

# Optimization and Simulation

## Markov Chain Monte Carlo Methods

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# Outline

- 1 Motivation
- 2 Introduction to Markov chains
- 3 Stationary distributions
- 4 Metropolis-Hastings
- 5 Gibbs sampling
- 6 Simulated annealing

# The knapsack problem

- Patricia prepares a hike in the mountain.
- She has a knapsack with capacity  $W$ kg.
- She considers carrying a list of  $n$  items.
- Each item has a utility  $u_i$  and a weight  $w_i$ .
- What items should she take to maximize the total utility, while fitting in the knapsack?



# Knapsack problem



## Simulation

- Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be the set of all possible configurations ( $2^n$ ).
- Define a probability distribution:

$$P(x) = \frac{U(x)}{\sum_{y \in \mathcal{X}} U(y)}$$

- Question: how to draw from this discrete random variable?

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# Markov Chains



Andrey Markov, 1856–1922, Russian mathematician.

# Markov Chains: glossary

## Stochastic process

$X_t$ ,  $t = 0, 1, \dots$ , collection of r.v. with same support, or *states space*  $\{1, \dots, i, \dots, J\}$ .

## Markov process: (short memory)

$$\Pr(X_t = i | X_0, \dots, X_{t-1}) = \Pr(X_t = i | X_{t-1})$$

## Homogeneous Markov process

$$\Pr(X_t = j | X_{t-1} = i) = \Pr(X_{t+k} = j | X_{t-1+k} = i) = P_{ij} \quad \forall t \geq 1, k \geq 0.$$

# Markov Chains

## Transition matrix

$$P \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times J}.$$

Properties:

$$\sum_{j=1}^J P_{ij} = 1, \quad i = 1, \dots, J, \quad P_{ij} \geq 0, \quad \forall i, j,$$

## Ergodicity

- If state  $j$  can be reached from state  $i$  with non zero probability, and  $i$  from  $j$ , we say that  $i$  *communicates* with  $j$ .
- Two states that communicate belong to the same *class*.
- A Markov chain is *irreducible* or *ergodic* if it contains only one class.
- With an ergodic chain, it is possible to go to every state from any state.

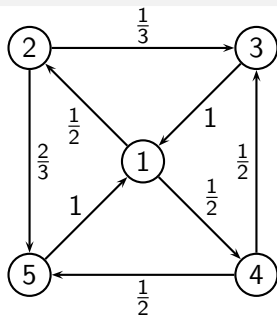


# Markov Chains

## Aperiodic

- $P_{ij}^t$  is the probability that the process reaches state  $j$  from  $i$  after  $t$  steps.
- Consider all  $t$  such that  $P_{ii}^t > 0$ . The largest common divisor  $d$  is called the *period* of state  $i$ .
- A state with period 1 is *aperiodic*.
- If  $P_{ii} > 0$ , state  $i$  is aperiodic.
- The period is the same for all states in the same class.
- Therefore, if the chain is irreducible, if one state is aperiodic, they all are.

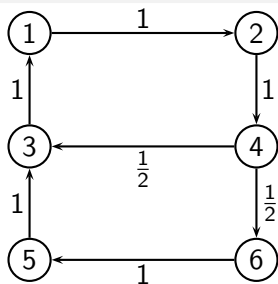
## A periodic chain



$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & \frac{2}{3} \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad d = 3.$$

$$P_{ii}^t > 0 \text{ for } t = 3, 6, 9, 12, 15 \dots$$

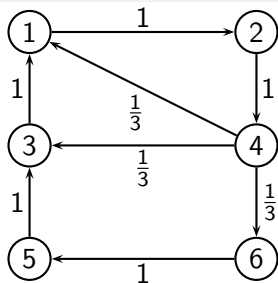
## Another periodic chain



$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad d = 2.$$

$$P_{ii}^t > 0 \text{ for } t = 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, \dots$$

## An aperiodic chain



$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad d = 1.$$

$P_{ii}^t > 0$  for  $t = 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 \dots$

# Aperiodic chain

## An equivalent definition

An irreducible Markov chain is said to be aperiodic if for some  $t \geq 0$  and some state  $i$ , we have

$$\Pr(X_t = i | X_0 = i) > 0$$

and

$$\Pr(X_{t+1} = i | X_0 = i) > 0$$

# Intuition

## Oscillation

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The chain will not “converge” to something stable.

