

S&DS 351: Stochastic Processes - Homework 5

Bryan SebaRaj

Professor Ilias Zadik

March 3, 2025

1. (20 points) Let $G = (V, E)$ be a connected simple graph. Let $d(i)$ denote the degree of vertex i , which varies for different vertices. Let π be the uniform distribution on the vertex set V . Let the base chain be the random walk on G . Apply the Metropolis method to modify the chain so that the stationary distribution is the uniform distribution π . Find the resulting transition matrix.

Denote by $d(i)$ the degree of vertex i and by $N(i)$ the set of its neighbors. Consider the base chain corresponding to the simple random walk on G . Its transition probabilities are given by

$$Q(i, j) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{d(i)} & \text{if } (i, j) \in E, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

See that the goal is to transform the stationary distribution into a uniform distribution π on V , where

$$\pi(i) = \frac{1}{|V|}, \quad \forall i \in V$$

The Metropolis algorithm adjusts the proposal $Q(i, j)$ by accepting moves with probability

$$\alpha(i, j) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(j)Q(j, i)}{\pi(i)Q(i, j)} \right\}$$

For i, j s.t. $(i, j) \in E$,

$$Q(i, j) = \frac{1}{d(i)} \quad \text{and} \quad Q(j, i) = \frac{1}{d(j)}$$

Since $\pi(i) = \pi(j) = \frac{1}{|V|}$ in a uniform distribution, the acceptance probabilities become

$$\alpha(i, j) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{(1/|V|)(1/d(j))}{(1/|V|)(1/d(i))} \right\} = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{d(i)}{d(j)} \right\}$$

In order to ensure that the rows of the resulting transition matrix sum to 1, we define the self-transition probability as

$$P(i, i) = 1 - \sum_{k \in N(i)} P(i, k)$$

Thus,

$$P(i, j) = Q(i, j) \alpha(i, j) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{d(i)} \min \left\{ 1, \frac{d(i)}{d(j)} \right\} & \text{if } (i, j) \in E \\ 1 - \sum_{k \in N(i)} P(i, k) & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In order to confirm that π is the stationary distribution of the modified chain, we can check the detailed balance condition. See that $\forall i, j \in V$ s.t. $(i, j) \in E$,

$$\pi(i)P(i, j) = \frac{1}{|V|} \frac{1}{d(i)} \min \left\{ 1, \frac{d(i)}{d(j)} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad \pi(j)P(j, i) = \frac{1}{|V|} \frac{1}{d(j)} \min \left\{ 1, \frac{d(j)}{d(i)} \right\}$$

Note that

$$\min \left\{ 1, \frac{d(i)}{d(j)} \right\} = \frac{d(i)}{d(j)} \min \left\{ 1, \frac{d(j)}{d(i)} \right\}$$

Therefore,

$$\pi(i)P(i,j) = \frac{1}{|V|} \frac{1}{d(i)} \min \left\{ 1, \frac{d(i)}{d(j)} \right\} = \frac{1}{|V|} \frac{1}{d(j)} \min \left\{ 1, \frac{d(j)}{d(i)} \right\} = \pi(j)P(j,i)$$

Thus, the detailed balance condition, $\pi(i)P(i,j) = \pi(j)P(j,i)$, holds $\forall i,j$ s.t. $(i,j) \in E$ (and this chain is a time-reversible MC). Therefore, π is the stationary distribution.

2. (Metropolis for optimization) Consider the knapsack problem: Given m items with weights w_1, \dots, w_m and values v_1, \dots, v_m , and a total weight budget W , the goal is to find the subset of items with maximal value subject to a weight constraint. This can be formulated as a constrained optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \max \sum_{i=1}^m x_i v_i \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^m x_i w_i \leq W \\ & x_i \in \{0, 1\}. \end{aligned}$$

Here the maximization is over the decision variable $x = (x_1, \dots, x_m) \in \{0, 1\}^m$, where x_i indicates the i th item is included or not. This is a hard problem to solve fast.

