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NONLINEAR AND NON-GAUSSIAN STATE SPACE MODELING USING SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

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Abstract. In this paper, the nonlinear non-Gaussian filters and smoothers are proposed using the joint density of the state variables, where the sampling techniques such as rejection sampling (RS), importance resampling (IR) and the Metropolis-Hastings independence sampling (MH) are utilized. Utilizing the random draws generated from the joint density, the density-based recursive algorithms on filtering and smoothing can be obtained. Furthermore, taking into account possibility of structural changes and outliers during the estimation period, the appropriately chosen sampling density is possibly introduced into the suggested nonlinear non-Gaussian filtering and smoothing procedures. Finally, through Monte Carlo simulation studies, the suggested filters and smoothers are examined.

Key words and phrases: Filtering, Smoothing, Joint Density, Rejection Sampling, Importance Resampling, Metropolis-Hastings Independence Sampling.

1. Introduction

Various nonlinear non-Gaussian filters and smoothers have been proposed for the last decade in order to improve precision of the state estimates and reduce a computational burden. The state mean and variance are evaluated by generating random draws directly from the filtering density or the smoothing density. Clearly, precision of the state estimates is improved as number of random draws increases. Thus, the recent filters and smoothers have been developed by applying some sampling techniques such as Gibbs sampling, rejection sampling (RS), importance resampling (IR), the Metropolis-Hastings independence sampling (MH) and etc.

Carlin et al. (1992) and Carter and Kohn (1994, 1996) applied the Gibbs sampler to some specific state space models, which are extended to more general state space models by Geweke and Tanizaki (1999). The Gibbs sampler sometimes gives us the imprecise estimates of the state variables, depending on the underlying state space model (see Carter and Kohn (1994, 1996)). Especially when the random variables are highly correlated with each other, it is well known that convergence of the Gibbs sampler is unacceptably slow. In the case of state space models, the transition equation represents the relationship between the state variable α_t and the lagged one α_{t-1}. Accordingly, it is clear that the state variable at present time has high correlation with that at past time. As for the state space models, therefore, the Gibbs sampler is one of the sources of imprecise state estimates. In this paper, unlike Carlin et al. (1992) and Carter and Kohn (1994, 1996), the density-based recursive algorithms on filtering and smoothing are discussed, where they are compared with respect to the three sampling methods, i.e.,

RS, IR and MH, although any sampling technique can be applied.

Gordon et al. (1993), Kitagawa (1996, 1998) and Kitagawa and Gersch (1996) proposed the nonlinear non-Gaussian state space modeling by IR, which can be applied to almost all the state space models. Both filtering and smoothing random draws are based on the one-step ahead prediction random draws. In the case where the past information is too different from the present sample, however, the obtained filtering and smoothing random draws become unrealistic. To avoid this situation, in this paper we take an appropriately chosen density as the sampling density for random number generation. Note that Kong et al. (1994), Liu and Chen (1995, 1998) and Doucet et al. (2000) utilized the sampling density other than the one-step ahead prediction density. In addition, the fixed-interval smoother proposed by Kitagawa (1996) and Kitagawa and Gersch (1996) does not give us the exact solution of the state estimate even when the number of random draws is large enough, because the fixed-interval smoother suggested by Kitagawa (1996) is approximated by the fixed-lag smoother. To improve this disadvantage, in this paper we propose the fixed-interval smoother which yields the exact solution of the state estimate. As an alternative smoother, furthermore, Kitagawa (1996) introduces the fixed-interval smoother based on the two-filter formula, where forward and backward filtering are performed and combined to obtain the smoothing density. The smoother based on the two-filter formula is discussed in Appendix A.

The RS filter and smoother have been developed by Tanizaki (1996, 1999), Hürzeler and Künsch (1998) and Tanizaki and Mariano (1998). To implement RS for random number generation, we need to compute the supremum in the acceptance probability, which depends on the underlying functional form of the measurement and transition equations. RS cannot be applied in the case where the acceptance probability is equal to zero, i.e., when the supremum is infinity. Even if the supremum is finite, it takes a lot of computational time when the acceptance probability is close to zero. To improve the problems in RS, Liu, Chen and Wong (1998) suggested combining rejection sampling and importance sampling.

In this paper, we consider generating random draws from the joint densities of the state variables, i.e., $p(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_t)$ for filtering and $p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t|Y_T)$ or $p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_T)$ for smoothing, where the notations are defined in Section 2.1. Kong et al. (1994) and Liu and Chen (1995) also suggested drawing from the joint density of the state variable and the auxiliary variable, where they discuss filtering but not smoothing. In a lot of literature, smoothing is not investigated because smoothing is much more computer-intensive than filtering. Dealing with the joint densities of the state variables yields less computational smoothers. Thus, in this paper we propose the nonlinear non-Gaussian filters and smoothers using the joint densities of the state variables.

2. Preliminaries

2.1 *State Space Model*

Kitagawa (1987), Harvey (1989), Kitagawa and Gersch (1996) and Tanizaki (1996, 2001) discuss the nonlinear non-Gaussian state space models, which are described by the following two equations:

$$y_t = h_t(\alpha_t, \epsilon_t), \quad \text{(2.1) (Measurement equation)}$$

$$\alpha_t = f_t(\alpha_{t-1}, \eta_t), \quad \text{(2.2) (Transition equation)}$$

where y_t represents the observed data at time t while α_t denotes the state vector at time t which is unobservable. ϵ_t and η_t are mutually independently distributed. $h_t(\cdot,\cdot)$ and $f_t(\cdot,\cdot)$ are assumed to be known. $\alpha_{t|s} \equiv \mathrm{E}(\alpha_t|Y_s)$ is called prediction if $t > s$, filtering if $t = s$ and smoothing if $t < s$, where Y_s denotes the information set up to time s, i.e., $Y_s = \{y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_s\}$. Moreover, there are three kinds of smoothing estimators, i.e., the fixed-point smoothing $\alpha_{L|t}$, the fixed-lag smoothing $\alpha_{t|t+L}$ and the fixed-interval smoothing $\alpha_{t|T}$ for fixed L and fixed T. In this paper, we focus on the filter and the fixed-interval smoother, i.e., $\alpha_{t|s}$ for $s = t, T$.

Define $p_y(y_t|\alpha_t)$ and $p_\alpha(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})$ by the density functions derived from (2.1) and (2.2). The density-based recursive algorithm on filtering is given by:

$$\text{(2.3)}\quad \text{(Prediction equation)} \qquad p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1}) = \int p_\alpha(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1})\mathrm{d}\alpha_{t-1},$$

$$\text{(2.4)}\quad \text{(Update equation)} \qquad p(\alpha_t|Y_t) = \frac{p_y(y_t|\alpha_t)p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})}{\int p_y(y_t|\alpha_t)p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})\mathrm{d}\alpha_t},$$

for $t = 1, 2, \cdots, T$. The initial condition is given by: $p(\alpha_1|Y_0) = \int p_\alpha(\alpha_1|\alpha_0)p_\alpha(\alpha_0)\mathrm{d}\alpha_0$ if α_0 is stochastic and $p(\alpha_1|Y_0) = p_\alpha(\alpha_1|\alpha_0)$ otherwise, where $p_\alpha(\alpha_0)$ denotes the unconditional density of α_0. The filtering algorithm takes the following two steps: (i) from (2.3), $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$ is obtained given $p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1})$, and (ii) from (2.4), $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ is derived given $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$. Thus, $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ is recursively obtained for $t = 1, 2, \cdots, T$.

The density-based recursive algorithm on smoothing utilizes both the one-step ahead prediction density $p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_t)$ and the filtering density $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$, which is represented by:

$$\text{(2.5)}\qquad p(\alpha_t|Y_T) = p(\alpha_t|Y_t)\int \frac{p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_T)p_\alpha(\alpha_{t+1}|\alpha_t)}{p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_t)}\mathrm{d}\alpha_{t+1},$$

for $t = T-1, T-2, \cdots, 1$. Given $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ and $p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_t)$, the smoothing algorithm represented by (2.5) is a backward recursion from $p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_T)$ to $p(\alpha_t|Y_T)$.

