4. Markov Chains (10/13/05, cf. Ross)

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4.1. Introduction

Definition: A stochastic process (SP) $\{X(t): t \in T\}$ is a collection of RV's. Each X(t) is a RV; t is usually regarded as "time."

Example: X(t) = the number of customers in line at the post office at time t.

Example: X(t) = the price of IBM stock at time t.

T is the *index set* of the process. If T is countable, then $\{X(t):t\in T\}$ is a *discrete-time* SP. If T is some continuum, then $\{X(t):t\in T\}$ is a *continuous-time* SP.

Example: $\{X_n : n = 0, 1, 2, ...\}$ (index set of non-negative integers)

Example: $\{X(t): t \ge 0\}$ (index set is \Re_+)

The state space of the SP is the set of all possible values that the RV's X(t) can take.

Example: If $X_n = j$, then the process is in state j at time n.

Any realization of $\{X(t)\}$ is a sample path.

Definition: A *Markov chain* (MC) is a SP such that whenever the process is in state i, there is a fixed transition probability P_{ij} that its next state will be j.

Denote the "current" state (at time n) by $X_n = i$.

Let the event $A = \{X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots X_{n-1} = i_{n-1}\}$ be the previous history of the MC (before time n).

 $\{X_n\}$ has the *Markov property* if it forgets about its past, i.e.,

$$\Pr(X_{n+1} = j | A \cap X_n = i) = \Pr(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i).$$

 $\{X_n\}$ is time homogeneous if

$$\Pr(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i) = \Pr(X_1 = j | X_0 = i) = P_{ij},$$

i.e., if the transition probabilities are independent of n.

Recap: A Markov chain is a SP such that

$$\Pr(X_{n+1} = j | A \cap X_n = i) = P_{ij},$$

i.e., the next state depends *only* on the current state (and is indep of the time).

Since P_{ij} is a probability, $0 \le P_{ij} \le 1$ for all i, j.

Since the process has to go from i to some state, we must have $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P_{ij} = 1$, for all i. Note that it may be possible to go from i to i (i.e., "stay" at i).

Definition: The one-step transition matrix is

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{00} & P_{01} & P_{02} & \cdots \\ P_{10} & P_{11} & P_{12} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

Example: A frog lives in a pond with three lily pads (1,2,3). He sits on one of the pads and periodically rolls a die. If he rolls a 1, he jumps to the lower numbered of the two unoccupied pads. Otherwise, he jumps to the higher numbered pad. Let X_0 be the initial pad and let X_n be his location just after the nth jump. This is a MC since his position only depends on the current position, and the P_{ij} 's are independent of n.

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/6 & 5/6 \\ 1/6 & 0 & 5/6 \\ 1/6 & 5/6 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \diamondsuit$$

Example: Let X_i denote the weather (rain or sun) on day i. We'll think of X_{i-1} as yesterday, X_i as today, and X_{i+1} as tomorrow. Suppose that

$$Pr(X_{i+1} = R \mid X_{i-1} = R, X_i = R) = 0.7$$

 $Pr(X_{i+1} = R \mid X_{i-1} = S, X_i = R) = 0.5$
 $Pr(X_{i+1} = R \mid X_{i-1} = R, X_i = S) = 0.4$
 $Pr(X_{i+1} = R \mid X_{i-1} = S, X_i = S) = 0.2$

 X_0, X_1, \ldots isn't quite a MC, since the probability that it'll rain tomorrow depends on X_i and X_{i-1} .

We'll transform the process into a MC by defining the following states in terms of today and yesterday.

0:
$$X_{i-1} = R, X_i = R$$

1:
$$X_{i-1} = S, X_i = R$$

2:
$$X_{i-1} = R, X_i = S$$

3:
$$X_{i-1} = S, X_i = S$$

Thus, we have, e.g.,

$$Pr(X_{i+1} = R \mid X_{i-1} = R, X_i = R) = P_{00} = 0.7$$

 $Pr(X_{i+1} = S \mid X_{i-1} = R, X_i = R) = P_{02} = 0.3$

Using similar reasoning, we get

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0 & 0.3 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.4 & 0 & 0.6 \\ 0 & 0.2 & 0 & 0.8 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \diamondsuit$$

Example: A MC whose state space is given by the integers is called a *random walk* if $P_{i,i+1} = p$ and $P_{i,i-1} = 1 - p$.

