

Stochastic Processes and Stochastic Calculus - 3

Markov Chains

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- 1 Discrete time processes
 - An example
 - The Markov property
 - Discrete Markov chains
 - Invariant distributions
 - Irreducible and regular chains
 - Ergodic theorems

- 2 Continuous time jump processes
 - Continuous time Markov chains
 - Poisson process

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- flows between unemployment and employment
- employment and unemployment rates at “equilibrium”

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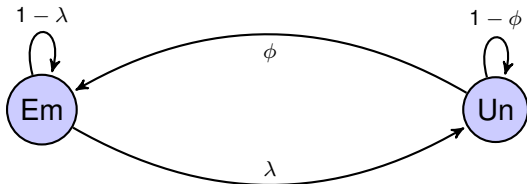
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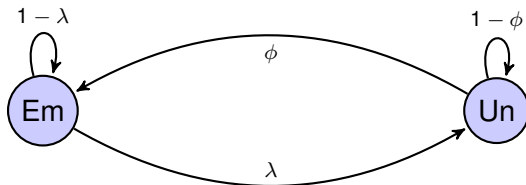
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Fix a unit of time (e.g. one month) and introduce two parameters

$\lambda :=$ probability that a worker loses his/her job in a month

$\phi :=$ probability that an unemployed one finds a job in a month

We call $\lambda, \phi \in [0, 1]$ **transition probabilities**.

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We have

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NO. For example, we do not know the **initial state** X_0 .

The Markov assumption

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But what about **three** or more? **One year?** At this stage we introduce the following assumption:

Markov property

At any time, regardless of the information about the past months, the next-month state of employment depends uniquely on the present one, i.e.

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = E | X_n = U, X_{n-1} = \cdot, X_{n-2} = \cdot, \dots, X_{n-k} = \cdot) = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = E | X_n = U)$$

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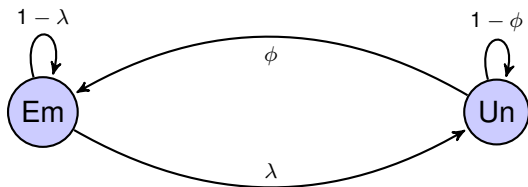
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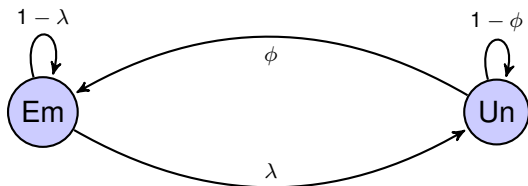
A more realistic assumption would be e.g.

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = E | X_n = U, X_{n-1} = U, X_{n-2} = U, \dots, X_{n-k} = U) \leq \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = E | X_n = U)$$

but how to make it quantitative?

Examples





$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(X_2 = E, X_1 = U | X_0 = E) &= \mathbb{P}(X_2 = E | X_1 = U, X_0 = E) \mathbb{P}(X_1 = U | X_0 = E) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(X_2 = E | X_1 = U) \mathbb{P}(X_1 = U | X_0 = E) \\ &= \phi \lambda \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X_3 = E, X_2 = U, X_1 = U | X_0 = E) = \phi(1 - \phi)\lambda$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X_3 = E | X_0 = E) = ?$$

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Definition (Markov process)

Given a filtration $(\mathcal{F}_t)_{t \in T}$, a process $X_t : \Omega \rightarrow E$ is Markov if

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- Usually one has $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(X_r : r \leq t)$, the natural filtration of X_t .

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The transition probabilities are $|\mathcal{S}|^2$ numbers that we write **matrix** notation:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 - \lambda & \lambda \\ \phi & 1 - \phi \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow Q = (p_{ij})_{i,j \in \mathcal{S}} \quad p_{ij} = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i) \quad \text{for } i, j \in \mathcal{S}$$

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Remark (Q is a **stochastic matrix**)

We must have $p_{ij} \in [0, 1]$ for $i, j \in \mathcal{S}$ and

$$\sum_{j \in \mathcal{S}} p_{ij} = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{S}} \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i) = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} \in \mathcal{S} | X_n = i) = 1$$

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we say that a process $X_n : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ ($n \in \mathbb{N}$) is a **markov chain** if for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j | \mathcal{F}_n) = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j | X_n) \quad \forall j \in \mathcal{S} \quad (\text{Markov property})$$

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The two conditions above yield

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i, X_{n-1} = \cdot, X_{n-2} = \cdot, \dots, X_{n-k} = \cdot) = p_{ij}$$

Graphical representation

We associate

- a **node** to each state $i \in \mathcal{S}$
- a **weighted arrow** to each transition probability p_{ij} (no arrow if $p_{ij} = 0$).