Let $g(\cdot)$ be a function, e.g., $g(\alpha_t) = \alpha_t$ for mean or $g(\alpha_t) = (\alpha_t - \alpha_{t|s})(\alpha_t - \alpha_{t|s})'$ for variance. Given $p(\alpha_t|Y_s)$, the conditional expectation of $g(\alpha_t)$ given Y_s is represented by:

$$\text{(2.6)}\qquad \mathrm{E}\big(g(\alpha_t)|Y_s\big) = \int g(\alpha_t)p(\alpha_t|Y_s)\mathrm{d}\alpha_t.$$

When we have the unknown parameters in (2.1) and (2.2), the following likelihood function is maximized with respect to the parameters:

$$\text{(2.7)}\qquad p(Y_T) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(y_t|Y_{t-1}) = \prod_{t=1}^{T}\left(\int p(y_t|\alpha_t)p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})\mathrm{d}\alpha_t\right).$$

Since $p(y_t|Y_{t-1})$ in (2.7) corresponds to the denominator in (2.4), we do not need extra computation for evaluation of (2.7). Thus, the unknown parameter is obtained by maximum likelihood estimation (MLE).

Our goal is to estimate the expectation in (2.6), which is evaluated generating random draws of α_t. In the next section, we overview some sampling techniques.

2.2 *Sampling Techniques*

We want to generate random draws from $p(x)$, called the target density, but it is hard to sample from $p(x)$. Suppose that it is easy to generate a random draw from

another density $p_*(x)$, called the sampling density. In this case, random draws of x from $p(x)$ are generated by utilizing the random draws sampled from $p_*(x)$. Let x_i be the i-th random draw of x generated from $p(x)$. Suppose that $q(x)$ is proportional to the ratio of the target density and the sampling density, i.e., $q(x) \propto p(x)/p_*(x)$. Then, the target density is rewritten as: $p(x) \propto q(x)p_*(x)$. Based on $q(x)$, the acceptance probability is obtained. Depending on the structure of the acceptance probability, we have three kinds of sampling techniques, i.e., RS, IR and MH. See Liu (1996) for a comparison of the three sampling methods. Thus, to generate random draws of x from $p(x)$, the functional form of $q(x)$ should be known and random draws have to be easily generated from $p_*(x)$.

2.2.1 *Rejection Sampling (RS)*

Let x^* be a random draw of x generated from $p_*(x)$. Define the acceptance probability as: $\omega(x) = q(x)/\sup_z q(z)$, where the supremum is assumed to be finite. N random draws of x from $p(x)$ are obtained as follows: (i) generate x^* from $p_*(x)$ and compute $\omega(x^*)$, (ii) set $x_i = x^*$ with probability $\omega(x^*)$ and go back to (i) otherwise, and (iii) repeat (i) and (ii) for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, N$.

RS is the most efficient sampling method in the sense of precision of the random draws, because using RS we can generate mutually independently distributed random draws. However, for RS we need to obtain the supremum of $q(x)$. If the supremum is infinite, $\omega(x)$ is zero and accordingly the candidate x^* is never accepted in Steps (i) and (ii). Let N_R be the average number of the rejected random draws. We need $1 + N_R$ random draws in average to generate one random number from $p(x)$. In other words, the acceptance rate is given by $1/(1 + N_R)$ in average. Therefore, to obtain N random draws from $p(x)$, we have to generate $N(1 + N_R)$ random draws from $p_*(x)$. See, for example, Boswell, Gore, Patil and Taillie (1993), O'Hagan (1994) and Geweke (1996) for RS.

To examine the condition that $\omega(x)$ is greater than zero, consider the case where $p(x)$ and $p_*(x)$ are distributed as $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and $N(\mu_*, \sigma_*^2)$, respectively. Then, $\sigma_*^2 > \sigma^2$ can be derived for existence of the supremum, which implies that $p_*(x)$ should be more broadly distributed than $p(x)$.

2.2.2 *Importance Resampling (IR)*

Let x_i^* be the i-th random draw of x generated from $p_*(x)$. The acceptance probability is defined as: $\omega(x_i^*) = q(x_i^*)/\sum_{j=1}^N q(x_j^*)$. To obtain N random draws from $p(x)$, we perform the following procedure: (i) generate x_j^* from $p_*(x)$ and compute $\omega(x_j^*)$ for all $j = 1, 2, \cdots, N$, (ii) take $x_i = x_j^*$ with probability $\omega(x_j^*)$, and (iii) repeat (ii) for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, N$.

In Step (i), all the probability weights $\omega(x_j^*)$, $j = 1, 2, \cdots, N$, have to be computed for IR. In Step (ii), practically we need to generate a uniform random draw between zero and one, denoted by u, and set $x_i = x_j^*$ when $\Omega_{j-1} \leq u < \Omega_j$, where $\Omega_j \equiv \Omega_{j-1} + \omega(x_j^*)$ and $\Omega_0 \equiv 0$. For example, see Smith and Gelfand (1992) for the resampling procedure.

To obtain N random draws from $p(x)$, IR requires just N random draws from $p_*(x)$, but RS needs $N(1 + N_R)$ random draws from $p_*(x)$. For IR, when we have N different random draws from the sampling density, we pick up one of them with the corresponding probability weight. Some of the random draws have the exactly same values for IR, while all the random draws take the different values for RS. Therefore, we can see that IR is inferior to RS in the sense of precision of the random draws.

2.2.3 *Metropolis-Hastings Independence Sampling (MH)*

Let us define the acceptance probability by: $\omega(x_{i-1}, x^*) = \min\big(q(x^*)/q(x_{i-1}), 1\big)$. N random draws of x from $p(x)$ are generated as: (i) take the initial value of x as x_{-M}, (ii) generate x^* from $p_*(x)$ and compute $\omega(x_{i-1}, x^*)$, (iii) set $x_i = x^*$ with probability $\omega(x_{i-1}, x^*)$ and $x_i = x_{i-1}$ otherwise, and (iv) repeat (ii) and (iii) for $i = -M+1, -M+2, \cdots, N$.

As Chib and Greenberg (1995) pointed out, $p_*(x)$ should be chosen so that the chain travels over the support of $p(x)$, which implies that $p_*(x)$ should not have too large variance and too small variance, compared with $p(x)$. For another possible sampling density, we can take $p_*(x^*) = p_*(x^*|x_{i-1})$. Also, see Geweke (1996) for MH.

For MH, x_1 is taken as a random draw of x from $p(x)$ for sufficiently large M. To obtain N random draws, we need to generate $M + N$ random draws. Moreover, clearly we have $\mathrm{Cov}(x_{i-1}, x_i) > 0$, because x_i is generated based on x_{i-1} in Step (iii). Therefore, for precision of the random draws, MH gives us the worst random number of the three sampling methods.

As an alternative random number generation method to avoid the positive correlation, we can perform the case of $N = 1$ in the above procedures (i) – (iv) N times in parallel, taking different initial values for x_{-M}. In this case, we need to generate $M + 1$ random numbers to obtain one random draw from $p(x)$. That is, N random draws from $p(x)$ are based on $N(1+M)$ random draws from $p_*(x)$. Thus, we can obtain mutually independently distributed random draws. For precision of the random draws, the alternative MH should be similar to RS. However, this alternative method is too computer-intensive, compared with the above procedures (i) – (iv), which takes more time than RS in the case of $M > N_R$. In simulation studies of Section 4., we do not utilize this alternative MH.

3. Use of the Sampling Techniques

As discussed in Section 2.2, in order to apply the sampling techniques, the filtering density and the smoothing density have to be written as the form $p(x) \propto q(x)p_*(x)$, where $q(x)$ is the known function and $p_*(x)$ denotes the sampling density.

