

Recap: Markov Chain

- ▶ Let X_n , $n = 0, 1, \dots$ be a sequence of discrete random variables taking values in S .

Recap: Markov Chain

- ▶ Let X_n , $n = 0, 1, \dots$ be a sequence of discrete random variables taking values in S .
- ▶ We say it is a Markov chain if

$$Pr[X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n, X_{n-1} = x_{n-1} \cdots X_0 = x_0] = Pr[X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n],$$

Recap: Markov Chain

- ▶ Let X_n , $n = 0, 1, \dots$ be a sequence of discrete random variables taking values in S .
- ▶ We say it is a Markov chain if

$$Pr[X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n, X_{n-1} = x_{n-1} \cdots X_0 = x_0] = Pr[X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n],$$

- ▶ We can write it as

$$f_{X_{n+1}|X_n, \dots, X_0}(x_{n+1} | x_n, \dots, x_0) = f_{X_{n+1}|X_n}(x_{n+1} | x_n), \quad \forall x_i$$

Recap: Markov Chain

- ▶ Let X_n , $n = 0, 1, \dots$ be a sequence of discrete random variables taking values in S .
- ▶ We say it is a Markov chain if

$$Pr[X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n, X_{n-1} = x_{n-1} \dots X_0 = x_0] = Pr[X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n],$$

- ▶ We can write it as

$$f_{X_{n+1}|X_n, \dots, X_0}(x_{n+1} | x_n, \dots, x_0) = f_{X_{n+1}|X_n}(x_{n+1} | x_n), \quad \forall x_i$$

- ▶ For a Markov chain, given the current state, the future evolution is independent of the history of how you reached the current state

Recap: Transition Probabilities

- ▶ Transition probability function is $P : S \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$P(x, y) = \Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x]$$

Recap: Transition Probabilities

- ▶ Transition probability function is $P : S \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$P(x, y) = \Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x]$$

The chain is said to be homogeneous when this is not a function of time.

Recap: Transition Probabilities

- ▶ Transition probability function is $P : S \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$P(x, y) = Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x]$$

The chain is said to be homogeneous when this is not a function of time.

- ▶ For a homogeneous chain

$$Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] = Pr[X_1 = y | X_0 = x], \forall n$$

Recap: Transition Probabilities

- ▶ Transition probability function is $P : S \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$P(x, y) = Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x]$$

The chain is said to be homogeneous when this is not a function of time.

- ▶ For a homogeneous chain

$$Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] = Pr[X_1 = y | X_0 = x], \forall n$$

- ▶ P satisfies

- ▶ $P(x, y) \geq 0, \forall x, y \in S$

Recap: Transition Probabilities

- ▶ Transition probability function is $P : S \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$P(x, y) = Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x]$$

The chain is said to be homogeneous when this is not a function of time.

- ▶ For a homogeneous chain

$$Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] = Pr[X_1 = y | X_0 = x], \forall n$$

- ▶ P satisfies
 - ▶ $P(x, y) \geq 0, \forall x, y \in S$
 - ▶ $\sum_{y \in S} P(x, y) = 1, \forall x \in S$

Recap: Transition Probabilities

- ▶ Transition probability function is $P : S \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$P(x, y) = Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x]$$

The chain is said to be homogeneous when this is not a function of time.

- ▶ For a homogeneous chain

$$Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] = Pr[X_1 = y | X_0 = x], \forall n$$

- ▶ P satisfies
 - ▶ $P(x, y) \geq 0, \forall x, y \in S$
 - ▶ $\sum_{y \in S} P(x, y) = 1, \forall x \in S$
- ▶ If S is finite then P can be represented as a matrix

Recap: Initial State Probabilities

- ▶ Initial state probabilities $\pi_0 : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$\pi_0(x) = Pr[X_0 = x]$$

Recap: Initial State Probabilities

- ▶ Initial state probabilities $\pi_0 : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$\pi_0(x) = Pr[X_0 = x]$$

It satisfies

- ▶ $\pi_0(x) \geq 0, \forall x \in S$

Recap: Initial State Probabilities

- ▶ Initial state probabilities $\pi_0 : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$\pi_0(x) = Pr[X_0 = x]$$

It satisfies

- ▶ $\pi_0(x) \geq 0, \forall x \in S$
- ▶ $\sum_{x \in S} \pi_0(x) = 1$

Recap: Initial State Probabilities

- ▶ Initial state probabilities $\pi_0 : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

$$\pi_0(x) = Pr[X_0 = x]$$

It satisfies

- ▶ $\pi_0(x) \geq 0, \forall x \in S$
- ▶ $\sum_{x \in S} \pi_0(x) = 1$
- ▶ The P and π_0 together determine all joint distributions

Recap

- ▶ The Markov property implies

Recap

- ▶ The Markov property implies

$$Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_0 = z] = Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x]$$

Recap

- ▶ The Markov property implies

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_0 = z] &= Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x] \\ &= Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x] \end{aligned}$$

Recap

- ▶ The Markov property implies

$$\begin{aligned}Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_0 = z] &= Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x] \\ &= Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x]\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Or, in general,

$$f_{X_{m+n}|X_m, \dots, X_0}(y|x, \dots) = f_{X_{m+n}|X_m}(y|x)$$

Recap

- ▶ The Markov property implies

$$\begin{aligned}Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_0 = z] &= Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x] \\ &= Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x]\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Or, in general,

$$f_{X_{m+n}|X_m, \dots, X_0}(y|x, \dots) = f_{X_{m+n}|X_m}(y|x)$$

- ▶ Further, we can show

Recap

- ▶ The Markov property implies

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_0 = z] &= \Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x] \\ &= \Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x] \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Or, in general,

$$f_{X_{m+n}|X_m, \dots, X_0}(y|x, \dots) = f_{X_{m+n}|X_m}(y|x)$$

- ▶ Further, we can show

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_{m-k} \in A_k, k = 1, \dots, m] &= \\ \Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x] \end{aligned}$$

Recap

- ▶ The Markov property implies

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_0 = z] &= Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x] \\ &= Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x] \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Or, in general,

$$f_{X_{m+n}|X_m, \dots, X_0}(y|x, \dots) = f_{X_{m+n}|X_m}(y|x)$$

- ▶ Further, we can show

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_{m-k} \in A_k, k = 1, \dots, m] &= \\ &Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+n+r} \in B_r, r = 0, \dots, s | X_m = x, X_{m-k} \in A_k, k = 1, \dots, m] &= \\ &Pr[X_{m+n+r} \in B_r, r = 0, \dots, s | X_m = x] \end{aligned}$$

Recap: Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

- ▶ The n -step transition probabilities are defined by

$$P^n(x, y) = \Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x]$$

Recap: Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

- ▶ The n -step transition probabilities are defined by

$$P^n(x, y) = \Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x]$$

- ▶ These n -step transition probabilities satisfy

$$P^{m+n}(x, y) = \sum_z P^m(x, z) P^n(z, y)$$

Recap: Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

- ▶ The n -step transition probabilities are defined by

$$P^n(x, y) = \Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x]$$

- ▶ These n -step transition probabilities satisfy

$$P^{m+n}(x, y) = \sum_z P^m(x, z) P^n(z, y)$$

- ▶ These are known as Chapman-Kolmogorov equations

Recap: Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

- ▶ The n -step transition probabilities are defined by

$$P^n(x, y) = \Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x]$$

- ▶ These n -step transition probabilities satisfy

$$P^{m+n}(x, y) = \sum_z P^m(x, z) P^n(z, y)$$

- ▶ These are known as Chapman-Kolmogorov equations
- ▶ For a finite chain, the n -step transition probability matrix is n -fold product of the transition probability matrix

Recap: Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

- ▶ The n -step transition probabilities are defined by

$$P^n(x, y) = \Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x]$$

- ▶ These n -step transition probabilities satisfy

$$P^{m+n}(x, y) = \sum_z P^m(x, z) P^n(z, y)$$

- ▶ These are known as Chapman-Kolmogorov equations
- ▶ For a finite chain, the n -step transition probability matrix is n -fold product of the transition probability matrix
- ▶ We also have

$$\pi_n(x) \triangleq \Pr[X_n = x] = \sum_x \pi_0(x) P^n(x, y)$$

Recap: Hitting times

- ▶ We define hitting time for y as the random variable

$$T_y = \min\{n > 0 : X_n = y\}$$

Recap: Hitting times

- ▶ We define hitting time for y as the random variable

$$T_y = \min\{n > 0 : X_n = y\}$$

- ▶ Using this definition, we can derive

$$P_x(T_y = m) = \sum_{z \neq y} P(x, z) P_z(T_y = m - 1)$$

Recap: Hitting times

- ▶ We define hitting time for y as the random variable

$$T_y = \min\{n > 0 : X_n = y\}$$

- ▶ Using this definition, we can derive

$$P_x(T_y = m) = \sum_{z \neq y} P(x, z) P_z(T_y = m - 1)$$

(Notation: $P_z(A) = \Pr[A|X_0 = z]$)

Recap: Hitting times

- ▶ We define hitting time for y as the random variable

$$T_y = \min\{n > 0 : X_n = y\}$$

- ▶ Using this definition, we can derive

$$P_x(T_y = m) = \sum_{z \neq y} P(x, z) P_z(T_y = m - 1)$$

(Notation: $P_z(A) = \Pr[A | X_0 = z]$)

$$P^n(x, y) = \sum_{m=1}^n P_x(T_y = m) P^{n-m}(y, y)$$

Recap: transient and recurrent states

- ▶ Define $\rho_{xy} = P_x(T_y < \infty)$.

Recap: transient and recurrent states

- ▶ Define $\rho_{xy} = P_x(T_y < \infty)$.
- ▶ It is the probability that starting in x you will visit y

Recap: transient and recurrent states

- ▶ Define $\rho_{xy} = P_x(T_y < \infty)$.
- ▶ It is the probability that starting in x you will visit y
- ▶ Note that

$$\rho_{xy} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_x(T_y < n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_x(T_y = n)$$

Recap: transient and recurrent states

- ▶ Define $\rho_{xy} = P_x(T_y < \infty)$.
- ▶ It is the probability that starting in x you will visit y
- ▶ Note that

$$\rho_{xy} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_x(T_y < n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_x(T_y = n)$$

Definition: A state y is called transient if $\rho_{yy} < 1$; it is called recurrent if $\rho_{yy} = 1$.

Recap: transient and recurrent states

- ▶ Define $\rho_{xy} = P_x(T_y < \infty)$.
- ▶ It is the probability that starting in x you will visit y
- ▶ Note that

$$\rho_{xy} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_x(T_y < n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_x(T_y = n)$$

Definition: A state y is called transient if $\rho_{yy} < 1$; it is called recurrent if $\rho_{yy} = 1$.

