

Section 7.5 Stochastic Matrices

Stochastic Matrices are used to model transitions in sequences of states. For example, Markov chains.

These systems are “memoryless” - moving from one state to the next is only governed by probabilities.

We will often be concerned with the long term behaviour of such a system, in which case we will need to understand how to take limits. Check out Google's PageRank algorithm.

Definitions: A **probability vector** is a column of non-negative entries which add up to 1.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 \\ 0.05 \\ 0.15 \end{bmatrix}$$

A **stochastic matrix** M is a real square matrix whose columns are probability vectors.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.8 \end{bmatrix} \quad I_n$$
$$J_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad E = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.6 \\ 0.1 & 0.5 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: Some people require rows to also add to 1. However, we'd like to be able to distinguish between the two types. So:

More Definitions: A **doubly stochastic matrix** has both rows and columns adding to 1.

For example:

$$A, J_2, I_n$$

A **steady-state vector** is a vector, \underline{v} , such that $A\underline{v}=\underline{v}$.

BUT we will mostly talk about probability steady state vectors.

An **idempotent matrix**, A , is a square matrix satisfying: $A^2=A$.

For example:

$$A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = A$$

Facts:

1. Idempotent matrices have eigenvalues 0 and 1 only.
2. If A is an idempotent matrix, $A^n=A$ for all $n \geq 1$.

Exercise: prove these.

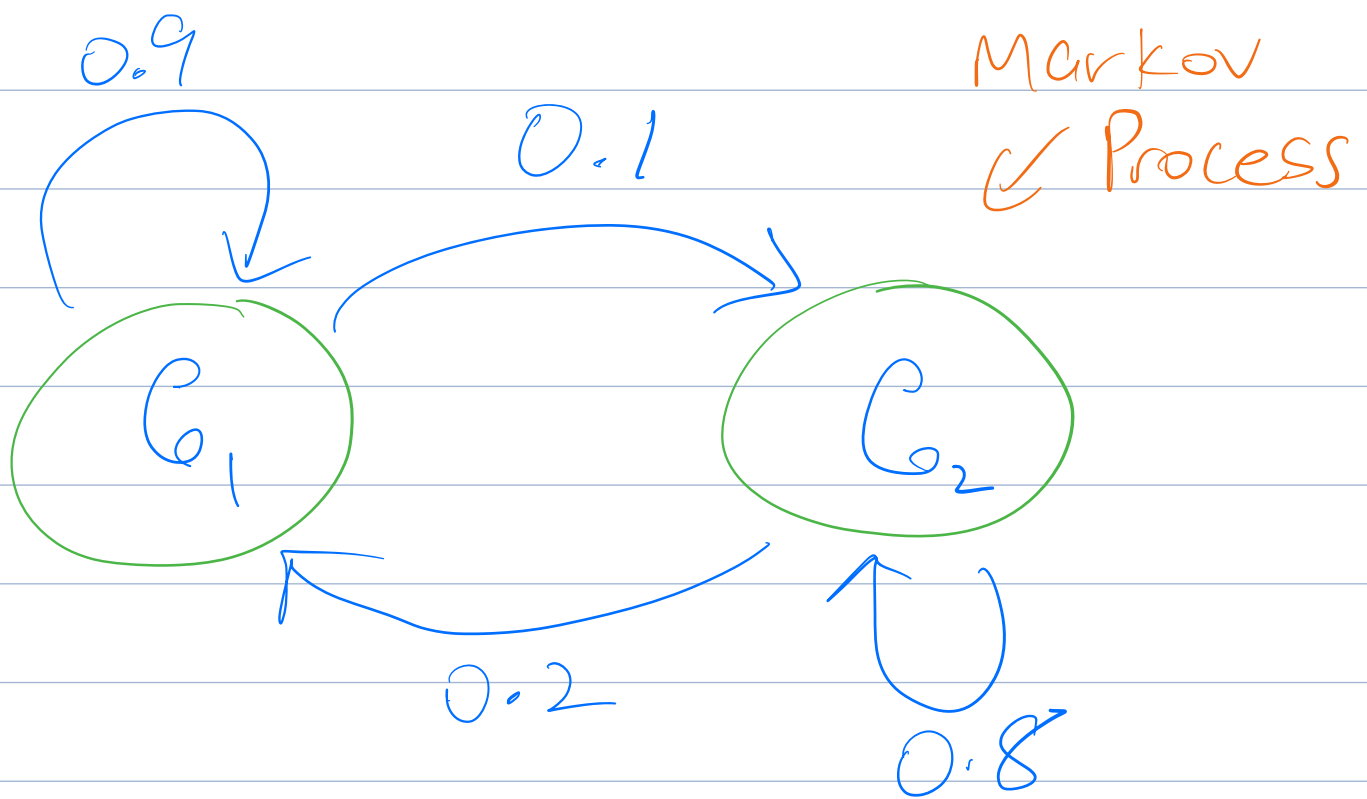
In practice, it is more difficult to find an expression for a high power of a matrices. For example, the matrix B (from above) is not idempotent. In fact, B^n , is quite messy. However, we can still find the long term behaviour using $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B^n$.

