

The Monte Carlo Method

1 The Monte Carlo Method

Consider state space $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \mathcal{Z}^N$ for N interacting particles.

Definition 1.1. For a finite state space $\mathcal{X}$, we denote the set of probability measures over $\mathcal{X}$ as $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X}) \triangleq \{\nu \in [0,1]^{\mathcal{X}} : \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \nu_x = 1\}$.

Many optimization problems are of the form $\min \{E(x) : x \in \mathcal{X}\}$ for some feasible set of states $\mathcal{X}$ and the optimization function $E \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$. For classical reasons, we will call E as an energy function, and solving this minimization problem is equivalent to finding the set of minimum energy states defined as

$$\mathcal{X}_0 \triangleq \left\{ x \in \mathcal{X} : E(x) \leq \min_y E(y) \right\}.$$

We will show in Section 3 that finding the configurations that minimize the energy while being regularized for highest randomness with Lagrange multiplier β for the regularization term, is equivalent to finding the support of Boltzmann distribution $\mu_\beta \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{Z}^N)$ for inverse temperature β . Computing Boltzmann distribution is very hard for large N since the computation of partition function $Z(N, \beta) \triangleq \sum_{x \in \mathcal{Z}^N} e^{-\beta E(x)}$ is infeasible for large N . The goal of Monte Carlo methods is to simulate a Markov process that converges to a stationary distribution μ_β of interest.

1.1 Motivation

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) is a technique which can be used to solve hard optimization problems. We'll design MCMC algorithms to solve the following three problems, and one can solve many more.

- *Graph coloring problem:* Given a graph $G = (V, E)$ and a set of colors $\{1, 2, \dots, q\}$, a proper q -coloring of G is an assignment of colors to the vertices V such that neighboring vertices do not receive the same color, i.e., the set of proper q -colorings of G is defined as $\mathcal{A} \triangleq \{x \in [q]^V : x_v \neq x_w, (v, w) \in E\}$. Find the set $\mathcal{A}$ of proper q -colorings of G .
- *The knapsack problem:* Suppose you have a knapsack which has some maximum weight capacity W . There are n items with weights $w_1, \dots, w_n > 0$ and values $v_1, \dots, v_n > 0$, and we want to choose the subset of them that maximizes the total value subject to the weight constraint of the knapsack. Let $\mathcal{S} \triangleq \{S \subseteq [n] : \sum_{i \in S} w_i \leq W\}$ be the set of feasible knapsack packings, then find $S^* \triangleq \arg \max \{\sum_{i \in S} v_i : S \in \mathcal{S}\}$.
- *The travelling salesman problem (TSP):* Suppose you want to find the best route (minimizing total distance travelled) between the 28 Indian state capitals that we want to visit! A valid route starts and ends in the same state capital, and visits each capital exactly once (this is known as the TSP, and is known to be NP-Hard).

As the name suggests, this technique depends a bit on the idea of Markov Chains. Most of this section then will actually be building up the foundations of Markov Chains, and MCMC will follow soon after.

2 Markov chains

Definition 2.1. A random process $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ for finite state space $\mathcal{X}$ is called a *Markov chain* if for each time $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ and states $x_0, \dots, x_n, y \in \mathcal{X}$

$$P(\{X_{n+1} = y\} \mid \cap_{k=0}^n \{X_k = x_k\}) = P(\{X_{n+1} = y\} \mid \{X_n = x_n\}).$$

That is, the future is independent of the past conditioned on the present.

Definition 2.2. For a Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$, we can define a *probability transition matrix* $P(n) \in [0, 1]^{(\mathcal{X}) \times \mathcal{X}}$ for each initial state x at each time $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, and all next state $y \in \mathcal{X}$ as

$$p_{xy}(n) \triangleq P(\{X_{n+1} = y\} \mid \{X_n = x\}).$$

Remark 1. We observe that each row $p_x(n) \triangleq \{p_{xy}(n) : y \in \mathcal{X}\}$ of probability transition matrix is the conditional probability of X_{n+1} conditioned on the event $\{X_n = x\}$, and hence $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$.

Definition 2.3. A Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ is called *time homogeneous* if the associated transition probability matrix $P(n)$ is identical for all times $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, and is denoted by $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$. Let $\nu(n) \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ be the marginal probability distribution of Markov chain X at time $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$.

Remark 2. For a time homogeneous Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ with probability transition matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$, we observe that $\nu(n) = \nu(0)P^n$ where P^n is the n -step transition probability matrix.

Definition 2.4. A time homogeneous Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ with finite state space $\mathcal{X}$ is called

- (a) *irreducible* if for any pair of configurations $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$, there exists a path $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ of length n , connecting $x_0 = x$ and $x_n = y$ with non-zero probability, i.e. $(P^n)_{xy} \geq \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} p_{x_i, x_{i+1}} > 0$,
- (b) *aperiodic* if for any pair of configurations $x, y \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$, there exists a positive integer $n(x, y)$ such that for any $n \geq n(x, y)$, there exists a path of length n connecting x and y with non-zero probability,
- (c) *positive recurrent* if there exists a distribution $\pi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ such that $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \pi_x p_{xy} = \pi_y$ for each $y \in \mathcal{X}$, and
- (d) *reversible* if the transition probability satisfy the detailed balance equation $\pi_x p_{xy} = \pi_y p_{yx}$ for each $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$.

