# Incremental HMM with an improved Baum-Welch Algorithm 

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#### Abstract

There is an increasing demand for systems which handle higher density, additional loads as seen in storage workload modelling, where workloads can be characterized on-line. This paper aims to find a workload model which processes incoming data and then updates its parameters "on-the-fly." Essentially, this will be an incremental hidden Markov model (IncHMM) with an improved Baum-Welch algorithm. Thus, the benefit will be obtaining a parsimonious model which updates its encoded information whenever more real time workload data becomes available. To achieve this model, two new approximations of the Baum-Welch algorithm are defined, followed by training our model using discrete time series. This time series is transformed from a large network trace made up of I/O commands, into a partitioned binned trace, and then filtered through a K-means clustering algorithm to obtain an observation trace. The IncHMM, together with the observation trace, produces the required parameters to form a discrete Markov arrival process (MAP). Finally, we generate our own data trace (using the IncHMM parameters and a random distribution) and statistically compare it to the raw I/O trace, thus validating our model.


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## 1 Introduction

A hidden Markov model (HMM) is a bivariate Markov chain which encodes information about the evolution of a time series. First developed by Baum and Petrie in 1966 [1], HMMs can faithfully represent workloads for discrete time processes and therefore be used as portable benchmarks to explain and predict the complex behaviour of these processes. When constructing a HMM, the three main problems that need to be addressed are: First, given the model parameters, compute the probability that the HMM generates a particular sequence of observations, solved by the Forward-Backward algorithm; Second, given a sequence of observations, find the most likely set of model parameters, solved by statistical inference through the Baum-Welch algorithm, which uses the Forward-Backward algorithm; Third, find the path of hidden states that is most likely to generate a sequence of observations, solved using a posteriori statistical inference in the Viterbi algorithm. In this paper, we propose an incremental variation of the Baum-Welch algorithm by creating two approximations of the Forward-Backward algorithm. This way, we will be able to process incoming I/O trace data incrementally and update our HMM parameters "on-the-fly" as new trace data becomes available. The HMM which uses this incremental Baum-Welch algorithm (IncHMM) produces the required parameters to form a discrete Markov arrival process (MAP), which we

refer to as our Workload Model. For our results, we validate two Workload Models using averages from the raw and IncHMM-generated traces. Finally, we compare our results with current work in the field, identifying any improvements for the future.

## 2 Forward-Backward Algorithm

The Forward-Backward algorithm, which is used in our incremental Baum-Welch algorithm, solves the following problem: Given the observations $O=\left(O_{1}, O_{2}, \ldots, O_{T}\right)$ and the model $\lambda=(A, B, \pi)^{1}$, calculate $P(O \mid \lambda)$ (i.e. the probability of the observation sequence given the model), and thus determine the likelihood of $O$. Based on the solution in [5], we explain the "Forward" part of the algorithm, which is the $\alpha$-pass, followed by the "Backward" part or the $\beta$-pass. We define the forward variable $\alpha_{t}(i)$ as the probability of the observation sequence up to time $t$ and of state $q_{i}$ at time $t$, given our model $\lambda$. In other words, $\alpha_{t}(i)=P\left(O_{1}, O_{2}, \ldots, O_{t}, s_{t}=q_{i} \mid \lambda\right)$, where $i=1,2, \ldots, N, N$ is the number of states, $t=1,2, \ldots, T, T$ is the number of observations, and $s_{t}$ is the state at time $t$. The solution of $\alpha_{t}(i)$ is inductive:

