Stochastic Modelling Notes

Anthony Catterwell

February 26, 2019

Contents

1	\mathbf{Prel}	Preliminaries 2			
	1.1	Conditional Probability			
	1.2	Conditional Expectation			
	1.3	Stochastic Processes			
2	Discrete Time Markov Chains				
	2.1	Basic Definitions			
	2.2	Modelling examples			
	2.3	More complicated examples			
	2.4	Chapman-Kolmogorov equations			
	2.5	Classification of states			
	2.6	Transience and recurrence			
	2.7	Positive and null recurrence			
	2.8	Periodicity of chains			
	2.9	Stationary probabilities: Aperiodic case			
	2.10	Stationary probabilities: Periodic case			
	2.11	First passage probabilities and times			
	2.12	Costs and rewards			
		2.12.1 Long-run average cost			
		2.12.2 Cost in transient states			
	2.13	Reversibility			
3	Pois	sson Processes			
	3.1	Exponential Random Variable			
		3.1.1 Memoryless property			
		3.1.2 Properties of minimum of two exponentials			
		3.1.3 Strong memoryless property			
		3.1.4 Sums of I.I.D exponentials			
	3 2	Poisson Processes			

1 Preliminaries

1.1 Conditional Probability

• Definition 1.1.2 Conditional probability

$$P(A|B) \equiv \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

• Theorem 1.1.4 Law of Total Probability

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A|B_i)P(B_i)$$

• Theorem 1.1.8

$$p(x) = \sum_{y} p(x|Y = y)p(y) \qquad X, Y \text{discrete}$$

$$p(x) = \int p(x|Y = y)f(y) dy \qquad X \text{discrete}, Y \text{continuous}$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{y} f(x|Y = y)p(y) \qquad X \text{continuous}, Y \text{discrete}$$

$$f(x) = \int f(x|Y = y)f(y) dy \qquad X, Y \text{continuous}$$

1.2 Conditional Expectation

$$E(X|Y=y) = \sum_{x \in S} xp(x|Y=y)$$
 if X is discrete
$$E(X|Y=y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x|Y=y) dx$$
 if X is continuous

• Theorem 1.2.3 Tower Property For X and Y random variables

$$E[E(X|Y)] = E(X)$$

or in detail:

$$E[E(X|Y)] = \begin{cases} \sum_{y \in S} E(X|Y = y) p_Y(y) & \text{if } Y \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(X|Y = Y) f_Y(y) dy & \text{if } Y \text{ is continuous} \end{cases}$$

1.3 Stochastic Processes

• Definition 1.3.1 Stochastic process

A stochastic process $(X_t)_{t\in T}$ is an indexed collection of random variables. Set T is called the index set. The set S of all possible states is referred to as the state space of the process.

2 Discrete Time Markov Chains

2.1 Basic Definitions

• Definition 2.1.1 Markov property

A stochastic process is said to have the Markov property if, given the present state, the future

events are independent of the past. For discrete-time discrete-space processes $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ this property can be stated as

$$P(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i, X_{n-1} = i_{n-1}, \dots, X_0 = i_0) = P(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i)$$

for all $j, i, i_{n-1}, \ldots, i_0 \in S$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and we also define $p_{ij}(n) \equiv P(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i)$ and refer to it as the (one step) transition probability from i to j at time n.

2.2 Modelling examples

2.3 More complicated examples

2.4 Chapman-Kolmogorov equations

• Notation

 $p_{ij}^{(n)}$ denotes the probability of reaching state j from state i in n periods

• Theorem 2.4.1 Chapman-Kolmogorov equations

$$p_{ij}^{n+m} = \sum_{k \in S} p_{ik}^n P_{kj}^m$$

also

$$p^{n+m} = p^n p^m$$

• Corollary 2.4.2

If P^n is defined to be the *n*th power of a matrix P, then

$$P^{(n)} = P^n$$

• Theorem 2.4.7

A one-step transition matrix P and the initial distribution $a^{(0)}$ completely characterises the DTMC, that is, all finite-dimensional probabilities can be calculated.