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# Markov Chains

## Stationary probabilities

$$\Pr(j) = \sum_{i=1}^J \Pr(j|i) \Pr(i)$$

- Stationary probabilities: unique solution of the system

$$\pi_j = \sum_{i=1}^J P_{ij} \pi_i, \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, J. \quad (1)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^J \pi_j = 1.$$

- Solution exists for any irreducible chain.



## Example

- A machine can be in 4 states with respect to wear
  - perfect condition,
  - partially damaged,
  - seriously damaged,
  - completely useless.
- The degradation process can be modeled by an irreducible aperiodic homogeneous Markov process, with the following transition matrix:

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0.95 & 0.04 & 0.01 & 0.0 \\ 0.0 & 0.90 & 0.05 & 0.05 \\ 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.80 & 0.20 \\ 1.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Example

Stationary distribution:  $\left(\frac{5}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{32}, \frac{1}{32}\right)$

$$\left(\frac{5}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{32}, \frac{1}{32}\right) \begin{pmatrix} 0.95 & 0.04 & 0.01 & 0.0 \\ 0.0 & 0.90 & 0.05 & 0.05 \\ 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.80 & 0.20 \\ 1.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \end{pmatrix} = \left(\frac{5}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{32}, \frac{1}{32}\right)$$

- Machine in perfect condition 5 days out of 8, in average.
- Repair occurs in average every 32 days

From now on: Markov process = irreducible aperiodic homogeneous Markov process

# Markov Chains

## Detailed balance equations

Consider the following system of equations:

$$x_i P_{ij} = x_j P_{ji}, \quad i \neq j, \quad \sum_{i=1}^J x_i = 1 \quad (2)$$

We sum over  $i$ :

$$\sum_{i=1}^J x_i P_{ij} = x_j \sum_{i=1}^J P_{ji} = x_j.$$

If (2) has a solution, it is also a solution of (1). As  $\pi$  is the unique solution of (1) then  $x = \pi$ .

$$\pi_i P_{ij} = \pi_j P_{ji}, \quad i \neq j$$

The chain is said *time reversible*

# Stationary distributions

## Property of irreducible aperiodic Markov chains

$$\pi_j = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(X_t = j) \quad j = 1, \dots, J.$$