1. Initally, for $i=1,2, \ldots, N$ : $\alpha_{1}(i)=\pi_{i} b_{i}\left(O_{1}\right)$
2. Then, for $i=1,2, \ldots, N$ and $t=2,3, \ldots, T: \alpha_{t}(i)=\left[\sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{t-1}(j) a_{j i}\right] b_{i}\left(O_{t}\right)$ where $\alpha_{t-1}(j) a_{j i}$ is the probability of the joint event that $O_{1}, O_{2}, \ldots O_{t-1}$ are observed (given by $\left.\alpha_{t-1}(j)\right)$ and there is a transition from state $q_{j}$ at time $t-1$ to state $q_{i}$ at time $t$ (given by $a_{j i}$ ), and also $b_{i}\left(O_{t}\right)$ is the probability that $O_{t}$ is observed from state $q_{i}$.
3. It follows that: $P(O \mid \lambda)=\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{T}(i)$
where we used the fact that $\alpha_{T}(i)=P\left(O_{1}, O_{2}, \ldots, O_{T}, s_{T}=q_{i} \mid \lambda\right)$.
Similarly, we can define the backward variable, $\beta_{t}(i)$ as the probability of the observation sequence from time $t+1$ to the end, given state $q_{i}$ at time $t$ and the model $\lambda$. Then, $\beta_{t}(i)=P\left(O_{t+1}, O_{t+2}, \ldots O_{T} \mid s_{t}=q_{i}, \lambda\right)$ and the recursive solution is:
4. Initially, for $i=1,2, \ldots, N$ : $\beta_{T}(i)=1$
5. Then, for $i=1,2, \ldots, N$ and $t=T-1, T-2, \ldots, 1: \beta_{t}(i)=\sum_{j=1}^{N} a_{i j} b_{j}\left(O_{t+1}\right) \beta_{t+1}(j)$ where we note that the observation $O_{t+1}$ can be generated from any state $q_{j}$.

With the $\alpha$ and $\beta$ values now computed, we attempt to create an incremental version of the Baum-Welch algorithm, which will use both of these values.

## 3 Incremental Baum-Welch Algorithm

Given the model $\lambda=(A, B, \pi)$, the Baum-Welch algorithm (BWA) trains a HMM on a fixed set of observations $O=\left(O_{1}, O_{2}, \ldots, O_{T}\right)$. By adjusting its parameters $A, B, \pi$, the BWA aims to maximise $P(O \mid \lambda)$. As explained in Section 2.3.2 of [6], the parameters of the BWA are updated iteratively by the following formulas:

1. Initially, for $i=1,2, \ldots, N: \pi_{i}^{\prime}=\gamma_{1}(i)$
2. For $A: a_{i j}^{\prime}=\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \xi_{t}(i, j)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \xi_{t}(i, j)}$

[^0]3. For $B: b_{j}(k)^{\prime}=\frac{\sum_{t=1, O_{t}=k}^{T} \gamma_{t}(j)}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \gamma_{t}(j)}$
where $\xi_{t}(i, j)=\frac{\alpha_{t}(i) a_{i j} b_{j}\left(O_{t+1}\right) \beta_{t+1}(j)}{P(O \mid \lambda)}$ and $\gamma_{t}(i)=\sum_{j=1}^{N} \xi_{t}(i, j)$
We can now re-estimate our model using $\lambda^{\prime}=\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}, \pi^{\prime}\right)$ where $A^{\prime}=\left\{a_{i j}^{\prime}\right\}, B^{\prime}=\left\{b_{j}(k)^{\prime}\right\}$ and $\pi^{\prime}=\left\{\pi_{i}^{\prime}\right\}$. However, this re-estimation only works on a fixed set of observations, and a useful upgrade for the BWA would be to handle infrequent, higher density, additional loads mainly for on-line characterization of workloads [2]. To have an incremental HMM automatically updating its parameters as more real time workload data becomes available would achieve this, as well as consistently analyse processes over time in a computationally efficient manner. This new model will be a hybrid between a standard HMM and an incremental HMM which updates the current parameters $A, B, \pi$ based on the new set of observations. Therefore, after the standard HMM has finished training on its observation set, we aim to calculate the $\alpha, \beta, \xi$ and $\gamma$ variables on the new incoming set of observations. For example, if we have trained a HMM on $T$ observations and wish to add new observations to update our model incrementally, we notice that $\alpha_{T+1}(i)=\left[\sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{T}(j) a_{j i}\right] b_{i}\left(O_{T}\right)$. Since we possess the values of $\alpha_{T}(j), a_{j i}$ and $b_{i}\left(O_{T}\right)$, the new $\alpha$ values can be computed quite easily using the forward recurrence formula. However, to find $\beta_{T+1}(i)$ is not so easy as it relies on the backward formula with a one step lookahead $\beta_{T+1}(i)=\sum_{j=1}^{N} a_{i j} b_{j}\left(O_{T+2}\right) \beta_{T+2}(j)$ and unfortunately we do not have $\beta_{T+2}(j)$. Therefore an approximation for the $\beta$ variables is needed, preferrably a forward recurrence formula similar to the $\alpha$ formula. The new $\xi$ and $\gamma$ variables (and therefore the new entries $a_{i j}^{\prime}$ and $\left.b_{j}(k)^{\prime}\right)$ can be calculated easily once we have the complete $\alpha$ and $\beta$ sets. Building on previous work seen in Section 4.8.3 of [6], we attempt to find several new approximations for the $\beta$ values.