- ▶ Intuitively, all transient states would be visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often.

Recap

- ▶ For any state y define

$$I_y(X_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_n = y \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Recap

- ▶ For any state y define

$$I_y(X_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_n = y \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ The total number of visits to y is given by

$$N(y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} I_y(X_n)$$

Recap

- ▶ For any state y define

$$I_y(X_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_n = y \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ The total number of visits to y is given by

$$N(y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} I_y(X_n)$$

- ▶ We can get distribution of $N(y)$ as

$$P_x(N(y) = m) = \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}), \quad m \geq 1$$

$$\text{and } P_x(N(y) = 0) = 1 - \rho_{xy}$$

Recap

- ▶ Notation: $E_x[Z] = E[Z|X_0 = x]$

Recap

- ▶ Notation: $E_x[Z] = E[Z|X_0 = x]$
- ▶ Define

$$G(x, y) \triangleq E_x[N(y)]$$

Recap

- ▶ Notation: $E_x[Z] = E[Z|X_0 = x]$
- ▶ Define

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, y) &\triangleq E_x[N(y)] \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E_x[I_y(X_n)] \end{aligned}$$

Recap

- ▶ Notation: $E_x[Z] = E[Z|X_0 = x]$
- ▶ Define

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, y) &\triangleq E_x[N(y)] \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E_x[I_y(X_n)] \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

Recap

- ▶ Notation: $E_x[Z] = E[Z|X_0 = x]$
- ▶ Define

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, y) &\triangleq E_x[N(y)] \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E_x[I_y(X_n)] \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ $G(x, y)$ is the expected number of visits to y for a chain that is started in x .

Theorem:

Theorem:

(i). Let y be transient. Then

$$P_x(N(y) < \infty) = 1, \forall x \text{ and } G(x, y) = \frac{\rho_{xy}}{1 - \rho_{yy}} < \infty, \forall x$$

Theorem:

(i). Let y be transient. Then

$$P_x(N(y) < \infty) = 1, \forall x \text{ and } G(x, y) = \frac{\rho_{xy}}{1 - \rho_{yy}} < \infty, \forall x$$

(ii) Let y be recurrent. Then

$$P_y[N(y) = \infty] = 1, \text{ and } G(y, y) = E_y[N(y)] = \infty$$

Theorem:

(i). Let y be transient. Then

$$P_x(N(y) < \infty) = 1, \forall x \text{ and } G(x, y) = \frac{\rho_{xy}}{1 - \rho_{yy}} < \infty, \forall x$$

(ii) Let y be recurrent. Then

$$P_y[N(y) = \infty] = 1, \text{ and } G(y, y) = E_y[N(y)] = \infty$$

$$P_x[N(y) = \infty] = \rho_{xy}, \text{ and } G(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \rho_{xy} = 0 \\ \infty & \text{if } \rho_{xy} > 0 \end{cases}$$

Proof of (i): y is transient; $\rho_{yy} < 1$

Proof of (i): y is transient; $\rho_{yy} < 1$

$$G(x, y) = E_x[N(y)]$$

Proof of (i): y is transient; $\rho_{yy} < 1$

$$G(x, y) = E_x[N(y)] = \sum_m m P_x[N(y) = m]$$

Proof of (i): y is transient; $\rho_{yy} < 1$

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, y) &= E_x[N(y)] = \sum_m m P_x[N(y) = m] \\ &= \sum_m m \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}) \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (i): y is transient; $\rho_{yy} < 1$

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, y) &= E_x[N(y)] = \sum_m m P_x[N(y) = m] \\ &= \sum_m m \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}) \\ &= \rho_{xy} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} m \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}) \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (i): y is transient; $\rho_{yy} < 1$

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, y) &= E_x[N(y)] = \sum_m m P_x[N(y) = m] \\ &= \sum_m m \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}) \\ &= \rho_{xy} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} m \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}) \\ &= \rho_{xy} \frac{1}{1 - \rho_{yy}} \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (i): y is transient; $\rho_{yy} < 1$

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, y) &= E_x[N(y)] = \sum_m m P_x[N(y) = m] \\ &= \sum_m m \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}) \\ &= \rho_{xy} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} m \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}) \\ &= \rho_{xy} \frac{1}{1 - \rho_{yy}} < \infty, \quad \text{because } \rho_{yy} < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (i): y is transient; $\rho_{yy} < 1$

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, y) &= E_x[N(y)] = \sum_m m P_x[N(y) = m] \\ &= \sum_m m \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}) \\ &= \rho_{xy} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} m \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}) \\ &= \rho_{xy} \frac{1}{1 - \rho_{yy}} < \infty, \quad \text{because } \rho_{yy} < 1 \\ &\Rightarrow P_x[N(y) < \infty] = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (ii):

Proof of (ii):

y recurrent $\Rightarrow \rho_{yy} = 1$. Hence

Proof of (ii):

y recurrent $\Rightarrow \rho_{yy} = 1$. Hence

$$P_y[N(y) \geq m] = \rho_{yy}^m = 1, \quad \forall m$$

Proof of (ii):

y recurrent $\Rightarrow \rho_{yy} = 1$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} P_y[N(y) \geq m] &= \rho_{yy}^m = 1, \quad \forall m \\ \Rightarrow P_y[N(y) = \infty] &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P_y[N(y) \geq m] = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (ii):

y recurrent $\Rightarrow \rho_{yy} = 1$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} P_y[N(y) \geq m] &= \rho_{yy}^m = 1, \quad \forall m \\ \Rightarrow P_y[N(y) = \infty] &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P_y[N(y) \geq m] = 1 \\ \Rightarrow G(y, y) &= E_y[N(y)] = \infty \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (ii):

y recurrent $\Rightarrow \rho_{yy} = 1$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} P_y[N(y) \geq m] &= \rho_{yy}^m = 1, \quad \forall m \\ \Rightarrow P_y[N(y) = \infty] &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P_y[N(y) \geq m] = 1 \\ \Rightarrow G(y, y) &= E_y[N(y)] = \infty \end{aligned}$$

$$P_x[N(y) \geq m] = \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} = \rho_{xy}, \quad \forall m$$

Proof of (ii):

y recurrent $\Rightarrow \rho_{yy} = 1$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} P_y[N(y) \geq m] &= \rho_{yy}^m = 1, \quad \forall m \\ \Rightarrow P_y[N(y) = \infty] &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P_y[N(y) \geq m] = 1 \\ \Rightarrow G(y, y) &= E_y[N(y)] = \infty \end{aligned}$$

$$P_x[N(y) \geq m] = \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} = \rho_{xy}, \quad \forall m$$

Hence $P_x[N(y) = \infty] = \rho_{xy}$

Proof of (ii):

y recurrent $\Rightarrow \rho_{yy} = 1$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} P_y[N(y) \geq m] &= \rho_{yy}^m = 1, \quad \forall m \\ \Rightarrow P_y[N(y) = \infty] &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P_y[N(y) \geq m] = 1 \\ \Rightarrow G(y, y) &= E_y[N(y)] = \infty \end{aligned}$$

$$P_x[N(y) \geq m] = \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} = \rho_{xy}, \quad \forall m$$

Hence $P_x[N(y) = \infty] = \rho_{xy}$

$$\rho_{xy} = 0 \Rightarrow P_x[N(y) \geq m] = 0, \quad \forall m > 0 \Rightarrow G(x, y) = 0$$

Proof of (ii):

y recurrent $\Rightarrow \rho_{yy} = 1$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} P_y[N(y) \geq m] &= \rho_{yy}^m = 1, \quad \forall m \\ \Rightarrow P_y[N(y) = \infty] &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P_y[N(y) \geq m] = 1 \\ \Rightarrow G(y, y) &= E_y[N(y)] = \infty \end{aligned}$$

$$P_x[N(y) \geq m] = \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} = \rho_{xy}, \quad \forall m$$

Hence $P_x[N(y) = \infty] = \rho_{xy}$

$$\rho_{xy} = 0 \Rightarrow P_x[N(y) \geq m] = 0, \quad \forall m > 0 \Rightarrow G(x, y) = 0$$

$$\rho_{xy} > 0 \Rightarrow P_x[N(y) = \infty] > 0 \Rightarrow G(x, y) = \infty$$

- ▶ Transient states are visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often

- ▶ Transient states are visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often
- ▶ If S is finite, it should have at least one recurrent state

- ▶ Transient states are visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often
- ▶ If S is finite, it should have at least one recurrent state
- ▶ If y is transient, then, for all x

$$G(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n(x, y) < \infty$$

- ▶ Transient states are visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often
- ▶ If S is finite, it should have at least one recurrent state
- ▶ If y is transient, then, for all x

$$G(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n(x, y) < \infty \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y) = 0$$

- ▶ Transient states are visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often
- ▶ If S is finite, it should have at least one recurrent state
- ▶ If y is transient, then, for all x

$$G(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n(x, y) < \infty \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y) = 0$$

- ▶ However, $\sum_y P^n(x, y) = 1, \forall n, \forall x$

- ▶ Transient states are visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often
- ▶ If S is finite, it should have at least one recurrent state
- ▶ If y is transient, then, for all x

$$G(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n(x, y) < \infty \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y) = 0$$

- ▶ However, $\sum_y P^n(x, y) = 1, \forall n, \forall x$
- ▶ If all $y \in S$ are transient, then we get a contradiction

$$1 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{y \in S} P^n(x, y)$$

- ▶ Transient states are visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often
- ▶ If S is finite, it should have at least one recurrent state
- ▶ If y is transient, then, for all x

$$G(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n(x, y) < \infty \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y) = 0$$

- ▶ However, $\sum_y P^n(x, y) = 1, \forall n, \forall x$
- ▶ If all $y \in S$ are transient, then we get a contradiction

$$1 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{y \in S} P^n(x, y) = \sum_{y \in S} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y)$$

- ▶ Transient states are visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often
- ▶ If S is finite, it should have at least one recurrent state
- ▶ If y is transient, then, for all x

$$G(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n(x, y) < \infty \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y) = 0$$

- ▶ However, $\sum_y P^n(x, y) = 1, \forall n, \forall x$
- ▶ If all $y \in S$ are transient, then we get a contradiction

$$1 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{y \in S} P^n(x, y) = \sum_{y \in S} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y) = 0$$

- ▶ Transient states are visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often
- ▶ If S is finite, it should have at least one recurrent state
- ▶ If y is transient, then, for all x

$$G(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n(x, y) < \infty \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y) = 0$$

- ▶ However, $\sum_y P^n(x, y) = 1, \forall n, \forall x$
- ▶ If all $y \in S$ are transient, then we get a contradiction

$$1 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{y \in S} P^n(x, y) = \sum_{y \in S} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y) = 0$$

- ▶ A finite chain has to have at least one recurrent state

- ▶ Transient states are visited only finitely many times while recurrent states are visited infinitely often
- ▶ If S is finite, it should have at least one recurrent state
- ▶ If y is transient, then, for all x

$$G(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n(x, y) < \infty \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y) = 0$$

- ▶ However, $\sum_y P^n(x, y) = 1, \forall n, \forall x$
- ▶ If all $y \in S$ are transient, then we get a contradiction

$$1 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{y \in S} P^n(x, y) = \sum_{y \in S} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n(x, y) = 0$$

- ▶ A finite chain has to have at least one recurrent state
- ▶ An infinite chain can have only transient states

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

Proof:

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

Proof:

- ▶ Take $x \neq y$, wlog.