- (a) (5 points) Consider the following Markov chain. Starting from the initial state $(0, 0, \dots, 0)$ (an empty knapsack), if the current state is $x = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$, in the next step update it as follows: Choose an item J uniformly at random and replace x_J by $1 - x_J$. If this satisfies the constraint, update x accordingly; otherwise, do not update x . Identify the state space of this Markov chain and its transition rule.

Define the state space as the set of feasible solutions,

$$C = \{x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m) \in \{0, 1\}^m : \sum_{i=1}^m w_i x_i \leq W\}.$$

Trivially, if the state is not within this set, the sum of the weights will exceed the budget. The chain is initialized at the empty knapsack $x = (0, 0, \dots, 0)$. Given the current state $x \in C$, the chain proceeds by

1. Choosing index j uniformly at random from $\{1, 2, \dots, m\}$, i.e. with probability $1/m$
2. Define x^j as the state obtained from x by flipping the j -th coordinate such that

$$x_i^j = \begin{cases} 1 - x_i, & \text{if } i = j \\ x_i, & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

3. If and only if $x^j \in C$, then update x to x^j . Otherwise, do not change x .

Formally, if

$$A(x) = \{j \in \{1, \dots, m\} : x^j \in C\} \quad \text{and} \quad B(x) = \{j \in \{1, \dots, m\} : x^j \notin C\},$$

then the one-step transition probability $P(x, y)$ is given by

$$P(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{m}, & \text{if } y = x^j \text{ for some } j \in A(x) \\ \frac{|B(x)|}{m}, & \text{if } y = x \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- (b) (5 points) Show that the stationary distribution of this chain is the uniform distribution over the feasible set

$$C = \{(x_1, \dots, x_m) : \sum_{i=1}^m x_i w_i \leq W, x_i \in \{0, 1\}\}.$$

Note that if $x, y \in C$, define x and y as two states that only differ in one coordinate, i.e. $y = x^J$ for some J . From the definition of the transition probabilities,

$$P(x, y) = \frac{1}{m} \quad \text{and} \quad P(y, x) = \frac{1}{m}$$

since the move $x \rightarrow y$ (and $y \rightarrow x$) is feasible. Thus, for such neighboring states,

$$\pi(x)P(x, y) = \frac{1}{|C|} \cdot \frac{1}{m} = \frac{1}{|C|} \cdot \frac{1}{m} = \pi(y)P(y, x).$$

For moves in which the chain stays in the same state due to the proposed move being infeasible, the balance is trivial, as $P(x, x) = P(x, x)$. Hence, the detailed balance condition holds for all transitions, and the uniform distribution over C is stationary.

- (c) (5 points) Recall the goal is to maximize the value of the selected items. Fix some parameter $\beta > 0$. Define a distribution π over the feasible set C such that

$$\pi(x) \propto \exp(\beta f(x)), \quad x \in C$$

where $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i v_i$ is the objective function. If we choose a large β , π is close to the uniform distribution over the maximizers. Use the chain in part (a) as the base chain and apply Metropolis method to produce a modified chain with stationary distribution π . Find the transition rule.

Modifying the base chain from part (a) using the Metropolis algorithm, we can start from a current state $x \in C$ and do the following:

1. First, propose a candidate y using an index $j \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ picked uniformly at random and setting $y = x^j$, conditioning on that if $x^j \notin C$, then we set $y = x$.
2. If $y \neq x$, or the proposed state is infeasible, accept the move with probability

$$\alpha(x, y) = \min\left\{1, \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x)}\right\} = \min\left\{1, \exp(\beta(f(y) - f(x)))\right\}$$

otherwise, do not update the state and stay at x .

Thus, for any $x \in C$ and for any $j \in \{1, \dots, m\}$, let x^j denote the state obtained by flipping the j -th coordinate. This yields a modified transition probability

$$P(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{m} \min\left\{1, \exp(\beta(f(y) - f(x)))\right\}, & \text{if } x \neq y, y = x^j \in C \text{ for some } j \\ 1 - \sum_{j: x^j \in C, x^j \neq x} \frac{1}{m} \min\left\{1, \exp(\beta(f(x^j) - f(x)))\right\} - \sum_{j: x^j \notin C} \frac{1}{m}, & \text{if } x = y \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

It is easy to verify that with this transition rule, the detailed balance condition

$$\pi(x)P(x, y) = \pi(y)P(y, x)$$

is satisfied for all $x, y \in C$, and hence $\pi(x) \propto \exp(\beta f(x))$ is the stationary distribution.

