



---

# Probability and Random Process

Aimin Tang

The University of Michigan- Shanghai Jiao Tong University Joint Institute  
Shanghai Jiao Tong University

Nov. 26 2020



# Outline

- 4. Random Process-II

- Introduction to Markov Processes
- Classifications of States and MCs
- Computing State Probabilities
- Continuous-time MC
- Ergodicity Theorems
- Series Expansions

*No problem for non-steady state*

*Steady State Probability  
(PB is uncovered)*

*Not covered*



---

# Introduction to Markov Processes

**Ve501 2020-2021 Fall**



# Introduction to Markov Processes

---

A Markov Process is a RP such that its future is independent of its past, if its present value is given.

This means that if  $t_1 < t_2$ , then

$$P(X(t_2) \leq x_2 \mid X(t), t \leq t_1) = P(X(t_2) \leq x_2 \mid X(t_1))$$



# Classes of MPs

---

- Time can be discrete or continuous
- State can be discrete or continuous
- The discrete-time random walk is discrete-time, discrete-state Markov process
  - also known as Discrete Time Markov Chain (DTMC)
- In this course, we focus on DTMC and CTMC



# General Properties

for DTMC & CTMC

These five properties hold for all Markov Processes, (although they are stated here for DTMC).

Let  $X_n$  denote the state of the DTMC at time  $n$ .

1. 
$$P(X_n = i_n \mid X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_{n-1} = i_{n-1})$$
$$= P(X_n = i_n \mid X_{n-1} = i_{n-1})$$

This is just the **Markovian (memoryless)** property stated for a DTMC.

2. 
$$E[X_n \mid X_0, X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}] = E[X_n \mid X_{n-1}]$$

3. A Markov Process still has the Markovian property if time is reversed.

$$P(X_n = i_n \mid X_{n+1} = i_{n+1}, \dots, X_{n+k} = i_{n+k})$$
$$= P(X_n = i_n \mid X_{n+1} = i_{n+1})$$

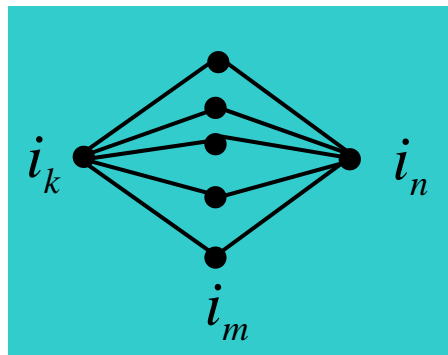
4. Past and future are independent, given the present.

Let  $k < m < n$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_k = i_k \cap X_n = i_n \mid X_m = i_m) \\ = P(X_k = i_k \mid X_m = i_m)P(X_n = i_n \mid X_m = i_m) \end{aligned}$$

5. Chapman-Kolmogorov Equation: Let  $k < m < n$ ,

$$P(X_n = i_n \mid X_k = i_k)$$



$$= \sum_{\text{all } i_m} P(X_n = i_n \mid X_m = i_m)P(X_m = i_m \mid X_k = i_k)$$

All possible states



# Proof of Chapman-Kolmogorov Equation

Assume  $k < m < n$ ,

$$P(X_n = i_n \mid X_k = i_k) \\ = \sum_{\text{all } i_m} P(X_n = i_n \cap X_m = i_m \mid X_k = i_k) \quad \text{Getting a marginal}$$

By definition of conditional prob.

$$= \sum_{\text{all } i_m} P(X_n = i_n \mid X_m = i_m \cap X_k = i_k) P(X_m = i_m \mid X_k = i_k)$$

By Markov Property


$$= \sum_{\text{all } i_m} P(X_n = i_n \mid X_m = i_m) P(X_m = i_m \mid X_k = i_k) \quad \checkmark$$



# Proof of Chapman-Kolmogorov

This property is proven using the Total Probability Theorem:

$$P(A | C) \\ = \sum_B P(A | B, C) P(B | C)$$

$$P(X_n = i_n | X_k = i_k) \\ = \sum_{\text{all } i_m} P(X_n = i_n | X_m = i_m, X_k = i_k) P(X_m = i_m | X_k = i_k)$$


The Markov property eliminates this term



# Transition Probabilities

---

Conditional probabilities of the form

$$P(X_n = i_n \mid X_m = i_m)$$

for  $n > m$  are called **transition probabilities**.

