

#### 4.1 (long run behavior of MC)

$$P^n \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \frac{b}{a+b} & \frac{b}{a+b} \\ \frac{b}{a+b} & \frac{b}{a+b} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi \\ \pi \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi = \pi P \quad (\text{Eigenvalue equation for } \lambda = 1)$$

Turns out that this always happens if  $P$  is a regular transition matrix

This phenomenon is referred to as follows:

"The MC forgets its starting point in the long run"

Regular transition prob.  $S = \{0, 1, \dots, N\}$

$P$  is called regular if  $\exists k$  st

$P^k$  has all positive entries.

$$(P^k)_{ij} > 0 \quad \forall \begin{matrix} i=0, \dots, N \\ j=0, \dots, N \end{matrix}$$

Suppose I know this  
 chain is  
 regular with  $k=3$ .

$$P_{ij}^k = P(X_k = j \mid X_0 = i) > 0$$

prob. of going from  $i$  to  $j$  in  $k$  steps.

$\Rightarrow$  I can go from any  $i$  to any  $j$   
 in  $k$  steps with +ve prob.

$S$  forms 1 SINGLE COMMUNICATING  
 CLASS.

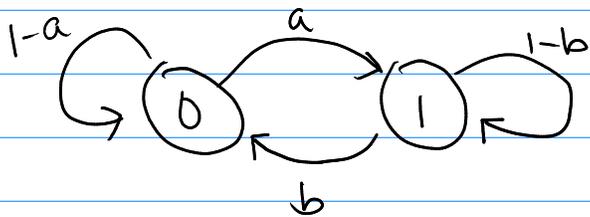
Thm: If  $P$  is regular then  $\exists$   
 a unique stationary prob.  $\pi$

$$1) \sum_{i=0}^N \pi_i = 1$$

$$2) \pi = \pi P$$

$$3) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n = \begin{bmatrix} \pi \\ \vdots \\ \pi \end{bmatrix}_{(N+1) \times (N+1)}$$

Two-step MC :  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$



$a=0$     $b=0$  (we cannot have this)  
 $a=1$     $b=1$  *if we want regularity*

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

$$P^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$\Rightarrow P^3 = P^2 P, \quad P^4 = I$$

$\lim P^n =$  Does not exist.

$P$  is not regular.

$P$  will turn out to have PERIOD 2.

## communication classes.

Regular is also called "irreducible, Aperiodic".

2 step MC is regular if  $0 < a, b, < 1$ .

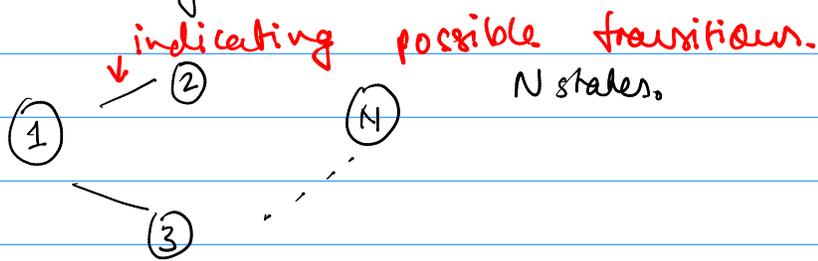
\* lovely example. Social classes of successive generations can be regarded as a Markov Chain.

\* could do a jupyter notebook.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Father} \\ \text{L} \\ \text{M} \\ \text{U} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{son} \\ \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 0.4 & 0.5 & 0.10 \\ 0.05 & 0.7 & 0.25 \\ 0.05 & 0.5 & 0.45 \end{array} \right] \end{array}$$

In the long term, what fraction of the people are in the middle class in the long term?

We return to regular matrices:



Then  $\exists m$  st  $P_{ij}^m > 0 \forall i, j$

If  $P$  is regular we cannot get stuck in any state, so if we start in state  $i$  there is at least one other state that was not previously reached that was reachable. So we may form

a path  $i \ i_1 \ i_2 \ \dots \ i_k \ \dots \ j$

where each  $i_k$  is some new state that was not previously reached. (This is because if any state is repeated then there is a loop in the path that we can erase)

Thus there is a path <sup>$\delta$</sup>  of AT MOST  $N$  steps

from  $i$  to  $j$  and let the length of this path be  $m(i, j)$ . We have shown that

$$1 \leq m(i, j) \leq N$$

prob of going from  $i$  to  $j$  in  $m(i,j)$  steps

$$\text{Thus } \left[ \begin{array}{l} P_{ij}^{m(i,j)} = \mathbb{P}(X_{m(i,j)} = j \mid X_0 = i) \\ \geq \mathbb{P}(\underbrace{\text{we take a path } \gamma \text{ from } i \text{ to } j}_{B}) > 0 \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} A \\ \\ B \end{array}$$

This is because  $B \subseteq A$  ( $B$  implies that  $A$  happens)

Will prove that  $\underbrace{P_{ij}^{N^2}}_{N^2} > 0 \quad \forall i, j$  and further  
 $P_{ij}^k > 0 \quad \forall k > N^2$ . (Eventually large enough of powers of  $P$  will have all +ve entries)

We will prove this when we do periodicity

Next. Suppose  $P^n \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \pi \\ \pi \\ \vdots \\ \pi \end{bmatrix}$  that is

$$P_{kj}^n \rightarrow \pi_j \quad \forall k, j \quad (\text{note this is indep of throw } k)$$

Theorem:  $\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_N)$  solves

1)  $\pi = \pi P$  the eigenvalue equation

2)  $\pi$  is UNIQUE

Easy to prove 1.

$$P^n = P^{n-1} P$$

$$P_{kj}^{(n)} = \sum_{k=1}^n P_{kl}^{(n-1)} P_{lj}$$

$$\pi_j = \sum_{k=1}^n \pi_k P_{kj}$$

linear algebra

$$(A \cdot B)_{ij} = \sum_k A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

( $\pi$  is a row vector)

$$\pi = \pi P.$$

2) Let  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a probability vector solving

$$x = xP \quad (\Leftrightarrow) \quad x_j = \sum_i x_i P_{ij} = \textcircled{\star 1}$$

Note  $xP = xP^2$  from above  $\Rightarrow xP^2 = xP^3 \dots = xP^{n-1}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_j = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_i x_i P_{ij}^{(n)} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \pi_j = \pi_j$$

row sums to 1

Ex: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.4 & 0.5 & 0.10 \\ 0.05 & 0.7 & 0.25 \\ 0.05 & 0.5 & 0.45 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (Social class matrix)

What is  $\pi$ ?  $\left( \frac{1}{13}, \frac{5}{8}, \frac{31}{104} \right)$

### 4.1.1 Doubly stochastic Matrices.

Let  $P$  be regular.

We know  $\sum_{j=1}^N P_{ij} = 1$  (if you start in

state  $i$  you must go to SOME other state  $j$  in the next step). [STOCHASTIC MATRIX]

If  $\sum_{i=1}^N P_{ij} = 1$  (Column sum)  $\forall j$

Then  $P$  is called Doubly Stochastic.

$$\text{Let } \pi = \left( \frac{1}{N}, \dots, \frac{1}{N} \right)$$

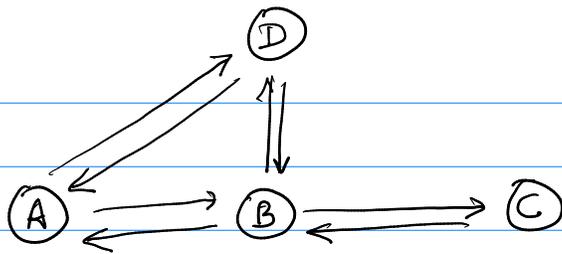
$$(\pi P)_j = \sum_{k=1}^N \pi_k P_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{N} P_{kj} = \frac{1}{N} = \pi_j$$

*doubly stochastic*

True for every  $j$ . By uniqueness, this is the UNIQUE stationary probability

If you have doubly stochastic matrices, it's equally likely to be in each state in the long term.

Ex:



Railroad lines connecting 4 towns. Train randomly chooses a town it is connected to and traverses it (uniform probability)

$$P = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} A & B & C & D \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} A \\ B \\ C \\ D \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

What is  $\pi$ ? Note that the outdegree of the 4 vertices is  $(2, 3, 1, 2)$

Using  $\pi P = \pi$

$$\pi_j = \sum_k \pi_k P_{kj}$$

$$\text{Try } \pi = (2, 3, 1, 2) \quad 2 = 2 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 1 \cdot 0 + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \\ = 2 \quad \checkmark$$

$$3 = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = 3 \quad \checkmark$$

and so on. So certainly

$$\pi P = \pi$$

What must we do to turn  $\pi$  into a probability?

$\pi = (2, 3, 1, 2)$  does not sum to 1.  $(\frac{2}{8}, \frac{3}{8}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{2}{8})$

We know that  $\pi$  must be unique.

We need to have 2 vectors that solve

$\pi P = \pi$ . What is going on?

