#### Continuous Time Markov Chains

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## Purposes of Today's Lecture

- Define Continuous Time Markov Chain.
- Prove Chapman-Kolmogorov equations.
- Deduce Kolmogorov's forward and backward equations.
- Review properties.
- Define skeleton chain.
- Discuss ergodic theorem.



#### Continuous Time Markov Chains

- Consider a population of single celled organisms in a stable environment.
- Fix short time interval, length h.
- Each cell has some prob of dividing to produce 2, some other prob of dying.
- We might suppose:
  - Different organisms behave independently.
  - ▶ Probability of division (for specified organism) is  $\lambda h$  plus o(h).
  - ▶ Probability of death is  $\mu h$  plus o(h).
  - ▶ Prob an organism divides twice (or divides once and dies) in interval of length h is o(h).



#### **Basic Notation**

- Notice tacit assumption: constants of proportionality do not depend on time.
- That is our interpretation of "stable environment".
- Notice too that we have taken the constants not to depend on which organism we are talking about.
- We are really assuming that the organisms are all similar and live in similar environments.
- Notation: Y(t): total population at time t.
- Notation:  $\mathcal{H}_t$ : history of the process up to time t.
- Notation: We generally take

$$\mathcal{H}_t = \sigma\{Y(s); 0 \le s \le t\}$$



#### Histories or Filtrations

**Def'n**: General definition of a **history** (alternative jargon **filtration**): any family of  $\sigma$ -fields indexed by t satisfying:

- s < t implies  $\mathcal{H}_s \subset \mathcal{H}_t$ .
- Y(t) is a  $\mathcal{H}_t$  measurable random variable.
- $\mathcal{H}_t = \bigcap_{s>t} \mathcal{H}_s$ .

The last assumption is a technical detail we will ignore from now on.



# Modelling Assumptions

- Condition on event Y(t) = n.
- Then the probability of two or more divisions (either more than one division by a single organism or two or more organisms dividing) is o(h) by our assumptions.
- Similarly the probability of both a division and a death or of two or more deaths is o(h).
- So probability of exactly 1 division by any one of the *n* organisms is  $n\lambda h + o(h)$ .
- Similarly probability of 1 death is  $n\mu h + o(h)$ .



## The Markov Property

• We deduce:

$$P(Y(t+h) = n+1|Y(t) = n, \mathcal{H}_t)$$

$$= n\lambda h + o(h)$$

$$P(Y(t+h) = n-1|Y(t) = n, \mathcal{H}_t)$$

$$= n\mu h + o(h)$$

$$P(Y(t+h) = n|Y(t) = n, \mathcal{H}_t)$$

$$= 1 - n(\lambda + \mu)h + o(h)$$

$$P(Y(t+h) \notin \{n-1, n, n+1\}|Y(t) = n, \mathcal{H}_t)$$

$$= o(h)$$

These equations lead to:

$$P(Y(t+s) = j|Y(s) = i, \mathcal{H}_s) = P(Y(t+s) = j|Y(s) = i)$$
  
=  $P(Y(t) = j|Y(0) = i)$ 

• This is the Markov Property.



#### **Definitions**

**Def'n**: A process  $\{Y(t); t \ge 0\}$  taking values in S, a finite or countable state space is a Markov Chain if

$$P(Y(t+s) = j|Y(s) = i, \mathcal{H}_s)$$

$$= P(Y(t+s) = j|Y(s) = i)$$

$$\equiv \mathbf{P}_{ij}(s, s+t)$$

**Def'n**: A Markov chain Y has **stationary transitions** if

$${\sf P}_{ij}(s,s+t)={\sf P}_{ij}(0,t)\equiv{\sf P}_{ij}(t)$$

From now on: our chains have stationary transitions.



# Summary of Markov Process Results

Chapman-Kolmogorov equations:

$$\mathsf{P}_{ik}(t+s) = \sum_{j} \mathsf{P}_{ij}(t) \mathsf{P}_{jk}(s)$$

- Exponential holding times: starting from state i time,  $T_i$ , until process leaves i has exponential distribution, rate denoted  $v_i$ .
- Sequence of states visited,  $Y_0, Y_1, Y_2, ...$  is Markov chain transition matrix has  $P_{ii} = 0$ . Y sometimes called **skeleton**.
- Communicating classes defined for skeleton chain.
- Usually assume chain has 1 communicating class.
- Periodicity irrelevant because of continuity of exponential distribution.



