
Stochastic Process Semantics for Dynamical Grammar Syntax: An Overview

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Abstract

We define a class of probabilistic models in terms of an operator algebra of stochastic processes, and a representation for this class in terms of stochastic parameterized grammars. A syntactic specification of a grammar is mapped to semantics given in terms of a ring of operators, so that grammatical composition corresponds to operator addition or multiplication. The operators are generators for the time-evolution of stochastic processes. Within this modeling framework one can express data clustering models, logic programs, ordinary and stochastic differential equations, graph grammars, and stochastic chemical reaction kinetics. This mathematical formulation connects these apparently distant fields to one another and to mathematical methods from quantum field theory and operator algebra.

1 Introduction

Probabilistic models of application domains are central to pattern recognition, machine learning, and scientific modeling in various fields. Consequently, unifying frameworks are likely to be fruitful for one or more of these fields. There are also more technical motivations for pursuing the unification of diverse model types. In multiscale modeling, models of the same system at different scales can have fundamentally different characteristics (e.g. deterministic vs. stochastic) and yet must be placed in a single modeling framework. In machine learning, automated search over a wide variety of model types may be of great advantage. In this paper we propose Stochastic Parameterized Grammars (SPG's) and their generalization to Dynamical Grammars (DG's) as such a unifying framework. To this end we define mathematically both the syntax and the semantics of this formal modeling language.

The essential idea is that there is a “pool” of fully specified parameter-bearing terms such as $\{bacterium(x), macrophage(y), redbloodcell(z)\}$ where x, y and z might be position vectors. A grammar can include rules such as

$$\{bacterium(x), macrophage(y)\} \rightarrow macrophage(y) \text{ with } \rho(\|x - y\|)$$

which specify the probability per unit time, ρ , that the macrophage ingests and destroys the bacterium as a function of the distance $\|x - y\|$ between their centers. Sets of such rules are a natural way to specify many processes. We will map such grammars to stochastic processes in both continuous time (Section 3.2) and discrete time (Section 3.3), and relate the two definitions (Section 3.5). A key feature of the semantics maps is that they are naturally defined in terms of an algebraic *ring* of time evolution operators: they map operator addition and multiplication into independent or strongly dependent compositions of stochastic processes, respectively.

The stochastic process semantics defined here is a mathematical, algebraic object. It is independent of any particular simulation algorithm, though we will discuss (Section 3.4) a powerful technique for generating simulation algorithms, and we will demonstrate (Section 4.2) the interpretation of certain subclasses of SPG's as a logic programming language. Other applications that will be demonstrated are to data clustering ([1]), chemical reaction kinetics (Section 4.1), graph grammars and string grammars (Section 4.3), systems of ordinary differential equations and systems of stochastic differential equations (Section 4.4). Other frameworks that describe model classes that may overlap with those described here are numerous and include: branching or birth-and-death processes, marked point processes,

MGS modeling language using topological cell complexes, interacting particle systems, the BLOG probabilistic object model, adaptive mesh refinement with rewrite rules, stochastic pi-calculus, and colored Petri Nets. The mapping $\Psi_{c/d}$ to an operator algebra of stochastic processes, however, appears to be novel.

The present paper is an abbreviated summary of [1].

2 Syntax Definition

Consider the rewrite rule

$$A_1(x_1), A_2(x_2), \dots, A_n(x_n) \rightarrow B_1(y_1), B_2(y_2), \dots, B_m(y_m) \text{ with } \rho(\{x_i\}, \{y_j\}) \quad (1)$$

where the A_k and B_l denote symbols τ_a chosen from an arbitrary alphabet set $\mathcal{T} = \{\tau_a | a \in \mathcal{A}\}$ of “types”. In addition these type symbols carry expressions for parameters x_i or y_j chosen from a base language $\mathcal{L}_P(i)$ defined below. The A ’s can appear in any order, as can the B ’s. Different A ’s and B ’s appearing in the rule can denote the same alphabet symbol τ_a , with equal or unequal parameter values x_i or y_j . ρ is a nonnegative function, assumed to be denoted by an expression in a base language \mathcal{L}_R defined below, and also assumed to be an element of a vector space \mathcal{F} of real-valued functions. Informally, ρ is interpreted as a nonnegative probability rate: the independent probability per unit time that any possible instantiation of the rule will “fire” if its left hand side precondition remains continuously satisfied for a small time. This interpretation will be formalized in the semantics.

