

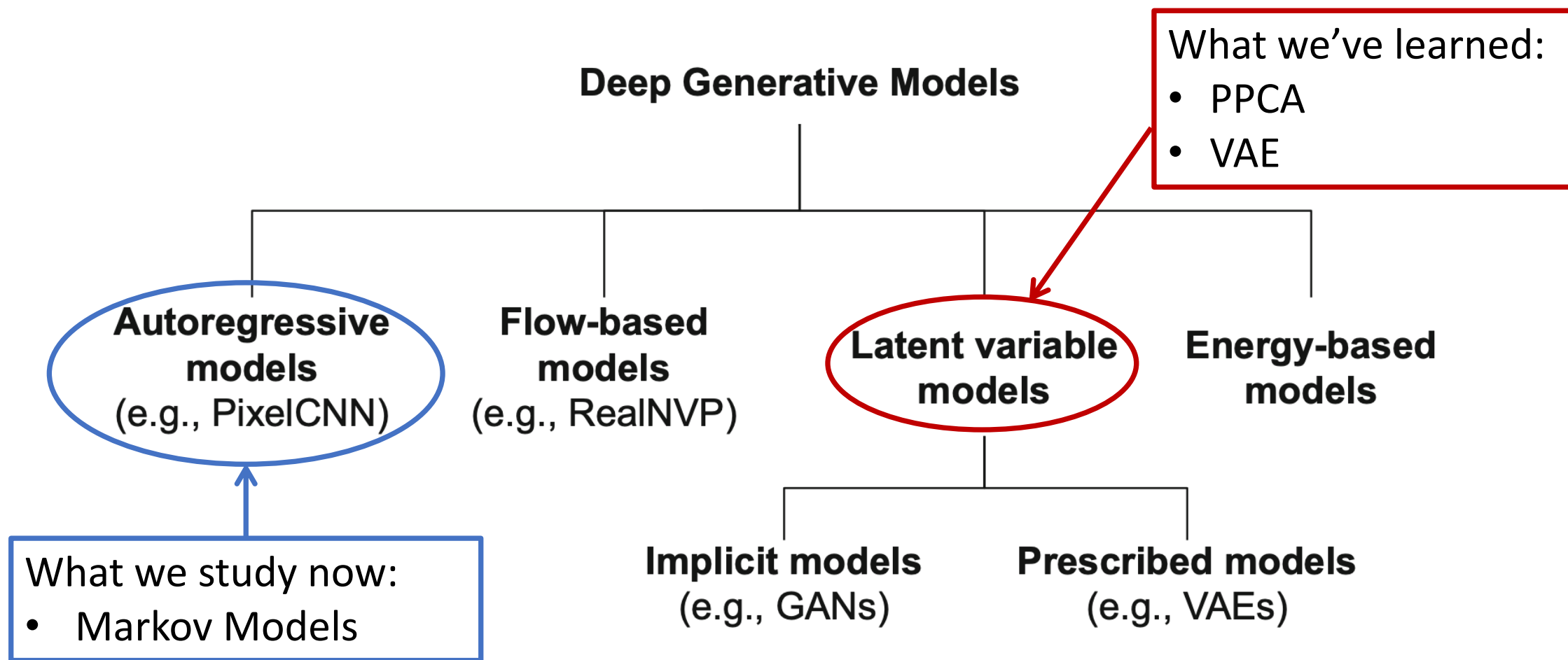
Deep Generative Models: Markov Models

Fall Semester 2025

René Vidal

Director of the Center for Innovation in Data Engineering and Science (IDEAS),
Rachleff University Professor, University of Pennsylvania
Amazon Scholar & Chief Scientist at NORCE

Taxonomy of Generative Models



Lecture Outline

- Stochastic Processes
 - Definition and Examples
- Markov Models and Markov Chains
 - Definition
 - Transition Probability and Transition Matrix
 - Examples
 - Stationarity and Convergence
- Maximum Log-Likelihood for Markov Chains

Stochastic Process

- **Definition:** A *stochastic process* refers to a sequence of random variables
 (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_T)