2.5 Classification of states

• Definition 2.5.1 Accessibility

A state j is said to be accessible from state i, denoted $i \to j$, if $\exists n \ge 0 \ni p_{ij}^{(n)} > 0$

- Theorem 2.5.3 Communication is an equivalence relation that is
 - 1. $i \leftrightarrow i \quad \forall i \in S \text{ (reflexive)}$
 - 2. $i \leftrightarrow j \implies j \leftrightarrow i \text{ (symmetric)}$
 - 3. $i \leftrightarrow j, j \leftrightarrow i \implies i \leftrightarrow k$ (transitive)

• Definition 2.5.4 Communicating class

Let $C \subseteq S$. C is a communicating class if

- 1. $i \in C, j \in C \implies i \leftrightarrow j$
- $2. \ i \in C, \ i \leftrightarrow j \implies j \in C$

If, in addition to these properties, we cannot leave C, that is

$$\forall i \in C, \ \forall k \notin C \ni i \not\rightarrow k \implies C \text{ is a closed, communicating class}$$

• Definition 2.5.5 Irreducibility

A DTMC is irreducible if the state space S is a single (closed) communicating class, and it is called reducible if it is composed of several communicating classes

2.6 Transience and recurrence

• Notation

$$T_j = \min\{n \ge 1 : X_n = j\}$$
$$\varrho_{ij} = P(T_j < \infty | X_0 = i)$$

Note that for $i \neq j$, $\varrho_{ij} > 0 \iff i \rightarrow j$

- **Definition 2.6.1** Recurrence and transience State *i* is recurrent if $\varrho_{ii} = 1$, and transient if $\varrho < 1$
- Lemma 2.6.2

$$P(N_i = \infty | X_0 = i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is recurrent} \\ 0 & \text{if } i \text{ is transient} \end{cases}$$
$$E(N_i | X_0 = i) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } i \text{ is recurrent} \\ \frac{1}{1 - \varrho_{ii}} & \text{if } i \text{ is transient} \end{cases}$$

• Theorem 2.6.3 If $i \to j$ but $\varrho_{ji} < 1$ then i is transient.

- Corollary 2.6.4
 - 1. If $i \to j$ and i is recurrent then $\varrho_{ji} = 1$
 - 2. If $i \to j$ and i is recurrent then j is also recurrent
 - 3. If $i \to j$ and j is transient then j is also transient
 - 4. Recurrence and transience are class properties
- Theorem 2.6.7 State *i* is recurrent if and only if $\sum_{n=0}^{(n)} = \infty$
- Lemma 2.6.9 $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \text{ converges if } \lim_{k\to\infty} \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} < 1, \text{ and it diverges if } \lim_{k\to\infty} \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} > 1$

2.7 Positive and null recurrence

• Theorem 2.7.1 A recurrent state i is positive recurrent if and only if

$$p_{ii}^* = \frac{1}{m_{ii}} > 0$$

where

$$m_{ij} = E(T_j | X_0 = i)$$
 and $p_{ij}^* = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{n=0}^{N} p_{ij}^{(n)}$

 p_{ij}^* is the mean proportion of time spent at j when starting from i.

• Lemma 2.7.2

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{n=0}^{N} f_n = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{n=0}^{N} f_{n+m}$$

for any sequence $(f_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ which is bounded $|f_n|\leq b$ for all n, and for any $m\in\mathbb{N}$

• Theorem 2.7.3

Positive recurrence and null recurrence are class properties, that is if recurrent states $i \leftrightarrow j$ then i and j are both positive or null recurrent.

- Theorem 2.7.4 All states in a finite closed communicating class are positive recurrent
- **Theorem 2.7.5** All states in an open communicating class are transient.

2.8 Periodicity of chains

• Definition 2.8.1 Period

The period d of a state i is the greatest common factor of $\{n \geq 0 : p_{ii}^{(n)} > 0\}$. If d = 1, the state is called aperiodic, and for $d \geq 2$, it is called periodic.

• Theorem 2.8.2 Period is a class property, that is $i \leftrightarrow j \implies d_i = d_j$.