For continuous-state Markov Process, we use **transition densities**

$$f_{X(t_n) \mid X(t_m)}(x \mid y)$$

A Markov Process, therefore, is completely specified by its transition probabilities (densities)

$$P(X_n = i) \quad (\text{or } f_{X(t_n)}(x))$$



# State Enumeration

In the previous slides, we indicated the value of the DTMC at time  $n$  by  $i_n$

$$P(X_n = i_n \mid X_m = i_m)$$

For the rest of this module, we will assume that the state values are  $\{0,1,2,\dots\}$ , and write

$$P(X_n = j \mid X_m = i)$$

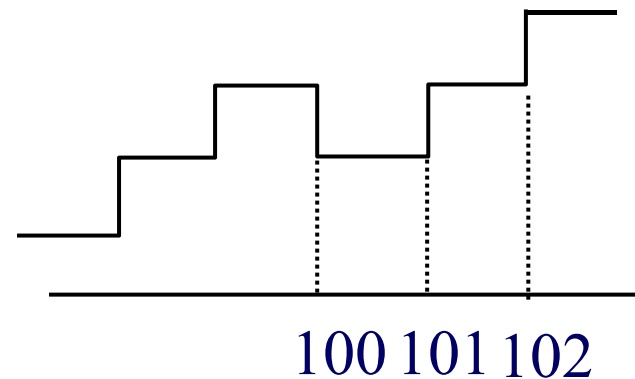
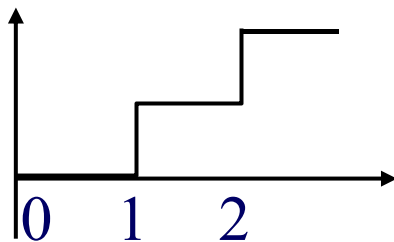
For DTMCs that do not have these values, we can still use this notation by simply enumerating the values. In other words, there would be a **one-to-one mapping between the real state values and the state indices**

A Markov Process  $X_n$  is **homogenous** if the transition probability is invariant to a shift of the time origin:

$$P(X_n = i \mid X_k = j) = P(X_{n+m} = i \mid X_{k+m} = j)$$

for all  $n, m, k$  and  $i$  and  $j$  in the state space.

**Ex:** discrete-time random walk.



# Notation for the DTMC

Assume the DTMC is homogenous.

Define the  $n$ -step transition probability.

$$P_{ij}^{(n)} = P(X_{m+n} = j \mid X_m = i)$$

*if  $n=1$  : 1-step transition  
 $n \geq 1$  :  $n$ -step transition*

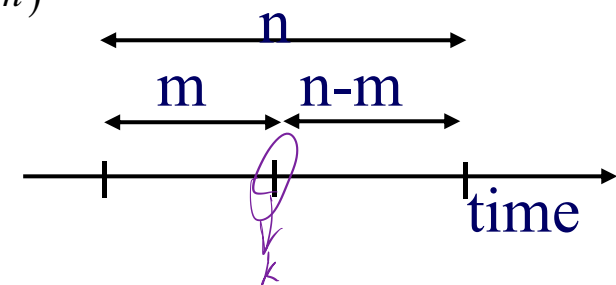
"Homogeneity" means this expression does not depend on  $m$ .

