

## **Time Series and Sequence Learning**

Lecture 7 – Learning of State Space Models

Johan Alenlöv, Linköping University 2020-09-15

## Summary of Lecture 6: Structural time series

A general structural time series model

$$y_t = \mu_t + \gamma_t + \varepsilon_t$$

can be written in state space form using block matrices.

#### State vector:

$$\alpha_t = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_t & \mu_{t-1} & \cdots & \mu_{t-k+1} & \gamma_t & \gamma_{t-1} & \cdots & \gamma_{t-s+2} \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T}$$

#### State space model:

$$\begin{split} \alpha_t &= \begin{bmatrix} T_{[\mu]} & \\ & T_{[\gamma]} \end{bmatrix} \alpha_{t-1} + \begin{bmatrix} R_{[\mu]} & \\ & R_{[\gamma]} \end{bmatrix} \eta_t, & \eta_t \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_\zeta^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_\omega^2 \end{bmatrix}\right), \\ y_t &= \begin{bmatrix} Z_{[\mu]} & Z_{[\gamma]} \end{bmatrix} \alpha_t + \varepsilon_t, & \varepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2). \end{split}$$

## Summary of Lecture 6: Trend component

A k-1th order polynomial trend model  $\Delta^k \mu_t = \zeta_t$  can be written as

$$\alpha_{t} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{1} & c_{2} & \cdots & c_{k-1} & c_{k} \\ 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \alpha_{t-1} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \cdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \zeta_{t},$$

$$\mu_{t} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \vdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \alpha_{t},$$

where the state vector is

$$\alpha_t = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_t & \mu_{t-1} & \cdots & \mu_{t-k+1} \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T}$$
 and  $c_i = (-1)^{i+1} \binom{k}{i}$ .

## Summary of Lecture 6: Seasonal component

A s period seasonal model,  $\sum_{j=0}^{s-1} \gamma_{t-j} = \omega_t$ , can be written a

$$\alpha_t = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \alpha_{t-1} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \omega_t$$

$$\gamma_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \vdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \alpha_t,$$

where the state vector is

$$\alpha_t = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_t & \gamma_{t-1} & \cdots & \gamma_{t-s+2} \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T}.$$

## Summary of Lecture 6: The Kalman filter

For any s, t, denote by  $\hat{\alpha}_{t|s} = \mathbb{E}[\alpha_t \mid y_{1:s}]$  and  $P_{t|s} = \operatorname{Cov}(\alpha_t \mid y_{1:s})$ .

**Thm.** For an LGSS model,  $p(\alpha_t | y_{1:s}) = \mathcal{N}(\alpha_t | \hat{\alpha}_{t|s}, P_{t|s})$ .

Of particular interest are:

• Filtering distribution,

$$p(\alpha_t \mid y_{1:t}) = \mathcal{N}(\alpha_t \mid \hat{\alpha}_{t|t}, P_{t|t}).$$

(1-step) Predictive distributions,

$$p(\alpha_t | y_{1:t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(\alpha_t | \hat{\alpha}_{t|t-1}, P_{t|t-1}),$$
  
$$p(y_t | y_{1:t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(y_t | \hat{y}_{t|t-1}, F_{t|t-1}).$$

## Summary of Lecture 6: Parameter Estimation

The log-likelihood for a LGSSM is calculated using the Kalman filter

$$\ell(\theta) = \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \left( \log |F_{t|t-1}| + (y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1})^{\mathsf{T}} F_{t|t-1}^{-1} (y_t - \hat{y}_{t|t-1}) \right)$$

- Difficult to take derivatives ⇒ direct maximization difficult.
- For few parameters, grid the parameters and calculate the log-likelihood.

## Summary of Lecture 6: Expectation-Maximization

In the Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm we alternate two steps,

- 1. E-step: Calculate  $\mathcal{Q}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) = \mathbb{E}[\log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\alpha_{1:n}, y_{1:n}) \mid y_{1:n}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}]$
- 2. M-step: Find  $\theta^*$  that maximizes  $\mathcal{Q}(\theta, \tilde{\theta})$ .

