Tractable Latent State Inference for Hidden Continuous-Time semi-Markov Chains

Abstract

Hidden semi-Markov Models (HSMM's) - while broadly in use - are restricted to a discrete and uniform time grid. They are thus not well suited to explain often irregularly spaced discrete event data from continuous-time phenomena. We show that non-sampling-based latent state inference used in HSMM's can be generalized to latent Continuous-Time semi-Markov Chains (CTSMC's). We formulate integro-differential forward and backward equations adjusted to the observation likelihood and introduce an exact integral equation for the Bayesian posterior marginals and a scalable Viterbi-type algorithm for posterior path estimates. All presented equations can be efficiently solved using existing numerical methods. We evaluate our approaches in latent state inference scenarios in comparison to classical HSMM's.

1 Introduction

Continuous-Time semi-Markov Chains (CTSMC's) comprise the continuous time analogue of (discrete-time) semi-Markov chains. In comparison to Markov chains, semi-Markov chains allow to model non-exponential, arbitrary waiting times between state changes. This more accurately matches such times occurring in many scientific fields [11]. Hidden semi-Markov Models (HSMM's) on finite state spaces have seen wide application and thorough research [22]. However, confronted with measurements from continuous-time systems, their adaptivity is limited and computation might become unnecessarily expensive. Because of that, continuous time analogues of HSMM's have seen increased research interest lately [17, 1, 6, 7]. However, latent state inference is hard in continuous time, since the usual methods demand a reformulation of the process to obtain the Markov property. Markovianization by state space expansion as used for HSMM's demands propagation of a semi-infinite uncountable state for latent CTSMC's even if the original state space is finite. Thus, besides ad-hoc discretization, two classes of solution methods have emerged. First, a variety of sampling-based solutions has been published, often targeted at even generalized problems [7, 2, 1, 9]. Second, if non-sampling based solutions are sought, state-space expansions based on approximations of waiting time measures are available [16]. This second class, by detour, essentially tries to approximate Kolmogorov's (forward/backward) equations. However, a general framework - not tailored to specific families of waiting time measures - is still lacking. Kolmogorov's equations in integro-differential form have been studied recently [20]. Although initial or terminal states are given, the equations rely on specific boundary conditions to restrict the non-Markovian process to the considered time-window. Fixed conditions hinder the equations' usage in latent state inference which typically spans many such time-windows. To alleviate this restriction, we show how to adjust the memory terms in Kolmogorov's equations to include observations. As a consequence, we provide general forward and a backward algorithms, each encoded in a single inhomogeneous integro-differential equation. We also provide a method for exact Bayesian smoothing which uses the quantities obtained from the forward and backward algorithms. As a corollary, we propose a Viterbi-type approach for maximum-a-posteriori path estimation and sketch a method to implement adaptive step-size HSMM's

that keep their homogenous properties. The resulting general framework may incorporate arbitrary numerical solvers available or make use of approximations by the mentioned second class of solution methods.

Related Work. Continuous-time HMM's and their inference has recently been compiled by [14]). Although tailored to a specific problem, an interesting MAP path estimation method for CT-HSMM's based on stochastic state classes has been published in [5]. Neural ODE's for the progression of memory variables have been investigated in [7]). An application of CT-HSMM's including parameter inference using a discretized waiting time variable [6, 17]. Generalized HSMM's that are lossless continuous discretizations but the transitions are observable has been proposed in [21]. An elaborate forward-filtering-backward-sampling for a HASMM [1]. To our knowledge, we are the first to introduce a "traditional" form of a forward-backward algorithm for a latent CTSMC. Also, while [5] is able to do MAP estimates of trajectories as well, their method is very different to our approach.

Notation. To maintain readability, we will use the symbol P to denote density and mass functions alike. Which kind is needed should be clear from the context. Nonetheless, we refer to appendix section A for derivations and proofs using a stricter notation style.

1.1 Continuous-Time semi-Markov Chains

A continuous-time semi-Markov chain (CTSMC) $\{X(t)\}_{t\geq 0}$ on a countable state space $\mathcal{X}$ is a stochastic jump process. The general process is described by transition rates $\lambda : \mathcal{X} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. Conditioned on the current state $x \in \mathcal{X}$ at time $t \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ and the time τ since the last transition at $t - \tau < t$, the rates $\lambda(x, \tau, t; x')$ describe the probability per unit time of transitioning shortly after time t to state x'. These transition rates suffice to resolve the waiting times and jump directions for each tuple (x, τ) at all times t. In this work, we restrict ourselves to CTSMC's which are homogeneous and direction-time independent. The former means that $\lambda(x, \tau, t; x') \equiv \lambda(x, \tau; x')$ at all times t. The latter additionally implies the factorization $\lambda(x, \tau; x') \equiv m(x' \mid x)\lambda(x, \tau)$ with the exit rate $\lambda(x, \tau) \equiv \sum_{x' \neq x} \lambda(x, \tau; x')$ and the transition probabilities of the embedded Markov chain $m(x' \mid x)$. Satisfying $\sum_{x' \neq x} m(x' \mid x) = 1$, i.e., excluding self-transitions, they form a categorical distribution over next states $x' \neq x$. Under direction-time independence, the waiting time in each state is thus statistically independent of the jump direction.