The Chapman-Kolmogorov Equation becomes:

$$P_{ij}^{(n)} = \sum_k P_{ik}^{(m)} P_{kj}^{(n-m)}$$

*$k$   
 $k$  possible states*

for time  $m$  such that  $m < n$





# Transition Probability Matrix

Let  $P_{ij}$ , be the one-step transition probability ( $n = 1$ ). For finite-state spaces, these can be collected into a **transition probability matrix**

$$\mathbf{\Pi} = \begin{bmatrix} P_{00} & P_{01} & \cdots & P_{0N} \\ P_{10} & & & P_{1N} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_{N0} & & \cdots & P_{NN} \end{bmatrix}$$

*Sum = 1* (with arrow pointing to the first row)

**Each row sums to unity.**

Observe that  $P_{ij}^{(n)} = P(X_{m+n} = j \mid X_m = i)$  is the  $ij^{\text{th}}$  element of  $\mathbf{\Pi}^n$ .



# State Probability Vector

---

Let  $\pi_j^{(n)} = P(X_n = j)$

For an N-state DTMC, the state probability vector is defined as the row vector:

$$\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(n)} = [\pi_1^{(n)} \quad \pi_2^{(n)} \quad \pi_3^{(n)} \quad \dots \quad \pi_N^{(n)}]$$

Then the Total Probability Theorem implies:

$$\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(n)} = \boldsymbol{\pi}^{(n-k)} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^k$$

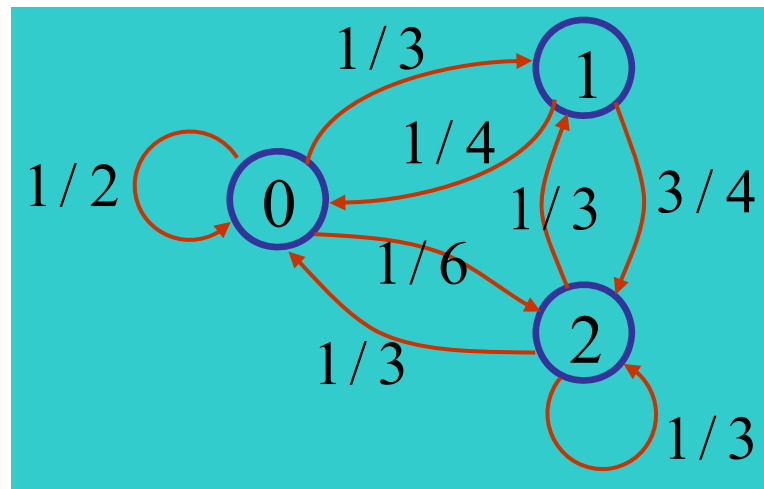
# State Diagram

The states and the transition probabilities can be expressed graphically in the **state diagram**

**Ex:**

$$N = 3 \quad \mathbf{\Pi} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/3 & 1/6 \\ 1/4 & 0 & 3/4 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

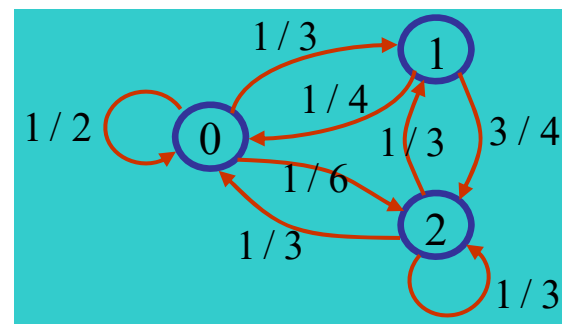
Label the states 0, 1, 2.





# Example Calculation

$$\mathbf{\Pi} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/3 & 1/6 \\ 1/4 & 0 & 3/4 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$



Suppose the DTMC starts in state 0. Therefore

$$\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(0)} = [1 \quad 0 \quad 0]$$

Calculate the state probability vectors at times 1 and 2.

$$\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(1)} = [1 \quad 0 \quad 0] \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/3 & 1/6 \\ 1/4 & 0 & 3/4 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix} = [1/2 \quad 1/3 \quad 1/6]$$

$$\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(2)} = [1/2 \quad 1/3 \quad 1/6] \mathbf{\Pi} = [7/18 \quad 2/9 \quad 7/18]$$

## Example Calculation, Cont'd

For certain cases, the state probability vector approaches a limit, or a **steady state**, as time goes on, regardless of the initial state. For example:

*no matter what the initial state is.*

$\pi^{(0)}$	1	0	0
$\pi^{(1)}$	0.5000	0.3333	0.1667
$\pi^{(2)}$	0.3889	0.2222	0.3889
$\pi^{(3)}$	0.3796	0.2593	0.3611
$\pi^{(4)}$	0.3750	0.2469	0.3781
$\pi^{(5)}$	0.3737	0.2510	0.3737
$\pi^{(6)}$	0.3750	0.2497	0.3754
$\pi^{(7)}$	0.3750	0.2501	0.3749
$\pi^{(8)}$	0.3750	0.2500	0.3750

Time ↓

In these cases,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pi^{(n)} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi^\infty \\ \pi^\infty \\ \pi^\infty \end{bmatrix}$$

where, every row is  $\pi^\infty$ ,  
the **steady state probability**.

Techniques are given for how to find the SS probability vector directly in another module.



# Summary

---

- For a Markov process, knowing the present value of the process tells you all you need to know about the future; past values are irrelevant
- The Chapman-Kolmogorov equation gives a way to express a transition probability in terms of MC values at an intermediate point in time
- The transition probability matrix and state probability vectors enable concise matrix representations of the MC, especially for homogeneous MCs



---

# Classifications of States and MCs



# Classification of States

The behavior of a Markov Chain can be better understood by classifying its states in one of these categories:

Transient	Recurrent			
	Recurrent Null		Recurrent Non-null	
	Periodic	Aperiodic	Periodic	Aperiodic (Ergodic)

↓  
If All State Ergodic  
✓ Steady State Can Exist

- Classification depends on the probability that the Markov Process returns to a state after leaving it.

- Let

$f_j^{(n)} = P(\text{first return to state } j \text{ occurs } n \text{ steps after leaving it})$

$$f_j = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_j^{(n)} = P(\text{ever returning to state } j)$$

If  $f_j = 1$ , state  $j$  is called **recurrent**

*↳ guaranteed to return*

If  $f_j < 1$ , state  $j$  is called **transient**

*↳ There are some prob you leave state  $j$  and never return*



# Recurrence Formula

Observe that  $f_j^1 = [\Pi]_{jj}$  ← The  $jj^{\text{th}}$  element of  $\Pi$

$f_j^{(n)}$  may be calculated from the recursion

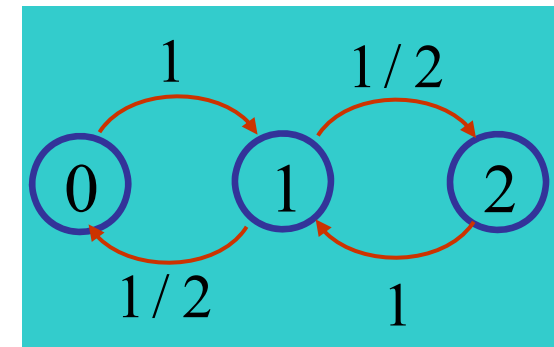
$$[\Pi^n]_{jj} = \sum_{k=1}^n f_j^{(k)} [\Pi^{n-k}]_{jj}$$

← The  $jj^{\text{th}}$  element of  $\Pi^n$

# Recurrence Example I

- Consider state 0.
- In order for the process to leave state 0 and never come back, it must cycle through states 1 and 2 an infinite number of times, with probability

$$\left(1/2\right)^{\infty} = 0$$



- Therefore state 0 is a **recurrent state**
- Alternatively, the formula yields the sequence

$$\left\{f_0^1, f_0^2, f_0^3, f_0^4, \dots\right\} = \left\{0, \frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{4}, 0, \frac{1}{8}, \dots\right\} \Rightarrow f_0 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_0^{(n)} = 1$$