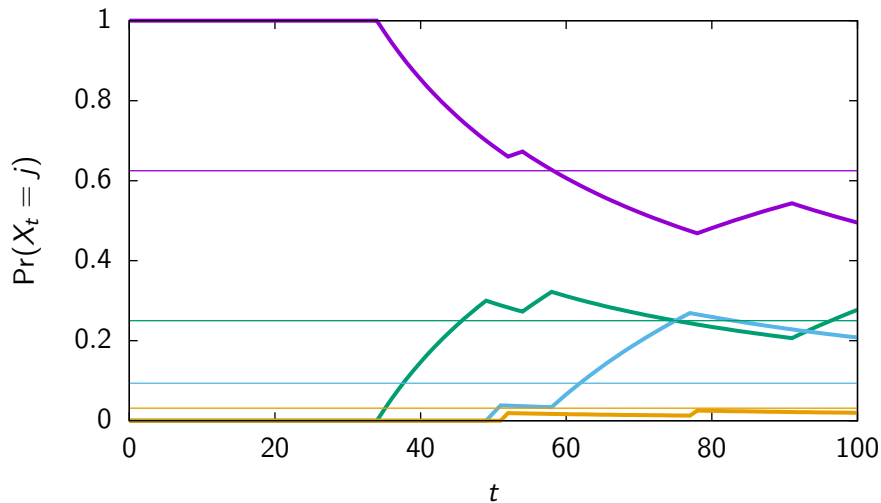
## Ergodicity

- Let  $f$  be any function on the state space.
- Then, with probability 1,

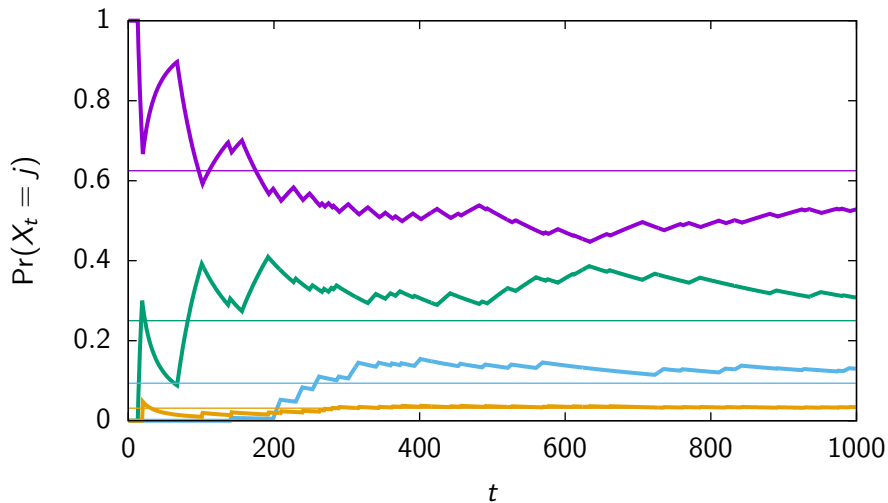
$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T f(X_t) = \sum_{j=1}^J \pi_j f(j).$$

- Computing the expectation of a function of the stationary states is the same as to take the average of the values along a trajectory of the process.

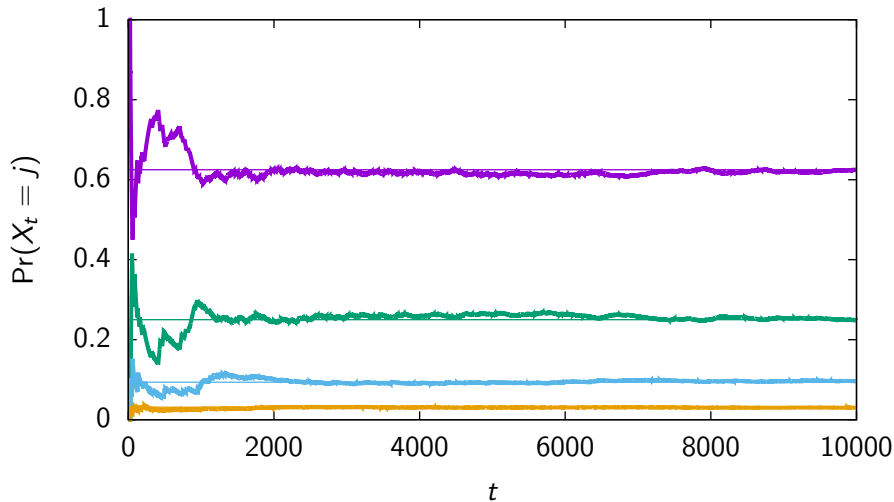
Example:  $T = 100$



Example:  $T = 1000$



Example:  $T = 10000$



## A periodic example

It does not work for periodic chains

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Pr(X_t = 1) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t \text{ is odd} \\ 0 & \text{if } t \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(X_t = 1) \text{ does not exist}$$

Stationary distribution

$$\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix}$$



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# Simulation

## Motivation

- Sample from very large discrete sets (e.g. the knapsack).
- Full enumeration of the set is infeasible.

