples drawn from the distribution will always be natural numbers.
- It never gets stuck (runtime error) during evaluation.


## But what other properties can we handle?

- Produces a uniform distribution
- Produces a distribution that has probability $1 / 4$ of returning an even number

The key typing rule: SAMPLE

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \bigcirc \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: \bigcirc \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: \bigcirc \tau^{\prime}}
$$

## The key typing rule: SAMPLE

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \bigcirc \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: \bigcirc \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: \bigcirc \tau^{\prime}}
$$

Let's unpack this rule

1. $e$ is a distribution over $\tau$

## The key typing rule: SAMPLE

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \bigcirc \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: \bigcirc \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: \bigcirc \tau^{\prime}} \text { SAMPLE } \\
& \text { Let's unpack this rule } \\
& \text { 1. } e \text { is a distribution over } \tau \\
& \text { 2. Given a sample } x: \tau, e^{\prime} \text { produces a distribution over } \tau^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

## The key typing rule: SAMPLE

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \bigcirc \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: \bigcirc \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: \bigcirc \tau^{\prime}}
$$

## Let's unpack this rule

1. $e$ is a distribution over $\tau$
2. Given a sample $x: \tau, e^{\prime}$ produces a distribution over $\tau^{\prime}$
3. Sampling from $e$ and plugging into $e^{\prime}$ : distribution over $\tau^{\prime}$

## Generalizing the rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: P \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}
$$

## Generalizing the rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: P \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}
$$

Let's change the meaning of the distribution type

1. $e$ is a distribution over $\tau$ satisfying $P$

## Generalizing the rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: P \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}} \text { SAMPLEGEN }
$$

Let's change the meaning of the distribution type

1. $e$ is a distribution over $\tau$ satisfying $P$
2. Given a sample $x: \tau, e^{\prime}$ produces a distribution over $\tau^{\prime}$ satisfying $Q$

## Generalizing the rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: P \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}
$$

Let's change the meaning of the distribution type

1. $e$ is a distribution over $\tau$ satisfying $P$
2. Given a sample $x: \tau, e^{\prime}$ produces a distribution over $\tau^{\prime}$ satisfying $Q$
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## Generalizing the rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: P \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}
$$

Let's change the meaning of the distribution type

1. $e$ is a distribution over $\tau$ satisfying $P$
2. Given a sample $x: \tau, e^{\prime}$ produces a distribution over $\tau^{\prime}$ satisfying $Q$
3. Sampling from $e$ and plugging into $e^{\prime}$ produces a distribution over $\tau^{\prime}$ satisfying $Q$

## Generalizing the rule

$\overline{\Gamma \vdash e: P \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}$
$\Gamma \vdash$ sample $x=e$ in $e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}$
Let's change the meaning of the distribution type

1. $e$ is a distribution over $\tau$ satisfying $P$
2. Given a sample $x: \tau, e^{\prime}$ produces a distribution over $\tau^{\prime}$ satisfying $Q$
3. Sampling from $e$ and plugging into $e^{\prime}$ produces a distribution over $\tau^{\prime}$ satisfying $Q$

For what distribution properties $Q$ is this rule OK?
Does this remind you of something we have seen already?

## CM properties: Closed under Mixtures

An assertion $Q$ is CM if it satisfies:
If $\mu_{1} \models Q$ and $\mu_{2} \models Q$, then $\mu_{1} \oplus_{p} \mu_{2} \models Q$ for any $p \in[0,1]$.
Examples of CM assertions

- $x=e$
$-\operatorname{Unif}_{\mathbb{B}}[x]$
Examples of non-CM assertions
- $[x] *[y]$
- $x=1 \vee x=2$

The main requirement: closed under mixtures (CM)

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: P \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}} \text { SAMPLEGEN }
$$

## The main requirement: closed under mixtures (CM)

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: P \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}} \text { SAMPLEGEN }
$$

The property $Q$ must be closed under mixtures (CM)

1. We have a bunch of distributions over $\tau^{\prime}$ satisfying $Q$

The main requirement: closed under mixtures (CM)
$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: P \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}$ SAMPLEGEN
The property $Q$ must be closed under mixtures (CM)

1. We have a bunch of distributions over $\tau^{\prime}$ satisfying $Q$
2. We are blending these distributions together

The main requirement: closed under mixtures (CM)
$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: P \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: Q \tau^{\prime}}$ SAMPLEGEN
The property $Q$ must be closed under mixtures (CM)

1. We have a bunch of distributions over $\tau^{\prime}$ satisfying $Q$
2. We are blending these distributions together
3. We want the resulting distribution to also satisfy $Q$

## Example: monadic types for uniformity

Type of uniform distributions $U \tau$
Meaning: when $\tau$ is a finite type (e.g., $\mathbb{B}$ ), a program $e$ has type $U \tau$ if it evaluates to the uniform distribution over $\tau$ without encountering any runtime errors.

