

# Fast Functional Integrals with Applications to Stochastic Dynamical Systems

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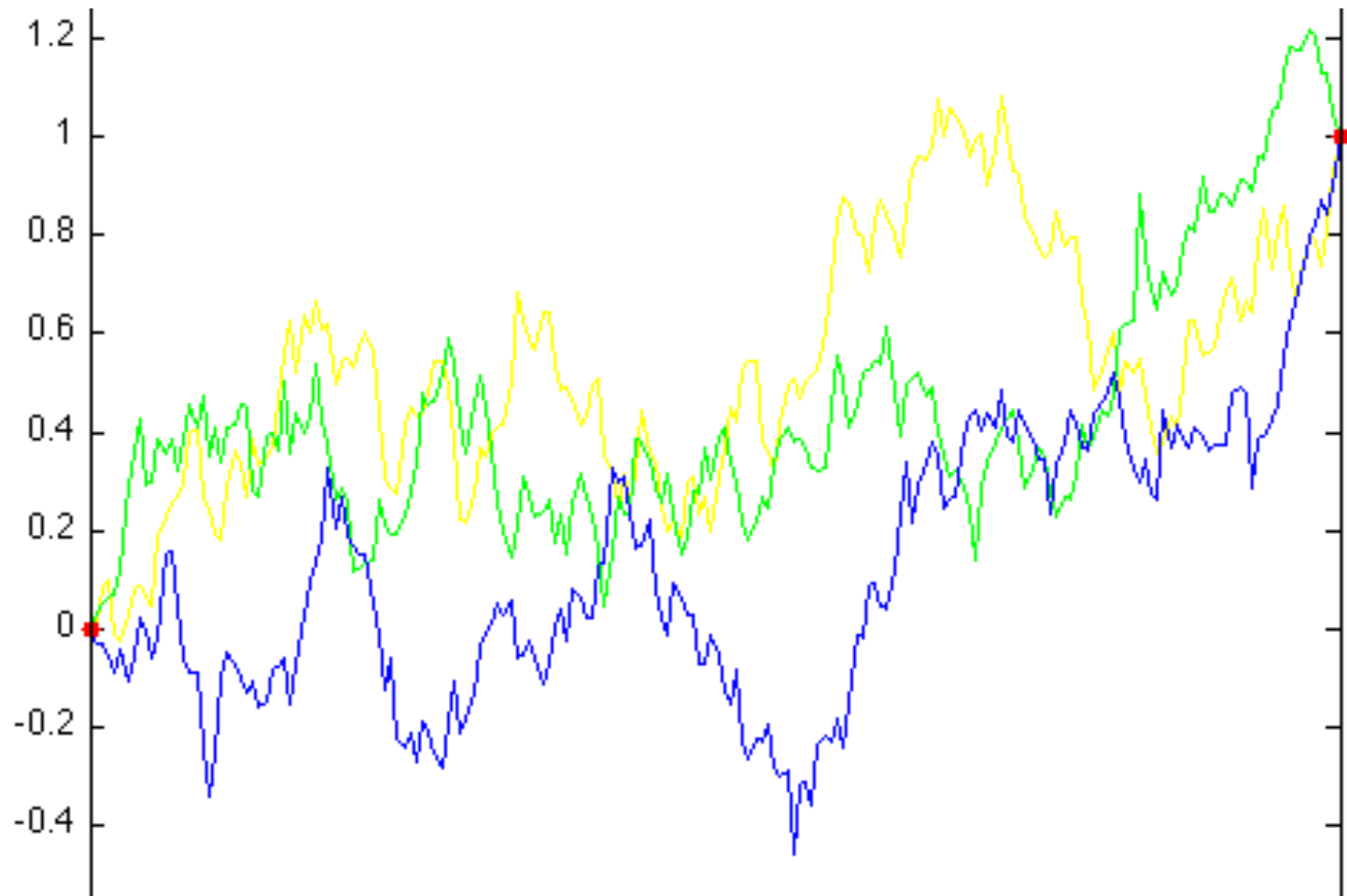
# Overview

- Summary of functional integrals
- New method of calculating functional integrals
- New application: parameter estimation for dynamical systems
- Results for an infectious disease model (SIR) – equivalent results as Monte Carlo but much faster