### 4.02 Interpretation of Limiting distribution

$$\pi_j = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{ij}^{(n)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\{X_n = j \mid \underline{X_0 = i}\}$$

"Probability of finding the chain in state  $j$  given that it has been running for a long time and it started in state  $i$ ".

★ Quiz or HW. Suppose I start a chain

on  $N$  states with  $P(X_0=1) = \pi_1, \dots$

$P(X_0=N) = \pi_N$ . What is  $P(X_k=1)$ ,

$\dots P(X_k=N)$ ?

2nd interpretation:  $\pi_j$  also gives long run mean fraction of time spent in state  $j$ .

How to describe this?

$$E \left[ \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{X_i=j\}}}_{\text{fraction of time in state } j} \mid X_0=k \right] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n P(X_i=j \mid X_0=k)$$

↑  
mean

initial state.

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{P(X_i=j \mid X_0=k)}_{\text{conditional prob.}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n P_{kj}^i \quad (\star)$$

$\rightarrow \pi_j^0$

We know  $P_{kj}^i \rightarrow \pi_j^0$  (by assumption)

Claim: if  $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$   $a_n \rightarrow a$  then

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} a \quad \text{as well} \quad ] \quad \leftarrow \text{D. Calc 2 stuff.}$$

(Called convergence of the Cesaro mean)  
related

There are a bunch of cool theorems: see Abel, Tauberian theorem, etc)

Good problems: 4.1.9 and 4.1.10

Section 4.2 has a bunch of cool examples.

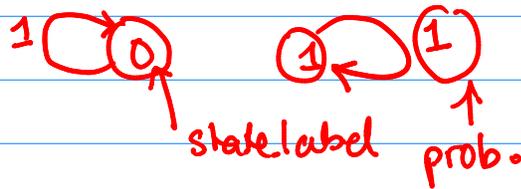
- "Markov chains" dependent on  $k$  previous states
- Reliability and Redundancy
- Age replacement policies
- Optimal replacements

(Recommend reading section 4.2 from the textbook).

### 4.3 The classification of states.

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is not regular. } \{0\} \text{ and } \{1\} \text{ are}$$

both absorbing states



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is also not regular.}$$



(we saw this in the previous lecture)

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ then}$$

is also not regular

$$P^n = \begin{bmatrix} (\frac{1}{2})^n & 1 - (\frac{1}{2})^n \\ \boxed{0} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{geometric prob of staying in 0.}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ (again not regular)}$$

Since  $P_{00}^n \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow 0$  is called a transient

state.  $1$  is absorbing (recurring state)

$P$  is regular  $\Leftrightarrow P$  irreducible and aperiodic

Irreducible chains:

Communication:  $i, j$  communicate if  $P_{ij}^{(n)} > 0, P_{ji}^{(m)} > 0$

for some  $m, n \geq 0$ .  $i \leftrightarrow j$  if  $i$  and  $j$  communicate.

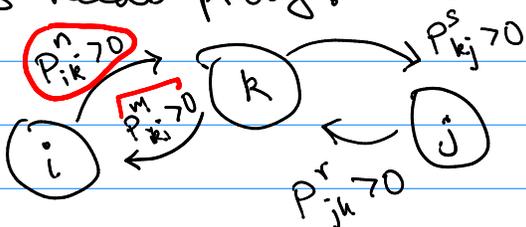
1. Reflexive:  $i \leftrightarrow i$  (communicates with itself)

since  $P_{ii}^{(0)} = 1$  ( $\text{Prob}(X_0 = i | X_0 = i) = 1$ )

2. Symmetry  $i \leftrightarrow j \Leftrightarrow j \leftrightarrow i$  (by definition)

3. Transitivity  $i \leftrightarrow k$  and  $k \leftrightarrow j$  then  $i \leftrightarrow j$

This needs proof.



$$\Rightarrow P_{ij}^{n+s} = \sum_{t=1}^N P_{it}^n P_{tj}^s \geq P_{ik}^n P_{kj}^s > 0$$

keep just  $t=k$  term.

Called Chapman-Kolmogorov equation.

similarly  $P_{ji}^{(m+n)} > 0$

So take states  $S = \{ \underbrace{1, 2, \dots}_{\text{equivalence class 1}}, \underbrace{\dots}_{\text{equivalence class 2}}, \underbrace{\dots}_{\text{equivalence class 3}} \}$

You can break up states into equivalence classes.

Irreducible: An MC is ~~irred~~ if it has  
or equivalence  
 ONLY one communication class.

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

$\{1, 2\}$   $P_{12}^1 > 0$   
 $P_{21}^1 > 0$   
 $\{3, 4\}$

Q: How many equiv classes? **2**

$P = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & N-1 & N \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ N \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ q & 0 & p & 0 \\ 0 & q & 0 & p & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$

$q = 1 - p$   
 $\{1\}, \{N\}$   
 $\{2, 3, \dots, N-1\}$   
 Random Walk.

Q: What are the comm. classes?

Recall: I had said "Regular"  $P$

$\Leftrightarrow$  Irreducible + aperiodic MC.

4.3.2

Periodicity

← greatest common denom.

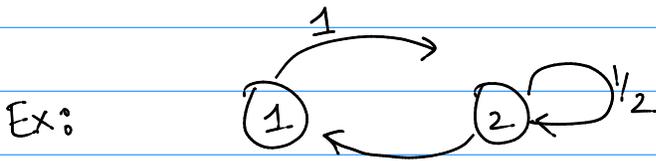
$$d(i) = \gcd \{ n \geq 1 \mid P^n(i,i) > 0 \}$$

non zero prob of return to i in n steps.

$$d(i) = \text{PERIOD of } i$$

If  $P_{ii}^{(n)} = 0 \forall n \geq 1$  define  $d(i) = 0$

★ HD or QUIZ.



$$d(1) = \gcd \{ 2, \underline{3}, \underline{4}, \underline{5}, \dots \}$$

$\frac{1}{2} = P_{11}^{(2)} > 0$        $\frac{1}{2} = P_{11}^{(3)} > 0$

$$= 1$$

?

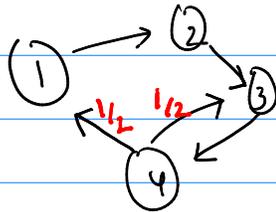
$$d(2) = \gcd \{ 1, 2, 3, \dots \} = 1$$

?

Notice that  $d(1) = d(2) = 1$  (A periodic)

$$P = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

A periodicities.



$$d(1) = \gcd \{4, 6, 8, \dots\} = 2$$

$$d(2) = \gcd \{4, 6, 8, \dots\} = 2$$

and similarly  $d(3) = d(4) = 2$

HW: Ex from page 24 in KP (Wet and Dry days)

Thm:

1) If  $i \leftrightarrow j$  then  $d(i) = d(j)$

2)  $\exists N$  s.t.  $\forall n \geq N$

$P_{ii}^{nd(i)} > 0$  (eventually all multiples of  $d(i)$  belong to the set)

(for previous ex  $N=4$ )

if I can get from  $j$  to  $i$  in  $n$  steps

then  $P_{ji}^{m+nd(i)} > 0$  for all large enough  $n$

[APERIODIC: All states have  $d(i) = 1$ .

Euclidean algorithm, Bezout's identity etc.

Theorem: let  $J \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^+$  be closed under addition.

That is  $m, n \in J \Rightarrow m+n \in J$ .

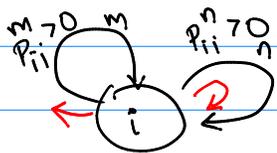
let  $d = \gcd(J)$

Then 1)  $J \subseteq \{0, d, 2d, \dots\}$

2)  $\exists N$  st  $nd \in J \quad \forall n \geq N$

(or  $\{0, d, 2d, \dots\} \setminus J$  is finite)

Notice that  $Q = \{n \geq 1 \mid P_{ii}^n > 0 \text{ is such a set}\}$



If  $m, n \in Q$   
 $\Rightarrow m+n \in Q \quad (P_{ii}^{m+n} > 0)$

(To skip) ] How to prove this thing using number theory.

lemma: 1) If  $m, n$  relatively prime

$(d(m, n) = 1) \Rightarrow \{xm + ny : x, y \in \text{pos. integers}\}$

contains all but a finite # of numbers.

2) let  $J \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^+$   $d = \gcd(J) > 1$ ,  $J$  closed

under addition  $\{0, d, 2d, \dots\} \setminus J$  is finite.

Proof of the lemma required for periodicity

These two things are fairly easy to obtain once

you have Bezout's identity: given  $a, b \neq 0$

$$x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ st } ax + by = d \text{ where } d = \gcd(a, b)$$

In fact any  $az + bt$  is divisible by  $d$ .

$$\text{Pf: let } S = \{ax + by : ax + by > 0, x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

$d = \inf S > 0$  and an integer. let  $d = ax + by$

Claim:  $d$  divides  $az + bt \quad \forall z, t \in \mathbb{Z}$

Pf wlog  $az + bt \in S$

$$az + bt = kd + r \quad 0 \leq r < d$$

$$az + bt = k(ax + by) + r$$

$$\Rightarrow r \in S \quad \text{or} \quad r = 0 \quad \text{but } r \text{ cannot be in } S$$

$$\Rightarrow r = 0$$

In particular  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$ .

