

Sequential Quasi Monte Carlo

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joint work with Mathieu Gerber (CREST, Université de Lausanne)



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The purpose of this work is to derive a QMC version of PF, which we call SQMC (Sequential Quasi Monte Carlo).



Consider the standard MC approximation

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\varphi(\mathbf{u}^n)\approx\int_{[0,1]^d}\varphi(\mathbf{u})\mathrm{d}\mathbf{u}$$

where the N vectors \mathbf{u}^n are IID variables simulated from $\mathcal{U}([0,1]^d)$.



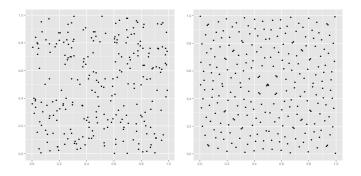
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QMC replaces $\mathbf{u}^{1:N}$ by a set of N points that are more evenly distributed on the hyper-cube $[0, 1]^d$. This idea is formalised through the notion of discrepancy.





QMC versus MC: N = 256 points sampled independently and uniformly in $[0, 1]^2$ (left); QMC sequence (Sobol) in $[0, 1]^2$ of the same length (right)

Discrepancy



Koksma-Hlawka inequality:

$$\left|\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\varphi(\mathbf{u}^{n})-\int_{[0,1]^{d}}\varphi(\mathbf{u})\,\mathrm{d}\mathbf{u}\right|\leq V(\varphi)D^{\star}(\mathbf{u}^{1:N})$$

where $V(\varphi)$ depends only on φ , and the star discrepancy is defined as:

$$D^{\star}(\mathbf{u}^{1:N}) = \sup_{[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{b}]} \left| \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbb{1} \left(\mathbf{u}^{n} \in [\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{b}] \right) - \prod_{i=1}^{d} b_{i} \right|.$$



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There are various ways to construct point sets $P_N = \{\mathbf{u}^{1:N}\}$ so that $D^*(\mathbf{u}^{1:N}) = \mathcal{O}(N^{-1+\epsilon})$. (Describing these different constructions is beyond the scope of this talk.)

RQMC (randomised QMC)

RQMC randomises QMC so that each $\mathbf{u}^n\sim\mathcal{U}\left([0,1]^d
ight)$ marginally. In this way

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\varphi(\mathbf{u}^n)\right\} = \int_{[0,1]^d}\varphi(\mathbf{u})\,\mathrm{d}\mathbf{u}$$

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A simple way to generate a RQMC sequence is to take $\mathbf{u}^n = \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v}^n \equiv 1$, where $\mathbf{w} \sim U([0, 1]^d)$ and $\mathbf{v}^{1:N}$ is a QMC point set. RQMC (randomised QMC)

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Owen (1995, 1997a, 1997b, 1998) developed RQMC strategies such that (for a certain class of smooth functions φ):

$$\operatorname{Var}\left\{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\varphi(\mathbf{u}^{n})\right\} = \mathcal{O}(N^{-3+\epsilon})$$

Consider an unobserved Markov chain (\mathbf{x}_t) , $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim m_0(\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}_0)$ and

$$\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1} = \mathbf{x}_{t-1} \sim m_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}_t)$$

taking values in $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, and an observed process (\mathbf{y}_t) ,

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Sequential analysis of HMMs amounts to recover quantities such as $p(x_t|y_{0:t})$ (filtering), $p(x_{t+1}|y_{0:t})$ (prediction), $p(y_{0:t})$ (marginal likelihood), etc., recursively in time. Many applications in engineering (tracking), finance (stochastic volatility), epidemiology, ecology, neurosciences, etc.

Feynman-Kac formalism

Taking $G_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t) := g_t(\mathbf{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_t)$, we see that sequential analysis of a HMM may be cast into a Feynman-Kac model. In particular, filtering amounts to computing

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{Q}_t(\varphi) &= \frac{1}{Z_t} \mathbb{E}\left[\varphi(\mathbf{x}_t) G_0(\mathbf{x}_0) \prod_{s=1}^t G_s(\mathbf{x}_{s-1}, \mathbf{x}_s)\right],\\ \text{with } Z_t &= \mathbb{E}\left[G_0(\mathbf{x}_0) \prod_{s=1}^t G_s(\mathbf{x}_{s-1}, \mathbf{x}_s)\right] \end{split}$$

and expectations are wrt the law of the Markov chain (\mathbf{x}_t) .