Remark 3. We observe the following.

- (a) For an irreducible chain, aperiodicity is easily enforced by allowing the configuration to remain unchanged with non-zero probability, i.e. $p_{xx} > 0$ for each configuration $x \in \mathcal{X}$.
- (b) For finite state Markov chains irreducibility and aperiodicity implies positive recurrence or stationarity.

2.1 Properties of ergodic Markov chains

Theorem 2.5. Let $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ be a time homogeneous Markov chain with initial condition $X_0 = x_0$ and transition probability matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$. Let $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be any real valued function. If the Markov chain X satisfies the conditions (a), (b), (c) in Definition 2.4, then the following holds true.

- (a) The probability distribution of X_n converges to the stationary distribution, i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\{X_n = x\} = \pi(x)$ for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$.
- (b) Time averages converge to averages over the stationary distribution, i.e. $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \sum_{s=1}^t f(X_s) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \pi(x) f(x)$ almost surely.

Proposition 2.6. Let $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ be a time homogeneous Markov chain with symmetric transition probability matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$.

- (a) Uniform distribution is an invariant distribution of P .
- (b) X is a reversible Markov chain.

Proof. Since P is symmetric, $P = P^\top$ and it follows that $p_{x,y} = p_{y,x}$ for each $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$.

- (a) Since P is symmetric, all one vector is a left eigenvector with eigenvalue unity, and hence the normalized row vector $\frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}|} \mathbf{1}^\top \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{Z})$ is an invariant distribution of P .
- (b) Further, P satisfies reversibility with respect to uniform distribution on $\mathcal{X}$.

□

2.2 Markov chain as a random walk

Let $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ be a time homogeneous Markov chain with initial condition $X_0 = x_0$ and transition probability matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$. Then we can define a graph $G \triangleq (\mathcal{X}, E, w)$ with set of nodes $\mathcal{X}$, set of edges $E \triangleq \{(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} : p_{x,y} > 0\}$, and edge weights $w \in [0, 1]^E$ defined for each edge $e = (x, y) \in E$ as $w(e) \triangleq p_{x,y}$. It follows that X is a random walk on graph G with initial location $X_0 = x_0$ and transition probability from each state x being the conditional probability distribution $P_x \triangleq \{p_{xy} : y \in \mathcal{X}\}$ which is non zero only over outgoing edges $(x, y) \in E$.

3 Gibbs variational principal

Definition 3.1. Consider a finite state space $\mathcal{X}$ and a discrete random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ with distribution $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$. We denote the *entropy* as $H \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})}$ and define as $H(P) \triangleq \mathbb{E} \ln \frac{1}{P(X)}$ for the distribution $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ for random variable X .

Definition 3.2. For a Bernoulli random variable, we can define *binary entropy function* $h : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, \ln 2]$ as $h(p) \triangleq H((1-p, p)) = -(1-p) \ln(1-p) - p \ln p$ for each $p \in [0, 1]$.

Remark 4. We observe that binary entropy function h is concave with unique maxima of $\ln 2$ achieved at $p = \frac{1}{2}$, and it is increasing for $p \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$. In general, we observe that entropy is a measure of uncertainty and maximized for a uniform random variable.

Definition 3.3. Consider a state space $\mathcal{X}$ and a random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$. For finite $\mathcal{X}$ and any two distributions $P, Q \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ such that $\text{supp}(Q) \subseteq \text{supp}(P)$, we define *KL divergence* $D : \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ as

$$D(P||Q) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P} \ln \frac{P(X)}{Q(X)}.$$

Definition 3.4. For a Bernoulli random variable, we can define *binary relative entropy function* $d : [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow [0, \ln 2]$ as $d(p||q) \triangleq D((1-p, p)|| (1-q, q)) = -(1-p) \ln \frac{1-p}{1-q} - p \ln \frac{p}{q}$ for each $p, q \in [0, 1]$.

Remark 5. We observe that $d(p||q) \geq 0$ with equality iff $p = q$, and d is convex in both arguments. In general, we observe the following for KL divergence, also referred to as relative entropy.

- (a) Relative entropy is a measure of “distance”¹ between two distributions.
- (b) Relative entropy is convex in both the arguments, and is always non negative.
- (c) Relative entropy is zero when both distributions are identical.

In the following, we consider a system with a discrete configuration space $\mathcal{X}$ and a real-valued energy function $E \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$ defined on this space.