## Recurrence Example II

We observe that

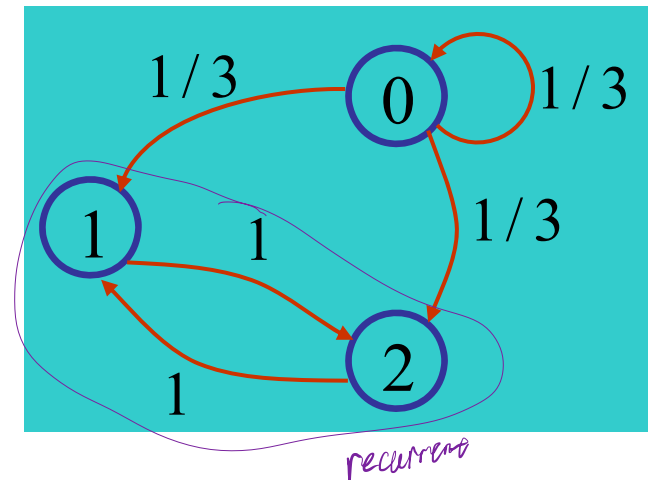
$$f_0^{(1)} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$f_0^{(n)} = 0, \quad n = 2, 3, \dots$$

$$f_0 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_0^{(n)} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Since  $f_0 < 1$ , state 0 is **transient**.

States 1 and 2 are **recurrent**.



# Mean Recurrence Time

For recurrent states, the **mean recurrence time** for state  $j$  is:

$$M_j = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n f_j^{(n)} = \text{the average time to return to state } j$$

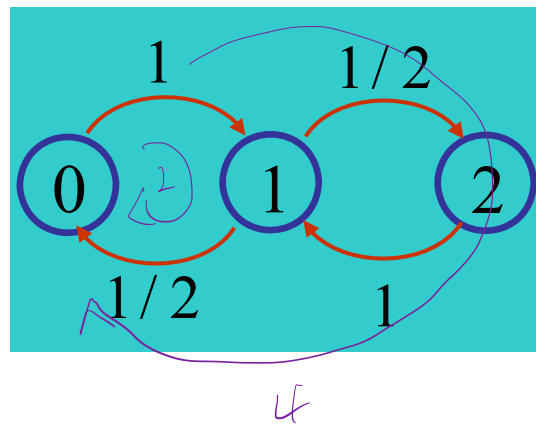
If  $M_j = +\infty$ , state  $j$  is recurrent null. *is expectation of steps  $\rightarrow +\infty$*

If  $M_j < +\infty$ , state  $j$  is recurrent non-null.

$M_j = +\infty$  can happen when there are an **infinite number of states**, such as in the discrete-time random walk.

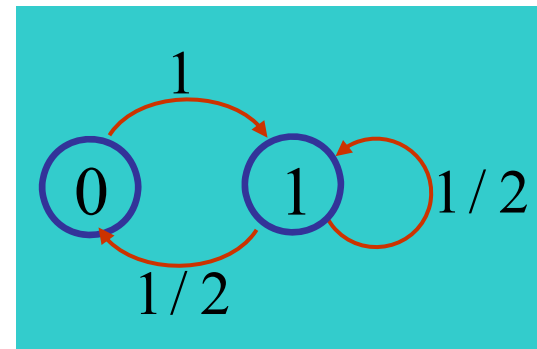
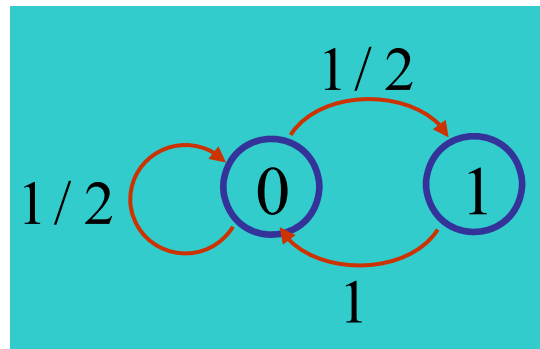
If the only possible numbers of steps for returning to state  $j$  are integer multiples of some integer  $\gamma$ , where  $\gamma$  is the largest such integer, then state  $j$  is periodic with period  $\gamma$ .

**Previous Example:**



State 0 is **periodic** with **period** 2.

If  $\gamma = 1$ , the state is aperiodic.



In both examples above, state 0 is aperiodic.