In this setting, for each state x, we have the waiting time measures $F(\tau \mid x) = 1 - \Lambda(\tau \mid x)$ with survival/tail functions $\Lambda(\tau \mid x) = \exp\left(-\int_0^\tau \mathrm{d}\tau'\, \lambda(x, \tau')\right)$ and their densities $f(\tau \mid x) = \lambda(x, \tau)\Lambda(\tau \mid x)$. For convenience of notation, we also introduce the forward transition operator of the embedded Markov chain M acting on a test-function g by $\mathsf{M}g(x, t) \equiv \sum_{x' \neq x} m(x \mid x')g(x', t)$ and its backward adjoint $\mathsf{M}^\dagger$, for which $\mathsf{M}^\dagger g(x, t) \equiv \sum_{x' \neq x} m(x' \mid x)g(x', t)$ holds.

Further, a homogeneous continuous-time Markov chain (CTMC) is a homogeneous and direction-time independent CTSMC which has constant rates in each state. As such, the rates $\lambda(x, \tau) \equiv \lambda(x)$ are left dependent only on the current state. Thus, the waiting time measures are strictly exponential and so $F(\tau \mid x) = 1 - \exp(-\lambda(x)\tau)$ and $f(\tau \mid x) = \lambda(x)\exp(-\lambda(x)\tau)$. Though significantly less expressive, inference in CTMC's is by large parts available analytically [18].

1.2 Observation Model

In this work, we consider a hidden continuous-time semi-Markov model, where the latent process is a CTSMC $\{X(t)\}_{t\geq 0}$. Its state $X(t)$ is observable indirectly by means of a dependent random variable $Y(t) \in \mathcal{Y}$ on an observation space $\mathcal{Y}$ available only at discrete time instances $t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_K$ assuming values $y_0, y_1, \ldots, y_K$. The conditional $\Pr(Y(t_k) \leq y_k \mid X(t_k) = x)$ is assumed to be known at observation instances. We collect all discrete event data in the measurement set $\mathcal{E} \equiv \{(y_k, t_k) \mid k \in \{0, 1, \ldots, K\}\}$. We also define the parametrizable subset $\mathcal{E}(t', t) \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ which extracts all samples within a specific time window $\mathcal{E}(t', t) \equiv \{(y_k, t_k) \mid (y_k, t_k) \in \mathcal{E}, t_k \in [t', t)\}$. Finally, we will often write events in the form $\mathbf{y}_{[t', t)}$ denoting the joint event obtained by intersecting single observation events, i.e., $\mathbf{y}_{[t', t)} \equiv \left\{\bigcap_{(y_k, t_k) \in \mathcal{E}(t', t)} Y(t_k) = y_k\right\}$.

1.3 General Idea

Latent state inference in Markov processes generally relies on the exploitation of their Markov property. It allows to describe the posterior latent state probability as a product of a forward and backward term. While the forward terms account for the probability of past observations at any time instance t, the backward terms describe the likelihood of future observations starting from t. In the semi-Markov case, such a factorization is generally not possible, i.e. for a state $X(t) = x_t$

$$\underbrace{P\left(x_t \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0,T)}\right)}_{\text{posterior}} \underset{\not\propto}{\not\propto} \underbrace{P\left(x_t \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0,t)}\right)}_{\text{forward}} \underset{\times}{\times} \underbrace{P\left(\mathbf{y}_{[t,T)} \mid x_t\right)}_{\text{backward}}. \tag{1}$$

However, as the name suggests, semi-Markov processes do not always violate the Markov property. In particular, the process is Markov at jump instances. Thus, with respect to state changes, we can again find a factorization similar to (1). To be made precise later, let Δ_t denote the event of $X(t)$ transitioning to a state $x \in \mathcal{X}$ from a different state $X(t^-) \neq x$ at time instance t. Then, in contrast to (1) it holds that

$$\underbrace{P\left(\Delta_t \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0,T)}\right)}_{\text{posterior}} \underset{\propto}{\propto} \underbrace{P\left(\Delta_t \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0,t)}\right)}_{\text{forward}} \underset{\times}{\times} \underbrace{P\left(\mathbf{y}_{[t,T)} \mid \Delta_t\right)}_{\text{backward}}, \tag{2}$$

where P now takes on the form of a density instead of the mass functions in (1). The term $P(\Delta_t \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0,t)})$ in (2) can be calculated under history dependence while the term $P(\mathbf{y}_{[t,T)} \mid \Delta_t)$ is by definition independent of any past trajectory up to t since it is conditioned on the state change at t. In the following, we refer to such quantities like those occuring on the right-hand side of (2) as "currents".

2 Forward and Backward Currents

Probability currents - in the context of Markov chains - are known from the balance equation [19]. They also occur in the description of other stochastic processes [12], CTSMC's in particular as well [15, 3]. In this section, we establish a general framework of input and output probability and likelihood currents under observations which is needed for the inference methods afterwards.

2.1 Input and Output Currents in Continuous-Time semi-Markov Chains

Consider again a CTSMC $\{X(t)\}_{t\geq 0}$ on a countable state space $\mathcal{X}$. Let a state $x \in \mathcal{X}$ of the chain and a time instance $t \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be given. The following events form the core of the following section. Let $\Delta_h(x, t) \equiv \{X(t) \neq x, X(t+h) = x\}$ denote the joint event of being in two different states x and some $x' \neq x$ at the beginning and end of a time-window of length h past t, i.e. the event of leaving state x between t and $t+h$. Let in contrast further $\nabla_h(x, t) \equiv \{X(t) = x, X(t+h) \neq x\}$ denote the joint event of being in state $x' \neq x$ at the beginning of the window and in state x at the end, i.e. entering state x between t and $t+h$. Then, we can quantify the flow of probability into x per unit time with $\phi(x, t) \equiv \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{1}{h} P\left(\Delta_h(x, t)\right)$. We call the quantity $\phi(x, t)$ the input current of state x at t. Analogously, we define the output current by $\psi(x, t) \equiv \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{1}{h} P\left(\nabla_h(x, t)\right)$.