Then the sampling rule is sound:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \bigcirc \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: U \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: U \tau^{\prime}}
$$

Monadic Type Systems:

## Generalizing to Graded Monads

## From monads to graded monads

Instead of one monad, have a family of monads

- $M$ is a monoid with a pre-order (e.g., $(\mathbb{R}, 0,+, \leq)$ )
- Each monadic type has an index $\alpha \in M$


## From monads to graded monads

Instead of one monad, have a family of monads
$\downarrow M$ is a monoid with a pre-order (e.g., $(\mathbb{R}, 0,+, \leq))$

- Each monadic type has an index $\alpha \in M$

Intuition

- Graded monads: different kinds of the same monad
- Smaller index: less information/weaker guarantee
- Index carries additional information "on the side"
- Indexes combine through the bind rule


## Changes to the type system

New types

$$
\mathcal{T} \ni \tau:=\cdots \mid \bigcirc_{\alpha} \tau \quad(\alpha \in M)
$$

New typing rules

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{return}(e): \bigcirc_{0} \tau} \text { GRETURN } \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \bigcirc_{\alpha} \tau \quad \Gamma, x: \tau \vdash e^{\prime}: \bigcirc_{\beta} \tau^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \text { sample } x=e \text { in } e^{\prime}: \bigcirc_{\alpha+\beta} \tau^{\prime}} \text { GSAMPLE } \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \bigcirc_{\alpha} \quad \alpha \leq \beta}{\Gamma \vdash e: \bigcirc_{\beta}} \text { GSUBTY }
\end{gathered}
$$

## Monadic types: references and further readings

Original papers on probabilistic monadic types

- Ramsey and Pfeffer. Stochastic lambda calculus and monads of probability distributions. POPL 2002.
- Park, Pfenning, and Thrun. A Probabilistic Language based upon Sampling Functions. POPL 2005.

Differential privacy typing

- Key ingredients: (bounded) linear types and a monad
- Reed and Pierce. Distance makes the types grow stronger: a calculus for differential privacy. ICFP 2010.

HOARE ${ }^{2}$ : probabilistic relational properties by typing

- Key ingredients: Refinement types and a graded monad.
- Higher-Order Approximate Relational Refinement Types for Mechanism Design and Differential Privacy. POPL 2015.


## Beyond Monadic Types:

## Two Representative Systems

## Monadic type systems: the good and the bad

The good

- Clean separation between deterministic and randomized
- Always treat variables as values, not distributions

The bad

- Class of properties is limited
- All properties everywhere must be CM (cf. PSL)


## $P C F_{\oplus}$

## Main features

- Makes $\tau$ and $\bigcirc \tau$ the same: no more monad!
- Call-by-value: sample when passing arguments to fn.

What kinds of properties can be expressed in types?

- No monad type, but let-binding rule is similar to SAMPLE
- Seems to need the CM condition


## PCF $\oplus$ : Reading the typing judgment

Judgments look like

$$
x_{1}: \tau_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: \tau_{n} \vdash e: \tau
$$

Reading
For any well-typed closing substitution of values $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ for $x_{1}, \ldots x_{n}$, the expression $e$ evaluates to distribution over $\tau$.

## PPCF

## Main features

- Makes $\tau$ and $\bigcirc \tau$ the same: no more monad!
- Call-by-name: functions can take distributions
- Let-binding construct used to force sampling

What kinds of properties can be expressed in types?

- Function calls don't force sampling
- Let-binding, if-then-else, all force sampling


## PPCF: Reading the typing judgment

Judgments look like

$$
x_{1}: \tau_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: \tau_{n} \vdash e: \tau
$$

## Reading

For any well-typed closing substitution of distributions
$\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{n}$ for $\mu_{1}, \ldots \mu_{n}$, the expression $e$ evaluates to some distribution over $\tau$.
But note that $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{n}$ are entirely separate distributions: draws from $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{n}$ are always independent.

## Many technical extensions

Richer distributions

- Continuous distributions
- Distributions over function spaces

Richer types

- Recursive types, linear types, ...

Richer language features

- Most notably: conditioning constructs ("observe"/"score")


## Higher-order programs: references and readings

## Semantics

- Saheb-Djahromi. CPO's of Measures for Non-determinism. 1979.
- Jones and Plotkin. A Probabilistic Powerdomain of Evaluations. 1989.
- Heunen, Kammar, Staton, Yang. A Convenient Category for Higher-Order Probability Theory. 2017.

Type systems

- PCF $_{\oplus}$ : Dal Lago (https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108770750.005)
- PPCF: Erhard, Pagani, Tasson. Measurable Cones and Stable, Measurable Functions. 2018.
- Darais, Sweet, Liu, Hicks. A language for probabilistically oblivious computation. POPL 2020.


## Reasoning about Probabilistic Programs

Wrapping up

## Day 1: Introducing Probabilistic Programs

- Motivations and key questions
- Mathematical preliminaries

Day 2: First-Order Programs 1

- Probabilistic While language, monadic semantics
- Weakest pre-expectation calculus

Day 3: First-Order Programs 2

- Probabilistic While language, transformer semantics
- Probabilistic separation logic

Day 4: Higher-Order Programs

- Type system: probability monad
- Type system: probabilistic PCF


## Main takeaways

There are multiple semantics for probabilistic programs

- We saw: monadic semantics, and transformer semantics
- Choice of semantics influences what verification is possible

Standard verification methods, to probabilistic programs

- Weakest pre-conditions to weakest pre-expectations
- Separation logic to Probabilistic separation logic
- Type systems, monads, ...

Verification currently better for imperative programs

- Wide variety of Hoare logics proving interesting properties
- Type systems for probabilistic programs: active research


## Where to go next

## More semantics

- Lots of recent research on categorical semantics (e.g., QBS)

Learn about conditioning

- Mostly implementation (hard), but recently verification too


## Verifying specific properties

- Expected running time, probabilistic termination, ...


## Interesting applications

- Cryptography, differential privacy, machine learning, ...

Read: Foundations of Probabilistic Programming

- Open-access book, 15 chapters by leading researchers
https ://doi.org/10.1017/9781108770750


## Reasoning about Probabilistic Programs

Oregon PL Summer School 2021