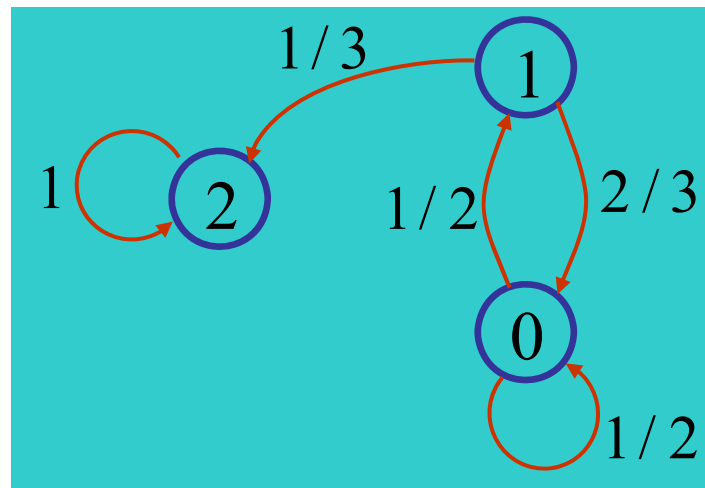


# Ergodicity

---

- A state is **ergodic** if it is **aperiodic and recurrent non-null**
- Interpretation:
  - If the state is ergodic, then you can estimate its steady-state probability by observing, **over a long window of time**, the fraction of time the Markov process occupies this state.

A state is **absorbing**, if the process never leaves it once the process has entered it.



State 2 is **absorbing**.



# Summary

- States can be classified into the following categories, based on the probabilities of returning for the first time in  $n$  steps:

Transient	Recurrent			
	Recurrent Null		Recurrent Non-null	
	Periodic	Aperiodic	Periodic	Aperiodic (Ergodic)



# Classification of Homogenous Markov Chains

---

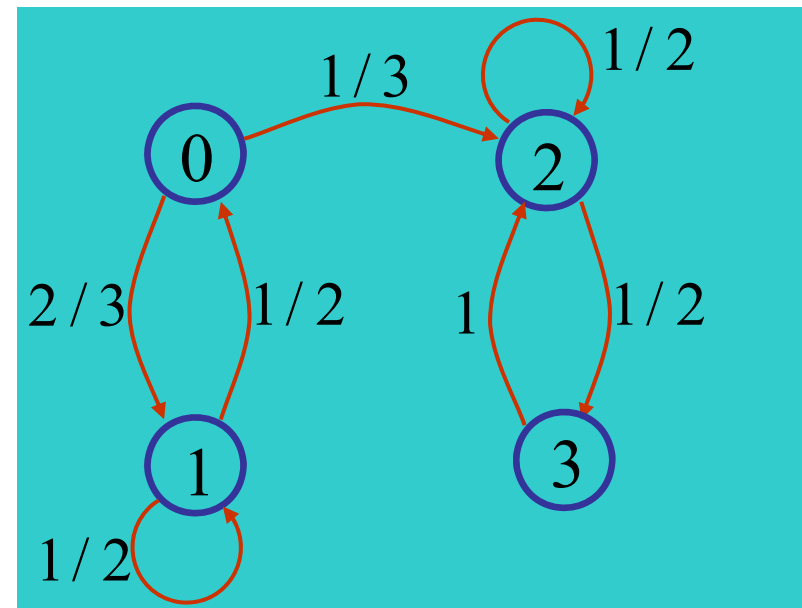
- We have classified states. Now we classify whole Markov Chains
- Knowing how a Markov Chain is classified can simplify its analysis
  - Reducible OR Irreducible
  - Periodic OR Aperiodic
  - Ergodic OR Non-ergodic



# Communication Between States

- Two states,  $i$  and  $j$ , are said to **communicate** if  $i$  is reachable from  $j$  and vice versa, or in other words, if there is a sequence of transitions from  $i$  to  $j$  and back again that occurs with nonzero probability

- States 0 and 1 communicate
- States 1 and 2 do not communicate.



