CS70: Jean Walrand: Lecture 33.

Markov Chains 2

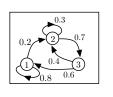
- 1. Review
- 2. Distribution
- 3. Irreducibility
- 4. Convergence

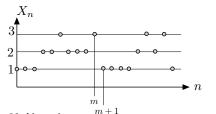
Review

- Markov Chain:
 - ► Finite set \mathcal{X} ; π_0 ; $P = \{P(i,j), i, j \in \mathcal{X}\}$;
 - $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathscr{X}$
 - ► $Pr[X_{n+1} = j \mid X_0, ..., X_n = i] = P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}, n \ge 0.$
 - Note:

$$Pr[X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_n = i_n] = \pi_0(i_0)P(i_0, i_1)\cdots P(i_{n-1}, i_n).$$

- First Passage Time:
 - $A \cap B = \emptyset$; $\beta(i) = E[T_A | X_0 = i]$; $\alpha(i) = P[T_A < T_B | X_0 = i]$





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Let
$$\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$$
. Note that

$$Pr[X_{m+1} = j] = \sum_{i} Pr[X_{m+1} = j, X_m = i]$$

$$= \sum_{i} Pr[X_m = i] Pr[X_{m+1} = j \mid X_m = i]$$

$$= \sum_{i} \pi_m(i) P(i, j).$$

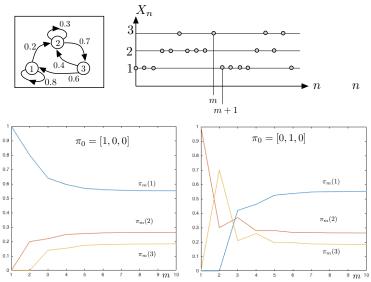
$$\pi_{m+1}(j) = \sum_{i} \pi_m(i) P(i, j), \forall j \in \mathcal{X}.$$

Hence,

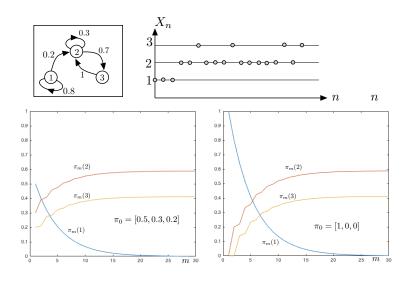
With π_m, π_{m+1} as a row vectors, these identities are written as $\pi_{m+1} = \pi_m P$.

Thus, $\pi_1 = \pi_0 P$, $\pi_2 = \pi_1 P = \pi_0 P P = \pi_0 P^2$,.... Hence,

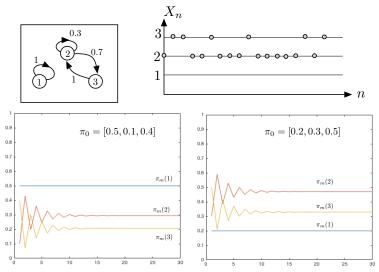
$$\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n, n \ge 0.$$



As *m* increases, π_m converges to a vector that does not depend on π_0 .



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As m increases, π_m converges to a vector that depends on π_0 (obviously, since $\pi_m(1) = \pi_0(1), \forall m$).

Balance Equations

Question: Is there some π_0 such that $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$?

Definition A distribution π_0 such that $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ is said to be an invariant distribution.

Theorem A distribution π_0 is invariant iff $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$. These equations are called the balance equations.

Proof:
$$\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$$
, so that $\pi_n = \pi_0, \forall n \text{ iff } \pi_0 P = \pi_0$.

Thus, if π_0 is invariant, the distribution of X_n is always the same as that of X_0 .

Of course, this does not mean that X_n does not move. It means that the probability that it leaves a state i is equal to the probability that it enters state i.

The balance equations say that $\sum_{j} \pi(j) P(j, i) = \pi(i)$. That is,

$$\sum_{j \neq i} \pi(j) P(j,i) = \pi(i) (1 - P(i,i)) = \pi(i) \sum_{j \neq i} P(i,j).$$

Thus, Pr[enter i] = Pr[leave i].

Balance Equations

Theorem A distribution π_0 is invariant iff $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$. These equations are called the balance equations.

Example 1: $1-a \qquad 1-b \qquad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$

$$\pi P = \pi \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1 - a & a \\ b & 1 - b \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \quad \pi(1)(1 - a) + \pi(2)b = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(1)a + \pi(2)(1 - b) = \pi(2)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \quad \pi(1)a = \pi(2)b.$$

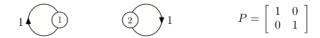
These equations are redundant! We have to add an equation: $\pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$. Then we find

$$\pi = \left[\frac{b}{a+b}, \frac{a}{a+b}\right].$$

Balance Equations

Theorem A distribution π_0 is invariant iff $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$. These equations are called the balance equations.

Example 2:



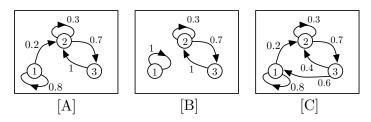
$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \Leftrightarrow \pi(1) = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(2) = \pi(2).$$

Every distribution is invariant for this Markov chain. This is obvious, since $X_n = X_0$ for all n. Hence, $Pr[X_n = i] = Pr[X_0 = i], \forall (i, n)$.

Irreducibility

Definition A Markov chain is irreducible if it can go from every state i to every state j (possibly in multiple steps).

Examples:



- [A] is not irreducible. It cannot go from (2) to (1).
- [B] is not irreducible. It cannot go from (2) to (1).
- [C] is irreducible. It can go from every *i* to every *j*.