Chang Problems

1.26. (15 points) Let π_0 and ρ_0 be probability mass functions on \mathcal{S} , and define $\pi_1 = \pi_0 P$ and $\rho_1 = \rho_0 P$, where P is a probability transition matrix. Show that $\|\pi_1 - \rho_1\| \leq \|\pi_0 - \rho_0\|$. That is, in terms of total variation distance, π_1 and ρ_1 are closer to each other than π_0 and ρ_0 were.

Recall an alternative characterization of the total variation distance,

$$\|\mu - \nu\|_{TV} = \sup_{\|f\|_\infty \leq 1} \left| \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} f(x)(\mu(x) - \nu(x)) \right|$$

where the supremum is taken over all functions $f : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $\|f\|_\infty \leq 1$, or $|f(x)| \leq 1 \ \forall x \in \mathcal{S}$. For any function f with $\|f\|_\infty \leq 1$,

$$\sum_{y \in \mathcal{S}} f(y) (\pi_1(y) - \rho_1(y)) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{S}} f(y) \left(\sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} (\pi_0(x) - \rho_0(x)) P(x, y) \right)$$

Interchanging the sums,

$$\sum_{y \in \mathcal{S}} f(y) (\pi_1(y) - \rho_1(y)) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} (\pi_0(x) - \rho_0(x)) \left(\sum_{y \in \mathcal{S}} f(y) P(x, y) \right)$$

In order to bound the right side, define a function g as

$$g(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{S}} f(y) P(x, y)$$

Since $P(x, \cdot)$ is a probability mass function and $|f(y)| \leq 1$ for all y , it follows that

$$|g(x)| \leq \sum_{y \in \mathcal{S}} |f(y)| P(x, y) \leq \sum_{y \in \mathcal{S}} P(x, y) = 1$$

Therefore, $\|g\|_\infty \leq 1$.

Using the definition of total variation distance for the pair (π_0, ρ_0) ,

$$\left| \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} (\pi_0(x) - \rho_0(x)) g(x) \right| \leq \|\pi_0 - \rho_0\|_{TV}$$

Since this inequality holds for every function f with $\|f\|_\infty \leq 1$ and the corresponding g satisfies $\|g\|_\infty \leq 1$,

$$\sup_{\|f\|_\infty \leq 1} \left| \sum_{y \in \mathcal{S}} f(y) (\pi_1(y) - \rho_1(y)) \right| \leq \|\pi_0 - \rho_0\|_{TV}$$

By the dual representation, the left-hand side is exactly $\|\pi_1 - \rho_1\|_{TV}$. Hence,

$$\|\pi_1 - \rho_1\|_{TV} \leq \|\pi_0 - \rho_0\|_{TV}$$

2.1. (5 points) For a branching process $\{G_t\}$ with $G_0 = 1$, define the probability generating function of G_t to be ψ_t , that is,

$$\psi_t(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{G_t}] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} z^k P(G_t = k).$$

With ψ defined as $\rho = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f(k) \rho^k =: \psi(\rho)$, show that $\psi_1(z) = \psi(z)$, $\psi_2(z) = \psi(\psi(z))$, $\psi_3(z) = \psi(\psi(\psi(z)))$, and so on.