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$$Q_t(\varphi) = \frac{1}{Z_t} \mathbb{E}\left[\varphi(\mathbf{x}_t) G_0(\mathbf{x}_0) \prod_{s=1}^t G_s(\mathbf{x}_{s-1}, \mathbf{x}_s)\right],$$

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Note: FK formalism has other applications that sequential analysis of HMM. In addition, for a given HMM, there is a more than one way to define a Feynmann-Kac formulation of that model.



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Operations must be be performed for all $n \in 1 : N$. At time 0,

(a) Generate
$$\mathbf{x}_0^n \sim m_0(d\mathbf{x}_0)$$
.
(b) Compute $W_0^n = G_0(\mathbf{x}_0^n) / \sum_{m=1}^N G_0(\mathbf{x}_0^m)$ and $Z_0^N = N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N G_0(\mathbf{x}_0^n)$.

Recursively, for time t = 1 : T,

(a) Generate
$$a_{t-1}^n \sim \mathcal{M}(W_{t-1}^{1:N})$$
.
(b) Generate $\mathbf{x}_t^n \sim m_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{a_{t-1}^n}, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}_t)$.
(c) Compute $W_t^n = G_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{a_{t-1}^n}, \mathbf{x}_t^n) / \sum_{m=1}^N G_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{a_{t-1}^m}, \mathbf{x}_t^m)$
and $Z_t^N = Z_{t-1}^N \left\{ N^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^N G_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{a_{t-1}^n}, \mathbf{x}_t^n) \right\}$.



At iteration t, compute

$$\mathbb{Q}_t^N(\varphi) = \sum_{n=1}^N W_t^n \varphi(\mathbf{x}_t^n)$$

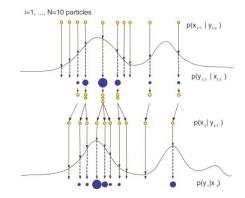
to approximate $\mathbb{Q}_t(\varphi)$ (the filtering expectation of φ). In addition, compute

 Z_t^N

as an approximation of Z_t (the likelihood of the data).

Cartoon representation





Source for image: some dark corner of the Internet.

Formalisation



We can formalise the succession of the resampling step (a) and the mutation step (b) at iteration t as an importance sampling step from random probability measure

$$\overline{\mathbb{Q}}_{t}^{N}(\mathrm{d}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1},\mathbf{x}_{t})) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} W_{t-1}^{n} \delta_{\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{n}}(\mathrm{d}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1}) m_{t}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1},\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}_{t})$$

to

$$\mathbb{Q}_t^N(\mathrm{d}(\widetilde{\mathsf{x}}_{t-1},\mathsf{x}_t)) \propto \overline{\mathbb{Q}}_t^N(\mathrm{d}(\widetilde{\mathsf{x}}_{t-1},\mathsf{x}_t)) \mathcal{G}_t(\widetilde{\mathsf{x}}_{t-1},\mathsf{x}_t).$$

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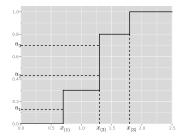
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Idea: use QMC instead of MC to sample N points from $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}_t^N(\mathrm{d}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1},\mathbf{x}_t))$. The main difficulty is that this distribution is partly discrete, partly continuous.

Case d = 1





Let $\mathbf{u}_t^n = (v_t^n, w_t^n)$ be uniform variates in $[0, 1]^2$. Then

- 1 Use the inverse transform to obtain $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1}^n = \hat{F}^{-1}(v_t^n)$, where \hat{F} is the empirical cdf of $\sum_{n=1}^N W_{t-1}^n \delta_{\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^n}(\mathrm{d}\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1})$.
- 2 Sample $\mathbf{x}_t^n \sim m_t(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1}^n, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}_t)$ as: $\mathbf{x}_t^n = \Gamma_t(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1}^n, w_t^n)$, where Γ_t is e.g. the inverse CDF of $m_t(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1}^n, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}_t)$ (or some other appropriate deterministic function)



When d > 1, we cannot use the inverse CDF method to sample from the empirical distribution

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} W_{t-1}^{n} \delta_{\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{n}} (\mathrm{d} \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1}).$$

Idea: we "project" the \mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{n} 's into [0, 1] through the (generalised) inverse of the Hilbert curve, which is a fractal, space-filling curve $H : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]^{d}$.