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

Proof:

- ▶ Take $x \neq y$, wlog. Since $\rho_{xy} > 0$, $\exists n$ s.t. $P^n(x, y) > 0$

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

Proof:

- ▶ Take $x \neq y$, wlog. Since $\rho_{xy} > 0$, $\exists n$ s.t. $P^n(x, y) > 0$
- ▶ Take least such n .

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

Proof:

- ▶ Take $x \neq y$, wlog. Since $\rho_{xy} > 0$, $\exists n$ s.t. $P^n(x, y) > 0$
- ▶ Take least such n . Then we have states y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} , none of which is x (or y) such that

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

Proof:

- ▶ Take $x \neq y$, wlog. Since $\rho_{xy} > 0$, $\exists n$ s.t. $P^n(x, y) > 0$
- ▶ Take least such n . Then we have states y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} , none of which is x (or y) such that

$$P(x, y_1) P(y_1, y_2) \cdots P(y_{n-1}, y) > 0$$

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

Proof:

- ▶ Take $x \neq y$, wlog. Since $\rho_{xy} > 0$, $\exists n$ s.t. $P^n(x, y) > 0$
- ▶ Take least such n . Then we have states y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} , none of which is x (or y) such that

$$P(x, y_1) P(y_1, y_2) \cdots P(y_{n-1}, y) > 0$$

- ▶ Now suppose, $\rho_{yx} < 1$.

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

Proof:

- ▶ Take $x \neq y$, wlog. Since $\rho_{xy} > 0$, $\exists n$ s.t. $P^n(x, y) > 0$
- ▶ Take least such n . Then we have states y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} , none of which is x (or y) such that

$$P(x, y_1) P(y_1, y_2) \cdots P(y_{n-1}, y) > 0$$

- ▶ Now suppose, $\rho_{yx} < 1$. Then

$$P(x, y_1) P(y_1, y_2) \cdots P(y_{n-1}, y)(1 - \rho_{yx}) > 0$$

is the probability of starting in x but not returning to x .

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

Proof:

- ▶ Take $x \neq y$, wlog. Since $\rho_{xy} > 0$, $\exists n$ s.t. $P^n(x, y) > 0$
- ▶ Take least such n . Then we have states y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} , none of which is x (or y) such that

$$P(x, y_1) P(y_1, y_2) \cdots P(y_{n-1}, y) > 0$$

- ▶ Now suppose, $\rho_{yx} < 1$. Then

$$P(x, y_1) P(y_1, y_2) \cdots P(y_{n-1}, y)(1 - \rho_{yx}) > 0$$

is the probability of starting in x but not returning to x .

- ▶ But this cannot be because x is recurrent and hence $\rho_{xx} = 1$

- ▶ We say, x leads to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Theorem: If x is recurrent and x leads to y then y is recurrent and $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 1$.

Proof:

- ▶ Take $x \neq y$, wlog. Since $\rho_{xy} > 0$, $\exists n$ s.t. $P^n(x, y) > 0$
- ▶ Take least such n . Then we have states y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} , none of which is x (or y) such that

$$P(x, y_1) P(y_1, y_2) \cdots P(y_{n-1}, y) > 0$$

- ▶ Now suppose, $\rho_{yx} < 1$. Then

$$P(x, y_1) P(y_1, y_2) \cdots P(y_{n-1}, y)(1 - \rho_{yx}) > 0$$

is the probability of starting in x but not returning to x .

- ▶ But this cannot be because x is recurrent and hence $\rho_{xx} = 1$
- ▶ Hence, if x is recurrent and x leads to y then $\rho_{yx} = 1$

- Now, $\exists n_0, n_1$ s.t. $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0, P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$.

- Now, $\exists n_0, n_1$ s.t. $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0, P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$.

$$P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) = P_y[X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y]$$

- Now, $\exists n_0, n_1$ s.t. $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0$, $P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) &= P_y[X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\ &\geq P_y[X_{n_1} = x, X_{n_1+n} = x, X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \end{aligned}$$

- Now, $\exists n_0, n_1$ s.t. $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0, P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) &= P_y[X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\ &\geq P_y[X_{n_1} = x, X_{n_1+n} = x, X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\ &= P^{n_1}(y, x)P^n(x, x)P^{n_0}(x, y), \quad \forall n \end{aligned}$$

- Now, $\exists n_0, n_1$ s.t. $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0$, $P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) &= P_y[X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\ &\geq P_y[X_{n_1} = x, X_{n_1+n} = x, X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\ &= P^{n_1}(y, x)P^n(x, x)P^{n_0}(x, y), \quad \forall n \end{aligned}$$

- We know $G(x, x) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(x, x) = \infty$

- Now, $\exists n_0, n_1$ s.t. $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0, P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) &= P_y[X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\
 &\geq P_y[X_{n_1} = x, X_{n_1+n} = x, X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\
 &= P^{n_1}(y, x)P^n(x, x)P^{n_0}(x, y), \quad \forall n
 \end{aligned}$$

- We know $G(x, x) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(x, x) = \infty$

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(y, y) \geq \sum_{m=n_0+n_1+1}^{\infty} P^m(y, y)$$

- Now, $\exists n_0, n_1$ s.t. $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0, P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) &= P_y[X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\
 &\geq P_y[X_{n_1} = x, X_{n_1+n} = x, X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\
 &= P^{n_1}(y, x)P^n(x, x)P^{n_0}(x, y), \quad \forall n
 \end{aligned}$$

- We know $G(x, x) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(x, x) = \infty$

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(y, y) \geq \sum_{m=n_0+n_1+1}^{\infty} P^m(y, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y)$$

- Now, $\exists n_0, n_1$ s.t. $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0, P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) &= P_y[X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\
 &\geq P_y[X_{n_1} = x, X_{n_1+n} = x, X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\
 &= P^{n_1}(y, x)P^n(x, x)P^{n_0}(x, y), \quad \forall n
 \end{aligned}$$

- We know $G(x, x) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(x, x) = \infty$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(y, y) &\geq \sum_{m=n_0+n_1+1}^{\infty} P^m(y, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) \\
 &\geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^{n_1}(y, x)P^n(x, x)P^{n_0}(x, y)
 \end{aligned}$$

- Now, $\exists n_0, n_1$ s.t. $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0, P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) &= P_y[X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\
 &\geq P_y[X_{n_1} = x, X_{n_1+n} = x, X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\
 &= P^{n_1}(y, x)P^n(x, x)P^{n_0}(x, y), \quad \forall n
 \end{aligned}$$

- We know $G(x, x) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(x, x) = \infty$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(y, y) &\geq \sum_{m=n_0+n_1+1}^{\infty} P^m(y, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) \\
 &\geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^{n_1}(y, x)P^n(x, x)P^{n_0}(x, y) \\
 &= \infty, \quad \text{because } x \text{ is recurrent}
 \end{aligned}$$

- Now, $\exists n_0, n_1$ s.t. $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0, P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) &= P_y[X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\
 &\geq P_y[X_{n_1} = x, X_{n_1+n} = x, X_{n_1+n+n_0} = y] \\
 &= P^{n_1}(y, x)P^n(x, x)P^{n_0}(x, y), \quad \forall n
 \end{aligned}$$

- We know $G(x, x) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(x, x) = \infty$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P^m(y, y) &\geq \sum_{m=n_0+n_1+1}^{\infty} P^m(y, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^{n_1+n+n_0}(y, y) \\
 &\geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^{n_1}(y, x)P^n(x, x)P^{n_0}(x, y) \\
 &= \infty, \quad \text{because } x \text{ is recurrent} \\
 &\Rightarrow y \text{ is recurrent}
 \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ What we showed so far is: if x leads to y and x is recurrent, then $\rho_{yx} = 1$ and y is recurrent.

- ▶ What we showed so far is: if x leads to y and x is recurrent, then $\rho_{yx} = 1$ and y is recurrent.
- ▶ Now, y is recurrent and y leads to x and hence $\rho_{xy} = 1$.

- ▶ What we showed so far is: if x leads to y and x is recurrent, then $\rho_{yx} = 1$ and y is recurrent.
- ▶ Now, y is recurrent and y leads to x and hence $\rho_{xy} = 1$.
- ▶ This completes proof of the theorem

equivalence relation

- ▶ let R be a relation on set A . Note $R \subset A \times A$

equivalence relation

- ▶ let R be a relation on set A . Note $R \subset A \times A$
- ▶ R is called an equivalence relation if it is

equivalence relation

- ▶ let R be a relation on set A . Note $R \subset A \times A$
- ▶ R is called an equivalence relation if it is
 1. reflexive, i.e., $(x, x) \in R, \forall x \in A$

equivalence relation

- ▶ let R be a relation on set A . Note $R \subset A \times A$
- ▶ R is called an equivalence relation if it is
 1. reflexive, i.e., $(x, x) \in R, \forall x \in A$
 2. symmetric, i.e., $(x, y) \in R \Rightarrow (y, x) \in R$

equivalence relation

- ▶ let R be a relation on set A . Note $R \subset A \times A$
- ▶ R is called an equivalence relation if it is
 1. reflexive, i.e., $(x, x) \in R, \forall x \in A$
 2. symmetric, i.e., $(x, y) \in R \Rightarrow (y, x) \in R$
 3. transitive, i.e., $(x, y), (y, z) \in R \Rightarrow (x, z) \in R$

example

- ▶ Let $A = \{\frac{m}{n} \mid m, n \text{ are integers}\}$

example

- ▶ Let $A = \{\frac{m}{n} \mid m, n \text{ are integers}\}$
- ▶ Define relation R by

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}, \frac{p}{q}\right) \in R \text{ if } mq = np$$

example

- ▶ Let $A = \{\frac{m}{n} \mid m, n \text{ are integers}\}$
- ▶ Define relation R by

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}, \frac{p}{q}\right) \in R \text{ if } mq = np$$

- ▶ This is the usual equality of fractions

example

- ▶ Let $A = \{\frac{m}{n} \mid m, n \text{ are integers}\}$
- ▶ Define relation R by

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}, \frac{p}{q}\right) \in R \text{ if } mq = np$$

- ▶ This is the usual equality of fractions
- ▶ Easy to check it is an equivalence relation.

