# Efficient MCMC for Continuous Time Discrete State Systems

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## Overview

- Continuous time discrete state systems: applications in physics, chemistry, genetics, ecology, neuroscience etc.
- The simplest example: the Poisson process on the real line.
- Generalizations: renewal processes, Markov jump processes, continuous time Bayesian networks etc.
- These relate back to the basic Poisson process via the idea of *uniformization*.
- We use this connection to develop tractable models and efficient MCMC sampling algorithms.

# Thinning

Uniformization generalizes the idea of 'thinning'.

Thinning: to sample from a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda(t)$ .

- Sample from a Poisson process with rate  $\Omega > \lambda(t) \ \forall t$ .
- Thin or reject each point with probability  $1 \frac{\lambda(t)}{\Omega}$ .



Follows from the *complete randomness* of the Poisson process.

Markov jump processes or renewal processes are *not* completely random: *Uniformization*—thin points by running a *Markov chain*.

# Uniformization (at a high level)

- Draw from a Poisson process with rate Ω.
- Ω is larger than the fastest rate at which 'events occur'.
- Construct a Markov chain with transition times given by the drawn point set.
- The Markov chain is *subordinated* to the Poisson process.
- Keep a point t with probability  $\lambda(t|state)/\Omega$ .

# Markov jump processes (MJPs)

An MJP  $\mathbf{S}(t)$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$  is a right-continuous piecewise-constant stochastic process taking values in some finite space.  $S = \{1, 2, ...n\}$ . It is parametrized by an *initial distribution*  $\pi$  and a *rate matrix* A.



$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \dots & A_{1n} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \dots & A_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{n1} & A_{n2} & \dots & A_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{c} A_{ij} : \text{ rate of leaving state } i \text{ for } j \\ A_{ij} = -\sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{n} A_{ij} \\ |A_{ii}| : \text{ rate of leaving state } i \end{array}$$

# Uniformization for MJPs

- Alternative to Gillespie's algorithm.
- Sample a set of times from a Poisson process with rate  $\Omega \ge \max_i |A_{ii}|$  on the interval  $[t_{start}, t_{end}]$ .
- Run a discrete time Markov chain with initial distribution  $\pi$  and transition matrix  $B = (I + \frac{1}{\Omega}A)$  on these times.



The matrix *B* allows self-transitions. [Jensen, 1953]

# Uniformization for MJPs [Jensen, 1953]

#### Lemma

For any  $\Omega \ge \max_i |A_{ii}|$ , the (continuous time) sequence of states obtained by the uniformized process is a sample from a MJP with initial distribution  $\pi$  and rate matrix A.

Given noisy observations of an MJP, obtain samples from the posterior.

Observations can include:

- State values at the end points of an interval.
- Observations  $x(t) \sim F(\mathbf{S}(t))$  at a finite set of times t.
- More complicated likelihood functions that depend on the entire trajectory, e.g. Markov modulated Poisson processes and continuous time Bayesian networks (see later).

State space of Gibbs sampler consist of:

- Trajectory of MJP S(t).
- Auxiliary set of points rejected via self-transitions.

[Rao and Teh, 2011a]





- Given current MJP path, we need to resample the set of rejected points. Conditioned on the path, these are:
  - independent of the observations,
  - produced by 'thinning' a rate  $\Omega$  Poisson process with probability  $1 + \frac{A_{s(t)s(t)}}{\Omega}$ ,
  - thus, distributed according to a inhomogeneous Poisson process with piecewise constant rate (Ω + A<sub>S(t)S(t)</sub>).



- Given all potential transition points, the MJP trajectory is resampled using the forward-filtering backward-sampling algorithm.
- The likelihood of the state between 2 successive points must include all observations in that interval.

#### Comments

- Complexity:  $O(n^2 P)$ , where P is the (random) number of points.
- Can take advantage of sparsity in transition rate matrix A.
- Only dependence between successive samples is via the transition times of the trajectory.
- Increasing  $\Omega$  reduces this dependence, but increases computational cost.
- Sampler is ergodic for any  $\Omega > \max_i |A_{ii}|$ .

# Existing approaches to sampling

[Fearnhead and Sherlock, 2006, Hobolth and Stone, 2009] produce *independent* posterior samples, marginalizing over the infinitely many MJP paths using matrix exponentiation.

