

Markov Chains

Let's first recall the definition of independent trials.

A set of possible outcomes $\bar{E}_1, \bar{E}_2, \dots$, is given. With each outcome \bar{E}_k there is associated a probability P_k . The prob. of a sampled sequence is defined as

$$P \{ (\bar{E}_{j_0}, \bar{E}_{j_1}, \dots, \bar{E}_{j_n}) \} = P_{j_0} P_{j_1} \dots P_{j_n}$$

In the theory of Markov chains.

The outcome of any trial depends on the outcome of the directly preceding trial only.

Conditional prob. P_{jk} : given that \bar{E}_j has occurred at some trial, the prob. of \bar{E}_k at the next trial.

a_k : probability of \bar{E}_k at the initial trial.

For instance, here are prob. of some sample sequences.

$$P \{ (\bar{E}_j, \bar{E}_k) \} = a_j P_{jk}$$

$$P \{ (\bar{E}_j, \bar{E}_k, \bar{E}_r) \} = a_j P_{jk} P_{kr}$$

and generally

$$P \{ (\bar{E}_{j_0}, \bar{E}_{j_1}, \dots, \bar{E}_{j_n}) \} = a_{j_0} P_{j_0 j_1} P_{j_1 j_2} \dots P_{j_{n-1} j_n}$$

Ex Random walk

$\cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot$
 $-3 \quad -2 \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3$

events: $\{ \dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots \}$

$$P_{jk} = 0 \quad \text{if } |j-k| > 1$$

for a symmetric random walk we might say

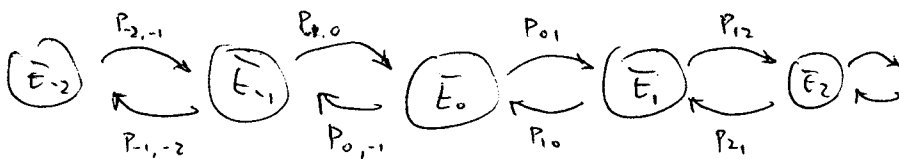
$$P_{jj} = 0$$

$$P_{jk} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{if } |j-k| = 1$$

Graphically we would draw arrows with (labelled probs. —

Indeed that is often a good way to think of a Markov chain.

Draw a graph (like a finite state automata) and label the transitions with probs.



Definition of Markov Chain

Def A sequence of trials with possible outcomes $\bar{E}_1, \bar{E}_2, \dots$ is called a Markov chain if the probabilities of sample sequences are defined by

$$P\{\bar{E}_{j_0}, \bar{E}_{j_1}, \dots, \bar{E}_{j_n}\} = a_{j_0} P_{j_0 j_1} \dots P_{j_{n-1} j_n}$$

in terms of a probability distribution $\{a_k\}$ for \bar{E}_k at the initial (or zero-th) trial and fixed conditional probabilities P_{jk} of \bar{E}_k given that \bar{E}_j has occurred at the preceding trial.

\bar{E}_k : states of the system

a_k : the prob. of \bar{E}_k at the initial trial.

P_{jk} : the prob. of a transition from \bar{E}_j to \bar{E}_k .

The matrix (finite or infinite) of transition probabilities

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} & P_{13} & \dots \\ P_{21} & P_{22} & P_{23} & \dots \\ P_{31} & P_{32} & P_{33} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

is a square matrix with non-negative elements and unit row sums.

Such a matrix is called a Stochastic matrix.

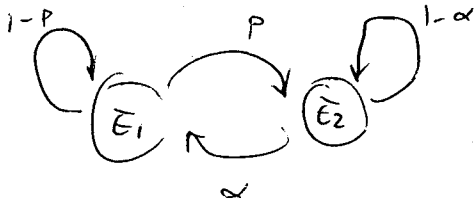
Any stochastic matrix with initial distribution $\{a_k\}$ completely defines a Markov chain with states $\bar{E}_1, \bar{E}_2, \dots$,

Ex 1

There are only two possible states \bar{E}_1 and \bar{E}_2 . The matrix of transition probs is

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1-p & p \\ \alpha & 1-\alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

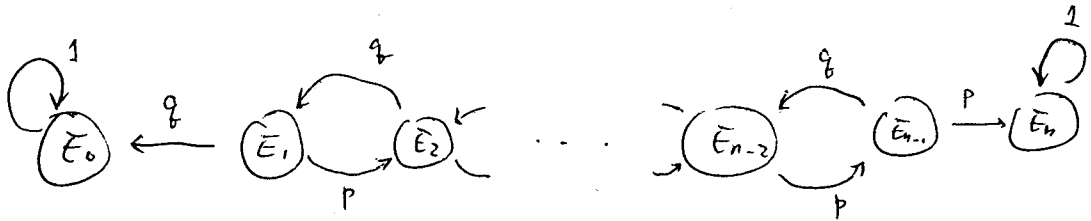
or in the graphical form



Remark This chain could be realized by the following motion of a particle moving along the x -axis. Its absolute speed remains constant but the direction of the motion can be reversed. The system is in state \bar{E}_1 if the particle moves in the positive direction and in state \bar{E}_2 if the motion is to the left. Then p is the prob. of a reversal when the particle moves to the right and α the prob. of a reversal when it moves to the left.

