STAT-F-407 Markov Chains

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Outline of the course

- 1. A short introduction.
- 2. Basic probability review.
- 3. Martingales.
- 4. Markov chains.
 - 4.1. Definitions and examples.
 - 4.2. Strong Markov property, number of visits.
 - 4.3. Classification of states.
 - 4.4. Computation of *R* and *F*.
 - 4.5. Asymptotic behavior.
- 5. Markov processes, Poisson processes.
- 6. Brownian motions.

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Markov chains

The importance of these processes comes from two facts:

- there is a large number of physical, biological, economic, and social phenomena that can be described in this way, and
- there is a well-developed theory that allows for doing the computations and obtaining explicit results...

Definitions and examples

Let *S* be a finite or countable set (number its elements using i = 1, 2, Let $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a SP with $X_n : (\Omega, A, P) \to S$ for all n.

Definition: (X_n) is a Markov chain (MC) on $S \Leftrightarrow$

$$\mathbb{P}[X_{n+1}=j|X_0,X_1,\ldots,X_n]=\mathbb{P}[X_{n+1}=j|X_n]\quad\forall n\ \forall j.$$

Remarks:

- The equation above is the so-called Markov property. It states that the future does only depend on the present state of the process, and not on its past.
- S is the state space.
- ▶ The elements of *S* are the states.

Definitions and examples

Definition: The MC (X_n) is homogeneous $(\rightsquigarrow HMC) \Leftrightarrow$

$$\mathbb{P}[X_{n+1}=j|X_n=i]=\mathbb{P}[X_1=j|X_0=i]\quad\forall n\,\forall i,j.$$

For a HMC, one can define the transition probabilities

$$\rho_{ij} = \mathbb{P}[X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i] \quad \forall i, j,$$

which are usually collected in the transition matrix $P = (p_{ij})$.

The transition matrix P is a "stochastic matrix", which means that

- ▶ $p_{ij} \in [0, 1]$ for all i, j.

In vector notation, P1 = 1, where 1 stands for the vector of ones with the appropriate dimension.

Example 1: random walk

Let $X_1, X_2, ...$ be i.i.d., with $\mathbb{P}[X_i = 1] = p$ and $\mathbb{P}[X_i = -1] = q = 1 - p$ Let $Y_i := \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ be the corresponding random walk.

 \rightsquigarrow (Y_n) is a HMC on $S = \mathbb{Z}$ with transition matrix

Example 2: rw with absorbing barriers

Let $X_1, X_2,...$ be i.i.d., with $\mathbb{P}[X_i = 1] = p$ and $\mathbb{P}[X_i = -1] = q = 1 - p$ Let $Y_0 := k \in \{1, 2, ..., m - 1\}$ be the initial state.

Let $Y_{n+1} := (Y_n + X_{n+1}) \mathbb{I}_{[Y_n \notin \{0, m\}]} + Y_n \mathbb{I}_{[Y_n \in \{0, m\}]}.$

 \rightsquigarrow (Y_n) is a HMC on $S = \{0, 1, \dots, m\}$ with transition matrix

Example 3: success runs

Let $X_1, X_2, ...$ be i.i.d., with $\mathbb{P}[X_i = 1] = p$ and $\mathbb{P}[X_i = 0] = q = 1 - p$. Let $Y_0 := 0$ be the initial state.

Let $Y_{n+1} := (Y_n + 1) \mathbb{I}_{[X_{n+1} = 1]} + 0 \times \mathbb{I}_{[X_{n+1} = 0]}$.

 \rightsquigarrow (Y_n) is a HMC on $S = \mathbb{N}$ with transition matrix

Example 4: discrete queue models

Let Y_n be the number of clients in a queue at time n ($Y_0 = 0$). Let X_n be the number of clients entering the shop between time n-1 and n (X_n i.i.d., with $\mathbb{P}[X_n=i]=p_i; \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} p_i=1$). Assume a service needs exactly one unit of time to be completed.

