

7. Markov Chains (Discrete-Time Markov Chains)

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7.1. Introduction: Markov Chains

Consider a system which can be in one of a countable number of states $1, 2, 3, \dots$. The system is observed at the time points $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$.

Define X_n to be a random variable denoting the state of the system at “time” n . Suppose the history of the system up to time n is: $\{X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n\}$. The probability distribution of X_{n+1} would ordinarily depend on the past history; i.e.

$$P\{X_{n+1}|X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n\}.$$

The process is said to have the Markov property if

$$P\{X_{n+1}|X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n\} = P\{X_{n+1}|X_n\}$$

$$P\{X_{n+1}|X_0, \dots, X_n\} = P\{X_{n+1}|X_n\}$$

The stochastic process is called a Markov Chain. If the possible states are denoted by integers, then we have

$$\begin{aligned} P\{X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i, X_{n-1} = i_{n-1}, X_{n-2} = i_{n-2}, \dots, X_0 = i_0\} \\ = P\{X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i\} \end{aligned}$$

Define

$$p_{ij}(n) = P\{X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i\}$$

If S represents the state space and is countable, then the Markov Chain is called Time-Homogeneous if

$$p_{ij}(n) = p_{ij} \quad \text{for all } i, j \in S \text{ and } n \geq 0.$$

We will only be dealing with Time Homogeneous Markov Chains.

Note: Sometimes this process is referred to as a Discrete Time Markov Chain (DTMC).

Define $P = (p_{ij})$.

If S has m states, then $P = (p_{ij})$ $m \times m$ matrix.

P is often called the one-step transition probability matrix.

Definition: A matrix $P = (P_{ij})$ is called stochastic if

$$(i) \quad p_{ij} \geq 0 \quad i, j \in S$$

$$(ii) \quad \sum_{j \in S} p_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^m p_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{for all } i \in S.$$

X_0 = initial state

$a_i = P\{X_0 = i\}$ = Prob. of the initial state $X_0 = i$.

The probabilities a_i and $P = (p_{ij})$ completely determine the stochastic process.

Examples

$$\begin{aligned} P\{X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1\} &= P\{X_1 = i_1 | X_0 = i_0\} P\{X_0 = i_0\} \\ &= p_{i_0 i_1} a_{i_0} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P\{X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, X_2 = i_2\} &= P\{X_0 = i_0\} \cdot P\{X_1 = i_1 | X_0 = i_0\} \\ &\quad \cdot P\{X_2 = i_2 | X_1 = i_1\} \\ &= a_{i_0} p_{i_0 i_1} p_{i_1 i_2} \end{aligned}$$

7.2. Examples

Example: Two States

Suppose a person can be in one of two states — “healthy” or “sick”. Let $\{X_n\}$ $n = 0, 1, \dots$ refer to the state at time n where

$$X_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if healthy} \\ 0 & \text{if sick} \end{cases}$$

Define

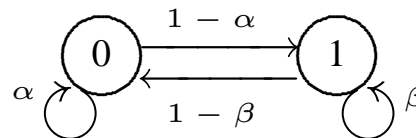
$$P\{X_{n+1} = 0 | X_n = 0\} = \alpha$$

$$P\{X_{n+1} = 1 | X_n = 1\} = \beta$$

Transition Matrix

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 1 - \alpha \\ 1 - \beta & \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

Transition Diagram



Ex. Independent Events

Let $\{X_n\}$ be iid with

$$P\{X_n = k\} = p_k \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots$$

and let the state space be $S = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$

$$p_{jk} = P\{X_{n+1} = k | X_n = j\} = P\{X_{n+1} = k\} = p_k$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} p_0 & p_1 & p_2 & \dots \\ p_0 & p_1 & p_2 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: Random Walk (one step at a time)

$$P\{X_{n+1} = i + 1 | X_n = i\} = p_i, P\{X_{n+1} = i + 1 | X_n = j\} = 0 \text{ for } j \neq i$$

$$P\{X_{n+1} = i - 1 | X_n = i\} = q_i, P\{X_{n+1} = i - 1 | X_n = j\} = 0 \text{ for } j \neq i$$

$$P\{X_{n+1} = i | X_n = i\} = r_i = 1 - p_i - q_i$$

State Space: $S = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$

- (i.) $q_0 = 0$ means that state 0 is reflecting barrier.
- (ii.) If $r_0 = 1$, then once in state 0 it can never leave.
- (iii.) If $p_N = 0 \Rightarrow S = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N\}$
- (iv.) If $p_N = 0$ and $r_N = 1 \Rightarrow N$ is absorbing ($r_N = 0$, N is reflecting barrier.)