In the following, we omit function arguments iff they are the same for all functions. Let the marginal probability of being in state x at t be denoted by $p(x, t) \equiv P(X(t) = x)$. Then, p is related to the input and output currents by

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p = \phi - \psi = (\mathsf{M} - \mathsf{I})\psi \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p(x, t) = \sum_{x' \neq x} m(x \mid x')\psi(x', t) - \psi(x, t), \tag{3}$$

where $\mathsf{I}\psi \equiv \psi$ is the identity operator. This equation is equivalent to the forward equation in an inhomogeneous CTMC and the currents $\phi(x, t)$, $\psi(x, t)$ can directly be derived from it (see appendix section A). The input and output currents are related by the forward transition operator of the embedded Markov chain $\phi = \mathsf{M}\psi$. The following Markov property makes the currents important w.r.t.. (2). Let $\mathbf{x}_{[t,t')}$ denote the trajectory of $X(t)$ in the interval $[t', t)$. Then, $\lim_{h\to 0} P\left(\mathbf{x}_{[t,T)} \mid \Delta_h(x, t), \mathbf{x}_{[0,t)}\right) = \lim_{h\to 0} P\left(\mathbf{x}_{[t,T)} \mid \Delta_h(x, t)\right)$ for any x and t. Thus, the current $\phi(x, t)$ specifies the probability of the CTSMC having the Markov property per unit time at t

Figure 1: *a)* Illustration of input and output currents to and from state x in a 3-state chain. Like an electric current quantifying the flow of charge across a set of wires, a probability current quantifies the flow of probability across a set of edges in the graph for an infinitesimal duration. Particularly, currents describing probability (and likelihood) flow into and out of single states are important in this work; *b)*, *c)*, *d)* Exemplary calculations of forward α (*b*), backward β (*c*) and posterior $\hat{p}$ (*d*) marginals from equations (10), (11) and (13) for only start- and endpoint constraints (Kolmogorov equations) for a three-state chain with Gamma distributions. The markers show a HSMM approximation with a step-size $h = 10^{-3}$.

next to entering state x. On the other hand $\psi(x, t)$ specifies the likelihood of being Markov at t and entering an arbitrary state $x' \neq x$. An illustration of input and output currents is given in Fig. 1.

In this work, we talk about forward or filtered currents specifically if we condition on past observations. For these, we write $\phi_\alpha(x, t) \equiv \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P\left(\Delta_h(x, t) \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0, t)}\right)$ and $\psi_\alpha(x, t) \equiv \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P\left(\nabla_h(x, t) \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0, t)}\right)$. We use the notation $\alpha(x, t) = P\left(X(t) = x \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0, t)}\right)$ for the forward marginals. For the forward currents and marginals (3) holds unaltered. We complement the forward currents with backward currents $\phi_\beta(x, t) \equiv \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P\left(\mathbf{y}_{[t, T)} \mid \Delta_h(x, t)\right)$ and $\psi_\beta(x, t) \equiv \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P\left(\mathbf{y}_{[t, T)} \mid \nabla_h(x, t)\right)$. We also assume a terminal condition to be fixed at $T \in \mathbb{R}$. Forward and backward currents share important properties. Let $\beta(x, t) = P\left(\mathbf{y}_{[t, T)} \mid X(t) = x\right)$ be a marginal likelihood complementing $\alpha(x, t)$. Then, we have for the both currents

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \alpha = \phi_\alpha - \psi_\alpha = (\mathsf{M} - \mathsf{I})\psi_\alpha \qquad \Big| \qquad \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \beta = \psi_\beta - \phi_\beta = \left(\mathsf{I} - \mathsf{M}^\dagger\right)\phi_\beta \tag{4}$$

while the backward currents are related by $\psi_\beta = \mathsf{M}^\dagger \phi_\beta$. Like (3), a resemblance to classical forward and backward equations in a CTMC is not coincidental in (4). We have seen that knowledge of the currents ϕ_α, ψ_α and ψ_β, ϕ_β fully enables calculation of forward and backward terms.

2.2 Path Marginalization and Integral Relations

Currents have a path-wise interpretation in the form of a marginalization. This, and their relation to the forward and backward terms (4), enables us to determine how the observations contribute to forward and backward terms under history dependence. In the following, we will use the shorthand $\mathbf{x}_{[t', t)} = x$ to denote the event of the trajectory $\mathbf{x}_{[t', t)}$ being constant in $X(\tau) = x, \forall \tau \in [t', t)$. We begin by resolving a relationship between p and ϕ fundamental to CTSMC's. Note, that the probability per unit time of $X(t)$ entering state x at $t - \tau, \tau > 0$, and staying in x at least until t, can be given by $\Lambda(\tau \mid x)\phi(x, t - \tau) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P\left(\mathbf{x}_{[t-\tau, t)} = x, \Delta_h(x, t - \tau)\right)$. To obtain $p(x, t)$, we need to marginalize over all trajectories $\mathbf{x}_{[t-\tau, t)}$ having state x at time t. Because of the Markov property at $t - \tau$, we only need to marginalize over all constant trajectories $\mathbf{x}_{[0, t-\tau)} = x$. Thus, we are left to integrate over all $\tau > 0$ to obtain $p(x, t)$. Doing this, we obtain the fundamental relationship