Equivalence classes

- ▶ Let R be an equivalence relation on A .

Equivalence classes

- ▶ Let R be an equivalence relation on A .
- ▶ Then, A can be partitioned as

$$A = C_1 + C_2 + \cdots$$

Equivalence classes

- ▶ Let R be an equivalence relation on A .
- ▶ Then, A can be partitioned as

$$A = C_1 + C_2 + \cdots$$

Where C_i satisfy

Equivalence classes

- ▶ Let R be an equivalence relation on A .
- ▶ Then, A can be partitioned as

$$A = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$$

Where C_i satisfy

- ▶ $x, y \in C_i \Rightarrow (x, y) \in R, \forall i$

Equivalence classes

- ▶ Let R be an equivalence relation on A .
- ▶ Then, A can be partitioned as

$$A = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$$

Where C_i satisfy

- ▶ $x, y \in C_i \Rightarrow (x, y) \in R, \forall i$
- ▶ $x \in C_i, y \in C_j, i \neq j \Rightarrow (x, y) \notin R$

Equivalence classes

- ▶ Let R be an equivalence relation on A .
- ▶ Then, A can be partitioned as

$$A = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$$

Where C_i satisfy

- ▶ $x, y \in C_i \Rightarrow (x, y) \in R, \forall i$
 - ▶ $x \in C_i, y \in C_j, i \neq j \Rightarrow (x, y) \notin R$
- ▶ In our example, each equivalence class corresponds to a rational number.

Equivalence classes

- ▶ Let R be an equivalence relation on A .
- ▶ Then, A can be partitioned as

$$A = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$$

Where C_i satisfy

- ▶ $x, y \in C_i \Rightarrow (x, y) \in R, \forall i$
- ▶ $x \in C_i, y \in C_j, i \neq j \Rightarrow (x, y) \notin R$
- ▶ In our example, each equivalence class corresponds to a rational number.
- ▶ Here, C_i contains all fractions that are equal to that rational number

- ▶ The state space of any Markov chain can be partitioned into the transient and recurrent states: $S = S_T + S_R$:

$$S_T = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} < 1\} \quad S_R = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} = 1\}$$

- ▶ The state space of any Markov chain can be partitioned into the transient and recurrent states: $S = S_T + S_R$:

$$S_T = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} < 1\} \quad S_R = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} = 1\}$$

- ▶ On S_R , consider the relation: ' x leads to y ' (i.e., x is related to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$)

- ▶ The state space of any Markov chain can be partitioned into the transient and recurrent states: $S = S_T + S_R$:

$$S_T = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} < 1\} \quad S_R = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} = 1\}$$

- ▶ On S_R , consider the relation: ' x leads to y ' (i.e., x is related to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$)
- ▶ This is an equivalence relation

- ▶ The state space of any Markov chain can be partitioned into the transient and recurrent states: $S = S_T + S_R$:

$$S_T = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} < 1\} \quad S_R = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} = 1\}$$

- ▶ On S_R , consider the relation: ' x leads to y ' (i.e., x is related to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$)
- ▶ This is an equivalence relation
 - ▶ $\rho_{xx} > 0, \forall x \in S_R$

- ▶ The state space of any Markov chain can be partitioned into the transient and recurrent states: $S = S_T + S_R$:

$$S_T = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} < 1\} \quad S_R = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} = 1\}$$

- ▶ On S_R , consider the relation: ' x leads to y ' (i.e., x is related to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$)
- ▶ This is an equivalence relation
 - ▶ $\rho_{xx} > 0, \forall x \in S_R$
 - ▶ $\rho_{xy} > 0 \Rightarrow \rho_{yx} > 0, \forall x, y \in S_R$

- ▶ The state space of any Markov chain can be partitioned into the transient and recurrent states: $S = S_T + S_R$:

$$S_T = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} < 1\} \quad S_R = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} = 1\}$$

- ▶ On S_R , consider the relation: ' x leads to y ' (i.e., x is related to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$)
- ▶ This is an equivalence relation
 - ▶ $\rho_{xx} > 0, \forall x \in S_R$
 - ▶ $\rho_{xy} > 0 \Rightarrow \rho_{yx} > 0, \forall x, y \in S_R$
 - ▶ $\rho_{xy} > 0, \rho_{yz} > 0 \Rightarrow \rho_{xz} > 0$

- ▶ The state space of any Markov chain can be partitioned into the transient and recurrent states: $S = S_T + S_R$:

$$S_T = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} < 1\} \quad S_R = \{y \in S : \rho_{yy} = 1\}$$

- ▶ On S_R , consider the relation: ' x leads to y ' (i.e., x is related to y if $\rho_{xy} > 0$)
- ▶ This is an equivalence relation
 - ▶ $\rho_{xx} > 0, \forall x \in S_R$
 - ▶ $\rho_{xy} > 0 \Rightarrow \rho_{yx} > 0, \forall x, y \in S_R$
 - ▶ $\rho_{xy} > 0, \rho_{yz} > 0 \Rightarrow \rho_{xz} > 0$
- ▶ Hence we get a partition: $S_R = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$ where C_i are equivalence classes.

- ▶ On S_R , “ x leads to y ” is an equivalence relation.

- ▶ On S_R , “ x leads to y ” is an equivalence relation.
- ▶ This gives rise to the partition $S_R = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$

- ▶ On S_R , “ x leads to y ” is an equivalence relation.
- ▶ This gives rise to the partition $S_R = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$
- ▶ Since C_i are equivalence classes, they satisfy:

- ▶ On S_R , “ x leads to y ” is an equivalence relation.
- ▶ This gives rise to the partition $S_R = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$
- ▶ Since C_i are equivalence classes, they satisfy:
 - ▶ $x, y \in C_i \Rightarrow x$ leads to y

- ▶ On S_R , “ x leads to y ” is an equivalence relation.
- ▶ This gives rise to the partition $S_R = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$
- ▶ Since C_i are equivalence classes, they satisfy:
 - ▶ $x, y \in C_i \Rightarrow x \text{ leads to } y$
 - ▶ $x \in C_i, y \in C_j, i \neq j \Rightarrow \rho_{xy} = 0$

- ▶ On S_R , “ x leads to y ” is an equivalence relation.
- ▶ This gives rise to the partition $S_R = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$
- ▶ Since C_i are equivalence classes, they satisfy:
 - ▶ $x, y \in C_i \Rightarrow x$ leads to y
 - ▶ $x \in C_i, y \in C_j, i \neq j \Rightarrow \rho_{xy} = 0$
- ▶ All states in any C_i lead to each other or communicate with each other

- ▶ On S_R , “ x leads to y ” is an equivalence relation.
- ▶ This gives rise to the partition $S_R = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$
- ▶ Since C_i are equivalence classes, they satisfy:
 - ▶ $x, y \in C_i \Rightarrow x$ leads to y
 - ▶ $x \in C_i, y \in C_j, i \neq j \Rightarrow \rho_{xy} = 0$
- ▶ All states in any C_i lead to each other or communicate with each other
- ▶ If $i \neq j$ and $x \in C_i$ and $y \in C_j$, then, $\rho_{xy} = \rho_{yx} = 0$. x and y do not communicate with each other.

- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$ is said to be irreducible if x leads to y for all $x, y \in C$

- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$ is said to be irreducible if x leads to y for all $x, y \in C$
- ▶ An irreducible set is also called a communicating class

- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$ is said to be irreducible if x leads to y for all $x, y \in C$
- ▶ An irreducible set is also called a communicating class
- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$, is said to be closed if $x \in C, y \notin C$ implies $\rho_{xy} = 0$.

- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$ is said to be irreducible if x leads to y for all $x, y \in C$
- ▶ An irreducible set is also called a communicating class
- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$, is said to be closed if $x \in C, y \notin C$ implies $\rho_{xy} = 0$.
- ▶ Once the chain visits a state in a closed set, it cannot leave that set.

- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$ is said to be irreducible if x leads to y for all $x, y \in C$
- ▶ An irreducible set is also called a communicating class
- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$, is said to be closed if $x \in C, y \notin C$ implies $\rho_{xy} = 0$.
- ▶ Once the chain visits a state in a closed set, it cannot leave that set.
- ▶ We get a partition of recurrent states

$$S_R = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$$

where each C_i is a closed and irreducible set of states.

- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$ is said to be irreducible if x leads to y for all $x, y \in C$
- ▶ An irreducible set is also called a communicating class
- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$, is said to be closed if $x \in C, y \notin C$ implies $\rho_{xy} = 0$.
- ▶ Once the chain visits a state in a closed set, it cannot leave that set.
- ▶ We get a partition of recurrent states

$$S_R = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$$

where each C_i is a closed and irreducible set of states.

- ▶ If S is irreducible then the chain is said to be irreducible.

- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$ is said to be irreducible if x leads to y for all $x, y \in C$
- ▶ An irreducible set is also called a communicating class
- ▶ A set of states, $C \subset S$, is said to be closed if $x \in C, y \notin C$ implies $\rho_{xy} = 0$.
- ▶ Once the chain visits a state in a closed set, it cannot leave that set.
- ▶ We get a partition of recurrent states

$$S_R = C_1 + C_2 + \dots$$

where each C_i is a closed and irreducible set of states.

- ▶ If S is irreducible then the chain is said to be irreducible. (Note that S is trivially closed)

- ▶ In an irreducible set of states, if one state is recurrent, then, all states are recurrent.

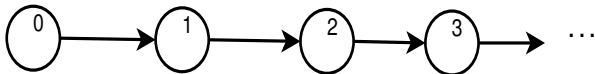
- ▶ In an irreducible set of states, if one state is recurrent, then, all states are recurrent.
- ▶ We saw that a finite chain has to have at least one recurrent state.

