

# Lecture 9: Random Walks and Markov Chain (Chapter 4 of Textbook B)

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AI503: Mathematics for AI

- (1) Introduction
- (2) Stationary Distribution
- (3) Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
- (4) Convergence of Random Walks on Undirected Graphs
- (5) Random Walks on Undirected Graphs with Unit Edge Weights

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- A *random walk* is defined under a (directed) graph  $G = (V, E)$  where  $V, E$  are sets of vertices and edges, respectively.
- Start with a probability vector  $\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{0}) \in [0, 1]^V$ , where  $p_x(0)$  is the probability of starting at vertex  $x \in G$ .
- The probability vector at time  $t + 1$  is defined by the probability vector at time  $t$ , namely  $\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{t}+1) = \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{t})P$ .
  - $P_{ij}$  is the probability of the walk at vertex  $i$  selecting the edge to vertex  $j$ .
- The long-term average probability of being at a particular vertex is independent of the choice of  $\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{0})$  if  $G$  is strongly connected.
  - The limiting probabilities are called *stationary probabilities*.
- This property allows to design an efficient sampling algorithm from a desired probability distribution, called “Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)”.

Graph	Stochastic process
vertex	state
strongly connected	persistent
aperiodic	aperiodic
strongly connected and aperiodic	ergodic
undirected graph	time reversible

Table 1: Correspondence between terminology of random walks and Markov chains

- A Markov chain has a finite set of *states*.
- For each pair of states  $x$  and  $y$ , there is a *transition probability*  $p_{xy}$  of going from  $x$  to  $y$  where  $\sum_y p_{xy} = 1$  for each  $x$ .
- The terms "random walk" and "Markov chain" are used interchangeably.

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## Definition 1. Long-term average probability distribution

Let  $\mathbf{p}(t)$  be the probability distribution after  $t$  steps of random walks. Then, *long-term average probability distribution* is defined by:

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \frac{1}{t}(\mathbf{p}(0) + \mathbf{p}(1) + \dots + \mathbf{p}(t-1)).$$

## Theorem 1. Fundamental Theorem of Markov Chains

For a connected Markov chain, there is a unique probability vector  $\pi P = \pi$ . Moreover, for any starting distribution,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{a}(t)$  exists and equals to  $\pi$ .

**Proof.** See Page 80-81 of Textbook B.

- Theorem 1 will be used to prove the convergence of Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm.

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# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

- Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and a probability distribution  $p(\mathbf{x})$  where  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$ .
- We want to calculate

$$E(f) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})$$

- The sample space grows exponentially on  $d$ .
- Therefore, explicit summation requires exponential time on  $d$ , which is not desirable.

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

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- We want to calculate

$$E(f) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})$$

- Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method approximates the summation by a summation of a set of samples, where each sample  $\mathbf{x}$  is selected with probability  $p(\mathbf{x})$ .
  - Metropolis-Hastings algorithm
  - Gibbs sampling
- We construct a Markov chain that has the desired distribution as its stationary distribution.
- By Theorem 1, the average of the function  $f$  over states seen in a sufficiently long run is a good estimate of  $E(f)$ .

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

- Recall the definition of long-term average probability distribution.

$$\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{t}) = \frac{1}{t}[\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{0}) + \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{1}) + \dots + \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{t}-1)]$$

- Let  $\gamma$  be the average value of  $f$  at the states seen in a  $t$  step walk, which is an estimate of  $E(f) = \sum_i f_i p_i$ .
- The expected value of  $\gamma$  is calculated by:

$$E(\gamma) = \sum_i f_i \left( \frac{1}{t} \sum_{j=1}^t \text{Prob}(\text{walk is in state } i \text{ at time } j) \right) = \sum_i f_i a_i(t).$$

- Letting  $f_{max} := \max_x |f(x)|$ , we have:

$$|E(f) - E(\gamma)| \leq f_{max} \sum_i |p_i - a_i(t)| = f_{max} \|\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{t})\|_1.$$

- If  $\mathbf{p}$  is the stationary distribution,  $E(\gamma)$  converges to  $E(f)$  by the rate of convergence of the Markov chain to its steady state.