$$p = \mathsf{L}\phi + g_p \tag{5}$$

where L is a convolutional integral operator defined by $\mathsf{L}\phi(x, t) \equiv \int_0^t \mathrm{d}\tau\, \Lambda(t - \tau \mid x)\phi(x, \tau)$. The inhomogeneity $g_\phi : \mathcal{X} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ implements the initial condition. Instead of asking for x to be kept from $t - \tau$ at least until t, we may also demand a transition shortly after t to another state. This probability per unit time can then be given by $\lambda(x, \tau)\Lambda(\tau \mid x)\phi(x, t - \tau) = f(\tau)\phi(x, t - \tau) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P\left(\nabla_h(x, t - \tau), \mathbf{x}_{[t-\tau, t)} = x, \Delta_h(x, t - \tau)\right)$. As the result of a marginalization over trajectories similar to (5), i.e. integration over $\tau > 0$, we then obtain

$$\psi = \mathsf{F}\phi + g_\phi \tag{6}$$

with the integral operator $\mathsf{F}\phi\left(x,t\right)\equiv\int_0^t\mathrm{d}\tau\ f\left(t-\tau\mid x\right)\phi\left(x,\tau\right)$. Again, g_ϕ implements the initial condition. Note, that we can understand this as an expectation $\psi\left(x,t\right)=\mathsf{E}_F\left[\phi\left(x,t-\cdot\right)\right]$ over the waiting time measure $F\left(\cdot\mid x\right)$. Differentiating (5) w.r.t. time t and comparing the result with (3) and (6), we get the relation of the inhomogeneities $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}g_p+g_\phi=0$. Remembering that $\phi=\mathsf{M}\psi$, we can obtain the two identities $\psi=\mathsf{F}\mathsf{M}\psi+\mathsf{M}^\dagger g_\psi$ and $\phi=\mathsf{M}\mathsf{F}\phi+g_\phi$ where $g_\phi=\mathsf{M}^\dagger g_\psi$.

In the following, we account for observations and then close with the backward currents. Let $\upsilon\left(x,t',t\right)\equiv P\left(\mathbf{y}_{[t',t)}\mid\mathbf{x}_{[t',t)}=x\right)/P\left(\mathbf{y}_{[t',t)}\mid\mathbf{y}_{[0,t')}\right)$ be the normalized joint observation likelihood of the constant latent trajectory $\mathbf{x}_{[t',t)}=x$. The normalizer $P\left(\mathbf{y}_{[t',t)}\mid\mathbf{y}_{[0,t')}\right)$ is the same as implicitly used when normalizing in a CTMC filtering update. The $\upsilon\left(x,t',t\right)$ is then a t-family of piece-wise constant functions with discontinuities in the t'-direction (or vice-versa). For convenience, we define the modified integral operator $\mathsf{F}_\alpha\phi\left(x,t\right)\equiv\int_0^t\mathrm{d}\tau\ f_\upsilon\left(\tau,t\mid x\right)\phi\left(x,\tau\right)$, where $f_\upsilon\left(\tau,t\mid x\right)\equiv\upsilon\left(x,\tau,t\right)f\left(t-\tau\mid x\right)$. Define $\mathsf{L}_\alpha\phi\left(x,t\right)$ for $\Lambda_\upsilon\left(\tau,t\mid x\right)\equiv\upsilon\left(x,\tau,t\right)\Lambda\left(t-\tau\mid x\right)$ analoguously. Let further $\upsilon_0\left(x,t\right)\equiv\upsilon\left(x,0,t\right)$ be a shorthand for υ in the interval $[0,t)$. Then, we can generalize (5) and (6) to obtain

$$\alpha=\mathsf{L}_\alpha\phi_\alpha+\upsilon_0 g_p\quad\text{and}\quad\psi_\alpha=\mathsf{F}_\alpha\phi+\upsilon_0 g_\phi.\tag{7}$$

From (7) immediately follow the identities $\psi_\alpha=\mathsf{F}_\alpha\mathsf{M}\psi_\alpha+\upsilon_0\mathsf{M}g_\psi$ and $\phi_\alpha=\mathsf{M}\mathsf{F}_\alpha\phi_\alpha+\upsilon_0 g_\phi$. The backward currents obey relations analogous to (7). In the following, we will perform the similar construction. Consider the product $f\left(\tau\mid x\right)\psi_\beta\left(x,t+\tau\right)=\lim_{h\to 0}\frac{1}{h}P(\mathbf{y}_{[t,T)},\nabla_h\left(x,t+\tau\right),\mathbf{x}_{[t,t+\tau)}=x\mid\Delta_h\left(x,t-\tau\right))$. It gives the probability per unit time of keeping state x in the interval $[t,t+\tau)$, then leaving, and along the path encountering any future observations, all conditioned on entering state x at t. Thus, $\phi_\beta\left(x,t\right)$ can be obtained again by marginalization over future trajectories. The marginal likelihood $\beta\left(x,t\right)$ can also be shown to maintain an analogous relationship with $\Lambda\left(\tau\mid x\right)\psi_\beta\left(x,t+\tau\right)$. This is obtained by a two-side marginalization along state entry $\Delta_h\left(x,t-\tau\right)$ and exit $\nabla_h\left(x,t+\tau'\right)$ while implying no information on the time of entry $t-\tau$. We refer to appendix section A for the derivation, since it takes more steps. In the reverse direction as we did for the forward case (7), we similarly normalize β and the backwards currents ψ_β,ϕ_β by $P\left(\mathbf{y}_{[t,t')}\mid\mathbf{y}_{[0,t)}\right)$. This requires a full forward pass to be performed before the backward calculations. Define the integral operators $\mathsf{F}_\beta\psi\left(x,t\right)\equiv\int_t^T\mathrm{d}\tau\ f_\upsilon\left(t,\tau\mid x\right)\psi\left(x,\tau\right)$ and $\mathsf{L}_\beta\psi\left(x,t\right)$ for $\Lambda_\upsilon\left(t,\tau\mid x\right)$ analogously. Let further again $\upsilon_T\left(x,t\right)\equiv\upsilon\left(x,t,T\right)$ be a shorthand for υ in the interval $[t,T)$. As a conclusion, we obtain the relations

