

# The Metropolis Hastings algorithm, Part 1

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See [here](#) for a PDF version of this vignette.

## Prerequisites

You should be familiar with the concept of a [Markov chain](#) and its [stationary distribution](#).

## Introduction

The Metropolis Hastings algorithm is a beautifully simple algorithm for producing samples from distributions that may otherwise be difficult to sample from.

Suppose we want to sample from a distribution  $\pi$ , which we will call the “target distribution”. For simplicity we assume that  $\pi$  is a one-dimensional distribution on the real line, although it is easy to extend to more than one dimension (see below).

The M-H algorithm works by simulating a Markov Chain, whose stationary distribution is  $\pi$ . This means that, in the long run, the samples from the Markov chain look like the samples from  $\pi$ . As we will see, the algorithm is incredibly simple and flexible. Its main limitation is that, for difficult problems, “in the long run” may mean after a *very* long time. However, for simple problems the algorithm can work well.

## The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

### The transition kernel

To implement the M-H algorithm, the user (you!) must provide a “transition kernel”,  $Q$ . A transition kernel is simply a way of moving, randomly, to a new position in space ( $y$  say), given a current position ( $x$  say). That is,  $Q$  is a distribution on  $y$  given  $x$ , and we will write it  $Q(y | x)$ . In many applications,  $Q$  will be a continuous distribution, in which case  $Q(y | x)$  will be a density on  $y$ , and so  $\int Q(y | x) dy = 1$  (for all  $x$ ).

For example, a very simple way to generate a new position  $y$  from a current position  $x$  is to add an  $N(0, 1)$  random number to  $x$ . That is, set  $y = x + N(0, 1)$ , or  $y | x \sim N(x, 1)$ . So we have

$$Q(y | x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \times \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2}(y - x)^2 \right].$$

This kind of transition kernel, which adds some random number to the current position  $x$  to obtain  $y$ , is often used in practice and is called a “random walk” transition kernel.

Because of the role  $Q$  plays in the M-H algorithm (see below), it is also sometimes called the “proposal distribution”. And the example given above would be called a “random walk proposal”.

## The algorithm

The M-H algorithm for sampling from a target distribution  $\pi$ , using transition kernel  $Q$ , consists of the following steps:

- Initialize the Markov chain,  $X_1 = x_1$ .
- For  $t = 1, 2, \dots$ 
  - Sample  $y$  from  $Q(y | x_t)$ . Think of  $y$  as a “proposed” value for  $x_{t+1}$ .
  - Compute  $A = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(y)Q(x_t|y)}{\pi(x_t)Q(y|x_t)} \right\}$ .  $A$  is often called the “acceptance probability”.
  - With probability  $A$ , “accept” the proposed value, and set  $x_{t+1} = y$ . Otherwise, set  $x_{t+1} = x_t$ .

## The Metropolis algorithm

Notice that the example random walk proposal  $Q$  given above satisfies  $Q(y | x) = Q(x | y)$  for all  $x, y$ . Any proposal that satisfies this is called “symmetric”. When  $Q$  is symmetric, the formula for  $A$  in the M-H algorithm simplifies to

$$A = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x_t)} \right\}.$$

This special case of the algorithm, with  $Q$  symmetric, was first presented by Metropolis et al (1953), and for this reason it is sometimes called the “Metropolis algorithm”.

In 1970, Hastings presented the more general version — now known as the M-H algorithm — which allows that  $Q$  may be asymmetric. Specifically, Hastings modified the acceptance probability by introducing the term  $Q(x_t | y) / Q(y | x_t)$ . This ratio is sometimes called the “Hastings ratio”.

## Toy example

To help understand the M-H algorithm we now do a simple example: we implement the algorithm to sample from an exponential distribution with  $\lambda = 1$ :

$$\pi(x) = e^{-x}, \quad x \geq 0.$$

(Of course it would be much easier to sample from an exponential distribution in other ways; we are just using this to illustrate the algorithm.)