- Each X_t takes values from the same sample space Ω (state space)
 - You can assume X_t has K states and $\Omega := \{1, \dots, K\}$

- **Example** (Bernoulli Process):

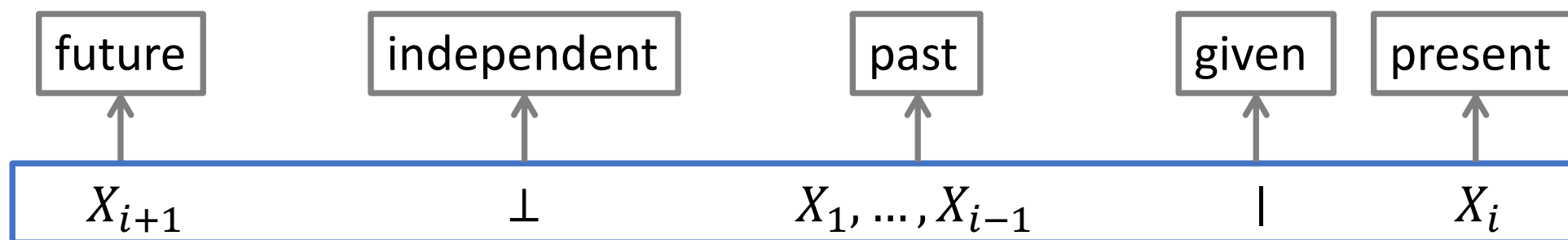
$$X_t \sim \text{Bernouli}(p), \quad t = 1, \dots, T$$

- How many states does X_t has? What is Ω ?

Markov Property Revisited

- **Issue:** Modeling the joint distribution $\mathbb{P}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_T)$ might require **exponentially many parameters** in the absence of any assumptions on P

- **Conditional Independence Assumption** (Markov property):



- **Consequence:** We now only need **linearly many parameters**:

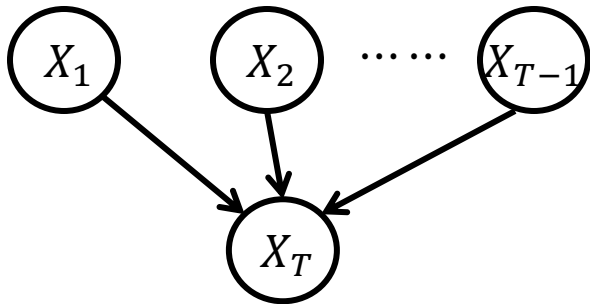
$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(x_1, \dots, x_T) &= \mathbb{P}(x_1) \mathbb{P}(x_2 \mid x_1) \mathbb{P}(x_3 \mid \cancel{x_1}, x_2) \cdots \mathbb{P}(x_T \mid \cancel{x_1, \dots, x_{T-2}}, x_{T-1}) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(x_1) p(x_2 \mid x_1) \mathbb{P}(x_3 \mid x_2) \cdots \mathbb{P}(x_T \mid x_{T-1})\end{aligned}$$

Markov Chains

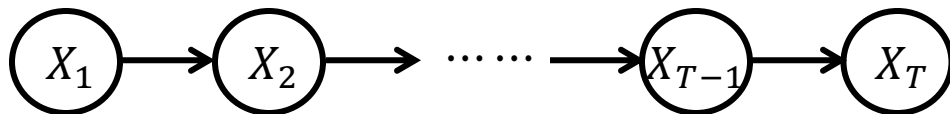
- **Definition:** A (discrete time) *Markov chain* is a stochastic process (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_T) with the *Markov property*

$$\mathbb{P}(x_1, \dots, x_T) = \mathbb{P}(x_1) \mathbb{P}(x_2 \mid x_1) \mathbb{P}(x_3 \mid x_2) \cdots \mathbb{P}(x_T \mid x_{T-1})$$

- Without Markov Property:



- With Markov Property:



Parameters of Markov Chains

- Initial Probability π_1, \dots, π_K : $\pi_i := \mathbb{P}(X_1 = i)$.
- Transition Probability a_{ij} :

$$a_{ij} := \mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = j \mid X_t = i) \quad \forall i, j \in \Omega = \{1, \dots, K\}$$

- This is the probability that X_t transitions from state i to state j
- Matrix and Vector Notations:

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1K} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{K1} & \dots & a_{KK} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K},$$

$$\pi := [\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K] \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times K}$$

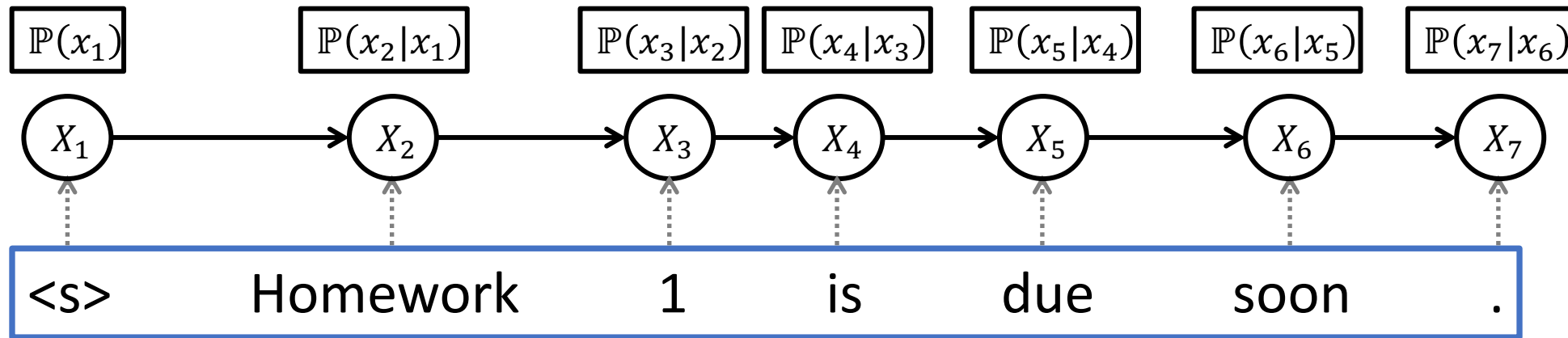
Row Vector



A Markov chain is fully specified by its parameters $\theta := (\pi, A)$

Example: Markov Sentence Model

- State space $\Omega = \{\text{all possible words}\}$
 - The following are viewed as words and included in the state space
 - $\langle s \rangle$: the start of the sentence
 - Digits
 - Punctuations
- Each sentence is a Markov chain where the words are random variables:



- Meaning of $\mathbb{P}(x_{t+1}|x_t)$: Given that the current word is x_t , what is the probability that the next word is x_{t+1} ?

Example: DNA Sequencing

- State Space $\Omega = \{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{T}\}$

- Transition Matrix A :

	\mathcal{A}	\mathcal{C}	\mathcal{G}	\mathcal{T}
\mathcal{A}	0.359	0.143	0.167	0.331
\mathcal{C}	0.384	0.156	0.023	0.437
\mathcal{G}	0.306	0.199	0.150	0.345
\mathcal{T}	0.284	0.182	0.177	0.357

Initial Probability Vector π :

\mathcal{A}	0.25
\mathcal{C}	0.25
\mathcal{G}	0.25
\mathcal{T}	0.25

- **Question 1:** Given \mathcal{C} , what is the probability of getting DNA sequence \mathcal{CTGAC} ?

- **Answer 1:**

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{CTGAC} | X_1 = \mathcal{C}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{C}|\mathcal{T}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{T}|\mathcal{G}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{A}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{C}) \approx 0.00403$$

0.182

↑

0.345

↑

0.167

↑

0.384

↑

Example: DNA Sequencing

- State Space $\Omega = \{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{T}\}$

	\mathcal{A}	\mathcal{C}	\mathcal{G}	\mathcal{T}
\mathcal{A}	0.359	0.143	0.167	0.331
\mathcal{C}	0.384	0.156	0.023	0.437
\mathcal{G}	0.306	0.199	0.150	0.345
\mathcal{T}	0.284	0.182	0.177	0.357

\mathcal{A}	0.25
\mathcal{C}	0.25
\mathcal{G}	0.25
\mathcal{T}	0.25

- Question 2: What's the probability of $X_3 = \mathcal{A}$ given $X_1 = \mathcal{C}$?
- Question 3: What's the probability of $X_3 = \mathcal{A}$?

