

# Piece-wise Deterministic Markov Processes (PDMP)

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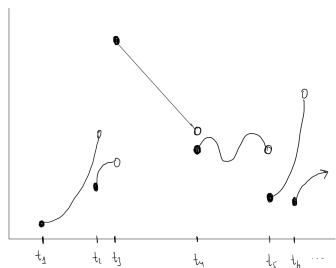
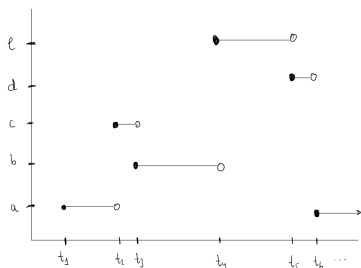
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## Some intuition...

- *"PDMP are continuous-time processes that evolve deterministically between a countable set of random event times"*.

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# Definition

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A **Piecewise-Deterministic Markov Process** is a continuous-time stochastic process whose dynamics involve random events with deterministic dynamics between events and random transition at events  $\{Z_t : t \geq 0\}$ . These dynamics are defined through the specification of three quantities:

- 1 The **deterministic dynamics**:

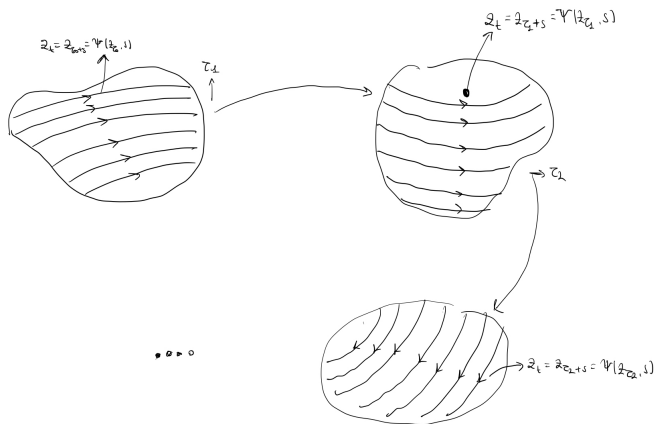
$$\frac{dZ_t^{(i)}}{dt} = \phi_i(Z_t)$$

- 2 The **event rate**: events occur singularly at a rate  $\lambda(z_t)$  that depends on the current state.
- 3 **Transition kernel**: at any event time  $\tau$ :

$$z_\tau \sim q(\cdot | z_{\tau-})$$

for some probability distribution.

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# Why PDMPs

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- ① **Continuity**: well suited for Big Data, allows to target the posterior exactly even when subsampling.
- ② **Non-reversibility**: speeds up convergence to invariant distribution.
- ③ **Designability**: generic schemes exist to fairly easily design desirable PDMPs.

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# Generator

## Definition

**Generator** of a continuous-time stochastic process is an operator on functions with existing limit on the state-space:

$$\mathcal{A}f(z) = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbb{E}[f(Z_{t+\delta})|Z_t] - f(z)}{\delta}$$

## Proposition

$$\frac{d\mathbb{E}(f(Z_t))}{dt} = \mathbb{E}(\mathcal{A}(f(Z_t)))$$

## Theorem (Davies 1984)

For a Piece-wise Deterministic Process:

$$\mathcal{A}f(x) = \phi(z) \cdot \nabla f(z) + \lambda(z) \cdot \int q(z'|z) \cdot [f(z') - f(z)] dz'$$

# Adjoint

## Definition

The **adjoint operator** of the generator may be defined as the operator  $\mathcal{A}^*$  such that

$$\int g(z)\mathcal{A}f(z)dz = \int f(z)\mathcal{A}^*g(z)dz$$

# Adjoint

## Definition

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## Proposition (Fokker-Plank Equation)

Let  $p_t(z)$  the PDF of  $Z_t$ , then

$$\frac{\partial p_t(z)}{\partial t} = \mathcal{A}^*p_t(z)$$

## Proposition

The adjoint operator of the generator of a PDMP can be written as:

$$\mathcal{A}^*g(z) = - \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{\partial(\phi_i(z) \cdot g(z))}{\partial z^i} + \int g(z') \lambda(z') q(z|z') dz' - g(z) \lambda(z)$$