Ex 2 (Random Walk with Absorbing Barriers)

Possible states: $\bar{E}_0, \bar{E}_1, \dots, \bar{E}_n$

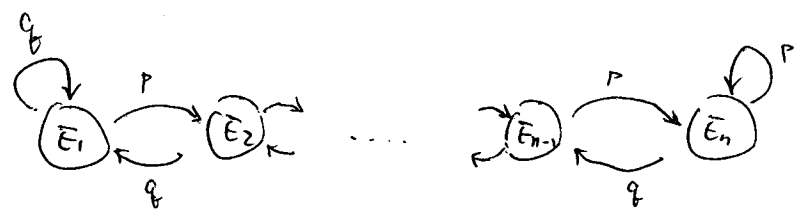


$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ q & 0 & p & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & q & 0 & p & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & & & \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & q & 0 & p \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Each of the "interior" states $\bar{E}_1, \dots, \bar{E}_{n-1}$, admit transitions only to its left neighbor (with prob. p) and its right neighbor (with prob. q)
- No transition is possible from \bar{E}_0 or \bar{E}_n to any other state. Once \bar{E}_0 or \bar{E}_n is reached, the system stays there forever.

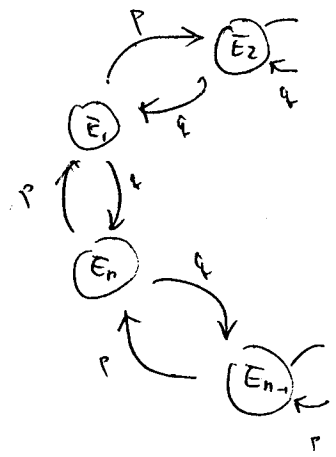
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Ex 3 (Reflecting Barriers)



$$P = \begin{pmatrix} q & p & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ q & 0 & p & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & q & 0 & p & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & & & \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & q & 0 & p \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & q & p \end{pmatrix}$$

Ex 4 (Cyclical Random Walks)



$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & p & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & q \\ q & 0 & p & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & q & 0 & p & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & & & \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & q & 0 & p \\ p & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & q \end{pmatrix}$$

More generally, we may permit the transitions between any two states. Let q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{n-1} be,

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} q_0 & q_1 & q_2 & \dots & q_{n-2} & q_{n-1} \\ q_{n-1} & q_0 & q_1 & \dots & q_{n-3} & q_{n-2} \\ & & \vdots & & & \\ q_1 & q_2 & q_3 & \dots & q_{n-1} & q_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

resp, the prob of staying fixed or moving 1, 2, ..., n-1 units to the right (where k units to the right is the same as n-k units to the left) the P is shown on the left

Higher Transition Probabilities

Denote by $P_{jk}^{(l)}$ the prob. of a transition from E_j to E_k in exact l steps. This is the sum of the probs. of all possible paths $E_j \bar{E}_j, \dots, \bar{E}_{j_{l-1}}, E_k, \dots, l \geq 1$.

$$P_{jk}^{(l)} = \sum_{j_1, \dots, j_{l-1}} P \{ (\bar{E}_{j_0}, \bar{E}_{j_1}, \dots, \bar{E}_{j_{l-1}}, E_k) \}$$

In particular $P_{jk}^{(1)} = P_{jk}$ and

$$P_{jk}^{(2)} = \sum_s P_{js} P_{sk}$$

We define $P_{jk}^{(1)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j=k \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq k \end{cases}$ and recursively we have

$$P_{jk}^{(l+1)} = \sum_s P_{js} P_{sk}^{(l)}$$

In fact, if we arrange $P_{jk}^{(l)}$ into a matrix denoted by P^l , then P^l is just the chain product of l identical matrices P .

Ex For independent trials it is clear without calculation that $P^l = P$ for all l .

