Notes on Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

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1 Notations

- $q = (q_1, \ldots, q_n)$: generalized coordinates
- $\dot{q} = (\dot{q}_1, \dots, \dot{q}_n)$: generalized velocity
- $\mathcal{L}(t,q,\dot{q}) = T V = \frac{1}{2}M \|\dot{q}\|^2 V(q)$: Lagrangian, where M is the mass matrix, T is kinetic energy and V is potential energy
- p: generalized momentum, i.e., $p = M \cdot \dot{q}$

2 Euler-Lagrange Equation

Generalized version: given a funtion y(x) and its derivative: y'(x) and f(x, y, y'). Define the functional:

$$F[\mathbf{y}] = \int_{a}^{b} f(x, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}') dx \tag{1}$$

As the topic in calculus of variation, we want the functional F[y] to obtain its local min for some function y. Perturbate y(x) with $y(x) + \varepsilon u(x)$ for any function u and $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ with small enough $|\varepsilon|$, and put

$$g(\varepsilon) = \int_a^b f(x, y + \varepsilon u, (y + \varepsilon u)') dx$$

To make F[y] obtaining its local min for some y satisfying the initial conditions: y(a) and y(b) being fixed, i.e., u(a) = u(b) = 0, it is equivalent to require g'(0) = 0, hence:

$$\begin{split} g'(0) &= \frac{d}{d\varepsilon} \Big(\int_a^b f(x, \boldsymbol{y} + \varepsilon \boldsymbol{u}, (\boldsymbol{y} + \varepsilon \boldsymbol{u})') dx \Big) \\ &= \int_a^b \Big(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{y}} \boldsymbol{u} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{y}'} \boldsymbol{u}' \Big) dx \quad \text{By total derivative} \\ &= \int_a^b \boldsymbol{u} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{y}} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{y}'} \boldsymbol{u}|_a^b - \int_a^b \boldsymbol{u} \frac{d}{dx} \Big(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{y}'} \Big) dx \quad \text{integration by parts} \\ &= \int_a^b \boldsymbol{u} \Big(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{y}} - \frac{d}{dx} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{y}'} \Big) dx = 0 \quad \text{By initial condition: } \boldsymbol{u}(a) = \boldsymbol{u}(b) = 0 \end{split}$$

By the fundamental lemma of calculus of variation, since u(x) is arbitrary, hence we must have:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{u}} - \frac{d}{dx} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{u}'} = 0 \tag{2}$$

Equation (2) is called the **Euler-Lagrangian Equation** in calculus of variation, and for y satisfying equation (2) is a sufficient condition for F[y] to have its local min.

In a dynamical system, with Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}(t, \boldsymbol{q}, \dot{\boldsymbol{q}})$, we replace f with \mathcal{L} , \boldsymbol{y} with generalized coordinates \boldsymbol{q} , and x with time t, we get the **Lagrangian Equation** for dynamical system:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{q}} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{q}}} = 0 \tag{3}$$

3 Legendre Transform

If $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex, then $\forall t \in X$, then $f(t) \geq pt + b$, where p = f'(x) and b = f(x) - px. This implies that:

$$pt - f(t) \le px - f(x), \forall t \in \mathcal{X}$$

Then the one-dimensional Legendre transform is defined as:

$$f^*(p) = px - f(x) = \sup\{pt - f(t) : t \in \mathcal{X}\}\$$

If $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, then the generalized Legendre tranform is defined as:

$$f^*(\boldsymbol{p}) = \boldsymbol{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} - f(\boldsymbol{x})$$

where $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$ representing the inner product.

Note that f^* is also a convex function, since given a $t \in \mathcal{X}$, the map $p \mapsto pt - f(t)$ is linear, hence the supremum of the family of linear maps: $\{p \mapsto pt - f(t)\}_{t \in \mathcal{X}}$ gives an envolope, which is f^* . On the other hand, one can show:

$$f(x) = \sup\{px - f^*(p) : p \in \mathcal{X}^*\}$$

which means that f(x) is the envolope of the family of linear maps: $\{x \mapsto px - f^*(p)\}_{p \in \mathcal{X}^*}$.

4 Hamiltonian Equation

Hamiltonian is the Legendre transform of Lagrangian, hence we have:

$$\mathcal{H}(q, p) = p \cdot \dot{q} - \mathcal{L}(t, q, \dot{q}) \tag{4}$$

Since $\mathbf{p} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{q}} = 2T$, so $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p}) = 2T - (T - V) = T + V$ and hence Hamiltonian can be interpreted as the total energy of a dynamical system.

We can derive Hamiltonian equations from Lagrange equation. Note that:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\boldsymbol{q}}} = \boldsymbol{M} \cdot \dot{\boldsymbol{q}} = \boldsymbol{p} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\boldsymbol{q}}} = \dot{\boldsymbol{p}}$$

so with (4), we must have:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \mathbf{p}} = \dot{\mathbf{q}} \tag{5}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}} = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q} = -\dot{\boldsymbol{p}} \tag{6}$$

(5) and (6) are called **Hamiltonian equations**

Or equivalently, we can take the total differentiation on both sides of (4):

$$d\mathcal{H} = d(\mathbf{p} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{q}}) - d\mathcal{L}(t, \mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}})$$

$$= \dot{\mathbf{q}} \cdot d\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{p} \cdot d\dot{\mathbf{q}} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{q}} d\mathbf{q} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{q}}} d\dot{\mathbf{q}} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial t} dt$$

$$= \dot{\mathbf{q}} \cdot d\mathbf{p} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{q}} d\mathbf{q} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial t} dt$$

$$= \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \mathbf{p}} d\mathbf{p} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \mathbf{q}} d\mathbf{q} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial t} dt$$

Hence we can correspond the coefficients to get (5) and (6).

5 Hamiltonian Monte Carlo