Why is  $d$  the gcd? Suppose  $c$  is another divisor.

$$\text{Then } a = kc \quad b = jc \quad \text{Then } d \mid kc + jc$$

$$\Rightarrow d = r(k+j)c \quad \text{This shows } d \text{ is a multiple of } c.$$

For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Let  $S = \{ax + by : x, y \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ .  $\dots$  let  $d = \gcd(S)$

Claim:  $\{0, d, 2d, \dots\} \setminus S$  is finite.

Pf: Let,  $a, b \in S$  and  $ax + by = d$  (by Bezout)

Then wlog we may write  $ax - by = d$  where  $a, b, x, y > 0$ .

In particular  $ax + by = kd$   
 $ax + by + ax - by = 2ax = (k+1)d$ .

Since  $S$  is closed under addition

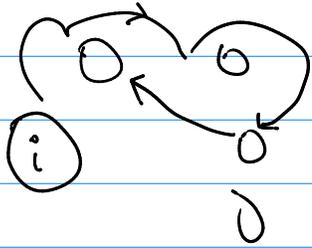
$$\begin{aligned} kd, (k+1)d &\in S \\ 2kd, (2k+1)d &\in S \\ &\vdots \\ \ell kd, (\ell k+1)d \dots (2k+\ell)d &\in S \\ k^2d, (k^2+1)d, \dots (k^2+k)d &\in S \end{aligned}$$

Let  $j > k^2 \Rightarrow j = nk + \ell$  where  $n > k, 0 \leq \ell < k$

$$\Rightarrow jd = \underbrace{(\ell k + \ell)d}_{\in S} + \underbrace{(n - \ell)kd}_{\in S}$$

How do you call a state recurrent?

### 4.3.3 Recurrence and Transience



How to define recurrence?

We could say a state  $i$  is recurrent ("something recurs") if  $X_n = i$  again and again given

$X_0 = i$

OR we could say that  $X_n = i$  for some

$n \geq 1$

Probabilistically we say  $i$  is recurrent

if WE ARE SURE that  $X_n = i$  for some  $n$ .

given  $X_0 = i$

$i$  is recurrent if

$$P(X_n = i \text{ for some } n \geq 1 \mid X_0 = i) = 1$$

\* Why not

$$P(X_n = i \text{ for some } n > 1 \mid X_0 = i) = 0.5$$

or some other number?

$\rightarrow P_{ji}^n \rightarrow 0 \forall j$  (transient state)

## Consequences of recurrence defn.

We will do this using first returns

$$f_{ii}^{(n)} = P(\text{First return to } i \text{ happens after } n \text{ steps} | X_0 = i) \\ = P(X_n = i, X_{n-1} \neq i, \dots, X_1 \neq i | X_0 = i)$$

$$f_{ii}^{(1)} = P_{ii} \quad (\text{return in 1 step})$$

$$P_{ii}^{(n)} = P(X_n = i | X_0 = i) \\ = \sum_{k=1}^n P(\underbrace{X_n = i}_{A_1}, \underbrace{\text{1st return to } i \text{ on } k^{\text{th}} \text{ step}}_{A_2} | \underbrace{X_0 = i}_{A_3}) \\ \rightarrow [P(A_1, A_2 | A_3) = P(A_1 | A_2, A_3) P(A_2 | A_3)]$$

$$= \sum_k P(\underbrace{X_n = i}_{\text{Markov prop.}} | \text{1st return to } i \text{ on } k^{\text{th}} \text{ step}, \underbrace{X_0 = i}_{X_k = i}) \\ P(\text{1st return to } i \text{ on } k^{\text{th}} \text{ step} | X_0 = i)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n P(X_n = i | X_k = i) f_{ii}^{(k)}$$

$$P_{ii}^n = \sum_{k=1}^n P_{ii}^{n-k} f_{ii}^{(k)}$$

Sometimes, people set  $f_{ii}^{(0)} = 0$  and write

$$P_{ii}^n = \sum_{k=0}^n P_{ii}^{n-k} f_{ii}^{(k)}$$

$$\text{Recurrent} \Rightarrow \overbrace{P(X_n = i \text{ for some } i \mid X_0 = i)}^{f_{ii}} = 1$$

$$P(\text{Ever returning to state } i \mid X_0 = i)$$

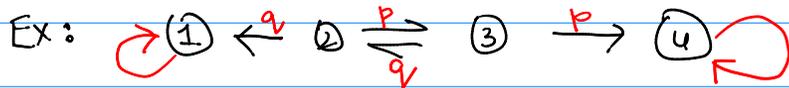
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(\text{1st return in } k \text{ steps} \mid X_0 = i)$$

$$f_{ii} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_{ii}^{(k)} \quad \text{after setting } f_{ii}^{(0)} = 0$$

Then  $i$  is RECURRENT if

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_{ii}^{(k)} = 1.$$

If a state is NOT recurrent we call it Transient.



Comm. classes:  $\{1\}$ ,  $\{4\}$ ,  $\{2,3\}$   
 $\uparrow$  recurrent  $\uparrow$  recurrent  $\nwarrow$  ?

$$f_{11}^1 = 1 \quad f_{11}^2 = 0 \quad f_{11}^3 = 0 \dots \Rightarrow f_{11} = f_{11}^1 + f_{11}^2 + \dots = 1$$

★ HW or quiz: Show states 2 and 3 are TRANSIENT! ( $f_{ii} < 1$ )

$$P_{ij}^n = \sum_{k=0}^n P_{ij}^{n-k} f_{ii}^{(k)}$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

What is

$$f_{22}^{(k)} \text{ for } k = 1, 3, \dots$$

$$= P(\text{1st return to 2 in } k \text{ steps} \mid X_0 = 2) = 0 \quad k \text{ odd}$$

$$f_{22}^{(k)} = (pq)^k \text{ for } k = 2, 3, 4, \dots$$

$$f_{22} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_{22}^{(k)} = (pq) \frac{1}{1-pq} < 1$$

## Multiple Recurrence

Suppose a state is transient  $f_{ii} < 1$ .

$P(\text{Return to } i \text{ at least twice} \mid X_0 = i)$

$$= \sum_{k < j} P(\text{First return to } i \text{ on } k^{\text{th}} \text{ step, 2nd return to } i \text{ on } j^{\text{th}} \text{ steps} \mid X_0 = i)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=k+1}^{\infty} P(\text{Return to } i \text{ on } j^{\text{th}} \text{ step} \mid X_k = i) P(\text{1st return to } i \text{ on } k^{\text{th}} \text{ step} \mid X_0 = i)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{\sum_{j=k+1}^{\infty} f_{ii}^{(j-k)} f_{ii}^{(k)}}_{f_{ii}} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_{ii}^{(k)} \underbrace{\sum_{s=1}^{\infty} f_{ii}^{(s)}}_{f_{ii}}$$

$$= f_{ii} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_{ii}^{(k)} = (f_{ii})^2$$

$$P(\text{At least 2 returns to } i \mid X_0 = i) = [f_{ii}]^2$$

Nice, huh?

So let  $M = \#$  of returns to  $i$

$$P(M \geq k \mid X_0 = i) = f_{ii}^k \quad k \geq 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus } E[M \mid X_0 = i] &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(M \geq k \mid X_0 = i) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (f_{ii})^k = \boxed{\frac{f_{ii}}{1-f_{ii}}} \quad (\text{geometric}) \end{aligned}$$

Notice that as  $f_{ii} \rightarrow 1$   $E[M \mid X_0 = i] = +\infty$ .

What does this say about recurrent states.

RECURRENT STATE  $\Leftrightarrow f_{ii} = 1$

$$(P(M \geq k \mid X_0 = i) = f_{ii}^k = 1)$$

★ HW: Worth proving: if  $X \geq 0$ ,  $X \in \{0, 1, \dots\}$

$$E[X] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(X \geq k).$$

Another formula for expected # of returns:

$$E[M | X_0 = i] = E\left[\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{\{X_n = i\}} \mid X_0 = i\right]$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(X_n = i \mid X_0 = i)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{ii}^n$$

Theorem: A state  $i$  is recurrent iff

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{ii}^{(n)} = +\infty$$

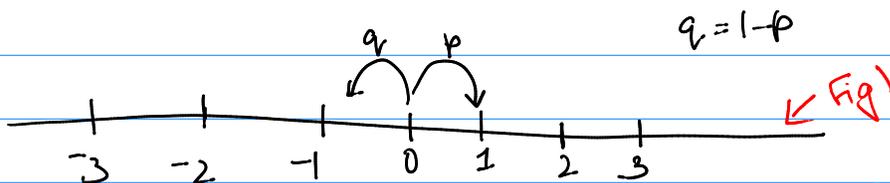
This theorem works even if  $S$  is countable

If a state is transient

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{ii}^{(n)} < \infty \quad (\Rightarrow) \quad P_{ii}^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$$

So if a chain has transient states and a stationary prob.  $\pi$  then  $\pi_i = 0$  if  $i$  is transient.

