Exact Inference for Discrete Probabilistic Programs via Generating Functions

Fabian Zaiser

University of Oxford

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Probabilistic Programming

- Suppose your coworker receives 10 calls per week on average.
- Each call is a scam independently with probability 20%.
- At the end of the week, your coworker is surprised that they got only one scam call.

What is the posterior probability distribution of the number of calls?

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$$\begin{split} &X \sim \mathsf{Poisson}(10) \\ &Y \sim \mathsf{Binomial}(X, 0.2) \\ &\mathsf{observe}\, Y = 1 \end{split}$$

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$$\mathbb{P}[X = x \mid Y = 1] = \frac{\mathbb{P}[X = x] \times \mathbb{P}[Y = 1 \mid X = x]}{\mathbb{P}[Y = 1]}$$

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$$= \text{posterior}$$

Probabilistic program

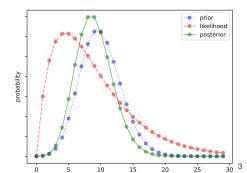
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PSI

SOLVER ^X Outputs a symbolic expression involving infinite sums.

PSI [Gehr et al. 2016]

Probability Mass Functions

 $X\sim \mathcal{D}$ (supported on $\mathbb N$)

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 $(X, Y, Z) \sim \mathcal{D}$ (supported on \mathbb{N}^3)

$$\mathsf{pmf}_{X,Y,Z} : \mathbb{N}^3 \to [0,1]$$
$$x, y, z \mapsto \mathbb{P}[X = x, Y = y, Z = z]$$

Infinite Support

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$$\mathbb{P}[Y=9] = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}[Y=9, X=x] = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}[X=x]\mathbb{P}[Y=9 \mid X=x]$$
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Not computable exactly using probability mass functions!

Probability Generating Functions

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Generating function (aka factorial moment generating function):

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{pgf}_X &: [-1,1] \to \mathbb{R} \\ \mathsf{pgf}_X(t) &= \mathbb{E}[t^X] \quad \text{(discrete & continuous)} \\ &= p(0) + p(1)t + p(2)t^2 + p(3)t^3 + \dots \quad \text{(only discrete)} \\ &\quad \text{where } p(n) = \mathbb{P}[X = n] \end{split}$$

Closed forms for most common distributions:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathsf{Binomial}(n,p) & (pt+1-p)^r\\ \mathsf{NegBinomial}(r,p) & \left(\frac{1-p}{1-pt}\right)^r\\ \mathsf{Geometric}(p) & \frac{p}{1-(1-p)t}\\ \mathsf{Poisson}(\lambda) & e^{\lambda(t-1)} \end{array}$$

Several variables

 $(X, Y, Z) \sim \mathcal{D}$ (supported on \mathbb{N}^3)

Generating function:

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{pgf}_{X,Y,Z} &: [-1,1]^3 \to \mathbb{R} \\ \mathsf{pgf}_{X,Y,Z}(x,y,z) &= \mathbb{E}[x^X y^Y z^Z] \\ &= \sum_{a,b,c \in \mathbb{N}} p(a,b,c) x^a y^b z^c \\ &\quad \text{where } p(a,b,c) = \mathbb{P}[X=a,Y=b,Z=c] \end{split}$$

Getting back the probability mass

Suppose X has generating function $g(t) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} p(n)t^n$.

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Then p(n) are the Taylor coefficients at t = 0, so $p(n) = \frac{g^{(n)}(0)}{n!}$.

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Then $g'(1) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\mathbb{E}[t^X]\big|_{t=1} = \mathbb{E}[X\,t^X]\big|_{t=1} = \mathbb{E}[X].$

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More generally, the factorial moment of order n is:

$$\mathbb{E}[X(X-1)\dots(X-n+1)] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\mathsf{d}^n}{\mathsf{d}t^n}t^X\right]\Big|_{t=1} = g^{(n)}(1)$$

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The variance can be found as:

$$\mathbb{V}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$$

= $\mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[X(X-1)] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$
= $g'(1) + g''(1) - (g'(1))^2$

Summary: Generating Functions

Suppose *X* has generating function $g(t) = \mathbb{E}[t^X]$.

$$\mathbb{P}[X = n] = \frac{g^{(n)}(0)}{n!}$$
$$\mathbb{E}[X(X - 1)\dots(X - n + 1)] = g^{(n)}(1)$$

Summary: Generating Functions

Suppose *X* has generating function $g(t) = \mathbb{E}[t^X]$.