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \cdots & 1-p & 0 & p & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ \cdots & 0 & 1-p & 0 & p & 0 & \cdots \\ \cdots & 0 & 0 & 1-p & 0 & p & \cdots \\ \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1-p & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}. \quad \diamondsuit$$

Example (Gambler's Ruin): Every time a gambler plays a game, he wins \$1 w.p. p, and he loses \$1 w.p. 1-p. He stops playing as soon as his fortune is either \$0 or \$N. The gambler's fortune is a MC with the following P_{ij} 's:

$$P_{i,i+1} = p, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N-1$$

 $P_{i,i-1} = 1 - p, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N-1$
 $P_{0,0} = P_{N,N} = 1$

0 and N are *absorbing* states — once the process enters one of these states, it can't leave. \diamondsuit

Example (Ehrenfest Model): A random walk on a finite set of states with "reflecting" boundaries. Set of states is $\{1, 2, ..., a\}$.

$$P_{ij} = \left\{ egin{array}{l} rac{a-i}{a} & ext{if } j=i+1 \ & rac{i}{a} & ext{if } j=i-1 \ & ext{0} & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

Idea: Suppose A has i marbles, B has a - i. Select a marble at random, and put it in the other container.



4.2 Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

Definition: The n-step transition probability that a process currently in state i will be in state j after n additional transitions is

$$P_{ij}^{(n)} \equiv \Pr(X_n = j | X_0 = i), \quad n, i, j \ge 0.$$

Note that $P_{ij}^{(1)} = P_{ij}$, and

$$P_{ij}^{(0)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Theorem (C-K Equations):

$$P_{ij}^{(n+m)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{ik}^{(n)} P_{kj}^{(m)}.$$

Think of going from i to j in n+m steps with an intermediate stop in state k after n steps; then sum over all possible k values.

Proof: By definition,

$$\begin{split} &P_{ij}^{(n+m)}\\ &= \Pr(X_{n+m} = j | X_0 = i)\\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \Pr(X_{n+m} = j \cap X_n = k | X_0 = i) \quad \text{(total prob)}\\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \Pr(X_{n+m} = j | X_0 = i \cap X_n = k) \Pr(X_n = k | X_0 = i)\\ &\quad \text{(since } \Pr(A \cap C | B) = \Pr(A | B \cap C) \Pr(C | B))\\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \Pr(X_{n+m} = j | X_n = k) \Pr(X_n = k | X_0 = i)\\ &\quad \text{(Markov property).} \quad \diamondsuit \end{split}$$

Definition: The n-step transition matrix is

$$\mathbf{P}^{(n)} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{00}^{(n)} & P_{01}^{(n)} & P_{02}^{(n)} & \cdots \\ P_{10}^{(n)} & P_{11}^{(n)} & P_{12}^{(n)} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

The C-K equations imply $P^{(n+m)} = P^{(n)}P^{(m)}$.

In particular, $P^{(2)} = P^{(1)}P^{(1)} = PP = P^2$.

By induction, $P^{(n)} = P^n$.