Definition 3.5 (Boltzmann distribution). Let $\mathcal{X}$ be finite and $E \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$ be the *energy function*. Then the *partition function* $Z : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ is defined for each inverse temperature $\beta \in \mathbb{R}_+$ as $Z(\beta) \triangleq \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} e^{-\beta E(x)}$. For each inverse temperature $\beta \in \mathbb{R}_+$, the *Boltzmann distribution* $\mu_\beta \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ is defined for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$ as

$$\mu_\beta(x) \triangleq \frac{1}{Z(\beta)} e^{-\beta E(x)}.$$

We define the *free energy* $F : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for each inverse temperature $\beta \in \mathbb{R}_+$ as $F(\beta) \triangleq -\frac{1}{\beta} \ln Z(\beta)$, such that

$$\mu_\beta(x) = e^{-\beta(E(x) - F(\beta))}.$$

Definition 3.6 (Gibbs free energy). We define the *Gibbs free energy* $G : \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as a real-valued functional over the space of probability distributions $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ defined over configuration space $\mathcal{X}$, as

$$G(P) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P} E(X) - \frac{1}{\beta} H(P).$$

¹KL divergence is not a distance strictly speaking since it is not symmetric in P and Q . However, we can define Jensen-Shannon divergence defined as $\text{JS}(P, Q) \triangleq \frac{1}{2} D(P||\frac{1}{2}(P+Q)) + \frac{1}{2} D(Q||\frac{1}{2}(P+Q))$, which is a symmetric version of KL divergence.

Proposition 3.7 (Gibbs variational principle). *The Gibbs free energy G is a convex functional of P , and it achieves its unique minimum on the Boltzmann distribution $P = \mu_\beta$. Moreover, $G(\mu_\beta) = F(\beta)$, where F is the free energy.*

Proof. From the definition of relative entropy, entropy, and Boltzmann distribution, we observe that

$$\frac{1}{\beta} D(P \| \mu_\beta) = \frac{1}{\beta} \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P} \ln \frac{P(X)}{\mu_\beta(X)} = -\frac{1}{\beta} H(P) + \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P} (E(X) - F(\beta)) = G(P) - F(\beta).$$

From the convexity of relative entropy, it follows that $G(P)$ is convex in P , and hence has a unique minimum. From non negativity of relative entropy, it follows that $G(P) \geq F(\beta)$ with equality at $P = \mu_\beta$. $\square$

Remark 6. We observe the following

- (a) Minimizing Gibbs energy is finding the most random distribution P under which mean energy of the system is minimized.
- (b) There is a large mass on low energy configuration in Boltzmann distribution.
- (c) As the system cools, i.e. inverse temperature grows arbitrary large, energy minimizing configurations $\mathcal{X}_0 \triangleq \{x \in \mathcal{X} : E(x) = \min_{y \in \mathcal{X}} E(y)\}$ are equally likely.
- (d) Finding $\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} E(x)$ is the same as finding the support of Boltzmann distribution at low temperatures.
- (e) One approach is to find μ_β at certain inverse temperature β and then increase β . This is called *simulated annealing*.

4 Metropolis Chains

Given state space $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \mathcal{Z}^N$ and stationary distribution $\pi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{Z}^N)$, our goal is to find a Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ with transition probability matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$ such that $\pi P = \pi$. The approach of Metropolis chains is to first consider an initial base Markov chain $Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ with certain transition probability matrix $\Psi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$ and modify the transition probabilities appropriately so that the new chain X has the desired stationary distribution π .

4.1 Symmetric base chain

Definition 4.1 (Symmetric base chain). Let $Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ be an irreducible time homogeneous Markov chain with state space $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \mathcal{Z}^N$ and symmetric transition probability matrix $\Psi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$.

Remark 7. Note that each row $\psi_x \triangleq \{\psi_{xy} : y \in \mathcal{X}\} \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ is the conditional distribution of the next state, starting from state x .

Definition 4.2 (Modification of symmetric base chain). We define $a_{xy} \in [0, 1]$ as the *acceptance probability* of transition from state x to state y . We define a new Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ with transition probability matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$ that evolves as follows.

- (a) When at state x , a candidate move is generated from distribution ψ_x .
- (b) If the proposed new state is y , then the move is *accepted* with probability a_{xy} and with remaining probability chain remains at x .

Proposition 4.3. *For a symmetric base chain Y with symmetric transition probability matrix Ψ and acceptance probability matrix $A \in [0, 1]^{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}}$, the resulting Markov chain is reversible if for all $x \neq y$,*

$$\pi(x) a_{xy} = \pi(y) a_{yx}. \quad (1)$$

Proof. The transition probabilities of the new chain X for states $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$, are

$$p_{xy} = \begin{cases} \psi_{xy} a_{xy}, & y \neq x, \\ 1 - \sum_{z \in \mathcal{X} \setminus \{x\}} \psi_{xz} a_{xz}, & y = x. \end{cases}$$

It follows that the transition matrix P is reversible and has invariant distribution π if reversibility condition $\pi(x) \psi_{xy} a_{xy} = \pi(y) \psi_{yx} a_{yx}$ holds for all $x \neq y$. Since Ψ is symmetric, we have $\psi_{xy} = \psi_{yx}$ for each $y \neq x$. $\square$

Corollary 4.4. *The maximum acceptance probability for each state $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ is bounded above as*

$$a_{xy} \leq \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x)} \right\}.$$

Proof. Defining $b_{xy} \triangleq \pi(x)a_{xy}$ for all $x \neq y$, the condition (1) becomes $b_{xy} = b_{yx}$ for all $x \neq y$. By definition of b , we see that $b_{xy} \leq \pi(x)$ and $b_{yx} \leq \pi(y)$ for each $x \neq y$. Combining the two conditions, we observe that $b_{xy} = b_{yx} \leq \min \{ \pi(x), \pi(y) \}$ and the result follows by dividing both sides by $\pi(x)$. $\square$

Remark 8. Recall that the invariant distribution of symmetric base chain is a uniform distribution, and the speed of the mixing for this base chain to a Markov chain with invariant distribution π depends on the acceptance probability. Larger the acceptance probability, the faster is the mixing time.