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Take-aways:

- Generating functions are a finite representation of distributions (even with infinite support)
- Can compute mass and moments mechanically
- No computer algebra necessary
- Only need automatic differentiation

Related work using generating functions

Bayesian inference for graphical models:

- Winner et al., NeurIPS 2016: specific graphical model with a closed form for the generating function
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Randomized programs (no conditioning):

- Klinkenberg et al., LOPSTR 2020: analyze discrete randomized programs (no conditioning)
- Chen et al., CAV 2022: check equivalence of a restricted class of discrete randomized programs

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Sampling Affine transform Branching Conditioning Nested inference

$$\begin{split} X_i &\sim \mathcal{D} \\ X_i &:= a X_j + b X_k + c \qquad \text{where } a, b, c \in \mathbb{N} \\ \text{if } X_i &= c \left\{ P_1 \right\} \text{else} \left\{ P_2 \right\} \\ \text{observe } X_i &= c \\ \text{normalize} \left\{ P \right\} \end{split}$$

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Distributions

 $\mathcal{D} \in \{\mathsf{Bernoulli}(p), \mathsf{Binomial}(X_k, p), \mathsf{NegBinomial}(X_k, p), \\ \mathsf{Geometric}(p), \mathsf{Poisson}(\lambda X_k), \mathsf{Uniform}\{X_k..X_k + a\} \\ \mid p \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda \in (0, \infty), a \in \mathbb{N}\}.$

Distributions on program states are represented by their probability mass function, i.e. $\sigma : \mathbb{N}^n \to [0, 1]$ where $\mathcal{V} = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ and $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{N}^n} \sigma(x) \leq 1$.

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Affine transform:

$$\label{eq:constraint} \begin{array}{l} \langle X \mathrel{\mathop:}= aX + bY + c \rangle(\sigma)(x,y) = \sum_{x':ax'+by+c=x} \sigma(x',y). \end{array}$$

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$$\langle X := aX + bY + c \rangle(\sigma)(x, y) = \sum_{x':ax'+by+c=x} \sigma(x', y).$$

Sampling: $\langle X \sim \mathcal{D} \rangle(\sigma)(x,y) = \sum_{a \in \mathbb{N}} \sigma(a,y) \cdot \mathsf{pmf}_{\mathcal{D}}(x).$

Ordinary Transformer Semantics

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 $\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Affine transform: } \llbracket X = aX + bY + c \rrbracket(G)(x,y) = \mathbb{E}[x^{aX+bY+c}y^Y] = \\ \mathbb{E}[(x^a)^X (x^by)^Y] \cdot x^c = G(x^a,x^by) \cdot x^c. \end{array}$

Semantics of Sampling

For a distribution \mathcal{D} with constant parameters [Klinkenberg et al., 2020]:

$$\llbracket X \sim \mathcal{D} \rrbracket(G)(x, y) = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim D}[x^X y^Y]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}[y^Y] \mathbb{E}_{X \sim D}[x^X]$$
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For distributions with random parameters, we find:

$$\begin{split} & \llbracket X \sim \mathsf{Binomial}(Y,p) \rrbracket(G)(x,y) = G(1,y(px+1-p)) & [\mathsf{Winner \ et \ al., 2016}] \\ & \llbracket X \sim \mathsf{NegBinomial}(Y,p) \rrbracket(G)(x,y) = G(1,y\frac{1-p}{1-px}) & \mathsf{new} \\ & \llbracket X \sim \mathsf{Poisson}(\lambda Y) \rrbracket(G)(x,y) = G(1,ye^{\lambda(x-1)}) & \mathsf{new} \end{split}$$

Semantics of Conditioning (new)

$$\begin{split} \llbracket \mathsf{observe} \ X &= c \rrbracket(G)(x, y) \\ &= \mathbb{E}[x^X y^Y \llbracket X = c] \rrbracket \\ &= x^c \mathbb{E}[x^{X-c} y^Y \llbracket X = c] \rrbracket \\ &= \frac{x^c}{c!} \mathbb{E} \left[X(X-1) \dots (X-c+1) x^{X-c} |_{x=0} \cdot y^Y \cdot [X=c] \right] \\ &= \frac{x^c}{c!} \left(\frac{\partial^c}{\partial x^c} \mathbb{E}[x^X y^Y] \right) \bigg|_{x=0} \\ &= \frac{x^c}{c!} \frac{\partial^c}{\partial x^c} G(0, y) \end{split}$$

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Observing a value *c* requires evaluating the *c*-th derivative of the generating function!