Absolute Probabilities

Recall a_j stands for the state E_j at the initial trial. The (unconditional) prob. of entering the state E_k at the l th step is

$$a_k^{(l)} = \sum_j a_j P_{jk}^{(l)} \tag{1}$$

Usually we let the process start from a fixed state E_i ; that is, we put $a_i = 1$. In this case $a_k^{(n)} = P_{ik}^{(n)}$.

We feel intuitively that the influence of the initial state should gradually wear off so that for large n the distribution (1) should be nearly independent of the initial distribution $\{a_j\}$. This is the case if $P_{jk}^{(n)}$ converges to a limit independent of j , that is, if P^n converges to a matrix with identical rows. We shall soon see that this is usually so.

Closures and Closed Sets.

We shall say that E_k can be reached from E_j if there exists some $n \geq 0$ s.t. $P_{jk}^{(n)} > 0$.

Def 1 A set C of states is closed if no state outside C can be reached from any state E_j in C .

Def 2 For an arbitrary set C of states the smallest closed set containing C is called the closure of C .

Def 3 A single state E_k forming a closed set will be called absorbing.

Def 4 A Markov chain is irreducible if there exists no closed set other than the set of all states.

Clearly, C is closed if and only if $P_{jk} = 0$ whenever $j \in C$ and $k \notin C$

Th^m The matrix formed by deleting from P^d all rows and columns corresponding to states outside a closed set C is a stochastic matrix.

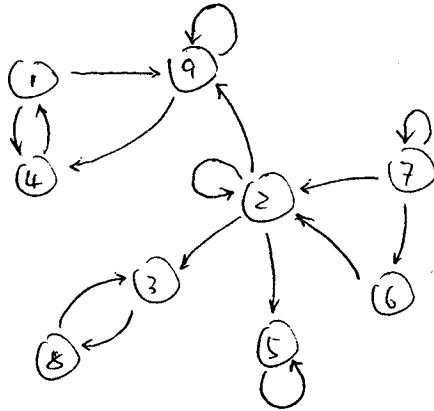
This means that we have a Markov chain defined on C and this subchain can be studied independent of all other states. For instance,

the state E_k is absorbing if and only if $P_{kk} = 1$. In this case the matrix reduces to a single element.

Ex

Consider a 9×9 matrix of transition, where "*" denotes positive elements

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & * & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & * & * & 0 & * & 0 & 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * & 0 \\ * & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & * & 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & * & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * \end{pmatrix}$$



\bar{E}_5 is absorbing.

\bar{E}_3 and \bar{E}_8 formed a closed set.

\bar{E}_1 , \bar{E}_4 , and \bar{E}_9 formed another closed set

The closure of \bar{E}_2 consists of $\bar{E}_1, \bar{E}_2, \bar{E}_3, \bar{E}_4, \bar{E}_5, \bar{E}_8, \bar{E}_9$

The closure of \bar{E}_7 consists of all nine states.

The closure of \bar{E}_6 consists of all states but \bar{E}_7

The above can be simplified by numbering the states in the order

$$\underline{\bar{E}_5 \bar{E}_3 \bar{E}_8 \bar{E}_1 \bar{E}_4 \bar{E}_9 \bar{E}_2 \bar{E}_6 \bar{E}_7}$$

The closed sets then contain only adjacent states.

Consider a chain with states $\bar{E}_1, \dots, \bar{E}_n$, s.t. $\bar{E}_1, \dots, \bar{E}_r$ form a closed set $C(r \leq n)$. Then the $r \times r$ submatrix of transition prob. matrix corresponding to its

P is stochastic.

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} Q & 0 \\ u & v \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} r & n-r \\ r & n-r \end{matrix}$$

The higher-order transition probs admits a similar partitioning

$$P^l = \begin{pmatrix} Q^l & 0 \\ u_l & v^l \end{pmatrix}$$

↑
note subscript
not superscript

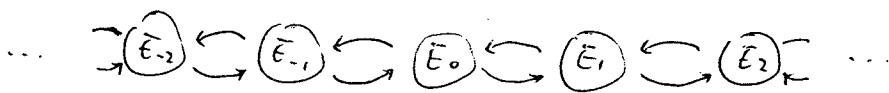
There are three obvious but interesting facts regarding P^l :

1. $P_{jk}^{(l)} = 0$ if $\bar{E}_j \in C$ and $\bar{E}_k \notin C$
2. For each pair $\bar{E}_j, \bar{E}_k \in C$, $P_{jk}^{(n)}$ is obtained from the recursion formula on page 7 with the summations restricted to the states of the closed set C .
3. The appearance of v^l indicates that the statement 2 remains true when C is replaced by its complement \bar{C} .
As a consequence, it will be possible to simplify the further study of Markov chains by considering separately the states of the closed set C and those of its complement \bar{C} .