We now define $\mathcal{L}_P(i)$. Each term $A_i(x_i)$ or $B_j(y_j)$ is of type τ_a and its parameters x_i take values in an associated (ordered) Cartesian product set V_a of d_a factor spaces chosen (possibly with repetition) from a set of base spaces $\mathcal{D} = \{D_b | b \in \mathcal{B}\}$. Each D_b is a measure space with measure μ_b . Particular D_b may for example be isomorphic to the integers \mathbb{Z} with counting measure, or the real numbers \mathbb{R} with Lebesgue measure. The ordered choice of spaces D_b in $V_a = \prod_{k=1}^{d_a} D_{b=\sigma(ak)}$ constitutes the type signature $\{\sigma_{ak} \in \mathcal{B} | 1 \leq k \leq d_a\}$ of type τ_a . (As an aside, polymorphic argument type signatures are supported by defining a derived type signature $\{\sigma_{akb} = (D_b \subseteq D_{\sigma(ak)}) \in \{T, F\} | 1 \leq k \leq d_a, b \in \mathcal{B}\}$. For example we can regard \mathbb{Z} as a subset of \mathbb{R} .) Correspondingly, parameter expressions x_i are tuples of length d_a , such that each component x_{ik} is either a constant in the space $D_{b=\sigma(ak)}$, or a variable $X_c (c \in \mathcal{C})$ that is restricted to taking values in that same space $D_{b(c)}$. The variables that appear in a rule this way may be repeated any number of times in parameter expressions x_i or y_j within a rule, providing only that all components x_{ik} take values in the same space $D_{b=\sigma(ak)}$. A *substitution* $\theta : c \mapsto D_{b(c)}$ of values for variables X_c assigns the same value to all appearances of each variable X_c within a rule. Hence each parameter expression x_i takes values in a fixed tuple space V_a under any substitution θ . This defines the language $\mathcal{L}_P(i)$.

We now constrain the language \mathcal{L}_R . Each nonnegative function $\rho((x_i), (y_j))$ is a probability rate: the independent probability per unit time that any particular instantiation of the rule will fire, assuming its precondition remains continuously satisfied for a small interval of time. It is a function only of the parameter values denoted by (x_i) and (y_j) , and not of time. Each ρ is denoted by an expression in a base language \mathcal{L}_R that is closed under addition and multiplication and contains a countable field of constants, dense in \mathbb{R} , such as the rationals or the algebraic numbers. ρ is assumed to be a nonnegative-valued function in a Banach space $\mathcal{F}(V)$ of real-valued functions defined on the Cartesian product space V of all the value spaces $V_{a(i)}$ of the terms appearing in the rule, taken in a standardized order such as nondecreasing order of type index a on the left hand side followed by nondecreasing order of type index a on the right hand side of the rule. Provided \mathcal{L}_R is expressive enough, it is possible to factor $\rho_r((x_i), (y_j))$ within \mathcal{L}_R as a product $\rho_r = \rho_r^{\text{pure}}((x_i)) \text{Pr}_r((y_j)|(x_i))$ of a conditional distribution on output parameters given input parameters $\text{Pr}_r((y_j)|(x_i))$ and a total probability rate $\rho_r^{\text{pure}}((x_i))$ as a function of input parameters only.

With these definitions we can use a more compact notation by eliminating the A ’s and B ’s, which denote types, in favor of the types themselves. (The expression $\tau_i(x_i)$ is called a parameterized *term*, which can match to a parameter-bearing *object* or *term instance* in a “pool” of such objects.) The caveat is that a particular type τ_i may appear any finite number of times, and indeed a particular parameterized term $\tau_i(x_i)$ may appear any finite number of times. So we use multisets $\{\dots \tau_{a(i)}(x_i) \dots\}_*$ (in which the same object $\tau_{a(i)}(x_i)$ may appear as the value of several different indices i) for both the LHS and RHS (Left Hand Side and Right Hand Side) of a rule:

$$\{\tau_{a(i)}(x_i) | i \in \mathcal{I}_L\}_* \rightarrow \{\tau_{a'(j)}(y_j) | j \in \mathcal{I}_R\}_* \text{ with } \rho_r((x_i), (y_j)) \quad (2)$$

Here the same object $\tau_{a(i)}(x_i)$ may appear as the value of several different indices i under the mappings $i \mapsto (a(i), x_i)$ and/or $i \mapsto (a'(i), y_i)$. Finally we introduce the shorthand notation $\tau_i = \tau_{a(i)}$ and $\tau'_j = \tau_{a'(j)}$, and revert to the standard notation $\{\}$ for multisets; then we may write $\{\tau_i(x_i)\} \rightarrow \{\tau'_j(y_j)\} \text{ with } \rho_r((x_i), (y_j))$.

In addition to the **with** clause of a rule following the LHS→RHS header, several other alternative clauses can be used and have translations into **with** clauses. For example, “**subject to** $f(x, y)$ ” is translated into “**with** $\delta(f(x, y))$ ” where δ is an appropriate Dirac or Kronecker delta function that enforces a constraint $f(x, y) = 0$. Other examples are given in [1]. The translation of “**solving** e ” or “**solve** e ” will be defined in terms of **with** clauses in Section 4.4. As a matter of definition, Stochastic Parameterized Grammars do not contain **solving/solve** clauses, but Dynamical Grammars may include them. There exists a preliminary implementation of an interpreter for most of this syntax in the form of a *Mathematica* notebook, which draws samples according to the semantics of Section 3 below.