- ▶ In an irreducible set of states, if one state is recurrent, then, all states are recurrent.
- ▶ We saw that a finite chain has to have at least one recurrent state.
- ▶ Thus, a finite irreducible chain is recurrent.

- ▶ In an irreducible set of states, if one state is recurrent, then, all states are recurrent.
- ▶ We saw that a finite chain has to have at least one recurrent state.
- ▶ Thus, a finite irreducible chain is recurrent.
- ▶ For example, in the umbrellas problem, the chain is irreducible and hence all states are recurrent.

- ▶ In an irreducible set of states, if one state is recurrent, then, all states are recurrent.
- ▶ We saw that a finite chain has to have at least one recurrent state.
- ▶ Thus, a finite irreducible chain is recurrent.
- ▶ For example, in the umbrellas problem, the chain is irreducible and hence all states are recurrent.
- ▶ An infinite irreducible chain may be wholly transient

- ▶ In an irreducible set of states, if one state is recurrent, then, all states are recurrent.
- ▶ We saw that a finite chain has to have at least one recurrent state.
- ▶ Thus, a finite irreducible chain is recurrent.
- ▶ For example, in the umbrellas problem, the chain is irreducible and hence all states are recurrent.
- ▶ An infinite irreducible chain may be wholly transient
- ▶ Here is a trivial example of non-irreducible transient chain:

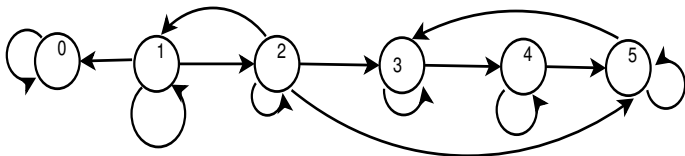


- ▶ The state space of any Markov chain can be partitioned into transient and recurrent states.

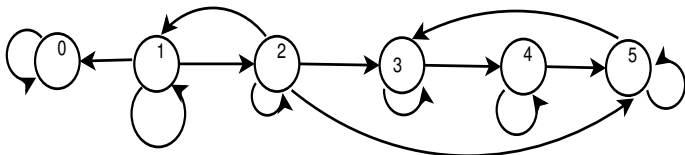
- ▶ The state space of any Markov chain can be partitioned into transient and recurrent states.
- ▶ We need not calculate ρ_{xx} to do this partition.

- ▶ The state space of any Markov chain can be partitioned into transient and recurrent states.
- ▶ We need not calculate ρ_{xx} to do this partition.
- ▶ By looking at the structure of transition probability matrix we can get this partition

Example

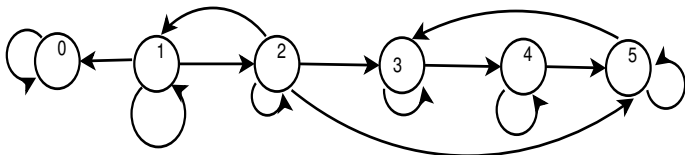


Example



	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	+	-	-	-	-	-
1	+	+	+	-	-	-
2	-	+	+	+	-	+
3	-	-	-	+	+	-
4	-	-	-	-	+	+
5	-	-	-	+	-	+

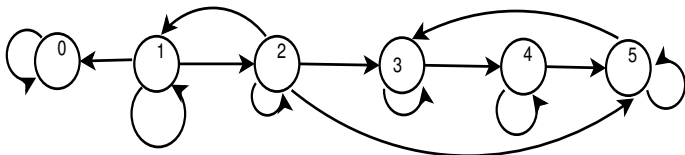
Example



	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	+	-	-	-	-	-
1	+	+	+	-	-	-
2	-	+	+	+	-	+
3	-	-	-	+	+	-
4	-	-	-	-	+	+
5	-	-	-	+	-	+

- State 0 is called an absorbing state. $\{0\}$ is a closed irreducible set.

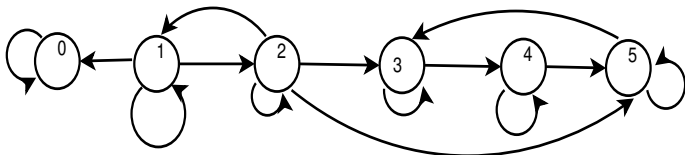
Example



	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	+	-	-	-	-	-
1	+	+	+	-	-	-
2	-	+	+	+	-	+
3	-	-	-	+	+	-
4	-	-	-	-	+	+
5	-	-	-	+	-	+

- ▶ State 0 is called an absorbing state. $\{0\}$ is a closed irreducible set.
- ▶ 1, 2 are transient states.

Example



	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	+	-	-	-	-	-
1	+	+	+	-	-	-
2	-	+	+	+	-	+
3	-	-	-	+	+	-
4	-	-	-	-	+	+
5	-	-	-	+	-	+

- ▶ State 0 is called an absorbing state. $\{0\}$ is a closed irreducible set.
- ▶ 1, 2 are transient states.
- ▶ We get: $S_T = \{1, 2\}$ and $S_R = \{0\} + \{3, 4, 5\}$

- ▶ If you start the chain in a recurrent state it will stay in the corresponding closed irreducible set

- ▶ If you start the chain in a recurrent state it will stay in the corresponding closed irreducible set
- ▶ If you start in one of the transient states, it would eventually get 'absorbed' in one of the closed irreducible sets of recurrent states.

- ▶ If you start the chain in a recurrent state it will stay in the corresponding closed irreducible set
- ▶ If you start in one of the transient states, it would eventually get 'absorbed' in one of the closed irreducible sets of recurrent states.
- ▶ We want to know the probabilities of ending up in different sets.

- ▶ If you start the chain in a recurrent state it will stay in the corresponding closed irreducible set
- ▶ If you start in one of the transient states, it would eventually get 'absorbed' in one of the closed irreducible sets of recurrent states.
- ▶ We want to know the probabilities of ending up in different sets.
- ▶ We want to know how long you stay in transient states

- ▶ If you start the chain in a recurrent state it will stay in the corresponding closed irreducible set
- ▶ If you start in one of the transient states, it would eventually get 'absorbed' in one of the closed irreducible sets of recurrent states.
- ▶ We want to know the probabilities of ending up in different sets.
- ▶ We want to know how long you stay in transient states
- ▶ We want to know what is the 'steady state'?

- ▶ let C be a closed irreducible set of recurrent states

- ▶ let C be a closed irreducible set of recurrent states
- ▶ T_C – hitting time for C .

- ▶ let C be a closed irreducible set of recurrent states
- ▶ T_C – hitting time for C .
$$T_C = \min\{n > 0 : X_n \in C\}$$

- ▶ let C be a closed irreducible set of recurrent states
- ▶ T_C – hitting time for C .

$$T_C = \min\{n > 0 : X_n \in C\}$$

It is the first time instant when the chain is in C

- ▶ let C be a closed irreducible set of recurrent states
- ▶ T_C – hitting time for C .
$$T_C = \min\{n > 0 : X_n \in C\}$$

It is the first time instant when the chain is in C
- ▶ Define $\rho_C(x) = P_x[T_C < \infty]$

- ▶ let C be a closed irreducible set of recurrent states
- ▶ T_C – hitting time for C .

$$T_C = \min\{n > 0 : X_n \in C\}$$

It is the first time instant when the chain is in C
- ▶ Define $\rho_C(x) = P_x[T_C < \infty]$

$$\text{If } x \text{ is recurrent, } \rho_C(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in C \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin C \end{cases}$$

- ▶ let C be a closed irreducible set of recurrent states
- ▶ T_C – hitting time for C .
 $T_C = \min\{n > 0 : X_n \in C\}$
It is the first time instant when the chain is in C
- ▶ Define $\rho_C(x) = P_x[T_C < \infty]$

$$\text{If } x \text{ is recurrent, } \rho_C(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in C \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin C \end{cases}$$

Because each x is in a closed irreducible set

- ▶ let C be a closed irreducible set of recurrent states
- ▶ T_C – hitting time for C .

$$T_C = \min\{n > 0 : X_n \in C\}$$

It is the first time instant when the chain is in C
- ▶ Define $\rho_C(x) = P_x[T_C < \infty]$

$$\text{If } x \text{ is recurrent, } \rho_C(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in C \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin C \end{cases}$$

Because each x is in a closed irreducible set

- ▶ Suppose x is transient. Then

$$\rho_C(x) = \sum_{y \in C} P(x, y) + \sum_{y \in S_T} P(x, y) \rho_C(y)$$

- ▶ let C be a closed irreducible set of recurrent states
- ▶ T_C – hitting time for C .

$$T_C = \min\{n > 0 : X_n \in C\}$$

It is the first time instant when the chain is in C
- ▶ Define $\rho_C(x) = P_x[T_C < \infty]$

$$\text{If } x \text{ is recurrent, } \rho_C(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in C \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin C \end{cases}$$

Because each x is in a closed irreducible set

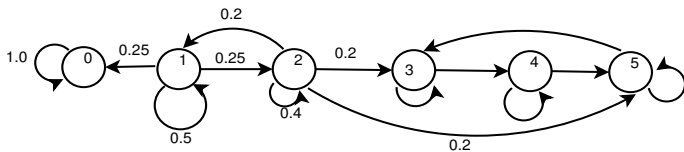
- ▶ Suppose x is transient. Then

$$\rho_C(x) = \sum_{y \in C} P(x, y) + \sum_{y \in S_T} P(x, y) \rho_C(y)$$

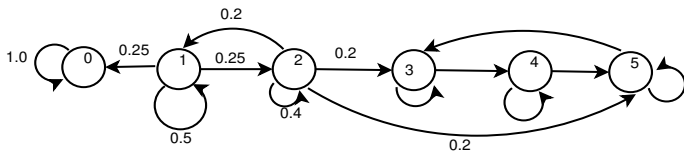
- ▶ By solving this set of linear equations we can get $\rho_c(x)$, $x \in S_T$