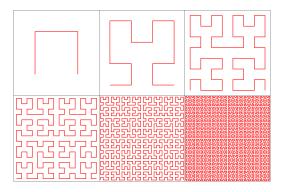
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More precisely, we transform \mathcal{X} into $[0,1]^d$ through some function ψ , then we transform $[0,1]^d$ into [0,1] through $h = H^{-1}$.

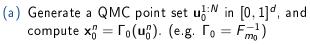




The Hilbert curve is the limit of this sequence. Note the locality property of the Hilbert curve: if two points are close in [0, 1], then the the corresponding transformed points remains close in $[0, 1]^d$. (Source for the plot: Wikipedia)

SQMC Algorithm

At time 0,



(b) Compute $W_0^n = G_0(\mathbf{x}_0^n) / \sum_{m=1}^N G_0(\mathbf{x}_0^m)$.

Recursively, for time t = 1 : T,

- (a) Generate a QMC point set $\mathbf{u}_t^{1:N}$ in $[0,1]^{d+1}$; let $\mathbf{u}_t^n = (u_t^n, \mathbf{v}_t^n)$.
- (b) Hilbert sort: find permutation σ such that $h \circ \psi(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{\sigma(1)}) \leq \ldots \leq h \circ \psi(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{\sigma(N)}).$
- (c) Generate $a_{t-1}^{1:N}$ using inverse CDF Algorithm, with inputs sort $(u_t^{1:N})$ and $W_{t-1}^{\sigma(1:N)}$, and compute $\mathbf{x}_t^n = \Gamma_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{\sigma(a_{t-1}^n)}, \mathbf{v}_t^{\sigma(n)})$. (e.g. $\Gamma_t = F_{m_t}^{-1}$)

(e) Compute

$$W_t^n = G_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{\sigma(a_{t-1}^n)}, \mathbf{x}_t^n) / \sum_{m=1}^N G_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{\sigma(a_{t-1}^m)}, \mathbf{x}_t^m).$$





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Some remarks



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- The main requirement to implement SQMC is that one may simulate from Markov kernel $m_t(x_{t-1}, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}_t)$ by computing $\mathbf{x}_t = \Gamma_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{u}_t)$, where $\mathbf{u}_t \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 1]^d$, for some deterministic function Γ_t (e.g. multivariate inverse CDF).

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- The dimension of the point sets $\mathbf{u}_t^{1:N}$ is 1 + d: first component is for selecting the parent particle, the *d* remaining components is for sampling \mathbf{x}_t^n given $\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{a_{t-1}^n}$.



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We were able to establish the following types of results: consistency

$$\mathbb{Q}_t^N(arphi) - \mathbb{Q}_t(arphi) o 0, \quad ext{as } N o +\infty$$

for certain functions $\varphi,$ and rate of convergence

$$\mathrm{MSE}\left[\mathbb{Q}_t^N(\varphi)\right] = o(N^{-1})$$

(under technical conditions, and for certain types of RQMC point sets).

Theory is non-standard and borrows heavily from QMC concepts.

Let $\mathcal{X} = [0,1]^d.$ Consistency results are expressed in terms of the star norm

$$\|\mathbb{Q}_t^N - \mathbb{Q}_t\|_{\star} = \sup_{[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{b}] \subset [0, 1)^d} \left| \left(\mathbb{Q}_t^N - \mathbb{Q}_t \right) (B) \right| \to 0.$$

This implies consistency for bounded functions φ , $\mathbb{Q}_t^N(\varphi) - \mathbb{Q}_t(\varphi) \to 0$. The Hilbert curve conserves discrepancy:

$$\|\pi^N - \pi\|_{\star} \to 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \|\pi_h^N - \pi_h\|_{\star} \to 0$$

where $\pi \in \mathcal{P}([0,1]^d)$, $h: [0,1]^d \to [0,1]$ is the (pseudo-)inverse of the Hilbert curve, and π_h is the image of π through π .

