

# Sequential Monte Carlo Methods

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# Importance Sampling

# Bayesian Inference

Posterior distribution of  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  given we observe  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ :

$$p(x|y) = \frac{p(y|x)p(x)}{p(y)}$$

- $p(y|x)$ : Data likelihood.
- $p(x)$ : Prior distribution.
- $p(y)$ : Marginal likelihood.

# Goal

Compute expectation of a function  $h$  w.r.t. posterior distribution:

$$I = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim p(x|y)}[h(X)] = \int h(x)p(x|y)dx,$$

where  $h$  is a known function that we can evaluate.

Example 1:  $h(x) = x$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}_{X \sim p(x|y)}[X] = \int xp(x|y)dx.$$

Example 2:  $h(x) = 1[x > a]$  for  $x, a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}_{X \sim p(x|y)}[1[X > a]] = \mathbb{P}(X > a|y) = \int 1[x > a]p(x|y)dx.$$

# Solution I: Monte Carlo

If  $p(x|y)$  is a known distribution such as Normal distribution, we can use Monte carlo approximation to compute the expectation no matter how complex  $h$  is:

$$\frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K h(x_k) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}_{X \sim p(x|y)}[h(X)] \text{ where } x_k \sim p(x|y) \text{ as } K \rightarrow \infty,$$

by the Law of Large Numbers (LLN).

# Reality...

- In many cases, integral  $p(y) = \int p(x, y)dx$  is not analytically available.
- Hence,  $p(x|y)$  is not known in practice.

An important exception is if the likelihood and prior are *conjugate distributions*. In this case,  $p(x|y)$  is known and can be sampled from.

## Solution II: Importance Sampling

- Find a distribution  $q$  that is easy to sample from and  $q(x) > 0$  whenever  $p(x|y) > 0$ .
- Propose  $x_k \sim q(x)$  for  $k = 1, \dots, K$ .
- Let  $w(x) = p(x|y)/q(x)$ . Then,

$$\frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K w(x_k) h(x_k) \rightarrow I,$$

by LLN.



# Derivation

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int h(x)p(x|y)dx \\ &= \int h(x)\frac{p(x|y)}{q(x)}q(x)dx \\ &= \int h(x)w(x)q(x)dx \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{X \sim q}[h(X)w(X)]. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, importance sampling is a Monte Carlo algorithm that approximates the expectation w.r.t to  $q$  with test function  $h'(x) = h(x)w(x)$ .

# Self Normalization

Problem: We assumed that  $p(x|y)$  can be evaluated. However,  $p(y)$  is intractable in practice and hence  $p(x|y)$  cannot be evaluated.

- Let  $\gamma(x) = p(x, y) = p(y|x)p(x)$  and  $Z = p(y)$ .
- Let  $w(x) = \gamma(x)/Zq(x)$ .
- Let  $\bar{w}_k = w(x_k)/\sum_j w(x_j)$ . Then,

$$\sum_{k=1}^K \bar{w}_k h(x_k) \rightarrow I.$$

# Proof Sketch

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^K \bar{w}_k h(x_k) &= \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{w(x_k) h(x_k)}{\sum_j w(x_j)} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^K h(x_k) \frac{\gamma(x_k)/Zq(x_k)}{\sum_j \gamma(x_j)/Zq(x_j)} \\ &= \frac{K^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^K h(x_k) \frac{\gamma(x_k)}{q(x_k)}}{K^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^K \frac{\gamma(x_j)}{q(x_j)}}.\end{aligned}$$

By LLN, the numerator converges to  $\int h(x)p(x,y)dx$ .

$$K^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^K h(x_k) \frac{\gamma(x_k)}{q(x_k)} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}_{X \sim q} \left[ \frac{h(X)\gamma(X)}{q(X)} \right].$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RHS} &= \int h(x) \frac{\gamma(x)}{q(x)} q(x) dx \\ &= \int h(x) \gamma(x) dx \\ &= \int h(x) p(x, y) dx. \end{aligned}$$

Denominator converges to  $Z = p(y)$ .

$$K^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^K \frac{\gamma(x_j)}{q(x_j)} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}_{X \sim q} \left[ \frac{\gamma(X)}{q(X)} \right].$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RHS} &= \int \frac{\gamma(x)}{q(x)} q(x) dx \\ &= \int p(x, y) dx \\ &= p(y). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_{k=1}^K \bar{w}_k h(x_k) \rightarrow \frac{\int h(x)p(x,y)dx}{p(y)} = \int h(x)p(x|y)dx.$$

Note: Formal proof would require us to use continuous mapping theorem. See [Durrett, 2010, Thm 3.2.4].

## Example: Small Tail Probabilities

From [Robert and Casella, 2013, Example 3.11]. Importance sampling can be useful in many settings beyond Bayesian statistics.

Let  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ . Estimate  $\mathbb{P}(Z > 4.5)$ .

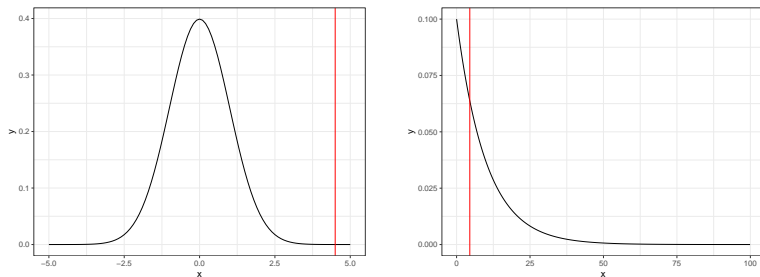
- Solution 1:  $Z_k \sim N(0, 1)$ . Compute

$$\frac{1}{K} \sum_k 1[z_k > 4.5].$$

- Solution 2:  $X_k \sim q = \text{Exponential}(0.1)$ . Compute

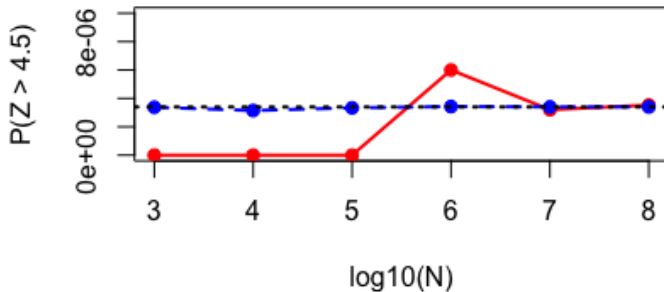
$$\frac{1}{K} \sum_k 1[x_k > 4.5] \frac{\phi(x_k)}{q(x_k)}.$$