Example: Absorption probabilities

Example: Absorption probabilities

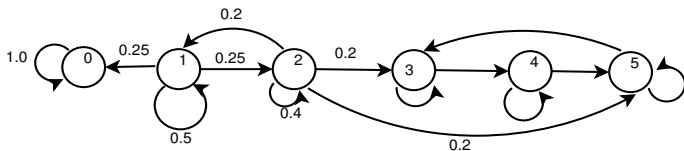


Example: Absorption probabilities



- ▶ $S_T = \{1, 2\}$ and $C_1 = \{0\}$, $C_2 = \{3, 4, 5\}$

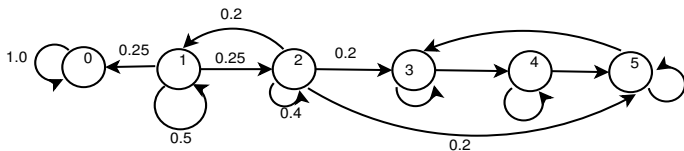
Example: Absorption probabilities



- ▶ $S_T = \{1, 2\}$ and $C_1 = \{0\}$, $C_2 = \{3, 4, 5\}$

$$\rho_C(x) = \sum_{y \in C} P(x, y) + \sum_{y \in S_T} P(x, y) \rho_C(y)$$

Example: Absorption probabilities

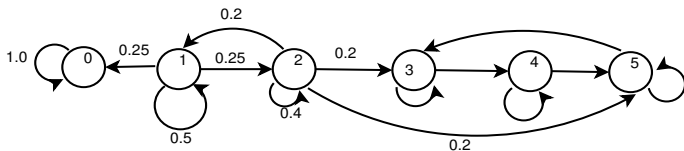


- ▶ $S_T = \{1, 2\}$ and $C_1 = \{0\}$, $C_2 = \{3, 4, 5\}$

$$\rho_C(x) = \sum_{y \in C} P(x, y) + \sum_{y \in S_T} P(x, y) \rho_C(y)$$

$$\rho_{C_1}(1) = P(1, 0) + P(1, 1)\rho_{C_1}(1) + P(1, 2)\rho_{C_1}(2)$$

Example: Absorption probabilities

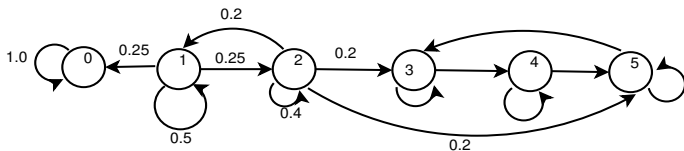


- ▶ $S_T = \{1, 2\}$ and $C_1 = \{0\}$, $C_2 = \{3, 4, 5\}$

$$\rho_C(x) = \sum_{y \in C} P(x, y) + \sum_{y \in S_T} P(x, y) \rho_C(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{C_1}(1) &= P(1, 0) + P(1, 1)\rho_{C_1}(1) + P(1, 2)\rho_{C_1}(2) \\ &= 0.25 + 0.5\rho_{C_1}(1) + 0.25\rho_{C_1}(2)\end{aligned}$$

Example: Absorption probabilities



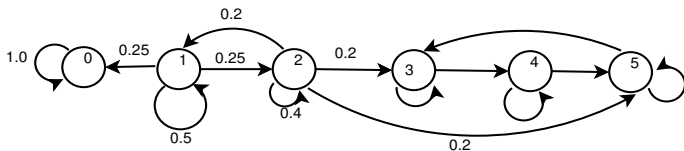
- ▶ $S_T = \{1, 2\}$ and $C_1 = \{0\}$, $C_2 = \{3, 4, 5\}$

$$\rho_C(x) = \sum_{y \in C} P(x, y) + \sum_{y \in S_T} P(x, y) \rho_C(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{C_1}(1) &= P(1, 0) + P(1, 1)\rho_{C_1}(1) + P(1, 2)\rho_{C_1}(2) \\ &= 0.25 + 0.5\rho_{C_1}(1) + 0.25\rho_{C_1}(2)\end{aligned}$$

$$\rho_{C_1}(2) = 0 + 0.2\rho_{C_1}(1) + 0.4\rho_{C_1}(2)$$

Example: Absorption probabilities



- ▶ $S_T = \{1, 2\}$ and $C_1 = \{0\}$, $C_2 = \{3, 4, 5\}$

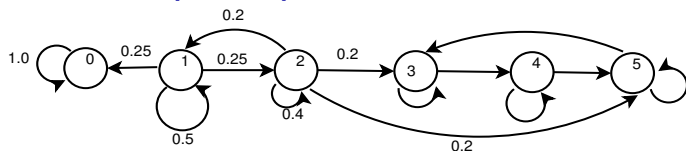
$$\rho_C(x) = \sum_{y \in C} P(x, y) + \sum_{y \in S_T} P(x, y) \rho_C(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{C_1}(1) &= P(1, 0) + P(1, 1)\rho_{C_1}(1) + P(1, 2)\rho_{C_1}(2) \\ &= 0.25 + 0.5\rho_{C_1}(1) + 0.25\rho_{C_1}(2)\end{aligned}$$

$$\rho_{C_1}(2) = 0 + 0.2\rho_{C_1}(1) + 0.4\rho_{C_1}(2)$$

- ▶ Solving these, we get $\rho_{C_1}(1) = 0.6$, $\rho_{C_1}(2) = 0.2$

Example: Absorption probabilities



- ▶ $S_T = \{1, 2\}$ and $C_1 = \{0\}$, $C_2 = \{3, 4, 5\}$

$$\rho_C(x) = \sum_{y \in C} P(x, y) + \sum_{y \in S_T} P(x, y) \rho_C(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{C_1}(1) &= P(1, 0) + P(1, 1)\rho_{C_1}(1) + P(1, 2)\rho_{C_1}(2) \\ &= 0.25 + 0.5\rho_{C_1}(1) + 0.25\rho_{C_1}(2) \\ \rho_{C_1}(2) &= 0 + 0.2\rho_{C_1}(1) + 0.4\rho_{C_1}(2)\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Solving these, we get $\rho_{C_1}(1) = 0.6$, $\rho_{C_1}(2) = 0.2$
- ▶ What would be $\rho_{C_2}(1)$?

Expected time in transient states

- ▶ We consider a simple method to get the time spent in transient states for finite chains

Expected time in transient states

- ▶ We consider a simple method to get the time spent in transient states for finite chains
- ▶ Let states $1, 2, \dots, t$ be the transient states

Expected time in transient states

- ▶ We consider a simple method to get the time spent in transient states for finite chains
- ▶ Let states $1, 2, \dots, t$ be the transient states
- ▶ b_{ij} – the expected number of time instants spent in state j when started in i .

Expected time in transient states

- ▶ We consider a simple method to get the time spent in transient states for finite chains
- ▶ Let states $1, 2, \dots, t$ be the transient states
- ▶ b_{ij} – the expected number of time instants spent in state j when started in i .
- ▶ Then we get

$$b_{ij} = \delta_{ij} + \sum_{k=1}^t P(i, k) b_{kj}$$

where $\delta_{ij} = 1$ if $i = j$ and is zero otherwise

Expected time in transient states

- ▶ We consider a simple method to get the time spent in transient states for finite chains
- ▶ Let states $1, 2, \dots, t$ be the transient states
- ▶ b_{ij} – the expected number of time instants spent in state j when started in i .
- ▶ Then we get

$$b_{ij} = \delta_{ij} + \sum_{k=1}^t P(i, k)b_{kj}$$

where $\delta_{ij} = 1$ if $i = j$ and is zero otherwise

- ▶ let B be the $t \times t$ matrix of b_{ij} , I be the $t \times t$ identity matrix and P_T be the submatrix (corresponding to the transient states) of P .

Expected time in transient states

- ▶ We consider a simple method to get the time spent in transient states for finite chains
- ▶ Let states $1, 2, \dots, t$ be the transient states
- ▶ b_{ij} – the expected number of time instants spent in state j when started in i .
- ▶ Then we get

$$b_{ij} = \delta_{ij} + \sum_{k=1}^t P(i, k)b_{kj}$$

where $\delta_{ij} = 1$ if $i = j$ and is zero otherwise

- ▶ let B be the $t \times t$ matrix of b_{ij} , I be the $t \times t$ identity matrix and P_T be the submatrix (corresponding to the transient states) of P .
- ▶ Then the above in Matrix notation is

$$B = I + P_T B$$

Expected time in transient states

- ▶ We consider a simple method to get the time spent in transient states for finite chains
- ▶ Let states $1, 2, \dots, t$ be the transient states
- ▶ b_{ij} – the expected number of time instants spent in state j when started in i .
- ▶ Then we get

$$b_{ij} = \delta_{ij} + \sum_{k=1}^t P(i, k)b_{kj}$$

where $\delta_{ij} = 1$ if $i = j$ and is zero otherwise

- ▶ let B be the $t \times t$ matrix of b_{ij} , I be the $t \times t$ identity matrix and P_T be the submatrix (corresponding to the transient states) of P .
- ▶ Then the above in Matrix notation is

$$B = I + P_TB \quad \text{or} \quad B = (I - P_T)^{-1}$$

stationary distributions

- ▶ $\pi : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a probability distribution (mass function) over S if $\pi(x) \geq 0, \forall x$ and $\sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) = 1$

stationary distributions

- ▶ $\pi : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a probability distribution (mass function) over S if $\pi(x) \geq 0, \forall x$ and $\sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) = 1$
- ▶ A probability distribution over S , π , is said to be a stationary distribution for the Markov chain with transition probabilities P if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

stationary distributions

- ▶ $\pi : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a probability distribution (mass function) over S if $\pi(x) \geq 0, \forall x$ and $\sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) = 1$
- ▶ A probability distribution over S , π , is said to be a stationary distribution for the Markov chain with transition probabilities P if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Suppose S is finite.

stationary distributions

- ▶ $\pi : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a probability distribution (mass function) over S if $\pi(x) \geq 0$, $\forall x$ and $\sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) = 1$
- ▶ A probability distribution over S , π , is said to be a stationary distribution for the Markov chain with transition probabilities P if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Suppose S is finite. Then π can be represented by a vector.

stationary distributions

- ▶ $\pi : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a probability distribution (mass function) over S if $\pi(x) \geq 0$, $\forall x$ and $\sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) = 1$
- ▶ A probability distribution over S , π , is said to be a stationary distribution for the Markov chain with transition probabilities P if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Suppose S is finite. Then π can be represented by a vector.
- ▶ The π is stationary if

$$\pi^T = \pi^T P$$

stationary distributions

- ▶ $\pi : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a probability distribution (mass function) over S if $\pi(x) \geq 0$, $\forall x$ and $\sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) = 1$
- ▶ A probability distribution over S , π , is said to be a stationary distribution for the Markov chain with transition probabilities P if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Suppose S is finite. Then π can be represented by a vector.
- ▶ The π is stationary if

$$\pi^T = \pi^T P \quad \text{or} \quad P^T \pi = \pi$$

- ▶ π is a stationary distribution if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ π is a stationary distribution if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Recall $\pi_n(x) \triangleq \Pr[X_n = x]$