Example:  $\infty$  one dimensional walk.



$S = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$   $Q$ : Is 0 recurrent?

$$P_{00}^{(n)} = P(X_n = 0 \mid X_0 = 0)$$

"choose  $\frac{n}{2}$  steps to go right and  $\frac{n}{2}$  steps to go left"

$$= P \left[ \begin{array}{l} \cup \\ \text{all paths } \gamma \text{ starting} \\ \text{and ending at 0} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \star 1 \\ \gamma \text{ has } \frac{n}{2} \text{ right steps} \\ \text{and } \frac{n}{2} \text{ left steps} \end{array} \right]$$

$$= \sum_x P(\underbrace{x \text{ has } \frac{n}{2} \text{ right steps and } \frac{n}{2} \text{ left steps}}_{\substack{\text{'' } p^{n/2} q^{n/2} \\ \text{''}}})$$

$$\text{Eg. } P(X_1=1, X_2=2, X_4=1, \dots | X_0=0)$$

$$= P(X_1=1 | X_0=0) P(X_2=2 | X_1=1) \dots$$

$$= p^{n/2} q^{n/2} \quad ] \text{ using the independence of steps.}$$

\*1a becomes

$$P_{00}^{(n)} = \binom{n}{n/2} p^{n/2} q^{n/2} \quad (\star 2)$$

$$\text{Use Stirling: } n! \sim n^{n+1/2} e^{-n} \sqrt{2\pi}$$

$$\binom{n}{n/2} = \frac{n!}{\frac{n}{2}! \frac{n}{2}!} \sim \frac{n^{n+1/2} e^{-n} \sqrt{2\pi}}{\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^{n/2+1/2} e^{-n/2} \sqrt{2\pi}}^2$$

$$= \frac{2^{n+1}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = C \frac{2^n}{\sqrt{n}} \quad \star 3$$

Then  $(\star 3)$  becomes

$$\approx C \frac{2^n}{\sqrt{n}} p^{n/2} q^{n/2} = \frac{C}{\sqrt{n}} (4pq)^{n/2}$$

If  $(4pq) < 1$  Then

The series  $\sum P_{00}^{(n)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(4pq)^{n/2}}{\sqrt{n}} < \infty$   
(TRANSIENT)

and if  $(4pq) > 1$   $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{00}^{(n)} = +\infty$   
(RECURRENT)

In the  $p=q=\frac{1}{2}$  case,  $4pq=1$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{00}^{(n)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = +\infty$$

★ How to prove these things using integral test and other series comparison.

In the SYMMETRIC CASE  $\Rightarrow 0$  is RECURRENT

Is state 5 recurrent? (Same argument works)

$i \leftrightarrow j$  and  $i$  recurrent  $\Rightarrow j$  recurrent.

## Lec 19

### Proof of theorem 4.2

Recall that we said that

$M_i = \#$  of visits to state  $i$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1_{\{X_n = i\}}$$

$$M_1 = 1 \downarrow \begin{matrix} 0 \\ \{X_0 = 1\} + 1 \downarrow \{X_1 = 1\} + \dots \\ (0, 1, 2, 3, 2, 3, 4, \dots) \end{matrix}$$
$$M_1 = 1 \quad M_2 = 2 \quad M_3 = 3$$

$$\text{Then } E[M_i | X_0 = i] = \frac{f_{ii}}{1 - f_{ii}} \quad - \star 1$$

which is  $< \infty$  iff  $f_{ii} < 1$   $f_{ii} = P(\text{visit } i \text{ at least once} | X_0 = i)$

$i$  is RECURRENT if  $f_{ii} = 1$ .

But  $f_{ii} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)}$  and  $f_{ii}^{(n)}$  may be pretty hard

Thm 4.2  $i$  is RECURRENT iff  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)} = \infty$ .

Pf:  $M_i = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1_{\{X_n = i\}}$

$$\star 1 = E[M_i | X_0 = i] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E[1_{\{X_n = i\}} | X_0 = i]$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)}$$

$P(X_n = i | X_0 = i)$   
(expectation of indicator is a probability)

$\star$  Good quiz/exam problem

But from previous we know  $E[M_i | X_0 = i]$

$= \infty$  iff  $i$  is recurrent!

Corollary If  $i \leftrightarrow j$  and  $i$  is recurrent, then so is  $j$  *communicate*

Pf:  $\exists n$  and  $m$  st  $P_{ij}^{(n)}, P_{ji}^{(m)} > 0$ .

$$\sum_{v=0}^{\infty} P_{jj}^{(m+n+v)} \geq \sum_{v=0}^{\infty} P_{ji}^{(m)} P_{ii}^{(v)} P_{ij}^{(n)}$$

↑  
represents the probab of all the ways of going from  $j$  to  $j$  in  $m+n+v$  steps

← *Markov property*  
represents the probab of going from  $j$  to  $i$  in  $m$  steps, then  $i$  in  $v$  and and then  $i$  to  $j$  in  $n$ .

$$= P_{ji}^{(m)} P_{ij}^{(n)} \sum_{v=0}^{\infty} P_{ii}^{(v)} \quad \star 1$$

So if the RHS of  $\star 1$  is  $\infty$  then so is the LHS  
 $\Rightarrow j$  is recurrent.

[This proves that RECURRENCE is a CLASS PROPERTY (All the states in a comm. class are RECURRENCE or NONE of them are recurrent)]

## Sec 4.4 The Basic Limit Theorem ( $P_{ii}^n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty}$ )

Suppose  $S$  is countable or finite.

Let  $R_i = \min\{n \geq 1; X_n = i\}$  is the first return time to  $i$

$$\begin{aligned} f_{ii}^{(n)} &= P(X_n = i, X_{n-1} \neq i, \dots, X_1 \neq i | X_0 = i) \\ &= P(\underbrace{R_i = n}_{\text{first return time to } i} | X_0 = i) \text{ (pmf of return time)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } m_i &= E[R_i | X_0 = i] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n P(R_i = n | X_0 = i) \\ &= \text{"mean time to return to } i \text{ given you start at state } i\text{"} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n f_{ii}^{(n)} \end{aligned}$$

Thm: Given a aperiodic irreducible recurrent MC, then

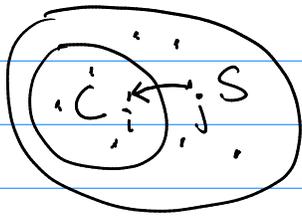
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{ii}^{(n)} = \frac{1}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n f_{ii}^{(n)}} = \frac{1}{m_i} = \pi_i > 0$$

(APPLIES TO COUNTABLY  $\infty$  # of states)  
This theorem can also be applied INSIDE each recurrent class of an MC)

★ Compute this for SRW.

This argument shows that if you start in a recurrent class then you can never leave it.

Let  $C$  be a recurrent class.



Suppose  $j \notin C, i \in C$   
 then 1)  $P_{ji}^{(m)} = 0 \forall m$  OR  
 2)  $P_{ij}^{(n)} = 0 \forall n$ .

Suppose  $P_{ij}^{(n)} > 0$  for some  $n \geq 1 \Rightarrow P_{ji}^{(m)} = 0 \forall m$

[Otherwise  $j \leftrightarrow i$ ]

$\{X_k \neq i \text{ for } \infty k, X_0 = i\} \supseteq \{X_n = j, X_0 = i\}$   
 ↑  
 visiting  $j$  after  $n$  steps.

for  $\infty k$

$$P(\{X_k \neq i \text{ for } \infty k, X_0 = i\}) \geq P[\{X_n = j, X_0 = i\}]$$

→ for  $\infty k$

$$P(\{X_k \neq i \text{ for } \infty k \mid X_0 = i\}) \geq P[\{X_n = j \mid X_0 = i\}]$$

$$1 - P(\{X_k = i \text{ for } \infty k \mid X_0 = i\}) \geq P_{ij}^{(n)} > 0$$

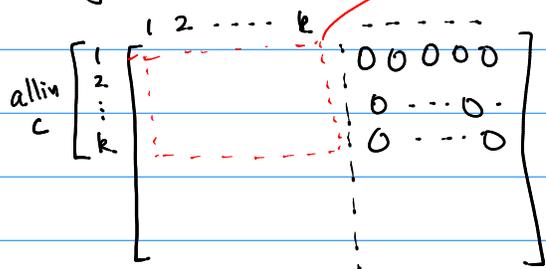
$$\Rightarrow P(\{X_k = i \text{ for infinitely many } k \mid X_0 = i\}) \leq 1 - P_{ij}^{(n)} < 1$$

But this is the event we require to have full probability for recurrence.