Let $\alpha_{i,t|s}$ be the i-th random draw of α_t from $p(\alpha_t|Y_s)$. Using the sampling techniques such as RS, IR and MH, in this section we consider generating $\alpha_{i,t|s}$. If the random draws $(\alpha_{1,t|s},\ \alpha_{2,t|s},\ \cdots,\ \alpha_{N,t|s})$ for $s = t, T$ and $t = 1, 2, \cdots, T$ are available, (2.6) is evaluated by $\mathrm{E}\big(g(\alpha_t)|Y_s\big) \approx (1/N)\sum_{i=1}^{N} g(\alpha_{i,t|s})$. Similarly, (2.7) is given by:

$$p(Y_T) \approx \prod_{t=1}^{T}\left(\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} p(y_t|\alpha_{i,t|t-1})\right), \tag{3.1}$$

where $\alpha_{i,t|t-1} = f_t(\alpha_{i,t-1|t-1}, \eta_{i,t})$ and $\eta_{i,t}$ denotes the i-th random draw of η_t.

3.1 *Filtering*

Based on $\alpha_{i,t-1|t-1}$, an attempt is made to generate $\alpha_{i,t|t}$ for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, N$. Depending on whether the initial value α_0 is stochastic or not, $\alpha_{i,0|0}$ for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, N$ are assumed to be generated from $p_\alpha(\alpha_0)$ or to be fixed for all i.

We have two representations on the filtering density (2.4). First, as shown from (2.4), $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ is immediately rewritten as follows:

$$p(\alpha_t|Y_t) \propto q_1(\alpha_t)p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1}), \tag{3.2}$$

where $q_1(\alpha_t)$ is given by: $q_1(\alpha_t) \propto p_y(y_t|\alpha_t)$. In this case, $p_*(x)$ and $q(x)$ in Section 2.2 correspond to $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$ and $q_1(\alpha_t)$, respectively. $q_1(\alpha_t)$ is known because $p_y(y_t|\alpha_t)$ is derived from (2.1), and given $\alpha_{i,t-1|t-1}$ for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, N$ a random draw of α_t from $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$ is easily generated through (2.2). Accordingly, $\alpha_{i,t|t}$ can be generated based on $\alpha_{i,t|t-1}$. Gordon et al. (1993), Kitagawa (1996, 1998) and Kitagawa and Gersch (1996) proposed the IR filter based on (3.2).

When we have a structural change or an outlier at time t, the present sample $p(y_t|\alpha_t)$ is far from $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$. In this case, for IR and MH the random draws of α_t from $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ become unrealistic because the reasonable random draws of α_t cannot be obtained from $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$, and for RS it takes a lot of time computationally because the acceptance probability becomes very small. In addition, when a random draw of η_t is not easily obtained, it might be difficult to generate a random draw of α_t from $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$. As for the second representation of the filtering density, therefore, we explicitly introduce the sampling density of α_t, i.e., $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})$, to obtain more plausible random draws. Substituting (2.3) into (2.4) and eliminating the integration with respect to α_{t-1}, the joint density of α_t and α_{t-1} given Y_t, i.e., $p(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_t)$, is written as:

$$p(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_t) \propto q_2(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}) p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}) p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1}), \tag{3.3}$$

where $q_2(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1})$ is represented by: $q_2(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}) \propto p_y(y_t|\alpha_t) p_\alpha(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}) / p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})$. In (3.3), $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}) p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1})$ is taken as the sampling density. When N random draws of α_{t-1} given Y_{t-1}, i.e., $\alpha_{i,t-1|t-1}$ for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, N$, are available, generating a random draw of α_{t-1} from $p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1})$ is equivalent to choosing one out of the N random draws ($\alpha_{1,t-1|t-1}$, $\alpha_{2,t-1|t-1}$, $\cdots$, $\alpha_{N,t-1|t-1}$) with equal probability weight. Given $\alpha_{i,t-1|t-1}$, a random draw of α_t (say $\alpha^*_{i,t}$) is generated from $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{i,t-1|t-1})$. Thus, since the functional form of $q_2(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1})$ is known and the random draws of (α_t, α_{t-1}) are generated from $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}) p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1})$, the random draws of (α_t, α_{t-1}) from $p(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_t)$ can be obtained through RS, IR or MH. The i-th random draw of (α_t, α_{t-1}) from $p(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_t)$ is denoted by $(\alpha_{i,t|t}, \alpha_{i,t-1|t})$. The random draw which we want is $\alpha_{i,t|t}$, not $\alpha_{i,t-1|t}$. Note that a random draw of α_t from $p(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_t)$ is equivalent to that of α_t from $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$. Furthermore, we point out that the appropriately chosen sampling density might be taken as $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}) = p_*(\alpha_t)$. As discussed above, for RS we need to compute the supremum of q_2 with respect to α_t and α_{t-1}. Sometimes, RS is not feasible if (3.3) is utilized. Therefore, for (3.3), IR or MH is recommended, rather than RS.

3.2 *Smoothing*

Given $\alpha_{i,t+1|T}$, we consider generating $\alpha_{i,t|T}$. The smoothing random draws at time T are equivalent to the filtering random draws at time T, where both are denoted by $\alpha_{i,T|T}$.

Based on (2.5), we have three representations on the smoothing density. By eliminating the integration with respect to α_{t+1} from (2.5), the first and second representations of $p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t|Y_T)$ are as follows:

$$p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t|Y_T) \propto q_3(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t) p(\alpha_t|Y_t) p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_T) \tag{3.4}$$

$$\propto q_4(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t) p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1}) p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_T), \tag{3.5}$$

where q_3 and q_4 are represented by: $q_3(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t) \propto p_\alpha(\alpha_{t+1}|\alpha_t) / p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_t)$ and $q_4(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t) \propto q_1(\alpha_t) q_3(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t) \propto p_y(y_t|\alpha_t) p_\alpha(\alpha_{t+1}|\alpha_t) / p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_t)$. In (3.5), $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ in (3.4) is

replaced by (3.2). For evaluation of $p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_t)$ in $q_3(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t)$ and $q_4(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t)$ in (3.4) and (3.5), from (2.3) we can use the following Monte Carlo integration:

$$p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_t) = \int p_\alpha(\alpha_{t+1}|\alpha_t)p(\alpha_t|Y_t)\mathrm{d}\alpha_t \approx \frac{1}{N'}\sum_{j=1}^{N'} p_\alpha(\alpha_{t+1}|\alpha_{j,t|t}), \tag{3.6}$$

where N' is not necessarily equal to N. To reduce the computational disadvantage, N' should be less than N. For instance, the first N' random draws may be chosen for evaluation of the integration above, because $\alpha_{1,t|t}$, $\alpha_{2,t|t}$, $\cdots$, $\alpha_{N,t|t}$ are in random order. In any case, (3.6) implies that smoothing is N' times as computer-intensive as filtering. Thus, at each time period t, the order of computation is given by $N \times N'$ for smoothing. Remember that the order of computation is N for filtering.

In (3.4), the sampling density is given by $p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_T)p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$. That is, the random draw of α_t is sampled from $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$, while that of α_{t+1} is from $p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_T)$. Similarly, in (3.5), the sampling density is $p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_T)p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$. Thus, (3.4) is different from (3.5) with respect to the sampling density of α_t, i.e., the former is based on $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ while the latter is $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$. From (3.4) or (3.5), we can generate the random draw of (α_{t+1}, α_t) from $p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t|Y_T)$, which is denoted by $(\alpha_{i,t+1|T}, \alpha_{i,t|T})$. The random draw which we need is $\alpha_{i,t|T}$ because we already have $\alpha_{i,t+1|T}$ at this stage. Thus, given $\alpha_{i,t+1|T}$, $\alpha_{i,t|T}$ is generated. Repeating the procedure for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, N$, we can obtain $\alpha_{i,t|T}$ for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, N$ by the backward recursion.