2.9 Stationary probabilities: Aperiodic case

• Definition 2.9.1 Stationary distribution

A distribution $\pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \ldots) \ge 0$ is stationary if it satisfies the global balance equations, i.e.

$$\pi = \pi P$$
, and $\sum_{j \in S} \pi_j = 1$

(i.e. the next state distribution is the same as the current distribution.)

A chain with a stationary distribution is said to be in a stationary state or steady state.

• Proposition 2.9.2

If a chain is initially in a stationary distribution, $a^{(0)} = \pi$, then $a^{(n)} = \pi \ \forall n \geq 0$.

• Intuition

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} p_{jj}^{(n)} = p_{jj}^* = \frac{1}{m_{jj}} > 0$$

Think about our simple weather example and ask for the probability than in a million years it will rain if it rains today. Now what is this probability a million years and one day later? Intuitively, we can argue that these probabilities should be equal after a really long time, and it should be equal to the long run average proportions of the days that are rainy.

• Theorem 2.9.3

1. For aperiodic, irreducible chains, the *limiting probabilities* are independent of the initial state, that is $\forall i, j \in S$,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} p_{jj}^{(n)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} p_{ij}^{(n)} \equiv \pi_j$$

and we call this limit π_i .

2. If the chain is also positive recurrent then the limiting probability distribution is the unique stationary distribution.

2.10 Stationary probabilities: Periodic case

- Theorem 2.10.1 (analogous to Theorem 2.9.3)
 - 1. For irreducible chains, the steady-state probabilities π_j are independent of the initial state, that is,

$$\pi_j = p_{ij}^* = p_{ij}^*$$

for every $i, j \in S$.

2. If the chain is also positive recurrent then the limiting probability distribution π is the unique stationary distribution

• Summary

	Aperiodic	Periodic
$\lim_{n\to\infty} p_{ij}^{(n)}$	Exist	Do not exist
$\overline{p_{ij}^*}$	Exist	Exist
Interpretation for π_j	Stationary probability, Limiting probability	Stationary probability

$$\pi_j \equiv p_{jj}^* = p_{ij}^* = \lim_{n \to \infty} p_{jj}^{(n)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} p_{ij}^{(n)}$$
 (aperiodic)
$$\pi_j \equiv p_{jj}^* = p_{ij}^*$$
 (periodic)

2.11 First passage probabilities and times

• Preamble

$$T_i = \min\{n \ge 1 : X_n = j\}$$

Define the first passage time of a chain to a set $A \subset S$ as

$$\widehat{T}_A = \min\{n \ge 0 : X_n \in A\}$$

Note that $\widehat{T}_A = 0$ for $X_0 \in A$, that is if we are already in A, it takes no time to get there.

Otherwise, the first passage time \hat{T}_A is identical to the first arrival time

$$T_A = \min\{n \ge 1 : X_n \in A\}$$

for $X_0 \in S - A$. We defined this variation for convenience.

• Theorem 2.11.1

Let $A, B \subset S$, with $P(\min\{\widehat{T}_A, \widehat{T}_B\} < \infty | X_0 = i) = 1, \ \forall i$.

Then then probability $h_i \equiv P(\widehat{T}_A < \widehat{T}_B | X_0 = i)$ of reaching set A before set B when starting from state i satisfies

$$h_i \equiv P(\widehat{T}_A < \widehat{T}_B | X_0 = i) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \in B \\ 1 & \text{if } i \in A \\ \sum_{j \in S} P_{ij} h_j & \text{if } i \in S - (A \cup B) \end{cases}$$

• Theorem 2.11.2

Let $A \subset S$, with $P(\widehat{T}_A < \infty | X_0 = i) = 1$, $\forall i$. Then the mean time $g_i \equiv E(\widehat{T}_A | X_0 = i)$ to reach set A when starting from state i satisfies

$$g_i \equiv E(\widehat{T}_A | X_0 = i) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \in A \\ 1 + \sum_{j \in S} P_{ij} g_j & \text{if } i \in S - A \end{cases}$$

2.12 Costs and rewards

• Preamble At step n we incur a cost of $c(X_n)$

2.12.1 Long-run average cost

We can write the long-run average cost starting from state i to be

$$\psi_i = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N+1} E\left(\sum_{n=0}^{N} c(X_n) | X_0 = i\right)$$

The long-run average cost is independent of the initial state and is calculated using steady-state probabilities. Note that you'll get the same expression for the long-run mean cost

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} E(c(X_n)|X_0 = i) = \sum_{j \in S} c(i)\pi_j$$

for chains which are also aperiodic.