### Basic results and examples

• Instantaneous transition rates from *i* to *j*:

$$q_{ij} = v_i \mathbf{P}_{ij}$$

• Kolmogorov backward equations:

$$\mathsf{P}'_{ij}(t) = \sum_{k \neq i} q_{ik} \mathsf{P}_{kj}(t) - v_i \mathsf{P}_{ij}(t)$$

Kolmogorov forward equations:

$$\mathsf{P}'_{ij}(t) = \sum_{k 
eq j} q_{kj} \mathsf{P}_{ik}(t) - v_i \mathsf{P}_{ij}(t)$$

• For strongly recurrent chains with a single communicating class:

$${\sf P}_{ij}(t) o \pi_j$$

• Stationary initial probabilities  $\pi_i$  satisfy:

$$v_j\pi_j=\sum_{k\neq j}q_{kj}\pi_k$$



#### More basic results

Transition probabilities given by

$$\mathbf{P}(t) = e^{\mathbf{R}t}$$

where R has entries

$$\mathbf{R}_{ij} = \begin{cases} q_{ij} & i \neq j \\ -v_i & i = j \end{cases}$$

Process is a Birth and Death process if

$$P_{ij} = 0 \text{ if } |i - j| > 1$$

• In this case we write  $\lambda_i$  for the instantaneous "birth" rate:

$$P(Y(t+h)=i+1|Y_t=i)=\lambda_i h+o(h)$$

and  $\mu_i$  for the instantaneous "death" rate:

$$P(Y(t + h) = i - 1 | Y_t = i) = \mu_i h + o(h)$$



#### More basic results

We have

$$q_{ij} = egin{cases} 0 & |i-j| > 1 \ \lambda_i & j=i+1 \ \mu_i & j=i-1 \end{cases}$$

- If all  $\mu_i = 0$  then process is a **pure birth** process.
- If all  $\lambda_i = 0$  a **pure death** process.
- Birth and Death process have stationary distribution

$$\pi_n = \frac{\lambda_0 \cdots \lambda_{n-1}}{\mu_1 \cdots \mu_n \left( 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_0 \cdots \lambda_{n-1}}{\mu_1 \cdots \mu_n} \right)}$$

• Necessary condition for existence of  $\pi$  is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_0 \cdots \lambda_{n-1}}{\mu_1 \cdots \mu_n} < \infty$$



## Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

• If X a Markov Chain with stationary transitions then

$$P(X(t+s) = k|X(0) = i)$$

$$= \sum_{j} P(X(t+s) = k, X(t) = j|X(0) = i)$$

$$= \sum_{j} P(X(t+s) = k|X(t) = j, X(0) = i)$$

$$\times P(X(t) = j|X(0) = i)$$

$$= \sum_{j} P(X(t+s) = k|X(t) = j)P(X(t) = j|X(0) = i)$$

$$= \sum_{j} P(X(s) = k|X(0) = j)P(X(t) = j|X(0) = i)$$

• This shows the Chapman-Kolmogorov equations:

$$P(t+s) = P(t)P(s) = P(s)P(t).$$



# Extending the Markov Property

- Now consider the chain starting from i and let  $T_i$  be the first t for which  $X(t) \neq i$ .
- Then  $T_i$  is a stopping time.
- Technically: for each t:

$$\{T_i \leq t\} \in \mathcal{H}_t$$

Then

$$P(T_i > t + s | T_i > s, X(0) = i) = P(T_i > t + s | X(u) = i; 0 \le u \le s)$$
  
=  $P(T_i > t | X(0) = i)$ 

by the Markov property.

 Note: we actually are asserting a generalization of the Markov property: If f is some function on the set of possible paths of X then

$$E(f(X(s+\cdot))|X(u) = x(u), 0 \le u \le s)$$

$$= E[f(X(\cdot))|X(0) = x(s)]$$

$$= E^{x(s)}[f(X(\cdot))]$$



# Extending the Markov Property

- The formula requires some sophistication to appreciate.
- In it, f is a function which associates a sample path of X with a real number.
- For instance,

$$f(x(\cdot)) = \sup\{t : x(u) = i, 0 \le u \le t\}$$

is such a functional.