Example: DNA Sequencing

- State Space $\Omega = \{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{T}\}$

	\mathcal{A}	\mathcal{C}	\mathcal{G}	\mathcal{T}	
\mathcal{A}	0.359	0.143	0.167	0.331	\mathcal{A} 0.25
\mathcal{C}	0.384	0.156	0.023	0.437	\mathcal{C} 0.25
\mathcal{G}	0.306	0.199	0.150	0.345	\mathcal{G} 0.25
\mathcal{T}	0.284	0.182	0.177	0.357	\mathcal{T} 0.25

- Question 2:** What's the probability of $X_3 = \mathcal{A}$ given $X_1 = \mathcal{C}$?
- Question 3:** What's the probability of $X_3 = \mathcal{A}$?
- Answer 2:** The state transition is $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ for all possible $x_2 \in \Omega$:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(X_3 = \mathcal{A} | X_1 = \mathcal{C}) &= \sum_{x_2 \in \Omega} \mathbb{P}(X_3 = \mathcal{A} | X_2 = x_2) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_2 = x_2 | X_1 = \mathcal{C}) \\ &= [0.384, 0.156, 0.023, 0.437] \begin{bmatrix} 0.359 \\ 0.384 \\ 0.306 \\ 0.284 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

- This is the inner product of **the second row** and **first column** of the transition matrix A
- This is the (2,1)-th entry of A^2

Example: DNA Sequencing

- State Space $\Omega = \{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{T}\}$

	\mathcal{A}	\mathcal{C}	\mathcal{G}	\mathcal{T}		
\mathcal{A}	0.359	0.143	0.167	0.331	\mathcal{A}	0.25
\mathcal{C}	0.384	0.156	0.023	0.437	\mathcal{C}	0.25
\mathcal{G}	0.306	0.199	0.150	0.345	\mathcal{G}	0.25
\mathcal{T}	0.284	0.182	0.177	0.357	\mathcal{T}	0.25

- Question 2: What's the probability of $X_3 = \mathcal{A}$ given $X_1 = \mathcal{C}$?
- Question 3: What's the probability of $X_3 = \mathcal{A}$?
- Answer 2: The state transition is $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ for all possible $x_2 \in \Omega$:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_3 = \mathcal{A} | X_1 = \mathcal{C}) = \sum_{x_2 \in \Omega} \mathbb{P}(X_3 = \mathcal{A} | X_2 = x_2) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_2 = x_2 | X_1 = \mathcal{C})$$

- Answer 3: The state transition is $x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ for all possible $x_1, x_2 \in \Omega$:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_3 = \mathcal{A}) = \sum_{x_1 \in \Omega} \mathbb{P}(X_3 = \mathcal{A} | X_1 = x_1) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1)$$

Question 2

Initial Probability

Generalizing the DNA Sequencing Example

- State Space $\Omega = \{1, \dots, K\}$
- $(A^s)_{ij}$: the (i, j) -th entry of A^s
- $(A^s)_{:j}$: the j -th column of A^s
- $(\cdot)_j$: the j -th entry of a vector

Transition Matrix A and initial probability distribution π :

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1K} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{K1} & \cdots & a_{KK} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}, \quad \pi := [\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K] \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times K}$$

- **Claim 1:** $\mathbb{P}(X_{t+s} = j \mid X_t = i) = (A^s)_{ij} \quad (\forall s, t, i, j)$
- **Claim 2:** $\mathbb{P}(X_{s+1} = j) = (\pi A^s)_j \quad (\forall s, j)$
- **Proof of Claim 2:**