### 3.1 First $\beta$ Approximation

The first approximation for the $\beta$ variables will assume that, at time $t$ and for state $i$, we have that $\beta_{t}(i)=\delta(t, i)$ is a decay function which tends to 0 as $t \rightarrow 0$. Therefore, for a sufficiently large observation set and at a sufficiently small $t$, we obtain the approximate result $\delta(t, i)-\delta(t, j) \approx 0$, where $i$ and $j$ are different states. This then gives the near equality $\delta(t, i) \approx \delta(t, j)$ and hence by our earlier assumption we have the important approximation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta_{t}(i) \approx \beta_{t}(j) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us now transform our $\beta$ recurrence formula $\beta_{t}(i)=\sum_{j=1}^{N} a_{i j} b_{j}\left(O_{t+1}\right) \beta_{t+1}(j)$ into matrix form, using the notation $b_{j}=b_{j}\left(O_{t+1}\right)$ for ease of use. Since we are using two states in our Workload Model, we set $N=2$. It then follows that

$$
\binom{\beta_{t}(1)}{\beta_{t}(2)}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{11} b_{1} & a_{12} b_{2} \\
a_{21} b_{1} & a_{22} b_{2}
\end{array}\right)\binom{\beta_{t+1}(1)}{\beta_{t+1}(2)}
$$

then pre-multiply by $\left(\alpha_{t}(1) \quad \alpha_{t}(2)\right)$ :

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha_{t}(1) & \alpha_{t}(2)
\end{array}\right)\binom{\beta_{t}(1)}{\beta_{t}(2)}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha_{t}(1) & \alpha_{t}(2)
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{11} b_{1} & a_{12} b_{2} \\
a_{21} b_{1} & a_{22} b_{2}
\end{array}\right)\binom{\beta_{t+1}(1)}{\beta_{t+1}(2)}
$$

and multplying out we get

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{2} \alpha_{t}(i) \beta_{t}(i)=\left(\alpha_{t}(1) a_{11} b_{1}+\alpha_{t}(2) a_{21} b_{1} \quad \alpha_{t}(1) a_{12} b_{2}+\alpha_{t}(2) a_{22} b_{2}\right)\binom{\beta_{t+1}(1)}{\beta_{t+1}(2)}
$$

where by defintion of $\alpha_{t+1}(i)$ it follows that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{2} \alpha_{t}(i) \beta_{t}(i)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha_{t+1}(1) & \alpha_{t+1}(2)
\end{array}\right)\binom{\beta_{t+1}(1)}{\beta_{t+1}(2)}
$$

