

LECTURE 4: INTRODUCTION TO MARKOV CHAINS

①

Def: Let $\{\mathbb{X}_n; n=0,1,\dots\}$ be a stochastic process on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$

and let $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(\mathbb{X}_0, \dots, \mathbb{X}_n)$ be the natural filtration. $\{\mathbb{X}_n\}$ is

called a Markov chain if for any borel set $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{X}_{n+1} \in B | \mathcal{F}_n) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{X}_{n+1} \in B | \mathbb{X}_n) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{X}_{n+1} \in B | \sigma(\mathbb{X}_n))$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{X}_{n+1} \in B | \mathcal{F}_n) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{X}_{n+1} \in B | \mathcal{F}_m)$$

(recall that a conditional probability is a random variable
and it only depends on the conditioning σ -algebra).

Physical Interpretation: the future evolution of the process
depends only on the current state of the system and it is
independent of the past.

Def: A Markov chain $\{\mathbb{X}_n\}$ that takes values on a

discrete space S is called a "discrete" MC. That is,
 $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{X}_n \in S$ (wlog ~~$S = \mathbb{Z}$~~ , $S = \mathbb{Z}$).

For a discrete Markov chain, the conditional probabilities
can be described as matrices (finite when S is finite):

$$P_{ij}(n) \equiv \mathbb{P}\{\mathbb{X}_{n+1} = j | \mathbb{X}_n = i\}$$

For a general MC,

$$p_i(n; dx) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{X}_{n+1} \in dx | \mathbb{X}_n = i)$$

defines a density, called the transition density, or transition kernel.

Def: Let $\{\mathbb{X}_n\}$ be a Markov chain on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.
If the transition kernel is independent of n ,
that is:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{X}_{n+1} \in B | \mathcal{F}_n) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{X}_{n+1} \in B | \mathcal{F}_m)$$

homogeneous Markov chain. Otherwise it is called
non-homogeneous.

Example: Ross p.193 (students to read all examples
in texts)

Probability model $\Omega = \{\text{rain}, \text{no rain}\}$ (rain or no rain)

Historical data fits the following model:

	Yesterday	Today	$\mathbb{P}(\text{Rain tomorrow})$
	 	 	0.7

0.5

0.4

0.2

Let $\mathbb{X}_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if rain on day } n \\ 1 & \text{if no rain on day } n \end{cases}$

Is $\{\mathbb{X}_n\}$ a Markov chain?

"Markovianising" a process: enlarge the state to contain
enough information into the past.

Define: $y_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (\mathbb{X}_0, \dots, \mathbb{X}_n) \text{ Is } y_n \text{ a MC?} \\ 1 & \text{if } (\mathbb{X}_0, \dots, \mathbb{X}_{n-1}) \text{ Is it homogeneous?} \end{cases}$

homogeneous
Consider a finite MC $\{X_n\}$. Then the process is completely
defined once the transition probability P_{ij} and the initial

distribution of X_0 are specified. This means that given
 $\{P_{ij}, i, j \in S\}$ and $P(X_0 = i) \forall i \in S$, the distribution
of $X_n \forall n \geq 0$ is well defined. (PPT TK)

Notation: For a homogeneous MC,
 $P_{ij}^{(m)} = P\{X_{n+m} = j \mid X_n = i\}$ is called

the m-step transition probability.

Theorem: Chapman-Kolmogorov equations. The n-step transition probabilities of a homogeneous Markov chain satisfy:

$$P_{ij}^{(n)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{ik} P_{kj}^{(n-1)}$$

where $P_{ij}^{(0)} = 1_{\{i=j\}}$.

Visualization:



(TKP. 105 - 112)

- Models (TKP. 105 - 112)
 a) Inventory
 b) Ehrenfest urn model
 c) Genetics
 d) Queuing

Proof:

$$P(X_{n+1} = j \mid X_1 = i) = \sum_{k \in S} P(X_{n+1} = j \mid X_2 = k, X_1 = i) \times P(X_2 = k \mid X_1 = i)$$

(emphasis on conditioning)

Using the stopped chain,

$$P(N \leq m) = P(W_m = A)$$

and $P(W_m = A \mid X_0 = i) = (Q_{i,A}^{(m)})$. See applications in Ross examples 4, 12, 4, 13 and end of section.

Example

Stopped Markov chains (Ross p. 200)

Let \mathcal{A} be a "target" set of states $\mathcal{A} \subset S$.

$N = \min \{n : X_n \in \mathcal{A}\}$

is a random stopping time w.r.t. the natural filtration $\{\mathcal{G}(X_0, \dots, X_n)\}$.

$$N = \min \{n : X_n \in \mathcal{A}\}$$

We want to calculate

$$\beta = P(N < \infty)$$

probability that the target set is attained by the process

Example: probability of winning the game of caps

$$W_n = \begin{cases} X_n, & n < N \\ A & n \geq N \end{cases}$$

The MC $\{W_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is called a "stopped" MC, with state space ~~stopping~~. Transition probabilities are

$$Q_{ij} = P_{ij} \quad i \notin \mathcal{A}, j \notin \mathcal{A}$$

$$Q_{i,A} = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{A}} P_{ij} \quad i \notin \mathcal{A}$$

$$Q_{A,A} = 1$$

1-step

CLASSIFICATION OF STATES

(3)

GAME 1 (built with students):

Def: Let $\{X_n\}$ be a MC on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) with state space $S \subset \mathbb{N}$.