Then

$$Y_{n+1} = (Y_n + X_n - 1) \mathbb{I}_{[Y_n > 0]} + X_n \mathbb{I}_{[Y_n = 0]},$$

and (Y_n) is a HMC on $S = \mathbb{N}$ with transition matrix

$$P = \left(\begin{array}{ccccc} \rho_0 & \rho_1 & \rho_2 & \dots & & \\ \rho_0 & \rho_1 & \rho_2 & \dots & & & \\ 0 & \rho_0 & \rho_1 & \rho_2 & \dots & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \end{array} \right).$$

Example 5: stock management

Let X_n be the number of units on hand at the end of day n ($X_0 = M$).

Let D_n be the demand on day n (D_n i.i.d., $\mathbb{P}[D_n = i] = p_i$; $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} p_i = 1$).

Assume that if $X_n \le m$, it is (instantaneously) set to M again.

Then, letting $x^+ = \max(x, 0)$, we have

$$X_{n+1} = (X_n - D_{n+1})^+ \mathbb{I}_{[X_n > m]} + (M - D_{n+1})^+ \mathbb{I}_{[X_n \le m]},$$

and (X_n) is a HMC on $S = \{0, 1, ..., M\}$ (exercise: derive P).

Questions:

- if we make 12\$ profit on each unit sold but it costs 2\$ a day to store items, what is the long-run profit per day of this inventory policy?
- ▶ How to choose (m, M) to maximize profit?

Example 6: income classes

Assume that from one generation to the next, families change their income group "Low", "Middle", or "High" (state 1,2, and 3, respectively) according to a HMC with transition matrix

$$P = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} .6 & .3 & .1 \\ .2 & .7 & .1 \\ .1 & .3 & .6 \end{array} \right).$$

Questions:

- Do the fractions of the population in the three income classes stabilize as time goes on?
- If this happens, how can we compute the limiting proportions from P?

We let
$$P = (p_{ij})$$
, where $p_{ij} = \mathbb{P}[X_1 = j | X_0 = i]$.
Now, define $P^{(n)} = (p_{ij}^{(n)})$, where $p_{ij}^{(n)} = \mathbb{P}[X_n = j | X_0 = i]$.

What is the link between P and $P^{(n)}$?

$$\sim$$
 Theorem: $P^{(n)} = P^n$.

Proof: the result holds for n = 1. Now, assume it holds for n. Then $(P^{(n+1)})_{ij} = \mathbb{P}[X_{n+1} = j | X_0 = i] = \sum_k \mathbb{P}[X_{n+1} = j, X_n = k | X_0 = i] = \sum_k \mathbb{P}[X_{n+1} = j | X_n = k, X_0 = i] \mathbb{P}[X_n = k | X_0 = i] = \sum_k \mathbb{P}[X_{n+1} = j | X_n = k] \mathbb{P}[X_n = k | X_0 = i] = \sum_k (P^{(n)})_{ik} (P^{(1)})_{kj} = (P^{(n)}P)_{ij} = (P^nP)_{ij} = (P^{n+1})_{ij}$, so that the result holds for n + 1 as well.

Of course, this implies that $P^{(n+m)} = P^{n+m} = P^n P^m = P^{(n)} P^{(m)}$, that is, $\mathbb{P}[X_{n+m} = j | X_0 = i] = \sum_k \mathbb{P}[X_n = k | X_0 = i] \mathbb{P}[X_m = j | X_0 = k],$

which are the so-called Chapman-Kolmogorov equations.

Clearly, the distribution of X_n is of primary interest.

Let $a^{(n)}$ be the (line) vector with jth component $(a^{(n)})_j = \mathbb{P}[X_n = j]$. \sim **Theorem**: $a^{(n)} = a^{(0)}P^n$.

Proof: using the total probability formula, we obtain
$$(a^{(n)})_j = \mathbb{P}[X_n = j] = \sum_k \mathbb{P}[X_n = j | X_0 = k] \mathbb{P}[X_0 = k] = \sum_k (a^{(0)})_k (P^{(n)})_{kj} = (a^{(0)}P^{(n)})_j = (a^{(0)}P^n)_j$$
, which establishes the result.

