# 4 Markov Chains

The large part of this section was done with references [1, 5, 6, 10].

### 4.1 Markov Model

**Stochastic Processes:** A stochastic process is a collection, or, a sequence of random variables  $\{X_t, t \in \mathcal{T}\}$ . The set  $\mathcal{T}$  is the index set of the process. All the r.v.s are defined on a common state space  $\mathcal{S}$ .

**Markov Property**: Given a stochastic process  $X_0, X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  taking values in the state space S, the future evolution of the process is independent of the past evolution of the process, i.e.,

$$P(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i_n, X_{n-1} = i_{n-1}, ..., X_0 = i_0) = P(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i_n).$$

The above equation holds for the first order Markov property. For the second order Markov property we have  $P(X_{n+1}|X_n,...,X_0)=P(X_{n+1}|X_n,X_{n-1})$ , etc. With Markov property, many calculation tasks can be simplified greatly.

**Markov Chain/Process**: A sequence of random variables  $X_0, X_1, X_2, ...$  taking values in the state space S is called a Markov chain if it has Markov property. A Markov process is the continuous-time version of a Markov Chain.

**Transition Matrix**: For a Markov Chain, let  $q_{ij} = P(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i)$  be the transition probability from state i to state j. Then the matrix Q is called the transition matrix of the chain.

Transition Matrix is a common way to express a Markov chain. Besides that, Markov chain can be represented in a graphical form.

## 4.2 Basic Computations

With a little abuse of notation, I would use Q to denote the transition matrix when we talk about Markov chain, and  $q_{i,j}^n$  to denote the entry  $(Q^n)_{i,j}$ . Now we introduce some useful computations.

n-step Transition Probability: For a Markov chain, the n-step transition probability from i to j is the probability of being at j exactly n steps after being at i, and

$$P(X_{n+m} = j | X_m = i) = q_{i,j}^n.$$

Proof:

For a Markov chain, the states are time-homogeneous. Thus we have

$$P(X_{n+m} = j | X_m = i) = P(X_n = j | X_o = i).$$

Hence it follows that

$$\begin{split} P(X_n = j | X_0 = i) &= \sum_k P(X_n = j, X_{n-1} = k | X_0 = i) \\ &= \sum_k P(X_n = j | X_{n-1} = k, X_0 = i) P(X_{n-1} = k | X_0 = i) \\ &= \sum_k q_{k,j} P(X_{n-1} = k | X_0 = i), \end{split} \tag{by Markov Property)}$$

then by *induction* from 2 to n-1, we have

$$P(X_{n+m} = j | X_m = i) = q_{i,j}^n.$$

With n-step transition probability, we have the *Chapman-Kolmogorov Equation*.

**Chapman-Kolmogorov Equation**: For  $m, n \geq 0$ , we have

$$P(X_{m+n} = j | X_0 = i) = \sum_{k} P(X_m = k | X_0 = i) P(X_n = j | X_0 = k).$$

The equation can be proved by matrix identity that  $q_{i,j}^{m+n} = \sum_k q_{i,k}^m q_{k,j}^n$ . By the equation, for a Markov chain with transition matrix P, the Markov property can be generalized to

$$P(X_{n+1} = j | X_{n-m} = i, X_{n-m-1} = i_{n-m-1}, ..., X_0 = i_0) = P(X_{n+1} = j | X_{n-m} = i) = q_{i,j}^{m+1}$$

for m < n and  $m \ge 0$ .

### 4.3 Classifications

Depending on whether they are visited over and over again in the long run or are eventually abandoned, the states of a Markov chain can be classified as recurrent or transient.

**Recurrent and Transient states**: State i of a Markov chain is recurrent if starting from i, the chain can always return to i. Otherwise, the state is transient, which means that if the chain starts from i, there is a positive probability of never returning to i.

**Irreducible and Reducible Chain**: A Markov chain with transition matrix Q is irreducible if for any two sates i and j, it is possible to go from i to j in a finite number of steps (with positive probability). That is, for any states i, j there is some positive integer n such that the (i,j) entry of  $Q^n$  is positive. A Markov chain that is not irreducible is called reducible.

In an irreducible Markov chain with a finite state space, all states are recurrent.

**Period**: For a Markov chain with transition matrix Q, the period of state i, denoted d(i), is the greatest common divisor of the set of possible return times to i. That is,

$$d(i) = \gcd\{n > 0 \mid q_{i,i}^n > 0\}.$$

If d(i) = 1, state i is said to be aperiodic. If the set of return times is empty, set  $d(i) = +\infty$ .

# 4.4 Stationary Distribution

**Stationary Distribution**: A row vector  $\mathbf{s} = (s_1, ..., s_M)$  such that  $\sum_i s_i = 1$  is a stationary distribution for a Markov chain with transition matrix Q if

$$\sum_{i} s_i q_{i,j} = s_j$$

for all j.

Any irreducible Markov chain has a unique stationary distribution.

**Doubly Stochastic Matrix**: A nonnegative matrix such that the row sums and the column sums are all equal to 1 is called a doubly stochastic matrix.

If the transition matrix Q of a Markov chain is a doubly stochastic matrix, then the uniform distribution over all states,  $(1/M, 1/M, ..., 1/M), M = |\mathcal{S}|$ , is a stationary distribution of the chain.