A Stochastic Parameterized Grammar (SPG) Γ consists of (minimally) a collection of such rules with common type set \mathcal{T} , base space set \mathcal{D} , type signature specification σ , and probability rate language \mathcal{L}_R . After defining the semantics of such grammars, it will be possible to define semantically equivalent classes of SPG’s that are untyped or that have richer argument languages $\mathcal{L}_P(i)$.

3 Semantic Maps

We provide a semantics function $\Psi_c(\Gamma)$ in terms of an operator algebra that results in a *stochastic process*, if it exists, or a special “undefined” element if the stochastic process doesn’t exist. The stochastic process is defined by a very high-dimensional differential equation (the Master Equation) for the evolution of a probability distribution in continuous time. On the other hand we will also provide a semantics function $\Psi_d(\Gamma)$ that results in a discrete-time stochastic process for the same grammar, in the form of an operator that evolves the probability distribution forward by one discrete rule-firing event. In each case the stochastic process specifies the time evolution of a probability distribution over the contents of a “pool” of grounded parameterized terms $\tau_a(x_a)$ that can each be present in the pool with any allowed multiplicity from zero to n_a^{\max} . We will relate these two alternative “meanings” of an SPG, $\Psi_c(\Gamma)$ in continuous time and $\Psi_d(\Gamma)$ in discrete time.

A state of the “pool of term instances” is defined as an integer-valued function n : the “copy number” $n_a(x_a) \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ of parameterized terms $\tau_a(x_a)$ that are grounded (have no variable symbols X_c), for any combination $(a, x_a) \in \mathcal{V} = \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} a \otimes V_a$ of type index $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and parameter value $x_a \in V_a$. We denote this state by the “indexed set” notation for such functions, $\{n_a(x)\}$. Each type τ_a may be assigned a maximum value $n_a^{(\max)}$ for all $n_a(x_a)$, commonly ∞ (no constraint on copy numbers) or 1 (so $n_a(x_a) \in \{0, 1\}$ which means each term-value combination is simply present or absent). The state of the full system at time t is defined as a probability distribution on all possible values of this (already large) pool state: $\Pr(\{n_a(x_a) | (a, x_a) \in \mathcal{V}\}; t) \equiv \Pr(\{n_a(x_a)\}; t)$. The probability distribution that puts all probability density on a particular pool state $\{n_a(x_a)\}$ is denoted $|\{n_a(x_a)\}\rangle$.

For continuous-time we define the semantics $\Psi_c(\Gamma)$ of our grammar as the solution, if it exists, of the Master Equation $d\Pr(t)/dt = H \cdot \Pr(t)$, which can be written out as:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \Pr(\{n_a(x)\}; t) = \sum_{\{m_a(x)\}} H_{\{n\}\{m\}} \Pr(\{m_a(x)\}; t) \quad (3)$$

and which has the formal solution $\Pr(t) = \exp(tH) \cdot \Pr(0)$.

For discrete-time semantics $\Psi_d(\Gamma)$ there is an linear map \hat{H} which evolves unnormalized probabilities forward by one rule-firing time step. The probabilities must of course be normalized, so that after s discrete time steps the probability is:

$$\Pr(s) = c_n \hat{H}^s \cdot \Pr(0) = \left(\hat{H}^s \cdot \Pr(0) \right) / \left(\mathbf{1} \cdot \hat{H}^s \cdot \Pr(0) \right) \quad (4)$$

which, taken over all $s \geq 0$ and $\Pr(\{n_a(x)\}; 0)$, defines $\Psi_d(\Gamma)$. In both cases the long-time evolution of the system may converge to a limiting distribution $\Psi_c^*(\Gamma) \cdot \Pr(0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\{n_a(x)\}; t)$ which is a key feature of the semantics, but we do not define the semantics $\Psi_{c/d}(\Gamma)$ as being only this limit even if it exists. Thus semantics-preserving transformations of grammars are fixedpoint-preserving transformations of grammars but the converse may not be true.

The Master Equation is completely determined by the *generators* H and \hat{H} which in turn are simply composed from elementary operators acting on the space of such probability distributions. They are elements of the operator polynomial ring $\mathbb{R}[\{B_\alpha\}]$ defined over a set of basis operators $\{B_\alpha\}$ in terms of operator addition, scalar multiplication, and noncommutative operator multiplication. These basis operators $\{B_\alpha\}$ provide elementary manipulations of the copy numbers $n_a(x)$.

