

# 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

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

- ▶ 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  $P : S \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

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

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  $\pi_0 : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

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

It satisfies

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

$$Pr[X_0 = x_0, X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_m = x_m] = \pi_0(x_0)P(x_0, x_1) \cdots P(x_{m-1}, x_m)$$

Using this we can find joint distribution of any finite number of  $X_i$ 's

# Recap

- ▶ The Markov property implies

$$\begin{aligned}Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x, X_{m-1} \cdots] &= Pr[X_{m+n} = y | X_m = x] \\&= Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x]\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ 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

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

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

- ▶ The transition probabilities we defined earlier are also called one step transition probabilities

$$P(x, y) = Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] = Pr[X_1 = y | X_0 = x]$$

- ▶ We can define transition probabilities for multiple steps, that is,  $Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x]$
- ▶ Now we get

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

# Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

- ▶ Define:  $P^n(x, y) = \Pr[X_n = y | x_0 = x]$
- ▶ These are called  $n$ -step transition probabilities.
- ▶ From what we showed,

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

- ▶ These are known as Chapman-Kolmogorov equations
- ▶ This relationship is intuitively clear

- Specifically, using Chapman-Kolmogorov equations,

$$P^2(x, y) = \sum_z P(x, z)P(z, y)$$

- For a finite chain,  $P$  is a matrix
- Thus  $P^2(x, y)$  is  
the  $(x, y)^{th}$  element of the matrix,  $P \times P$
- That is why we use  $P^n$  for  $n$ -step transition probabilities

► Define:  $\pi_n(x) = \Pr[X_n = x]$ .

► Then we get

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_n(y) &= \sum_x \Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x] \Pr[X_0 = x] \\ &= \sum_x \pi_0(x) P^n(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

► In particular

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_{n+1}(y) &= \sum_x \Pr[X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x] \Pr[X_n = x] \\ &= \sum_x \pi_n(x) P(x, y)\end{aligned}$$



# Hitting times

- ▶ Let  $y$  be a state.
- ▶ We define hitting time for  $y$  as the random variable

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

- ▶  $T_y$  is the first time that the chain is in state  $y$  (after  $t = 0$  when the chain is initiated).
  - ▶ It is easy to see that  $Pr[T_y = 1 | X_0 = x] = P(x, y)$ .
  - ▶ Notation:  $P_z(A) = Pr[A | X_0 = z]$
  - ▶ We write the above as  $P_x(T_y = 1) = P(x, y)$
- Note that

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

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

► We can now get

$$\begin{aligned} P_x(T_y = 2) &= \sum_{z \neq y} P(x, z) P(z, y) = \sum_{z \neq y} P(x, z) P_z(T_y = 1) \\ P_x(T_y = m) &= Pr[T_y = m | X_0 = x] \\ &= \sum_{z \neq y} Pr[T_y = m | X_1 = z, X_0 = x] Pr[X_1 = z | X_0 = x] \\ &= \sum_{z \neq y} P(x, z) Pr[T_y = m | X_1 = z] \\ &= \sum_{z \neq y} P(x, z) P_z(T_y = m - 1) \end{aligned}$$

- Similarly we can get:

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

- We can derive this as

$$\begin{aligned} P^n(x, y) &= Pr[X_n = y | X_0 = x] \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^n Pr[T_y = m, X_n = y | X_0 = x] \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^n Pr[X_n = y | T_y = m, X_0 = x] Pr[T_y = m | X_0 = x] \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^n Pr[X_n = y | X_m = y] Pr[T_y = m | X_0 = x] \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^n P^{n-m}(y, y) P_x(T_y = m) \end{aligned}$$

## 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

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

**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.
- ▶ For any state  $y$  define

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

- Now, 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

$$P_x(N_y \geq 1) = P_x(T_y < \infty) = \rho_{xy}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_x(N_y \geq 2) &= \sum_m P_x(T_y = m) P_y(T_y < \infty) \\ &= \rho_{yy} \sum_m P_x(T_y = m) = \rho_{yy} \rho_{xy} \end{aligned}$$

$$P_x(N_y \geq m) = \rho_{yy}^{m-1} \rho_{xy}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_x(N_y = m) &= P_x(N_y \geq m) - P_x(N_y \geq m+1) \\ &= \rho_{yy}^{m-1} \rho_{xy} - \rho_{yy}^m \rho_{xy} = \rho_{xy} \rho_{yy}^{m-1} (1 - \rho_{yy}) \end{aligned}$$

$$P_x(N_y = 0) = 1 - P_x(N_y \geq 1) = 1 - \rho_{xy}$$

► Notation:  $E_x[Z] = E[Z|X_0 = x]$

► Define

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

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

**Theorem:**

(i). Let  $y$  be transient. Then

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

(ii) Let  $y$  be recurrent. Then

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

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

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

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



## Proof of (ii):

$y$  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
- ▶ 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  $\rho_{xy} > 0$

**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.  $P^{n_0}(x, y) > 0, P^{n_1}(y, x) > 0$ .

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

- 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.
- ▶ 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  $R \subset A \times A$
- ▶  $R$  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  $A = \{\frac{m}{n} \mid m, n \text{ are integers}\}$
- ▶ 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  $A$ .
- ▶ 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:  $S = S_T + S_R$ :

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

- ▶ 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.
- ▶ 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.

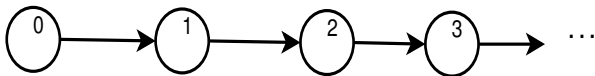
- ▶ A set of states,  $C \subset S$  is said to be irreducible if  $x$  leads to  $y$  for all  $x, y \in C$
- ▶ An irreducible set is also called a communicating class
- ▶ A set of states,  $C \subset S$ , is said to be closed if  $x \in C, y \notin C$  implies  $\rho_{xy} = 0$ .
- ▶ Once the chain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

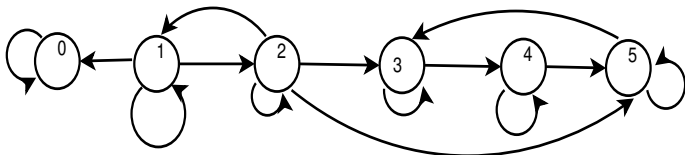
- ▶ If  $S$  is irreducible then the chain is said to be irreducible.  
(Note that  $S$  is trivially closed)

- ▶ In an irreducible set of states, if one state is recurrent, then, all states are recurrent.
- ▶ 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.
- ▶ We need not calculate  $\rho_{xx}$  to do this partition.
- ▶ By looking at the structure of transition probability matrix we can get this partition

## 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  $S_R = \{0\} + \{3, 4, 5\}$