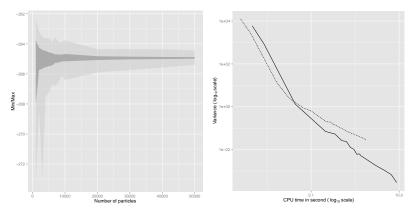


Well known toy example (Kitagawa, 1998):

$$\begin{cases} y_t = \frac{x_t^2}{a} + \epsilon_t \\ x_t = b_1 x_{t-1} + b_2 \frac{x_{t-1}}{1 + x_{t-1}^2} + b_3 \cos(b_4 t) + \sigma \nu_t \end{cases}$$

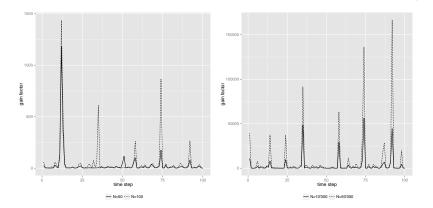
No paramater estimation (parameters are set to their true value). We compare SQMC with SMC (based on systematic resampling) both in terms of *N*, and in terms of CPU time.

Examples: Kitagawa (d = 1)



Log-likelihood evaluation (based on T = 100 data point and 500 independent SMC and SQMC runs).

Examples: Kitagawa (d = 1)



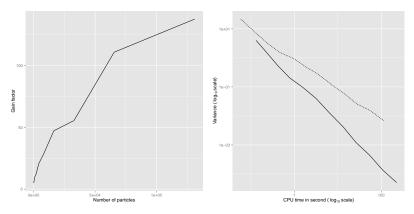
Filtering: computing $\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{y}_{0:t})$ at each iteration t. Gain factor is MSE(SMC)/MSE(SQMC).



$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{y}_t = S_t^{\frac{1}{2}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t \\ \mathbf{x}_t = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \Phi(\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) + \Psi^{\frac{1}{2}} \boldsymbol{\nu}_t \end{cases}$$

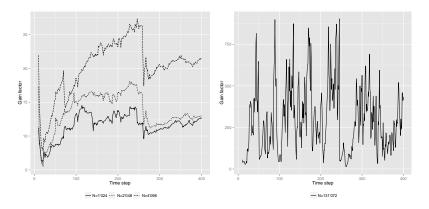
with possibly correlated noise terms: $(\epsilon_t, \nu_t) \sim N_{2d}(0, C)$. We shall focus on d = 2 and d = 4.

Examples: Multivariate Stochastic Volatility (d = 2)



Log-likelihood evaluation (based on T = 400 data points and 200 independent SMC and SQMC runs).

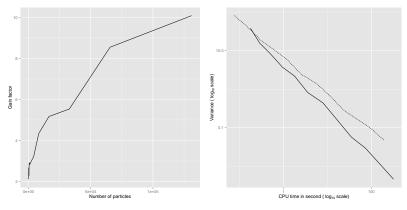
Examples: Multivariate Stochastic Volatility (d = 2)



Filtering.

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Examples: Multivariate Stochastic Volatility (d = 4)



Log-likelihood estimation.

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- Only requirement to replace SMC with SQMC is that the simulation of $\mathbf{x}_t^n | \mathbf{x}_{t-1}^n$ may be written as a $\mathbf{x}_t^n = \Gamma_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^n, \mathbf{u}_t^n)$ where $\mathbf{u}_t^n \sim U[0, 1]^d$.
- We observe very impressive gains in performance (even for small N or d = 6).
- Supporting theory.



- Adaptive resampling (triggers resampling steps when weight degeneracy is too high).
- Adapt SQMC to situations where sampling from $m_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}^n, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}_t)$ involves some accept/reject mechanism (e.g. Metropolis). In this way, we could develop SQMC counterparts of SMC samplers (Del Moral et al, 2006).
- SQMC² (QMC version of SMC², C. et al, 2013)?



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Paper is on Arxiv.