So:

Prop: If  $i \in C$ ,  $j \notin C$  and  $C$  recurrent then

$$P_{ij}^{(n)} = 0 \quad \forall n.$$



You can look at each recurrent class and treat it as its own MC (since you can never leave it)

Remember I said that an absorbing state is like Hotel California?

That's a bad analogy. Really RECURRENT CLASSES are like Hotel California. Each state in the class is like a room in the hotel.

$$\text{Let } \pi_i = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{ii}^{(n)} = \frac{1}{n_i} \text{ in a n}$$

a periodic recurrent Markov chain.

$\pi_i$  could well be 0. When is it not?

POSITIVE RECURRENCE: An aperiodic recurrent class is called positive recurrent.

$$\text{if } P_{ii}^{(n)} \rightarrow \pi_i > 0$$

$$\text{Or } m_i = E[R_i | X_0 = i] < \infty$$

(The EXPECTED Return time is finite)

$$\text{(NULL RECURRENCE) if } P_{ii}^{(n)} \rightarrow 0$$

$\pi$ : In a positive recurrent aperiodic class with a finite or countably many states

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{ij}^{(n)} = \pi_j \quad \text{where } \pi_j \text{ determined uniquely by}$$

$$\pi_i > 0, \sum \pi_i = 1 \quad \pi_j = \sum_i \pi_i P_{ij}$$

(\*) 3

$\pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots)$  vector solution to these equations

### STATIONARY DISTRIBUTION

$$\lambda = 1 \text{ (eigenvalue)}$$

$$\pi = \pi P$$

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{ii}^{(n)} = \pi_i$  then we know  $\pi_i$  is stationary

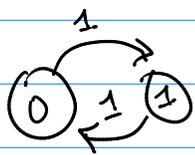
BUT even  $\pi_i$  is a stationary distribution,

we need not have

(\*) 3

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{ii}^{(n)} = \pi_i$$

Ex:  $P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$      $P^n = \begin{cases} I & n \text{ is even} \\ P & n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$



$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n$  does not exist BUT.

$$\overset{\pi}{(1/2 \quad 1/2)} \overset{P}{\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}} = \overset{\lambda=1}{\overset{\pi}{(1/2 \quad 1/2)}}$$

$\pi$  EXISTS.

(The problem here is periodicity)

The reason  $P_{ij}^n$  does not converge is because

$$d_0 = 2 = d_1.$$

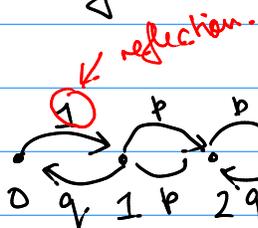
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{11}^{(nd)} = 1 \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{11}^{(nd+1)} = 0$$

Thm: In a positive recurrent PERIODIC class with a finitely many states

$$\frac{1}{d} \sum P_{ij}^{n+1} + \dots + P_{ij}^{n+d} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \pi_j$$

(instead of  $P_{ij}^n \rightarrow \pi_j$ )

# Semi-Infinite Random walk with reflecting boundary



$$p + q = 1$$

$$P = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ q & 0 & p & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & q & 0 & p & \dots \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

$\infty$  matrix.

Find stationary distribution.

$$\pi_0 = \pi_1 q$$

$$\pi_1 = \pi_0 + q \pi_2$$

$$\pi_2 = p \pi_1 + q \pi_3$$

$$\pi_3 = p \pi_2 + q \pi_4$$

$$\pi_1 = q \pi_0$$

$$\pi_2 = \frac{p}{q} \pi_1 = p q^{-2} \pi_0$$

$$\pi_3 = p^2 q^{-3} \pi_0$$

$$\pi_k = p^{k-1} q^{-k} \pi_0$$

$$\pi_0 + \pi_1 + \dots = \pi_0 \left[ 1 + \frac{p}{q} + \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^2 + \dots \right] = 1$$

ONLY CONVERGES IF  $p < q$ .

$$\pi_0 \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{1 - p/q} \right] = 1 \Rightarrow \pi_0 \left[ \frac{1 + q - p}{q - p} \right] = 1$$

$$\pi_0 = \frac{q - p}{1 + q - 1 + q} = \frac{q - p}{2q} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 - \frac{p}{q} \right]$$

$$\pi_k = q^{-1} (pq^{-1})^{k-1} \frac{1}{2} (1 + pq^{-1}) \quad \pi_k = C \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^{k-1} = C' \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^k$$

This looks a lot like a geometric. Is this a geometric? HW or QUIZ. ] Think about it

← Leftward drift towards the origin.



Success Runs Markov Chain

$$P = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & \dots \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} p & q & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ p & 0 & q & 0 & \dots \\ p & 0 & 0 & q & \dots \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

Determine if Recurrent or NOT.

How many recurrence classes? ONLY 1.

$R_0$  = 1st return time to 0.

$$P(R_0 > 1 | X_0 = 0) = q$$

$$P(R_0 > 2 | X_0 = 0) = q^2$$

$$P(R_0 > k | X_0 = 0) = q^k$$

$$\text{Ex. } P(R_0 > k | X_0 = 0) = 1 - \sum_{n=1}^k f_{00}^{(n)}$$

since  $f_{00}^{(n)}$  is the pmf of  $R_0$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} q^k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} 1 - \sum_{n=1}^k f_{00}^{(n)}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_{00}^{(n)} \Rightarrow 0 \text{ is RECURRENT}$$

Since the chain is irreducible. ALL states RECURRENT.

★ HW or Quiz: Show all states communicate.

Summary: In countable, aperiodic, recurrent

classes, we've stated

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{ji}^{(n)} = \frac{1}{m_i} = \pi_i \begin{cases} > 0 & \text{if positive recurrent} \\ = 0 & \text{called null recurrent} \end{cases}$$

Will prove this in the finite state case

And established 2 conditions for recurrence.

$$1) \underbrace{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_{00}^{(n)}}_{\text{return time is finite}} = 1 \quad 2) \underbrace{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{ii}^{(n)}}_{\text{mean \# of recurrences is } \infty} = +\infty$$

→ PERIOD

Periodic case : Here : ( $d > 1$ )

$$P_{ii}^m = 0 \quad \text{if } m \neq nd$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{ii}^{nd} = \frac{d}{m_i} = d\pi_i \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{limit exists along} \\ \text{subsequences} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\frac{1}{d} \sum_{m=0}^{d-1} P_{ii}^{(n+m)}}_{\text{mean \# of visits to site } i} = \pi_i$$

mean return time to  $i$   
 $m_i = E[R_i | X_0 = i]$

mean # of visits to site  $i$

Maybe worth shipping.

Lec 20: (linear algebra approach to MC with finitely many states)

Recall our 2 state MC where we found

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} \text{ has evals } 1 \text{ and } 1-a-b.$$

$\det(\lambda I - P) = 0$

We found  $Q$  the matrix of row eigenvectors.

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{b}{a+b} & \frac{a}{a+b} \\ \frac{1}{a+b} & \frac{-1}{a+b} \end{pmatrix} \text{ and its inverse } Q^{-1} \text{ column eigenvectors}$$

Then  $QPQ^{-1} = \Lambda$  diagonal matrix of eigenvalues.

Why did this work? We wrote

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 \\ \dots \\ \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } \vec{v}_1 P = \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 P = (1-a-b)\vec{v}_2$$

$\vec{v}_1$  left evec of  $\lambda=1$   
 $\vec{v}_2$  evec  $\lambda=1-a-b$

$$Q^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 & \vec{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2 \text{ are some column vectors}$$

right column eigenvectors

$$QQ^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 \\ \dots \\ \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 & \vec{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{x}_1 & \vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{x}_2 \\ \vec{v}_2 \cdot \vec{x}_1 & \vec{v}_2 \cdot \vec{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ (dot products of } \vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{x}_j)$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} \vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{x}_1 &= 1 & \vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{x}_2 &= 0 \\ \vec{v}_2 \cdot \vec{x}_1 &= 0 & \vec{v}_2 \cdot \vec{x}_2 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda=1 \quad \begin{aligned} \vec{v}_1 &\perp \vec{x}_2 \\ \vec{v}_2 &\perp \vec{x}_1 \end{aligned} \rightarrow \lambda=1-a-b$$

$$\text{so } QP = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 \\ \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} P = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 \cdot P \\ \vec{v}_2 \cdot P \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 \\ \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1=1 \quad \lambda_2=1-a-b$$

$$\Rightarrow QPQ^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 \\ \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The upshot is that we can compute

$$P^n = Q^{-1} \Lambda^n Q \quad \Lambda^n = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^n \end{bmatrix}$$

and so we could explicitly COMPUTE  $P^n$ .

This works more generally.

Note  $Q^{-1}$  consists of the RIGHT eigenvectors of  $P$

So take any  $P$  with  $N$  states. We know  $(1, 1, \dots, 1)$  is a RIGHT eigenvector.

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} p_{11} & \dots & p_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ p_{n1} & \dots & p_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_{11} + \dots + p_{1n} \\ \vdots \\ p_{n1} + \dots + p_{nn} \end{pmatrix}_{n \times 1}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So 1 is ALWAYS an eigenvalue.

