

Hidden Markov Models

Learn Bayes Methods Week
at the Karolinska Institutet

Vianey Leos Barajas

Department of Statistical Sciences/School of the Environment

University of Toronto

Overview

- **First part:**

- medical examples
- finite mixture models
- Markov chains
- hidden Markov models (HMMs)
- **simulating data in R**
- *break*

- **Second part:**

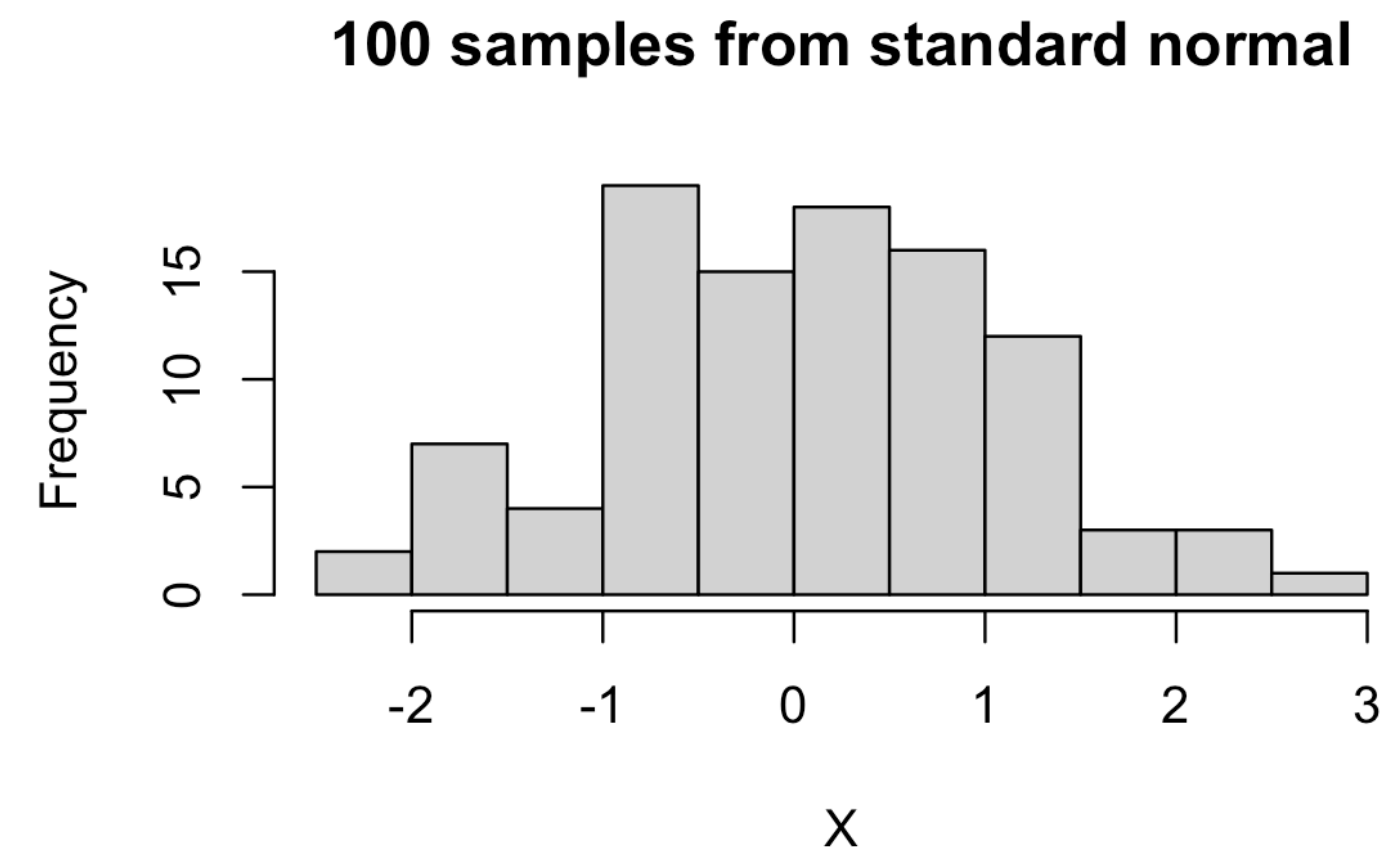
- forward algorithm & likelihood evaluation
- Bayesian inference
- state decoding
- **fitting HMMs in Stan**
- *break*

- **Third part (discussion):**

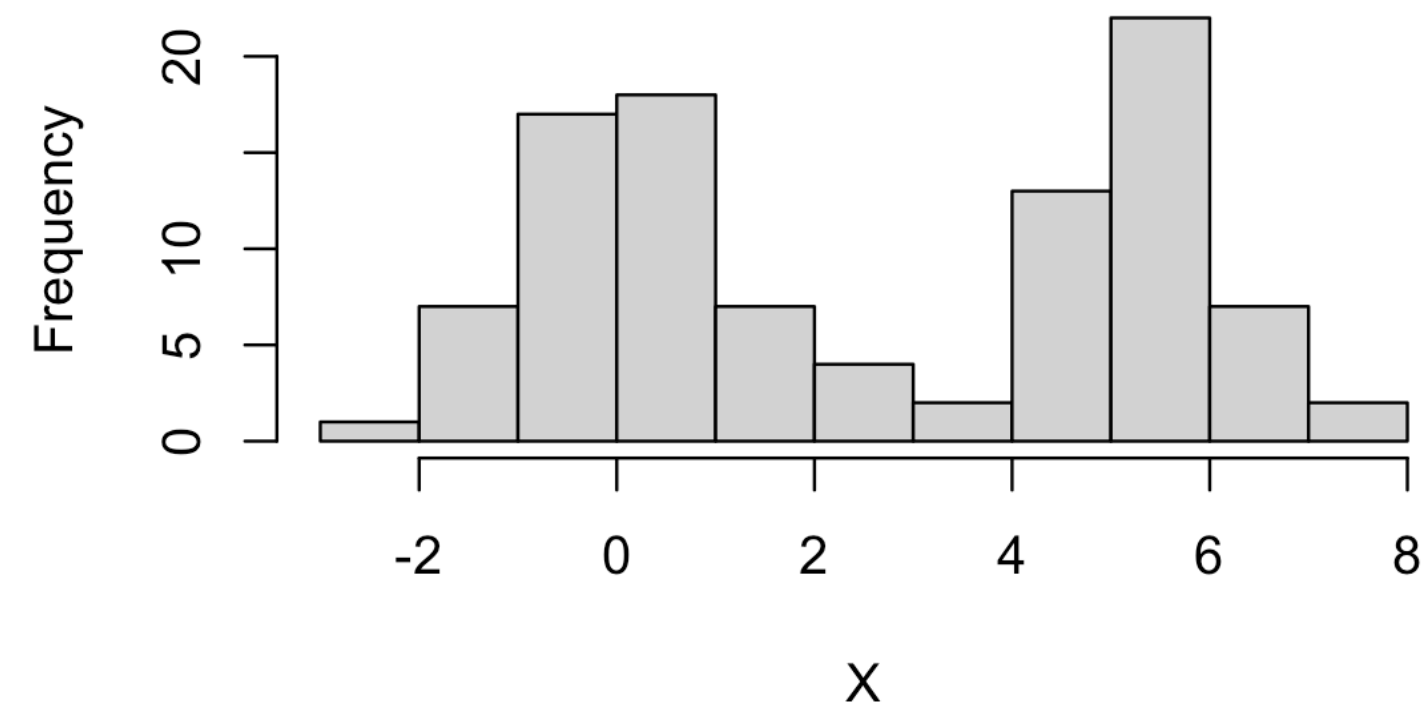
- missing values
- covariates
- mixed HMMs and random effects
- multivariate observations
- continuous-time HMMs + other extensions

Finite Mixture Models

- Let's start with something simple, $Y \sim N(0,1)$. A histogram of a 100 samples of Y might look like:



- But what happens when our data look like:



Finite Mixture Models

- Finite mixture models (or independent mixture models) consist of a finite number of component distributions and a mechanism that ‘mixes’ them
- A finite mixture model with K components is given by:

$$f(Y) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k f_k(Y)$$

- where $f_k(Y)$ corresponds to the k^{th} component distribution and π_k to the probability that the component is ‘active’

- $\pi_k \in (0,1)$ and $\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$

- Model is fully characterized by the parameters of each of the component distributions $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_K)$ and (π_1, \dots, π_K)

Finite Mixture Models

Likelihood evaluation + Clustering

- Given a sample of N observations, the **likelihood function** is given by:

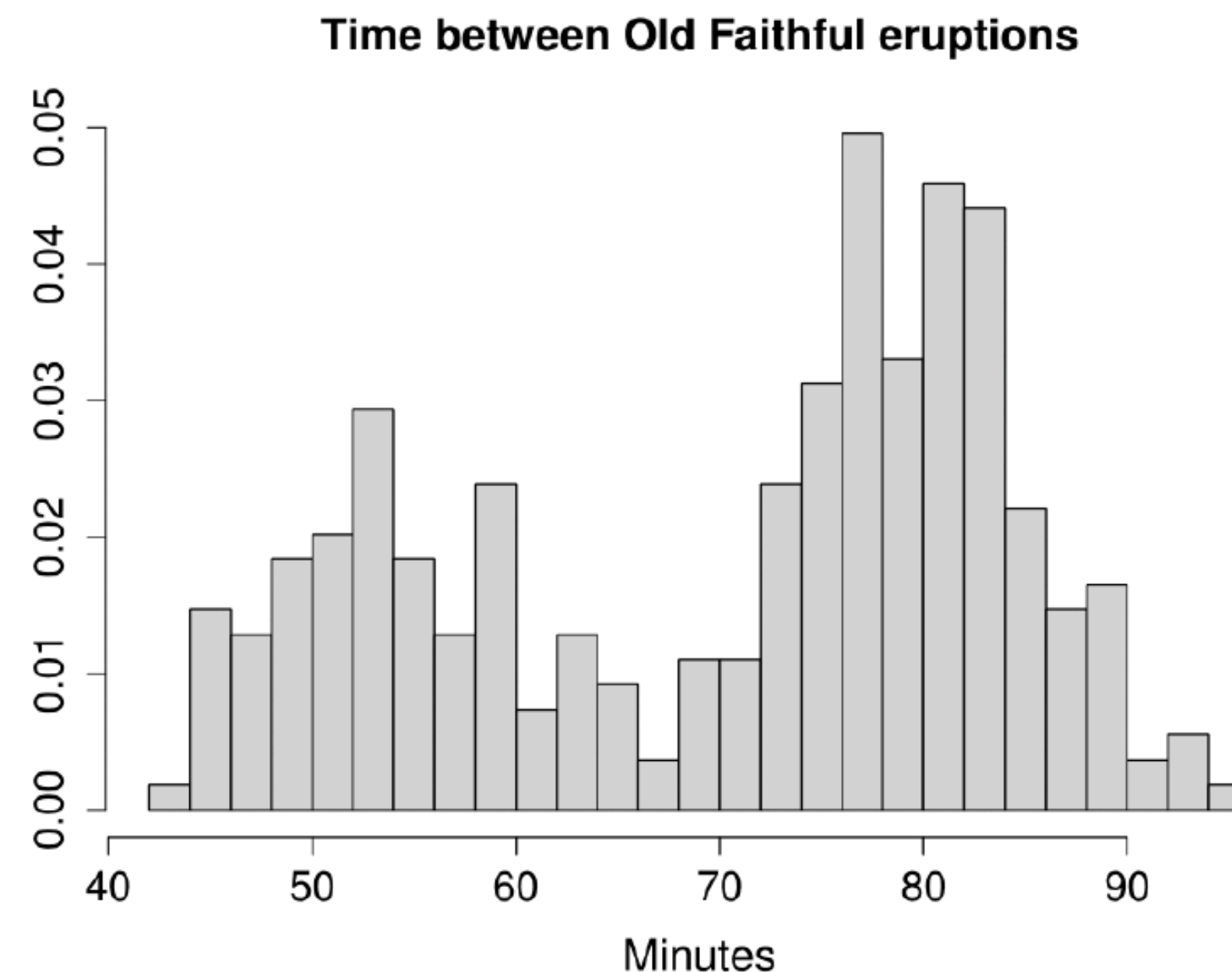
$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \prod_{n=1}^N \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k f_k(y_n) \right\}$$

- Label-switching** — a re-ordering of the labels leads to the same likelihood function/model.
- Clustering using Bayes' rule** — we can compute the probability that an observation was generated according to one of K possibilities by introducing random variables $\{Z_n\}_{n=1}^N$

$$Pr(Z_n = k \mid Y_n) = \frac{\pi_k f_k(Y_n)}{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k f_k(Y_n)}$$

Example: Time between Old Faithful eruptions

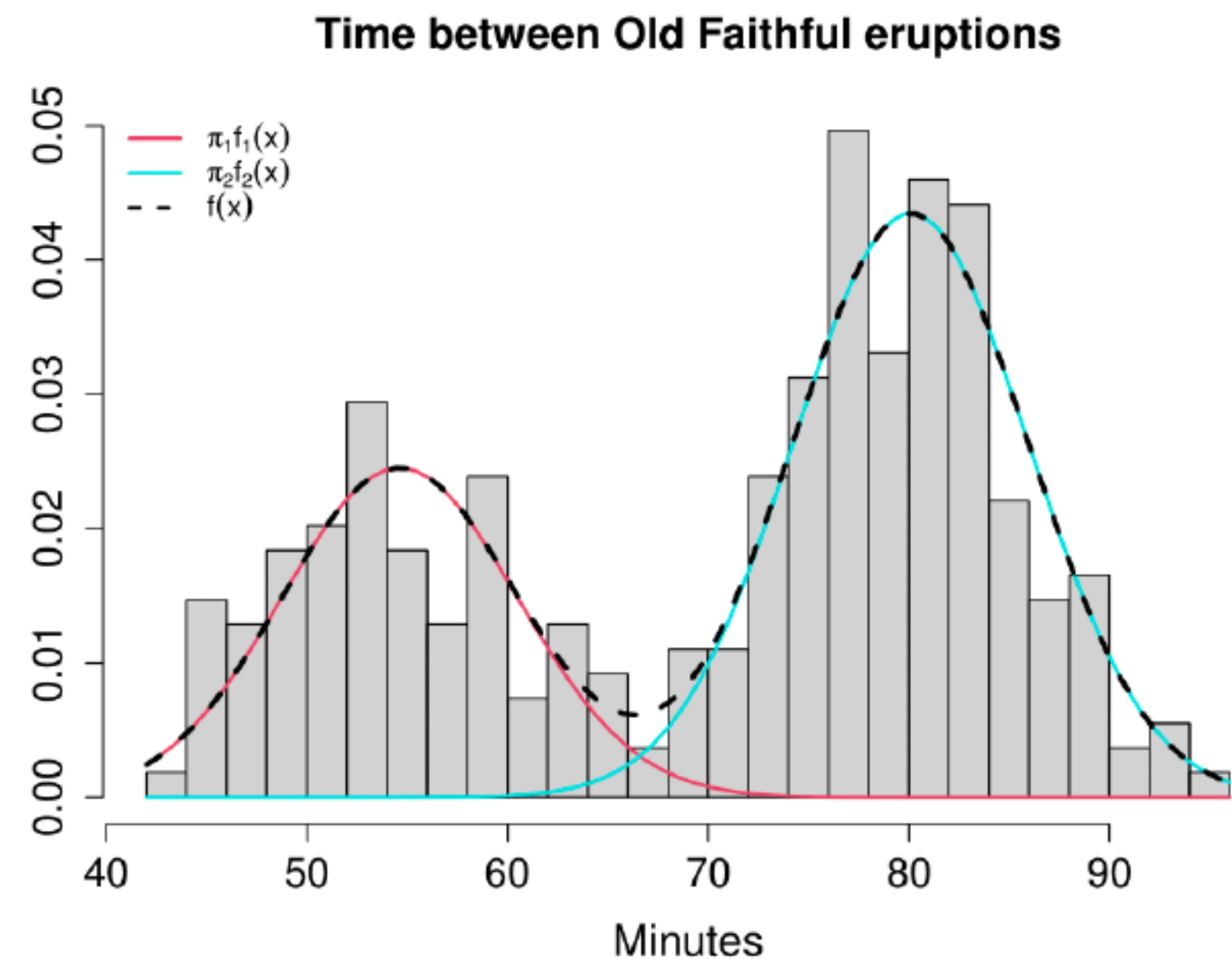
- Waiting times between eruptions for the Old Faithful geyser in Yellowstone National Park, Wyoming, USA
- The observations seem to exhibit two patterns, arising from one of two possible distributions



Back to Old Faithful

Point estimates

- Estimating a Gaussian mixture model for the old faithful data with 2 components:
 - $f_1(Y)$ was estimated to be $\mathcal{N}(54.6, 5.9^2)$
 - $f_2(Y)$ was estimated to be $\mathcal{N}(80.1, 5.9^2)$
 - π_1 was estimated to be 0.36
 - π_2 was estimated to be 0.64