Example: Let $X_i = 0$ if it rains on day i; otherwise,

 $X_i = 1$. Suppose $P_{00} = 0.7$ and $P_{10} = 0.4$. Then

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 \\ 0.4 & 0.6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Suppose it rains on Monday. Then the prob that it rains on Friday is $P_{00}^{(4)}$. Note that

$$\mathbf{P}^{(4)} = \mathbf{P}^4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 \\ 0.4 & 0.6 \end{pmatrix}^4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5749 & 0.4251 \\ 0.5668 & 0.4332 \end{pmatrix},$$

so that
$$P_{00}^{(4)} = 0.5749$$
. \diamondsuit

Unconditional Probabilities

Suppose we know the "initial" probabilities,

$$\alpha_i \equiv \Pr(X_0 = i), \quad i = 0, 1, \dots$$

(Note that $\sum_i \alpha_i = 1$.) Then by total probability,

$$\Pr(X_n = j) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Pr(X_n = j \cap X_0 = i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Pr(X_n = j | X_0 = i) \Pr(X_0 = i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} P_{ij}^{(n)} \alpha_i.$$

Example: In the above example, suppose $\alpha_0 = 0.4$ and $\alpha_1 = 0.6$. Find the prob that it will not rain on the 4th day after we start keeping records (assuming nothing about the first day).

$$Pr(X_4 = 1) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} P_{i1}^{(4)} \alpha_i$$

$$= P_{01}^{(4)} \alpha_0 + P_{11}^{(4)} \alpha_1$$

$$= (0.4251)(0.4) + (0.4332)(0.6)$$

$$= 0.4300. \diamondsuit$$

4.3 Types of States

Definition: If $P_{ij}^{(n)} > 0$ for some $n \geq 0$, state j is accessible from i.

Notation: $i \rightarrow j$.

Definition: If $i \rightarrow j$ and $j \rightarrow i$, then i and j communicate.

Notation: $i \leftrightarrow j$.

Theorem: Communication is an equivalence relation:

- (i) $i \leftrightarrow i$ for all i (reflexive).
- (ii) $i \leftrightarrow j$ implies $j \leftrightarrow i$ (symmetric).
- (iii) $i \leftrightarrow j$ and $j \leftrightarrow k$ imply $i \leftrightarrow k$ (transitive).

Proof: (i) and (ii) are trivial, so we'll only do (iii). To do so, suppose $i \leftrightarrow j$ and $j \leftrightarrow k$. Then there are n,m such that $P_{ij}^{(n)} > 0$ and $P_{jk}^{(m)} > 0$. So by C-K,

$$P_{ik}^{(n+m)} = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} P_{ir}^{(n)} P_{rk}^{(m)} \ge P_{ij}^{(n)} P_{jk}^{(m)} > 0.$$

Thus, $i \rightarrow k$. Similarly, $k \rightarrow i$.

Definition: An equivalence class consists of all states that communicate with each other.

Remark: Easy to see that two equiv classes are disjoint.

Example: The following $\bf P$ has equiv classes $\{0,1\}$ and $\{2,3\}$.

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3/4 & 1/4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/4 & 3/4 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \diamondsuit$$

Example: **P** again has equiv classes $\{0,1\}$ and $\{2,3\}$ — note that 1 isn't accessible from 2.

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3/4 & 1/4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/4 & 3/4 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \diamondsuit$$

Definition: A MC is *irreducible* if there is only one equiv class (i.e., if all states communicate).

Example: The previous two examples are **not** irreducible. \diamondsuit

Example: The following **P** is irreducible since all states communicate ('loop' technique: $0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 0$).

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/4 & 3/4 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \diamondsuit$$

Example: **P** is irreducible since $0 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 0$.

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 & 0 & 3/4 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \diamondsuit$$

Definition: The probability that the MC eventually returns to state i is

$$f_i \equiv \Pr(X_n = i \text{ for some } n \ge 1 | X_0 = i).$$

Example: The following MC has equiv classes $\{0,1\}$, $\{2\}$, and $\{3\}$, the latter of which is absorbing.

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We have $f_0 = f_1 = 1$, $f_2 = 1/4$, $f_3 = 1$. \diamondsuit

Remark: The f_i 's are usually hard to compute.

Definition: If $f_i = 1$, state i is *recurrent*. If $f_i < 1$, state i is *transient*.

Theorem: Suppose $X_0 = i$. Let N denote the number of times that the MC is in state i (before leaving i forever). Note that $N \geq 1$ since $X_0 = i$. Then i is recurrent iff $E[N] = \infty$ (and i is transient iff $E[N] < \infty$).