Perron-Frobenius: Suppose  $P$  has ALL POSITIVE entries, then

- 1)  $\lambda_1 = 1$  is a simple eigenvalue
- 2) All other values have  $|\lambda_i| < 1$
- 3)  $\exists$  a LEFT eigenvector <sup>corresponding to  $\lambda = 1$</sup>  has all positive entries. ] existence of stationary probability

lemma: It is enough if  $\exists M$  st  $n \geq M \Rightarrow P^n$  has all positive entries.

$$P_{2 \times 2} = Q^{-1} \Lambda Q$$

$$P^n = Q^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^n \end{bmatrix} Q$$

$\Rightarrow$  I can compute  $P^n$  once I find left eigenvectors  $Q$ ,  $Q^{-1}$  and the eigenvalues.

$P_{n \times n}$ .

$$P \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \lambda \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow \text{right eigenvector.}$$

for any  $P$ .

$P_{ij} > 0 \forall i, j$  ( $\Rightarrow P$  is regular)

(Meaning it has multiplicity 1).

$\Rightarrow$  Eigenspace is 1 dimensional.

$$C(\lambda) = \det(P - \lambda I) = \pm (\lambda - \lambda_1)^{m_1} \dots (\lambda - \lambda_k)^{m_k}$$

$\Rightarrow \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$  are eigenvalues

$m_1, \dots, m_k$  are multiplicities.

$\lambda = 1, m_1 = 1$  (1 is a SIMPLE eigenvalue)

(If  $P$  is regular, then  $\exists k$  st  $P^k_{ij} > 0$ . So

Perron-Frobenius applies to  $P^k$

OK, so what? Then we can write

$P = Q^{-1} \Lambda Q$  where  $\Lambda$  is in JORDAN FORM  
(close to diagonal)

Thus

$$\Lambda = \left[ \begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & \dots & \\ \hline 0 & \textcircled{M} & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right]_{m_1=1}$$

$$\Lambda^n = \left[ \begin{array}{c|ccc} 1^n & & & \\ \hline 0 & \textcircled{M^n} & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right] \text{ and since}$$

the eigenvalues of  $P$  are all  $< 1$  except for 1  
 $M^n \rightarrow 0$ .

Thus  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n = Q^{-1} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Lambda^n Q = Q^{-1} \left[ \begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & & \\ \hline 0 & 0 & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right] Q$

How do you perform this multiplication?

$$P^k = Q^{-1} \Lambda^k Q \text{ where.}$$

$$\Lambda^k = \left[ \begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ \hline 0 & \textcircled{M} & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right] \text{ Jordan form.}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} = Q^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1-a-b \end{bmatrix} Q$$

$$P = Q^{-1} \left[ \begin{array}{c|ccc} \textcircled{M} & 0 & 0 & \\ \hline 0 & \textcircled{M} & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \right] Q$$

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

Recall that  $Q = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & v_1 & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & v_n & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$  left eigenvector corresponds to  $\lambda_i = 1$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ k \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}_{1 \times n} \cdot P_{n \times n} \cdot c_j$$

LEFT eigenvectors.

Will show  $Q^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & \dots & c_n \end{bmatrix}$  right eigenvectors.

Correspond to right eigenvectors with the same corresponding eigenvalue as the left:

$$v_k \cdot P = \lambda_k v_k \quad P c_k = \lambda_k c_k$$

Moreover eigenvectors are unique upto multiplication constant.

Note  $v_i \cdot P = \lambda_i v_i, \quad P c_k = \lambda_k c_k$

Assume  $i \neq k$  then

$$v_i \cdot P c_k = \lambda_i v_i \cdot c_k = \lambda_k v_i \cdot c_k$$

$\lambda_i \neq \lambda_k$  (distinctness) Then  $v_i \perp c_k$

Perron Frobenius  $\Rightarrow 1$  is simple and UNIQUE.

So  $v_i \perp c_k \quad \forall k \neq 1$  and  $\Leftrightarrow (v_i, c_k) = 0$   
 $[v_k \perp c_j \quad \forall k \neq 1 \quad \Leftrightarrow (v_k, c_j) = 0]$

row matrix column

$$\begin{matrix} \underbrace{v_i^0}_{1 \times n} & \cdot & \underbrace{P}_{n \times n} & \cdot & \underbrace{c_k}_{n \times 1} & = & \lambda_i v_i \cdot c_k \\ & & & & = & v_i \cdot (\lambda_k c_k) & = & \lambda_k v_i \cdot c_k \end{matrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda_i - \lambda_k) (v_i \cdot c_k) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_i = \lambda_k \times \Rightarrow v_i \cdot c_k = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow v_i \text{ and } c_k \text{ are ORTHOGONAL } v_i \perp c_k$$

Now  $Q$  is invertible and

$$Qx = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{since } QQ^T = I)$$

Thus  $x$  is unique. We have shown that

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} \cdot c_1 = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \cdot c_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \cdot c_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Since  $c_1$  is the eigenvector corresponding to 1

It must be  $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ a \\ \vdots \\ a \end{pmatrix}$ . Using  $v_i = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_n)$

$$\text{and } v_i \cdot c_1 = a \sum_{i=1}^n \pi_i = a \Rightarrow a = 1$$

So: THE FIRST COLUMN OF  $Q^T$  MUST BE ALL ONES  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\text{So } Q^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} Q = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_i \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \pi_i \\ \vdots \\ \pi_n \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{stationary prob. vector.}$$

$$[1 \ 0 \ \dots \ 0] \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot v_1 + 0 \cdot v_2 + \dots = v_1$$

$Ax=b$  Then if  $A$  is invertible then  $x = A^{-1}b$  IS UNIQUE solution to this equation.

$$QQ^T = I \quad \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & \dots & c_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \cdot c_1 & v_1 \cdot c_2 & \dots & v_1 \cdot c_n \\ v_2 \cdot c_1 & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ v_n \cdot c_1 & \dots & \dots & v_n \cdot c_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} v_1 \cdot c_1 &= 1 \\ v_2 \cdot c_1 &= 0 \\ v_3 \cdot c_1 &= 0 \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

$c_1$  must of the form  $a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$v_1 \cdot c_1 = 1 \text{ and } v_1 = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_n)$$

$$\Rightarrow v_1 \cdot c_1 = a(\pi_1 + \pi_2 + \dots + \pi_n) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow a = 1$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^n = Q^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} Q$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & c_2 & \dots & c_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{matrix} \text{row vector} \\ [x_1 \dots x_n] \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \text{Matrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} \text{row vector} \\ [x_1 v_1 + x_2 v_2 + \dots + x_n v_n] \end{matrix}$$

Last fact we need:

If  $P$  is regular,  $P^n$  has all positive entries.  $\Rightarrow$  PERRON Frobenius applies.

$\Rightarrow P^n$  has 1 as a simple eval. All other evals have  $|\lambda| < 1$ .

Let us suppose  $P$  has  $k$  <sup>distinct</sup> eigenvalues and  $k$  corresponding eigenvectors.

Then  $P v_i = \lambda_i v_i$

$$\Rightarrow P^n v_i = P^{n-1} P v_i = P^{n-1} \lambda_i v_i = \lambda_i^n v_i$$

$\Rightarrow \lambda_i^n$  is the corresponding eval of  $P^n$

by Perron Frobenius  $|\lambda_i^n| < 1$  except for  $\lambda_i = 1$

A similar argument using the Jordan form shows that  $\lambda_i = 1$  is simple.

PERIODIC CASE: In this case the Perron-Frobenius theorem says that there are  $d$  eigenvalues such that  $|\lambda_i| = 1$   $i=1, \dots, d$

HW:  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4 & 0.2 & 0.4 \\ 0.6 & 0 & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & 0.5 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$

Using a computer, find  $P_{21}^7, P_{21}^8, P_{21}^{20}$   
Compute the long term prob of being in state 1 using the stationary probability

HW: 1-5 from lastler. Find all communication classes.

Last few topics for long term behavior

- 1) Martingales and MC → Lawler Ch 2 and Ch 5
- 2) A condition for transience. → Partially in KP Ch 4
- 2a) Apply this theory to the 1d random walk
- 3) Random walk in higher d. → Lawler Ch 2 as well

Markingale Suppose we have an MC on a countable # of states.

