

Stats 130  
Day 15 Notes

Elijah Hantman

## Markov identity

$$\pi = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v' P^n \quad (1)$$

Where  $P$  is the probability matrix, and  $v'$  is the initial distribution, and  $\pi$  is the equilibrium distribution.

## Obtaining the Equilibrium Distribution

- Markov chain
- What will be the stable distribution over time.  
ie: what is the probability of the system being in a given state as time goes to infinity.

The equilibrium satisfies  $\pi' = \pi' P$ . This implies that  $\pi'(P - I) = 0$ . Unfortunately there isn't a unique solution since  $\pi^* = c\pi$  also satisfies  $(\pi^*)(P - I) = 0$  for all  $c$ .

idk why the slides use  $\pi$  its a terrible choice for a variable name.

To make the solution unique we constrain  $\pi$  to be positive and sum to 1. This is saying that  $\sum_{j=1}^k \pi_j = 1$

$$(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_k) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \pi' \mathbf{1} = 1$$

Let  $h_j$  be the  $j$ -th column of  $P - I$ . Define  $G = [h_1, \dots, h_{k-1}, 1]$ .

$$\pi' G = (0, \dots, 0, 1) \implies \pi' = (0, \dots, 0, 1) G^{-1}$$

## How to get the Equilibrium

- Start with transition matrix
- We subtract from the transition matrix the identity matrix.
- Take last column and replace it with all ones
- Calculate the inverse of that matrix
- Multiply by a vector with all zeros and only a single 1 in the last entry.

## Example

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

$$P - I = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{3} & 1 \\ \frac{2}{3} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

$$G^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{3}{4} & \frac{3}{4} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

$$\pi' = (0, 1) \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{3}{4} & \frac{3}{4} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \left[ \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} \right] \quad (6)$$

This only works with homogeneous Markov Chains, where the probabilities are constant.

## Expected Value / Expectation

Let  $X$  be a random variable with probability function  $f_X(x)$ .

$$E(X) = \sum_x x f_X(x)$$

This is only useful if the sum is convergent. We require the sum is absolute convergence.

$$\sum_x |x| f_X(x) < +\infty$$

Many well defined random variables fail this requirement. For those variables we say that  $E(X)$  does not exist.

The Expectation of a variable only depends on its distribution, and two random variables with the same distribution will always have the same Expectation.

## Continuous Random Variables

For a continuous random variable  $X$  with p.d.f.  $f_X(x)$  the expectation is defined.

$$E(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

This exists if:

$$E(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x| f_X(x) dx$$

Otherwise the expectation is undefined.

## Functions of Random Variables

For any function  $r(X)$  we have that

$$E(r(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} r(x) f_X(x) dx$$

Therefore we do not need the density of the random variables that result from transforming  $X$  in order to obtain the expectation.

Even more generally:

For two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , consider a function  $r(X, Y)$ , then

$$E(r(X, Y)) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} r(x, y) f(x, y) dx dy$$

## Example

Consider a random variable with density

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then

$$E(X) = \int_0^1 x(2x)dx = \int_0^1 2x^2 dx = \frac{2}{3}$$

Consider the exponential density defined as:

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x > 0 \\ 0 & x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \int_0^\infty x \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = -x e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^\infty + \int_0^\infty e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= -\frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^\infty = \frac{1}{\lambda} \end{aligned}$$

Cauchy Density is defined as:

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}, x \in \mathbb{R}$$

To check if the expectation exists

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{|x|}{\pi(1+x^2)} dx = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx = \frac{1}{\pi} \log(1+x^2) \Big|_0^\infty = \infty$$

Therefore the expectation of the Cauchy distribution does not exist.

## Expectation Properties

1.  $Y = aX + b \implies EY = aEX + b, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

$$EY = \int_{\mathbb{R}} (ax + b) f_X(x) dx = a \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f_X(x) dx + b \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_X(x) dx$$

2.  $Pr(X \geq [\leq]a) = 1 \implies EX \geq [\leq]a$

$$EY = \int_{x \geq a} x f_X(x) dx \geq a \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_X(x) dx = a, f_X(x) = 0, x > a$$

3.  $E(X + Y) = EX + EY$  The expectation distributes linearly over sums.

$$E(X + Y) = \int \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} (x + y) f(x, y) dx dy = \int x f_X(x) dx + \int y f_Y(y) dy$$

4. In general for a collection of random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_k$ ,  $EX_i$  exists  $\forall i$ ,  $E \sum_{i=1}^k X_i = \sum_{i=1}^k EX_i$
5. For a collection of independent random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_k$  then  $EX_i$  exists  $\forall i$ ,  $E \prod_{i=1}^k X_i = \prod_{i=1}^k EX_i$

## Bernoulli Trials

Consider a random variable  $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ . Then,  $\Pr(X = 1) = p$ , and  $\Pr(X = 0) = 1 - p = q$ .

$$EX = 1 \times p + 0 \times q = p$$

Repeat the Bernoulli trials  $n$  times, and define  $Y$  as the random variable that counts the number of successes. Then

$$Y = X_1 + \dots + X_n$$

and

$$EY = EX_1 + \dots + EX_n = np$$

And  $Y \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$

## Hypergeometric Distribution

Select  $n$  balls from a box containing  $A$  red balls and  $B$  blue balls. Define the binary variable  $X_i = 1$  if the  $i$ -th ball is red, and  $X_i = 0$  if the  $i$ -th ball is blue.

$$\Pr(X = 1) = \frac{A}{A+B} \implies EX_i = \frac{A}{A+B}$$

That implies that

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \implies EY = \sum_{i=1}^n EX_i = n \frac{A}{A+B}$$

## Poisson Distribution

A random variable with a Poisson distribution has function

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} EX &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} i \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^i}{i!} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^i}{(i-1)!} = \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{i-1}}{(i-1)!} \\ &= \lambda e^{-\lambda} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^j}{j!} = \lambda \end{aligned}$$

The last step works because the sum is the Taylor expansion of  $e^\lambda$  which cancels with  $e^{-\lambda}$ .

## Geometric Distribution

A random variable with a geometric distribution has probability function.

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} pq^x & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} EX &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} ipq^i = p \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} iq^i = pq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} iq^{i-1} \\ &= pq \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dq} q^i = pq \frac{d}{dq} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} q^i = pq \frac{d}{dq} \frac{1}{1-q} \\ &= pq \frac{1}{(1-q)^2} = \frac{pq}{p^2} = \frac{q}{p} \end{aligned}$$

## Negative Binomial

A random variable with a negative binomial corresponds to the sum of  $r$  independent random variables  $X_i$  where  $X_i \sim \text{Geo}(p)$

$$EY = \frac{rq}{p}$$