Serial dependence

- Data collected over time or in sequence commonly show dependence between consecutive time steps
- **Dependent mixtures** better accommodate system dynamics arising from serial correlation
- In many cases it is reasonable to assume that the component distribution active at time t will more likely remain active at time $t + 1$
- **Markov chains** are a natural selection to model such dependence

Markov Chains

- A **discrete-time Markov chain** is a stochastic process $\{Z_t \in \{1, \dots, K\}; t = 1, 2, \dots\}$ that satisfies the Markov property $Pr(Z_t | Z_t, Z_{t-1}, \dots, Z_1) = Pr(Z_t | Z_{t-1})$
- It is fully characterized by:
 - K , the number of components (which we'll denote as states from now on)
 - δ , the **initial state distribution**, with entries $Pr(Z_1 = k) = \delta_k$
 - the evolution of the states over time are governed by a transition probability matrix, Γ , with entries $\gamma_{i,j}^{(t)} = Pr(Z_t = j | Z_{t-1} = i)$ for $i, j \in \{1, \dots, K\}$

Markov Chains

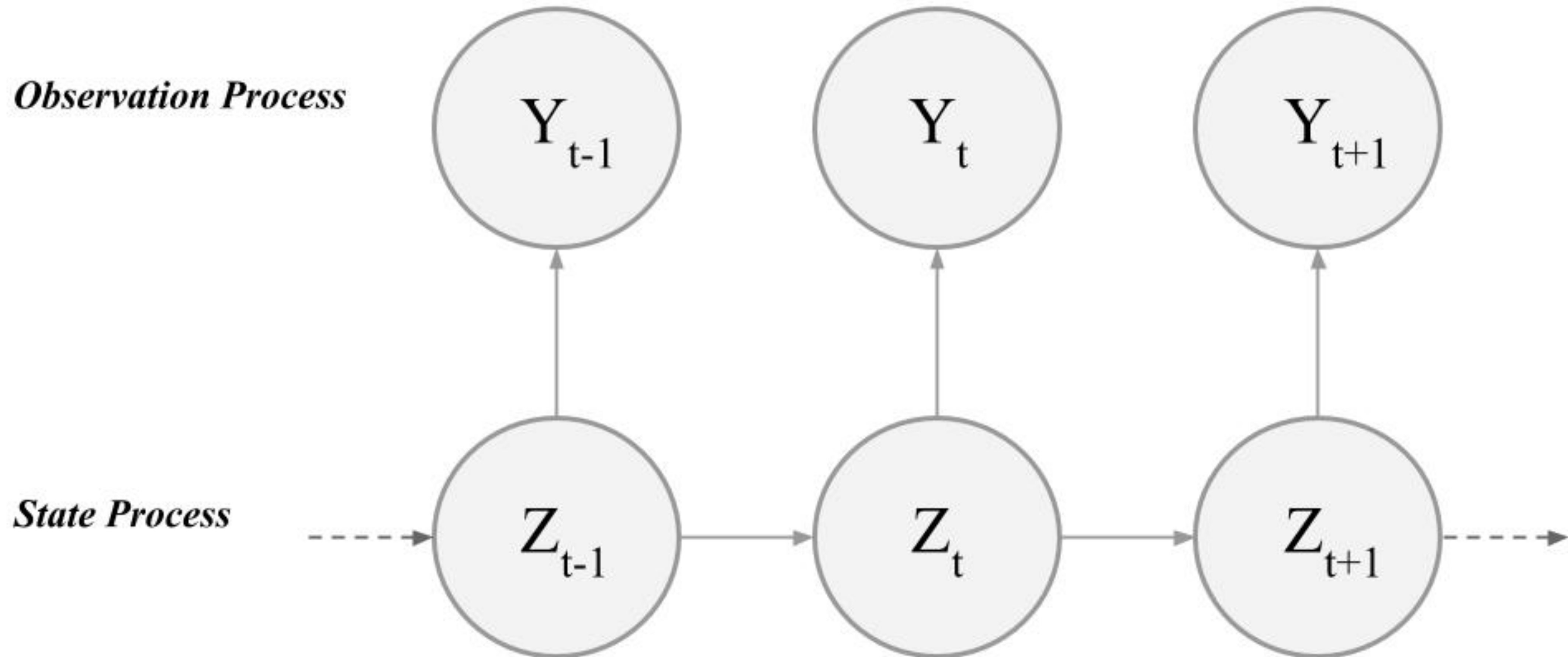
- $\gamma_{i,j}^{(t)}$ is the probability that the chain enters state j at time $t + 1$ given that it is in state i at time t
- The chain is called homogeneous when $\gamma_{i,j}^{(t)} = \gamma_{i,j}$ for all $t \in \{1, \dots, T\}$
- Γ is the transition probability matrix, given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \gamma_{1,1} & \cdots & \gamma_{1,K} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \gamma_{K,1} & \cdots & \gamma_{K,K} \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\gamma_{i,j} \in [0, 1]$ for all $i, j \in \{1, \dots, K\}$ and $\sum_{j=1}^K \gamma_{i,j} = 1$

Hidden Markov models

Combining finite mixture models + dependence via a Markov chain



Some hidden Markov model basics

(discrete-time finite-state)

- A hidden Markov model (HMM) is a doubly stochastic process composed of an **observation process** $\{Y_t\}_{t=1}^T$ and a **state process** $\{Z_t\}_{t=1}^T$
- A basic HMM assumes **conditional independence** of the observation process given the states, $Y_k \perp Y_h | \mathbf{Z}$ for $k \neq h$ and $k, h \in \{1, \dots, T\}$

Some hidden Markov model basics

(discrete-time finite-state)

- The state process is assumed to be a **first-order Markov chain** evolving in discrete-time with transition probability matrix $\mathbf{\Gamma}$, $\Gamma_{ij} = \Pr(Z_t = j \mid Z_{t-1} = i)$, and initial state distribution $\boldsymbol{\delta}$, $\delta_i = \Pr(Z_1 = i)$
- The observations are generated according to a set of **state-dependent distributions**, $f(Y_t \mid Z_t = i)$, where $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ and where $N \in \mathbb{N}$ is the # of states