- Jargon: **functional** is a function whose argument is itself a function and whose value is a scalar.
- FACT: Strong Markov Property for a stopping time T

$$E[f\{X(T+\cdot)\}|\mathcal{F}_T] = E^{X(T)}[f\{X(\cdot)\}]$$

with suitable fix on event  $T = \infty$ .

- Conclusion: given X(0) = i,  $T_i$  has memoryless property so  $T_i$  has an exponential distribution.
- Let  $v_i$  be the rate parameter.

#### Embedded Chain: Skeleton

- Let  $T_1 < T_2 < \cdots$  be the stopping times at which transitions occur.
- Then  $X_n = X(T_n)$ .
- Sequence  $X_n$  is a Markov chain by the strong Markov property.
- That  $P_{ii} = 0$  reflects fact that  $P(X(T_{n+1}) = X(T_n)) = 0$  by design.
- As before we say  $i \rightsquigarrow j$  if  $\mathbf{P}_{ij}(t) > 0$  for some t.
- It is fairly clear that  $i \rightsquigarrow j$  for the X(t) if and only if  $i \rightsquigarrow j$  for the embedded chain  $X_n$ .
- We say  $i \leftrightarrow j$  if  $i \leadsto j$  and  $j \leadsto i$ .



#### Instantaneous Transition Rates

Now consider

$$P(X(t+h)=j|X(t)=i,\mathcal{H}_t)$$

- Suppose the chain has made n transitions so far so that  $T_n < t < T_{n+1}$ .
- Then the event X(t + h) = j is, except for possibilities of probability o(h) the event that

$$t < T_{n+1} \le t + h \text{ and } X_{n+1} = j$$

The probability of this is

$$(v_i h + o(h))\mathbf{P}_{ij} = v_i \mathbf{P}_{ij} h + o(h)$$



## Kolmogorov's Equations

• The Chapman-Kolmogorov equations are

$$\mathbf{P}(t+h) = \mathbf{P}(t)\mathbf{P}(h)$$

- Subtract P(t) from both sides, divide by h and let  $h \to 0$ .
- Remember that **P**(0) is the identity.
- We find

$$\frac{\mathbf{P}(t+h)-\mathbf{P}(t)}{h}=\frac{\mathbf{P}(t)(\mathbf{P}(h)-\mathbf{P}(0))}{h}$$

which gives

$$\mathbf{P}'(t) = \mathbf{P}(t)\mathbf{P}'(0)$$

The Chapman-Kolmogorov equations can also be written

$$\mathbf{P}(t+h) = \mathbf{P}(h)\mathbf{P}(t)$$

• Now subtracting P(t) from both sides, dividing by h and letting  $h \to 0$  gives

$$\mathbf{P}'(t) = \mathbf{P}'(0)\mathbf{P}(t)$$



#### Instantaneous Transition Rates

• Look at these equations in component form:

$$\mathbf{P}'(t) = \mathbf{P}'(0)\mathbf{P}(t)$$

becomes

$$\mathbf{P}'_{ij}(t) = \sum_{k} \mathbf{P}'_{ik}(0) \mathbf{P}_{kj}(t)$$

• For  $i \neq k$  our calculations of instantaneous transition rates gives

$$\mathbf{P}'_{ik}(0) = v_i \mathbf{P}_{ik}$$

• For i = k we have

$$P(X(h) = i|X(0) = i) = e^{-v_i h} + o(h)$$

(X(h) = i either means  $T_i > h$  which has probability  $e^{-v_i h}$  or there have been two or more transitions in [0, h], a possibility of probability o(h).)

Thus

$$\mathbf{P}'_{ii}(0) = -v_i$$

### **Backward Equations**

Let R be the matrix with entries

$$\mathbf{R}_{ij} = \begin{cases} q_{ij} \equiv v_i \mathbf{P}_{ij} & i \neq j \\ -v_i & i = j \end{cases}$$

**R** is the **infinitesimal generator** of the chain.

Thus

$$\mathbf{P}'(t) = \mathbf{P}'(0)\mathbf{P}(t)$$

becomes

$$egin{align} \mathbf{P}_{ij}'(t) &= \sum_k \mathbf{R}_{ik} \mathbf{P}_{kj}(t) \ &= \sum_{k 
eq i} q_{ik} \mathbf{P}_{kj}(t) - v_i \mathbf{P}_{ij}(t) \end{split}$$

Called Kolmogorov's backward equations.