# Invariance

Using the Fokker-Plank equation, a probability distribution  $\pi(z)$  is the invariant distribution of a PDMP if and only if

$$\mathcal{A}^* \pi(z) = 0$$

Putting all together:

## Corollary

$\pi(z)$  is the invariant distribution of a PDMP if and only if:

$$-\sum_{i=1}^d \frac{\partial(\phi_i(z) \cdot \pi(z))}{\partial z^i} + \int \pi(z') \lambda(z') q(z|z') dz' - \pi(z) \lambda(z) = 0 \quad (1)$$

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# Data Augmentation

**Most common approach** is to consider  $Z_t = (X_t, V_t)$  and choose the dynamics so that our distribution of interest  $\pi(x)$  is the marginal distribution of  $X$  in the invariant distribution.

- 1 Choose some dynamics:

$$\frac{dx^i}{dt} = v_t^i \quad ; \quad \frac{dv_t^i}{dt} = 0 \quad (2)$$

- 2 Compute the rates and the kernel so that (1) is satisfied.

## Choosing rates and kernel

- Under regular assumptions, (1) can be re-written as:

$$p(v) \cdot \lambda(x, v) - \int \lambda(x, v') \cdot q(v|x, v') \cdot p(v') dv' = -p(v) \cdot v \cdot \nabla_x \log(\pi(x)) \quad (3)$$

- Integrating both sides with respect to  $v$  yields:

$$\nabla_x \log(\pi(x)) \cdot \mathbb{E}(V) = 0 \quad \forall x \Rightarrow \quad \mathbb{E}(V) = 0$$

- A **flip operator**  $F_x$  is therefore defined, satisfying  $F_x(F_x(v)) = v$  and defining the transition kernel as a Dirac delta mass centred at  $v' = F_x(v)$

## Choosing rates and kernel

- Including this latter condition, (3) becomes:

$$\lambda(x, v) - \lambda(x, v') = -v \cdot \nabla_x \log(\pi(x)) \quad (4)$$

- The smallest rates compatible with (4) can be shown to be

$$\lambda(x, v) = \max\{0, -v \cdot \nabla_x \log(\pi(x))\}$$

and are known as **canonical rates**.

### Example

The **Boomerang Sampler** is defined by

$$F_x(v) = v - 2 \cdot \frac{v \cdot \nabla_x \log(\pi(x))}{\nabla_x \log(\pi(x)) \cdot \nabla_x \log(\pi(x))} \cdot \nabla_x \log(\pi(x))$$

The **Zig-Zag sampler** flips instead one component of the velocity at a time.

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# Simulating from a PDMP

Using the defining quantities:

- 1 Given  $Z_t$ , simulate the next event time  $\tau$

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$$z_{\tau-} = \psi(z_t, \tau - t)$$

# Simulating from a PDMP

Using the defining quantities:

- 1 Given  $Z_t$ , simulate the next event time  $\tau$
- 2 Calculate the state immediately before the event time  
$$z_{\tau-} = \psi(z_t, \tau - t)$$
- 3 Draw the new value immediately after the event:  $z_{\tau} \sim q(\cdot | z_{\tau-})$

# The non-homogeneous Poisson Process

Note that the rates:

$$\lambda(z_{t+s}) = \lambda(\psi(z_t, s)) = \tilde{\lambda}_{z_t}(s)$$

and thus can be analytically defined by a function of time starting at each event time. They change at each time  $t$  considered (which, recall it is considered over a continuous domain).

- ① Event times can be simulated as arrival times of a Poisson Process with rates  $\tilde{\lambda}_{z_t}(s)$ .



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- 1 Event times can be simulated as arrival times of a Poisson Process with rates  $\tilde{\lambda}_{z_t}(s)$ .
- 2 It is unclear how we can do that (and complicated) in general. Such Poisson Process is **Non-Homogeneous** and rates change continuously.

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# Difficulties

- 1 "*Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle*" is not possible to simultaneously observe the current state and whether or not an event has occurred.