Convergence to Stationary Distribution: Let  $X_0, X_1, ...$  be a Markov chain with stationary distribution  $\mathbf s$  and transition matrix Q, such that some power  $Q^m$  is positive in all entries. (These assumptions are equivalent to assuming that the chain is irreducible and aperiodic.) Then  $P(X_n = i)$  converges to  $s_i$  as  $n \to \infty$ . In terms of the transition matrix,  $Q^n$  converges to a matrix in which each row is  $\mathbf s$ .

**Ergodic Markov chain**: A Markov chain is called ergodic if it is irreducible, aperiodic, and all states have finite expected return times (positive recurrent).

For an ergodic Markov chain  $X_0, X_1, ...$ , there exists a unique stationary distribution  $\pi$ , which is the limiting distribution of the chain. That is

$$\pi_j = \lim_{n \to \infty} q_{i,j}^n, \ \forall i, j.$$

## 4.5 Reversibility

**Reversibility**: Let Q be the transition matrix of a Markov chain. Suppose there is  $\mathbf{s}=(s_1,...,s_M)$  with  $s_i \geq 0, \sum_i s_i = 1$ , such that

$$s_i q_{i,j} = s_j q_{j,i}$$

for all pairs of states i and j.

This equation is called the reversibility or detailed balance condition. We say that the chain is reversible with respect to  $\mathbf{s}$  if it holds, and such  $\mathbf{s}$  is a stationary distribution of the chain.

**Detailed Balance Equation**: If for an irreducible Markov chain with transition matrix Q, there exists a probability solution  $\pi$  to the detailed balance equations

$$\pi_i q_{i,j} = \pi_j q_{j,i}$$

for all pairs of states i and j, then this Markov chain is positive recurrent, time-reversible and the solution  $\pi$  is the unique stationary distribution.

### 4.6 Markov chain Monte Carlo

Monte Carlo method is a simulation approach where we generate random values to approximate a quantity. A basic form of such method is directly generating i.i.d. draws  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  from a given distribution, then by the law of large numbers we can make a desired approximate if n is large. However, staring at a density function does not immediately suggest how to get a random variable with that density.

Fortunately, for this limitation, we have *Markov chain Monte Carlo* (MCMC), a powerful collection of algorithms, to enable us to simulate from complicated distributions using Markov chains. The basic idea is to *build your own Markov chain* so that the distribution of interest is the stationary distribution of the chain.

Convergence to stationary distribution: Let  $X_0, X_1, ...$  be a Markov chain with stationary distribution s and transition matrix Q, such that the chain is irreducible and aperiodic. Then  $P(X_n = i)$  converges to  $s_i$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

With the above theorem, which actually has been mentioned in *ergodic Markov chain*, we can approach the desired s by running our chain for a long time.

**Metropolis-Hastings**: Metropolis-Hastings allows us to start with any *irreducible* Markov chain on the state space of interest and then modify it into a new Markov chain that has the desired stationary distribution.

*Recall*: In an irreducible Markov chain, for any two states i and j it is possible to go from i to j in a finite number of steps.

**Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm**: Let  $s = (s_1, ..., s_M)$  be a desired stationary distribution on state space. Suppose that  $Q = q_{ij}$  is the transition matrix for any irreducible Markov chain on state space  $\{1, ..., M\}$ . Then we can use a chain with transition matrix Q to construct a collection of states sample

 $X_0, X_1, \dots$  with stationary distribution s.

#### Algorithm 5: Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

```
1 Initialization:
2 the desired distribution s=(s_1,...,s_M);
3 the chain with transition matrix Q;
4 the initial state X_0;
5 Repeat n=0,1,...:
6 If X_n=i, sample the next state j according to Q;
7 Calculate the acceptance probability a_{ij}=\min\left(\frac{s_jq_{ji}}{s_iq_{ij}},1\right);
8 Accept j with probability a_{ij};
9 If accept j:
10 X_{n+1}=j;
11 Else:
12 X_{n+1}=i;
```

In practice, a useful trick is *Burn-in*, which discards the initial iterations and retains  $X_m, X_{m+1}, ...$  for some m. The key of the algorithm is that the moves are proposed according to the original chain, but the proposal may or may not be accepted. By the *reversibility condition*, it can be showed that the sequence  $X_0, X_1, ...$  constructed by the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm is a *reversible* Markov chain with stationary distribution s.

**Gibbs Sampler**: Gibbs sampling is an MCMC algorithm for obtaining approximate draws from a joint distribution, based on sampling from conditional distributions one at a time: at each stage, one variable is updated (keeping all the other variables fixed) by drawing from the conditional distribution of that variable given all the other variables.

Gibbs sampler: Let X and Y be discrete r.v.s with joint PMF  $p_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$ . We wish to construct a two-dimensional Markov chain  $(X_n, Y_n)$  whose stationary distribution is  $p_{X,Y}$ . The systematic scan Gibbs sampler proceeds by updating the X-component and the Y-component in alternation. If the current state is  $(X_n, Y_n) = (x_n, y_n)$ , then we update the X-component while holding the Y-component fixed, and then update the Y-component while holding the X-component fixed.

### Algorithm 6: Gibbs Sampling algorithm

```
1 Initialization:
```

- 2 the desired joint distribution P(X, Y);
- 3 the initial state  $X_0, Y_0$ ;
- 4 Repeat n = 0, 1, ...:
- Sample the next state  $X_{n+1}$  from  $P(X, Y = Y_n)$ ;
- Sample the next state  $Y_{n+1}$  from  $P(X = X_{n+1}, Y)$ ;

The algorithm can be generalized to high dimensional easily in the light of line 5 and 6.