Proof: If i is recurrent, it's easy to see that the MC returns to i an infinite number of times; so $E[N] = \infty$. Otherwise, suppose i is transient. Then

$$Pr(N = 1) = 1 - f_i$$
 (never returns)

$$Pr(N = 2) = f_i(1 - f_i)$$
 (returns exactly once)

:

$$Pr(N = k) = f_i^{k-1}(1 - f_i) \quad (returns \ k - 1 \ times)$$

So $N \sim \text{Geom}(1-f_i)$. Finally, since $f_i < 1$, we have $\mathsf{E}[N] = \frac{1}{1-f_i} < \infty$. \diamondsuit

Theorem: i is recurrent iff $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{ii}^{(n)} = \infty$. (So i is transient iff $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{ii}^{(n)} < \infty$.)

Proof: Define the event

$$A_n \equiv \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_n = i \\ 0 & \text{if } X_n \neq i \end{cases}$$

Note that $N \equiv \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ is the number of returns to i.

Then by the trick that allows us to treat the expected value of an indicator function as a probability, we have...

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{ii}^{(n)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \Pr(X_n = i | X_0 = i)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{E}[A_n | X_0 = i] \quad \text{(trick)}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\Big[\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n | X_0 = i\Big]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[N | X_0 = i] \quad (N = \text{number of returns})$$

$$= \infty$$

$$\Leftrightarrow i \text{ is recur (by previous theorem).} \diamondsuit$$

Corollary 1: If i is recur and $i \leftrightarrow j$, then j is recur.

Proof: See Ross. \Diamond

Corollary 2: In a MC with a *finite* number of states, not all of the states can be transient.

Proof: Suppose not. Then the MC will run out of states not to go to an infinite number of times. This is a contradiction. \Diamond

Corollary 3: If one state in an equiv class is transient, then all states are trans.

Proof: Suppose not, i.e., suppose there's a recurstate. Since all states in the equiv class communicate, Corollary 1 implies all states are recur. This is a contradiction. \Diamond

Corollary 4: All states in a finite irreducible MC are recurrent.

Proof: Suppose not, i.e., suppose there's a transstate. Then Corollary 3 implies *all* states are trans. But this contradicts Corollary 1. \diamondsuit

Definition: By Corollary 1, all states in an equiv class are recur if one state in that class is recur. Such a class is a *recurrent equiv class*.

By Corollary 3, all states in an equiv class are trans if one state in that class is trans. Such a class is a transient equiv class.

Example: Consider the prob transition matrix

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/4 & 3/4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Clearly, all states communicate. So this is a finite, irreducible MC. So Corollary 4 implies all states are recurrent. \Diamond

Example: Consider

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 & 0 & 0 & 3/4 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Loop: $0 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 0$. Thus, all states communicate; so they're all recurrent. \diamondsuit

Example: Consider

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 & 0 & 3/4 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ \hline 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ \hline 1/5 & 1/5 & 0 & 0 & 3/5 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The equiv classes are $\{0,2\}$ (recur), $\{1,3\}$ (recur), and $\{4\}$ (trans). \diamondsuit

Example: Random Walk: A drunk walks on the integers $0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$ with transition probabilities

$$P_{i,i+1} = p$$

$$P_{i,i-1} = q = 1 - p$$

(i.e., he steps to the right w.p. p and to the left w.p. 1-p).

The prob transition matrix is

Are the states recurrent or transient?

Clearly, all states communicate. So Corollary 1 implies that **if** one of the states are recur, then they all are. Otherwise, all states will be transient.

Consider a typical state 0. If 0 is recurrent [transient], then all states will be recurrent [transient]. We'll find out which is the case by calculating $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{00}^{(n)}$.

Suppose the drunk starts at 0. Since it's impossible for him to return to 0 in an odd number of steps, we see that $P_{00}^{(2n+1)} = 0$ for all $n \ge 0$.