We have that.

$$\begin{split} &\mathcal{Q}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) = \text{const.} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \left[ \log |\sigma_{\epsilon}^{2}| + \log |\boldsymbol{Q}| \right. \\ &+ \left. \left\{ \hat{\varepsilon}_{t|n}^{2} + \operatorname{Var}[\varepsilon_{t} \mid y_{1:n}] \right\} \sigma_{\varepsilon}^{-2} + \operatorname{tr}[\left\{ \hat{\eta}_{t|n} \hat{\eta}_{t|n}^{\mathsf{T}} + \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{\eta} \mid y_{1:n}] \right\} \boldsymbol{Q}^{-1}] \right], \end{split}$$

where  $\hat{\varepsilon}_{t|n}$ ,  $\mathrm{Var}[\varepsilon_t \,|\, y_{1:n}]$ ,  $\hat{\eta}_{t|n}$ , and  $\mathrm{Var}[\eta \,|\, y_{1:n}]$  are the smoothed mean and variances of  $\varepsilon_t$  and  $\eta_t$ .

To find  $\theta^*$  maximize  $\mathcal{Q}(\theta, \tilde{\theta})$  by taking the derivative and set the derivative to zero.

## Non-Linear State-Space Models

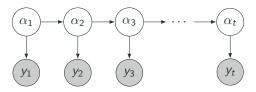
## **Limits of Linear Gaussian State-Space Models**

- Only allows for Gaussian observations.
  - What if we have discrete data?
- Only allows for Linear transformations.
  - What if the state moves in a non-linear fashion?
  - What if variance of the noise depends on the state?
  - What if the observation in a non-linear transformation of the states?
- To expend our models we need to work with non-linear and/or non-Gaussian models.

## From LGSS model to general state-space model

**Def.** A Linear Gaussian State-Space (LGSS) model is given by:

$$egin{aligned} lpha_t &= T lpha_{t-1} + R \eta_t, & \eta_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, Q), \ y_t &= Z lpha_t + arepsilon_t & arepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2), \end{aligned}$$



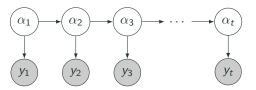
## From LGSS model to general state-space model

**Def.** A **General State-Space** model is given by:

$$\alpha_t \mid \alpha_{t-1} \sim q(\alpha_t \mid \alpha_{t-1})$$

$$y_t \mid \alpha_t \sim g(y_t \mid \alpha_t)$$

and initial distribution  $\alpha_1 \sim q(\alpha_1)$ .



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Thm. The joint-smoothing distribution is given by

$$p(\alpha_{1:n} | y_{1:n}) = \frac{q(\alpha_1)g(y_1 | \alpha_1) \prod_{i=2}^{n} q(\alpha_i | \alpha_{i-1})g(y_i | \alpha_i)}{L_n(y_{1:n})}$$

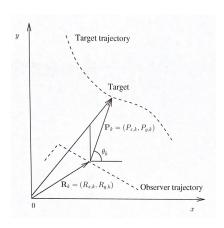
where  $L_n(y_{1:n}) = \int q(\alpha_1)g(y_1 \mid \alpha_1) \prod_{i=2}^n q(\alpha_i \mid \alpha_{i-1})g(y_i \mid \alpha_i) dy_{1:n}$  is the likelihood.

## **Example: Bearings-only Tracking**

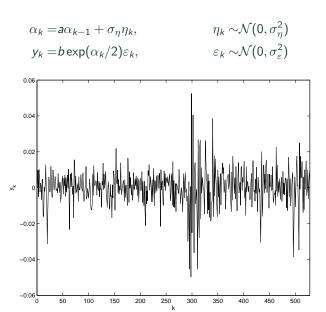
$$\begin{split} &\alpha_k = & A\alpha_{k-1} + R\eta_k, \\ &y_k = \arctan\left(\frac{P_{y,k} - R_{y,k}}{P_{x,k} - R_{x,k}}\right) + \sigma_\varepsilon \varepsilon_k, \end{split}$$

where  $\alpha_k = (P_{x,k}, \dot{P}_{x,k}, P_{y,k}, \dot{P}_{y,k})^\mathsf{T}$  and