We notice that $\sum_{i=1}^{2} \alpha_{t}(i) \beta_{t}(i)=P(O \mid \lambda)=\sum_{i=1}^{2} \alpha_{T}(i)$ where $T$ is the total number of observations. Quite fittingly, the term $P(O \mid \lambda)$ is already calculated for us from the $\alpha$-pass. Finally, assuming that $t+1$ is sufficiently small and using (1) we can deduce that $\beta_{t+1}(1) \approx \beta_{t+1}(2)$, giving us

$$
P(O \mid \lambda) \approx\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha_{t+1}(1) & \alpha_{t+1}(2)
\end{array}\right)\binom{\beta_{t+1}(1)}{\beta_{t+1}(1)}
$$

we then factor out $\beta_{t+1}(1)$

$$
P(O \mid \lambda) \approx \beta_{t+1}(1)\left(\alpha_{t+1}(1) \quad \alpha_{t+1}(2)\right)\binom{1}{1}
$$

and multiply out the RHS

$$
P(O \mid \lambda) \approx \beta_{t+1}(1)\left[\alpha_{t+1}(1)+\alpha_{t+1}(2)\right]
$$

which gives our final approximation result:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta_{t+1}(1) \approx \beta_{t+1}(2) \approx \frac{P(O \mid \lambda)}{\sum_{i=1}^{2} \alpha_{t+1}(i)} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The $\beta$ approximation seen in (2) produced very good results in our simulation. To achieve this simulation, we obtained a network trace (aka raw trace) from NetApp servers made up of timestamped I/O commands (single Common Internet File System reads and writes). We then partitioned this raw trace into one second intervals (aka binned trace) counting the number of reads and writes present in each interval or "bin". This binned trace was then filtered through a K-means clustering algorithm (assigning 7 clusters, i.e. $\mathrm{K}=7$ ) and we obtained a discrete time series (aka observation trace) where each point is an integer between 1 and 7 . This observation trace was given as a training set of 7000 points (i.e. 7000 seconds) to a HMM. Afterwards, 3000 new observations were added to this set, evaluating the 3000 points using our new $\beta$ approximation. Thus, we were able to create the IncHMM, which stored information on 10000 consecutive observation points. Statistics on a raw trace of 10000 observations were compared with those of an IncHMM-generated trace (using our model parameters $A, B, \pi$ and a random distribution to generate this trace) also of size 10000. The results are summarised below in Figure 1:

| Reads/bin | Writes/bin |
| :--- | :--- |
| Raw Mean: 111.350 | Raw Mean: 0.382 |
| IncHMM Mean: 111.278 | IncHMM Mean: 0.366 |
| Raw Std Dev: 254.942 | Raw Std Dev: 0.550 |
| IncHMM Std Dev: 255.039 | IncHMM Std Dev: 0.461 |

Figure 1 Statistics for raw and IncHMM traces using the first $\beta$ approximation.

Figure 1 is divided into Reads/bin and Writes/bin to simplify analysis, where the bin is simply a one second interval. For example, a "Raw Mean of 111.350 Reads/bin" means that the raw I/O trace produced on average 111.350 read commands per second. Similarly, we
analyse the average number of writes per second as our I/O trace contains both reads and writes. Therefore, we can see from Figure 1 that the statistics for raw reads and IncHMM reads match extremely well, almost identical over the 10000 points. For the writes, there is a higher difference in the standard deviations than in the means. This is possibly due to a significant drop in the number of write procedures presented by the I/O trace, which the IncHMM did not reproduce entirely when generating its trace.

### 3.2 Second $\beta$ Approximation

As before, we begin with the following vectors and the $2 \times 2$ transformation matrix $(D)$ :

$$
\binom{\beta_{t}(1)}{\beta_{t}(2)}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{11} b_{1} & a_{12} b_{2} \\
a_{21} b_{1} & a_{22} b_{2}
\end{array}\right)\binom{\beta_{t+1}(1)}{\beta_{t+1}(2)}
$$

where we use $b_{i}=b_{i}\left(O_{t+1}\right)$, for ease of notation.
We then pre-multiply by the inverse of the transformation matrix $\left(D^{-1}\right)$ :