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- 1 "*Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle*" is not possible to simultaneously observe the current state and whether or not an event has occurred.
- 2 Recall the canonical rates derived  $\lambda(x, v) = \max\{0, -v \cdot \nabla_x \log(\pi(x))\}$ . In the Bayesian Big Data setting, when using a subsample to estimate the gradient,  $\lambda$  becomes a random variable. We face here the challenge of simulating from a **Doubly-Stochastic** or **Cox** process.

# Main methods to simulate event times

- If  $\Lambda(t) = \int_0^t \lambda(u)du$  can be computed in a closed form, the following result can be used.

## Theorem (Cinlar)

*$T_1, \dots, T_n$  are arrival times of a Poisson Process with intensity function  $\lambda(t)$  if and only if  $\Lambda(T_1), \dots, \Lambda(T_n)$  are arrivals of a Poisson Process with rate 1.*

For  $n = 1, \dots$

- 1 Compute  $\Lambda(t) = \int_0^t \tilde{\lambda}_{z_{\tau_{n-1}}}(u)du$ .
- 2 Simulate  $T \sim Exp(1)$
- 3 Find  $\tau_n$  such that  $\Lambda(\tau_n) = T$

Then  $\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n$  are event times.

# Main methods to simulate event times

- If  $\tilde{\lambda}_{z_t}(s)$  cannot be integrated but instead it can be upper bounded along the domain:  $\tilde{\lambda}_{z_t}(s) < \lambda^+$  then another result regarding the thinning property of Poisson Processes may be used:

## Theorem (Lewis and Shedler 1979)

*If  $t_0$  is an arrival time of a Poisson Process with rate  $\lambda^+$  then, it is also an arrival time of a coupled Poisson Process of rate  $\tilde{\lambda}_{z_t}(s)$  with probability  $\frac{\tilde{\lambda}_{z_t}(t_0)}{\lambda^+}$*

Note that the tighter the bound the more efficient the sampling will be.

# Main methods to simulate event times

**Most common approach:** combination of both.

- 1 Choose a simple function (commonly linear or piece-wisely linear)  $\lambda^+(t)$  that upper bounds the rates.

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# Main methods to simulate event times

**Most common approach:** combination of both.

- 1 Choose a simple function (commonly linear or piece-wisely linear)  $\lambda^+(t)$  that upper bounds the rates.
- 2 Use Cinlar's Theorem to simulate arrivals from the upper bound non-homogeneous process.
- 3 Use the Thinning Theorem to simulate event times from out PDMP.

## More sophisticated methods

- 1 For the **doubly-stochastic** process that arises in Bayesian inference for big data: use some available statistical model to estimate the rates. Note that in such cases the rates:

$$\lambda(z) = \max\{0, -v \cdot \nabla_x \left[ \log(f(x)) + \sum_{i=1}^N \log(p(y_i|x)) \right]\}$$

when using subsampling become a random quantity:

$$\hat{\lambda}(z) = \max\{0, -v \cdot \nabla_x \left[ \log(f(x)) + \frac{N}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log(p(y_{r_i}|x)) \right]\}$$

## Example: Regression

### Example (Pacman et al. 2014)

- Model the rates using **Linear Regression** on previous steps:

$$\hat{\lambda}_i = \beta_1 t_i + \beta_0 + \epsilon_{t_i}$$

where  $t_i$  represent the previous observed event times.

- Then compute a confidence band  $[\tilde{\lambda}_L, \tilde{\lambda}_U]$  for a given probability and use  $\tilde{\lambda}_U$  as an upper bound to apply the combination of the first two methods.
- However this comes at a **cost**: it is not an almost sure upper band and introduces bias (recall unbiasedness was one of the reasons underlying the whole construction).

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# Main Samplers

## ① Bouncy Particle Sampler

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- 1 **Bouncy Particle Sampler**
- 2 **Zig-Zag Sampler**

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- ① **Bouncy Particle Sampler**
- ② **Zig-Zag Sampler**
- ③ **Boomerang Sampler**

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- ① **Bouncy Particle Sampler**
- ② **Zig-Zag Sampler**
- ③ **Boomerang Sampler**
- ④ Illustration of the samplers