## Procedure

- We want to simulate a r.v.  $X$  with pmf

$$\Pr(X = j) = p_j.$$

- We generate a Markov process with limiting probabilities  $p_j$  (how?)
- We simulate the evolution of the process.

$$p_j = \pi_j = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(X_t = j) \quad j = 1, \dots, J.$$

# Simulation

Assume that we are interested in simulating

$$E[f(X)] = \sum_{j=1}^J f(j)p_j.$$

We use ergodicity to estimate it with

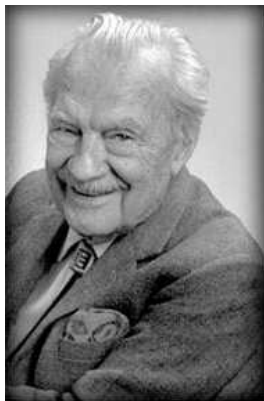
$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T f(X_t).$$

Drop early states (see above example)

Better estimate:

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1+k}^{T+k} f(X_t).$$

# Metropolis-Hastings



Nicholas Metropolis  
1915 – 1999



W. Keith Hastings  
1930 –

# Metropolis-Hastings

## Context

- Let  $b_j, j = 1, \dots, J$  be positive numbers.
- Let  $B = \sum_j b_j$ . If  $J$  is huge,  $B$  cannot be computed.
- Let  $\pi_j = b_j/B$ .
- We want to simulate a r.v. with pmf  $\pi_j$ .

## Explore the set

- Consider a Markov process on  $\{1, \dots, J\}$  with transition probability  $Q$ .
- Designed to explore the space  $\{1, \dots, J\}$  efficiently
- Not too fast (and miss important points to sample)
- Not too slowly (and take forever to reach important points)

# Metropolis-Hastings

## Define another Markov process

- Based on the exact same states  $\{1, \dots, J\}$  as the previous ones
- Assume the process is in state  $i$ , that is  $X_t = i$ .
- Simulate the (candidate) next state  $j$  according to  $Q$ .
- Define

$$X_{t+1} = \begin{cases} j & \text{with probability } \alpha_{ij} \\ i & \text{with probability } 1 - \alpha_{ij} \end{cases}$$

# Metropolis-Hastings

## Transition probability $P$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{ij} &= Q_{ij}\alpha_{ij} && \text{if } i \neq j \\
 P_{ii} &= Q_{ii}\alpha_{ii} + \sum_{\ell \neq i} Q_{i\ell}(1 - \alpha_{i\ell}) && \text{otherwise}
 \end{aligned}$$

## Must verify the property

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 = \sum_j P_{ij} &= P_{ii} + \sum_{j \neq i} P_{ij} \\
 &= Q_{ii}\alpha_{ii} + \sum_{\ell \neq i} Q_{i\ell}(1 - \alpha_{i\ell}) + \sum_{j \neq i} Q_{ij}\alpha_{ij} \\
 &= Q_{ii}\alpha_{ii} + \sum_{\ell \neq i} Q_{i\ell} - \sum_{\ell \neq i} Q_{i\ell}\alpha_{i\ell} + \sum_{j \neq i} Q_{ij}\alpha_{ij} \\
 &= Q_{ii}\alpha_{ii} + \sum_{\ell \neq i} Q_{i\ell}
 \end{aligned}$$

As  $\sum_j Q_{ij} = 1$ , we have  $\alpha_{ii} = 1$ .

# Metropolis-Hastings

## Time reversibility

$$\pi_i P_{ij} = \pi_j P_{ji}, \quad i \neq j$$

that is

$$\pi_i Q_{ij} \alpha_{ij} = \pi_j Q_{ji} \alpha_{ji}, \quad i \neq j$$

It is satisfied if

$$\alpha_{ij} = \frac{\pi_j Q_{ji}}{\pi_i Q_{ij}} \text{ and } \alpha_{ji} = 1$$

or

$$\frac{\pi_i Q_{ij}}{\pi_j Q_{ji}} = \alpha_{ji} \text{ and } \alpha_{ij} = 1$$



# Metropolis-Hastings

As  $\alpha_{ij}$  is a probability

$$\alpha_{ij} = \min \left( \frac{\pi_j Q_{ji}}{\pi_i Q_{ij}}, 1 \right)$$

## Simplification

Remember:  $\pi_j = b_j/B$ . Therefore

$$\alpha_{ij} = \min \left( \frac{b_j B Q_{ji}}{b_i B Q_{ij}}, 1 \right) = \min \left( \frac{b_j Q_{ji}}{b_i Q_{ij}}, 1 \right)$$

The normalization constant  $B$  does not play a role in the computation of  $\alpha_{ij}$ .