Definition 4.5 (Metropolis Hastings). Consider a time homogeneous Markov chain Y with symmetric transition probability matrix $\Psi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$, and acceptance probability defined for each $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ as

$$a_{xy} \triangleq 1 \wedge \left(\frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x)} \right).$$

This choice of acceptance probability is called *Metropolis Hastings*, and the resulting Markov chain is called *Metropolis chain* with invariant distribution $\pi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ and transition probability matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$

$$p_{xy} \triangleq \begin{cases} \psi_{xy} \left[1 \wedge \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x)} \right], & y \neq x, \\ 1 - \sum_{z \in \mathcal{X} \setminus \{x\}} \psi_{xz} \left[1 \wedge \frac{\pi(z)}{\pi(x)} \right], & y = x. \end{cases}$$

Remark 9. If the desired stationary distribution π is a Boltzmann distribution μ_β , then the Metropolis Hastings acceptance probability is

$$a_{xy} = 1 \wedge e^{-\beta(E(y) - E(x))}.$$

this method has an advantage that we don't need to compute partition function explicitly which is computationally infeasible in many cases.

Example 4.6 (Metropolis algorithm for N -particle system). Consider a system of N Ising spins $\sigma \in \{-1, 1\}^N$ with energy function $E(\sigma)$ and inverse temperature β . We call $\sigma^{(i)}$ the configuration which coincides with σ but for the site i , i.e. $\sigma^{(i)} \triangleq \sum_{j \in [N] \setminus \{i\}} \sigma_j e_j - \sigma_i e_i$ where $e_j \in \{0, 1\}^N$ is a unit vector in the j th direction. We define the difference in energy for this perturbed configuration as $\Delta E_i(\sigma) \triangleq E(\sigma^{(i)}) - E(\sigma)$.

We are interested in sampling from the Boltzmann distribution $\mu_\beta = \frac{1}{Z(N, \beta)} e^{-\beta E(\sigma)}$. The *Metropolis algorithm* with random updating is defined as follows. At each step $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, an i.i.d. random integer $I_n : \Omega \rightarrow [N]$ is chosen uniformly at random and if $I_n = i$ then the spin σ_i is flipped with probability

$$w_i(\sigma) \triangleq 1 \wedge \frac{\mu_\beta(\sigma^{(i)})}{\mu_\beta(\sigma)} = e^0 \wedge e^{-\beta \Delta E_i(\sigma)} = e^{-\beta(\Delta E_i(\sigma) \vee 0)}.$$

We observe that this corresponds to a symmetric base chain with transition probability $\psi_{\sigma, \tau} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{1}_{\{\tau = \sigma^{(i)}\}}$ and acceptance probability $a_{\sigma, \tau} = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i(\sigma) \mathbb{1}_{\{\tau = \sigma^{(i)}\}}$. Therefore, we can write the transition probability matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$ associated with the resulting MCMC for each $\sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{X}$, as

$$p_{\sigma, \tau} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N} w_i(\sigma), & \tau = \sigma^{(i)}, i \in [N], \\ 1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N w_i(\sigma), & \tau = \sigma, \\ 0, & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

Consider the detailed balance equation with respect to Boltzmann distribution μ_β and for states σ and $\sigma^{(i)}$, as

$$\mu_\beta(\sigma) w_i(\sigma) = \mu_\beta(\sigma) \wedge \mu_\beta(\sigma^{(i)}) = \mu_\beta(\sigma^{(i)}) w_i(\sigma^{(i)}).$$

Thus the chain is irreducible and reversible.

4.2 General base chain

The Metropolis chain can also be defined when the initial transition matrix is not symmetric. For a general irreducible transition matrix $\Psi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$ and an arbitrary probability distribution $\pi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ for $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \mathbb{Z}^N$, the Metropolized chain is executed as follows when at any state $x \in \mathcal{X}$. We first sample the next state y from ψ_x . Chain can move to y with acceptance probability

$$a_{xy} \triangleq \frac{\pi(y)\psi_{yx}}{\pi(x)\psi_{xy}} \wedge 1, \quad (2)$$

or remain at x with the complementary probability. The transition matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$ for this resulting chain is defined for each state $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ as

$$p_{xy} \triangleq \begin{cases} \psi_{xy} \left[1 \wedge \frac{\pi(y)\psi_{yx}}{\pi(x)\psi_{xy}} \right], & y \neq x, \\ 1 - \sum_{z \in \mathcal{X} \setminus \{x\}} \psi_{xz} \left[1 \wedge \frac{\pi(z)\psi_{zx}}{\pi(x)\psi_{xz}} \right], & y = x. \end{cases}$$