#### Forward equations

On the other hand

$$\mathbf{P}'(t) = \mathbf{P}(t)\mathbf{P}'(0)$$

becomes

$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{P}_{ij}'(t) &= \sum_k \mathbf{P}_{ik}(t) \mathbf{R}_{kj} \ &= \sum_{k 
eq j} q_{kj} \mathbf{P}_{ik}(t) - v_j \mathbf{P}_{ij}(t) \end{aligned}$$

- These are Kolmogorov's forward equations.
- Remark: When the state space is infinite the forward equations may not be justified.
- In deriving them we interchanged a limit with an infinite sum; the interchange is always justified for the backward equations but not forward.

# Example

- Example:  $S = \{0, 1\}$ .
- Then

$$\mathbf{P} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

and the chain is otherwise specified by  $v_0$  and  $v_1$ .

• The matrix R is

$$\mathbf{R} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} -v_0 & v_0 \\ v_1 & -v_1 \end{array} \right]$$



#### Example continued

The backward equations become

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}'_{00}(t) &= v_0 \mathbf{P}_{10}(t) - v_0 \mathbf{P}_{00}(t) \\ \mathbf{P}'_{01}(t) &= v_0 \mathbf{P}_{11}(t) - v_0 \mathbf{P}_{01}(t) \\ \mathbf{P}'_{10}(t) &= v_1 \mathbf{P}_{00}(t) - v_1 \mathbf{P}_{10}(t) \\ \mathbf{P}'_{11}(t) &= v_1 \mathbf{P}_{01}(t) - v_1 \mathbf{P}_{11}(t) \end{aligned}$$

while the forward equations are

$$\mathbf{P}'_{00}(t) = v_1 \mathbf{P}_{01}(t) - v_0 \mathbf{P}_{00}(t)$$
 $\mathbf{P}'_{01}(t) = v_0 \mathbf{P}_{00}(t) - v_1 \mathbf{P}_{01}(t)$ 
 $\mathbf{P}'_{10}(t) = v_1 \mathbf{P}_{11}(t) - v_0 \mathbf{P}_{10}(t)$ 
 $\mathbf{P}'_{11}(t) = v_0 \mathbf{P}_{10}(t) - v_1 \mathbf{P}_{11}(t)$ 



## Example

ullet Add  $v_1$  times first and  $v_0$  times third backward equations to get

$$v_1 \mathbf{P}'_{00}(t) + v_0 \mathbf{P}'_{10}(t) = 0$$
 so  $v_1 \mathbf{P}_{00}(t) + v_0 \mathbf{P}_{10}(t) = c$ .

- Put t = 0 to get  $c = v_1$ .
- This gives

$$\mathbf{P}_{10}(t) = \frac{v_1}{v_0} \left\{ 1 - \mathbf{P}_{00}(t) \right\}$$

Plug this back in to the first equation and get

$$\mathbf{P}_{00}'(t) = v_1 - (v_1 + v_0)\mathbf{P}_{00}(t)$$

• Multiply by  $e^{(v_1+v_0)t}$  and get

$$\left\{e^{(v_1+v_0)t}\mathbf{P}_{00}(t)\right\}'=v_1e^{(v_1+v_0)t}$$

which can be integrated to get

$$\mathbf{P}_{00}(t) = \frac{v_1}{v_0 + v_1} + \frac{v_0}{v_0 + v_1} e^{-(v_1 + v_0)t}$$



## Use of Linear Algebra

• Alternative calculation:

$$\mathbf{R} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} -v_0 & v_0 \\ v_1 & -v_1 \end{array} \right]$$

can be written as

$$M \Lambda M^{-1}$$

where

$$\mathbf{M} = \left[ egin{array}{ccc} 1 & v_0 \\ & & \\ 1 & -v_1 \end{array} 
ight] \quad \mathbf{M}^{-1} = \left[ egin{array}{ccc} rac{v_1}{v_0 + v_1} & rac{v_0}{v_0 + v_1} \\ rac{1}{v_0 + v_1} & rac{-1}{v_0 + v_1} \end{array} 
ight]$$

and

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = \left[ egin{array}{ccc} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -(v_0 + v_1) \end{array} 
ight]$$



## Matrix Exponentials

Then

$$e^{\mathbf{R}t} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{R}^n t^n / n! = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \mathbf{M} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{M}^{-1} \right)^n \frac{t^n}{n!} = \mathbf{M} \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{\Lambda}^n \frac{t^n}{n!} \right) \mathbf{M}^{-1}$$