Classification of States

Def The state E_j has period $t > 1$ if $P_{jj}^{(m)} = 0$ unless $m = vt$ is a multiple of t , and t is the largest integer with this property. The state E_j is aperiodic if no such $t > 1$ exists.

Ex 1 In an unrestricted random walk, all states have period 2.



Ex 2 In a random walk with absorbing barriers, the interior states have period 2, but the absorbing states E_0 and E_n are aperiodic.



Let $f_{jk}^{(m)}$ stand for the probability that in a process starting from E_j the first entry to \bar{E}_k occurs at the m th step; We put $f_{jk}^{(0)} = 0$ and

$$f_{jk} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} f_{jk}^{(m)}$$

$$\mu_j = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} m f_{jj}^{(m)}$$

Obviously, f_{jk} is the probability that starting from E_j , the system will ever reach E_k ; thus $f_{jk} \leq 1$.

When $f_{jk} = 1$, that is, a pass through \bar{E}_k is certain, $\{f_{jk}^{(m)}\}$ is a proper probability distribution referred to as the first-passage distribution for E_k , and $\mu_j < \infty$ is the mean recurrence time for E_j .

To calculate $f_{jk}^{(m)}$, we note that if the first passage through E_k occurs at the v th trial ($1 \leq v \leq m-1$), the (conditional) probability of E_k at the m th trial equals $P_{kk}^{(m-v)}$. So we have

$$P_{jk}^{(m)} = \sum_{v=1}^{m-1} f_{jk}^{(v)} P_{kk}^{(m-v)}$$

Letting successively $m = 1, 2, \dots$, we get recursively $f_{jk}^{(1)}, f_{jk}^{(2)}, \dots$,

Conversely, if $f_{jk}^{(m)}$ are known for $m = 1, 2, \dots$, then the same equation determines $P_{jk}^{(m)}$.

Def 1 The state E_j is persistent if $f_{jj} = 1$ and transient if $f_{jj} < 1$. A persistent state E_j is called null state if its mean recurrence time $\mu_j = \infty$.

The above theorem applies to periodic states also. It classifies all persistent states into null states and non-null states, the latter of which are of special interest.

Def 2 An aperiodic persistent state E_j with $\mu_j < \infty$ is called ergodic.

The theorem on the next page expresses the conditions for the different types in terms of the transition probabilities $P_{ij}^{(m)}$

Thm (i) E_j is transient if and only if

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} P_{ij}^{(m)} < \infty.$$

In this case

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P_{ij}^{(m)} < \infty \quad \text{for all } i.$$

(ii) E_j is a (persistent) null state if and only if

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} P_{ij}^{(m)} = \infty, \quad \text{but } P_{ij}^{(m)} \rightarrow 0$$

as $m \rightarrow \infty$. In this case

$$P_{ij}^{(m)} = 0 \quad \text{for all } i.$$

(iii) An aperiodic (persistent) state E_j is ergodic if and only if $\mu_j < \infty$. In this case as $m \rightarrow \infty$

$$P_{ij}^{(m)} \rightarrow f_{ij} \mu_j^{-1}.$$

Corollary If E_j is aperiodic, then as $m \rightarrow \infty$ either

$$P_{ij}^{(m)} \rightarrow 0$$

or

$$P_{ij}^{(m)} \rightarrow f_{ij} \mu_j^{-1}.$$

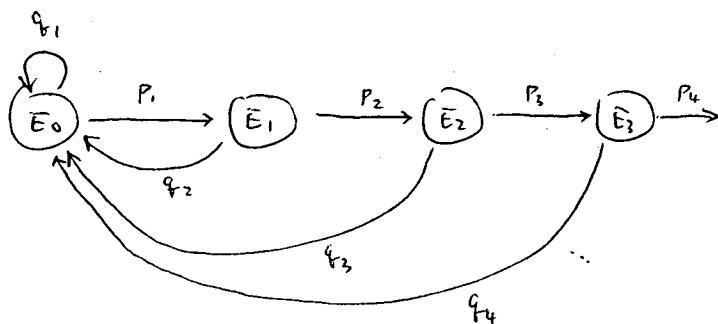
Ex (Markov chain connected with recurrent events)

Possible states $\bar{E}_0, \bar{E}_1, \dots$,

Transition probabilities

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} q_1 & p_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ q_2 & 0 & p_2 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ q_3 & 0 & 0 & p_3 & 0 & \dots \\ q_4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & p_4 & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

where $p_k + q_k = 1$



We may interpret the state \bar{E}_k as representing the "age" of the system.