Example: Gambler's Ruin

Gamblers: A, B have a total of N dollars

Game: Toss Coin

If $H \Rightarrow A$ receives \$1 from B

$T \Rightarrow B$ receives \$1 from A

$$P(H) = p, \quad P(T) = q = 1 - p$$

$X_n =$ Amount of money A has after n plays

$$P\{X_{n+1} = X_n + 1 | X_n\} = p$$

$$P\{X_{n+1} = X_n - 1 | X_n\} = q$$

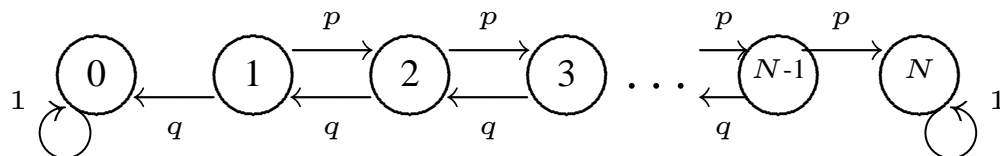
.....Game ends if $X_n = 0$ or $X_n = N$

State space = $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, N\}$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 X_n \\
 \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ \vdots \\ N-1 \\ N \end{matrix}
 \end{array}
 \begin{array}{c}
 X_{n+1} \\
 \begin{matrix} \underline{0} & \underline{1} & \underline{2} & \underline{3} & \cdots & \underline{N-2} & \underline{N-1} & \underline{N} \end{matrix} \\
 \left[\begin{array}{cccccccc}
 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 q & 0 & p & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & q & 0 & p & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 \vdots & & & & & & & \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & q & 0 & p \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 1
 \end{array} \right]
 \end{array}$$

Transition Diagram for

Gambler's Ruin



Example: Urn Models (Ehrenfest Urn Model)

Two urns: A, B each containing N balls (Balls may be red or white).

Experiment consists of picking one ball at a time from each urn at random and placing them in the opposite urn.

X_n = no. of white balls in urn A after n repetitions. Assume $X_0 = N$ (all white balls in A).

If $X_n = i \Rightarrow$ i white and $N - i$ red in A
 i red and $N - i$ white in B

$$\begin{aligned} P\{X_{n+1} = i + 1 | X_n = i\} &= P\{\text{white ball from } B \text{ and red ball from } A\} \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{i}{N}\right)^2 = p_{i,i+1} \quad i \neq 0, N \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P\{X_{n+1} = i - 1 | X_n = i\} &= P\{\text{white from } A \text{ and red from } B\} \\ &= \left(\frac{i}{N}\right)^2 = p_{i,i-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P\{X_{n+1} = i | X_n = i\} &= P\{\text{white from } A \text{ and } B\} \\ &\quad + P\{\text{Red from } A \text{ and } B\} \\ &= 2 \left(\frac{i}{N}\right) \left(1 - \frac{i}{N}\right) = p_{ii} \end{aligned}$$

Example: Branching Process

$X_n =$ no. of individuals in n^{th} generation beginning with
 $X_0 = 1$ (1 individual)

$Y_{i,n} =$ no. of offspring of the i^{th} person in the n^{th} generation

$$X_{n+1} = Y_{1,n} + Y_{2,n} + \dots + Y_{X_n,n} = \sum_{i=1}^{X_n} Y_{i,n}$$

Assume $\{Y_{i,n}\}$ are iid random variables.

$$\begin{aligned} p_{ij} &= P\{X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i\} = P\{\sum_{i=1}^{X_n} Y_{i,n} = j | X_n = i\} \\ &= P\{\sum_{r=1}^i Y_{r,n} = j\} \end{aligned}$$

Process: $\{X_n\}$ is called a branching process

How long does it take for a family to become extinct?

What is distribution of size in the n^{th} generation?

7.3. Marginal Distribution of X_n

$$\text{Define } a_j^{(n)} = P\{X_n = j\} = \sum_{i \in S} P\{X_n = j | X_0 = i\} P\{X_0 = i\}$$

$$= \sum_{i \in S} P\{X_n = j | X_0 = i\} a_i$$

$$p_{ij}^{(n)} = \text{Prob. of going from } i \rightarrow j \text{ in } n \text{ steps}$$

$$p_{ij}^{(n)} = \text{n-step transition probabilities}$$

Th. Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

$$p_{ij}^{(n)} = \sum_{r \in S} p_{ir}^{(k)} p_{rj}^{(n-k)} \quad \underline{\text{Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations}}$$

where k is a fixed integer $0 \leq k \leq n$

Th. $P^{(n)} = (p_{ij}^{(n)}) = P^n$

Proof. $P\{X_0 = j | X_0 = i\} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$