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{11} b_{1} & a_{12} b_{2} \\
a_{21} b_{1} & a_{22} b_{2}
\end{array}\right)^{-1}\binom{\beta_{t}(1)}{\beta_{t}(2)}=I_{2}\binom{\beta_{t+1}(1)}{\beta_{t+1}(2)}
$$

where $D^{-1} D=I_{2}$ and $I_{2}$ is the $2 \times 2$ identity matrix.
By using Gauss-Jordan elimination to work out $D^{-1}$, the final equation is

$$
\binom{\beta_{t+1}(1)}{\beta_{t+1}(2)}=\frac{1}{b_{1} b_{2}\left(a_{11} a_{22}-a_{21} a_{12}\right)}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{22} b_{2} & -a_{12} b_{2} \\
-a_{21} b_{1} & a_{11} b_{1}
\end{array}\right)\binom{\beta_{t}(1)}{\beta_{t}(2)}
$$

where $b_{1} \neq 0, b_{2} \neq 0$ and $a_{11} a_{22} \neq a_{21} a_{12}$.
In the case that $b_{i}=0$ for a state $i, D$ has a column of all zero values, which means that $D^{-1}$ cannot exist, and therefore a simple approximation for $\beta_{t+1}(i)$ is needed here. Considering all three cases, we present the full set of equations in (3). Underneath this, Figure 2 summarises the results of the simulation with the $\beta$ approximation from (3):

$$
\binom{\beta_{t+1}(1)}{\beta_{t+1}(2)}= \begin{cases}\binom{1.0}{\frac{\beta_{t}(2)}{a_{22} b_{2}}}, & \text { if } b_{1}=0  \tag{3}\\ \binom{\frac{\beta_{t}(1)}{a_{11} b_{1}}}{1.0}, & \text { if } b_{2}=0 \\ D^{-1}\binom{\beta_{t}(1)}{\beta_{t}(2)}, & \text { if } b_{1} \neq 0, b_{2} \neq 0, a_{11} a_{22} \neq a_{21} a_{12}\end{cases}
$$

| Reads/bin | Writes/bin |
| :--- | :--- |
| Raw Mean: 111.350 | Raw Mean: 0.382 |
| IncHMM Mean: 110.231 | IncHMM Mean: 0.357 |
| Raw Std Dev: 254.942 | Raw Std Dev: 0.550 |
| IncHMM Std Dev: 254.155 | IncHMM Std Dev: 0.463 |

Figure 2 Statistics for raw and IncHMM traces using the second $\beta$ approximation.

The results obtained were satisfying, including the reads which performed very well. In comparison, the writes slightly underperformed, possibly due to the read-dominated trace or perhaps a slight misjudgement by our clustering algorithm.

## 4 Conclusion and Future Work

The $\beta$ approximations used in this paper have been successful after statistical comparisons between raw and IncHMM-generated traces. Thus, we have created two Workload Models (each with their own $\beta$ approximation) which characterize data traces incrementally. Analysing current work in this field, for example Stenger et al. in 2001 [4] (where all new $\beta$ variables were given a value of 1 ), it is clear that either Workload Model provides a better $\beta$ approximation. When comparing our models with the incremental HMM from [3], all three models produced accurate results, except the latter had a backward formula that was not recursive in terms of the $\beta$ values. A general improvement to our models would be to increase the accuracy for the standard deviation of the IncHMM writes. This may be achieved by using significantly more observations from our I/O trace to obtain a greater variation in write entries. Perhaps adjusting the K parameter for our K-means clustering algorithm might also improve our results. Finally, we could test the IncHMM with another discrete time data trace, for example using a binned trace of hospital arrival times which stores the number of patients arriving every hour. Then, by choosing the most accurate $\beta$ approximation of the two, we would obtain an incremental Workload Model capable of analysing a variety of discrete time series.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1} A$ is the state transition matrix, $B$ is the observation matrix, and $\pi$ is the initial state distribution.