Simulating from a 3-State HMM

- Parameter values

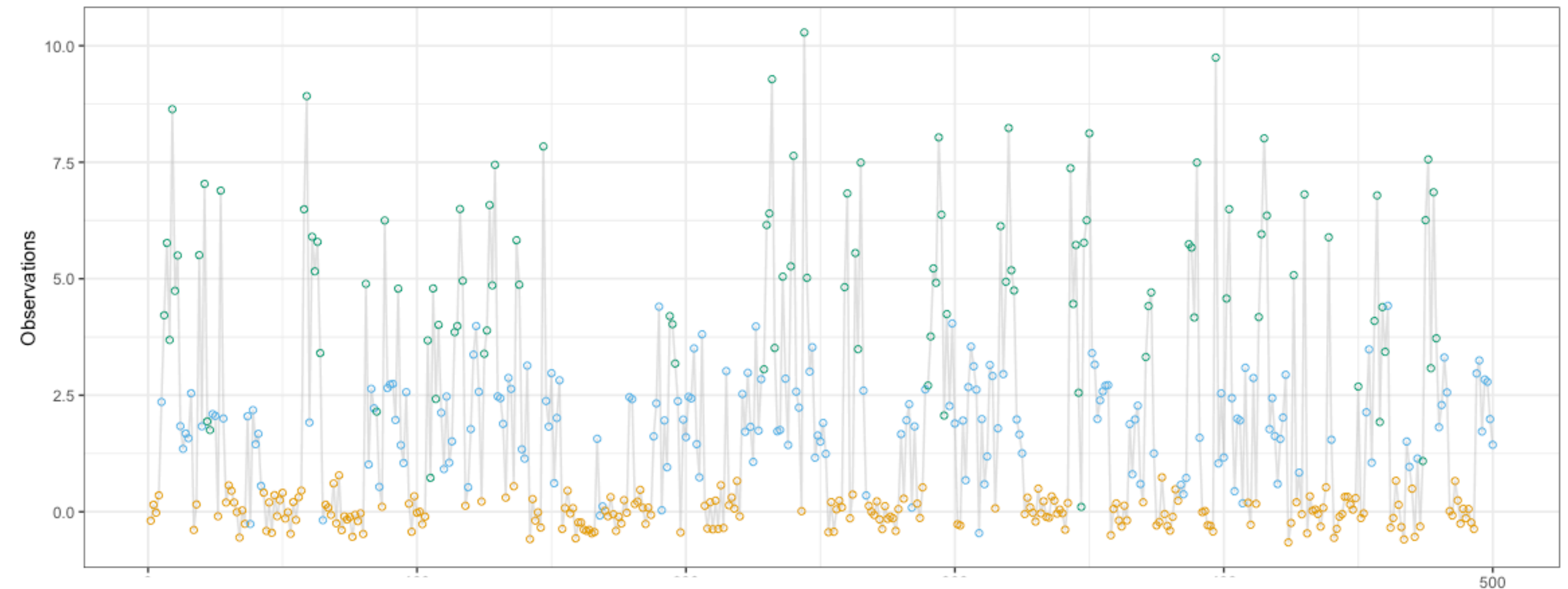
$$N = 3$$

$$f_n(Y_t) \sim N(\mu_n, \sigma_n) \text{ for } n \in \{1,2,3\}$$

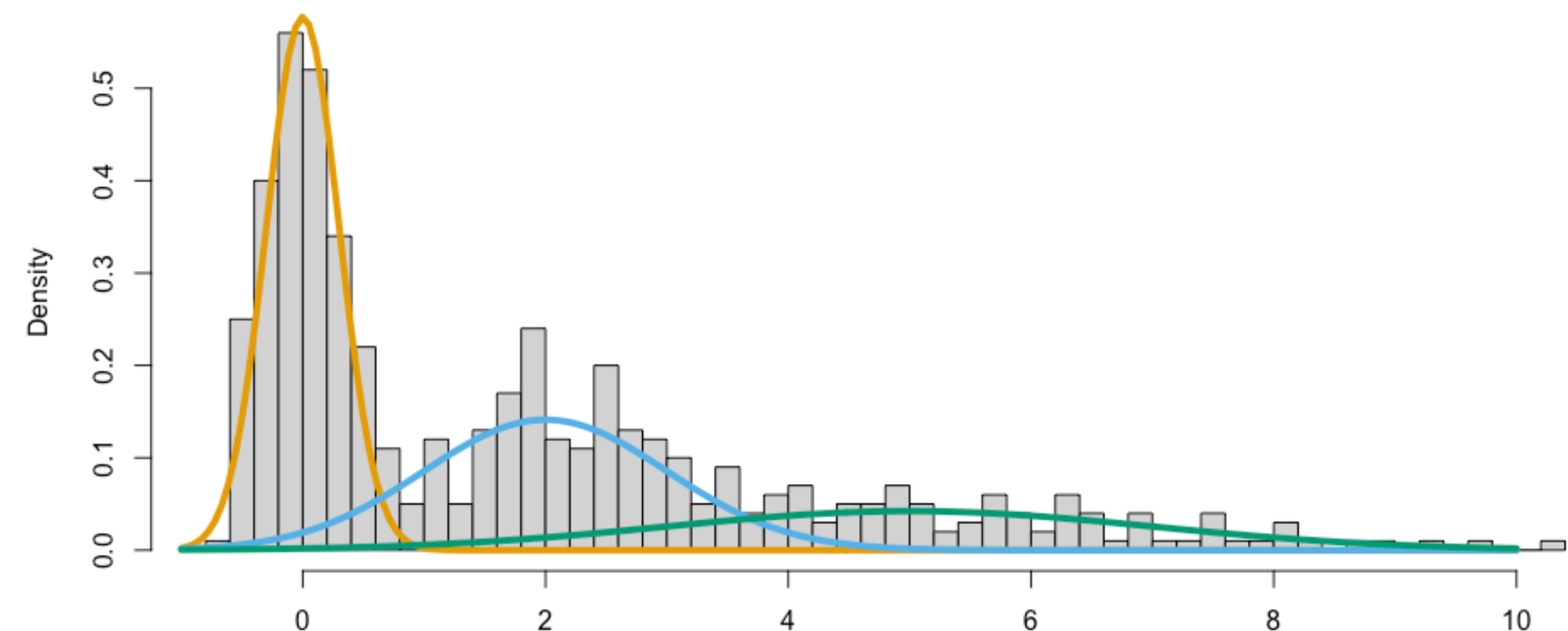
$$\mu \in \{0,2,5\} \quad \sigma \in \{0.3,1,2\}$$

$$\delta = [1/3, 1/3, 1/3]$$

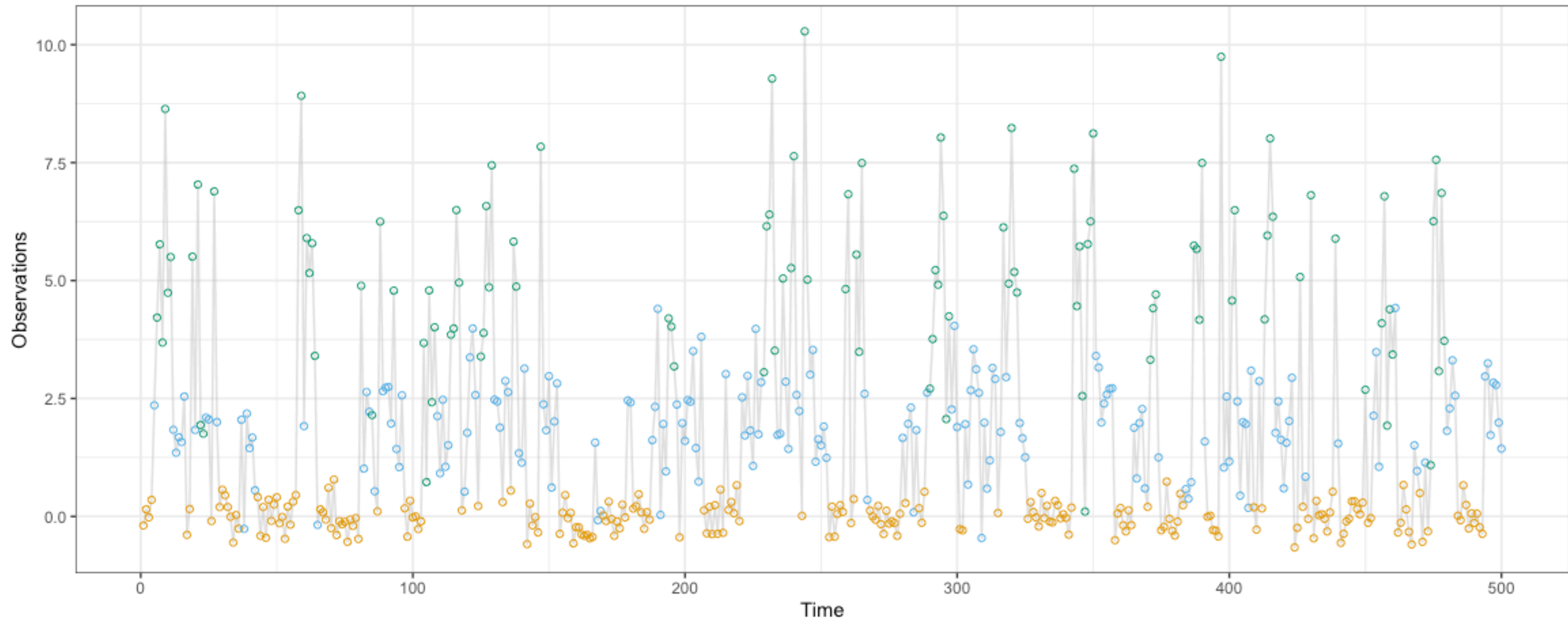
$$\mathbf{\Gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 & 0.1 & 0.1 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 & 0.1 \\ 0.05 & 0.3 & 0.65 \end{pmatrix}$$