3.1 Operator algebra

The simplest basis operators $\{B_\alpha\}$ are elementary creation operators $\{\hat{a}_\alpha(x)|a \in \mathcal{A} \wedge x \in V_\alpha\}$ and annihilation operators $\{a_\alpha(x)|a \in \mathcal{A} \wedge x \in V_\alpha\}$ that increase or decrease each copy number $n_\alpha(x)$ in a particular way (reviewed in [2]):

$$\hat{a}_\alpha(x)|\{n_b(y)\} = |\{n_b(y) + \delta_K(a, b)\delta_K(x, y)\} \rangle \quad (5)$$

$$a_\alpha(x)|\{n_b(y)\} = n_\alpha(x)|\{n_b(y) - \delta_K(a, b)\delta_K(x, y)\} \rangle \quad (6)$$

where $\delta_K(x, y)$ is the Kronecker delta function. These two operator types then generate $N_\alpha(x) = \hat{a}_\alpha(x)a_\alpha(x)$:

$$N_\alpha(x)|\{n_b(y)\} = \hat{a}_\alpha(x)a_\alpha(x)|\{n_b(y)\} = n_\alpha(x)|\{n_b(y)\} .$$

We can write these operators \hat{a}, a as finite or infinite dimensional matrices depending on the maximum copy number $n_\alpha^{(\max)}$ for type τ_α . If $n_\alpha^{(\max)}=1$ (for a fermionic term), and we omit the type which are all assumed equal below, then

$$\hat{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \hat{a}a = N \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Likewise if $n_\alpha^{(\max)}=\infty$ (for a bosonic term), $\hat{a} = \delta_{n, m+1}$ and $a = m\delta_{n+1, m}$. By truncating this matrix to finite size $n^{(\max)} < \infty$ we may compute that for some polynomial $Q(N|n^{(\max)})$ of degree $n^{(\max)}-1$ in N with rational coefficients,

$$[a(x), \hat{a}(y)] = \delta(x - y)[I + NQ(N|n^{(\max)})]$$

where δ is the Dirac delta (generalized) function appropriate to the (product) measure μ on the relevant value space V . Eg. if $n^{(\max)}=1$ then $Q = -2$; if $n^{(\max)}=\infty$ then $Q = 0$.

3.2 Continuous-time semantics

For a grammar rule number “ r ” of the form of (Equation 2) we define the operator that first (instantaneously) destroys all parameterized terms on the LHS and then (immediately and instantaneously) creates all parameterized terms on the RHS. This happens independently of time or other terms in the pool. Assuming that the parameter expressions x, y contain no variables X_c , the effect of this event is:

$$\hat{O}_r = \rho_r((x_i), (y_j)) \left[\prod_{i \in \text{rhs}(r)} \hat{a}_{a(i)}(x_i) \right] \left[\prod_{j \in \text{lhs}(r)} a_{b(j)}(y_j) \right] \quad (7)$$

If there are variables $\{X_c\}$, we must sum or integrate over all their possible values in $\bigotimes_c D_{b(c)}$:

$$\hat{O}_r = \int_{D_{b(1)}} \dots \int_{D_{b(c)}} \dots \left(\prod_c d\mu_{b(c)}(X_c) \right) \rho_r((x_i(\{X_c\})), (y_j(\{X_c\}))) \left[\prod_{i \in \text{rhs}(r)} \hat{a}_{a(i)}(x_i(\{X_c\})) \right] \left[\prod_{j \in \text{lhs}(r)} a_{b(j)}(y_j(\{X_c\})) \right] \quad (8)$$

Thus, syntactic variable-binding has the semantics of multiple integration. A “monotonic rule” has all its LHS terms appear also on the RHS, so that nothing is destroyed. Unfortunately \hat{O}_r doesn’t conserve probability because probability inflow to new states (described by \hat{O}_r) must be balanced by outflow from current state (diagonal matrix elements). The following operator conserves probability: $O_r = \hat{O}_r - \text{diag}(1^T \cdot \hat{O}_r)$.

For the entire grammar the time evolution operator is simply a sum of the generators for each rule:

$$H = \sum_r O_r = \sum_r \hat{O}_r - \sum_r \text{diag}(1^T \cdot \hat{O}_r) = \hat{H} - D \quad (9)$$

This superposition implements the basic principle that every possible rule firing is an exponential process, all happening in parallel until a firing occurs. Note that (Equation 7), (Equation 8) and $\hat{H} = \sum_r \hat{O}_r$ are encompassed by

the polynomial ring $\mathbb{R}[\{B_\alpha\}]$ where the basis operators include all creation and annihilation operators. Ring addition (as in Equation 9 or Equation 8) corresponds to independently firing processes; ring operator multiplication (as in Equation 7) corresponds to obligatory event co-occurrence of the constituent events that define a process, in immediate succession, and nonnegative scalar multiplication corresponds to speeding up or slowing down a process. Commutation relations between operators describe the exact extent to which the order of event occurrence matters.