When the system reaches age k , the aging process continues with probability p_{k+1} , but with probability q_{k+1} , it rejuvenates and starts afresh with age zero.

The probability that a recurrence time equals k is given by the product

$p_1 p_2 \dots p_{k-1} q_k$. Given a prescribed distribution $\{f_k\}$ for the recurrence times, we can choose the p_k s. It suffices to put $q_1 = 1 - p_1 = f_1$,

$q_2 = 1 - p_2 = f_2 / p_1$, and so on. Generally

$$p_k = \frac{1 - f_1 - \dots - f_k}{1 - f_1 - \dots - f_{k-1}}$$

E_x (continued)

The nature of the transition probability matrix P shows that a first return at the mth trial can only occur through the sequence

$$E_0 \rightarrow E_1 \rightarrow E_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow E_{m-1} \rightarrow E_0$$

and so

$$f_{00}^{(1)} = q_1$$

$$f_{00}^{(m)} = p_1 p_2 \dots p_{m-1} q_m,$$

for $m \geq 1$.

In the case where p_k are defined by

$$p_k = \frac{1 - f_1 - \dots - f_k}{1 - f_1 - \dots - f_{k-1}}$$

this reduces to $f_{00}^{(m)} = \{f_m\}$.

- Thus E_0 is transient if $\sum f_m < 1$.
- For a persistent E_0 the mean recurrence time μ_0 of E_0 coincides with the expectation of the distribution $\{f_m\}$.
- If E_0 has period t , then $f_m = 0$ except m is a multiple of t .

Irreducible Chains

Two states of the same type have the same period or they are both aperiodic; both are transient or else both are persistent; in the latter case both mean recurrence times are infinite or else both are finite.

Th^m 1 All states of an irreducible chain are of the same type.

Th^m 2 For a persistent E_j there exists unique irreducible closed set C containing E_j and such that for every E_i, E_k of states in C

$$f_{ik} = 1 \text{ and } f_{ki} = 1.$$

Th^m 2 implies that the closure of a persistent state is irreducible.

Ex Suppose $p_{ik} = 0$ whenever $k \leq j$ but $p_{i,j+1} > 0$.

Transitions take place only to higher states, and so no return to any state is possible. Every state E_j is transient. The closure of E_j consists of the states $E_j, E_{j+1}, E_{j+2}, \dots$, which contains the closed set of E_{j+1}, E_{j+2}, \dots . So there exists no irreducible sets.

Decompositions

Th^m 2 on page 18 implies that no transient state can ever be reached from a persistent state. If the chain contains both types of states, this means that the matrix P can be partitioned symbolically in the form

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} Q & 0 \\ U & V \end{pmatrix}$$

where Q corresponds to the persistent states. (However, Q may be further decomposable.)

Th^m The states of a Markov chain can be divided in a unique manner into non-overlapping sets T, C_1, C_2, \dots , such that

- (i) T consists of all transient states.
- (ii) If state E_j is in C_v , then $f_{jk} = 1$ for all $E_k \in C_v$, while $f_{jk} = 0$ for all E_k outside C_v .

So C_v is irreducible and contains persistent states of the same type.

Th^m In a finite chain there exist no null states, and it is impossible that all states are transient.

Invariant Distributions

We shall now concentrate on irreducible chains since every persistent state belongs to an irreducible set whose asymptotic behavior can be studied independently of the remaining states. All states of such a chain are of the same type. So we begin with the simplest case, namely, chains with finite mean recurrence time μ_j . We consider now chains composed of ergodic states, and postpone the discussion of periodic chains.

Thm In an irreducible chain with only ergodic elements the limits

$$u_k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{jk}^{(n)} \quad (1)$$

exist and are independent of the initial state j . Furthermore

$$u_k > 0,$$

$$\sum_k u_k = 1 \quad (2)$$

and

$$u_j = \sum_i u_i P_{ij}. \quad (3)$$

Conversely, suppose that the chain is irreducible and aperiodic, and that there exist numbers $u_k > 0$ satisfying (2) and (3), then all states are ergodic, the u_k 's are given by (1) and

$$u_k = 1/\mu_k \quad (4)$$

where μ_k is the mean recurrence time of E_k .

To better understand the last theorem, consider a process from an initial distribution $\{a_j\}$. The probability of the state E_k at the m th step is given by

$$a_k^{(m)} = \sum_j a_j P_{jk}^{(m)}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} a_k^{(m)} &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \sum_j a_j P_{jk}^{(m)} \\ &= \sum_j a_j \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P_{jk}^{(m)} \\ &= u_k \sum_j a_j \\ &= u_k. \end{aligned}$$

In other words, whatever the initial distribution, the probability of E_k tends to u_k . On the other hand, when $\{u_k\}$ is the initial distribution

i.e. $a_k = u_k$, then $a_k^{(1)} = \sum_j a_j P_{jk} = \sum_j u_j P_{jk} = u_k$ (by (3) on p. 20) and by induction $a_k^{(m)} = u_k$ for all m .