- scale as  $O(n^3 + n^2 P)$ .
- any structure, e.g. sparsity, in the rate matrix A cannot be exploited in matrix exponentiation.
- cannot be easily extended to complicated likelihood functions (e.g. Markov modulated Poisson processes, continuous time Bayesian networks).

# Continuous-time Bayesian networks (CTBNs)



- Compact representations of large state space MJPs with structured rate matrices.
- Applications include ecology, chemistry , network intrusion detection, human computer interaction etc.
- The rate matrix of a node at time is determined by the configuration of its parents at that time.

[Nodelman et al., 2002]

Gibbs sampling CTBNs via uniformization



- The trajectories of all nodes are piecewise constant.
- In a segment of constant parent (P) values, the dynamics of N are controlled by a fixed rate matrix A<sup>P</sup>.
- Each child (C) trajectory is effectively a *continuous-time* observation.

Gibbs sampling CTBNs via uniformization



- Sample candidate transition times from a Poisson process with rate  $\Omega > A_{ii}^P$ .
- Between two successive Poisson events, N remains in a constant state.
  - This state must account for the likelihood of children nodes' states.
  - The state must also explain relevant observations.
- With the resulting 'likelihood' function and transition matrix  $B = (I + \frac{1}{\Omega}A^P)$ , sample new trajectory using forward-filtering backward-sampling.

# Existing approaches to inference

[El-Hay et al., 2008] describe a Gibbs sampler involving time discretization, which is expensive and approximate.

[Fan and Shelton, 2008] uses particle filtering which can be inaccurate for long time intervals.

[Nodelman et al., 2002, Nodelman et al., 2005, Opper and Sanguinetti, 2007, Cohn et al., 2010] use deterministic approximations (mean-field and expectation propagation) which are biased and can be inaccurate.

- We compare our uniformization-based sampler with a state-of-the-art CTBN Gibbs sampler of [El-Hay et al., 2008]. search on the time interval.
- When comparing running times, we measured times required to produce same effective sample sizes.



The plots above were produced for a CTBN with a chain topology, increasing the number of nodes in the chain (left) and the number of states of each node (right).



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Figure: CPU time vs time interval of CTBN paths.

Figure: Average relative error vs number of samples

Produced for the standard 'drug network'.

Left: required CPU time as length of the time interval increases. Right: (normalized) absolute error in estimated parameters of the network as the (absolute) number of samples increases.

Compared against the mean-field approximation of [Opper and Sanguinetti, 2007], for the predator-prey model, a CTBN describing the Lotka-Volterra equations.



Posterior (mean and 90% confidence intervals) over predator paths (observations (circles) only until 1500).

# Renewal processes

- Renewal processes: point processes on the real line ('time').
- Inter-event times drawn i.i.d. from some *renewal density*.
- Homogeneous Poisson process: exponential renewal density.
- Can capture burstiness or refractoriness.
- Our contribution: modulated renewal processes:
  - Nonstationarity: allow external time-varying factors to modulate the inter-event distribution.
  - We place a (transformed) Gaussian process prior on the intensity function.

[Rao and Teh, 2011b]

# Modulated renewal processes

- Associated with the renewal density g is a hazard function h.
- For an infinitesimal Δ, h(τ)Δ is the probability of the inter-event interval being in [τ, τ + Δ] conditioned on it being at least τ:

$$h( au) = rac{g( au)}{1 - \int_0^ au g(u) du}$$

 Modulate the hazard function by some time-varying intensity function λ(t):

$$h(\tau, t) \equiv m(h(\tau), \lambda(t))$$

- $m(\cdot, \cdot)$  is some interaction function.
- We use multiplicative interactions,  $h(\tau, t) = h(\tau)\lambda(t)$ .
- Another interaction function is additive  $h(\tau, t) = h(\tau) + \lambda(t)$ .

# Modulated renewal processes (continued)

- We place a Gaussian Process prior on the intensity function  $\lambda(t)$ , transformed via a sigmoidal link function.
- We use a gamma family for the hazard function:

$$h(\tau) = \frac{x^{\gamma-1}e^{-x}}{\int_x^\infty u^{\gamma-1}e^{-u}du}$$

where  $\gamma$  is the shape parameter. The generative process is:

$$\begin{split} l(\cdot) &\sim \mathcal{GP}(\mu, K) \\ \lambda(\cdot) &= \hat{\lambda} \sigma(l(\cdot)) \\ G &\sim \mathscr{R}(\lambda(\cdot), h(\cdot)) \end{split}$$

• We place hyperpriors on  $\hat{\lambda}, \gamma$  and the GP hyperparameters

# Direct sampling from prior

The modulated renewal density is:

$$g(\tau|t_{prev}) = \lambda(t_{prev} + \tau)h(\tau)\exp\left(-\int_{0}^{\tau}\lambda(t_{prev} + u)h(u)du
ight)$$

where  $t_{prev}$  is the previous event time.