$$\beta=\mathsf{L}_\beta\psi_\beta+\upsilon_T\gamma_p\quad\text{and}\quad\phi_\beta=\mathsf{F}_\beta\psi_\beta+\upsilon_T\gamma_\psi,\tag{8}$$

where the inhomogeneities γ_p and γ_ψ implement the terminal condition. Note, that we write γ to distinguish from the g for the initial conditions. Again by differentiation and consultation of (**??**), we can find $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\gamma_p+\gamma_\phi=0$. Like before, the recurrence relations $\phi_\beta=\mathsf{M}^\dagger\mathsf{F}_\beta\phi_\beta+\upsilon_T\gamma_\psi$ and $\phi_\beta=\mathsf{F}_\beta\mathsf{M}^\dagger\phi_\beta+\upsilon_T\mathsf{M}^\dagger\gamma_\phi$ follow. Also, $\gamma_\psi=\mathsf{M}^\dagger\gamma_\phi$. Note, that if there are no observations and we only keep the terminal condition, a particular case of both equations in (8) similar to (5) and (6) is obtained.

3 Injecting Observations into Kolmogorov's Equations

We first briefly sketch the derivation of Kolmogorov's forward equation. Our goal is a direct relation between $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p$ and p. We start out with (3) relating $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p$ and ψ. We then have (6) expressing ψ in terms of ϕ and we also have (5) expressing p in terms of ϕ. Convolutional equations can be conveniently treated using the Laplace transform. We use it on (5) to express ϕ by a convolution of p, then plug the result into (6) to express ψ in terms of p. The latter result is then inserted into (3) to express $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p$ in terms of p. The result in the time domain is then

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p=\left(\mathsf{M}-\mathsf{I}\right)\mathsf{K}p+g\tag{9}$$

with the integral operator $\mathsf{K}p\left(x,t\right)\equiv\int_0^t\mathrm{d}\tau\ \kappa\left(x,t-\tau\right)p\left(x,\tau\right)$. The memory kernel κ is then given by $\mathcal{L}\left\{\kappa\right\}\left(x,s\right)\equiv\tilde{f}\left(s\mid x\right)/\tilde{\Lambda}\left(s\mid x\right)$ with $\tilde{f}$ and $\tilde{\Lambda}$ the Laplace transforms of f and Λ with the Laplace variable s. The symbol $\mathcal{L}$ thereby denotes the Laplace transform. The inhomogeneity g will be discussed at the end of the section.

Before we consider the backward case, we implement observations. Equation (9) is not simply understood as a marginalization over paths like (5) or (6). However, we can show that the path-wise contribution from the observation likelihood carries over from (7) and (8) to equation (9) under the condition that the observation likelihood function $\upsilon\left(x, t', t\right)$ is piecewise constant. The rationale is to subdivide the time-domain into intervals where $\upsilon\left(x, t', t\right)$ is constant under variation of t. The two-argument function $\bar{\upsilon}\left(x, \tau\right) \equiv \upsilon\left(x, \tau, t\right)$ is then a simple stepped function. Under this condition, we repeat the steps to obtain (9) but instead use our extended equations (7) under a time shift. We can then glue the obtained sequence of equations back together to obtain

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\alpha = (\mathsf{M} - \mathsf{I})\,\mathsf{K}_\alpha\alpha + \upsilon_0 g \tag{10}$$

with the modified integral operator $\mathsf{K}_\alpha\alpha\left(x, t\right) \equiv \int_0^t \mathrm{d}\tau \, \kappa_\upsilon\left(\tau, t, x\right) p\left(x, \tau\right)$ where $\kappa_\upsilon\left(x, \tau, t\right) \equiv \upsilon\left(x, \tau, t\right)\kappa\left(x, t - \tau\right)$. We conclude with the backward equation. This time we subdivide into time-intervals where $\upsilon\left(x, t', t\right)$ is constant under variation of t'. The two-argument function $\underline{\upsilon}\left(x, \tau\right) \equiv \upsilon\left(x, t', \tau\right)$ is then again a simple stepped function. For each time-interval we do the following steps. With (4) and the two equations in (8) we have a similar toolset to the forward case. Thus, we apply the Laplace transform to the left equation of (8). We then insert ψ_β expressed through β into the right equation of (8) which gets us ϕ_β in terms of β. Inserting this expression into (4) yields the backward equation valid for the considered time-interval . Again glueing the obtained sequence of equations back together, we finally obtain

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\beta = \left(\mathsf{I} - \mathsf{M}^\dagger\right)\mathsf{K}_\beta\beta + \upsilon_T\gamma \tag{11}$$

with the integral operator $\mathsf{K}_\beta\beta\left(x, t\right) \equiv \int_t^T \mathrm{d}\tau \, \kappa_\upsilon\left(x, t, \tau\right)\beta\left(x, \tau\right)$. Both inhomogeneities g and γ can be built from the inhomogeneities g_p, g_ϕ and γ_p, γ_ψ from section 2.2. They satisfy the equations $g \equiv (\mathsf{M} - \mathsf{I})\left(g_\phi - \mathsf{K}_\alpha g_p\right)$ and $\gamma \equiv \left(\mathsf{I} - \mathsf{M}^\dagger\right)\left(\mathsf{K}_\beta\gamma_p - \gamma_\psi\right)$. We will consider these in the next section. Finally, note that equations (10) and (11) can not simply be multiplied to obtain the full Bayesian posterior w.r.t. the observations.