So the only chance he has of returning to 0 is if he's taken an even number of steps, say 2n. Of these steps, n must be taken to the left, and n to the right. So, thinking binomial, we have

$$P_{00}^{(2n)} = {2n \choose n} p^n q^n = \frac{(2n)!}{n!n!} p^n q^n, \quad n \ge 1.$$

Aside: For large n, Stirling's approximation says that

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi} \, n^{n+\frac{1}{2}} e^{-n}.$$

After the smoke clears,

$$P_{00}^{(2n)} \approx \frac{[4p(1-p)]^n}{\sqrt{\pi n}},$$

so that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{00}^{(n)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{00}^{(2n)}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{[4p(1-p)]^n}{\sqrt{\pi n}} \begin{cases} = \infty & \text{if } p = 1/2 \\ < \infty & \text{if } p \neq 1/2 \end{cases}.$$

So the MC is recur if p = 1/2 and trans otherwise.



Definition: If p = 1/2, the random walk is *symmetric*.

Remark: A 2-dimensional r.w. with probability 1/4 of going each way yields a recurrent MC.

A 3-dimensional r.w. with probability 1/6 of going each way (N, S, E, W, up, down) yields a transient MC.

4.4 Limiting Probabilities

Example: Note that the following matrices appear to be converging. . . .

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 \\ 0.4 & 0.6 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{P}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.61 & 0.39 \\ 0.52 & 0.48 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{P}^{(4)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.575 & 0.425 \\ 0.567 & 0.433 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{P}^{(8)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.572 & 0.428 \\ 0.570 & 0.430 \end{pmatrix}, \dots$$

Definition: Suppose that $P_{ii}^{(n)} = 0$ whenever n is not divisible by d, and suppose that d is the largest integer with this property. Then state i has $period\ d$. Think of d as the greatest common divisor of all n values for which $P_{ii}^{(n)} > 0$.

Example: All states have period 3.

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \diamondsuit$$

Definition: A state with period 1 is aperiodic.

Example:

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Here, states 0 and 1 have period 2, while states 2 and 3 are aperiodic. \Diamond

Definition: Suppose state i is recurrent and $X_0 = i$. If the expected time until the process returns to i is finite, then i is positive recurrent.

Remark: It turns out that...

- (1) In a *finite* MC, all recur states are positive recur.
- (2) In an ∞ -state MC, there may be some recur states that are not positive recur. Such states are *null recur*.

Definition: Pos recur, aperiodic states are ergodic.

Theorem: For an irreducible, ergodic MC,

(1) $\pi_j \equiv \lim_{n\to\infty} P_{ij}^{(n)}$ exists and is independent of i.

(The π_i 's are called *limiting* probabilities.)

(2) π_j is the *unique*, nonnegative solution of

$$\begin{cases} \pi_j = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \pi_i P_{ij}, & j \ge 0 \\ 1 = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \pi_j \end{cases}$$

In vector notation, this can be written as $\pi = \pi P$.

"Heuristic "proof": see Ross. ♦

Remarks: (1) π_j is also the long-run proportion of time that the MC will be in state j. The π_j 's are often called *stationary* probs — since **if** $\Pr(X_0 = j) = \pi_j$, then $\Pr(X_n = j) = \pi_j$ for all n.

- (2) In the irred, pos recur, *periodic* case, π_j can only be interpreted as the long-run proportion of time in j.
- (3) Let $m_{jj} \equiv$ expected number of transitions needed to go from j to j. Since, on average, the MC spends 1 time unit in state j for every m_{jj} time units, we have $m_{jj} = 1/\pi_j$.