## Algorithm 1. Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm

Let  $r$  be the maximum degree of any vertex in a connected undirected graph  $G$ . We define the transition matrix as follows:

$$p_{ij} = \frac{1}{r} \min\left(1, \frac{p_j}{p_i}\right) \quad \text{if } i \neq j,$$

$$p_{ii} = 1 - \sum_{j \neq i} p_{ij}.$$

- At state  $i$ , we select neighbor  $j$  with probability  $\frac{1}{r}$ .
- For the selected  $j$ , if  $p_i \leq p_j$ , go to  $j$ . If  $p_i > p_j$ , go to  $j$  with probability  $p_j/p_i$ .
- Otherwise, stay at  $i$ .

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) - Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm

- The Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm is a method to design a Markov chain whose stationary distribution is a given target distribution  $\mathbf{p}$ .

## Lemma 1.

For a random walk on a strongly connected graph  $G$  with probabilities on the edges, if the vector  $\pi$  satisfies  $\pi_x p_{xy} = \pi_y p_{yx}$  for all  $x, y \in G$  and  $\sum_x \pi_x = 1$ , then  $\pi$  is the stationary distribution of the walk.

**Proof.** See Page 81 of Textbook B.

## Theorem 2. Convergence of Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm

In algorithm 1 (Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm), the stationary probabilities are indeed  $p_i$ 's.

**Proof.** The proof follows from Lemma 1.

As  $p_i p_{ij} = \frac{1}{r} \min(1, \frac{p_j}{p_i}) = \frac{1}{r} \min(p_i, p_j) = \frac{p_j}{r} \min(1, \frac{p_i}{p_j}) = p_j p_{ji}$ , by Lemma 1., the theorem follows.

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) - Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm

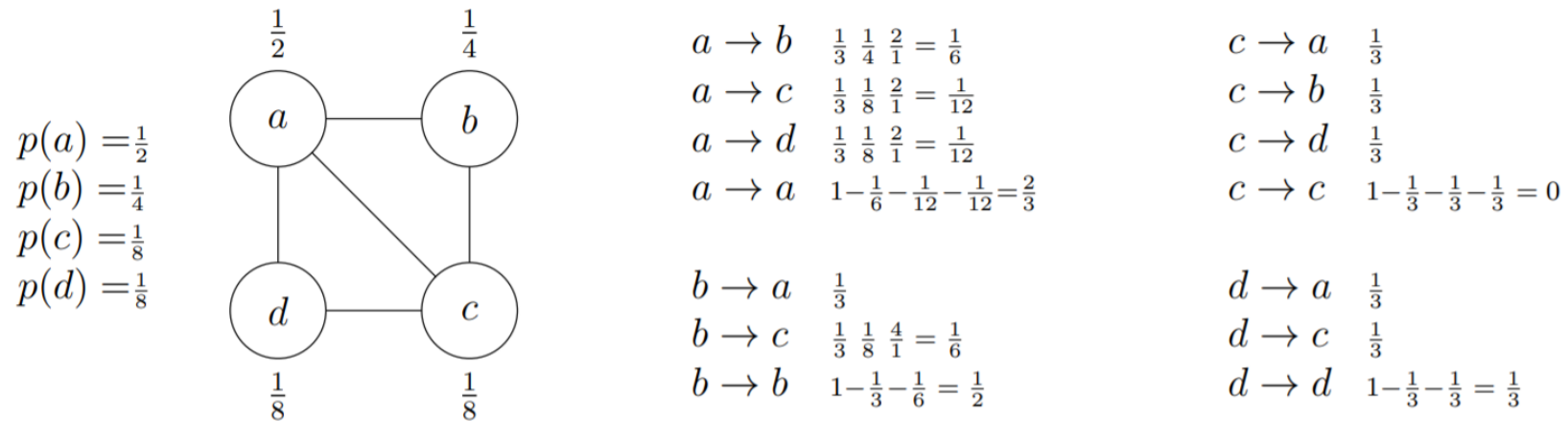


Figure 1: A connected undirected graph with vertices  $\{a, b, c, d\}$

- Let's follow the Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm to construct the transition matrix  $P$  on the graph in Figure 1.