3.3 Discrete-time SPG semantics

The operator \hat{H} describes the flow of probability per unit time, over an infinitesimal time interval, into new states resulting from a single rule-firing of any type. If we condition the probability distribution on a single rule having fired, setting aside the probability weight for all other possibilities, the normalized distribution is $c_1 \hat{H} \cdot p_0 = (\hat{H} \cdot p_0) / (\mathbf{1} \cdot \hat{H} \cdot p_0)$. Iterating, the state of the discrete-time grammar after s rule firing steps is Ψ_d as given by (Equation 4), where $\hat{H} = \sum_r \hat{O}_r$ as before. The normalization can be state-dependent and hence dependent on s , so $c_s \neq c^s$. This is a critical distinction between stochastic grammar and Markov chain models, for which $c_s = c^s$. An execution algorithm is directly expressed by (Equation 4).

3.4 Time-ordered product expansion

An indispensable tool for studying such stochastic processes in physics is the time-ordered product expansion [3]. We use the following form:

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(tH) \cdot p_0 &= \exp(t(H_0 + H_1)) \cdot p_0 \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[\int_0^t dt_1 \int_{t_1}^t dt_2 \cdots \int_{t_{n-1}}^t dt_n \exp((t - t_n)H_0) H_1 \exp((t_n - t_{n-1})H_0) \cdots H_1 \exp(t_1 H_0) \right] \cdot p_0 \quad (10) \end{aligned}$$

where H_0 is a solvable or easily computable part of H , so the exponentials $\exp(tH_0)$ can be computed or sampled more easily than $\exp(tH)$. This expression can be used to generate Feynman diagram expansions, in which n denotes the number of interaction vertices in a graph representing a multi-object history. If we apply (Equation 10) with $H_1 = \hat{H}$ and $H_0 = -D$, we derive the well-known Gillespie algorithm for simulating chemical reaction networks [4], which can now be applied to SPG's. However many other decompositions of H are possible, one of which is used in Section 4.4 below. Because the operators H can be decomposed in many ways, there are many valid simulation algorithms for each stochastic process. The particular formulation of the time-ordered product expansion used in (Equation 10) has the advantage of being recursively self-applicable.

Thus, (Equation 10) entails a systematic approach to the creation of novel simulation algorithms.

3.5 Relation between semantic maps

Proposition. Given the stochastic parameterized grammar (SPG) rule syntax of Equation 2,

(a) There is a semantic function Ψ_c mapping from any continuous-time, context sensitive, stochastic parameterized grammar Γ via a time evolution operator $H(\hat{H}(\Gamma))$ to a joint probability density function on the parameter values and birth/death times of grammar terms, conditioned on the total elapsed time, t .

(b) There is a semantic function Ψ_d mapping any discrete-time, sequential-firing, context sensitive, stochastic parameterized grammar Γ via a time evolution operator $\hat{H}(\Gamma)$ to a joint probability density function on the parameter values and birth/death times of grammar terms, conditioned on the total discrete time defined as number of rule firings, s .

(c) The short-time limit of the density $\Psi_c(\Gamma)$ conditioned on $t \rightarrow 0$ and conditioned on s is equal to $\Psi_d(\Gamma)$.

Proof: (a): Section 3.2. (b): Section 3.3. (c) Equation 10 (details in [8], [1]).

3.6 Discussion: Transformations of SPG's

Given a new kind of mathematical object (here, SPG's or DG's) it is generally productive in mathematics to consider the transformations of such objects (mappings from one object to another or to itself) that preserve key properties. Examples include transformational geometry (groups acting on lines and points) and functors acting on categories. In the

case of SPG's, two possibilities for the preserved property are immediately salient. First, an SPG syntactic transformation $\Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma'$ could preserve the semantics $\Psi(\Gamma) = \Psi(\Gamma')$ either fully or just in fixed point form: $\Psi^*(\Gamma) = \Psi^*(\Gamma')$. Preserving the full semantics would be required of a simulation algorithm. Alternatively, an inference algorithm could preserve a joint probability distribution on unobserved and observed random variables, in the form of Bayes' rule,

$$Pr_{\Gamma}(out, internal|in)Pr(in) = Pr(in, internal, out) = Pr_{\text{Inference}}(in, internal|out)Pr(out)$$

where $(in, internal, out)$ are collections of parameterized terms that are inputs to, internal to, and outputs from the grammar Γ respectively..

4 Examples and Reductions

A number of other frameworks and formalisms can be expressed or reduced to SPGs as just defined. For example, data clustering models are easily and flexibly described [1]. We give a sampling here.

4.1 Biochemical reaction networks

Given the chemical reaction network syntax

$$\left\{ m_a^{(r)} A_a | 1 \leq a \leq A_{\max} \right\} \xrightarrow{k^{(r)}} \left\{ n_b^{(r)} A_b | 1 \leq a \leq A_{\max} \right\}, \quad (11)$$

define an index mapping $a(i) = \sum_{c=1}^{A_{\max}} c \Theta(\sum_{d=1}^{c-1} m_d^{(r)} < i \leq \sum_{d=1}^c m_d^{(r)})$ and likewise for $b(j)$ as a function of $\{n_b^{(r)}\}$.