Proposition 4.7. *For an irreducible base chain $Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ with transition probability matrix $\Psi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$ and acceptance probability matrix $A \in [0, 1]^{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}}$ defined in (2), the resulting Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ is irreducible, reversible, positive recurrent, and has invariant distribution π .*

Proof. The transition probabilities of the new chain X for states $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$, are

$$p_{xy} = \begin{cases} \psi_{xy} a_{xy}, & y \neq x, \\ 1 - \sum_{z \in \mathcal{X} \setminus \{x\}} \psi_{xz} a_{xz}, & y = x. \end{cases}$$

We observe that the reversibility condition $\pi(x)p_{xy} = \pi(y)p_{yx}$ holds for all $x \neq y$, and hence it follows that the transition matrix P is irreducible and has invariant distribution π . $\square$

5 Glauber dynamics

Definition 5.1 (Glauber dynamics). Consider an interacting particle system $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \mathbb{Z}^N$, and for each $i \in [N]$ and state $x \in \mathcal{X}$ we define the set of states differing with x only in the state of i th particle as

$$\Omega(x, i) \triangleq \{y \in \mathcal{X} : x_j = y_j, j \neq i\}.$$

Define an *i.i.d.* uniform random sequence $I : \Omega \rightarrow [N]^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$, and a Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ that evolves as follows. At each time $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, let $X_n = x$ and $I_n = i$, then move from the current state x to the new state y according to $\pi^{x,i}(y)$ defined as

$$\pi^{x,i}(y) \triangleq \begin{cases} \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(\Omega(x,i))}, & y \in \Omega(x,i), \\ 0, & y \notin \Omega(x,i). \end{cases}$$

Proposition 5.2. *The Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ under Glauber dynamics of Definition 5.1 is irreducible, reversible, and positive recurrent with the invariant distribution $\pi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$.*

Proof. Consider a symmetric base chain $Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ with associated symmetric transition probability matrix $\Psi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$ defined as $\psi_{xy} \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{1}_{\{x \in \Omega(y,i)\}} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{1}_{\{y \in \Omega(x,i)\}} = \psi_{yx}$ for all x, y , and hence Ψ is a symmetric transition matrix. Further, we have for each $y \neq x$

$$a_{xy} \triangleq \pi^{x,i}(y).$$

We next observe that for any $y \in \Omega(x,i)$, we have $x \in \Omega(y,i)$. Thus, we have $\Omega(x,i) = \Omega(y,i)$ for all $y \in \Omega(x,i)$. It follows that $\psi_{yx} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{1}_{\{x \in \Omega(y,i)\}} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{1}_{\{y \in \Omega(x,i)\}} = \psi_{xy}$ for all x, y , and hence Ψ is a symmetric transition matrix. Further, we have for each $y \neq x$

$$\pi(x)a_{xy} = \pi(y)a_{yx} = \frac{\pi(x)\pi(y)}{\pi(\Omega(x,i))} \mathbb{1}_{\{y \in \Omega(x,i)\}}.$$

That is, this choice of acceptance probability satisfies the condition (1) and hence the resulting Markov chain X is reversible with invariant distribution π from Proposition 4.3. $\square$

Example 5.3 (Glauber dynamics for N -particle system). Consider a system of N Ising spins $\sigma \in \mathcal{X} \triangleq \{-1, 1\}^N$ with energy function $E(\sigma)$ and inverse temperature β . Let $\sigma^{(i)}$ the configuration which coincides with σ but for the site i , and the difference in energy for this perturbed configuration be $\Delta E_i(\sigma) \triangleq E(\sigma^{(i)}) - E(\sigma)$. For this system $\Omega(\sigma, i) = \{\sigma, \sigma^{(i)}\}$. For the desired invariant distribution being Boltzmann distribution μ_β at inverse temperature β , we have

$$\begin{aligned} w_i(\sigma) &\triangleq \pi^{\sigma, i}(\sigma^{(i)}) = \frac{\mu_\beta(\sigma^{(i)})}{\mu_\beta(\sigma^{(i)}) + \mu_\beta(\sigma)} = \frac{e^{-\beta E(\sigma^{(i)})}}{e^{-\beta E(\sigma^{(i)})} + e^{-\beta E(\sigma)}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta \Delta E_i(\sigma)}} = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 - \frac{e^{\beta \Delta E_i(\sigma)} - 1}{e^{\beta \Delta E_i(\sigma)} + 1} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[1 - \tanh\left(\frac{\beta \Delta E_i(\sigma)}{2}\right) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

For the resulting Markov chain X , we can write transition probability matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$ for each $\sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{X}$ as

$$p_{\sigma, \tau} \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{N} w_i(\sigma) \mathbb{1}_{\{\tau = \sigma^{(i)}\}} + \left(1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N w_i(\sigma)\right) \mathbb{1}_{\{\tau = \sigma\}}.$$

Consider the detailed balance equation with respect to invariant Boltzmann distribution μ_β as

$$\mu_\beta(\sigma) w_i(\sigma) = \frac{\mu_\beta(\sigma) \mu_\beta(\sigma^{(i)})}{\mu_\beta(\sigma^{(i)}) + \mu_\beta(\sigma)} = \mu_\beta(\sigma^{(i)}) w_i(\sigma^{(i)})$$

Thus the chain is irreducible and reversible.