Example: Find the limiting probabilities of

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.4 & 0.1 \\ 0.3 & 0.4 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Solve $\pi_j = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \pi_i P_{ij}$ $(\pi = \pi P)$, i.e.,

$$\pi_0 = \pi_0 P_{00} + \pi_1 P_{10} + \pi_2 P_{20} = 0.5\pi_0 + 0.3\pi_1 + 0.2\pi_2,$$

$$\pi_1 = \pi_0 P_{01} + \pi_1 P_{11} + \pi_2 P_{21} = 0.4\pi_0 + 0.4\pi_1 + 0.3\pi_2,$$

$$\pi_2 = \pi_0 P_{02} + \pi_1 P_{12} + \pi_2 P_{22} = 0.1\pi_0 + 0.3\pi_1 + 0.5\pi_2,$$

and
$$\pi_0 + \pi_1 + \pi_2 = 1$$
. Get $\pi = \{\frac{21}{62}, \frac{23}{62}, \frac{18}{62}\}$. \diamondsuit

Definition: A transition matrix **P** is **doubly stochastic** if each column (and row) sums to 1.

Theorem: If, in addition to the conditions of the previous theorem, \mathbf{P} is a doubly stochastic $n \times n$ matrix, then $\pi_j = 1/n$ for all j.

Proof: Just plug in $\pi_j = 1/n$ for all j into $\pi = \pi P$ to verify that it works. Since this solution must be unique, we're done. \diamondsuit

Example: Find the limiting probabilities of

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0.4 & 0.1 \\ 0.3 & 0.3 & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This is a doubly stochastic matrix, so we immediately have that $\pi_0 = \pi_1 = \pi_2 = 1/3$. \diamondsuit

4.5 Gambler's Ruin Problem

Each time a gambler plays, he wins \$1 w.p. p and loses \$1 w.p. 1-p=q. Each play is independent. Suppose he starts with i. Find the probability that his fortune will hit N (i.e., he breaks the bank) before it hits 0 (i.e., he is ruined).

Let X_n denote his fortune at time n. Clearly, $\{X_n\}$ is a MC.

Note $P_{i,i+1} = p$ and $P_{i,i-1} = q$ for i = 1, 2, ..., N-1.

Further, $P_{00} = 1 = P_{NN}$.

We have 3 equiv classes: $\{0\}$ (recur), $\{1, 2, ..., N-1\}$ (trans), and $\{N\}$ (recur).

By a standard one-step conditioning argument,

$$P_i \equiv \operatorname{Pr}(\mathsf{Eventually\ hit\ } \$N|X_0 = i)$$

$$= \operatorname{Pr}(\mathsf{Event.\ hit\ } N|X_1 = i+1\ \mathbf{and\ } X_0 = i)$$

$$\times \operatorname{Pr}(X_1 = i+1|X_0 = i)$$

$$+ \operatorname{Pr}(\mathsf{Event.\ hit\ } N|X_1 = i-1\ \mathbf{and\ } X_0 = i)$$

$$\times \operatorname{Pr}(X_1 = i-1|X_0 = i)$$

$$= \operatorname{Pr}(\mathsf{Event.\ hit\ } N|X_1 = i+1)p$$

$$+ \operatorname{Pr}(\mathsf{Event.\ hit\ } N|X_1 = i-1)q$$

$$= pP_{i+1} + qP_{i-1}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N-1.$$

Since p + q = 1, we have

$$pP_i + qP_i = pP_{i+1} + qP_{i-1}$$

iff

$$p(P_{i+1} - P_i) = q(P_i - P_{i-1})$$

iff

$$P_{i+1} - P_i = \frac{q}{p}(P_i - P_{i-1}), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N-1.$$

Since $P_0 = 0$, we have

$$P_{2} - P_{1} = \frac{q}{p} P_{1}$$

$$P_{3} - P_{2} = \frac{q}{p} (P_{2} - P_{1}) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^{2} P_{1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$P_{i} - P_{i-1} = \frac{q}{p} (P_{i-1} - P_{i-2}) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^{i-1} P_{1}.$$

Summing up the LHS terms and the RHS terms,

$$\sum_{j=2}^{i} (P_j - P_{j-1}) = P_i - P_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^j P_1.$$

This implies that

$$P_{i} = P_{1} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^{j} = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - (q/p)^{i}}{1 - (q/p)} P_{1} & \text{if } q \neq p \ (p \neq 1/2) \\ iP_{1} & \text{if } q = p \ (p = 1/2) \end{cases}.$$