Example: Two companies, C_1 & C_2 , control some particular market (eg. Coles and Woolworths).

Suppose the following are reasonably accurate:

1. Each season, C_1 retains 0.9 of it's custom but loses 0.1 to C_2 .
2. Each season, C_2 retains 0.8 of it's custom but loses 0.2 to C_1 .

It looks like C_1 has the edge over C_2 . Will C_2 go out of business? Let's find out.



Let's convert the problem into matrix arithmetic.

At any given time, put

x = the proportion of the market held by G_1 , and

y = the proportion of the market held by G_2 .

Then $x+y=1$ since there are no other companies in the system.

Put $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.8 \end{bmatrix}$.

Then the proportions of the market share after one season are

$$B \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9x + 0.2y \\ 0.1x + 0.8y \end{bmatrix}$$

After two seasons the proportions would be given by $B^2 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$.

← proportion held by G_1 after one season.

← proportion held by G_2 after one season.

After three seasons the proportions would be given by $B^3 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$.

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In general, the proportions after n seasons are given by $B^n \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$.

So, we want to understand B^n , for large n .

Let's diagonalise B .

Eigenvalues

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\lambda I - B) &= \begin{vmatrix} \lambda - 0.9 & -0.2 \\ -0.1 & \lambda - 0.8 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (\lambda - 0.9)(\lambda - 0.8) - 0.02 \\ &= \lambda^2 - 0.17\lambda + 0.72 - 0.02 \\ &= \lambda^2 - \frac{17}{100}\lambda + \frac{7}{10} \\ &= (\lambda - 1)(\lambda - \frac{7}{10}) \end{aligned}$$

So $\lambda = 1$ and $\frac{7}{10}$.

Eigenspaces

$\lambda = 1$

$$I - B = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1 & -0.2 \\ -0.1 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let $y = t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Then $x - 2t = 0 \Rightarrow x = 2t$.

So eigenspace is $\left\{ t \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \mid t \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$

Let's choose a particular
eigenvector of $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\boxed{\lambda = 7/10} \quad \frac{7}{10}I - B = \begin{bmatrix} -0.2 & -0.2 \\ -0.1 & -0.1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ let } y = s \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{Then } x = -y = -s.$$

So the eigenspace is $\{s \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \mid s \in \mathbb{R}\}$

Choose $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ as our eigenvector.

$$\text{Then } P = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{7}{10} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{and then } P^{-1} = \frac{1}{2+1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\text{So we can conjugate } B = PDP^{-1}$$

$$\text{which we can use to find } B^n = (PDP^{-1})^n = PD^nP^{-1}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^n \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -\left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^n \\ 1 & \left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 + \left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^n & 2 - 2\left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^n \\ 1 - \left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^n & 1 + 2\left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Hence } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B^n = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}.$$

So the long term effect on the initial proportions $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3}x + \frac{2}{3}y \\ \frac{1}{3}x + \frac{1}{3}y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3}(x+y) \\ \frac{1}{3}(x+y) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

probability vector.

So, regardless of the initial proportions, in the long term

C_1 captures $\frac{2}{3}$ of the market, and

C_2 captures $\frac{1}{3}$ of the market.

Note that since

$$B \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix},$$

equilibrium has been reached and $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$ is a steady-state vector.

Theorems: Let A be a stochastic matrix.

1. 1 is an eigenvalue of A , and so A has at least one steady-state probability vector, \underline{v} , which is fixed

by A .

$$A\underline{v} = \underline{1}\underline{v}$$

2. All eigenvalues of A are less than or equal to 1 in magnitude.

3. If A is **regular** (some power of A has all positive entries), then:

A. \underline{v} is unique

There is only 1 steady state vector.

B. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A^n = [\underline{v} \ \underline{v} \ \dots \ \underline{v}]$

C. For any probability vector, \underline{x} , $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A^n \underline{x} = \underline{v}$.

D. 1 is the dominant eigenvalue.

up to scalar multiple

$$A(2\underline{v}) = 2A\underline{v} = 2\underline{v}$$

Better A: There is only one probability steady state vector.

Proof: We only prove Theorem 1.

First note that any square matrix has the same eigenvalues as its transpose.

Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ be a $n \times n$ stochastic matrix.

Then $[1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1] A = \left[\sum_{i=1}^n a_{i1} \ \sum_{i=1}^n a_{i2} \ \dots \ \sum_{i=1}^n a_{in} \right]$

$$=$$