In general, filtering is approximately close to smoothing when t approaches T, because Y_t approaches Y_T as t goes to T. Therefore, in order to obtain the smoothing random draws around T, it might be plausible to take $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ for (3.4) and $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$ for (3.5) as the sampling density of α_t. However, when t goes to the starting point, possibly $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ or $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$ is quite different from $p(\alpha_t|Y_T)$. In the third representation, therefore, another sampling density $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_{t+1})$ is introduced to improve the problem above. Substituting (2.3) into (2.5) and eliminating the two integrations with respect to α_{t+1} and α_{t-1}, the joint density of α_{t+1}, α_t and α_{t-1} given Y_T, i.e., $p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_T)$, is obtained as:

$$\begin{aligned} &p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_T) \\ &\quad \propto q_5(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1})p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1})p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_{t+1})p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_T), \end{aligned} \tag{3.7}$$

where q_5 is given by: $q_5(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}) \propto q_4(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t)p_\alpha(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})/p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_{t+1})$. In (3.7), the sampling density is taken as $p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_T)p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_{t+1})p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1})$. After random draws of α_{t+1} and α_{t-1} are mutually independently generated from $p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_T)$ and $p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1})$, respectively, a random draw of α_t is sampled from another sampling density $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_{t+1})$. Thus, $(\alpha_{i,t+1|T}, \alpha_{i,t|T}, \alpha_{i,t-1|T})$ is generated from (3.7), but the random draw which we want is $\alpha_{i,t|T}$ because $\alpha_{i,t+1|T}$ is already available at this stage and $\alpha_{i,t-1|T}$ can be obtained at the next one. $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_{t+1}) = p_*(\alpha_t)$ is also a possible candidate of the appropriately chosen sampling density.

3.3 *Discussion*

Both (3.2) and (3.3) are related to filtering while (3.4), (3.5) and (3.7) correspond to smoothing. As shown in Sections 3.1 and 3.2, the random draws of α_t are generated from (3.2) – (3.5) and (3.7). The correspondence between Sections 2.2 and 3. is summarized

Table 1. Correspondence between Section 2.2 and Densities (3.2) – (3.5) and (3.7)

	x	$p(x)$	$q(x)$
(3.2)	α_t	$p(\alpha_t \mid Y_t)$	$p_y(y_t \mid \alpha_t)$
(3.3)	(α_t, α_{t-1})	$p(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1} \mid Y_t)$	$\frac{p_y(y_t \mid \alpha_t) p_\alpha(\alpha_t \mid \alpha_{t-1})}{p_*(\alpha_t \mid \alpha_{t-1})}$
(3.4)	(α_{t+1}, α_t)	$p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t \mid Y_T)$	$\frac{p_\alpha(\alpha_{t+1} \mid \alpha_t)}{p(\alpha_{t+1} \mid Y_t)}$
(3.5)	(α_{t+1}, α_t)	$p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t \mid Y_T)$	$\frac{p_y(y_t \mid \alpha_t) p_\alpha(\alpha_{t+1} \mid \alpha_t)}{p(\alpha_{t+1} \mid Y_t)}$
(3.7)	$(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1})$	$p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1} \mid Y_T)$	$\frac{p_y(y_t \mid \alpha_t) p_\alpha(\alpha_t \mid \alpha_{t-1}) p_\alpha(\alpha_{t+1} \mid \alpha_t)}{p_*(\alpha_t \mid \alpha_{t-1}, \alpha_{t+1}) p(\alpha_{t+1} \mid Y_t)}$

Table 2. Order of Computation at Time t

Sampling Method	Filtering (3.2) and (3.3)	Smoothing (3.4), (3.5) and (3.7)
RS	$N(1 + N_R)$	$N(1 + N_R) \times N'$
IR	N	$N \times N'$
MH	$N + M$	$(N + M) \times N'$

in Table 1, where x denotes the random variable, $p(x)$ is the target density and $q(x)$ represents the ratio of the kernel and the sampling density (see Section 2.2).

The IR filter which uses (3.2) has been already proposed by Gordon et al. (1993), Kitagawa (1996, 1998) and Kitagawa and Gersch (1996) and accordingly it is not the new proposal in this paper. However, for comparison with the other estimators, we have discussed the IR filter based on (3.2) in Section 3.1. The filter based on (3.3) and the smoothers with (3.4), (3.5) and (3.7) are proposed in this paper, where the RS filters and smoothers proposed by Tanizaki (1996, 1999), Tanizaki and Mariano (1998) are substantially extended to much less computational estimators.

Under the same number of random draws, it is easily expected that RS gives us the best estimates of the three sampling techniques while MH yields the worst estimates. The features of RS are that we can generate random numbers from any density function when the supremum in the acceptance probability exists and precision of the random draws does not depend on choice of the sampling density (computational time depends on choice of the sampling density). For RS, however, the supremum has to be computed. We sometimes have the case where the supremum is not finite or the case where it is not easy to compute the supremum. Practically, it is difficult to obtain the supremums of q_2, q_3, q_4 and q_5 except for special cases. We cannot implement RS in this case. However, we can expect that there exists the supremum of q_1 in many cases. Therefore, it might be recommended to apply RS to (3.2), rather than (3.3) – (3.5) and (3.7). A rough measure of computing time is shown in Table 2, which represents the order of computation at each time period t. As discussed in Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.3, both N_R and M depend on the functional form of the target and sampling densities.

It might be possible to use different sampling techniques for filtering and smoothing. In other words, possibly we may obtain the RS filter based on (3.2) and the IR smoother based on (3.4). Moreover, for different time period, we may combine (3.2) and (3.3) for filtering and (3.4), (3.5) and (3.7) for smoothing. To show an example, suppose that we have a structural change or an outlier at time period t', which implies that $p(\alpha_{t'}|Y_{t'-1})$ is far from $p(\alpha_{t'}|Y_{t'})$. In this case, if (3.2) is implemented, for IR and MH we cannot obtain the plausible random draws of $\alpha_{t'}$ from $p(\alpha_{t'}|Y_{t'})$ and for RS it extremely takes a lot of computational time to have the random draws of $\alpha_{t'}$ from $p(\alpha_{t'}|Y_{t'})$. Therefore, as shown in (3.3), we can introduce another sampling density $p_*(\alpha_{t'}|\alpha_{t'-1})$ at time t' to avoid this problem. Depending on the situation which we have, we can switch from (3.2) to (3.3) at time t'. By combining different sampling techniques between filtering and smoothing or utilizing different sampling densities at different time periods, it might be expected that the obtained filtering and smoothing solutions give us more precise state estimates.

In addition, it is also useful for filtering to take another sampling density $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})$ when it is not easy to generate a random draw of α_t from $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$. That is, even though the density function of η_t is known, we sometimes have the case where it is difficult to obtain random draws of η_t. In this case, we can easily deal with this problem by utilizing $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})$. Thus, the filtering and smoothing procedures suggested in this paper is very flexible and easy to use in practice.