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) - Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm

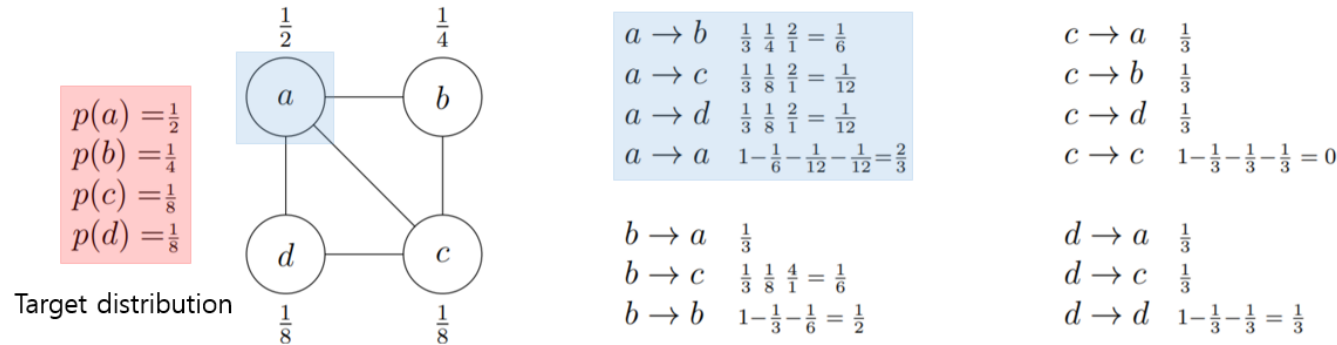


Figure 2: A connected undirected graph with vertices  $\{a, b, c, d\}$

- We want to make the stationary distribution  $\pi = [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{8}]$ .
- For the vertex  $a$ ,
  - $p_{ab} = \frac{1}{r} \min(1, \frac{p_b}{p_a}) = \frac{1}{3} \min(1, \frac{1}{2}) = \frac{1}{6}$
  - $p_{ac} = \frac{1}{r} \min(1, \frac{p_c}{p_a}) = \frac{1}{3} \min(1, \frac{1}{4}) = \frac{1}{12}$
  - $p_{ad} = \frac{1}{r} \min(1, \frac{p_d}{p_a}) = \frac{1}{3} \min(1, \frac{1}{4}) = \frac{1}{12}$
  - $p_{aa} = 1 - \sum_{j \neq a} p_{aj} = 1 - \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{12} - \frac{1}{12} = \frac{2}{3}$

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) - Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm

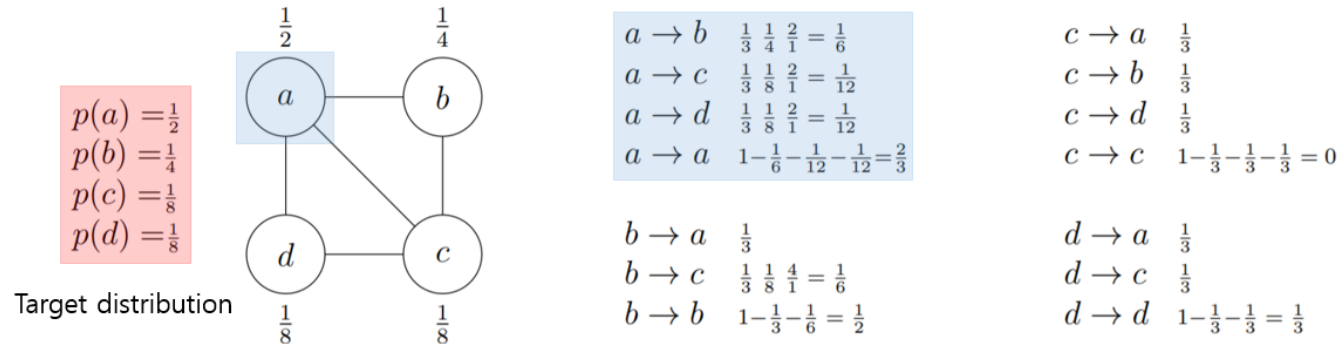


Figure 3: A connected undirected graph with vertices  $\{a, b, c, d\}$

- We want to make the stationary distribution  $\pi = [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{8}]$ .
- Applying Metropolis-Hasting Algorithm for other vertices, we get:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 2/3 & 1/6 & 1/12 & 1/12 \\ 1/3 & 1/2 & 1/6 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- It is easy to check  $\pi P = \pi$ .



## Algorithm 2. Gibbs Sampling

Let  $G$  be an undirected graph whose vertices corresponds to the values  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$ . Also, assume that there is an edge from  $\mathbf{x}$  to  $\mathbf{y}$  if  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  differ in only one coordinate (W.L.O.G. assume it the first coordinate). We define the transition matrix as follows:

$$p_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}} = \frac{1}{d} p(y_1 | x_2, x_3, \dots, x_d),$$

$$\text{where } d = \sum_i \sum_{y_i} p(y_i | x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_d).$$

- Choose one coordinate (randomly or sequentially).
- The transition probability depends on the conditional probability of chosen coordinate while fixing other coordinates.

- Gibbs sampling is a method to design a Markov chain whose stationary distribution is a given target distribution  $\mathbf{p}$ .

## Theorem 3. Convergence of Gibbs Sampling

In algorithm 2 (Gibbs Sampling), the stationary probability is indeed  $p$ .

**Proof.** The proof follows again from Lemma 1.

$$p_{\mathbf{xy}} = \frac{1}{d} \frac{p(\mathbf{y})}{p(x_2, x_3, \dots, x_d)}$$

$$p_{\mathbf{yx}} = \frac{1}{d} \frac{p(\mathbf{x})}{p(x_2, x_3, \dots, x_d)}$$

Therefore,  $p(\mathbf{x})p_{\mathbf{xy}} = p(\mathbf{y})p_{\mathbf{yx}}$ .

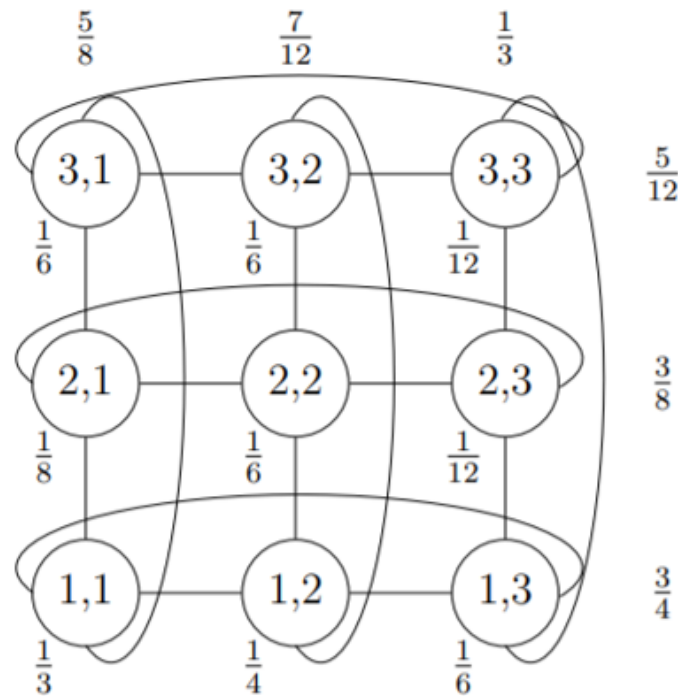
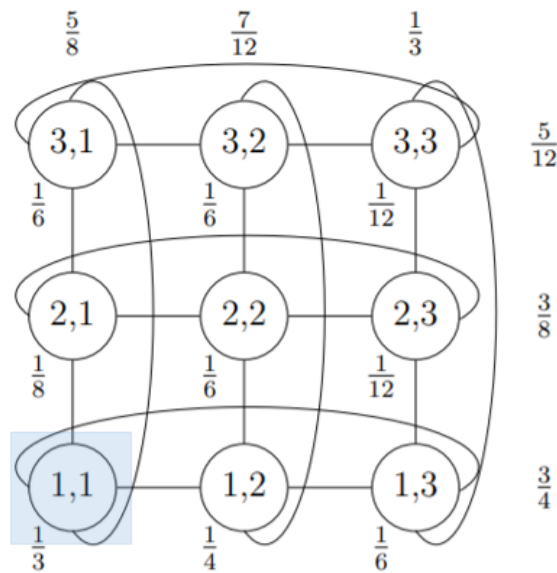


