

Cultural Variation and Dynamics of Social Transmissions in a Finite Population

Manu M

April 9, 2020

Contents

1	Introduction	2
2	Prerequisites	4
2.1	Markov Chains	4
2.1.1	Basic Definitions and Properties	4
2.1.2	Stopping Times and the Strong Markov Property	6
2.1.3	Recurrence and Transience	7
2.1.4	Communication Classes and Recurrence	9
2.1.5	Important Properties of Finite Markov Chains	11
2.2	Martingales	11
2.3	Moran Model	11
2.3.1	Model Dynamics	11
3	Proposed Model	13
4	Extensions	15

Chapter 1

Introduction

References

Chapter 2

Prerequisites

2.1 Markov Chains

Markov chains are the simplest mathematical models for random phenomena evolving in time. Their simple structure makes it possible to say a great deal about their behaviour. At the same time, the class of Markov chains is rich enough to serve in many applications. This makes Markov chains one of the most important examples of random processes. The characteristic property of this sort of process is that it retains *no memory* of where it has been in the past. This means that only the current state of the process can influence where it goes next. Such a process is called *Markov process*.

2.1.1 Basic Definitions and Properties

Markov chains often describe the movements of a system between various states. We will discuss *discrete-time* Markov chains, meaning that at each step our system can either stay in the state it is in or change to another state. We denote the random variable X_n as a sort of marker of what state our system is in at step n . X_n can take the value of any $i \in I$, where each i is a *state* in the *state-space*, I . States are usually just denoted as numbers and our state-space as a countable set.

We will call $\lambda = (\lambda_{i_1}, \lambda_{i_2}, \dots) = (\lambda_i \mid i \in I)$ the *probability distribution on* X_n if: $\lambda_i = P(X_n = i)$ and $\sum_{i \in I} \lambda_i = 1$. Also, a matrix $P = \{p_{ij}\}$, where $i, j \in I$, is called *stochastic* if $\sum_{j \in I} p_{ij} = 1, \forall i \in I$, i.e. every row of the matrix is a distribution. Now we can define a Markov chain explicitly.

Definitions 1. $(X_0, X_1, \dots) = (X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is a Markov chain with initial distribution λ and transition matrix P , shortened to $\text{Markov}(\lambda, P)$, if

- λ is the probability distribution on X_0 ;
- given that $X_n = i$, $(p_{ij} \mid i, j \in I)$ is the probability distribution on X_{n+1} and is independent of $X_k, 0 \leq k < n$, i.e. $P(X_{n+1} = j \mid X_n = i) = p_{ij}$.

Theorem 2.1.1. $(X_n)_{0 \leq n \leq N}$ is $\text{Markov}(\lambda, P)$ if and only if

$$P(X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_N = i_N) = \lambda_{i_0} p_{i_0 i_1} p_{i_1 i_2} \cdots p_{i_{N-1} i_N}. \quad (2.1)$$

Proof. First, suppose $(X_n)_{0 \leq n \leq N}$ is $\text{Markov}(\lambda, P)$, thus

$$\begin{aligned} & P(X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_N = i_N) \\ &= P(X_0 = i_0) P(X_1 = i_1 \mid X_0 = i_0) \cdots P(X_N = i_N \mid X_0 = i_0, \dots, X_{N-1} = i_{N-1}) \\ &= P(X_0 = i_0) P(X_1 = i_1 \mid X_0 = i_0) \cdots P(X_N = i_N \mid X_{N-1} = i_{N-1}) \\ &= \lambda_{i_0} p_{i_0 i_1} p_{i_1 i_2} \cdots p_{i_{N-1} i_N} \end{aligned}$$

Now assume that (2.1) holds for N , thus

$$\begin{aligned} & P(X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_N = i_N) = \lambda_{i_0} p_{i_0 i_1} p_{i_1 i_2} \cdots p_{i_{N-1} i_N} \\ & \sum_{i_N \in I} P(X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_N = i_N) = \sum_{i_N \in I} \lambda_{i_0} p_{i_0 i_1} p_{i_1 i_2} \cdots p_{i_{N-1} i_N} \\ & P(X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_{N-1} = i_{N-1}) = \lambda_{i_0} p_{i_0 i_1} p_{i_1 i_2} \cdots p_{i_{N-2} i_{N-1}} \end{aligned}$$

And now by induction, (2.1) holds for all $0 \leq n \leq N$. From the formula for conditional probability, namely that $P(A \mid B) = P(A \cap B) / P(B)$, we can show that