Using a proof by induction:

Base Case: For $t = 1$, the process starts with one individual, i.e., $G_0 = 1$. By definition, the number of offspring produced is distributed with probability generating function

$$\psi(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f(k) z^k$$

Since G_1 is the number of offspring of the initial individual, trivially

$$\psi_1(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{G_1}] = \psi(z)$$

Inductive Step: Assume that for some $t \geq 1$,

$$\psi_t(z) = \underbrace{\psi(\psi(\cdots \psi(z) \cdots))}_{t \text{ times}}$$

Note that each individual in generation t produces offspring independently given the generating function $\psi(z)$. Conditioning on the number of individuals G_t in generation t , the generating function for generation $t + 1$ is given by

$$\psi_{t+1}(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{G_{t+1}}] = \mathbb{E}\left[z^{\sum_{i=1}^{G_t} X_i}\right]$$

where $\{X_i\}$ are i.i.d. random variables representing the number of offspring of each individual in generation t . Since the X_i 's are independent and each has generating function $\psi(z)$,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[z^{\sum_{i=1}^{G_t} X_i}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\prod_{i=1}^{G_t} z^{X_i}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\prod_{i=1}^{G_t} \psi(z)\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\psi(z)^{G_t}\right]$$

But by the definition of the generating function for G_t ,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\psi(z)^{G_t}\right] = \psi_t(\psi(z))$$

Thus,

$$\psi_{t+1}(z) = \psi_t(\psi(z))$$

By the inductive hypothesis, $\psi_t(z)$ is the t -fold composition of ψ , so

$$\psi_{t+1}(z) = \underbrace{\psi(\psi(\cdots \psi(z) \cdots))}_{t+1 \text{ times}}$$

Therefore, by induction, $\forall t \geq 1$,

$$\psi_t(z) = \underbrace{\psi(\psi(\cdots \psi(z) \cdots))}_{t \text{ times}}$$

2.3. (5 points) Consider a branching process with offspring distribution Poisson(2), that is, Poisson with mean 2. Calculate the extinction probability p to four decimal places.

The offspring distribution is Poisson(2), whose probability generating function is given by

$$f(s) = \mathbb{E}[s^X] = \exp(\lambda(s - 1))$$

where $\lambda = 2$. Hence,

$$f(s) = \exp(2(s - 1))$$

By standard branching process theory, the extinction probability p is the smallest nonnegative root of the equation

$$\begin{aligned} p &= f(p) \\ p &= \exp(2(p - 1)) \\ p &= \exp(2p - 2) \\ \ln p &= 2p - 2 \\ 2p - \ln p &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

Since $\lambda > 1$, there must exist a unique solution to this equation within the interval $(0, 1)$. p can be approximated to four decimal places as

$$p \approx 0.2032$$

2.7. Consider an irreducible, time-reversible Markov chain $\{X_t\}$ with $X_t \sim \pi$, where the distribution π is stationary. Let A be a subset of the state space. Let $0 < \alpha < 1$, and define on the same state space a Markov chain $\{Y_t\}$ having probability transition matrix Q satisfying, for $i \neq j$,

$$Q(i, j) = \begin{cases} \alpha P(i, j) & \text{if } i \in A \text{ and } j \notin A, \\ P(i, j) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Define the diagonal elements $Q(i, i)$ so that the rows of Q sum to 1.

(a) (8 points) What is the stationary distribution of $\{Y_t\}$, in terms of π and α ?

Consider the cases of transitions from i to j ,

- Case 1: $i, j \in A$. Then $Q(i, j) = P(i, j)$ (for $i \neq j$). By reversibility of P w.r.t. π ,

$$\pi(i) P(i, j) = \pi(j) P(j, i)$$

In order to satisfy the property of time-reversibility for Q , define

$$\mu(i) P(i, j) = \mu(j) P(j, i)$$

Assuming $\mu(i) = c_A \pi(i)$ for $i \in A$ for some c_A , then

$$c_A \pi(i) P(i, j) = c_A \pi(j) P(j, i)$$

which holds if and only if $\pi(i) P(i, j) = \pi(j) P(j, i)$. Hence any constant factor c_A works for transitions strictly within A .

- Case 2: $i, j \notin A$. The transition is trivially $Q(i, j) = P(i, j)$. A similar argument can be constructed to show that any constant c_B can be used for $\mu(i) = c_B \pi(i)$ for $i \notin A$ to represent these transitions, as long as $\{X_t\}$ is reversible w.r.t. π .

$$c_B \pi(i) P(i, j) = c_B \pi(j) P(j, i) \iff \pi(i) P(i, j) = \pi(j) P(j, i)$$

which trivially must be valid from π 's detailed balance with P .