This shows that one can very easily compute the distribution of X_n in terms of

- the distribution of X_0 , and
- the transition matrix P.

Proposition: let (X_n) be a HMC on S. Then

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}[X_1 = i_1, X_2 = i_2, \dots, X_n = i_n | X_0 = i_0], \\ \mathbb{P}[X_{m+1} = i_1, X_{m+2} = i_2, \dots, X_{m+n} = i_n | X_m = i_0], \end{split}$$

and

$$\mathbb{P}[X_{m+1} = i_1, X_{m+2} = i_2, \dots, X_{m+n} = i_n | X_0 = j_0, X_1 = j_1, \dots, X_m = i_0]$$
 all are equal to $p_{i_0, i_1} p_{i_1, i_2} \dots p_{i_{n-1}, i_n}$.

Proof: exercise...

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Strong Markov property

Quite similarly as for the optional stopping theorem for martingales, $\mathbb{P}[X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i] = p_{ij}$ does also hold at stopping times T. This is the so-called "strong Markov property" (SMP).

An illustration: for 0 < p, q < 1 (p + q = 1), consider the HMC with graph Let T be the time of first visit in $2 \rightsquigarrow \mathbb{P}[X_{T+1} = 1 | X_T = 2] = q(= p_{21})$.

Let T be the time of last visit in $2 \rightsquigarrow \mathbb{P}[X_{T+1} = 1 | X_T = 2] = q(= p_{21})$.

Let T be the time of last visit in $2 \rightsquigarrow \mathbb{P}[X_{T+1} = 1 | X_T = 2] = q^\infty = 0$ $(\neq p_{21})$, which shows that the SMP may be violated if T is not a ST.

Numbers of visits

Of particular interest is also the total number of visits in j, that is $N_j = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} I_{[X_n = j]}$.

To determine the distribution of N_i , let

- ▶ $T_j = \inf\{n \in \mathbb{N}_0 | X_n = j\}$, which is the time of first visit in j (if $X_0 \neq j$) or of first return to j (if $X_0 = j$), and
- $f_{ij} = \mathbb{P}[T_j < \infty | X_0 = i].$

Let θ_k be the time of kth visit of the chain in j (if there are only k visits in j, we let $\theta_\ell = \infty$ for all $\ell \geq k+1$ and $\theta_{\ell+1} - \theta_\ell = \infty$ for all $\ell \geq k$).

Then, for
$$k = 1, 2, ...,$$

$$\mathbb{P}[N_j = k | X_0 = i]$$

$$= \mathbb{P}[\theta_1 < \infty, ..., \theta_k < \infty, \theta_{k+1} = \infty | X_0 = i]$$

$$= \mathbb{P}[\theta_1 < \infty | X_0 = i] ... \mathbb{P}[\theta_{k+1} = \infty | \theta_1 < \infty, ..., \theta_k < \infty, X_0 = i]$$

$$= \mathbb{P}[\theta_1 < \infty | X_0 = i] (\mathbb{P}[\theta_1 < \infty | X_0 = j])^{k-1} \mathbb{P}[\theta_1 = \infty | X_0 = j]$$

$$= f_{ij} f_{ij}^{k-1} (1 - f_{ij}).$$

Numbers of visits

Working similarly, one shows that

$$\mathbb{P}[N_j = k | X_0 = i] = \begin{cases} f_{ij} f_{jj}^{k-1} (1 - f_{jj}) & \text{if } k > 0 \\ 1 - f_{ij} & \text{if } k = 0 \end{cases}$$

for
$$i \neq j$$
, and $\mathbb{P}[N_j = k | X_0 = j] = f_{ii}^{k-1} (1 - f_{jj}), \quad k > 0.$

