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**Chapter 6:**  
**An overview of Discrete Markov Chain**  
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## Introduction

### Definition:

A finite state, discrete Markov Chain is a sequence of random variables  $X_n$  ( $n = 0, 1, \dots$ ) where  $X_n$  take values in the finite set  $S = (0, 1, \dots, N - 1)$  and are called the states of the Markov chain.

$n$  : is the stages or time periods.

if  $X_n = i$  : process is said to be in state  $i$  at time  $n$ .

A Markov must satisfy the following property:

$$P(X_n = j | X_{n-1} = i, X_{n-2} = k, \dots, X_0 = m) = P(X_n = j | X_{n-1} = i) = p^{(1)}(i, j), \quad i, j, k, \dots, m \in S$$

It means that:

The conditional distribution at time  $n$ , given all the past states  $X_0 = m, \dots, X_{n-1} = i$ , only depends on the immediately preceding state,  $X_{n-1} = i$ .

Particular case: a sequence of independent random variables.

$p_{ij}$  is the transition probability

It is the probability that the chain at time  $n$  is in the state  $j$ , given that at time  $n - 1$  it was in state  $i$ .

### State of the system:

A matrix  $P$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} p(0,0) & \dots & p(0,N-1) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ p(N-1,0) & \dots & p(N-1,N-1) \end{bmatrix}$$

- describes the  $(N \times N)$  probability of transition of the chain in *one* time period.
- The probability of a transition from a given state to another depends on the two states and not on time.
- The  $(i + 1)$ th row of  $P$  is the probability distribution of values of  $X_n$  under the condition that  $X_{n-1} = i$ .
- Every entry of  $P$  satisfies  $p(i, j) \geq 0$ , and every row of  $P$  satisfies:

$$\sum_j p(i, j) = 1$$

Example:

When  $S = \{0, 1, 2\}$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} p(0,0) & p(0,1) & p(0,2) \\ p(1,0) & p(1,1) & p(1,2) \\ p(2,0) & p(2,1) & p(2,2) \end{bmatrix}$$

Question:

Calculate the probability that a random variable will be in state 2, at time  $2 + m$ , given that it was in stage 1 at time  $m$ :

$$p^{(2)}(1,2) = P(X_{2+m} = 2 | X_m = 1) \quad (1)$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^2 P(X_{2+m} = 2, X_{1+m} = j | X_m = 1) = \quad (2)$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^2 P(X_{1+m} = j | X_m = 1) P(X_{2+m} = 2 | X_{1+m} = j) \quad (3)$$

$$p(1,0)p(0,2) + p(1,1)p(1,2) + p(1,2)p(2,2) \quad (4)$$

Last line can be recognized as the product of row 2 of  $P$  (associated with state 1) and column 3 of  $P$  (associated with state 2).

In general:

$$p^{(n)}(i,j) = P(X_n = j | X_0 = i) = P(X_{n+k} = j | X_k = i)$$

The element  $p^{(n)}(i,j)$  is the  $(i+1, j+1)$  entry of  $P^n$  (Chapman-Kolmogorov).

$$\begin{aligned} p^{(m+n)}(i,j) &= P(X_{m+n} = j | X_0 = i) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} P(X_{m+n} = j, X_m = k | X_0 = i) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} P(X_{m+n} = j | X_m = k) P(X_m = k | X_0 = i) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} p^{(m)}(i,k) p^{(n)}(k,j) \end{aligned}$$

The matrix summarizing the equation above by:

$$P^{m+n} = P^m P^n$$

**Long-Term behavior:**

Let  $\pi^{(n)}$  be the  $N$ -dimensional row vector denoting the probability distribution of  $X_n$ .  
 The  $i^{(th)}$  component of  $\pi^{(n)}$  is

$$\pi^{(n)}(i) = P(X_n = i), i \in S$$

When  $n = 0$ ,

$\pi^{(0)}$ : the initial probability distribution of the chain.

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_n = j) &= \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} P(X_n = j | X_{n-1} = k) P(X_{n-1} = k) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} p(k, j) P(X_{n-1} = k), j = 0, 1, \dots, N-1 \end{aligned} \quad (*)$$

$P(X_n = j)$  is the  $(j + 1)^{th}$  element of  $\pi^{(n)}$

(\*) is the product of the row vector  $\pi^{(n-1)}$  with column  $(j + 1)$  of the transition matrix  $P$ .