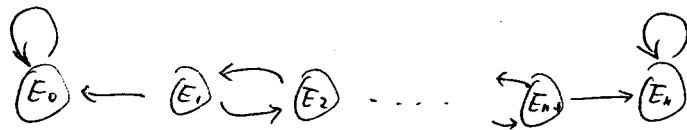
Def A probability distribution $\{u_k\}$ satisfying $u_k = \sum_i u_i P_{ik}$ is called invariant or stationary.

Then the theorem on page 20 can be reformulated as

Th^m An irreducible aperiodic chain possesses an invariant probability distribution $\{u_k\}$ if and only if it is ergodic. In this case $u_k > 0$ for all k , and the absolute probabilities $a_k^{(m)}$ tend to u_k irrespective of the initial distribution.

Criterion If a chain possesses an invariant probability distribution $\{u_k\}$, then $u_k = 0$ for each E_k that is either transient or a persistent null state.

Ex 1 Chains with several irreducible components may admit of several stationary solutions. An example is presented by the random walk with two absorbing states E_0 and E_n .



Every probability distribution $(\alpha, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 1-\alpha)$ is stationary.

Ex 2 Given a matrix of transition probabilities P_{ik} , it is not always easy to decide whether an invariant distribution $\{u_k\}$ exists.

A notable exception occurs when

$$P_{jk} = 0 \quad \text{for } |k-j| > 1, \quad \text{i.e. } P = \begin{pmatrix} P_{00} & P_{01} & \text{O} \\ P_{10} & P_{11} & P_{12} \\ \text{O} & P_{21} & P_{22} & P_{23} \\ & & \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

The defining relations $u_k = \sum_i u_i P_{ik}$ induces

$$u_0 = P_{00}u_0 + P_{10}u_1$$

$$u_i = P_{i-1,i}u_{i-1} + P_{i,i}u_i + P_{i+1,i}u_{i+1} \quad \text{for } i \geq 1$$

Ex 2 (continued) To avoid trivialities we assume $P_{j,j+1} > 0$ and $P_{j,j-1} > 0$ for all j . The above equations can be solved successively using that the row sums of the matrix P add to unity. We get

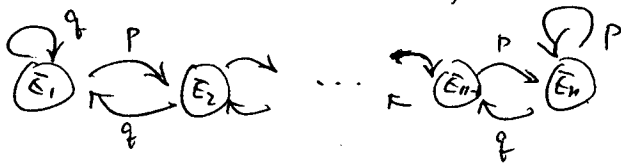
$$u_1 = \frac{P_{0,1}}{P_{1,0}} u_0, \quad u_2 = \frac{P_{0,1} P_{1,2}}{P_{1,0} P_{2,1}} u_0, \quad \dots, \quad u_k = \frac{P_{0,1} P_{1,2} \dots P_{k-1,k}}{P_{1,0} P_{2,1} \dots P_{k,k-1}} u_0, \quad \dots$$

To make the resulting sequence u_0, u_1, \dots , a probability distribution the normalizing factor u_0 must be chosen such that $\sum u_k = 1$. Such a choice is possible if and only if

$$\sum \frac{P_{0,1} P_{1,2} \dots P_{k-1,k}}{P_{1,0} P_{2,1} \dots P_{k,k-1}} < \infty \quad (*)$$

This is the necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of an invariant probability distribution.

Ex 3 (Reflecting barriers) This (with $n \leq \infty$) represents the special case



of the preceding example, with $P_{j,j+1} = p$ for all $j < n$ and

$P_{j,j-1} = q$ for all $j > 1$. When n is finite, there exists an

invariant distribution with u_k proportional to $(p/q)^k$. With

infinitely many states the convergence of (*) requires that $p < q$,

and in this case, $u_k = (1 - p/q)(p/q)^k$. From the general theory

of random walks, it is clear that the states are transient when $p < q$, and persistent null states when $p = q$.