Hence, letting $r_{ij} = E[N_j | X_0 = i]$ be the expected number of visits in j when starting from i, we have, for $i \neq j$,

$$r_{ij} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k \mathbb{P}[N_j = k | X_0 = i] = f_{ij} (1 - f_{jj}) \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k f_{jj}^{k-1} = \frac{f_{ij}}{1 - f_{jj}}$$
d

and

$$r_{jj} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k \mathbb{P}[N_j = k | X_0 = j] = (1 - f_{jj}) \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k f_{jj}^{k-1} = \frac{1}{1 - f_{jj}}.$$

Numbers of visits

Similarly as for the transition probabilities p_{ij} , the $r_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[N_j | X_0 = i]$ will be collected in some matrix $R = (r_{ij})$.

Note that

$$r_{ij} = \mathbb{E}\Big[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} I_{[X_n=j]}|X_0 = i\Big] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{E}[I_{[X_n=j]}|X_0 = i]$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}[X_n = j|X_0 = i] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \rho_{ij}^{(n)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (P^n)_{ij},$$

which shows that

$$R=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}P^{n}$$
.

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Definition:

- ▶ the state j is transient $\Leftrightarrow f_{jj} < 1$.
- ▶ the state j is recurrent $\Leftrightarrow f_{jj} = 1$.

Remarks:

- ▶ j transient $\Leftrightarrow r_{jj} < \infty$; j recurrent $\Leftrightarrow r_{jj} = \infty$.
- ▶ j transient $\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}[T_j = \infty | X_0 = j] > 0 \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[T_j | X_0 = j] = \infty$.
- ▶ j recurrent $\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}[T_j = \infty | X_0 = j] = 0$, but $\mathbb{E}[T_j | X_0 = j]$ can be finite or infinite...

→ Definition:

- ▶ *j* is positive-recurrent \Leftrightarrow *j* is recurrent and $\mathbb{E}[T_j|X_0=j]<\infty$.
- ▶ j is null-recurrent $\Leftrightarrow j$ is recurrent and $\mathbb{E}[T_j|X_0=j]=\infty$.

Definition:

j is accessible from i (not. $i \to j$) $\Leftrightarrow \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $p_{ij}^{(n)} > 0$ (that is, there is some path, from i to j, in the graph of the HMC).

Letting $\alpha_{ij} = \mathbb{P}[\text{go to } j \text{ before coming back to } i | X_0 = i]$, the following are equivalent

- $i \rightarrow j$.
- ▶ $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $(P^n)_{ij} > 0$.
- $f_{ij} > 0$.
- $\qquad \alpha_{ij} > 0.$

Definition: i and j communicate (not.: $i \leftrightarrow j$) $\Leftrightarrow i \rightarrow j$ and $j \rightarrow i$.

This allows for a partition of the state space S into classes (=subsets of S in which states communicate with each other).

→ two types of classes:

- ▶ C is open $\Leftrightarrow \forall i \in C$, there is some $j \notin C$ such that $i \to j$.
- ▶ C is closed $\Leftrightarrow \forall i \in C$, there is no $j \notin C$ such that $i \to j$.

There are strong links between the types of classes and the types of states...

Proposition: all states in an open class C are transient.

Proof: let $i \in \mathcal{C}$. Then there is some $j \notin \mathcal{C}$ such that $i \to j$ (and hence $j \nrightarrow i$). We then have

$$1 - f_{ii} = \mathbb{P}[T_i = \infty | X_0 = i]$$

$$\geq \mathbb{P}[\text{go to } j \text{ before coming back to } i | X_0 = i]$$

$$= \alpha_{ij} > 0,$$

so that *i* is transient.

What about states in a closed class?

Proposition: let C be a closed class. Then if there is some recurrent state $i \in C$, all states in C are recurrent.