So we have:

$$\pi^{(n)} = \pi^{(n-1)} P$$

and

$$\pi^{(1)} = \pi^{(0)} P, \pi^{(2)} = \pi^{(1)} P = \pi^{(0)} P P = \pi^{(0)} P^2$$

and so on....then we have:

$$\pi^{(n)} = \pi^{(0)} P^n$$

**Conclusion:**

- **The random evolution of the Markov chain is completely specified in terms of the distribution of the initial state and the transition probability matrix  $P$ .**
- **So given the initial probability distribution and the transition probability matrix, it is possible to describe the behavior of the process at any specified time period  $n$ .**

**Stationary Distribution:**

We have the following result:

**The convergence of the chain to a limiting distribution independent of any legal starting distribution.**

If  $P^n$  converges to some invariant matrix  $\pi'$ , then this should verify:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi' &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \pi^{(0)} P^n \\ &= (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \pi^{(0)} P^n) P \\ &= \pi' P \end{aligned}$$

The distribution  $\pi$  is said to be a **stationary distribution** (also known as the invariant or **equilibrium distribution**) if it satisfies

$$\pi' = \pi' P$$

*or*

$$\pi(j) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \pi(i)p(i,j)$$

Example:

Three-state space Markov chain:

Suppose  $S = \{0, 1, 2\}$  with the transition matrix

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} p(0,0) & p(0,1) & p(0,2) \\ p(1,0) & p(1,1) & p(1,2) \\ p(2,0) & p(2,1) & p(2,2) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

Meaning:

The probability distribution of the values of  $X_{n+1}$  given  $X_n = 1$  are:

$$p(1,0) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad p(1,1) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad p(1,2) = \frac{1}{4}$$

The element  $p(1,2)$  is the probability that the system moves from states 1 to state 2 in *one* transition.

we have

$$P^4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2760 & 0.4653 & 0.2587 \\ 0.2326 & 0.4485 & 0.3189 \\ 0.1725 & 0.4251 & 0.4024 \end{bmatrix}$$

and  $p^4(1,2) = 0.3189$  is the probability of moving from state 1 to state 2 in *four* transitions.

If the starting probability distribution of the chain is

$$\pi^{(0)} = (0 \ 1 \ 0)$$

then we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi^{(1)} &= (0.2500 \ 0.5000 \ 0.2500) \\ \pi^{(2)} &= (0.2500 \ 0.4583 \ 0.2917) \\ \pi^{(4)} &= (0.2396 \ 0.4514 \ 0.3090) \\ \pi^{(5)} &= (0.2326 \ 0.4485 \ 0.3189) \end{aligned}$$

So the system converges to the stationary distribution

$$\pi' = (0.2222 \ 0.4444 \ 0.3333)$$

We can obtain this uniquely using

$$\pi' = \pi' P \text{ and } \pi(j) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \pi(i)p(i,j)$$

Suppose that

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

we have

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

The system of equation to be solved is:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\pi(0)}{2} + \frac{\pi(1)}{4} &= \pi(0) \\ \frac{\pi(0)}{2} + \frac{\pi(1)}{2} + \frac{1 - \pi(1) - \pi(0)}{3} &= \pi(1) \end{aligned}$$

the unique solution is

$$\pi(0) = 2/9, \ \pi(1) = 4/9, \ \pi(2) = 1 - \pi(1) - \pi(0) = 3/9$$

## Aperiodicity and Irreducibility

### Aperiodicity

To have convergence and uniqueness, the finite chain is required to be aperiodic and irreducible.

Consider the chain which has this only possible transitions are:

$$1 \rightarrow 2, \quad 2 \rightarrow 3 \quad 3 \rightarrow 1$$

Which means that the states are reached every 3 movements of the chain.

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} 2 \rightarrow 3 & 3 \rightarrow 1 & 1 \rightarrow 2 & 2 \rightarrow 3 & 3 \rightarrow 1 & 2 \rightarrow 3 \\ & & \text{time 3} & & & \text{time 6} \\ 3 \rightarrow 1 & 1 \rightarrow 2 & 2 \rightarrow 3 & & & \\ & & \text{time 9} & & & \end{array}$$

So we say that this state has period equal to 3.

### Definition:

**If the period of state  $j$  of the chain is  $d$ , it means that  $p^{(n)}(j,j) = 0$  whenever  $n$  is not divisible by  $d$ , and the largest integer with this property.**

or

**The period  $d$  of a chain is the greatest common divisor of all  $n$  such that**

$$p^{(n)}(j,j) > 0.$$

An aperiodic state has period 1, or alternatively, a state  $j$  is aperiodic if  $p^{(n)}(j,j) > 0$  for all sufficiently large  $n$ .