Figure 4: A connected undirected graph with vertices  $\{(i,j) : i,j \in \{1, 2, 3\}\}$

- Let's follow the Gibbs sampling Algorithm to construct the transition matrix  $P$  on the graph in Figure 1.

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) - Gibbs Sampling



Target distribution

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(1, 1) &= \frac{1}{3} \\
 p(1, 2) &= \frac{1}{4} \\
 p(1, 3) &= \frac{1}{6} \\
 p(2, 1) &= \frac{1}{8} \\
 p(2, 2) &= \frac{1}{6} \\
 p(2, 3) &= \frac{1}{12} \\
 p(3, 1) &= \frac{1}{6} \\
 p(3, 2) &= \frac{1}{6} \\
 p(3, 3) &= \frac{1}{12}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$p_{(11)(12)} = \frac{1}{d} p_{12} / (p_{11} + p_{12} + p_{13}) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{4} \right) / \left( \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{6} \right) = \frac{1}{8} / \frac{9}{12} = \frac{1}{8} \frac{4}{3} = \frac{1}{6}$$

Calculation of edge probability  $p_{(11)(12)}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_{(11)(12)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4} \frac{4}{3} = \frac{1}{6} & p_{(12)(11)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{3} \frac{4}{3} = \frac{2}{9} & p_{(13)(11)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{3} \frac{4}{3} = \frac{2}{9} & p_{(21)(22)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{6} \frac{8}{3} = \frac{2}{9} \\
 p_{(11)(13)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{6} \frac{4}{3} = \frac{1}{9} & p_{(12)(13)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{6} \frac{4}{3} = \frac{1}{9} & p_{(13)(12)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4} \frac{4}{3} = \frac{1}{6} & p_{(21)(23)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{12} \frac{8}{3} = \frac{1}{9} \\
 p_{(11)(21)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{8} \frac{8}{5} = \frac{1}{10} & p_{(12)(22)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{6} \frac{12}{7} = \frac{1}{7} & p_{(13)(23)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{12} \frac{3}{1} = \frac{1}{8} & p_{(21)(11)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{3} \frac{8}{5} = \frac{4}{15} \\
 p_{(11)(31)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{6} \frac{8}{5} = \frac{2}{15} & p_{(12)(32)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{6} \frac{12}{7} = \frac{1}{7} & p_{(13)(33)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{12} \frac{3}{1} = \frac{1}{8} & p_{(21)(31)} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{6} \frac{8}{5} = \frac{2}{15}
 \end{aligned}$$

Figure 5: A connected undirected graph with vertices  $\{(i, j) : i, j \in \{1, 2, 3\}\}$

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# Convergence of Random Walks on Undirected Graphs