- Case 3: $i \in A, j \notin A$. See that $Q(i, j) = \alpha P(i, j)$ and $Q(j, i) = P(j, i)$, since $j \notin A$. To show time-reversibility, we need to find a constant c_A and c_B such that

$$\mu(i) \alpha P(i, j) = \mu(j) P(j, i)$$

Since $\mu(i) = c_A \pi(i)$ for $i \in A$ and $\mu(j) = c_B \pi(j)$ for $j \notin A$, the above becomes

$$c_A \pi(i) \alpha P(i, j) = c_B \pi(j) P(j, i)$$

But by the original chain's time-reversibility, $\pi(i) P(i, j) = \pi(j) P(j, i)$. Therefore,

$$c_A \pi(i) \alpha P(i, j) = c_A \alpha \pi(j) P(j, i)$$

So,

$$c_A \alpha = c_B \quad (\text{assuming } \pi(j) P(j, i) \neq 0)$$

- Case 4: $i \notin A, j \in A$. By symmetry, $Q(i, j) = P(i, j)$ and $Q(j, i) = \alpha P(j, i)$. We similarly obtain $c_B = \alpha c_A$.

In order for $\sum_{i \in S} \mu(i) = 1$,

$$\sum_{i \in A} \mu(i) + \sum_{j \notin A} \mu(j) = c_A \sum_{i \in A} \pi(i) + c_B \sum_{j \notin A} \pi(j) = 1$$

Define $s_A = \sum_{i \in A} \pi(i)$ and $s_B = \sum_{j \notin A} \pi(j)$. Note that $s_A + s_B = \sum_{i \in S} \pi(i) = 1$. As such,

$$c_A s_A + c_B s_B = c_A s_A + (\alpha c_A) s_B = c_A [s_A + \alpha s_B] = 1$$

$$c_A s_A + c_B s_B = \frac{c_B}{\alpha} s_A + c_B s_B = c_B \left(\frac{s_A + \alpha s_B}{\alpha} \right) = 1$$

$$c_A = \frac{1}{s_A + \alpha s_B} \quad \text{and} \quad c_B = \frac{\alpha}{s_A + \alpha s_B}$$

Thus the stationary distribution for the chain $\{Y_t\}$ is

$$\mu(i) = \begin{cases} \frac{\pi(i)}{s_A + \alpha s_B}, & i \in A \\ \frac{\alpha \pi(i)}{s_A + \alpha s_B}, & i \notin A \end{cases}$$

Since $s_A = \sum_{i \in A} \pi(i)$ and $s_B = 1 - s_A$,

$$\mu(i) = \begin{cases} \frac{\pi(i)}{\sum_{k \in A} \pi(k) + \alpha \sum_{\ell \notin A} \pi(\ell)}, & i \in A \\ \frac{\alpha \pi(i)}{\sum_{k \in A} \pi(k) + \alpha \sum_{\ell \notin A} \pi(\ell)}, & i \notin A \end{cases}$$

(b) (2 points) Show that the chain $\{Y_t\}$ is also time-reversible.

To prove $\{Y_t\}$ is time-reversible, it suffices to show that μ satisfies the detailed balance condition

$$\mu(i) Q(i, j) = \mu(j) Q(j, i) \quad \text{for all } i, j$$

However, recall that this was already defined,

- If the step is inside A or inside $\mathcal{S} \setminus A$, Q is identical to P and μ is proportional to π . So detailed balance holds by the original reversibility of π and P .
- If the step is across the boundary between A and $\mathcal{S} \setminus A$, the factor α appears on one side but not the other. This mismatch is corrected by the relation $c_B = \alpha c_A$ in μ . Hence, it trivially maintains the equal product form $\mu(i) Q(i, j) = \mu(j) Q(j, i)$ in those cross transitions as well.

Therefore,

$$\mu(i) Q(i, j) = \mu(j) Q(j, i) \quad \forall i, j$$

As such, $\{Y_t\}$ is time-reversible w.r.t. μ .

(c) (5 points) Show by example that the simple relationship of part (1) need not hold if we drop the assumption that X is reversible.

