

Introduction to Sequential Monte Carlo Methods

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- *Sequential Monte Carlo* (SMC) are a set of methods allowing us to approximate virtually *any sequence of probability distributions*.
- SMC are very popular in physics where they are used to compute eigenvalues of positive operators, the solution of PDEs/integral equations or simulate polymers.
- We focus here on *Applications of SMC to Hidden Markov Models* (HMM) for pedagogical reasons...
- In the HMM framework, SMC are also widely known as Particle Filtering/Smoothing methods.

Markov Models

- We model the stochastic processes of interest as a discrete-time Markov process $\{X_k\}_{k \geq 1}$.
- $\{X_k\}_{k \geq 1}$ is characterized by its *initial density*

$$X_1 \sim \mu(\cdot)$$

and its *transition density*

$$X_k | (X_{k-1} = x_{k-1}) \sim f(\cdot | x_{k-1}).$$

- We introduce the notation $x_{i:j} = (x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_j)$ for $i \leq j$. We have by definition

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_{1:n}) &= p(x_1) \prod_{k=2}^n p(x_k | x_{1:k-1}) \\ &= \mu(x_1) \prod_{k=2}^n f(x_k | x_{k-1}) \end{aligned}$$

- We do not observe $\{X_k\}_{k \geq 1}$; the process is *hidden*. We only have access to another related process $\{Y_k\}_{k \geq 1}$.
- We assume that, conditional on $\{X_k\}_{k \geq 1}$, the observations $\{Y_k\}_{k \geq 1}$ are independent and marginally distributed according to

$$Y_k | (X_k = x_k) \sim g(\cdot | x_k).$$

- Formally this means that

$$p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) = \prod_{k=1}^n g(y_k | x_k).$$

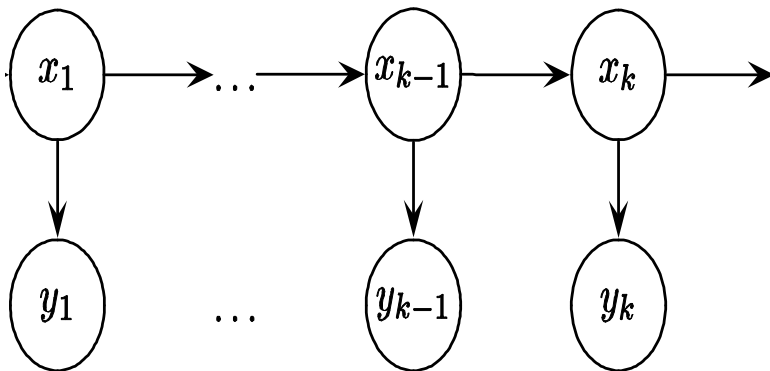


Figure: Graphical model representation of HMM

Tracking Example

- Assume you want to track a target in the XY plane then you can consider the 4-dimensional state

$$X_k = (X_{k,1}, V_{k,1}, X_{k,2}, V_{k,2})^T$$

- The so-called constant velocity model states that

$$X_k = AX_{k-1} + W_k, \quad W_k \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma),$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{CV} & 0 \\ 0 & A_{CV} \end{pmatrix}, \quad A_{CV} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & T \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\Sigma = \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{CV} & 0 \\ 0 & \Sigma_{CV} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Sigma_{CV} = \begin{pmatrix} T^3/3 & T^2/2 \\ T^2/2 & T \end{pmatrix}$$

- We obtain that

$$f(x_k | x_{k-1}) = \mathcal{N}(x_k; Ax_{k-1}, \Sigma).$$

Tracking Example (cont.)