Naïvely, need to numerically evaluate integrals to generate samples.

• can be time consuming and introduce approximation errors.

# Sampling via uniformization

• Assume the intensity function  $\lambda(t)$  and the hazard function  $h(\tau)$  are bounded

$$\exists \Omega \geq \max_{t,\tau} h(\tau)\lambda(t)$$

- Sample  $E = \{E_0 = 0, E_1, E_2, ...\}$  from a Poisson process with rate  $\Omega$ .
- Let {  $Y_0 = 0, Y_1, Y_2, \ldots$ } be an integer-valued Markov chain on the times in *E*, where each  $Y_i$  either equals  $Y_{i-1}$  or *i*.

• 
$$Y_i = Y_{i-1} \rightarrow \text{reject } E_i$$
,

- $Y_i = i \rightarrow \text{keep } E_i$ .
- *E<sub>i</sub>* − *E<sub>Yi</sub>* : time since the last accepted event. For *i* > *j* ≥ 0, define

$$p(Y_i = i | Y_{i-1} = j) = \frac{h(E_i - E_j)\lambda(E_j)}{\Omega}$$

• Define  $G = \{E_i \in E \text{ s.t. } Y_i = i\}$ .

# Sampling via uniformization

#### Lemma

For any  $\Omega \ge \max_{t,\tau} h(\tau)\lambda(t)$ , G is a sample from a modulated renewal process with hazard  $h(\cdot)$  and modulating intensity  $\lambda(\cdot)$ .

# Sampling via uniformization



Figure: Green: rejected events, Red: sample for a Gamma(3) modulated renewal process.

# Reduction to thinning of Poisson processes

For a Poisson process, the hazard function is a constant:

$$h(\tau) = h$$

Then, the transition probabilities of the Markov chain becomes:

$$p(Y_i = i | Y_{i-1} = j) = \frac{h\lambda(E_j)}{\Omega}$$

This reduces to independent thinning [Adams et al., 2009].

Given a set of event times G, obtain sample from the modulating function  $\lambda(\cdot)$  (and hyperparameters).

As before, directly sampling from the GP posterior is impossible.

Introduce the rejected events as auxiliary variables and proceed by alternately sampling the rejected events given G and the intensity function, and then the intensity function given G and rejected events.

Assume the modulating function  $\lambda(t)$  is known for all t.

In the interval  $(G_{i-1}, G_i)$ , events from a rate  $\Omega$  Poisson process were rejected with probability:

$$1 - rac{\lambda(t)h(t - G_{i-1})}{\Omega}$$

Under the posterior, these rejected events are distributed as an inhomogeneous Poisson process with rate:

$$\Omega - \lambda(t)h(t - G_{i-1})$$

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Catch: we know  $\lambda(t)$  only at a discrete set of times. Use thinning method of GP Cox processes [Adams et al., 2009].

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Catch: we know  $\lambda(t)$  only at a discrete set of times. Use thinning method of GP Cox processes [Adams et al., 2009].

We resample the GP on the events and the rejected points using elliptical slice sampling [Murray et al., 2010].

# Computational considerations

- Complexity:  $O(N^3)$ , where N = |G| + 2|E|, |G| is the number of observations and |E| is the number of rejected points.
- For large *G*, we must resort to approximate inference for Gaussian processes [Rasmussen and Williams, 2006].
- Question: how do these approximations compare with time-discretized approximations like [Cunningham et al., 2008]?

Three synthetic datasets generated by modulating a Gamma(3) renewal process.

- $\lambda_1(t) = 2\exp(t/5) + \exp(-((t-25)/10)^2, t \in [0, 50])$ : 44 events
- $\lambda_2(t) = 5 \sin(t^2) + 6, t \in [0, 5]$ : 12 events
- $\lambda_3(t)$ : a piecewise linear function,  $t \in [0, 100]$ : 153 events

Three settings of our model and a strawman:

- with the shape parameter fixed to 1 (MRP Exp),
- with the shape parameter fixed to 3 (MRP Gam3),
- with a hyperprior on the shape parameter (MRP Full),
- an approximate discrete time sampler on a regular grid covering the interval, all intractable integrals were approximated numerically.