Histogram of the Simulated Data Set

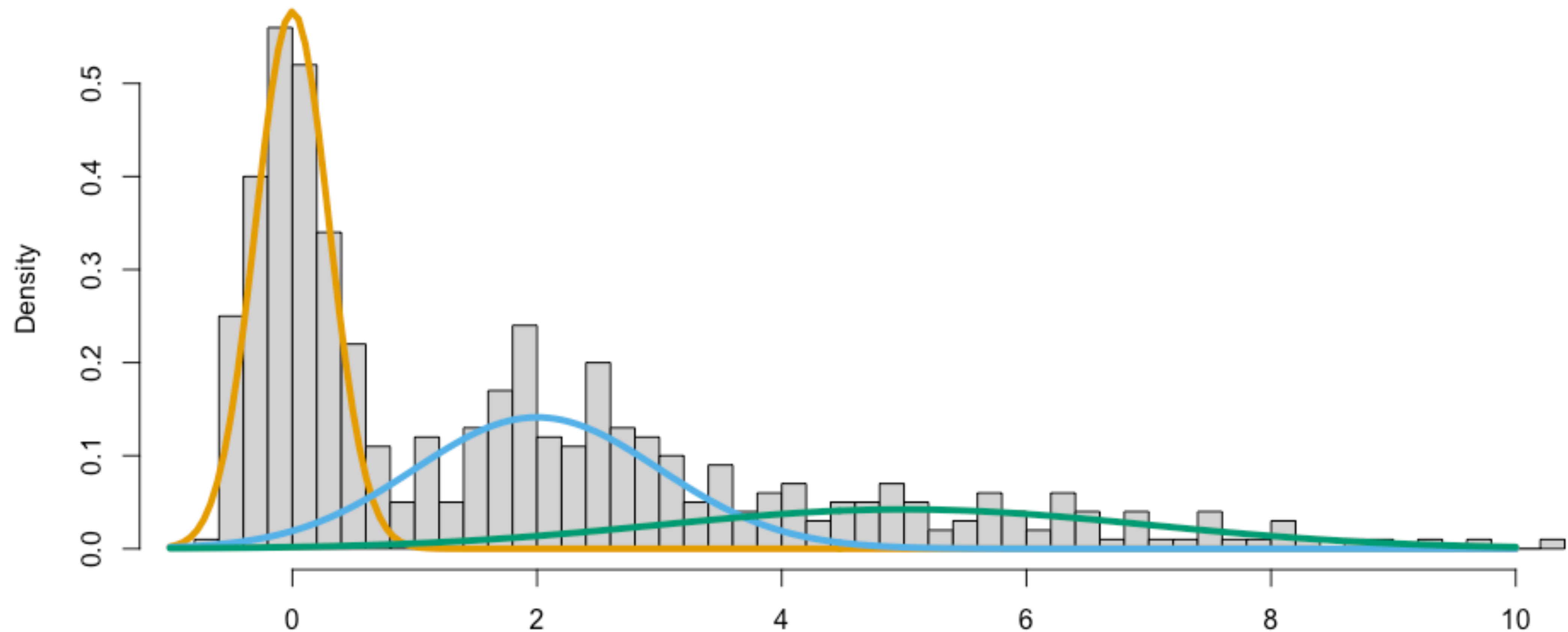


Simulated data: first 500 of 2000 observations



Simulated Data: Marginal Distribution

Histogram of the Simulated Data Set



Simulate Data from an HMM

HMM likelihoods

(Only one can be used in Stan)

- There are generally two likelihood functions used for inference in HMMs:

complete-data likelihood – $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{Y})$

$$\textbf{likelihood} - \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{Y}) = \sum_{n=1}^N \cdots \sum_{n=1}^N f(\mathbf{Y}, Z_1 = n, Z_2 = n, \cdots, Z_T = n | \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- The likelihood can be concisely expressed in matrix form. Let $\mathbf{P}(Y_t) = \text{diag}\{f(Y_t | Z_t = 1), \dots, f(Y_t | Z_t = N)\}$ and $\mathbf{1}$ be a column vector of 1's of length N , then

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{Y}) = \boldsymbol{\delta}^T \mathbf{P}(Y_1) \boldsymbol{\Gamma} \mathbf{P}(Y_2) \cdots \boldsymbol{\Gamma} \mathbf{P}(Y_T) \mathbf{1}$$

with evaluation done via the *forward algorithm*.

Forward algorithm

- The forward algorithm is an approach to efficiently computing the likelihood of an HMM.
- We can construct ‘forward variables’ $\{\alpha_t\}_{t=1}^T$ where

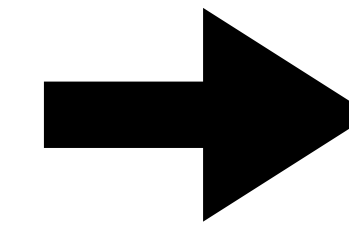
$$\alpha_1 = \delta^\top P(Y_1) \text{ and } \alpha_t = \alpha_{t-1} \Gamma P(y_t)$$

$$\text{such that } \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_{T,k} = \mathcal{L}(\theta | Y)$$

- In this way, the likelihood function can be evaluated with $O(TK^2)$ operations

General HMM Application Categories

- **Unsupervised** - $\mathcal{L}(\theta | Y)$ - no states are known/observed



most common in
ecological
applications

- **Semi-supervised** - $\mathcal{L}(\theta | Y, Z_j = z_j)$ - some states are known/observed
- **Supervised** - $\mathcal{L}(\theta | Y, Z)$ - all states are known/observed
- In all cases, simple modifications to the likelihood function evaluation and forward algorithm can be made to adapt for different applications.

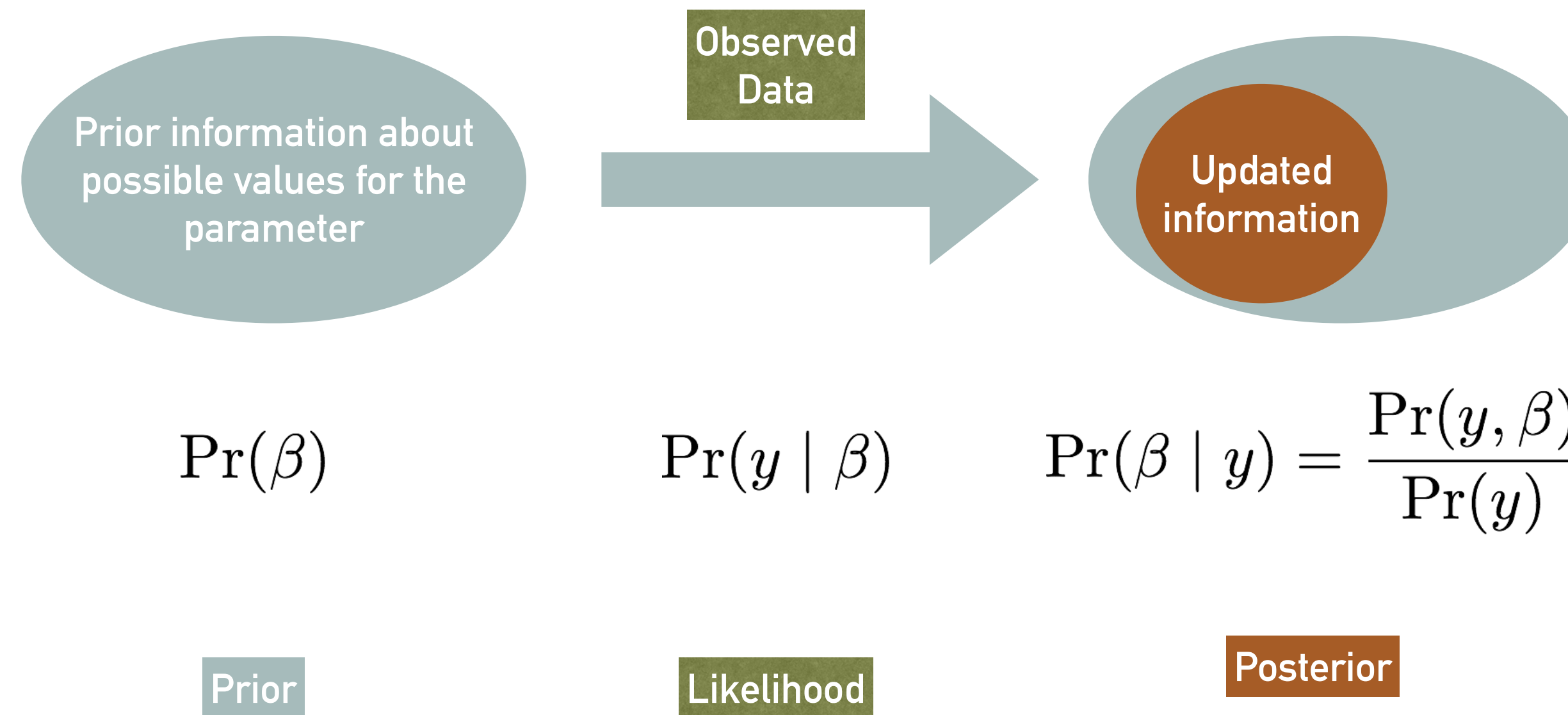
Scientific insights gained from using HMMs

- Can connect the observations to different patterns via state decoding
- We have distributions for the different patterns of interest
- Model state-switching behaviour + amount of time spent in a state before switching
- In a loose sense, we can estimate the ‘number of patterns seen’
- We can incorporate covariates to understand drivers of patterns (we’ll talk about this soon)

Bayesian inference for HMMs

- Set priors for HMMs:

state-dependent distributions + rows of transition probability matrix



Calculated using 'forward algorithm'

State Decoding

- In HMMs + extensions, assigning an observation to a state is known as state decoding
- Two common approaches:

local state decoding — $\operatorname{argmax}_{n \in \{1, \dots, N\}} \Pr(Z_t = n \mid Y)$

forward-backward algorithm

global state decoding — $\operatorname{argmax}_{n \in \{1, \dots, N\}^T} \Pr(\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{n} \mid Y)$

Viterbi algorithm

- Less common — taking posterior draws from the joint distribution of states via forward-filtering backward-sampling