4 Latent State Inference

There are two possibilities to realize the forward and backward algorithms. We exemplify this on the forward algorithm in the following. In popular HSMM literature [22], the discrete-time equivalent of the products ϕ_α and/or ψ_α are fully calculated and α is derived from them using (3). This general procedure poses the computationally most efficient overall solution under two circumstances. First, if we also aim to calculate the full Bayesian posterior $P\left(X\left(t\right) = x \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0, T)}\right)$ for all t we need ϕ_α and/or ψ_α anyway. Second, if the classical memory kernel K and thus K_α is hard to evaluate (e.g. by numerical inverse Laplace transform), an evaluation of F and thus F_α might be computationally preferable, even if we need to perform an integration afterwards. In this work, we chose to evaluate α and β directly from (10) and (11) using a finite-element approach. Thus, we introduce a time-mesh $t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_K$, where we set each t_k exactly at the times of observation.

Boundary Conditions. Until now, we assumed the boundary conditions g and γ to be known but didn't specify them. Compared to CTMC's, the boundary conditions are not single states but semi-infinite trajectories starting . In HSMM literature [22], there are two popular boundary conditions. The first assumes, a transition occures both before t_0 and after t_K. The second assumes a steady state before t_0 and an uninformed progression after t_K. The latter corresponds to the case that is classically expressed by a vector of ones in HMM's when the backward term is initialized. More on boundary conditions and their exact expression are found in appendix section A.

4.1 Unidirectional Forward and Backward Algorithms

We formulate the general forward and backward algorithms in appendix section C. The interpolants α_k and β_k valid in the k-th time interval $t \in [t_k, t_{k+1})$ obey the following integral equations

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\alpha_k = (\mathsf{M} - \mathsf{I})\,\mathsf{K}_{[t_k, t)}\alpha_k + g_k \qquad \Bigg| \qquad \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\beta_k = \left(\mathsf{I} - \mathsf{M}^\dagger\right)\mathsf{K}_{(t, t_{k+1}]}\beta_k + \gamma_k \tag{12}$$

where we introduce the truncated integral operators $\mathsf{K}_{[a, b)}\alpha_k \equiv \int_a^b \mathrm{d}\tau \, \kappa\left(t - \tau, x\right)\alpha_k\left(x, \tau\right)$ and $\mathsf{K}_{(a, b]}\beta_k \equiv \int_a^b \mathrm{d}\tau \, \kappa\left(\tau - t, x\right)\beta_k\left(x, \tau\right)$. The inhomogeneities g_k and γ_k are built during runtime

from the overall boundary condition g_0, the previous interpolants $\alpha_{k'}$, $k' < k$, and the scaling function υ. The analogue with γ_K and $\beta_{k'}$, $k' > k$ holds for the backward case.

4.2 Forward-Backward Algorithm - Posterior Marginals

Obtaining the posterior marginals is possible on the level of currents. Since they mark times when the CTSMC has the Markov property, we can build products of the two normalized currents $\psi_\alpha(x, t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P(\nabla_h(x, t) \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0, t)})$ and $\psi_\beta(x, t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P(\mathbf{y}_{[t, T)} \mid \nabla_h(x, t)) / P(\mathbf{y}_{[t, T)} \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0, t)})$ to obtain the posterior current $\hat{\psi}(x, t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P(\nabla_h(x, t) \mid \mathbf{y}_{[0, T)})$. which we can use in (3) to obtain the derivative $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\hat{p}$. However, we discuss this approach in appendix section C. Although it being preferable from a runtime perspective, the approach is more susceptible to numerical errors. A numerically preferable and more classical approach uses a two-sided path marginalization and is popular in discrete-time HSMM literature [22]. Thus, we suggest calculating the posterior marginals using

$$\hat{p}(x, t) \propto \int_0^t \mathrm{d}\tau \int_t^T \mathrm{d}\tau'\, \phi_\alpha(x, t - \tau)\, f(\tau + \tau' \mid x)\, \psi_\beta(x, t + \tau')\, \upsilon(t - \tau, t + \tau) \quad (13)$$

Note that both currents ϕ_α and ψ_β are obtained as by-products without additional computation from the unidirectional forward and backward algorithms introduced in section 4.1. Although (13) is a two-dimensional integral and therefor scales quadratically with T, it is linear in $|\mathcal{X}|$ since only components of one state occur. An algorithmic description can be found in appendix section D.