Figure: Synthetic datasets 1-3: Posterior mean intensities (top) and Gamma shape posteriors (bottom). Results from 5000 MCMC samples after a burn-in of 1000 samples.

	MRP Exp	MRP Gam3	MRP Full	Disc25	Disc100
l <sub>2</sub> error	7.85	3.19	2.55	4.09	2.43
log pred.	-47.55	-38.07	-37.37	-41.65	-41.02
l <sub>2</sub> error	141.01	56.22	58.44	91.32	57.9
log pred.	-3.70	-2.95	-3.28	-5.25	-3.85
l <sub>2</sub> error	82.03	11.42	13.44	122.34	38.05
log pred.	-89.88	-48.28	-48.57	87.17	-55.80

Table:  $l_2$  distance from the truth and mean log predictive probabilities of test sets for synthetic datasets 1 (top) to 3 (bottom).

Dataset: the coal mine disaster dataset, recording the dates of a series of 191 coal mining disasters (each of which killed ten or more men [Jarrett, 1979]).



Figure: Left: posterior mean of the intensity function. The posterior for shape parameter was close to 1. Middle and right: results after deleting every alternate event.

Dataset: neural spike train recorded from grasshopper auditory receptor cells [Rokem et al., 2006].



Figure: Left: Posterior mean intensity for neural data with 1 standard deviation error bars. Superimposed is the log stimulus (scaled and shifted). Right: Posterior over the gamma shape parameter.

We compare our uniformization based blocked Gibbs sampler with the sampler of [Adams et al., 2009].

	Synthetic dataset 1					
	Mean ESS	Minimum ESS	Time(sec)			
Gibbs	$93.45\pm6.91$	$50.94 \pm 5.21$	77.85			
MH	$56.37 \pm 10.30$	$19.34\pm11.55$	345.44			
	Coalmine dataset					
	Mean ESS	Minimum ESS	Time(sec)			
Gibbs	$53.54 \pm 8.15$	$24.87\pm7.38$	282.72			
MH	$47.83\pm9.18$	$18.91\pm6.45$	1703			

Table: Sampler comparisons. Numbers are per 1000 samples.

Besides mixing faster our sampler:

- is simpler and more natural to the problem,
- does not require any external tuning.

## Conclusions

- The idea of uniformization relates more complicated continuous time discrete state processes to the basic Poisson process.
- We demonstrated how this connection can be used to develop tractable models and efficient MCMC inference schemes.
- We can look into extending the models we discussed here:
  - renewal processes with unbounded hazard rates,
  - semi-Markov jump processes,
  - inhomogeneous MJPs, MJPs with infinite state spaces etc.
- Other applications we wish to study, such as survival analysis, queuing systems etc.

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V. M. (2006). Spike-Timing Precision Underlies the Coding Efficiency of Auditory Receptor Neurons. Journal of Neurophysiology, pages 2541–2552. **Algorithm 1** Blocked Gibbs sampler for GP-modulated renewal process on the interval [0, T]

Input: Set of event times G, set of thinned times  $\tilde{G}_{prev}$  and I instantiated at  $G \cup \tilde{G}_{prev}$ .

Output: A new set of thinned times  $\tilde{G}_{new}$  and a new instantiation  $I_{G\cup \tilde{G}_{new}}$  of the  $\mathcal{GP}$  on  $G\cup \tilde{G}_{new}$ .

- 1: Sample  $A \subset [0, T]$  from a Poisson process with rate  $\Omega$ .
- 2: Sample  $I_A | I_{G \cup \tilde{G}_{prev}}$ .
- 3: Thin *A*, keeping element  $a \in A \cap [G_{i-1}, G_i]$  with probability  $\left(1 \frac{\hat{\lambda}\sigma(I(a))h(a-G_{i-1})}{\Omega}\right)$ .
- 4: Let  $\tilde{G}_{new}$  be the resulting set and  $I_{\tilde{G}_{new}}$  be the restriction of  $I_A$  to this set. Discard  $\tilde{G}_{prev}$  and  $I_{\tilde{G}_{prev}}$ .
- 5: Resample  $I_{G \cup \tilde{G}_{new}}$  using, for example, elliptical slice sampling.