Note: We need to choose  $q$  to cover the region of interest (i.e.,  $x$  for which  $h(x)p(x) > 0$ ).



**Figure:** Left: Standard normal distribution. Right:  $\text{Exp}(0.1)$ . Red vertical line is the threshold,  $a = 4.5$ .





**Figure:** Monte Carlo estimate of  $P(X > 4.5)$ . Red: Simple Monte Carlo sampling. Blue dashed: Importance sampling. Dotted black: truth.

# Brief Summary

- Monte Carlo sampling can be used to approximate complex integral numerically.
- IS can improve efficiency in terms of number of samples required.
- IS can be useful with just a simple  $q$  even when direct sampling is not possible.
- IS yields estimate of the marginal likelihood:  $Z = p(y)$ .
- Remember to choose  $q$  such that  $q(x) > 0$  whenever  $p(x) > 0$  (or  $h(x)p(x) > 0$ ).

# Sequential IS

# Sequential Importance Sampling

- Now, let  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$  be a  $d$ -dimensional vector.
- Goal: Compute

$$I = \int h(x_1, \dots, x_d) p(x_1, \dots, x_d | \mathbf{y}) dx_1, \dots, dx_d.$$

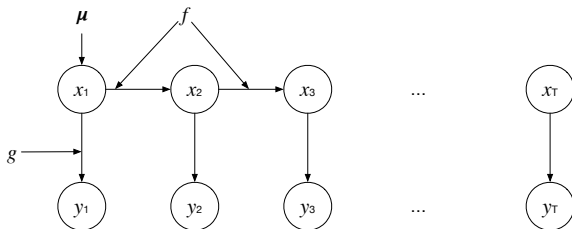
- Solution I: Importance sampling. We need to find a multivariate proposal distribution that is easy to sample from.
- If  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$ , we may be able to use *multivariate Normal* distribution. But for general setting, finding  $q$  may be difficult.
- Also, curse of dimensionality: number of samples needed to sufficiently approximate the integral grows exponentially with dimension.

Idea: Propose one dimension at a time from  $x_i \sim q_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, d$ .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Proposal:} & x_i^k \sim q_i \\ \text{Sample extension:} & \mathbf{x}_{1:i}^k = (x_1^k, \dots, x_{i-1}^k, x_i^k) \\ \text{Weight computation:} & w(x_i^k) = \frac{\gamma_i(x_{1:i}^k)}{\nu_i(x_{1:i}^k)}, \end{array}$$

where  $\nu_i(x_{1:i}) = \prod_{j=1}^i q_j(x_j | x_{1:j-1})$  and  $x_{i:j} = (x_i, \dots, x_j)$  for  $0 < i < j$ .

# Application: Hidden Markov Model



$$x_1 \sim \mu(x_1)$$

$$x_t | x_{t-1} \sim f(x_t | x_{t-1}) \text{ for } t = 2, \dots, T$$

$$y_t | x_t \sim g(y_t | x_t) \text{ for } t = 1, \dots, T.$$

- $p(\mathbf{x}) = \mu(x_1) \prod_{t=2}^T f(x_t|x_{t-1})$
- $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{t=1}^T g(y_t|x_t)$
- $\gamma(\mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mu(x_1)g(y_1|x_1) \prod_{t=2}^T f(x_t|x_{t-1})g(y_t|x_t).$
- $Z = p(\mathbf{y}) = \int p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})d\mathbf{x}$

# Recursive weight Update

$$\begin{aligned}w(x_{1:t}) &= \frac{\gamma_t(x_{1:t})}{\nu_t(x_{1:t})} \\&= \frac{\gamma_{t-1}(x_{1:t-1})}{\nu_{t-1}(x_{1:t-1})} \frac{f(x_t|x_{t-1})g(y_t|x_t)}{q_t(x_t|x_{1:t-1})} \\&= w(x_{1:t-1})\alpha(x_{1:t-1}, x_t).\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we should store the weight from previous iteration and compute only the weight update function  $\alpha(x_{1:t-1}, x_t)$  at current iteration.



# Proposal

- Prior:  $q_t = f(x_t|x_{t-1})$ .
  - Weight function:  $\alpha(x_{1:t-1}, x_t) = g(y_t|x_t)$ .
  - Pro: Simplicity.
  - Con: May require large number of samples if  $f(x_t|x_{t-1})$  differs significantly from  $p(x_t|x_{1:t-1}, y_t)$ .

- Adapted:  $q_t = p(x_t|x_{1:t-1}, y_t)$

$$p(x_t|x_{1:t-1}, y_t) = \frac{p(x_t, y_t|x_{1:t-1})}{p(y_t|x_{1:t-1})} = \frac{g(y_t|x_t)f(x_t|x_{t-1})}{\int g(y_t|x_t)f(x_t|x_{t-1})dx_t}.$$

- Weight update function:  $p(y_t|x_{1:t-1})^{-1}$ .
- Pro: Makes use of the latest observation to build a smart proposal. Generally requires less number of samples compared to prior (for example, to attain similar accuracy of approximation).
- Con: Need to analytically compute  $p(y_t|x_{1:t-1})$ .