- The observation equation is dependent on the sensor.
- *Simple case*

$$Y_k = CX_k + DE_k, \quad E_k \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_e)$$

so

$$g(y_k | x_k) = \mathcal{N}(y_k; Cx_k, \Sigma_e).$$

- *Complex realistic case* (Bearings-only-tracking)

$$Y_k = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{X_{k,2}}{X_{k,1}} \right) + E_k, \quad E_k \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

so

$$g(y_k | x_k) = \mathcal{N} \left(y_k; \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x_{k,2}}{x_{k,1}} \right), \sigma^2 \right).$$

- We have the following standard model

$$X_k = \phi X_{k-1} + V_k, \quad V_k \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

so that

$$f(x_k | x_{k-1}) = \mathcal{N}(x_k; \phi x_{k-1}, \sigma^2).$$

- We observe

$$Y_k = \beta \exp(X_k/2) W_k, \quad W_k \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

so that

$$g(y_k | x_k) = \mathcal{N}(y_k; 0, \beta^2 \exp(x_k)).$$

Inference in HMM

- Given a realization of the observations $Y_{1:n} = y_{1:n}$, we are interested in inferring the states $X_{1:n}$.
- We are in a Bayesian framework where

$$\text{Prior: } p(x_{1:n}) = \mu(x_1) \prod_{k=2}^n f(x_k | x_{k-1}),$$

$$\text{Likelihood: } p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) = \prod_{k=1}^n g(y_k | x_k)$$

- Using Bayes' rule, we obtain

$$p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) = \frac{p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) p(x_{1:n})}{p(y_{1:n})}$$

where the marginal likelihood is given by

$$p(y_{1:n}) = \int p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) p(x_{1:n}) dx_{1:n}.$$

Sequential Inference in HMM

- In particular, we will focus here on the *sequential estimation* of $p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})$ and $p(y_{1:n})$; that is at each time n we want update our knowledge of the hidden process in light of y_n .
- There is a simple recursion relating $p(x_{1:n-1}|y_{1:n-1})$ to $p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})$ given by

$$p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n}) = p(x_{1:n-1}|y_{1:n-1}) \frac{f(x_n|x_{n-1})g(y_n|x_n)}{p(y_n|y_{1:n-1})}$$

where

$$p(y_n|y_{1:n-1}) = \int g(y_n|x_n) f(x_n|x_{n-1}) p(x_{n-1}|y_{1:n-1}) dx_{n-1:n}.$$

- We will also simply write

$$p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n}) \propto p(x_{1:n-1}|y_{1:n-1}) f(x_n|x_{n-1}) g(y_n|x_n).$$

- In many papers/books in the literature, you will find the following two-step prediction-updating recursion for the marginals so-called *filtering distributions* $p(x_n | y_{1:n})$ which is a direct consequence.
- *Prediction Step*

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x_n | y_{1:n-1}) &= \int p(x_{n-1:n} | y_{1:n-1}) dx_{n-1} \\
 &= \int p(x_n | x_{n-1}, y_{1:n-1}) p(x_{n-1} | y_{1:n-1}) dx_{n-1} \\
 &= \int f(x_n | x_{n-1}) p(x_{n-1} | y_{1:n-1}) dx_{n-1}.
 \end{aligned}$$

- *Updating Step*

$$p(x_n | y_{1:n}) = \frac{g(y_n | x_n) p(x_n | y_{1:n-1})}{p(y_n | y_{1:n-1})}$$

(Marginal) Likelihood Evaluation

- We have seen that

$$p(y_{1:n}) = \int p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) p(x_{1:n}) dx_{1:n}.$$

- We also have the following decomposition

$$p(y_{1:n}) = p(y_1) \prod_{k=2}^n p(y_k | y_{1:k-1})$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} p(y_k | y_{1:k-1}) &= \int p(y_k, x_k | y_{1:k-1}) dx_k \\ &= \int g(y_k | x_k) p(x_k | y_{1:k-1}) dx_k \\ &= \int g(y_k | x_k) f(x_k | x_{k-1}) p(x_{k-1} | y_{1:k-1}) dx_{k-1} \end{aligned}$$

- We have “broken” an high dimensional integral into the product of lower dimensional integrals.