- Given an edge-weighted undirected graph  $G$ , let  $w_{xy}$  denote the weight of the edge between nodes  $x, y \in G$ .
  - If no such edge exists, let  $w_{xy} = 0$ .
- Let  $w_x = \sum_y w_{xy}$ ,  $p_{xy} = w_{xy}/w_x$ , and  $w_{\text{total}} = \sum_{x'} w_{x'}$ .
- By Lemma 1,  $\pi_x := w_x/w_{\text{total}}$  are the stationary probabilities.
  - $w_x p_{xy} = w_x \frac{w_{xy}}{w_x} = w_{xy} = w_{yx} = w_y \frac{w_{yx}}{w_y} = w_y p_{yx}$ .
  - Therefore,  $(w_x/w_{\text{total}})p_{xy} = (w_y/w_{\text{total}})p_{yx}$ .
- We are interested in the convergence rate of Metropolis-Hasting algorithm and Gibbs sampling on edge-weighted undirected graph.

# Convergence of Random Walks on Undirected Graphs

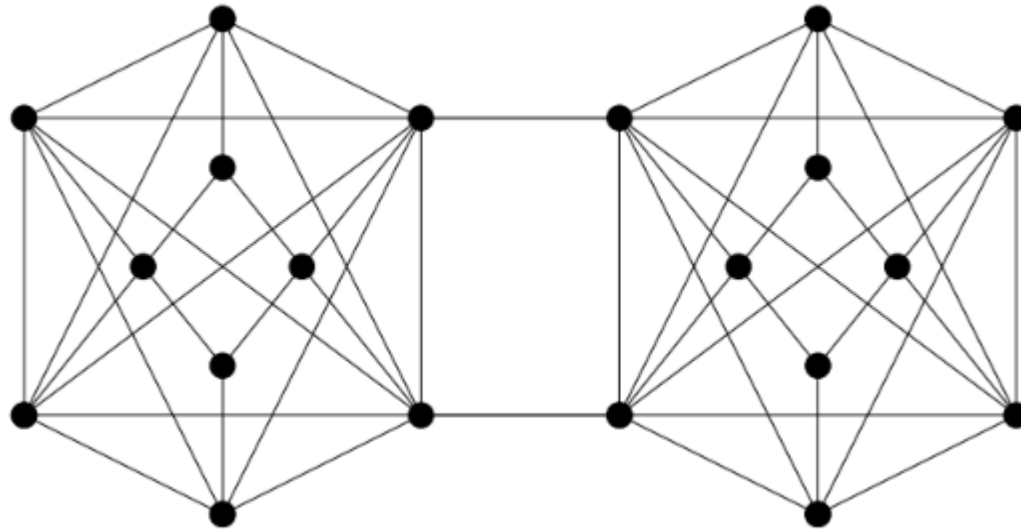


Figure 6: A connected graph. All edges have the same weight.

- In Figure 6, the random walk is unlikely to cross the narrow passage between the two halves.
- We will show that the time to converge is quantitatively related to the tightest constriction.

## Definition 1. $\varepsilon$ -mixing time

The  $\varepsilon$ -mixing time of a Markov chain is the minimum integer  $t$  such that for any starting distribution  $\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{0})$ , the 1-norm difference between the  $t$ -step *running average probability distribution* and the *stationary distribution* is at most  $\varepsilon$ .

## Definition 2. Normalized conductance

For a subset  $S$  of vertices, let  $\pi(S)$  denote  $\sum_{x \in S} \pi_x$ . The normalized conductance  $\Phi(S)$  of  $S$  is defined as:

$$\Phi(S) = \frac{\sum_{(x,y) \in (S, \bar{S})} \pi_x p_{xy}}{\min(\pi(S), \pi(\bar{S}))}$$



## Definition 2. Normalized conductance

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$$\Phi(S) = \frac{\sum_{(x,y) \in (S, \bar{S})} \pi_x p_{xy}}{\min(\pi(S), \pi(\bar{S}))}$$