4. Monte Carlo Studies

4.1 *Simulation Procedure*

In this section, we examine the filters and smoothers suggested in this paper. $T = 100$ and $N = 200, 500, 1000$ are taken. See Appendix B for a discussion on the number of random draws, i.e., N. The simulation procedure is: (i) generating random numbers of ϵ_t and η_t for $t = 1, 2, \cdots, T$, compute a set of data (y_t, α_t) from (2.1) and (2.2), (ii) given the data set, obtain the filtering and smoothing estimates, and (iii) repeat (i) and (ii) G times and compare the root mean square error (RMSE), defined as: RMSE $= (1/T)$ $\sum_{t=1}^{T}$ $\text{MSE}_{t|s}^{1/2}$ for $s = t, T$, where $\text{MSE}_{t|s} = (1/G)$ $\sum_{g=1}^{G}$ $(\overline{\alpha}_{t|s}^{(g)} - \alpha_t^{(g)})^2$ and $\overline{\alpha}_{t|s}$ takes the estimated state mean while α_t denotes the artificially simulated state value in (i). The superscript (g) denotes the g-th simulation run and $G = 1000$ is taken. Simulations I – V are univariate cases while Simulation VI is a multivariate case. In Simulations I – III and V, ϵ_t, η_t and α_0 are assumed to be mutually independently distributed as: $\epsilon_t \sim N(0, 1)$, $\eta_t \sim N(0, 1)$ and $\alpha_0 \sim N(0, 1)$. The true parameter value is set to be $\delta = 0.5, 0.9, 1.0$ in Simulation I, $\delta = 0.5, 0.9$ in Simulations II and III and $\delta = 0.9, 1.0$ in Simulation V.

Simulation I (Linear and Normal Model): Consider the univariate system: $y_t = \alpha_t + \epsilon_t$ and $\alpha_t = \delta\alpha_{t-1} + \eta_t$.

Simulation II (ARCH Model): The model is given by: $y_t = \alpha_t + \epsilon_t$ and $\alpha_t = (\delta_0 + \delta\alpha_{t-1}^2)^{1/2}\eta_t$ for $\delta_0 > 0$, $0 \leq \delta < 1$ and $\delta_0 = 1 - \delta$ are taken, where y_t consists of the ARCH(1) process α_t and the error term ϵ_t. See Engle (1982) and Bollerslev et al. (1994) for the ARCH model.

Simulation III (Stochastic Volatility Model): Take the state space model: $y_t = \exp(0.5\alpha_t)\epsilon_t$ and $\alpha_t = \delta\alpha_{t-1} + \eta_t$ for $0 \leq \delta < 1$. See Ghysels et al. (1996) for the stochastic volatility model.

Simulation IV (Nonstationary Growth Model): The system is: $y_t = \alpha_t^2/20 + \epsilon_t$

and $\alpha_t = \alpha_{t-1}/2 + 25\alpha_{t-1}/(1+\alpha_{t-1}^2) + 8\cos(1.2(t-1)) + \eta_t$, where ϵ_t, η_t and α_0 are mutually independently distributed as: $\epsilon_t \sim N(0,1)$, $\eta_t \sim N(0,10)$ and $\alpha_0 \sim N(0,10)$. This model is examined in Kitagawa (1987, 1996, 1998) and Carlin et al. (1992), where the Gibbs sampler suggested by Carlin et al. (1992) does not work at all (see, for example, Tanizaki (2001)).

Simulation V (Structural Change): The data generating process is given by: $y_t = \alpha_t + \epsilon_t$ and $\alpha_t = d_t + \delta\alpha_{t-1} + \eta_t$, but the estimated system is: $y_t = \alpha_t + \epsilon_t$ and $\alpha_t = \delta\alpha_{t-1} + \eta_t$, where $d_t = 1$ for $t = 21, 22, \cdots, 40$, $d_t = -1$ for $t = 61, 62, \cdots, 80$ and $d_t = 0$ otherwise. This model corresponds to the case where the sudden shifts occur at time periods 21, 41, 61 and 81.

Simulation VI (Bivariate Non-Gaussian Model): We consider the following bivariate state space model: $y_t = \alpha_{1t}x_t + \alpha_{2t} + \epsilon_t$ and $\alpha_t = \alpha_{t-1} + \eta_t$, where $\alpha_t = (\alpha_{1t}, \alpha_{2t})'$ and $\eta_t = (\eta_{1t}, \eta_{2t})'$. Each density is assumed to be: $\epsilon_t \sim$ Logistic (i.e., the logistic cumulative distribution function is given by: $F(x) = (\exp(-x)+1)^{-1}$), $\eta_{1t} \sim N(0,1)$, $\eta_{2t} \sim t(3)$, and $x_t \sim U(0,1)$. For the initial value $\alpha_0 = (\alpha_{10}, \alpha_{20})'$, $\alpha_{10} \sim N(0,1)$ and $\alpha_{20} \sim t(3)$ are taken. ϵ_t, η_{1t}, η_{2t}, x_t, α_{10} and α_{20} are assumed to be mutually independent.

4.2 *Results and Discussion*

The results are in Tables 3 – 7, where δ in Simulations I – III and V is assumed to be known. Except for Table 4, the values in each table represent the RMSEs defined above. The small RMSE indicates a good estimator, because RMSE represents a measure of precision of the state estimates. RMSE decreases as the number of random draws (i.e., N) increases, because the simulation errors disappear as N goes to infinity. For all the tables, F and S denote filtering and smoothing, respectively.

In Table 3, F(3.2) indicates the filter based on (3.2), while S(3.4)+F(3.2) represents the smoother based on (3.4) after performing F(3.2). As shown in Table 3, the filtering estimates are more volatile than the smoothing estimates, because smoothing uses more information than filtering. Moreover, as it is expected, RS shows the smallest RMSE in almost all the cases. Taking an example of $\delta = 0.9$ in Simulation I, $N = 200$ of RS is equal to $N = 1000$ of MH, which implies that MH needs 5 times more random draws than RS to keep the same precision, or equivalently the acceptance rate of RS is about 20% in average (this is a rough interpretation because RMSE is not a linear function of N). The acceptance rates of RS are shown in Table 4, which is discussed later. For $\delta = 0.9$ of Simulation I, $N = 500$ of RS is almost equal to $N = 1000$ of IR, which implies that IR needs twice as many random draws as RS. Taking Simulation IV, $N = 200$ of RS is better than $N = 1000$ of IR. IR needs more than 5 times as many random draws as RS. Simulation VI represents a multivariate non-Gaussian case, where RS in S(3.4)+F(3.2) represents IR S(3.4) based on RS F(3.2) because it is not easy to compute the supremum of $q_3(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t)$. The RMSEs are shown for both α_{1t} and α_{2t} in Simulation VI of Table 3. For both filtering and smoothing, RMSEs of RS are the smallest.

In Table 4, for RS, N_R is computed in the case of Simulations I – V and $N = 1000$ in Table 3, where RS F(3.2) and RS S(3.4) are examined. Table 4 indicates that the rejection rates in RS are quite different, depending on the underlying state space model and the parameter δ. In addition, it might be expected that the rejection rates are different for each time period t, because the observed data y_t takes a different value for each t. Remember that in the case of RS F(3.2) the acceptance probability is given by

Table 3. F(3.2) and S(3.4)+F(3.2)

