

Notes on Sequence Modelling

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1 Introduction

blah, blah, blah

2 Random Process Sequences

Consider, in general terms, a random process R that generates a sequence of variables, R_1, R_2, R_3, \dots , where the index i gives the discrete *stage* in the sequence, and each variable R_i randomly takes some value $r_i \in \mathcal{R}$. Then, for some arbitrary sequence length n , we define

$$\vec{R}_n = (R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n) \quad (2.1)$$

to be a length- n process sequence, i.e. $|\vec{R}_n| = n$, and further define

$$\vec{r}_n = (r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n) \in \mathcal{R}^n \quad (2.2)$$

to be a corresponding length- n observation sequence of values. The probability (for a discrete-value process) or probability density (for a continuous-value process) of a given sequence \vec{r}_n is then defined as

$$p(\vec{R}_n = \vec{r}_n) = p(R_1 = r_1, \dots, R_n = r_n). \quad (2.3)$$

Hence, note that if R is a discrete-value process then we must have

$$\sum_{\vec{r}_n \in \mathcal{R}^n} p(\vec{R}_n = \vec{r}_n) = \sum_{r_1 \in \mathcal{R}} \cdots \sum_{r_n \in \mathcal{R}} p(R_1 = r_1, \dots, R_n = r_n) = 1. \quad (2.4)$$

Similarly, if R is a continuous-value process, then we must instead have

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}^n} p(\vec{R}_n = \vec{r}_n) d\vec{r}_n = \int_{\mathcal{R}} \cdots \int_{\mathcal{R}} p(R_1 = r_1, \dots, R_n = r_n) dr_1 \cdots dr_n = 1. \quad (2.5)$$

In other words, given the sequence length n , the set \mathcal{R}^n of all possible sequences \vec{r}_n covers the entire probability space.

This summation property causes modelling problems if we do not know in advance the exact length of a sequence. For example, if the set of all length-1 sequences already covers the entire probability space, and so too does the set of all length-2 sequences, then the set of all length-1 and length-2 sequences covers the space twice over. This problem, however, only exists due to our ambiguous

notion of a sequence. In practice, suppose we have observed a given sequence \vec{r}_n . How do we know if the underlying process R has terminated, or will instead continue to generate another observed value r_{n+1} , leading to the extended sequence \vec{r}_{n+1} ? Similarly, how do we know that the first observed value r_1 was not in fact part of a longer, unobserved sequence of values $\dots, r_{-2}, r_{-1}, r_0$?

In order to handle such difficulties, we distinguish between a so-called *incomplete* sequence \vec{R}_n , and a *complete* sequence $\langle \vec{R}_n \rangle$ that has definite stages of initiation and termination. Thus, we see that each length-2 incomplete sequence \vec{r}_2 starts with a length-1 incomplete sequence \vec{r}_1 , so that measuring the set of all length-1 and length-2 incomplete sequences amounts to double counting.

A complete sequence may be specified by introducing indicator variables that define the start and end of the sequence. Thus, indicator ι_0 takes a value of 1 if the sequence starts at stage 0 (i.e. just prior to R_1), or a value of 0 if it does not. Similarly, indicator τ_{n+1} takes a value of 1 if the sequence terminates at stage $n+1$ (i.e. immediately after R_n), or a value of 0 if it does not. We may now also consider *partially complete* sequences, namely the *start sequence* $\langle \vec{R}_n \rangle$, which was initiated at stage 0 but not yet definitely terminated (i.e. $\iota_0 = 1$ but τ_{n+1} is unknown), and the *end sequence* \vec{R}_n , which was terminated at stage $n+1$ but not definitely initiated at stage 0 (i.e. $\tau_{n+1} = 1$ but ι_0 is unknown).

The probability or probability density of a given complete sequence $\langle \vec{r}_n \rangle$ is now defined as

$$p(\langle \vec{r}_n \rangle) = p(\iota_0 = 1, R_1 = r_1 \dots, R_n = r_n, \tau_{n+1} = 1); \quad (2.6)$$

likewise

$$p(\vec{r}_n) = p(\iota_0 = 1, R_1 = r_1 \dots, R_n = r_n) \quad (2.7)$$

for a start sequence, and

$$p(\vec{r}_n!) = p(R_1 = r_1 \dots, R_n = r_n, \tau_{n+1} = 1) \quad (2.8)$$

for an end sequence. In the special cases where we know in advance that the start sequence $\langle \vec{r}_n \rangle$ definitely does not terminate at stage $n+1$ (i.e. $\tau_{n+1} = 0$), and the end sequence \vec{r}_n definitely does not initiate at stage 0 (i.e. $\iota_0 = 0$), we may write

$$p(\langle \vec{r}_n! \rangle) = p(\iota_0 = 1, R_1 = r_1 \dots, R_n = r_n, \tau_{n+1} = 0), \quad (2.9)$$

and

$$p(!\vec{r}_n) = p(\iota_0 = 0, R_1 = r_1 \dots, R_n = r_n, \tau_{n+1} = 1). \quad (2.10)$$