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_{N+1} = i_{N+1} \mid X_0 = i_0, \dots, X_N = i_N) &= \frac{P(X_0 = i_0, \dots, X_N = i_N, X_{N+1} = i_{N+1})}{P(X_0 = i_0, \dots, X_N = i_N)} \\ &= \frac{\lambda_{i_0} p_{i_0 i_1} \cdots p_{i_{N-1} i_N} p_{i_N i_{N+1}}}{\lambda_{i_0} p_{i_0 i_1} \cdots p_{i_{N-1} i_N}} \\ &= p_{i_N i_{N+1}} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by definition, $(X_n)_{0 \leq n \leq N}$ is $\text{Markov}(\lambda, P)$. □

The next theorem emphasizes the memorylessness of Markov chains. In the formulation of this theorem, we use the idea of the *unit mass at i* . It is denoted as $\delta_i = (\delta_{ij})$ where

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Theorem 2.1.2. *Let $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be Markov(λ, P). Then, given that $X_m = i$, $(X_l)_{l \geq m}$ is Markov(δ_i, P) and is independent of X_k , $0 \leq k < m$.*

Proof. Let the event $A = \{X_m = i_m, \dots, X_n = i_n\}$ and the event B be any event determined by X_0, \dots, X_m . To prove the theorem, we must show that

$$P(A \cap B | X_m = i) = \delta_{ii_m} p_{i_m i_{m+1}} \cdots p_{i_{n-1} i_n} P(B | X_m = i)$$

thus the result follows from Theorem 2.1.1. First, let us consider any elementary event

$$B = B_k = \{X_0 = i_0, \dots, X_m = i_m\}$$

Here we show that

$$P(A \cap B_k \text{ and } i = i_m | X_m = i) = \frac{\delta_{ii_m} p_{i_m i_{m+1}} \cdots p_{i_{n-1} i_n} P(B_k)}{P(X_m = i)}$$

which follows from Theorem 2.1.1 and the definition of conditional probability. Any event, B , determined by X_0, \dots, X_m can be written as a disjoint union of elementary events, $B = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k$. Thus, we can prove our above identity by summing up all of the different B_k for any given event. \square

An additional idea that is going to be important later is the idea of conditioning on the initial state, X_0 . We will let $P(A | X_0 = i) = P_i(A)$. Similarly, we will let $E(A | X_0 = i) = E_i(A)$.

2.1.2 Stopping Times and the Strong Markov Property

We start this section with the definition of a stopping time.

Definitions 2. *A random variable T is called a stopping time if the event $\{T = n\}$ depends only on X_0, \dots, X_n for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$.*

An example of a stopping time would be the *first passage time*

$$T_i = \inf\{n \geq 1 | X_n = i\}.$$

where we define $\inf \emptyset = \infty$. This is a stopping time since $\{T_i = n\} = \{X_k \neq i, X_n = i | 0 < k < n\}$. Now we will define an expansion of this idea that we will use later.

Definitions 3. *The r th passage time $T_i^{(r)}$ to state i is defined recursively using the first passage time.*

$$T_i^{(0)} = 0, \quad T_i^{(1)} = T_i$$

and, for $r = 1, 2, \dots$,

$$T_i^{(r+1)} = \inf\{n \geq T_i^{(r)} + 1 \mid X_n = i\}.$$

This leads to the natural definition of the *length of the r th excursion to i* as

$$S_i^{(r)} = \begin{cases} T_i^{(r)} - T_i^{(r-1)} & \text{if } T_i^{(r-1)} < \infty \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The following theorem shows how the Markov property holds at stopping times.

Theorem 2.1.3. *Let T be a stopping time of $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ which is Markov(λ, P). Then given $T < \infty$ and $X_T = i$, $(X_l)_{l \geq T}$ is Markov(δ_i, P) and independent of X_k , $0 \leq k < T$.*

Proof. First, we already have that $(X_l)_{l \geq T}$ is Markov(δ_i, P) by Theorem 1.4, so we just need to show the independence condition. Let the event $A = \{X_T = i_0, \dots, X_{T+n} = i_n\}$ and the event B be any event determined by X_0, \dots, X_T . It is important to notice that the event $B \cap \{T = m\}$ is determined by X_0, \dots, X_m . We get that

$$P(A \cap B \cap \{T = m\} \cap \{X_T = i\}) = P_i(X_0 = i_0, \dots, X_n = i_n)P(B \cap \{T = m\} \cap \{X_T = i\})$$

If we now sum over $m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ and divide each side by $P(T < \infty, X_T = i)$ using the definition of conditional probability, we obtain

$$P(A \cap B \mid T < \infty, X_T = i) = P_i(X_0 = i_0, \dots, X_n = i_n)P(B \mid T < \infty, X_T = i)$$

which gives us the independence we desired. □

2.1.3 Recurrence and Transience

Definitions 4. *Let $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be Markov with transition matrix P . We say that a state i is recurrent if*

$$P_i(X_n = i \text{ for infinitely many } n) = 1,$$

and we say that a state i is transient if

$$P_i(X_n = i \text{ for infinitely many } n) = 0.$$

The following results allow us to show that any state is necessarily either recurrent or transient.