Proof: let $j \in \mathcal{C}$. Choose $r, s \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $(P^r)_{ij} > 0$ and $(P^s)_{ji} > 0$ (existence since $i \leftrightarrow j$). Then j is recurrent since

$$r_{jj} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (P^{n})_{jj} \ge \sum_{n=r+s}^{\infty} (P^{n})_{jj} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (P^{s}P^{m}P^{r})_{jj}$$

$$= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k,\ell} (P^{s})_{jk} (P^{m})_{k\ell} (P^{r})_{\ell j}$$

$$\ge \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (P^{s})_{ji} (P^{m})_{ii} (P^{r})_{ij}$$

$$= (P^{s})_{ji} r_{ij} (P^{r})_{ij} = \infty.$$

Proposition: let C be a closed class. Then if there is some recurrent state $i \in C$, all states in C are recurrent.

This result shows that recurrent and transient states do not mix in a closed class. Actually, it can be shown that:

Consequently, a closed class contains either

- transient states only, or
- positive-recurrent states only, or
- null-recurrent states only.

The following result is very useful:

Proposition: let $\mathcal C$ be a closed class, with $\#\mathcal C<\infty$. Then all states in $\mathcal C$ are positive-recurrent.

How would look a closed class with transient states?

An example: with p+q=1, consider the chain If $p>\frac{1}{2}$, one can show all states are transient...

A last result in this series:

Proposition: let C be a closed class, with recurrent states. Then $f_{ij} = 1$ for all $i, j \in C$.

Proof: let $i, j \in C$. Since j is recurrent, $f_{jj} = 1$, so that

$$0 = 1 - f_{jj} = \mathbb{P}[T_j = \infty | X_0 = j]$$

$$\geq \mathbb{P}[\text{go to } i \text{ before coming back to } j,$$
and then never come back to $j | X_0 = j]$

$$= \alpha_{ji} (1 - f_{ij}).$$

Hence, $\alpha_{ji}(1 - f_{ij}) = 0$. Since $\alpha_{ji} > 0$ $(j \rightarrow i)$, we must have $f_{ij} = 1$.

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Computation of R and F

In this section, we describe a systematic method that allows for computing the matrices

$$R = (r_{ij})$$

where

$$r_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[N_i|X_0=i]$$

is the expected number of visits in j when starting from i, and

$$F=(f_{ij})$$

where

$$f_{ij} = \mathbb{P}[T_j < \infty | X_0 = i]$$

is the probability that, being in i, the HMC will visit j in the future.

Computation of R and F

The first step consists in renumerating the states in such a way the indices of recurrent states are smaller than those of transient ones. (remark: we assume $\#S < \infty$ in this section)

Consequently, the transition matrix can be partitioned into

$$P = \left(\begin{array}{cc} P_{rr} & P_{rt} \\ P_{tr} & P_{tt} \end{array}\right),$$

where P_{tr} is the transition matrix from transient states to recurrent ones, P_{rr} that between recurrent states, and so on...

Of course, we will partition accordingly

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} R_{rr} & R_{rt} \\ R_{tr} & R_{tt} \end{pmatrix}$$
 and $F = \begin{pmatrix} F_{rr} & F_{rt} \\ F_{tr} & F_{tt} \end{pmatrix}$.

Computation of R and F

Actually, $P_{rt} = 0$.

Indeed, if i is recurrent and j is transient, i belongs to some closed class \mathcal{C}_1 , while j belongs to another class \mathcal{C}_2 (otherwise, j would be recurrent as well). Hence, $i \rightarrow j$, so that $p_{ij} = 0$.

Clearly, this also implies that $R_{rt} = 0$ and $F_{rt} = 0$.

(a) Computation of R

We start with the computation of

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} R_{rr} & R_{rt} \\ R_{tr} & R_{tt} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R_{rr} & 0 \\ R_{tr} & R_{tt} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Previously, we showed that $R = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n$, so that

$$\begin{pmatrix} R_{rr} & 0 \\ R_{tr} & R_{tt} \end{pmatrix} = R = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \begin{pmatrix} ? & 0 \\ ? & P_{tt}^n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ? & 0 \\ ? & \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_{tt}^n \end{pmatrix},$$

which yields that

$$R_{tt} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_{tt}^n = I + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{tt}^n = I + P_{tt} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{tt}^{n-1} = I + P_{tt} R_{tt},$$

so that $R_{tt} = (I - P_{tt})^{-1}$.