Let's fit an HMM to data

3-state HMM with Normal state-dependent distributions

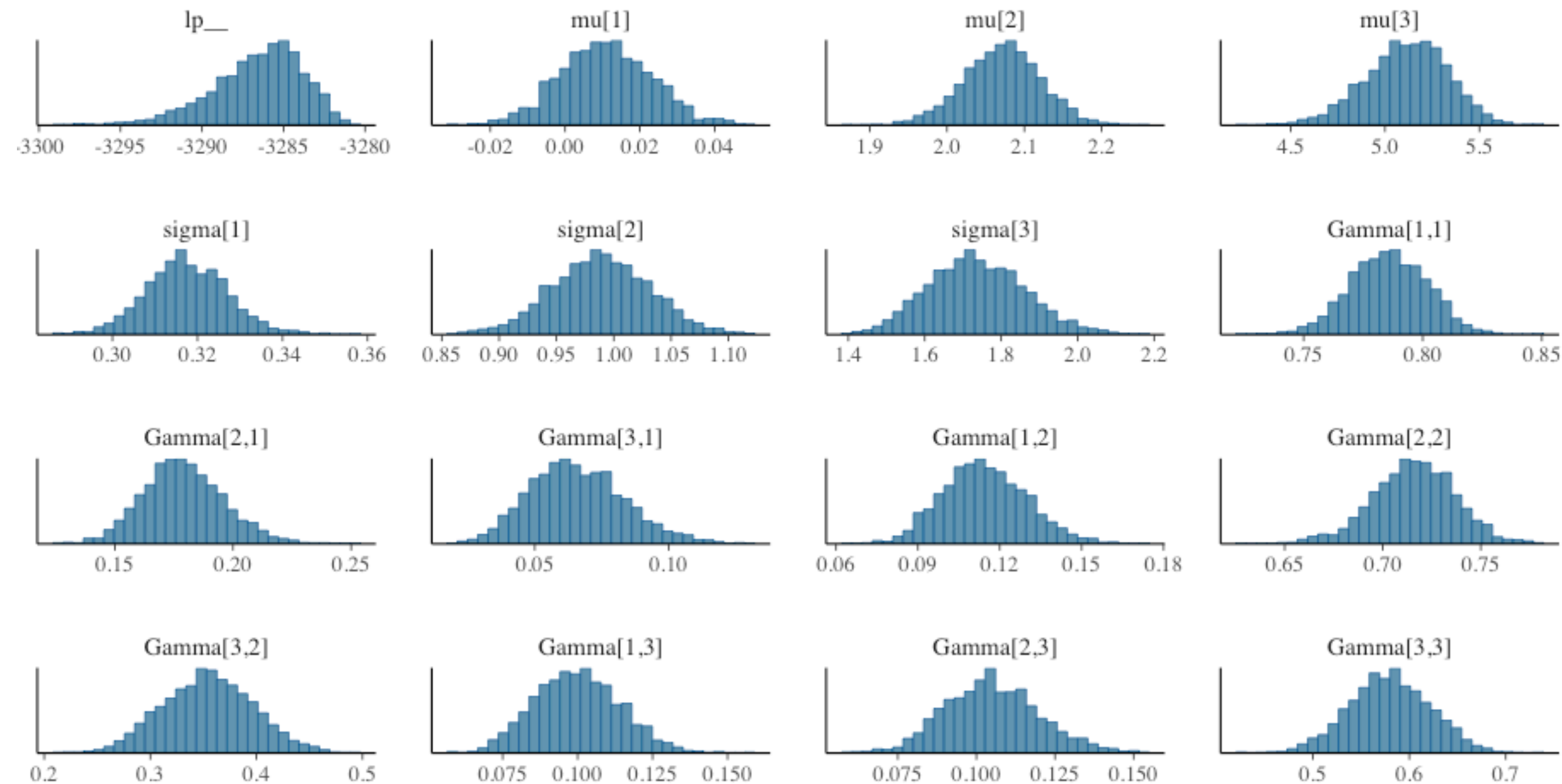
- The choices we make when fitting an HMM in practice:
 - ★ the number of states ⚠
 - ★ the forms of the state-dependent distributions ⚠

There are other assumptions but for now let's consider that an HMM is the *true* data generating process.

When all goes well

Sampling 500 observations from true 3-state HMM

Stan output:



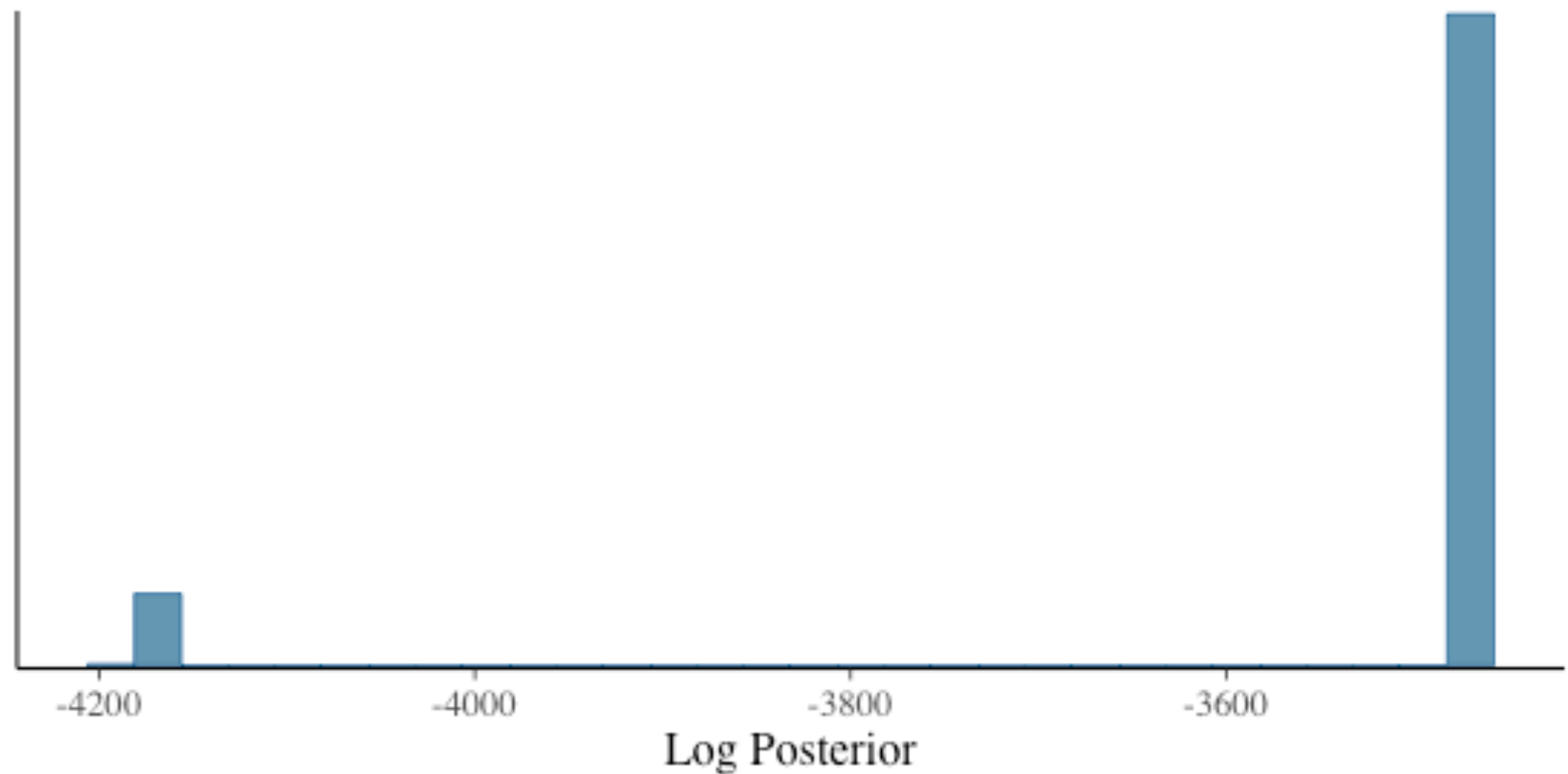
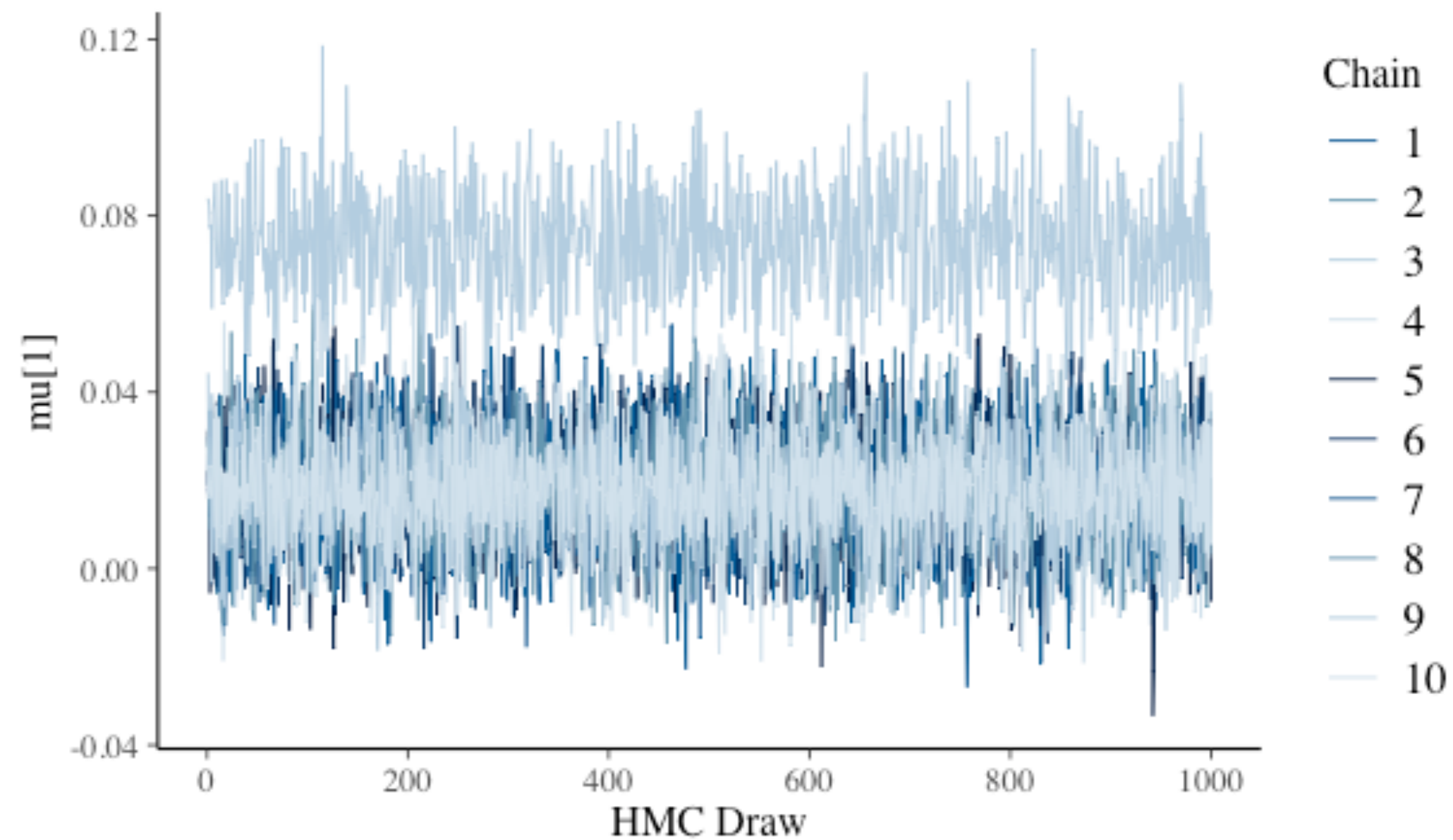
```
> print(singlets.truth3state.fit3state, max_rows=16)
```

