

Spectral approaches to speed up Bayesian inference for large stationary time series data

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What this talk is about

- Spectral approaches to speed up computations and their application in subsampling algorithms.
- **Co-authors** (alphabetical order):
 - Robert Kohn (University of New South Wales).
 - Robert Salomone (Queensland University of Technology).
 - Minh-Ngoc Tran (University of Sydney).
 - Mattias Villani (Stockholm University).
- Applied to our previous work on subsampling MCMC.
 - Main paper: (Quiroz et al., 2019, JASA).
 - Textbook like review of our work (prior to the spectral approaches): (Quiroz et al., 2018b, Sankhya A).
- ► The main points of this talk:
 - 1. Spectral approaches for univariate time series and their implied independence that facilitate subsampling.
 - 2. Extend the approaches to multivariate time series.
- Slides on www.matiasquiroz.com/news.

Motivation for subsampling MCMC

- Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) Bayesian workhorse for 3 decades.
- This talk focuses on subsampling for Metropolis-Hastings (MH). See Dang et al. (2019) for Hamiltonian Monte Carlo, Gunawan et al. (2020) for sequential Monte Carlo and Quiroz et al. (2018a) for delayed acceptance MCMC.
- Metropolis-Hastings is often slow
 - Need to evaluate the likelihood function in each iteration.
 - Many iterations (sampling algorithm).
 - In time series models, the likelihood evaluation may be computationally expensive for large time series data.
- Subsampling MCMC: estimate the likelihood from a subsample in each MCMC iteration. Faster!

The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- Bayesians carry out inference based on $p(\theta|\mathbf{y}) \propto p(\mathbf{y}|\theta)p(\theta)$.
- A general approach to generate posterior samples is to construct a Markov chain {θ^(j)}^N_{i=1} that has p(θ|y) invariant distribution as N → ∞.
- The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm achieves this as follows.

1. Start at
$$heta_c = heta^{(0)}$$
 and set $j = 1$.

Repeat step 2. to 3. N times.

2. Propose θ_p from a proposal (based on θ_c). Accept $\theta^{(j)} = \theta_p$ with probability

$$\alpha = \min\left(1, \frac{p\left(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{p}\right)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{p})}{p\left(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j-1)}\right)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j-1)})}\right) \text{ (symmetric proposal), else set } \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_{c}.$$

3. Set j = j + 1.

Some challenges:

- Likelihood $p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} p(y_k|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is expensive for large dim $(\mathbf{y}) = n$.
- For time series, $p(y|\theta)$ is expensive even for moderately large *n*.

Key idea: The Pseudo-Marginal MH (PMMH) algorithm

- Can we speed up likelihood evaluations? (i.) Data subsampling. (ii.) The Whittle likelihood (time series).
- **•** Data subsampling: Estimate $p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ with $\hat{p}(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{u})$.
- **u** are **auxiliary variables**, serve the purpose of estimating $p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$.
- Metropolis-Hastings with an estimated likelihood? Pseudo marginal!
- Samples from $\pi(\theta, \boldsymbol{u}|\boldsymbol{y}) \propto \widehat{\boldsymbol{p}}(\boldsymbol{y}|\theta, \boldsymbol{u}) p(\theta) p(\boldsymbol{u}) [p(\theta|\boldsymbol{y}) \propto p(\boldsymbol{y}|\theta) p(\theta)].$

Proposes θ , u and accepts/rejects them jointly. Like previous slide but with

$$\alpha = \min\left(1, \frac{\widehat{\rho}(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{p}, \boldsymbol{u}_{p}) \, \rho(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{p})}{\widehat{\rho}\left(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j-1)}, \boldsymbol{u}^{(j-1)}\right) \, \rho(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j-1)})}\right)$$

Targets $\pi(\theta, \boldsymbol{u}|\boldsymbol{y})$ with marginal $p(\theta|\boldsymbol{y})$ if $\int \hat{p}(\boldsymbol{y}|\theta, \boldsymbol{u})p(\boldsymbol{u})d\boldsymbol{u} = p(\boldsymbol{y}|\theta)$ (Beaumont, 2003; Andrieu and Roberts, 2009).

True for any positive unbiased estimator, but large variance is inefficient.