# Functional (“path”) integrals

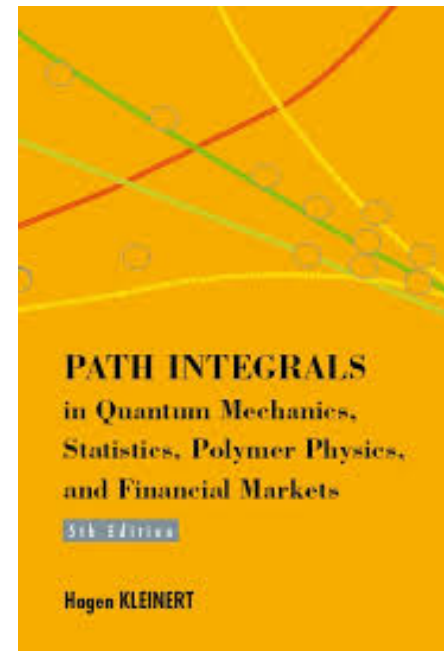
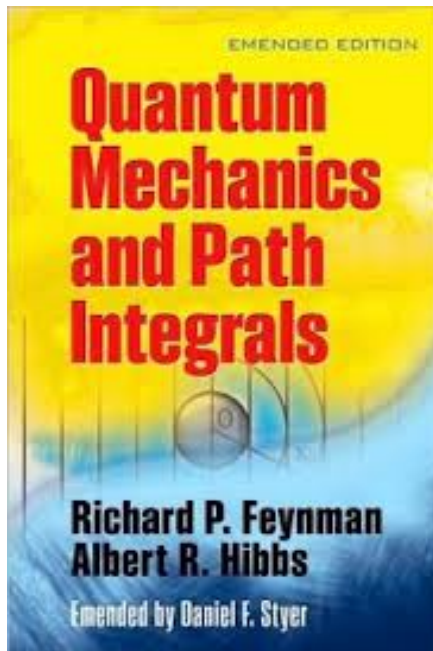
- Also called “sum over histories”
- Early application: Brownian motion (limit of random walks with infinitesimal steps)
- Gives likelihood of going from point A to point B in time  $t$ 
  - Likelihood for individual paths is simple
  - Sum over all possible paths

# A few of the infinite number of histories to integrate



# Many other applications

- Quantum and statistical mechanics
- Probability (SDEs, finance)
- Computationally intensive, can require long simulations



# The new method: Sparse Laplace Approximation Method (SLAM)

- Laplace approximation computes high-dimensional integrals by fitting a multivariate Gaussian to the integrand
- Basic version uses second derivatives to get the integral of the Gaussian approximation
- Higher-order version uses the Gaussian combined with higher-order derivatives
- For functional integrals, the second- and higher-order derivative tensors are sparse (block-tridiagonal etc.)

# What's new here?

- Efficient way to get the higher-order terms:  
 $O(Nd^4)$  instead of  $O(N^4d^4)$
- Variance-stabilizing transform to get critical path

# Application: Estimating Parameters in Dynamical Systems

- Dynamical systems are everywhere (especially in life science)
- We want to estimate their parameters
- Traditional and recent methods
- How to use functional integrals for this
- Results and conclusions



# Dynamical systems (differential equations models) are ubiquitous

- Life science, chemistry, economics
- These models incorporate:
  - *Variables*, which evolve over the time frame of the data
  - *Parameters*, which should be constant for the system – we want to estimate these.

# Systems modeled by differential equations are ubiquitous

- Predator-prey models: numbers next year depend on numbers this year
  - Variables: numbers of predators and prey
  - Parameters: fertility and predation rate
- Chemical reactions
  - Variables are concentrations
  - Parameters are reaction rates

# Systems modeled by differential equations are ubiquitous

- Infectious disease models
  - Variables: numbers of people who are susceptible, infected, recovered, etc.
  - Parameters: infectiousness, lethality, recovery rate, etc.
- Pharmacokinetics
  - Variables: blood level
  - Parameters: compartment volumes, clearance rates

# A simple example illustrates some of the challenges

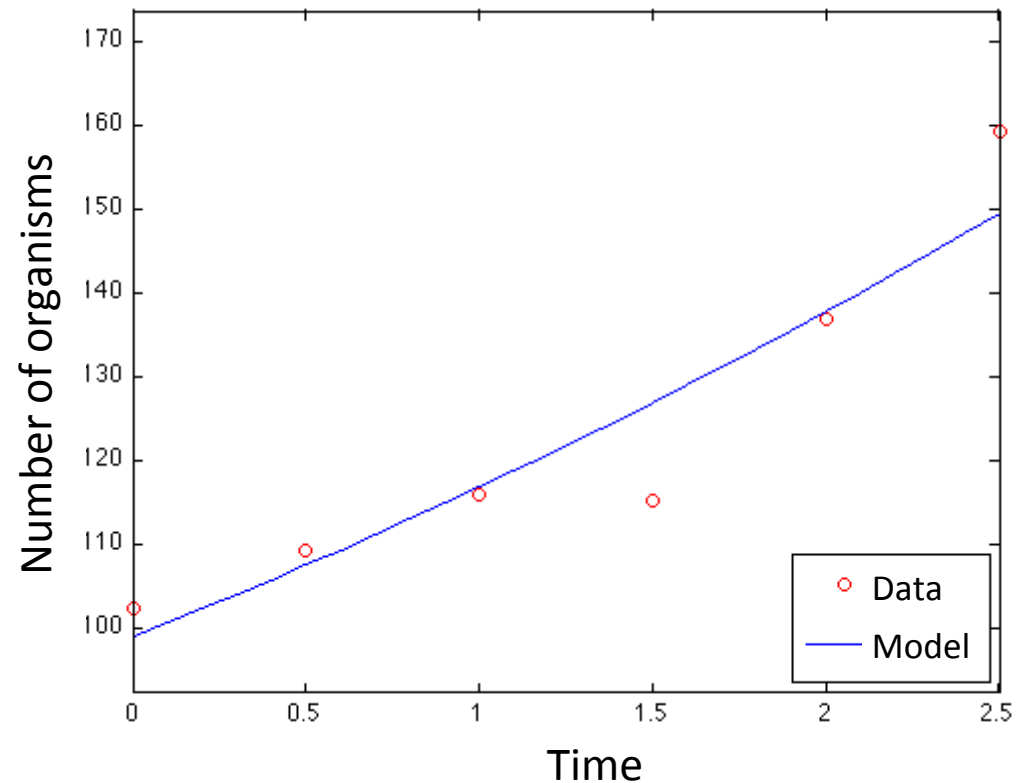
- In a bacterial colony a fixed fraction of cells divide every hour:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \theta y$$