Closed-form Inference in HMM

- We have closed-form solutions for
 - Finite state-space HMM; i.e. $E = \{e_1, \dots, e_p\}$ as all integrals are becoming finite sums
 - Linear Gaussian models; all the posterior distributions are Gaussian; e.g. the celebrated Kalman filter.
 - A whole reverse engineering literature exists for closed-form solutions in alternative cases...
- In many cases of interest, it is impossible to compute the solution in closed-form and we need approximations,

Standard Approximations for Filtering Distributions

- Gaussian approximations: Extended Kalman filter, Unscented Kalman filter.
- Gaussian sum approximations.
- Projection filters, Variational approximations.
- Simple discretization of the state-space.
- Analytical methods work in simple cases but are not reliable and it is difficult to diagnose when they fail.
- Standard discretization of the space is expensive and difficult to implement in high-dimensional scenarios.

- At the beginning of the 90's, the optimal filtering area was considered virtually dead; there had not been any significant progress for years then...
- Gordon, N.J. Salmond, D.J. Smith, A.F.M. "Novel approach to nonlinear/non-Gaussian Bayesian state estimation", *IEE Proceedings F: Radar and Signal Processing*, vol. 140, no. 2, pp. 107-113, 1993.
- This article introduces a simple method which relies neither on a functional approximation nor a deterministic grid.
- This paper was ignored by most researchers for a few years...

- Monte Carlo Sampling.
- Importance Sampling.
- Sequential Importance Sampling.
- Sequential Importance Sampling with Resampling.

Monte Carlo Sampling

- Assume for the time being that you are interested in estimating the high-dimensional probability density

$$p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) = \frac{p(x_{1:n}, y_{1:n})}{p(y_{1:n})} \propto p(x_{1:n}, y_{1:n})$$

where n is *fixed*.

- A Monte Carlo approximation consists of sampling a large number N of i.i.d. random variables $X_{1:n}^{(i)} \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})$ and build the following approximation

$$\hat{p}(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{X_{1:n}^{(i)}}(x_{1:n})$$

where $\delta_{a_{1:n}}(x_{1:n})$ is the delta-Dirac mass which is such that

$$\int_A \delta_{a_{1:n}}(x_{1:n}) dx_{1:n} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a_{1:n} \in A \subset E^n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Issues with Standard Monte Carlo Sampling

- There are standard methods to sample from classical distributions such as Beta, Gamma, Normal, Poisson etc. We will not detail them here although we will rely on them.
- **Problem 1:** For most problems of interest, we cannot sample from $p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})$.
- **Problem 2:** Even if we could sample exactly from $p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})$, then the computational complexity of the algorithm would most likely increase with n : we want here an algorithm of fixed computational complexity at each time step.
- To summarize, we cannot use standard MC sampling in our case and, even if we could, this would not solve our problem...

- **Importance Sampling (IS).** We have

$$p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) = \frac{p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) p(x_{1:n})}{p(y_{1:n})},$$

$$p(y_{1:n}) = \int p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) p(x_{1:n}) dx_{1:n}$$

- Generally speaking, we have for a so-called *importance distribution* $q(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})$ such that selected such that $p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) > 0 \Rightarrow q(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) > 0$

$$p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) = \frac{w(x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}) q(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})}{p(y_{1:n})},$$

$$p(y_{1:n}) = \int w(x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}) q(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) dx_{1:n}$$

where the unnormalized *importance weight* is

$$w(x_{1:n}, y_{1:n}) = \frac{p(x_{1:n}, y_{1:n})}{q(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})} \propto \frac{p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})}{q(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})}.$$

- It is easy to sample from $p(x_{1:n})$ thus we can build the standard MC approximation

$$\hat{p}(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{X_{1:n}^{(i)}}(x_{1:n}) \text{ where } X_{1:n}^{(i)} \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} p(x_{1:n}).$$