variable	mean	median	sd	mad	q5	q95	rhat	ess_bulk
lp__	-3286.58	-3286.20	2.77	2.62	-3291.72	-3282.63	1.00	1248
theta[1,1]	0.79	0.79	0.02	0.02	0.76	0.81	1.00	3984
theta[2,1]	0.18	0.18	0.02	0.02	0.15	0.21	1.00	3091
theta[3,1]	0.07	0.06	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.10	1.00	3384
theta[1,2]	0.11	0.11	0.02	0.02	0.09	0.14	1.00	2793
theta[2,2]	0.72	0.72	0.02	0.02	0.68	0.75	1.00	2947
theta[3,2]	0.35	0.35	0.04	0.04	0.29	0.42	1.00	1960
theta[1,3]	0.10	0.10	0.01	0.01	0.08	0.12	1.00	2969
theta[2,3]	0.11	0.10	0.01	0.01	0.08	0.13	1.00	2964
theta[3,3]	0.58	0.58	0.04	0.04	0.51	0.65	1.00	1905
mu[1]	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.03	1.00	3865
mu[2]	2.07	2.07	0.05	0.05	1.99	2.15	1.00	2907
mu[3]	5.11	5.13	0.22	0.22	4.74	5.45	1.00	1568
sigma[1]	0.32	0.32	0.01	0.01	0.30	0.33	1.00	3696
sigma[2]	0.99	0.99	0.04	0.04	0.92	1.06	1.00	2751
sigma[3]	1.74	1.73	0.12	0.13	1.54	1.95	1.00	1720

Challenges

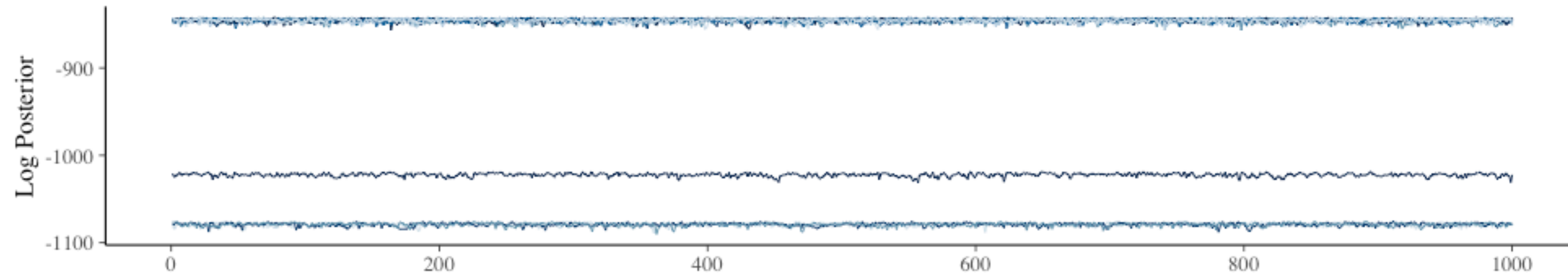
People think I'm an expert in HMMs, I say