- If  $\pi(S) \leq \pi(\bar{S})$ , we have  $\Phi(S) = \sum_{x \in S} \frac{\pi_x}{\pi(S)} \sum_{y \in \bar{S}} p_{xy}$ .
  - $\sum_{x \in S} \frac{\pi_x}{\pi(S)}$  is the probability of being in  $x$  if we were in the stationary distribution restricted to  $S$ .
  - $\sum_{y \in \bar{S}} p_{xy}$  is the probability of stepping from  $x$  to  $\bar{S}$  in a single step.
- Then,  $\Phi(S)$  is the probability of moving from  $S$  to  $\bar{S}$  in one step if we were in the stationary distribution restricted to  $S$ .

## Definition 3. Normalized conductance of the Markov chain

We define *the* normalized conductance of the Markov chain as follows:

$$\Phi = \min_{S \in V, S \neq \emptyset} \Phi(S)$$

## Theorem 4. $\varepsilon$ -mixing time of a random walk

The  $\varepsilon$ -mixing time of a random walk on an undirected graph is

$$O\left(\frac{\ln(1/\pi_{\min})}{\Phi^2 \varepsilon^3}\right)$$

where  $\pi_{\min}$  is the minimum stationary probability of any state.

**Proof.** See Page 90-92 of Textbook B.

## Theorem 4. $\varepsilon$ -mixing time of a random walk

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where  $\pi_{\min}$  is the minimum stationary probability of any state.

- By theorem 4, one can show the convergence rate of the random walk of
  - 1-dimensional lattice with self-loops at both ends:  $O\left(\frac{n^2 \log n}{\varepsilon^3}\right)$  where  $n$  denotes the number of vertices.
  - $d$ -dimensional lattice with self-loops at each boundary point :  $O\left(\frac{d^3 n^2 \log n}{\varepsilon^3}\right)$  where  $n$  denotes the number of vertices in each dimension.
  - a connected undirected graph :  $O\left(\frac{n^4 \log n}{\varepsilon^3}\right)$  where  $n$  denotes the number of vertices.
- The convergence rate is polynomially bounded by  $n$  and  $d$ .

## Theorem 4. $\varepsilon$ -mixing time of a random walk

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where  $\pi_{\min}$  is the minimum stationary probability of any state.

- **Proof sketch** of 1-dimensional lattice with self-loops.

With self-loops,  $p_{xy} = \frac{1}{2}$  for all edges  $(x,y)$ . Also, stationary distribution is  $\frac{1}{n}$  for all vertices.

The set  $S$  with  $\frac{n}{2}$  vertices yields the minimum  $\Phi(S)$  with  $\Phi = \frac{1}{n}$ .

Therefore, by Theorem 4, the  $\varepsilon$ -mixing time is  $O\left(\frac{n^2 \log n}{\varepsilon^3}\right)$ .

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- For undirected graphs with unit edge weights, some concrete analysis for a random walk can be done.
  - Hitting time ( $h_{xy}$ ): expected time of a random walk starting at vertex  $x$  to reach vertex  $y$ .
  - Commute time ( $commute(x, y)$ ): expected time of a random walk starting at  $x$  reaching  $y$  and then returning to  $x$ . *i.e.*,  $commute(x, y) = h_{xy} + h_{yx}$ .
  - Cover time ( $cover(G)$ ): expected time of any vertex to reach other vertices at least once.
- The proofs of this section is somewhat technical. You can find the proofs in section 4.6 of Textbook B.

## Theorem 5.

If vertices  $x$  and  $y$  are connected by an edge, then  $h_{xy} + h_{yx} \leq 2m$  where  $m$  is the number of edges in the graph.

## Theorem 6.

For vertices  $x$  and  $y$  in an  $n$  vertex graph,  $commute(x, y)$  is less than or equal to  $n^3$ .

## Theorem 7.

Let  $G$  be a connected graph with  $n$  vertices and  $m$  edges.  $Cover(G)$  is bounded above by  $4m(n - 1)$ .

Questions?