State j is said to be accessible from i if $P_{ij}^n > 0$ for some integer $n > 0$. Notation: $i \rightarrow j$

P.204 (Ross), p.234 TK.

Def: Two states $i, j \in S$ are said to communicate if $i \rightarrow j$ and $j \rightarrow i$. Notation: $i \leftrightarrow j$.

If two states i and $j \in S$ do not communicate then it follows

that either $P_{ij}^{(n)} = 0 \forall n > 0$ or $P_{ji}^{(n)} = 0 \forall n > 0$.

GAME 2			
0	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
0	0	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$
$\frac{2}{5}$	$\frac{3}{5}$	0	0
$\frac{1}{8}$	0	$\frac{7}{8}$	0

Theorem : Communication is an equivalence relationship.

Proof:

(i). $P_{ii}^{(0)} = 1$ by definition

(ii). $i \leftrightarrow j \Leftrightarrow j \leftrightarrow i$ by definition

(iii). If $i \leftrightarrow j$ and $j \leftrightarrow k$ then $\exists n, m$ such that

$P_{ij}^{(n)} > 0$ and $P_{jk}^{(m)} > 0$. Using Chapman-Kolmogorov

equations :

$$P_{ik}^{n+m} = \sum_{q \in S} P_{iq}^{(n)} P_{qk}^{(m)} = \sum_{q \neq j} P_{iq}^{(n)} P_{qk}^{(m)} + \underbrace{P_{ij}^{(n)} P_{jk}^{(m)}}_{> 0} > 0$$

which shows that $i \rightarrow k$. A symmetric argument shows that $k \rightarrow i$ as well, proving the result.

Examples : games played in class.

[P.239-241 TK and 205-206 Ross]

Notice that $f_i^{(n)} = P_{ii}^{(n)}$

$$P_{ii}^{(n)} = \sum_{k=0}^n f_i^{(k)} P_{ii}^{(n-k)}, n \geq 1. \quad (\text{TK 240 for proof})$$

Def: Let $f_i = P(Z < \infty | X_0 = i)$ denote the probability that, starting at i , the process eventually returns to i : (4)

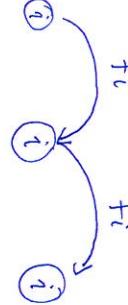
$$f_i = \sum_{n \geq 1} P(Z=n | X_0 = i) = \sum_{n \geq 1} f_i^{(n)} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N f_i^{(n)}.$$

Def: A state $i \in S$ is called:

- recurrent if $f_i = 1$,
- transient if $f_i < 1$.

Let i be a transient state so that $f_i < 1$. In this case, given a return to i , say $X_n = i$, the probability that it returns to i again is f_i because of the Markov property. Therefore,

$$P(1 \text{ visit}) = f_i(1 - f_i)$$



$$P(2 \text{ visits}) = f_i^2(1 - f_i) \quad \vdots$$

"success"
when return-to-i

$$P(k \text{ visits}) = f_i^k(1 - f_i)$$

Let M count the total number of visits to state i , that is:

$$M = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}(X_n = i)$$

The random variable M satisfies $P(M=k) = f_i^k(1 - f_i) \Rightarrow$ has geometric distribution with parameter $f_i < 1$.

Theorem: A state i is recurrent iff $\sum_{n \geq 1} P_{ii}^{(n)} = +\infty$ and transient Theorem: Periodicity is a class property [TK p. 230].

if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{ii}^{(n)} < \infty$. P.206 Ross p.241 TK

Proof: If i is transient then $f_i < 0$. We know that in this case $E(M | X_0 = i) = \frac{f_i}{1-f_i} < \infty$ is finite. From the definition of M it follows that

$$E(M | X_0 = i) = E\left(\sum_{n \geq 1} \mathbb{1}(X_n = i) | X_0 = i\right)$$

$$= \sum_{n \geq 1} P_{ii}^{(n)} < \infty.$$

On the other hand if i is recurrent then $f_i = 1$ and the

process will visit i infinitely often: $P(X_m = i, \text{some } m \geq 1) = 1$. In this case $E M = +\infty \Leftrightarrow$

$$E\left(\sum_{n \geq 1} \mathbb{1}(X_n = i) | X_0 = i\right) = +\infty \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} P_{ii}^{(n)} = +\infty.$$

QED

Def: A recurrent state i such that $P_{ii} = 1$ is called an absorbing state.

[Go back to examples in games].

Poss P208 random walk
TK p.241 random walk

Markov chain analysis \hookrightarrow absorption probabilities
recurrent classes: steady-state

Theorem: Recurrence is a class property.

Def: The period $d(i)$ of state i is the greatest common divisor of all integers $n \geq 1$ for which $P_{ii}^{(n)} > 0$. If $P_{ii}^{(n)} = 0 \forall n \Rightarrow d(i) = \infty$

return time is finite: $E(Z | X_0 = i) < \infty$. [Random walk Poss]