*where  $y$  is the number of bacteria,  $\theta$  is the fraction that divide each hour, and  $t$  is time.*

# The traditional method solves the deterministic equations for different parameter values

- Parameter values are chosen to optimize fit to data



# Traditional method has significant limitations

- It is not stochastic
- It does not allow for imperfectly followed differential equations
- In some systems, there are multiple optima of the parameters

# More recent work

- Ramsay, Hooker, et al (JRSSB 2007) use spline functions and cross-validation
- Campbell (2010) uses splines and MCMC (integrates over a space of splines using Monte Carlo)

# Spline-based approach (Ramsay, Hooker, et al.)

- Find a good compromise between data fit and ODE fit
- For the bacteria example, this means minimize

$$\sum_i \left( y_{data}^i - \hat{y}(t_i) \right)^2 + \lambda \int \left( \frac{d\hat{y}}{dt} - \theta \hat{y} \right)^2 dt$$

- Tradeoff ( $\lambda$ ) is chosen by cross-validation or MCMC



# Anatomy of the methods

- What all the approaches have in common:
- (1) for given params, find a “best guess” path  $\hat{y}$  by minimizing “inner” objective function
- (2) given  $\hat{y}$ , calculate derivatives of “outer” objective function wrt parameters
- (3) repeat until outer function has been minimized

# Functional Integral Approach

- Discretize time

$$N = \# \text{ time points}, d = \# \text{ variables}$$

- Treat true values as a latent, underlying Markov process
- This allows for rougher paths, more like Brownian motion

# Overall likelihood as a functional integral

$$L(y_{data} | \theta, \sigma) = \int L_{data}(y_{data} | y_{true}, \sigma) L_{Markov}(y_{true} | \theta) d^{Nd} y_{true}$$

where

$y_{data}$  are the data values at whatever time points we have them

$y_{true}$  is a possible history of the system

$\sigma$  are parameters of measurement error

$\theta$  are dynamical parameters

# Rewrite in terms of log-likelihood

- If we say

$$\ell_{data} = -\log(L_{data})$$

$$\ell_{Markov} = -\log(L_{Markov})$$

$$\ell = \ell_{data} + \ell_{Markov}$$

Then the second-order derivative matrix of  $\ell$  is very sparse, and the higher-order derivative tensors are also sparse!