- We plug these approximations in the IS identities to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} p(y_{1:n}) &= \int p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) p(x_{1:n}) dx_{1:n}, \\ \Rightarrow \hat{p}(y_{1:n}) &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N p(y_{1:n} | X_{1:n}^{(i)}). \end{aligned}$$

- $\hat{p}(y_{1:n})$ is an unbiased estimate of $p(y_{1:n})$ with variance

$$\frac{1}{N} \left[\int p^2(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) p(x_{1:n}) dx_{1:n} - 1 \right].$$

- We also get an approximation of the posterior

$$p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) = \frac{p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) p(x_{1:n})}{\int p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) p(x_{1:n}) dx_{1:n}}$$

using

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{p}(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) &= \frac{p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) \hat{p}(x_{1:n})}{\int p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) \hat{p}(x_{1:n}) dx_{1:n}} \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N p(y_{1:n} | X_{1:n}^{(i)}) \delta_{X_{1:n}^{(i)}}(x_{1:n})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N p(y_{1:n} | X_{1:n}^{(i)})} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N W_n^{(i)} \delta_{X_{1:n}^{(i)}}(x_{1:n}) \end{aligned}$$

where the *normalized importance weights* are

$$W_n^{(i)} = \frac{p(y_{1:n} | X_{1:n}^{(i)})}{\sum_{j=1}^N p(y_{1:n} | X_{1:n}^{(j)})}.$$

- Assume we are interested in computing $\mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})}(\varphi)$, then we can use the estimate

$$\mathbb{E}_{\hat{p}(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})}(\varphi) = \sum_{i=1}^N W_n^{(i)} \varphi(X_{1:n}^{(i)}).$$

- This estimate is biased for a finite N but is asymptotically consistent with

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N \left(\mathbb{E}_{\hat{p}(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})}(\varphi) - \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})}(\varphi) \right) \\ &= - \int \frac{p^2(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})}{p(x_{1:n})} \left(\varphi(x_{1:n}) - \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})}(\varphi) \right) dx_{1:n} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & \sqrt{N} \left(\mathbb{E}_{\hat{p}(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})}(\varphi) - \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})}(\varphi) \right) \\ \Rightarrow & \mathcal{N} \left(0, \int \frac{p^2(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})}{p(x_{1:n})} \left(\varphi(x_{1:n}) - \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})}(\varphi) \right)^2 dx_{1:n} \right). \end{aligned}$$

- $MSE = \underbrace{bias^2}_{O(N^{-2})} + \underbrace{variance}_{O(N^{-1})}$ so asymptotic bias is irrelevant.

Summary of Our Progresses

- **Problem 1:** For most problems of interest, we cannot sample from $p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})$.
- **Problem 1 “solved”:** We use an IS approximation of $p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})$ that relies on the IS prior distribution $p(x_{1:n})$.
- **Problem 2:** Even if we could sample exactly from $p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})$, then the computational complexity of the algorithm would most likely increase with n : we want here an algorithm of fixed computational complexity at each time step.
- **Problem 2 not solved yet:** If at each time step n , we need to obtain new samples from $p(x_{1:n})$ then the algorithm computational complexity will increase at each time step.

Sequential Importance Sampling (SIS)

- To avoid having computational efforts increasing over time, we use the fact that

$$\begin{aligned}\underbrace{p(x_{1:n})}_{\text{IS at time } n} &= \underbrace{p(x_{1:n-1})}_{\text{IS at time } n-1} \times \underbrace{f(x_n | x_{n-1})}_{\text{New sampled component}} \\ &= \mu(x_1) \prod_{k=2}^n f(x_k | x_{k-1}).\end{aligned}$$