(a) Computation of R

It remains to compute the entries r_{ij} , where j is recurrent.

 \sim **Proposition**: for such entries, (i) $r_{ij} = \infty$ if $i \to j$ and (ii) $r_{ij} = 0$ if $i \not\to j$.

Proof:

- (i) in the previous lecture, we have shown that $r_{ij} = f_{ij}/(1 f_{jj})$ and $r_{jj} = 1/(1 f_{jj})$, so that $r_{ij} = f_{ij}r_{jj}$. Now, if $i \to j$, we have $f_{ij} > 0$, so that $r_{ij} = f_{ij}r_{jj} = f_{ij} \times \infty = \infty$ (since j is recurrent).
- (ii) is trivial, since $i \Rightarrow j$ implies that $N_j | [X_0 = i] = 0$ a.s., which yields $r_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[N_i | X_0 = i] = 0$.

We now go to the computation of

$$F = \left(\begin{array}{cc} F_{rr} & F_{rt} \\ F_{tr} & F_{tt} \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} F_{rr} & 0 \\ F_{tr} & F_{tt} \end{array}\right).$$

(i)
$$F_{rr} = ?$$

If
$$i \mapsto j$$
, $f_{ij} = \mathbb{P}[T_j < \infty | X_0 = i] = 0$.

If $i \to j$, then we must also have $j \to i$ (indeed, $j \to i$ would imply that i belongs to an open class, and hence that i is transient). Therefore, i and j are recurrent states belonging to the same class, so that $f_{ij} = 1$ (cf. previously).

(ii)
$$F_{tt} = ?$$

By inverting

$$\left\{\begin{array}{l} r_{jj} = \frac{1}{1 - f_{jj}} \\ r_{ij} = \frac{f_{ij}}{1 - f_{jj}}, \end{array}\right.$$

we obtain

$$\begin{cases} f_{jj} = 1 - \frac{1}{r_{jj}} \\ f_{ij} = \frac{r_{ij}}{r_{ii}}, \end{cases}$$

which does the job since $R = (r_{ij})$ has already been obtained...

(iii) $F_{tr} = ?$

Complicated...(discussion).

We start with a lemma:

 \sim **Lemma**: let i be transient. Let j, k be recurrent states in the same class C. Then $f_{ij} = f_{ik}$.

Proof: since j, k are recurrent states in the same class, $f_{jk} = 1$. Hence.

$$f_{ik} = \mathbb{P}[T_k < \infty | X_0 = i] \ge \mathbb{P}[\text{go to } j, \text{ then go to } k | X_0 = i] = f_{ij}f_{jk} = f_{ij}.$$

Similarly, we obtain
$$f_{ii} \geq f_{ik}$$
, so that $f_{ik} = f_{ji}$

Therefore, it is sufficient to compute $\mathbb{P}[T_{\mathcal{C}} < \infty | X_0 = i]$ for each transient state i and for each class of recurrent states \mathcal{C} .

To achieve this, consider the new HMC (\tilde{X}_n) on \tilde{S} , for which

- the transient states of S remain transient states in \tilde{S} , and
- each class C_k (k = 1, ..., K) of recurrent states gives birth to a single recurrent state k in \tilde{S} .