Then (Equation 11) can be translated to the following equivalent grammar syntax for the multisets of parameterless terms

$$\left\{ \tau_{a(i)} | 0 < i \leq \sum_{c=1}^{A_{\max}} m_c^{(r)} \right\}_* \rightarrow \left\{ \tau_{a'(j)} | 0 < j \leq \sum_{c=1}^{A_{\max}} n_c^{(r)} \right\}_* \quad \text{with } k^{(r)}$$

whose semantics is the time-evolution generator

$$\hat{O}_r = k^{(r)} \left[\prod_{i \in \text{rhs}(r)} \hat{a}_{a(i)} \right] \left[\prod_{j \in \text{lhs}(r)} a_{b(j)} \right]. \quad (12)$$

This generator is equivalent to the stochastic process model of mass-action kinetics for the chemical reaction network (Equation 11).

4.2 Logic programs

Consider a logic program (e.g. in pure Prolog) consisting of Horn clauses of positive literals

$$p_1 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n \Rightarrow q, n \geq 0.$$

Axioms have $n = 0$. We can *translate* each such clause into a monotonic SPG rule

$$p_1, \dots, p_n \rightarrow q, p_1, \dots, p_n \quad (13)$$

where each different literal p_i or q denotes an unparameterized type τ_a with $n_a \in \{0, \dots, n_a^{\max}\} = \{0, 1\}$. Since there is no **with** clause, the rule firing rates default to $\rho = 1$. The corresponding time-evolution operator is

$$\hat{H} = \sum_r \hat{O}_r = \sum_r \left[\prod_{i \in \text{rhs}(r) \setminus \text{lhs}(r)} \hat{a}_{a(i)} \right] \left[\prod_{j \in \text{lhs}(r)} N_{b(j)} \right] \quad (14)$$

The semantics of the logic program is its least model or minimal interpretation. It can be computed (Knaster-Tarski theorem) by starting with no literals in the "pool" and repeatedly drawing all their consequences according to the logic program. This is equivalent to converging to a fixed point $\Psi^*(\Gamma) \cdot |0\rangle$ of the grammar consisting of rules of (Equation 13).

More general clauses include negative literals $\neg r$ on the LHS, as $p_1 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n \wedge \neg r_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \neg r_m \Rightarrow q$, or even more general cardinality constraint atoms $0 \leq l \leq |Z| = \sum_{i \in A} \Theta(p_i) \leq u \leq \infty$ [5]. These constraints can be expressed in operator algebra by expanding the basis operator set $\{B_\alpha\}$ beyond the basic creation and annihilation operators [1]. Finally, atoms with function symbols may be admitted using parameterized terms $\tau_a(x)$.

4.3 Graph grammars

Graph grammars are composed of local rewrite rules for graphs (see for example [6]). We now express a class of graph grammars in terms of SPG's. The following syntax introduces Object Identifier (OID) labels L_i for each parameterized term, and allows labelled terms to point to one another through a graph of such labels. The graph is related to two subgraphs of neighborhood indices $N(i, \sigma)$ and $N'(j, \sigma)$ specific to the input and output sides of a rule. Like types or variables, the label symbols appearing in a rule are chosen from an alphabet $\{L_\lambda | \lambda \in \Lambda\}$. Unlike types but like variables X_c , the label symbols $L_{\lambda(i)}$ actually denote nonnegative integer values - unique addresses or object identifiers.

A graph grammar rule is of the form, for some nonnegative-integer-valued functions $\lambda(i)$, $\lambda'(j)$, $N(i, \sigma)$, $N'(j, \sigma)$ for which $(\lambda(i) = \lambda(j)) \Rightarrow (i = j)$, $(\lambda'(i) = \lambda'(j)) \Rightarrow (i = j)$:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\{ L_{\lambda(i)} := \tau_i(x_{a(i)}; (L_{N(i, \sigma)} | \sigma \in 1.. \sigma_{a(i)}^{\max})) | i \in \mathcal{I} \right\} \rightarrow \left\{ L_{\lambda(i)} | i \in \mathcal{I}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{I} \right\} \\ & \cup \left\{ L_{\lambda'(j)} := \tau_j(x'_{a'(j)}; (L_{N'(j, \sigma)} | \sigma \in 1.. \sigma_{a'(j)}^{\max})) | j \in \mathcal{J} \right\} \textbf{with} \rho_r(\{x'_{a'(j)}\} | \{x_{a(i)}\}) \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