Ex 4 In the example of recurrent events on page 16, the defining relations for an invariant probability distribution are

$$\begin{aligned} u_k &= p_k u_{k-1}, \quad k=1, 2, \dots \\ u_0 &= q_1 u_0 + q_2 u_1 + q_3 u_2 + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

So we get

$$u_k = p_1 \dots p_k u_0$$

And it is now easily seen that

$$\begin{aligned} q_1 u_0 + q_k u_{k-1} &= (1-p_1) u_0 + \dots + (1-p_k) u_{k-1} \\ &= u_0 - u_1 + u_1 - u_2 + \dots - u_{k-1} + u_{k-1} - u_k \\ &= u_0 - u_k \end{aligned}$$

Thus (1) is automatically satisfied whenever $u_k \rightarrow 0$ and an invariant probability distribution exists if and only if

$$\sum_k p_1 p_2 \dots p_k < \infty$$

Transient States

We saw that the persistent states of any Markov chain can be divided into non-overlapping closed sets consisting of irreducible set C_1, C_2, \dots , and a set T of transient states. When the system starts from a transient state, two contingencies arise

1. The system ultimately passes into one of the closed sets C_r and stays there forever.
2. The system remains forever in the transient set T .

Our problem consists in determining the corresponding probabilities.

Ex 1 (Martingales). In such a chain for every j the expectation of the probability distribution $\{P_{jk}\}$ equals j , that is, if

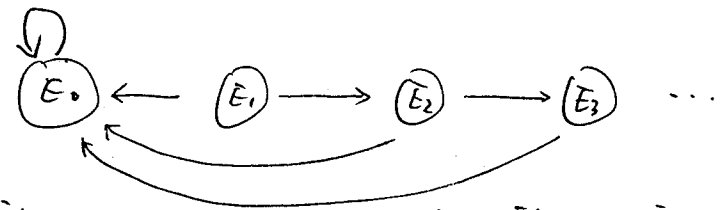
$$\sum_k P_{jk} k = j \tag{1}$$

Consider a finite chain E_0, \dots, E_n . Letting $j=0$ and $j=n$ we see that $P_{00} = P_{nn} = 1$. so E_0 and E_n are absorbing. To avoid trivialities we assume that the chain contains no further closed sets. Then the interior states E_1, \dots, E_{n-1} are transient, and so the process will ultimately terminate at E_0 or at E_n . By induction we infer from (1) that

$$\sum_{k=0}^n P_{jk}^{(m)} k = j \quad \text{for all } m.$$

Ex 1 (continued) But $P_{jk}^{(m)} \rightarrow 0$ for every transient E_k . So for all $i > 0$, $P_{in}^{(m)} \rightarrow i/n$. In other words, the probabilities of starting with E_i and being absorbed ultimately at E_0 and E_n are $1 - \frac{i}{n}$ and $\frac{i}{n}$, resp.

Ex 2 In the following chain, E_0 is absorbing while from other states



E_j transitions are possible to the right neighbor E_{j+1} and to E_0 , but to no other state. We put

$$P_{j0} = \epsilon_j, \quad P_{j,j+1} = 1 - \epsilon_j \quad \text{for } j \geq 1$$

where $\epsilon_j > 0$. With the initial state E_j , the probability of no absorption at E_0 in m trials equals

$$(1 - \epsilon_j)(1 - \epsilon_{j+1}) \dots (1 - \epsilon_{j+m-1}).$$

This product decreases as m increases and hence it approaches a limit λ_j . So the probability of ultimate absorption equals $1 - \lambda_j$ while with probability λ_j the system remains forever at transient states. The necessary and sufficient condition for $\lambda_j > 0$ is

$$\sum \epsilon_k < \infty$$

Substochastic Matrix

The study of transient state depends on the submatrix of P obtained by deleting all rows and columns corresponding to persistent states.

The row sums of the resulting submatrix are no longer unity

Def A square matrix Q with elements q_{ik} is substochastic if $q_{ik} \geq 0$ and all row sums are ≤ 1

- Every stochastic matrix is substochastic
- Every substochastic matrix can be augmented to become stochastic by adding an absorbing state E_0 .

What we said about stochastic matrices applies without essential change also to substochastic matrix. Let q_{ij} denote the conditional probabilities in the substochastic matrix Q . The elements of Q^n satisfies the recurrence relation

$$q_{ik}^{(m+1)} = \sum_v q_{iv} q_{vk}^{(m)}$$

Denote by $\sigma_i^{(m)}$ the sum of the elements in the i th row of Q^m .

Then

$$\sigma_i^{(m+1)} = \sum_v q_{iv} \sigma_v^{(m)} \quad \text{for } m \geq 1 \quad (1)$$

which remains valid also for $m=0$ provided we let $\sigma_v^{(0)} = 1$ for all v .