Lemma 2.1.1. For $r = 2, 3, \dots$, given that $T_i^{(r-1)} < \infty$, $S_i^{(r)}$ is independent of X_k , $0 \leq k \leq T_i^{(r-1)}$ and

$$P(S_i^{(r)} = n \mid T_i^{(r-1)} < \infty) = P_i(T_i = n).$$

Proof. We can directly apply Theorem 2.1.3 where $T_i^{(r-1)}$ is the stopping time T , since it is assured that $X_T = i$ when $T < \infty$. So, given that $T_i^{(r-1)} < \infty$, $(X_l)_{l \geq T}$ is Markov(δ_i, P) and independent of X_k , $0 \leq k < T$, the independence wanted. Yet, we know

$$S_i^{(r)} = \inf\{l - T \geq 1 \mid X_l = i\}$$

so $S_i^{(r)}$ is the first passage time of $(X_l)_{l \geq T}$ to state i , giving us our desired equality. \square

Definitions 5. The idea of the number of visits to i , V_i , is intuitive and can be easily defined using the indicator function

$$V_i = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 1_{\{X_n=i\}}$$

A nice property of V_i is that

$$E_i(V_i) = E_i\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 1_{\{X_n=i\}}\right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} E_i(1_{\{X_n=i\}}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_i(X_n = i).$$

Definitions 6. Another intuitive and useful term is the return probability to i , defined as

$$f_i = P_i(T_i < \infty).$$

Lemma 2.1.2. $P_i(V_i > r) = (f_i)^r$ for $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$.

Proof. First, we know that our claim is necessarily true when $r = 0$. Thus, we can use induction and the fact that if $X_0 = i$ then $\{V_i > r\} = \{T_i^{(r)} < \infty\}$ to conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} P_i(V_i > r + 1) &= P_i(T_i^{(r+1)} < \infty) \\ &= P_i(T_i^{(r)} < \infty \text{ and } S_i^{(r+1)} < \infty) \\ &= P_i(S_i^{(r+1)} < \infty \mid T_i^{(r)} < \infty) P_i(T_i^{(r)} < \infty) \\ &= f_i \cdot (f_i)^r = (f_i)^{r+1} \end{aligned}$$

using Lemma 2.1.1, so our claim is true for all r . \square

Theorem 2.1.4. The following two cases hold and show that any state is either recurrent or transient:

1. if $P_i(T_i < \infty) = 1$, then i is recurrent and $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_i(X_n = i) = \infty$;
2. if $P_i(T_i < \infty) < 1$, then i is transient and $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_i(X_n = i) < \infty$.

Proof. If $P_i(T_i < \infty) = f_i = 1$ by Lemma 3.5, then

$$P_i(V_i = \infty) = \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} P_i(V_i > r) = \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} 1^r = 1$$

so i is recurrent and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_i(X_n = i) = E_i(V_i) = \infty.$$

In the other case, $f_i = P_i(T_i < \infty) < 1$ then using our fact about V_i

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_i(X_n = i) &= E_i(V_i) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n P_i(V_i = n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} P_i(V_i = n) \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=r+1}^{\infty} P_i(V_i = n) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} P_i(V_i > r) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} (f_i)^r = \frac{1}{1 - f_i} < \infty \end{aligned}$$

so $P_i(V_i = \infty) = 0$ and i is transient. □

2.1.4 Communication Classes and Recurrence

Definitions 7. State i can send to state j , and we write $i \rightarrow j$ if

$$P_i(X_n = j \text{ for some } n \geq 0) > 0.$$

Also i communicates with j , and we write ij if both $i \rightarrow j$ and $j \rightarrow i$.

Theorem 2.1.5. For distinct states $i, j \in I$, $i \rightarrow j \iff p_{ii_1} p_{i_1 i_2} \cdots p_{i_{n-1} j} > 0$ for some states i_1, i_2, \dots, i_{n-1} . Also, \sim is an equivalence relation on I .

Proof. ()

$$0 < P_i(X_n = j \text{ for some } n \geq 0) \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_i(X_n = j) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_{n-1}} p_{ii_1} p_{i_1 i_2} \cdots p_{i_{n-1} j}$$

Thus, for some $p_{ii_1} p_{i_1 i_2} \cdots p_{i_{n-1} j} > 0$ for some states i_1, i_2, \dots, i_{n-1} .

() Take some i_1, i_2, \dots, i_{n-1} such that

$$0 < p_{ii_1} p_{i_1 i_2} \cdots p_{i_{n-1} j} \leq P_i(X_n = j) \leq P_i(X_n = j \text{ for some } n \geq 0).$$

Now it is clear from the proven inequality that $i \rightarrow j, j \rightarrow ki \rightarrow k$. Also, it is true that ii for any state i and that $ijji$. Thus, \sim is an equivalence relation on I . □

Definitions 8. We say that partitions I into communication classes. Also, a Markov chain or transition matrix P where I is a single communication class is called irreducible.