The transition matrix \tilde{P} of (\tilde{X}_n) is

$$\tilde{\textit{P}} = \left(\begin{array}{cc} \tilde{\textit{P}}_{\textit{rr}} & \tilde{\textit{P}}_{\textit{rt}} \\ \tilde{\textit{P}}_{\textit{tr}} & \tilde{\textit{P}}_{\textit{tt}} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} \textit{I}_{\textit{K}} & \textit{0} \\ \textit{B} & \textit{P}_{\textit{tt}} \end{array} \right),$$

where
$$B_{ik} = \mathbb{P}[\tilde{X}_1 = k | \tilde{X}_0 = i] = \sum_{j \in C_k} \mathbb{P}[X_1 = j | X_0 = i].$$

Now, letting $T_{\mathcal{C}_k} := \inf\{n \in \mathbb{N} | X_n \in \mathcal{C}_k\} = \inf\{n \in \mathbb{N} | \tilde{X}_n = k\}$, the previous lemma states that $g_{ik} = \mathbb{P}[T_{\mathcal{C}_k} < \infty | X_0 = i]$ is the common value of the f_{ij} 's, $j \in \mathcal{C}_k$.

$$\sim$$
 Proposition: let $G = (g_{ik})$, where $g_{ik} = \mathbb{P}[T_{C_k} < \infty | X_0 = i]$. Then $G = R_{tt}B$.

Proof:

$$g_{ik} = \mathbb{P}[T_{\mathcal{C}_k} < \infty | X_0 = i] = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}[X_n \in \mathcal{C}_k | X_0 = i]$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}[\tilde{X}_n = k | \tilde{X}_0 = i] = \lim_{n \to \infty} (\tilde{P}^n)_{ik}.$$

Now, it is easy to check that

$$\tilde{P}^n = \begin{pmatrix} I_K & 0 \\ B^{(n)} & P_{tt}^n \end{pmatrix},$$

where
$$B^{(n)} = B + P_{tt}B + P_{tt}^2B + ... + P_{tt}^{n-1}B$$
. Hence,
$$G = \lim_{n \to \infty} B^{(n)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} (B + P_{tt}B + P_{tt}^2B + ... + P_{tt}^{n-1}B)$$

$$= \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_{tt}^n\right)B = R_{tt}B.$$

A and B own together 6\$. They sequentially bet 1\$ when flipping a (fair) coin. Let X_n be the fortune of A after game n. The game ends as soon as some player is ruined.

 $\sim (X_n)$ is a HMC with transition matrix

We first have to renumerate the states in such a way recurrent states come before transient ones:

 \sim (X_n) is a HMC with transition matrix

$$P = \left(\begin{array}{c|ccccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \end{array} \right).$$

The computation of R is immediate, but for the block R_{tt} , which is given by $R_{tt} = (I - P_{tt})^{-1}$

$$= \left(\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{array}\right)^{-1} = \left(\begin{array}{cccccccc} \frac{5}{3} & \frac{4}{3} & 1 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{4}{3} & \frac{8}{3} & 2 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{4}{3} & 2 & \frac{8}{3} & \frac{4}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & 1 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{5}{3} \end{array}\right),$$

from which we learn, e.g., that $\mathbb{E}[N_6|X_0=3]=r_{36}=\frac{2}{3}$, or that the expected number of flips required to end the game, when starting from state 3, is

$$\sum_{j=2}^{6} r_{3j} = 8$$

The computation of F is immediate, but for the blocks F_{tt} and F_{tr} . The latter, in this simple case, is given by $F_{tr} = G = R_{tt}B = R_{tt}P_{tr}$

$$= \left(\begin{array}{ccccc} \frac{5}{3} & \frac{4}{3} & 1 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{4}{3} & \frac{8}{3} & 2 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & 1 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & 1 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{5}{66} & \frac{1}{6} \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3}$$

from which we learn, e.g., that the probability \boldsymbol{A} loses the game, when he starts with 2\$ (=state 3), is

$$f_{30}=\frac{2}{3}$$

Remarks:

- ► These results were previously obtained, in the chapter about martingales, by using the optional stopping theorem.
- It should be noted however that the methodology developed in this chapter applies to arbitrary graph structures...

Outline of the course

- 1. A short introduction.
- 2. Basic probability review.
- 3. Martingales.
- 4. Markov chains.
 - 4.1. Definitions and examples.
 - 4.2. Strong Markov property, number of visits.
 - 4.3. Classification of states.
 - 4.4. Computation of *R* and *F*.
 - 4.5. Asymptotic behavior.
- 5. Markov processes, Poisson processes.
- 6. Brownian motions.