# Example: bacteria colony

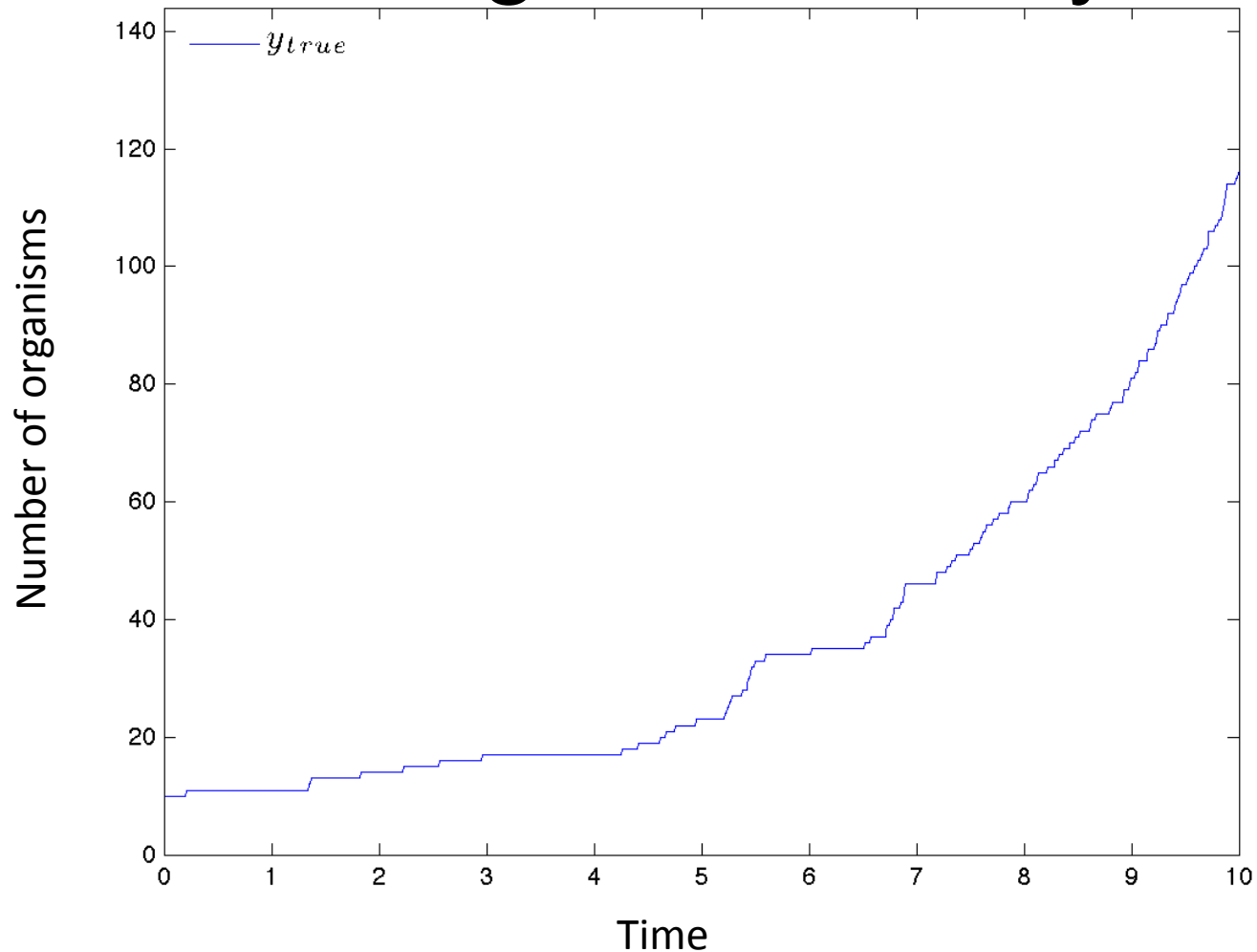
- $L_{data}$  is the likelihood of the data given the true value

$$\log(y_{data}) \sim \text{Normal}(\log(y_{true}), \sigma^2)$$

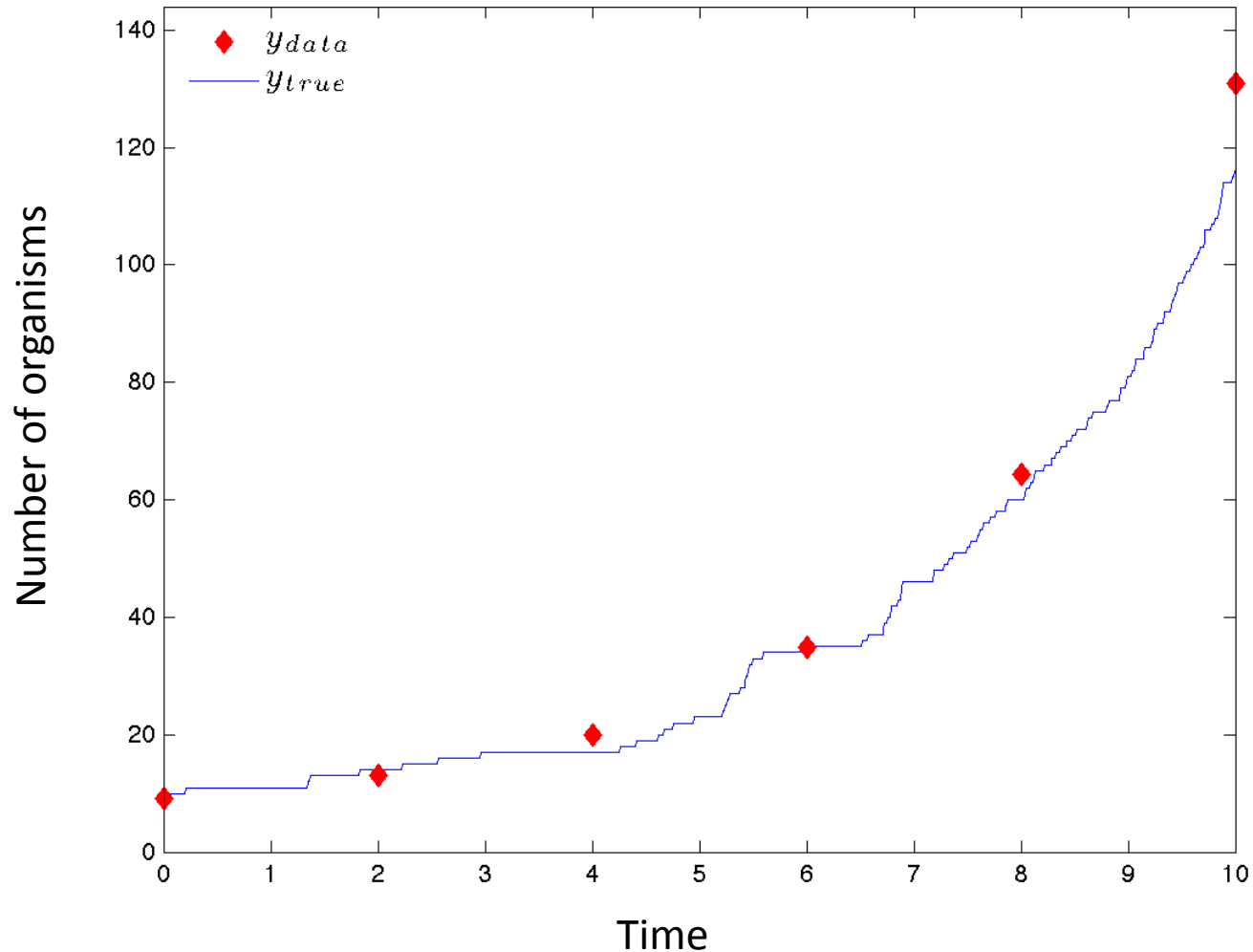
- $L_{Markov}$  is the likelihood of the sequence  $y_{true}^i$  assuming that the real system follows the Markov process

