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2 Metropolis Algorithm

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7 Definition

The Metropolis algorithm is a Monte Carlo method 8 advanced by Metropolis et al. (1953) to generate sam-9 ples from a prespecified target probability distribution. 10 Originally, it was applied to investigate the statistical 11 mechanics of fluids. By now, this method and its 12 extensions are used for a wide range of problems in 13 scientific computing (see, e.g., Liu (2004)). The basic 14 idea is to simulate a Markov chain so that its stationary 15 distribution is the target distribution. 16

Let X be a discrete state space (finite or countable) 17 on which the target probability distribution 18 $\pi = (\pi_x)_{x \in \mathbb{X}}$ is defined. It is assumed that 19 $\pi_x > 0, x \in \mathbb{X}$. Suppose that Q is a symmetric transi-20 tion probability matrix, that is $Q = (q_{xy})_{x,y \in \mathbb{X}}$ with $q_{xy} \ge 0$, $q_{xy} = q_{yx}$, $\sum_{y \in \mathbb{X}} q_{xy} = 1, x, y \in \mathbb{X}$. The 21 22 following algorithm generates values (realizations) 23 x_0, x_1, \ldots of a Markov chain X_0, X_1, \ldots Given the 24 current state $X_t = x$ the next state X_{t+1} is determined by 25 the following: 26

1. Choose a proposal state $y \in \mathbb{X}$ randomly according to the probability vector $Q_x := (q_{xy})_{y \in \mathbb{X}}$.

29 2. Calculate the acceptance probability $\alpha = \min_{30} \{1, \pi_y/\pi_x\}$.

3. Accept the proposal by setting $X_{t+1} := y$ with probability α , or ignore the proposal by setting $X_{t+1} := x_{32}$ with probability $1 - \alpha$.

The stationary distribution of the Markov chain ³⁴ X_0, X_1, \ldots constructed in this way is automatically π ³⁵ (Madras 2002). After some relaxation time, the chain ³⁶ generates samples from the target distribution, inde-³⁷ pendent of the starting value. This allows to compute ³⁸ approximations of the mean value or higher moments ³⁹ of the distribution. ⁴⁰

The Metropolis algorithm is particularly powerful, 41 when the state space on which the probability distribu- 42 tion is defined consists of spatial configurations of 43 particles (individuals, cells, etc.) that underlie 44 a certain interdependence structure. The moments of 45 the system then correspond to macroscopic variables 46 that are often only numerically computable. In these 47 applications, the space is discretized to ensure the 48 discreteness of the state space. Then, a configuration 49 η (of cells, particles, ...) can be understood as an 50 element of $\mathbf{X} := W^S$, where $S \subset \mathbb{Z}^d$ is a regular lattice. 51 The finite set W consists of all considered cell types or 52 states (orientation, mass, cell cycle phase, sensitivity, 53 etc.). The interpretation is that at each lattice node, 54 there can be at most one cell with a certain cell type 55 from W. Each cell's state shall depend on the states of 56its neighboring cells. Then, the overall 57 interdependence structure can be described by 58 a Hamilton function H: $\mathbf{X} \to \mathbb{R}$, which leads, for 59 instance, to the target probability distribution 60

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$$\pi(\eta) = Z^{-1} \exp\{-H(\eta)\}, \qquad \eta \in \mathbb{X}$$

- where Z is a normalizing constant. In this situation,
- ⁶² a variant of the Metropolis algorithm, the so-called
- 63 Glauber dynamics, is given by the following:
- 64 (0) Start with configuration η .
- (1) Pick a target site $x \in S$ at random with uniform distribution on *S*.
- 67 (2) Pick a state *w* from *W* randomly with uniform
 68 distribution.
- 69 (3) Calculate the energetic difference
- 70 $\Delta H_x^w := H(\eta_x^w) H(\eta)$ of a transition $\eta \to \eta_x^w$,
- where $\eta_x^w(z) := w$ if z = x and $\eta_x^2(z) := \eta(z)$
- 72 otherwise.
- 73 (4) Accept the transition by setting $\eta := \eta_x^w$ with
- r4 probability $p(\Delta H_x^w)$, or ignore the transition with
- probability $1 p(\Delta H_x^2)$, where

$$p(\Delta \mathbf{H}_{x}^{w}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \Delta \mathbf{H}_{x}^{w} < 0\\ e^{-\Delta \mathbf{H}_{x}^{w}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(5) Go to (1) or end the algorithm.

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