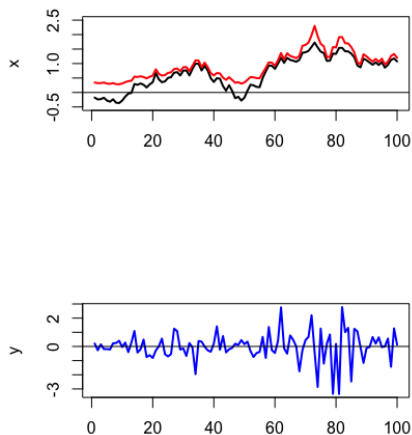
# Example: Stochastic Volatility Model

$$X_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(x_1|0, \sigma^2)$$

$$X_t|(X_{t-1} = x_{t-1}) \sim \mathcal{N}(x_t|\phi x_{t-1}, \sigma^2), \quad t = 2, \dots, T,$$

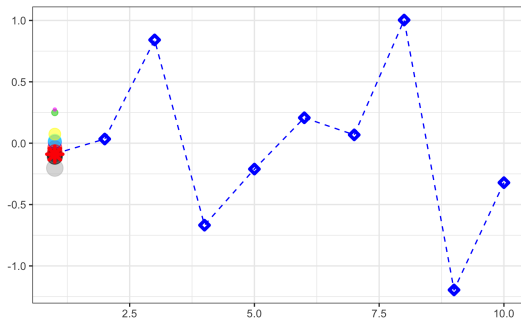
$$Y_t|(X_t = x_t) \sim \mathcal{N}(y_t|0, \beta^2 \exp(x_t)), \quad t = 2, \dots, T.$$

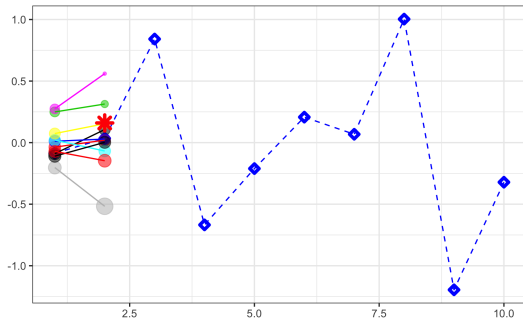
- $X_t$ : Unobserved volatility of an asset (e.g., stock price).
- $Y_t$ : Observed change in the price of the asset.

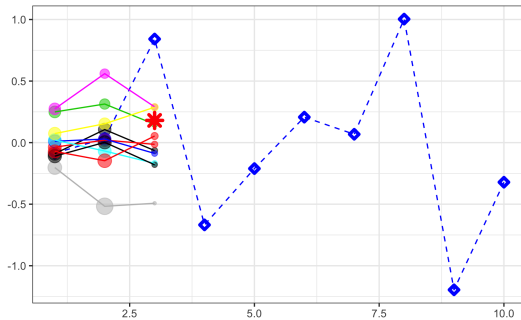


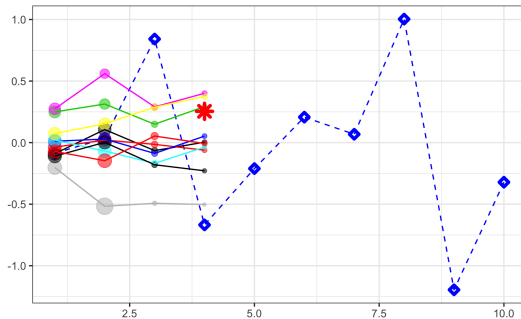
**Figure:** Top:  $X_t$  in black and variance of the observation i.e.,  $\beta^2 \exp(x_t)$  in red. Bottom: Observation.