4.3 Viterbi-type Algorithm - Latent Trajectory Point Estimation

Besides latent state marginals, point estimates of whole posterior paths are as well important in further inference tasks. Originally stemming from HMM's, the Viterbi algorithm which calculates MAP path estimates has been successfully adopted to HSMM's [22]. However, like in hidden CTMC's, the unknown chain length, i.e. the number of state changes until the terminal state is reached, makes the algorithm hard to translate to continuous time. One is therefor often content with knowing the MAP state only at observation times [14]. The latter can in principle be calculated for hidden CTSMC's using our forward equation (9). Nonetheless, for a finite number of jumps, the framework of currents allows the formulation of a scalable full-path algorithm. A max-product-type reformulation of (x) allows an introduction of a max-input current

$$\phi_{\max}(x, t; n) \equiv \sup_{\mathbf{x}_{[0, t)}} \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P\left(\Delta_h(x, t), \mathbf{x}_{[0, t)}, \mathbf{y}_{[0, t)} \mid n\right)$$

which - bluntly speaking - substitutes the marginalization in ϕ_α with a supremum. To keep track of the jump count, we equip this current with an additional parameter n. We also introduce a maximizing transition operator $\mathsf{M}_{\max}$ for the embedded Markov chain $\mathsf{M}_{\max} g(x, t) \equiv \max_{x' \neq x} m(x \mid x') g(x', t)$. The transition operator $\mathsf{M}_{\max}$ resembles M where the sum over the set $\mathcal{X} \setminus \{x\}$ is exchanged by a maximization. The constituting recursion for $\phi_{\max}(x, t; n)$ is then given by

$$\phi_{\max}(x, t; n + 1) = \sup_{x' \neq x,\, \tau \in \mathbb{R}_+} m(x \mid x')\, f(t - \tau \mid x')\, \upsilon(t - \tau, t)\, \phi_{\max}(x', \tau; n)$$

which calculates the max-currents $\phi_{\max}(x, t; n + 1)$ associated with the incremented chain length $n + 1$. A detailed description and a comparison to the original Viterbi algorithm is found in appendix section A. The MAP terminal state x is related to the currents by

$$\sup_{\mathbf{x}_{[0, T)}} P\left(\mathbf{x}_{[0, T)}, \mathbf{y}_{[0, T)}\right) \propto \sup_{x,\, \tau,\, n} \Lambda(t - \tau \mid x)\, \upsilon(t - \tau, t)\, \phi_{\max}(x, \tau; n)\, P(n)$$

Let us ignore the chain length marginal $P(n)$ for now and assume we found a maximizing tuple (x^*, τ^*, n^*). Then, if $n^* > 0$, we can insert $\phi_{\max}(x^*, \tau^*; n^*)$ in (4.3) and proceed to trace back states and transition instances until the jump counter reaches zero. However, to find the tuple (x^*, τ^*, n^*), we need knowledge of at least some scaling factor $L(n) \propto P(n)$. Proper normalization to get $P(n)$ requires knowledge of n up to infinity, which is intractable. However, a scaling factor $L(n)$ can be found recursively. To do this, two more sets of input currents $\phi_n(x, t) \equiv$

291    $\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} P\left(\Delta_h\left(x, t\right), \mathbf{y}_{[0, t)}, n\right)$ and marginals $p_n\left(x, T\right) \equiv P\left(X\left(T\right) = x, \mathbf{y}_{[0, t)}, n\right)$ are intro-
292   duced. The $\phi_n\left(x, t\right)$ and $p_n\left(x, T\right)$ are then updated by

$$\phi_{n+1}\left(x, t\right) = \sum_{x' \neq x} m\left(x \mid x'\right) \int_0^t \mathrm{d}\tau \ f\left(t - \tau \mid x'\right) \upsilon\left(t - \tau, t\right) \phi_n\left(x', \tau\right) \qquad (14)$$

$$p_n\left(x, T\right) = \int_0^t \mathrm{d}\tau \ \Lambda\left(t - \tau \mid x\right) \upsilon\left(t - \tau, t\right) \phi_n\left(x, \tau\right)$$

293   The currents are initialized by $\phi_0\left(x, t\right) = \upsilon\left(0, t\right) g_\phi(x, t)$. Note that (14) does not converge to
294   the fixed-point ϕ_α but instead will vanish for $n \to \infty$. The factors $L\left(n\right) \equiv P\left(\mathbf{y}_{[0, t)}, n\right) =$
295    $\sum_x p_n\left(x, T\right)$ can then be obtained by marginalization. Again, we refer to appendix section A.
296   Unfortunately, to obtain an exact result, we still need to evaluate all equations for arbitrarily large n.
297   For most practical scenarios, however, the most likely number of transitions n^* might be manageable.
298   We stress that the bottleneck of our algorithm is the number of transitions, not their temporal closeness.

5   Adaptive Step-Size HSMM

300   One of the major advantages of continuous-time formulations is the availability of adaptive discretiza-
301   tion [8, 4]. Although many continuous problems eventually need to be solved numerically on a
302   discrete grid, adaptive step size methods can bound the discretization error and allow a reduction of
303   the amount of function evaluations. While much more elaborate techniques with tight error bounds
304   are available for integral equations [10], we briefly sketch a simple adaptive discretization strategy to
305   close with a practical perspective on the contributions in this work.