PMMH with dependent subsamples

- ► $V(\log \hat{p}(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{u})) \approx 1$ is optimal (Pitt et al., 2012; Doucet et al., 2015).
- What really matters for PMMH is the variance of

$$\log \frac{\widehat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\boldsymbol{\rho}}, \boldsymbol{u}_{\boldsymbol{\rho}})}{\widehat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}\left(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i-1)}, \boldsymbol{u}^{(i-1)}\right)} = \left[\log \widehat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}_{\text{prop}} - \log \widehat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}_{\text{curr}}\right].$$

- Correlated pseudo marginal (Deligiannidis et al., 2018): Correlate the us over Metropolis-Hastings iterations using an autoregressive proposal u⁽ⁱ⁾ = φu⁽ⁱ⁻¹⁾ + ε.
- **Block pseudo marginal** (Tran et al., 2016): Partition \boldsymbol{u} into λ blocks and update only K of them jointly with $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ in each iteration.
- Can show that (under certain assumptions)

$$\operatorname{Corr}\left(\log \widehat{\pmb{
ho}}_{\operatorname{prop}}, \log \widehat{\pmb{
ho}}_{\operatorname{curr}}
ight) pprox 1 - K/\lambda.$$

• Consequence: tolerates much larger variance (faster!) of log $\widehat{p}(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{u})$.

Bias-corrected log-likelihood based estimator (Quiroz et al., 2019)

Data subsampling estimator of the log-likelihood for independent data

$$\widehat{\ell}(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta},\boldsymbol{u}) = \frac{n}{m}\sum_{i\in\boldsymbol{u}}\ell(y_i|\boldsymbol{\theta}), \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{u}}\left(\widehat{\ell}(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta},\boldsymbol{u})\right) = \ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{k=1}^n \ell(y_k|\boldsymbol{\theta}),$$

 $u = (u_1, ..., u_m)$, $\Pr(u_j = k) = 1/n$, j = 1, ..., m, and k = 1, ..., n.

• Difference estimator with control variates $q_k(\theta) \approx \ell(y_k|\theta)$

$$\widehat{\ell}(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta},\boldsymbol{u}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} q_{k}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \frac{n}{m} \sum_{i \in \boldsymbol{u}} d_{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \ d_{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \ell(y_{i}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) - q_{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

• Estimate $L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \exp(\ell(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}))$ by bias-correcting $\exp(\widehat{\ell}(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{u}))$.

Bias-correction term estimated... $\hat{p}(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{u})$ not unbiased anymore...

• ... still targets a **perturbed posterior** with TV-norm error of $\mathcal{O}(n^{-1}m^{-2})$.

For example, if
$$m = O(n^{1/2})$$
 then the error is $O(n^{-2})$.

Beyond independent data via spectral methods

Quiroz et al. (2019) use the quite restrictive assumption:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \ell(y_k | \boldsymbol{\theta}), \quad \left[\text{which comes from } p(\boldsymbol{y} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} p(y_k | \boldsymbol{\theta}) \right].$$

- Violated for many interesting models, including:
 - General time series problems.
 - Spatially dependent data.
 - Hyper-parameter estimation in Gaussian processes.
- This talk is on univariate and multivariate stationary time series models.
- We know that the data $\mathbf{y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$ in the time domain are dependent.
- Transform the time domain data to the frequency domain using the discrete Fourier transform (DFT).
- Large sample properties of the DFT ensures (asymptotically) independent observations.

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The discrete Fourier transform

- Transform the data from the **time domain** to the **frequency domain**.
- The discrete Fourier transform (DFT) of the time series $Y_t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$J(\omega_k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{t=1}^n Y_t \exp(-\mathrm{i}\omega_k t),$$

at Fourier frequencies

$$\omega_k \in \Omega = \{2\pi k/n \text{ for } k = -\lceil n/2 \rceil + 1, \dots, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor\}.$$

• Can be computed in $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ with the fast Fourier transform (FFT).

The periodogram

$$\mathcal{I}(\omega_k) = n^{-1} \left| J(\omega_k) \right|^2$$

will be *k*th "data observation" in the frequency domain.

The Whittle log-likelihood

The periodogram data in the frequency domain,

 $(\mathcal{I}(\omega_1), \mathcal{I}(\omega_2), \dots, \mathcal{I}(\omega_n)), \quad \text{where } \mathcal{I}(\omega_k) = n^{-1} |J(\omega_k)|^2.$

• Asymptotically, as $n \to \infty$,

$$\mathcal{I}(\omega_k) \stackrel{\mathrm{ind}}{\sim} \mathrm{Exp}\left(f_{\theta}(\omega_k)\right)$$
 ,

where f_{θ} is the **spectral density**,

$$f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{\omega}) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{\tau=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(\tau; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \exp(-\mathrm{i}\boldsymbol{\omega}\tau),$$

with covariance function $\gamma(\tau; \theta) = E[Y_t Y_{t-\tau}]$ of a covariance stationary zero-mean time series $\{Y_t\}_{t=1}^n$.