So a sufficient condition for a state to have period 1 is

$$P(X_n = j | X_0 = j) \text{ and } P(X_{n+1} = j | X_0 = j) > 0$$

$$p^{(n)}(j,j) > 0 \text{ and } p^{(n+1)}(j,j) > 0$$

So when  $p(j,j) = P(X_n = j | X_{n-1} = j) > 0$  for all  $j$

**Irreducibility:**

**Definition:**

**A chain is called irreducible, if each state is reachable from every other state in a finite number of transitions**

Irreducibility means that for every pair of states  $(i,j)$ ,

$$p^{(k)}(i,j) = P(X_{n+k} = j | X_n = i) > 0 \text{ for } k \geq 0$$

**Definition 1:**

**A chain that is irreducible with period  $d$  has a transition probability matrix with  $d$  eigenvalues with absolute value 1.**

**Definition 2:**

**A chain which is aperiodic and irreducible is said to be: ergodic**

**Definition 3:**

**An ergodic Markov chain converges to a unique stationary distribution.**

**Example 1:**

Consider a Markov chain with the following transition probability matrix

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculate:  $P^{(1)}, P^{(2)}, P^{(3)}, P^{(4)}, \dots$

if  $n$  is even:

$$P^n = \begin{bmatrix} 0.25 & 0 & 0.50 & 0 & 0.25 \\ 0 & 0.50 & 0 & 0.50 & 0 \\ 0.25 & 0 & 0.50 & 0 & 0.25 \\ 0 & 0.50 & 0 & 0.50 & 0 \\ 0.25 & 0 & 0.50 & 0 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix}$$

and is  $n$  is odd:

$$P^n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0.50 & 0 & 0.50 & 0 \\ 0.25 & 0 & 0.50 & 0 & 0.25 \\ 0 & 0.50 & 0 & 0.50 & 0 \\ 0.25 & 0 & 0.50 & 0 & 0.25 \\ 0 & 0.50 & 0 & 0.50 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The Markov chain is irreducible because  $p^{(n)}(i,j) > 0$  for all  $i,j$

Periodic with period  $d = 2$

It means that starting in state 1, for example,  $p^n(1,1) > 0$  at times  $n = 2,4,6,8,\dots$  and the greatest common divisor of the values that  $n$  can take is 2.

The unique stationary distribution is

$$\begin{aligned} \pi &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} (\pi^{(n)} + \pi^{(n+1)}) \\ &= [0.125 \ 0.25 \ 0.25 \ 0.25 \ 0.125] \end{aligned}$$

we can verify that the eigenvalues of  $P$  are  $-1, 0, 1, -1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2}$  and there are  $d = 2$  eigenvalues with absolute value 1

Example 2:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

this system has 5 stationary distributions so for large  $n$  :

Calculate  $P^{(1)}, P^{(2)}, \dots, P^{(n)}$

$$P^n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.75 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.25 \\ 0.50 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.50 \\ 0.25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.75 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The rows of  $P^n$  represent the five stationary distributions, and each of these satisfy  $\pi' = \pi' P$

Example 3:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{6} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{3}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{3}{24} & \frac{16}{24} & \frac{5}{24} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{5}{6} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^n = \begin{bmatrix} 0.25 & 0.75 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.25 & 0.75 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.182 & 0.364 & 0.455 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.182 & 0.364 & 0.455 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.182 & 0.364 & 0.455 \end{bmatrix}$$

The chain split into two sub-chain, each converges to an equilibrium distribution and one can not move from state spaces  $\{0, 1\}$  to state  $\{2, 3, 4\}$ .

### Reversible Markov chain:

Consider a Markov chain with state space  $S$  that converges to an invariant distribution  $\pi$ .

Let  $x \in S$  denote the current state of the system.

Let  $y \in S$  denote the current state at the next step.

Let  $p(x, y)$  be the probability of a transition from  $x$  to  $y$

Let  $p(y, x)$  be the probability of a transition from  $y$  to  $x$ .

A Markov chain is said to be reversible if it satisfies the condition:

$$\pi(x)p(x, y) = \pi(y)p(y, x)$$

then we have:

$$\pi(x) = \sum_{y \in S} \pi(y)p(y,x)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(x)p(x,y) &= P(X_n = x)P(X_{n+1} = y|X_n = x) \\ &= P(X_n = x, X_{n+1} = y), \text{ for all } x, y \in S.\end{aligned}$$

So the reversibility condition can also be written as

$$P(X_n = x, X_{n+1} = y) = P(X_n = y, X_{n+1} = x) \text{ for all } x, y \in S.$$

The reversibility will be important in deriving the appropriate transition kernels function for the Metropolis algorithm or other Markov chain.