Remember that  $\pi$  is called the “target” distribution, so we call our function to compute  $\pi$  “target”:

```
target <- function (x)
  ifelse(x < 0, 0, exp(-x))
```

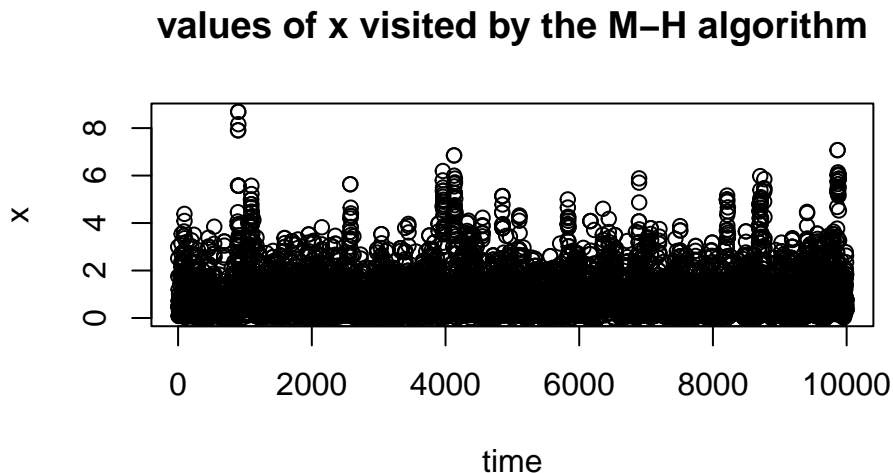
Now we implement the M-H algorithm using the simple normal random walk transition kernel  $Q$  mentioned above. Since this  $Q$  is symmetric, the Hastings ratio is 1, and we get the simpler form for the acceptance probability  $A$  in the Metropolis algorithm.

Here is the code:

```
x <- rep(0,10000)
x[1] <- 3
for (i in 2:10000) {
  current_x <- x[i-1]
  proposed_x <- current_x + rnorm(1)
  A <- target(proposed_x)/target(current_x)
  u <- runif(1)
  if (u < A)
    x[i] <- proposed_x
  else
    x[i] <- current_x
}
```

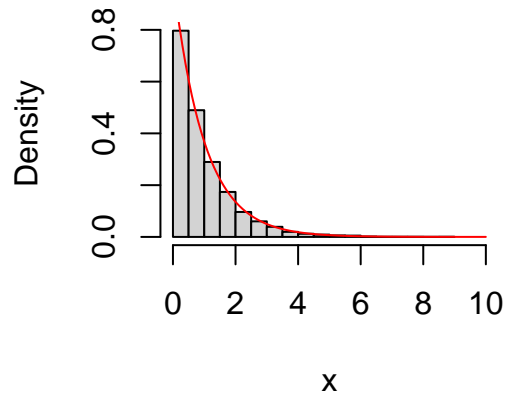
Having run this code, we can plot the locations visited by the Markov chain,  $x$  (sometimes called a “trace plot”).

```
plot(x,xlab = "time",main = "values of x visited by the M-H algorithm")
```



Remember that we designed this algorithm to sample from an exponential distribution. This means that — provided we ran the algorithm for long enough! — the histogram of  $x$  should look like an exponential distribution. Here we check this:

```
hist(x,xlim = c(0,10),probability = TRUE,main = "")
xx <- seq(0,10,length = 100)
lines(xx,target(xx),col = "red")
```



So we see that, indeed, the histogram of the values in  $x$  indeed provides a close fit to an exponential distribution.

### Closing remarks

One particularly useful feature of the M-H algorithm is that it can be implemented even when  $\pi$  is known only up to a constant: that is,  $\pi(x) = cf(x)$  for some known  $f$  with unknown constant  $c$ . This is because the algorithm depends on  $\pi$  only through the ratio:

$$\frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x_t)} = \frac{cf(y)}{cf(x_t)} = \frac{f(y)}{f(x_t)}.$$

This issue arises in Bayesian applications where the posterior distribution is proportional to the prior times the likelihood but the constant of proportionality is often unknown. So the M-H algorithm is particularly useful for sampling from posterior distributions to perform analytically intractable Bayesian calculations.