# Illustration of SIS

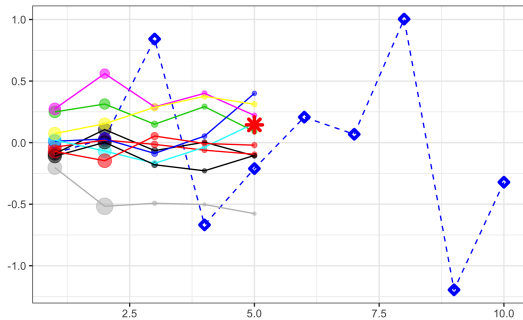


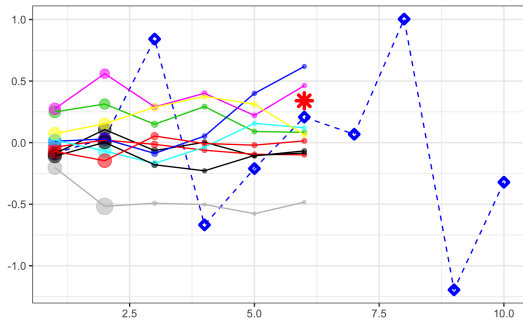


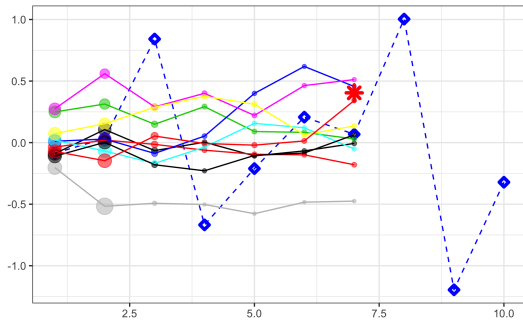


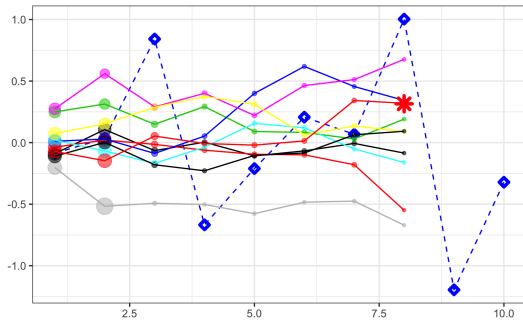


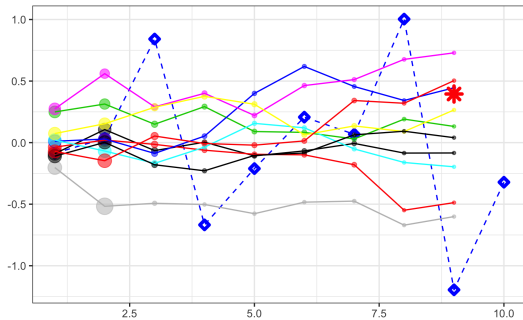


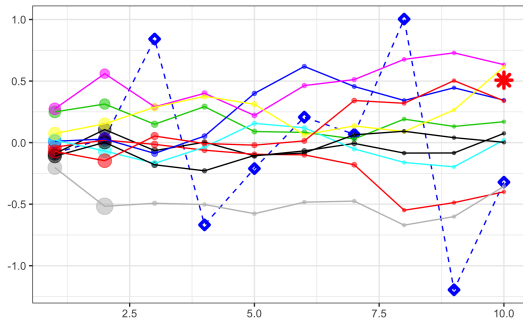












# Brief Summary

- SIS can be useful in settings where we need to approximate high dimensional integral.
- Particularly useful if the model exhibits a temporal structure.
- Weights decay with  $T$ . For large  $T$ , SIS usually does not work well (contradictory to the first point).
- Only a handful of samples become relevant as  $T$  increases, leading to waste of computational resources.

# SMC



# SIS with Resampling

- Idea: Interleave resampling step to choose promising particles.
- Use the weights to select the particles.
- Sequential Monte Carlo methods refer to a class of algorithms that involve sequential proposal, weight computation, followed by (optional) resampling.
- Best tutorial to get started in SMC (in my opinion): [Doucet and Johansen, 2009].

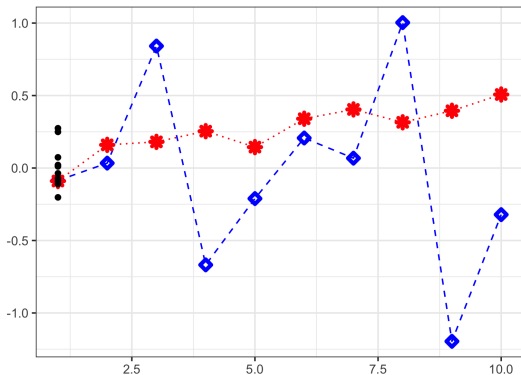
$t = 1$ :

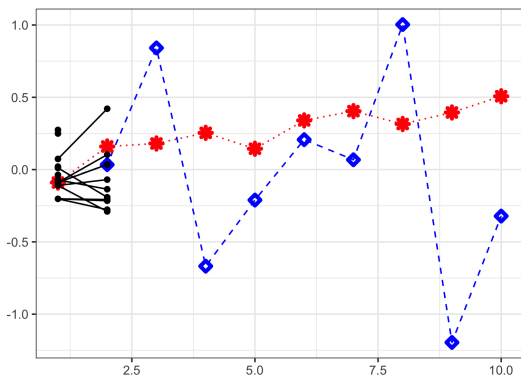
- Proposal:  $x_1^k \sim q_1(x_1)$ .
- Weight computation:  $w(x_1^k) = \alpha(x_1^k)$ .
- Weight normalization:  $\bar{w}_1^k = w(x_1^k) / \sum_{k'} w(x_1^{k'})$ .

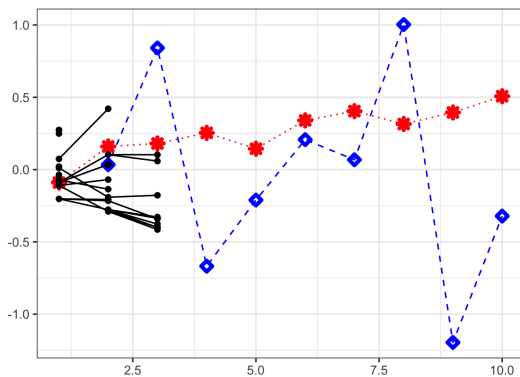
$t \geq 2$ :

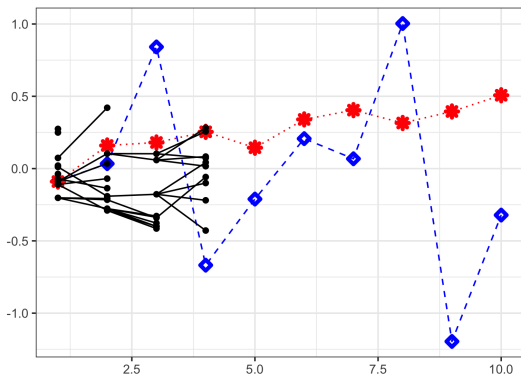
- Resampling:  $j \sim \text{Multinomial}(\bar{w}_{t-1}^1, \dots, \bar{w}_{t-1}^K)$ .
- Proposal:  $x_t^k \sim q_t(x_t | x_{1:t-1}^j)$ .
- Extension:  $\mathbf{x}^k = (x_{1:t-1}^j, x_t^k)$ .
- Weight computation:  $w(x_{1:t}^k) = \alpha(x_{1:t-1}^j, x_t^k)$ .
- Normalize the weights:  $\bar{w}_t^k = w(x_{1:t}^k) / \sum_{k'} w(x_{1:t}^{k'})$ .