In particular, note that

$$1 = P_N = egin{cases} rac{1 - (q/p)^N}{1 - (q/p)} P_1 & ext{if } p
eq 1/2 \ NP_1 & ext{if } p = 1/2 \end{cases}.$$

Thus,

$$P_1 = \begin{cases} rac{1 - (q/p)}{1 - (q/p)^N} & \text{if } p \neq 1/2 \\ 1/N & \text{if } p = 1/2 \end{cases}$$

so that

By the way, as $N \to \infty$,

Example: A guy can somehow win any blackjack hand w.p. 0.6. If he wins, he fortune increases by \$100; a loss costs him \$100. Suppose he starts out with \$500, and that he'll quit playing as soon as his fortune hits \$0 or \$1500. What's the probability that he'll eventually hit \$1500?

$$P_5 = \frac{1 - (0.4/0.6)^5}{1 - (0.4/0.6)^{15}} = 0.870.$$
 \diamondsuit

4.6 First Passage Time from State 0 to State N

$$P_{ij}^{(n)} \equiv P(X_n = j | X_0 = i)$$

Definition: The probability that the *first* passage time from i to j is n is

$$f_{ij}^{(n)} \equiv P(X_n = j | X_0 = i, X_k \neq j, k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1).$$

This is the probability that the MC goes from i to j in exactly n steps (without passing thru j along the way).

Remarks:

(1) By definition, $f_{ij}^{(1)} = P_{ij}^{(1)} = P_{ij}$

(2)
$$f_{ij}^{(n)} = P_{ij}^{(n)} - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} f_{ij}^{(k)} P_{jj}^{(n-k)}$$

 $P_{ij}^{(n)} = \text{Prob.}$ of going from i to j in n steps $f_{ij}^{(k)} = \text{Prob.}$ of i to j for first time in k steps $P_{jj}^{(n-k)} = \text{Prob.}$ of j to j in remaining n-k steps

Special Case: Start in state 0 and state N is an absorbing ("trapping") state.

$$f_{0N}^{(1)} = P_{0N}^{(1)} = P_{0N}$$

$$f_{0N}^{(2)} = P_{0N}^{(2)} - f_{0N}^{(1)} P_{NN}^{(1)} = P_{0N}^{(2)} - P_{0N}^{(1)}$$

$$f_{0N}^{(3)} = P_{0N}^{(3)} - f_{0N}^{(1)} - f_{0N}^{(2)}$$

$$= P_{0N}^{(3)} - P_{0N}^{(1)} - (P_{0N}^{(2)} - P_{0N}^{(1)}) = P_{0N}^{(3)} - P_{0N}^{(2)}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$f_{0N}^{(n)} = P_{0N}^{(n)} - P_{0N}^{(n-1)}$$

 $f_{0N}^{(n)}$'s can be calculated iteratively starting at $f_{0N}^{(1)}$.

Define $T \equiv$ first passage time from 0 to N

$$E(T^{k}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{k} Pr(T = n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{k} f_{0N}^{(n)}$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{k} (P_{0N}^{(n)} - P_{0N}^{(n-1)})$$

Usually use a computer to calculate this.

(WARNING! Don't break this up into 2 separate ∞ summations!) Stop calculating when $f_{0N}^{(n)} \approx 0$.

2nd Special Case: 2 absorbing states N, N'

Same procedure as before but divide each $f_{0N}^{(n)}$, $f_{0N'}^{(n)}$ by the probs. of being trapped. So probs. of first passage times to N, N' in n steps are

$$\frac{f_{0N}^{(n)}}{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_{0N}^{(k)}}$$
 and $\frac{f_{0N'}^{(n)}}{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_{0N'}^{(k)}}$.

4.7 Branching Processes ← Special class of MC's

Suppose X_0 is the number of individuals in a certain population. Suppose the probability that any individual will have exactly j offspring during its lifetime is P_j , $j \ge 0$. (Assume that the number of offspring from one individual is independent of the number from any other individual.)