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{s+1} = j) = \sum_{i \in \Omega} \mathbb{P}(X_{s+1} = j \mid X_1 = i) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_1 = i) = \sum_{i \in \Omega} (A^s)_{ij} \cdot \pi_i = \pi(A^s)_{:j} = (\pi A^s)_j$$

- **Proof of Claim 1:** By induction (next page)

Claim 1

Proof of Claim 1

- State Space $\Omega = \{1, \dots, K\}$
- $(A^s)_{ij}$: the (i, j) -th entry of A^s
- $(A^s)_{:j}$: the j -th column of A^s
- $(\cdot)_j$: the j -th entry of a vector

Transition Matrix A and initial probability distribution π :

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1K} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{K1} & \cdots & a_{KK} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}, \quad \pi := [\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K] \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times K}$$

- **Claim 1:** $\mathbb{P}(X_{t+s} = j \mid X_t = i) = A_{ij}^s$
- **Proof of Claim 1 (Induction):**
 - $\forall s, t$, it is easy to prove **shift invariance**: $\mathbb{P}(X_{t+s} = j \mid X_t = i) = \mathbb{P}(X_{1+s} = j \mid X_1 = i)$
 - Next we prove $\mathbb{P}(X_{1+s} = j \mid X_1 = i) = A_{ij}^s$ by induction on s :
 - The base case $s = 1$ follows from the definition of A
 - Suppose we have $\mathbb{P}(X_s = j \mid X_1 = i) = A_{ij}^{s-1}$ then:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{1+s} = j \mid X_1 = i) = \sum_{k \in \Omega} \mathbb{P}(X_{s+1} = j \mid X_s = k) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_s = k \mid X_1 = i) = \sum_{k \in \Omega} a_{kj} \cdot (A^{s-1})_{ik} = (A^s)_{ij}$$

Limiting Behavior of Markov Chains

- We have just proved

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{t+s} = j \mid X_t = i) = (A^s)_{ij} \quad (\forall s, t, i, j)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{s+1} = j) = (\pi A^s)_j \quad (\forall s, j)$$

- Our next goal is to understand the limits $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} A^s, \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \pi A^s$.
- The two limits are related to the eigenvalues of A :
 - Assume A is diagonalizable and write $A = U\Lambda U^{-1}$ with eigenvalues $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_K)$
 - The diagonalizability assumption is not necessary but to simplify the exposition...
 - Then we have
$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} A^s = U \left(\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \Lambda^s \right) U^{-1}, \quad \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \pi A^s = \pi U \left(\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \Lambda^s \right) U^{-1}$$
- Hence, a necessary condition for the limits to exist is that $|\lambda_k| \leq 1$ for all k .

Eigenvalues of Transition Matrix

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1K} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{K1} & \cdots & a_{KK} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}$$

- **Proposition.** Let $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_K$ be eigenvalues of A . Then

$$\max_{k=1, \dots, K} |\lambda_k| = 1.$$

- **Proof.** We first show $|\lambda_k| \leq 1$. Let (λ, u) be an eigen-pair with $Au = \lambda u$, $\|u\|_2 = 1$ and $u = [u_1, \dots, u_K]^\top$. Let i be the index such that $|u_i|$ is maximized, i.e.,
$$i = \operatorname{argmax}_j |u_j|.$$

Then $Au = \lambda u$ implies $\sum_j a_{ij} u_j = \lambda u_i$, which furthermore gives

$$|\lambda| \leq \left| \frac{\sum_j a_{ij} u_j}{u_i} \right| \leq \sum_j |a_{ij}| \cdot \left| \frac{u_j}{u_i} \right| \leq \sum_j |a_{ij}| = \sum_j a_{ij} = 1.$$

Finally, A always has an eigenvalue 1: $A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$|\lambda_k| \leq 1$ is not sufficient for convergence

- Intuition:

- Assume A is diagonalizable and write $A = U\Lambda U^{-1}$ with eigenvalues $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_K)$
 - The diagonalizability assumption is not necessary but to simplify the exposition...