(compare to (Equation 2)). Note that the fanout of the graph is limited by $\sigma_i^{\text{cur}} \leq \sigma_{a(i)}^{\max}$. Let \mathcal{I}_1 and \mathcal{I}_2 be mutually exclusive and exhaustive, and the same for \mathcal{J}_1 and \mathcal{J}_2 . Define $\mathcal{I}_1 = \{j \in \mathcal{J} \wedge (\exists i \in \mathcal{I}_2 | \lambda(i) = \lambda'(j))\}$, $\mathcal{I}_2 = \{j \in \mathcal{J} \wedge (\nexists i \in \mathcal{I}_2 | \lambda(i) = \lambda'(j))\}$, and $\mathcal{I}_3 = \{i \in \mathcal{I}_2 \wedge (\nexists j \in \mathcal{J}_1 | \lambda(i) = \lambda'(j))\} \subseteq \mathcal{I}_2$. Then the graph syntax may be translated to the following ordinary non-graph grammar rule (where NextOID is a variable, and OIDGen and Null are types reserved for the translation):

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\{ \tau_{a(i)}(L_{\lambda(i)}, x_{a(i)}, (L_{N(i, \sigma)} | \sigma \in 1.. \sigma_i^{\text{cur}})) | i \in \mathcal{I} \right\}, \text{OIDGen}(\text{NextOID}) \\ & \rightarrow \left\{ \tau_{a(i)}(L_{\lambda(i)}, x_{a(i)}, (L_{N(i, \sigma)} | \sigma \in 1.. \sigma_i^{\text{cur}})) | i \in \mathcal{I}_1 \right\} \\ & \cup \left\{ \tau_{a'(j)}(L_{\lambda'(j)}, x'_{a'(j)}, (L_{N'(j, \sigma)} | \sigma \in 1.. \sigma_j^{\text{cur}})) | j \in \mathcal{J}_1 \wedge (i \in \mathcal{I}_2 \wedge (\lambda(i) = \lambda'(j))) \right\} \\ & \cup \left\{ \tau_{a'(j)}(L_{\lambda'(j)}, x'_{a'(j)}, (L_{N'(j, \sigma)} | \sigma \in 1.. \sigma_j^{\text{cur}})) | j \in \mathcal{J}_2 \right\} \\ & \cup \left\{ \text{Null}(L_{\lambda(i)}) | i \in \mathcal{I}_3 \right\} \cup \left\{ \text{OIDGen}(\text{NextOID} + |\mathcal{J}|) \right\} \\ & \textbf{with} \rho_r(\{x'_{a'(j)}\} | \{x_{a(i)}\}) \prod_{j \in \mathcal{J}_2} \delta_K(L_{\lambda'(j)}, \text{NextOID} + j - 1) \end{aligned}$$

which already has a defined semantics $\Psi_{c/d}$. Note that all set membership tests can be done at translation time because they do not use information that is only available dynamically during the grammar evolution. Optionally we may also add a rule schema (one rule per type, τ_a) to eliminate any dangling pointers [1].

Strings may be encoded as one-dimensional graphs using either a singly or doubly linked list data structure. String rewrite rules are emulated as graph rewrite rules, whose semantics are defined above. This form is capable of handling many L-system grammars [7].

4.4 Stochastic and ordinary differential equations

There are SPG rule forms corresponding to stochastic differential equations governing diffusion and transport. Given the SDE or equivalent Langevin equation (which specializes to a system of ordinary differential equations when $\eta(t) = 0$):

$$dx_i = v_i(\{x_k\})dt + \sigma(\{x_k\})dW \quad \text{or} \quad (16)$$

$$\frac{dx_i}{dt} = v_i(\{x_k\}) + \eta_i(t) \quad (17)$$

under some conditions on the noise term $\eta(t)$ the dynamics can be expressed [3] as a Fokker-Planck equation for the probability distribution $P(\{x\}, t)$:

$$\frac{\partial P(\{x\}, t)}{\partial t} = - \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} v_i(\{x\}) P(\{x\}, t) + \sum_i \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} D_{ij}(\{x\}) P(\{x\}, t) \quad (18)$$

Let $P(\{y\}, t|\{x\}, 0)$ be the solution of this equation given initial condition $P(\{y\}, 0) = \delta(\{y\} - \{x\}) = \prod_k \delta(y_k - x_k)$ (with Dirac delta function appropriate to the particular measure μ used for each component). Then at $t = 0$,

$$\frac{\partial P(\{y\}, 0|\{x\}, 0)}{\partial t} \equiv \rho(\{y_i\}|\{x_i\}) = - \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial y_i} v_i(\{x\}) \delta(\{y\} - \{x\}) + \sum_i \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y_i \partial y_j} D_{ij}(\{x\}) \delta(\{y\} - \{x\})$$

Thus the probability rate $\rho(\{y_i\}|\{x_i\})$ is given by a differential operator acting on a Dirac delta function. By (Equation 8) we construct the evolution generator operators $O_{\text{FP}} = O_{\text{drift}} + O_{\text{diffusion}}$, where

$$O_{\text{drift}} = - \int d\{x\} \int d\{y\} \hat{a}(\{y\}) a(\{x\}) \left(\sum_i \nabla_{y_i} v_i(\{y\}) \prod_k \delta(y_k - x_k) \right)$$

$$O_{\text{diffusion}} = \int d\{x\} \int d\{y\} \hat{a}(\{y\}) a(\{x\}) \left(\sum_{ij} \nabla_{y_i} \nabla_{y_j} D_{ij}(\{y\}) \prod_k \delta(y_k - x_k) \right)$$

The second order derivative terms give diffusion dynamics and also regularize and promote continuity of probability in parameter space both along and transverse to any local drift direction. Calculations with such expressions are shown in [1].