$\Rightarrow P^0 = I$. Also $P^1 = P$. Assume theorem is true for $n = k$. We will show it is true for $n = k + 1$.

$$P^{(k+1)} = P^{(k)} P = P^k P = P^{k+1}$$

Th. $a^{(n)}$ = row vector of $a_j^{(n)} = (a_1^{(n)}, a_2^{(n)}, \dots)$

$$a^{(n)} = aP^n$$

Proof. $a^{(n)} = a^{(0)} P^{(n)} = aP^n$

Urn Sampling (Continuation)

$$E(X_n | X_0) = \sum_{i=0}^{X_0} i P\{X_n = i | X_0\}$$

Expected number of white balls in urn A with n draws given $X_0 =$ no. of white balls in A at start.

$$= (0, 0, \dots, 1) P^n \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ \vdots \\ X_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Suppose $X_0 = 10$

<u>n</u>	<u>$E(X_n X_0 = 10)$</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>$E(X_n X_0 = 10)$</u>
2	8.2	12	5.3
4	7.0	14	5.2
6	6.3	16	5.14
8	5.8	18	5.09
10	5.5	20	5.06

Ex. Branching Process (Continuation)

$$m_n = E(X_n), \quad \sigma_n^2 = \text{Var} X_n, \quad m = E(Y_{i,n}), \quad \sigma^2 = V(Y_{i,n})$$

$$m_n = E(X_n) = E\left(\sum_{i=1}^{X_{n-1}} Y_{i,n-1}\right) = mE(X_{n-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow m_n = m m_{n-1}$$

$$\boxed{m_n = m^n}, \quad m = E(Y_{i,n})$$

$$\text{Var}(X_n|X_{n-1}) = \text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{X_{n-1}} Y_{i,n}\right) = \sigma^2 X_{n-1}$$

Recall $\text{Var} Z = E_Y \text{Var}(Z|Y) + \text{Var}_Y E(Z|Y)$

In our example $Z = X_n, Y = X_{n-1}$

$$\text{Var}(X_n|X_{n-1}) = \text{Var}\left(\sum_1^{X_{n-1}} Y_{i,n-1}|X_{n-1}\right) = X_{n-1}\sigma^2, \text{ if } X_{n-1} \text{ fixed}$$

$$E(X_n|X_{n-1}) = E(\sum_1^{X_{n-1}} Y_{i,n-1}|X_{n-1}) = X_{n-1}m$$

$$\therefore \text{Var} X_n = \sigma^2 E(X_{n-1}) + \text{Var}(X_{n-1}m)$$

$$\sigma_n^2 = \sigma^2 m_{n-1} + m^2 \text{Var} X_{n-1}$$

$$\boxed{\sigma_n^2 = \sigma^2 m_{n-1} + m^2 \sigma_{n-1}^2}$$

$$\sigma_n^2 = \sigma^2 m_{n-1} + m^2 \sigma_{n-1}^2$$

$$m_n = m^n$$

Case 1: $m = 1$ ($\sigma_0^2 = 0$)

$$\sigma_n^2 = \sigma^2 + \sigma_{n-1}^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_1^2 = \sigma^2, \sigma_2^2 = 2\sigma^2, \sigma_3^2 = 3\sigma^2$$

$$\boxed{\sigma_n^2 = n\sigma^2} \quad \text{if } m = 1$$

Case 2: $m \neq 1$

$$\sigma_n^2 = \sigma^2 m^{n-1} + m^2 \sigma_{n-1}^2$$

$$\sigma_1^2 = \sigma^2 \quad (\sigma_0^2 = 0)$$

$$\sigma_2^2 = \sigma^2 m + m^2 \sigma_1^2 = \sigma^2 m \left[\frac{m^2 - 1}{m - 1} \right]$$

$$\sigma_3^2 = \sigma^2 m^2 + m^2 \sigma_2^2 = \sigma^2 m^2 + m^2 \left[\sigma^2 m \left(\frac{m^2 - 1}{m - 1} \right) \right]$$

$$= \sigma^2 m^2 \left[\frac{m^3 - 1}{m - 1} \right]$$

\vdots \vdots

$\sigma_n^2 = \sigma^2 m^{n-1} \left[\frac{m^n - 1}{m - 1} \right] \quad m \neq 1$