5.1 Graph coloring

Definition 5.4. Given a finite set $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \mathcal{Z}^V$ where V is the vertex set of a graph $G = (V, E)$ and $\mathcal{Z}$ is a finite set, we would like to find a transition probability matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})^{\mathcal{X}}$ for which π is an invariant distribution on $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$. The elements of $\mathcal{X}$ called *configurations* are mappings from V to $\mathcal{Z}$ which can be visualized as labeling of vertices using elements of $\mathcal{X}$.

Remark 10. Given a configuration space $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \mathcal{Z}^V$ for a graph $G = (V, E)$, recall that we can define *Glauber dynamics* or *Gibbs sampler* to be a reversible Markov chain with invariant distribution $\pi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ if we can define the set of possible transitions $\Omega(x, v)$ appropriately for each configuration x and vertex v . For the graph problems, we define $\Omega(x, v) \triangleq \{y \in \mathcal{X} : y_w = x_w, w \neq v\}$.

Example 5.5 (Graph coloring). Given an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ and a set of colors $[q] \triangleq \{1, 2, \dots, q\}$, a proper q -coloring of G is an assignment of colors to the vertices V such that neighboring vertices do not receive the same color. That is, we define the set of colorings $\mathcal{X} \triangleq [q]^V$, and the set of proper q -colorings as

$$\mathcal{A} \triangleq \{x \in \mathcal{X} : x_v \neq x_w, \{v, w\} \in E\}.$$

Given a proper q -coloring $x \in \mathcal{A}$ the set of *allowable* colors at a vertex $v \in V$ is denoted by $\mathcal{Z}(x, v)$, where a color $j \in [q]$ is *allowable* at vertex v if $j \notin \{x_w : \{v, w\} \in E\}$. That is,

$$\mathcal{Z}(x, v) \triangleq [q] \setminus \cup_{w: \{v, w\} \in E} \{x_w\}.$$

We would like to construct a Markov chain on the set of proper q -coloring of G . Given a proper q -coloring x , a new coloring can be generated by

(a) selecting a vertex $v \in V$ randomly,

- (b) selecting an allowable color $j \in \mathcal{Z}(x, v)$ uniformly at random, and
- (c) applying the chosen color on v .

Lemma 5.6. *The resulting chain has uniform stationary distribution over all proper q -coloring.*

Proof. The transition probability matrix $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})^{\mathcal{A}}$ of moving from one configuration $x \in \mathcal{A}$ to another configuration $y \in \Omega(x, v)$ differing over the color of a single vertex v , as

$$p_{xy} = \frac{1}{|V|} \frac{1}{|\mathcal{Z}(x, v)|} \mathbb{1}_{\{y \in \Omega(x, v) \cap \mathcal{A}\}}.$$

Let $y \in \Omega(x, v) \cap \mathcal{A}$, then we notice that $x \in \Omega(y, v) \cap \mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{Z}(x, v) = \mathcal{Z}(y, v)$ since x and y differ only by the color on vertex v . Therefore, $p_{xy} = p_{yx}$. Substituting this in detailed balance equation, we get $\pi(x) = \pi(y)$, implying that the invariant distribution of this chain is uniform. $\square$

Example 5.7 (Hardcore configuration). A hardcore configuration is a placement of particles over a graph $G \triangleq (V, E)$ such that each vertex $v \in V$ is occupied by at most one particle and no two particles are stored on adjacent vertices. Let $\mathcal{Z} \triangleq \{0, 1\}$ and $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \mathcal{Z}^V$, then the set of hardcore configurations are

$$\mathcal{A} \triangleq \{b \in \mathcal{X} : b(v)b(w) = 0, \{v, w\} \in E\}.$$

The set of *occupied* vertices are $V_1 \triangleq \{v \in V : b(v) = 1\}$ and set of *vacant* vertices are $V_0 \triangleq \{v \in V : b(v) = 0\}$. To construct a Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ on hardcore configurations, we consider the following evolution. Let $X_0 = 0 \in \mathcal{A}$.

- (a) A vertex v is chosen independently and uniformly at random.
- (b) If any neighboring vertex is occupied, v is left vacant.
- (c) Else, a particle is placed on v with probability $\frac{1}{2}$.

We observe that $\Omega(x, v) = \{y \in \mathcal{X} : y_w = x_w, w \neq v\}$ and for any $x \in \mathcal{A}$, the set of allowable transitions at vertex v are

$$\Omega(x, v) \cap \mathcal{A} = \{y \in \mathcal{A} : y_w = x_w, w \neq v\}.$$

By definition, we have $y \in \Omega(x, v) \cap \mathcal{A}$ if and only if $x \in \Omega(y, v) \cap \mathcal{A}$. This implies that $\Omega(x, v) \cap \mathcal{A} = \Omega(y, v) \cap \mathcal{A}$ for all $y \in \Omega(x, v) \cap \mathcal{A}$. It follows that the resulting Markov chain X is reversible and has a uniform distribution on hardcore configurations $\mathcal{A}$.