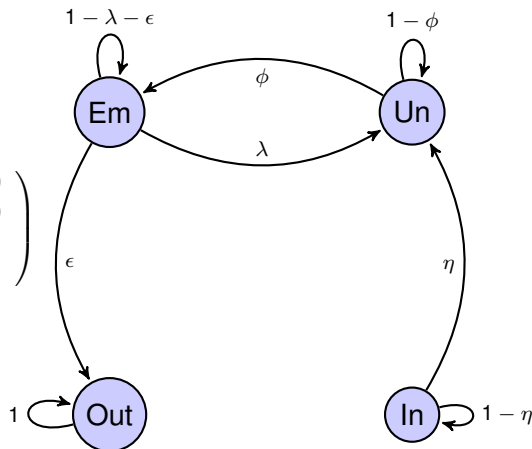
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$\mathcal{S} = (I, U, E, O)$

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \eta & \eta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \phi & 1 - \phi & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 - \lambda - \epsilon & \epsilon \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



The Kolmogorov theorem

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Theorem

Given a finite or countable S , a stochastic matrix $Q = (p_{ij})_{i,j \in S}$ and a probability measure μ_0 on S .

- \exists) there exists a Markov chain $(X_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ (with respect to the natural filtration) with transition probability Q and law of X_0 equal to μ_0 .
- !) Such a chain X is unique in law, i.e. given any Markov chain Y with transition probability Q and law of X_0 equal to μ_0 , one has

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The condition $X = Y$ in law means that for every $n \geq 1$, $A_0, \dots, A_n \subseteq \mathcal{S}$

$$\mathbb{P}(X_0 \in A_0, X_1 \in A_1, \dots, X_n \in A_n) = \mathbb{P}(Y_0 \in A_0, Y_1 \in A_1, \dots, Y_n \in A_n)$$

Marginal laws

How to compute the quantity

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The **simplest** case is that of 1-marginals, i.e. the law of X_n . For example

$$P(X_1 = j) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} P(X_1 = j | X_0 = i) P(X_0 = i) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} p_{ij} \mu_i^0$$

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Proposition (marginal laws)

$$P(X_n = \cdot) = \mu^0 (Q^n), \quad \text{for any } n \geq 0.$$

A geometric interpretation of Q^n

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By definition of power of a matrix

$$(Q^n)_{ij} = \sum_k p_{ik}(Q^{n-1})_{kj} = \sum_{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{n-1}} p_{ik_1} p_{k_1 k_2} \cdot p_{k_{n-1} j}$$

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- 1 Each choice of $k_1, \dots, k_{(n-1)}$ defines the **path** of 'length' n

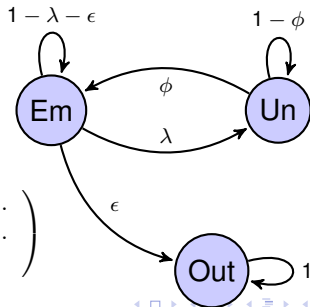
$$i \rightarrow k_1 \rightarrow k_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow k_{(n-1)} \rightarrow j.$$

- 2 Each path has total weight given by the product of the weights.
- 3 We sum the weights over all the paths of length n joining i to j .

$$S = (U, E, O)$$

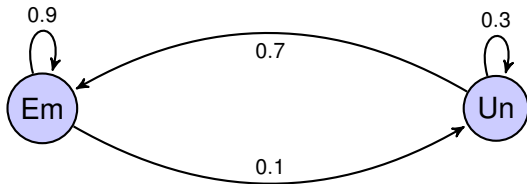
$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \phi & \phi & 0 \\ \lambda & 1 - \lambda - \epsilon & \epsilon \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Q^2 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda\phi & \dots & \dots \\ \lambda(1 - \phi) + \lambda(1 - \lambda - \epsilon) & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



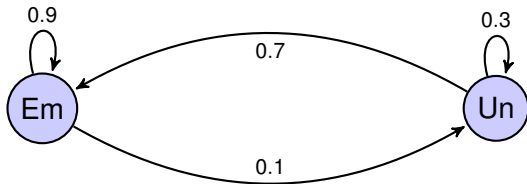
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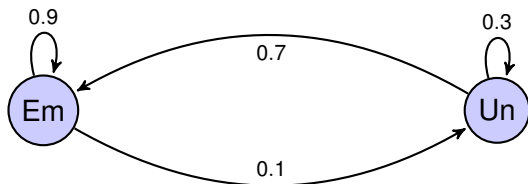


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$\mathbb{P}(X_n = E)$ will be close to 1. How to compute it?