Semantics of Normalization [new]

Total probability mass:

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So to normalize a subprogram P:

$$[[normalize \{P\}]](G)(x,y) = \frac{G(1,1)}{[\![P]\!](G)(1,1)} [\![P]\!](G).$$

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• Sampling Binomial: $C(x, y) = B(x(0.2y + 0.8), 1) = \exp(10(x(0.2y + 0.8) - 1)).$

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- Observing Y = 1: $D(x, y) = \frac{1}{1!}y \frac{\partial}{\partial y}C(x, 0) = 2xye^{8x-10}$.

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- Observing Y = 1: $D(x, y) = \frac{1}{1!}y \frac{\partial}{\partial y}C(x, 0) = 2xye^{8x-10}$.
- ▶ Normalizing: $E(x,y) = \frac{A(1,1)}{D(1,1)}D(x,y) = \frac{D(x,y)}{D(1,1)} = xye^{8x-8}$.

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$$\blacktriangleright \mathbb{P}[X=10] = \frac{1}{10!} \frac{\partial^{10}}{\partial x^{10}} E(0,1) = \frac{1048576}{2835} e^{-8}$$

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• $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} E(1, 1) = 9$

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•
$$\mathbb{P}[X = 10] = \frac{1}{10!} \frac{\partial^{10}}{\partial x^{10}} E(0, 1) = \frac{1048576}{2835} e^{-8}$$

• $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} E(1, 1) = 9$

The program

$$X \sim \mathsf{Poisson}(8); X \coloneqq X + 1; Y = 1$$

has the same GF $G(x, y) = xe^{8x-8}y!$

Example 2: Population modeling (HMM)

Modeling animal populations [Winner et al., NeurIPS 2016]:

population := 0;

 $arrivals \sim \mathsf{Poisson}(\lambda);$ $survivors \sim \mathsf{Binomial}(population, \delta);$ $population \coloneqq arrivals + survivors;$ $observed \sim \mathsf{Binomial}(population, \rho);$ $\mathsf{observe} observed = \dots;$

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Example 3: Bayesian change point analysis From the PyMC3 tutorial:

- number of coal mining disasters d_t over the last 100 years
- reason to believe that the rate has changed
- model as Poisson distribution with two different rates.

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```
switchpoint ~ Uniform(0, 100);
\lambda_1 \sim \text{Exponential}(1);
\lambda_2 \sim \text{Exponential}(1);
```

for $t \in \{0, ..., 100\}$ { if $switchpoint \leq t \{obs \sim \mathsf{Poisson}(\lambda_2)\}$ else $\{obs \sim \mathsf{Poisson}(\lambda_1)\}$ observe $obs = d_t$ Example 3: Bayesian change point analysis From the PyMC3 tutorial:

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```
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\lambda_1 \sim \text{Geometric}(0.2);
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```

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- Exponential blowup:
- Size of the generating function can grow exponentially with the constants in the program.
- Heavy use of conditionals can lead to path explosion (but not common in probabilistic models).

Demo of implementation

Limitations

Language features:

- only affine functions (e.g. no X^2)
- only comparisons between variables and constants (e.g. no X = Y)
- only discrete distributions

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Performance:

- worst-case exponential in the constants appearing in the program
- But works well for some models.
- Path explosion with many if statements.

Future Work

- Extensions to loops and recursion (lower bounds should be easy)
- Extension to a higher-order functional language

Generating Functions – Summary

- GFs are a finite closed-form representation for infinite distributions.
- Probability mass and moments can be extracted mechanically from GFs.
- ► No computer algebra needed.
- Needed: autodiff/Taylor expansion.
- Supports many language features: affine transformations, discrete distributions (even with random parameters), conditionals, conditioning, nested inference.
- Practical examples: population modeling & Bayesian change point analysis.
- Implementation promising for practical probabilistic programs.
- Limitations: exponential blowup.

Backup slides

Why only discrete distributions?

- ▶ P[X = n] is uninteresting for continuous distribution (always zero)
- reconstructing the density function from the factorial moment generating function requires solving integrals
- the factorial moment generating function does not exist for all distributions (e.g. Cauchy distribution)
- Observations from continuous distributions cannot be expressed as conditioning on an event (instead it's multiplication by the probability density function).