Use of Generating Functions

$$G(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma_n^2 z^n \quad (\sigma_0^2 = 0)$$

$$\sigma_n^2 = \sigma^2 m^{n-1} + m^2 \sigma_{n-1}^2$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma_n^2 z^n = \sigma^2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} m^{n-1} z^n + m^2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma_{n-1}^2 z^n$$

$$G(z) = \sigma^2 z \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (mz)^{n-1} + m^2 z \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sigma_{n-1}^2 z^{n-1}$$

$$G(z) = \sigma^2 z \frac{1}{1 - mz} + m^2 z G(z)$$

$$G(z)[1 - m^2 z] = \sigma^2 z / (1 - mz)$$

$$G(z) = \sigma^2 z / (1 - m^2 z)(1 - mz)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
G(z) &= \sigma^2 z / (1 - m^2 z)(1 - mz) \\
&= \sigma^2 z \left\{ \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} (m^2 z)^r \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} (mz)^s \right\} \\
&= \sigma^2 z \left\{ \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} m^{2r+s} z^{r+s} \right\}, \quad n = r + s \quad 0 \leq r \leq n
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sigma^2 z \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n m^n \sum_{r=0}^n m^r = \sigma^2 z \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n m^n \left(\frac{1 - m^{n+1}}{1 - m} \right) \\
&= \sigma^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^{n+1} m^n \left(\frac{1 - m^{n+1}}{1 - m} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_{n+1}^2 = \sigma^2 m^n \left(\frac{m^{n+1} - 1}{m - 1} \right) \quad \text{or} \quad \sigma_n^2 = \sigma^2 m^{n-1} \left(\frac{m^n - 1}{m - 1} \right)$$

$$m_n = m^n$$

If $m > 1$, $m_n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

If $m < 1$, $m_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

If $m = 1$, $m_n = m$ always

Application: Nuclear Reactors

A neutron (0^{th} generation) is introduced into a fissionable material. If it hits a nucleus it will produce a random number of new neutrons (1^{st} generation). This process continues as each new neutron behaves like the original neutron.

$X_n =$ No. of neutrons after n collisions

$$m_n = m^n$$

If $m > 1$, each neutron produces on average more than one neutron and reaction is explosive—(nuclear explosion or meltdown).

If $m < 1$, reaction eventually dies out.

In nuclear power station, $m > 1$ to reach “hot stage”. Once hot, moderator rods are inserted to remove neutrons and reduce m . Hence reactor is controlled. The moderator rods are continually removed and inserted to keep temperature in a given range. (Heat is converted to electricity).

Application: Family Names

Consider only male offspring who will carry family name. If $m < 1$, family name will eventually die out as $m^n \rightarrow 0$. Males in historical times would keep marrying until a wife could produce a male heir.

i.e. $P\{X_n \geq 1\} = 1 \Rightarrow m \geq 1$.

7.4 Appendix: Notes on Matrices: I

Let $A : n \times n$ matrix

$x_i : n \times 1$ vector

Eigenvalues:

$|A - \lambda I| = 0$ Polynomial in λ of degree n . The eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the zeros of the polynomial.

Eigenvectors

If $Ax_i = \lambda_i x_i \quad i = 1, \dots, n$ then $x_i (n \times 1)$ are the right eigenvectors associated with λ_i .

If $y_i' A = \lambda_i y_i' \quad i = 1, \dots, n$ then $y_i (n \times 1)$ are the left eigenvectors associated with λ_i .

$$\Rightarrow x_i' y_j = 0, \quad i \neq j$$

Proof: $Ax_i = \lambda_i x_i$, $y_j' Ax_i = \lambda_j y_j' x_i = \lambda_i y_j' x_i$

If $y_j' x_i \neq 0$, then $\lambda_i = \lambda_j$ which is false. Hence $y_j' x_i = 0$.

Scale x_i , and y_i so that $x_i' y_i = 1$

Define

$$X^{n \times n} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$$

$$Y^{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1' \\ y_2' \\ \vdots \\ y_n' \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore $AX = XD$ and $YA = DY$ where $D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$. We can write $A = XDX^{-1} = Y^{-1}DY$. Hence $X = Y^{-1}$.

Since

$$A = XDX^{-1}$$

$$A^2 = XDX^{-1}XDX^{-1} = XD^2X^{-1}$$

$$A^m = XD^mX^{-1}, \quad D^m = \text{diag}(\lambda_1^m, \dots, \lambda_n^m)$$

Idempotent Decomposition

$$A^m = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^m x_i y_i' = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^m E_i$$

$$E_i = x_i y_i' \quad \text{and} \quad E_i^2 = E_i, \quad E_i E_j = 0 \quad i \neq j$$

If A is stochastic $\underline{1}'A = \underline{1}'$ (columns add to unity), then $\lambda = 1$ is the largest eigenvalue.

$$P = \sum_1^n \lambda_i E_i, \quad P^m = \sum_1^n \lambda_i^m E_i$$

as $m \rightarrow \infty$, $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P^m = E_1 = y_1 x_1'$