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & T & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & T \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad R = \begin{pmatrix} T^2/2 & 0 \\ T & 0 \\ 0 & T^2/2 \\ 0 & T \end{pmatrix}$$



## **Example: Stochastic Volatility**



#### Our Goal

- Given a time-series  $y_{1:n}$  we are interested in:
  - Estimate the filter distributions.
  - Estimate the parameters.
- For the non-Linear models our aim is to estimate the expected values

$$\mathbb{E}[h(\alpha_t) | y_{1:t}] = \int h(\alpha_t) p(\alpha_t | y_{1:t}) d\alpha_t,$$

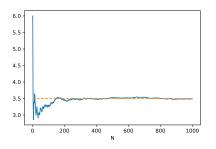
where h is some function of interest.

Monte Carlo and Importance

Sampling

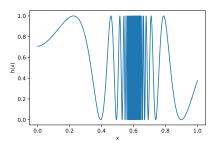
- For non-linear / non-Gaussian models exact calculations of the filter distribution is not possible.
- Instead we use the Monte Carlo method:
  - Sample  $x^i \sim p(x)$  for i = 1, ..., N
  - Then  $\hat{h} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} h(x^i)$  is an estimate of  $\mathbb{E}[h(x)] = \int h(x) p(x) \mathrm{d}x$

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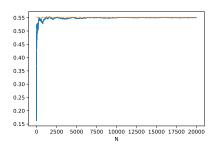
- 2. est = np.mean(x)

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$$h(x) = \sin(1/\cos(\log(1+2\pi x)))^2$$

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- 3. est = np.mean(hx)

## Importance Sampling

- Sometimes sampling from p(x) is difficult/impossible.
- It might be easier to sample form a distribution f(x).
- Assume that  $f(x) = 0 \Rightarrow p(x) = 0$ .
- We have that

$$\mathbb{E}_p[h(x)] = \int h(x)p(x)dx = \int h(x)p(x)\frac{f(x)}{f(x)}dx = \mathbb{E}_f\left[h(x)\frac{p(x)}{f(x)}\right]$$

- A Monte Carlo estimator would then become:
  - 1. Draw  $x^i \sim f(x)$ , for i = 1, ..., N
  - 2. Calculate  $\omega^i = p(x^i)/f(x^i)$
  - 3. Estimate  $\hat{h} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega^{i} h(x^{i})$
- Known as importance sampling

## Importance Sampling

- Often p(x) is only known up to a normalizing constant p(x) = z(x)/c where the constant  $c = \int z(x) dx$  is **unknown**.
- We can stil perform importance sampling in the following way:
  - 1. Draw  $x^i \sim f(x)$ , for  $i = 1, \ldots, N$ .
  - 2. Calculate  $\omega^i = z(x^i)/f(x^i)$
  - 3. Estimate  $\hat{h} = \Omega^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega^{i} h(x^{i})$ , where  $\Omega = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega^{i}$ .
- Notice that:

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega^{i} h(x^{i}) \to c \cdot \mathbb{E}_{p}[h(x)]$$

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega^{i} \to c.$$

We get an estimate of the normalizing constant.

# Importance Sampling in SSM

## Sequential Importance Sampling

**Def.** A **General State-Space** model is given by:

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$$y_t \mid \alpha_t \sim g(y_t \mid \alpha_t)$$

and initial distribution  $\alpha_1 \sim q(\alpha_1)$ .

Thm. The joint-smoothing distribution is given by

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where  $L_n(y_{1:n}) = \int q(\alpha_1)g(y_1 \mid \alpha_1) \prod_{i=2}^n q(\alpha_i \mid \alpha_{i-1})g(y_i \mid \alpha_i) dy_{1:n}$  is the likelihood.

We wish to sample from  $p(\alpha_{1:n} | y_{1:n})$  using importance sampling.