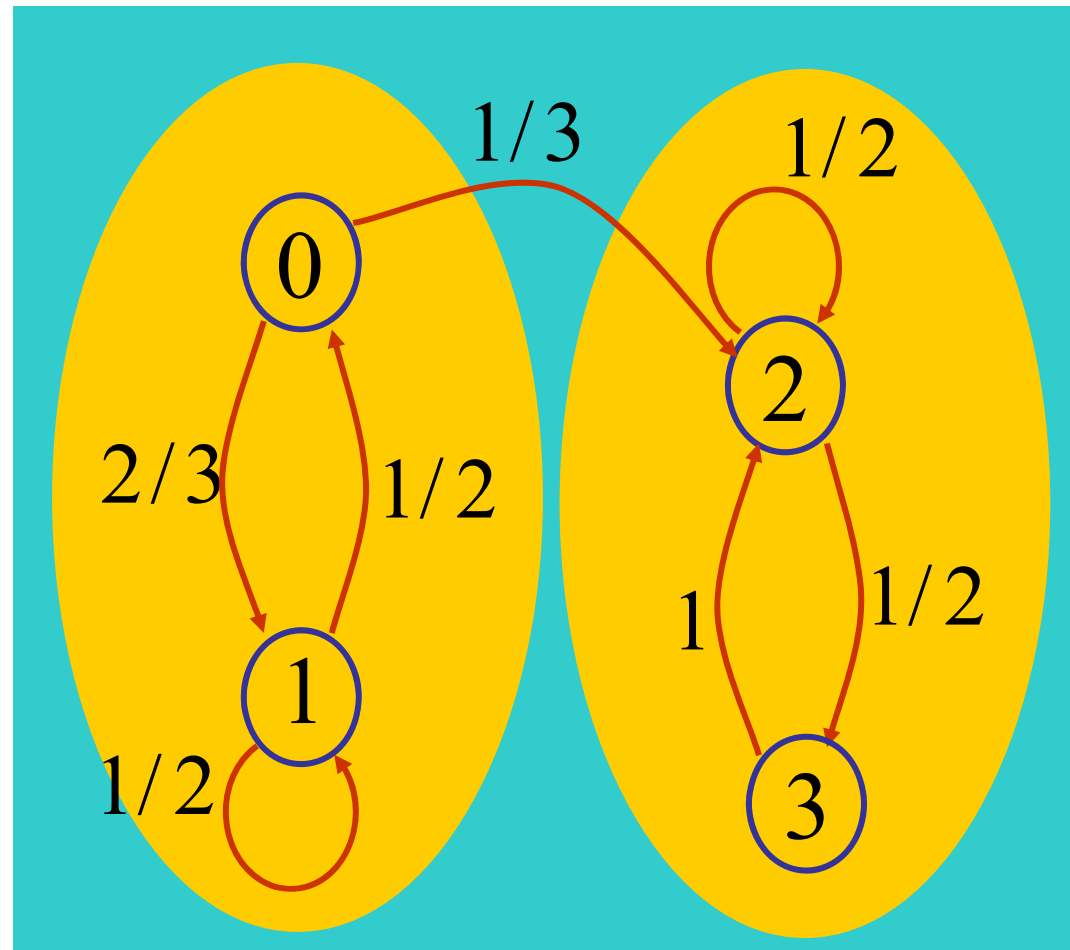


# Equivalence Classes

---

- Two states belong to the same **equivalence class** (or just class) if they communicate with each other
- Two different classes are disjoint
  - Otherwise, there would be a two-way path between them
- The equivalence classes of a Markov Chain form a partition of the states