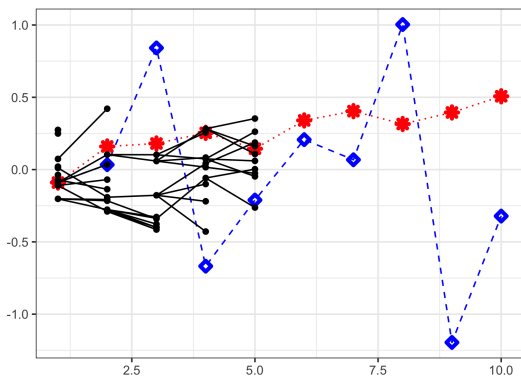
# Illustration of SMC on SV Model

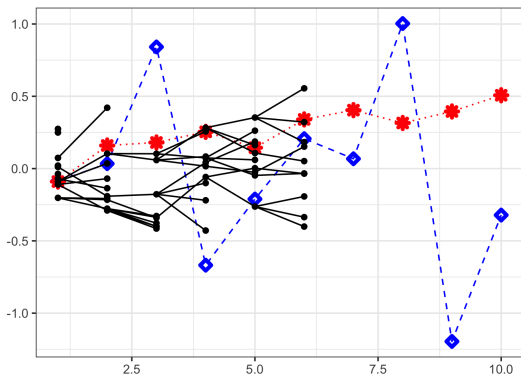




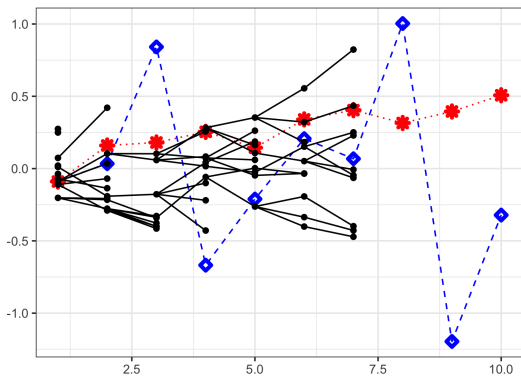


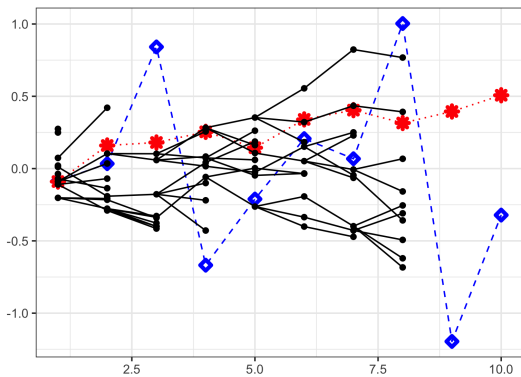


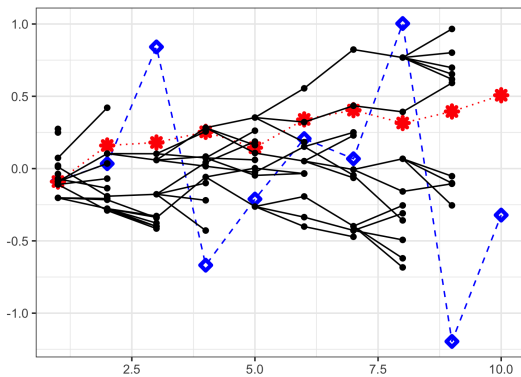


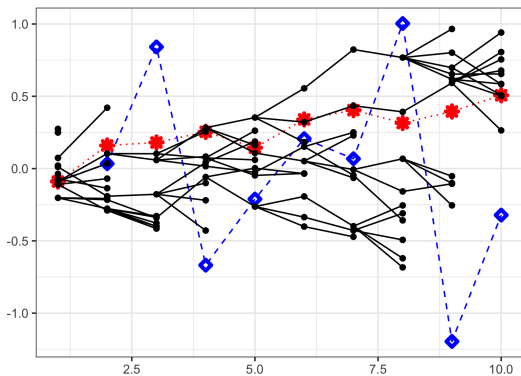












# Filtering

- Samples and the weights can be used to approximate the *filtering* distribution:

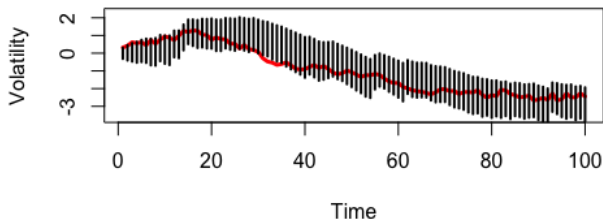
$$\hat{p}(x_t|y_{1:t}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \bar{w}_t^k \delta_{x_t^k}(x_t) \text{ for } t = 1, \dots, T.$$

or after resampling:

$$\hat{p}(x_t|y_{1:t}) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \delta_{x_t^k}(x_t) \text{ for } t = 1, \dots, T.$$

# Effectiveness of SMC on SV Model

Ran with 10,000 particles. Computed empirical 95% confidence interval. Contains the true  $x_t$  about 93% of the time.



# Predictive Distribution

- The generated samples can be used to build a predictive distribution:

$$p(x_{t+1}|y_{1:t}) = \int p(x_{t+1}|x_t)p(x_t|y_{1:t})dx_t.$$

Therefore, take the test function  $h(x_{t+1}) = p(x_{t+1}|x_t)$  (e.g.,  $p(x_{t+1}|x_t) = f(x_{t+1}|x_t)$  in HMM application) and,

$$\hat{p}(x_{t+1}|y_{1:t}) = \sum_{k=1}^K p(x_{t+1})\bar{w}_t^k \delta_{x_t^k}(x_t) \text{ for } t = 1, \dots, T.$$

# Applications

- Online estimation: as the observation arrives, infer the latent state.
  - E.g., fraud detection, missile tracking, robot localization, etc.
- An extension of SMC [Del Moral et al., 2006], can be used in problems that do not exhibit temporal structure.
  - Phylogenetic inference [Bouchard-Côté et al., 2012].
  - Graph matching [Jun et al., 2017].
- Inference over graphical models [Naesseth et al., 2014].
- Probabilistic programming [Murray et al., 2017].