- ▶ π is a stationary distribution if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Recall $\pi_n(x) \triangleq \Pr[X_n = x]$ satisfies

$$\pi_{n+1}(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] \Pr[X_n = x]$$

- ▶ π is a stationary distribution if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Recall $\pi_n(x) \triangleq \Pr[X_n = x]$ satisfies

$$\pi_{n+1}(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] \Pr[X_n = x] = \sum_{x \in S} \pi_n(x)P(x, y)$$

- ▶ π is a stationary distribution if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Recall $\pi_n(x) \triangleq \Pr[X_n = x]$ satisfies

$$\pi_{n+1}(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] \Pr[X_n = x] = \sum_{x \in S} \pi_n(x)P(x, y)$$

- ▶ Hence, if $\pi_0 = \pi$ then $\pi_1 = \pi$

- ▶ π is a stationary distribution if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Recall $\pi_n(x) \triangleq \Pr[X_n = x]$ satisfies

$$\pi_{n+1}(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] \Pr[X_n = x] = \sum_{x \in S} \pi_n(x)P(x, y)$$

- ▶ Hence, if $\pi_0 = \pi$ then $\pi_1 = \pi$
and hence $\pi_n = \pi, \forall n$

- ▶ π is a stationary distribution if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Recall $\pi_n(x) \triangleq \Pr[X_n = x]$ satisfies

$$\pi_{n+1}(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] \Pr[X_n = x] = \sum_{x \in S} \pi_n(x)P(x, y)$$

- ▶ Hence, if $\pi_0 = \pi$ then $\pi_1 = \pi$
and hence $\pi_n = \pi, \forall n$
- ▶ Hence the name, stationary distribution.

- ▶ π is a stationary distribution if

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Recall $\pi_n(x) \triangleq \Pr[X_n = x]$ satisfies

$$\pi_{n+1}(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] \Pr[X_n = x] = \sum_{x \in S} \pi_n(x)P(x, y)$$

- ▶ Hence, if $\pi_0 = \pi$ then $\pi_1 = \pi$
and hence $\pi_n = \pi, \forall n$
- ▶ Hence the name, stationary distribution.
- ▶ It is also called the invariant distribution or the invariant measure

- ▶ If the chain is started in stationary distribution then the distribution of X_n is not a function of time, as we saw.

- ▶ If the chain is started in stationary distribution then the distribution of X_n is not a function of time, as we saw.
- ▶ Suppose for a chain, distribution of X_n is not dependent on n . Then the chain must be in a stationary distribution.

- ▶ If the chain is started in stationary distribution then the distribution of X_n is not a function of time, as we saw.
- ▶ Suppose for a chain, distribution of X_n is not dependent on n . Then the chain must be in a stationary distribution.
- ▶ Suppose $\pi = \pi_0 = \pi_1 = \cdots = \pi_n = \cdots$. Then

- ▶ If the chain is started in stationary distribution then the distribution of X_n is not a function of time, as we saw.
- ▶ Suppose for a chain, distribution of X_n is not dependent on n . Then the chain must be in a stationary distribution.
- ▶ Suppose $\pi = \pi_0 = \pi_1 = \cdots = \pi_n = \cdots$. Then

$$\pi(y) = \pi_1(y)$$

- ▶ If the chain is started in stationary distribution then the distribution of X_n is not a function of time, as we saw.
- ▶ Suppose for a chain, distribution of X_n is not dependent on n . Then the chain must be in a stationary distribution.
- ▶ Suppose $\pi = \pi_0 = \pi_1 = \cdots = \pi_n = \cdots$. Then

$$\pi(y) = \pi_1(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi_0(x) P(x, y)$$

- ▶ If the chain is started in stationary distribution then the distribution of X_n is not a function of time, as we saw.
- ▶ Suppose for a chain, distribution of X_n is not dependent on n . Then the chain must be in a stationary distribution.
- ▶ Suppose $\pi = \pi_0 = \pi_1 = \cdots = \pi_n = \cdots$. Then

$$\pi(y) = \pi_1(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi_0(x)P(x, y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y)$$

- ▶ If the chain is started in stationary distribution then the distribution of X_n is not a function of time, as we saw.
- ▶ Suppose for a chain, distribution of X_n is not dependent on n . Then the chain must be in a stationary distribution.
- ▶ Suppose $\pi = \pi_0 = \pi_1 = \cdots = \pi_n = \cdots$. Then

$$\pi(y) = \pi_1(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi_0(x)P(x, y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y)$$

which shows π is a stationary distribution

- ▶ Suppose S is finite.

- ▶ Suppose S is finite.
- ▶ Then π is a stationary distribution if

$$P^T \pi = \pi$$

- ▶ Suppose S is finite.
- ▶ Then π is a stationary distribution if

$$P^T \pi = \pi \quad \text{or} \quad (P^T - I) \pi = 0$$

- ▶ Suppose S is finite.
- ▶ Then π is a stationary distribution if

$$P^T \pi = \pi \quad \text{or} \quad (P^T - I) \pi = 0$$

- ▶ Note that each column of P^T sums to 1.

- ▶ Suppose S is finite.
- ▶ Then π is a stationary distribution if

$$P^T \pi = \pi \quad \text{or} \quad (P^T - I) \pi = 0$$

- ▶ Note that each column of P^T sums to 1.
- ▶ Hence, $(P^T - I)$ would be singular

- ▶ Suppose S is finite.
- ▶ Then π is a stationary distribution if

$$P^T \pi = \pi \quad \text{or} \quad (P^T - I) \pi = 0$$

- ▶ Note that each column of P^T sums to 1.
- ▶ Hence, $(P^T - I)$ would be singular
(1 is always an eigen value for a column stochastic matrix)

- ▶ Suppose S is finite.
- ▶ Then π is a stationary distribution if

$$P^T \pi = \pi \quad \text{or} \quad (P^T - I) \pi = 0$$

- ▶ Note that each column of P^T sums to 1.
- ▶ Hence, $(P^T - I)$ would be singular
(1 is always an eigen value for a column stochastic matrix)
- ▶ A stationary distribution always exists for a finite chain.

- ▶ Suppose S is finite.
- ▶ Then π is a stationary distribution if

$$P^T \pi = \pi \quad \text{or} \quad (P^T - I) \pi = 0$$

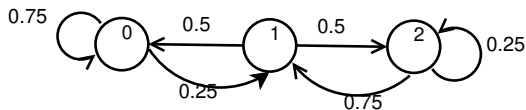
- ▶ Note that each column of P^T sums to 1.
- ▶ Hence, $(P^T - I)$ would be singular
(1 is always an eigen value for a column stochastic matrix)
- ▶ A stationary distribution always exists for a finite chain.
- ▶ But it may or may not be unique.

- ▶ Suppose S is finite.
- ▶ Then π is a stationary distribution if

$$P^T \pi = \pi \quad \text{or} \quad (P^T - I) \pi = 0$$

- ▶ Note that each column of P^T sums to 1.
- ▶ Hence, $(P^T - I)$ would be singular
(1 is always an eigen value for a column stochastic matrix)
- ▶ A stationary distribution always exists for a finite chain.
- ▶ But it may or may not be unique.
- ▶ What about infinite chains?

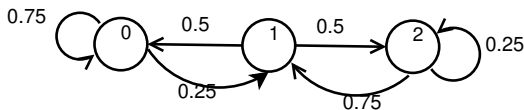
Example



- ▶ The stationary distribution has to satisfy

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

Example

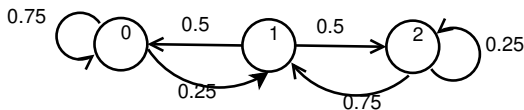


- ▶ The stationary distribution has to satisfy

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Thus we get the following linear equations

Example



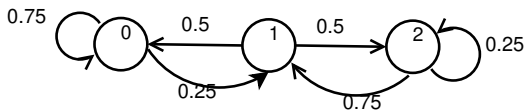
- ▶ The stationary distribution has to satisfy

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Thus we get the following linear equations

$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0)$$

Example



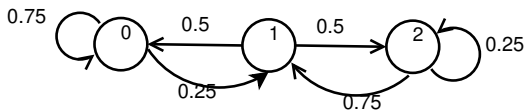
- ▶ The stationary distribution has to satisfy

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ Thus we get the following linear equations

$$\begin{aligned} 0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) &= \pi(0) \\ 0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) &= \pi(1) \end{aligned}$$

Example



- ▶ The stationary distribution has to satisfy

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

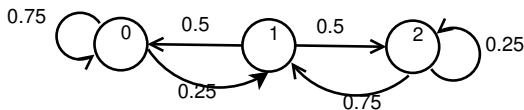
- ▶ Thus we get the following linear equations

$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0)$$

$$0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) = \pi(1)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + 0.25\pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

Example



- ▶ The stationary distribution has to satisfy

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

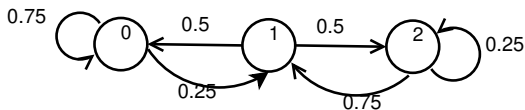
- ▶ Thus we get the following linear equations

$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0)$$

$$0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) = \pi(1)$$

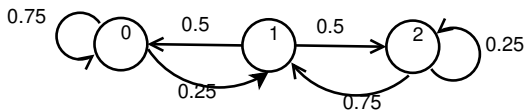
$$0.5\pi(1) + 0.25\pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

$$\text{in addition, } \pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$$



- We can also write the equations for π as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.75 & 0.25 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0.75 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix}$$



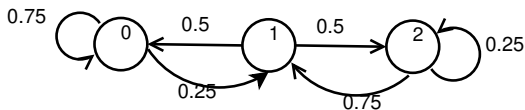
- We can also write the equations for π as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.75 & 0.25 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0.75 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0)$$

$$0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) = \pi(1)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + 0.25\pi(2) = \pi(2)$$



- We can also write the equations for π as

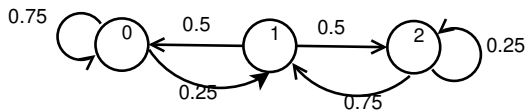
$$\begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.75 & 0.25 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0.75 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix}$$

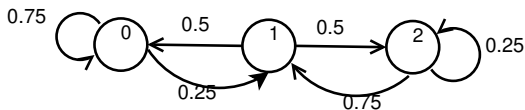
$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0)$$

$$0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) = \pi(1)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + 0.25\pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