- In the previous example, there are two classes indicated by the two ovals





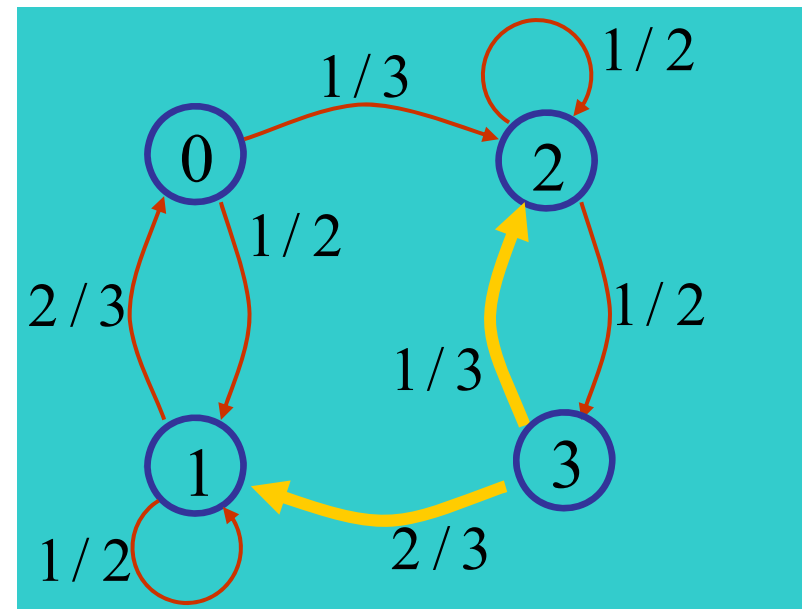
## Recurrence Within a Class

---

- Recall recurrence: A state is recurrent if the MC is guaranteed (i.e. with probability one) to eventually return to the state
- As a MC returns again and again to a particular recurrent state, all the other states in the same class are eventually visited
- Therefore, recurrence is a class property

- A Markov Chain is **irreducible** if all of its states are in the same equivalence class
- Otherwise, the Markov Chain is reducible

The yellow paths represent a modification of the previous example that makes the new MC irreducible





## Transience Within a Class

---

- Since a state cannot be both transient and recurrent, then there will never be a mix of transient and recurrent states in a class
  - Therefore, **transience is a class property**
- **All states in a finite-state, irreducible (i.e. single class) MC are recurrent non-null**
  - Because they can't all be transient



# Periodicity

---

- If a state is periodic, that is, if the state can be revisited only at multiples of some non-unity number of steps, then all states in the class are periodic
- For the random walk, a state recurs when there are an equal number of  $+1$ s and  $-1$ s, implying that the period is 2



# Ergodicity

- Recall that a state is ergodic if it is aperiodic and recurrent non-null
- If all states of a Markov Chain (MC) are ergodic, then the MC is ergodic. *1 ergodic => this class ergodic*
- **Theorem:** All states of a finite, aperiodic, irreducible MC are ergodic.
  - Interpretation - any statistic of the MC, such as the steady state probability vector  $\pi^{(\infty)}$ , can be estimated by observing one outcome over a long time window.





# Uniformity

- **Theorem:** The states of an irreducible MC are either
  - All recurrent non-null, or
  - All recurrent null
- If the states are periodic, then they all have the same period.
- The random walk is an example of an irreducible MC with all states being recurrent null



# Stationarity

---

The homogenous MC is stationary if it is initialized with a state probability vector

$$\boldsymbol{\pi}^{(0)} = \boldsymbol{\rho}$$

such that

$$\boldsymbol{\rho} = \boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^n \quad \forall n > 0.$$

The state probability vector of a stationary MC is called a stationary distribution

# Steady State Existence

**Theorem:** In an irreducible and aperiodic homogenous MC, the limiting probabilities

$$\pi^{(\infty)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \pi^{(n)}$$

always exist and are independent of  $\pi^{(0)}$ . Moreover, either

- a) All states are transient or recurrent null, in which cases  $\pi_j^{(\infty)} = 0$  for all  $j$  and there exists no stationary distribution, or
- b) All states are recurrent non-null, in which cases  $\pi_j^{(\infty)} > 0$  for all  $j$  and the vector  $\pi^{(\infty)}$  is a stationary distribution



# Summary

---

- Markov chain classifications follow from
  - The uniformity of states within equivalence classes
  - The property of having only one class (irreducible MC)
- Stationarity and steady state of MCs



---

# Thank You!