5.2 Knapsack problem

Definition 5.8 (Knapsack problem). The 0 – 1 knapsack problem is defined as follows. Consider N items with weights $w \in \mathbb{R}_+^N$ and values $v \in \mathbb{R}_+^N$ and a knapsack with weight limit W . The set of feasible assignments to the knapsack is $\mathcal{S} \triangleq \{S \subseteq [N] : \sum_{i \in S} w_i \leq W\}$. The goal is to find the most valuable subset of items which satisfy the weight constraint of the knapsack, i.e. find $S^* \triangleq \arg \max \{\sum_{i \in S} v_i : S \in \mathcal{S}\}$. Consider state space $\mathcal{Z} \triangleq \{0, 1\}$ for each item to be assigned or not to the knapsack. Then for N items the aggregate state space is $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \mathcal{Z}^N$. We let $x \in \mathcal{X}$ be the indicator vector to each item being assigned to knapsack. The feasible set of vectors that satisfy the weight constraint, and the optimization problem are

$$\mathcal{A} \triangleq \left\{ x \in \mathcal{X} : \sum_{i=1}^N w_i x_i \leq W \right\}, \quad x^* \triangleq \arg \max \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N v_i x_i : x \in \mathcal{A} \right\}.$$

Remark 11. This problem has 2^N possible solutions for x , and so is combinatorially hard (exponentially many solutions).

Definition 5.9 (Glauber dynamics for knapsack problem). We define the set of possible next state to transition from a state $x \in \mathcal{X}$, as $\Omega(x, i) \triangleq \{y \in \mathcal{A} : y_j = x_j, j \neq i\}$. We observe that $\Omega(x, i) = \{x, x^{(i)}\}$ where $x_i^{(i)} = 1 - x_i$. Consider a Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ with $X_0 = 0 \in \mathcal{X}$ that evolves as follows.

- (a) At each time $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, choose an $I_n : \Omega \rightarrow [N]$ i.i.d. uniform.
- (b) Let $X_n = x$ and $I_n = i$, then move from the current state x to the new state y according to probability $\pi^{x,i}(y)$ defined as

$$\pi^{x,i}(y) \triangleq \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(\Omega(x, i))} \mathbb{1}_{\{y \in \Omega(x, i)\}}.$$

Lemma 5.10. The Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ has an invariant uniform distribution $\pi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$.

Proof. The transition probability of moving from one configuration $x \in \mathcal{A}$ to another configuration $y \in \mathcal{A}$ differing over assignment of a single item i can be written as $p_{xy} \triangleq \frac{1}{N} \pi^{x,i}(y) = \frac{1}{N} \frac{1}{|A_i(x)|}$ where

$$A_i(x) \triangleq \left\{ a \in \{0, 1\} : \sum_{j \neq i} w_j x_j + w_i a \leq W \right\} = \{a \in \{0, 1\} : x + (a - x_i)e_i \in \mathcal{A}\}.$$

is the set of allowable values of x_i given configuration x . Notice that $A_i(x)$ and $A_i(y)$ are the same as x and y differ only by the indicator for assignment of item i . Therefore, $p_{xy} = p_{yx}$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$. Substituting in detailed balance equation, we obtain $\pi(x) = \pi(y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$, implying that the stationary distribution over this chain is uniform. $\square$

Definition 5.11 (Problem reformulation). For each state $x \in \mathcal{A}$, we define energy of this state as $E(x) \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^N v_i x_i$. An alternative goal could be to sample from a Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ such that its invariant distribution is Boltzmann distribution $\mu_\beta \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$ defined as $\mu_\beta(x) \triangleq \frac{1}{Z(\beta)} e^{-\beta E(x)}$ for each $x \in \mathcal{A}$, the partition function $Z(\beta) \triangleq \sum_{x \in \mathcal{A}} e^{-\beta E(x)}$, and β is the inverse temperature.

Definition 5.12 (Glauber dynamics). We define the set of possible next state to transition from a state $x \in \mathcal{A}$, as $\Omega(x, i) \triangleq \{y \in \mathcal{X} : y_j = x_j, j \neq i\}$. Defining $x^{(i)} \in \mathcal{X}$ such that $x_j^{(i)} = x_j$ for $j \neq i$ and $x_i^{(i)} = 1 - x_i$, we observe that

$$\Omega(x, i) \triangleq \{x, x^{(i)}\} \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{A}}(x^{(i)}) + \{x\} \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{A}}(x^{(i)}).$$

Consider a Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ with $X_0 = 0 \in \mathcal{A}$ that evolves as follows.