Sketch of proof steps:

- DFT is asymptotically complex Gaussian (by the CLT).
- $|J(\omega_k)|^2$ is a sum of two squared independent Gaussians.

•
$$\chi_2^2 = \text{Exp}(1/2).$$

Subsampling MCMC for univariate stationary time series

Whittle's asymptotic approximation of the log-likelihood (Whittle, 1953)

$$\ell_{\mathcal{W}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{\omega_k \in \Omega} \Big(\log f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\omega_k) + \frac{\mathcal{I}(\omega_k)}{f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\omega_k)} \Big).$$

- May be biased for small n, but we consider large n (when subsampling is relevant).
- ▶ Unlike the time domain log-likelihood, the Whittle log-likelihood is a sum.
- Spectral subsampling for stationary univariate time series (Salomone et al., 2020)
 - **Compute periodogram** before MCMC at cost $O(n \log n)$.
 - Estimate $\ell_{\mathcal{W}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ unbiasedly by subsampling of frequencies.
 - Use within a pseudo-marginal MH algorithm (Quiroz et al., 2019).

The (univariate) ARTFIMA model

• **ARIMA**(p, d, q), integer differences $d = 0, 1, 2, ..., (L^d Y_t = Y_{t-d})$

$$\phi_p(L)(1-L)^d Y_t = \theta_q(L)\varepsilon_t.$$

• **ARTFIMA** (p, d, λ, q) (Sabzikar et al., 2019)

$$\phi_p(L)(1-e^{-\lambda}L)^d Y_t = \theta_q(L)\varepsilon_t.$$

Role of fractional differencing d. Can model longer memory since

$$(1 - e^{-\lambda}L)^{d}Y_{t} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{j} \frac{\Gamma(1+d)}{\Gamma(1+d-j)j!} e^{-\lambda j}Y_{t-j}.$$

The ARTFIMA model nests:

- ARIMA ($\lambda = 0$ and *d* integer).
- ▶ ARFIMA (Granger and Joyeux, 1980). $\lambda = 0, d \in \mathbb{Q}$. Stationary if |d| < 0.5. ARFIMA has so-called long memory: $\sum_{\tau=-\infty}^{\infty} |\gamma(\tau; \theta)| = \infty$.

The ARTFIMA model, cont.

• Recall **ARTFIMA**(p, d, λ, q)

$$\phi_p(L)(1-e^{-\lambda}L)^d x_t = \theta_q(L)\varepsilon_t.$$

• Role of the **tempering** parameter $\lambda \ge 0$.

long range dependence $\gamma(\tau; \theta)$ for small τ .

- Exponential decay for larger τ : $\sum_{\tau=-\infty}^{\infty} |\gamma(\tau; \theta)| < \infty$.
- Stationary if $\lambda > 0$ for all $d \notin \mathbb{Z}$ (if AR and MA fulfill the usual conditions).

• The spectral density for **ARTFIMA** (p, d, λ, q)

$$f_{\theta}(\omega) = \frac{\sigma_{\varepsilon}^{2}}{2\pi} \frac{\left|\theta(e^{-i\omega})\right|^{2}}{\left|\phi(e^{-i\omega})\right|^{2}} \left|1 - e^{-(\lambda + i\omega)}\right|^{-2d}$$

• Compare to the spectral density for ARMA(p, q)

$$f_{\theta}(\omega) = \frac{\sigma_{\varepsilon}^2}{2\pi} \frac{|\theta(e^{-i\omega})|^2}{|\phi(e^{-i\omega})|^2}.$$

Going multivariate (Villani et al., 2022)

• Autocovariance matrix function for time series $\mathbf{Y}_t \in \mathbb{R}^r$

$$\gamma_{\mathbf{Y}}(\tau) = \operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{Y}_t, \mathbf{Y}_{t-\tau}), \text{ for } \tau \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Spectral density matrix

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{\tau = -\infty}^{\infty} \gamma_{\mathbf{Y}}(\tau) \exp(-i\omega\tau).$$

where off-diagonal elements are the cross-spectral densities

$$f_{jk}(\omega) = \sum_{\tau=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma_{jk}(\tau) \exp(-i\omega\tau), \text{ for } \omega \in (-\pi,\pi].$$

Multivariate discrete Fourier transform (DFT)

$$J(\omega_k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{Y}_t \exp(-i\omega_k t).$$

Multivariate Fourier analysis, cont.