- Then $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} A^s = U \left(\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \Lambda^s \right) U^{-1} = U \left(\text{diag} \left(\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_1^s, \dots, \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_K^s \right) \right) U^{-1}$

- And $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_k^s$...
 - is equal to 0 if $|\lambda_k| < 1$
 - is equal to 1 if $\lambda_k = 1$
 - does not exist if $\lambda_k = -1$

- λ_k can even be a complex eigenvalue with $|\lambda_k| = 1$

Lesson

- **Existence.** In order for $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} A^s, \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \pi A^s$ to exist, we need to make assumptions such that:
 - A has no eigenvalues of magnitude 1 other than 1 itself.
- **Uniqueness.** In order for $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \pi A^s$ to be the same for different initial distribution π , we need to make assumptions such that:
 - 1 is the eigenvalue of A of geometric/algebraic multiplicity 1
- The assumptions should be “interpretable” in terms of Markov chains or states
 - e.g., assuming A to be diagonalizable is not interpretable

Irreducibility and Strongly Connected Graph

- **Definition.** A directed graph is called *strongly connected* if there is a path in each direction between each pair of vertices of the graph.
- **Definition.** A transition matrix A is called *irreducible* if every state can be reached from any other state, i.e., for any i, j , there is some t such that
$$\mathbb{P}(X_t = j \mid X_1 = i) > 0.$$
- **Remark.** Each state can be denoted by a vertex and, if $a_{ij} > 0$ then we add a directed edge from vertex i to vertex j . This way, we obtain a directed graph. We can see that **A is irreducible if and only if the graph is strongly connected**

Limiting Behavior of Markov Chains

- **Theorem.** Assume A is irreducible, then there is some $v = [v_1, \dots, v_K]$ such that

- For any initial distribution π we have:

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{I + A + \dots + A^{s-1}}{s} = ev,$$

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \pi \left(\frac{I + A + \dots + A^{s-1}}{s} \right) = v$$

$$e := \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- If furthermore there is some $a_{ii} > 0$, then for any initial distribution π we have

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} A^s = ev,$$

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \pi A^s = v$$

- **Remark.** In the latter case, v is called the **stationary distribution** as it is the unique vector that satisfies:

$$vA = v, \quad v_i > 0 \ (\forall i), \quad \sum_i v_i = 1$$

- **Remark on Proof.** This result is related to Perron–Frobenius Theory (Google search it). For its proof, see Chapter 7 (Perron–Frobenius Theory) of “*Matrix Analysis and Applied Linear Algebra*”, Second Edition (Carl D. Meyer, 2023).

Example

• Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $v = [0.5, 0.5]$ and $I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Note that $a_{11} = a_{22} = 0$

• A has two eigenvalues, 1 and -1 .

• We have $A^{2t} = I$ and $A^{2t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for any t , so $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} A^s$ does not exist.

• We have $vA = [0.5, 0.5] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = [0.5, 0.5] = v$, so $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} vA^s = [0.5, 0.5]$. However, for any initial distribution π different from v , $\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \pi A^s$ does not exist.

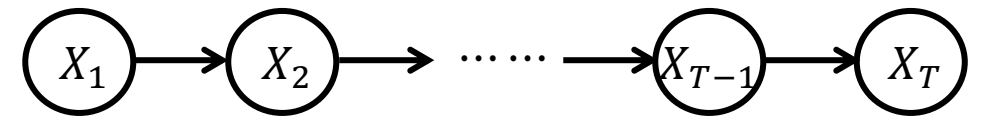
• On the other hand, we have $\left(\frac{I+A}{2}\right)^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{I+A}{2}$, which implies

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{I+A}{2}\right)^s = \frac{I+A}{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} [0.5, 0.5] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \pi$$

Estimate Transition Parameters θ from Data

- We have derived some results based on the transition matrix ...
- In practice, we are given data samples rather than the transition matrix
- We will assume the data are sampled from a Markov chain, and then compute the transition matrix from data via **maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)**