$$\Delta_i y_{true} \sim \text{Pois}(\theta \cdot y_{true}^i \cdot \Delta_i t)$$

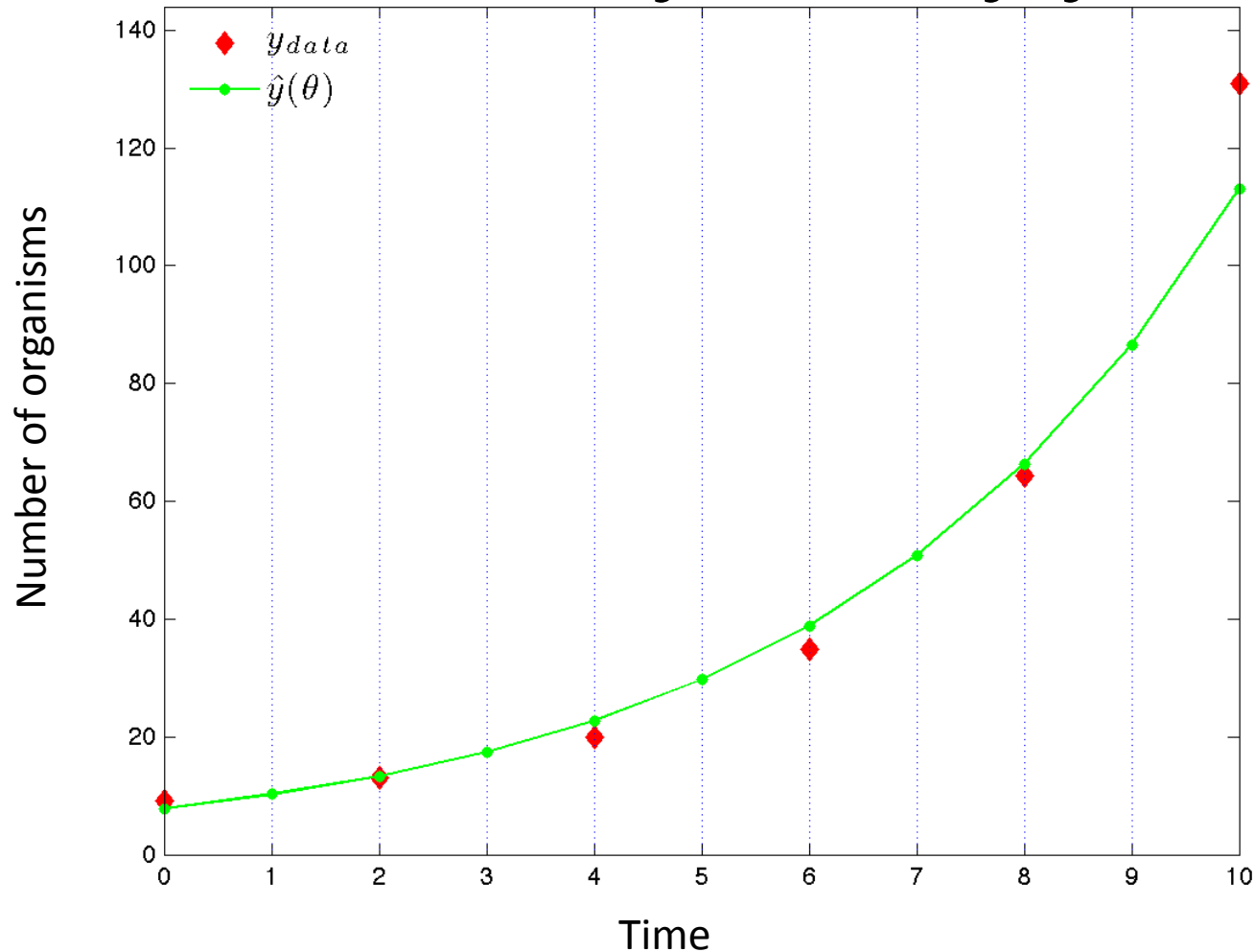
# Bacterial colony example: “true” growth history