Theorem 2.1.6. Let C be a communication class. Either all states in C are recurrent or all are transient.

Proof. Take any distinct pair of states $i, j \in C$ and suppose that i is transient. Then there exist $n, m \geq 0$ such that $P_i(X_n = j) > 0$ and $P_j(X_m = i) > 0$, and for all $r \geq 0$

$$P_i(X_{n+r+m} = i) \geq P_i(X_n = j)P_j(X_r = j)P_j(X_m = i).$$

This implies that

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} P_j(X_r = j) \leq \frac{1}{P_i(X_n = j)P_j(X_m = i)} \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} P_i(X_{n+r+m} = i) < \infty$$

by Theorem 2.1.4. So any arbitrary j is transient, again by Theorem 2.1.4, so the whole of C is transient. The only way for this not to be true is if all states in C are recurrent. \square

This theorem shows us that recurrence and transience is a class property, and we will refer to it in the future as such.

Theorem 2.1.7. Suppose P is irreducible and recurrent. Then for all $i \in I$ we have $P(T_i < \infty) = 1$.

Proof. By Theorem 2.1.3 we have

$$P(T_i < \infty) = \sum_{j \in I} P_j(T_i < \infty)P(X_0 = j)$$

so we only need to show $P_j(T_i < \infty) = 1$ for all $j \in I$. By the irreducibility of P , we can pick an m such that $P_i(X_m = j) > 0$. From Theorem 2.1.4 we have

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= P_i(X_n = i \text{ for infinitely many } n) \\ &= P_i(X_n = i \text{ for some } n \geq m + 1) \\ &= \sum_{k \in I} P_i(X_n = i \text{ for some } n \geq m + 1 \mid X_m = k)P_i(X_m = k) \\ &= \sum_{k \in I} P_k(T_i < \infty)P_i(X_m = k) \end{aligned}$$

using Theorem 2.1.3 again. Since $\sum_{k \in I} P_i(X_m = k) = 1$ so we have that

$$P_j(T_i < \infty) = 1. \quad \square$$

2.1.5 Important Properties of Finite Markov Chains

2.2 Martingales

In this section, we briefly discuss a special class of sequences of random variables known as *Martingales*. Martingales are a very important and widely useful class of processes. We won't be discussing the theories in detail as we do not need that further. Nevertheless, theories and proofs are discussed in details in ??.

We are only considering random variables defined on the same *state-space*. They are assumed to be discrete and to have finite expectation. These conditions are not necessary, but they allow us to reduce technical difficulties.

Definitions 9. A sequence $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$ of random variables is said to be a martingale if, for every n ,

$$E(X_n | X_0, X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) = X_{n-1}$$

In particular, $E(X_n)$ is same for all n .

2.3 Moran Model

We consider one of the most significant work on Markov chain modelling in population genetics. The following model was proposed by P. A. P. Moran in 1958.

2.3.1 Model Dynamics

We consider a haploid population with two genotypes A and a . This model envisages to follow population through its birth-death events. Precisely, the new generation is formed from the old generation in a certain manner.

From the existing population, one individual is chosen randomly to give birth and the offspring would be of the same genotype. At the same time, one randomly chosen individual from the old population dies. Therefore, the population size remains constant. We denote it by N . Also, we denote by X_n , the number of A genes in the n th generation. By n th generation, we understand that population has undergone n birth-death events. We want to study the Markov chain $(X_n)_{n \geq 0}$, which has state space $\{0, 1, \dots, N\}$.

Let $X_t = i$. That is, the present population has i individuals of A genotype and $N - i$ individuals

of a genotype. Therefore the population composition is $iA + (N - i)a$. Then the individual who dies is A with probability $\frac{i}{N}$ and is a with probability $\frac{N-i}{N}$. The transition probabilities of the chain is as followed:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{i,i+1} &= \left(\frac{i}{N}\right) \left(1 - \left(\frac{i}{N}\right)\right) \\ P_{i,i-1} &= \left(\frac{i}{N}\right) \left(1 - \left(\frac{i}{N}\right)\right) \\ P_{i,i} &= 1 - P_{i,i+1} - P_{i,i-1} = \left(\frac{i}{N}\right)^2 + \left(1 - \left(\frac{i}{N}\right)\right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that $P_{0,0} = P_{N,N} = 1$. Note that, $P_{i,j} = 0$ if $j \notin \{i-1, i, i+1\}$.

So, here 0 and N are absorbing states, while all other states are transient.

Chapter 3

Proposed Model

References

Chapter 4

Extensions

References