# Metropolis-Hastings

## In summary

- Given  $Q$  and  $b_j$
- defining  $\alpha$  as above
- creates a Markov process characterized by  $P$
- with stationary distribution  $\pi$ .

# Metropolis-Hastings

## Algorithm

- 1 Choose a Markov process characterized by  $Q$ .
- 2 Initialize the chain with a state  $i$ :  $t = 0$ ,  $X_0 = i$ .
- 3 Simulate the (candidate) next state  $j$  based on  $Q$ .
- 4 Let  $r$  be a draw from  $U[0, 1[$ .
- 5 Compare  $r$  with  $\alpha_{ij} = \min\left(\frac{b_j Q_{ji}}{b_i Q_{ij}}, 1\right)$ . If

$$r < \frac{b_j Q_{ji}}{b_i Q_{ij}}$$

then  $X_{t+1} = j$ , else  $X_{t+1} = i$ .

- 6 Increase  $t$  by one.
- 7 Goto step 3.

# Example

$$b = (20, 8, 3, 1)$$

$$\pi = \left( \frac{5}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{32}, \frac{1}{32} \right)$$

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix}$$

Run MH for 10000 iterations. Collect statistics after 1000.

- Accept: [2488, 1532, 801, 283]
- Reject: [0, 952, 1705, 2239]
- Simulated: [0.627, 0.250, 0.095, 0.028]
- Target: [0.625, 0.250, 0.09375, 0.03125]

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# Gibbs sampling

## Motivation

- Draw from multivariate distributions.
- Main difficulty: deal with correlations.

## Metropolis-Hastings

- Let  $X = (X^1, X^2, \dots, X^n)$  be a random vector with pmf (or pdf)  $p(x)$ .
- Assume we can draw from the marginals:

$$\Pr(X^i | X^j = x^j, j \neq i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

- Markov process. Assume current state is  $x$ .
  - Draw randomly (equal probability) a coordinate  $i$ .
  - Draw  $r$  from the  $i$ th marginal.
  - New state:  $y = (x^1, \dots, x^{i-1}, r, x^{i+1}, \dots, x^n)$ .

# Gibbs sampling

## Transition probability

$$Q_{xy} = \frac{1}{n} \Pr(X^i = r | X^j = x^j, j \neq i) = \frac{p(y)}{n \Pr(X^j = x^j, j \neq i)}$$

- The denominator is independent of  $X^i$ .
- So  $Q_{xy}$  is proportional to  $p(y)$ .

## Metropolis-Hastings

$$\alpha_{xy} = \min \left( \frac{p(y)Q_{yx}}{p(x)Q_{xy}}, 1 \right) = \min \left( \frac{p(y)p(x)}{p(x)p(y)}, 1 \right) = 1$$

The candidate state is **always** accepted.

## Example: bivariate normal distribution

$$\begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \end{pmatrix} \sim N \left( \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_X^2 & \rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y \\ \rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y & \sigma_Y^2 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

Marginal distribution:

$$Y|(X=x) \sim N \left( \mu_Y + \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X} \rho(x - \mu_X), (1 - \rho^2)\sigma_Y^2 \right)$$