 $X_0 \equiv$ size of the 0^{th} generation

 $X_1 \equiv \text{size of the } 1^{st} \text{ gener'n} = \# \text{ kids produced by individuals from } 0^{th} \text{ gener'n}.$

:

 $X_n \equiv \text{size of the } n^{th} \text{ gener'n} = \# \text{ kids produced by indiv.'s from } (n-1)^{st} \text{ gener'n}.$

Then $\{X_n : n \geq 0\}$ is a MC with the non-negative integers as its state space. $P_{ij} \equiv P(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i)$.

Remarks:

- (1) 0 is recurrent since $P_{00} = 1$.
- (2) If $P_0 > 0$, then all other states are transient. (Proof: If $P_0 > 0$, then $P_{i0} = P_0^i > 0$. If i is recurrent, we'd eventually go to state 0. Contradiction.)

These two remarks imply that the population either dies out or its size $\to \infty$.

Denote $\mu \equiv \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} j P_j$, the mean number of offspring of a particular individual.

Denote $\sigma^2 \equiv \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (j-\mu)^2 P_j$, the variance.

Suppose $X_0 = 1$. In order to calculate $E[X_n]$ and $Var(X_n)$, note that

$$X_n = \sum_{i=1}^{X_{n-1}} Z_i$$

where Z_i is the # of kids from indiv. i of gener'n (n-1).

Since X_{n-1} is indep of the Z_i 's,

$$\mathsf{E}[X_n] \ = \ \mathsf{E}\Big[\sum_{i=1}^{X_{n-1}} Z_i\Big]$$

$$= \ \mathsf{E}[X_{n-1}] \mathsf{E}[Z_i]$$

$$= \ \mu \mathsf{E}[X_{n-1}].$$
Since $X_0 = 1$,
$$\mathsf{E}[X_1] \ = \ \mu$$

$$\mathsf{E}[X_2] \ = \ \mu \mathsf{E}[X_1] = \mu^2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathsf{E}[X_n] \ = \ \mu^n.$$

Similarly,

$$\operatorname{Var}(X_n) = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 \mu^{n-1} \left(\frac{\mu^n - 1}{\mu - 1} \right), & \text{if } \mu \neq 1 \\ n\sigma^2, & \text{if } \mu = 1 \end{cases}$$

Denote $\pi_0 \equiv \lim_{n \to \infty} \Pr(X_n = 0 | X_0 = 1) = \text{prob that}$ the population will eventually die out (given $X_0 = 1$).

Fact: If $\mu < 1$, then $\pi_0 = 1$.

Proof:

$$\Pr(X_n \ge 1) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \Pr(X_n = j)$$

$$\leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j \Pr(X_n = j)$$

$$= \operatorname{E}[X_n] = \mu^n \to 0 \quad \text{as } n \to \infty.$$

Fact: If $\mu = 1$, then $\pi_0 = 1$.

What about the case when $\mu > 1$?

Here, it turns out that $\pi_0 < 1$, i.e., the prob. population dies out is < 1.

$$\pi_0 = \Pr(\text{pop'n dies out})$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \Pr(\text{pop'n dies out}|X_1 = j) \Pr(X_1 = j),$$
 π_0^j

where π_0^j implies that the families started by the j members of the first generation all die out (indep'ly).

Summary:

$$\pi_0 = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \pi_0^j P_j \quad (*)$$

For $\mu > 1$, π_0 is the smallest positive number satisfying (*).

Example: Suppose $P_0 = \frac{1}{4}, P_1 = \frac{1}{4}, P_2 = \frac{1}{2}$.

$$\mu = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} j P_j = 0 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{4} > 1$$

Furthermore, (*) implies

$$\pi_0 = \pi_0^0 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \pi_0^1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \pi_0^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}\pi_0 + \frac{1}{2}\pi_0^2$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 2\pi_0^2 - 3\pi_0 + 1 = 0$$

Smallest positive sol'n is $\pi_0 = \frac{1}{2}$.