Let

$$f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad \text{st} \quad \underbrace{f(x) = \sum_{y \in S} P(x,y) f(y)}_{\text{Harmonic for the MC}}$$

Then  $f(X_n)$  is a Martingale.

$$\mathcal{F}_n = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

$$\mathbb{E}[f(X_n) | \mathcal{F}_{n-1}] = \mathbb{E}[f(X_n) | X_{n-1}]$$

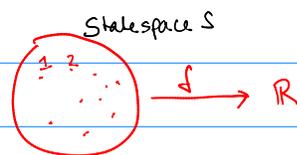
$$\mathbb{E}[f(X_n) | X_{n-1} = x] = \sum_{y \in S} \underbrace{P(x,y)}_{\text{yes}} f(y) = f(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[f(X_n) | X_{n-1}] = f(X_{n-1})$$

ASSUME ONLY ONE CLASS. (Chain is irreducible)

Fix a state  $z \in S$ . Define

$$\alpha(x) = P(X_n = z \text{ for some } n \geq 0 | X_0 = x) \\ = P(\text{ever reach } z \text{ given you start at } x)$$



$$P(x,y) = P(X_{n+1} = y | X_n = x) \\ = P_{xy}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[f(X_n) | X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}] = f(X_{n-1})$$

$$\downarrow \\ = \mathbb{E}[f(X_n) | X_{n-1}]$$

$$\underbrace{\phantom{\mathbb{E}[f(X_n) | X_{n-1}]}}_g \\ g(i) = \mathbb{E}[f(X_n) | X_{n-1} = i]$$

$$\text{Need to show: } \mathbb{E}[f(X_n) | X_1 = a_1, \dots, X_{n-1} = a_{n-1}] \\ = f(a_{n-1})$$

$$= \sum P(X_n = y | X_{n-1} = x) f(y)$$

$$P(x,y) = P(X_n = y | X_{n-1} = x) \\ = P_{xy}$$

$$\alpha(z) = 1.$$

If  $x \neq z$

$$\alpha(x) = P(X_n = z \text{ for some } n \geq 1 \mid X_0 = x)$$

First step analysis

$$= \sum_{y \in S} p(x,y) P(X_n = z \text{ for some } n \geq 1 \mid X_1 = y)$$

*(Note: A wavy arrow points from the condition  $X_1 = y$  to the text  $= 1$  if  $y = z$ )*

$$= p(x,z) + \sum_{y \neq z} p(x,y) \alpha(y)$$

$$= p(x,z) \alpha(z) + \sum_{y \neq z} p(x,y) \alpha(y)$$

*(Note: A blue arrow points from  $\alpha(z)$  to the text  $\alpha(z) = 1$ )*

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

*(Note:  $\alpha$  is almost harmonic)*  
 $\alpha(x) = \sum_{y \in S} p(x,y) \alpha(y)$   $x \neq z$

$$\alpha(z) = 1 \neq \sum_{y \in S} p(z,y) \alpha(y)$$

*(Note:  $\alpha(z) \neq \sum_{y \in S} p(z,y) \alpha(y)$ )*

BUT that is OK for us.

$$\alpha(x) = \sum_{y \in S} p(x,y) \alpha(y) \quad \text{Then } \alpha(X_n)$$

is a martingale.

Properties of  $\alpha$

1)  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$  ] since its a probability

2)  $\alpha(x) = \sum p(x,y) \alpha(y)$   $x \neq z$

3)  $\alpha(z) = 1$

Let  $T = \min\{n \geq 0 \mid X_n = z\}$  ] First time at which you hit state z

Then  $\alpha(x) = P(T < \infty \mid X_0 = x) = P(X_n = z \text{ for some } n \geq 0 \mid X_0 = x)$

Let  $T_n = \min(n, T)$  Then  $\alpha(X_{T_n})$  is a martingale, since i

$$E[\alpha(X_{T_n}) \mid \mathcal{F}_{n-1}] = E[\alpha(X_{T_n}) \mid X_{T_{n-1}} = x] \quad E[\alpha(X_{T_n}) \mid \mathcal{F}_{n-1}] = \alpha(X_{T_{n-1}})$$

Martingale property.

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \min(n, T) = T$  if  $T$  is finite

When  $x \neq z$ ,  $\Rightarrow T \geq n-1 = E[\alpha(X_n) \mid X_{n-1} = x]$

$$= \sum \alpha(y) p(x,y) = \alpha(x)$$

Yes  $\alpha$  is harmonic

$$= \alpha(X_{T_{n-1}})$$

(if  $T < n-1$   $X_{T_{n-1}} = X_T = z \neq x$ )

When  $x = z$  then

$$E[\alpha(X_{T_n}) \mid X_{T_{n-1}} = z] = \alpha(z) = \alpha(X_{T_{n-1}}) \quad (\Rightarrow T \leq n-1) \quad X_{T_n} = X_T = z$$

Proves that  $\alpha(X_{T_n})$  is a martingale.

Then  $E[\alpha(X_{T_n})] = E[\alpha(X_{T_0})] = E[\alpha(X_0)] = \alpha(X_0)$   $T \wedge 0 = 0$  since  $T \geq 0$ .

(if  $X_0 = x$ )

Let  $n \rightarrow \infty$

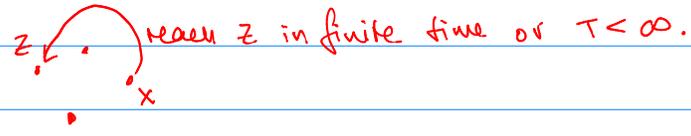
uses bounded convergence theorem. ( $\alpha$  is bounded)

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha(X_{T \wedge n}) = \alpha(X_T) \text{ assuming } P(T < \infty | X_0 = x) = 1$$

$$\text{Take } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E[\alpha(X_{T \wedge n})] = E[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha(X_{T \wedge n})]$$

$$= E[\alpha(X_T)] = \alpha(z) = 1 \quad (\text{Markov Chain at stopping time must be at } z)$$

Assuming  $P(T < \infty | X_0 = x) = 1$   
 (we will prove this on another page) \*



So if  $\alpha_n$  chain is irreducible and recurrent  
 $\alpha(x) = 1 \quad \forall x \in S$

$$\alpha(x) = P(z \text{ is reached in finite time } | X_0 = x) = 1$$

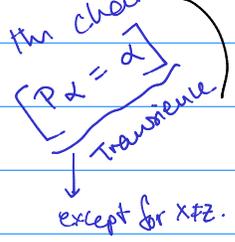
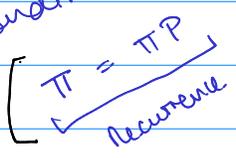
$$1 = \alpha(z) = E[\alpha(X_T)] = \alpha(X_0) = \alpha(x) \quad x \neq z \Rightarrow \alpha = 1$$

So: if a chain is recurrent, there is no

- $\alpha : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  st for any fixed  $z$
- 1)  $\alpha(x) = \sum p(x,y) \alpha(y) \quad x \neq z$
  - 2)  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$
  - 3)  $\alpha$  is not identically 1

There is not way to find an  $\alpha$  satisfying these equations if our chain is recurrent (using martingales)  
 If you can find such a  $f_n$  + an extra condition then the chain is transient

Theorem 2 is sketched in the finite case



Condition for Transience:

Turns out: if an irreducible chain is transient,  $\exists \alpha$  st (UNIQUE)

1)  $\alpha(x) = \sum p(x,y)\alpha(y)$   $P\alpha = \alpha$

2)  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$

3)  $\inf_{x \in S} \{\alpha(x)\} = 0$

$\pi = \pi P$  (S countable as well).  
 $\begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ i \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$   
 $\pi(i) = \sum \pi(j)P(i,j)$   $\leftarrow$   $\star 1$   $\sum \pi(i) = 1$   
 If a solution exists st  $\pi(i) > 0 \forall i$   
 then chain positive recurrent.

$P\alpha = \alpha$   $\begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \alpha \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}$   $\leftarrow i$   
 $\sum P_{ij} \alpha(j) = \alpha(i)$   $\leftarrow \star 2$

ANALOGS  $\sum \pi(x) = 1$   
 $\pi(x) > 0 \forall x \in S$ .

To summarize:

1) If an irreducible chain is positive recurrent then  $\exists \pi_j$  st

$$\sum \pi_j = 1, \pi_j > 0 \quad \pi(x) = \sum_{y \in S} \pi(y) P(y, x)$$

If you can find such a  $\pi$  then we KNOW ITS +ve recurrent.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{ij}^n \rightarrow \pi_j$$

If NO such solution exists

2) A chain is transient if  $\exists \alpha$  st  
(UNIQUE)

$$1) \alpha(x) = \sum p(x, y) \alpha(y)$$

$$2) 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$$

$$3) \inf_x \alpha(x) = 0$$

If you can find such an  $\alpha$  then the chain is TRANSIENT.

↓

Else NULL recurrent.

directly

Another way of detecting NULL recurrence is to show that

$$P(T_x | X_0 = x) = 1 \text{ BUT } E[T_x | X_0 = x] = +\infty$$

where  $T_x =$  1st return time to  $x$ .

Prob of returning to  $x$  at least once given  $X_0 = x = 1$

BUT average time to return is  $+\infty$ .

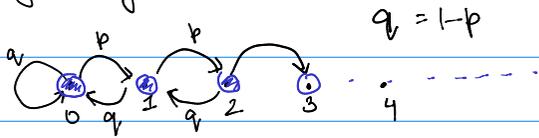
(Avg time to return if +ve recurrent is

$$E[T_x | X_0 = x] = \frac{1}{\pi(x)} < \infty)$$

lec 22 More on the Random Walk.