# Resampling Algorithms

Can reduce variance of the estimator by using better resampling algorithms [Douc and Cappé, 2005]:

- Stratified Resampling.
- Residual Resampling.
- Implementing stratified resampling is a homework question :)

# PMCMC

# Particle MCMC

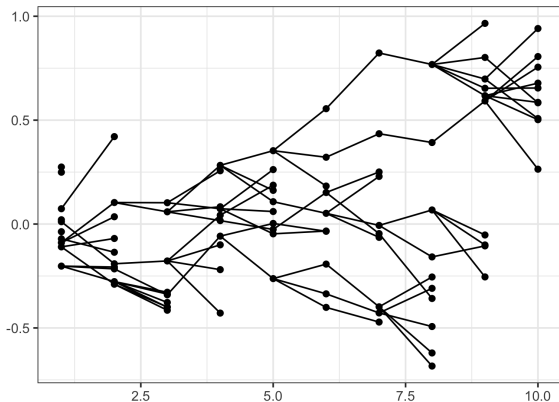
PMCMC is proposed in [Andrieu et al., 2010]. A very important development in computational statistics in recent years (recommend to read up to section 2 – to solve homework questions).

- Goal: Jointly infer the model parameters  $\theta$  and the latent variables  $\mathbf{x}$ .
- Basic Idea: Construct Metropolis-Hastings or Gibbs sampler on  $(\theta^n, \mathbf{x}^n)$ .

# Particle Genealogy

- SMC through resampling induces genealogy of particles.
- Let  $a_t^k$  denote the index of the ancestor of particle  $k$  (for  $t = 1, \dots, T - 1$ ).
- Let  $b_t^k$  denote the index of the  $k$ -th particle genealogy at generation  $t$ .
  - $b_T^k = k$ .
  - If  $b_1^k = i$ , then if you trace  $k$ -th genealogy all the way up to the first iteration, its index among that population is  $i$ .
  - If  $b_t^k = i$ , then if you trace  $k$ -th genealogy all the way up to the  $t$ -th iteration of SMC, its index is  $i$ .
  - Note:  $b_t^k = a_t^{b_{t+1}^k}$ .

# Illustration of Particle Genealogy



# Particle Marginal Metropolis Hastings

Initialization step:

- Initialize  $\theta(0)$  arbitrarily.
- $\{Z^*, \bar{w}^k, \mathbf{x}^k\}_{k=1}^K \leftarrow \text{SMC}(\theta(0))$ .
- Sample  $k' \sim \bar{w}^k$ .
- Set  $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}^{k'}$ .
- Set  $\hat{Z}(0) = Z^*$ .

For  $n = 1, \dots, \text{numIter}$ :

- Propose  $\theta^* | \theta(n-1) \sim q_\theta(\cdot | \theta(n-1))$ .
- $\{\hat{Z}^*, \bar{w}^k, \mathbf{x}^k\}_{k=1}^K \leftarrow \text{SMC}(\theta^*)$ .
- Sample  $k' \sim \bar{w}^k$ .
- Compute MH acceptance ratio:

$$\alpha = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\hat{Z}^*}{\hat{Z}(n-1)} \frac{p(\theta^*)}{p(\theta(n-1))} \frac{q_\theta(\theta(n-1) | \theta^*)}{q_\theta(\theta^* | \theta(n-1))} \right\}$$

- With probability  $\alpha$ , set

$$(\theta(n), \mathbf{x}(n), \hat{Z}(n)) = (\theta^*, \mathbf{x}^{k'}, \hat{Z}^*).$$

- Otherwise, set

$$(\theta(n), \mathbf{x}(n), \hat{Z}(n)) = (\theta(n-1), \mathbf{x}(n-1), \hat{Z}(n-1)).$$

# Why does PMMH work?

- PMMH is a Metropolis-Hastings algorithm on the extended space:  $\Theta \times \mathcal{X}_{1:T}$  with  $\theta \in \Theta, x_{1:T} \in \mathcal{X}_{1:T}$ .
- Posterior distribution:  $p(\theta, x_{1:T}|y) = \gamma(\theta, x_{1:T})/Z(\theta)$ , where  $Z(\theta) = p(y|\theta)$ .
- SMC can be viewed as constructing an efficient proposal for  $x_{1:T}$ .
- Accept-reject is used to move the state of the Markov chain.



# Derivation

- Proposal on  $\theta^*$ :  $q_\theta(\cdot|\theta_{n-1})$ .
- Proposal of SMC:  $q_t(x_t|x_{1:t-1}, \theta)$ .
- Resampling distribution:  $r(a_t^k|\bar{\mathbf{w}}_{t-1})$ .
  - Important condition:  $P(a_t^k = k|\bar{\mathbf{w}}_{t-1}) = \bar{w}_{t-1}^k$ . In other words, resampling should be unbiased.
- There are other regularity conditions, which are rather mild and can be satisfied with relative ease in most applications. See [Andrieu et al., 2010] for more details.