Consider a 3-state Markov chain with states $\{1, 2, 3\}$ and transition matrix P ,

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

This chain is a directed cycle $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1$ with a unique stationary distribution is $\pi = (1/3, 1/3, 1/3)$. However, note that the chain is not reversible. Consider $\pi(1) P(1, 2) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{3} \neq \pi(2) P(2, 1) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 0 = 0$. Let $A = \{1\}$ and $\alpha \in (0, 1)$. Define a modified chain Q by

$$Q(1, 2) = \alpha, \quad Q(1, 3) = 0, \quad Q(1, 1) = 1 - \alpha, \quad \text{and} \quad Q(i, j) = P(i, j) \text{ for } i \neq 1.$$

Using the simple relationship defined above, the stationary distribution of Q should be $\mu(1) = c_A \pi(1)$, $\mu(2) = c_B \pi(2)$, $\mu(3) = c_B \pi(3)$

$$\mu(1) \alpha = \mu(2) P(2, 1), \quad \mu(1) \alpha P(1, 2) = \mu(2) P(2, 1), \quad \dots$$

However, note that $P(2, 1) = 0$. As such, this quickly leads to contradictions or trivial case where $\alpha = 0$. Hence, the simple relationship from part (a) breaks down when we cannot assume X to be reversible.

2.12. [Metropolis-Hastings method] For simplicity, let us assume that π is positive, so that we won't have to worry about dividing by 0. Choose any probability transition matrix $Q = (Q(i, j))$ [again, suppose it is positive], and define $P(i, j)$ for $i \neq j$ by

$$P(i, j) = Q(i, j) \min \left(1, \frac{\pi(j) Q(j, i)}{\pi(i) Q(i, j)} \right),$$

and of course define $P(i, i) = 1 - \sum_{j \neq i} P(i, j)$.

- (a) (5 points) Show that the probability transition matrix P has stationary distribution π .

Fix two distinct states $i \neq j$. By the definition of P ,

$$P(i, j) = Q(i, j) \min\left(1, \frac{\pi(j) Q(j, i)}{\pi(i) Q(i, j)}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad P(j, i) = Q(j, i) \min\left(1, \frac{\pi(i) Q(i, j)}{\pi(j) Q(j, i)}\right)$$

Substituting yields,

$$\pi(i) P(i, j) = \pi(i) Q(i, j) \min\left(1, \frac{\pi(j) Q(j, i)}{\pi(i) Q(i, j)}\right)$$

Analyzing the ratio, $\frac{\pi(j) Q(j, i)}{\pi(i) Q(i, j)}$, first see that this ratio, r , must be $r > 0$, since π and Q are strictly positive. Therefore,

$$\min(1, r) = \begin{cases} r, & r \leq 1 \\ 1, & r \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

Thus,

$$\pi(i) P(i, j) = \begin{cases} \pi(i) Q(i, j) r, & \text{if } r \leq 1 \\ \pi(i) Q(i, j), & \text{if } r \geq 1 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \pi(j) Q(j, i), & \text{if } r \leq 1 \\ \pi(i) Q(i, j), & \text{if } r \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

But precisely the same reasoning applies to $\pi(j) P(j, i)$, with the roles of i and j reversed. In particular,

$$\pi(j) P(j, i) = \begin{cases} \pi(j) Q(j, i), & \text{if } r \geq 1, \\ \pi(i) Q(i, j), & \text{if } r \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

In either case, the two products $\pi(i) P(i, j)$ and $\pi(j) P(j, i)$ coincide. Therefore

$$\pi(i) P(i, j) = \pi(j) P(j, i) \quad \text{for each } i \neq j$$

Since this holds $\forall i \neq j$, the detailed balance condition is satisfied. It follows that π is indeed a stationary and reversible distribution for P , s.t.

$$\sum_i \pi(i) P(i, j) = \sum_i \pi(j) P(j, i) = \pi(j) \sum_i P(j, i) = \pi(j)$$

- (b) (5 points) Show how the Metropolis method we have discussed is a special case of this Metropolis-Hastings method.