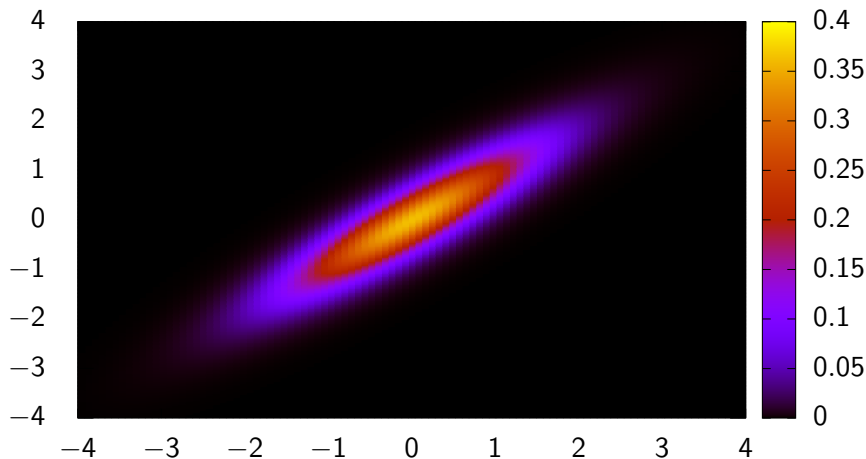
Apply Gibbs sampling to draw from:

$$N \left( \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.9 \\ 0.9 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

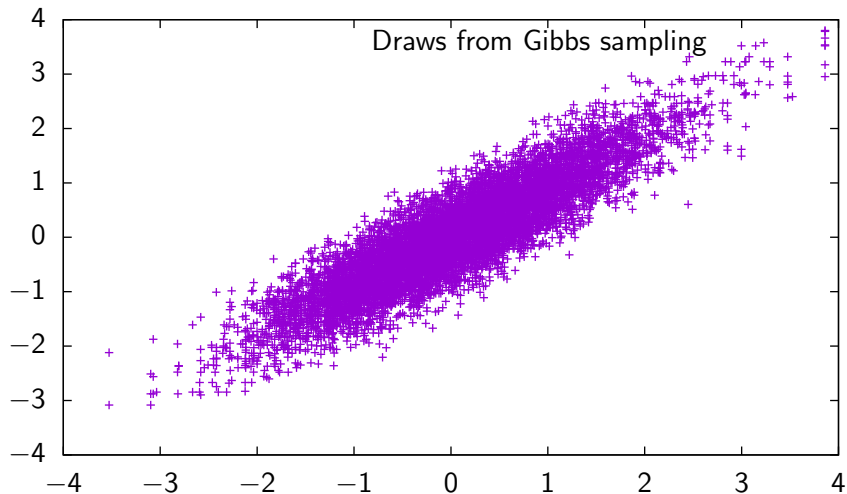
Note: just for illustration. Should use Cholesky factor.



## Example: pdf



# Example: draws from Gibbs sampling



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# Simulated annealing

## Combinatorial optimization

$$\min_{x \in \mathcal{F}} f(x)$$

where the feasible set  $\mathcal{F}$  is a large finite set of vectors.

## Set of optimal solutions

$$\mathcal{X}^* = \{x \in \mathcal{F} \mid f(x) \leq f(y), \forall y \in \mathcal{F}\} \text{ and } f(x^*) = f^*, \forall x^* \in \mathcal{X}^*.$$

## Probability mass function on $\mathcal{F}$

$$p_\lambda(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda f(x)}}{\sum_{y \in \mathcal{F}} e^{-\lambda f(y)}}, \lambda > 0.$$

# Simulated annealing

$$p_\lambda(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda f(x)}}{\sum_{y \in \mathcal{F}} e^{-\lambda f(y)}}$$

- Equivalently

$$p_\lambda(x) = \frac{e^{\lambda(f^* - f(x))}}{\sum_{y \in \mathcal{F}} e^{\lambda(f^* - f(y))}}$$

- As  $f^* - f(x) \leq 0$ , when  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} p_\lambda(x) = \frac{\delta(x \in \mathcal{X}^*)}{|\mathcal{X}^*|},$$

where

$$\delta(x \in \mathcal{X}^*) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{X}^* \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