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} 0.9 & 0.1 \\ 0.7 & 0.3 \end{pmatrix} \quad Q^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.88 & 0.12 \\ 0.84 & 0.16 \end{pmatrix} \quad Q^4 \sim \begin{pmatrix} 0.87 & 0.13 \\ 0.87 & 0.13 \end{pmatrix}$$

Do the laws of $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ converges as $n \rightarrow \infty$ towards some limit law $\bar{\mu}$ on \mathcal{S} ?

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Since the law of X_n is $\mu^0(Q^n)$, we should find

$$\bar{\mu} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu^0(Q^n)$$

but also

$$\bar{\mu}Q = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu^0(Q^n)Q = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu^0(Q^{n+1}) = \bar{\mu}$$

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In linear algebra notation, $\bar{\mu}$ is a **row eigenvector** of Q with eigenvalue 1.

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$$\bar{\mu}^n - \bar{\mu}^n Q = \frac{1}{n} \left(\mu^0 - Q^n \mu^0 \right) \rightarrow 0$$

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One can prove that some limit point exists and it is invariant. □

Theorem (Perron-Frobenius)

If the number of states S is *finite*, there exists at least one invariant distribution:

$$\bar{\mu}Q = \bar{\mu}.$$

Proof.

Choose any μ^0 and consider the averages

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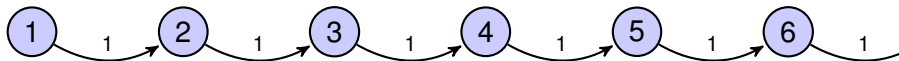
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Notice that the proof gives a “way” to find $\bar{\mu}$, essentially by taking powers Q^n and averaging.

Beware: the existence result could be false if the number of states is **infinite!**

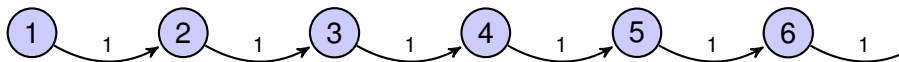
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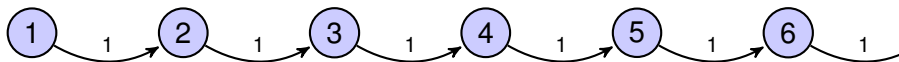
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- We have $P(X_{n+1} = i) = 0$, for every $i \leq n$
- Any invariant probability satisfies $\bar{\mu}_i = 0$ for every i

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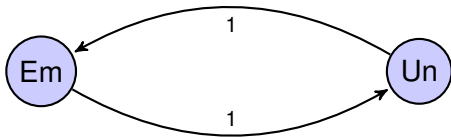
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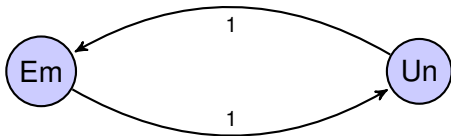
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In general the answer is **NO**. Let us consider one example.



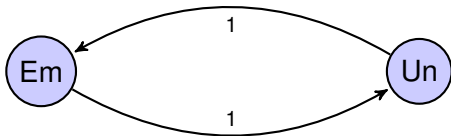
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Question: what are the invariant distributions for Q ?