In the Metropolis method, we typically choose a symmetric proposal distribution $Q(i, j)$,

$$Q(i, j) = Q(j, i) \quad \forall i, j$$

In the simplest classic setting, $Q(i, j)$ might be

$$Q(i, j) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(\text{degree of } i)}, & \text{if } j \text{ is a neighbor of } i \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In any case, if Q is symmetric then

$$\frac{\pi(j) Q(j, i)}{\pi(i) Q(i, j)} = \frac{\pi(j)}{\pi(i)}$$

Thus the Metropolis-Hastings update rule

$$P(i, j) = Q(i, j) \min\left(1, \frac{\pi(j) Q(j, i)}{\pi(i) Q(i, j)}\right)$$

becomes

$$P(i, j) = Q(i, j) \min\left(1, \frac{\pi(j)}{\pi(i)}\right)$$

However, see that this is exactly the classical Metropolis acceptance probability

$$a(i, j) = \min\left(1, \frac{\pi(j)}{\pi(i)}\right)$$

multiplied by $Q(i, j)$ to decide how often we propose a move from i to j in the first place.

Hence, when Q is symmetric, the Metropolis-Hastings chain reduces to the usual Metropolis algorithm.

3.9. (15 points) Derive the recursion,

$$\beta_{t-1}(x_{t-1}) = \sum_{x_t} A(x_{t-1}, x_t) B(x_t, y_t) \beta_t(x_t).$$

for the “backward” probabilities. Show that it is appropriate to start the calculations by setting

$$\beta_n(x_n) = 1 \quad \text{for all } x_n \in \mathcal{X}.$$

For $t = 1, 2, \dots, n$, define

$$\beta_t(x_t) = p(y_{t+1}, y_{t+2}, \dots, y_n \mid x_t)$$

where $\{x_t\}$ denotes the underlying, or hidden, state sequence and $\{y_t\}$ the observed emission sequence. Thus $\beta_t(x_t)$ is the conditional probability of “all future observations” y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n given that the hidden chain is in state x_t at time t . To derive the recursion for $\beta_{t-1}(x_{t-1})$, see that

$$\beta_{t-1}(x_{t-1}) = p(y_t, y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n \mid x_{t-1})$$

Note that

$$p(y_t, y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n \mid x_{t-1}) = \sum_{x_t \in \mathcal{X}} p(y_t, y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n, x_t \mid x_{t-1})$$

Factoring the joint probability inside the sum,

$$p(y_t, y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n, x_t \mid x_{t-1}) = p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}) p(y_t, y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n \mid x_{t-1}, x_t)$$

However, note that the transition from x_{t-1} to x_t is given by $A(x_{t-1}, x_t)$ under the Markov property, s.t.

$$p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}) = A(x_{t-1}, x_t)$$

Furthermore, the probability of the future observations y_t, y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n given x_{t-1}, x_t can be split, by conditional independence assumptions of the HMM,

$$p(y_t, y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n \mid x_{t-1}, x_t) = p(y_t \mid x_t) p(y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n \mid x_t)$$

By the definition of the emission probabilities,

$$p(y_t \mid x_t) = B(x_t, y_t)$$

and by the definition of $\beta_t(x_t)$ as the probability of all future observations given the current state x_t from the original definition,

$$p(y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n \mid x_t) = \beta_t(x_t)$$

Therefore,

$$p(y_t, y_{t+1}, \dots, y_n \mid x_{t-1}) = \sum_{x_t \in \mathcal{X}} A(x_{t-1}, x_t) B(x_t, y_t) \beta_t(x_t) = \beta_{t-1}(x_{t-1})$$

Thus, backwards recursion is derived.

Solving for the initial conditions for the backward probabilities, see by the definition,

$$\beta_n(x_n) = p(y_{n+1}, \dots, y_n \mid x_n)$$

However, note that for $t = n$, the expression y_{n+1}, \dots, y_n corresponds to an empty set of observations, since there are no future observations after time n . As such,

$$p(\emptyset \mid x_n) = 1$$

Therefore, in order to initialize the backward recursion, we set

$$\beta_n(x_n) = 1$$