## **Sequential Importance Sampling**

- Target this using importance sampling:
  - Assume that we have generated  $(\alpha_{1:n}^i)_{i=1}^N$  from  $f(\alpha_{1:n})$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\omega_n^i}{\Omega_n} h(\alpha_{1:n}^i) \approx \mathbb{E}[h(\alpha_{1:n}) \mid y_{1:n}]$$

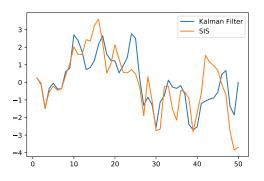
- To go to n+1 we do the following for each  $i=1,2,\ldots,N$ :
  - Draw  $\alpha_{n+1}^i \sim \mathit{f}(\alpha_{n+1} \mid \alpha_{1 \cdot n}^i)$
  - Set  $\alpha_{1:n+1}^i = (\alpha_{1:n}^i, \alpha_{n+1}^i)$
  - $\bullet \quad \text{Set } \omega_{n+1}^i = \frac{q(\alpha_{n+1}^i \mid \alpha_n^i) g(y_{n+1} \mid \alpha_n^i)}{f(\alpha_{n+1}^i \mid \alpha_{1:n}^i)} \times \omega_n^i.$
- This gives us sequential importance sampling (SIS) where:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\omega_{n+1}^{i}}{\Omega_{n+1}} h(\alpha_{1:n+1}) \approx \mathbb{E}[h(\alpha_{1:n+1}) \mid y_{1:n+1}]$$

$$\frac{1}{N} \Omega_{n+1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega_{n+1}^{i} \approx L(y_{1:n+1}).$$

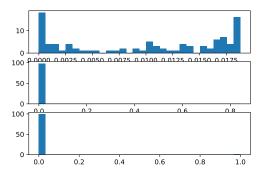
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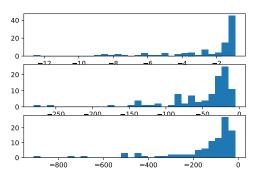
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## Solving the Weight Problem

- Unfortunately, weight degeneracy is a universal problem with the sequential importance sampling algorithm.
- The degeneracy is due to the repeated multiplication used to calculate the weights.
- This drawback prevented the sequential importance sampling algorithm from being practically useful during several decades.
- We will now discuss a solution to this problem: sequential importance sampling with resampling (SISR)

## Interlude: IS with resampling

- Having a weighted sample  $(x^i, \omega^i)_{i=1}^N$  approximating p. We can get a **uniformly weighted sample** by **resampling**, with replacement new variables  $(\tilde{x}^i)_{i=1}^N$  from  $(x^i)_{i=1}^N$  according to the weights  $(\omega^i)_{i=1}^N$
- We get that  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^j = \mathbf{x}^j$  with probability  $\frac{\omega^j}{\Omega}$ .
- This does not add bias to the estimator.
- The resampled estimator is

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}h(\tilde{x}^{i})\approx \mathbb{E}_{p}[h(x)]$$

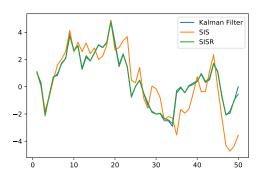
## SIS with resampling

- A simple but revolutionary! idea: duplicate/kill particles with large/small weights!
- The most natural such selection is to draw new particles  $(\tilde{\alpha}_{1:n}^i)_{i=1}^N$  among the SIS-produced  $(\alpha_{1:n}^i)_{i=1}^N$  with probabilities by the normalized importance weights.
- Formally, for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$

$$\tilde{\alpha}_{1:n}^i = \alpha_{1:n}^j$$
 w. pr.  $\frac{\omega_n^j}{\Omega_n}$ 

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## Algorithm: Particle Filter