# Data only at some time points, with measurement error

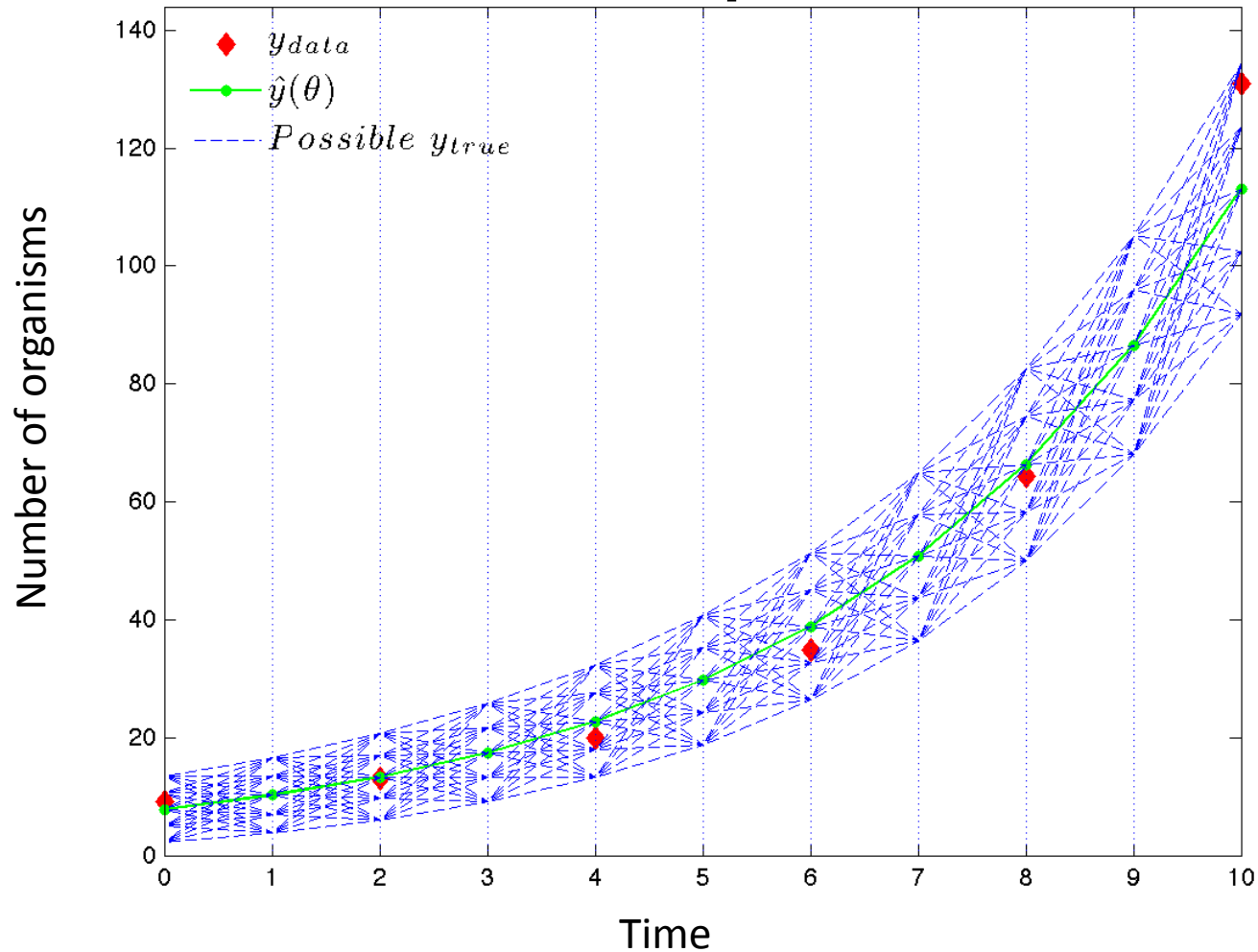


For given parameters, there is a most likely history  $\hat{y}$





# We use it to compute the integral over all paths

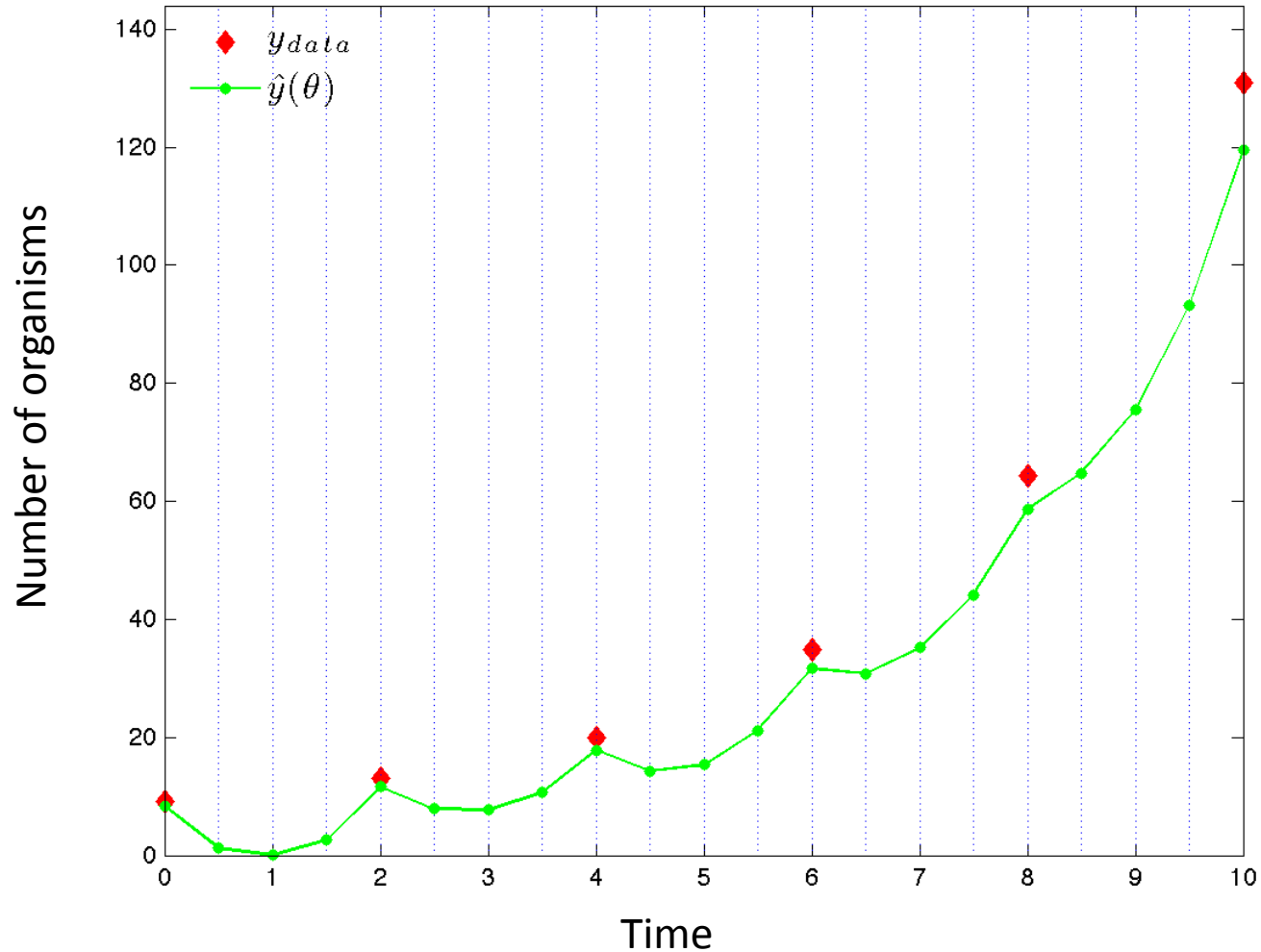


# Expand around critical path

$$y = \hat{y} + \epsilon$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{-\ell(y)} d^n y &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{-\ell(\hat{y} + \epsilon)} d^n \epsilon \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \exp \left( -\ell(\hat{y}) - \frac{1}{2} \ell_{ij}^{(2)}(\hat{y}) \epsilon_i \epsilon_j \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{1}{3!} \ell_{ijk}^{(3)}(\hat{y}) \epsilon_i \epsilon_j \epsilon_k - \dots \right) d^n \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

# All very good, unless this happens...



# What's going on?

In the normal approximation, the Markov variance is proportional to  $y$ :

$$L_{Markov} = \prod_{i < N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\theta y_i \Delta_i t}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(\Delta_i y - \theta y_i \Delta_i t)^2}{\theta y_i \Delta_i t}\right)$$

The  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{y_i}}$  means that moving  $y$  to zero increases the likelihood.

# Why this is not okay

- It moves the critical path away from the realistic paths
- Likelihood *density* is maximized in a region whose *total likelihood* is small
- With the right change of variable, this problem disappears

# Variance-stabilizing transform

- The solution is to make a change of variable that stabilizes the variance.

$$v_y = \sqrt{y}$$

$$L_{Markov} \prod_i dy_i \propto \prod_i \frac{e^{-q_i}}{\sqrt{y_i}} dy_i = 2 \prod_i e^{-q_i} dv_y = 2 \exp\left(-\sum_i q_i\right) dv_y$$

Reducing  $\sum_i q_i$  does not bias  $y$  toward zero.

