A simple Markov chain.

Background. Suppose there is a discrete time system S that we want to model. We have the following information:

- at each time point, S must be in one of 3 states labelled by $\{1, 2, 3\}$;
- S may transition between two states at any time increment;
- for every state i, we know the probability of each transition $i \to 1$, $i \to 2$, $i \to 3$;
- the transition probabilities are constant in time.

Fixed time. We model S at time $k \in \mathbb{N}$ using a vector

$$X_k = (x_k^1, x_k^2, x_k^3).$$

Here x_k^i gives the probability that \mathcal{S} is in state i at time k. Since \mathcal{S} must be in one of these states,

$$x_0^1 + x_0^2 + x_0^3 = 1.$$

In other words, X_0 is a probability distribution over the states $\{1, 2, 3\}$. For example, if at time k we know with probability 1 that \mathcal{S} is in state 1 then $X_k = (1, 0, 0)$. If instead there is a 50%/50% split between states 1 and 3 then $X_k = (1/2, 0, 1/2)$.

Transitions. Next we need to model the transition process. We already know the probability p_{ij} of transitioning from state i to state j. Combining all the transition probabilities gives a matrix:

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} & p_{13} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} & p_{23} \\ p_{31} & p_{32} & p_{33} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since S must transition at each step (even if the transition is from i to itself), so the rows of P satisfy

$$p_{i1} + p_{i2} + p_{i3} = 1.$$

That is, the rows of P are probability distributions. A matrix like this is called sto-chastic.

Forecasting. If we know X_k we can compute X_{k+1} using P:

$$X_{k+1} = X_k \cdot P$$
.

Therefore, once we know the initial configuration X_0 , we get a distribution representing the k^{th} time step by computing

(1)
$$X_k = X_{k-1} \cdot P$$
$$= X_{k-2} \cdot P \cdot P$$
$$= X_0 \cdot P^k.$$

Implementing the model.

Background. The model of S constructed above is an example of a Markov chain. We're now going to implement a simple 3-state Markov chain. The matrix P of transitions will be randomly generated. The main point of this exercise is to gain experience with numpy. You are encouraged to play around with the numpy functions and objects in the interpreter as you follow along.

Steps. 1. Import numpy.

- 2. The function numpy.random.rand(n, m) is a numpy function of two parameters. It is used to generate an $n \times m$ matrix with random entries chosen uniformly from [0,1]. Use this function to initialize a 3×3 numpy matrix called P_unscaled with random entries.
- **3.** The matrix P_unscaled is not a transition matrix, since its rows do not necessarily sum to 1. To fix this:
- i Compute the sum of each row of P_unscaled. This can be done via a call to the sum method of P_unscaled:

```
1 row_sums = P_unscaled.sum(axis=1).reshape(3, 1)
```

The variable row_sums is a numpy matrix with one column and three rows. The entry in row i is the sum of the ith row of P_unscaled. (To improve your intuition, run this command in the interpreter and investigate the numpy matrix returned as output.)

ii Create a new matrix P by dividing each row of P_unscaled by its sum:

```
P = P_unscaled / row_sums
```

Pay close attention to how the rows of P_unscaled are matched with the rows of row_sums during the division process. It may help to run this command in the interpreter as well.

You may want to verify that P is a stochastic matrix. You can do so by summing its rows:

```
print(P.sum(axis=1))

## prints array([1., 1., 1.])
```

4. Create an initial configuration corresponding to state 2 with probability 1:

```
1 X_0 = numpy.array([0.0, 1.0, 0.0])
```

5. Compute the distribution X_5 that gives the evolved configuration of our system after 5 time steps. Recalling equation 1, we get X_5 by computing compute $X_0 \cdot P^5$. The matrix power P^k can be computed using the numpy.linalg.matrix_power function. The product of X_0 and P^5 can then be computed using the dot method. Combined into one line, this looks like

```
1 X_5 = X_0.dot(numpy.linalg.matrix_power(P, 5))
```

6. Repeat steps 4 and 5 to compute the configuration of the system after 7 steps when given an initial state vector with probabilities:

state
$$1 \mapsto 0.25$$
, state $2 \mapsto 0.25$, state $3 \mapsto 0.5$

Plotting the (p-norm) unit ball.

Goals.

- (1) Generate the points of the unit ball $|x|^p + |y|^p = 1$ using numpy for p = 1, 2, 3, 5, 10. Make a 2-D plot of these points using the matplotlib library.
- (2) Generate the points of the unit ball $|x|^p + |y|^p + |z|^p = 1$ using numpy for p = 1, 2, 3, 5, 10. Make a 3-D plot of these points using the matplotlab library.

Hints.

- In the 2-D case write y as a function of x, given $|x|^p + |y|^p = 1$. Then write a python function called y_f n that takes p and x as arguments and returns y(x).
- If we have a function defined by

```
1 def func(x, p):
2    return x ** p
```

then the numpy.vectorize function has the following effect:

```
vectorized_func = numpy.vectorize(func)
print(vectorized_func([1, 2, 3, 4, 5], 2))
## prints array([1, 4, 9, 16, 25])
```

• Use matplotlib.pyplot.subplot to show multiple plots at once. The subplot function arranges the individual plots into an $n \times m$ grid. It takes an argument nmk where $\mathbf{n} = number\ of\ rows$, $\mathbf{m} = number\ of\ columns$, and \mathbf{k} specifies we want the k^{th} sub-plot (labelled left-to-right and top-to-bottom). Below is an example that creates an 3×2 grid of subplots:

```
plt.figure(1)
plt.subplot(321)
## do plotting for p = 1
plt.gca().set_aspect('equal', adjustable='box') ## this line scales the axes

plt.subplot(322)
## do plotting for p = 2
plt.gca().set_aspect('equal', adjustable='box')

## etc ...

plt.show()
```

•	• If you have time, adapt your solution for 2D unit balls for the 3D case. You will need to use mpl_toolkits.mplot3d In particular, try using mpl_toolkits.mplot3d.scatter to make a scatter plot of the points in the 3D unit ball.