#### Particle Filter:

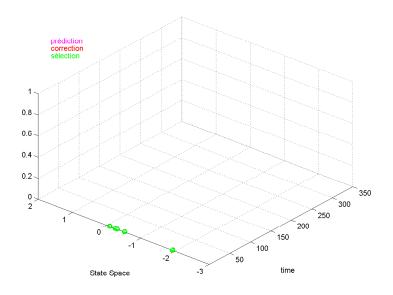
Draw 
$$\alpha_1^i \sim f(\alpha_1)$$
  
Set  $\omega_1^i = \frac{q(\alpha_1^i)g(y_1 \mid \alpha_1^i)}{f(\alpha_1^i)}$   
Set  $\Omega_1 = \sum_{i=1}^N \omega_1^i$   
for  $t = 2, 3, \dots, n$  do  
Draw  $I^i = j$  w. pr.  $\frac{\omega_{t-1}^i}{\Omega_{t-1}}$   
Draw  $\alpha_t^i \sim f(\alpha_t \mid \alpha_{1:t-1}^i)$   
Set  $\omega_t^i = \frac{q(\alpha_t^i \mid \alpha_{t-1}^i)g(y_t \mid \alpha_t^i)}{f(\alpha_t^i \mid \alpha_{1:t-1}^i)}$   
Set  $\alpha_{1:t}^i = (\alpha_{1:t-1}^i, \alpha_t^i)$   
Set  $\Omega_t = \sum_{i=1}^N \omega_t^i$   
end for

## Algorithm: Bootstrap Particle Filter

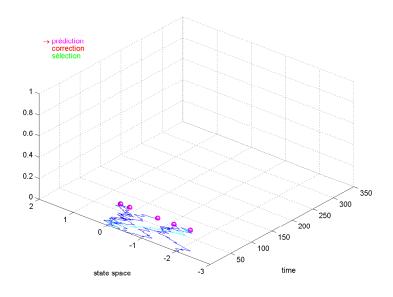
### **Bootstrap Particle Filter:**

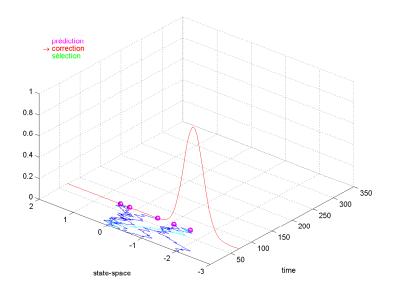
```
Draw \alpha_1^i \sim q(\alpha_1)
Set \omega_1^i = g(y_1 \mid \alpha_1^i)
Set \Omega_1 = \sum_{i=1}^N \omega_1^i
for t = 2, 3, ..., n do
       Draw I^{i} = j w. pr. \frac{\omega_{t-1}^{J}}{\Omega_{t-1}}
       Draw \alpha_t^i \sim q(\alpha_t | \alpha_{t-1}^{j})
       Set \omega_t^i = g(y_t \mid \alpha_t^i)
       Set \alpha_{1:t}^i = (\alpha_{1:t-1}^{i'}, \alpha_t^i)
       Set \Omega_t = \sum_{i=1}^N \omega_t^i
end for
```

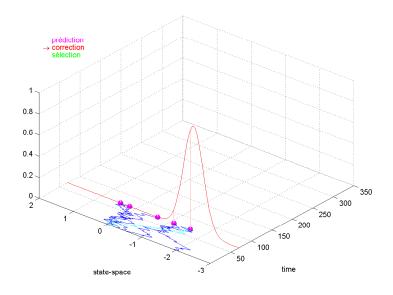
## Particle Filter Movie

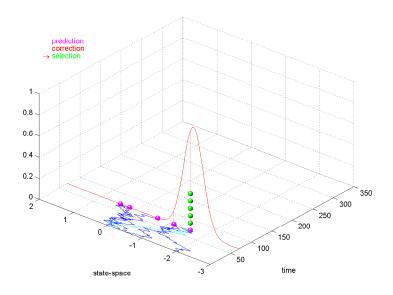


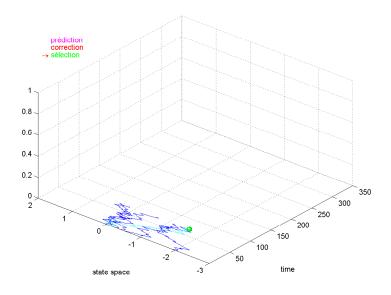
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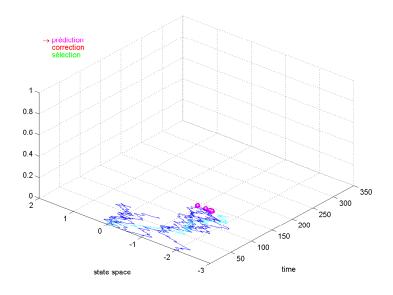