Asymptotic behavior: an example

Let $0 \le p, q \le 1$ (with $0) and consider the chain We are interested in <math>a^{(n)} = (\mathbb{P}[X_n = 0], \mathbb{P}[X_n = 1])$ for large n. We have $a^{(n)} = a^{(0)}P^n$ and

$$a^{(0)}P^n = (\xi, 1-\xi) \left[\frac{1}{p+q} \left(\begin{array}{cc} q & p \\ q & p \end{array} \right) + \frac{(1-p-q)^n}{p+q} \left(\begin{array}{cc} p & -p \\ -q & q \end{array} \right) \right],$$

so that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}a^{(n)}=(\xi,1-\xi)\frac{1}{p+q}\begin{pmatrix}q&p\\q&p\end{pmatrix}=\Big(\frac{q}{p+q},\frac{p}{p+q}\Big),$$

which does not depend on $a^{(0)}$ (not so amazing! Why?)

Let (X_n) be a HMC with transition matrix P.

Definition: (X_n) admits a limiting distribution \Leftrightarrow

- ▶ $\exists \pi$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a^{(n)} = \pi$,
- $\pi_j \geq 0$ for all j and $\pi 1 = \sum_j \pi_j = 1$,
- π does not depend on $a^{(0)}$.

Remarks:

- \blacktriangleright π is called the limiting distribution.
- ▶ The existence of π does only depend on P.
- Not every HMC does admit some limiting distribution:

Consider the chain We have

$$a^{(n)} = a^{(0)}P^n = (\xi, 1 - \xi) \left[\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{(-1)^n}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right]$$
$$= \dots = \left(\frac{1}{2} + (-1)^n (\xi - \frac{1}{2}), \frac{1}{2} + (-1)^{n+1} (\xi - \frac{1}{2}) \right),$$

which does only converge for $\xi = \frac{1}{2}$. Hence, this HMC does not admit a limiting distribution...

How to determine the limiting distribution (if it exists)?

→ Theorem 1: assume the HMC is (i) irreducible (that is, contains only one class) and (ii) non-periodic. Then all states are positive-recurrent

⇔ The system of equations

$$\begin{cases} xP = x \\ x1 = 1 \end{cases}$$

has a nonnegative solution (and, in that case, $x = \pi$ is the limiting distribution).

Remark: π is also called the stationary (or invariant distribution). This terminology is explained by the fact that if one takes $a^{(0)}=\pi$, then $a^{(n)}=a^{(0)}P^n=a^{(0)}P^{n-1}=a^{(0)}P^{n-2}=\ldots=a^{(0)}P=a^{(0)}$ for all n.

How to determine the limiting distribution (if it exists)?

 \sim **Theorem 2**: assume the HMC has a finite state space and that *P* is regular (that is, ∃n such that $(P^n)_{ij} > 0$ for all *i*, *j*). Then it admits a limiting distribution, which is given by the solution of

$$\begin{cases} xP = x \\ x1 = 1. \end{cases}$$

 \sim **Theorem 3**: assume the eigenvalue 1 of P has multiplicity 1 and that all other eigenvalues $\lambda_j (\in \mathbb{C})$ satisfy $|\lambda_j| < 1$. Then the conclusion of Theorem 2 holds.

A simple (artificial) example...

Consider the chain with transition matrix

$$P = \left(\begin{array}{cc} \frac{3}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right).$$

Clearly, Theorem 2 does not apply, but Theorem 3 does. The limiting distribution is given by

$$(\pi_0,\pi_1)\left(egin{array}{ccc} rac{3}{4} & rac{1}{4} \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}
ight)=(\pi_0,\pi_1), \quad \pi_0+\pi_1=1, \quad \pi_0\geq 0, \quad \pi_1\geq 0,$$

which yields $\pi = (\pi_0, \pi_1) = (0, 1)...$ which is not very surprising.