# Cumulant form of Laplace approximation (Shun & McCullagh, 1995)

$$\begin{aligned}\log \int e^{-\ell(y)} d^N y &\sim -\ell(\hat{y}) + \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{(2\pi)^N}{|H|} \\ &\quad - \frac{3}{24} F_{ijkl} H_{ij}^{-1} H_{kl}^{-1} \\ &\quad + \frac{9}{72} T_{ijk} T_{lmn} H_{ij}^{-1} H_{kl}^{-1} H_{mn}^{-1} \\ &\quad + \frac{6}{72} T_{ijk} T_{lmn} H_{il}^{-1} H_{jm}^{-1} H_{kn}^{-1} \\ &\quad + \dots\end{aligned}$$

Basic approximation is the first line  
Other terms are higher-order

# Watch your accounting: higher-order terms

- There are three distinct higher-order terms
- For the first two, it is “obvious” how to use sparsity and compute efficiently
- The last one involves a complicated analytical trick
- Total time is  $O(N d^4)$  ( $N$  = time points,  $d$  = variables)
- Without sparsity, the total time would have been  $O(N^4 d^4)$



# Testing on a simple infectious disease model

- SIR Model (Kermack and McKendrick, 1927) has 3 states:
  - **S**usceptible  
followed by
  - **I**nfected (and contagious)  
followed by
  - **R**ecovered (and immune)

Usually this is solved  
deterministically

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = -\beta SI$$

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \beta SI - \gamma I$$

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \gamma I$$

# SLAM permits a stochastic approach

New Infections ( $t_i$  to  $t_{i+1}$ )  $\sim \text{Pois}(\beta S_{true}^i I_{true}^i \Delta_i t)$

Recoveries ( $t_i$  to  $t_{i+1}$ )  $\sim \text{Pois}(\gamma I_{true}^i \Delta_i t)$

Normal approximation to the  
Poisson distribution: write as  
SDE

$$dS = -\beta S I dt + \sqrt{\beta S I} dW_1$$

$$dI = -dS - \gamma I dt + \sqrt{\gamma I} dW_2$$

# Variance-Stabilizing SIR

Bias is removed by this transformation:

$$v_S = \sqrt{S}$$

$$v_I = \log(I)$$

$$L_{Markov} dS_i dI_i \propto \frac{dS_i dI_i}{\sqrt{S_i \cdot I_i}} = 2 dv_S dv_I$$

# Comparison with STAN on a real data set

- STAN is a new (2012) general-purpose system for Hamiltonian Monte Carlo.
- You specify the model; then it generates C++ code and compiles with optimization.
- Developed by Andrew Gelman's group at Columbia; replaces BUGS
- Try it! <http://mc-stan.org>

# Data set

- British boarding school data set: 14-day flu epidemic
- Data is only on number infected (number susceptible is latent!)
- Still possible to implement both in STAN and SLAM

# Results (parameter estimates)

		$\beta$	$\gamma$	$\sigma$	Time (sec)	Opt steps
Initial guess		2.18E-03	0.440	(0.1)*	N/A	N/A
STAN	5%	1.31E-03	0.667	0.122	267	
	Mean	1.53E-03	0.760	0.152	325	N/A
	95%	1.77E-03	0.882	0.156	366	
SLAM basic		1.45E-03	0.777	0.156	6	23
SLAM higher		1.47E-03	0.770	0.157	42	4

\*Paper doesn't specify initial sigma, so we chose 0.1.  
 STAN runs use 4 chains each with 2000 steps. There were 100 such runs.



# Results (marginal likelihood)

	Log(L)	% diff from IS estimate
SLAM basic	5.353	5.7%
SLAMhigher	5.300	0.4%
Importance Sampling (N=6.6e8)	LB: 5.295	-0.1%
	Est: 5.296	0.0%
	UB: 5.298	0.2%
	(99+% CI)	

Day 0 removed to avoid a pathology that happens when  $l=1$ .  
Importance sampling uses multivariate T,  $df=2$ .  
Sample values constrained to  $\sqrt{S}$  and  $\log(l)$  positive.

# Conclusion

- For this problem, SLAM gives near-identical results to STAN, but is vastly faster
  - Basic is  $> 50$  times faster
  - Basic + Higher is  $\sim 6$  times faster
  - Real difference should be bigger, because STAN is compiled with high optimization

# More to be done: methods

- Further efficiencies
- More independent variables (not just time) requires different algorithm
- Analytical error bounds
  - Notoriously hard for Laplace approximations, but methods exist
  - The usual, hand-waving explanation is not the real reason why they are so accurate (Olver, 1968)

# More to be done: other applications

- Larger problems
- Bayesian model selection
- Graphical models
- Physics
  - “Likelihood” becomes complex (not that bad)
  - In some problems the path would be in a group, not  $\mathbf{R}^n$

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- STAN (and its papers) are available at <http://mc-stan.org>

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