If you consider the graph with arrows when P(i,j) > 0, irreducible means that there is a single connected component.

Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

Theorem A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector $\pi = [\pi(1), ..., \pi(K)]$ such that $\pi P = \pi$ and $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$.

Proof: See EE126, or lecture note 24. (We will not expect you to understand this proof.)

Note: We know already that some irreducible Markov chains have multiple invariant distributions.

Fact: If a Markov chain has two different invariant distributions π and ν , then it has infinitely many invariant distributions. Indeed, $p\pi + (1-p)\nu$ is then invariant since

$$[p\pi + (1-p)v]P = p\pi P + (1-p)vP = p\pi + (1-p)v.$$

Long Term Fraction of Time in States

Theorem Let X_n be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution π .

Then, for all i,

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{m=0}^{n-1}1\{X_m=i\}\to \pi(i), \text{ as } n\to\infty.$$

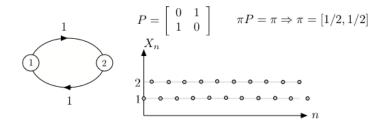
The left-hand side is the fraction of time that $X_m = i$ during steps 0, 1, ..., n-1. Thus, this fraction of time approaches $\pi(i)$.

Proof: See EE126. Lecture note 24 gives a plausibility argument.

Long Term Fraction of Time in States

Theorem Let X_n be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution π . Then, for all i, $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \to \pi(i)$, as $n \to \infty$.

Example 1:

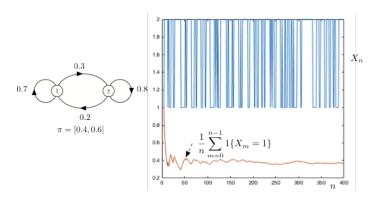


The fraction of time in state 1 converges to 1/2, which is $\pi(1)$.

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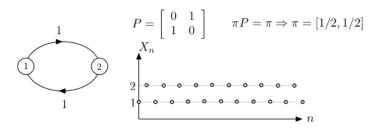
Example 2:



Convergence to Invariant Distribution

Question: Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does π_n approach the unique invariant distribution π ?

Answer: Not necessarily. Here is an example:



Assume $X_0 = 1$. Then $X_1 = 2, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 2,...$ Thus, if $\pi_0 = [1,0]$, $\pi_1 = [0,1]$, $\pi_2 = [1,0]$, $\pi_3 = [0,1]$, etc. Hence, π_0 does not converge to $\pi = [1/2,1/2]$.

Periodicity

Theorem Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

$$d(i) := g.c.d.\{n > 0 \mid Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

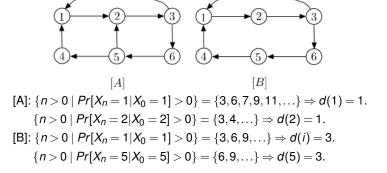
has the same value for all states i.

Proof: See Lecture notes 24.

Definition If d(i) = 1, the Markov chain is said to be aperiodic.

Otherwise, it is periodic with period d(i).

Example



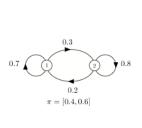
Convergence of π_n

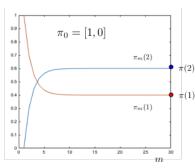
Theorem Let X_n be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution π . Then, for all $i \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$\pi_n(i) \to \pi(i)$$
, as $n \to \infty$.

Proof See EE126, or Lecture notes 24.

Example



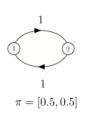


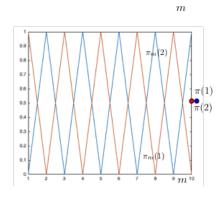
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Proof See EE126, or Lecture notes 24. **Example**



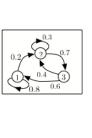


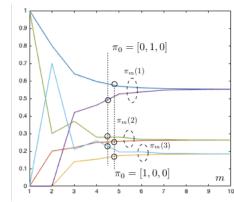
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Theorem Let X_n be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution π . Then, for all $i \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$\pi_n(i) \to \pi(i)$$
, as $n \to \infty$.

Proof See EE126, or Lecture notes 24. **Example**





Calculating π

Let *P* be irreducible. How do we find π ?

Example:
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

One has $\pi P = \pi$, i.e., $\pi [P - I] = \mathbf{0}$ where *I* is the identity matrix:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8-1 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3-1 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0-1 \end{bmatrix} = [0,0,0].$$

However, the sum of the columns of P-I is $\mathbf{0}$. This shows that these equations are redundant: If all but the last one hold, so does the last one. Let us replace the last equation by $\pi\mathbf{1}=1$, i.e., $\sum_j \pi(j)=1$:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8-1 & 0.2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0.3-1 & 1 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0,0,1].$$

Hence,

$$\pi = [0,0,1] \begin{vmatrix} 0.8-1 & 0.2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0.3-1 & 1 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \approx [0.55, 0.26, 0.19]$$

Summary

Markov Chains

- ► Markov Chain: $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, ..., X_n = i] = P(i, j)$
- ► FSE: $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_{j} P(i,j)\beta(j)$; $\alpha(i) = \sum_{j} P(i,j)\alpha(j)$.
- $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$
- \blacktriangleright π is invariant iff $\pi P = \pi$
- ▶ Irreducible \Rightarrow one and only one invariant distribution π
- ▶ Irreducible \Rightarrow fraction of time in state *i* approaches $\pi(i)$
- ▶ Irreducible + Aperiodic $\Rightarrow \pi_n \rightarrow \pi$.
- ▶ Calculating π : One finds $\pi = [0,0...,1]Q^{-1}$ where $Q = \cdots$.