MLE of Markov Chains



- Assume we have N i.i.d. samples $\{\mathbf{x}^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^N$ from distribution $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$
 - $\mathbf{x} := (x_1, \dots, x_T)$ each x_t has K status
 - $\theta = (A, \pi)$: unknown transition matrix and initial probability distribution

• MLE:

$$(\hat{A}_{ML}, \hat{\pi}_{ML}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{A, \pi} \prod_{n=1}^N p_{A, \pi}(\mathbf{x}^{(n)})$$

Markov Property

$$(\hat{A}_{ML}, \hat{\pi}_{ML}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{A, \pi} \prod_{n=1}^N p_{\pi}(x_1^{(n)}) \prod_{t=2}^T p_A(x_t^{(n)} | x_{t-1}^{(n)})$$

Variables are separable

$$\hat{\pi}_{ML} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\pi} \prod_{n=1}^N p_{\pi}(x_1^{(n)})$$

Our focus next

$$\hat{A}_{ML} = \operatorname{argmax}_A \prod_{n=1}^N \prod_{t=2}^T p_A(x_t^{(n)} | x_{t-1}^{(n)})$$

Similar to
estimating
 \hat{A}_{ML} , so left as
an exercise

Simplifying The MLE

- $\mathbb{I}(\cdot)$: indicator function
- N_{ij} : the number of samples with transitions from state i to state j , i.e.,

$$N_{ij} := \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{t=2}^T \mathbb{I} \left(x_t^{(n)} = j, x_{t-1}^{(n)} = i \right)$$

Then we have:

1. $p_A \left(x_t^{(n)} \mid x_{t-1}^{(n)} \right) = \prod_{i=1}^K \prod_{j=1}^K (a_{ij})^{\mathbb{I}(x_t^{(n)}=j, x_{t-1}^{(n)}=i)}$
2. $\prod_{n=1}^N \prod_{t=2}^T p_A \left(x_t^{(n)} \mid x_{t-1}^{(n)} \right) = \prod_{n=1}^N \prod_{t=2}^T \prod_{i=1}^K \prod_{j=1}^K (a_{ij})^{\mathbb{I}(x_t^{(n)}=j, x_{t-1}^{(n)}=i)}$
 $= \prod_{i=1}^K \prod_{j=1}^K (a_{ij})^{N_{ij}}$

This gives:

$$\hat{A}_{ML} = \operatorname{argmax}_A \prod_{i=1}^K \prod_{j=1}^K (a_{ij})^{N_{ij}}$$

$$\hat{A}_{ML} = \operatorname{argmax}_A \prod_{n=1}^N \prod_{t=2}^T p_A \left(x_t^{(n)} \mid x_{t-1}^{(n)} \right)$$

Simplifying The MLE

$$\hat{A}_{ML} = \operatorname{argmax}_A \prod_{i=1}^K \prod_{j=1}^K (a_{ij})^{N_{ij}}$$

- N_{ij} : the number of samples with transitions from state i to state j

Taking logarithm and adding constraints $\sum_j a_{ij} = 1$:

$$\hat{A}_{ML} = \operatorname{argmax}_A \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^K N_{ij} \log a_{ij} \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j=1}^K a_{ij} = 1 \quad (\forall i)$$

↓ Variables are separable

Solve the following for every $i = 1, \dots, K$:

$$\hat{a}_{ij_{ML}} = \operatorname{argmax}_{a_{ij}} \sum_{j=1}^K N_{ij} \log a_{ij} \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j=1}^K a_{ij} = 1$$

Remark: We have seen how to solve it using Lagrangian multipliers (recall *EM for Gaussian Mixture Models*)

$$\hat{a}_{ij_{ML}} = \frac{N_{ij}}{\sum_{j=1}^K N_{ij}}$$

Remark: The optimal transition matrix can be found by simply counting and classifying the number of the transitions of the sample states!

Conclusion

- Markov chains have several applications
- For irreducible transition matrix with at least one positive entry, the Markov chain will eventually reach a stationary distribution
- The transition matrix can be learned from data via maximum likelihood estimation