Simu-			F(3.2)			S(3.4)+F(3.2)		
lation	δ	N	RS	IR	MH	RS	IR	MH
		200	0.7305	0.7328	0.7368	0.7088	0.7101	0.7170
	0.5	500	0.7293	0.7301	0.7316	0.7065	0.7069	0.7096
		1000	0.7289	0.7293	0.7301	0.7058	0.7060	0.7077
		200	0.7747	0.7782	0.7840	0.6880	0.6915	0.7017
I	0.9	500	0.7733	0.7743	0.7768	0.6851	0.6867	0.6912
		1000	0.7729	0.7735	0.7747	0.6844	0.6851	0.6874
		200	0.7881	0.7910	0.7972	0.6769	0.6806	0.6911
	1.0	500	0.7865	0.7875	0.7908	0.6738	0.6751	0.6809
		1000	0.7861	0.7867	0.7876	0.6730	0.6743	0.6764
		200	0.6894	0.6944	0.6999	0.6815	0.6861	0.6941
	0.5	500	0.6882	0.6907	0.6930	0.6794	0.6815	0.6852
II		1000	0.6877	0.6889	0.6901	0.6783	0.6795	0.6811
		200	0.5346	0.5475	0.5505	0.5168	0.5338	0.5382
	0.9	500	0.5325	0.5389	0.5399	0.5140	0.5223	0.5239
		1000	0.5322	0.5347	0.5376	0.5135	0.5170	0.5202
		200	0.9348	0.9360	0.9396	0.9063	0.9084	0.9149
	0.5	500	0.9332	0.9339	0.9347	0.9031	0.9036	0.9068
III		1000	0.9327	0.9329	0.9338	0.9022	0.9024	0.9035
		200	1.1087	1.1105	1.1188	0.9295	0.9419	0.9547
	0.9	500	1.1064	1.1067	1.1110	0.9249	0.9319	0.9370
		1000	1.1054	1.1054	1.1076	0.9233	0.9277	0.9299
		200	4.6446	4.8462	5.0560	4.2119	4.3384	4.4870
IV		500	4.6388	4.7316	4.8166	4.2101	4.3040	4.2727
		1000	4.6377	4.6787	4.7358	4.2101	4.3179	4.2453
		200	0.8683	0.8841	0.8922	0.6998	0.7214	0.7366
V	0.9	500	0.8667	0.8735	0.8775	0.6961	0.7047	0.7140
		1000	0.8662	0.8699	0.8719	0.6951	0.7000	0.7051
		200	0.8763	0.8961	0.9069	0.6868	0.7121	0.7286
	1.0	500	0.8745	0.8827	0.8876	0.6833	0.6936	0.7027
		1000	0.8739	0.8789	0.8820	0.6815	0.6881	0.6932
		200	2.8347	2.9340	3.1353	2.2318	2.5645	2.6803
	α_{1t}	500	2.7993	2.8585	2.9570	2.1540	2.4692	2.3945
VI		1000	2.7880	2.8303	2.8888	2.1083	2.4009	2.2837
		200	1.9553	2.1047	2.2035	1.5639	1.8401	1.9011
	α_{2t}	500	1.9290	2.0229	2.0812	1.5209	1.7340	1.7167
		1000	1.9220	1.9893	2.0227	1.5004	1.6869	1.6333

Table 4. Average Number of Rejections (i.e., N_R) in RS F(3.2) and RS S(3.4): $N = 1000$

Simulation	δ	F(3.2)	S(3.4)	Simulation	δ	F(3.2)	S(3.4)
	0.5	3.97	2.69	III	0.5	5.76	2.82
I	0.9	4.25	3.15		0.9	6.07	3.76
	1.0	4.36	3.31	IV		12.87	95.47
II	0.5	4.64	0.71	V	0.9	13.11	16.01
	0.9	4.98	1.14		1.0	13.55	18.99

- S(3.4) is based on F(3.2).
- The acceptance rate is given by $1/(1 + N_R)$ in average.

Table 5. F(3.3) and S(3.4)+F(3.3)

Simulation	δ	N	F(3.3) IR	F(3.3) MH	S(3.4) IR	S(3.4) MH
		200	0.7770	0.7829	0.6898	0.7023
	0.9	500	0.7743	0.7766	0.6867	0.6910
I		1000	0.7731	0.7747	0.6848	0.6873
		200	0.7907	0.7977	0.6795	0.6932
	1.0	500	0.7879	0.7904	0.6756	0.6809
		1000	0.7866	0.7880	0.6738	0.6766
		200	0.5476	0.5521	0.5323	0.5387
II	0.9	500	0.5431	0.5457	0.5259	0.5298
		1000	0.5407	0.5414	0.5226	0.5234
		200	1.1246	1.1587	0.9576	1.0013
III	0.9	500	1.1123	1.1280	0.9384	0.9599
		1000	1.1086	1.1165	0.9320	0.9411
		200	0.8706	0.8790	0.7039	0.7186
	0.9	500	0.8675	0.8709	0.6977	0.7044
V		1000	0.8665	0.8684	0.6956	0.7000
		200	0.8798	0.8900	0.6930	0.7087
	1.0	500	0.8760	0.8804	0.6864	0.6938
		1000	0.8745	0.8765	0.6834	0.6874

- S(3.4) is based on F(3.3).
- For F(3.3), we take $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}) = N(\alpha^*_{t|t}, c\Sigma^*_{t|t})$ and $c = 9$ in Simulations I – III and $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}) = N(d_t + \delta\alpha_{t-1}, 1)$ in Simulation V.

Table 6. IR S(3.4) Based on RS F(3.2): $N = 1000$

Simulation	δ	S(3.4) IR	Simulation	δ	S(3.4) IR
	0.5	0.7054	II	0.5	0.6780
I	0.9	0.6843		0.9	0.5134
	1.0	0.6732	III	0.5	0.9020
				0.9	0.9247

Table 7. IR S(3.4) Based on IR F(3.2): $N = 1000$

Simulation	$\delta \setminus N'$	1000	250	100	50	10
	0.5	0.7060	0.7059	0.7059	0.7059	0.7060
I	0.9	0.6851	0.6851	0.6853	0.6854	0.6869
	1.0	0.6743	0.6744	0.6745	0.6748	0.6764
II	0.5	0.6795	0.6795	0.6796	0.6798	0.6813
	0.9	0.5170	0.5173	0.5177	0.5198	0.5517
III	0.5	0.9024	0.9025	0.9027	0.9028	0.9045
	0.9	0.9277	0.9305	0.9326	0.9393	0.9846
IV		4.3179	4.3392	4.4116	4.5086	4.9619

Table 8. Estimation of δ Using IR F(3.2): $N = 1000$

Simulation	Estimation of δ								RMSE
	δ	AVE	SER	10%	25%	50%	75%	90%	of α_t
	0.5	0.481	0.129	0.30	0.41	0.50	0.57	0.63	0.7302
I	0.9	0.881	0.059	0.80	0.85	0.89	0.92	0.94	0.7715
	1.0	0.983	0.033	0.94	0.97	0.99	1.00	1.01	0.7839
II	0.5	0.313	0.202	0.00	0.16	0.32	0.45	0.58	0.6921
	0.9	0.670	0.201	0.44	0.54	0.67	0.81	0.98	0.5575
III	0.5	0.503	0.022	0.49	0.50	0.50	0.51	0.52	0.9326
	0.9	0.902	0.019	0.88	0.89	0.90	0.91	0.92	1.1027

$\omega(\alpha_t) = p_y(y_t|\alpha_t)/\sup_z p_y(y_t|z)$, which depends on the observed data y_t.

In Table 5, $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})$ is explicitly introduced for filtering, but not for smoothing, where $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1})$ is used for the sampling density (remember that $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$ is utilized for the sampling density in Table 3). For F(3.3) in Simulations I – III, $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}) = N(\alpha^*_{t|t}, c\Sigma^*_{t|t})$ and $c = 9$ are taken, where $(\alpha^*_{t|t},\ \Sigma^*_{t|t})$ denotes the mean and variance estimated by the extended Kalman filter, which is obtained by applying the linearized nonlinear measurement and transition equations directly to the standard Kalman filter formula (see, for example, Tanizaki (1996) and Tanizaki and Mariano (1996)). For F(3.3) in Simulation V, $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}) = N(d_t + \delta\alpha_{t-1}, 1)$ is chosen taking into account the sudden shifts. Note that F(3.2) of Simulation V in Table 3 does not include any information on the sudden shifts d_t in the sampling density, where $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1}) = N(\delta\alpha_{t-1}, 1)$ is taken. Thus, the sampling density is explicitly introduced in Table 5. Since it is generally difficult to compute the supremum of q_2, RS is not shown in Table 5. We can compare F(3.2) in Table 3 with F(3.3) in Table 5 for filtering, and S(3.4)+F(3.2) in Table 3 with S(3.4)+F(3.3) in Table 5 for smoothing. For Simulation I, the RMSEs in Table 5 are very close to those in Table 3. For almost all the cases of Simulations II and III, however, the RMSEs in Table 3 are slightly smaller than those in Table 5. For Simulation V, we consider the case where the data generating process is different from the estimated state space model, which is common in practice. For the sampling density, we take into account the sudden shifts in F(3.3) of Table 5, but not in F(3.2) of Table 3. The sampling density in F(3.3) of Table 5 corresponds to the case where we perfectly know the shifts, while that in F(3.2) of Table 3 is the case where we ignore the shifts even though clearly we can observe some shifts from the data y_t. Both cases might be unrealistic. However, for a comparison between the two cases, Simulation V is taken in Tables 3 and 5. As it is expected, IR and MH in Table 5 are smaller than those in Table 3. Therefore, we can conclude that much improvement in the state estimates might be expected when the plausible sampling density $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})$ is chosen. Two types of the sampling density $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})$ are shown in Table 5, although we can consider the other kinds of the sampling density.