Now

$$\sum_{0}^{\infty} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{n} \frac{t^{n}}{n!} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-(v_{0}+v_{1})t} \end{bmatrix}$$

so we get

$$\mathbf{P}(t) = e^{\mathbf{R}t} = \mathbf{M} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-(v_0 + v_1)t} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{M}^{-1}$$

$$= \mathbf{P}^{\infty} - \frac{e^{-(v_0 + v_1)t}}{v_0 + v_1} \mathbf{R}$$

where

$$\mathbf{P}^{\infty} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} \frac{v_1}{v_0 + v_1} & \frac{v_0}{v_0 + v_1} \\ \frac{v_1}{v_0 + v_1} & \frac{v_0}{v_0 + v_1} \end{array} \right]$$



# Linear Algebra

#### Theorem

If **A** is a  $n \times n$  matrix then there are matrices **D** and **N** such that

 $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{D} + \mathbf{N}$  and

**D** is diagonalizable:

$$D = M \Lambda M^{-1}$$

for some invertible M and diagonal  $\Lambda$ .

- **2 N** is **nilpotent**: there is  $r \le n$  such that  $\mathbf{N}^r = \mathbf{0}$ .
- **3** N and D commute: ND = DN.

In this case

$$\mathbf{A}^{k} = (\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{N})^{k}$$
$$= \sum_{j=0}^{k} {k \choose j} \mathbf{D}^{k-j} \mathbf{N}^{j}$$



#### More Matrix Exponentials

Thus

$$\begin{split} e^{\mathbf{A}} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{A}^k / k! = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{N})^k / k! \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{1}{(k-j)!j!} \mathbf{D}^{k-j} \mathbf{N}^j \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \frac{\mathbf{N}^j}{j!} \sum_{k=j}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{D}^{k-j}}{(k-j)!} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \frac{\mathbf{N}^j}{j!} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{D}^k}{k!} \\ &= e^{\mathbf{D}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \frac{\mathbf{N}^j}{j!} \end{split}$$



### Stationary Initial Distributions

• Notice: rows of  ${\bf P}^{\infty}$  are a stationary initial distribution. If rows are  $\pi$  then

$$\mathbf{P}^{\infty} = \left[ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 1 \end{array} \right] \pi \equiv \mathbf{1}\pi$$

SO

$$\pi \mathbf{P}^{\infty} = (\pi \mathbf{1})\pi = \pi$$

Moreover

$$\pi \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{0}$$

Fact:  $\pi_0 = v_1/(v_0 + v_1)$  is long run fraction of time in state 0.

Fact:

$$\frac{1}{T}\int_0^T f(X(t))dt \to \sum_j \pi_j f(j)$$

Ergodic Theorem in continuous time.



### Potential Pathologies

Suppose that for each k you have a sequence

$$T_{k,1}, T_{k,2}, \cdots$$

such that all  $T_{ij}$  are independent exponential random variables and  $T_{ij}$  has rate parameter  $\lambda_j$ . We can use these times to make a Markov chain with state space  $S = \{1, 2, ...\}$ :

Start the chain in state 1. At time  $T_{1,1}$  move to 2,  $T_{1,2}$  time units later move to 3, etc. Chain progresses through states in order 1,2,.... We have

$$v_i = \lambda_i$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & j \neq i+1 \\ 1 & j=i+1 \end{cases}$$

Does this define a process?



# Pathologies Continued

- Depends on  $\sum \lambda_i^{-1}$ .
- Case 1: if  $\sum \lambda_i^{-1} = \infty$  then

$$P(\sum_{1}^{\infty} T_{1,j} = \infty) = 1$$

(converse to Borel Cantelli) and our construction defines a process X(t) for all t.

• Case 2: if  $\sum \lambda_j^{-1} < \infty$  then for each k

$$P(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} T_{kj} < \infty) = 1$$

In this case put  $T_k = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} T_{kj}$ .

• Our definition above defines a process X(t) for  $0 \le t < T_1$ .



# Explosive paths

- We put  $X(T_1) = 1$  and then begin the process over with the set of holding times  $T_{2,j}$ .
- This defines X for  $T_1 \le t < T_1 + T_2$ .
- Again we put  $X(T_2) = 1$  and continue the process.
- Result: X is a Markov Chain with specified transition rates.