- Distribution of all variables generated by SMC given  $\theta$ :

$$\psi(x_{1:T}^{1:K}, a_{1:T-1}^{1:K} | \theta) = \prod_{k=1}^K q_1(x_1^k | \theta) \prod_{t=2}^T \prod_{k=1}^K r(a_t^k | \bar{\mathbf{w}}_{t-1}) q_t(x_t^k | x_{1:t-1}^{a_{t-1}^k}, \theta).$$

- Proposal distribution on the extended space:

$$q(\theta^*, k, x_{1:T}^{1:K}, a_{1:T-1}^{1:K} | \theta_{n-1}) = q_\theta(\theta^* | \theta_{n-1}) \bar{w}_T^k \psi(x_{1:T}^{1:K}, a_{1:T-1}^{1:K} | \theta^*).$$

- Target distribution of MH algorithm:

$$\tilde{p}(\theta, k, x_{1:T}^{1:K}, a_{1:T}^{1:K-1}) = \frac{p(\theta, x_{1:T}^k)}{K^T} \frac{\psi(x_{1:T}^{1:K}, a_{1:T-1}^{1:K} | \theta)}{q_1(x_1^{b_1^k} | \theta) \prod_{t=2}^T r(b_{t-1}^k | \bar{\mathbf{w}}_{t-1}) q_t(x_t^{b_t^k} | x_{1:t-1}^{b_{t-1}^k}, \theta)}$$

# Derivation continued

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\tilde{p}(\theta^*, k, x_{1:T}^{1:K}, a_{1:T}^{1:K-1})}{q(\theta^*, k, x_{1:T}^{1:K}, a_{1:T}^{1:K-1} | \theta_{n-1})} &= \frac{K^{-T} p(\theta^*, x_{1:T}^k)}{q_\theta(\theta^* | \theta_{n-1}) \bar{w}_T^k q_1(x_1^{b^k} | \theta^*) \prod_{t=2}^T r(b_{t-1}^k | \bar{w}_{t-1}) q_t(x_t^{b_t^k} | x_{1:t-1}^{b_{t-1}^k}, \theta^*)} \\
&= \frac{p(\theta^*)}{q(\theta^* | \theta_{n-1})} \frac{p(x_{1:T}^k | \theta^*)}{q_1(x_1^{b_1^k}) \prod_{t=2}^T q_t(x_t^{b_t^k} | x_{1:t-1}^{b_{t-1}^k})} \frac{K^{-T}}{\prod_{t=1}^T \bar{w}_t^{b_t^k}} \\
&= \frac{p(\theta^*)}{q(\theta^* | \theta_{n-1})} \frac{p(x_{1:T}^k | \theta^*)}{q_1(x_1^{b_1^k}) \prod_{t=2}^T q_t(x_t^{b_t^k} | x_{1:t-1}^{b_{t-1}^k})} \frac{K^{-T} \prod_{t=1}^T \sum_j w_t^j}{\prod_{t=1}^T w_t^{b_t^k}} \\
&= \frac{p(\theta^*)}{q(\theta^* | \theta_{n-1})} \frac{p(x_{1:T}^k | \theta^*)}{q_1(x_1^{b_1^k}) \prod_{t=2}^T q_t(x_t^{b_t^k} | x_{1:t-1}^{b_{t-1}^k})} \frac{\hat{Z}}{\prod_{t=1}^T w_t^{b_t^k}} \tag{1}
\end{aligned}$$

Note:

$$\begin{aligned} q_1(x_1^{b^k}|\theta^*) \prod_{t=2}^T q_t(x_t^{b^k}|x_{1:t-1}^{b^k}, \theta^*) \times \prod_{t=1}^T w_t^{b^k} &= q(x_{1:T}^k|\theta^*) \times \frac{\gamma(x_{1:T}^k|\theta^*)}{q(x_{1:T}^k|\theta^*)} \\ &= Zp(x_{1:T}^k|\theta^*). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

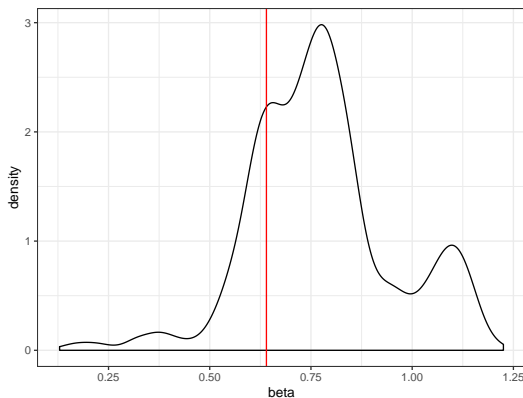
$$\text{Eq (1)} = \frac{p(\theta^*)}{q(\theta^*|\theta_{n-1})} \frac{\hat{Z}(\theta^*)}{Z}.$$

The acceptance ratio arises by carrying out symmetric derivation on  $q/\tilde{p}$  followed by multiplication of the resulting quantity with Eq (1).

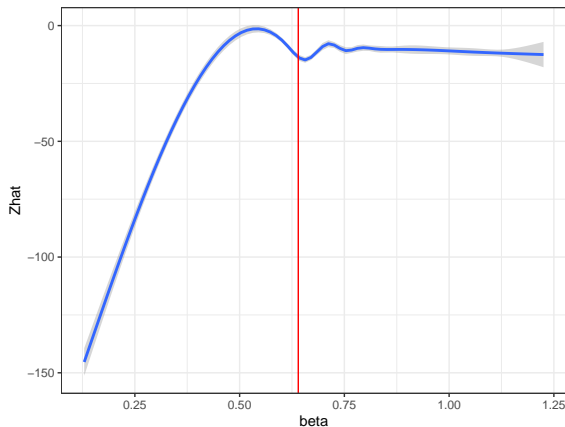
## Example: Stochastic volatility

Assume  $\phi = 1, \sigma = 0.16$ . Suppose  $\beta$  is unknown. We can perform PMMH to sample  $\beta$ .

Chose  $p(\beta) = \text{Uniform}(0, 2)$  and  $q_\beta(\cdot | \beta(n-1)) = N(\beta(n-1), 0.02)$ . Ran for 2,000 iterations using 200 particles for SMC.



Plot of  $\beta(n)$  vs  $\hat{Z}(n-1)$  (smoothed). Red line indicates the value of  $\beta$  used to generate the data.