That Q is substochastic means $\sigma_i^{(1)} \leq \sigma_i^{(0)}$ and by induction that

$$\sigma_i^{(m+1)} \leq \sigma_i^{(m)}.$$

Fixing i , the sequence $\{\sigma_i^{(m)}\}$ decreases monotonically to a limit $\sigma_i \geq 0$ and clearly

$$\sigma_i = \sum_v q_{iv} \sigma_v \quad (*)$$

The whole theory of the transient states depends on the solutions of (*). In some cases there exists no non-zero solution. In others there may exist infinitely many linearly independent solutions, that is, different sequences of numbers satisfying

$$x_i = \sum_v q_{iv} x_v, \quad (2)$$

Characterizing $\{\sigma_i\}$

Our first problem is to characterize the particular solution $\{\sigma_i\}$. Solutions $\{x_i\}$ to our interest such that $0 \leq x_i \leq 1$ for all i satisfy $0 \leq x_i \leq \sigma_i^{(0)}$.

Comparing recurrent relations (1) and (2) on page 28, we see inductively that

$$x_i \leq \sigma_i^{(m)} \quad \text{for all } m$$

and so

$$0 \leq x_i \leq 1 \quad \text{implies} \quad x_i \leq \sigma_i \leq 1.$$

The solution $\{\sigma_i\}$ will be called maximal.

Lemma For a substochastic matrix Q , the linear system (2) on page 28 possesses a maximal solution $\{\sigma_i\}$ such that for any solution $\{x_i\}$ $0 \leq x_i \leq 1$, the condition $x_i \leq \sigma_i \leq 1$ holds for all i . These σ_i represent the limits of the row sums of Q^m .

Now identify Q with the submatrix P of a Markov chain obtained by retaining only the element P_{ij} for which P_i and P_k are transient. The linear system (2) on page 28 may be written in the form

$$x_i = \sum_{E_v \in T} P_{iv} x_v \quad E_i \in T \quad (1)$$

Denote by $O_i^{(m)}$ the probability that no transition from a state E_i to a persistent state occur during the first m trials. The limit O_i equals the probability that no such transition ever occurs.

Thm The Probability x_i , that, starting from E_i that the system stays forever among the transient states are given by the maximal solution of (1).

Criterion In an irreducible Markov chain with states

E_0, E_1, \dots , the state E_0 is persistent if and only if the linear system

$$x_i = \sum_{v=1}^n P_{iv} x_v \quad i \geq 1$$

admits of no solution with $0 \leq x_i \leq 1$ except $x_i = 0$ for all i .

Ex Consider Ex. 2 on page 22 again. We still assume that $P_{j,j+1} \neq 0$ and $P_{j,j-1} \neq 0$. The chain is irreducible because every state can be reached from every other state. Thus all states are of the same type and it suffices to look at E_0 only. Equation (1) on page 30 reduces to the recursive system

$$x_1 = P_{11}x_1 + P_{12}x_2$$

$$P_{j,j-1}(x_j - x_{j-1}) = P_{j,j+1}(x_{j+1} - x_j)$$

/* from
 $x_j = P_{j,j-1}x_{j-1} + P_{j,j}x_j + P_{j,j+1}x_{j+1}$
 and
 $x_j = (P_{j,j-1} + P_{j,j} + P_{j,j+1})x_j$
 */

Thus

$$x_j - x_{j+1} = \frac{P_{21}P_{32} \dots P_{j,j-1}}{P_{33}P_{44} \dots P_{j,j+1}} (x_1 - x_2)$$

Since $(P_{10} + P_{11} + P_{12})x_1 = (P_{11} + P_{12})x_2$, $P_{10} > 0$, we have $x_2 - x_1 > 0$.

So a bounded non-negative solution $\{x_j\}$ exists if and only if

$$\sum_j \frac{P_{21}P_{32} \dots P_{j,j-1}}{P_{33}P_{44} \dots P_{j,j+1}} < \infty.$$

The chain is persistent if and only if the series diverges.

In the special case of random walks we have $P_{j,j+1} = p$ and $P_{j,j-1} = q$ for all $j > 1$. So we see again that the states are persistent if and only if $p \leq q$.

Absorption in a Closed Persistent Set

Denote again by T the class of transient states and C any closed set of persistent states. Denote by y_i the probability of ultimate absorption in C , given the initial state E_i .

Th^m The probabilities y_i of ultimate absorption in the closed persistent set C are given by the minimal non-negative solutions of

$$y_i = \sum_T p_{iv} y_v + \sum_C p_{iv}, \quad E_i \in T$$

For more on Markov chains, please refer to

William Feller: "An Introduction to Probability Theory and Its Applications".

Vol 1. John Wiley & Sons. 1968.

Q.E.D.