Continuous Time Markov Chains

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STAT 870 — Summer 2013



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 λh plus o(h).
 - ▶ Probability of death is μh 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 σ -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 $\mathbf{P}_{ii} = 0$. 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:

$${f P}_{ij}(t)
ightarrow \pi_j$$

• Stationary initial probabilities π_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 λ_i for the instantaneous "birth" rate:

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

and μ_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 π is

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



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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 $\mathbf{P}(t)$ 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

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

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

• Add v_1 times first and v_0 times third backward equations to get

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

- 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

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



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 Λ .

- **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

$$e^{\mathbf{A}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbf{A}^k / k! = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{N})^k / k!$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{1}{(k-j)! j!} \mathbf{D}^{k-j} \mathbf{N}^j$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \frac{\mathbf{N}^j}{j!} \sum_{k=j}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{D}^{k-j}}{(k-j)!}$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \frac{\mathbf{N}^j}{j!} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{D}^k}{k!}$$

$$= e^{\mathbf{D}} \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \frac{\mathbf{N}^j}{j!}$$



Stationary Initial Distributions

• Notice: rows of ${\bf P}^{\infty}$ are a stationary initial distribution. If rows are π 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 λ_j . We can use these times to make a Markov chain with state space $S = \{1, 2, \ldots\}$:

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 $1,2,\ldots$ 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 $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots$ 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: μ_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

 \bullet As in discrete time an initial distribution is probability vector π with

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

• An initial distribution π 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 π such that

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

is a stationary initial distribution.

- NOTE: π 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 π .

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.

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

o Solve for π_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 π to stationary initial distribution of skeleton chain.
- ullet Let α 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:

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