- (a) At each time $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, choose an $I_n : \Omega \rightarrow [N]$ i.i.d. uniform.
- (b) Let $X_n = x$ and $I_n = i$, then move from the current state x to the new state y according to probability $\pi^{x,i}(y)$ defined as

$$\pi^{x,i}(y) \triangleq \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(\Omega(x, i))} \mathbb{1}_{\{y \in \Omega(x, i)\}}.$$

Remark 12. We can define the energy difference

$$\Delta_i E(x) \triangleq E(x^{(i)}) - E(x) = v_i(1 - 2x_i).$$

For the desired invariant Boltzmann distribution $\pi = \mu_\beta \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$, the transition probabilities are

$$\pi^{x,i}(y) = \frac{\mu_\beta(y)}{\mu_\beta(\Omega(x, i))} \mathbb{1}_{\{y \in \Omega(x, i)\}} = \frac{e^{-\beta \sum_{i=1}^N v_i y_i}}{\sum_{z \in \Omega(x, i)} e^{-\beta \sum_{i=1}^N v_i z_i}} \mathbb{1}_{\{y \in \Omega(x, i)\}} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta \Delta_i E(x)}}, & y = x^{(i)} \in \mathcal{A}, \\ \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\beta \Delta_i E(x)}}, & y = x, x^{(i)} \in \mathcal{A}, \\ 1, & y = x, x^{(i)} \notin \mathcal{A}. \end{cases}$$

From Proposition 5.2, it follows that $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}^+}$ is a time homogeneous irreducible, aperiodic, and positive recurrent Markov chain which is reversible at stationarity with invariant Boltzmann distribution $\mu_\beta \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$.

5.3 Travelling Salesman Problem (TSP)

Definition 5.13 (Travelling Salesman Problem). Consider a totally connected graph $G = ([N], E, d)$ with N number of nodes, and set of edges $E = [N] \times [N]$ and distance function $d : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ defined for each pair $(v, w) \in E$. We define the set of permutations $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \left\{ \rho \in [N]^{[N]} : \rho \text{ is a bijection} \right\}$ such that $((\rho_1, \rho_2), \dots, (\rho_N, \rho_1))$ is a cycle and $E(\rho) \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^N d(\rho_i, \rho_{i+1}) + d(\rho_N, \rho_1)$ is the minimum among all permutations.

Definition 5.14 (Problem reformulation). We observe that the state space of all permutations is denoted by $\mathcal{X} \triangleq \left\{ \rho \in [N]^{[N]} : \rho \text{ bijection} \right\}$. For each state $\rho \in \mathcal{X}$, we define energy of this state as

$$E(\rho) \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} d(\rho_i, \rho_{i+1}) + d(\rho_N, \rho_1).$$

An alternative goal could be to sample from a Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ such that its invariant distribution is Boltzmann distribution $\mu_\beta \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$ defined as $\mu_\beta(\rho) \triangleq \frac{1}{Z(\beta)} e^{-\beta E(\rho)}$ where partition function $Z(\beta) \triangleq \sum_{\rho \in \mathcal{X}} e^{-\beta E(\rho)}$ and β is the inverse temperature.

Definition 5.15. We can define Glauber dynamics for this system as follows. We define $N + 1 = 1$ and for each $i \in [N]$ and state $\rho \in \mathcal{X}$ we define the set of permutations differing with ρ only at locations in $\{i, i + 1\}$ as

$$\Omega(\rho, i) \triangleq \left\{ \sigma \in \mathcal{X} : \sigma_j = \rho_j, j \notin \{i, i + 1\} \right\}.$$

Define an *i.i.d.* uniform random sequence $I : \Omega \rightarrow [N]^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$, and a Markov chain $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ that evolves as follows. At each time $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, let $X_n = \rho$ and $I_n = i$, then move from the current permutation ρ to the new permutation σ according to $\pi^{\rho, i}(\sigma)$ defined as

$$\pi^{\rho, i}(\sigma) \triangleq \frac{\pi(\sigma)}{\pi(\Omega(\rho, i))} \mathbb{1}_{\{\sigma \in \Omega(\rho, i)\}}.$$

Remark 13. We observe that $\Omega(\rho, i) = \{\rho, (\rho_1, \dots, \rho_{i+1}, \rho_i, \dots, \rho_N)\}$. We define the energy difference

$$\Delta_i E(\rho) \triangleq d(\rho_{i-1}, \rho_{i+1}) - d(\rho_{i-1}, \rho_i) + d(\rho_{i+1}, \rho_i) - d(\rho_i, \rho_{i+1}) + d(\rho_i, \rho_{i+2}) - d(\rho_{i+1}, \rho_{i+2}).$$

For the desired invariant Boltzmann distribution $\pi = \mu_\beta \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{A})$, the transition probabilities are

$$\pi^{\rho, i}(\sigma) = \frac{\mu_\beta(\sigma)}{\mu_\beta(\Omega(\rho, i))} \mathbb{1}_{\{\sigma \in \Omega(\rho, i)\}} = \frac{e^{-\beta \sum_{i=1}^N d(\sigma_i, \sigma_{i+1})}}{\sum_{\sigma \in \Omega(\rho, i)} e^{-\beta \sum_{i=1}^N d(\sigma_i, \sigma_{i+1})}} \mathbb{1}_{\{\sigma \in \Omega(\rho, i)\}} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\beta \Delta_i E(\rho)}}, & \sigma = \rho, \\ \frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta \Delta_i E(\rho)}}, & \sigma \in \Omega(\rho, i) \setminus \{\rho\}. \end{cases}$$

From Proposition 5.2, it follows that $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}^{\mathbb{Z}_+}$ is a time homogeneous irreducible, aperiodic, and positive recurrent Markov chain which is reversible at stationarity with invariant Boltzmann distribution $\mu_\beta \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{X})$.