Definition (Communicating states)

Given states $i, j \in \mathcal{S}$, we say that $i \rightsquigarrow j$ if there is $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$(Q^n)_{ij} = P(X_n = j | X_0 = i) > 0.$$

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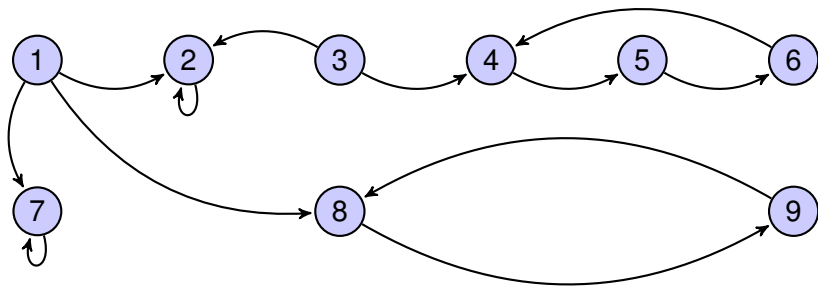
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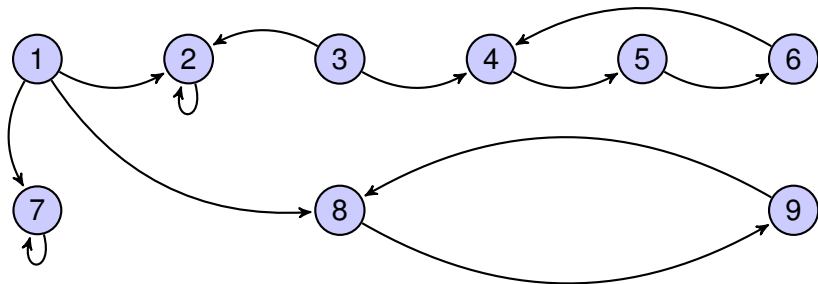
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Notice that $1 \rightsquigarrow 2$ but **not** $2 \rightsquigarrow 1$.

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- in terms of the transition matrix, this means that for every i, j there exists $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $(Q^m)_{ij} > 0$.
- The name “irreducible” comes from the fact that **any** Markov chain can be decomposed into smaller chains which are irreducible, plus some “remainder” (called **transitory** states).

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For our problem of convergence towards invariant distributions, we need something more than irreducible chains.

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Notice that if Q^m has strictly positive entries, then Q^{m+1} also is strictly positive.

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because

$$\sum_k P(X_1 = k | X_0 = i) = 1.$$

The importance of being regular

Theorem (Markov)

If Q is a **regular** transition probability (on a finite state space \mathcal{S}) then there is a unique invariant distribution $\bar{\mu}$ and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (Q^n)_{ij} = \bar{\mu}(j), \quad \text{for every } i, j \in \mathcal{S}.$$

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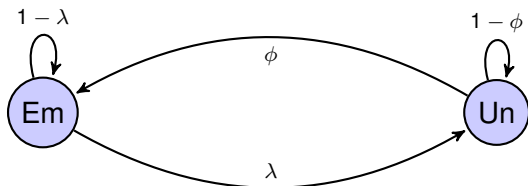
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In terms of Markov chain, this answer positively to the problem

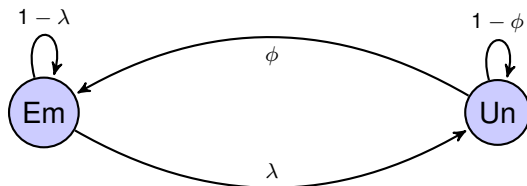
$$P(X_n = j) \rightarrow \bar{\mu}(j), \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty,$$

for every $j \in \mathcal{S}$, whatever the initial law of X_0 was.

Going back to our model of employment flows,



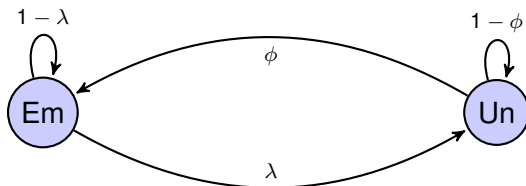
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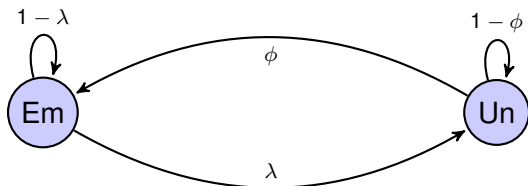
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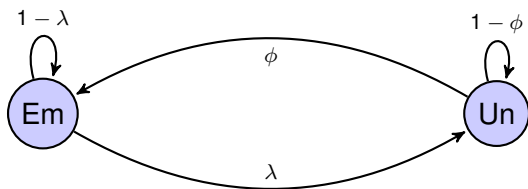
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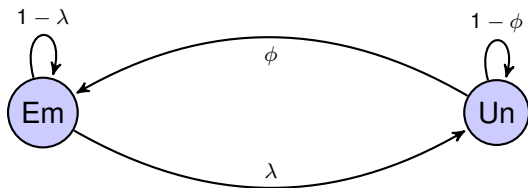
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Beware: this holds for systems at **equilibrium**!