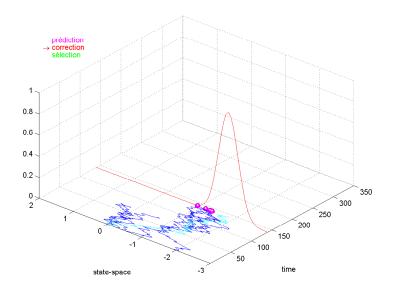


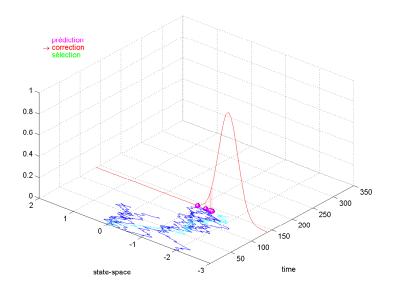


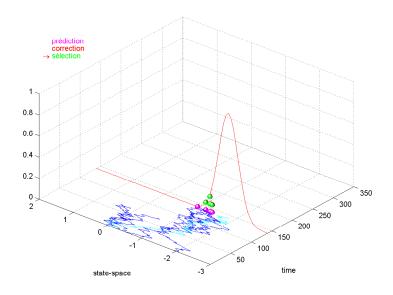


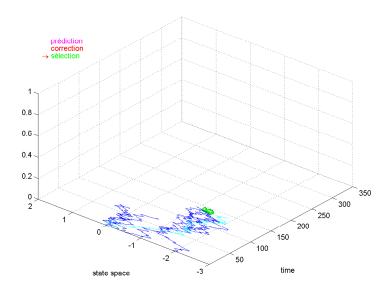


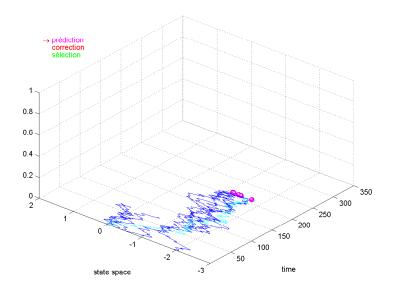


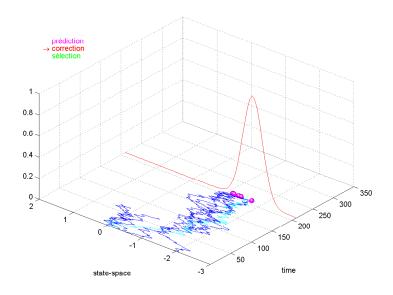


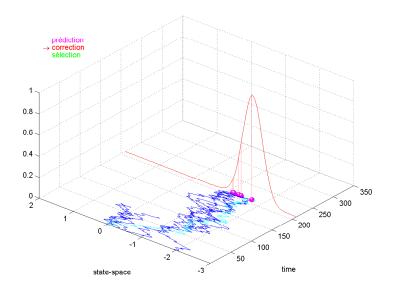


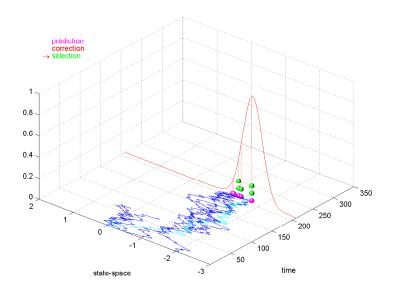


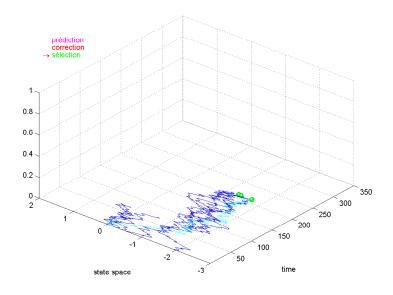


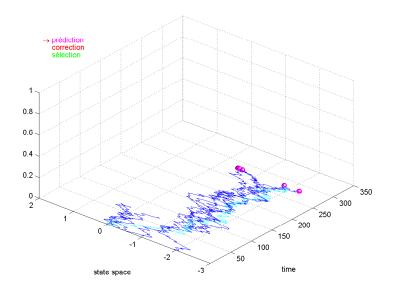


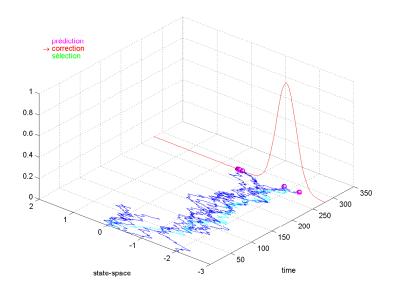


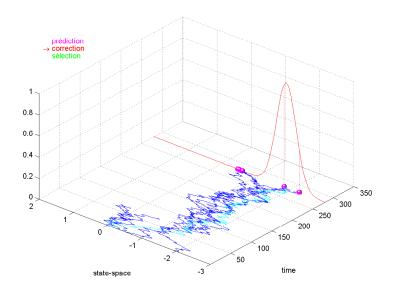


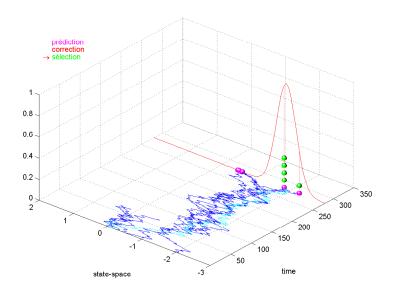


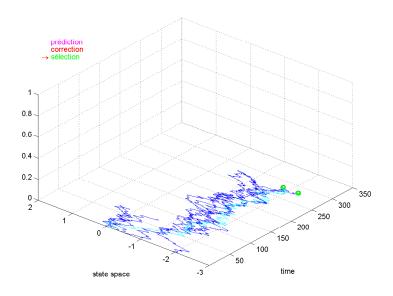


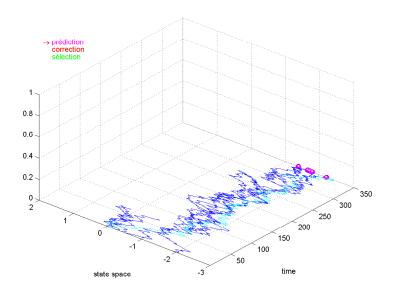


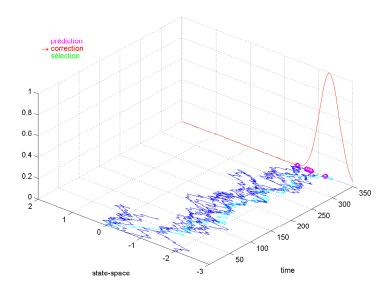


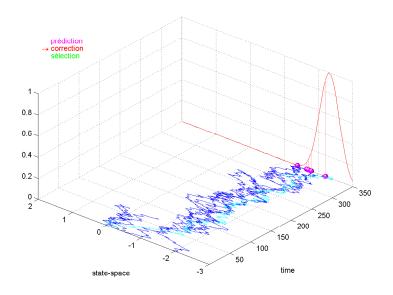












### Summary

- Non-linear/non-Gaussian components in state-space models allows for more complicated models.
- Exact calculations is **not possible**, we have to approximate instead.
- The Monte Carlo method is a way of approximating distribution by random numbers.
- Importance sampling can be used when it is hard/impossible to sample directly from the distribution.
- Sequential importance sampling, repeatedly applied importance sampling to a state-space model.
  - Does not work in practice.
  - Weights degenerate.
- Solution is to resample the particles.
- The particle filter works by combining the sequential importance sampler with a resampling step.
  - The bootstrap particle filter is the simplest version, where the particles move according to the dynamics.