Hence, for a discrete-value process, the probability mass of all complete length- n sequences is given by

$$\sum_{\vec{r}_n \in \mathcal{R}^n} p(\langle \vec{r}_n \rangle) = p(\iota_0 = 1, \tau_{n+1} = 1) \doteq P(N = n), \quad (2.11)$$

where we have introduced the random variable N to denote the length of an arbitrary complete sequence. For the corresponding continuous-value process, we likewise deduce that

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}^n} p(\langle \vec{r}_n \rangle) d\vec{r}_n = p(\iota_0 = 1, \tau_{n+1} = 1) = P(N = n). \quad (2.12)$$

We therefore deduce that the set $\mathcal{R}^* = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{R}^n$ of all complete sequences of arbitrary length covers the entire probability space exactly once, since for the discrete-value case we have

$$\sum_{\vec{r}_* \in \mathcal{R}^*} p(\langle \vec{r}_* \rangle) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{\vec{r}_n \in \mathcal{R}^n} p(\langle \vec{r}_n \rangle) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(N=n) = 1, \quad (2.13)$$

and for the continuous-value case we have

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}^*} p(\langle \vec{r}_* \rangle) d\vec{r}_* = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int_{\mathcal{R}^n} p(\langle \vec{r}_n \rangle) d\vec{r}_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(N=n) = 1. \quad (2.14)$$

3 Markov Process Sequences

In the previous section we defined random processes and the sequences they generate. It is generally assumed that a random process R obeys strict causality, such that the values generated by the process form a *temporal* sequence, where the distribution of values for variable R_i , at stage i , depends only upon the values generated previously in the sequence at stages $i-1, i-2, \dots, 1$. In addition, for a complete sequence the distribution of the variable R_1 at the initial stage depends strongly upon being first in the sequence, and likewise the distribution of the variable R_n , for a length- n sequence, depends strongly upon both the past values in the sequence and on the fact that it is the final stage.

Causality therefore indicates that a probability model of the sequences generated by a random process R can be factored in terms of conditioning, at each stage i , the random variable R_i on the values of the previous variables $R_{i-1}, R_{i-2}, \dots, R_1$. Thus, for any given complete sequence $\langle \vec{r}_n \rangle$, we obtain the model

$$\begin{aligned} p(\langle \vec{r}_n \rangle) &= p(\iota_0 = 1) p(R_1 = r_1 \mid \iota_0 = 1) \\ &\quad p(R_2 = r_2 \mid R_1 = r_1, \iota_0 = 1) \cdots \\ &\quad p(R_n = r_n \mid R_{n-1} = r_{n-1}, \dots, R_1 = r_1, \iota_0 = 1) \\ &\quad p(\tau_{n+1} = 1 \mid R_n = r_n, \dots, R_1 = r_1, \iota_0 = 1) \end{aligned} \quad (3.1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= p(\iota_0 = 1) \prod_{i=1}^n p(R_i = r_i \mid \vec{R}_{i-1} = \vec{r}_{i-1}, \iota_0 = 1) \\ &\quad p(\tau_{n+1} = 1 \mid \vec{R}_n = \vec{r}_n, \iota_0 = 1). \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

Recall from Section 2 that we may adjust this model to allow for partially complete or incomplete sequences by suitably modifying the corresponding boundary conditions for ι_0 and τ_{n+1} .

In practice, this factored model is usually simplified further by limiting the conditional dependency on past values to a small number. In particular, one might assume the (first-order) Markov property, such that the value at any stage i depends only upon the immediate past value at stage $i-1$, namely

$$\begin{aligned} p(\langle \vec{r}_n \rangle) &= p(\iota_0 = 1) p(R_1 = r_1 \mid \iota_0 = 1) \\ &\quad \prod_{i=2}^n p(R_i = r_i \mid R_{i-1} = r_{i-1}) \\ &\quad p(\tau_{n+1} = 1 \mid R_n = r_n). \end{aligned} \quad (3.3)$$

Alternatively, equation (3.2) may be generalised to an m -th order model by limiting the dependency of R_i to the previous m values, namely

$$\begin{aligned}
& p(R_i = r_i \mid \vec{R}_{i-1} = \vec{r}_{i-1}, \iota_0 = 1) \\
&= \begin{cases} p(R_i = r_i \mid \vec{R}_{i-m, i-1} = \vec{r}_{i-m, i-1}) & \text{if } i > m, \\ p(R_i = r_i \mid \vec{R}_{i-1} = \vec{r}_{i-1}, \iota_0 = 1) & \text{if } i \leq m. \end{cases}, \quad (3.4)
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\vec{R}_{i,j} = (R_i, R_{i+1}, \dots, R_j). \quad (3.5)$$