- In practical terms, this means that at time $n-1$, we have already sampled $X_{1:n-1}^{(i)} \sim p(x_{1:n-1})$ and that to obtain at time n samples/particles $X_{1:n}^{(i)} \sim p(x_{1:n})$, we just need to sample

$$X_n^{(i)} \Big| X_{n-1}^{(i)} \sim f(x_n | X_{n-1}^{(i)})$$

and set

$$X_{1:n}^{(i)} = \left(\underbrace{X_{1:n-1}^{(i)}}_{\text{previously sampled paths}}, \underbrace{X_n^{(i)}}_{\text{new sampled component}} \right)$$

- Now, whatever being n , we have only one component X_n to sample!
- However, can we compute our IS estimates of $p(y_{1:n})$ and the target $p(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n})$ recursively?
- Remember that

$$\hat{p}(y_{1:n}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N p(y_{1:n} | X_{1:n}^{(i)}),$$

$$\hat{p}(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) = \sum_{i=1}^N W_n^{(i)} \delta_{X_{1:n}^{(i)}}(x_{1:n}),$$

where $W_n^{(i)} \propto p(y_{1:n} | X_{1:n}^{(i)})$, $\sum_{i=1}^N W_n^{(i)} = 1$.

- We have

$$p(y_{1:n} | x_{1:n}) = p(y_{1:n-1} | x_{1:n-1}) g(y_n | x_n)$$

Sequential Importance Sampling Algorithm

- *At time 1,*
Sample N particles $X_1^{(i)} \sim \mu(x_1)$ and compute

$$W_1^{(i)} \propto g(y_1 | X_1^{(i)}).$$

- *At time n , $n \geq 2$*
Sample N particles $X_n^{(i)} \sim f(x_n | X_{n-1}^{(i)})$ and compute

$$W_n^{(i)} \propto W_{n-1}^{(i)} \cdot g(y_n | X_n^{(i)}).$$

- The algorithm can be easily parallelized.
- The computational complexity does not increase over time.
- It is not necessary to store the paths $\{X_{1:n}^{(i)}\}$ if we are only interested in approximating $p(x_n | y_{1:n})$ as the weights only depends on $\{X_{n-1:n}^{(i)}\}$!

Example of Applications

- Consider the following model

$$\begin{aligned}X_k &= 0.5X_{k-1} + \frac{25X_{k-1}}{1 + X_{k-1}^2} + 8 \cos(1.2k) + V_k \\&= \varphi(X_{k-1}) + V_k \\Y_k &= \frac{X_k^2}{20} + W_k,\end{aligned}$$

where $X_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, $V_k \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 2.5^2)$ and $W_k \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

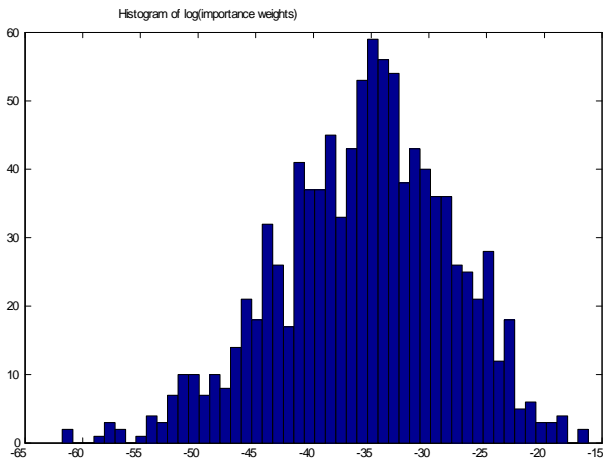


Figure: Histogram of $\log \left(p \left(y_{1:100} | X_{1:100}^{(i)} \right) \right)$. The approximation is dominated by one single particle.

- SIS is an attractive idea: *sequential* and *parallelizable*, reduces the design of an high-dimensional proposal to the design of a sequence of low-dimensional proposals.
- SIS can only work for moderate size problems.
- Is there a way to **partially** fix this problem?