# Example

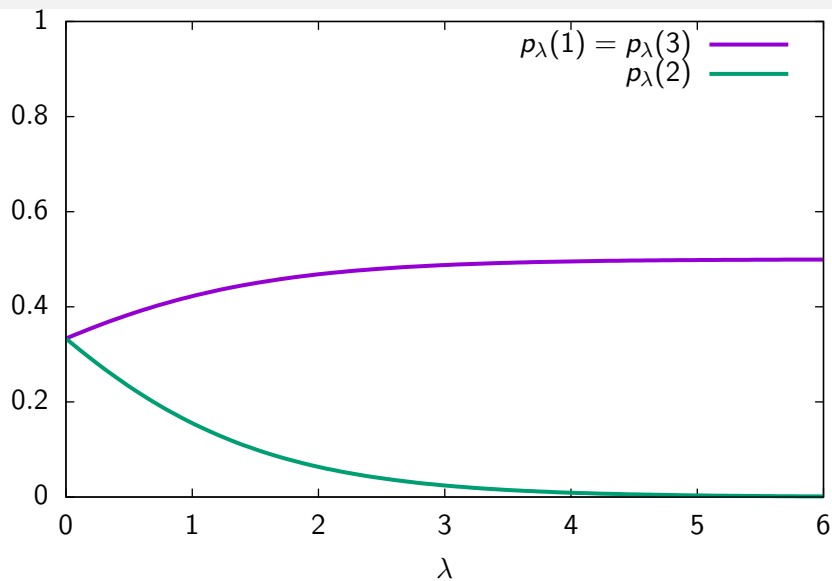
$$\mathcal{F} = \{1, 2, 3\} \quad f(\mathcal{F}) = \{0, 1, 0\}$$

$$p_\lambda(1) = \frac{1}{2 + e^{-\lambda}}$$

$$p_\lambda(2) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}}{2 + e^{-\lambda}}$$

$$p_\lambda(3) = \frac{1}{2 + e^{-\lambda}}$$

## Example



# Simulated annealing

- If  $\lambda$  is large,
- we generate a Markov chain with stationary distribution  $p_\lambda(x)$ .
- The mass is concentrated on optimal solutions.
- As the normalizing constant is not needed, only  $e^{\lambda(f^* - f(x))}$  is used.
- Construction of the Markov process through the concept of *neighborhood*.
- A *neighbor*  $y$  of  $x$  is obtained by simple modifications of  $x$ .
- The Markov process will proceed from neighbors to neighbors.
- The neighborhood structure must be designed such that the chain is irreducible, that is the whole space  $\mathcal{F}$  must be covered.
- It must be designed also such that the size of the neighborhood is reasonably small.



# Neighborhood

## Metropolis-Hastings

- Denote  $N(x)$  the set of neighbors of  $x$ .
- Define a Markov process where the next state is a randomly drawn neighbor.
- Transition probability:

$$Q_{xy} = \frac{1}{|N(x)|}$$

- Metropolis Hastings:

$$\alpha_{xy} = \min \left( \frac{p(y)Q_{yx}}{p(x)Q_{xy}}, 1 \right) = \min \left( \frac{e^{-\lambda f(y)}|N(x)|}{e^{-\lambda f(x)}|N(y)|}, 1 \right)$$

# Neighborhood

## Notes

- The neighborhood structure can always be arranged so that each vector has the same number of neighbors. In this case,

$$\alpha_{xy} = \min \left( \frac{e^{-\lambda f(y)}}{e^{-\lambda f(x)}}, 1 \right)$$

- If  $y$  is better than  $x$ , the next state is automatically accepted.
- Otherwise, it is accepted with a probability that depends on  $\lambda$ .
- If  $\lambda$  is high, the probability is small.
- When  $\lambda$  is small, it is easy to escape from local optima.

# Heuristic

## Issue

- The number of iterations needed to reach a stationary state and draw an optimal solution may exceed the number of feasible solutions in the set.
- The acceptance probability is very small.
- Therefore, a complete enumeration works better.
- The method is used as a heuristic.