I'm an expert in failing to fit hidden Markov models



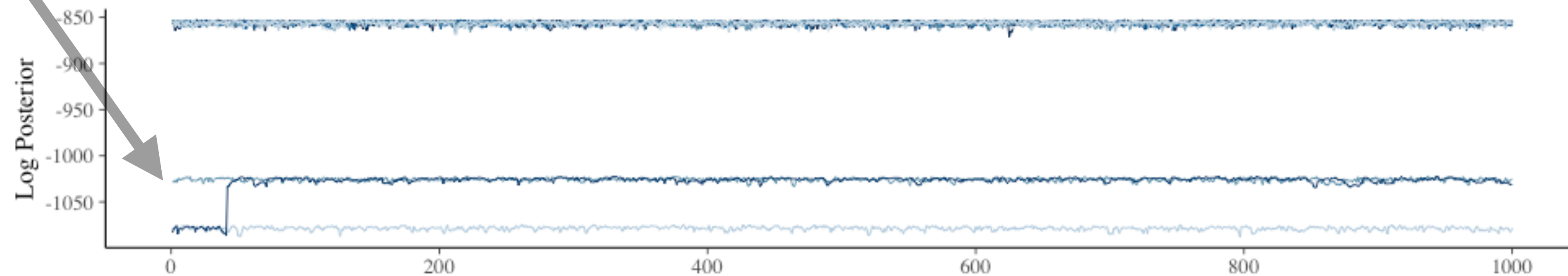
Fitting misspecified HMMs

2-state HMM when truth is a 3-state HMM



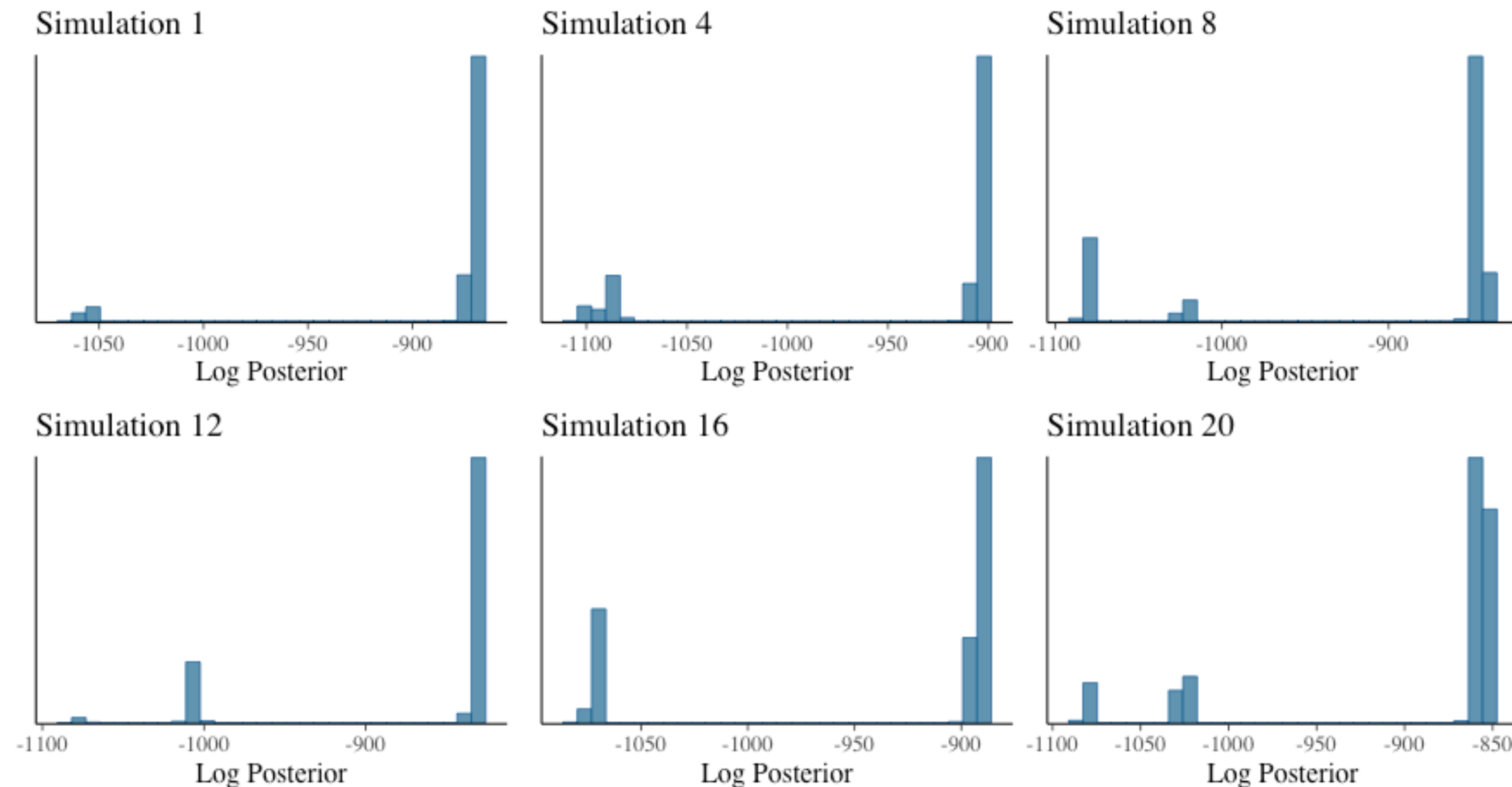
Chain — 1 — 4 — 7 — 10 — 13
— 2 — 5 — 8 — 11 — 14
— 3 — 6 — 9 — 12 — 15

Jump!



Fitting misspecified HMMs

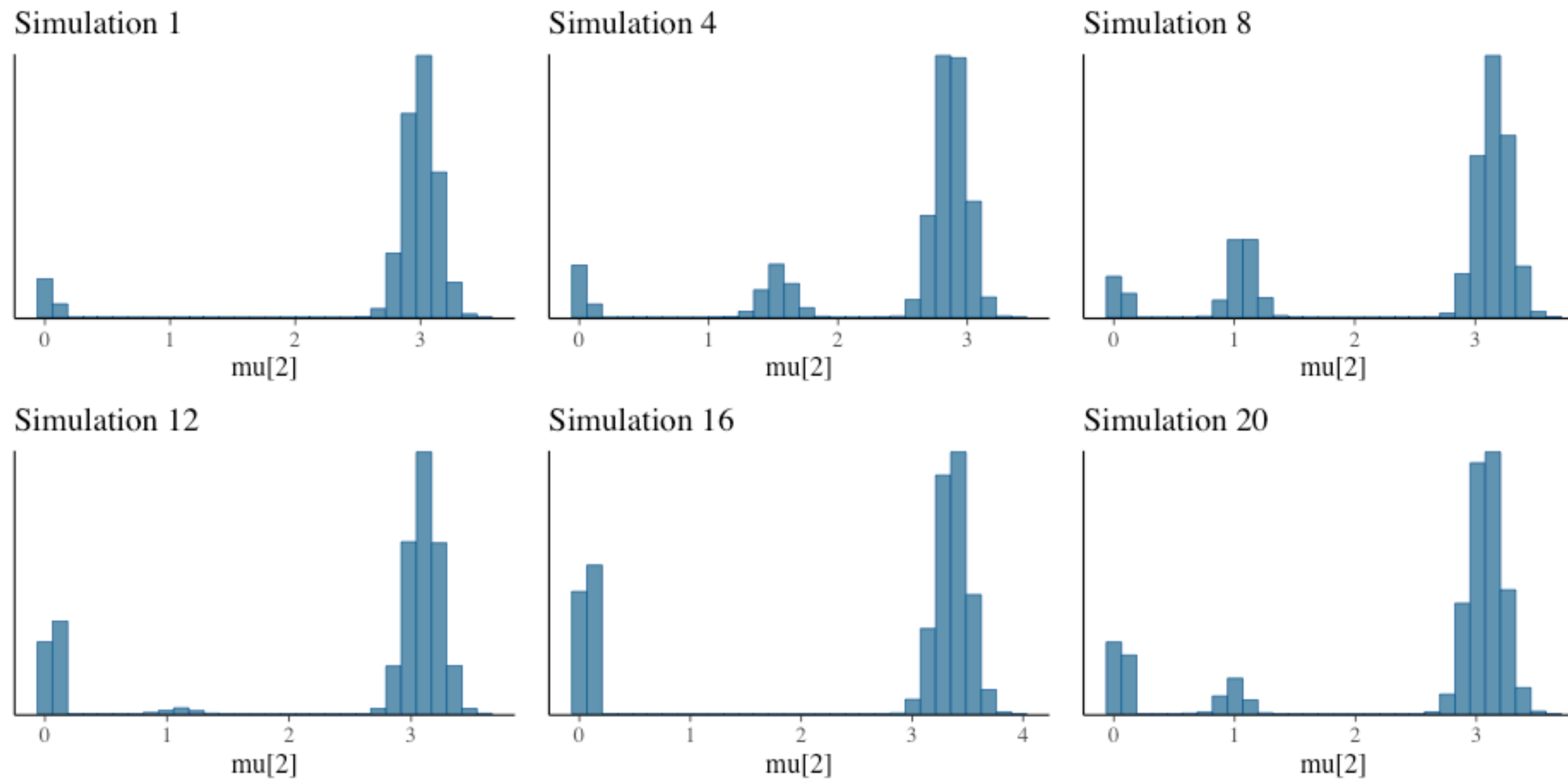
Log-posterior: $p(\theta | y)$



- **Multi-modal log-posterior**
- **Each mode corresponds to different sets of parameter values that could have generated the data**
- **Not clear how much probability is associated with each mode**

Fitting misspecified HMMs

Posterior draws for μ_2 across 6 simulations:



- ◆ These are NOT marginal distributions of μ_2
- ◆ These ARE values of μ_2 that are consistent with the data (and prior spec.)

Building intuition behind misspecification

- Fitting (increasingly complex) HMM to complex data often leads to multimodal posteriors along the way
- Simulating data and fitting under misspecification helps build intuition of how to do model building when things are seemingly ‘going wrong’
- For me, I really wanted to understand — **how do different misspecifications manifest themselves in terms of the behaviour of the likelihood/posterior distribution?** Stan is really helpful here.

Label-switching affects Bayesian inference

Fit HMMs using Bayesian inference in Stan

Extras

- Missing values
- Covariates
- Multivariate observations

Extras

- Mixed HMMs + random effects
- Continuous-time HMMs + more

Continuous-time HMMs

Beyond time-homogeneity for continuous-time multistate Markov models

Emmett B. Kendall¹, Jonathan P. Williams^{1,2}, Gudmund H. Hermansen^{2,3,4},
Frederic Bois⁵, and Vo Hong Thanh⁵

¹Department of Statistics, North Carolina State University

²Centre for Advanced Study, Norwegian Academy of Science and Letters

³University of Oslo

⁴Peace Research Institute Oslo (PRIO)

⁵CERTARA UK Limited, Simcyp Division, Level 2-Acero