306   This strategy consists of maintaining a time-dependent set of samples of approximate currents and
307   their timestamps $\Phi_\alpha(t) \equiv \{(\phi_{\alpha,k}, t_k) \mid t_K - t_0 < \Delta_{\max}, t_0 < \cdots < t_K, k = 0, \ldots, K\}$. An
308   analogue set is built for ψ_β. Then, by inserting polynomial interpolants (e.g. affine combinations
309   of adjacent $(\phi_{\alpha,k}, t_k)$ and $(\phi_{\alpha,k+1}, t_{k+1})$), we can reformulate (7) so that it only contains the $\phi_{\alpha,k}$,
310   t_k and definite integrals of the $f(\cdot \mid x)$. For these integrals, look-up tables are easily generated for
311   speedup. The resulting linear system can then be solved to calculate the next step $\phi_\alpha^{(1)}(x, t_K + h)$.
312   As a commonly adapted update rule for step size h, we use half step checks $\phi_\alpha^{(0.5)}(x, t_K + h)$, where
313   we do two steps using $\frac{h}{2}$ as step size and then calculate $E \equiv |\phi_\alpha^{(1)}(x, t_K + h) - \phi_\alpha^{(0.5)}(x, t_K + h)|$.
314   The integration error E is then used in the update $h \to \max\{\min\{hs, h_{\max}, t' - t_K - h\}, h_{\min}\}$
315   with the scaling $s = \max\{\min\{\frac{\mathrm{tol}}{E}, s_{\max}\}, s_{\min}\}$ for some pre-specified $h_{\min}, h_{\max}, s_{\min}, s_{\max}$
316   and the next observation time t'.

317   The resulting HSMM is then only dependent on time-differemces, i.e. still homogeneous, but adapts
318   its step-size. In appendix section C, we provide the resulting update equation if affine combinations
319   are used as interpolants between the points $(\phi_{\alpha,k}, t_k)$ and an implicit Euler step rule is chosen.

6   Evaluation

321   Our algorithms demand the solution of integral equations of the second kind with discontinuities.
322   For each time interval $[t, t')$ between observations, we used a basic backward Euler method to
323   solve the possibly stiff equations (7), (10), (8) or (11) with a fixed number of steps calculated by
324    $N \equiv \lfloor \frac{t' - t}{h} \rfloor + 1$. Thus, all steps are of equal length with exception of those at the end of an interval
325   which scales dependent on t'. An exception is the evaluation of the adaptive step-size HSMM. There,
326   as described in section 5, the step size is initialized by the smallest value 10^{-4} and then the adaptive
327   procedure generates any further grid instances. The integration itself is performed by interpolation
328   between the steps, where the trapezoidal rule has been used. For forward an backward passes, each
329   interval is then calculated consecutively while the inhomogeneities g and γ are updated upon entering
330   each new interval. The calculated functions α, β, $\hat{p}$ and the currents were generated using cubic
331   spline interpolation. The exact procedure is detailed in appendix section D.

332   We calculated several randomly generated hidden CTSMC's specifying the set of states. Waiting
333   times where drawn randomly from a given family of distributions and transition operators of the
334   embedded Markov chains were sampled as sets of random categorical distributions on the state space.

Figure 2: *a)* Normalized (posterior) forward and backward currents ($\hat{\phi}_\alpha$, $\hat{\psi}_\beta$) of a latent CTSMC in presence of observations (vertical gray dotted lines). The areas outside the actual trajectory show the boundary (extending to infinity); *b)* Mean and variance progression of posterior latent state marginals $\hat{p}$ inferred from the shown trajectory as the original CTSMC (blue) the optimal steady-state CTMC approximation (orange); *c)* Time grid generated by an adaptive step-size HSMM in a forward pass as proposed in section 5 (orange markers). The continuous blue line was generated by a discrete HSMM with step size $h = 10^{-3}$; *d)* MAP latent trajectory estimate for a sample trajectory from a four-state hidden CTSMC. Left: estimated trajectory (blue), second-best candidate (orange). Right: the scaling function $L(n) \propto P(n)$ for different chain lengths,

For each waiting time family, we had a Gamma prior over each parameter with per-family calibrated hyperparameters. The categorical distributions were sampled drawing a sequence of iid multinomial outcomes of which ensemble frequencies were calculated to generate a categorical mass function. The observation times were drawn from a Gamma process with hyperparameters shape and rate, while the observation values were noisy state observations $Y(t) \mathcal{N}(X(t), \sigma)$ with the std σ a given hyperparameter. Details are found in appendix section E.

The calculated α, β, $\hat{p}$ were compared to those calculated by a HSMM. With a step-size of $h_{\text{HSMM}} = 10^{-4}$ and $h_{\text{CTSMC}} = 10^{-3}$, no difference was visible anymore on any calculated trajectory. In Fig. 2.b the smoothed marginals $\hat{p}$ of a four-state CTSMC are compared to those obtained from its steady-state CTMC approximation [13]. We built the adative step-size HSMM using our proposed method and ran it over the sampled trajectories as well. While quickly enlarging its step-size, it remained within the margins of a total error of 10^{-3} compared to a fine-grained HSMM although not guaranteed by the method. An example run is shown in Fig. 2.c. Finally, we testet our Viterbi MAP estimator on the trajectories. An example run is shown in 2.d. The chain length scaling factor $L(n) \propto P(n)$ had a comparably sharp peak in all trajectories (cf. appendix section D). We assume, this came from the observations greatly narrowing down the amount of candidate transition counts.

7 Conclusion

We have presented a forward-backward framework applicable to hidden CTSMC's. Avoidîng state space augmentation to enforce the Markov property, it gives rise to integral and integro-differential forward and backward equations and a scalable Viterbi algorithm. Adaptive step-size HSMM's can be derived, overcoming discrete-time core problems: out-of-grid observations and steady-state over-computation. We didn't consider CTSMC's not satisfying direction-time independence which are especially interesting for coarse-graining of large Markovian systems. Also, specific classes of waiting times could allow efficient computation of currents, e.g. power-law waiting times related to fractional calculus being of recent interest in physics. Possible solutions would then fit naturally in our framework which handles observation likelihood of past events.

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