Diffusion/drift rules can be combined with chemical reaction rules to describe reaction-diffusion systems [2]. The foregoing approach can be generalized to encompass partial differential equations and stochastic partial differential equations[1].

These operator expressions all correspond to natural extended-time processes given by the evolution of continuous differential equations. The operator semantics of the differential equations is given in terms of derivatives of delta functions. A special “**solve**” or “**solving**” keyword may be used to introduce such ODE/SDE rule clauses in the SPG syntax. This syntax can be eliminated in favor of a “**with**” clause by using derivatives of delta functions in the rate expression $\rho_{\text{DE}}(\{y_i\}|\{x_i\})$, provided that such generalized functions are in the Banach space $\mathcal{F}(V)$ as a limit of functions. If a grammar includes such DE rules along with non-DE rules, a solver can be used to compute $\exp((t_{n+1} - t_n)O_{\text{FP}})$ in the time-ordered product for $\exp(tH)$ as a hybrid simulation algorithm for discontinuous (jump) stochastic processes combined with stochastic differential equations.

4.5 Discussion: Relevance to artificial intelligence and computational science

The relevance of the modeling language defined here to *artificial intelligence* includes the following points. First, pattern recognition and machine learning both benefit foundationally from better, more descriptively adequate probabilistic domain models. As an example, [1] exhibits hierarchical clustering data models expressed very simply in terms of SPG’s and relates them to recent work. Graphical models are probabilistic domain models with a fixed structure of variables and their relationships, by contrast with the inherently flexible variable sets and dependency structures resulting from the execution of stochastic parameterized grammars. Thus SPG’s, unlike graphical models, are Variable-Structure Systems (defined in [8]), and consequently they can support compositional description of complex situations such as multiple object tracking in the presence of cell division in biological imagery [9]. Second, the reduction of many divergent styles of model to a common SPG syntax and operator algebra semantics enables new possibilities for hybrid model forms. For example one could combine logic programming with probability distribution models, or discrete-event stochastic and differential equation models as discussed in Section 4.4 in possibly new ways.

As a third point of AI relevance, from SPG probabilistic domain models it is possible to derive *algorithms* for simulation (as in Section 3.4) and inference either by hand or automatically. Of course, inference algorithms are not as well worked out yet for SPG’s as for graphical models. SPG’s have the advantage that simulation or inference algorithms could be expressed again in the form of SPG’s, a possibility demonstrated in part by the encoding of logic programs as SPG’s. Since both model and algorithm are expressed as SPG’s, it is possible to use SPG transformations that preserve relevant quantities (Section 3.6) as a technique for deriving such novel algorithms or generating them automatically. For example we have taken this approach to rederive by hand the Gillespie simulation algorithm for chemical kinetics. This derivation is different from the one in Section 3.4. Because SPG’s encompass graph grammars it is even possible in principle to express families of valid SPG transformations as meta-SPG’s. All of these points apply *a fortiori* to Dynamical Grammars as well.

The relevance of the modeling language defined here to *computational science* includes the following points. First, as argued previously, multiscale models must encompass and unify heterogeneous model types such as dis-

crete/continuous or stochastic/deterministic dynamical models; this unification is provided by SPG's and DG's. Second, a representationally adequate computerized modeling language can be of great assistance in constructing mathematical models in science, as demonstrated for biological regulatory network models by Cellerator [10] and other cell modeling languages. DG's extend this promise to more complex, spatiotemporally dynamic, variable-structure system models such as occur in biological development. Third, machine learning techniques could in principle be applied to find simplified approximate or reduced models of emergent phenomena within complex domain models. In that case the forgoing AI arguments apply to computational science applications of machine learning as well.

Both for artificial intelligence and computational science, future work will be required to determine whether the prospects outlined above are both realizable and compelling. The present work is intended to provide a mathematical foundation for achieving that goal.

5 Conclusion

We have established a syntax and semantics for a probabilistic modeling language based on independent processes leading to events linked by a shared set of objects. The semantics is based on a polynomial ring of time-evolution operators. The syntax is in the form of a set of rewrite rules. Stochastic Parameterized Grammars expressed in this language can compactly encode disparate models: generative cluster data models, biochemical networks, logic programs, graph grammars, string rewrite grammars, and stochastic differential equations among other others. The time-ordered product expansion connects this framework to powerful methods from quantum field theory and operator algebra.

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