DFT are asymptotically independent complex normal (Brillinger, 2001)

$$n^{-1/2}J(\omega_k) \stackrel{\mathrm{ind}}{\sim} \mathrm{CN}(0, f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\omega_k)) \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

• Multivariate periodogram is complex singular Wishart (r > 1)

$$I_{T}(\omega_{k}) = n^{-1} J(\omega_{k}) J(\omega_{k})^{H} \sim CW(1, f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\omega_{k})),$$

where $\mathbf{A}^{H} = \overline{\mathbf{A}}^{\top}$ is the conjugate transpose and $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$ is the matrix of complex conjugates of the elements of \mathbf{A} .

Multivariate Whittle log-likelihood

$$\ell_{\mathcal{W}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{\omega_k \in \Omega} \left(\log |f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\omega_k)| + \operatorname{tr} \left[f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\omega_k)^{-1} I_{\mathcal{T}}(\omega_k) \right] \right).$$

It is a sum (still) — subsampling MCMC.

The multivariate ARTFIMA (VARTFIMA) model

- We propose a multivariate extension of the ARTFIMA (Sabzikar et al., 2019) process.
- The vector ARTFIMA (VARTFIMA)

$$\Phi_{p}(L)\Delta^{d,\lambda}\boldsymbol{Y}_{t} = \Theta_{q}(L)\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t} \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0,\Sigma_{\varepsilon})$$

where $\Delta^{d,\lambda}$ is the tempered fractional differencing operator defined as

$$\Delta^{\mathbf{d},\lambda} \mathbf{Y}_t = \left((1 - e^{-\lambda_1} L)^{d_1} Y_{1,t}, \dots, (1 - e^{-\lambda_r} L)^{d_r} Y_{r,t} \right)^\top$$

- ARTFIMA nested ARMA, VARTFIMA nests VARMA (vector ARMA).
- Spectral density matrix (see (Villani et al., 2022, Theorem 1))

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \mathbf{B} \Phi_p^{-1}(e^{-i\omega}) \Theta_q(e^{-i\omega}) \Sigma_{\varepsilon} \Theta_q^H(e^{-i\omega}) \Phi_p^{-H}(e^{-i\omega}) \mathbf{B}^H,$$

where $\mathbf{B} = \text{Diag}((1 - e^{-(\lambda_1 + i\omega)})^{-d_1}, \dots, (1 - e^{-(\lambda_r + i\omega)})^{-d_r}).$

- Question 1 (Q1): Is the proposed VARTFIMA better than VARMA?
- Question 2 (Q2): Is subsampling MCMC for the multivariate Whittle likelihood accurate? Compare vs MCMC on the multivariate Whittle likelihood using all data.
- Question 3 (Q3): How accurate is the multivariate Whittle approximation to the true posterior (obtained via the time domain likelihood)?
- Note: The time domain likelihood (and thus the posterior) is intractable for VARTFIMA with large datasets. Can only test the above (Q3) for VARMA.
- Question 4 (Q4): How much "faster" is subsampling compared to using the multivariate Whittle likelihood on the full dataset?

Applications: Hydrology, meteorology, environment

- Application 1: Measurements of mean water velocity in two locations in Detroit river, located on opposite sides of Lake St Clair. 130,000 observations.
- Application 2: Measurements of temperature in three airport locations in Sweden (Arlanda, Bromma and Landvetter). 124,000 observations.
- Application 3: Measurements of two pollution types (nitrogen dioxide (NO2) and particulate matter (PM10)) at two streets in central Stockholm. 50,000 observations.

Raw data water velocity



Figure 1: Water velocity data.

Raw data temperature



Figure 2: Swedish temperature data after interpolation, but before deseasoning.

Raw data pollution



Figure 3: Stockholm air pollution data after interpolation and logarithmic transform, but before deseasoning.

Models and priors

- ▶ We estimate VARMA() and VARTFIMA() models for each dataset.
- Model selection using the BIC approximation of the log marginal likelihood

$$\log p_{\mathrm{BIC}}(\boldsymbol{Y}) = \log p(\boldsymbol{Y}|\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) - \frac{k \log n}{2},$$

where k is the number of estimated parameters, n is the length of the time series and $\hat{\theta}$ is the maximum likelihood estimate.