In Table 6, S(3.4)+F(3.2) is investigated, where we utilize RS for filtering and IR for smoothing. Therefore, Table 6 should be compared with RS or IR in S(3.4)+F(3.2) of Table 3. The RMSEs in Table 6 should be between RS and IR in S(3.4)+F(3.2) of Table 3, since the most precise sampling method is used for filtering but the second best one is utilized for smoothing. From Tables 3 and 6, we obtain the result that the RMSEs in Table 6 are very close to those of RS in Table 3. It is sometimes difficult for the RS smoothers to compute the supremums based on (3.4), (3.5) and (3.7). In addition, RS takes a lot of time computationally although it is a very efficient random number generation method. The IR smoothers can be applied to almost all the nonlinear non-Gaussian state space models, which are much less computational than RS. Therefore, a combination of RS F(3.2) and the IR smoother might be a useful tool, judging from computation and efficiency.

In Table 7, we investigate how sensitive the approximation of $p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_t)$ in (3.6) is, where $N' = 10, 50, 100, 250, 1000$ and $N = 1000$ are taken. IR is used for the sampling method. $N' = 1000$ in Table 7 is equivalent to $N = 1000$ of IR in Table 3. We have the result that $N' = 1000$ is very close to $N' = 100, 250$ in the RMSE criterion. Since the order of computation is $N \times N'$ for smoothing, we can reduce the computational burden by utilizing N' less than N, where we may take $N' = 0.1N$ – $0.25N$ from Table 7.

In Table 8, we show an example to estimate the unknown parameter maximizing the likelihood function (3.1), where IR is used for the sampling method. (3.1) is maximized by a simple grid search. AVE, SER, 10%, 25%, 50%, 75% and 90% denote the arithmetic average, the standard error, 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentiles from G estimates of δ, where $G = 1000$.For Simulations I and III, MLE shows a good performance because AVE and 50% are close to δ. However, for Simulation II, δ is underestimated and SER is large. Based on the estimated δ, furthermore, RMSEs of α_t from IR F(3.2) are shown in Table 8, which should be compared with the RMSEs of IR F(3.2) and $N = 1000$ in Table 3. We have the result that IR F(3.2) and $N = 1000$ in Table 3 is very close to Table 8 in the RMSE criterion.

5. Summary

In this paper, we have proposed the nonlinear non-Gaussian filters and smoothers based on the joint densities of the state variables, i.e., $p(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_t)$ for filtering and $p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t|Y_T)$ or $p(\alpha_{t+1}, \alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_T)$ for smoothing, where the sampling techniques such as RS, IR and MH are applied to generate random draws of α_t given Y_s.

It might be expected that RS gives us the most precise state estimates and that MH yields the worst of the three sampling techniques, which results are consistent with the simulation results from the Monte Carlo studies. For RS, however, we need to compute the supremum in the acceptance probability. Especially, as for (3.3) – (3.5) and (3.7), we often have the case where the supremum does not exist or the case where it is difficult to compute the supremum. Therefore, for (3.3) – (3.5) and (3.7), it is better to utilize IR, rather than RS and MH. Moreover, even though the supremum exists, it takes a lot of time computationally to obtain the random draws of the state variable α_t when the acceptance probability is close to zero. Both MH and IR can be applied to almost all the nonlinear non-Gaussian cases, which is one of the advantages over RS. Moreover, computational burden of IR and MH does not depend on the acceptance probability. Accordingly, in the case of IR and MH, (3.2) is computationally equivalent to (3.3) for filtering and similarly (3.4), (3.5) and (3.7) give us the same computational burden for smoothing.

It is possible to take different sampling methods between filtering and smoothing, i.e., for example, RS may be taken for filtering while IR is used for smoothing. Or at different time periods we can adopt different sampling densities. That is, taking an example of filtering, the sampling density is taken as $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1})$ if $t = t'$ and $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$ otherwise. It might be useful to introduce $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})$ when $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ is far from $p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$. Thus, the filters and smoothers discussed in this paper are very flexible.

An attempt has been made to reduce computational burden for smoothing. Smoothing is N' times more computer-intensive than filtering, because at each time period the order of computation is N for filtering and $N \times N'$ for smoothing. In (3.6), we do not necessarily choose $N' = N$. To reduce the computational disadvantage for smoothing, from the Monte Carlo studies (i.e., Table 7) we have obtained the result that we may take $N' = 0.1N$ – $0.25N$.

Finally, for comparison with the procedure suggested in this paper, the smoother based on the two-filter formula, which is developed by Kitagawa (1996), is discussed in Appendix A. We have shown that using the sampling density the smoother is also rewritten in the same fashion. For Simulations I – III, the simulations studies are examined.

As a result, it is shown that the smoother based on the two-filter formula shows a good performance.

Appendix A: Fixed-Interval Smoother based on the Two-Filter Formula

Kitagawa (1996) suggested the Monte Carlo smoother based on the two-filter formula. In this appendix, we show that the same approach used in this paper can be applied. Define $Y_t^+ \equiv \{y_t, y_{t+1}, \cdots, y_T\}$, where we have $Y_T = Y_{t-1} \cup Y_t^+$. The fixed-interval smoothing density $p(\alpha_t|Y_T)$ is represented as:

$$p(\alpha_t|Y_T) \propto p(Y_t^+|\alpha_t)p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1}), \tag{A.1}$$

where $p(Y_t^+|\alpha_t)$ is recursively obtained as follows:

$$p(Y_t^+|\alpha_t) = p_y(y_t|\alpha_t) \int p(Y_{t+1}^+|\alpha_{t+1})p_\alpha(\alpha_{t+1}|\alpha_t)\mathrm{d}\alpha_{t+1}, \tag{A.2}$$

for $t = T-1, T-2, \cdots, 1$. The initial condition is given by: $p(Y_T^+|\alpha_T) = p_y(y_T|\alpha_T)$.

First, we consider evaluating $p(Y_t^+|\alpha_t)$ in the backward recursion. Let $p_*(\alpha_t)$ be the sampling density and $\alpha_{i,t}^*$ be the i-th random draw of α_t generated from $p_*(\alpha_t)$. From (A.2), the density $p(Y_t^+|\alpha_t)$ evaluated at $\alpha_t = \alpha_{i,t}^*$ is rewritten as:

$$\begin{aligned} p(Y_t^+|\alpha_{i,t}^*) &= p_y(y_t|\alpha_{i,t}^*) \int \frac{p(Y_{t+1}^+|\alpha_{t+1})p_\alpha(\alpha_{t+1}|\alpha_{i,t}^*)}{p_*(\alpha_{t+1})} p_*(\alpha_{t+1})\mathrm{d}\alpha_{t+1} \\ &\approx p_y(y_t|\alpha_{i,t}^*) \frac{1}{N''} \sum_{j=1}^{N''} \frac{p(Y_{t+1}^+|\alpha_{j,t+1}^*)p_\alpha(\alpha_{j,t+1}^*|\alpha_{i,t}^*)}{p_*(\alpha_{j,t+1}^*)}, \end{aligned} \tag{A.3}$$

for $t = T-1, T-2, \cdots, 1$. In the second line of the above equation, the integration is evaluated by $\alpha_{j,t+1}^*$, $j = 1, 2, \cdots, N''$, where N'' is not necessarily equal to N. Thus, $p(Y_t^+|\alpha_{i,t}^*)$ is recursively obtained for $t = T-1, T-2, \cdots, 1$. Note that the sampling density $p_*(\alpha_t)$ may depend on the state variable at time $t-1$, i.e., $p_*(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})$.