- *Problem:* As n increases, the variance of $\left\{ p \left(y_{1:n} | X_{1:n}^{(i)} \right) \right\}$ increases and all the mass is concentrated on a few random samples/particles

$$\hat{p}(x_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) = \sum_{i=1}^N W_n^{(i)} \delta_{X_{1:n}^{(i)}}(x_{1:n}) \approx \delta_{X_{1:n}^{(i_0)}}(x_{1:n})$$

as $W_n^{(i_0)} \approx 1$ and $W_n^{(i)} \approx 0$ for $i \neq i_0$.

- *Intuitive KEY idea:* Kill in a principled way the particles with low weights $W_n^{(i)}$ (relative to $1/N$) and multiply the particles with high weights $W_n^{(i)}$ (relative to $1/N$).
- *Rationale:* If a particle at time n has a low weight then typically it will still have a low weight at time $n+1$ (though I can easily give you a counterexample) and you want to focus your computational efforts on the “promising” parts of the space.

- At time n , IS provides the following approximation of $p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})$

$$\hat{p}(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n}) = \sum_{i=1}^N W_n^{(i)} \delta_{X_{1:n}^{(i)}}(x_{1:n}).$$

- The simplest resampling schemes consists of sampling N times $\tilde{X}_{1:n}^{(i)} \sim \hat{p}(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})$ to build the new approximation

$$\tilde{p}(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{\tilde{X}_{1:n}^{(i)}}(x_{1:n}).$$

- The new resampled particles $\{\tilde{X}_{1:n}^{(i)}\}$ are approximately distributed according to $p(x_{1:n}|y_{1:n})$ but statistically dependent \rightsquigarrow Theoretically much more difficult to study.

Sequential Importance Sampling Resampling Algorithm

- *At time 1,*
Sample N particles $X_1^{(i)} \sim \mu(x_1)$ and compute

$$W_1^{(i)} \propto g(y_1 | X_1^{(i)}).$$

Resample $\{X_1^{(i)}, W_1^{(i)}\}$ to obtain new particles also denoted $\{X_1^{(i)}\}$.

- *At time n , $n \geq 2$*
Sample N particles $X_n^{(i)} \sim f(x_n | X_{n-1}^{(i)})$ and compute

$$W_n^{(i)} \propto g(y_n | X_n^{(i)}).$$

Resample $\{X_{1:n}^{(i)}, W_n^{(i)}\}$ to obtain new particles also denoted $\{X_{1:n}^{(i)}\}$.

- We also have

$$p(y_n | y_{1:n-1}) = \int g(y_n | x_n) f(x_n | x_{n-1}) p(x_{n-1} | y_{1:n-1}) dx_{n-1:n}$$

so

$$\hat{p}(y_n | y_{1:n-1}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N g(y_n | X_n^{(i)}) .$$

- Perhaps surprisingly, it can be shown that if we define

$$\hat{p}(y_{1:n}) = \hat{p}(y_1) \prod_{k=2}^n \hat{p}(y_k | y_{1:k-1})$$

then

$$\mathbb{E} [\hat{p}(y_{1:n})] = p(y_{1:n}) .$$

Example (cont.)

- Consider again the following model

$$X_k = 0.5X_{k-1} + \frac{25X_{k-1}}{1 + X_{k-1}^2} + 8 \cos(1.2k) + V_k$$

$$Y_k = \frac{X_k^2}{20} + W_k,$$

where $X_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, $V_k \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 2.5^2)$ and $W_k \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

- I have presented the most basic algorithm.
- In practice, practitioners often select an IS distribution $q(x_n | y_n, x_{n-1}) \neq f(x_n | x_{n-1})$. In such cases, we have

$$W_n^{(i)} \propto \frac{f(X_n^{(i)} | X_{n-1}^{(i)}) g(y_n | X_n^{(i)})}{q(X_n^{(i)} | y_n, X_{n-1}^{(i)})}$$

- Better resampling steps have been developed.
- Variance reduction can also be developed.
- SMC methods can be used to sample from virtually any sequence of distributions.