- We have to solve these along with $\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$



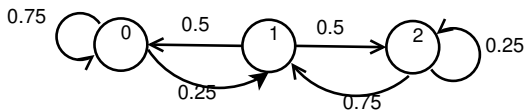


$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0)$$

$$0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) = \pi(1)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + 0.25\pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$$

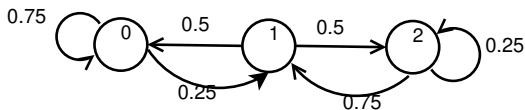


$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = \frac{1}{2} \pi(0)$$

$$0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) = \pi(1)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + 0.25\pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$$

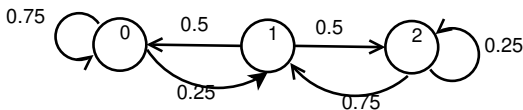


$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = \frac{1}{2} \pi(0)$$

$$0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) = \pi(1) \Rightarrow \pi(2) = \frac{1}{3}\pi(0)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + 0.25\pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$$

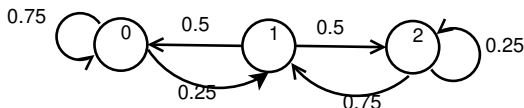


$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = \frac{1}{2} \pi(0)$$

$$0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) = \pi(1) \Rightarrow \pi(2) = \frac{1}{3}\pi(0)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + 0.25\pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1 \Rightarrow \pi(0) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}\right) = 1$$



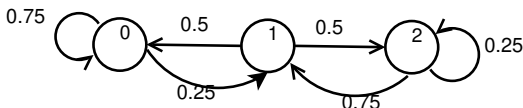
$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = \frac{1}{2} \pi(0)$$

$$0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) = \pi(1) \Rightarrow \pi(2) = \frac{1}{3}\pi(0)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + 0.25\pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1 \Rightarrow \pi(0) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}\right) = 1$$

► Now, $\pi(0) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}\right) = 1$ gives $\pi(0) = \frac{6}{11}$



$$0.75\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = \frac{1}{2} \pi(0)$$

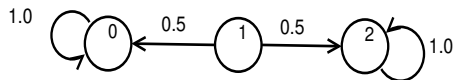
$$0.25\pi(0) + 0.75\pi(2) = \pi(1) \Rightarrow \pi(2) = \frac{1}{3}\pi(0)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + 0.25\pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

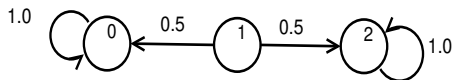
$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1 \Rightarrow \pi(0) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}\right) = 1$$

- ▶ Now, $\pi(0) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}\right) = 1$ gives $\pi(0) = \frac{6}{11}$
- ▶ We get a unique solution: $\left[\frac{6}{11} \quad \frac{3}{11} \quad \frac{2}{11}\right]$

Example2



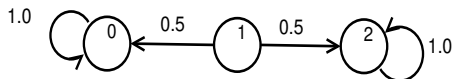
Example2



- ▶ The stationary distribution has to satisfy

$$\begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix}$$

Example2

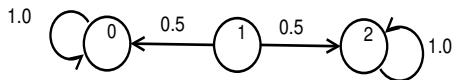


- ▶ The stationary distribution has to satisfy

$$\begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ We also have to add the equation $\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$

Example2

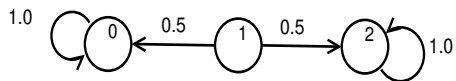


- ▶ The stationary distribution has to satisfy

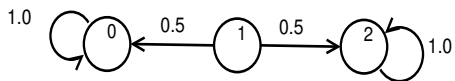
$$\begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi(0) & \pi(1) & \pi(2) \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ We also have to add the equation $\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$
- ▶ We now do not have a unique stationary distribution

Example2

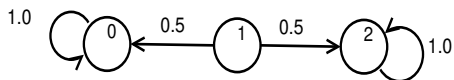


Example2



$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

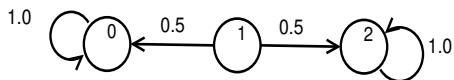
Example2



$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ We get the following linear equations

Example2

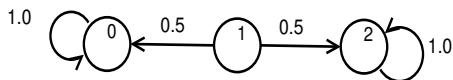


$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ We get the following linear equations

$$\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0)$$

Example2



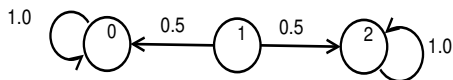
$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- We get the following linear equations

$$\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + \pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

Example2



$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

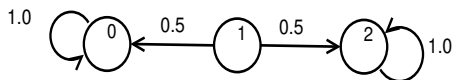
- We get the following linear equations

$$\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0)$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + \pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$$

Example2



$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

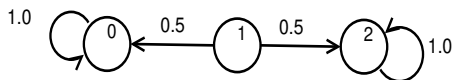
- We get the following linear equations

$$\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + \pi(2) = \pi(2)$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$$

Example2



$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

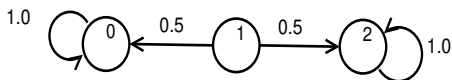
- We get the following linear equations

$$\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + \pi(2) = \pi(2) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$$

Example2



$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

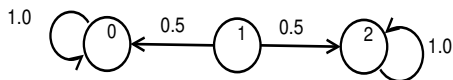
- We get the following linear equations

$$\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + \pi(2) = \pi(2) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1 \Rightarrow \pi(0) = 1 - \pi(2)$$

Example2



$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ We get the following linear equations

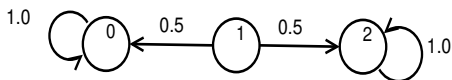
$$\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + \pi(2) = \pi(2) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1 \Rightarrow \pi(0) = 1 - \pi(2)$$

- ▶ Now there are infinitely many solutions.

Example2



$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ We get the following linear equations

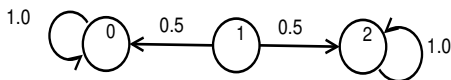
$$\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + \pi(2) = \pi(2) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1 \Rightarrow \pi(0) = 1 - \pi(2)$$

- ▶ Now there are infinitely many solutions.
- ▶ Any distribution $[a \ 0 \ 1 - a]$ with $0 \leq a \leq 1$ is a stationary distribution

Example2



$$\pi(y) = \sum_{x \in S} \pi(x)P(x, y), \quad \forall y \in S$$

- ▶ We get the following linear equations

$$\pi(0) + 0.5\pi(1) = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$0.5\pi(1) + \pi(2) = \pi(2) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = 0$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1 \Rightarrow \pi(0) = 1 - \pi(2)$$

- ▶ Now there are infinitely many solutions.
- ▶ Any distribution $[a \ 0 \ 1 - a]$ with $0 \leq a \leq 1$ is a stationary distribution
- ▶ This chain is not irreducible; the previous one is irreducible

- ▶ We now explore conditions for existence and uniqueness of stationary distributions

- ▶ We now explore conditions for existence and uniqueness of stationary distributions
- ▶ For finite chains stationary distribution always exists.

- ▶ We now explore conditions for existence and uniqueness of stationary distributions
- ▶ For finite chains stationary distribution always exists.
- ▶ For finite irreducible chains it is unique.

- ▶ We now explore conditions for existence and uniqueness of stationary distributions
- ▶ For finite chains stationary distribution always exists.
- ▶ For finite irreducible chains it is unique.
- ▶ But for infinite chains, it is possible that stationary distribution does not exist.

- ▶ We now explore conditions for existence and uniqueness of stationary distributions
- ▶ For finite chains stationary distribution always exists.
- ▶ For finite irreducible chains it is unique.
- ▶ But for infinite chains, it is possible that stationary distribution does not exist.
- ▶ When the stationary distribution is unique, we also want to know if the chain converges to that distribution

- ▶ We now explore conditions for existence and uniqueness of stationary distributions
- ▶ For finite chains stationary distribution always exists.
- ▶ For finite irreducible chains it is unique.
- ▶ But for infinite chains, it is possible that stationary distribution does not exist.
- ▶ When the stationary distribution is unique, we also want to know if the chain converges to that distribution
- ▶ The stationary distribution, when it exists, is related to expected fraction of time spent in different states.

- ▶ Let $I_y(X_n)$ be indicator of $[X_n = y]$

- ▶ Let $I_y(X_n)$ be indicator of $[X_n = y]$
- ▶ Number of visits to y till n : $N_n(y) = \sum_{m=1}^n I_y(X_m)$

- ▶ Let $I_y(X_n)$ be indicator of $[X_n = y]$
- ▶ Number of visits to y till n : $N_n(y) = \sum_{m=1}^n I_y(X_m)$

$$G_n(x, y) \triangleq E_x[N_n(y)]$$

- ▶ Let $I_y(X_n)$ be indicator of $[X_n = y]$
- ▶ Number of visits to y till n : $N_n(y) = \sum_{m=1}^n I_y(X_m)$

$$G_n(x, y) \triangleq E_x[N_n(y)] = \sum_{m=1}^n E_x[I_y(X_m)]$$

- ▶ Let $I_y(X_n)$ be indicator of $[X_n = y]$
- ▶ Number of visits to y till n : $N_n(y) = \sum_{m=1}^n I_y(X_m)$

$$G_n(x, y) \triangleq E_x[N_n(y)] = \sum_{m=1}^n E_x[I_y(X_m)] = \sum_{m=1}^n P^m(x, y)$$

- ▶ Let $I_y(X_n)$ be indicator of $[X_n = y]$
- ▶ Number of visits to y till n : $N_n(y) = \sum_{m=1}^n I_y(X_m)$

$$G_n(x, y) \triangleq E_x[N_n(y)] = \sum_{m=1}^n E_x[I_y(X_m)] = \sum_{m=1}^n P^m(x, y)$$

- ▶ Expected fraction of time spent in y till n is

$$\frac{G_n(x, y)}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=1}^n P^m(x, y)$$

- ▶ Let $I_y(X_n)$ be indicator of $[X_n = y]$
- ▶ Number of visits to y till n : $N_n(y) = \sum_{m=1}^n I_y(X_m)$

$$G_n(x, y) \triangleq E_x[N_n(y)] = \sum_{m=1}^n E_x[I_y(X_m)] = \sum_{m=1}^n P^m(x, y)$$

- ▶ Expected fraction of time spent in y till n is

$$\frac{G_n(x, y)}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=1}^n P^m(x, y)$$

- ▶ We will first establish a limit for the above as $n \rightarrow \infty$