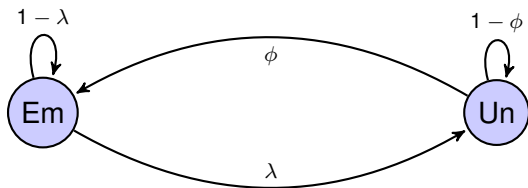




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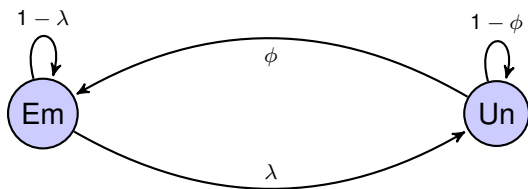
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Then the ergodic principle reads

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\#\{k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\} \mid X_k = E\}}{n} = \bar{\mu}(E).$$

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Of course, this theorem applies also to **regular** Markov chains.

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and build a process $Y_0, Y_{1/4}, Y_{2/4}, Y_{3/4}, \dots$

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What happens if we split times into infinitely many small intervals, i.e. **continuous** times?

We have $Q^{1/\infty} = Q^0 = Id$, but imagine, for large n ,

$$Q^{1/n} \sim Id + \frac{1}{n}R + \text{smaller terms.}$$

We describe the chain by means of the matrix R (called **transition rate** matrix).

Recalling the formal expansion

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Assuming $Q^{1/n}$ to be a **stochastic** matrix, then we must have

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We interpret R_{ij} as the **rate** at which we jump from i to j .

Actually, we can describe the continuous Markov chain as follows:

- 1 When the particle is on the state $i \in \mathcal{S}$, take independent “alarm clocks” A_j , one for every $j \in \mathcal{S}$ with exponential laws

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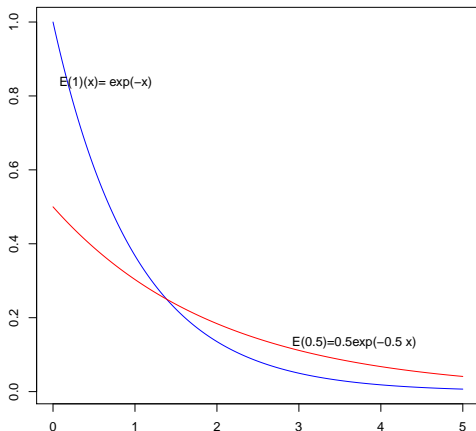
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Poisson process

An important example of such continuous time **jump** process has state space

$$\mathcal{S} = \mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, \dots\}$$

and transition rates

$$R_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = i + 1 \\ -1 & \text{if } j = i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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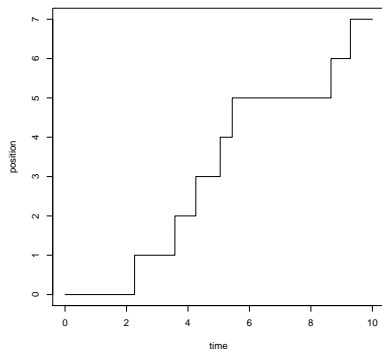
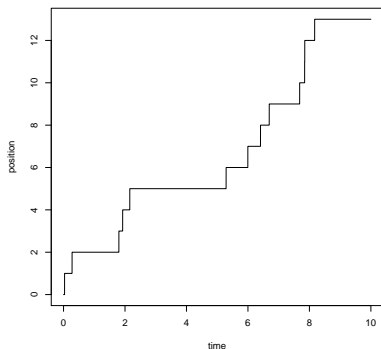
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Two realizations of a Poisson process:



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It is possible to prove that

- N is a Markov process (obvious)
- For every $t \in [0, \infty)$, N_t has Poisson law

$$P(N_t = k) = \frac{e^{-k}}{k!}, \quad k \in \mathbb{N}.$$

In particular,

$$\mathbb{E}[N_t] = t.$$

- the increments are **independent**, e.g. for $s < t < u < v$,

$N_t - N_s$ and $N_v - N_u$ are independent random variables.

One can also change the **intensity** of jumps (not the size), by changing the transition rates: for $\lambda > 0$,

$$R_{ij}^\lambda = \lambda R_{ij}$$