We now wish to determine whether or not the SRW on  $\mathbb{Z}^d$  is NULL recurrent or transient.

We do this by studying the "partially reflecting SRW"



Claim: The recurrence and transience of 0 in the SRW on  $\mathbb{Z}$  can be studied with this model.

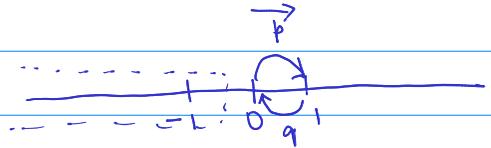
1) Let's try to find  $\alpha$ .

(\*)

$$\alpha(x) = \sum p(x,y)\alpha(y) = q\alpha(x-1) + p\alpha(x+1)$$

We have solved such equations in the past.

→ Partially reflecting at 0.



→ Is 0 recurrent in SRW on  $\mathbb{Z}$ ?

$$\sum P_{00}^{(n)} \approx \sum \frac{c}{\sqrt{n}} = +\infty \Rightarrow \text{SRW was recurrent } p=q.$$

$$\vec{P}\alpha = \alpha \quad \sum P_{ij}\alpha_j = \alpha_i$$

$$\pi(x) = p\pi(x-1) + q\pi(x+1)$$

$$\pi(x) = C_1 \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^x + C_2 \quad \text{general.}$$

We have seen a version of this in lec 19

Turns out that the solution is

$$\textcircled{*2} \alpha(x) = q + c_2 \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^x \quad p \neq \frac{1}{2} \quad (p \neq q)$$

$$\alpha(x) = q + c_2 x \quad p = \frac{1}{2} \quad (p = q)$$

All solutions can be written as linear  
combs of  $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^x$  and 1  
Theory of linear difference equations.

Can we find  $\alpha$  st:

1)  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \quad \forall x$

2)  $\inf_x \alpha(x) = 0$

3)  $\alpha(0) = 1 \quad (z=0)$

$$\alpha(0) = 1 \Rightarrow \textcircled{*3} c_1 + c_2 = 1$$

$$q < p$$

$$\alpha(x) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^x \quad \text{which satisfies all 3} \\ q < p.$$

$$\underline{p \neq \frac{1}{2}} \quad \alpha(0) = 1 \Rightarrow c_1 + c_2 = 1$$

2)  $\Rightarrow \frac{q}{p} < 1 \Rightarrow p > \frac{1}{2}$  (or  $c_2 = 0$  which does not work)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} q + c_2 \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^x = q \Rightarrow c_1 = 0, c_2 = 1$$

THUS  $p > \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow$  transient.

$$p = q \quad \alpha(x) = q + c_2 x \quad \alpha(0) = 1 \Rightarrow c_1 = 1$$

$$0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \Rightarrow c_2 = 0, \quad \boxed{\text{No solution}}$$

In  $p = q$  there must be no solution

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = 1$$

Can it be positive RECURRENT?

Now we have to solve

$$\pi = \pi P$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \pi(x) \\ \dots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi \\ \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} P(y,x) \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$\text{Here } \pi(x) = p \pi(x-1) + q \pi(x+1)$$

$$\left[ \alpha(x) = q \alpha(x-1) + p \alpha(x+1) \right]$$

So this time

$$\pi(x) = \begin{cases} c_1 + c_2 \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^x & p \neq q \\ c_1 + c_2 x & p = q \end{cases}$$

For it to work this time, we must have  $p < q$

since otherwise we cannot satisfy  $\sum_x \pi(x) = 1$

So we have discovered that

$p < q$  POSITIVE RECURRENT ✓ (found  $\pi$ )

$p > q$  TRANSIENT ✓ (found  $\alpha$ )

$p = q$  NULL RECURRENT (only possibility left in the  $p = q$  case)

solved in the fully reflecting case.

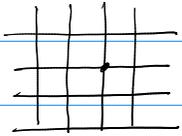
we have done this lec 19 explicitly.

$$\sum \pi(x) = 1 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^x \text{ to decay} \Rightarrow p < q$$
$$c_1 = 0 \quad c_2 = \frac{1}{\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^x}, \quad \pi(x) = c_2 \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^x > 0.$$

If  $p = q$ , avg. time to return to 0 is  $+\infty$

We can use this case to make similar statements about the unrestricted 1D Random walk.

## Random Walk in general dimensions



We again write

$$X_n = \vec{z}_1 + \dots + \vec{z}_n \quad X_0 = 0$$

where  $\vec{z}_i$  are iid and take

values in  $\underbrace{\{(1, 0, \dots), (-1, 0, \dots), (0, 1, \dots)\}}_{\text{length } d}$

There are  $d$  components to each step  $\vec{z}_i$

We want to determine whether or not  $0$  is recurrent.

[\* What is the periodicity of the  $d$  dimensional random walk.]

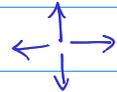
Again recall that

$$\sum P_{00}^{(n)} = +\infty \Leftrightarrow 0 \text{ is recurrent}$$

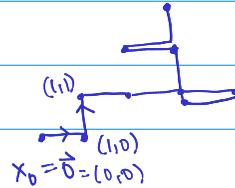
\* HW or Quiz: in a recurrent class, can you determine  $P(X_n = j \text{ for some } n \geq 0 \mid X_0 = i)$

$d=2, d=3$  and so on.

(Symmetric random walk)

 In  $d=2$ ,  $2d=4$  possibilities for steps.

$\sum P_{00}^{(n)} = ? + \infty$  and see when  $\sum P_{00}^{(n)} < \infty$   
Transient.  
Recurrent



As in 1D, we need the # of steps to be even.  $2n$

Of these approximately  $\frac{2n}{d}$  are in component 1,  
 $\frac{2n}{d}$  are in component 2, ...

Say  $d=7$  and  $n=100$ , then  $d$  may not divide  $2n$  exactly.

Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_d$  be the # of steps taken in each comp.

So we only know that  $A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_d = 2n$   
 and LLN says  $A_1 \approx A_2 \approx \dots \approx A_d \approx \frac{2n}{d}$

Since there are "an equal # of even and odd #s" the probability that  $A_i$  is even is approximately  $(\frac{1}{2})$ . One can also show that these  $A_i$  are approximately independent.

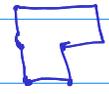
Thus  $P(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_d \text{ are all even}) \approx (\frac{1}{2})^{d-1}$

In each of these components, you want the steps to sum to 0, so like in 1d this has probability

can we 1d asym for component i?

$$\sum P_{00}^{(2n)} = P(X_{2n} = 0 | X_0 = 0) = \binom{2n}{n} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2n}$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{n}}$$



# of paths with equal up and down steps

Prob of any such path  $p^n q^n$

$n$  steps in component 1 to be even

$n$  steps in component 2 to be even.



$n=2, 2n=4$

(Law of large numbers ensures that # of steps in each component is APPROX.  $n$ )

$$P(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_d \text{ are all even}, \sum A_i = 2n) = P(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_{d-1} \text{ are all even}, \sum A_i = 2n)$$

$$A_i \approx \frac{2n}{d}$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}} \quad (\text{for } 2n \text{ steps})$$

Since we're taking  $\frac{2n}{d}$  steps this prob is approximately

$$\approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n/d}} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{n/d}}$$

Since the components are independent.

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{all components sum to } 0) \approx \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n/d}} \right)^d$$

← components

(given approx.  $\frac{2n}{d}$  steps, all even)

$$= \left( \frac{d}{\pi n} \right)^{d/2}$$

Thus

$$P_{00}^{(2n)} \approx \frac{1}{2^{d-1}} \left( \frac{d}{\pi n} \right)^{d/2}$$

$$= 2 \left( \frac{d/2}{\pi n} \right)^{d/2} = \frac{c}{n^{d/2}}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P_{00}^{(2n)} =$$

$$\begin{cases} +\infty & d=1, 2 \quad \left( \frac{c}{\sqrt{n}}, \frac{c}{n} \right) \\ <\infty & d=3, 4, \dots \quad \left( \frac{c}{n^{3/2}}, \dots \right) \end{cases}$$

RECURRENT

TRANSIENT

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^\alpha} dx = \begin{cases} \log x \Big|_1^{\infty} & \alpha=1 \\ \frac{(1-\alpha)}{x^{\alpha-1}} \Big|_1^{\infty} & (\neq \infty \text{ unless } \alpha > 1) \end{cases}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{c}{n^{d/2}}$$

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^{d/2}} = \frac{x^{-d/2+1}}{-d/2+1} \Big|_1^{\infty}$$

$$= \frac{c}{x^{d/2-1}} \Big|_1^{\infty}$$

(  $d/2 > 1$  )

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x} = \log x \Big|_1^{\infty} = +\infty$$

## SUMMARY

- 1) A drunk man or woman will always find their way home  $(d=2)$
- 2) A drunk bird will never find its way home  $(d=3)$