Next, given $p(Y_t^+|\alpha_{i,t}^*)$, we generate random draws of α_t from $p(\alpha_t|Y_T)$. We can rewrite (A.1) as follows:

$$p(\alpha_t|Y_T) \propto q_6(\alpha_t)p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1}), \tag{A.4}$$

where $q_6(\alpha_t) \propto p(Y_t^+|\alpha_t)$. In this case, we have to take the sampling density as $p_*(\alpha_t) = p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$, i.e., $\alpha_{i,t}^* = \alpha_{i,t|t-1}$. Moreover, we need to compute $p_*(\alpha_{t+1}^*) = p(\alpha_{t+1}|Y_t)$ evaluated at $\alpha_{t+1}^* = \alpha_{j,t+1|t}$ in the denominator of (A.3). As shown in (3.6), evaluation of $p(\alpha_{j,t+1|t}|Y_t)$ becomes N' times more computer-intensive. Therefore, it is not realistic to take the sampling density as $p_*(\alpha_t) = p(\alpha_t|Y_{t-1})$.

Alternatively, as discussed in Section 3., we consider generating random draws from the joint density of α_t and α_{t-1} given Y_T. Substituting (2.3) into (A.1) and eliminating the integration with respect to α_{t-1}, (A.1) is rewritten as:

$$p(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}|Y_T) \propto q_7(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1})p_*(\alpha_t)p(\alpha_{t-1}|Y_{t-1}), \tag{A.5}$$

where $q_7(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1}) \propto p(Y_t^+|\alpha_t)p_\alpha(\alpha_t|\alpha_{t-1})/p_*(\alpha_t)$.

As shown in (A.3), we can evaluate $p(Y_t^+|\alpha_t)$ at $\alpha_t = \alpha_{i,t}^*$, but it is hard and time-consuming to obtain the supremum of $p(Y_t^+|\alpha_t)$ because the summation is included in

Table 9. IR S(A.5) Based on IR F(3.2)

Simulation	δ	N	S(A.5) IR	Simulation	δ	N	S(A.5) IR
		200	0.7073			200	0.6805
	0.5	500	0.7059		0.5	500	0.6787
		1000	0.7055	II		1000	0.6781
		200	0.6876			200	0.5190
I	0.9	500	0.6852		0.9	500	0.5160
		1000	0.6843			1000	0.5137
		200	0.6765			200	0.9061
	1.0	500	0.6740		0.5	500	0.9033
		1000	0.6734	III		1000	0.9020
						200	0.9420
					0.9	500	0.9331
						1000	0.9284

• $p_*(\alpha_t) = N(\alpha_{t|t}, 1)$ is taken, where $\alpha_{t|t}$ is obtained from IR F(3.2).

(A.3). Accordingly it is not possible to compute the supremum of $q_6(\alpha_t)$ and $q_7(\alpha_t, \alpha_{t-1})$. Therefore, it is difficult to apply RS to this smoother. We may apply IR and MH to the Monte Carlo smoother based on the two-filter formula.

Taking an example of the IR smoother based on (A.5), a random number of α_t from $p(\alpha_t|Y_T)$ is generated as follows. Define the probability weight $\omega(\alpha^*_{i,t},\ \alpha_{i,t-1|t-1})$ which satisfies $\omega(\alpha^*_{i,t},\ \alpha_{i,t-1|t-1}) \propto q_7(\alpha^*_{i,t},\ \alpha_{i,t-1|t-1})$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega(\alpha^*_{i,t}, \alpha_{i,t-1|t-1}) = 1$. From (A.1), the j-th smoothing random draw $\alpha_{j,t|T}$ is resampled from $\alpha^*_{1,t},\ \alpha^*_{2,t},\ \cdots,\ \alpha^*_{N,t}$ with the corresponding probability weights $\omega(\alpha^*_{1,t}, \alpha_{1,t-1|t-1}),\ \omega(\alpha^*_{2,t}, \alpha_{2,t-1|t-1}),\ \cdots,\ \omega(\alpha^*_{N,t}, \alpha_{N,t-1|t-1})$. Computing time of the IR smoother based on (A.5) is the order of $N \times N''$, while that of the IR smoother with (A.4) is $N \times N' \times N''$. Thus, for reduction of computational burden, use of (A.5) is superior to that of (A.4).

One of the computational techniques is shown as follows. The dimension of Y_t^+ increases as t is small, which implies that $p(Y_t^+|\alpha^*_{i,t})$ decreases as t goes to the initial time period. Therefore, practically we have some computational difficulties such as underflow errors. To avoid the computational difficulties, we can modify (A.3) as: $s_t(\alpha^*_{i,t}) \propto p_y(y_t|\alpha^*_{i,t}) \sum_{j=1}^{N''} s_{t+1}(\alpha^*_{j,t+1}) p_\alpha(\alpha^*_{j,t+1}|\alpha^*_{i,t}) / p_*(\alpha^*_{j,t+1})$, where $s_t(\alpha^*_{i,t}) \propto p(Y_t^+|\alpha^*_{i,t})$. For instance, $s_t(\alpha_t)$ may be restricted to $\sum_{i=1}^{N} s_t(\alpha^*_{i,t}) = 1$ for all t. Note that the proportional relation $q_7(\alpha^*_{i,t}, \alpha_{i,t-1|t-1}) \propto s_t(\alpha^*_{i,t}) p_\alpha(\alpha^*_{i,t}|\alpha_{i,t-1|t-1}) / p_*(\alpha^*_{i,t})$ still holds.

Thus, the fixed-interval smoother based on the two-filter formula, proposed by Kitagawa (1996), can be also discussed in the same context. In Table 9, the smoother based on the two-filter formula is examined for Simulations I – III. $p_*(\alpha_t) = N(\alpha_{t|t}, 1)$ is chosen, where $\alpha_{t|t}$ represents the filtering estimate obtained from IR F(3.2). After implementing IR F(3.2), we perform IR S(A.5). Each value in Table 9 should be compared with that in IR S(3.4) of Table 3. As a result, IR S(A.5) performs better than IR S(3.4) in almost all the cases. Thus, it is shown that the smoother based on the two-filter formula shows a good performance.

Table 10. F(3.2) and S(3.4)+F(3.2): $N = 2000$

Simu-		F(3.2)			S(3.4)+F(3.2)		
lation	δ	RS	IR	MH	RS	IR	MH
	0.5	0.7287	0.7289	0.7294	0.7053	0.7054	0.7063
I	0.9	0.7724	0.7728	0.7737	0.6838	0.6842	0.6854
	1.0	0.7858	0.7862	0.7868	0.6725	0.6731	0.6743

Appendix B: A Comment on the Number of Random Draws

In Section 4., $N = 200, 500, 1000$ is examined. $N = 200, 500$ is taken for comparison with $N = 1000$. Some people think that $N = 1000$ is too small. Taking an example of Simulation I, we check whether $N = 1000$ is too small or not. The cases of $N = 2000$ are examined in Table 10, which should be compared with the cases of Simulation I and $N = 200, 500, 1000$ in Table 3. For RS and IR, the RMSEs of $N = 1000$ are quite close to those of $N = 2000$, which implies that $N = 1000$ is sufficient. Since RMSE is the point estimate which shows a measure of precision of the state estimates, we can conclude that $N = 1000$ is not too small. However, we should keep in mind that $N = 1000$ might be too small in the case where we want to obtain a functional form of $p(\alpha_t|Y_t)$ or $p(\alpha_t|Y_T)$ by the random numbers.

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