2.12.2 Cost in transient states

Another situation is when only transient states have non-zero costs. In this case the total final cost can be defined $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c(X_n)$.

2.13 Reversibility

• Definition 2.13.1 Reversed process

If $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is a stationary DTMC and we fix an m, then the process $(\widetilde{X}_n)_{0\leq n\leq m}$ where $\widetilde{X}_n=X_{m-n}$ is called the reversed process of X.

• Theorem 2.13.2

The reversed process $(\widetilde{X}_n)_{0 \le n \le m}$ is a DTMC with transition probabilities

$$\widetilde{p}_{ij} = \frac{\pi_j p_{ji}}{\pi_i}$$

• Definition 2.13.3 Reversibility

A stationary DTMC is said to be reversible if the reversed process is stochastically the same as the original process, that is $\tilde{p}_{ij} = p_{ij}$, which implies

$$\pi_i \ p_{ij} = \pi_j \ p_{ji}, \ \forall i, j \in S$$

This equation together with $\sum_{i \in S} \pi_i = 1$ are called the detailed balance equations.

• Corollary 2.13.4

If π satisfies the detailed balance equations, then it also satisfies the global balance equations.

- A tree DTMC has the following properties:
 - $-p_{ij} > 0 \implies p_{ji} > 0$
 - No cycles in its state diagram
- **Theorem 2.13.7** A stationary *tree DTMC* is reversible.
- Corollary 2.13.8

A stationary random walk that is a positive recurrent random walk in stationarity, is reversible.

3 Poisson Processes

3.1 Exponential Random Variable

• Definition 3.1.1: Exponential random variable

A continuous non-negative random variable X is called exponential with rate λ if its cumulative distribution function is

$$P(X \le x) = F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$$

Consequently, its density is

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$$

both for $x \geq 0$, and zero otherwise.

• Theorem 3.1.2

The r-th moment of the exponential random variable with rate λ is given by

$$E(X^r) = \frac{r!}{\lambda^r}$$

3.1.1 Memoryless property

$$P(X > s + t | X > s) = \frac{P(X > s + t, X > s)}{P(X > s)} = \frac{e^{-\lambda(s+t)}}{e^{-\lambda s}} = e^{-\lambda t} = P(X > t)$$

• Theorem 3.1.3

The only continuous distribution which has a support $[0, \infty)$ with memoryless property is the exponential.

3.1.2 Properties of minimum of two exponentials

3.1.3 Strong memoryless property

• Theorem 3.14

If X_2 is an exponential random variable with rate λ and X_1 is an independent non-negative continuous random variable, then $\forall x \geq 0$

$$P(X_2 > X_{1x} | X_2 > X_1) = P(X_2 > x) = e^{-\lambda x}$$

3.1.4 Sums of I.I.D exponentials

• Theorem 3.1.5

If $Z = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$, where $X_i \approx \exp(\lambda)$ for all *i* and independent, then *Z* is called the gamma (n, λ) random variable and its density function is given by

$$f_n(z) = \lambda e^{-x} \frac{(\lambda z)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$$

3.2 Poisson Processes

• Definition 3.2.1

Let τ_i be independent exponential (λ) random variables, $S_0 = 0, s_n = \tau_1 + \tau_2 + \cdots + \tau_n$ and $N_t = \max\{n \geq 0 : S_n \leq t\}$. Then $(N_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}}$ is a *Poisson process* with rate parameter λ , or briefly $PP(\lambda)$.

j++j