## Re-entry from Infinity

- Problem: what if we put  $X(T_1) = 2$  and continued?
- What if we used probability vector  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ...$  to pick a value for  $X(T_1)$  and continued?
- All yield Markov Processes with the same infinitesimal generator R.
- Point of all this: gives example of non-unique solution of differential equations!



#### Birth and Death Processes

- Consider a population of X(t) = i individuals.
- Suppose in next time interval (t, t + h) probability of population increase of 1 (called a birth) is  $\lambda_i h + o(h)$  and probability of decrease of 1 (death) is  $\mu_i h + o(h)$ .
- Jargon: X is a birth and death process.
- Special cases:
  - All  $\mu_i = 0$ ; called a **pure birth** process.
  - ▶ All  $\lambda_i = 0$  (0 is absorbing): **pure death** process.
  - $\lambda_n = n\lambda$  and  $\mu_n = n\mu$  is a **linear** birth and death process.
  - ▶  $\lambda_n \equiv 1$ ,  $\mu_n \equiv 0$ : Poisson Process.
  - ▶  $λ_n = nλ + θ$  and  $μ_n = nμ$  is a **linear** birth and death process with immigration.



# **Applications**

- Cable strength: Cable consists of *n* fibres.
- X(t) is number which have *not* failed up to time t.
- Pure death process:  $\mu_i$  will be large for small i, small for large i.
- ullet Chain reactions. X(t) is number of free neutrons in lump of uranium.
- Births produced as sum of: spontaneous fission rate (problem I think each fission produces 2 neutrons) plus rate of collision of neutron with nuclei.
- Ignore: neutrons leaving sample and decay of free neutrons.
- Get  $\lambda_n = n\lambda + \theta$
- At least in early stages where decay has removed a negligible fraction of atoms.

#### Stationary initial distributions

ullet As in discrete time an initial distribution is probability vector  $\pi$  with

$$P(X(0)=i)=\pi_i$$

• An initial distribution  $\pi$  is **stationary** if

$$\pi = \pi \mathbf{P}(t)$$

or

$$P(X(t)=i)=\pi_i$$

for all t > 0.

• If so take derivative wrt t to get

$$0=\pi \mathbf{P}'(t)$$

or

$$\pi \mathbf{R} = 0$$



## Stationary Initial Distributions

• Conversely: if

$$\pi \mathbf{R} = 0$$

then

$$\pi \mathbf{P}(t) = \pi e^{\mathbf{R}t}$$

$$= \pi \left( \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{R}t + \mathbf{R}^2 t^2 / 2 + \cdots \right)$$

$$= \pi$$

So a probability vector  $\pi$  such that

$$\pi \mathbf{R} = 0$$

is a stationary initial distribution.

- NOTE:  $\pi$  is a left eigenvector of  $\mathbf{P}(t)$ .
- Perron-Frobenius theorem asserts that 1 is the largest (in modulus) eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{P}(t)$ , that this eigenvalue has multiplicity 1, that the corresponding eigenvector has all positive entries.
- So: can prove every row of P(t) converges to  $\pi$ .

# Conditions for stationary initial distribution

- 2  $P_{n,n+1} = \lambda_n/v_n = 1 P_{n,n-1}$ .
- **3** From  $\pi \mathbf{R} = 0$ :

$$v_n \pi_n = \lambda_{n-1} \pi_{n-1} + \mu_{n+1} \pi_{n+1}$$

• Start at n = 0:

$$\lambda_0 \pi_0 = \mu_1 \pi_1$$

so  $\pi_1 = (\lambda_0/\mu_1)\pi_0$ .

**5** Now look at n = 1.

$$(\lambda_1 + \mu_1)\pi_1 = \lambda_0\pi_0 + \mu_2\pi_2$$

**6** Solve for  $\pi_2$  to get

$$\pi_2 = \frac{\lambda_0 \lambda_1}{\mu_1 \mu_2} \pi_0$$

And so on.

**1** Then use  $\sum \pi_n = 1$ .



## Stationary initial distribution of skeleton

- Relation of  $\pi$  to stationary initial distribution of skeleton chain.
- Let  $\alpha$  be stationary initial dist of skeleton.
- Heuristic: fraction of time in state j proportional to fraction of skeleton visits to state *j* times average time spent in state *j*:

$$\pi_j \propto \alpha_j \times (1/v_j)$$