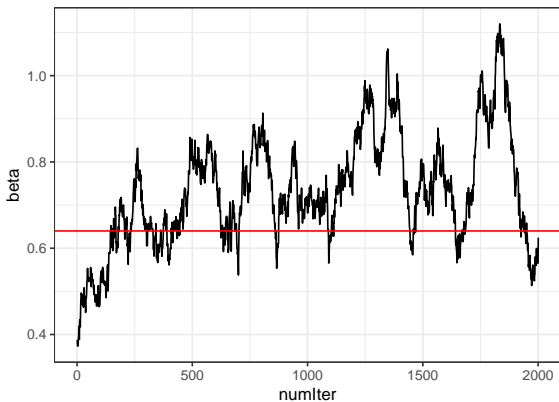


Figure: The trace plot of  $\beta$  sampled using PMMH.

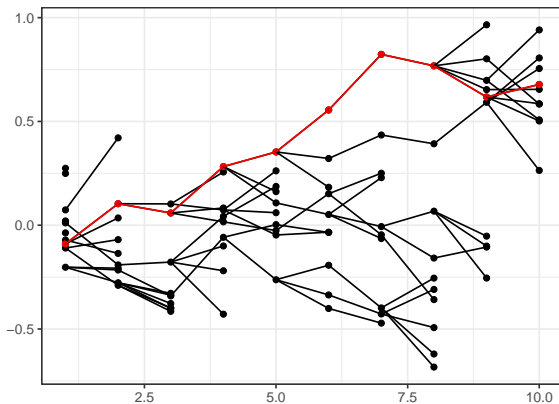
# Conditional SMC

- Let  $(x_{1:T}^k, b_{1:T}^k)$  be a genealogy of a particle. Allow it to survive resampling steps for each  $t = 1, \dots, T - 1$ .
- Perform SMC as usual for  $k' \neq k$ .
- This procedure can be viewed as sampling auxiliary variables  $(x_{1:T}^{-k}, b_{1:T}^{-k})$  given  $(x_{1:T}^k, b_{1:T}^k)$  from the following density:

$$p(x_{1:T}^{-k}, a_{1:T-1}^{-k} | x_{1:T}^k, b_{1:T}^k) = \frac{\psi(x_{1:T}^{1:K}, a_{1:T-1}^{1:K})}{q_1(x_1^{b_1^k}) \prod_{t=2}^T r(b_{t-1}^k | \bar{\mathbf{w}}_{t-1}) q_t(x_t^{b_t^k} | x_{t-1}^{b_{t-1}^k})}.$$



# Illustration of CSMC



**Figure:** Lineage of  $k = 7$ -th particle is fixed throughout the iterations of conditional SMC.

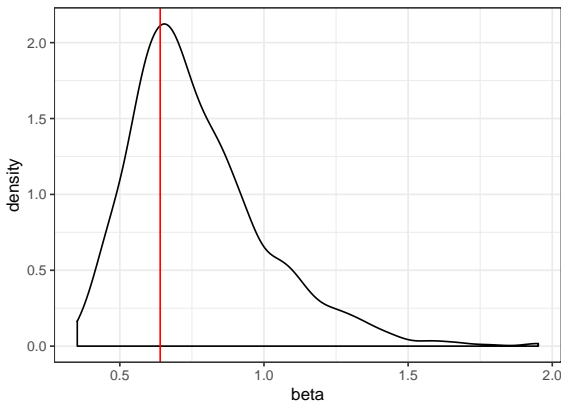
# Particle Gibbs

If we can derive closed form distribution for  $\theta(n)|x_{1:T}$ , then we can alternate sampling of model parameters using Gibbs sampling and latent variables using conditional SMC.

- Initialize  $\theta(0), x_{1:T}(0), b_{1:T}(0)$ .
- Sample  $\theta(n)|x_{1:T}(n-1) \sim p(\theta|x_{1:T}^k)$
- Sample  $(x_{1:T}^{-k}, b_{1:T}^{-k})|x_{1:T}(n-1), b_{1:T}(n-1), \theta(n) \sim \text{CSMC}(x_{1:T}(n-1), b_{1:T-1}(n-1), \theta(n))$ .
- Sample  $k \sim r(\cdot|\bar{\mathbf{w}})$ .

Implementation note: conditional SMC can deterministically set  $a_{1:T-1}^1 = (1, \dots, 1)$  and  $x_{1:T}^1 = x_{1:T}(n-1)$  and sample for  $2 : N$ . See [Chopin et al., 2015, Remark 1].

# Stochastic Volatility Model for $\beta$



**Figure:** Plot of posterior distribution over  $\beta$  obtained by running PG for 1,000 iterations with 200 particles.

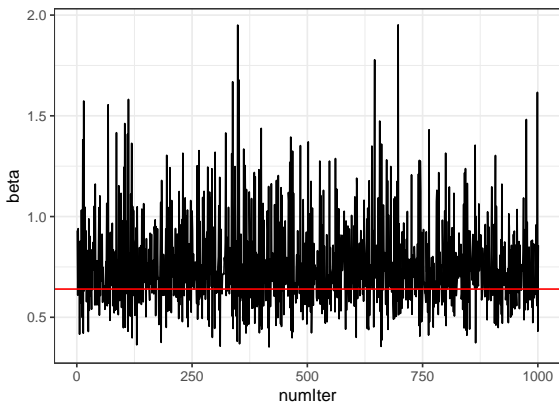


Figure: Trace plot of  $\beta$  sampled using PG.

# Useful Resources

- A course given by Arnaud Doucet: [http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/~doucet/samsi\\_course.html](http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/~doucet/samsi_course.html).
- A bit more recent course given by SMC group in Uppsala: [http://www.it.uu.se/research/systems\\_and\\_control/education/2017/smc/](http://www.it.uu.se/research/systems_and_control/education/2017/smc/).

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