Minnesota-style prior for the AR and MA coefficients. Normal with diagonal covariance matrix:

$$\mathbf{v}_{ij,l} = \begin{cases} (\lambda_0 / l)^2, & \text{if } i = j\\ (\lambda_0 \theta_0 \sigma_i / l \sigma_j)^2 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

We set $\lambda_0 = 1$ and $\theta_0 = 0.2$. Normal priors for the rest (transformed scale).

Ansley and Kohn (1986) parameterisation of AR and MA parts. Ensures stationarity — facilitates MCMC proposal (unconstrained space).

Q1: BIC — Tempered fractional differencing is good

Question 1: Is the proposed VARTFIMA better than VARMA?

| | | Water ' | Water Velocity | | Temperature | | Pollution | |
|----|----|---------|----------------|---|-------------|--------|------------|--------|
| AR | MA | No TFI | TFI | - | No TFI | TFI | No TFI | TFI |
| 1 | 0 | 737079 | 759123 | | 327097 | 334122 | 363760 | 366022 |
| 0 | 1 | 588297 | 759457 | | 61320 | 332888 | 306068 | 365658 |
| 2 | 0 | 749650 | 761200 | | 335201 | 335757 | 365522 | 366266 |
| 0 | 2 | 621765 | 761786 | | 93256 | 333948 | 325717 | 366142 |
| 1 | 1 | 758838 | 761305 | | 333582 | 335647 | 365762 | 366267 |

Table 1: BIC approximation of the log marginal likelihood for different models for each of the three datasets. A higher value indicates a better model fit. The highest value for each dataset is marked in bold font red.

Answer: Yes, the tempered fractional differencing is better than no tempered fractional differencing.

Q2: Best model for temperature data (k = 24)



Figure 4: Kernel density estimates of a subset of the marginal posterior densities for the VARTFIMA(2,0) model fitted to the Swedish temperature data.

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Q2: Best model for Water velocity data (k = 11)



Figure 5: Kernel density estimates of a subset of the marginal posterior densities for the VARTFIMA(0,2) model fitted to the Water velocity data.

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- Subsampling MCMC does not work for this model for the given *n* and *m*.
- Chain gets stuck because $\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\ell}}^2 = V\left(\hat{\ell}(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{u})\right)$ is too large.

•
$$\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\ell}}^2 = \mathcal{O}(m^{-1}n^{-1})$$
 for the control variate we use (Quiroz et al., 2019).

Example with n = 62,000 (instead of n = 124,000) for the Swedish temperature data on the next slide shows how the chain gets stuck.

Subsampling MCMC with smaller n fails for the Swedish temperature dataset



Figure 6: Subsampling MCMC fails for the smaller dataset.

Q3: VARMA(1, 1) - Water velocity (k = 11)



Q3: VARMA(1, 1) - Temperatures (k = 24)



Relative computational time (RCT):

$$\mathsf{RCT} = \frac{\mathsf{CT} \; \mathsf{MCMC} \; \mathsf{full} \; \mathsf{sample}}{\mathsf{CT} \; \mathsf{spectral} \; \mathsf{subsampling} \; \mathsf{MCMC}}.$$

| Dataset | Model | Min | Mean | Max |
|----------------|---------------|-----|------|-----|
| Water velocity | VARTFIMA(0,2) | 87 | 98 | 125 |
| Temperature | VARTFIMA(2,0) | 68 | 89 | 114 |

Table 2: Relative computational time (RCT) for comparing MCMC using the full dataset to spectral subsampling MCMC. The value 1 indicates that spectral subsampling MCMC and MCMC are equally efficient, and values larger than 1 indicate that spectral subsampling MCMC is the better algorithm.

Recall that subsampling MCMC does not work for the pollution example when n = 50,000.

Conclusion and future work

- Presented a simple idea that extends subsampling MCMC beyond the conditionally independent observations setting.
- ► Useful for any subsampling approach (not just MCMC).
- Considered an application of subsampling MCMC for multivariate time series models.
- Presented the novel vector time series model VARTFIMA.
- Villani et al. (2022) show that VARTFIMA predicts each time series better than univariate ARTFIMA for the temperature data, especially for longer prediction horizons.
- Subsampling MCMC can break down if the control variates are inaccurate.
 - More efficient control variate constructions.
 - Other estimation algorithms that are less sensitive to the variance, e.g. variational Bayes.
- We are currently working on extending our approach to **spatial problems**.

Thank you for listening!

Questions?

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